



E-ISSN: 3108-4192

APSSHS

Academic Publications of Social Sciences and Humanities Studies

2026, Volume 6, Issue 1, Page No: 105-114

Available online at: <https://apsshs.com/>

Journal of Applied Organizational Systems and Behavior

How Organizational Decision Systems Automate and Amplify Workplace Inequality

Luis Herrera^{1*}, Daniela Rojas¹, Andres Castro²

1. Department of Automated Inequality and Decision Systems, Faculty of Business, Pontifical Catholic University of Chile, Santiago, Chile.
2. Department of Workplace Inequality Amplification, Faculty of Management, University of Concepcion, Concepcion, Chile.

Abstract

Organizational decision systems increasingly mediate recruitment, evaluation, allocation, scheduling, monitoring, and other consequential workplace processes. Debate about workplace inequality, however, often treats algorithmic bias as a technical property of models rather than as an organizational process involving data, objectives, authority, participation, work design, and accountability. This Critical Review Article evaluates that broader systems problem. It synthesizes recent peer-reviewed research on algorithmic control, automated human resource management, worker voice, surveillance, burden distribution, professional judgment, and governance. The review distinguishes statistical or technical discrimination from perceived fairness, voice opportunity from consequential influence, automation from augmentation, technological capability from legitimate authority, and algorithmic opacity from enacted accountability. Across the evidence, unequal outcomes can arise through several pathways: optimization may interact with unequal environments; workers may be exposed to decision systems they cannot meaningfully shape; errors and adaptation costs may be distributed unevenly; and responsibility may become fragmented across human and technical actors. Yet the evidence is heterogeneous, and platform-work findings, laboratory judgments, conceptual frameworks, and organizational cases cannot be treated as interchangeable. The article therefore proposes a Systems Model of Inequality Production as an integrative synthesis rather than a validated causal model. The model identifies linked decision layers, four inequality-producing mechanisms, feedback processes, and contextual gates that require direct longitudinal and multilevel testing. The principal implication is that organizational inequality cannot be evaluated adequately by model accuracy or fairness metrics alone.

Keywords: Bias amplification, Participation exclusion, Accountability failure, Systems model of inequality production, Automate, Amplify

How to cite this article: Herrera L, Rojas D, Castro A. How Organizational Decision Systems Automate and Amplify Workplace Inequality. J Appl Organ Syst Behav. 2026;6(1):105-114. <https://doi.org/10.51847/jzH27baHQQ>

Received: 23 April 2026; **Revised:** 12 July 2026; **Accepted:** 15 July 2026

Corresponding author: Luis Herrera

E-mail ✉ luis.herrera@uc.cl

Introduction

Artificial intelligence and algorithmic decision systems increasingly participate in organizational judgments about who is seen, selected, evaluated, scheduled, rewarded, disciplined, or ignored. A narrow account of inequality asks whether a model produces statistically different outcomes across groups. A broader organizational account asks how inequality may enter before model execution, be transformed during implementation, and persist after outputs are enacted. Recent scholarship on artificial intelligence at work therefore treats workplace inequality as potentially cascading across development, implementation, and use rather than residing only in a final prediction or ranking [1].



© 2026 The Author(s).

Copyright CC BY-NC-SA 4.0

This broader framing also requires attention to control. Algorithmic systems can restrict, recommend, record, rate, replace, and reward, allowing managerial control to be exercised through digitally mediated infrastructures rather than through a single automated decision [2]. Learning algorithms additionally introduce black-box performance, extensive digitization, anticipatory quantification, and hidden politics into organizing, changing what becomes visible, calculable, and actionable [3]. Accordingly, inequality can arise not only from biased classification but also from how organizational knowledge and authority are structured around algorithmic systems.

The distinction between automation and augmentation further complicates responsibility. These modes are interdependent rather than clean alternatives, because human judgment may remain embedded before, during, or after automated processing [4]. Algorithmic management can also redesign jobs through monitoring, goal setting, performance management, scheduling, compensation, and termination functions, thereby altering job resources and demands rather than merely improving decision speed [5]. Intelligent technologies therefore need to be examined in relation to organizational variation, power, ideology, and institutional change, not as autonomous technical causes [6].

The contribution of this Critical Review Article is to integrate these strands around four mechanisms: bias amplification, participation exclusion, unequal exposure to error and burden, and accountability failure. Taken together, the selected workplace-AI, algorithmic-control, and organizational-technology literatures suggest that inequality-producing consequences must be examined across linked development, control, and institutional-enactment processes rather than at algorithmic output alone [1, 2, 6]. The review does not assume that automation necessarily worsens inequality. Instead, it asks where amplification is plausible, which relationships are directly supported, where evidence conflicts, and which contextual conditions could redirect the process.

Critical review method

The review was designed as a critical review rather than a systematic effectiveness review. Literature reviewing was treated as an explicit research methodology requiring transparent decisions about scope, selection, interpretation, and synthesis [7]. The procedure specified review questions, information sources, search concepts, eligibility criteria, duplicate handling, screening logic, extraction fields, appraisal questions, and a synthesis process oriented toward assumptions, mechanisms, contradictions, omissions, and boundaries [8].

Searches combined title variants with terms concerning automated inequality, algorithmic management, bias amplification, hiring fairness, participation, voice, surveillance, burden, opacity, responsibility, contestability, human-AI decision structures, governance, and methodological limitations. Eligible records were peer-reviewed Q1 journal articles with verifiable DOI metadata and direct relevance to at least one review claim, synthesis element, methodological judgment, or boundary condition. Records were excluded when they lacked adequate article-specific fit, duplicated another version, or would have required interpretation beyond the design or context examined.

Figure 1 reports the verified flow of records through identification, duplicate removal, screening, full-text assessment, exclusion, and final inclusion for this critical review article.

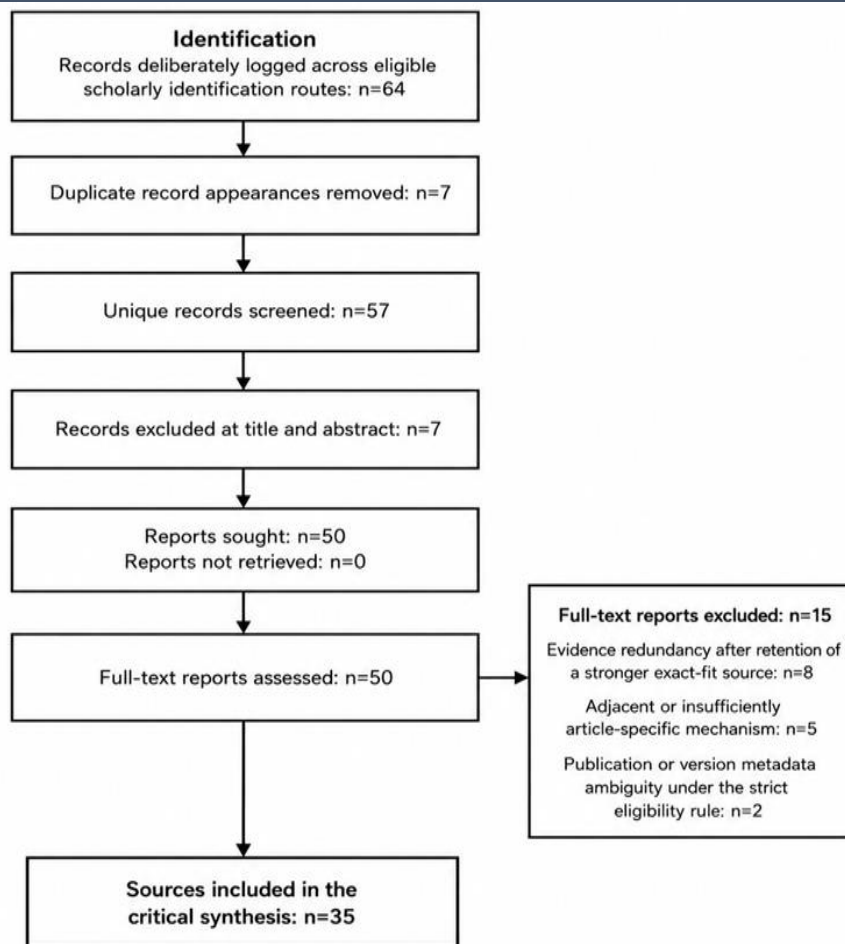


Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram for Evidence Identification and Selection

PRISMA-compatible reporting was used to make movement through identification and selection inspectable [9]. Its use does not convert the article into a systematic review or justify a claim of exhaustive coverage. Critical synthesis instead compared what the literature establishes, where findings diverge, which assumptions organize interpretation, and what remains unknown or methodologically unresolved [10].

Bias amplification

Bias amplification is defined here as a process through which organizational data representations, objectives, proxies, model training or validation, thresholds, repeated deployment, or interaction with external conditions transform or magnify differential exposure or treatment. This definition is deliberately narrower than “unequal outcome.” Reviews of algorithmic decision-making in recruitment and development show that discrimination and fairness problems can arise at multiple stages, but heterogeneous definitions and designs prevent a single mechanism from being assumed whenever disparity is observed [11].

Evidence also challenges the idea that bias must originate in prejudiced labels. In online STEM advertising, a delivery objective that did not explicitly target gender still produced gender-differentiated exposure because cost optimization interacted with market prices [12]. The relevant mechanism was therefore system-level: an ostensibly neutral objective operated within an unequal environment. This does not establish discriminatory intent, and advertising exposure is not equivalent to a hiring decision, but it demonstrates why organizational analysis must include objective–environment interaction.

A different literature examines perceived procedural fairness. Applicants exposed to algorithm-driven hiring procedures can judge algorithm-only processes as less fair, partly because they believe automated procedures fail to recognize individual uniqueness [13]. Such evidence concerns perceived justice rather than measured disparate impact. Conversely, technical assessment quality presents another problem. Automated video-interview personality models showed reliability and generalizability that depended substantially on the criterion used for training, with stronger performance for interviewer-report targets than self-report targets [14]. Weak or unstable measurement may create inequality risks, but it does not by itself establish protected-group discrimination.

The evidence therefore locates potential amplification at several interfaces, including discriminatory or fairness-sensitive HR processes, objective–environment interactions, and the reliability and generalizability of automated measurement [11, 12, 14]. Alternative explanations remain viable: historical labor-market inequality, organizational criteria, human discretion, platform economics, and validation design can all shape observed disparities. The critical question is consequently not whether “the algorithm is biased” in the abstract, but where differential treatment is produced, transformed, or stabilized.

Table 1 organizes the evidence, constructs, relationships, uncertainties, and boundary conditions required for review design, evidence domains, and extraction framework for how organizational decision systems automate and amplify workplace inequality.

Table 1. Review design, evidence domains, and extraction framework for How Organizational Decision Systems Automate and Amplify Workplace Inequality.

Evidence domain or review construct	Review question	Eligible evidence type	Extraction fields	Appraisal or relevance criterion	Synthesis role	Main limitation	Interpretation boundary
Systems problem	Where can inequality enter across the decision process?	Integrative, conceptual, organizational studies	Stage; actor; authority; representation	Links technology to organizing	Establishes systems framing	Heterogeneous settings	Automation does not imply inequality
Critical review method	How should heterogeneous evidence be compared?	Methodological and reporting literature	Search; eligibility; extraction; synthesis	Supports transparent review decisions	Makes procedure inspectable	Not exhaustive coverage	Reporting transparency is not systematic completeness
Bias amplification	Where can differential treatment be produced or magnified?	Reviews, field studies, experiments, validation studies	Data; proxy; objective; outcome; validation	Identifies a specific amplification interface	Separates mechanisms from generic disparity	Fairness measures differ	Disparity alone does not prove algorithmic causation
Participation exclusion	When does involvement fail to provide influence?	Qualitative and process evidence	Voice; decision rights; opacity; contestability	Distinguishes participation from consequential influence	Identifies power asymmetry	Context dependent	Consultation is not substantive power
Error and burden exposure	Who absorbs errors, monitoring, adaptation, or uncertainty?	Mixed-method, longitudinal, work-design evidence	Error; workload; autonomy; dependence; compensation	Identifies downstream burden and moderators	Extends inequality beyond allocation	Cross-setting comparability is weak	Burden may coexist with autonomy
Accountability failure	Where do authority, responsibility, and correction diverge?	Organizational, professional, governance evidence	Delegation; override; appeal; correction	Identifies corrective-capacity gaps	Explains persistence and contestability	Accountability is difficult to observe	Human presence or trust is not accountability
Systems model and governance	How should mechanisms be integrated and tested?	Cross-domain evidence and critical synthesis	Architecture; feedback; boundaries; auditing	Links only supported or explicitly proposed relationships	Organizes model and research agenda	Full sequence untested	Model is not validated causation

Note. The table is an original critical-review synthesis. It organizes heterogeneous evidence without assigning study-quality scores, pooled effects, or causal rankings.

The available evidence therefore supports a plural rather than monolithic account of amplification. Bias may be encoded in inputs or criteria, emerge through objective–environment interaction, or be exacerbated by invalid measurement. Yet the current evidence does not establish that every automated disparity is created or intensified by the algorithm itself. Causal attribution requires analysis of the organizational and market conditions surrounding the system.

Participation exclusion

Participation exclusion refers to a gap between being exposed to, consulted about, or behaviorally responsive to a decision system and possessing meaningful influence over its goals, criteria, data, implementation, evaluation, or correction. This

distinction matters because formal voice opportunities can coexist with weak decision rights. Comparative research on crowdwork platforms shows regimes in which workers have channels for task-level input but little influence over platform-level governance, producing voice without equivalent co-determination [15].

Opacity can deepen this gap without producing a single worker response. Longitudinal evidence from online freelance work shows that workers react to opaque algorithmic evaluation through different forms of experimentation, adaptation, and withdrawal depending on experience, dependence, success, and setbacks [16]. Such reactivity demonstrates agency, but it also shows that adaptation to a system is not the same as participation in designing or governing it. Workers may expend substantial effort learning what the system rewards while remaining unable to contest the criteria themselves.

Qualitative research on online sellers similarly finds power asymmetry without complete elimination of agency [17]. Workers interpret, work around, and sometimes resist algorithmic arrangements, suggesting that participation exclusion should not be framed as total passivity. The key analytical question is whether agency changes consequential organizational decisions or merely enables accommodation within externally determined rules.

Evidence from a conventional logistics workplace is especially important because it prevents overgeneralization from platform work. During algorithmic-management implementation, participation in data production and system development coexisted with centralization of knowledge and elements of worker disempowerment [18]. Participation was therefore real but uneven in consequence. Across these studies, the central convergence is that formal permission to speak, react, or contribute does not necessarily confer substantive power. Participation exclusion should therefore be treated as a decision-specific and relational condition rather than an inevitable consequence of organizational automation.

Unequal exposure to error and burden

Inequality in automated work systems is not exhausted by who receives a favorable decision. Workers may also differ in how much monitoring, adjustment, uncertainty, unpaid effort, or contextual error they must absorb to remain legible to a system. Evidence from remote gig work complicates simple claims that algorithmic control necessarily removes autonomy: workers reported substantial flexibility alongside intense control and adverse job-quality conditions [19]. Autonomy therefore cannot be treated as the opposite of burden; workers may choose when to work while still bearing asymmetric risks created by ratings, allocation rules, or market dependence.

Algorithmic surveillance adds a representational problem. In food-delivery work, system-visible representations of labor can privilege quantified, platform-readable activity over workers' lived spatial and contextual conditions [20]. The implication is not that captured data are inherently false, but that what becomes measurable may be narrower than what is relevant to performance or fairness. When decisions rely heavily on such representations, workers whose circumstances are poorly captured may face greater correction or adaptation demands.

Burden is conditional rather than uniform. Comparative evidence across digital labor platforms shows that unpaid labor varies with platform regime, autonomy, skill, and labor-market shelter [21]. A three-wave multisource study similarly found that algorithmic control can operate through both work anxiety and job embeddedness, with pay satisfaction conditioning these relationships [22]. These findings resist a universal-harm thesis. They indicate that exposure depends on employment arrangement, compensation, resources, and the way control is configured.

A further distinction is necessary between error exposure and burden exposure. A worker can bear additional monitoring, explanation, or adaptation costs even when an automated output is technically accurate. Conversely, context omitted from a quantified representation can create an error without producing the same burden for every worker [20]. Comparative platform evidence similarly indicates that the amount of unpaid work is conditioned by skill and labor-market shelter [21]. The distributional question is therefore who absorbs the consequences of imperfect representation, changing rules, and system maintenance, at what organizational level, and under which employment conditions.

Table 2 organizes the evidence, constructs, relationships, uncertainties, and boundary conditions required for cross-study findings, mechanisms, convergence, and conflict in how organizational decision systems automate and amplify workplace inequality.

Table 2. Cross-study findings, mechanisms, convergence, and conflict in How Organizational Decision Systems Automate and Amplify Workplace Inequality.

Construct, mechanism, or relationship	Representative context	Reported finding	Evidence design	Convergent evidence	Conflicting evidence	Methodological concern	Review interpretation
Bias through decision architecture	Automated HR decisions	Differential outcomes can arise through data, objectives, validation, or environment	Reviews and empirical studies	Multiple stages can generate distortion	Mechanisms vary by system	Fairness definitions differ	Locate bias at a specific interface

Objective–environment interaction	Digital recruitment and advertising	Neutral optimization can yield unequal exposure	Field evidence	Objectives interact with market conditions	Unequal exposure need not indicate intent	External-market setting	Technical neutrality is not distributional neutrality
Procedural fairness	Algorithm-assisted hiring	Applicants may judge algorithm-only procedures less fair	Experiments	Procedure shapes perceived legitimacy	Perception may diverge from measured discrimination	Simulated decisions	Keep subjective justice separate from disparate impact
Measurement validity	Automated assessment	Reliability depends on target construction and validation	Validation studies	Measurement quality is conditional	Performance varies across criteria	Fairness may remain untested	Invalid measurement is risk, not proof of discrimination
Voice and opacity	Digitally managed work	Workers may adapt or speak without influencing system rules	Qualitative and longitudinal evidence	Formal participation can coexist with restricted power	Workers retain agency	Platform evidence dominates	Evaluate consequential decision rights
Autonomy and burden	Platform and app-mediated work	Flexibility can coexist with monitoring, unpaid work, and anxiety	Mixed and longitudinal evidence	Burden depends on worker position and regime	Effects are not uniformly adverse	Transferability is uncertain	Treat autonomy and burden as simultaneous dimensions
Accountability and recourse	AI-supported decisions	Responsibility fragments when authority, expertise, and correction separate	Conceptual and qualitative evidence	Oversight requires corrective capacity	Trust may remain despite weak recourse	Objective accountability seldom measured	Assess actual appeal and remediation rights

Note. Convergence, conflict, and interpretation are critical-review synthesis; the table does not imply pooled effects or universal prevalence.

The evidence supports unequal exposure as a distributional question about who must absorb errors, monitoring, adjustment, and uncertainty. It does not establish that automation universally increases burden. Work arrangement, worker resources, compensation, dependence, and enacted management practices remain material boundary conditions.

Accountability failure

Accountability failure concerns a mismatch among decision authority, information, responsibility, explanation, and capacity to correct. It is therefore broader than opacity and cannot be reduced to whether a human formally remains “in the loop.” Ethical analysis of algorithms emphasizes that algorithms are value-laden and that delegation changes organizational roles without transferring moral responsibility to the technical artifact itself [23]. Responsibility remains distributed among actors who define objectives, choose data, authorize deployment, interpret outputs, and decide whether correction is possible.

In human resource management, algorithm-based decision making also raises personal-integrity concerns when efficiency-oriented systems shift the balance toward compliance with quantified criteria [24]. This is a conceptual risk rather than evidence of universal employee harm. It nevertheless highlights an accountability problem: workers may be expected to conform to system requirements even when they have limited access to the assumptions underlying those requirements or limited ability to contest their application.

Research on professionals using opaque diagnostic AI demonstrates why nominal human oversight is insufficient as an analytic category. Professionals developed differentiated practices for deciding when and how to engage with opaque recommendations rather than simply deferring to or rejecting them [25]. Although the setting is healthcare, the organizational implication is bounded but relevant: substantive oversight requires expertise, discretion, and practices for resolving uncertainty, not merely human presence after an automated output.

Perceptions create another distinction. Perceived fairness, accountability, and transparency are associated with trust in algorithmic services [26], but trust does not establish that an organizational system is objectively fair, contestable, or accountable. A system can be trusted yet poorly governed, or distrusted despite safeguards. Accountability failure should consequently be evaluated through actual authority, explanation, appeal, correction, and responsibility arrangements. The evidence supports this organizational mismatch as a useful synthesis, but not as a validated universal construct or a proven causal index of inequality.

Proposed systems model of inequality production

The proposed Systems Model of Inequality Production treats automated inequality as an organizational process spanning decision mandate, data representation, algorithmic operation, enactment, and downstream consequences. Human and AI authority can be configured through delegated, sequential, or aggregated decision structures, which place intervention and

responsibility at different points [27]. These structures provide the model's architectural starting point, but they do not establish that one configuration is inherently more equitable.

Figure 2 presents the original conceptual synthesis for systems model of inequality production, showing how the article's principal constructs, mechanisms, uncertainties, and decision boundaries are connected.

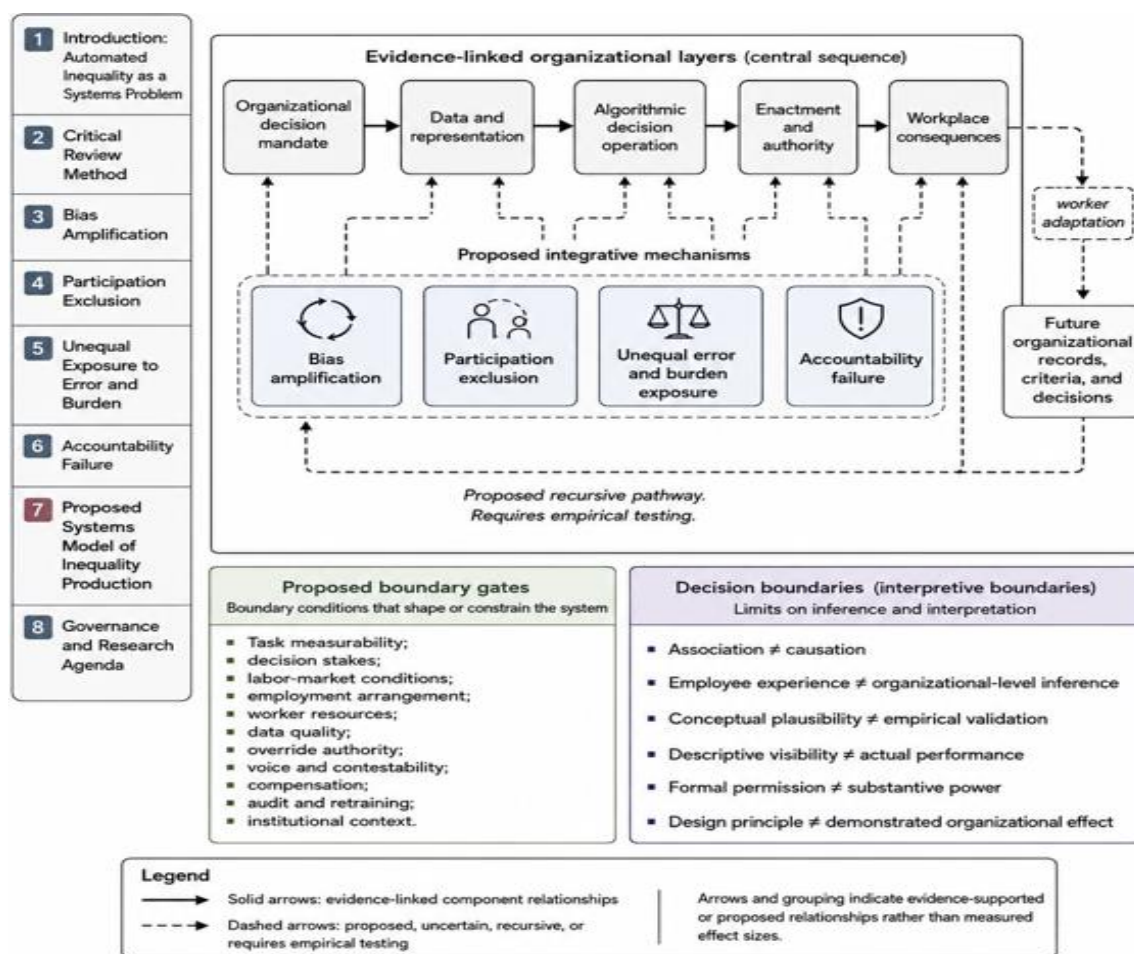


Figure 2. Systems Model of Inequality Production

Human and AI capabilities differ under complexity, uncertainty, and equivocality, so computational capability should not be treated as equivalent to legitimate decision authority [28]. Organizational implementation can also alter regimes of knowing, redistributing which forms of expertise become visible or consequential [29]. At the work interface, matching and control can jointly generate tensions around execution, compensation, and belonging [30]. Broader algorithmic-management scholarship similarly identifies intersecting tensions involving efficiency and fairness, control and autonomy, and opacity and transparency [31].

The model integrates these component findings into four pathways. Bias amplification concerns differential treatment generated or magnified through representations, objectives, validation, or environmental interaction. Participation exclusion concerns restricted influence over system criteria or correction. Unequal error and burden exposure concerns differential costs of remaining measurable, compliant, or adaptable. Accountability failure concerns gaps between authority and corrective responsibility. The proposed systems model is motivated by evidence that decision architecture, regimes of knowing, and algorithmic-management tensions jointly shape where organizational authority and inequality-relevant mechanisms can arise [27, 29, 31]. The cross-domain sequence and recursive feedback loops are original synthesis and require direct testing. Feedback is analytically important because organizational decisions can become inputs to later decisions. Workers may alter behavior in response to opaque evaluation [16], while algorithm introduction can change which forms of knowledge become institutionally consequential [29]. The model therefore proposes that enacted outcomes and adaptive behavior may alter later records, criteria, or training environments. This recursive pathway is plausible but not established as a single causal chain. Pre-existing inequality, managerial choices, institutional rules, and labor-market conditions could generate similar persistence even without algorithmic feedback.

Table 3 organizes the evidence, constructs, relationships, uncertainties, and boundary conditions required for evidence limitations, unresolved questions, and future research priorities.

Table 3. Evidence limitations, unresolved questions, and future research priorities.

Context or level	Moderator or boundary condition	Evidence pattern	Organizational implication	Alternative explanation	Transferability limit	Uncertainty	Research need
Automated recruitment	Human involvement; decision stakes	Reactions vary across automated and human-involved procedures	Assess experience separately from model performance	Novelty or algorithm beliefs	Simulated selection	Perception may not predict disparate outcomes	Link perceptions to actual decisions and outcomes
Model development	Data quality; target construction	Predictive quality varies with training and validation	Audit measurement assumptions	Poor construct measurement	Technology specific	Group generalizability uncertain	Conduct external and subgroup validation
Worker participation	Decision rights; representation	Voice may exist without influence over rules	Examine who can alter or contest criteria	Existing managerial hierarchy	Platform-heavy evidence	Consequential voice conditions unclear	Compare consultation, co-design, bargaining, and appeal
Worker experience	Dependence; skill; compensation	Monitoring and adaptation burdens vary	Track burden with accuracy and productivity	Labor-market precarity	Platform transfer	Algorithm versus job-design contribution unclear	Use matched organizational comparisons
Organizational knowledge	Task measurability; data visibility	Algorithmization can change whose knowledge counts	Examine excluded expertise	Occupational power differences	Single-case evidence common	Distributional effects uncertain	Link visibility to enacted decisions
Human–AI architecture	Override authority; expertise	Decision authority can be configured differently	Record actual override and correction rights	Task complexity	Frameworks remain partly conceptual	Equality effects unknown	Compare decision architectures empirically
Recursive governance	Feedback; auditing; institutional context	Component evidence suggests feedback and oversight mechanisms	Track outcomes entering future data	Historical inequality may persist independently	Full loop untested	Direction and strength unknown	Follow decisions, appeals, data updates, and retraining longitudinally

Note. Organizational implications and research needs are original critical-review synthesis and are proposed research directions rather than validated interventions.

Governance and research agenda

Governance should address the organizational decision system rather than only the predictive model. In human resource management, AI adoption raises challenges involving limited or complex data, causal inference, fairness, accountability, and employee reactions; proposed responses include stronger experimentation and employee contribution rather than reliance on prediction alone [32]. These principles identify what should be tested, not interventions already shown to eliminate inequality. High-level ethical principles are likewise insufficient if organizations lack institutions that translate principles into responsibilities and enforceable practices [33]. Governance therefore requires clarity about who can question criteria, inspect evidence, authorize overrides, correct records, and revisit decisions. Such mechanisms should be evaluated as organizational arrangements rather than assumed effective because they are formally documented.

Trust also requires calibration. Empirical research on human trust in AI is heterogeneous and disproportionately reliant on short-term, experimental, and small-sample studies, while transparency and reliability can shape reliance differently across contexts [34]. Future studies should therefore examine whether trust corresponds to justified reliance, actual contestability, and distributional outcomes rather than treating greater trust as a governance objective.

Finally, human-in-the-loop design must be substantive. A longitudinal organizational case shows augmentation work involving active auditing of outputs, production of ground truth, and modification of algorithms and data architecture [35]. Research should compare such corrective capacity with symbolic oversight, using longitudinal, multilevel, quasi-experimental, audit, and process-tracing designs. Governance conditions proposed here remain hypotheses for evaluation, not universal prescriptions or implementation-ready standards.

Testing should also connect levels of analysis. Individual perceptions, model outputs, managerial overrides, organizational policies, and distributive outcomes should not be collapsed into one construct. A useful design would follow a decision from data capture through recommendation, human intervention, worker response, appeal or correction, and subsequent reuse of

the resulting record. Comparisons across occupations and employment arrangements would help determine whether apparent mechanisms are technology-specific, work-design-specific, or institutionally produced.

Conclusion

This critical review reframes automated workplace inequality as a systems problem rather than a property located solely inside an algorithm. The evidence indicates several distinct mechanisms through which organizational decision systems may reproduce, transform, or amplify inequality: bias can arise at multiple interfaces; participation can exist without consequential influence; errors and adaptation burdens can be unevenly distributed; and accountability can fragment when authority, knowledge, responsibility, and correction diverge.

The proposed Systems Model of Inequality Production integrates these mechanisms across decision mandate, representation, algorithmic operation, enactment, and feedback. Its value is organizational and diagnostic rather than predictive: it identifies where inequality-producing processes may occur and which contextual gates could alter them. The model does not establish a universal causal sequence.

Evidence remains heterogeneous across platform work, conventional workplaces, hiring experiments, validation studies, professional settings, and conceptual research. Future evaluation therefore requires longitudinal and multilevel observation of outputs, enacted decisions, worker experiences, appeals, corrections, and subsequent data. Automated inequality is best understood not as an inevitable technological outcome, but as a contingent organizational process requiring empirical scrutiny at each decision layer.

Acknowledgments: None

Conflict of interest: None

Financial support: None

Ethics statement: None

References

1. Karunakaran A, Lebovitz S, Narayanan D, Rahman HA. Artificial intelligence at work: An integrative perspective on the impact of AI on workplace inequality. *Acad Manag Ann.* 2025;19(2):693-735. doi:10.5465/annals.2023.0230
2. Kellogg KC, Valentine MA, Christin A. Algorithms at work: The new contested terrain of control. *Acad Manag Ann.* 2020;14(1):366-410. doi:10.5465/annals.2018.0174
3. Faraj S, Pachidi S, Sayegh K. Working and organizing in the age of the learning algorithm. *Inf Organ.* 2018;28(1):62-70. doi:10.1016/j.infoandorg.2018.02.005
4. Raisch S, Krakowski S. Artificial intelligence and management: The automation-augmentation paradox. *Acad Manag Rev.* 2021;46(1):192-210. doi:10.5465/amr.2018.0072
5. Parent-Rocheleau X, Parker SK. Algorithms as work designers: How algorithmic management influences the design of jobs. *Hum Resour Manag Rev.* 2022;32(3):100838. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2021.100838
6. Bailey DE, Barley SR. Beyond design and use: How scholars should study intelligent technologies. *Inf Organ.* 2020;30(2):100286. doi:10.1016/j.infoandorg.2019.100286
7. Snyder H. Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *J Bus Res.* 2019;104:333-9. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039
8. Kraus S, Breier M, Lim WM, Dabić M, Kumar S, Kanbach D, et al. Literature reviews as independent studies: Guidelines for academic practice. *Rev Manag Sci.* 2022;16(8):2577-95. doi:10.1007/s11846-022-00588-8
9. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ.* 2021;372:n71. doi:10.1136/bmj.n71
10. Paul J, Criado AR. The art of writing literature review: What do we know and what do we need to know? *Int Bus Rev.* 2020;29(4):101717. doi:10.1016/j.ibusrev.2020.101717
11. Köchling A, Wehner MC. Discriminated by an algorithm: A systematic review of discrimination and fairness by algorithmic decision-making in the context of HR recruitment and HR development. *Bus Res.* 2020;13(3):795-848. doi:10.1007/s40685-020-00134-w
12. Lambrecht A, Tucker C. Algorithmic bias? An empirical study of apparent gender-based discrimination in the display of STEM career ads. *Manag Sci.* 2019;65(7):2966-81. doi:10.1287/mnsc.2018.3093
13. Lavanchy M, Reichert P, Narayanan J, Savani K. Applicants' fairness perceptions of algorithm-driven hiring procedures. *J Bus Ethics.* 2023;188(2):125-50. doi:10.1007/s10551-022-05320-w

14. Hickman L, Bosch N, Ng V, Saef R, Tay L, Woo SE. Automated video interview personality assessments: Reliability, validity, and generalizability investigations. *J Appl Psychol.* 2022;107(8):1323-51. doi:10.1037/apl0000695
15. Gegenhuber T, Ellmer M, Schüssler E. Microphones, not megaphones: Functional crowdworker voice regimes on digital work platforms. *Hum Relat.* 2021;74(9):1473-503. doi:10.1177/0018726720915761
16. Rahman HA. The invisible cage: Workers' reactivity to opaque algorithmic evaluations. *Adm Sci Q.* 2021;66(4):945-88. doi:10.1177/00018392211010118
17. Curchod C, Patriotta G, Cohen L, Neysen N. Working for an algorithm: Power asymmetries and agency in online work settings. *Adm Sci Q.* 2020;65(3):644-76. doi:10.1177/0001839219867024
18. Krzywdzinski M, Schweiß D, Sperling A. Between control and participation: The politics of algorithmic management. *New Technol Work Employ.* 2025;40(1):60-80. doi:10.1111/ntwe.12293
19. Wood AJ, Lehdonvirta V, Hjorth I, Graham M. Good gig, bad gig: Autonomy and algorithmic control in the global gig economy. *Work Employ Soc.* 2019;33(1):56-75. doi:10.1177/0950017018785616
20. Newlands G. Algorithmic surveillance in the gig economy: The organization of work through Lefebvrian conceived space. *Organ Stud.* 2021;42(5):719-37. doi:10.1177/0170840620937900
21. Pulignano V, Grimshaw D, Domecka M, Vermeerbergen L. Why does unpaid labour vary among digital labour platforms? Exploring socio-technical platform regimes of worker autonomy. *Hum Relat.* 2024;77(9):1243-71. doi:10.1177/00187267231179901
22. Liang B, Wang Y, Huo W, Song M, Shi Y. Algorithmic control as a double-edged sword: Its relationship with service performance and work well-being. *J Bus Res.* 2025;189:115199. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2025.115199
23. Martin K. Ethical implications and accountability of algorithms. *J Bus Ethics.* 2019;160(4):835-50. doi:10.1007/s10551-018-3921-3
24. Leicht-Deobald U, Busch T, Schank C, Weibel A, Schafheitle S, Wildhaber I, et al. The challenges of algorithm-based HR decision-making for personal integrity. *J Bus Ethics.* 2019;160(2):377-92. doi:10.1007/s10551-019-04204-w
25. Lebovitz S, Lifshitz-Assaf H, Levina N. To engage or not to engage with AI for critical judgments: How professionals deal with opacity when using AI for medical diagnosis. *Organ Sci.* 2022;33(1):126-48. doi:10.1287/orsc.2021.1549
26. Shin D, Park YJ. Role of fairness, accountability, and transparency in algorithmic affordance. *Comput Human Behav.* 2019;98:277-84. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2019.04.019
27. Shrestha YR, Ben-Menahem SM, von Krogh G. Organizational decision-making structures in the age of artificial intelligence. *Calif Manage Rev.* 2019;61(4):66-83. doi:10.1177/0008125619862257
28. Jarrahi MH. Artificial intelligence and the future of work: Human-AI symbiosis in organizational decision making. *Bus Horiz.* 2018;61(4):577-86. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2018.03.007
29. Pachidi S, Berends H, Faraj S, Huysman M. Make way for the algorithms: Symbolic actions and change in a regime of knowing. *Organ Sci.* 2021;32(1):18-41. doi:10.1287/orsc.2020.1377
30. Möhlmann M, Zalmanson L, Henfridsson O, Gregory RW. Algorithmic management of work on online labor platforms: When matching meets control. *MIS Q.* 2021;45(4):1999-2022. doi:10.25300/MISQ/2021/15333
31. Zhang MM, Cooke FL, Ahlstrom D, McNeil N. The rise of algorithmic management and implications for work and organisations. *New Technol Work Employ.* 2025;40(3):659-71. doi:10.1111/ntwe.12343
32. Tambe P, Cappelli P, Yakubovich V. Artificial intelligence in human resources management: Challenges and a path forward. *Calif Manage Rev.* 2019;61(4):15-42. doi:10.1177/0008125619867910
33. Mittelstadt B. Principles alone cannot guarantee ethical AI. *Nat Mach Intell.* 2019;1(11):501-7. doi:10.1038/s42256-019-0114-4
34. Glikson E, Woolley AW. Human trust in artificial intelligence: Review of empirical research. *Acad Manag Ann.* 2020;14(2):627-60. doi:10.5465/annals.2018.0057
35. Grønsund TR, Aanestad M. Augmenting the algorithm: Emerging human-in-the-loop work configurations. *J Strateg Inf Syst.* 2020;29(2):101614. doi:10.1016/j.jsis.2020.101614