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Debate on Peace and Political Conflicts, in the era of Globalization and Digital Capitalism (from Theory to Practice)

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ABSTRACT: With globalization, the integration of countries, cultures and markets generates cultural, social and political conflicts, since people are not trapped in the particular reality and individual characteristics, because they are part of a global community, that is, they become citizens of the world. Globalization poses very important issues in socio-cultural terms (language, use, customs, legislation and social), economic (creation and distribution of wealth) and political (political systems, security, and defense of borders) that can represent real barriers to global integration, which can generate conflicts and wars.

Cultural, philosophical, and scientific changes can be seen as a reaction to the loss of faith in the ancient systems of meaning or great narratives, which have long shaped our understanding of the world. The very notion of the existence of truth was questioned, when the role of interpretation in understanding the truth became increasingly apparent (the objective truth – the glass is half full, or subjective truth – the glass is half empty). Truth has become a question of perspective shaped by a wide range of intersectional forces. This focus on the plurality and relativity of truth(s) gave rise to many fields of critical research, including the Studies of Peace and Conflicts.

KEYWORDS: Information, Peace, Conflict, Political Leadership, Political Decision, Digital Society.

I. INTRODUCTION

This is an exploratory study that seeks to clarify and organize the concepts about Peace and Conflicts, 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.

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 on the basis of the systemic approach to understanding the problems of globalization, seeking in practical, operational or application terms the solution of "real life" problems of countries, political organizations and people.

II. SCIENTIFIC METHOD

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 regarding the time available for political decision making appear to be higher than the time available for decision-making/action. 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 President of the country 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).

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 intermediate level rulers or by omission. The process of political decision-making is complex, and as such, poses some problems to politicians, in terms of approach methodology, to choose /decide the preferred policy, among the various alternatives

The emergence of military strategy, an area always distinguished by the military, must not only allow others to be understood, particularly rival governments, as to 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

- What are the determining factors of social, economic and political transformations that determine Peace or Conflict in the era of Globalization and Digital Capitalism?
- Will the Model of Political Leadership be decisive for Peace or Conflict?
- Is Technology a determining factor in Peace and/or Conflict in the era of Globalization and Digital Capitalism?

Goals

Political sciences study everything related to political phenomena. They develop both in the theoretical and practical fields. The <u>Social Sciences</u> are responsible for the study of <u>society and</u> everything related to the behavior of the human being, at the individual and collective level. The Political Sciences interrelate 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 since it is fed 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 concepts of Peace and Conflicts, within the scope of political sciences, from a theoretical framework. The objective is to analyze the scientific research developed by the Sciences, who participate in more than one area of knowledge The theoretical discussion of the concept and empirical research constitute the basis for the tracing of its structure, presented at the end.

The research focused on Peace and Conflicts, 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 Sciences, in the context of Contemporary Science, through the analysis of their 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 the literature review. This is a method of scientific research used to assist in the identification of the relevant literature on the models of definition of Peace and Conflicts, 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.

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

The complexity and turbulence of the Digital Society have led to the globalization of information supported by technologies, as essential processes for the development and innovation of Science and Technologies. Information is the source of the energy that drives the "engines" of the Digital Society, but in order 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. Consequently, the premodern notion of information, such as *in-formation 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, Social Sciences, Information 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, Peace, Conflicts, 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, Peace, Conflicts and Leadership, in this Complex and Turbulent Society. We represent this conceptual network, as follows:

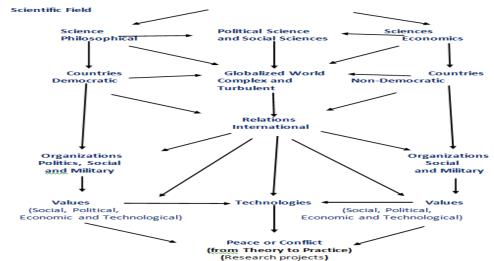


Figure 1 - Model for The Investigation of Peace and Political Conflicts

Source: elaboration of the authors

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.

III. THEORETICAL-METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH

Introduction

Philosophy is the basis of all sciences (however, doing philosophy and doing science are distinct acts). The study of philosophy is complementary to all other areas. The difficulty with the concepts ontology and epistemology is because 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 becoming 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 to be able to face, perhaps even formulating, the problems raised by Information and Communication Technologies (ICT's).

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 such, rights mean that they are not merely privileges, granted by other human beings, but qualities inherent in the status of human beings and for this reason cannot be disrespected at the whim of one. 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 abuses, such as discrimination, intolerance, injustice, oppression and slavery that may arise in this coexistence, as well as, to 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 solidary society legitimizes the interference of states in the internal politics of other States; the legitimacy of a humanitarian or humanist 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.

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 several 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. Among them was:

- 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 Brief History of Human Rights 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 the Rights of Man and Citizen (1789) - comes to mark in a broader and more significant way the historical process of Western awareness of the intrinsic value of Man. The French Declaration of the Rights of Man emerged in the context of great political and social upheaval, under the Enlightenment influence of natural rights and Renaissance ideas that evoked equality among all human beings, putting old ideals in 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 LaborOrganization (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 expression, and particularly 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, inhumane 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 the 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 (the Executive, the Legislative and the Judicial) share these functions among themselves.

The executive **poder** (government) fulfills the role of managing public services (in the areas of health and education, for example) and implementing laws. The **legislature** (parliament) has the power to formulate laws and amend the Constitution. On the **other, the judiciary** (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.

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 occupying 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.

Politics

Politics is the activity **of the State** Government and power relations and is also an art of negotiation in the tab of 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 proper activity of human relations in a common space, divided and negotiated among 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 to organize the forms for this coexistence. The city predates 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 Parties

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

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

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.

He felt the need to pass on a positive corporate image, 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 the creation of philanthropic foundations, as Cajazeiras (2006, p. 13), "another conception of social responsibility closely linked to the idea of donation – the philanthropic phase" is seen.

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 began to develop attitudes to solve its problems and governments to adhere to social responsibility, often pressured by consumers.

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.

Political 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, last-minute customer requests, 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 boss sends / gives orders), the leader convinces others to do the best they can.

Leadership is considered the ability to motivate, influence, inspire and command a group of people to achieve their 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 to the 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." (1) The search for the ideal leader is also present in the field of philosophy. Plato, for 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.⁽²⁾

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 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 *demokratia 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 also, 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 the rights expressed, 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.

Non-Democratic (Dictatorship)

Dictatorship is one of the non-democratic 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 over 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 consulsto *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 the magistrates The dictator was vested with *the power of imperium*, with unlimited authority, entirely irresponsible, overlapping in an absolute way all the magistracy's, respected 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. 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." An example of this are the descriptions of tyranny in AncientSicily andGreece, whose characteristics are similar to 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", 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. There were also many dictatorial regimes that result 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. (6)

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 warlords, 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 are now 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, whichis 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 the information that is entering 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 arrive. 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 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, revenge, or possession motives (when one group wants something else)

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 <u>an inner</u> state (identifiable with the Greek concepts of <u>ataraxiaand sofrosin</u>) free of negative feelings (<u>anger</u>, <u>hatred</u>). This positive inner state is desired for both itself and others, to the point of becoming a purpose or goal

of life. It is in the etymological origin of greetings: "shalom" in Hebrew is "salame" in Arabic mean "peace" or "peace be upon you", and they are also used as a farewell, that is, go in 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.

Freedom of Expression

Communication is a fundamental process for human interaction. To this day, there is no certainty as to 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, both have freedom, with something different nature. Freedom is a concept that encloses in itself, 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 honor, 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, was approved by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 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 home or in his 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, with regard to 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."

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.

Technology

The concept of technology has its basis in the definitions of processes, techniques and methods oriented to practice actions planned to achieve a defined goal, due to planning (Bush, 1945; Solow, 1970). The concept of technology ends up being used broadly, also to define standards and methods aimed at practices and execution of oriented work, receiving the qualifications of the sectors in which they are applied, such as "technology for health", "digital technology", "information technology", among many others.

The field of technology development began to integrate observations regarding economic innovation, because the mastery of engineering principles, applied methodologies and production processes, combined with knowledge about materials, manufacturing structures at scale and applied development, began to be considered key factors for the competitive advantage of a technological order (Oslo Manual, 2005). The issue of controlling technological-based innovations becomes fundamental, when we develop high-scale processes and production methods or for high value-added markets, it is decisive, since the use of artificial intelligence, robotization, automation, analysis, and data science, among several other resources, develops and directs the application of technology (Lacerda and Jamil, 2021).

The definition of technology is currently the basis for modeling and defining concepts such as production, innovation, processes, methods and methodologies, tools, platforms, business modeling, mentioning only the most sensitive ones. Technology, once an integral part of the knowledge applied to the solution of problems and diverse actions, is today an autonomous, dynamic competitive field and a factor of potential generation of heterogeneities in any context of socio-political negotiations.

Information technologies

Information technology concerns resources, such as hardware, software, and their associations, such as implementing actions and connectivity, based on various technologies, for the management and treatment of information, in a broad and varied character (Turban, Rainer Jr. and Potter, 2007). Given the technological advances of recent decades, considering as a starting point the formations of large computers, for the use of mass operation by companies and institutions, such as research and military action, currently achieving the versatility of devices and assemblies that are associated with the tools and materials normally available for human routine, information technology can be considered integral to the everyday lives of human beings.

Examples are the implements of "internet of things", where simple elements such as switches, sockets and cabling tools, in addition to home utilities, can be connected autonomously and "intelligently" in computer networks, which can even allow their self-management and performance. The technologies of tracking, information platforms, automation and robotization are other that are in great development, extending the concept of application to manage information, in addition to the automation of analysis, reaching the decision-making power offered by artificial intelligence in its various implementations (Jamil and Silva, 2021).

As cited for the unique concept of technology, information technology implements, at the level called "digital transformation" a new context and diversified level of management, automation and processing, enabling human tasks and actions, ranging from simple dealing with domestic tasks to space travel, to be carried out with innovative forms of technological implementation, resulting in an unheard-of aspect and under analysis by science. Here, we highlight the technologies focused on the interconnection of systems, automation, analysis of images and signals, data analysis for knowledge generation, implementation of virtual reality, among several others (Jamil and Silva, 2021).

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, in particular, 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 explainto 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 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).

IV. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINES PHILOSOPHICAL SCIENCES

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 ICT's.

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

- a) critical research of the conceptual nature and basic principles of information, including its dynamics, use and sciences; and refers to THE 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 the information, are of an interdisciplinary 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 feeling 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). Among the topics of IF, 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 infons* (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 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; so if someone 'knows that p' 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, the following questions are part of the IF's research agenda: "what is meaning?", "what is the relationship between mental states and informational states?", "could reality be reduced to informational terms?", "information can 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 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 explainto 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 IF. 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, 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 their own (and new) problems. In a compass with the development of the academic scope of IF, the influence in the social sphere is also highlighted, illustrated with the growing presence of ICTs in the daily life of people and organizations. Such presence would be influencing the dynamics of contemporary society, constituting the "Information Society".

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 Hughes 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 labor (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 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 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 synthetize 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 Quéré 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 CliffordGeertz's hermeneutics, among others.

INFORMATION SCIENCE

Information Science was born after the Second World War, to solve a major problem, which was also the major concern of both documentation and information retrieval, which is to gather, organize and make accessible the cultural, scientific and technological knowledge produced worldwide. Information science is a recent science and was born from the exact sciences, that is, seeking to achieve an exact knowledge from the inspiration of mathematical and quantitative models. (Bronowski, 1977, p. 47), based on objectivity, seeking to formulate universal laws of the "behavior" of information. Strongly influenced by empirical sciences, it was intended to establish universal laws that represented the informational phenomenon and hence the need to resort to mathematical (information theory), physical (entropy) or biological (epidemiological theory) models.

In the seventies, a character comes into play who redirects the focus of information science: "man (decision-makers) and as such the human and social sciences also contribute their methods and practices to the composition of this emerging science" (Cardoso, 1996: 73-74). Initially closely linked to computing and automatic information retrieval, according to (González de Gomez, 2000, p. 6), from the 1970s onwards, it effectively enrolls in the social sciences as a "symptom of the ongoing changes that would affect the production and direction of knowledge in the West" (González de Gomez, 2000, p. 2). It is, from that decade on, that we can refer to the "social foundations of information". However, some relevant questions are being raised to us right now, what is the branch of science that information science is closest to? What theories, concepts and methods feed information science?

The first studies in information science as social science were to study social reality from a statistical perspective, that is, quantitative. Berger & Luckmann (1985) presented reality as something that is socially constructed and not as an existence in itself and pave the way for the understanding of information not as a given, something that would have *meant and an importance per itself*, but as a process. That is, something that will be perceived and understood in various ways by people, which according to Borko's definition (1968) about behavior and information flows, is something that is outside people and with the definition of Buckland (1991) that sees information as "thing" outside people.

The subjectivity of information becomes fundamental for the understanding of the different planes of reality and the distinction between the different forms of knowledge and the mechanisms of its configuration and legitimation. People need to be included in studies on information and in their daily interactions, forms of expression and language, rites and social processes. Several studies can be presented, as an example of the incorporation of these concepts in the context of information science studies, such as the *dosensemaking approach* inaugurated by Dervin, Atwood & Palmour, MacMullin & Taylor's studies on people's values, cognitive nature studies inspired by Maturana & Varela's theory of the hermeneutic approach to information science, The studies of Capurro (2003) on information networks based on Bourdieu's theoretical framework (1983. p. 46-81), as well as bibliometric and scientific communication studies and the contributions of Foucault's Archaeology of Knowledge and Sociology of Science (Latour, Knorr-Cetina, among others).

Information science evolves into new stages of dialogue and insertion in the social sciences. The reflection on the evolution of information science, its relations with the social sciences and as a model of science is fundamental for research to continue and incorporate all the knowledge accumulated in this process. Since scientific research is one of the main paths for the formulation of theories of an area, what is perceived is that research in Information Science, has been consolidating and opening new horizons of discussions. Great contribution has been made by professors and researchers at various international universities.

Some important steps have been taken to theoretically strengthen the area of Information Science and that research in Information Science is expanding and has a Scientific Community that over the years has been consolidating internationally. There are many different challenges for Information Science today. As applied science, it needs to respond to the search for information from society and, as an object of research, to the needs of fundamental conceptual members of the area. The realization and sociability of research are the safest ways to create and share new paradigms. Thus, it becomes increasingly important to seek the theoretical, philosophical, and social foundation in the Field of Information Science and above all to further strengthen its scientific community.

SCIENCES POLITICSS

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 more or less the behavior and evolution of events. Political science has many branches of study. Just as the economy has as two major <u>macroeconomic andmicro-economy</u> branches, political science has its own:

- **Political power:** Many authors throughout history have <u>studied</u> 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 <u>Marx</u>, Make-up, <u>Weber</u>, 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. 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, Schlozman 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 are the relations between the different <u>States</u> 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 and in-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 highlights the importance that the policy 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.

V ELEMENTS OF DEBATE ON INTERNATIONAL CONFLICTS

The Complexity of Human Nature

The complexity of nature caused mutations in the epistemological perspectives of the subject, the scientific observer, in the subject/object relationships, explaining the relations between the physical world, the biological and anthropological world, ensuring communication between these different levels. To know the reality of nature, the result of a complex "engineering" product of interactions, interdependencies, in all its domains, it is necessary new intellectual tools compatible with the nature of knowledge to be processed, as well as a new language.

A language that helps men avoid reductionism, subject/object disjunctions, the annulment of the subject or object, as well as the excessive fragmentation of reality, that is a language nourished by an open epistemology, were uncertainty, emergency, dialogue, recursion, retroactivity, self-organization. The epistemology of complexity is the result of a complex ontology, in which being, and reality, subject and object are constitutive of each other, is based, in essence, by the principle of complexity. Second, (Edgar Morin, 1994), a principle consists in connecting, distinguishing, but always relating and articulating the relationships subject and object, individual and context, educator and educating.

This understanding differs from the principle of simplification that is based on the separation of the different domains of knowledge, from which the knowledge of the whole is reduced to the knowledge of the parties, without understanding that the whole has emerging qualities that are not found in the parties, but that would be consequences of the interactive processes that take place. The epistemology of complexity tries to develop the intellectual tools necessary to connect the objects of knowledge and the instruments of these known, as cognitive operators for a complex thinking. Such operators, such as dialogical, recursive, hologram, self-organization, among others, help us to know the complex reality and put into practice this thought, making complexity, in its logical dimension, become a guide or regulatory principle of thought and action, regardless of the area of knowledge.

The cognitive operators put into practice in the processes of knowledge construction help us to understand and materialize the logical and organizational dimensions of complexity, recognized as a systemic property, present in all dimensions of human life. Thus, it becomes easier to realize that Complex Thinking connects ontology, epistemology and methodology, three constitutive and defining dimensions of the Complexity Paradigm. From the epistemology of complexity, with its logical principles and the new emerging categories (multi-reference, uncertainty, self-organization...), several epistemological developments were clarifying and requiring a new intelligibility in the way of operating knowledge and knowing the real. Among the relevant aspects, we highlight the ecology of knowledge and transdisciplinary.

From the epistemology of complexity, with its logical principles and the new emerging categories (multi-reference, uncertainty, self-organization...), several epistemological developments were clarifying and requiring a new intelligibility, in the way of operating knowledge and knowing the real. Among others, aspects stand out:

- The relational composition from the constructions of Maturana and Varela (1995), in which the being continuously produces itself in the relationship with the environment, constantly organizes itself, living its relationship permanently, which gives it a condition of existence and possibilities of resistance in living/living in daily life.
- Contextualism the influence of the general context of any experimental or experiential situation, including here the expectations
 of the observer, the influences of the created circumstances, as a product of a vibrational and operational field that gives it
 meaning.
- The recognition of the permanent existence of a third possible energy dynamism, material or informationally unexplored, but potentially present (third included) in the processes of knowledge construction. This is because we are limited in our human condition that cannot cover the totality of phenomena. Conscious or not, something always escapes us.
- The contradictory which became complementary.
- The recognition of uncertainty as something ontological and inherent to quantum reality.
- The existence of other possibilities of reading the same reality, which gave rise to the concept of multi-reference (Ardoino, 1998), considered one of the important of this theoretical construction and that helps us much criticize the disciplinary logic responsible for the more traditional curricular buildings. This concept brings with it new epistemological and political perspectives in our relationship with the plurality of knowledge, representations, and formations.
- The emergence of the concept's levels of reality and levels of perception which allowed the construction of one of the most expensive axioms to transdisciplinary: at each level of reality corresponds a level of perception (Nicolescu, 2002), which led us to explore the possibility of other types of knowledge, other levels of materiality and understanding of reality.
- The emphasis on dialogic which allowed to assume rationally the association and understanding of contradictory actions, previously considered antagonistic, but which may also be complementary in their complex nature.

In a way, this ended up transforming the logic of relationships with knowledge, bringing a new hope to think, not only education, but the complexity of organizational processes that create the world and life.

The human being explores the different levels of materiality of the object, using the different levels of perception available by the subject, knowing in advance that the rational cannot explore what is beyond the disciplines, beyond the levels of materiality of the object, and that it is necessary to use imagination, creativity and intuition, in the search for a more global know-how. For example, the rational cannot realize to explore lucidity or creativity, as well as the spiritual dimension, that is, that knowledge that is beyond technical rationality and which, in turn, requires other forms of access, other languages and ways of expression and materialization of knowledge. Languages that reveal the richness of the inner world of the human being, of their emotional world, of their intuitive, aesthetic and ethical faculties.

Globalization of Information

In the age of globalization, 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 only megalopodglobal. 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 days gathering, studying, and processing information. Industries have been developed to produce equipment (and software) to store and process information.

Information about the globalized world today requires permanent attention and can be regarded as the most valuable asset, so in knowledge-based economies, information is taking on an increasing share of the cost of doing business successfully and simultaneously source dwellers for peace and local and/or global conflicts. 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, oil (*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 digital 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:

- Countries and organizations increasingly rely on the intelligent use of information and are transforming into information-intensive countries/organizations.
- People in their daily acts consume large amounts of information, both in terms of leisure, in terms of business or in terms of peace or conflict.
- 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 (computer 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 world (global and immediate), that is, those that have better identified the needs of the market and that have better adapted in terms of configuration, methods, processes and cultural forms that allowed combining the external information with that generated internally to generate distinctive competitive advantages (Porter, 1998).

Globalization must be seen beyond the opening up 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.

Technological turbulence

As stated earlier, at the time of conceptual study, technologies emerge to solve problems and improve and optimize processes. Objectively, it is permissible to think that such scope of services can lead to a competitive advantage, defined in terms favorable to those who know how to apply and are able to develop the technologies. Those who only know how to use them in final form, not knowing their details, and elements, may be left the execution of operational tasks, in low value aggregation, translating into insufficient strategic relevance.

This occurs, for example, in large industrial and service conglomerates, where headquarters facilities contain the "thought heads" of decision makers, strategists and professionals in charge of managing the company's ways. In your organizational grid, we find the management of the operational - which we can call tactical - that has a certain autonomy in terms of decision but follows the dictates of the central decision-making committee and, finally, the operational elements, always associated with the manufacturing environment, which only reproduce, with minimal autonomy and decision, the standards determined by the higher levels.

In a time of strong technological diffusion, let us initially reflect, for example, by artificial intelligence. There are two levels of Application of AI in the market. In the first, automatons, whether machine or software elements, or both, are applied to repeat human tasks, with the coding obtained via manual programming, self-programming through sensor tracking functions and, finally, with the recording of sophisticated direct sensing activities, such as digital visualization and listening systems. In all these cases, the automaton receives or "perceives" a signal encoding and records them, to indefinitely reproduce movements and drives, enabling operational optimization.

At a second and more complex level, artificial intelligence can be applied in automatons that will develop more detailed, interrelated and complex rules, enabling differentiated levels of decision making. Automatons can, for example, evaluate signals and determine the stop or acceleration of a process, the activation of a given servomechanism or even seek communication with a human being.

There are therefore several roles in this perspective, as well as in several other technologies deployment. There is the group of researchers who design the automatons, codes, and forms of signal acquisition, as well as the development of codes for these automata to "learn" - record the events as well as their relationships. There are still professionals and workers who will implement and assemble these automatons, providing conditions for them to work, in activities close to maintenance technicians. Finally, there are those who will have their functions replaced by automatons - incorporating professionals who perform routine, procedural care, without any creative or autonomous intervention, those who perform assemblies or work with basic decision-making processes, capable of being replaced by robots in operation based on artificial intelligence.

This scenario, which focuses only on an emerging technology - artificial intelligence - already allows us to infer the risks of positioning itself only in the most operational sphere of the industrial compound, probably generating the situation of eventual replacement by machines. The higher the level of value aggregation, application of complex knowledge and greater development and greater intellectuality, the professional remains integrated into the economic environment. It is important to say that this analysis, made only for the application of artificial intelligence, can also be found in other contexts of new technologies and innovation, generating the apprehension of a new level of social, economic, political and technological heterogeneity.

Peace vs. Conflic

Peace means the absence of any conflict. A conflict occurs when the Rulers of two or more countries have divergent interests (objectives) or opinions that cannot be developed at the same time. Conflict can occur in the field of interpersonal relationships, at the social level, when many people or groupsare involved. It can manifest itself through discussion, misunderstanding, dispute, struggle and even war, but the term "conflict" should not always be associated with violence, because it may or may not involve it. A conflict between countries /continents/political organization may occur, among others, for the following reasons:

- The disagreement of political interests: each party seeks to achieve its objectives, and this goes against the other party involved. For example: A country wants to gain sovereignty over a territory that another country owns.
- Incompatible Values: A conflict arises because the parties involved differ in beliefs, customs, or values. For example: religious conflicts.
- Social Inequalities: A conflict arises because one of the parties wants to eliminate social or economic inequality.

The elements involved in the conflicts are:

- Political Actors: they are the rulers who have opposing interests, opinions, or objectives. Depending on the case, political actors intervene directly or indirectly.
- The Problem. It is what opposes the rulers involved in the conflict. It can be a specific problem or several simultaneously.
- The Process. It is the way the conflict develops, the dynamics and relationships between political actors, the responsibilities and
 the predisposition to the resolution or not of the conflict. The dialogue processes and negotiations and the consequences of the
 lack of consensus.

An armed conflict seeks to obtain a disputed territory or resource. Conflicts may be classified according to their characteristics in:

- Ideological conflicts: Rulers with opposing ideological or political positions, or who defend different interests. The differences
 in positions are generally very clear and, in some cases, can turn into armed conflicts if one or both parties have or desire power.
- Religious conflicts. Different sectors within the same cult or members of different cults who oppose and face each other. Disputes have to do with the interpretation of the corresponding scriptures or the doctrines that one chooses to adopt. These conflicts have had violent results throughout history.
- **Political conflicts.** Machetes or sectors seeking to obtain the political, economic and territorial power of a face of a state. On some occasions, political conflicts trigger civil wars or armed conflicts between countries.
- Armed conflicts. They face groups that are usually military or paramilitary who seek to obtain power, territory or appeal
 challenged by force.

Politics and Information

According to Straus and Radnor (2004) in the global economy, large flows of information are observed, so this has an increasingly decisive role in the strategy of the Rulers for several reasons:

- Be important in strategic decision-making.
- Be relevant to a country's competitive advantage.
- Be a synergy factor within organizations.
- Be influential on the behavior of individuals and groups, inside and outside organizations.

According to Lesca (1986) it is difficult to say what information means for organizations and as such divide's information into three types:

- Operating information information necessary for the day-to-day operation of the organization. It is day-to-day supervision and control information relating to daily transactions; it is repetitive, accurate and formal and is subject to the most varied interpretations by those who use it.
- Influence information information that influences the behavior of internal agents and external to the organization. From this information the managers of organizations seek to maximize the cooperation / relationship between agents in favor of the company. It does not have an operational characteristic but seeks to influence the behavior of employees and external agents, such as motivation for promotional campaigns of products and or services, in order to achieve certain objectives.
- Anticipation information information that allows organizations to detect in advance the changes (discontinuities) in the
 environment (socio-economic, political-legal, technological, environmental and others), allowing them to obtain advantage or
 avoid risks

This information is related to the evolution of the environment (long-term concerns) and that has little or no relationship with everyday activities. Anticipation information (weak and strong signals) can take various forms, from rumors, to rumors, false, fraudulent, etc. It can be fragmented, of great uncertainty and characterized by ambiguity and lack of clarity. Rarely is anticipation information complete and clearly defined and it is common to be associated with unsystematic things, inserted in a context wrapped in uncertainty. Advance information can be produced by social and environmental evidence, called weak and or strong signals.

The Information Policy and Flows

Active life is characterized by stock and information flows aggregated according to the criteria of interests of a community of potential receptors. They are data in memory - in conventional device or in digital systems and inserted in the stock of information with the intention of subsequent recovery. The information flows refer to the follow-up, sequence, succession of dynamically produced events that determine the chaining of events related to information practices.

The figure below shows the pyramid of flows and stocks of information that relate to human experience. The pyramidal structure refers to the most amount at the base and less at the top, in a subjective value qualification in which less means more. The pyramid illustrates that human life is determined by knowledge, intelligence, and knowledge. Implicit knowledge exists, when one is born,knowledge is acquired by conquest, by work and is inserted in the practices of an action of intelligence with reality.

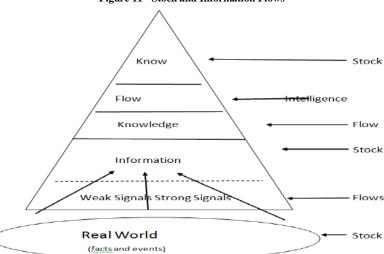


Figure 11 - Stock and Information Flows

Source: adapted from (Alda Barreto, 2002), The Condition of Information, São Paulo in Perspective, 16 (3).

In the real world there are many facts, events (stock) that produce weak and strong signals (flows) that activate human sensitivity and turn into information. Knowledge is fueled by information from the succession of real-world facts and events, which take place out of stock, in the mind of some thinking being and in a certain social space. It is a subjective and differentiated path for everyone. Hence the concepts of "knowledge management" or "knowledge base" are incomprehensible. It is a conceptual nonsense, a technical impossibility, a cunning fallacy of a perfect sophistry.

When we talk about intelligence, the action of dynamic introduction of a knowledge assimilated in the reality of the receiver is assumed; can be characterized as a social, political, economic, or technical action; represents a set of voluntary acts by which the individual elaborates his world and tries to modify his space. It is a beginning of what has not been done before and which is only completed in the plurality of the policy and will always resultina charge, because of the action; even if a return may occur, for a stay in the initial state, the process itself will have changed reality.

There is talk of knowing when one thinks of the knowledge that has been accepted and accumulated in the containers of his mind. It's a stock you can call for reworking. It is a personal stock, but in a community, it is implicitly added, to show signs of the state of improvement or social and cultural development of the community.

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.

Politics and Signals versus Clues/ Alerts

Ansoff (1975) introduced the theme of weak signals with the purpose of identifying possible discontinuities, threats and or opportunities, coming from the globalized world, in advance. In the face of social, economic, political and technological instability and turbulence. Ansoff (1975; 1984) maintained that strategic planning based only on quantitative, logical, historical, and trending data did not contemplate the discontinuities and strategic surprises. In an increasingly turbulent universe, the very notion of planning, as *a prior objective*, becomes unadopted, so the ability to react and adapt to the changes of the globalized world is decisive and thus moves from planning to strategic management.

The weak signals, initially used in military strategies (Ansoff, 1975; Choo, 2009), have since spread in several areas of knowledge, such as studies focused on exploring the future; disaster prevention or natural disasters, medicine, and, in organizational studies, in the fields of strategy, management and information systems. In all the areas mentioned, the main objective of the study of weak signals is identical: to anticipate uncertain, unexpected events, with potential significant impact on organizations / countries, to be better prepared to decide or act, when they occur (Choo 2009; Lesca & Lesca, 2011; Holopainen & Toivonen, 2012; Mayer et al. 2013).

But what are weak signals? Weak signals are defined by (Rossel, 2012), as perceptions of possible changes, essentially hypothetical, within a process of socially relevant knowledge construction. The distinction between definition and perception - definition is what characterizes the defined phenomenon, while perception (concept) is the process of looking at the phenomenon. Accepting the idea of perception, it is easy to look at the usefulness of perception more rightly than the universally true definition (Belkin, 1978, p.58).

Detailing a little more, (Schoemaker and Day, 2009), describe weak signals as part of information, apparent, random or disconnected, that at first glance looks like a background noise, but which can be significant, if viewed from other perspectives, or related to other information. In economic theory, decision-making, taking into account the perception of the globalized world, was successively guided by the function of information leading to the corresponding anticipations and underlying beliefs. In political and military theory these same concepts were gradually introduced and acquired around political and military strategy, to the extent that the globalized world is formed by other "actors" acting in a similar way.

The belief of politicians is increasingly formalized in the help of cognitive sciences, as well as in epistemic logic (hierarchical beliefs) and cognitive psychology (review of beliefs). The exchanges of information between politicians are also studied together with the cognitive sciences, as to the coordination they allow (distributed cognition) and the dynamics they induce (learning process).

In the field of strategic management and anticipated interpretation, the difference between signal and clue / alert lies in the intention of the information issuer and, consequently, the meaning and reliability of it. The word "signal" is understood as a deliberate intention on the part of the sender to communicate that information. This is close to the idea of signaling, such as the analysis of competition through public demonstrations (similar to market and military signals).

(Porter, 1982), indicates that market signals and the military allow us to know the intentions and future actions of competitors. Dealing with the situation of anticipation of information in strategic management (including the military), it is not what the sender explicitly wishes to communicate what interests us most: it may be a deception or a common information (true, false or fraudulent). Conversely, what may potentially interest us is not always the subject of a deliberate issue of the issuer. What may most interest us and of greatest importance are the unintended, unintended, involuntary emissions and manifestations of the "authors" of the change we wish to anticipate. In this case, we can say that we are **facing indications / alerts**.

The word "signal" according to the signal theory described by (Shannon and Weaver, 1949), would apply to Ansoff's weak signals, which would allow the possibility of establishing exhaustive lists of signals, which would be possible to identify communication channels to be observed, and define the limits of receivability from which one should be alerted. This analogy would be dangerous because it would lead to the preference for the selection of poorly adequate signals (Lesca and Blanco, 2002).

The criteria of Shannon and Weaver's signals, such as confidence, sufficiency, completeness, controllability, etc., are not usable in the case of Ansoff's weak signals, so we are faced with a situation where we do not know in advance what the signs and sources of information. Thus, we focus our interest only on the signals, which we can obtain pertinent and anticipatory information, so we talk **about the indications / anticipatory** alerts, which do not have an immediately evident meaning, on the contrary, their meaning is constructed during its interpretation. By interpreting a weak signal, we have the possibility of reaching the "Indications / anticipatory alerts".

"Clue / anticipatory alert" is information whose interpretation allows us to think that an event likely to have a great utility and a great impact on organizations, including the military, will be to occur (discontinuity, opportunity and or threat). Such clues may originate from two main sources: documented sources (databases, publications, internet, etc.) and relational sources, as well as formal or formal sources, internal or external.

According to (Leszczynska and Lesca, 2004) information of relational origin is often accessible mainly by employees with activities outside organizations, although the internal collaborators of organizations, through their relationships and their contact with the environment (battlefield, competitors, researchers, meetings, congresses, fairs, seminars, etc.), may also be able to do so and attentive to the formal information, qualitative, subjective, etc.

Information Policy and Imperfections

Humans are not only rational, but 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:
 - i. High costs to obtain equal information.
 - ii. Propensity of the parties to 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 one of the actors, 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. Consequently, for example, if the economic interest of the search engine operator, but also the public interest, in accessing information, in a search on the name of a person, is particularly suitable for a particular organization, will end the main benefits of stakeholders benefiting 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:

- Will of one of them to pay a high price, for information.
- i. 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 allows an incomplete comparison of the parties and their reciprocal differences can move towards a situation of abyss.

Politics and Information versus Disinformation

Globalization has intentionally made practical dissemination of false (fraudulent) information with the aim of deceiving/harming people, organizations, and countries for the purpose of obtaining economic and/or political benefits. Fake news is used in dishonest, hyped or written headlines to increase media share /views, online sharing and click-through earnings on Internet.

Second, (Hannah Arendt, 2009), politics is marked by factual truth and is inseparable from journalistic activity. The factual truth is related to the facts (the glass is half full) and is recognized by people as legitimately occurred from the facts and from the various testimonies. The facts are accepted by people and are the basis for agreement/dialogue. However, the glass can also be seen, as being half full, subjective perspective. The liquid that the cup has is like the color of another liquid, can remain half full or can be filled, with the same or other liquid what soon. The interpretation of the facts is subjective, ephemeral, fragile, and vulnerable to manipulation and falsification since the facts and power are within the scope of "reality".

Historically, thisscenario has caused the facts, to be harassedby the instances of power (economics and politics). In thissense, the relationship between politics, capital and *Midia* (written or digital) is not always quiet, because in a way, it is necessary that the press has an eye within the economic and political power and it is their responsibility to disclose events, report them and informcitizensaboutwhat occurred. It is not up to politics, in turn, to ascertain the facts or proclaimersome truth. There are taskssuch as the press, political scienceand philosophy that must ascertainthe facts, to be questioned and intervened. Therefore, Arendt added that the press needs to be protected from economic, political, and social pressure.

Facts inform opinions and may differ from each other, but one must respect factual truth. Hence philosophy explained that "facts and opinions, though they may be kept separate, are not antagonistic to each other; they belong to the same domain." (Arendt, 2009, p. 295). This does not mean that the different interpretations and interpretations of the same fact makefeasible what happened, let alone that someone manipulates the facts, depending on their wishes. Different subjective interpretations of the same events have been and continue to be elaborated, although it is not permissible to arrogate the right to touch, in the factual matter itself.

Second, (Arendt, 2009, p. 296), Clémenceau, when asked about, how the historical interpretation of The First World War would be, would have answered "i don't know that", but I am sure that they will not say that Belgium invaded Germany. What characterizes factual truth is that the opposite is not error, or ilusão, or opinião, but rather deliberate falsehood, the lie.

From the break with the commonly shared reality, on issues related to the facts, the basis for dialogue and for agreements / consensus, breaks the possibility of any interpretation, as "opinions" start to be elaborated from a subjective perspective, including the one that contradicts the facts. In the case of lying, Arendt considered that the liar, "without being able to make his falsehood convince", acts so that his "opinion" is issued by right (Arendt, 2009, p. 309). freedom of opinion becomes a farce, since, under the defense of freedom of expression, the deliberate issuance of fraudulent information is concealed.

The phenomenon of Fake News has given visibility to social, educational, legal, economic, and technological challenges, as well as theoretical-analytic ones, to deal with different factors and aspects that fake news reveals. This is due to McLuhan's concept of the old global village with Internet access and to the changes in the one-to-all mode of communication (information is transmitted in a unidirectional way), to all-to-all, provided by digital IT. Such a model transformed each citizen into a potential creator of news, opinions, and content. Each connected subject became a producer, editor, content publisher, due to the technical facility provided by technologies.

All-to-all communication has expanded the possibility of advertising and disseminating information, and each connected person can disseminate their opinion on different subjects, a fact that remains difficult in traditional media. The possibilities of social interaction and communication were expanded by digital media and social networks, events that are distant and not governed by the ethos of social communication, in democratic countries. The ethos, built with great difficulty throughout its history, established models of conduct, journalistic education, ethical codes and commitments to the truth to be published, and the sources of information.

It should be noted, however, that this ethos worked only in part and serves more, as a point of reference, in information on radio, television networks and the written press. The turn from the 19th to the 20th century and the Iraq War are practical examples of false and fraudulent reports that Saddam Hussein had an arsenal of chemical weapons of mass destruction.

Technological globalization (Digital Capitalism) allows among others, companies Google, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram, WhatsApp, Amazon, etc., to control people, companies, and public and private organizations and to commercialize the stored information, since there is no adequate legislation. On the other hand, they have the ability to interfere in freedom of expression, generating tremendous difficulties, because these technological giants, in addition to public and social control, allow activities related to the causes and effects of Fake News. These tech giants disseminate content (true, false or fraudulent) to cause clicks (likes) that pay.

Second, (Bucci, 2018, p. 27), "fraudulent news makes a profit. In the virtual environment of Google and Facebook, fraud pays. The greater the number of clicks, the more the author earns (...)". Research carried out especially since 2016 has revealed that the repercussion of fraudulent news is much more than what was publicized, at the time of the old traditional media and the one-all communication model, due to the speed, scale and reach of what is disseminated through the networks.

The Post-Truth versus Fake News

The context of the digital society has given new meaning to the old practice of intentionally disseminating fake news with the intention of deceiving, to harm certain individuals, organizations (public and private) and institutions, with the aim of obtaining economic and/or political gains. The consequence of this fraudulent news is misinformation. Fake News are used in dishonest, hypedor written headlines to increase views, online sharesand click-to-click earnings on Internet.

It can be said that the background of Fake News, and the breakdown of the value associated with factual truth, gave rise to what has become known worldwide, as post-truth, after the Oxford dictionary recognized it as the word of the year. The p6s-truth would be related to the circumstance that the objective facts would be worth less than the emotional appeals or the personal beliefs in the elaboration of the public opinion. Therefore, it would be easier for people to manipulate the data as they wish. This solution becomes dramatic and complicated in the context of Fake News, which are undermining and eroding trust in recording sources, in the narratives of the facts and in their transmission, whether in the scope of scientific discourse or in the press.

Second, (Lucia Santaella, 2018), there are "informational bubbles" that are made up of groups of people who have the same worldview, similar values and sense of humor, in identical harmony. This constitutes the ideal environment for the proliferation of messages that aim to make people take seriously, a deceptive joke, until the moment when the fraud is factually proven, after a while. These types of humor with the purpose of deceiving are easy pieces to go viral, especially because they use images, captions and sensational messages as supporting elements.

One of the characteristics is the permeability of social networks, to different discourses and perspectives, that is, the dissemination of information penetrates crowds because it is seen/perceived as "true". This situation is fueled by the algorithms that make up the technological structure of the network. This context seems to point to the circumstance in which the "informational bubbles", are incremented by the experience of the decline of factual truth, by the breakdown of the public sphere, where the discursive practices of public opinion are, and also by the political will, since it underlies the belief that the one with whom I do not share "facts", deceives me with factoids.

The sources of information accessed by the Internet come from a limited range of sources in social media, when compared to search engines. People live in collective social bubbles that have the same perception of the world. These bubbles cut off the possibility of having access to different points of view, criticism and alternatives that can broaden reflection / opinion on certain topics. The very commercial structure behind social networks favors this experience. O Facebook, for example, organizes news lists for each group / user, based on algorithms that aim to predict their preferences, by highlighting content with which they agree (m).

The very commercial structure behind social networks favors this experience. For example, Facebook, organizes news lists for each group / user, based on algorithms that aim to predict his (s) preferences by highlighting content with which he (s) agrees (m). This fact has contributed to the fact that the bubbles may contain contents that are intoxicating, such as, for example, social and ideological prejudices.

Second, (Bucci, 2018, p. 27), fraudulent news has more repercussions than true ones, and more quickly. They reach more people and faster than traditional news media. For example, in a day or two Trump made about half of the US population believe that Barack Obama was born in Kenya. The novelty of the political potential for the dissemination of Fake Nebws stems from living in informational bubbles. The recent experience of digital networks, in post-truth times, has shown that the ideal of the digital global village marked the liberal social imaginary regarding the Internet and the network society, in its beginnings, disallowing people and groups to seek to inform through digital networks. Instead of the plurality and diversity of sources and different perspectives, they only use information bubbles as a resource for the source.

According to (Ond, 2018), in the last elections in India, Hungary, Italy and the USA, some political parties used Robots (bots) and trolls to create narratives favorable to their policies. Trolls are people hired to work rem on multiple Internet platforms, to disseminate content and give greater visibility to certain topics. Bots, in turn, are automated systems created by algorithms that massively disseminate information, including Fake News. Bots and Trolls simulate the popularity of a theme, driven by the likes, shares and dislikes, made by contractors, until these artificially driven narratives reach users who will in turn, disseminate it through their networks, because they believe in them. Bots and trolls are effective tools for the dissemination of these narratives (true, false or fraudulent) and to disseminate radical and polarized discourses on social networks, as a way to contaminate all who read / listen to this content.

Second, (Juliana Gragnani, 2018), Fake News reveals the personal tone of countless pieces of political propaganda carefully prepared to look like messages "from people we know" and that circulated on WhatsApp from family members and groups of friends and the like: "The narrators are, mostly men, who tell banal stories from real life - some situation that would have happened to them and that involves some candidate, impossible or almost impossible, to be confirmed. In addition to Fake News, another phenomenon has emerged on digital networks that is the dissemination of toxic information, that is, content in digital environments intoxicated by hate speech.
The Toxic Environment of Social Platforms

The success of fake news is due to the technological structure of social forms, since they allow the transformation of information into data and store it in these technological platforms, related to the interaction of the connected people, which performs in the digital environment (your searches, readings, digital purchases, games, videos, *likes / dislikes*, posts, even the innocent "good morning", that is, your interests, your behavior and your desires) and subsequent recovery of this data, transforming it again into information accessible by users of these technological platforms.

Any and all transit through the digital environment generates traces from the information provided by the user himself through his mediated accesses over the Internet. These tracks constitute the data that are collected, stored, processed and sold by different types of companies that carry out these actions, that is, they go through the process of generating data that allow the identification of people susceptible to certain information, among users, including *Fake News* (but notthem). In this sense, ICTs have also expanded the segmentation of information, a fundamental aspect for the triggering of specific Fake News, which appear to be a kind of Fake News tailored to certain groups of people who need to be mobilized.

Politics, Ethics and Epistemology

Information Science can contribute to unraveling the intricate plot that approaches and isolates the central problems of ethics (moral philosophy, political philosophy, that is, good and evil, power and impotence, truth and lies. The ethical dimension of knowledge concerns its moral value; the political dimension concerns the power value and the epistemological dimension, its true value. Ethics assumes that its territory must take precedence in dialectical interaction with others, since both politics (power management) and epistemology (the management of rationality) can be thought of *as* means to achieve what ethics establishesascorrect or desirable.

The territory of ethics is on the border with politics. The central dilemma of ethics concerns the overcoming of the contradictions that arise between good and evil, of each and that of the others. There can be no unethical policy, that is, the production, sharing, dispute or management of power, without the common good being seen. What one can and should discuss is the quality of ethics in a given political practice; its legitimacy, the non-existence: here it is the very good that must be held accountable.

Politics is the territory of ethics effectiveness, that is, unethical politics is innocuous. Information plays a key role in power disputes, as it encompasses the proper knowledge of the forces in power dispute (their resources, weaknesses and projects, privileged access to economic, scientific or military information, possession of compromising documents of the adversary(s) — factors whose timeliness, such as the persecution brought against Assange and Snowden by the US, the dissemination or silencing of false or truthful messages capable of mobilizing or demobilizing broad sectors of the population.

On the other hand, for ethics to be effective, that is, political action is morally dignified and technically effective, as well as, for a certain praxis to achieve the desired objectives, it is necessary to add to it the epistemological dynamics, one whose commitment is not in principle with good, nor with power, but with truth, with the real and with objectivity. At the same time, with the epistemological dimension of ethics, whose product consists in the rational foundation of the problem of the common good and politics, the problem of rational knowledge about how to achieve this common good was posed. Thus, the points of contact between ethics, politics and epistemology were identified.

VI <u>DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND CLUES FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATIONS</u>

Discussion

Security

Saving future generations from the scourge of war was the main motivation for the creation of the United Nations, whose foundation dates back to the devastation left by two world wars. Since its inception, the UN has often been called into the international arena to promote international cooperation and prevent wars, to help restore peace in the wake of armed conflict and to support countries that have recently emerged from the war.

Over the decades, the UN has helped to end numerous conflicts, often through actions by the Security Council, the responsible body, as set out in the UnCharter, for the maintenance of international peace and security. When a threat to peace is identified, the Council's first action is usually to recommend to the parties concerned to try to reach an agreement through peaceful means. In some cases, the Council itself carries out an investigation and is apart from the talks between the parties. You can also appoint special representatives or ask theGeneral secretary to do so or use your good offices. The Council may also lay down principles for a peaceful agreement.

Issues:

- 1. Do the rulers of all countries and global defenseorganizations comply with the security standards set by the UN?
- 2. Which countries and or political organizations worldwide respect the UN's defense standards Democracies or Dictatorships?

Political Opportunism

Politicians are not only rational, but also assume opportunistic behaviors, that is, they seek their own interest, with cunning and to obtain individual advantages. To this end, they select and use the imperfections of information in the conduct of their political actions towards the future. However, not all politicians, if they behave opportunistically, it is difficult to predict in advance, whether they will behave or not as such.

Issues:

- Are politicians rational and opportunistic?
- 2. Do politicians seek first and foremost the social and economic well-being of voters?
- 3. Do politicians use information imperfections or not in the conduct of their political actions?

Political Leadership

Political Leadership is considered the ability to motivate, influence, inspire and command a group of people to achieve the objectives, for the benefit of the population. Political practice accompanies humanity throughout history, in turbulent and complex environments so that leaders and their teams work for the social and economic well-being of populations, without compromising their mental health. The political leader has to prepare himself to be in that position and does not hesitate to react the way, in case something that is negatively compromising his performance.

Issues

- 1. Are Political Rulers natural leaders, with the ability and political training to motivate and influence voters and people in general to achieve goals, with practical benefits for the social and economic well-being of populations?
- 2. Do Political Rulers work to obtain personal social and economic benefits?

Democracy vs Dictatorship

In Democracy sovereignty is exercised by the people and political power is exercised by the people through universal suffrage to elect their representatives through the vote (President and/or Prime Minister). It 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 the rights expressed, and the duties to participate in the political system that will protect their rights and freedom, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations.

Dictatorship is a non-democratic regime in which government and power is governed by one person (a political leader), where there is no popular participation. The ruler/leader agglutinates the executive, legislative and judiciary powers. The dictator controls all the most

important sectors of his country to legitimize his position. Political rights and freedom are enforced with broad use of force by the State and the strengthening of executive power to the detriment of other powers

Issues:

- 1. What is the best way to govern a country and organizations Democracy or Dictatorship?
- 2. What is the best form of government that respects individual freedoms Democracy or dictatorship?
- 3. Which form of government respects human rights more democracy or dictatorship?

Peace vs. Conflict

Peace is a social or personal (mental) state of mind, in which the parties (individual or countries or political and or social organizations) are in balance and stability. It refers to the absence of <u>restlessness</u>, <u>violence orwar</u>, <u>with a positive sense of human life</u>. In <u>international law</u>, the state of peace is one in which international conflicts are resolved in a nonviolent manner; and particularly "peace" is the convention or treaty (<u>peace treaty</u>) that ends the war. Social peace can be achieved by <u>consensus</u>or understanding between the parties (groups, social strata, countries, political organizations, public and private organizations) to maintain good relations and <u>mutually beneficial</u>.

Conflicts arise when there is a confrontation subject to interests (economic and or political) of the dispute between two or more countries/ regions / political organizations, eventually using weapons to physically annihilate the enemy. War can occur between countries or between smaller groups, such as tribes or political, religious, xenophobic, etc., within the same country (internal confrontation). Armed conflicts between the parties, scheduled or planned, have religious, ethnic, ideological, economic, territorial, revenge, or possession motives (when one group desires something from the other), eventually giving rise to a civil war.

Issues:

- 1. Are international conflicts, in practice, resolved with peace or war?
- 2. Are international conflicts, in practice, the result of positive or negative thoughts in the minds of policy makers?
- 3. Are armed or armed conflicts with firearms the result of the *digital media's dissemination* of positive news (good, truth, social justice, peace) or the contrary are resulting from *the digital media's dissemination* of negative news (evil, falsehood, racial hatred, revenge)?

Human Life

Humanist Psychology emerged in the 1950s and gained strength in the 1960s and 1970s, as a reaction to ideas of behavior analysis, defended by Behaviorism and the focus on the unconscious and its determinism, defended by Psychoanalysis. The great divergence with Behaviorism is that Humanism does not accept the idea of the human being, as a machine or animal, subject to the conditioning processes. With a strong existential and phenomenological influence, Humanist Psychology seeks to know the human being, trying to humanize his psychic apparatus, thus contradicting the view of man, as a being conditioned by the external world. In existentialism, the human being is seen, as a starting point of the processes of reflection and in phenomenology, this human being is aware of the world.

One of the main theorists of Humanist Psychology was Abraham Maslow (1908-1970), an American, considered the spiritual father of the humanist psychology was Abraham Maslow (1908-1970), and American, considered the spiritual father of the humanist psychology was Abraham Maslow (1908-1970), and American, considered the spiritual father between the light of the backet level of

One of the main theorists of Humanist Psychology was Abraham Maslow (1908-1970), an American, considered the spiritual father of the humanist movement, believed in the individual tendency of the person to become a self-fulfilling person, this being the highest level of human existence. Maslow created a scale of needs to be met and, with each achievement, new need, presented itself. This would cause the individual to be seeking his self-realization, for the successive needs met, as graph below:

Five level	Personal fulfillment	morality creativity spontaneity troubleshooting absence of prejudices, acceptance of the facts
Fourth level	Esteem	self-esteem, trust, conquest, respect for others, respect for others
Tirth level	Love / relationship	friendship, family, sexual intimacy
Second level	Safety	security of the body, employment, resources, morality, family, health, property
First level	Physiology	breathing, food, water, sleep, homeostasis, excretion

Source: Adapted from Maslow (1908-1970)

Issues:

- 1. Is humanity (men and women) not all born equal, is this the same?
- 2. Do all humans (men and women) have the right to live a life determined by nature, that is, by quality of life?
- 3. Does anyone have the universal right to end the lives of other human beings (men and women)?
- 4. Can any human being (men and women) be considered a "machine or animal" to sacrifice for the good of some?
- 5. Do all humans (men and women) have the right to education and to meet their self-realization needs?

Politics and Information

With globalization, information is the link that unites people and organizations in general (companies, and political organizations)." The rapid transmission in large quantities from continent to continent, transforms the world into a global megalopids. The messenger on foot gave way to the information highways worldwide. Information is an asset that can be compiled, stored, duplicated, sold, stolen and sometimes a source of murder. Many people spend their working day gathering, studying and processing information. Several industries have been developed, including war industries, to produce equipment (and software) to store and process information. Today it requires permanent attention and, it is the most valuable asset, so in knowledge-based economies, information is taking on an increasing share of the cost of doing business successfully and in simple, source of peace and local and/or global conflicts.

Globalization has intentionally made practical dissemination of false (fraudulent) information with the aim of deceiving/harming people, organizations, and countries for the purpose of obtaining economic and/or political benefits. Fake news is used in dishonest, hyped orwritten headlines to increase media share /views, online sharing and click-through earnings on Internet.

Politics is marked by factual truth and is inseparable from journalistic activity. The factual truth is related to the facts (the glass is half full) and is recognized by people. Legitimate facts are recognized by people and are accepted for these and are the basis for agreement/dialogue. However, the glass can also beseen, as being half full, subjectivity perspective of the facts. The liquid that the cup has is like the color of another liquid, can remain half full or can be filled, with the same or other liquid what soon. The interpretation of the facts is subjective, ephemeral, fragile, and vulnerable to manipulation and falsification since the facts and power are within the scope of "reality". Whatcharacterizes factual truthis that the opposite is not error, illusion, or opinion, but rather deliberate falsehood, the lie.

The subjectivity of the facts breaks with reality (objective truth) with the basis for dialogue and for agreements / consensus, breaks the possibility of any interpretation, as "opinions" start to be elaborated from a subjective perspective, including the which contradicts the facts. The consequence is that freedom of opinion becomes a farce, since, under the defense of freedom of expression, the deliberate issuance of fraudulent information is concealed.

The dissemination of *Fake News*, by politicians, stems from people living in informational bubbles, through digital networks. The post-truth marked the liberal social imaginary regarding the Internet and society in general. It disallowed people and groups to seek information through digital networks and, instead of the plurality and diversity of information sources and different perspectives, they only use, as a resource the source, the information bubbles.

Some public and private organizations, including businesses and political parties, use Robots (bots) and trolls to create narratives favorable to their policies. They hire Trolls to work on multiple Internet platforms, to disseminate content and give greater visibility to certain topics. Bots, in turn, are automated systems created by algorithms that massively disseminate information, including Fake News.

Issues:

- 1. Do humans (men and women) use information imperfections or not to gain economic, social and political advantages?
- 2. Do politicians use information imperfections or not for the benefit of the social and economic well-being of the population?
- 3. Do politicians use information imperfections or not for personal benefit (economic and social) to the detriment of populations?
- 4. Do politicians use or not the factual truth recognized by the population as the basis for agreement and consensus?
- 5. Do politicians deliberately resort to <u>the</u>illusion or awareness of opinion on certain topics?
- 6. Do politicians use Robots and <u>Trolls</u> or not to create narratives in favor of their policies?

Politics and Ethics

Information Science helps to unravel and isolate the central problems of ethics (morals, politics), that is, good and evil, power and impotence, truth and lies. The ethical dimension of knowledge concerns moral value; the political dimension concerns the value of power and the epistemological dimension, the value of truth. The territory of ethics must take precedence in dialectical interaction with others, both in personal terms (truth, good, power, correct and desirable) and political (the management of power) as to epistemology (the management of rationality) and is on the border with politics, in overcoming the contradictions that arise between good and evil, of each and the other, that is, in the production, sharing, dispute or management of power, aimed at the common good of citizens.

Politics is the practical territory of ethics since unethical politics is innocuous. The quality of political practice is legitimacy, the practice of social and economic well-being of the populations and the periodic accountability. Information plays a key role in the power struggle. The information feeds the knowledge about the forces in dispute of power (their resources, weaknesses and projects, privileged access to economic, scientific or military information, possession of compromising documents of the adversary(s) — determining factors in the dissemination of true messages, capable of mobilizing various sectors of the population.

Political practice with ethics is morally dignified and political commitment is objectively in the rational foundation of the social and economic well-being of citizens, as a way of achieving the objectives of power.

Issues:

- 1. Do you personally (male or female) in your family, professional and social life engage ethically worthy and correct actions for the personal social and economic well-being of others?
- 2. If you are political (active or sympathizer), do you take ethically worthy and correct actions for the social and economic well-being of others?
- 3. Do national or international politicians you know take ethically dignified and correct actions for the social and economic well-being of others (in your country and or in other countries)?
- 4. In international relations, do politicians in political and military organizations take ethically dignified and correct actions for the social and economic well-being of other countries)?

Digital Capitalism

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 organizational dynamics of people, in the way people understand reality, changing the way, how they relate to the environment, with 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

Digital computers operate from calculations and manipulate the rules for the organization of symbols, so the activity of "thinking" consists, in the manipulation of symbols, according to a set of logical rules, constituting algorithms, which digital computers can, in principle, "think". The "intelligent thinking" is done mechanically, building mechanical models of structure and dynamics, type "thought", enabling the development of mechanical models of the mind.

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 is increasingly dependent on a university degree with distance work, anywhere, in a country, in the globalized world. This is the logical result, since we stopped working in the office and in the large urban centers, and it was through intellectual work and came to telework at home or elsewhere, outside the large urban centers. This last step represents a break with the past.

Issues:

- 1. Are social networks changing people's identity or not, that is, their mind, way of thinking, way of being and personal relationships?
- In your opinion in the Digital Society, will the problem be technology or capitalism?
- 3. In the Digital Society, in economic terms, what will be the master and the puppet (economy or technology)?

Conclusions

Research

One of the main forms of development of scientific thought is the observation and study of certain social phenomena, in the search to prove or not, the truth of these phenomena and that have universal validity. The model of scientific research based on empirical observation and inductive thinking, characteristics that guide the conception of a positivist method of society.

The goal of every scientist is to reach fair and true conclusions, proving or not, the chances of departure. But in this search for truth, the scientist has to be rigorous, serious and honest and not allow his assumptions to control the search result. Although the scientist theologian

goes to the sources of information with assumptions because it is impossible to be a scientist without some kind of assumption, it should not allow the search for the truth to be impaired by its own feelings with regard to the "object" of the research. The goal of your work is, the reach of truth.

Globalization

Globalization is a contemporary phenomenon that has been making major structural transformations in all areas of society – socio-cultural, economic and political. It is a social phenomenon in continuous mutuality, which aims at the integration of the world into a large global community, with global characteristics, independent of national, social, cultural, political or religious borders. This process began from the conflicts of World War II, in which several countries, including Europeans, saw the need to join forces in order to rise to the destruction caused by war.

From the combination of efforts emerged, as great global potentials, generating the beginning of the global economy, the production of consumer goods (tangible and intangible) on a large scale, to meet the needs and consumption patterns of various and different world markets. The global communications industry has allowed the dissemination of information to millions of people around the world indistinctly. Great alliances and diplomatic agreements between countries emerged and the idea of forming large economic and political blocs.

With globalization, the integration of countries, cultures and markets generates cultural, social and political conflicts, since people are not trapped in the particular reality and individual characteristics, because they are part of a global community, that is, they become citizens of the world. To this end, it is necessary to overcome socio-cultural barriers, such as language, religion, uses and customs, political parties, nationality, giving rise to inter-action between peoples, inter-nations, transnational. This process "forces" people to create new habits, previously unthinkable, in a world marked by national and geopolitical borders that delimited people's ways of being and thinking.

The globalization of world cultures and markets is irreversible and can be viewed with optimism or pessimism, depending on the objective or subjective point of view. Globalization basically comprises three aspects: socio-cultural, economic and political. In socio-cultural terms the great changes are the language, uses and customs of each people, the legal system of each country (legislation and rules of social coexistence) and the management of information flows, through social networks, provided by information and communication technologies. The aspects that may represent real barriers to global integration, and may generate national resistance, xenophobia, prejudices of any kind (religious, political, economic, etc.), as well as difficulties deliberately created by certain economic groups with the aim of creating monopoly or imperialism (political and economic) and may generate indeterminate conflicts and possibly wars.

Concepts such as the philosophy of working hours (number of hours worked), administrative rigidity, the mentality that privileges quantity over quality, lose ground for distance work (telework), fewer administrative and professional hierarchies with various valences, in free transit.

With the globalization of markets, free trade and the economy of countries / groups of countries need monetary stability, since it is the pillar on which changes can occur more safely and with maximum predictability. The relationship between the companies that constitute the internal market of each country / group of countries with their diplomatic bodies, need to establish joint policies of efforts to ensure success in cultural, political, and economic relations, for the social and economic well-being of the populations.

With the process of globalization in the way of closed, self-centered political systems, nationalists, and dictators with excessive control over economic activities, they are incompatible. In the process of globalization, it is essential that three things happen: free movement of people and goods, freedom of expression, as well as information flows. Without them, it is impossible to realize any thought of socio-cultural, economic, or political globalization.

It is essential that democratic countries respect democracy, freedom of expression, social solidarity and that they seek with their policies to meet the expectations and needs of the people of each country/ group of countries, for their social and economic well-being.

It is necessary to invest in the establishment of agreements and partnerships of international cooperation since they represent an important effort to integrate laws and rules that regulate and systematize the internal market in the context of globalization. The integration of policies will strengthen international relations, discourage the abuse of political and economic power by groups of greater expression.

The most important factor in the process of globalization is technological evolution (telecommunications + information technology), so the attention that is given to production and technological development connecting various parts of the globe, if not the whole, and the distance between people and work automation. We are living rapidly and constantly changing social changes due to the impact of these new technologies on world society, so the survival of society will depend on the ability to adapt to those changes. We are in an era of profound socio-cultural, economic, and political revolutions.

The use of meta-data stored by Digital Capitalism companies and accessed through social networks without proper legislation will violate human rights and freedoms, according to the United Nations letter. There is a very large political and informative battle that security is more important than constitutional rights, freedoms and guarantees. Ensuring security without violating citizens' rights, freedom and guarantees is what distinguishes dictatorships, democracies.

The violation by democratic institutions of the rights and freedoms and constitutional guarantees of the United Nations, lead to the political discrediting of responsible and transparent democracies. The conquest of freedom is a sublime act of human life, so the justices outside the law of the United Nations deny freedom, disrespect human dignity and seek subjective personal political interests

Globalization will be an irreversible process and will cause many conflicts, controversies, criticisms, disappointments, optimism and pessimism exacerbated and lived intensely. The future will be for global citizens.

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 have addressed little issues of peace versus political-military conflicts, and we are also not experts in this area of knowledge. However, previous studies are limited to the generalization of conclusions.

Clues for Future Investigations

Our perception of globalization and its impact on peace and socio-cultural, economic and political conflicts is, of which it is an irreversible process in democratic and non-democratic countries, and which has a strong dependence on technological development, that is, on its concepts and applications. In our opinion these basic concepts are the most important concepts used in the literature. They can serve, as a summary type, how information is handled; they make visible the important differences in the use of information and can be used to analyze the different uses. However, not all the details of the various uses of the concept of information can be framed by the basic concepts and as such should be investigated.

The role of technologies, without action by governments or central agents, which allow democratic access to their use, dissemination, and application, enhances the new generation of heterogeneous levels, rewarding those who dominate the development and design of solutions, as well as actors who can invest in technological innovations, which will define the market. Minor, intervention has those who only use the technology, only apply it as "black boxes", without being able to question or understand its details. Therein lies the risk, as discussed, of being placed on the margins of labor markets and decision-making processes.

We are now asked the following questions:

 Will socio-cultural, economic, and political globalization contribute to the social and economic well-being of people in democratic and non-democratic countries?

- Will globalization contribute to global pacification or on the contrary will it increase political-military conflicts?
- Will the globalization of the economy be done in a peaceful way or will it increase socio-cultural and political conflicts?
- Will globalization not question people's freedom of expression?
- Will globalization contribute to democratic and non-democratic countries to respect the Universal Declaration of Human Rights defined by the United Nations?

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