

# SPAM EMAIL DETECTION



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# **Spam Email Detection**

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<u>.....</u>

#### ❖ Problem Definition

In today's Modern world, E-mail has become the preferred medium for communicating official information. Emails provide efficient and effective ways to transmit all kinds of electronic data. With the rapid increase in email usage, there has also been an increase in the Spam emails. These Spam emails are unsolicited and unwanted junk text, send out in bulk to an indiscriminate recipient list. These emails prevent the user from creating full and sensible use of your time, storage capability and network information measure. It is estimated that spam cost businesses on the order of \$100 billion per year.

In this project, we will train the model using the datasets containing spam and non-spam email, and use various Machine Learning Algorithms to enable us to classify the emails.

#### Datasets

 The datasets used in the Project consists of emails received by the Senior Management of the Enron Corporation which contain the words and phrases which are commonly used in Spam Emails.

 The Data is Unorganized. Therefore, we need to pre-process the data to obtain the useful information before we apply ML techniques.

#### Features:

- There are approximately 8000 entries in each dataset.
- There are 4 attributes in the data set:
  - ◆ Text
    - > The Content of email from various sources
    - Along with content, the data, time and the subject is also present
  - Spam
    - This attribute represents if the email is a spam or ham email.
    - > 1 spam
    - $\geq$  0 ham
  - ♦ Length
    - This attribute contains the count of characters present in the email
  - ♦ Clean Text
    - This attribute contains the "text" after pre-processing i.e. removing punctuation, stop words and stemming

#### ❖ Text Pre-processing

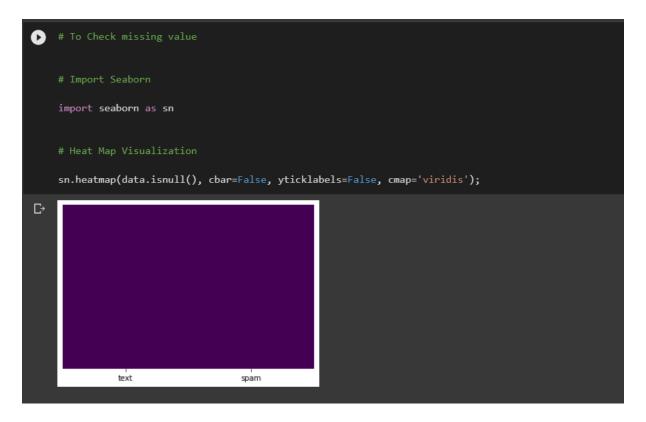
The Email text in the learning data are in plain text format. Therefore, the text should be converted into features that can represent the email. A number of pre-processing steps are performed before an algorithm can be applied.

## Finding columns with null values and removing them

#### Using Heatmaps

Heatmaps are used to visualize the data and represent it in a 2dimensional format in form of coloured maps.

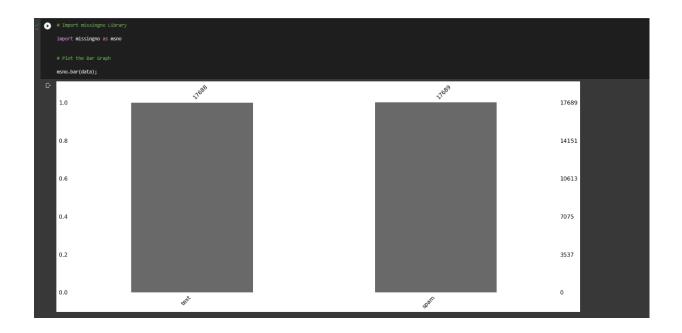
The colour variation shows the client the magnitude of numeric values. Heatmaps also describe about the density and intensity of variables, visualize patterns, variance and anomalies.



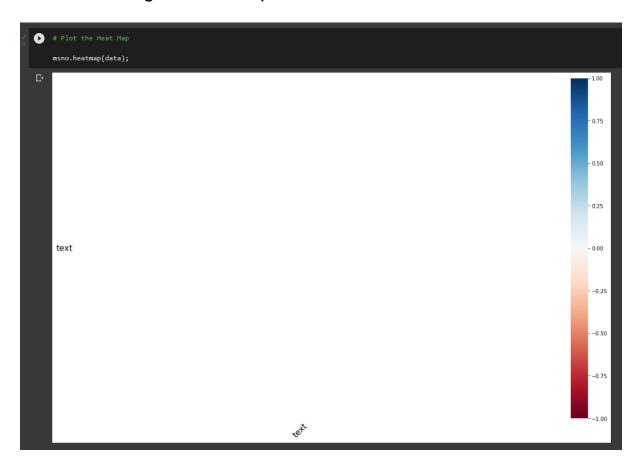
# Using Missingno Library

The Missingno Library provides the distribution of missing values in the dataset by Informative Visualization.

Using the graph, we can check where the missing values are located in each column and check if there is a correlation between missing values of different columns.



Plotting the Heat Map



Find the number of rows with NaN value

```
[] # Find the Number of Rows that has Nan Value in it

data.isnull().sum()

text 1
spam 0
dtype: int64
```

Find the number of non-NaN cells for each column or row

```
# Find the No of Non NA cells for each column or row

data.count()

text 17688
spam 17689
dtype: int64
```

Check if any column contains only NULL values

```
# Find the Number of Rows that has Nan Value in it

**Null_Data = data.isnull().sum()

# List for storing the Null Column Names

**Null_Columns = []

for i in range(len(Null_Data)):

# If the number of Null Values in the Row is equal to the total number of Records, then it means that the whole column contains Null value in it.

if Null_Data[i] == Rows - 1 or Null_Data[i] == Rows:

**Null_Columns.append(Column_Names[i])

# Print all Columns which has only NULL values

**print(Null_Columns)

**Description:
```

It is evident that there is no column in the dataset which contains only null values Drop the columns containing only NULL values

```
[ ] # Delete all NULL Columns which has only NULL values
for i in Null_Columns:
    del data[i]
```

Check if any rows contain Null values

```
[ ] data.isnull().any()

text    True
    spam    False
    dtype: bool

[ ] data.isnull().sum()

text    1
    spam    0
    dtype: int64

[ ] # Display the Rows which has one or more NULL values in it
    data[data.isnull().any(axis=1)]

    text spam

5112 NaN    1
```

Drop the row which contain Null value

```
[ ] data.dropna(inplace=True)

[ ] data.isnull().any()

   text   False
   spam   False
   dtype: bool

[ ] print(data.isnull().sum())

   text   0
   spam   0
   dtype: int64
```

The cell 5112 in text contained NaN value and it is removed.

> Add the "Text Length" column for each records

```
[ ] # Store the Length of the messages in the New Column with respective to each of the records
    data['Length'] = data['text'].apply(len)
    data['Length'].max()
    31636
[ ] data.describe()
                               Length
                   spam
     count 15552.000000 15552.000000
               0.386831
                         2183.796232
     mean
               0.487040
                         2791.350372
      std
               0.000000
                            1.000000
      min
     25%
                0.000000
                         148.000000
                          1645.500000
     50%
                0.000000
                          3215.000000
      75%
                1.000000
                1.000000 31636.000000
      max
```

#### Word Tokenization

Tokenization is the splitting of data into smaller units called tokens.

```
from nltk.tokenize import word_tokenize

# Finding the length of all Ham & Spam texts

Ham_Words_Length = [len(word_tokenize(title)) for title in data[data['spam']==0].text.values]

Spam_Words_Length = [len(word_tokenize(title)) for title in data[data['spam']==1].text.values]

print("\nHam Words_Length :", max(Ham_Words_Length,default = 0))

print("\nSpam Words_Length :", max(Spam_Words_Length,default = 0))

# Check which has the highest length

if max(Ham_Words_Length,default = 0) > max(Spam_Words_Length,default = 0):

print("\nHam Text_Length is Larger")

else:

print("\nSpam Text_Length is Larger")

Ham Words_Length : 7468

Spam Words_Length is Larger
```

For a ham email, the maximum number of ham words used is 5663. For a spam email, the maximum number of spam words used is 7468.

It is evident that the spam emails have less words as compared to ham emails.

## > Data Cleaning

```
from nltk.stem.porter import PorterStemmer
ps = PorterStemmer()
    def __init__(self):
    def transform_text(self,text):
        text = text.lower()
        text = nltk.word_tokenize(text)
        y = []
for i in text:
            if i.isalnum():
                y.append(i)
        text = y[:]
y.clear()
        for i in text:
            if i not in stopwords.words('english') and i not in string.punctuation:
                y.append(i)
        text = y[:]
y.clear()
        for i in text:
            y.append(ps.stem(i))
        return " ".join(y)
    def Clean(self, U_data):
      C_Data = U_data.apply(self.transform_text)
      return C_Data
```

```
[49] Cleaned_Data = Data_Clean()

data['Cleaned Text'] = Cleaned_Data.Clean(data['text'])
```

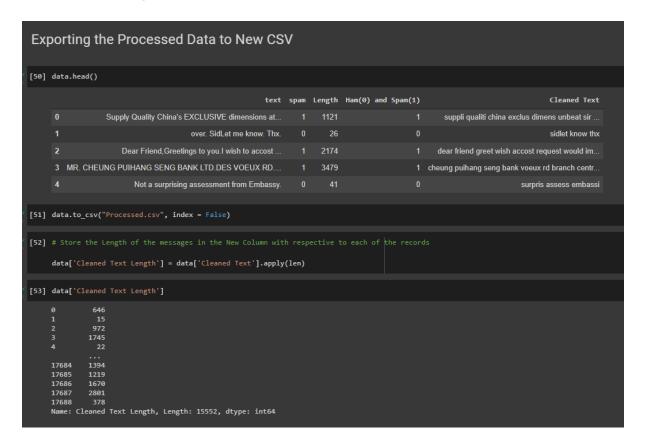
A new column "Cleaned Text" is created which contains the email text, after the removal of punctuation and stopwords.

In the function, first the text is filtered from punctuation marks. Then, the text is checked for presence of stopwords, which are removed.

After data cleaning, the dataset is subjected to Stemming using PorterStemmer.Stemming is the process of obtaining the root word from its inflected form.

The processed text is stored in "Clean Text"

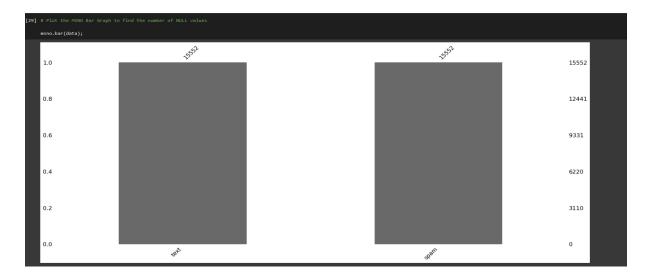
Exporting the processed data to new CSV



The Processed dataset is now converted into a new CSV file namely Processed.csv, which can be downloaded from the runtime.

Data.head() displays the first 5 elements in the dataset

- Data Visualization
  - MSNO Bar Graph to find number of NULL values in dataset

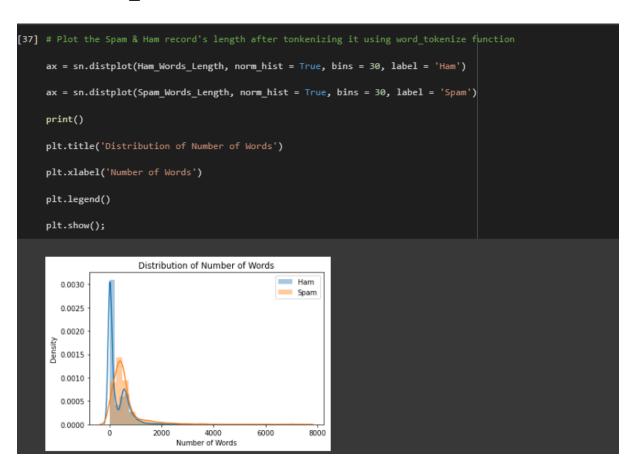


Plotting the Length of Spam and Ham Texts
 Using matplotlib library

```
[34] # Import Matplotlib Library
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     Spam_Length = data[data['spam']==1]
     Ham_Length = data[data['spam']==0]
     # Plot the Length of Spam & Ham Messages
     Spam_Length['Length'].plot(bins=4, kind='hist',label = 'Spam')
     Ham_Length['Length'].plot(bins=20, kind='hist',label = 'Ham')
     plt.title('Distribution of Length of Email Text')
     plt.xlabel('Length of Email Text')
     plt.legend();
                     Distribution of Length of Email Text
                                                       Spam
        6000
                                                      Ham
        5000
        4000
        3000
        2000
        1000
                    5000
                             000 15000 20000
Length of Email Text
                          10000
                                        20000
                                                      30000
```

It is evident that length of characters of ham emails is more as compared to that of spam emails

 Plot the Spam and Ham record length after tokenization using word\_tokenize function



Plot the graph of distribution of the mean word length

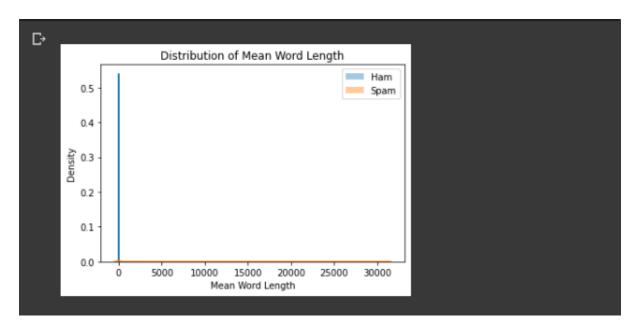
```
[ ] import numpy as np

# Function to find the Mean Word Length

def Mean_Word_Length(x):
    length = np.array([])
    for word in word_tokenize(x):
        length = np.append(length, len(word))
    return length.mean()

Ham_Meanword_Length = data[data['spam']==0].text.apply(Mean_Word_Length)
    Spam_Meanword_Length = data[data['spam']==1].text.apply(Mean_Word_Length)

# Plot the Graph of Distribution of the Mean Word Length
    sn.distplot(Ham_Meanword_Length, norm_hist = True, bins = 30, label = 'Ham')
    sn.distplot(Spam_Meanword_Length , norm_hist = True, bins = 30, label = 'Spam')
    print()
    plt.title('Distribution of Mean Word Length')
    plt.xlabel('Mean Word Length')
    plt.legend()
    plt.show()
```



This graph plots the distribution of the mean word length of ham and spam emails. X – axis : Spam, Y-axis : Ham

Plot the distribution of Stop Words

```
# Both spam and ham email contain stopwords
Stop_Words_List = set(stopwords.words('english'))
def stop_words_ratio(x):
    total_words = 0
    stop_words = 0
    for word in word_tokenize(x):
        if word in Stop_Words_List:
            stop_words += 1
        total_words += 1
    if total_words != 0:
      return stop_words / total_words
      return 1
ham_stopwords = data[data['spam']==0].text.apply(stop_words_ratio)
spam_stopwords = data[data['spam']==1].text.apply(stop_words_ratio)
sn.distplot(ham_stopwords, norm_hist = True, label = 'Ham')
sn.distplot(spam_stopwords, label = 'Spam')
plt.title('Distribution of Stop Word Ratio')
plt.xlabel('Stop Word Ratio')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

Spam emails contain stop words with a mean of 0.274 Ham emails contain stop words with a mean of 0.256

Plot the count of spam and ham emails

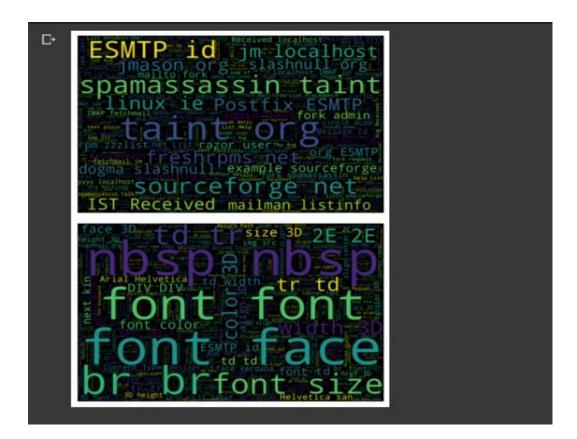
```
[] # Divide the messages into spam and ham
ham = data.loc[data['spam']==0]
spam = data.loc[data['spam']==1]
spam['Length'].plot(bins=60, kind='hist')
data['Ham(0) and Spam(1)'] = data['spam']
sn.countplot(data['Ham(0) and Spam(1)'], label = "Count");

10000
8000
8000
4000
4000
Ham(0) and Spam(1)
```

To construct a histogram, first we have to "bin" the range of values, that is divide the entire range of values into a series of intervals.

Construct a word cloud visualization for the dataset

```
class Word_Cloud():
        def __init__(self):
        def variance_column(self, data):
            return variance(data)
        def word_cloud(self, data_frame_column, output_image_file):
            text = " ".join(review for review in data_frame_column)
            stopwords = set(STOPWORDS)
            stopwords.update(["subject"])
            wordcloud = WordCloud(width = 1200, height = 800, stopwords=stopwords, margin=0, max_words = 1000).generate(text)
            plt.imshow(wordcloud, interpolation='bilinear')
            plt.axis("off")
            plt.show()
            wordcloud.to_file(output_image_file)
[ ] from wordcloud import WordCloud, STOPWORDS, ImageColorGenerator
    from PIL import Image
    word_cloud = Word_Cloud()
    word_cloud.word_cloud(ham["text"], "Ham.png")
    word_cloud.word_cloud(spam["text"], "Spam.png")
```



Word cloud is a technique for visualising frequent words in a text where the size of the words represent their frequency.

The word cloud provides a visual representation of text data.

We use the WordCloud() Library to implement.

#### Vectorize the data

```
[ ] from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer, TfidfVectorizer
    cv = CountVectorizer()
    tfidf = TfidfVectorizer(max_features=3000)

[ ] X = tfidf.fit_transform(data['Cleaned Text'].values.astype('U')).toarray()

[ ] X.shape
    (15552, 3000)

[ ] Y = data['spam'].values
    Y.shape
    (15552,)
```

Word Vectorization is the process to map words or phrases from vocabulary to a corresponding vector or real numbers which is used to find word predictions/similarities.

Here, we are vectorizing the data using the Tf-idf vectorizer or the Term Frequency Inverse Document Frequency. It captures the importance of given word related to other words, that is it transforms text to feature vectors that can be used as an input to estimator.

X is the cleaned data, after tf-ifd vectorization.

#### Python Packages

## ➤ NumPy

Numpy stands for Numerical Python, It is a library, which support large, multi dimensional arrays and matrices, along with a large collection of high level mathematical functions to operate on numpy arrays.

# > SciPy

It is a FOSS library used for scientific computing and technical computing. It contains modules for optimization, linear algebra and special functions.

#### Scikit-learn

It is a Machine Learning library in Python. It has different classification, regression and clustering algorithms.

#### > Pandas

It is a library which provides various data structures and easy to use data analysis and manipulation tool.

NLTK (Natural Langauge Toolkit)
It is a platform used for building programs that works on human language data for applying in statistical natural language

processing(NLP). It contains text processing libraries for tokenization, parsing, classification, stemming, tagging and semantic reasoning.

#### Matplotlib

It is a plotting library in Python. It is cross-platform, data visualization and graphic plotting library. It offers visible open source alternative to MATLAB.

## Machine Learning Algorithms

## Kth Nearest Neighbour (KNN) [From Scratch]

KNN is a supervised learning algorithm, which is used for both classification and prediction. It is Data Driven, that is little knowledge about distribution of data is required. The complexity of the model also increases with number of training data.

KNN is termed as a Lazy Learning Algorithm. New instances are compared with instances stored in the memory during training, instead of explicit generalization.

Basic KNN Algorithm for Classification:

Input: Training Set D, Test Datapoint d, Parameter k

- Computer distance between test datapoint d and every datapoint in training set D
- Choose k datapoints in training set D that are nearest to the sample d, denote P
- Assign test datapoint d to majority class.

Output: Class Label of test datapoint d

# Implementation and Coding Phase of KNN

Split the dataset into X and Y

Split the data into training and testing partitions

```
[ ] from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

X_train, X_test, Y_train, Y_test = train_test_split( X, Y, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 2 )
```

Here, the training set is 20% and testing set is 80%.

KNN algorithm from Scratch

```
[ ] # K Nearest Neighbors Classification
    from scipy.stats import mode

class KNN():

    def __init__( self, K ):
        self.K = K

    def fit( self, X_train, Y_train ) : # Function to store training set

        self.X_train, self.Y_train = X_train, Y_train

        self.m, self.n = X_train.shape # No of Rows & Columns in Training Data Set

def predict( self, X_test ) : # Function for prediction

        self.x_test = X_test

        self.m_test, self.n = X_test.shape # No of Rows & Columns in Test Data Set

        Y_predict = np.zeros( self.m_test )

        for i in range( self.m_test ) :

        neighbors = self.find_neighbors( self.X_test[i] ) # Find the K nearest neighbors from current test example

        # most frequent class in K neighbors

        Y_predict[i] = mode( neighbors )[0][0]

        return Y_predict
```

```
def find_neighbors( self, x ) : # Function to find the K nearest neighbors to

# Calculate all the Euclidean distances between current test example x and training set X_train

euclidean_distances = np.zeros( self.m )

for i in range( self.m ) :

euclidean_distances[i] = self.euclidean( x, self.X_train[i] )

Y_train_sorted = self.Y_train[euclidean_distances.argsort()] # Sort Y_train according to euclidean_distance_array and store it in Y_train_sorted

return Y_train_sorted[:self.K]

def euclidean( self, x, x_train ) : # Function to calculate euclidean distance

return np.sqrt( np.sum( np.square( x - x_train ) ) )
```

 Train the model using the training data partition and predict on test set

```
[ ] # Training the Model on the Train Data Set

model = KNN( K = 5 )

model.fit( X_train, Y_train )

# Prediction on test set

Y_pred = model.predict( X_test )
```

Here, value of K is given as 5.

Obtain the confusion matrix

Calculate the F1-Score

```
[ ] from sklearn.metrics import f1_score
  print(f1_score(Y_test,Y_pred))
  0.7934990439770554
```

F1\_score is a measure of model's accuracy on a dataset. It is a way of combining the precision and recall of the medal, and is the harmonic mean of the model's precision and recall.

The f1\_score for this model is 79.35%.

Calculate the accuracy of the model

```
[ ] from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
    print(accuracy_score(Y_test,Y_pred))
    0.8611378977820636
```

The accuracy for this model using KNN is 86.12%.

# Logistic Regression

Logistic regression is a supervised learning algorithm that uses a logistic funtion to predict the probability of target variable. It gives values which lie between 0 and 1.

Logistic regression is used for solving the classification problems. In logistic regression, an "S" shaped logistic function is fitted, which predicts the maximum values. The curve indicated the likelihood of

something such as whether the person has diabetes, the cancer is malignant etc.

Logistic regression is used to classify the observations using different types of data and can easily determine the most effective variables for the classification.

The sigmoid function used is a mathematical function which maps any real value into another value within 0 and 1.

## **Assumptions:**

- The dependent variable must be categorical in nature.
- The independent variable should not have multi-collinearity.

## Implementation and Coding Phase of Logistic Regression

 Splitting the dataset into X, Y and splitting data into training and testing partitions

```
[58] from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer,TfidfVectorizer
    cv = CountVectorizer()
    tfidf = TfidfVectorizer(max_features=3000)
    X = tfidf.fit_transform(data['Cleaned Text'].values.astype('U')).toarray()
    Y = data['spam'].values
    from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    X_train, X_test, Y_train, Y_test = train_test_split( X, Y, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 2 )
    from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
    scaler = StandardScaler()
    scaler.fit(X_train)
    X_train = scaler.transform(X_train)
    X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
```

Logistic Regression Implementation

```
class LogisticRegression:
   def __init__(self, learning_rate=0.01, n_iters=1000):
        self.lr = learning_rate
        self.n_iters = n_iters
        self.weights = None
        self.bias = None
   def fit(self, X, y):
        n_samples, n_features = X.shape
        self.weights = np.zeros(n_features)
        self.bias = 0
        for _ in range(self.n_iters):
            linear_model = np.dot(X, self.weights) + self.bias
            y_predicted = self._sigmoid(linear_model)
            dw = (1 / n_samples) * np.dot(X.T, (y_predicted - y))
            db = (1 / n_samples) * np.sum(y_predicted - y)
            self.weights -= self.lr * dw
            self.bias -= self.lr * db
```

```
def predict(self, X):
    linear_model = np.dot(X, self.weights) + self.bias
    y_predicted = self._sigmoid(linear_model)
    y_predicted_cls = [1 if i > 0.5 else 0 for i in y_predicted]
    return np.array(y_predicted_cls)

def _sigmoid(self, x):
    return 1 / (1 + np.exp(-x))

lr = LogisticRegression()

lr.fit(X_train, Y_train)

Y_pred = lr.predict(X_test)
```

• Calculate the accuracy of the model

```
[59] import sklearn.metrics as metrics
    print("Accuracy:",metrics.accuracy_score(Y_test, Y_pred))
    Accuracy: 0.9810350369656059
```

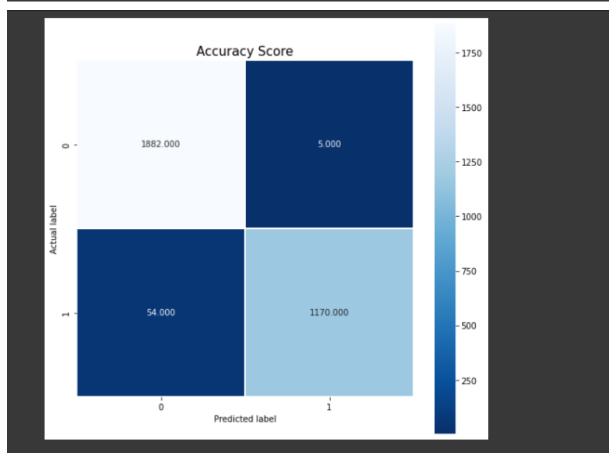
Compute the confusion matrix

```
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(Y_test,Y_pred)
print(confusion_matrix(Y_test,Y_pred))

[[1882 5]
      [ 54 1170]]
```

 Plot the heatmap of Predicted Label vs Actual Label (Confusion Matrix)

```
[66] import seaborn as sns
    plt.figure(figsize=(9,9))
    sns.heatmap(cm,annot=True, fmt=".3f", linewidths=.5, square = True, cmap = 'Blues_r');
    plt.ylabel('Actual label');
    plt.xlabel('Predicted label');
    all_sample_title = 'Accuracy Score'
    plt.title(all_sample_title, size = 15);
```



## > SVM (Support Vector Machine)

SVM is one of the most popular supervised learning algorithms, which can be used for both classification and regression problems.

The idea of SVM is to create a line or decision boundary that can segregate the n-dimensional space into classes so that the new data points can be easily put in the correct category.

There can be multiple lines/decision boundaries to segregate the classes in n-dimensional space, but the best decision boundary is to be selected, which is calle the hyperplane of SVM.

There are 2 types of SVM:

#### Linear SVM

It is used for linearly separable data, that is for datasets that can be classified into 2 classes with a single straight line. The data here is termed as linearly separable data.

#### Non-linear SVM

It is used for non-linearly separable data, that is if a straight line cannot separate the data into 2 classes. The data here is termed as non-linear data.

SVM is a very good algorithm for doing classification. It offers good accuracy and perform faster predictions compared to Naïve Bayes algorithm.

#### Implementation and Coding Phase of SVM Algorithm

Import the Vectorization packages CountVectorizer and Tf-idf
 Vectorizer

```
[ ] from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer,TfidfVectorizer
    cv = CountVectorizer()
    tfidf = TfidfVectorizer(max_features=3000)
```

Assign values to X and Y predictor variables

```
X = tfidf.fit_transform(data['Cleaned Text'].values.astype('U')).toarray()
Y = data['spam'].values
```

Implement SVM using inbuilt scikit library

```
[ ] from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    from sklearn import svm

X_train, X_test, Y_train, Y_test = train_test_split( X, Y, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 2 )

clf = svm.SVC(kernel = 'linear')

clf.fit(X_train, Y_train)

Y_pred = clf.predict(X_test)
```

 Calculate the accuracy, precision and recall of model using sklearn

```
[ ] from sklearn import metrics
    print("Accuracy:", metrics.accuracy_score(Y_test, Y_pred))
    print("Precision:",metrics.precision_score(Y_test, Y_pred))
    print("Recall:",metrics.recall_score(Y_test, Y_pred))

Accuracy: 0.9803921568627451
    Precision: 0.984179850124896
    Recall: 0.9656862745098039
```

The model has an accuracy of 98.04% and a precision of 98.42%.

Calculate the confusion matrix and plot the accuracy score

```
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
import seaborn as sns
cm = confusion_matrix(Y_test, Y_pred)
plt.figure(figsize=(5, 5))
sns.heatmap(cm, annot=True, fmt=".3f", linewidths=.5, square = True, cmap = 'Blues_r');
plt.ylabel('Actual label');
plt.xlabel('Predicted label');
all_sample_title = 'Accuracy Score'
plt.title(all_sample_title, size = 15);
              Accuracy Score
                                         -1750
                                          - 1500
          1868.000
                           19.000
   0 -
                                         - 1250
 Actual label
                                         - 1000
                                          - 750
                          1182.000
           42.000
                                          - 500
                                           250
                Predicted label
```

#### Random Forest Classification

Random Forest is a supervised Machine Learning algorithm, which is used for both classification and regression problems.

Random Forest classifier contains a number of decision trees on various subsets of the given dataset and takes the average to improve the predictive accuracy of that dataset.

Higher the number of trees in the forest, higher is the accuracy and also prevents the problem of overfitting.

Random Forest uses bagging and feature randomness when building each individual tree to try to create an uncorrelated forest of trees whose prediction by committee is more accurate than that of any individual tree.

Random Forests is great with high dimensional data since we are working with subsets of data. It is faster to train than decision tree because we are working only on a subset of features in this model, so we can easily work with hundreds of features.

## **Implementation and Coding Phase of Random Forest:**

Import the necessary vectorizers

```
[ ] from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer,TfidfVectorizer
    cv = CountVectorizer()
    tfidf = TfidfVectorizer(max_features=3000)
```

Give values to training variables X and Y

 Split the data into training and testing partition (20% test, 80% training)

```
[ ] from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

X_train, X_test, Y_train, Y_test = train_test_split( X, Y, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 2 )
```

Implement Random Forest using scikit-learn

Compute the confusion matrix

```
[ ] from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
    print(confusion_matrix(Y_test,Y_pred))

[[1876    11]
      [ 56 1168]]
```

Compute the F1 Score of the model

```
[ ] from sklearn.metrics import f1_score
    print(f1_score(Y_test,Y_pred))
    0.9721181856013317
```

Calculate the accuracy of the model

```
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
print(accuracy_score(Y_test,Y_pred))

0.9784635165541626
```

The model gives an accuracy of 97.84% using Random Forest Classification.

#### > Predictions on Validation Dataset

For KNN algorithm, the accuracy was only 86.12%. Therefore, in order to increase the accuracy of the algorithm, we are using K Fold Cross Validation.

K fold cross validation is an alternative to data partitioning, when number of records is small/

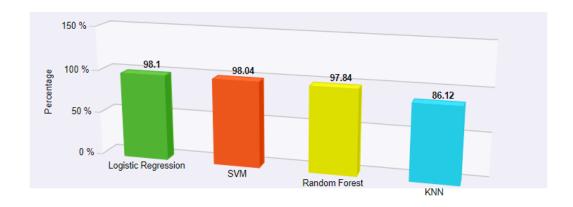
For example if k = 5, the data is randomly partitioned into 20 equal parts, where each fold has 5% of the data.

## Algorithm:

- Randomly split dataset of n instances into K folds
- ◆ For each k fold, built models on k-1 fold of dataset. Test the model to check for effectiveness for kth fold
- ♦ Record the error on each prediction
- Repeat the process until each k fold has become the test set
- ◆ The average of k recorded errors is the cross validation error and will form the performance metric

```
from sklearn.model_selection import KFold
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
accuracy1 = []
kf = KFold(n_splits=5, random_state=None)
for train_index, test_index in kf.split(X):
      #print("Train:", train_index, "\nValidation:",test_index)
      X train, X test = X[train index], X[test index]
      Y_train, Y_test = Y[train_index], Y[test_index]
      # Standardization
      scaler = StandardScaler()
      X train = scaler.fit transform(X train)
      X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
      # Training the Model
      model = KNeighborsClassifier( n_neighbors = 5 )
      model.fit( X_train, Y_train.ravel() )
      # Predicting Test Data Set
      Y_pred = model.predict( X_test )
    # Confusion Matrix
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
print("\n\nConfusion Matrix\n\n", confusion_matrix(Y_test,Y_pred), end = "\n")
    # F1 Score
from sklearn.metrics import f1_score
print("\nF1 Score : ", f1_score(Y_test,Y_pred), end = "\n")
    # Accuracy Score
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
accuracy1.append(accuracy_score(Y_test, Y_pred))
print("\nAccuracy Score : ", accuracy_score(Y_test,Y_pred))
```

## **❖** Accuracy Comparison of various ML Algorithms



# **❖** Future Scope

Spam Email Detection is essential in a Business Enterprise as it can ensure justice for sellers and retain the trust of the buyers in Online Shopping. These algorithms which have been used still have not eliminated the need for manual checking of emails. There is still scope for complete automation of spam detection systems which have higher efficiency.

The spammers also are getting smarter and spam reviews are getting untraceable. Therefore, it is necessary to identify different algorithms to identify the spam emails.

This algorithm can further be extended to cellphones, which received both SMS texts and other messaging applications.

#### Conclusion

In this study, we have reviewed various Machine Learning approaches and their applications for spam email filtering. The paper surveyed a number of public accessible datasets and performance metrics. The challenges of these Machine Learning algorithms in expeditiously handling the menace of spam was found out and comparative studies of the machine learning technics accessible in literature was done.

Given a set of words, we used feature selection to obtain words which allowed us to distinguish between spam and ham emails. Therefore, we compared the accuracy of various Machine Learning algorithms for predicting the class attribute.

It is observed that Logistic Regression gives the highest classification accuracy of 98.10% in our trials, followed by SVM and Random Forest Algorithms.

KNN gives the least accuracy of 86.12%, when K is given a value of 5.

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