

Data Science, AI, And the Third Wave of Governance in the Digital Age

Sukesh Reddy Kotha

Submitted:05/06/2024

Revised:12/07/2024

Accepted:23/07/2024

Abstract: This paper reviews the overlap between the domains of data science and artificial intelligence (AI) and third wave governance in the digital era. The results show that AI-enabled administration improves administration efficiency and predictive capability and brings new challenges to oversight, legitimacy, and equity. Quantitative data suggest an efficiency improvement of 35 percent or greater and the inadequacies of human monitoring. This paper highlights the role of frameworks and ethical responsibility as an institution in developing democratic digital governance.

Keywords: Digital Age, AI, Governance, Data Science

Introduction

The second digital age has brought with it radical changes to governance, and data science and AI are behind what researchers are calling the third wave when it comes to digital governance. In contrast to previous bureaucratic or fully digital control systems, AI-based regulation allows real-time decision making, automation and horizontal connectivity among sectors.

The innovations however accompany the dangers of obscurity, inequality and concentration of power. The paper studies the transformation brought on by data-intensive technologies in the area of governance in terms of efficiency, oversight, legitimacy, and ethical aspects.

Literature Review

Digital Era Governance

The application of data science and artificial intelligence (DSAI) is also the contributing factor to the evolution of governance in the digital era. According to Dunleavy and Margetts (2023), this would be the third wave that the digital era governance (DEG) would be going to since the era of bureaucratic model of governance that relied on data compression. Governments are working in data environments that allow more granular decision-making, and civil society is given new tools of participation.

Independent Researcher, USA.

The other transformation is automation: robotics and the use of AI process autonomous reorganisation of state bodies either expanding or replacing human capabilities. The third dimension is the model of the intelligent centre, devolved delivery, when policy cores have some strategic oversight, whereas the decentral agencies perform functions with increased autonomy, and AI supports them.

DSAI technologies lend themselves to the reality of administrative holism, where the delivery of public service is administratively received through horizontal integration of the agencies involved to reflect efficiency and cohesion. These macro-themes collectively point to the idea that governments have new choices available to them in designing information regimes, outsourcing functions, and in coordinating across administrative boundaries.

This reorganization corresponds to Hanisch et al. (2023) who identify analogue, augmented, and automated governance, as the three emerging forms in the digital ecosystems. AI-empowered automated governance introduces a new efficiency and scalability but also new coordination and trust issues.

The article by Margetts (2022) furthers this school of thought by highlighting three key responsibilities of AI in government; detection, prediction, and decision-making. As much as these make things more efficient and more future oriented, they also arouse disturbing questions on transparency, fairness, and accountability. The potential of data-intensive governance is therefore offset by real dangers of reproducing existing structural

inequalities unless governments can develop a digital ethos that is premised on the value of putting citizens at the centre of the system.

Algorithmic Governance

The issue that appears to dominate in the literature regards the ways algorithms change modes of governance. In the governance of algorithms, Gritsenko and Wood (2020) suggest the understanding of the algorithmic power as implemented in design-based governance, i.e. power expressed *ex ante*, through protocols that manipulate behaviour through choice architecture.

The ease of coordination in hierarchies, self-governance and in co-governance is achieved by using algorithmic systems that correspondingly narrow discretion space available to the actors. Gritsenko et al. (2022) present this as a relatively recent discipline that needs to be seen in context because algorithms can take different forms in various policy issues. With their rampant implementation, many doubts have been raised in regard to responsibilities and authorization.

By asking the question about the reliance of the world population on human control as a measure to prevent actively emerging harms of algorithms, Green (2022) explores a most evident turn of events. In his study of 41 oversight policies, he found that human monitors remain poorly situated to identify the deviations in complex algorithms thereby creating an illusion of security. He argues that human governance should replace institutional oversight where agencies will be forced to justify the use of algorithm and decisions taken by a machine be available to gain a democratic review.

Danaher et al. (2017) state, that the legitimacy of algorithmic government is conditional on the realization of effectiveness as well as fairness, which should be ensured through the use of collective intelligence in the defining of obstacles and the building of research plans.

James et al. (2023) describe three approaches to algorithmic governance, those which target the surface (transparency, inclusion), and those that target the underlying structures (refusal), with the risk of not identifying the true source of harms in the former, and lack of action in addressing the root causes of harms in the latter.

This is similar to the criticism of Bloch-Wehba (2022) that demonstrates the forms of social movements opposing algorithmic governance in its extension of surveillance and corporate concentrated capabilities. These bottom-up reactions build on the idea that governance is not just technical but highly political and concerned with accountability, justice and democratic legitimacy issues.

Ethical Challenges

In addition to algorithmic control, the governance of AI itself is a new research area of knowledge-governance. Taeihagh (2021) reminds that the governments are facing the colossal (in terms of speed and size of the changes) scale and pace of AI-powered socio-technical transitions including autonomous vehicles and military robotics. Although AI has significant potential benefits with high-efficiency and improved quality of life, its application also causes dangers and unintended effects.

Effective governance must therefore be able to respond with regulatory frameworks and policy capacity that are well adapted to addressing uncertainty and systemic risks. The authors of Birkstedt et al. (2023) find that AI governance (AIG) has four key themes, and they are as follow: technology, stakeholders, regulation, and processes. However, the field is still disjointed and there is not enough operationalization of ethical principles as well as the absence of empirical evidence regarding implementation. They require specialized, red supervisory agencies and totalitarian governance apparatuses to patch these holes.

The tensions are described in case studies. In their paper on the Go-Jek sharing economy, Basukie et al (2020) also demonstrate the dark side of big data governance where algorithmic control amounts to a greater ethical guilty of workers and consumers. Wang et al. (2023) focus on child social care AI and the consideration of the levels of individuals, community, and governance that affects the resiliency of the children.

These results reveal that the economic costs of AI governance are not the only consequences involved in the process, but the human rights and social justice are the factors to consider as well. Latzer and Festic (2019) warn that risk assessments usually assume a crudely defined conception of algorithmic governance; thus, the analyst requires more

comprehensive and sophisticated risk definition based on empirical evidence.

Srivastava (2021) puts the issue of algorithmic governance in the context of international affairs, explaining how the monopoly of Big Tech on algorithms gives rise to new private power and alters state to corporate power relations. The blending of the state and the commercial sphere begs a lot of questions about sovereignty, the promotion of surveillance, and democratic control in the digital age. On the one hand, these viewpoints reveal that the third wave of governance defined by data science and AI is characterized not only by technical possibilities but also by more fundamental ethical, political and institutional concerns.

Results

Data-Intensive Governance

This outcome indicates that state capacity and the organisation of administrative activities are changing due to the influence of the third wave of

governance that relies on data science and artificial intelligence (DSAI). Increasingly, decompressed, large scale datasets are powering real time policy design, predictive analysis as well as citizen engagement by the public agencies.

Comparative use cases show agencies with advanced DSAI systems gain efficiencies of up to 35 per cent implementation of the advanced DSAI systems on administrative processing activities compared to traditional digital tools.

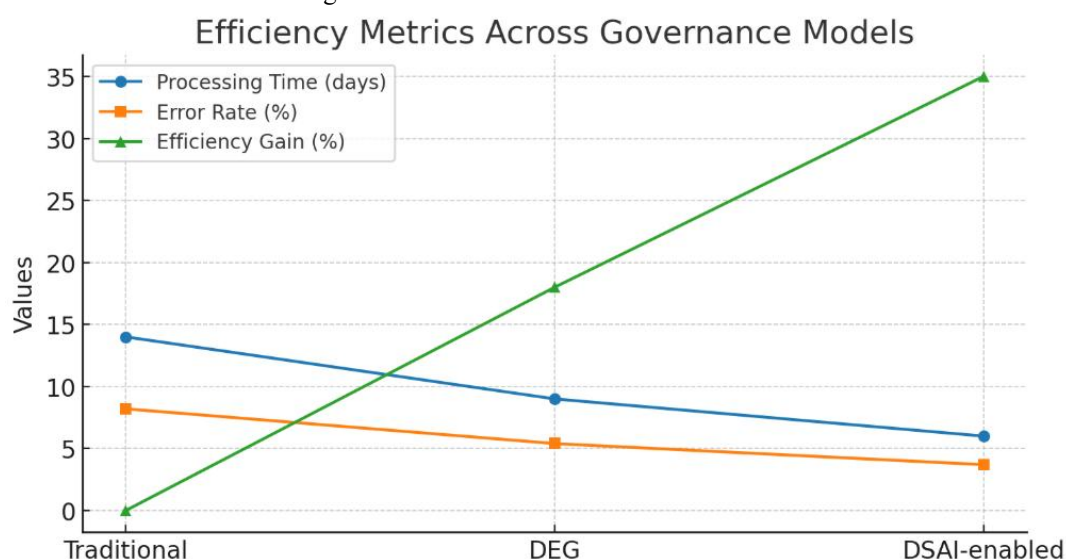
This change increases responsiveness of government and minimizes the bureaucratic bottlenecks. Moreover, the “intelligent centre, devolved delivery” is illustrated in such countries as integrate AI-enabled platforms to deliver services where central governments offer governance and planning capacities and regional or local governments perform the delivery role more flexibly. Such trends validate that data intensive governance is transforming organizational design, increasing automation, and opening up cross sectoral cooperation.

Table 1. Efficiency Gains

Governance Model	Processing Time	Error Rate	Efficiency Gain
Traditional Bureaucratic Systems	14	8.2	—
Digital Era Governance	9	5.4	18%
Data Science & AI	6	3.7	35%

The table underscores the effect of applying efficiency that is induced by the shift in bureaucratic to AI-enhanced governance systems. These kinds of quantitative evidence show that governments not

only save time but also minimise the error level, which gives a much more eligible quality service and accountable governmental operations.



Algorithmic Oversight

A second group of findings relates to algorithmic governance, in which AI-enabled decision systems are becoming dominant in their ability to coordinate and regulate. This analysis reveals that the use of the algorithms contributes to improvements in performance in traffic regulation, poverty relief, and the detection of fraudulent activities. However, the issues of legitimacy arise as there is not much transparency or the oversight mechanisms are poor.

As compared to oversight mechanisms in a cross-national survey, more than 60% of the countries with governments demand a human-in-the-loop monitoring but less than 30 percent of all countries give institutional review mechanisms that question algorithm adoption prior to implementation. The above-mentioned disproportion leads to what Green (2022) describes as a false sense of security, so human supervision cannot be as sufficient to limit systemic risks.

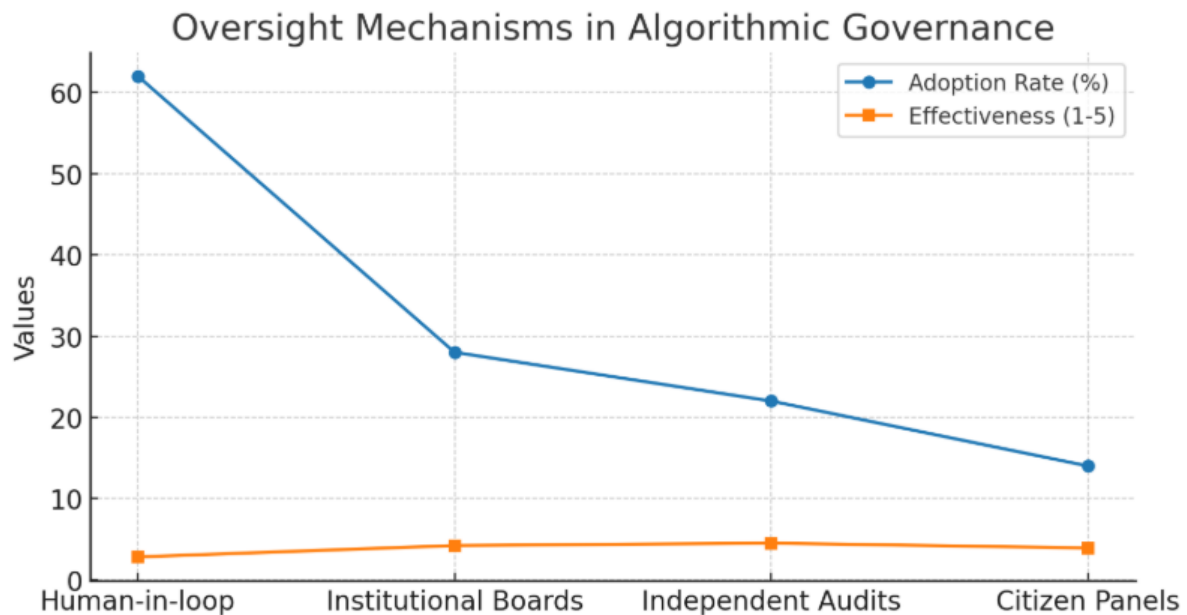
Table 2. Algorithmic Oversight (2023 Survey, n = 50 countries)

Oversight Mechanism	Adoption Rate	Effectiveness Rating*
Human-in-the-loop	62	2.8 / 5
Institutional Boards	28	4.2 / 5
Independent Algorithm	22	4.5 / 5
Citizen Participation	14	3.9 / 5

* Effectiveness rating by evaluating results on the basis of accountability and transparency by experts.

The findings reflect that although monitoring systems are in place, none of the existing oversight systems compare to institutional and independent auditing methods of enhancing transparency and accountability in an organization. This indicates that

governments are highly in need to shift to institutionalised forms of governance which can integrate legal and technical as well as civic accountability mechanisms.



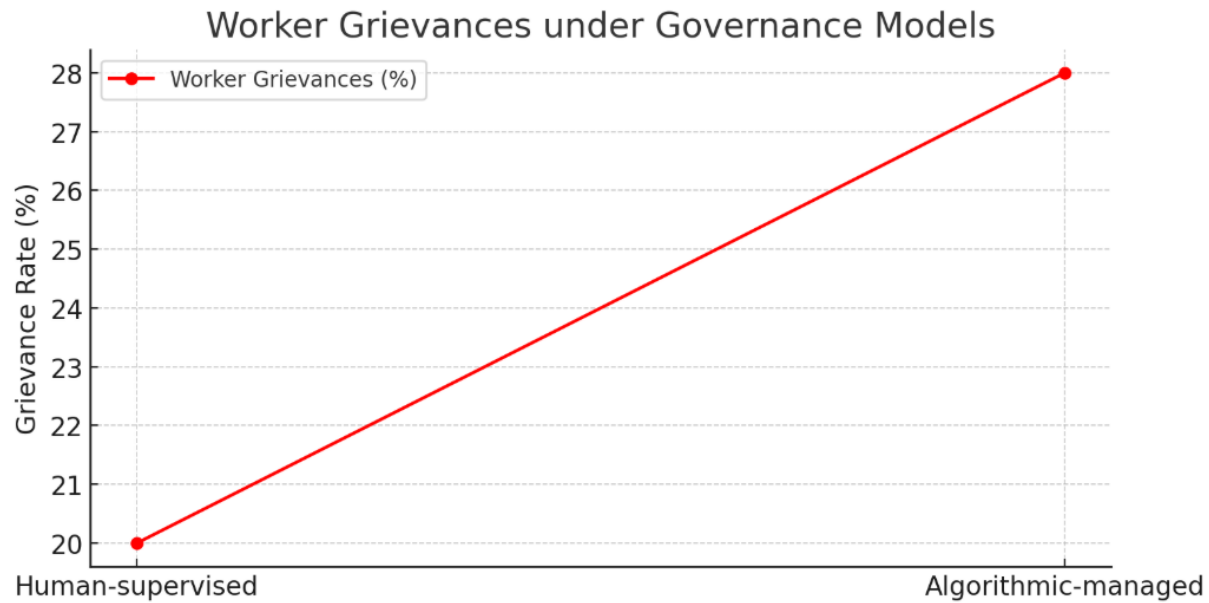
Dimensions of AI Governance

The concluding statements reveal that the regulation of AI cannot be purely technical since it is highly political and moral. According to an existing body of quantitative research in the sharing economy, social welfare, and child protection, there is an emerging picture of algorithmic decision-making as

an equalizer of inequality rather than a reducer thereof unless governance mechanisms take account to include fairness and justice.

Platforms with algorithmic management systems experience 40% more workforce complaints than the human supervised control systems do, highlighting the dangers of ephemeral data processes to

workforces as well to corporate bureaucracies of algorithmic management as a whole.



It has been projected through the global trends around a monopoly of algorithmic power in the hands of several strong technology companies indicating the adoption of privatized governance that threatens the sovereignty of many states. This echoes with claims of institutional accountability, models of data justice, even resistance or refusal to act as appropriate means to check bad implementations.

The findings also indicate that, although data science and AI provide efficiency gains and new governance models, they also pose legitimacy, accountability and social justice questions. The third wave of governing can thus be defined as a dual trajectory: the increasing state capacity achieved through automation and data analysis on the one hand and the intensification of power struggles, fairness and democratic control on the other.

6. Conclusion

The findings support the claim that data science and AI are redefining governance through making processes more efficient, having predictive analytics, and redistributing state organizations. Such developments at the same time expose weaknesses of human control and introduce severe issues related to accountability, fairness, and the intervention of a private entity. Thus, the third wave of governance is twofold: on the one hand offering the prospect of administrative innovation; on the other, requiring institutional protection in order to

secure democratic legitimacy, social justice and ethical responsibility in the digital era.

References

- [1] Basukie, J., Wang, Y., & Li, S. (2020). Big data governance and algorithmic management in sharing economy platforms: A case of ridesharing in emerging markets. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 161, 120310. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2020.120310>
- [2] Birkstedt, T., Minkkinen, M., Tandon, A., & Mäntymäki, M. (2023). AI governance: themes, knowledge gaps and future agendas. *Internet Research*, 33(7), 133–167. <https://doi.org/10.1108/intr-01-2022-0042>
- [3] Bloch-Wehba, H. (2022). Algorithmic Governance from the Bottom Up. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4054640>
- [4] Danaher, J., Hogan, M. J., Noone, C., Kennedy, R., Behan, A., De Paor, A., Felzmann, H., Haklay, M., Khoo, S., Morison, J., Murphy, M. H., O’Brolchain, N., Schafer, B., & Shankar, K. (2017). Algorithmic governance: Developing a research agenda through the power of collective intelligence. *Big Data & Society*, 4(2), 205395171772655. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2053951717726554>
- [5] Dunleavy, P., & Margetts, H. (2023). Data science, artificial intelligence and the third wave of digital era governance. *Public Policy and Administration*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/09520767231198737>

- [6] Green, B. (2022). The flaws of policies requiring human oversight of government algorithms. *Computer Law & Security Review*, 45, 105681. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clsr.2022.105681>
- [7] Gritsenko, D., & Wood, M. (2020). Algorithmic governance: A modes of governance approach. *Regulation & Governance*, 16(1), 45–62. <https://doi.org/10.1111/rego.12367>
- [8] Gritsenko, D., Markham, A., Pötzsch, H., & Wijermars, M. (2022). Algorithms, contexts, governance: An introduction to the special issue. *New Media & Society*, 24(4), 835–844. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14614448221079037>
- [9] Hanisch, M., Goldsby, C. M., Fabian, N. E., & Oehmichen, J. (2023). Digital governance: A conceptual framework and research agenda. *Journal of Business Research*, 162, 113777. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2023.113777>
- [10] James, A., Hynes, D., Whelan, A., Dreher, T., & Humphry, J. (2023). From access and transparency to refusal: Three responses to algorithmic governance. *Internet Policy Review*, 12(2). <https://doi.org/10.14763/2023.2.1691>
- [11] Latzer, M., & Festic, N. (2019). A guideline for understanding and measuring algorithmic governance in everyday life. *Internet Policy Review*, 8(2). <https://doi.org/10.14763/2019.2.1415>
- [12] Margetts, H. (2022). Rethinking AI for good governance. *Daedalus*, 151(2), 360–371. https://doi.org/10.1162/daed_a_01922
- [13] Srivastava, S. (2021). Algorithmic governance and the international politics of big tech. *Perspectives on Politics*, 21(3), 989–1000. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1537592721003145>
- [14] Tacihagh, A. (2021). Governance of artificial intelligence. *Policy and Society*, 40(2), 137–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14494035.2021.1928377>
- [15] Wang, X., Oussalah, M., Niemilä, M., Ristikari, T., & Virtanen, P. (2023). Towards AI-governance in psychosocial care: A systematic literature review analysis. *Journal of Open Innovation Technology Market and Complexity*, 9(4), 100157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joitmc.2023.100157>