# Data Cleaning in Python: the Ultimate Guide (2020)

Techniques on what to clean and how.



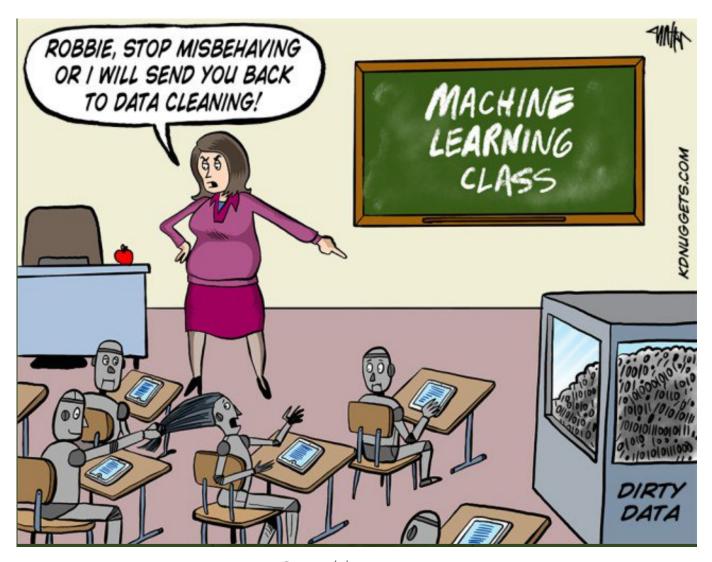


Source: Pixabay

Before fitting a machine learning or statistical model, we always *have to* clean the data. *No* models create meaningful results with messy data.

**Data cleaning or cleansing** is the process of detecting and correcting (or removing) corrupt or inaccurate records from a record set, table, or database and refers to identifying

What a long definition! It is certainly not fun and very time-consuming.



Source: kdnuggets.com

To make it *easier*, we created this new complete step-by-step guide in Python. You'll learn techniques on *how to find and clean*:

- Missing Data
- Irregular Data (Outliers)
- Unnecessary Data Repetitive Data, Duplicates and more
- Inconsistent Data Capitalization, Addresses and more

ithin this guide, we use the Russian housing dataset from Kaggle. The goal of this project is to predict housing price fluctuations in Russia. We are not cleaning the entire dataset but will show examples from it.

Before we jump into the cleaning process, let's take a brief look at the data.

```
1
    # import packages
    import pandas as pd
 2
    import numpy as np
    import seaborn as sns
 6
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import matplotlib.mlab as mlab
 7
    import matplotlib
 8
    plt.style.use('ggplot')
    from matplotlib.pyplot import figure
10
11
12
    %matplotlib inline
13
    matplotlib.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (12,8)
14
    pd.options.mode.chained assignment = None
15
16
17
18
    # read the data
19
    df = pd.read csv('sberbank.csv')
20
21
    # shape and data types of the data
22
    print(df.shape)
23
    print(df.dtypes)
24
25
26
    # select numeric columns
    df_numeric = df.select_dtypes(include=[np.number])
27
    numeric cols = df numeric.columns.values
28
    print(numeric cols)
29
30
31
    # select non numeric columns
32
    df non numeric = df.select dtypes(exclude=[np.number])
```

From these results, we learn that the dataset has 30,471 rows and 292 columns. We also identify whether the features are numeric or categorical variables. These are all useful information.

Now we can run through the checklist of "dirty" data types and fix them one by one.

Let's get started.



Source: GIPHY

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## Missing data

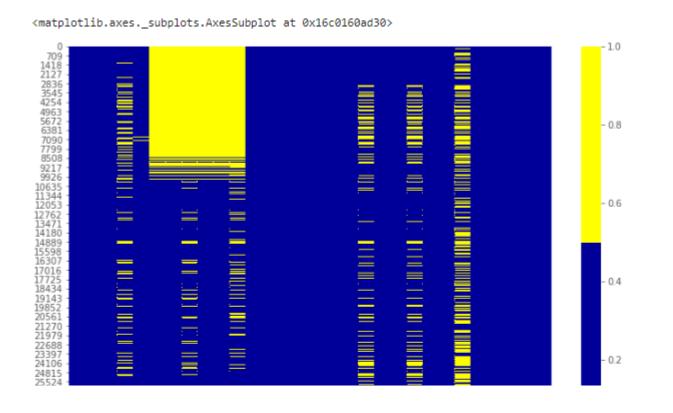
Dealing with missing data/value is one of the most tricky but common parts of data cleaning. While many models can live with other problems of the data, most models don't accept missing data.

### • Technique #1: Missing Data Heatmap

When there is a smaller number of features, we can visualize the missing data via heatmap.

The chart below demonstrates the missing data patterns of the first 30 features. The horizontal axis shows the feature name; the vertical axis shows the number of observations/rows; the yellow color represents the missing data while the blue color otherwise.

For example, we see that the *life\_sq* feature has missing values throughout many rows. While the *floor* feature only has little missing values around the 7000th row.





Missing Data Heatmap

### • Technique #2: Missing Data Percentage List

When there are many features in the dataset, we can make a list of missing data % for each feature.

```
# if it's a larger dataset and the visualization takes too long can do this.
# % of missing.
for col in df.columns:

pct_missing = np.mean(df[col].isnull())
print('{} - {}%'.format(col, round(pct_missing*100)))

missing_data_find2.py hosted with $\infty$ by GitHub

view raw
```

This produces a list below showing the percentage of missing values for each of the features.

Specifically, we see that the *life\_sq* feature has 21% missing, while *floor* has only 1% missing. This list is a useful summary that can complement the heatmap visualization.

```
id - 0.0%
timestamp - 0.0%
full_sq - 0.0%
life_sq - 21.0%
floor - 1.0%
max_floor - 31.0%
build_year - 45.0%
num_room - 31.0%
kitch_sq - 31.0%
state - 44.0%
product_type - 0.0%
sub_area - 0.0%
```

```
prescnool_education_centers_raion - 0.0%
children_school - 0.0%
school_quota - 22.0%
school_education_centers_raion - 0.0%
school_education_centers_top_20_raion - 0.0%
hospital_beds_raion - 47.0%
healthcare_centers_raion - 0.0%
university_top_20_raion - 0.0%
sport_objects_raion - 0.0%
additional_education_raion - 0.0%
culture_objects_top_25 - 0.0%

Missing Data % List — the first 30 features
```

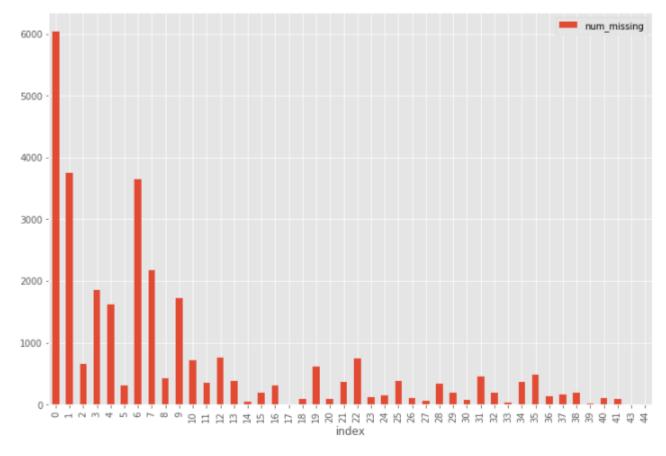
### • Technique #3: Missing Data Histogram

Missing data histogram is also a technique for when we have many features.

To learn more about the missing value patterns among observations, we can visualize it by a histogram.

```
# first create missing indicator for features with missing data
 2
     for col in df.columns:
 3
         missing = df[col].isnull()
         num_missing = np.sum(missing)
 4
         if num_missing > 0:
 6
             print('created missing indicator for: {}'.format(col))
 7
             df['{}_ismissing'.format(col)] = missing
 8
 9
10
     # then based on the indicator, plot the histogram of missing values
11
     ismissing_cols = [col for col in df.columns if 'ismissing' in col]
12
     df['num_missing'] = df[ismissing_cols].sum(axis=1)
13
14
15
     df['num_missing'].value_counts().reset_index().sort_values(by='index').plot.bar(x='index', y='nu
missing_data_dropping1.py hosted with \bigcirc by GitHub
                                                                                                view raw
```

This histogram helps to identify the missing values situations among the 30,471 observations.



Missing Data Histogram

#### What to do?

There are *NO* agreed-upon solutions to dealing with missing data. We have to study the specific feature and dataset to decide the best way of handling them.

Below covers the four most common methods of handling missing data. But, if the situation is more complicated than usual, we need to be creative to use more sophisticated methods such as missing data modeling.

### • Solution #1: Drop the Observation

In statistics, this method is called the listwise deletion technique. In this solution, we drop the entire observation as long as it contains a missing value.

For example, from the missing data histogram, we notice that only a minimal amount of observations have over 35 features missing altogether. We may create a new dataset *df\_less\_missing\_rows* deleting observations with over 35 missing features.

```
# drop rows with a lot of missing values.
ind_missing = df[df['num_missing'] > 35].index
df_less_missing_rows = df.drop(ind_missing, axis=0)
missing_data_dropping2.py hosted with $\infty$ by GitHub

view raw
```

### • Solution #2: Drop the Feature

Similar to Solution #1, we *only* do this when we are confident that this feature doesn't provide useful information.

For example, from the missing data % list, we notice that *hospital\_beds\_raion* has a high missing value percentage of 47%. We may drop the entire feature.

```
# hospital_beds_raion has a lot of missing.
# If we want to drop.

cols_to_drop = ['hospital_beds_raion']

df_less_hos_beds_raion = df.drop(cols_to_drop, axis=1)

missing_data_dropping3.py hosted with $\infty$ by GitHub

view raw
```

### • Solution #3: Impute the Missing

When the feature is a numeric variable, we can conduct missing data imputation. We replace the missing values with the average or median value from the data of the same feature that is not missing.

When the feature is a categorical variable, we may impute the missing data by the mode (the most frequent value).

Using *life\_sq* as an example, we can replace the missing values of this feature by its

```
3 print(med)
4 df['life_sq'] = df['life_sq'].fillna(med)

missing_data_imputation1.py hosted with $\infty$ by GitHub

view raw
```

Moreover, we can apply the same imputation strategy for all the numeric features at once.

```
# impute the missing values and create the missing value indicator variables for each numeric co
 2
     df numeric = df.select dtypes(include=[np.number])
     numeric cols = df numeric.columns.values
 3
     for col in numeric_cols:
 5
         missing = df[col].isnull()
 6
 7
         num missing = np.sum(missing)
 8
9
         if num missing > 0: # only do the imputation for the columns that have missing values.
             print('imputing missing values for: {}'.format(col))
             df['{} ismissing'.format(col)] = missing
             med = df[col].median()
             df[col] = df[col].fillna(med)
13
missing_data_imputation2.py hosted with \bigcirc by GitHub
                                                                                                view raw
```

```
imputing missing values for: floor
imputing missing values for: max_floor
imputing missing values for: material
imputing missing values for: build_year
imputing missing values for: num_room
imputing missing values for: kitch_sq
imputing missing values for: state
imputing missing values for: preschool_quota
imputing missing values for: school_quota
imputing missing values for: hospital_beds_raion
imputing missing values for: raion_build_count_with_material_info
imputing missing values for: build_count_block
imputing missing values for: build count wood
imputing missing values for: build_count_frame
imputing missing values for: build_count_brick
imputing missing values for: build_count_monolith
imputing missing values for: build_count_panel
imputing missing values for: build_count_foam
imputing missing values for: build_count_slag
imputing missing values for: build_count_mix
```

 $\times$ 

```
imputing missing values for: metro_km_walk
imputing missing values for: railroad_station_walk_km
imputing missing values for: railroad_station_walk_min
imputing missing values for: ID_railroad_station_walk
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_500_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_500_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_500
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_1000_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_1000_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_1000
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_1500_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_1500_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_1500
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_2000_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_2000_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_2000
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_3000_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_3000_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_3000
imputing missing values for: prom_part_5000
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_5000_min_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_sum_5000_max_price_avg
imputing missing values for: cafe_avg_price_5000
```

Luckily, our dataset has no missing value for categorical features. Yet, we can apply the mode imputation strategy for all the categorical features at once.

```
# impute the missing values and create the missing value indicator variables for each non-numeri
     df non numeric = df.select dtypes(exclude=[np.number])
     non numeric cols = df non numeric.columns.values
 3
 4
 5
     for col in non numeric cols:
 6
         missing = df[col].isnull()
         num missing = np.sum(missing)
 7
 8
         if num missing > 0: # only do the imputation for the columns that have missing values.
 9
             print('imputing missing values for: {}'.format(col))
11
             df['{}_ismissing'.format(col)] = missing
12
13
             top = df[col].describe()['top'] # impute with the most frequent value.
             df[col] = df[col].fillna(top)
missing_data_imputation3.py hosted with \bigcirc by GitHub
                                                                                                view raw
```

#### • Solution #4. Replace the Missing

This way, we are still keeping the missing values as valuable information.

```
1  # categorical
2  df['sub_area'] = df['sub_area'].fillna('_MISSING_')
3
4
5  # numeric
6  df['life_sq'] = df['life_sq'].fillna(-999)

missing_data_replace.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub view raw
```

. . .

## Irregular data (Outliers)

Outliers are data that is *distinctively* different from other observations. They could be real outliers or mistakes.

#### How to find out?

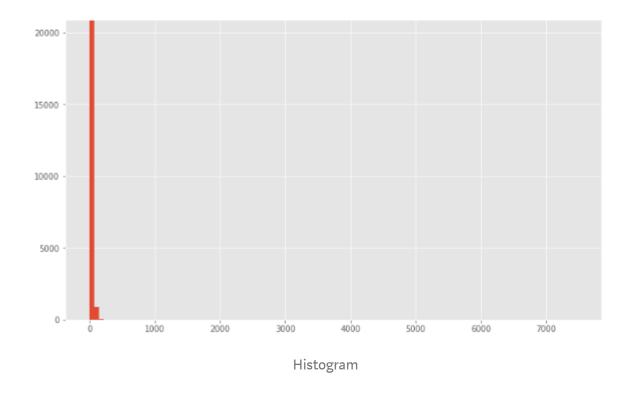
Depending on whether the feature is numeric or categorical, we can use different techniques to study its distribution to detect outliers.

### • Technique #1: Histogram/Box Plot

When the feature is numeric, we can use a histogram and box plot to detect outliers.

Below is the histogram of feature *life\_sq*.

The data looks highly skewed with the possible existence of outliers.



To study the feature closer, let's make a box plot.

```
1  # box plot.
2  df.boxplot(column=['life_sq'])

outlier_boxplot.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub

view raw
```

In this plot, we can see there is an outlier at a value of over 7000.



life\_sq

**Box Plot** 

### • Technique #2: Descriptive Statistics

Also, for numeric features, the outliers could be too distinct that the box plot can't visualize them. Instead, we can look at their descriptive statistics.

For example, for the feature *life\_sq* again, we can see that the maximum value is 7478, while the 75% quartile is only 43. The 7478 value is an outlier.

```
1 df['life_sq'].describe()

outlier_describe.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub view raw
```

```
count 24088.000000
mean 34.403271
std 52.285733
min 0.000000
25% 20.000000
50% 30.000000
75% 43.000000
max 7478.000000
Name: life_sq, dtype: float64
```

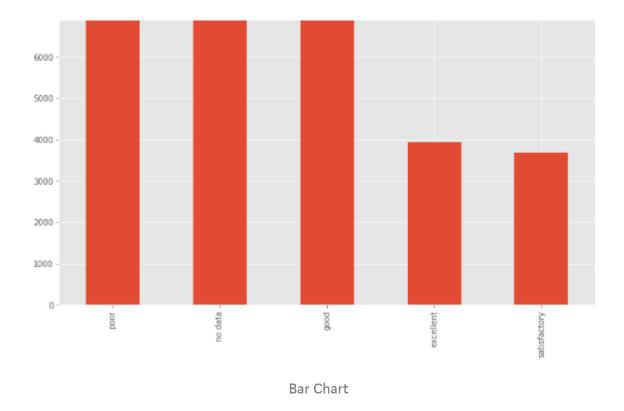
### • Technique #3: Bar Chart

When the feature is categorical. We can use a bar chart to learn about its categories and distribution.

For example, the feature *ecology* has a reasonable distribution. But if there is a category with only one value called "other", then that would be an outlier.

```
1  # bar chart - distribution of a categorical variable
2  df['ecology'].value_counts().plot.bar()

outlier_barchart.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub  view raw
```



• Other Techniques: Many other techniques can spot outliers as well, such as scatter plot, z-score, and clustering. This article does not cover all of those.

#### What to do?

While outliers are not hard to detect, we have to determine the right solutions to handle them. It highly depends on the dataset and the goal of the project.

The methods of handling outliers are somewhat similar to missing data. We either drop or adjust or keep them. We can refer back to the missing data section for possible solutions.

. . .

## **Unnecessary data**

After all the hard work done for missing data and outliers, let's look at unnecessary data, which is more straightforward.

unnecessary data due to different reasons.

### Unnecessary type #1: Uninformative / Repetitive

Sometimes one feature is uninformative because it has too many rows being the same value.

#### How to find out?

We can create a list of features with a high percentage of the same value.

For example, we specify below to show features with over 95% rows being the same value.

```
num_rows = len(df.index)
 2
     low_information_cols = [] #
 3
 4
     for col in df.columns:
 5
         cnts = df[col].value_counts(dropna=False)
         top_pct = (cnts/num_rows).iloc[0]
 6
 7
 8
         if top pct > 0.95:
             low_information_cols.append(col)
9
             print('{0}: {1:.5f}%'.format(col, top_pct*100))
10
             print(cnts)
11
             print()
irrelevant_data.py hosted with ♥ by GitHub
                                                                                                 view raw
```

We can look into these variables one by one to see whether they are informative or not. We won't show the details here.

```
oil_chemistry_raion: 99.02858%
no 30175
yes 296
Name: oil_chemistry_raion, dtype: int64
railroad_terminal_raion: 96.27187%
no 29335
yes 1136
Name: railroad_terminal_raion, dtype: int64
```

```
781
ves
Name: big_road1_1line, dtype: int64
railroad_1line: 97.06934%
no 29578
        893
Name: railroad_1line, dtype: int64
cafe_count_500_price_high: 97.25641%
   29635
    787
1
       11
Name: cafe_count_500_price_high, dtype: int64
mosque_count_500: 99.51101%
0 30322
Name: mosque_count_500, dtype: int64
cafe_count_1000_price_high: 95.52689%
   1104
    145
       51
       39
       15
Name: cafe_count_1000_price_high, dtype: int64
mosque_count_1000: 98.08342%
   29887
Name: mosque_count_1000, dtype: int64
mosque_count_1500: 96.21936%
  29319
Name: mosque_count_1500, dtype: int64
```

#### What to do?

We need to understand the reasons behind the repetitive feature. When they are genuinely uninformative, we can toss them out.

### **Unnecessary type #2: Irrelevant**

Again, the data needs to provide valuable information for the project. If the features are not related to the question we are trying to solve in the project, they are irrelevant.

### How to find out?

We need to skim through the features to identify irrelevant ones.

#### What to do?

When the features are not serving the project's goal, we can remove them.

### **Unnecessary type #3: Duplicates**

The duplicate data is when copies of the same observation exist.

There are two main types of duplicate data.

• Duplicates type #1: All Features based

### How to find out?

This duplicate happens when all the features' values within the observations are the same. It is easy to find.

We first remove the unique identifier *id* in the dataset. Then we create a dataset called *df\_dedupped* by dropping the duplicates. We compare the shapes of the two datasets (df and df\_dedupped) to find out the number of duplicated rows.

```
# we know that column 'id' is unique, but what if we drop it?

df_dedupped = df.drop('id', axis=1).drop_duplicates()

# there were duplicate rows

print(df.shape)

print(df_dedupped.shape)

duplicate_data_rows.py hosted with \(\sigma\) by GitHub

view raw
```

10 rows are being complete duplicate observations.

```
(30471, 344)
(30461, 343)
```

#### What to do?

#### How to find out?

Sometimes it is better to remove duplicate data based on a set of unique identifiers.

For example, the chances of two transactions happening at the same time, with the same square footage, the same price, and the same build year are close to zero.

We can set up a group of critical features as unique identifiers for transactions. We include *timestamp*, *full\_sq*, *life\_sq*, *floor*, *build\_year*, *num\_room*, *price\_doc*. We check if there are duplicates based on them.

```
1 key = ['timestamp', 'full_sq', 'life_sq', 'floor', 'build_year', 'num_room', 'price_doc']
2
3 df.fillna(-999).groupby(key)['id'].count().sort_values(ascending=False).head(20)
duplicate_data_key_check.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub view raw
```

There are 16 duplicates based on this set of key features.

```
timestamp full_sq life_sq floor build_year num_room price_doc
2014-12-09 40 -999.0 17.0
2014-04-15 134 134.0 1.0
                        17.0
                              -999.0 1.0
                                                4697265
                              0.0
                                         3.0
                                                5798496
               -999.0 12.0 -999.0 1.0 4462000
-999.0 21.0 -999.0 -999.0 6229540
2013-08-30 40
2012-09-05 43
               -999.0 5.0 -999.0 1.0
-999.0 9.0 -999.0 2.0
2013-12-05 40
                                                4414080
2014-12-17 62
                                                6552000
2013-05-22 68
                 -999.0 2.0 -999.0
                                        -999.0
                                                5406690
2012-08-27 59
                 -999.0
                        6.0
                              -999.0
                                        -999.0
                                                4596899
                -999.0 2.0
                             -999.0
2013-04-03 42
                                        -999.0
                                                3444000
2015-03-14 62
                -999.0 2.0 -999.0
                                        2.0
                                                6520500
2014-01-22 46
                28.0 1.0 1968.0
                                        2.0
                                                3000000
                -999.0 18.0 -999.0
2012-10-22 61
                                        -999.0
                                               8248500
                                        3.0
2013-09-23 85
               -999.0 14.0 -999.0
                                                7725974
2013-06-24 40
                -999.0 12.0
                              -999.0
                                        -999.0
                                                4112800
2015-03-30 41
                 41.0
                        11.0
                              2016.0
                                        1.0
                                                4114580
                 -999.0 6.0 -999.0
2013-12-18 39
                                               3700946
                                        1.0
                58.0 13.0 2013.0
2013-08-29 58
                                        2.0
                                               5764128
        50
                33.0 2.0 1972.0 2.0
                                               10000000
         52
                 30.0 9.0
                               2006.0 2.0
2013-08-30 38 17.0 15.0
                               2004.0
                                        1.0
                                                6400000
Name: id, dtype: int64
```

#### What to do?

We can drop these duplicates based on the key features.

```
df_dedupped2 = df.drop_duplicates(subset=key)

print(df.shape)
print(df_dedupped2.shape)

duplicate_data_drop.py hosted with $\infty$ by GitHub

view raw
```

We dropped the 16 duplicates within the new dataset named *df\_dedupped2*.

```
(30471, 292)
(30455, 292)
```

. . .

### Inconsistent data

It is also crucial to have the dataset follow specific standards to fit a model. We need to explore the data in different ways to find out the inconsistent data. Much of the time, it depends on observations and experience. There is no set code to run and fix them all.

Below we cover four inconsistent data types.

### Inconsistent type #1: Capitalization

Inconsistent usage of upper and lower cases in categorical values is a common mistake. It could cause issues since analyses in Python is case sensitive.

#### How to find out?

Let's look at the *sub\_area* feature.

```
1 df['sub_area'].value_counts(dropna=False)

string_lower_case1.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub view raw
```

It stores the name of different areas and looks very standardized.

```
Molzhaninovskoe 3
Poselenie Kievskij 2
Poselenie Shhapovskoe 2
Poselenie Mihajlovo-Jarcevskoe 1
Poselenie Klenovskoe 1
Name: sub_area, Length: 146, dtype: int64
```

But sometimes there is inconsistent capitalization usage within the same feature. The "Poselenie Sosenskoe" and "pOseleNie sosenskeo" could refer to the same area.

#### What to do?

To avoid this, we can put all letters to lower cases (or upper cases).

```
# make everything lower case.

df['sub_area_lower'] = df['sub_area'].str.lower()

df['sub_area_lower'].value_counts(dropna=False)

string_lower_case2.py hosted with ♡ by GitHub

view raw
```

```
poselenie sosenskoe 1776
nekrasovka 1611
poselenie vnukovskoe 1372
poselenie moskovskij 925
poselenie voskresenskoe 713
...
molzhaninovskoe 3
poselenie shhapovskoe 2
poselenie kievskij 2
poselenie klenovskoe 1
poselenie mihajlovo-jarcevskoe 1
Name: sub_area_lower, Length: 146, dtype: int64
```

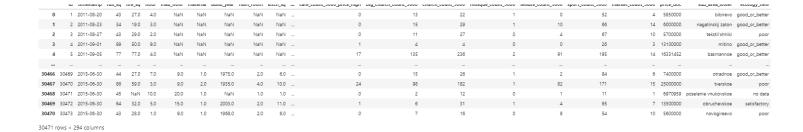
### **Inconsistent type #2: Formats**

Another standardization we need to perform is the data formats. One example is to convert the feature from string to DateTime format.

#### How to find out?

The feature *timestamp* is in string format while it represents dates.

```
1 45
```



#### What to do?

We can convert it and extract the date or time values by using the code below. After this, it's easier to analyze the transaction volume group by either year or month.

```
df['timestamp_dt'] = pd.to_datetime(df['timestamp'], format='%Y-%m-%d')
df['year'] = df['timestamp_dt'].dt.year
df['month'] = df['timestamp_dt'].dt.month
df['weekday'] = df['timestamp_dt'].dt.weekday

print(df['year'].value_counts(dropna=False))
print()
print(df['month'].value_counts(dropna=False))

string_to_datetime2.py hosted with $\sigma$ by GitHub

view raw
```

```
2014
      13662
2013
        7978
2012
        4839
2011
        753
Name: year, dtype: int64
12
      3400
      3191
4
      2972
3
      2970
10
     2736
6
      2570
      2496
      2346
      2275
      1875
      1831
1
     1809
Name: month, dtype: int64
```

Related article: How To Manipulate Date And Time In Python Like A Boss

Inconsistent categorical values are the last inconsistent type we cover. A categorical feature has a limited number of values. Sometimes there may be other values due to reasons such as typos.

### How to find out?

We need to observe the feature to find out this inconsistency. Let's show this with an example.

We create a new dataset below since we don't have such a problem in the real estate dataset. For instance, the value of *city* was typed by mistakes as "torontoo" and "tronto". But they both refer to the correct value "toronto".

A simple way to identify them is fuzzy logic (or edit distance). It measures how many letters (distance) we need to change the spelling of one value to match with another value.

We know that the categories should only have four values of "toronto", "vancouver", "montreal", and "calgary". We calculate the distance between all the values and the word "toronto" (and "vancouver"). We can see that the ones likely to be typos have a smaller distance with the correct word. Since they only differ by a couple of letters.

```
from nltk.metrics import edit_distance

df_city_ex = pd.DataFrame(data={'city': ['torontoo', 'toronto', 'tronto', 'vancouver', 'vancover'

df_city_ex['city_distance_toronto'] = df_city_ex['city'].map(lambda x: edit_distance(x, 'toronto') df_city_ex['city_distance_vancouver'] = df_city_ex['city'].map(lambda x: edit_distance(x, 'vancouver') df_city_ex
fuzzy_logic_distance.py hosted with \rightarrow by GitHub
```

5	vancouvr	/	1
6	montreal	7	8
7	calgary	7	8

#### What to do?

We can set criteria to convert these typos to the correct values. For example, the below code sets all the values within 2 letters distance from "toronto" to be "toronto".

```
1    msk = df_city_ex['city_distance_toronto'] <= 2
2    df_city_ex.loc[msk, 'city'] = 'toronto'
3
4    msk = df_city_ex['city_distance_vancouver'] <= 2
5    df_city_ex.loc[msk, 'city'] = 'vancouver'
6
7    df_city_ex
fuzzy_logic_replace.py hosted with \(\sigma\) by GitHub
    view raw</pre>
```

	city	city_distance_toronto	city_distance_vancouver
0	toronto	1	8
1	toronto	0	8
2	toronto	1	8
3	vancouver	8	0
4	vancouver	7	1
5	vancouver	7	1
6	montreal	7	8
7	calgary	7	8

### **Inconsistent type #4: Addresses**

The address feature could be a headache for many of us. Because people entering the data into the database often *don't* follow a standard format.

#### How to find out?

We can find messy address data by looking at it. Even though sometimes we can't spot any issues, we can still run code to standardize them.

```
# no address column in the housing dataset. So create one to show the code.

df_add_ex = pd.DataFrame(['123 MAIN St Apartment 15', '123 Main Street Apt 12', '543 FirSt Av' df_add_ex

address_cleaning1.py hosted with \bigcirc by GitHub

view raw
```

As we can see, the address feature is quite messy.



#### What to do?

We run the below code to lowercase the letters, remove white space, delete periods and standardize wordings.

```
df_add_ex['address_std'] = df_add_ex['address'].str.lower()

df_add_ex['address_std'] = df_add_ex['address_std'].str.strip() # remove leading and trailing whind df_add_ex['address_std'] = df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\.', '') # remove period.

df_add_ex['address_std'] = df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\bstreet\\b', 'st') # replace so df_add_ex['address_std'] = df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\bapartment\\b', 'apt') # replace df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\bapartment\\b', 'ave') # replace apar df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\bapartment\b', 'ave') # replace apar df_add_ex['address_std'].str.replace('\\bapartment\barance, bapartment\barance, bapartment\bar
```

It looks much better now.

```
        address
        address_std

        0
        123 MAIN St Apartment 15
        123 main st apt 15

        1
        123 Main Street Apt 12
        123 main st apt 12

        2
        543 FirSt Av
        543 first ave
```

. . .

We did it! What a long journey we have come along.

Clear all the "dirty" data that's blocking your way to fit the model.

Be the boss of cleaning!



Source: GIPHY

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Thank you for reading.

I hope you found this data cleaning guide helpful. Please leave any comments to let us know your thoughts.

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