Importing Modules

```
In [1]:
         pip install goose3
        Requirement already satisfied: goose3 in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda3/1
        ib/python3.9/site-packages (3.1.12)
        Requirement already satisfied: lxml in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda3/lib
        /python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (4.6.3)
        Requirement already satisfied: requests in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda3
        /lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (2.26.0)
        Requirement already satisfied: pyahocorasick in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anac
        onda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (1.4.4)
        Requirement already satisfied: langdetect in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anacond
        a3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (1.0.9)
        Requirement already satisfied: python-dateutil in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/an
        aconda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (2.8.2)
        Requirement already satisfied: beautifulsoup4 in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/ana
        conda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (4.10.0)
        Requirement already satisfied: Pillow in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda3/1
        ib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (8.4.0)
        Requirement already satisfied: cssselect in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda
        3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from goose3) (1.2.0)
        Requirement already satisfied: soupsieve>1.2 in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anac
        onda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from beautifulsoup4->goose3) (2.2.1)
        Requirement already satisfied: six in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaconda3/lib/
        python3.9/site-packages (from langdetect->goose3) (1.16.0)
        Requirement already satisfied: certifi>=2017.4.17 in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt
        /anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from requests->goose3) (2021.10.8)
        Requirement already satisfied: urllib3<1.27,>=1.21.1 in /Users/jasjitsingh/
        opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from requests->goose3) (1.26.7)
        Requirement already satisfied: idna<4,>=2.5 in /Users/jasjitsingh/opt/anaco
        nda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from requests->goose3) (3.2)
        Requirement already satisfied: charset-normalizer~=2.0.0 in /Users/jasjitsi
        ngh/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.9/site-packages (from requests->goose3) (2.0.
        Note: you may need to restart the kernel to use updated packages.
In [2]:
         import nltk
         nltk.download('punkt')
         import numpy as np
         import pandas as pd
         import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         import string
         import sklearn
         #for fetching data from website, Using goose.
         from goose3 import Goose
        [nltk data] Downloading package punkt to
                        /Users/jasjitsingh/nltk_data...
        [nltk_data]
        [nltk data]
                      Package punkt is already up-to-date!
In [3]:
         url = "https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Machine learning"
In [4]:
         article = Goose().extract(url)
In [5]:
         article
        <goose3.article.Article at 0x12c6e48b0>
Out[5]:
```

In []:	
In []:	

Data set ('Machine Learning')

```
In [6]:
         article.title
         'Machine learning - Wikipedia'
Out[6]:
In [7]:
         Mydataset = article.cleaned text
In [8]:
         Mydataset
```

'Study of algorithms that improve automatically through experience\n\nMachi

Out[8]: ne learning (ML) is a field of inquiry devoted to understanding and buildin g methods that \'learn\', that is, methods that leverage data to improve pe rformance on some set of tasks.[1] It is seen as a part of artificial intel ligence. Machine learning algorithms build a model based on sample data, kn own as training data, in order to make predictions or decisions without bei ng explicitly programmed to do so.[2] Machine learning algorithms are used in a wide variety of applications, such as in medicine, email filtering, sp eech recognition, agriculture, and computer vision, where it is difficult o r unfeasible to develop conventional algorithms to perform the needed tasks .[3][4] A subset of machine learning is closely related to computational st atistics, which focuses on making predictions using computers, but not all machine learning is statistical learning. The study of mathematical optimiz ation delivers methods, theory and application domains to the field of mach ine learning. Data mining is a related field of study, focusing on explorat ory data analysis through unsupervised learning.[6][7] Some implementations of machine learning use data and neural networks in a way that mimics the w orking of a biological brain.[8][9] In its application across business prob lems, machine learning is also referred to as predictive analytics.\n\nLear ning algorithms work on the basis that strategies, algorithms, and inference es that worked well in the past are likely to continue working well in the future. These inferences can be obvious, such as "since the sun rose every morning for the last 10,000 days, it will probably rise tomorrow morning as well". They can be nuanced, such as "X% of families have geographically sep

ow to execute all steps required to solve the problem at hand; on the compu ter\'s part, no learning is needed. For more advanced tasks, it can be chal lenging for a human to manually create the needed algorithms. In practice, it can turn out to be more effective to help the machine develop its own al gorithm, rather than having human programmers specify every needed step.[11 \n\nThe discipline of machine learning employs various approaches to teach computers to accomplish tasks where no fully satisfactory algorithm is avai lable. In cases where vast numbers of potential answers exist, one approach is to label some of the correct answers as valid. This can then be used as training data for the computer to improve the algorithm(s) it uses to deter mine correct answers. For example, to train a system for the task of digita l character recognition, the MNIST dataset of handwritten digits has often been used.[11]\n\nHistory and relationships to other fields\n\nThe term mac hine learning was coined in 1959 by Arthur Samuel, an IBM employee and pion eer in the field of computer gaming and artificial intelligence.[12][13] Al so the synonym self-teaching computers were used in this time period.[14][1 5]\n\nBy the early 1960s an experimental "learning machine" with punched ta pe memory, called Cybertron, had been developed by Raytheon Company to anal

arate species with color variants, so there is a Y% chance that undiscovere d black swans exist".\n\nMachine learning programs can perform tasks withou t being explicitly programmed to do so. It involves computers learning from data provided so that they carry out certain tasks. For simple tasks assign ed to computers, it is possible to program algorithms telling the machine h

yze sonar signals, electrocardiograms, and speech patterns using rudimentar y reinforcement learning. It was repetitively "trained" by a human operator /teacher to recognize patterns and equipped with a "goof" button to cause i t to re-evaluate incorrect decisions.[16] A representative book on research into machine learning during the 1960s was Nilsson\'s book on Learning Mach ines, dealing mostly with machine learning for pattern classification.[17] Interest related to pattern recognition continued into the 1970s, as descri bed by Duda and Hart in 1973.[18] In 1981 a report was given on using teach ing strategies so that a neural network learns to recognize 40 characters (26 letters, 10 digits, and 4 special symbols) from a computer terminal.[19] \n M. Mitchell provided a widely quoted, more formal definition of the algorithms studied in the machine learning field: "A computer program is sa id to learn from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and per formance measure P if its performance at tasks in T, as measured by P, impr oves with experience E. [20] This definition of the tasks in which machine learning is concerned offers a fundamentally operational definition rather than defining the field in cognitive terms. This follows Alan Turing\'s pro posal in his paper "Computing Machinery and Intelligence", in which the que stion "Can machines think?" is replaced with the question "Can machines do what we (as thinking entities) can do?".[21] \n odern-day machine learning has two objectives, one is to classify data based on models which have been developed, the other purpose is to make predictions for future outcomes bas ed on these models. A hypothetical algorithm specific to classifying data m ay use computer vision of moles coupled with supervised learning in order t o train it to classify the cancerous moles. A machine learning algorithm fo r stock trading may inform the trader of future potential predictions.[22]\ n\nAs a scientific endeavor, machine learning grew out of the quest for art ificial intelligence. In the early days of AI as an academic discipline, so me researchers were interested in having machines learn from data. They att empted to approach the problem with various symbolic methods, as well as wh at was then termed "neural networks"; these were mostly perceptrons and oth er models that were later found to be reinventions of the generalized linea r models of statistics.[25] Probabilistic reasoning was also employed, espe cially in automated medical diagnosis.[26]: 488\n\nHowever, an increasing e mphasis on the logical, knowledge-based approach caused a rift between AI a nd machine learning. Probabilistic systems were plagued by theoretical and practical problems of data acquisition and representation.[26]: 488 By 1980 , expert systems had come to dominate AI, and statistics was out of favor.[27] Work on symbolic/knowledge-based learning did continue within AI, leadi ng to inductive logic programming, but the more statistical line of researc h was now outside the field of AI proper, in pattern recognition and inform ation retrieval.[26]: 708-710, 755 Neural networks research had been abando ned by AI and computer science around the same time. This line, too, was co ntinued outside the AI/CS field, as "connectionism", by researchers from ot her disciplines including Hopfield, Rumelhart, and Hinton. Their main succe ss came in the mid-1980s with the reinvention of backpropagation.[26]: 25\n \nMachine learning (ML), reorganized as a separate field, started to flouri sh in the 1990s. The field changed its goal from achieving artificial intel ligence to tackling solvable problems of a practical nature. It shifted foc us away from the symbolic approaches it had inherited from AI, and toward m ethods and models borrowed from statistics, fuzzy logic, and probability th eory.[27]\n\nThe difference between ML and AI is frequently misunderstood. ML learns and predicts based on passive observations, whereas AI implies an agent interacting with the environment to learn and take actions that maxim ize its chance of successfully achieving its goals.[28]\n\nAs of 2020, many sources continue to assert that ML remains a subfield of AI.[29][30][27] Ot hers have the view that not all ML is part of AI, but only an \'intelligent subset\' of ML should be considered AI.[5][31][32]\n\nMachine learning and data mining often employ the same methods and overlap significantly, but wh ile machine learning focuses on prediction, based on known properties learn ed from the training data, data mining focuses on the discovery of (previou sly) unknown properties in the data (this is the analysis step of knowledge discovery in databases). Data mining uses many machine learning methods, bu t with different goals; on the other hand, machine learning also employs da ta mining methods as "unsupervised learning" or as a preprocessing step to improve learner accuracy. Much of the confusion between these two research communities (which do often have separate conferences and separate journals , ECML PKDD being a major exception) comes from the basic assumptions they work with: in machine learning, performance is usually evaluated with respe ct to the ability to reproduce known knowledge. while in knowledge discover

y and data mining (KDD) the key task is the discovery of previously unknown knowledge. Evaluated with respect to known knowledge, an uninformed (unsupe rvised) method will easily be outperformed by other supervised methods, whi le in a typical KDD task, supervised methods cannot be used due to the unav ailability of training data.\n\nMachine learning also has intimate ties to optimization: many learning problems are formulated as minimization of some loss function on a training set of examples. Loss functions express the dis crepancy between the predictions of the model being trained and the actual problem instances (for example, in classification, one wants to assign a la bel to instances, and models are trained to correctly predict the pre-assig ned labels of a set of examples).[33]\n\nThe difference between optimizatio n and machine learning arises from the goal of generalization: while optimi zation algorithms can minimize the loss on a training set, machine learning is concerned with minimizing the loss on unseen samples. Characterizing the generalization of various learning algorithms is an active topic of current research, especially for deep learning algorithms.\n\nMachine learning and statistics are closely related fields in terms of methods, but distinct in their principal goal: statistics draws population inferences from a sample, while machine learning finds generalizable predictive patterns.[34] Accordi ng to Michael I. Jordan, the ideas of machine learning, from methodological principles to theoretical tools, have had a long pre-history in statistics. [35] He also suggested the term data science as a placeholder to call the o verall field.[35]\n\nLeo Breiman distinguished two statistical modeling par adigms: data model and algorithmic model,[29] wherein "algorithmic model" m eans more or less the machine learning algorithms like Random forest.\n\nSo me statisticians have adopted methods from machine learning, leading to a c ombined field that they call statistical learning.[30]\n\nA core objective of a learner is to generalize from its experience.[5][31] Generalization in this context is the ability of a learning machine to perform accurately on new, unseen examples/tasks after having experienced a learning data set. Th e training examples come from some generally unknown probability distributi on (considered representative of the space of occurrences) and the learner has to build a general model about this space that enables it to produce su fficiently accurate predictions in new cases.\n\nThe computational analysis of machine learning algorithms and their performance is a branch of theoret ical computer science known as computational learning theory via the Probab ly Approximately Correct Learning (PAC) model. Because training sets are fi nite and the future is uncertain, learning theory usually does not yield gu arantees of the performance of algorithms. Instead, probabilistic bounds on the performance are quite common. The bias-variance decomposition is one wa y to quantify generalization error.\n\nFor the best performance in the cont ext of generalization, the complexity of the hypothesis should match the co mplexity of the function underlying the data. If the hypothesis is less com plex than the function, then the model has under fitted the data. If the co $\ensuremath{\mathsf{mplexity}}$ of the model is increased in response, then the training error $\ensuremath{\mathsf{dec}}$ reases. But if the hypothesis is too complex, then the model is subject to overfitting and generalization will be poorer.[32]\n\nIn addition to perfor mance bounds, learning theorists study the time complexity and feasibility of learning. In computational learning theory, a computation is considered feasible if it can be done in polynomial time. There are two kinds of time complexity results: Positive results show that a certain class of functions can be learned in polynomial time. Negative results show that certain class es cannot be learned in polynomial time.\n\nMachine learning approaches are traditionally divided into three broad categories, which correspond to lear ning paradigms, depending on the nature of the "signal" or "feedback" avail able to the learning system:\n• Supervised learning: The computer is presen ted with example inputs and their desired outputs, given by a "teacher", an d the goal is to learn a general rule that maps inputs to outputs.\n• Unsup ervised learning: No labels are given to the learning algorithm, leaving it on its own to find structure in its input. Unsupervised learning can be a q oal in itself (discovering hidden patterns in data) or a means towards an e nd (feature learning).\n• Reinforcement learning: A computer program intera cts with a dynamic environment in which it must perform a certain goal (suc h as driving a vehicle or playing a game against an opponent). As it naviga tes its problem space, the program is provided feedback that\'s analogous t o rewards, which it tries to maximize.[5]\n\nSupervised learning algorithms build a mathematical model of a set of data that contains both the inputs a nd the desired outputs.[36] The data is known as training data, and consist s of a set of training examples. Each training example has one or more inpu ts and the desired output, also known as a supervisory signal. In the mathe

matical model, each training example is represented by an array or vector, sometimes called a feature vector, and the training data is represented by a matrix. Through iterative optimization of an objective function, supervis ed learning algorithms learn a function that can be used to predict the out put associated with new inputs.[37] An optimal function will allow the algo rithm to correctly determine the output for inputs that were not a part of the training data. An algorithm that improves the accuracy of its outputs o r predictions over time is said to have learned to perform that task.[20]\n \nTypes of supervised-learning algorithms include active learning, classifi cation and regression.[28] Classification algorithms are used when the outp uts are restricted to a limited set of values, and regression algorithms ar e used when the outputs may have any numerical value within a range. As an example, for a classification algorithm that filters emails, the input woul d be an incoming email, and the output would be the name of the folder in w hich to file the email. \n\nSimilarity learning is an area of supervised mac hine learning closely related to regression and classification, but the goa l is to learn from examples using a similarity function that measures how s imilar or related two objects are. It has applications in ranking, recommen dation systems, visual identity tracking, face verification, and speaker ve rification.\n\nUnsupervised learning algorithms take a set of data that con tains only inputs, and find structure in the data, like grouping or cluster ing of data points. The algorithms, therefore, learn from test data that ha s not been labeled, classified or categorized. Instead of responding to fee dback, unsupervised learning algorithms identify commonalities in the data and react based on the presence or absence of such commonalities in each ne w piece of data. A central application of unsupervised learning is in the f ield of density estimation in statistics, such as finding the probability d ensity function.[38] Though unsupervised learning encompasses other domains involving summarizing and explaining data features.\n\nCluster analysis is the assignment of a set of observations into subsets (called clusters) so t hat observations within the same cluster are similar according to one or mo re predesignated criteria, while observations drawn from different clusters are dissimilar. Different clustering techniques make different assumptions on the structure of the data, often defined by some similarity metric and e valuated, for example, by internal compactness, or the similarity between m embers of the same cluster, and separation, the difference between clusters . Other methods are based on estimated density and graph connectivity. $\n\$ emi-supervised learning falls between unsupervised learning (without any la beled training data) and supervised learning (with completely labeled train ing data). Some of the training examples are missing training labels, yet m any machine-learning researchers have found that unlabeled data, when used in conjunction with a small amount of labeled data, can produce a considera ble improvement in learning accuracy.\n\nIn weakly supervised learning, the training labels are noisy, limited, or imprecise; however, these labels are often cheaper to obtain, resulting in larger effective training sets.[39]\n \nReinforcement learning is an area of machine learning concerned with how software agents ought to take actions in an environment so as to maximize s ome notion of cumulative reward. Due to its generality, the field is studie d in many other disciplines, such as game theory, control theory, operation s research, information theory, simulation-based optimization, multi-agent systems, swarm intelligence, statistics and genetic algorithms. In machine learning, the environment is typically represented as a Markov decision pro cess (MDP). Many reinforcement learning algorithms use dynamic programming techniques.[40] Reinforcement learning algorithms do not assume knowledge o $\ensuremath{\text{f}}$ an exact mathematical model of the MDP, and are used when exact models ar e infeasible. Reinforcement learning algorithms are used in autonomous vehi cles or in learning to play a game against a human opponent. \n\nDimensional ity reduction is a process of reducing the number of random variables under consideration by obtaining a set of principal variables.[41] In other words , it is a process of reducing the dimension of the feature set, also called the "number of features". Most of the dimensionality reduction techniques \boldsymbol{c} an be considered as either feature elimination or extraction. One of the po pular methods of dimensionality reduction is principal component analysis (PCA). PCA involves changing higher-dimensional data (e.g., 3D) to a smaller space (e.g., 2D). This results in a smaller dimension of data (2D instead o f 3D), while keeping all original variables in the model without changing t he data.[42] The manifold hypothesis proposes that high-dimensional data se ts lie along low-dimensional manifolds, and many dimensionality reduction t echniques make this assumption, leading to the area of manifold learning an d manifold regularization \n\nOther approaches have been developed which do

 $n\$ t fit neatly into this three-fold categorization, and sometimes more tha n one is used by the same machine learning system. For example topic modeli ng, meta-learning.[43] \n 0As of 2022, deep learning is the dominant approac h for much ongoing work in the field of machine learning.[11]\n\nSelf-learn ing, as a machine learning paradigm was introduced in 1982 along with a neu ral network capable of self-learning, named crossbar adaptive array (CAA).[44] It is learning with no external rewards and no external teacher advice. The CAA self-learning algorithm computes, in a crossbar fashion, both decis ions about actions and emotions (feelings) about consequence situations. Th e system is driven by the interaction between cognition and emotion.[45] Th e self-learning algorithm updates a memory matrix W = ||w(a,s)|| such that i n each iteration executes the following machine learning routine: \n• comput e emotion of being in consequence situation v(s') \n• update crossbar memor $y w'(a,s) = w(a,s) + v(s') \setminus n$ is a system with only one input, situati on, and only one output, action (or behavior) a. There is neither a separat e reinforcement input nor an advice input from the environment. The backpro pagated value (secondary reinforcement) is the emotion toward the consequen ce situation. The CAA exists in two environments, one is the behavioral env ironment where it behaves, and the other is the genetic environment, wheref rom it initially and only once receives initial emotions about situations t o be encountered in the behavioral environment. After receiving the genome (species) vector from the genetic environment, the CAA learns a goal-seekin g behavior, in an environment that contains both desirable and undesirable situations.[46]\n\nSeveral learning algorithms aim at discovering better re presentations of the inputs provided during training.[47] Classic examples include principal components analysis and cluster analysis. Feature learnin g algorithms, also called representation learning algorithms, often attempt to preserve the information in their input but also transform it in a way t hat makes it useful, often as a pre-processing step before performing class ification or predictions. This technique allows reconstruction of the input s coming from the unknown data-generating distribution, while not being nec essarily faithful to configurations that are implausible under that distrib ution. This replaces manual feature engineering, and allows a machine to bo th learn the features and use them to perform a specific task.\n\nFeature l earning can be either supervised or unsupervised. In supervised feature lea rning, features are learned using labeled input data. Examples include arti ficial neural networks, multilayer perceptrons, and supervised dictionary 1 earning. In unsupervised feature learning, features are learned with unlabe led input data. Examples include dictionary learning, independent component analysis, autoencoders, matrix factorization[48] and various forms of clust ering. $[49][50][51]\n$ he constraint that the learned representation is low-dimensional. Sparse co ding algorithms attempt to do so under the constraint that the learned repr esentation is sparse, meaning that the mathematical model has many zeros. M ultilinear subspace learning algorithms aim to learn low-dimensional repres entations directly from tensor representations for multidimensional data, w ithout reshaping them into higher-dimensional vectors.[52] Deep learning al gorithms discover multiple levels of representation, or a hierarchy of feat ures, with higher-level, more abstract features defined in terms of (or gen erating) lower-level features. It has been argued that an intelligent machi ne is one that learns a representation that disentangles the underlying fac tors of variation that explain the observed data.[53]\n\nFeature learning i s motivated by the fact that machine learning tasks such as classification often require input that is mathematically and computationally convenient t o process. However, real-world data such as images, video, and sensory data has not yielded attempts to algorithmically define specific features. An al ternative is to discover such features or representations through examinati on, without relying on explicit algorithms.\n\nSparse dictionary learning i s a feature learning method where a training example is represented as a li near combination of basis functions, and is assumed to be a sparse matrix. The method is strongly NP-hard and difficult to solve approximately.[54] A popular heuristic method for sparse dictionary learning is the K-SVD algori thm. Sparse dictionary learning has been applied in several contexts. In cl assification, the problem is to determine the class to which a previously u nseen training example belongs. For a dictionary where each class has alrea dy been built, a new training example is associated with the class that is best sparsely represented by the corresponding dictionary. Sparse dictionar y learning has also been applied in image de-noising. The key idea is that a clean image patch can be sparsely represented by an image dictionary, but the noise cannot [55]\n\nTn data mining anomaly detection, also known as o

utlier detection, is the identification of rare items, events or observatio ns which raise suspicions by differing significantly from the majority of t he data.[56] Typically, the anomalous items represent an issue such as bank fraud, a structural defect, medical problems or errors in a text. Anomalies are referred to as outliers, novelties, noise, deviations and exceptions.[5 7]\n\nIn particular, in the context of abuse and network intrusion detectio n, the interesting objects are often not rare objects, but unexpected burst s of inactivity. This pattern does not adhere to the common statistical def inition of an outlier as a rare object. Many outlier detection methods (in particular, unsupervised algorithms) will fail on such data unless aggregat ed appropriately. Instead, a cluster analysis algorithm may be able to dete ct the micro-clusters formed by these patterns.[58]\n\nThree broad categori es of anomaly detection techniques exist.[59] Unsupervised anomaly detectio n techniques detect anomalies in an unlabeled test data set under the assum ption that the majority of the instances in the data set are normal, by loo king for instances that seem to fit the least to the remainder of the data set. Supervised anomaly detection techniques require a data set that has be en labeled as "normal" and "abnormal" and involves training a classifier (t he key difference to many other statistical classification problems is the inherently unbalanced nature of outlier detection). Semi-supervised anomaly detection techniques construct a model representing normal behavior from a given normal training data set and then test the likelihood of a test insta nce to be generated by the model.\n\nRobot learning is inspired by a multit ude of machine learning methods, starting from supervised learning, reinfor cement learning,[60][61] and finally meta-learning (e.g. MAML).\n\nAssociat ion rule learning is a rule-based machine learning method for discovering r elationships between variables in large databases. It is intended to identi fy strong rules discovered in databases using some measure of "interestingn ess".[62]\n\nRule-based machine learning is a general term for any machine learning method that identifies, learns, or evolves "rules" to store, manip ulate or apply knowledge. The defining characteristic of a rule-based machi ne learning algorithm is the identification and utilization of a set of rel ational rules that collectively represent the knowledge captured by the sys tem. This is in contrast to other machine learning algorithms that commonly identify a singular model that can be universally applied to any instance i n order to make a prediction.[63] Rule-based machine learning approaches in clude learning classifier systems, association rule learning, and artificia 1 immune systems.\n\nBased on the concept of strong rules, Rakesh Agrawal, Tomasz Imieliński and Arun Swami introduced association rules for discoveri ng regularities between products in large-scale transaction data recorded b y point-of-sale (POS) systems in supermarkets.[64] For example, the rule fo und in the sales data of a supermarket would indicate that if a customer bu ys onions and potatoes together, they are likely to also buy hamburger meat . Such information can be used as the basis for decisions about marketing a ctivities such as promotional pricing or product placements. In addition to market basket analysis, association rules are employed today in application areas including Web usage mining, intrusion detection, continuous productio ${\tt n}$, and bioinformatics. In contrast with sequence mining, association rule 1 earning typically does not consider the order of items either within a tran saction or across transactions.\n\nLearning classifier systems (LCS) are a family of rule-based machine learning algorithms that combine a discovery c omponent, typically a genetic algorithm, with a learning component, perform ing either supervised learning, reinforcement learning, or unsupervised lea rning. They seek to identify a set of context-dependent rules that collecti vely store and apply knowledge in a piecewise manner in order to make predi ctions.[65]\n\nInductive logic programming (ILP) is an approach to rule lea rning using logic programming as a uniform representation for input example s, background knowledge, and hypotheses. Given an encoding of the known bac kground knowledge and a set of examples represented as a logical database o f facts, an ILP system will derive a hypothesized logic program that entail s all positive and no negative examples. Inductive programming is a related field that considers any kind of programming language for representing hypo theses (and not only logic programming), such as functional programs. $\n\$ ductive logic programming is particularly useful in bioinformatics and natu ral language processing. Gordon Plotkin and Ehud Shapiro laid the initial t heoretical foundation for inductive machine learning in a logical setting.[66][67][68] Shapiro built their first implementation (Model Inference Syste m) in 1981: a Prolog program that inductively inferred logic programs from positive and negative examples.[69] The term inductive here refers to philo

the notice cannot (00) inthin acta mining, anomal, acception, also known as o

han mathematical induction, proving a property for all members of a well-or dered set.\n\nPerforming machine learning involves creating a model, which is trained on some training data and then can process additional data to ma ke predictions. Various types of models have been used and researched for m achine learning systems.\n\nArtificial neural networks (ANNs), or connectio nist systems, are computing systems vaguely inspired by the biological neur al networks that constitute animal brains. Such systems "learn" to perform tasks by considering examples, generally without being programmed with any task-specific rules.\n\nAn ANN is a model based on a collection of connecte d units or nodes called "artificial neurons", which loosely model the neuro ns in a biological brain. Each connection, like the synapses in a biologica 1 brain, can transmit information, a "signal", from one artificial neuron t o another. An artificial neuron that receives a signal can process it and t hen signal additional artificial neurons connected to it. In common ANN imp lementations, the signal at a connection between artificial neurons is a re al number, and the output of each artificial neuron is computed by some non -linear function of the sum of its inputs. The connections between artifici al neurons are called "edges". Artificial neurons and edges typically have a weight that adjusts as learning proceeds. The weight increases or decreas es the strength of the signal at a connection. Artificial neurons may have a threshold such that the signal is only sent if the aggregate signal cross es that threshold. Typically, artificial neurons are aggregated into layers . Different layers may perform different kinds of transformations on their inputs. Signals travel from the first layer (the input layer) to the last 1 ayer (the output layer), possibly after traversing the layers multiple time s.\n\nThe original goal of the ANN approach was to solve problems in the sa me way that a human brain would. However, over time, attention moved to per forming specific tasks, leading to deviations from biology. Artificial neur al networks have been used on a variety of tasks, including computer vision , speech recognition, machine translation, social network filtering, playin g board and video games and medical diagnosis. \n\nDeep learning consists of multiple hidden layers in an artificial neural network. This approach tries to model the way the human brain processes light and sound into vision and hearing. Some successful applications of deep learning are computer vision and speech recognition.[70]\n\nDecision tree learning uses a decision tree as a predictive model to go from observations about an item (represented in the branches) to conclusions about the item\'s target value (represented in the leaves). It is one of the predictive modeling approaches used in statis tics, data mining, and machine learning. Tree models where the target varia ble can take a discrete set of values are called classification trees; in t hese tree structures, leaves represent class labels, and branches represent conjunctions of features that lead to those class labels. Decision trees wh ere the target variable can take continuous values (typically real numbers) are called regression trees. In decision analysis, a decision tree can be u sed to visually and explicitly represent decisions and decision making. In data mining, a decision tree describes data, but the resulting classificati on tree can be an input for decision-making.\n\nSupport-vector machines (SV Ms), also known as support-vector networks, are a set of related supervised learning methods used for classification and regression. Given a set of tra ining examples, each marked as belonging to one of two categories, an SVM t raining algorithm builds a model that predicts whether a new example falls into one category.[71] An SVM training algorithm is a non-probabilistic, bi nary, linear classifier, although methods such as Platt scaling exist to us e SVM in a probabilistic classification setting. In addition to performing linear classification, SVMs can efficiently perform a non-linear classifica tion using what is called the kernel trick, implicitly mapping their inputs into high-dimensional feature spaces.\n\nRegression analysis encompasses a large variety of statistical methods to estimate the relationship between i nput variables and their associated features. Its most common form is linea r regression, where a single line is drawn to best fit the given data accor ding to a mathematical criterion such as ordinary least squares. The latter is often extended by regularization methods to mitigate overfitting and bia s, as in ridge regression. When dealing with non-linear problems, go-to mod els include polynomial regression (for example, used for trendline fitting in Microsoft Excel[72]), logistic regression (often used in statistical cla ssification) or even kernel regression, which introduces non-linearity by t aking advantage of the kernel trick to implicitly map input variables to hi gher-dimensional space.\n\nA Bayesian network, belief network, or directed acyclic graphical model is a probabilistic graphical model that represents

sophical induction, suggesting a theory to expiain observed lacts, rather t

d acyclic graph (DAG). For example, a Bayesian network could represent the probabilistic relationships between diseases and symptoms. Given symptoms, the network can be used to compute the probabilities of the presence of var ious diseases. Efficient algorithms exist that perform inference and learni ng. Bayesian networks that model sequences of variables, like speech signal s or protein sequences, are called dynamic Bayesian networks. Generalizatio ns of Bayesian networks that can represent and solve decision problems unde r uncertainty are called influence diagrams.\n\nA Gaussian process is a sto chastic process in which every finite collection of the random variables in the process has a multivariate normal distribution, and it relies on a predefined covariance function, or kernel, that models how pairs of points rel ate to each other depending on their locations.\n\nGiven a set of observed points, or input-output examples, the distribution of the (unobserved) outp ut of a new point as function of its input data, can be directly computed b y looking as the observed points and the covariances between those points a nd the new, unobserved point.\n\nGaussian processes are popular surrogate m odels in Bayesian optimization used to do hyperparameter optimization.\n\nA genetic algorithm (GA) is a search algorithm and heuristic technique that m imics the process of natural selection, using methods such as mutation and crossover to generate new genotypes in the hope of finding good solutions t o a given problem. In machine learning, genetic algorithms were used in the 1980s and 1990s.[74][75] Conversely, machine learning techniques have been used to improve the performance of genetic and evolutionary algorithms.[76] \n\nTypically, machine learning models require a high quantity of reliable data in order for the models to perform accurate predictions. When training a machine learning model, machine learning engineers need to target and col lect a large and representative sample of data. Data from the training set can be as varied as a corpus of text, a collection of images, sensor data, and data collected from individual users of a service. Overfitting is somet hing to watch out for when training a machine learning model. Trained model s derived from biased or non-evaluated data can result in skewed or undesir ed predictions. Bias models may result in detrimental outcomes thereby furt hering the negative impacts on society or objectives. Algorithmic bias is a potential result of data not being fully prepared for training. Machine lea rning ethics is becoming a field of study and notably be integrated within machine learning engineering teams.\n\nFederated learning is an adapted for m of distributed artificial intelligence to training machine learning model s that decentralizes the training process, allowing for users\' privacy to be maintained by not needing to send their data to a centralized server. Th is also increases efficiency by decentralizing the training process to many devices. For example, Gboard uses federated machine learning to train searc h query prediction models on users' mobile phones without having to send i ndividual searches back to Google.[77]\n\nThere are many applications for m achine learning, including:\n\nIn 2006, the media-services provider Netflix held the first "Netflix Prize" competition to find a program to better pred ict user preferences and improve the accuracy of its existing Cinematch mov ie recommendation algorithm by at least 10%. A joint team made up of resear chers from AT&T Labs-Research in collaboration with the teams Big Chaos and Pragmatic Theory built an ensemble model to win the Grand Prize in 2009 for \$1 million.[79] Shortly after the prize was awarded, Netflix realized that viewers\' ratings were not the best indicators of their viewing patterns (" everything is a recommendation") and they changed their recommendation engi ne accordingly.[80] In 2010 The Wall Street Journal wrote about the firm Re bellion Research and their use of machine learning to predict the financial crisis.[81] In 2012, co-founder of Sun Microsystems, Vinod Khosla, predicte d that 80% of medical doctors jobs would be lost in the next two decades to automated machine learning medical diagnostic software.[82] In 2014, it was reported that a machine learning algorithm had been applied in the field of art history to study fine art paintings and that it may have revealed previ ously unrecognized influences among artists.[83] In 2019 Springer Nature pu blished the first research book created using machine learning.[84] In 2020 , machine learning technology was used to help make diagnoses and aid resea rchers in developing a cure for COVID-19.[85] Machine learning is recently applied to predict the green behavior of human-being.[86] Recently, machine learning technology is also applied to optimise smartphone\'s performance a nd thermal behaviour based on the user\'s interaction with the phone.[87][8 8][89]\n\nAlthough machine learning has been transformative in some fields, machine-learning programs often fail to deliver expected results.[90][91][9 2] Reasons for this are numerous: lack of (suitable) data, lack of access t

a set or random variables and their conditional independence with a directe

o the data, data bias, privacy problems, badly chosen tasks and algorithms, wrong tools and people, lack of resources, and evaluation problems.[93]\n\n In 2018, a self-driving car from Uber failed to detect a pedestrian, who wa s killed after a collision.[94] Attempts to use machine learning in healthc are with the IBM Watson system failed to deliver even after years of time a nd billions of dollars invested.[95][96]\n\nMachine learning has been used as a strategy to update the evidence related to a systematic review and inc reased reviewer burden related to the growth of biomedical literature. Whil e it has improved with training sets, it has not yet developed sufficiently to reduce the workload burden without limiting the necessary sensitivity fo r the findings research themselves.[97]\n\nMachine learning approaches in p articular can suffer from different data biases. A machine learning system trained specifically on current customers may not be able to predict the ne eds of new customer groups that are not represented in the training data. W hen trained on man-made data, machine learning is likely to pick up the con stitutional and unconscious biases already present in society.[98] Language models learned from data have been shown to contain human-like biases.[99][100] Machine learning systems used for criminal risk assessment have been f ound to be biased against black people.[101][102] In 2015, Google photos wo uld often tag black people as gorillas,[103] and in 2018 this still was not well resolved, but Google reportedly was still using the workaround to remo ve all gorillas from the training data, and thus was not able to recognize real gorillas at all.[104] Similar issues with recognizing non-white people have been found in many other systems.[105] In 2016, Microsoft tested a cha tbot that learned from Twitter, and it quickly picked up racist and sexist language.[106] Because of such challenges, the effective use of machine lea rning may take longer to be adopted in other domains.[107] Concern for fair ness in machine learning, that is, reducing bias in machine learning and pr opelling its use for human good is increasingly expressed by artificial int elligence scientists, including Fei-Fei Li, who reminds engineers that "The re\'s nothing artificial about AI...It\'s inspired by people, it\'s created by people, and-most importantly-it impacts people. It is a powerful tool we are only just beginning to understand, and that is a profound responsibilit y."[108]\n\nExplainable AI (XAI), or Interpretable AI, or Explainable Machi ne Learning (XML), is artificial intelligence (AI) in which humans can unde rstand the decisions or predictions made by the AI. It contrasts with the " black box" concept in machine learning where even its designers cannot expl ain why an AI arrived at a specific decision. By refining the mental models of users of AI-powered systems and dismantling their misconceptions, XAI pr omises to help users perform more effectively. XAI may be an implementation of the social right to explanation. \n\nSettling on a bad, overly complex th eory gerrymandered to fit all the past training data is known as overfittin g. Many systems attempt to reduce overfitting by rewarding a theory in acco rdance with how well it fits the data, but penalizing the theory in accorda nce with how complex the theory is.\n\nLearners can also disappoint by "lea rning the wrong lesson". A toy example is that an image classifier trained only on pictures of brown horses and black cats might conclude that all bro wn patches are likely to be horses. A real-world example is that, unlike hu mans, current image classifiers often don\'t primarily make judgments from the spatial relationship between components of the picture, and they learn relationships between pixels that humans are oblivious to, but that still c orrelate with images of certain types of real objects. Modifying these patt erns on a legitimate image can result in "adversarial" images that the syst em misclassifies.[110][111]\n\nAdversarial vulnerabilities can also result in nonlinear systems, or from non-pattern perturbations. Some systems are s o brittle that changing a single adversarial pixel predictably induces misc lassification.[citation needed] Machine learning models are often vulnerabl e to manipulation and/or evasion via adversarial machine learning.[112]\n\n Researchers have demonstrated how backdoors can be placed undetectably into classifying (e.g. for categories "spam" and well-visible "not spam" of post s) machine learning models which are often developed and/or trained by thir d parties. Parties can change the classification of any input, including in cases for which a type of data/software transparency is provided, possibly including white-box access.[113][114][115]\n\nClassification of machine lea rning models can be validated by accuracy estimation techniques like the ho ldout method, which splits the data in a training and test set (conventiona lly 2/3 training set and 1/3 test set designation) and evaluates the perfor mance of the training model on the test set. In comparison, the K-fold-cros s-validation method randomly partitions the data into K subsets and then ${\tt K}$ experiments are performed each respectively considering 1 subset for evalua

tion and the remaining K-1 subsets for training the model. In addition to t he holdout and cross-validation methods, bootstrap, which samples n instanc es with replacement from the dataset, can be used to assess model accuracy. [116]\n\nIn addition to overall accuracy, investigators frequently report s ensitivity and specificity meaning True Positive Rate (TPR) and True Negati ve Rate (TNR) respectively. Similarly, investigators sometimes report the f alse positive rate (FPR) as well as the false negative rate (FNR). However, these rates are ratios that fail to reveal their numerators and denominator s. The total operating characteristic (TOC) is an effective method to expre ss a model\'s diagnostic ability. TOC shows the numerators and denominators of the previously mentioned rates, thus TOC provides more information than the commonly used receiver operating characteristic (ROC) and ROC\'s associ ated area under the curve (AUC).[117]\n\nMachine learning poses a host of e thical questions. Systems that are trained on datasets collected with biase s may exhibit these biases upon use (algorithmic bias), thus digitizing cul tural prejudices.[118] For example, in 1988, the UK\'s Commission for Racia 1 Equality found that St. George\'s Medical School had been using a compute r program trained from data of previous admissions staff and this program h ad denied nearly 60 candidates who were found to be either women or had non -European sounding names.[98] Using job hiring data from a firm with racist hiring policies may lead to a machine learning system duplicating the bias by scoring job applicants by similarity to previous successful applicants.[119][120] Responsible collection of data and documentation of algorithmic r ules used by a system thus is a critical part of machine learning.\n\nAI ca n be well-equipped to make decisions in technical fields, which rely heavil y on data and historical information. These decisions rely on the objectivi ty and logical reasoning.[121] Because human languages contain biases, mach ines trained on language corpora will necessarily also learn these biases.[122][123]\n\nOther forms of ethical challenges, not related to personal bia ses, are seen in health care. There are concerns among health care professi onals that these systems might not be designed in the public\'s interest bu t as income-generating machines.[124] This is especially true in the United States where there is a long-standing ethical dilemma of improving health c are, but also increase profits. For example, the algorithms could be design ed to provide patients with unnecessary tests or medication in which the al gorithm\'s proprietary owners hold stakes. There is potential for machine 1 earning in health care to provide professionals an additional tool to diagn ose, medicate, and plan recovery paths for patients, but this requires thes e biases to be mitigated.[125]\n\nSince the 2010s, advances in both machine learning algorithms and computer hardware have led to more efficient method s for training deep neural networks (a particular narrow subdomain of machi ne learning) that contain many layers of non-linear hidden units.[126] By 2 019, graphic processing units (GPUs), often with AI-specific enhancements, had displaced CPUs as the dominant method of training large-scale commercia 1 cloud AI.[127] OpenAI estimated the hardware computing used in the larges t deep learning projects from AlexNet (2012) to AlphaZero (2017), and found a 300,000-fold increase in the amount of compute required, with a doublingtime trendline of 3.4 months.[128][129]\n\nA physical neural network or Neu romorphic computer is a type of artificial neural network in which an elect rically adjustable material is used to emulate the function of a neural syn apse. "Physical" neural network is used to emphasize the reliance on physic al hardware used to emulate neurons as opposed to software-based approaches . More generally the term is applicable to other artificial neural networks in which a memristor or other electrically adjustable resistance material i s used to emulate a neural synapse.[130][131]\n\nEmbedded Machine Learning is a sub-field of machine learning, where the machine learning model is run on embedded systems with limited computing resources such as wearable compu ters, edge devices and microcontrollers.[132][133][134] Running machine lea rning model in embedded devices removes the need for transferring and stori ng data on cloud servers for further processing, henceforth, reducing data breaches and privacy leaks happening because of transferring data, and also minimizes theft of intellectual properties, personal data and business secr ets. Embedded Machine Learning could be applied through several techniques including hardware acceleration,[135][136] using approximate computing,[137] optimization of machine learning models and many more.[138][139]\n\nSoftw are suites containing a variety of machine learning algorithms include the following: \n • European Conference on Machine Learning and Principles and Pr actice of Knowledge Discovery in Databases (ECML PKDD)\n• International Con ference on Computational Intelligence Methods for Bioinformatics and Biosta tistics (CIBB)\n• Automated machine learning - Process of automating the ap plication of machine learning\n• None Domingos, Pedro (September 22, 2015). The Master Algorithm: How the Quest for the Ultimate Learning Machine Will Remake Our World. Basic Books. ISBN .\n• None Nilsson, Nils (1998). . Morga n Kaufmann. ISBN . Archived from the original on 26 July 2020 .\n• None Poo le, David; Mackworth, Alan; Goebel, Randy (1998). Computational Intelligenc e: A Logical Approach. New York: Oxford University Press. ISBN . Archived f rom the original on 26 July 2020 .\n• mloss is an academic database of open -source machine learning software.'

Tokenization

```
In [9]:
           tokens = nltk.word_tokenize(Mydataset)
           len(tokens) #No. of tokens
          9026
Out[9]:
In [10]:
           tokens[:100]
          ['Study',
Out[10]:
           'of',
           'algorithms',
            'that',
           'improve',
            'automatically',
            'through',
            'experience',
            'Machine',
            'learning',
            '(',
            'ML',
            ')',
           'is',
           'a',
           'field',
           of',
            'inquiry',
            'devoted',
            'to',
            'understanding',
            'and',
            'building',
            'methods',
           'that',
           "'learn",
           "'",
           'that',
           'is',
           ',',
           'methods',
           'that',
           'leverage',
           'data',
           'to',
           'improve',
            'performance',
           'on',
           'some',
           'set',
           'of',
           'tasks',
           ٠.,
           '[',
'1',
'1',
            'It',
```

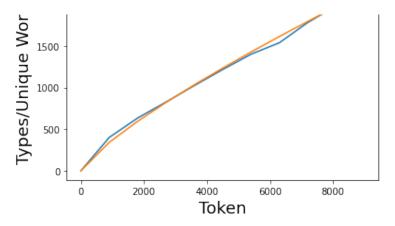
```
'seen',
           'as',
           'a',
           'part',
           'of',
           'artificial',
           'intelligence',
           '·',
           'Machine',
           'learning',
           'algorithms',
           'build',
           'a',
           'model',
           'based',
           'on',
           'sample',
           'data',
           ',',
           'known',
           'as',
           'training',
           'data',
           ',',
           'in',
           'order',
           'to',
           'make',
           'predictions',
           'or',
           'decisions',
           'without',
           'being',
           'explicitly',
           'programmed',
           'to',
           'do',
           'so',
           '·',
           '[',
'2',
           ']',
           'Machine',
           'learning',
           'algorithms',
           'are',
           'used',
           'in',
           'a',
           'wide',
           'variety']
In [11]:
           from nltk.probability import FreqDist
           fdist = FreqDist()
In [12]:
           for word in tokens:
             fdist[word.lower()]+=1
           fdist #dictrionary of all the distinct words with how many times they appear
          FreqDist({',': 408, 'the': 370, '.': 337, 'of': 240, 'a': 236, 'to': 219, '
Out[12]:
          learning': 198, 'and': 182, 'in': 181, '[': 151, ...})
In [13]:
          len(fdist) #no. of distinct words (No of Unigrams)
Out[13]: 2076
```

'is',

```
#Top ten words
          top10_repeated = fdist.most_common(10)
          top10_repeated
Out[14]: [(',', 408),
          ('the', 370),
          ('.', 337),
          ('of', 240),
          ('a', 236),
          ('to', 219),
          ('learning', 198),
          ('and', 182),
          ('in', 181),
          ('[', 151)]
         Herdan's Law
In [15]:
          import re
          import string
          import nltk
          from operator import itemgetter
          from random import shuffle
          from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
In [16]:
          def function (n,k,bt):
              return k*(n**bt)
          def heap_law(tokens_):
              #pass the list of all the tokens
              #this law tells how the overall vocabulary(types) grows with the size
              #x is the differt number of tokens and y is the differnt number of cori
              #then we use the scilearn curve fit to get the esitmated paramters
              token_sample = [tokens_[0:i] for i in range(0,len(tokens_),900)]
              type samples = [len(set(j)) for j in token sample]
              #keeps the lenght of the list type
              x = [len(tokens_[0:i])  for i  in range(0, len(tokens_), 900)]
              y = type_samples
              plt.plot(x,y,label = "according to data")
              plt.legend()
              #curve fitting to estimate paramters
              parameters = curve_fit(function, x, y) #parameter order - function that i
              k,bt = parameters[0]
              plt.plot(x,k*(x**bt), label = "curve fit")
              plt.legend()
              plt.xlabel('Token', fontsize=18)
              plt.ylabel('Types/Unique Words', fontsize=18)
              plt.show()
              #print estimated value of k and beta
              print ("The estimated value of k is :",k)
              print ("The estimated value of beta is:",bt)
In [17]:
          heap_law(tokens)
```

In [14]:

according to data curve fit



The estimated value of k is : 1.5085934988281775
The estimated value of beta is: 0.7973305268784159

Zipf's Law

```
In [18]:
    12 = []
    for word in tokens:
        word = word.lower()
        12.append(word)
```

```
from collections import Counter
import math
def punc(text):
    exclude = set(string.punctuation)
    text = [''.join(x for x in y if x not in exclude) for y in text]
    text = [''.join(x.split()) for x in text]
    text = [x for x in text if x != '']
    return text

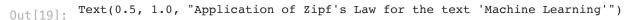
12 = punc(12)
```

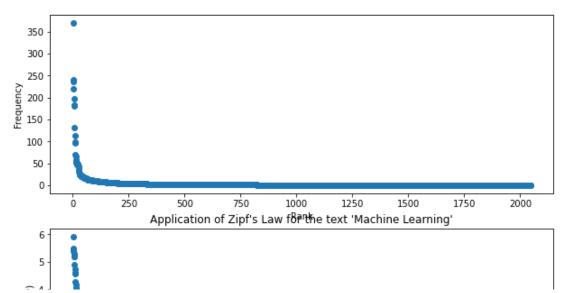
```
#Term frequency
tf = Counter(12)
values = [k for k,l in sorted([(j,i) for i,j in tf.items()], reverse=True)]
log_values = [math.log(k) for k,l in sorted([(j,i) for i,j in tf.items()],
x = [i+1 for i in range(len(values))]
#plotting,
fig = plt.figure(figsize= (10,8))

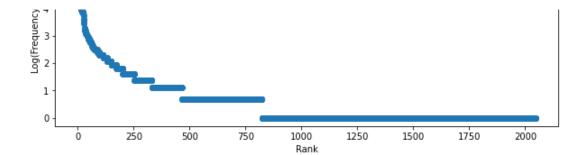
plt.subplot(2,1,1)
plt.plot(x,values, 'o')
plt.xlabel('Rank')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')

plt.subplot(2,1,2)
plt.plot(x, log_values, 'o')
plt.xlabel('Rank')
plt.ylabel('Log(Frequency)')

plt.vlabel('Log(Frequency)')
```







N-Grams

```
In [20]:
            from nltk.util import bigrams, trigrams, ngrams
 In []:
In [21]:
            bigrams = list(nltk.bigrams(tokens))
            len(bigrams) #no. of bigrams
           9025
Out[21]:
In [22]:
            bigrams[:100]
           [('Study', 'of'),
Out[22]:
             ('of', 'algorithms'),
             ('algorithms', 'that'),
             ('that', 'improve'),
             ('improve', 'automatically'),
             ('automatically', 'through'),
             ('through', 'experience'),
             ('experience', 'Machine'),
             ('Machine', 'learning'),
             ('learning', '('),
             ('(', 'ML'),
             ('ML', ')'),
(')', 'is'),
('is', 'a'),
('a', 'field'),
             ('field', 'of'),
             ('of', 'inquiry'),
             ('inquiry', 'devoted'), ('devoted', 'to'),
             ('to', 'understanding'),
             ('understanding', 'and'),
             ('and', 'building'),
             ('building', 'methods'), ('methods', 'that'), ('that', "'learn"),
             ("'learn", "'"),
             ("'", ','),
(',', 'that'),
            ('that', 'is'),
('is', ','),
(',', 'methods'),
             ('methods', 'that'), ('that', 'leverage'),
             ('leverage', 'data'),
             ('data', 'to'),
             ('to', 'improve'),
             ('improve', 'performance'),
             ('performance', 'on'),
             ('on' 'some')
```

```
('some', 'set'),
('set', 'of'),
('of', 'tasks'),
                 ('tasks', '.'),
                ('tasks', '.
('.', '['),
('[', '1'),
('1', ']'),
(']', 'It'),
                ('It', 'is'),
('is', 'seen'),
                 ('seen', 'as'),
                ('as', 'a'),
('a', 'part'),
                ('part', 'of'),
('of', 'artificial'),
                ('artificial', 'intelligence'), ('intelligence', '.'),
                 ('.', 'Machine'),
                ('Machine', 'learning'),
('learning', 'algorithms'),
('algorithms', 'build'),
                 ('build', 'a'),
                 ('a', 'model'),
                ('model', 'based'),
('based', 'on'),
                 ('on', 'sample'),
                ('sample', 'data'),
('data', ','),
                 (',', 'known'),
                 ('known', 'as'),
                 ('as', 'training'),
                 ('training', 'data'),
                 ('data', ','),
                (',', 'in'),
('in', 'order'),
                 ('order', 'to'),
                 ('to', 'make'),
                 ('make', 'predictions'),
                 ('predictions', 'or'),
                 ('or', 'decisions'),
                ('decisions', 'without'),
('without', 'being'),
('being', 'explicitly'),
                ('explicitly', 'programmed'),
('programmed', 'to'),
                ('to', 'do'),
('do', 'so'),
('so', '.'),
('.', '['),
('[', '2'),
                ('2', ']'),
                (']', 'Machine'),
                ('Machine', 'learning'),
('learning', 'algorithms'),
('algorithms', 'are'),
                ('are', 'used'),
('used', 'in'),
                ('in', 'a'),
('a', 'wide'),
                 ('wide', 'variety'),
                 ('variety', 'of')]
In [23]:
                temp = set(bigrams)
                unq_bigrams = list(temp)
                unq_bigrams[:10]
Out[23]: [('computing', 'used'),
                ('dynamic', 'programming'),
('vaguely', 'inspired'),
```

```
('for', 'much'),
                 ('properties', 'learned'),
                 ('goals', ';'),
('neurons', "''"),
                 (')', 'can'),
                 ('135', ']'),
                 ('example', 'has')]
In [24]:
                #Number of unique bigrams
                len(unq_bigrams)
Out[24]: 6477
In [25]:
                #############################
                trigrams = list(nltk.trigrams(tokens))
                len(trigrams)
               9024
Out[25]:
In [26]:
                trigrams[:100]
Out[26]: [('Study', 'of', 'algorithms'),
                 ('of', 'algorithms', 'that'), ('algorithms', 'that', 'improve'),
                 ('that', 'improve', 'automatically'),
                 ('improve', 'automatically', 'through'),
('automatically', 'through', 'experience'),
                ('through', 'experience', 'Machine'),
('experience', 'Machine', 'learning'),
('Machine', 'learning', '('),
('learning', '(', 'ML'),
('(', 'ML', ')'),
('ML', ')', 'is')
                ('(', 'ML', ')'),
('ML', ')', 'is'),
(')', 'is', 'a'),
('is', 'a', 'field'),
('a', 'field', 'of'),
('field', 'of', 'inquiry'),
('of', 'inquiry', 'devoted'),
                 ('inquiry', 'devoted', 'to'), ('devoted', 'to', 'understanding'),
                ('to', 'understanding', 'and'),
('understanding', 'and', 'building'),
('and', 'building', 'methods'),
                 ('building', 'methods', 'that'),
('methods', 'that', "'learn"),
('that', "'learn", "'"),
("'learn", "'", ','),
                 ("'", ',', 'that'),
                 (',', 'that', 'is'),
('that', 'is', ','),
                 ('is', ',', 'methods'),
                 (',', 'methods', 'that'),
                 ('methods', 'that', 'leverage'),
                 ('that', 'leverage', 'data'),
                 ('leverage', 'data', 'to'),
                 ('data', 'to', 'improve'),
                 ('to', 'improve', 'performance'),
                 ('improve', 'performance', 'on'),
                 ('performance', 'on', 'some'),
                 ('on', 'some', 'set'),
                 ('some', 'set', 'of'),
                ('set', 'of', 'tasks'),
('of', 'tasks', '.'),
('tasks', '.', '['),
                 ('.', '[', '1'),
```

```
('[', 'l', ']'),
('l', ']', 'It'),
(']', 'It', 'is'),
              ('It', 'is', 'seen'),
('is', 'seen', 'as'),
              ('seen', 'as', 'a'),
              ('as', 'a', 'part'),
('a', 'part', 'of'),
              ('part', 'of', 'artificial'),
              ('of', 'artificial', 'intelligence'),
              ('artificial', 'intelligence', '.'),
              ('intelligence', '.', 'Machine'),
              ('.', 'Machine', 'learning'),
              ('Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
('learning', 'algorithms', 'build'),
              ('algorithms', 'build', 'a'),
              ('build', 'a', 'model'), ('a', 'model', 'based'),
              ('model', 'based', 'on'),
              ('based', 'on', 'sample'),
              ('on', 'sample', 'data'),
              ('sample', 'data', ','), ('data', ',', 'known'),
              (',', 'known', 'as'),
              ('known', 'as', 'training'),
              ('as', 'training', 'data'),
              ('training', 'data', ','),
              ('data', ',', 'in'),
(',', 'in', 'order'),
              ('in', 'order', 'to'),
              ('order', 'to', 'make'),
('to', 'make', 'predictions'),
              ('make', 'predictions', 'or'),
              ('predictions', 'or', 'decisions'), ('or', 'decisions', 'without'),
              ('decisions', 'without', 'being'),
              ('without', 'being', 'explicitly'),
              ('being', 'explicitly', 'programmed'),
              ('explicitly', 'programmed', 'to'),
('programmed', 'to', 'do'),
              ('to', 'do', 'so'),
('do', 'so', '.'),
('so', '.', '['),
('.', '[', '2'),
              ('[', '2', ']'),
('2', ']', 'Machine'),
              (']', 'Machine', 'learning'),
              ('Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms'), ('learning', 'algorithms', 'are'),
              ('algorithms', 'are', 'used'),
              ('are', 'used', 'in'),
('used', 'in', 'a'),
              ('in', 'a', 'wide'),
('a', 'wide', 'variety'),
              ('wide', 'variety', 'of'),
              ('variety', 'of', 'applications')]
In [27]:
              temp1 = set(trigrams)
              ung trigrams = list(temp1)
              unq trigrams[:10]
Out[27]: [('and', 'the', 'actual'),
              (',', 'a', 'cluster'),
              ('to', 'model', 'the'),
              ('accuracy', 'estimation', 'techniques'),
              ('verification', '.', 'Unsupervised'),
              ('in', 'which', 'it'),
(')', '+', 'v'),
('bv', 'an', 'arrav').
```

```
In [28]:
                len(ung trigrams) #no. of unique trigrams
Out[28]:
In [29]:
                four grams = list(nltk.ngrams(tokens, 4))
                len(four grams)
              9023
Out[29]:
In [30]:
                four grams[1:100]
Out[30]: [('of', 'algorithms', 'that', 'improve'),
                ('algorithms', 'that', 'improve', 'automatically'),
                 ('that', 'improve', 'automatically', 'through'),
                 ('improve', 'automatically', 'through', 'experience'), ('automatically', 'through', 'experience', 'Machine'),
                 ('through', 'experience', 'Machine', 'learning'), ('experience', 'Machine', 'learning', '('),
                 ('Machine', 'learning', '(', 'ML'),
                ('learning', '(', 'ML', ')'),
('(', 'ML', ')', 'is'),
('ML', ')', 'is', 'a'),
(')', 'is', 'a', 'field'),
                 ('is', 'a', 'field', 'of'),
                 ('a', 'field', 'of', 'inquiry'),
                 ('field', 'of', 'inquiry', 'devoted'),
                 ('of', 'inquiry', 'devoted', 'to'),
                 ('inquiry', 'devoted', 'to', 'understanding'),
                 ('devoted', 'to', 'understanding', 'and'),
                ('to', 'understanding', 'and', 'building'), ('understanding', 'and', 'building', 'methods'),
                ('and', 'building', 'methods', 'that'), ('building', 'methods', 'that', "'learn"),
                ('methods', 'that', "'learn", "'"),
('that', "'learn", "'", ','),
("'learn", "'", ',', 'that'),
("'", ',', 'that', 'is'),
(',', 'that', 'is', ','),
('that', 'is', ',', 'methods'),
                ('is', ',', 'methods', 'that'),
(',', 'methods', 'that', 'leverage'),
                ('methods', 'that', 'leverage', 'data'),
('that', 'leverage', 'data', 'to'),
('leverage', 'data', 'to', 'improve'),
('data', 'to', 'improve', 'performance'),
                 ('to', 'improve', 'performance', 'on'),
                 ('improve', 'performance', 'on', 'some'),
                ('performance', 'on', 'some', 'set'),
('on', 'some', 'set', 'of'),
('some', 'set', 'of', 'tasks'),
('set', 'of', 'tasks', '.'),
('of', 'tasks', '.', '['),
                ('tasks', '.', '[', '1'), ('.', '[', '1'),
                 ('[', '1', ']', 'It'),
                 ('1', ']', 'It', 'is'),
                 (']', 'It', 'is', 'seen'),
                 ('It', 'is', 'seen', 'as'),
('is', 'seen', 'as', 'a'),
```

('.', '[', '21'), (']', '[', '91')]

```
('seen', 'as', 'a', 'part'),
('as', 'a', 'part', 'of'),
('a', 'part', 'of', 'artificial'),
                ('part', 'of', 'artificial', 'intelligence'),
               ('of', 'artificial', 'intelligence', '.'),
('artificial', 'intelligence', '.', 'Machine'),
('intelligence', '.', 'Machine', 'learning'),
                ('.', 'Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
               ('Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms', 'build'), ('learning', 'algorithms', 'build', 'a'), ('algorithms', 'build', 'a', 'model'),
               ('build', 'a', 'model', 'based'),
('a', 'model', 'based', 'on'),
('model', 'based', 'on', 'sample'),
               ('based', 'on', 'sample', 'data'),
('on', 'sample', 'data', ','),
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               (',', 'known', 'as', 'training'),
               ('known', 'as', 'training', 'data'),
               ('as', 'training', 'data', ','),
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               (',', 'in', 'order', 'to'),
               ('in', 'order', 'to', 'make'),
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('in', 'a', 'wide', 'variety'),

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                ('wide', 'variety', 'of', 'applications'),
               ('variety', 'of', 'applications', ',')]
In [31]:
               temp2 = set(four grams)
               unq four grams = list(temp2)
               unq_four_grams
Out[31]: [('fail', 'to', 'reveal', 'their'),
               ('underlying', 'the', 'data', '.'),
               ('a', 'potential', 'result', 'of'),
               ('The', 'bias-variance', 'decomposition', 'is'),
               ('methods', 'to', 'estimate', 'the'),
               ('frequently', 'misunderstood', '.', 'ML'),
               ('Feature', 'learning', 'can', 'be'),
               ('a', 'field', 'of', 'study'),
               ('heavily', 'on', 'data', 'and'),
('(', 'PAC', ')', 'model'),
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               ('require', 'input', 'that', 'is'),
('learning', ',', 'and', 'artificial'),
('known' 'as' 'overfitting' '')
```

```
('perform', 'a', 'certain', 'goal'),
('by', 'people', ',', 'it'),
(',', 'and', 'it', 'quickly'),
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(':', 'Oxford', 'University', 'Press'),
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('2016', ',', 'Microsoft', 'tested'), ('amount', 'of', 'labeled', 'data'),
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('Machine', 'learning', 'and', 'data'),
('and', 'graph', 'connectivity', '.'),
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('predict', 'user', 'preferences', 'and'),
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('techniques', '.', '[', '40'),
('modeling', ',', 'meta-learning', '.'),
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('of', 'the', 'function', 'underlying'),
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('of', 'random', 'variables', 'under'), ('XAI', ')', ',', 'or'), ('Can', 'machines', 'do', 'what'),
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('journals', ',', 'ECML', 'PKDD'),
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```

```
('by', 'Arthur', 'Samuel', ','),
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```
('have', 'adopted', 'methods', 'from'),
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('input', 'for', 'decision-making', '.'),
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 / datation | techniques | datate
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('is', 'represented', 'by', 'an'),
(')', 'it', 'uses', 'to'),
('PKDD', 'being', 'a', 'major'),
('categorization', ',', 'and', 'sometimes'),
('outcomes', 'thereby', 'furthering', 'the'),
('clean', 'image', 'patch', 'can'), ('this', 'are', 'numerous', ':'), ('on', 'the', 'concept', 'of'),
('called', 'representation', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
('main', 'success', 'came', 'in'),
('machine', 'learning', 'medical', 'diagnostic'),
('in', 'statistics', ',', 'data'),
('that', 'threshold', '.', 'Typically'),
('(', 'discovering', 'hidden', 'patterns'),
('(', discovering', hidden', patterns'),
('learning', '.', 'It', 'was'),
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(',', 'novelties', ',', 'noise'),
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(']', 'Other', 'forms', 'of'),
('Probabilistic', 'systems', 'were', 'plagued'), ('and', 'aid', 'researchers', 'in'),
('of', 'finding', 'good', 'solutions'),
('an', 'additional', 'tool', 'to'),
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('of', 'AI-powered', 'systems', 'and'),
('or', 'as', 'a', 'preprocessing'), ('113', ']', '[', '114'),
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('data', 'for', 'the', 'computer'),
('.', 'Learning', 'classifier', 'systems'),
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('and', 'denominators', 'of', 'the'),
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('emulate', 'a', 'neural', 'synapse'),
('will', 'probably', 'rise', 'tomorrow'), ('Responsible', 'collection', 'of', 'data'),
('by', 'looking', 'for', 'instances'),
(')', 'and', 'ROC', "'s"),
('Other', 'methods', 'are', 'based'),
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(',', 'the', 'training', 'labels'),
('language', 'processing', '.', 'Gordon'),
('non-linear', 'function', 'of', 'the'),
```

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('models', '.', 'A', 'hypothetical'),
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                    ('.', 'Learners', 'can', 'also'),
                    ('is', 'the', 'assignment', 'of'),
                   ('higher-dimensional', 'space', '.', 'A'), ('such', 'as', 'game', 'theory'), ('assumption', 'that', 'the', 'majority'),
                   ('e.g', '.', 'MAML', ')'),
In [32]:
                  len(ung four grams)
                 8835
Out[32]:
In [33]:
                   five gram = list(nltk.ngrams(tokens, 5))
                   len(five gram) #No. of unique four grams
                 9022
Out[33]:
In [34]:
                   five gram[1:100]
                 [('of', 'algorithms', 'that', 'improve', 'automatically'),
Out[34]:
                   ('algorithms', 'that', 'improve', 'automatically', 'through'),
                   ('that', 'improve', 'automatically', 'through', 'experience'),
                   ('improve', 'automatically', 'through', 'experience', 'Machine'), ('automatically', 'through', 'experience', 'Machine', 'learning'),
                   ('through', 'experience', 'Machine', 'learning', '('), ('experience', 'Machine', 'learning', '(', 'ML'),
                   ('Machine', 'learning', '(', 'ML', ')'),
('learning', '(', 'ML', ')', 'is'),
('(', 'ML', ')', 'is', 'a'),
('ML', ')', 'is', 'a', 'field'),
(')', 'is', 'a', 'field', 'of'),
('is', 'a', 'field', 'of', 'inquiry')
                   ('is', 'a', 'field', 'of', 'inquiry'),
('a', 'field', 'of', 'inquiry', 'devoted'),
('field', 'of', 'inquiry', 'devoted', 'to'),
                   ('of', 'inquiry', 'devoted', 'to', 'understanding'), ('inquiry', 'devoted', 'to', 'understanding', 'and'),
                   ('devoted', 'to', 'understanding', 'and', 'building'),
                    ('to', 'understanding', 'and', 'building', 'methods'),
                   ('understanding', 'and', 'building', 'methods', 'that'),
                   ('and', 'building', 'methods', 'that', "'learn"), ('building', 'methods', 'that', "'learn", "'"),
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("'learn", "'", ',', 'that', 'is'),
                   ("'", ',', 'that', 'is', ','),
(',', 'that', 'is', ',', 'methods'),
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                   ('is', ',', 'methods', 'that', 'leverage'),
(',', 'methods', 'that', 'leverage', 'data'),
                   ('methods', 'that', 'leverage', 'data', 'to'),
('that', 'leverage', 'data', 'to', 'improve'),
('leverage', 'data', 'to', 'improve', 'performance'),
('data', 'to', 'improve', 'performance', 'on'),
                   ('to', 'improve', 'performance', 'on', 'some'), ('improve', 'performance', 'on', 'some', 'set'),
                   ('performance', 'on', 'some', 'set', 'of'),
                   ('performance', 'on', 'some', 'set',
('on', 'some', 'set', 'of', 'tasks'),
('some', 'set', 'of', 'tasks', '.'),
('set', 'of', 'tasks', '.', '['),
('of', 'tasks', '.', '[', '1'),
('tasks', '.', '[', '1', ']'),
('tasks', '.', '[', '1', ']'),
('[', '1', ']', 'It', 'is'),
('1', '1', 'It', 'is'),
                   ('1', ']', 'It', 'is', 'seen'),
```

```
('It', 'is', 'seen', 'as', 'a'),
              ('is', 'seen', 'as', 'a', 'part'),
('seen', 'as', 'a', 'part', 'of'),
('as', 'a', 'part', 'of', 'artificial'),
('a', 'part', 'of', 'artificial', 'intelligence'),
              ('part', 'of', 'artificial', 'intelligence', '.'),
              ('of', 'artificial', 'intelligence', '.', 'Machine'), ('artificial', 'intelligence', '.', 'Machine', 'learning'),
              ('intelligence', '.', 'Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
              ('.', 'Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms', 'build'),
              ('Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms', 'build', 'a'),
              ('learning', 'algorithms', 'build', 'a', 'model'),
              ('algorithms', 'build', 'a', 'model', 'based'), ('build', 'a', 'model', 'based', 'on'),
              ('a', 'model', 'based', 'on', 'sample'),
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('sample', 'data', ',', 'known', 'as'),
('data', ',', 'known', 'as', 'training'),
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              ('known', 'as', 'training', 'data', ','),
              ('as', 'training', 'data', ',', 'in'), ('training', 'data', ',', 'in', 'order'), ('data', ',', 'in', 'order', 'to'),
              (',', 'in', 'order', 'to', 'make'),
('in', 'order', 'to', 'make', 'predictions'),
              ('order', 'to', 'make', 'predictions', 'or'), ('to', 'make', 'predictions', 'or', 'decisions'),
              ('make', 'predictions', 'or', 'decisions', 'without'),
              ('predictions', 'or', 'decisions', 'without', 'being'),
              ('or', 'decisions', 'without', 'being', 'explicitly'),
              ('decisions', 'without', 'being', 'explicitly', 'programmed'),
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              ('to', 'do', 'so', '.', '['),
              ('do', 'so', '.', '[', '2'),

('so', '.', '[', '2', ']'),

('.', '[', '2', ']', 'Machine'),

('[', '2', ']', 'Machine', 'learning'),
              ('2', ']', 'Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
              (']', 'Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms', 'are'),
              ('Machine', 'learning', 'algorithms', 'are', 'used'),
              ('learning', 'algorithms', 'are', 'used', 'in'),
              ('algorithms', 'are', 'used', 'in', 'a'),
              ('are', 'used', 'in', 'a', 'wide'),
('used', 'in', 'a', 'wide', 'variety'),
('in', 'a', 'wide', 'variety', 'of'),
              ('a', 'wide', 'variety', 'of', 'applications'),
              ('wide', 'variety', 'of', 'applications', ','),
              ('variety', 'of', 'applications', ',', 'such')]
In [35]:
             temp3 = set(five gram)
             unq five gram = list(temp3)
             unq_five_gram[:100]
('of', 'a', 'new', 'point', 'as'),
              ('ML', 'and', 'AI', 'is', 'frequently'),
              ('a', 'signal', 'can', 'process', 'it'),
              (',', 'machines', 'trained', 'on', 'language'), ('AI/CS', 'field', ',', 'as', '``'),
              ('to', 'be', 'encountered', 'in', 'the'),
              ('necessary', 'sensitivity', 'for', 'the', 'findings'),
              ('algorithms', 'and', 'computer', 'hardware', 'have'),
```

(']', 'It', 'is', 'seen', 'as'),

```
('the', 'algorithms', 'studied', 'in', 'the'),
('in', 'the', 'data', 'and', 'react'),
('learning', 'has', 'been', 'applied', 'in'),
('.', '[', '110', ']', '['),
('learning', 'theory', ',', 'a', 'computation'
('learning', 'theory', ',', 'a', 'computation'),
(',', 'and', 'computer', 'vision', ','),
('a', 'system', 'with', 'only', 'one'),
('a', 'uniform', 'representation', 'for', 'input'),
('[', '87', ']', '[', '88'),
('biomedical', 'literature', '.', 'While', 'it'),
( piomedical, literature, '.', 'While', 'it' ('related', 'two', 'objects', 'are', '.'), (',', 'or', 'imprecise', ';', 'however'), (',', 'in', 'pattern', 'recognition', 'and'), ('signal', 'at', 'a', 'connection', 'between'),
('a', 'means', 'towards', 'an', 'end'),
('programming', ')', ',', 'such', 'as'),
('.', 'Multilinear', 'subspace', 'learning', 'algorithms'),
('remains', 'a', 'subfield', 'of', 'AI'),
('97', ']', 'Machine', 'learning', 'approaches'),
('Discovery', 'in', 'Databases', '(', 'ECML'),
('specific', 'to', 'classifying', 'data', 'may'), ('analysis', 'algorithm', 'may', 'be', 'able'),
(')', 'is', 'an', 'approach', 'to'),
('Cinematch', 'movie', 'recommendation', 'algorithm', 'by'),
('constitutional', 'and', 'unconscious', 'biases', 'already'),
('[', '17', ']', 'Interest', 'related'),
('dynamic', 'programming', 'techniques', '.', '['),
('reproduce', 'known', 'knowledge', ',', 'while'),
('of', 'theoretical', 'computer', 'science', 'known'),
('Rule-based', 'machine', 'learning', 'approaches', 'include'), ('machine', 'learning', 'technology', 'was', 'used'),
('the', 'Grand', 'Prize', 'in', '2009'), ('are', 'ratios', 'that', 'fail', 'to'),
('technology', 'was', 'used', 'to', 'help'),
('performance', 'measure', 'P', 'if', 'its'),
('.', 'The', 'bias—variance', 'decomposition', 'is'),
('learning', 'algorithms', 'that', 'combine', 'a'),
('behaves', ',', 'and', 'the', 'other'),
('process', '(', 'MDP', ')', '.'),
(')', 'are', 'called', 'regression', 'trees'),
('task', 'is', 'the', 'discovery', 'of'),
('often', 'tag', 'black', 'people', 'as'),
('sales', 'data', 'of', 'a', 'supermarket'),
('absence', 'of', 'such', 'commonalities', 'in'),
('Learning', 'Machines', ',', 'dealing', 'mostly'),
('by', 'artificial', 'intelligence', 'scientists', ','), ('Leo', 'Breiman', 'distinguished', 'two', 'statistical'),
('so', 'there', 'is', 'a', 'Y'), ('changing', 'the', 'data', '.', '['),
('data', 'of', 'previous', 'admissions', 'staff'), ('``', 'Can', 'machines', 'think', '?'),
('dynamic', 'Bayesian', 'networks', '.', 'Generalizations'), (',', 'sensor', 'data', ',', 'and'),
('Using', 'job', 'hiring', 'data', 'from'), ('allows', 'a', 'machine', 'to', 'both'),
('one', 'of', 'the', 'predictive', 'modeling'),
('examples/tasks', 'after', 'having', 'experienced', 'a'),
('In', 'the', 'early', 'days', 'of'),
('in', 'the', 'field', 'of', 'machine'),
(')', '.', '•', 'Reinforcement', 'learning'),
('range', '.', 'As', 'an', 'example'),
('IBM', 'Watson', 'system', 'failed', 'to'), ('point-of-sale', '(', 'POS', ')', 'systems'), ('logic', ',', 'and', 'probability', 'theory'),
('the', 'common', 'statistical', 'definition', 'of'),
(')', 'and', 'True', 'Negative', 'Rate'),
('sources', 'continue', 'to', 'assert', 'that'), ('such', 'as', 'promotional', 'pricing', 'or'), ('learning', '.', '[', '84', ']'), ('than', 'the', 'function', ',', 'then'),
```

```
('realized', 'that', 'viewers', "'", 'ratings'),
             ('Labs-Research', 'in', 'collaboration', 'with', 'the'),
             (',', 'each', 'training', 'example', 'is'),
            ('performing', 'specific', 'tasks', ',', 'leading'), ('and', 'models', 'borrowed', 'from', 'statistics'),
             ('and', 'supervised', 'dictionary', 'learning', '.'),
             ('conditional', 'independence', 'with', 'a', 'directed'),
             ('learning', 'techniques', 'have', 'been', 'used'),
             ('Sparse', 'dictionary', 'learning', 'has', 'also'), ('pioneer', 'in', 'the', 'field', 'of'),
            ('and', 'Pragmatic', 'Theory', 'built', 'an'), ('using', 'labeled', 'input', 'data', '.'), ('Goebel', ',', 'Randy', '(', '1998'),
             ('a', 'rule-based', 'machine', 'learning', 'method'),
             ('method', 'to', 'express', 'a', 'model'),
             ('did', 'continue', 'within', 'AI', ','),
             ('anomaly', 'detection', 'techniques', 'require', 'a'),
             ('used', 'to', 'predict', 'the', 'output'),
             ('network', 'learns', 'to', 'recognize', '40'),
             ('learning', 'machine', 'to', 'perform', 'accurately')]
In [36]:
            len(unq_five_gram) #No of unique Five grams
Out[36]:
```

Training Model

('algorithms', 'that'),
('that', 'improve'),

('improve', 'automatically'),
('automatically', 'through'),
('through' 'experience')

```
In [37]:
          listOfBigrams = []
          bigramCounts = {}
          unigramCounts = {}
          def createBigram(data):
             for i in range(len(data)-1):
                if i < len(data) - 1 and data[i+1].islower():</pre>
                   listOfBigrams.append((data[i], data[i + 1]))
                   if (data[i], data[i+1]) in bigramCounts:
                      bigramCounts[(data[i], data[i + 1])] += 1
                   else:
                      bigramCounts[(data[i], data[i + 1])] = 1
                if data[i] in unigramCounts:
                   unigramCounts[data[i]] += 1
                else:
                   unigramCounts[data[i]] = 1
             return listOfBigrams, unigramCounts, bigramCounts
          def calcBigramProb(listOfBigrams, unigramCounts, bigramCounts):
              listOfProb = {}
              for bigram in listOfBigrams:
                  word1 = bigram[0]
                  word2 = bigram[1]
                  listOfProb[bigram] = (bigramCounts.get(bigram))/(unigramCounts.get(
              return listOfProb
In [38]:
          createBigram(tokens)
         ([('Study', 'of'),
Out[38]:
           ('of', 'algorithms'),
```

```
('Machine', 'learning'),
(')', 'is'),
('is', 'a'),
('a', 'field'),
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('and', 'building'),
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('that', "'learn"),
(',', 'that'),
('that', 'is'),
(',', 'methods'),
('methods', 'that'),
('that', 'leverage'),
('leverage', 'data'),
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('improve', 'performance'),
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('set', 'of'),
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('as', 'a'),
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('make', 'predictions'),
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```

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('to', 'the'),
('the', 'field'),
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('are', 'likely'),
/ 11 11-01-01
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('to', 'continue'),
('continue', 'working'), ('working', 'well'),
('well', 'in'),
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('the', 'future'),
('These', 'inferences'),
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(',', 'such'),
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('every', 'morning'),
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('the', 'last'),
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('rise', 'tomorrow'),
('tomorrow', 'morning'),
('morning', 'as'),
('as', 'well'),
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('is', 'a'),
('%', 'chance'),
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('do', 'so'),
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('computers', 'learning'),
```

```
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('required', 'to'),
('to', 'solve'),
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('turn', 'out'),
('turn', 'out'),
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('to', 'be'),
('be', 'more'),
('more', 'effective'),
```

```
( errective , to ),
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          ...}
In [40]:
         inputList = input('Give the sentence to check Probablitiy: ')
        Give the sentence to check Probablitiy: machine learning
In [41]:
         print("\n Bigrams along with their probability ")
         splt=inputList.split()
         outputProb1 = 1
         bilist=[]
         bigrm=[]
         for i in range(len(splt) - 1):
           if i < len(splt) - 1:</pre>
            bilist.append((splt[i], splt[i + 1]))
         print("\n The bigrams in given sentence are ")
         print(bilist)
         for i in range(len(bilist)):
           if bilist[i] in bigramProb:
            outputProb1 *= bigramProb[bilist[i]]
           else:
            outputProb1 *= 0
         print('\n' + 'Probablility of sentence = ' + str(outputProb1))
         Bigrams along with their probability
         The bigrams in given sentence are
        [('machine', 'learning')]
        Probablility of sentence = 0.9247311827956989
 In []:
 In []:
In [ ]:
```