Issue Brief

The Mechanisms of Al Harm

Lessons Learned from Al Incidents

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Executive Summary

With recent advancements in artificial intelligence—particularly, powerful generative models—private and public sector actors have heralded the benefits of incorporating Al more prominently into our daily lives. Frequently cited benefits include increased productivity, efficiency, and personalization. However, the harm caused by Al remains to be more fully understood. As a result of wider Al deployment and use, the number of Al harm incidents has surged in recent years, suggesting that current approaches to harm prevention may be falling short. This report argues that this is due to a limited understanding of how Al risks materialize in practice. Leveraging Al incident reports from the Al Incident Database, it analyzes how Al deployment results in harm and identifies six key mechanisms that describe this process (Table 1).

Table 1: The Six Al Harm Mechanisms

Intentional Harm	Unintentional Harm
Harm by designAl misuseAttacks on Al systems	Al failuresFailures of human oversightIntegration harm

A review of Al incidents associated with these mechanisms leads to several key takeaways that should inform Al governance approaches in the future.

- 1. A one-size-fits-all approach to harm prevention will fall short. This report illustrates the diverse pathways to Al harm and the wide range of actors involved. Effective mitigation requires an equally diverse response strategy that includes sociotechnical approaches. Adopting model-based approaches alone could especially neglect integration harms and failures of human oversight.
- 2. To date, risk of harm correlates only weakly with model capabilities. This report illustrates many instances of harm that implicate single-purpose Al systems. Yet many policy approaches use broad model capabilities, often proxied by computing power, as a predictor for the propensity to do harm. This fails to mitigate the significant risk associated with the irresponsible design, development, and deployment of less powerful Al systems.
- 3. Tracking Al incidents offers invaluable insights into real Al risks and helps build response capacity. Technical innovation, experimentation with new use cases, and novel attack strategies will result in new Al harm incidents in the

future. Keeping pace with these developments requires rapid adaptation and agile responses. Comprehensive AI incident reporting allows for learning and adaptation at an accelerated pace, enabling improved mitigation strategies and identification of novel AI risks as they emerge. Incident reporting must be recognized as a critical policy tool to address AI risks.

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Introduction

Due to widespread AI use and deployment, AI systems are increasingly implicated in harmful events. Just since the beginning of 2025, 279 new incidents have been added to the AI Incident Database (AIID), a nonprofit effort dedicated to tracking realized harm from AI deployment. Since its launch in November 2020, the database has collected and indexed more than 1,200 incidents of harm or near misses involving algorithmic systems and AI.*

Clearly, more efforts are needed to prevent such AI harm. Preemptive harm prevention is the underlying goal pursued by most AI governance interventions, be it regulations like the European Union's AI Act, executive guidance like the Office of Management and Budget's memorandum M-25-21, or company frameworks like Anthropic's Responsible Scaling Policy.² Preventing harm effectively, however, requires a better understanding of how AI use leads to harmful outcomes in practice, rather than in theory.

Al incidents data provide valuable insights for understanding how Al systems can cause real harm. By collecting, indexing, and archiving reports from hundreds of real-world Al incidents, the AIID has created a treasure trove of data describing not only the myriads of harms Al systems have been implicated in, but also how these harms came to be. CSET previously leveraged this data to create an analytical framework that provides fundamental definitions and classification schemes for incident data analysis.³ This framework was then used to annotate and classify more than 200 incidents from the database by incident type, harm category, and other dimensions.⁴

This past analytical work serves as the foundation for this report, which describes the variety of forces involved in Al harm. Leveraging the more than 200 reviewed cases of real-world harm from the database, it identifies six key "mechanisms of harm," which can be divided into intentional and unintentional harm (Table 2).

* Each incident in the AIID corresponds to one or more instances of harm, so the total number of discrete harm events captured in the database is higher than the number of incident IDs. While some incident IDs correspond to a single documented harm instance, others capture media-constructed accounts that

aggregate related incidents into a single narrative.

Table 2: The Six Al Harm Mechanisms

Intentional Harm	Unintentional Harm
 Harm by design: Harm caused by Al systems designed and developed for harmful purposes Al misuse: Use of Al systems for harm against the developers' intentions Attacks on Al systems: Harm resulting from Al behavior or (in)action caused by cyberattacks 	 Al failures: Harm caused by Al errors, malfunctions, or bias Failures of human oversight: Harm resulting from the failure of human-machine-teams Integration harm: Harm resulting as an unintended consequence of deployment in a given context

The six mechanisms comprehensively describe the various pathways to harm found in the AIID. As such, they provide a richer understanding of how AI risks materialize in practice, which can help guide mitigation strategies.

These harm mechanisms may have immediate policy relevance for companies hoping to comply with regulations like the European Union's Al Act. The EU recently released a code of practice for general-purpose Al. This voluntary compliance tool was developed to help providers of general-purpose Al models adhere to the act's requirements, and lays out a comprehensive risk management process. Under it, developers must engage in risk modeling, described as "a structured process aimed at specifying pathways through which a systemic risk stemming from a model might materialize." This framework of harm mechanisms, built on empirical evidence of real-world incidents, may serve as a useful starting point for this exercise.

Importantly, these diverse mechanisms need to be addressed through an equally wide range of mitigation strategies. Security practices may serve to alleviate risks of misuse and attack, but do nothing to address integration harms. Performance standards and testing protocols can reduce Al failures but won't mitigate limitations of human oversight. To prevent Al harm effectively, a diverse toolbox is required.

The following sections present harm incidents from the AIID to illustrate the six harm mechanisms and deepen readers' understanding of the variety of ways in which AI can cause harm. While this report does not intend to provide a comprehensive overview of mitigation techniques, it highlights measures that combat specific mechanisms where possible, and describes where more research is needed to find effective mitigations to particular challenges.

Methodology

Analysis for this report took place in two stages. The first stage involved the identification of the six harm mechanisms based on in-depth study of Al incidents. In previous research, CSET developed a standardized analytical framework for the study of Al harms. The development of this framework involved an iterative process of incident review and framework adaptation through which the key elements required for the identification of real-world Al harm, their basic relational structure, and their definitions were identified. A central conceptual component of the framework is the "chain of harm," i.e., the series of events between Al deployment and the incident outcome that leads to harm. The chain of harm serves an essential function in the identification of Al harm: For there to be Al harm, there has to be a direct link between the behavior of the Al system and the harm that occurred.

The framework was applied to more than 200 incidents from the AIID, which were annotated and classified by incident type, harm category, and other variables. This analytical process and the corresponding in-depth investigation of a large number of incidents showed that the chain of harm was characterized by a variety of forces that shaped how incidents unfolded: the harm mechanisms. While errors—both human and AI—played a role, so did intentionally harmful uses of AI systems, and on occasion the integration of AI into a specific deployment context was harmful on its own. The six harm mechanisms presented above were derived from the analysis of these repeated patterns of events in the chains of harm.

The second stage involved validating the derived mechanisms by categorizing a random set of 200 incidents from the AIID. This was necessary for two reasons. First, the sample of incidents to which the AI Harm Framework had originally been applied had not been randomly selected, and was thus not representative of incidents in the AIID at the time. Secondly, the number of incidents in the AIID had grown by over 50% since the beginning of the first stage in 2023. Validation was therefore essential to ensure the mechanisms remain applicable and relevant to a newer set of incidents that more accurately reflect the current level of technological innovation. The result of this exercise is shown in Figure 1 in the appendix.

Limitations

All frameworks and models are necessarily an abstract and simplified representation of reality. In the real world, harm mechanisms are often not as clear-cut as they appear in this report, and several mechanisms can be active simultaneously. Attacks on Al systems are often carried out to enable misuse. Model performance issues and human

oversight failures occur at the same time. And systems designed for harm can fail and cause unintended or excessive harm.

Representing intentionality as a binary is useful to help distinguish the different actors that interventions need to target. However, in reality intentionality is a spectrum. Some incidents occur as truly unintended and unforeseeable consequences of Al use, and others are obviously intentional. But many sit in between, resulting from developers' and deployers' negligence to consider potential impacts, or even from reckless disregard of easily foreseeable harm. This fluidity creates edge cases that render the distinction between harm by design and integration harm difficult. Judging these cases with certainty would require insights into the developers' and deployers' decision-making and governance processes that are generally not available. Thus, unless there is evidence to the contrary, this report relies on the assumption that harm was unintentional when categorizing edge case incidents. Future work may address this limitation through a more disaggregated representation of intentionality.

Lack of information can similarly impede the distinction between harm by design and misuse. Since outside observers generally cannot discern the underlying Al model in a system that is involved in harm, it is often unclear whether an existing Al model was misused or one was designed for this purpose. Distinguishing between the two categories is nonetheless worthwhile, because mitigation requires different interventions based on which actor along the Al value chain intends to do harm; the model developer precipitates harm by design, whereas the Al system's user causes harm from misuse. Even when they share some overlap, separation allows us to identify the appropriate mitigation measures to address each mechanism more effectively.

Finally, there are two limitations of the data source. Although the AIID represents the most comprehensive collection of AI incidents and harms to date, the distribution of incident types in the database does not necessarily reflect their prevalence in the real world. Since the database depends on journalistic reporting, it represents the practices and biases of the media ecosystem. As such, it overrepresents incidents that are attention-grabbing or associated with current societal debates. This suggests that less

customer service chatbot on top of their language model GPT-5 for a third party (e.g., an insurance company), the developer is still OpenAl but the deployer is the insurance company, and the company's customers are the chatbot's users.

^{*} Distinguishing developers, deployers, and users is not always straightforward, and sometimes one entity occupies multiple roles. For example, ChatGPT is an AI system that is both developed and deployed by OpenAI. Individuals interacting with the chatbot are the users. In a scenario where OpenAI builds a

spectacular mechanisms like integration harm might be underrepresented compared to instances of human misuse, which have driven much of the societal debate recently—particularly where it relates to generative AI systems.

Lastly, there are many harms from AI that cannot easily be captured in an incident database because they do not materialize in discrete instances. The consequences of AI energy consumption, the detrimental impact of AI overreliance on education, or the adverse effects of AI companions on human relationships are just a few examples of possible harms that rarely present as individual incidents. While worthy of analysis, these types of harms are not within the scope of this study.

Al Harm Mechanisms

Intentional Harm

Harm by Design

Al systems designed with the intention of causing harm represent the most straightforward of the six harm mechanisms. In this case, the developer designs the Al system to perform an inherently harmful task or to be used in harmful ways. Developers' and users' intentions to cause harm are generally aligned in incidents of harm by design, though as the following examples illustrate, types of harm by design systems can vary widely.

Some Al systems developed for defense and law enforcement, such as Al-enabled intelligence analysis and battlespace management systems used for targeting or autonomous weapons systems with Al-enabled navigation, computer vision, or terminal guidance, are obvious examples of harm by design systems. No malfunctions or misuse need to occur for harm to materialize when these Al systems are used, since harm is the intended outcome, both by developer and deployer. Militaries may appropriately use these systems against lawful combatants when deployed in accordance with the law of armed conflict. Recent conflicts involving Ukraine and Israel have reportedly seen Al-enabled systems capable of causing harm deployed in combat.⁹

But harm by design is also prevalent outside of law enforcement and defense contexts. Deepfake apps that allow users to maliciously create nonconsensual intimate imagery (NCII) abound. There are dozens of such incidents recorded in the AIID—far too many to describe individually. The harm overwhelmingly affects women and girls, and as such, these incidents provide tangible evidence of a fast-growing form of gender-based digital violence. While this is not a new problem nor even a new AI capability (image generators have been around since approximately 2017), incidents involving pornographic content have surged since AI "nudify" apps and pornographic video generators have become more widely available online.

There are also more subtle forms of intentionally harmful algorithmic design. Online marketplaces such as Naver, Coupang, and Amazon India have been accused of engaging in unfair competitive practices through algorithmic manipulation.¹³ The companies allegedly rigged the recommender systems and search algorithms powering their platforms to favor their own products and brands, boosting their market share and causing economic and financial harm to their competitors. Exploiting their dominance as

an online market platform to promote their own brand as a vendor violates antitrust laws and, given the platforms' wide online reach and customer base, the overall impact and scale of harm from even minor manipulation can be significant.

Mitigating Harm by Design

In general, the choice of approach to addressing harm by design depends on whether the intended harm is considered socially acceptable or necessary. Prohibiting the development and deployment of AI systems for certain use cases can be an effective measure for use cases causing unacceptable harms.

In contexts where harm by design is deemed acceptable, such as defense and law enforcement functions, the goal of governance is not to prevent harm entirely but to reduce it to what is necessary in a clearly defined and contestable framework. Institutional policy can help ensure the responsible deployment of the technology in order to prevent excessive harm and negligent use or abuse. Generally, organizations should establish Al governance principles that clearly define the circumstances and conditions under which reliance on autonomous or Al-powered decisions and actions is acceptable. A solid accountability framework with clearly assigned roles and responsibilities can ensure that any decision-making that leads to harm is transparent and tractable. Institutional oversight bodies, assuming sufficient independence and transparency, should then be authorized to investigate and audit Al-supported decision-making and actions taken when violations of those policies and frameworks occur or are suspected.

Al Misuse

Al systems that have not been developed with the explicit goal of doing harm can still be misused for that purpose. Compared to the harm by design mechanism, where the intent to harm lies with both the developer and user, in cases of Al misuse the intent to harm lies with the user or operator of the Al system only. Note that Al models can also be misused for non-malicious purposes, such as using Al to do homework. While this may cause users to unintentionally harm themselves—for example by detrimentally affecting their own learning—this section is only concerned with intentionally harmful, malicious misuse. 15

Both specialized algorithmic systems and general-purpose Al models are prone to malicious misuse, although incidents involving the latter are more common in the AIID.

General-purpose Al, including large language models and text-to-image generators, perform many different tasks well, which makes them particularly easy to misuse for a range of purposes.

For example, in 2023, users of the online forum 4chan created hateful and violent voice impersonations of celebrities using ElevenLabs' voice synthesis Al model. ¹⁶ More recently, Microsoft and OpenAl reported on how state-sponsored hackers from North Korea, Iran, Russia, and China had misused ChatGPT for phishing and social engineering attacks targeting defense, cybersecurity, and cryptocurrency sectors. ¹⁷ Other investigations revealed that ChatGPT had been misused by cyber criminals to create malware and other malicious software. ¹⁸

Specialized AI systems, which generally serve a single particular purpose, can also be harmfully misused. Ranking online search results provides a troubling example. Malicious actors can be especially effective at exploiting search result ranking with AI systems that exhibit full or very high levels of autonomy, misusing them to achieve harmful, nefarious outcomes.

For instance, antisemitic online groups tagged images of portable ovens on wheels with the label "Jewish baby stroller". ¹⁹ As a result, if users searched for the term "Jewish baby stroller", Google's algorithm ranked images of the ovens at the top of the search results. This was a direct exploitation of the image search algorithm's functionality, which works by matching the words in a query to the words that appear next to images on a webpage. The strategy succeeded particularly well because of a "data void" related to the search term: Because the product "Jewish baby stroller" doesn't actually exist, the only results available were the offensive images, which were then promoted by the algorithm. ²⁰

Malicious users have carried out similarly coordinated activities to trigger content moderation algorithms into removing marginalized creators' social media posts, a tactic known as "adversarial reporting." Because content on social media sites is sometimes automatically removed when a sufficiently high number of users flag a post, regardless of whether or not the post actually violates any policies, right-wing trolls have strategically reported posts by influencers belonging to minority groups on TikTok in order to trigger the platform's content moderation algorithm. Even if TikTok's appeal and review process finds that the video did not violate community guidelines, penalties become more severe the more frequently a creator's posts are flagged, and can range from content removal to account deletion. Automated content moderation systems are thus exploited to effectively censor marginalized communities online.

The Limits of Technical Mitigations of Misuse Risk

Developers of generative AI models can take steps to control model outputs so as to limit the generation of harmful content.²³ Risk-based release strategies that restrict access to particularly capable or advanced models can further help address misuse risks.²⁴ Assessing a model's propensity for misuse requires evaluating whether it can perform a given malicious task (plausibility) and, if so, how well it can do so (performance).²⁵ Red-teaming has emerged as a popular method to uncover misuse plausibility across a wide range of domains, and to surface where additional safeguards are needed.²⁶ Performance assessments should include benchmark evaluations and experiments, and focus on the marginal utility of the model compared to existing modes for task execution.²⁷

Putting in place comprehensive safeguards is exceptionally challenging since it is difficult for developers to anticipate all potential (mis)uses of their model. Most importantly, such interventions at the model level will not necessarily prevent misuse without deteriorating model performance—also known as the Misuse-Use Tradeoff.²⁸ Because Al models lack the context to understand malicious intent, guardrails that prevent them from, for example, writing phishing emails will likely stop them from writing other emails as well. The same holds true for writing code: Guardrails to prevent malware may reduce the quality of innocuous computer programs. At the current state of the art, building an Al system that can never be misused often means building a system that is barely useful for non-malicious purposes. While there are other steps Al developers and deployers can take to prevent model misuse, technical fixes alone will not eliminate misuse risks.

Attacks on AI Systems

Harm can also result from cyberattacks on AI systems.* As with the misuse mechanism, the AI system developers and deployers do not intend harm here. Instead, the harmful intentions lie with the attackers. The cybersecurity community categorizes attacks into three groups: confidentiality, integrity, and availability attacks.²⁹ Confidentiality attacks aim to extract sensitive information, integrity attacks aim to compromise the model's

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^{*} Adversarial attacks on Al models can occur at every stage of the Al lifecycle. Since relevant incidents in the AllD result from attacks on deployed systems, this section only covers post-deployment attacks.

performance, and availability attacks aim to halt the overall functioning of the model. Lately, an emerging category of attacks aims to circumvent generative models' safeguards.³⁰ Such exploitations of Al systems' security vulnerabilities can potentially lead to harmful outcomes. Moreover, in addition to the standalone harms they cause, attacks on Al systems can enable model misuse.

While there is ample evidence of the security vulnerabilities of AI systems, most attacks recorded in the AIID still occur in experimental settings that do not lead to real-world harm. For example, security researchers have uncovered vulnerabilities in GitHub Copilot that would enable attackers to modify Copilot's responses or leak the developer's data (confidentiality and integrity attacks).³¹ Experiments showed that flaws in Tesla's autopilot could be exploited to make the car accelerate and veer into the oncoming traffic lane (an integrity attack).³² Finally, an investigation found that a divergence attack on ChatGPT could force the system to leak training data, including personal identifiable information such as phone numbers and email and physical addresses (a confidentiality attack).³³

Harm incidents from the AIID show that in practice, attacks on AI systems are often carried out to evade generative AI model safeguards. This practice, called "jailbreaking," relies on prompt injection attacks in which users come up with text prompts that induce the AI model to behave in ways that violate its policies.³⁴ Prompt injection attacks enabled users to evade ChatGPT's guardrails shortly after its release in order to produce discriminatory and violent content, as well as offer instructions on how to carry out criminal activities.³⁵ Even after models have undergone extensive safety testing and red-teaming, prompt injection attacks remain a popular and effective technique to circumvent guardrails. Hackers using large language models for malware creation employ dozens of prompting strategies for various models such as OpenAI's GPT-4 and Anthropic's Claude in order to get the model to write phishing emails, build scam websites, or create malware.³⁶

Al Security Is Not Like Traditional Software Security

Addressing vulnerabilities in AI and building more secure models is especially challenging since many established cybersecurity practices and techniques do not transfer seamlessly to machine learning models.³⁷ The probabilistic and datadependent nature of machine learning models is inherently unsuitable for the standard patch-and-defend models of traditional cybersecurity. Effective patches to known vulnerabilities might not exist, or might be too costly to implement. Their implementation can also introduce other security issues and performance tradeoffs that might be too severe to justify the fix. Defenses are also often not generalizable, meaning that measures against a specific attack do not protect the model against similar offensive operations of the same class.³⁸

Given the wide range of attack options and the limited reliability of existing defenses, developers and deployers of Al models should take a systems-level approach to securing their Al models.³⁹ This means that they need to operate under the assumption that parts of the Al system can and will be compromised, and build in redundancies to raise system resilience. In other words, essential model outputs (decisions, predictions, actions) should not rely on single inputs, but instead on a combination of readings and assessments to prevent cascading failures and protect against attacks on individual model elements.

Unintentional Harm

Al Failures

The most prominent harm mechanism in the AIID is AI failure. AI failure is defined broadly as encompassing situations where the system makes an error, malfunctions, degrades in performance, or produces biased output. This behavior is generally unexpected by the developer, deployer, and user, and can have disastrous consequences when the AI system is used in high-risk contexts, as the following examples illustrate.

In what became a touchstone controversy in discussions of algorithmic bias, ProPublica evaluated a recidivism risk prediction algorithm called COMPAS in 2016 and found differential performance rates across racial groups.⁴⁰ The algorithm was used in sentencing and pretrial bond hearings across the U.S., influencing not only the severity of defendants' punishment but also bond amounts and pretrial detainment decisions.

ProPublica's investigation revealed that the algorithm incorrectly labeled black defendants as being at high risk of recidivism almost twice as often as white defendants, while white defendants were twice as likely to be incorrectly classified as low risk. Because the algorithm was used to guide judges' assessments of defendants, it had tangible impacts on their trial outcomes. In fact, after one defendant's sentencing was reduced on appeal, the judge admitted to being influenced towards a harsher sentence by the COMPAS-assigned risk score. ProPublica's analysis covered more than 18,000 people who were assigned a COMPAS risk score between 2013 and 2014. Over the course of those two years, the algorithm likely contributed to thousands of unjust decisions by setting excessive bond amounts and prolonged sentences for black defendants, and perpetuating and aggravating historical racial biases in law enforcement and the judicial system.⁴¹

Besides the justice system, flawed AI systems have also been deployed in healthcare. One example is the algorithm instituted as part of a Medicaid waiver program in Arkansas. The program in question provided home care for people with disabilities, and the algorithm relied on the responses to a health assessment questionnaire to determine the number of care hours that would be allocated to the beneficiary. Although many recipients' health status and care needs were unchanged from the previous year's assessment, the introduction of the algorithm led to drastic cuts in care hours. Only scrutiny of the algorithm in court revealed errors in how it handled major health issues such as diabetes and cerebral palsy, which caused incorrect calculations for more than 19% of program beneficiaries. Despite ongoing complaints about the algorithm's decisions, neither the deploying agency nor the AI vendor detected the error until a lawsuit forced them to inspect the software, thus revealing the critical importance of opportunities to meaningfully challenge algorithmic decisions for those adversely affected.

Other examples of Al failures in the AIID abound; generative Al systems have threatened users, created biased images, and spread misinformation.⁴⁴ Linkedln's search algorithm at one point apparently favored men's profiles over women's.⁴⁵ Alpowered driver assistance technology has led to numerous accidents, some of them fatal.⁴⁶ And there are at least eleven incidents in the database for wrongful arrests caused by faulty facial recognition technology.⁴⁷

The occurrence of these Al failure incidents indicates that at least one of two things is true (assuming use according to developers' instructions): Either existing evaluation, risk management, and assurance practices are not yet effective enough to ensure these Al systems can be deployed safely, or these practices are insufficiently implemented by

Al developers and deployers. Mitigation strategies need to address both kinds of shortcomings to reduce the chance of Al failures.

In the Absence of Standards and Regulation, Redress Procedures Can Mitigate Harm Impacts From AI Failures

Enhancing Al accuracy and reliability is a field of ongoing research, as is the development of testing and evaluation protocols that can reliably detect model performance issues (and assess performance, for that matter). ⁴⁸ The Al standards landscape is also still in its infancy, meaning there are not yet many agreed-upon techniques and practices that developers can rely on to ensure their Al systems are safe, accurate, and reliable. Even if there were, without regulatory requirements developers and deployers are free to implement or ignore Al safety practices at their will. Costly interventions, such as pre-deployment Al testing in real world conditions or post-deployment audits, are much less likely to be implemented unless they are mandated.

Even with strong regulation and rigorous standards, some degree of Al failure is likely inevitable. It is therefore worth considering what deployers can do to reduce the extent of harm when those failures occur. The incidents highlighted above, for example, reveal the importance of opportunities to meaningfully challenge Al systems' decisions when errors, biases, or other failures occur. The justice system can provide an avenue for redress for affected persons, but only for those with sufficient resources to leverage it. Complaint and redress procedures that include human review of Al-supported decisions should be implemented at the level of the deployer to enhance access to remedy for algorithmic harm and prevent overburdening the court systems as Al systems become deployed more widely.

Failures of Human Oversight

In sensitive contexts, AI systems are often deployed as part of human-machine teams. Algorithmic decision-support systems require a human operator to remain in charge of the final decision while taking the AI system's recommendation into account. Ideally, human oversight over the AI system's output should detect abnormal behaviors, biases, and performance issues, and ensure that any that emerge are disregarded in the decision-making process. In practice, however, human supervisors often fail to both detect issues and overrule the AI system's recommendations when they should.

One striking example of this is the cancellation of thousands of immigrant visas by the UK government based on the results of a flawed voice recognition system. ⁴⁹ Immigrants to the United Kingdom must demonstrate English-language competence by passing a test called the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which is administered by the international testing organization ETS. In order to detect cheating through proxy test-takers, ETS deployed voice recognition software to determine if the same voice turned up on multiple test recordings. If a test was flagged, two ETS staff had to agree for the test results to be classified as invalid. During the three years of its use, 97% of TOEIC test recordings were flagged as suspicious by the voice recognition AI. Despite this obvious abnormality, reviewers proceeded to classify more than half of these tests as invalid (and all others as questionable), passing the list of invalid tests on to the UK government. Based on these results, UK policymakers canceled accused test-takers' visas and began deportations. ⁵⁰

The failure of oversight in this case likely stemmed from psychological propensities in how humans interact with Al systems. While it is unclear whether human reviewers were subject-matter experts or received training to assess voice similarities, it is likely that their decisions were influenced by two cognitive biases. The first, automation bias, is the tendency to accept machine-produced output as more objective and truthful than it is. The second, anchoring bias, is the tendency for a human to use an Al system's prediction as an "anchor" from which they are unlikely to stray far in their own response. Biases can be hard to detect from individual decisions, but become apparent when a larger set of decisions is analyzed. Such a post hoc, large-scale assessment was clearly not performed in this case.

In addition to cognitive biases, there can also be structural forces that prevent human decision-makers from overruling an algorithm's recommendation, as the NarxCare case demonstrates. NarxCare is an algorithmic tool built on top of a national prescription drug database that provides doctors and pharmacists with data analytics and healthcare management functions. Among them is an automatically generated patient risk score for opioid misuse and overdose. While the company that provides the tool emphasizes that the score should be used to inform rather than automate decisions concerning patient care, practitioners face major obstacles to overriding the predicted scores. In many states, physicians and pharmacists are legally required to consult the program before prescribing controlled substances, and in some states law enforcement can access the data without a warrant to prosecute both doctors and patients. As a result, doctors have become increasingly anxious about appearing to over-prescribe medications. Fearful of losing their license, prescribers err on the side of extreme caution and rely heavily on the risk scores when making medication decisions, which has led to an overall reduction in prescriptions even for those in legitimate need. In the same case of the same can be structured to the same can be supported to the same c

effect, the combination of surveillance and mandatory use of the algorithmic tool undermines doctors' agency over patient care. For chronic pain patients and those with multiple and severe illnesses, this has resulted in difficulties obtaining their needed medication, more pain, and reduced quality of life.

Another common failure of human oversight occurs during the operation of vehicles equipped with autopilot or driver-assist technology. When it comes to partly automated driving, humans are "on the loop" rather than "in the loop." This distinction, while subtle, encompasses a substantial shift in how humans are involved in the decision-action process, moving from an active role to a passive one. Being "on-theloop" in a partly self-driving car means that the system operates autonomously under the supervision of the driver, who in theory is ready to take control at any point. Humans, however, are not well-equipped to vigilantly but passively monitor a system for long periods of time. 54 As a result, they can miss or react too slowly in situations where they should intervene, leading to accidents. This failure of human-machine teaming can be observed in the dozens of incidents involving Al-enabled cars in the AIID.⁵⁵ The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), a U.S. government agency charged with investigating major self-driving car manufacturers, has termed the problem "automation complacency," a combination of excessive trust in the system's capabilities and the human susceptibility to disengage from monitoring tasks.⁵⁶ According to the agency's findings, automation complacency is at least partly driven by inappropriate design choices by the manufacturers. NHTSA's investigation of traffic accidents involving Al-enabled driver assistance technologies revealed many instances in which the vehicle's autopilot passed control of the vehicle to the human operator less than one second before impact, giving the operator insufficient time to react and take full control of the vehicle to prevent the accident.⁵⁷ Improving humanmachine interfaces to account for human capabilities and limitations, such as attention spans and reaction times, is critical to enable humans-on-the-loop to take control of an Al system when the situation requires it.

The Challenges of Mitigating Cognitive Biases in Human-Al Teams

Cognitive biases, the institutional environment, and Al system design are important factors determining the success of human oversight of Al systems.⁵⁸ These aspects need to be carefully considered and addressed in order to make human oversight a meaningful mitigator of Al harm.

However, reducing cognitive biases in human-Al interactions remains an unsolved challenge, because many measures that are expected to alleviate biases can also aggravate them. Al explainability features are often believed to mitigate overreliance tendencies and help build confidence in the system's output, but have been found to worsen cognitive biases in some cases. Similar effects were found for Al literacy: While lower Al literacy is indeed associated with higher reliance on Al recommendations, higher Al literacy was associated with algorithmic aversion—meaning an excessive distrust of the Al's recommendation—which led to lower accuracy in decision outcomes.

More experimental research on human factor engineering and human computer interaction is needed to uncover and evaluate techniques that mitigate cognitive biases, safeguard decision-makers' agency, and build trust in human-Al teams.

Integration Harm

Finally, Al systems used in inappropriate contexts can cause harm even when they function as intended, are not meant to be harmful, and are neither being attacked nor misused. In these cases, harm arises as an unintended consequence of the integration of Al in its deployment setting. Compared to the other harm mechanisms, the trigger in these cases is not a malfunction or a malicious user, but rather the deployment of an otherwise functional system in a mismatched context. Similar to when Al systems are designed to be harmful, integration harm emerges as a direct consequence of deployment of the system, but as an unintended side effect rather than a stated goal.

Viewed independently, an AI tool may serve a seemingly harmless function, such as ranking web pages to facilitate online search or predicting foot traffic to a store. It may even do so very successfully, but its integration into a deployment environment can lead to unintended side effects. This is because all AI tools are integrated into existing systems. A store traffic prediction tool becomes part of a workplace and is integrated into existing workflows. An online search engine is situated within the context of our

online information environment. Incorporating AI systems into these contexts generates changes, and potentially harm, in these environments. The following examples illustrate instances where failure to account for context has led to harm.

Over the past two decades, online search has become the predominant way people access health-related information.⁶¹ Search engines, powered by page-ranking algorithms, directly influence what information is found and consumed by internet users via the order in which search results are presented. During the coronavirus pandemic, anti-vaccine misinformation was boosted by those algorithms powering online search engines. 62 An audit of Amazon's algorithms revealed that the platform not only hosts a wide range of products that promote misinformation, such as books containing conspiracy theories about vaccines, but its search engine also exhibits ranking bias in favor of those products. When users search for popular vaccine-related terms, it displays products that misinform about vaccines above those that provide accurate and debunking information.⁶³ The audit also demonstrated the filter bubble effect of the platform's recommender algorithm: Users that interacted with misinforming products were more likely to encounter misinformation on their Amazon homepage and among their recommended products. In this way, the regular functioning of the search and recommendation algorithms, which intend to promote popular and relevant products to customers, had the unintended side effect of promoting misinformation to Amazon's customers.

Unintended consequences can also emerge as a result of one-sided consideration of stakeholders' needs in algorithmic design. This was the case when Starbucks deployed a scheduling algorithm across its stores. The AI system was created to optimize employees' shift allocation based on predicted store traffic. But its deployment resulted in constantly-changing shift schedules—often delivered to workers on short notice—and dramatically varying weekly hours. 64 The tool prioritized cost savings for the retail chain while disregarding the needs of the workforce to have predictable schedules and incomes. While not intentionally harmful—Starbucks failed to take the needs of its staff into account, but it is unlikely it deployed the system in order to cause them hardship—the use of the system severely affected workers' financial stability and their ability to plan and manage their non-work life. 65

Finally, the deployment of AI systems can introduce opportunity costs by disrupting workflows and diverting resources. One example of this is the deployment of ShotSpotter, an acoustic gunfire detection system that was rolled out by the Chicago police department in 2016. An evaluation from 2024 found that in the six years that followed deployment, the AI system led to approximately 70 dispatches per day, a two-fold increase compared to pre-deployment. This increased demand for officer resources

affected response times to 911 calls. Officers were dispatched to 911 calls more slowly, arrived at the scene later, and were less likely to arrest the perpetrator. The deployment of the gunfire detection system therefore reduced the effectiveness of the police force in responding to citizens' emergencies in Chicago.⁶⁶

Algorithmic Impact Assessments Can Mitigate Risks of Integration Harm

Reducing the risk of integration harm requires predicting potential impacts of Al systems before their deployment, and adjusting algorithmic design accordingly. Ex ante Al impact assessments, such as the fundamental rights impact assessment required by the EU Al Act, are one example of a measure to achieve this. The goal of Al impact assessments is to surface and assess the broad range of harms potentially resulting from an AI system's use through analysis of the AI use case and environment, and through consultations with people affected by its deployment. Algorithmic impact assessments give the deployer and affected stakeholders an opportunity to evaluate the effects of an Al system before committing to its adoption.⁶⁷ Doing so effectively requires both knowledge of how the AI system works and a deep understanding of the context of use. Often, this entails engaging diverse stakeholders to survey the concerns and perspectives from affected groups. Impact assessments should be conducted on a use case-byuse case basis, and tailored to each deployment context and purpose. Their findings should inform algorithmic design choices, risk mitigation strategies, and ultimately deployment decisions.

Discussion

Investigating and categorizing AI harm mechanisms offers valuable insights. First, it surfaces the diverse ways in which the use of AI can cause harm, intentionally or unintentionally. Recognizing that AI systems do not have to malfunction or be misused for their use to be harmful is an important first step in broadening approaches to mitigating risks. Integration harm in particular is an often-overlooked mechanism due to the difficulty of anticipating the multifaceted impact of AI deployment. By identifying and explaining the variety of AI harm mechanisms, this report aims to ensure that risk mitigation efforts address all potential pathways to harm.

Second, considering the breadth of AI harm mechanisms demonstrates the need for equally diverse approaches to mitigation. A one-size-fits-all approach will not work. Instead, a whole variety of actors in the AI value chain (developers, deployers, policymakers, etc.) can take a wide-ranging set of sociotechnical mitigations to reduce the risk of different harm mechanisms occurring. As argued in this report, technical fixes to AI models alone will not prevent AI harm, and actions must range from implementing testing and evaluation protocols to participatory processes for AI adoption.

Third, dissecting the various harm mechanisms reveals that an AI system's propensity to harm is not always tied to its capabilities. In fact, many of the examples in the text illustrate cases where harm emerged from specialized, single-purpose AI, demonstrating that harm can and does result from all kinds of AI systems, irrespective of their size, power, and sophistication (often measured by proxy through the compute required to train them). A stronger determinant of harm risks is the context, manner, and governance of AI design, testing, and deployment.

Finally, incident reports of real-world harm are invaluable resources for learning about Al risks, offering essential insights for designing better mitigation strategies and targeted policy interventions. Many efforts, including CSET's Al harm framework and taxonomy, and the MIT Al incident tracker, are underway to make existing incident data more accessible and analyzable in order to better derive policy insights. However, data limitations—some of which are described in the limitations section of this report—remain an important obstacle to rigorous analysis. A formal incident reporting regime could overcome the shortcomings of existing tracking efforts by gathering detailed information about the Al system involved. Instituting such a mandatory incident reporting regime should be a priority for policymakers interested in promoting safe and responsible Al deployment.

Conclusion

As Al capabilities advance and the variety of potential use cases grows, public and private sector voices alike are pushing for a more forceful deployment of Al to realize productivity and other benefits. Before incorporating Al into every aspect of our lives, however, it is critical to better understand the risk of harm from doing so. Widespread Al deployment and use has already led to hundreds of recorded harm incidents. Better preventing harms in the future requires an improved understanding of how harm happens in practice. To this end, this analysis leverages incident reports from the Al incident database to identify six key mechanisms of harm that describe how the use of Al can lead to harmful outcomes (Table 3).

Table 3: The Six Al Harm Mechanisms

Intentional Harm	Unintentional Harm
Harm by designAl misuseAttacks on Al systems	Al failuresFailures of human oversightIntegration harm

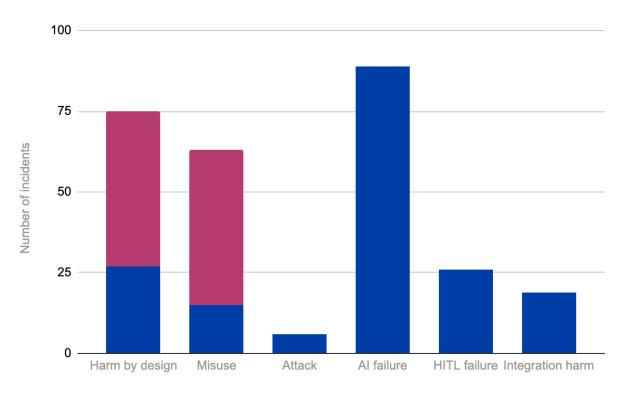
A review of incidents associated with these mechanisms revealed several key takeaways that should guide policy efforts to reduce harm occurrences in the future:

- 1. A one-size-fits-all approach to harm mitigation will not work. The pathways to harm are diverse, as this report illustrates, and require equally diverse mitigation strategies. Purely technical approaches will fall short, especially in addressing integration harms and failures of human oversight.
- 2. Model capabilities, as proxied by computing power, are an inadequate predictor for the propensity to do harm. This report showcases many examples of single-purpose AI systems being implicated in harm. Concentrating risk mitigation efforts on advanced AI systems would fail to address the very real risks stemming from the irresponsible design, deployment, and use of specialized AI systems.
- 3. Comprehensive incident tracking is necessary to enhance our capacity to identify and respond to risks posed by AI. While implementing broad, sociotechnical mitigation strategies can significantly reduce the occurrence of harm from AI, it will not prevent incidents entirely. As AI innovation reveals new capabilities with new failure modes, deployers design new use cases, and

nefarious actors find new ways to attack and misuse AI systems, new harms will emerge. Agile responses and rapid adaptation of mitigating approaches, enabled by effective learning from incident reporting, are necessary to keep pace with technological innovation.

Appendix

Figure 1: Distribution of Al Harm Mechanisms



Note: Annotation of harm mechanisms for a random sample of 200 Al incidents. Numbers do not add up to 200 because multiple mechanisms can contribute to a single incident. Harm by design and misuse are represented by two bars. The blue bars reflect confirmed cases, where information about the Al system used was available and sufficient to determine whether a model was misused or developed for the purpose of harm. The red bars represent the 48 incidents where this determination was not possible, i.e., that could be cases of harm by design or misuse.

Source: Author's analysis based on data from the Al Incident Database.

The figure shows the distribution of harm mechanisms across a random sample of 200 incidents from the AIID. Al failures are by far the dominant cause of harm, with 89 incidents of the sample linked to this mechanism. This suggests that AI systems continue to be deployed for purposes that they cannot (yet) reliably perform, resulting in significant harm.

Aside from AI failures, the prevalence of cases of harm by design and misuse is noteworthy. Understanding of the underlying problem, however, is impeded by the lack of insight into the AI system used in a given incident. Is it the case that a growing number of actors have the resources to build AI systems for their needs, resulting in greater availability of harmful models such as AI-powered "nudify" apps or malware-producing generative AI? Or are users abusing AI systems against the developers'

intentions at significant rates? To better answer these questions, and to allocate appropriate resources to the mitigation of these risks, it is imperative to invest in incident tracking and data collection.

Overall, most incidents emerge from unintentional harm mechanisms. This makes mitigation more complex, because it is impossible to pinpoint the cause of harm as precisely as for intentional mechanisms. The ability to identify a motivated actor such as an attacker or a nefarious user as a source of harm allows the creation of specific and targeted mitigation strategies. But for unintentional harm mechanisms, and especially integration harms and human oversight failures, a more nuanced, multipronged approach is necessary—often one that involves more stakeholders.

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