

American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research (AJHSSR)

e-ISSN :2378-703X

Volume-6, Issue-4, pp-94-163

www.ajhssr.com

Research Paper

Open Access

Debate on Political Leadership, in the era of Digital Capitalism

José Rascão

Polytechnic Institute of Setúbal Graduate School of business sciences Campus of IPS
Estefanilha2900-053 Setúbal (Portugal)

ABSTRACT: In this article, the leadership of political formations is described in the era of Digital Capitalism. The history of political formations corresponds to the way in which collective spaces of action, between politicians and citizens of each country, geographical region or world political organization, which is the expression of a "we" resulting from the interactions and conflicts of the actors (politicians, political organizations, state and citizens). Knowledge and information are determining factors of social transformations, not only of their distribution in the social space, but also of collective agents possessing knowledge and information, with the support of information and communication technologies (ICT's).

This issue arises, as relevant due to the accelerated development of Information and Communication Technologies, and its dissemination among people, which is contributing to the globalization and development of the Knowledge Society in the digital age. We have new types of issues, especially about the relationship between action / technology / society. As we will argue, a new way of understanding the world, human beings and the relationship between them is coming up.

Keywords: Information, Knowledge, Political Leadership, Political Decision, Digital Capitalism.

1. SCIENTIFIC METHOD

Introduction

This is an exploratory study that seeks to clarify and organize the concepts about leadership, presented in the literature of philosophical sciences, political sciences, social sciences, information science and other sciences. It is not a proposal of new terms and concepts, but an organization that allows to identify a common denominator between the different concepts already indicated in the literature, in a way that allows its grouping by identity, application / use and pertinence / aggregation of value in the context, in which the terms are inserted. Data collection is characterized by bibliographical research, on terms and concepts related to areas, subareas, and disciplines.

It is a descriptive and analytical approach seeking to know and analyze existing cultural and/or scientific contributions on this subject, from the literature review. The research was structured based on the systemic approach to understanding the problems of postmodernity, seeking in practical, operational or application terms the solution of "real life" problems of organizations and people.

Theme and Search Problem

Politicians are people who spend much of their time collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and evaluating information from various backgrounds, nature and size. The relevant information is mixed with the irrelevant and the true and false information. The requirements for the time available for political decision-making appear to be higher than the time available. Decisions of great importance are mixed with trivial decisions. This diversity of decisions tends to increase with the level of responsibility and becomes particularly pronounced in the case of higher hierarchical rulers. The role of the Prime Minister or the President of the Government involves a very broad set of activities, analyses, decisions (including strategic ones), communication, leadership, motivation, evaluation, and control. From all these activities, we isolate that of political leadership, as it is the "cornerstone" of the top ruler(s).

Decisions and actions are the final product of the work of politicians, especially governments. Strategic decisions taken explicitly or implicitly precede any action, regardless of the process, by which they are taken, either by the formal hierarchy or by the broad participation of the intermediate level or by default. The process of political decision-making is complex, so it poses some problems for politicians, in terms of approach methodology, to choose the preferred policy, among the various alternatives.

The emergence of military strategy, an area always distinguished by the military, must not only allow others, particularly rival governments, to understand the capabilities and motivations to anticipate future behavior, but also as to the ignorance and idiosyncrasies underlying the myopia of their visions.

Questions for debate

1. Do politicians bet on knowledge and information as determining factors of social, economic, and political transformations in the age of digital capitalism?
2. Does the concept of Political Leadership help them in defining the Power Strategy?

Goals

Political Science studies everything related to political phenomena. It develops both in the theoretical and practical fields. The Social Sciences are responsible for the study of society and everything related to the behavior of the human being, at the individual and collective level.

However, the Political Sciences interrelate themselves with other sciences, which is very difficult to establish limits to their action. Many authors have dealt with this "problem", trying to delimit the area of action of it. This complexity is due to the fact that it is fueled by sciences such as law, economics, sociology or history.

This article seeks to contribute to the conceptual understanding of the importance of the meaning of the concept of political leadership, within the scope of political science, from a theoretical framework. The objective is to analyze the scientific research developed by the Sciences, which participate in more than one area of knowledge. The theoretical discussion of the concept and empirical research on the subareas or disciplines constitute the basis for the tracing of its structure, presented at the end, bringing together the disciplines according to their nature.

The research focused on leadership, focusing especially on its nature and characteristics, from the analysis of its praxis in investigations involving participation in more than one discipline. Therefore, we studied the main forms of interaction between the disciplines currently present in scientific practices, as well as, we sought to contextualize the area of Political Science, in the context of contemporary science, through the analysis of its epistemological characteristics.

Methodological Approach

As for the nature of the work, it is qualitative, since it does not claim to quantify anything, nor does it favor statistical study. The theoretical framework of this work was constructed through a literature review. This is a method of scientific research used to assist in the identification of the relevant literature on policy definition models, with the objective of analyzing the main sources used in the definition of political alternatives, through the literature review, in view of the Digital Age.

They have identified the different schools of political science, as well as the guidelines for the development of political alternatives, those related to knowledge and information, such as political information, weak and strong signals, alerts, surveillance of political information, as well as the functions of governors, responsibilities, national and international resources available.

The complexity and turbulence of the digital society have led to the globalization of information as essential processes for the development and innovation of science and technology. Information is the source of the energy that drives the "engines" of the Digital Society, but to use it we need to convert it into a usable form: knowledge (Murteira, 2001).

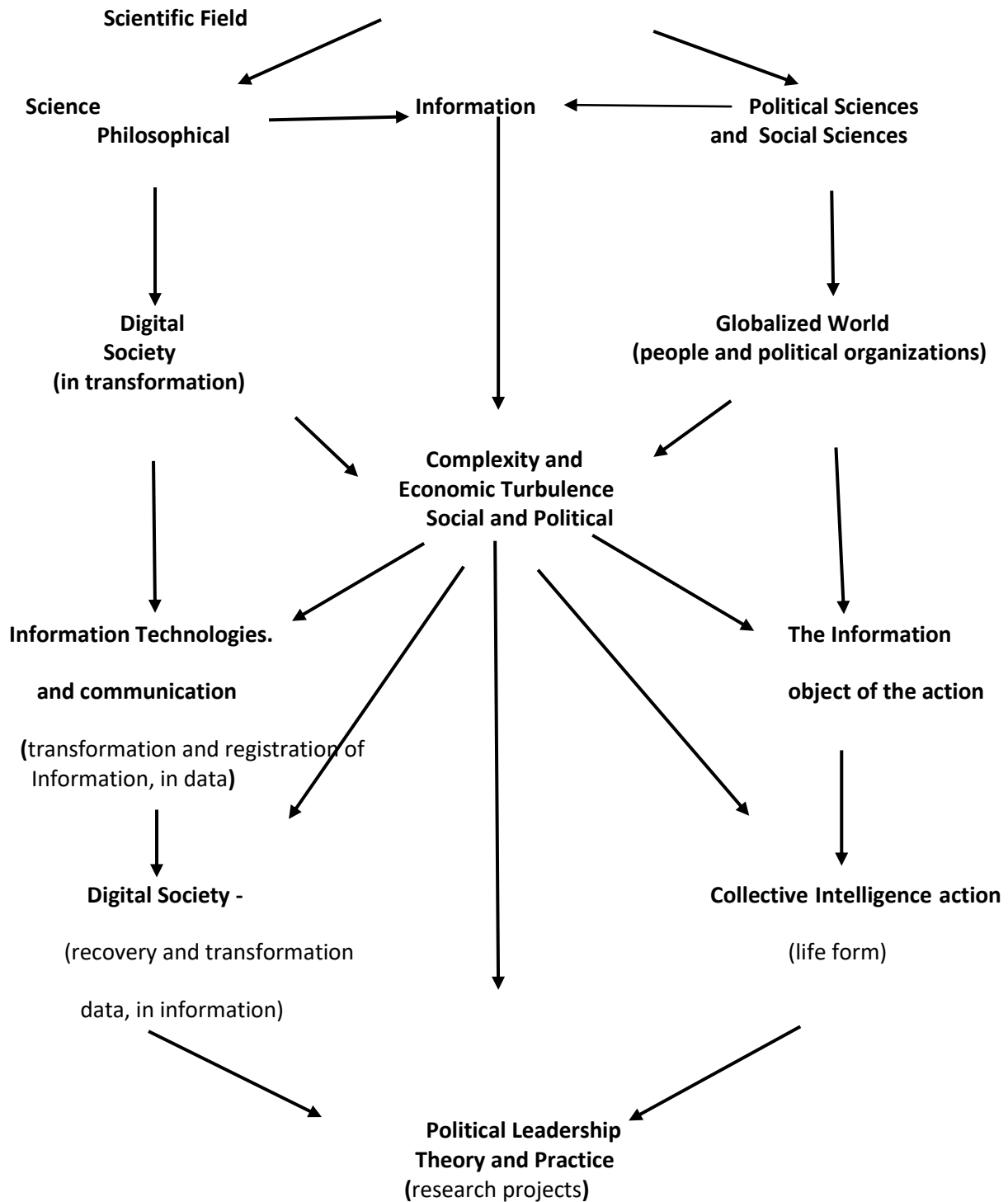
The digital society is a complex society of technological innovation and communication, in which there is the creation of new environments and changes in the dynamics of people, in the way people understand reality, changing the way, how they relate to the environment, to other people and, as they conceive themselves in the face of their own reality. Both senses can be understood, because of the informational revolution, promoted mainly from the attempts to understand human intelligence, via computational bases. Therefore, the premodern notion of information, such as *in-forma-tion* that shapes or shapes the human mind, is gradually being replaced by information as a "data structure" (Boland, 1987) representing intangible realities too great to be experienced directly by people's sense.

The research method is likely to cause two or more sciences to interact with each other. This interaction can go from simple communication of ideas to the mutual integration of concepts, epistemology, terminology, methodology, procedures, data, and research organization. This is an exploratory study that seeks to clarify and organize the concepts presented in the literature of philosophical sciences, political sciences, information sciences, business sciences, among others.

It is necessary to understand, through a theoretical review of the concepts, through the historical reference documents; of a psychosocial analysis of the concepts of Information, Knowledge, Communication, Learning, Leadership, applied to Political Sciences and Social Sciences; the normative framework in which they fall; the Internet, as a platform for the exercise of human action and the problems associated with it; digital data, citizen surveillance; social engineering of Power; online social networks and spaces of trust and conflict.

It is a descriptive and analytical approach seeking to know and analyze existing cultural and/or scientific contributions on these aspects, from the review of existing literature. The research was structured based on the systemic approach, to understand the problems of Information, Knowledge, Communication, Learning and Leadership, in this Complex and Turbulent Society. We represent this conceptual network, as follows:

Figure 1 - Model of Political Leadership in the Digital Age
 Figure 1 - Model of Political Leadership in the Digital Age



Source: author elaboration

It presents the model of approach for intervention in information actions, in the academic space, with the purpose of producing and sharing information and knowledge, among the participants, in addition to promoting the development of search skills, recovery, organization, appropriation, production and dissemination of information relevant to scientific researchers, politicians and other interest groups, in society.

2. THEORETICAL-METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

Philosophy is the basis of all sciences (however, doing philosophy and doing science are distinctive acts). The study of philosophy is complementary to all other areas. The difficulty with the concepts ontology and epistemology is since they are abstract and confused, because they are related to each other, especially in the case of scientific research. Ontology is the study/essence of being. You can understand these concepts.

- What is reality? What defines reality? Does reality exist? Is it attainable?
- What is epistemology and ontology?
- What's the speech?

These concepts are important to guide and lead the scientific path. And they are related to objectives, methods, data analysis, among others. If the ontological assumptions (regarding the essence of the object of study) of the researcher are directed to the following view: "Reality refers to facts that are waiting to be discovered."

So it is possible that the researcher/scientist will feel more comfortable doing an experiment to investigate facts and perhaps prove them if so can be said. It is a view that many believe to be more "objective" in science. We would say: positivist. In order not to be so critical, we would perhaps say that it is a research model very present in the exact sciences, although in the human sciences there is influence of this model. It is a structuralist, formalist, modern ontological view (as opposed to what Giddens calls late modernity) ...

However, if the researcher's ontological positioning/vision is: "Reality is... ephemeral, liquid and can only be thought of from someone's referential/something."

So, the ontological view of the researcher/scientist is more functionalist, post-structuralist, (as opposed to the concept of modernity) and perhaps his path, towards making science, is in relation to an object of study, whose meaning is constructed and not ready, static and given. On the other hand, due to the challenges faced in research, in the definition of the object of study, epistemology stands for the means necessary to understand the essence of being, ontology. Epistemology means a study of knowledge. It can be understood by asking the following questions:

- What is reality? (ontology)
- How can I know reality and interpret it? (epistemology)
- If reality exists, how can I know it? (epistemology)

Both ontological and epistemological bases of a research must be in tune; they will somehow affect the results that will be found. If the epistemological view of the researcher is: "My senses help me understand the objective world". This is a vision that will lead you to a more empiric path, which will make you use data ready for research, work perhaps with proofs ...

However, if the scientist shares this epistemological view: "Can I trust my senses?" This means that knowledge is subjective. The scientist is a constructivist, which may direct him to Critical Discourse Analysis (ADC), to studies of issues related to Social Interactions and the construction of knowledge. Anyway, in this view, it is only possible to approach an aspect of reality on a theme / research and theory(s) / author(s) used. The research, in this case, is a clipping of the reality that the researcher made.

Both these ontological and epistemological assumptions are related to quantitative research (more traditional, more concerned with reality, objectivity and impersonality in the text) and qualitative research (more critical, discursive, whose view of "reality" depends on the reference and a construction process, which understands reality as ephemeral – because everything is constantly changing, subjective, researcher-centered – who can write in the first person to assume his research voice, as well as the angle – or the angles under which the research will be observed).

Considering philosophical doing, such as the art of interpreting reality from the formulation of conceptual schemes about the human being, nature and society, can Philosophy face the problems that arise from the new organizational dynamics of society today? We understand that philosophy alone, without interdisciplinary tools of analysis, does not seem able to face, perhaps even formulating, the problems raised by Information and Communication Technologies (ICT's).

What is Information?

The answer to the question what information is, is not unique, (Capurro; Hjørland, 2003). There are many possible answers, depending on who responds. Also, associated with the question What is information? there are others, such as: What is the meaning of informational content? What is Information Science? What's the information for? What is information science for? (Capurro, 1991). Thus, it should be careful that the discussion of the concept of information, together with the identification of the need for interpretation of information – or the informational content – does not lead to a confusion between what information is, what is the meaning of information and what is the role of IC.

Answering, or at least analyzing, the questions cited is a recurring theme in Capurro's work, which states: "The question: what is information for?" leads to the question: what is IC for?', since ic, conceived as a hermeneutic-rhetorical discipline, studies the pragmatic contextual dimensions, in which knowledge is shared positively, as information and negatively, misinformation, *particularly through* technological forms of communication. These are not only instruments, but "ways of being", an English expression: "*way of being*" (Winograd; Flowers 1986 in: Capurro 1991).

Capurro cites a classic definition of IC as a professional and research area by (Borko, 1968) at a time when *the American Documentation Institute* had recently changed its name to *the American Society for Information Science* (ASIS (now called *the American Society for Information Science and Technology - ASIS&T*), which is: "A classic definition of IC, says that this science is object ed in the production, selection, organization, interpretation, storage, recovery, dissemination, transformation and use of information. (Borko, 1968, p. 3 in: Griffith, 1980 in: Capurro, 2003).

Despite being a widely cited and accepted definition in the area, there is a problem that there is no consensus on the meaning of the term information. The author cites a work written in the 1980s in which 134 (one hundred and thirty-four) indications of information were identified, only considering the uses in IC (Schrader, 1986, p. 179 in: Capurro, 1991, p. 2). Later,

Capurro recites a work by Schrader, this time mentioning 700 definitions found in the period between 1900 and 1981 (Schrader, 1983, p. 99 in: Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 349).

Briefly, the term information does not respect the limits of the areas of knowledge and does not find consensus on what its definition should be, which varies from one area of knowledge to another and in relation to different contexts. As a philosopher, Capurro uses to identify the concept of information, the study of the historical roots of the term, going back to the uses in ancient Greece. This appears in at least four works by the author, published over a period of almost three decades (1978; 1991; 2003; Capurro; Hjørland, 2003).

(Capurro, 1978), did an investigation of the etymological roots of the term information and states that he rediscovered that the key theories of Greek ontology and epistemology, based on the *concepts of typos, idéa and morphé*, were at the origin of the Latin term *informatio*. Such connotations were maintained through the Middle Ages, but disappeared when scholastic ontology was replaced by modern science. Since the 16th century there is *the term information* in the everyday languages of French, English, Spanish and Italian, with the meaning we use today: 'instruct, provide knowledge', and the ontological meaning of 'swearing to something' has become more and more obsolete.

A more recent literature review on the term information, Capurro and Hjørland recognize problems in the historical approach to the definition of the term information, more specifically the following: the etymological study of a word can lead to anecdotal conclusions, which only concern the meaning of the word; the use of the term information became more popular from the 1950s, which would minimize the importance of previous uses; from a quote by Charles Sanders Peirce, the authors state that the meaning of a term is defined not only by the past, but also by the future (Peirce in: Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 343; 344; 346).

Despite their own reservations, the authors justify the etymological studies, implicitly highlighting the importance of the first philosophical texts, as fundamental to modern culture: "Examining the history of the uses of a word, there are some of the primitive forms or contexts that underpin higher-level scientific practices. This reduces our expectations of higher-level univocal concepts and helps us better manage inaccuracy and ambiguity. Questioning modern terminology, looking more closely at the relationships between signs, meaning, references and paying attention to the transformations of historical contexts, helps us understand how the present and future uses of words are intertwined. [...] Such a critical-historical review makes possible a better understanding of the concepts of higher-level information in the Hellenistic period, as well as in the Middle Ages and modern times." (Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 351).

Capurro and Hjørland present different concepts associated with the term information, highlighting the following aspects: roots of the term, in Latin and Greek; modern and postmodern uses; the concept of information in the natural sciences, humanities and social sciences; information in CI (2003). The fundamental separation between the various concepts may come from the distinction between the information seen, as a thing or object (for example, in the case of bits and the mathematical theory of communication, of (Shannon, 1948)) and the information understood, as a subjective concept, who's meaning, or informational content, depends on interpretation and context (Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 345; 396-397). In this case, the context involves the area of knowledge, interests, training and capacities of the subjects involved.

The relationship between IC and communication, as areas of knowledge, is a topic of interest to other researchers (Shannon, Weaver, 1949; Le Coadic, 1997, p. 10; Saracevic, 1996, p. 52). The importance of the post-World War II period is also highlighted, when the IC (2003, p. 343) emerged in the relationship with other disciplines, such as *cybernetics and modern computing*, since it has an interdisciplinary character that can serve both the IC and the other social and human sciences, provided that the peculiarities of the release mechanism.

From a humanist perspective, Capurro and Hjørland comment that such a definition may seem, at first glance, reductionist, mechanistic and unethical. However, they consider that this is not the case, but rather that the definition of Karpatschof allows to remove the focus of the question: What is information? and transfer it to the analysis of the release mechanisms. In the case of social sciences and IC, liberation mechanisms are people who interact through signals, and such signals are associated with messages and information. Thus, the study of information would not dispense with the study of semantic meaning for humans and subjectivity, since such characteristics are implicit in the mechanisms of liberation.

From karpatschof's definition of information, it is also possible to identify elements of the message theory (*angeletic*) (Capurro, 2000; 2003). Other release mechanisms would be technological information systems and living organisms in general. In a synthetic way, it is possible to affirm that for Capurro and Hjørland, before the definition of information, it should be clarified and based on the role and nature of theories in IC, paying greater attention to concepts such as signs, texts and knowledge, also considering the use of the term information in the areas of information retrieval research, information systems and information services, for example, without forgetting that information is what is informative for a given person, which is conditioned by the community to which the person belongs, their individual abilities and their interpretive needs (Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 346; 350). In summary, the author does not create or choose an assertive definition of information but seeks to discuss aspects that should be considered in IC studies, such as the content of the information and its social impact. The alternative way he sought to elaborate such a discussion, was through, the theory of the message.

What is the Message?

Capurro experiences over time a passage from hermeneutics to *angeletics* (Matheus; Capurro, 2005) – the theory of the message (Capurro, 2000; 2003B; 2003). With such a passage, his argument shifts from the term information, to the term message. Capurro's *angeletics* have similarities and differences with the mediology of (Debray, 1999), as the author himself comments. According to his understanding, there is also an intimate relationship between the message of *angeletics* (sign) and the interpretation of information (sign). Capurro himself comments on information and message, and states that: "Message and information are related but not identical concepts: - a message dependent on the sender, that is, it is based on a fallomic and asymmetric structure. This is not the case with information: we receive a message, but we request information, a message is supposed to bring something new and/or relevant to the receiver. This is also the case of information, - a message can be encoded and transmitted through different means or messengers. This is also the case with information, - the message

is a speech that triggers the selection by the receiver, through a mechanism of release or interpretation." (Capurro, 2003c, p. 3).

Capurro thus points out that the message needs to be interpreted, without commenting on the information. However, the information is indirectly remembered by quotation to the mechanisms of release, which lead to the definition of information of (Karpatschof, 2000, p. 131-132 in: Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 375). The association between liberation mechanisms and interpretation, as selection of semantic meaning, refers again to the proposition of hermeneutics, as an epistemological basis for IC (Capurro, 1991). Put another way unless registered representation is considered to be information. This always needs, according to the author, a subjective interpretation. As for the first topic, if information is requested, it should be sent as a message. The reception and interpretation, as information, is later. Of course, there are differences between a voluntary request and an involuntary reception, but the author's understanding is that this is not an essential difference between message and information. The essential relationship may be that, in any process involving the communication of information, there is always a message (sign with meaning) that is issued, whether it has been requested or not, but different possibilities for such a message to be received and interpreted, as information (sign).

Capurro himself mentions this question when he says, quoting (Luhmann, 1996 in: Capurro, 2003C, p. 3) that: "[...] we differentiate between message ('*Mitteilung*'), that is, the action of offering something (potentially) significant to the social system ('*Sinnangebot*') and information ('*Information*'), that is, the process of selecting a meaning from different possibilities offered by the message, and also understanding ('*Verstehen*'), that is, the integration of the selected meaning with the system, such as the three dimensions of communication in a social system." (Capurro, 2003C, p. 3) mentions that the nature of a message may be imperative, indicative, or optional. On the conditions of the broadcast-transmission-reception process and the (in) determinism of the *angeletic process of message exchange*, he states, indicating some principles, that could be called, according to the author's understanding, ethical principles of the *angelic process*, which: "[...] neither the sender, nor the messenger, nor the receiver have any kind of certainty that their actions will meet the ideal situation that is configured as: - an emitter addresses a receiver, sending him a message that is new and relevant to him, that is, he follows the principle of respect, - a messenger brings the message without distortions to the receiver, that is, it follows the principle of trust, - a receiver reserves the right of judgment, based on the principle of interpretation, on whether the message is true or not, that is, it follows the principle of reservation". (Capurro, 2003C, p. 4) indicates that *angelethics allows studying the freedom to name the dimensions of the message*, which are as follows: form; content; objective; producer(es); receiver(s). Specifically on the objective dimension of the message, it supports the theory of (VilemFlusser, 1996 in: Capurro, 2003C, p. 4), which supposes two possible objectives in the communication process: dialogical objective – to generate new information; discursive objective - in order to distribute information.

Capurro calls the society of the 19th century. XXI, as the message society. It does not make an explicit opposition to the knowledge society or information society, but such an analogy is one of the consequences. According to Capurro (Matheus; Capurro, 2005), the messaging society is characterized by the new decentralized media, especially the global digital networks that allow the interaction of many to many (e.g. Internet), as opposed to the previously available centralized and regulated mass media, and also to the one-to-one communication (e.g. telephone). Such networks have political, social and economic impacts on the message society. This analysis brings society closer to the message of networked society (Manuel Castells, 2005).

About the society of the message, (Capurro, 2003, p. 4) states that the following "social aspects of the *angelic process*" should be considered: "origin, purpose, and content of messages, power structures, techniques and means of dissemination, history of messages and messengers, codification and interpretation of messages, as well as psychological, political, economic, aesthetic, ethical and religious aspects". In relation to messages in today's society, Capurro refers to media nihilism (Sloterdijk, 1997 in: Capurro, 2000, p. 2) by Peter Sloterdijk and also to the words of Marshall McLuhan, who say that the medium is the message (Capurro, 2000, p. 2). An interpretation from Capurro, in relation to these comments, it is possible to say, that much is said, without saying anything, or even that much is transmitted, but little is received. These issues have a strong impact on the analysis of *angelethics* in society, the role of *mass* media and the possible transformation of this role into the internet.

Capurro also suggests that *angelethics* could be applied to non-human biological processes. It suggests the existence of a postal paradigm, according to which biological structures of a lower level, in terms of biological evolution and DNA, receive the message, but do not have the same degree of freedom, or selection capacity, that the human being, even a baby, has according to their epistemological and pragmatic capacity, paraphrasing Heidegger's existential hermeneutics (Capurro, 2003C, p. 5-8). In this case, considering the double meaning for the *Latin term informatio*, how to shape matter and shape the mind, the simplest biological structures approach the first and the human being of the second. When talking about languages and codes, Capurro (2003C, p. 4) states that "[...] in order to select or interpret a message the receiver must have some common type of pre-understanding, in relation to the sender of the message, for example a common format or a (linguistic) code." (Capurro, 2003C, p. 2; 3).

Interestingly, this question recalls the mathematical theory of communication, (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, p. 5), especially the chapter written for the 1949 version, in which Weaver recalls that if the communication system between sender and receiver has only two symbols, such as '0' or '1', for example, it can be agreed that '0' means the content of king james' bible version, while '1' means JUST YES. Thus, upon receiving the 0 signal, the receiver will consider the contents of the bible. Such elements may offer support for a theory oriented to the practice of IC research, going beyond the philosophical and epistemological analysis of the area. At this point a question arises: Why would Capurro have chosen to elaborate a theory of the message (*angeletic*) and not a theory of information? One possible answer is the difficulty of defining the concept associated with the term information rigorously, especially considering the difficulties pointed out by the CapurroTrilema (Capurro; Fleissner; Hofkirchner, 1999).

Either way, the naming change has at least two interesting implications. The first is the possible analogy of *angelethics*, as a theory of message, with the mathematical theory of communication (Shannon, 1948). The biggest difference between

theories is *that angeletics* seeks to broadly address all problems involving human messages, while the mathematical theory of communication would exclude semantic and pragmatic aspects of message analysis. Moreover, the mathematical theory of communication mentions the transmission of information, which (Capurro, 2003B, p. 2) ignores the fact that all information, from the perspective of the human being, requires a process of interpretation. According to this concept, only messages could be transmitted, but not information.

However, the semantic and pragmatic aspects are present in the chapter written by Weaver (Shannon; Weaver, 1949), although such an approach has not been sufficiently developed to date. The second implication is to question whether the change from the term information to the term message can have the effect of driving away the interest of IC researchers, by capurro's approach, even if the problem and the interests treated are the same or similar. Put another way, what attracts the IC researcher are the problems related to information, the historical origins of the area, information and communication technologies, the causes and economic consequences of the flow of information in contemporary society, or is it just the word information? Both implications, although speculative, bring *angeletics* closer to both IC and other sciences, as indicated by the grouping of several disciplines that have information as an object of study. (Machlup; Mansfield, 1983).

Finally, the approach offered by *angeletics* is more independent of direct recourse to philosophical support, which does not occur in the case of the hermeneutic approach, without, however, abandoning it entirely. This makes *angeletics* simpler and easier to understand in relation to an applied area such as IC, besides providing a direct analysis of issues pertinent to society, such as economic implications related to information distribution, information exclusion and the Internet. In other words, *angeletics* would approach a theory applicable to research in IC, while hermeneutics would promote a philosophical approach to the area.

What is Knowledge?

Regarding the nature of knowledge, the theories of knowledge stand out, from which it is analyzed through the relationship between cognitive and the world. For (Dretske, 1981, p. 56), information processors of the sensory systems of organisms, are channels for the reception of information about the external world.

The naturalistic posture in Philosophy consists of disregarding the supernatural in the explanation of nature and mind, conceiving reality consisting only of natural elements and laws, which are explained through scientific methods. The term "natural" would encompass other terms such as "physical", "biological" or "informational" that express a rejection of transcendent assumptions in the foundation of a priori knowledge (Moraes, 2014), the acquisition of knowledge. (Adams, 2010), in turn, argues that knowledge acquires its properties from its informational basis. In this relationship, knowledge is about the world, about truth, constituting the bridge between the cognitive agent and the world.

In addition to the problems about the ontological and epistemological nature of information, and the nature of knowledge, the following questions are part of the IF's research agenda: "what is the meaning?", "what is the relationship between mental states and informational states?", "could reality be reduced to informational terms?", "can information support an ethical theory?", among others. Presented the topics (problems) and theories (hypotheses and explanations) of the IF, we highlight two methods specific to this area of investigation: the "synthetic method of analysis" and the "levels of abstraction".

Such methods come from the influence of the works of (Turing, 1950), on Philosophy (marked by the informational turn). The "synthetic method of analysis" is the result of the hypothesis of (Turing, 1950), according to which the study of the mind is appropriate, when performed from the use of mechanical functions that could be manipulated by digital computers (Gonzalez, 2005; Floridi, 2012). Through such functions it would be possible to construct mechanical models of the structure and dynamics of intelligent thinking. The understanding that underlies this conception is that the ability to manipulate information in a mechanical way constitutes thinking.

This understanding allowed the development of mechanical models of the mind, which initially generated two aspects in Cognitive Science (Teixeira, 1998): strong Artificial Intelligence, which defends the thesis according to which the mechanical models of the mind, when successful, not only simulate / emulate mental activities, but explain and instantiate such activities; and weak Artificial Intelligence, according to which the model is only a limited explanatory tool of intelligent mental activity. The common point of such a point is that both accept the thesis that to simulate is to explain, in order to attribute to mechanical models, the value of theories. This is an example of an approach to another question specific to THE: what is the relationship between information and intelligent thinking?

The "levels of abstraction", in turn, stem from the algorithmic approach of (Turing, 1950), which is summation by (Floridi, 2013b, p. 210) as follows: we have seen that questions and answers never occur in a vacuum, but are always incorporated into a network of other questions and answers. Similarly, they cannot occur in any context, without any purpose, or regardless of any perspective. From this perspective, a philosophical question is analyzed considering its context and purpose, which delimit the field of possibilities of appropriate answers.

(Adams & Moraes, 2014), considering the topics, theories, and methods of the IF, propose the "analogy argument" to analyze the autonomous aspect of THE. These authors highlight that, like the Philosophy of Mathematics and the Philosophy of Biology, IF has characteristics such as:

- Proximity to the scientific approach, epistemological and metaphysical problems, in addition to the presence of their own problems not previously addressed in other areas of Philosophy. Given that the IF shares characteristics present in areas already recognized by philosophical society, as legitimate, it would be counterintuitive not to accept THE, as an autonomous area of research in Philosophy.

As indicated, the development of information studies in the philosophical-scientific sphere contributed to the constitution of the IF in the academic sphere. This is illustrated with the constitution of the IF, as an autonomous and interdisciplinary area of Philosophy: interdisciplinary due to its relationship with Computing, Sociology, Engineering, among other areas, generating methods and theories to deal with its problems; and autonomous, due to their own (and new) problems. With the academic development of THE, the influence on the social sphere also stands out.

The understanding of the historical evolution of scientific knowledge from the analysis of research and researchers is an important theme for the history of science and for the philosophy of science. As an interdisciplinary area, the history of Information Science (IC) has suffered and is influenced by the history of other areas of scientific knowledge.

(Capurro, 2003), describes the historical roots as: "IC has two roots: one is classical librarian or, more generally, the study of problems related to the transmission of messages, the other being digital computing". The author also highlights the possibility of drawing a line of evolution from specialized library studies to documentation and, finally, to IC, both in the United States and in Europe (Williams, 1998; Rayward, 1998 in: Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 378).

The change of nomenclature would have occurred under the influence of new technologies, especially computing and cybernetics, and also due to the mathematical theory of communication (Shannon, 1948; Shannon, Weaver, 1949), now known as the theory of information, and the cognitive paradigm of the brain, as a processor of information. (Capurro; Hjørland, 2003, p. 379; Capurro, 1991).

As the historical roots of IC have not limited its scope to internally developed studies in the area, the change in nomenclature has been accompanied by the gradual expansion of the themes of interest, as confirmed by Capurro's analysis of the epistemological paradigms of IC, that is, physical, cognitive and social. (Capurro, 2003).

Information and/or Knowledge?

Although terms information and knowledge are used very often are not the same. Information is not the same thing as data, although the two words are often confounded, so it is understood that the subtle distinction between these concepts is essential. The data do not convey meaning or meaning of the facts, images or sounds, since they lack relational elements indispensable to the establishment of a complete meaning, lacking an internal relational structure for a cognitive purpose. This structure is one of the attributes of information. Data becomes information when its creator joins meaning (Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

William G. Zikmund (2000, p.19) defines knowledge as "the mixture of information, experience and understanding that provide a structure that can be applied in the evaluation of new information or new situations". Information "feeds" knowledge. Knowledge can thus be defined as a person's ability to relate complex structures of information to a new context. New contexts imply change - action and dynamism. Knowledge can be shared if the possessor wants to share it. When a person internalizes the information to the point of being able to use it, we call it knowledge (Zikmund, 2000). This is a fluid mix of experiences, values, contextual information and expert discernment, structured that provide a structure to evaluate and incorporate new experiences and information.

In organizations it is found not only in documents and reports, but also in routines of organization, processes, practices, and standards. Knowledge originates and is applied in the minds of connoisseurs (Davenport and Prusak, 1998, William Zikmund, 2000). Knowledge is information as valid and accepted, integrating data, acts, information and sometimes hypotheses. Knowledge requires someone to filter, combine and interpret information. The information may be regarded as a "substance" capable of being acquired, stored and possessed by a person or a group and transmitted from person to person or group to group. Information has a certain stability and perhaps is better seen as existing at the level of society (Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

Although we can store it using various physical media, the information itself is not physical, but abstract and so little purely mental. Knowledge is stored in people's memories, but information is out there in the world. Whatever it is exists somewhere between the physical world around people and the mental of human thought. Knowledge = Internalized information + ability to use it in new situations. Knowledge is fundamentally and intrinsically within people. These sagos are much more complex and unpredictable at the individual level than an entire society, so it is not surprising that knowledge is much more difficult to obtain than information.

Knowledge exists mainly within people, is an integral part of complexity and 1 Zikmund, William G., (2000), Business Research Methods sixth Edition, Dryden Press Harcourt College Publishers 4 human unpredictability (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). Knowledge presents a fundamental duality: it is something store able (at least sometimes we intend to do it) and something that flows (something that communicates from person to person). It is possibly the duality of knowledge (thing that flows and storage process) that hinders its treatment and management. According to Dahlberg (2006) knowledge is organized into units of knowledge (concepts) according to their characteristics (objects / subjects / subjects). The organization of knowledge is related to a process of conceptual analysis of a domain of knowledge and from there it is structured / architected generating a representation of knowledge about such domain that will be used for the organization of information about that domain of knowledge.

Knowledge and / or Wisdom?

Information is not the same thing as data, although the two terms are often confused, so it is understood that the subtle distinction between these concepts is essential. Data do not carry meaning or meaning of facts, images or sounds, as they lack relational elements indispensable to the establishment of a complete meaning, lacking an internal relational structure for a cognitive purpose.

This structure is one of the attributes of information. Data becomes information when its creator adds meaning to it (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). (William G. Zikmund, 2000, p.19) defines knowledge as "the mixture of information, experience and understanding that provides a structure that can be applied in the evaluation of new information or new situations". Information "feeds" knowledge. Knowledge can thus be defined as a person's ability to relate complex information structures to a new context.

New contexts imply change, action and dynamism. Knowledge cannot be shared, although technique and information components can be shared. When a person internalizes information to the point of being able to use it, we call it knowledge (Zikmund, 2000). This is a fluid mix of experiences, values, contextual information and expert judgment, structured to provide a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. In organizations it is found not only in documents and reports, but also in organizational routines, processes, practices and standards.

Knowledge originates and is applied in the minds of knowers (Davenport and Prusak, 1998), (William Zikmund, 2000). Knowledge is information as valid and accepted, integrating data, acts, information and sometimes hypotheses. Knowledge requires someone to filter, combine and interpret information. Information can be considered as a “substance” capable of being acquired, stored and possessed by a person or a group and transmitted from person to person or from group to group. Information has a certain stability and is perhaps best seen as existing at the societal level (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). Although we can store it using various physical supports, the information itself is not physical, but abstract and not purely mental. Knowledge is stored in people's memory, but information is out there in the world. Whatever exists somewhere between the physical world around people and the mental world of human thought.

Knowledge = Internalized information + ability to use it in new situations.

Knowledge lies fundamentally and intrinsically within people. These are more complex and unpredictable at the individual level than an entire society, so it is not surprising that knowledge is much more difficult to obtain than information. Knowledge exists mainly within people; it is an integral part of human complexity and unpredictability.

Knowledge presents a fundamental duality: it is something that can be stored (at least sometimes we intend to do so) and something that flows (something that is communicated from person to person). It is possibly the duality of knowledge (thing that flows and storage process) that makes its treatment and management difficult. According to (Dahlberg, 2006) knowledge is organized into knowledge units (concepts) according to their characteristics (objects / subjects / subjects). Knowledge organization is related to a process of conceptual analysis of a knowledge domain and from there, it is structured / architected, generating a representation of knowledge about that domain that will be used for the organization of information about that knowledge domain.

Knowledge presents a fundamental duality: it is something that can be stored (at least sometimes we intend to do so) and something that flows (something that is communicated from person to person). It is possibly the duality of knowledge (thing that flows and storage process) that makes its treatment and management difficult. According to (Dahlberg, 2006) knowledge is organized into knowledge units (concepts) according to their characteristics (objects / subjects / subjects). Knowledge organization is related to a process of conceptual analysis of a knowledge domain and from there, it is structured / architected, generating a representation of knowledge about that domain that will be used for the organization of information about that knowledge

Matrix - 1 Data Information Knowledge.

Data	Information	Knowledge
Simple observations on the state of the world: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • easily structured. • easily obtained by machines. • often quantified. • easily transferable 	Data with relevance and purpose: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • requires unit of analysis. • requires consensus on meaning. • necessarily requires human mediation. 	Valuable information from the human mind. Includes reflection, synthesis, context. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • difficult to structure. • difficult to catch on machines. • oftentact. • difficult to transfer.

Source: (Davenport, 1998).

Data, information and knowledge should be seen and analyzed from the continuous perspective of values and fundamentally marked by the growing human contribution – processing, management, action, result, learning and feedback, that is, human training for actions that generate the desired results at the organizational level

Today we know how people learn, but we also know that learning and teaching are not the same thing, that is, that they are two different processes. What has to be taught must be taught and cannot be learned otherwise, but what can be learned must be learned and cannot be taught.

Schools and universities have been using the education system for several years, but more and more the phase is put into learning. Today's "masters" teach basically the same way the ancient masters did. Today we know that different people learn differently and that learning is personal. Each student has a different speed and a different pace of learning.

If a learning rate is imposed on students, a speed, or a degree of attention, there will be little or no learning. There will only be tiredness and endurance. Different people learn different subjects differently and at a different rate. You learn a subject and teach a person.

Information and communication technologies are an extremely important tool in learning and not in teaching, i.e. the teacher teaches students the functionalities of technologies and students learn, how they can use the technologies (support medium) to support them to solve some of the problems of the personal day-to-day and the organization where they work.

Information and communication technologies can be seen as a medium or as an end. If they are seen as an end, what students can teach are the features. If they are seen as a means of support for decision making, it means that they can be used to learn problem solving. For example, when we go to the doctor and take a CT scan on a part of the body, it means that information and communication technologies are used as support/support for the diagnosis of the disease so that the doctor can make the best decision on the medication to be taken, what dosage of the medicine, etc., that is, we are using information technologies, as an instrument / tool to support the resolution of the problem, the person's illness.

Information and communication technologies are a means of determining which messages can be sent and received. At the same time technologies determine which messages cannot be sent and received, i.e. we are in a phase of rapid transformation of the "means". It is worth remembering that in the 15th century high technology was the paper-printed book and that in the

21st century information and communication technologies are bound to have a profound impact on schools and on how one learns.

Before writing the only way to learn was through manuscripts, listening to lectures and recitations. With the printed book people began to learn by reading. Information and communication technologies are more "friendly" than printed books, especially for children, as their patience is unlimited. No matter how many mistakes the student may make, because the computer is always available for another attempt, no matter how many mistakes the student can make and whether the student is fast, slow or normal to learn, not caring, if the student thinks the subject is easy or difficult and does not care if the student intends to learn new things or review something he has already learned.

There is also the media and with them a whole world of visual pedagogy. There are more hours of compressed pedagogy in an advertising *spot* than teachers can put in a certain long period of teaching. The content of *the advertising spot* is secondary, what matters is the skill, professionalism and the power of persuasion that exists in it.

Therefore, students arrive today at schools and universities with high expectations and can easily be frustrated. Schools and universities use information and communication technologies so that teachers are increasingly "supervisors" and mentors of student learning. Teachers' work is increasingly to help, guide, set an example and encourage students, i.e. their work is no longer primarily to transmit the subject itself.

2.2 INFORMATION CONCEPTS

Concept of Perception versus Information

The perception of information not only influences our view of information, but also our perception of the information system (Klein & Hirschleim, 1987), our perception of communication (Mokros, 1993, Schement, 1993) and the conduct of research (Newman, 2001, Schement, 1993). This means that the perception of information, which we prefer to call information concepts, has a profound influence in the field of information science.

The concept of information fascinates many scientists from different fields, such as biology, psychology, computer science, sociology, economics, management, political science, statistics, philosophy, communication and the studies da information, (Mokros, 1993, Newman, 2001, Ruben 1993, Schement, 1993). In all these areas, information is an important concept, but at the same time none of them can claim that information is relevant only to them.

Information should be seen as an interdisciplinary concept. This means that information concepts must be studied in different disciplines. It also means that the concepts of information are not only relevant in the field of information science.

The concept of interdisciplinary information did not arise, and no unifying theory is presented as imminent (Schement, 1993). When information is defined "abundance and diversity confuse us" (Braman, 1989, p. 233). A tantalizing conclusion we've reached is that the meaning of information depends on the context. While many argue that we need a theoretical perspective of information (Devlin, 1999, Aefiner, 1999, Newman, 2001).

We do not intend to define a theoretical perspective, but only to present the different concepts in different disciplines, as well as a critical analysis of the different concepts. (Newman, 2001) describes a variety of concepts in different sciences that can be grouped as follows:

- Probabilistic concept.
- Concept of information processing.
- Ecological concept of information.
- Social and organizational concept of information.

The probabilistic concept of information is that low probability events represent a high content of information. An important application of this concept is information theory (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, in Newman, 2001). In this theory, the mathematical representation of the transmission of a message is presented, as if the information were a measure of predictability. Logical, cybernetics and philosophy also correlate information with probability (Fisher, 1934, Carnap & Bar-Hillel, 1952, Popper, 1965, Mackay, 1969 in: Newman, 2001). But these concepts differ in important ways, such as in the interpretation of probability and in the semantics of information. With regard to the semantics of information, many concepts see information as a reduction in uncertainty.

The concept of information processing (or cognitive concept) focuses on the thinking of cognitive psychology. However, this concept, thought and information processing are analogous. Information is the product of thought and this increases knowledge about anything. The model of the cognitive process and the internal representation are the first concern of this approach.

The concept of ecological information is not created, but is present in the world, of the environment, in a given situation. Organizations actively collect this information from the outside world. An important extension of the ecological approach is the theory of the situation. This is reconstructed on a mathematical basis and makes a clear distinction between information (content or information) and its representation.

The social and organizational concept of information is part of the sphere of work: work associated with the concept of **information economy**. In this category, the information concerns the processing of the same and the information pyramid model is often used. In this model, it is necessary to analyze a data for the production of information and the information must be processed to produce knowledge. An important ingredient of information economics is the quantification of "work information" and "information product", used, among other things, to show the importance of knowledge in modern economies (Wallerstein 2000, Myrtle, 2001, Brandt, 1995, Nicholas, 2000, Handy, 1990, Hauknes, 1999).

In the well-known effort de (Porat, 1997, in Newman, 2001), information is associated with reduced uncertainty. Information science research focuses on the information process in the Organization and on the need for information from decision-making support managers. The satisfaction of this requirement may result in a reduction in uncertainty, which contributes to better decision-making (Schement, 1993).

Philosophical concept of Information

(Belkin, 1978) contributed many studies to an important problem of information science: the question of the definition of an appropriate concept of information for information science. Although Belkin discusses the concepts of information used only in information science, many of these concepts originated from other fields and/or are used in a wide variety of these fields (Belkin, 1978, p. 82):

- **Information as Fundamental Category:** Information is seen as something essential to the existence of the universe as a basis, but a different category of matter.
- **Information as Property of Matter and Consciousness:** Information is not considered, as a special category, but as property of matter (i.e., objective information) and or property of consciousness or reflection of an individual (i.e., subjective information);
- **Information as social-scientific information** is based on the classification of (Mikhailov, Chernyi and Giliarevskii, 1975, in Belkin, 1978). This classification divides the intuitive idea of social and non-social information, social semantic information and not semantic and scientific and non-scientific and non-scientific information. According to (Mikhailov, Chernyi and Giliarevskii, 1975), information is limited by social science;
- **Information as Event:** Information is seen as the expression of the mental image that occurs when we receive a message.
- **Information Table:** The information is not seen as an event, but as the resulting structure of the event. For example, information is the resulting structure in the mind of a sensory data or some experience;
- **Information as probability** of occurrence of an event comes from the theory of information of (Shannon and Weaver, 1949).
- **Information as Message:** Vague concept in which information is confused with the content of a communication.

Concept of information in the context of decision-making

- (Cleveland, 1982) characterizes the information as follows:
- **Information is "human"** - there is only information through human observation.
- **The information is multipliable** – the more we use it, the more useful it becomes; the basic limit is the biological age of people and groups.
- **The information is replaceable** - it can replace other resources like money, people, raw material etc. For example, the accumulation of information in the automation area replaces several million workers annually.
- **Information is transferable** - the speed and ease with which information is transferred is a considerable factor for the development of all areas of knowledge.
- **Information is diffuse - it tends** to become public, even if our efforts are the other way around;
- **The information is shareable** – goods can be exchanged, but in the exchange of information, the seller continues to own what he sold.

(Braman, 1989) suggests a hierarchy of information definitions that are used in the context of decision making. The hierarchy is based on three dimensions: the level of opportunity, the level of complexity and associated with power (which is guaranteed for information, streams, and usage). These dimensions group the definitions of information into four groups:

- Information as a resource.
- Information as something useful.
- Information as a standard perception.
- Information as an essential feature of society.

Information as a resource is associated with a lower level of opportunity, complexity, and power, while information as an essential characteristic of society is associated with the highest level in these three dimensions.

- **Information as a resource** treats information as an isolated and distinct entity without energy. Information is divided into the parts that make up the body of knowledge or flows of information in which it can be organized (Braman, 1989, p. 236).
- **Information as something useful focuses on** the process of exchanging information between people. This concept requires chain production, through which information **gains economic value** (Porter, 1980). The chain includes steps such as creation, processing, and distribution. This implies greater complexity of the social structure "including suppliers, customers and the Organization to maintain the market" (Braman, 1989, p. 238).
- **Information as a standard perception** requires information and context. Information "has a past and a future, it is affected by the stimulation of casual factors and the environment" (Braman, 1989, p. 238). Compared to information as useful, the scope of the phenomenon covered by this concept is extended. Information can be used to articulate social structures. This definition sees information as an element of reducing uncertainty.
- **Information as an essential** characteristic of the information-oriented society as "an active function constructed in context" (Braman, 1989, p. 239). Information becomes an actress that affects the environment and creates a social structure.
- This definition treats information as an essential feature of society. It applies to all phenomena and processes in which information is involved and can be applied to the social structure with some degree of articulation and complexity (Braman, 1989, p. 241).

Concept of Information Process, as Knowledge and as A Thing

(Buckland, 1991) identifies three "primary uses" of the term information:

- Information as a process.
- Information as knowledge.

- Information as such.

The information process refers to the act of informing/being informed. When allgo is reported, what is known is changing. "Information as knowledge" refers to what is seen as process information. It is the knowledge that is communicated. (Buckland, 1991) sees information as a reduction in uncertainty as a special case of "information as knowledge." Some information increases uncertainty.

Information as something that refers to things that are seen as informative, things become informed. Buckland also examines different things (data, text, subject material, events) and concludes that everything is or should be informative. It argues that the virtue of being information as a thing is situational and depends on subjective judgments. (Buckland, 1991) summarizes the main concepts of information tree, in terms of two distinctions:

- Between entities and processes.
- Among intangible and tangible asst.

(Buckland, 1991) distinguishes four aspects of information, but only three about the use of information. The fourth aspect of information is information processing. This refers to the execution, manipulation and deduction of new forms or versions of information, as a thing.

Interdisciplinary Information Concept

(Ruben, 1992, 1993) has different proposals to "provide interdict communication information-communication relationship" (Ruben, 1992, p. 22).

Ruben does not justify this classification and does not refer to any example of these concepts in the literature. However, it sees information as an interdisciplinary concept focused on the relationship between information and communication. Here it explicitly describes a wide variety of fields, such as biology, economics and cybernetetas, mathematics, sociology and communication studies:

- Information has a potential meaning for a living system, but this potential is not yet up-to-date.
- The information is the information that has been transformed and configured for use by an individual.
- Information includes the sharing of information/knowledge base of society and other social systems.

Concept of Information in Communication

(Schement, 1993) reviews 22 definitions of information from different areas, such as economic, physical, information and communication science. Although its focus is on the study of information and communication, it analyzes its interdisciplinary aspects, because the definitions of the different fields are compared.

Based on these definitions, it distinguishes "fundamental terms whose outline of current of thought is the nature of information" (Schement, 1993, p. 7). Information as something treats information as a thought, being a (non-material) thing. According to Schement this concept is the most used of the three concepts. Two examples of this concept are:

- **Information is an entity;** something that has no mass or energy" (Diener, 1989 in: Schement, 1993);
- **Information is a consistent collection of organized** data or messages that have meaning or can be used by the human system (Ruben, 1988 in: Schement, 1993).

Concept of information as a process.

This concept of information process sees information as the phenomenon for informing or changing a particular situation. An important subtheme of this concept is the vision of information such as the reduction of uncertainty, a common view among economists, managers, and computer scientists. The last concept, information as a product of manipulation is seen as a thought is something that must be manipulated to exist. Example:

The information is produced as a result of a process on the data. (Hayes, 1969, in: Schement, 1993)

According to Schement, these information perceptions are related to different perceptions of communication. He argues that these two concepts are inextricably linked to each other.

Real-world information concept

According to (Gelepithis, 1999) information is the central concept for the information science community. A considerable number of disciplines related to information have been involved in the development of other closed concepts related to information (e.g., sign, symbol and meaning (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, in Newman, 2001).

(Gelepithis, 1999) is concerned about the clarification of these concepts and their consequences in the fields of information science. However, his proposal is not present in the table of contents of the various concepts of information in different disciplines. (Gelepithis, 1999) presents seven concepts of information:

- Information in terms of the probability of a signal.
- Information as a state.
- Information in terms of knowledge and meaning of the mental level and as a mental and non-material entity.
- The information in terms of signal concept as primitive.
- Information designed in terms of the world tree.
- Information in terms of true condition.
- Information as a basic property of the universe.

The problem with these concepts is that they are very brief. Information in terms of sign as primitive is referred to by (Stamper, 1985) in that it proposes semiotics (signal theory) as an appropriation of information theory (Shannon and Weaver, 1949). He argues that the idea of a sign is "the very primitive on which information science is based" (Gelepithis, 1999, p. 195).

Signals can be described as physical objects, events, or properties of objects and events that are available to represent a function in human behavior. The information is actually a measure of some ownership of a signal. The measurements differ from each other (e.g., entropy measurement and subjective measurement) and, in addition, information has different meanings.

The information designed in terms of Popperian tree design is the basis of (Popper & Eccles, 1977) they argue that we only accept things as real if they can interact with material things. Distinguishesthreerealitiesorthreeworlds:

- **World 1:** The world of physical objects and states.
- **World 2:** The world of states of consciousness (e.g., subjective knowledge, creative imagination experience);
- **World 3:** The world of knowledge for purpose (e.g., products of the human mind, theoretical systems, scientific problems).

According to Popper, these worlds interact with each other. However, it is still unclear what (Gelepithis, 1999) is bad through the information conceived in terms of these three worlds.

2.3 - FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS

Human rights

Human rights are inherent rights of all human beings, regardless of race, sex, nationality, ethnicity, language, religion or any other condition. As tal, rights mean that they are not merely privileges, granted by other human beings, but rather qualities inherent in the status of human being and for this reason cannot be disrespected, on someone's whim. Human rights, which are an integral part of the essence of man, and fundamentally, as a social and gregarious being, play a decisive role in maintaining, harmony and safeguarding freedom, peace and justice among individuals, so that they feel protected from abuse, like the discrimination, intolerance, injustice, oppression and slavery that may arise in this coexistence, as well as feel the will and freedom to assume themselves with the dignity of what they are – human beings.

Human rights are based on the basic principle of human dignity, which according to Kant "is the value of all that is priceless, that is, it cannot be replaced by another equivalent. Dignity is an inherent quality of human beings as moral entities (...)". According to Kant., (2005), human dignity is much more than a moral conception, it is an anthropic principle, in which any valid theory about the universe must be consistent with the existence of the human being, that is, the only universe we can see, is the universe that possesses human beings.

At the legal level, dignity is also a principle of the democratic state of law and a prerequisite for the full exercise of democracy, since the promotion of the individual as a being-social extends in that of the individual with rights. Human rights have a universal and human vocation, as a basis for the new universal order. This free, just and supportive society legitimizes the interference of states in the internal politics of other States; the legitimacy of a humanitarian or humanistic military war, when human rights are being "vandalized". Human rights do not crystallize in time and space, since man is "adaptable", human rights also change, adapt and perfect.

History of the Right to Privacy

The origin of the concept of human rights originated in the seventeenth century, and is the product of the theory of "natural rights" (Natural rights were established by God and reason, to all men, because they are all equal to each other – Principle of Equality between Men), by John Locke, defender of religious freedom and tolerance. However, in the era before Christ, there was already an embryonic perception of the concept and human specificity:

- Ciro's cylinder decree of 539 a.C., - protects the right to equality and religious freedom.
- Pact of the Virtuous (Hifl-al-fudul) – drawn up by Arab tribes around 590 D.C. is considered one of the first human rights alliances.
- No tax may be imposed without the consent of Parliament,
- No subject may be incarcerated for no reason demonstrated (the reaffirmation of the right to habeas corpus),
- No soldier can be quartered in the homes of citizens
- Magna Carta - establishes equality before the law and the right to property.

After King John of England violated a number of ancient laws and customs, by which England had been ruled, in 1215 his subjects forced – in signing the Magna Carta, which lists what later came to be regarded as human rights. Amongthemwas:

- The church's right to be free from government interference,
- The right of all free citizens to possess, inherit property (s), and be protected from excessive taxes.
- The right of widows to own property and to decide not to remarry,
- Establish the principles of equality before the law. This also contains provisions prohibiting bribery and official misconduct. (A BriefHistoryofHumanRights - The Magna Carta (1215);
- The Petition of Law (1628), - the English Parliament approved a declaration of civil liberties, which safeguards civil liberties, such as the right to *habeas corpus*.
- The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) - defines the basic rights of citizens.
- The Declaration of Independence of the United States of America "was the document in which the Thirteen Colonies of North America declared their independence from Great Britain, came to inspire human rights documents around the world." (Declaration of Independence of the United States (1776).

The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) "is the oldest National Constitution, and it defines the main governing bodies, their jurisdictions and the basic rights of citizens." (A Brief History of Human Rights - The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) and the Declaration of Rights (1791) .

The Declaration of Human and Citizen Rights (1789) - comes to mark more broadly and significantly the historical process of Western awareness, of the intrinsic value of man. The French Declaration of Human Rights emerged in the context of great political and social, under the Enlightenment influence of natural rights and Renaissance ideas that evoked equality among all human beings, calling the ancient ideals into question

The Declaration of Rights (1791) - "... it protects freedom of expression, freedom of religion, the right to keep and use weapons, freedom of assembly and freedom of petition." (A Brief History of Human Rights - The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) and the Declaration of Rights (1791).

Only in the 19th and 20th centuries, initiatives of some significance were put in place, in the international protection of the human being, namely in the eradication of the slave trade; treaties aimed at improving the conditions of the sick and wounded in the War; the protection of minorities; the creation of the Leagues of Nations; concern for the fair treatment of refugees; the legal status of women, and the creation of the International Labor Organization (ILO), with the humanitarian mission of eradicating poverty and social inequalities, alongside concerns of equal opportunities among men.

On 24 October 1945, the United Nations (UN) was established. It had as its founding principle the search for and maintenance of peace, to lift the world on the pillars of freedom and justice, through cooperation between peoples, to strengthen human rights and to seek solutions to the economic, social, cultural or humanitarian problems that took place after the end of World War II. A war where many atrocities were committed, 6 million lives were lost among soldiers and civilians, entire cities in ruins and flames in which the Holocaust is an example.

The UN Charter itself proclaims in Article 55 that the United Nations must promote "respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex language, or religion." Art. 55 of the Charter to the UN. In Article 56, member states express a willingness to develop cooperation actions with the UN, both jointly and individually, with a view to achieving those objectives (States with different legal and cultural backgrounds, from all regions of the world).

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), signed on 10 December 1948 by the United Nations General Assembly in Paris, emerges as a landmark document in the history of human rights. In the desire to regulate international relations, in the repudiation of violence and barbarism among peoples, in the maintenance of peace, in opposition to discrimination and exploitation of peoples, the UDHR has established for the first time in history the universal protection of human rights, as an ideal to be attained by all peoples and all nations, in promoting respect for these rights and freedoms. The 14 States that subscribe to this Declaration were bound by the acceptance of precepts that, despite not having coercive value or legal imposition, have ethical and moral value, with the commitment made, making them responsible for developing the appropriate legislation in their countries, so that these rights could be implemented.

The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights marked the 20th century, bringing legal and global recognition of human rights, innovating civil and political rights, namely the right to life, the right not to be subjected to torture or slavery, the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion and particular to inspire the constitutions of states and recent democracies. Two decades later, given that the 1948 UDHR had only the quality of recommendation (resolution), so without binding character, states needed to create other instruments.

At the United Nations Assembly of 16 December 1966, two multilateral treaties were concluded that recognized and strengthened the rights and duties of the UDHR; more articles were added extending the number of rights, giving them greater protection, surpassing the Fundamental Declaration itself. These Treaties are the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), which have made human rights, precepts binding and binding on signatory States.

The ICCPR is a pact that strengthens civil (individual) and political (access to justice and political participation) rights. The ICESCR has established human rights - economic, social and cultural rights that must be achieved in the long term, in a progressive and programmatic way, the duty of which is addressed to the States themselves.

The principles of the UDHR are present in almost all humanitarian documents, such as the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Treatment or Punishment, Inmanors or Degrading, among many others." (Universal Declaration of Human Rights). It was up to the signatory States to transpose into the internal legal order of these States, producing new legislation, adapting the existing one and giving it effective application in the sense of these standards to be respected. Failure to comply with the rules, whether by acts or omissions, puts States in a position to have to justify themselves before the International Court of Justice (ICJ).

State

The state is an **entity with sovereign power to rule a people within a delimited territorial area**. Thus, it can be said that the constituent elements of the State are power, citizens, territory, government and laws. For the German sociologist **Max Weber** (1864-1920), what defines the State is the monopoly **of the legitimate use of force**. That is, within certain territorial limits, no other group or institution besides the State has the power to oblige, charge, tax and punish.

In addition to its role as a service provider, the State is a political entity that exercises sovereign power within a given territory, and that sovereign power is generally accepted as legitimate by persons who submit to it (in the case of a democracy, citizens). In its modern form, in Democracy, the State consists of **a set of permanent institutions** that organize and control the functioning of society. The **so-called** three powers (executive, legislative and judicious) divide these functions among themselves.

The executive **power**(government) fulfills the role of managing public services (in the areas of health and education, for example) and enforce laws. The **legislature** (parliament) has the power to formulate laws and amend the Constitution. On the **other, the judiciouspower** (whose highest instance is the Supreme Court) fulfills the role of supervising and judging the application of laws. It is also designated by the word state (with "and" tiny) each of the political-geographical divisions of a federative republic. These divisions are autonomous and have their own government governed by a local administrative structure.

State and Government

Government is a group of people who govern (direct, administer) the state. Therefore, the main difference between the two is that the government is a body that is part of the State, fulfilling the functions of managing natural resources and various public services and implementing laws.

In general, governments are transitory in nature. This is true in democracies, where there is an alternation of power. In democracies, the political group that occupies the government can be replaced every four years (when there are elections). In dictatorships, governments can last for decades. The state, on the other hand, has a permanent character – it can be said that governments pass, but the state remains.

State and Nation

Nation is a group of people who remain united by "social ties" that create a kind of identification between them. A nation can be defined as a group that has its own "personality", united by common interests and cultural traits. The State, on the other, is an entity that exercises sovereign power within a given territory. To exist, the nation depends on a sense of belonging. The state is connected to the question of power.

In the past, we have tried to define nation from racial criteria (theory that is not supported). A more accurate definition of nation emphasizes its cultural aspect - customs, language, beliefs, etc. However, some authors say that this criterion alone does not account for defining the term, since there are nations, consisting of a plurality of cultures and languages.

Politics

Politics is the activity of **governance**, the **state** and power relations and also an art of negotiation to state interests. The concept of politics originates from the *Greek politikós*, a derivation of *polis* meaning "city" and *tikós*, which refers to the "common good". The meaning of politics is generally related to what concerns the public space and the good of citizens and their administration.

Politics is the activity proper to the city, refers to human relations in common space, divided and negotiated between individuals. The political system, on the other, is a form of organization and government that encompasses political institutions that make up a State.

Monarchy and Republic are the traditional political systems. Within each of these systems there may still be significant variations at the organization level. For example, Brazil is a Presidential Republic, while Portugal is a Parliamentary Republic. The term can also be used as a reference to a **set of rules or norms** of a particular group and the form of relationship between people to achieve a common goal.

The emergence of politics occurred in **Ancient Greece** when it was perceived the need to create rules of operation and organization of Greek cities (*polis*). The first record of this type of political organization took place in the city of Athens and this system became known as "Athenian democracy".

Citizens became responsible for the administration of the city, giving rise to public space, to the common space. It was the Greek philosopher Aristotle who began the reflection on politics from his studies on the forms of government and the functioning of Greek cities.

According to Aristotle, human beings are political animals, that is, they are determined by nature to live in society and organize the forms for this coexistence. The city predate individuals. He who by choice decides to live outside society, denies his own nature, is superior or inferior to human beings, a God or a beast.

Political Sciences

Political Sciences study the **functioning and structure of society**, a State and political institutions. It also has as object of study the power relations between people and the forms of organization of a State.

The Political Sciences deal with the forms of action in society in relation to citizenship and justice. They are responsible for the study of the influence of political and social phenomena on a given society, on social behaviors and relationships.

Studies in Political Sciences are related to several other areas of study, such as History, Anthropology, Sociology, Philosophy, Economics and Law.

Political Parties

Political parties are formed by groups of people who come together because they have common interests, principles, objectives, and ideologies. Thus, the function of a party is to represent a certain type of thought about political values. The existence of parties is fundamental as a form of access to public office in elections, to represent their ideas during the occupation of political mandates.

The existence of the parties also serves the interest of ensuring the representativeness of different ideas within a democratic political system.

Public Policies

Public policies consist of actions taken by the State that aim to respond to the different aspirations of the various sectors of civil society. To do so, the rights that must be **guaranteed to the citizens of a country** are created and supervised. These policies are often implemented together and with the support of NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) or private companies. As for their types, public policies can be:

- Distributive.
- Redistributive.
- Regulatory.

They can be executed, for example, as a provision of services or the granting of social benefits to a portion of the population. Public policies can exist in various sectors, such as industrial, institutional, agricultural, educational, health and social care and social inclusion.

Freedom of Expression

Communication is a fundamental process for human interaction. Apart from today, there are no certainties about how primitive men began to communicate with each other, whether by shouting, whether by grunts, if by gestures, or by combining these elements. It is also through it that the human being acquires the consciousness of himself and others, internalizes, produces, reproduces and transmits to others, through language, behaviors, values, norms, and their meanings, in society and culture, in which he is part.

The communication process takes place through language, namely through expression, oral and written. It has been diversifying, over time and space, inventing new channels, from rock paintings, drum sound, smoke signals, paper, telegraph, telephone, radio, television, and today with the internet, allows men to communicate with each other, in a faster and easier way.

Communication is the basis of human interaction and is also the foundation of the right to free thought and free expression of man. Freedom of thought and freedom of expression are two associated rights, since the two are completed. However, they both have freedom, with something different nature. Freedom is a concept that encloses, an option or will of its own and an embarrassment, the conflict with the freedom of another person. One person's freedom ends when the other's freedom begins.

Thought can be defined, as the act of thinking, of being aware of reflecting or meditating; the faculty of conceiving, of combining and comparing ideas; a particular act of the mind, the result of which is reflection; way of thinking; opinion, point of view; act of meditating and fantasizing. Thought, given its rational and exclusive nature of man, is a manifestation of human subjectivity, a phenomenon reserved for the mind of the individual himself. Thus, it can be considered or represented, as a non-action in the sense that it does not directly affect others, except, when manifested or expressed, by a communication action (speaking, writing, acting, etc.).

Expression is a concrete action, a communication, an objective manifestation of thought, since the nature of interaction is always in relation to the other, that is, the expression is the external and objective manifestation of our thought, about others. Freedom of expression is not absolute, because it may be limited in its action, when in its full exercise it risks colliding with other individual freedoms, namely the right to honour, moral integrity, image, good name, and reputation.

Freedom of expression "is the right of anyone to freely express personal opinions, ideas and thoughts, without fear of retaliation or censorship by the government or other members of society. It is a fundamental concept in modern democracies, in which censorship has no existence (Cabral, 2010). Freedom of thought and expression are the two main vectors of representative democracies, which are in harmonized with other rights: the right to information, the right to challenge to the extent that, for citizens to participate in the choice of a government, they must be able to access information or ideas, expressed publicly - public opinion, challenge them, if that is their will and make their judgment, on them in such a way as to be able to make a choice, namely a choice in the context of elections.

Freedom of expression is a legally protected right in democratic societies, and it is the rightful right, and is set out in Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948. Every individual has the right to freedom of opinion and expression, which implies the right not to be disturbed by his opinions and to seek, receive and disseminate, without consideration of borders, information, and ideas by any means of expression. (Universal Declaration of Human Rights). Everyone has the right to express and spread their thoughts freely by word, image or any other means, as well as the right to inform, inform and be informed, without impediments or discrimination.

Privacy

The concept of privacy was born in the ancient philosophy, with the distinctions between the domains of the public and the private. In ancient Greece, the interest of the State was greater than the particular interest. With the decline of Greek political life, after the Macedonian invasion, the philosophical interest moved from public life to private life, thus valuing the intimacy of the citizen. With the decline of feudal society, in which isolation was the privilege of the few, privacy is now extended to all, as an element of promoting equal treatment, between citizens and social parity. In America and Europe, until the first half of the 19th century, the defense of the right to privacy was confused with that of private property and honor, but from the second half of the 19th century the protection of privacy received new contours.

In the 20th century, technological innovations caused sudden changes in the concept of privacy, raising the risk of violation. The desire to get information about people has become growing. (Navarro, 2014) In 1948 came the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man, international protection of the right to privacy, which in Article 5 provides the following: "every person has the right to protection of the law against abusive attacks on his honor, his reputation and his private and family life". Second, Sampaio(1998), in the same year, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was approved by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, which stated in its article 12, that "no one shall be the object of arbitrary interference in his private life, in his family, in his domicile or in his their correspondence, nor of attacks on his honor or reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law, against such interference or attacks."

Ethics

According to Du Mont (1991), ethics aims to establish principles of human behavior that help people choose alternative forms of action. These considerations lead to the definitions of ethics and morals, instigating us to refer to deontology as the study of codes or ethics of professions. Targino (2006, p. 135) states that definitions of ethics originate from the "Greek term ethos, as etymology suggests, is the part of philosophy that deals with reflection on customs, encompassing the guidelines". While the moral "term of Latin mores concerns the acts and customs per se, that is, the set of objective norms of conduct, changeable in time and space".

According to Sá (2007), the word ethics is sometimes associated with the sense of morals, but not always properly. It has also been understood as the science of human conduct before the being and its fellowmen, to study the action of men and their considerations of value. In this research, we emphasize its importance for justice professionals, highlighting ethical performance in the context of today's society and, mainly, about their social responsibility.

In view of the theoretical foundation of the study, we approach the theme of professional ethics linked to the code of ethics, studied by deontology that, according to Targino (2006, p.135) "comes from the Greek deontos, duty; logos, speech or treatise, etymologically equivalent to treatise or science of duty."

Social Responsibility

For Du Mont (1991), social responsibility is an ethical concept that involves senses of change, of how human needs must be met. In addition, the author emphasizes the interest in the social dimensions of the information service, which has to do with

improving the quality of life. Organizations around the world have been socially responsible for several decades. Social responsibility gained greater prominence since the 1990s, with a greater influence of society, in the media and NGOs, that is, in the organizational world.

Apparently, he felt the need to pass on a positive corporate image, in order to make up for lost time. Although the debates and the concept are widely used, social responsibility is still confused with assistance, which assumes a personal character represented by donations or pela creation of philanthropic foundations, as Cajazeiras (2006, p. 13), "another conception of social responsibility very linked to the idea of donation – the philanthropic phase" makes it.

Social responsibility overcomes the paradigm of assistance, which in a way limits the performance, repercussion, and monitoring by society. This change stems from industrial advances, globalization and the intense flow of information and technologies, causing the degradation of quality of life, the intensification of environmental problems and the precariousness of labor relations. Society has begun to develop attitudes to solve its problems and the upper echelons to adhere to social responsibility, often pressured by the consumer code.

Thus, the social responsibility of judicial institutions is directed to act in an ethical and transparent manner, with attitudes that revert to improving the quality of life of the citizens in which they are inserted, even mitigating environmental problems (Veloso, 2006). Acting with social responsibility is not just acting in the marketing of the institution. It is to go beyond interests that target personal or group interests, because any institution that considers itself responsible, must have the capacity to meet the interests of the different parties – state, employees, service providers, citizens, community, government, institutions, and environment.

Leadership

The concept of leadership can be seen in various perspectives, that is, in the business world, as an environment as characteristic as advertising agencies, this statement shows even more its strength. During a series of collections, customer requests at the last minute, route modifications, setbacks in financial management, among other everyday challenges, having a good leader to put everything in order and keep the team active and motivated is essential. In fact, there's the difference between a leader and a boss. While the figure of the boss has to do with someone who usually only wants good results, even if for this it has to be imposing and sometimes even cruel, the leader inspires others to do the best they can.

Leadership is considered the ability to motivate, influence, inspire and command a group of people in order to achieve goals. Therefore, the concept refers to a practice that has been accompanying humanity throughout history and that has been practiced in corporate environments so that leaders and their teams work towards the same goal. A good leader achieves the goals in a light and effective way, without compromising the mental health of those who work alongside him. It is someone who really prepares to be in this position and does not hesitate to redo the route in case something is negatively compromising the performance.

The leader points the way forward for people. Nature and the exercise of leadership have been the focus of man's research throughout its history. Bernard Bass argues that, "since childhood, the study of history has been the study of leaders, what and why they did what they did." The pursuit of the ideal of the leader is also present in the field of philosophy. Plato, by example, argued in *The Republic* that the regent needed to be educated with reason, describing his ideal as a "philosopher king". Other examples of philosophers who addressed the theme were Confucius, Lao-Tse, and Sun-Tzu, with their "wise king".

The leadership of a group of people, transforming it into a team that generates results, is called leadership. It is the ability to motivate and influence those led, in an ethical and positive way, so that they contribute voluntarily and enthusiastically to achieve the goals of the team and [the organization](#).

Thus, the leader differs from the chief, who is the person in charge of a task or activity of an organization and who, to do so, commands a group of people, having the authority to command and demand obedience. For current managers, it is necessary not only the skills of the boss, but mainly those of the leader.

According to Chiavenato (1979, p.139) "the concept of social man emerged, where people are motivated mainly by the need for recognition, social approval and participation in the activities of social groups where they live".

Chiavenato (1979, p.149) states that, "with the advent of the Theory of Human Relations a new language comes to dominate the administrative repertoire: we now talk about motivation, leadership, communication, informal organization, group dynamics, etc."

According to Chiavenato (2000, p.88), the Theory of Human Relations found the influence of leadership on [people's](#) behavior.

The Theories on Leadership, according to Chiavenato (2000, p.89), can be classified into three groups:

- **Personality traits.** According to this theory, the leader has remarkable personality characteristics that qualify him for a function.
- **Leadership styles.** This theory points out four leadership styles: autocratic, participatory, democratic and **liberal**.
- **Situational leadership** (Contingency theory). In this theory, the leader can assume different patterns of leadership according to the situation.

Chiavenato also points out that "a trait is a distinctive quality or characteristic of personality. According to this theory, the leader is one who has some specific personality traits that distinguishes him from other people."

Some personality traits that distinguish leaders, according to Chiavenato (2000, p.90):

- "Physical traits: energy, personal appearance, stature and weight.
- Intellectual traits: adaptability, aggressiveness, enthusiasm, and self-confidence.
- Social traits: cooperation, interpersonal and administrative skills.
- Traits related to the task: impulse of realization, persistence and initiative."

- For Maximiano (2000, p.337): "Leaders have certain personality traits. However, people who possess the same traits are not or necessarily become leaders. Moreover, to date, a set of personality traits common to all leaders has not been identified."

It was then seen that leadership is not private for some privileged; it can, yes, be learned and perfected. There is no formula to become a leader. There is, rather, the possibility of the person developing essential characteristics to the leader through training, courses, and their own experiences.

The theory about leadership styles, in Chiavenato conception (2000, p.91-92), studies the possible styles of behavior swells of the leader in relation to his subordinates. And according to this theory there are three styles of leadership:

- **"Autocratic leadership:** the leader centralizes decisions and imposes his orders on the group. This style usually provokes in the group strong tension, frustration and aggressiveness, on the one hand, and on the other, no spontaneity, no initiative, nor formation of friendship groups.
- **Liberal leadership:** the leader fully delegates the decisions to the group and leaves him totally at ease and without any control. This generally causes strong aggressive individualism and little respect for the leader.
- **Democratic Leadership:** The leader leads and guides the group and encourages the democratic participation of people. Leaders and subordinates generally develop spontaneous, frank, and courteous communications. The work develops at a smooth and safe pace, without changes, even when the leader is not present."

According to Maximiano (2000, p.347): "The effectiveness of the leadership style depends on its effect on the performance of the task and the satisfaction of the influenced, be it an individual or a group. If the influenced is satisfied and at the same time present satisfactory performance, then the style is effective."

Thus, depending on the leadership style, adopted by the company, there will be people more committed or not to organizational objectives, besides having a climate more conducive to productivity, interaction, etc. In addition, depending on the employee's profile, whether more efficient or responsible, for example, the leader may vary the style of leadership adopted, suiting the employee or circumstances.

Second, Franco (2008, p.59) the leader can be: "Focused on production or task: the leader establishes his leadership process from centralization and rigidity, as well as personal monitoring of the tasks being performed.

People-centered: receives more consideration from individuals, as it exercises its leadership by encouraging the participation of all in the work process and in the goals to be achieved; this helps ensure high performance, generating a climate of greater trust and respect between leaders and subordinates."

For Franco (2008, p.61-62) three types of leaders are requested by 21st century companies:

- **"Transformational Leader:** He can extract more motivation and performance from people than is expected of them. What's more, this leader turns people into valuable assets for organizations.
- **Charismatic Leader:** he has, in addition to the power to persuade, the power to transform people's lives in the most interesting and enthusiastic work environment.
- **Leader Trainer:** Your satisfaction is precisely in cultivating people for success and has as a source of inspiration your own ability to develop people and turn them into future leaders or at least provide them with the way to do so."

As can be seen, some theories claim that leaders are born ready, because they have characteristics that differ from other people. Others, on the other hand, claim that it is possible to develop leadership and adapt it to situations and people, through different styles. But while one realizes how important it is to know the origins of these studies, they are of no use if the leader does not know how to motivate his collaborators to achieve organizational goals.

Democracy

Democracy is the **political regime in** which sovereignty is exercised **by the people**. The word democracy originates from the Greek *demokratía* which is composed of *demos* (meaning people) and *kratos* (meaning power). In this political system, power is exercised by the people through universal suffrage. It is a regime of government in which all important political decisions are with the people, **who elect their representatives through the vote**. It is a regime of government that can exist in the presidential system, where the president is the greatest representative of the people, or in the parliamentary system, where there is the president elected by the people and the prime minister who makes the main political decisions.

Democracy is a regime of government that can exist as well, in the republican system, or in the monarchical system, where there is the appointment of the prime minister who actually governs. Democracy has principles that protect human freedom and is based on the government of the majority, associated with individual and minority rights. One of the main functions of democracy is the protection of fundamental human rights, such as freedoms of expression, religion, legal protection, and opportunities for participation in the political, economic, and cultural life of society. Citizens have their express rights, and the duties of participating in the political system that will protect their rights and their freedom.

The concept of democracy evolved over time, and from 1688 in England, democracy was based on freedom of discussion within parliament. According to some philosophers and thinkers of the eighteenth century, democracy was the right of the people to choose and control the government of a nation. In some countries, the evolution of democracy occurred very quickly, as in the case of Portugal and Spain. Nevertheless, this rapid evolution has created political insecurity. In countries such as England and France, a slow evolution of democracy has had the result of the development of stable political structures.

Social democracy is the designation of political parties and currents with Marxist tendencies that emerged before World War I. This type of political ideology is based on Marxism and principles such as equality and social justice, solidarity and freedom. Social democracy proposed a change of capitalist society, through gradual and never revolutionary methods, according to the norms of the parliamentary and democratic system.

Ancient Greece was the birthplace of democracy, where mainly in Athens the government was exercised by all free men. At that time, individuals were elected or raffles were made for the different positions. In Athenian democracy, there were popular assemblies, where proposals were presented, and free citizens could vote.

Racial democracy is directly related to the issue of racism and discrimination and suggests that Brazil has managed to deal with and solve these problems in a way that other countries (such as the United States) have failed to deal with. Racial democracy addresses the relations between different races and ethnicities in Brazil. Democracy can be direct or pure democracy, when the people express their will through direct voting. Representative or indirect democracy the people express their will by electing representatives who make the decisions on their behalf.

The main differences between democracy and dictatorship are:

- **Election model - in** democracy, elections are direct, that is, the people themselves vote. In dictatorship, elections are indirect, in which the rulers are chosen through an electoral college.
- **Type of state - in** democracy, the type of state is democratic, while in a dictatorship the state is authoritarian and totalitarian.
- **Division of powers - in** democracy there is division of powers. The legislature, the executive and the judiciary function independently of each other. In the dictatorship, the powers are concentrated in the hand of one person or group.
- **Protection of rights - a** democratic state protects and guarantees citizens' rights, and constantly legislates new rights. In a dictatorship, rights are often disrespected.
- **Popular demonstrations -** popular demonstrations are common in democracy, considering freedom of expression. A dictatorial government often uses censorship to prevent popular demonstrations, news or any kind of broadcast contrary to its ideals.

Dictatorship

Dictatorship is one of the non-democratic or undemocratic regimes, that is, governments governed by a person or political entity where there is no popular participation, or in which such participation occurs in a very restricted way. In the dictatorship, power is in only one instance, contrary to what happens in democracy, where power is in various instances, such as the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. Dictatorship is a form of authoritarianism.

It is said that a government is democratic when it is exercised with the consent of the governed, and dictatorial, otherwise. It is said that a government is totalitarian when it exerts influence on broad aspects of citizens' life and behavior, and liberal otherwise. It occurs, however, that, often, totalitarian regimes exhibit dictatorial characteristics, and dictatorial regimes, totalitarian characteristics. The establishment of a modern dictatorship usually takes place via a coup d'état.

In this sense, one can also understand dictatorship as a regime where the ruler agglutinates the executive, legislative and judicial powers. Therefore, the dictator seeks to control the most important sectors of his country, to legitimize his position. It is important to remember that, throughout history, the term "dictatorship" was used to characterize different forms of political organization (Ancient Rome, Revolutionary France). According to Karina Vanderlei Silva and Maciel Henrique Silva, it can be pointed out, as common elements in contemporary dictatorships: the strengthening of individual political rights, the broad use of force by the State and the strengthening of executive power to the detriment of other powers.

In antiquity, when the Roman Republic was in emergency situations, it was designated by the consuls as a dictator to assume power until the situation returned to normality.

The powers conferred on the dictator were total, but still the dictator answered for his acts before the law, needing to justify them after the end of the dictatorship. Dictatorships could not last more than six months. In cases of internal or external danger, proclaimed *the state of tumultus* (equivalent to the "state of siege" of modern times), all public guarantees were suspended, making all classes available to the State. In such an emergency, it was up to any of the consuls to appoint a dictator for a maximum period of six months; appointment that usually fell to the other consul. The term dictatorship comes from this title given to magistrates. The dictator was end invested in *the power of imperium*, with unlimited authority, entirely irresponsible, overlapping in an absolute manner all the magistracies, respecting only the sacred prerogatives of the tribunes of the plebs. The establishment of the dictatorship, as an exceptional judiciary, was justified in the name of public salvation: *salus publica suprema lex est*.

However, after the second century to II AC., Roman dictatorships lost this character of legality, acquiring characteristics like what is meant by dictatorship today.

According to Aristotle and Plato, the mark of tyranny is illegality, that is, "the violation of laws and rules pre-stipulated by the breaking of the legitimacy of power; once in charge, the tyrant repeals the legislation in force, overlapping it with rules established according to the conveniences for the perpetuation of this power." Example of this are the descriptions of tyranny in Sicily and ancient Greece, whose characteristics resemble the actions taken by modern dictatorships.

According to Plato and Aristotle, "tyrants are dictators who gain despotic social and political control through the use of force and fraud. Intimidation, terror, and disrespect for civil liberties are among the methods used to conquer and maintain power. Succession in this state of illegality is always difficult."

Aristotle attributed the relatively short life of tyranny "to the inherent weakness of systems that use force without the support of the right."

Make-up also came to the same conclusion about tyranny and their collapse, when of the successions of tyrants, because "this (tyranny) is the regime that has the shortest duration, and of all, is the one that has the worst ending", citation and, according to the words of this, "the fall of tyranny is due to the unpredictable misfortunes of luck".

The modern dictatorial regime almost always results from deep social upheavals, usually provoked by revolutions or wars were also many dictatorial regimes that swam from the political disputes of the Cold War. Dictatorships are not always a military coup: they can arise by civil coup d'état or from a group of democratically elected rulers who use the law to preserve power, as happened, for example, in the dictatorship imposed by Adolf Hitler in Nazi Germany.

The coup was triggered from the structures of government themselves, with the establishment of a state of exception and later the suppression of the other parties and democratic normality.

Always to find legitimacy, dictatorships rely on support Caudill's theories, which often affirm the divine destiny of the leader, who is seen as a savior, whose mission is to free his people, or be considered the father of the poor and oppressed etc. Other dictatorships rely on more elaborate theories, using imposed legislation, often admitting a democracy with political parties, including elections and sometimes even allowing a certain opposition, as long as controlled. The legal provisions become institutionalized and are so functional, that it will always win the party of those who called.

Dictatorships always use brute force to remain in power, which is systematically and constantly applied. another expedient is institutional propaganda, constant political propaganda and saturation, in order to cultivate the personality of the leader, or leaders, or even the country, to maintain the support of public opinion; one of the most efficient ways to impose, on the population, a certain system is subliminal propaganda, where mental defenses are not guarded against information that is introducing itself into the collective unconscious. This is done by saturation in all media. Censorship also plays a very important role, as it does not let the information relevant to the public opinion that is being manipulated. In this way, the two extremes are tied: first the environment is saturated with propaganda in favor of the regime, then all bad news that may change the mental state favorable to the imposed system is censored.

War

War is a confrontation subject to the interests of the dispute between two or more countries/regions/political organizations, using weapons to physically annihilate the enemy. War can occur between countries or between smaller groups such as tribes or political groups within the same country (internal confrontation). In both cases, one can have opposition from rival groups alone or together. In the latter case, there is the formation of alliance(s).

Civil war is said to be a confrontation that provokes a wave of armed conflicts, scheduled or planned between parties, parties or groups of the same people, or even that that occurs between peoples or ethnic groups living in the same country. Expressions such as "economic war" and "psychological warfare" also designate direct confrontations provoked by small effervescent conflicts, acute with equally violent actions but without the use of weapons necessarily. Confrontation or war may have religious, ethnic, ideological, economic, territorial, revenge, or possession motives (when one group desires something from the other).

Peace

Peace (from Latin *pax*), defined in a positive sense, is a social or personal state, in which the parts of a unit are in balance and stability. It also refers to the peace of mind of a person or society; defined in a negative sense, is the absence of restlessness, violence or war.

At the collective level, "peace" is the opposite of war. It is an inner state (identifiable with the Greek concepts of *ataraxia* and *sofrosin*) free of negative feelings (anger, hatred). This positive inner state is desired for both itself and others, to the point of becoming a purpose or goal of life. It is also in the etymological origin of greetings: *shalom* Hebrew and *salame* in Arabic mean "peace" or "peace be upon you", and they are also used as a farewell, i.e. *go in peace* or *go in peace*; on the other hand, *save*, the Latin greeting, is a desire for health, a concept also closely related. The greeting of peace or the kiss of peace is part of the Mass in which the participants "give themselves peace".

In international law, the state of peace is one in which international conflicts are resolved in a nonviolent manner; and particularly "peace" is the convention or treaty (peace treaty) that ends the war. There is a branch of the study of International Relations called "irenology" or "studies of peace and conflict".

Social peace can be dictated as consensus: tacit understanding for maintaining good and mutually beneficial relationships between individuals; and at different levels, consensus between different groups, classes or social strata within a society.

2.4 - PHILOSOPHICAL SCIENCES

INTRODUCTION

Using philosophical doing, such as the art of interpreting reality from the formulation of conceptual schemes about the human being, nature and society, can philosophy face the problems that arise from the new organizational dynamics of society today? We understand that Philosophy alone, without interdisciplinary tools of analysis, does not seem able to face, perhaps even formulating, the problems raised by ICT's.

Floridi (2011, p. 14) characterizes THE AS as follows: a philosophical area that is related to:

a) Critical research into the conceptual nature and basic principles of information, including its dynamics, use and sciences; and refers to FI as a new area of research in Philosophy, guided by the investigation of the content of information and not only on its form, quantity and probability of occurrence (thus differing from the proposal of (Shannon & Weaver, 1949/1998). It is important to emphasize that THE does not seek to develop a "unified theory of information", but to integrate the different forms of theories that analyze, evaluate, and explain the various concepts of information defended.

b) The characterization, in turn, indicates, according to Floridi (2011, p. 15-16), that THE has its own methods for analyzing philosophical, traditional and new problems. These methods have as central element information, are interdisciplinary in nature and maintain the relationship with computational methods, besides using concepts, tools and techniques already developed in other areas of Philosophy (e.g., Philosophy of Artificial Intelligence, Cybernetics, Philosophy of Computing, Logic, among others).

Thus, the IF will provide a broad conceptual framework for the treatment of issues that emerge from the "new" dynamics of contemporary society (Floridi, 2011, p. 25). An example of this dynamic are the possibilities of interaction provided by ICT's that, depending on the degree of familiarity of people with such technologies, promote a sense of dependence on being online. Moreover, even if people do not want to be online most of the time, this sensation remains due to the dissemination of information devices in everyday life, such as cameras, credit cards, among others. In this situation, the question arises: what are the implications of the insertion of ICT's in society for the daily action of people?

Considering (a) and (b), Floridi (2002, 2011) argues that FI constitutes a new paradigm and an autonomous research area in Philosophy. It is characterized as a new paradigm because it would break with previous paradigms of Philosophy, since it is neither anthropocentric nor biocentric, admitting information as the central focus in the analysis of concepts and social dynamics. The autonomy of the IF would be sustained by the presence of its own topics (problems, phenomena), methods (techniques, approaches) and theories (hypotheses, explanations), according to other areas already recognized, such as legitimately philosophical (Floridi, 2002, 2011; Adams&Moraes, 2014).

The question "what is information?", referring to the ontological and epistemological natures of information, stands out. It is the answer to this question that directs the paths to be developed by the IF and delimits its scope of research (Floridi, 2011). The importance of this question is also due to, as we indicate, there is no consensus among scholars in their proposals.

Since the "informational turn in Philosophy", several information conceptions have been developed to respond to concerns with the ontological and epistemological status of information. Although Adams (2003) indicates the landmark of the informational turn in Philosophy with the publication of Turing's article in 1950, there are precursors of information theory in several areas, especially in Semiotics, such as the works of Charles S. Peirce (1865-1895).

Some examples can be given with the following proposals:

- (Wiener, 1954, p. 17): "The commands through which we exercise control over our environment are a type of information that we impose on him." Moreover, for this author, information would be a third constituent element of the world, alongside matter and energy, not being reducible to them.
- (Shannon & Weaver, 1949/1998): the authors establish, the Mathematical Theory of Communication, a technical notion of information conceived in probabilistic terms resulting from the reduction of possibilities of choice of messages and can be understood objectively.
- Dretske (1981): information is understood as a commodity that exists objectively in the world, independent of a conscious mind of the first person who captures it. The information would constitute an indicator of regularities of the environment, from which representations, beliefs, meaning, mind, mental states, among others would be made.
- Stonier (1997, p. 21): information would be on the physical level, objectively, and the theorists of physics, in turn, would have to expand their vocabulary and admit info's (particles of information) as a constituent element of the world. «[...] information exists. It doesn't need to be perceived to exist. It doesn't need to be understood to exist. It does not require intelligence to interpret it."
- Floridi (2011, p. 106): "Information is a well-formed fact, with meaning and truth". Well-formed and significant data that refer to the intrinsic relationship that the data would need to have in relation to the choice of the system, code or language in question. These would look "true" and "truth" related to the proper supply of the content to which they refer in the world.
- Gonzalez (2014): conceives information, as an organizing process of dispositional (counterfactual) relationships that bring together properties attributable to material / immaterial objects, structures or shapes) in specific contexts.

Although the concepts of information indicated are different, there is in common the naturalistic attitude in relation to the objective aspect of the information. In addition, proposals such as those by Dretske and Floridi denote an intrinsic relationship between information and truth. According to Dretske (1981, p. 45), characterizing "false information" as information would be the same as saying that 'rubber ducks would be types of ducks'. Since the information could not be false, the information would be genuinely true and would necessarily say about its source. This source can be interpreted, like the world itself, enabling the treatment of another problem of IF, i.e. : what is the nature of knowledge?

Regarding the nature of knowledge, the theories of knowledge stand out, from which it is analyzed through the relationship between the agent the cognitive and the world. For Dretske (1981, p. 56), information processors of the sensory systems of organisms are channels for receiving information about the external world.

The naturalistic posture in Philosophy consists of disregarding the supernatural in the explanation of nature and mind, conceiving reality consisting only of elements and laws, which are explained through scientific methods. The term "natural" would encompass other terms such as "physical", "biological" or "informational" that express a rejection of transcendent assumptions in the foundation of a priori knowledge (Moraes, 2014), the acquisition of knowledge. (Adams, 2010), in turn, argues that knowledge acquires its properties from its informational basis; so if someone 'knows that p' it is because he is informed 'that p'. In this relationship, knowledge is about the world, about truth, constituting the bridge between the cognitive agent and the world.

In addition to the problems about the ontological and epistemological nature of information, and the nature of knowledge, they are part of the IF's research agenda to the following questions: "what is meaning?", "what is the relationship between mental states and informational states?", "could reality be reduced to informational terms?", "can information support an ethical theory?", among others.

Presented the topics (problems) and theories (hypotheses and explanations) of the IF, we highlight two methods specific to this area of investigation: the "synthetic method of analysis" and the "levels of abstraction".

Such methods come from the influence of Turing's works on Philosophy (marked by the informational turn). The "synthetic method of analysis" is the result of the hypothesis of (Turing, 1950), according to which the study of the mind is appropriate, when performed from the use of mechanical functions that could be manipulated by digital computers (Gonzalez, 2005; Floridi, 2012). Through such functions it would be possible to construct mechanical models of the structure and dynamics of intelligent thinking. The understanding that underlies this conception is that the ability to manipulate information in a mechanical way constitutes thinking.

This understanding allowed the development of mechanical models of the mind, which initially generated two aspects in Cognitive Science (Teixeira, 1998): strong Artificial Intelligence, which defends the thesis according to which mechanical models of the mind, when successful, not only simulate / emulate mental activities, but explain and instantiate such

activities; and weak Artificial Intelligence, according to which the model is only a limited explanatory tool of intelligent mental activity. The common point of such a point is that both accept the thesis that to simulate is to explain, in order to attribute to mechanical models, the value of theories. This is an example of an approach to another question specific to THE: what is the relationship between information and intelligent thinking?

The "levels of abstraction", in turn, stem from Turing's algorithmic approach, which is summation by (Floridi, 2013b, p. 210) as follows: We have seen that questions and answers never occur in a vacuum but are always incorporated into a network of other questions and answers. Similarly, they cannot occur in any context, without any purpose, or regardless of any perspective. From this perspective, a philosophical question is analyzed considering its context and purpose, which delimit the field of possibilities of appropriate answers.

Considering the topics, theories, and methods proper to the IF, (Adams & Moraes, 2014) propose the "argument of analogy" to analyze the autonomous aspect of THE. These authors highlight that, like the Philosophy of Mathematics and the Philosophy of Biology, IF has characteristics such as:

- Proximity with the scientific approach, epistemological and metaphysical problems, in addition to the presence of their own problems not previously addressed in other areas of Philosophy. Given that THE IF shares characteristics present in areas already recognized by philosophical society, such as legitimate, it would be counterintuitive not to accept THE, as an autonomous area of research in Philosophy.

As indicated, the development of information studies in the philosophical-scientific sphere contributed to the constitution of the IF in the academic sphere. This is illustrated with the constitution of the IF, as an autonomous and interdisciplinary area of Philosophy: interdisciplinary due to its relationship with Computing, Sociology, Engineering, among other areas, generating methods and theories to deal with its problems; and autonomous, due to its own (and new) problems. In a compass with the development of the academic scope of THE, the influence in the social sphere also stands out, illustrated with the growing presence of ICT in the daily life of people and organizations. Such presence would be influencing the dynamics of contemporary society, constituting the "Information Society".

Evolution of Philosophy

Philosophy does not have the advantage, of which other sciences enjoy, of being able to resuppress their objects, as data by representation; and also the method of knowing, to start and go there. First, philosophy has, in fact, its objects in common with religion. The two have the truth, as an object, certainly in the highest sense: in the sense that God is the truth, and only he is the truth. In addition, both deal with the scope of the finite, nature and the human spirit, the reciprocal relationship, and the relationship with God.

Philosophy can, and must, resuspend a familiarity with objects and become interested in them; since consciousness makes in time representations of objects, before making concepts about them, the thinking spirit, only through representing and turning to it, advances until it advances to know and conceive the thinking. But in the thinking consider, it soon turns out, that this includes in itself the requirement to show the need for its content, to prove both the being and the determinations of its object. The familiarity mentioned above, with objects, appears as insufficient and, as inadmissible to make or legitimize assumptions and asserts.

But the difficulty of instituting a beginning presents itself at the same time, a beginning, as something immediate, makes its assumption; or rather, himself, is an assumption. Initially, philosophy can generally determine as a thinking consideration of objects. If it is correct that man is distinguished from animals by thinking, everything that is human is human, because and, just because, it is affected through thinking.

While philosophy is a peculiar way of thinking, a way in which thinking becomes known and known the concept, its thinking will also have a diversity in relation to active thinking, in all that is human, and even if it affects the humanity of the human being; as much as, it is identical to that thinking: in itself there is one thought. This difference is linked to the fact that the human content of consciousness, founded thanks to thinking, does not appear first in the form of thought, but as feeling, intuition, representation, forms to be differentiated from thinking as a form.

It is an old prejudice, a proposition that has become banal, that man is distinguished from animals by thinking. It may seem trite; but it should also seem strange that it had to seem trite; but it should also seem strange that such an ancient belief should be remembered. However, this can be taken as necessary for the prejudice of the present time that separates, one from the other, feeling and thinking, to the point that they should be opposed, and even so hostile that the feeling, especially the religious, would be tarnished, perverted, or perhaps even annihilated by thinking; and religion and religiosity would not have in thinking its root and its place.

With such separation, one forgets that only man can have religion, but the animal has no religion; nor is it incumbent on him to have the right and morality. When this separation between religion and thinking is affirmed, it is clustered to evoke the thought that can be designated, as reflection, the thinking that reflects, which has by its content and brings to consciousness thoughts, as such. It is the negligence in knowing and considering the difference determined by established by philosophy about thinking, which raises the grossest representations and censorships against philosophy.

Because only to man belongs to religion, law, and ethics, and this, in fact, just because it is the thinking essence, thinking has not been inactive with regard to religion, law, ethics, whether it is feeling, belief or representation; and the activity and productions of thinking are present and contained there. Only it is different to have such feelings and representations determined and penetrated by thinking and having thoughts about them. Thoughts about these modes of consciousness, produced by meditation, are what they are understood under, reflection, reasoning and similar things, and also philosophy.

Metaphysical proofs of God's existence were presented, so that only through his knowledge and conviction about him could the faith and conviction of God's existence be essentially produced. Such a statement would agree with this: that we can eat nothing before we have acquired for ourselves the knowledge of the chemical, botanical or zoological determinations of food; and we should postpone digestion until we have completed the study of anatomy and physiology. If so, these sciences

would certainly gain much in usefulness in their field, as philosophy and even its usefulness would rise to absolute and universal indispensability. Moreover, instead of being indispensable, these sciences would not exist.

The content that fills our consciousness, constitutes the identity of feelings, intuitions, images, ends, duties, etc., and of thoughts and concepts. Feeling, intuition, image, etc., are in this measure the forms of such content, which remains one and the same. In either of these forms or in the mixture of several, content is the object of consciousness. But in this objectivity, the determinants of these forms join the content, so that each of these forms, a particular object seems to arise, and what in itself is the same, may seem a different content.

While the determinants of feeling, intuition, desire, will, etc., as far as they are known, are generally called representations, it can be said, in general, that philosophy puts, in place of representations, thoughts, categories and, more precisely, concepts. Representations, in general, can be seen as metaphors of thoughts and concepts. But, because they have representations, their meaning to think is not yet known, their thoughts and concepts are not yet known. Conversely, they are also two different things, having thoughts and concepts, and knowing what are the representations, intuitions and feelings that correspond to them.

One side of what is called the intelligibility of philosophy refers to this. The difficulty lies, in the incapacity that is only a lack of the custom of thinking abstractly; that is, to firmly maintain pure thoughts and to move in them. In our ordinary consciousness are thoughts clothed and united with a sensitive and spiritual common matter; and by meditating, reflecting, and reasoning, we mix feelings, intuitions, and representations with thoughts.

The other side of unintelligibility is the impatience in wanting to have before you, in the mode of representation, what is in consciousness, as thought and concept. There is the expression that one does not know what one should think about a concept that has been learned; now, in a concept there is nothing more to think than the concept itself. But the meaning of this expression is the longing for a well-known, current representation; for consciousness, it is as if, with the mode of representation, the soil in which it has, moreover, its fixed point and domicile, was removed.

When you're displaced to the pure region of concepts, you don't know where you are in the world. Therefore, what is most intelligible are the writers, preachers, speakers, etc., who dictate to their readers or listeners, things that they already know by heart, which are familiar to them, and which are understood for themselves. As for our common consciousness, philosophy would first have to establish the need for its peculiar way of knowing, and even awakening it. But as for the objects of religion, as for truth in general, philosophy would have to prove its ability to know them from itself.

As for a diversity that comes to light by religious representations, philosophy would have to justify its discordant determinations. With a view to a preliminary understanding of the difference presented and the interaction that is united with it, that the true content of our consciousness is preserved in its transposition into the form of thought and concept, in fact it is only put in its own light, another old prejudice can be remembered, that is, that it requires reflection to experience what is true in objects and events, as well as in feelings, intuitions, opinions, representations, etc. In any case, reflection at least changes feelings, representations, etc., into thoughts.

To the extent that thinking is only what philosophy claims for the peculiar form of its task, even though every man by nature can think, by virtue of this abstraction, which leaves aside the indicated difference, the opposite of what was previously indicated occurs, as a complaint about the intelligibility of philosophy. This science often suffers from contempt, so that those who have not taken the trouble to study it also declare their presumption of naturally understanding the situation of philosophy; and, as they are capable, in an ordinary culture, especially religious sentiment, of entering and leaving, they are also able to philosophize and judge on philosophy. There is agreement that one must have studied the other sciences to know them; and that only thanks to such knowledge is he authorized to make a judgment on them.

To manufacture a shoe must have learned and exercised, although each shoe has a pattern of measurement and needs hands, and in them the natural aptitude to the required task. Just for philosophizing, one should not require study, learning of similar things or their effort. This commodity opinion has received its ratification in the present times through the doctrine of immediate knowledge, of knowledge by intuition. On the other hand, it is important that philosophy understands its content is nothing other than the content originally produced, and produced, within the context of the living spirit, and constituted in the world, outside and inside consciousness; and understand that the content of philosophy is the effectiveness of consciousness; and that the content of philosophy is effectiveness.

We call experience to the consciousness closest to this content. A sensible consideration of the world already distinguishes what, in the vast realm of being, outside and within, is only a phenomenon, is transient and insignificant, and what in itself truly deserves the name of effectiveness. While philosophy differs only according to the form of another awareness of this unique and identical content, it is necessary to agree with effectiveness and experience; and even this agreement can be regarded as a touchstone, at least outside, of the truth of a philosophy; thus, as it is to be considered, as the ultimate and supreme end of science, to arouse, by the knowledge of this agreement, the reconciliation of self-conscious reason, with reason positioned with effectiveness.

"What is rational is effective and what is effective is rational." These simple propositions seem shocking to many; have experienced hostility, including from people who do not want them to question their philosophy, and also certainly religion. It is unnecessary to adduce religion in this regard, because its teachings on the divine government of the world express these propositions in an overly determined manner. But when it comes to the philosophical sense, it is necessary to assume a lot of culture to know not only that God is effective, that he is the most effective, that he alone is truly effective; but also, in the aspect of the formal, which in general the being there, is on the one-part phenomenon and on the other part is effectiveness. In everyday life, it is eventually called "an affectation" any whim; error, evil, and what belongs to this side of things, as well as, any existence, however petty and transitory it may be.

But also, for an ordinary sensibility, a contingent existence will not deserve the emphatic name of something effective. The quota is an existence that does not have a greater value than that of something possible, which, as it is, may also not be. But if effectiveness would be to think of itself in what sense is this expression used? The separation between effectiveness and the idea is particularly grateful to the understanding that takes the dreams of his abstractions for something true, and it is

vanity of duty-being that he likes to prescribe, also and especially in the political field, as if the world had waited for him to experience, as it should be, but it is not. If it were, as it should be, where would the precocity of your duty be? Who would not be wise enough to see, in what surrounds him, many things that are not really as they should be? But this prudence is wrong to figure that, with such objects and their duty-to-be, it lies within the interest of philosophical science. This only has to do with the idea, which is not so powerless to just be, and not be effectively; and therefore philosophy has to do with an effectiveness in which these objects, structures, conjunctures, etc. are only the superficial external side.

While reflecting in general contains the principle of philosophy, and after it flourished again in its autonomy in modern times (after the time of the Lutheran reform), while from the beginning it did not behave simply abstractly, as in the beginnings of the philosopher's philosophy of the Greeks, but at the same time launched itself on matter, which seemed immeasurable, from the world of phenomena, the name of philosophy was given to all the knowledge that took care of the knowledge of **the fixed measure and the universal, in the sea of empirical singularities, and of the necessary, of the laws, in the apparent disorder of the infinite multitude of the contingent; and with it, at the same time, took its own content of the very intuition and perceive of the outside and the interior, of present nature, as of the spirit also present, and of the heart of man.**

The principle of experience contains the infinitely important determination that, in to admit and have a true content, man must be there; more precisely, the determination to find such content in unity with the certainty of itself and associated with it. Man must be there, himself, either with his external senses, or with his deepest spirit, his consciousness-of-himself. This principle is the same as we call faith, immediate knowledge, revelation on the outside and especially within man himself. These sciences, which have been called philosophy, we call them empirical sciences, by the starting point they adopt.

But the essential that aim at as an end, and produce, are laws, universal propositions, a theory: thoughts about the given. Thus, Newton's physics was called natural philosophy, while for example Hugo Grotius, through the confrontation of the historical attitudes of the peoples, towards each other, and with the support of an ordinary reasoning, established general principles, in a theory that can be called philosophy of external public law.

The name of philosophy still has among the English generally this determination: Newton continues to have the reputation of being the greatest philosopher, in particular science, which is due to more recent times, political economy is also called philosophy; what we usually call rational political economics or eventually political intelligence economics.

As satisfying as this knowledge in his field, that of experience, is also satisfactory, another circle of objects that are not covered in it: freedom, spirit and God. They cannot be found in this land, not because they do not belong to the experience, in fact they are not experienced sensibly, but what is in consciousness, in general, is experienced; this, in fact, is a tautological proposition, but because these objects present themselves immediately, according to their content, as infinite.

The relationship of speculative science with other sciences exists only, while speculative science does not leave aside the empirical content of others, but recognizes and uses it; and also recognizes the universal of these sciences, laws, genres, etc., and uses it for its own content; but also, in these categories introduces and enforces others. The difference refers, to this extent, only to this change of categories.

Speculative Logic contains the Logic and Metaphysics of yesteryear; it retains the same forms of thought, laws and objects, but at the same time perfecting and transforming with other categories. It must be distinguished from the concept, in the speculative sense, what is usually called concept. And in the last sense, unilateral, which stood and repeated thousands and thousands of times, and stood in prejudice, that infinity cannot be understood through concepts.

The birth of philosophy has experience, immediate and reasoning awareness, as a starting point. Excited by it, as by a stimulus, thinking essentially proceeds to rise above the natural consciousness, sensitive and reasoning to the pure and, without mixing element of itself, and is thus granted initially in a negative relationship to move away, towards this beginning. In this way in the idea of the universal essence of these phenomena, first, in their satisfaction; this idea (the absolute, God) can be abstract. Conversely, the sciences of experience bring with them the stimulus to overcome the form, in which the richness of its content is offered, as something only immediate, as a finding, a multiplicity arranged side by side, in general, as something contingent, and to raise that content to the need. This stimulus takes away the thinking of this universality, and of this satisfaction obtained, and impels it to development, from itself.

Empirical sciences do not stand in the sense of the singularities of the phenomenon; but, thinking, they elaborate the material for philosophy, while discovering the universal determinations, the genres and the laws: they prepare that first content of the particular so that it can be welcomed by philosophy. They include, in order to think about the presence of progressing, himself, to these concrete determinations. The welcome of this content in which, thanks to thinking, and at the same time a development of thinking, from itself. While philosophy owes its development to empirical sciences, it gives the content the most essential figure of freedom (a priori) of thinking and the verification of necessity, rather than finding the finding, and fact-of-experience; so that the fact becomes the presentation and reproduction of the original and perfectly autonomous activity that is a, of thinking.

Each part of philosophy is a philosophical Whole, a circle that closes itself; but the philosophical idea is there in a particular element. The singular circle, because it is totality, also breaks the barrier of its element and founds a later sphere. Therefore, the whole presents itself, as a circle of circles, each of which is a necessary moment, so that the system of its own elements constitutes the complete idea, which also appears in each singular element.

The whole of philosophy is therefore truly a science; but it can also be seen as a whole of many particular sciences.

The unit in which, in such an aggregate, the sciences come together, since they are welcomed in an external way, is an equally external unit: an order. This order must necessarily, for the same reason and also because the materials are contingent in nature, remain an essay, and always present inadequate sides.

Its beginning, rational, passes to the contingent because it has to bring the universal down to empirical singularity and effectiveness. In this field of mutability and contingency, the concept cannot be asserted, but only reasons. Legal science, e.g. or the system of direct and indirect taxes require very precise last decisions, which are outside the being-determined-in-si-e-for-si of the concept, and therefore allow a space for determination, which according to one reason can be seized in one

way, and otherwise, without being susceptible to anything, that is last with warranty. Likely, the idea of nature in its singularization is lost in contingencies, and natural history, geography, medicine, etc. fall into the determinations of existence, species and differences that are determined by an external fortuitous accident and by the game of chance, and not by reason. History also fits here, to the extent that the idea is its essence, but its manifestation lies in the contingency and in the field of arbitrary.

Such sciences are also positive, while they do not recognize their determinations, as finite nor show the passage of these determinations and from their entire sphere to another superior, but admit them as simply valid. The superior, but admit them, as simply valid. To this finitude of form, as the first was the finitude of matter. The finitude of the foundation-of-knowledge, which is, on the one hand, reasoning; on the other hand, the feeling, the faith, the authority of others in general, the authority of intuition. This is also the case in this case philosophy, which wants to be founded on anthropology, the facts of consciousness, inner intuition or external experience.

It may also be that simply the form of scientific exposure is empirical, but that the full-sense intuition orifies what are only phenomena, according to the inner sequence of the concept. It belongs to such empirical that by opposition and multiple variety of grouped phenomena overlap the external circumstances, contingent of the conditions, and then, through this, the universal arises before the mind.

An experimental physics, a history, etc., endorsed with meaning, will thus expose the rational science of nature, the events and acts of man, in an external image that reflects the concept. As for the beginning that philosophy has to establish, it also seems that philosophy in general begins with a subjective assumption, like the other sciences. Namely: you have to make a particular object the object of thinking. As in other sciences this object is space, the number etc. here in philosophy is the same thinking. But the free act of thinking is this: to put one yourself in the point of view in which it is for itself, and so it engenders itself and takes place in an object itself.

Moreover, this point of view, which thus appears as immediate, must, within science, be a result; and indeed the ultimate result of science, in which it reaches from its new beginning and returns on itself. Thus philosophy is shown, as a circle that returns on itself, that has no beginning, in the sense of other sciences, so that the beginning is only a relationship with the subject, while he wants to decide to philosophies, but not to science as such. Or, what is the same, the concept of science and therefore the first concept and, because it is the first, contains the separation, namely that thinking is the object for a philosopher, in a way external, this concept must be apprehended by science itself. And even that its only end, action and goal: to achieve the concept of its concept, and thus its return, over itself, and its satisfaction.

Since one cannot give a previous, general representation of a philosophy because only the whole of science is the exposition of the idea, so its division can only be conceived from this exposition; division is like the idea, from which it has to draw an anticipation. The idea, however, is proven, as thinking simply identical to one's soul, and this, as an activity of cohering to one's soul, to be for ones; and be in that other, only close to himself. Thus science is divided into three parts:

1. **Logic** - the science of the idea itself and for itself.
2. **The Philosophy of Nature** - as the science of the idea in its being-another.
3. **The Philosophy of the Spirit** - as an idea that in your being-other returns to itself.

Logic

Logic is the science of pure idea, that is, of the idea in the abstract element of thinking. It applies to this determination, as for the others, contained in this preliminary concept, the same that applies to the concepts previously presented about philosophy in general: namely, which are determinations extracted from the overview of the whole and according to it. It can be said that Logic is the science of thinking, its determinations, and laws. But thinking as such constitutes only universal detection or the element in which the idea is as logic. The idea is to think, not as formal thinking, but as the whole, in development, of its own determinations and laws, which the idea gives itself: (e) not that it already has and finds.

Logic is the most difficult science, in that it does not deal with intuitions, not even as geometry with abstract sensitive representations, but with pure abstractions, and requires a force and expertise to withdraw from pure thought, to keep it firmly and to move within it. On the other hand, logic could be seen as the easiest because the content is but the thought itself, and its current determinations; and these are the simplest, and at the same time are the elementary. They are also what is best known, being, nothing, etc.; determination, greatness, etc.; being-in-itself, being-for-one, one, multiple, etc. however, this notoriety hinders, rather, the study of Logic.

On the one hand, it is easily considered that it is not worth dealing with such a well-known thing; on the other hand, it is therefore a question of making it well-known in a completely different and even opposite way to what is already known. The usefulness of Logic about the relation to the subject, to the extent that he acquires a certain formation for other purposes. The formation of this subject, through Logic, consists in which he exercises himself in thinking; because this science is the thinking of thinking; and in which the subject receives in his head the thoughts, and receives them also, as thoughts. But while the logical is the absolute form of truth and, even more so, it is also the pure truth itself, it is at all diverse that simply something useful. But, as the most excellent, the freest and the most autonomous is also the most useful, the logical can also be understood so. Its usefulness must be seen differently than simply the formal exercise of thought.

The first question is this: what is the object of philosophical sciences? The simplest, and easiest-to-understand answer to this question is that the truth is this object. Truth is an excellent word, and the Thing even more excellent. If man's spirit and soul are still healthy, his heart must soon beat harder. But it soon presents itself, however, if we can know the truth. It seems that there is an inadequacy between us, limited men, and the truth based on themselves; and the question arises about the bridge between the finite and the infinite. God is the truth; how should we know him?

The virtues of humility and modesty seem to be in contradiction with such a project, but one also questions whether truth can be known, to find a justification for continuing to live in the vulgarity of its finite ends. Such humility is no big deal at this point. A language like this: "How would I, poor worm of the earth, be able to know the truth?" is outdated. In its place came presumption and fantasy and one imagined to be immediately in fact persuaded to the youth that she, as it is, already

possesses the true (in religion and ethics). It was also said in this regard that as a whole adults, signified and ossified, are submerged in untruth.

The dawn would shine for the young, while the world of the elders would be in the swamp and the slat of the day. The sciences, in this case, are characterized, as something that must be acquired, certainly, but as a simple means for external vital purposes. Here it is not modesty that prevents knowledge and the study of truth, but the conviction that one already possesses the truth in itself and for itself. Undoubtedly, the elders now put their hope in their youth, for it must carry forward the world and science. But this hope is only put in youth, to the extent that it does not remain as it is, but it underlies the bitter work of the spirit.

There is yet another figure of modesty in relation to the truth. And vanity before the truth, as we see in Pilate face to face with Christ. Pilate asked, "What is the truth?" in the sense of those who had adjusted accounts with everything, for whom nothing had more meaning—in the sense that Solomon said, "Everything is vanity." Here remains only subjective vanity. Moreover, pusillanimity is opposed to the knowledge of the truth. For the lazy spirit it is easy to say, "do not suppose that philosophism should be taken seriously." One can even pay attention to logic, although this should leave us as we are. It is believed that if the thinking exceeds the usual circle of representations, it will give in bad addresses. Indeed, those who entrust themselves to a sea, where one is fused from one side to the other by the waves of thought, in the end will give again in the sandbar of this temporality that was left for nothing: and twice nothing.

What stems from such an opinion is well seen in the world. You can acquire various skills and knowledge, become a routine employee, and cultivate themselves for your purposes. But it is another thing to cultivate your spirit for what is most important and strive to achieve it. It can be expected that in our time a desire for something better has arisen in youth, and that it does not want to be content simply with the straw of outside knowledge.

That thinking is the object of logic, on this point one universally agrees. But thinking can have a very petty opinion and a very high opinion. Thus, it is said on the one hand: "this is only a thought", and it is assumed with this that thought is only subjective, arbitrary, and contingent, but it is not the very thing, the true and effective. On the other hand, one can have a high opinion of thought, and seize it so that only he can reach the highest, the nature of God; and that with the senses nothing can be known of God. It is said that God is spirit and wants to be worshipped in spirit and truth. We agree that what is felt and sensitive is not the spiritual; but that his most intimate is thought, and that only the spirit can know the spirit. The spirit can undoubtedly behave as a soul it feels (for example, in religion); one thing, however is the feeling as such, the mode of feeling, and another thing its content.

The feeling as such is, in general, the form of the sensitive, which we have in common with animals. This form, then, may well take over the concrete content, but this content does not belong to that form; the form of feeling is the lower form of spiritual content. This content, God Himself, is only the truth in thinking and how to think. In this sense, thought is not only thought, but rather is the highest way and, carefully considered, the only way in which the eternal and the supported can be apprehended in itself and for itself. As about thought, also about the science of thought can have a high opinion and a low opinion. It is thought that thinking, each can do without logic, as he can digest without studying physiology.

If logic was also studied, then one thinks later as before, perhaps more methodologically, but with little change. If logic had no other function than to familiarize itself with the activity of purely formal thinking, then it would not produce anything that had not been done equally well, in any other way. Also the logic prior to ours actually only had this position. In fact, the knowledge of thinking as a purely subjective activity also honors man and interests him; by knowing what is, and what he does, man differs from the animal.

But Logic as the science of thinking has a high point of view in that only thought can experience what is highest, the true. If, the science of logic considers thinking its activity and its production (and thinking is not an activity without content, because it produces thought and produces thought), the content in general is the supersensitive world, and to take care of thought is to linger in that world.

Mathematics deals with the abstractions of number and space, but which are still somewhat sensitive, although they are the sensitive abstract and needy-to-be-there. The thought says goodbye also to the last sensitive and is free with himself; external and internal sensitivity, removes all particular interests and inclinations. To the extent that Logic has this basis, we must make it a more dignified idea than is usually.

The need to understand Logic, in the deepest sense that the science of purely formal thinking, is caused by the interest of religion, law, the State, and ethical life. Once, nothing was wrong to think; thought and that's it. One thought about God, nature, and the State, and one had the conviction that only through thought do we come to know what the truth is, and not by the senses or by some representing and opining contingent. But while we continued to think so, it happened that in life the superior relationships were compromised by it. By thinking, the positive was taken away from him. Political constitutions fell into a holocaust to thought; religion was attacked by thought, the solid religious representations, which were worth simply as revelations, were buried; and the ancient faith was destroyed in many souls.

Thus, for example, Greek philosophers opposed the old religions and annihilated their representations. Therefore, philosophers were banished and killed because of subversion of religion and the state, which were both essentially connected. Thus, the thinking was made effective and exercised the most colossal effectiveness. Therefore, he drew attention to the power of thinking, beginning to examine his complaints more closely, and it was intended to have thought that he had excessive pretensions, and could not carry out what he undertook. Instead of knowing the essence of God, nature, and spirit, and, instead of knowing the truth, thought destroyed religion and the state.

For this reason, a justification of thinking about its results was required, and the examination of the nature of thinking and its legitimation is what, in modern times, was largely the interest of philosophy. Let us take the thought of its representation that gets closer; then it appears: 1) first in its usual subjective meaning, as one of the spiritual activities or faculties, alongside others, such as sensitivity, intuition, fantasy, etc.; desire, desire, etc. Their product, the determination or the form of thought is the universal, the abstract in general. Thinking, as an activity, is therefore the active universal, and indeed the universal

that is active; while the act, the one produced, is precisely the universal. Thinking, represented as a subject, is the thinking subject, and the simple expression of the existing subject as a thinking being is, I.

The determinations set out here and in the following paragraphs should not be taken, as a statement, or as my opinions on thinking. However, because in this preliminary (speaking) manner no deduction or proof can take place, they must be valid as facts, so that in the consciousness of any person, if he has thoughts and considers them, it is empirically found that the character of universality and thus also the subsequent determinations are present. For the observation of the facts of their consciousness and their representations, it is certainly required that a culture of attention and abstraction be present and available. In this preliminary exposition, there is talk of the difference between sensitive, representation and thought, decisive difference to understand nature and modes of knowledge. It will also serve the clarification to make this difference already known here.

For the sensitive, it is first its external origin — the senses or the organs of the senses — that is taken by explanation. Only that the name of the instrument gives no determination for what is captured by it. The difference between the sensitive and the thought must be placed in which the determination of the sensitive is the singularity, and, while the singular (in an entirely abstract way: the atom) is also in the connection, the sensitive is another (being), whose most precise abstract forms are: the (being), of-one-other and the (being)-to-the-side and of-one-other.

The representing has such content-sensitive matter; but put in the determination of mine, (namely), that such content is in me; and in the determination of universality, of the relationship-to-yourself, of simplicity.

Besides the sensitive, the representation has, however, also matter originating from self-conscious thinking, such as representations of the legal, the ethical, the religious and also of the same thinking; and it is not easy to situate where is the difference between such representations and thoughts about such content. Here the content is thought, more so since the form of universality is also present, since it is appropriate, that it is for being a content in me, and in general because it is representation. However, in general, the peculiarity of representation must be placed, also in this respect, in which such content remains equally isolated in its singularity. According to time, they certainly manifest themselves as if they were "one-after-the-other"; but its content sits not affected by time, flowing in it and changeable. But such spiritual determinations themselves are equally isolated in the broad terrain of the interior, abstract, universality of the representation in general.

In this isolation they are simple: right, duty, God. Now, representation, or stay in this: in saying that right is right, God is God; or else, more cultivated, indicates determinations, for example, that God is creator of the world, omniscient, omnipotent etc. Here are in list many simple isolated determinations, which despite their connection, which was assigned to them in their subject, remain outside each other. The representation here coincides with the understanding, which is differentiated only by universal and particular relations, of cause and effect, etc., and therefore, the relationships of need between the isolated determinations, of the representation; while this leaves them in their indeterminate space, one next to the other, linked by the simple as well. The difference between representation and thought has special importance, because in general it can be said that philosophy does nothing but transform representations into thoughts; but after that, it is true, it transforms simple thoughts into concepts.

Moreover, if they were indicated for the sensitive, the determinations of singularity and the out-of-one-from-the-other being, it can also be added that these same determinations are, in turn, thoughts and universal. In Logic it is shown that thought and the universal is precisely this: it is itself and its outro, it seem so that outro and nothing escapes it. While language is the work of thought, there too is nothing to say in it that is not universal. What I only aim at is mine, belongs to me, while to this individual; but, if language only expresses the universal, I can't say what I just aim at. And the undazed feeling, feeling, is not the most excellent, the truest; but the most insignificant, the most untrue. If I say: the "singular", "this singular", "here", "now", all this are universalities; everything and each is something singular, one this: and also, if it is sensitive, it is one here, one now. Likely, if I say, "I," I look at myself, like this one that excludes all others; but what I say "I," each one is precisely: a Me that excludes all others from him.

Kant used the inappropriate expression that I follow all my representations, and sensations, desires, actions etc. The I am the universal itself and for itself, and the community is also a form of universality, but an external form. All other men must be common with me to be an I, just as it is common for all my sensations, representations, etc. to be mine. But, I, abstractly as such, is the pure relationship with one himself, in which one abstracts himself from the representation, of the feeling, of the whole state, as well as of all the particularity of nature, of talent, of experience, etc. Therefore, the Self, is the thought, as subject, and, while I am at the same time in all my sensations, representations, states etc. thought is everywhere present and crosses, etc. Thought is everywhere present and crosses, as category all these determinations.

When we speak of thinking, this appears initially, as a subjective activity, as a faculty, among the various that we have, such as memory, representation, the faculty of wanting, and others similar. Were thought simply a subjective activity and, as such, the object of logic, then it would have, like other sciences, its determined object. It could appear then as agency, to make one think the object of a particular science; and not do the same also of the will, imagination, etc. That it was up to thought to have this honor, that might well have its reason that it is given a certain authority, and that it is regarded, as the true of man, as what its difference with the animal consists of. Learning to know thinking, also simply, as a subjective activity, is not without interest. The most precise determinations would then be the rules and laws whose knowledge is acquired through experience. Thinking, considered in this relationship, according to its laws, is also what ordinarily constituted the content of Logic. Aristotle is the founder of this science. He had the strength to assign when he thought about what incumbent on him as such is. Our thinking is very concrete, but in the multiform content one must distinguish what belongs to the thought or abstract form of the activity. A discreet spiritual bond, the activity of thinking, brings together all this content; and Aristotle stressed and determined this bond, such a form.

To this day, this Logic of Aristotle is the logic that was only unfolded more broadly, mainly by the scoliotics of the Middle Ages, although they have not increased, but only further developed the content. The action of modern times in relation to Logic consists mainly, on the one hand of rejecting many logical determinations elaborated by Aristotle and the scoliotics, and, on the other hand, in grafting numerous psychological material. In this science, the interest is to learn to know your

process of finite thinking, and science is correct, when it corresponds to its presupposition object. Occupation with this formal logic has undoubtedly its usefulness; for it, as it is said, "the head gets ready"; it learns to concentrate, it learns to abstract itself, while in ordinary consciousness one deals with sensitive representations that intersect and embarrass each other. However, in abstraction there is the concentration of the spirit in one point, and there by that is the habit of dealing with interiority.

Familiarity with the forms of finite thinking can be used as a means of formation for empirical sciences, which proceed according to these forms; and in this sense logic was characterized as instrumental logic. However, it can undoubtedly act more "liberally and say that Logic should not be studied by utility, but by itself, because the excellent should not be searched for simple utility. In fact, this on the one hand is entirely accurate; but on the other the excellent is also the most useful, for it is the substantial that stands firm by itself, and for this reason it is the support for the purposes, which it promotes and takes to term. We do not have to consider the ends, as what is first, but the excellent promotes them. Thus, for example, religion has absolute value in itself; at the same time the other ends are supported and fulfilled by it. Christ says, "Seek the Kingdom of God before, and the rest will be given to you in addition." Purposes can only be achieved to the extent that the essential itself is achieved.

2.5 - SOCIAL SCIENCES

Introduction

Although thought and reflection on social reality and social relations has been a constant in the history of humanity, since Classical Greece, through the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance, it is only in the nineteenth century that it becomes possible to speak in "social sciences", because it is the set of reflections of this period that, incorporating the Baconian principles and the Cartesian method, it will consist of the form of knowledge historically known as "modern science". If the eighteenth century met important thinkers of society, such as Montesquieu, Locke, Hume, and Rousseau, it is with Auguste Comte that usually identifies the beginning of the social sciences.

Comte, a French thinker known as the father of Positivism, proposed to conduct studies on society with maximum objectivity, in search of universal laws that governed the behavior of social life everywhere. His theory, also called Social Physics, proposed that the whole of society evolve in the same way and in the same sense. And thus, he proposed his Law of the Three States, according to which every society evolved from a theological or fictitious state to a metaphysical or abstract state and, hence, finally, to a positive or scientific state (Lakatos & Marconi, 1999, p. 45-46). Comte's Social Physics provides the theoretical basis for a process that had been taking place in Europe two centuries before, a process by which "the calculation of probabilities, whose bases are laid by Pascal and Huyghes around 1660, becomes a new form of objectification of human societies" (Mattelart, 2002, p. 18).

The mathematical sociology of the Belgian Adolphe Quételet, the probabilistic theories, the application of statistics in the management of societies and the anthropometry of Alphonse Bertillon were developed. In a direction only partially distinct, since his direct influence comes from Darwin's work on the evolution of species, the Englishman Herbert Spencer began, at the same time, Social Biology (Lakatos & Marconi, Araújo, 1999, p. 47).

From the reflections on the division of labour (Smith & Stuart Mill), the models of material flows in social groupings (Quesnay, Babbage) and the theorization on networks (Saint-Simon), Spencer elaborates his organizational model of understanding social reality, promoting an analogy between society and a living organism, with the parties' performing functions, for the proper functioning of the whole. Among the various impacts caused by this theoretical model is the foundation of the doctrine of Social Darwinism, which justified the European colonizing action in the 19th century in Africa and Asia, the elaboration of The Psychology of Crowds (Sighele, Le Bon) and the use, in the social sciences, of various terms and concepts "borrowed" from biology (isolation, contact, cooperation, competition and others).

The synthesis between the two pioneering theorizations and their systematization in a body of "sociological" knowledge was made by Émile Durkheim, "French, considered by many scholars to be the founder of sociology, as independent science of the other social sciences" (Lakatos & Marconi, 1999, p. 48). His proposal, to consider social facts as "things", and a radical empiricism are in perfect harmony with the positivist spirit. His idea of "primitive societies" and "complex societies" takes up both elements of the Three States Act and Spencer's biological perspective, which is not taken without criticism. His study on suicide is the application of the rules of the sociological method defined by him two years before: the exclusion of individual and psychological causes, the search for the proper social causes, the elaboration of laws and quantification.

Sociology

With Durkheim, functionalist sociology is inaugurated, also known as the Theory of Integration, which sees society as a whole formed by constituent, differentiated and interdependent parts. The study of society must always be carried out from the point of view of the functions of its units. In the 20th century, Functionalist Sociology developed and became the "*strong program*" of the social sciences, mainly with the works of Talcott Parsons (Harvard University), Robert Merton and Paul Lazarsfeld (Columbia University), inspiring other social sciences such as anthropology, political science and communication.

This is the trend of higher sociology courses structured throughout the century, the nature of the first professional associations and the type of research funded by large foundations and government agencies. The first great division experienced in the social sciences originates in the Hegelian dialectic, taken up by Marx for the understanding of social reality (Demo, 1989, p. 88). Applied to social life, dialectical thinking, which operates with the unity of opposites, sees social life from the assumption of social conflict, realizing that "all social formation is contradictory enough, to be historically overcome" (Demo, 1989, p. 89-90). Also known as the Theory of Conflict, the Marxist perspective consists of the first model actually proper to the social sciences – since functionalism has its concepts and methods borrowed from physics and biology – even though an approximation with philosophy has been constructed.

Another approach of the social sciences puts a whole range of new concepts and objects to be studied: domination, ideology, alienation, reification. Its application, throughout the twentieth century, contributed to the construction of different

perspectives: the Critical Theory of the Frankfurt School, the Theory of Dependence, the Theory of Cultural Imperialism, the Gramscian Political Theory, and, even in the United States, has in the formulations of Wright Mills a sympathizer of the "critical" stance as opposed to the "sociology of bureaucrat or intelligence officer", that is, to the positivist and functionalist social sciences.

Structuralism

Structuralism, which is often identified as a third approach to the social sciences (Demo, 1989, p. 171) can actually be understood as a specific perspective that, in fact, constitutes manifestations of both functionalism and Marxism, as can exemplify the works of Manilowski, Radcliffe-Brown and even Parsons' "structural-functionalism" in the first case, or the works of Levi-Strauss & Althusser in the second.

The second division in the social sciences occurred from the fusion of the works of two other forerunners of the social sciences – Max Weber and Georg Simmel – both Germans. Weber is regarded as the founder of Interpretive Sociology or Comprehensive Sociology, in that he formulates the concept of social action, which is the action of the individual, endorsed with meaning for him – in what differs radically from the concept of social fact in Durkheim. His work on *Protestant Ethics and the Spirit of Capitalism* seeks to explain the development of capitalism in the United States, not from the idea of linear progress of societies or the functions of each party in the whole (functionalism) or material, economic, or class conflict conditions originated by the distribution of modes of production (Marxism), but from the "spirit of capitalism", that is, from the *ethos*, from the atmosphere of values of a given population, from the beliefs and meanings attributed to their actions.

Simmel, on the other hand, proposed the study of social relations based on small daily interactions, giving rise to a field known as microsociology. The importance of his work will take place at the beginning of the century, with the research of the Chicago School. One of its representatives, Robert Park, takes the city as a "social laboratory", installing a method of study in which subjects cannot be studied outside their environment. Ernest Burgess, in the same vein, performs work in "social ecology" from an ethnographic perspective. The first great attempt to synthesize between the two possibilities of understanding social reality (the focus on the micro dimension and the interpretative attitude of the subjects) was achieved by Symbolic Interactionism, a current that added researchers from different schools who have, as precursor George Herbert Mead. One of his students, Herbert Blumer, created the term in 1937, publishing in 1969 his three basic assumptions:

- Human behavior is based on the meanings of the world.
- The source of meanings is social interaction.
- The use of meanings occurs through an interpretation process (Blumer, 1980).

(Berger & Luckmann, 1985, 1966), addresses the social construction of reality, which is seen not only as a process of construction of objective / subjective / inter-subjective reality, in the context of infinite daily interactions, but also of processes of institutionalization and socialization.

Yet another current, in the same vein, is the ethnomethodology, a discipline founded by (Harold Garfinkel, 1967), which aims to try to understand how individuals see, describe and propose, together, a definition of the situations they are in (Coulon, 1995). His proposal provoked great controversy against traditional sociology, for criticizing the idea of social fact, as something stable and objective, proposing a vision in which this is understood, as a product of the continuous activity of men. Starting a whole branch of studies, it spread first at the University of California (Sudnow, Schegloff, Zimmerman), then throughout the United States (Cicourel), England (Heritage) and France (Fornel, Ogien). If until the 1970s, the social sciences found themselves in the clash between "administrative" and "critical" perspectives (Horkheimer, 1983), or in the face of the opposition between "apocalyptic" and "integrated" (Eco, 1985). Since that time we have witnessed the growing influence of interpretive currents and sociological micros.

From the 1980s onto the whole movement, an attempt to synthesize between the different perspectives, their proposals and their concepts. Examples of this work are the Theory of Communicative Action by Jürgen Habermas, the Praxiological Model of Louis Quéiré and Pierre Bourdieu, the Reflective Sociology of Anthony Giddens, Scott Lash and Ulrich Beck, the Sociology of Everyday Life by Michel de Certeau and Michel Maffesoli, the Cultural Studies descended from the Birmingham School and which they have today in Stuart Hall, Douglas Kellner and Fredric Jameson, their main representatives, the proposals for liaison with Clifford Geertz's hermeneutics, among others.

2.6 - POLITICALSCIENCE

Concept

Make-up (1469-1527) is considered the founder of modern political science, developed his work throughout the *sixteenth* century.

One of the objectives of political science is, through observation, to establish a series of patterns and correlations that serve to predict what can happen in the future when a political phenomenon occurs. It is not a visionary prediction, but of knowing the behavior and evolution of events.

Political science has many branches of study. Just as the economy has as two major macroeconomic and micro-economy branches, political science has its own:

- **Political power:** - Many authors throughout history have studied power and its relations with individuals. There are two great definitions, power as an instrument, as something that is maintained, and power as an effect that derives from the relationships between individuals. Some of the authors who studied it are Marx, Make-up, Weber, Mosca, Hobbes, etc.
- **Authority and legitimacy:** - The author who most developed this aspect of political science was Max Weber. He developed the three types of legitimacy of political power. First, traditional legitimacy is that exercised by patriarchs and former heritage princes. Another is legal legitimacy, which is the belief that artificially created laws are what support the exercise of power and authority by civil servants. Finally, charismatic legitimacy is the characteristic of messianic prophets or political leaders, whose authority is supported by the almost mystical belief

that they are all-powerful, and their actions are always well directed in favor of the realization of a common or higher good.

- **The State:** - It worries all forms of government that exist and the relationship between all its institutions, as well as the actors who enter the political game of the State. It also studies the relations between the three powers of the State: legislative, executive and judicial. Depending on who controls them and how each of them works, we will be faced with one system of government or another.
- **Public Administration:** - Intergovernmental relations and the performance of the civil service between the different levels of administration are also the object of study. These levels are international, regional (e.g. European Union), national and local.
- **Public policies:** - Public policies are studied in depth. All phases through which a public policy passes are analyzed, from the identification of the problem to its final assessment. See if the results obtained by him reduced or canceled the problem that caused the development and implementation of it.
- **Political behavior:** - It is the set of activities carried out by people linked to the politician. According to Verba, Scholzman and Brady the most visible political behavior is political participation. And this is the set of activities that are carried out to influence political and public policy decisions. And the modes of participation are: voting, participation in campaign and political organizations, contact with politicians and media and political protest. Behavior also studies voting trends. For example, why do you vote? That is, what drives citizens to mobilize and why they vote for one option or another.
- **Political communication:** - It is the field that studies how election campaigns should be to attract the largest number of voters. But not only does it cling to the campaign, but it studies government and opposition communication. All this aimed at maximizing the vote and the resources obtained.
- **International relations:** - Studies how relations are between the different States that make up the world, geographical regions (e.g. European Union, etc.) and what policies to adopt in each subject, depending on the situation in which the State is.

Power Strategy

Here we use the word *power* to describe the exercise of influence beyond the purely economic, that is, it brings it closer to politics, a term that is widely used. Politics becomes synonymous with the exploitation of power in a way that is not purely economic. If the formulation of the strategy can be a process of planning and analysis, cognition and learning, it can also be a process of negotiation and concessions between individuals and groups.

Bolman and Deal (1997) formulated the following propositions regarding the world of organizational politics:

- Political organizations are made up of various individuals and interest groups, sometimes antagonistic.
- There are lasting differences between political groups in values, beliefs, information and perceptions of reality;
- Most important policy decisions involve the allocation of scarce resources.
- The scarce resources and lasting differences of politicians give the conflict a central role in organizational dynamics and make *power* the most important resource.
- Political goals and decisions emerge from "wars", negotiations, and maneuvers in search of positions, among the different politicians.

There are in almost all organizations three systems whose means can be described as legitimate: formal authority, established culture and know-how. We can, however, find a fourth system, politics, whose means are not formally legitimate (Macmillan and Guth, 1985):

- Politics as a system of influence can act in such a way as to ensure that the "strongest" members of a political organization are placed in leadership positions.
- Politics can ensure that all sides of an issue are fully debated, while other systems of influence can promote only one.
- Policy may be required to stimulate the necessary changes that are blocked by the most legitimate systems of influence.
- The policy can facilitate the path to the implementation of the changes.

The formulation of the strategy through networks, alliances, partnerships are part of the new vocabulary of the School of Power, that is, political organizations negotiate through a network of relationships, formulate the collective strategy. There are clearly parts of planning and positioning in this formulation, but the power and aspects negotiated are great (Elfring and Volberda, 1998).

- Networks – political organizations expand their relationships with each other, in increasing breadth and depth, i.e. they do not operate in isolation, but in complex networks of interaction with other political organizations (Hakansson and Snehota, 1989);
- Collective strategy – is a joint strategy among the members of a political network to deal with their complex interdependencies, i.e. "collaboration" comes to dominate the process of formulating the strategy to the detriment of "competition" (Astley and Charles Fombrun, 1983);
- Strategic alliances – are "joint ventures" in which political partners take positions (e.g. political actions, long-term contracts) in new projects.

Networks, alliances and collective strategies increasingly make it difficult to know where one political organization ends and the other begins, that is, the limits of political organizations are becoming increasingly vague.

The School of Power is based on the following premises:

- The formulation of the strategy is shaped by **Power** and **Politics**.

- The strategies that can result from this process tend to be emerging and take more the form of positions than perspectives.
- Micro power sees the formation of strategy as an interaction, through persuasion and sometimes direct confrontation, in the form of political games, between sometimes antagonistic interests.
- Macro power sees political organization as promoting its own well-being by control or cooperation with other political organizations, through maneuvers, as well as collective strategies (e.g., networks or alliances).

The School of Power has introduced a new vocabulary in the field of strategy, such as "networks", "political games", "collective strategies". It also emphasizes the importance that politics has in promoting strategic changes, when the established "agents" seek to maintain the *status quo*. They need to be confronted, even though politics is also a factor of resistance to strategic change, but not as effective as the strength of culture.

2.7 - CHALLENGES OF POLITICAL LEADERSHIP

Globalization

We live in a time of deep transition. The changes will perhaps be more radical than those operated when those of the "Second Industrial Revolution" were introduced in the mid-20th century or even those introduced by World War II. Some of these challenges are already visible in all developed countries and in most emerging or developing countries. They can already be identified, discussed, analyzed and applied. Some organizations are already preparing for the new challenges and will be leaders and dominate tomorrow. Those who wait will stay behind and may never come back together.

The world reality is evolving faster than the scientific demonstration capability can systematize its understanding. At the center of globalization is technological development with all due respect to Weber (1864-1920) and by the force of certain ideologies, it must be recognized that when Adam Smith (1968) (division of labor) or Marx (productive forces) put the evolution of techniques as the engine of social transformations, they were strictly right.

Today we are experiencing a profound technological revolution. In the last twenty years, more technological knowledge has accumulated than in the entire history of mankind. This has a positive side to the significant advances in increasing productivity that has been achieved, advances in health, information and so many others. Technological advances have not had a corresponding advance in institutional terms, so it becomes explosive for society. Industrial fishing is made with gigantic boats that clean the seas without worrying about tomorrow, modern transport has led to the constitution of a worldwide network of production and distribution of drugs that destroy thousands of people. Laboratories test genetic manipulations without any control or regulation, and so on (Murteira, 2001).

Improving management capacity has become a survival issue for organizations. Technologies redefine the concepts of time and space. The planet has become a global village. Communications make it easier and faster today to perform an operation on the New York or Tokyo stock exchange than to travel a short distance. International financial markets transfer more than a trillion dollars daily without any control of central banks. Chinese textiles close factories in Europe or any other country in the world. The economy has become global, while regulatory instruments remain national or regional. International regulatory institutions such as the United Nations, Gatt, the IMF and the World Bank articulate nations and not supranational space. Nation capitalism today strikes a precarious balance between business efficiency and social justice. Global capitalism is accountable to anyone.

This lack of instruments to regulate the global economy exacerbates the global polarization between rich and poor. Companies have to take their social and environmental responsibility. The reality is that as the planet "shrinks" everything becomes closer, populations "get more and more uncavalier" in urban spaces, the economic and social precipice among populations increases rapidly, there is a close proximity between wealth and poverty, luxury and deprivation and this is constituting an explosive and unsustainable mixture in the medium term. The balance of terror is no longer at country level, but on the doorstep of our homes.

Another axis of institutional transformation is given to us by the process of urbanization that is radically changing the way of life of peoples worldwide in a few generations. Urbanization ended the time when government decisions could be made by the central government. Today with widespread urbanization, large, medium or small cities have to respond to the simple problems of citizens' daily lives (school, health, small production, etc.) and it becomes increasingly absurd to wait endless times in different state bodies. Another axis of transformation is the structural transformation of work. Unemployment is no longer the result of the absence of economic growth, but from economic growth itself. Anyone waiting for the situation to improve will probably miss the train. It will be of little importance to divide activities into primary, secondary, or tertiary sectors, as this technical division will make it difficult to understand the hierarchy of the economic and social system into differentiated subsystems.

The job's over for life. Large companies started working with multiple space. They hire cheap Russian and Indian researchers, transfer software programming to India, subcontract production in Indonesia or Thailand, but maintain general system organization services, coordinate marketing services and the like in Europe or the United States. This reduces the space for formal employment and increases informal employment and the parallel economy. While on the one hand the democratization of global management develops and the world advances in a process of apparent modernization, on the other hand society is being disaggregated by the base.

In terms of conclusion we can present five fundamental trends in this process of globalization: technological development, economic polarization, urbanization and the transformation of work. Society urgently needs to pull the reins over its development and provide itself with institutional instruments capable of capitalizing on scientific advances for human development.

Globalization of Information

In an age of globe-wide communications, information is the link that unites us. By being able to transmit it in large quantities quickly from continent to continent, we have transformed a largely separate and diverse world into a single global megalodon. The messenger on foot gave way to the information highways worldwide. Anything may be an asset to be

compiled, stored, duplicated, sold, stolen and sometimes a source of murder. Many people around the world spend their working day gathering, studying, and processing/processing information. Industries have been developed to produce equipment (and software) to store and process information.

Organizations have many physical assets that have to be managed, such as products, financial goods and others. Information about the environment in terms of strategic management today requires permanent attention and can be regarded as the most asset, so in so-called knowledge-based economies, information is taking on an increasing share of the cost of doing business successfully. Although we can store it using various physical supports, the information itself is not physical, but abstract and so little purely mental. Knowledge is stored in people's memories, but information is out there in the world. Whatever it is exists somewhere between the physical world around people and the mental of human thought.

In industrial society, crude oil was an important source of energy used to move engines and feed factories. But before the chemical energy of oil could be unleashed, crude had to be refined, that is, in usable forms such as gasoline and heating fuel. Similarly, information is the source of energy that drives the "engines" of the so-called knowledge society, but to use it we need to convert it into a usable form: knowledge. But when we refine the information to turn it into knowledge, quality weighs more than quantity. When we convert information into knowledge, we add value to it and make it more expensive.

Over the past few years, in most Western countries it has been seen that the industrial sector, largely responsible for the wealth they have accumulated since the 19th century, is losing weight in gross domestic product (GDP) compared to the services sector, resulting from the transformation of industrial society into information society (Moore, 1997) for three reasons:

- Organizations increasingly rely on the intelligent use of information and are transforming into information-intensive organizations.
- People in their daily acts consume large amounts of information both in terms of leisure and in terms of business.
- The covert information industry is emerging within the diversity of the service sector as an entity sufficient to be a sector (perhaps the best) of the major sectors of the economy (primary, secondary, and tertiary sector). The industry can consist of three sectors: information content, information distribution (access centers and distribution channels, such as telecommunications operators and the Internet) and information processing (information technologies)

The transformation of organizations into informational intensive is perhaps the clearest detonator of the change to information society. The analysis of the most successful organizations in the world seems to indicate that this originated in the best management of information and knowledge about the global and immediate environment, that is, those that have been able to better detect market needs and that have better adapted in terms of configuration, methods, processes and cultural forms that have allowed combining external information with that generated internally to generate distinctive competitive advantages (Porter, 1998).

Globalization, a concept often used for business organizations, must be seen beyond the opening or not of borders, countries, markets, and organizations themselves. The information, regardless of its geographical origin or the time frame is at our fingertips via the phone keyboard, a computer, or the television screen. The world is increasingly seen as a field of opportunities, business, and markets, since with the evolution of Information Systems, supported by Information and Communication Technologies, are revolutionizing management concepts, the attitude of managers, the actions of organizations and, above all, the positioning of markets. It is necessary to reconsider concepts such as Strategy or Organization or, even, structure, emerging new concepts such as organizational urbanism, informational, etc.

Information, enhanced by information and communication technologies, assumes the role and importance of life in creating value, in a context where the knowledge of customers, competitors, suppliers and other economic managers becomes vital for the design and implementation of business strategies.

Information in the Context of Globalization

The information revolution is in a phase of advanced development. It started in companies, but it will certainly affect all organizations in society. The meaning of information will change radically for both businesses and people. This is not a technology revolution (hardware, software or speed) and is not happening in information and communication technologies, but in concepts and will have to be led by experts from information sciences.

So far and for about 50 years information technologies (IT) have focused on data – collection, storage, transmission, and presentation. They focused on the "T" of "IT". The new information revolution focuses on "I" (Drucker, 1999). About 50 years ago the widespread opinion was that the computer would find applications in organizations where it would have a major impact and would revolutionize the work of top managers. So far the impacts have occurred where no one predicted – in operations (Drucker, 1999).

None of us could have imagined the software that architects have today, that is, in a fraction of a second, they design a series of projects for large buildings: plumbing, electrical system, heating, air conditioning, specifications for elevators and their placement – a work that until recently absorbed about two-thirds of the time and costs of designing a building project. But the computer and the information he has provided so far has had virtually no impact on strategic decision-making. For top managers IT has been and continues to be a "tool" that provides more data than information – under no circumstances have they given rise to new and different questions or strategies.

After the Second World War it began to realize that cost control was not a task of the top managers, and that the success of an organization is based on something totally different – *the creation of wealth and value*. This requires risk-taking and the abandonment of old practices, innovation, the balance between short and long term and the balance between immediate profitability and market share. The frustration of top managers with the data that information technologies have provided triggered the new information revolution. Those responsible for information technologies have not yet realized that managers do not need more technology, faster, but new concepts of information for decision making. Organizations exist to

create wealth, not to control costs. However, this is not being reflected in traditional measurements. Organizations have to be managed for wealth creation and this requires information to measure activity and outcomes.

It is necessary to overcome the limitations of financial information in that it measures only the results of decision-making, so it is necessary to use new variables that indicate future results, i.e., to indicate how to create wealth and value through customers, suppliers, employees, technologies and innovation. Information for strategic decision-making must provide a milestone in the creation of wealth and value in four different perspectives:

- financial – information on growth, profitability, and risk from the perspective of shareholders.
- Customer - information to create value and differentiation from the customer's perspective.
- Internal process - information on the priorities of the different processes that create satisfaction in customers and shareholders.
- Learning and growth – Information on priorities to create a climate to support change, innovation and the growth of the organization.

Measuring has consequences that go beyond simply informing about the past. Measuring is a way to focus attention on the future because the variables and indicators (information) that managers should choose are those that make known everything that is important, such as measuring product differentiation by leadership that improves brand image and unique product characteristics, reduced costs, and increased productivity, to be more effective along the value chain (Porter, 1985). A price-only leadership strategy will be difficult to maintain in the long term, so managers will have to think more about a growth and differentiation strategy by reducing costs and improving productivity throughout their value chain and generating greater volume in products and services.

The financial perspective aims to increase the profitability of investments and capital so that using information on growth and productivity it is possible to verify whether financial objectives are being achieved and correct any deviations. The issue of productivity has two components information on cost reduction and information on asset rotation. Financial growth also has two components: information on volume growth rate compared to the growth rate of the sector and the percentage of additional or complementary products and services.

Total productivity is a key resource for diagnosing organizations, as it is no longer enough to measure work productivity, be they manual workers or knowledge. The latest tool for productivity information is *benchmarking* – comparing the organization's performance compared to the industry's best performance. From the customer's perspective, the important and relevant information has to do with measuring the results of the strategy, that is, market share represents an undifferentiated variable, so more specific variables must be defined and measured that allow the results of customer and product segments to be determined.

Managers can not only have information that measure sales results, but also information about the wealth and value created throughout the value chain, such as product accessibility, waiting time, product availability (stock ruptures), unsatisfied orders, degree of customer satisfaction, quality of products and services.

From the perspective of the internal process, clear and precise objectives must be defined considering the vision of the desired results from the financial and customer perspective. Key indicators and variables (information) are related to low cost, product quality, reduction of unproductive periods, elimination of waste, safety and health risk. Most of these variables and indicators are cause-and-effect related to the aspects of cost reduction and productivity in the financial perspective, to achieve operational excellence in basic production processes.

The perspective of learning and growth is related to information on the skills and motivations of employees with support in information technologies. This information should cover three aspects: employee skills, access to strategic information and participation in the organization. The identification of the specific skills and information that each manager needs for decision-making should be to improve the results of the internal process and create value for customers. Access to information to perform tasks in a timely manner and at the lowest cost. Participation in decision making allows to create an appropriate climate for employees to feel motivated and strong enough to achieve the objectives.

M. Porter (1996) describes the strategy as the activities in which the organization decides to stand out: "after all, all price or cost differences stem from the hundreds of activities necessary to create, produce, sell and distribute its products and or services ... Differentiation comes from the activities that are being up-eceleted and the way in which they are carried out."

In short: the information that top managers need is two types: internal information about the skills and capabilities of the organization and external information about the global and immediate environment. It is not structured and merely consists of data, so to have meaning it needs to be structured, since not all information makes sense and is important. External information is one that is increasingly important for support in strategic decision-making but needs to be monitored and organized for the work of strategic managers.

Information and Knowledge Society

The greatest of all changes was the transformation of industrial society into the information and knowledge society. The center of work has shifted to 'intellectual work'. In developed country societies, access to good jobs and a professional career was increasingly dependent on a university degree. This was the logical result, since we stopped working with the sweat of our face and the strength of our body, it was passed through industrial work and came to intellectual work. This last stage represented a break with the past.

The fact that knowledge and education have been a passport to the achievement of good jobs and a career has meant above all that in society companies are no longer the only way for someone to progress in life and have become one of several opportunities available.

The third sector, the services sector, such as consulting firms, non-governmental and non-profit institutions with paid or non-paid teams, emerged.

Governance, in addition to performing a function, also has a social function. Organizations are evolving and taking new forms based on information. Knowledge has become the capital of developed economies and knowledge workers, which determines the values and norms of society.

The great challenge for developed countries was to maintain a commitment to the necessary economic performance so that organizations and countries remained competitive. Governance and entrepreneurship have contained the entrepreneurial spirit. They are not antagonistic or mutually exclusive concepts. Both are always necessary and at the same time. Both have to be coordinated, i.e. both have to work together. No existing organization can survive without innovation and at the same time without being managed.

The government demands responsibility for performance. This needs to be measured, considering the strategic political and operational objectives. The core principles of governance can be summarized in the following:

- Governance refers to the management of resources (human, financial, technological, material, logistical and information). The main task of rulers is to make people able to act together and harness their strengths and make weaknesses irrelevant. The success of governance lies in people's ability to contribute to achieving global goals through their skills, dedication, and commitment.
- The responsibility of governance is to be able to integrate people into a common goal. What governments do in any country is the same, that is, managing the resources available to achieve the objectives and ensure success and sustainability.
- Any government has simple, clear, and unifying goals. The government's mission is to be sufficiently clear and broad to provide a common vision among its members.
- What is crucial to the performance and sustainability of government is political position, innovation, productivity, people development, the quality of products and or services and financial results.
- The rulers should keep in mind that the results are outside the organizations that is, the result of a government are satisfied citizens, that of a hospital is the cured patient, that of a school is a student who has learned something and who knows how to apply it for a few years. Withinstateorganizationthere are onlycosts.

Governance deals with the fundamental aspects of knowledge, wisdom and leadership and can be considered an "art" because it is a practice and an application. Rulers have to draw on all the knowledge and teachings of political, social and human sciences, psychology and philosophy, economics and history, exact sciences and ethics. But governments have to polarize that knowledge around effectiveness and results.

Impact of Information and Communication Technologies

Currently there is a special moment, in the diffusion of technologies, especially observing, as a source, the fields of Information Technologies, Computer Science, Management, Economics and Communication. With the supply of emerging technologies, in a list that grows rapidly, new potentials are generated for existing markets and the emergence of new markets is also enhanced.

From entre the driving technologies of these phenomena are the Big Data, Analytical, Software Robots, machine learning, in-depth learning (the last two related to the original field of **Artificial Intelligence**), automation via robots, augmented and virtual realities, 3-D printing, application of encrypted coins via Blockchain, among several others.

It is possible to evaluate, in the literature in production and debate today, that emerging technologies are expressive factors of movements in economics in two ways:

- (1) As drivers of basic innovations of business models, thus being important agents of the treatment of information and communication (Davila, Epstein and Shelton, 2007; Knickrehm, 2018.)
- (2) As new market sectors by themselves, creating and negotiating opportunities, generating new business segments (Jacob, Belderbos and Gilsing, 2013; Tadeuet *al.*, 2019).

In the exercise of the first point, we notice cases such as the use of *analytical and big data* for qualitative and quantitative studies, associated with decisions of marketing strategies. In this respect, the sampling of profiles and behaviors associated with future and potential users and customers, previously carried out with the use of specific software and processes, are integrated to implements integrated into the daily life of the citizen (Jamil, Santos and Jamil, 2019). In these processes, the software elements, supported by redesigned databases, according to new theories and adapted to consolidate information from various sources, produce in-depth levels of perception related to the "why" of decisions of market agents, allowing the strategist to effectively construct scenarios.

Evaluating the same technology, McKinsey (2020) describes, in a timely manner, how data analysis, reaching the contextual name of "Data Science", currently makes a segment of opportunities and business generation, in isolation. Considering this scenario, specifically, they go back to the "information services", addressed in some classics of literature, which defined precisely business and public operations related to the processing and subsequent processing of information for varied applications, always with the perspective of, by reliably providing the valuable collection, allow the drive and promotion of markets and competitiveness (Tadeuet *al.*, 2019; McKinsey, 2020).

In this way, we can see the two scenarios where technologies can have an impact, in various respects, in the Economy. In addition, similar studies could be conducted, addressing summary examples such as:

- The use of artificial intelligence machines for applications, for example, in health areas, consisting of techniques and tools to streamline services and exams, implementing machine learning algorithms and in-depth (Jamil, Vieira and Xavier, 2019).
- The application of augmented reality instruments and software in the offer of real estate opportunities such as construction, sale and rental of real estate and in the realization of automotive and aircraft projects.
- Widespread use of service robots, based on machine learning algorithms, associated with the processing of data and information, to perform first-level or even repetitive tasks at the operational level.
- Drive, via 3-D printing of operative machinery in civil construction environments and operational processing lines.

- Use of crypto currencies and digital registration books, as occurs in the bitcoin pair – Blockchain, seeking transparency, immediate and secure communication of records, currently used in logistics business modeling components and supply chains.

There are several immediate impacts of these technologies and their associated uses on facts and economic aspects. The breakup brings with it an immediate review of business models, resulting in implications for the organizational structures in use, the processes already defined, affecting business revenue models and general communication with the organizational chain or network of value aggregation (Sultanuzzamanet *al.*, 2019).

In this way, it is possible to foresee repercussions on the proposals of production forms and productive arrangements eliminating or pressing links of chains and networks. In addition, functions and jobs, especially those operational or in consideration of low value aggregation, are threatened due to lack of standardization, inaccuracy, low productivity or, simply, for reasons of effectiveness, where machines and implements can be offered in such a way that human workers no longer become necessary. It is important to mention that other waves of information technology-based automation preceded similar signals in other eras, such as commercial and banking automation, implementations of operational integration systems (ERPs), the introduction of web-based services, among others. What assumes significant proportions at this time is the automation and the speed at which these technologies are implemented, for these substitute purposes, often without the effective planning and risks associated with the economic management of national systems.

In the discussion of these impacts, there is a context not yet delimited between benefits and risks, some related, others not. First, in the usual statement that "positions are deleted, while others are created". Superficially, this perspective is seen, where workers working in operational and repetition functions find themselves with jobs and functions threatened by the massive introduction of technologies that even offer the same results, with advantages related to economies of scale and incremental levels of operational productivity.

In other scenarios, such as medicine, for example, it is discussed whether certain professions and delegations will be maintained, or will have revised attributions, depending on automatic diagnoses, distance procedures and others, in what can be affirmed, such as the advancement of Telemedicine. The impacts here are potentially sensitive to the review of professional curricula and their relationships with the methodological definitions of ongoing procedures.

The situation of automaton vehicles, auto crew by robots demonstrates how these technologies can offer potential ruptures in markets with economic implications. On the one hand, there are expectations and possible satisfaction of consumers, to have an automated transport for people and cargo, with precision and predictability, in addition to decreasing costs. In addition, there is also the possibility of reducing traffic jams, transport times and emission of polluting gases, with less loss of efficiency in transport. On the other hand, the existence of automated cars brings with it the threats of digital security, in case systems with low securitization allow the invasion of their processing environments by criminals. Also the occurrences of some – for the sake of truth, few, but expressive – accidents, stems from additional concern when demonstrating that such automatic systems are not foolproof.

The automotive industry, for its part, still demonstrates a certain impasse in the adoption of new business models, in response to this growing intervention predominantly of technology. Assembly companies invest in car-sharing models, prototypes of manned self-driving cars and new forms of transportation, appearing a forced movement of strategic differentiation, which carries with it severe management risks.

For the effectiveness of organizational management, emerging technologies represent consistent revenue models and associated costs, among other factors (Hoffman, 2016). Thus, the real scope of the supply of these resources are still of perception considered unstable, in tests and constant learning (Tadeuet *al.*, 2019).

Additively, when evaluating the proposition of the "shared economy", a factor very well grounded in the existence of new technologies, daapplication of machine learning and the use of analytical to build data models, aiming at capturing customers, in the use of mobile application platforms, which are easy to disseminate and aggregate by users and, with agility in analyzing data on consumer reactions, the shared economy is advancing rapidly across multiple sectors. Currently, it is perceived, in addition to the already known cases of urban passenger transport - Hoffman (2016) - the models of housing, entertainment, education and tourism. However, the economic consequences of these offers, eventually, have repercussions on misunderstood results or even difficult to analyze by managers, bringing uncertainties, risks and discoordination, in the advancement of competitiveness.

This brief description seeks to illustrate perceptible impacts, contours in delimitation, some degree of risky level of ignorance, uncertainties associated with immediate benefits, in the adoption of emerging technologies for market solutions, nowadays. Whether they will be punctual, as effective instruments of agility for one sector or another of the economy or may constitute itself in the midst of precariousness of social institutes, impacting economic models, it is still unsafe to affirm. What is certain is that such technology offerings do not appear to have retreat, remaining and advancing in our daily life.

Political Strategy

The scientific field of strategic management has come a long way since the early 1960s, through a literature and practice in which it initially grew slowly, then faster, but unilaterally in the 1970s and 1980s and took off on several fronts from the 1990s, constituting today a dynamic, albeit unequal, field. The first schools that were easy to identify gave rise to others that are more complex and fuller of *nuances* among themselves.

The word power is *used* to describe the exercise of influence beyond the purely economic, that is, it brings it closer to politics, a term that is widely used. Politics becomes synonymous with the exploitation of power in a way that is not purely economic. If the formulation of the strategy can be a process of planning and analysis, cognition and learning, it can also be a process of negotiation and concessions between individuals and groups.

Bolman and Deal (1997) formulated the following propositions regarding the world of organizational politics:

- Organizations are made up of various individuals and interest groups, sometimes antagonistic.

- There are lasting differences between groups and individuals in values, beliefs, information, and perceptions of reality.
- Most important decisions involve the allocation of scarce resources.
- Scarce resources and lasting differences give conflict a central role in organizational dynamics and make power *the* most important resource.
- The goals and decisions emerge from "wars", negotiations, and maneuvers in search of positions, among the different stakeholders.

For Martinet (1989) large companies formalize procedures to develop strategic planning and aware of the growing weight of social variables try to plan their social development. All these procedures are called into question by the emergence of new problems and are, in theory as in practice, subjected to evolution.

Martinet (1989) thus rejects the concept of planning forecasting, since planning is not about predicting the future, but also in building the future of the company and rejects the concept of decision table planning (models of the activity portfolio), since planning also consists in researching and wanting to dominate the evolution of the company. Its subalterns quantified planning, in particular its rigid and static nature, although it is indispensable as a quantitative and operational expression.

It defines the concept of **strategic** management as ensuring in time the best coherence between the requirements of the environment, the different stakeholders (internal and external) and the objectives of managers, which means that it is the overall management of the company (the management of the existing and the creation of potential). Strategic management is interested in the dimensions:

- Technical-economic - product-market-technology.
- Organizational - organizational architecture that enables the effective execution of the technical-economic dimension.
- Policy - social structure as a means of achieving the performance of the company.

The model shows that the strategic analysis is transformed over time and that the initial technical-economic analysis is complemented with the integration of complementary dimensions: the consideration of the company as a social organization and the recognition of it as a political system. It considers as key variables (information) the interdependence between the variables globalization, technological turbulence and stellation, that is, it contemplates only the variables of the global environment and forgets the variables that have an impact on some organizations (industry or sector).

While the different models of strategic analysis base their study on the analysis of competition, when it does not exist or takes forms far removed from free competition, it is necessary to approach new forms of strategy definition and which can be classified as relational, according to the authors and whose illustration is now known as strategic or cooperation alliances. The relational approach was explored in a series of empirical works carried out by the HEC school (1985). "*A strategy is said to be relational when it is based not on competition law, but on privileged relationships that the company establishes with certain partners in its context.*" The notion of competition is not entirely absent, but becomes secondary.

Many multinational companies have built their power and prestige by focusing on a single field of activity, that is, through specialization. Others, especially in the 1960s and 1970s, based their development on a logic of diversification, supported by economic growth and profitability in the fields of activity.

Specialization is part of an exclusive framework of a given field of activity, in which the company concentrates all its efforts to achieve the best possible level of competence and with it a decisive competitive advantage.

Volume strategies follow this logic, as the company bets on the effect of experience to improve its position on costs and therefore a competitive position. The same is true of the differentiation strategy in which the company focuses on a niche market where it hopes to find a competitive position, either by modifying the rules of play or by the key success factors.

Specialization is in different ways and depends on the degree of maturity of the activity and the competitive position of the company. Thus, there are moments more conducive to specialization than others, that is, no one specializes in a field of activity that has reached maturity. On the contrary, specialization accompanies the growth of the activity, since the winner will be the company that has been able to grow faster.

A company can follow two paths of specialization: geographical and product/market. The geographic consists of making expansion or restriction options within the market that defines the domain of activity of the company. The product/market consists of generating, or selecting, the set of products/market whose key success factors are identical within the field of activity.

Specialization is pursued if a company does not reach a position that gives it a decisive and lasting advantage. Dispersion is the number one enemy of a growing activity. However, specialization imposes a great concentration on the activity and the numbness of the potential for diversification.

Diversification requires companies to use a new set of "*savoir faire*", as it goes beyond the mere extension of the field of activity, to which it corresponds to a new set of key success factors, so companies when launching themselves into diversification seek to take advantage of the synergies (management, commercial and/or operational) existing with the main activity domain.

Companies can adopt three dimensions for diversification:

- The geographical dimension (geographical diversification) - occurs when the company leaves its market and heads to another zone/region where the key factors are different, even if the products manufactured and sold are similar.
- The row dimension (vertical integration or diversification) - is translated by the acquisition of new competences upstream and/or downstream and by a strengthening of the competitive potential of the company in its main activity.

- The size of the activity (horizontal diversification) - the company enters different areas of its main activity, often relying on synergies and complementarities.
- The authors present two privileged modes of development, both in the case of specialization and diversification:
- Internal development - is the privileged route to aspecialization strategy in the growth phase of the field of activity; in the case of diversification the determining criteria are the company's ability to innovate and learn the new business.
- External development - translates into buying or alliance with other companies, whether they are competitors, in the case of specialization, or belong to another field of activity.

There are in almost all organizations three systems whose means can be described as legitimate: formal authority, established culture and know-how. One can, however, find a fourth system, the policy, whose means are not formally legitimate (Macmillan and Guth, 1985):

- Politics as a system of influence can act in such a way as to ensure that the "strongest" members of an organization are placed in leadership positions.
- Politics can ensure that all sides of an issue are fully debated, while other systems of influence can promote only one.
- Policy may be required to stimulate the necessary changes that are blocked by the most legitimate systems of influence.
- The policy can facilitate the path to the implementation of the changes.

The formulation of the strategy through networks, alliances, partnerships are part of the new vocabulary of this school, i.e. companies negotiate through a network of relationships, formulate the collective strategy. There are clearly parts of planning and positioning in this formulation, but the power and aspects negotiated are great (Elfring and Volberda, 1998).

- Networks – companies expand their relationships with each other, in increasing and in-depth, i.e. companies do not operate in isolation, but in complex networks of interaction with other companies and organizations (Hakansson and Snehota, 1989);
- Collective strategy – it is a joint strategy among the members of a network to deal with their complex interdependencies, i.e., "collaboration" comes to dominate the process of formulating the strategy to the detriment of "competition" (Astley and Charles Fombrun, 1983);
- Strategic alliances – are "joint ventures" in which partners take positions (e.g. actions, long-term contracts) in new businesses they have created, such as sharing research and development skills for the development of a new product;
- Strategic outsourcing – is a form of cooperative agreement that concerns hiring outside of what could be done internally (*Outsourcing*).

Networks, alliances, *collective strategies and outsourcing*, all of this together, increasingly makes it difficult to know where one organization ends and begins the other, that is, the limits of organizations are becoming increasingly vague as networks replace rigid hierarchies inside and become open markets externally.

The school of power is based on the following premises:

- The formation of the strategy is shaped by power and politics.
- The strategies that can result from this process tend to be emerging and take more the form of positions than perspectives.
- Micro power sees the formation of strategy as an interaction, through persuasion and sometimes direct confrontation, in the form of political games, between sometimes antagonistic interests.
- The macro power sees the organization as promoting its own well-being by control or cooperation with other organizations, through maneuvers, as well as collective strategies (e.g., networks or alliances);

The formation of the strategy involves power, but not only. The role of integrating forces, such as leadership and culture, tends to be overlooked by this school, as well as the concept itself of strategy. Focusing attention on division and fractionation leaves aside patterns that form, even in more conflicting situations.

While the political dimension may play a positive role in organizations, in promoting changes blocked by established and legitimate forces of influence, it can also be a source of waste and distortion in organizations. It makes no sense to describe the formation of strategy as a process devoid of power and politics.

The school of power has introduced a new vocabulary in the field of strategic management, such as "networks", "political games", "collective strategies". He also stressed the importance that politics has in promoting strategic change when established actors seek to maintain the *status quo*. They need to be confronted, even though politics is also a factor of resistance to strategic change, but not as effective as the strength of culture.

Imperfections of Information in Politics

Humans are not only rational, they also assume some opportunistic behaviors. Williamson (1975) describes opportunism as "the search for one's own interest, with cunning" involving "disbelief of threats and opportunities", to realize individual advantages. These advantages are also suitable for "selecting and distorting discovered information or discrediting the opportunities leading to the future" (Williamson 1975, p.26). The claim is that, although not all humans behave opportunistically, it is difficult to predict in advance whether they will behave or not as such.

These types of behaviors reflect the relationship between the economic interest of the search engine operator, but also the public interest in accessing information in a search on a person's name. The combination of opportunistic and rational behavior is the main cause for the three types of imperfections of information:

- **Asymmetric** information – an asymmetric distribution of information from the parties involved in a relationship, causes an opportunity. The critical impact of the information, on the optimal allocation of the risk, is not merely its

presence or absence, but its inadequacy between the actors, together two conditions under which, the asymmetry of the information, provides an opportunity, for example, the relationship, between the economic interest of the search engine operator, but also the public interest, accessing the information, in a search about a person's name:

- High costs to obtain equal information.
- Propensity of the party's para opportunistic behavior. In other words, asymmetric information occurs when one party has information that is unknown to the other and difficult to obtain by the other party and provides an opportunity to exploit this advantage of information, through possible alternatives.
- Asymmetric information may result from a favorable situation for an intervener, depending on the one with that information. The opportunity is caused by hidden information, for the current relationship. One party in a relationship is better informed about one relevant variable than the other. It is the invisibility of this private information that constitutes the essence of information imperfections and introduces the risk to the other party.
- Considering the possibility of opportunistic behavior, the party that possesses the hidden information has no incentive to re-emit it if it is harmful to it. As a consequence, for example, if the economic interest of the search engine operator, but also the public interest, in accessing information, in a search on a person's name. benefit from this hidden information. The imperfections of information are known as enemies of the selection.
- **Ambiguous Information** – The ambiguity of information in a relationship can cause an opportunity. Although in the case of complete information, different interpretations about it may occur. As a result of opportunism, these representations can be opportunistic in the sense that they can lead to an individual advantage for either party (e.g. the economic interest of the search engine operator, but also the public interest, in accessing information, in a search on a person's name).

The opportunity for one of them is discovered, when such opportunistic interpretation, is not recognized by the other and results in:

- I. Will one of them pay a high price, for information.
- II. One of them will offer a "product" at a low price.

As a result of this opportunistic behavior, the part with opportunistic interpretation has no incentive to share that information if it becomes a disadvantage to it.

- **Incomplete Information** – The opportunity of incomplete information is hermetically related, with the assumption of rationality. The limits of rationality are certainly interested in the extent that the limits of rationality are reached – i.e., under conditions of uncertainty and/or complexity. In the absence of any of these conditions of ownership of contingent actions may be completely specific to this principle.

In a universe characterized by a high degree of complexity and uncertainty, the possibility of certain events quickly become numerous. Under these circumstances, it is impossible for humans to acquire and analyze the relevant complete information. As explained before, this impossibility leads to "satisfactory" behavior. The opportunity for incomplete information occurs, when someone is incomplete informed, about the range of possibilities. Therefore, one of the actors who consents to an incomplete comparison of the parties and their reciprocal differences can move towards a situation of abyss.

Strategic Policy Information

Rulers in formulating the strategy from the outside intend to be more aggressive, and restless. The formulation of the strategy from the inside out is based on the models of strategic movement (sociological) and therefore are less dynamic, that is, they tend to be more passive and inclined to react to events (Mintzberg, 1998). These models represent the two extremes between which there is a range of behaviors. Based on the concept of organizational openness of systems theory, this is determined by (Ansoff, 1978):

- Perception of strategic political information describing futurity (trends);
- Perspective of the action that describes the familiarity of the actions of a ruler, about his past experiences.
- The characteristic of the opening and perception of the action correspond in general to the perspective of the information:
- Politicians of a retrograde nature prefer successful alternatives in the past and rely on known historical information.
- Politicians whose attention is focused on the present are willing to disconnect from the past, provided that it is not very different from the present, that is, they seek to rely on relevant information about society.
- Politicians who seek to predict threats and opportunities tend to have an active attitude, so as to seek new paths, based on past information and using fore vision (economic) models, bearing in mind that the future will be an extrapolation from the past.
- Politicians who go beyond extrapolating from the past, in order to perceive new worlds and discontinuities, seek opportunities that are new and unusual, that is, they assume that the future is not an extrapolation of the past.
- Entrepreneurial politicians are also the creators of deliberate actions. They seek policies that have never been explored, human needs that have never been met, their motto is: "invent the future".

The range of possible responses and behavior is determined by the skills and capabilities of politicians. There are two factors that determine the empowerment of politicians:

- Competence (set of knowledge leading to strategic behavior);
- Capacity (workload).

One of the main attributes is the approach to solving the strategic problem that comprises the individual skills of politicians, personal knowledge along with group dynamics. The reactive method of solving the strategic problem seeks through

systematic analysis the causes, with the use of analytical processes to identify all possible alternatives and to establish explicit and quantified relationships between the variables, being selected the best alternative ("optimal") (Ansoff, 1978).

Another attribute of the training of politicians is leadership, in the definition and implementation of the political strategy, requiring dexterity to capture and direct social energy. A fourth element of the competence of politicians is information to support decision-making, which presupposes the existence of a process of surveillance of strategic political information, oriented towards the future and which we can call the *informational skills* of politicians.

Information about future possibilities comes from society and the performance capabilities of governments, which means that governments have access to information about their performance and the performance of governments in other countries. They also have access to information about what events and the forces that determined the performance, as well as what capabilities and skills they were able to develop during a given period. Political strategic information is thus the relevant information that allows governments to *perform better through the active exploitation* of imperfections of *information* of political facts (Truijens, 2001).

Power of Information in Political Leadership

"Information is a complex concept, ubiquitous since the appearance of life and inherent to any evolutionary process and thus served and continues to serve as a framework of reflection, both in Biology, Physics, Psychology, Management, Linguistics, Politics, as in several other branches of science" (Zorrinho, C., Serrano, A., Lacerda, P., p. 23, 2003).

The power of information resulted from the development of information and communication technologies during the 20th century, as occurred two centuries ago with the concept of energy, a key factor of the industrial revolution (Zorrinho, C., Serrano, A., Lacerda, P., 2003).

Imperfections of political information are some of the imperfections that shock the political ideal of the perfect society (Yao 1988). The perfect society is characterized by numerous citizens and political groups and whose mechanism of elections determines the party and / or candidate most voted, in the election. Looking at the information, all politicians are complete and perfectly informed, about all relevant aspects of society / citizens of the country.

While the political ideal serves as the most important appropriation of neoclassical political theory, contemporary political theories tend to consent to this, as opposed to the appropriation of unrealistic theories. Therefore, we assume that the perfect political ideal and that perfectly informed the rulers and the governed, is a myth. For this reason, it is proposed that elections are characterized by imperfect competition and that the imperfections of political information are an important advantage. (Yao 1988).

The outcome of the elections that political parties can achieve depends on the cost of the resources involved (human, economic, financial, technological and material), the cost of acquiring new resources (e.g. expert support) and the economic value, the support achieved. If the political ideal is a perfect one, the rulers and the governed will both have the same and perfect expectations about the outcome of the elections.

Consequently, politicians will have to bet on a political project that meets the expectations of citizens, if not subject to non-participation of voters, in the electoral act. To win the elections, politicians have to exploit the imperfections of political information in their action/political campaign. Under the greatest claim that these political imperfections exist, it seems realistic that the different rulers and governed have different expectations about the outcome of the elections.

These lead to differences in expectations, differences in the resources involved, different paths in which resources can be used, but also differences in political information. In the event that imperfect political information is exploited by parties and/or governments, and/or citizens to obtain better electoral expectations, *political strategic information results* from this, Truijens, (2001).

Therefore, political strategic information is a new kind of advantage in order to focus on the political strategic relevance of the imperfections of political information. Imperfections of political information are the main sources of political advantage: the main objective of *political strategic information*, Clemons, (1987), Amit *et al*, (1993).

Surveillance of Citizens' Information and Privacy

The process of "political surveillance" of information is essentially a process of observing the behavior of governed and competing governments and is intended to monitor developments in global and regional policies. This "political surveillance" is ensured in most cases by an organic unit (*staff body* - the "analysts" or those responsible for planning) which is in accordance with the model of the Carnegie schools (Ansoff, 1965 *et al*), and Positioning (Porter, 1980 *et al*).

The process of "political surveillance" on the economic activity of many governments focuses primarily on monitoring developments and economic forecasts on the European Union, in particular the countries with the highest expression in the European economy (Germany, France and the United Kingdom), as well as, on the countries with which there is a greater affinity, such as Italy, Ireland and Greece, and their evolution is accompanied by the internal structures of governments (the "political analysts").

This information is the subject of collection, selection, treatment, analysis and reflection by "political analysts". These, in their treatment, use techniques of extrapolation prediction and problem analysis, as a way of understanding the structure of the domestic, European, and international economy, as well as the interdependence between the various sectors of the economy, as a way of identifying possible future scenarios. Information on the foreseeable development of the world economy, Europe and Portugal becomes thus fundamental in defining the political strategy of the government or group of countries (governments of the same political area).

The process of "political surveillance" on sociocultural and demographic changes in some countries is an irregular process of temporary and periodic evaluation, essentially on social and demographic changes and includes demographic patterns, lifestyles, social structure, social trends and is intended to ascertain the changes observed in this time interval, such as the birth rate, the level of education, the capacity of indebtedness, being ensured by the "political analysts" of each government (internal and / or consultants).

However, the importance given to this information is less, when compared to information on economic aspects, but it becomes fundamental in the implementation of each government's policy strategy as a way of identifying which citizens are targeted for each policy measure, to the extent that it allows them to understand the needs, available resources, legal requirements and funding adjustments. For the treatment of information, the "analysts" resort to simple techniques of analysis.

The process of "political surveillance" related to political aspects is a "permanent" process which is intended to monitor in a "continuous" way, the political decisions of the different government with an impact on citizens, such as unemployment policy, labour policy, tax policy, as well as Community directives that may have an impact on the citizens and society in general (e.g. Basel II agreement), is secured by internal "political analysts" and or consultants.

The information subject to collection, selection, treatment, and analysis consists of legislation on various aspects, such as economic, fiscal, labor, educational, health, tourism, etc. as a way of identifying possible opportunities and threats. In the treatment of this information, political analysts use simple techniques of analysis to understand political influences.

The use of data by government, security, commercial and even criminal agencies (so that such information obtained by automatic tracking can be mobilized for their own purposes) are classic examples of monitoring, which with the advent of new forms of screening comes into the hands of the private sector or even people, with only one smartphone in his hands (Lupton, 2016, p. 114). Surveillance, as such, is not ontologically good or bad, it is the context and behavior that will characterize it in one way or another (Marx, 2015, p. 734), and the same can be said for the concept of privacy.

The context refers to the type of institution and organization and its objectives, rules and expectations; and behavior refers to expected behavior (either based on the law or less formal social expectations). Differences in surveillance contexts involving coercion (government), assistance (parents and children), contracts (work and consumption), and accessible and free personal data (personal and private, in public) need to be considered — after all, surveillance is a generic process characteristic of living systems, with information boundaries, and not something restricted to governments, espionage or secrecy. And so, surveillance and privacy are not necessarily in opposition, and the latter can be a means of ensuring the former, as well as information access controls. Although media attention to problems associated with inadequate surveillance (especially by the government) is present, there are also problems associated with failure to use surveillance, where appropriate. The emerging interdisciplinary field of surveillance studies analyzes these issues (Marx, 2015, p. 734)

2.8 - DIGITAL CAPITALISM

Digital Society

It will not be a blatant exaggeration or misunderstanding to affirm that the current society is increasingly qualified by the digital adjective, where new information and communication technologies (ICT's) have constant daily influence, configuring itself as mediators of social relations, the economy and even in the form of producing / disseminating knowledge. There are forms of knowledge absorption about users in a ubiquitous way, in which ICTs can be considered as new forms of surveillance (Lupton, 2015, p. 02; p. 189). Digital ICTs play a crucial role in the process of globalization, as a phenomenon characterized by the wide circulation of people, ideas and habits, which although it has not started historically with technologies, develops at high speed through these (De Mul, 2015, p. 106).

The increasing insertion of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT's) in people's daily lives has promoted a deep dependency relationship between them. In this context, daily actions have become essentially informational, given the need for mediation for their performance.

Digital society is a complex society of technological innovation and communication, in which there is the creation of new environments and changes in people's organizational dynamics, in the way people understand reality, changing the way, how they relate to the environment, to other people and how, conceive themselves in the face of their own reality. Both senses can be understood, because of the informational revolution, promoted mainly from the attempts to understand human intelligence, via computational bases

The works developed by Turing (1950) had great influence in the studies of the second half of the twentieth century, including philosophy, mainly because of its algorithmic approach to the nature of thought, in which he proposes the thesis, according to which, "thinking is calculating" (Turing, 1950, p. 436). This is the result that, given that digital computers operate from calculations and manipulate rules for the organization of symbols, if we consider that thinking consists, in the activity of manipulating symbols, according to a set of logical rules, constituting algorithms, then digital computers could, in principle, think. Once intelligent thinking is understood mechanically, it would be possible to construct mechanical models of the structure and dynamics of this type of thought. This understanding allowed the development of mechanical models of the mind, which initially generated two aspects in *The Teixeira Cognitive Science* (1998):

- Strong Artificial Intelligence - is one in which mechanical models of the mind, when successful, not only simulate/emulate mental activities, but explain and instantiate such activities.
- Weak Artificial Intelligence – is one in which the model is only an explanatory, limited tool of intelligent mental activity.

The common point of such nodes is that both accept the thesis that to simulate is to explain to attribute to mechanical models, the value of theories, in which the computer is used, as a fundamental tool. As for the social sphere, the development of studies of information theory promoted the social changes that we currently live in and that have generated new types of problems, especially those that relate to action / technology / environment. Given its impact on the academic and social spheres, the approximation between Philosophy and Information Science, and the role of computers in the development of theories, theoretical production occurred concomitantly with technological improvement.

Floridi (2008, p. 3-4), states that during the second half of the 20th century events such as: the massification of the computer, which promoted the generation of the "personal computer"; the advancement of scientific discoveries in function of the use of ICT; and the emergence of new ways of experimenting the world, from such technologies. These events illustrate the influence of ICT's in various areas of society (sociological, economic, scientific and cultural), providing elements for its

characterization, as a society of information and knowledge. According to Floridi (2002, p. 127): "Post-industrial societies are fed by information".

ICT's acquire a central role in the characterization of the digital society, to the extent that they are present and related to the person and their well-being, and in their continuous use in everyday situations (e.g., leisure, work, etc.). constitutes a relationship of dependence, between the person and the ICT's. This relationship is strengthened, according to Floridi, from the following factors:

- Increasing the potency of ICT's, while reducing their cost of production and marketing;
- Improvement of ICT's in their interaction potential (machine-machine and man-machine);
- The rise of the zettabyte's era (dated 2010).

The factors indicated are responsible for the approximation between people and ICT's, generating a deep relationship of dependence for the performance of routine actions in today's world. Such dependence is based on the digital presence, as a mediator of common actions, such as financial movement (home banking), the acquisition of products and services (virtual stores, e-commerce), personal and professional interrelationship (via social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter, or dating apps, such as Tinder), access to movies (via streaming, YouTube, Netflix, etc.), urban mobility (via app, Uber, Taxi 99), making connections (using the network, via Skype, Whatsapp), the practice of physical activity (Runkeeper, for example), professional activities via SOHO (small office / home office), political organization (via websites or social networks), among others. Situations in which there is no mediation of internet-connected artifacts by the person, but which require technological mediation by the service to be requested, such as: payment by credit card for face-to-face purchases, biometric systems for the removal of books in libraries, can also be highlighted. among others.

In general, the three types of self-highlighted by Floridi (2014, p. 60) are explained to understand the influence of ICT's on the constitution and alteration of people's self:

- **Personal Identity** - it concerns "who we are". We live in an era where people spend a great deal of time transmitting information about themselves, interacting digitally with other people, and that's a good example of how ICT is affecting and shaping people's personal identity.
- **Self-conception** - consists of "who we think we are".
- **Social self** - it concerns what we are from other people's thinking.

It is mainly this third notion of self that ICT has a deeper channel of action in the conception of people's identity, because there is a growing support and overvaluation of social networks, illustrated, for example, by the intensification of a "narcissistic culture".

The Web enhances narcissistic culture, typical of our time, by expanding the forms of self-celebration and self-promotion. Relationship sites, in turn, end up encouraging vanity and competition. [...] young people strive to show in their profiles, photos and texts that value them and promote the increase in the number of people they add as "friends". [...] This type of behavior is justified by a constant search for attention and recognition. The ease of access to information about themselves generated by third parties, promotes self-understanding from others (social self), constitutes a scenario in which people, especially those who correspond to Generation Z, feed the network, with personal information intensely.

The greatest of all changes is the transformation of the information and knowledge society into the digital society. The center of work was 'distance work - telework'. In developed country societies, access to good jobs and a professional career will increasingly depend on a university degree with distance work, anywhere, in a country, in the globalized world. That is, the logical result, since we stopped working in the office and in large urban centers, it was through intellectual work and teleworking was reached at home or elsewhere, outside the large urban centers. This last step represents a break with the past.

- The fact that knowledge and education have been a passport to the achievement of good jobs and a career has meant above all that in society, companies are no longer the only way for someone to progress in life and have become one of several opportunities available.
- Knowledge has become the capital of developed economies and knowledge workers, which determines the values and norms of society.

The great challenge for developed countries is to maintain the commitment, with the economic performance necessary for organizations and countries to continue to be competitive. Governance and entrepreneurship contain the entrepreneurial spirit. They are not antagonistic concepts, nor mutually exclusive. Both are always necessary and at the same time. Both have to be coordinated, i.e. both have to work together. No existing organization can survive without innovation and at the same time without being managed.

Digital Capitalism

Technological changes are always accompanied by narratives in which optimistic interpretations predominate, whose function is essentially legitimizing, hiding the power relations that drive or that are underlying the processes of technological change, relationships with social consequences, based on the generalized digitization of processes, products and services.

The decade of the setenta years was lavish in diagnoses that pointed to the relevance of a series of technological developments and economic trends – then manifested mainly in the United States – on the basis that it was argued that advanced industrial societies were undergoing a fundamental social transformation, equivalent in scale and importance to the transition to industrial society during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The most diverse denominations then began to refer to this new society: an active society, a service society, a knowledge society, a technocratic society, an interconnected society, a telematic society, a leisure society, a post-capitalist society, an interactive society, a multimedia society, a post-industrial society. The most successful name was the information and knowledge society.

Most of the research was based on the consideration that new information and communication technologies, as "technologies open par excellence, regardless of economic, social and cultural weights", so that the evolution of everyday life was also open to a plurality of futures. Open future full of optimism, until one could conceive a whole saga of post-industrial utopias according to which, together with the hand of new information and communication technologies, the expected human

liberation in the form of productivity and material abundance, communicative fluidity and personal self-realization, would arise.

Some went further in considering the revolutionary nature of the transformations that were being experienced by the more developed countries. The communicator of the new society, Alvin Toffler, expressed it in this way: It has become a cliché to say that we are living "a second industrial revolution". With this sentence, we intend to describe the speed and depth of change around us. But besides being vulgar, you can cheat. Because what is happening now is most likely bigger, deeper and more important, than the industrial revolution. In fact, a growing and trusted opinion group argues that the present moment represents nothing less than the second crucial milestone of the digital society.

Digital Capitalism: The problem is capitalism, not technology

According to Gary T. Marx (2015, p. 735), surveillance is tied to verbs such as "look", "observe", "supervise", "control", "inspect", "monitor", "keep" or even "follow". Many of the examples for understanding contemporary ways of obtaining information are based on cognitive skills through technological artifacts, such as software and automated processes. However, such technical means may also involve sophisticated forms of manipulation, with seduction, coercion, deception, unambiguous information and other special forms of observation, Marx, (2015, p. 735-737). Surveillance has become more deceptive over time, and can be seen as something more difficult to defeat than before, after all many forms are so ubiquitous that Marx's omnipotent is generally presumed, (2015, p. 736). Surveillance can, succinctly, take place on the human routine, the semi-conscious "autopilot" and often even the biological instinct of our sensory receptors that are ready to constantly receive information from whoever is territorially close, Marx, (2016, p. 16).

With the development of language, numerical and written, and of different forms of social organization involving larger political entities, more complex and systematic forms of surveillance emerged, based on counting, recording, interrogation, information, infiltration, confessions and the expanded use of tests, Marx, (2016, p. 17).

With the emergence of industrial society, new tools of surveillance and communication emerged, individuals, groups and contexts through the use of technological means to extract, infer or create information, Marx, (2016, p. 19-20). Examples can be found in computer profiles, which have large data sets, video cameras, data about DNA analysis, GPS, electronic monitoring, drug testing and monitoring made possible by social media and mobile phones.

The BIG data industry establishes a system in contemporary society, where the world and life are transformed or mediated by data, and this is a fundamental paradigm shift for contemporary society, Beraldo; Milan, (2019, p. 01). The nature of databases is inherent to any software, which basically performs programming of data that can be divided into four operations, De Mul, (2015, p. 106): a) add; b) search; c) change; and d) destroy (command that can be sorted by the options of insert, select, update, and delete). Together, these commands constitute the dynamics of database ontology.

In the age of BIG data, databases are increasingly connected to each other and with connected data streams such as Google searches, social media interactions (Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Reddit, etc.) and online commerce. These connections derived from BIG data are tracked and used for the purpose of configuring user profile and real-time data mining by private and public organizations, De Mul, (2015, p. 107-108). From this same logic it can be inferred that, due to data from production processes, money transfers, GPS devices, surveillance cameras, biometric measurements and use of smartphones and other localizable devices, a huge global database is being formed and will transform the ways of life, work and thinking, De Mul, (2015, p. 107).

It can be understood that the impact of databases is vast, since it is not limited only to the universe of computing, since they evoke acts in the material world. Examples of this are biotechnological databases used for genetic engineering purposes, implementations in industrial robots and the airport profile design system, with the aim of identifying potential terrorists, De Mul, (2015, p. 107). In thesis everything that can be identified through data becomes an object of control of such databases.

Celebrities, politicians and other public figures are subject to constant monitoring (whether in a public or private environment) and the great facilitators of this exhibition are not just the paparazzi —after all, anyone with a mobile device can make an instant live broadcast.

21st century capitalism has found a massive new raw material to appropriate: stored data, Srnicek; From Sutter, (2016, p. 106). Through a series of developments, the electronic platform has become an increasingly dominant way to organize business, monopolizing, extracting, analyzing, using and selling data. The business models of the Fordist era were capable, only in a rudimentary way, of extracting data, from the production process or from the customer's use. The era of lean production changed this slightly, as global supply chains 'just in time' required data on the status of stocks and the location of supplies.

Dominant Discourse: what hides and shows

Data outside the company remained almost impossible to obtain; and even within the company, most of the activities were not recorded. The electronic platform, on the other hand, has data extraction incorporated into DNA, as a model that allows other services, goods and technologies to be built on it, as a model that requires more users to obtain network effects, and as a digital medium that simplifies registration and storage. All these characteristics make platforms, a central model, to extract data as raw material. Data can be used in several ways to generate revenue. For companies like Google and Facebook, data is a feature that can be used to attract advertisers and other stakeholders. For companies like Rolls Royce and Uber, data is at the heart of beating the competition: it allows these companies to offer better products and services, control workers and optimize their algorithms for a more competitive business.

With the Google data system in place and the development of Facebook in the online landscape — targeted advertising, surveillance capitalism adds a new logic of accumulation where its guidelines and financial prowess dominate the virtual sphere of connected networks and this grossly disfigures the previous dream of digital technology, as a empowering and emancipatory force, Zuboff, (2019, p. 01). Today, this surveillance capitalism can no longer be identified on time, as it was, until some time ago, Google exclusivity, a pioneer in this form of data capitalization), since this logic has expanded, in a

way that Silicon Valley has expanded to various sectors of the economy and its vast options of products and services, Zuboff, (2019, p. 01).

Both capitalism and surveillance can no longer be confused, as belonging to an individual corporation, after all digital technologies today can take many forms and reproduce various reflexes, depending on their social and economic orientation. For Zuboff (2019, p. 01) economic guidance is the master, while technology is the puppet. From a change in the logic of the global economy and the global technological market, we currently have a work environment characterized by less job security, stagnant wages and where the nature of work has become more intense and idiosyncratic; several employers believe they must obey a market imperative that constantly pushes for greater productivity, organizations to remain competitive, Connolly, (2017, p. 69).

Therefore, attempts to satisfy such demands foster an unceasing search for efficiency, and the emergence of rigorous performance quotas. Surveillance capitalism is not the same as algorithms, sensors, machine intelligence or platforms, although it relies on all of this to express its will; soon surveillance capitalism is indeed an economic creation and is therefore subject to democratic contestation, debate, review, restriction, supervision and may even be illegal in many cases, Zuboff, (2019).

3. CONCLUSIONS AND CLUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Theories on Political Leadership

Segundo Chiavenato (2000, p.89), theories about political leadership, can be classified into three groups:

- **Personality traits.** According to this theory, the leader has remarkable personality characteristics that qualify him for a function.
- **Leadership styles.** This theory points out four leadership styles: autocratic, participatory, democratic and liberal.
- **Situational leadership** (Contingency theory). In this theory, the leader can assume different patterns of leadership according to the situation.

Personality of the Political Leader

Chiavenato also points out that "a trait is a distinctive quality or characteristic of personality. According to this theory, the leader is one who has some specific personality traits that distinguishes him from other people."

Some personality traits that distinguish leaders, according to Chiavenato (2000, p.90):

- Physical traits: energy, personal appearance, stature and weight.
- Intellectual traits: adaptability, aggressiveness, enthusiasm and self-confidence.
- Social traits: cooperation, interpersonal and administrative skills.
- Traits related to the task: impulse of realization, persistence and initiative."

For Maximiano (2000, p.337): "Leaders have certain personality traits. However, people who possess the same traits are not or necessarily become leaders. Moreover, to date, a set of personality traits common to all leaders has not been identified."

It was then seen that leadership is not private for some privileged; it can, yes, be learned and perfected. There is no formula to become a leader. There is, rather, the possibility of the person developing essential characteristics to the leader through training, courses, and their own experiences.

The theory about leadership styles, in Chiavenato conception (2000, p.91-92), studies the possible styles of behavior swells of the leader in relation to his subordinates. And according to this theory there are three styles of leadership:

- **"Autocratic leadership:** the leader centralizes decisions and imposes his orders on the group. This style usually provokes in the group strong tension, frustration and aggressiveness, on the one hand, and on the other, no spontaneity, no initiative, nor formation of friendship groups.
- **Liberal leadership:** the leader fully delegates the decisions to the group and leaves him totally at ease and without any control. This generally causes strong aggressive individualism and little respect for the leader.
- **Democratic Leadership:** The leader leads and guides the group and encourages the democratic participation of people. Leaders and subordinates generally develop spontaneous, frank, and courteous communications. The work develops at a smooth and safe pace, without changes, even when the leader is not present."

For Maximiano (2000, p.347): "The effectiveness of the political leadership style depends on its effect on the performance of the task and the satisfaction of the influenced, be it an individual or a political group. If the influenced is satisfied and at the same time present satisfactory performance, then the style is effective."

Thus, depending on the style of political leadership, there will be people more committed or not to the political objectives of political organization (political party), in addition to having a climate more conducive to productivity, interaction, etc. In addition, depending on the profile of the leader, whether more efficient or responsible, for example, the leader may vary the style of leadership adopted, suiting the circumstances.

For Franco (2008, p.61-62) three types of political leaders are requested by 21st century political organizations:

- **"Transformational Leader:** - can extract more motivation and performance from people than is expected of them. What's more, this leader turns people into valuable assets for organizations.
- **Charismatic Leader:** - in addition to the power to persuade, the power to transform people's lives, in the most interesting and enthusiastic work environment.
- **Leader Trainer:** - your satisfaction is precisely in cultivating people for success and has as a source of inspiration your own ability to develop people and turn them into future political leaders or at least provide them with the way to do so."

As can be seen, some theories state that there are leaders who are born natural leaders, because they have characteristics that differ from other photolytes. On the other hand, affirm that it is possible to develop leadership and adapt it to situations, through different styles.

Profile of the Political Leader

The profile of the political leader's competences can be summarised in the following:

- Mastery of more than one language, (English required).
- Communicationskills.
- Goodinterpersonalrelationship.
- Organizationalculture.
- Politicalleadershipskills.
- Ability to "filter" the relevant information, from irrelevant.
- Ability to work the abstract (teaching / learning information tools, management, planning and research).
- Ability to perform social functions,education and mediation. The educational is related to the capacity of "literacy" of people / citizens, and the second, to the animation of collective intelligence.

Political Leadership and Information

Information is an interdisciplinary concept focused on the relationship between information as a perception of reality, which feeds knowledge and communication, about the objects of the physical world. There are a wide variety of fields, such as biology, economics, cybernetics, mathematics, sociology, politics and studies of information and communication:

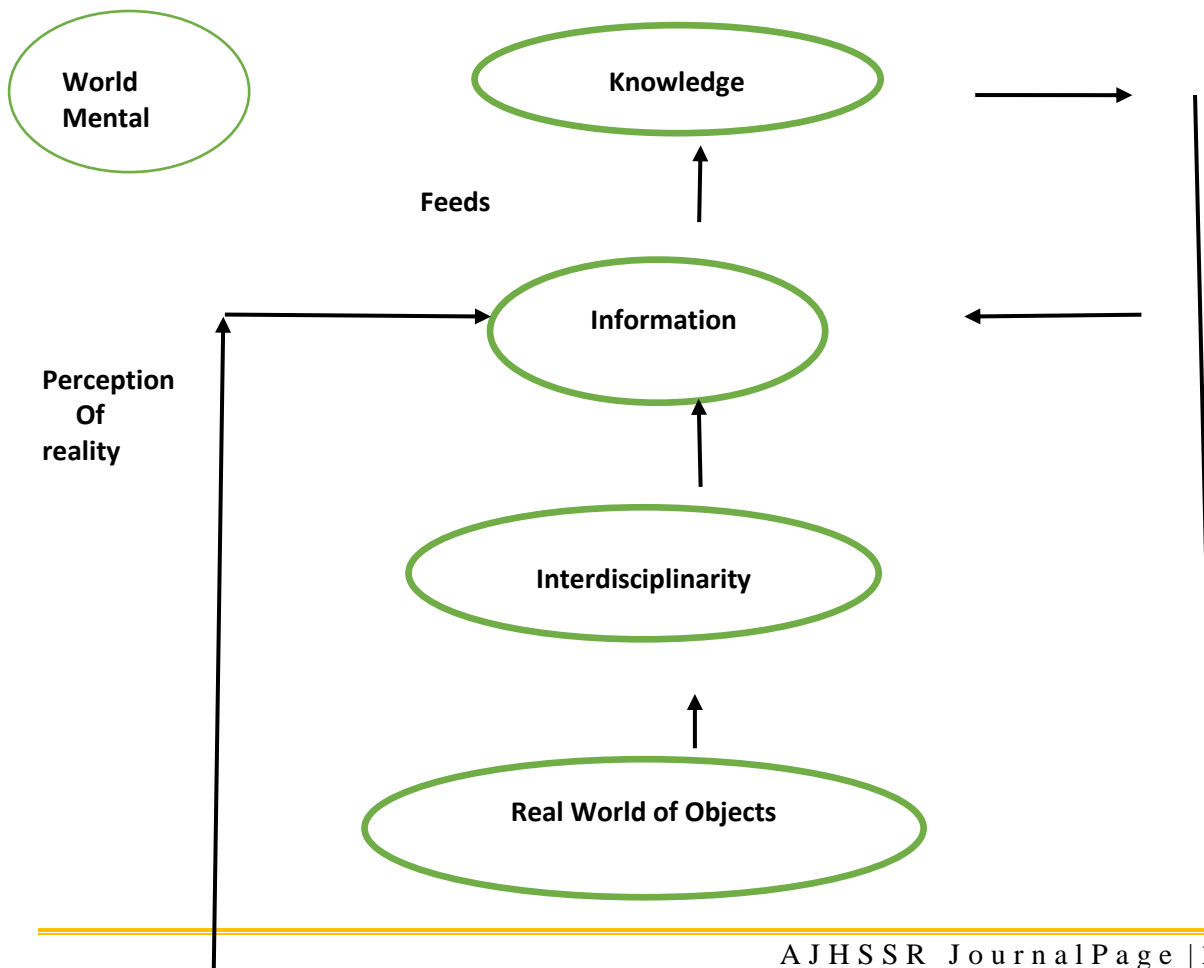
- Information is what has the potential for a living system, namely the political system.
- Information is what has been transformed and configured for use by a citizen or political leader.
- Information comprises the sharing of information/knowledge basis of society and other social and political systems.

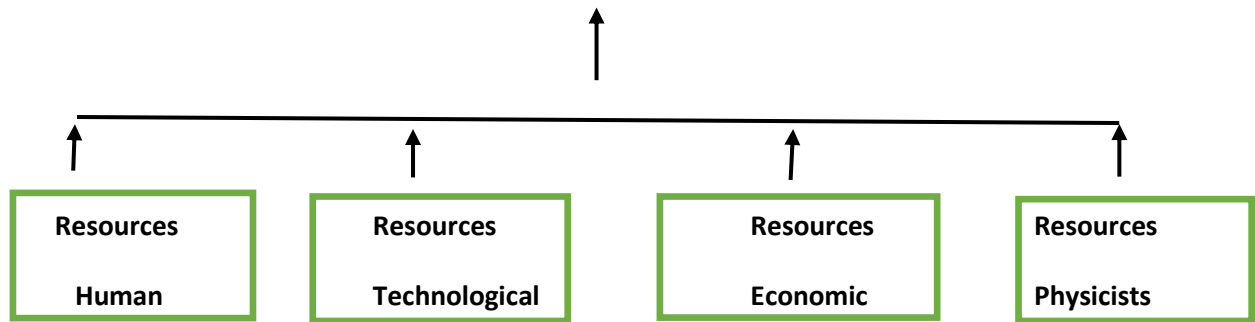
Information is associated with the lowest level of **opportunity, complexity and power**, as a resource, useful thing in exchanging information between citizens and politicians, reducing uncertainty and supporting political decision-making. This definition applies to all phenomena and processes in which information is involved and can be applied to the social structure with some degree of articulation and complexity. The information conceived in terms of Popperian design of the world tree is the basis of Popper & Eccles (1977) in which they argue that we only accept things as real if they can interact with material things. Threerealitiesorthreeworlds are distinguished:

- World 1 - the physical world of objects and states.
- World 2 - the world of the state of knowledge (mental world - subjective knowledge, experience of creative imagination).
- World 3 – the world of knowledge of objects (e.g. products of the human mind, theoretical systems, scientific problems).

These worlds interact with each other and in terms of what is not the following:

Figure 2 - Real World and Knowledge





Source: Author's elaboration

Generic framework of Information Interdisciplinarity

Table 1 shows the areas of knowledge, sub-areas/disciplines/interdisciplinarity and practical examples of basic application of the information cycle. Each column represents an overview of the areas, sub-areas / disciplines / interdisciplinarity of the discipline's performance. In practice, the interdisciplinarity of information can be seen, as a set of methods and techniques, applicable to any information environment.

Table 1 - Areas / Sub-areas / Disciplines / Interdisciplinarity

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Business Sciences	Marketing	Market Product and Service Offering Distribution channels Communication After-sales services Behaviors and consumption patterns	Information Marketing on products and services of organizations	Study / Identify market information (explicit and implicit needs) Create product and service information Organize and structure information on products and services Disseminate / Distribute information to target customers (consumers and managers) Use information (sources, choice, treatment, decision) by customers and managers
	Financial	Financial Resources Planning; Financial Resources Raising. Management of Available Resources. Insurance Management. Accounting;	Information for the economic, financial and legal management of organizations	Identify the needs for financial information on the monetary means of organizations Seek economic, financial, and accounting information from organizations Record information on monetary means Organize and structure information on monetary means Distribute information to managers and legal institutions Use information (sources, choice, treatment decision)
	Human resources	Needs planning Recruitment Selection Performance evaluation Wage policy Wages Positions and salaries Development Training Medicine at work Legislation	Information for people management	Identify people information needs Search for information about people Record information about employees Organize and structure information about employees Distribute information to managers and legal institutions Use information (sources, choice, treatment, decision) by employees and managers

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Business Sciences	Production	Planning needs and capabilities Capacity planning and control Nomenclature of the product(s) Shopping Stocks (MP, subsidiaries, and materials) Production Planning and Programming Cargo planning and control Production Control Quality control of product production Maintenance of equipment and facilities Production technology Production costing	Information for the Production Management of organizations	Information needs on products and services of organizations Search for information about products and services Record information on the means of processing raw materials into finished products Organise information on means of transformation Information Architecture on the means of transformation Distribute the information to managers Use information (sources, choice, decision)
	Logistics and Distribution	<input type="checkbox"/> Internal Logistics. <input type="checkbox"/> Operations. <input type="checkbox"/> External Logistics. Purchasing Management Stock Management, Storage Distribution Transportation , Support Activities	Information for the Supply Chain Management of organizations	Identify information needs on organisations' products and services Search for information Record information on customer requests; Organize and structure information on customer requests; Distribute the information to customers and managers; Use information (sources, choice, treatment decision) by clients and managers

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Business Sciences	Management of organizations	Information on the environment (external) and the capabilities and competences of the organization. Problems and Perspective. Information and Communication Capabilities Information for management (governance) Information Architecture Process information Information and skills	Information for Global Management of Organizations	Study / Identify information about the environment (explicit and implicit needs) Acquisition of information about the environment Create information about the offer of products and services Organize and structure information on products and services Disseminate / Distribute information to target customers (consumers and managers) Use information (sources, choice, treatment, decision) by customers and managers Information - to analyze the environment and the capabilities and competencies of the organization (e.g. what is the information to support in the formulation and definition of the strategy?) Problems and Perspective - to evaluate the evolution of the environment, that is, the evolution of society in the use of information (e.g., sociocultural changes – habits, customs, etc.); Information and Communication Skills - determine information for support in skills management. Determine the potentialities for the organization to differentiate itself in the use and sharing of information (to form a culture of information sharing). Information (governance) - develop guidelines for proper use of information. Decide partners in the sharing of strategic information. Information Architecture - develop the organization's information architecture and communication (essentially: who should inform/communicate with whom and what?). Define critical processes of information and communication. Communicate through design Skills and Competences - selecting and developing the potential of information and communication (e.g. sharing information in the organisation). Information of processes - implement the Processes of Information and Communication (e.g. exchange of information between departments). Information and skills - train people in the use, interpretation of information and decision making

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Computer Science	Information Technologies	Computational technology Computer mathematics Computing techniques Computer systems Communication network technology Software technology Physical safety techniques	Information for the Management of Technological Infrastructures	Technical architecture Database Data storage; Data processing; Accessibility to data; Data transmission/transfer Platforms Networks Operations architecture Security Architecture
	Software engineering	Architecture of applications / systems. Integration architecture. Services architecture Data security architecture	Information for systems / application management	Architecture of the elements Software architecture / applications system Data architecture (logical and physical) Architectural design Architecture of the properties of elements / components
	Communication Technologies	Network architecture Layer architecture Identify the necessary roles Organize and structure functions Track and sync messages	Information for the Management of communication networks	Identify the functions necessary for communication, Organize and structure functions into components (decompress or aggregate functions with differences/similarities, relate/structure functional components), Define rules of behavior and relationships between systems and their components for communication and cooperation

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Information science	<p>Information Science Theory</p> <p>Information systems</p> <p>Librarianship</p> <p>Archeology</p> <p>Museology</p> <p>Information management</p>	<p>Information needs and uses</p> <p>Sources of information</p> <p>Contents of the information</p> <p>Classification of information</p> <p>Indexing of information</p> <p>Documentation</p> <p>Information architecture</p> <p>Competitive intelligence and knowledge management</p> <p>Information systems for the management of organizations</p> <p>Storage / information file</p> <p>Language processing</p> <p>Information communication</p> <p>Social and legal aspects of information</p>	<p>Information as an object and resource of persons and organizations</p>	<p>Information needs of people and organisations</p> <p>Acquisition of information</p> <p>Information Industry (producers, electronic and digital storage, museums and libraries, cultural tourism, etc.)</p> <p>Create the information</p> <p>Organize and structure information</p> <p>Information units</p> <p>Store/archive information</p> <p>Retrieve the information</p> <p>Distribute the information</p> <p>Use the information</p> <p>Qualitative information</p> <p>Quantitative information</p> <p>utilitarian information: (e.g. statutes, regulations, school records, internal/external communications, etc.)</p> <p>Information as a food of knowledge</p> <p>Information in the management of organisations</p>
Psychology	<p>Human cognition</p> <p>Mental information processing</p> <p>Communication behaviors;</p> <p>Heuristic processes,</p> <p>Representation of knowledge</p> <p>Knowledge organization</p>	<p>Sources of information</p> <p>Perception of signs</p> <p>Representation of information</p> <p>Properties and features of the information</p> <p>Nature of information</p> <p>Information Psychology</p> <p>Information communication</p> <p>Development of cognitive structures</p> <p>Cognitive skills</p>	<p>Knowledge</p>	<p>Filter, combine, and interpret information</p> <p>Transformation of information into knowledge</p> <p>Accumulation of knowledge</p> <p>Knowledge units</p> <p>Transmission of knowledge;</p> <p>New ways of learning</p> <p>Properties and characteristics of information</p> <p>Nature of information</p> <p>Thinking, understanding and interpreting the world</p> <p>Memory, inference and deduction</p> <p>Value of knowledge</p> <p>Semantic awareness</p>

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
<p>Education</p>	<p>Human needs Apprenticeship Skills Reflection Creativity and realization of potential. Fundamentals of Education Educational Administration Educational Planning and Evaluation Teaching Learning Curriculum Guidance and Advice Educational Specific Topics</p>	<p>Apprenticeship Informational skills Use and ability to apply knowledge the utilitarian information Understanding and overcoming problems. Information ecology Creating meanings Knowledge building Decision making</p>	<p>Know Skills</p>	<p>Information needs of people and organisations Sources, filter, collection, classification and storage, treatment and presentation, development of products and services, distribution, dissemination, analysis and use of information. Search for information: The basic – responsible for the basic information needs of the individual in the exercise of his citizenship, such as the need for housing, food, clothing, health and education. The contextual - responsible for the current transactions of information so that the individual can remain and maintain their spaces of professional, social, economic and political coexistence. The reflexive - which is oriented to think, research, innovation - is the search for information that induces the creative thinking of the redevelopment and reformatting of information in new information, allowing innovation in all its aspects. Information Industry (producers, electronic and digital storage, museums and libraries, cultural tourism, etc.) Acquisition of information Create the information Organize and structure information Store/archive information Retrieve the information Distribute the information Use the information Teams, culture, behavior, work process, informational policy</p>

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Sociology	Fundamentals of Sociology Sociology of Knowledge Sociology of Development Urban Sociology Rural sociology Sociology of Health Specific Sociologies	Sociology of organizations Human behavior social phenomena, Explanation of interdependence relationships. Understand different societies and cultures. Training	Sociology of Information Information to clarify social problems	Globalization of economic activities Information and knowledge society Studies on the nature and cognitive development of human beings Perception, understanding, memory, inference and deduction
Economy	Economic Theory Quantitative Methods Monetary and Fiscal Economy Growth, Fluctuations and Economic Planning International Economy Home economics	Human Resources Economics Industrial Economy Social economy Social Welfare Economy Regional and Urban Economy Agrarian and Natural Resources Economies	Information Economy	Globalization Economic polarization, Urbanization The transformation of work. Economic models Technological development – which has surpassed the domains accessible to our sense organs and which no one would have imagined that overtaking would reach such an extent; Change in the map of science and scientific disciplines - old disciplines that have expanded and broadened the scope of their activity; mergers between disciplines giving rise to new interdisciplines. Emergence of new products, production processes, activities and companies - which were based on scientific and technical progress
Philosophy	History of Philosophy Metaphysics Logic Ethics Epistemology Political philosophy Esthetical	Well Barely Right Incorrect	Information epistemology	It is related to fundamental problems related to existence, knowledge, truth, moral and aesthetic values, mind and language. Curiosity about the fundamentals of reality Focus on the issues of human existence based on reason.

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Political Sciences	<p>Political Theory State and Government Political behavior Public Policies International Politics</p>	<p>(credible) sources Power Public (social) information Communication Disclosure</p>	<p>Information Policy</p>	<p>Information needs of people and political organisations Sources, filter, collection, classification and storage, treatment and presentation, development of informational products, distribution, dissemination, analysis and use of information. Search for political information Information Industry (producers, electronic and digital storage, museums and libraries, cultural tourism, etc.) Acquisition of information Create political information Organize and structure political information Store/archive political information Retrieve political information Distribute political information Use political information</p>
Communication	<p>Communication Theory Journalism and Publishing Radio and Television Public Relations and Advertising Visual Communication</p>	<p>Daily press News News description Message Disclosure Data mining Narrative structures Forms of discourse in terms of time, space and subject</p>	<p>Exchange of information</p>	<p>Information needs of people and organisations Sources, filter, collection, classification, storage, treatment, presentation, development of informational products, distribution, dissemination, analysis and use of journalistic information. Search for journalistic information Information Industry (producers, electronic and digital storage, operators, distributors, etc.) Acquisition of journalistic information Organize and structure information Retrieve the information Distribute the information Media Informational content Congresses, conferences, oral and written press, etc. Newspaper / newsletter, magazines, etc.</p>

Sciences	Area	Sub-areas / Disciplines	Interdisciplinarity	Practical examples
Social sciences	Man and societies Social life of individuals and human groups Behavior of social life	Social needs Social information The historicity of the subjects and cognoscible objects. Social phenomena. The tension of society	Informational culture	Studies on citizenship, information al-information, rural information, scientific communication, information management. Studies on the understanding of social and cultural.
Linguistics, Literature and Arts	Linguistic Theory and Analysis Philosophy of Language Historical Linguistics Sociolinguistics and Dialectology Psycholinguistics Applied Linguistics Culture Literary work	Semiotics Recast Paratext, Morphosyntax Sources (objects, facts) Representation of knowledge Literary creation Disclosure Communication	Information for understanding, production, analysis and synthesis of the situational model	Semantic coding, Acquisition of new vocabulary, Creation of mental models Understanding the ideas of the text. Literature is not centered on the contents, plots or themes of poetry, novels, novels, short stories or plays, but on the way of saying, presenting and dealing with words to communicate with those contents

Source: Adapted from. Arist - The Annual Review of Information Science and Technology. Silver Spring: ASIS&T. Available in: <<http://www.asis.org/Publications/ARIST/statement.php>>. visited on 15-03-2018 Agencia Nacional De Evaluación y Prospectiva (ANEP) Descripción de las áreas Tematic. Available from: file:///C:/DISCO%20D/ci/artigos-trab/ci-interdisciplinaridade/Descripción_áreas_temáticas%20ANEP%202010%20sin%20Transferencia%20de%20Tecnología.pdf; visited on 15-03-2018

FCT - Foundation for Science and Technology; Scientific Scientific Domains Scientific. Available in: file:///C:/DISCO%20D/ci/artigos-trab/ci-interdisciplinarity/Dominios_e_Areas_Cientificas_C2012.pdf visited on 15-03-2018

Final Considerations

Political Leadership is a field of knowledge in a constant process of historical, theoretical, epistemological, and practical transformation. It is observed that one of the great assets for Political Leadership is in its disciplinary and interdisciplinary conception and that this disciplinary construction of knowledge can be understood in the scope of application of the laws / categories of dialectics.

The studies carried out in the research allow us to affirm that the interdisciplinary approach of the knowledge of Political Leadership seems to indicate new and appropriate ways to advance scientific knowledge in an innovative way. This indication applies to the development of all scientific disciplines, especially political sciences and other sciences arising in the second half of the twentieth century, as well as a broader understanding of the terms it uses. A maturing of the area around the terminology adopted about the interdisciplinary approach can produce a better understanding of its meaning and a better adaptation of the methodology adopted in the development of research in the area.

This essay seeks to discuss political leadership briefly and in a preliminary way, based on existing literature. A long way has been taken from this approach, where the analysis has undergone an evolution over time, never ignoring the work and classifications used in previous studies.

We tried to be coherent in the use of the sources that served as the basis for the analysis, that is, the discussions and definitions offered by Japiassú, the concepts of frontier and permeation offered by Klein, the notion of Morin systems or the recent inclusion of Pigeon studies, because in addition to being consistent, the rigor in the way in which these same concepts are presented in his works was maintained.

It is concluded that the analyses on Political Leadership can be considered, as one of the most important, not only by the limited number of studies on this subject, available within the field of Political Sciences, but by the quality and consistency in its approach.

We believe that the interdisciplinary dialectic of knowledge, in political sciences, (laws/categories), presented in the present work does not seek to establish a truth, but to conceive elements for the discussion about what political leadership can be (or become), noting that dialectics, as a construct of knowledge and method, can contribute, especially from its various nuances.

Limitations of the research study

We are aware of the limitations of the study, since some areas of knowledge have not been studied and should be addressed in future investigations.

In addition, previous research studies deal little with the issues of transdisciplinary, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity of knowledge about Political Leadership. Likewise, previous studies are limited to the generalization of conclusions. In this regard, it would be interesting to analyze whether there are significant differences in the use of these concepts in the different scientific disciplines.

Clues to New Investigations

About the interdisciplinarity of knowledge about Political Leadership we argue that the traditional approach is only related to information as a thing. Because this is a very narrow view and because this concept is related to other concepts, we argue that the interdisciplinarity of information should consider information in all perceptions and object of investigation.

We are now asked the following questions:

- Has globalization accelerated the development and dimension of the basic concepts of political science and led to the rapid transition from the Information and Knowledge Society to the Digital Society?
- Has the COVID-19 pandemic forced global globalization at once, without being made continent to continent, country by country?
- Will the globalization of the Information Economy not question the freedom and privacy of citizens?

4 References

«*The Timelessness of Harry Potter's Gamesmanship*» by Burling Lowrey. *Virginia Quarterly Review Autumn 1993 pp. 718–726*. Consultado em 25 de junho de 2012. Arquivado do original em 7 de setembro de 2009.

«*dictatorship | Definition, Characteristics, Countries, & Facts*». *Encyclopedia Britannica (em inglês)*. Consultado em 6 de julho de 2020.

A América Latina entre a Segunda Guerra e a Guerra Fria. Bethell, Leslie; Roxborough, Ian.

A liderança por ideal nas organizações. Por Evandro Prestes Guerreiro e Roberto Araújo da Silva.

Aguilar, F.J., (1967), *Scanning the business environment*. MacMillan, New York.

Amit, R. e P. J. H. Shoemaker, (1993), *Strategic Assets and Organizational Rents*, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 14, pp. 33-46

Anastassopoulos, J., P., Blanc, G., Nioche, J., P., Ramanantsoa, B., (1985), *Pour une nouvelle Politique d'entreprise*”, PUF

Andrews, K. R. (1987). *The concept of corporate strategy*. Homewood: Irwin.

Andrews, K. R., (1971, 1980, 1987), *The Concept of Corporate Strategy*, Irwin, Homewood, Illinois

Andrews, K. R., (1980), *Directors Responsibility for Corporate Strategy*, *Harvard Business Review*, Novembro-Dezembro, pp. 28-43

Andrews, K. R., (1981), *Replacing the Board's Role in Formulating Strategy*, *Harvard Business Review*, Maio-Junho, pp. 18-27

Andrews, K. R., (1982, p.174-184), *Corporate Strategy as a Vital Function of the Board*, *Harvard Business Review* (59,6) Novembro-Dezembro.

Andrews, Learned, Christensen, e Guth, (1965), *Business Policy*, Irwin, New York

Ansoff H. Igor, (1984). *Implanting Strategic Management*, Prentice-Hall International.

- Ansoff H. Igor, Declerck, R. P., & Hayes, R. L., (1979). From Strategic Planning to Strategic Management, John Wiley.
- Ansoff, H. I. (1975) Managing strategic surprise by response to weak signals, *California Management Review*, 18(2), 21-33.
- Ansoff, H. I., (1985), Conceptual Underpinnings of Systematic Strategic Management. *European Journal of Operational Research*, v. 19, n. 1, p. 219.
- Ansoff, H. I., Declerck, R., & Hayes (1976). From Strategic Planning to Strategic Management, John Wiley & Sons.
- Ansoff, H. Igor (1990). Strategic Management. The Macmillan Press, London.
- Ansoff, H. Igor, (1965), *Corporate Strategy*, McGraw-Hill, New York
- Ansoff, H. Igor, (1978), *Strategic Management*, New Yorke, Macmillan
- Ansoff, H. Igor, (1984), *Implanting Strategic Management*, Prentice-Hall International
- Ansoff, Igor & Edward McDonnell (1990). *Implanting Strategic Management*. Prentice Hall International, New Jersey.
- Antonio Carlos Olivieri. «A ditadura na Roma antiga e nos dias atuais». *UOL Educação*. Consultado em 8 de abril de 2011
- Antônio, Nelson Santos, (2003), *Estratégia Organizacional: do Posicionamento ao Movimento*, Edições Sílabo, Lisboa
- Auster, E.; Choo, C. W., (1994), How senior managers acquire and use information in environmental scanning. *Information Processing and Management*, v. 30, n. 5, p. 607-618.
- Bacon, Descartes, Galileo et all, (1973. p. 18), Método Científico y Poder Poítico. El pensamiento del siglo XVII. BS As, Centro Editor de America Latina,
- Balance of Power: Brazil's Graft Epidemic Claims Iconic Leader
- Barbosa, R. R., (2011), Inteligência empresarial: uma avaliação de fontes de informação sobre o ambiente organizacional externo.
- Barney, J. B. (1986). «Strategic Factor Markets: Expectations, Luck and Business Strategy». *Management Science*, 32 (10), pp. 1231-1241.
- Barney, J. B. (1991). «Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage». *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), pp. 99-120.
- Barney, J. B. (1999). «How a Firm's Capabilities Affect Boundary Decisions». *Sloan Management Review* (40:3), pp. 137-145.
- Barney, J. B., & Arkan, A. M. (2001). The resource-based view: Origins and implications. In: M. A. Hitt, R. F. Freeman & J. S. Harrison (Eds.), *Handbook of strategic management* (pp. 124-188). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bass, Bernard, (2007), *Concepts of Leadership*, em Robert P. Vecchio (ed.) *Leadership. Understanding the Dynamics of Power and Influence in Organizations*, 2nd edition, Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Bateson, G., (1972), *Steps to an Ecology of Mind*, Nova Iorque, Balentine Books
- Baudrillard, Jean, (1985), A sombra das maiorias silenciosas. O fim do social e o surgimento das massas. São Paulo., Brasiliense.
- Beal, A., (2004, p.137), Gestão estratégica da informação :como transformar a informação e a tecnologia da informação em fatores de crescimento e auto desempenho nas organizações. 4. ed. São Paulo: Atlas.
- Beal, A., (2007), Gestão estratégica da informação. São Paulo: Atlas.
- Beijer, P. (2005). Architecture Blueprint in Strategic Alignment. Retrieved 2008, from Primavera: Program for Research in Information Management: <http://primavera.fee.uva.nl/PDFdocs/2005-12.pdf>
- Beijer, P., & Meer van der, A. (2008). Constituency involvement through parliamentary back-office integration – Enterprise Content Management in particular. 6th Eastern European eGov days. Prague.
- Belkin, N. J. (1978), *Information concepts for information science*. *Journal of Documentation*, vol. 34, n° 1, p.55-85
- Belkin, N.J., (1984), Cognitive Models and Information Transfer. In: *Social Science Information Studies*, 4: 1 1 1-29.
- Bergeron, P. (1996), Information resources management. **Annual Review of Information Science and Technology**, White Plains, v. 31, p. 263-300.
- Besson, Bernard et Jean-Claude Possin, (1996), *Du Renseignement à l'intelligence économique*, Dunod
- Blanck, M., & Janissek-Muniz, R. (2014) Inteligência estratégica antecipativa coletiva e crowdfunding: aplicação do método L.E.SCAning em empresa social de economia peer-to-peer (P2P), *RAUSP*, 49(1), 1-17.
- Blanco, S., (1998), Gestion de l'information et intelligencestratégique: cas de la selection des signes d'alerteprécoce, Thèse de doctorat en Sciences de Gestion, Univ. de Grenoble 2, 308 p.
- Bolman, L. G., and T. Deal, (1997), *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership*, 2ª edição, Jossey-Bass Publishers, São Francisco
- Borba, Andrea, (1998), A ditadura dos países, Ed. Universitária, UFPE.
- Borko, H., (1968), Information science: what is it? *American documentation*, Washington, v. 19, n. 1, p. 3-5.
- Boston Consulting Group, (1974), *Perspectives sur la Stratégie d'entreprise*, Hommes et Techniques, Paris
- Boston Consulting Group, (1980), *Les Mécanismes fondamentaux de la compétitivité*, Hommes et Techniques, Paris
- Boyd, B., Janet Fulk, (1996), *Executive Scanning and Perceived Uncertainty: a Multidimensional Model*, *Journal of Management*, 22 (1), pp. 1-22
- Braverman, Hamy, (1981), Trabalho e capital monopolista. Rio de Janeiro, Zahar.
- Braybrooke, D., and Lindblom, C. E., (1963), *A Strategy of Decision*, Free Press, New York
- Broëcker, Aristóteles, (1963), Santiago de Chile, Universidade de Chile.
- Brum, M.A. C.and Barbosa, R. R., (2009), Comportamento de busca e uso da informação: um estudo com alunos, Heidelberg, Springer.
- Bryant, A. (2007), Information and the CIO, in: Huizing, A. and Vries, E.J. de (2007), *Information Management: Setting the Scene*, Oxford: Elsevier, forthcoming.

- Bryant, A. (2007). Information and the CIO. In A. Huizing, & E. J. de Vries, *Information Management: Setting the Scene* (pp. 57-69). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Bryman, Alan, (2000), *Research Methods and Organization Studies*, Unwin Hyman
- Bryman, Alan, (2001), *Only communicate communication IS a social construct*. Working Paper 2001-8, School of Information Management, Leeds Metropolitan University.
- Buckland, M. (1991), *Information as thing*, Journal of the American Society for Information Science, vol.42, n° 5
- Buzzell, R. D., T. G. Bradley, R. G. M. Sultan, (1975), *Market Share: a Key to Profitability*, Harvard Business Review, Janeiro-Feveiro, pp. 97-111
- Cajazeiras, Jorge Emanuel Reis, (2006), A importância da responsabilidade social na gestão: Entrevista. Revista Gerenciais, São Paulo, v. 5, n. especial, p. 51-62, jan./jun.
- Carl J., Friedrich (1 de janeiro de 1950). «Military Government and Dictatorship». *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (em inglês)*. **267** (1): 1–7. ISSN 0002-7162. OCLC 5723774494. doi:10.1177/000271625026700102. Consultado em 15 de novembro de 2021
- Carvalho, F. A., (2011), **Criança, a alma do negócio**. 2011. 114f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Administração) - Fundação Pedro Leopoldo, Minas Gerais.
- Castell, M. & Aoyoma, Y. (1994), *Vers la société de l'information: structures de l'empoi dans les pays du G7 de 1920 à 1990*, Revue International du Travail, vol. 133, n°1
- Castell, M. & Aoyoma, Y. (1994), *Vers la société de l'information: structures de l'empoi dans les pays du G7 de 1920 à 1990*, Revue International du Travail, vol. 133, n°1
- Castell, M. (1996), *The rise of the network society*, Mass: Blackwell Publishers
- Castells, M. (1996). *The rise of the network society, the information age: economy, society and culture*. Vol. 1, Cambridge, Blackwell Publishers.
- Castoriadis, Cornelius, (1986, p. 71-74). A polis grega e a criação da democracia. In: Filosofia Política 3. UNICAMP/UFRGS, Inverno.
- Castoriadis, Cornelius, (1987, p. 236) .As Encruzilhadas do Labirinto/I. Rio de Janeiro, Paz e Terra.
- Chan, S. Y. & Foster, J. M. (2001). «Strategy formulation in small business». *International Small Business Journal*, 19(3), 56-71.
- Chandler, A. D. Jr., (1962), *Strategy and Structure: Chapters in the History of the Industrial Enterprise*, M.I.T. Press, Cambridge.
- Choo C.W., (2008), **The knowing organization**. Oxford University Press, NY, p. 298.
- Choo, C. W. & Bontis, N. (Ed.) (2002). *The Strategic Management of Intellectual Capital and Organizational Learning*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Choo, C. W. (1996, October). The Knowing Organization: How Organizations Use Information To Construct Meaning, Create Knowledge, and Make Decisions. *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol 16 (5), pp. 329-340.
- Choo, C. W. (1997), *Organizations as Information-use Systems: A process model of information management*. PrimaVera Working Paper 1997-17, University van Amsterdam.
- Choo, C. W. (1998), *The Knowing Organization: How Organizations Use Information to Construct Meaning, Create Knowledge and Make decisions*, Oxford University Press, Nova Iorque
- Choo, C. W. (2002), *Environment Scanning as Information Seeking and Organizational Knowing* PrimaVera Working Paper 2002-01, University van Amsterdam.
- Choo, C. W. (2002), *Information Management for the Intelligent Organization: The Art of Scanning the Environment*, 3ª edição, Medford, NJ: Information Today, Inc.
- Choo, C. W. (2009) Information use and early warnings effectiveness: perspectives and prospects, *Jornal of The American Society for Information Science and Techonology*, 60(5), 1071-1082.
- Choo, C. W., (1994), Perception and use of information sources in environmental scanning. *Library & Information Science Research*, v. 16, n. 1, p. 23-40.
- Choo, C. W., (2003), A organização do conhecimento: como as organizações usam a informação para criar significado, construir conhecimento e tomar decisões. São Paulo: Senac.
- Choo, C. W., (2006), *The knowing organization: how organizations use information to construct meaning, create knowledge, and make decisions*. 2. ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Choo, C. W., Ethel Auster, (1993), *Environment Scanning: Acquisition and Use of Information by Managers*, in: Annual Review of Information Science and Technology, editado por M. E. Williams
- Choo, C.W. (2007), Social Use of Information in Organizational Groups, in: Huizing, A. and Vries, E.J. de (2007), *Information Management: Setting the Scene*, Oxford: Elsevier, forthcoming.
- Choo, Chun Wei., (1998), *Information management for the intelligent organization: the art of scanning the environment*. 2. ed. Medford, New Jersey: ASIS Monograph Series.
- Christensen, C. R., (1997), *The Innovator's Dilema: When New Technologies Cause Great Firms to Fail*, Harvard Business School Press, Boston
- Christensen, C. R., Andrews, K. R., Bower, J. L., Hamermesh G., and Porter, M., E., (1982), *Business Policy: Text and Cases*, 5 th edition, Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Clausewitz, C. Von, (1989), *On War*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press
- Clemons, E. K., Hitt L. M., (1987), *Information Systems for Sustainable Competitive Advantage*, *Information & Management* 11, pp. 131-136

- Clemons, E. K., Hitt L. M., (2001), *Poaching and Misappropriation of Information: An Analysis of Relationship Risks in Information-Intensive Production*, University of Pennsylvania, Wharton School
- Coelho, G. M. et al., *Inteligencia Competitiva e Tecnológica*. Disponível em:
- Coggiola, Osvaldo, (2002), *Governos militares na América do Sul*.
- Conford, Francis M. Plato's, (1957), *theoryofKnowledge*. New York, Bobios - Merrill.
- Cooper, A. C. (1979). «Strategic management: New ventures and small business». In: D. E. Schendel & C. Hofer (Eds.), *Strategic management* (pp. 316-327). Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Crawford, Richard, (1994), *Na era do capital humano: o talento, a inteligência e o conhecimento como forças económicas, seu impacto nas empresas e nas decisões de investimento*, São Paulo: Atlas.
- Crawford, Richard, (1994), *Na era do capital humano: o talento, a inteligência e o conhecimento como forças económicas, seu impacto nas empresas e nas decisões de investimento*, São Paulo: Atlas.
- Crozier, M., e Friedberg, (1977), *L'acteur et le système*, Le Seuil, Paris
- Cunha, M. B., (2001), Para saber mais: fontes de informação em ciência e tecnologia, Brasília, , DF: Briquet de Lemos, p. 168.
- Cyert, J. J. , Richard M., et March, J. G., (1992), *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm*, 2ª edição, Blackwell, Oxford, UK
- Cyert, J. J. et March, J. G., (1963), *A Behavioral Theory of Firm*, Nova Iorque, Prentice Hall
- Cyert, J. J. et March, J. G., (1970), *Processus de Décision dans L'entreprise*, Dunod, d'alerteprécoce. Colloque VSST 2001, Barcelone oct., **Actes du colloque VSST 2001**, d'Organisation, Paris.
- Daft, Richard L., J. Sormunen, Don Parks, (1988), *Chief Executive Scanning, Environment Characteristics and Company Performance: an Empirical Study*, Strategic Management Journal 9 (2), pp. 123-139
- Daft, Richard L., Juhani Sormunen, Don Parks, (1984), *Chief Executive Scanning Environmental Characteristics and Company Performance: an Empirical Study*, Strategic Management Journal, 9 (2), pp. 123-139
- Daft, Richard L., Karl E. Weick, (1984), *Toward a Model of Organization as Interpretation Systems*, Academy of Management Review 9 (2), pp. 284-295
- Dahlberg, I., (1978), Fundamentos teóricos-conceituais da classificação. Revista de Biblioteconomia, Brasília, v. 6, n. 1, jan./jun. p. 9-21
- Dahlberg, I., (2006, p. 82-85), Feature: interviewwithIntegrantDahlberg, December 2007. Knowl. Organ., v. 35, n. 2/3.
- Dahlberg, Ingetraut. (1978) “Teoria do conceito”. Ciência da Informação, Rio de Janeiro, v. 7, n. 2, p. 101-107.
- Dallemagne, Jean-Luc, (1976), *Autogestion ou dictatureduprolétariat; essaisur la gestiondesétatsouvriers*. (Paris)Inedit.
- DataGramZero – Revista de Ciência da Informação, Belo Horizonte, v. 3, n. 6, dez. 2002.
- Davenport, E.; Cronin, B., (2000), Knowledge management: semantic drift or conceptual shift? Annual Meeting of the Association for Library and Information Science Education, San Antonio, Jan.
- Davenport, T. H. & L. Prusak (1998). Working Knowledge. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Davenport, T. H., (1992), *Can We Manage Information Behavior?*, Ernst& Yong, Research Note
- Davenport, T. H., (1993), *Process Innovation*, Harvard University Press, Boston
- Davenport, T. H.; Prusak, L., (2001), *Ecologia da informação*. 4. ed. São Paulo: Futura.
- Davenport, T., & Prusak, L. (1998). Working Knowledge. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Devlin, K. (1999). Info Sense: turning information into knowledge. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Davenport, T.; Prusak, L. (1998 a, p.316), *Ecologia da informação: por que só a tecnologia não basta para o sucesso na era da informação*. São Paulo: Futura,
- Davenport, T.H. and Prusak, L., (1997), “Information Ecology” ,*Oxford University Press*, Oxford, UK.
- Davenport, T.H. and Prusak, L., (1997), “Information Ecology” ,*Oxford University Press*, Oxford, UK.
- Davis, Gordon B and Scott Hamilton, (1993), *Concepts of Strategic Management*, 4ª edição
- De Brandt, J. (1995), *Services aux Entreprises – Informations, Produits, Richess*, Paris, Economica
- De Brandt, J. (1995), *Services aux Entreprises – Informations, Produits, Richess*, Paris, Economica
- Degent, R. J., (1986), A importância estratégica e o funcionamento do serviço de inteligência empresarial. Revista de Administração de Empresas, v. 26, n. 1, p. 77-83. Jan./mar.
- Descartes, René. *Meditações Metafísticas*, VI.
- Devlin, K. (1991), *Logic and Information*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Devlin, K. (1999), *Info Sense: turning information into knowledge*. W. H. Freeman and Company, New York
- Devlin, K. (1999), *Info Sense: turning information into knowledge*. W. H. Freeman and Company, New York
- Devlin, K., (1999), *Infosense*, UK, Cambridge University Press
- Devlin, K., (1999), *Infosense*, UK, Cambridge University Press
- Douma, S. W., H. Schreuder, (1992), *Economic approaches to organizations*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., Hertfordshire
- Drucker, Peter (1997). *As Novas Realidades – no governo e na política, na economia e nas empresas, na sociedade e na visão do mundo*. 4ª edição, Editora Pioneira Novos Ubrais, São Paulo, Brasil.
- Drucker, Peter (1999). *Sobre a Profissão da Gestão*. 1ª edição, Editora Publicações Dom Quixote, Lda, Lisboa.
- Drucker, Peter, (1958), *Long Range Planning a Challenge to Management Science*, Management Science, Abril
- Drucker, Peter, (1970), *Entrepreneurship in Business Enterprise*, Journal of Business Policy, (I, 1), pp. 3-12
- Drucker, Peter, (1999), *Management Challenges for the 21 st Century*, edição portuguesa da Livraria Civilização Editora, Lisboa

- Drucker, Peter, (1999), *Management Challenges for the 21 st Century*, edição portuguesa da Livraria Civilização Editora, Lisboa
- Duarte, E. N.; Santos, M. L. C., (2015), O conhecimento na administração estratégica. Perspectivas em gestão & conhecimento, João Pessoa, v. 1, n. 1, p. 15-24, 2011. Disponível em: <<http://periodicos.ufpb.br/ojs/index.php/pgc/article/view/9798/5615>>. Acesso em: 3 set. 2015.
- Duarte, E. N.; Silva, A. K. A.; Costa, S. Q., (2015), Gestão da Informação e do Conhecimento: práticas de empresa “excelente em gestão empresarial” extensivas a unidades de informação. Informação & sociedade: estudos, João Pessoa, v. 17, n. 1, p. 97-107, 2007. Disponível em: <<http://www.ies.ufpb.br/ojs/index.php/ies/article/view/503/1469>>. Acesso em: 3 set. 2015.
- Duncan, R. B., (1972), *Characteristics of Organizational environments and Perceived Environment Uncertainty*, Administrative Science Quarterly, pp. 313-327
- Economist Intelligence Unit (2008). The future of enterprise information governance, The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited
- Elfring, T., and Volberda, H. W., (1994, 1998), *New Directions in Strategy: Beyond Fragmentation*, Sage, London
- Ellul, Jacques., (1985), *Mudarde Revolução. O inelutável proletariado*. Rio de Janeiro, Rocco.
- Ezrow, Natasha M; Frantz, Erica (2011). *Dictators and dictatorships: understanding authoritarian regimes and their leaders (em inglês)*. New York: Continuum. ISBN 978-1-4411-1602-4
- Figueiredo, Antônio de, (1976), Portugal: 50 anos de ditadura. Rio de Janeiro, Civilização Brasileira.
- Figueiredo, N., (1994), Informação para negócios: um novo desafio. In: Congresso Latino-Americano De Biblioteconomia E Documentação, 2., 1994, Belo Horizonte. Anais... Belo Horizonte: ABMG, 820 p.
- Floridi, L. (2008). Trends in the Philosophy of Information. In P. Adriaans, & J. v. Benthem, Handbook of Philosophy of Information (pp. 113-132). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Fredrigo, Fabiana de Souza (1998), Ditadura e resistência no Chile, UNESP,
- Freitas, H. e Janissek-Muniz, R., (2006), Uma proposta de plataforma para Inteligência Estratégica. Texto indicado ao II Prêmio de Inovação em Inteligência Competitiva da ABRAIC, e recebeu Menção Honrosa. III ENA – Encontro Nacional da ABRAIC. Anais. Congresso Ibero Americano de Gestão do Conhecimento e Inteligência Competitiva. 29-31 agosto 2006. Curitiba PR.
- Freitas, H. e Janissek-Muniz, R., (2006), *Uma proposta de plataforma para Inteligência Estratégica*. Congresso Ibero Americano de Gestão do Conhecimento e Inteligência Competitiva. 29-31 Agosto 2006. Curitiba PR.
- Fuld, L. M., (1993), Dez maneiras fáceis de monitorar seus concorrentes. In: FULD, L.M. Administrando a concorrência. Rio de Janeiro: Record.
- Galileo Galilei, cit. In: Bacon, Descartes, Galileo et alii. Método Científico y Poder Político ... p. 15.
- Ghirelli, Antonio, (2003), *Tiranos: | de Hitler a Pol Pot: os homens que ensangüentaram o século XX*, Difel.
- Gianotti, S.A., (1985), A Ciência como Forças Produtivas.
- Godet, Michel (1993). Manual de Prospectiva Estratégica. Publicações Dom Quixote, Lisboa.
- Gottschalk, P. (1999). «Strategic Management of IS/IT Functions: the Role of the CIO in Norwegian Organizations». International Journal of Information Management (19:5), pp. 389-399.
- Goulart, I. B. Piaget, (2011), experiências básicas para utilização pelo professor. 27. ed. Petrópolis: Ed. Vozes.
- Grant, R. (1996). «Towards a Knowledge-based Theory of the Firm». Strategic Management Journal, vol. 17, Number Winter Special Issue, pp. 109-122
- Grant, R., (1991a), *The Resource-based Theory of Competitive Advantage: Implications for Strategy Formulation*, California Management Review (33, 3, pp. 114-135)
- Grant, R., (1991b), *Contemporary Strategy Analysis: Concepts, Techniques, Applications*, Blackwell Business
- Grant, R., (1991c), *Porter's Competitive Advantage of Nations: An Assessment*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 12, Outubro de 1991, pp. 535-548
- Grant, R., (1991d), *Contemporary Strategy Analysis: Concepts, Techniques, Applications*, Blackwell Business
- Grant, R., (1998), *A Resource-Based Approach to Strategy Analysis – A Practical Framework*, 3rd ed., Blackwell Business Grenoble 2, p. 308.
- Grossman, E.R.F.W., Cit. por. Theotonio dos Santos, *Revolução científico-técnica e capitalismo contemporâneo*. Petrópolis, Vozes, 1983.
- Guattari, F., (1986), *A cartografia do desejo*. Petrópolis, Vozes.
- Guinzburg, Cano. Señales, (1983), Rarzes de um paradigma indiciário. In: Gargani, Aldo (org.) *Crisis de la razón*. México, Siglo Veintiuno, Usa a expressão "indagação desprejuizada", p. 69.
- Habermas, Jurgen, (1984), *Mudança estrutural da esfera pública*. Rio de Janeiro, Tempo Brasileiro.
- Hamel, G. (1996). «Strategy as Revolution». Harvard Business Review, 74(4), 69-82.
- Hammersmith, Vygotsky, L. S., (1988), **A formação social da mente: o desenvolvimento dos processos psicológicos superiores**. São Paulo: Martins Fontes, 1988.
- Handy, Charles, (1999), *The Age of Unreason*, Harvard Business Review, Boston
- Handy, Charles, (1999), *The Age of Unreason*, Harvard Business Review, Boston
- Hayes, R. H., (1985), *Strategic Planning – Forward in Reverse?*, Harvard Business Review, Novembro-Dezembro
- HEC - Hautes Études Commerciales, de Jouy-en-Josas, (1994), *Estratégia, Estrutura, Decisão, Identidade* -Strategor - Política Global da Empresa, Publicações Dom Quixote, Lisboa.

- Hogart, R. M., S. Makridakis, (1981), *Forecasting and Planning: an Evaluation*, Management Science (27, 2), Fevereiro, pp. 115-138
- Hogart, R. M., S. Makridakis, (1981), *Forecasting and Planning: an Evaluation*, Management Science (27, 2), Fevereiro, pp. 115-138
- Holopainen, M., & Toivonen, M. (2012) Weak signals: Ansoff today, *Futures*, 44(3), 198-205.
- Holopainen, M., & Toivonen, M. (2012) Weak signals: Ansoff today, *Futures*, 44(3), 198-205.
- Huizing, A. (2007a). The Value of a Rose: Rising Above Objectivism. In A. Huizing, & E. J. de Vries, *Information Management: Setting the Scene* (pp. 91-110). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Huizing, A. (2007b). Objectivist by Default. In A. Huizing, & E. J. de Vries, *Information Management: Setting the Scene* (pp. 73-90). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Igreja Positivista do Brasil, (1904), *As liberdades civis e a ditadura republicana*. (Rio de Janeiro, Tip. do Apostolado Positivista do Brasil.
- In full, *One-Upmanship: Being Some Account of the Activities and Teachings of the Lifemanship Correspondence College of One-Upness and Games Lifemastery*.
- In: ———. *Filosofia Miúda.*, São Paulo, Brasiliense.
- Ingwersen, Peter, (1992, p. 99-135),. *Information and information science in context*. Libri, v.42(2).
- Introna, L. (1997). *Management, Information and Power*. Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire RG21 6XS: MacMillan Press Ltd.
- Itami, H., (1987), *Mobilizing Invisible Assets*. Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, Cambridge
- Jamil, G. and Fernanda Ribeiro e Armando Malheiro, (2013), "Rethinking the Conceptual Base for New Practical Applications in Information Value and Quality", IGI Global, Hershey, USA
- Janissek-Muniz, R, Freitas, H., & LESCA, H. (2007) *A Inteligência Estratégica Antecipativa e Coletiva como apoio ao desenvolvimento da capacidade de adaptação das organizações*. Paper presented at CONTECSI, 4º, São Paulo, Brasil.
- Janissek-Muniz, R., & Blanck, M. R. M. (2014) *Gestão de sinais fracos, empreendedorismo e incerteza: um ensaio teórico relacional sob a ótica da inteligência*. Paper presented at CONTECSI, 11º, São Paulo, Brasil.
- Janissek-Muniz, R., Lesca, H.; Freitas, H., (2006), *Inteligência Estratégica Antecipativa e Coletiva para Tomada de Decisão*. 3rd CONTECSI - International Conference on Information Systems and Technology Management and 11th WCA - World Continuous Auditing Conference. Anais 3rd Contecsi.31/05 a 02/06/2006 - USP São Paulo/SP.
- Jamil, G. L. (2005). *Gestão da Informação e do conhecimento em empresas brasileiras: estudo de múltiplos casos*. Belo Horizonte: Ed. Con / Art.
- Jamil, G. L. (2013a). *Sistemas de informação e a tomada de decisões: estudos de caso sobre a inteligência de mercado e a gestão de marketing* In Campos, P. e Brito, P. Q. *Novas tendências em Marketing Intelligence*, Ed. Actual.
- Jamil, G. L. (2013b). *Approaching Market Intelligence concept through a case analysis: Continuous knowledge for marketing strategic management and its complementarity to competitive intelligence*. *Annals of Centeris 2013 – Conference on Technology and Information Systems*, Lisbon, 2013.
- Jamil, G. L. (2014). *Inteligência de Mercado como um processo de gestão da informação e do conhecimento: proposta de oficinas de capacitação setoriais*. Post-doctoral Project at Faculdade de Letras from Universidade do Porto, Porto University, Portugal.
- Jamil, G. L. e Magalhães, L. F. C. (2015). *Perspectives for big data analysis for knowledge generation in project management contexts*. In Jamil, G. L.; Lopes, S. M.; Silva, A. M. e Ribeiro, F. *Handbook of research on effective project management research through the integration of knowledge and innovation*. Hershey: IGI Global.
- Jamil, G. L. e Silva, A. R. (2021) *Emerging technologies in a modern competitive scenario: Understanding the panorama for security and privacy requirements*. In Anunciação, P. F.; Pessoa, C. R. M. and Jamil, G. L. (2021) *Digital Transformation and challenges for data security and privacy*. Hershey, USA: IGI Global, pp. 1-16.
- Jamil, G. L.; Santos, L. H. R. and Jamil, C. C. (2018) *Market Intelligence as an Information System Element: Delivering Knowledge for Decisions in a Continuous Process*. In *Handbook of Research on expanding business opportunities with information systems and analytics*. Hershey, USA: IGI Global, pp. 1-19.
- Japiassu, Hilton, (1977. p-13-15), *As máscaras da ciência*. *Ciência da Informação*, Rio de Janeiro, v.6, n.1., Disponível em: <http://revista.ibict.br/index.php/ciinf/article/view/1566>
- Japiassu, Hilton, (1984. p.3-5), *A epistemologia do "novo espírito científico": da criação científica ou da razão aberta*. São Paulo, Folhetim da Folha de São Paulo, 1º de julho de
- Japiassu, Hilton. (1977, p. 202) *Introdução ao pensamento epistemológico*. 2 ed. Rio de Janeiro, Francisco Alves.
- Japiassu, Hilton. *Interdisciplinaridade e patologia do saber*. Rio de Janeiro: Imago, 1975. 221p. (Série Logoteca) Strauss, J. D.; Radnor, M. *Roadmapping for Dynamic and Uncertain Environments*. *Research Technology Management*, v. 47, n. 2, p. 51, 2004.
- Japiassu, Hilton; Marcondes, Danilo, (1991. 265 p), *Dicionário básico de filosofia*. 2 ed. revista. Rio de Janeiro: Zahar.
- Johnson, A., *What is Competitive Intelligence?* Disponível em:
- Jung, C.G., (2002), *Os Arquétipos e o inconsciente coletivo*. Petrópolis: Editora Vozes, 2ª ed.
- Kant, Immanuel, (1974, p. 104). *Respostas à pergunta: que é esclarecimento?* In: ———. *Textos Seletos*. Petrópolis, Vozes.
- Kant, Immanuel, *Teoria e Prática no Direito Potético*. In: ———. *Filosofia de Ia Historia*. BS As, Nova, p. 157.
- Kant, Immanuel. *Cit. por Habermas, J. Mudança estrutural da esfera pública...* p. 130.

- Kärkkäinen H., Piippo P., Puumalainen K., Tuominen M., (2001), Assessment of hidden and future customer needs in Finnish business-to-business companies, *R&D Management*, 31(4), p.391-406.
- Kerlinger, F. N., (1980), Metodologia da pesquisa em ciências sociais: um tratamento conceitual. Tradução Helena Mendes Rotundo; revisão técnica José Roberto Malufe. São Paulo: EPU.
- Kirk, J. (1999), *Information in Organizations: Directions for Information Management*, Information Research, vol 4 n° 3. Disponível em <http://Informationr.net/ir/4-3/paper57.html>, (site visitado em Maio de 2003)
- Klein, H. K., Hirschleim, R. A. (1987), *Social change and the future of information systems development*, In: Boland, R. J., Hirschleim R. A. (eds), Critical issues in information systems research, John Wiley & Sons
- Klein, H. K., M. D. Meyers, (1999), *A Set of Principles for Conducting and Evaluation Interpretive Field Studies in Information Systems*, Management Information Systems Quarterly, 23 (1), pp. 67-94
- Knorr-Cetina, K. (1997). Sociality with objects: Social relations in postsocial knowledge societies. *Theory, Culture and Society* 14 , 1-30.
- Kobrin, S. J. et al., (1980), The assessment and evaluation of noneconomic environments by American firms. *Journal of International Business Studies*, n. 11, p. 32-47.
- Kraus, S. (2007). «Strategic Planning in New Ventures and Young SMEs». In: C. Wankel (Ed.), *21st Century Management – A Reference Handbook* (pp. 73-81). ThousandOaks, CA: Sage.
- Ladrère, Jean, (1979), Os desafios da racionalidade. O desafio da Ciência da Tecnologia às Culturas. Petrópolis, Vozes.
- Lagarrigue, Jorge, (1987), 1854-1894. A ditadura republicana segundo Augusto Comte. Rio de Janeiro, Igreja positivista do Brasil.
- Lardera, Simona e Bernard Quinio, (1996), *Information et Décision Stratégique*,
- Laudon, Kenneth c.; Laudon, Jane p., (2004), *Sistemas De Informação Gerenciais*. São Paulo: Pearson.
- Le Coadic (1994), *La Science de l'Information*, Presses Universitaires de France, Paris
- Le Coadic, Yves F., (1998), *Le besoin d'information*. Paris: ADBS Editions, 191 p.
- LE COADIC, Yves-François., (1996), *A ciência da informação*. 5. ed. Brasília: Briquet de Lemos, 119 p.
- LeCoadic, Yvez-François (1997), *La science de l'information*. 2 ed. atual. Paris :Universitaires de France.
- LeMoigne, Jean-Louis. *Genèse de quelques nouvelles sciences. De l'intelligence artificielle aux sciences de la cognition*. p. 43.
- Lenin, Vladimir Ilitch, (1988), *Estado, ditadura do proletariado e poder soviético*, Oficina de Livros.
- Lesca e Blanco, (2002): in: Janissek-Muniz, R.; Lesca, H.; Freitas, H. *Desenvolvimento da capacidade de antecipação pela identificação e captação de indícios antecipativos em contexto de Inteligência Estratégica Antecipativa*. In: 4º. IFBAE Congresso do IFBAE, 2007, Porto Alegre. Anais do 4º IFBAE - Congresso do IFBAE, 2007
- Lesca, H. (1995) *The crucial problem of the strategic probe: the construction of the "puzzle"*, CERAG, ESA, série Recherche, 95-02, 24.
- Lesca, H., & Blanco, S. (2002) *Contribution à la capacité d'anticipation des entreprises par la sensibilisation aux signaux faibles*. Paper presented at CONGRÈS INTERNATIONAL FRANCOPHONE SUR LA PME, 6º, Montreal.
- Lesca, H., & Lesca, N. (2011) *Weak signals for strategic intelligence anticipation tool for managers*, London: ISTE; Hoboken: Wiley.
- Lesca, H., (1986), *Systèmes d'Information pour le Management Stratégique de l'Entreprise*. Paris: McGraw-Hill.
- Lesca, H., (2001), *Veille stratégique : passage de la notion de signal faible à la notion de signed alerte précoce*. Colloque VSST 2001, Barcelone oct., *Actes du colloque VSST*, tome 1, pp. 98-105.
- Lesca, H., (2003), *Veille stratégique: la méthode*. L: E: SCAnning®, Editions EMS, Colombelles, França.
- Lesca, H., Almeida, F. C., (1994), *Administração Estratégica da Informação*. *Revista de Administração*, v. 29, n. 3, p. 66-75.
- Lesca, H.; Almeida, F. C., (2015), *Administração estratégica da informação*. *Revista de Administração*, São Paulo, v. 29, n. 3, p. 66-75, jul./set. 1994. Disponível em: <file:///C:/Users/pc/Downloads/2903066%20(2).pdf>. Acesso em: 3 set. 2015.
- Lester, R.; Waters, J., (1989), *Environmental scanning and business strategy*. London, UK: British Library, Research and Development Department.
- Leszczynska, D. et Lesca, H., (2004), *Veille Stratégique : utilité des « informations de terrain » pour la PME-PMI à la recherche de nouveaux débouchés produit/marché*. Etude d'un cas. *Cahier de Recherche CERAG (Grenoble) – IAE (Nice)*, CERAG UMR 5820 CNRS.
- M. & Kitzis, E. S. (2005). *The New CIO Leader. Setting the Agenda and Delivering Results*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Maes, R. (1999), *Reconsidering Information Management through a generic framework*, PrimaVera Working Paper 1999-15, University van Amsterdam
- Maes, R. (2007). *An Integrative Perspective on Information Management*. In A. Huizing, & E. J. de Vries, *Information Management: Setting the Scene* (pp. 11-26). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Maes, R., & Vries de, E. J. (2008). *Information Leadership: The CIO as Orchestrator and Equilibrist*. TwentyNinth International Conference on Information Systems. Paris.
- Mafra Pereira, F. C., (2000), *Fundamentos metodológicos da pesquisa de Marketing*. 2000. 68 f. Monografia (Especialização lato sensu em Gestão Estratégica de Marketing) – Centro de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisas em Administração da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte.
- Mafra Pereira, F. C., (2006), *Uso de fontes de informação: um estudo em micro e pequenas empresas de consultoria de Belo Horizonte*. 2006. 154 f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Ciência da Informação) - Escola de Ciência da Informação, UFMG, Belo Horizonte.

- Mafra Pereira, F. C., Barbosa, R. R., (2009), A decisão estratégica por executivos de micro e pequenas empresas e a cadeia alimentar informacional como modelo integrativo de fontes de informação. In: Encontro Nacional De Pesquisa Em Ciência Da Informação - Enancib, 10., João Pessoa, 2009. Anais... João Pessoa: UFPB, p.1113-1131.
- Mafra Pereira, F. C.; Barbosa, R. R., (2008), Uso de fontes de informação por consultores empresariais: um estudo junto ao mercado de consultoria de Belo Horizonte. *Perspectivas em Ciência da Informação*, Belo Horizonte, v. 13, n.1, p. 95-111.
- Mahoney, J. and J. R. Pandian, (1992, p. 363-380), *The Resource-Based View Within The Conservation of Strategic Management*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 13, pp. 363-380
- Makridakis, S., (1990), *Forecasting, Planning, and Strategy for the 21st Century*, Free Press, Nova Iorque
- Malhotra, N. K., (2001), *Pesquisa de Marketing: uma orientação aplicada*. 3. ed. Porto Alegre: Bookman.
- Maluf, Sahid., (2013), *Teoria geral do Estado / 31. ed - São Paulo. Saraiva.*
- Mar Romero (11 de agosto de 2019). «La Operación Condor y la persecución de la izquierda en America Latina» (em espanhol). *LatinAmerica. EOM. p. elordenmundial.com. Consultado em 28 de janeiro de 2021*
- March e Simon, (1958), *Organizations*, Nova Iorque, John Wiley
- March e Simon, (1993), *Organizations*, 2ª edição, Blackwell, Cambridge
- Mariano, Nilson, (2003), *As garras do condor: Ditaduras militares da Argentina, do Chile, do Uruguai, do Brasil, da Bolívia e do Paraguai*. Vozes.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. & Gomes, L. I. E. (2020b). *Visão Social e Humana da Ciência da Informação. Biblos: Arquétipos*. Coimbra: Imprensa da Universidade de Coimbra. Número 6, 3ª Série, p. 119-145.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2013). *The Value of Information and Information Services in Knowledge Society*. In *Rethinking the Conceptual Base for New Practical Applications in Information Value and Quality*. Pennsylvania: IGI Global, 2013, p. 134-161.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2013a). *The Value of Information and Information Services in Knowledge Society*. In *Rethinking the Conceptual Base for New Practical Applications in Information Value and Quality*. Pennsylvania: IGI Global, 2013, p. 134-161.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2017a). *Informação, comunicação e conhecimento: os desafios da sociedade do século XXI*. In *Comunicação e Transformações Sociais: Ciência da Informação, Comunicação e Educação*, vol.1. Atas do Congresso da Associação Portuguesa de Ciências da Comunicação – SOPCOM, 9º, Coimbra, 12 – 14 Novembro de 2015. p.48-62.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2017a). *Informação, comunicação e conhecimento: os desafios da sociedade do século XXI*. In *Comunicação e Transformações Sociais: Ciência da Informação, Comunicação e Educação*, vol.1. Atas do Congresso da Associação Portuguesa de Ciências da Comunicação – SOPCOM, 9º, Coimbra, 12 – 14 Novembro de 2015. p.48-62.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2017b). *Gestão do Conhecimento, Informação e Redes: reconfigurações de comunicações em eventos*. Prefácio. Paraíba: UFPB. (No prelo)
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2017b). *Gestão do Conhecimento, Informação e Redes: reconfigurações de comunicações em eventos*. Prefácio. Paraíba: UFPB. (No prelo)
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M.; Gomes, L. I. E.; Ramos, J. (2013). *As implicações da visão sistémica no tratamento dos sistemas de informação arquivo: o caso da UC*. Comunicação apresentada no Encontro Internacional de Arquivos. Universidade do Algarve.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M. (2020a). *Para uma Ciência da Informação Social e Humana: análise crítica das tendências da formação em Information Science e Ciência da Informação nas “25 melhores universidades do mundo”*. In *Ciência da Informação: visões e tendências*. Maria Beatriz Marques & Liliana Esteves Gomes (Eds.). Coimbra: Imprensa da Universidade de Coimbra, p. 115-190. (Investigação). DOI <https://doi.org/10.14195/978-989-26-1896-8>.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M.; Gomes, L. I. E.; Ramos, J. (2013). *As implicações da visão sistémica no tratamento dos sistemas de informação arquivo: o caso da UC*. Comunicação apresentada no Encontro Internacional de Arquivos. Universidade do Algarve.
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M.; Vicente, R. (2015). *Desafios e oportunidades da gestão integrada de sistemas de informação*. In *Desafios y oportunidades de las Ciencias de la Información y la Documentación en la era digital: actas del VII Encuentro Ibérico EDICIC 2015: Ciencia y Sociedad* (Madrid, 16 y 17 de noviembre de 2015). Madrid: Universidad Complutense, p. 1-9
- Marques, M. B. P. S. M.; Vicente, R. (2015). *Desafios e oportunidades da gestão integrada de sistemas de informação*. In *Desafios y oportunidades de las Ciencias de la Información y la Documentación en la era digital: actas del VII Encuentro Ibérico EDICIC 2015: Ciencia y Sociedad* (Madrid, 16 y 17 de noviembre de 2015). Madrid: Universidad Complutense, p. 1-9.
- Marques, Maria Beatriz Moscoso (2012). *A satisfação do cliente de serviços de informação: as bibliotecas públicas da Região Centro*. Tese de Doutoramento, FLUC. Consultado a 10-09-2019, <https://estudogeral.sib.uc.pt/handle/10316/20462?mode=full>
- Marques, Maria Beatriz Moscoso, (2017c, v. 12, n. 2, p. 060-076), *Gestão Da Informação Em Sistemas De Informação Complexos*, Pesq. Bras. em Ci. da Inf. e Bib., João Pessoa.
- Marques, Maria Beatriz Moscoso, Liliana Isabel Esteves Gomes, (2020a, Número 6, 3.ª Série pp. 119-145), *Visão Social E Humana Da Ciência Da Informação: Compreender O Passado Para Construir O Futuro Social andhumanvisionof information science: understanding the past to build the future*. DOI https://doi.org/10.14195/0870-4112_3-6_6.
- Marques, Maria Beatriz Moscoso, Liliana Isabel Esteves Gomes, (2020b), *Ciência Da Informação Visões E Tendências*, Imprensa da Universidade de Coimbra, ISBN 978-989-26-1895-1 ISBN Digital 978-989-26-1896-8 DOI <https://doi.org/10.14195/978-989-26-1896-8>
- MarikeFinlay, (1986), *Poder e Controle nos Discursos sobre as*

- Martinet, A. Ch., (1983), *Stratégie*, Librairie Vuibert
- Martinet, A. Ch., (1984), *Management stratégique : organisation et politique*, McGraw-Hill
- Martins, Roberto de Andrade, (2012), *Universo: teorias sobre sua origem e evolução*. São Paulo: Editora Livraria da Física,
- Mattos, M. C; Goulart, I. B., (2012), Da possibilidade de uma GIC ampla: reflexões iniciais entre a ciência da informação e a psicologia social. **Perspectivas em Gestão & Conhecimento**, João Pessoa, v. 2, n. 2, 2012.
- Mayer, J. H., Steinecke, N., Quick, R., & Weitzel, T. (2013) More applicable environmental scanning systems leveraging “modern” information systems, *Information Systems and e-Business Management*, 11(4), 507-540.
- McGee, J.; Prusak, L., (1994), Gerenciamento estratégico da informação: aumente a competitividade e a eficiência de sua empresa utilizando a informação como uma ferramenta estratégica. Rio de Janeiro: Elsevier.
- McGee, James and Laurence Prusak, (1993), *Managing Information Strategically*, John Wiley & Sons
- Melo, Bobespierre de, (1949), 1891 - 1968. As democracias e a ditadura soviética. São Paulo.
- Mendonça, M. A., (2015), Periódicos científicos eletrônicos nacionais de biblioteconomia e ciência da informação: estudos produzidos entre 2003 e 2013. 2015. 133 f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Ciência da Informação) – Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciência da Informação, Universidade Federal da Paraíba, João Pessoa.
- Mendonça, S., Cardoso, G., & Caraca, J. (2012) The strategic strength of weak signal analysis, *Futures*, 44(3), 218-228.
- Michaellis, (2009), *Moderno Dicionário da Língua Portuguesa*. São Paulo Campanha Melhoramentos.
- Miles, R. E., Charles C. Snow, (1978), *Organizational Strategy, Structure and Process*, MacGraw-Hill, Nova Iorque
- Miller, C. C. & Ireland, R. D. (2005). «Intuition in strategic decision making: friend or foe in the fast paced 21st century?». *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 19-30.
- Miller, F. J. (1977, p. 253-279), *Strategy, Making in Context: Ten Empirical Archetypes*, *Journal of Management Studies*
- Miller, F. J. (2002), *I = 0 Information has no intrinsic meaning*, *Information Research*, vol 8 nº1. Disponível em <http://Informationr.net/ir/8-1/paper140.html>, (site visitado em Abril de 2003)
- Mintzberg & James Quinn, (1991), *The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts & Cases*, Prentice Hall
- Mintzberg, H. & Lampel, J. (1999). «Reflecting on the Strategy Process». *Sloan Management Review*, 40(3), 21-30.
- Mintzberg, H. & Waters, J. (1985). «Of strategies, deliberate and emergent». *Strategic Management Journal*, 6(3), 257-272.
- Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The Structuring of Organizations*. Prentice Hall.
- Mintzberg, H. (1990a). «The design school: Reconsidering the basic premises of strategic management». *Strategic Management Journal*, 11(3), 171-195.
- Mintzberg, H., (1946), *The Rise and Fall of Strategic Planning*, Free Press, Nova Iorque
- Mintzberg, H., Quinn, J. B., & Ghoshal, S. (1995). *The Strategy Process*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Mintzberg, Henry (1977). «Planifier à gauche et gérer à droite». *Harvard-l'Expansion*. nº 3/1976.
- Mintzberg, Henry (1981). *Organiser l'entreprise: prêt-à-porter ou sur mesure?* *Harvard L'Expansion*.
- Mintzberg, Henry (1982). *Structure & Dynamique des Organisations*. Les éditions d'Organisations, Paris
- Mintzberg, Henry and Ahlström B. and J. Lampel, (1998), *Strategic Safari: A Guide Tour Through the Wilds of Strategic Management*, Prentice-Hall, London
- Mintzberg, Henry and James Brian Quinn and Sumatra Ghoshal, (1999), *The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts e Cases*, 2ª ed., Prentice Hall Europe
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1972), *Research on Strategy-Making*, Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Minneapolis
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1972), *Research on Strategy-Making*, Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Minneapolis
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1977), *Planifier à gauche et gérer à droite*, *Harvard-l'Expansion* nº 3/1976
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1978), *Patterns in Strategy Formation*, *Management Science* (24, 9, pp. 934-948)
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1978), *Strategy-making in Three Modes*, *California Management Review*, 16, pp. 44-53
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1979), *The Structuring of Organizations: A Synthesis of the Research*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1980), *Structure in 5's: A Synthesis of the Research on Organizational Design*, *Management Science*, vol. 26, nº 3, Março
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1981), *Organiser l'entreprise: prêt-à-porter ou sur mesure?*, *Harvard L'Expansion*
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1982), *Structure & Dynamique des Organisations*, Les éditions d'Organisations, Paris
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1987a), *The Strategy Concept: Five Ps for Strategy*, *California Management Review*, (30, 1, June, pp. 11-24)
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1987b), *Crafting Strategy*, *Harvard Business Review*, Julho-Agosto
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1988), *Generic Strategies: Toward a Comprehensive Framework*, *Advances in Strategic Management*, vol. 5, Greenwich. CT: Jai Press, pp. 1-67
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1989), *Mintzberg on Management: Inside Our Strange World of Organizations*, Free Press, New York
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1990), *Strategy Formation: Schools of Thought*, in *Perspectives on Strategic Management*, (ed.) J. Frederickson, Boston Ballinger
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1990), *The Design School: Reconsidering the Basic Premises of Strategic Management*, *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 11, pp. 171-195
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1991), *Strategic Thinking as Seeing*, In J. Nasi, ed., *Arenas of Strategic Thinking*, Foundation for Economic Education, Helsinki, Finland
- Mintzberg, Henry, (1994), *The Rise and Fall of Strategic Planning*, Free Press, New York
- Mintzberg, Henry, Ahlström B. & J. Lampel (1998). *Strategic Safari: A Guide Tour Through the Wilds of Strategic Management*, Prentice-Hall, London.

- Mintzberg, Henry, and A. McHugh, (1985), *Strategies Formation in Adhocracy*, Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 30, pp. 160-197
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1982), *Tracking Strategy in an Entrepreneurial Firm*, Academy of Management Journal, vol. 25, nº 3, pp. 465-499
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1983), *The Mind of the Strategist*, in *The Executive Mind*, São Francisco: (ed.), Suresh Srivastva e Associates, Jossey Bass
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1984), *Researching the Formation of Strategies: The History of Canadian Lady 1939-1976*, in *Competitive Strategy Management* (ed.), R. B. Lamb, Englewood Cliffs,
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1985b), *Strategies Formation in Adhocracy*, Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 30, pp. 160-197
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1985b), *Strategies Formation in Adhocracy*, Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 30, pp. 160-197
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. A. Waters, (1999), *Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent*, Strategic Management Journal, vol. 6, nº 257, pp. 252-272
- Mintzberg, Henry, and J. Lampel, (1999), *Reflexion about the Strategic Process*, Sloan Management Review, vol. 40, nº 3
- Mintzberg, Henry, DuruRaisinghani, and Andre Théorét, (1976), *The Structure of Unstructured Decision Processes*, Administrative Science Quarterly 21 (2):246-275.
- Montalli, K. M. L., (1987), *Information in the capital goods industry in Brazil*. Loughborough: LoughboroughUniversityofTechnology.
- Montalli, K. M. L., (1994), *Informação para negócios no Brasil: reflexões*. In: Seminário Nacional De Informacao Para Indústria E Comercio Exterior, 1., 1993, Belo Horizonte. Anais... Belo Horizonte: UFMG/EB, p. 165-173.
- Murteira, Mário, (2000), *Hong-Kong and Macau at a time of Transition*, Macau Foundation, Macau
- Murteira, Mário, (2000), *Hong-Kong and Macau at a time of Transition*, Macau Foundation, Macau
- Murteira, Mário, (2001), *A Transição para a Economia do Conhecimento em Portugal*, Economia Global e Gestão, AEDGISCTE, Nº 1
- Murteira, Mário, Nicolau, I, Mendes, V. E Martins, A. (2001), *Serviços Informacionais e transição para a economia do conhecimento em Portugal*, IDEG/ISCTE, estudo realizado para o GEPE do Ministério da Economia.
- Murteira, Mario, Nicolau, I., Mendes, V. & Martins, A., (2001), *Serviços de Informacionais e transição para a economia do conhecimento em Portugal*, IDEG/ISCTE, estudo realizado para o GEPE do Ministério da Economia.
- Myers, I. B., (1962), *Introduction to Type: A Description of the Theory and Applications of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto
- Natasha Romanzoti (22 de fevereiro de 2017). «10 razões pelas quais Hitler foi eleito». HypeScience. Consultado em 12 de outubro de 2017
- Nelson, J. A., (1973), *Dialectical Information Systems: A Methodology for Planning and Decision-Making*, Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburg, Pa., Junho
- Nicolau, I., (2000), *O crescimento dos serviços nas economias modernas*, Economia Global e Gestão, vol. V. 1-2/00
- Nicolau, I., (2000), *O crescimento dos serviços nas economias modernas*, Economia Global e Gestão, vol. V. 1-2/00
- Nobel Foundation (2001). *Markets with Asymmetric Information*. Vol. 2001, The Official Web Site of the Nobel Foundation
- Nonaka e Takeuchi, (1995, 1997), *The Knowledge-creating Company: How Japanese Companies Create the Dynamics of Innovation*, New York, Oxford University Press
- Nonaka, I., Takeuchi, H. (1997) "Criação de conhecimento na empresa: como as empresas japonesas geram a dinâmica da inovação". 4. ed. Rio de Janeiro: Campus.
- Nonaka, I.; Konno, N., (1998), *The concept of "ba": building a foundation for knowledge creation*. California Management Review, Berkeley, v. 40, n. 3, p. 40-54.
- Normann, R., (1977), *Management for Growth*, Wiley, Nova IorqueNúmero 3, Jul-Set/2004, pp.205-219.
- Novas Tecnologias de Comunicação: In: A.M.Fadul (org.) *Novas Tecnologias de Comunicação*, São Paulo, Summus: Intercom.
- O'Brien, J. A. & Morgan J. N., (1991), *A Multi-Dimensional Model of Information Resource Management*, Information Resource Management Journal Vol 2 Nº 2 pag 2-12
- O'Brien, James A. (2004). *Sistemas de Informação e as decisões gerenciais na era da Internet*. Título Original: *Introduction to information systems*, 11ª edição. Tradução Célio Knipel Moreira e Cid Knipel Moreira. 2. ed. São Paulo: Saraiva.
- Pacheco, C. G., e Valentim, M. L. P., (2010), *Informação e conhecimento como alicerces para a gestão estratégica empresarial: um enfoque nos fluxos e fontes de informação*. In: Valentim, M., *Gestão, mediação e uso da informação*. São Paulo. Cultura Acadêmica, p. 319-341.
- Pacheco, Carlos, (1987), *Narrativa de la dictadura y critica literaria*, Celarg.
- Papaioannou, Kostadis; Zanden, Jan (março de 2015). «The dictator effect: how long years in office affect economic development». *Cambridge University Press. Journal of Institutional Economics (em inglês)*. **II** (1): 111–139. ISSN 1744-1374. doi:10.1017/S1744137414000356. Consultado em 15 de novembro de 2021
- Parker, M. M, Trainor H. E. & Benson R. J., (1989), *Information Strategy and Economics*, Prentice Hall
- Paschkes, Maria Luisa de Almeida, (1985), *A ditadura Salazarista*, Brasiliense.
- Peers, Edgard Allison, (1936). *The Spanish tragedy, 1930-1936: dictatorship, republic, chaos*. New York, Oxford, university press.
- Penrose, E. (1959). *The Theory of the Growth of the Firm*. BasilBlackwell, London.

- Pereira, M. F. F., (2003), Gerenciamento da informação: um diagnóstico da micro e pequena empresa industrial de Londrina. 2003. 154 f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Engenharia de Produção) – Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, Florianópolis.
- Perspectivas em Ciência da Informação, (2016), v.21, n.2, p.100-119, abr./jun. 119
- Peters, T. H., and Waterman, R. H., Jr. (1982), *In Search of Excellence*, Harper & Row, New York
- Petró, B., (2008), Análise do fluxo informacional dos gestores turísticos da unidade de conservação Parque Natural Municipal Mata Atlântica de Atalanta – SC, p. 184. Dissertação (Mestrado em Ciência da Informação), Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, Florianópolis.
- Pettigrew, A. (1992). «The character and significance of strategy process research». *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(8), 5-16.
- Pettigrew, A. M., (1972), *Information Control as a Power Resource*, Sociology, pp. 188-204
- Pettigrew, A. M., (1985), *The Awakening Giant: Continuity and Change in Imperial Chemical Industries*, Basil Blackwell, Oxford
- Pfeffer, Jeffrey, Gerald R. Salancik, (1978), *The External Control of Organizations: A resource Dependence Perspective*, NY: Harper & Row, Nova Iorque
- Piaget, Jean, (1986), O Possível e o necessário: evolução dos necessários na criança. Porto Alegre: Artes médicas, v. 2.
- Piatnitskn, OsipAronovich, (1935), 1882- A ditadura fascista na Alemanha. São Paulo, Imp. comercial.
- Pinheiro, Lena Vânia R., (1982), Usuário – Informação: o contexto da ciência e da tecnologia. Rio de Janeiro: LTC-Livros Técnicos e Científicos, 66 p.
- Porter, Charles Orlando, (1961), *The struggle for democracy in LatinAmerica* / Macmillan.
- Porter, M. and V. Millar (1985), *How Information Gives You Competitive Advantage*, Harvard Business Review, Julho-Agosto, pp. 149-160
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *Competitive advantage: creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: The Free Press.
- Porter, M. E., (1986), *Estratégia competitiva: técnicas para análise de indústrias e da concorrência*. São Paulo: Campus.
- Porter, M. E., (1989, p. 512), *Vantagem competitiva :criando e sustentando um desempenho superior*. 15 ed. Rio de Janeiro : Campus.
- Porter, M., (1979), *How Competitive Forces Shape Strategy*, Harvard Business Review, Março-Abril
- Porter, M., (1980), *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analysing Industries and Competitors*, Free Press, Nova Iorque
- Porter, M., (1981), *The Contributions of Industrial Organizations to Strategic Management*, Academy of Management Review, 6(4), pp. 609-620
- Porter, M., (1982), *Choixstratégiqueetconcurrance*, Economica, Paris, p. 426.
- Porter, M., (1984), *Vantagem Competitiva*, 5ª Edição, Editora Campos
- Porter, M., (1985), *Competitive Advantage: creating and sustaining superior Performanse*, New York, The Free Press.
- Porter, M., (1985), *Competitive Advantage: creating and sustaining superior Performanse*, New York, The Free Press.
- Porter, M., (1986), *Changing Patterns of International Competition*, California Management Review, Inverno.
- Porter, M., (1987), *From Competitive Advantage to Corporate Strategy*, Harvard Business Review, Maio-Junho
- Porter, M., (1990), *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*, Free Press, New York.
- Porter, M., (1996), *What Is Strategy?*, Harvard Business Review, Novembro-Dezembro, pp. 61-64
- Porter, M., (1998), *El Poder de decir no*. Revista BankingStrategy. <http://www.crie.coope.ufjf.br/kmtools/knowledge/kr-glossarios/1998>.
- Porter, M., (1999), *Competição: Estratégias Competitivas Essenciais*, 2ª edição, Editora Campos
- Porter, Michael (1980). *Competitive Strategy*. Free Press, New York. PORTER, MICHAEL (1984). *Vantagem Competitiva*. 5ª Edição, Editora Campos.
- Porter, Michael (1990). *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. Free Press, New York.
- Porter, Michael and V. Millar (1985, p. 149-160), *How Information Gives You Competitive Advantage*, Harvard Business Review, Julho-Agosto.
- Porter, Michael, (1980), *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analysing Industries and Competitors*, Free Press, Nova Iorque
- Porter, Michael, (1981), *The Contributions of Industrial Organizations to Strategic Management*, Academy of Management Review, 6(4), pp. 609-620
- Porter, Michael,(1984), *Vantagem Competitiva*, 5ª Edição, Editora Campos.
- Porter, Michael,(1984), *Vantagem Competitiva*, 5ª Edição, Editora Campos.
- Porter, Michael, (1996), *What Is Strategy?* Harvard Business Review, Novembro-Dezembro, pp. 61-64
- Porter, Michael, (1996), *What Is Strategy?* Harvard Business Review, Novembro-Dezembro, pp. 61-64
- Porter, Michael,(1998), *Competição estratégias competitivas essenciais*, 2ª edição, Editora Campos.
- Porter, Michael,(1998), *Competição estratégias competitivas essenciais*, 2ª edição, Editora Campos.
- Postman, N. (1999). *Building a Bridge to the 18th Century: How the Past Can Improve Our Future*. USA: Knoop.
- Pozzebon, M.; Freitas, H. M. R. De; Petrini, M., (1997), *Pela Integração da inteligência competitiva nos Enterprise Information Systems (EIS)*. Ciência da Informação, Brasília, n. 3, v. 26, p. 243-254, set./dez.
- Prahalad, C. F. & Gary Hamel (1995). *La Conquête du Futur*. Inter Editions, Paris.
- Prahalad, C. K. & Hamel, G. (1990). «The core competence of the corporation». *Harvard Business Review*, 68(3), 79-91.
- Prahalad, C. K. and Gary Hamel, (1994), *Competing for the Future, Breakthrough Strategies for Seizing Control of Yor Industry and Creating the Markets of Tomorrow*, Harvard Business School, traduçãofrancesa*LaConquête du Future*, Dunod 1999

- Prahalad, C. k., and Betis, R. A., (1986), *The Dominant Logic: A New Linkage Between Diver sity and Performance* ,Strategic Management Journal (7, pp. 485-501)
- Prahalad, C.F. and Christopher Barlett and Gary Hamel and George Stalk Jr. and Henry Mintzberg and Kenichi Ohmae and Sumantra Ghoshal and Theodore Levit, (1979-1999), *Estratégia - A Busca da Vantagem Competitiva* , 6ª edição, Harvard Business Review Book
- Prescott, J.E.; Miller, S.M., (2002), *Inteligencia Competitiva na pratica: estudo de caso.directamente do campo de batalha*. Rio de Janeiro Campus.
- Prusak, James Mcgee e Laurence, (1995), *Gerenciamento Estratégico da Informação*, Editora Campus, Rio de Janeiro.
- Prusak, L.; McGee, J., (1994) "Gerenciamento estratégico da informação". Rio de Janeiro: Campus.
- Pugh, D. S., Hickson, D. J., and Hinings, C. R., (1969, p. 115-126), *An Empirical Taxonomy of Structures of Work Organizations* ,Administrative Science Quarterly.
- Pugh, D. S., Hickson, D. J., and Hinings, C. R., MacDonald, K. M., Turner, C., and Lupton, T., (1963-64, p. 289-315), *An Empirical Taxonomy of Structures of Work Organisations* , Administrative Science Quarterly.
- Pugh, D. S., Hickson, D. J., and Hinings, C. R., Turner, C., (1968), *Dimensions of Organizational Structure* ,Administrative Science Quarterly, (13, June, pp. 65-105)
- Quinn, J. B., (1978), *Strategic Change: Logical Incrementalism*, Sloan Management Review, pp. 7-21
- Quinn, J. B., (1980a), *Strategic Change : Logical Incrementalism* , Irwin, Homewood Illionis
- Quinn, J. B., (1980b), *Managing Strategic Change* ,Sloan Management Review (Summer, pp. 3-20)
- Quinn, J. B., (1982), *Managing Strategic Incrementally*, Omega, The International Journal of Management Science, (10, 6), pp. 613-627
- Quinn, Mintzberg & James, (1991), *The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts & Cases*, Prentice Hall
- Rascão, José Poças, (2001), *Análise Estratégica – Sistema de Informação para a Tomada de Decisão* , 2ª edição, Edições Sílabo
- Rascão, José Poças, (2017), "Information and Its Conceptual Perspectives". In *Encyclopedie of Information Science and Technology*, 4422-4435. Estados Unidos, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), "Information Systems for Logistics and Distribution Management". In *Handbook of Research on Information Management for effective Logistics and Sply Chains*, 374-414. EUA, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), "Information Systems for the Management of Organizations: Conceptual Model for its Application in Organizations". In *Handbook of Research on Strategic Innovation Management for Improved Competitive Advantage (2 Volumes)*, 443-475. EUA, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), "Information Systems for the Management of the Organizations". In *Handbook of Research on Strategic Innovation Management for Improved Competitive Advantage*, 96-116. Estados Unidos, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), "The Information-A Science, An Industry". In *Handbook of Research on Knowledge Management for Contemporary Business Environments*, 191-211. EUA, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), "The Interdisciplinary Nature of Information Science". *International Journal of Virtual Communities and Social Networking*.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2018), *Knowledge Management for Contemporary Business Environments*. United States.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2019), "Information Marketing". In *Handbook of Research on Expanding Business Opportunities With Information Systems and Analytics*, 95-119. EUA, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José Poças, (2021), "The Value of Economic Information in the Digital Society". *Journal of Technological Advancements*: <https://doi.org/10.4018/JTA.20210101.oa3>.
- Rascão, José Poças; Antonio Briones Penalver (2018), "Information systems for the management of the organizations: Conceptual model for its application in organizations". In *Handbook of Research on Knowledge Management for Contemporary Business Environments*, 1-438. EUA, United States: IGI Global.
- Rascão, José, (2012), "Novas Realidades na Gestão e na Gestão da Informação", Editora, Sílabo, Lda, Lisboa
- Rascão, Jose, Poças, (2020), The Governance of Data, Information and Knowledge, in the Digital age, American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research (AJHSSR) e-ISSN :2378-703X Volume-4, Issue-12, pp-380-412
- Rascão, Jose, Poças, (2021), From Strategic Management to Information Strategy Management It will be possible to increase the available time Strategic Decision Making?, Journal of Economics, Finance and Management Studies ISSN(print): 2644-0490, ISSN(online): 2644-0504 Volume 4 Issue 05 May 2021 Article DOI: 10.47191/jefms/v4-i5-01, Impact Factor: 6.228
- Rascão, Jose, Poças, (2021), The Strategic Decision Making and Sources of Information American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research (AJHSSR) e-ISSN :2378-703X Volume-5, Issue-1, pp-485-503
- Rascão, Jose, Poças; Penalver, Antonio Juan Briones, (2021), Informational Politics and Ethics in the Digital Age, American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research (AJHSSR), e-ISSN :2378-703X, Volume-5, Issue-1, pp-00
- Rascão. José Poças, (2020), "Freedom of Expression, Privacy, and Ethical and Social Responsibility in Democracy in the Digital Age". *International Journal of Business Strategy and Automation*.
- Rezende, D. A., (2003), *Planejamento de sistemas de informação e informática*. São Paulo: Atlas
- Rezende, D. A.; Abreu A. F., (2001, p. 311), *Tecnologia da informação aplicada a sistemas de informação empresariais: o papel estratégico da informação e dos sistemas de informação nas empresas*. São Paulo: Atlas.
- Ribeiro Junior, João., (2003), *Introdução à Fenomenologia*. Campinas: Edicamp, 84 p.
- Rocha Filho, J. B, (2007), *Física e Psicologia*. Porto Alegre: EdiPUCRS, 4a. ed.

- Rossel, P. (2011) Beyond the obvious: examining ways of consolidating early detection schemes, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 78(3), 375-385.
- Rossel, P. (2012) Early detection, warnings, weak signals and seeds of change: a turbulent domain of futures studies, *Futures*, 44(3), 229-239.
- Rumelt, R. P. & Shendel, Teece (1991). «Strategic Management and Economics». *Strategic Management Journal* (12), pp. 5-29.
- Sá, Cristóvão Ferreira de, (1950), *Democracia e ditadura*. São Paulo Saraiva s/a.
- Sabaté, F. Tarragó, (1989), *Fundamentos de Economia de la Empresa*, 2ª edição, Librería Hispano Americana, Barcelona
- Sahid Maluf. *Teoria Geral do Estado*. (S.l.: s.n.)
- Samara, B. S., Barros, J. C. de., (2002), *Pesquisa de Marketing: conceitos e metodologia*. 3. Ed. São Paulo: Prentice Hall.
- Santos, Theotônio dos, (1983. p. 14), *Revolução Científico-Técnica e Capitalismo Contemporâneo*. Petrópolis, Vozes.
- Sarmiento, M. J., (2003), *Imaginário e culturas infantis*. **Caderno de Educação**, Pelotas, v. 21, p.51-59, jul./dez. 2003.
- Schement J. R., (1993), *Communication and information*, In: Schement J. R., Ruben B. D. (eds) *Between communication and information*. Transaction Publishers
- Schenoni, Luis y Scott Mainwaring (2018). *US Hegemony and Regime Change in Latin America*. (S.l.): *Democratization*
- Schoeffler, S., (1980), *Nine Basic Findings on Business Strategy*, The Strategic Planning Institute, Cambridge
- Schoeffler, S., R. D. Buzzell, D. E. Heany, (1974), *Impact of Strategic Planning on Profit Performance*, Harvard Business Review, Março-Abril, pp. 137-145
- Schoemaker, P.J.H., & Day, G.S. (2009) How to make sense of weak signals, *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 50(30), 81-89.
- Schoemakers A.; Hoorn T. v. d.(2004). LUTI modelling in the Netherlands: Experiences with TIGRIS and a framework for a new LUTI model. Disponível em http://ejtir.tudelft.nl/issues/2004_03/pdf/2004_03_04.pdf. Acesso em 15/03/2007
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1993 (1934)). *The theory of economic development*. New Brunswick, London: Transaction Publishers
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1993 (1934)). *The theory of economic development*. New Brunswick, London: Transaction Publishers.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1993 (1934)). *The theory of economic development*. New Brunswick, London: Transaction Publishers
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1934), *The Theory of Economic Performance*, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1942), *Capitalisme, Socialisme et Démocratie*, Reedição, Payot, 1988
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1947), *The Creative Response in Economic History*, *Journal of Economic History*, Novembro, pp. 149-159
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1950), *Capitalisme, Socialisme et Démocratie*, 3ª edição, Harper&Row, Nova Iorque
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1959), *History of Economic Analysis*, Oxford University Press, 3ª edição
- Schumpeter, Joseph, (1963), *Teoria del desenvolvimientoeconómico*, México
- See *Debates: Official Report*, 1903, 6: 6115, Canadian Parliament, House of Commons.
- Shannaon C. E., Weaver W., (1948), *The Mathematical Theory of Communication*, Bell System Technical Journal, 27, pp. 379-423, pp. 623-656
- Shannaon C. E., Weaver W., (1949), *The Mathematical Theory of Communication*, University of Illinois Press, Chicago
- Shannaon C. E., Weaver W., (1972), *The Mathematical Theory of Communication*, University of Illinois Press, Urbana
- Shumpeter, J. A., (1934), *The Teheory of Economic Development*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Ma.
- Shumpeter, J. A., (1934), *The Teheory of Economic Development*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Ma.
- Silva, A. B. M. da., (2002), *Arquivística, biblioteconomia e museologia: do empirismo patrimonialista ao paradigma emergente da ciência da informação*. In: Congresso Internacional De Arquivos, Bibliotecas, Centros De Documentação E Museus. Anais... FEBAB, São Paulo, 2002. 20 p. Disponível em: . Acesso em: 28 maio 2013.203
- Silva, A. M. (2003). *Conhecimento/Informação: sinonímia e/ou diferenciação?* In *Organização e representação do conhecimento na perspectiva da Ciência da Informação*. Brasília: Thesaurus: 23-41.
- Silva, A. M. (2005). *Documento e Informação: as questões ontológica e epistemológica*. *Arquivo & Administração*, 4 (2).
- Silva, A. M. (2006). *A Informação: da compreensão do fenómeno e construção do objecto científico*. Porto: Edições Afrontamento; CETAC.COM.
- Silva, A. M. (2006). DELTCI – Dicionário Eletrónico de Terminologia em Ciência da Informação. *Gestão da Informação*. Consult. 17 jul. 2017. Disponível em: <https://paginas.fe.up.pt/~lci/index.php/1725>.
- Silva, A. M. (2007). *Ciência da Informação e Sistemas de Informação: (re) exame de uma relação disciplinar*. Prisma.Com : revista de Ciências e Tecnologias de Informação e Comunicação do CETAC.MEDIA. Vol. 5 (2007), p. 2-47.
- Silva, A. M. da & Ribeiro, F. (2002). *Das "Ciências" Documentais à Ciência da Informação: ensaio epistemológico para um novo modelo curricular*. Porto: Edições Afrontamento. ISBN 972-36-0622-4.
- Silva, A. M. da & Ribeiro, F. (2020). *CIÊNCIA DA INFORMAÇÃO TRANS E INTERDISCIPLINAR: PARA A SUPERAÇÃO DE EQUÍVOCOS ...* In *Ciência da Informação: visões e tendências*. Maria Beatriz Marques & Liliana Esteves Gomes (Eds.). Coimbra: Imprensa da Universidade de Coimbra, p. 35-58. (Investigação).
- Silva, A. M. da (2006). *A Informação: da compreensão do fenómeno e construção do objectocientífico*. Porto: Edições Afrontamento. ISBN 978-972-36-0859-6.
- Silva, A. M. da (2006). *A informação: da compreensão do fenómeno e construção do objecto científico*. Porto: Edições Afrontamento e CETAC.COM. ISBN 972-36-0859-6. SILVA, A. M. da (2006b). *Informação e Comunicação: as duas faces*

- de Jano. Prisma. com, 2, 3-32. Consult. 11 Jan. 2019. Disponível em: <http://ojs.letras.up.pt/index.php/prismacom/article/view/2134>
- Silva, A. M. da (2016). Arquitetura da Informação e Ciência da Informação : notas de (re)leitura à luz do paradigma pós - custodial, informacional e científico. *Prisma. Com*, 32, 62-104. Disponível em: <http://ojs.letras.up.pt/index.php/prismacom/article/view/2214> Acesso em 25-10-2018.
- Silva, A. M. Da, & Ribeiro, F. (2002). Das “Ciências” Documentais à Ciência da Informação: ensaio epistemológico para um novo modelo curricular. Porto: Edições Afrontamento. ISBN 972-36-0622-4.
- Silva, A. M. Da, & Ribeiro, F. (2003). Um Modelo sintético de licenciatura para uma Ciência da Informação consolidada: o caso português. In *Informação, conhecimento e transdisciplinaridade: anais*. Belo Horizonte: Escola de Ciência da Informação da UFMG.
- Silva, A. M. Da. Ribeiro, F., (2002), Das documentais à Ciência da Informação: ensaio epistemológico para um novo modelo curricular. Porto: Ed. Afrontamento.
- Silva, A. M. Da. Ribeiro, F., (2010), Recursos de informação: serviços e utilizadores. Lisboa: Universidade Aberta.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2006), A informação: da compreensão do fenómeno e construção do objecto científico. Porto: Ed. Afrontamento.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2007, n. 5, p. 2-47), Ciência da informação e sistemas de informação: (re)exame de uma relação disciplinar. Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em: 20 abr. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2008, n. 7, p. 16-43), Inclusão digital e literacia informacional em ciência da informação. Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em 10 ago. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2010ª, n. 9, p. 1- 37), Mediações e mediadores em ciência da informação. Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em 10 abr. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2010b, n. 13, p. 1-56), Modelos e modelizações em ciência da informação: o modelo eLit.pt e a investigação em literacia informacional. Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em 10 ago. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2011, n. 16, p. 1- 61), O impacto do uso generalizado das TIC (tecnologias de informação e comunicação) no conceito de documento: ensaio analítico-crítico (I). Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em: 28 maio. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. da., (2012, n. 18, p. 1-25), O impacto do uso generalizado das TIC (tecnologias de informação e comunicação) no conceito de documento: ensaio analítico-crítico (II). Prisma.com. Disponível em: . Acesso em: 28 maio. 2013.
- Silva, A. M. Da; Ribeiro, F.; Ramos, J.; Real, M. L., (1999), Arquivística: teoria e prática de uma ciência da informação. Porto: Ed. Afrontamento.
- Silva, A. M.; Ribeiro, F. (2002). Das "Ciências" Documentais à Ciência da Informação: ensaio epistemológico para um novo modelo curricular. Porto: Edições Afrontamento.
- Silva, Armando Malheiro, (2015). Arquivo, biblioteca, museu, sistema de informação: em busca da clarificação possível. *Cadernos BAD*, 1, 103-124. Consultado a 18-07-2019, <http://www.bad.pt/publicacoes/index.php/cadernos/article/view/1482>
- Silva, E. L. Da; Lopes, M. I., (211, v. 12, n. 2, p.1-13), A internet, a mediação e a desintermediação da informação. *Datagramazero*. Disponível em: .Acessoem: 08 jul. 2012. 204
- Silva, G.M., Styles, C. and Lages, L.F. (2017), “Breakthrough innovation in international business: the impact of tech-innovation and market-innovation on performance”, *International Business Review*, Vol. 26 No. 2, pp. 391-404.
- Silva, Jonathas Luiz Carvalho, (2015, v. 6, n. 1, p. 93-108), Percepções conceituais sobre mediação da informação, *INCID: R. Ci. Inf. e Doc.*, Ribeirão Preto. DOI: 10.11606/issn.2178-2075.v6i1p93-108
- Silva, R.P. da., (2007), A interdisciplinaridade e os aspectos conceituais e de representação: análise da área multidisciplinar da tabela de áreas do conhecimento em uso pela CAPES. Dissertação de mestrado apresentada ao programa de pós-graduação em ciência da informação IBICT-UFF. Rio de Janeiro.
- Silva, Júnia Guimarães e., (1999), Ciência da informação: uma ciência do paradigma emergente. In: Pinheiro, Lena Vania R. (Org.). *Ciência da informação, ciências sociais e interdisciplinaridade*. Brasília : IBICT, p. 79-117.
- Silva, T. E.; Tomaél, M. I. (2008). Repositórios institucionais e o modelo Open. In: Tomaél, M. I. (org.). *Fontes de informação na internet*. Londrina: EDUEL.
- Silva, Tomaz Tadeu. (Org.), (1999), *O que é, afinal, estudos culturais?* Belo Horizonte : Autêntica.
- Silva, Kalina Vanderley & Silva, Maciel Henrique, (2006), *Dicionário de Conceitos Históricos*. São Paulo: Contexto.
- Simmons, J., C., and J. G. Lynch, (1991), *Inference Effects without Inference Making? Effects of Missing Information on Discounting and Use of Presented Information*, *Journal of Consumer research*, 17 (Março), pp. 74-158
- Simon, H. A., (1947, 1957), *Administrative Behaviour*, Macmillan, New York
- Simon, H. A., (1955), *A Behavioural Model of Rational Choice*, *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 69, pp. 99-118
- Smalter, D. J., R. L. Ruggles, (1966), *Six Business Lessons from the Pentagon*, *Harvard Business Review*, Março-Abril, pp. 64-75
- Smith, A., (1976-8), *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, Everyman’s Library, Londres
- Smith, A., (1976-8), *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, Everyman’s Library, Londres
- Snodgrass, C. R., (1984), *Cultural Influences on Strategic Control System Requirements*, (Ph. D. dissertation, University of Pittsburg, Graduate School of Business
- Spindel, Arnaldo, (1992), *O que são ditaduras*, Brasiliense, BEC
- Strauss, J. D.; Radnor, M., (2004), Roadmapping for Dynamic and Uncertain Environments. *Research Technology Management*, v. 47, n. 2, p. 51.

- Sun Tzu, (1971), *The Art of War*, Oxford University Press, Nova Iorque.
- SunTzu, (1978), *L'Art de la Guerre*, Paris, L'Impensé Radical; tradução portuguesa: A Arte da Guerra, Publicações Europa-América, col. «Economia e Gestão», Mem Martins, 1994.
- Sveiby, K. E., (1998). A nova riqueza das organizações. Rio de Janeiro: Campus.
- SwenssonJunior, Lauro Joppert. (2007), Anistia Penal: Problemas de Validade da Lei de Anistia Brasileira (Lei 6.683/79). Curitiba: Juruá.
- Tarapanoff, K., (2001), Inteligência Organizacional e Competitiva. Brasília: UnB.
- Targino, M. G., (2000), Comunicação científica: uma revisão de seus elementos básicos. Informação e Sociedade: Estudos, João Pessoa, v. 10, n. 2, p. 37-85.
- Teece, Pisano E Shuen (1990). Firm Capabilities, Resources and the Concept of Strategy. Cahier de Recherche, University of Berkeley, 90 (9),
- Teece, Pisano e Shuen, (1997, p. 509-533), *Dynamics Capabilities and Strategic Management*, Strategic Management Journal, vol. 18, nº 17.
- Thietart R. A., (1984), *La Stratégie d'entreprise*, McGraw-Hill
- Thietart, R. A., (1990), *La Strategie d'Entreprise*, 2ª Édition
- Thompson, J. L. (1999). «A strategic perspective of entrepreneurship». International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research, 5(6), 279-296.
- Tregoe, B. B., J. W. Zimmerman, (1980), *Top Management Survey*, Simon & Schuster, Nova Iorque
- Truijens, Omo, (2001), *Aspects of Information Strategy Formulation for Customer Orientation*, PrimaVera Working Paper 2001-06, University van Amsterdam
- Truijens, Omo, (2001), *Information Strategy at TravelCom: searching for InfoRent in the Dutch travel industry*, PrimaVera Working Paper 2001-12, University van Amsterdam
- Truijens, Onno, (2001), *Aspects of Information Strategy Formulation for Customer Orientation*, Proceedings Resource Management Association International Conference, Toronto, Ontario, Canada
- Truijens, Onno, (2002), *Twoards a Resource-based Theory of Information Strategy*, British Academy of Management Annual Conference 2002, September 9-11,
- Tyson, K.W.M. (1998), *The Complete Guide to Competitive Intelligence*. Chicago. Prentice Hall
- Vigand, R., A. Picot, et al., (1997), *Information, Organization and Management – expanding markets and corporate boundaries*, John Wiley and Sons
- Vreeken, A. (2005, Sep). The History of Information: Lessons for Information. Retrieved Dec 2008, from Primavera: Program for Research in Information Management: <http://primavera.fee.uva.nl/PDFdocs/2005-19.pdf>
- Vreeken, A., (2002), *Notions of Information: a review of literature*, PrimaVera Working Paper 2002-13, University van Amsterdam
- Wallerstein, I. (2000), *Globalization or the Age of Transiction? – A Long Term view of the Trajectory of the World System*, Economia Global e Gestão, Vol. V, 1-2/00
- Wallerstein, I. (2000), *Globalization or the Age of Transiction? – A Long Term view of the Trajectory of the World System*, Economia Global e Gestão, Vol. V, 1-2/00
- Weick, K. E., (1979), *The Social Psychology of Organizing*, 2ª Edição, Random House, Nova Iorque
- Weick, K. E., (1990), *Cartographic Myths in Organizations*, In A. S. Huff, editions, Mapping Strategic Thought, New York
- Weick, K. E., (1995), *Sensemaking in Organizations*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Weick, K. E., (2000), *Making Sense of the Organizations*, Blackwell Publishers, Boston
- Weick, K. E., Richard L., Daft, (1983), *The Effectiveness of Interpretation Systems*. In: Organizational Effectiveness: A Comparison of Multiple Models, Edited by K. S. Cameron and D. A. Whetten, Academic Press, Nova Iorque
- Weick, Karl E., (1995, p. 385-390), What theory is not, theorizing is. AdministrativeScienceQuartely, v. 40.
- Werneck, Vera Rudge, (2006), Sobre o processo de construção do conhecimento: o papel do ensino e da pesquisa. **Ensaio:** avaliação e políticas públicas de educação, Rio de Janeiro, v. 14, n. 51, p. 173196, abr./jun.
- Wernerfelt, B. (1984). «A Resource-Based View of the Firm», Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 5(2), pp. 795-815.
- Wernerfelt, B. (1989). «From Critical Resources to Corporate Strategy», Journal of General Management Journal, Vol. 14, nº 3, Primavera de 1989/5.
- Wersig, Gernot, (1991, p. 229-239),. Information science: the study of postmodern knowledge usage. Information processing & management, 29(2).
- Wiener, N., (1948), *Cybernetics or Control and Communication in the Animal and the Machine*, MIT, Press
- Wigand, R., A. Picot, R. Reichwald, (1997), *Information, Organization and Management – expanding markets and corporate boundaries*, John Wiley and Sons
- Wilensky, Harold, (1967), *Organisational Intelligence: Knowledge and Policy in Government and Industry*. New York, Basic Books
- Williamson, O. E. (1994). «Strategizing, Economizing and Economic Organization». In: R. P. Rumelt, de Schendel, D. J. Teece (eds.), Fundamental Research Issues in Strategy and Economics: A Research Agenda, pp. 361-401, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Williamson, O. E. (1994). «Strategizing, Economizing and Economic Organization». In: R. P. Rumelt, de Schendel, D. J. Teece (eds.), Fundamental Research Issues in Strategy and Economics: A Research Agenda, pp. 361-401, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.

- Williamson, O. E. (1999). «Strategy Research: Governance and Competence Perspectives». *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 20, pp. 1087-1108.
- Williamson, O. E. (1999). «Strategy Research: Governance and Competence Perspectives». *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 20, pp. 1087-1108.
- Williamson, O. E., (1975), *Markets and Hierarquies: Analysis and antitrust implications*, The Free Press, New York
- www.aurorawdc.com/whatisci.htm acesso em 30 Jun 2015
- www.fgv.br/dg/diti/bib/geral/htm/hpbb15.htm acesso em 30 jun 2015
- Yao, D. A., (1988), *Beyond the Reach of the Invisible Hand: Impediments to Economic Activity, Market Failures and Profitability*, *Strategic Management Journal* 9 (Special Issue: Strategy Content Research), pp. 59-70
- Zald, M. N., Berger, (1978), *Social Movements in Organizations: Coup d' Etat, Insurgency and Mass Movements*, *American Journal of Sociology* (83, 4), Janeiro, pp. 823-861
- Zarifian, Philippe, (2003, p.192), O modelo da competência: trajetória histórica, desafios atuais e propostas. Trad Eric R. R. Heneault. São Paulo: Senac.
- Zikmund, W. G., (2000), *Business Research Methods* (6th ed.). DrydenPress
- Zorinho, C., A. Serrano, P. Lacerda, (2003), *Gerir em Complexidade*, Edições Sílabo