

## Article Info

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# Issues and Prospects in the Use of Artificial Intelligence in Human Resource Management

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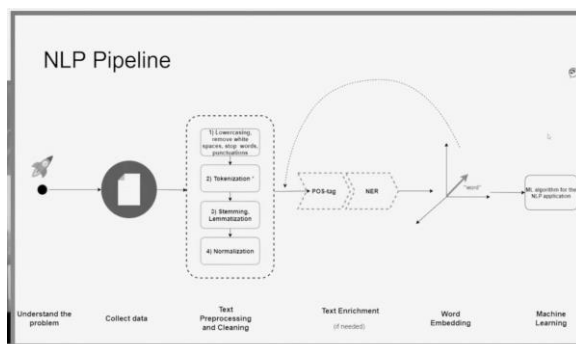
## ABSTRACT

*We examine the gap between the promise and reality of artificial intelligence in human resource management and propose ways forward. We highlight four problems with using data science approaches to human resource tasks: 1) the complexity of HR phenomena, 2) the restrictions imposed by tiny data sets, 3) accountability problems related to fairness and other ethical and regulatory constraints, and 4) the possibility of unfavorable employee responses to management choices using data-based algorithms. We suggest practical solutions to these issues, focusing on three overlapping concepts-cause and effect, randomization and trials, and employee input-that might be both economically efficient and socially suitable for employing data science in employee management.*

**Keywords:** AL; ML; HRM; Issues; Prospect.

## 1.0 Introduction

The rate at which corporate jargon shifted from big data (BD) to machine learning (ML) to artificial intelligence (AI) is astounding. The match between rhetoric and reality, on the other hand, is a different issue. Most businesses are failing to make any headway in developing data analytics capabilities. 41% of CEOs think they are not at all prepared to adopt new data analytics techniques, while just 4% claim they are “to a significant degree” prepared.



“AI” is often used to refer to a large range of technologies that enable a computer to execute activities that would ordinarily require human intellect, such as adaptive decision-making. Our approach here is more focused, concentrating on a subclass of AI algorithms that are now in use and depend mostly on improved data availability for

prediction jobs. Over the past several years, there have been significant developments in the fields of pattern recognition and natural language processing (NLP). Deep learning using neural networks has grown more popular in certain data-rich environments, bringing us closer to real AI. Nonetheless, few firms have even reached the big data stage in terms of staff management, where the promise of more intelligent judgments has been expressed loudly and often. Only 22% of organizations believe they have used analytics in human resources, and it is unclear how sophisticated the analytics are in those firms.

For example, the potential of data analytics is more visible in other industries, such as operations, where the pertinent issues are more clear: for example, when will the bearings on an aircraft component fail? The consequence (part failure) is unambiguous and may be previously quantified, and the number of observations may be quite high (e.g., where the parts are on thousands of aircraft and checked on a regular basis), allowing the use of big data approaches. Furthermore, the notion of detecting components before they fail seems to be unequivocally beneficial.

The efficient use of artificial intelligence for human resource issues involves a variety of obstacles. They vary from the practical to the philosophical, such as the fact that the nature of data

science analysis when applied to people may lead to severe contradictions with the criteria that societies normally consider relevant for making meaningful judgments about people.

Consider the following:

- 1) A first problem is the complexity of HR outcomes, such as what constitutes being a “good employee.” There are many dimensions to that construct, and measuring it with precision for most jobs is quite difficult: performance appraisal scores, the most widely-used metric, have been roundly criticized for problems of validity and reliability as well as for bias,<sup>3</sup> and many employers are giving them up altogether.<sup>4</sup> Any reasonably complex job is interdependent with other jobs and therefore individual performance is hard to disentangle from group performance. A vast literature documents numerous problems with existing performance systems as well as our field’s failure to establish a clear link between individual, team, and organizational performance.<sup>5</sup> Given the uncertain quality of performance evaluations by humans, can we use them for training AI algorithms? Even if a high level of accuracy was achievable, this would mean scaling up arbitrary or outright discriminatory human decisions. The number of times a task such as dismissals has been executed in most organizations to learn from, that number is quite small by the standards needed for data science.<sup>6</sup> Moreover, many outcomes of interest are rarely observed, such as the firing of employees for poor performance, and data science techniques perform poorly when predicting relatively rare outcomes.<sup>7</sup>
- 2) The outcomes of human resource decisions, such as who gets hired and fired, have such serious consequences for individuals and society that concerns about fairness – both procedural and distributive justice – and ethics are paramount. Elaborate legal frameworks also hold employers accountable for making those decisions in a fair manner. Central to those frameworks is the concern with explainability, knowing what attributes are driving the decision, something that is typically absent from pattern recognition methods underlying many state-of-the-art algorithms.
- 3) Employment decisions are also subject to a range of complex socio-psychological concerns that exist among employees, such as personal

worth and status, perceived fairness, and contractual and relational expectations, that affect organizational outcomes as well as individual ones. As a result, being able to explain, justify, and get employees to accept the algorithms being used is crucial. When lacking acceptance, employees are capable of gaming or other adversarial reactions to algorithmic-based decisions that, in turn, affect organizational outcomes. While a human decision-maker can monitor adversarial behavior and adjust his or her decisions accordingly, even state-of-the-art algorithms find this to be a challenging problem. Dealing with manipulation of this type is the focus of a machine learning technique known as “adversarial machine learning”.

To illustrate these concerns, consider the use of an algorithm to predict who to hire. As is typical in problems like these, the application of machine learning techniques would create an algorithm based on the attributes of employees as it relates to their job performance in the current workforce. Even if we found a causal relationship between an attribute such as sex and job performance, we might well not trust an algorithm that says hire more white men because job performance itself may be a biased indicator, the attributes of the current workforce and of our data may be distorted by how we hired in the past (e.g., we hired few women), and both the legal system and social norms would create substantial problems for us if we did act on it.

In 2018, Amazon discovered that its algorithm for hiring had exactly this problem for exactly this reason. It had been built on historical job performance data, when white men had been the best performers (indeed white men were most of the employees), and the algorithm gave higher scores to white male applicants as a result. Even when the sex of applicants was not used as a criterion, attributes associated with women candidates, such as courses in “Women’s Studies”, caused them to be ruled out. The company soon stopped using the system as there was no simple way to fix it.<sup>8</sup>

Even when we build an algorithm on a more objective measure, such as who steals from the company, the number of such cases in a typical company is too small to construct an effective algorithm. Moreover, with a task such as hiring, once applicants discover the content of our hiring algorithm, they are likely to adjust their behavior to it and render the algorithm worthless: Most applicants

already know, for example, to answer the question “what is your worst characteristic” with an attribute that is not judged as negative, such as, “I work too hard.”

We address below each of these challenges separately at each stage of what we call the AI Life Cycle: Operations – Data Generation – Machine Learning – Decision- Making. We recognize that researchers who study the practice of human resources have identified and discussed at length the human resource challenges faced by organizations, and we do not claim to have uncovered these challenges for the first time. The arguments below show how AI algorithms can respond to them using the approaches of contemporary data science as an alternative to managerial judgment. We introduce complex ideas from computer science and statistics into the HR context and present them in a language of managers and HR practitioners. We do not attempt to speculate as to how the practices of human resources may be changed by these data science techniques as doing so requires both a thorough review of the state of current practice and a systematic review of the barely emerging phenomenon of AI in HR management.

Substantively, we bring together key ideas from Evidence-Based Management (EBMgmt) - a theory-driven analysis of “small data”<sup>9</sup> and out-of-the-mainstream approaches to machine learning<sup>x</sup> in order to position causation as central to all four challenges we identified. We also suggest that randomization can be a useful component of an AI-

augmented decision process, given that it is already present in many managers’ decisions,<sup>11</sup> it is often perceived as fair,<sup>12</sup> and algorithms may otherwise struggle to make fair and valid decisions.<sup>13</sup>

To bridge the state-of-the-art in data science with the needs of HR practice, we brought data science faculty together with the heads of the workforce analytics function from 20 major US corporations, known for their sophisticated management systems, for a one-day workshop in the Fall of 2018. Prior to the workshop, we circulated a short survey with open-ended questions about their corporations’ ongoing initiatives regarding analytics and algorithmic decision-making, barriers they face, and breakthroughs they expect. The workshop itself consisted of four sessions on the topics of data management, social media as a source of HR data, fairness and ethics of HR decisions, and employee recommendations. Each session included a presentation by a data scientist followed by an open discussion.

Our practitioners’ examples and comments from the survey and workshop are not representative of the business at large. Nevertheless, they were helpful for informing our thinking and for articulating the challenges stated above.

## 2.0 The AI Life Cycle

“Operations” constitute our phenomenon of interest, such as how an organization hires employees. One of the reasons for the interest in

HR operation	Prediction task
<b>Recruiting</b> – identifying possible candidates and persuading them to apply	Are we securing good candidates?
<b>Selection</b> – choosing which candidates should receive job offers	Are we offering jobs to those who will be the best employees?
<b>On-boarding</b> - bringing an employee into an organization	Which practices cause new hires to become useful faster?
<b>Training</b>	What interventions make sense for which individuals, and do they improve performance?
<b>Performance management</b> – identifying good and bad performance	Do our practices improve job performance?
<b>Advancement</b> – determining who gets promoted	Can we predict who will perform best in new roles?
<b>Retention</b>	Can we predict who is likely to leave and manage the level of retention?
<b>Employee benefits</b>	How do we identify which benefits matter most to employees to know what to give them and what to recommend when there are choices, and what are the effects of those benefits (e.g., do they improve recruiting and retention)?

applying data science tools to human resource operations is because HR performs so many tasks and so much money is involved in them.

In the US economy as a whole, roughly 60 percent of all spending is on labor. In service industries, the figure is much higher.<sup>14</sup>

In the table below, we list the most common operations in human resources with corresponding prediction tasks for workforce analytics. They correspond to the “Human Resources Life Cycle,” which is commonly used to organize HR tasks.<sup>15</sup> Each of these operations involves administrative tasks, each affects the performance of the organization in important ways, and each includes specific offices, job roles, written instructions and guidelines to execute as well as the actual activities and interactions of all parties. These operations produce volumes of data, in the form of texts, recordings, and other artifacts. As operations move to the virtual space, many of these outputs are in the form of “digital exhaust,” which is trace data on digital activities (e.g. online job applications, skills assessment) that may be used to build recruiting algorithms.

Human resource information systems, applicant tracking systems, digital exhaust, and other markers are all critical inputs for the “**data generation**” stage. Typically, this input has to be extracted from multiple databases, converted to a common format, and joined together before analysis can take place.

By “**machine learning**,” (ML) we refer to a broad set of techniques that can adapt and learn from data to create algorithms that perform better and better at a task, typically prediction. Within business contexts, the most common application of machine learning technologies has been “supervised” applications, in which a data scientist trains a machine learning algorithm on a labeled training sample and determines the most appropriate metric to assess its accuracy. Some of the most commonly used prediction algorithms, such as “logistic regression”, infer the outcome variable of interest from statistical correlations among observed variables<sup>16</sup>.

For hiring, for example, we might see which applicant characteristics have been associated with better job performance and use that to select candidates in the future. “Algorithmic management,” the practice of using algorithms to guide incentives and other tools for “nudging” platform workers and contractors in the direction of the contractee<sup>17</sup> is

applied to regular employees.<sup>18</sup> At present, this is principally the case in making recommendations to employees about actions they may take. IBM, for example, uses algorithms to advise employees on what training make sense for them to take, based on the experiences of similar employees; the vendor Quine uses the career progression of previous employees to make recommendations to client’s employees about which career moves make sense for them.

Vendors such as Benefitfocus develop customized recommendations for employee benefits, much in the same way that Netflix recommends content based on consumer preferences or Amazon recommends products based on purchasing or browsing behavior. The extension of such recommendations into wellness programs is already underway, in some cases collecting data about employees’ health and wellness directly with devices like “Fitbits,” urging employees to adopt practices that lead to better health outcomes, and sometimes rewarding and punishing them with payments or higher healthcare costs based on their compliance.

These algorithms differ in some important ways from traditional approaches used in HR. In industrial psychology, the field that historically focused the most attention on human resource decisions, research on hiring, say, **would test separate explanatory hypotheses about the relationship between individual predictors and job performance.**

The researcher picks the hypothesis to examine and the variables with which to examine it. This process produces lessons for hiring, typically one test at a time, e.g., the relationship between personality test scores and job performance, then the relationship between education and job performance, and so forth. The result would be conclusions about several variables that might be used to predict hiring success.

Machine learning, in contrast, uses many variables to generate one algorithm and typically one score to assess a candidate. The variables used may not be in the cannon of the theoretical literature associated with the topic, and the researcher is not hypothesizing or indeed even examining the relationship between any one variable and the outcome being predicted. Indeed, one of the attractions of ML is its investigation of non-traditional factors because the goal is to build a better prediction rather than advancing the theory of the field in which the researcher is based by providing evidence on particular hypotheses.

The second most popular use of data science in human resources may be in predicting turnover. Vendors like Jobvite generate machine learning algorithms that score individual employees based on social media posts; others use simpler data like the extent to which individuals have updated their LinkedIn profiles. Many of the companies at our conference were developing their own, proprietary algorithms to predict flight risk.

IBM's Blue Match software uses algorithms in a more novel manner, to drive career advancement by suggesting career advancement moves and new jobs to apply for in the company based on employee interests and prior jobs, training, and ultimately the characteristics of individuals who have succeeded in those jobs in the past.

Twenty-sevenpercent of the company's employees who changed jobs in 2018 did so based on recommendations from the company's Blue Match software.<sup>19</sup>

The move away from check-list based performance appraisals and toward continuous discussions, facilitated by phone-based apps, has been facilitated by natural language processing software from vendors like Work Compass. These systems read through a year's worth of text messages to produce summaries of the issues discussed and comparisons with other employees, among other things, to drive merit pay decisions.

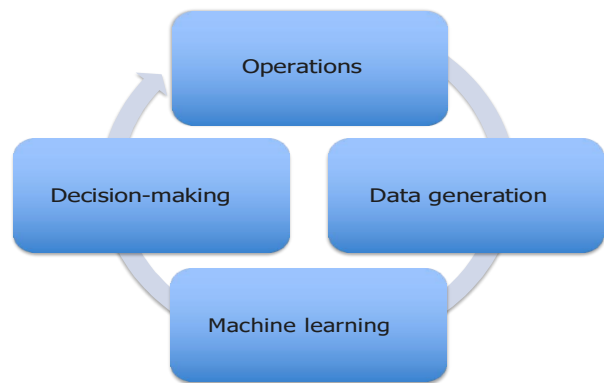
**"Decision-making,"** the final stage, deals with the way in which we use insights from the machine learning model in everyday operations. In the area of human resource decisions, individual managers may have more discretion now in how they use empirical evidence from data science and other models than they did in the heyday of the great corporations when hiring and other practices were standardized across an entire company.

Managers today often have the option of ignoring predictors about candidate success, for example, using it as they see fit, and generating their own data in the form of interviews they structure themselves.

Figure 1 depicts a conventional AI Life Cycle: Operations, Data Generation, Machine Learning, and Decision-Making. In this section, we explore in detail the four general challenges to AI outlined in the Introduction: complexity of HR phenomena, small data, ethical and legal constraints, and employee reactions to AI- management. To make these challenges tractable, we discuss them in the

context of the particular stages of the AI Life Cycle in which they are most relevant.

**Figure 1: The Life Cycle of an AI-supported HR Practice Addressing AI Challenges: One Stage at a Time**



### 3.0 Data Generation Stage

The complexity inherent in many HR phenomena manifests itself at the Data Generation stage. The most important source of complexity may be the fact that it is not easy to measure what constitutes a "good employee," given that job requirements are broad, monitoring of work outcomes is poor, and biases associated with assessing individual performance are legion. Moreover, complex jobs are interdependent with one another, and thus one employee's performance is often inextricable from the performance of the group: Is it sufficient to be a good individual contributor, and if not, how do we measure interactions with others? Without clear measures of what it means to be a good employee, a great many HR operations face considerable difficulty in measuring performance, which is the outcome driving many HR decisions.

In terms of the data, the participants of our workshop indicated that not all attributes of HR actions that we imagine are measured actually are; not all details of operations leave digital traces that could be captured, and not all traces left can be extracted and converted to a usable format at a reasonable cost. For example, employers do not necessarily track the channels through which applicants come to them – from referrals vs. visiting our website vs. job boards, and so forth – which is a reasonably simple exercise to do. Most employers collect only a limited amount of data on applicants

before ruling them out, and they do not retain it for those applicants that they screen out. These choices limit the types of analyses that can be performed and the conclusions that can be drawn.

The fact that there is no list of “standard” variables that employers are required to gather and retain through their HR operations, as there might be in fields like accounting, reduces the extent to which best practices in analytics can be transferred across organizations. Behavioral measures from attitudinal surveys, for example, vary considerably across organizations, measures of job performance differ, differences in cost accounting mean that the detail that employers have on the costs of employees differs enormously (e.g., are training costs tracked, and if so, are they aggregated in ways that limit the ability to examine them?), and so forth.

When tackling the challenge of data generation, employers can benefit from the lessons drawn from fields like performance management.

Do not expect perfect measures of performance as they do not exist. It is better to choose reasonable measures (e.g., would you have hired this new employee if you could go back) and stick with them to see patterns and changes in results than to keep tinkering with systems to find the perfect measure. Most of our data analytics efforts in HR are based on decisions concerning individual employees – who to hire, who to retain, what to recommend about training and advancement - we need good measures of what constitutes success, who is a good performer, or none of these efforts will succeed.

Objective measures of performance outcomes based on ex-ante determined goals and Key Performance Indicators are best, but they are never complete. Complement them with measures to capture less tangible outcomes, such as whether the employee fits into the company’s culture, even if those measures are subjective, to prevent a situation where employees optimize on the few objective measures at the expense of everything else.

Include business and financial performance data at the organizational level closest to employee control to have the best chance of seeing how individual performance affects larger business units and the company as a whole.

Aggregate information from multiple perspectives and over time. Digital HR tools allow for rapid real-time evaluations among colleagues using mobile devices, for example. Machine learning

algorithms are ideal for making sense of such information.

The complexity of HR phenomena creates another problem in the form of specialized vendors who address only one task. It is very common for an employer to have a system from one vendor to track employee performance scores, from another for applicant tracking software, from a third for compensation and payroll data, and so forth. The biggest practical challenge in the data generation phase and arguably in using data in human resources at all is simply database management, aggregating existing data so that it can be examined because the systems are rarely compatible. It is no surprise that such database challenges were one of the biggest challenges reported by the HR analytics practitioners in our workshop. In addition to technical barriers, our respondents reported the resistance of other functions to sharing their data with HR Departments.

To illustrate how rudimentary most of the existing database management efforts still are with HR operations, the vast majority of our practitioners reported that the software they most often used to organize, manage, and analyze their data was Excel.

Very few used more purpose-built tools such as Tableau that are common in data analytics. Software for bridging datasets and “data lakes” that can archive and access different data sets represent a way forward, but they can be difficult to integrate, can be viewed as confining, and face their own limitations, so they remain under-used in the HR world.

To demonstrate its commitment to digital transformation as well as to benefit from it, companies’ top management has to make data sharing a priority in the short-run and invest in data standardization and platform integration in the long-run. The fact that at present, the separate types of data needed to do even the most basic analyses, such as seeing whether hiring decisions lead to better new employees, cannot be done because the components of data are owned by different parts of the organization. Only executives at a higher level can make the cooperation across units happen that is a necessary condition before data analysis can begin.

Given these database concerns, it can be extremely difficult and costly to analyze a question in HR for the first time. Data analytics managers, therefore, have to be careful about where to “place bets” in terms of assembling data for analysis, let alone when collecting new data. How should



managers decide which HR questions to investigate, especially when so few have been examined before?

This challenge was the most important concern in our discussion with practitioners. Beyond the obvious criteria of cost is the likelihood of generating useable results. Our practitioners said that in this context, they relied on induction to make the choice: they ask people in HR operations what they have seen and what they think the important relationships are. Some go to senior management and solicit answers to the question of what types of problems prevent the managers from “sleeping at night.” Such experience-driven heuristics are a typical approach under uncertainty. The practitioners also indicated that another factor shaping where they placed their bets is whether anyone was willing to act on results they found.

A more systematic response would include examining the research literature in order to establish what is already known about different research questions, as evidence-based management has long advocated.<sup>21</sup> The fact that this approach appears not to be used very often reflects the disconnect between the data science community, which understands analytics but not HR, and the HR community, which understands HR but not analytics. Many leading IT companies, such as Amazon, Google, Facebook, and Microsoft, hire as many PhDs in social sciences as in data sciences into the HR department to help close this disconnect.

The last step in the process of deciding what to analyze is with an audit of what data are necessary to answer the research question and how difficult it is to assemble.

For example, if the employer wants to use a machine-learning algorithm in hiring, it needs to have historical data on job candidates who were not hired, something that many employers do not retain. It may not be possible to answer questions that are important and that data science is well-suited to answer because the data are not available.

Small data is a fundamental concern for human resource analytics. Most employers do not hire many workers, nor do they do enough performance appraisals or collect enough other data points for their current workforce to use machine learning techniques because they do not have that many employees. The machine learning literature has shown that access to larger data has substantial advantages in terms of predictive accuracy.

At the same time, even if data sets are not big enough for machine learning exercises, small data are often sufficient for identifying relationships; we may not be able to build a machine learning algorithm for hiring, but we probably do have enough data to answer questions about specific hiring criteria, such as whether recruiting from the CEO’s Alma Mater really produces better hires. Some aspects of HR may generate millions of observations, such as continuous measures of employee performance. It is straight-forward, for example, to monitor employee time spent doing online work and not working; call center employees are assessed on each call with many metrics; employees performing simple physical tasks, such as sorting packages, are measured per hand movement.<sup>22</sup>

The management literature has an important advantage over data science in articulating causal relationships, as opposed to prediction from correlations among observed variables in machine learning. Recently, voices in the computer science community have articulated the problem of causation as critical for the future of AI in human affairs.<sup>23</sup> We consider the issue of causality in more detail below. The less data we have, the less we can learn from data analytics, and the more we need from theory and prior research to identify causal predictors of the outcome of interest.

AI- management requires that managers put their assumptions on the table, though, and persuade the other stakeholders about their accuracy, ultimately by using data and empirical analysis. The formulation of such assumptions often turns into a contest among stakeholders. This is a place where process formalization that presumes contributions from stakeholders is required.

Where a formal process reveals large disagreements as to causal factors, a way forward might include generating additional data from randomized experiments in order to test causal assumptions. Google became known for running experiments for all kinds of HR phenomena, from the optimal number of interviews per job candidate to the optimal size of the dinner plate in the cafeteria.<sup>24</sup> (Off-the-record conversations also suggest that Google leadership did not accept the research finding that unstructured interviews were poor predictors of good hires – having committed to that practice - and so conducted the research that confirmed it was true even at Google.) If discussions, experiments, and leadership’s persuasion do not lead to a reasonable

consensus on the causal model that generates the outcome of interest, AI-analyses are likely to be counterproductive.

One attraction of using vendors is their ability to combine data from many employers to generate their algorithms. Such approaches have long been used with standard paper-and-pencil selection tests, or as they are sometimes known now, pre-employment tests, such as those for sales roles. For instance, the company ADP, which handles outsourced payroll operations for thousands of companies, has been able to harness this scale to build predictive models of compensation and churn. Client companies are willing to make their data available for this exercise in return for access to the predictive models and benchmarked comparisons.

The complication for individual employers is knowing to what extent their context is distinct enough that an algorithm built on data from elsewhere will make effective predictions in their own organization. As is discussed further below, such evidence is essential to address legal concerns. Employers are also concerned about employees' tendency to bias their responses and the data depending on how they think the data are used. Because of this, a great many employers now make use of social media information precisely because they believe employees are being more authentic in it.<sup>25</sup> That data gets used in hiring (e.g., looking for evidence of bad behavior, looking for evidence of fit) and to assess "flight risk" or retention problems (e.g., identifying updated LinkedIn profiles). Banks have tighter regulations requiring oversight of employees and have long analyzed email data for evidence of fraudulent behavior. They are now using it as well to identify other problems. For example, the appearance of terms like "harassment" in email traffic may well trigger an internal investigation to spot problems in the workplace.

The vendor Vibe, for example, uses natural language processing tools to gauge the tone of comments that employees post on internal chat boards, thereby helping to predict employee flight risk. Applications such as these can face some key challenges when introduced into the workplace. For instance, when employees realize their posts are being used to derive these types of measures, it can influence what and how they choose to post. Then, there are the issues that may arise around whether employees consider such use of the data to infringe upon their privacy.

Several of the companies at our workshop reported that they built models on predicting flight risk and that the best predictors did not come from traditional psychology-based findings but from data sources like social media. Many employers felt that there was an ethical problem with their own use of social media; others felt that data was ok to use but that tracking sentiment on email messages using natural language algorithms was out of bounds; still others thought that any employee-related data was appropriate to use as long as it was anonymized. Many of these and similar considerations fall under the purview of privacy. Issues associated with electronic monitoring of employee performance and privacy are not new,<sup>26</sup> but the contemporary context of social media in particular creates new challenges (Tucker 2017): Data can persist well beyond the time it was generated, employers can repurpose it for use unanticipated by the creator, e.g., the words from an email exchange with a colleague might be used to predict flight risk. Data of one person may also inadvertently affect other people, for example, the creators' friends tagged in posts and photos. Here employers have to account for governments' regulations of privacy issues, such as "the right to be forgotten" or the EU's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). The former states that business has to satisfy individuals' demands to delete their digital traces after some period of time; the latter is a comprehensive treatment of all the aspects of data privacy in the digital age.<sup>27</sup> Among novel suggestions are that the Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act be used as a model for protecting employees their employer's breach of privacy.<sup>28</sup>

In terms of technological solutions to the issue of data privacy, computer scientists are actively working on privacy-preserving data analytic methods that rely on the notion of differential privacy in building algorithms. Here, data is randomized during the collection process, which leads to "learning nothing about an individual while learning useful information about the population"<sup>29</sup>. Analysts do not know whose data are used in the analysis and whose data are replaced by noise, but they do know the noise generating procedure and thus can estimate the model anyway.

The practical problem with using "authentic" data, such as that in email traffic or on social media, is that it is not clear how "authentic" it really is. It is certainly true that individuals are not necessarily shaping their social media entries with the goal of



influencing employers, but few people would believe that those entries are necessarily authentic. They are typically designed to create an image of the individual that is different from reality: entries about vacation cruises far outnumber entries about doing the laundry even though most of us spend far more time on the latter than the former.

The issue of individuals and especially job applicants altering their responses to what they believe assessments want, or faking, is not new<sup>30</sup>. In the case of social media data, the nature of what employees post will no doubt change as soon as individuals recognize that employers are monitoring those entries: expect far more entries about self-improvement, achievements at work, and so forth. Efforts to use computer games to assess candidates is yet another effort to obtain authentic data where the employees do not necessarily know how to spin their responses. But they are already getting help from businesses like the JobTestPrep company that helps potential candidates for jobs at Lloyds Bank figure out how to score well on Lloyds' selection game<sup>31</sup>. Getting authentic data on applicants will remain a challenge because of the ability of candidates to game such efforts.

#### **4.0 Machine Learning Stage**

An ML algorithm for predicting which candidates to hire may well perform better than anything an employer has used before. Indeed, a reasonable complaint is that prior research in human resources is not making much progress to help employers: the fact that most of the predictors advocated in that research on a topic like hiring, such as personality, predict so little of job performance (a typical validity coefficient of .30, for example, translates to explaining nine percent of the variance in performance) that it creates an enormous opportunity for data analytics to do better. It will, because its goal is just to predict, and it is not limited to a small number of one-at-a-time results, such as a personality test, nor is it constrained by prior research findings. Bo Cowgill, for example, shows how an ML algorithm can do better than humans.

In a field experiment with hiring white-collar workers, he finds that AI can remove human biases if the training data are sufficiently noisy: Inconsistent human decision-making introduces quasi-experimental variation which improves machine learning to such a degree that it yields better

candidates than HR staff. Specifically, the candidates selected by the machine are 14% more likely to pass interviews and receive a job offer, 18% more likely to accept an extended job offer, are 0.2–0.4 standard deviation more productive once hired, and 12% less likely to show evidence of competing job offers during salary negotiations.

Surprisingly, these improved results were due to noisy, inconsistent training data from hiring “non-traditional” candidates from non-elite colleges, lacking job-referrals and prior experience, with atypical credentials and strong non-cognitive soft-skills. These are remarkable counterintuitive findings that attest to the potential of AI.<sup>32</sup>

As noted above, finding good data with which to build an algorithm can be challenging. Because clients rarely have data on employee performance in which they feel confident, a common approach in the vendor community is to build an algorithm based on the attributes of a client firm's “best performers,” which are easier to identify.

Then applicants are assessed against that algorithm. Consider, for example, vendors like HireVue that help clients conduct video interviews. Part of their offerings include algorithms based on facial expressions captured on those videos. These algorithms are sometimes trained on data from top performers at the client firm, and job candidates are assessed based on how similar their expressions are to those of the algorithm.

Is it possible that facial expressions actually predict job performance? Social scientists may find examples like this absurd because there is no reason to expect such a relationship. The machine learning models and the data scientists behind them, of course, do not care whether we know what the reason might be for such a relationship or whether it corresponds with what we know from research on humans. They only care if there is such a relationship. Examples like this algorithm raise many concerns, though, even for the basic goal of producing an effective algorithm. First, they run the danger of “selecting on the dependent variable” by examining only those who are successful. The algorithm may well capture attributes of good performers accurately, but it is not identifying whether those attributes are truly distinct from those of other performers. Good performers and bad performers may have the same expressions in response to situations, but we will never know without examining both groups.

The use of an algorithm or indeed any decision rule in hiring is a challenge for the “learning” aspect of machine learning because of the sample selection it generates: Once we rule out hiring candidates who are not chosen by the algorithm, the opportunity to see whether other attributes might lead to better performers diminishes and may end – say if job requirements change or if new attributes appear among candidates.

In other words, the opportunity for the machine learning algorithm to keep learning disappears if we use only that algorithm to drive hiring decisions. The only way to avoid this problem is to on occasion turn off the algorithm, to not use it to hire, in order to see whether candidates that do not fit its criteria continue to perform worse or perhaps perform better.

This problem that selection based on the hiring criteria prevents learning about that criteria holds for any criterion. With the more standard hiring practice of using only a few selection criteria, it is possible to turn them off one-at-a-time to see the effect, for example, of recruiting from a different set of schools. An algorithm generated by machine learning operates as one entity rolling many variables together into an overall model. As a result, it is much more difficult to turn off just one criterion.

Selection can also induce a type of spurious relationship among workers’ characteristics called the collider effect in epidemiology and in data science.<sup>33</sup> It occurs when samples are selected in ways that restrict the range of the variables, sometimes known as “range restriction” in psychology.

An employer who selects new hires based on college grades and conscientiousness tests might well find that candidates who have neither good grades nor good scores on conscientious tests are not hired. When the employer looks for a relationship between college grades and conscientiousness among its employees, it finds the relationship is negative, even though in the broader population the relationship is positive.

More generally, this selection process can reduce the range on variables of interest, making it more difficult to find true effects. For example, if we only hire candidates with good college grades, it may be difficult to identify a true, positive relationship between grades and job performance because the variance of grades in the sample is too limited to identify that relationship. Range restriction also happens when applicants self-select into a firm’s

pool of applicants, the first step in the well-known “attraction-selection-attrition” framework.<sup>34</sup> (Schneider 1987). Algorithms that are based solely on data from the current workforce create this problem as well.

Several aspects of the modeling process per se can also be challenging. For instance, there is more than one measure of “fit” with the data. A well-known case of this problem concerned the use of a machine learning algorithm by judges in Broward County, Florida to determine whether a person charged with a crime should be released on bail.

The algorithm was trained based on data about whether parolees violated the terms of their parole. The challenge in the data is that the majority of the individuals in the dataset were white, and so the algorithm was driven largely by information about whites.

The algorithm predicted the rate of recidivism correctly at an equal rate for whites and blacks, but when it did not predict accurately, it was far more likely to over predict for blacks than for whites.<sup>35</sup> The problem is that the algorithm cannot optimize on more than one measure of fit. The implications for human resources are obvious given that prediction models for hiring or other outcomes may differ by sex, race, and other protected groups.

## **5.0 Decision-Making Stage**

There are three main challenges when decision makers try to apply the predictions produced by machine learning. The first concerns fairness and legal issues, the second relates to a lack of explainability of the algorithm, and the third to the question of how employees will react to algorithmic decisions.

### **5.1 Fairness**

Within the HR context, there are numerous questions related to fairness. One of the most obvious of these is the recognition that any algorithm is likely to be backward looking.

The presence of past discrimination in the data used to build a hiring algorithm, for example, is likely to lead to a model that may disproportionately select on white males.

Actions using those algorithms risk reproducing the demographic diversity – or lack thereof - that exists in the historical data. The biased outcomes of the Amazon hiring algorithm noted above was caused by exactly this common problem: because

fewer women were hired in the past and because men had higher performance scores, the algorithm was selecting out women and those with attributes associated with women.

In the HR context, there is a wide-spread belief that evaluations of candidates and employees are shaped heavily by the biases of the evaluator, most commonly as related to demographics. Algorithms can reduce that bias by standardizing the application of criteria to outcomes and by removing information that is irrelevant to performance but that might influence hiring manager decisions, such as the race and sex of candidates. On the other hand, factors that may seem inappropriate may nonetheless improve the predictive power of the algorithms, such as the social status of one's alma mater. How we balance the trade-off between appropriateness and predictive power is not clear.

The fact that employment decisions are so important to individual candidates/employees and to broader society has led to an extensive legal framework designed to guide those decisions. The vast majority of individuals in the US labor force – everyone other than white men under age 40 who do not have disabilities or relevant medical conditions – are protected against discrimination in any employment decision.

Other countries have similar rules. Discrimination means adverse actions taken based on one's demographic attributes, and in practice that is measured by "adverse impact," evidence that any employer's decisions have a lower incidence of good outcomes (e.g., hires and promotions) and/or a higher incidence of bad outcomes (e.g., dismissals) than the base rate we would expect from their distribution in the relevant population.<sup>36</sup>

With respect to the actions that could be based on algorithms, in other words, those that attempt to predict future outcomes, the only defense against evidence of adverse impact is first to show that the decisions taken actually do predict the desired outcomes and second to show that no other process for making decisions would produce at least as accurate predictions with less adverse impact.

These legal constraints raise considerable challenges for algorithm-based employment decisions. The first is simply that in order to assess whether they have an adverse impact, we have to identify the relationships within the algorithm between any of the attributes of protected groups and the relevant outcomes: Does it give women a lower

score, for example, or does it give lower scores to attributes disproportionately associated with women? This is a considerable analytic task for most algorithms.

Letting supervisors make employment decisions without guidance, on the other hand, may well lead to far more bias and possibly more adverse impact than the algorithms generate. But that bias is much harder to hold accountable because it is unsystematic and specific to each hiring manager. Algorithms used across the entire organization may have less bias than relying on disparate supervisors, but bias that does result is easier to identify and affects entire classes of individuals. All of this makes it much easier to challenge hiring decisions based on algorithms. Will employers find it worthwhile to take on greater legal risk in order to reduce total bias? How will the courts consider evidence concerning algorithms in these decisions? So far, we have no experience on these issues.

If we return to the parole violation example above, it would seem that a better approach to building an algorithm to predict parole violations would be to generate a separate one for blacks and for whites. In the context of HR decisions, that might seem appealing as well, to generate separate hiring algorithms, for example, for men and women. While there may be challenges in using such algorithms (e.g., how do we compare the scores of these two different models?), the legal frameworks will not allow us to treat these demographic groups differently.

These examples raise the more general concern about fundamental tradeoffs between accuracy and fairness that must be confronted in any HR machine learning implementation.<sup>37</sup> Consider how the role of context changes our judgments. Most of the participants at our workshop, for example, found it perfectly acceptable to use algorithms to make decisions that essentially reward employees – who to promote, who to hire in the first place. But what about the inevitable use of algorithms to punish employees? An algorithm that predicts future contributions will most certainly be introduced at some point to make layoff decisions. How about one that predicts who will steal from the company or commit a crime? Such "integrity" tests are already used in the workplace now as part of the hiring process.<sup>38</sup>

We see two approaches that can make progress on at least some of the above issues. The first and

arguably most comprehensive approach is causal discovery, that is, identifying in the data those variables that truly cause the outcome of interest, such as good job performance. This is a fundamental distinction between data science as it is most often applied to generating algorithms that are valued principally for their predictive accuracy and conventional statistics.

Consider the question as to whether the social status of an applicant's alma mater predicts their job performance if they were hired. From the perspective of generating algorithms, it is enough if the social status measure contributes to the overall accuracy of an algorithm predicting job performance. Traditional statistics, on the other hand, might ask whether the relationship between social status and job performance is true on its own – not just as part of a more complex algorithm – and whether it was causal. Establishing causation is a much more difficult exercise.

Demonstrably causal algorithms are more defensible in the court of law and thus address at least some legal constraints discussed above. They are fairer due to the explicit specification of causal paths from socio-demographic characteristics to performance, which allows individuals to be acknowledged for their performance enhancing characteristics (e.g., grit or intrinsic motivation) independently of group membership (e.g., the alma mater status) and to intervene in order to compensate for their socio- demographic disadvantages (e.g., to create a strong support network that graduates from top schools get by default). As a result, employees “minimize or eliminate the causal dependence on factors outside an individual's control, such as their perceived race or where they were born,”<sup>39</sup> and thus are treated as individuals rather than group members. Individual fairness, in this case, replaces group fairness.

Computer algorithms can assist in causal discovery by searching for causal diagrams that fit the available data. Such algorithms are being actively developed; their interpretation does not require advanced training but does require data about possible causes and their confounders.<sup>40</sup> As noted above, when data are incomplete, one can test for the causality of specific factors with randomized field experiments.

Instead of boosting the low predictive power of many HR algorithms with non- causal covariates, which exacerbate unfairness, we propose to accept

that some HR outcomes are often random, or at least have random aspects to them. As noted above, Cowgill shows that noise and inconsistency in human decision-making regarding HR creates variation that can actually be used to de-bias algorithms.<sup>41</sup> This is because, when we have valid long-term outcome measures (e.g. of longer-term employee performance metrics), noise can serve to “experimentally” select in observations in an earlier stage that the algorithm may have otherwise removed from the consideration set due to bias. If these observations perform well in terms of their later stage outcomes, this information can be fed back to the model to increase the likelihood they get selected in the earlier stage.

Research shows that employees understand the random aspect of many outcomes and perceive explicitly random decisions as fair in determining complex and thus uncertain outcomes.<sup>42</sup> “Flipping a coin” has a long history as a device for settling disputes, from ties in election outcomes to allocating fishing rights.<sup>43</sup> Introducing explicit randomization in decisions is especially attractive where there are “losers” in the outcomes and where they remain in the organization or relationship, such as employees who are not selected for promotion. Telling them that the decision literally was made on a coin toss is much easier to bear than either telling them it was a close choice (you were almost as good, on the one hand, but something small could have changed the outcome) or that it was not close (you were not almost as good, but there is nothing you could have done that would have mattered).

It might also be helpful to introduce something less than complete randomness to the process to help with its acceptability. For example, when predictive scores are not tied but are merely close, we might introduce a weighted random aspect where the candidate with the higher score gets a proportionately greater chance. The common use of “cut scores” in tests where we assume that everyone who scored above a stated standard has “passed” and those below “failed” categories is one example where we might select winners at random from those who passed the standard.

## **5.2 Explainability**

Closely related to the notion of fairness is explainability, in this case the extent to which employees understand the criteria used for data analytic-based decisions. A simple seniority decision rule – more senior workers get preference over less

senior ones – is easy to understand and feels objective even if we do not always like its implications. A machine learning algorithm based on a weighted combination of 10 performance-related factors is much more difficult to understand, especially when employees make inevitable comparisons with each other and cannot see the basis of different outcomes. (Professors who have to explain to students why their grade is different than that of their friend who they believe wrote a similar answer are familiar with this problem.) Algorithms get more accurate the more complicated they are, but they also become more difficult to understand and explain.

A well-known example of the importance of explainability to users comes from the well-known application of algorithms to oncology by IBM Watson. This algorithm that was developed to identify cases of cancer met considerable resistance from oncologists because it was difficult to understand how the system was arriving at its decisions. When the application disagreed with the doctor's assessment, this lack of transparency made it difficult for medical experts to accept and act upon the recommendations that the system produced.<sup>44</sup> Especially in "high stakes" contexts, such as those that affect people's lives or their careers-explainability is likely to become imperative for the successful use of machine learning technologies. We expect major progress in this area in the coming years, due to a wave of investment from the commercial and government sectors geared towards explainable AI. For instance, the US Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), known for its successful funding of path-breaking research in IT, has just launched a major initiative on explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) with deliverables, software toolkits and computational models, expected by 2021.<sup>45</sup>

## **6.0 Back to Operations: Employee Reactions to Algorithmic Decisions**

Changes in formal decision-making of the kind associated with the introduction of algorithms unavoidably affect employees' experiences and behavior. In this regard, we can learn a great deal from Scientific Management's efforts to develop optimal workplace decision rules in the previous century. Employment practices (e.g., how fast to work based on time and motion studies) and

decisions about work organization (e.g., breaking down tasks to simple components) were based on a priori engineering principles and human experiments. Although they may have been much more efficient than previous practices, they were bitterly resented by workers, leading to a generation of strife and conflict between workers and management. From the perspective of front-line workers and their supervisors, the situation may have looked very similar to the AI model we outline here: decisions would be handed down from another department in the organization, the justification for them would be that they were the most efficient that science could provide, understanding the basis of the decision is extremely difficult, and trying to alter them would simply be a mistake.

To illustrate, it is widely believed that the relationship with one's supervisor is crucial to the performance of their subordinates and that the quality of that relationship depends on social exchange: "I as supervisor look after you, and you as subordinate perform your job well." Even when employees have little commitment to their employer as an organization, they may feel commitment to their supervisor. How is this exchange affected when decisions that had been made by the supervisor are now made by or even largely informed by an algorithm rather than a supervisor?

If my supervisor assigns me to work another weekend this month, something I very much do not want to do, I might do it without complaint if I think my supervisor has otherwise been fair to me. I might even empathize with the bind my supervisor is in when having to fill the weekend shift. If not, I might well go complain to her and expect some better treatment in the future. When my work schedule is generated by software, on the other hand, I have no good will built up with that program, and I cannot empathize with it. Nor can I complain to it, and I may well feel that I will not catch a break in scheduling in the future. We know, for example, that people respond very differently to decisions that are made by algorithms than decisions made by people.<sup>46</sup> If there is good news to give me, such as a bonus, it builds a relationship with my supervisor if she appears to have at least been involved in the decision, something that does not happen if that decision is generated by an algorithm.

Yet, there may be occasions where decisions are easier to accept when made by an algorithm than when made by a human, especially when those

decisions have negative consequences for us. Uber riders, for example, respond negatively to surge pricing increases when they perceive that they are set by a human (trying to exploit them) as opposed to by an algorithm. Experimental evidence suggests that we are more willing to accept decisions from algorithms when we can see how they update to deal with mistakes.<sup>47</sup>

Related to these issues is the engagement in decisions that individuals have that is otherwise lost with the shift to algorithms. Research increasingly shows that algorithms perform better than human judgment when used to predict repetitive outcomes, such as reading x-rays and predicting outcomes about employees or job candidates.<sup>48</sup> But if algorithms take over hiring, and supervisors play no role in the process, will they be as committed to the new hires as if they had made the hiring decisions?

## **7.0 Finding & Discussion**

Here, we put together what we've talked about so far about the problems with using AI in HR management and give more specific, actionable advice. In Table 1, where we summarize our suggestions, the "Operations" column is placed last to represent the fact that businesses must adapt to a world altered by AI programs. At a glance, the table divides the AI life cycle into three categories of suggestions: causal reasoning; randomization and experimentation; and employee input. We'll go into further depth on them below.

More machine learning-based algorithms are most effective at associative rather than causal pattern identification. Common AI tasks like picture recognition are not nearly as challenging as talent recognition. As was said before, there is a wide range of potential performance indicators, many of which are challenging to monitor and quantify with high accuracy. In addition to the serious control, privacy, and ethical problems that arise when attempting to unearth them from digital traces of human activity inside and outside of companies, there is no certainty that anything of value will be uncovered. Furthermore, even if strong correlations are discovered between a set of observable employee attributes and company-specific behaviors, this set is not likely to be entirely transferable to the applicant pool. Causal reasoning helps us zero in on the most important traits and actions, cuts down on the time and effort spent managing data, and moves us closer

to the goal of creating AI systems that are both fair and easy to explain.

It's important to remember that there's a price to pay for causal reasoning's advantages. We lack information from HR technology providers and proprietary algorithms about the validity of these models, although it is generally accepted that causal models have less predictive ability than algorithmic associational models. In addition to data and computer scientists, hiring professionals with experience in companies and social sciences is essential for developing accurate causal models. Algorithm designers open themselves up to criticism and office politics when they reveal their underlying causal assumptions. We provide a methodological and institutional solution to this problem.

In terms of research methods, causal discovery is a toolbox that is always getting better. It automates the testing of causal assumptions with real data, which cuts down on the number of possible causal models that need to be thought about in depth.<sup>49</sup>

In a business setting, trust requires that algorithm designers be open to feedback and criticism. We recommend that businesses form AI Councils comprised of highly regarded members from all interested parties, where heated discussions about the underlying premises, data, and ethical implications of AI-algorithms are encouraged and where workers' input is routinely sought. In March 2019, Google made a similar effort by introducing the Advanced Technology External Advisory Council to help it develop its artificial intelligence (AI) technologies in an ethical manner for use in business.

The Council barely worked for a week because one of its members was in the middle of a scandal. To add to what has already been said, Google must regard its workers as internal customers who deserve to discuss when and how AI affects their jobs and careers. As several commenters on this fiasco have rightly pointed out, "Google already has a fantastic resource in many of its own employees." Organizational data scientists that use mostly associational techniques for algorithm training and do not keep up with the latest advancements in computer science may fight back against the drive toward causal modeling. However, as society faces an increasing number of legal and ethical difficulties posed by AI, we anticipate that the trend towards causal algorithms will quickly spread from academic circles to the public arena. Accurate predictions,

generalizability, explainability, and fairness are just some of the many advantages that may be gained by the targeted learning methodology, which blends correlation-based pattern recognition with the following targeted estimate of causal parameters.

Our second approach for making better algorithmic judgments is to use randomization and experimentation. To begin, a quasi-experiment that may aid in establishing causality is to purposefully randomize the inputs to an algorithm. Second, acknowledging the inherently stochastic nature of HR outcomes and the inevitable inaccuracy of algorithms, we can choose an HR outcome like who gets the promotion explicitly with a random component based on the probability predicted by an algorithm where we cannot predict outcomes with much accuracy. As an example, when faced with ambiguity, employees may feel that randomization methods like tossing a coin result in more equitable

decisions. This is especially important if the company's practices or culture show bias against people who belong to legally protected groups.

In order to keep authority over their employees and the consequences, managers may choose to ignore the advice of algorithms while making decisions. In this context, AI becomes AI+, the current standard operating procedure in data science. For the sake of trustworthy decision-making, this discretion ought to be the topic of an algorithm (e.g., at what stage of the process are we utilizing judgment? Meehl's seminal discovery, that simple statistical algorithms outperform "clinical" human judgment, has survived the test of time and is now standard practice in the most successful HR choices. In order to improve AI algorithms, businesses could ask relevant workers for feedback on a few performance criteria and plan in advance how quantitative algorithm outputs and human judgment

**Table 1: Possible Responses to Challenges of AI's Introduction in Human Resource Management**

Challenge	Response		
	Data Generation	Machine Learning	Decision-Making
Complexity of HR outcomes	Solicit employee contributions into outcomes' metrics and create consensus around them	Train algorithms for a few outcomes	Managers' discretion on the basis of the algorithm's predictions Run experiments where an algorithmic or human decision is random assigned to individual cases
Small data	Integrate HR data with financial and operational data Use fine-grained real-time data Use vendors' data collected from larger populations	Use vendor-trained models Use causal models	Let managers act on algorithm's recommendations according to prespecified guidelines
Accountability regarding fairness, ethical norms, and labor laws	Assess the consistency of human-made decisions used for training the algorithm Use	Create consensus around fairness criteria Weigh multiple fairness criteria Use causal model Ask data scientists to explain the model (identify the features that disproportionately affect its predictions)	Make random choices with probabilities predicted by the algorithm
Employee reactions	Collect data to improve processes first	Create employee consensus around the features used to train the algorithm	Maintain managers' responsibility for AI-based decisions Create an appeal process



should be mixed to get a final qualitative judgment.

Consistent with the aforementioned research on people's reluctance to algorithms, we've stressed the importance of employee contributions throughout this section as the third crucial answer to all the issues of AI. We see AI as a novel organizational process that, if all stakeholders are included in the AI Life Cycle, can be enabling rather than coercive. In addition to the AI Councils mentioned above, formal methods for appealing high- stakes algorithmic choices and providing input more broadly must be established. Cloud- based HR service providers are in the best position to build strong causal models for recruiting, which could help all of their customers in the long run.

What remains to be seen is whether suppliers will follow the high road in their pursuit of the best and fairest choices, and if customers will be prepared to allow their data to be aggregated to fulfill this possibility. As we've discussed, elevating AI councils "to the cloud" is one method to give customers more say over how their data is handled and what kinds of algorithms may be put into play by service providers. If data scientists and businesses want to make the most of AI in HR decision-making in the short to medium term, they should focus on eliminating bias from existing HR practices. If humans are removed from HR decision-making, the fear of algorithms should go down and employees should get used to AI-run companies.

Instead of suggesting which jobs to take on, the reasons above offer how to approach HR challenges using data science. However, the abundance of fairness and legal considerations at play in the recruiting process implies that it will be the most difficult HR activity to tackle using data science tools. In light of this, it might be preferable to begin with natural language processing analyses of data, such as that produced by open- ended questions in employee surveys and performance reviews given through applications. Even though most businesses would benefit from finding useful patterns in the answers people give, so far only a few have taken on this simple-looking job.

Using machine learning algorithms may be the next step, but not for HR-related decisions that are subject to the rules of law and justice. Employees can benefit from advice on a wide range of topics, such as health and planning for retirement, as well as suggestions for further education or career exploration.

It's crucial to evaluate the success of existing procedures before using machine learning in areas where legal and fairness issues are at the forefront, such as hiring, firing, and promotion. Whether we want to know if employee recommendations are a good source of applicants, if our personality assessments are good predictors of job performance, if recent grads from prestigious colleges outperform other hires, and so on, we need to undertake classic statistical analysis and test hypotheses. Developing the degree of confidence we have in the various measures we use to evaluate worker productivity is also crucial.

## **8.0 Conclusions**

While widespread implementation of general-purpose AI remains a ways off, specialized AI systems have made rapid strides in fields like healthcare, the automotive industry, social media, advertising, and marketing. The initial step on the AI journey is algorithm-guided decision making, but there has been far less development in personnel management difficulties. We can think of four reasons for this: how employees react to AI-management, how hard it is to collect and analyze data from HR operations, and how complicated HR phenomena are.

The first concept applicable throughout the AI life cycle that assists with concerns of fairness and explainability is causal reasoning. There are drawbacks to using causal reasoning, despite its advantages. Before beginning the modeling process, businesses must come to terms with the higher expenses (because of the need for additional data) and reduced predictive ability of their algorithms, and try to build agreement regarding causal assumptions. Given these problems, it's easy to see why many data scientists are skeptical about AI systems that can figure out what caused what.

Since what is considered "noise" in modeling may really be used to enhance algorithmic models, randomization is a second concept that can aid algorithmic-based conclusions.

We found that putting an explicit random element into the decision- making process and admitting when our algorithms aren't very good made HR decisions much more fair and easier to understand. We are also aware of the constraints imposed on HR decisions by a top-down optimization approach due to the potential for

negative consequences on employee behavior. Successful algorithms can only be developed and implemented with widespread participation from the workforce.

An essential consideration is whether our proposed adjustments call for a reorganization of the human resources department. Without a doubt, HR managers need to comprehend and enable the data generation and machine learning phases of the AI life cycle, and this may call for the development of new skills. With the support of data analytics, HR should be able to work more closely with other departments, especially finance and operations. Human resource managers run the danger of having another department in the company seize control of AI if they don't start using it themselves.

In addition, line managers will need to update their knowledge. They see AI as "augmented intelligence," the deliberate application of labor analytics findings. In order to keep managerial views current with fresh data, the evidence-based management literature advocates for a Bayesian approach. We also see it as a good starting point for managing AI systems. March and Simon noticed that the conflict between the logic of efficiency and the logic of appropriateness affects most organizational activity. However, in human resources, the dual aims of efficiency and justice are not always compatible. Through the theoretical and practical ideas in this article, we hope to improve the way AI is used to manage human resources (HR) in terms of how well it works and how well it fits the situation.

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