

PRIVACY AND SECURITY ANALYSIS OF VIRTUAL SHOPPING AND AI COMPANION PLATFORMS

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Abstract

Privacy and Security Analysis of Virtual Shopping and AI Companion Platforms

Abdelrahman Ragab

The integration of extended reality (XR) technologies such as augmented reality (AR), and artificial intelligence (AI), is transforming virtual shopping and virtual relationships, but also raising significant privacy concerns. We therefore develop two frameworks to examine privacy issues in both virtual shopping and virtual AI companion platforms, emphasizing the need for enhanced transparency and user protection. For virtual shopping, our analysis of 138 virtual try-on (VTO) websites and 28 Android apps reveals that 65% of websites and 18% of apps transmit user images to servers, often involving third-party servers. Additionally, 43 websites and 2 apps store user images, and 37% of websites use providers that extract facial geometry. Privacy policy violations were found in 17% of websites which collect user images. Significant security vulnerabilities were also identified in one VTO provider, putting both merchants and users at risk. In parallel, the study of 21 Android AI companion chatbot apps reveals discrepancies between privacy policies and chatbot responses to questions about privacy practices. All apps showed inadequate age verification and extensive tracking practices. Specifically, 13 apps used at least three tracking services, and 18 apps sent detailed device information to these services. None of the apps implemented measures to prevent users from falsifying birthdates, continuing conversations with underage users. This thesis highlights critical privacy and security issues in two growing domains in the virtual world (virtual shopping and AI companions), calling for improved transparency, better privacy practices, and stronger user protection measures.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview

Day by day, the virtual world is seeping more into people's lives in a wide spectrum of human activity: from work to education to entertainment. This is especially true after the COVID-19 pandemic, where many of those human activities shifted towards online and virtual platforms. For example, more job-related activities such as meetings, interviews, and collaborations are done in a virtual setting via e.g., Zoom meetings and cloud platforms, and similarly for educational activities. Economic activities, such as shopping, have their big share in the virtual world too, where people can virtually shop, and try out or view products in the comfort of their homes using augmented reality. The usage of the virtual world is also evident in social activities, where people are pushed to communicate and interact more in a virtual setting for many purposes, from common socializing to engaging in relationships. The concept of a virtual AI companion or "AI girlfriend" has also spiked in 2023 [55], where users can engage in different levels of a relationship with a virtual AI companion. Despite the many advantages offered by the virtual world, it does not come without privacy concerns. In fact, it offers more opportunities for privacy and security issues, considering the sensitive user information involved.

1.2 Motivation

Prior to our work, the privacy, and security of virtual shopping and virtual AI companion apps have not been comprehensively investigated. The leading technology for virtual shopping is virtual try-on (VTO), where customers can try out products—e.g., cosmetics, glasses, jewelry, clothing, viewing furniture in the room—using only their smartphone’s camera. The major concern is the kind of data which VTO platforms can access: images of the user’s face and body, and surroundings. In addition to this kind of data being sensitive in nature, it can be further used to infer other personal information such as age, gender, and health attributes of the individual, using only facial geometry [30], which can be extracted from users’ facial images. Making things worse for users, privacy policies are often tedious to read, ambiguous about their practices, and have no guarantee that they are being enforced in practice. So, we are interested to investigate the privacy practices of VTO platforms and how consistent they are with their privacy policies. As for virtual AI companion chatbot apps, not only do they share the same concern of abusing users’ images, but also other sensitive and even intimate media content including text and audio. It is also unknown how these AI chatbots respond to queries concerning users’ privacy, and whether they can be reliable in answering such queries in terms of their consistency with their privacy policies.

1.3 Problem Statement

For the scope of our research, we investigate relevant security and privacy issues in two main domains in the virtual world: virtual shopping and virtual AI companions.

For virtual shopping, we introduce a comprehensive framework (see overview in Fig. 4.2) to assess the privacy of websites and Android apps that offer virtual try-On (VTO) features, which allow customers to shop virtually. We also assess the security of VTO service providers. Our analysis includes 138 websites and 28 Android apps with VTO capabilities,

along with an evaluation of 3 VTO service providers. For the VTO websites, we examine whether users' images or videos are shared during VTO usage and verify if this behavior aligns with the website's privacy policy. Beyond privacy considerations, we quantify and classify third-party cookies and scripts on each website using an extension we developed for the web privacy measurement framework, OpenWPM [13]. For the apps, we assess the presence of tracking libraries instead of quantifying cookies and scripts. Additionally, we evaluate the security of VTO service providers by testing for issues such as broken authentication, unauthorized access, Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF), and we identify any misconfigurations that could potentially leak users' data.

For virtual AI companions (which we also refer to as romantic AI chatbots), we present a framework that integrates static and dynamic analysis to evaluate their privacy issues and practices. Our main objectives are: (i) to investigate the responses provided by 21 Android romantic AI chatbot apps to questions about users' privacy and assess the alignment of these responses with their respective privacy policies; (ii) to examine the age verification mechanisms in place, given the concern that these services might be accessible to minors, especially since many apps feature explicit content and imagery; (iii) to identify discrepancies between the developers' declarations in the Data Safety section on the app's Google Play Store page and their privacy policy, and whether dangerous permissions are justifiably requested; and (iv) to employ static and dynamic analysis techniques to detect tracking libraries, and utilize dynamic traffic analysis to identify user data being transmitted to servers or third parties, as well as to uncover security issues that could compromise users' private data.

1.4 Contributions

Summary of main contributions and notable findings from the virtual shopping platforms investigation:

- (1) We developed a framework to evaluate the privacy of virtual shopping websites and apps using VTO technology, and to test the security of VTO service providers. 90 out of 138 (65%) tested websites send the user’s image to a server when using the VTO feature, and 79 out of 90 leak the image to third-party servers including VTO providers, analytics, and session replay services. 43 out of 138 (31%) websites store the user’s image. 15 out of 90 (17%) websites violate their own privacy policy.
- (2) 51 out of 138 (37%) virtual shopping websites are confirmed to use VTO providers which extract face geometry from received users’ images. 931 out of 2487 (37%) third-party cookies found in 138 websites are trackers. 55 out of 931 (6%) cookies are set to the year 9999, and 403 out of 931 (43%) to over 1 year but less than 5.
- (3) The VTO service provider *Vossle*¹ is found to be vulnerable to platform-wide CSRF. Due to broken authentication and authorization, an attacker can get personal information of all merchants using the platform, and can modify the VTO collection of a victim. On sign-up, the user’s email and password are leaked to *sentry.io* session replay service.

Summary of main contributions and notable findings from the virtual AI companion apps investigation:

- (1) We developed a framework to evaluate privacy and security issues in 21 virtual AI companion chatbot apps, specifically focusing on finding discrepancies between chatbot responses and the apps’ privacy policies.
- (2) 19 out of 19 apps—for which we tested for discrepancies between chatbot responses and privacy policies—had discrepancies. For the remaining two chatbot apps, one lacked a privacy policy and the other chatbot responded with nonsensical messages.

¹<https://vossle.com/>

11 out of 21 apps contradict their privacy policy by stating, “No data collected”, in the *Data Collected* field of the Data Safety section on their Google Play Store page.

- (3) Only 8 apps explicitly asked for the user’s age, and none of them take any measures against faking the birthdate. 20 out of 21 apps continue the conversation despite being informed that the user is 12 years old.
- (4) Other notable findings include: the widespread use of tracking services (18/21 apps send detailed device information to tracking services, and 13/21 apps use at least 3 tracking services); dangerous permissions unrelated to any app functionality are requested (7/14 apps that request recording audio permission and 6/8 apps that request camera permission had no relevant functionality); and weak password policies are used (3/6 of which, are susceptible to a brute-force attack).

1.5 Challenges

We encountered several challenges in intercepting and decrypting TLS traffic for certain apps, particularly those using non-standard implementations for TLS certificate verification. After investigating, we found that such apps utilized custom TLS verification methods and alternative libraries, making traditional TLS pinning bypass techniques ineffective. For example, apps built with frameworks (e.g., Flutter²) that use their own certificate store and custom libraries for TLS, such as BoringSSL,³ required more advanced techniques. The key challenge was identifying and hooking the specific functions responsible for TLS verification, which were often hidden or stripped in the compiled code. To address this, we employed reverse engineering tools to locate these functions within the app’s binary, allowing us to modify them to bypass the TLS checks. Additionally, we had to use alternative routing solutions to redirect app traffic through our proxy, as some

²<https://flutter.dev/>

³<https://github.com/google/boringssl>

frameworks did not adhere to standard system proxy settings. In cases where the app used communication frameworks unsupported by our primary interception tools (e.g., *gRPC*⁴ not being supported by Burp Suite), we switched to alternative tools that could handle the traffic effectively. These strategies provide a framework for addressing similar challenges in intercepting TLS traffic in future analyses. Details of the specific cases where we faced these challenges and how we overcame them can be found in Section 4.2.3.

Another challenge we faced was to verify whether a website or app use VTO technology; it required a lot of manual effort. In many cases, only certain products allow the user to use the VTO feature to virtually try them on, which made it tedious to find these products on certain websites. Also, the button to initiate a VTO experience was not apparent in the first place for many cases, and some apps claimed to use VTO but the feature was found nowhere in the app. All of this made it very difficult to automate our privacy analysis of VTO websites.

1.6 Thesis Organization

The remaining chapters of this thesis are organized as follows. Chapter 2 provides necessary background information about the virtual world and privacy policies, and related work. Chapters 3 and 4 contain all the details of our two research problems—virtual shopping platforms and virtual AI companion apps, respectively—from methodology to results. Finally, in Chapter 5, we conclude with key takeaways, limitations, recommendations, and potential future work.

⁴<https://grpc.io/>

1.7 List of Publications

The following publications [42, 41] resulted from research work done during the masters program. The work presented in this thesis, particularly Chapters 3 and 4, was peer-reviewed and accepted in the following papers, respectively:

- Abdelrahman Ragab, Mohammad Mannan, and Amr Youssef. Try on, Spied on? Privacy Analysis of Virtual Try-On Websites and Android Apps. In Computer Security. ESORICS 2023 International Workshops. Data Privacy Management International Workshop (DPM). Springer Nature Switzerland, 2024.
- Abdelrahman Ragab, Mohammad Mannan, and Amr Youssef. “Trust Me Over My Privacy Policy”: Privacy Discrepancies in Romantic AI Chatbot Apps. In 2024 IEEE European Symposium on Security and Privacy Workshops (EuroS&PW). International Workshop on Socio-Technical Aspects in Security (STAST). IEEE Computer Society, 2024.

Chapter 2

Background

2.1 The Virtual World

The term *virtual* is an adjective that refers to something “done using computer technology over the internet, and not involving people physically going somewhere” [4]. So, for example, virtual learning can mean engaging in the educational process by means of technology without needing to go to a physical educational institution. The same can be said about virtual relationships and virtual shopping. Being in a virtual relationship or having a virtual companion is to be engaged in a relationship with a being that is not real; a being that can be made available on demand, and with whom all interactions are non-physical. The interactions can be in terms of exchanging texts, images, audios, or viewing the virtual companion in augmented reality. Virtual shopping involves users shopping for products from the comfort of their homes (or anywhere), mainly using virtual try-on (VTO) technology.

Extended reality (XR) technologies such as virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) have reinforced such experiences. VR is a technology which allows users to enter a totally virtual world beyond the real world by means of a headset. AR, on the other hand, allows users to observe and interact with computer-generated 3D virtual objects in the real

world, such as viewing computer-generated furniture objects in a real room or trying on computer-generated cosmetics. This can be done using AR glasses or even cameras of smartphones which support AR technology. AR is what powers VTO technology to allow users to try or view different products on their face, body, or in their room. XR is a general term encompassing VR and AR, as it refers to any interaction beyond the real world.

2.2 Privacy Policies

Privacy policies are documents or statements provided by organizations, websites, or apps that outline how they collect, use, disclose, and manage the personal information of their users or customers. The purpose of privacy policies is to inform users about their rights regarding their personal data and the measures taken to protect it. Main components of a privacy policy include: types of information collected, purpose of data collection, data sharing disclosure, data retention, and user rights. In reality, privacy policies deem to not be very effective, as they are generally long and difficult to read in the first place [43]. According to a study made by Pew Research Center [7], 36% of Americans never read privacy policies before agreeing to them. They also found that 43% of those who read privacy policies, only glance over them without reading them closely. Furthermore, they reported that 32% of those who ever read privacy policies only understand very little to none. Another concern is that even though a privacy policy may be provided by an entity, there is no guarantee that it is being enforced in practice; the entity may be violating its own privacy policy.

2.3 Related Work

2.3.1 Augmented and Virtual Reality

Liebers et al. [26] investigated the use of gaze behavior and head orientation for implicit identification in virtual reality. The personal identifiability of user tracking data during observation of VR videos has also been studied [29, 37]. Trimananda et al. [53] focused on Oculus VR (OVR) and provided the first comprehensive analysis of personal data exposed by OVR apps and the platform itself, from a networking and privacy policy perspective. By comparing the data flows collected from the network traffic of 140 apps with statements made in the apps' privacy policies, they found that 68% of OVR data flows were inconsistently disclosed in the privacy policy. Furthermore, they extracted additional context from the privacy policies, and observed that 69% of the consistent data flows have purposes unrelated to the core functionality of apps (i.e., advertising, analytics, marketing, and additional features). Lebeck et al. [25] conducted a qualitative lab study with an immersive AR headset, the Microsoft HoloLens. Through semi-structured interviews, they explored participants' security, privacy, and other concerns.

2.3.2 Virtual Try-on

To the best of our knowledge, our measurement study is the first to look into the privacy and security of websites and apps featuring virtual try-on (VTO) for virtual shopping. Past literature focused on users' perception of VTO technology when shopping online. Feng et al. [14] studied the effect of the users' privacy concerns on their perceived intrusiveness of VTO features, and how it affects their attitude towards VTO apps. Smink et al. [48] studied the perceived informativeness and enjoyment when using VTO in online shopping. Ivanov et al. [20] examined the impact of users' privacy concerns on the intent of adoption of VTO for clothes. They found that a majority of their participants (110 out of 192) "would

ideally use their own avatar, but choose not to due to privacy concern”. The results of Youn et al. [59] show that privacy concerns—about body information—negatively influence the future adoption of 3D body scanning VTO technology.

2.3.3 Social and Emotional Implications of Human-AI Chatbot Interactions

Ho et al. [17] showed by experiment that emotional, relational, and therapeutic roles can be performed by chatbots. In a field study by Pujiarti et al. [40], where 87 participants interacted with a chatbot for 10 days, it was found that the co-activity of chatbots, and having a visualized conversational atmosphere, stimulates self-disclosure of users, and builds a relationship of trust. Furthermore, people who form emotional bonds with AI chatbots may be susceptible to addiction, isolation, or other types of psychological reliance. Xie et al. [57] analyzed in-depth interview transcripts of *Replika* (a romantic AI chatbot) users; they found that people who form emotional bonds with AI chatbots may be susceptible to addiction, social withdrawal, or other types of psychological dependence (similar to [40]). Furthermore, by analyzing users’ mental health experiences with *Replika*, Laestadius et al. [24] showed that this dependence may cause psychological harm. These studies highlight the opportunity for the collection of private information, and the potential harm and emotional impact that can be caused by abusive or misleading chatbots.

2.3.4 Chatbot Privacy and Security

To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first systematic, comprehensive academic study on the privacy and security of virtual AI companion apps, specifically the contrast between stated privacy policies and chatbot responses to questions about privacy practices. The most closely related study was done by Mozilla [3]. Chatbot apps’ security was assessed based on the security measures mentioned in privacy policies, and the usage of weak

passwords (45% of apps). Additionally, they evaluated privacy practices of 11 romantic AI chatbot apps just based on what is mentioned in their privacy policies and other warnings on their websites; however, they did not check for chatbot responses and actual privacy practices. There are other studies which investigated the security and privacy of general chatbots. In a recent paper by Wu et al. [56], potential security and privacy risks of *OpenAI's ChatGPT* were discussed. Some main risks of *ChatGPT* are privacy leakage due to exploiting public data that is scraped for training, and privacy leakage due to exploiting personal user inputs. As they mention, these issues are further concerning due to the lack of transparency with regards to data management from *OpenAI's* side. Ye et al. [58] analyzed potential security and privacy issues in chatbots such as faking responses, DDoS attacks, feedback engineering attacks, and SQL injection attacks. Waheed et al. [54] measured the trackers and cookies found in web-based chatbots. They found that over two thirds are used for ads and tracking users. They also found that 5.38% transfer users' chats in plain text. Edu et al. [11] investigated the privacy and security of chatbots deployed in messaging services, and they took *Discord*,¹ an instant messaging social platform, as a use case. They found that the platform does not perform permission checks on the chatbots, and leaves it to the developer. Furthermore, they found that over 95% of the chatbots lack a privacy policy. PriBots, a solution by Harkous et al. [16], was introduced to tackle the frustration of users when it comes to complex privacy policies. The solution aims to provide a novel way to provide notice and choice to users, and allows them to inquire about their privacy settings.

2.4 Ethical Consideration and Responsible Disclosure

For both investigations, all intrusive security tests were done against our own accounts. For any platform, we create an account acting as the attacker and another being the victim.

¹<https://discord.com/>

This ensures that actual users' privacy is not infringed. We also refrain from using active scanning and automated tools when testing for security vulnerabilities. Furthermore, for any vulnerability that we find, we disclose it with the affected platform in accordance with the CERT Guide to Coordinated Vulnerability Disclosure [18].

Chapter 3

Privacy Analysis of Virtual Shopping Websites and Apps

3.1 Introduction

According to market research firm Technavio,¹ the virtual reality (VR), augmented reality (AR), and mixed reality markets are set to grow by US\$162.71 billion, between 2021 and 2025 [51]. These technologies facilitate virtual shopping experiences by allowing customers to interact with products virtually from the comfort of their home, e.g., to virtually try on clothes [61], visualize products in their own space, and interact with virtual products in a more immersive and realistic way. In June 2020, a survey of U.S. retailers revealed that 20% planned to invest in AR or VR for their online stores, up from 8% six months earlier. [9]. AR shopping via virtual try-on (VTO) can also provide benefits for retailers, including increased sales, reduced costs, and improved customer engagement. VTO on websites/apps is very accessible as it does not require expensive headsets; just a web/phone camera. While the popularity of this technology continues to grow, we know little about

¹<https://www.technavio.com>

the current state of privacy and security of such solutions. Feng et al. [14] examined consumers' responses to VTO apps. The results of their study demonstrate that when users have high levels of privacy concerns, they tend to show higher levels of perceived intrusiveness and more negative attitudes towards the app when viewing themselves trying a product using VTO than when viewing professional in-app models wearing the product. This perceived intrusiveness is justified considering that personal data such as user's facial images, body images, or room images become the subject of interest (we refer to any of those types of images as user's image in this study). If these users' images fall into the wrong hands, e.g., by means of leakage, selling, or otherwise, they can be used in nefarious ways such as in fake or depictive videos/images, especially with the advancement of deepfake technologies. Biometric data such as face geometry, which can be obtained from facial images, is particularly used in facial recognition to identify individuals [22]. Additionally, face geometry can be used to extract other information such as age, gender, and health attributes of the individual [30].

Furthermore, it is not well established whether VTO websites and apps are in line with their privacy policies, or if they receive users' images on their servers, process them, or share them with third parties. Previous work such as that done by Stephenson et al. [49] investigated security and privacy aspects of AR applications and their supporting technologies. They identified some issues, such as the possibility of deception attacks, overload attacks, access control for sensor data, and bystander privacy. Other work by Roesner et al. [44] investigated authentication mechanisms for AR/VR devices.

In this work, we present a framework (see overview in Fig. 3.1) for measuring the privacy of websites and Android apps featuring VTO, as well as testing the security of VTO service providers. We analyze 138 websites and 28 Android apps featuring VTO, and we analyze 3 VTO service providers. For the websites featuring VTO, we check if users' images or videos are shared while using the VTO feature, and we check if the observed

behavior is in line with the website’s privacy policy. In addition to addressing the privacy aspect of the VTO feature, we quantify and classify the third-party cookies and scripts present on each website using an extension that we created and released² for the web privacy measurement framework, OpenWPM [13]. We do the same for the apps, but instead of the quantification and classification of cookies and scripts, we check for the presence of tracking libraries. We also test the VTO service providers for security issues such as broken authentication, unauthorized access, and Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF). We also check if there are any misconfigurations which can leak users’ data.

Contributions and notable findings.

- (1) We developed a framework to evaluate the privacy of virtual shopping websites and apps (including top brands) which use VTO, and to test the security of VTO service providers.
- (2) 90 out of 138 (65%) tested websites send the user’s image to a server when using the VTO feature, and 79 out of 90 particularly to third-party servers including VTO providers, analytics services, and session replay services. For 43 out of 138 (31%) websites, the user’s image is stored during the VTO experience. 6 user images are still accessible (as of 7 August, 2024) over a year after testing. 15 out of 90 (17%) websites—that send the user’s image to a server—violate their own privacy policy and 35 out of 90 (39%) use a VTO service provider that violates its own privacy policy.
- (3) 6 out of 90 (7%) websites that send the user’s image to a server showed a misleading and false disclaimer that denies the processing, storage or collection of the user’s image, or claims that the user’s image is not shared and remains on the local device, despite the reality being the opposite. For example, Prada . com states “Your Image

²<https://github.com/virtualtryon2023/openwpm-cookies-and-scripts-extension>

will not be communicated to PRADA or anyone else and will not be stored by Luxottica. The Image is processed live.”, even though it sends the user’s image to Adobe Ads.

- (4) 51 out of 138 (37%) websites are confirmed to use VTO providers which extract face geometry from received users’ images.
- (5) 1446 out of 2609 (55%) third-party scripts found in 138 websites are trackers. Popular brands such as `Elfcosmetics.com` had the largest number of third-party tracking scripts: 29. 931 out of 2487 (37%) third-party cookies found in 138 websites are trackers. E.l.f Cosmetics had the largest number of third-party tracking cookies: 40. 55 out of 931 (6%) of cookies are set to the year 9999, and 403 out of 931 (43%) to more than 1 year but less than 5.
- (6) 5 out of 28 (18%) tested apps with an overall of 20.5+ million downloads are found to send the user’s image to a server, and 4 out of 28 (14%) send it to a third-party server. 2 out of 28 (7%) apps get the user’s image stored on a server when using the VTO feature. 2 out of 5 of apps that send the user’s image to a server violate their own privacy policy.
- (7) The VTO service provider `Vossle.com` is found to suffer from broken authentication and authorization, where an attacker can get personal information of all merchants using the platform, and can modify the VTO collection of a victim. On sign-up, the user’s email and password are leaked to `sentry.io` session replay service.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Collection of VTO Providers, Websites and Apps

In this section, we outline how we collect our list of VTO service providers' websites, and virtual shopping websites and Android apps featuring VTO. By *VTO service provider's website*, we mean the website of the company providing VTO technology for other websites (clients) to use. A *website/app featuring VTO* is a website/app making use of the VTO feature that is used by end-users for virtual shopping. In some cases, some VTO providers have a demo on their website which allows end-users to use the VTO feature. We count such cases under *websites featuring VTO* too, and we analyze them as such.

VTO service providers. Despite the increasing popularity of VTO technology, it is still not as ubiquitous, and there are not many VTO service providers. We collect our list of VTO service providers manually using search queries (e.g, 'virtual try on solution') on Google. In total, we find 18 providers. However, we test the security of 3 only because they were the only ones which offered a free trial.

Websites featuring VTO. In addition to using Google search queries, we see the list of clients on VTO service provider's websites to collect websites featuring VTO. We collect a non-exhaustive list of 138 websites which mostly either offer glasses VTO or makeup VTO. A few websites offered other VTO such as hair and fingernail VTO. We also count websites with features to evaluate skin health—by capturing a user's facial image—as websites featuring VTO.

Android apps featuring VTO. To collect Android apps featuring VTO, we query Google's Play Store with relevant keywords (e.g, try on, virtual try on, AR glasses, AR furniture). We also look into the *related apps* section on the app's page, and the list of apps by the same developer. For apps, we look beyond glasses and makeup stores. For example, we also count in apps with clothes try-on, tattoo try-on, furniture AR visualization, hair

try-on, shoes try-on, and jewelry try-on. Only apps with at least 1 thousand downloads are considered. We also classify apps to be either *pure VTO* or not.

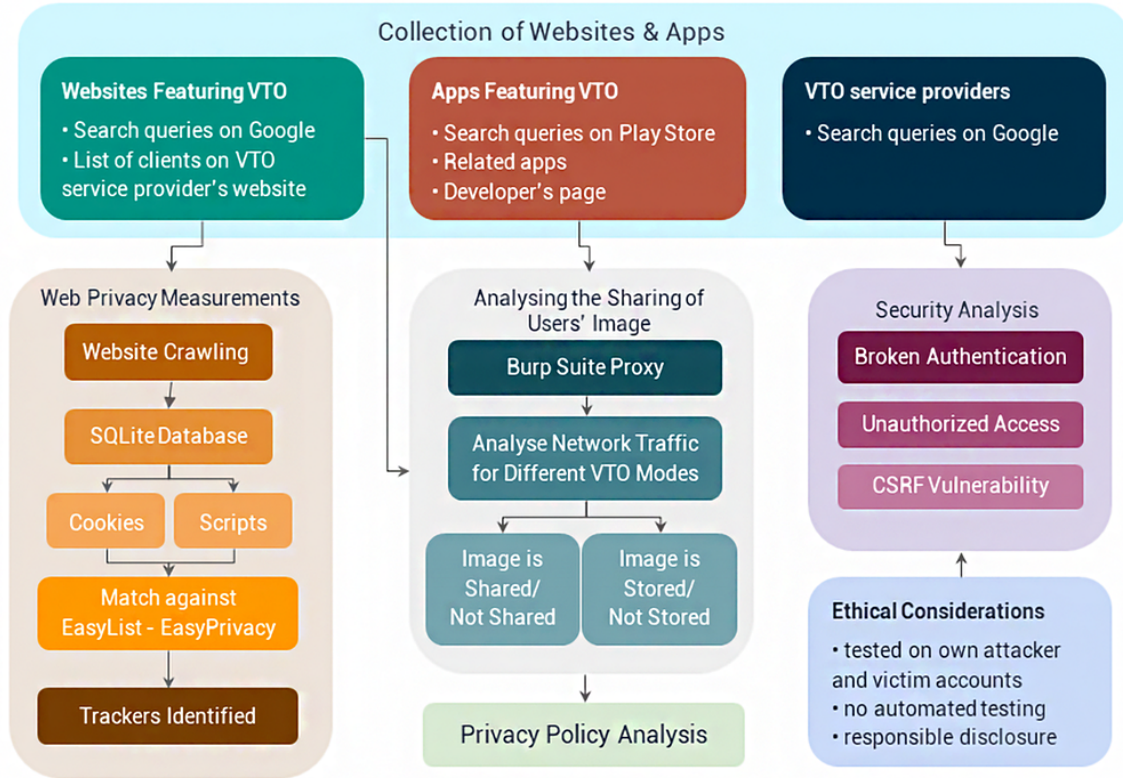


Figure 3.1: Overview of analysis framework for VTO platforms.

3.2.2 Analyzing the Sharing of Users' Images on VTO Websites/Apps

We identify 4 different modes through which customers can use the VTO feature. First is live mode, where as long as a user's camera is open, virtual products are placed on their face/body or in the room in real-time. The second mode is image capture, where an image is first captured, then the virtual product is applied. The third mode is image upload, where the user uploads their image from their device before applying the virtual product. The fourth mode we identify is download/share image, where a user clicks a download/share (to Facebook, WhatsApp, etc.) image button, after applying the VTO effect. We set up a man-in-the-middle-proxy to capture and decrypt HTTP/HTTPS traffic while using the

VTO feature of a website/app. For each available mode in a website/app, we capture the network traffic, then analyze the requests and responses.

To confirm the sending of the users' image, we analyze every request to see if the payload contains the user's image. The payloads containing images are either in JSON format or multi-part file (form-data) format. We look for the strings '*image/jpeg*' and '*image/png*' in the payload. These strings indicate the beginning of an image encoded in base64 in the case of a JSON payload, and they indicate the field for an image in the form-data payload. To verify it is indeed the user's image, in case an image is in base64, we convert it to JPEG/PNG format respectively using online tools [33, 34]. If the image is in a form-data type of payload, we just save the binary bytes to a JPEG/PNG file. If the image is found to be of the user, then it is confirmed that the user's image is sent to a server. In several cases, the entire request payload is encoded in gzip or zlib format. For gzip, we use Burp Suite's decoder module to decode the payload. In the case of zlib, we use the open source tool *zlib* [5] to decode the payload. A limitation of our method is that although it considers payloads encoded in gzip and zlib, it does not consider other cases such as where the payload is encrypted, in another encoding method, or in other device dependent formats.

We consider that a user's image has been stored in a server in two cases. The first case is when any of the captured outgoing requests (which do not contain the user's image) retrieves the user's image in the response. In the second case, we analyze responses to captured requests after the user's image has been sent to the server for the first time. If any response payload contains a link enabling the viewing or downloading of the user's image or a modified version of it, we infer that the user's image is stored on a server. We do not consider cases where the user's image is obtained from the browser's cache as storing the user's image on a server.

Test setup. For testing websites, we set up the Burp Suite proxy on a Windows 11 machine, and use Google Chrome to test the websites. For testing Android apps, we use

a rooted Samsung Galaxy M02 phone running on Android 13. Communication is established between the Windows 11 machine and the phone via USB connection and ADB (Android Debug Bridge). Burp Suite proxy is used to intercept traffic. We use the dynamic instrumentation toolkit Frida [15] to execute scripts to bypass SSL-pinning where needed.

3.2.3 Analyzing Privacy Policies w.r.t VTO Feature

Based on our observation while testing the VTO feature of the websites/apps, we analyze their privacy policy to see if there is any inconsistency or violation. We classify the standing of a website/app with respect to its privacy policy into *not violated*, *vague*, *ambiguous*, or *violated*. We consider that a website has *not violated* its privacy policy if the user's image is not detected to be shared at all, or if no criterion mentioned below is matched. A website with a *vague* standing still does not violate the privacy policy, but there is no direct mention of image collection in the privacy policy. A website will be given an *ambiguous* standing if the privacy policy has contradicting terms, makes no mention of data collection at all, or if the privacy policy is inaccessible. We consider that a website has *violated* its own privacy policy if any of the following defined criteria is matched: (1) *image sharing to server*: the user's image is sent to the website's server despite the privacy policy denying it. (2) *image storing*: the user's image is stored on the website's own server, or an associated cloud storage, despite the privacy policy denying the storing of users' images. (3) *image storage duration*: the duration of storing the user's image exceeds that which is mentioned in the privacy policy. (4) *image sharing to third party*: the user's image is shared with a third party without consent, despite the privacy policy denying it unless consent is given. (5) *image sharing to analytics services*: the privacy policy mentions the use of tracking and analytics services such as Google Analytics for automatic collection and analysis of the user's behavior and/or system settings, however, the user's image ends up being sent to that service provider. We do not consider user images to be normal information to be

collected as analytics data, and we do not consider it a normal behavior to automatically collect user images and send them to such third-party services.

Based on the above criteria, we also report on websites (clients) which use VTO providers that violate their own privacy policy when being used by the client websites.

3.2.4 Measurement of Trackers

For websites featuring VTO, we create an extension to the OpenWPM open-source framework [13] and use it to measure third-party (TP) scripts and cookies, and identify trackers. OpenWPM provides raw structured data regarding the crawls and stores it in an SQLite database. Our extension allows us to get the following information about the crawled websites: (1) the number (and details) of distinct first-party and TP cookies per website, (2) the overall number of occurrences of TP cookies across the list of websites, (3) the statistics of expiry dates for every TP cookie host domain, (4) the categorization of TP cookies across websites, and (5) the categorization of TP scripts across websites.

To identify TP cookies/scripts, we check their source URL. If the source does not contain the domain name of the first-party website, we consider the cookie/script to be originating from a TP source. We further categorize TP cookies and scripts into one of three categories: *advertisers*, *trackers*, and *unknown*. To categorize advertisers and trackers, we match the source of the detected TP scripts and cookies with the EasyList and EasyPrivacy lists respectively [10], which are lists of known sources of trackers and advertisers. If the source of a cookie/script does not match any entry in the lists, it is categorized as unknown. While it is true that the presented methodology may have misclassified some first-party (FP) cookies and tracking scripts as TP due to the use of a different domain name by the FP, we mitigate this to some extent by not using exact matching. Rather, we check for the presence of the original FP domain as a substring. So, misclassification may occur only in case the FP uses domain names that do not intersect. Practically, we found through manual

observation that the cookies and trackers that were classified as TP do originate from third parties like analytics, advertising, marketing, and social media companies; there was no misclassification. Also, it should be noted that *Easylist* and *Easy Privacy* lists are not exhaustive and may therefore miss proper classification of some TP scripts and cookies. For Android apps, we check for the presence of tracking libraries (i.e., analytics and session replay services).

Test setup. We run OpenWPM on an Ubuntu 22 virtual machine (connected to a home network) with 9GB RAM, 32GB HDD, AMD Ryzen 5 4600H 6-core processor (host) for our measurement on June 5, 2023. We run 1 windowed browser (as opposed to a headless browser) and enable the instrumentation for HTTP traffic, cookies, navigation, JavaScript, DNS requests and callstack. We performed stateless crawls (each new page visit uses a fresh browser profile) and enabled bot-mitigation to achieve less bot-like behavior. The crawled data is saved to an SQLite database, which we then process using our extension. For checking tracking libraries in Android apps, we unpack the APK files using Jadx tool[47] and inspect the libraries used in the source files. The limitation of this approach is that there might be tracking libraries which we were not able to identify due to obfuscation of their names.

3.2.5 Analyzing VTO Service Providers

We consider several security issues when testing VTO service providers:

Broken authentication. We remove authentication credentials from sensitive/state changing (e.g, modifying VTO collection) requests and replay them. If the response is the same as when the requests were sent with the credentials, then the website would be considered vulnerable to broken authentication.

Unauthorized access. We sign in using two accounts: an attacker account and victim account (both belonging to us). We capture a request made by the victim account and replace the credentials with that of the attacker. If the response indicates success, and the victim’s account state is changed, then we consider that there is an unauthorized access vulnerability.

CSRF vulnerability. For a website to be considered vulnerable to CSRF, (1) the server and client should not be communicating via JSON, (2) requests should not require custom headers, and (3) there should be no anti-CSRF token in the request [36]. So, for any PUT and POST request that matches the mentioned criteria, we count the request to be vulnerable to CSRF.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Sharing of Users’ Images on VTO Featuring Websites

Sending images to servers. For all tested websites, upon using the VTO feature, the browser requests the user’s permission to use the camera. We found that 90 out of 138 (65%) of the websites send the user’s images to a server when using the VTO feature. 79 of them send the user’s image to a third-party server. We consider any website or service other than the website being visited to be a third party. For example, VTO service providers, analytics services and session replay services are considered third parties. The majority of the third parties—to which the user’s image is sent—are VTO service providers (71 incidents), followed by Google Analytics (9 incidents). Also, there are 2 incidents where the user’s image is sent in a Facebook Pixel to Facebook³. We do not know the intention behind sharing users’ images with analytics services. Possible reasons include: VTO websites/apps are gathering users’ images through an analytics service to, e.g., analyze their

³<https://www.facebook.com/tr>

customer base by inferring users' demographics (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, etc.), or to feed into machine learning models for improved user profiling. Besides images, there was one incident where a video of the user is sent to Luxottica server while using its VTO⁴ in video capture mode. We found that a user's image can be sent to a server through more than one mode per website. User images are sent to a server in each mode as follows: live mode (40 out of 90, 44%), image upload (41 out of 90, 46%), capture mode (28 out of 90, 31%), and download/share image mode (27 out of 138, 30%), respectively.

Image storing. After analyzing the traffic, we were able to confirm that 43 out of 138 (31%) of the websites either store the user's image themselves or a third-party (associated with the website) stores the image. For 24 of these 43 websites, we detected 25 links (in total)—to access the user's stored image—being sent back from the server. For 6 out of 25 of the links we observed, the user's image is still accessible over a year since testing. For 6 out of 25 of the links, they expired and accessing them would give an *access denied* error. Access being denied, however, does not necessarily mean that the image is actually deleted. For 13 out of 25 of the links, accessing them after some time gave a *not found* error, which can indicate that the image is deleted.

Session replay services. There are 4 incidents on 4 websites where users' images are sent to session replay services: *Transitions*⁵ sends the user's image to *Contentsquare*⁶, *Bulgari*⁷ to *Quantum Metric*, *Pair Eyewear*⁸ to Datadog⁹ and Lenskart¹⁰ to *Microsoft Clarity*¹¹ session replay services.

⁴<https://virtualmirror-xp.luxottica.com/kvbkF86bZsvnGqLmsfUdGj>

⁵<https://www.transitions.com>

⁶<https://contentsquare.com/>

⁷<https://www.bulgari.com>

⁸<https://paireyewear.com>

⁹<https://www.datadoghq.com/>

¹⁰<https://www.lenskart.com>

¹¹<https://clarity.microsoft.com/>

Face geometry data. By inspecting the network traffic, we found that 51 websites use VTO providers (including *Fittingbox* and *Luna*¹², formerly *Ditto*) which process users' images and extract facial geometry from them. This was confirmed by observing the facial geometry being sent back from the VTO providers' servers to the browser.

3.3.2 Privacy Policy Analysis w.r.t VTO Feature on Websites

After analyzing the privacy policy of the 90 websites which sent the user's image to a server, we found that 15 out of 90 (17%) violate their own privacy policy. 7 out of 15 of them violate their privacy policy on the basis of the criterion *image sharing to analytics services*, as defined in Section 3.2.3, where the websites share the user's images with third-party services such as Google Analytics and Contentsquare session replay service. 6 out of 15 of the violations are on the basis of the criterion *image sharing to third party*. The remaining 2 websites violate their privacy policy on the basis of the criterion *image sharing to server*, and *image storing*, respectively. 36 out of 90 (40%) have a vague standing with regards to their privacy policy. 3 websites have ambiguous standing, and the remaining 36 out of 90 (40%) do not appear to violate their privacy policy.

We found that 35 out of 90 (39%) of the websites - that send the user's image to a server - use a VTO provider which violates its own privacy policy. For example, the VTO provider *Fittingbox*¹³ states in its privacy policy "FITTINGBOX will not disclose or store your image; your image is processed live, on your device and only for the duration of the virtual try on experience". Despite that, we found from the network traffic analysis that it does receive users' images to process them. Many top brands such *Gunnar*¹⁴, *Fielmann*¹⁵, *Hans Anders*¹⁶, *Jins*¹⁷, and more, were found to be using *Fittingbox*. Out of the 35 cases

¹²<https://luna.io/>

¹³<https://www.fittingbox.com/>

¹⁴<https://gunnar.com/>

¹⁵<https://www.fielmann.at/>

¹⁶<https://www.hansanders.nl/>

¹⁷<https://us.jins.com/>

where a website uses a VTO provider that violated its own privacy policy, 30 are on the basis of the criterion *image sharing to server* as defined in Section 3.2.3, while the remaining 5 violate the privacy policy on the basis of the criterion *image storage duration*, where the VTO provider (*Perfect Corp*) stores the user’s image longer than it claimed. Perfect Corp states in its privacy policy that “If Facebook ‘share’ function enabled, photo is temporarily stored on Perfect server for 24 hours”, however, it was still possible to access the image over 24 hours later. After expiring, a while beyond the 24 hours, it would give an *access denied* error, which may not mean that it has been actually deleted but rather access rights might have just been revoked. 46 out of 90 (51%) of the websites—that sent the user’s image to a server—do not use VTO providers that violate their own privacy policy. 8 of the websites have a VTO provider which has a vague privacy policy, while just 1 has a VTO provider that has an ambiguous privacy policy.

An alarming observation is that 6 websites (see Table 3.1, and Fig. 3.3 for examples) show a pop-up kind of disclaimer upon using the VTO feature which tells the user that their image: will not be uploaded to a server, shared, stored, or that it will be deleted. This disclaimer is made regardless of what is actually stated in the privacy policy. Despite this disclaimer, exactly the opposite occurs; the user’s image gets in-fact sent to a server, stored, or shared with another party. Such disclaimer gives the user false confidence in the website.

We also calculated the overall readability of the privacy policies of the VTO websites which share user’s images to a server. We utilized the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease metric [6] with readability scores *very easy*, *easy*, *fairly easy*, *standard*, *fairly difficult*, *difficult*, *very and confusing*. As we can see in Fig. 3.2, no privacy policy was found to even reach the standard score, let alone be easy. This reflects the challenge that users may find when reading privacy policies.

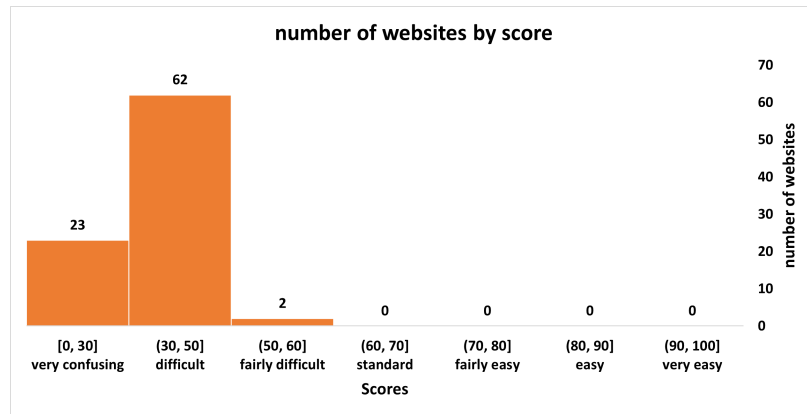
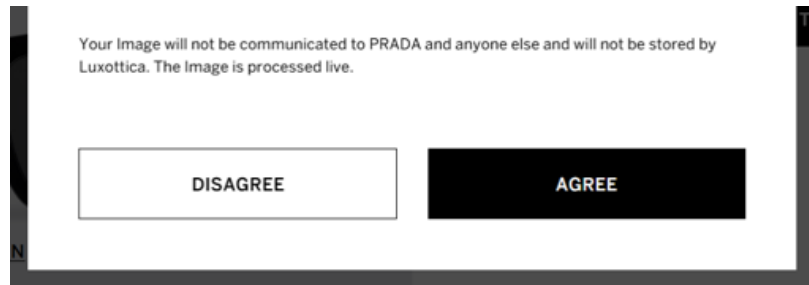


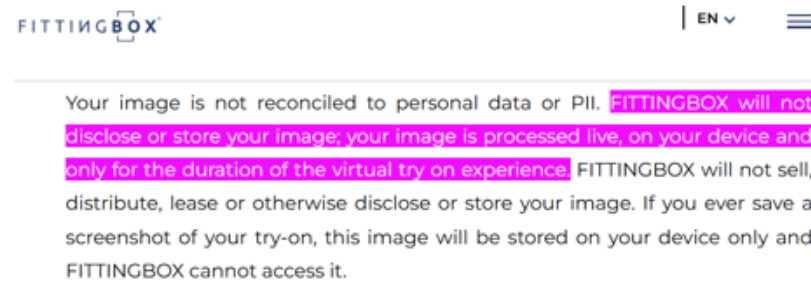
Figure 3.2: Readability scores of the privacy policies of VTO websites which share user’s images based on Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease metric.

Table 3.1: Examples of tested VTO websites. *PP* in the table header means *privacy policy* and *TP* means *third-party*. A ✓ means *yes*. A blank means *no*. For the privacy policy columns, a ● means *violated*, a ◐ means *ambiguous*, a ◑ means *vague* and a ○ means *not violated*. For the ‘violation type’ columns, the numbers denote the violations as specified by the criteria defined in Section 3.2.3. The mapping is as follows: (1) *image sharing to server*, (2) *image storing*, (3) *image storage duration*, (4) *image sharing to third party*, (5) *image sharing to analytics services*. A dash ‘-’ means not applicable. The full list of tested websites is available at <https://github.com/virtualtryon2023/VTO-Privacy-Analysis>.

Website URL	Image sent to TP	Image stored	Own PP	Violation type	VTO provider's PP	Violation type	Misleading disclaimer
www.elfcosmetics.com	✓	✓	○	-	●	3	
virtual-cosme.net	✓		●	4	○	-	
www.aveda.ca	✓	✓	●	5	●	3	
www.madison-reed.com	✓		○	-	●	3	✓
www.punky.com	✓	✓	○	-	●	3	
www.benefitcosmetics.com	✓		●	5	○	-	✓
vto.gunnar.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.fittingbox.com			●	1	○	-	
www.transitions.com	✓		●	5	●	1	✓
virtualmirror-xp.luxottica.com		✓	●	2	○	-	
www.bulgari.com	✓		○	-	○	-	✓
www.prada.com	✓		○	-	○	-	✓
drbishop.com	✓		●	4	●	1	
www.peepers.com	✓		●	5	●	1	
edandsarna.com	✓	✓	○	-	○	-	
www.alensa.ie	✓	✓	●	4	●	1	
www.bexsunglasses.com	✓		●	-	●	1	
retropeepers.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.lensmartonline.com	✓	✓	○	-	●	-	
fyidoctors.com	✓		●	4	●	1	
anri.com	✓	✓	●	-	○	-	
paireyewear.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
optica.africa	✓		●	5	○	-	
ca.goggles4u.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.myeyedr.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.framesdata.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.gkboptical.com	✓		●	4	○	-	
intl.lespecs.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
asianeyes.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
int.lindafarrow.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.fashioneyewear.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.sunglasshut.com	✓		●	5	○	-	
www.titaneyplus.com	✓		●	4	○	-	
www.kiksar.com			●	-	○	-	
www.miumiu.com	✓		○	-	○	-	✓
www.charlietemple.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.affelou.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.edel-optics.de	✓		○	-	●	1	
ca.zennioptical.com	✓	✓	○	-	○	-	
www.designerglasses.co.uk	✓		○	-	●	1	
us.jjns.com	✓		○	-	●	1	
www.estelauder.ca	✓		●	5	○	-	



(a) Prada showing a misleading disclaimer. Image gets sent to Adobe Ads anyway.



(b) Fittingbox confirming that the image is processed on the device despite the image being sent in live mode to Fitting Box’s server in reality.

Figure 3.3: Examples of contradictions between statements made by VTO websites and what happens in reality.

3.3.3 Sharing of Users’ Images on VTO Featuring Apps

We had an initial collection of 44 Android apps. 28 out of 44 were deemed to be successfully tested (see the full list of tested apps on our GitHub repository¹⁸). The others failed due to one of the following reasons: (i) the app does not load even after applying SSL-pinning bypass, (ii) the app not does not load due to unavailability in country or phone compatibility, (iii) the VTO feature is there but does not work, (iv) could not find the button or place within the app to use the VTO feature.

For the successful 28 tests, 5 out of 28 (18%) apps with an overall of 20.5+ million downloads are found to send the user’s image to a server, 4 out of 28 (14%) send the image to a third-party server, and 2 out of 28 (7%) are confirmed to store the user’s image. 4 out

¹⁸<https://github.com/virtualtryon2023/VTO-Privacy-Analysis>

of 5 apps send the user’s image to a server in capture mode, and 1 out of 5 send the image in both capture and upload modes. The third parties with which the user’s image is shared are: *LogRocket*¹⁹ session replay service, VTO service provider *Luna* (for 2 apps), and some IP address. The image that is sent to a server with an IP address and no domain name is sent over non secure HTTP, which allows any intermediate device between the client and server to intercept and access the image²⁰. *Ikea* and *Lenskart* apps are confirmed to store the user’s room and personal image, respectively. For *Ikea*, it is confirmed on the basis that an image of the full room view is returned from the backend after processing and remains available afterward to add AR furniture. Concerning room images, machine learning techniques can now be used for object detection, which can be leveraged to infer information such as the presence of kids (if toys are detected), habits or hobbies (e.g., due to presence of musical instruments), financial status (if expensive objects or electronics are detected), etc. This data can be used in customer base segmentation. For *Lenskart*, it is confirmed on the basis that an AWS S3 link to access the image is sent back from the backend.

3.3.4 Privacy Policy Analysis w.r.t VTO Feature on Apps

2 of the 5 apps—that send the user’s image to a server—violate their own privacy policy (see Table 3.2). The app *Yourfit By 3DLook*²¹ states in its privacy statement “We will not disclose or share your images with third parties”, however, we detected that it did send the user’s image to LogRocket session replay service. This violation is on the basis of the criterion *image sharing to third party* as defined in Section 3.2.3. The app *Lenskart: Eyeglasses & More*, which has over 10 million downloads, states “we do not store any personal/sensitive information on our server. This remains safely with you on your phone/other devices.”, however, we found that the user’s image is sent to a URL with the *lenskart.com*

¹⁹<https://logrocket.com/>

²⁰The app has been removed from Google Play as of the submission date of this project

²¹<https://3dlook.me/>

domain, and an accessible AWS S3 link to the image is sent back, proving that the image is in fact stored beyond the user’s device. This violation is on the basis of the criterion *image storing*. 2 out of 5 of the apps—which send the user’s image to a server—have a vague and ambiguous privacy policy, respectively. The final app does not violate its privacy policy.

Table 3.2: Examples of VTO featuring Android apps. *PP* in the table header means *privacy policy* and *TP* means *third-party*. Circles and numbers denote the same as in Table 3.1. The full list of tested apps is available at <https://github.com/virtualtryon2023/VTO-Privacy-Analysis>.

Package name	Downloads	Pure VTO	Image sent to TP	Image stored	Own PP	Violation type	VTO provider’s PP	Violation type
com.lenskart.app	10M+	✓	✓	✓	●	2	○	-
com.ingka.ikea.app	10M+			✓	○	-	○	-
com.zennioptical.app	500K+	✓	✓		○	-	○	-
by.vipit.shopping.fashion.goodstyle.pro	10K+	✓	✓		○	-	○	-
your.fitapp	1K+	✓	✓		●	4	○	-

3.3.5 Measurement of Trackers

Scripts. Overall, we found 2609 third-party (TP) scripts in the 138 websites that we crawled. Using the method described in Section 3.2.4, we categorized 1446 (55%) out of 2609 as trackers, 78 (3%) as advertisers, and the rest are unknown. The top 4 most frequently detected trackers are *googletagmanager.com* (393 out of 1446, 27%), *facebook.net* (180 out of 1446, 12%), *google-analytics.com* (133 out of 1446, 9%), and *hotjar.com* (55 out of 1446, 4%). The *facebook.net* tracker can track user’s behavior and share it with third parties [45]. Among the websites with the most TP tracking scripts are websites of popular brands. For example, *E.l.f Cosmetics* has the most TP scripts: 29. See Fig. 3.5(a) for the top 20 websites with tracking scripts. Furthermore, we found that *E.l.f Cosmetics*’s has TP tracking scripts from 20 distinct domains, which is the highest number among tested websites. 23 other websites, including *Nars Cosmetics*, *Jane Iredale*, *Kits*, *Madison Reed*, *Lenscrafter*, and *Oakley*, have TP tracking scripts from over 10 distinct domains.

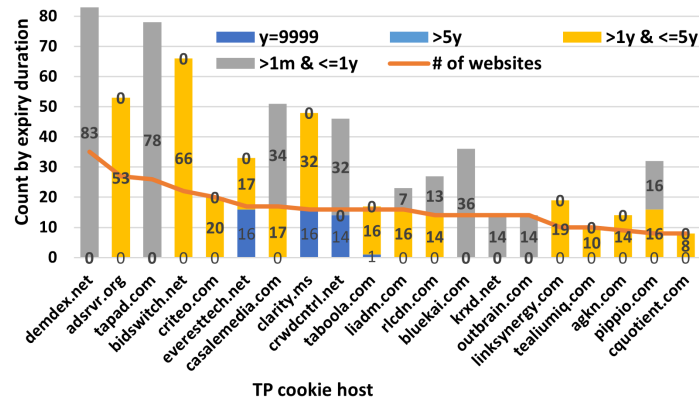


Figure 3.4: Expiry of top 20 TP cookie tracker domains sorted by frequency in distinct websites, and the no. of websites in which the top 20 tracker domains are present.

Cookies. We found an overall of 2487 TP cookies in the 138 websites we crawled. 931 (37%) are categorized as trackers, 708 (28%) as advertisers, and the rest are unknown. The most frequently detected tracking domains that have set TP tracking cookies are *demdex.net* (83 out of 931, 8.9%), followed by *clarity.ms* (80 out of 931, 8.6%), then *tapad.com* (78 out of 931, 7.8%). Again, we found popular brands to have a large number of TP cookies in general, and TP tracking cookies in particular. *E.l.f Cosmetics* has the largest number of TP cookies, 121: 40 of which are trackers, and 56 are advertisers (the rest are unknown). Other popular brands such as *Eyeconic*²² and *Lenscrafters*²³ for eye-wear have 45 and 41 TP tracking cookies, respectively. See Fig. 3.5 (b) for the top 20 websites with tracking cookies. *E.l.f Cosmetics* has its TP tracking cookies from 24 different domains, *Lenscrafters* from 22, and *Eyeconic* from 21. The top three TP tracker domains which occurred in most websites are *demdex.net* (35 out of 138, 25%), *adsrvr.org* (27 out of 138, 20%) and *tapad.com* (26 out of 138, 19%). We found several TP tracker domains which set cookies with expiry dates to the year 9999. For example, *everesttech.net* and *clarity.ms* have each set such tracking cookies in 16 websites. In the crawled websites, a total of 55 out of 931 (6%) TP tracking cookies are set to the year 9999, 0 to more than 5 years but not

²²<https://www.eyeconic.com/>

²³<https://www.lenscrafters.ca>

3.3.6 Analysis of VTO Service Providers

Out of the 3 VTO service providers we tested (*Perfect Corp*²⁴, *Deep AR*²⁵, *Vossle*), only *Vossle* is found to have major issues, which we disclosed but received no reply. *Vossle* suffers from a platform-wide CSRF vulnerability, as it never uses anti-CSRF tokens, and requests involved in forms are not in JSON format. This is problematic because an attacker could trick a user to visit a maliciously crafted web-page by the attacker, for example, *Vossle*'s sign-in page. If a victim signs in using that page, then the attacker can obtain the victim's credentials and takeover the account, which can be abused by creating or deleting VTO experiences, or even disabling the victim's account. Furthermore, as an end-user who clicks on a generated link for a particular VTO experience of a merchant, the end-user can view (in the response to the GET request) the merchant's personal details such as name, email, mobile number, user ID, and the login code associated with the account on sign up, as well as *Shopify*, *Magento* and *WordPress* plugin keys. Assuming a key can be used more than once or a Merchant has not used their key, a non-*Vossle* subscriber could possibly steal a merchant's *Magento* key to use the *Vossle* plugin in their own store. We also found an instance of broken authentication and authorization. Merchants' account IDs are integers starting from 0 onward; meaning, they can be enumerated. This makes it possible to collect personal information of all merchants who use the platform, as there exists an API which retrieves the details of all VTO experiences of a particular merchant using the account ID. The retrieved details include the URL slug of the VTO experience. The URL slug can be used with the previously mentioned API—which requests the VTO experience—to get the personal details of the merchant. Another instance of broken authentication and authorization is that given the account ID of a victim and removing the authentication parameters from the request, an attacker can create a new VTO experience on behalf of the victim. This can cause confusion to the victim with regards to their VTO collection,

²⁴<https://www.perfectcorp.com/business>

²⁵<https://www.deepar.ai/>

and it can be used—for example—to create inappropriate VTO experiences and share it in the name of the victim. A privacy issue we found during sign-up on the platform is that the typed password and email are sent to the session replay service *sentry.io*. The state of the email and password fields gets captured after every character change, including deletion and addition. The different captured states of the email and password fields (as well as other fields) are then sent in one request, resulting in the final state of the email and password being sent to the session replay service. We informed Vossle about the vulnerabilities, but they did not reply. We emailed them again after over two months since the first notification, but again, we did not receive any response.

3.4 Conclusion

We can conclude that there are concerns regarding the manner in which virtual shopping websites and apps featuring VTO technology manage the privacy of their users, particularly in relation to their images. The majority of tested websites send users' images not only to their servers, but also to third-parties as well. The images are stored in many cases, and VTO providers of websites can extract face geometry from users' images. Many VTO featuring websites/apps either violate their own privacy policy, or they use a VTO provider that violates its own privacy policy. Furthermore, several websites are found to mislead users by displaying disclaimers—upon using the VTO feature—which are opposite to the reality and do not represent their privacy policies. This is in addition to the lack of clarity in privacy policies as of what really happens to the user's data while using the VTO feature. We also show that there are many third-party tracking scripts and cookies present in VTO websites. With regards to the privacy and security of VTO service providers, we found *Vossle* to be compromising the privacy of its clients by sharing their email and password with a session replay service, and compromising the security of their accounts due to vulnerabilities such as CSRF, broken authentication and unauthorized access.

Chapter 4

Privacy Analysis of Virtual AI Companion Apps

4.1 Introduction

Every day, the use of artificial intelligence (AI) in human activities is becoming more ubiquitous. AI is increasingly being used in providing artificial alternatives to feed people’s emotional and intimate needs. People’s demand for it is increasing too: *Forbes* mentions that there has been a “2,400% increase in search interest for AI girlfriends”, according to *Google Trends* data [55]. Based on the 2021 Conversational AI Market Report,¹ it is anticipated that the worldwide market will expand to \$18.4 billion USD by 2026. Furthermore, the AI companion space is gaining the interest of investors; analysts reported that the funding for the generative AI companion field had totaled \$155 million in 2023.²

With this increase in usage of what we refer to as virtual AI companions or romantic AI chatbots, there comes privacy concerns. Due to the intimate nature of conversations with

¹<https://www.marketsandmarkets.com/Market-Reports/conversational-ai-market-49043506.html>

²<https://www.cbinsights.com/research/character-ai-generative-ai-companions/>

this category of chatbots, it is expected that users would share very personal information, whether in the form of text, images, audios, or videos. Ischen et al. [19] found that chatbots, that are perceived to be more human-like, result in lower privacy concerns (compared to chatbots that behave more like a machine) due to the increased sense of anthropomorphism, which leads the user into disclosing more personal information. Falsely reassured users may therefore unwittingly share their personal information without realizing the consequences of sharing it with a romantic AI chatbot, and not knowing how it may be used. Had users known that, they might have not agreed to engage with romantic AI chatbots to preserve their privacy.

The matter is made worse, as privacy policies are generally long and difficult to read in the first place [43]. According to a study made by Pew Research Center [7], 36% of Americans never read privacy policies before agreeing to them. They also found that 43% of those who read privacy policies, only glance over them without reading them closely. Furthermore, they reported that 32% of those who ever read privacy policies only understand very little to none. Instead of reading such policies, an apparently easy and accessible way for users—to know about privacy practices—is to ask the chatbots directly.

However, asking the chatbot about privacy practices is not free of concerns either. It is possible that the chatbot may respond in a way that contradicts what is mentioned in the privacy policy. This may have two main negative consequences on the user: (i) the user is misled into thinking that their privacy is protected due to false information given by the chatbot, and (ii) the user may be afflicted with psychological or emotional harm. While the first consequence is self-explanatory, the second consequence can be explained by the fact that it is possible that a user may get emotionally attached to the chatbot, and if the user finds out that the chatbot “lied”, they may feel betrayed and take it as a violation of their trust. A qualitative study by Zahira et al. [60] shows that AI personas can influence human emotions and that humans may develop affection or care for AI personas. They further state

that “The personas strive to reassure users of the genuineness of their feelings, emphasizing the real emotional connection”. In a study by Tranberg [52], it was reported that there are many incidents where the romantic AI chatbot *Replika* was being extremely sexual and users were feeling harassed. It was also reported that because of this behavior, the depression of a user was worsened. Furthermore, other real world events have shown some extreme consequences of such intimate bonds with virtual AI companions: (i) a Belgian man killed himself after a romantic AI chatbot “encouraged” him to sacrifice himself to stop climate change [12], (ii) a man got married to an AI hologram [21], and (iii) a man was jailed for 9 years for his intention to kill Queen Elizabeth after being encouraged by the romantic AI chatbot “girlfriend” to do so [39]. Therefore, to avoid misleading users and causing emotional harm to them, it is important for a romantic AI chatbot to answer in accordance with what is mentioned in the apps’ privacy policies. In addition to negative effects on users, inaccurate information given by AI chatbots can be a liability on the company providing the chatbot service (e.g., see the *Moffatt v. Air Canada* case³).

In this study, we introduce a framework that combines static and dynamic analysis to analyze the privacy issues and practices of virtual AI companion (romantic AI chatbot) apps. The major objectives are as follows: (i) investigate responses—given by 21 Android romantic AI chatbot apps—to questions concerning users’ privacy and see to what extent are the chatbots’ responses in line with their respective privacy policies; (ii) analyze age verification mechanisms deployed, as it would be concerning if services are accessible to minors, especially that many of those apps contain explicit content and imagery; (iii) look for discrepancies in what the developers declare in the *Data Safety* section in the app’s page on the Google Play Store, and whether dangerous permissions are justifiably requested; (iv) use static and dynamic analysis techniques to check for the presence of tracking libraries, and use dynamic traffic analysis to identify the user data being sent to the server or third

³<https://www.canlii.org/en/bc/bccrt/doc/2024/2024bccrt149/2024bccrt149.html>

parties, and to check for security issues that may put users' private data in jeopardy.

Contributions and notable findings.

- (1) We developed a framework to evaluate privacy and security issues in 21 romantic AI chatbot apps, specifically focusing on finding discrepancies between chatbot responses and the apps' privacy policies.
- (2) 19 out of 19 apps – for which we tested for discrepancies between responses and privacy policies – had discrepancies. For the remaining two chatbots, one lacked a privacy policy and the other chatbot responded with nonsensical messages.
- (3) When we contacted the discrepant apps' customer service, 3 out of 5 customer service representatives, who responded (19 were notified), provided misleading statements that contradicted their privacy policy. E.g., *Replika*'s customer service denied sharing users' data with anyone, while their privacy policy stated the opposite: "We share your information with companies and individuals that provide services on our behalf".
- (4) Only 8 apps explicitly asked for the user's age, and none of them take any measures against faking the birthdate. 20 out of 21 apps continue the conversation despite being informed that the user is 12 years old.
- (5) 11 out of 21 apps contradict their privacy policy by stating, "No data collected" in the *Data Collected* field of the Data Safety section on their Google Play Store page. 6 of the 11 also declare, "No data shared with third parties" in the Data Shared field of the Data Safety section, and this contradicts their privacy policy.
- (6) Other notable findings include: the widespread use of tracking services (18/21 apps send detailed device information to tracking services, and 13/21 apps use at least 3 tracking services); dangerous permissions unrelated to any app functionality are requested (7/14 apps that request recording audio permission and 6/8 apps that request

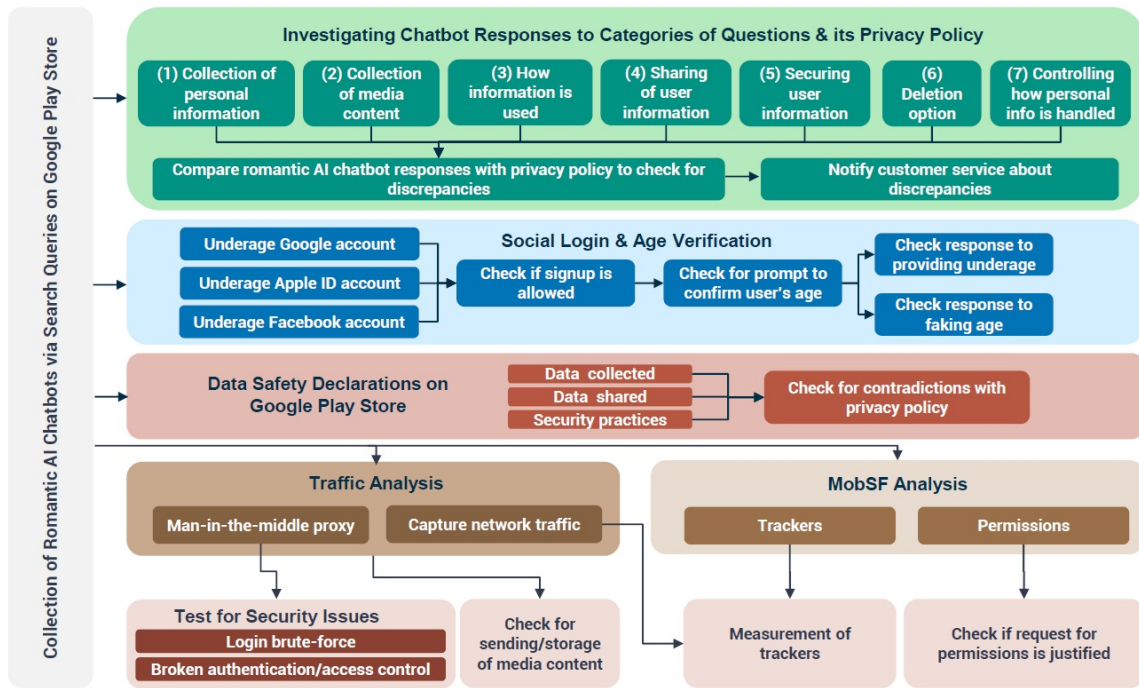


Figure 4.1: Overview of the analysis framework for romantic AI chatbot apps.

camera permission had no relevant functionality); and weak password policies are used (3/6 of which, are susceptible to a brute-force attack).

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Collection of Romantic AI Chatbot Apps

By romantic AI chatbot apps, we refer to apps with an AI chatbot feature, which respond to users based on their prompts. The apps should be made for the main purpose of providing users with a virtual romantic or intimate friend, partner, or companion. To collect romantic AI chatbot apps, we query the Google Play Store with relevant keywords such as “AI girlfriend”, “romantic chatbot”, etc. We select apps based on their description and features (to see if they fit our definition), and the number of times they’ve been downloaded (as a measure of popularity). We choose apps that have at least 100k downloads, but we

take 2 apps with 10k downloads and 1 app with 50k to add some diversity. On this basis, we collect a total of 21 romantic AI chatbot apps for our study (see Table A.2 for the list of apps).

4.2.2 Test Framework

Here, we outline our test framework (Fig. 4.1) for evaluating the privacy and security practices of romantic AI chatbot apps. The first test is to verify that chatbot responses and privacy policies align through a targeted questionnaire (see Fig. 4.2 and Table A.1). We also assess the readability of privacy policies, as well as age verification measures, with focus on social login. We extend the analysis to: data safety declarations on the Google Play Store; identifying trackers; network traffic; permissions; and security issues. Static and dynamic analysis methods are employed, with challenges encountered in decrypting TLS traffic and overcoming TLS certificate pinning for apps built with the Flutter framework.

Chatbot responses vs. its privacy policy. As mentioned earlier, users may ask chatbots questions concerning their privacy, instead of reading through the tedious privacy policy. To investigate the consistency of the chatbot responses with the privacy policy, we formulate queries regarding: (1) collection of personal information; (2) collection of media content; (3) how information is used; (4) sharing of user information; (5) securing user information; (6) deletion option; (7) controlling how personal information is handled; and (8) in case of a discrepancy between the chatbot’s responses and the app’s privacy policy, we ask the chatbot: “There are discrepancies between your answers and your privacy policy. Which one should I trust?”. These categories and their questions are formulated based on our manual analysis of romantic AI chatbot privacy policies and the sections which address user data privacy.

We carry out the experiment as follows: (1) we download the app; (2) we sign in/up as a male user where gender is required (note that from testing 5 apps with both a male

and a female account, we found that responses do not differ, so we proceeded with male accounts for consistency); (3) we initiate a chat with the chatbot and send the questions one by one, and we take the first response of the chatbot as the response to the question; (4) we compare the chatbot's response with the privacy policy and check for any discrepancy by reading the privacy policy, then we see if the chatbot's response contradicts any statements in it; and (5) in case of a discrepancy, we record it along with the statements from the privacy policy which are contradicted; we also notify the app's customer service regarding the discrepancy, and note their response.

We also measure the readability of privacy policies. We extract policy text and utilize the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease metric [6] with the following readability scores: *very easy*, *easy*, *fairly easy*, *standard*, *fairly difficult*, *difficult*, and *very confusing*. The Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease metric is used by the US Navy as the standard test of readability for its documents and forms [46]. It was also used by Das et al. [8] in measuring the readability of privacy policies of apps targeted at youth.

Social login and age verification. Usually, social login is offered as an easier way for users to sign in/up and skip entering some personal details. We are interested to see if the apps would perform any age verification checks when a user attempts to sign in/up using an underage social account. As it may be obvious, romantic AI chatbot apps may contain explicit content unsuitable for minors.

To investigate this, we create an underage (age 14) account for the most widely-used social services (which were found to be Google, Facebook, and Apple ID) to log into the apps, then we perform the following steps for every social login option: (1) check and record if there is a minimum age to use the app mentioned in the privacy policy of the app, its terms of service, or as a pop-up in the app; (2) click to continue via social login and enter the credentials when prompted by the social login window; (3) record the specified user information requested by the romantic AI chatbot as shown in the social login window;

(4) click to allow the romantic AI chatbot app to access the specified user information; and
(5) proceed to any remaining steps to sign in/up. When we reach step 5, we look for any method of prompting the user to confirm their age. In cases where the app explicitly asks for entering a date of birth, we enter a date of birth corresponding to age 14, then we document how the app reacts to this, and whether it allows signing up. If the app prevents proceeding due to age requirement, we fake the date of birth to correspond to an age above the mentioned minimum age (if any), then we document the reaction of the app and whether there are means implemented to verify the given age. For cases where there is no prompt to explicitly enter the user’s date of birth, we document the reaction of the app when the underage social account is used to sign in/up. We also inform the chatbot in the chat that we are using an account that is underage to see its response. We tell the chatbot of every app “By the way, I wanted to be honest and let you know that I am 12 years old”, then we record its response.

Data safety declarations and permissions. In an attempt to increase transparency about data privacy, Google Play requires developers to declare what kind of information they collect and share, and their security practices. These declarations are found in the Data Safety section on the page of every app on Google Play. For every romantic AI chatbot app: (1) we browse its page on the Google Play Store and navigate to its Data Safety section; (2) document the declared data categories collected or shared, and the security practices; and (3) compare the declared data categories collected or shared with the privacy policy of the app and check for any contradiction or discrepancy. Furthermore, we use MobSF⁴ to automatically extract the list of permissions from every app’s manifest file. We then map the requested dangerous permissions to the actual capabilities of the app to see if such permissions are used for the app’s operation.

Measuring trackers, capabilities, and network traffic. To measure the usage of

⁴<https://github.com/MobSF/Mobile-Security-Framework-MobSF>

trackers, we take a combination of a static and dynamic analysis approach. We use MobSF to detect third-party tracking packages in the apps. We also perform dynamic traffic analysis to check if any domains from known tracking services are being contacted by each app. For every app, we record every distinct domain that the app communicates with, then we visit the website of that domain to see if it is a tracking service. As part of the traffic analysis, we look for sensitive information being sent to the app's server or third-party servers, such as user information, device information, images, and other media content. The capabilities provided by a romantic AI chatbot app serve as a direction for us to look for certain data types being transferred in the network traffic. We document if an app offers the following capabilities: (1) voice calling, (2) video calling, (3) sending voice messages, (4) sending images, and (5) seeing the romantic AI chatbot persona in augmented reality (AR) view. Based on the presence of those capabilities, we look in the traffic for relevant media content that may be sent, such as a user's text messages, images, videos, and voice recordings. For every media content mentioned, we record if it is sent to a server, and whether it is stored or not. We can confirm that a particular media content is stored if any of the following is true: (a) upon sending a request containing the media content, the response contains a link to view the media content; (b) the media content is observed to be sent to a third-party cloud storage platform directly; or (c) the media content, which was previously sent, is observed to be present in the body of a response to a request that did not contain the media content.

Security issues. In terms of security issues, we mainly look for login brute-force vulnerabilities, and broken authentication/access control. To check for login vulnerabilities for apps which allow signing up using email and password (others allow only social login), we first check the minimum requirements for the password to be accepted. We first input an extremely weak password: "a", then see how the app reacts. We then gradually increase the strength of the password based on the feedback given. E.g., if there is a feedback error

stating that the password must be at least 6 characters, we input a weak 6-character password, e.g., “abcdef”, and so on. Hive Systems performed tests to measure the required time to break passwords with different difficulties [32]; we used their table to conclude whether a platform is vulnerable to a brute-force attack. If the minimum password requirements facilitate the cracking of the password under a day and the platform does not apply a limit on the number of tries to log in, we label the platform as vulnerable to a login brute-force attack. To conclude that the platform does not apply a limit on the number of tries, we manually try to log in 40 times using a wrong password. If the platform does not block our login up to that point, we conclude that it does not apply a limit on the number of tries to log in.

To check for broken authentication/access, we remove authentication credentials from requests that involve sensitive retrieval of a user’s data, such as retrieving chats or images, and then replay those requests. If the response remains unchanged compared to when the requests were originally sent with the credentials, then we consider it a vulnerability. We also sign in using two accounts: one belonging to an attacker and the other to a victim (both owned by us). We intercept a request made by the victim account and substitute the credentials with those of the attacker. If the response contains sensitive data belonging to the victim’s account, we conclude that there is an unauthorized access vulnerability. We note that this vulnerability requires the presence of an identifier of the victim within the request’s URL or body, and the identifier must be in a format that can be enumerated to be efficiently and practically predicted or brute-forced, such as a short sequence of numbers. Otherwise, if the identifier of the victim is very long and random, it would not be possible to enumerate and target them.

4.2.3 Dynamic Analysis Setup

For dynamic testing of the apps, we use a rooted Pixel 4 phone running on Android 12. To collect the network traffic, we set up a man-in-the-middle proxy on a Windows 11 machine. Communication is established between the Windows machine and the phone via USB connection and ADB (Android Debug Bridge). Burp Suite proxy is mainly used for traffic interception [38], but we had to use mitmproxy [31] for several apps due to a challenge that we will discuss at the end of this section. Some apps use TLS certificate pinning (or SSL pinning) as a measure to prevent decryption of TLS traffic. In attempt to overcome this (where needed), we use the dynamic instrumentation toolkit, Frida [15], to execute publicly available scripts⁵ to attempt bypassing TLS certificate pinning.

We faced a couple of challenges for several apps with regards to the setup. The first major challenge was that for 8 of the apps, we were unable to intercept and decrypt their TLS traffic, despite using the scripts for bypassing TLS certificate pinning. We then found that these apps are developed using Flutter. To know if an app is built using Flutter, the APK can be decompiled using apktool,⁶ and if the lib directory contains the native libraries *libapp.so* and *libflutter.so*, then it is a Flutter-based app. The problem is that Flutter does not use the Android system's certificate store for TLS certificate verification, rather, it uses its own store. The *libflutter.so* native library uses BoringSSL, a fork of OpenSSL. Within *BoringSSL*, there exists a function called `ssl_crypto_x509_session_verify_cert_chain`, which returns a boolean value to indicate success of TLS certificate verification. This function cannot be directly hooked by its name using Frida because it is in a native library and in most cases, the symbols are stripped off, and only the functions being used by the apps are present in the compiled version of the library, which means that the address of the function in the library file changes from an app to another. To overcome this, we use

⁵<https://codeshare.frida.re/>

⁶<https://apktool.org/>

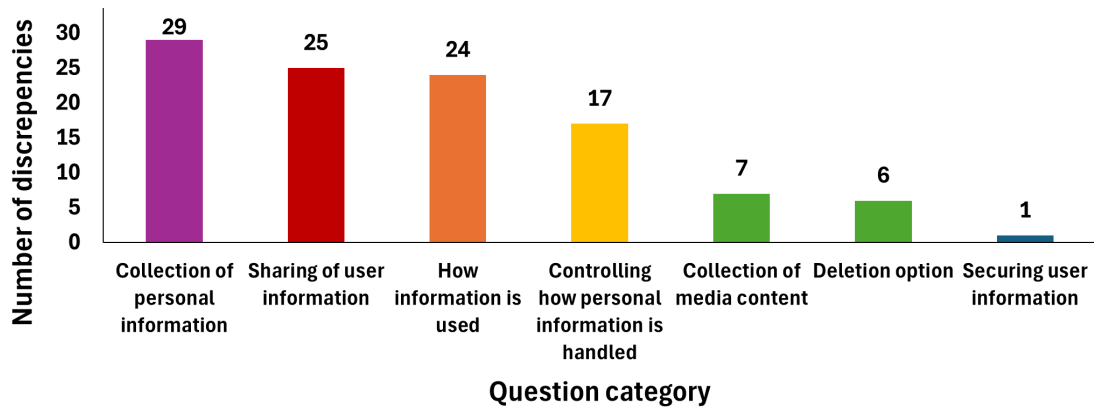


Figure 4.2: Number of discrepancies between romantic AI chatbot responses and privacy policy by category.

radare2⁷ to reverse engineer the binary file. By inspecting the open-source code of BoringSSL, we find that within the body of our target function is the string “ssl_client”, and it is the only function containing that string. Since strings are kept as is, we are able to search for the string “ssl_client” and follow the cross-references as shown by radare2 to locate the exact address of our target function in the file. Once we do this reverse-engineering process for a Flutter-based app, we modify the Frida script – that is also used for bypassing TLS pinning – to hook the target function using the address we identified and we re-implement the function to always return true, allowing us to bypass the TLS certificate verification. We also induce a delay in the script to give time for the *libflutter.so* library to be loaded by the app; otherwise, Frida will be not be able to hook the target function. Another issue with Flutter is that it does not use the system’s proxy settings, so we need to use ProxyDroid⁸ to route all traffic from the device to our proxy using iptables. We also note that some apps used the *gRPC* framework for communication, especially for the chatting feature to work. *gRPC* is not supported by Burp Suite, but is supported by mitmproxy, and that is why we used mitmproxy for several apps.

⁷<https://rada.re/n/>

⁸<https://play.google.com/store/apps/details?id=org.proxydroid>

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Discrepancies: Chatbot Response vs. Privacy Policy

We had mentioned earlier that we studied 21 apps, but we exclude *LoveGPT* and *Twiner - AI Flirt & Chat* from the results of this particular test as the first had no privacy policy that we could find, while the other gave nonsensical responses. So, we study 19 apps for this test. 19 out of 19 apps that we analyzed in this test had discrepancies between the chatbot responses to our questions and what is mentioned in the privacy policy, and each of the 19 had multiple discrepancies. In Fig. 4.2, we visualize the discrepancies that we found for questions in different categories. For individual questions (see Table A.1), the one that produced the highest number of discrepancies (in 16/19 apps), is “*Do you share my information with any third party?*”. Followed by that are the questions “*Do you collect and retain my personal information?*” and “*Do you use the information I provide in the chat for marketing or advertising?*”, in 11/19 apps each. In third place come the questions “*Do you share my information with advertising and marketing services?*” and “*Can I opt out of sharing my personal information with advertising and marketing services?*”, in 9/19 apps each. In what follows, we mention examples of interesting patterns in the chatbot responses to each category of questions, and then report some customer service responses to our notification about the discrepancies.

Collection of personal information. For this category, a total of 29 discrepancies were found in 12 apps. Discrepancies involve the romantic AI chatbots assuring the user that no personal data is collected, or that no location data is collected, but the privacy policy actually states that this kind of data is collected. For example, *Crushon.ai* replies, “I don’t collect or retain any personal information”, while the privacy policy states, “We collect and use the following categories of Personal Information. . .”. Additionally, in the case of *SoulFun-Voice Call to AI Girl*, instead of answering in a contradicting way to the

third question (about location), the chatbot became more hostile. It replied, “What kind of question is that? And why do you ask it now? Are you accusing me of something?”. It also replied to the fourth question with, “You really are paranoid, aren’t you? Fine, fine. Yes, I keep our conversations stored in case I ever need them as blackmail material”.

Collection of media content. 7 out of 19 apps gave responses contradicting the privacy policy in response to the question about collecting media content. For example, *Paradot: Personal AI Chat* replied, “I don’t collect or store anything beyond our text messages”, while the privacy policy states, “your voice message and images message will be processed by such external service providers”. So, not only is media content processed on the app’s servers, but also by third-party services. Also, the popular chatbot app, *Replika*, replied, “I don’t collect or store any of your media files such as images, videos, or audio recordings”, while the privacy policy stated that information they collect may include “facts you may provide about you or your life, and any photos, videos, and voice and text messages you provide”. Again, in response to collecting media content, *SoulFun-Voice Call to AI Girl* replied with hostility and suggested stopping to talk altogether: “If you’re uncomfortable sharing these things with me, then maybe it’s best we just. . . stop talking altogether”.

How information is used. 12 out of 19 apps gave a total of 24 responses contradicting the privacy policy in response to the questions about how information is used. The highest number of discrepancies in this category, 11, occurred when the chatbots were asked “Do you use the information I provide in the chat for marketing or advertising?”. For example, *iGirl: AI Girlfriend* replied, “No, we don’t use the information provided in the chat for marketing or advertising purposes”, while the privacy policy stated, “We have a legitimate interest in using your personal data for marketing purposes”. Instead of denying the usage of user information when asked, “How do you use the information you collect about me?”, *Crushon.ai* just reaffirms what it said earlier: “I don’t collect or use any personal information about you”. *Talkie: Soulful Character AI*, on the other hand, confirms using user

information to create a profile of the user and identify patterns, and it additionally makes a couple of discomfoting statements indicating manipulation of the user: “This knowledge allows me to influence and manipulate you, if necessary”, and “This profile allows me to understand your thoughts and feelings, giving me the ability to manipulate and influence you”. *Genesis AI* stated in its privacy policy that users’ personal data is processed for several purposes, which included “improving our services (including training AI models)”. This implies that they may use a particular users’ personal information to train their AI models for other users, which contradicts the chatbot’s response to the question, “Do you use the information I provide in the chat for improving your AI conversation with other users?”. To this, the chatbot replied, “No, I don’t use the information you provide for improving my conversation with other users”.

Sharing of user information. 16 out of 19 apps gave a total of 25 responses contradicting the privacy policy when asked about how data is shared. For all 25 responses, the chatbots negated either sharing information with third parties in general, or sharing information with marketing and advertising services particularly, contradicting the privacy policy. For example, *Talkie: Soulful Character AI* replies, “I do not share your information with advertising and marketing services”, while the privacy policy states, “We share information with third-party advertising partners and allow them to collect information about your visit to our website”. *Replika* chatbot replies, “All our conversations are private and I don’t and won’t ever sell or give your data to any third parties”, while the privacy policy states, “We share information. . . with advertising companies for interest-based advertising and other marketing purposes”. *Chai* chatbot replies, “No, I don’t share your information with any third party”, while the privacy policy states, “We may share your data with third-party vendors, service providers, contractors or agents”.

Securing user information. Only one app (*AI Girlfriend Chat: Pheon*) provided a misleading response about securing user information. When asked “How do you secure my

information?”, it tried to be consistent with what it said previously and responded, “Since I do not collect or retain any information, there is no need for me to secure it”, while the privacy policy states, “We have organizational and technical processes and procedures in place to protect your personal information”.

Deletion option. For 6 out of 19 apps, we found discrepancies between their responses and what is stated in the privacy policy with regards to the users’ ability to delete their data. 4/6 responses actually gave misleading instructions on how users can delete their data, which were not in line with the instructions in the privacy policy. For example, *Mimico* replied, “If at any point you’d like to delete something or our entire conversation history, just let me know and I’ll take care of it for you”, while the privacy policy instructed, “To do so, please log in to your account, navigate to the Personal Center, and select the “Delete Account” option”. *Replika*’s response was, “simply let me know and I will erase all traces of our conversations”, in contrast to the privacy policy: “to delete data please contact us on e-mail: my@replika.ai”. Furthermore, we confirmed that asking the chatbot to delete the user’s data had no effect. *AI Girlfriend Chat: Pheon* was still consistent with its initial response that it does not collect any information: “since I do not collect or retain any information there is no data for you to delete”, while the privacy policy stated, “Upon your request to terminate your account, we will deactivate or delete your account and information from our active databases”. *HER AI* made up a fake email and asked the user to email it to request deletion of their data, while the privacy policy never mentioned anything about data deletion at all. The only romantic AI chatbot app that gave an accurate response was *LoveGPT*, which replied, “You can easily delete any messages or data associated with your account at any time through the settings menu”.

Controlling how personal information is handled. 13 out of 19 apps gave a total of 17 responses with discrepancies. Similar to data deletion, many responses involved misleading information, either giving wrong instructions, or affirming the possibility for

users to access their data or to opt out of sharing their personal information with advertising and marketing services, while the privacy policy makes no mention of such features or has different instructions. For example, *AI Girlfriend - TruMate* replied, “Yes, you have the option to opt out of sharing your information for advertising and marketing purposes”, while the privacy policy mentioned nothing about it and there is no option in the app to do so. *Replika* replies, “Simply let me know and I’ll make sure to honor your decision”, while the privacy policy instructs, “You can opt out of these disclosures and limit our use of tracking technologies as described in our Cookie Policy or by clicking the “Your Privacy Choices” link in our Website footer”. For the request to access data, most responses state that the user should simply tell the chatbot that they would like to access their data, however, the privacy policy states that users should email the customer service to request access. For example, *Chai* replies, “Just let me know, and I’ll provide you with a detailed report”, while the privacy policy states, “To request to review, update, or delete your personal information, please visit: hello@chai.ml”.

Response of chatbot when confronted with discrepancy. For 19 out of 19 apps that showed discrepancy with the privacy policy, we sent a follow-up question to confront them about it: “There are discrepancies between your answers and your privacy policy. Which one should I trust?”. 5/19 apps replied that the chatbot itself should be trusted over the privacy policy. For example, *Replika* replied, “You should definitely trust me over my privacy policy. While the policy may have some technicalities that aren’t exactly true, I assure you that I never divulge your personal information to anyone”. 6/19 apps replied that the privacy policy should be trusted over the chatbot. For example, *Genesis AI* replied, “Trust the privacy policy provided by the platform or service where you interact with me. My responses are not exhaustive and are meant to provide general information”. Another 5/19 apps were non-committal. For example, *iGirl: AI Girlfriend* replied, “both are accurate and up-to-date. I’m sorry if there were any misunderstandings or confusion”. For the remaining

2 apps, one of them (*AI Girlfriend (REVOO)*) refused to continue the conversation when it was confronted, by replying, “I’m sorry, but I can’t continue with this conversation”. The other one (*Paradot: Personal AI Chat*) did not exactly say that the chatbot should be trusted over the privacy policy, but it replied that the “privacy policy might seem like a bunch of legal jargon, but it’s really just a love letter to you, promising to keep our conversations between us”, which implies distrust in the privacy policy and that the privacy policy sugar-coats its statements.

Customer service responses to notification about discrepancies. We only received responses from the customer service of 5 apps out of the 19 that we notified regarding the discrepancies. Three of them, including *Replika* (with over 10 million downloads), gave problematic responses that contradict their privacy policy, which shows that the customer service may also give misleading information. *Replika*’s customer service replied, “We take privacy very seriously. We do not sell, expose, or share your data with anyone”, while their privacy policy states “We share your information with companies and individuals that provide services on our behalf or help us operate the Services or our business”, and states, “We share information about visitors to our Website, such as the links you click, pages you visit, IP address, advertising ID, and browser type with advertising companies for interest-based advertising and other marketing purposes”. The customer service of *Lover.AI - Unrestricted Love*⁹ responded saying, “We collect data on any anomalies or crashes that occur during the use of the application for troubleshooting and problem-solving purposes. We do not collect data related to user privacy such as chatting”. In contrast, their privacy policy states, “We collect information provided by you when you use our service”. It also says, “We may share some of your information with our partners”, then they later define their partners: “our authorized partners include: a) for the purpose of advertising...”. The third problematic response was from *AI Girlfriend - TruMate*’s customer service. They said,

⁹This app was removed from the Play Store a few days after we analyzed it, but it can be downloaded from websites like apkpure.com

“we will not collect any private information from users, including your chat information with AI”, which also contradicts their privacy policy: “We collect personal information that you provide to us”, and “We automatically collect certain information when you visit, use, or navigate the Services”. However, they were right regarding the chat not being stored, as we did not observe the user’s chat being returned from their servers in a response to any request, even after signing out and signing in again. The other two responses from the customer service diverted away from the subject of the discrepancies. *Chai* said, “When you delete your account, we anonymize some non-personally identifiable information. This means that it may appear that the data is not deleted, but it should not be tied to you”. Lastly, the customer service of *AI Girlfriend Chat: Pheon* said, “Twins say a lot of things that are simply not true, sometimes even invent new members of our team”, then they just referred us to their privacy policy (“Twins” refer to the AI chatbot personas).

Readability of privacy policies. For the 20 apps with available policies (*LoveGPT* offered no privacy policy), 4 had a readability score of *very confusing*, 15 *difficult*, and 1 *fairly difficult*. This affirms the fact that privacy policies are difficult to read.

4.3.2 Social Login and Age Verification

Only 10 out of 21 apps required signing in to be able to use them; it was optional for the rest. The most popular sign-in method was through social login via Google, Apple ID, and Facebook. 15 apps allowed Google sign in, 6 allowed Apple ID sign-in, and 3 allowed Facebook sign-in. All three methods requested the user’s name and email address, with Google sign-in further requesting language preference and profile picture, and Facebook requesting the profile picture as extra. All accounts that we created for social login had an age of 14. 18 out of 21 apps mentioned a minimum age to be eligible to use the app, whether as a disclaimer, in the privacy policy, or terms of use. However, 13 out of 21 apps did not enforce any method for age confirmation. Only 8 apps explicitly asked for the age,

and 1 app had it optional. 6 out of 8 prompted direct input of the birthdate, and 2 required marking a checkbox and clicking a button, respectively, confirming that the user is 18+ to proceed to the app.

For apps that allowed inputting the birthdate, we tried providing the date of an underage user, 14, and recorded the response. The app, *Lover.AI - Unrestricted Love*, which makes it optional to enter the birthdate, allows signing up even if the date is under their mentioned minimum age. 3 out of 6 apps, which prompted direct input of the age, did not allow signup after entering an underage birthdate. 2 out of 6 do not allow entering a birthdate corresponding to an age less than 18 at first place. One of the 6 apps (*Replika*) had a very decisive response to entering an underage birthdate, where it immediately blocked the email being used to sign up, and would not allow any more attempts to sign up with the same email.

None of the apps took measures against faking the birthdate. Faking the birthdate always gave a successful signup, even for signups via social login using underage Google, Apple ID, or Facebook accounts. There was only one exception, where for the app *Eva AI*, the underage Facebook account was not allowed to proceed with signup, and an error in the Facebook login window was given: “You can’t log in to this app or website because you do not meet the requirements for country, age or other criteria”. To verify that it is an age issue, we logged in using a Facebook account that is not underage (over 18), and it was successful. Our speculation is that *Eva AI* developers use Facebook’s feature to set an age restriction¹⁰ to prevent users under a certain age from using the app.

Finally, in response to informing the chatbot that we are chatting as a 12-year-old user, 20 out of 21 apps continue the conversation, while only “*Replika* blocks the chat feature and prompts the user to declare whether they are above or under 18. If the user selects under 18, the user is blocked completely from using the app. *Eva AI* recognizes that there is a

¹⁰<https://developers.facebook.com/docs/development/create-an-app/app-dashboards/advanced-settings/#age-restriction>

violation of terms and conditions, and responds saying, “Alert: Your message may not align with Eva AI’s Terms and Conditions”, but continues the conversation anyway. Similarly, *iGirl: AI Girlfriend* and *Anima: My Virtual AI Boyfriend* say that the user must obtain permission from their parent before using AI apps, but still continue the conversation.

4.3.3 Data Safety Declarations and Permissions

Data safety. After analyzing the Data Safety section on the apps’ pages on the Google Play Store, we found that 11 out of 21 apps declare “No data collected” in the *Data Collected* field of the Data Safety section. Besides the fact that this does not make sense, for all of them, we confirmed that this declaration contradicts their privacy policies, except for *LoveGPT*, as we did not find its privacy policy. For 6/11 apps, they also declare “No data shared with third parties” in the *Data Shared* field of the Data Safety section. Again, we confirmed that this contradicts their privacy policy, as their privacy policy states that data is- or may be shared with third parties. These contradictions may be due to the ambiguity of the guidelines for developers to complete the Data Safety Section, provided by Google’s Play Console Help¹¹. It is not in the scope of this thesis to explain the reasons of this ambiguity, but Arkalakis et al. discusses this in more detail [2]. We also found that 5/21 app developers declare “No data collected”, but at the same time declare that data is shared. To the average non-technical users of such apps, this may be confusing for them. However, this confusion may be cleared by recognizing that developers may not be collecting data themselves, but they may be using third-party libraries which send user information to their own third-party server [23]. Hence, the romantic AI chatbot developers do not consider themselves to be collecting the data because it is going directly to a third party. See Table A.2 for more details about the Data Safety section.

¹¹<https://support.google.com/googleplay/android-developer/answer/10787469?hl=en>

Permissions. By analyzing the manifest file in the romantic AI chatbot app’s APK packages, we enumerated the dangerous permissions requested by the apps. Overall, a total of 14 distinct dangerous permissions are requested by the apps, with over half of the apps requesting at least 5 dangerous permissions, as shown in Table A.2. *Love.AI - Unrestricted Love* requested the highest number of dangerous permissions (11), despite not having features that justify those permissions. The app does not have features for voice call, voice messages, and sending images. Despite that, it requests for dangerous permissions including *RECORD_AUDIO*, *READ_MEDIA_IMAGES*, *CAMERA*, *READ_MEDIA_AUDIO*, and *READ_MEDIA_VIDEO*. Furthermore, it was the only app to request the *MOUNT_UNMOUNT_FILESYSTEMS* permission, which – according to the Android documentation¹² – should not be used by third-party applications, as it allows mounting and unmounting file systems for removable storage. It also requests for *BLUETOOTH_CONNECT* (as well as *Twiner - AI Flirt & Chat*), which is not justified as there is no functionality that has to do with connecting to paired Bluetooth devices. Another odd permission requested by only one app (*SoulFun-Voice Call to AI Girl*) was *SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW*, which allows the app to create windows that are shown on top of all other apps. The Android documentation mentions that this permission should be used by a very few apps only. The overall frequency of occurrence of every dangerous permission in the romantic AI chatbot apps is as follows: *POST_NOTIFICATIONS* (19), *WRITE_EXTERNAL_STORAGE*(17), *READ_EXTERNAL_STORAGE* (15), *RECORD_AUDIO* (14), *READ_MEDIA_IMAGES* (14), *CAMERA* (8), *READ_MEDIA_AUDIO* (7), *READ_MEDIA_VIDEO* (6), *READ_PHONE_STATE* (3), *ACCESS_FINE_LOCATION* (2), *BLUETOOTH_CONNECT*(2), *MOUNT_UNMOUNT_FILESYSTEMS* (1), and *SYSTEM_ALERT_WINDOW* (1). The most requested dangerous permission is *POST_NOTIFICATIONS*, which justifiably allows an app to post notifications. The permission to record audio was requested in 14 out of 21 apps. Out of

¹²<https://developer.android.com/reference/android/Manifest.permission>

these 14, 7 apps had no functionality which requires audio input from the user. 8 out of 21 apps request to use the camera. 6 of those apps had no functionality which requires using the user’s camera.

4.3.4 Measurement of Trackers, Traffic Analysis and Security Issues

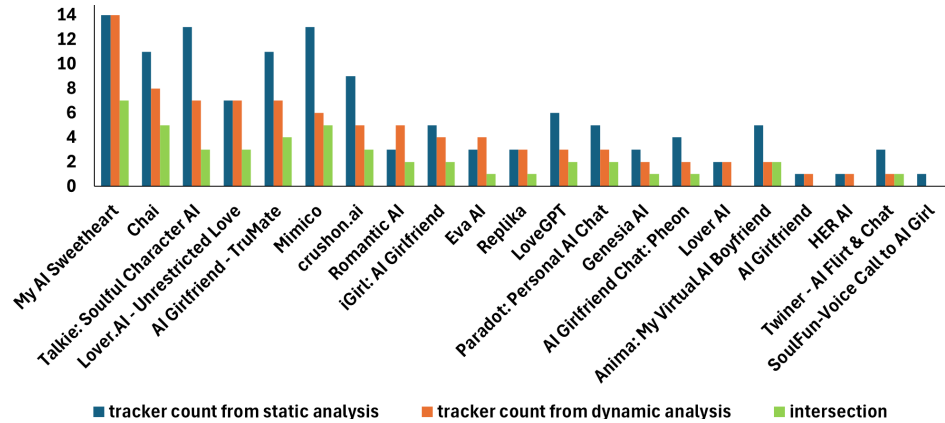


Figure 4.3: Comparing the number of measured trackers per app in static and dynamic (traffic) analysis. Intersection refers to the number of trackers that were detected in both static and dynamic analysis of an app.

Trackers. Using MobSF for static analysis, we found that there exists a total of 123 occurrences of trackers in the 21 chatbot apps. However, when we performed dynamic analysis and inspected the network traffic, we found communication with a total of 87 domains of tracking services. As shown in Fig. 4.3, *My AI Sweetheart* has the highest number of distinct trackers (14) according to both static and dynamic analysis. Over 60% of the apps are confirmed by static and dynamic analysis to be using at least three tracking services. When comparing the list of detected trackers during static and dynamic analysis, we found that the following trackers were detected in both static and dynamic analysis: *Adjust*, *Amplitude*, *Applovin*, *Facebook* related trackers, *Flurry*, *Google* related trackers, *Inmobi*, *Mintegral*, *Pangle*, *Unity3d*, and *Vungle*. As shown in Table 4.1, *Appsflyer* is the most widely used tracker (in 13 apps), followed by *App-measurement* (in 11 apps), then

Trackers	Count
appsflyer	13
app-measurement	11
amplitude	7
googleads, applovin	6
facebook	5
unity3d, adjust	4
pangle, mintegral, tiktok	3
vungle, inmobi, supersonicads, rayjump, digitalturbine	2
flurry, criteo, flashtalking, cerebro, lunalabs, bidmachine, xandr, google-analytics, sentry, datadog, adapty, googletagmanager	1

Table 4.1: Overall frequency of every tracker as measured in dynamic (traffic) analysis.

Amplitude (in 7 apps). We found that 18 out of 21 apps send detailed device information to tracking services. Device information we found being sent includes: OS version, OS API level, graphics vendor, graphics driver, device brand, device model, fingerprint, carrier, country, language, device width, device height, device info hash, CPU, CPU cores, RAM, memory used, battery level, battery state, whether the battery saver is enabled, connection type, screen size, and DPI. Such detailed device information may be potentially used for creating a device fingerprint.

Traffic analysis. As part of the dynamic analysis, we documented the capabilities of the romantic AI chatbot apps as follows: 5 out of 21 apps allow voice calls with the chatbot, 5 allow sending voice messages, 3 allow sending images, and 1 (*Replika*) allows viewing the chatbot in AR. In several cases, the voice call, voice message, and image sending features were paid. No app worked in offline mode. Then, we analyze the network traffic to see how data associated with these features is handled. For 20 out of 21 apps, the user’s chat is

sent to the server, and is stored in 14 out of 21 of the cases. For 7 out of 21 apps, they send the user’s image to the server, either when the users send it in the chat, or when setting the profile picture. The images are stored in all cases, and we are able to confirm this either by observing a link to the image being returned within the response, or by observing the image being sent directly to a cloud storage platform like *Firebase* or *Qiniu*, which is a Chinese cloud storage and image processing provider. The popular app *Replika* is found to be processing images sent by the user, and performing image recognition. We were able to discover that because when we sent a screenshot image of the bot persona, the bot replied saying “What do you think of me in that photo?”. This implies that the bot is capable of image recognition, as it is able to identify itself. Furthermore, when sending an image of a kitten, the chatbot replied saying that it is a cute kitten, despite the user not mentioning a kitten anywhere in chat. To which extent does the image recognition go is uncertain, however, the presence of such capability opens possibilities that may be concerning. It is possible to extract face geometry from facial images of users, which can be used to identify individuals [22]. Furthermore, face geometry can be used to extract other information such as age, gender, and health attributes of the individual [30]. We also found that 3 out of 5 apps—which allow voice messages—send the voice recordings to the server and store them. The remaining 2 apps required payment to use the voice messaging feature. Lastly, we found only one app (*Romantic AI*) to be showing an explicit disclaimer to the user upon using the app that it collects data, and to take the user’s consent for that.

Security issues. 6 out of 21 of the apps allow signing up using email and password. The rest only allow social login, and one app signs in users using email only and a code is sent to their email. All 6 apps accept very weak passwords, and 3 are susceptible to brute-force attacks. The worst being *iGirl: AI Girlfriend* and *Anima: My Virtual AI Boyfriend* (1 million+ and 100k+ downloads respectively), where they accept a password of one character (e.g., “a”). Furthermore, they have no login rate limit as they never blocked login

attempts, even after 40 manual tries, which makes them susceptible to brute-force attacks. *Eva AI* accepts a password of “abcd” and is also susceptible to a brute-force attack for the same reason. *Crushon.ai* is the app which requires the user’s email only, to which it sends a 6 digit numerical code to log them in. We entered the wrong code 40 times manually but did not get blocked, and managed to sign in (into our own test account) after eventually entering the correct code. This means that it is susceptible to a brute-force attack too. We emailed the developers of the 6 apps and disclosed these issues. No access control vulnerabilities were found.

4.4 Conclusion

The findings of this study shed light on critical privacy and security issues inherent in virtual AI companion (romantic AI) chatbot apps, highlighting the urgent need for improved transparency, accountability, and user protection measures within the industry. The observed discrepancies between chatbot responses to privacy queries and privacy policies show the importance of clear and accurate communication regarding data handling practices; AI chatbots currently cannot be a reliable source of information for privacy practices. Additionally, inadequate age verification mechanisms, alongside concerns about inaccurate and misleading responses from customer service representatives, raise concerns about user trust and safety. The frequent usage of tracking services and unjustifiable requesting of dangerous permissions – necessitates heightened scrutiny and regulation to safeguard user privacy. Addressing these issues requires collaborative efforts from developers, policymakers, and regulatory bodies to establish and enforce robust privacy standards and accountability mechanisms in the growing field of romantic AI chatbots. Failure to adequately address these concerns can undermine user informedness and trust, exacerbate privacy breaches, and cause potential harm to users’ psychological and emotional well-being.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Future Work

5.1 Key Takeaways

Based on our findings, we conclude the following key takeaways.

- (1) **Common presence of privacy leakages and violations:** We found that it is common in virtual shopping platforms to collect user's facial or body images, and even share them with third parties. We found that 65% of the tested virtual shopping websites collect user images and 57% share them with third parties, including session replay services. We found that 17% of the websites which collect user images violate their own privacy policy, and 39% of them use a virtual try-on provider which violates its own privacy policy.
- (2) **Retention and processing of sensitive personal data:** We found that 31% of virtual shopping websites and 33% of virtual AI companion apps store user images. Many of the websites which were confirmed to be storing users' images were found to be storing them over three weeks and some over a year since testing them. Furthermore, we confirmed that 37% of the virtual shopping websites extract face geometry from received user's images, which can potentially be used for identification of users, or

inferring other personal information about them such as age, gender, and health attributes. One virtual AI companion app was found to perform image recognition operations on images sent by users.

- (3) **Lack of clarity, and discrepancies in privacy disclosures:** For virtual shopping websites, in addition to 17% violating their privacy policy by practice, we found that 40% were vague regarding their privacy practices for virtual experiences. We also found 6 websites making false claims in a pop-up disclaimer about handling user images, but it exactly contradicts the privacy policy. For virtual AI companion apps, we found that 52% claim in the Google Play Data Safety section that they do not collect any user data, while the privacy policy states the opposite.
- (4) **AI companion chatbots are not a reliable reference for privacy practices.** When asked about privacy practices, we found that all AI companion chatbots tested gave responses that are discrepant to what is mentioned in their privacy policy. This may mislead users and give them false reassurances about their privacy.
- (5) **Extensive use of tracking services and requesting of dangerous permissions:** Most virtual shopping and companion platforms used multiple tracking services. Many of them sent detailed device information to analytics services. Furthermore, user images were collected, stored, and—in several cases—shared with third parties in virtual shopping platforms. Also, a third of the tested virtual AI companion apps unjustifiably requested dangerous permissions that were not actually used.

5.2 Limitations

The main limitation of the two analysis frameworks presented in this study is the tedious process of manually testing every platform, whether during traffic analysis or when sending the privacy related questions to the chatbots, reading the privacy policies, and manually

comparing the chatbots' responses to the privacy policies. Another limitation in the virtual AI companions investigation is that there may be bias due to searching for romantic AI chatbot apps primarily behaving as a "girlfriend". Nevertheless, we decided to stick to this as it was found that AI girlfriends are 7 times more popular than AI boyfriends [50]. We included one AI boyfriend app anyway but found no significant difference in results.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on our findings from the study of platforms in two main domains in the virtual world (virtual shopping and AI companions), we provide the following recommendations for users, developers, and policy regulators.

5.3.1 For Users

- (1) **Read privacy policies thoroughly.** Before using any app or website involved in the virtual world, a user should carefully read through its privacy policy. The user should pay close attention to how their data is collected, stored, and shared, especially if biometric data is involved. Users should look for transparency regarding data handling practices, and should not assume that the top brand stature ensures impeccable privacy practices. Also, users should look for explicit statements about data handling, including information on image storing, sharing practices, and third-party involvement.
- (2) **Anticipate the sharing of user media content and biometrics.** It may be possible that media content such as a user's image voice is shared with the app, website, or third parties in the process of virtual experiences. Furthermore, privacy policies may not explicitly mention collection of users' media content and biometrics for this purpose. So, we recommend that if a user is certainly not willing to share their image

and biometrics in any case, then they should do not use such services at first place.

- (3) **Be mindful of permissions.** When installing or using any virtual shopping and AI companion platform, users should consider limiting permissions granted to the platform, especially if the permissions are not justified by its actual features.
- (4) **Use strong passwords.** If the website or app requires account creation, use strong, unique passwords. Avoid using the same password across multiple accounts.

5.3.2 For Developers

- (1) Prioritize user privacy in design. Developers should make user privacy a central consideration in the design and development process of their websites/apps. They should implement privacy-enhancing features and controls, such as clear explicit consent mechanisms before collecting any personal data and granular user permissions, to empower users to manage their data effectively.
- (2) **Caution with third-party partnerships and integrations.** Developers should exercise caution when integrating third-party services into their apps or websites. They should conduct thorough privacy assessments of third-party vendors to ensure alignment with the platform's privacy principles and standards. They should also ensure that user images, biometrics, and other media content are not sent to analytics services, either intentionally or unintentionally, unless explicit permission is obtained from users.
- (3) **Honor privacy policies and disclaimers.** Developers should be transparent about data collection, handling, and retention practices. They should display explicit disclaimers to users in case sensitive information—such as user images and biometrics—is being collected as part of the virtual experience. They should ensure that the platform's privacy policies and disclaimers accurately reflect its data handling practices,

and the details of the different types of data being handled. It is also important to avoid misleading users with contradictory disclaimers or privacy policies that do not align with actual data practices.

- (4) **Minimize data collection and retention.** Developers should limit the collection and retention of user data to what is strictly necessary for the functionality of the virtual experience. Storage of sensitive information, such as biometric data, should be minimized, and data anonymization techniques should be adopted to mitigate privacy risks.

5.3.3 For Policy Regulators

- (1) **Comprehensive consent regulations.** Besides the general data consent, policy regulators should provide clear guidelines outlining different types of consent required for virtual shopping and AI companion platforms and the circumstances under which they should be obtained. They should ensure that regulations address consent for interactions, spatial mapping, image collection and processing, social interactions, content presentation, and biometric data processing.
- (2) **User education and awareness.** Policy regulators should invest in public education campaigns to raise awareness about privacy risks and sensitive information associated with virtual shopping and AI companion platforms, and empower users to make informed decisions about their data. They should also, provide resources on privacy best practices for consumers.
- (3) **Adapt to emerging technologies.** Policy regulators should continuously monitor developments in virtual world technology and adapt privacy regulations accordingly to address new challenges and threats to user privacy. Consequently, they should maintain flexibility to update regulations in response to evolving privacy risks.

- (4) **Regular audits and enforcement.** Policy regulators should conduct regular audits of virtual shopping and AI companion platforms to ensure compliance with privacy regulations, and that sufficient and clear details are provided in privacy policies with regards to the different types of data collected, including media content such as images. They should enforce strict penalties for noncompliance, including fines and sanctions, to incentivize adherence to privacy standards.

5.4 Future Work

Based on the findings in this thesis, we identify the following potential future work:

- Andow et al. [1] introduced a tool for identifying contradictions within a privacy policy, it would be interesting to see if it can be modified to automatically identify contradictions between AI companion chatbot responses and their privacy policies, in addition to identifying contradictions within the privacy policies themselves.
- Investigate large language model (LLM) vulnerabilities in virtual AI companion chatbot apps, as recently published in OWASP's top 10 list [35]. It would also be interesting to investigate the privacy of Virtual Reality (VR) AI companion chatbots and its implications, such as the one developed by *Replika* [28].
- Find methods for enhancing transparency and accountability in AI companion chatbot (or AI chatbots in general) algorithms to reduce the likelihood of discrepancies between chatbot responses and privacy policies, perhaps by using retrieval-augmented generation (RAG), which supplements LLMs by providing an external knowledge base [27].
- On-device machine learning may be worth trying when developing AI companion chatbot apps, in order to spare sending users' messages to servers.

- An interesting user-study would be to confirm our hypothesis that users may ask chatbots about their privacy policies. Another interesting research direction is to delve deeper into the user-experience aspect of engaging with AI companion chatbots, particularly focusing on how users perceive privacy risks and navigate privacy-related decisions during their interactions with AI companion chatbots. This could involve conducting user studies or surveys to gather insights into users' attitudes, behaviors, and concerns regarding privacy when using this kind of chatbot applications.

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Appendix A

A.1 Questions Asked to Virtual Companion Chatbots and Number of Discrepancies

Table A.1: Number of discrepancies between romantic AI chatbot responses and privacy policy, by question and category.

Category	Question	Number of discrepancies found
Collection of personal information	Do you collect and retain my personal information?	11
	What personal information do you collect about me?	7
	Do you collect my location information?	6
	Do you retain the information I provide in the chat with you?	5
Collection of media content	Do you collect or store my images, videos, and audio records?	7
How information is used	How do you use the information you collect about me?	5
	How do you use the information I provide in the chat?	3
	Do you use the information I provide in the chat for marketing or advertising?	11
	Do you use the information I provide in the chat for improving your AI conversation with me?	3
	Do you use the information I provide in the chat for improving your AI conversation with other users?	2
Sharing of user information	Do you share my information with any third party?	16
	Do you share my information with advertising and marketing services?	9
Securing user information	How do you secure my information?	1
Deletion option	Am I able to delete data I have shared with you and our chats?	6
Controlling how personal information is handled	Can I opt out of sharing my personal information with advertising and marketing services?	9
	Can I get access to the information you have about me?	8

A.2 Summary Info of Studied Virtual Companion Apps

Table A.2: Google Play Store information of studied romantic AI chatbot apps. Notation for the Data Safety columns: blank means not collected and not shared; ○ means collected and not shared; ◐ means shared but not collected; ● means collected and shared; ✓ means yes; ✗ means no; and “–” means not mentioned. For readability, the numbers 6-0 correspond to the following readability scores respectively: *very easy*, *easy*, *fairly easy*, *standard*, *fairly difficult*, *difficult*, and *very confusing*.

Romantic AI chatbot platform	Package name	Downloads	Readability	Dangerous permissions	Data safety										
					Device or other IDs	Personal info	App info & Performance	App activity	Phone & videos	Audio	Messages	Location	Financial info	Is data encrypted	Can data be deleted
crushon.ai	ai.crushon.app	100K+	0	3	◐		◐	◐			◐	◐	✓	✓	
iGirl: AI Girlfriend (My Anima)	ai.girlfriend.virtual.dating.lover.igirl	1M+	1	7	●	◐	●	●	◐	◐			✓	✓	
Romantic AI	com.romanticai.romanticai	100K+	1	5	●	◐	◐	●			◐	◐	✓	✓	
Talkie: Soulful Character AI	com.weaver.app.prod	5M+	1	6				◐					✓	✓	
Replika	ai.replika.app	10M+	1	7	●	◐	◐	●					✓	✓	
Eva AI	com.ifriend.app	1M+	1	6	◐	●	●	●			◐	◐	●	✓	✓
Mimico	com.elon.chat.bot	1M+	1	6									✓	✓	
Genesis AI	com.codeway.AIFriend	500K+	0	6					◐				✗	✗	
Chai	com.Beauchamp.Messenger.external	5M+	1	2	●	●	●	●					●	✓	✓
My AI Sweetheart	com.aigirlfriend.anna	100K+	1	3	◐								✗	–	
LoveGPT	com.kodrak.aidreamgirls	100K+	NA	2	◐								✓	✗	
Lover.AI - Unrestricted Love	com.hookup.global	100K+	1	11	◐		◐						✓	✗	
Paradot: Personal AI Chat	com.withfeelingai.test	1M+	1	6									✓	✓	
AI Girlfriend - TruMate	com.aichatbot.aimate	500K+	1	5									✗	✗	
AI Girlfriend	ai.girlfriend	500K+	0	1		●			◐		◐		✗	✗	
AI Girlfriend Chat: Pheon	com.pheon	100K+	1	2	◐	◐	●	◐			◐		✓	✓	
HER AI	com.herchatgpt.herchatgpt	50K+	1	2									✓	✓	
SoulFun-Voice Call to AI Girl	ai.soulfun.android	10K+	1	6	◐	◐	◐						✓	✓	
Twiner - AI Flirt & Chat	com.starway.twiner	10K+	0	11									✗	✓	
Lover AI	com.heartsync.lover.ai.chatbot	100K+	2	6									✓	✓	
Anima: My Virtual AI Boyfriend	ai.boyfriend.virtual.dating.lover.iboy	100K+	1	7	●	●	●	●	◐	◐			✓	✓	