

# Semantic Similarity for Detecting Recognition Errors in Automatic Speech Transcripts

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## Abstract

Browsing through large volumes of spoken audio is known to be a challenging task for end users. One way to alleviate this problem is to allow users to gist a spoken audio document by glancing over a transcript generated through Automatic Speech Recognition. Unfortunately, such transcripts typically contain many recognition errors which are highly distracting and make gisting more difficult. In this paper we present an approach that detects recognition errors by identifying words which are semantic outliers with respect to other words in the transcript. We describe several variants of this approach. We investigate a wide range of evaluation measures and we show that we can significantly reduce the number of errors in content words, with the trade-off of losing some good content words.

## 1 Introduction

Spoken audio documents are becoming more and more common place due to the rising popularity of technologies such as: video and audio conferencing, video web-casting and digital cameras for the consumer market. Unfortunately, speech documents are inherently hard to browse because of their transient nature. For example, imagine trying to locate the audio segment in the recording of a 60-minute meeting, where John talked about project X. Typically, this would require fast forwarding through the audio by some amount, then listening and trying to remember if the current seg-

ment was spoken before or after the desired segment, then fast-forwarding or backtracking by a small amount, and so on.

One way to make audio browsing of audio documents more efficient is to allow the user to navigate through a textual transcript that is cross-referenced with corresponding time points into the original audio (Nakatani *et al.* 1998; Hirschberg *et al.* 1999). Such transcripts can easily be produced with Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) systems today. Unfortunately, such transcripts typically contain recognition errors that make them hard to browse and understand. Although Word Error Rates (WER) of the order of 20% can be achieved for broadcast quality audio, the WER for more common situations (ex: less-than-broadcast quality recordings of meetings) is typically in the order of 50% or more.

The work we present in this paper aims at automatically identifying recognition errors and removing them from the transcript, in order to make gisting and browsing of the corresponding audio more efficient. For example, consider the following portion of a transcript that was produced with the Dragon NaturallySpeaking speech recognition system from the audio of a meeting:

*“Weenie to decide quickly whether local for large expensive plasma screen aura for a bunch of smaller and cheaper ones and Holland together”*

Now consider the following **filtered transcript** where recognition errors were automatically blotted out using our proposed algorithm:

*“... to decide quickly whether ... large expensive plasma screen ... for a bunch of smaller and cheaper ones and ... together”*

We believe that transcripts like this second one may be more efficient for gisting and browsing the

content of the original audio whose **correct transcript** is:

*“We need to decide quickly whether we will go for a large expensive plasma screen or for a bunch of smaller and cheaper ones and tile them together.”*

Our approach to filtering recognition errors is to identify **semantic outliers**. By this, we mean words that do not cohere well semantically with other words in the transcript. More often than not, such outliers turn out to be mistranscribed words. We present several variants of an algorithm for identifying semantic outliers, and evaluate them in terms of how well they are able to filter out recognition errors.

## 2 Related Work

Hirschberg *et al.* (1999), and Nakatani *et al.* (1998) proposed the idea of using automatic transcripts for gisting and navigating audio documents. Text-based summarization techniques on automatic speech transcription have also been used. For example, the method of Désilets *et al.* (2001) was found to produce accurate keyphrases for transcriptions with Word Error Rates (WER) in the order of 25%, but performance was less than ideal for transcripts with WER in the order of 60%. With such transcripts, a large proportion of the extracted keyphrases included serious transcription errors. Inkpen and Désilets (2004) presented an experiment that filters out errors in keywords extracted from speech, by identifying the keywords that are not semantically close to the rest of the keywords.

Semantic similarity measures were used for many tasks. Two examples are: real-word error correction (Budanitsky and Hirst, 2000) and answering synonym questions (Turney, 2001), (Jarmasz and Szpakowicz, 2003).

There is a lot of research on confidence measures for identifying errors in speech recognition output. Most papers on this topic use information that is internal to the ASR system, generated by the decoder during the recognition process. Examples are likelihood ratios derived by a Viterbi decoder (Gillick *et al.*, 1997), measures of competing words at a word boundary (Cox and Rose, 1996), word score densities in N-best lists, and various acoustic and phonetic features. Machine learning techniques were used to identify the best combinations of features for classification (Chase, 1997) (Schaaf and Kemp, 1997) (Ma *et al.*, 2001)

(Skantze and Edlund, 2004) (Zhou and Meng, 2004) (Zhou *et al.*, 2005). Some of these methods achieve good performance, although they use different test sets and report different evaluation measures from the set we enumerate in Section 6.

In our work, we use information that is external to the ASR system, because new knowledge seems likely to help in the detection of semantic outliers. In this respect, the work of Cox and Dasmahapatra (2000) is closest to ours. They compared the accuracy of a measure based on Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) (Landauer and Dumais, 1997) to an ASR-based confidence measure, and found that the ASR-based measure (using N-best lists) outperformed the LSA approach. While the N-best lists approach was better at the high-Recall end of the spectrum, the LSA was better at the high-Precision end. They also showed that a hybrid combination of the two approaches worked best. Our work is similar to the LSA-based part of Cox and Dasmahapatra, except that we use **Point-wise Mutual Information** (PMI) instead of LSA. Because PMI scales up to very large corpora, it has been shown to work better than LSA for assessing the semantic similarity of words (Turney, 2001). Another distinguishing feature is that Cox and Dasmahapatra only looked at transcripts with moderate WER, whereas we additionally evaluate the technique for the purpose of doing error filtering on transcripts with high WER, which are more typical of non-broadcast conversational audio.

## 3 The Data

We evaluated our algorithms on a randomly selected subset of 100 stories from the TDT2 English Audio corpus. We conducted experiments with two types of automatically-generated speech transcripts. The first ones were generated by the NIST/BBN time-adaptive speech recognizer and have a moderate WER (27.6%), which is representative of what can be obtained with a speaker-independent ASR system tuned for the Broadcast News domain. In the rest of this paper, we refer to these moderate accuracy transcripts as the **BBN dataset**. The second set of transcripts was obtained using the Dragon NaturallySpeaking speaker-dependent recognizer. Their WER (62.3%) was much higher because the voice model was not trained for speaker-independent broadcast quality audio. These transcripts approximate the type of

high WER seen in more casual less-than-broadcast quality audio. We refer to these transcripts as the **Dragon dataset**.

## 4 The method

Our algorithm tries to detect recognition errors by identifying and filtering semantic outliers in the transcripts. In other words, it declares as recognition errors all the words with low semantic similarity to other words in the transcript. The algorithm focuses on **content words**, i.e., words that do not appear in a list of 779 stopwords (including closed-class words, such as prepositions, articles, etc.). The reason to ignore stopwords is that they tend to co-occur with most words, and are therefore semantically coherent with most words. The basic algorithm for determining if a word  $w$  is a recognition error is as follows.

1. Compute the **neighborhood**  $N(w)$  of  $w$  as the set of content words that occur before and after  $w$  in a context window (including  $w$  itself).
2. Compute **pair-wise semantic similarity** scores  $S(w_i, w_j)$  between all pairs of words  $w_i \neq w_j$  (including  $w$ ) in the neighborhood  $N(w)$ , using a semantic similarity measure. Scale up those  $S(w_i, w_j)$  by a constant so that they are all non-negative, and the smallest one is 0.
3. For each  $w_i$  in the neighborhood  $N(w)$  (including  $w$ ), compute its **semantic coherence**  $SC(w_i)$  by “aggregating” the pair-wise semantic similarities  $S(w_i, w_j)$  of  $w_i$  with all its neighbors ( $w_i \neq w_j$ ) into a single number.
4. Let  $SC_{avg}$  be the average of  $SC(w_i)$  over all  $w_i$  in the neighborhood  $N(w)$ .
5. Label  $w$  as a recognition error if  $SC(w) < K \cdot SC_{avg}$ , where  $K$  is a parameter that allows us to control the amount of error filtering ( $K\%$  of the average semantic coherence score). Low values of  $K$  mean little error filtering and high values of  $K$  mean a lot of error filtering.

We tested a number of variants of Steps 1-3. For Step 1, we experimented with two ways of computing the neighborhood  $N(w)$ . The first approach was to set  $N(w)$  to be all the words in the transcript (the **All** variant). The second neighborhood approach was to set  $N(w)$  to be the set of 10 content

words before and after  $w$  in the transcript (the **Window** variant).

For Step 2 we experimented with two different measures for evaluating the pair-wise semantic similarities  $S(w_i, w_j)$ . The first measure used a hand-crafted dictionary (the **Roget** variant) whereas the second one used a statistical measure based on a large corpus (the **PMI** variant).

For Step 3 we experimented with different schemes for “aggregating” the pair-wise semantic similarities  $S(w_i, w_j)$  into a single semantic coherence number  $SC(w_i)$  for a given word  $w_i$ . The first aggregation scheme was simply to average the  $SC(w_i)$  values (the **AVG** variant). Note that with this scheme, we filter words that do not cohere well with all the words in the neighborhood  $N(w)$ . This might be too aggressive in the case of the **All** variant, especially for longer or multi-topic audio documents. Therefore, we investigated other aggregation schemes that only required words to cohere well with a subset of the words in  $N(w)$ . The second aggregation scheme was to set  $SC(w_i)$  to the value of the most similar neighbor in  $N(w)$  (the **MAX** variant). The third aggregation scheme was to set  $SC(w_i)$  to the average of the 3 most similar neighbors in  $N(w)$  (the **3MAX** variant).

Thus, there are altogether  $2 \times 2 \times 3 = 12$  possible configurations of the algorithm. In the rest of this paper, we will refer to specific configurations using the following naming scheme: **Step1Variant-Step2Variant-Step3Variant**. For example, All-PMI-AVG means the configuration that uses the All variant of Step 1, the PMI variant of Step 2, and the AVG variant of step 3.

It is worth noting that all configurations of this algorithm are computationally intensive, mainly because of Step 2. However, since our aim is to provide transcripts for browsing audio recordings, we do not have to correct errors in real time.

## 5 Choosing a semantic similarity measure

Semantic similarity refers to the degree with which two words (two concepts) are related. For example, most human judges would agree that *paper* and *pencil* are more closely related than *car* and *toothbrush*. We use the term *semantic similarity* in this paper in a more general sense of *semantic relatedness* (two concepts can be related by their context of use without necessarily being similar).

There are three types of semantic similarity measures: dictionary-based (lexical taxonomy structure), corpus-based, and hybrid. Most of the dictionary-based measures use path length in WordNet – for example (Leacock and Chodorow, 1998), (Hirst and St-Onge, 1998). The corpus-based measures use some form of vector similarity. The cosine measure uses frequency counts in its vectors and cosine to compute similarity; the simpler methods use binary vectors and compute coefficients such as: Matching, Dice, Jaccard, and Overlap. Examples of hybrid measures, based on WordNet and small corpora, are: Resnik (1995), Jiang and Conrath (1997), Lin (1998). All dictionary-based measures have the disadvantage of limited coverage: they cannot deal with many proper names and new words that are not in the dictionary. For WordNet-based approaches, there is the additional issue that they tend to work well only for nouns because the noun hierarchy in WordNet is the most developed. Also, most of the WordNet-based measures do not work for words with different part-of-speech, with small exceptions such as the extended Lesk measure (Banerjee and Pedersen, 2003).

We did a pre-screening of the various semantic similarity measures in order to choose the one measure of each type (dictionary-based and corpus-based) that seemed most promising for our task of detecting semantic outliers in automatic speech transcripts. The dictionary-based approaches that we evaluated were: the WordNet-based measure by Leacock and Chodorow (1987), and one other dictionary-based measure that uses the Roget thesaurus. The Roget measure (Jarmasz and Szpakowicz, 2003) has the advantage that it works across part-of-speech. The corpus-based measures we evaluated were: (a) the cosine measure based on word co-occurrence vectors (Lesk, 1969), (b) a new method that computes the Pearson correlation coefficient of the co-occurrence vectors instead of the cosine, and (c) a measure based on point-wise mutual information. We computed the first two measures on the 100-million-words British National Corpus (BNC)<sup>1</sup>, and the third one on a much larger-corpus of Web data (one terabyte) accessed through the Waterloo Multitext system (Clarke and Terra, 2003). The reason for using corpora of different sizes is that PMI is the only

one of the three corpus-based approaches that scales up to a terabyte corpus.

We describe here in detail the PMI corpus-based measure, because it is the most important for this paper. The semantic similarity score between two words  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  is defined as the probability of seeing the two words together divided by the probability of each word separately:  $PMI(w_1, w_2) = \log [P(w_1, w_2) / (P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2))] = \log [C(w_1, w_2) \cdot N / (C(w_1) \cdot C(w_2))]$ , where  $C(w_1, w_2)$ ,  $C(w_1)$ ,  $C(w_2)$  are frequency counts, and  $N$  is the total number of words in the corpus. Such counts can easily and efficiently be retrieved for a terabyte corpus using the Waterloo Multitext system.

In order to assess how well the semantic similarity measures correlate with human perception, we use the set of 30 word pairs of Miller and Charles (1991), and the 65 pairs of Rubenstein and Goodenough (1965). Both used humans to judge the similarity. The Miller and Charles pairs were a subset of the Rubenstein and Goodenough pairs. Note that both of those sets were limited to nouns that appeared in the Roget thesaurus, and they are therefore favorably biased towards dictionary-based approaches. Table 1 shows the correlation of 5 similarity measures for the Rubenstein and Goodenough (R&G) and Miller and Charles (M&C) dataset. Note that although there are many WordNet-based semantic similarity measures, we only show correlations for Leacock and Chodorow (L&C) because it was previously shown to be better correlated (Jarmasz and Szpakowicz, 2003). We do not show figures for hybrid measures either because the same study showed L&C to be better.

Table 1: Correlation between human assigned and various machine assigned semantic similarity scores.

	Dictionary-based		Corpus-based		
	L&C	Roget	Cos.	Corr.	PMI
M&C	0.821	0.878	0.406	0.438	0.759
R&G	0.852	0.818	0.472	0.517	0.746

We see that the WordNet-based L&C measure based (Leacock and Chodorow, 1998 and the Roget measure (Jarmasz and Szpakowicz, 2003) both achieve high correlations but the two vector corpus-based measures (Cosine and Pearson Correlation) achieve much lower correlation. The only corpus-based measure that does well is PMI, probably because of the much larger corpus.

<sup>1</sup> <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/index.html>

We decided to experiment with two of the measures (one corpus-based and one thesaurus based) for computing the semantic similarity of word pairs in Step 2 of the algorithm described in Section 3. The two measures are: PMI computed on the Waterloo terabyte corpus and the Roget-based measure. These two seem the most promising given the nature of our task and the correlation figures reported above.

## 6 Evaluation Measures

We use several evaluation measures to determine how well our algorithm works for identifying semantic outliers. As summarized in Table 2, the task of detecting recognition errors can be viewed as a classification task. For each word, the algorithm must predict whether or not that word was transcribed correctly.

Table 2: Recognition error detection can be seen as a classification task.

	Correctly transcribed (actual)	NOT Correctly transcribed (actual)
Correctly transcribed (predicted)	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
NOT Correctly transcribed (predicted)	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

Note that we decide if a word is actually correctly transcribed or not by using the alignment of an automatic transcript with the manual transcript. A standard evaluation tool (sclite<sup>2</sup>) computes WER by counting the number of substitutions, deletions, and insertions needed to align a reference transcript with a hypothesis file. It also marks the words that are correct in automatic transcript (the hypothesis file). The rest of the words are the actual recognition errors (the insertions or substitutions). The deletions – words that are absent from the automatic transcript – cannot be tagged by the confidence measure.

We define the following performance measures in order to evaluate the improvement of the filtered transcripts compared to the initial transcripts:

1. **Word error rate** in the initial transcript and in the filtered transcript. These measures can be computed with and without stopwords (for which our

algorithm does not apply). Note that WER without stopwords could be slightly lower than traditional WER mostly because content words tend to be recognized more accurately than stopwords (Désilets *et al.* 2001). When filtering out semantic outliers, there will be gaps in the filtered transcript, therefore the general WER might not improve because it penalizes heavily the deletions.

2. **Content word error rate (cWER)**. This is the error rate in an automatic transcript (initial or filtered) from the point of view of the confidence measure, for the content words only. It penalizes the words in the automatic transcripts that should not be there, but not any missing words (no deletions are penalized). In the case of a transcript filtered by our algorithm, it excludes not only the stopwords, but also the filtered words. We computed cWER with sclite without penalizing for the gaps created by the filtered words.

3. **The percentage of lost good content words (%Lost)**. This is the percentage of correctly recognized content words which are lost in the process of filtering out recognition errors, defined as:  $\%Lost = 100 * FN / (TP + FN)$ . We could also compute the **percent of discarded words**, without regard if they should have been filtered out or not.  $D = (TN + FN) / (TP + FP + TN + FN)$ .

4. **Precision (P), Recall (R) and F-measure**. **Precision** is the proportion of truly correct words contained in the list of content words which the algorithm labeled as correct. **Recall** is the proportion of truly correct content words that the algorithm was able to retain. **F-measure** is the geometric mean of P and R and expresses a trade-off between those two measures.  $P = TP / (TP + FP)$ ;  $R = TP / (TP + FN)$ ;  $F = 2PR / (P+R)$ .

## 7 Results

We ran various configurations of the algorithm described in Section 4 on the 100 story sample from the TDT2 corpus. This section discusses the results of those experiments. We studied the Precision-Recall (P-R) curves for various configurations of our algorithm over the 100 stories, for the two types of transcripts: the BBN and Dragon datasets. Figures 1 and 2 show an example for each dataset. Each point on a P-R curve shows the Precision and Recall for one value of K in {0, 20, 40, 60, 80,

<sup>2</sup> <http://www.nist.gov/speech/tools/>

100, 120, 140, 160, 180, 200}. Points on the left correspond to aggressive filtering (high values of  $K$ ), whereas points on the right correspond to lenient filtering (low values of  $K$ ).

First, we looked at the relative merits of the two semantic similarity measures (PMI and Roget) for Step 2. Figures 1 and 2 plot the P-R curves for the All-PMI-AVG and All-Roget-AVG configurations. The graphs clearly indicate that PMI performs better, especially for the high WER Dragon dataset. So PMI was used in the rest of the experiments.

Next, we looked at the variants for setting up the neighborhood  $N(w)$  in Step 1 (All vs. Window). The three P-R curves for All-PMI-X and Window-PMI-X for all aggregation approaches  $X$  in {AVG, MAX, 3MAX} are not shown here because they were similar to the P-PMI curves from Figures 1 and 2, for the BBN dataset and for the Dragon dataset, respectively. The Window variant was marginally better for  $X=MAX$  on both datasets, as well as for  $X=3MAX$  on the BBN dataset. In all other cases, the Window and All variants performed approximately the same.

Next, we looked at the different schemes for aggregating the pair-wise similarity scores in Step 3 (AVG, MAX, 3MAX). By plotting the P-R curves for All-PMI-AVG, All-PMI-MAX, and All-PMI-3MAX for both datasets we obtained again curves similar to the P-PMI curves from Figures 1 and 2. It seemed that AVG performs slightly better for high Recall, the difference being more marked when there is no windowing or when we are working on the Dragon dataset. The 3MAX and MAX variants seemed to be slightly better at high Precision with acceptable Recall values, with 3MAX being always equal or very slightly better than MAX. In an audio gisting and browsing context Precision is more important than Recall, therefore we can choose 3MAX.

Having established Window-PMI-3MAX as one of the better configurations, we now look more closely at its performance.

Figures 3 and 4 show how the content word error rate (cWER), the percentage of lost good words (%Lost), and the F-measure vary as we apply more and more aggressive error filtering (by increasing  $K$ ) to both datasets. We see that our semantic outlier filtering approach is able to significantly reduce the number of transcription errors, while losing some correct words. For example, with the

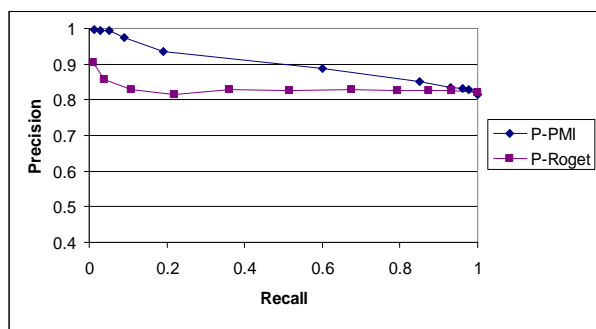


Fig 1: P-R curves of PMI vs. Roget (with All and AVG) on the BBN dataset. Each P-R point corresponds to a different value of the threshold  $K$  (high Recall for low values of  $K$ , high Precision for high values of  $K$ ).

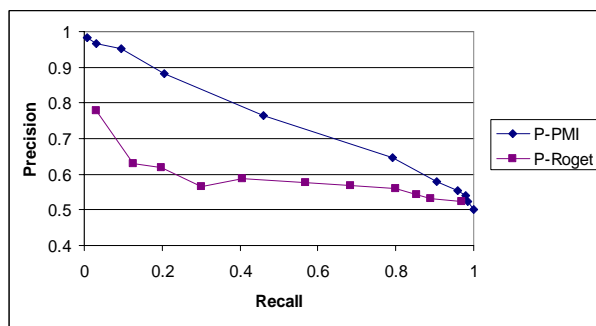


Fig 2: P-R curves of PMI vs. Roget (with All and AVG) on the Dragon dataset

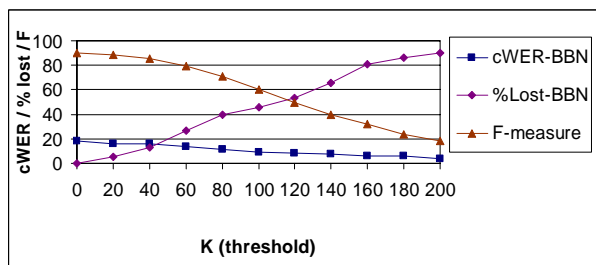


Fig.3. Content Words Error Rate (cWER), %Lost good keywords (%Lost) and F-measure as a function of the filtering level  $K$  for the Window-PMI-3MAX configuration on the BBN dataset.

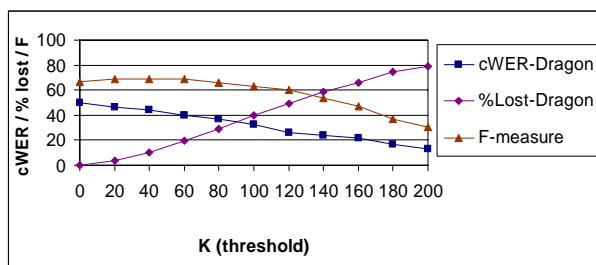


Fig.4. Content Words Error Rate (cWER), %Lost good keywords (%Lost) and F-measure as a function of the filtering level  $K$  for the Window-PMI-3MAX configuration on the Dragon dataset.

moderately accurate BBN dataset, we can reduce cWER by 50%, while losing 45% of the good content words ( $K=100$ ). For the low accuracy Dragon dataset, we can reduce cWER by 50%, while losing 50% of the good content words ( $K=120$ ). We can choose lower thresholds, for smaller reduction in cWER but smaller percent of lost good content words. Even small reductions in cWER are important, especially for less-than-broadcast conditions where WER is initially very high.

In general, we were not able to show an improvement in WER computed in a standard way (item 1 in Section 6), because of the high penalty due to deletions for both filtered semantic outliers and lost good content words. The percent of lost good words is admittedly too high, but this seems to be the case for speech error confidence measures (which do not remove the words tagged as incorrect). Also, for the purpose of audio browsing and gisting, we believe that fewer errors even with loss of content are preferable for intelligibility.

Comparing our results to those reported by Cox and Dasmahapatra (2000) our PMI-based measure seems to perform better than their LSA-based measure, judging by the shape of the Precision-Recall curves. (For example, at Precision=90%, they obtained Recall=12%, whereas we obtain 20%. At Precision=80%, they obtain Recall=50%, whereas we get Recall=100%.) Note however that their results and ours are not completely comparable since the experiments used different audio corpora (WSJCAM0 vs. TDT2), but those two corpora seem to exhibit similar initial WERs (the WER appears to be around 30% for WSJCAM0; the WER is 27.6% for our BBN dataset). Also, it is worth noting the LSA measure was computed based on a corpus that was very similar to the audio corpus used to evaluate the performance of the measure (both were Wall Street Journal corpora). If one was to evaluate this measure on audio from a completely different domain (ex: news in the scientific or technical domain), one would expect the performance to drop significantly. In contrast, our PMI measure was computed based on a general sample of the World Wide Web, which was not tailored to the audio corpus used to evaluate its performance. Therefore, our numbers are probably more representative of what would be experienced with audio corpora outside of the Wall Street Journal domain.

## 8 Conclusion and Future Work

We presented a basic method for filtering recognition errors of content words from automatic speech transcripts, by identifying semantic outliers. We described and evaluated several variants of the basic algorithm.

In future work, we plan to run our experiments on other datasets when they become available to us. In particular, we want to experiment with multi-topic audio documents where we expect more marked advantages for windowing and alternative aggregation schemes like MAX and 3MAX. We plan to explore ways to scale up other corpus-based semantic similarity measures to large terabyte corpora. We plan to explore more approaches to detecting semantic outliers, for example clustering or lexical chains (Hirst and St-Onge, 1997).

The most promising direction is to combine our method with confidence measures that use internal information from the ASR system (although the internal information is hard to obtain when using an ASR as a black box, and it could be recognizer-specific). A combination is likely to improve the performance, with the PMI-based measure contributing at the high-Precision end and the internal ASR measure contributing to the high-Recall end of the spectrum. To increase Recall we can also identify named entities and not filter them out. Some named entities could have high semantic similarity with the text if they are frequently mentioned in the same contexts in the Web corpus, but some names could be common to many contexts.

Another future direction will be to actually correct the errors instead of just filtering them out. For example, we might look at the top  $N$  speech recognizer hypotheses (for a fairly large  $N$  like 1000) and choose the one that maximizes semantic cohesion. A final direction for research is to conduct experiments with human subjects, to evaluate the degree to which filtered transcripts are better than unfiltered ones for tasks like browsing, gisting and searching audio clips.

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