Detection of Phishing URL

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Abstract

Phishing attacks, which aim to steal sensitive personal information through fraudulent websites, continue to pose a significant threat to internet security. According to Forbes, over 500 million phishing attacks were reported globally in just a single year, highlighting the urgent need for effective detection systems. The primary goal of this study is developing a predictive model for classifying URLs as either legitimate or phishing. This study will also explore the relationships between various features extracted from the URLs and their classification, along with the separation of degenerate variables from the predictor set. Both linear and nonlinear models will be fit to the training data using cross-validation methods, and the most promising model will be used to predict phishing URLs on a test set. The overall best model will be selected based on performance metrics, with the aim of providing an effective tool for detecting phishing attacks and enhancing internet security.



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1 Background

Phishing URLs are malicious web links designed to deceive users into visiting fraudulent websites. These sites aim to steal sensitive information such as login credentials, financial data, or personal details. Often crafted to mimic legitimate URLs, phishing links exploit user trust and are distributed via emails, social media platforms, or messaging services. Their ability to blend into everyday digital interactions makes phishing URLs a persistent and evolving threat in cyberspace.

In fact, Forbes reported that over 500 million phishing attacks occurred in 2022, highlighting the growing scale of this cybersecurity challenge. The detection of phishing URLs relies on analyzing various features that distinguish them from legitimate links. For example, the URL length and domain length can indicate suspicious behavior, as phishing URLs often use unusually long strings to obfuscate their intent. By identifying these patterns, it is possible to mitigate the risks associated with phishing attacks.

Machine learning has emerged as a powerful tool for leveraging features to detect phishing URLs. By analyzing patterns such as those mentioned above, machine learning models can classify URLs with high accuracy. In this report we will try building different machine learning models for detection of phishing URLs from the legitimate one. As phishing attacks grow more sophisticated, developing predictive systems that use these features is critical to enhancing cybersecurity and protecting users from online threats.

2 Introduction

This project addresses a critical cybersecurity challenge: phishing attacks, by focusing on the accurate detection of phishing URLs. The primary goal of this project is to develop and evaluate various linear and nonlinear machine learning models to classify URLs as either legitimate or phishing. This classification relies on analyzing diverse features of URLs, enabling a more robust approach to identifying and mitigating phishing threats.

2.1 Variable Introduction and Definitions

The data used is the PhiUSIIL Phishing URL Dataset, sourced from the UCI Machine Learning Repository, consisting of 235,795 samples. This dataset is designed for binary classification, where the response variable is labeled as either 1 (Legitimate URL) or 0 (Phishing URL). Of the 56 columns in the dataset, four (Filename, URL, Domain, and Title) provide extra information about the URLs and are excluded from model building, leaving 51 predictors. These predictors comprise 33 continuous variables and 18 categorical variables, offering a diverse set of features for robust analysis and machine learning. Below is a list of the variable names as used in this analysis, with their descriptions.

Variable Name Description

URLLength The length of the URL

DomainLength The length of the domain name

IsDomainIP Indicates if the domain is an IP address

TLD The top-level domain (e.g., "com", "de", "uk")

URLSimilarityIndex The similarity index of the URL

CharContinuationRate The ratio of consecutive letters in the URL
TLDLegitimateProb The probability that the TLD is legitimate

URLCharProb The probability of characters in the URL being legitimate

TLDLength The length of the TLD

NoOfSubDomain The number of subdomains in the URL
HasObfuscation Indicates if the URL contains obfuscation

NoOfObfuscatedChar The number of obfuscated characters in the URL

ObfuscationRatio The ratio of obfuscated characters in the URL

NoOfLettersInURL The number of letters in the URL
LetterRatioInURL The ratio of letters in the URL
NoOfDegitsInURL The number of digits in the URL
DegitRatioInURL The ratio of digits in the URL

NoOfEqualsInURL The number of "=" symbols in the URL NoOfQMarkInURL The number of "?" symbols in the URL NoOfAmpersandInURL The number of "&" symbols in the URL

NoOfOtherSpecialCharsInURL The number of other special characters in the URL

SpacialCharRatioInURL The ratio of special characters in the URL

IsHTTPS Indicates if the URL uses HTTPS

LineOfCode The number of lines of code in the webpage

LargestLineLength The length of the largest line in the webpage

HasTitle Indicates if the webpage has a title

DomainTitleMatchScore The match score between the domain and the webpage title

URLTitleMatchScore The match score between the URL and the webpage title

HasFavicon Indicates if the webpage has a favicon

Robots Indicates if the webpage has a robots.txt file

IsResponsive Indicates if the webpage is responsive

NoOfURLRedirect The number of URL redirects
NoOfSelfRedirect The number of self redirects

HasDescription Indicates if the webpage has a meta description

NoOfPopup The number of popups in the webpage
NoOfiFrame The number of iframes in the webpage

HasExternalFormSubmit Indicates if the webpage has an external form submit
HasSocialNet Indicates if the webpage contains social network links

HasSubmitButton Indicates if the webpage has a submit button
HasHiddenFields Indicates if the webpage has hidden fields
HasPasswordField Indicates if the webpage has a password field
Bank Indicates if the webpage is related to banking

Pay Indicates if the webpage is related to payments

Crypto Indicates if the webpage is related to cryptocurrency

HasCopyrightInfo Indicates if the webpage contains copyright information

NoOfImage The number of images on the webpage

NoOfCSS The number of CSS files used in the webpage

NoOfJS The number of JavaScript files used in the webpage

NoOfSelfRef The number of self-references in the webpage
NoOfEmptyRef The number of empty references in the webpage
NoOfExternalRef The number of external references in the webpage

3 Preprocessing of the predictors

In the preprocessing stage of the dataset, it was ensured that there were **no missing values**, so no imputation was necessary. Additionally, four dummy variables were added based on the TLD (Top-Level Domain) predictor to enhance the model's ability to differentiate between various domain types. These dummy variables are as follows: Internationalized_domain, indicating whether the domain includes internationalized characters; Country_domain, which identifies if the domain corresponds to a country-specific TLD (e.g., ".uk", ".de"); Common_domain, flagging if the domain is from a commonly used TLD (e.g., ".com", ".net"); and Number_domain, a variable representing whether the domain contains numeric characters in the

TLD. Furthermore, all categorical predictors in the dataset were encoded into binary form (0 and 1) to allow the machine learning model to process these variables effectively.

a. Near Zero Variance Predictors

Six predictors with near-zero variance were identified and removed namely: IsDomainIP, HasObfuscation, HasExternalFormSubmit, Crypto, Internationalized_Domain, and Numeric_Domain. These predictors were deleted as they provided little to no variance and did not contribute to the model's predictive power. The bar plot (Figure 1) shows the frequency distribution of the near zero variance predictors.

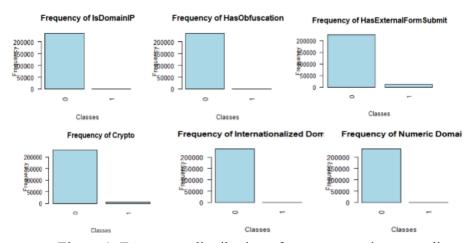


Figure 1: Frequency distribution of near zero variance predictors

b. Correlations

A correlation plot of the remaining predictors was created to explore the relationship between predictors. Figure 2 shows the correlation plot with the blue representing positive correlations between predictors and red representing negative correlations between predictors. Predictors with greater than 0.75 correlations were then systematically removed. We identified five such predictors and removed them from the dataset The predictors deleted DomainTitleMatchScore. were NoOfOtherSpecialCharsInURL, URLLength, NoOfDegitsInURL, NoOfObfuscatedChar. These columns were removed to reduce multicollinearity and improve the model's performance by ensuring that only independent predictors are used. Note that we will not do this step for all the models, only specific models require the removal of highly correlated predictors.

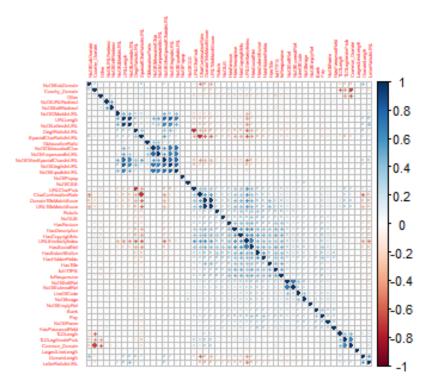


Figure 2: Correlation plot for predictors

c. Transformations

Before fitting any models to the data, it is crucial to analyze the distributions of the continuous variables. Figure 3 and 4 shows histograms and box plots of some of the continuous predictors before any transformations have been applied. As observed, most predictors exhibit a strong right-skewed distribution and contain several outliers.

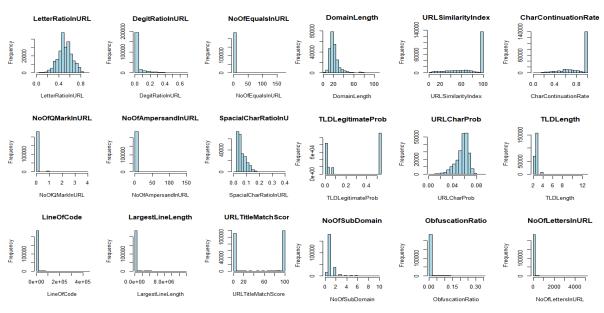


Figure 3: Histogram to check distribution

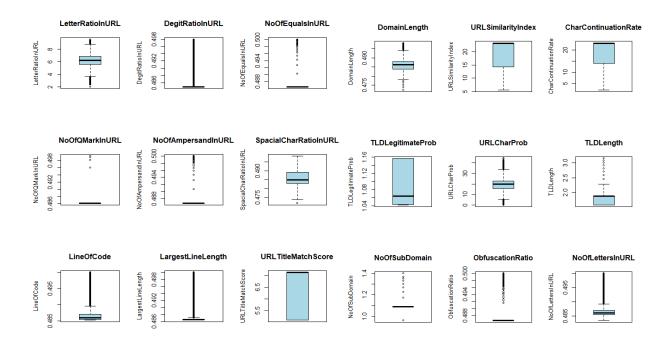


Figure 4: Boxplot for checking outliers

To address the skewness, outliers, and varying scales of the continuous variables, the data will first undergo centering and scaling. Subsequently, a Box-Cox transformation was applied to make the distributions more normal and symmetric. This was followed by a spatial sign transformation to mitigate the impact of outliers. Below(Figure 5 and 6) are histograms and box plots illustrating the data after these transformations. While not all predictors showed significant improvement, some displayed better symmetry and reduced outliers.

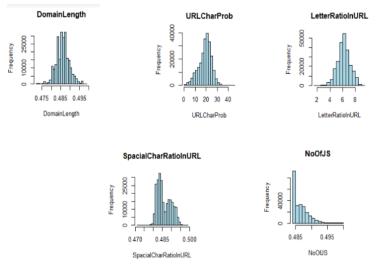


Figure 5: Distribution after box cox transformation

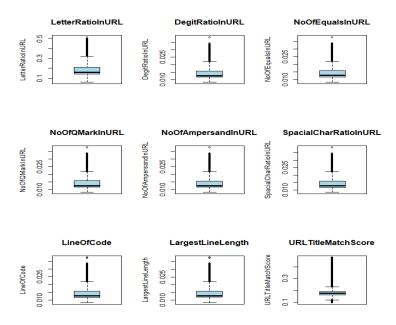


Figure 6: Boxplot after spatial sign transformation

Coming to categorical predictor exploration, the bar plots below (Figure 7) illustrate the distributions of the categorical predictor variables. It is evident that most of these variables exhibit relatively imbalanced frequencies.

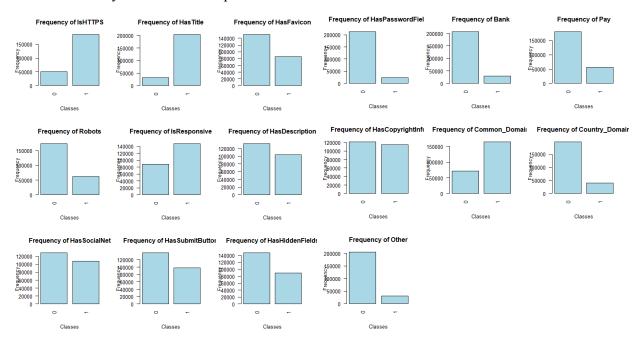


Figure 7: Bar Graph for the categorical predictors

After preprocessing, we also explored applying Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and identified 16 principal components (PCs) that captured 95% of the variance in the data. However, PCA was not used for model building as it can result in the loss of interpretability, which is critical for understanding the contributions of individual predictors in the context of phishing URL detection.

4 Splitting of the Data

The target variable frequency distribution is not perfectly balanced, as shown in the bar graph below, with an approximate ratio of 57:43. To ensure representative sampling, the data was split into training and testing sets using an 80/20 split with stratified random sampling. This approach preserves the class distribution within both subsets, which is crucial given the imbalance. For resampling during model evaluation, K-fold cross-validation with K=3 was employed. This choice was made due to the large dataset size (over 200k samples), as a 10-fold cross-validation would be time-consuming.

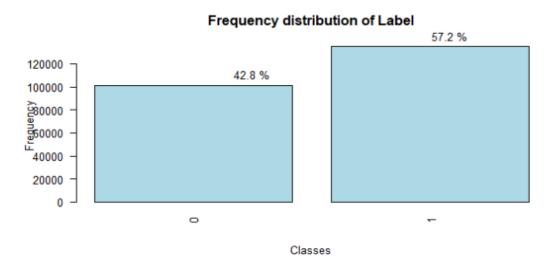


Figure 8: Frequency distribution of response class

5 Model Fitting

We applied a variety of linear and non-linear models for classification as discussed in class. Given that our dataset is not perfectly balanced, we used Kappa as the classification performance metric. Kappa is a valuable metric in this context as it adjusts for class imbalance, providing a more accurate evaluation of model performance by considering the agreement between predicted and actual class labels beyond what would be expected by chance.

A. Linear Models

The linear models included Logistic Regression, Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLSDA), and penalized models. These models were tuned using the training data, and both accuracy and Kappa values were calculated using 3-fold

cross-validation to ensure the most conservative and robust results. The table below presents the training and testing Kappa and accuracy values for each of the linear models.

Model	Best Tuning parameter	Training Kappa	Training Accuracy	Testing Kappa	Testing Accuracy
Logistic regression	-	0.7333645	0.8704171	0.7522	0.8828
LDA	-	0.7218282	0.8689752	0.7191	0.8677
PLSDA	ncomp = 4	0.7304395	0.872818	0.7238	0.8722
Penalized model	alpha = 0, $lambda = 0.05$	0.8079254	0.9084533	0.8059	0.9075

Among the linear models, the penalized model emerged as the best performer, with optimal hyperparameters set to alpha = 0 and lambda = 0.05. This model demonstrated the highest performance in terms of Kappa and accuracy, outperforming the other linear models.

The table below shows the confusion matrix for the Penalized model when predicting on the test set.

	Reference		
Prediction	Legitimate	Phishing	
Legitimate	26959	4350	
Phishing	11	15839	

The model successfully identified 26,959 legitimate URLs and 15,839 phishing URLs, showcasing its strong capability in both categories. However, it also misclassified 4,350 legitimate URLs as phishing (false positives) and failed to detect 11 phishing URLs, labeling them as legitimate (false negatives). The low false-negative count is particularly noteworthy, as missed phishing URLs pose significant security risks. On the other hand, the relatively high false-positive count indicates a trade-off between the model's sensitivity in detecting phishing threats and its specificity in avoiding unnecessary false alarms.

B. Nonlinear Models

For the non-linear models, we utilized Regularized Discriminant Analysis (RDA), Mixture Discriminant Analysis (MDA), Neural Networks, Flexible Discriminant Analysis (FDA), Support Vector Machines (SVM), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), and Naive Bayes. Each model was carefully tuned and evaluated to assess its performance on the dataset.

While attempting to include Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA) among the non-linear models, we encountered a limitation: the covariance matrix for the classes did not exist, rendering the implementation of QDA infeasible. However, all other non-linear models were successfully built and tested.

The table below presents the training and testing Kappa and accuracy values for each of the non linear models.

Model	Best Tuning parameter	Training Kappa	Training Accuracy	Testing Kappa	Testing Accuracy
RDA	gamma = 0 and lambda = 0.01	0.7551	0.88392	0.7538	0.8834
MDA	subclasses=19	0.93025	0.96614	0.9188	0.9607
Neural Network	size = 3 and decay = 0	0.99921	0.99902	0.9989	0.9994
FDA	degree = 2 and nprune = 30	0.9970854	0.9956371	0.9986	0.9959
SVM	cost=64, sigma = 0.004992348	0.99923	0.999194	0.9991	0.9996
KNN	k = 3	0.991215	0.99570	0.993	0.9966
Naive Bayes	-	0.8571713	0.9303155	0.8615	0.9325

Among all the linear and non-linear models evaluated, Support Vector Machines (SVM) and Neural Networks emerged as the top 2 best performing models. The SVM model achieved the highest testing Kappa value of 0.9991 with optimal hyperparameters: a cost of 64 and a sigma value of 0.00499. While the Neural Network model achieved a testing Kappa value of 0.9989 with a network size of 3 and a decay parameter of 0.

Since the SVM model is the best model, we draw the confusion matrix table for it when predicting on the test set.

	Reference		
Prediction	Legitimate	Phishing	
Legitimate	26962	12	
Phishing	8	20177	

The model correctly classified 26,962 legitimate URLs and 20,177 phishing URLs, demonstrating high accuracy in both categories. It misclassified only 12 legitimate URLs as phishing (false positives) and failed to detect 8 phishing URLs, labeling them as legitimate (false negatives). This performance highlights the model's excellent balance between sensitivity and specificity, with an impressively low rate of misclassifications. The SVM model's ability to accurately distinguish legitimate from phishing URLs makes it a highly reliable tool for mitigating phishing threats.

C. Top 10 most important predictors

To identify the most influential predictors in our best-performing model, the Support Vector Machine (SVM), we analyzed variable importance and highlighted the top10 contributors.

Only 10 most important variables shown (out of 49)

	Importance
URLSimilarityIndex	100.00
LineOfCode	98.82
NoOfExternalRef	98.40
NoOfImage	96.69
NoOfSelfRef	95.18
NoOfJS	94.92
NoOfCSS	92.25

HasSocialNet	79.50
HasCopyrightInfo	75.59
HasDescription	69.73

Among the top predictors, the URL Similarity Index emerged as the most critical, with an importance score of 100. This variable measures how closely a URL resembles known legitimate or malicious patterns, making it a key factor in distinguishing phishing URLs. The Line of Code variable, with an importance score of 98.82, also played a significant role; it reflects the number of lines in a webpage's code, where larger or more complex codebases can signal legitimate or malicious activities. Additionally, the Number of External References (importance score of 98.40) provided valuable insight by tracking the number of external links on a webpage, which could indicate phishing attempts when links redirect users to malicious sites. The Figure 9 below shows 10 most important predictors according to our best model SVM.

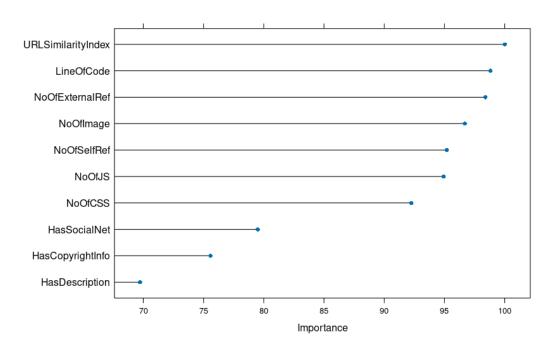


Figure 9: Top 10 most important predictors in SVM

6 Conclusion

In conclusion, our project aimed to identify the best model for detecting whether a URL is phishing or legitimate. Starting with extensive preprocessing, we ensured the data was well-prepared for modeling by addressing skewness, scaling, outliers, and multicollinearity, as well as encoding categorical predictors and handling class imbalance. We explored a wide range of linear and non-linear models, evaluating their performance using kappa and accuracy metrics.

The Support Vector Machine (SVM) model emerged as the best-performing model with a testing kappa score of 0.9991, followed by the Neural Network model with a kappa of 0.9989. Feature

importance analysis of the SVM model highlighted key predictors such as the URL Similarity Index, Number of Lines of Code, and Number of External References. These findings demonstrate the robustness of our approach in achieving near-perfect classification accuracy, providing an effective solution for detecting phishing URLs.

7 Literature Review and Comparison

We wanted to know how well we did by comparing our methods and results to other people's methods and results. From (Vajrobol, Gupta, and Gaurav 2024) they got Accuracy with 99.97% by using logistic regression with 5 features which were selected on feature selection based on mutual information. (Alsharaiah et al.2023) got an Accuracy of 98.64% with a framework based on random forest ensemble techniques. (Biswas et al. 2024) got an Accuracy of 94.612 with a hybrid framework. (Usman, and Fong 2023) got an Accuracy of 96.25% with an effective machine learning framework. (Prasad and Chandra 2024) got an Accuracy of 99.24% with USI technique that is proposed that detects visual similarity-based phishing attacks. Gupta et al. (2021) focused solely on URL features and employed a Random Forest algorithm, achieving an impressive accuracy of 99.57% on a dataset of 11,964 records. Pandey and Mishra (2023) explored dominant color features and OCR, achieving an accuracy of 99.13% using a Random Forest algorithm on 6,200 records. Ahammad et al. (2022) employed URL features combined with models like Random Forest, LightGBM, Logistic Regression, and SVM, but their accuracy was limited to 89.5%, likely due to a small dataset of 3,000 records.

Jain et al. (2022) utilized static and site popularity features with algorithms like Logistic Regression, KNN, SVM, and Random Forest, achieving an accuracy of 93.85% on 4,000 records, but their reliance on third-party features limited their performance. Similarly, Alani and Tawfik (2022) used URL and third-party features, achieving an accuracy of 97.5% with multiple machine learning models such as Random Forest, Logistic Regression, and MLP, but their results were constrained by small datasets and reliance on third-party data. Ding et al. (2019) incorporated URL, HTML, and third-party features with Logistic Regression, achieving 98.9% accuracy on 8,659 records.

Sharma and Singh (2022) leveraged webpage HTML code features with TF-IDF and AdaBoost, achieving an accuracy of 98.01% on a dataset of 50,000 records, though their approach depended on a single machine learning model. Nagumwa et al. (2022) combined features derived from DNS, host, and network, using eight machine learning and three deep learning algorithms to achieve 98.42% accuracy on 11,801 records, but their approach was computationally expensive. Sameen et al. (2020) used URL features and a boosting-based approach, achieving 98% accuracy on a large dataset of 100,000 records, though their framework required computationally intensive models. Finally, Rao et al. (2022) utilized HTML code and domain-specific features, employing

Random Forest, SVM, and XGBoost models to achieve 99.34% accuracy on 10,514 records, although their approach was limited by the size of the dataset.

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Table 1
Comparative summary of related work with proposed work.

Ref.	Features	Detection model	Dataset records	Accu- racy	Limitations
Gupta et al. (2021)	URL features only	Depends on Random forest algorithm	11964	99.57%	Depends solely on URL features, and on single ML algorithm, experimented on small dataset
Pandey and Mishra (2023)	Dominant color features and OCR	Depends on Random forest algorithm	6200	99.13%	Depends solely on single ML algorithm, experimented on small dataset
Ahammad et al. (2022)	URL Features only	RF, DT, Light GBM, LR, and SVM	3000	89.50%	Low prediction performances, experimented on small dataset
Jain et al. (2022)	Static and site popularity features	LR, KNN, SVM, DT, and RF	4000	93.85%	Depends on third party features, low prediction performances, experimented on small dataset
Alani and Tawfik (2022)	URL and third-party features	RF, LR, DT, GNB, and MLP	88646	97.50%	Depends on third party features, low prediction performances
Ding et al. (2019)	URL, HTML and third-party features	Logistic regression	8659	98.90%	Depends on third party features, depends on single ML algorithm, small dataset
Sharma and Singh (2022)	Features from webpage HTML code	TF-IDF and AdaBoost	50000	98.01%	Depends on single ML algorithm, small dataset
Nagunwa et al. (2022)	Features derived from DNS, host, and network	Eight ML and three DL algorithms	11801	98.42%	Computationally expensive model (11 algorithms), small dataset
Sameen et al. (2020)	URL Features only	Boosting-based (2), Ten algorithms	100000	98.00%	Computationally expensive model (10 algorithms)
Rao et al. (2022)	HTML code, and domain specific features	RF, SVM, LR, DT, and XGBoost	10514	99.34%	Experimented on small dataset
Proposed	URL, HTML, and derived features	BernoulliNB, PassiveAggressive, and SGDClassifier	235795	99.79%	Limitation of classifying URLs that download executable file.

8 References

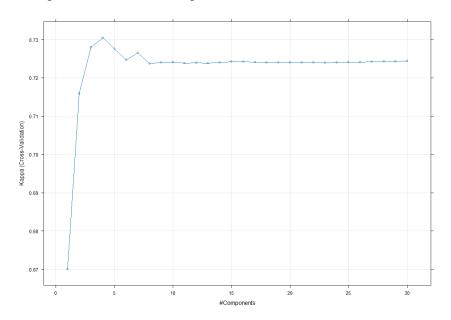
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Appendix 1: Supplemental Material for Linear Models

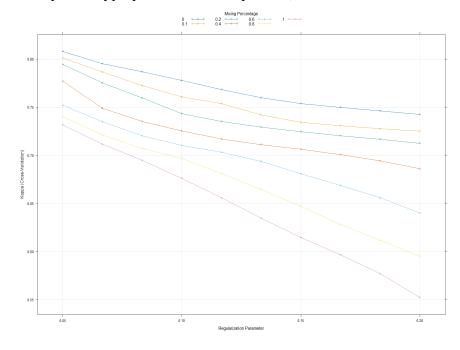
Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis(PLSDA)

Specific preprocessing - Centering and Scaling The optimal number of components chosen was 4



Penalized models

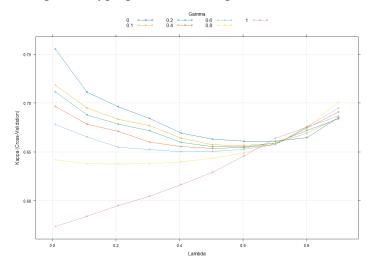
Specific preprocessing - Centering and Scaling The optimal hyperparameters are alpha = 0, and lambda = 0.05



Appendix 2: Supplemental Material for Nonlinear Models

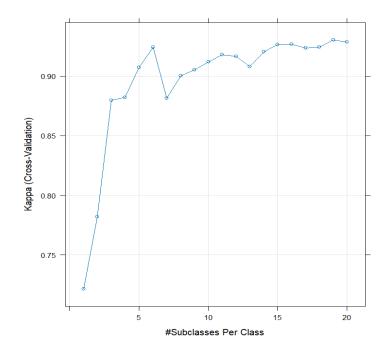
Regularized Discriminant Analysis(RDA)

Specific preprocessing - Remove highly correlated predictors, Center and Scale The optimal hyperparameters are gamma = 0, and lambda = 0.01



Mixture Discriminant Analysis(MDA)

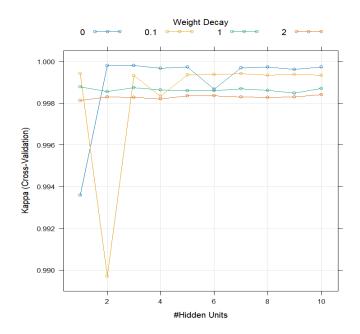
Specific preprocessing - Remove highly correlated predictors, Center and Scale The optimal hyperparameter was subclasses = 19



Neural Networks

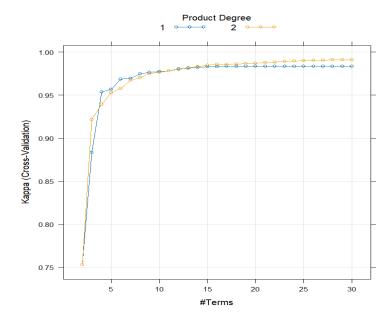
Specific preprocessing - Remove highly correlated predictors, Spatial Sign transformation, Center and Scale

The optimal hyperparameters are size=3, decay=0



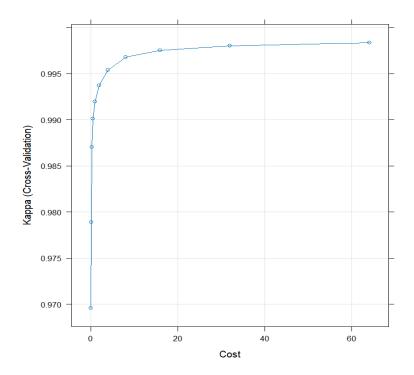
Flexible Discriminant Analysis (FDA)

Specific preprocessing - Remove highly correlated predictors, Spatial Sign transformation The optimal hyperparameters are degree = 2, and npurne = 30



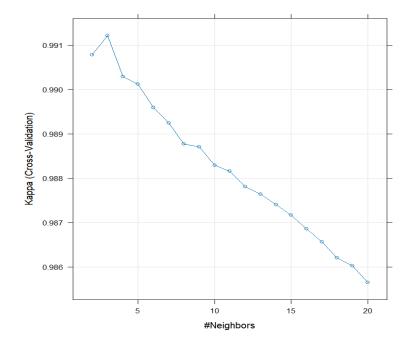
Support Vector Machines (SVM)

Specific preprocessing - Center and Scale The optimal hyperparameters are sigma = 0.004992348 and C = 64



K- Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

Specific preprocessing - Center and Scale The optimal hyperparameter was k=3



RCode

```
#Detecting phishing URLs
# loading the data set
original data <- read.csv("D:\\Transfered from
ssd\\Desktop\\PredictiveModeling\\PhiUSIIL Phishing URL Dataset.csv")
# looking the data set
View(original data)
dim(original data)
str(original_data)
names(original data)
original data$label<-factor(original data$label)
original data$label <- ifelse(original data$label == 0, "phishing", "legitimate")
str(original data)
###Data preprocessing
# Checking for missing values
total missing <- sum(is.na(original data))
# Print the total number of missing values
total missing
# distribution of each predictors
# Identify numeric columns
numeric cols <- sapply(original data, is.numeric)
# Calculate the frequency of each class
freq <- table(original data["label"])</pre>
# Create barplot
barplot(freq,
     main = "Frequency distribution of Label",
     xlab = "Classes",
     ylab = "Frequency",
     col = "lightblue",
     las = 2) # Rotate x-axis labels
# Calculate percentages
percentages <- round((freq / sum(freq)) * 100, 1)
```

```
# Add percentages to the barplot
text(x = seq along(freq), y = freq, labels = paste(percentages, "%"), pos = 3)
# Define the columns for numeric and character types explicitly
# Categorizing the columns
numeric cols <- c(
 "URLLength", "DomainLength", "URLSimilarityIndex", "CharContinuationRate",
"TLDLegitimateProb", "URLCharProb", "TLDLength", "NoOfSubDomain", "NoOfObfuscatedCh,
"ObfuscationRatio", "NoOfLettersInURL", "LetterRatioInURL", "NoOfDegitsInURL", "DegitRati
oInURL", "NoOfEqualsInURL", "NoOfQMarkInURL", "NoOfAmpersandInURL",
"NoOfOtherSpecialCharsInURL", "SpacialCharRatioInURL", "LineOfCode", "LargestLineLengt",
"DomainTitleMatchScore", "URLTitleMatchScore", "NoOfURLRedirect", "NoOfSelfRedirect", "N
oOfPopup", "NoOfiFrame", "NoOfImage", "NoOfCSS",
 "NoOfJS", "NoOfSelfRef", "NoOfEmptyRef", "NoOfExternalRef"
)
factor cols <- c(
 "IsDomainIP", "TLD", "HasObfuscation", "HasTitle", "HasFavicon", "Robots", "IsResponsive",
 "HasDescription", "HasExternalFormSubmit", "HasSocialNet", "HasSubmitButton",
"HasHiddenFields", "HasPasswordField", "Bank", "Pay", "Crypto", "HasCopyrightInfo", "IsHTTPS
","label"
)
# Check the lists
print(numeric cols)
print(factor cols)
# Convert specified columns to numeric
original data[numeric cols] <- lapply(original data[numeric cols], as.numeric)
# Convert specified columns to character
original data[factor cols] <- lapply(original data[factor cols], as.character)
str(original data)
# removing uncessary columns
data <- original data[,!(names(original data) %in% c("URL","Domain", "FILENAME",
"label", "Title"))]
dim(data)
names(data)
```

```
# Adding dummy variables
# Treating "TLD"
unique values <- unique(data["TLD"])
length(unique values)
str(data["TLD"])
# adding different classes for TLD
library(dplyr)
classify tld <- function(tld) {
 tld <- as.character(tld)
 us country domains <- c("uk", "de", "fr", "ca", "au", "jp", "it", "es", "nl", "ru", "ch", "se", "dk",
"no", "fi", "ie", "be", "at", "nz", "pl", "br", "mx", "ar", "cl", "za", "in", "cn", "kr", "sg", "hk",
"tw")
 commonly used domains <- c("com", "org", "net", "edu", "gov", "mil", "io", "co", "info",
"biz", "me", "tv", "app", "dev")
 numeric domains <- as.character(0:999)
 if (tld %in% us country domains) {
  return("Country Domain")
 } else if (tld %in% commonly used domains) {
  return("Common Domain")
 } else if (tld %in% numeric domains) {
  return("Numeric Domain")
 } else if (startsWith(tld, "xn--")) {
  return("Internationalized Domain")
 } else {
  return("Other")
 }
}
data <- data %>%
 mutate(Classification = sapply(TLD, classify tld)) %>%
 mutate(
  Internationalized Domain = as.integer(Classification == "Internationalized Domain"),
  Common Domain = as.integer(Classification == "Common Domain"),
  Numeric Domain = as.integer(Classification == "Numeric Domain"),
  Country Domain = as.integer(Classification == "Country Domain"),
```

```
Other = as.integer(Classification == "Other")
 ) %>%
 select(-Classification, -TLD) # Remove the Classification and TLD columns if not needed
#checking for near-zero variance predictors
# considering only catagorical values
cat data<-data[sapply(data, is.character)] ## for all categorical predictors, need to recall the data
cat data <- cbind(cat data,
           Internationalized Domain = data[["Internationalized Domain"]],
          Common Domain = data[["Common Domain"]],
          Numeric Domain = data[["Numeric Domain"]],
          Country Domain = data[["Country Domain"]],
          Other = data[["Other"]])
dim(cat data)
#bargraph
# Set up the plot area for multiple graphs
par(mfrow = c(3,3))
# Loop through each categorical column
for (col in names(cat data)) {
 # Calculate frequencies
 freq <- table(cat data[[col]])</pre>
 # Create barplot
 barplot(freq,
      main = paste("Frequency of", col),
     xlab = "Classes",
     ylab = "Frequency",
     col = "lightblue",
     las = 2) # Rotate x-axis labels for better readability
}
library(caret)
#near zero variables
nearzero var<-nearZeroVar(cat data)
names(cat data[nearzero var])
# Remove near-zero variance columns
```

```
cat data cleaned <- cat data[, -nearzero var]
dim(cat data cleaned)
names(cat data cleaned)
# bargraph after deleting near-zero var
# Set up the plot area for multiple graphs
par(mfrow = c(3,3))
# Loop through each categorical column
for (col in names(cat data cleaned)) {
 # Calculate frequencies
 freq <- table(cat data cleaned[[col]])
 # Create barplot
 barplot(freq,
     main = paste("Frequency of", col),
     xlab = "Classes",
     ylab = "Frequency",
     col = "lightblue",
     las = 2) # Rotate x-axis labels for better readability
# changing all to numeric
all num data<- data.frame(lapply(data, function(x) as.numeric(as.character(x))))
str(all num data)
dim(all num data)
# Remove the specified columns
all num data <- all num data %>%
 select(-IsDomainIP, -HasObfuscation, -HasExternalFormSubmit, -Crypto,
-Internationalized Domain, -Numeric Domain)
dim(all num data)
#correlation
# Calculate correlation matrix
correlations <- cor(all num data, use = "complete.obs") # Handle missing values
# Print the correlation matrix
print(correlations)
# Convert to a data frame and melt it to long format
```

```
cor df <- as.data.frame(as.table(correlations))
## To visually examine the correlation structure of the data
library(corrplot)
corrplot(correlations, tl.cex = 0.3, order = "hclust")
# Finding the highly correlated predictors recommended for deletion
highCorr <- findCorrelation(correlations, cutoff = .75)
length(highCorr)
colnames(all num data)[highCorr]
#deleting highly correlated data
filtered data <- all num data[, -highCorr]
length(filtered data)
freq <- table(cat data[["Numeric Domain"]])</pre>
# Create barplot
barplot(freq,
     main = paste("Frequency of Numeric Domain"),
    xlab = "Classes",
     ylab = "Frequency",
     col = "lightblue",
    las = 2) # Rotate x-axis labels for better readability
## After deletion plot
correlations2 <- cor(filtered data, use = "complete.obs") # Handle missing values
library(corrplot)
corrplot(correlations2, tl.cex = 0.3, order = "hclust")
# let's explore the continious preictors
num filtered <- filtered data[, !names(filtered data) %in% c(
 "IsHTTPS", "HasTitle", "HasFavicon", "Robots", "IsResponsive",
 "HasDescription", "HasSocialNet", "HasSubmitButton", "HasHiddenFields",
"HasPasswordField",
 "Bank", "Pay", "HasCopyrightInfo", "Common Domain", "Country Domain", "Other"
)]
dim(num filtered)
cont data <- as.data.frame(num filtered)</pre>
```

```
# Display the continuous predictors
print(cont data)
dim(cont data)
# Histogram
# Set up the layout for multiple plots
par(mfrow = c(3, 3)) # Adjust the number of rows and columns as needed
for (col in names(cont data)) {
  x limits <- range(cont data[[col]])
  hist(cont data[[col]],
     main = paste(col),
     xlab = col,
     x \lim = x \lim_{x \to a} x
     col = "lightblue",
     border = "black",
     breaks = 20)
 }
#skewness
library(e1071)
# Function to calculate skewness for numeric or integer columns
skewness results <- sapply(cont data, skewness)
# Print the skewness results
print(skewness results)
#Center and scale
s c data<-scale(cont data, center = TRUE, scale = TRUE)
# Convert scaled data to a data frame
s c data df <- as.data.frame(s c data)
#adding constant
# Find the minimum value in the data frame
min value <- min(s c data df, na.rm = TRUE) # Overall minimum value
shift constant <- abs(min value) + 1 # Shift constant to ensure positivity
# Shift the data
s c data df shifted <- s c data df + shift constant
```

```
#Box cox transformation
library(caret)
xx1 \le preProcess(s \ c \ data \ df \ shifted, method = c("BoxCox"))
transformed data <- predict(xx1, s c data df shifted)
# Convert transformed data to a data frame
transformed data <- as.data.frame(transformed data)
# Histogram after boxcox transformation
# Set up the layout for multiple plots
par(mfrow = c(3, 3)) # Adjust the number of rows and columns as needed
for (col in names(transformed data)) {
  hist(transformed data[[col]],
     main = paste(col),
     xlab = col,
     col = "lightblue",
     border = "black",
     breaks = 20)
}
# Function to calculate skewness for numeric or integer columns
skewness after<- sapply(transformed data, skewness)
# Print the skewness results after boxcox
print(skewness after)
#boxplot
# Set up the layout for multiple plots
par(mfrow = c(3, 3)) # Adjust the number of rows and columns as needed
# Loop through each column in the data frame
for (col in names(transformed data)) {
 boxplot(transformed data[[col]],
      main = paste(col),
      ylab = col,
      col = "lightblue",
      border = "black")
}
```

```
str(cat data cleaned)
cat data cleaned <- data.frame(lapply(cat data cleaned, function(x)
as.numeric(as.character(x))))
View(transformed data)
View(cat data cleaned)
dim(transformed data)
dim(cat data cleaned)
#applying spatialsign
spatialsign data<-spatialSign(transformed data)
spatialsign data <- as.data.frame(spatialsign data)
View(spatialsign data)
#boxplot after spatialsign
# Set up the layout for multiple plots
par(mfrow = c(3, 3)) # Adjust the number of rows and columns as needed
# Loop through each column in the data frame
for (col in names(spatialsign_data)) {
 boxplot(spatialsign data[[col]],
      main = paste(col),
      ylab = col,
      col = "lightblue",
      border = "black")
}
merged allfinal<-cbind(spatialsign data, cat data cleaned)
dim(merged allfinal)
# Step 2: Convert all factor columns in merged all to numeric
merged allfinal <- as.data.frame(lapply(merged allfinal, function(x) {
 if (is.factor(x)) {
  as.numeric(as.factor(x)) # Convert factor to character, then to numeric
 } else {
  x # Keep other types unchanged
 }
}))
```

Step 3: Check the structure of the final data frame

```
str(merged allfinal)
View(merged allfinal)
#PCA
pcaObject data <- prcomp(merged allfinal, center = TRUE, scale. = TRUE)
summary(pcaObject data)
#scree plot
screeplot(pcaObject data,
      main = "Scree Plot",
      xlab = "Principal Component",
      ylab = "Variance Explained",
      type = "lines",
      col = "blue", # Optional: line color
      pch = 19) # Optional: point type
# Load necessary library
library(ggplot2)
# Calculate variance explained
variance <- pcaObject data$sdev^2
variance explained <- variance / sum(variance)</pre>
# Create a data frame for plotting
scree data <- data.frame(PC = 1:length(variance), Variance = variance explained)
# Draw the scree plot using ggplot2
ggplot(scree data, aes(x = PC, y = Variance)) +
 geom line() +
 geom point() +
 labs(title = "Scree Plot", x = "Principal Component", y = "Proportion of Variance Explained") +
 theme minimal()
original data$label<-factor(original data$label)
str(original data)
# applying spatial sign transformation on all num data
spatialsign data49<-spatialSign(all num data)
spatialsign data49 <- as.data.frame(spatialsign data49)
```

```
no boxcox data<- cbind(cont data,cat data cleaned)
# applying spatial sign transformation on no boxcox data
spatialsign data44<-spatialSign(no boxcox data)
spatialsign data44 <- as.data.frame(spatialsign data44)
# Logistic regression
#spliting data
# Set the random number seed so we can reproduce the results
set.seed(476)
library(caret)
# use createDataPartition for stratified sampling, p is percentage of training set
trainingRows <- createDataPartition(original data$label, p = .80, list= FALSE)
trainPredictors <- spatialsign data49[trainingRows, ]
trainClasses <- original data$label[trainingRows]</pre>
testPredictors <- spatialsign data49[-trainingRows, ]
testClasses <- original data$label[-trainingRows]
dim(trainPredictors)
dim(testPredictors)
library(caret)
ctrl <- trainControl(method = "CV",number=3,
           summaryFunction =defaultSummary,
           classProbs = TRUE,
           savePredictions = TRUE)
set.seed(476)
logistic <- train(trainPredictors,
          y = trainClasses,
          method = "glm",
          metric = "Kappa",
          trControl = ctrl
logistic
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(logistic, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
```

```
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
# LDA
set.seed(476)
# use createDataPartition for stratified sampling, p is percentage of training set
trainingRows <- createDataPartition(original data$label, p = .80, list= FALSE)
trainPredictors <- spatialsign data44[trainingRows, ]
trainClasses <- original data$label[trainingRows]</pre>
testPredictors <- spatialsign data44[-trainingRows, ]
testClasses <- original data$label[-trainingRows]
dim(trainPredictors)
dim(testPredictors)
LDA <- train(trainPredictors,
        y = trainClasses,
        method = "lda",
        metric = "Kappa",
        trControl = ctrl,
        preProcess = c("center", "scale"))
LDA
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(LDA, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#PLSDA
#spliting data
# Set the random number seed so we can reproduce the results
set.seed(476)
# use createDataPartition for stratified sampling, p is percentage of training set
trainingRows <- createDataPartition(original data$label, p = .80, list= FALSE)
```

```
trainPredictors <- spatialsign data49[trainingRows, ]
trainClasses <- original data$label[trainingRows]</pre>
testPredictors <- spatialsign data49[-trainingRows, ]
testClasses <- original data$label[-trainingRows]
dim(trainPredictors)
dim(testPredictors)
set.seed(476)
plsda < -train(x = trainPredictors,
         y = trainClasses,
         method = "pls",
         tuneGrid = expand.grid(.ncomp = 1:30),
         preProc = c("center","scale"),
         metric = "Kappa",
         trControl = ctrl
plsda
plot(plsda)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(plsda, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
# Penalized Models
glmnGrid < -expand.grid(.alpha = c(0, .1, .2, .4, .6, .8, 1),
               .lambda = seq(.01, .2, length = 10))
set.seed(100)
glmnTuned < -train(x = trainPredictors,
            y = trainClasses,
            method = "glmnet",
            tuneGrid = glmnGrid,
            preProc = c("center", "scale"),
            metric = "Kappa",
            trControl = ctrl
glmnTuned
plot(glmnTuned)
```

```
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(glmnTuned, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#ODA
set.seed(476)
# use createDataPartition for stratified sampling, p is percentage of training set
trainingRows <- createDataPartition(original data$label, p = .80, list= FALSE)
trainPredictors <- spatialsign data44[trainingRows, ]
trainClasses <- original data$label[trainingRows]</pre>
testPredictors <- spatialsign data44[-trainingRows, ]
testClasses <- original data$label[-trainingRows]
dim(trainPredictors)
dim(testPredictors)
levels(trainClasses)
library(caret)
ctrl <- trainControl(method = "cv", number = 3,
            summaryFunction =defaultSummary,
            classProbs = FALSE,
            savePredictions = TRUE)
set.seed(476)
qda < -train(x = trainPredictors,
       y = trainClasses,
       method = "qda",
       metric = "Kappa",
       preProc= c("center", "scale"),
       trControl = ctrl
qda
```

```
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(qda, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#RDA
rdaGrid \le expand.grid(.gamma = c(0, .1, .2, .4, .6, .8, 1),
              .lambda = seq(.01, .9, length = 10))
set.seed(476)
rda < -train(x = trainPredictors,
        y = trainClasses,
        method = "rda",
        metric = "Kappa",
        preProc= c("center","scale"),
        tuneGrid = rdaGrid,
        trControl = ctrl
rda
plot(rda)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(rda, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#MDA
set.seed(476)
mda \le train(x = trainPredictors,
        y = trainClasses,
        method = "mda",
        metric = "Kappa",
        preProc= c("center","scale"),
        tuneGrid = expand.grid(.subclasses = 1:30),
        trControl = ctrl
mda
plot(mda)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(mda, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
```

```
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#Neural Network
nnetGrid \leftarrow expand.grid(.size = 1:10, .decay = c(0, .1, 1, 2))
maxSize <- max(nnetGrid$.size)</pre>
numWts < -(maxSize * (44 + 1) + (maxSize+1)*3)
set.seed(476)
nnetFit <- train(x = trainPredictors,</pre>
          y = trainClasses,
          method = "nnet",
          metric = "Kappa",
          preProc = c("center", "scale"),
          tuneGrid = nnetGrid,
          trace = FALSE,
          maxit = 2000,
          MaxNWts = numWts,
          trControl = ctrl
nnetFit
plot(nnetFit)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(nnetFit, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#FDA
marsGrid <- expand.grid(.degree = 1:2, .nprune = 2:20)
set.seed(476)
fda <- train(x = trainPredictors,
        y = trainClasses,
        method = "fda",
        metric = "Kappa",
        tuneGrid = marsGrid,
        trControl = trainControl(method="CV",number=3))
fda
plot(fda)
# predicting on test set
```

```
predicted<- predict(fda, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
set.seed(476)
# use createDataPartition for stratified sampling, p is percentage of training set
trainingRows <- createDataPartition(original data$label, p = .80, list= FALSE)
trainPredictors <- spatialsign data49[trainingRows, ]
trainClasses <- original data$label[trainingRows]</pre>
testPredictors <- spatialsign data49[-trainingRows, ]
testClasses <- original data$label[-trainingRows]
dim(trainPredictors)
dim(testPredictors)
# SVM
library(kernlab)
sigmaRangeReduced <- sigest(as.matrix(trainPredictors))</pre>
svmRGrid < -expand.grid(.sigma = sigmaRangeReduced[1], C = 2^(seq(-4, 6)))
set.seed(476)
svmRModel <- train(x = trainPredictors,</pre>
            y = trainClasses,
            method = "svmRadial",
            metric = "Kappa",
            preProc = c("center", "scale"),
            tuneGrid = svmRGrid,
            fit = FALSE,
            trControl = ctrl
svmRModel
plot(svmRModel)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(svmRModel, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
```

```
#KNN
set.seed(476)
knnFit <- train(x = trainPredictors,</pre>
          y = trainClasses,
         method = "knn",
         metric = "Kappa",
         preProc = c("center", "scale"),
         tuneGrid = data.frame(.k = 2:20),
         trControl = ctrl
knnFit
plot(knnFit)
# predicting on test set
predicted<- predict(knnFit, newdata= testPredictors)</pre>
#confusion matrix
confusionMatrix(predicted, testClasses)
#Top 10 most important variables
ImpSim <- varImp(svmRModel, scale = FALSE)</pre>
ImpSim
plot(ImpSim, top = 10, scales = list(y = list(cex = .95)))
```