

1 ARTICLE TEMPLATE

2 Privacy and Ethics in GeoAI

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8 ABSTRACT

9 Any advancement in technology is accompanied by new concerns over its ethical
10 use and impacts on privacy. While a notoriously difficult term to define, privacy as
11 it relates to technology usage, can be described as the ability of an individual or
12 group to control their personal information. Like many ethical concepts, this defini-
13 tion evolves with changes in societal and technical norms. The emergence of ma-
14 chine learning and related artificial intelligence techniques has again shifted societal
15 concerns about the privacy of our persons, socio-demographic group membership,
16 and personal data. Location data are particularly sensitive as they link information
17 across sources and can be used to infer a wide variety of personal information. This
18 makes data privacy one of the most important ethical discussions within the field
19 of geographic artificial intelligence (GeoAI). The main objective of this chapter is
20 to explore the unique privacy concerns associated with AI techniques used for ana-
21 lyzing geospatial information. After providing an overview of the topic, we describe
22 some of the most common techniques and leading application areas through which
23 data privacy and GeoAI are converging. Finally, we suggest a number of ways that
24 privacy within GeoAI can improve and highlight emerging topics within the field.

25 KEYWORDS

26 Privacy; Ethics; Machine Learning; Anonymity; Location-aware Technology

27 1. Introduction

28 The number of companies, agencies, and institutions using artificial intelligence (AI)
29 techniques has grown substantially over the past few years. Their goals are diverse
30 and span application areas ranging from cashier-less grocery stores to breast cancer
31 screening. As with any technology, these advancements have lead to important discus-
32 sions related to ethics. In particular, ethical concerns associated with such technologies
33 range from the collection and storage of personal data to biases in model development
34 and implementation. These concerns also encompass questions on how best to explain
35 their predictions. While ethics is its own domain of research, the rapid development
36 and adoption of AI techniques in many sectors of society has given rise to the field
37 of ethical artificial intelligence (Mittelstadt 2019). Researchers of ethics in AI aim
38 to identify and investigate issues facing society that can specifically be attributed to
39 the introduction and application of AI and related methods. Approaches to the topic
40 most often include exploration and analysis of one or more themes such as privacy,

41 surveillance, bias and/or discrimination (Stahl and Wright 2018, Naik et al. 2022).

42 Like many other aspects of AI, ethical concerns are also shifting. The field is chang-
43 ing so rapidly that legal experts, policy makers, and researchers are forced to contin-
44 ually revise their assessments of bias, transparency, social manipulation, and privacy
45 in AI. Through increased public pressure, many leading technology companies have
46 hired experts to help them navigate these waters and develop policies related to the
47 ethical use of AI. Many private companies and government agencies regularly publish
48 technical reports outlining AI guidelines and principles. A recent scoping review of
49 84 existing guidelines on ethical AI by Jobin et al. (2019) identified a set of ethical
50 principles commonly included in these reports. The top five include *transparency*, *jus-*
51 *tice & fairness*, *non-maleficence*, *responsibility* and *privacy*. Each of these principles is
52 worthy of its own book chapter, with numerous books having already been published
53 on these topics (see Dubber et al. (2020), for instance).

54 In this chapter, we choose to focus our discussion on the ethical principle of privacy.
55 To understand why, we must examine ethics as it relates to the topic of this book,
56 namely *geographic* artificial intelligence (GeoAI). We argue that the same common set
57 of AI ethical principles identified by Jobin et al. also apply to GeoAI, but that the
58 relative importance, or ranking, of these principles has been modified. AI techniques
59 that leverage the relationships of objects, events, and people in geographic space make
60 GeoAI a unique subset of artificial intelligence. We argue here that ethical issues related
61 to privacy are fundamentally different when viewed through a geographic lens. Thus,
62 while a discussion on ethics and all of its themes are essential to the future of GeoAI
63 research, the unique aspects of location privacy will be the focus of this chapter.

64 1.1. *Data privacy & AI*

65 In today’s technocratic society, the privacy of one’s personal information is of the
66 utmost importance. Given “big tech’s” penchant for collecting data for AI training
67 purposes, people have become increasingly concerned about how their data are be-
68 ing used and how much control they retain over their data. Historically, the broader
69 concept of privacy has been difficult to grasp, with definitions differing substantially
70 depending on the domain considered. The word *private* is derived from the Latin
71 *privatus*, which means to set apart from what is public, personal and belonging to
72 oneself, and not to the state. Various efforts have been made to categorize privacy
73 into different dimensions (Pedersen 1979, Finn et al. 2013) but many of them come to
74 the conclusion that privacy is the right of an individual or group to control how in-
75 formation about them is accessed, shared, and used, thus being related to the concept
76 of self-information determination. This is a data-centric definition of privacy, which is
77 arguably the most applicable to the GeoAI context.

78 When the terms privacy, data, and AI are combined, most readers’ minds go to a
79 futuristic surveillance state reminiscent of George Orwell’s Big Brother. While such a
80 scenario is worthy of further discussion, there are a number of less Orwellian represen-
81 tations of privacy, or privacy violations, that should also be acknowledged. Many of
82 these are less dramatic, but should be no less concerning to those that use AI technolo-
83 gies. As many have noted, the heart of most AI techniques is the data on which the
84 models are trained – sometimes referred to the *petrol* of AI. The provenance of these
85 data, and details on the individuals from which these data are collected, continue to be
86 a topic of much discussion among privacy researchers. In this era of Big Data we have
87 also seen the emergence of data brokers purchasing and selling data for a variety of

88 uses. Ethics related to data handling, and the confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy
89 of the data all then become topics for further investigation. As the commercial appetite
90 for data grows, we have seen a societal shift from people trading commodities to the
91 information of those people now *being* the commodities. This has led to a significant
92 change in our perception of privacy and the steps we take to ensure it (Zhang and
93 McKenzie 2022).

94 With respect to AI, a lot of what is being discussed is not about individual privacy
95 from a philosophical position, but rather *data privacy*, or the rights of the individual
96 to control what information is being collected, accessed, shared and analyzed. More
97 precisely, privacy has the potential to be viewed as a value to uphold or a right to
98 be protected. This latter definition is less about the “right to be left alone” and more
99 about the right to control one’s own information. There is a separate philosophical
100 discussion to be had about privacy and AI but in this work we focus on the ethical
101 concerns over data privacy in AI, and specifically GeoAI.

102 1.2. *Geoprivacy & GeoAI*

103 It has been two decades since Dobson and Fisher (2003) published their paper *Geoslaw-*
104 *ery*, an evocative call to action showcasing how geographic information systems, global
105 navigation satellite systems, and location-based services can be used to control indi-
106 viduals. While technology trends have deviated from those mentioned in the paper, the
107 idea that location is a unique attribute capable of exposing highly sensitive informa-
108 tion remains. Location is inherently tied to identity. Indeed, a plethora of research has
109 demonstrated that socio-economic and demographic characteristics such as race, in-
110 come, education, and many others correlate with location (Zhong et al. 2015, Riederer
111 et al. 2016). The places that we visit (*e.g.*, restaurants, bars, parks, etc.) and times we
112 visit them are also closely tied to our demographics characteristics (Liu et al. 2017,
113 McKenzie and Mwenda 2021). The mobility behaviour of an individual uniquely char-
114 acterizes them and can be used for re-identification even from so called “anonymous
115 data” (Gambis et al. 2014a). Thus, publicly sharing the places that one visits, without
116 their knowledge, can be a major violation of their privacy. For instance, exposing the
117 bar one patrons on a Saturday evening may be of little concern for a cisgender male in
118 a North American city, but it may be of appreciable concern to a non-binary gender
119 individual living in a nation in which it is illegal to identify as such. The link between
120 location and identity make such data particularly sensitive – and valuable. For de-
121 velopers of AI methods and tools, these data are an extraordinary resource on which
122 to train models for applications areas such as human behavior and crime prediction,
123 local business recommendations, or determining health insurance rates.

124 Geographers and demographers understand that access to an individual’s location
125 data is only the tip of the proverbial “privacy exposure iceberg.” Paraphrasing the first
126 law of geography, we know that things that are closer together in geographic space tend
127 to be more similar (Tobler 1970). From a data privacy ethics perspective, this means
128 that gaining access to socio-demographic information about my neighbor (*e.g.*, income,
129 race and age) means that one can infer my socio-demographic characteristics with a
130 high degree of accuracy. This presents the uncomfortable reality that the privacy of
131 an individual’s personal information depends on the privacy of information of those in
132 close proximity. The dilemma here is that, while I do not have control over the personal
133 information that my neighbor chooses to share, I am impacted by the disclosure of
134 such content. In the era of social media, user-generated content, and other sources of

135 geo-tagged data, this means that it is possible to infer information about me purely
136 based on my location and the contributions of people around me (Pensa et al. 2019).
137 This is often referred to as *co-location privacy*. AI technologies have amplified this
138 allowing for data from multiple sources to be combined, multiplying probabilities by
139 probabilities to infer details about people with shocking levels of accuracy. This leads
140 to an entire new set of ethical considerations as we now see that sharing individual
141 location information impacts collective or group privacy.

142 Despite the fact that location information is so important to our identity, it is
143 surprisingly easy to capture. As outlined by Keßler and McKenzie (2018) in their
144 *Geoprivacy Manifesto*, “ubiquitous positioning devices and easy-to-use APIs make in-
145 formation about an individual’s location much easier to capture than other kinds of
146 personally identifiable information.” There are so many accessible data out there that
147 the privacy of individual’s locations has become a domain of research in and of itself.
148 For instance, research has identified that the location of individuals can be inferred
149 purely based on the text that people share online (Adams and Janowicz 2012), the
150 photos they post (Hasan et al. 2020) or the time of day that they share informa-
151 tion (McKenzie et al. 2016). Armstrong et al. (2018) provide an excellent overview of
152 the domain of *geoprivacy* including examples of some of the leading issues in location
153 privacy research. Additional work has specifically reviewed the state of location privacy
154 issues in mobile applications (Liu et al. 2018) and cartographic publications (Kounadi
155 and Leitner 2014). Like many research domains, those working in geographic infor-
156 mation science have renewed calls to investigate ethics as it relates to location pri-
157 vacy and many other themes (Nelson et al. 2022). While not always purposeful, we
158 are increasingly seeing GeoAI techniques used to de-anonymize location data, iden-
159 tify individuals, and violate individual privacy (Wang et al. 2016). As we witness the
160 emergence of GeoAI built on massive amounts of personal, location-tagged content and
161 geospatial data, scientists are reminded of Dobson and Fisher’s warning from the early
162 2000s. If GPS and GIS were perceived to be the harbingers of a geotechnology-enabled
163 surveillance state, what then is GeoAI?

164 It is not all doom and gloom. The emergence of GeoAI has substantially impacted
165 our society in a number of positive ways (many of which are showcased throughout
166 this book). From a data privacy perspective, advances in GeoAI and affiliated machine
167 learning models have made major contributions to privacy *preservation*. Numerous re-
168 search teams have contributed to the emergence of new methods, techniques, and tools
169 for obfuscating, anonymizing, encrypting, and protecting location information (Jiang
170 et al. 2021). Public-sharing location applications such as *Koi* (Guha et al. 2012) or
171 *PrivyTo* (McKenzie et al. 2022) are being created that use many of these location ob-
172 fuscation and data encryption techniques to put users back in control of their personal
173 location information.

174 **2. Data privacy methods in GeoAI**

175 A wide range of artificial intelligence and machine learning techniques exist that touch
176 on privacy as it relates to geospatial data. These can be split between one group that
177 focuses on protection mechanisms such as privacy-preservation, anonymization, and
178 obfuscation, and a second group dedicated to privacy attacks such as re-identification,
179 de-anonymization, and privacy exposure.

180 2.1. Obfuscation & anonymization

181 A standard approach for preserving the privacy of a dataset involves obfuscating the
182 dataset, or its properties, in some way. Typical approaches include adding noise either
183 randomly or following some structured probability distribution. These approaches are
184 not unique for location data, but location-specific noise-based obfuscation techniques
185 have been developed. For instance, geomasking or spatial-temporal cloaking, refer to
186 a broad set of methods used for obfuscating location data (Armstrong et al. 1999).
187 Methods for obfuscating point coordinates include reporting a broader geometric re-
188 gion (*e.g.*, circle or annulus) in which the point exists, displacing the point by some
189 distance and direction or reporting the political or social boundary in which the point
190 is contained (Seidl et al. 2016). A variety of tools, such as *MaskMy.XYZ* (Swanlund
191 et al. 2020) have been developed to help the average privacy-conscious user geomask
192 their location content.

193 Anonymization is another way of preserving individual privacy, which aims to keep
194 one’s identity private but not necessarily one’s actions. In contrast to obfuscation
195 techniques, the objective is not necessarily to hide sensitive information through the
196 addition of noise but rather to reduce the accuracy of the information disclosed in
197 order to limit the possibility of re-identifying a particular mobility profile. Various ap-
198 proaches have been developed to guarantee some degree of geospatial data anonymity.
199 For instance in k -anonymity, the objective is to hide the particular mobility behaviour
200 of a user among other users sharing similar patterns. More precisely, a dataset is
201 said to be k -anonymized if a record within the set cannot be differentiated from $k-1$
202 other records. While the seminal work on this topic (Sweeney 2002) did not specif-
203 ically focus on location data, subsequent efforts have highlighted the ways in which
204 one can k -anonymize spatial datasets (Ghinita et al. 2010). Geographic obfuscation
205 methods such as Adaptive Areal Elimination (Kounadi and Leitner 2016, Charleux
206 and Schofield 2020) leverage this k -anonymity property of the data to identify regions
207 that offer a measurable level of privacy.

208 Differential privacy is often heralded as one of the field’s most significant advances,
209 offering strong and formal privacy guarantees (Dwork 2006). The objective of dif-
210 ferential privacy is to extract and publish global usable patterns from a set of data
211 while maintaining the privacy of the individual records in the set. This approach in-
212 volves adding noise to a dataset such that exposure of one, or a set of attributes,
213 will not expose the identity of a record or individual. Since 2015, differential privacy
214 has been used by leading technology companies to monitor how products are used
215 along with purchasing and mobility trends. Within the geographic domain, variations
216 on differential privacy have been introduced, such as geo-indistinguishability (Andrés
217 et al. 2013), that acknowledge the unique properties of geographic data and obfuscate
218 location details through tailored geomasking techniques (Kim et al. 2021).

219 With the growth in GeoAI, a variety of new obfuscation and anonymity meth-
220 ods have emerged that leverage network graphs (Jiang et al. 2019), discrete global
221 grids (Hojati et al. 2021), and decentralized collaborative machine learning (Rao et al.
222 2021), to name a few. In addition, the continued growth of contextually-aware devices
223 has led to advances in obfuscation techniques for mobile device users (Jiang et al.
224 2021).

225 **2.2. Synthetic data generation**

226 An alternative to obfuscating or anonymizing real location data is to instead generate
227 *synthetic* data. Sometimes referred to as fake or dummy data, the privacy of a dataset
228 can be maintained by not reporting any piece of the original data at all. Instead, a
229 new set of data are generated that exhibit similar properties of the original dataset.
230 Such an approach can be tailored to specific use cases by only selecting the properties
231 of interest from the original dataset. Methods of synthesizing data are often devised to
232 protect the privacy and confidentiality of particular parts of a dataset, or the data as
233 a whole. The generation of synthetic data through generative models is a hot topic in
234 machine learning and numerous data synthesis methods have been developed and are
235 actively in use in a variety of domains (Nikolenko 2021). With respect to geospatial
236 data, synthetic population data has a long history in demography (Beckman et al.
237 1996) with governmental programs, such as the census, often generate synthetic data
238 for regions with small or susceptible populations. In such cases, a population may
239 be so small that even reporting aggregate values may expose unique individuals in a
240 region. Synthetic data can be generated based on properties of the original data, but
241 be adjusted such that the privacy of individuals can be maintained. With respect to
242 location privacy, synthetic data have been used to understand crowd dynamics (Wang
243 et al. 2019), analyze mobility trajectories (Rao et al. 2020) and more generally address
244 a wide array of pressing geographic problems (Cunningham et al. 2021).

245 **2.3. Cryptography**

246 The previously mentioned techniques aim to preserve privacy either through distortion
247 of the original data or generating dummy data. An alternative to these approaches
248 is to simply hide the data using cryptographic techniques. Encryption is a widely
249 used technique for storing and sharing information when the content needs to remain
250 private. The limitation of such an approach is that once encrypted, the utility of the
251 data is basically non-existent for someone that does not have the associated decryption
252 key. Whereas geographic coordinates obfuscated to a neighborhood may still provide
253 utility for location-based services, encrypted data are useless to anyone but those with
254 the ability to decrypt them.

255 Researchers working with geographic data have proposed a variety of ways to en-
256 crypt geospatial data but still maintain some degree of utility. For instance, some
257 approaches rely on partial encryption of the data meaning that some properties are
258 exposed while others remain hidden (Sun et al. 2019, Jiang et al. 2021). Similar to
259 some of the methods mentioned in the previous section, this means that identifiable
260 and confidential information will be encrypted while spatial properties of a dataset
261 (*e.g.*, degree of clustering), may be published. Geospatial communication platforms
262 such as *Drift* (Brunila et al. 2022), are being developed that encrypt geospatial data
263 but maintain utility.

264 On the advanced cryptographic primitives side, we have seen the recent adoption of
265 homomorphic encryption in a variety of applications (Acar et al. 2018). Homomorphic
266 encryption is an encryption method that allows one to analyze encrypted data without
267 first decrypting it. Such analysis can result in the extraction of patterns and insight
268 without having access to the original unencrypted private information. This technique
269 is actively being used in health research and demography (Munjal and Bhatia 2022).
270 There are limits to homomorphic encryption, not least of which are the types of anal-
271 yses that can be performed and the computational costs of such analyses. The unique

272 types of analyses that are conducted on geospatial data offer challenges for homomor-
273 phic encryption techniques (Alanwar et al. 2017) but advances in this area are sure to
274 be made in the coming years.

275 **2.4. Re-identification methods & privacy attacks**

276 While the methods described in the previous sections aim at preserving privacy and
277 anonymity, another set of methods relevant for privacy researchers are those used for
278 de-anonymizing data and conducting other privacy attacks. While there is not a single
279 leading approach to focus on, we instead highlight a few examples of how this is being
280 done with location data.

281 De-anonymization approaches often involve the inclusion of an external dataset
282 reflecting the knowledge of a potential adversary during analysis (Harmanci and Ger-
283 stein 2016). One possible approach to de-anonymization is through a linkage attack
284 that leverage relationships between the external dataset and the anonymized one, re-
285 ducing the anonymity of individual records in the process (Narayanan and Shmatikov
286 2008). Unique properties of location data such as the habitual movement patterns of
287 people can also be leveraged to de-anonymize a dataset. For example, Gambs et al.
288 (2014b) trained a Mobility Markov Chain model on a set of known mobility trajecto-
289 ries and used this model to identify individuals in an anonymized set of trajectories.
290 When the data represents the location of individuals, *co-location analysis* can be used
291 to reduce the privacy of seemingly obfuscated or anonymized data. For instance, geoso-
292 cial media users frequently report their co-locations with other users through tags or
293 photographs. Internet protocol (IP) addresses are also a means of co-location identifi-
294 cation. Knowing the relationships in a social network can be leveraged to identify an
295 individual (Olteanu et al. 2016). This is part of a broader discussion on *interdependent*
296 *privacy* in which the privacy of one individual is impacted by the privacy decisions
297 and data sharing of others (Liu et al. 2018). As mentioned in the introduction, if my
298 neighbor chooses to share personal information and an adversary knows that we live
299 in close proximity, they could infer a lot of information (*e.g.*, race, income, education)
300 about me.

301 With the increase in computational power and access to massive amounts of data,
302 GeoAI techniques are able to re-identify records (*e.g.*, people) in datasets through in-
303 ference and probabilistic modelling. For instance, large language models use AI tech-
304 niques to process large volumes of textual data, much of which include geographic
305 elements. Trained on such data, these models can be used to infer mobility patterns,
306 identify individuals, and re-identified seemingly anonymized datasets based on the
307 massive amount of additional (contextual) data on which they are trained. Such mod-
308 els are concerning to privacy advocates as public facing tools built from these models
309 (*e.g.*, chat bots) give immense power to average citizens, power that can be used to
310 reduce the privacy of individuals (Pan et al. 2020).

311 **3. Application areas**

312 While privacy is a pervasive concern through arguably all application areas of GeoAI,
313 we thought it useful to highlight a subset of sectors in which privacy is at the forefront
314 of the discussion.

315 **3.1. Advertising**

316 Location-based advertising involves targeting advertisements to groups and individ-
317 uals based on their geographic location. A study of user attitudes towards targeted
318 advertising found that targeted ads were generally preferred to non-target ones but
319 targeted ads were seen as a privacy concern (Zhang et al. 2010). While not new, the
320 adoption of context-aware devices and advanced in predictive analytics have changed
321 the landscape of location-based advertising. An analysis of mobile device ad libraries
322 found that a large number of them track a user’s location (Stevens et al. 2012), even
323 if the location is not needed for the functionality provided by a particular application.
324 Location data, along with a variety of other attributes are used by AI companies for
325 tailored advertising and to target particular users and groups (Boerman et al. 2017).
326 In addition, the knowledge of someone’s location can be combined with other fac-
327 tors such as the time of day or mode of transportation to further refine targeted ads
328 and track users across devices and platforms. Studies have shown that location-based
329 tracking works (Dhar and Varshney 2011) and given the importance of training data
330 for advertising models, significant efforts are underway to collect and sell such data.
331 As these data are transferred between data providers, brokers, and agencies, main-
332 taining the privacy of the individual records often falls by the wayside. For instance,
333 in 2019 the New York Times was provided access to detailed information, including
334 locations, for 12 million mobile devices (Thompson and Warzel 2019). The source of
335 the data was apparently unauthorized to share such content, yet the full records were
336 shared without any attempt to preserve the privacy of the individuals in the data.
337 Though not an advertising example, this does highlight the market for private data.
338 While location-based advertising is unlikely to disappear in the near future, advances
339 in GeoAI will enable advertisers and advertisees to strike a balance between privacy
340 preservation and advertising utility.

341 **3.2. Health care**

342 A large percentage of the research on location privacy preservation and spatial
343 anonymization was originally done for the purposes of maintaining data confiden-
344 tiality in health. Understandably, medical researchers and practitioners are highly
345 incentivized to maintain the confidentiality and privacy of patient data yet it is nec-
346 essary to share data to access the collaborative expertise of those in the medical field.
347 While geomasking and other obfuscation techniques are used to preserve data pri-
348 vacy as well as maintaining utility, newer methods are being developed that guarantee
349 privacy while still permitting a level of analysis. As discussed in Section 2.3, crypto-
350 graphic techniques such as homomorphic encryption are on the verge of dramatically
351 changing how medical health records are stored and analyzed.

352 AI techniques are also being actively used in disease prevention and epidemiological
353 research with impressive results (Munir et al. 2019). GeoAI too is having a significant
354 impact with methods having been designed to model unique conditions such as spatial
355 non-stationarity, variation in scale, and data sparsity. These are relevant to fields
356 such as environmental epidemiology (VoPham et al. 2018), precision medicine, and
357 healthy cities (Kamel Boulos et al. 2019). All of these fields have a strong privacy
358 and confidentiality component and many of the models being developed today are
359 designed with privacy in mind. These are often referred to as *privacy-aware* or *privacy-*
360 *enhancing* technologies. As mentioned previously, models that deal with location data
361 are particularly vulnerable to privacy inference attacks as knowledge of one’s location

362 allows for the inference of different characteristics. Not surprisingly, this has impacted
363 the other side of the medical industry, namely health insurance. While some of us are
364 aware that AI techniques are being used to analyze our driving records (Arumugam
365 and Bhargavi 2019), we should also be conscious that they are being used to estimate
366 risk and set health insurance rates (Naylor 2018).

367 The Covid-19 pandemic gave rise to a new era of health-related privacy concerns
368 with many agencies and industry partners using AI for contact tracing (Grekousis
369 and Liu 2021) and predicting outbreaks (Vaishya et al. 2020). During the Covid-
370 19 pandemic, many of the privacy mechanisms that went into securing public and
371 private health care data were reduced or removed to support contact tracing and
372 epidemiological modelling efforts. Ribeiro-Navarrete et al. (2021) provide an overview
373 of Covid-19 related privacy discussions and surveillance technologies.

374 **3.3. Security & surveillance**

375 The quintessential domain that one thinks of when discussing privacy in GeoAI is
376 surveillance. Concern over AI technologies used to monitor citizens has received quite
377 a bit of attention in the news media in recent years. This is not unwarranted but the
378 relationship between AI and surveillance is more complex than it is often made out to
379 be. There are plenty of examples in the literature of machine learning methods and
380 tools that are used to track the locations of objects (*e.g.*, people, vehicles). Tracking
381 technologies range from collecting locations of people through GNSS, Wi-Fi, or cellular
382 trilateration, to license plate identification on traffic cameras. Other surveillance efforts
383 monitor animal movement through image recognition for habitat delineation, conser-
384 vation, and poaching prevention (Kumar and Jakhar 2022). Tracking or surveilling an
385 object, by definition, involves the collection of information about that object and while
386 the act itself is not a privacy violation, in certain circumstances, it can be. Aside from
387 the actual data collection, AI has contributed to advances in how such tracking data
388 are analyzed. Improvements in image classification and high performance computing
389 mean that people can be monitored across different regions through CCTV surveil-
390 lance cameras (Fontes et al. 2022). Tracking and surveillance can be less explicit as
391 well. Existing research has demonstrated that humans are creatures of habit and are
392 highly predictable in their activity behavior. Through the analysis of user-contributed
393 and crowd-sourced data, *social sensing* techniques can be used to identify when and
394 where someone may visit a place (Janowicz et al. 2019).

395 Tools and methods for crime prediction and counter-terrorism are often seen as
396 being at odds with privacy preservation. The role of AI in crime forecasting specifically
397 has received considerable interest in recent years (Dakalbab et al. 2022, Kounadi et al.
398 2020). Many of the techniques used in these fields are design for de-anonymization and
399 re-identification in the name of safety and security. Most of the discussion related to
400 privacy stems from surveillance being viewed as an infringement on individual rights.
401 Given that criminal activity clusters geographically, one must be concerned about the
402 privacy of one’s data and, when the data are exposed, how that data is being used.
403 A large body of research has investigated mass surveillance for security purposes and
404 few results have indicated that AI models built on such data are more accurate at
405 predicting crimes (Verhelst et al. 2020) or identifying repeat offenders (Dressel and
406 Farid 2018). Work by Mayson (2019) demonstrated that the personal data used as
407 input to such prediction models have dire consequences on the resulting actions taken
408 by law enforcement. Predictive AI modeling has been shown to incorrectly identify

409 individuals as criminals (Crawford and Schultz 2014) and that some AI predictive
410 recidivism tools demonstrate concerning bias in their recommendations either as a
411 result of the input data or the model designs.

412 4. The future of privacy in GeoAI

413 In this section we look to how privacy within GeoAI is changing and identify some
414 of the leading concerns that should be addressed by the community. Specifically, we
415 outline three ways in which privacy within GeoAI can be improved and highlight three
416 emerging topics related to location privacy.

417 4.1. *Suggested areas for improvement*

418 While there are multiple ways that privacy can be further addressed within GeoAI,
419 we provide the following three suggestions as starting points.

- 420 • **Privacy by design.** Despite the significant body of work on privacy from
421 legal experts, policy makers, and ethical AI researchers, privacy concerns are
422 still typically a secondary factor in the advancement of artificial intelligence.
423 This is not only true for GeoAI, but for the broader field of AI and related
424 technologies. Rather than being considered as an after thought, future directions
425 of GeoAI research should integrate data privacy principles from the outset.
426 Furthermore, data privacy should be considered at all stages of development
427 from conception through delivery. Those with expertise in privacy and ethics
428 should be consulted in the development and assessment of new algorithms
429 that will impact the privacy of individuals or certain demographic groups.
430 Privacy impact assessments (Clarke 2009) or audits, similar to ethics-based
431 audits (Mökander and Floridi 2021), may be one such solution.
432
- 433 • **Spatial *privacy* is special.** Building off *Spatial is Special*, the alliterative
434 phrase commonly uttered by geographic information scientists, there continues
435 to be a need for wider acknowledgement within the artificial intelligence
436 community that geographic data are unique due to the relationship between
437 entity similarity and spatiotemporal proximity. This is particularly true when
438 the privacy of an individual is at stake. Ignoring spatial properties of a dataset
439 can substantially impact one’s privacy (Griffith 2018). Working with geographic
440 data requires an understanding of basic geographic concepts such as spatial
441 heterogeneity, auto-correlation, and inference, and how they can be leveraged
442 to either preserve or divulge private details.
443
- 444 • **Enhancing regulations.** Since data are the foundation on which virtually all
445 AI technologies are built, access to such data for AI development should be
446 scrutinized. Currently there is very little oversight or transparency on what types
447 of data are collected, how they are collected, and how they are being used.
448 We need independent assessment and inter-governmental regulations pertaining
449 to data collection, storage, and its use. The European Union’s General Data
450 Protection Regulation (GDPR) is a good, but flawed first step. For instance,
451 each European country is responsible for investigating the companies that are
452 registered within it. This means that a country like Ireland is responsible for

453 regulating a massive percentage of big tech. The actual number of penalties
454 placed on violators as a result of the GDPR are much lower than predicted five
455 years ago (Burgess 2022). Additional efforts must be made to ensure that users
456 of digital platforms have the right to control how their data are collected, stored,
457 and analyzed. The need for such transparency is paramount.

458 4.2. *Emerging privacy topics in GeoAI*

459 Aside from these recommendations there are a number of new challenges and emerging
460 opportunities within GeoAI privacy research (Richardson et al. 2015). Some of these
461 are actively being investigated while other are merely proposal for future research
462 directions within this domain. Below we identify three directions that we feel are of
463 particular interest to the GeoAI community.

- 464 • **Fake geospatial data.** The methods introduced earlier in this chapter highlight
465 techniques for preserving the privacy of real people sharing real data. Synthetic
466 data generation is one such approach, but new disinformation campaigns are
467 focused on generating *fake* location data. Similar to how *deep fake* algorithms
468 have emerged as practical tools for communicating disinformation visually, we
469 are beginning to see similar approaches used to generating fake, but geospatially
470 probable data. We are already seeing the emergence of a new subdomain of
471 deep fake geography (Zhao et al. 2021). The reasons for generating fake location
472 data include identity theft, political or social disruption, or bypassing security
473 protocols. Note that fake data generation, while similar to synthetic data
474 generation, is substantially different in its design and motivation. As our security
475 tools increasingly relying on location information for verification (e.g., known
476 IP address for banking), a new focus on detecting fake location information is
477 required and the GeoAI community is well situated to address this challenge.
478
- 479 • **Publicly accessible and integrated tools.** We have only just scratched the
480 surface in developing techniques for privacy preservation. As AI development
481 and data availability grow, so too will the need for privacy preservation
482 tools. Similar to how efforts are under way to detect text generated by large
483 language model chat bots, we need publicly accessible tools to help users detect
484 privacy violations and help users take control of their data. While many of the
485 techniques and tools mentioned in this chapter are realized through theoretical
486 models published by academics, real-world applications of these approaches
487 have been slow to emerge. This is doubly true for methods generated by GeoAI
488 developers. Future research will involve 1) the further integration of privacy
489 preservation methods into existing location data sharing platforms and 2) more
490 investment in the development of publicly accessible location privacy tools.
491 Finally, educational efforts from geographers and computational scientists will
492 focus on investigating the ways in which these tools educate and inform the
493 public as to what is possible with personal location information.
494
- 495 • **Policy development.** From a social, political, and ethical perspective, future
496 research will undoubtedly focus on developing policies in partnership with com-
497 mercial entities and government agencies. Historically, government regulation
498 and laws follow technological advances – often years behind. As highlighted in
499 our suggestions above, regulatory bodies need to rise to the occasion, but these

500 regulations need to be driven by evidence produced by ethical AI researchers
501 and domain experts. As GeoAI emerges as it's own subdomain from within AI
502 and geography, we have an opportunity to include the study of ethical and pri-
503 vacy implications within our research principles. The inclusion and reporting of
504 such research will help inform regulators and policy makers when considering
505 the impact of GeoAI on local communities and the global population.

506 5. Summary

507 In this chapter we presented an overview of data privacy as it related to geographic ar-
508 tificial intelligence. Geographic data are a unique type of information in that knowledge
509 of one person's location reveals highly sensitive information about nearby individuals
510 or groups. The growth of AI and associated techniques has forced researchers, com-
511 panies, governments, and the public to think seriously about the privacy implications
512 of sharing, collecting, and analyzing such data. Within GeoAI, particular attention
513 needs to be made to how personal location and movement data are being analyzed
514 and what can be inferred through geospatial analysis. A growing body of AI methods
515 and tools are focused on privacy preservation with respect to geographic data within
516 a wide range of domains. We encourage continued discussion on ethics and privacy as
517 advances in GeoAI continue to shape the world around us.

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