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Eric Sven Ristad.
Maximum entropy modeling toolkit, release 1.3 Beta.
ftp://ftp.cs.princeton.edu/pub/packages/memt
December 31, 1996.

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1 Overview

The Maximum Entropy Modeling Toolkit supports parameter estimation and prediction for statistical language models in the maximum entropy framework. The maximum entropy framework provides a constructive method for obtaining the unique conditional distribution $p^*(y|x)$ that satisfies a set of linear constraints and maximizes the conditional entropy $H(p|f)$ with respect to the empirical distribution $f(x)$. The maximum entropy distribution $p^*(y|x)$ also has a unique parametric representation in the class of exponential models, as $m(y|x) = r(y|x) / Z(x)$ where the numerator $r(y|x)$ is a product of exponential weights

$$r(y|x) = \prod_i \alpha_i^{g_i(x,y)}$$

for $\alpha_i = \exp(\lambda_i)$, and the denominator $Z(x) = \sum_y r(y|x)$ is required to satisfy the axioms of probability.

This manual explains how to build maximum entropy models for discrete domains with the Maximum Entropy Modeling Toolkit (MEMT). First we summarize the steps necessary to implement a language model using the toolkit. Next we discuss the executables provided by the toolkit and explain the file formats required by the toolkit. Finally, we review the maximum entropy framework and apply it to the problem of statistical language modeling.

1.1 Availability

This is version 1.3 Beta, last updated December 31, 1996. It is currently available from:

ftp://ftp.cs.princeton.edu/pub/packages/memt/

This release of the MEMT includes documentation in the following formats

./doc/memt.{info,html,ps}

and binaries for the following Unix architectures:

./bin/alpha       DEC Alpha OSF/1 3.0 (aka DEC Unix)
./bin/hppa        HP PA-RISC 9000 hpux 9.05
./bin/sgi         SGI MIPS IRIX 5.3
./bin/sun5        Sun SPARC SunOS 5.5
./bin/sun4        Sun SPARC SunOS 4.1.3

1.2 Mailing Lists

If you would like to hear about new releases of the MEMT, then subscribe to the memt-announce mailing list by sending mail to majordomo@cs.princeton.edu with the single line:

subscribe memt-announce

If you are encountering difficulty using the MEMT, or would like to discuss maximum entropy modeling issues with skilled users, then send mail to memt-help@cs.princeton.edu. If you are a skilled user of the MEMT, or knowledgeable about maximum entropy modeling, then we encourage you to subscribe to this majordomo mailing list and help field the questions that are posted.

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1 The conditional entropy $H(p|f) = \sum_x <x,y> f(x)p(y|x) \log p(y|x)$ is taken with respect to the empirical distribution $f(x)$. 
1.3 Acknowledgments

The author is grateful to Sanjeev Khudanpur, Harry Printz, and Salim Roukos for helpful discussions about maximum entropy modeling. A draft version of the toolkit was created at the 1996 DoD Speech Recognition Workshop at Johns Hopkins University. The author is partially supported by NSF Young Investigator Award IRI-0258517.

The toolkit was implemented using the Library of Practical Abstractions (Ristad and Yianilos, 1996). Documentation was created in GNU texinfo format, from which info and postscript formats were derived directly; html format was derived using texi2html from Lionel Cons.
2 Users Guide

Only three simple steps are required to obtain a maximum entropy distribution for a
discrete conditional space $Y \mid X$ – define your features, calculate their target expectations,
and then find a model $m^*(y \mid x)$ for the maximum entropy distribution. Here we briefly
guide you through these three steps in the Maximum Entropy Modeling Toolkit.

The first step is to define a set $G$ of features on $Y \mid X$. Each n-ary feature $g_{ij}(x,y)$ partitions
the $Y \mid X$ space into n equivalence classes, where the $j$-th class consists of all events $y \mid x$ where
$g_{ij}(x,y) = j$. Choosing the features $G$ defines the class $R$ of all exponential models over the
features $G$,

$$R = \{ m: m(y \mid x) = r(y \mid x) / Z(x) \}$$

where

$$r(y \mid x) = \prod_i \alpha_i^g_i(x,y)$$

$$Z(x) = \sum_y r(y \mid x).$$

and each $\alpha_i = \exp(\lambda_i)$.

The second step is to calculate the vector $a = a_1 \ldots a_k$ of target feature expectations
from the training corpus. The simplest and most effective approach here is to set the
target expectations to be the empirical expectations. The empirical expectation $f[g_i]$ is the
expectation of the feature $g_i(x,y)$ with respect to the empirical distribution $f(x,y)$ defined
by the training corpus.

$$f[g_i] = \sum_{x,y} f(x,y) g_i(x,y)$$

Together, the features $G$ and their target expectations define the class $P$

$$P = \{ p: p[g_i] = a_i \text{ for all } i = 1 \ldots k \}$$

of all probability functions that are consistent with training corpus as viewed through our
features $G$. Recall that the intersection of $P$ and $R$ includes only one model, the model for
the maximum entropy distribution $p^*(y \mid x)$ in $P$. Therefore, the act of choosing the target
expectations also indirectly specifies our desired maximum entropy distribution $p^*(y \mid x)$.

The third step is to perform maximum likelihood estimation on the exponential model
class $R$. This identifies the maximum likelihood exponential model $m^*(y \mid x)$ in $R$, which is
equivalent to the desired maximum entropy distribution $p^*(y \mid x)$ in $P$.

Let us consider how to take these three simple steps in the MEMT.

2.1 Parameter Estimation

The first step is to specify the input/output behavior of your features. This is accomplished
with an events file. An events file consists of two parts, one for marginal events $y$ in $Y$
and the other for conditional events $y \mid x$ in $Y \mid X$. For each marginal event $y$, the events file
lists all features that are active for $y$, independent of the context. These are the marginal
features. The events file must also list all the remaining (ie., non-marginal) features that
are active for every conditional event $y \mid x$. There are a great many conditional events and it
would not be feasible to list them all. Fortunately, we need only list the conditional events

---

1 Our notation $p[g(x,y)]$ for the expectation of a function $g(x,y)$ with respect to a distribution
$p(x,y)$ differs from traditional notation $E_p[g(x,y)]$. 
y\mid x that occur with positive frequency in the training corpus. This allows the toolkit to calculate the likelihood of the training data according to a given model, and to calculate the empirical distribution \( f(x) \) over the contexts \( X \). (Recall that the empirical distribution \( f(x) \) is necessary to calculate the expectation of each feature with respect to the joint model \( p(x,y) = f(x)p(y\mid x) \).) We also need to list all the events \( y\mid x \) that trigger a conditional feature, but only for those contexts \( x \) that occur with positive frequency in the training corpus. This information is necessary to calculate the feature expectations during parameter estimation.

The second step is to set your target expectations. This is accomplished with a parameters file. As its name suggests, the parameters file also contains the parameter value associated with each feature. An events file and an accompanying parameters file are all that you need to start searching for the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(y\mid x) \) in \( P \).

Once you have constructed an events file and a parameters file, first run the me.memory executable to make sure that your computer has enough memory to use the toolkit. You will need approximately as much memory as the size of your events file to verify and train your model. Next, run the me.checker executable to verify the correctness of your files. We recommend using the -v ‘verbose’ option. Don’t ignore the warnings! When you are confident in the correctness of your parameters and events files, then you are ready to take the third step. Use the me.estimate executable to find the maximum likelihood model \( m^*(y\mid x) \) in the class \( R \) of exponential models over the features \( G \). Recall that the maximum likelihood exponential model \( m^*(y\mid x) \) is equivalent to the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(y\mid x) \) in \( P \). We recommend using the -m ‘monotonic’ option. me.estimate implements the highly effective improved iterative scaling algorithm (Della Pietra et.al., 1995).

### 2.2 Prediction

Once you have found a model for the maximum entropy distribution, you will want to evaluate the probabilities of future events according to your model. The simplest models will only require us to multiply a series of conditional probabilities. More sophisticated models, such as those with hidden variables, may also require us to sum the probabilities of complex events. In order to do this with the toolkit, you must create an expressions file that describes your desired probability computation. The operations employed in this probability computation are (i) to evaluate the conditional probability \( p(y\mid x) \) of an event, (ii) to multiply the results of other probability computations, and (iii) to add the results of other probability computations. You must also create an events file for each expressions file. This events file contains all marginal events \( y \) that activate a marginal feature, as well as all conditional events \( y\mid x \) that activate a conditional feature and whose context \( x \) occurs in the expressions file.

Having constructed an expressions file and the corresponding events file for your testing data, you are ready to evaluate the probability expressions in your expressions file using the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(y\mid x) \) obtained from your training data. First use the me.checker executable to verify the correctness of your new expressions and events files as well as your trained parameters file. Then you will use the me.evaluate executable to evaluate your probability expressions.
2.3 Common Errors

It is quite easy to create an invalid or inconsistent model in the MEMT. One way to create an invalid model is to use an inconsistent equivalence classification for either the histories or the futures. A second way to create an invalid model is to provide a parameters file with incorrect or inconsistent target expectations. Let us briefly warn against both errors.

2.3.1 Equivalence Relations

It is important not to confuse the equivalence relations used to define X and Y with those used to define the behavior of your features.

The MEMT requires a denumerable domain X and a finite domain Y. The larger these domains are, the more statistically and computationally costly the resulting model will be. Therefore, the user should strive to reduce the number of contexts X and symbols Y as much as possible. The user must be careful, however, that every history is mapped to a unique context x in X, and every future is mapped to a unique symbol y in Y. If two distinct histories h and h' are mapped to the same context x, then the user must be sure that no feature can distinguish h and h'. Similarly, if two distinct futures d and d' are mapped to the same symbol y, then no feature can distinguish d and d'.

It is perfectly acceptable for distinct features to overlap, that is, for many features to be activated by a single conditional event y|x. It is not, however, acceptable for any feature to take different values for the same conditional event y|x on different occasions.

2.3.2 Target Expectations

In our experience, the easiest way to stray from the path of effective maximum entropy modeling is to not use the empirical expectations for your targets. Therefore, we recommend that your target expectations always be the strict empirical expectations. The surest sign of an invalid or inconsistent model is that it fails to converge during parameter estimation. Accordingly, the \texttt{me.estimate} executable provides four diagnostics for convergence: \(d(m[g_{\alpha}],a_{\alpha})\), \(|\text{Update}|\), Max(alpha), and L(C|m). Each of these diagnostics has a straightforward interpretation.

The first diagnostic \(d(m[g_{\alpha}],a_{\alpha})\) is the Euclidean distance between the feature expectations \(m[g_{\alpha}]\) with respect to the current model \(m(x,y) = m(y|x)f(x)\) and their target expectations \(a_{\alpha}\). The second diagnostic \(|\text{Update}|\) is the magnitude of the lambda parameter update vector. Both of these quantities should be monotonically decreasing with each iteration of \texttt{me.estimate}, even if the target expectations are not the empirical expectations or if the targets are mildly inconsistent. If either of these quantities do not approach zero, then we recommend you choose more conservative target expectations.

The third diagnostic Max(alpha) is the value of the maximal parameter alpha_{\alpha} = \exp(\text{lambda}_{\alpha}). This value may fluctuate, but it should not grow unreasonably large or small. If Max(alpha) approaches zero or grows without bound to +Inf, then your target expectations are dangerously inconsistent and you would be better served to choose more conservative targets.
The fourth diagnostic $L(C|m)$ is the total codelength of the corpus $C$ according to the current model $m$, that is, the negative log likelihood of the corpus according to the current model. This quantity should be monotonically decreasing if the target expectations are the empirical expectations. If, however, your targets are smoothed or inconsistent, then $L(C|m)$ will not be monotonically decreasing. If $L(C|m)$ fluctuates wildly for your model, then your target expectations are inconsistent, and you should choose more conservative targets. If your targets are carefully smoothed empiricals, then $L(C|m)$ may decrease for several iterations, and then gradually increase for the remaining iterations. In such a situation, you may wish to use the `-m` ‘monotonic’ option for `me.estimate`, to terminate estimation when $L(C|m)$ stops decreasing. In our experience, the best model performance is obtained when the codelength is minimized.

All of these potential problems may be avoided by using the strict empirical expectations for your targets. In our experience, using empirical targets also provides the best model performance.
3 Executables

The MEMT includes the following executables.

**me.memory**

Prints the total available process memory on stdout. 

**me.checker**  [-v] [-p model] [-e events] [-x expressions] 

Executable

Given a parameters file *model*, an events file *events*, and/or an expressions file *expressions*, *me.checker* verifies that the given file(s) satisfy all syntactic requirements. Errors and warnings are written to stderr and a summary of the verification process is written to stdout. If the -v "verbose" option is present, then more detailed messages are used. *me.checker* returns success (0) if and only if all files are compatible.

**me.estimate**  [-m] *model.in* *events* *n* *model.out* 

Executable

Given a parameters file *model.in* and an events file *events*, *me.estimate* performs *n* iterations of improved iterative scaling and writes the revised parameters to *model.out*. If the -m "be monotonic" option is present, then *me.estimate* terminates when the code length L(\(C|m\)) of the corpus increases. Note that premature termination can only happen if the target expectations in the *model.in* parameters file are inconsistent. *me.estimate* also writes the following convergence information to stdout on each iteration. d(\(m[g_{m}], a_{n}\)) is the Euclidean distance between the vector of model feature expectations \(m[g_{m}]\) and the vector of target feature expectations \(a_{n}\). \(|\text{Update}|\) is the magnitude of the lambda parameter update vector. Max(alpha) is the value of the maximal alpha parameter. L(\(C|m\)) is the code length of the corpus according to the current model. H(\(m[f]\)) is the conditional entropy of the current model \(m(y|x)\) with respect to the empirical distribution \(f(x)\). 

Errors and warnings are written to stderr.

**me.evaluate**  *model* *events* *expressions* *results* 

Executable

Given a parameters file *model*, an events file *events*, and an expressions file *expressions*, *me.evaluate* writes the outcome of the computation specified in *expressions* to *results* in nats, that is, as negative log likelihoods in base e. The events files must include all marginal events \(y\) where some marginal feature \(g_{j}(y)\) is nonzero and all conditional events \(y|x\) where some conditional feature \(g_{i}(x,y)\) is nonzero and the context \(x\) occurs in the expressions file. Errors and warnings are written to stderr, and status information is written to stdout.

With the exception of the diagnostics *me.memory* and *me.checker*, all executables are available in safe and unsafe versions. The safe versions include a significant amount of error checking, full symbol tables for debugging, and no compiler optimizations. The unsafe versions are compiled with full compiler optimizations, no symbol tables, and all error diagnostics are turned off.

---

1 Since the H(\(m[f]\)) diagnostic is costly to compute, it is only available in the safe version of the *me.estimate* executable.
checking removed. The unsafe versions may also display less diagnostic information. We strongly recommend that you use the safe versions until you are confident in the correctness of your files. If you are using an unsafe executable and it terminates prematurely, then you may need to run the safe version to determine which error occurred.

If one of the MEMT executables dumps core, then it is likely that your machine does not have enough memory for your events file. The amount of available memory depends on the amount of real memory (ram) and virtual memory (swap) available on the machine as well as on the kernel limits, your own shell limits, and the memory usage of other active processes. (At the very least, you should type `unlimit` in your shell and try again.) If your kernel `datasize` limit is too low, then you may need to recompile your kernel. The cheapest way to increase the amount of available memory is to add more swap space, either by creating a larger swap file or by adding another swap partition.
4 File Formats

The maximum entropy toolkit specifies three ASCII file formats. A parameters file stores model parameters and the target expectations of features. An events file defines the behavior of the features on the observed events. An expressions file contains a series of probability expressions, each of which evaluates to a probability value. A parameters file and an events file for the training corpus are necessary to find a model for the desired maximum entropy distribution. A parameters file, an expressions file, and an events file for the testing corpus are necessary to make predictions with the maximum entropy distribution.

All float and double values are ASCII encodings of IEEE single and double precision floating point numbers, respectively. All int and long values are ASCII encodings of unsigned quantities whose ranges depend on your machine and operating system.

4.1 Parameters File

Each valid parameters file defines a conditional exponential model \( m(y|x) \)

\[
m(y|x) = \frac{r(y|x)}{Z(x)}
\]

whose numerator \( r(y|x) \) is a product of exponentials \( \alpha_i = \exp(\lambda_i) \) and whose denominator \( Z(x) \) is required to satisfy the constraint that \( \sum_y p(y|x) = 1 \).

\[
r(y|x) = \prod_i \alpha_i^{g_i(x,y)}
\]

\[
Z(x) = \sum_y r(y|x)
\]

A parameters file begins by specifying the cardinality of \( Y \) <alphabet-size> and the total number of parameters <number-parameters>. Next it includes a sequence of marginal and conditional parameters, one per line in the following format, where <number-marginal> is the number of marginal parameters and <number-conditional> is the number of conditional parameters.

```
begin.parameters <alphabet-size> <number-parameters>
begin.marginal <number-marginal>
  <marginal-parameter>
    ...
  ...
end.marginal
begin.conditional <number-conditional>
  <conditional-parameter>
    ...
  ...
end.conditional
end.parameters
```

A marginal parameter is the parameter associated with a feature \( g_i(x,y) \) that is independent of the context \( x \), that is, \( g_i(x,y) = g_i(w,y) \) for all symbols \( y \) and all contexts \( x \) and \( w \). A conditional parameter is the parameter associated with a feature \( g_i(x,y) \) whose
values depend on the context, that is, \( g_i(x,y) \neq g_i(w,y) \) for some symbol \( y \) and some pair of contexts \( x \) and \( w \). The indices assigned to marginal and conditional parameters must not overlap.

Each parameter is a white-space delimited triple
\[
i: \text{int} \quad \text{alpha}_i: \text{double} \quad \text{a}_i: \text{double}
\]
where \( i \) is a natural number that uniquely identifies the feature \( g_i \), \( \text{alpha}_i = \exp(\lambda_i) \) is the corresponding parameter value for that feature, and \( \text{a}_i \) is the target expectation for feature \( g_i() \) with respect to the desired joint model \( m(x,y) \).

A reasonable initial value for the \( \text{alpha}_i \) parameters is unity. The target expectation for a unary feature \( g_i() \) is typically the (smoothed) empirical expectation of that feature in the training corpus.

The feature indices need not be ordered or consecutive. The zero index is reserved for the distinguished slack constraint, if it is necessary. Although the toolkit may add a parameter with index zero to a parameters file, no user should create a parameters file containing a parameter whose index is zero.

### 4.2 Events File

An events file contains a set of distinct marginal events \( y \) from \( Y \), along with a nonempty set of distinct conditional events \( y|_x \) from \( Y|_X \). These events are used to calculate the expectation of each feature with respect to the current model. Consequently, the events file must specify the empirical distribution on the contexts \( X \) as well as specify the subset of the conditional event space \( Y|_X \) on which each feature is active.

```
begin.events <number-events>
  begin.marginal <number-marginal>
    <marginal-event>
      ...
    end.marginal
  begin.conditional <number-conditional>
    <conditional-event>
      ...
  end.conditional
end.events
```

#### 4.2.1 Marginal Events

Each marginal event consists of three or more white-space delimited values
\[
y: \text{int} \quad n(y): \text{int} \quad i_1: \text{int} \quad i_2: \text{int} \ldots \quad i_{n(y)}: \text{int}
\]
where \( y \) is an element of the domain \( Y \), \( n(y) \) is the total feature activation on \( y \), i.e., \( \sum_i g_i(y) \), and the remaining values \( i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_{n(y)} \) are the indices of all marginal features.
whose values are nonzero on the marginal event \( y \). The events file must list all and only the marginal events \( y \) that activate a marginal feature \( g_i(y) \). In other words, all marginal features \( g_i(y) \) must be zero for all marginal events \( y \) not included in the events file.

### 4.2.2 Conditional Events

Each conditional event consists of four or more white-space delimited values

\[
x: \text{int} \quad y: \text{int} \quad c(x, y): \text{int} \quad n(x, y): \text{int} \quad i_1: \text{int} \quad i_2: \text{int} \ldots \quad i_n(x, y): \text{int}
\]

where \( x \) is an element of the domain \( X \), \( y \) is an element of the domain \( Y \), \( c(x, y) \) is the observed frequency of the pair \( <x, y> \), \( n(x, y) \) is the total feature activation on the pair \( <x, y> \),

\[
n(x, y) = \sum_i g_i(x, y)
\]

and the remaining values \( i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n(x, y) \) are the indices of all conditional features whose values are nonzero on the pair \( <x, y> \).

The only conditional events \( y | x \) included in an events file are (i) those whose frequency \( c(x, y) \) is nonzero and (ii) those whose context \( x \) occurs with nonzero frequency and whose conditional activation \( n(x, y) \) is nonzero. These requirements are both necessary and sufficient to calculate the expectations of all features with respect to the joint distribution \( f(x)p(y | x) \) where \( f(x) \) is the empirical distribution on \( X \) and \( p(y | x) \) the conditional distribution given by the model.

### 4.2.3 Restrictions

No conditional or marginal event may occur more than once in an events file. The marginal features that are active for a conditional event \( y | x \) should not be listed in the conditional event. All conditional features \( g_i(x, y) \) must be zero for all missing \( y | x \) events where the empirical probability \( f(x) \) of \( x \) is nonzero. All missing \( y | x \) events must have zero frequency. An event is considered missing iff it is not included in the events file. Consequently, each conditional event \( y | x \) in the events file must either have positive frequency or activate a conditional feature in a context \( x \) that has positive frequency. These requirements are satisfied by all maximum entropy models reported in the statistical language modeling literature, and are necessary in order to achieve an efficient implementation.

The events file need not include any marginal events, although it must include at least one conditional event. (For a modeling point of view, however, it’s essential to include marginal features so that \( p(y | x) \) isn’t uniform for novel contexts \( x \).) The events file must also activate at least one feature, that is, the events file must include a a context with nonzero frequency that activates at least one marginal or conditional feature.

All feature indices must be strictly positive; the zero index is reserved for the distinguished slack feature, if it is necessary. The value of an \( n \)-ary feature \( g_i(x, y) = k \) is encoded by including \( k-1 \) copies of the index \( i \) in the list. Consequently, the entry for the \( y | x \) event contains exactly \( n(x, y) + 4 \) white-space delimited numeric values.

### 4.3 Expressions File

Each valid expressions file specifies a computation whose operations are (1) to evaluate the conditional probability of an event \( y | x \), (2) to accumulate the results of probability computations, (3) to multiply the results of probability computations, and (4) to concatenate
the results of probability computations. The expressions file format is sufficiently general to support the evaluation of complex events including hidden variables as well as the efficient scoring of nbest lists.

\[
\text{<expression-file>} :: \text{begin.expressions} \text{ <number-expressions>}
\text{ <expression> }^+ \\
\text{end.expressions}
\]

\[
\text{<expression>} :: \text{<event-product>} | \text{<event-sum>} | \text{<event>}
\]

\[
\text{<event-product>} :: \text{begin.product} \text{ <number-terms>}
\text{[<event> | <event-sum>] }^+ \\
\text{end.product}
\]

\[
\text{<event-sum>} :: \text{begin.sum} \text{ <number-terms>}
\text{[<event> | <event-product>] }^+ \\
\text{end.sum}
\]

\[
\text{<event>} :: \text{<conditional-event>}
\]

The primitive events are the leaves of the computation tree, whose interior nodes are products and sums. Each primitive \textit{<event>} is a conditional event, as described above, whose frequencies are required to be one. Recall that the set of active features includes all active conditional features only. The active marginal features will be determined by the \textit{y} value of the event and the marginal events specified in the corresponding events file. If you wish to include a marginal event in an expressions file, you must define a distinguished empty context to which no conditional features apply. Unlike an events file, a conditional event may occur more than once in an expressions file. A product or sum expression with zero terms will evaluate to unity or zero, respectively.

The simplest probability computation is to compute a chain of conditional probabilities, for which the corresponding expressions file would be as shown. The result of evaluating this expressions file would be a single number, the negative natural log of the value of the given expression according to the given model.

\[
\text{begin.expressions 1}
\text{begin.product} <\text{number-terms}>
\text{<conditional-event>}
\text{.}
\text{.}
\text{.}
\text{end.product}
\text{end.expressions}
\]

A more sophisticated probability computation is to compute a chain of conditional probabilities, where each conditional probability \(p(y|x)\) is itself the marginal of a joint probability \(p(y,z|x)\), that is, where \(p(y|x) = \sum_z p(y,z|x)\). In such a situation, the conditional events are \(y,z|x\) and the corresponding expressions file is a product of sums. Again, the result of evaluating this expressions file would be a single number, the negative natural log of the value of the given expression according to the given model.
begin.expressions 1
begin.product <number-terms>
begin.sum <number-terms>
<conditional-event>
.
.
.
end.sum
.
.
.
end.product
end.expressions
5 Background

The maximum entropy framework is a powerful method for building statistical models. It is expressive, allowing modelers to easily represent their special insights into the data generating machinery. It is statistically efficient, because it models the intersection of complex events without increasing the number of parameters or fragmenting the training data. And it provides strong models, models that outperform their traditional variants with much less tweaking. For example, the maximum entropy trigram outperforms both the interpolated trigram (Jelinek and Mercer, 1980) and the backoff trigram (Katz, 1987) in test set perplexity as well as in speech recognizer word error rate. For all these reasons, the maximum entropy framework has become the framework of choice for statistical language modeling (Lau et al, 1993; Berger et al, 1996; Rosenfeld 1996).

This background chapter consists of four sections. Firstly, we review the maximum entropy framework, and its application to statistical language modeling. Secondly, we consider the art of feature design for the simplest of all powerful language models, the maximum entropy Markov model. Thirdly, we briefly discuss some issues that arose in the design of the toolkit.

5.1 Maximum Entropy Framework

The fundamental problem of statistical modeling is to induce a joint probability model \( p: X, Y \rightarrow [0,1] \) from a finite corpus of observations \( \langle x_1, y_1 \rangle, ..., \langle x_T, y_T \rangle \) drawn a discrete joint domain \( X, Y \).

In the maximum entropy approach to statistical modeling, we first define a set \( G \) of \( k \) binary features on \( X, Y \).

\[
G = \{ g_i: X, Y \rightarrow \{0,1\} \text{ for } i = 1...k \}
\]

Each binary feature \( g_i(x,y) \) partitions the joint domain \( X, Y \) into two sets: those points \( \langle x, y \rangle \) for which \( g_i(x,y) \) is active and those for which it is not active.\(^1\) Next, we choose a vector \( a = a_1 ... a_k \) of target expectations for our features. The simplest way to do this is to choose each target expectation \( a_i \) to be the empirical expectation \( \mathbb{E}[g_i] \), that is, the expectation of the feature \( g_i(x,y) \) with respect to the empirical distribution \( f(x,y) \) defined by the training corpus.

\[
f[g_i] = \sum_{x,y} f(x,y) \cdot g_i(x,y),
\]

5.1.1 Maximum Entropy Distribution

Together, the feature set \( G \) and their target expectations define a class \( P \) of all probability distributions whose feature expectations match the target expectations,

\[
P = \{ p: p[g_i(x,y)] = a_i \text{ for all } i = 1...k \}
\]

where \( p[g_i(x,y)] \) is the expectation of \( g_i(x,y) \) with respect to the distribution \( p(x,y) \).

\(^1\) The MEMT supports n-ary features, that is, features that take on any of a finite number of nonnegative integral values. Here we limit our discussion to binary features in order to simplify the presentation.
\[ p[g_i(x,y)] = \text{sum}_<x,y>\ p(x,y)\ g_i(x,y) \]

If the target expectations are the empirical expectations, then \( P \) contains all distributions that are equivalent to the empirical distribution defined by our training corpus, when viewed through the eyes of our features \( G \). Defining the features and choosing their target expectations is the modeler's art.

Given such a class \( P \), we would like to find the distribution \( p^*(x,y) \) in \( P \) that maximizes the entropy \( H(p) \) with respect to all distributions in \( P \).

\[ H(p) = \text{sum}_<x,y>\ p(x,y)\ -\log p(x,y) \]

The maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(x,y) \) is the one that is most faithful to our constraints, because it makes no additional assumptions beyond what has been specified (Jaynes 1957, 1978; Csiszar, 1991). We also need a compact way to represent this distribution, that is, we require a model for this distribution.

5.1.2 Exponential Model Class

Now consider the class \( R \) of all exponential models \( m(x,y) \) defined over our features \( G \)

\[ R = \{ m : m(x,y) = \frac{r(x,y)}{Z} \} \]

whose numerators \( r(x,y) \) are a product of exponentials, \( \alpha_i = \exp(\lambda_i) \), and whose denominators \( Z \) are required to obtain a probability function.

\[ r(x,y) = \text{prod}_i\ \alpha_i^{g_i(x,y)} \]
\[ Z = \text{sum}_<x,y>\ r(x,y) \]

This model class \( R \) has as many free parameters as there are features. Fortunately, the intersection of the class \( R \) of exponential models over \( G \) with the class \( P \) of desired distributions is nonempty. Consequently, at least one of our desired distributions has a compact representation as an exponential model with a feasible number of parameters. Even better, the intersection of \( P \) and \( R \) contains the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(x,y) \). Best of all, the intersection of \( P \) and \( R \) is unique! Therefore, we need only find a single exponential model \( m^*(x,y) \) in \( R \) that satisfies the linear constraints \( P \), and we are assured that this model is a model of the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(x,y) \) in \( P \). Now if our target expectations are the empirical expectations, then it also happens that \( m^*(x,y) \) is the maximum likelihood model in \( R \), and so the thorny problem of finding the maximum entropy distribution \( p^*(x,y) \) in \( P \) reduces to the easy problem of finding the maximum likelihood model \( m^*(x,y) \) in \( R \). This is the beauty of the maximum entropy framework (Kullback, 1959).

5.1.3 Conditional Models

A number of difficulties arise when applying these ideas to discrete time series problems. The first difficulty is that we must assign probability to strings of arbitrary length, a task for which we cannot employ joint models over finite dimensional spaces. For discrete time

\footnote{Unfortunately, it is possible to define \( P \) in such a way that the intersection of \( P \) and \( R \) is empty. In order that the intersection of \( P \) and \( R \) be nonempty, it suffices that for every \( <x,y> \) in \( X,Y \), there is at least one \( p \) in \( P \) for which \( p(x,y) > 0 \). This condition is easily satisfied in practice, and so we do not dwell on it here.}
series, we require a conditional model $p(y|x)$ instead of a joint model $p(x,y)$. Our model class $R$ becomes

$$R = \{ m: m(y|x) = r(y|x) / Z(x) \}$$

where

$$r(y|x) = \prod_i \alpha_i^g_i(x,y)$$

$$Z(x) = \sum_z r(z|x).$$

Our constraint class $P$ remains unchanged, although we now require a marginal distribution $p(x)$ on the $X$ in order to calculate the feature expectations $m[g_i(x,y)]$ with respect to a joint model $m(x,y) = p(x)m(y|x)$. There are many reasonable choices here, but computational efficiency will require us to use the empirical distribution $f(x)$ on $X$.

**5.1.4 Computational Tricks**

This is the second difficulty, namely, that maximum entropy modeling for joint spaces is computationally infeasible. To evaluate the probability $m(x,y)$ of a joint event $<x,y>$ according to our model requires us to enumerate the entire $X,Y$ space in order to calculate the denominator $Z$. And to evaluate the expectation $m[g(x,y)]$ of a feature $g(x,y)$ with respect to the joint model $m(x,y)$ requires us to enumerate the entire $X,Y$ space again.

In a speech recognition application, $Y$ is the vocabulary of all words and $X$ is all history equivalence classes. The vocabulary of a typical speech recognition system has over 20,000 words, and its history equivalence classes $X$ typically consist of all word bigrams, and so the $X,Y$ joint space contains $|Y|^3 = 8 \times 10^{12}$ distinct events.

The infeasibility of repeatedly enumerating this space requires us to make two simplifications. The first simplification allows us to efficiently compute the expectation $m[g_i]$ of each feature $g_i(x,y)$, while the second simplification allows us to efficiently compute the denominator $Z(x)$ of a conditional exponential model without summing over all the symbols in $Y$.

**5.1.4.1 Computing $m[g_i]$**

The first simplification is to use the empirical distribution $f(x)$ as our marginal on $X$, which gives us the joint model $m(x,y) = f(x)m(y|x)$. The statistical consequence of this simplification is to require our conditional model $m(y|x)$ to match the target feature expectations on the observed contexts only. The computational consequence of this simplification is quite significant, however. Now our feature expectations are calculated as

$$m[g_i(x,y)] = \sum_{<x,y>} m(x,y) g_i(x,y)$$

$$= \sum_{<x,y>} f(x)m(y|x) g_i(x,y)$$

$$= \sum_x f(x) \sum_y m(y|x) g_i(x,y).$$

The empirical distribution $f(x)$ is zero for novel contexts, and so the outer sum need only iterate over the observed contexts $\{ x: f(x) > 0 \}$. There are at most $T$ such contexts in a corpus of size $T$. For the interior sum we need only iterate over those symbols $y$ for which $g_i(x,y)$ is active. For all maximum entropy language models proposed in the literature, this is bounded by a small constant, typically one. Therefore we have reduced the entire sum $\sum_{<x,y>}$ of size $|X,Y|$ to a sum over the contexts observed $x$, which is of worst case size $T$. For a trigram model constructed from 1.4 million words of the Switchboard corpus with a
vocabulary of 22,511 words, the size $|X,Y| = 22,511^3 = 11,407,339,418,831$ whereas there are only 234,009 distinct contexts in the Switchboard corpus. Thus, this first simplification reduces the computation of feature expectations by seven orders of magnitude.

5.1.4.2 Computing $Z(x)$

The goal of the second simplification is efficiently compute the denominator $Z(x)$ of the conditional exponential model $m(y|x)$. We begin by partitioning the symbols $Y$ into two sets: the set $Y_x$ of symbols for which some feature is active in the context $x$

$$Y_x = \{ y: g_{i}(x,y) \neq 0 \text{ for some } i \}$$

and its complement $Y-Y_x$, the symbols for which no feature is active in the context $x$

$$Y-Y_x = \{ y: g_{i}(x,y) = 0 \text{ for all } i \}.$$ 

This partition allows us to simplify the $Z(x)$ summation as follows.

$$Z(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} r(y|x)$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x} r(y|x) + \sum_{y \in Y-Y_x} r(y|x)$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x} r(y|x) + \sum_{y \in Y-Y_x} 1$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x} r(y|x) + |Y-Y_x|$$

This simplification reduces the size of the $Z(x)$ computation from $|Y|$ to $|Y_x|$. For the Switchboard trigram model introduced above, $|Y|$ is 22,511 whereas $|Y_x|$ is 12,413. Although this two-fold speedup is significant, it is not sufficient because we must compute $Z(x)$ for all contexts $x$ observed in the training corpus, for each iteration of our parameter estimation algorithm.

Our next step is to partition the set $G$ of features into two sets: the marginal features $G-$ and the conditional features $G+$. A marginal feature $g_{i}(x,y)$ is a feature whose activation depends only on the future $y$, completely independent of the context $x$. That is, $g_{i}(x,y)$ is a marginal feature if and only if $g_{i}(x,y) = g_{i}(w,y)$ for all $w$, $x$, and $y$. Conversely, $g_{i}(x,y)$ is a conditional feature if and only if $g_{i}(x,y) \neq g_{i}(w,y)$ for some $w$, $x$, and $y$. This allows us to further partition $Y_x$ into two sets: $Y_x+$ and $Y_x-$. The set $Y_x+$ includes all symbols for which a conditional feature $g_{i}(x,y)$ is active in the context $x$,

$$Y_x+ = \{ y: g_{i}(x,y) \neq 0 \text{ for some } g_{i} \text{ in } G+ \}$$

while the set $Y_x- = Y_x - Y_x+$ includes all symbols for which a marginal feature is active but no conditional feature is active in the context $x$. This further simplifies the $Z(x)$ summation as follows.

$$Z(x) = \sum_{y \in Y_x} r(y|x) + |Y-Y_x|$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x+} r(y|x) + \sum_{y \in Y_x-} r(y|x) + |Y-Y_x|$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x+} r(y|x) + \sum_{y \in Y_x-} r(y) + |Y-Y_x|$$

$$= \sum_{y \in Y_x+} r(y|x) - r(y) + \sum_{y \in Y+} r(y) + |Y-Y_x|$$

where $r(y)$ is the product of the marginal parameters that apply to $r(y)$,

$$r(y) = \prod_{g_{i} \in G-} \alpha_{i} g_{i}(y)$$

and $\sum_{y \in Y+} r(y)$ is a constant independent of $x$. Therefore, we have reduced the computation of $Z(x)$ from a sum of $|Y|$ terms to a sum of $2|Y_x+|$ terms. For the Switchboard trigram model introduced above, $|Y|$ is 22,511 whereas $|Y_x+|$ is less than 204 on average, which gives us a net 55-fold speedup.
5.2 Exercise in Feature Design

The art of maximum entropy modeling is to define an informative set of computationally feasible features. Each feature defines a partition of the conditional domain $Y|X$. Consequently, we would like our features to identify the natural equivalence classes of $Y|X$, that is, the subsets of $Y|X$ for which we can gather reliable and meaningful statistics. The simplest features are those which identify individual observed events $y|x$. More sophisticated features might take advantage of any structure in $X$ or $Y$, for example, the fact that the contexts $X$ might represent a Markov equivalence relation on strings. The highest level of sophistication achieved by current language modeling technology is to define features based on a domain of hidden events $Z$, which we first predict as $Z|X$ and then condition our predictions with as $Y|X,Z$.

We would also like our features to be computationally feasible. The most intensive computation required for maximum entropy modeling is to calculate the expectations of our features with respect to the joint model $m(x,y) = m(y|x)f(x)$. For each feature $g_{w}(x,y)$, we must enumerate all $<x,y>$ for which $g_{w}$ is active and $m(x,y)$ is nonzero. A good conditional model $m(y|x)$ must assign nonzero probability to all $y$ in $Y$. Since $f(x)$ is the empirical probability, $m(x,y)$ is nonzero for all contexts $x$ observed in the training data. In many applications $Y$ is large and so we simply cannot afford to repeatedly iterate over $Y$. Therefore, in order for the $m[g_{w}]$ computation to be feasible, $g_{w}$ must be active for at most a (small) constant number of symbols $y$ in any observed context $x$. This requirement that features be active on only a tiny subset of the conditional domain $Y|X$ will oblige us to choose concrete features over abstract ones, that is, features based directly on the observable events.

Let us now turn to the details of feature design and selection. First, we consider three variants of the traditional Markov model in the maximum entropy framework: basic Markov features, overlapping Markov features, and complemented Markov features. The models defined by these features are easy to understand, easy to implement, computationally feasible, and capable of strong predictions. Next, we discuss a class of non-Markovian features called triggers.

Before beginning, we must define our notation for strings. Let $A$ be a finite alphabet of distinct symbols, $|A| = k$, and let $x^T$ in $A^*$ denote an arbitrary string of length $T$ over the alphabet $A$. Then $x_{i}^{j}$ denotes the substring of $x^T$ that begins at position $i$ and ends at position $j$. For convenience, we abbreviate the unit length substring $x_{i}^{i}$ as $x_i$, the length $t$ prefix of $x^T$ as $x^t$, and the empty string as $x_0$. Our dependent domain $X$ is now the set of all (equivalence classes of) histories $A^*$ and our independent domain $Y$ is the alphabet $A$.

5.2.1 Markov Features

The simplest example of an informative set of computational feasible features is the class of Markov features. Let us therefore consider how to define a maximum entropy Markov model for the domain of strings over an alphabet $A$. Our dependent domain $Y$ is the set of symbols $A$, and our independent domain $X$ is the set of equivalence classes on the histories $A^*$. Recall that a Markov model of order $n$ employs the equivalence classes $X = A^*$. In such a situation, each $n$-th order Markov feature $g_{<w^*n,z>}(..)$ would identify all histories $A^*w^*n$ whose suffix is $w^*n$ for the predicted symbol $z$. 


This basic Markov model both too simple and too complex. It is too simple because exactly one feature activates for every conditional event. It fails to take advantage of the central strength of the maximum entropy framework, namely, its ability to handle overlapping features without increasing the number of parameters or fragmenting the training data. This model is also too complex because there are $k^{(n+1)}$ such features – too many parameters to collect reliable statistics for, and too many features to train with bounded computational resources. Even worse, most of these features will not be activated in the training data, and if our target expectations are the empirical expectations, then the resulting model will assign zero probability to many unseen events. Yet a good model must not assign zero probability to a logically possible event.

We simplify our model by limiting our features to those that have been observed in our training corpus. Since our training corpus $C$ is of finite size $T$, there are at most $T-n^2+1$ $n$-th order Markov features to consider. We can further simplify our model by restricting our features to those whose frequency $c(x,y)$ exceeds a given threshold $c_{\text{min}}$.

$$G = \{ g_{<w^n,z>} : c(w^n,z) > c_{\text{min}} \}$$

This reduces the number of features in our model and also ensures that all novel events will be assigned positive probability by our model. Now our model is both statistically and computationally feasible.

Our model is still too simple, however, because at most one feature applies to any given event $y\mid x$. Consequently, $m(y\mid x)$ will be equal to the empirical probability $f(y\mid x)$ if a feature is active, and otherwise $m(y\mid x)$ will be uniform among all conditional events $z\mid x$ for which no feature applies. Thus, all events $y\mid w^n$ in a novel context $w^n$ will be assigned uniform probability $1/k$. Fortunately, the Markov property defines a rich and natural source of overlapping features, namely, all the lower order Markov features.

### 5.2.2 Overlap and Complementation

The simplest powerful $n$-th order Markov model in the maximum entropy framework includes all features $g_{<w^i,z>}(.,.)$, for $i = 0 \ldots n$, whose observed frequency $c(w^i,z)$ exceeds a given threshold $c_{\text{min}}$.

$$G = \{ g_{<w^i,z>} : 0 \leq i \leq n, \ c(w^i,z) > c_{\text{min}} \}$$

There are a feasible number of such features, and the number of active features will vary from 0 to $n+1$. Best of all, an event $y\mid w^n$ with a novel context $w^n$ will only be assigned uniform probability if all suffixes of $w^n$ are novel, and the unigram distribution in the training data is uniform. This is the maximum entropy implementation of the interpolated Markov model (Jelinek and Mercer, 1980).

An alternate interpretation for our Markov features is to say that a lower order feature applies only if no higher order feature applies. Under this complemented interpretation, at most one Markov feature applies to any given conditional event. This complemented Markov model is computationally efficient, because at most one feature applies to every conditional event. (Indeed, we can directly calculate the parameter values for such a model without using an iterative estimation algorithm.) And it does not suffer the statistical problems of the basic Markov model. Every conditional event $y\mid x$ that activates at least one feature
in the overlapping Markov model will activate exactly one feature in the complemented Markov model.

A final refinement is to use both overlapping and complemented features (Ristad and Thomas, 1995). The complemented features provide sharper estimates for novel contexts while the overlapping features provide smoothing. In such a heterogeneous model, a lower order overlapping Markov feature includes all events for which we have a more specific Markov feature as well as many events for which we lack a more specific feature. Adding the complemented features to an overlapping Markov model provides sharper estimates for those events which lack a more specific feature. Or, equivalently, adding the overlapping features to a complemented Markov model provides smoother estimates for all events.

5.2.3 Trigger features

Up to now, our modeling hasn’t taken advantage of the maximum entropy framework. There is nothing about our Markov models that can’t be done equally effectively (and more efficiently) using traditional techniques. So as the final section of our exercise in feature design, let us introduce a simple class of non-Markovian features called triggers. A trigger is function of the entire history, not just the last n symbols. In the trigger model (Lau et.al. 1993; Rosenfeld 1996), a trigger function \( d_w(x^t) \) is activated if and only if the word \( w \) occurs somewhere in the history \( x^t \). When the trigger words are chosen appropriately, the trigger functions model the fact that discourses have topics, that certain words are strong indicators of the underlying topic, and that the topic influences the language user’s choice of words.

Recall that a Markov model of order \( n \) maps each history \( x^t \) into its equivalence class \( x_{(t+1-n)}^t \). In an alphabet of size \( k \), there are \( k^n \) such history equivalence classes along with \( k \) symbols to predict, and therefore a basic Markov model of order \( n \) has \( k^{(n+1)} \) parameters. A trigger model of order \( (n,l) \) consists of an order \( n \) Markov model along with \( l \) trigger functions. It maps each history \( x^t \) into its equivalence class

\[ <x_{(t+1-n)}^t, d_1(x^t), \ldots, d_l(x^t)> \]

where each trigger \( d_i: A^* \rightarrow \{0,1\} \) is a binary function on the set \( A^* \) of possible histories. Therefore the trigger model defines \( k^n 2^l \) equivalence classes of histories. Implementing the trigger model using traditional techniques would require \( k^{(n+1)} 2^l \) parameters, ie., far too many parameters to estimate reliably. Indeed, nearly all of our contexts will be unique. Fortunately, the maximum entropy framework suggests an elegant solution to this problem.

The maximum entropy implementation of the trigger model consists of two classes of features: Markov features (as described above) and trigger features. The trigger features are defined most generally as

\[ g_{<i,z>}(x^p,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } d_i(x^p) = 1 \text{ and } y = z \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

where for the Lau et.al. (1993) and Rosenfeld (1996) word triggers, \( d_w(x^p) \) activates iff \( x^p \) is in \( A^*wA^* \). This model uses the same system of \( k^n 2^l \) equivalence classes but contains only \( (k^n + l)k \) parameters. This is the statistical efficiency of the maximum entropy framework.
5.3 Toolkit Design Notes

The toolkit was designed to be used in a collaborative research setting. A file-based interface is ideal in such a setting because it does not limit the user’s software environment – their choice of programming style, language, compiler, operating system, or machine – in any way. Everyone is free to make their own choices without retarding the group effort. A file-based interface provides an automatic "paper trail" for debugging and check-pointing, and a monotonic path to a successful implementation. Bugs can always be fixed manually, by hand-editing the files. Unfortunately, a file-based interface is likely to be too inefficient in both time and space to be used in an application.

The Events File requires the user to specify the frequency $c(x,y)$ of every conditional event $y \mid x$ in the training corpus. This information is used to compute the empirical distribution $f(x) = \sum_y c(x,y) / T$ over the contexts $X$. It is also necessary to compute the total code length $L(C \mid m)$ of the corpus $C$ given the model $m$. A more spartan design would only require the user to provide the frequency $c(x)$ of every context; this suffices to perform estimation. However it is not possible to compute $L(C \mid m)$ without $c(x,y)$, and $L(C \mid m)$ is an important convergence measure for $\text{me.estimate}$ (see above). Therefore we chose to require the full $c(x,y)$ instead of only requiring $c(x)$.

Our initial design goal was to implement the minimum divergence framework. The minimum divergence framework is a generalization of the maximum entropy framework, where we introduce a reference distribution $q(x,y)$ and then search for the distribution $p(x,y)$ that satisfies a set of linear constraints $P = \{ p : p[y \mid x] = a_i \}$ and whose divergence $D(p \mid \mid q)$ with respect to the reference distribution $q(x,y)$ is minimal among all distributions in $P$. When the reference distribution is uniform, then the minimum divergence distribution is identical to the maximum entropy distribution. The fundamental software difficulty posed by the minimum divergence framework is to design a clean and efficient file-based interface to the reference distribution. The simplest interface would require the user to supply a reference probability $q(y \mid x)$ for every conditional event $y \mid x$, including those that never occurred and those for which no feature was active. Clearly this is not feasible, either in time or space, and so an effective design of a minimum divergence toolkit must strike some compromise between generality and feasibility. Rather than strike any compromises at this point, we decided to limit our support to the maximum entropy framework.

The central flaw in the MEMT design lies in the events file format, which results in impractically large files. An events file completely specifies the behavior of our features on the training corpus. As such, it must not only summarize the training corpus, but it must also enumerate all conditional events $y \mid x$ for which some conditional feature is active and the context $x$ was observed in the training corpus. This has the advantage of simplicity, but the disadvantage of infeasibility because such an events file may contain a great many unobserved events. In the worst case, the events file is size $O(TV)$ for a training corpus containing $T$ observations and a vocabulary of size $V$. In many cases, this is infeasibly large. For example, a large word trigram model induced from 1.4 million words of Switchboard text over a vocabulary of 22,511 words contains 12,413 unigram features, 80,643 bigram features and 120,116 trigram features. The corresponding events file is 1gb because every observed context $x$ generates on average 204.3 events, of which only 2.0 are actually observed in the training corpus. The remaining 202.3 events per observed context do not occur in the training corpus. Thus, the events file is two orders of magnitude larger than the training
corpus. The next major release of the MEMT will include a redesign of the events file format to redress this flaw.

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Index

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# Table of Contents

1 Overview ................................................. 1  
  1.1 Availability ................................................. 1  
  1.2 Mailing Lists ................................................ 1  
  1.3 Acknowledgments ............................................. 2  

2 Users Guide ............................................. 3  
  2.1 Parameter Estimation ......................................... 3  
  2.2 Prediction .................................................... 4  
  2.3 Common Errors ............................................... 5  
    2.3.1 Equivalence Relations ..................................... 5  
    2.3.2 Target Expectations ...................................... 5  

3 Executables .............................................. 7  

4 File Formats ........................................... 9  
  4.1 Parameters File ............................................... 9  
  4.2 Events File .................................................. 10  
    4.2.1 Marginal Events ......................................... 10  
    4.2.2 Conditional Events ..................................... 11  
    4.2.3 Restrictions .............................................. 11  
  4.3 Expressions File ............................................ 11  

5 Background ............................................. 14  
  5.1 Maximum Entropy Framework ................................. 14  
    5.1.1 Maximum Entropy Distribution ............................ 14  
    5.1.2 Exponential Model Class .................................. 15  
    5.1.3 Conditional Models ...................................... 15  
    5.1.4 Computational Tricks .................................... 16  
      5.1.4.1 Computing m[g_i] .................................. 16  
      5.1.4.2 Computing Z(x) ..................................... 17  
  5.2 Exercise in Feature Design ................................. 18  
    5.2.1 Markov Features ......................................... 18  
    5.2.2 Overlap and Complementation ............................. 19  
    5.2.3 Trigger features ....................................... 20  
  5.3 Toolkit Design Notes ....................................... 21  
  5.4 References ................................................. 22  

Index ...................................................... 23