Human annotation of ASR error regions: Is “gravity” a sharable concept for human annotators?

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Abstract
This paper is concerned with human assessments of the severity of errors in ASR outputs. We did not design any guidelines so that each annotator involved in the study could consider the “seriousness” of an ASR error using their own scientific background. Eight human annotators were involved in an annotation task on three distinct corpora, one of the corpora being annotated twice, hiding this annotation in duplicate to the annotators. None of the computed results (inter-annotator agreement, edit distance, majority annotation) allow any strong correlation between the considered criteria and the level of seriousness to be shown, which underlines the difficulty for a human to determine whether a ASR error is serious or not.

Keywords: Annotation; ASR Seriousness Errors; Speech Recognition

1. Introduction
When addressing the issue of transcription errors in automatic speech recognition (ASR) systems, we may adopt two distinct perspectives:

- We may be interested in etiology, trying to establish a causal relationship between the properties of the speech signal entering the ASR system and the transcription errors in the output. In this case, we argue in a systemic way, trying to relate the errors to causal error categories.

- A different way of looking into ASR errors consists of judging the impact of such errors on further processing, be it automatic or human. Taking an axiological perspective, our aim is then to qualify the seriousness of ASR errors on a seriousness scale ranging from minor to huge mistakes.

In the automatic speech recognition literature, word error rates are regularly reported, however few studies focus on ASR error analyses. In general, such studies aim at identifying major reasons of error (Duta et al., 2006; Adda-Decker, 2006; Nemoto et al., 2008; Goldwater et al., 2010; Dufour et al., 2012) classifying errors according to their phonetic characteristics (Greenberg and Chang, 2000) or at comparing automatic and human performances (Lippmann, 1997; Shen et al., 2008; Vasilescu et al., 2011). Studies on ASR error seriousness in link with further processing (Woodland et al., 2000) tend to be lacking. In contrast, error seriousness assessment is very popular subject in foreign language teaching and learning (Vann et al., 1991; Hyland and Anan, 2006).

In this paper, we address the issue of error “gravity” or seriousness in ASR. For this first experiment, we deliberately chose not to give precise guidelines to human judges (no hierarchy concerning linguistic levels involved in errors) nor to specify a precise framework concerning further processing (subtitling, information retrieval, translation, etc.). Instead, error seriousness decisions are individually taken by the independent participating assessors. This procedure raises the following questions:

- Do judges evaluate the seriousness of an error in the same way?

- Are judges consistent during evaluation, or is the evaluation similar to a random trial?

- When judging errors on a common seriousness scale, do judges follow different strategies (e.g., are errors harmful w.r.t. global understanding, language syntax, dialog systems, named entity recognition, etc.) depending on their personal competence and interests or is there a sharable generic view of the seriousness concept?

We would like to mention that this study is not meant to replace perceptual studies, but rather to determine findings which can be helpful in designing further investigations.

2. Material and methods
2.1. Corpora
The data used for this study are part of the French ETAPE corpus (Gravier et al., 2012) for which LIUM provided ASR outputs (Bouaques et al., 2013). Three different files were used in this experiment:
• corpus 1: radio show debates (France Inter)
• corpus 2: parliamentary debates (LCP, Top Questions)
• corpus 3: radio show debates (France Inter)

Regions of interest for this study are determined by aligning the reference (manual transcription) with the hypothesis (automatic transcription), and locating error regions, which is defined as all the consecutive words in the hypothesis which are different from the reference. The error regions (ER) concern only two or more consecutive words, and do not include any correctly recognized words or single word substitution errors.

Since these regions are automatically located by aligning the automatic (HYP) transcription with the reference one (REF), a temporal constraint is used to ensure that only temporally close words are associated with one another. An ER is thus the substitution of a sequence of words in the REF by a different word sequence in the HYP. The zone is determined by the time span (or the number of reference words) and not the type of error (deletion, insertion or substitution). Figure 1 illustrates an error region:

REF: on a souvent <ER> enfin en Seine Saint-Denis </ER> malheureusement
we often have well in Seine Saint-Denis unfortunately

HYP: on a souvent <ER> ***** FRANSEN *****
***** SANI </ER> malheureusement
we often have ***** FRANSEN ***** *****
SANI unfortunately

Figure 1: Excerpt from the corpus with error region (ER)

Table 1 shows a few statistics describing error regions in each corpus.

| Sources  | #words | # ER | % words in ER | Mean ER length |
|----------|--------|------|---------------|----------------|
| corpus1  | 1229   | 192  | 46.2%         | 3.0            |
| corpus2  | 2124   | 94   | 7.1%          | 1.6            |
| corpus3  | 1475   | 210  | 34.2%         | 2.4            |

Table 1: General corpus description. ER stands for Error Regions

2.2. Method

2.2.1. Annotators

Eight\(^1\) annotators participated in this annotation process, with different scientific background, either linguistics with a specialization in natural or spoken language processing (a1, a2, a7) or computer science (CS) without specialization (a4, a5), or with a specialization in speech recognition (a3) or spoken language processing (a6). Annotator (a5) is considered as a control annotator as this annotator knows very well the data annotated in this study.

Each human annotator annotated the corpora in the same order, and reannotated the first corpus at the end of the annotation process (corpus 1, 2, 3, and then 1 again). All but annotator a1, who prepared the subcorpora, were unaware that the first corpus would be reannotated. The other annotators discovered this repetition when annotating. This procedure allows us to compute inter- and intra-annotator agreement scores.

2.2.2. Annotation tool

We designed an annotation tool to meet the objectives we wanted to achieve. We decided to use a web interface so as to easily be able to save the performed annotations and record the annotation time for each human annotator. We also chose to provide keyboard shortcuts so as to rapidly annotate the corpus, depending on their position on the keyboard: (i) the keys “D”, “F” and “G” respectively refer to low, intermediate and high levels of seriousness,\(^2\) and (ii) the arrows keys are used to switch from one error region to another. This configuration allows the user to annotate with the left hand while the right hand is used to move within the corpus.

After logging in, the annotator has to choose the corpus he want to annotate. Then, the annotation tool provides, for each segment, a comparison between the reference transcription (upper part of the interface) and the automatic hypothesized transcription (lower part). Each unannotated error region in the segment is in black. The human annotator has to decide which level of seriousness is relevant for each error region (see Figure 2). After annotation, the color of the annotated region is changed depending on the selected seriousness level (green=low level, orange=intermediate level, red=high level).

Figure 2: Screenshot of the annotation web interface

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\(^1\)During the annotation process, a technical problem occurred for one annotator, but this problem was not detected until the analysis stage. All annotations from this annotator were lost.

\(^2\)These keys were chosen because they form a group on the left side of the keyboard. The letter from the key has no sense.
3. Results

Table 2 shows the distribution of annotations per annotator for each level of seriousness. It is apparent that annotators differ in their error seriousness assessment, with annotators a2, a5 and a6 tending to make stronger judgements (i.e., judging relatively few error regions to have intermediate seriousness levels) compared to the other annotators. Annotator a1 judges significantly more errors to be minor and much fewer severe than the other annotators.

| Level     | a1   | a2   | a3   | a4   | a5   | a6   | a7   |
|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Low       | 351  | 134  | 248  | 167  | 159  | 109  | 149  |
| Interm.   | 121  | 45   | 187  | 143  | 38   | 38   | 104  |
| High      | 216  | 509  | 253  | 378  | 491  | 541  | 435  |

Table 2: Distribution of annotations per annotator

Table 3 further explores differences in annotator judgement. The confusion matrix gives the inter-annotator agreements for each pair of annotators based on all of the annotated corpora.

|       | a1   | a2   | a3   | a4   | a5   | a6   | a7   |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| a1    | 0.60 | —    | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.70 | 0.64 |
| a2    | 0.24 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0.37 | 0.31 | 0.20 | 0.32 |
| a3    | 0.50 | 0.28 | —    | 0.49 | 0.37 | 0.26 | 0.41 |
| a4    | 0.37 | 0.46 | 0.49 | —    | 0.52 | 0.46 | 0.59 |
| a5    | 0.31 | 0.51 | 0.37 | 0.52 | —    | 0.56 | 0.57 |
| a6    | 0.20 | 0.56 | 0.26 | 0.46 | 0.56 | —    | 0.52 |
| a7    | 0.32 | 0.49 | 0.41 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.52 | —    |

Table 3: Inter-annotator agreement confusion matrix

Table 4 shows the intra-annotator agreements computed for each human annotator. This computation has been made for each annotator using the decisions taken for corpora 1 and 4. The intra-agreements range from 0.60 (annotators a1 and a7) to 0.70 (annotator a5).

|       | a1   | a2   | a3   | a4   | a5   | a6   | a7   |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| κ     | 0.60 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.70 | 0.64 | 0.60 |

Table 4: Intra-annotator agreement

Table 5 shows the global inter-annotator agreement computed between each human annotator as a function of the corpus. The inter-annotator agreements range from 0.33 for corpus 3 to 0.47 for corpus 2. We can observe a difference between the agreement on corpus 1 (0.38) and on corpus 4 (0.37) even though they are the same.

|       | corpus 1 | corpus 2 | corpus 3 | corpus 4 |
|-------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| κ     | 0.38     | 0.47     | 0.33     | 0.37     |

Table 5: Inter-annotator agreement depending on the corpus

Table 6 presents the confusion matrix of inter-annotator agreements taking into account the scientific background of each annotators. We can observe that the agreement has no direct link with the scientific background. For example, annotator a1 shares a common background with annotator a2 but their agreement is lower than those a1 has with other annotators.

|       | a1   | a2   | a3   | a4   | a5   | a6   | a7   |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| a1    | 0.60 | 0.24 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.70 | 0.64 |
| a2    | 0.24 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0.37 | 0.31 | 0.20 | 0.32 |
| a3    | 0.50 | 0.28 | —    | 0.49 | 0.37 | 0.26 | 0.41 |
| a4    | 0.37 | 0.46 | 0.49 | —    | 0.52 | 0.46 | 0.59 |
| a5    | 0.31 | 0.51 | 0.37 | 0.52 | —    | 0.56 | 0.57 |
| a6    | 0.20 | 0.56 | 0.26 | 0.46 | 0.56 | —    | 0.52 |
| a7    | 0.32 | 0.49 | 0.41 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.52 | —    |

Table 6: Confusion matrix: agreement taking into account the background of each annotators. The following groups of annotators have a similar background: (a1, a2, a7), (a4, a5), (a3...a6)

4. Discussion

4.1. Inter- and intra-annotator agreements

4.1.1. Inter-annotator agreements

From a global point of view, we observed very low values of inter-annotator agreements, which is not surprising due to the complexity of the task and our decision to not provide specific guidelines. We computed a Fleiss Kappa of 0.406 on the annotations from all annotators; this Kappa is of 0.388 if we do not take into account the annotations performed by the control annotator (a5).

The matrix confusion shown in Table 3 presents the inter-annotator agreements computed for each pair of annotators. We observed the IAA values on each pair are not really higher than the values computed between all annotators: the higher value is of 0.58 between a4 and a7, the lower value is of 0.19 between a1 and a6.

The IAA computed on each corpus (Table 5) allows us to notice clear differences depending on the considered corpus, even if agreements remain low. Indeed, we obtained similar IAA on corpora 1, 3 and 4 because of their common source (corpora 1 and 3 are debates and corpus 4 is the same than corpus 1) while corpus 2 is of a different genre. We noticed the corpus 2 allows the annotators to achieve higher IAA. Far easier than the other corpora, this corpus includes less error zones than the other corpora (Table 1).

Table 6 presents the confusion matrix of inter-annotator agreements taking into account the scientific background of each annotators. We can observe that the agreement has no direct link with the scientific background. For example, annotator a1 shares a common background with annotator a2 but their agreement is lower than those a1 has with other annotators.

Table 7 gives an example of such a switching.

|       | a1   | a2   | a3   | a4   | a5   | a6   | a7   |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| a1    | 0.60 | 0.24 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 0.70 | 0.64 |
| a2    | 0.24 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0.37 | 0.31 | 0.20 | 0.32 |
| a3    | 0.50 | 0.28 | —    | 0.49 | 0.37 | 0.26 | 0.41 |
| a4    | 0.37 | 0.46 | 0.49 | —    | 0.52 | 0.46 | 0.59 |
| a5    | 0.31 | 0.51 | 0.37 | 0.52 | —    | 0.56 | 0.57 |
| a6    | 0.20 | 0.56 | 0.26 | 0.46 | 0.56 | —    | 0.52 |
| a7    | 0.32 | 0.49 | 0.41 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.52 | —    |

Table 7: A switching from a low level (L) of seriousness to an intermediate one (I) or from a high level (H) to an intermediate one (I).
Table 7: Example of different annotation between corpus 1 and corpus 4 (the same corpus at two different moments) for the given excerpt

### 4.2. Equivalent categories

#### 4.2.1. Mean annotation w.r.t. majority annotation

Figure 3 presents the distribution of the majority annotation with respect to the mean annotation for the four sets of corpus. We can observe that a majority of annotations are clustered on the high level of seriousness.

![Figure 3: mean annotation w.r.t. majority annotation. Y-axis labels 1, 2 and 3 refer to low, intermediate and high level of seriousness. Y-axis label 0 refers to no majority annotation (i.e., the higher number of annotations per level is shared by two levels of seriousness)](image)

Figure 4 gives a detailed analysis for each set of corpus. Corpus 2 has very different characteristics than the other two corpora.

#### 4.2.2. Perfect consensus

We observed that a perfect consensus\(^3\) (all seven annotators used the same level of seriousness) is only present on the far categories: 77 regions from the lower level of seriousness, no region from the intermediate level, and 174 regions from the higher level of seriousness.

All the human annotators agree more frequently on the higher level of seriousness than on the lower one. There is no consensus on the intermediate level, which seems to be not so surprising due to the quite high number of human annotators involved in this study (see Table 8).

#### 4.3. Non-equivalent categories

Instead of looking at perfect agreement between the three classes, we can consider that there can be an equivalence between the low and intermediate levels or the high and the intermediate levels of seriousness in some conditions. Following that idea, we can assume that for each error region, there are three classes of judgments:

- **A**: majority of low level of seriousness judgments; one high level of seriousness judgment at most;
- **B**: majority of high level of seriousness judgments; one low level of seriousness judgment at most;
- **C**: others.

Table 9 gives the distribution of the error region within these classes given the different corpus.

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\(^3\)We considered here all the annotations provided by the annotators, i.e. 688 regions for each one of the 7 annotators and not only the 496 primary regions to annotate.

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Table 8: Distribution of perfect consensus in each level of seriousness for each corpus

Out of 688 error regions, we observed a perfect consensus on 251 regions, i.e., 36.5% of all regions. On a three-value scale, and taking into account seven human annotators, this percentage is quite high.

#### 4.2.3. Annotation relevance

While corpora 1 and 4 are the same corpus—annotated at two different times during the annotation process—we observed no discrepancy between the distribution of the perfect consensus within the three-value scale.

A surprising result is observed on the corpus 2, where the perfect consensus is more likely present on the lower level of seriousness category than on the higher level, contrary to other corpora. Nevertheless, this corpus is also the one for which there are fewer error regions to analyze.

Finally, we noticed that the difference of media did not affect the distribution of perfect consensus between categories: the corpora 1 (from “France Inter” radio station) and 3 (from “La Chaîne Parlementaire” parliamentary television) do not provide distinct results in terms of consensus.

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Table 9: Distribution between three classes of judgments

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\(^3\)We considered here all the annotations provided by the annotators, i.e. 688 regions for each one of the 7 annotators and not only the 496 primary regions to annotate.
4.4. Distance between hypothesis and reference

One hypothesis is that there may be a strong correlation between seriousness error and edit distance between hypothesis and reference. In order to validate this hypothesis, we computed edit distances for each error zone. Figure 5 shows the density annotation for each level of seriousness with respect to edit distance for all corpora while Figure 6 details the results for each corpus.

We can observe that the highest level of seriousness the highest the edit distance is (as shown with red numbers on these two figures). The distribution of these edit distances differs between Corpus 2 and the other corpora which confirms that Corpus 2 is different from the other ones. Moreover, at the high level of seriousness, we also observe an important number of short edit distances which means that edit distance alone is not enough to give a clear idea of the seriousness error.
5. Conclusion

Generally speaking, very low values of inter-annotator agreements are observed, which is not surprising due to the complexity of the task and our decision to not provide specific guidelines. This suggests that humans had difficulties classifying the error seriousness. The kind of corpora is different enough to produce distinct quality of transcriptions which induces various annotators experiences. While the background of annotators does not seem to play a role in their task understanding, the error region characteristics have an impact on the classification task. The analysis showed that there is no clear correlation between the considered criteria and the level of seriousness, and that this task was difficult for the human annotators.

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