JWP (Jurnal Wacana Politik)
ISSN 2502 - 9185 : E-ISSN: 2549-2969
Vol. 9, No. 1, January 2024: 84 - 92

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE IN POLITICS: CONTESTING POWER IN HUMAN AND NONHUMAN RELATIONS IN THE DIGITAL ERA

Caroline Paskarina
Department of Political Science, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Universitas Padjadjaran, Jl. Raya Bandung-Sumedang KM. 21 Jatinangor, 456363
E-mail: caroline.paskarina@unpad.ac.id

ABSTRACT. The discourse on technology and politics is still marked by two competing narratives: utopian and dystopian. The two narratives contest each other regarding who will be more powerful in the digital era, whether humans or technology. However, beyond this dichotomous debate, artificial intelligence has become inevitable and creates new power practices that cannot be adequately analyzed from these two extreme poles. This article discusses the nature of power in the contesting discourse on the creation of artificial intelligence and the implications of using artificial intelligence in politics. The literature study method is used to identify narratives that shape discourses about power at the intersection of technology and politics that develop in debates about the implication of artificial intelligence toward relations in two aspects of relations, human to non-human and human to human, as implicated in the utilization of AI. Analysis of the narrative behind the discourse on artificial intelligence is expected to reveal truth claims that legitimize the nature of power that appears in the digital era.

Keywords: artificial intelligence; power; discourse

ABSTRAK. Diskursus tentang teknologi dan politik hingga saat ini masih ditandai oleh dua narasi yang saling berkontestasi, yakni narasi utopian dan narasi distopian. Keduanya saling berkontestasi tentang siapa yang akan lebih berkuasa di era digital, apakah manusia ataukah teknologi. Tetapi di luar perdebatan dikotomis ini, pemanfaatan *artificial intelligence* menjadi hal yang tidak terelakkan dan memunculkan praktik-praktik kuasa baru yang tidak cukup dianalisis dari dua kutub ekstrim ini. Artikel ini membahas tentang watak kuasa yang dilihat dari legitimasi dan operasi kuasa yang muncul sebagai implikasi penggunaan *artificial intelligence* dalam politik. Metode studi literatur digunakan untuk mengidentifikasi narasi-narasi yang membentuk diskursus tentang kekuasaan dalam interseksi teknologi dan politik yang berkembang dalam perdebatan tentang kemunculan dan pemanfaatan kecerdasan buatan dalam politik. Analisis tentang narasi di balik diskursus tentang kecerdasan buatan tersebut diharapkan dapat mengungkap klaim kebenaran yang melegitimasi watak kuasa yang muncul di era digital.

Kata kunci: kecerdasan buatan; kekuasaan; diskursus

INTRODUCTION

Currently, the utilization of artificial intelligence (AI) has become necessary in various aspects of human life. AI was initially developed to optimize the use of computers to assist humans in completing various tasks typically performed by humans. AI gathers and processes massive amounts of data into useful information to accomplish various tasks.

Artificial intelligence (AI) was first used during a series of academic conferences held at Dartmouth College in New Hampshire (USA) in the 1950s, where a group of scientists under the direction of mathematics professor John McCarthy convened to explore the possibility of simulating human intelligence in robots, namely the capacity for learning and decision-making (Crawford, 2021; Verdegem, 2021). Their central tenet was that mathematical methods could reconstruct human reasoning and codify problem-solving into algorithms (Verdegem, 2021). In recent developments, the utilization of AI has expanded to encompass services such as navigation, voice assistants, chatbots, and social media algorithms that can be used to predict a person's preferences.

In politics, AI is used to support the functioning of political institutions, including responding to public aspirations directed towards legislative bodies (Verdegem, 2021; Kreps and Jakesch, 2023), handling domestic conflicts and terrorism (Hunter et al., 2023), policy design (Carlsson and Rönnblom, 2022; Chou and Gomes, 2023), influencing public opinion (Hagen et al., 2022), and even acting as political leaders (Spatola and MacDorman, 2021). However, the use of AI in political practice has also generated various criticisms and concerns, including ethical issues (Henry and Oliver, 2022), biases (Zajko, 2022; Peng, 2023; Ulnicane and Aden, 2023), the spread of disinformation (Power Wogu et al., 2020), marginalization of citizens in the decision-making process (König, 2022; König and Wenzelburger, 2022), and control over the functioning of AI itself (Sætra, 2020).

The debate regarding the costs and benefits of utilizing AI has been ongoing for a long time and is rooted in utopian and dystopian narratives about technology and politics (Auslender, 2023). The contestation between these two narratives delves into the positive and negative aspects of technology's use

DOI: 10.24198/jwp.v9i1.51114
Submited: 16 November 2023, Accepted: 29 December 2023, Publish: 28 January 2024

in politics and begins to question the asymmetrical power relations between those who shape AI systems and those affected by them. Despite appearing contradictory, both utopian and dystopian views acknowledge the immense power and unitability of the existence of AI in human life. Dystopian views stem from concerns about the possibility of AI controlling human life, making it seem as if AI itself is what should be feared (Crawford, 2021). AI is a technology created and developed by humans. Therefore, it seems that the debate on AI needs to move away from the pro and con dichotomy to start discussing how we discern responsible use and direction for AI technology. Understanding how AI operates on and within human life is an intriguing subject for exploring and comprehending the dimensions of AI power. Like any technology, AI is not just a neutral tool but also has significant political and societal implications, including problematic consequences such as discrimination, increased inequalities, and violation of human rights (Ulnicane and Aden, 2023).

Various studies on AI that adopt a power perspective tend to focus on explaining how AI plays a role in influencing the behavior of individuals who use it for data search, processing, and analysis purposes. The primary goal of artificial intelligence is to understand and model human thought processes and design machines to mimic human behavior. This perspective is closely tied to the concept of power in the behavioral paradigm, which interprets it as the ability to influence the behavior of others. The development of studies on power has started to identify power not only from overt behaviors but also from the values that underlie the emergence of such behavior, as conceptualized by Parsons et al. (in Clegg and Haugaard, 2009). In contemporary studies, power is viewed as diverse and distributed relations resembling networks with a strategic scope (Haryatmoko, 2002; Taylor, 2011). Power is not a means of dominating others in the relations between the powerful and the powerless. Power differs from a state's sovereignty or a legal institution's assumption of external dominance or control over people or communities. Power is diffused, pervasive, omnipresent, and inherent to all social interactions. This character is not because power can make everything visible under certain circumstances; rather, it is created continuously in every interaction and every instant. Power originates from wherever, and not because it can grab everything. For this reason, power is present everywhere.

The conception of power as something productive and emanating from anywhere is intriguing when applied to understanding how AI operates and the power practices that arise from its existence. To understand how AI is inherently political, we must ask questions other than neural nets and statistical pattern recognition, such as what is being optimized, for what, and by whom. We can then follow the consequences of these decisions (Crawford, 2021). To explain the nature of this power, this article will first outline how AI works to identify its power. This assumption refers to Foucault's (1980) concept (1980)that the production of truth is placed centrally in understanding power's operation. Furthermore, the analysis aimed to map the character of power that arises from the relationship between AI and humans (Verdegem, 2021) and between humans who utilize AI. Both arenas are assumed to be the locus of power operations, so we can truly grasp the nature of AI power by understanding the various themes of discussion that emerge.

METHOD

This research uses the scoping literature study method to map relevant literature in identifying the discourse of power in AI studies. This technique is further elaborated by the following five steps: research question identification, relevant study identification, collected data analysis, data presentation, and mapping conclusion (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). This article attempts to answer questions about the power map in AI discourse, especially concerning the operation of AI, the relationship between AI and humans, and the relationship between humans owing to the use of AI in the political context. To address these questions, the researcher conducted a literature search through the Scopus (www.scopus.com) and Mendeley (www.mendeley.com) databases, using the keywords "artificial intelligence" AND "politics" AND "power." The keyword search in the Scopus database yielded 82 documents, whereas the Mendeley database yielded 2,182 documents.

Subsequently, the researchers narrowed down the sources based on several categories in each database. In the Scopus database, the categories used to filter sources included time range (from 2019 to 2023), subject area (Social Sciences), document type (article), source type (journal), publication in the English language, and being in the final stage of publication. Based on these restrictions, a total of 22 documents were obtained. The categories used to filter sources in the Mendeley database included the year (the last five years, i.e., from 2019 to 2023) and document type specified as 'Journal.' Using these restrictions, 1,062 documents were obtained from the Mendeley database. Subsequently, screening was conducted to reduce duplicate sources from Scopus and Mendeley, resulting in 1,042 documents. Further sorting was carried out based on the content of the

articles to check for relevance to the data requirements. Ultimately, 32 documents were obtained for analysis. The literature that became the unit of analysis was first processed as a table containing categories: publication year, title, source, main issue, and findings. The main issues and findings were then analyzed by creating categorizations based on keywords from the main issues and findings from each literature. Each category was then organized thematically based on the interpretation of the data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The exploration of AI's power of AI begins with the discourse surrounding intelligence, an ability initially considered exclusive to humans. The emergence of AI, capable of modeling human thought processes and even predicting human behavior based on regular pattern regularities, prompted us to reconsider human authority over intelligence and whether intelligence remains a privilege exclusive to humans. The development of AI raises the awareness that intelligence can indeed be created, no longer something inherently given. In this process, power practices define what is accepted as intelligence and what is not. Validation from various institutions, including the state, academia, science, and the public, was needed for the effort. Bureaucratic authorities were gathered to evaluate and assess the AI's capabilities, including determining whether they were truly remarkable.

According to Russell and Norvig (in Verdegem, 2021), for a computer to be considered intelligent, it must be able to perform the following tasks: automated reasoning (using stored data to generate new conclusions and answers to questions), knowledge representation (storing what the computer knows or hears), machine learning (adapting to new situations and recognizing and extrapolating patterns), and natural language processing (being able to communicate successfully). According to Elliott (in Verdegem, 2021), artificial intelligence (AI) is "a computational system that can sense its relevant context and react intelligently to data," which is a capability that allows it to accomplish a variety of highly complicated activities and goals, effectively simulating intelligent human behaviors.

This method shows how non-human systems, namely AI, do not serve as direct counterparts of the human mind. The analog perspective posits that providing appropriate training or sufficient resources makes it possible to generate human-like intelligence without adequately considering the essential aspects of human embodiment, engagement, and contextualization within a broader ecological framework. From an analog standpoint, intelligence is an autonomous entity inherently distinct from social, cultural, historical, and political influence. The concept of intelligence is inherently biased and has historically been utilized to legitimize power dynamics, resulting in significant harm across various historical periods and societal situations (Crawford, 2021).

History shows that the development of AI has involved a long process undertaken by experts to reach the abilities it currently possesses. Throughout the initial development phase in the 1950s, AI systems were frequently characterized as rudimentary yet possessing qualities akin to human intellect (Crawford, 2021). The alleged disparities between the jobs performed by humans and machines were deceptive. Specific intricate human jobs inherently require more time and formalization to be effectively addressed and resolved using automated systems. Significant transformations have occurred in AI since the 1960s, notably encompassing a transition from symbolic systems to the contemporary surge of interest in machine-learning methodologies (Crawford, 2021). The initial debates surrounding the capabilities of AI have, to a large extent, faded from memory, and prevailing doubt and skepticism have gradually dissipated. Artificial intelligence has experienced significant growth in both academia and industry since the mid-2000s. Some influential technology businesses have implemented AI systems globally, which have garnered praise for their perceived equivalence or superiority to human intelligence (Crawford, 2021).

Artificial intelligence is manifested through physical form and is derived from many natural resources, such as fuel, human labor, infrastructure, logistics, histories, and classifications. Artificial intelligence systems require more autonomy, rationality, and the ability to understand information without substantial training, using computationally costly methods that rely on vast datasets or established rules and rewards. The functioning of artificial intelligence, as currently understood, is contingent upon a comprehensive framework that includes many political and social systems. The development of AI systems on a large scale necessitates significant financial resources, and the optimization methods employed in these systems eventually prioritize the interests of established powerful entities (Crawford, 2021). Thus, artificial intelligence is a registry of power. In the next section, this article will elaborate on how power practices operate in the functioning of AI and the power discourse within the relationship between AI and humans, as well as among humans, as implications for the utilization of AI.

Understanding Power Practices in the Operation of AI

According to Russell and Norvig (in Verdegem,

2021), there are four distinct approaches to AI. These approaches encompass systems that exhibit four particular capabilities: (1) human-like thinking, (2) rational thinking, (3) human-like behavior, and (4) rational behavior. Each approach necessitates distinct discipline competence, necessitating, at the very least, an interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary discourse. The human-centered approach diverges from the social science field by focusing on examining human behavior. Conversely, the rationalist approach incorporates elements of mathematics and engineering into its methodology. Of the four approaches, *acting like humans* is closest to defining and understanding contemporary AI. Each way of defining artificial intelligence is to set a frame for how it is understood, measured, valued, and governed. Technically, the AI operation involves the following stages on figure 1.

It is important to remember that the field of AI is vast and encompasses various approaches, techniques, and algorithms, which can differ depending on the type of task to be solved. From natural language processing to autonomous vehicles, AI can be applied in various contexts to automate complex tasks. The expanding influence of AI is influenced by three key factors, as identified by Köbis et al. (2022). The advancement of computer machinery, such as microchips and graphics processing units, has facilitated notable enhancements in computational capabilities. Furthermore, more data is accessible in digital format, thus supplying essential resources for AI systems. In the past decade, notable advancements have been made in machine learning, a subset of artificial intelligence that enables computers to perform various tasks autonomously.

AI relies heavily on algorithms as the primary instruments that play a role in knowledge production through data processing and analysis. The algorithm concept is invoked to exert influence and persuasion, provide ideas, and imagine a specific framework, governance, and organizational system (Beer, 2017). The algorithm is situated within broader frameworks of rationality and cognitive processes that aim to advance a certain rationality grounded in the principles of calculation, competitiveness, efficiency, objectivity, and strategic thinking. Therefore, the algorithm concept significantly influences decisions, shapes behavior, and promotes particular methods and ideals. The term or image of the algorithm, its conceptual framework, and the nature of the associated truths are employed. An examination can be conducted using the word or concept to establish or sustain particular understandings regarding social structures and similar phenomena or to explore how specific understandings are fostered through conversations or references to the algorithm (Beer, 2017). These conversations indicate that the concept of the algorithm plays a significant role in shaping discursive frameworks. This concept has a degree of persuasive influence and is inclined to imply more extensive assertions of authority and rationality. To comprehend the societal impact of algorithms, it is imperative to grasp their potency as codes and explore how the concept of algorithms extends beyond their technical implementation. This entails examining how language shapes our understanding of algorithms and the perceived capabilities attributed to them (Beer, 2017).

In machine learning, algorithms are characterized by their ability to acquire knowledge from data or their own experiences rather than according

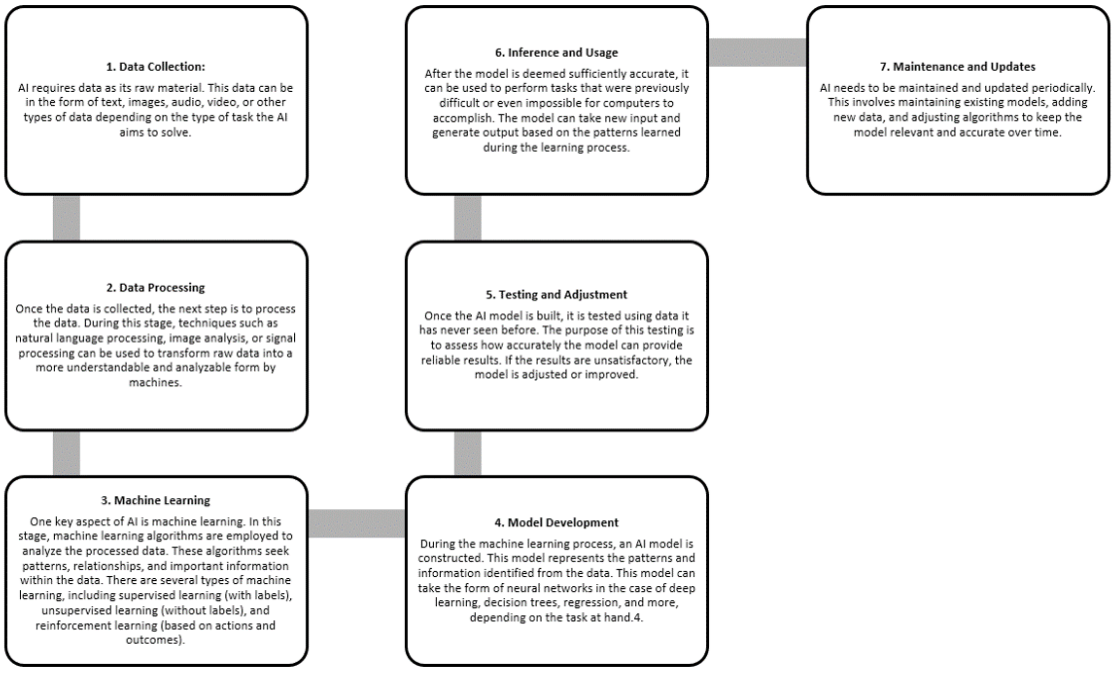

Figure 1. The Flow of AI's Mechanism

to predetermined rules (Köbis, Starke and Edward-Gill, 2022). Russell and Norvig (in Verdegem, 2021) argue that machine learning is necessary for developing intelligent machines. Machine learning is a computational framework that enables software systems to enhance their performance in a specific activity by acquiring knowledge from extensive datasets (Verdegem, 2021). This process involves identifying and utilizing statistical patterns and correlations within extensive datasets. Verdegem (2021) states that machine learning algorithms acquire knowledge mostly from data rather than human input. The current era of AI optimism and hype can be attributed to the abundance of real-world data generated through various sources such as the Internet, social media, sensors, and Internet-of-Things applications. This vast amount of data is complemented by substantial computing capacity and advancements in machine learning and deep learning techniques, which further contribute to the prevailing enthusiasm surrounding AI. The opacity of the decision-making process of machine-learning algorithms is frequently attributed to their inherent self-learning capabilities. Comprehension of a specific decision-making process is not always complete, even among programmers (Köbis, Starke and Edward-Gill, 2022). The susceptibility of numerous machine-learning systems to exploitation by malicious actors is attributed to their inherent opacity.

Artificial intelligence systems frequently employ binary gender-essentialized racial categories, flawed characters, and creditworthiness evaluations in their categorization methodologies for predicting human identification. A symbol will represent a system, a surrogate will represent the actual and a simplified model will be utilized as a substitute for the boundless intricacies of human subjectivity. Upon examining the classification process, it becomes evident that technical schemas have a role in reinforcing hierarchical structures and exacerbating inequities. The field of machine learning offers a framework for normative reasoning that becomes a dominant ruling rationale as it gains prominence. Therefore, AI systems reflect and produce social relations and understandings of the world.

Discourse of Power in the Relations of Human and AI

The advancement of AI has prompted studies on power to begin examining the relationship between humans and non-humans in knowledge production. Concerns about the potential for AI to replace humans in various fields of work are a significant issue in the AI-human relationship, leading to discourses on AI regulation and ethics in the functioning of machine learning algorithms (Johnson and Verdicchio, 2017; Acemoglu, 2021; Roche, Lewis and Wall, 2021; Zajko, 2022). AI regulation has emerged as a response to the development of strong AI, where machine learning algorithms possess "autonomy" in processing and interpreting data. This autonomy not only accentuates the growing power of AI but also makes it vulnerable to misuse for specific interests (Floridi, 2016; Verdegem, 2021; Köbis, Starke and Edward-Gill, 2022).

The discourse on regulating AI cannot be detached from the contestation of utopian and dystopian views. To bridge this gap, there is a proposal to discuss regulations regarding AI, including what and how AI operations are governed to minimize the negative impacts of AI utilization. The development of discussions on AI regulation indicates alternative perspectives beyond utopian and dystopian ones, viewing AI as a risky technology with various vulnerabilities. (Liu, 2018). By regulating the operation of AI, humans are endeavoring to maintain control over the power of AI in knowledge production. AI can uncover, analyze, and resolve preexisting vulnerabilities and weaknesses within this context. Consequently, this can enhance our power sources, which are not necessarily rooted in technology and certainly do not include AI (Liu, 2018).

These dynamics are influenced by factors such as control over technology, decision-making authority, and the distribution of benefits and risks. Power is often concentrated in the hands of those who control the data. AI systems rely on vast amounts of data to function effectively. As such, those who own or have access to this data wield significant power (Zuboff, 2019). One notable concern associated with surveillance capitalism is the assertion of ownership by platforms and technology corporations over individuals' private information, which is readily accessible without charge. This practice involves characterizing personal experiences as "raw material" for the operation of data factories. The level of governmental oversight and regulatory frameworks, as well as self-regulation by users, could be improved. Consequently, there has been an adverse reaction toward how these firms have utilized the collected data.

AI systems, including machine learning models, make decisions by processing vast amounts of data and learning patterns from that data. These decisions can range from simple tasks like recommending a movie on a streaming platform to more complex decisions like assessing credit risk in financial institutions. This utilization underscores the significant role that AI algorithms play in shaping various aspects of our lives and how the individuals and organizations responsible for designing and

deploying these algorithms wield considerable influence. The decisions made by AI systems can have far-reaching consequences. For instance, an AI-powered recruitment system may decide which job applicants get selected for interviews, affecting individuals' career opportunities.

Similarly, autonomous vehicles make critical decisions about navigation and safety, potentially impacting road safety and traffic patterns. The individuals, teams, or organizations that design and develop AI algorithms hold significant power and agency in determining how these systems operate. Algorithm designers make critical decisions during the development process, such as selecting the training data, defining the objectives and constraints of the AI system, and tuning the model's parameters. These decisions influence the system's behavior, accuracy, and biases. They can also determine how transparent and interpretable the AI system's decisions are.

The level of transparency can affect users' ability to understand and contest AI-driven decisions. Designers and organizations responsible for AI systems must be accountable for the decisions made by their algorithms. This accountability includes addressing biases, ensuring transparency, and addressing any adverse consequences of AI system decisions. Mittelstadt et al.'s work (Mittelstadt et al., 2016) underscores the complexity of ethical considerations and regulatory challenges in the AI domain. It emphasizes the need for interdisciplinary collaboration among ethicists, technologists, policymakers, and other stakeholders to develop comprehensive frameworks and regulations that ensure AI's responsible and ethical use while fostering innovation and societal benefit. These discussions and debates are ongoing as AI evolves, raising new ethical and regulatory questions.

Discourse of Power in Human and Human Relations as Implicated by the Utilization of AI

What are the social and material ramifications associated with integrating AI and related algorithmic systems into the decision-making processes of social institutions, such as education and health care, banking, government operations, workplace interactions and hiring, communication systems, and the justice system? The examination of power dynamics in artificial intelligence mainly revolves around the individuals directly impacted by the decision-making processes of AI systems (Köbis, Starke and Edward-Gill, 2022). In contemporary societies characterized by a growing reliance on digital technologies, individuals possessing coding skills and access to data are endowed with more significant influence and authority. Artificial intelligence can potentially reinforce and amplify preexisting disparities in power dynamics. Advanced algorithms possess considerable influence over individuals' lives by directly or indirectly impacting crucial decisions that have the potential to either expand or restrict options and opportunities (Liu, 2018).

The utilization of AI in human-to-human relations implicates power dynamics in several ways. AI technologies can act as intermediaries, amplifying or altering existing power structures and affecting individuals' interactions. AI systems can reinforce and magnify existing power dynamics within human relationships. For instance, in online platforms and social media, AI algorithms determine content visibility, which can amplify the voices of already influential individuals or groups (Gillespie, 2018). AI systems, including recommendation algorithms and content curation mechanisms, are designed to personalize and optimize user experiences. They do this by analyzing user data to determine what content is shown to each user. However, these algorithms often work based on patterns and behaviors observed in the data they are trained on. Consequently, if existing power structures or influential individuals or groups within a given online platform, AI algorithms tend to recognize and promote content related to these entities. This practice happens because the content generated by influential users often receives more engagement (likes, shares, comments), and AI algorithms are designed to prioritize content that keeps users engaged.

AI algorithms control content visibility in users' feeds or search results. AI-driven recommendation systems shape the information that is exposed to individuals. This recommendation can influence people's beliefs, opinions, and, ultimately, the power dynamics within society. Content favored by these algorithms is more likely to be seen by a larger audience. When AI algorithms prioritize content from already powerful individuals or groups, it can amplify their voices even further. For example, a famous influencer or a well-established organization may have their content promoted to a broader audience due to high engagement rates. This was confirmed in a study conducted by Dujeancourt and Garz (2023), who found that Twitter's switch from reverse-chronological exposure to algorithmic content selection boosted user engagement. The evidence suggests users were engaged more with initially more popular news topics or with the notion of sensationalist content. As a result, they can reach more people and exert more influence over discussions, opinions, and trends. Conversely, less influential or marginalized voices may struggle to gain visibility in such an environment.

The information people consume shapes their

worldviews, values, and understanding of societal issues. When recommendation algorithms drive users toward particular types of content, it can influence their perceptions and behaviors, which, in turn, can have broader societal implications. Online platforms have been accused of contributing to political polarization by promoting content aligning with users' existing political beliefs, potentially deepening societal divisions. Recommendation algorithms can influence the visibility and reach of social movements and activist content, affecting the power dynamics within these movements. AI-driven content recommendations can impact popular culture, trends, and consumer behavior by steering individuals toward specific content or products. AI-driven recommendation systems are not neutral; they have the potential to shape individuals' beliefs and opinions by directing their exposure to information. This practice, in turn, can influence the power dynamics within society by either amplifying existing divisions or promoting particular ideas and perspectives.

Implementing AI technology also highlights the dual-edged nature of AI applications in surveillance. While these technologies can offer benefits in terms of security and efficiency, they also raise significant ethical and privacy concerns. Facial recognition technology enables the automated identification and tracking of individuals based on their facial features. Surveillance systems often use this to monitor public spaces, airports, and even social media platforms. The widespread use of facial recognition raises serious privacy concerns. People can be tracked and identified without consent, potentially infringing on their privacy rights. The potential for misuse or abuse of this technology is significant. Governments, law enforcement agencies, or malicious actors could use facial recognition for mass surveillance, monitoring political dissent, or tracking individuals without due process. Facial recognition systems have been shown to have bias and accuracy issues, particularly regarding different racial and gender groups. Misidentifications based on race or gender can lead to wrongful arrests and exacerbate existing inequalities.

The potential for abuse of power due to AI technology in facial recognition and data analytics concerns the state and corporate authority. Governments can abuse AI-powered surveillance technologies to monitor citizens, suppress dissent, and maintain control, potentially eroding democratic principles. Corporations can use AI-driven data analytics to track consumer behavior, potentially leading to invasive advertising practices and the commodification of personal information. Therefore, the ability to conduct surveillance using AI technologies can reinforce existing power imbalances between individuals and those with access to these technologies.

CONCLUSION

Artificial intelligence encompasses various dimensions, serving as a conceptual framework, a technological infrastructure, an industry, a mechanism for exerting influence, and a perceptual lens. Artificial intelligence systems are constructed based on the principles of capital, policing, and militarization, exacerbating the prevailing disparities in power. The many perspectives discussed in this context are contingent upon the simultaneous processes of abstraction and extraction. Conception involves distancing oneself from the material circumstances that contribute to creating these perspectives. At the same time, extraction entails obtaining additional information and resources from individuals with limited capacity to resist. However, it is possible to question this reasoning, similar to how systems that sustain oppression can be repudiated. In light of evolving circumstances on Earth, the collective voices advocating for data privacy, worker rights, climate justice, and racial equity must be acknowledged in unison. Various conceptualizations of planetary politics emerge as we include the influence of interconnected justice movements in our comprehension of artificial intelligence. It is necessary to enhance our understanding of the ongoing developments in AI to ascertain the potential implications and facilitate more informed and reasonable decision-making regarding future endeavors.

It is important to note that many technology companies are increasingly aware of the issues of power in AI and are working on algorithms and content moderation practices to address them. However, these challenges continue to be a subject of ongoing debate and research, as they have complex social and ethical dimensions that require careful consideration in designing and regulating AI systems in the context of human and AI and online human relationships.

Many countries and regions are actively debating and implementing regulations to safeguard privacy and prevent the abuse of power through AI-driven surveillance, but these challenges remain at the forefront of the AI ethics and policy discourse. Research on AI and politics is a dynamic and multifaceted field that offers numerous avenues for further exploration. We need to advance our understanding of this complex domain with several avenues for further research to contribute knowledge on AI's ethical, social, and political implications in the political landscape while contributing to responsible and informed governance practices.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Universitas Padjadjaran, for facilitating the research and dissemination of this article. Gratitude was also addressed to the participants of the 5th Open Society Conference hosted by the Faculty of Law, Social, and Political Sciences Universitas Terbuka for an initial discussion to revise this article.

REFERENCES

Acemoglu, D. (2021). *Dangers of unregulated artificial intelligence*, *VOXEU, CEPR Policy Portal*. Available at: https://voxeu.org/article/dangers-unregulated-artificial-intelligence.

Arksey, H. & O'Malley, L. (2005). Scoping studies: Towards a methodological framework. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology: Theory and Practice*, 8(1), 19–32. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/1364557032000119616.

Auslender, V. (2023). *Artificial intelligence discourse dominated by utopian and dystopian prophecies | Ctech*. Available at: https://www.calcalistech.com/ctechnews/article/ups0y6m02 (Accessed: 3 August 2023).

Beer, D. (2017). The social power of algorithms. *Information Communication and Society*, 20(1), 1–13. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2016.1216147.

Carlsson, V. & Rönnblom, M. (2022). From politics to ethics: Transformations in EU policies on digital technology. *Technology in Society*, 71. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TECHSOC.2022.102145.

Chou, M.H. & Gomes, C. (2023). Politics of on-demand food delivery: Policy design and the power of algorithms. *Review of Policy Research* [Preprint]. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1111/ROPR.12543.

Clegg, S.R. & Haugaard, M. (2009). *The SAGE Handbook of Power*. London: SAGE Publications, Ltd.

Crawford, K. (2021). *Atlas of AI: Power, Politics, and the Planetary Costs of Artificial Intelligence*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press. Available at: https://doi.org/10.56315/pscf3-22crawford.

Dujeancourt, E. & Garz, M. (2023). The effects of algorithmic content selection on user engagement with news on Twitter. *Information Society*, 39(5), 263–281. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/01972243.2023.2230471.

Floridi, L. (2016). Faultless responsibility: on the nature and allocation of moral responsibility for distributed moral actions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, 374(2083). Available at: https://doi.org/10.1098/RSTA.2016.0112.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings 1972-1977*, *New York*. Available at: https://doi.org/citeulike-article-id:798470.

Gillespie, T. (2018). *Custodians of the Internet: Platforms, Content Moderation, and the Hidden Decisions That Shape Social Media*. USA: Yale University Press.

Hagen, L. (2022). Rise of the Machines? Examining the Influence of Social Bots on a Political Discussion Network. *Social Science Computer Review*, 40(2), pp. 264–287. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439320908190.

Haryatmoko. (2002). Kekuasaan melahirkan Anti Kekuasaan: Menelanjangi Mekanisme dan Teknik Kekuasaan bersama Foucault, *Basis*, 51(01–02). Available at: http://sosiologiub.files.wordpress.com/2010/04/kekuasaan-melahirkan-anti-kekuasaan.pdf.

Henry, J. V & Oliver, M. (2022). Who Will Watch the Watchmen? The Ethico-political Arrangements of Algorithmic Proctoring for Academic Integrity. *Postdigital Science and Education*, 4(2), pp. 330–353. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/s42438-021-00273-1.

Hunter, L.Y. (2023). The Fourth Industrial Revolution, Artificial Intelligence, and Domestic Conflict. *Global Society*, 37(3), 375–396. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/13600826.2022.2147812.

Johnson, D. & Verdicchio, M. (2017). Reframing AI Discourse. *Minds and Machines*, 27(4), pp. 575–590. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/s11023-017-9417-6.

Köbis, N.C., Starke, C. & Edward-Gill, J. (2022) .*The Corruption Risks of Artificial Intelligence*.

König, P.D. (2022). Citizen conceptions of democracy and support for artificial intelligence in government and politics. *European Journal of Political Research* [Preprint]. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6765.12570.

König, P.D. & Wenzelburger, G. (2022). Between

technochauvinism and human-centrism: Can algorithms improve decision-making in democratic politics?. *European Political Science*, 21(1), 132–149. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1057/s41304-020-00298-3.

Kreps, S. & Jakesch, M. (2023). Can AI communication tools increase legislative responsiveness and trust in democratic institutions?. *Government Information Quarterly*, 40(3). Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/J.GIQ.2023.101829.

Liu, H.Y. (2018). The power structure of artificial intelligence. *Law, Innovation and Technology*, 10(2), 197–229. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/17579961.2018.1527480.

Mittelstadt, B.D. (2016). The ethics of algorithms: Mapping the debate. *Big Data & Society*, pp. 1–21. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/2053951716679679.

Peng, Y. (2023). The role of ideological dimensions in shaping acceptance of facial recognition technology and reactions to algorithm bias. *Public Understanding of Science*, 32(2), 190–207. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/09636625221113131.

Power Wogu, I.A. (2020). The Social Media, Politics of Disinformation in Established Hegemonies, and the Role of Technological Innovations in 21st Century Elections: The Road Map to US 2020 Presidential Elections. *International Journal of Electronic Government Research*, 16(3), 65–84. Available at: https://doi.org/10.4018/IJEGR.2020070104.

Roche, C., Lewis, D. & Wall, P.J. (2021). Artificial Intelligence Ethics: An Inclusive Global Discourse?. *Proceedings of the 1st Virtual Conference on Implications of Information and Digital Technologies for Development*, 643–658.

Sætra, H.S. (2020). A shallow defence of a technocracy of artificial intelligence: Examining the political harms of algorithmic governance in the domain of government', *Technology in Society*. 62. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techsoc.2020.101283.

Spatola, N. & MacDorman, K.F. (2021). Why Real Citizens Would Turn to Artificial Leaders. *Digital Government: Research and Practice*, 2(3). Available at: https://doi.org/10.1145/3447954.

Taylor, D. (2011). *Michel Foucault Key Concepts*. Durham: Acumen.

Ulnicane, I. & Aden, A. (2023). Power and politics in framing bias in Artificial Intelligence policy. *Review of Policy Research*, 00, 1–23. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1111/ROPR.12567.

Verdegem, P. (2021). *AI for Everyone? Critical Perspectives*. London: University of Westminter Press. Available at: https://doi.org/10.16997/book55.a.

Zajko, M. (2022). Artificial intelligence, algorithms, and social inequality: Sociological contributions to contemporary debates. *Sociology Compass*, 16(3). Available at: https://doi.org/10.1111/soc4.12962.

Zuboff, S. (2019). *The Age of Surveillance Capitalism: The Fight for a Human Future at the New Frontier of Power*. USA: Public Affairs.