

Toward Implementable AI Standards

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Abstract

The U.S. government has proposed a standards-based approach to AI governance, with the precise contours of that standard to be developed over time. This article lays out the case for a standards-based approach and identifies four major elements that must be part of any AI standard.

1 Introduction

The release of ChatGPT-4 in early 2023 has given debates over how artificial intelligence (“AI”) should be governed a greater sense of urgency. Some international organizations have issued high-level principles to guide governments when deciding how to regulate AI, e.g., OECD [2019]; UK [2023]. Most notably, the European Union’s Artificial Intelligence Act, adopted on 13 March 2024, imposed a wide range of ex ante restrictions, the severity of which varies based on the risk level posed by a particular type of AI and whether the system constituted what the Act called “general purpose AI” (“GPAI”) [EU, 2024].

The U.S. appears to be taking a different approach. Instead of adopting prescriptive regulation, the President Biden’s 2023 Executive Order calls on various federal agencies to develop guidelines, standards, and best practices to guide the use of AI [U.S., 2023]. While helpful, the Executive Order provides little information about what topics such documents might address.

This article begins the process of filling this gap by exploring the merits of the U.S.’s approach as well as taking the first steps to translate the generalities contained in the high-level statements that dominate the discourse into parameters that are technically implementable. One essential consideration is an initial assessment of the major components that would comprise an AI standard.

2 The case for standards as the basis for AI governance

Standards represent a modality of governance that has become quite common in technologically sophisticated domains. This approach differs starkly from traditional command-and-control regulation in ways that yield substantial benefits. As an initial matter, unlike regulations, which are

purely the product of governments, standards are produced by standards development organizations (“SDOs”) that typically adopt a multistakeholder approach to governance that permits other constituencies, such as civil society, businesses, and the technical community, to help set agendas, speak, and vote. These decisionmaking processes are typically nimbler than those of governments. In addition, final decisions about which standard will prevail are made through choices made by users and implementers rather than by government fiat, as occurred in the U.S. during the competition between GSM and CDMA as the preferred standard for 2G and 3G cellular networks. The voluntary nature of standards adoption also allows successor technologies to emerge so long as they provide sufficient value to incentivize abandoning the incumbent standard.

Standards provide more than just a benchmark for proper behavior. In a world where the development of AI models involve a vertical chain of multiple entities, including producers of pre-trained models, fine tuners, and users, standards can play a key role in providing each link in this chain of production with the information it needs to understand the domains over which the model is likely to perform well and how much validation is appropriate before relying on a model as an input for a particular use.

Consider, for example, the Internet, where the most important SDO is the Internet Engineering Task Force (“IETF”). Participation in the IETF is open to anyone willing to engage in its processes. In contrast to the prior regime for setting telecommunications standards, which was dominated by the International Telecommunication Union (“ITU”), a United Nations organization in which governments make all of the key decisions, the IETF encompasses a wide range of participants, including most prominently the technical community. Decisions are also made by consensus. Despite early predictions that the IETF’s efforts would amount to little more than an intermediate step on the way to adoption of the Open Systems Interconnection (“OSI”) model, the resulting standards have proven remarkably robust even as the Internet has scaled far beyond its designers’ wildest dreams.

This is not to say that standards-based governance is perfect. The decisionmaking processes employed by a particular SDO can favor certain interests. The decisionmaking process of some SDOs have become so slow that they have been criticized as ossified. Economic features such as network effects

85 can cause standards to remain locked in long after they have
86 become obsolete.

87 That said, the fact that the ultimate success of any standard
88 is the product of decentralized decisions made by users and
89 implementers rather than a centralized authority tends to
90 make them more meritocratic and can lead to outcomes that
91 surprise even so-called experts. For example, many knowl-
92 edgeable observers confidently predicted that Bluetooth
93 would emerge as the dominant wireless local area networking
94 technology instead of Wi-Fi. Moreover, as is the case with
95 Bluetooth and Wi-Fi, standards competition can result in
96 multiple technologies existing in the end, each targeted to-
97 ward different uses.

98 3 Principal elements of an AI standard

99 Simply deciding that standards represent the preferred mo-
100 dality of governance is not sufficient. The technical content
101 of the standards are equally essential. The precise level of
102 generality is critical. For example, the model cards often is-
103 sued by AI providers generally provide too little information
104 to be useful. That said, requiring disclosure of too much in-
105 formation is both costly and risks forcing providers to share
106 with their competitors the very basis on which they are com-
107 peting.

108 The first step in developing any standard is determining its
109 major components. I contend that any AI standard must in-
110 clude provisions governing algorithms, training data, pre-re-
111 lease testing, and post-release evaluation.

112 2.1 Algorithms

113 One key area that any AI standard must govern is regarding
114 the algorithms comprising the model. Many commentators
115 have called for turning black boxes into glass boxes by re-
116 quiring AI providers to disclose their algorithms. Other com-
117 mentators concerned about AI bias argue for algorithmic dis-
118 closure to allow determination of whether the algorithm dif-
119 ferentiates on impermissible criteria, such as race, gender, or
120 religion.

121 While some degree of algorithmic disclosure is probably
122 necessary, the benefits of such a requirement are easily over-
123 stated. The existence of hidden layers of neural nets neces-
124 sarily mean that simply looking at the end product of AI train-
125 ing often provides little insight into what the parameters of
126 the algorithm actually represent.

127 Even those concerned about bias may find that simply
128 looking at the algorithms fails to answer many key questions.
129 Any bias that is the result of biases in the training data may
130 not be apparent on the face of the algorithm. Moreover, algo-
131 rithms can construct proxies that mimic prohibited criteria
132 without invoking them directly. Bias may thus become ap-
133 parent only by analyzing the AI system's outputs.

134 In addition, the inclusion of parameters specific to criteria
135 such as race may play a critical role in enabling adjustments
136 to correct for biases in the training data or the use of proxies.
137 As discussed in greater depth below, simply studying algo-
138 rithms also cannot take into account the effects of the inter-
139 actions of the decisions of multiple agents acting inde-
140 pendently.

141 Algorithmic disclosure is also limited by legal constraints.
142 For example, the Supreme Court has recognized that the Tak-
143 ings Clause of the U.S. Constitution places limits on the fed-
144 eral government's ability to require companies to disclose
145 trade secrets without compensation [Ruckelshaus v. Mon-
146 santo Co., 1984]. Moreover, criminal prosecutors often assert
147 that the parameters comprising AI used for criminal law are
148 protected by government privilege.

149 2.2 Training data

150 Understanding the likely behavior of an AI system also de-
151 pends on knowing a significant amount of information about
152 the data on which the model was trained. Because AI is a
153 form of predictive analytics that uses patterns in existing data
154 to generate responses to prompts given to it, every AI system
155 necessarily reflects the data on which it is trained. Although
156 model cards typically include some information about the
157 data used to train the model, they do not provide sufficient
158 detail to evaluate a model's likely performance.

159 Disclosures about the source of training data can provide
160 important guides as to their quality. In addition, some disclo-
161 sures are essential to understanding what, if any, biases may
162 exist in the data.

163 One critical component that determines the robustness of
164 any AI model is the scope of the data on which it is trained.
165 This is easily illustrated by the fact that ChatGPT-4 was ini-
166 tially trained on data through September 2021 and has since
167 been extended to include data through April 2023. This nec-
168 essarily means that any answers it gives to questions about
169 factual events taking place after April 2023 are necessarily
170 hallucinations.

171 Considerations about scope extend far beyond time. The
172 fact that ChatGPT-2 and ChatGPT-3 were trained primarily
173 on Reddit and Wikipedia data respectively makes those mod-
174 els inevitably overrepresent the patterns characteristic of
175 those types of communications.

176 Consider further the use of AI to predict weather. Although
177 studies indicate that this approach produces more accurate re-
178 sult faster and using less computing power than conventional
179 models, concerns remain that AI-based models will provide
180 less effective predictions over rarer events not well repre-
181 sented in the data on which these models were trained despite
182 early findings that AI was able to predict three types of ex-
183 treme weather events [Lam et al., 2023]. Although correct-
184 ness may be more difficult to determine than with historical
185 information, erroneous AI predictions based on patterns that
186 fall outside the data on which the model was trained can con-
187 stitute hallucinations in the same way as factual misstate-
188 ments.

189 The limitations necessarily imposed by the scope of train-
190 ing data also belie the tendency of many AI developers to
191 solve any problems in fidelity by throwing more data at the
192 model. If the scope of the new data is no different from the
193 old data, adding more will not expand the range of circum-
194 stances over which the model can provide accurate predic-
195 tions. This phenomenon is underscored by current efforts by
196 AI designers to train models on smaller amounts of higher
197 quality data.

198 Finally, even the best trained model may produce inaccurate predictions when the environment has structurally changed since the time the training data was collected. One prime example is the 1998 collapse of the largest hedge fund in the world, known as Long-Term Capital Management (“LTCM”) and founded in part by two Nobel Laureates in economics, which was triggered by a circumstance that the model had not seen before, specifically Russia’s default on its debt. Another example is the collapse of Zillow’s algorithmically driven iBuying platform, which was ill-prepared for the changes to the real estate market caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.

210 Thus, an AI standard must carefully consider what providers should disclose about the data on which a model was trained. This can be particularly important for foundation models used to develop other models and for when AI developed for one context is ported to another. Any such disclosures must include the information that downstream AI firms need to know about the models on which they are building in order to make sure they are fit for purpose.

218 While requiring further disclosure is always tempting, any standard must take into account that such disclosures are costly. These costs imply that any transparency requirement must carefully assess whether the benefits justify the costs. Moreover, the fact that outputs of AI systems are probabilistic means that no amount of disclosure can guarantee the veracity of any particular outcome. A key element of any standard must necessarily include a framework for assessing the optimal amount of disclosure that balances these considerations based on some measure of acceptable risk.

228 2.3 Pre-release testing

229 Another key element of any AI standard is requirements regarding pre-release testing. As an initial matter, the standard should specify which of the many forms of testing that those seeking to conform to the standard must conduct. For example, the IEEE “Standard for Assumptions in Safety-Related Models for Automated Driving Systems” discusses seven methods of validation and verification: systematic processes, safety-by-design architectures, formal methods, robustness analysis, simulation testing, closed course testing, and public road testing. Moreover, rather than creating a single standard covering all aspects of autonomous vehicle safety, the standard focuses on seven commonly occurring scenarios as well as twenty-three attributes verifiable via inspection and six others demonstrable via validation [IEEE, 2022].

243 Disclosure about testing provides the basis for others to assess the limitations of the testing regime. To use a non-AI example, seatbelts that previously passed a testing regime began to fail when the weight used to perform the test was positioned at a different angle [Weiss, 2008]. Strong performance under test conditions but poor performance in more robust circumstances is similar to the well-known algorithmic problem of overfitting. Information about the testing regime is thus critical to understanding what passing the test signifies and fails to signify.

253 In addition, every testing AI regime is susceptible to specification gaming and reward hacking in a manner reminiscent of the well-known problem of search engine optimization (“SEO”), in which website owners promote their ranking in search results by making changes designed to cater to the selection criteria that search engine values the most. This dynamic is captured by what is commonly known as “Goodhart’s Law,” which holds that “when a measure becomes a target, it ceases being a good measure” [Chrystal et al., 2003]. Examples of these problems are legion, including the pancake-flipping bot that maximized the duration of its performance by flinging the pancake as high in the air as possible rather than perfecting flipping technique, the Tetris bot that maximized its time of survival by putting the game on pause, and the CycleGan neural network that hid the original data in its code rather than develop an algorithm to reconstruct the data.

270 Any standard must thus carefully consider how much pre-release testing it will require both to assess the robustness of the validation criteria and to anticipate their vulnerability to opportunistic behavior. The fact that more testing is always an option again requires that any standard include some measure of optimality to determine when requiring additional testing would be justified. The probabilistic nature of AI outputs requires that any such measure be built around some concept of acceptable risk.

279 2.4 Post-release evaluation

280 Any AI standard must also include some regime of post-release evaluation. The simple reality is complex systems are characterized by emergent behavior that only emerges when the system is exposed to real-world environments at scale.

284 As noted above, algorithms prohibited from taking into account prohibited criteria such as race may nonetheless discriminate by using neutral variables that are highly correlated with the prohibited criterion as proxies. Unless one knows all of the correlations among all variables (both individually and in interaction with one another) and the prohibited variables, such proxy discrimination is almost impossible to detect except through studying the algorithm’s outputs.

292 Another form of emergent behavior results from the interaction of actions multiple agents that are individually rational but interact in unpredictable ways. One classic, non-AI example is the flash crash of May 6, 2010, in which trades by one trader initiated a cascade of program trades that caused the Dow Jones Industrial Average to lose almost \$1 trillion in market value, one of its largest intraday losses in its history. Scholars are now creating models to study the circumstances under which similar swarming effects might occur for AI [Canoniucio et al., 2019]. Such unpredictable interactions among individual actions that individually rational are only visible in post-release testing.

304 Unexpected outcomes can arise through the actions of hostile actors who are not acting in a manner consistent with an AI system’s goals. Exhibit A is Microsoft’s chatbot, Tay, which degenerated into a cesspool of racism and misogyny after trolls discovered that it would echo back whatever was fed to it. Studies indicate bad actors can cause AI systems

310 such as ChatGPT to exhibit similar toxicity [Deshpande et al., 363
311 2023]. How AI responds to hostile environments is best stud- 364
312 ied after the fact. 365

313 Post-release testing can also play a critical role in detecting 366
314 hallucinations, which can appear somewhat unpredictably. It 367
315 can also reveal the problem of memorization, in which an AI 368
316 model regurgitates a verbatim copy of a work when multiple 369
317 copies of it are contained in the data on which it was trained. 370

318 AI's tendency to exhibit emergent behavior underscores 371
319 the need to subject it to post-release testing. Any AI standard 372
320 must provide details about what types of post-release testing 373
321 it requires. As with data disclosure and pre-release testing, 374
322 the probabilistic nature of AI and the fact that the standard 375
323 could always require more testing necessarily requires that 376
324 the standard include some basis for determining when the 377
325 benefits of additional post-release testing would exceed the 378
326 costs based on some measure of acceptable risk. 379

327 4 Conclusion 380

328 Standard represent a promising approach to AI governance 382
329 that avoids the pitfalls of prescriptive command-and-control 383
330 regulation. At a minimum, any such standard must contain 384
331 provisions governing algorithms, training data, pre-release 385
332 testing, and post-release valuation. Identifying such major 386
333 categories is the first step toward developing standards that 387
334 are implementable. In addition, any AI standard must provide 388
335 some basis for determining when the benefits of additional 389
336 protections would justify the costs, taking into account AI's 390
337 inherently probabilistic nature. 391

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