THE COMPUTERTECH
(An International Peer Review Journal)
VOLUME 11; ISSUE 1 (JAN-JUNE); (2025)
WEBSITE: THE COMPUTERTECH

Privacy Risk Scoring for User-Facing Enterprise Web Applications: A Machine Learning Model for Sensitive Data Exposure Detection

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Abstract

The current article examines the regulating factors of analytics, particularly about citizen behaviors and transactions, which are contingent upon the operational realm of an organization (corporate, public sector/government, or academic). We contend that ambitions and purposes vary per domain, despite digital spaces increasingly converging these domains. We assert that citizens' expectations and implicit consent for data exploitation need the perception of a fair balance of advantages, which must be visible and justified to the public. We emphasize that in the corporate domain, the majority of analytics does not pertain to identification, targeted marketing, or direct engagement with individual people; rather, it facilitates strategic decision-making, with the data being effectively anonymized. We examine the nature of models used in analytics via three domains, including 'black-box' modeling that is beyond human verification, and the need of monitoring the provenance and functionality of these models. We also analyze the recent development of personal data, whereby some behaviors or tokens that identify people (unique but non-random) are partly and collectively held by other interconnected persons. We evaluate the capacity of strongly and weakly regulated industries to enhance access or inhibit innovation. We advocate for explicit and comprehensive definitions of 'data science and analytics', steering clear of the restrictive assertions made by individuals in certain technical sub-sectors or sub-themes. Ultimately, we analyze instances of unethical and abusive conduct. We advocate for the imposition of ethical duty on professional data scientists to prevent future misuse.

Keywords: Privacy Risk Assessment; Machine Learning; Personal Identifiable Information; Web Application Security; Risk Scoring Models.

Introduction

The velocity of data generation by citizens, customers, consumers, and prosumers on advancing digital platforms prompts many significant inquiries. The convergence of digital communications and mobile devices generates new digital environments for individuals to engage in e-commerce, round-the-clock services, entertainment, media, social networking, and the exhibition of various digital identities, while also facilitating significant technology-driven advancements.

Digital platform operators (corporations, public sector entities, charities) may collect data that delineate user behavior and may curate and administer these digital resources, frequently at significant cost. The transaction data are analyzed to deliver immediate responses to individual users, or alternatively, they are repurposed for long-term strategic advantages for both the platform

and its users, with the latter insights frequently overlooked or misinterpreted by commentators (see §5). This examination is often termed 'analytics' [1], and its purpose is to provide actionable insights. The transition of operators from the traditional paradigm to a data-centric environment always catalyzes a concurrent cultural transformation. They transition from a service and supply-centric approach, emphasizing the excellence, effectiveness, and efficiency of product and service delivery, to a user-centric model that seeks to comprehend the motivations and interactions of users with their offerings, while aiming to cultivate specific user behaviors. Some operators lack a historical background prior to their digital emergence and often possess operational and financial structures that expressly depend on monetizing their users, outside the actual user-platform interactions.

We will examine many ethical challenges relevant to professionals in data science broadly and analytics specifically. This is not intended to be a comprehensive evaluation. This perspective is oriented towards commercial exploiters rather than a public institutional or academic research viewpoint. This is particularly relevant to ethical foresight in analytics, since data science has evolved significantly over the last two decades to use private business data, mostly by teams inside data-rich organizations that have access to information from their own digital platforms. Large-scale datasets are seldom accessible, if ever, to academic researchers.

The contrast between private (more closed) and public/research (more open) data sciences, each with its own histories and motivations, is emphasized in [1]:

Even prior to the recognition of this phenomenon by academic mathematicians, the situation had already been irrevocably altered. Numerous firms and universities could not afford to await the mathematical research community's advancement in applications. The resolutions to disruptive difficulties and the innovative possibilities generated were very helpful. Even the

The terminology pertained to business competitiveness, and for numerous analytics practitioners, including the author, it was crucial for analytics to be recognized as a source of competitive advantage, an endeavor promoted in business schools and embraced in boardrooms prior to its integration into academic research within the mathematical sciences.

In the concluding section, we will encapsulate the principal aspects of each specific difficulty we have examined.

Regulatory Authorities

We propose a clear differentiation between the research initiatives and projects conducted by individual scholars and academic collectives (along with their public engagement); the research and operations undertaken by or for corporations, which possess shareholders and lenders and seek to safeguard their reputational capital; and the data science endeavors executed by the public sector, encompassing various governmental entities. There is no universal code applicable to all situations.

The 'Responsible Research and Innovation' (RRI) framework for academic research is a method that predicts and evaluates possible consequences and social expectations to promote the development of inclusive and sustainable research and innovation. The 'Science with and for Society' objective within EU Horizon 2020 mandates a crucial action to be realized through thematic components of Responsible Research and Innovation (RRI), including public engagement, open access, gender, ethics, and science education, as well as integrated initiatives that encourage

institutional transformation to enhance the adoption of the RRI approach by stakeholders and institutions. It thus seems to be self-sustaining.

It is essential to regulate the interventions and actions of academic researchers in digital environments, since they may lack complete accountability to funders or stakeholders with reputations at risk; yet, institutions, for instance, possess their own ethical committees. This structure is already used in several commercial enterprises where the stakes are significantly elevated. Generally, firms possess extensive strategic and technological assistance to manage reputational risks, and they are probably more astute and cognizant of hazards than publically supported researchers. This help must be promptly expanded into ethical realms inside rapidly evolving digital environments.

The potential diminution of shareholder value resulting from the impression of misconduct or ineptitude over customer/user data is substantial. The recent instances of Volkswagen's emissions software fraud, the cyberattacks on TalkTalk, the recent denial-of-service attacks on British banks, and the prominent discourse regarding profits and corporate taxes paid by Google and Vodafone illustrate the significance of reputation and value concerns in regulating data science activities.

Furthermore, public perceptions might shift, potentially placing firms on the inappropriate side of the 'creepy line,' where their obscure practices are seen undesirable at worst or just disproportionate to the advantages provided at best (see §9). An evident project for analytics professionals collaborating with a loyalty card program (such as that of a grocery chain) may include gathering the Twitter IDs of several loyalty card users. It may do this by conducting tournaments or online lotteries and requesting participants to log in using their Twitter IDs. Upon acquisition, analysts might ascertain their consumers' viewpoints, preferred television shows, football affiliations, hobbies, and the things they purchase. This would theoretically benefit both the consumer and the store by enabling enhanced qualification of discounts and offers tailored to individual preferences, while also increasing revenue from manufacturers. In the long run, this may foster more loyalty and closeness in customer relationship management. The fundamental issue is that a well-established equilibrium exists between the advantages gained from their loyalty card and the potential disruption caused by monitoring consumers online (see to §3). No grocery chain is currently undertaking such an initiative without transparency and openness. The potential danger regarding reputational damage and shareholder value is very significant.

The controversy regarding Facebook's emotions experiment merits examination within this 'dual framing' context, as the involvement in an academic collaboration and subsequent open publication shifted the governing parameters to encompass not only the typical corporate constraints (user terms and conditions, data usage policy, corporate reputation, and transparency).

This may still entail legal ramifications, including remedies like amending the data use policy to explicitly state that user data will be utilized for research purposes. Additionally, it pertains to the domain of 'responsible research' within academia, encompassing both scientific and experimental limitations, such as informed consent, the function of the internal review board, potential harm, and suitability for publication in PNAS.

Ethical concerns are increasingly included on corporate risk registers and are being addressed at the board level. Ethics foresight is nascent but will become more vital and apparent. This is

particularly pertinent to industries and activities grounded on data science and analytics, since their rate of evolution surpasses regulatory responsiveness, and the data is often sourced from human behavior on digital platforms. Organizations must not complacently drift toward calamities. In domains such as public policy formulation, law enforcement, counterterrorism, climate change, and energy provision, horizon scanning and foresight efforts are conducted, although with varying quality and comprehensiveness, which accounts for the occurrence of 'black swan' occurrences. Numerous corporations and public entities with data and analytics exposure should proactively contemplate potential occurrences and challenges, including those addressed above. The unforeseen uncertainties will be disruptive, both positively and negatively. Ethical foresight in data science could serve as a crucial instrument for mitigating risks associated with investments in digital services, products, and skilled employment within the economy. It ought to be necessary.

Government departments and other public sector entities are subject to an additional set of governing influences. The public and the media maintain elevated expectations for these activities about their purposes, objectives, performance, and competences. They must act in the best interest of residents and be seen as doing so. The strategic motivators for data science and analytics stem from both policy and practice. The public anticipates that government data is more secure than business data, which is intended to foster innovation and enhance policy-making. The governing authorities require the dissemination of statistics, although sometimes outdated and aggregated in manners that should not infringe upon privacy; yet, data are often released in inaccessible formats, such as the prevalent usage of non-scrapable PDFs, which is exasperating.

A significant distinction between public sector data science and both business data science and university research data science is that the government consistently endeavors to integrate diverse information, often concerning humans.

The information broker is a clear exception. Rather of managing its private and sensitive data, it aggregates information, typically about a multitude of individuals. The data is then sold for targeted marketing, identity verification, fraud detection, or individual study. The integration of data, both in rigorous (logically aligned) and nuanced (inferred) ways, is a crucial component. These brokers use public data, including electoral

Government-published datasets, such as those from open data projects, are far more accessible than commercial data from sources like ISPs, e-commerce platforms, or loyalty programs.

Public sector data analytics must engage a diverse array of prospective consumers equitably. This is a vital component of the Open Government Partnership National Action Plans. This is markedly different from business or research data science and analytics.

In summary, we contend that the governing dynamics, both limiting and propelling data science and analytics, are notably different across three primary domains: corporate, academic, and public sector. This has consistently been the situation, and those factors have mostly developed independently over several years. The current difficulty is that all three industries now occupy the same digital environments. They have converged on digital platforms and operate inside shared digital communities. We propose that when any entity transitions from one domain to another without foreseeing the resultant alteration in ruling forces, it results in significant internal disarray regarding moral clarity, as well as exterior uncertainty and potential detriment. Consequently, it is

unproductive to examine ethics and ethical foresight inside these domains; instead, one should juxtapose their competencies, behaviors, and ambitions. It is a categorical fallacy to transfer the current corollaries, practices, and operational norms, which are subservient to controlling forces, from one domain to another. Currently, what is deemed correct is contingent upon the context in which one exists.

Equity and an Equilibrium of Advantages

It is hard to surpass the value of free. The allure of free offerings is persuasive and is well recognized in behavioral economics [22]. We are used to using Google, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram, and LinkedIn, all of which are free in their basic versions, but eBay, PayPal, and Amazon are optional services that need payment only upon transaction. They provide exceptional utility and have grown pervasive and relied upon in our lives. The users acknowledge the need of achieving a balance. consumers have complimentary access to these platforms/services, while the corporation employs a business strategy that monetizes user behavior (data) to generate profit, subsequently developing further innovative apps for consumers at no cost. Google Street View serves as an exemplary illustration. There is a discernible breach of public privacy, and although Street View may provide revenue-generating prospects for Google, it remains free for public users, who mostly use it for convenience. As such functionality becomes an integral aspect of our life, few individuals would like to forfeit it. Users acknowledge that Facebook requires a commercial strategy and cash generation for its sustainability; nonetheless, many individuals find it indispensable for their social interactions. Consequently, there exists a balance whereby the public acknowledges their exploitation to some extent, but acquiesces due to the evident advantages they get at little or no direct expense.

Loyalty cards do not cultivate loyalty; nevertheless, they enable users to accumulate loyalty points over time, which may be redeemed in stores, with airlines, or at hotels, among other options. Users get discounts and coupons, sometimes receiving a rebate of several percent of their expenditures. Loyalty card holders may choose to participate or withdraw at their discretion. The customers get perks, while the corporation gathers longitudinal data on their transactions in exchange. This serves several functions (see to §5). Tesco PLC, akin to many other retailers, contends that their 'Club Card' and their capacity to comprehend client preferences have been pivotal to their expansion over the previous quarter-century. If Tesco invests internationally, it implements that component. It is a mutually beneficial scenario: they anticipate and cater to client needs more effectively, while customers get immediate advantages along with additional long-term benefits that they want, sometimes without even realizing it.

The impression of equity is fundamental to trust in this context. The transaction is straightforward and clear, offering clients instant and measurable benefits. However, the overall magnitude of the advantages is difficult to evaluate.

What if an online retailer shares its anonymized basket data with an online travel agency, enabling the agency to comprehend consumer purchasing patterns prior to a two-week absence in August, in exchange for complimentary vacations for all its employees? The personnel would gain advantages, and the online shop would thrive because to its more dedicated and enthusiastic employees, motivated and rewarded by their dividend vacation. The travel agency would gain by developing innovative and perceptive bargains, goods, and services for prospective holidaymakers. However,

the clients of the online shop are excluded from that group. What level of advantage would be deemed acceptable, assuming it became publicly recognized, before consumers sought a share of the profits? Is there a distinction between stockholders receiving the benefits vs the staff?

The equitable relationship between the platform's value (the data collector and operator) and the citizens/users must be apparent, even if not entirely quantifiable. Analytics provides firms the opportunity to generate several new revenue streams by monetizing insights derived from anonymized data assets, rather than only increasing marketing efforts directed at consumers; hence, this problem disproportionately impacts such activities.

We propose that user perception of fairness and the equilibrium of benefits is unattainable if consumers lack insight into the business structures and income streams of platforms. Where these may be unclear, we believe a qualitative explanation should be provided to consumers. The paramount aspect is not the absolute quantification of company and customer advantages, since the average user is unlikely to assess the risks and strategies reflected in balance sheets, but rather a distinct impression of mutual equilibrium and respect. Conversely, several organizations may claim that the fine print of their terms and conditions permits them to use their proprietary data (while adhering to the licenses provided and their privacy obligations) to offset the substantial expenses associated with its gathering and curation. Although this may adhere to the letter of the law, it contravenes the principles of openness and transparency, so undermining confidence.

The Essence of Personal Data

As the variety of information accessible for analysis increases, it will be essential to examine how personal data is associated with persons. The most straightforward scenario is assigning a unique identifier to people, such as a name and address, or preferably, a national insurance number. There exists a distinction between unique and random identifiers (e.g., a loyalty card number) and unique but non-random identifiers (e.g., a name and address, which may be partially shared and thus linked to others). What about a fingerprint? These are often used as evidence, since they may correspond with crime scene observations and, with some professional interpretation, exhibit a minimal likelihood of false matches. They are unique and random for the person in question, contingent upon skill and the quality of the observations.

Conversely, there exists data that delineates the demographic characteristics to which a person belongs, such as hair color, eye color, ethnicity, age bracket, and socio-economic classification. others of them are behavioral, others are tribal (such as attachment to a football club), and others are hereditary.

However, we may now get data from people that does not belong to either category. This transpires when observations are distinctive to the individual but exhibit correlations between pairs of people that are intimately interconnected in some manner (and hence non-random). This issue in the public domain, where the use of data and analytics is subject to the highest standards of responsibility, is particularly troublesome.

The issue we present is that having a close relative in the database may render you traceable via that profile. While DNA is distinctive (except identical twins), tight family links between pairs of persons may be deduced. Many ethical concerns related to family searches inside the Police

National DNA Database. This necessitates further contemplation about various categories of persons' data that may imply.

In the future, several such issues are anticipated as innovative digital assets and the digital personas of interconnected individuals may display interrelated characteristics, whether in their digital conduct, activities, attitudes, or traits, beyond just quantitative statistics. Assume that an institution gathers data on the behavior of a digital asset (such as an online account or avatar) from a substantial population sample, along with the associated concrete identity and specific attribute information of the individual (including culture, race, beliefs, region, age, gender, socio-economic status, etc.). The institution's analytics staff may identify linkages, whether rational or just correlational, between digital behavioral traits and concrete identity-based features. No individual's behavior in the digital realm is really random; it would need considerable effort to be entirely arbitrary. The behavioral traits provide a non-random identification token that is unique to the person, with sufficient information, while also exhibiting relationships or similarities with others that possess specified common hard features. Similar to DNA, this might facilitate the identification of individuals linked to a person in the institution's database, even if they are not directly included in that database.

We propose that future larger problems will be influenced by the interconnectedness of people, which will be manifested in their digital activities and aspects of their digital behavior. This encompasses digital identities and personas, which may be observed and retained for several valid objectives, such as trade, transactions, and identity verification. Analytics will facilitate the behavioral attribution of identity, whether related or not. The digital society is expected to develop far more rapidly regardless of circumstances to these issues than the previous non-cyber realm of civil liberties, criminal databases, and DNA. The last decade offers substantial insights into the discourse and experiences around interconnected, but distinct, personal identities. Additional definition and understanding are necessary, particularly if data spaces are to be inspected regularly or otherwise regulated. The Draft Communications Data Bill (2016) may have some ramifications.

Heavily and Weakly Regulated Industries

In many areas, the use of analytics is subject to stringent regulations due to competitiveness, safety, security, and inclusiveness considerations, with operators undergoing a government-supervised procedure aimed at safeguarding individuals.

The creation of new pharmaceuticals by drug firms is one such instance, with the Association of the British Pharmaceutical Industry saying that the average cost is £1.2 billion is required to develop a new medicine for market introduction, a process that spans 12 years. This encompasses pre-discovery, real discovery, pre-clinical studies, and phases 1, 2, and 3 of clinical trials, along with licensing stages. Nearly all of these include data analysis. This whole pipeline is compromised by incurring such expenditures or by the price of pharmaceuticals that NICE cannot accommodate. The current regulatory framework, implemented before licensing to safeguard residents, is stifling the business and thereby endangering individuals. An innovative solution involves the pooling of information and the sharing of objectives in the initial phases, supported by public funding in conjunction with investments from various small and large corporations, with subsequent stages becoming exclusive and competitive, as exemplified by the 'Bioescalator' concept.

Approximately a decade ago, the government. The financial industry recognized that stringent regulations had created obstacles for new competitors in the retail banking domain. This stifled innovation and diminished options for consumers, particularly at a period when the financial crisis revealed the evident shortcomings of established institutions. However, the most potent instrument available to regulators is the capacity to foster competition. Recent digital banks are disrupting the established order, with many having obtained licenses in the last few years. They are well matched with the development of enabling digital technology and analytics. Examples include: Atom Bank (exclusively digital, with plans for an online-only current account); Fidor Bank (a bank leveraging social media and Web 2.0 technologies); Starling (a digital bank catering to tech-savvy consumers seeking enhanced banking experiences beyond mere mobile adaptations of paper statements); Charter Savings Bank (capable of embracing modern technology, in contrast to traditional banks constrained by legacy IT systems); Hampden (a cloud-based banking platform developed by Oracle); and Lintel Bank (featuring advanced IT, promising account opening for British citizens in merely two minutes). Data science and analytics significantly contribute to these products, while emerging business models persistently reshape the contemporary retail banking market.

In several regions globally, advancements toward the mobile finance objective of 'banking the unbanked' have been measured in specific nations. Although MPESA demonstrated the functionality of mobile wallets in Kenya over a decade ago, others have hesitated, maybe anticipating a response from the established banks. Simultaneously, worldwide mobile network operators have seen mobile banking as a key method to enhance client income and loyalty. Recent developments in India have occurred.

The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) has fallen behind other nations, progressing slowly via incremental measures to liberalize regulation for new models. On August 19, 2015, the RBI made a significant advancement in digital finance and, perhaps, repositioned itself as supportive of innovation. It sanctioned 11 applications, including five of India's MNOs, to establish and start payments banks by early 2017.

Nevertheless, the program did not mandate the projects to provide any of the anonymised residential smart meter data. The outcome was to impede innovation and limit access to the research groups directly involved in the programs. A timely release of domestic smart meter data may have mobilized significant efforts from academic institutions and small enterprises. The unfortunate circumstance was not rectified until 2015 when just one of the DNOs, Power Networks, disseminated the data in a format beneficial to other eligible researchers. The statistics were gathered at the cost of current energy consumers.

Conversely, in areas with less regulation (apart from privacy laws and data security), there exists a far more innovative and competitive landscape of data science endeavors. For instance, contemplate the aforementioned shops using their data and analytics to enhance their competitive edge and better support their clientele. The digital marketing business today surpasses all other advertising channels by using data from search and social media. In many instances, the identification of effective strategies and an understanding of their efficacy have enabled corporations to abandon indiscriminate advertising in favor of more personalized marketing approaches. This poses several intriguing problems, such as which items and brands should be promoted on social networks to build buzz, and which products are unsuitable for this approach

and instead rely on traditional broadcasting methods, such as advertisements on buses. The data used here is often confidential, and its security is crucial for both business reputation and shareholder profit, as well as for citizen privacy—interests are significantly linked.

Between these two extremes are activities where the location of big data and its use may be regulated (due to security issues), or where the analytics may access just a portion of the data (for compelling privacy reasons, as shown in telephone call data records, for instance). Alternatively, some additional partial limitations are imposed. This often complicates the execution of analytics on the cloud or other environments with little expense. Any tightness or limitation incurs a cost that must be absorbed by the firm or its consumers.

Nonetheless, regulation and law have been used to eliminate certain creative but objectionable commercial activities, such as malware and fraudulent data collecting. We must differentiate between the ethics of questionable surveillance and data collecting and the ethics of data analytics.

Governments and regulators have a pronounced tendency to impose legal restrictions on data storage, analytics, and applications. However, due to the global characteristics of digital platforms, the interconnectedness of digital environments, and the ambiguity about identities and locations, this situation is becoming more troublesome.

The rapidity and characteristics of the digital economy challenge the antiquated framework of cumbersome regulation. In certain instances, regulators may take years to respond, if they respond at all, as exemplified by P2P file-sharing platforms, which, while not inherently illegal, facilitated copyright infringement and piracy; this was deemed acceptable by a majority of contemporaneous observers. New business models realistically arise from disruptive entities that perceive the ethical and regulatory void as an opportunity to offer more functional, higher-quality, and ethically acceptable solutions to the public and regulators. Occasionally, weapons races provide possibilities.

Analytics, the process of deriving insights from extensive datasets—such as behavioral or transactional data—serves as the foundational activity for several emerging business models. Providing intelligent semi-automated services to clients and citizens with little risk, while escalating complex issues, in real time and continuously, will foster the development of new business models in digital environments across all industries. The expansion and accessibility of digital products, together with their centralized implementation (thereby enhancing central control agility), enable enterprises to operate at reduced costs and adapt to client demands. This is an ideal opportunity for businesses. The function of regulators as both gatekeepers and adjudicators of best practices must include ethical dilemmas. Due to the private and secret nature of the data and analytics, the regulator is often unable to see the practices and instead concentrates on the qualifications of the participants (who is doing which actions).

What are their motivations for pursuing this initiative, and what are the consequences for consumer access and inclusiveness, market entrants, competition, and obstacles to choice, as well as policy implications? Engaging in ethical conduct may seem discretionary; yet, corporations are influenced by other regulatory factors, as outlined in §2, including reputation and shareholder value.

In conclusion, we propose that regulation might be an ineffective instrument that potentially stifles digital innovation, primarily by imposing compliance costs and qualification obstacles. The rapid evolution of digital platform creation and acceptance, along with the characteristics of innovative

analytics, results in a legislative reaction that is comparatively sluggish and may primarily concentrate on enforcing existing rights (such as inclusivity, privacy, and copyright) on operations.

Conclusion

We have examined how the regulatory frameworks for analytics, particularly on individuals' behaviors and transactions, are contingent upon the institutional domain of operation: corporate, public sector/government, or academic. Confusion occurs when institutions transition across domains or when ethical rules, standards, and practices developed for one domain are imposed on another. The digital realms have increasingly converged these domains.

Future ethical foresight and concerns, as proposed by the emerging Council for Data Ethics, should not be addressed uniformly. The public seems to be aware of these discrepancies. Data analytics provides useful insights for both operators and the public, who frequently serve as data producers on platforms. The public's tacit consent, extending beyond mere 'terms and conditions,' necessitates a perceived equitable distribution of benefits. The advantages may not be explicitly quantifiable (how does the user assess the worth of Facebook or YouTube's free services relative to corporate profits?), nevertheless they have to be mutually respectful, transparent, and reasonable. Companies that monetize data via obscure methods should provide consumers with a qualitative explanation of those income sources. A declaration regarding all current and anticipated future uses of the data should be articulated in accessible language.

The influence of language and its potential effects on users, whether apparent or not.

Analytics inherently categorizes individuals based on behavior, risk, and their prospective worth to platforms. Nonetheless, there are distinct business or operational advantages to be derived from inclusivity. Conversely, analytics should not be used to deduce consumer characteristics that might lead to unjust discrimination against individuals when such traits are not immediately pertinent to business proposals (which may be unlawful). For instance, behavioral insights may subtly deduce race, ability, culture, religion, intelligence quotient, or the propensity to exhibit certain behaviors.

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