

House2

January 2, 2019

1 Stacked Regressions to predict House Prices

1.1 Serigne

July 2017

If you use parts of this notebook in your scripts/notebooks, giving some kind of credit would be very much appreciated :) You can for instance link back to this notebook. Thanks!

This competition is very important to me as it helped me to begin my journey on Kaggle few months ago. I've read some great notebooks here. To name a few:

1. [Comprehensive data exploration with Python](#) by **Pedro Marcelino** : Great and very motivational data analysis
2. [A study on Regression applied to the Ames dataset](#) by **Julien Cohen-Solal** : Thorough features engineering and deep dive into linear regression analysis but really easy to follow for beginners.
3. [Regularized Linear Models](#) by **Alexandru Papiu** : Great Starter kernel on modelling and Cross-validation

I can't recommend enough every beginner to go carefully through these kernels (and of course through many others great kernels) and get their first insights in data science and kaggle competitions.

After that (and some basic practices) you should be more confident to go through [this great script](#) by **Human Analog** who did an impressive work on features engineering.

As the dataset is particularly handy, I decided few days ago to get back in this competition and apply things I learnt so far, especially stacking models. For that purpose, we build two stacking classes (the simplest approach and a less simple one).

As these classes are written for general purpose, you can easily adapt them and/or extend them for your regression problems. The overall approach is hopefully concise and easy to follow..

The features engineering is rather parsimonious (at least compared to some others great scripts) . It is pretty much :

- **Imputing missing values** by proceeding sequentially through the data
- **Transforming** some numerical variables that seem really categorical
- **Label Encoding** some categorical variables that may contain information in their ordering set

- **Box Cox Transformation** of skewed features (instead of log-transformation) : This gave me a **slightly better result** both on leaderboard and cross-validation.
- **** Getting dummy variables**** for categorical features.

Then we choose many base models (mostly sklearn based models + sklearn API of DMLC's **XGBoost** and Microsoft's **LightGBM**), cross-validate them on the data before stacking/ensembling them. The key here is to make the (linear) models robust to outliers. This improved the result both on LB and cross-validation.

To my surprise, this does well on LB (0.11420 and top 4% the last time I tested it : **July 2, 2017**)

Hope that at the end of this notebook, stacking will be clear for those, like myself, who found the concept not so easy to grasp

In [1]: *#import some necessary librairies*

```
import numpy as np # linear algebra
import pandas as pd # data processing, CSV file I/O (e.g. pd.read_csv)
%matplotlib inline
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # Matlab-style plotting
import seaborn as sns
color = sns.color_palette()
sns.set_style('darkgrid')
import warnings
def ignore_warn(*args, **kwargs):
    pass
warnings.warn = ignore_warn #ignore annoying warning (from sklearn and seaborn)

from scipy import stats
from scipy.stats import norm, skew #for some statistics

pd.set_option('display.float_format', lambda x: '{:.3f}'.format(x)) #Limiting floats o

from subprocess import check_output
print(check_output(["ls"]).decode("utf8")) #check the files available in the directory
```

```
all.zip
cas.ipynb
data_description.txt
House2.ipynb
House.ipynb
notebook.tex
output_16_1.png
output_23_1.png
output_24_1.png
output_30_1.png
```

```

output_33_1.png
output_6_1.png
ridge_sol.csv
sample_submission.csv
submission.csv
test.csv
train.csv

```

```
In [2]: #Now let's import and put the train and test datasets in pandas dataframe
```

```

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')

```

```
In [3]: ##display the first five rows of the train dataset.
train.head(5)
```

```

Out[3]:
```

	Id	MSSubClass	MSZoning	LotFrontage	LotArea	Street	Alley	LotShape	\
0	1	60	RL	65.000	8450	Pave	NaN	Reg	
1	2	20	RL	80.000	9600	Pave	NaN	Reg	
2	3	60	RL	68.000	11250	Pave	NaN	IR1	
3	4	70	RL	60.000	9550	Pave	NaN	IR1	
4	5	60	RL	84.000	14260	Pave	NaN	IR1	

	LandContour	Utilities	...	PoolArea	PoolQC	Fence	MiscFeature	MiscVal	\
0	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	NaN	NaN	NaN	0	
1	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	NaN	NaN	NaN	0	
2	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	NaN	NaN	NaN	0	
3	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	NaN	NaN	NaN	0	
4	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	NaN	NaN	NaN	0	

	MoSold	YrSold	SaleType	SaleCondition	SalePrice
0	2	2008	WD	Normal	208500
1	5	2007	WD	Normal	181500
2	9	2008	WD	Normal	223500
3	2	2006	WD	Abnorml	140000
4	12	2008	WD	Normal	250000

[5 rows x 81 columns]

```
In [4]: ##display the first five rows of the test dataset.
test.head(5)
```

```

Out[4]:
```

	Id	MSSubClass	MSZoning	LotFrontage	LotArea	Street	Alley	LotShape	\
0	1461	20	RH	80.000	11622	Pave	NaN	Reg	
1	1462	20	RL	81.000	14267	Pave	NaN	IR1	
2	1463	60	RL	74.000	13830	Pave	NaN	IR1	
3	1464	60	RL	78.000	9978	Pave	NaN	IR1	

4	1465	120	RL	43.000	5005	Pave	NaN	IR1
	LandContour	Utilities	...	ScreenPorch	PoolArea	PoolQC	Fence	\
0	Lvl	AllPub	...	120	0	NaN	MnPrv	
1	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	0	NaN	NaN	
2	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	0	NaN	MnPrv	
3	Lvl	AllPub	...	0	0	NaN	NaN	
4	HLS	AllPub	...	144	0	NaN	NaN	

	MiscFeature	MiscVal	MoSold	YrSold	SaleType	SaleCondition
0	NaN	0	6	2010	WD	Normal
1	Gar2	12500	6	2010	WD	Normal
2	NaN	0	3	2010	WD	Normal
3	NaN	0	6	2010	WD	Normal
4	NaN	0	1	2010	WD	Normal

[5 rows x 80 columns]

```
In [5]: #check the numbers of samples and features
print("The train data size before dropping Id feature is : {}".format(train.shape))
print("The test data size before dropping Id feature is : {}".format(test.shape))

#Save the 'Id' column
train_ID = train['Id']
test_ID = test['Id']

#Now drop the 'Id' colum since it's unnecessary for the prediction process.
train.drop("Id", axis = 1, inplace = True)
test.drop("Id", axis = 1, inplace = True)

#check again the data size after dropping the 'Id' variable
print("\nThe train data size after dropping Id feature is : {}".format(train.shape))
print("The test data size after dropping Id feature is : {}".format(test.shape))
```

The train data size before dropping Id feature is : (1460, 81)

The test data size before dropping Id feature is : (1459, 80)

The train data size after dropping Id feature is : (1460, 80)

The test data size after dropping Id feature is : (1459, 79)

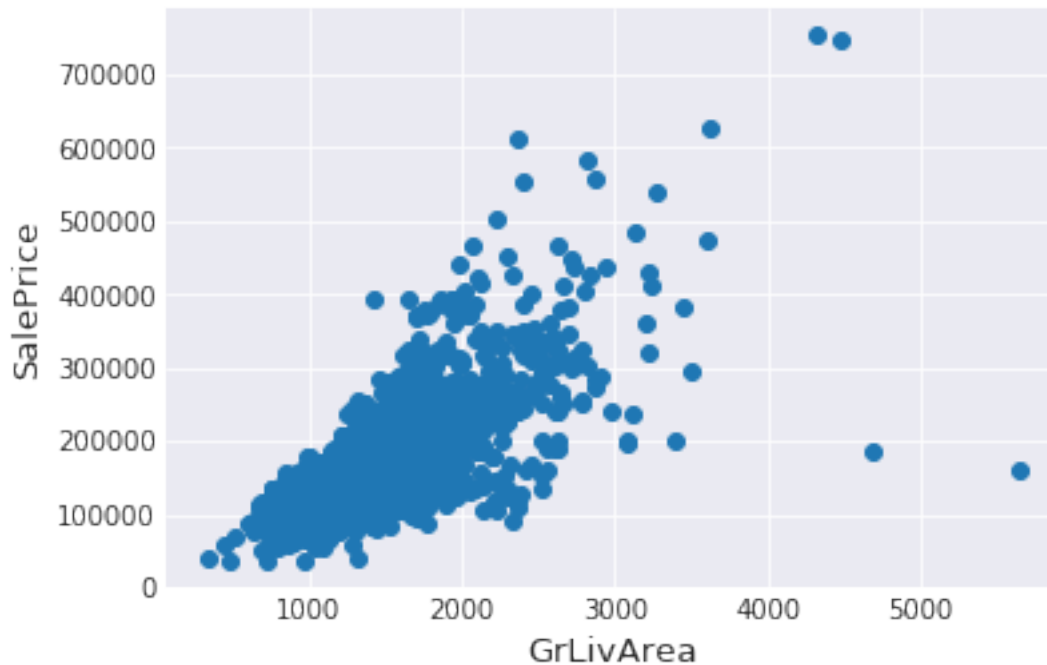
2 Data Processing

2.1 Outliers

[Documentation][1] for the Ames Housing Data indicates that there are outliers present in the training data [1]: <http://ww2.amstat.org/publications/jse/v19n3/Decock/DataDocumentation.txt>

Let's explore these outliers

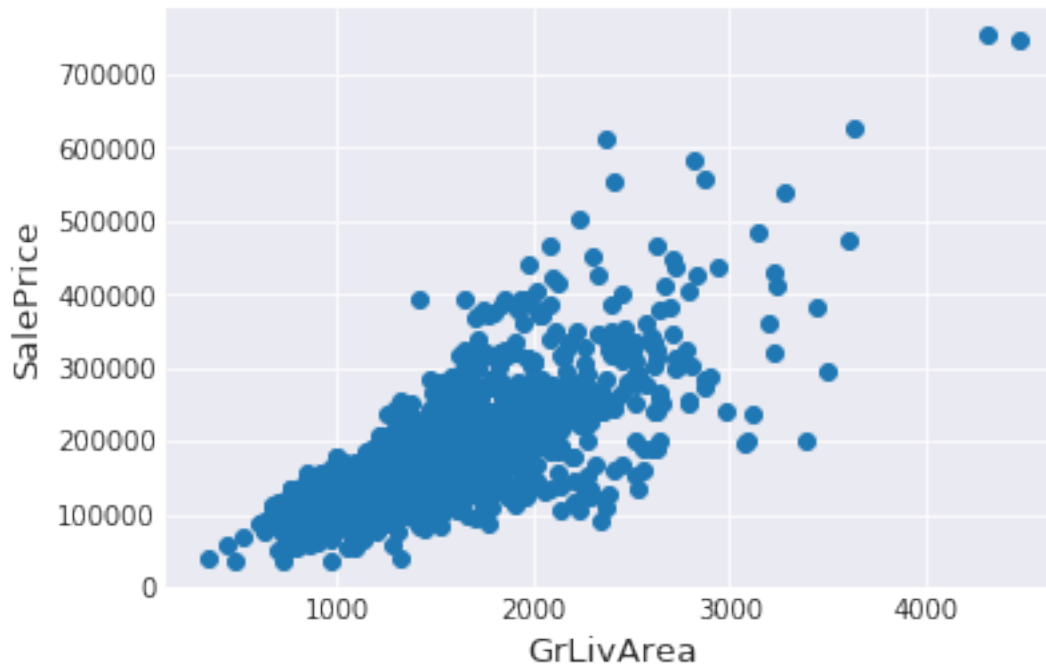
```
In [6]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.scatter(x = train['GrLivArea'], y = train['SalePrice'])
plt.ylabel('SalePrice', fontsize=13)
plt.xlabel('GrLivArea', fontsize=13)
plt.show()
```



We can see at the bottom right two with extremely large GrLivArea that are of a low price. These values are huge outliers. Therefore, we can safely delete them.

```
In [7]: #Deleting outliers
train = train.drop(train[(train['GrLivArea']>4000) & (train['SalePrice']<300000)].index)

#Check the graphic again
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.scatter(train['GrLivArea'], train['SalePrice'])
plt.ylabel('SalePrice', fontsize=13)
plt.xlabel('GrLivArea', fontsize=13)
plt.show()
```



2.1.1 Note :

Outliers removal is not always safe. We decided to delete these two as they are very huge and really bad (extremely large areas for very low prices).

There are probably other outliers in the training data. However, removing all of them may affect badly our models if ever there were also outliers in the test data. That's why, instead of removing them all, we will just manage to make some of our models robust on them. You can refer to the modelling part of this notebook for that.

2.2 Target Variable

SalePrice is the variable we need to predict. So let's do some analysis on this variable first.

```
In [8]: sns.distplot(train['SalePrice'] , fit=norm);

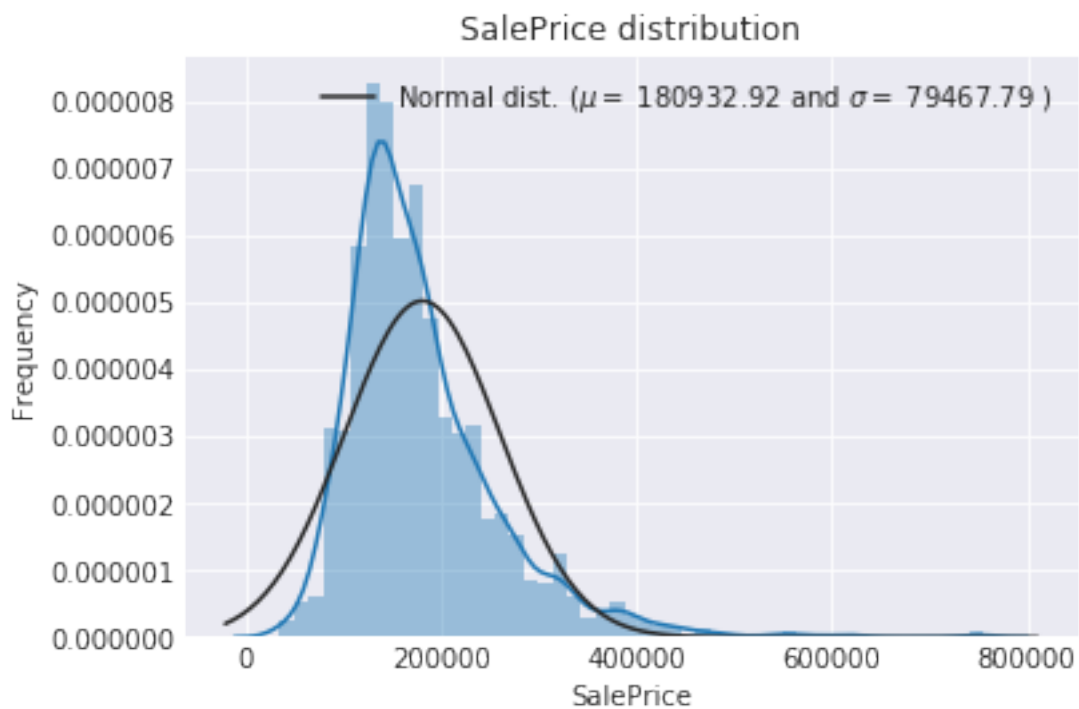
# Get the fitted parameters used by the function
(mu, sigma) = norm.fit(train['SalePrice'])
print( '\n mu = {:.2f} and sigma = {:.2f}\n'.format(mu, sigma))

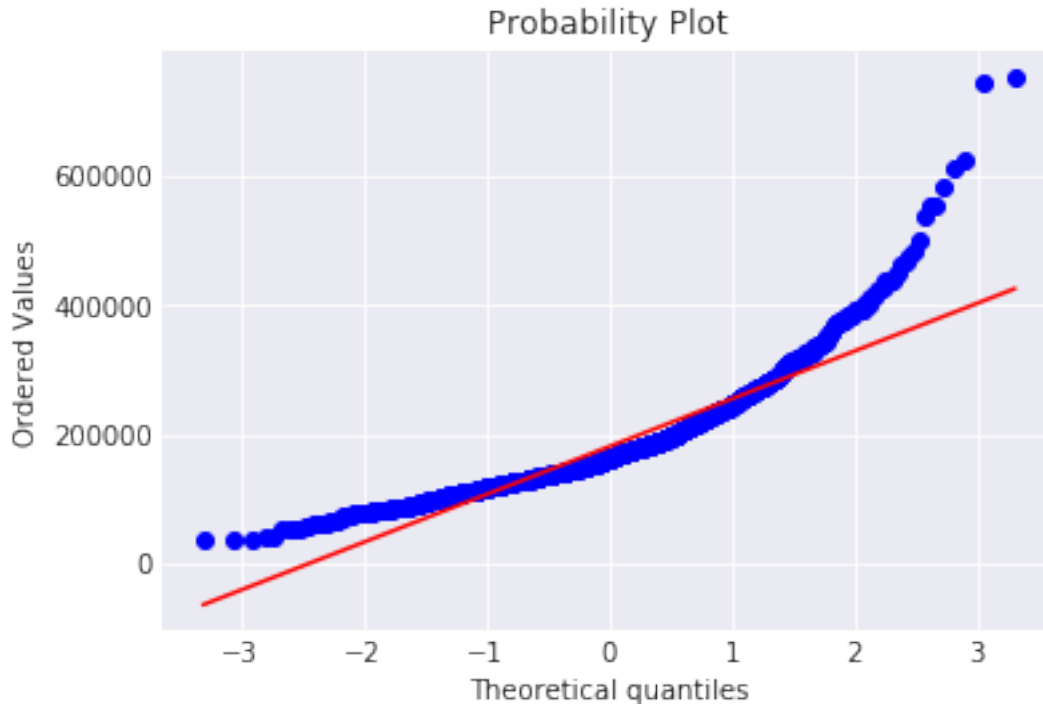
#Now plot the distribution
plt.legend(['Normal dist. ($\mu=${:.2f} and $\sigma=${:.2f} )'.format(mu, sigma)],
          loc='best')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.title('SalePrice distribution')
```

```
#Get also the QQ-plot
fig = plt.figure()
res = stats.probplot(train['SalePrice'], plot=plt)
plt.show()
```

/home/zy/anaconda3/lib/python3.6/site-packages/scipy/stats/stats.py:1713: FutureWarning: Using
return np.add.reduce(sorted[indexer] * weights, axis=axis) / sumval

mu = 180932.92 and sigma = 79467.79





The target variable is right skewed. As (linear) models love normally distributed data , we need to transform this variable and make it more normally distributed.

Log-transformation of the target variable

```
In [9]: #We use the numpy fuction log1p which applies log(1+x) to all elements of the column
train["SalePrice"] = np.log1p(train["SalePrice"])

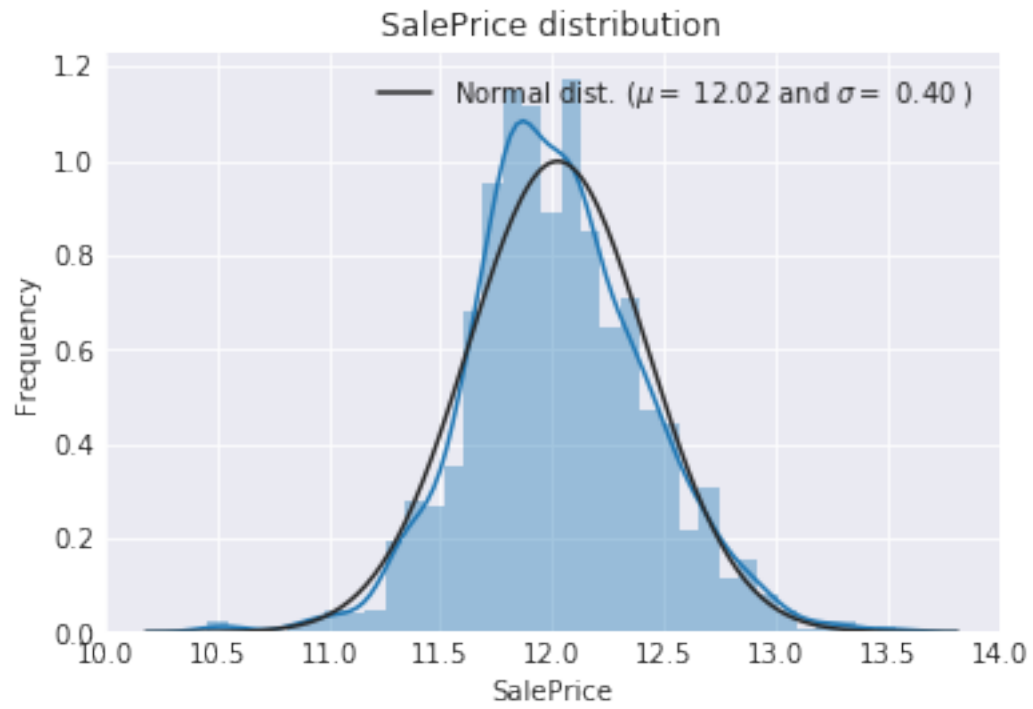
#Check the new distribution
sns.distplot(train['SalePrice'] , fit=norm);

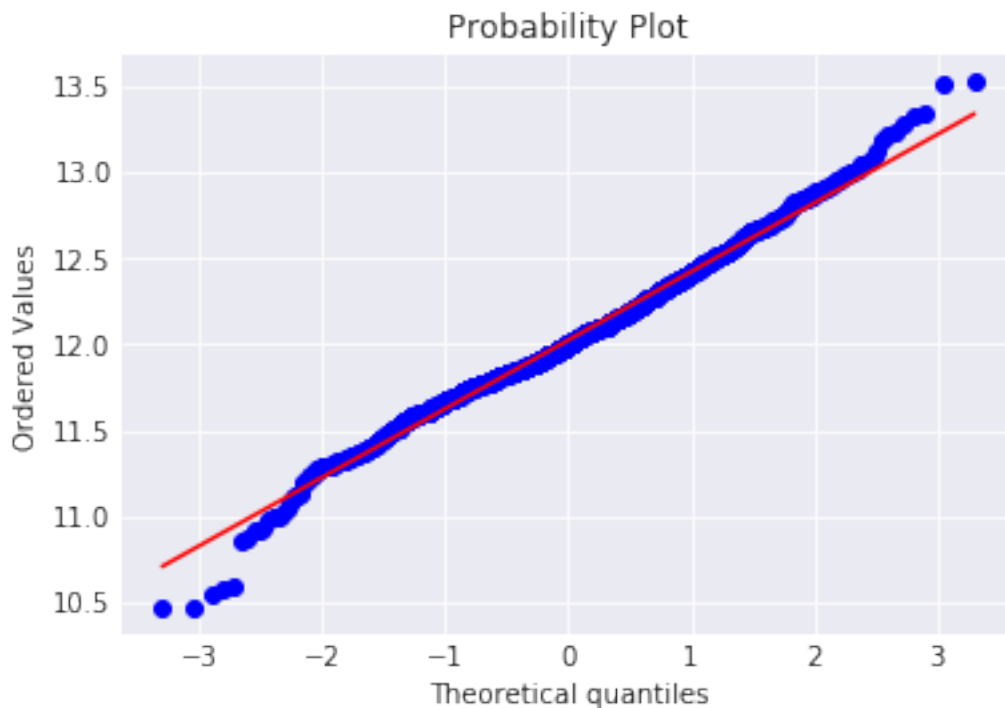
# Get the fitted parameters used by the function
(mu, sigma) = norm.fit(train['SalePrice'])
print( '\n mu = {:.2f} and sigma = {:.2f}\n'.format(mu, sigma))

#Now plot the distribution
plt.legend(['Normal dist. ($\mu=${:.2f} and $\sigma=${:.2f} )'.format(mu, sigma)],
          loc='best')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.title('SalePrice distribution')

#Get also the QQ-plot
fig = plt.figure()
res = stats.probplot(train['SalePrice'], plot=plt)
plt.show()
```


mu = 12.02 and sigma = 0.40





The skew seems now corrected and the data appears more normally distributed.

2.3 Features engineering

let's first concatenate the train and test data in the same dataframe

```
In [10]: ntrain = train.shape[0]
         ntest = test.shape[0]
         y_train = train.SalePrice.values
         all_data = pd.concat((train, test)).reset_index(drop=True)
         all_data.drop(['SalePrice'], axis=1, inplace=True)
         print("all_data size is : {}".format(all_data.shape))
```

all_data size is : (2917, 79)

2.3.1 Missing Data

```
In [11]: all_data_na = (all_data.isnull().sum() / len(all_data)) * 100
         all_data_na = all_data_na.drop(all_data_na[all_data_na == 0].index).sort_values(ascending=True)
         missing_data = pd.DataFrame({'Missing Ratio' :all_data_na})
         missing_data.head(20)
```

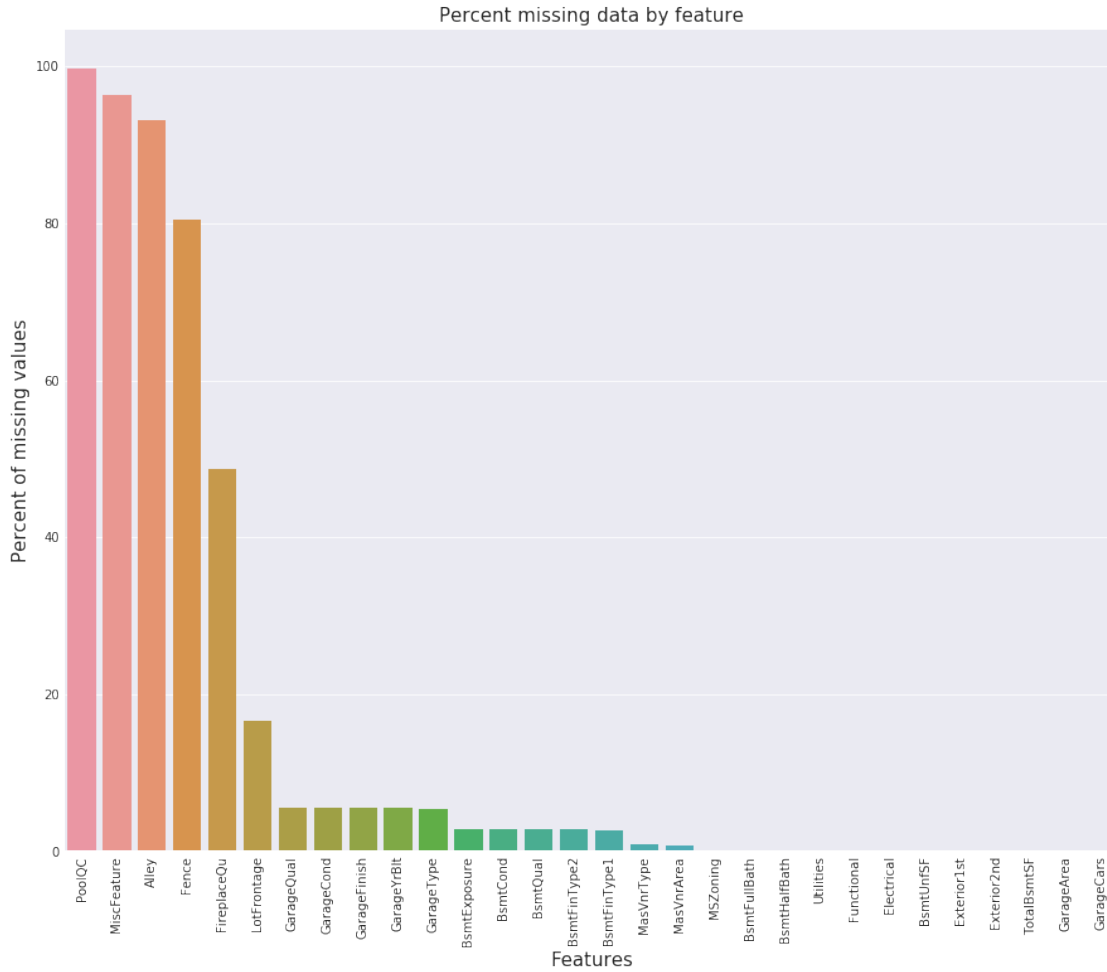
```
Out[11]:
```

	Missing Ratio
PoolQC	99.691

MiscFeature	96.400
Alley	93.212
Fence	80.425
FireplaceQu	48.680
LotFrontage	16.661
GarageQual	5.451
GarageCond	5.451
GarageFinish	5.451
GarageYrBlt	5.451
GarageType	5.382
BsmtExposure	2.811
BsmtCond	2.811
BsmtQual	2.777
BsmtFinType2	2.743
BsmtFinType1	2.708
MasVnrType	0.823
MasVnrArea	0.788
MSZoning	0.137
BsmtFullBath	0.069

```
In [12]: f, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(15, 12))
plt.xticks(rotation='90')
sns.barplot(x=all_data_na.index, y=all_data_na)
plt.xlabel('Features', fontsize=15)
plt.ylabel('Percent of missing values', fontsize=15)
plt.title('Percent missing data by feature', fontsize=15)
```

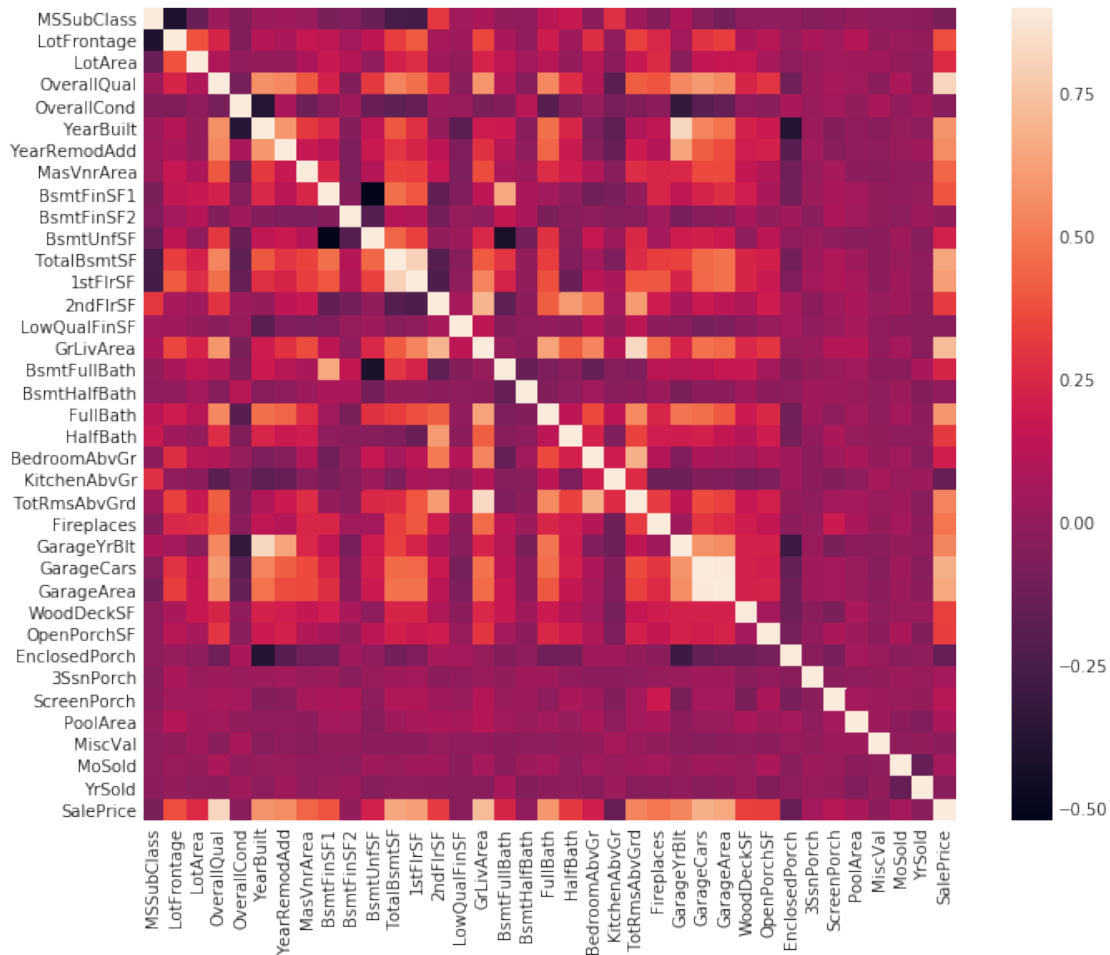
```
Out[12]: Text(0.5,1,'Percent missing data by feature')
```



Data Correlation

```
In [13]: #Correlation map to see how features are correlated with SalePrice
corrmat = train.corr()
plt.subplots(figsize=(12,9))
sns.heatmap(corrmat, vmax=0.9, square=True)
```

```
Out[13]: <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x7fdb8c384780>
```



###Imputing missing values

We impute them by proceeding sequentially through features with missing values

- **PoolQC** : data description says NA means “No Pool”. That make sense, given the huge ratio of missing value (+99%) and majority of houses have no Pool at all in general.

```
In [14]: all_data["PoolQC"] = all_data["PoolQC"].fillna("None")
```

- **MiscFeature** : data description says NA means “no misc feature”

```
In [15]: all_data["MiscFeature"] = all_data["MiscFeature"].fillna("None")
```

- **Alley** : data description says NA means “no alley access”

```
In [16]: all_data["Alley"] = all_data["Alley"].fillna("None")
```

- **Fence** : data description says NA means “no fence”

```
In [17]: all_data["Fence"] = all_data["Fence"].fillna("None")
```

- **FireplaceQu** : data description says NA means “no fireplace”

```
In [18]: all_data["FireplaceQu"] = all_data["FireplaceQu"].fillna("None")
```

- **LotFrontage** : Since the area of each street connected to the house property most likely have a similar area to other houses in its neighborhood , we can **fill in missing values by the median LotFrontage of the neighborhood**.

```
In [19]: #Group by neighborhood and fill in missing value by the median LotFrontage of all the
all_data["LotFrontage"] = all_data.groupby("Neighborhood")["LotFrontage"].transform(
    lambda x: x.fillna(x.median()))
```

- **GarageType, GarageFinish, GarageQual and GarageCond** : Replacing missing data with None

```
In [20]: for col in ('GarageType', 'GarageFinish', 'GarageQual', 'GarageCond'):
    all_data[col] = all_data[col].fillna('None')
```

- **GarageYrBlt, GarageArea and GarageCars** : Replacing missing data with 0 (Since No garage = no cars in such garage.)

```
In [21]: for col in ('GarageYrBlt', 'GarageArea', 'GarageCars'):
    all_data[col] = all_data[col].fillna(0)
```

- **BsmtFinSF1, BsmtFinSF2, BsmtUnfSF, TotalBsmtSF, BsmtFullBath and BsmtHalfBath** : missing values are likely zero for having no basement

```
In [22]: for col in ('BsmtFinSF1', 'BsmtFinSF2', 'BsmtUnfSF', 'TotalBsmtSF', 'BsmtFullBath', 'BsmtHalfBath'):
    all_data[col] = all_data[col].fillna(0)
```

- **BsmtQual, BsmtCond, BsmtExposure, BsmtFinType1 and BsmtFinType2** : For all these categorical basement-related features, NaN means that there is no basement.

```
In [23]: for col in ('BsmtQual', 'BsmtCond', 'BsmtExposure', 'BsmtFinType1', 'BsmtFinType2'):
    all_data[col] = all_data[col].fillna('None')
```

- **MasVnrArea and MasVnrType** : NA most likely means no masonry veneer for these houses. We can fill 0 for the area and None for the type.

```
In [24]: all_data["MasVnrType"] = all_data["MasVnrType"].fillna("None")
all_data["MasVnrArea"] = all_data["MasVnrArea"].fillna(0)
```

- **MSZoning (The general zoning classification)** : ‘RL’ is by far the most common value. So we can fill in missing values with ‘RL’

```
In [25]: all_data['MSZoning'] = all_data['MSZoning'].fillna(all_data['MSZoning'].mode()[0])
```

- **Utilities** : For this categorical feature all records are “AllPub”, except for one “NoSeWa” and 2 NA . Since the house with ‘NoSewa’ is in the training set, **this feature won’t help in predictive modelling**. We can then safely remove it.

```
In [26]: all_data = all_data.drop(['Utilities'], axis=1)
```

- **Functional** : data description says NA means typical

```
In [27]: all_data["Functional"] = all_data["Functional"].fillna("Typ")
```

- **Electrical** : It has one NA value. Since this feature has mostly 'SBrkr', we can set that for the missing value.

```
In [28]: all_data['Electrical'] = all_data['Electrical'].fillna(all_data['Electrical'].mode()[0])
```

- **KitchenQual**: Only one NA value, and same as Electrical, we set 'TA' (which is the most frequent) for the missing value in KitchenQual.

```
In [29]: all_data['KitchenQual'] = all_data['KitchenQual'].fillna(all_data['KitchenQual'].mode()[0])
```

- **Exterior1st and Exterior2nd** : Again Both Exterior 1 & 2 have only one missing value. We will just substitute in the most common string

```
In [30]: all_data['Exterior1st'] = all_data['Exterior1st'].fillna(all_data['Exterior1st'].mode()[0])
all_data['Exterior2nd'] = all_data['Exterior2nd'].fillna(all_data['Exterior2nd'].mode()[0])
```

- **SaleType** : Fill in again with most frequent which is "WD"

```
In [31]: all_data['SaleType'] = all_data['SaleType'].fillna(all_data['SaleType'].mode()[0])
```

- **MSSubClass** : Na most likely means No building class. We can replace missing values with None

```
In [32]: all_data['MSSubClass'] = all_data['MSSubClass'].fillna("None")
```

Is there any remaining missing value ?

```
In [33]: #Check remaining missing values if any
all_data_na = (all_data.isnull().sum() / len(all_data)) * 100
all_data_na = all_data_na.drop(all_data_na[all_data_na == 0].index).sort_values(ascending=True)
missing_data = pd.DataFrame({'Missing Ratio' :all_data_na})
missing_data.head()
```

```
Out[33]: Empty DataFrame
Columns: [Missing Ratio]
Index: []
```

It remains no missing value.

###More features engeneering

Transforming some numerical variables that are really categorical

```
In [34]: #MSSubClass=The building class
all_data['MSSubClass'] = all_data['MSSubClass'].apply(str)

#Changing OverallCond into a categorical variable
all_data['OverallCond'] = all_data['OverallCond'].astype(str)

#Year and month sold are transformed into categorical features.
all_data['YrSold'] = all_data['YrSold'].astype(str)
all_data['MoSold'] = all_data['MoSold'].astype(str)
```

Label Encoding some categorical variables that may contain information in their ordering set

```
In [35]: from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
cols = ('FireplaceQu', 'BsmtQual', 'BsmtCond', 'GarageQual', 'GarageCond',
        'ExterQual', 'ExterCond', 'HeatingQC', 'PoolQC', 'KitchenQual', 'BsmtFinType1',
        'BsmtFinType2', 'Functional', 'Fence', 'BsmtExposure', 'GarageFinish', 'LandS',
        'LotShape', 'PavedDrive', 'Street', 'Alley', 'CentralAir', 'MSSubClass', 'Over',
        'YrSold', 'MoSold')

# process columns, apply LabelEncoder to categorical features
for c in cols:
    lbl = LabelEncoder()
    lbl.fit(list(all_data[c].values))
    all_data[c] = lbl.transform(list(all_data[c].values))

# shape
print('Shape all_data: {}'.format(all_data.shape))
```

Shape all_data: (2917, 78)

Adding one more important feature

Since area related features are very important to determine house prices, we add one more feature which is the total area of basement, first and second floor areas of each house

```
In [36]: # Adding total sqfootage feature
all_data['TotalSF'] = all_data['TotalBsmtSF'] + all_data['1stFlrSF'] + all_data['2ndFlrSF']
```

Skewed features

```
In [37]: numeric_feats = all_data.dtypes[all_data.dtypes != "object"].index

# Check the skew of all numerical features
skewed_feats = all_data[numeric_feats].apply(lambda x: skew(x.dropna())).sort_values(
print("\nSkew in numerical features: \n")
skewness = pd.DataFrame({'Skew' :skewed_feats})
skewness.head(10)
```


Skew in numerical features:

```
Out [37]:
```

	Skew
MiscVal	21.940
PoolArea	17.689
LotArea	13.109
LowQualFinSF	12.085
3SsnPorch	11.372
LandSlope	4.973
KitchenAbvGr	4.301
BsmtFinSF2	4.145
EnclosedPorch	4.002
ScreenPorch	3.945

Box Cox Transformation of (highly) skewed features

We use the scipy function `boxcox1p` which computes the Box-Cox transformation of $1 + x$.

Note that setting $\lambda = 0$ is equivalent to `log1p` used above for the target variable.

See [this page][1] for more details on Box Cox Transformation as well as [the scipy function's page][2] [1]: <http://onlinestatbook.com/2/transformations/box-cox.html> [2]: <https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy-0.19.0/reference/generated/scipy.special.boxcox1p.html>

```
In [38]: skewness = skewness[abs(skewness) > 0.75]
print("There are {} skewed numerical features to Box Cox transform".format(skewness.shape[0]))

from scipy.special import boxcox1p
skewed_features = skewness.index
lam = 0.15
for feat in skewed_features:
    #all_data[feat] += 1
    all_data[feat] = boxcox1p(all_data[feat], lam)

#all_data[skewed_features] = np.log1p(all_data[skewed_features])
```

There are 59 skewed numerical features to Box Cox transform

Getting dummy categorical features

```
In [39]: all_data = pd.get_dummies(all_data)
print(all_data.shape)
```

(2917, 220)

Getting the new train and test sets.

```
In [40]: train = all_data[:ntrain]
        test = all_data[ntrain:]
```

#Modelling

Import librairies

```
In [41]: from sklearn.linear_model import ElasticNet, Lasso, BayesianRidge, LassoLarsIC
        from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor, GradientBoostingRegressor
        from sklearn.kernel_ridge import KernelRidge
        from sklearn.pipeline import make_pipeline
        from sklearn.preprocessing import RobustScaler
        from sklearn.base import BaseEstimator, TransformerMixin, RegressorMixin, clone
        from sklearn.model_selection import KFold, cross_val_score, train_test_split
        from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
        import xgboost as xgb
        import lightgbm as lgb
```

```
In [42]: !pip install --user lightgbm
```

Requirement already satisfied: lightgbm in /home/zy/.local/lib/python3.6/site-packages (2.2.2)

Requirement already satisfied: scikit-learn in /home/zy/.local/lib/python3.6/site-packages (from lightgbm)

Requirement already satisfied: scipy in /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages (from lightgbm)

Requirement already satisfied: numpy in /home/zy/.local/lib/python3.6/site-packages (from lightgbm)

Define a cross validation strategy

We use the `cross_val_score` function of Sklearn. However this function has not a shuffle attribute, we add then one line of code, in order to shuffle the dataset prior to cross-validation

```
In [43]: #Validation function
        n_folds = 5

        def rmsle_cv(model):
            kf = KFold(n_folds, shuffle=True, random_state=42).get_n_splits(train.values)
            rmse= np.sqrt(-cross_val_score(model, train.values, y_train, scoring="neg_mean_squared_error"))
            return(rmse)
```

##Base models

• LASSO Regression :

This model may be very sensitive to outliers. So we need to made it more robust on them. For that we use the sklearn's **Robustscaler()** method on pipeline

```
In [44]: lasso = make_pipeline(RobustScaler(), Lasso(alpha =0.0005, random_state=1))
```

• Elastic Net Regression :

again made robust to outliers

```
In [45]: ENet = make_pipeline(RobustScaler(), ElasticNet(alpha=0.0005, l1_ratio=.9, random_state=42))
```

- **Kernel Ridge Regression :**

```
In [46]: KRR = KernelRidge(alpha=0.6, kernel='polynomial', degree=2, coef0=2.5)
```

- **Gradient Boosting Regression :**

With **huber** loss that makes it robust to outliers

```
In [47]: GBoost = GradientBoostingRegressor(n_estimators=3000, learning_rate=0.05,
                                             max_depth=4, max_features='sqrt',
                                             min_samples_leaf=15, min_samples_split=10,
                                             loss='huber', random_state =5)
```

- **XGBoost :**

```
In [48]: model_xgb = xgb.XGBRegressor(colsample_bytree=0.4603, gamma=0.0468,
                                       learning_rate=0.05, max_depth=3,
                                       min_child_weight=1.7817, n_estimators=2200,
                                       reg_alpha=0.4640, reg_lambda=0.8571,
                                       subsample=0.5213, silent=1,
                                       random_state =7, nthread = -1)
```

- **LightGBM :**

```
In [49]: model_lgb = lgb.LGBMRegressor(objective='regression',num_leaves=5,
                                       learning_rate=0.05, n_estimators=720,
                                       max_bin = 55, bagging_fraction = 0.8,
                                       bagging_freq = 5, feature_fraction = 0.2319,
                                       feature_fraction_seed=9, bagging_seed=9,
                                       min_data_in_leaf =6, min_sum_hessian_in_leaf = 11)
```

###Base models scores

Let's see how these base models perform on the data by evaluating the cross-validation rmsle error

```
In [50]: score = rmsle_cv(lasso)
         print("\nLasso score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n".format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

Lasso score: 0.1115 (0.0074)

```
In [51]: score = rmsle_cv(ENet)
         print("ElasticNet score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n".format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

ElasticNet score: 0.1116 (0.0074)

```
In [52]: score = rmsle_cv(KRR)
         print("Kernel Ridge score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n".format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

Kernel Ridge score: 0.1153 (0.0075)

```
In [53]: score = rmsle_cv(GBoost)
         print("Gradient Boosting score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n".format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

Gradient Boosting score: 0.1177 (0.0080)

```
In [54]: score = rmsle_cv(model_xgb)
         print("Xgboost score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n".format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

Xgboost score: 0.1162 (0.0078)

```
In [55]: score = rmsle_cv(model_lgb)
         print("LGBM score: {:.4f} ({:.4f})\n" .format(score.mean(), score.std()))
```

LGBM score: 0.1162 (0.0071)

##Stacking models

###Simplest Stacking approach : Averaging base models

We begin with this simple approach of averaging base models. We build a new **class** to extend scikit-learn with our model and also to leverage encapsulation and code reuse ([inheritance](#))

Averaged base models class

```
In [56]: class AveragingModels(BaseEstimator, RegressorMixin, TransformerMixin):
         def __init__(self, models):
             self.models = models

         # we define clones of the original models to fit the data in
         def fit(self, X, y):
             self.models_ = [clone(x) for x in self.models]

             # Train cloned base models
             for model in self.models_:
                 model.fit(X, y)

             return self
```

#Now we do the predictions for cloned models and average them