

# NAAN MUDHALVAN PROJECT(IBM)

## IBM AI 101 ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE-GROUP 1

#### **DONE BY**

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ECE 3<sup>Rd</sup> Year

From the Department of

**ELECTRONICS AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING** 

# NAAN MUDHALVAN PROJECT(IBM)

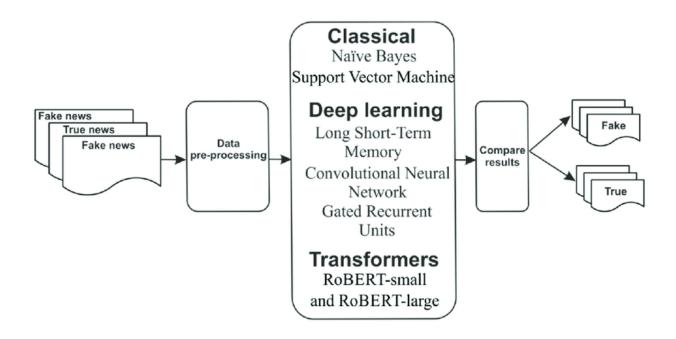
IBM AI 101 ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE-GROUP 1

# **PROJECT:**

## TEAM-6 FAKE NEWS DETECTION USING NLP



# PHASE III: DEVELOPMENT PART-II



## **DATASET**



title	text	subject	date		
Donald Trump Sends Out Embarra	Donald Trump just couldn t wish all Ameri	News	December	31, 2017	
Drunk Bragging Trump Staffer Star	House Intelligence Committee Chairman	News	December	31, 2017	
Sheriff David Clarke Becomes An I	On Friday, it was revealed that former Mi	News	December	30, 2017	
Trump Is So Obsessed He Even Ha	On Christmas day, Donald Trump annound	News	December	29, 2017	
Pope Francis Just Called Out Dona	Pope Francis used his annual Christmas D	News	December	25, 2017	
Racist Alabama Cops Brutalize Bla	The number of cases of cops brutalizing a	News	December	25, 2017	
Fresh Off The Golf Course, Trump	Donald Trump spent a good portion of his	News	December	23, 2017	
Trump Said Some INSANELY Racis	In the wake of yet another court decision	News	December	23, 2017	
Former CIA Director Slams Trump	Many people have raised the alarm regar	News	December	22, 2017	
WATCH: Brand-New Pro-Trump A	Just when you might have thought we dg	News	December	21, 2017	
Papa John's Founder Retires, F	A centerpiece of Donald Trump s campaig	News	December	21, 2017	
WATCH: Paul Ryan Just Told Us He	Republicans are working overtime trying t	News	December	21, 2017	
Bad News For Trump â€" Mitch M	Republicans have had seven years to com	News	December	21, 2017	
WATCH: Lindsey Graham Trashes I	The media has been talking all day about	News	December	20, 2017	
Heiress To Disney Empire Knows (	Abigail Disney is an heiress with brass ova	News	December	20, 2017	
Tone Deaf Trump: Congrats Rep. 5	Donald Trump just signed the GOP tax sca	News	December	20, 2017	
The Internet Brutally Mocks Disne	A new animatronic figure in the Hall of Pr	News	December	19, 2017	
Mueller Spokesman Just F-cked U	Trump supporters and the so-called president	News	December	17, 2017	
SNL Hilariously Mocks Accused Ch	Right now, the whole world is looking at t	News	December	17, 2017	
Republican Senator Gets Dragged	Senate Majority Whip John Cornyn (R-TX)	News	December	16, 2017	
In A Heartless Rebuke To Victims,	It almost seems like Donald Trump is troll	News	December	16, 2017	
KY GOP State Rep. Commits Suicio	In this #METOO moment, many powerful	News	December	13, 2017	
Meghan McCain Tweets The Most	As a Democrat won a Senate seat in deep	News	December	12, 2017	

The fake news dataset is one of the classic text analytics datasets available on Kaggle. It consists of genuine and fake articles' titles and text from different authors. In this article, I have walked through the entire text classification process using traditional machine learning approaches as well as deep learning.

#### **Getting Started**

I started with downloading the dataset from Kaggle on Google Colab.

#### CODE

```
# Upload Kaggle json
!pip install -q kaggle
!pip install -q kaggle-cli
!mkdir -p ~/.kaggle
!cp "/content/drive/My Drive/Kaggle/kaggle.json" ~/.kaggle/ # Mount
GDrive
!cat ~/.kaggle/kaggle.json
!chmod 600 ~/.kaggle/kaggle.json
!kaggle competitions download -c fake-news -p dataset
!unzip /content/dataset/train.csv.zip
!unzip /content/dataset/test.csv.zip
```

Next, I read the DataFrame and checked the null values in it. There are 7 null values in the text articles, 122 in title and 503 in author out of a total of 20800 rows, I decided to drop the rowsFor the test data, I filled them up with a blank.

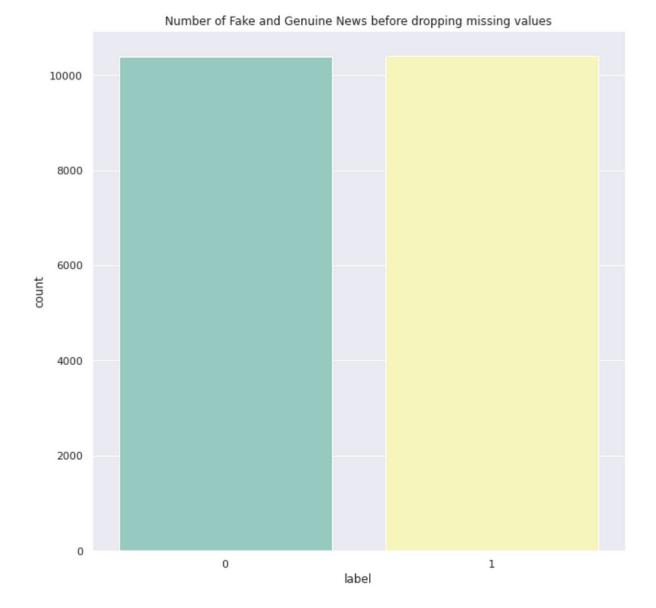
id	0	id	0
title	122	title	558
author	503	author	1957
text	7	text	39
dtype:	in+64	label	0
acype.	111004	dtype:	int64

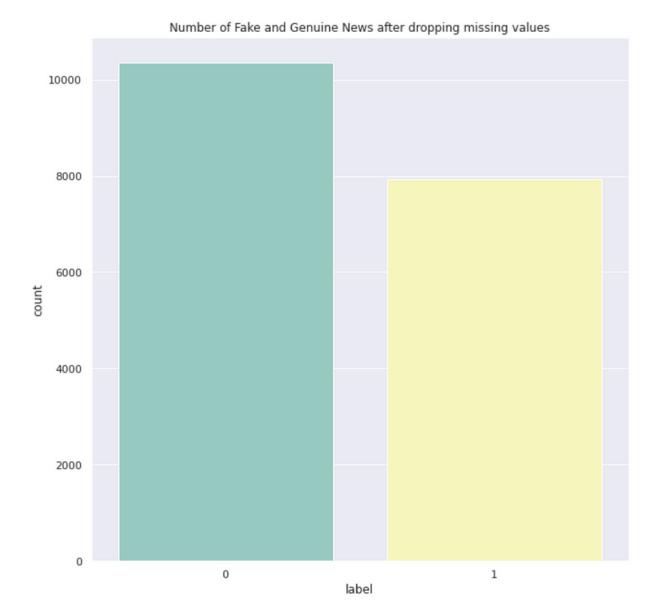
Number of Null Values in Train Data and Test Data, respectively

```
train_df = pd.read_csv('/content/train.csv', header=0)
test_df = pd.read_csv('/content/test.csv', header=0)
print(train_df.isna().sum())
print(test_df.isna().sum())
train_df.dropna(axis=0, how='any',inplace=True)
test_df = test_df.fillna(' ')
```

Additionally, I also check the distribution of 'Fake' and 'Genuine' news in the dataset. Usually, I set the rcParams for all plots on the notebook while importing matplotlib.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from matplotlib import rcParams
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = [10, 10]
import seaborn as sns
sns.set_theme(style="darkgrid")
sns.countplot(x='label', data=train_df, palette='Set3')
plt.show()
```



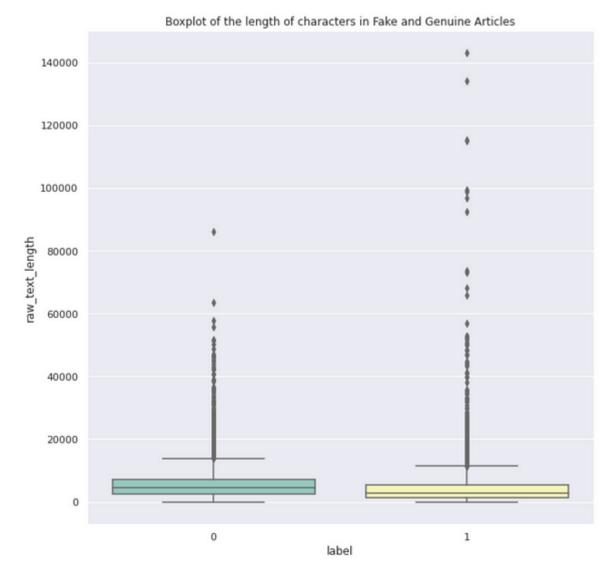


0 is Genuine News while 1 is Fake News

The ratio is disturbed from being 1:1 to 4:5 for genuine to fake news.

Next, I decided to look at the article length like below —

```
train_df['raw_text_length'] = train_df['text'].apply(lambda x: len(x))
sns.boxplot(y='raw_text_length', x='label', data=train_df,
palette="Set3")
plt.show()
```



It is seen that the median length is lower for fake articles but it also has loads of outliers. Both have zero length.

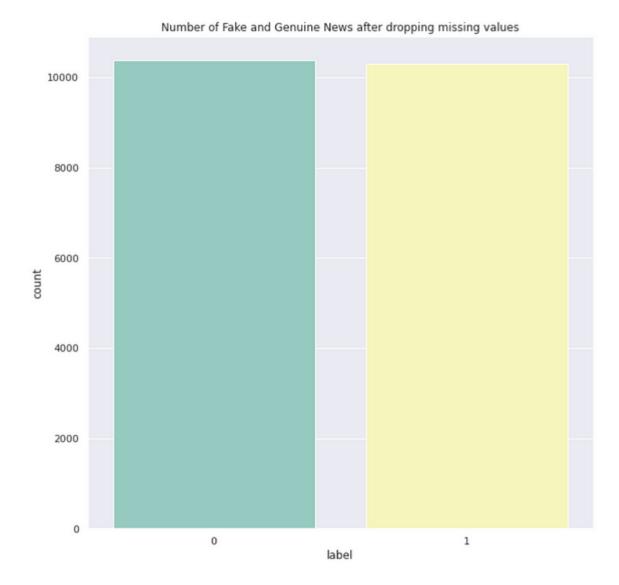
It is seen that they start from 0 which is concerning. It actually starts from 1 when I used .describe() to see the numbers. So I took a look at these texts and found that they are blank. The obvious answer to this is strip and drop length zero. I checked the total number of zero-length texts is 74.

```
train_df['text'] = train_df['text'].str.strip()
# Recalculate the length
train_df['raw_text_length'] = train_df['text'].apply(lambda x: len(x))
print(len(train_df[train_df['raw_text_length']==0]))
```

I decided to start over again. So, I would fill all nans with a blank and strip them next, then, remove the zero-length texts and that should be good to start the preprocessing. Following is the new code that handles missing values essentially. The final shape of the data is (20684, 6), that is, it contains 20684 rows, only 116 less than 20800.

```
train_df = pd.read_csv('/content/train.csv', header=0)
train_df = train_df.fillna(' ')
train_df['text'] = train_df['text'].str.strip()
train_df['raw_text_length'] = train_df['text'].apply(lambda x: len(x))
print(len(train_df[train_df['raw_text_length']==0]))
print(train_df.isna().sum())
train_df = train_df[train_df['raw_text_length'] > 0]
print(train_df.shape)
print(train_df.isna().sum())

# Visualize the target's distribution
sns.countplot(x='label', data=train_df, palette='Set3')
plt.title("Number of Fake and Genuine News after dropping missing values")
plt.show()
```



It so appeared after that there are more texts that have single-digit lengths or as low as 10. They seemed more like comments than proper texts. I will keep them for the time being as it is and move on to the next step.

#### **Text Preprocessing**

So before I began with text preprocessing, I actually looked at the overlapping number of authors that have fake and genuine articles. In other words, would having the author's information be helpful in any way? I found out that there are 3838 authors, out of which 2225 are genuine and 1618 are fake news' authors. 5 authors among them are both genuine and fake news' authors.

```
gen_news_authors =
set(list(train_df[train_df['label']==0]['author'].unique()))
fake_news_authors =
set(list(train_df[train_df['label']==1]['author'].unique()))
overlapped_authors = gen_news_authors.intersection(fake_news_authors)
print("Number of distinct authors with genuine articles: {}",
len(gen_news_authors))
print("Number of distinct authors with fake articles: {}",
len(fake_news_authors))
print("Number of distinct authors with both genuine and fake: {}",
len(overlapped_authors))
```

To start with pre-processing I initially had chosen to directly split by blank and expand contractions. However, that has yielded errors due to some (I suppose Slavic) other language texts. So, in the first step, I used regex to preserve only the Latin character, digits, and spaces. Then, expand contractions and then convert to lower-case. This is because contractions such as i've is converted to I have. Therefore, conversion to lower-case comes after expanding contractions. The full code is below:

```
def preprocess_text(x):
    cleaned_text = re.sub(r'[^a-zA-Z\d\s\']+', '', x)
    word_list = []
    for each_word in cleaned_text.split(' '):
        try:
        word_list.append(contractions.fix(each_word).lower())
        except:
        print(x)
    return " ".join(word_list)

text_cols = ['text', 'title', 'author']
for col in text_cols:
```

```
print("Processing column: {}".format(col))
train_df[col] = train_df[col].apply(lambda x: preprocess_text(x))
test_df[col] = test_df[col].apply(lambda x: preprocess_text(x))
```

Once, this is done, the regular word tokenization is done followed by stopword removal.

```
for col in text_cols:
    print("Processing column: {}".format(col))
    train_df[col] = train_df[col].apply(word_tokenize)
    test_df[col] = test_df[col].apply(word_tokenize)

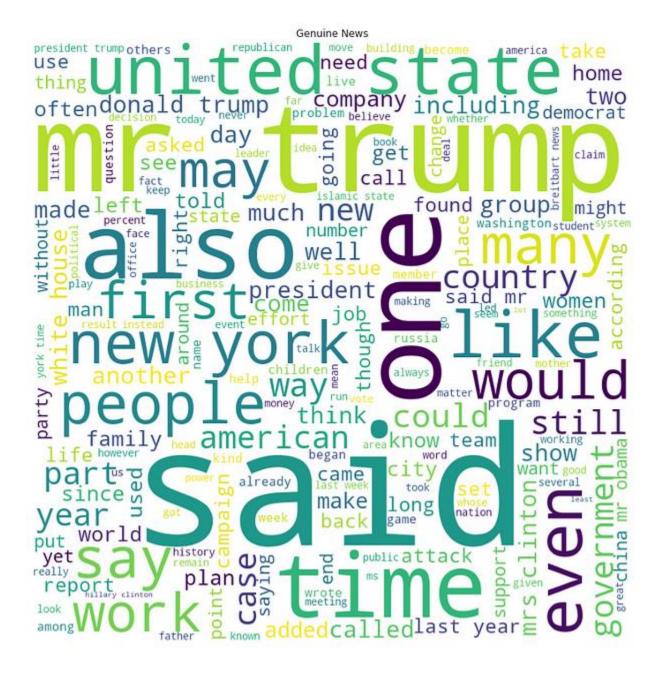
for col in text_cols:
    print("Processing column: {}".format(col))
    train_df[col] = train_df[col].apply(
        lambda x: [each_word for each_word in x if each_word not in stopwords])
    test_df[col] = test_df[col].apply(
        lambda x: [each_word for each_word in x if each_word not in stopwords])
```

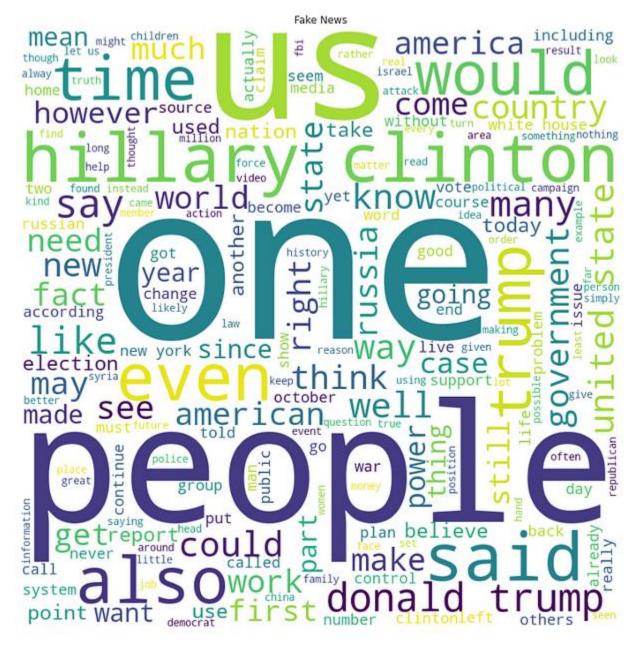
#### **Text Analysis**

Now that the data is ready, I intend to look at frequent words using the wordcloud. In order to do that, I first joined all the tokenized texts into strings in separate columns since they will be used later while model training.

```
# since count vectorizer expects strings
train_df['text_joined'] = train_df['text'].apply(lambda x: "
".join(x))
test_df['text_joined'] = test_df['text'].apply(lambda x: " ".join(x))
Next, per label, create a string of all texts and created the wordcloud as below:
# join all texts in resective labels
all texts gen = "
".join(train_df[train_df['label']==0]['text_joined'])
all texts fake = "
".join(train df[train df['label']==1]['text joined'])
# Wordcloud for Genuine News
wordcloud = WordCloud(width = 800, height = 800,
                background color = 'white',
                stopwords = stopwords,
                min font size = 10).generate(all texts gen)
plt.imshow(wordcloud)
plt.axis("off")
plt.tight layout(pad = 0)
plt.show()
# Worldcloud for Fake News
wordcloud = WordCloud(width = 800, height = 800,
                background_color ='white',
                stopwords = stopwords,
                min font size = 10).generate(all texts fake)
```

```
plt.imshow(wordcloud)
plt.axis("off")
plt.tight_layout(pad = 0)
plt.show()
```





In the fake news wordcloud, the frequency of some words is strikingly higher than the others. On the genuine news' wordcloud, there is a mix of different font sizes. On the contrary, in the fake news dataset, the smaller texts are in the background and some of the words are used much more frequently. There are fewer medium-sized words in the fake news wordcloud or, in other words, there is a disconnect in progressively diminishing frequency of appearance. The frequency is either high or low.

#### **Stylometric Analysis**

The stylometric analysis is often referred to as the analysis of the author's style. I will look into a few of the stylometric features such as the number of sentences per article, the average words per sentence in an article, the average length of words per article, and the POS tag counts.

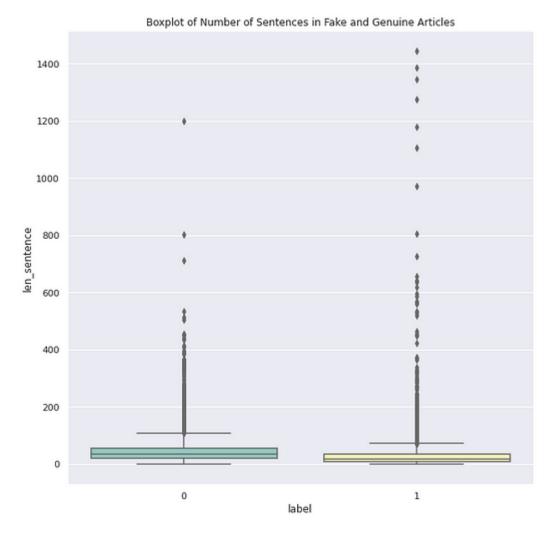
#### **Number of Sentences per Article**

To get this I needed the original dataset since I have lost the sentence information in train\_df. So, I saved a copy of the actual data in orginal\_train\_df which I used to convert the sentences to sequences.

```
from nltk import sent_tokenize
original_train_df = train_df.copy()
original_train_df['sent_tokens'] =
original_train_df['text'].apply(sent_tokenize)
```

Next, I looked at the count of the sentences by each target category as follows:

```
original_train_df['len_sentence'] =
original_train_df['sent_tokens'].apply(len)
sns.boxplot(y='len_sentence', x='label', data=original_train_df,
palette="Set3")
plt.title("Boxplot of Number of Sentences in Fake and Genuine
Articles")
plt.show()
```

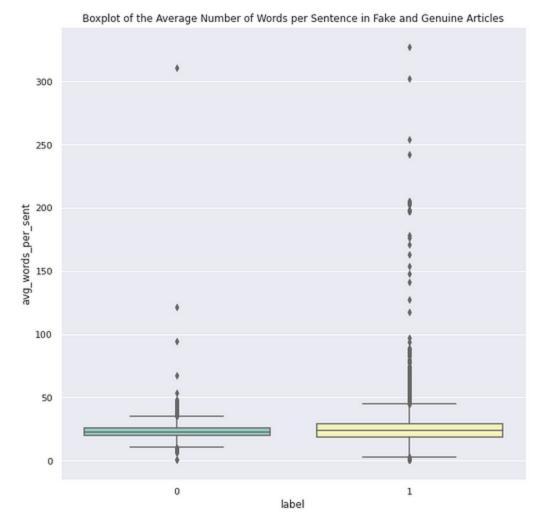


Evidently, fake articles have a lot of outliers but 75% of the fake articles have the number of sentences lower than the 50% of the genuine news articles.

## Average Number of Words per Sentence in an Article

Here, I counted the total number of words per sentence in each article and returned the average. Then I plotted the counts in a boxplot to visualize them.

```
# tokenize words within the sequences
original train df['sent word tokens'] =
original_train_df['sent_tokens'].apply(lambda x:
[word tokenize(each sentence) for each sentence in x])
# Clean the punctuations
def get seq tokens cleaned(seq tokens):
  no punc seg = [each seg.translate(str.maketrans('', '',
string.punctuation)) for each seq in seq tokens]
  sent word tokens = [word tokenize(each sentence) for each sentence
in no punc seql
  return sent word tokens
# Count the avg number of words in each sentence
def get average words in sent(seq word tokens):
  return np.mean([len(seq) for seq in seq word tokens])
original train df['sent word tokens'] =
original train df['sent tokens'].apply(lambda x:
get seq tokens cleaned(x))
original train df['avg words per sent'] =
original train df['sent word tokens'].apply(lambda x:
get average words in sent(x))
sns.boxplot(y='avg words per sent', x='label', data=original train df,
palette="Set3")
plt.title("Boxplot of the Average Number of Words per Sentence in Fake
and Genuine Articles")
plt.show()
```



It is seen that, on average, fake articles are wordier than genuine ones.

## **Average Word Length per Article**

This is the average word length in one article. In the box plot, it is evident that the average word length is higher in the fake articles.

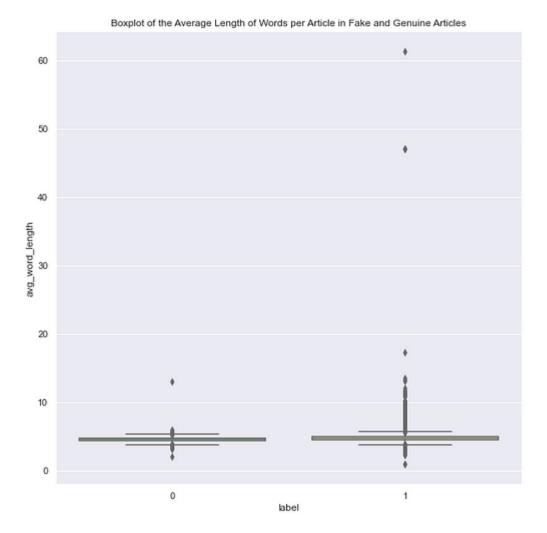
```
def get_average_word_length(seq_word_tokens):
    return np.mean([len(word) for seq in seq_word_tokens for word in
    seq])

original_train_df['avg_word_length'] =
    original_train_df['sent_word_tokens'].apply(lambda x:
    get_average_word_length(x))

sns.boxplot(y='avg_word_length', x='label', data=original_train_df,
    palette="Set3")

plt.title("Boxplot of the Average Length of Words per Article in Fake
    and Genuine Articles")

plt.show()
```



#### **POS Tag Counts**

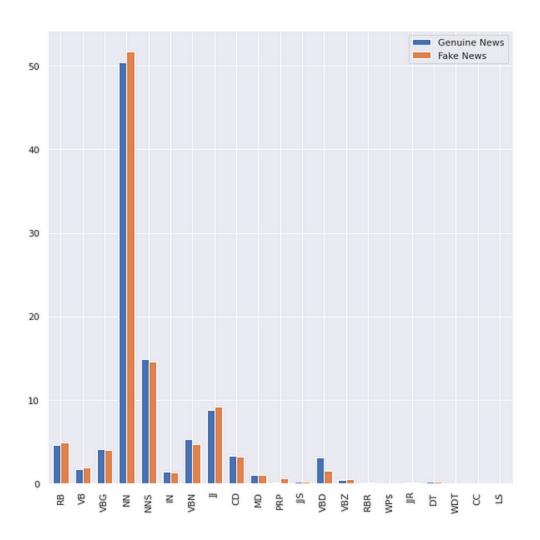
Next, I tried to look at the part-of-speech (POS) combinations in Fake vs Genuine articles. I only stored the POS of the words into a list while iterating through each article, put the respective POS count in one DataFrame, and used a bar plot to show the percentage combination of the POS tags in Fake and News articles. The Nouns are much higher in both the articles. In general, there is no distinct pattern except for the percentage of past-tense verbs in fake news is half of that in the genuine ones. Apart from that, all other POS types are almost equal in fake and genuine articles.

```
all tokenized gen = [a for b in
train df[train df['label']==0]['text'].tolist() for a in b]
all tokenized fake = [a for b in
train df[train df['label']==1]['text'].tolist() for a in b]
def get post tags list(tokenized articles):
 all_pos_tags = []
 for word in tokenized_articles:
    pos_tag = nltk.pos_tag([word])[0][1]
    all_pos_tags.append(pos_tag)
  return all_pos_tags
all pos tagged word gen = get post tags list(all tokenized gen)
all pos tagged word fake = get post tags list(all tokenized fake)
pritn(all_pos_tagged_word_gen[:5])
print(all_pos_tagged_word_fake[:5])
gen_pos_df =
pd.DataFrame(dict(Counter(all pos tagged word gen)).items(),
columns=['Pos_tag', 'Genuine News'])
fake pos df =
pd.DataFrame(dict(Counter(all_pos_tagged_word_fake)).items(),
columns=['Pos_tag', 'Fake News'])
pos df = gen pos df.merge(fake pos df, on='Pos tag')
# Make percentage for comparison
pos df['Genuine News'] = pos df['Genuine News'] * 100 /
pos df['Genuine News'].sum()
pos df['Fake News'] = pos df['Fake News'] * 100 / pos df['Fake
News'].sum()
```

```
# plot a multiple bar chart
pos_df.plot.bar(width=0.7)
plt.xticks(range(0,len(pos_df['Pos_tag'])), pos_df['Pos_tag'])
```

pos\_df.head()

plt.show()



### **Text Classification using Machine Learning**

#### Tf-idf and Count Vectorizer

Once the analysis is complete, I took first the conventional way of using the Count Vectorizer and term frequency-inverse document frequency or Tf-idf. The Count Vectorizer, as configured in the code, generates bigrams as well. The counts of their occurrences are obtained in the form of a matrix using the CountVectorizer() and this word-count matrix is then transformed into the normalized term-frequency (tf-idf) representation. Here, I have used smooth=False, to avoid zero division error. By providing smooth=False, I am basically adding one to the document frequency since it is the denominator in the formula for idf calculation, as shown below —

```
idf(t) = log [ n / (df(t) + 1) ]
train df['text joined'] = train df['text'].apply(lambda x: "
".join(x))
test df['text joined'] = test df['text'].apply(lambda x: " ".join(x))
count vectorizer = CountVectorizer(ngram range=(1, 2))
tf idf transformer = TfidfTransformer(smooth idf=False)
# fit and transform train data to count vectorizer
count_vectorizer.fit(train_df['text_joined'].values)
count vect train =
count vectorizer.transform(train df['text joined'].values)
# fit the counts vector to tfidf transformer
tf idf transformer.fit(count vect train)
tf idf train = tf idf transformer.transform(count vect train)
# Transform the test data as well
```

```
count_vect_test =
count_vectorizer.transform(test_df['text_joined'].values)

tf_idf_test = tf_idf_transformer.transform(count_vect_test)

# Train test split

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(tf_idf_train, target, random state=0)
```

#### **Benchmarking with Default Configurations**

Next, I intended to train the models with the default configurations and pick out the best-performing model to tune later. For this, I looped through a list and saved all the performance metrics into another DataFrame and the models in a list.

```
df_perf_metrics = pd.DataFrame(columns=['Model',
   'Accuracy_Training_Set', 'Accuracy_Test_Set', 'Precision', 'Recall',
   'f1_score'])

df_perf_metrics = pd.DataFrame(columns=[
        'Model', 'Accuracy_Training_Set', 'Accuracy_Test_Set',
   'Precision',
        'Recall', 'f1_score', 'Training Time (secs'
])

# list to retain the models to use later for test set predictions
models_trained_list = []

def get_perf_metrics(model, i):
    # model name
    model_name = type(model).__name__
# time keeping
    start_time = time.time()
```

```
print("Training {} model...".format(model_name))
    # Fitting of model
    model.fit(X_train, y_train)
    print("Completed {} model training.".format(model_name))
    elapsed time = time.time() - start time
    # Time Elapsed
    print("Time elapsed: {:.2f} s.".format(elapsed time))
    # Predictions
    y pred = model.predict(X test)
    # Add to ith row of dataframe - metrics
    df perf metrics.loc[i] = [
        model name,
        model.score(X train, y train),
        model.score(X test, y test),
        precision score(y test, y pred),
        recall score(y test, y pred),
        f1 score(y test, y pred), "{:.2f}".format(elapsed time)
    1
    # keep a track of trained models
    models trained list.append(model)
    print("Completed {} model's performance
assessment.".format(model_name))
```

I used Logistic Regression, Multinomial Naive Bayes, Decision Trees, Random Forest, Gradient Boost, and Ada Boost classifiers. The precision of MultinomialNB is the best among all, but f1-score falters because of the poor recall score. In fact, recall is the worst at 68%. The best models in the results were Logistic Regression and AdaBoost whose results are similar. I chose to go with Logistic Regression to save training time.

	Model	Accuracy_Training_Set	Accuracy_Test_Set	Precision	Recall	f1_score	Training Time (secs
0	LogisticRegression	0.982660	0.946432	0.927520	0.966562	0.946638	54.51
1	MultinomialNB	0.949333	0.844131	0.997136	0.684894	0.812034	0.59
2	RandomForestClassifier	0.999936	0.905047	0.926049	0.876869	0.900788	897.86
3	DecisionTreeClassifier	0.999936	0.903114	0.899101	0.904406	0.901745	404.55
4	GradientBoostingClassifier	0.945723	0.938697	0.924780	0.952793	0.938578	6715.15
5	AdaBoostClassifier	0.939019	0.941597	0.934109	0.948072	0.941039	2965.27

#### **GridSearchCV for Tuning Logistic Regression Classifier**

So, time to tune my chosen classifier. I started out with a wider range for max\_iter and C. Then used GirdSearchCV with cv=r, i.e. 5 folds for cross-validation since label distribution is fairly distributed. I have used f1-score for scoring and used refit to return the trained model with the best f1-score.

```
model = LogisticRegression()
max_iter = [100, 200, 500, 1000]
C = [0.1, 0.5, 1, 10, 50, 100]
param grid = dict(max iter=max iter, C=C)
grid = GridSearchCV(estimator=model,
                    param grid=param grid,
                    cv=5.
                    scoring=['f1'],
                    refit='f1',
                    verbose=2)
grid result = grid.fit(X train, y train)
print('Best params: ', grid result.best params )
model = grid result.best estimator
y pred = model.predict(X test)
print('Accuracy: ', accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred))
print('Precision: ', precision_score(y_test, y_pred))
print('Recall: ', recall score(y test, y pred))
print('f1-score: ', f1_score(y_test, y_pred))
```

The best resulting model had an accuracy of 97.62% and an f1-score of 97.60%. For both, we have achieved 4% improvement. Now, I noticed that the max\_iter's best value was 100, which was the lower boundary of the range, and for C, it was also 100, but it was the upper boundary of the range. So, to accommodate parameter search, I used max iter = 50, 70, 100 and C = 75,

100, 125. There was a marginal improvement with max\_iter=100 and C=125. So, I decided to keep that constant and scaled up the parameter search for C from 120 to 150, with step size 10. All performance metrics were equal for this run to the starting grid's results. However, the value of C=140 for this run.

```
# Starting out with a range of values
max_iter = [100, 200, 500, 1000]
C = [0.1, 0.5, 1, 10, 50, 100]

# Attempt 2
max_iter = [50, 75, 100]
C = [75, 100, 125]

# Attempt 3
max_iter = [100]
C = [120, 130, 140, 150]

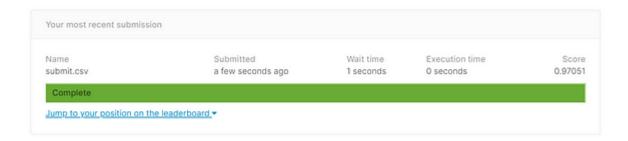
# Final Attempt - Attempt 4
max_iter = [100]
C = [100, 125, 140]
```

One final time, I ran a grid search on max\_iter=100 and C = [100, 125, 140] where C had the best parameters from all the runs. The best one was max\_iter=100 and C=140, which I eventually saved as the best model.

Accuracy: 0.9762134983562174 Precision: 0.9678916827852998

Recall: 0.98426435877262 f1-score: 0.976009362200117 One of the potential future works here is to test with GradientBoost and AdaBoost Classifier since their performances were also good. In some cases, the performances after tuning could be much better but in the interest of time, I would conclude here as Logistic Regression is the best performing model with max iter=100 and C=140.

I finally uploaded the results on Kaggle. This challenge is 3 years old but I was interested in testing the score on the test data of this model.



### **Text Classification using GloVe and LSTM**

#### **Data Preparation**

For using deep learning techniques, the text data had to re-loaded in the original format since the embedding would be a little different. In the following code, I have handled the missing values and appended the title and author of the articles to the article's text.

```
import pandas as pd

train_df = pd.read_csv('fake-news/train.csv', header=0)

test_df = pd.read_csv('fake-news/test.csv', header=0)

train_df = train_df.fillna(' ')

test_df = test_df.fillna(' ')

train_df['all_info'] = train_df['text'] + train_df['title'] + train_df['author']
```

```
test_df['all_info'] = test_df['text'] + test_df['title'] +
test_df['author']

target = train_df['label'].values
```

Next, I used Keras API's Tokenizer class to tokenized the texts and replaced the out of vocabulary token using oov\_token = "<OOV>", which actually creates a vocabulary index based on word frequency. I then fit the tokenizer on the texts and converted them into sequences of integers which uses the vocabulary index created by fitting the tokenizer. Finally, since the sequences could be of different lengths, I used pad\_sequences to pad them with zeros at the end using padding=post. Each of the sequences is expected to, hence, have a length of 40, according to the code. Finally, I have split them into train and test sets.

```
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.text import Tokenizer
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.sequence import pad_sequences

tokenizer = Tokenizer(oov_token = "<00V>", num_words=6000)

tokenizer.fit_on_texts(train_df['all_info'])

max_length = 40

vocab_size = 6000

sequences_train = tokenizer.texts_to_sequences(train_df['all_info'])

sequences_test = tokenizer.texts_to_sequences(test_df['all_info'])

padded_train = pad_sequences(sequences_train, padding = 'post',
maxlen=max_length)

padded_test = pad_sequences(sequences_test, padding = 'post',
maxlen=max_length)
```

```
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(padded_train,
target, test_size=0.2)

print(X_train.shape)
print(y_train.shape)
```

#### **Binary Classification Model**

Model: "sequential"

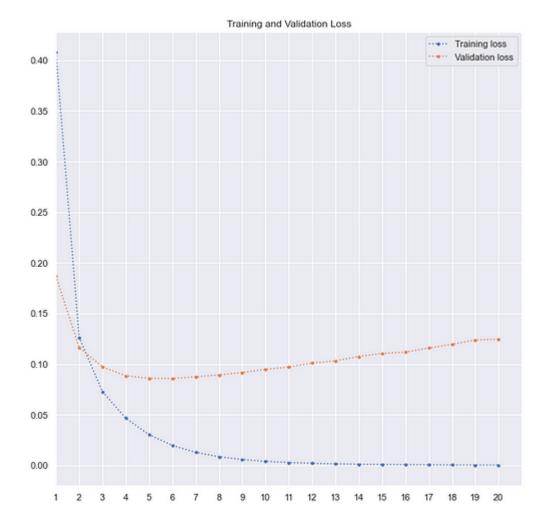
Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
embedding (Embedding)	(None, 40, 10)	60000
flatten (Flatten)	(None, 400)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 1)	401

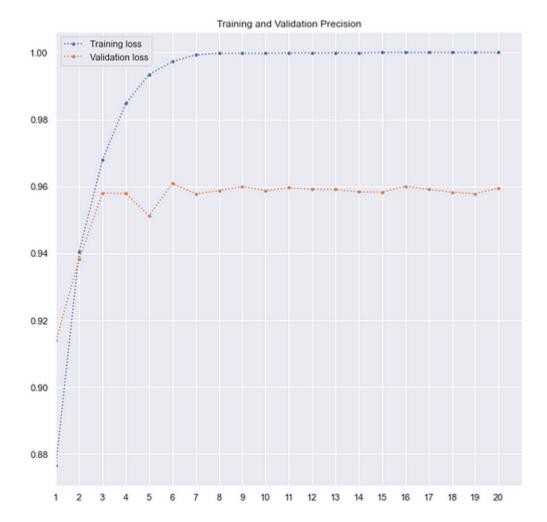
Total params: 60,401 Trainable params: 60,401 Non-trainable params: 0

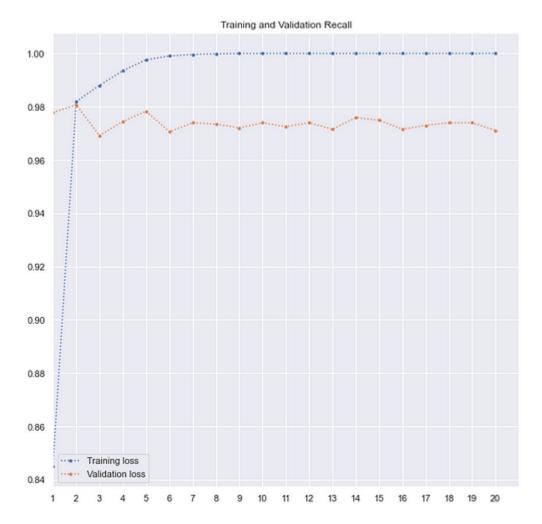
To create a model for text classification, I started with the simplest form of binary classification model structure where the first layer is an Embedding layer with expects an embedding of texts of 6000 vocab size (specified in vocab\_size), each sequence of length 40 (thus, input\_length=max\_length) and gives an output of 40 vectors of 10 dimensions for each input sequence. Next, I used Flatten layer to flatten the matrix of shape (40, 10) into a single array of shapes (400, ). Then, this array was passed through a Dense layer to produce a one-dimensional output and used sigmoid activation function to produce binary classifications. I initially thought of experimenting more with this model so created a function for it and I also like the grouping of the layers into a function as a practice. It is not really needed for this work. Finally, I compiled the model using precision and recall for metrics to monitor while training and validation.

```
def get_simple_model():
  model = Sequential()
  model.add(Embedding(vocab_size, 10, input_length=max_length))
  model.add(Flatten())
  model.add(Dense(1, activation='sigmoid'))
  return model
model = get_simple_model()
print(model.summary())
model.compile(loss='binary_crossentropy',
               optimizer='adam',
               metrics=[tf.keras.metrics.Precision(),
tf.keras.metrics.Recall()])
I also used early stopping to save time with patience=15 which indicates stopping if in the last
15 epochs there was no improvement in the model, and model checkpoint to store the best
model with save best only=True. Added mode=min since I am monitoring loss here.
callbacks=[
    keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(monitor="val loss", patience=15,
                                     verbose=1, mode="min",
restore best weights=True),
    keras.callbacks.ModelCheckpoint(filepath=best model file name,
verbose=1, save_best_only=True)]
Time to fit the model now!
```

Since I used precision and recall, along with loss, I can also track the precision and recall values here. As in the graph below, the validation loss was the lowest at the 6th epoch and then the loss was either stagnant or increasing. Hence, the best model was saved after the 6th epoch of training. It is evident how the model was overfitting with training loss improving while the validation loss is increasing after the 6th epoch.







Below, is the code I used to plot the training and validation loss, precision, and recall. I used max(history.epoch) + 2 in the range function since history.epoch starts from 0. Hence, for 20 epochs, the maximum would be 19 and the range would generate a list from 1 to 18 for max(history.epoch).

# plot training and validation loss

```
metric_to_plot = "loss"

plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2),
history.history[metric_to_plot], ".:", label="Training loss")

plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2), history.history["val_" + metric_to_plot], ".:", label="Validation loss")
```

```
plt.title('Training and Validation Loss')
plt.xlim([1,max(history.epoch) + 2])
plt.xticks(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2))
plt.legend()
plt.show()
# plot training and validation precision
metric to plot = "precision"
plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2),
history.history[metric to plot], ".:", label="Training loss")
plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2), history.history["val " +
metric_to_plot], ".:", label="Validation loss")
plt.title('Training and Validation Precision')
plt.xlim([1,max(history.epoch) + 2])
plt.xticks(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2))
plt.legend()
plt.show()
# plot training and validation recall
metric to plot = "recall"
plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2),
history.history[metric_to_plot], ".:", label="Training loss")
plt.plot(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2), history.history["val " +
metric_to_plot], ".:", label="Validation loss")
plt.title('Training and Validation Recall')
plt.xlim([1,max(history.epoch) + 2])
plt.xticks(range(1, max(history.epoch) + 2))
```

```
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

This model had an accuracy value of 96.6% and an f1-score of 96.6%. I also tested the performance of this model on the Kaggle test data and it was not bad, but not better than the Logistic Regression I trained earlier.



## **LSTM**

Model: "sequential\_1"

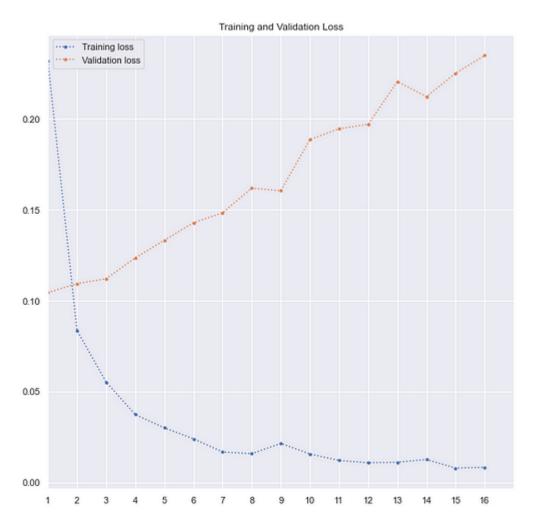
Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
embedding_1 (Embedding)	(None, 40, 10)	60000
dropout (Dropout)	(None, 40, 10)	0
lstm (LSTM)	(None, 100)	44400
dropout_1 (Dropout)	(None, 100)	0
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 64)	6464
dropout_2 (Dropout)	(None, 64)	0
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 1)	65

Total params: 110,929 Trainable params: 110,929 Non-trainable params: 0 Phew! Now let's fit an LSTM model to the text data. The first and the last layer are the same since the input and the outputs are the same. In between, I have used a Dropout layer to filter out 30% of units and then go to the LSTM layer of 100 units. Long Short Term Memory (LSTM), is a special kind of RNN, capable of learning long-term dependencies. Their specialty lies in remembering information for a longer period of time. After using LSTM, I used another Dropout layer, then a fully-connected layer with 64 hidden units, then another Dropout layer, and finally another fully-connected layer of one unit with 'Sigmoid' activation function for binary classification.

```
def get_simple_LSTM_model():
    model = Sequential()
    model.add(Embedding(vocab_size, 10, input_length=max_length))
    model.add(Dropout(0.3))
    model.add(LSTM(100))
    model.add(Dropout(0.3))
    model.add(Dense(64, activation='relu'))
    model.add(Dropout(0.3))
    model.add(Dense(1, activation='sigmoid'))
    return model

model = get_simple_LSTM_model()
print(model.summary())
```

Once done, I followed the same process outlined in the previous section to compile, use callback, and fit the model. The number of epochs I provided was 20. But in this case, the model trained for only 16 epochs because for 15 consecutive iterations after the first epoch there was no improvement in the validation loss. It is clear from the plot below as well. The validation loss has been only increasing while the training loss was going down due to over-fitting. Recall the callback settings where I had encoded the model to wait for an improvement in validation loss for 15 consecutive epochs before stopping.



There was no significant improvement in this model although there are potential improvements that could be made to this model. It has an accuracy of 96.1% and an f1-score of 96.14%.

#### Using pre-trained Word Embedding — GloVe

Now, we can also use pre-trained word-embeddings, like GloVe. GloVe is an unsupervised learning algorithm for obtaining vector representations for words. Training is performed on aggregated global word-word co-occurrence statistics from a corpus, and the resulting representations showcase interesting linear substructures of the word vector space. [4]

I have used the one which was trained on 6 billion tokens with 400k vocabulary, represented in 300-dimensional vector format.

In the following code, I have a code to load GloVe on Google Colab since I was partly working on Colab.

```
# Load GloVe on Colab
!wget http://nlp.stanford.edu/data/glove.6B.zip
!unzip glove*.zip

f = open('/content/glove.6B.300d.txt')

for line in f:
    values = line.split()
    word = values[0]
    coefs = np.asarray(values[1:], dtype='float32')
    embeddings_index[word] = coefs

f.close()
print('Loaded {} word vectors.'.format(len(embeddings_index)))

# Load local GloVe weights - Download the file and store it
```

```
embeddings_index = dict()

f = open('your/path/glove.6B/glove.6B.300d.txt', encoding='utf-8')

for line in f:
    values = line.split()
    word = values[0]
    coefs = np.asarray(values[1:], dtype='float32')
    embeddings_index[word] = coefs

f.close()

print('Loaded {} word vectors.'.format(len(embeddings_index)))

Next. our objective is to find the tokens in the fake news data in the GloVe embedding and
```

Next, our objective is to find the tokens in the fake news data in the GloVe embedding and get the corresponding weights.

```
# create a weight matrix for words in training docs
print('Get vocab_size')
vocab_size = len(tokenizer.word_index) + 1

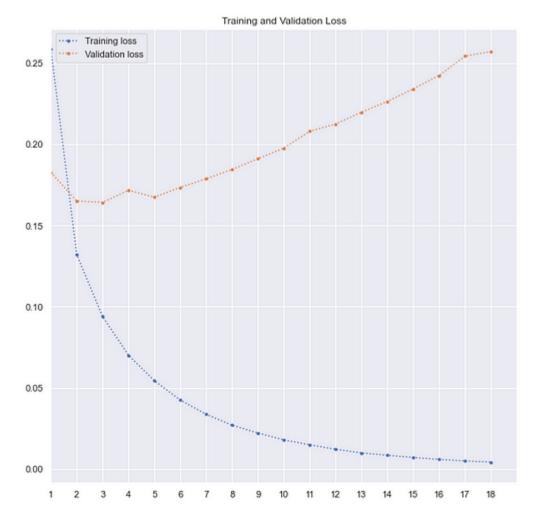
print('Create the embedding matrix')
embedding_matrix = np.zeros((vocab_size, 300))
for word, i in tokenizer.word_index.items():
    embedding_vector = embeddings_index.get(word)
    if embedding_vector is not None:
        embedding_matrix[i] = embedding_vector
```

### Simple Model with Glove

Now, that I have the GloVe embedding for our training data, I used the Embedding layer with output\_dim=300, which is the GloVe vector representation shape. Also, I used trainable=False, since I am using pre-trained weights, I should not update them while training. They hold relationships with other words so it is best not to disturb that.

```
# The best model file name for uniformity
best_model_file_name = "models/best_model_simple_with_GloVe.hdf5"
# the model
def get_simple_GloVe_model():
    model = Sequential()
    model.add(Embedding(vocab_size,
                        300,
                        weights=[embedding matrix],
                        input_length=max_length,
                        trainable=False))
    model.add(Flatten())
    model.add(Dense(1, activation='sigmoid'))
    return model
callbacks=[
    keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(monitor="val_loss",
                                   patience=15,
                                   verbose=1,
                                   mode="min",
                                   restore_best_weights=True),
    keras.callbacks.ModelCheckpoint(filepath=best_model_file_name,
                                     verbose=1,
                                     save_best_only=True)
]
model = get simple GloVe model()
print(model.summary())
```

Finally, with the same process as I used earlier, I trained the model with 50 epochs. However, since there was no improvement after the 3rd epoch, the model stopped training after the 18th epoch. The scores were lower than the previous two models. The accuracy and f1-score were both ~93%.



#### **GloVe with LSTM**

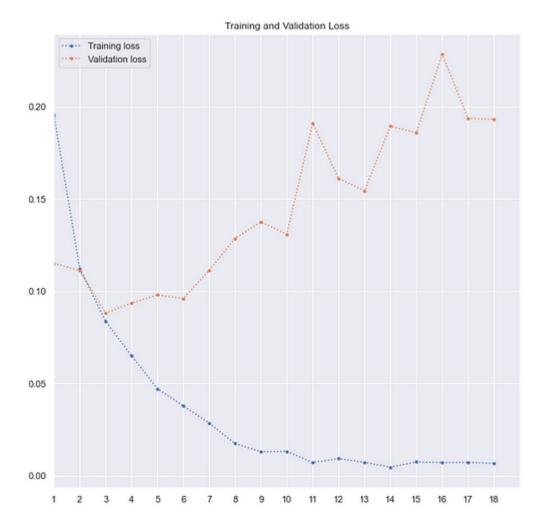
And.. finally, I used the GloVe embedding to train the LSTM model I used earlier to achieve better results. The complete code is below –

```
# The best model file name for uniformity
best_model_file_name = "models/best_model_LSTM_with_GloVe.hdf5"
# the model
def get_simple_GloVe_model():
    model = Sequential()
    model.add(Embedding(vocab_size,
```

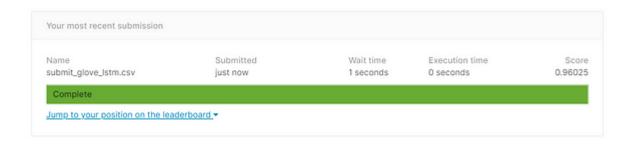
```
weights=[embedding_matrix],
                        input_length=max_length,
                        trainable=False))
    model.add(LSTM(100))
    model.add(Dropout(0.3))
    model.add(Dense(64, activation='relu'))
    model.add(Dropout(0.3))
    model.add(Flatten())
    model.add(Dense(1, activation='sigmoid'))
    return model
callbacks=[
    keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(monitor="val loss",
                                  patience=15,
                                  verbose=1,
                                  mode="min",
                                  restore best weights=True),
    keras.callbacks.ModelCheckpoint(filepath=best_model_file_name,
                                    verbose=1,
                                    save_best_only=True)
]
model = get_simple_GloVe_model()
print(model.summary())
model.compile(loss='binary crossentropy',
              optimizer='adam',
```

300,

Again, I used 50 epochs and the model did not improve after the third epoch. Therefore, the training process stopped after the 18th epoch. The accuracy and f1-score both improved to 96.5% which is close to the first Keras model.



So, I tried the predictions for this model on Kaggle's test data, and here is my result -



# **Conclusion**

In this exercise, the best model was the tuned Logistic Regression model. There are loads of scopes for further improvement on this use case, especially designing better deep learning models. Also, in the interest of time, I did not tune the Random Forest and AdaBoost classifier which could result in improved performance than the Logistic Regression.