American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research (AJHSSR)
e-ISSN : 2378-703X
Volume-07, Issue-09, pp-203-268
www.ajhssr.com
Research Paper Open Access

Challenges of the Democracy of the Future, in the Digital Society (from Theory to Practice)

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ABSTRACT: This article addresses the challenges facing humanity in the Democracy of the Future, in the context of changing the reality of the lives of people and organizations (public and private), in the Digital Society. Democracy is a political regime in which all citizens, in the enjoyment of their human, social, economic and political rights, actively participate in the choice of the governance model for the country and/or region, in its development and in the creation of rules and norms (laws), through universal suffrage. The challenges contemplate the human, social, economic, political and cultural conditions that allow the exercise of power, free, participatory, responsible and equal for all citizens.The Democracy of the Future poses new challenges to the powers (political, economic, financial, cultural), through a new systematic approach in the search for a holistic vision for the constant improvement, of the satisfaction of the social and economic needs of the populations. This study aims to alert governments and citizens to create the necessary instruments to respond to the challenges of the digital society, namely social, economic and financial equality, working conditions and protection of Human Rights.

KEYWORDS:*Democracy of the Future, Digital Society, Freedom, Social and Human Responsibility, Social and Economic Justice, Human Equality.*

I. INTRODUCTION

The term originates from the ancient Greek (dēmokratía *or "government of the people "), which was created from* demos or "people") and (*kratos* or "power") in the fifth century B.C. to define *the political systems* existing in the Greek city-states, mainly Athens; the term is an antonym of (aristokratia or "regime of a aristocracy" as its name implies). Although theoretically these definitions are opposites, in practice the distinction between them has been obscured historically. In the political system of Classical Athens, for example, democratic citizenship encompassed only men, children of an Athenian father and mother, free and over the age of 21, while foreigners, slaves, and women were groups excluded from political participation. Virtually all democratic governments in ancient and modern history, democratic citizenship was valid only for an elite of people, until emancipation was won for all adult citizens, in most modern democracies through movements for universal suffrage during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The democratic system contrasts with other forms of government in which power is held by one person—as in a monarchy—or in which power is held by a small number of people—as in an oligarchy. However, these oppositions, inherited from Greek philosophy, are currently ambiguous, because contemporary governments have mixed democratic, oligarchic and monarchical elements in their political systems. Karl Popper defined democracy in contrast to dictatorship or tyranny, thus privileging opportunities for people to control their leaders and remove them from office without the need for a revolution.

The term globalization emerged during the 1980s, but the phenomenon began much earlier, in the period of the Great Navigations of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This period was marked by the establishment of new trade routes in the world space and intense movement of goods and people between countries of different continents. Cartographic discoveries and the development of new navigation techniques are at the origins of this event. The transformations in the international economic system and the improvement of communications and transport made possible the evolution of this process.

Globalization is **the name attributed to the phenomenon of integration of the world space** through information and communication technologies (ICTs) and also means of transport, which have rapidly modernized and provided, in addition to greater dynamization of territories, acceleration and intensification of the flows of capital, goods, information and people throughout the planet. This process is also known as **globalization**.

The technical-scientific and informational development has provided the world globalization, that is, it has resulted in an integrated economic, social and cultural world space, through the world communication networks. **The** integration of the world space was only possible through technical advances in the communications and transport sectors. This process intensified with the Third Industrial Revolution, in which there was an increase in international flows of capital, goods, people and information.

This process was marked by the proliferation of transnational corporations and the consolidation of financial capitalism, promoting profound transformations in the international economic system and in the organization of labor. In its current phase, geographical networks have been created, and there has been an unprecedented expansion of the scales of information

propagation and also of consumption. Despite this, globalization has not expanded homogeneously across territories, placing a part of the world's population on the margins of this process.

II. SCIENTIFIC METHOD

It is an exploratory study that seeks to organize the main challenges facing citizens in the Democracy of the Future and their meaning presented in the literature of Information, Human, Social, Economic and Political Sciences. It is not a proposal of new terms and concepts, but rather an investigation that allows identifying a common denominator, among 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. The data collection is characterized by bibliographic research, on the terms and concepts referring to the different scientific fields.

It is a descriptive and analytical approach seeking to know and analyze the existing cultural and / or scientific contributions on this subject, from the literature review. The research was structured based on the systemic approach to understanding the main challenges that citizens face in the digital society, seeking in practical, operational or application terms, the solution of the "real life" problems of organizations (public and private) and people.

Theme and Problem of Research

The democratic system is, in my opinion, the most acceptable and practical, in the Digital Society, since it allows the active participation of people through Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), but the problem is that many people do not know exactly what this means, what types / models of participation, ways of working, the limits and the path of the future of the Digital Society. It would be ideal if people mutually agreed and created the general (global) rules on equal social, economic and political conditions that would be valid for the whole of society. However, society (countries, rulers, public and private organizations) and individual people, involves many decisions and all people cannot decide everything, whether for lack of interest, knowledge or time. It is necessary to distinguish decisions with global, national, family and personal impact and that affect the different people of the digital society. People can't do it either, because they hardly agree with everything and as such, general (global) rules/norms override individual decisions as long as individual freedom of choice and opinion is respected.

People accept, in the Democracy of the Future, of the digital society, a direct or indirect form of election of government representatives, resorting to ICTs. Candidates (political parties, civic associations or individuals), who present the best choice for the people, win the most votes at the polls, are given the mandate to represent the people and govern on their behalf in a given period. Today's democracy has many imperfections. Some of them are:

I. An elected government does not aim to meet the needs and expectations of those who did not vote for them, which leaves them unsatisfied.
II. Elected representatives are generally quite privileged and represent self-interest and the interests of the "friends" who helped them get elected.
III. Politicians are elected with financial support from the rich, and as such are "forced" to follow their interests.
IV. Decisions are made by authorities (legislative, executive and judicial) that do not always follow the will of the people.
V. Improvements in society occur when the "elite" supports the changes. If the "elite" doesn't support them, change doesn't happen. Such democracy cannot be fair.

Issues to discuss:

1. Do the social, economic and political changes of Future Democracy, in the Digital Society, improve people's Quality of Life and their social and economic well-being?
2. Will the shift from today's Democracy to the Democracy of the Future be peaceful or turbulent and complex?
3. Any citizen will be a citizen of the world (despite working and living somewhere or will continue to be a local citizen (country), despite working for public or private organizations/companies somewhere in the world and living locally, in a certain period (physical mobility).

Goals

The Information, Human, Social, Economic and Political Sciences seek a solution to the challenges of the Democracy of the Future, in the Digital Society, that is, to define the main paths and rules that allow to guide the citizens of the world, where the rights and duties (responsibilities), are equal, for all, without exception. These paths and the rules to be implemented by the elected rulers require a commitment from them and the people in their implementation.

The Democracy of the Future is based on the choice of the most competent, responsible, transparent, solidary citizens (projects of change) in Freedom and on the continuous and permanent evaluation of the results of their decision-making. To do this, people need to have equal powers in evaluating legislative, judicial and executive powers, regardless of whether they can evaluate other people. The power of permanent evaluation in the hands of the people, encourages the other powers to fulfill their mission, with the commitment to improve the social and economic conditions of the populations and not in the interests of themselves or of some. This kind of democracy will be simple, fast and efficient, and will completely change the basis of the social and economic policy of the rulers, in the Digital Society.

This article seeks to alert citizens to the main challenges to be faced in the change to the Democracy of the Future and the importance of the units of measurement of the decisions of the different powers and meanings, within the scope of the different sciences, from a theoretical framework. The objective is a debate on the challenges identified by scientific research, developed by the different Sciences, in their global matrix of use and preservation of natural resources, in the Digital Society. The theoretical discussion of the different units of measurement and the meanings of empirical research constitute the basis for the tracing of its structure, presented at the end, bringing together the units of measurement and the meanings according to their nature.

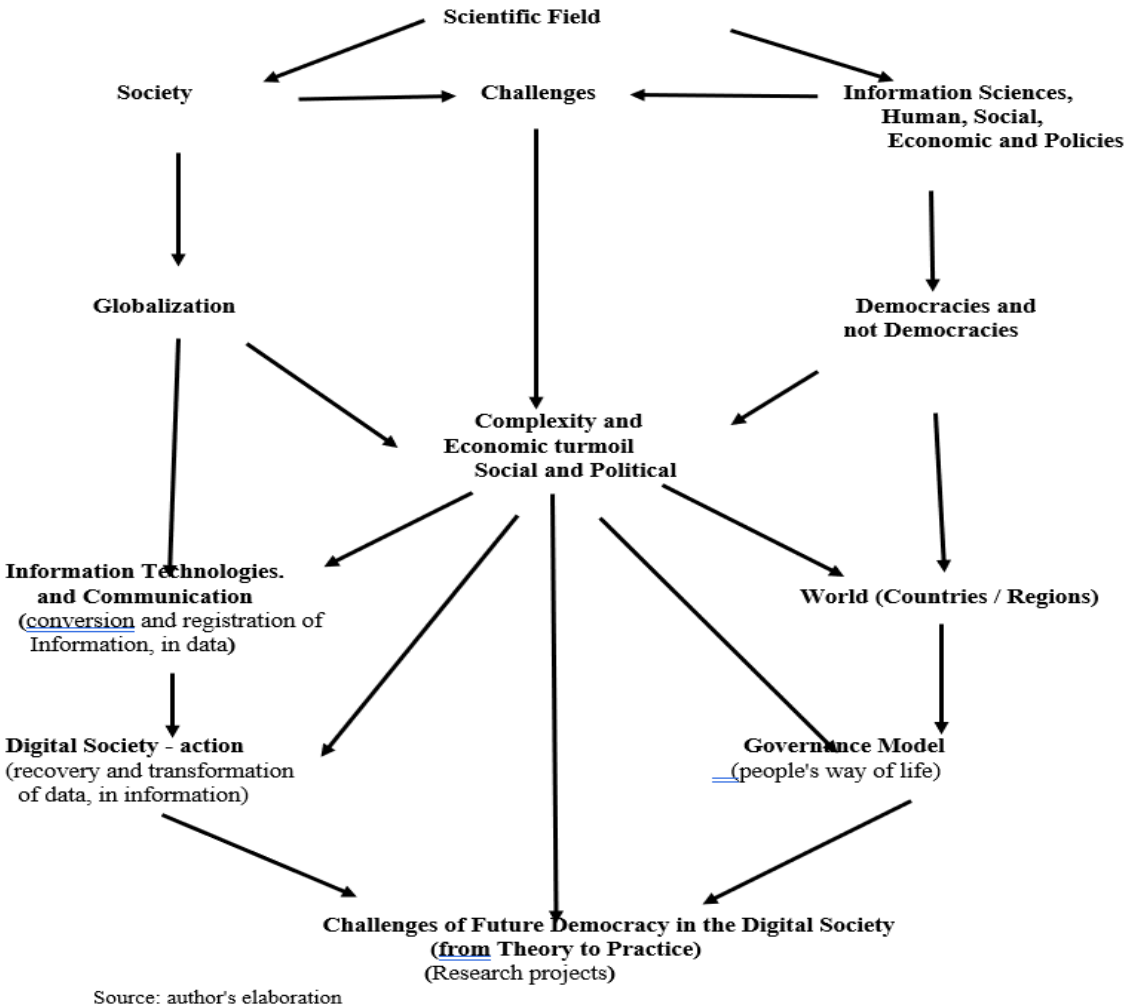
Methodological Approach

As for its nature, the research is qualitative, since it does not privilege the statistical study. Its focus is the collection of descriptive data, that is, the incidence of topics of interest in fields such as Information, Human, Social, Economic and Political Sciences, as well as other Sciences. With regard to the extremities, the research is exploratory in nature and descriptive, to the extent that the technique used is categorized, consensually, as a direct documentation study, which provides for the consultation of sources related to the study, in different *media*, printed or electronic. The complexity and turbulence of the digital society have led to the globalization of research, as essential processes for the development and innovation of science and technology. Information is the source of the energy that drives the "*engines*" of the Digital Society, but to be able 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 the creation of new environments and changes in the dynamics of people, in the way they understand reality, changing the form, how they relate to the environment, to other people and how they conceive themselves before their own reality. Both senses can be understood, as a result of the informational revolution, promoted mainly from the attempts to understand human intelligence, via computational bases. As a consequence, the pre-modern notion of information, as the *in-formation* that gives shape or shapes the human mind, is gradually being replaced by information, such as "data structure", Boland, (1987), representing intangible realities too large to be experienced directly by people's sense.

The research method is likely to cause two or more units of measurement and meanings to interact with each other. This interaction can range from the 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 the different sciences. It becomes necessary to understand, through a theoretical review of the concepts, through the historical reference documents; of a psychosocial analysis of the concepts of units of measurement and the meanings, applied to the Democracy of the Future, in the context of the social and economic life of the people. The research was structured based on the systemic approach, for the understanding of people's problems and possible improvements,in the Digital Society. This conceptual model is represented as follows:

Figure 1 – Challenges of Future Democracy, Digital Society



Source: author's elaboration

It presents the model of approach for intervention in information actions, in the academic space, with the purpose of production, sharing of information and knowledge, among the participants, in addition to promoting the development of

skills of search, retrieval, organization, appropriation, production and dissemination of relevant information for scientific researchers (social, economic, political and other interest groups), in the digital society.

III. THEORETICAL-METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH

Fundamental Concepts

Society

Second, Talcott Parsons and Niklas Luhmann (**Stichweh, 2005**), society is a closed network of social relations, forming a system that produces all the structures and all the processes that constitute it in its own borders, based on its own resources (material and immaterial). The social principle in man is of an expansive nature that cannot be confined to the circuit of a family, of friends, of a neighborhood; he [...] impels them to ever larger communities and nations British, (1771).

There are several types of society in the history of human social systems. For tens of thousands of years (approximately 70,000-10,000 B.C.) there were only hunter/gatherer societies, which consisted of a few dozen up to at most a few hundred members. They were mobile, migratory societies that moved when their nutritional resources were no longer sufficient to sustain their needs. Sedentary societies emerged together with agriculture, about 10,000 years ago, aggregating political and religious roles and institutions, and can be described, from a certain point, as politically unified states.

Human Dignity

Human dignity is the**right of every human** being to be respected and valued, as an individual and social, with his particular characteristics and conditions, by the simple fact of being a person. History shows many cases where human dignity has been subjugated. Therefore, it is a fact that the dignity of the human person is not limited to having access to education, health and housing/housing, for example. It also includes the most diverse faces of freedom, work, politics, integrity, among others, as well as how these values relate.

The principle of human dignity is the basis of practically every right of democratic countries, since it is the realization that the fullness of the human being must be respected and preserved by the figure of the State, that is, a set of principles and values that has the function of ensuring that every citizen has his **rights respected by the State**. The main objective is to ensure the well-being of all citizens. The principle is linked to rights and duties, it involves the conditions necessary for a person to have a dignified life, with respect to these rights and duties. It also relates to moral values, because it aims to ensure that the citizen is respected in his personal issues and values.

Many basic rights of the citizen (fundamental rights) are related to the principle of the dignity of the human person, especially **individual and collective rights and social rights.** Respect for fundamental rights is essential to guarantee the existence of dignity. It is precisely for this reason that the dignity of the human person is recognized as fundamental by the Constitution. Individual **and collective rights** are the basic rights that guarantee equality to all citizens. Some of the most important are:

- right to life.
- the right to security.,
- equal rights and obligations between men and women.
- freedom of expression of thought.
- freedom of religious belief.

They are also individual and collective rights: the protection of intimacy, freedom at work, freedom of movement and the freedom to exercise artistic or intellectual activities. Social rights, on the other hand , are the rights related to the well-being of the citizen. Here are some examples:

- right to education and work.
- guarantee of access to health, transportation, housing, security, social security.
- protection of labor rights.
- protection of children, motherhood and those most in need.

The dignity of the human person is **a principle of the Democratic Rule of Law**, which is the State that respects and guarantees the human rights and fundamental rights of its citizens. Thus, it can be understood as a principle that places limits on the actions of the State. In this way, the dignity of the human person should be used to base decisions made by the State, always considering the interests and well-being of citizens. This means that, in addition to guaranteeing people the exercise of their fundamental rights, the State must also act with sufficient care so that these rights are not disrespected. It is an obligation of the state, through governments, to take measures to guarantee the rights and well-being of citizens. In the same way, it is also the task of the State to ensure that **fundamental rights are not violated**.

Human rights

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 by reason, to all men, because they are all equal to each other – Principle of Equality between Men), of John Locke, defender of religious freedom and tolerance. However, in the era before Christ, there was already an embryonic perception of the concept and of human specificity:

- Cyrus Cylinder decree of 539 BC, - protects the right to equality and religious freedom;
- Pact of the Virtuous (Hifl-al-fudul) – drafted by Arab tribes around 590 A.D. is considered one of the first human rights alliances.
- No tribute may be imposed without the consent of Parliament,
- No subject may be imprisoned without demonstrated cause (the reassertion of the right of habeas corpus),
- No soldier may be quartered in the homes of citizens.

- Magna Carta - establishes equality before the law and the right to property.

After King John of England had violated several ancient laws and customs, by which England had been governed, in 1215 his subjects forced him to sign the Magna Carta, which enumerates what later came to be regarded as human rights. Among them were:

- The right of the church to be free from government interference,
- The right of all free citizens to own, 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 Right (1628), - the English Parliament passed a declaration of civil liberties, which safeguards civil liberties, such as, the right of *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, inspired human rights documents all over the world." (United States Declaration of Independence (1776).

The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) "is the oldest National Constitution, and it defines the principal organs of government, 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 Bill of Rights (1791).

The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the 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 Human Rights 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, calling into question the ancient ideals

The Bill of Rights (1791) - "... protects freedom of speech, freedom of religion, the right to keep and bear arms, freedom of assembly and freedom of petition.' (A Brief History of Human Rights - The Constitution of the United States of America (1787) and the Bill of Rights (1791).

Only in the nineteenth and twentieth century were initiatives with any significance put into practice, in the international protection of the human being, namely, in the eradication of the slave trade; treaties designed to improve the conditions of the sick and wounded in 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 Labour Organization (ILO), with the humanitarian mission of eradicating poverty and social inequalities, along with concerns for equal opportunities among men.

On October 24, 1945, the United Nations (UN) was created. It had as its founding principle the search and maintenance of peace, to rebuild 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 occurred after the end of the 2nd World War. A war where many atrocities were committed, 6 million lives were lost between soldiers and civilians, entire cities in ruins and flames in which the Holocaust is an example.

The UN Charter itself proclaims in its Article 55 that the United Nations shall promote "respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all ***without distinction as to race, sex language, or religion."*** Article 55 of the UN Charter. In Article 56, the member states express their willingness to develop cooperative actions with the UN, both joint and individual, with a view to achieving those objectives (States with different legal and cultural origins, 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 established for the first time in history, the universal protection of human rights, as an ideal to be achieved by all peoples and all nations, in the promotion of respect for these rights and freedoms. The 14 States that signed this Declaration were bound to accept the precepts that, although they do not have coercive value or legal imposition, have ethical and moral value, with the commitment assumed, making them responsible for developing the appropriate legislation in their countries so that these rights could be implemented.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, of the United Nations, came to mark the twentieth century, bringing the 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 in particular to inspire the constitutions of recent states and democracies. Two decades later, since the UDHR of 1948 had only the status of a recommendation (resolution), therefore not binding, States needed to create other instruments.

At the United Nations Assembly of 16 December 1966, two multilateral treaties were concluded which recognised 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 mandatory and binding precepts of the signatory States.

The ICCPR is a Compact that reinforces civil rights (individual freedoms) and political rights (access to justice and political participation). The ICESCR has established human rights - economic, social and cultural that must be realized in the long term, in a progressive and programmatic way, whose duty of compliance 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, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, International Convention on the Rights of the Child, Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Treatment or Punishment, Inhuman or Degrading, among many others." (Universal Declaration of Human Rights). It was up to the signatory States to transpose into the domestic legal order of these States, producing new legislation, adapting the existing

one and giving it effective application in order for these norms to be respected. Failure to comply with the rules, whether by acts or omissions, puts States in a situation of having to justify themselves before the International Court of Justice (ICJ).

Morals and Ethics

Morality is a fundamental characteristic/norm that guides human behaviors in society, presupposing individual freedom. In the impossibility of predicting all actions, morality develops values to which actions must be subjected. Morality assumes a practical and normative character, in which the way one should act is directly related to socially constructed moral values. The Christian morality that served as the basis for the construction of Western culture considers human freedom in its relation to free will. Even so, the freedom to act is conditioned on the values described in the sacred texts. Especially in the Gospel of the New Testament, in the teachings of Christ and in all its historical and cultural unfolding. Thus, the construction of the thought of a "virtuous" life is based on good examples and the construction of a social habit. For this reason, morality is always inserted in a particular context. Each social group at different historical times has different moral values.

Ethics are the universal characteristics/norms of human behavior, such as, "what is good or evil," "what is just or unjust," "what is a virtue or not." 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 the professions. Targino (2006, p. 135), states that the definitions of ethics originate from the "Greek term ethos, as the etymology suggests, is the part of philosophy that deals with the reflection on customs, encompassing the guidelines". While the moral "term of the 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 morality, but not always in an adequate way. It has also been understood as the science of human conduct towards beings and their fellow men, to study the action of men and their considerations of value. In this research, we emphasize its importance for justice professionals, highlighting ethical action in the context of today's society and, mainly, with regard to their social responsibility.

With a view to the theoretical foundation of the study, we address 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 a treatise or science of duty." Ethics is an area of philosophy, which studies the fundamental principles of human actions and behavior, while morality is a social construction formed by the set of these actions and behaviors, through the understanding of which are the good and which are the bad, aiming to create norms that guide the actions of people who belong to the same group. Etymologically, the terms derive from the same idea:

Description	Ethics	Moral
Definition	Philosophical reflection on the driving principles of human actions: right and wrong; just and unjust; Good and bad.	Cultural code of norms that guide the actions of individuals inserted in a given context
Character	Universal	Private (cultural/personal)
Reasons	Theory of principles	Customs and habits (behaviors)
Examples	Deontology Bioethics	Christian morality Greek morals

Ethics is an area of knowledge dedicated to the investigation of the principles of human actions, that is, ethics is the study on the bases of morality. It develops theories about human behavior and the construction of socially shared values that guide actions. The reflection on key concepts such as "the good", "justice" and "virtue", build ethical knowledge, initiated in the anthropological period of Greek philosophy marked by the triad Socrates-Plato-Aristotle. In Aristotle's*Nicomachean Ethics*, the philosopher defines ethics as a discipline of philosophy and seeks to define the relationship between human behaviors, virtue, and happiness.

In Aristotle's*Nicomachean Ethics*, the philosopher defines ethics as a discipline of philosophy and seeks to define the relationship between human behaviors, virtue, and happiness. Thus, while ethics is concerned with questions such as: "What is good?", "What is justice?", "What is virtue?"; Morality develops from the approval or disapproval of a conduct. "Is this action just?", "Is it right to act in a certain manner?"

Freedom

The concept of freedom originates from the Latin *libertas* and means the condition of the individual who has the right to make choices autonomously, according to his own will. Philosophy classifies freedom as the independence of the human being, autonomy, self-determination, spontaneity and intentionality. Examples of freedoms:

- Freedom of thought;
- Freedom of expression;
- Religious freedom;
- Freedom of the press;
- Freedom to come and go;

According to Aristotle, (384, B.C. – 322, B.C.), human beings are endowed with freedom by God so that they can freely follow His teachings and achieve a virtuous faith-oriented life. According to Kant, (1724-1804), freedom is related to autonomy, it is the right of the individual to create rules for himself, which must be followed rationally. Sartre, (1905-1980), affirms that freedom is the condition of life of the human being, the principle of man is to be free. Human beings would be doomed to be free, they are obliged to make choices and to build their own existence.

Thus, one can think of freedom as the right to act according to one's own will, without limitations imposed by other people, which means that the freedom of one individual ends, when the freedom of the other begins.

Democracy

Second, Geofe Eley, (1850-2000), the **history of democracy** refers to a set of historical processes whose origin is traditionally located in classical Athens and through which political discourses and practices of a democratic nature were forged.Democracy, in turn, is a concept of difficult definition, based on the notion of a political community in which all people have the right to participate in political processes and to debate or decide policies equally and, in the modern sense, in which certain rights are universalized from the principles of freedom of expression and human dignity. The concept of democracy, although closely linked to the idea of lawand constitutionalism, is not limited to legal equality, and also depends on democratic (i.e., equal for all) access to diverse social spaces and benefits

Second, Josiah Ober, (2007), the term democracy has Greek origin (δημοκρατία, dēmokratía) and means "power of the people". In Ancient Greece, the term was often used in a derogatory manner, since most Greek intellectuals, among them Plato (2014), and Aristotle, were opposed to a government of popular initiative.

Since ancient times, the most important characteristics to define democracy are the equality of citizens, freedom and the rule of law. These principles are reflected when all eligible citizens are equal before the law and have access to legislative processes. In representative democracies, each vote carries the same weight, with no restrictions on who claims to be representative, and the freedom of eligible citizens is protected by a constitution. Democracy requires three fundamental principles:

1. Sovereignty resides in the citizen (vote).
2. Political equality before the law.
3. Social norms/rules/laws are only acceptable if they reflect the first two principles cited.

According to Plato (2014), the essence of democracy, as he saw it in his hometown, is that "all citizens achieve equal rights and public offices are filled by lottery. He appreciated the knowledge of the experts, but democracy as a symbol of a regime gave the judgment of each one an equal share in the resolution of the supreme problems of the State." He saw the ideal society as a society stratified by merit, incompatible with the proposals of equality, and the resentment of what affected him in the face of the circumstance that led to the death of Socrates could not be alleviated. In this context of Plato's critique the essence of the Greek concept of democracy is extracted: "the *idea of absolute equality, the apex of which was manifested in the provision of public offices by lottery."*

According to Plato, (2014), "*The city exudes freedom and within it everyone can do what they are given in Ghana*." The freedom it deals with is to feel free from all kinds of duties, to organize life as it pleases. It is the triumph of the individual. The Greek democratic man criticized by Plato would correspond to the contemporary *individualistic type*, ambitious, apt to become avaricious and tyrannical; thus a risk for democracy to degenerate into its impure form. Equal rights to fill public office, so that everyone is guaranteed the possibility of participating in government. This is the essence bequeathed to us by Greek antiquity to guide the evolution of the concept of democracy. Since that date, the dilemma of how to achieve equality without stifling difference has been under discussion; how to include the individual as a social unit, without denying the person, as a universe of aspirations.

The concept of democracy as conceived by the Greeks, in their transition to modern democracy, retains in its entirety the power of the people, but alters the mode or procedure of which this right is exercised. From direct democracy we have moved on to representative democracy.

Madison, (1791-1795), defends representative democracy in texts such as: "*The scheme of representation as a substitute for a meeting of citizens in person being at most but very imperfectly known to ancient polity, it is in more modern times only that we are to expect instructive examples."* Now this shows the imperfections of direct democracy for the exercise of government (elitist view), poorly disguised under logical arguments, such as the territorial dimension and professional specialization. The territorial dimension constitutes a physical obstacle to the exercise of direct democracy. Similarly, participation in government affairs is not harmonizable with the individual concern of the citizen to settle his private affairs which take up most of his time.

Democracy is the political regime in which sovereignty is exercised by the people. The word Democracy originates from the Greek *demokratía* which is composed of *demos* (meaning people) and *kratos* (meaning power). In this political system, power is exercised by the people through universal suffrage, that is:

1. Government in which the people exercise sovereignty.
2. A political system in which citizens elect their rulers through periodic elections.
3. A regime in which there is freedom of association, of expression and in which there are no hereditary or arbitrary class distinctions or privileges.
4. A form of political organization in which the people directly control the management of society, through referendums, plebiscites and other legal instruments.
5. Social organization in which the people, through elections, grant mandates to representatives who will exercise authority on their behalf.

Thus, democracy is a series of principles that guide the action of governments so that they guarantee respect for freedoms and comply with the general will of the population. In democracy, all political decisions must conform to the will of the people. Currently, most countries have models of representative democracy. There is no consensus on the correct way to define democracy, but equality, freedom and the rule of law have been identified as the most important features since ancient times. These principles are reflected when all eligible citizens are equal before the law and have equal access to legislative processes.

Democracy is the **political regime** in which sovereignty is **exercised by the people**. The word democracy originates from the Greek *demokratía* which is composed of *demos* (meaning people) and *kratos*(meaning power). In this political system, power is exercised by the people through universal suffrage. It is a regime of government in which all important political

decisions are with the people, who **elect their representatives by vote**. It is a regime of government that can exist in the presidential system, where the president is the greatest representative of the people, or in the parliamentary system, where there is the president elected by the people and the prime minister who makes the main political decisions.

Democracy is a regime of government that can exist as well, in the republican system, or in the monarchical system, where there is the appointment of the prime minister who actually rules. Democracy has principles that protect human freedom and is based on majority rule, associated with individual and minority rights. One of the main functions of democracy is the protection of fundamental human rights, such as freedom of expression, religion, legal protection, and opportunities for participation in the political, economic, and cultural life of society. Citizens have the express rights, and the duties, to participate 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 in parliament. According to some eighteenth-century philosophers and thinkers, democracy was the right of the people to choose and control the government of a nation. In some countries, the evolution of democracy has occurred very quickly, as in the case of Portugal and Spain. Despite this, this rapid evolution has created political insecurity. In countries such as England and France, a slower evolution of democracy has resulted in the development of stable political structures.

Social democracy is the designation of political parties and currents with Marxist tendencies and that emerged before the First World War. 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 cradle of democracy, where mainly in Athens government was exercised by all free men. At that time, individuals were elected or drawn lots for the different offices. In the Athenian democracy, there were popular assemblies, where proposals were presented, and free citizens could vote. Racial democracy is directly related to the problem of racism and discrimination, and it was Brazil that was able to deal with and solve these problems in a way that other countries could not, (e.g. the United States). 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. In representative or indirect democracy, the people express their will by electing representatives who make decisions on their behalf. The main differences between democracy and dictatorship are:

- **Model of elections -** in a democracy, elections are direct, that is, the people 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 legislative, executive and judicial functions independently of each other. In dictatorship, powers are concentrated in the hands of a single person or group.
- **Protection of rights –** a democratic state protects and secures the rights and duties of citizens, as well as constantly legislating new rights and duties. In a dictatorship, rights are often disrespected.
- **Popular demonstrations -** popular demonstrations are common in a democracy, taking into account freedom of expression. A dictatorial government uses censorship to prevent popular demonstrations, news or any kind of broadcasting contrary to its ideals.

The Dictatorship is one of the undemocratic or anti-democratic regimes, that is, governments are managed by a person or political entity where there is no popular participation, or in which this participation occurs in a very restricted way. In dictatorship, power is only in one organ, unlike in democracy, where power is in several organs, such as the legislative, executive and judicial. Dictatorship is a form of authoritarianism.

A government is said to be democratic when it is exercised with the consent of the governed, and dictatorial, the opposite. A government is said to be totalitarian when it exerts influence over broad aspects of citizens' lives and behavior, and liberal the other way around. It happens, however, that often totalitarian regimes exhibit dictatorial characteristics, and dictatorial regimes exhibit 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 unites the executive, legislative and judicial powers. Thus, the dictator controls the most important sectors of his country, to legitimize his position. It is important to remember that throughout history, the term "dictatorship" has been used to characterize different forms of political organization (Ancient Rome, Revolutionary France). According to Karina Vanderlei Silva and Maciel Henrique Silva, (2006), it can be pointed out, as common elements in contemporary dictatorships: the curtailment of individual political rights, wide 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 faced with emergency situations, a dictator was appointed by the consuls to assume power until the situation returned to normal. The powers conferred on the dictator were total, but even so, the dictator was answerable for his acts before the law, needing to justify them after the end of the period of the dictatorship. Dictatorships could not last more than six months. In cases of internal or external danger, when the state of *tumultus*(equivalent to the "state of siege" of modern times) was proclaimed, all public guarantees were suspended, and all classes were placed at the disposal of the State. In such an emergency, it was incumbent upon any of the consuls to appoint a *dictator*, for a maximum period of six months; an appointment which normally fell to the other consul. The term dictatorship comes from this title given to magistrates. The dictator was invested with the power of *imperium*, with unlimited authority, entirely irresponsible, overriding in an absolute way all the magistracies, respecting only the sacred prerogatives of the tribunes of the plebs. The institution of dictatorship, as an exceptional magistracy, was justified in the name of public salvation: *salus publica suprema lex est*.

However, after the second century BC, the Roman dictatorships lost this character of legality, acquiring characteristics similar to what is understood 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, superimposing it with rules established according to the conveniences for the perpetuation of this power." An example of this are the descriptions of tyrannies in Sicily and ancient Greece, whose characteristics resemble the actions taken by modern dictatorships.]

According to Plato and Aristotle, (2014), "tyrants are dictators who gain despotic social and political control by the use of force and fraud. Intimidation, terror, and disregard for civil liberties are among the methods used to seize and maintain power. Succession in this state of lawlessness is always difficult."]

Aristotle attributed the relatively short life of tyrannies "to the inherent weakness of systems that use force without the support of law." Machiavelli also came to the same conclusion about tyrannies and their collapse when it came to the successions of tyrants, for "this (tyranny) is the regime that has the shortest duration, and of all, it is the one that has the worst ending," and, in his words, "the fall of tyrannies is due to the unpredictable misfortunes of luck."]

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

The coup was triggered from the very structures of government, with the establishment of a state of exception and later, the suppression of the other parties and democratic normality. To find legitimacy, dictatorships rely on caudillist theories, which often affirm the divine destiny of the leader, who is seen as a savior, whose mission is to free his people, or to be considered the father of the poor and oppressed, etc.
Other dictatorships rely on more elaborate theories, using the imposed legislation, often admitting a democracy with political parties, including elections and sometimes even allowing a certain opposition, as long as it is controlled. The legal provisions become institutionalized and are so functional that the party of those who called it will always win.

Dictatorships always use brute force to stay in power, which is applied systematically and constantly. Another expedient is institutional propaganda, constant and saturation political propaganda, 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 of imposing a certain system on the population is subliminalpropaganda, where mental defenses are not on guard against the information that is entering the collective unconscious.] This is done by saturation in all media. Censorship also has a very important role, because it does not let the relevant information get to the public opinion that is being manipulated.] In this way, the two extremes are linked: first the environment is saturated with propaganda in favor of the regime, then all *bad* news that may alter the mental state favorable to the imposed system is censored.

Philosophical Sciences

Considering the philosophical doing, as the art of interpreting reality from the formulation of conceptual schemes about the human being, nature and society, Philosophy can face the problems that arise from the new organizational dynamics of society in the present day? We understand that Philosophy alone, without interdisciplinary tools of analysis, does not seem capable of facing, perhaps even formulating, the problems raised by ICTs.
Floridi (2011, p. 14) characterizes IF as follows: a philosophical area that is related to:

a) Critical investigation of the conceptual nature and basic principles of information, including its dynamics, use, and sciences; and refers to IF as a new area of research in Philosophy, guided by the investigation of the content of information and not only in its form, quantity and probability of occurrence (thus differing from the proposal of Shannon & Weaver, (1949/1998). It is important to emphasize that the IF 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 IF has its own methods for the analysis of philosophical, traditional and new problems. These methods have as a central element information, are interdisciplinary in nature and maintain the relationship with computational methods, in addition to 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 the 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 ICTs that, according to the degree of familiarity of people with such technologies, promote a sense of dependence on being online. In addition, even if people do not want to be online most of the time, such a feeling remains due to the spread of informational 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 ICTs in society for people's daily action?
Considering (a) and (b), Floridi (2002, 2011) argues that IF 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. On the other hand, 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 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 investigation, Floridi, (2011). The importance of this issue also arises because, as we have indicated, there is no consensus among scholars in its proposals.

Since the "informational turn in philosophy", several conceptions of information have been developed in an attempt to respond to concerns about the ontological and epistemological status of information. Although Adams (2003) indicates the milestone 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 it." In addition, for this author, information would be a third constituent element of the world, next to 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 arising from the reduction of possibilities of choice of messages, which 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 would be made the representations, beliefs, meaning, mind, mental states, among others.
- Stonier (1997, p. 21): information would be on the physical plane, objectively, and the theorists of Physics, in turn, would have to expand their vocabulary and admit *theinfons* (particles of information) as a constituent element of the world. «(...) information exists. It does not need to be perceived to exist. It does not need to be understood to exist. It doesn't require intelligence to interpret it."
- Floridi (2011, p. 106): «Information is a well-formed data, with meaning and truth». Well-formed and meaningful data that refers 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 have their appearance of "true" and "truth" related to the adequate provision of the contents to which they refer in the world.
- Gonzalez (2014): conceives of information as an organizing process of dispositional (counterfactual) relations that bring together properties attributable to material/immaterial objects, structures, or forms) in specific contexts.

Although the concepts of information indicated are distinct, there is in common the naturalistic stance in relation to the objective aspect of information. Moreover, proposals such as those of Dretske and Floridi denote an intrinsic relationship between information and truth. According to Dretske (1981, p. 45), to characterize "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 tell about its source. This source can be interpreted, such as the world itself, enabling the treatment of another problem of IF, that is: 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 cognitive agent and the world. For Dretske (1981, p. 56), the information processors of the sensory systems of organisms are channels for the reception of information about the external world.

The naturalistic stance in philosophy consists in disregarding the supernatural in the explanation of nature and mind, conceiving reality constituted only by 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; Thus, if someone 'knows that P' it is because he is told 'that P'. In such a 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 natures 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?", "can information underpin an ethical theory?", among others. Presenting the topics (problems) and theories (hypotheses and explanations) of 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, 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 carried out 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 mechanically constitutes thinking.

This understanding enabled the development of mechanical models of the mind, which initially generated two strands in Cognitive Science (Teixeira, 1998): the 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 notions is that they both accept the thesis that to simulate is to explain, in order to attribute to mechanical models, the value of theories. This is an example of an approach to another question specific to IF: what is the relationship between information and intelligent thinking?

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

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

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

As we have 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 IF, as an autonomous and interdisciplinary area of Philosophy: interdisciplinary due to its relationship with Computing, Sociology, Engineering, among other areas, generating methods and theories to deal with its problems; and autonomous, due to its own (and new) problems. In step with the development of the academic scope of IF, the influence in the social sphere is also highlighted, illustrated by the growing presence of ICTs in the daily lives of people and organizations. Such a presence would be influencing the dynamics of contemporary society, constituting the "Information Society".

Social sciences

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

Conte, a French thinker known as the father of Positivism, proposed to carry out studies on society with the utmost objectivity, in search of universal laws that would govern the behavior of social life everywhere. His theory, also called Social Physics, proposed that the whole of society should evolve in the same way and in the same direction. And so he proposed his Law of the Three States, according to which every society should evolve from a theological or fictitious state, to a metaphysical or abstract state, and from there, finally, to a positive or scientific state, Lakatos & Marconi, (1999, p. 45-46). Comte's Social Physics provides the theoretical foundation for a process that had already been happening in Europe two centuries earlier, a process by which "the calculus of probabilities, whose foundations are laid by Pascal and Huyghes around 1660, becomes a new form of objectification of human societies" Mattelart, (2002, p. 18).

It developed 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. In a direction only partially distinct, since its direct influence comes from Darwin's work on the evolution of species, the Englishman Herbert Spencer begins, 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 about networks (Saint-Simon), Spencer elaborates his organizational model of understanding social reality, promoting an analogy between society and a living organism, with the parts 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 nineteenth 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 were carried out by Émile Durkheim, "French, considered by many scholars the founder of sociology, as a science independent 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 Law of the Three States and Spencer's biological perspective, which is not taken without criticism. His study of suicide is the application of the rules of the sociological method defined by him two years earlier: the exclusion of individual and psychological causes, the search for properly social causes, the elaboration of laws and quantification.

With Durkheim, the Functionalist Sociology is inaugurated, also known as the Theory of Integration, which sees society as a whole formed by constituent, differentiated and interdependent parts. The study of society must always be carried out from the point of view of the functions of its units. In the twentieth 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 the other social sciences, such as anthropology, political science and communication.

This is the trend of structured sociology courses throughout the century, the nature of the first professional associations, and the type of research funded by major foundations and government agencies. The first major split 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 sufficiently contradictory to be historically surmountable", Demo, (1989, p. 89-90). Also known as the Theory of Conflict, the Marxist perspective is the first model really proper to the social sciences – since functionalism has its concepts and methods borrowed from physics and biology – although an approximation with philosophy has been built.

Another approach from the social sciences places 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" posture in opposition to the "sociology of bureaucrat or intelligence official", that is, to the positivist and functionalist social sciences.

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 actually constitutes manifestations of both functionalism and Marxism, as exemplified by the works of Manilowski, Radcliffe-Brown and even the "structural-functionalism" of Parsons, in the first case, or the works of Levi-Strauss & Althusser, in the second.

The second split in the social sciences occurred from the fusion of the works of two other precursors of the social sciences – Max Weber and Georg Simmel – both German. 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, endowed with meaning for him – in that it differs radically from the concept of social fact in Durkheim. His work on *the Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* seeks to explain the development of capitalism in the United States, not from the idea of the linear progress of societies or the functions of each part in the whole (functionalism) or the material, economic conditions, or the class conflict 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 from the small daily interactions, originating a field known as microsociology. The importance of his works will be given 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, carries out work in "social ecology" from an ethnographic perspective. The first major attempt at synthesis between the two possibilities of understanding social reality (the focus on the micro dimension and the interpretive attitude of the subjects) was achieved by Symbolic Interactionism, a current that brought together researchers from different schools whose precursor is George Herbert Mead. One of his students, Herbert Blumer, coined 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 a process of interpretation (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 everyday interactions, but also of processes of institutionalization and socialization.

Yet another current, along the same lines, is 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 before which they find themselves, 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 it is understood, as a product of the continuous activity of men. Beginning a whole branch of studies, it spread first to the University of California (Sudnow, Schegloff, Zimmerman), then to the United States (Cicourel), England (Heritage) and France (Fornel, Ogien). If until the 70s, 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 and sociological micro currents.

All this movement has provoked, from the 80s, an attempt at synthesis between the different perspectives, their proposals and their concepts. Examples of this work are the Theory of Communicative Action of 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 Daily Life of Michel de Certeau and Michel Maffesoli, the Cultural Studies descendants of the Birmingham School and which have today in Stuart Hall, Douglas Kellner and Fredric Jameson its main representatives, the proposals of connection with the hermeneutics of Clifford Geertz, among others.

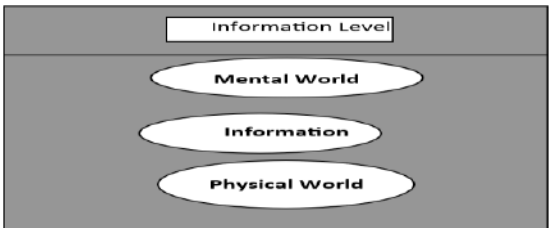
Economics

Introduction

In an age of globe-scale communications, information is the link that unites us. By being able to transmit it in large quantities quickly from continent to continent, we transform a largely separate and diverse world into a single global megalopod. The messenger on foot has given way to information highways and social networks on a global scale. Anything can be a valuable asset, to be compiled, stored, duplicated, sold, stolen, and sometimes a source of murder. Many people around the world spend their workday gathering, studying, and processing information. Industries have developed to produce equipment and software to store and process information.

Organizations have many physical assets that have to be managed, such as products, financial assets and others. Information about the environment in terms of strategic management today requires permanent attention and can be considered as the most valuable asset, so in the so-called knowledge-based economies, information is taking on an increasing part of the cost of doing business successfully.

Although we can store it by employing various physical supports, the information itself is not physical, but abstract and not 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 world of human thoughts.



In industrial society, *crude*oil was an important source of energy used to power engines and power factories. But before the chemical energy of petroleum could be unleashed, *crude* had to be refined, that is, into usable forms such as gasoline and heating fuel. Similarly, information is the source of the energy that drives the "*engines*" of the so-called knowledge society, but in order to use it we need to convert it into a usable form: **knowledge**.

But when we refine information to turn it into knowledge, quality outweighs quantity. When we convert information into knowledge, we add value to it and make it more expensive.

During the last few years, in most Western countries it has been seen that the industrial sector, largely responsible for the wealth they have accumulated since the nineteenth century, is losing weight in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) compared to the service sector, a result of the transformation of industrial society into the informational society for three reasons:

- Organizations increasingly depend on the intelligent use of information and are becoming information-intensive organizations.
- People in their daily acts consume large amounts of information both in terms of leisure and in terms of business.
- The information industry has emerged disguised within the diversity of the service sector, as a sufficient entity to be a sector (perhaps the best) of the large sectors of the economy (primary, secondary and tertiary sector). The industry can consist of three sectors: information content, information distribution (access centres and distribution channels, such as telecommunications operators and the Internet) and information processing (information technology).

The transformation of organizations into informationally intensive is perhaps the clearest trigger of the shift to the informational society. The analysis of the most successful organizations in the world seems to indicate that it originated in the better management of information and knowledge about the global and immediate environment, that is, those that were able to better detect the needs of the market and that best 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).

Globalisation, a concept often used for business organisations, has to be seen beyond the opening or not of borders, countries, markets and organisations themselves. Information, regardless of its geographical origin or temporal moment, is available to us through the keypad of the telephone, a computer or the television screen. The world is increasingly seen as a field of opportunities, business and markets, given that with the evolution of Information Systems, supported by Information and Communication Technologies, they are revolutionizing management concepts, the posture of managers, the performance of organizations and, above all, the positioning of markets. It is necessary to reconsider concepts such as Strategy or Organization or Structure, emerging new concepts such as Organizational Urbanism, for example.

Economic reality

Economic theory has difficulty explaining the major economic events of recent years and could not have predicted them. All predictions have been surpassed by reality. The economic model that the world needs is a model that will have to conceive of the economy also as "ecology", "environment" and "configuration", as being composed of tangible and intangible variables, Drucker, (1989).

Economic policy requires politicians to understand the key concepts of economic theory, since economic reality is too complex. What we have been witnessing is an "economic policy" directed at specific problems, that is, what we can call "economic hygiene" or "preventive economics" whose goal should not only be to "cure" a crisis, but rather to strengthen the health of the economy to make it resistant even to severe attacks of crises.

Contemporary economic theories assume that the only economy that matters is the economy of each country. They recognize that many economic transactions cross national borders. However, they imagine that these transactions can be controlled through the management of each country's internal economy. This axiomatic assumption does not confer with reality. Economically active people and companies have never submitted to macroeconomics and have always managed to "sabotage" its yoke. In addition, there are things that happen in microeconomics that profoundly affect macroeconomics, but that are not controlled and are practically unaffected, with what happens with money, credit, interest rates and taxes. Today there is the world economy.

Keynes surmised that the speed of circulation of money indicates the rate at which people spend their money and that it remains unchanged to this day. The facts clearly indicate that people can change their habits of speed of circulation of money quickly, unexpectedly and quite independently of the current economic policy (Shumpeter, 1934).

In reality, it is the ability of people and businesses to change the speed of circulation of money that causes all government attempts to control the economy to fail. For example, if people decide not to invest their availabilities, the economy does not grow, but if people invest their availabilities, the economy grows. This shows that a legitimate decision profoundly affects and largely determines the national macroeconomy. However, the economist has nothing to say about how to make this decision, nor does he have the means to include it in his models.

Contemporary economic theories have great difficulty in dealing with the impacts of technological development, innovation and social change. Economists know the importance of technology, innovation and social change and have made several attempts to incorporate technology and changes into their models, but all attempts have failed for the same reason: there is little correlation between monetary policy, credit and interest rates, entrepreneurship and innovation. However, entrepreneurship and innovation are able to change the economy in a very short space of time, thus showing that they are true masters – and not macroeconomics.

The world economy is today a distinct reality from national economies, which it profoundly affects and in extreme circumstances, controls. The world economy sets strict limits on macroeconomics, especially with regard to money, credit and interest rates.

Economic rationality does not mean the same thing in the world economy, where the time intervals of economic decisions are also different. These intervals are very short, such as decisions regarding the exchange rate and the market of products and services, business decisions – distinct from commercial decisions – however, the time intervals in the world economy are longer.

In the world market, "sales" are not sales: they are returns on long-term investments. What matters is the total return over the entire lifetime of the investment. This of course is also "profit maximization"; But that's not what microeconomic theory means by the term. It is not just reality that runs counter to the economic model we currently have to work with. There is on the horizon a new challenge to the theoretical foundations and methodology of economics – a subtle, insidious challenge potentially as grave as reality.

Information for wealth creation

Companies are created to generate wealth, not to control costs. But this fact is not reflected in traditional measurements. Companies are also created to generate wealth and not to be liquidated. This requires information that allows managers to make informed judgments. For wealth creation, managers need four types of information:

- **Basic information –** is information of an operational nature that allows you to make concrete decisions, such as cash flow and liquidity projections, invoices to be received and payable, etc. It can be compared to the information that the doctor needs in a routine medical consultation of a client – weight, temperature, blood pressure and urine analysis, and so on.
- **Productivity information – is information about** the productivity of key resources, that is, the productivity of the total factor. This explains the growing popularity of value-added analysis (VAL) which is based on something we have known for a long time: what we normally call profit, the money left over to remunerate capital, is not usually, at all, profit. Until a business makes a profit higher than its cost of capital, it works at a loss.

The company continues to give less to the economy than it consumes in resources. It does not cover all of its costs unless the advertised profit exceeds the cost of capital. Until then, it does not create wealth: it destroys it. Another important piece of information for measuring productivity is *benchmarking* – comparing our performance to the best performance in the industry or better, with the absolute best performance. *Benchmarking* correctly assumes what one organization does any other organization can also do. It also assumes to be at least as good, as the leader is a precondition for being competitive.

- **Competency information** – leadership is based on being able to do something that others can't do or have difficulty doing, even badly. It is based on core competencies that combine market value or customer value with a special capacity of the producer or supplier.

Core competencies are different in all organizations: they are, so to speak, part of a company's personality; Every organization needs a core competency: innovation, and every organization needs a way to record and evaluate its innovative performance.

- **Information on the allocation of resources** – for the creation of wealth it is important to allocate scarce resources: capital and efficient people. These convert into action the information that managers need for the management of the business, that is, whether the company will have a good or bad performance.

These four types of information only inform managers about the current business. They inform and guide tactics. As for strategy, managers need information about the global and immediate environment, and internal information about the competence and capacity of the organization's resources, that is, information about what is outside and what is inside.

Managers have to keep in mind that within organizations there are only cost centers. The only profit center is a customer whose check has not been returned, that is, it is outside the organization. Big changes start outside of organizations. For example, a retailer might know a lot about the people who shop in their store (their customers). But no matter how successful it is, no retailer has more than a small share of the market as customers. It is always through non-customers that basic changes begin and become meaningful.

The commercial role in the financial sector did not originate in the banks. Molecular biology and genetic engineering were not developed by the pharmaceutical industry. While the vast majority of businesses continue to operate only locally or regionally, they all face, at least potentially, global competition. Of course, not all information about the surrounding environment is available. There is no information, even of little confidence, about the economic, political, technological, etc. situation of some countries. Even in countries where this information is available, some managers are distracted by it. A serious cause of business failure is the vulgar assumption that conditions—trends in the market and the environment in general—should be how managers think they are, or at least how they think they should be.

An adequate information system has to include information that makes managers question this assumption. It should get them to ask the right questions, not just give them the information they expect. This presupposes first that managers know what information they need to support themselves in strategic decision-making. It also requires that they obtain this information with some regularity and that it be filtered. Finally, it requires them to systematically integrate information into their strategic decision-making.

Many managers have not yet begun to worry about strategic information. Thinking about the information managers need requires someone who knows and understands highly specialized information science. There is too much information for

non-experts to solve the problem. The sources of information are of a total diversity and you need someone who can filter the essential information from the complementary and the one that does not matter. Companies themselves generate information, such as about their customers, suppliers, their products, etc. But information about the global and immediate surroundings can only be obtained through external sources.

Another need for help is information specialists who must organize/architect the information in a way that allows questioning and questioning the company's current strategy. Providing data is not enough. Our traditional mindset, even though managers may use mathematical and statistical techniques and impenetrable sociological slang, has always understood in some way that the business was to buy cheap and sell expensive. The new approach defines a business as an organization that adds value and creates wealth.

The Information Economy

George Bernard Shaw, (1984), said that if someone has an apple and I have another apple and we exchange the apples, we will both continue with an apple, but if I have an idea and someone else has another idea and we exchange our ideas, then each of us will have 2 ideas. This metaphor that seems obvious represents well the principle of the information economy.

Information Economics is an interdisciplinary field of study between the Economic Sciences, the Business Sciences, the Information Science and the Communication Sciences that deal with information as a commodity and production good necessary for economic activities in the capitalist system Industrial. Information Economics assumed great importance after the publication of the works of (Greenwald and Stiglitz, 1986), which made it a subdiscipline of Economics and culminated in the Nobel Prize (2001) in Economic Sciences.

Second, (George Akerlof, Michael Spence and Joseph E. Stiglitz, (1986), it is through the theory of this new core of Economics, called the Theory of Information Asymmetry or Asymmetric Information Markets, that the scientific concern with markets is evidenced, but from the market to the market, as a structure of wealth and not as an asymmetric structure of an analysis of the distribution of wealth.

Over the decades the industry began to develop advanced techniques to lower the prices of reproduction and distribution, of the so-called information goods. Books that were printed by presses began to be reproduced by super-fast printers; vinyl records, whose manufacturing process was slow and costly, gave way to CDs, practical and cheaper. As reproduction modernized, the investment required by the new machines that enabled large-scale production became greater, causing the market to focus on a few companies that were able to produce much and profit even more. Despite the higher initial investment, at the end of the production process the unit cost of each book or disc became lower.

However, the popularization of the Internet and personal computers has altered this flow. The cost of reproduction has reduced significantly, as it no longer depended on a physical medium – such as the paper of books or the plastic of CDs. Today, everything is digital and stored on cheaper hard drives with ever-increasing capacities. Distribution can be done digitally via the Internet, virtually free of charge, allowing people to exchange files with each other over the network. Intellectual property laws are difficult to apply in this scenario, since distribution and reproduction are done in a decentralized way.

Production costs have also greatly decreased with the introduction of online tools, which allow anyone with access to the Internet to create and publish text, software, videos, photos and music in real time. This has caused more and more people to distribute their creations for free on the Internet, increasing the supply of this type of content and consequently putting downward pressure on prices. Some critics argue that this favors the dissemination of amateur and low-quality content, because it does not provide economic incentives for professionals to produce and distribute their work. Others hit back, saying there are non-economic motivations involved in the process, such as network benefits, recognition, status or just entertainment.

Porat, (1997), classifies information into two sectors: primary and secondary. The primary sector is one in which people focus on the creation and manipulation of information, such as scientists, writers, librarians, etc. The secondary sector of information is characterized by people whose work is not directly related to information, that is, they are the workers of companies unrelated to information and who produce information for internal use, in the production of agricultural or industrial goods (non-informational goods). Porat includes in the primary information sector the following:

- Invention and production of knowledge (R&D in private companies and information services)
- Distribution of information and communication (education, public information services, telecommunications).
- Risk management (financial and insurance sectors).
- Research and management (brokerage and advertising services).
- Information processing and transmission services (computerised processing of information and telecommunications infrastructures).
- Information-related goods (calculators, semiconductors, computers).
- Some government activities (education and mail).
- Support facilities (buildings, office furniture).
- Trade and distribution of service goods, linked to information.

Porat includes in the secondary *information sector "all information services produced for internal consumption by* the government and private companies", except those government activities that belong to the primary information sector, such as education and printing, but including government activities such as planning, coordination, monitoring, regulation, evaluation and decision-making activities. It also included in the secondary information sector the sections of private companies that are not in the area of information and the sectors linked to the work with information or its production, which are neither for sale nor to lease on the market, but only work in support of the production of non-informational goods, which include internal data processing and library services.

The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) has adopted Porat's definition in its studies on the nature, size and growth of information economies. Other definitions of the "information economy" are variations of the Porat

or Machlup definitions. The study of information economics has often used classical economic theories. However, during studies and practical experiences, some special features of information have emerged:

Information products have value, but their benefit also depends on the user's ability to exploit them. Information is not consumed with use; Only time sometimes makes information unimportant. Information is not a constant, that is, it usually cannot be quantified. Information is an abstraction, that is, it is produced, disseminated, accumulated and used for different purposes and purposes. This characteristic causes a lot of confusion, for example, when someone estimates the value of the information, depending on what another is willing to pay for it.

New information is usually produced with public resources (especially basic research), and these costs are not usually allocated for the purposes of setting the market price. The actual benefit of information is difficult to measure because it is limited to its use, which is impractical. The study of the information economy becomes problematic in the face of these characteristics of information. The information economy is, however, becoming an important object of research in Information Science.

The Information-Based Organization

The tendency of large companies/organizations is to have fewer and fewer levels of management than the current ones and probably no more than a third of the managers. In their structure and in their management problems and concerns they will bear little resemblance to the typical industrial enterprises of the 1950s, which our manuals still regard as the norm. Instead, it is very likely to resemble organizations that neither managers nor management academics pay much attention to today. The typical organization will be based on information, including the signals (weak and strong), and on the knowledge to analyze and interpret that information and those signals. For this reason it will be what I call an information-based organization.

Organizations, especially large ones, will have little choice but to become information-based. On the one hand, demographics demand this change. The center of gravity of employment is rapidly moving away from manual and administrative workers and toward knowledge workers who resist the model of control and command that today's organizations sought from the military 100 years ago. On the other hand, in the economy, socio-cultural and environmental changes, as well as information and communication technologies also determine change, especially the need for companies to innovate and be entrepreneurial.

Until now, most computer users continue to use the new information and communication technologies only to do faster what they have always done, to chew conventional numbers. But as soon as a company/organization takes the first hesitant steps towards data for information, its decision processes, its management structure and the way in which its work is done begin to transform. For this it is necessary that managers (top, coordination or intermediate and operational) know what is the information on which to rely in decision making.

Information-based organizations, because of their flatter structure, will more closely resemble the companies of a century ago than the large companies of today. At that time the knowledge resided in the top managers and the other employees did, as they were told to do. In information-based organizations, knowledge will be primarily at the base, in the minds of experts who perform different work and orient themselves. But what can be said today of the future information-based organization? What will be your main problems? Let's look at the needs first.

In an orchestra several musicians and their conductor can play together, because they all have the same score. She tells the piper and timbalist what to play and when and tells the conductor what she expects from each of them and when. Musicians are experts, you can't tell them, how they should do their job. But the conductor guides the skill and knowledge of the horn player to the joint performance of the musicians. This guidance is what the leaders of an information-based company have to achieve.

Information-based organizations require clear, simple and common objectives that translate into particular actions and need to focus on global and specific objectives, but few, that is, managers need to focus on a few variables (information), monitor their evolution and make the decision to correct any deviations. An information-based organization will have to be structured around goals that clearly show the organization's performance expectations and for each party (business unit or area of responsibility) and for each expert and around organizedfeedback that compares results with performance expectations, so that each element can exercise self-control. The other need of the information-based organization is that of who should share the same information about a certain fact or event, so that everyone can take responsibility for the information. The responsibility for information towards third parties is increasingly understood, especially in medium-sized companies. But the responsibility for information to oneself continues to be neglected. In an organization managers must constantly think about what information they need to perform their task and make their contribution to the results (overall and business unit and or area of responsibility).

It is perhaps the most radical break with the way in which the most computerized organizations continue to be managed. Managers assume that the more data (stored in information and communication technologies), the more information – which was a perfectly valid assumption yesterday, when data was scarce, but leads to an excess of data and the absence of information, today that they are many or believe that information specialists know the data that managers need to have quality information. Managers need to think about what information they need to make the best decisions: first to know what they're doing; then to be able to decide what they should do; finally to assess whether they are doing well. Until this happens, it is likely that IT will continue to be cost centres rather than the result centres they should be.

Information Science

The Perception of Information

The concept of information depends on the perception of information, Kirk, (1999). While this is not something that shocks, it does raise some interesting questions and research opportunities. For example, how do we perceive information? What are the pretensions, limits and consequences of these perceptions? Can these perceptions be described and why?

Information perception (the distinction between definition and perception), is that definition is what characterizes the defined phenomenon, whereas perception (concept) is the process of looking at the phenomenon. Accepting the idea of perception

makes it easy to look at the usefulness of perception with more reason than the universally true definition, Belkin, (1978, p.58), not only influences our perception of communication, Mokros, (1993), Schement, (1993), but also the conduct of research, Newman, (2001), Schement, (1993). This means that the perception of information, which we prefer to call information concepts, has a profound influence on the field of Business Sciences, Economic Sciences and Information Science. Researchers have an obligation to know what information concepts exist.

The concept of information fascinates many scientists from different scientific fields, such as biology, psychology, computer science, sociology, economics, management, political science, statistics, philosophy, communication and information studies, Mokros, (1993), Newman, (2001), Ruben (1993), Schement, (1993). In all these scientific fields information is an important concept, but at the same time none of them can claim the information as being only relevant to themselves. Information is an interdisciplinary concept. This means that the concepts of information must be studied in the different disciplines.

In the interdisciplinarity of the concept of information no agreement has emerged and no unifying theory presents itself, as imminent, Schement, (1993). When information is defined "abundance and its diversity confuse us", Braman, (1989, p.233). One tempting conclusion we have come to is that the meaning of information depends on the context. At the same time many argue that we need a theoretical perspective on information, Devlin, (1999), Newman, (2001). We do not intend to define a theoretical perspective of information, but only to present the different concepts in the different disciplines, as well as, to make a critical analysis of the different concepts. Newman (2001) describes a variety of information concepts in different sciences that can be grouped as follows:

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

The probabilistic concept of information is that events with low probability represent high information content. An important application of this concept is the information theory of (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, in: Newman, 2001). In this theory the mathematical representation of the transmission of a message is presented, as if the information were a measure of signal pre-dicability. Logic, cybernetics, and philosophy also relate information to probability, Fisher, (1934), Carnap and Bar-Hillel, (1952), Popper, (1965), Mackay, (1969) in: Newman, (2001). But these concepts differ in important respects, such as in the interpretation of probabilities and the semantic function of information. With respect to the semantic function of information, many concepts view information as reducing uncertainty.

The concept of information processing (or cognitive concept) focuses on the thinking of cognitive psychology. Now in this concept, thinking and information processing are seen as analogous. It is evident that information is the product of thought (= information processing) and that it increases knowledge about anything. The cognitive process model and internal representation are the first interest of this approach. A good example is the memory model of two storage systems that have different retrieval possibilities. What is interesting to know is that many exponents of this approach confirm the principle of the "limit of rationality".

The concept of ecological information is not created, but is present in the world, emanates from the surrounding environment, in a given situation. Organizations actively collect this information from the outside world. An important extension of the ecological approach is situation theory. This is reconstructed on a mathematical basis, and makes a clear distinction between information (content or elements of information) and its representation. These elements of information are recognized as a new abstract entity or mathematical object. The content of information is also separate from the truth; Depending on the situation the information may be true or false. Newman, (2001, p.161) looks at situation theory as "a stimulating development of our understanding of information".

The social and organizational concept of information falls within the sphere of work: work associated with the concept of information economy and work associated with information systems. In these two categories, information relates to information processing and the information pyramid model is often used. In this model a data must be processed to produce information and the information must be processed to produce knowledge.

An important ingredient of information economics is the quantification of "information work" and "product information", used among other things to show the importance of knowledge in modern economies, Wallerstein, (2000), Murteira, (2000), De Brandt, (1995), Nicolau, (2000), Handy, (1999). In the well-known effort of Porat (1997, in: Newman, 2001) it is clear that information is associated with uncertainty reduction. The research of Business Sciences focuses on the process of information in the organization and the need for information of managers, in support of decision making. The satisfaction of this need can result in a reduction of uncertainty, which contributes to better decision making, Schement, (1993, p.5).

The Difference Between Data, Information and Knowledge

Although the concepts of data and information are used with interchangeable frequencies, they are not the same thing.

Information is not the same thing as data, although the two concepts are often confused, so the subtle distinction between the two concepts is essential. The data do not carry meaning or significance of facts, images or sounds, since they lack relational elements indispensable to the establishment of a complete meaning, lacking an internal relational structure for a cognitive purpose. This structure is one of the attributes of information. Data becomes information when its creator adds meaning to it, Davenport and Prusak, (1998).

Data are partial representations of facts, images or sounds, have no meaning by themselves, since they do not lead to the understanding of facts or situations and become information, when introduced into a structure of (global) information already acquired, Steven Alter, (1992), Davenport and Prusak, (1998), Keith Devlin, (1999). Belkin (1978) proposes information as "data with value for decision making". The description of this concept refers to the effect of this information, such as uncertainty reduction, which we consider as an example of information as a process.

The concept of information as given is commonly seen in the field of scientific research. In this view of information as given with assigned meaning, Checkland and Howell, (1998, p.95) or simply: information = given + meaning (7, 8), Devlin, (1999,

p.33). While it seems logical to think that this meaning is given by humans, Checkland and Howell (1998) point out that some definitions of information in the scientific field assume that the machine assigns them meaning. This suggests that there is only one simple meaning related to information.

The information is the result of the addition to the data, of a specific pattern of relationships that establish its format. To act on information is not only to act on the data that integrate it, but also to act on the relationships that are established, that is, on the collective or individual patterns of formatting and through them on the perception of the real and on the action that derives from it. Information represents a quantity that measures and/or reduces uncertainty, that is, everything that allows to decrease the uncertainty experienced by an observer in relation to the occurrence of a certain event. Information is the product of operations of transformation and relationship of data or other information, through which the significant conceptual relationships between the elements are synthesized, taking into account a certain purpose of communication. Information refers to the body of facts and/or events in a format convenient for decision-making or in a context that defines the relationships between the data (William Zikmund, 2000).

The concept of **information** can be understood from very different perspectives. Information is an object created by man, whose purpose is to represent an event identifiable by him in the real world, integrating and relating a set of records or data, Le Moigne, (1979), Steven Alter, 1992). It is the difference that makes the difference, Bateson, (1972).

In terms of equation: **Information** = **data + meaning**

When a person internalizes information to the point of being able to use it, we call it **knowledge** (Zikmund, 2000). This is a fluid mix of structured experiences, values, contextual information and expert insight that provide a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. In organizations it is found not only in documents and reports, but also in organizational routines, processes, practices and standards. Knowledge originates and is applied in the minds of knowers (Davenport and Prusak, (1998), William Zikmund, (2000).

Knowledge is information as valid and accepted, integrating data, acts, information and sometimes hypotheses. Knowledge requires someone to triage, combine, and interpret information. Information can be considered as a "*substance*" that can be acquired, stored and possessed by a person or a group and transmitted from person to person or group to group. Information has a certain stability and is perhaps better seen as existing at the level of society, Davenport and Prusak, (1998).

Knowledge = **Internalized information** + **ability** to use it

Knowledge is thus the mixture of information, experience and understanding that provide a structure that can be applied in the evaluation of new information or new situations, William Zikmund, (2000). Knowledge lies fundamentally and intrinsically within people. These are much more complex and unpredictable at the individual level than an entire society, so it is not surprising that knowledge is much more difficult to obtain than information. Knowledge exists mainly within people, it is an integral part of human complexity and unpredictability, Davenport and Prusak, (1998).

Knowledge presents a fundamental duality: it is something that is storable (at least sometimes we intend to do so) and something that flows (something that communicates from person to person). It is possibly the duality of knowledge (thing that flows and storage process) that hinders its treatment and management. The creation and diffusion of knowledge in organizations helps to understand that there are two distinct types of knowledge in an organization (tacit and explicit) and that it requires a constant conversion from one type to the other, which explains the generation of knowledge of an organization, Nonaka and Takeuchi, (1995, 1997).

Knowledge managementis the process that creates a comprehensive and easily accessible organizational memory that is often called intellectual capital. To manage knowledge is to organize the intellectual capital of an organization into a formal structure for easy use. Knowledge is the presentation of a path that helps managers to understand and act on information, William Zikmund, (2000).

Knowledge management can be seen as an integrated view of the processes of identification, collection, distribution, sharing and evaluation of an organization's informational assets (documents, procedures and processes – ways of doing, experience and wisdom) residing in each of the people individually, Jim Blair, (1998). Knowledge management has to do with the management of documents and processes (formal information – storable in some way) and with the management of experience (informal information residing in people's minds). Knowledge management assumes that relevant, intelligent, and quickly communicated information to the right person can make the difference between strategic decision-making with or without success, William Zikmund, (2000).

Information in the Real World

According to Gelepithis, (1999) information is the central concept for the Information Science and Business Science community. A considerable number of information-related disciplines have engaged in the development of other closed, information-related concepts (e.g., sign, symbol, and meaning, Shannon and Weaver, (1949), in: Newman, (2001). It is concerned with the clarification of these concepts and their consequences in the fields of information science and information systems. However, your proposal is not present in the summary of the different concepts of information in different disciplines. It presents seven information concepts:

- Information in terms of the probability of a signal.
- Information as a state.
- Information in terms of knowledge and meaning at the mental level and as a mental rather than a material entity.
- Information in terms of the concept of the sign, as a primitive.
- Information conceived in terms of Popperian conception of the world tree.
- Information in terms of true condition.
- Information as a basic property of the universe.

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

Signals can be described as physical things—objects, events, or properties of objects and events—and are available to represent a function in human behavior. Information is in fact a measure of a property of a signal. The measures differ from each other (e.g. entropy measure and subjective measure) and furthermore the information has different meanings. This means that it can be related to different areas of semiotics: pragmatic, semantic, syntactic and empirical.

The information conceived in terms of the Popperian conception of the world tree is the basis of Popper & Eccles, (1977) in which they argue that we only accept things as real if they can interact with material things. It distinguishes three realities or three worlds:

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

According to Popper these worlds interact with each other. However, it remains unclear what Gelepithis, (1999) meant by information conceived in terms of these three worlds.

The Interdisciplinarity of Information

Ruben, (1992, 1993) presents different propositions to "provide an interdisciplinarity in the information-communication relationship", Ruben, (1992, p.22). It distinguishes three concepts of information.

Table n.º 1 - Concept of Information Interdisciplinarity

Concept of Information	Description
1 - Information	Artifacts and representations of the surrounding environment; surrounding data, stimuli, messages or rumors
2 - Information	Internalized and individualized appropriations and representations
3 - Information	Socially constructed, negotiated, validated, sanctioned and/or privileged appropriations, representations and artifacts

Ruben does not substantiate this classification and does not mention any examples of these concepts in the literature. However, it sees information as an interdisciplinary concept focused on the relationship between information and communication. Here it explicitly outlines a wide variety of fields, such as biology, economics, cybernetics, mathematics, sociology, and information and communication studies:

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

Data Science

Data Science is the study of data to extract meaningful insights for organizations. It is a multidisciplinary approach that combines principles and practices from the fields of mathematics, statistics, artificial intelligence and computer engineering to analyze large amounts of data. This analysis helps data scientists ask and answer questions such as, what happened, why it happened, what will happen, and what can be done with the results.

Data Science is important because it combines tools, methods, and technology to generate meaning based on data. Modern organizations are inundated with data; There is a proliferation of devices that can collect and store information automatically. Online systems and payment gateways capture more data in the areas of e-commerce, medicine, finance and all other aspects of human life. We have text, audio, video and image data available in large quantities.

While the term Data Science is not new, the meanings and connotations have changed over time. The word first appeared in the 1960s, as an alternative name for statistics. In the late 1990s, computer science professionals formalized the term. One proposed definition for Data Science saw it as a separate field with three aspects: data design, collection, and analysis. It still took another decade for the term to be used outside of academia.

Artificial intelligence and machine learning innovations have made data processing faster and more efficient. The demand from the sector has created an ecosystem of courses, diplomas and positions in the area of Data Science. Due to the cross-functional skill set and experience required, Data Science shows strong projected growth in the coming decades.

Data Science is used to study data in four ways:

1. **Descriptive analysis –** Descriptive analysis analyzes data to gain insights into what has happened or is happening in the data environment. It is characterized by data visualizations such as pie charts, bar charts, line charts, tables, or generated narratives. For example, a flight booking service may record data such as the number of tickets booked per day. Descriptive analysis will reveal spikes in bookings, drops in bookings and months of high performance for this service.
2. **Diagnostic analysis – Diagnostic** analysis is an in-depth or detailed analysis of data to understand why something happened. It is characterized by techniques such as drill-down, data discovery, data mining, and correlations. Various operations and data transformations can be performed on a given set of data to discover unique patterns in each of these techniques. For example, the flight service can drill-down into a particularly high-performance month to better understand peak bookings. This can lead to the discovery that many customers visit a certain city to attend an event.
3. **Predictive analytics –** Predictive analytics uses historical data to make accurate predictions about data patterns that may occur in the future. It is characterized by techniques such as machine learning, forecasting, pattern matching, and predictive modeling. In each of these techniques, computers are trained to reverse engineer causal connections in the data. For example, the flight service team can use Data Science to predict flight booking patterns, for the next year, at the beginning of each year. The computer program or algorithm can analyze previous data and predict booking spikes for certain destinations in May. Having anticipated the future travel needs of its customers, the company could start targeted advertising for these cities from February.

4. **Prescriptive analytics –** Prescriptive analytics takes predictive data to a new level. It not only predicts what is likely to happen, but also suggests an ideal response to that outcome. She can analyze the potential implications of different choices and recommend the best plan of action. Prescriptive analytics uses graph analysis, simulation, complex event processing, neural networks, and machine learning recommendation engines.
5. Going back to the flight booking example, prescriptive analytics can analyze historical marketing campaigns to maximize the advantage of the next spike in bookings. A data scientist can design booking results for different levels of marketing spend across multiple marketing channels. These data predictions would give the flight booking company more confidence to make its marketing decisions.

Data Science is revolutionizing the way businesses operate. Many companies, regardless of size, need a robust data science strategy to drive growth and maintain a competitive advantage. Some of the key benefits include:

Uncover unknown transformative patterns – Data Science enables companies to discover new patterns and relationships that have the potential to transform the organization. It can reveal low-cost changes in resource management to achieve maximum impact on profit margins. For example, an ecommerce company uses Data Science to discover that many customer queries are being generated after business hours. Investigations reveal that customers are more likely to buy if they receive an immediate response rather than a response the next business day. By implementing 24-hour-a-day, seven-day-a-week customer service, the company increases its revenue.

Innovate new products and solutions – Data Science can reveal flaws and problems that would otherwise go unnoticed. More insights into purchasing decisions, customer feedback, and business processes can drive innovation in internal operations and external solutions. For example, an online payment solution uses Data Science to collect and analyze customer feedback about the company on social media. The analysis reveals that customers forget passwords during peak purchase periods and are dissatisfied with the current password recovery system. The company can innovate a better solution and see a significant increase in customer satisfaction.

Real-time optimization – It is very challenging for companies, especially large ones, to respond to changing conditions in real time. This can cause significant losses or disruptions in business activity. Data Science can help companies predict change and react optimally to different circumstances. For example, a trucking company uses Data Science to reduce downtime when trucks break down. They identify the routes and patterns of change that lead to faster breakdowns and adjust truck schedules. They also set up an inventory of common spare parts that need to be replaced frequently so trucks can be repaired faster.

A business problem typically starts the Data Science process. A data scientist will work with stakeholders in organizations to understand what the needs are. Once the problem is defined, the data scientist can solve it using the OSEMN Data Science process:

O: Get data - Data can be pre-existing, newly acquired, or a data repository that can be downloaded from the Internet. Data scientists can pull data from internal or external databases, the organization's CRM software, web server logs, social media, or purchase it from trusted third-party sources.

S: Suppress data - Data suppression, or data cleansing, is the process of standardizing data according to a predetermined format. It includes, dealing with missing data, correcting data errors, and removing any outliers. Some examples of data suppression are: ·

- Change all date values to a common default format. ·
- Correct spelling errors or additional spaces. ·
- Correct mathematical inaccuracies or remove commas from large numbers.

E: Explore data – Data exploration is a preliminary data analysis that is used to plan other data modeling ploys. Data scientists gain an initial understanding of data using descriptive statistics and data visualization tools. They then explore the data to identify interesting patterns that can be studied or triggered.

M: Model data – Software and machine learning algorithms are used to gain deeper insights, predict outcomes, and prescribe the best plan of action. Machine learning techniques, such as association, classification, and clustering, are applied to the training dataset. The model can be tested against predetermined test data to assess the accuracy of the results. The data model can be adjusted several times to improve the results.

N: Interpret results – Data scientists work together with analysts and organizations to convert data insights into action. They make diagrams, graphs, and tables to represent trends and forecasts. Data summarization helps stakeholders understand and implement results effectively.

Data Science professionals use computer systems to keep track of the Data Science process. The main techniques used by data scientists are:

Classification - Sorting is the sorting of data into specific groups or categories. Computers are trained to identify and classify data. Known datasets are used to create decision algorithms on a computer that quickly processes and categorizes the data. For example: ·

- Classify products as popular or unpopular·
- Classify insurance applications as high risk or low risk·
- Classify social media comments into positive, negative, or neutral.

Data Science professionals use computer systems to keep track of the Data Science process.

Regression - Regression is the method of finding a relationship between two seemingly unrelated data points. The connection is usually modeled around a mathematical formula and represented as a graph or curves. When the value of one data point is known, regression is used to predict the other data point. For example: The rate of spread of airborne diseases.·

- The relationship between customer satisfaction and the number of employees. ·
- The relationship between the number of fire stations and the number of people injured as a result of a fire in a given location.

Clustering – Clustering is the method of grouping closely related data to look for patterns and anomalies. Clustering is different from sorting because data cannot be accurately sorted into fixed categories. Therefore, the data is grouped into more likely relationships. New patterns and relationships can be discovered with clustering. For instance:

- Group customers with similar buying behavior to improve customer service.
- Group network traffic to identify daily usage patterns and identify a network attack faster.
- Group articles into several different news categories and use that information to find fake news content.

The basic principle behind Data Science techniques

While the details vary, the underlying principles behind these techniques are:

- Teach a machine to classify data based on a known dataset. For example, sample keywords are provided to the computer with their respective ranking values. "Happy" is positive, while "Hate" is negative.
- Provide unknown data to the machine and allow the device to classify the dataset independently.
- Allow inaccuracies of results and deal with the probability factor of the outcome.

Data Science professionals work with complex technologies such as:

- Artificial intelligence: Machine learning models and related software are used for predictive and prescriptive analytics.
- Cloud computing: Cloud technologies have given data scientists the flexibility and processing power needed for advanced data analysis.
- Internet of Things: IoT refers to various devices that can automatically connect to the Internet. These devices collect data for Data Science initiatives. They generate large amounts of data that can be used for data mining and data extraction.
- Quantum computing: Quantum computers can do complex calculations at high speed. Skilled data scientists use them to create complex quantitative algorithms.

Data Science is an umbrella term for other data-related functions and fields. Let's look at some of them here:

- **Difference between Data Science and Data Analysis –** While the terms can be used interchangeably, data analysis is a subset of Data Science. Data Science is an umbrella term for all aspects of data processing, from collection to modeling and insights. On the other hand, data analysis mainly involves statistics, mathematics, and statistical analysis. It focuses only on data analysis, while Data Science is related to the big picture around organizational data. In most workplaces, data scientists and data analysts work together to achieve common organizational goals. A data analyst can spend more time on routine analysis by providing regular reports. A data scientist can design the way data is stored, manipulated, and analyzed. Simply put, a data analyst makes sense of existing data, while a data scientist creates new methods and tools to process data for use by analysts.
- **Difference between Data Science and Business Analytics –** While there is an overlap between Data Science and business analytics, the main difference is the use of technology in each area. Data scientists work more closely with data technology than business analysts. Business analysts reconcile business and IT. They define business cases, gather input from stakeholders, or validate solutions. Data scientists, on the other hand, use technology to work with business data. They can write programs, apply machine learning techniques to create models, and develop new algorithms. Data scientists not only understand the problem, but they can also create a tool that provides solutions to the problem. It's not uncommon to find business analysts and data scientists working on the same team. Business analysts take the output of data scientists and use it to tell a story that the organization as a whole can understand.
- **Difference between Data Science and Data Engineering – Data** engineers build and maintain the systems that allow data scientists to access and interpret data. They work more closely with the underlying technology than a data scientist. The role typically involves creating data models, building data pipelines, and overseeing extraction, transformation, and loading (ETL). Depending on the layout and size of the organization, the data engineer can also manage related infrastructures, such as **big data** storage, transmission, and processing platforms such as Amazon S3. Data scientists use the data that data engineers have processed to create and train predictive models. Data scientists can then hand the results over to analysts for later decision making.
- **Difference between Data Science and Machine Learning – Machine** learning is the science of training machines to analyze and learn from data in the same way that humans do. It is one of the methods used in Data Science projects to gain automated insights from data. Machine learning engineers specialize in computing, algorithms, and coding skills specific to machine learning methods. Data scientists can use machine learning methods as a tool or work closely with other machine learning engineers to process data.
- **Difference between Data Science and Statistics -** Statistics is a mathematically based area that seeks to collect and interpret quantitative data. In contrast, Data Science is a multidisciplinary framework that uses scientific methods, processes, and systems to extract knowledge from data in various ways. Data scientists use methods from many disciplines, including statistics. However, the scopes differ in their processes and in the problems they study.

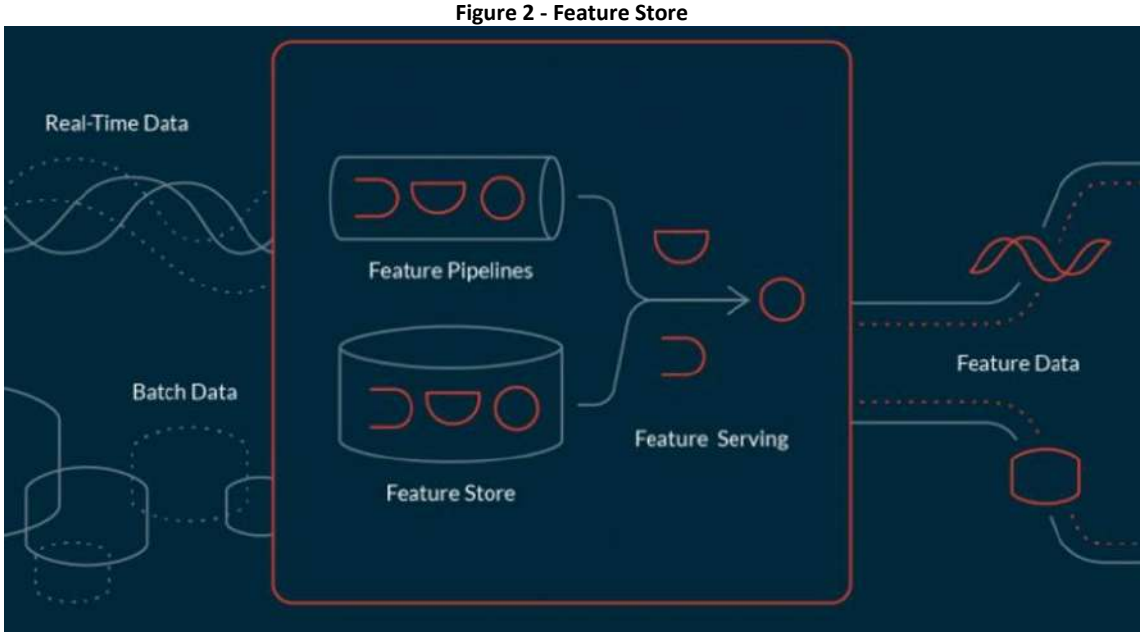
AWS has a number of tools to support data scientists around the world:

- **Physical Data Storage -** For Data Warehousing, Amazon Redshift can run complex queries on structured or unstructured data. Data scientists and analysts can use AWS Glue to manage and search for data. AWS Glue automatically creates a unified catalog of all data in the Data Lake, with Meta data attached to make it discoverable.
- **Machine learning –** Amazon SageMaker is a fully managed machine learning service running on Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud (EC2). It enables users to organize data, create, train, and deploy machine learning models, and scale operations.

Analysis:

- Amazon Athena is an interactive query service that makes it easy to analyze data in Amazon S3 or Glacier. It's fast, serverless, and works using standard SQL queries.
- Amazon Elastic MapReduce (EMR) processes big data using servers such as Spark and Hadoop.
- Amazon Kinesis enables aggregation and processing of broadcast data in real time. It uses clickstreams on websites, application logs, and telemetry data from IoT devices.
- Amazon OpenSearch enables you to search, analyze, and visualize Petabytes of data.

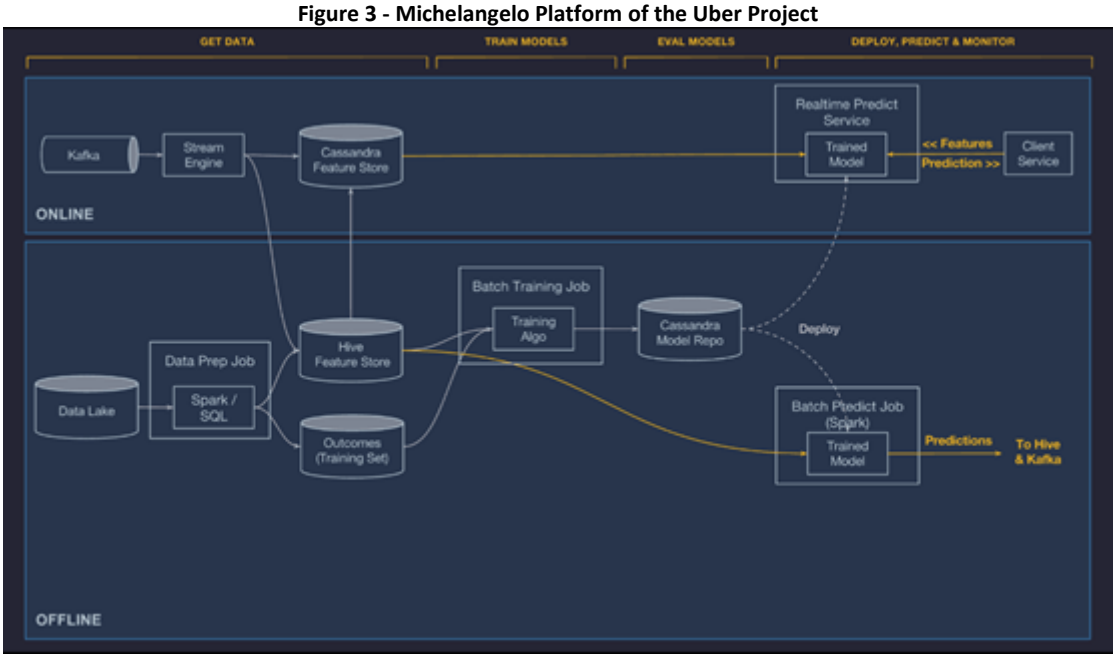
Figure 2 - Feature Store



Source: Microsoft industry blogs

The data can be stored in memory or in a database, of very fast key values. The process itself can be performed across multiple cloud services or one platform. Here is an example of an online and offline pipeline using data storage (Feature Store). It was designed by Uber as part of its Michelangelo platform:

Figure 3 - Michelangelo Platform of the Uber Project



Source: Microsoft industry blogs

What does a data scientist do?

A data scientist can use a number of distinct techniques, tools, and technologies as part of the Data Science process. Based on the problem, he chooses the best combinations to get faster and more accurate results.

The role and day-to-day work of a data scientist varies according to the size and requirements of the organization. Although they typically follow the Data Science process, the details may vary. In larger Data Science teams, a data scientist can work with other analysts, engineers, machine learning specialists, and statistics technicians to ensure that the Data Science process is followed end-to-end and that business goals are achieved.

However, in smaller teams, a data scientist may have more than one role. Based on experience, skills, and academic background, he may perform multiple roles or have overlapping roles. In this case, your day-to-day responsibilities may include engineering, analytics, and machine learning, along with key data science methodologies.

Data Scientists' Challenges

Data sources - Different types of applications and tools generate data in various formats. Data scientists need to clean and prepare the data to make it consistent. This can be tedious and time-consuming.

Understand the problem of organizations – Data scientists need to work with various stakeholders and managers of organizations to define the problem to be solved. This can be challenging, especially in large organizations with multiple teams with varying requirements.

Eliminate deviation – machine learning tools are not entirely accurate, and as a result, there may be uncertainties or deviations. Deviations are disparities in the test data or prediction behavior of the model in different groups, such as age or income range. For example, if the tool is trained primarily on data from middle-aged people, it may be less accurate when making predictions involving younger and older people. The field of machine learning offers an opportunity to address deviations by detecting and measuring them in the data and model.

Online and offline data have different characteristics. Behind the scenes, offline data is mostly built into frameworks, such as Spark or SQL, where the actual data is stored in a database or as files. While online data may require access to data using APIs for streaming engines, such as Kafka, Kinesis, or in-memory key-value databases, such as Redis or Cassandra.

Working with a data store abstracts this layer, so that when a Data Scientist is looking for data, instead of writing engineering code, they can use a simple API to retrieve the data they need. One of the main challenges in implementing machine learning (computer) in production arises from the fact that the data being used to test a model in the software development environment (programs) is not the same as the data in the production service layer. Therefore, enabling a consistent set of features (computer and software) between the testing and service layer allows for a smoother deployment process, ensuring that the tested model actually reflects the way, how things will work in production.

In addition to the actual data, the data store maintains **additional meta data** for each resource. For example, a metric that shows the impact of the resource on the model with which it is associated. This information can help Data Scientists tremendously select the capabilities for a new model, allowing them to focus, on those who have achieved better impact, on similar existing models.

The reality today is that almost all businesses are based on Machine Learning, so the number of projects and resources is growing exponentially. This reduces our ability to have a good comprehensive overview of the resources available, since there are so many. Instead of developing in silos, data storage allows us to share our resources with our colleagues' **Meta data**. It's becoming a common problem in large organizations that different teams end up developing similar solutions, simply because they're not aware of each other's tasks. Data stores fill that gap and allow everyone to share their work and avoid duplication.

To meet guidelines and regulations, especially in cases where the Artificial Intelligence (AI) models generated serve industries such as healthcare, financial services and security, it is important to trace the lineage of algorithms under development. Achieving this requires end-to-end visibility into the flow of data to better understand how the model is generating its results. Because data is being generated as part of the process, it is necessary to track the flow of the data generation process. In data storage, you can maintain the lineage of data and a resource. This provides the necessary tracking information, how the data was generated, and provides the insight and reporting needed for regulatory compliance.

MLOps is an extension of DevOps in which the idea is to apply DevOps principles in Machine Learning pipelines. The development of a machine learning pipeline (computer) is different from the development of software (programs), mainly because of the look of the data. The quality of the model is not just based on the quality of the code. It is also based on the quality of the data and the resources that are used to run the model. According to Airbnb, about 60%-80% of Data Scientists' time is spent creating, training, and testing.

Data stores allow Data Scientists to reuse resources instead of reconstructing them over and over again for different models, saving valuable time and effort. Data stores automate this process and resources can be triggered by code changes that are sent to Git or by the arrival of new data. This automated feature engineering is an important part of the MLOps concept.

Some of the largest information and communication technology companies that deal extensively with AI have created their own Feature Stores (Uber, Twitter, Google, Netflix, Facebook, Airbnb, etc.). That's a good indication to the rest of the industry of how important it is to use data storage as part of an efficient machine learning pipeline. Given the growing number of AI projects and the complexities associated with putting those projects into production, the industry needs a way to standardize and automate the core of feature engineering. Therefore, it is fair to assume that data storage is positioned to be a basic component of any machine learning pipeline (computer and software).

Political Science

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

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

Political science has many branches of study. Just as economics has as two major macroeconomic branches and microeconomics, political science has its own:

- **Political power**: - Many authors throughout history have studied power and its relationships with individuals. There are two broad 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 have studied it are Marx, Machiavelli, Weber, Mosca, Hobbes, etc.
- **Authority and legitimacy**: - The author who most developed this aspect of political science was Max Weber. It developed the three types of legitimacy of political power. In the first place, the traditional legitimacy is that exercised by the patriarchs and the former patrimonial princes. Another is legal legitimacy, which is the belief that artificially created laws are what support the exercise of power and authority by public officials. 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 superior good.
- **The State**: - It concerns all the forms of government that exist and the relationship between all its institutions, as well as the actors that enter the political game of the State. It also studies the relations between the three branches of the State: legislative, executive and judicial. Depending on who controls them and how each of them works, we will be faced with one system of government or another.
- **Public Administration**: - Intergovernmental relations and the performance of the civil service between the different levels of administration are also the object of study. These levels are international, regional (e.g. European Union), national and local.
- Public policies: - Public policies are studied in depth. All the phases through which a public policy passes are analyzed, from the identification of the problem to its final evaluation. See if the results obtained by it reduced or canceled the problem that caused the development and implementation of the same.
- **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 decisions and public policies. And the modes of participation are: voting, participation in campaigns and political organizations, contact with politicians and the 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 electoral campaigns should be to attract the largest number of voters. But not only does it cling to the campaign, but it also studies the communication of the government and the opposition. All this aimed at maximizing the vote and the resources obtained.
- **International relations**: - Studies how are the relations between the different States that make up the world, geographical regions (eg European Union, etc.) and what are the policies to be adopted in each matter, depending on the situation in which the State finds itself.

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, other than the state, has the power to compel, charge, tax, and punish. The state is an **abstract entity with sovereign power to govern a people within a delimited territorial area**. Thus, it can be said that the constitutive elements of the State are: power, citizens, territory, government and laws.

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 people who submit to it (in the case of a democracy, the citizens). In Democracy, the State is constituted by a **set of permanent institutions** that organize and control the functioning of society. The so-called **three branches** (executive, legislative and judicial) divide these functions among themselves.

The executive branch (government) fulfills the role of managing public services (in the areas of health and education, for example) and executing laws. The **legislature** (parliament) has the power to make laws and amend the constitution. The **judiciary** (whose highest instance is the Supreme Court) fulfills the role of supervising and judging the application of the laws. It is also designated by the word state (with a lowercase "e") each of the political-geographical divisions of a federal republic. These divisions are autonomous and have their own government governed by a local administrative structure.

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

Generally speaking, governments are transitory in character. This is true in democracies, where there is alternation of power. In democracies, the political group occupying the government can be replaced, for example, 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 stays.

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

Attempts have been made, in the past, to define nation based on racial criteria (a theory that does not hold). A more accepted definition of nation emphasizes its cultural aspect - customs, language, beliefs etc. However, some authors say that this criterion, by itself, does not define the term, since there are nations, constituted by a plurality of cultures and languages.

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

Politics is the activity proper to the city, it refers to human relations in a common space, divided and negotiated between individuals. The political system 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 can still be significant variations at the level of the organization. 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 realized 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 the public space, the common space. It was the Greek philosopher Aristotle who initiated 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 and to live in society and organize the forms of coexistence. The city is after the people. He who decides to live outside of society, denies his own nature, is superior or inferior to human beings, a God or a beast.

Political parties are formed by groups of people who come together because they have ideals, interests, principles, goals and ideologies in common. Thus, the function of a party is to represent a certain kind of thinking, about its political values. In Democracy, the existence of political parties is fundamental, as a form of access to public offices, in elections, to represent their ideals of society, during the occupation of political mandates. The existence of political parties also guarantees the representativeness of different ideals within a democratic political system. There is no Democracy without Political Parties.

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

- Distributive.
- Redistributive.
- Regulatory.

They can be implemented, for example, as an offer of services or the granting of social and economic benefits to the population. Public policies can exist in various sectors, such as industrial, institutional, agricultural, educational, health, assistance and social inclusion.

IV. ELEMENTS FOR DEBATE CHALLENGES OF THE DEMOCRACY OF THE FUTURE

Complexity of Nature

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

A language that helps men to avoid reductionisms, 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, where uncertainty, emergence, dialogue, recursion, retroaction, self-organization fit. 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 guided, in its essence, by the principle of complexity. Second, Edgar Morin, (1994), a principle consists in connecting, distinguishing, but always relating and articulating the relations subject and object, individual and context, educator and educating.

Such an 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 parts, without understanding that that whole has emergent qualities that are not found in the parts, but that would be consequences of the interactive processes that occur. The epistemology of complexity tries to develop the intellectual tools necessary to link the objects of knowledge and the instruments of these known, as cognitive operators for complex thinking. Such operators as, for example, the dialogical, recursive, hologrammatic principles, self-organization, among others, help us to know the complex reality and to put into practice this thought, making complexity, in its logical dimension, become a guide or regulative 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 perceive that Complex Thinking connects ontology, epistemology and methodology, three constitutive and defining dimensions of the Paradigm of Complexity. 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 demanding a new intelligibility in the way of operating knowledge and knowing the real. Among the relevant aspects, the ecology of knowledge and transdisciplinarity stand out.

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 demanding 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 is continuously self-produced in the relationship with the surrounding environment, constantly self-organizes, living its relationship permanently, which gives it condition of existence and possibilities of resistance in living/living in everyday life.
- **Contextualism** - the influence of the general context of any experiential, or experiential, situation, including here the expectations of the observer, the influences of the circumstances created, as a product of a vibrational and operational field that gives it meaning;
- **The recognition** - of the permanent existence of a third possible energetic dynamism, materially 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 encompass 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 in 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 greatly helps us to criticize the disciplinary logic responsible for the most 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 concepts levels of reality and levels of perception** - which enabled the construction of one of the most expensive axioms to transdisciplinarity: each level of reality corresponds to 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 rationally assume the association and understanding of contradictory actions, previously considered antagonistic, but which, in reality, can also be complementary in their complex nature.

In a way, this ended up transforming the logic of relations with knowledge, bringing a new hope to think about, not only education, but the complexity of the 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 is not able to 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 search of a more global knowledge. For example, the rational does not manage to explore lucidity or creativity, as well as the spiritual dimension, that is, that knowledge that is beyond technical rationality and that, in turn, needs 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 his emotional world, of his intuitive, aesthetic and ethical faculties.

Technological turmoil

As stated earlier, at the time of conceptual study, technologies emerge to solve problems and improve and optimize processes. Objectively, it is allowed to think that such a 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, details and elements, may be left with the execution of operational tasks, in low value addition, translating into insufficient strategic relevance.

This occurs, for example, in large industrial and service conglomerates, where the facilities of the "headquarters" enclose the "thinking heads" of the decision makers, strategists and professionals in charge of managing the company's paths. In its organizational lattice, we find the management of the operational - which we can call tactical - which 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 minimum autonomy and decision, the standards determined by the higher levels.

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

At a second and more complex level, artificial intelligence can be applied to automata that will develop more detailed, interrelated and complex rules, enabling differentiated levels of decision. Automata can, for example, evaluate signals and determine the stopping or acceleration of a process, the triggering of a particular servo mechanism, or even seeking communication with a human being.

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

Such a scenario, which focuses only on an emerging technology - those of artificial intelligence - already allows us to infer the risks of positioning oneself only in the most operational sphere of the industrial compound, recklessly generating the situation of eventual replacement by machines. The higher the level of value addition, 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.

Digital Transformation

Second, Lacerda and Jamil, (2021), Digital Transformation has become one of the most discussed. Initially, it was a generic reference to the changes produced in organizational actions and in society in general, by the application of information and communication technologies. After the period of lockdown of Covid-19, a change was perceived globally, when all people in society began to use, among other technologies, messaging systems and platforms (Whatsapp, Telegram), collaborative environments (Trello, Slack) and tools (Microsoft Office, Google Drive and specific tools), use and provision of web content, teleconferencing systems (Zoom, Google Meet and Microsoft Teams). People's lives began to integrate progressively into normal life, such as housewares, establishing a new paradigm of life.

Rogers (2017), had a successful and open approach to Digital Transformation and was, at the time, an author who drew attention to the second word **-transformation** - in this expression, rather than prioritizing digital assets for change in a one-way way. The management of change, as proposed by authors such as Kotter (2012), is a theme always remembered and producing a broader understanding of the transformative aspects of the digital society. This change is important because to understand the implications and the effective revisions offered and potentially implemented by digital tools, applied to an organizational routine or innovative positioning.

The transformation produced by digital assets can change at any scale the organizational and personal processes and actions, allowing new challenges for the competitiveness of organizations / companies, the market, based on information and communication technologies, which can be considered, as a radical innovation (OECD, 2005).

Second, Davenport, (2014); Jamil and Silva, (2021), digital resources can be used to analyze data management tools and platforms, such as Big Data processing, where data is structured (formal and fixed-format) and unstructured (informal such as social media posts, internet interactions, for example, in blog profiles and emails). In addition, Machine Learning, the main theme derived from the field of artificial intelligence, has become a standard resource for implementing services (organizations/companies and personal), for automating routine tasks, among other processes in any organization, Andriotis, (2017); Jamil and Silva, (2021).

According to Lacerda and Jamil, (2021), cloud services have evolved from the "backup" paradigm to infrastructure virtualization, with strong effectiveness in replacing the traditional proposal of expansion of information and communication technologies for the continuous acquisition of hardware devices, which required huge amounts of time in preparation, configuration and maintenance. Using virtual machines, supported by "pay per usage" application forms, these features are now a real option to configure platforms for any organization, having increased the association with data processing and management tools and services.

Second, Jamil, Silva, (2021), Analytics has also become a set of processes and tools quite effective for the review and implementation of projects of organizations / companies. It can be defined similarly to the principles of Big Data and Machine Learning. The collection of data and the processing of the same have become attractive, when associated with Internet browsing, with information provided by players such as Google, Oracle, Microsoft, IBM, among others.

Analytics provides a dashboard where different views for websites and Internet resources are dynamically accessed and used by interested citizens. Tools such as Big Data, Artificial Intelligence and Analytics, offer a complete set of digital resources for individual use or by organizations / companies, being an example where it is possible to see how Data Science has resulted in potential digital transformation of society.

Digital Society

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

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

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, modifying the way, how they relate to the environment, to other people and how, they conceive themselves before their own reality. Both senses can be understood, as a result of the informational revolution, promoted, mainly, from the attempts to understand human intelligence, via computational bases

The works developed by Turing (1950) had a great influence on the studies of the second half of the twentieth century, including in Philosophy, mainly for its algorithmic approach to the nature of thought, in which he proposes the thesis, according to which, "to think is to calculate" (Turing, 1950, p. 436). This is that since digital computers operate from calculations and manipulate rules for the organization of symbols, if we consider that thinking consists in the activity of manipulating symbols, according to a set of logical rules, constituting algorithms, then digital computers could, in principle,

think. Once intelligent thinking is understood mechanically, it would be possible to construct mechanical models of the structure and dynamics of this type of thinking. This understanding enabled the development of mechanical models of the mind, which initially generated two strands in Cognitive Science Teixeira, (1998):

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

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

Floridi (2008, p. 3-4), states that during the second half of the twentieth century events such as: the massification of the computer, which promoted the generation of the "personal computer"; the advancement of scientific discoveries due to the use of ICTs; and the emergence of new ways of experiencing the world from such technologies. These events illustrate the influence of ICTs in various spheres of society (sociological, economic, scientific and cultural), providing elements for the characterization of it as a society of information and knowledge. According to Floridi (2002, p. 127): "Post-industrial societies are nourished by information".

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

- Increase the power of ICTs, while reducing their cost of production and marketing;
- Improvement of ICTs in their interaction potential (machine-machine and man-machine);
- Emergence of the Age of "zettabytes" (dated 2010).

The factors indicated are responsible for the approximation between people and ICTs, generating a deep relationship of dependence for the performance of routine actions in today's world. Such dependence is based on the digital presence, as a mediator of common actions, such as financial movement (home banking), the acquisition of products and services (virtual stores, e-commerce), personal and professional inter-relationship (via social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter, or dating apps, such as Tinder), access to movies (via streaming, YouTube, Netflix, etc.), urban mobility (via app, Uber, Taxi 99), making calls (using the network, via Skype, Whatsapp), the practice of physical activity (Runkeeper, for example), professional activities via SOHO (small office / home office), political organization (via websites or social networks), among others. We can also highlight the situations in which there is no mediation of artifacts connected to the **Internet**, on the part of people, but that require technological mediation by the service to be requested, such as: payment by credit card for face-to-face purchases, biometric systems for the collection of books in libraries, among others. To understand the influence of ICTs on the constitution and alteration of people's self, the three types of self highlighted by Floridi (2014, p. 60) are explained:

- **Personal Identity** - refers to "who we are". We live in an age where people spend a great deal of time conveying information about themselves, interacting digitally with other people, and this is a good example of how ICTs are affecting and shaping people's personal identity.
- **Self-conception** - consists of "who we think we are".
- **Social self** - refers to what we are from the thought of other people.

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

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

The greatest of all changes is the transformation of the information and knowledge society into the digital society. The centre of work has shifted to 'telecommuting - teleworking'. In the societies of developed countries, increasingly, access to good jobs and a professional career will depend on a university degree with remote work, anywhere, in a country, in the globalized world. That is, the logical result, since one stopped working in the office and in large urban centers, passed through intellectual work and arrived at telework at home or elsewhere, outside the large urban centers. This last stage representes a break with the past.

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

The great challenge for developed countries is to maintain the commitment, with the economic performance necessary for organizations and countries to remain competitive. Governance and entrepreneurship contain within them the entrepreneurial

spirit. They are not antagonistic concepts, nor mutually exclusive. Both are always necessary and at the same time. Both have to be coordinated, that is, both have to work together. No existing organization can survive without innovation and at the same time without being managed.

Digital Capitalism

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

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

Most research was based on the consideration that the new information and communication technologies, as "open technologies par excellence, regardless of economic, social and cultural weights", so that the evolution of daily life was also open to a plurality of futures. An open future full of optimism, until one could conceive of a whole saga of post-industrial utopias according to which, together with the hand of new information and communication technologies, the expected human liberation in the form of productivity and material abundance, communicative fluidity and personal self-realization, would emerge.

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

The problem is capitalism, not technology

According to Gary T. Marx (2015, p. 735), surveillance is linked to verbs such as "look", "observe", "supervise", "control", "inspect", "monitor", "guard" or even "follow". Many of the examples for understanding contemporary ways of obtaining information are based on cognitive skills through technological artifacts, such as software and automated processes. However, such technical means can also involve sophisticated forms of manipulation, such as seduction, coercion, deception, unambiguous information and other special forms of observation, Marx, (2015, p. 735-737). Surveillance has become more deceptive with the passage of time, and can be seen, as something more difficult to defeat than before, after all many forms are so ubiquitous that they are generally presumed to be omnipotent Marx, (2015, p. 736). Surveillance can, succinctly, take place on the human routine, the semi-conscious "autopilot" and often even the biological instinct of our sensory receptors who are ready to constantly receive information from whoever is territorially close, Marx, (2016, p. 16).

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

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

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

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

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

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

Twenty-first century capitalism has found a massive new raw material to appropriate: stored data, Srnicek; From Sutter, (2016, p. 106). Through a series of developments, the electronic platform has become an increasingly dominant way of

organizing business, monopolizing, extracting, analyzing, using, and selling data. The business models of the Fordist era were able, only in a rudimentary way, to extract data, from the production process or from customer use. The era of lean production changed this slightly, as global 'just in time' supply chains required data on the status of stocks and the location of supplies.

Dominant Discourse: what it hides and what it shows

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

With Google's system in place and Facebook's development in the online landscape of targeted advertising, surveillance capitalism adds a new logic of accumulation where its directives and its financial prowess dominate the virtual sphere, of connected networks and this grossly disfigures the previous dream of digital technology, as an enabling and emancipative force, Zuboff, (2019, p. 01). Today, this surveillance capitalism can no longer be identified punctually, as a specific company (as was, until some time ago, exclusive Google, pioneer in this form of data capitalization), since, this logic has expanded, so that Silicon Valley has expanded to various sectors of the economy and its vast options of products and services, Zuboff, (2019, p. 01).

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

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

Crisis of Capitalism

The great acceleration of capitalism has been accompanied by the rise and global expansion of corporate power, through the monopolization of economic power, in the hands of large, ever-larger private companies and the subordination of politics and states/countries/rulers to these economic powers, being at "stake" the social contract that is playing the role of ***lobbyist*** corporate in capitalism, in which the few (capitalists) put many to work, being fed by them and dominate them, Henri Guillemin (1989), Voltaire, (1755). Rousseau, (1755), is a defender of the people, emphasizing that democracy is only possible under conditions of relative economic equality, where people are neither rich nor poor.

Second, Streeck, (2013), the 1970s marked the end of postwar Keynesian capitalism and the beginning of neoliberalism. This upheaval was caused by the discontent of the capitalist class, not the citizens. He sees the development of this, then, as a gradual dissolution of the social contract. The economy was not democratized and social justice increasingly replaced by **market justice**.

Norberto Bobbio, (1987, p. 115), analyzed the neoliberal phase of capitalist development in the 1980s. His diagnosis was that neoliberalism is not limited to destroying the welfare state, but "under attack is democracy pure and simple." The transformation of industrial capitalism into financial capitalism exacerbated these developments, especially in the Anglo-American countries.

Wolfgang Streeck (2011) points out "the drama of democratic states being transformed into debt collection agencies in the name of a global oligarchy of investors." Michael Hudson (2003) describes the neoliberal global economy as a form of imperialism dominated by the US. It is a tax system in which the rest of the world is made to cover America's trade and budget deficits and pay for its wars.

Second, Yanis Varoufakis, (2011), the system is supported by US military power, where the US dollar plays a privileged role, as the only reserve currency in the world. Military warfare was used to gain control over a country's economy. Today, the same can be achieved through the credit system, which has become "the great modern lever for the extraction of wealth, by finance capital from the rest of the population."

Second, Graeber, (2012), debt has become a powerful weapon of dispossession and social control. The war of finance capital, against society in general and against the real economy, is "being waged in the ideological arena, as if it were all for the best,"

Second, Hudson, (2012), it seems that no one has the solution, but the neoliberal project continues to establish a barrier between economics and democratic politics. **The rulers choose to save the banks and not the people**. Blame and costs are shifted to workers, consumers and the real economy. The balance of power between capitalism and democracy continues to shift away from democracy.

Second, Streeck, (2011), in the European Union, there is "Hayekian market liberalism", not nationalism, as the greatest danger. The single currency was thought to mark the end of European national democracies, and it would be the only institution that could be used to defend the idea of true democracy and build a future without capitalism.

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 transform a largely separate and diverse world into a single global megalopod. The messenger on foot gave way to the information highways on a world scale. Anything can be a valuable asset, to be compiled, stored, duplicated, sold, stolen, and sometimes a source of murder. Many people around the world spend their workday gathering, studying, and processing information. Industries developed to produce equipment (and software) to store and process information.

Information about the globalized world today requires permanent attention and can be considered as the most valuable asset, so that in knowledge-based economies, information is taking on an ever-increasing share of the cost of doing business successfully and simultaneously source of peace and local and / or world conflicts. Although we can store it by employing various physical supports, the information itself is not physical, but abstract and not 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 world of human thoughts.

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

During the last few years, in most Western countries it has been seen that the industrial sector, largely responsible for the wealth they have accumulated since the nineteenth century, is losing weight in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) compared to the service sector, a result of the transformation of industrial society into the informational society, Moore, (1997) for three reasons:

- Countries and organizations increasingly depend on the intelligent use of information and are becoming information-intensive countries/organizations;
- People in their daily acts consume large amounts of information, whether in terms of leisure, in terms of business, or in terms of peace or conflict;
- The information industry is emerging disguised within the diversity of the service sector, as a sufficient entity to be a sector (perhaps the best) of the large sectors of the economy (primary, secondary and tertiary sector). The industry can consist of three sectors: information content, information distribution (access centres and distribution channels, such as telecommunications operators and the Internet) and information processing (computer technologies).

The transformation of organizations into informationally intensive is perhaps the clearest trigger of the shift to the informational society. The analysis of the most successful organizations in the world seems to indicate that it originated in the best management of information and knowledge about the world (global and immediate), that is, those that were able to better detect the needs of the market and that best 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).

Globalisation has to be seen beyond the opening or not of borders, countries, markets and organisations themselves. Information, regardless of its geographical origin or temporal moment, is available to us through the keypad of the telephone, a computer or the television screen.

Combating disinformation

Second, Koblentz, (2019), the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction brings serious concerns to global peace and security. They have been used by presumably state agents on dissidents, causing even more concern, as in Britain in 2018, Vale, Marrs and Maynard, (2018) and, more recently, in Russia in 2020, Masterson, (2020). Chemical weapons are chemicals with toxic properties employed to cause intentional harm or death through their toxic properties. The Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) is the international body charged with eradicating chemical weapons.

To do this, political agents use coordinated disinformation. Misinformation is information designed to be deliberately misleading or misleading, Jack, (2017). The level and effectiveness of disinformation in recent times is such that it can be considered a threat to global peace, Stewart, (2021). The method of spreading disinformation varies and ranges from nation-led initiatives to groups and individuals acting covertly and openly to misinform. The secret ways involve some form of disguise using techniques and technology, for example, and disguising themselves as citizens expressing their legitimate opinions without ulterior motives. Open disinformation is usually carried out by the government-backed media, as was the case with Russia, Wilson & Starbird, (2020).

Second, Starbird, Arif, and Wilson, (2019), people unwittingly propagate misinformation the most. The wide reach, ease of use, and design of social media make them the tool of choice for misinformation, whose content is sensationalist, generates high levels of attention, and distorts facts into simple lies. Second, Nemr &Gangware, (2019), the design feature and/or algorithm of social networks, makes them particularly vulnerable to misinformation that is often sensationalized. Sensationalist content generates high levels of attention and ranges from conspiracy theories, distortion of facts to simple lies Segubdo, Hoffman, (2009), the different tools are used by "political actors" to discredit the evidence, mislead the public and divert the attention of citizens, with the aim of sowing division and influencing politics by attacking the emotions of citizens.

Evolution of the Concept of Future Democracy

Participatory Democracy is the exercise of political power by the electoral population, through its representatives (Political Parties and or group of citizens), designated by them, with a mandate to act in their name and by their authority, that is, legitimized by popular sovereignty. Because of the impossibility of the personal participation of all those who are part of a

community, because they exceed the proportions of the same, both geographical and in number, It is the act of electing a group or person who represent them and who usually join in institutions called Parliament, House, Congress, Assembly or Courts.

The concept of political Participatory Democracy is similar to Representative Democracy, in the model of political system (political parties and election of the representatives of the parties with the most votes in the electronic voting machines, always using technologies) in which the main focus is the improvement of the social and economic well-being of the populations. **In structuring decision-making, there is always prior consultation with citizens. Governments are publicly accountable for the results achieved compared to previous periods, in a clear, simple and transparent way**. **Periodically the elected rulers (legislative, judicial and executive) consult with the voters about their degree of satisfaction, as well as about the quality of the decisions regarding their anxieties and needs.**

Participatory Democracy is constituted by the powers: Legislative, Judiciary and Executive. The parliament(s) are the meeting place of the representatives. Professional politicians in different positions consult the national, regional and/or local population electronically, whenever there are important decisions with a major impact on their populations. The difference between leaders and those directed, or representatives and represented, ends up bringing politics closer to everyday practices, that is, it brings political life and people's social life closer together.

Weak signals are so named not for lack of importance, as the name may suggest, but for the difficulty in their capture. Their identification is difficult because, among other things, they are easily overshadowed by other factors, such as: preconceived ideas, routine attitudes and behavior bias on the part of people involved with policy-related activities.

Weak signals can be valuable if they can be identified as potential to help anticipate situations that pose threats. They are easily identifiable a*posteriori* signs, when a given situation of this nature is fully identified, but if they are not given an adequate treatment, they are hardly perceived a *priori*.

As a metric to assess the uncertainty and complexity of the political problems of the social and economic well-being of populations, one can look at the perception variable. Several studies have operationalized the perception of uncertainty, through subjective measures of response to questions about the complexity of perception, frequency of change and importance.

Rulers manage people in addition to other resources – including **information** that is subject to the **filter of cognitive abilities**and the "play" of influences and alliances. The process of monitoring information on the Results of Government Decisions includes, among others, the following aspects:

- ✓ **Be systematic and ethical** – it should not be based on unethical actions and should not be just a process of answering specific questions;
- ✓ **Being formalized and evaluated permanently** – without formalization becomes a sporadic and unimportant process; it requires a permanent evaluation to verify its effectiveness and efficiency.
- ✓ **Have the necessary resources (human, material and financial)** – the information to be collected and analyzed aims to identify opportunities and threats to increase, promote and prevent the improvement of the social and economic well-being of the populations, without wasting time and resources (bureaucracy).

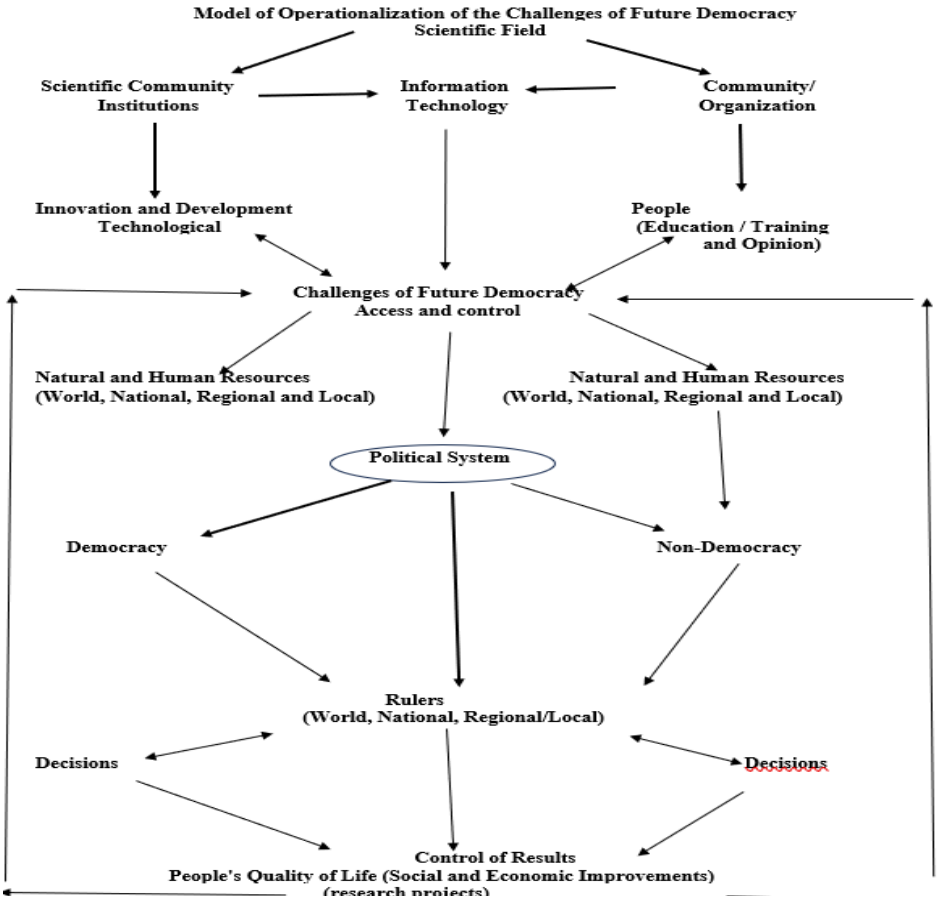
The process of monitoring information on the Outcome of Political Decisions (weak signals, strong signals, quantified information) includes, among others, the following surveillances:

- ✓ **Social surveillance** – information on socio-cultural and environmental changes and trends, such as information on social infrastructure, the workforce and its qualification, security, population growth or decrease, age distribution of the population, life and career expectancy, changes in lifestyle, social well-being of populations, etc.;
- ✓ **Economic surveillance** – information on the evolution of the economy (local, regional, national, global), such as financing, taxes, interest rates, unemployment rate, inflation rate, wages, prices, exchange rates, economic well-being of populations, etc.;
- ✓ **Technological surveillance** – information that can contribute to the social and economic well-being of populations from a technological point of view, (e.g. information on new technological advances and advances in their transfer to organizations, and to populations, in terms of health, safety, mobility, etc.).
- ✓ **Political surveillance** – information that may affect the government from a political point of view, such as the response to viruses and pandemics, economic, fiscal and labor policy of the government, etc.

A timely and timely response to changes is only possible if they are perceived beforehand, that is, to respond to the signals (weak and strong) produced by a change in the initial state of the virus and/or the pandemic, and its development. This presupposes that government organizations have the necessary skills to deal with this information to initiate the response or to have the perception of the need for decision-making, by identifying the opportunity(s) (discovery phase).

The observation / surveillance of information on the social and economic well-being of populations is an open and not oriented attitude, that is, it seeks to identify social and economic problems, opportunities to increase the improvement of the quality of human life. The systematic search for information (weak and strong signals) actively seeks opportunities for the development of the health-disease problem. Both are time-consuming; this is a function of the knowledge of scientific experts (researchers, observers, watchers, analysts); Knowledge is more complex than information, but there is no knowledge without information.

The time available to Governments for decision-making on the social and economic well-being of populations is inversely proportional to the available information and knowledge; the use of the process of observation and surveillance of information on viruses and/or pandemics (weak, strong signals) allows them to increase the time available for Government decision-making. "He who first occupies the battlefield and awaits his enemy is at ease; those who then arrive on the scene and rush to fight are tired" (Sun Tzu, 1971; Porter, 1980).



Source: author's elaboration

The Model of Operationalization of the Challenges of Future Democracy is presented for intervention in debate actions in the political, academic and governmental space, with the purpose of production and sharing of information and knowledge among the participants, in addition to promoting the development of skills of search, retrieval, organization, appropriation, production and dissemination of relevant information for scientific researchers, political managers and other interest groups in society.

Main Challenges of the Digital Society

The main challenges are presented, among others, with which world society, organizations / companies, the rulers, that is, the holders of decision-making power, are presented. The shift from today's society (people, public and private organizations) to the Digital Society will be long, complex and turbulent.

General considerations

Natural resources have no physical borders, even if some have been imposed by man, since they are universal and available to be well used by man, namely natural resources (sun, water, territory, air, etc.). In the terrestrial society (current) man uses natural resources not always for the benefit of society, but for the interests of some (economic, financial, warlike, health-disease, etc.), digging an ever-widening gap between the richest and the poorest. We often see unexpected floods, fires, climate change, etc.

World Society

From the territorial expansion of states, more extensive societies emerged which, by military means and minimal political control, included various hunting societies and some states, within a macro-society, often called an empire. Empires, which could already cover territorial extensions of thousands of kilometers, existed for six thousand years, until the present times, when most of them disappeared, after the Second World War, with the final rise of the national and territorial state, as the dominant political form, of society.

World society has expanded especially by the emergence of systems of global function, such as economic, political, religious, science, and other world systems that include all varieties of economic behavior, political regimes, religious beliefs, and scientific practices. Interdependence in the world space is growing thanks to ICTs. The borders of the countries have become permanent political-military conflicts, with an impact on all other sectors of world society, contributing more and more to the differentiation between rich and poor countries, as well as to the decrease in the value of human life, that is, man has come to be treated as an object, equal to other military personnel (weapons, ammunition, planes, drones, etc.), to satisfy the interests of some.

Today's world society is based on personal terms, on families, religious beliefs, countries (wars over borders, religious, military power, etc.), political organizations (e.g. European Union, Commonwealth, etc.). Today's society is a society based on the economic and financial greed of people and public and private organizations, with some exceptions, in social terms.

Natural resources

Natural resources are essential to the existence of the human being and the maintenance of life. The human being, daily, seeks to satisfy the needs, to survive and for this, he resorts to the environment and what it offers. Over the years, natural resources have been exploited and used by men, irrationally and without the necessary care, for their maintenance. However, currently, there is a great concern on the part of society, governments and the scientific community, with the **preservation of natural resources**. It is necessary to look for a way to meet the needs and promote the development of society in a sustainable way. Natural resources can be grouped into:

- **Biological:** plants, animals and forests;
- **Water:** lakes, rivers, seas, oceans;
- **Minerals:** ores, rocks, sand, clay, coal;
- **Energetic:** sunlight, wind, water.

Natural resources are those taken from nature **to meet the daily needs of living beings, as a way to ensure food, energy and the development of society, as well as the various activities carried out by man in his daily life. It is important to say that resources are not evenly distributed** on planet Earth. There are places with more or less availability of these same resources. Thus, certain geographical areas may present insufficient natural resources to meet the needs of the population, generating conflicts between countries.

Natural resources are fundamental for **economic development**, since many have economic viability, however, not all can be used in the way they are taken from nature, some needing to go through a transformation process so that they can be used. Natural resources can be classified into:

Renewable natural resources: Examples of renewable natural resources are: sunlight, vegetables, wind. Renewable natural resources are those that **renew themselves in nature,** existing in abundance. Typically, these features don't run out easily due to the renewal time and their ease of renewal. However, the speed and the way they are used by man are decisive for their maintenance in nature. Examples of renewable resources are:

- **Sunlight** (and solar energy): The heat emitted by the Sun is a source of energy capable of generating electrical energy and thermal energy. The capture of sunlight is carried out through technologies such as photovoltaic panels, solar heaters and heliothermic plants.
- **Wind** (wind energy): Winds are able to generate energy through their strength. This energy is called wind energy, used to generate electricity through wind turbines.
- **Water (hydropower):** Water is the natural resource essential to human existence. Without it our organism is not able to survive. In addition to being used for human consumption, water is also used in various activities, in industry, in agriculture or in day-to-day activities, such as cleaning and personal hygiene.
- **Vegetables:** Vegetables, as already said, provide not only food, but are also used as raw material for various industries.
- **Animals:** Animals are present in the daily lives of much of the world's population, whether in food or as raw material for textile industries, among others.
- **Wood: Wood** is a renewable natural resource widely used in industry and widely applied in construction. However, logging has been done illegally in several regions, increasing environmental problems such as deforestation.

Non-renewable natural resources: Non-renewable natural resources are those that do **not renew themselves in a period of time** that guarantees the needs of the human being, being, therefore, a slow regeneration. Thus, the use of these can lead to their exhaustion, thus ceasing to exist. One of the current concerns of humanity is to ensure the maintenance of these resources, since many have been used irrationally. Almost all of the energy used in the world comes from non-renewable sources:

- **Ores: Ores** are elements found in nature made up of minerals, such as oxides and silicates, and many have economic value, such as iron, silver, gold. The ores are extracted from nature through some techniques, such as mining, and are found in various regions of the world.
- **Petroleum**: Considered one of the most important energy sources in the world, petroleum is an oily substance originated from the decomposition of organic matter. In addition to being used as an energy source, petroleum also serves as a raw material for the manufacture of plastics, rubbers, solvents and from it are originated various derivatives, such as petroleum gas, kerosene, diesel oil, among others. It is not found in all regions of the world. There are countries that export in abundance and others that need to import it.
- **Coal**: Coal is widely used as an energy source. It is the most widely available fossil fuel in nature in the world. Coal is formed through the decomposition of organic matter in an environment without the presence of oxygen. It is available on all continents, however, it is not renewed in a short time.

Complexity and Turbulence of Society

Second, Olds, (1992), in contemporary society there are many terms for the complexity of world society, forming an important part of the vocabulary of the global social system. There is, first, a term that means the symmetrical relations of codependence between the different social units. World society is then a historical expansion of any social unit, which is or may be, interrelated with any other. At the same time, the interrelations between social units are always selective and, through this selectivity, interests and structures arise. It is possible to understand this interest in interrelation as a turn to a relational understanding of the world, a turn for which the emergence of numerous network theories is an indicator, probably the most prominent, **Barabási, (2003**).

According to **Subrahmanyam, (2005);** Van Dijck, (2013), the most relevant term, is connectivity ("connection"), whose interpretation is, as the asymmetry in the relations between units. A second social unit connects to something that was previously produced by a first social unit. This means that there is a temporal sequence embedded in the relations of social units. These connectivity relationships establish social processes over time. And connectivity seems to mean that remote events can be connected to each other.

Second, **Buchanan, (2002**), there is a third term that has to be added to the vocabulary which is ubiquity. This concept does not refer to relationships, but to repetitions. Some social units are ubiquitous in world society. This understanding is primarily about spatial universality. The respective social units are the events attached to them and can occur anywhere, repeatedly. This implies a spatial understanding of the possible being, anywhere, but adds the temporal implication, of what happens at a time.

The most important way to understand social complexity in global society is functional differentiation. Function systems combine a functional specification of meaning with the global extension of their communicative horizons. On some occasions, the differentiation of functional perspectives is identical to the historical process of globalization. The decomposition of the world that is chosen by focusing on the problems of religious belief or scientific truth, legal justice, economic profitability, etc. If one really takes one of these perspectives, one tolerates regional spatial constraints, and in this co-evolution of functional differentiation and world society consists the revolutionary relevance of functional specification and concentration, of the genesis of world society.

Revolutions with Universal Relevance

Second, **Parsons & Platt, (1974**), revolutions began in the second half of the eighteenth century: the democratic revolution, the industrial revolution, the educational revolution, and the scientific revolution, among others. A revolution is inclusive when relevance, despite being a small social phenomenon, acquires a new kind of social universality, through the potential reach of almost all human beings, in its scope, and which can be described, by way of example:

i. *Industrial revolution* - Since the second half of the eighteenth century, European economies were the first cases of large economic systems that escaped the trap that population growth led to the pauperization of growing segments of the population. Instead of this classic phenomenon, in Europe emerged economies in which population growth became the driving force of economic growth that was even faster than population growth **Maddison, (2005);North & Thomas, (1973**). Two hundred years after this transition, which was a regional phenomenon in European economies, the revolution of the economy remains. There are still a significant number of populations in the world that are marginal to the world economy, both in terms of their participation in the global workforce and their relevance as contributors to global economic needs.

ii. *Democratic revolution* - From the end of the eighteenth century, democracy became, for the first time in history, a realistic option, as an acceptable political regime. The political systems of modern society are increasingly based on the inclusion of all citizens, as beneficiaries of the results achieved by the rulers and secondly on active participation in political decision-making, as holders of political votes and in many other situations and roles. Participation rights are at the heart of modern society's inclusive revolution. These rights are guaranteed to individual people and/or to the new collectivities of modern political systems, groupings that are no longer heterogeneous strata or states, but are now constituted as inclusive collectivities called "the people" or "the nation." The mix and relative weight of individual and collective inclusion differ over time and between countries and regime types, **Judson, (2016**). But the reference to the relevance of universal inclusion is shared even with many non-democratic (authoritarian) regimes that often prefer to describe themselves as "democratic" (e.g., "people's democracy" in the case of many communist regimes). In this sense, it can be said that the democratic revolution is a worldwide phenomenon and that the bipolar distinction between democracy and non-democracy (authoritarianism) describe two subtypes of the former, Ahler &Stichweh, (2017).

iii. *Educational revolution* – The European tradition since the Middle Ages, primary, secondary schools and universities were, for hundreds of years, mostly small and niche phenomena, often relevant in the education of elites, but only of them. Since the eighteenth century, it is possible to observe a progressive universalization of the different levels of schooling, first as a European development, then worldwide. There was something resembling a universalization of primary education in the late eighteenth century in some European countries (especially the Calvinists - Scotland, Holland); in the late nineteenth century, the United States became the first case similar to the universalization of secondary schooling (including girls), **Goldin & Katz, (2008**). In the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, it is possible to observe very high rates of inclusion in higher education, which in some countries (South Korea, Taiwan, New Zealand) reach almost 100%. We see here the global relevance of the different levels of schooling being carried out through the educational revolution, as an inclusive revolution.

iv. *Scientific revolution* - There are well-established concepts regarding the scientific revolution of the seventeenth century and the so-called second scientific revolution of the decades around the year 1800**, Bellone, (1980);Brush, (1988**). But these two revolutions do not deal with universal inclusion, although the differentiation between the disciplines of science in the second scientific revolution is obviously coupled with inclusive effects**, Stichweh, (1984**; 1992).

v. The "scientific revolution" itself should be called the "third scientific revolution") that began in the XX-XXI centuries, and which materialized global inclusion. The transformation is characterized by a huge expansion of the problem space that scientific research can handle. The main effect of this revolution is that there is no pathetic aspect of living in contemporary society that is not affected by perceptions and discoveries based on scientific research. Therefore, global inclusion in science does not take the form of inclusive roles in science, but rather in the relevance of scientific knowledge systems in almost every aspect of life, something that cannot be easily denied. It is from this relevance of scientific knowledge that it is possible to derive its interest for all, who then have good reasons to observe its development.

Other inclusive revolutions and their effects on the constitution of the world system (world society) can be observed and described. There are highly specialized communication niches in some regions of the world, which, by including more and more new regions, new types of collectivities, make individuality a core institution of society, constitutive of world society, and as such, after all, acquire responsiveness in all aspects of their social environments. Responsiveness means a type of competence that uses highly specialized perspectives to redefine global social problems. There are interesting variants in these processes, such as the case that science illustrates. Science is yet another system of function with a far-reaching responsiveness in its social environments, thus realizing universal possibilities of inclusion for all.

Responsibilities of the World Society

Second, **Stichweh, (2007a)**, in writing about the responsibility structure of world society means analyzing the current structures of functioning, as well as the structures that relate to each other, through reciprocal interaction. They give rise to the world society an emerging world system that reinforces its own responsibilities in comparison with other structures of society. Since 1750, the 250-year history with significant transitions (inclusive revolutions of change to responsive global systems) and significant additions (mass media, sports, increased concerns about how to tackle global diseases (e.g. Covid-19) and an open future. But there is a huge growth in complexity and structural turmoil with the addition of other global structures (representative or not).

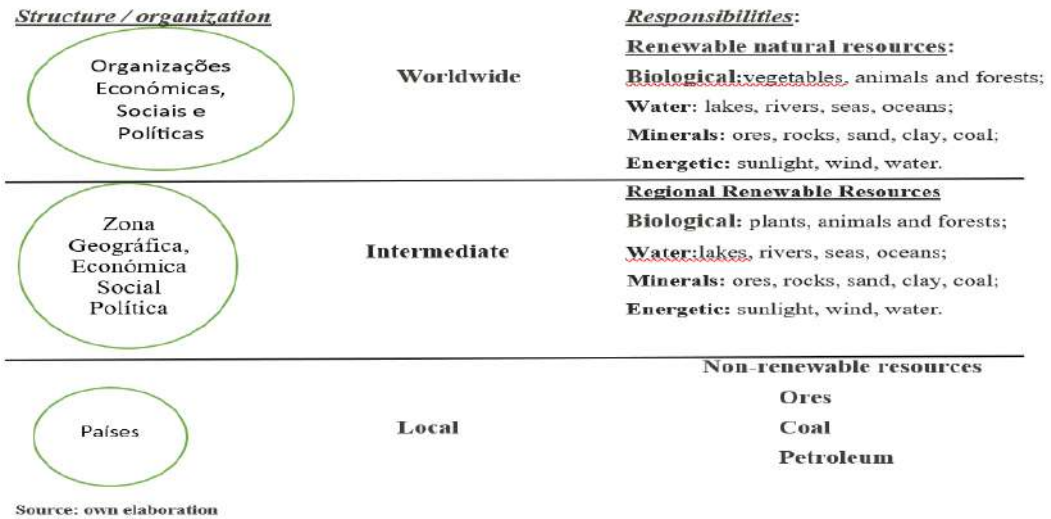
Several examples can be given, such as observing other inclusive revolutions and their effects on the constitution of the world system. The logic is similar: there are highly specialized communication niches in some regions of the world, which, by including more and more new regions, new types of collectivities, make individuality a core institution of society, become a constitutive part of world society, and as such, acquire responsibility in all aspects of their social environments. Accountability means a type of diagnostic competence that uses highly specialized perspectives to redefine global social problems. There are other examples such as, Science which is a worldwide system of dissemination/sharing of Knowledge for all worldwide.

Second, **Stichweh,(2014**), the world society today is an epistemic community, better known as the Knowledge Society. Epistemic communities include all citizens who share a repertoire of normative and cognitive premises constituting the community. These community participants do not need to be organized or establish a small-world network, since for them the binding nature of norms and cognitions is ensured by the reciprocal observation of the participants and not by links of cooperation and social exchanges.

According to **Durkheim (1973), an**epistemic community is held together more strongly by a "relational" solidarity of communities than by an "organic" solidarity of the function systems and networks of the small world. By way of example, the football phenomenon is organised by a global functional structure that organises competitive sporting activities at the world level (football world championship), at regional level (e.g. European football championship, South American football championship, etc.) and national level at the level of each country. Second, Goffman, (1961), there is a structure of world society that is the "system of global interaction, simple social or encounters, etc.". that with resources to ICT's allow virtual contacts / interactions, made available by anyone, such as videoconferences, audio communications (mobile phone), synchronized writing (chats), etc. and with the possibility of each person participating simultaneously in several systems of global interaction.

Without intending to be exhaustive in the staging of world events and just another reflection on this theme, the trend is increasing, the globalization of world society, in all sectors, from the economy, finance, health, politics, social problems, etc., always supported by ICTs. Personal, public or private organizational, business events are interesting cases of self-systematization, self-organization and Accountability of the World Society, and it is always possible to distinguish the global significance of what happens to distinguish them from regional events and local events. What is the hierarchy of responsibility of the World Society? It can be aggregated into three levels of responsibility/organization: responsibility and organization worldwide, regional (geographical, economic, political) and local (countries).

Figure – 1 - Pyramid of levels and responsibilities of the World Society



Source: own elaboration

The Responsibility of World Organizations (e.g. UN and other public and private organizations) is the definition of the norms and rules of responsibility and functioning of public and private World Organizations, in social, economic, political,

sports, etc. terms, in order to ensure the best results for the social and economic well-being of world society, in terms, economic, social, human, infrastructure and informational, with Renewable Natural Resources.

The Responsibility of the (Intermediate) Organizations of Geographical, Economic, Social or Political Zone is the definition of the norms and rules of responsibility and functioning of the public and private Regional Organizations, taking into account the global norms and rules regarding the Renewable Natural Resources of their Geographical, Economic, Social or Political Zone., in order to guarantee the best results for the social and economic well-being of the regional society, in economic, social, human, infrastructure and informational terms, with the Renewable Natural Resources of the Region..

The Responsibility of Local Organizations (Country – rulers) is the definition of the norms and rules of responsibility and functioning of public and private Local Organizations, taking into account the global norms and rules regarding Renewable Natural Resources and Non-Renewable Resources, of your Country, in order to ensure the best results for the social and economic well-being of local society, in economic, social, human, infrastructure and informational terms, with the Renewable and Non-Renewable Natural Resources of the Country.

The Heads of Global, Regional or Local Organizations must be concerned with their own performance, since they must be technically prepared for the function to be performed, distinguish what is essential from the accessory, distinguish what is relevant from what is a waste of time, what is potentially effective, what is merely frustrating. The role of those in charge is to work hard, be demanding and take risks. There are many technologies available, especially information and communication technologies that save a lot of time and work but don't spare thought. The characteristics that quality information should have are, in particular:

- ✓ In the time dimension:
  - Readiness – be available when it's needed.
  - Acceptance – be up to date when provided.
  - Frequency – be available as many times as needed and cannot be lost after use.
  - Period – reveal its evolution – historical view.
- ✓ In the content dimension:
  - Accuracy – contain no errors.
  - Relevance – having a purpose.
  - Integrity – All components must be present.
  - Conciseness – contain only what is necessary.
  - Breadth – refer to the reach of the content.
  - Performance – evaluation of the impact of information on desired outcomes.
- ✓ In the form dimension:
  - Clarity – ease of comprehension.
  - Detail – degree of detail required.
  - Order – be organized in the necessary sequence.
  - Presentation – have the proper format.
- ✓ Other characteristics that quality information should have, namely:
  - Accessible – accessible to authorized world citizens.
  - Secure – Only authorized persons can access.
  - Economic – the value of information must outweigh the cost of producing it.
  - Flexible – be used for more than one purpose or by more than one type of stakeholders.
  - Reliable – the reliability of the information depends on the method, how it is acquired and its origin.

Economic Sustainability

Economic **sustainability** is the basis for achieving the sustainable development of world humanity, as a way to respect and preserve natural and non-natural resources so that they are available for generations to come. This vision must be present today, when humanity is witnessing and suffering from unprecedented catastrophes, disasters and climate crises.

To change this reality, it is essential to **change the paradigmand adopt a new perspective**, understanding that without healthy ecosystems, all the progress of society and the economy will be compromised. To this end, it is necessary that world leaders prepare the change of attitudes and behaviors for the survival of humanity and accept the existing challenges to trigger the necessary actions and thus allow the next generations to count on the same natural resources at the disposal of the current humanity.

The motivation for world leaders to choose sustainable development as a priority will correspond to economic progress in harmony with renewable and non-renewable natural resources and the support of world society, that is, for the social and economic well-being of society and to guarantee the quality of life of human beings and all species that inhabit the Earth.

Hence the need for a paradigm shift, replacing destructive concepts such as consumerism, greed and profit above all, with concepts that lead humanity to sustainability, using, for example, the consumption of clean energy, sustainable consumption, green products, circular economy and bio economy. Being aware that **natural resources are not infinite** is the first step in changing habits and lessening their impact on the **environment**.

In business terms the economic sustainability of how one can be more profitable, economic sustainability *has to be understood as " a* ***set of economic, financial and administrative practices*** *that aim at the economic development of a country or company, preserving the environment and ensuring the maintenance of natural resources for future generations", that is, It corresponds to a* **new way of living and producing**, which takes into account the effects on the environment and communities, and not only economic evolution.

The growth of countries and organisations will have to be based on sustainable development as a way of preserving humanity. However, it is necessary to assess and measure the evolution of economic, social and environmental impacts before building something new or making relevant decisions, whether at global, regional, national, local level or within

public and private organisations, including companies. This allows decision-makers to have a clear view of the consequences of decision-making and the impacts on society and ecosystems.

The Heads of world organizations and the governments of each geographical, economic or political country/region have a central role for global economic sustainability, since they are responsible for **promoting conscious practices**, carrying out and encouraging sustainable consumption and aligning legislation accordingly. Ideally, changes in production and consumption patterns should begin through the adoption of responsible actions, such as digitalization to reduce the use of paper and the use of returnable cups, and whose actions can be described as production processes, services and consumption that give priority to efficiency in the use of inputs and resources, the reduction of waste, the minimization of risks to human health and well-being, among other quality measures in the management of natural and human resources, thereby generating positive economic and social effects, in addition to protecting the environment for all.

Public and private organisations, businesses and individuals should be encouraged to: (1) increase the diversification of energy sources by giving preference to sustainable sources (e.g. solar and wind energy); (2) produce green products, produced with low environmental impact; (3) circular economy increasing the useful life of inputs, through reuse, transformation or recycling; (4) Bioeconomy comprising processes and products based on renewable biological resources, (e.g. biofuels); (5) Reduction of the waste generated, based on the circular economy to have sustainable consumption habits.

From the business point of view the main objective has been profit, for decades, to guide the decisions and benefit of shareholders and entrepreneurs, in all sectors of activity, including the private services sector, that is, each of them consumes and produces products that have social, environmental and economic effects, since it is not possible to maintain and expand in a healthy way without leaving some products aside, to have and maintain the balance between products and services that contribute to the sustainability of world society, in terms of social and economic well-being.

The lack of concern for the environment and society has had disastrous impacts, such as floods, fires, diseases, economic and financial crises of people and countries, hunger, droughts, lack of catastrophes, drinking water, deaths, jobs, emigration in search of better conditions, that is, the major concerns of decision-makers have been financial, **seriously compromising the ecosystem** local, regional and global, as well as the survival of humanity. For example, disasters are proof of the need for public and private organizations and companies to take a strong stand in favor of humanity and the environment. Some examples are presented: Eliminate waste, treat effluents, adopt circular economy practices, reusing, repairing, adapting and recycling the materials used; use renewable energies and lower environmental impact; give priority to partners and suppliers who are environmentally conscious and local producers; encourage the use of alternative means of transport; respect occupational health and safety standards, in order to avoid accidents and occupational diseases; develop and carry out emergency plans to preserve the community in the event of accidents/catastrophes; use the scanning of printed documents; refer to biofuels and renewable energy sources.

Economic sustainability is **responsible for the financial health** of organizations and companies. Despite the undeniable importance of the social and environmental spheres, the economic one is critical, because a company that fails to make a profit is doomed to bankruptcy. The same reasoning applies to other organizations and even nations. After all, economic equilibrium does not depend on how much is earned, but on **how spending is managed**.

To ensure the continuity of organizations, companies and nations, the economic component is not restricted to financial resources. It includes **process** efficiency, i.e. the **ability to produce more with less**, optimizing production dynamics to increase **productivity**. Although not yet widespread, many economically sustainable mechanisms increase the efficiency and, consequently, the profitability of companies.

The **reuse of products**, for example, saves energy, manufacturing time and money for the purchase of a new input. Investment in alternative energies saves exhaustible sources such as coal, oil and derivatives, reducing costs in the medium and long term through abundant resources. In this way, the economy continues to grow, but causing **smaller impacts on the environment** and promoting the social and economic inclusion of people through the **generation of jobs**, promotion of local companies and greater distribution of wealth.

Distance Work

Remote working is a defined term, such as a work arrangement, where workers can work from home or anywhere they choose, online and eliminating (or reducing) the need to commute or travel to a physical location. But while the desire for flexibility and freedom is high, it's not for everyone and there's a lot to take into consideration when taking that step into the virtual world of work.

Online, telecommuting is on the rise, due to the increase in studies demonstrating more productivity and a greater work/life balance in telecommuters. The increased availability and improved availability of online and on-demand collaboration platforms, such as Yammer, Zoom, and WebEx, make it easier for people to participate in meetings and conferences and work together in real time in an environment that simulates face-to-face collaboration.

For the employee, remote work provides more independence, control of their time and tasks and can be a way to bridge the gap between being an employee and being an independent entrepreneur with all the associated risks. Even if you're a full-time worker working remotely, there are inherent benefits to not being tied to a desk from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m. in an office located far from home.The future will be telecommuting, for the following reasons:

- **Working hours**: managing the person's time, that is, working from home, provides more time available and less stress in day-to-day management, since the person sets his own schedule, when there is no pre-defined schedule.
- **Mobility**: means not being tied to the desk at home, that is, working from anywhere and at any time!
- No commuting: People don't need to spend time commuting to and from work.
- **No "work to keep busy":** no need to look for another task to spend time until the clock strikes the usual departure time.
- **More time available for the family**: organize the projects/work according to family and personal time.

- **Flexibility:** Depending on the position, there may be times when all team members are expected to be available for meetings or to answer questions.
- **Productivity**: significant increase in productivity, since there are no interruptions for meals, travel, coffee breaks and catching up on the "news".

Although telecommuting tends to increase and works well for many people and organizations, there are negative aspects associated with it, such as:

- Isolation and lack of personal contact with colleagues: makes the person feel that he is not part of that organization, nor know eventually where he has the offices, if he has them physically and not virtually, since the contact is made by e-mail, or mobile phone.
- Difficulty separating personal life from work, since they are "on" 24 hours a day or any time differences.

Protection and Management of Natural Resources

In 1982, the United Nations (UN) drafted the World Charter for Nature, which recognized the need to protect nature from depletion due to human activity. It states that measures should be taken by all decision-makers of public and private organizations, companies, from international, national and individual, to protect nature. Highlights the need for the sustainable use of natural resources, suggesting that the protection of resources should be incorporated into national and international legal systems, Beskow, Eduardo; Mattei, Lauro (2012),«World Charter for Nature (1982).

To reinforce the importance of protecting natural resources, the World Ethics of Sustainability, developed by IUCN, WWF and UNEP as a contribution to Eco-92, proposed eight values for sustainability, including the need to protect natural resources from depletion, Australian Journal of Environmental Education. (2003). Since the creation of these documents, many measures have been taken to protect natural resources, including the establishment of the scientific field and the practice of conservation biology and habitat conservation.

Conservation biologyis the scientific study of the nature and state of the Earth's biodiversity with the aim of protecting species, their habitats and ecosystems from accelerated rates of extinction. It is an interdisciplinary discipline involving science, economics and the practice of natural resource management, Soulé, Michael (1986).The term conservation biology was introduced as the title of a conference at the University of California, San Diego, in La Jolla, California, in 1978, organized by biologists Bruce A. Wilcox and Michael E. Soulé, Douglas, John (September 1, 1978). Habitat conservation is a land management practice that aims to conserve, protect and restore habitats of wild animals and plants, especially those in danger of extinction, in order to protect them from extinction or population reduction and the fragmentation of their habitat, *Jutro, Peter (2019).*

The management of natural resources involves the management of resources such as land, water, soil, fauna and flora, with a particular focus on how this management will affect the quality of life of the present and future generations. In this sense, sustainable development is achieved through the legal use of resources to meet current and future needs. Natural resource management recognizes that people's livelihoods depend on the protection and productivity of environments, and that their actions play a critical role in maintaining this productivity, "Resilient landscapes and communities managing natural resources in New South Wales" (PDF). Nrc.nsw.gov.au. Archived.' *(PDF)*. Retrieved 22 September 2023.

Natural resource management involves identifying who has the right to use the resources, and who does not, by defining the limits of the resource, *"Ostrom E quoted in Kommers N and Mackie P 2005 Journalist guide to world resources 2005 World Resources Institute 1-30" (PDF). Pdf.wri.org.'* (PDF). *Retrieved 22 September 2023.* Resources can be managed by users according to rules regulating when and how resources are to be used, *"UNDP, UNEP, The World Bank and World Resources Institute – The Wealth of the Poor: Managing Ecosystems to Fight Poverty Institute 2005 Chapter 3 The board's role in governance, World Resources 2005" (PDF). Sc.com.my.'* (PDF). *Retrieved 22 September 2023.*

Alternatively, resources may be managed by a government organization or other central authority, Conroy, Michael J. (2012). Users or regulatory entities should actively monitor and ensure that the use of the resource is made in accordance with the regulations, imposing penalties on those who violate them. Nevertheless, in recent years there has been an increase in the misuse of natural resources in several places, such as the accelerated deforestation of the Brazilian Amazon rainforest, «Deforestation of the Amazon skyrockets again in 2020 – Jornal da USP». *jornal.usp.br*. Retrieved 22 September 2023.

Successful management of natural resources depends on freedom of expression, extensive and dynamic public debate through varied independent media channels, and an active civil society engaged in environmental issues;[16] Because of the communal nature of resources, individuals affected by central regulations are interested in participating in their implementation or change. According to the United Nations, the right to natural resources includes land, water, forests, fishing sites and pastoral rights, Overland, Indra (2018)., ↥ Monsalve Suárez, Sofia (September 22, 2023).

The global scientific platform for discussing natural resource management is the World Resources Forum, based in Switzerland.

V. CONCLUSIONS

General considerations

Natural resources are elements of nature that are useful to the human being for cultivation, for life in society, in the process of development of civilization, or for the survival and comfort of world society**. The laws of nature are equal for** everyone, rich and poor (e.g. earthquakes, floods, etc.), do not choose rich and poor) and affect everyone equally. But the laws made by humans there are some more equal than others, that is, the laws are made to measure of some and for some (companies and individuals). The rich are getting richer and the poor are getting poorer. Political truth is the lie and the lie is political truth. Such a democracy cannot be just.

People hardly achieve their rights through democracy anywhere in the world. Does this mean that the will of the people cannot be carried out? That democracy cannot be developed? Social science scholars do not see a solution to the problem of today's democracies and fail to establish any consensus on what a developed democracy should look like. Establishing a developed form of democracy requires discovering a new way to implement the will of the people effectively. To achieve it, one must think outside the current political system.

Equality is an essential value for the progress and advancement of society, because it offers the possibility to each human being that he has the same rights and duties, opportunities and, consequently, that each person can contribute to the whole**, starting from his freedom**, that he can contribute with his work, his effort, their knowledge and their solidarity.

Welfare economics

The way and degree to which economies can provide individuals with economic well-being is a theme that runs through economic thinking, both at the level of macro and microeconomics. The concept of economic well-being is in turn linked to the concept of general equilibrium of the economy, that is, of a situation in which the prices of all goods and services in all markets are such that they are in equilibrium, that is, there are no incentives for economic **agents,** both on the supply and demand side, to change your behaviors.

At the same time, the question of the economic and social well-being of individuals cannot be dissociated from the definition of the proper role of **the State**, particularly as regards the redistribution of an economy's income. This redistribution can be implemented through various means, such as taxes, transfers, etc. Economics or welfare theory is based on a view of general equilibrium associated with the concept of the "**invisible hand**". This concept or theory, presented by **Adam Smith**, advocates that, in a market context without any kind of restriction, the pursuit of self-interest on the part of each individual results in the benefit of all participants, as if an "**invisible hand**" watched over this situation.

To the concept of "invisible hand corresponds" the fundamental theorem of welfare economics. In other words, in a competitive situation, the balance of markets is a **Pareto optimum**, i.e. a situation in which there is no incentive for the parties involved to change their positions, so that the well-being of consumers is maximum.

A second theorem of welfare economics takes into account the question of equity and consumer income levels. According to this theorem, if certain assumptions are met, all equilibrium situations in terms of consumer preferences are efficient, regardless of the initial income allocations. Given that the pursuit of well-being is most effective when carried out by consumers themselves, since they know their preferences better than the State **, it is perfectly possible to separate the issue of equity in the (re)distribution** of resources by the State **from efficiency in the allocation of resources through markets.**

Thus, and according to the thought of **John Stuart Mill**, the state **may define rules for the redistribution of income (taxes, transfers**, social security**,** etc.), but it must leave to the markets the task of ensuring that the distributed resources are applied as efficiently as possible. At the level of welfare economics, it is also worth mentioning the important role played by Kenneth Arrow, who in an article published in 1951 demonstrated that a competitive economy in equilibrium is efficient and that any adequate distribution can be achieved if the **state** levies taxes but does not interfere with price levels.

Padigma's Change of World Leaders

In economic terms, it is necessary to change from an economy of profit, to a social economy, in which the competition is for the social and economic well-being of the entire world population, without exception, so that the distribution of the wealth achieved is made in an equitable way, to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor.

In terms of governance, a paradigm shift is needed, so that policymakers stop worrying about themselves and friends and start to worry permanently about social and economic well-being, in order to ensure, among other things, health, education, work, quality of life for all and not just for some, That is, the competition of political parties should be in the direction of the competition of improving the quality of life of local, national, regional and world populations.

Define clear and transparent criteria for the comparative measurement of the quality of life of different populations, so that there are no setbacks. We have to distinguish between people's real lives and virtual lives. This is based on ICTs and allows anyone to live and work in any location.

Real and virtual world citizenship presupposes giving everyone equal treatment. It's a way to open up equal opportunities for those who seem "different." Citizenship is in the consciousness of the SELF, it is sedimented in the inherited duties and values, it is strengthened in the exercise of the rights conquered, it expands in the insertion of the individual in the social space that belongs to him. A full citizen is one who recognizes himself, as a whole being, as a capable being, regardless of the possible "failure" or "deficit" that he carries, whether in the physical, intellectual, social, cultural or economic sphere.

Limitations of the research study

Studies on the Democracy of the Future have numerous limitations, since it is too broad a topic to be addressed by a single study alone, and should therefore be addressed in future research. In the first place, they are often limited to partial studies, that is, on a type of Democracy and not on a global view of the problems of Democracy.

In addition, previous research studies are difficult to compare with each other, due to differences, in terms of systems and models of Democracy, countries (European, American, Chinese, etc.), or period of investigation. Similarly, previous studies are often limited to just one country, which reduces the potential for generalization of the conclusions.

Clues for further investigations

The debate on the Democracy of the Future (from Theory to Practice), can contribute to enlighten the World Leaders about the paradigm changes and focus on their attitudes and behavior, in decision-making in the different areas of action, influencing all organizational levels / companies (public and private), involving politicians, technical commissions and other members of governance, and with that, to provide responsible and transparent decision-making more assertive and solidary, at all levels of the structure of World Power (legislative, judicial and executive). We are already being asked the following questions:

- Are the "masters" of the world (powerful economic, financial, political, military, etc.) willing to accept the Proposed Challenges, that is, to move from a capitalist economy to a social economy?
- Is globalization not jeopardizing people's freedom and privacy?

Thanks

I want to thank all my friends and family, who in one way or another followed, disseminated and participated in the prior validation of the proposal for the Debate on Participatory Democracy of the Future.

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