

Phishing detection

Roberto Gesteira Miñarro

Thursday 27th May, 2021

Table of contents

Introduction	4
1 Characterization and exploration of the dataset	4
1.1 Variables in the dataset	6
2 Association rules	7
3 Clustering	8
3.1 Hierarchical clustering over the variables	8
3.2 Hierarchical clustering over the observations	9
3.3 K -means	11
4 Kohonen maps	13
4.1 Unsupervised model	13
4.2 Supervised model	16
5 KNN	18
6 Decision trees	18
6.1 CART	18
6.2 C4.5	21
6.3 Random forest	22
7 Multi-layer perceptron	25
Conclusions	27
Annex: Script to characterize an URL	28

List of figures

Figure 1. Principal component analysis over the original dataset	5
Figure 2. Principal component analysis over the reduced dataset	6
Figure 3. Resulting association rules	7
Figure 4. Distances between the variables of the dataset	8
Figure 5. Dendrogram of the variables	9
Figure 6. Dendrogram obtained with agglomerative clustering and Ward's method	10
Figure 7. Dendrogram obtained with divisive clustering	10
Figure 8. Number of clusters according to the elbow method	12
Figure 9. Number of clusters according to the silhouette method	12
Figure 10. Data related to each neuron according to the variable	14
Figure 11. Data related to each neuron according to the variable (without redundancies)	15
Figure 12. Clustering of the patterns discovered on each neuron	16
Figure 13. Classes of the observations relative to each neuron	17
Figure 14. CART decision tree	19
Figure 15. Error evolution depending on the number of nodes and the cost-complexity	20
Figure 16. Pruned CART decision tree	20
Figure 17. OOB error evolution depending on the number of predictors . . .	22
Figure 18. OOB error evolution depending on the node size	23
Figure 19. OOB error evolution depending on the number of trees	23
Figure 20. Importance of the variables in the random forest model	24
Figure 21. Implemented neural network	25
Figure 22. Representation of real data and predictions	26

Introduction

In this project, a dataset analysis based on URL features accessible by HTTP or HTTPS is done, using known Machine Learning algorithms.

The dataset used for the study can be found at <https://www.kaggle.com/manishkc06/web-page-phishing-detection>, although the original contents are at <https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/c2gw7fy2j4/2>, plus some Python codes to extract the features of provided URL.

The objective of the analysis is to construct several models that can be used to predict whether an URL contains some kind of phishing depending on the characteristics of that URL. The models development and analysis is done in R.

As an additional solution, it is intended to develop a tool that can detect if an URL is legitimate or contains phishing. To achieve this, firstly the URL is characterized with a Python script (based on the ones coming with the dataset); and secondly, the obtained features are entered to the models created with R, in order to predict the type of URL.

As a result, it will be possible to prevent phishing attacks by integrating this tool to browsers and email clients, to analyze an URL and warn users of a potential danger.

1 Characterization and exploration of the dataset

Firstly, it is necessary to observe the dataset to know the variables that are involved and the number of examples available.

The original dataset contains 89 variables and 11 481 observations. By experience, it is known that it will be difficult to work with this dataset (above all using clustering algorithms). Therefore, a reduction of the dataset is needed.

Among the 89 variables, there are 6 that always have the same value for all observations. It is obvious that such variables do not give any relevant information and must be deleted from the dataset.

On the other hand, there exists a variable that can be used as index (i.e. the URL), and the target variable **status**, which indicates if an URL is legitimate or contains phising.

To determine if among the 81 variables remaining there is one more important than the others, a principal component analysis (PCA) is done, obtaining the following scree plot:

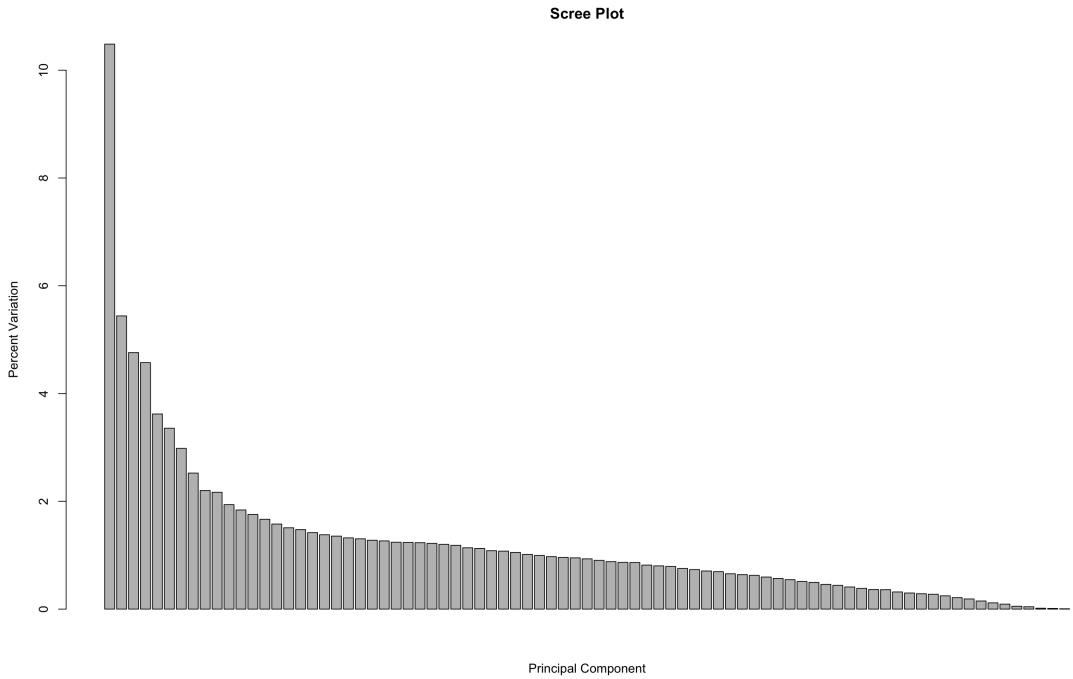


Figure 1. Principal component analysis over the original dataset

It can be seen in Figure 1 that it is not possible to distinguish clearly any important component, because the tallest bar is slightly above 10 %. Then, another method should be implemented to reduce the size of the dataset.

There are some binary variables in the dataset that have the same value for more than 90 % of the examples, which means that these variables do not give useful information. They only highlight a few examples. Hence, this counted examples are deleted, and then the whole variable is deleted (because it will have the same value for all observations).

The previous process is repeated until the dataset stabilizes at 47 variables (considering `url` and `status`) and 5 445 observations. Now, the dataset is much lighter and is better to work with.

Anyway, another PCA is done over the reduced dataset in order to check if there exists an important component. Taking a look at Figure 2, it is concluded that there are no principal components.

For the rest of the sections, the reduced dataset is the one that is used.

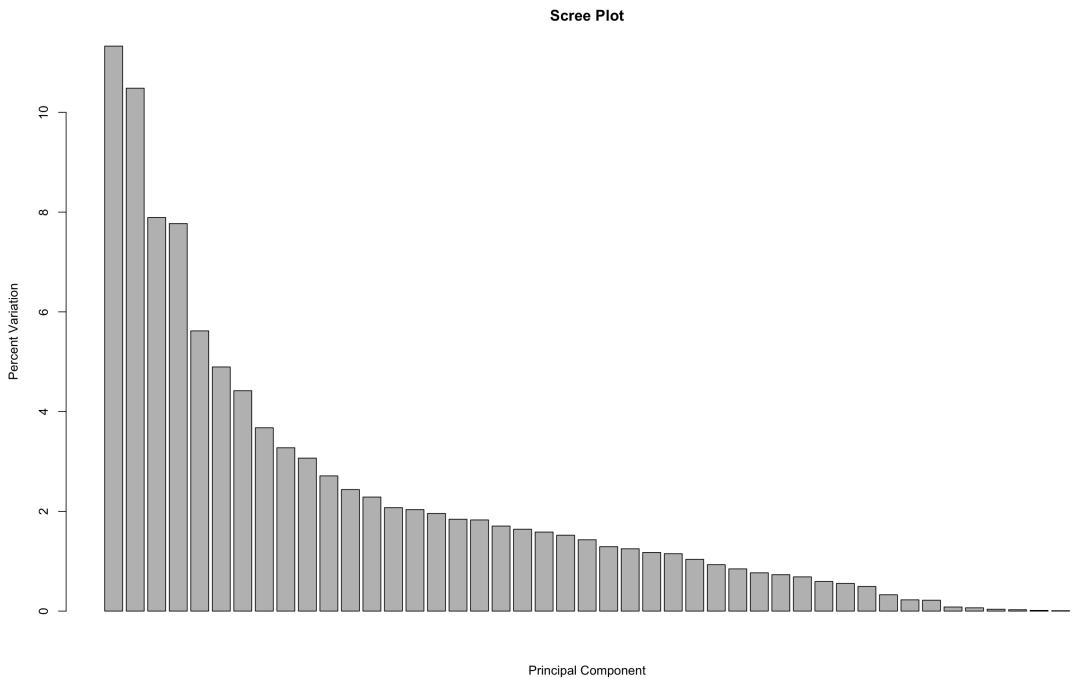


Figure 2. Principal component analysis over the reduced dataset

1.1 Variables in the dataset

Once the dataset is defined, it is convenient to know the meanings of each variable. Some of the then are listed below:

- **url**: Contains the value of the URL, as text.
- **status**: Indicates whether the URL is legitimate or contains phishing.
- **length_url**: Number of characters of the URL.
- **nb_dots**: Number of dots (characters) in the URL.
- **https_token**: ‘0’ if the URL contains `https` and ‘1’ otherwise.
- **shortening_service**: ‘1’ if the URL contains the name of a known URL shortener and ‘0’ otherwise.
- **nb_hyperlinks**: Number of links within the HTML source code of the web page.
- **empty_title**: ‘0’ if the web page contains a title in the HTML source code (`<title>John Doe</title>`) and ‘1’ otherwise.
- **google_index**: ‘0’ if the URL appears in the first page of a Google search and ‘1’ otherwise.
- **page_rank**: Quality of the web page in a range from 0 to 10.

2 Association rules

In this section the variables of the dataset are related in order to obtain rules for obtaining interesting dependencies between variables.

Figure 3 shows the resulting association rules. For example, webpages without title (`empty_title=1`) are not shown in Google (`google_index=1`); as well as URL that come from a shortener (`shortening_service=1`).

Other interesting rules indicate that an URL contains phishing if the webpage does not have a title (`empty_title=1` or if the URL is shortened (`shortening_service=1`). Furthermore, if the domain name of the URL is inside a set of known brands (`domain_in_brand=1`), then the URL will be accessible by HTTPS (`https_token=0`).

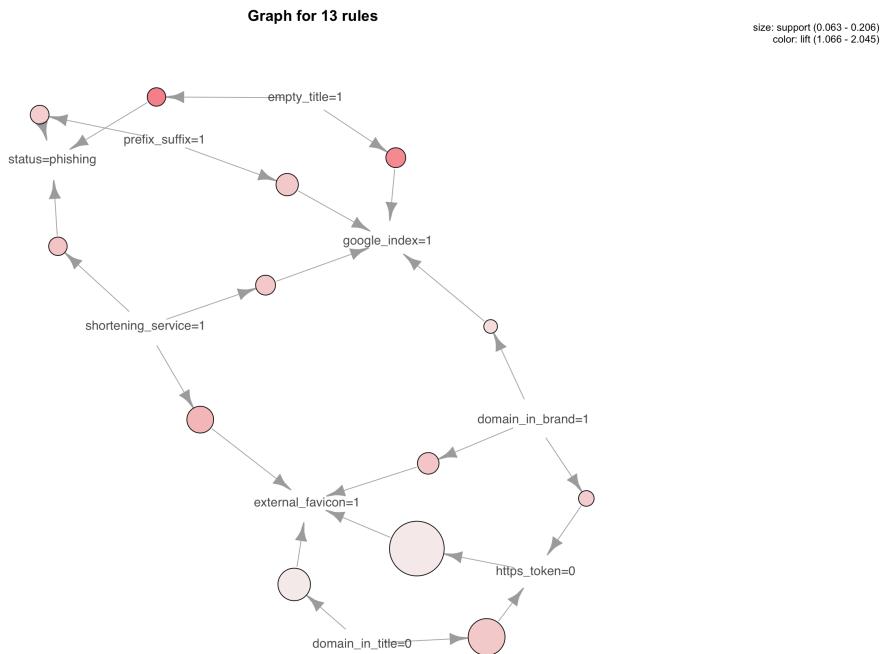


Figure 3. Resulting association rules

The *apriori* algorithm from the `arules` packet of R has been used to generate these association rules. The rules represented in the graph shwon in Figure 3 have a confidence greater than 50 %, a coverage less than the unit and they are composed by two elements (there are non rules that involve more than two elements).

As the *apriori* algorithm requires categorical variables, only the binary variables of the dataset have been used, transformed to factor type. Despite missing information, the resulting rules have a logical explanation and therefore they are relevant.

3 Clustering

In this section several clustering analyzes are carried out: firstly, hierarchical clustering over the variables of the dataset and then over the observations; and secondly, K -means over the observations. It is worth mentioning that these algorithms are unsupervised, that is, the models do not know the expected results.

3.1 Hierarchical clustering over the variables

First, a hierarchical clustering analysis is performed on the variables to verify their similarity. Having normalized the dataset, the Figure 4 is obtained, which represents by colors the distances between variables according to the Euclidean metric:

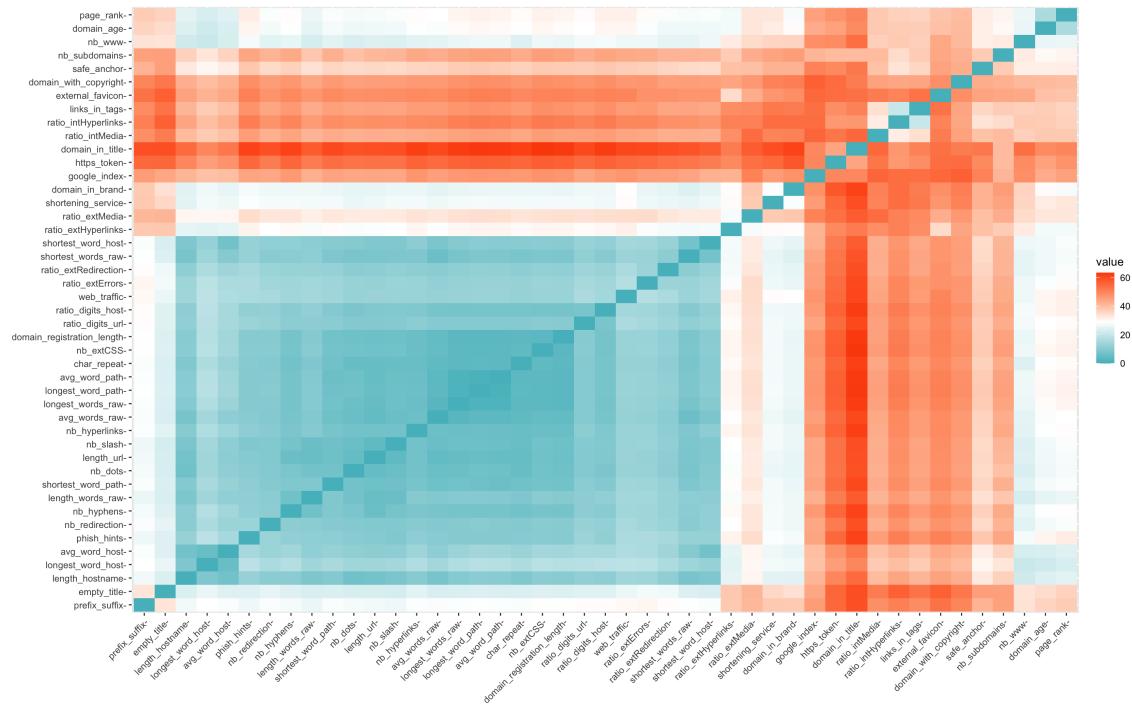


Figure 4. Distances between the variables of the dataset

It can be seen that there are two clearly differentiable groups: one containing variables whose distance is smaller and the other containing variables whose distance is greater. These groups are shown in the following dendrogram, obtained from an agglomerative hierarchical clustering (using the `agnes` packet of R and the Ward's method):

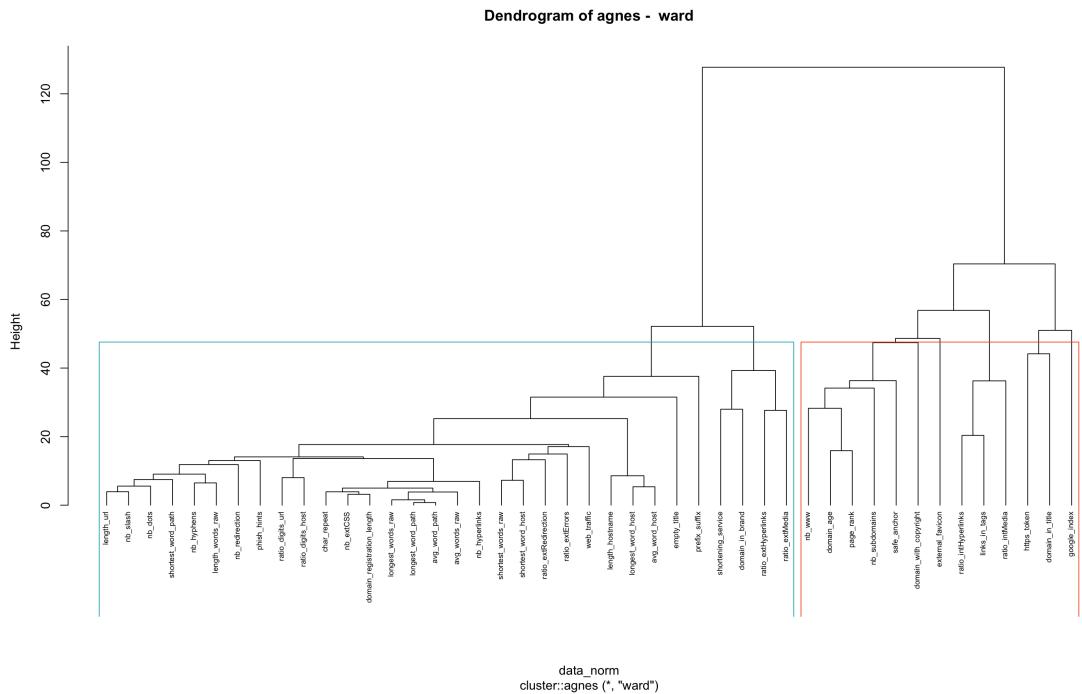


Figure 5. Dendrogram of the variables

There are continuous and discrete variables with several possible values within the blue group (such as `avg_word_path` or `nb_dots`), whereas the orange group contains mainly binary variables (for instance, `https_token` or `google_index`).

This analysis helps to understand the meaning of the variables and to observe similarities among them. A divisive clustering was also performed, but it did not produce a dendrogram as clear as the one in Figure 5.

3.2 Hierarchical clustering over the observations

At this point, the examples of the dataset are analyzed with hierarchical clustering. Firstly, the best agglomerative method to build the model is computed. As shown below, the best agglomerative coefficient is obtained with Ward's method:

average	single	complete	ward
0.9163371	0.8693480	0.9429070	0.9957265

This method results in the dendrogram shown in Figure 6. It seems that is reasonable to select 3 groups, which are marked with colors in the figure itself.

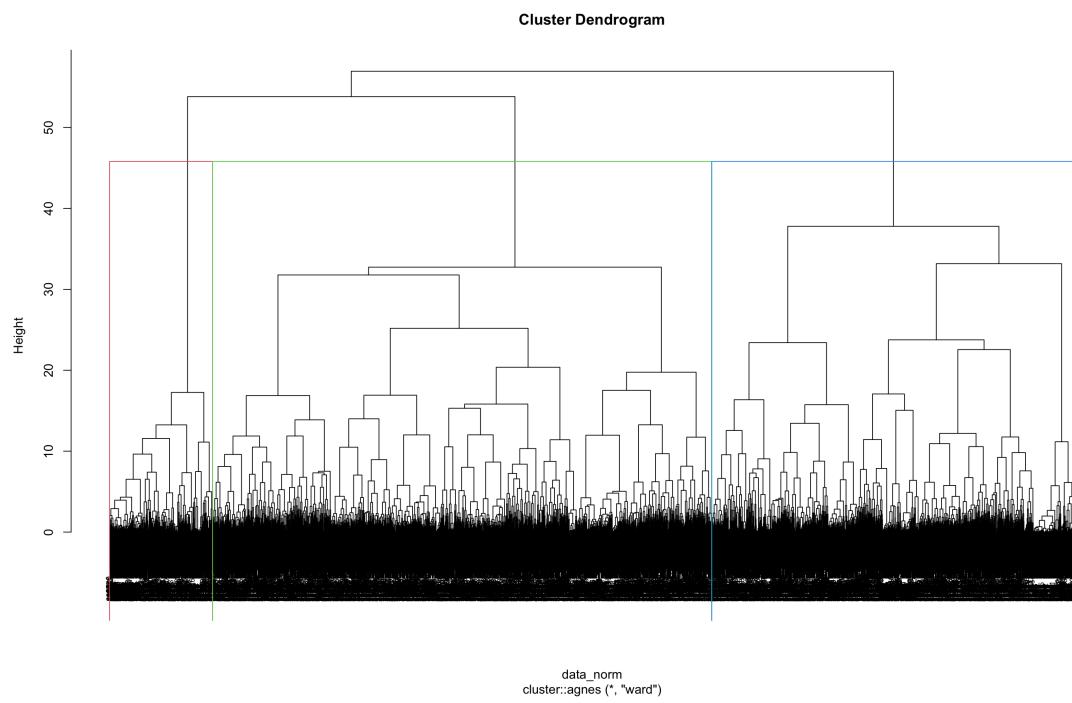


Figure 6. Dendrogram obtained with agglomerative clustering and Ward's method

Next, this model is compared to one built with divisive clustering. The result of the divisive one is the following dendrogram:

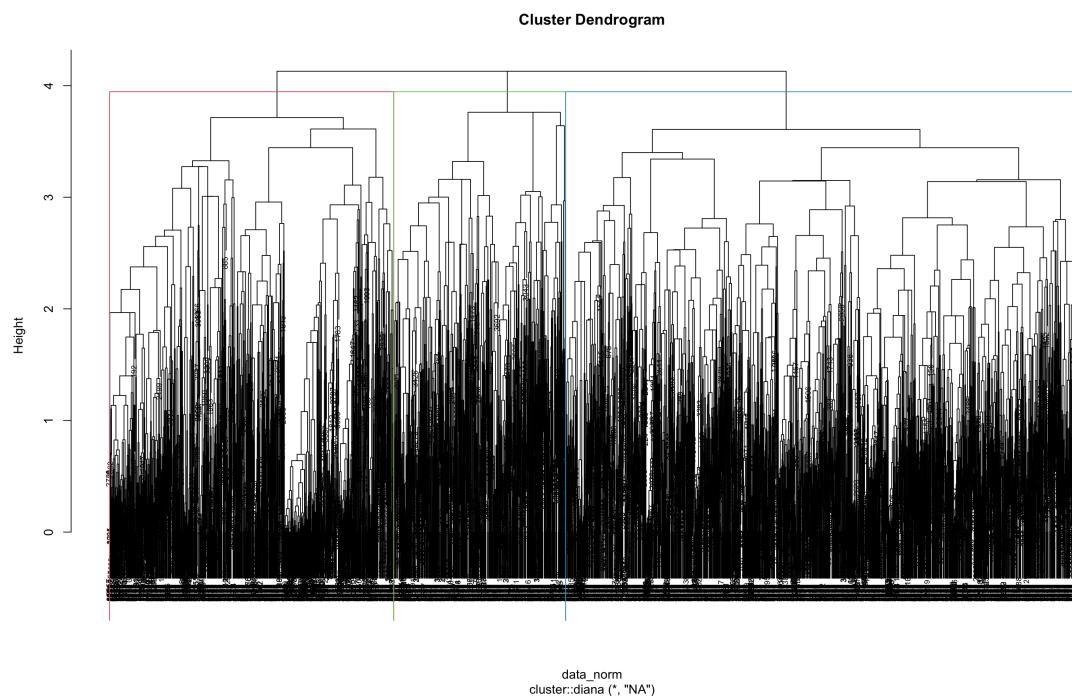


Figure 7. Dendrogram obtained with divisive clustering

In this case it is more difficult to distinguish groups, although choosing 3 groups seems to be an acceptable decision, as shown in Figure 7.

It is worth mentioning that there is no need for the result to match the URL class, as these models are unsupervised. In fact, both models seem to split the dataset in 3 groups, not 2.

Knowing beforehand that there are two types of URL in the dataset, the models could be tested using confusion matrices and forcing the algorithms to choose 2 groups. The results obtained when introducing the same dataset the model was trained with, are reflected in the following confusion matrices for the agglomerative and divisive methods, respectively:

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	2060	1319	
phishing	1337	729	

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	2954	425	
phishing	888	1178	

As these results are not good (51.22 % and 75.89 % precision), it follows that these algorithms are not useful for the objective of analysis. Moreover, these models are very time-consuming in their training process (they last more than half an hour).

Like it was said before, clustering algorithms simply make groups according to similarities within observations, which will not always match the class of each observation.

3.3 K-means

Another clustering algorithm is *K*-means, which needs beforehand the number of clusters to group the dataset.

First, the elbow method is used in order to see the evolution of the WSS depending on the number of clusters *K*, as shown in Figure 8.

This graph does not show a clear value for the number of clusters. Hence, the silhouette method is performed to choose *K*. It can be seen in Figure 9 that the most suitable value of *K* is 2.

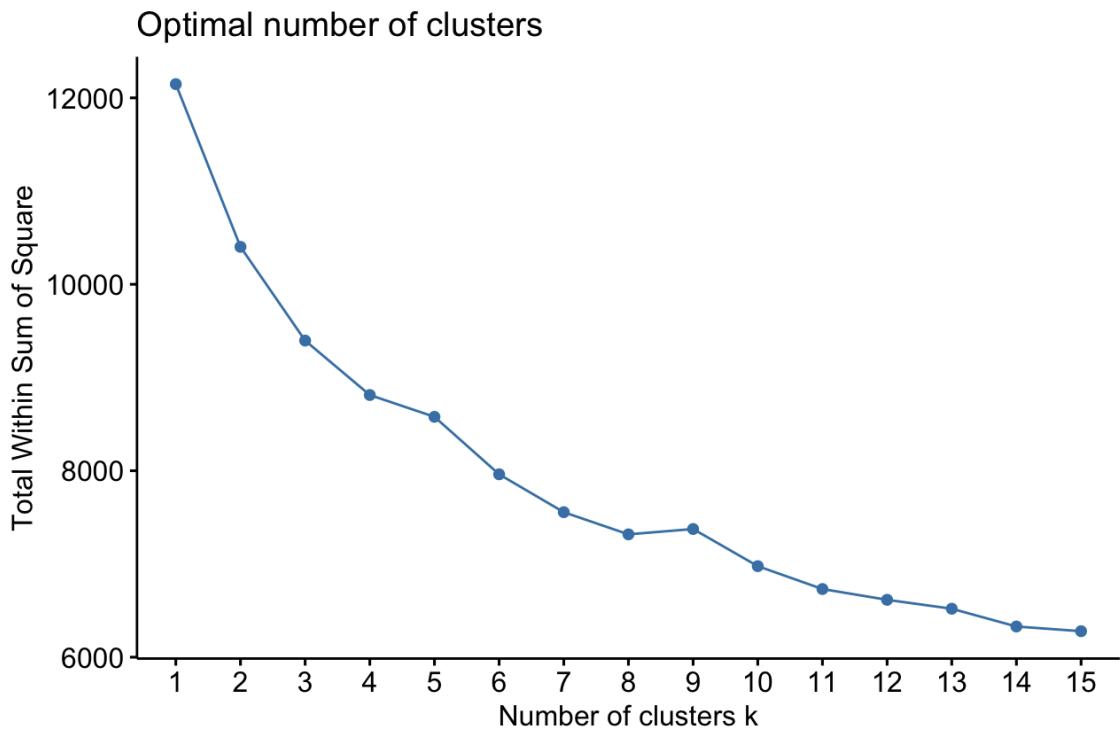


Figure 8. Number of clusters according to the elbow method

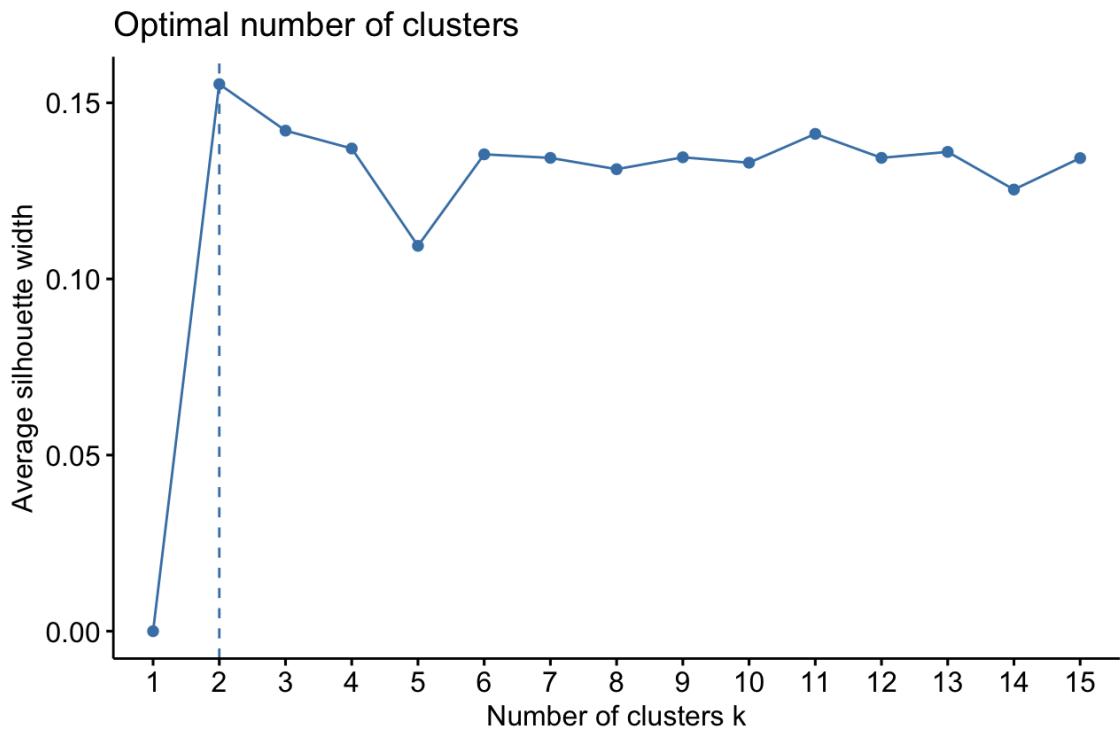


Figure 9. Number of clusters according to the silhouette method

Once chosen K , the model is trained with K -means. Despite being an unsupervised model, a training set and a testing set have been used, taking advantage of the fact that the number of clusters equals the number of classes of URL within the dataset.

The following confusion matrices show the obtained results:

Train:

		Reference
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	1970	581
phishing	608	925

Test:

		Reference
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	633	195
phishing	201	332

Again, it follows that K -means is not an adequate method to analyze the dataset, due to the resulting precisions are 70.89 % and 70.9 % en training and testing, respectively. In addition, as a clustering algorithm, there is no need for the result to match the class of the URL.

4 Kohonen maps

The next analysis is based on Kohonen self-organizing maps. This model is a kind of neural network that can be supervised or unsupervised.

The main parameters of this model are the number of neurons, the dimensions and the topology of the map. Having performed several tests with different dimensions and topologies, it was observed that a good model was obtained with a hexagonal topology and 3×3 dimensions (9 neurons). The learning coefficient α was configured as the default one of the `kohonen` packet.

4.1 Unsupervised model

In Figure 10 it is shown the importance of each variable inside the neurons of the map. Consequently, the redundancy of some variables can be determined. For instance, variables `longest_words_raw`, `longest_word_path`, `avg_words_raw` and `avg_word_raw` are pretty similar to variable `length_url`, due to the fact that their maps have the same colors.

To continue, these redundant variables are deleted and the model is trained again. The new importance of the variables is shown in Figure 11.

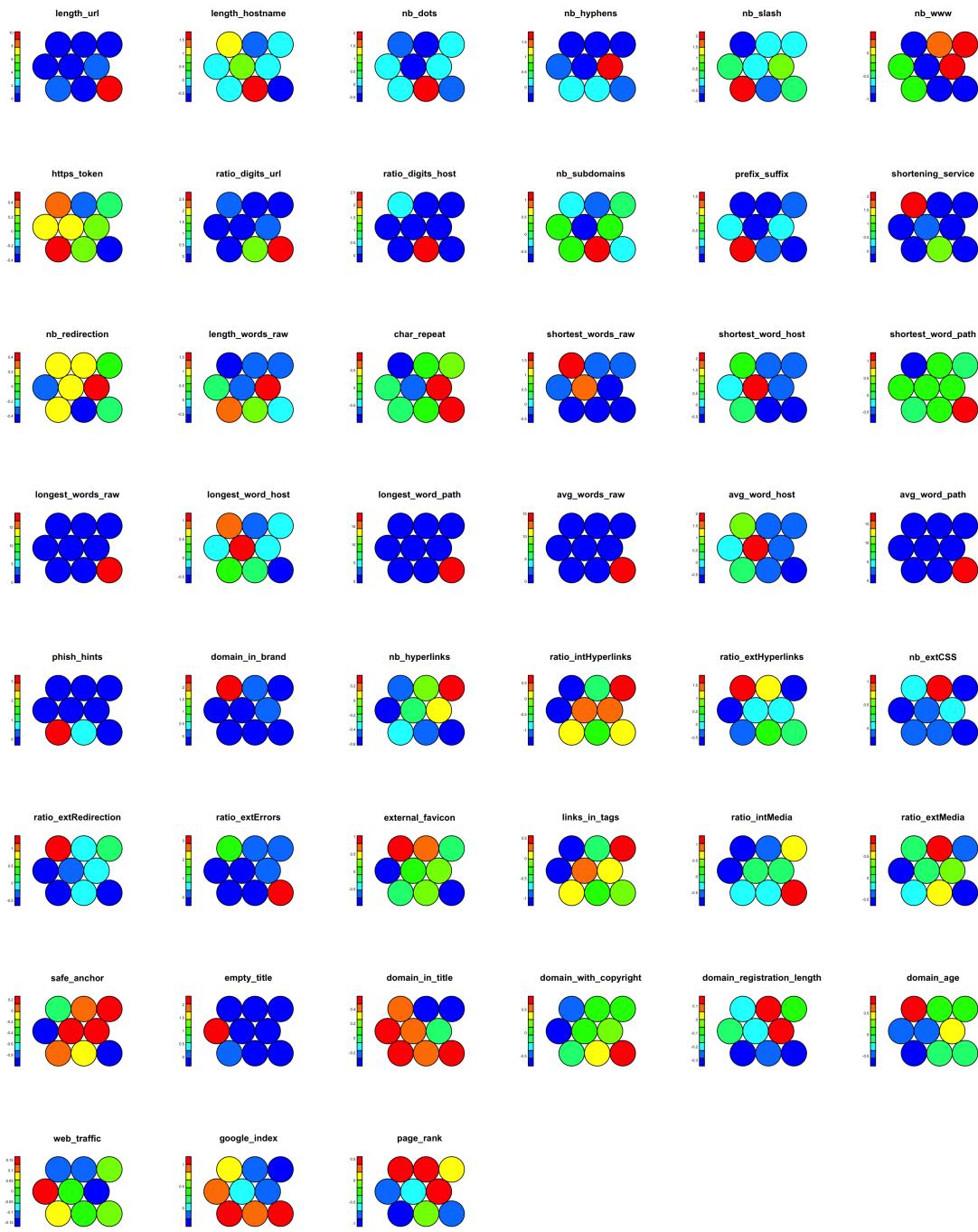


Figure 10. Data related to each neuron according to the variable

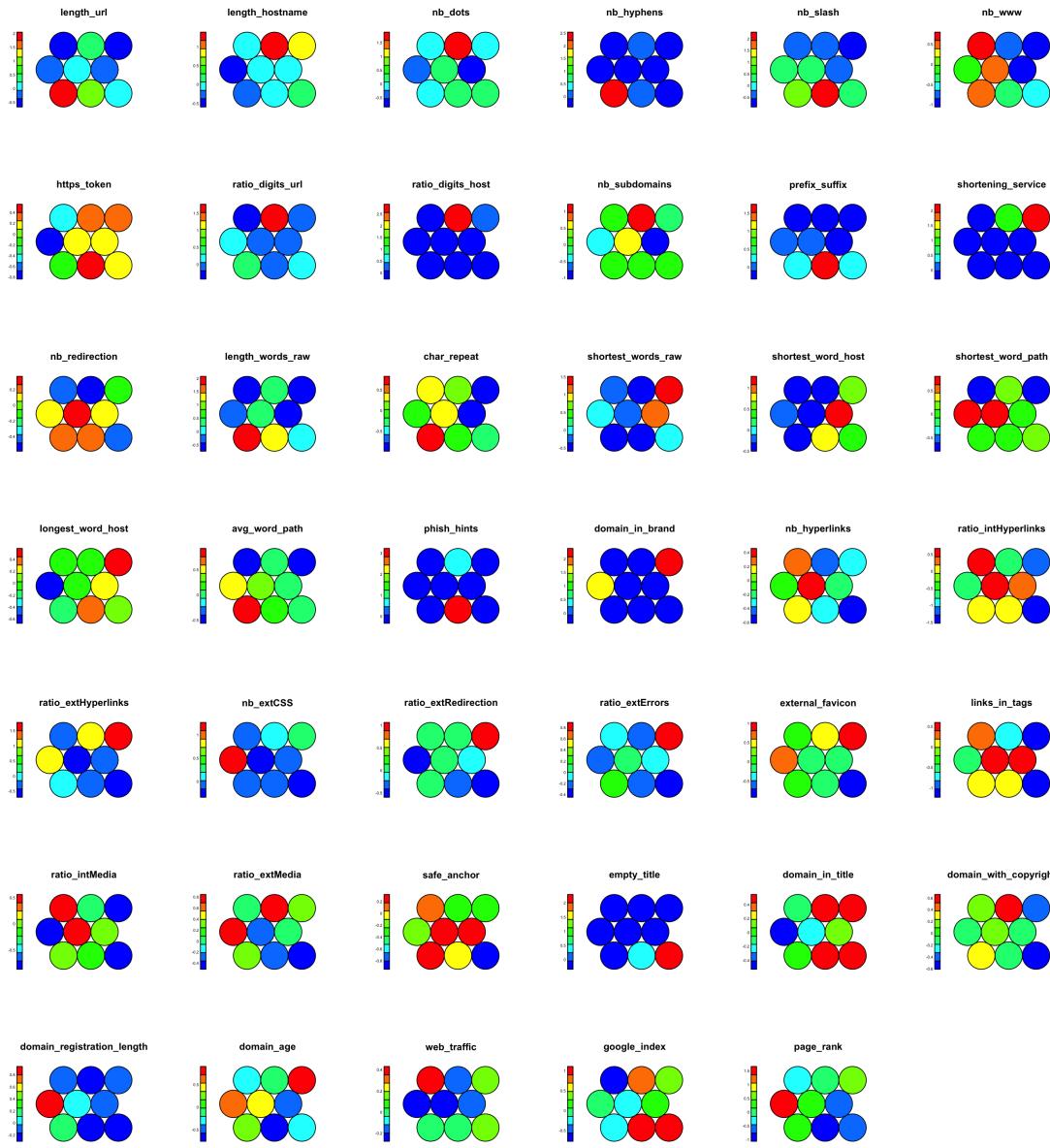


Figure 11. Data related to each neuron according to the variable (without redundancies)

Once the model is built, a hierarchical clustering is performed over the discovered patterns in the neurons. Indicating 2 clusters, the Figure 12 is obtained.

This model is hard to analyze since it does not provide enough information about the data. The formed groups do not have a reasonable meaning, as it happened in hierarchical clustering and K -means.

Clustering the patterns discovered

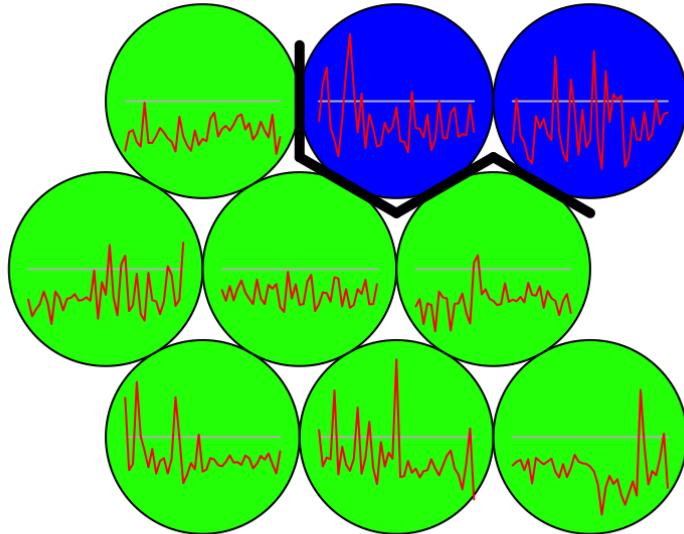


Figure 12. Clustering of the patterns discovered on each neuron

4.2 Supervised model

In this section the same Kohonen algorithm and parameters are used, but this time the algorithms knows the class correspondance of the observations to build the model.

A common feature of self-organizing maps is that, as its name tells, the data associated to each neuron tend to be sorted according to their similarities. This fact can be seen in Figure 13, where all type 1 classes (legitimate URL) are separated from type 2 classes (phishing URL).

Map of classes

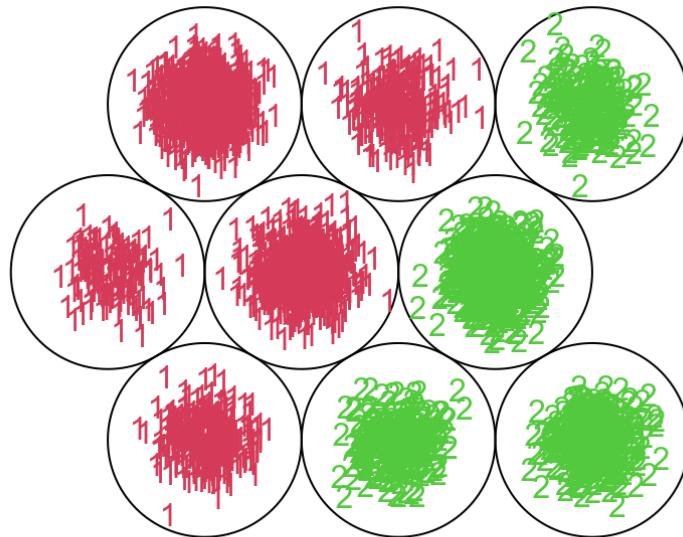


Figure 13. Classes of the observations relative to each neuron

Then, the model can be tested using confusion matrices for the training and testing sets, as shown below. The resulting precision is 88.79 % for training and 87.44 % for testing.

Train:

Prediction	Reference	
	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	2413	138
phishing	320	1213

Test:

Prediction	Reference	
	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	783	45
phishing	126	407

These results are acceptable, although a greater precision could be achieved with other algorithm or adding more complexity to the map.

5 KNN

Another classification model can be done with KNN (*K*-Nearest-Neighbours). It is an algorithm that uses the training set directly to predict the class of the elements that are introduced to the model as input.

The training set contains 75 % of the dataset, and the rest is included in the testing set. The optimum value of K is 5, which means that the entering observation to the model is being compared to the 5 nearest elements of the training set (its neighbours) and the assigned class will be the predominant one among the neighbours. For this model, the Euclidean distance is used.

When introducing the testing set, the following confusion matrix is obtained, with a 94.35 % precision:

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	800	49	
phishing	28	485	

As it is shown, this classification method is pretty good, due to a high precision is achieved and using an algorithm that does not need a training stage.

6 Decision trees

Following with the classification of the URL, it is intended to analyze several model based on decision trees.

Firstly, some CART and C4.5 trees are constructed using `rpart` and `C50` packets, respectively. And secondly, a model is built with `randomForest`.

6.1 CART

Setting a proportion of 75 % of the dataset for the training set, a CART decision tree is made with default parameters. The resulting tree is the one in Figure 14.

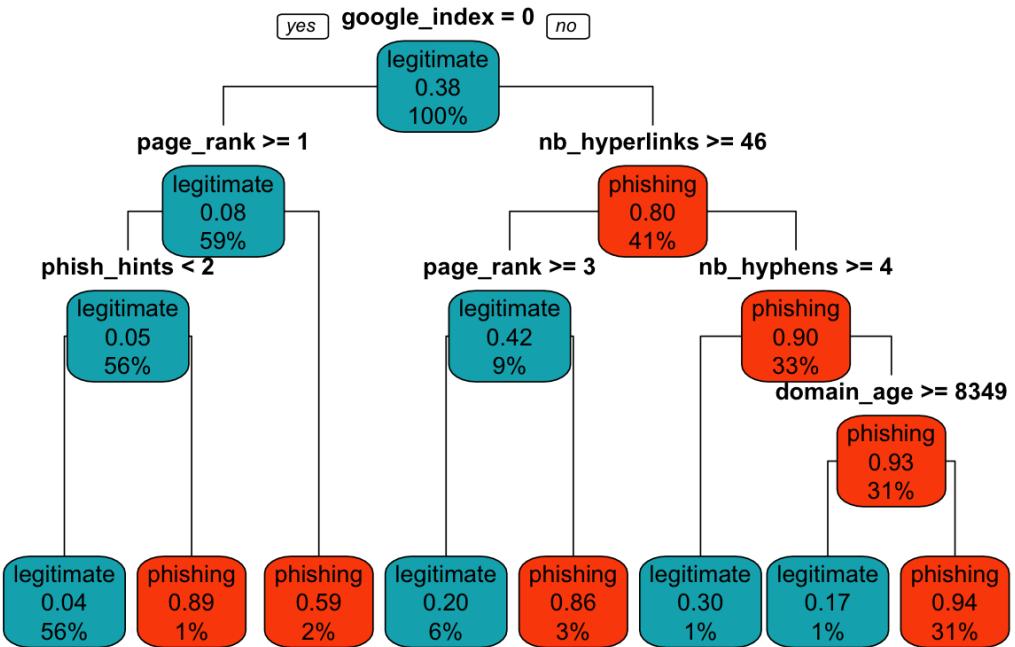


Figure 14. CART decision tree

Next, the confusion matrices are shown for the training and testing sets:

Train:

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	2422	167	
phishing	129	1366	

Test:

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	794	53	
phishing	34	480	

Although the got precisions are high (92.75 % for training and 93.61 % for testing), it is reasonable to think that the tree has unnecessary complexity. The following Figure 15 shows the error the tree obtains depending on the number of nodes (splits) and the cost-complexity parameter:

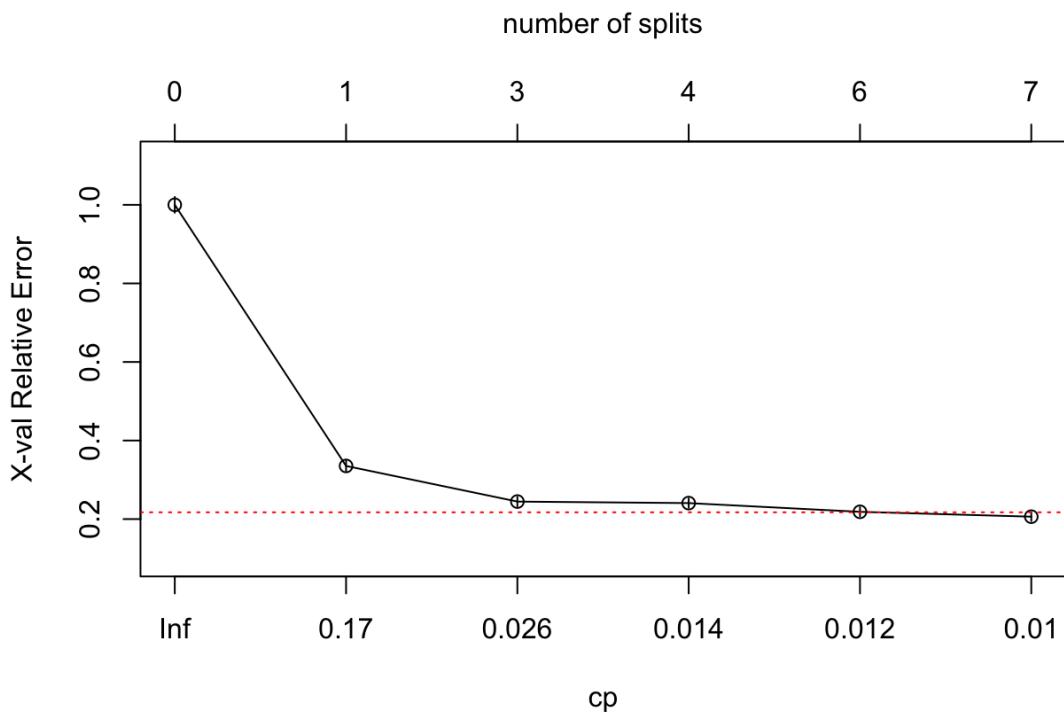


Figure 15. Error evolution depending on the number of nodes and the cost-complexity

If a pruning process is performed, with a cost-complexity parameter of 0.014, the resulting tree is simpler:

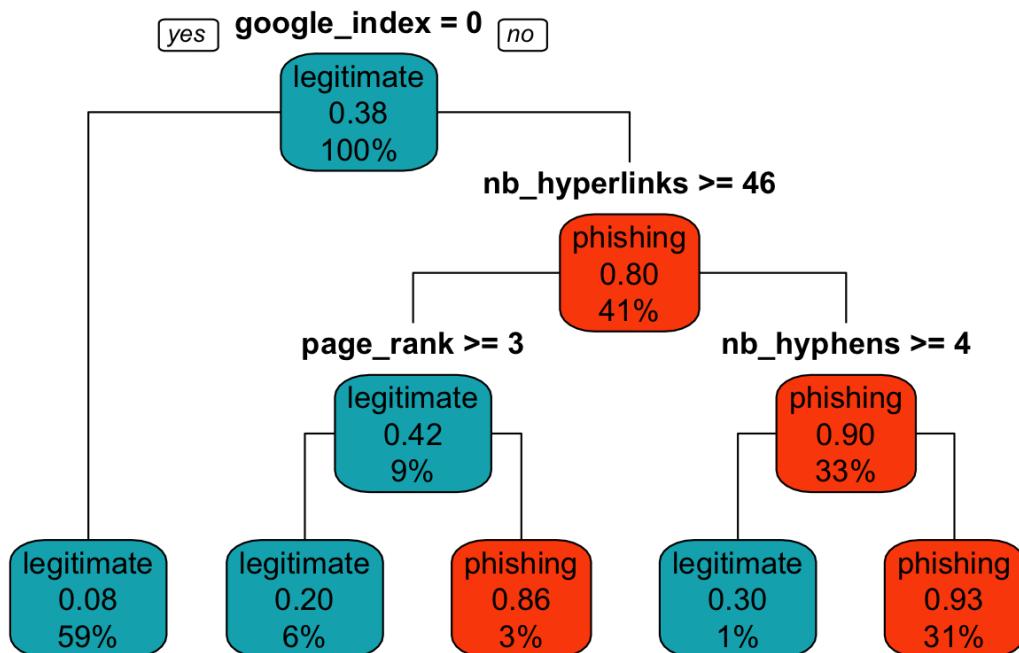


Figure 16. Pruned CART decision tree

This time, the precision decreases to 91.41 % for training and 91.70 % for testing.

Train:

	Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	2444	244
phishing	107	1289

Test:

	Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	798	83
phishing	30	450

Looking at the tree in Figure 16, one can notice that `google_index` is an important variable, due to the fact that if an URL is listed in Google (`google_index=0`), then the tree will classify it directly to a legitimate website.

6.2 C4.5

In this section, a C4.5 decision tree is implemented to make a comparison with the previous CART decision tree.

Using `C50` packet of R with the default parameters (confidence factor of 0.25), a quite complex tree is obtained (with a total of 47 leave nodes). It follows that the model is overlearning, just taking a look at the resulting confusion matrices.

Train:

	Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	2519	39
phishing	32	1494

Test:

	Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	805	26
phishing	23	507

Although these precisions are 98.26 % and 96.4 % for training and testing, it is preferred to use the CART pruned tree, because it is simpler and does not contain specific cases as the C4.5 model.

6.3 Random forest

For this model the fact that the algorithm has a bootstrap process before generating each tree is taken into advantage, so that it is not necessary to split the dataset in a training set and a testing set.

As an initial model, the bagging method is performed using the `randomForest` function with 45 predictors and 500 trees. This model achieves an out-of-bag (OOB) error of 1.82% (98.18% precision).

Reference		
Prediction	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	3335	44
phishing	55	2011

It can be seen that this model is so good. However, it can be tweaked with the random forest method, that is, avoiding the use of all the available predictors (45). The OOB error evolution according to the number of predictors is shown in Figure 17, being 3 the optimum number of predictors.

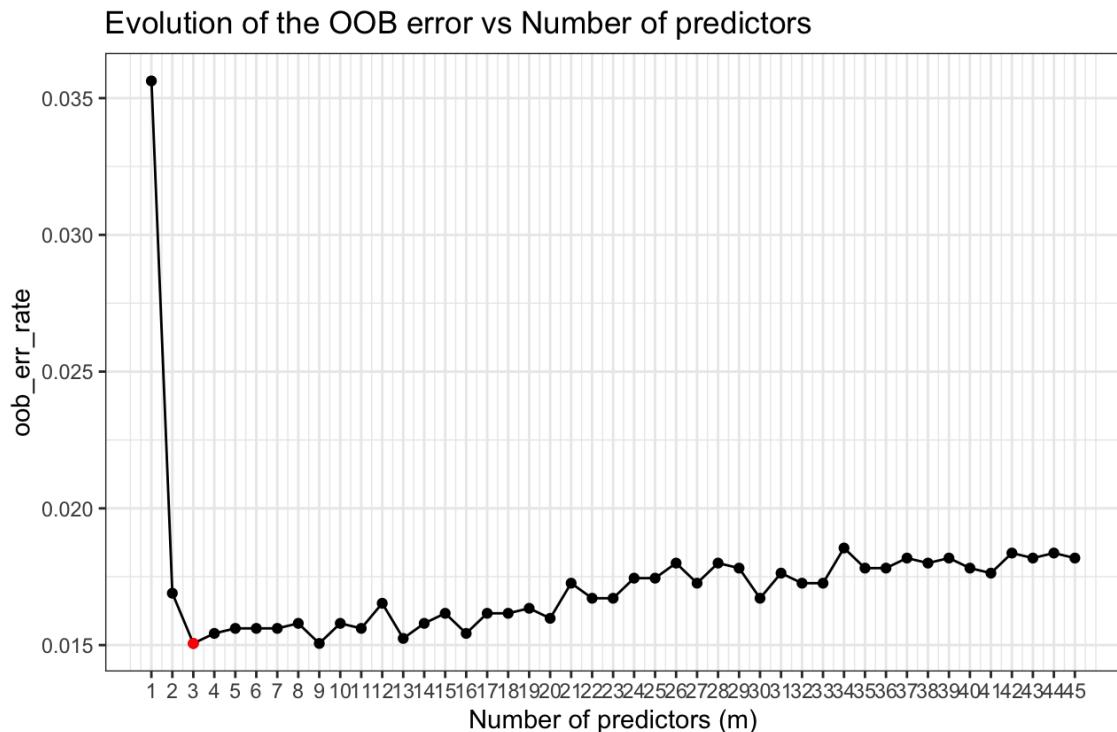


Figure 17. OOB error evolution depending on the number of predictors

Having chosen this parameter, the node size of the tree is adjusted. In the following Figure 18 it is presented a graph showing the evolution of the OOB error according to the node size. In this case, the optimum value is 1.

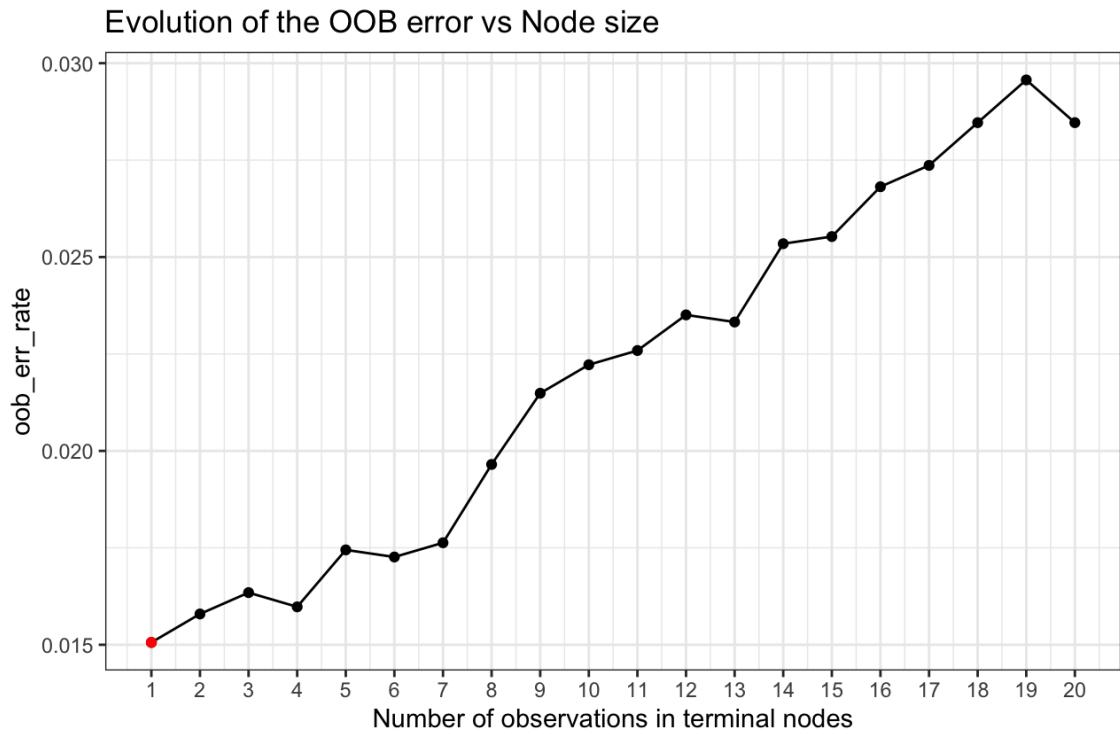


Figure 18. OOB error evolution depending on the node size

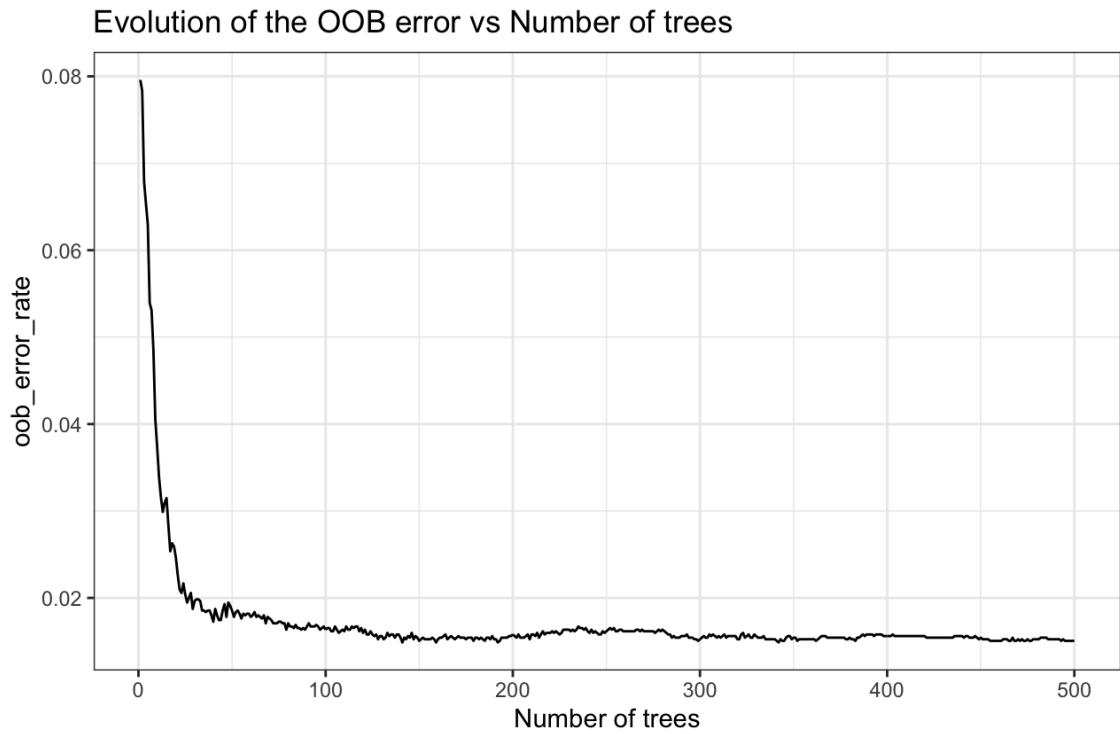


Figure 19. OOB error evolution depending on the number of trees

The last step is to adjust the number of trees, choosing the number that obtains the least OOB error. In Figure 19 it can be seen how the error changes depending on the number of trees. The minimum error is obtained with 141 trees.

Once these parameters are configured, the random forest model is built and it obtains an OOB error of 1.6 % (98.4 % precision), with the following confusion matrix:

		Reference	
Prediction	legitimate	phishing	
legitimate	3340	39	
phishing	48	2018	

This model has a great performance. Overlearning is not critical because the model is based on simple decision trees.

In addition, the importance of the variables can be computed, as it is represented in Figure 20. It was deduced that `google_index`, `page_rank` and `nb_hyperlinks` are important (precisely the ones that are present in the CART pruned tree of Figure 16).

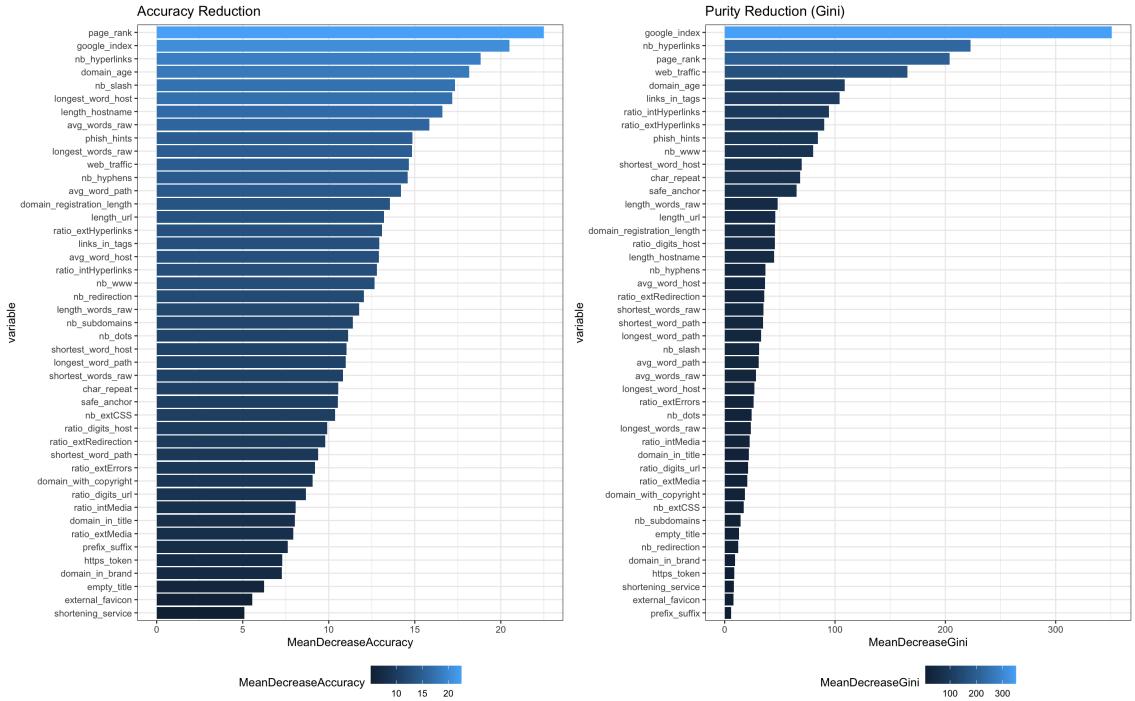


Figure 20. Importance of the variables in the random forest model

7 Multi-layer perceptron

The last analysis to be performed is the multi-layer perceptron, based on neural networks. The algorithm is in the `neuralnet` packet of R, which needs the number of layers of the network, the number of neurons per layer and the type of output function (linear or sigmoidal) to be specified.

After making several experiments with these parameters, it is seen that the best neural network is obtained with two layers containing 6 and 3 neurons (hidden layer and output layer, respectively). The output activation function is linear. A representation of the built network can be seen in Figure 21:

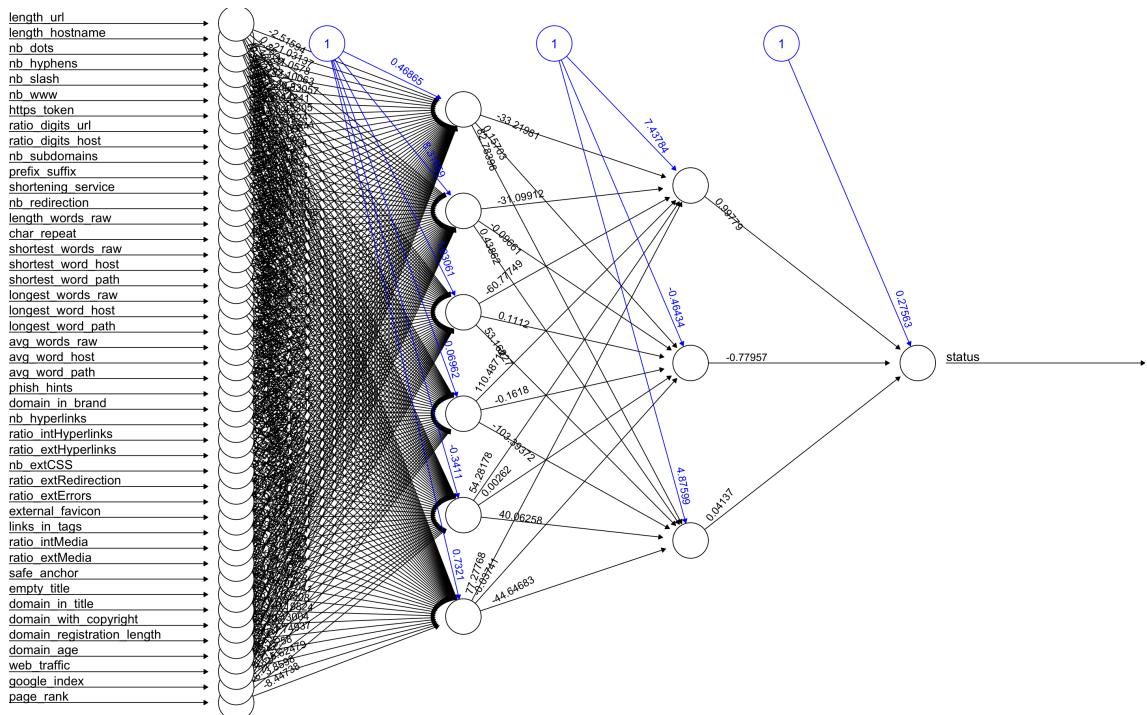


Figure 21. Implemented neural network

Although the output variable `status` is categorical, the multi-layer perceptron was implemented to return a continuous variable as a result. Initially, the model was built with an output categorical variable, but the algorithm was not able to converge. Consequently, the returning value of the neural network is rounded to the nearest integer number.

The following Figure 22 shows the output of the multi-layer perceptron, before rounding, for the testing set. It can be observed that the vast majority of predictions are very close to values 1 and 2 (corresponding to legitimate URL and phishing URL, respectively), so that the discretization does not affect the final result drastically.

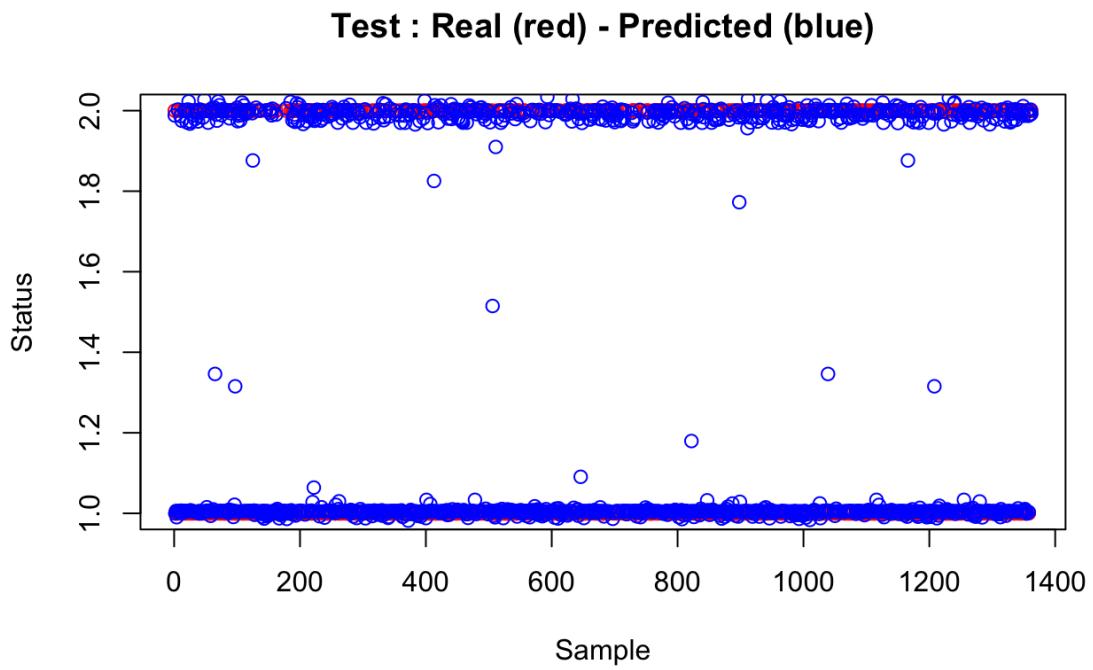


Figure 22. Representation of real data and predictions

To analyze the performance of this model, the prediction of the data in the training set obtained a 99.51 % precision. On the other hand, the prediction of the testing set resulted in a 97.5 % precision. Both confusion matrices are shown below:

Train:

Prediction	Reference	
	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	2542	11
phishing	9	1521

Test:

Prediction	Reference	
	legitimate	phishing
legitimate	810	16
phishing	18	518

With these model the resulting precision is really high, proving that the multi-layer perceptron is extremely powerful when classifying observations in a dataset.

Conclusions

Having performed all of the previous Machine Learning models, it can be concluded that clustering algorithms are not appropriate for the analysis of the dataset, since they do not seem to group observations according to the class of the URL.

On the other hand, classification algorithms are adequate, because the objective is precisely to classify URL by their type (legitimate or phishing). The resulting models ordered by precision in testing stage are shown below:

- Random forest
- Multi-layer perceptron
- C4.5 decision tree
- KNN
- Pruned CART decision tree
- Supervised Kohonen maps

If one of these models were used to analyze URL from the Internet and detect potential phishing attacks, the best methods would be random forests and multi-layer perceptron. These models get a extremely high precision.

It is also considerable to implement KNN, as it is an algorithm that does not need a training process and compares the input data with the ones of the dataset to determine the resulting class. Plus, it also achieves a high precision.

It is worth mentioning that there are not many false negatives in the obtained confusion matrices (that is, the model classifies a phishing URL as a legitimate one), which is one of the aspects that is desired to minimize.

Another valid conclusion is that the initial pruning of the dataset has not been critical to build the models, showing that it was a right approach.

Annex: Script to characterize an URL

In this section, the usage of the Python script to characterize a list of URL is explained. The output of the script is ready to perform the predictions of the built models with R.

It is intended that the program is implemented in command line interface, as shown below:

```
$ cd scripts  
$ pip install -r requirements.txt  
$ python url_features.py -f url.txt -o output.csv  
Results written in output.csv  
Time: 33.716389179229736 seconds
```

Inside the `url.txt` file, indicated by the `-f` flag, the URL must be listed as shown in the following example:

```
https://www.google.com/  
https://www.youtube.com/  
https://github.com/
```

It is worth mentioning that the input URL must be accessible. It is probable that a phishing URL is only accesible during a limited period of time. Consequently, it is probable that some URL of the dataset that match phishing will not be characterized because they are not available on the Internet.

The obtained result for the accessible URL is written into a file whose name is specified with `-o` flag, CSV format (by default, the output is written to `output.csv`).

Once having the CSV file, the type of the URL could be predicted using the built models with R and the following functions:

- `predict_using_randomforest(file)`
- `predict_using_mlp(file)`
- `predict_using_C50(file)`
- `predict_using_knn(file)`
- `predict_using_rpart(file)`
- `predict_using_som(file)`

For example, the random forest model could be executed and use the corresponding prediction function from the RStudio console:

```
> predict_using_randomforest(file = 'scripts/output.csv')
      url      status
1 https://www.google.com/ legitimate
2 https://www.youtube.com/ legitimate
3 https://github.com/ legitimate
```

Finally, the predicted results by the model are simply obtained and clearly shown.