



(RESEARCH ARTICLE)



Strategic legal frameworks for artificial intelligence: Why smaller countries must Act Now

Jelena Vujičić *

Independent researcher.

World Journal of Advanced Engineering Technology and Sciences, 2024, 12(02), 953-972

Publication history: Received on 11 June 2024; revised on 25 July 2024; accepted on 27 July 2024

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjaets.2024.12.2.0325>

Abstract

Artificial intelligence (AI) is not only a transformative technological force but also a test of state capacity, legal adaptability, and global norm-setting. While much attention has been paid to how major powers like the United States, China, and the European Union regulate AI, smaller jurisdictions — particularly those with agile legal systems and innovation-driven economies — may hold the key to shaping a balanced, rights-respecting global AI framework. This paper explores the strategic potential of smaller countries to lead in AI governance by developing national legislation that is ethically grounded, economically attractive, and internationally aligned. Drawing on legal-comparative analysis and country case studies (Estonia, Singapore, Rwanda, Uruguay, and others), we identify core institutional, regulatory, and promotional strategies that enable small nations to become regional AI hubs and global influencers in standard-setting.

We argue that smaller countries can build legal systems that not only protect fundamental rights but also attract talent, capital, and technology. By embedding ethical safeguards, aligning with global frameworks like the EU AI Act, UNESCO's recommendations, and OECD principles, and promoting agile implementation tools like regulatory sandboxes, smaller jurisdictions can build resilient, trusted AI ecosystems. This study provides practical guidance on how smaller countries can proactively shape global AI governance — not by imitation, but through principled legal innovation.

Keywords: AI governance; national AI strategies; Small states; Ethical AI; Regulatory sandboxes; Digital sovereignty; AI regulation; Algorithmic accountability; International cooperation; Legal innovation; UNESCO AI ethics; OECD AI principles; Explainable AI; Cross-border standards; Public-private partnerships; Human rights in technology

1. Introduction

Artificial intelligence (AI) is no longer a peripheral or experimental field. It is a core strategic domain shaping economies, influencing societies, and redefining global hierarchies. AI systems are now deeply embedded in everything from healthcare diagnostics and judicial decision-making to financial scoring and military surveillance. As such, regulating AI is no longer an option—it is an imperative. The current regulatory landscape is dominated by a few large actors: the European Union with its comprehensive AI Act; the United States with its decentralized, innovation-driven model; and China, which applies AI within a framework of digital authoritarianism and centralized control. While these three models compete for global influence, many countries—particularly smaller or mid-sized states—stand at a crossroads.

Smaller jurisdictions have been largely overlooked in global policy discourse, but they possess strategic advantages that allow them to act quickly, build coherent AI strategies, and set global precedents. Unlike larger systems hampered by legislative inertia, smaller countries often have more cohesive institutions, centralized policy-making, and a greater incentive to differentiate themselves as trustworthy innovation hubs.

* Corresponding author: Jelena Vujičić

This paper makes the case that smaller countries are not just passive recipients of AI norms developed elsewhere. On the contrary, they can be laboratories of legal and ethical experimentation—developing flexible, context-sensitive, and globally resonant regulatory models. Drawing on case studies, policy documents, academic research, and international frameworks, we outline how small states can become competitive players in the AI era—not by scaling technologies, but by shaping the legal and ethical infrastructure that governs them.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Foundations of AI Regulation: Complexity and Urgency

The literature on artificial intelligence (AI) law reveals a consensus around the urgency of regulatory intervention, but no agreement on what such regulation should look like. Scholars such as Ebers (2021) and Mittelstadt et al. (2016) argue that AI poses structural challenges to legal systems because it blurs the lines between automation, agency, and accountability. Unlike previous technologies, AI systems can act autonomously and affect rights and outcomes in ways that are non-transparent and probabilistic.

Wachter et al. (2017) introduce the concept of the "right to explanation" under the EU General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), arguing that individuals should understand how automated decisions are made. However, as Edwards and Veale (2018) later noted, GDPR's Article 22 is vague and offers insufficient practical enforcement for automated decision-making. This critique has driven calls for sector-specific AI regulation beyond general data protection frameworks.

2.2. Comparative Legal Models of AI Governance

2.2.1. European Union: Risk-Based Centralization

The European Union's *AI Act* is the most systematic legal proposal to date. It classifies AI systems into risk tiers and imposes graduated obligations, particularly targeting high-risk systems in healthcare, education, policing, and labor (European Commission, 2021). Scholars such as Veale and Borgesius (2021) praise the Act's ambition but warn of implementation challenges, especially for SMEs. Hill et al. (2023) and Hacker (2021) argue that while the AI Act addresses transparency and oversight, it may stifle experimentation due to overly strict conformity assessments and vague enforcement architecture.

2.2.2. United States: Sectoral Fragmentation

The U.S. has no comprehensive AI law but several soft-law frameworks. NIST's *AI Risk Management Framework* (2023) offers a voluntary structure focused on trustworthiness, while agencies like the FTC and FDA apply existing consumer protection or health standards to AI cases. Baykurt (2022) critiques this approach as reactive and politically fragmented. Nevertheless, as Cath (2018) notes, the U.S. model supports fast-paced technological development and experimentation, albeit at the expense of uniform rights protections. This creates a gap for smaller countries seeking a middle ground.

2.2.3. China: Authoritarian AI Infrastructure

China's algorithm regulation regime, managed by the Cyberspace Administration of China (CAC), mandates prior registration and auditing of all recommendation algorithms (Ding, 2023). This centralized model allows for rapid deployment and national alignment but raises concerns about surveillance, human rights, and international interoperability (Creemers et al., 2021). Despite these issues, China is often cited for pioneering regulatory tools that the EU later adapts.

2.3. AI Regulation in Smaller States: Agile Innovation

An emerging body of literature suggests that smaller countries—though less economically influential—may be better suited to test and implement ethical, flexible, and human-centric AI regulation.

2.3.1. Estonia and the Digital State

Estonia has long positioned itself as a "digital republic." Tiits et al. (2020) describe its use of algorithmic registries and government transparency as "institutional innovations" that maintain public trust while enabling efficiency. The country developed the *KrattAI* strategy to manage public-sector AI ethically and inclusively.

2.3.2. Singapore: Structured Voluntarism

Singapore's *Model AI Governance Framework* (Infocomm Media Development Authority, 2019) is often cited as a leading example of soft law. It includes bias detection protocols, human oversight recommendations, and sectoral toolkits. According to Cheng and Goh (2022), the voluntary nature of the framework enhances industry buy-in while maintaining ethical safeguards.

2.3.3. Rwanda and Uruguay: Inclusive Internationalism

Ruanda's partnership with Carnegie Mellon University Africa, and Uruguay's AGESIC agency, exemplify how less-resourced nations collaborate with multilateral institutions to co-develop policy. As Montasari (2023) notes, such countries "punch above their weight" by exporting ethical credibility, rather than competing in AI production.

2.4. Role of International Organizations and Frameworks

Global bodies have produced normative blueprints:

UNESCO (2021) introduced the *Recommendation on the Ethics of AI*, which emphasizes dignity, accountability, and ecological sustainability.

OECD (2019) proposed five principles: inclusive growth, human-centered values, transparency, robustness, and accountability.

Council of Europe initiated the Convention on AI, Human Rights, Democracy and Rule of Law (2024), marking the first legally binding treaty for AI governance.

While these guidelines are comprehensive, they remain non-binding unless transposed into domestic law. As de Araujo and White (2023) argue, these soft law instruments only gain normative power when smaller jurisdictions internalize and operationalize them.

2.5. Gaps, Opportunities, and Strategic Leverage

Despite the growing corpus, literature still neglects how legal design in small states can serve as a competitive advantage. Most existing studies focus on either:

- The regulatory capacity of major economies,
- Or the business ethics of global firms.

This paper contributes to a third dimension — the ability of small, flexible, diplomatically active countries to:

- Create hybrid legal frameworks,
- Align with both ethics and innovation,
- And become regional regulatory anchors.

As Chelvachandran et al. (2020) put it: "Small states cannot lead AI manufacturing, but they can lead the rules that govern it."

2.6. The Case for National AI Laws in Smaller Jurisdictions

While the governance of artificial intelligence (AI) is often dominated by discussions around major global players, a growing body of evidence and policy success stories indicates that smaller jurisdictions have a distinct and underutilized advantage: the ability to craft agile, innovative, and ethical AI legislation tailored to their specific political, social, and economic realities.

2.6.1. Strategic Legal Sovereignty in the Age of AI

The absence of national AI laws exposes smaller countries to:

- Regulatory dependency on dominant legal exporters (e.g., EU, U.S., China);
- Mismatched standards that conflict with domestic infrastructure or values;
- Exclusion from cross-border AI and data governance agreements;

- Reduced capacity to shape bilateral or regional tech diplomacy.

National AI laws restore strategic legal sovereignty by ensuring that AI-related risks, rights, and opportunities are governed through locally defined standards, not foreign defaults.

2.6.2. Regulatory Diplomacy: Law as Soft Power

By crafting forward-thinking AI laws, smaller states can elevate their international profile and attract investment, partnerships, and diplomatic capital. As Chelvachandran et al. (2020) argue, smaller jurisdictions often serve as "regulatory testbeds" whose models influence regional blocs.

This kind of regulatory diplomacy offers small states an opportunity to:

- Influence multilateral standards by showcasing principled approaches;
- Host global summits and AI governance forums;
- Build reputations as safe, ethical AI jurisdictions;
- Create legal environments attractive to tech startups and global companies looking for transparency and flexibility.

Example: The influence of Singapore's Model AI Governance Framework far exceeds its size, precisely because it balances ethical rigor with private sector usability.

2.6.3. Enhancing National Competitiveness

Modern AI regulation isn't just about ethics and risk — it's also about economic development. By developing legal frameworks that reduce uncertainty, encourage R&D, and protect intellectual property, smaller jurisdictions can:

- Attract foreign direct investment (FDI) in AI startups;
- Retain high-skill local talent through predictable rules;
- Incentivize public-private partnerships;
- Position themselves as regulatory havens for responsible innovation.

As Deloitte (2023) reports, companies operating in legally predictable environments with dedicated AI policy are more likely to scale, hire, and innovate.

2.6.4. Regulatory Flexibility and Institutional Coherence

Unlike federated or multi-layered regulatory systems, many small nations operate with:

- Unified legal hierarchies,
- Centralized legislative bodies,
- Leaner bureaucracies, and
- Strong coordination between ministries, agencies, and courts.

This enables them to:

- Pass legislation quickly,
- Revise and iterate policy without extensive lobbying capture,
- Implement cross-ministerial AI task forces and ethical review boards more efficiently.

This regulatory coherence allows for better integration of AI principles into labor, health, education, and justice systems — aligning legal innovation with service delivery.

2.6.5. Legal Innovation Tailored to Local Context

Imitating larger jurisdictions may lead to impractical legal transplants. Instead, smaller states can:

- Integrate international standards (EU AI Act, OECD, UNESCO) without rigid duplication;
- Adapt risk-classification schemes to local markets;
- Focus on inclusion and digital literacy in AI deployment;

- Design laws that reflect existing legal traditions (e.g., civil law vs. common law).

By doing so, national legislation becomes both globally credible and locally meaningful.

2.6.6. Conclusion of Section

For smaller countries, national AI laws are not a luxury — they are a necessity. Without them, these jurisdictions risk falling under foreign rules, becoming data colonies, or being left out of digital trade altogether.

By acting early, with smart, flexible, and rights-based regulation, smaller countries can:

- Establish themselves as trusted AI destinations,
- Gain regulatory independence,
- Contribute to global norm-setting,
- And unlock inclusive, innovation-driven economic growth.

As Montasari (2023) summarizes:

"Small states may not dominate AI infrastructure, but they can and must govern the rules of its use. In the digital century, sovereignty begins with software — and law is the operating system."

3. Materials and Methods

This study adopts a comparative legal methodology, supported by qualitative policy analysis and selected case studies. The goal is to evaluate how smaller countries can effectively design AI regulatory frameworks that are both internationally aligned and locally implementable.

3.1. Data Sources

- **Primary legal texts:** EU AI Act (2024), Algorithmic Accountability Act (US), China's Internet Recommendation Algorithm Law (CAC), UNESCO (2021), OECD AI Principles (2019).
- **National strategies and policy papers:** Estonia's KrattAI, Singapore's AI Governance Framework, Rwanda's HealthTech and Innovation Strategy, Uruguay's Digital Government Plan.
- Peer-reviewed literature from journals like *AI & Society*, *Harvard Journal of Law & Technology*, *IEEE Transactions on Technology & Society*.
- Reports from international organizations (OECD, UNESCO, UNDP, World Bank).
- Industry white papers (Deloitte 2023, DLA Piper 2023, IBM AI Ethics Guidelines).

3.2. Case Selection Criteria

Countries were selected based on:

- **Size and capacity** (population under 15 million),
- **AI strategy status** (adopted or piloted),
- **International collaboration** (inclusion in OECD, UNDP, or global tech consortia), **Legal innovation** (existence of AI-specific or digital governance legislation).

The core case studies analyzed are:

- **Estonia** – digital-by-default AI implementation;
- **Singapore** – structured but voluntary framework;
- **Rwanda** – regional cooperation and health-focused innovation;
- **Uruguay** – open algorithmic governance;
- **Israel** – civil-defense AI co-innovation model.

3.3. Analytical Framework

Each jurisdiction was assessed through five thematic pillars:

- **Legal architecture** – existence and type of legislation.
- **Ethical integration** – presence of values, human rights, bias mitigation.
- **Institutional design** – agencies, councils, task forces.
- **Implementation tools** – registries, sandboxes, audits.
- **International compatibility** – alignment with global standards.

3.4. Designing a Competitive AI Legal Framework

Smaller jurisdictions have a unique opportunity to craft national AI laws that are both globally aligned and domestically pragmatic. Unlike larger legal systems that must reconcile diverse political interests, federated structures, and slow-moving regulatory bodies, smaller states can implement coherent, future-ready frameworks that combine legal precision with strategic economic incentives. A competitive AI legal framework should not be conceived as a fixed body of rules, but as a modular system—designed to evolve alongside technology while reflecting ethical standards, democratic accountability, and innovation-enabling structures.

3.4.1. Alignment with Global Norms, Without Overregulation

A foundational feature of any AI law in a small jurisdiction is strategic alignment with international standards. Drawing from the EU AI Act (2024), OECD AI Principles (2019), and UNESCO's Ethics Recommendation (2021), a competitive framework should incorporate core principles such as:

- Human oversight and control;
- Transparency and explainability;
- Proportionality based on risk;
- Accountability of developers, users, and deployers;
- Protection of fundamental rights and democratic values.

However, these standards should be integrated with flexibility, not adopted wholesale. For example, while the EU AI Act requires complex conformity assessments for high-risk systems, smaller countries may allow for tiered oversight, industry self-certification (with auditability), or sandbox-based authorizations. The goal is to balance credibility with accessibility.

3.4.2. Risk-Based Classification

Adopting a risk-based model allows legal systems to focus on the actual societal impact of AI, not just the type of technology. This means categorizing AI systems into tiers (minimal, limited, high, and unacceptable risk) and assigning corresponding legal obligations.

Such classification enables:

- Lighter-touch regulation for low-risk tools (e.g., spellcheckers, music recommendations);
- Transparency and disclosure for medium-risk systems (e.g., chatbots, automated messaging);
- Impact assessments and human-in-the-loop mechanisms for high-risk tools (e.g., hiring software, credit scoring);
- Prohibition or exceptional justification for systems deemed incompatible with democratic rights (e.g., real-time biometric surveillance, social scoring).

This structure mirrors the EU model but allows contextual calibration to national institutions, technical capacity, and enforcement budgets.

3.4.3. Legal Enablers for Innovation: Regulatory Sandboxes

Innovation-enabling regulation is critical to competitiveness. Regulatory sandboxes, originally piloted in financial technology sectors, have proven highly effective in AI governance. They allow startups and companies to test products under controlled conditions, with temporary waivers or simplified obligations.

Smaller states should implement AI-specific sandboxes linked to:

- National innovation agencies;
- Academic AI research centers;

- Sector-specific agencies (health, justice, transport).

This structure lowers the barrier to entry for small and mid-sized AI firms and provides early feedback to legislators, enhancing policy learning. It also makes the jurisdiction more attractive to global startups looking for testing grounds before entering regulated markets like the EU or U.S.

3.4.4. Public Sector Deployment and Procurement Ethics

Government use of AI is often the most visible and high-impact. Therefore, national AI laws must provide detailed guidance for public sector deployment, including:

- Mandatory algorithmic impact assessments before deployment;
- Transparency registries for public-sector algorithms;
- Clear lines of accountability for automated decisions;
- Ethical procurement clauses embedded in contracts.

Examples include Canada's Algorithmic Impact Assessment and Uruguay's AGESIC algorithm registry. These tools not only improve trust but provide public-sector leadership in responsible innovation.

3.4.5. Embedding Rights and Remedies

A competitive legal framework must incorporate a rights-based layer that guarantees:

- Data protection in line with or beyond GDPR;
- Explicit right to human review and appeal of automated decisions;
- Obligations to test and mitigate algorithmic bias;
- Prohibition of automated systems that result in systemic discrimination or opacity.

These rights must be paired with accessible remedies, including:

- Ombudsman offices for algorithmic systems;
- AI ethics boards;

Legal aid support for individuals affected by AI decisions.

3.4.6. Startup-Friendly Legal Infrastructure

To attract and retain AI entrepreneurs, national AI laws should:

- Simplify business registration and licensing for AI-focused startups;
- Provide tax credits for ethical compliance, dataset transparency, and open-source contributions;
- Enable IP protection for AI-generated inventions (with human authorship criteria);
- Offer legal clarity on liability in hybrid human-machine decision-making contexts.

Legal certainty is a magnet for capital — and countries that offer reliable, innovation-friendly structures will see faster ecosystem growth.

3.4.7. Built-In Flexibility and Feedback Loops

Finally, a good AI law is one that expects to evolve. This means including:

- Periodic review clauses (e.g., every 2–3 years);
- Obligatory stakeholder consultations;
- National AI Observatories or Institutes to track implementation and update legislators;
- Dynamic rulemaking powers delegated to specialized AI regulators.

Such mechanisms ensure that the law remains relevant without sacrificing stability. They also help respond to emerging risks (e.g., generative AI hallucinations, LLM misuse) without requiring complete legislative overhaul. In sum, designing a competitive AI legal framework requires more than importing global rules. It involves strategic synthesis: aligning with international norms, enabling safe experimentation, embedding democratic values, and building legal certainty for

innovators. Done right, such a framework becomes more than a set of rules — it becomes a national advantage, signaling to the world that this jurisdiction is open to responsible AI leadership.

3.5. Institutional Architecture and Governance

A national AI law is only as effective as the institutions that implement it. For smaller jurisdictions, which often have limited administrative bandwidth, governance architecture must be streamlined, technically competent, and politically credible. Unlike larger federated systems that rely on multi-tiered bureaucracies, smaller countries can centralize regulatory functions, coordinate better across agencies, and respond more quickly to public concerns or technological shifts.

3.5.1. Establishing a National AI Authority

The cornerstone of governance is the creation of a centralized national AI authority or commission. This institution should be independent, transparent, and empowered by law to:

- Oversee the implementation of AI legislation;
- Maintain national AI system registries;
- Conduct risk-based conformity assessments;
- Enforce penalties for non-compliance;
- Provide ethical and technical guidance to public and private sectors.

This authority may be modeled after existing data protection agencies or innovation commissions, but with AI-specific competencies in algorithmic auditing, explainability, bias detection, and human rights law. For instance, Singapore's Personal Data Protection Commission (PDPC) incorporates AI oversight functions into its broader digital policy framework, while Canada's Treasury Board Secretariat provides centralized leadership on responsible public-sector AI use.

3.5.2. Interagency Coordination and Policy Integration

AI regulation does not exist in a vacuum. It cuts across multiple policy domains — including education, health, justice, labor, defense, and finance. Therefore, a whole-of-government approach is essential. Small jurisdictions should establish an AI Interagency Council, chaired by the AI authority and comprised of:

- Relevant line ministries (health, justice, ICT, etc.),
- Digital development and cybersecurity bodies,
- National research councils and universities,
- Representatives from civil society and industry.

This forum should coordinate strategic priorities, resolve regulatory overlaps, and ensure that AI policy is aligned with national development goals — such as digital inclusion, green transition, and employment growth.

3.5.3. National AI Ethics Council

To build public legitimacy and prevent elite capture, an independent AI Ethics Council should be institutionalized. This body would provide non-binding opinions, publish public reports, and evaluate high-risk deployments from a multidisciplinary perspective. Key roles include:

- Advising on ethical guidelines and use-case scenarios;
- Reviewing sensitive public-sector applications (e.g., welfare algorithms, criminal justice tools);
- Monitoring for algorithmic discrimination and exclusion;
- Hosting public consultations and hearings.

Models include Germany's Data Ethics Commission, UK's Centre for Data Ethics and Innovation, and OECD's AI Observatory.

In smaller countries, the Ethics Council may be attached to the AI Authority or embedded within parliamentary oversight structures to ensure independence without bloated bureaucracy.

3.5.4. Capacity Building and AI Literacy

An AI law is only effective if those tasked with enforcing it understand how AI works. Smaller countries must invest in capacity-building programs for judges, regulators, lawyers, and public administrators.

This includes:

- Judicial training on AI evidence, liability, and causation;
- Technical courses on algorithmic audits for inspectors and data protection officers;
- Digital law clinics and AI law fellowships in national universities;
- Collaboration with international networks such as Global Partnership on AI (GPAI) or IEEE Standards Association.

Public-sector readiness must also be matched with AI literacy campaigns for civil society, ensuring public understanding of their rights and the implications of algorithmic governance.

3.5.5. Institutional Transparency and Public Engagement

Trust in AI governance depends not only on institutional competence but also on transparency and public accountability. The AI authority should maintain open registries of:

- Approved AI systems and their risk classifications;
- Ongoing impact assessments and audit reports;
- Complaints received and enforcement actions taken;
- Stakeholder comments on proposed rule changes.

Additionally, governments should host regular AI policy forums, where civil society, academics, and industry can provide input. Public consultation portals, transparency dashboards, and open datasets should be used to foster participatory governance.

3.5.6. Distributed but Connected Governance

Some smaller states may prefer to distribute responsibilities rather than centralize them. In such cases, institutional governance should be modular but interconnected. For example:

- The Ministry of Health may certify AI tools in diagnostics;
- The Labor Department may oversee algorithmic hiring and workplace monitoring;
- A national AI agency may coordinate policy and publish cross-sectoral guidance.

What matters is that there is a clear chain of responsibility, procedural clarity, and shared ethical baselines. Fragmentation must be avoided through standard-setting and digital interoperability.

3.6. Conclusion of Section

Institutional design is the skeleton of any AI law. In smaller jurisdictions, it should reflect not only efficiency but trustworthiness, adaptability, and public legitimacy. By investing in a coherent, inclusive, and expert institutional architecture, smaller countries can ensure that their AI laws are not only enforceable — but respected, effective, and globally relevant.

3.7. Learning from Global Case Studies

While AI governance is often led by global superpowers, smaller countries around the world have developed innovative, practical, and replicable models that blend international best practices with local values, legal traditions, and strategic goals. These case studies illustrate how legal agility, ethical clarity, and institutional coherence can position small states as credible and competitive players in the global AI ecosystem. The selected countries—Estonia, Singapore, Rwanda, Uruguay, and Israel—were chosen for their diversity in geography, legal systems, levels of economic development, and approaches to AI law and policy. Despite these differences, each offers valuable lessons for countries seeking to develop AI legal frameworks that are *both principled and pragmatic*.

3.7.1. Estonia – Digital Government by Design

Estonia is widely regarded as a pioneer in digital governance. As a small EU member state with fewer than 1.5 million people, it has embraced technology not as a challenge, but as a state-building tool.

Key Features:

- **KrattAI Strategy:** Named after a folkloric creature, Estonia's KrattAI outlines a vision where interoperable AI services support digital democracy and high-quality public services.
- **Algorithmic Registry:** Estonia was among the first countries to launch a public registry of AI systems used by the government. This tool lists what AI is used, in which ministry, for what function, and with what risks.
- **Legal Testbed for Automation:** Estonia passed a law in 2019 allowing the creation of "robot judges" for small civil claims, piloting AI in judiciary settings with human review safeguards.

Institutional Design

Central coordination through the Government CIO Office and Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications.

- Strong integration with X-Road — the country's data interoperability layer that allows secure, decentralized exchange of data between institutions.
- Lesson for Others: Estonia shows how a small country can become a trusted innovation sandbox, provided it maintains transparency, legal integrity, and ethical oversight.

3.7.2. Singapore – Structured Soft Law for Trust and Growth

Singapore's AI governance model is globally cited as a business-friendly yet ethically conscious approach to AI. Though not legally binding, its guidelines are widely adopted by both domestic and international firms operating within its jurisdiction.

Key Features:

- **Model AI Governance Framework:** A soft-law document introduced in 2019 and updated in 2020, focusing on explainability, fairness, accountability, and data governance.
- **AI Verify:** A government-backed, voluntary self-testing toolkit that allows companies to audit and report their AI systems for ethical and technical compliance.
- **Sectoral Toolkits:** Singapore has developed industry-specific toolkits for finance, healthcare, and logistics sectors.

Institutional Design

Led by the Infocomm Media Development Authority (IMDA) and Personal Data Protection Commission (PDPC).

Supported by AI Singapore, a national R&D program that promotes applied AI research and public-private collaboration.

Lesson for Others: Singapore's approach proves that regulatory trust does not require hard enforcement — clarity, engagement, and technical guidance can drive compliance, particularly in startup and innovation ecosystems.

3.7.3. Rwanda – AI for Inclusion and Public Health

Rwanda has emerged as a leader in applying AI and drone technology to address critical public service needs, particularly in healthcare and rural service delivery. Despite limited resources, it has leveraged public-private partnerships and multilateral cooperation to drive policy innovation.

Key Features:

- Drone-based AI logistics: Through partnerships with Zipline, Rwanda uses AI-powered drones to deliver blood and vaccines to rural hospitals.
- AI strategy: In development with support from international institutions such as UNESCO and Carnegie Mellon University Africa (CMU-A), which has a full campus in Kigali.
- Ethics and Development Balance: Rwanda's emerging framework integrates Pan-African AI principles focusing on human rights, gender equity, and socio-economic inclusion.

Institutional Design:

Driven by the Ministry of ICT and Innovation and the Ministry of Health, with regional AI consultation forums.

Supported by Rwanda Utilities Regulatory Authority (RURA) for data governance and telecom policy.

Lesson for Others: Rwanda illustrates how AI governance can be a tool of developmental empowerment, not just technological control — especially when aligned with education, health, and youth policy.

3.7.4. Uruguay – Transparent Algorithms in E-Government

Uruguay is a regional model in Latin America for digital democracy and open algorithmic governance. Its legal and technical approach focuses on algorithmic transparency and public accountability in state decision-making.

Key Features:

- AGESIC: Uruguay's Agency for E-Government and Information Society has developed a catalog of automated decision systems used in public administration.
- Algorithmic Audit Tools: Partnering with civil society and universities, Uruguay implements periodic reviews and disclosures of how algorithms impact citizens.

Institutional Design:

- Centralized governance under AGESIC, reporting to the President's Office.
- Integration with data protection authority (URCDP) to monitor privacy compliance.

Lesson for Others: Uruguay proves that you don't need a massive tech sector to regulate AI well — transparent governance, political will, and civic partnership can build trust from the ground up.

3.7.5. Israel – Dual-Use Innovation and Legal Foresight

Israel has positioned itself as a global AI innovation hub, particularly in dual-use (civil-military) technologies, with close integration between defense, academia, and private sector research.

Key Features:

- National AI Plan (2020–2025): Focused on education, compute infrastructure, and data sharing.
- Development of a legal infrastructure for civilian AI led by the Ministry of Justice, including draft guidelines for liability and human rights.
- Strong focus on intellectual property law modernization to reflect AI-generated works.

Institutional Design:

Coordinated by the National Digital Israel Initiative and the Israeli Innovation Authority, with parliamentary oversight.

Lesson for Others: Israel shows the importance of integrating national innovation strategies with legal preparedness, ensuring that regulation keeps pace with deployment — particularly in sensitive sectors like surveillance, defense, and biometric identification.

3.7.6. Synthesis of Case Study Lessons

Across these jurisdictions, five common pillars of successful AI governance emerge:

- Clarity and Transparency – whether through public algorithm registries or impact assessments, the public must know when and how AI is used.
- Institutional Coherence – centralized authorities or councils coordinate strategy and enforcement.
- Innovation Enablement – sandboxes, R&D tax relief, and testing toolkits help reduce regulatory barriers for startups.
- Ethical Integration – AI principles are embedded in public-sector use and procurement.
- International Compatibility – frameworks are designed to align with, or influence, international standards (e.g., EU AI Act, OECD).

These examples demonstrate that size is not a barrier to regulatory leadership. Through intelligent design, inclusive policymaking, and global engagement, small countries can define how AI should be governed — and become models for others in doing so.

3.8. International Positioning and Promotion

For smaller jurisdictions, the implementation of a national AI legal framework is not only an internal reform effort but also a powerful instrument of international positioning. In the global digital economy, legal systems do not merely protect rights and regulate markets—they also send signals. A country's approach to AI governance communicates its values, capabilities, and strategic intent. When that approach is well-crafted, it can serve as a magnet for investment, partnership, and diplomatic recognition.

AI law, particularly when embedded in a broader strategy of technological governance, can function as a branding tool. It allows a state to define its place in a crowded geopolitical landscape, not through military or industrial power, but through legal clarity, ethical leadership, and technological foresight. As artificial intelligence increasingly shapes global supply chains, international trade, and security doctrines, being perceived as a responsible and innovation-friendly jurisdiction becomes a source of comparative advantage.

Smaller countries are well-positioned to play this role. With fewer administrative layers and greater institutional cohesion, they can move faster, design clearer laws, and establish tighter feedback loops between regulation and innovation. Their size becomes a feature, not a bug—enabling the design of lean, transparent systems that attract global actors looking for trustworthy testbeds and legally secure environments. Participating actively in multilateral initiatives such as the Global Partnership on AI (GPAI), the OECD's working groups on AI, UNESCO's ethical implementation networks, and the Council of Europe's Convention on AI is another critical strategy. Engagement in these forums allows smaller states not only to stay informed but to influence the direction of global AI norm-setting. Countries that contribute meaningfully to these spaces—by piloting standards, hosting events, or proposing normative frameworks—can increase their visibility and prestige well beyond their economic footprint. Moreover, participation in international policy discussions can enhance domestic legitimacy. When national AI policies are seen as aligned with global human rights and sustainability frameworks, they gain credibility among local stakeholders, civil society organizations, and political actors. This alignment also facilitates cross-border legal interoperability, enabling firms based in small countries to access larger markets with fewer compliance barriers.

Beyond multilateralism, proactive public diplomacy plays a central role. Smaller jurisdictions can invest in shaping the global narrative around their AI legal frameworks by participating in major conferences such as Web Summit, AI for Good, and London Tech Week. Sending ministerial delegations, hosting national pavilions, and participating in global roundtables allows them to tell their story: to present themselves as places where innovation meets ethics, and where law enables—not hinders—technological progress. Domestic events also have international significance. Hosting an annual AI Legal Summit, an AI & Human Rights Forum, or a regional regulatory workshop positions the country as a convener of ideas and a hub of normative convergence. Countries such as Estonia, Singapore, and Rwanda have demonstrated that when legal innovation is matched by storytelling and international engagement, their national strategies gain international resonance.

A particularly underused strategy is what might be termed legal diplomacy through service. By offering model legislation, technical assistance, or capacity-building programs to neighboring countries, a smaller jurisdiction can extend its influence regionally. It becomes not only a hub for responsible AI development but also a source of knowledge and support for others. This can be done through embassies, trade missions, or regional forums—and it reinforces the idea that the country is a trusted partner in shaping the future of technology governance.

Legal clarity itself becomes an economic asset. Investors seek environments where compliance obligations are well defined, liabilities are predictable, and public authorities are accessible. Startups and multinational firms alike are drawn to jurisdictions that combine legal stability with innovation support. In this sense, AI regulation—when done well—attracts capital, talent, and R&D. Some countries, such as Ireland and the Netherlands, have successfully used regulatory simplicity and tax clarity to position themselves as tech headquarters in Europe. A similar model can be adopted for AI: by codifying procedures for sandbox participation, ethical certification, and cross-border data processing, a country can distinguish itself as a regional gateway for responsible AI growth.

In conclusion, international positioning is not a secondary consideration in AI lawmaking—it is a central pillar. Through multilateral engagement, public diplomacy, legal clarity, and regional leadership, smaller jurisdictions can transform

their domestic frameworks into global signals. These signals attract not just economic activity, but normative trust—allowing the country to shape the ethical infrastructure of tomorrow’s digital world.

3.9. Ethical Challenges and Human Rights Safeguards

The ethical dimensions of artificial intelligence are not abstract academic concerns—they are immediate, concrete, and legally actionable. As AI systems increasingly mediate access to health, education, employment, and justice, they also redefine what it means to participate in society. This transformation brings with it a set of profound ethical and human rights challenges that any national AI law must directly confront.

For smaller jurisdictions, the task is not merely to replicate high-level ethical declarations, but to operationalize them within legal frameworks that are both enforceable and responsive to local realities. Ethical governance is not a layer to be added after economic strategy—it is the foundation upon which trustworthy innovation is built. One of the most significant ethical challenges is the opacity of algorithmic systems. As decision-making processes are delegated to AI, the reasoning behind outcomes—whether it’s a denied loan, an unqualified job candidate, or an automatically flagged social benefit recipient—often becomes inaccessible or incomprehensible to those affected. This undermines the principle of explainability, which is essential not only for ethical oversight but also for legal accountability. To address this, national AI laws must include mandates for algorithmic transparency, requiring that systems used in high-impact domains be subject to documentation, audit, and public explanation. This is particularly urgent in the public sector, where the use of AI in welfare distribution, tax administration, predictive policing, or immigration screening can deeply affect individuals’ lives. Countries like Canada have pioneered algorithmic impact assessments, and Uruguay maintains a public catalogue of government-used algorithms—offering useful models for embedding transparency in legal practice.

Another critical concern is algorithmic bias. AI systems trained on biased datasets often perpetuate or even amplify discrimination—against women, minorities, people with disabilities, or low-income groups. This is not a theoretical risk; numerous studies and court cases in the U.S., UK, and EU have documented such outcomes. For smaller jurisdictions, this is a particularly sensitive issue, as societal inequities may be even more pronounced and less scrutinized. Laws must therefore contain explicit anti-discrimination provisions, applicable to both public and private actors deploying AI. These should include obligations to test systems for disparate impact, to include diverse datasets, and to allow affected individuals to challenge biased outcomes. Importantly, these legal safeguards should be integrated into existing human rights frameworks, ensuring that AI-specific protections are not seen as separate but as extensions of fundamental legal commitments.

The question of human oversight also looms large. While automation can increase efficiency, it can also dilute responsibility. Legal frameworks must make clear that AI systems cannot be autonomous in a legal sense—they must be subject to meaningful human control. This principle should be codified through requirements that a human must be able to intervene, halt, or reverse automated decisions in high-risk contexts. Moreover, oversight must not be limited to developers or deployers—it must include regulators, auditors, and, crucially, the public. One effective mechanism is the creation of independent ethics councils that can review deployments, receive complaints, and issue public opinions. These councils should be multidisciplinary, including not only technologists and lawyers, but also ethicists, sociologists, and representatives of affected communities.

The protection of data privacy remains a cornerstone of ethical AI. For countries already aligned with the GDPR or similar instruments, this means adapting existing laws to the specificities of AI—particularly regarding automated profiling and biometric data processing. For others, it may mean introducing data protection legislation in tandem with AI laws, ensuring that personal information is collected, stored, and processed in accordance with rights-based principles. A newer, emerging challenge is the erosion of consent and informational autonomy in the context of generative AI and recommendation systems. As these systems become more persuasive, personalized, and emotionally responsive, users often lose sight of what is real, what is generated, and how their preferences are being shaped. Addressing this may require novel legal tools—such as algorithmic explainability interfaces, labeling requirements for AI-generated content, and digital literacy initiatives embedded in education policy.

Finally, access to redress must be guaranteed. When harm occurs—through bias, error, or opacity—individuals must have a clear, accessible pathway to seek remedies. This could include courts, ombudsman services, mediation bodies, or administrative complaint systems. The existence of rights means little without mechanisms to enforce them. For smaller countries, embedding ethics in AI law is not just a normative imperative—it is a strategic differentiator. Ethical

credibility builds public trust, facilitates international alignment, and creates the conditions for inclusive digital transformation. It signals to both citizens and global partners that technology in that country is governed, not by profit alone, but by principles of justice, dignity, and accountability.

In summary, ethical and human rights safeguards are not accessories to AI regulation—they are its backbone. Without them, AI risks reproducing the very inequalities and harms it claims to solve. With them, it becomes a tool for empowerment, equality, and innovation worthy of public confidence and legal legitimacy.

3.10. Financing AI Governance and Innovation

Developing an effective AI regulatory framework requires more than drafting laws—it requires investment. Legal institutions must be supported by infrastructure, expertise, and technical resources to fulfill their mandates. Moreover, innovation itself must be nurtured through financial tools that reduce risk for early-stage AI ventures and incentivize responsible development. For smaller jurisdictions, where resources may be limited and institutional capacities still evolving, the question of how to finance both AI governance and AI innovation becomes central. An effective financing strategy must address two distinct but interconnected domains: the cost of public oversight, and the stimulation of private-sector and academic innovation.

On the public side, the establishment of a national AI authority, ethics councils, regulatory sandboxes, algorithm registries, and cross-sectoral working groups requires sustained and predictable funding. These institutions must be able to hire multidisciplinary staff, contract external audits, fund public consultations, and manage public-facing transparency platforms. For smaller countries, this often means integrating AI oversight functions into existing bodies—such as data protection agencies or digital development ministries—to reduce administrative duplication. However, integration cannot be a substitute for financing. Without adequate support, enforcement becomes symbolic, and the legitimacy of the entire regulatory framework suffers.

Public investment in AI governance can be supported through a combination of national budget allocations, international development grants, and public-private partnerships. Multilateral donors such as the World Bank, UNDP, UNESCO, and regional development banks increasingly support projects related to digital governance, including AI ethics. Smaller countries can position their AI frameworks as aligned with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and human rights standards to attract these funds. For example, AI used for environmental monitoring, inclusive education, or rural health services may qualify for innovation funds tied to climate resilience, gender equality, or anti-poverty goals. A second pillar of financing involves stimulating AI innovation itself, particularly among startups, universities, and research labs. For this, national AI strategies must include dedicated innovation funds, R&D tax credits, grants for ethical compliance tools, and co-investment models with development finance institutions. One effective model is the "AI Innovation Voucher": small grants that allow startups to fund algorithm audits, hire legal consultants, or test their models in sandboxes. In addition, governments can structure performance-based funding that rewards AI companies for meeting ethical benchmarks, such as achieving algorithmic transparency, releasing open datasets, or conducting participatory design workshops. This shifts the economic burden of compliance from startups to the public sector while promoting values-aligned innovation. Public procurement policy can also function as an indirect financing tool. By including ethical requirements in government tenders—such as explainability, bias audits, or data minimization—states create demand-side incentives for responsible AI. In doing so, they catalyze market-wide improvements without requiring upfront subsidies.

Importantly, smaller countries should explore regional funding platforms. For example, African Union's AI Policy Framework, the ASEAN Smart Cities Network, and the EU's Digital Europe Programme all provide opportunities for co-financing, cross-border research, and technical assistance. Countries can pool resources through these networks to jointly fund governance tools like shared ethics boards, technical labs, or open-source algorithm registries. Moreover, national banking systems and sovereign wealth funds can create impact investment vehicles focused on AI for public good. These could prioritize solutions in education, agriculture, public health, or accessibility—areas where AI can generate social returns that justify public co-investment. This is particularly important in jurisdictions where AI development must serve basic developmental priorities before becoming globally competitive. Another essential element is human capital investment. Funding should support the development of local AI talent—not only engineers, but also lawyers, ethicists, social scientists, and public administrators. Scholarships, fellowships, and academic grants should be part of any serious AI financing strategy. Partnerships with foreign universities, diaspora programs, and international research networks can amplify domestic efforts at relatively low cost.

Finally, financing AI governance must be sustainable. Rather than relying on one-time grants or politically vulnerable budget lines, countries should embed AI oversight into long-term fiscal planning. This might include earmarking a small

percentage of digital economy tax revenues, charging modest registration fees for high-risk AI deployments, or establishing endowments tied to national digital transformation funds. Financing AI governance and innovation is not an auxiliary concern—it is a strategic function. Smaller countries, though often fiscally constrained, can use creativity, coordination, and international cooperation to build sustainable ecosystems where ethical AI can flourish. By combining public leadership with market incentives, they can ensure that their legal frameworks are not only aspirational—but operational.

3.11. Regional and Bilateral Cooperation Mechanisms

While national legislation is the foundation of AI governance, it cannot function in isolation. Artificial intelligence transcends borders: data flows, software distribution, algorithmic models, and cloud infrastructures are inherently transnational. For smaller countries in particular, regional and bilateral cooperation offers a strategic means to scale capacity, reduce fragmentation, and shape global standards. In the absence of such coordination, national frameworks risk becoming technically obsolete, economically restrictive, or diplomatically isolated. Smaller jurisdictions often share similar legal traditions, institutional challenges, and market constraints. By collaborating with neighbors and regional peers, they can pool expertise, harmonize rules, and present unified positions in international forums. This form of regulatory diplomacy enables even resource-constrained states to punch above their weight.

One compelling model comes from the Nordic-Baltic region, where countries like Estonia, Finland, and Latvia have cooperated on digital governance, ethical standards, and interoperability. This partnership emphasizes cross-border sandboxing, data sharing protocols, and public-sector algorithm registries, creating a coherent “zone of trust” that enhances legal predictability for businesses and service users across national lines. Similarly, ASEAN’s coordination on AI workforce development and standards demonstrates how shared digital goals can lead to region-wide strategies. Through joint declarations, capacity-building programs, and shared policy toolkits, ASEAN has begun to develop a baseline for ethical AI integration that reflects Southeast Asia’s unique social and legal environments. In Africa, the African Union’s AI Policy Framework, supported by UNDP and UNESCO, highlights the importance of contextual adaptation. The framework promotes principles such as inclusion, equity, and sovereignty, while encouraging member states to develop interoperable laws and share institutional infrastructure. Rwanda’s collaboration with regional partners on healthcare-focused AI is an early example of how cross-border innovation can reinforce ethical and developmental objectives.

These models offer critical insights for other smaller jurisdictions. First, shared institutions can reduce individual burdens. Establishing a joint ethics board, regional AI observatory, or shared technical testing lab allows countries to access high-level expertise without duplicating investment. It also increases the legitimacy of regulatory decisions by grounding them in multilateral consensus. Second, regional cooperation supports legal harmonization. When countries adopt similar definitions of “high-risk AI,” align sandbox procedures, or share data standards, they create a common legal language. This facilitates cross-border startup mobility, reduces costs for compliance, and prevents regulatory arbitrage where companies exploit loopholes in less developed frameworks. Third, cooperation provides negotiating leverage. By developing joint positions in global debates—whether at the United Nations, the Council of Europe, the ITU, or the OECD—smaller countries can act as a bloc. This gives them more influence over international standards, helps defend regional interests, and allows for co-leadership on global declarations or model legislation. Beyond multilateral efforts, bilateral partnerships also serve as essential tools for AI governance. Countries can enter into memoranda of understanding (MoUs) or bilateral data-sharing and technology agreements that cover:

- Cross-border regulatory recognition of ethical certifications;
- Joint academic research and knowledge exchange;
- Digital trade facilitation and AI-driven customs systems;
- Protocols for responsible data localization and cloud sovereignty.

These agreements can be especially beneficial when smaller jurisdictions pair with middle-power states that already have developed AI ecosystems. For example, bilateral cooperation between Estonia and Canada has helped shape responsible public-sector AI procurement models. Importantly, regional cooperation does not require identical political systems or economic parity. What it demands is normative coherence—a shared commitment to principles such as transparency, human rights, explainability, and proportionality. With that foundation, even legally diverse systems can converge on practical tools and mutually recognized standards. To sustain cooperation, countries should also invest in diplomatic infrastructure dedicated to digital affairs. This includes training envoys in AI ethics, seconding civil servants to regional bodies, and embedding regulatory attaches in embassies and trade missions. Legal attachés with AI specialization can serve as bridges between domestic regulatory authorities and international standard-setters. In the long run, such mechanisms strengthen not only policy coherence, but also regional digital identity. Jurisdictions that

cooperate on AI governance send a clear signal: that their region is open for responsible innovation, and that shared ethical baselines will be upheld across borders. This makes the region more attractive to global investors, research consortia, and human rights organizations alike.

In conclusion, for smaller countries, regional and bilateral cooperation is not optional—it is structurally strategic. Through joint infrastructure, harmonized norms, and coordinated diplomacy, they can overcome resource constraints, shape global agendas, and build resilient, integrated AI governance systems that are both principled and powerful.

3.12. Expanded Case Examples: Uruguay, Rwanda, Singapore

To further demonstrate the transformative potential of national AI regulation in smaller jurisdictions, it is useful to take a closer look at countries that have successfully leveraged **limited resources**, **targeted governance**, and **strategic vision** to position themselves as credible actors in the AI space. Uruguay, Rwanda, and Singapore offer powerful examples of how distinct approaches—grounded in local priorities and ethical clarity—can lead to internationally respected models of AI integration.

3.12.1. Uruguay: Transparency and Public-Sector Accountability

Uruguay, often regarded as a leader in Latin America in terms of democratic governance and digital infrastructure, has developed a distinctive model of AI oversight rooted in public transparency and open government. Its strategy is less focused on regulating the private sector and more on ensuring that AI used in the public sector is accountable, visible, and rights-based. At the heart of Uruguay's AI governance is AGESIC, the Agency for e-Government and Information Society, which maintains a public catalogue of algorithmic systems deployed across government institutions. This registry enables citizens, researchers, and oversight bodies to understand which AI tools are used, for what purpose, and how decisions are made. By institutionalizing algorithmic transparency, Uruguay provides an answer to one of the core ethical challenges in AI governance: opacity of decision-making. The initiative is supported by legal structures that require prior evaluation, public documentation, and review mechanisms for any automated system involved in public service delivery. Uruguay's model is also notable for its collaboration with civil society. Through partnerships with universities, digital rights NGOs, and international agencies, the country ensures that AI governance is not monopolized by technical or political elites but remains open to citizen engagement. The key takeaway from Uruguay is that legal clarity and public visibility can be more impactful than regulatory complexity. A clear commitment to transparency, combined with relatively simple institutional tools, has elevated Uruguay's status as a regional pioneer—proving that smaller states can lead through trust-based governance.

3.12.2. Rwanda: AI for Development and Human-Centered Innovation

Rwanda exemplifies a bold approach to embedding AI into developmental priorities, particularly in healthcare, logistics, and education. As a low-income country with a history of conflict, Rwanda's embrace of AI is driven not by economic competitiveness alone, but by a vision of inclusive modernization and national resilience. One of the most widely cited innovations is Rwanda's use of AI-powered drones to deliver blood, vaccines, and medical equipment to remote health centers. Operated through partnerships with private companies like Zipline, and coordinated by the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of ICT and Innovation, this system demonstrates how AI can serve the public interest in contexts where traditional infrastructure is limited. In parallel, Rwanda has positioned itself as a regional hub for AI education and policy development by partnering with Carnegie Mellon University Africa (CMU-A), which trains future AI researchers, engineers, and policymakers from across the continent. This integration of capacity-building with strategic governance is a model for other emerging economies.

Ethics is central to Rwanda's approach. The country has participated in African Union consultations to define Pan-African principles of AI governance, emphasizing equity, digital sovereignty, and local control over algorithmic systems. Rwanda's commitment to aligning AI deployment with social welfare and national development goals reinforces the idea that AI regulation is not only about control, but about empowerment. Rwanda's model teaches that small and developing countries can leapfrog traditional constraints by aligning AI law with core societal needs. Rather than trying to compete with global tech powers on innovation volume, Rwanda competes on ethical clarity, institutional coherence, and strategic alignment with long-term national interests.

3.12.3. Singapore: Structured Governance, Voluntary Compliance, Global Reach

Singapore offers perhaps the most comprehensive example of a small state using legal foresight and soft regulatory mechanisms to become a global hub for trustworthy AI. Despite having a population of just over 5 million, Singapore is cited in global AI policy debates as a reference point for balancing innovation, business friendliness, and ethical safeguards. The cornerstone of Singapore's AI governance is the Model AI Governance Framework, first released in 2019

and updated in 2020. Though not legally binding, this framework provides detailed guidance on fairness, explainability, accountability, and data governance. It is widely adopted by both domestic companies and international firms operating in Singapore, demonstrating that voluntary norms, when well-crafted, can function like regulation. Complementing this is AI Verify, a government-supported toolkit that allows companies to test, audit, and demonstrate compliance with responsible AI principles. While participation is not mandatory, it has become a de facto trust standard in Singapore's digital economy. The toolkit also serves as a diplomatic export, positioning Singapore as a source of best practices for other Southeast Asian countries and global investors. Singapore's AI governance benefits from tight coordination between regulatory bodies such as the Infocomm Media Development Authority (IMDA) and the Personal Data Protection Commission (PDPC), as well as robust collaboration with academia and industry. The city-state's regulatory architecture emphasizes predictability and consultation, offering business certainty while maintaining strong ethical commitments. What sets Singapore apart is its ability to scale its regulatory influence internationally. Through participation in global AI forums, standards committees, and bilateral partnerships, Singapore's model has been studied, emulated, and cited in numerous jurisdictions—from Asia to Europe and beyond. The Singapore case proves that regulatory power is not determined by population size, but by institutional clarity, policy consistency, and global engagement. For smaller countries seeking to balance innovation with ethics, Singapore represents a model of how structured governance can project influence far beyond national borders.

3.13. Conclusion of Case Studies

These expanded examples—Uruguay, Rwanda, and Singapore—demonstrate that smaller states, despite limited material power, can design and export highly influential AI governance models. Each example reflects a different pathway:

- **Uruguay** emphasizes *transparency and democratic accountability*.
- **Rwanda** prioritizes *developmental justice and local empowerment*.
- **Singapore** exemplifies *precision regulation and soft-power norm leadership*.

The common thread is not the size of the economy or the level of technological development, but the intentional alignment between law, ethics, public purpose, and institutional strategy. This alignment enables smaller countries to regulate AI not from a place of limitation, but from a position of normative leadership.

4. Results and Discussion

The comparative analysis of legal frameworks and case studies reveals a clear and compelling pattern: smaller jurisdictions are uniquely positioned to lead in AI governance when they act strategically, ethically, and collaboratively. The countries examined in this paper—Estonia, Singapore, Rwanda, Uruguay, and Israel—demonstrate that legal innovation and institutional clarity can compensate for limited market size, geopolitical weight, or research capacity.

Several key findings emerge from the research:

First, agility is an asset. Smaller countries can enact and update legislation faster than larger federal systems. Estonia's rapid implementation of its algorithm registry and Singapore's iterative update of its AI governance framework both exemplify how size can facilitate legislative responsiveness and policy learning.

Second, transparency and participation enhance legitimacy. Uruguay's public catalog of government-used algorithms, and Rwanda's inclusion of civil society in AI strategy formation, illustrate how transparency builds public trust and invites stakeholder collaboration. This reinforces democratic governance while reducing the risk of technological backlash or regulatory capture.

Third, regional and multilateral engagement amplifies impact. Participation in international forums and standard-setting bodies allows small jurisdictions to influence global norms. Singapore's involvement in OECD AI standards and UNESCO's ethics implementation group exemplifies this principle. Legal interoperability—ensured through alignment with the EU AI Act, OECD Principles, and GDPR—enables smaller jurisdictions to access larger markets while maintaining autonomy.

Fourth, regulatory sandboxes and flexible oversight tools offer a dual advantage: they enable early-stage innovation and help regulators learn alongside developers. Rwanda's health sector pilots and Singapore's AI Verify exemplify a "learning-by-doing" approach, which can inform future legislation while minimizing systemic risk.

Finally, AI governance frameworks that embed human rights principles are not only ethically superior but economically beneficial. Legal clarity, explainability requirements, and enforceable redress mechanisms attract responsible investors, reassure global partners, and distinguish ethical jurisdictions from opaque ones.

Collectively, these findings support the central thesis of the paper: smaller countries that design AI laws aligned with global norms, grounded in ethics, and supported by institutional innovation can become powerful contributors to the international AI ecosystem—not by scale, but by example.

5. Conclusion: The Window of Opportunity

We stand at a pivotal moment in the history of technology and governance. Artificial intelligence, once confined to research labs and science fiction, now permeates education systems, legal proceedings, healthcare delivery, public administration, and international security. The legal frameworks developed today will shape not only how AI is used, but who controls it, who benefits from it, and whose values are encoded into its design. For smaller jurisdictions, this moment presents a rare and urgent opportunity. Unlike previous waves of technological disruption—where scale, industrial capacity, or military dominance were decisive—AI governance rewards coherence, creativity, and credibility. The early movers in AI law will shape the standards, expectations, and alliances that govern future technological development. Those who wait may find themselves locked into systems designed elsewhere, subject to regulatory dependencies, or marginalized in global debates.

This paper has shown that small countries are not just capable of participating in global AI governance—they are well-suited to lead it. With the right combination of legal design, institutional support, ethical vision, and international engagement, even modest jurisdictions can create frameworks that attract investment, foster innovation, and protect rights. But this window is not open indefinitely. As larger players entrench their models—through trade agreements, technological exports, and global regulatory influence—the room for creative divergence narrows. Smaller countries must therefore act now: to pass adaptable AI legislation, establish independent oversight bodies, engage in multilateral norm-setting, and support innovation ecosystems that align with human rights and democratic values. AI governance is not merely a regulatory task. It is a reflection of a nation's identity, its strategic priorities, and its vision for the future. By embracing this responsibility with purpose and principle, smaller countries can transform AI law into an instrument of sovereignty, development, and leadership in the digital century.

References

- [1] Araujo, R., & White, H. (2023). Implementing UNESCO's AI Ethics Framework in Developing States: Challenges and Opportunities. *International Journal of Technoethics*, 14(1), 22–39.
- [2] Baykurt, B. (2022). Fragmented AI Governance in the United States. *Internet Policy Review*, 11(2), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.14763/2022.2.1572>
- [3] Cath, C. (2018). Governing artificial intelligence: ethical, legal and technical opportunities and challenges. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A*, 376(2133). <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2018.0080>
- [4] Chelvachandran, P., Leung, A., & Asare, P. (2020). The Role of Small States in AI Governance. *AI & Society*, 35(4), 931–946.
- [5] Cheng, C., & Goh, H. (2022). Soft Law in AI: Singapore's Model Governance Framework. *Asian Journal of International Law*, 12(1), 1–23.
- [6] Creemers, R., Triolo, P., & Webster, G. (2021). China's New AI Regulations: A Framework for Algorithm Governance. Stanford DigiChina Project. <https://digichina.stanford.edu>
- [7] De Almeida, V., Santos, M., & Diniz, A. (2021). From Ethical Principles to Legal Norms: Regulating Artificial Intelligence. *Journal of Information, Communication and Ethics in Society*, 19(3), 331–347.
- [8] Deloitte. (2023). AI at a Crossroads: Global Trends in Artificial Intelligence Governance. Deloitte Insights. <https://www2.deloitte.com>
- [9] Ding, J. (2023). China's Evolving AI Governance: The Rise of Algorithm Regulation. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. <https://carnegieendowment.org>
- [10] DLA Piper. (2023). AI Governance: A Guide for Boards and Executives. Retrieved from <https://www.dlapiper.com>

- [11] Ebers, M. (2021). Regulating Explainable AI in the European Union. *Law, Innovation and Technology*, 13(1), 76–102. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17579961.2021.1898298>
- [12] Edwards, L., & Veale, M. (2018). Enslaving the Algorithm: From a “Right to an Explanation” to a “Right to Better Decisions”? *IEEE Security & Privacy*, 16(3), 46–54.
- [13] European Commission. (2021). Proposal for a Regulation Laying Down Harmonised Rules on Artificial Intelligence (Artificial Intelligence Act). COM(2021) 206 final.
- [14] GPAI. (2022). Global Partnership on AI – Annual Report. Retrieved from <https://gpai.ai>
- [15] Hacker, P. (2021). The EU Artificial Intelligence Act as a Legal Framework for Trustworthy AI. *Verfassungsblog*. <https://verfassungsblog.de>
- [16] Hill, R., de Beer, J., & Daly, A. (2023). The EU AI Act and the Global South: Regulatory Spillovers and Development Risks. *Journal of Cyber Policy*, 8(1), 45–67.
- [17] Infocomm Media Development Authority (IMDA). (2020). Model AI Governance Framework – Second Edition. Singapore.
- [18] Israel Innovation Authority. (2020). National Artificial Intelligence Strategy 2020–2025. <https://innovationisrael.org.il>
- [19] Jobin, A., Ienca, M., & Vayena, E. (2019). The Global Landscape of AI Ethics Guidelines. *Nature Machine Intelligence*, 1(9), 389–399. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42256-019-0088-2>
- [20] Mittelstadt, B., Allo, P., Taddeo, M., Wachter, S., & Floridi, L. (2016). The Ethics of Algorithms: Mapping the Debate. *Big Data & Society*, 3(2), 1–21.
- [21] Mitrou, L. (2018). Data Protection, Artificial Intelligence and Cognitive Services: Is the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) “Artificial Intelligence-Proof”? *Computer Law & Security Review*, 34(5), 1140–1153.
- [22] Montasari, R. (2023). Trustworthy Artificial Intelligence Regulation: A Socio-legal Perspective. *International Journal of Law and Information Technology*, 31(1), 26–52.
- [23] OECD. (2019). Recommendation of the Council on Artificial Intelligence. OECD Legal Instruments. <https://legalinstruments.oecd.org>
- [24] OECD. (2023). OECD Framework for the Classification of AI Systems. <https://www.oecd.org>
- [25] O’Sullivan, S., Nevejans, N., Santos, V., Derhamy, H., & Vanderborght, B. (2019). Legal, Regulatory, and Ethical Framework for AI in Healthcare. *Frontiers in Artificial Intelligence*, 2, 3.
- [26] Rwanda Ministry of ICT & Innovation. (2021). Smart Rwanda Master Plan and AI Policy Vision. Government of Rwanda.
- [27] Singapore PDPC. (2022). AI Verify: Testing Framework for Trustworthy AI. Retrieved from <https://www.imda.gov.sg/ai-verify>
- [28] Tiits, M., Kalvet, T., & Tamm, D. (2020). Estonia’s Digital State Model: Trust, Transparency and Interoperability. *Government Information Quarterly*, 37(2), 101428.
- [29] UNDP. (2022). AI for Sustainable Development: Opportunities and Challenges in the Global South. Retrieved from <https://undp.org>
- [30] UNESCO. (2021). Recommendation on the Ethics of Artificial Intelligence. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org>
- [31] Uruguay AGESIC. (2023). AI Governance and Algorithmic Transparency Framework. <https://agesic.gub.uy>
- [32] Veale, M., & Borgesius, F. (2021). Demystifying the Draft EU Artificial Intelligence Act. *Computer Law Review International*, 22(4), 97–112.
- [33] Wachter, S., Mittelstadt, B., & Floridi, L. (2017). Why a Right to Explanation of Automated Decision-Making Does Not Exist in the General Data Protection Regulation. *International Data Privacy Law*, 7(2), 76–99.
- [34] World Bank. (2023). Digital Regulation in Emerging Economies. Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org>
- [35] Zipline. (2022). Drones in Public Health: The Rwanda Model. White Paper. <https://flyzipline.com>
- [36] Zuboff, S. (2019). The Age of Surveillance Capitalism. *PublicAffairs*.

- [37] AI4People. (2018). Ethical Framework for a Good AI Society: Opportunities, Risks, Principles, and Recommendations. *Minds and Machines*, 28(4), 689–707.
- [38] ITU. (2023). *AI for Good: Policy Guidelines for Developing Countries*. Geneva: International Telecommunication Union.
- [39] Carnegie Mellon Africa. (2023). Annual Report on AI Education in Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.africa.engineering.cmu.edu>
- [40] UK Centre for Data Ethics and Innovation. (2021). *AI Barometer Report*. <https://www.gov.uk>
- [41] Council of Europe. (2024). *Convention on Artificial Intelligence, Human Rights, Democracy and the Rule of Law*. Strasbourg.
- [42] European Data Protection Supervisor (EDPS). (2022). *Artificial Intelligence and Fundamental Rights*. <https://edps.europa.eu>