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# **Declaration**

We declare that Mercari's Price Suggestion and Modelling project represents our ideas in our own words and whatever we learnt in the Class. We have combined the knowledge gained through some projects and some online resources like Kaggle, Stack Overflow, Wikipedia, and YouTube for reference.

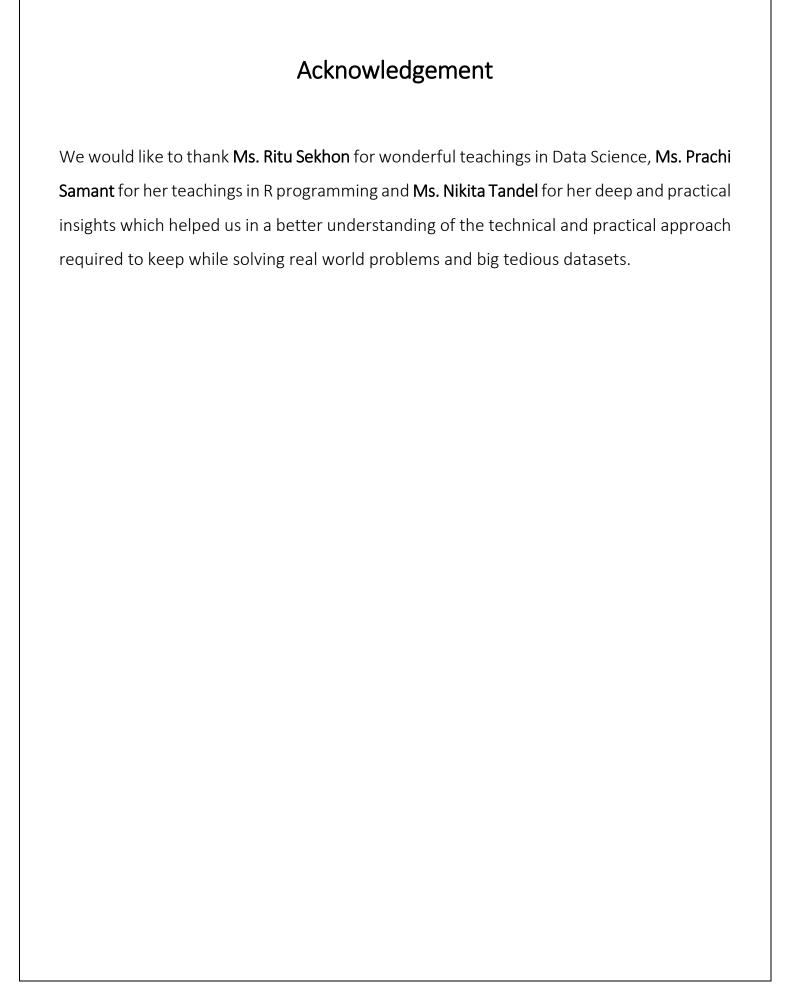
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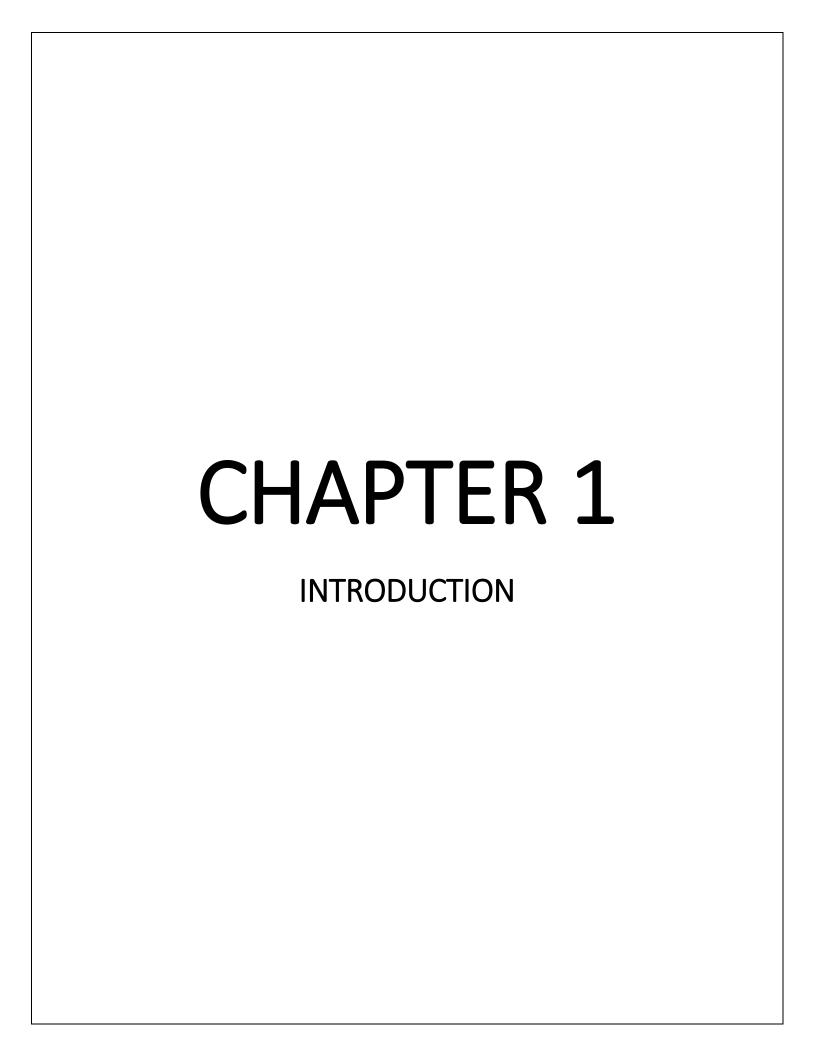
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# 1. Introduction:

The modern age is the age of machine intelligence. These are such buzzwords that has taken the world by storm and almost every avenue has enjoyed the flavor of Machine Learning in some way. In this report we are going to take you through a real-world data science problem which we have picked from Kaggle's live competition and will demonstrate our way of solving it.

This case study solves everything right from scratch. So, you will get to see each and every phase of how in the real world, a case study is solved. Before we talk about our approach of solving the problem, let us know what **Mercari** is.

## **About Mercari:**

Mercari is an online shopping marketplace which is powered by one of the biggest community of Japan where users can sell pretty much anything. The community wants to offer price suggestions to the sellers but is a tough task as the sellers are enabled to put just about anything, or any bundle of things, on Mercari's marketplace

# 2. Problem Statement:

• It can be hard to know how much something's really worth. Small details can mean big differences in pricing. For example, one of these sweaters cost 335 dollars and the other cost 9.99 dollars. Can you guess which one's which?

**Sweater A:** Vince, Long sleeve, Turtle neck pullover sweater, Black, Size L, Great condition

**Sweater B:** St. John's Bay Long sleeve, Turtle neck Pullover sweater, Size L, Great condition

- Hence, it's harder to guess or decide what price which product should have
- Product pricing gets even harder at scale, considering just how many products are sold online. Clothing has strong seasonal pricing trends and is heavily influenced by brand names, while electronics have fluctuating prices based on product specs.

# 3. Challenges to solve:

- The task of this Project is to build an algorithm that suggests the right product prices for shopping app from product name, user inputted text descriptions of the product, category name, brand name, item condition, and shipping information
- The goal is about creating a model that would help sellers to price their products. Pricing should be intermediate between sellers and buyers
- Making it easy for the sellers to mark the prices of new products on the website, after taking into account the previously collected data
- Understand what the data is trying to tell us through EDA

# 4. Our Objectives:

1. • Data Cleaning • Pre-processing • Feature Engineering

#### 2. Exploratory Data Analysis:

- Gathering as many insights as possible through Exploratory Data Analysis.
- Trying to see through Descriptive Statistics that what our data is trying to tell
  us and understand the significance of each and every variable.

## 3. Text Processing:

- Natural Language Processing (NLP)
- Tokenizing and tf-idf algorithm
- K-means Clustering
- 4. The given problem is exactly about predicting the price, which is a real-valued value, thus it falls into the Regression Category
- 5. Trying to provide some interpretability and evolving our ways to handle the upcoming problems as we proceed through our project

# 5. Approach and Models used:

# 5.1 Approach:

- Machine learning is the fastest growing field in the world
- There exists a bunch of algorithms in ML incorporated for different scenarios. Some
  of them work on a specific set of problem and to some we have to fine tune to make
  it work
- There is no such ML algorithm that gives us a deterministic result no matter what the model is and how precisely we calibrate it
- However, the most important step before getting into ML and interpreting which model to apply, one must always try and understand what the data is trying to tell us. This is possible through EDA

## 5.2 Models used:

## Basic Regression Algorithms:

- 1. Ordinary Least Squares Regression
- 2. Linear Regression

#### Algorithms that require Fine Tuning:

- 1. Ridge Regression
- 2. Stochastic Gradient Descent Regressor
- 3. Random Forest Regressor

# 6. Data Description:

- train id the id of the product
- name the name of the product
- item\_condition\_id the condition of the product provided by the seller

According to information available on Mercari Website

- 1 stands for New
- 2 stands for Fairly New
- 3 stands for Good
- 4 stands for Bad
- 5 stands for Very Poor
- category\_name category of the product
- **brand\_name** brand name of the product
- **price** the price that the product was sold for. (This is the target variable that we will predict) The unit is USD (\$)
- shipping 1 if shipping fee is paid by seller and 0 by buyer
- item\_description the full description of the item

**Independent variables:** train\_id, name, item\_condition\_id, category\_name, brand\_name, shipping, item\_description

Target Variable: price

We will build various supervised machine learning regression models and see which succeeds in solving the given mapping between the input variables and the price feature in the best way. Let's begin in a step-by-step manner

# CHAPTER 2

PRE - PROCESSING &

EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

# Importance of EDA:

- The very first step in solving any case study in data science is to properly look and analyze the data you have
- It helps us gain valuable insights into the pattern and information it has to convey
- Statistical tools have a big role in proper visualization of the data
- Even though it is considered not a very important part of solving a problem, but successful data scientists and ML engineers spend maximum part of solving a problem by analyzing the data they have
- Proper EDA gives interesting features of your data which in turn influences our data preprocessing and model selection criterion as well

#### Step 1: Importing the important libraries and data

```
In [2]: import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from collections import Counter
import nltk
from nltk.corpus import stopwords
from wordcloud import WordCloud
import re
import warnings
warnings.filterwarnings('ignore') # to ignore the warnings

Loading the data:

In [3]: data = pd.read_csv(r"Z:\Project Class\mercari_dataset.csv", encoding='latin1')
# As most of the words are from Western European Language hence encoding='latin1'
# Latin-1, also called ISO-8859-1, is an 8-bit character set endorsed by the
# International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and represents the alphabets
# of Western European Languages. As its name implies, it is a subset of ISO-8859,
# which includes several other related sets for writing systems like Cyrillic, Hebrew, and Arabic.
```

# It is used by most Unix systems as well as Windows. DOS and Mac OS, however, use their own sets.

#### Step 2: Checking some important aspects of the data

	· ·											
[4]:		train_id name		item_condition_id	category_name	brand_name	price	shipping	item_description			
	0	0	Hero 77 fountain pen	2	Other/Office supplies/Writing	NaN	12.0	1	For sale a brand new Hero 77 fountain pen, doe			
	1	1	14K Yellow Gold Earrings	3	Women/Jewelry/Earrings	NaN	20.0	0	14k black Onyx earrings Good condition Final sale			
	2	2	New balance 2-in 1 size S dry fit shorts	2	Women/Athletic Apparel/Shorts	New Balance	10.0	0	Brand new never worn, but I tore the tag off w			
	3	3	Zella black workout tank w mesh cut out	3	Women/Athletic Apparel/Shirts & Tops	Zella	15.0	1	Zella black workout tank with mesh cut outs.			
	4	4	NWT Lilly Pulitzer gabby dress sz 8	1	Women/Dresses/Above Knee, Mini	Lilly Pulitzer	75.0	0	New with tags!! Size 8			

#### Step 3: Checking some important aspects of the data

```
In [5]: # Data Dimensions
       data.shape
Out[5]: (148253, 8)
       As the orignal data had over 1.4 million observations, we only take the 10% out of it in the csv file above
In [6]: # Data Types
      data.dtypes
Out[6]: train_id
                         int64
                        object
       name
      item_condition_id
                         int64
                        object
       category_name
      brand_name
                        object
      price
                        float64
       shipping
                         int64
       item_description
                        object
       dtype: object
In [7]: # Columns in the data
      data.columns
dtype='object')
```

#### Step 4: Checking and Handling Missing Values

```
In [8]: # Checking the NAs in the data
       data.isnull().sum()
Out[8]: train_id
       name
                             0
       item_condition_id
                             0
                           641
       category name
                          62991
       brand name
       price
                             0
       shipping
                             0
       item description
                             0
       dtype: int64
In [9]: # making a copy of the data as backup
       data1 = data.copy()
# replacing by "Other" because there already exists a category by the same name
        for value in ['brand_name']:
           data1[value].fillna(value='Unknown', inplace=True)
        # Rechecking the null values
        data1.isnull().sum()
Out[10]: train_id
        item_condition_id
        category_name
        brand_name
        shipping
        item_description
        dtype: int64
```

# Analysis on each variable:

#### 1 Price

This is our response variable, the value which we are trying to predict for the seller. According to a Linear Regression Assumption of Normality, our response/target variable should be Normally Distributed. 2<sup>nd</sup> important thing told by many ML experts is that while implementing ML models on this is we cannot remove the outliers from a target variable as the model should be able to justify them as well

```
In [11]: data1.price.describe()
Out[11]: count
                  148253.000000
         mean
                      26.807933
                       39.358186
                       0.000000
         min
                       10.000000
          50%
                       17.000000
                      29.000000
         max
                    2000.000000
         Name: price, dtype: float64
In [13]: plt.figure(figsize=(17,5))
         plt.title('Price Distribution', fontsize=15)
         sns.boxplot(data1.price, showfliers=False)
         plt.xlabel('Price',fontsize=15)
          plt.show()
```

The **showfliers = False** command would ignore the outliers and plot the graph

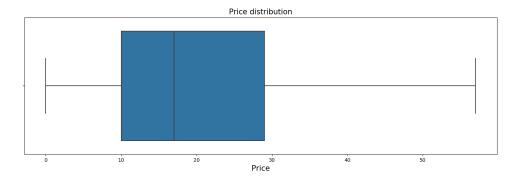


Fig 2.1: - Price Distribution (Box Plot)

# Insight 1 from Price

- mean = 26, median = 17, min = 0, max = 2000
- 25% of the products are priced below 10\$
- 50% of products are priced below 17 \$
- 75% of products are priced below 29 \$Also, the maximum price that any product has is 2000 \$

### 1.2 Distribution of the price variable

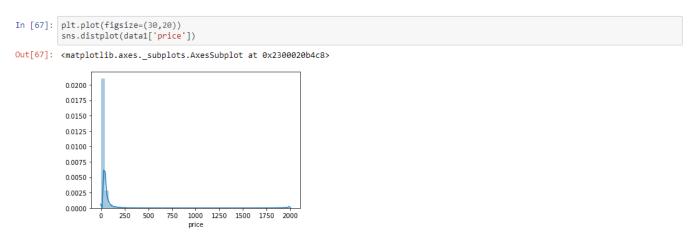


Fig 2.1.1(a): - Price Distribution (Distribution Plot)

- It can be concluded that the distribution of the price variable is heavily right-skewed.
- The price variable follows a skewed distribution and in order to make errors on low price product more relevant than for higher prices, we take the log transform
- log1p = log(p) + 1, we add 1 to avoid zero(log0=infinity) and negative values

## 1.3 Now let's compare both the graphs side by side

```
In [14]: plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
    (data1['price']).plot.hist(bins=50, figsize=(12, 6), edgecolor = 'white', range = [0, 250])
    plt.xlabel('price', fontsize=12)
    plt.title('Price Distribution', fontsize=12)

    plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
    np.log1p(data1['price']).plot.hist(bins=50, figsize=(12, 6), edgecolor='white')
    plt.xlabel('log(price)+1', fontsize=12)
    plt.title('Price Distribution', fontsize=12)
Out[14]: Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Price Distribution')
```

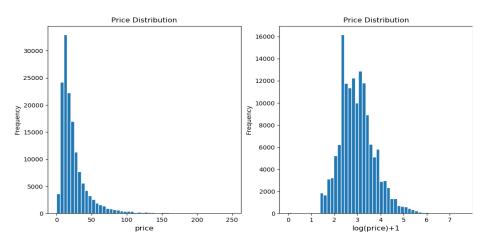


Fig 2.1.1(b): - Price Distribution (Histogram)

### 2. Shipping

These are the shipping fees paid by the buyer and seller at the time of shipping 1 means seller is paying and 0 means buyer is paying

#### Analysis on Shipping Paid



Fig 2.2: - Analysis on Shipping Paid (Pie Chart)

#### Insight 1 from shipping:

- 0 82071 times(buyer charged) 55.53%
- 1 66182 times(seller charged) 44.64%
- Over 55% of items' shipping fee were paid by the buyers

#### Suggestion to the seller:

• The above insight matches with our perception that the sellers need to keep a lower price to compensate for the additional shipping

### 2.1 Shipping vs Price:

To check how shipping is related to the price

```
In [17]: buyer_charged = data1.loc[data1['shipping'] == 0, 'price']
seller_charged = data1.loc[data1['shipping'] == 1, 'price']

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(14, 8))
ax.hist(buyer_charged, bins=30, range=[0, 100], label='Price when buyer paid shipping', alpha=0.5, color='b')
ax.hist(seller_charged, bins=30, range=[0, 100], label='Price when seller paid shipping', alpha=0.5, color='r')
plt.title('Price Distribution by shipping type', fontsize = 20)
plt.xlabel('Price', fontsize = 15)
plt.ylabel('No. of Items', fontsize = 15)
plt.legend(fontsize = 15)
plt.show()
```



Fig 2.2.1: - Price distribution by shipping paid (Histogram)

#### Insight 2 from shipping:

• The price when buyer pays is high compared to when seller pays

# Checking the actual values:

```
In [18]: # average price for shipping for setter and buyer
print('The average price is {}'.format(round(seller_charged.mean(), 2)), 'if seller pays shipping')
print('The average price is {}'.format(round(buyer_charged.mean(), 2)), 'if buyer pays shipping')

The average price is 22.82 if seller pays shipping
The average price is 30.02 if buyer pays shipping
```

# 3. Category Name

```
Unique Category Names
In [19]: print('There are', data1['category_name'].nunique(), 'unique values in category name column')
         There are 1052 unique values in category name column
         Top 10 most common category names
In [20]: data1['category_name'].value_counts()[:10]
Out[20]: Women/Athletic Apparel/Pants, Tights, Leggings
                                                                         6049
         Women/Tops & Blouses/T-Shirts
                                                                         4686
         Beauty/Makeup/Face
                                                                          3429
         Beauty/Makeup/Lips
                                                                          3025
         Electronics/Video Games & Consoles/Games
                                                                         2587
         Beauty/Makeup/Eyes
                                                                         2560
         Electronics/Cell Phones & Accessories/Cases, Covers & Skins
                                                                         2464
                                                                         2088
         Women/Underwear/Bras
         Women/Tops & Blouses/Blouse
                                                                         2073
         Women/Dresses/Above Knee, Mini
                                                                         2029
         Name: category_name, dtype: int64
```

#### General Observations from the above insight:

- It is seen in this table that a subcategory in the category name is separated by a slash "/"
- For ex. Beauty/Makeup/Face and Beauty/Makeup/Lips
- This means **Beauty** category has a subcategory **MakeUp** and this sub category **MakeUp** is further divided into **Face** and **Lips**
- It is also observed that **Women** apparel has the maximum number of items followed by any other category.
- The category names are listed by '/' delimiter which tells about the main category, sub-category 1 and sub-category 2 of the products.
- Therefore, to get better idea of each product, we will do feature engineering here
  and split the category name into 3 different columns namely, 'Main\_categ',
  'sub\_categ1' and 'sub\_categ2'.

# Divide category names into Main category, Sub-category 1 and Sub-category 2

```
In [21]: temp = data1[data1['brand_name']!='Unknown'] # remove Unknown coz it represents missing values
    data1[['Main_categ', 'sub_categ1', 'sub_categ2']] = data1.category_name.str.split("/",expand = True,n= 2)
    for i in ['sub_categ1', 'sub_categ2']:
        data1[i].fillna(value = "Label not given", inplace=True)

After splitting the category_name column, the unique items that I have in each of the newly formed columns is listed below:

In [22]: print('There are', data1['Main_categ'].nunique(), 'unique values in Main category')
    print('There are', data1['sub_categ1'].nunique(), 'unique values in Sub-category 1')
    print('There are', data1['sub_categ2'].nunique(), 'unique values in Sub-category 2')

There are 10 unique values in Main category
    There are 741 unique values in Sub-category 1
    There are 741 unique values in Sub-category 2
```

## 3.1 (a) Main Category

Let's find out which of the products rank the highest in terms of frequency of occurrence:

```
In [23]: maincat_count = data1.Main_categ.value_counts()

plt.figure(figsize=(15, 10))
    sns.barplot(maincat_count.index[0:11], maincat_count[0:11])
    plt.title('Main category Analysis',fontsize = 20)
    plt.xlabel('Main category',fontsize = 15)
    plt.ylabel('Count',fontsize = 15)
    plt.xticks(rotation=15, fontsize=12)
    plt.show()
```

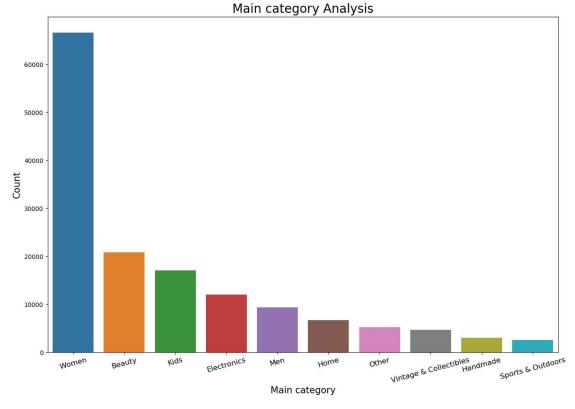


Fig 2.3.1(a): - Main Category Analysis (Bar Plot)

#### Insight 1 from Main Category:

• It can be said that **Women** products occur with the maximum frequency, followed by **Beauty** products. The 3rd largest general category is owned by **Kids** products

# 3.1 (b) Main Category vs Price

```
In [24]: temp = data1[data1['price'] < 80]
    plt.figure(figsize=(15, 10))
    sns.boxplot(temp['Main_categ'], temp['price'])
    plt.title('BoxPlot of Main category vs Price', fontsize = 20)
    plt.xlabel('Main Category',fontsize = 15)
    plt.ylabel('Price',fontsize = 15)
    plt.xticks(rotation = 15, fontsize=12)
    plt.show()</pre>
```

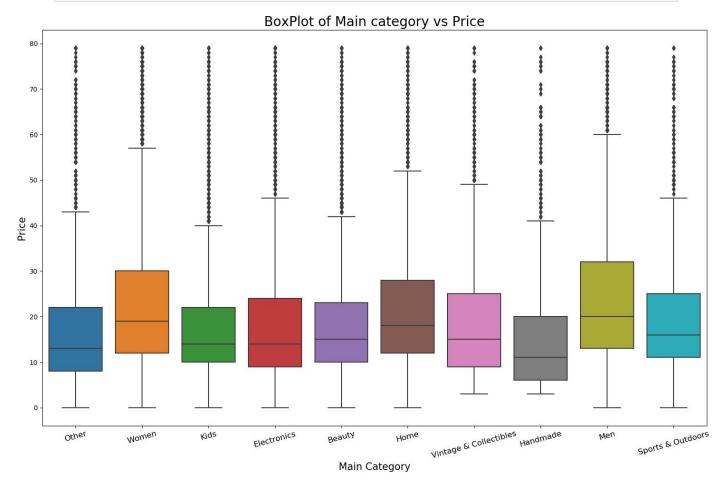


Fig 2.3.1(b): - Main Category vs Price (Box Plot)

```
In [25]: temp.groupby(['Main_categ'])['price'].agg('median')
Out[25]: Main_categ
         Beauty
                                   15.0
         Electronics
         Handmade
         Home
                                   18.0
         Kids
         Men
                                   20.0
         Other
                                   13.0
         Sports & Outdoors
                                   16.0
         Vintage & Collectibles
                                   15.0
         Women
                                   19.0
         Name: price, dtype: float64
```

#### Insight 2 from Main category:

• Although there are maximum products purchased in the **Women's** category, the price of **Men** category products(20\$) is almost as expensive as the products in **Women** category(19\$)

#### 3.2 (a) Sub Category 1

```
In [26]: index = []
    [index.append(key) for key, value in Counter(data1['sub_categ1']).most_common()]
    top_10 = index[:10]
    temp = data1[data1['sub_categ1'].isin(top_10)]
    # the corresponding top 10 indexes get their corresponding names from "sub_categ1"

In [27]: plt.figure(figsize=(20,10))
    sns.countplot(temp['sub_categ1'])
    plt.title('Sub-Category 1 Analysis',fontsize = 20)
    plt.xticks(rotation = 12,wrap = True,fontsize = 15)
    plt.xlabe1('Top 10 Sub-Category1',fontsize = 15)
    plt.ylabe1('Frequency',fontsize = 15)
Out[27]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Frequency')
```

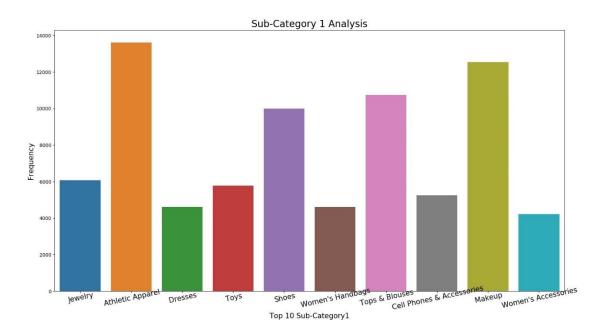


Fig 2.3.2(a): - Top 10 Sub-Category 1 Analysis (Bar Plot)

#### Insight 1 from Sub-category 1:

• Most of the products from Sub-category 1 are bought from **Athletic Apparel** and **Makeup** category

## 3.2 (b) Sub Category 1 vs Price

```
In [28]: temp2 = temp[temp['price']<80] # box plot
    plt.figure(figsize=(20,10))
    sns.boxplot(temp2['sub_categ1'],temp2['price'])
    plt.title('Sub-Category 1 vs Price',fontsize = 20)
    plt.xticks(rotation = 10,wrap = True,fontsize = 15)
    plt.xlabel('Top 10 Sub-Category 1',fontsize = 15)
    plt.ylabel('Price',fontsize = 15)</pre>
```

Out[28]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Price')

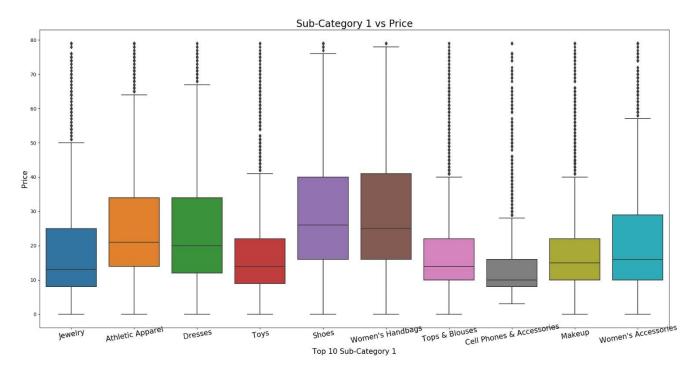


Fig 2.3.2(b): - Top 10 Sub-Category 1 vs Price (Box Plot)

```
In [29]: temp2.groupby(['sub_categ1'])['price'].agg('median')
Out[29]: sub_categ1
         Athletic Apparel
                                      21.0
         Cell Phones & Accessories
                                      10.0
         Dresses
                                      20.0
         Jewelry
                                      13.0
         Makeup
                                      15.0
         Shoes
                                      26.0
         Tops & Blouses
                                      14.0
         Toys
                                      14.0
         Women's Accessories
                                      16.0
         Women's Handbags
                                      25.0
         Name: price, dtype: float64
```

#### Insight 2 from Sub-category 1:

- Products in **Shoes** category are more expensive than **Women's Handbag** by 1\$
- Products in Women's Handbag category is more expensive thus has low frequency
- Hence its satisfies the logic that Expensive products are bought less number of times

## 3.3 (a) Sub Category 2

```
In [30]: index = []
           [index.append(key) for key, value in Counter(data1['sub_categ2']).most_common()]
           top_10 = index[:10]
           temp = data1[data1['sub_categ2'].isin(top_10)]
           plt.figure(figsize=(20,10))
           sns.countplot(temp['sub_categ2'])
           plt.title('Sub-Category 2 Analysis',fontsize = 20)
plt.xticks(rotation = 7,wrap = True,fontsize = 14)
           plt.xlabel('Top 10 Sub-Category 2',fontsize = 15)
           plt.ylabel('Frequency',fontsize = 15)
```

Out[30]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Frequency')

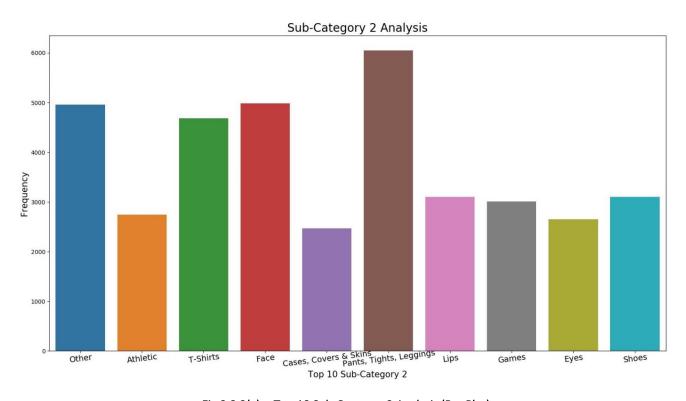


Fig 2.3.2(a): - Top 10 Sub-Category 2 Analysis (Bar Plot)

#### Insight 1 from Sub-category 2:

Products under category Pants, Tights, Leggings are bought the highest number of times

## 3.3 (b) Sub Category 2 vs Price

```
In [31]: temp2 = temp[temp['price']<80]
    plt.figure(figsize=(20,10))
    sns.boxplot(temp2['sub_categ2'],temp2['price'])
    plt.title('Sub-Category 2 vs Price', fontsize = 20)
    plt.xticks(rotation = 10,wrap = True,fontsize = 14)
    plt.xlabel('Top 10 Sub-Category 2', fontsize = 15)
    plt.ylabel('Price', fontsize = 15)</pre>
Out[31]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Price')
```

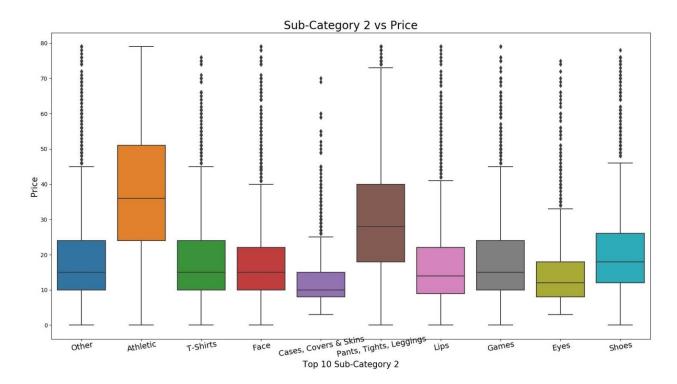


Fig 2.3.2(b): - Top 10 Sub-Category 2 vs Price (Box Plot)

```
In [32]: temp2.groupby(['sub_categ2'])['price'].agg('median')
Out[32]: sub_categ2
                                     36.0
          Athletic
          Cases, Covers & Skins
                                     10.0
          Eyes
                                     12.0
         Face
                                     15.0
          Games
                                     15.0
          Lips
                                     14.0
         0ther
                                     15.0
          Pants, Tights, Leggings
                                     28.0
         Shoes
                                     18.0
          T-Shirts
         Name: price, dtype: float64
```

#### Insight 2 from Sub-Category 2:

- Yet again products in the **Athletic** category are bought moderately as they are expensive
- Products in **Pants**, **Tights**, **Leggings** category are bought more as moderately expensive

#### 4. Brand Name

```
In [34]: print('There are', data1['brand_name'].nunique(), 'unique values in brand name column')
         There are 2321 unique values in brand name column
         As there are 2321 unique brand names, we lookout only for products purchased from the top 10 frequently occuring brands
In [33]: index = []
         [index.append(key) for key, value in Counter(data1['brand_name']).most_common()]
         top_10 = index[:10]
         temp = data1[data1['brand_name'].isin(top_10)]
         plt.figure(figsize=(20,20))
         plt.subplot(2,1,1)
         sns.countplot(temp['brand_name'])
         plt.title('Brand wise Analysis (with Unknown)', fontsize = 25)
         plt.xticks(rotation = 0,wrap = True,fontsize = 14)
         plt.xlabel('Brand Name', fontsize = 0)
         plt.ylabel('Frequency', fontsize = 20)
         temp = data1[data1['brand_name']!='Unknown']
         [index.append(key) for key, value in Counter(temp['brand_name']).most_common()]
         top_10 = index[:10]
         temp2 = temp[temp['brand_name'].isin(top_10)]
         plt.subplot(2,1,2)
          # plt.figure(figsize=(40,20))
         sns.countplot(temp2['brand_name'])
         plt.title('Brand wise Analysis (without Unknown)', fontsize = 25)
         plt.xticks(rotation = 0,wrap = True,fontsize = 14)
         plt.xlabel('Brand Name',fontsize = 20)
         plt.ylabel('Frequency',fontsize = 20)
         plt.show()
```

#### Insight 1 from Brand name:

- As seen in the graph below we ignore the Brand name marked as Unknown as it represents our missing values
- Hence we make the graph again without considering the Unknown
- We observe that Pink, Nike, and Victoria's Secret are top 3 most purchased brands
- Also it is obvious that Pink and Victoria's Secret brand products are mostly bought from Women main category more frequently

#### 4.1 Brand Wise Analysis

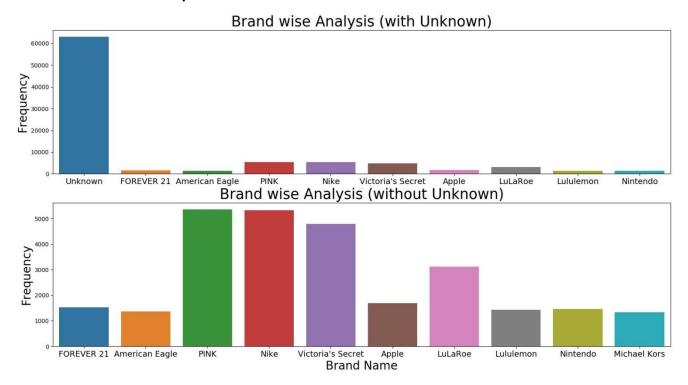


Fig 2.4: -Brand Wise Analysis (Bar Plot)

#### 4.2 Brand Name vs Price

```
In [34]: temp3 = temp2[temp2['price']<80]
    plt.figure(figsize=(20,10))
    sns.boxplot(temp3['brand_name'],temp3['price'])
    plt.title("Top 10 brand wise Analysis (According to price)",fontsize=20)
    plt.xlabel("Brand Name",fontsize=15)
    plt.ylabel("Price",fontsize=15)
    plt.xticks(rotation = 0,wrap = True,fontsize = 15)</pre>
Out[34]: (array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]), <a list of 10 Text xticklabel objects>)
```

```
In [35]: temp3.groupby(['brand_name'])['price'].agg('median')
Out[35]: brand_name
         American Eagle
                              14.0
         Apple
                              15.0
         FOREVER 21
                              12.0
         LuLaRoe
                              29.0
         Lululemon
                              35.0
         Michael Kors
                              36.0
         Nike
                              21.0
         Nintendo
                              19.0
         PINK
                              20.0
         Victoria's Secret
                              19.0
         Name: price, dtype: float64
```

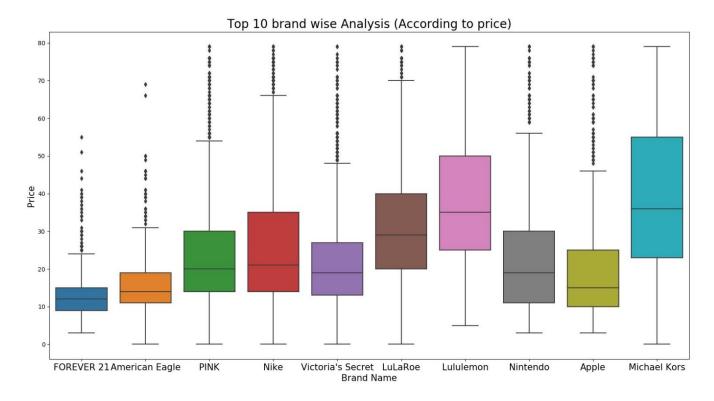


Fig 2.4.1: - Brand Name vs Price (Box Plot)

#### Insight 2 from Brand name:

- Michael Kors products cost high hence less bought
- Lululemon has the 2nd highest median price
- Pink, Nike and Victoria's Secret products have moderate pricing hence are more frequently bought

# 5. Item Description:

First we create a function to return us a count of words from each Description

```
In [36]: def length(description):
    count = 0
    for i in description.split():
        count+=1
    return count
```

Then we create a series which has the description and the length of description in words

```
In [37]: lol=[]
    for i in data1['item_description']:
        temp=[]
        temp.append(i)
        temp.append(length(str(i)))
        lol.append(temp)
```

Making a new dataframe of the series we created - 1o1

8

Adding only 2nd coloumn Description\_length from mydf to data1

1 14k black Onyx earrings Good condition Final sale

```
In [40]: 1 data1['Description_length'] = mydf['Description_length']
In [41]: 1 plt.figure(figsize=(10,5))
    sns.scatterplot(x=data1.Description_length, y=data1.Description_length.value_counts())
    plt.title('Scatter-plot of description length',fontsize=20)
    plt.xlabel("Description Length in words",fontsize=15)
    plt.ylabel("Frequency",fontsize=15)
Out[41]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Frequency')
```

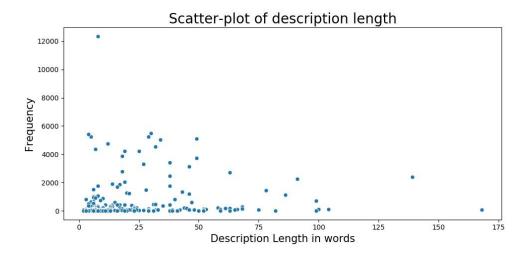


Fig 2.5: - Scatter Plot of description length

#### Insight 1 from Item Description:

• Most of the item descriptions are written in the range of 3-50 words

# 5.1 Item Description vs Price:

```
In [42]: 1    temp4=data1[data1['Description_length']<500]
    plt.figure(figsize=(15,5))
    sns.scatterplot(x=temp4['Description_length'], y=data1.price)
    plt.title('Description length vs Price',fontsize=20)
    plt.xlabel("Description Length in words",fontsize=15)
    plt.ylabel("Price",fontsize=15)</pre>
Out[42]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Price')
```

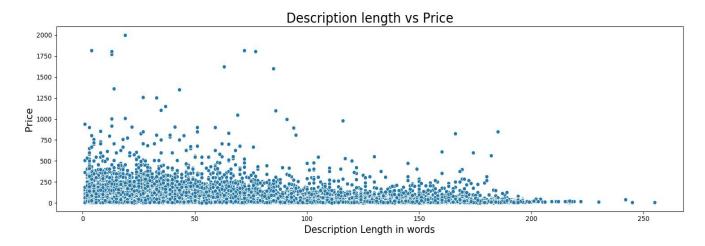


Fig 2.5.1: - Description Length vs Price (Scatter Plot)

# Insight 2 from Item Description:

• As the item description gets longer the price starts decreasing

#### 5.2 Let us check what length of item description occurs the most

```
In [43]: 1 desc_len_count = data1.Description_length.value_counts()
2 print(desc_len_count[0:3])

3     12346
6     5503
7     5423
Name: Description_length, dtype: int64

In [44]: 1 plt.figure(figsize=(20, 10))
2     sns.barplot(desc_len_count.index[0:11], desc_len_count[0:11])
3     plt.title('Item Description having most frequent number of words',fontsize=20)
4     plt.xticks(rotation = 0,wrap = True,fontsize = 15)
5     plt.xlabel('Number of words',fontsize=15)
6     plt.ylabel('Frequency',fontsize=15)
7     plt.show()
```

#### Item Description having most frequent number of words

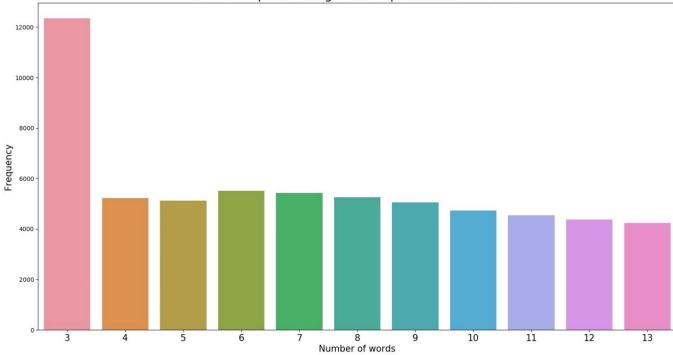


Fig 2.5.2: - Item Description having most frequent number of words

# Insight 3 from Item Description:

- This tells us that there are a lot of item descriptions having 3 words in it
- The item descriptions with shorter length are significantly higher than longer description lengths

#### **Text Processing:**

Most of the time, the first steps of an NLP project is to "tokenize" your documents, which main purpose is to normalize our texts. The three fundamental stages will usually include:

- break the descriptions into sentences and then break the sentences into tokens
- remove punctuation and stop words
- lowercase the tokens

#### Word Cloud:

A word cloud is useful to visualize uncoded text responses and questions with too many categories to conveniently show in a bar chart or a table. The area taken by each word/category is proportional to the number of respondents giving that answer. A word cloud will only show the top 100 words/categories

The Word Cloud is mostly created using the 100 most frequent words, excluding uninteresting words, such as I, who and that. You can choose to exclude addition words by dragging them to the **Ignore** region. You can include words that have been excluded by dragging them back into the word cloud

We can create custom Word Cloud by using an image's layout as the shape of our Word Cloud. You can see a plenty of examples in this project

### 5.3 Word Cloud for Item Description:

To check frequently occuring most important words in the description

```
In [52]:
           1 from nltk.corpus import stopwords
           2 stopwords = set(stopwords.words("english"))
              from nltk.stem import WordNetLemmatizer
           4 lemmatizer = WordNetLemmatizer()
           5 from PIL import Image
           7 # checking length of stop words
           8 len(stopwords)
           9 from string import punctuation
           punctuation = list(punctuation)
           11 stopwords.update(punctuation)
           12 # adding punctuation to stopwords
           15 # wordcloud for Item Description variable with 500 most occuring words
           16 doc1 = []
           17 for i in range(0,data1.shape[0]):
                   text = str(data1["item_description"][i])
           19
                   text = text.lower()
                   text = re.sub("[^a-zA-Z]", " ", text)
text = nltk.word_tokenize(text)
           20
           21
                  text = [lemmatizer.lemmatize(word) for word in text if word not in stopwords and len(word)>2]
text = " ".join(text)
          23
          24
                   doc1.append(text)
          25
          26  # join string
27  doc2 = "".join(doc1)
```



Fig 2.5.3: - Text Processing (Word Cloud) for Item Description

#### 5.4 Word Cloud for Item Description of Top 6 Categories:

```
In [50]: 1 from nltk.corpus import stopwords
                    from PIL import Image
                    stp=set(stopwords.words('english'))
                    j=0
                    plt.figure(figsize=(8,10))
                    plt.figure(figs12e=(8,10))
for i in datal["Main_categ"].value_counts().index[:6]:
    text = data1.loc[data1["Main_categ"] == str(i)]["item_description"]
    # text = data1.loc[data1['main_category']==str(i)]
    # text = text['item_description']
    text = "".join(text)
    mask = np.array(limage.open('C:/Users/Rohit/Downloads/'+str(i)+'.png'))
    woodcloud = Wordcloud(width=2000 beight=1500 relative scaling=1.0 ms
               10
                          13
               14
                                                            stopwords=stp,
               15
                                                           min_font_size=10,).generate(text)
               # With relative_scaling=1, a word that is twice as frequent will have twice the size.

# If you want to consider the word frequencies and not only their rank, relative_scaling around .5 often looks good.
               18 \# If 'auto' it will be set to 0.5 unless repeat is true, in which case it will be set to 0.
               19
               20
                           # plot the WordCloud image
               21
                           if j < 6:
                                 j = j + 1
               23
                                 plt.subplot(3,2,j)
               24
                                plt.imshow(wordcloud)
plt.axis("off")
               25
                                 plt.show()
               26
```

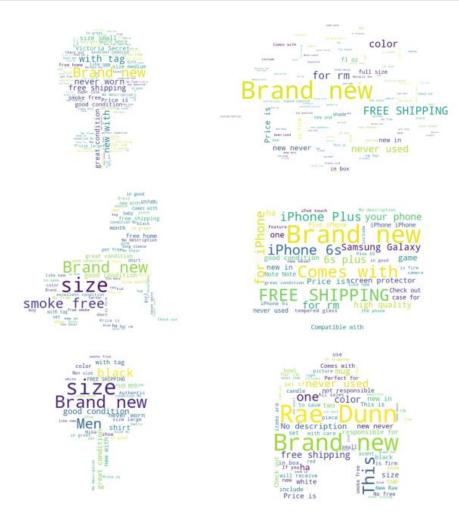


Fig 2.5.4: - Text Processing for Top 6 Category (Word Cloud)

# 5.5 Interactive Clustering graph with bokeh library:

#### Step 1- Pre-Processing: tf-idf

tf-idf is the acronym for Term Frequency—inverse Document Frequency. It quantifies the importance of a particular word in relative to the vocabulary of a collection of documents or corpus. The metric depends on two factors:

**Term Frequency:** the occurrences of a word in a given document (i.e. bag of words) Inverse Document Frequency: the reciprocal number of times a word occurs in a corpus of documents Think about of it this way: If the word is used extensively in all documents, its existence within a specific document will not be able to provide us much specific information about the document itself. So the second term could be seen as a penalty term that penalizes common words such as "a", "the", "and", etc. tf-idf can therefore, be seen as a weighting scheme for words relevancy in a specific document.

```
In [47]: 1 data2=data1.copy()
In [48]:
          1 from nltk.stem import WordNetLemmatizer
           2 lemmatizer = WordNetLemmatizer()
          3 from nltk.corpus import stopwords
          4 stp=set(stopwords.words('english'))
          6 def tokenize(text):
                 text = str(text)
                 text = text.lower()
                 text = re.sub("[^a-zA-Z]", " "
                 text = nltk.word_tokenize(text)
                 text = [lemmatizer.lemmatize(word) for word in text if word not in stp and len(word) > 2]
          12
                 return text
          13
          14 data2['tokens'] = data2['item_description'].map(tokenize)
          15 from sklearn.feature extraction.text import TfidfVectorizer
          16 vectorizer = TfidfVectorizer(min_df=10,
                                          max features=180000,
          18
                                          tokenizer=tokenize,
          19
          20
          21 data3 = data2.sample(n=15000)
          vz = vectorizer.fit transform(list(data3['item description']))
         24 df idf = pd.DataFrame(vectorizer.idf , index=vectorizer.get feature names(),columns=["tfidf"])
         27 # Given the high dimension of our tfidf matrix, we need to reduce their dimension using the
         28 # Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) technique. And to visualize our vocabulary, we could next use t-SNE to
         29 # reduce the dimension from 50 to 2. t-SNE is more suitable for dimensionality reduction to 2 or 3.
         30
```

#### Step 2- Singular Vector Decomposition:

- Given the high dimension of our tfidf matrix, we need to reduce their dimension using the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) technique
- And to visualize our vocabulary, we could next use t-SNE to reduce the dimension from 50 to 2
- t-SNE is more suitable for dimensionality reduction to 2 or 3
- In this case 2 coz we need to plot x-y axis

#### Step 3 - t Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE)

- t-SNE is a technique for dimensionality reduction that is particularly well suited for the visualization of high-dimensional datasets
- The goal is to take a set of points in a high-dimensional space and find a representation of those points in a lower-dimensional space, typically the 2D plane
- It is based on probability distributions with random walk on neighborhood graphs to find the structure within the data. But since t-SNE complexity is significantly high, usually we'd use other high-dimension reduction techniques before applying t-SNE

```
In [55]: 1     from sklearn.manifold import TSNE
2     tsne_model = TSNE(n_components=2, random_state=0, n_iter=1000,perplexity=75)
3     tsne_tfidf= tsne_model.fit_transform(svd_tfidf)
```

## Step 4- K means Clustering:

• K-means clustering objective is to minimize the average squared Euclidean distance of the document / description from their cluster centroids

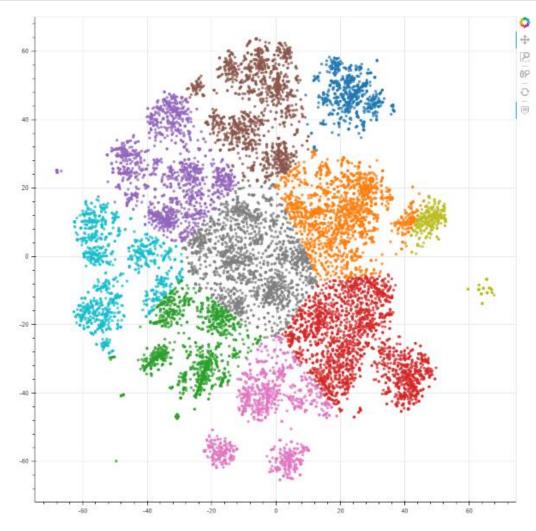


Fig 2.5.5: - K-Means Clustering of Item Description

### 6. Item Condition

```
In [45]: plt.figure(figsize=(15, 10))
    sns.boxplot(x=data1['item_condition_id'], y=np.log1p(data1.price))
    plt.title('Box Plot of item condition id VS Product price',fontsize=20)
    plt.xlabel('Item Condition ID',fontsize=15)
    plt.ylabel('log(price+1)',fontsize=15)
    plt.show()
```

#### Box Plot of item condition id VS Product price

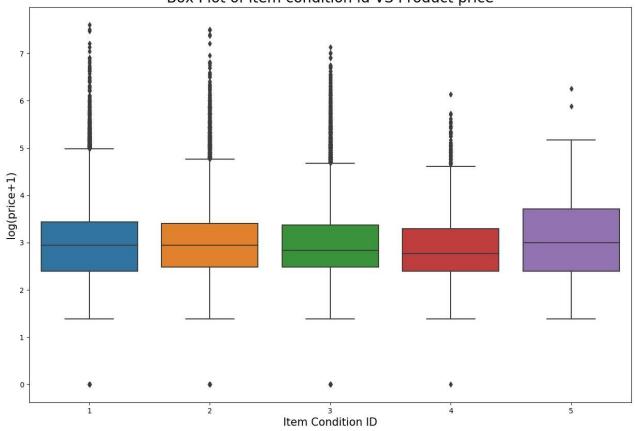
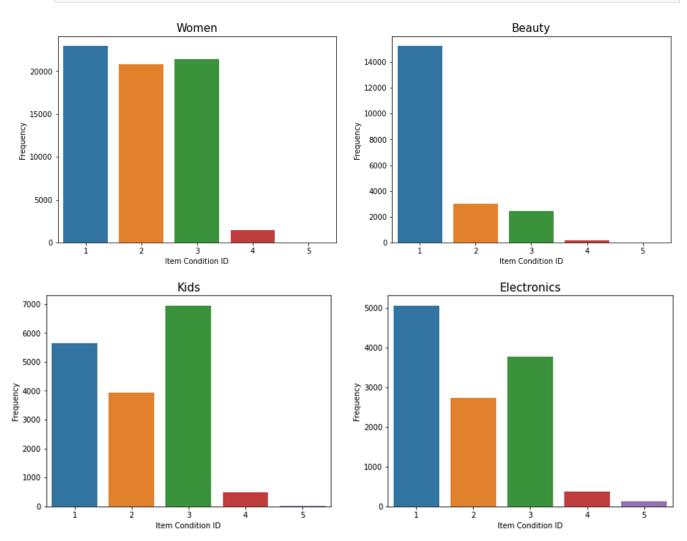


Fig 2.6: - Item Condition vs Price (Box Plot)

## Insight 1 from Item Condition:

• The median of Item condition as 5 is higher than the others which states that items with item condition 5 were more expensive than others

## 6.1 Item Condition for every Main Category



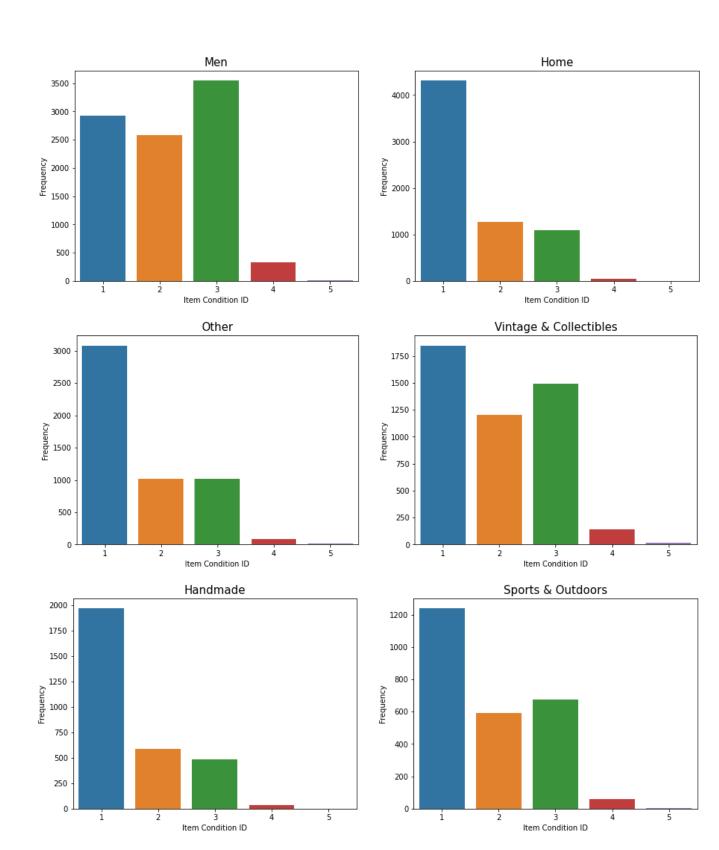


Fig 2.6.1: - Analysis on Item condition of each Main Category (Count Plot)

### Insight 2 for Item Condition:

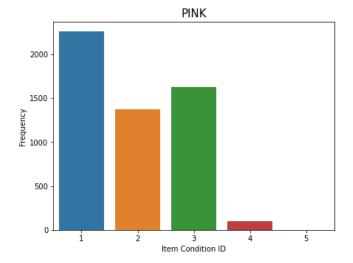
- Item condition marked as 1, 2 and 3 are most frequent in Women, Kids, Men and Vintage category
- Item condition marked as 4 and 5 are bought significantly less amount of times
- **Beauty** and **Handmade** categories have too many Item condition id as 1 as compared to other Item Condition ID
- The most number of poor items which marked as 5 are found in the **Electronics** category

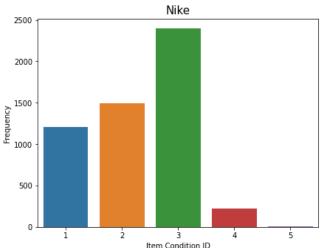
### 6.2 Item Condition for Top 10 Brands

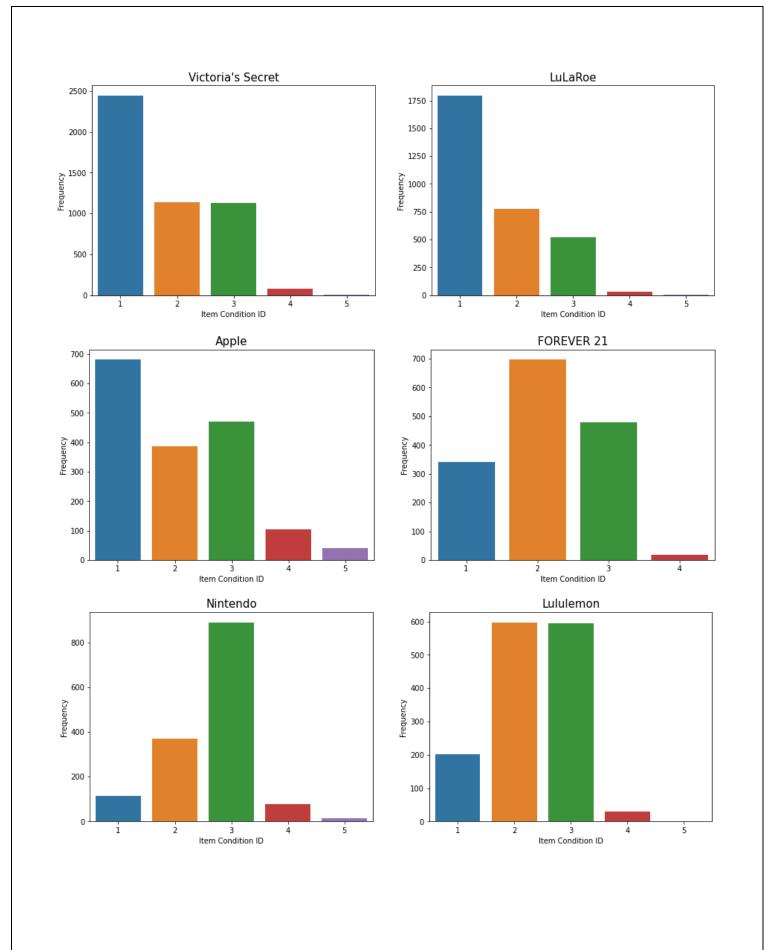
```
In [48]: from collections import Counter
temp=data1[data1['brand_name']!='Unknown']
index = []
[index.append(key) for key, value in Counter(temp['brand_name']).most_common()]
top_10 = index[:10]
temp2 = temp[temp['brand_name'].isin(top_10)]

f,axes = plt.subplots(5, 2, figsize=(15, 30))

for i in range(temp2['brand_name'].nunique()):
    sns.countplot(temp2['brand_name'] == index[i]]['item_condition_id'], ax = axes[int(i/2)][i%2])
    axes[int(i / 2)][i % 2].set_title(index[i],fontsize=15)
    axes[int(i / 2)][i % 2].set_xlabel('Item_Condition_ID')
    axes[int(i / 2)][i % 2].set_ylabel('Frequency')
```







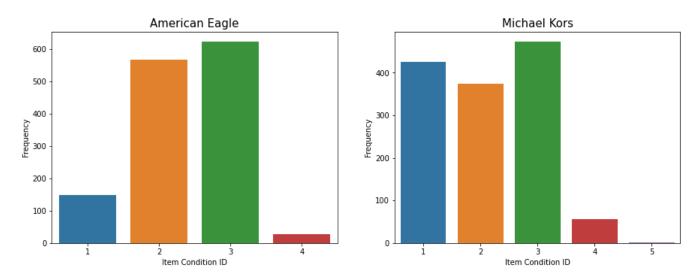
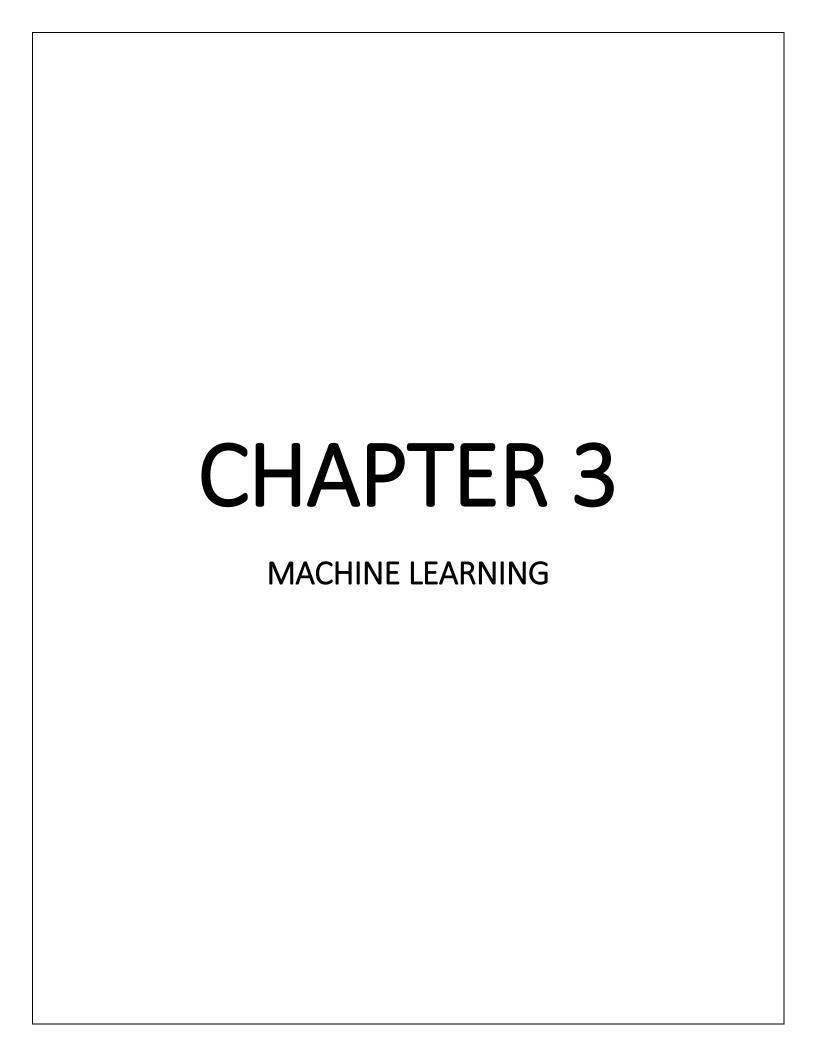


Fig 2.6.2: - Analysis on Item condition of Top 10 Brands (Count Plot)

## Insight 3 from Item Condition ID:

- Brands like Pink, Nike and Michael Kors have more number of New(1) to Good(3) condition items as compared to other brands
- American Eagle doesn't have a single product of poor quality(5)
- Apple has the most number of poor quality(5) products



## Applying Machine Learning Models:

Coming to our actual problem, we will be now applying machine learning models to give us a price that we should suggest to the seller. As discussed earlier, this is a regression problem, so we will be applying some regressions models based on our data and other factors that we will face during solving.

In python we have to do a bit of preprocessing on categorical data while performing regression algorithms. Methods like One hot encoding and Label Encoding are used for the same.

For validation purposes, there is a need to split the data into training and testing and also to avoid problems like overfitting and bias/variance tradeoff.

As we know that nothing is free in this world so we can say that price of data being zero is not possible. We observed that there are some rows which have price as 0. Hence we remove those rows

```
In [34]: data2 = data1.loc[data1['price'] > 0]

Seperating dependent and independent variables

In [35]: feature_cols = ['item_condition_id', 'category_name', 'brand_name', 'shipping']
    x = data2[feature_cols] # Independent variables
    y = np.log(data2['price']) # Dependent variable

Performing One hot encoding on categorical variables

In [36]: cat_name = pd.get_dummies(data2["category_name"], drop_first=True) # drop_first=True means dropping the redundant column brd_name = pd.get_dummies(data2["brand_name"], drop_first=True)

# removing the categorical columns
    x.drop(['category_name', 'brand_name'], axis=1, inplace=True)
    x1 = pd.concat([x, cat_name, brd_name], axis=1)

Splitting the data into train and test to validate the model

In [41]: from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    x_train, x_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(x1, y, test_size=0.3, random_state=10)
```

## 1. OLS (Ordinary Least Squares Regression) Model:

Regression analysis predicts the value of a dependent variable based on the known value of the independent variable. Also defined as a relationship between one outcome and several explanatory variables in terms of an equation. It tells about the magtd. Of the relation or numerical relation.

It is a statistical method that allows to summarize and study relationships between 2 continuous variables. One is predictor or independent or explanatory (x) and other is dependent or outcome or response (y)

The main ideas behind linear regression are:

- 1. Use a least squares line to fit a line to the data
- 2. Calculate R<sup>2</sup>
- 3. Calculate a P-value for R<sup>2</sup>

Also there is another important measure called RMSE which signifies how closely our predicted values are to the actual data

Formula - V (Actual value – Predicted value)<sup>2</sup>

```
In [8]: from statsmodels.api import OLS
        regr = OLS(y_train, x_train)
        result = regr.fit()
        print("Summary of OLS Model:-")
        print(result.summary())
```

#### Checking the results

#### OLS Regression Results

```
______
      Dep. Variable: price R-squared (uncentered):
Model: OLS Adj. R-squared (uncentered):
      Mode:
Method:
Date:
                  Least Squares F-statistic:
                                                          0.960
                                                         818.2
      Prob (F-statisti 22:54:54 Log-Likelihood: No. Observations: 103718 AIC: Df Residuals: 100707
                  Sat, 13 Jun 2020 Prob (F-statistic):
                                                          0.00
                                                        -93904.
                                                      1.938e+05
                                                       2.226e+05
      Df Model:
                          3011
      Covariance Type: nonrobust
       ______
Omnibus:
                              Durbin-Watson:
                     8215.383
                                                       1.997
                     0.000 Jarque-Bera (JB):
Prob(Omnibus):
                                                  17523.598
                       0.522 Prob(JB):
                                                     0.00
                        4.722 Cond. No.
Kurtosis:
                                                    5.58e+18
______
```

#### Warnings:

Skew:

- [1] Standard Errors assume that the covariance matrix of the errors is correctly specified.
- [2] The smallest eigenvalue is 1.58e-32. This might indicate that there are strong multicollinearity problems or that the design matrix is singular.

## **Important Note:**

- 1. Not always **R-squared** is the best parameter to judge our model as sometimes no matter what we do, we can never get a proper R-squared value because the way in which the data is built. Hence we look after other deciding parameter called RMSLE
- 2. We are calling RMSLE (Root Mean Squared log Error) instead of RMSE because we have taken the log of our dependent variable as it wasn't normally distributed

### Insights from OLS model:

- As we can see that the R-squared is almost close to 1 which means the predicted value of the training data is very similar to that of the test data
- The 2nd warning tells us that there are strong multi-collinearity problems or that the
  design matrix is singular because of the one hot encoding and many unique values
  in our data columns
- Hence this is one of the major drawbacks of this model in our case
- Other factors like Skewness (0.5), Kurtosis (4.7) i.e. almost close to Mesokurtic curve (3) and Auto-correlation (1.99) tell us that model is optimal, however we still can't use this model to know the RMSLE as well as to predict the values
- For predicting the values for testing data we use linear regression and see if we can overcome the OLS model's drawbacks in **statsmodel** library

## 2. Linear Regression Model:

```
In [9]: from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
    model = LinearRegression()
    model.fit(x_train, y_train)

y_pred_train = model.predict(x_train) # Predicting the value of train to compare with actual value
y_pred_test = model.predict(x_test) # Predicting the value of test data to compare with actual value

from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
    print("RMSLE value of Training Data is {a}".format(a=np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_train,y_pred_train))))
    print("RMSLE value of Training Data is {a}".format(a=np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_test,y_pred_test))))

RMSLE value of Training Data is 0.5981505023453584
RMSLE value of Testing Data is 3155202007.940081
```

### Insights from Linear Model:

• We can observe that training data has very less rmsle but the testing data the rmsle is extremely high.

#### Problem:

 The data is containing multi-collinearity which can be seen in the RMSLE of testing data

#### Solution:

- Almost 99% of our columns are the dummies representing the categorical data and we cannot remove them and it would be futile to check the VIF of over 3500 columns
- Hence, we have to use algorithms which we can fine tune to optimize our model
- This leads us to a conclusion that there is a need to build models which can help us apply techniques like Dimension reduction, Regularization, Boosting or Bagging. Let's check them out one by one
- In ML, the ideal model is the one which has low bias i.e it can capture true relationship and low variability by producing consistent predictions across different datasets
- The methods used to do this are
  - Regularization
     Boosting
     Bagging

## 3. Ridge Regression:

#### Overview:

- Ridge Regression comes under the Regularization method
- It provides a way to create a simple model with great explanatory power when number of predictor variables in a dataset are very high and not very significant or when a dataset has multi-collinearity
- It uses a type of Shrinkage Parameter called ridge estimator which belongs to a class of L2 regularization ( $\lambda$ )
- L2 regularization adds a penalty which equals the square of the magnitude of coefficient
- All co-effs are shrunk by the same factor
- When  $\lambda$  = 0, ridge regression equals least squares regression and when  $\lambda$  = infinity, all co-effs are shrunk to 0
- Our goal here is to find the perfect  $\lambda$  value because as  $\lambda$  increases, error due to bias increases and as  $\lambda$  decreases, error due to variance increases

Note: - In python, while modelling the  $\lambda$  is considered as alpha

```
In [10]: from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge
          # from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV
          # parameters = {"alpha":[0.01,0.1,0,1,10,100]}
          # ridgeReg = Ridge(solver = "lsqr", fit_intercept=False)
         # Lr_reg = GridSearchCV(ridgeReg, param_grid = parameters, n_jobs=-1)
          # lr_reg.fit(x_train, y_train)
          # By applying GridsearchCV, we get to know that the best parameter for the model is given by
          # lr_reg.best_params
          # Output- {'alpha': 0.1}
          ridgeReg = Ridge(alpha=0.1,solver="lsqr",fit_intercept=False)
          ridgeReg.fit(x_train,y_train)
         y_pred = ridgeReg.predict(x_test)
          y_pred_train = ridgeReg.predict(x_train)
          from sklearn.metrics import r2_score,mean_squared_error
          rmse_test_ridge = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_test,y_pred))
          rmse_train_ridge = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_train,y_pred_train))
         print("RMSLE value of Training Data is {a}".format(a=rmse_train_ridge))
print("RMSLE value of Testing Data is {a}".format(a=rmse_test_ridge))
          RMSLE value of Training Data is 0.6375558834039196
         RMSLE value of Testing Data is 0.6634873592375078
```

## Interpretation of RMSLE value:

- It is a way of figuring out how much a model disagrees with the actual data
- The lower this number is, the better the fit of the model
- It is preferred that the value of RMSLE should be close to the minimum value of the response variable in test data

Checking the min and max values of  $y_{t}$  test corresponding to our RMSLE value 0.66

```
In [47]: print('Min value of y_test is', min(y_test))
print('Max value of y_test is', max(y_test))

Min value of y_test is 1.0986122886681098
Max value of y_test is 7.498869733976931
```

### Insight from Ridge Model:

As we can see that **0.66** is *close* to **1.09**, we can conclude that our model is able to predict the value close to the actual value

## 4. SGD (Stochastic Gradient Descent) Model:

#### Overview:

- In statistics, machine learning and data science fields, we optimize a lot of stuff
- When we fit a line with linear regression, we optimize the slope and intercept
- In logistic regression, we optimize the squiggly line
- In a similar way Gradient descent also helps optimize such things and much more
- In this case we have almost half billion data points and hence computations can take a long time
- This method uses a randomly selected subset of data at every step rather than full dataset
- This reduces the time spent calculating derivatives of loss function (Sum of squared Residuals)

```
In [11]: from sklearn.linear_model import SGDRegressor,Ridge
          # parameters = {"alpha": [0.01,0.1,0,1,10,100],
                            "l1_ratio": [0.4,0.5,0.6,0.7,0.8],
          # model_sgd = SGDRegressor(loss="squared_loss",penalty="l2",
                                      learning rate="invscaling", max iter=100,
                                      fit_intercept=False)
          # model_SGD = GridSearchCV(model_sgd,param_grid=parameters)
          # model_SGD.fit(x_train,y_train)
          # By applying GridsearchCV, we get to know that the best parameter for the model is given by
          # print(model_SGD.best_params_)
          # Output - {'alpha': 0, 'l1 ratio': 0.4}
          model_SGD = SGDRegressor(loss="squared_loss",penalty="12",
                                    learning_rate="invscaling", max_iter=100,
                                    fit_intercept=False,alpha=0,l1_ratio=0.4)
          model_SGD.fit(x_train,y_train)
          y_pred_train_sgd = model_SGD.predict(x_train)
          y_pred_test_sgd = model_SGD.predict(x_test)
          from sklearn.metrics import r2_score,mean_squared_error
          rmse_train = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_train,y_pred_train_sgd))
          rmse_test = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_test,y_pred_test_sgd))
         print("RMSLE value of Training Data is {a}".format(a=rmse_train))
print("RMSLE value of Testing Data is {a}".format(a=rmse_test))
          RMSLE value of Training Data is 0.8160638826686536
```

### Insight from SGD model:

RMSLE value of Testing Data is 0.8276055544003023

 We can see that although the RMSLE is 0.82 which is very less yet not as good as the RMSLE in the Ridge Model

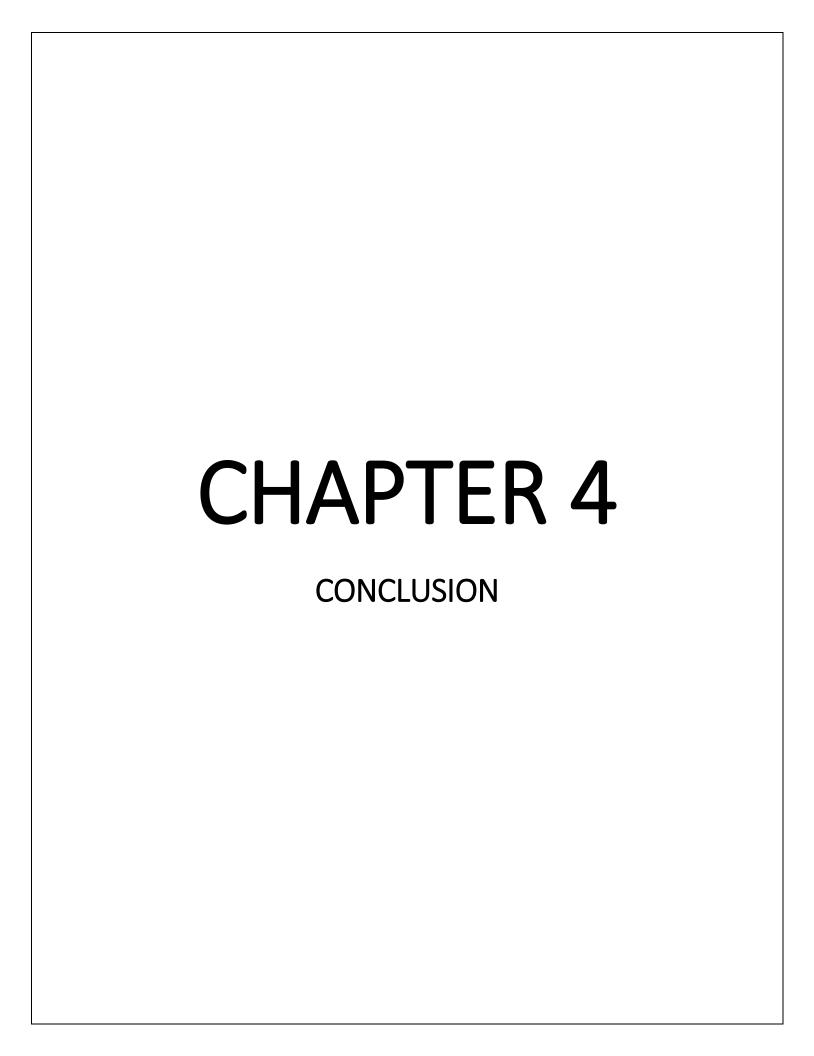
## 5. Random Forest Regression Model:

- Decision trees have the possibility of overfitting and have inaccuracy for predictive learning as not all the variables give less impurity at each split
- Also they are not flexible with new data
- This problem is easily overcome by random forests as it combines the simplicity of the decision trees with flexibility resulting in a vast improvement in accuracy
- Bagging method is used to solve the problem we are facing
- Variance decreases because of the sub samples created and 1/3rd of the observations are left for validation purpose

```
In [12]: # from sklearn.model selection import RandomizedSearchCV
        # param_dist = {'n_estimators': [10,50,100,150,160,200,300],
                       'min_samples_split': [2,3,5,6],
                     "max_depth":[None,10,20,40,60,80]
        # regr1 = RandomForestRegressor()
        # n_iter_search = 50
        # regr1 = RandomizedSearchCV(regr1, param_distributions=param_dist,
                                 n_iter=n_iter_search, cv=3,n_jobs=-1)
        # regr1.fit(x_train, y_train)
        # print(regr1.best_params_)
        # output - {'n_estimators': 200, 'min_samples_split': 3, 'max_depth=40'}
In [5]: from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor
        model_rf.fit(x_train,y_train)
        y pred train rf = model rf.predict(x train)
        y_pred_test_rf = model_rf.predict(x_test)
        from sklearn.metrics import mean squared error
        rmse_train_rf = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_train,y_pred_train_rf))
        rmse_test_rf = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_test,y_pred_test_rf))
        RMSLE value of Training Data is 0.6213232366107725
        RMSLE value of Testing Data is 0.6461674146829152
```

### Insight from Random Forest Model:

RMSLE value we obtained here 0.64 is a tiny bit, yet better than the RMSLE we got
in Ridge model, thus the best model so far



## **Conclusion:**

```
In [1]: from prettytable import PrettyTable
x = PrettyTable()
x.field_names = ["Models", "HyperParameters used", "RMSLE"]

x.add_row(["Ordinary Least Squares Regression", "---", '---'])
x.add_row(["Linear Regression", "---", 3155202007.940081])
x.add_row(["Ridge Regression", "alpha", 0.66])
x.add_row(["SGD Regressor", "alpha, l1_ratio", 0.82])
x.add_row(["Random Forest Regressor ", "n_estimators, min_samples_split, max_depth", 0.64])
print(x)
```

Models	HyperParameters used	RMSLE
Ordinary Least Squares Regression Linear Regression Ridge Regression SGD Regressor Random Forest Regressor	     alpha   alpha, l1_ratio   n_estimators, min_samples_split, max_depth	   3155202007.940081     0.66     0.82     0.64

- We couldn't find RMSLE in OLS model and the Linear model had a very huge value
- Multi-collinearity in the data lead us to build models where we could fine tune it according to the best parameters provided by grid search mechanism
- Out of all the models we applied, **Random Forest Regressor** gave us the best and the lowest RMSLE value **0.64**
- Hence we can deploy this model at the clients machine so that sellers can get an
  estimate of the price they should set for their products
- Another solution would be making an app wherein the seller will enter the parameters one by one and after submitting he will get the result as the Suggested Price for the inputs provided by him/her

## Summary:

- The Dataset is imported from Kaggle and basic data analysis is done for all the features to extract useful information
- We did **feature engineering** and incorporated 4 **additional features** 'Length of item description' and 'Main Category', 'Sub Category 1', 'Sub Category 2' that influence price of an item fairly
- We did necessary **preprocessing** on the text features, **one-hot encoding** for the categorical features and **tf-idf vectorization** for **text** features
- This is a **regression** problem and we have used **'OLS Regression'**, **'Linear Regression'**, **'Ridge Regression'**, **'SGD regressor'** and **'Random Forest regressor'** for our models
- "RMSLE" was the error metric required, so all our algorithms calculated RMSLE as the error metric
- Hyper parameters were **tuned** for each of the models and the best parameters were used to predict prices on the test dataset
- After using ensembling modelling, we brought down the RMSLE score and it was reported to be 0.64
- So, ensemble modelling i.e. **Random Forest Regressor** gives the **best** performance for our data

# References

- 1. Investopedia
- 2. Wikipedia
- 3. YouTube (Theoretical Info.)
- 4. Kaggle (Mercari Data set)
- 5. Stack Overflow
- 6. Python Documentations