



Agency Use of Artificial Intelligence

Ad Hoc Committee on Agency Use of Artificial Intelligence

Proposed Statement | December 16, 2020

1 Artificial intelligence (AI) techniques are changing how government agencies do their
2 work.¹ Advances in AI hold out the promise of lowering the cost of completing government tasks
3 and improving the quality, consistency, and predictability of agencies' decisions. But agencies'
4 uses of AI also raise concerns about the discretion being vested in AI systems and the extent to
5 which those systems are exercising authority previously exercised by human officials.

6 Consistent with its statutory mission to promote efficiency, participation, and fairness in
7 administrative processes,² the Administrative Conference offers this Statement to identify issues
8 agencies should consider when adopting or modifying AI systems and developing practices and
9 procedures for their use and regular monitoring. The Statement draws on a pair of reports
10 commissioned by the Conference,³ as well as the input of AI experts from government,

¹ There is no universally accepted definition of “artificial intelligence,” and the rapid state of evolution in the field, as well as the proliferation of use cases, makes coalescing around any such definition difficult. *See, e.g.*, John S. McCain National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2019, Pub. L. No. 115-232, § 238(g), 132 Stat. 1636, 1697–98 (2018) (using one definition of AI); Nat'l Inst. of Standards & Tech., U.S. Leadership in AI: A Plan for Federal Engagement in Developing Technical Standards and Related Tools 7–8 (Aug. 9, 2019) (offering a different definition of AI). Generally speaking, AI systems tend to have characteristics such as the ability to learn to solve complex problems, make predictions, or undertake tasks that heretofore have relied on human decision making or intervention. There are many illustrative examples of AI that can help frame the issue for the purpose of this statement. They include, but are not limited to, AI assistants, computer vision systems, biomedical research, unmanned vehicle systems, advanced game-playing software, and facial recognition systems as well as application of AI in both information technology and operational technology.

² *See* 5 U.S.C. § 591.

³ DAVID FREEMAN ENGSTROM, DANIEL E. HO, CATHERINE M. SHARKEY, & MARIANO-FLORENTINO CUÉLLAR, *GOVERNMENT BY ALGORITHM: ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE IN FEDERAL ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCIES* (2020), <https://www.acus.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Government%20by%20Algorithm.pdf>; Cary Coglianesi, *A Framework for Governmental Use of Machine Learning* (Oct. 2020), <https://www.acus.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Coglianesi%20Report%20-%20A%20Framework%20for%20Governmental%20Use%20of%20Machine%20Learning.pdf> (draft report for Administrative Conference of the United States).



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11 academia, and the private sector (some ACUS members) provided at meetings of the ad hoc
12 committee of the Administrative Conference that proposed this Statement.

13 The issues addressed in this Statement implicate matters involving law, policy, finances,
14 human resources, and technology. To minimize the risk of unforeseen problems involving an AI
15 system, agencies should, throughout an AI system's lifespan, solicit input about the system from
16 the offices that oversee these matters. Agencies should also keep in mind the need for public
17 trust in their practices and procedures for use and regular monitoring of AI technologies.

1. Transparency

18 Agencies' efforts to ensure transparency in connection with their AI systems can serve
19 many valuable goals. When agencies set up processes to ensure transparency in their AI systems,
20 they should consider publicly identifying the processes' goals and the rationales behind them.
21 For example, agencies might prioritize transparency in the service of legitimizing its AI systems,
22 facilitating internal or external review of its AI-based decision making, or coordinating its AI-
23 based activities. Different AI systems are likely to satisfy some transparency goals more than
24 others. Where possible, agencies should use metrics to measure the performance of their AI-
25 transparency processes.

26 In setting transparency goals, agencies should consider to whom they should be
27 transparent. For instance, depending on the nature of its operations, agencies might prioritize
28 transparency to the public, courts, Congress, or their own officials.

29 The appropriate level or nature of transparency and interpretability in agencies' AI
30 systems will also depend on context. In some contexts, such as adjudication, reason-giving
31 requirements may call for a higher degree of transparency and interpretability from agencies
32 regarding how their AI systems function. In other contexts, such as enforcement, agencies'
33 legitimate interests in preventing gaming or adversarial learning by regulated parties could
34 militate against providing too much information (or specific types of information) to the public
35 about AI systems' processes. In every context, agencies should consider whether particular laws
36 or policies governing disclosure of information apply.



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37 In selecting and using AI techniques, agencies should be cognizant of the degree to which
38 a particular AI system can be made transparent to appropriate people and entities, including the
39 general public. There may exist tradeoffs between explainability and accuracy in AI systems, so
40 that transparency and interpretability might sometimes weigh in favor of choosing simpler AI
41 models. The appropriate balance between explainability and accuracy will depend on the specific
42 context, including agencies' circumstances and priorities.

43 The proprietary nature of some AI systems may also affect the extent to which they can
44 be made transparent. When agencies' AI systems rely on proprietary technologies or algorithms
45 the agencies do not own, the agencies and the public may have limited access to the information
46 about the AI techniques. Agencies should strive to anticipate such circumstances and address
47 them appropriately, such as by working with outside providers to ensure they will be able to
48 share sufficient information about such a system. Agencies should not enter into contracts to use
49 proprietary AI systems unless they are confident that actors both internal and external to the
50 agencies will have adequate access to information about the systems.

2. *Harmful Bias*

51 At their best, AI systems can help agencies identify and reduce the impact of unwanted
52 biases.⁴ Yet they can also unintentionally create or exacerbate those biases by encoding and
53 deploying them at scale. In deciding whether and how to deploy an AI system, agencies should
54 carefully evaluate the harmful biases that might result from the use of the AI system as well as
55 the biases that might result from alternative systems (such as an incumbent system that the AI
56 system would augment or replace). Because different types of bias pose different types of harms,
57 the outcome of the evaluation will depend on agencies' unique circumstances and priorities and
58 the consequences posed by those harms in those contexts.

⁴ The term *bias* has a technical meaning in the machine learning literature related to model characteristics. Under some circumstances, increasing bias (roughly the error of the average prediction) can improve system performance, if it reduces the risk of overfitting. Here, the Administrative Conference uses the term more generally to refer to common or systematic errors in decision making, especially those implicating concerns related to fairness and equal treatment.



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59 AI systems can be biased because of their reliance on data reflecting historical human
60 biases or because of their designs. Biases in AI systems can increase over time through feedback.
61 That can occur, for example, if the use of a biased AI system leads to systematic errors in
62 categorizations, which are then reflected in the data set or data environment the system uses to
63 make future predictions. Agencies should be mindful of the interdependence of the models,
64 metrics, and data that underpin AI systems.

65 Identifying harmful biases in AI systems can pose challenges, as when the bias affects a
66 particular population but information about those in that population is not directly available. To
67 identify and mitigate such biases, agencies should, to the extent practical, consider whether other
68 data or methods are available. Agencies should periodically examine and refresh AI algorithms
69 and other protocols to ensure that they remain sufficiently current and reflect new information
70 and circumstances relevant to the functions they perform.

71 Data science techniques for identifying and mitigating harmful biases in AI systems are
72 developing. Agencies should stay up to date on developments in the field of AI, particularly on
73 algorithmic fairness; establish processes to ensure that personnel that reflect various disciplines
74 and relevant perspectives are able to inspect AI systems and their decisions for indications of
75 harmful bias; test AI systems in environments resembling the ones in which they will be used;
76 and make use of internal and external processes for evaluating the risks of harmful bias in AI
77 systems and for identifying such bias.

3. Technical Capacity

78 AI systems can help agencies conserve resources, but they can also require substantial
79 investments of human and financial capital. Agencies should carefully evaluate the short- and
80 long-term costs and benefits of an AI system before committing significant resources to it.
81 Agencies should also ensure they have access to the technical expertise required to make
82 informed decisions about the type of AI systems they require; how to integrate those systems
83 into their operations; and how to oversee, maintain, and update those systems.



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84 Given the data science field’s ongoing and rapid development, agencies should consider
85 cultivating an AI-ready workforce, including through recruitment and training efforts that
86 emphasize AI skills. When agency personnel lack the skills to develop, procure, or maintain AI
87 systems that meets agencies’ needs, agencies should consider other means of expanding their
88 technical expertise, including by relying on tools such as the Intergovernmental Personnel Act,⁵
89 prize competitions, cooperative research and development agreements with private institutions or
90 universities, and consultation with external technical advisors and subject-matter experts.

4. Obtaining AI Systems

91 Decisions about whether to obtain an AI system can involve important trade-offs.
92 Obtaining AI systems from external sources might allow agencies to acquire more sophisticated
93 tools than they could design on their own, access those tools sooner, and save some of the up-
94 front costs associated with developing the technical capacity needed to design AI systems.⁶
95 Creating AI tools within agencies, by contrast, might yield tools that are better tailored to the
96 agencies’ particular tasks and policy goals. Creating AI systems within agencies can also
97 facilitate development of internal technical capability, which can yield benefits over the lifetime
98 of the AI systems and in other technological tasks the agencies may confront.

99 Certain government offices are available to help agencies with decisions and actions
100 related to technology.⁷ Agencies should make appropriate use of these resources when obtaining
101 an AI system. Agencies should also consider the cost and availability of the technical support

⁵ 5 U.S.C. §§ 3371–76.

⁶ Agencies may also obtain AI systems that are embedded in commercial products. The considerations applicable to such embedded AI systems should reflect the fact that agencies may have less control over their design and development.

⁷ Within the General Services Administration, for example, the office called 18F routinely partners with government agencies to help them build and buy technologies. Similarly, the United States Digital Service has a staff of technologists whose job is to help agencies build better technological tools. While the two entities have different approaches—18F acts more like an information intermediary and the Digital Service serves as an alternative source for information technology contracts—both could aid agencies with obtaining, developing, and using different AI techniques.



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102 necessary to ensure that an AI system can be maintained and updated in a manner consistent with
103 its expected life cycle and service mission.

5. Data

104 AI systems require data, often in vast quantities. Agencies should consider whether they
105 have, or can obtain, data that appropriately reflects conditions similar to the ones the agencies'
106 AI systems will address in practice; whether the agencies have the resources to render the data
107 into a format that can be used by the agencies' AI systems; and how the agencies will maintain
108 the data and link it to their AI systems without compromising security or privacy. Agencies
109 should also review and consider statutes and regulations that impact their uses of AI as a
110 potential consumer of data.

6. Privacy

111 Agencies have a responsibility to protect privacy with respect to personally identifiable
112 information in AI systems. In a narrow sense, this responsibility demands that agencies comply
113 with requirements related to, for instance, transparency, due process, accountability, and
114 information quality and integrity established by the Privacy Act of 1974, Section 208 of the E-
115 Government Act of 2002, and other applicable laws and policies.⁸ More broadly, agencies should
116 recognize and appropriately manage privacy risks posed by an AI system. Agencies should
117 consider privacy risks throughout the entire life cycle of an AI system from development to
118 retirement and assess those risks, as well as associated controls, on an ongoing basis. In
119 designing and deploying AI systems, agencies should consider using relevant privacy risk
120 management frameworks developed through open, multi-stakeholder processes.⁹

⁸ See, e.g. 5 U.S.C. § 552a(e), (g), & (p); 44 U.S.C. § 3501 note.

⁹ See, e.g., Nat'l Inst. of Standards & Tech., *NIST Privacy Framework: A Tool for Improving Privacy Through Enterprise Risk Management, Version 1.0* (Jan. 16, 2020); Nat'l Inst. of Standards & Tech. Special Publication SP-800-37 revision 2, *Risk Management Framework for Information Systems and Organizations: A System Lifecycle Approach for Security and Privacy* (Dec. 2018); Office of Mgmt. & Budget, Circular A-130, *Managing Information as a Strategic Resource* (July 28, 2016).



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7. Security

121 Agencies should consider the possibility that AI systems might be manipulated, fooled,
122 evaded, and misled, including through manipulation of training data and exploitation of model
123 sensitivities. Agencies must ensure not only that their data is secure, but also that their AI
124 systems are trained on that data in a secure manner, make forecasts based on that data in a secure
125 manner, and otherwise operate in a secure manner. Agencies should continuously consider and
126 evaluate the safety and security of AI systems, including resilience to vulnerabilities,
127 manipulation, and other malicious exploitation. In designing and deploying AI systems, agencies
128 should consider using relevant voluntary consensus standards and frameworks developed
129 through open, multi-stakeholder processes.¹⁰

8. Decisional Authority

130 Agencies should be mindful that most AI systems will involve human beings in a range
131 of capacities—as operators, customers, overseers, policymakers, or interested members of the
132 public. Human factors may sometimes undercut the value of using AI systems to make certain
133 determinations. There is a risk, for example, that human operators will devolve too much
134 responsibility to AI systems and fail to detect cases where the AI systems yield inaccurate or
135 unreliable determinations. That risk may be tolerable in some settings—such as when the AI
136 system has recently been shown to perform significantly better than alternatives—but intolerable
137 in others.

138 Similarly, if agency personnel come to rely reflexively on algorithmic results in
139 exercising discretionary powers, use of an AI system could have the practical effect of curbing
140 the exercise of agencies' discretion or shifting it from the person who is supposed to be
141 exercising it to the system's designer. Agencies should beware of such potential shifts of

¹⁰ See, e.g., NAT'L INST. FOR STANDARDS & TECH., FRAMEWORK FOR IMPROVING CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE CYBERSECURITY (Apr. 16, 2018).



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142 practical authority and take steps to ensure that appropriate officials have the knowledge and
143 power to be accountable for decisions made or aided by AI techniques.

144 Finally, there may be some circumstances where, for reasons wholly apart from
145 decisional accuracy, agencies may wish to have decisions be made by human beings, even if the
146 law does not require it. In some contexts, accuracy and fairness are not the only relevant values
147 at stake, and AI systems may be difficult to sustain if human beings perceive them as unfair,
148 inhumane, or otherwise unsatisfactory.¹¹

9. Oversight

149 It is essential that agencies' AI systems be subject to appropriate and regular oversight
150 throughout their lifespans. There are two general categories of oversight: external and internal.
151 Agencies' mechanisms of internal oversight will be shaped by the demands of external oversight.
152 Agencies should be cognizant of both forms of oversight in making decisions about their AI
153 systems.

154 External oversight of agencies' uses of AI systems can come from a variety of
155 government sources, including inspectors general, externally-facing ombuds, the Government
156 Accountability Office, and Congress. In addition, because agencies' uses of AI systems might
157 lead to litigation in a number of circumstances, courts can also play an important role in external
158 oversight. Those affected by an agency's use of an AI system might, for example, allege that use
159 of the system violates their right to procedural due process.¹² Or they might allege that the AI
160 system's determination violated the Administrative Procedure Act (APA) because it was

¹¹ Cf. Admin. Conf. of the U.S., Recommendation 2018-3, *Electronic Case Management in Federal Administrative Adjudication*, 83 Fed. Reg. 30,686 (June 29, 2018) (suggesting, in the context of case management systems, that agencies consider implementing electronic systems only when they conclude that doing so would lead to benefits without impairing either the objective "fairness" of the proceedings or the subjective "satisfaction" of those participating in those proceedings).

¹² Courts would analyze such challenges under the three-part balancing framework from *Mathews v. Eldridge*, 424 U.S. 319, 335 (1976).



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161 arbitrary and capricious.¹³ When an AI system narrows the discretion of agency personnel, or
162 fixes or alters the legal rights and obligations of people subject to the agency’s action, affected
163 people or entities might also sue on the ground that the AI system is a legislative rule adopted in
164 violation of the APA’s requirement that legislative rules go through the notice-and-comment
165 process.¹⁴ Agencies should consider these different forms of potential external oversight as they
166 are making and documenting decisions and the underlying processes for these AI systems.

167 Agencies should also develop their own internal evaluation and oversight mechanisms for
168 their AI systems, both for initial approval of an AI system and for regular oversight of the
169 system. Successful internal oversight requires advance and ongoing planning and consultation
170 with the various offices in an agency that will be affected by the agency’s use of an AI system,
171 including its legal, policy, financial, human resources, internally-facing ombuds, and technology
172 offices. Agencies’ oversight plans should address how the agencies will pay for their oversight
173 mechanisms and how they will respond to what they learn from their oversight.

174 Agencies should establish a protocol for regularly evaluating AI systems throughout the
175 systems’ lifespans. That is particularly true if a system or the circumstances in which it is
176 deployed are liable to change over time. In these instances, review and explanation of the
177 system’s functioning at one stage of development or use may become outdated due to changes in
178 the system’s underlying models. To enable that type of oversight, agencies should monitor and
179 keep track of the data being used by their AI systems, as well as how the systems use that data.
180 Agencies may also wish to secure input from members of the public or private evaluators to
181 improve the likelihood that they will identify defects in their AI systems.

182 To make their oversight systems more effective, agencies should clearly define goals for
183 their AI systems. The relevant question for oversight purposes will often be whether the AI

¹³ See 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A). Courts would likely review such challenges under the standard set forth in *Motor Vehicle Manufacturers Ass’n v. State Farm Mutual Automobile Insurance Co.*, 463 U.S. 29, 43 (1983).

¹⁴ See 5 U.S.C. § 553(b)–(c).



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184 system outperforms alternatives, which may require agencies to benchmark their systems against
185 the status quo or some hypothetical state of affairs.

186 Finally, AI systems can affect how agencies' staffs do their jobs, particularly as agency
187 personnel grow to trust and rely on the systems. In addition to evaluating and overseeing their AI
188 systems, agencies should pay close attention to how agency personnel interact with those
189 systems.