## Entity Matching for Online Marketplaces

# Applying Machine Learning to Product Matching

### Kyle Gilde

#### 5/14/2019

Abstract: This paper explores the intersection of entity matching, machine learning and online marketplaces. Entity matching, or finding references that point to the same real-world object, has existed as a field for more than half a century. The field of machine learning classification began about twenty-five years ago and has seen breakthroughs recently with processing natural language. In the last ten years, online multi-vendor marketplaces have proliferated. To maximize the benefits of sellers competing for customers, the marketplace firm must be able to consolidate the product offers in its catalog that belong to the same real-world product. This paper addresses the following questions: 1. To what degree can machine learning algorithms solve the entity matching problem for online marketplaces? 2. Which types of feature representations of text produce the best classification results when the offer catalog is rife with missing values? The results demonstrate that machine learning classifiers can detect offer *matches* and *non-matches*, but exhibit the tradeoff between precision and recall. Additionally, despite the sparsity in the dataset, an attribute comparison approach to feature representation proves superior to the single-document representation.

Key Words: Entity Matching, Product Matching, Machine Learning, Natural Language
Processing

#### 1 Introduction

In the last ten years, the proportion of e-commerce sales within the U.S. retail industry has more than doubled from less than 4% to nearly 10%<sup>1</sup> and is projected to continue in the years to come.<sup>2</sup> Within the e-commerce trend, a growing number of companies have adopted a multi-seller virtual marketplace model. This model allows retailers to vastly expand the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> U.S. Census Bureau News (2018, November 19) QUARTERLY RETAIL E-COMMERCE SALES *Census.gov*. Retrieved 10 February 2019, from https://www.census.gov/retail/mrts/www/data/pdf/ec\_current.pdf

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Keyes, D. (2017, August 11) *E-Commerce will make up 17% of all US retail sales by 2022 – and one company is the main reason. Business Insider*. Retrieved 10 February 2019, from https://www.businessinsider.com/e-commerce-retail-sales-2022-amazon-2017-8

assortment of their virtual inventory without the costs associated with holding physical inventory.<sup>3</sup> Additionally, online retailers can leverage marketplace competition to create a better customer experience and increase sales conversion. Instead of having offers for the same product appear as separate product listings, the virtual marketplace can decrease customers' cognitive burden by identifying these offers as the same product and consolidating them on to a single web page. Juxtaposing these multiple offers stimulates vendor competition, and customers benefit by getting lower prices and better shipping service. The business hosting the online marketplace gains increased sales conversion, customer loyalty, and a wealth of information about both consumer and seller behaviors. In 2016, half of global online retail sales occurred on multi-seller virtual marketplaces, and this proportion is forecasted to rise to two-thirds by 2021.<sup>4</sup>

Before maximizing the benefits of marketplace competition, online retailers must devise a method for determining whether offers from different sellers refer to the same real-world product. Since the advent of electronic databases, a number of entity matching (EM) techniques have been developed to accomplish this information retrieval task that Mudgal et al. (2018) describe as "[finding] data instances that refer to the same real-world entity." Initially, EM techniques were a means for researchers to create new datasets by combining different sources of data. In the age of Internet, EM methodology falls within the domains of natural language processing and machine learning (ML). While reviewing the preceding practices, this paper will focus on which ML techniques can most effectively match instances of text.

#### 2 Literature Review

Throughout its practice, EM, which has also been known as entity resolution, record linkage and duplicate detection, aims to solve the problem of what Elmagarmid et al. (2007) describe as *lexical heterogeneity*, i.e. textual variations among references for the same referent. The sources of these variations are twofold. First, instances of data vary in quality and format, which is caused by the absence of standardized conventions, incomplete information and transcription errors (Elmagarmid et al., 2007). Secondly, human language allows for the same information to be communicated in a multitude of ways. Vastly differing written symbols can be used to express the same idea. The process of EM can be represented as three tasks: blocking, feature representation and classification.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Rigg, O. (2018, December 13) *The Pros And Cons Of The Marketplace Model For E-Commerce. Forbes.com.* Retrieved 10 February 2019, from

https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesnycouncil/2018/12/13/the-pros-and-cons-of-the-marketplace-model-for-e-commerce/#feb71485935d

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Howland, D. (2017, September 14) *Forrester: Half of online sales occur on marketplaces*. (2017). *Retail Dive*. Retrieved 10 February 2019, from https://www.retaildive.com/news/forrester-half-of-online-sales-occur-on-marketplaces/504913/

# 2.1 Blocking

Blocking is a technique to reduce search space to a computationally-manageable size (Kopcke and Rahm, 2009). In blocking, the values in one or more attributes are employed to to partition the data instances into smaller groups, i.e. blocks, before generating all of the possible document pairs. Blocking is a useful first step for any corpus of moderate-to-large size because the number of reference pairs increases exponentially. For a corpus of n documents, the number of pairwise combinations is represented by n(n-1)/2. Therefore, a corpus of ten thousand references generates nearly fifty million pairs, and and a corpus of one hundred thousand yields nearly five billion pairs. While facilitating greater efficiencies in the steps to follow, the downside of blocking is that segregating the documents by attribute values that are too particular may preclude legitimate matches from consideration.

# 2.2 Feature Representation

Feature representation generally involves three parts: text normalization, encoding and comparison. Text normalization, the process of transforming the text into a standard format, can reduce lexical heterogeneity. It effectively eliminates variations caused by formatting differences, but only marginally mitigates variation from different symbolic representations of the same meaning. The Russell soundex system was one of the first methods of normalizing text and was used by Newcombe et al. (1959), who were among the earliest of EM practitioners. Using punch-card records and computers, they attempted to match the parental names on birth certificates to the names on marriage records by encoding the names as phonetic representations.

Stemming is a text normalization technique that truncates words to their roots by removing their suffixes, which is another way to minimize symbolic differences in the text. Porter (1980) used the example of stemming the words *connected*, *connecting*, *connection* and *connections* to the root word *connect*. This method reduces some of the symbolic disparities so that string-based and token-based similarity approaches can recognize the shared meaning.

Encoding transforms text into numeric representations. A widely adopted encoding method for paragraph-length text is the token-based bag-of-words model. It encodes a corpus as a sparse matrix of term frequencies with the rows representing the documents and the columns representing the terms. Once encoded, a distance function like cosine similarity or Euclidean can be used to compare the texts. However, as its name implies, the drawbacks of the bag-of-words model include that it does not account for the order of words or for the shared meaning of the different symbols (Mikolov and Le, 2014).

An alternative to the BOW, which skips the encoding step, is to use an edit distance function to measure the character similarity between short- to sentence-length strings. For instance, the Levenshtein function measures the number of character deletions, insertions and substitutions required to make one string match another (Elmagarmid 2007). The limitation of these string-based approaches is that they may report large textual dissimilarity between a pair of

data instances that human being would interpret as being synonymous. For example, a human being understands that the terms HP and Hewlett Packard represent the same company. However, a scaled Levenshtein similar function finds that these strings have a match rate of only 13%.

### 2.3 Classification

The final step of EM is classification, which is used to determine whether two texts are matches or not. In the twentieth century, EM practitioners like Newcombe et al. (1959) and Fellegi and Sunter (1969) accomplished classification by combining string-similarity approaches with probabilistic Naive Bayes models and decision-rule frameworks. More recently, ML approaches to EM view the task as a applying classification algorithms to pairs of references that are either *matches* or *not-matches*.

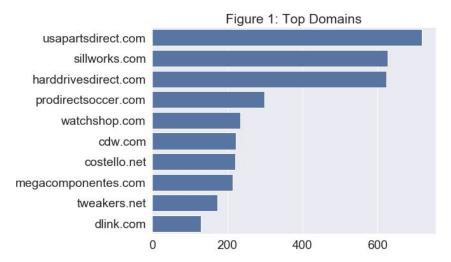
Chollet (2017) posits the origin of the current era of ML development originated in the 1990s with the development of the kernel-based support vector machine (SVM) algorithm, which employs a computationally efficient method to find good decision boundaries in classification problems. In the 2000s, Breiman (2001) formulated the Random Forest (RF) algorithm, which surpassed SVM performance. In recent years, the stochastic gradient boosting machines (SGB) algorithm, proposed by Friedman (2001), has surpassed the performance and popularity of RF. Both RF and SGB rely on the ML concepts of ensembling and bagging. Bagging is short for bootstrap aggregation, and it refers to the process of selecting a random subset of the training observations for each tree model. Ensembling is a technique that creates several weak models and combines them to yield better predictions. Both techniques produce models with reduced variances and less overfitting to the training data. The primary difference between the two algorithms is that in RF the tree models are built independently of each other while they are built successively in SGB. In SGB, after the first tree model is fit, each successive model is fit to the gradient, i.e. residuals, of the previous model, which produces iteratively smaller gradients.

### 3 Data Exploration

The dataset for this paper is the *WDC Training Dataset and Gold Standard for Large-Scale Product Matching* (LSPM), which was created from the Common Crawl web-data corpus and published in December 2018 by a group of researchers at the University of Mannheim. Their goal was to create an entity-matching benchmark dataset with a high degree of heterogeneity and a large enough sample size to train word embeddings and deep-learning matchers. In total, it consists of sixteen million English-language product offers from forty-three thousand websites.

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> http://webdatacommons.org/largescaleproductcorpus/index.html



The subset of offers in the training and test datasets originate from 471 domains, and the ten most frequent are shown in Figure 1. This sort of large, amalgamated offer catalog is an apt approximation of the multi-vendor offers a business would collect to start an online marketplace.

#### 3.1 Offer Features

After parsing the millions of JSON of arrays, the dataset yields nine attributes that could be considered as offer features. However, as Figure 2 shows, six of them are missing the majority of their values. The fill rates for the primary sources of text, the offer *name* and *description*, are the two highest at near 100% and 75%, respectively. This challenging level of sparsity resembles the inconsistent quantity and quality of information submitted to online marketplaces.

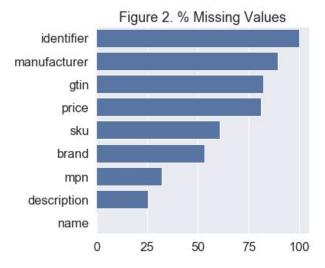


Figure 3 shows that there is little correlation between the missing values of the variables. This indicates that the data points are likely missing completely at random and not a source of

bias. The cells in Figure 3 without numbers have correlations near zero and comprise more than half of the variable combinations. The highest correlations are only positive and negative 0.3.

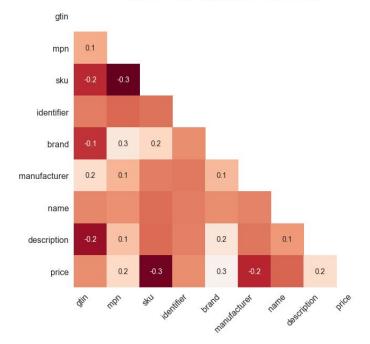
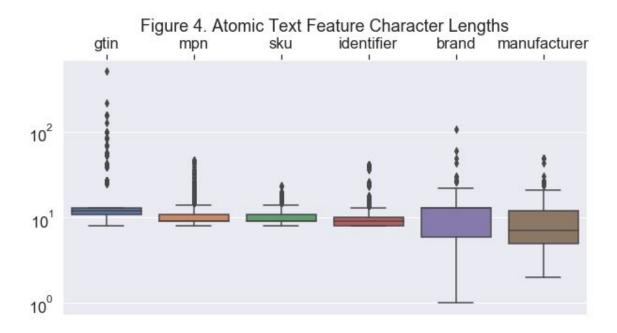


Figure 3. Missing Value Correlation

Apart from the price, the dataset contains eight textual attributes, and there are three broad feature types. First, there are six atomic text features for which edit distance functions can be used to measure the similarity. Four of these are alphanumeric product identifiers with a median length of around ten characters (Fig. 4). If used consistently, the *gtin* (global trade item number), *mpn* (manufacturer part number), *sku* (stock-keeping unit) and a generic *identifier* can definitively identify products. However, because the majority of these values are missing, they are likely to not be as determinative.



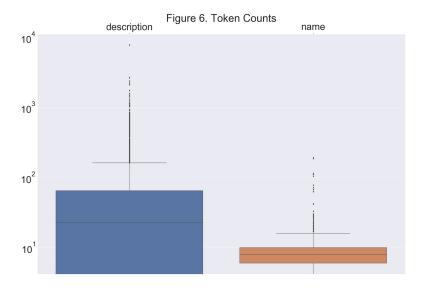
The other two atomic features are the *brand* and *manufacturer*. While having similar median character lengths as the gtin, mpn, sku, and identifier attributes, the brand and manufacturer attributes have wider interquartile ranges with greater character length variance. Figure 5. shows the ten most frequent values and how these variables share much of the same information. In fact, when both attributes have a value, these values match in 75% of the instances.

manufacturer brand hp enterprise daniel wellington nike casio gopro canon gopro camera seagate g canon daniel wellington logitech seiko casio hp nilox intel sandisk seagate asics sony 0 1000 2000 0 50 value counts value counts

Figure 5. Most Frequent Values

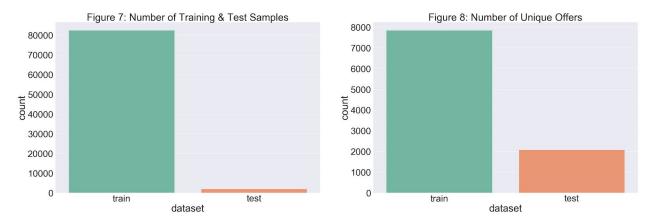
The second and third types of textual features are the offer *name* and offer *description* features (Fig 6.). With a median of eight tokens, the *name* feature is approximately the length of a sentence, and this length is still short enough for edit distance functions. With a median of twenty-three words and a much greater variability in word counts, the paragraph-length

*description* is an ideal candidate for the bag-of-words approach to measuring similarity. These attributes are the primary sources of textual features.



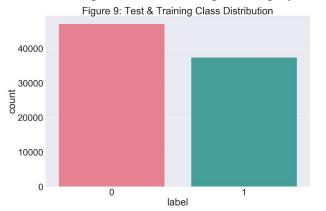
3.1 Training & Test Dataset

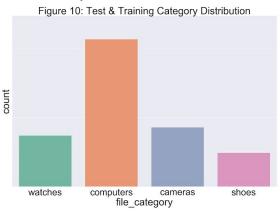
With 82,000 offer pairs for training and 2,100 for testing, the size of Mannheim group's training data is considerably larger than many other publicly available hand-labeled data (Fig. 7). While the training set is composed of less than 8,000 unique offers, the testing set contains a significantly larger proportion of unique offers with 2,000 (Fig. 8).



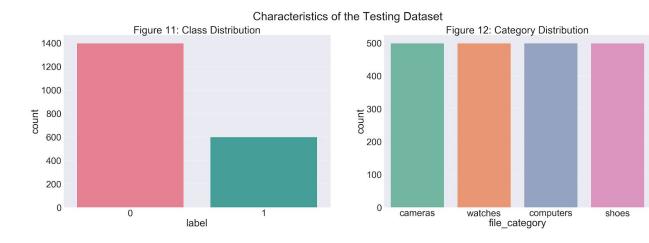
The *match* (1) and *non-match* (0) classes are slightly imbalanced with the *match* labels accounting for 45% of the test and training samples (Fig. 9). Additionally, the offer pairs originate from four categories of products (Fig. 10). *Computers and accessories* has more than

twice the samples as the next largest category *cameras*, followed by watches and then shoes.





However, the composition of the test dataset is different. Figure 11 shows that the class imbalance is larger with the *match* labels comprising only 30% of the samples, and in Figure 12, the offer-pair observations are uniformly distributed between the four categories. Ideally, the test and training sets would have more similar compositions, but the differences are not prohibitive.



3.2 Offer Pairs

Table 1 provides an example of a *matched* offer pair from each category. They demonstrate the type of lexical heterogeneity that the feature engineering and modeling must overcome. Specifically, we can see instances where string-based and token-based feature representations may not be effective. For example, the edit distance and BOW approaches would perform well in identifying the similarity between the computer offers; the two sequences of tokens are the same but for a handful of characters. However, the symbolic approach will not perform as well in matching the camera offers in the last row. While the beginnings of the names match exactly, edit distance functions and BOW vectors would view these instances as being of low similarity because the second name contains a much longer description of the item.

Table 1: Pairs of Offer Names

file_category	name_1	name_2
shoes	nike sportswear air force 1 07 white	sneakers buty nike air force 1 07 low white 315122 111
computers	323146 b21 bl20p g2 1p xeon 3 06ghz	323146 b21 bl20p xeon 3 06ghz
watches	daniel wellington dapper sheffield rose gold	daniel wellington men s dapper 38mm sheffield rose watch
cameras	canon eos rebel t5i	canon eos rebel t5i 18 135mm is stm digital slr camera kit black

### 4 Methodology

I applied the EM process of feature representation and classification to the LSPM product offers; blocking was unnecessary because the offers in the dataset are already blocked by category. To normalize the textual attributes, I applied the following framework:

- Converted the letters to lowercase
- Removed the HTML tags
- Removed the characters that were not either alphanumeric or a single space
- Removed the stopwords, the most common words in a language. (They comprise a disproportionate amount of the text, but add relatively little to its meaning. Removing them is a feature selection method so the models can prioritize the tokens that disproportionately contribute to a text's meaning.)
- Stemmed the *name* and *description* with the Snowball algorithm (Porter, 1980).

This normalized dataset served as the input to the other features sets, and I applied two feature representation strategies, which I am describing as *attribute comparisons* and *single document comparisons* (Table 2).

Туре	Number of Features	% Variance Explained			
Attribute Comparison	7	-			
Attribute Comparison	9	-			
Single-Doc Comparison	9	6.2%			
Single-Doc Comparison	100	25.1%			

Table 2: Feature Sets

### 4.1 Attribute-Comparison Features

The similarity between the corresponding attribute values of the offer pairs was measured to create the attribute comparison feature set. In the resulting dataset, the rows represent the similarity measures for the attribute pairs, whereas the columns contain the output of a similarity function applied to the corresponding attribute values. Three similarity functions were employed

to create the similarity values. The *price* similarity was calculated by the absolute difference scaled by the larger value. Next, a scaled Levenshtein distance function created the similarity values for the short-to-medium length text attributes, including the offer *name*, *brand*, *manufacturer*, *gtin*, *mpn*, *sku* and *identifier*.

Lastly, since using the Levenshtein function would be computationally expensive, the similarity for the large description attribute was calculated with BOW, truncated singular value decomposition (SVD) and cosine similarity. BOW was employed to embed the text as numeric vectors. Instead of using the term frequencies, I used a term-frequency inverse-document-frequency (TF-IDF) model. Multiplying the term frequency by the natural logarithm of the inverse document frequency allows for each term-document combination to represent how important the term is to both the document and the corpus as a whole. If a term appears in nearly every document, then its discriminatory power within a corpus is small, and the IDF will be near zero. However, if the word is less common within the corpus, then its discriminatory power is greater and IDF multiplier is larger (Ramos 2003). Additionally, to compensate for the unordered nature of BOW, I parsed the tokens into unigrams, bigrams and trigrams. The resulting matrix contained tens of thousands columns representing each of the unique one-to-three token permutations. Truncated SVD was used to reduce the dimensionality; selecting the top 3,000 components explained 99% of the variance. Next, a cosine similarity function was used to calculate the similarity value. The outcome of this feature engineering was a nine-column set of features containing the similarity values between zero and one for each of attributes shared between each set of offer pairs. If either of the attributes values were missing, the similarity value was set to zero.

### 4.2 Single-Document Comparison Features

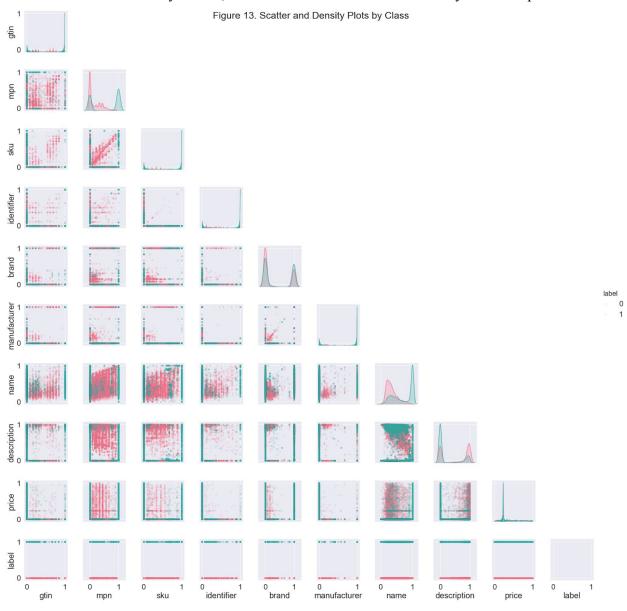
Based upon the approaches presented in Ebraheem et al. (2018) and Shah et. al (2018), the second feature strategy treats each set of offer attributes as a single document by concatenating the values. I theorized that this approach might minimize the effect of the missingness and create a dense set of non-collinear features. To the newly-created string, I then applied the same BOW model using TF-IDF and unigrams, bigrams and trigrams, followed by truncated SVD. I used truncated SVD instead of principal components analysis because it performs better on the sparse matrices created by BOW models. Then, to compare the offer pairs, I calculated the absolute difference between the offer vectors. I created two different versions of the feature set. The first version contained only the nine most informative features from the truncated SVD, which explained only 6.2% of the feature variance. The model results will reveal whether the nine features performed better or worse than the nine features in the attribute-comparison feature set. The second version contained the 100 most informative features and explained 25% of the variance.

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.decomposition.TruncatedSVD.html

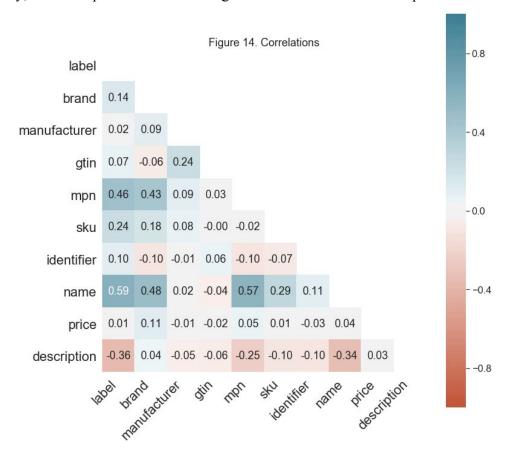
# 5 Feature Analysis

The next series of plots examines the relationships among the predictor variables and between the predictors and the response variable *label* in the attribute-comparison feature set. Figure 13 shows the scatter and density plots with *match* and *not-match* labels represented in green and red. While there appears to be an unexpected inverse relationship between the *name* and *description*, the offer *name* has slight correlations with about five of the other features. In the density plots for the *name*, *mpn*, *sku*, *identifier* and *manufacturer*, the *match* labels are more concentrated around the higher similarity values. These may be important to training the model. However, the density plots for the *description* and *price* show that the *matches* are clustered around the lower similarity values, which indicates that these will likely not be important.



### 5.1 Correlation

Figure 14 shows that there is only a moderate amount of correlation between some of the similarity variables. The highest correlation is between the *name* and *label* features, which indicates that the name is likely to be important. The *mpn* has the second highest correlation with the response variable and is also moderately correlated with the *name*. This plot confirms that the similarity values for the *description* have a small negative correlation with the *name*. Additionally, the *description* has a small negative correlation with the response variable.



### 5.2 Boxplots by Class

Figure 15 shows how the similarity values are distributed across the classes. Most of the plots are uninformative because the variables with many missing values are zero-inflated, and their interquartile ranges are centered at zero. However, for the *name*, *description* and *mpn* features, the plots do offer some insights. The nearly-separated interquartile ranges for the *name* indicate that this will be an important feature. The *match* median similarity value is greater than .8 and the *not-match* median is less than .4. Additionally, for the *mpn*, the interquartile range for the *not-matches* is associated with smaller similarity values. For the *description*, the plot shows the same inverse relationship with the *matches* and similarity.

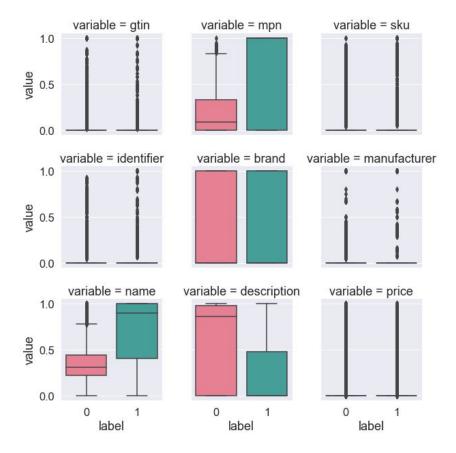


Figure 15. Side-by-Side Boxplots

### 5.3 Logistic Regression

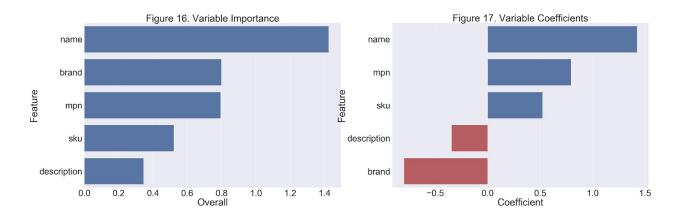
To gain a better understanding of the independent effect of each attribute, an elastic-net logistic regression from the *Caret* package was fit to the 9-feature, attribute-comparison set. The four variables with the most missingness, the *gtin*, *identifier*, *manufacturer* and *price*, had too little variance for the regression assumptions and were removed. Since there was no high correlation among the variables, none of them were removed to meet the non-collinear assumption.

Of the five remaining variables, the *name* was the most important in that its coefficient had the largest absolute value (Fig. 16).<sup>7</sup> The *brand* and *mpn* had a little more than half the importance of the *name*, followed by the *sku* and and ending with the *description*. The importance of the *name*, *brand* and *mpn* have a roughly inverse relationship with the number of missing values. However, while *description* attribute had the second highest fill-rate with fewer than 25% of its values missing, the model found that it had relatively little importance. In fact,

-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> https://rdrr.io/cran/caret/man/varImp.html

Figure 16 shows that the *description* and *brand* attributes actually had a negative coefficients; which means that the higher the similarity values, the less likely the offer pair were a match. Given the findings from Figure 14, a negative coefficient for the *description* is not surprising. Based upon this insight, a 7-feature version of the attribute-comparison features was created to explore whether it performed better than all nine features (Table 2).



### 5.4 Description Discrepancy

One possible explanation for the inverse relationship between the *match* labels and the *description* similarity values are vastly different lengths of text between the offer pairs. Table 3 shows two examples where *description\_2* contains all of the text in *description\_1*, but also contains much more information. Because *description\_2* is a two to three times longer and because the similarity values were scaled by the longest text, this will report a lower similarity score.

Table 3: Examples of Different-Length Descriptions

description_1	description_2
a new finely tuned outsole that delivers a smooth snappy ride a cushlon midsole provides soft and responsive cushioning while its engineered mesh upper provides lightweight and comfortable support and ventilation as well as impact absorbing cuts to the crash rail that also enhance grip waffle pistons and a	long lasting comfort defines the new nike pegasus 33 which has a new finely tuned outsole that delivers a smooth snappy ride a cushlon midsole provides soft and responsive cushioning while its engineered mesh upper provides lightweight and comfortable support and ventilation as well as impact absorbing cuts to the crash rail that also enhance grip waffle pistons and a radiused heel all combine to give the shoe its renowned ride features include horizontal and vertical cuts in the crash rail enhance grip cushlon midsole provides soft yet responsive cushioning flywire cables deliver the ultimate in lockdown engineered mesh upper provides ventilation and support zoom air units in the forefoot and heel provide low profile responsive cushioning weight 8 6oz 244g women s size 8 offset 10mm last mr 10
warm with a relaxed fit that tapers at the cuff to show off your	these pants feature nike tech fleece fabric that helps keep you warm with a relaxed fit that tapers at the cuff to show off your sneakers features include nike tech fleece fabric gives you warmth without weight max tapered fit is relaxed on top then tapers near the cuff adjustable straps on the sides of the waistband create a custom fit zippered fly with a button closure offers easy on and off

#### 6 Models

Four types of models were trained and tested to predict whether the offer pairs were matches. To represent the pre-ML probabilistic EM frameworks, a Naive Bayes model was fit as a baseline. The second model was SVM. After testing the linear, radial basis function (RBF) and polynomial kernels, the RBF kernel was found to produce the best F1 score. The third and fourth models were Random Forest (RF) and Stochastic Gradient Boosting (SGB). The latter three

models will automate the feature selection. To tune the hyperparameters, I executed cross-validated grid searches. Since SVM requires it, all features sets were centered and scaled. Additionally, for the SVM and RF models, the sci-kit learn package's class-weighting functionality was used to account for the class imbalance.

#### 7 Results

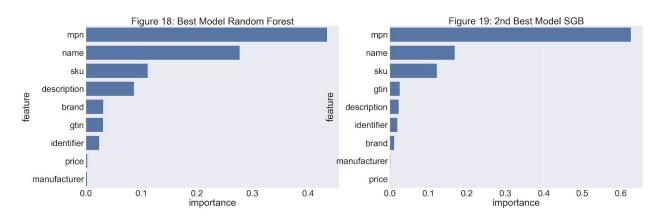
Table 4 contains the test results for the sixteen combinations of models and feature sets. The higher F1 scores are shaded with a darker shade of green. Overall, at 0.798, the RF model and attribute-comparison-9 feature set had the highest F1 score, followed closely by the same feature set with the SGB model. The worst-performing combination was the SVM model with the 9-feature, single-document set.

	Naive Bayes		SVM		Random Forest			Gradient Boosting				
Feature Set	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1
Attribute Comparison-7	.460	.600	.521	.731	.759	.745	.758	.808	.782	.780	.793	.786
Attribute Comparison-9	.433	.507	.467	.743	.801	.771	.755	.846	.798	.761	.831	.795
Single Doc-9	.274	.911	.422	.276	.858	.418	.707	.552	.620	.698	.545	.612
Single Doc-100	.287	.883	.433	.359	.564	.439	.649	.600	.624	.661	.622	.641

Table 4: Test Results

### 7.1 Feature Importance

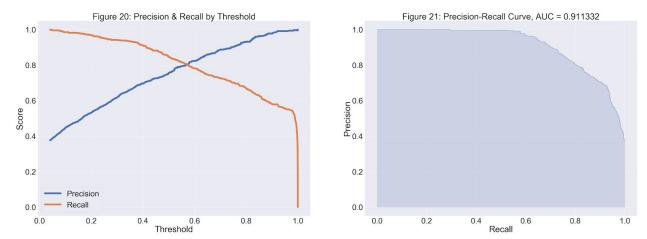
Figures 18 and 19 demonstrate an unexpected and significantly different order of variable importance than the initial logistic regression model. The *mpn* attribute was actually the most important feature in the top two models. The online retailers must have been using the *mpn* with consistency even though a value was missing in 30% of the offers. The offer *name* was the second most important feature in both models. In the RF model, it was more than half the importance of the *mpn*. In both models, the *sku* was the third most important features, despite having more null values than the *brand* or *description*.



### 7.2 Precision & Recall

Overall, at the default class threshold of 0.5, the recall score exceeded the precision in twelve of the sixteen model-feature combinations; the rate of false positives was greater than the rate of false negatives (Table 4). These models were better at returning matches than correctly labeling matches.

The same was true for the top RF model, and Figures 20 and 21 reflect the superior recall for the model. In the first plot, the red line more rapidly approaches the recall maximum, and in the second one, the curve on the right side has a steeper slope. Overall, the area under the precision-recall curve is relatively high at 0.91.



From a customer and business perspective, a precision score of 0.755 at the default threshold is too low. The retailer would be selling the customer an incorrect product 24% of the time. If the class threshold is increased to 0.571, Figure 13 shows that the precision and recall intersect at a score of approximately 0.8. To have no false positives with the test dataset labels, the class threshold would need to be set to 0.999, which would decrease recall to 0.296. On the other hand, to minimize false negatives, the threshold could be set to 0.041, which would yield a precision score of 0.376. The higher precision corresponding with perfect-recall scenario than the recall in the perfect-precision scenario indicates that the model's recall more rapidly approaches a perfect score than its precision.

### 7.2 Performance by Model

Figure 22 displays the average scores for the models across the four feature sets. The average F1 scores are approximately what I would expect based upon the literature review. The mean F1 score for SGB model marginally exceeded the score for the RF model, which indicates that SGB performed better than RF on the non-optimal feature sets. Notably, the SGB model had the best mean precision score and the smallest average recall. This model may benefit from further development if the priority is precision. These models are followed by the performance of

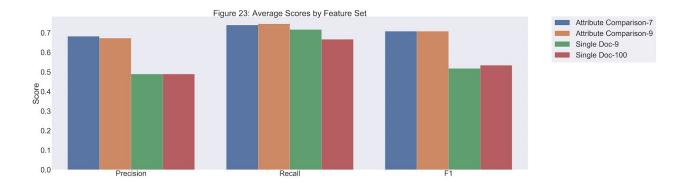
SVM with a mean F1 of 0.6. As expected, the Naive Bayes performed the least well with a score of 0.46.



From a training and cross-validation perspective, I had the best experience with tuning the parameters of the RF model. This is primarily because all the weak tree models can be fit independently and in parallel. The SGB was the next easiest model to train and tune, but took considerably longer than RF since the tree models are created in succession. The radial-basis-version of SVM was the most difficult to train and tune and was not a scalable solution.

# 7.3 Performance by Feature Set

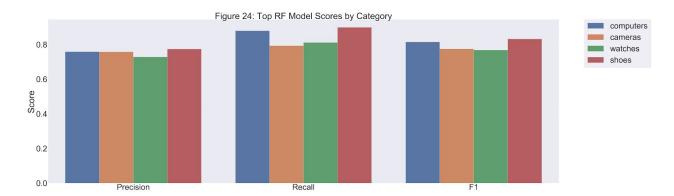
Figure 23 exhibits the mean scores for each feature set across the four models. The attribute-comparison models had the highest F1 at approximately 0.708. The single-document features performed significantly worst, mainly due to poor precision scores. Notably, attribute-comparison-7 features, where I removed the *brand* and *description* attributes, had the highest average precision while retaining a high recall. This feature set may be suitable for further high-precision development. Additionally, Naive Bayes, the model without any automated feature selection, confirmed the insight gained from the logistic regression model. Creating a more parsimonious feature set without the *brand* and *description* attributes yielded an increase in the Naive Bayes F1 score from 0.467 to 0.521 for the attribute-comparison-9 and attribute-comparison-7 features (Table 4).



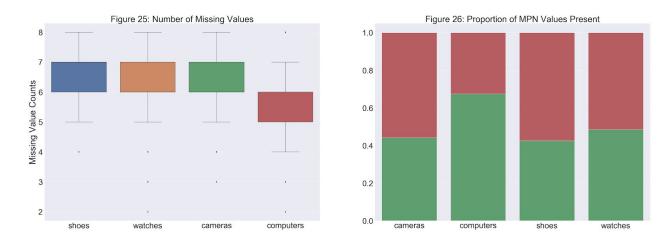
Among the single-document feature sets, while increasing the variables from nine to 100 did marginally improve upon a poor F1 score, the amount of variance explained was low at 25%. Additionally, the higher dimensionality dramatically increased the amount of time needed to train and tune the models. Hence, this feature representation approach is likely not scalable.

# 7.4 Performance by Category

Figure 24 shows how the best model performed by category. Despite having more than twice as many training samples as *cameras*, the *computers and accessories* category did not have the highest F1 score. *Shoes*, the category with the smallest number of samples, performed the best. After that, the F1 scores then correspond with how many training samples the category had.

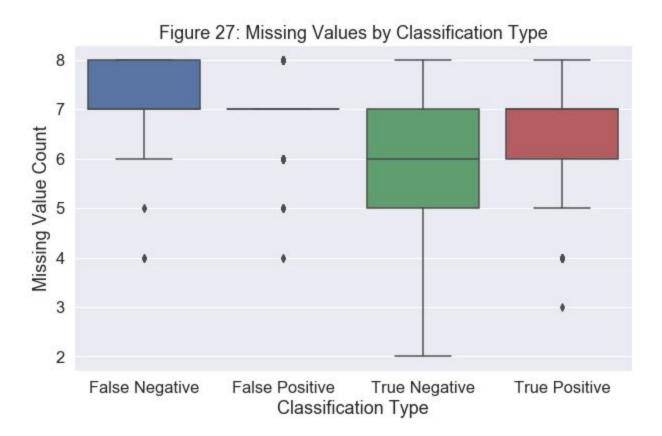


None of the quantitative characteristics of the categories in test dataset explain why the small *shoes* category performed the best. The distributions of the number of missing values per offer pair were no different than the *watches* or *cameras* categories, and the *computers* category had even fewer missing values (Fig. 25). Additionally, the red bars in Figure 26 show the proportion of *mpn* values, the most important feature to the RF model, that were missing in the offer pairs. The *shoes* category actually had the highest missing rate for the *mpn*. The length of the *name* attribute did not explain the performance differential either (not pictured). Other factors like the quality of the *name* attribute likely explain the differences in category performance.



7.5 Effect of the Missing Values

Figure 27 displays the distributions of the missing values in the test set by the RF model's classification types. The missingness in the data appears to have had little influence on whether the label was correctly predicted. The median number of missing values for all but the true negatives was seven. The interquartile ranges for the true positives and negatives were marginally lower than those for the incorrect predictions.



#### 8 Conclusions & Future Research

### 8.1 Models

The results of this analysis demonstrate that machine learning algorithms profoundly improve upon the Naive Bayes approach and can make progress toward resolving entity matching for online marketplaces. The tree-based bagged, ensemble models were easiest to train and yielded the best predictions. Random Forests had the top F1 score overall and marginally outperformed Stochastic Gradient Boosting model. Still, a rather steep trade off persistently exists between recall and precision. Given a perfect-precision requirement, the classifiers and feature representations in this project produced an unacceptably low level of recall that would exclude a significant number of offer matches from being in a consolidated marketplace.

Recent developments in deep learning classification would likely narrow the gap between precision and recall. Two types of neural networks are particularly well suited for the EM task. First, the architecture of Siamese networks natively ingests pairs of inputs. It consists of two identically-structured, parallel branches or subnetworks that are connected by only the output layer. Secondly, the bidirectional long short-term memory version of recurrent neural networks are adept at modeling sequential data like time series and natural language. Their forward and backward internal loops can model the contextual nature of text information (Mueller & Thyagarajan, 2016).

#### 8.2 Features

For the feature representations, the attribute-to-attribute comparison approach proved superior to representing sets of attributes as unitary text documents. The idea motivating the single-document approach was to engineer new features in order to compensate for the large volume of missing values in the corpus. However, the higher dimensionality of this feature set is a temporal impediment to training the classifier algorithms. With the attribute-comparison features, the correct and incorrect predictions did not appear to be affected by the distribution of the missing values. However, the missingness in general likely affected the overall precision, recall and F1 scores.

In future iterations, the following adaptations may be able to improve upon the attribute comparison approach: Instead of scaling the similarity value between zero and one, an unscaled similarity measure might account for the different lengths of text and provide more information to the model. For example, an edit distance score where 75% of the characters match is likely to be more significant if the pair of texts are 100 characters long rather than only ten-characters long. Additionally, extracting missing attribute values from the available text may increase the importance of some of the atomic attributes. For example, the existing values for the *brand* and *manufacturer* attributes can likely be used to extract some of the missing instances from the other text attributes.

The study of neural networks has also yielded new ways of engineering textual features that may improve upon bag-of-words and edit distances. Mikolov et al. (2013) and Le and Mikolov (2014) developed efficient methods for learning distributed representations of words and documents through neural language models. Text embeddings use the context to probabilistically encode words and documents into a coherent vector space; the relationships between vectors closely approximate a human being's understanding of them. The approaches employed in Ebraheem et al. (2018) and Mudgal et al. (2018) provide the foundation for further research into how distributed representations can resolve the EM problem for online marketplaces.

### 9 References

Breiman, L. (2001). Random Forests. Machine Learning, 45, 5-32.

Chollet, F. (2017). Deep Learning with Python., 8-19.

Ebraheem, M., Thirumuruganathan, S., Joty, S.R., Ouzzani, M., & Tang, N. (2017). DeepER - Deep Entity Resolution. CoRR, abs/1710.00597.

Elmagarmid, A.K., Ipeirotis, P.G., & Verykios, V.S. (2007). Duplicate Record Detection: A Survey. IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering, 19, 1-16.

Friedman, J.H. (2001). Greedy function approximation: A gradient boosting machine. Ann. Statist. 29, no. 5, 1189-1232.

Köpcke, H., & Rahm, E. (2010). Frameworks for entity matching: A comparison. Data Knowl. Eng., 69, 197-210.

Le, Q.V., & Mikolov, T. (2014). Distributed Representations of Sentences and Documents. ICML.

Mikolov, T., Chen, K., Corrado, G.S., & Dean, J. (2013). Efficient Estimation of Word Representations in Vector Space. CoRR, abs/1301.3781.

Mudgal, S., Li, H., Rekatsinas, T.I., Doan, A., Park, Y., Krishnan, G., Deep, R., Arcaute, E., & Raghavendra, V. (2018). Deep Learning for Entity Matching: A Design Space Exploration. SIGMOD Conference.

Mueller, J., & Thyagarajan, A. (2016). Siamese Recurrent Architectures for Learning Sentence Similarity. AAAI.

Newcombe, H.B., Kennedy, J.M., Axford, S.J., & James, A.P. (1959). Automatic linkage of vital records. Science, 130 3381, 954-9.

Porter, M.F. (1980). An algorithm for suffix stripping. Program, 14, 130-137.

Ramos, J.E. (2003). Using TF-IDF to Determine Word Relevance in Document Queries.

Shah, K., Köprü, S., & Ruvini, J. (2018). Neural Network based Extreme Classification and Similarity Models for Product Matching. NAACL-HLT.

# 10 Code Appendix

Repository: <a href="https://github.com/kylegilde/Entity-Matching-in-Online-Retail">https://github.com/kylegilde/Entity-Matching-in-Online-Retail</a>

List of Scripts

01-parse-json-to-dfs.py

02-normalize-features.py

03-create-attribute-comparison-features.py

03-create-single-doc-similarity-features.py

04-train-cv-models.py

04-train-non-cv-models.py

05-tune-individual-models.py

json parsing functions.py

utility functions.py

LogReg Variable Importance.Rmd (see repo)

Presentation.ipynb (see repo)

### **Scripts**

### 01-parse-json-to-dfs.py

```
# !/usr/bin/env/python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
"""
Created on Feb 10, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
```

This script is used to process the the WDC Training Dataset and Gold Standard for Large-Scale Product Matching (LSPM), which was created from the Common Crawl web-data corpus and published in December 2018 by a group of researchers at the University of Mannheim.

```
Data can be downloaded here:
http://webdatacommons.org/largescaleproductcorpus/index.html
import os
from datetime import datetime
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from pandas.io.json import json normalize
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from json parsing functions import *
from utility functions import *
# Initialize some constants
TRAIN TEST CATEGORIES = ['Computers and Accessories',
'Camera and Photo', 'Shoes', 'Jewelry']
PRICE COLUMN NAMES = ['price', 'parent price']
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 0)
############### Load Train and Test Data
# Load Train & Test Data
train df, test df = read train test files(DATA DIRECTORY +
'/training-data/'),\
```

```
read train test files(DATA DIRECTORY +
'/test-data/')
print(train df.info(memory usage='deep'))
print(test df.info(memory usage='deep'))
plt.gcf().clear()
train df.filename.value counts().plot.bar()
train test df = pd.concat([train df, test df],
axis=0).reset index()
print(train test df.info())
train test df = create file categories(train test df)
# remove some duplicates
train test df =
train test df[~train test df.duplicated(subset=['offer id 1',
'offer id 2', 'filename', 'dataset', 'label'])]
# remove a bad index
bad index = train test df.index[(train test df.offer id 1 ==
':nodede8ccd8d6cc033e333fc23a88f31fad
http://www.prodirectselect.com/products/asics-womens-gelnoosa-tr
i-11-white-noise-womens-shoes-white-white-black-120149.aspx') &
             (train test df.offer id 2 ==
':nodefa2169b488f32926e188bbf2f8567bf
https://footstop.com/producto/asics-gel-noosa-tri-11-t676q-0101/
') &
             (train test df.label == 0)]
train test df.drop(bad index, inplace=True)
print(train test df.info())
train test df.to csv('train test df.csv', index=False)
train test offer ids = rbind train test offers(train df,
test df)
print(train test offer ids.info())
```

```
unique train test offer ids = pd.DataFrame({'offer id' :
train test offer ids.index.unique()}).set index('offer id')
print(len(unique train test offer ids))
######################### Clean & Tidy the Offers data
# if file exists read it, otherwise create it
if 'train test offer features.csv' in os.listdir():
  train test offer features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test offer features.csv',
index col='offer id'))
  print(train test offer features.info(memory usage='deep'))
else:
  start = datetime.now()
  # Read or Create the Cluster ID-Category Mappings
  # category cluster ids = get cluster ids()
  # get offers data for train-test categories
  offers reader = pd.read json('offers consWgs english.json',
                             orient='records',
                             chunksize=1e6,
                             lines=True)
  columns with json = ['identifiers', 'schema org properties',
'parent schema org properties']
  columns to drop = ['parent_NodeID'] + columns_with_json # ,
'relationToParent'
  more cols to drop = ['availability']
  offers df list = []
  for i, chunk in enumerate(offers reader):
      print(i)
```

```
# chunk = next(offers reader)
       # create the unique offer id
       chunk['offer id'] = chunk.nodeID.str.cat(chunk.url, sep='
')
       # inner join on the train-test offer ids
       new chunk = reduce mem usage(chunk) \
                      .set index('offer id')\
                      .join(unique train test offer ids,
how='inner')
       # if any rows remain after inner join, parse the data
       if len(new chunk):
           # clean column names
           new chunk.columns =
new chunk.columns.str.replace('.', '')
           # parse the website domain into column
           new chunk['domain'] =
new chunk.url.apply(parse domain)
           # set offer id to index and drop its components
           new chunk = new chunk.reset index() \
               .set index('offer id')\
               .drop(['nodeID', 'url'], axis=1)
           parsed df list = []
           json columns df = new chunk[columns with json]
           for column in columns with json:
               # column = columns with json[2]
               print(column)
               df =
parse json column(json columns df[column].apply(json normalize))
                   .apply(lambda x: x.str.strip() if x.dtype ==
"object" else x) \
                   .replace('null', np.nan)
               print(df.columns)
               df.index = new chunk.index
```

```
# coalesce the gtins
               if column == 'identifiers':
                   df = coalesce gtin columns(df)
               elif column == 'parent schema org properties':
                   df.columns = 'parent ' + df.columns
               # parse the price columns
               if np.sum(df.columns.isin(PRICE COLUMN NAMES)):
                   df = parse price columns(df,
PRICE COLUMN NAMES)
               parsed df list.append(df)
           print(datetime.now() - start)
           # Drop the 3 parsed columns
           new chunk.drop(columns to drop, axis=1, inplace=True)
           # Concatenate the chunk to the 3 parsed columns & add
it to the df list
           parsed df list.append(new chunk)
           # combine the parent child columns
           new chunk =
coalesce parent child columns(pd.concat(parsed df list, axis=1,
sort=False))
           # Remove the terms null and description
           new chunk['name'] =
new chunk.name.combine first(df.parent title) \
               .str.replace('^null\s*?,|,\s*?null$', '')
           new chunk['description'] =
new chunk.description.str.replace('^description', '')
           offers df list.append(new chunk)
   # Combine all the offers & save the output
  print('Saving as CSV...')
   train test offer features =
reduce mem usage(pd.concat(offers df list, axis=0) \
.drop(more cols to drop, axis=1) \
```

```
.dropna(axis=1,
how='all'))
train test offer features.to csv('train test offer features.csv'
, index label='offer id')
  print(train test offer features.describe(include='all'))
  print(train test offer features.info(memory usage='deep'))
   calculate percent nulls(train test offer features)
   # Add the Category Attribute
   #####################################
   print('Adding the category from clusters file...')
   english clusters reader =
pd.read json('clusters english.json',
                                                   lines=True,
orient='records',
chunksize=1e6)
   english cluster list = []
   for i, chunk in enumerate(english clusters reader):
      print(i)
       another chunk = chunk[['id', 'category', 'id values']]\
           .rename(columns={'id':'cluster id'}) \
           .set index('cluster id')
       english cluster list.append(another chunk)
   train test offer features = train test offer features\
       .reset index()\
       .set index('cluster id', drop=False) \
       .join(pd.concat(english cluster list, axis=0))\
       .set index('offer id')
   #
```

```
train test offer features =
create file categories[train test offer features]
  # Save df
  print('Saving as CSV...')
train test offer features.to_csv('train_test_offer_features.csv'
, index label='offer id')
  # missingness plot
  # sns.heatmap(train test offer features[['brand',
'manufacturer']].isnull(), cbar=False)
  calculate percent nulls(train test offer features)
  train test offer features.domain.value counts()
  train test offer features.brand.value counts()
#### Create the df for only the offers in train/test set
# if file exists read it, otherwise create it
if 'train test feature pairs.csv' in os.listdir():
  train test feature pairs =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test feature pairs.csv'))
else:
  # join the offer details to the pair of offer ids
  # and add suffixes to them
  # move label column to 1st position
  # drop completely null columns
  train test feature pairs =
train test df.set index('offer id 1', drop=False)\
      .join(train test offer features.add suffix(' 1'),
how='left') \
      .set index('offer id 2', drop=False)\
```

```
.join(train test offer features.add suffix(' 2'),
how='left')
       .sort index(axis=1)\
       .set index('label')\
       .reset index()
train test feature pairs.to csv('train test feature pairs.csv',
index=False)
   calculate percent nulls(train test feature pairs)
02-normalize-features.py
# !/usr/bin/env/python365
11 11 11
Created on Apr 23, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
This script ingests the train test offer features.csv created by
01-parse-json-to-dfs.py
and does the following:
   - Removes non-alphanumeric/space characters from all text
columns
      and creates the train test normalized features.csv to be
used to
       create the semantic features
   - Stems the name description and other text features
Creates output file called train test stemmed features.csv
import os
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
```

```
from utility functions import *
import nltk
from nltk.corpus import stopwords
def clean text(series):
   11 11 11
   1. remove html tags
   2. converts to lowercase
   3. replace 2 consecutive non-alphnum-space characters with a
space
   4. remove remaining non-alphnum-space characters
   5. remove some English-language indicators
   :param series:
   :return:
   11 11 11
   return series.str.replace(r'<.*?>', '')\
       .str.lower() \
       .str.replace(r'[^a-z0-9]{2,}', '')\
       .str.replace(r'[^a-z0-9]', '')\
       .str.replace(r'\W(en|enus)\W', '')
def stem and remove stopwords(doc, stemmer):
   11 11 11
   :param doc:
   :param stemmer:
   :return:
   11 11 11
   if pd.isnull(doc):
       return doc
   else:
       stemmed tokens = [stemmer.stem(token) for token in
nltk.word tokenize(doc) \
```

```
if token not in
stopwords.words('english')]
       return ' '.join(stemmed tokens)
# initialize constants
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
MAX SVD COMPONENTS = 3000
N ROWS PER ITERATION = 2000
TEXT FEATURES = ['name', 'description']
SHORT TEXT FEATURES = ['brand', 'manufacturer']
IDENTIFIER FEATURES = ['gtin', 'mpn', 'sku', 'identifier']
ALL TEXT FEATURES = TEXT FEATURES + SHORT TEXT FEATURES +
IDENTIFIER FEATURES
STRONGLY TYPED FEATURES = ['category']
NUMERIC FEATURE = ['price']
ALL FEATURES = ALL TEXT FEATURES + STRONGLY TYPED FEATURES +
NUMERIC FEATURE
sb stemmer = nltk.stem.SnowballStemmer('english')
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 0)
# load parsed features
if 'train test feature pairs.csv' in os.listdir():
   train test offer features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test offer features.csv'))\
       .set index('offer id')
   # the identifier and productID columns are mutually
exclusively null
```

```
train test offer features['identifier'] =
train test offer features.identifier\
       .mask(pd.isnull, train test offer features.productID)
train test normalized features =
train test offer features[ALL FEATURES]
# loop through text features and clean them
for column in train test normalized features.columns:
   if column in ALL TEXT FEATURES:
       train test normalized features[column] =
clean text(train test normalized features[column])
# save to file
train test normalized features.reset index().to csv('train test
normalized features.csv', index=False)
train test stemmed features =
train test normalized features.copy()
for column in train test stemmed features.columns:
   if column in TEXT FEATURES:
       train test stemmed features[column] =
train test normalized features[column]\
           .apply(lambda x: stem and remove stopwords(x,
stemmer=sb stemmer))
# save to file
train test stemmed features.reset index().to csv('train test ste
mmed features.csv', index=False)
03-create-attribute-comparison-features.py
# !/usr/bin/env/python365
Created on Apr 27, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
```

This script takes 2 input files:

- 1. 'train\_test\_stemmed\_features.csv' created from
  02-normalized-features.py
  - 2. 'train test df.csv' created from 01-parse-json-to-dfs.py

For each of the 4 dataset categories, this script compares each of the corresponding attribute values for each pair of offers.

- 1. For the 7 short-to-medium length text features, it calculates the scaled Levenshtein similarity score.
- 2. For the long description feature, it encodes the text as bag-of-words TF-IDF approach for unigrams, bigrams & trigrams.

Truncated SVD is used to select only the components that explain 99.9% of the variances, and then the cosine similarity is calculated for the 2 vectors.

- 3. For the price, the absolute percent diffence is calculated
- 4. For the strongly-typed offer category, a 0 or 1 indicates whether they are an exact match.

It outputs symbolic\_similarity\_features.csv, which is a dataframe that contains the similarity vectors of the offer pairs

for both the test and training sets.

\*\* \*\* \*\*

import os
import gc

from datetime import datetime
import nltk
import numpy as np

import pandas as pd

from utility functions import \*

from sklearn.feature\_extraction.text import TfidfVectorizer

```
from sklearn.decomposition import TruncatedSVD
from scipy.spatial.distance import cosine
def levenshtein similarity(df row):
   Calculates the scaled Levenshtein similarity for 2 strings.
   :param df row: a list-like object containing 2 strings
   :return: a float between 0 and 1
   11 11 11
   str1, str2 = df row[0], df row[1]
   if pd.isnull(str1) or pd.isnull(str2):
       return 0
   else:
       return 1 - nltk.edit distance(str1, str2) /
max(len(str1), len(str2))
def elementwise cosine_similarity(df_row, n_features):
   Calculates the elementwise cosine similarity with the apply
method
   :param df row: a DF row where the first n features are the
left side features
       and the last n features are the right side features
   :param n features: this is the number of features each side
of the DTM has
   :return: float between 0 and 1
   s1, s2 = df row[:n features], df row[n features:]
   if np.sum(s1) == 0 or np.sum(s2) == 0:
       return 0
```

```
else:
       return cosine(s1, s2)
start time = datetime.now()
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 250)
# initialize constants
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
DATA DIRECTORY = '//files/share/goods/OI Team'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
MAX SVD COMPONENTS = 3000
VARIANCE EXPLAINED = 0.999
N ROWS PER ITERATION = 2000
# initialize the variable types
SHORT TEXT FEATURES = ['brand', 'manufacturer']
IDENTIFIER FEATURES = ['gtin', 'mpn', 'sku', 'identifier']
ALL SHORT TEXT FEATURES = SHORT TEXT FEATURES +
IDENTIFIER FEATURES + ['name']
LONG TEXT FEATURES = ['description']
STRONGLY TYPED FEATURES = ['category']
NUMERIC FEATURE = ['price']
# the description column must be last in the list
ALL FEATURES = ALL SHORT TEXT FEATURES + STRONGLY TYPED FEATURES
+ NUMERIC FEATURE + LONG TEXT FEATURES
OFFER PAIR COLUMNS = ['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset'l
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 3000)
```

```
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 0)
# load files
assert 'train test stemmed features.csv' in os.listdir() and
'train test df.csv' in os.listdir(), 'An input file is missing'
train test stemmed features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test stemmed features.csv'))
   .set index('offer id')
train test df =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test df.csv'))
file categories = train test df.file category.unique()
category df list = []
start time = datetime.now()
for the category in file categories:
  print('the category:', the category)
   # the category = 'shoes'
   cat symbolic similarity features =
train test df[train test df.file category ==
the category].copy()
   unique offer ids =
pd.concat([cat symbolic similarity features.offer id 1.astype('o
bject'),
cat symbolic similarity features.offer id 2.astype('object')])
       .unique()
cat symbolic similarity features.set index (OFFER PAIR COLUMNS,
inplace=True)
```

```
for column in ALL FEATURES:
       print('column:', column)
       get duration hours(start time)
       # put the left and right side feature into a df
       both features =\
cat symbolic similarity features.reset index()[OFFER PAIR COLUMN
s]\
           .set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS[0], drop=False) \
.join(train test stemmed features[[column]].add suffix(' 1'),
how='inner') \
           .set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS[1], drop=False) \
.join(train test stemmed features[[column]].add suffix(' 2'),
how='inner') \
           .set_index(OFFER_PAIR COLUMNS)
       if column in ALL SHORT TEXT FEATURES:
           # scaled Levenshtein similarity score
           cat symbolic similarity features[column] =
both features.apply(levenshtein similarity, axis=1)
           cat symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(cat symbolic similarity features)
       elif column in STRONGLY TYPED FEATURES:
           # exact match
           cat symbolic similarity_features[column] =
pd.Series(both features.iloc[:, 0]\
                                                             ==
both features.iloc[:, 1]).astype('int8')
           cat symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(cat symbolic similarity features)
       elif column in NUMERIC FEATURE:
```

```
# absolute percent difference
           cat symbolic similarity features[column] = \
               np.nan to num(np.absolute(both features.iloc[:,
0] - both features.iloc[:, 1]) / \
                             np.maximum(both features.iloc[:,
0], both features.iloc[:, 1]))
           cat symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(cat symbolic similarity features)
       elif column in LONG TEXT FEATURES:
           # column = 'description'
           # bag-of-words TF-IDF with Truncated SVD and cosine
similarity
           vectorizer = TfidfVectorizer(ngram range=(1, 3))
           # create a document-term matrix from the unique
column values
           unique column values =
train test stemmed features.loc[unique offer ids][[column]].fill
na('')
           dtm =
vectorizer.fit transform(unique column values[column])
           print('dtm dimensions:', dtm.shape)
           get duration hours(start time)
           print('Use Truncated SVD to select a smaller number
of important features')
           svd model =
TruncatedSVD(n components=MAX SVD COMPONENTS).fit(dtm)
           print('n components:',
len(svd model.explained variance ratio ))
           print(svd model.explained_variance_ratio_.sum(),
'variance explained')
```

```
n features =
sum(svd model.explained variance ratio .cumsum() <=</pre>
VARIANCE EXPLAINED)
           print(n features, "features explain this much of the
variance:", VARIANCE EXPLAINED)
           print('fit the svd model and convert to df')
           dtm svd =
reduce mem usage(pd.DataFrame(svd model.transform(dtm)[:,
:n features],
index=unique column values.index))
           print('post-SVD DTM dimensions:', dtm svd.shape)
           print(dtm svd.info(memory usage='deep'))
           del dtm, svd model, unique column values
           gc.collect()
           get duration hours(start time)
           print("Let's create a df to hold both sides of the
DTM")
           both sides dtm svd =\
               reduce mem usage (
                   both features
                        .reset index()
                        .drop(['description 1', 'description 2'],
axis=1)
                        .set index('offer id 1', drop=False)
                        .join(dtm svd.add suffix(' 1'),
how='inner')
                        .set index('offer id 2', drop=False)
                        .join(dtm svd.add suffix(' 2'),
how='inner')
                       .set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS)
               )
           print(both sides dtm svd.info())
```

```
del both features
           gc.collect()
           get duration hours(start time)
           print("Let's calculate the cosine similarity.")
           assert both sides dtm svd.shape[1] == 2 * n features,
"Something is wrong. Your df row length is not 2 x n features"
           cat symbolic similarity features[column] =
both sides dtm svd.apply(elementwise cosine similarity,
n features=n features,
axis=1)
           del both sides dtm svd
           gc.collect()
           # append category DF
category df list.append(cat symbolic similarity features)
  print('Combine all the categories')
   symbolic similarity features =\
       reduce mem usage(pd.concat(category df list, axis=0))\
       .reset index()
  print('Summary stats')
  print(symbolic similarity features.columns)
  print(symbolic similarity features.shape)
  print(symbolic similarity features.describe())
  print(symbolic similarity features.info())
  print("symbolic similarity features saved")
symbolic similarity features.to csv('symbolic similarity feature
s.csv', index=False)
  get duration hours(start time)
```

## 03-create-single-doc-similarity-features.py

```
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
11 11 11
Created on Apr 27, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
This script takes the outputs of create-symbolic-features.py
and parse-json-to-dfs.py.
It outputs a df that contains the similarity vectors of the
offer pairs
in the test and training sets. The df is saved as
symbolic single doc similarity features.csv
11 11 11
import os
import gc
from datetime import datetime
# import nltk
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from utility functions import *
from sklearn.feature extraction.text import TfidfVectorizer
from sklearn.decomposition import TruncatedSVD
start time = datetime.now()
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
```

```
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 250)
# global variables
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
DATA DIRECTORY = '//files/share/goods/OI Team'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
VARIANCE EXPLAINED MAX = 0.999
# feature list
ALL FEATURES = ['name', 'description', 'brand', 'manufacturer',
'qtin', 'mpn', 'sku', 'identifier', 'price']
# offer pair index columns
OFFER PAIR COLUMNS = ['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset', 'label', 'file category']
# user inputs
svd components to retain = int(input('Enter the number of SVD
components to retains'))
output file name = 'symbolic single doc similarity features-' +
str(svd components to retain) + '.csv'
# load files
assert 'train test stemmed features.csv' in os.listdir() and
'train test df.csv' in os.listdir(), 'An input file is missing'
print('load the stemmed features')
train test stemmed features =
pd.read csv('train test stemmed features.csv')\
   .set index('offer id')
print(train test stemmed features.info())
print('load the offer pairs')
train test df =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('train test df.csv')\
                               .set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS))
print(train test df.info())
assert len(train test df.columns) == 0, 'The DF contains extra
column(s)'
```

```
start time = datetime.now()
print("Let's concatenate all features into single documents")
train test stemmed features['price'] =
train test stemmed features.price.astype('str')
unique column values =\
   train test stemmed features[ALL FEATURES] \
       .apply(lambda x: ' '.join(x.dropna()), axis=1)\
       .str.replace('\Wnan$', '')
unique column value indices = unique column values.index
print("Let's take a look at the concatenation")
print(unique column values.reset index().head())
# reclaim some memory
del train test stemmed features
gc.collect()
print("Let's create a DTM using TF-IDF")
vectorizer = TfidfVectorizer(ngram range=(1, 3))
dtm = vectorizer.fit transform(unique column values)
print('dtm dimensions:', dtm.shape)
# reclaim some memory
del unique column values
gc.collect()
get duration hours(start time)
print('Use Truncated SVD to select a smaller number of important
features')
svd model =
TruncatedSVD(n components=svd components to retain).fit(dtm)
print('n components:', len(svd model.explained variance ratio ))
variance explained = svd model.explained variance ratio .sum()
print(variance explained, 'variance explained')
```

```
n features = sum(svd model.explained variance ratio .cumsum() <=
VARIANCE EXPLAINED MAX)
print(n features, "features explain this much of the variance:",
variance explained)
print('fit the svd model and convert to df')
dtm svd =
reduce mem usage(pd.DataFrame(svd model.transform(dtm)[:,
:n features],
index=unique column value indices))
print('post-SVD DTM dimensions:', dtm svd.shape)
print(dtm svd.info(memory usage='deep'))
# reclaim some memory
del dtm, svd model
gc.collect()
get duration hours(start time)
train test df.info()
print("Let's create a df to hold both sides of the DTM")
symbolic single doc similarity features =\
   reduce mem usage (
       train test df\
           .reset index()
           .set index('offer id 1', drop=False)
           .join(dtm svd.add suffix(' 1'), how='inner')
           .set index('offer id 2', drop=False)
           .join(dtm svd.add suffix(' 2'), how='inner')
           .set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS)
print(symbolic single doc similarity features.info())
assert symbolic single doc similarity features.shape[1] == 2 *
n features, "Something is wrong. Your df row length is not 2 x
n features"
```

```
print('Calculate the absolute difference between each offer
pair')
symbolic single doc similarity features df =\
   (symbolic single doc similarity features.iloc[:,
:n features]\
   .sub(symbolic single doc similarity features.iloc[:,
n features:].values))\
   .abs()
del symbolic single doc similarity features
gc.collect()
print('Summary stats')
print(symbolic single doc similarity features df.shape)
print(symbolic single_doc_similarity_features_df.info())
print(symbolic single doc similarity features df.columns)
print(symbolic single doc_similarity_features_df.describe())
get duration hours(start time)
print("symbolic similarity features saved:", output file name)
symbolic single doc similarity features df.to csv(output file na
me)
print(variance explained, 'variance explained')
get duration hours(start time)
04-train-cv-models.py
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
Created on Apr 27, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
This script is used to tune and train CV versions of the models.
```

```
This script takes the feature set outputs of
03-create-attribute-comparison-features.py
and 03-create-single-doc-similarity-features.py
import os
import gc
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import pickle
from utility functions import *
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.model selection import train test split,
GridSearchCV, StratifiedKFold, RandomizedSearchCV,
cross val score
from sklearn.metrics import classification report,
confusion matrix, precision score, recall score, f1 score,
make scorer
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
from sklearn.svm import SVC
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier,
GradientBoostingClassifier
# global variables
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
# DATA DIRECTORY = '//files/share/goods/OI Team'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
RANDOM STATE = 5
FOLDS = 2
DEV TEST SIZE = .5
METRIC NAMES = ['Precision', 'Recall', 'F1 score']
# ALL FEATURES = ['brand', 'manufacturer', 'gtin', 'mpn', 'sku',
'identifier', 'name', 'price', 'description'] # 'category'
```

```
OFFER PAIR COLUMNS = ['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset', 'label', 'file category']
# list of models to fit
# MODEL NAMES = ['Naive Bayes', 'SVM', 'Random Forest',
'Gradient Boosting']
MODELS = [GaussianNB(),
         SVC(random state=RANDOM STATE, class weight='balanced',
verbose=2), # probability=True,
         RandomForestClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
class weight='balanced', verbose=2),
         GradientBoostingClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n iter no change=30, verbose=2)]
model_names = [model.__class__.__name__ for model in MODELS]
model dict = dict(zip(model names, MODELS))
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 250)
# provide input file
input file name = 'attribute comparison features-7.csv' #
input('Input the features file')
assert input file name in os.listdir(), 'An input file is
missing'
# read input file
symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv(input file name))
print(symbolic similarity features.columns.tolist())
# get the train & test indices
train indices, test indices =
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'train').values,\
```

```
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'test').values
# get the labels
all labels = symbolic similarity features.label
train labels, test labels = all labels[train indices],
all labels[test indices]
class labels = np.sort(all labels.unique())
# create features df
symbolic similarity features.set_index(OFFER_PAIR_COLUMNS,
inplace=True)
print(symbolic similarity features.columns.tolist())
print(symbolic similarity_features.info())
print(symbolic similarity features.shape)
print(symbolic similarity features.describe())
# center and scale for SVM
scaler = StandardScaler()
symbolic similarity features =
scaler.fit transform(symbolic similarity features)
# train and test features
train features, test features =
symbolic similarity features[train indices, :],\
symbolic similarity features[test indices, :]
dev train features, dev test features, dev train labels,
dev test labels =\
   train test split(train features, train labels,
test size=DEV TEST SIZE, random state=RANDOM STATE)
print('Dev Train Feature Shape')
print(dev train features.shape)
nb grid params = None
```

```
# svc grid params = {'kernel': ['linear', 'poly', 'rbf']}
svc grid params = {'C': np.logspace(-1, 2, 4),
                  'gamma': np.logspace(0, 1, 2)}
rf grid params = {'max depth': [None, 5],
                 'max features': ['auto', None],
                 'max leaf nodes': [None],
                 'min impurity decrease': [0.0],
                 'min impurity split': [None],
                 'min samples leaf': [1],
                 'min samples split': [2, 4],
                 'min weight fraction leaf': [0.0],
                 'n estimators': [500, 1000]}
count cv models (rf grid params, FOLDS, .18)
gbm grid params = {'learning rate': [.025, .05],
                  'max depth': [None, 5],
                  'max features': ['auto', None],
                  'max leaf nodes': [None],
                  'min impurity decrease': [0.0],
                  'min samples leaf': [1],
                  'min samples split': [2],
                  'min weight fraction leaf': [0.0],
                  'n estimators': [150, 300],
                  'subsample': [.33, .67]}
count cv models(gbm grid params, FOLDS, .07)
grid param list = [nb grid params, svc grid params,
rf grid params, gbm grid params]
grid param dict = dict(zip(model names, grid param list))
# create stratified folds
skf = StratifiedKFold(n splits=FOLDS, random state=RANDOM STATE)
# output DF
```

```
test metrics = []
dev test metrics = []
model durations = []
best params list = []
# save diagnostics
test predictions = []
class probabilities list = []
fit models = []
classification reports = []
confusion matrices = []
for model name, model in model dict.items():
   print(model_name, model)
   \# i = 1
   # model = MODELS[1]
   start time = datetime.now()
   model params = grid param dict[model name]
   full fit model = model
   if model params is None:
       # no CV grid search for NB
       full fit model.fit(train features, train labels)
       fit models.append(full fit model)
       best params list.append(None)
   else:
       cv model = GridSearchCV(model, model params, cv=skf,
n jobs=-1, verbose=2)
       cv model.fit(dev train features, dev train labels)
       # get the best CV parameters
       best params = cv model.best params
       best params list.append(best params)
```

```
# make dev test predictions & calculate scores
       dev test pred = cv model.predict(dev test features)
       dev test scores = calculate scores(dev test labels,
dev test pred)
       dev test metrics.append(dev test scores)
       print(dev test scores)
       print('fit model to full training set')
       full fit model.set params(**best params)
       full fit model.fit(train features, train labels)
       get duration hours(start time)
   fit models.append(full fit model)
   # make test predictions
   test pred = full fit model.predict(test features)
   # test class probabilities =
full fit model.predict proba(test features)
   test predictions.append(test pred)
   # class probabilities list.append(test class probabilities)
   # get the classification report
   class report = classification report(test labels, test pred)
   classification reports.append(class report)
  print(class report)
   # get confusion matrix
   confusion df = pd.DataFrame(confusion matrix(test labels,
test pred),
                               columns=["Predicted Class " +
str(class name) for class name in class labels],
                               index=["Class " + str(class name)
for class name in class labels])
   confusion matrices.append(confusion df)
  print(confusion df)
   # get scores
```

```
model metrics = calculate scores(test labels, test pred)
  print(METRIC NAMES)
  print(model metrics)
   test metrics.append(model metrics)
   # get training duration
   hours = get duration hours(start time)
  model durations.append(hours)
print('Create Metrics DF')
sklearn models df = pd.DataFrame(test metrics,
columns=METRIC NAMES, index=model names)
sklearn models df['training time'],
sklearn models df['best params'] = model_durations,
best params list
print(sklearn models df.iloc[:, :4])
print('Save the results')
# create output directory if it doesn't exist
output directory = input file name[:
input file name.find('.csv')]
if not os.path.exists(output directory):
   os.makedirs(output directory)
# create output filename
output file name = output directory + '-results.csv'
os.chdir(output directory)
with open('sklearn models.pkl', 'wb') as f:
  pickle.dump(fit models, f)
with open('sklearn test predictions.pkl', 'wb') as f:
       pickle.dump(test predictions, f)
with open('sklearn class probabilities.pkl', 'wb') as f:
   pickle.dump(class probabilities list, f)
```

```
with open('sklearn confusion matrices.pkl', 'wb') as f:
  pickle.dump(confusion matrices, f)
# save the model metrics
sklearn models df.reset index().to csv(output file name,
index=False)
04-train-non-cv-models.py
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
11 11 11
Created on Apr 27, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
This script is used to train non-CV versions of the models.
This script takes the feature set outputs of
03-create-attribute-comparison-features.py
and 03-create-single-doc-similarity-features.py
11 11 11
import os
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import pickle
from utility functions import *
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.metrics import precision score, recall score,
f1 score
```

```
from sklearn.naive bayes import GaussianNB #alpha smoothing?
from sklearn.svm import SVC
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier,
GradientBoostingClassifier
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 250)
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
# DATA DIRECTORY = '//files/share/goods/OI Team'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
# global variables
RANDOM STATE = 5
FOLDS = 2
DEV TEST SIZE = .5
OFFER PAIR COLUMNS = ['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset', 'label', 'file category']
METRIC NAMES = ['Precision', 'Recall', 'F1 score']
# list of models to fit
MODELS = [GaussianNB(),
         SVC(random state=RANDOM STATE, class weight='balanced',
verbose=2) ,
         RandomForestClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n estimators=1000, class weight='balanced', verbose=2),
         GradientBoostingClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n estimators=300, n iter no change=30, verbose=2)]
MODELS = [RandomForestClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n estimators=1000, class weight='balanced', verbose=2),
         GradientBoostingClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n estimators=300, n iter no change=30, verbose=2)]
model_names = [model.__class__.__name__ for model in MODELS]
model dict = dict(zip(model names, MODELS))
```

```
# provide input file
input file name = 'single doc similarity features-100.csv'
#'attribute comparison features-9.csv' #
'symbolic single doc similarity features-9.csv' #input('Input
the features file')
assert input file name in os.listdir(), 'An input file is
missing'
# read input file
symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv(input file name))
print(symbolic similarity features.columns.tolist())
# get the train & test indices
train indices, test indices =
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'train').values,\
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'test').values
# get the labels
all labels = symbolic similarity_features.label
train labels, test labels = all labels[train indices],
all labels[test indices]
class labels = np.sort(all labels.unique())
# create features df
symbolic similarity features.set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS,
inplace=True)
print(symbolic similarity features.columns.tolist())
print(symbolic similarity features.info())
print(symbolic similarity features.shape)
print(symbolic similarity features.describe())
# center and scale for SVM
scaler = StandardScaler()
```

```
symbolic similarity features =
scaler.fit transform(symbolic similarity features)
# train and test features
train features, test features =
symbolic similarity features[train indices, :],\
symbolic similarity features[test indices, :]
# create dev test and train sets
dev train features, dev test features, dev train labels,
dev test labels =\
   train test split(train features, train labels,
test size=DEV TEST SIZE, random state=RANDOM STATE)
print('Dev Train Feature Shape')
print(dev train features.shape)
# output DF
test metrics = []
model durations = []
best params list = []
# save diagnostics
test predictions = []
class probabilities list = []
fit models = []
classification reports = []
confusion matrices = []
for model name, model in model dict.items():
  print(model name, model)
   start time = datetime.now()
  model.fit(train features, train labels)
   test pred = model.predict(test features)
   test predictions.append(test pred)
```

```
# get scores
  model metrics = [precision score(test labels, test pred),
                    recall score(test labels, test pred),
                    f1 score(test labels, test pred)]
  print(METRIC NAMES)
  print(model metrics)
   test metrics.append(model metrics)
   fit models.append(model)
   # get training duration
  hours = get duration hours(start time)
   model durations.append(hours)
print(model durations)
sklearn models df = pd.DataFrame(test metrics,
columns=METRIC NAMES, index=model names)
sklearn models df['training time'] = model durations
print(sklearn models df.iloc[:, :4])
05-tune-individual-models.py
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
11 11 11
Created on Apr 27, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
This script is used to more extensively tune and train CV
versions of the models.
This script takes the feature set outputs of
03-create-attribute-comparison-features.py
and 03-create-single-doc-similarity-features.py
```

```
11 11 11
import os
import gc
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import pickle
from utility functions import *
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.model selection import train test split,
GridSearchCV, StratifiedKFold, RandomizedSearchCV,
cross val score
from sklearn.metrics import classification report,
confusion matrix, precision score, recall score, f1 score,
make scorer
from sklearn.naive bayes import GaussianNB
from sklearn.svm import SVC
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier,
GradientBoostingClassifier
# global variables
DATA DIRECTORY = 'D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product Matching/'
# DATA DIRECTORY = '//files/share/goods/OI Team'
os.chdir(DATA DIRECTORY)
RANDOM STATE = 5
FOLDS = 3
DEV TEST SIZE = .7
METRIC NAMES = ['Precision', 'Recall', 'F1 score']
OFFER PAIR COLUMNS = ['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset', 'label', 'file category']
# list of models to fit
```

```
MODELS = [RandomForestClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
class weight='balanced', verbose=2),
         GradientBoostingClassifier(random state=RANDOM STATE,
n iter no change=30, verbose=2)]
model_names = [model.__class__.__name__ for model in MODELS]
model dict = dict(zip(model names, MODELS))
# set display options
pd.set option('display.max rows', 500)
pd.set option('display.max columns', 500)
pd.set option('display.width', 500)
pd.set option('display.max colwidth', 250)
# provide input file
input file name = 'attribute comparison features-7.csv' #
input('Input the features file')
assert input file name in os.listdir(), 'An input file is
missing'
# read input file
symbolic similarity features =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv(input file name))
print(symbolic_similarity_features.columns.tolist())
# get the train & test indices
train indices, test indices =
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'train').values,\
symbolic similarity features.dataset.astype('object').apply(lamb
da x: x == 'test').values
# get the labels
all labels = symbolic similarity features.label
train labels, test labels = all labels[train indices],
all labels[test indices]
class labels = np.sort(all labels.unique())
```

```
# create features df
symbolic similarity features.set index(OFFER PAIR COLUMNS,
inplace=True)
print(symbolic similarity features.columns.tolist())
print(symbolic similarity features.info())
print(symbolic similarity features.shape)
print(symbolic similarity features.describe())
# center and scale for SVM
scaler = StandardScaler()
symbolic similarity features =
scaler.fit transform(symbolic similarity features)
# n features = symbolic similarity features.shape[1]
# train and test features
train features, test features =
symbolic similarity features[train indices, :],\
symbolic similarity features[test indices, :]
dev train features, dev test features, dev train labels,
dev test labels =\
   train test split(train features, train labels,
test size=DEV TEST SIZE, random state=RANDOM STATE)
print('Dev Train Feature Shape')
print(dev train features.shape)
rf_grid_params = {'max_depth': [None, 10],
                 'max features': ['auto', None],
                 'max leaf nodes': [None],
                 'min impurity decrease': [0.0, .1],
                 'min impurity split': [None],
                 'min samples leaf': [1, 5],
                 'min samples split': [2, 5],
                 'min weight fraction leaf': [0.0],
                 'n estimators': [1000, 1500]}
```

```
count cv models(rf grid params, FOLDS, .21)
gbm_grid_params = {'learning_rate': [.01, .025],
                  'max depth': [None, 10],
                  'max features': ['auto', None],
                  'max leaf nodes': [None, 10],
                  'min impurity decrease': [0.0, .1],
                  'min samples leaf': [1, 5],
                  'min samples split': [2, 5],
                  'min weight fraction leaf': [0.0],
                  'n estimators': [150, 300, 450],
                  'subsample': [.15, .33],
                  'warm start': [True, False]}
count cv models(gbm grid params, FOLDS, .07)
grid param list = [rf grid params, gbm grid params]
grid param dict = dict(zip(model names, grid param list))
# create stratified folds
skf = StratifiedKFold(n splits=FOLDS, random state=RANDOM STATE)
# output DF
test metrics = []
dev test metrics = []
model durations = []
best params list = []
# save diagnostics
test predictions = []
class probabilities list = []
fit models = []
classification reports = []
confusion matrices = []
for model name, model in model dict.items():
   print(model name, model)
```

```
start time = datetime.now()
  model params = grid param dict[model name]
   full fit model = model
   if model params is None:
       # no CV grid search for NB
       full fit model.fit(train features, train labels)
       fit models.append(full fit model)
       best_params_list.append(None)
  else:
       cv model = GridSearchCV(model, model params, cv=skf,
n jobs=-1, verbose=2)
       cv model.fit(dev train features, dev train labels)
       # get the best CV parameters
       best params = cv model.best params
      best params list.append(best params)
       # make dev test predictions & calculate scores
       dev test pred = cv model.predict(dev test features)
       dev test scores = calculate scores(dev test labels,
dev test pred)
       dev test metrics.append(dev test scores)
       print(dev test scores)
       print('fit model to full training set')
       full fit model.set params(**best params)
       full fit model.fit(train features, train labels)
       get duration hours(start time)
   fit models.append(full fit model)
   # make test predictions
   test pred = full fit model.predict(test features)
```

```
# test class probabilities =
full fit model.predict proba(test features)
   test predictions.append(test pred)
   # class probabilities list.append(test class probabilities)
   # get the classification report
   class report = classification report(test labels, test pred)
   classification reports.append(class report)
  print(class report)
   # get confusion matrix
   confusion df = pd.DataFrame(confusion matrix(test labels,
test pred),
                               columns=["Predicted Class " +
str(class name) for class name in class labels],
                               index=["Class " + str(class name)
for class name in class labels])
   confusion matrices.append(confusion df)
  print(confusion df)
   # get scores
  model metrics = calculate scores(test labels, test pred)
  print(METRIC NAMES)
  print(model metrics)
   test metrics.append(model metrics)
   # get training duration
  hours = get duration hours(start time)
  model durations.append(hours)
print('Create Metrics DF')
sklearn models df = pd.DataFrame(test metrics,
columns=METRIC NAMES, index=model names)
sklearn models df['training time'],
sklearn models df['best params'] = model durations,
best params list
```

```
print(sklearn models df.iloc[:, :4])
print('Save the results')
# create output directory if it doesn't exist
output directory = input file name[:
input file name.find('.csv')]
if not os.path.exists(output directory):
   os.makedirs(output directory)
# create output filename
output file name = output directory + '-tuned-results.csv'
os.chdir(output directory)
with open('sklearn models.pkl', 'wb') as f:
   pickle.dump(fit models, f)
with open('sklearn test predictions.pkl', 'wb') as f:
       pickle.dump(test predictions, f)
with open('sklearn class probabilities.pkl', 'wb') as f:
   pickle.dump(class probabilities list, f)
with open('sklearn confusion matrices.pkl', 'wb') as f:
   pickle.dump(confusion matrices, f)
# save the model metrics
sklearn models df.reset index().to csv(output file name,
index=False)
json_parsing_functions.py
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
Created on Feb 10, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
```

```
These are the functions that are used in the
01-parse-json-to-dfs.py script
11 11 11
import os
from urllib.parse import urlparse
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
# functions for reading the test and train offer pairs
def read train test files(file dir, sep='#####',
col names=['offer id 1', 'offer id 2', 'label']):
   11 11 11
   Read all files from the director & use the file name for the
category column
   :param file dir: a director
   :param delimitor: default is #####
   :return:
  original wd = os.getcwd()
   os.chdir(file dir)
   files = os.listdir()
   df list = []
   for file in files:
       df = pd.read csv(file, names=col names, sep=sep,
engine='python')
       df['filename'] = file
       if 'train' in file:
           df['dataset'] = 'train'
       elif 'gs ' in file:
           df['dataset'] = 'test'
       df list.append(df)
   os.chdir(original wd)
```

```
return reduce mem usage(pd.concat(df list, axis = 0,
ignore index=True))
def rbind train test offers(train df, test df):
   Combines the test and train dfs
   :param train df:
   :param test df:
   :return:
   11 11 11
   # row bind all the offer ids
  df1, df2, df3, df4 = test df[['offer id 1', 'filename',
'dataset']].rename(columns={'offer id 1': 'offer id'}),\
       test df[['offer id 2', 'filename',
'dataset']].rename(columns={'offer id 2': 'offer id'}),\
       train df[['offer id 1', 'filename',
'dataset']].rename(columns={'offer id 1': 'offer id'}),\
       train df[['offer_id_2', 'filename',
'dataset']].rename(columns={'offer id 2': 'offer id'})
   # Aggregate the IDs
   train test offer ids = pd.concat([df1, df2, df3, df4],
axis=0, ignore index=True, sort=False) \
       .drop duplicates().set index('offer id')
  return train test offer ids
# functions for parsing the massive json file
def get cluster ids(json file='D:/Documents/Large-Scale Product
Matching/clusters english.json'):
   Get cluster IDs for the 4 categories in the train-test sets
   :param json file:
   :return:
   if 'category_cluster_ids.csv' in os.listdir():
```

```
category cluster ids =
reduce mem usage(pd.read csv('category cluster ids.csv',
index col='cluster id'))
   else:
       product categories df =
reduce mem usage(pd.read json(json file, lines=True))
       category cluster ids = product categories df\
           .rename(columns={'id':'cluster id'}) \
.set index('cluster id').loc[product categories df.category.isin
(TRAIN TEST CATEGORIES).values, ['category']]
       print(category cluster ids.info(memory usage='deep'))
       # get only the cluster ids needed for the train-test
categories
       category cluster ids.to csv('category cluster ids.csv')
       return category cluster ids
def merge nan rows(df):
   11 11 11
  Merges rows with NaNs into one
   It's passed the parse json column() function
   :param df: a DataFrame
   :return: one row without NaNs
   11 11 11
   try:
       s = df.apply(lambda x: x.dropna().max())
       return pd.DataFrame(s).transpose()
   except Exception as e:
       print('merge nan rows', e)
def parse json column(a series):
```

```
11 11 11
   Parses the remaining JSON into a DF
   :param a series: a pandas Series
   :return: a DF
   11 11 11
   # Concatenate DFs and remove the beginning & ending brackets
   df = pd.concat([merge nan rows(x) for x in a series],
sort=True) \
       .apply(lambda x: x.str.replace('^\[|\]$', ''))
   # clean column names
   df.columns = df.columns.str.strip('/')
   return df
def coalesce gtin columns(df):
   11 11 11
   Since a product can have only one gtin,
   this function coalesces these columns to one column
   :param df:
   :return:
   # select the gtin columns
   gtin df = df.filter(regex='gtin')
   gtin = gtin df.iloc[:, 0]
   if len(gtin df.columns) > 1:
       # start the loop on the 2nd column
       for col in gtin df.columns[1:]:
           gtin = gtin.mask(pd.isnull, gtin df[col])
   df['gtin'] = gtin
   df.drop(gtin df.columns, axis=1, inplace=True)
   return df
def parse domain(url):
   11 11 11
   :param url:
```

```
:return:
   11 11 11
   return urlparse(url).netloc
def parse price columns(df, price column names):
   :param price series:
   :return:
   11 11 11
  price columns =
df.columns[df.columns.isin(price column names)]
   for price column in price columns:
       df[price column] = df[price column] \
           .str.replace(r'[a-zA-Z",]+', '')\
           .str.strip()\
           .str.replace(r' (\d\d)$', r'.\1')\
           .str.replace(r'\s', '')\
           .apply(lambda x: pd.to numeric(x, errors='coerce',
downcast='integer'))
   return df
def coalesce parent child columns(df):
   11 11 11
   :param df:
   :return:
  parent columns =
df.columns[df.columns.astype(str).str.startswith('parent')]
   nonparent columns =
df.columns[~df.columns.isin(parent columns)]
   child parent pairs = []
   for parent column in parent columns:
```

```
for nonparent column in nonparent columns:
           if parent column.endswith(' ' + nonparent column):
               child parent pairs.append((parent column,
nonparent column))
   for child parent pair in child parent pairs:
       parent, child = child parent pair
       df[child] = df[child].combine first(df[parent])
       df.drop(parent, axis=1, inplace=True)
   return df
def create file categories(df):
   11 11 11
   Creates a df column for the test and train category
   :param df: the df containing a column called filename
   :return: the df with a column called file category
   if 'filename' in df.columns:
       file categories = ['computers', 'cameras', 'watches',
'shoes'l
       for file category in file categories:
           df.loc[df['filename'].str.contains(file category),
'file category'] = file category
       return df
   else:
       print('The df does not have a column called filename')
def pairwise cosine dist between matrices(a, b):
   11 11 11
   :param a:
   :param b:
```

```
:return:
   11 11 11
   cosine matrix = np.dot(a, b.T) / \
                    np.dot(np.sqrt(np.dot(a, a.T).diagonal()),
                           np.sqrt(np.dot(b, b.T).diagonal()).T)
   # the truncated SVD creates some slightly negative values in
the calculation
   # change these to zero
   return pd.Series(np.maximum(cosine matrix.diagonal(), 0))
utility functions.py
# !/usr/bin/env/ python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
11 11 11
Created on Feb 10, 2019
@author: Kyle Gilde
These are some functions that are used in several of the
scripts.
11 11 11
from datetime import datetime
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from pandas.api.types import is numeric dtype, is string dtype
from sklearn.metrics import precision score, recall score,
f1 score
def reduce mem usage(df, n unique object threshold=0.30):
   11 11 11
   Converts the data type when possible in order to reduce
memory usage
```

```
source:
https://www.kaggle.com/arjanso/reducing-dataframe-memory-size-by
-65
   :param df: a DataFrame
   :return: returns a smaller df if possible
  print("----")
   start_mem_usg = df.memory_usage().sum() / 1024**2
  print("Starting memory usage is %s MB" %
"{0:}".format(start mem usg))
   # record the dtype changes
   dtype df = pd.DataFrame(df.dtypes.astype('str'),
columns=['original'])
   for col in df.columns:
       if is numeric dtype(df[col]):
           # make variables for max, min
          mx, mn = df[col].max(), df[col].min()
           # If no NaNs, proceed to reduce the int
           if np.isfinite(df[col]).all():
               # test if column can be converted to an integer
              as int = df[col].astype(np.int64)
              delta = (df[col] - as int).sum()
              # Make Integer/unsigned Integer datatypes
              if delta == 0:
                  if mn \geq 0:
                      if mx < 255:
                          df[col] = df[col].astype(np.uint8)
                      elif mx < 65535:
                          df[col] = df[col].astype(np.uint16)
                      elif mx < 4294967295:
                          df[col] = df[col].astype(np.uint32)
                      else:
                          df[col] = df[col].astype(np.uint64)
                  else:
                      if mn > np.iinfo(np.int8).min and mx <
np.iinfo(np.int8).max:
                          df[col] = df[col].astype(np.int8)
```

```
elif mn > np.iinfo(np.int16).min and mx <</pre>
np.iinfo(np.int16).max:
                           df[col] = df[col].astype(np.int16)
                       elif mn > np.iinfo(np.int32).min and mx <
np.iinfo(np.int32).max:
                           df[col] = df[col].astype(np.int32)
                       elif mn > np.iinfo(np.int64).min and mx <</pre>
np.iinfo(np.int64).max:
                           df[col] = df[col].astype(np.int64)
               # Make float datatypes 32 bit
               else:
                   df[col] = df[col].astype(np.float32)
               # Print new column type
               # print("dtype after: ", df[col].dtype)
       elif is string dtype(df[col]):
           if df[col].astype(str).nunique() / len(df) <</pre>
n unique object threshold:
               df[col] = df[col].astype('category')
   # Print final result
   dtype df['new'] = df.dtypes.astype('str')
   dtype changes = dtype df.original != dtype df.new
   if dtype changes.sum():
      print(dtype df.loc[dtype changes])
       new mem usg = df.memory usage().sum() / 1024**2
      print("Ending memory usage is %s MB" %
"{0:}".format(new mem usg))
       print("Reduced by", int(100 * (1 - new mem usg /
start mem usg)), "%")
   else:
      print('No reductions possible')
  print("----")
   return df
```

```
def calculate percent nulls(df, print series=True,
return series=False):
   11 11 11
   Counts the NaNs by column
   :param df: a Pandas dataframe
   :param print series: print statement
   :param return series: print statement
   :return: a series
   11 11 11
  percentages = df.isnull().sum() / len(df) * 100
  percentages sorted = percentages.sort values(ascending=False)
   if print series:
       print(percentages sorted)
   if return series:
       return(percentages sorted)
def get duration hours(start time):
   Prints and returns the time difference in hours
   :param start time: datetime object
   :return: time difference in hours
   time diff = datetime.now() - start time
   time diff hours = time diff.seconds / 3600
  print('hours:', round(time diff hours, 2))
   return time diff hours
def count words(s):
   11 11 11
   Counts the words in Series of text
```

```
:param s: a Pandas object Series
   :return: a Series containing the respective word counts
   return s \
       .str.split(expand=True) \
       .apply(lambda x: np.sum(pd.notnull(x)), 1) \
       .sort values(ascending=False)
def count cv models (param dict, folds,
est_hours_per_model=None):
   11 11 11
   Measures and prints how many models will be fit given the
search parameters and CV folds
   :param param dict: a dictionary containing lists of
parameters to search
   :param folds: the number of CV folds
   :param est hours per model: optional, if provided, it will
print a time estimate
   :return: None
   11 11 11
   if param dict is not None:
       n models = np.prod([len(v) for v in param dict.values()])
* folds
       print("models: ", n models)
   else:
       print("No parameters")
   if est hours per model is not None:
       print("est. hours: ", n models * est hours per model)
def calculate scores(test labels, test pred):
   11 11 11
```

Calculates the precision, recall and F1 for the actuals and predictions