Submitted via electronic mail (ai-bias@list.nist.gov)

National Institute for Standards and Technology
Attn: Information Technology Laboratory
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Gaithersburg, MD 20899-2000

RE: Comments on NIST Special Publication 1270 “A Proposal for Identifying and Managing Bias in Artificial Intelligence”

To Whom It May Concern:

On behalf of the NAACP Legal Defense & Educational Fund, Inc. (“LDF”), we submit the following comments in response to the National Institute of Standards and Technology’s (“NIST”) Special Publication 1270, “A Proposal for Identifying and Managing Bias in Artificial Intelligence” (“Proposal”).

Founded by Thurgood Marshall in 1940, LDF is the nation’s first and premier civil rights legal organization devoted to racial justice. Since its founding, LDF has worked at the national, state, and local levels to pursue racial justice and eliminate structural barriers for Black people in America in the areas of criminal justice, economic justice, education, and political participation. In each of these areas, emerging technologies, including artificial intelligence (“AI”) and machine learning, have directly threatened the rights, freedoms, and dignity of Black people and other marginalized communities. In collaboration with advocates, activists, and attorneys, LDF has challenged these practices and the use of technology and automation in a racially discriminatory manner. With this experience, we submit the below comments and recommendations to improve

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1 About Us, NAACP Legal Def. & Educ. Fund, https://www.naacpldf.org/about-us/; see also Shepherd v. Florida, 341 U.S. 50 (1951) (reversing the convictions of Black men falsely accused of raping a white woman in 1949 after sheriff’s deputies brutally beat the men to force them to falsely confess).

the Proposal and ensure that AI developers, as well as practitioners, experts, community stakeholders, and impacted communities, are best positioned to prevent AI systems from perpetuating systemic racial injustice.

We commend NIST for its creation of the Proposal and its larger commitment to develop standards and a comprehensive framework to address the prevalence of bias within AI systems. The Proposal seeks to manage AI bias by evaluating the three stages of an AI lifecycle: 1) the pre-design stage, 2) the design and development stage, and 3) the deployment stage. This approach, however, excludes several critical dimensions which are necessary to protect the rights of people who will be impacted by AI, including: (a) accounting for the historic and contemporary context of systemic racial bias and discrimination and its relationship to technology; (b) the application of civil and human rights law to AI design and use; (c) an expansion of the parameters used to determine when AI tools should not be developed or deployed, including a holistic analysis of law enforcement agencies’ use of AI tools, and (d) the incorporation of expertise from impacted communities and remedial approaches, such as reparative justice, that address both individual and community-level harms that result from AI bias and discrimination.


The Proposal recommends that developers design front-end technical fixes to AI models to mitigate demographic statistical disparities. However, even when front-end fixes are included, the use of AI in a system with pre-existing bias and discrimination will likely result in AI tools exacerbating those pre-existing disparities, unless those pre-existing disparities and discrimination are accounted for and addressed beforehand. Genuine efforts to reduce bias from AI tools or their use must begin with an in-depth understanding of historic and contemporary practices that perpetuate systemic bias and harm in the context that the AI tool at issue will be deployed. Racial

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bias infects nearly every area of American life, including housing, education, employment, family services, healthcare, and more. The introduction of AI into the systems, actors, and decisions in each of these areas will likely replicate and entrench structural racial disadvantages. While we agree that biased datasets and other technical dimensions of AI development drive racially-biased outcomes, and therefore should be addressed when exploring solutions to reduce bias and discrimination, doing so without addressing the decades of documented discriminatory practices engrained in American systems turns a blind eye to the role of AI in perpetuating racism.

To fully understand the contemporary challenges of AI bias and racial discrimination, it is necessary to examine and account for the longstanding, historical relationship between science and technology and systems of racial oppression. In the antebellum period, the plantation economy was sustained through data management and actuarial techniques to predict the decline in productivity over the lifespan of an enslaved person. This historic relationship persisted through the turn of the century with the growing popularity of scientific racism, which deployed racist pseudoscience to justify and reproduce racial hierarchies based upon quantified notions of racial difference. Scientific racism was a predicate to a host of atrocities, including forced sterilizations.


for Black people, race-based medical experimentation, eugenics, and segregation. The relationship between science and technology and racial oppression can also be seen in the development of various media technologies. Some of the earliest viral videos, sounds, and images of the 20th century coincided with the production and dissemination of racist iconography in film, radio and photography. In the 20th century, public agencies, such as the Fair Housing Authority, continued to deploy innovative practices in data science to support racist practices such as redlining. This history demonstrates how the development of science and technology in the United States contributed to, and provided validation for, systemic racial oppression and continues to contribute to current inequities. The Proposal must ensure that the development and management of AI investigates and confronts this historical context and take deliberate steps to end discriminatory practices.

The Proposal also does not sufficiently frame the current magnitude of racial bias and discrimination emanating from existing AI systems. The Proposal notes that, without management, historic data and measurement biases “may produce unjust outcomes for racial and ethnic minorities.” However, AI bias and discrimination impose deep and long-lasting, present-day challenges in all areas of life for people impacted by them. In fact, algorithmic bias and discrimination are among the most urgent challenges to protecting the civil and human rights of Black communities. Despite this, public and private actors increasingly rely on AI systems to

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14 Id.; see also Dorothy Roberts, Fatal Invention: How Science, Politics, and Big Business Re-create Race in the Twenty-First Century (2012).

15 See generally, Racial Segregation, supra note 9; Data Capitalism supra note 11.


automate a range of decision-making processes that impact access to services in systems with historic and contemporary racially discriminatory practices—like housing, employment, credit, and education, to name a few—resulting in automated bias. The ubiquitous embrace of automated technologies within systems that are “already known to be discriminatory” is not only an “obvious risk,” as the Proposal states, but also comes at a time when we are only beginning to understand the range of harms that the combination of powerful technologies and discriminatory systems impose.

AI technologies continue to be deployed in ways that threaten the lives of Black and Brown people by enlarging systems of mass surveillance, falsely criminalizing them, and threatening their democratic participation. These threats reveal a core dilemma with AI technology—AI tools rely on technical processes that transpose patterns of historic oppression into unjust futures. This challenge is at the heart of why efforts to regulate technologies must proceed with explicit considerations of the historic and contemporary systems of racial bias and oppression in which AI will be deployed.

Intelligence, 72 Fla. L. Rev. 331, 333-34 (2020) (“Despite the tremendous promise of machine learning and artificial intelligence, algorithms and intelligent machines do not provide equal benefits to all.”).

20 Compl. at 2, 31-32, Nat’l Fair Hous. All. v. Facebook, No. 1:18-cv-02689 (S.D.N.Y. 2018) (alleging discriminatory practices that allow advertisers to preclude certain demographic populations from receiving Facebook housing ads based on familial status, gender, disability, and national origin).


24 NIST Proposal supra note 18, at 7.


The Proposal must embrace existing civil and human rights legal principles to prevent bias within AI and other emerging technologies, and these legal principles must be applied throughout the entire lifecycle of AI technologies. The Proposal must also include steps that developers and practitioners should undertake to ensure AI systems are compliant with civil and human rights principles and law.

Grounding the Proposal’s definition(s) of bias in existing civil and human rights legal principles is critical for several reasons. First, antidiscrimination law imposes concrete legal obligations that actively shape how AI technologies must be developed, marketed, and deployed.\(^{26}\) AI technologies cannot be designed or deployed in ways that violate civil and human rights, irrespective of the system’s technical capacities. Further, noncompliance can expose developers and practitioners to legal action. Despite this, the Proposal does not meaningfully address existing legal obligations beyond the risk management framework for AI systems.\(^{27}\) And notably, the Proposal contains scarce reference to the vast body of statutes, regulations, judicial opinions, and other authoritative sources that have refined and developed concepts of bias and discrimination in the law.\(^{28}\) The absence of an analysis on AI discrimination, especially racial discrimination, within the Proposal is an alarming omission. AI systems routinely facilitate legally cognizable forms of discrimination across each stage of the AI life cycle, making AI-generated discrimination, in addition to AI bias, one of the most urgent civil rights challenges.\(^{29}\)

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27 While the Proposal addresses AI bias in a general sense, it fails to address the challenges presented by AI discrimination as distinct from AI bias.


Embracing civil and human rights law offers NIST critical, interdisciplinary guidance that is lacking from the Proposal’s current conceptualization of AI bias. For example, the Proposal describes how AI developers’ use of “proxy” criteria, such as “criminality” and “employment suitability,” obscures normative choices made about the types of data incorporated into models.\(^{30}\) The Proposal further notes that the use of such proxy criteria raises a host of ethical and technical concerns related to the validity and accuracy of these data heuristics, as well as fundamental questions about whether existing AI and algorithmic technologies are even capable of capturing complicated, and often contested, social concepts.\(^ {31}\) However, beyond ethical and technical concerns, civil and human rights law imposes a range of legal obligations with respect to the use of proxies—obligations that the Proposal failed to address. For example, the Equal Credit Opportunity Act, Fair Credit Reporting Act, and the Fair Housing Act prohibit intentional discrimination against protected classes, and these prohibitions apply to close proxies for those protected classes.\(^ {32}\) Civil and human rights principles and legal obligations are essential guardrails to the development of AI systems. The Proposal must make clear that these obligations extend across the lifecycle of AI technologies and that failure to comply with those obligations can expose developers and practitioners to legal action.

NIST should borrow more explicitly from the interdisciplinary insights offered by the civil and human rights community and work in a collaborative fashion to translate those concepts into shared language, future standards and measurements, and concrete remedies to redress potential harms. As the Proposal correctly notes, algorithmic bias and discrimination can impact both individuals and communities in ways that warrant accountability and redress. However, the Proposal does not outline how AI developers and practitioners can approach designing remedies for biased and discriminatory practices. For example, the Proposal provides the example of a hypothetical ride-sharing app that charges customers higher prices for destinations in low-income communities.\(^ {33}\) Such differentiated pricing has a direct impact on the entire community, irrespective of whether community members use the service or not.\(^ {34}\) These community-level harms are particularly alarming because oftentimes machine learning and AI systems rely on historic data, rife with historic patterns of racial bias and discrimination, to operationalize their

\(^{30}\) NIST Proposal supra note 18, at 3.  
\(^{31}\) Id.  
\(^{32}\) See Relman Colfax, Fair Lending Monitorship of Upstart Network’s Lending Model: Initial Report of the Independent Monitor, at 6-8 and n 12, (Apr. 14, 2021), https://www.relmanlaw.com/media/cases/1088_Upstart%20Initial%20Report%20-%20Final.pdf; Pac. Shores Properties, LLC v. City of Newport Beach, 730 F.3d 1142, 1160 n. 23 (9th Cir. 2013); Comer v. Cisneros, 37 F.3d 775, 793 (2d Cir. 1994) (“Where a government erects a local preference that has the effect of filtering only a small percentage of minorities to the locally preferred area, such government action is suspect to being a proxy for race and therefore a barrier to racial minorities who wish to integrate into suburban life. This allegation is sufficient to show injury and causation for purposes of Article III standing on the constitutional claims.”).  
\(^{33}\) NIST Proposal supra note 18, at 10.  
\(^{34}\) For example, neighborhood business owners may lose potential customers, or families in the community may be impacted because of the stigma that the differentiated pricing suggests about the safety or desirability of the neighborhood.
technologies, further perpetuating systemic discrimination.\(^{35}\) One approach to address these challenges is the application of a reparative justice lens onto future standards and frameworks.\(^{36}\)

III. The Proposal Must Broaden its “Reject Development” Parameters to Include Technologies That May Result in Discriminatory Harm, Particularly When Used by Law Enforcement.

The Proposal’s current framework for reducing bias in AI primarily centers around technological fixes for each stage of an algorithm’s life cycle. However, this method misses a critical factor: the use of AI by systems and actors who engage in biased or discriminatory practices—such as law enforcement agencies—and the ways their use of these technologies may impact marginalized communities.

Since its inception, policing in the United States has reflected racially discriminatory practices against Black communities.\(^{37}\) From patrolling and capturing slaves and enforcing segregation and Jim Crow laws, to the hyper-criminalization, surveillance, and mass incarceration of communities of color, police in America have used their power to disproportionately target, oppress, brutalize, and control.\(^{38}\) Coupling these law enforcement practices with law enforcement agencies’ use of modern technology reinforces racialized police violence and the disparate

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criminalization of Black and Brown people.\(^{39}\) For example, law enforcement agencies across the country have concentrated entire networks of sophisticated surveillance cameras in predominantly Black cities and neighborhoods, allowing officers to monitor and surveil entire communities with technology.\(^{40}\) The intricate aerial surveillance system in Baltimore, for example, “track[ed] every movement of every person outside in Baltimore” and was akin to “attaching an ankle monitor’ to every person in the city.”\(^{41}\) Similarly, law enforcement agencies have filled digital databases with extensive lists of Black and Brown residents, their photos, and identifying information—often without their awareness.\(^{42}\) Placement in police databases is then used to justify increased police encounters, violent police raids, harsher sentences, and other intrusive law enforcement

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41 Leaders of a Beautiful Struggle, supra note 41, at 24 (finding BPD’s surveillance system violates the Fourth Amendment because persistent surveillance of outdoor movements invades people’s reasonable expectation of privacy and for the Baltimore residents, police now had ““an intimate window’ into each person’s associations and activities.”).

42 Over 95% of the people in Chicago and New York City’s police departments’ gang databases are Black and Brown. See Janæ Bonsu and Andy Clarno, Tracked and Targeted: Early Findings on Chicago’s Gang Database at 2, POLICING IN CHL. RSCH. GRP. (Feb. 2018), [https://soc.uic.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/197/2018/07/Tracked-Targeted-0217-r.pdf](https://soc.uic.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/197/2018/07/Tracked-Targeted-0217-r.pdf), (finding that Chicago’s “CLEAR” gang database “include[ed] over 128,000 individuals, 90,208 of whom are Black, 31,873 are Hispanic and less than 6,000 are White.”); K. Babe Howell, Gang Policing: The Post Stop and-Frisk Justification for Profile-Based Policing, 5 UNIV. OF DENVER CRIM. L. REV. 1, 16 (2015), [https://academicworks.cuny.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1067&context=cl_pubs](https://academicworks.cuny.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1067&context=cl_pubs) (finding that “approximately 48% of the individuals added to the [NYPD’s Gang Database] between 2003 and 2013 were identified by the NYPD as [B]lack, another 42% Hispanic[.]”). Similarly, California’s statewide gang database is 90% Black and/or Hispanic. See Zak Cheney-Rice, California Police Are Falsely Labeling People as Gang Members. It’s Part of a Bigger Crisis, INTELLIGENCER (Jan. 7, 2020), [https://nymag.com/intelligencer/2020/01/lapd-falsely-labeling-gang-members.html](https://nymag.com/intelligencer/2020/01/lapd-falsely-labeling-gang-members.html) (stating that “[t]he database is roughly 90 percent people of color (who comprise 45 percent of the state’s population) and is notoriously opaque.”). The City of Los Angeles has been banned from using the gang database because of its racially disproportionate impact. See Anita Chabria et al., California Bars Police from using LAPD Records in Gang Database. Critics Want it Axed., L.A. TIMES (July 14, 2020), [https://www.latimes.com/california/story/2020-07-14/california-bars-police-from-using-lapd-records-in-gang-database-as-scandal-widens](https://www.latimes.com/california/story/2020-07-14/california-bars-police-from-using-lapd-records-in-gang-database-as-scandal-widens) (discussing the revocation of the Los Angeles Police Department’s access to “about a quarter of the records in the secretive database, which contains names and personal information of about 80,000 people, mostly Black and Brown men).
activities. This practice of stopping, collecting data from, and later tracking Black and Brown individuals through police databases is so common that, while more than 2 million people are currently incarcerated, the Bureau of Justice Statistics estimates that over 100 million names are stored in criminal history databases, with 80 percent of the black male population registered in these databases in some cities.

Further, law enforcement agencies consistently deploy algorithmic technologies in ways that are wholly inconsistent with ethical science and good governance. For example, despite repeated warnings that popular facial recognition systems exhibit racial bias and enhance racialized surveillance, a recent Government Accountability Office report revealed that at least 20 different federal law enforcement agencies owned or used facial recognition technologies and face matching databases containing over 800 million images. Another report revealed that over 1,800 agencies, including hundreds of law enforcement agencies, piloted the use of Clearview AI’s facial recognition software. This is despite Clearview’s controversial database encompassing more than 3 billion images scraped without the permission or awareness of the individual pictured and its use across law enforcement agencies without regulations or civilian or government oversight.

Notably, several law enforcement agencies have been found to have misused facial recognition technology by creating false images of Black faces and facial features to run against the software.


44 See Digitize and Punish supra note 24 (highlighting the increased number of Black people registered in police databases and therefore exposed to increased criminalization and noting that "[d]igital databases, not detention centers . . . are becoming the leading edge of criminal justice in the United States. While more than 2 million people are incarcerated . . . the Bureau of Justice Statistics estimates that 100,596,300 names are stored in criminal history databases. In some cities, 80 percent of the black male population is registered in these databases."); see also Bureau of Justice Statistics, Survey of State Criminal History Information Systems, 2014 at 30, Criminal Justice Information Policy, (Dec. 2015) https://www.ojp.gov/pdfs/ibis/grants/249799.pdf (finding that there were over 100,500,000 names in U.S. criminal databases.).


47 The 1,803 publicly funded agencies whose employees are listed as having used or tested Clearview’s controversial policing tool between 2018 and February 202, overwhelmingly includes local and state police, and the US Immigration and Customs Enforcement. The agencies also include the Air Force, state healthcare organizations, offices of state attorneys general, and public schools. See Ryan Mac et al., Surveillance Nation, BUZZFEED NEWS, (Apr. 9, 2021), https://www.buzzfeednews.com/article/ryanmac/clearview-ai-local-police-facial-recognition [hereinafter Clearview in Hundreds of US Police Depts.].

48 Id. (noting that Clearview’s datasets are derived from online photos online, such as those on Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn); Kashmir Hill, The Secretive Company That Might End Privacy as We Know It, N.Y. TIMES (Mar. 18, 2021), https://www.nytimes.com/2020/01/18/technology/clearview-privacy-facial-recognition.html.
to facilitate enforcement actions against a Black person. To date, law enforcement agencies have disproportionately used facial recognition, predictive policing software, drones, license plate readers, autonomous aerial surveillance, surveillance cameras, and gunshot detection technology in Black and Brown communities which results in increased surveillance, harassment, and criminalization.

These examples make clear that AI tools, even those without “dirty” datasets or technical failings, will nevertheless produce racially biased outcomes if law enforcement uses them to

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49 See Clair Garvey, Garbage In, Garbage Out: Facial Recognition on Flawed Data, GEORGETOWN CENTER ON LAW AND PRIVACY (citing examples of police conducting Google searches for Black features and manually adding them onto a photo because the algorithm cannot distinguish between the parts of the face that were in the original photo and the parts that were either computer generated or added by a detective, in addition to other technological manipulations to return a possible match); see also NYPD, Real Time Crime Center FIS Presentation: Partial Face (Sept. 17, 2018), Document pp. 025423, 025466 (highlighting additional examples of officer manipulation of facial recognition technology).


54 Leaders of a Beautiful Struggle supra note 41.

55 Surveillance City supra note 41 (noting a concentration of surveillance cameras in Black and Brown neighborhoods).


support racially biased practices or in a racially discriminatory manner. As law enforcement agencies continue to use AI tools to execute racially discriminatory practices, Black and Brown communities will continue to suffer from irreversible harms. Moreover, when viewed through the lens of historic and current anti-Black racism that plagues American policing, discriminatory results from law enforcement agencies’ use of AI tools are not just “possible,” but inevitable, unless active steps are taken to prevent the disparate impact and discrimination that is likely to result from the use of these technologies.

Vendors that develop and market policing technologies have been embroiled in legal controversies where impacted parties have cited a diverse set of violations, injuries, and harm. NIST must expand its proposal to consider the harm that will result from law enforcement’s uniquely powerful use of AI tools. As noted above, this consideration should likewise account for the historical and contemporary role of bias and discrimination in law enforcement practices and be grounded in a civil rights framework, and must include the explicit option to reject a tool’s development if the tool or its use risks racial discrimination.

The Proposal acknowledges that some tools’ potential harms outweigh the benefits of their creation and provides a non-exhaustive set of circumstances when developers should “reject [its] development.” But the Proposal defines these as “extreme cases” where the technologies are “fraudulent, pseudoscientific, prey on the user, or generally exaggerate claims.” It also includes instances where there is “poor problem framing, basing technology on spurious correlations from data-driven approaches, failing to establish appropriate underlying mechanisms, or generally technically flawed.” Notably, this list excludes AI tools that directly result in discrimination.

Against this backdrop, the Proposal’s current parameters are far too narrow. Some AI tools—either independently or combined with human decision making—disproportionately subject certain groups to harmful discriminatory effects. For tools that may be used to facilitate discrimination against vulnerable or marginalized groups, bias mitigation is not sufficient. In

59 See infra Sections I and II.
60 NIST Proposal supra note 18, at 7.
61 Id.
62 Id.
particular, given the high risk of racially discriminatory use and effect, tools that may be used by law enforcement agencies should be carefully reviewed to determine discriminatory impact. The rights of people impacted by technology must be centered and prioritized when considering whether technology should be developed. This “reject development” principle is essential and has been adopted by other countries. For example, the EU applies a risk-based framework that prohibits the use of AI systems when the system or the use of that system: “contravene[es] [European] Union values,” including “violating fundamental rights,” or having a “significant potential to . . . exploit vulnerabilities of specific vulnerable groups,” among other criteria. NIST should broaden its application and fully develop this principle to provide better guidance that offers AI developers a structured process to identify when the potential harm caused by AI is too great and should not be developed.

That guidance should include common techniques, approaches, and circumstances that consistently lead to discriminatory outcomes and, therefore, should be prohibited, including the following:

1) Law enforcement use of AI for practices that may have discriminatory effects;
2) Developing AI for systems, institutions, or actors with demonstrated patterns or practices of systemic civil and human rights violations;
3) Ignoring audits, assessments, or validation studies that demonstrate discriminatory outcomes; and
4) Facilitating technological redlining.66


65 Id. at sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3 (prohibiting specific uses of AI and AI practices based on the AI systems’ risk of harm to vulnerable communities and noting that “the classification [of an AI system] as high-risk does not only depend on the function performed by the AI system, but also on the specific purpose and modalities for which that system is used.”).

66 “Technological redlining” is a concept developed by Dr. Safiya Noble which describes how automated decision-making can reinforce oppressive social relationships and enable new forms of systemic racial inequality. See generally, SAFIYA NOBLE, ALGORITHMS OF OPPRESSION (2018); see also Nat’l Fair Hous. All., National Fair Housing Alliance Challenges Harmful Trump Administration Reversal of Fair Housing Rule (Oct. 22, 2020), https://nationalfairhousing.org/2020/10/22/national-fair-housing-alliance-challenges-harmful-trump-administration-
IV. The Proposal Should Draw Upon and Incorporate the Expertise of a Broad Set of Stakeholders, Including Impacted Individuals and Communities, Civil and Human Rights Organizations, and Other Agencies with Relevant Experience.

The Proposal’s current 3-prong framework for AI bias (addressing the three stages of the AI life cycle) disproportionately privileges the voices and experiences of AI developers and designers. The Proposal must instead draw upon and incorporate insight and knowledge from voices outside technology firms, media, academics, and researchers. In developing tailored guidance on the standards and risk-management frameworks for AI systems in compliance with civil and human rights, we urge NIST to collaborate with a broad set of stakeholders who bring deep expertise, including communities directly impacted by these systems and organizations advocating on their behalf, as well as public agencies with experience protecting the rights of impacted communities and with expertise in civil and human rights.

Around the country, communities continue to defy algorithmic injustice and offer alternative visions to technology-enabled systems of oppression. NIST should directly engage with communities impacted by bias and discrimination, and incorporate those perspectives into this Proposal and subsequent resources, standards, and measurements. In particular, we urge NIST to consult with Black and Brown communities, organizers, and activists who are grappling with the harms of algorithmic injustice in their lives. These community stakeholders are in Baltimore, New York City, Pasco County, Florida, and countless other jurisdictions and can offer essential insights to inform NIST’s approach to these issues. Civil and human rights organizations that frequently represent impacted communities may also have valuable input and should be consulted.

Interdisciplinary and interagency collaboration is also particularly important in terms of harmonizing NIST’s new guidance and standards on AI bias with preexisting legal and regulatory approaches for assessing, quantifying, and measuring statistical disparities in the context of legal discrimination and bias. Federal agencies—such as the Equal Employment Opportunity

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reversal-of-fair-housing-rule/ (discussing an LDF legal challenge to a Trump-era HUD rule that severely limited the ability of plaintiffs to challenge housing discrimination in court, in part, by offering housing providers new affirmative defenses to housing discrimination, including the use of algorithms in housing decisions).


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Commission, the U.S. Department of Labor, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, and the U.S. Department of Education, among others—have historically offered guidance about statistical analysis to prevent disparate outcomes impacting the rights of protected classes.  

Courts have also developed various methods for addressing quantitative approaches for assessing disparate impact and disparate treatment. And the Federal Trade Commission has also offered guidance on ensuring algorithms are used equitably and fairly. These perspectives should be incorporated into NIST’s future publications related to AI bias and discrimination in the context of civil and human rights.

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Given the Proposal’s failure to address the (a) historic and contemporary context of systemic racial bias and discrimination in technology; (b) the application of civil and human rights law to AI design and use; (c) a holistic analysis of when AI tools should not be developed, including a specific risk evaluation in the context of law enforcement agencies’ use of AI tools, and (d) the targeted incorporation of expertise from impacted communities and other key stakeholders, we urge NIST to incorporate the following recommendations:

V. Recommendations

1. NIST should (1) confront the historic and present-day methods of racial bias around all development and evaluation of AI and (2) center its framework on civil and human rights and develop supplemental guidance specifically addressing the implication of civil and human rights in AI. This should include interdisciplinary insights from impacted communities, relevant public agencies, and civil and human rights experts.

2. NIST should unequivocally state that algorithmic discrimination is unlawful, and that AI developers and practitioners have legal obligations across the lifecycle of AI to ensure rigorous compliance with civil and human rights law.

3. NIST should create specific processes to determine whether the development or dissemination of AI tools and systems risks civil and human rights violations. This should apply across all contexts but carry special consideration for areas with histories of racialized harm, such as law enforcement.

4. NIST should proactively seek out individuals with first-hand experience of AI bias and discrimination, leaders, activists, organizers, and others within marginalized communities.


In addition, NIST should conduct a series of targeted field visits to frontline communities to ensure the voices of those impacted by algorithmic bias and discrimination are centered.

5. NIST should ensure that its future guidance incorporates guiding principles on the development of AI in the context of civil and human rights. Among these guiding principles, NIST should include:

- **Transparency, Democratic Oversight, and Inclusive Design:**

  AI systems are often deployed without transparency and oversight. It is imperative that NIST emphasize to the AI community that AI technologies affecting fundamental rights be fully transparent and accessible to members of the public.⁷⁴ AI developers and vendors routinely claim a proprietary interest in the underlying algorithms to their technologies which remains a major impediment to public disclosure and oversight.⁷⁵ Technologies that are deployed in ways that affect the rights of the public should be subject to public disclosure and oversight, as these are the most direct route to ensuring the voices of end-users are integrated into each phase of the lifecycle of AI systems.

- **Remedial Procedures and Reparative Justice:**

  Future NIST guidance should offer the AI community concrete strategies for redressing both discrete instances and systemic patterns of AI bias and discrimination. Reparative justice is well-suited as a guiding principle here because the AI community itself benefits from the perpetuation of histories of injustice through the reliance on “dirty” data sets.

VI. Conclusion

The development of AI and emerging technologies presents an unprecedented array of challenges to protecting the civil and human rights of Black and Brown communities. Nevertheless, such civil and human rights protections must be prioritized in governing new technologies. Federal policymakers must play a more active role to protect the bulwark of our national civil rights infrastructure from being overrun by the unethical and discriminatory development and deployment of AI systems. AI technologies did not build the conditions of racial inequality in the United States, but without urgent intervention by policymakers and technologists, these technologies threaten to encode systemic racism and social inequality into our future. We urge NIST and other federal agencies, alongside Congress and the Biden Administration, to prioritize the enactment comprehensive legislation and regulations for the development of AI and other emerging technologies that respects the civil and human rights of all people.

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⁷⁴ This should include emphasis on pushing practitioners to ensure members of the public are aware of their exposure to an AI tool, there must be a mechanism learn more about the context of that exposure, review mandated data reports and assessments, and critically, dispute or contest the tool’s use or effect.

⁷⁵ See Racial Segregation, *supra* note 9, at 134-35.
Thank you for considering these comments. If you have any questions, please contact Katurah Topps, Policy Counsel, at ktopps@naacpldf.org or (212) 965-2200, or Puneet Cheema, Manager of the Justice in Public Safety Project at pcheema@naacpldf.org or (646) 574-5666.

Sincerely,

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