

# Online Privacy as a Collective Phenomenon

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## ABSTRACT

The problem of online privacy is often reduced to individual decisions to hide or reveal personal information in online social networks (OSNs). However, with the increasing use of OSNs, it becomes more important to understand the role of the social network in disclosing personal information that a user has not revealed voluntarily: How much of our private information do our friends disclose about us, and how much of our privacy is lost simply because of online social interaction? Without strong technical effort, an OSN may be able to exploit the assortativity of human private features, this way constructing shadow profiles with information that users chose not to share. Furthermore, because many users share their phone and email contact lists, this allows an OSN to create full shadow profiles for people who do not even have an account for this OSN.

We empirically test the feasibility of constructing shadow profiles of sexual orientation for users and non-users, using data from more than 3 Million accounts of a single OSN. We quantify a lower bound for the predictive power derived from the social network of a user, to demonstrate how the predictability of sexual orientation increases with the size of this network and the tendency to share personal information. This allows us to define a *privacy leak factor* that links individual privacy loss with the decision of other individuals to disclose information. Our statistical analysis reveals that some individuals are at a higher risk of privacy loss, as prediction accuracy increases for users with a larger and more homogeneous first- and second-order neighborhood of their social network. While we do not provide evidence that shadow profiles exist at all, our results show that disclosing of private information is not restricted to an individual choice, but becomes a collective decision that has implications for policy and privacy regulation.

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Data mining, Privacy, Social Systems

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Privacy; Shadow Profiles; Prediction

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Our society is increasingly grounded on information and communication technologies, in which protecting one's privacy might not be an individual choice [12]. In online social networks (OSNs), the characteristics of each user is determined primarily by its connections, rather than by its intrinsic properties. Hence, from an individual's perspective, isolation is often not a desirable option [42]. To that end, the issue of protecting one's privacy within the OSN relates largely to the community the individual is embedded in, and how it is handled, if at all, by the community at large.

Although the existence of mass surveillance and the imminent threats it poses are known by many, studies in a number of fields show that people do little to protect their privacy against surveillance [42]. In an OSN, users are often incentivised to share personal data, e.g. by offering some sort of benefit or personalization as a service (e.g. recommender systems). But incentives also arise from social influences, e.g. from social surveillance of peers to receive attention and to reinforce existing relationships [33]. When an OSN provider has access to the contacts of users, it gains stronger predictive power. Together with the content willingly produced by users, there are ways to extract probabilistic profiles of other users, even about persons who did not have an account in the given OSN [9].

On the aggregated level, this leads to an imbalance between the knowledge that a single user has about the OSN provider and the knowledge that the provider has, or is able to deduce, about individual users and even about persons that are not users. There is no way of knowing how the information provided by an everyday user to the OSN can be utilized, and there are no clear policies about this either. The usage often stretches from personalization to social discrimination, without the user's knowledge [31]. A Facebook bug revealed in 2013 is an appropriate example for one of the many ways the information provided by users may be utilized. According to the reported bug, Facebook attempted

to obtain users' off-site email addresses and phone numbers, gathered from the contact lists shared by other users. It appeared that the covertly collected information was then being stored in each Facebook user's invisible *Shadow Profile* that is somehow attached to accounts [1]. Digital trends [3] defines a Facebook Shadow Profile as "a file that Facebook keeps on you containing data it pulls up from looking at the information that a user's friends voluntarily provide. You're not supposed to see it, or even know it exists." Facebook reacted to the incident to fix the leak as soon as possible. However, what has remained not fixed until now is their policy. In a set of interviews, Facebook officials claimed that obtaining third party user data on individuals in this manner was not a privacy breach since the data has been submitted voluntarily by members of Facebook, which make the data a property of Facebook [2]. This argument is backed up by the following statement in Facebook Terms of Service:

*We receive information about you from your friends and others, such as when they upload your contact information, post a photo of you, tag you in a photo or status update, or at a location, or add you to a group. When people use Facebook, they may store and share information about you and others that they have, such as when they upload and manage their invites and contacts [4].*

Facebook for Mobile alone has over one billion users that agreed to their terms of service, which allows the application to "read data about your contacts stored on your phone, including the frequency with which you've called, emailed, or communicated in other ways with specific individuals". It is not difficult to imagine the massive amount of ongoing data acquisition based on such intact privacy policies. Therefore, it becomes an imminent question to what extent can an OSN be turned into a tool that acquires data to profile the whole society, just because some individuals have become members of that OSN. Our main contribution to this discussion is to demonstrate to what extent the information of an OSN provider about its users can be used to quantify knowledge about the individuals of our society, at large. We use an empirical dataset from Friendster, a large online social networking site that preceded Facebook. This dataset, which is publicly accessible in the Internet Archive<sup>1</sup>, allowed us to evaluate the power that Friendster had to create shadow profiles.

Our aim is not to provide new tools or algorithms to improve the accuracy of the knowledge that an OSN provider can possess. Instead, we aim to apply state of the art statistical analyses and machine learning techniques to quantify the extent to which individual privacy is leaked by the activity of others in an OSN, and to empirically test how the individual decision to reveal information turns into a collective phenomenon to disclose privacy. In our analysis, we study two interrelated problems. First we explore the *Partial Shadow Profile* problem, in which an OSN infers private information that its users chose not to share. Second, we address the *Full Shadow Profile* problem, in which an OSN provider discovers private information about individuals who do not even have an account there, solely based on personal information and contact lists shared by its actual users.

<sup>1</sup><https://archive.org/details/archive-team-friendster>

In this work, we focus on sexual orientation as a relevant and sensitive private information the disclosure of which should be in control of the users. The combination of gender and sexual orientation creates a set of classes that appear with inhomogeneous frequencies, which is often the case in real-life prediction problems of different domains (e.g. political affiliation). For each user, we construct a simple social context based on frequency measures on the neighborhood at increasing distances. We quantify privacy leak factors for different sexual orientation groups and analyze how they are affected by two main factors, the network size and the disclosure parameter, i.e. the ratio of users sharing their contact lists and/or private information with the OSN. We further analyze how the coefficients of larger (i.e. majority) and smaller (i.e. minority) sexual orientation groups compare with respect to these two factors.

## 2. RELATED WORK

Understanding privacy in OSNs starts with the individual motivation to share personal information and its associated risk of sharing this information with undesired contacts [6, 24]. Most OSNs include highly customizable modules to control privacy settings, which can lead to higher efforts and uncertainty how to use the site [29], or to distancing from those users that have a lower awareness of possible data leakage [32, 26, 10]. Recent technologies promise to alleviate user privacy concerns. For example, distributed recommender systems can put a limit to privacy disclosure [21], deployment of OSNs in the cloud can avoid the centralization of user data [44, 46], techniques for picture encryption [43] and content anonymization [38] can prevent undesired access to private content.

Private information about users can be a source of wealth, e.g. by significantly increasing the revenue of personalized advertisement [19]. This creates incentives for OSNs to share private user information with third parties, from which the user does not necessarily benefit. A possible solution for this dilemma is to create monetization schemes that allow users to set up the price they request for companies to access their private information [41], effectively creating *privacy butlers* that automatically control privacy [45, 27]. This approach can be criticized for its ethics about the value of privacy, asking if market dynamics would push less wealthy individuals to have no privacy [36]. Additionally, the monetization of privacy relies on systems that would allow an individual to have full access control of its privacy, which is hardly realistic.

Even with full individual control, the possibility of third-parties to infer private attributes still exists [35]. The discovery of unknown/hidden parts of a network based on its visible properties is a well studied problem, in particular with respect to *link prediction* [15, 5, 28]. Such hidden links have been shown to be predictable by geographic coincidences [14], using geotagged photo data from Flickr. The method introduced in [14] utilizes the number and proximity in time and space of co-occurrences among pairs of individuals to infer the likelihood of a social tie between them. The link prediction problem has also been applied to predict links between non-users of Facebook [20], given only the link information towards non-members from the known network. Additionally, the *network completion* problem aims to infer both missing links and nodes, where it has been shown that

the missing part of the network can be inferred based only on the connectivity patterns of the observed part [5].

Previous studies of user privacy have focused on *sensitive attribute inference* problems, where user private attributes are detected based on a mix of public profiles in the network, friendship links and group membership information of private users [47]. Specifically, within the *friendship identification and inference* attack [23], a user might aim to infer private attributes of another user. Given that the attacker and the target are direct or 2-distant neighbors, the success of such attacks depends on network topological properties, such as the position of the attacker in the network. Furthermore, iterative algorithms can effectively label nodes by propagating information to their neighborhoods [18]. A wide variety of models have aimed at predicting different private features, such as gender, age, political orientation [39], home location [37], and academic profiles [34]. In the context of sexual and romantic relationships, two previous works are especially relevant. First, the “*gaydar*” experiment [22] showed that homosexual male users can be detected based on the amount of friends of the same type they had on **Facebook**. Second, a recent article [7] proposes a new measure of *dispersion* and applies it to a large **Facebook** dataset in order to predict which of a user’s friends is their romantic partner.

In this article, we evaluate the accuracy of partial and full shadow profiles for the sexual orientation of users and non-users of the **Friendster** social network. Our analysis builds on the sequence of users joining **Friendster** to evaluate predictions over individuals without a user account in a similar manner as done in [20] where the links between non-users are inferred. Knowing in which sequence the users joined **Friendster** has freed us from having to utilize a network growth model in our analysis. Furthermore, we pay special attention to the ratios of friends belonging to each orientation in the neighborhood of users at a given time in the growth of the network. Our results should be compared with previous work on sexual orientation of users in smaller datasets [22]. To our knowledge, our work is the first to address the possibility of creating full shadow profiles for the sexual orientation of non-users from a large scale OSN.

### 3. DATA DESCRIPTION

Before its social networking functionalities were discontinued, **Friendster** was crawled by the **Internet Archive**, leaving a snapshot of all the publicly available information at that moment. Our previous analysis of the connectivity patterns of the network [16] reveals that the first 20 Million users of **Friendster** were largely located in the US, before the OSN spread to other countries. The growth of **Friendster** in the US stopped because of the competition with **MySpace** and **Facebook** [40]. This allows us to analyze these initial 20 Million users as a subset of US users of the OSN.

The amount of information about each user available in the **Friendster** dataset depends on the privacy settings of the user. Most of them allowed their friendship lists to be publicly available, and some of them also let other users to see private features explicitly given by the user, such as age and gender. Within the subset we considered, 3,431,335 users had public profiles which were captured by the crawl, including the personal information explained in Table 1. This subset contains a total of 11,074,009 undirected friend-

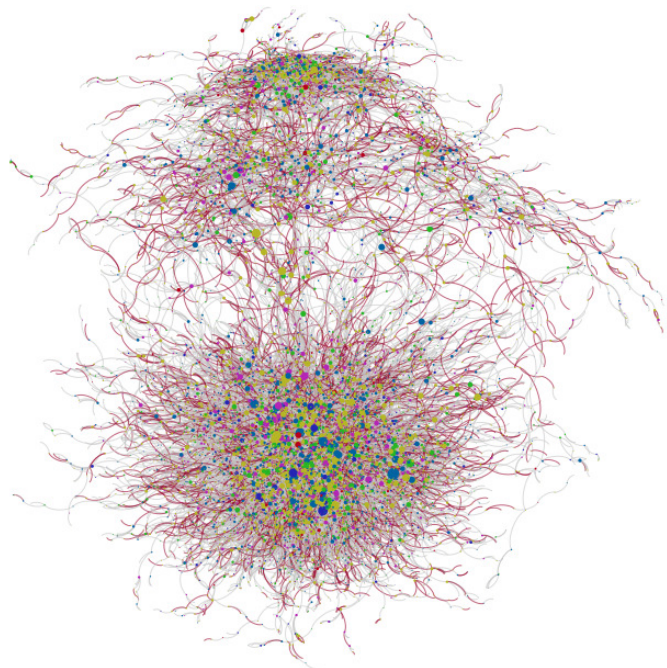
ship links among these public profiles only, resulting in an average degree of 3.23.

Feature	Description
User ID	integer
Name	string
Birth date	date
Gender	<i>Male, Female, or Unspecified</i>
Interests*	<i>Friends, Activity Partners, Just looking around, Fans, Dating Women, Relationship with Women, Dating Men, Relationship with Men, Dating Men and Women, Relationship with Men and Women</i>
Relationship status	<i>Single, Married, In a Relationship, Domestic Partners, It’s Complicated</i>

**Table 1: Friendster public profile features. The interests feature contains one or more of its possible values.**

In addition, each user has an id number that indicates the order in which the user joined the social network, allowing us to construct time-dependent vectors of feature distributions in user neighborhoods, as described in the following section.

The network in Figure 1 displays the **Friendster** network among a randomly selected 10% of the users with public profiles, where node colors represent the sexual orientation class, and the colored edges represent assortativity where two endpoints share the same sexual orientation class. About 30% of all the edges are assortative in this representative network, which suggests that it is common to form links based on sexual orientation.



**Figure 1: The network for a subset of Friendster users. The red edges represent assortativity, where the endpoint nodes are in the same sexual orientation class. The node colors correspond to the sexual orientation class.**

Gender	M	F	Class	Label	% users
Female	No	No	Female without interest	<b>FF</b>	28.2
Male	No	No	Male without interest	<b>FM</b>	26.4
Female	Yes	No	Heterosexual female	<b>HeF</b>	9.3
Male	Yes	No	Homosexual male	<b>HoM</b>	1.9
Female	No	Yes	Homosexual female	<b>HoF</b>	1.0
Male	No	Yes	Heterosexual male	<b>HeM</b>	19.9
Female	Yes	Yes	Bisexual female	<b>BiF</b>	6.8
Male	Yes	Yes	Bisexual male	<b>BiM</b>	6.5

**Table 2: User orientation classification. An "interested in" relationship may stand for interested in dating or having a relationship.**

## 4. METHODS

Being aware that sexual orientation and gender can be defined in a variety of ways [8], we use the simplest classification available in our data: gender as birth sex (male or female) and sexual orientation simplified to the set of possible combinations of interest towards the two genders. This way, we combine gender with the explicit romantic interest in other genders, as specified by *Dating* and *Relationship* interests towards different genders introduced in Table 1. Each user can be assigned to one of the eight classes with respect to their sexual orientations, which are described in Table 2. Additional features of sexual orientation can capture other activities, group identities, or political standpoints, and other features that cannot be empirically measured in our dataset.

Features	Description
Profile	Age, gender, relationship status, Sexual orientation
$n_k$	Number of users at distance $k$
$a_k$	Average age of friends at distance $k$
$g_k$	Gender counts at distance $k$
$r_k$	Relationship counts at distance $k$
$i_k$	Romantic interest counts at distance $k$
$x_k$	Sexual orientation counts at distance $k$
$x_w$	Weighted frequency of friends of each sexual orientation

**Table 3: Features of the user vector. Neighborhood frequencies are computed for distances 1, 2, and 3, for each possible value of the profile features.**

For each user in the dataset, we built a feature vector including their profile information, and different metrics of the distribution of features in their neighborhood at distances up to 3. For each distance  $k$ , we calculated the amount of users at that exact distance ( $n_k$ ), and within those users, we counted the amounts of users with each possible value of gender, relationship status, romantic interest, and sexual orientation. To measure age in the neighborhood, we computed the average age of the users at distance  $k$  ( $a_k$ ). Since previous research suggests that the most indicative factor is the sexual orientation of the first neighbors of the user [22], we computed an additional weighted count of friends of each sexual orientation, weighting each link by the amount of common friends that the two users have. The features of this vector are summarized in Table 3.

## 5. PARTIAL SHADOW PROFILES

Our first step was to explore the *partial shadow profiles* problem. We define partial shadow profiles as enhanced data of an OSN provider about its users, covering personal information these users did not initially agree to share. We test the OSN provider’s ability to construct partial shadow profiles over the set of users that have initially disclosed their romantic interest towards at least one gender, leaving out users of the classes FF and FM. This leaves us with 1,027,400 users and six classes, with feature vectors built over the network including all 3.3 Million users to reach neighborhoods at larger distances.

We arrange the data of these users as follows: We choose a *partial disclosure parameter*  $R \in \{x/10 : x \in \mathbb{N}, x < 10\}$ , defined as the probability that a user has shared sexual interest information with the social network. For a given  $R$ , we include users in the *training* set with probability  $R$ , and leave them for the *test* set with probability  $1 - R$ . The training set contains those users whose sexual orientation class are known, and the test set contains those users whose class or other user features (e.g. gender and age) are hidden. This reproduces the problem setup that the OSN provider faces when constructing partial profiles: a set of its users have disclosed their orientation, but others chose not to. We preserve the friendship links of all users, including those in the *test* set and build the user vector for the *training* set of users, using all the links and only the user features within the *training* set, since the user features of the *test* set of users are hidden. We use this vector to train a Random Forest Classifier, and use the resulting classifier to predict the sexual orientation of users in the *test* set. Since both the training and the test cases are randomly chosen, we repeat this 10 times for each  $R$ .

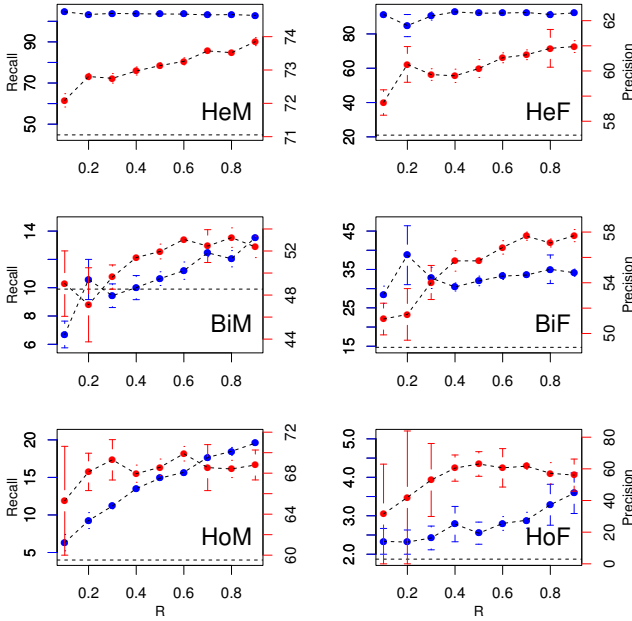
Through these 10 repetitions, we aim at understanding the dependence between the tendency to share personal information of the users of an OSN, and the predictability of the sexual orientation of those users who chose not to share that information. In particular we want to understand under which conditions this prediction would outperform a random estimator and by what factor.

### 5.1 Prediction Results

For each value of  $R$  and random samplings of training and test users, we computed the *Precision* and *Recall* values for each of the six sexual orientation classes. Figure 2 shows the mean values over the 10 runs of each value of  $R$ .

We observe that for all classes, *Recall* can reach values much higher than the base rate, which is equivalent to the percentage of users that belong to each class. This holds for low values of  $R$  for all classes but homosexual females and bisexual males, which require  $R > 0.3$  to have a precision above the base rate. For the case of homosexual females, which constitutes 2% of all users, the *Precision* increases up to 60% but the *Recall* values increase marginally between 2% and 4%, showing that some homosexual females can be detected with high *Precision*, but the vast majority of them cannot be predicted by the Random Forest Classifier. The most striking results are for homosexual males, where both *Precision* and *Recall* are several times above the base rate, and for the majority classes of heterosexual males and females, which also show large values of *Precision* and *Recall*.

*Precision* values alone indicate that the accuracy of predictions increases significantly with higher values of  $R$ . To



**Figure 2: Recall and Precision (%) for each class versus  $R$  for the partial shadow profile problem. The blue lines and the left y-axis show the recall values, whereas the red lines and the right y-axis show the precision values as  $R$ , the partial disclosure parameter, grows. The dashed black line shows the base rate, the percentage of users for each class within the whole data set.**

empirically test the relationship between prediction results and the partial disclosure parameter, we computed Cohen’s Kappa Coefficient [13] for each class and classification run:

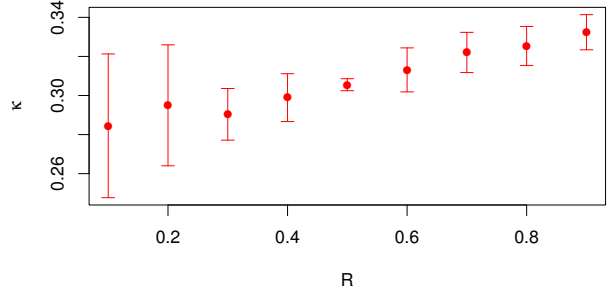
$$\kappa = \frac{Pr(a) - Pr(e)}{1 - Pr(e)} \quad (1)$$

where  $Pr(a)$  is the relative observed agreement between classification and test data, and  $Pr(e)$  is the hypothetical probability of chance agreement, using the observed data to calculate the probabilities of each observer randomly saying each category.

If the raters are in complete agreement then  $\kappa = 1$ . If there is no agreement among the raters other than what would be expected by chance (as defined by  $Pr(e)$ ),  $\kappa = 0$ . Cohen’s Kappa  $\kappa$  captures a combination of *Precision* and *Recall* similar to the  $F_1$  value, but includes the comparison to the baseline of a random classifier in its calculation. Thus, the performance of a random classifier would tend towards  $\kappa = 0$ , while the value of  $F_1$  would depend on the distribution of classes in the dataset.

Since Kappa’s coefficient is independent of class size and thus is resilient to biases introduced by differing class sizes, we aggregate the performance of the classifier for individual classes into a single average  $\kappa$ . Figure 3 displays the average Cohen’s Kappa coefficient over all classes.

We observe that as the partial disclosure parameter  $R$  grows, an OSN provider would be able to predict, with higher accuracy, the sexual orientation of those users that did not share it. We statistically test this observation through



**Figure 3: Cohen’s Kappa coefficient versus  $R$  for the partial shadow profile problem.**

a *privacy leak factor* for each user class, computed as the weight of  $R$  in a linear regressor with an intercept and  $\kappa$  as dependent variable. Table 4 shows the statistical results for each of the six fits, as well as the fit for the privacy leak factor computed for all classes on the average  $\kappa$ .

Class	Class %	priv. leak. factor	$p$ -value
HeM	47	0.02	$2.9 \times 10^{-7}$
HeF	23	0.04	$2.1 \times 10^{-3}$
BiM	9	0.09	$4.9 \times 10^{-4}$
BiF	16	0.06	$5.2 \times 10^{-2}$
HoM	4	<b>0.24</b>	$7.1 \times 10^{-6}$
HoF	2	0.02	$8.6 \times 10^{-3}$
$\bar{\kappa}$	-	0.12	$1.1 \times 10^{-3}$

**Table 4: privacy leak factors for each class and average  $\kappa$  in the partial shadow profiles problem. All estimates are below the 0.01 significance level, with the exception of BiF.**

This statistical analysis demonstrates that all classes have a significant and positive privacy leak factors, with the exception of bisexual females, for which the  $p$ -value was above 0.01. The size estimates of the privacy leak factor differ across classes, having relatively low values for heterosexual male and female, and for the homosexual female class. The largest values are present for the homosexual and bisexual male classes. Homosexual males have low predictability under  $R = 0.1$ , since they constitute about 4% of all users, but the privacy leak factor is much higher than for other classes, being estimated as 0.24, 12 times larger than for the largest class of heterosexual males. This suggests that homosexual male users that do not disclose their sexual orientation are at a larger risk of privacy leakage if the tendency of other users to share their sexual orientation becomes stronger.

Finally, the standard errors for the average  $\kappa$ , and the *Precision* and *Recall* of individual classes reveal that, across the 10 runs for each  $R$ , the prediction accuracy does not vary much for a given  $R$ , especially for higher values of  $R$ . This suggests that the prediction accuracy does not rely on which users of the OSN have revealed their sexual orientation, given that large enough ( $R \simeq 0.3$ ) percentage of the population share personal information.



## 6. FULL SHADOW PROFILES

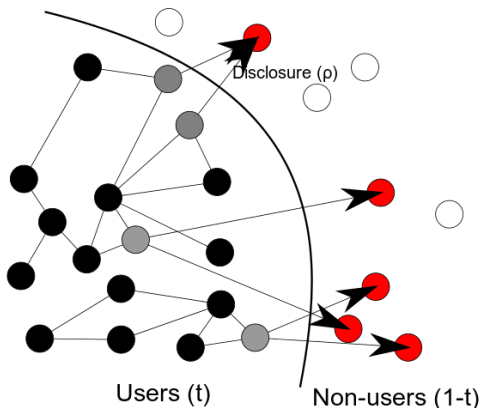
Full shadow profiles are the profiles that an OSN provider can generate about individuals that do not have an account for this OSN. The idea is, when a user shares its contact list with the OSN, the provider can find out which email addresses do not have an associated account and can generate a full shadow profile for these non-users. If those non-users appear in many contact lists of OSN users, data mining techniques can be used to infer the home location, age, gender, etc, of the non-users.

For the Full Shadow Profiles problem, we arrange our data as follows: We select a parameter  $a \in \{x/10 : x \in \mathbb{N}, x < 10\}$ , where each  $a$  divides the whole user data of  $N$  users into two sets:

- *Inside* user set, which is of size  $a \times N$  users
- *Outside* user set, which is of size  $(1 - a) \times N$  users

In Figure 4, the *Inside* user set is represented by the combination of the black and gray nodes, and is the set of members of the OSN at time  $t$ . The *Outside* user set is represented by the combination of red and white nodes, which are the set of users that are not part of the network at time  $t$ , hereafter denoted as *non-users*.

Furthermore, we introduce a *disclosure parameter*  $\rho \in \{0.5, 0.7, 0.9\}$  which is the fraction of users in the *Inside* user set that shared all of their contacts with **Friendster**. For **Facebook**, given the fact that every user of the **Facebook for Mobile** initially has to agree that **Facebook** can access their contact list,  $\rho$  would be closer to 1.0.



**Figure 4: Schema of the full shadow profile construction problem.**

Given a combination of  $a$  and  $\rho$ , we measure: a) To what degree is the OSN provider able to find out about the sexual orientation of the *non-users*; b) How much is the social network confident about its findings about the *non-users*, by measuring how much it can predict about its actual user base, i.e. *Inside*. To that end, we pursue the following method in three steps:

1. We build a user vector for each user in the *Inside* user set as described in Section 3<sup>2</sup>, discarding all their links to the non-users. We then use this user vector to build a Random Forest classifier [11] over the user class of sexual orientation (hereby referred to as  $RF_a$ ).
2. For each user in the *Inside* user set, we flip a biased coin where the outcome is heads with probability  $\rho$  and for those users that got tails, we discard all their links to the non-users. Using the remaining links, we build the user vector of the non-users who have at least one link to *Inside*. This user vector represents the vector that the social network can construct for the non-users, using only the contacts of its users that shared their contact lists.
3. We use  $RF_a$  to predict the sexual orientation of the non-users.

While building the feature vectors for non-users in step 2, we discard all user attributes (relationship status, age and gender) from the feature vector, and keep only neighborhood information for each user. The reason we discard user attributes is to represent the real life situation where the social network knows nothing at all about the non-users at  $t$ . Since  $RF_a$  will be used to classify the resulting vector,  $RF_a$  must also be built using the same features available in for the non-users. Therefore, we discard all user attributes also from the user feature vector in step 1.

Step 1 is run once for each  $a$  where we acquire a corresponding  $RF_a$ . Step 2 and 3 are repeated 10 times for each  $(a, \rho)$  pair, such that for each run, a different  $\rho$  fraction of users share their contact lists, and hence a different set of links are preserved to the non-users.

### 6.1 Prediction Results

In the full shadow profiles problem, non-users are subject of losing privacy as other individuals join the OSN, potentially revealing their contacts. We evaluate the performance of the  $RF_a$  classifier over the set of non-users, for increasing values of  $a$ , to test if prediction accuracy correlates with the size of the OSN. Since these results are subject to increase with the disclosure parameter  $\rho$ , we repeat the analysis for three different values of  $\rho$ . We measured precision and recall over the complete set of non-users, and report their mean values over 10 resamples in Figure 5.

For all classes, there is an increasing trend in recall values with  $a$ , as well as with  $\rho$ .  $\rho$  plays a more significant role for recall than for precision. This is because as  $\rho$  grows, feature vectors for more non-users can be constructed, leaving out less and less non-users from the predictions, which impacts recall over all non-users. Larger values of  $a$  also contribute to precision in most of the cases, but this increase seems negligible compared to the distance between precision and base rate of each class. To further understand these trends, we computed Cohen’s Kappa for all classes over each evaluation. The average values of  $\kappa$  versus  $a$  are shown in Figure 6, showing that the predictive power of the classifier increases with  $a$  and slightly increases with  $\rho$ .

To statistically test for the presence of an increase of prediction quality with  $a$ , we calculated privacy leak factors for

<sup>2</sup>For the full shadow profile analysis, we did not use 3-order neighborhood information due to the large number of simulations needed and computational limitations that were introduced

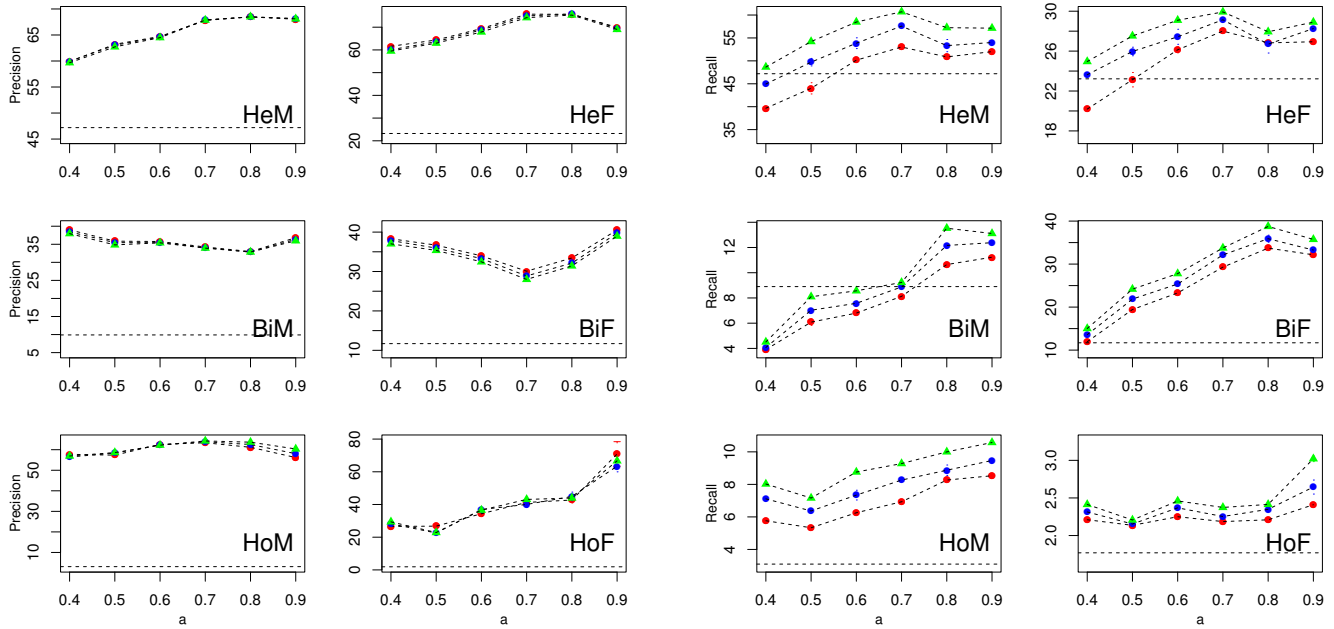


Figure 5: Precision and recall for each class in the full shadow profiles problem, for  $\rho = 0.5$  (red),  $\rho = 0.7$  (blue), and  $\rho = 0.9$  (green). The base rate of each class is given by the dashed black line.

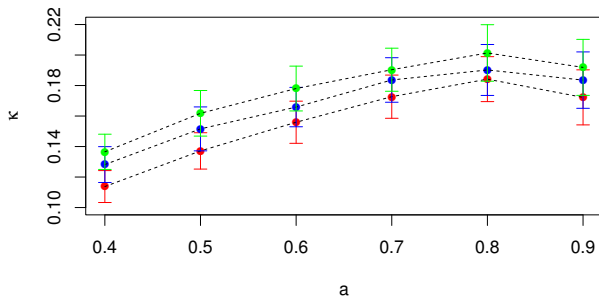


Figure 6: Cohen's Kappa in full shadow profiles for all classes versus  $a$ , for  $\rho = 0.5$  (red),  $\rho = 0.7$  (blue), and  $\rho = 0.9$  (green).

the full shadow profiles problem. In contrast with the partial shadow profiles problem, where we linked the decision of users to disclose their personal information, in the full shadow profiles problem we are interested in knowing how the decision of some users to join the OSN can influence the privacy of non-users. Thus, we compute privacy leak factor as the regression weight of  $a$  in the  $\kappa$  of the classifier for different values of  $\rho$ . As shown in Table 5, the privacy leak factor is positive and significant for the three values of  $\rho$ , suggesting that an overall privacy loss for non-users as the OSN grows.

The privacy leak factor for full shadow profiles is not homogeneous for all sexual orientations. Table 6 shows the privacy leak factors, which are positive and significant for all classes but homosexual female. The values of the privacy leak factor do not greatly differ for the three values of  $\rho$ , suggesting that the main driving factor of privacy loss of non-users is network growth. Comparing across classes,

$\rho$	privacy leak factor (all classes)	$p$ -value
0.5	0.12	0.007
0.7	0.13	0.002
0.9	0.16	0.002

Table 5: Privacy leak factor in full shadow profiles, calculated over  $\kappa$  for all classes.

the sexual orientation with the strongest privacy leak factor is bisexual females, which had the least significant counterpart for partial shadow profiles, as shown in Table 4. This suggests that bisexual females can be detected with higher accuracy when other users join the OSN, rather than by disclosure of private attributes within the OSN.

$\rho$	Class	priv.leak f.	$p$ -value	Class	priv.leak f.	$p$ -value
0.5	HeM	0.21	0.015	HeF	0.23	0.021
0.7		0.18	0.035		0.15	0.059
0.9		0.21	0.030		0.15	0.051
0.5	BiM	0.17	0.00021	BiF	0.35	0.0012
0.7		0.19	0.0011		0.32	0.0024
0.9		0.21	0.0037		0.30	0.0055
0.5	HoM	0.11	0.029	HoF	0.0012	0.71
0.7		0.087	0.048		0.0036	0.57
0.9		0.097	0.046		0.0037	0.61

Table 6: Privacy leak factor in full shadow profiles for each class.

## 6.2 Analyzing Prediction Results

We analyzed the properties that correctly predicted non-users have in common, in order to shed light to other factors that may have played a role in predictions. Figure 7 shows the distribution of the first order neighborhood size in the *Inside* for all non-users at  $a = 0.6$  and  $\rho = 0.9$ , and the

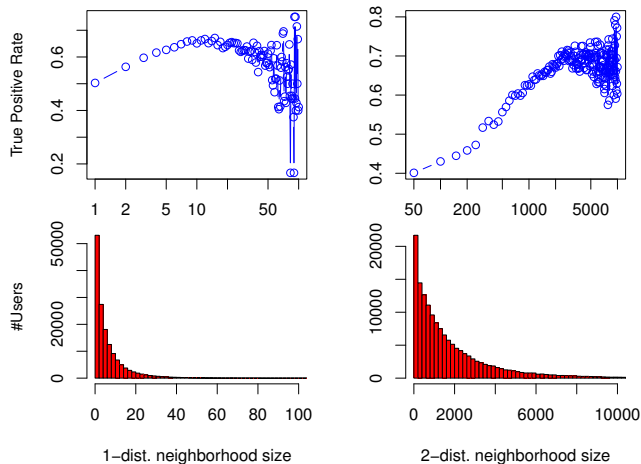


Figure 7: **Bottom left:** First order neighborhood size distribution where the sizes are the number of friends in the known part of the network who shared their contact lists. **Top left:** True Positive rate (TPR) for different first order neighborhood sizes where TPR is given by the ratio of number of correctly predicted users to the number of users that fall into each neighborhood size range. **Bottom right:** Second order neighborhood size distribution. **Top right:** TPR for different second order neighborhood sizes. All figures are derived from 10 simulations where  $a = 0.6$  and  $\rho = 0.9$ .

corresponding *true positive rate* (TPR) for each neighborhood size range, calculated as the ratio of correctly classified users over all classified users. Non-users with at least one friend in the *Inside* are more likely to be predicted correctly (TPR = 0.52). In addition, the TPR increases with neighborhood size. At first sight, this would mean that one friend in the *Inside* set gives the OSN provider enough power to accurately profile a non-user. But looking at Figure 7 (right column), which shows the TPR distribution for different second order neighborhood sizes of non-users, we observe a new dependence: Although the second order neighborhood size is more heterogeneous, the TPR increases significantly for larger sizes. Therefore, from a non-user’s perspective, not only the amount of friends in the OSN is a critical factor, but how well connected those friends are.

We explored the assortativity of sexual orientation between users and non-users, and how this can increase prediction accuracy. As an example, we look at homosexual male users, which is one of the smallest classes. Figure 8 displays the distribution of homosexual male user ratios in the first order neighborhood of non-users of the same orientation, and the corresponding TPR for each ratio of assortative links. It is more likely that homosexual male non-users will be classified correctly as the ratio of links of the same kind increases in their first order neighborhood, suggesting that assortativity plays a significant role in privacy leakage. An ratio of homosexual male friends of 0.1 is quite common, and displays no significant affect on TPR (TPR = 0.09), although it is still larger than the base rate. For a ratio of homosexual male friends between 0.2 and 0.5, there is a clear increase in the TPR.

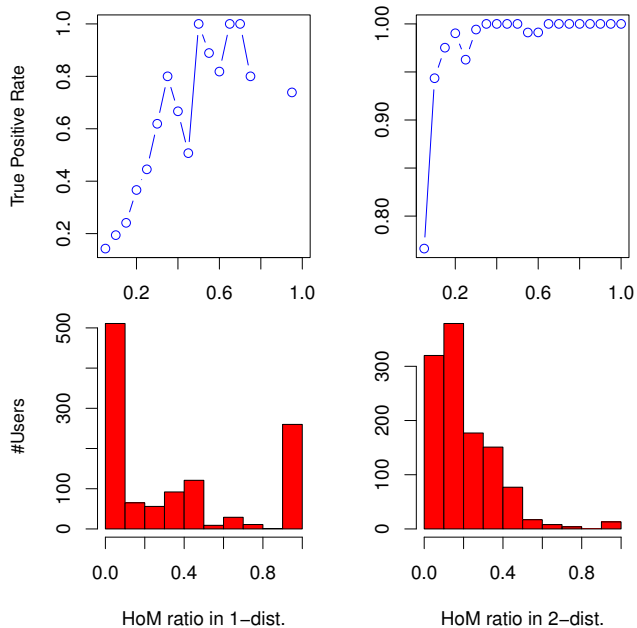


Figure 8: (bottom left) Distribution of HoM user ratios in the first order neighborhood of HoM non-users. (top left) TPR for HoM non-users in each HoM ratio range, where TPR is given by the ratio of number of correctly predicted HoM non-users to all HoM non-users. (bottom right) Distribution of HoM user ratios in the second order neighborhood of HoM non-users. (top right) TPR for HoM non-users in each second order HoM ratio range. All figures are derived from 10 simulations where  $a = 0.6$  and  $\rho = 0.9$ .

Noise is present between 0.5 and 0.6, due to the fact that there are only very few non-users that fall in these categories. Figure 8 suggests that the ratios of homosexual male friends in the second order neighborhoods of non-users also correlate with the respective TPR values, suggesting that higher order assortative ties also influence privacy leakage.

These figures help us understand further what kind of dynamics contribute to privacy leakage in an OSN. The privacy leakage seems to be influenced by the size of the first order neighborhood, how many highly connected users exist within the first order neighborhood, and the assortativity across the first and second order neighborhoods with respect to the user’s sexual orientation. The cross-dependence among these three factors seem to result in a large amount of privacy leakage. In this section we have looked at only a few of the possible factors and analyzed assortative relationships of only one sexual orientation class. The analysis can certainly be extended by looking into network features of known and unknown users and into different different classes.

## 7. DISCUSSION

The privacy leak factor is not homogeneous for all sexual orientations. We showed that the privacy leak factors for large and small groups respond differently to changing network size and disclosure behavior. For example, the amount by which precision and recall digress away from their respec-



tive base rates for HoM individuals is much larger than and HeM individuals. Often, it is more risky for smaller groups to be compromised within the society, whereas larger groups are often not concerned by this risk. This is mostly due to peer pressure or to the fact that minority rights are legally not represented.

There are multiple factors that put individuals under privacy risk. We have shown that network size and disclosure parameter influence privacy risk for non-users. We have also suggested that this risk varies depending on how connected a non-user is to the network, and the nature of their connection (i.e. the homophilic nature of connections).

The simulations are representative of a realistic network growth scenario and disclosure behavior. Our simulations are representative of a realistic network growth since we used **Friendster** user IDs, which are sequential with respect to the member’s joining time, thus freeing our analysis to consult different growth models. Furthermore, the choice for the range of disclosure parameter,  $\rho \in [0.5, 0.7, 0.9]$ , corresponds to a realistic scenario for the fraction of members sharing their contact lists.  $\rho = 0.9$  is closer to reality as most people share their contact lists (either voluntarily or due to the accepted terms of use) when they subscribe to an online social network, as reports about **Facebook** reveal. Finally, since we have made 10 runs for each  $a$  and  $\rho$  pair, and since standard errors are quite marginal, we can conclude that the findings are rather representative of the conditions  $a$  and  $\rho$ .

Since the data of the first 20 Million **Friendster** users have been downloaded from the **Internet Archive**, the completeness of the dataset can only be guaranteed based on what the **Internet Archive** offers. Furthermore, we are bounded by about 3.3 Million of these users that disclosed any sort of sexual orientation, which results in a sparser network than that of all 20 Million users. Although the resulting network and user data is much bigger than the datasets that have been used in other works, a more comprehensive study can take into account all 20 Million profiles and study the 3.3Mil using all their links in the 20 Million. This would mean analyzing some 70 Million edges. However, given the number of user vectors computed for full shadow profiles alone where a user vector for the non-users is computed 10 times for each  $(a, \rho)$  pair, resulting in 180 user vectors; and given the number of links that had to be traversed for computing each vector and the computational limitations introduced thereof, we believe that our results do provide a comprehensive analysis of privacy leakage. We have also not provided further analysis of factors that may play a role in prediction accuracy other than the ones discussed in Section 6.2. A more comprehensive analysis at this stage can answer the question which neighborhoods in larger distances still play a significant role in putting users under privacy leakage risk.

## 8. CONCLUSIONS

We presented an analysis of the social component of privacy, and how the decisions of some users to disclose private information impacts the chances of other users to maintain their privacy. This provides an indirect coupling between seemingly unrelated user decisions, as it was also observed in other online communities where the decision of some users to become inactive influences other the activity of other users [16]. Users in isolation face lower risks of losing privacy than

when they interact with each other. The same way as social interaction leads to the emergence of conventions [25], it can also undermine the quality of collective decisions [30], posing the question of how much private information a user loses just for interacting with others. Our work focused on sexual orientation, resonating within works on gender-aligned interaction in online communities [17]. But it keeps open to study privacy leakage in other kinds of private information, such as age or marital status.

We showed that the privacy leak factors for large and small groups respond differently to changing network size and disclosure behavior. For example, privacy leak factors are higher for homosexual males than for heterosexual males in the partial shadow profiles problem, showing that the former group loses more privacy as other users share their sexual orientation with the OSN provider. We have shown that network size and disclosure parameter influence privacy risk for non-users in the full shadow profiles problem, and that this risk varies depending on how connected a non-user is to the network, and the assortative nature of their connections. This poses a simple conclusion: not having an account in an OSN does not guarantee a higher level of privacy, as long as one has enough friends who already are in the OSN.

In an interlinked community, an individual’s privacy is a complex property, where it is in constant mutual relationship with the systemic properties and behavioral patterns of the community at large. We provided quantitative insights into the dependence of an individual’s privacy to their respective community, and how far an OSN provider can utilize this dependency to create shadow profiles. Our work does not improve the methods to create shadow profiles; we limited ourselves to the application of existing methods to underline an already existing risk. We showed that, as the network grows and its members share their contact lists with the provider, the risk of privacy leakage increases. Given the fact that this dependency is present under generalized social interaction, we should consider privacy as a collective concept, where individual privacy policies are not sufficient to control private information.

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