

gta_housing_ml_proj

September 9, 2019

1 The GTA Housing, Machine Learning Project

Currently, the GTA is projected to be the fastest growing region of the province, accounting for over 65 percent of Ontario's net population growth to 2041. In July 2019, the Toronto Real Estate board reported that nearly 8,595 houses were sold which is up 24.3% compared to June 2018. With the massive number of houses being sold, and countless more being listed for sale, data was plentiful regarding the subject.

In this project and analysis, we will attempt to predict the value of a house, given its characteristics using Machine Learning Algorithms. Let's get started!

1.1 Contents

- Section ??
- Section ??
- Section ??

1.2 Initial Data Analysis

```
In [1]: import pandas as pd
import os
import csv
```

```
MY_DIR = "C:\\Users\\Adit Krishnan\\Documents\\Third Year\\gta_ml_proj\\Data Gathering"
```

```
def load_housing_data(my_dir= MY_DIR):
    csv_path = os.path.join(my_dir, "housing_data.csv")
    return pd.read_csv(csv_path, converters={"Price(in CAD)":float})
```

Prior to working with the data, I undertook the task of scraping all the data from the MLS listing site, and formatting it to fit into a CSV file, which we can then work with to analyze the data using pandas. The above code simply loads that data into a pandas data frame, which we can then work with to gain more insight from the data.

```
In [2]: housing = load_housing_data()
housing.head()
```

```

Out[2]:
      Address Postal Code  Latitude \
0      86 Wessenger Dr, Holly, Barrie L4N8N7      L4N8N7 44.328711
1      86 Wessenger Dr, Holly, Barrie L4N8N7      L4N8N7 44.328711
2      118 Ferndale Dr, Ardagh, Barrie L4N6Y6      L4N6Y6 44.359932
3      151 Edgehill Dr H10, 400 North, Barrie L4N1L9      L4N1L9 44.384539
4      126 Bell Farm Rd 311, City Centre, Barrie L4M6J3      L4M6J3 44.410643

      Longitude  City Neighbourhood  Price(in CAD)  # of Bathrooms \
0 -79.717816  Barrie      Holly      1880.0      2
1 -79.717816  Barrie      Holly      1880.0      2
2 -79.715513  Barrie      Ardagh      149900.0      0
3 -79.712689  Barrie      400 North      234500.0      1
4 -79.676170  Barrie      City Centre      236900.0      1

      # of Bedrooms  Height(in stories)  # of Kitchens  # of Parking Spaces \
0      3      2.0      1.0      3.0
1      3      2.0      1.0      3.0
2      0      NaN      NaN      NaN
3      2      NaN      1.0      NaN
4      1      NaN      1.0      NaN

      Lot-Size(in feet)  Total Lot Size(in square ft.)  Basement(finished or not) \
0      14.22 x 35.00      497.700      No Basement
1      14.22 x 35.00      497.700      No Basement
2      59.35 x 124.06      7362.961      No Basement
3      NaN      NaN      No Basement
4      NaN      NaN      No Basement

      House HTML
0  https://barrie.listing.ca/86-wessenger-dr.S452...
1  https://barrie.listing.ca/86-wessenger-dr.S452...
2  https://barrie.listing.ca/118-ferndale-dr.S450...
3  https://barrie.listing.ca/151-edgehill-dr-h10...
4  https://barrie.listing.ca/126-bell-farm-rd-311...

```

```
In [3]: housing.info()
```

```

<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 16274 entries, 0 to 16273
Data columns (total 16 columns):
Address      16274 non-null object
Postal Code  16268 non-null object
Latitude     16274 non-null float64
Longitude    16274 non-null float64
City         16274 non-null object
Neighbourhood 16274 non-null object
Price(in CAD) 16274 non-null float64
# of Bathrooms 16274 non-null int64

```

```

# of Bedrooms          16274 non-null int64
Height(in stories)     12184 non-null float64
# of Kitchens          16002 non-null float64
# of Parking Spaces    10784 non-null float64
Lot-Size(in feet)      11428 non-null object
Total Lot Size(in square ft.) 11371 non-null float64
Basement(finished or not) 16274 non-null object
House HTML             16274 non-null object
dtypes: float64(7), int64(2), object(7)
memory usage: 2.0+ MB

```

Calling the `info()` and `head()` method, we can get a very brief and quick overview of the data. “`housing.head()`” gives an overview of the top 5 entries in the data and the `info` method reveals how many of each subcategory is present in the data. Notice that some of the values are missing, which will need to be fixed later on, if we are to use this data for Machine Learning later on.

```
In [4]: housing["# of Parking Spaces"].value_counts()
```

```

Out[4]: 2.0    4153
        4.0    3355
        3.0    1139
        6.0     957
        5.0     388
        0.0     345
        8.0     288
        7.0      92
        9.0      60
        1.0       7
        Name: # of Parking Spaces, dtype: int64

```

```
In [5]: housing.describe()
```

```

Out[5]:

```

	Latitude	Longitude	Price(in CAD)	# of Bathrooms \
count	16274.000000	16274.000000	1.627400e+04	16274.000000
mean	43.781712	-79.444649	1.118783e+06	2.997911
std	0.252923	0.283367	9.761885e+05	1.454864
min	42.878706	-81.332785	1.880000e+03	0.000000
25%	43.656871	-79.649063	5.999000e+05	2.000000
50%	43.761077	-79.452046	8.299000e+05	3.000000
75%	43.880001	-79.354488	1.289000e+06	4.000000
max	46.329364	-74.727106	2.199900e+07	9.000000

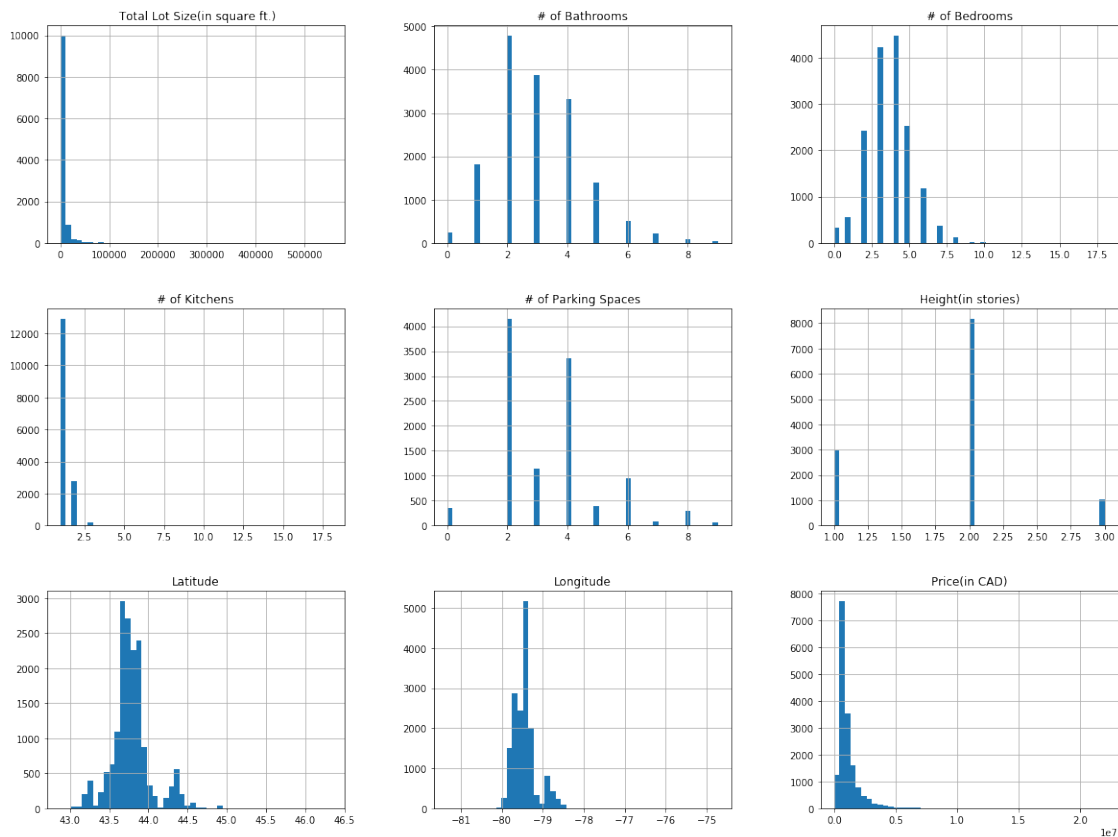
	# of Bedrooms	Height(in stories)	# of Kitchens	# of Parking Spaces \
count	16274.000000	12184.000000	16002.000000	10784.000000
mean	3.681639	1.842580	1.220972	3.367953
std	1.527349	0.550948	0.539928	1.672920
min	0.000000	1.000000	1.000000	0.000000
25%	3.000000	2.000000	1.000000	2.000000

50%	4.000000	2.000000	1.000000	3.000000
75%	5.000000	2.000000	1.000000	4.000000
max	18.000000	3.000000	18.000000	9.000000

	Total Lot Size(in square ft.)
count	11371.000000
mean	8191.411673
std	21214.521967
min	1.000000
25%	3201.000000
50%	4944.511800
75%	7381.310000
max	555100.000000

Calling `housing.describe()` we can gain even more valuable information about the data such as the count, mean, standard deviation, etc.

```
In [6]: %matplotlib inline
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
housing.hist(bins=50, figsize=(20, 15))
plt.show()
```



```
In [7]: from sklearn.model_selection import StratifiedShuffleSplit, train_test_split
import numpy as np

housing["value_cat"] = np.ceil(housing["Price(in CAD)"] / 100000)
housing["value_cat"].where(housing["value_cat"] < 20, 20.0, inplace=True)

split = StratifiedShuffleSplit(n_splits=1, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
for train_index, test_index in split.split(housing, housing["value_cat"]):
    strat_train_set = housing.loc[train_index]
    strat_test_set = housing.loc[test_index]
```

Now, we are taking some of the first steps towards preparing our data to be used for Machine Learning processes. We are creating two separate sets, a training set and a test set which has been split according to an index I created known as the “value_cat” which is based on the prices of the houses. The StratifiedShuffleSplit() method from sklearn ensures that a proportional amount from each price category is chosen to create the train set and test set so that we can avoid any biases in the data. The exact proportions are seen below. Sci-Kit really does make life a little bit easier.

```
In [8]: housing["value_cat"].value_counts() / len(housing)
```

```
Out[8]: 7.0      0.116075
        6.0      0.113863
        20.0     0.113617
        8.0      0.109008
        9.0      0.092725
        5.0      0.092233
        10.0     0.065933
        12.0     0.045041
        13.0     0.039327
        4.0      0.037790
        11.0     0.037237
        14.0     0.029372
        15.0     0.026361
        16.0     0.021384
        17.0     0.016960
        18.0     0.015546
        19.0     0.011859
        3.0      0.009156
        1.0      0.004240
        2.0      0.002274
        Name: value_cat, dtype: float64
```

1.3 In-Depth Data Analysis

```
In [57]: housing = strat_train_set.copy()
         # housing.sort_values("Price(in CAD)", ascending=True)
         # housing.head()

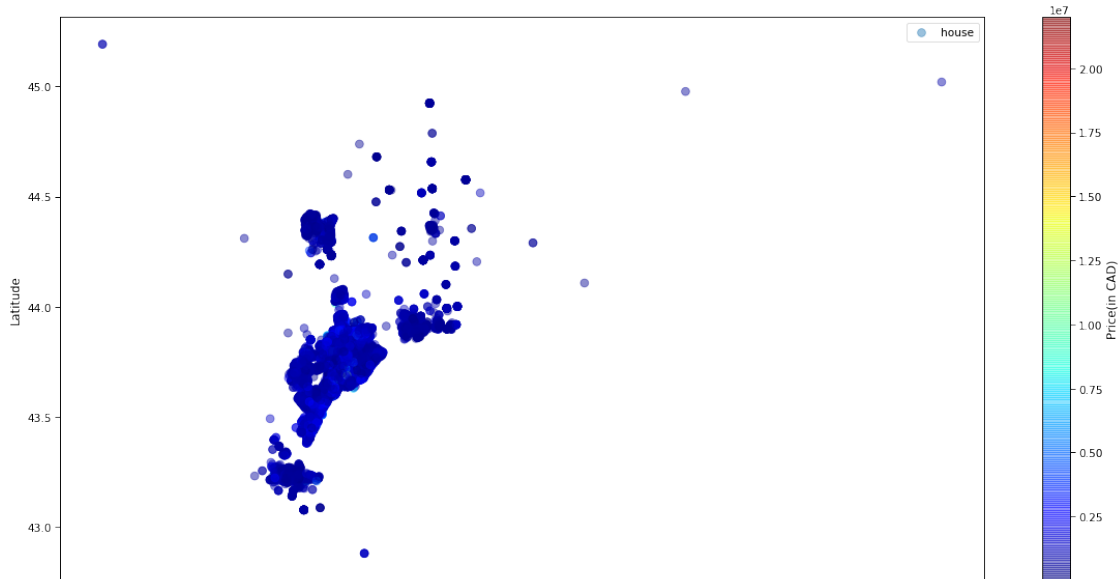
housing.plot(kind="scatter", x="Longitude", y="Latitude", alpha=0.45,
```

```

s=60, label="house", c="Price(in CAD)", cmap=plt.get_cmap("jet"), colorb

plt.legend
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = [20, 10]
plt.rcParams.update({'font.size': 22})
plt.savefig('distribution_of_prices.png', bbox_inches='tight')

```



Above, we can see a graph which graphs the distribution of houses in GTA, with as associated color bar on the right which shows their listing price/value. Amazingly, we can kind of see the shape of the shoreline of Lake Ontario on the right side. However, sadly, there is not much insight we can gain from this graph as it just appears to show that most houses are in the \$500,000 - \$750,000 dollar price range. It is not as effective at communicating the distribution of values of houses in different regions as I expected. Thus, we will have to try using different charts to gain a more better understanding.

```

In [10]: # from ipynb.fs.full.ml_practice_project import test_set_check, split_train_test_by_id
import hashlib

def test_set_check(identifier, test_ratio, hash):
    return hash(np.int64(identifier)).digest()[-1] < 256 * test_ratio

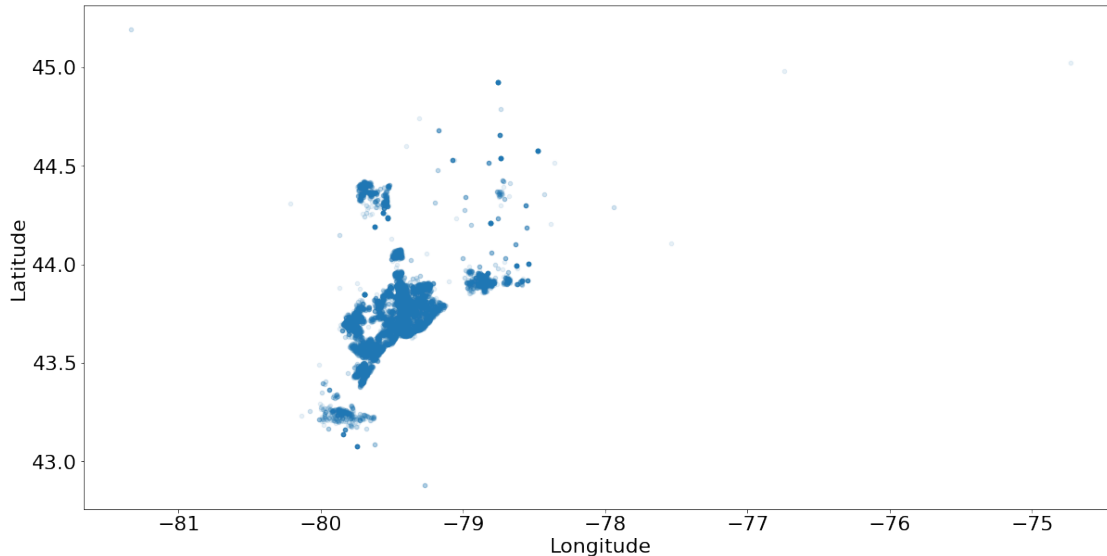
def split_train_test_by_id(data, test_ratio, id_column, hash=hashlib.md5):
    ids = data[id_column]
    in_test_set = ids.apply(lambda id_: test_set_check(id_, test_ratio, hash))
    return data.loc[~in_test_set], data.loc[in_test_set]

In [11]: for set in (strat_train_set, strat_test_set):
    set.drop(["value_cat"], axis=1, inplace=True)

```

```
In [12]: housing = strat_train_set.copy()
housing.plot(kind="scatter", x="Longitude", y="Latitude", alpha=0.1)
```

```
Out[12]: <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x25fd4744c88>
```



Now, altering the alpha parameter in our graph, makes it a lot easier to visualize where there is a high density of houses. Just by looking at the graph, we can see clearly that the Toronto area has a large density, as well as the surrounding Municipalities near it (Mississauga, Brampton, etc.)

```
In [13]: housing.head()
```

```
Out[13]:
```

		Address	Postal Code	Latitude	\
10329	36 Lee Centre Dr Th305,	Woburn, Toronto	M1H3K2	M1H3K2	43.780730
8007	291 Poplar St,	Donevan, Oshawa	L1H6P6	L1H6P6	43.897179
4119	10 Dunsheath Way 201,	Cornell, Markham	L6B0A2	L6B0A2	43.891956
7750	355 Ritson Rd,	Central, Oshawa	L1H5J4	L1H5J4	43.890936
1107	29 Saint Eugene St,	Bram West, Brampton	L6Y0K8	L6Y0K8	43.873265

	Longitude	City	Neighbourhood	Price(in CAD)	# of Bathrooms	\
10329	-79.246955	Toronto	Woburn	539900.0	3	
8007	-78.835035	Oshawa	Donevan	549900.0	2	
4119	-79.276683	Markham	Cornell	485000.0	2	
7750	-78.849669	Oshawa	Central	349000.0	2	
1107	-79.722789	Brampton	Bram West	689900.0	3	

	# of Bedrooms	Height(in stories)	# of Kitchens	# of Parking Spaces	\
10329	2	2.0	1.0	NaN	
8007	4	1.0	2.0	4.0	
4119	2	NaN	1.0	NaN	
7750	3	1.0	1.0	5.0	

1107	4	2.0	1.0	2.0
------	---	-----	-----	-----

	Lot-Size(in feet)	Total Lot Size(in square ft.) \
10329	NaN	NaN
8007	50.00 x 100.00	5000.0000
4119	NaN	NaN
7750	33.00 x 100.00	3300.0000
1107	19.69 x 90.06	1773.2814

	Basement(finished or not) \
10329	No Basement
8007	No Basement
4119	No Basement
7750	No Basement
1107	Unfinished

	House HTML
10329	https://toronto.listing.ca/36-lee-centre-dr-th...
8007	https://oshawa.listing.ca/291-poplar-st.E45345...
4119	https://markham.listing.ca/10-dunsheath-way-20...
7750	https://oshawa.listing.ca/355-ritson-rd.E44501...
1107	https://brampton.listing.ca/29-saint-eugene-st...

```
In [14]: housing["pricing_cat"] = round(housing["Price(in CAD)"], -5)
housing["pricing_cat"]
```

```
Out[14]: 10329    500000.0
          8007    500000.0
          4119    500000.0
          7750    300000.0
          1107    700000.0
          11337   700000.0
          10701   600000.0
          12811  1000000.0
          7274   1100000.0
          14990  7500000.0
          9830   400000.0
          15346   900000.0
          13633  1400000.0
          9757   400000.0
          387    600000.0
          6467  2500000.0
          1049   700000.0
          4157   500000.0
          1507   800000.0
          9755   400000.0
          14732  3300000.0
          11405   700000.0
```


5539	700000.0
3874	500000.0
10633	600000.0
10397	600000.0
3337	500000.0
4177	600000.0
4769	1300000.0
9425	4300000.0
...	
4627	1100000.0
3353	500000.0
386	600000.0
10377	500000.0
2952	700000.0
11270	700000.0
13967	1700000.0
5722	800000.0
13783	1600000.0
9842	400000.0
1511	800000.0
4782	1300000.0
11768	800000.0
15736	1500000.0
11045	700000.0
6977	2700000.0
6468	2500000.0
8431	500000.0
16204	800000.0
10841	600000.0
7707	200000.0
2080	500000.0
10395	500000.0
8822	1100000.0
8593	800000.0
13376	1300000.0
6982	300000.0
7817	400000.0
86	400000.0
948	600000.0

Name: pricing_cat, Length: 13019, dtype: float64

Here, we are adding a price category section to our data, so that we can create a pie chart depicting the breakdown of the houses and their respective prices. We can gain a better understanding of exactly what percent of houses fall into a particular price range in the GTA.

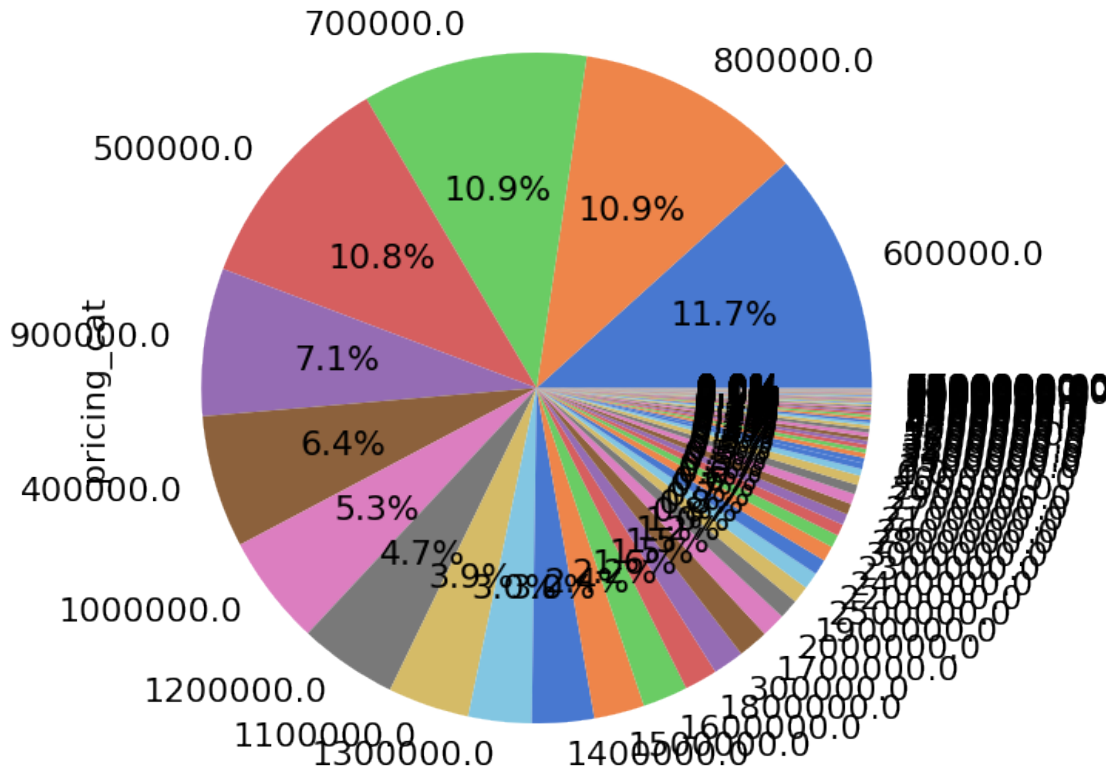
```
In [15]: import seaborn as sns
         c = sns.color_palette('muted')
         for i in range(21):
```

```

c.append(c[i])
ax = housing["pricing_cat"].value_counts().plot(kind='pie', autopct='%1.1f%%', colors=
plt.rcParams.update({'font.size': 12})

```

Percentage of Houses for Price Range



Ah, so it is just as we hypothesized earlier from the scatter chart. Not the most visually appealing chart, but it confirms that majority of houses in the GTA are in the 600000 to 1000000 dollar price range*

*The price_cat attribute was created by rounding a particular house value down to the nearest 100000 so for example houses in the 600000 price_cat have a price between 600000 to 700000).

```

In [16]: corr_matrix = housing.corr()
corr_matrix["Price(in CAD)"].sort_values(ascending=False)

```

```

Out[16]: Price(in CAD)          1.000000
pricing_cat          0.999603
# of Bathrooms       0.568471
# of Bedrooms        0.414038
Total Lot Size(in square ft.) 0.161246
# of Parking Spaces  0.155015
# of Kitchens        0.150059

```

```

Height(in stories)      0.116038
Longitude               -0.048366
Latitude               -0.095611
Name: Price(in CAD), dtype: float64

```

By calling the `corr` method, we can measure the correlation between the variables and see which one correlates the strongest with the price. We can ignore the `pricing_cat`, and the next strongest variable appears to be the # Of Bathrooms upon first glance. However, I have a feeling this does not tell us the complete picture, and some more work has to be done to gain more insights into the data.

```
In [17]: from pandas.plotting import scatter_matrix
```

```

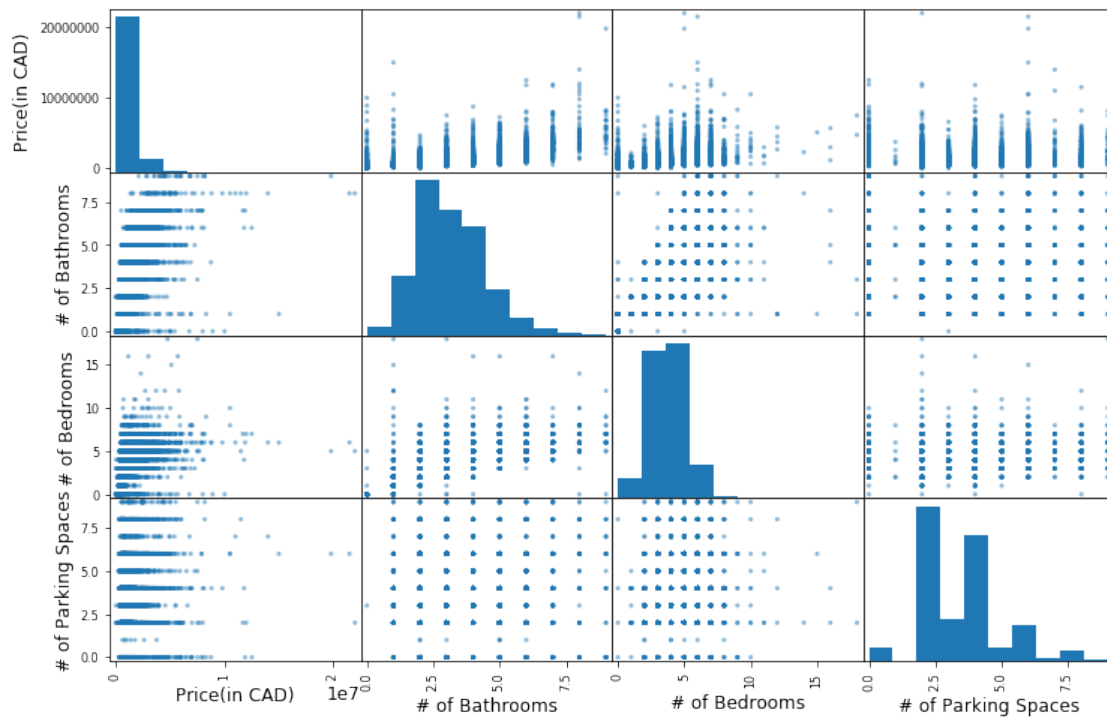
attributes = ["Price(in CAD)", "# of Bathrooms", "# of Bedrooms",
              "# of Parking Spaces"]
scatter_matrix(housing[attributes], figsize=(12, 8))

```

```

Out[17]: array([[<matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD608E4E0>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD64E1320>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD650E898>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD8FD7E10>],
                [<matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD90083C8>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD9031940>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD9059EB8>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD90894A8>],
                [<matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD90894E0>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD90D9F60>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD910A518>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD9132A90>],
                [<matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD9166048>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD918B5C0>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD91B2B38>,
                  <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot object at 0x0000025FD91E30F0>]],
              dtype=object)

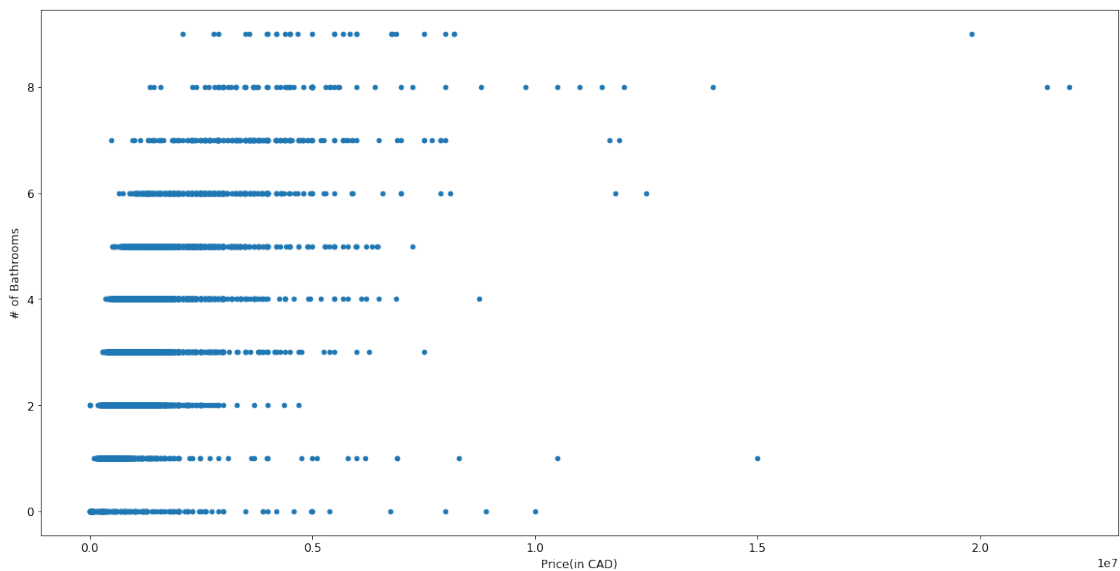
```



We can also measure correlation visually using the `scatter_matrix` method. Recall that # of Bathrooms had a strong correlation so we can take a closer look at that.

```
In [18]: housing.plot(kind="scatter", x="Price(in CAD)", y="# of Bathrooms")
```

```
Out[18]: <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x25fd50a3b00>
```



We can see now more clearly that the correlation between price and number of bathrooms was not entirely true. Since we are comparing a continuous variable with one that has discrete values, these discrepancies can occur. Thus, we see that strictly speaking the characteristics of the house do not have a direct correlation on the value of the house.

The code below is to implement a stacked bar graph later of the data. This is still a work in progress, and I will be adding more charts and data as I continue to work on this project.

```
In [19]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

def stacked_bar(data, series_labels, category_labels=None,
               show_values=False, value_format="{}", y_label=None,
               grid=True, reverse=False):
    """Plots a stacked bar chart with the data and labels provided.

    Keyword arguments:
    data          -- 2-dimensional numpy array or nested list
                   containing data for each series in rows
    series_labels -- list of series labels (these appear in
                   the legend)
    category_labels -- list of category labels (these appear
                   on the x-axis)
    show_values   -- If True then numeric value labels will
                   be shown on each bar
    value_format  -- Format string for numeric value labels
                   (default is "{}")
    y_label       -- Label for y-axis (str)
    grid          -- If True display grid
    reverse       -- If True reverse the order that the
                   series are displayed (left-to-right
                   or right-to-left)

    """
    ny = len(data[0])
    ind = list(range(ny))

    axes = []
    cum_size = np.zeros(ny)

    data = np.array(data)

    if reverse:
        data = np.flip(data, axis=1)
        category_labels = reversed(category_labels)

    for i, row_data in enumerate(data):
        axes.append(plt.bar(ind, row_data, bottom=cum_size,
                           label=series_labels[i]))
        cum_size += row_data
```

```

if category_labels:
    plt.xticks(ind, category_labels)

if y_label:
    plt.ylabel(y_label)

plt.legend()

if grid:
    plt.grid()

```

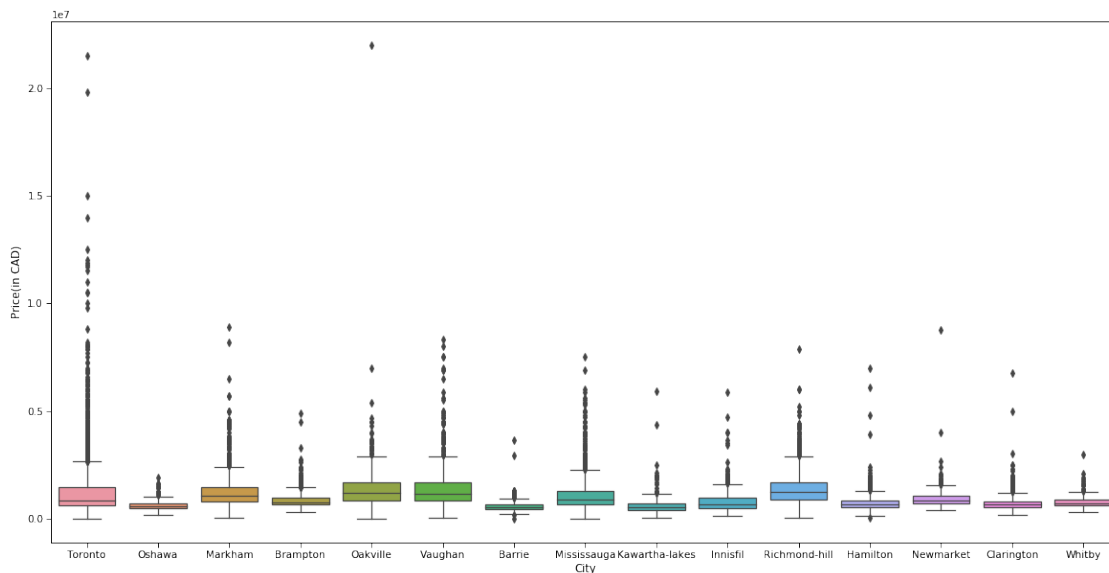
```

In [20]: import seaborn as sns
        # import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

        # sns.set_style("darkgrid")
        sns.set_context(context="paper", font_scale=1.2)
        sns.boxplot(x= housing["City"], y= housing["Price(in CAD)"])

```

Out[20]: <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x25fd9394860>



Much Better. As opposed to our scatterplot from earlier, I find that this boxplot helps convey a lot more information. Something that surprised me about the data is the fact that the median house value for all of the cities appear to be close. I was expecting cities which I perceived to be “richer”, to have much higher median values. However, what we can notice is that these richer cities have a lot more outliers, that are in that higher range. Taking a look at Toronto, Markham, Oakville, Vaughan, and Richmond-Hill, we can see that they have a lot more outliers in that higher price range. Overall, we can gather from the data that all cities in the GTA have a very similar median house value, however, some have a lot more outliers in those higher price ranges than others, namely, the ones we hear as being “rich” neighbourhoods.

However, I still had some questions. Given that a house has all other characteristics equal, would a house be valued more just because it is in another city? This is what I wanted to continue exploring. We can get a quick idea about this calling the median method after grouping by city.

```
In [21]: housing.groupby("City").median()
```

```
Out[21]:
```

	Latitude	Longitude	Price(in CAD)	# of Bathrooms	\
City					
Barrie	44.371646	-79.690698	544500.0	3	
Brampton	43.708165	-79.759528	749900.0	3	
Clarington	43.917411	-78.688948	643950.0	3	
Hamilton	43.236815	-79.844465	649900.0	3	
Innisfil	44.306908	-79.548443	674500.0	3	
Kawartha-lakes	44.516657	-78.743576	534900.0	2	
Markham	43.866016	-79.309689	1058000.0	3	
Mississauga	43.575884	-79.647491	889000.0	3	
Newmarket	44.048787	-79.463252	819800.0	3	
Oakville	43.447986	-79.705929	1199000.0	3	
Oshawa	43.911950	-78.859823	561400.0	3	
Richmond-hill	43.881955	-79.439064	1233500.0	4	
Toronto	43.715204	-79.397138	849950.0	2	
Vaughan	43.825952	-79.509967	1150000.0	4	
Whitby	43.907299	-78.947341	700000.0	3	

	# of Bedrooms	Height(in stories)	# of Kitchens	\
City				
Barrie	4	2.0	1.0	
Brampton	4	2.0	1.0	
Clarington	4	2.0	1.0	
Hamilton	4	2.0	1.0	
Innisfil	3	2.0	1.0	
Kawartha-lakes	3	1.0	1.0	
Markham	4	2.0	1.0	
Mississauga	4	2.0	1.0	
Newmarket	4	2.0	1.0	
Oakville	4	2.0	1.0	
Oshawa	4	2.0	1.0	
Richmond-hill	4	2.0	1.0	
Toronto	3	2.0	1.0	
Vaughan	4	2.0	1.0	
Whitby	4	2.0	1.0	

	# of Parking Spaces	Total Lot Size(in square ft.)	\
City			
Barrie	3.0	5390.46340	
Brampton	3.0	3635.61195	
Clarington	2.0	4913.63525	
Hamilton	3.0	4490.40890	

Innisfil	4.0	8000.00000
Kawartha-lakes	4.0	15260.00000
Markham	3.0	4689.79480
Mississauga	4.0	5722.36210
Newmarket	4.0	5122.17200
Oakville	3.0	6017.73240
Oshawa	3.0	4596.64490
Richmond-hill	4.0	5246.00000
Toronto	3.0	5040.00000
Vaughan	3.0	4311.51050
Whitby	3.0	4650.44320

	pricing_cat
City	
Barrie	500000.0
Brampton	700000.0
Clarington	600000.0
Hamilton	600000.0
Innisfil	700000.0
Kawartha-lakes	500000.0
Markham	1100000.0
Mississauga	900000.0
Newmarket	800000.0
Oakville	1200000.0
Oshawa	600000.0
Richmond-hill	1200000.0
Toronto	800000.0
Vaughan	1200000.0
Whitby	700000.0

So, looking at the table we can notice a number of things. Firstly, the median house values are not as close as what the boxplot is showing. Looking at this table, the differences in median house values are a bit more drastic. Looking at the actual values, the differences in house value are much more evident.

We can see that the median house values are much higher in cities like Richmond-Hill, Oakville, Vaughan, Markham, etc. Also, to answer my question from before, location does appear to be a big factor. For example, the chart shows that that a 3 bathroom and 4 bedroom house in Markham has a median house value that is much less than a house with similar characteristics in Mississauga. In fact, the houses in Mississauga have a cheaper median value, with a larger lot size in comparison with Markham!

I also found it interesting that increase in price, does not necessarily correlate with a larger lot size or even more bedrooms and bathrooms. More rural cities like Innisfil offer larger lot sizes at much cheaper prices.

```
In [22]: housing.groupby("City").mean()
```

```
Out[22]:
```

	Latitude	Longitude	Price(in CAD)	# of Bathrooms	\
City					

Barrie	44.372442	-79.682594	5.742365e+05	2.695364
Brampton	43.712783	-79.759831	8.539067e+05	3.423280
Clarington	43.932429	-78.697343	7.697274e+05	2.751337
Hamilton	43.235404	-79.842744	7.631298e+05	2.737303
Innisfil	44.295131	-79.561133	8.351651e+05	2.664160
Kawartha-lakes	44.478672	-78.737235	6.340200e+05	2.063333
Markham	43.855916	-79.317897	1.300390e+06	3.482366
Mississauga	43.578047	-79.656588	1.171381e+06	3.186574
Newmarket	44.047826	-79.461744	9.658156e+05	3.376900
Oakville	43.447086	-79.707264	1.411635e+06	3.443674
Oshawa	43.911307	-78.863734	5.963383e+05	2.739544
Richmond-hill	43.890603	-79.440855	1.443279e+06	3.611617
Toronto	43.715874	-79.392024	1.256467e+06	2.599777
Vaughan	43.827583	-79.526486	1.450969e+06	3.785803
Whitby	43.915900	-78.945864	8.017837e+05	3.264368

	# of Bedrooms	Height(in stories)	# of Kitchens \
City			
Barrie	3.644592	1.708333	1.156250
Brampton	4.203704	1.961612	1.325333
Clarington	3.462567	1.670588	1.101124
Hamilton	3.770578	1.702857	1.275676
Innisfil	3.350877	1.572727	1.094488
Kawartha-lakes	3.193333	1.294776	1.115108
Markham	3.980660	2.017192	1.167048
Mississauga	3.800349	1.881533	1.195013
Newmarket	4.009119	1.892405	1.226300
Oakville	3.788562	1.920668	1.071678
Oshawa	3.669202	1.650307	1.225869
Richmond-hill	4.116173	1.912088	1.245370
Toronto	3.332737	1.835043	1.250284
Vaughan	3.971357	2.075038	1.255051
Whitby	3.885057	1.850299	1.143678

	# of Parking Spaces	Total Lot Size(in square ft.) \
City		
Barrie	3.216667	5664.483476
Brampton	3.227766	5363.239002
Clarington	2.738462	15946.609865
Hamilton	3.325527	11625.353530
Innisfil	3.655488	20348.946000
Kawartha-lakes	3.886792	33074.960638
Markham	3.373134	7288.144178
Mississauga	3.502525	7995.136732
Newmarket	3.648936	6703.146041
Oakville	3.436620	7096.662804
Oshawa	3.308725	5560.393303
Richmond-hill	3.616162	7230.602442

Toronto	3.298597	5998.385294
Vaughan	3.307820	7384.937719
Whitby	3.319444	7344.905052

	pricing_cat
City	
Barrie	5.671082e+05
Brampton	8.481481e+05
Clarington	7.620321e+05
Hamilton	7.579685e+05
Innisfil	8.298246e+05
Kawartha-lakes	6.266667e+05
Markham	1.298862e+06
Mississauga	1.168091e+06
Newmarket	9.623100e+05
Oakville	1.407106e+06
Oshawa	5.922053e+05
Richmond-hill	1.443052e+06
Toronto	1.253587e+06
Vaughan	1.449066e+06
Whitby	7.936782e+05

```
In [23]: housing = strat_train_set.drop("Price(in CAD)", axis=1)
housing_labels = strat_train_set["Price(in CAD)"].copy()
```

1.4 Machine Learning/Modelling Stage

Moving onto prepping the data to make it suitable to apply Machine Learning algorithms. Recall that our data had a lot of values missing from it initially. To aid in this, we can use the imputer method, which fills in for these missing values using the median.

```
In [24]: from sklearn.impute import SimpleImputer
```

```
imputer = SimpleImputer(strategy="median")
```

```
In [25]: housing_num = housing.drop(['Address', 'Postal Code', 'City', 'Neighbourhood', 'Lot-S',
                                     'House HTML'], axis=1)
imputer.fit(housing_num)
```

```
Out [25]: SimpleImputer(copy=True, fill_value=None, missing_values=nan,
                        strategy='median', verbose=0)
```

```
In [26]: imputer.statistics_
```

```
Out [26]: array([[ 4.3761637e+01, -7.9450643e+01,  3.0000000e+00,  4.0000000e+00,
                   2.0000000e+00,  1.0000000e+00,  3.0000000e+00,  4.9621000e+03])
```

```
In [27]: housing_num.median().values
```

```
Out[27]: array([ 4.3761637e+01, -7.9450643e+01,  3.0000000e+00,  4.0000000e+00,
                2.0000000e+00,  1.0000000e+00,  3.0000000e+00,  4.9621000e+03])
```

```
In [28]: X = imputer.transform(housing_num)
         print(X)
```

```
[ 4.37807300e+01 -7.92469550e+01  3.00000000e+00 ...  1.00000000e+00
 3.00000000e+00  4.96210000e+03]
[ 4.38971790e+01 -7.88350350e+01  2.00000000e+00 ...  2.00000000e+00
 4.00000000e+00  5.00000000e+03]
[ 4.38919560e+01 -7.92766830e+01  2.00000000e+00 ...  1.00000000e+00
 3.00000000e+00  4.96210000e+03]
...
[ 4.38578245e+01 -7.88497430e+01  2.00000000e+00 ...  1.00000000e+00
 3.00000000e+00  3.03160000e+03]
[ 4.43940230e+01 -7.97239240e+01  2.00000000e+00 ...  1.00000000e+00
 4.00000000e+00  4.40083380e+03]
[ 4.36485400e+01 -7.97500900e+01  3.00000000e+00 ...  1.00000000e+00
 2.00000000e+00  2.45629450e+03]]
```

```
In [29]: import pandas as pd
         housing_tr = pd.DataFrame(X, columns=housing_num.columns)
```

```
In [30]: from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
         encoder = LabelEncoder()
         housing_cat = housing["Basement(finished or not)"]
         housing_cat_2 = housing["City"]
         housing_cat_encoded = encoder.fit_transform(housing_cat)
         housing_cat_encoded_2 = encoder.fit_transform(housing_cat_2)
         housing_cat_encoded
```

```
Out[30]: array([1, 1, 1, ..., 0, 1, 0])
```

Now, one final step before applying the Machine Learning algorithms is encoding the values. We are using something known as “One Hot Encoding” which transforms non-categorical data into numerical values (either one or zero). This can be easily fed into the algorithm for us to be able to utilize various algorithms. This is not a requirement for all Machine Learning Algorithms, however, it just makes the task a lot easier as we just have to do it once, and apply it to all our ML algorithms afterwards

```
In [31]: from sklearn.preprocessing import OneHotEncoder
         encoder, encoder_2 = OneHotEncoder(), OneHotEncoder()
         housing_cat_1hot = encoder.fit_transform(housing_cat_encoded.reshape(-1, 1))
         housing_cat_1hot_2 = encoder_2.fit_transform(housing_cat_encoded_2.reshape(-1, 1))
         housing_cat_1hot.toarray()
         housing_cat_1hot_2.toarray()
```

C:\Users\Adit Krishnan\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\sklearn\preprocessing_encoders.py:371: FutureWarning: If you want the future behaviour and silence this warning, you can specify "categories='auto'"

In case you used a LabelEncoder before this OneHotEncoder to convert the categories to integers:

```
warnings.warn(msg, FutureWarning)
```

C:\Users\Adit Krishnan\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\sklearn\preprocessing_encoders.py:371: FutureWarning: In the future 'auto' will be the default value of 'categories' for OneHotEncoder. If you want the future behaviour and silence this warning, you can specify 'categories='auto''

In case you used a LabelEncoder before this OneHotEncoder to convert the categories to integers:

```
warnings.warn(msg, FutureWarning)
```

```
Out[31]: array([[0., 0., 0., ..., 1., 0., 0.],
                [0., 0., 0., ..., 0., 0., 0.],
                [0., 0., 0., ..., 0., 0., 0.],
                ...,
                [0., 0., 0., ..., 0., 0., 0.],
                [1., 0., 0., ..., 0., 0., 0.],
                [0., 1., 0., ..., 0., 0., 0.]])
```

```
In [32]: from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelBinarizer
encoder = LabelBinarizer()
housing_cat_1hot = encoder.fit_transform(housing_cat)
```

```
In [33]: from sklearn.pipeline import FeatureUnion, Pipeline
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.base import BaseEstimator, TransformerMixin
from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelBinarizer
from sklearn.impute import SimpleImputer
from sklearn.base import TransformerMixin
```

```
class MyLabelBinarizer(TransformerMixin):
    def __init__(self, *args, **kwargs):
        self.encoder = LabelBinarizer(*args, **kwargs)
    def fit(self, x, y=0):
        self.encoder.fit(x)
        return self
    def transform(self, x, y=0):
        return self.encoder.transform(x)
```

```
class DataFrameSelector(BaseEstimator, TransformerMixin):
    def __init__(self, attribute_names):
        self.attribute_names = attribute_names
    def fit(self, X, y=None):
        return self
    def transform(self, X):
        return X[self.attribute_names].values
```

```
num_attribs = list(housing_num)
cat_attribs = ["Basement(finished or not)"]
```

```
num_pipeline = Pipeline([
```

```

        ('selector', DataFrameSelector(num_attribs)),
        ('imputer', SimpleImputer(strategy="median")),
        ('std_scaler', StandardScaler()),
    ])

    cat_pipeline = Pipeline([
        ('selector', DataFrameSelector(cat_attribs)),
        ('label_binarizer', MyLabelBinarizer()),
    ])

    full_pipeline = FeatureUnion(transformer_list=[
        ("num_pipeline", num_pipeline),
        ("cat_pipeline", cat_pipeline),
    ])

```

Just to summarize everything we have done with the dataset thus far, and so that it does not have to be repeated everytime we create a new subset of the housing data, I have utilized sklearn's pipeline method so that we can just call the full_pipeline method to quickly and reliably transform our data whenever it is needed.

```

In [34]: housing_prepared = full_pipeline.fit_transform(housing)
        housing_prepared

```

```

Out[34]: array([[ -4.87862795e-03,  6.87154679e-01,  6.30111712e-04, ...,
                  0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00],
                [ 4.57018461e-01,  2.13544511e+00, -6.82988586e-01, ...,
                  0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00],
                [ 4.36301336e-01,  5.82632495e-01, -6.82988586e-01, ...,
                  0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00],
                ...,
                [ 3.00918117e-01,  2.08373251e+00, -6.82988586e-01, ...,
                  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00],
                [ 2.42775928e+00, -9.89844833e-01, -6.82988586e-01, ...,
                  0.00000000e+00,  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00],
                [-5.29212682e-01, -1.08184320e+00,  6.30111712e-04, ...,
                  1.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00,  0.00000000e+00]])

```

Our data is finally ready to be used for Machine Learning. One of the most common and basic algorithms is Linear Regression. I am just going to test this model to see that everything is working probably thus far.

```

In [35]: from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression

```

```

lin_reg = LinearRegression()
lin_reg.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)

```

```

Out[35]: LinearRegression(copy_X=True, fit_intercept=True, n_jobs=None,
                          normalize=False)

```

```
In [36]: some_data = housing.iloc[:5]
        some_labels = housing_labels.iloc[:5]
        some_data_prepared = full_pipeline.transform(some_data)
        print("Predictions:\t", lin_reg.predict(some_data_prepared))
        print("Labels:\t\t", list(some_labels))

Predictions:      [1138786.2798816   881809.1733219   699133.4982525   928385.21957356
 773111.33271135]
Labels:      [539900.0, 549900.0, 485000.0, 349000.0, 689900.0]
```

Nice! Atleast everything is working properly. However, as is immediately evident, the regression is working quite poorly, as the predictions it is making is way off. Let's measure the mean squared error to see exactly how bad it is performing.

```
In [37]: from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
        import numpy as np
        housing_predictions = lin_reg.predict(housing_prepared)
        lin_mse = mean_squared_error(housing_labels, housing_predictions)
        lin_rmse = np.sqrt(lin_mse)
        lin_rmse
```

```
Out [37]: 784487.526005666
```

With a mean squared error of nearly \$754,862 (indicates that this is the margin of error), this is clearly not the most effective Machine Learning Algorithm. Our best course of action is to move on, and attempt to find a more effective ML algorithm.

```
In [38]: from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor
```

```
        tree_reg = DecisionTreeRegressor()
        tree_reg.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)
```

```
Out [38]: DecisionTreeRegressor(criterion='mse', max_depth=None, max_features=None,
                                max_leaf_nodes=None, min_impurity_decrease=0.0,
                                min_impurity_split=None, min_samples_leaf=1,
                                min_samples_split=2, min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0,
                                presort=False, random_state=None, splitter='best')
```

Another method we can try is a Decision Tree Regressor, which is a much more advanced algorithm than Linear Regression and will most probably yield much better results.

```
In [39]: some_data = housing.iloc[:5]
        some_labels = housing_labels.iloc[:5]
        some_data_prepared = full_pipeline.transform(some_data)
        print("Predictions:\t", tree_reg.predict(some_data_prepared))
        print("Labels:\t\t", list(some_labels))
```

```
Predictions:      [539900. 549900. 485000. 349000. 689900.]
Labels:      [539900.0, 549900.0, 485000.0, 349000.0, 689900.0]
```

What! It appears our algorithm is working perfectly! NO, not true. What we are seeing here is an example of something known as “overfitting”, as the algorithm is modelling the training set too well and is picking up on the noise. This situation is not ideal, as it indicates that the algorithm fits the training set data too well and thus, does not generalize well to other datasets. We can see this by computing the mean squared error, which I have below.

While it is not perfect, we can definitely see that we are improving and on the right track.

```
In [58]: import numpy as np
housing_predictions = tree_reg.predict(housing_prepared)
tree_mse = mean_squared_error(housing_labels, housing_predictions)
tree_rmse = np.sqrt(tree_mse)
tree_rmse
```

Out [58]: 632964.2559350071

Now, we are using a more powerful Machine Learning model known as a Decision Tree Regressor and we can see that the mean squared error has reduced much more drastically, so we are on the right track to picking the most effective model. Let’s now working on fine tuning this model.

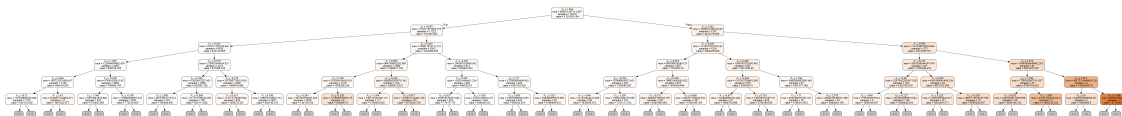
```
In [41]: from sklearn.externals.six import StringIO
from IPython.display import Image
from sklearn.tree import export_graphviz

dot_data = StringIO()

export_graphviz(
    tree_reg,
    max_depth = 5,
    out_file="decision_tree.dot",
    filled=True,
    rounded=True,
    special_characters=True
    #     feature_names=housing_labels
)

Image("decision_tree.png")
```

Out [41]:



Above, you can see a visualization of how the decision_tree makes decisions (the above image might be a bit hard to see, so I have also uploaded a png of the this same image in the same repository). Without getting too much into the fine details, the decision tree essentially tries to

split the training set in such a way that the MSE (Mean Squared Error) is minimized. The value that is predicted at each node is the average of the number of training samples of that particular node. I have not printed the entire tree here as it is quite extensive and my computer simply cannot handle it! However, this process is continued recursively until the algorithm decides that it cannot split any more, in which case that value is returned. This is a gross oversimplification and in reality a lot more goes into how the splits are decided (the CART algorithm, etc.), however, this graphic provides us with a good base level idea of how exactly it works.

Recall, that we had an issue with our decision tree overfitting the data really badly. This is quite a common issue with decision tree regressors, however, we can fix this by tuning and altering the hyperparameters of the model as we are going to do below.

```
In [42]: from sklearn.model_selection import cross_val_score
import numpy as np
scores = cross_val_score(tree_reg, housing_prepared, housing_labels, scoring="neg_mean_squared_error")
rmse_scores = np.sqrt(-scores)

def display_scores(scores):
    print("Scores: ", scores)
    print("Mean: ", scores.mean())
    print("Standard deviation: ", scores.std())

display_scores(rmse_scores)
```

Scores: [678103.41756729 728367.90341763 589514.84471097 699865.43928151
650274.37477212 647351.0106909 737659.2725168 697438.19237954
875628.9920093 569584.08231531]
Mean: 687378.7529661366
Standard deviation: 81499.33687433806

Above, I have also created a function which will allow us to get a complete picture regarding the accuracy of our algorithms. It will come in handy as we move onto evaluating the effectiveness of our various algorithms.

```
In [54]: from sklearn.model_selection import RandomizedSearchCV
from scipy.stats import randint as sp_randint

param_grid = {'max_depth': sp_randint(1, 100), 'max_features': sp_randint(2, 6),
              'min_samples_split': sp_randint(2, 200), 'min_samples_leaf': sp_randint(1, 50)}

forest_reg = DecisionTreeRegressor()

grid_search = RandomizedSearchCV(forest_reg, param_grid, cv=5, iid=False)

grid_search.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)
```

Out [54]: RandomizedSearchCV(cv=5, error_score='raise-deprecating',
estimator=DecisionTreeRegressor(criterion='mse', max_depth=None, max_features=None, min_samples_leaf=1, min_samples_split=2, min_weight_fraction=0.01, random_state=None, splitter='best'),
n_iter=10, param_grid={'max_depth': (1, 100), 'max_features': (2, 6), 'min_samples_split': (2, 200), 'min_samples_leaf': (1, 50)},
scoring='neg_mean_squared_error', verbose=0)


```

max_leaf_nodes=None, min_impurity_decrease=0.0,
min_impurity_split=None, min_samples_leaf=1,
min_samples_split=2, min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0,
presort=False, random_state=None, splitter='best'),
fit_params=None, iid=False, n_iter=10, n_jobs=None,
param_distributions={'max_depth': <scipy.stats._distn_infrastructure.rv_fro
pre_dispatch='2*n_jobs', random_state=None, refit=True,
return_train_score='warn', scoring=None, verbose=0)

```

In [55]: `grid_search.best_estimator_`

```

Out[55]: DecisionTreeRegressor(criterion='mse', max_depth=80, max_features=4,
max_leaf_nodes=None, min_impurity_decrease=0.0,
min_impurity_split=None, min_samples_leaf=6,
min_samples_split=117, min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0,
presort=False, random_state=None, splitter='best')

```

In [56]: `from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor`

```

tree_reg = grid_search.best_estimator_
tree_reg.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)
some_data = housing.iloc[:5]
some_labels = housing_labels.iloc[:5]
some_data_prepared = full_pipeline.transform(some_data)
print("Predictions:\t", tree_reg.predict(some_data_prepared))
print("Labels:\t\t", list(some_labels))

```

```

Predictions:      [1439646.56989247  674171.84090909  559666.33636364  638928.60526316
975876.13761468]
Labels:           [539900.0, 549900.0, 485000.0, 349000.0, 689900.0]

```

```

In [46]: import numpy as np
housing_predictions = tree_reg.predict(housing_prepared)
tree_mse = mean_squared_error(housing_labels, housing_predictions)
tree_rmse = np.sqrt(tree_mse)
tree_rmse

```

Out[46]: 575153.55120528

So we can see that by tuning the hyper-parameters, we were able to improve its score slightly. Playing around with the values more, we can probably reduce this mean squared error further. However, I feel that a different algorithm could work more effectively. Since we saw that the decision tree is overfitting our data, another algorithm we can use is the Random Forest Regressor. The best way to think of how a Random Forest Regressor works, is like a collection of decision tree regressors. The random forest regressor trains on a collection of decision forest regressors, each on a different random subset of the data. Then, to obtain the prediction, looks at the collection and picks the best one. This is obviously an oversimplification, but gives the gist of how it works.

```
In [47]: from sklearn.model_selection import cross_val_score
import numpy as np

lin_scores = cross_val_score(lin_reg, housing_prepared, housing_labels, scoring="neg_r
lin_rmse_scores = np.sqrt(-lin_scores)
display_scores(lin_rmse_scores)

Scores: [905937.1562455  731507.51176736 770690.73385133 793545.65010702
 690684.70468035 759703.93691312 880565.92632985 817647.27194965
 798475.77207244 699380.25203419]
Mean: 784813.8915950817
Standard deviation: 67090.2176049475
```

1.5 Random Forest Regressor

Below is my implementation of the Random Forest Regressor, on the data. The steps to implementing it to our dataset is nearly identical to Decision Trees (fitting, tuning, etc.)

```
In [48]: from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor
import warnings

with warnings.catch_warnings():
    # ignore all caught warnings
    warnings.filterwarnings("ignore")
    # execute code that will generate warnings
    forest_reg = RandomForestRegressor()
    forest_reg.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)
    forest_scores = cross_val_score(forest_reg, housing_prepared, housing_labels, scoring=
    forest_rmse_scores = np.sqrt(-forest_scores)
    display_scores(forest_rmse_scores)
```

```
C:\Users\Adit Krishnan\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\sklearn\ensemble\forest.py:246: FutureWarning:
"10 in version 0.20 to 100 in 0.22.", FutureWarning)
```

```
Scores: [606316.68492938 483272.13720027 496643.91825585 532327.9909786
 479926.38911157 503155.72629196 627416.93428443 470838.45888409
 659503.93011619 475411.18723718]
Mean: 533481.3357289518
Standard deviation: 67062.59409870602
```

```
In [49]: from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV

param_grid = [
    {'n_estimators': [3, 10, 30], 'max_features': [2, 4, 6, 8]},
    {'bootstrap': [False], 'n_estimators': [3, 10], 'max_features': [2, 3, 4]},
]
```

```

forest_reg = RandomForestRegressor()

grid_search = GridSearchCV(forest_reg, param_grid, cv=5,
scoring='neg_mean_squared_error')

grid_search.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)

```

```

Out [49]: GridSearchCV(cv=5, error_score='raise-deprecating',
    estimator=RandomForestRegressor(bootstrap=True, criterion='mse', max_depth=None,
    max_features='auto', max_leaf_nodes=None,
    min_impurity_decrease=0.0, min_impurity_split=None,
    min_samples_leaf=1, min_samples_split=2,
    min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0, n_estimators='warn', n_jobs=None,
    oob_score=False, random_state=None, verbose=0, warm_start=False),
    fit_params=None, iid='warn', n_jobs=None,
    param_grid=[{'n_estimators': [3, 10, 30], 'max_features': [2, 4, 6, 8]}, {'boo
    pre_dispatch='2*n_jobs', refit=True, return_train_score='warn',
    scoring='neg_mean_squared_error', verbose=0)

```

```

In [50]: grid_search.best_estimator_

```

```

Out [50]: RandomForestRegressor(bootstrap=True, criterion='mse', max_depth=None,
    max_features=6, max_leaf_nodes=None, min_impurity_decrease=0.0,
    min_impurity_split=None, min_samples_leaf=1,
    min_samples_split=2, min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0,
    n_estimators=30, n_jobs=None, oob_score=False,
    random_state=None, verbose=0, warm_start=False)

```

```

In [51]: cvres = grid_search.cv_results_
    for mean_score, params in zip(cvres["mean_test_score"], cvres["params"]):
        print(np.sqrt(-mean_score), params)

```

```

654896.993849965 {'max_features': 2, 'n_estimators': 3}
560003.658071006 {'max_features': 2, 'n_estimators': 10}
555666.2297866158 {'max_features': 2, 'n_estimators': 30}
603581.32945781 {'max_features': 4, 'n_estimators': 3}
542203.3442475422 {'max_features': 4, 'n_estimators': 10}
530831.9895079421 {'max_features': 4, 'n_estimators': 30}
598377.2779299777 {'max_features': 6, 'n_estimators': 3}
544215.8819611517 {'max_features': 6, 'n_estimators': 10}
508440.150062489 {'max_features': 6, 'n_estimators': 30}
580314.7250231031 {'max_features': 8, 'n_estimators': 3}
555143.1945704219 {'max_features': 8, 'n_estimators': 10}
509720.4070046275 {'max_features': 8, 'n_estimators': 30}
636541.7602351859 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 2, 'n_estimators': 3}
561642.2984183421 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 2, 'n_estimators': 10}
614978.5758393216 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 3, 'n_estimators': 3}
556090.0606458805 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 3, 'n_estimators': 10}

```

```
600084.0839064181 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 4, 'n_estimators': 3}
536357.4548413595 {'bootstrap': False, 'max_features': 4, 'n_estimators': 10}
```

Here I was actually displayed some of the parameter values that the graph was testing. We can see that by calling `best_estimator_`, we are able to get the best result immediately.

```
In [52]: feature_importances = grid_search.best_estimator_.feature_importances_
         feature_importances
```

```
Out[52]: array([0.14087686, 0.14609311, 0.36529991, 0.07371385, 0.01966259,
                0.0277146 , 0.03116941, 0.18387668, 0.00513103, 0.00436592,
                0.00209605])
```

```
In [53]: final_model = grid_search.best_estimator_

         X_test = strat_test_set.drop("Price(in CAD)", axis=1)
         y_test = strat_test_set["Price(in CAD)"].copy()

         X_test_prepared = full_pipeline.transform(X_test)

         final_predictions = final_model.predict(X_test_prepared)

         final_mse = mean_squared_error(y_test, final_predictions)
         final_rmse = np.sqrt(final_mse)
         print(final_rmse)
```

```
537303.4689205433
```

Overall, we can see that the Random Forest Regressor was able to provide us with the best model for our data-set, by minimizing the mean squared error by the most. However, I am far from done with this project. I will continue to tune my hyper-parameters, as realistically, having MSE of over 500,000 is not good at all. Stay tuned for more updates!