Multi-Label Learning from Crowds

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Abstract—We consider multi-label crowdsourcing learning in two scenarios. In the first scenario, we aim at inferring instances' groundtruth given the crowds' annotations. We propose two approaches NAM/RAM (Neighborhood/Relevance Aware Multi-label crowdsourcing) modeling the crowds' expertise and label correlations from different perspectives. Extended from single-label crowdsourcing methods, NAM models the crowds' expertise on individual labels, but based on the idea that for rational workers, their annotations for instances similar in the feature space should also be similar, NAM utilizes information from the feature space and incorporates the local influence of neighborhoods' annotations. Noting that the crowds tend to act in an effort-saving manner while labeling multiple labels, i.e., rather than carefully annotating every proper label, they would prefer scanning and tagging a few most relevant labels, RAM models the crowds' expertise as their ability to distinguish the relevance between label pairs. In the second scenario, we care about cost-efficient crowdsourcing where the labeling and learning process are conducted in tandem. We extend NAM/RAM to the active paradigm and propose instance, label and worker selection criteria such that the labeling cost is significantly saved compared to passive learning without labeling control. The proposals' effectiveness are validated on simulated and real data.

Index Terms—multi-label, crowdsourcing, label correlation, labeling cost, active selection

1 Introduction

In real world tasks, one example can be associated with multiple concepts, e.g., one image may be tagged with multiple terms, each gene sequence may have several functions. To deal with such tasks, multi-label learning (MLL) has received significant attention [1], [2].

Conventional MLL assumes that groundtruth labels are available for learning, which are expensive and limited resources. On the one hand, labeling groundtruth requires expensive experts' examination over all candidate labels; on the other hand, the availability of experts and labeling budgets can be limited. In contrast, crowdsourcing [3], [4] provides an alternative to collect labeling information from easy to access and low cost crowds. The common wisdom is to distribute the task to multiple workers and conduct aggregation over them to alleviate the labeling error.

Previous crowdsourcing learning (CL) are mostly on single-label tasks in fields such as sentiment classification, medical diagnosis and image tagging [5], [6], [7], whereas using crowds for multi-label tasks is in the primary stage. [8], [9], [10], [11] considered inferring the taxonomy structure of multiple labels, and [9], [12], [13] considered estimating groundtruth labels from crowds' annotations.

In this paper, we consider multi-label crowdsourcing learning (MLC) in two scenarios. In the first scenario, we concern the annotation collection mode adopted from [9], [12], [13] where for a given set of instances, a group of the workers are employed to tag the *proper* labels for them from a candidate label set. After the labeling, we conduct the learning and wish to obtain an effective classifier to estimate the instances' groundtruth. In the second scenario, we also care about labeling cost. We conduct the labeling process

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and learning in tandem, and wish to learn the classifier with least annotations through active annotation collection.

Treating the *tagged* and *untagged* labels respectively as *positive* and *negative* label annotations, [9], [13] and [12] concerned themselves on extending single-label crowdsourcing methods by considering the label relationships. The issue is that their label correlations are solicited solely from the noisy annotations, whose qualities are thus affected sensitively by the annotations' quantity and quality, which would even be harmful in case of misleading annotations. More importantly, none of them have noticed the different characteristic of crowds' labeling on multi-label tasks.

For better understanding of the crowds' labeling behavior, we make a comparison between labeling from crowds for multi-label tasks, single-label tasks, and groundtruth labeling. Either for single-label or multi-label tasks, in groundtruth labeling from perfect experts, the untagged labels definitely mean negative labels. For crowds' labeling on single-label tasks, since one proper label tagging is sufficient, thus the untagged labels naturally denote negative annotations. But for multi-label labeling where each instance can be associated with multiple proper labels, this clear distinction is not necessarily true. We observe that while annotating multiple labels, rather than carefully annotating every proper label, the crowds would prefer scanning and tagging a few most relevant labels from their point of view and leave the rest untouched. This may be due to the heavy workload of examining every label, or they just annotate labels they are confident about. We name this as effort-saving annotating behavior. In such case, the untagged labels may mean uncertain labels or just be untouched. Simply treating them as negative would be misleading.

Here is one example. While collecting our experimental data *dataset1* and *dataset2*, we note that the workers rarely annotate more than 3 labels for the images they see, which is surely insufficient for images with a rather larger number of labels. As a validation, we calculate the average number of tagged labels for the images with no less than 3 labels

(comprising about 10%, 19% of the data), and obtain 2.1 and 2.5 for *dataset1* and *dataset2*. Such phenomenon was merely considered by previous crowdsourcing works.

In this paper, we propose two different approaches NAM (Neighborhood Aware Multi-label crowdsourcing) and RAM (Relevance Aware Multi-label crowdsourcing) for MCL. Similar as [9], [12], [13], NAM treats the *tagged* and *untagged* labels respectively as *positive* and *negative* annotations, and extends single-label methods considering label correlation exploration. But to alleviate the high sensitivity of label correlations to annotations' noise, based on the idea that instances similar in the feature space should also get similar annotations, NAM incorporates the local influence of neighborhoods' annotations.

Differently, emphasizing on modeling the crowds' *effort-saving* annotating behavior, RAM treats the tagged labels as more relevant than the untagged labels, and models each worker's expertise as its ability to distinguish the correct relevance between label pairs, which also naturally captures the relevance comparison relationship between labels.

Results in experiment show that both methods perform good. Ignoring the crowds' effort-saving annotating behavior, NAM's none degenerated performance should be due to the label sparsity of the experimental data, i.e., the fraction of examples associated with rather large number of labels is rather small. But for applications with large label density, the effort-saving manner should not be ignored. For performance improvement, the strongness of NAM's label correlations and RAM's effort-saving behavior modeling can be combined into one framework.

We also extend NAM and RAM to the active paradigm and conduct adaptive selection over instances, labels and workers during the labeling process, such that the most reliable workers are queried for the most valuable instances and labels. Based on the prediction of NAM and RAM, we design criteria to evaluate and select instances considering the prediction uncertainty/query diversity, labels considering the prediction uncertainty/probability of being positive, and workers with high expertise.

Note that in this paper, we assume that most workers are acting with good will, i.e., they are willing to provide good annotations, and we do not pay special attention to adversarial crowds. This is the base assumption in crowdsourcing such that the problems are learnable. In the following we start with a brief review of some related work in Section 2, then propose our approaches in Section 3, and report the experiments in Section 4. Finally, we conclude the paper.

2 RELATED WORK

In this section, we briefly review some related work in multi-label learning and crowdsourcing learning.

Multi-label Learning During the past decade, various works have been proposed for MLL [1], [2]. The most straightforward approach is binary relevance (BR) which decomposes the multi-label task into independent binary classification problems and thus single-label learning methods can be applied [14]. This strategy neglects considering label correlations which are widely believed to contain important information to help learning. The observation in text categorization that the labels are organized in a hierarchical

structure has motivated approaches to exploit external label structures such as tree structure of labels [15] and dag-structure of labels [16]. Besides using explicit label structure information, methods extending BR considering implicit label relationship were also explored, such as the label ranking idea which requires the positive labels to be predicted in front of the negative labels [17], [18], the feature space enhancement idea which constructs meta-level features using label information [19], [20]. See [21] for the latest review for MLL BR. Except for the central label correlation topic, new research directions such as dimension reduction for MLL with large features and labels [22], MLL with multi-instance data representations [23] have also attract attentions. Typically, these works require the groundtruth labels for learning, which are expensive in real applications.

When the crowds are acting in the *effort-saving* manner, the annotations can be kind of incomplete. Another possible related field is weak label learning [24], [25], where a partial set of groundtruth labels are given for the training examples. The target is to recover the complete groundtruth exploiting the benefits of instance-label correlation and label relationship, such as label propagation based on manifold assumption [24], [26], label ranking based on group lasso [27] and label completion based on low rank structure [28], [29]. Regarding the annotations as a large label matrix, weak label learning can be applied to recover the unknown annotations and majority voting can be used to infer the groundtruth. Though weak label learning accounts in the instance-label and label relationship, they treat the annotations equally without considering the crowds' expertise variance.

Crowdsourcing Learning With the advent of crowdsourcing platforms such as Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT), crowdsourcing has been an economic way to collect supervised information. One main focus is to aggregate the imperfect annotations from the crowds to infer groundtruth labels. Previous works mostly focus on single-label tasks, modeling the crowds' expertise from different perspectives using measures with explicit explanations such as classification accuracy [30], [31], [32], confusion matrix [6], [33], [34], [35], [36], and more complex multidimensional vectors [7].

Recently, building hierarchies of labels [8], [9], [10], [11] and inferring groundtruth label from crowds [9], [12], [13] for multi-label tasks were also explored. [8], [9] collected annotations for items and deployed the annotation co-occurrence to infer the hierarchy structure; [10], [11] queried crowds the 'ascendant-descendant' relationship between labels to reconstruct the label hierarchy. To infer the groundtruth labels, [9], [13] extended the single-label crowdsourcing methods by taking into account the label cooccurrence; [12] considered three dependency relationships among all label power set, label set of two labels, and conditional label independency. Computed solely from the annotations, the quality of the label correlation relies heavily on the availability and reliability of the crowds. Besides, they also ignore that the crowds' annotating behavior on multi-label tasks can be different from that on single-label tasks. To alleviate this, our approach exploit the rich feature information for label correlations calculating, and consider the crowds' specific annotating behavior.

Considering that the labeling budget is often limited, works on selectively query and learn from the most helpful

annotations were also explored, either for single-label tasks [37], [38], [39] or multi-label tasks [9], [40]. [37] exploited the active learning paradigm by actively querying annotations from the most reliable workers for the most uncertain items, where the crowds' reliability is defined as their labeling accuracy and the tasks' uncertainty is defined as their label prediction entropy. [38] extended [37] to the worker scarcity case through transferring knowledge from auxiliary domains. [39] dynamically sampled subsets of the crowds based on an exploration/exploitation criterion to approximate the majority opinion of all crowds. Designed for singlelabel tasks, the above works ignore the label correlations and crowds' specific annotating behavior. While learning the hierarchy structure for large numbers of labels, [9] also explored the assignment of labels to data items using the label prediction entropy measures, but did not pay attention to instance and worker selection. Our previous work [40] extended the idea of [37] to multi-label tasks by incorporating the local neighborhoods' label correlation for classifier learning and improved the instance selection strategy. In this paper, we extend [40] by 1) improving the crowdsourcing learning method by also considering label correlations for crowds modeling; 2) proposing another crowdsourcing learning model RAM considering the crowds' specific annotating behavior; and 3) designing respective active selection strategies for the two methods considering the characteristics of the two methods.

3 SCENARIO 1: CROWDS AGGREGATION

3.1 Problem Formulation

We use $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, \{\mathbf{y}_{1j}\}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, \{\mathbf{y}_{Nj}\})\}$ to denote the set of N instances annotated by M annotators, where \mathbf{x}_i is the d-dimensional feature vector representation for instance i, \mathbf{y}_{ij} is the annotation results of instance i given by worker j. M^i , M^l_i are used to denote the annotator set labeling instance i and annotating label l for instance i, N^j to denote the instance set annotated by annotator j. Our target is to estimate the groundtruth labels $Z = (\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_N) \in \{+1, -1\}^{L \times N}$ for X given D.

To use one unified general representation for the annotations such that the same notation can be used for the first scenario and active crowdsourcing, we define $\mathbf{y}_{ij} \in \{+1,-1,0\}^{L\times 1}$. In the active crowdsourcing scenario where labels are selected to query annotation, $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = 1(-1)$ means label l is tagged as positive (negative) by worker j for \mathbf{x}_i , and $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = 0$ means label l is not queried for \mathbf{x}_i from worker j. For the first learning scenario where the annotations are pre-collected through querying the *proper* labels for each instance, the annotations reduce to $\mathbf{y}_{ij} \in \{+1,0\}^{L\times 1}$ or $\mathbf{y}_{ij} = \{0\}^{L\times 1}$, with $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = 1(0)$ denoting worker j tags (doesn't tag) label l as *proper* for \mathbf{x}_i , and $\mathbf{y}_{ij} = \{0\}^{L\times 1}$ denoting worker j doesn't annotate instance i.

Compared with traditional multi-label learning, we can see that the key challenges lie in that the labels provided by each annotator can be noisy and the annotators' expertise can be various. Treating the untagged labels as negative label annotations, i.e., reformulating $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = 0$ as $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = -1$ for the tagged instances with $\mathbf{y}_{ij} \neq \{0\}^{L \times 1}$, previous multi-label crowdsourcing methods extends the single-label

crowdsourcing methods by considering the label correlation, whose qualities however are affected sensitively by the quality of annotations. Besides, they also ignore the workers' specific annotating behavior on multi-label tasks.

Considering the above, we propose two probabilistic approaches NAM/RAM(Neighborhood/Relevance Aware Multi-label crowdsourcing) modeling the crowds' expertise and utilizing the label correlations from two different perspectives. Specifically, like previous works, by reformulating $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = 0$ as $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l = -1$ for instances with $\mathbf{y}_{ij} \neq \{0\}^{L\times 1}$, NAM extends the single-label crowdsourcing methods and models the crowds' expertise on each individual label, but incorporates the rich information in the feature space to consider the local influence of neighborhoods' label correlations. For RAM, it defines the crowds' expertise as their ability to distinguish the relevance between the tagged and untagged labels, which simultaneously captures the crowds' effort-saving annotating manner and the relevance ranking relationship between pairs of labels.

3.2 Method 1:NAM

We first describe one classic single label crowdsourcing model, then extend it by encoding the local influence of neighborhoods' label correlations to multi-label problem.

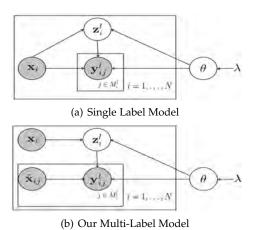


Fig. 1. (a) The single label probabilistic model for instances $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$, annotations $\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l\}$ and unknown groundruth $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$; (b) Our multi-label probabilistic model for instances $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$, $\{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}\}$, annotations $\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l\}$ and unknown groundruth $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ on label l. Here $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ denotes the enhanced

Figure1(a) illustrates the classic probabilistic graphical model on some label l over the instances $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$, the annotations $\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l\}$, and the unknown groundruth labels $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$. Assuming that each annotation \mathbf{y}_{ij}^l depends both on the instance \mathbf{x}_i and its groundtruth \mathbf{z}_i^l , using θ to denote the involved parameters and $p_r(\theta)$ its prior probability, the joint distribution of $\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l,\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ can be represented as:

representation of x_i for worker j, which will be explained in Eq. 2.

$$= \prod_{i} P(\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}\}_{ij}, \{\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}\}_{i} | \{\mathbf{x}_{i}\}_{i}, \theta)$$

$$= \prod_{i} p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} | \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta) \prod_{j \in M_{i}^{l}} p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} | \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}, \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta) p_{r}(\theta).$$
(1)

Here $p(\mathbf{z}_i^l|\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$ can be regarded as the classifier of label \mathbf{z}^l . The second term $p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l|\mathbf{z}_i^l, \mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$ models worker j's labeling process of annotating \mathbf{y}_{ij}^l to \mathbf{x}_i with groundtruth

 \mathbf{z}_i^l . The unknown groundtruth $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ are used in this model as latent variables, whose probability distribution and the parameters θ will be iteratively estimated during learning. Defining one or more variables modeling the crowds' labeling expertise in the second term, this probabilistic model is widely adopted in crowdsourcing learning, e.g., crowds' expertise defined as labeling accuracy [30], [31], precision/recall/confusion matrix [6], [33], [34], [35], and complex multidimensional vectors [7].

Treating the multi-label task as multiple independent binary tasks, the above model and single-label methods can be directly applied. The problem is that the correlation between labels are ignored by such methods. We exploit the local influence of neighborhoods' annotations in our model in Figure1(b). Different from Figure1(a), enhanced representation of each instance $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ for each worker j is used,

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} = [\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{c}_{ij}], \quad \mathbf{c}_{ij} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{i'} \in knn_j(\mathbf{x}_i)} \mathbf{y}_{i'j}, \tag{2}$$

i.e., $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ is the concatenation of \mathbf{x}_i and the *local code* \mathbf{c}_{ij} of instance i for worker j. Here $knn_j(\mathbf{x}_i)$ denotes the k nearest neighbors of x_i among the N^j instances annotated by worker j, \mathbf{c}_{ij} is computed as the average mean annotations of its k nearest neighbors given by worker j.

Based on the idea that, from each worker j's perspective, its annotations to instances similar in the feature space are supposed to be similar, we add the neighborhoods' annotation information as extra features which may imply important information for the crowds labeling prediction. For implementation simplicity, we exploit the average mean statistic of neighbors' annotations in this paper. Other statistical values reflecting the annotation information of neighbors also worthy study, e.g., the median values.

Using the *enhanced representation* of instances for each worker, we then conduct the crowdsourcing learning on each label separately. NAM can be roughly regarded as a two step approach, in the first step, we preprocess the instance taking into account label correlations and construct enhanced instance representations, in the second step, the learning is conducted on each label separately using the new instance representations. On each label *l*, the probabilistic graphical model in Figure1(b) can be represented as:

$$P(\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}\}_{ij}, \{\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}\}_{i} | \{\mathbf{x}_{i}\}_{i}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \theta)$$

$$= \prod_{i} p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} | \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta) \prod_{j \in M_{i}^{l}} p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} | \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \theta) p_{r}(\theta).$$
(3)

For implementation simplicity, we utilize labeling accuracy as [30], [31] to model the crowds' expertise. For each annotator j, we define an expertise variable \mathbf{e}_{ij}^l as the probability that annotator j provides the correct label for instance i, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{e}_{ij}^{l} := p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} = \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} | \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \theta), \tag{4}$$

Here the groundtruth \mathbf{z}_i^l are unknown latent variables and will be inferred in the learning. Using $I(\cdot)$ to denote the indicator function, then the distribution $p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l|\mathbf{z}_i^l,\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij},\theta)$ can be formulated as the following Bernoulli distribution,

$$p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}|\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \theta) = (1 - \mathbf{e}_{ij}^{l})^{[1 - I(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} = \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l})]} (\mathbf{e}_{ij}^{l})^{[I(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} = \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l})]}.$$
(5)

Exploiting the *logistic sigmoid* $\sigma(z) = 1/(1 + exp(-z))$ acting on some function $f_{j,\theta}^l$ and $f_{0,\theta}^l$ over instances to model \mathbf{e}_{ij}^l and $p(\mathbf{z}_i^l|\mathbf{x}_i,\theta)$, we get

$$\mathbf{e}_{ij}^{l} := p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} = \mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} | \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \theta) = \sigma(f_{j,\theta}^{l}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij})), \qquad (6)$$

$$p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta) = \sigma(f_{0,\theta}^{l}(\mathbf{x}_{i})),$$

$$p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} = -1 | \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta) = \sigma(-f_{0,\theta}^{l}(\mathbf{x}_{i})). \qquad (7)$$

While any function can be used to implement $f_{0,\theta}^l$ and $f_{j,\theta}^l$, for ease of exposition, we consider the linear discriminating functions $f_{0,\theta}^l(\mathbf{x}_i) = (\mathbf{w}_0^l)'\mathbf{x}_i$, $f_{j,\theta}^l(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) = (\mathbf{w}_j^l)'\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$. Given the above specifications, the parameters become the classifier/annotator parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}_0^l, \{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}\}$. To overcome overfitting, we further introduce a zero-mean λ -variance Gaussian prior for $\{\mathbf{w}_0^l\}$ and $\{\mathbf{w}_i^l\}$, i.e.,

$$p_r(\theta) = p(\mathbf{w}_0^l | \lambda) \prod_{j \in M_i^l} p(\mathbf{w}_j^l | \lambda)$$
$$p(\mathbf{w}_0^l | \lambda), p(\mathbf{w}_j^l | \lambda) \propto \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{I})$$
(8)

To estimate the parameters $\{\mathbf{w}_0^l, \{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}\}$, we exploit the maximum likelihood criterion and use Expectation-Maximization (EM) [41] with missing variables $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ and observed variables $\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l\}_{ij}$.

E-step: Given current estimation of the parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}_0^l, \{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}\}$ from last M step, the posterior probability of ground truth label $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ is computed:

$$p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}) = p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}|\mathbf{x}_{i}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}\}_{ij}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}, \{\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l}\})$$

$$\propto p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}|\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}) \prod_{j \in M_{i}^{l}} p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}|\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \mathbf{w}_{j}^{l}). \quad (9)$$

Substituting Eq.5 and Eq.7 into Eq.9, E-step reduces to:

$$p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}=1) \propto \sigma(\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l'}\mathbf{x}_{i}) \prod_{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l} \neq 0} \sigma(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l'}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij})$$
(10)

$$p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} = -1) \propto \sigma(-\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l'}\mathbf{x}_{i}) \prod_{\mathbf{y}_{i,j}^{l} \neq 0} \sigma(-\mathbf{y}_{i,j}^{l}\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l'}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) \quad (11)$$

M-step: To estimate the parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}_0^l, \{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}\}$, we maximize the expectation of the joint log-likelihood $Q(\theta)$ of $(\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l\}_{ij}, \{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}_i)$ over θ , with respect to the posterior probabilities of $\{\mathbf{z}_i^l\}$ computed by last E step:

$$Q(\theta) = E_{\mathbf{z}}[\ln P(\{\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}\}_{ij}, \{\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}\}_{i}|\{\mathbf{x}_{i}\}_{i}, \{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}\}_{ij}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}, \{\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l}\})p_{r}(\theta)]$$

$$= \sum_{i} E_{\mathbf{z}}[\ln p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}|\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{l})p(\mathbf{w}_{0})] +$$

$$\sum_{ij} E_{\mathbf{z}}[\ln p(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^{l}|\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \mathbf{w}_{j}^{l})p(\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l})]$$

$$= Q(\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}) + \frac{\lambda}{2}||\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}||^{2} + \sum_{i}[Q(\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l}) + \frac{\lambda}{2}||\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l}||^{2}].$$
(12)

Substituting Eq.5,7 into Eq.12, $Q(\mathbf{w}_0^l)$, $Q(\mathbf{w}_i^l)$ reduces to:

$$Q(\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l}) = \sum_{i} [\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l'} \mathbf{x}_{i} p(\mathbf{z}_{i}^{l} = 1) - \ln(1 + exp(\mathbf{w}_{0}^{l'} \mathbf{x}_{i}))]$$
(13)

$$Q(\mathbf{w}_j^l) = \sum_{i} [\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l \mathbf{w}_j^{l'} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} p(\mathbf{z}_i^l = 1) - \ln(1 + exp(\mathbf{y}_{ij}^l \mathbf{w}_j^{l'} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}))]$$
(14)

Therefore $\mathbf{w}_0^l, \mathbf{w}_j^l$ can be independently optimized by maximizing $Q(\mathbf{w}_0^l)$, $Q(\mathbf{w}_j^l)$, for which we use gradient ascent. Algorithm 1 summarizes the overall process of NAM.

Algorithm 1 The NAM Approach

Input: data D; parameter neighbor size k=5, $\lambda=1e^{-3}$ **Output**: multi-label classifier $\{\mathbf{w}_0^l\}$, workers' parameters $\{\mathbf{w}_i^l\}$

Algorithm:

- 1: For each worker j, get the respective enhanced representation $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{ij} = [\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{c}_{ij}]$ of each instance \mathbf{x}_i by Eq. 2
- 2: Repeat
- 3: *E-step*: For each label l, given \mathbf{w}_0^l , $\{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}$ computed from last M-step, estimate the posterior probability $p(\mathbf{z}_i^l)$ by Eq. 10.
- 4: *M-step*: For each label l, given $p(\mathbf{z}_i^l)$ computed from last E-step, estimate \mathbf{w}_0^l , $\{\mathbf{w}_j^l\}$ by maximizing Eq. 13 and 14 using GA
- 5: **until** the maximum number of iterations is reached

3.3 Method 2:RAM

Rather than treating the crowds' annotations in the same way as single-label tasks, i.e., taking the tagged/untagged labels as positive/negative annotations and modeling the crowds' behavior over each individual label, RAM emphasizes on modeling the crowds' *effort-saving* annotating behavior. From the point of label relevance view, RAM treats annotator j tagging label s but not tagging t to instance t as that, t thinks label t is more *relevant* than label t to t. From this, each annotator's expertise is defined as its ability to differentiate the correct relevance between label pair t

Formally, for easiness of understanding, given annotator j and its annotations $\mathbf{y}_{ij} \in \{+1, -1, 0\}^{L \times 1}$ on instance \mathbf{x}_i , we construct the label relevance aware examples for it as:

$$\mathbf{xr}_{ij} = {\mathbf{xr}_{ij}^{st}} = {(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) | \mathbf{y}_{ij}^s = 1, \mathbf{y}_{ij}^t = -1/0}.$$
 (15)

Here $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{r}_{ij}^{st}$ denotes the relevance aware example over label s and t that, annotator j believes on example \mathbf{x}_i the positively tagged label s is more relevant than the negatively or untagged label t; and $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{r}_{ij}$ denotes the set of relevance aware examples over the whole label set on example \mathbf{x}_i in annotator j's opinion. The induced relevance aware examples for each annotator j and the whole data are:

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{r}_j = {\mathbf{x}\mathbf{r}_{ij} | i \in N^j}, \quad \mathbf{X}\mathbf{R} = {\mathbf{X}\mathbf{r}_j}.$$
 (16)

Accordingly, using the unknown groundtruth labels z as latent variables, which will be inferred in the learning process, we define the groundtruth relevance aware positive and negative examples for each x_i as following:

$$\mathbf{xgp}_i = {\mathbf{xgp}_i^{st}} = {(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) | \mathbf{z}_i^s = 1, \mathbf{z}_i^t = -1},$$
 (17)

$$\mathbf{xgn}_i = {\mathbf{xgn}_i^{st}} = {(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) | \mathbf{z}_i^s = -1, \mathbf{z}_i^t = 1}.$$
 (18)

 $\mathbf{xgp}_i^{st}(\mathbf{xgn}_i^{st})$ denotes that on example \mathbf{x}_i , in groundtruth, the positive (negative) label s is more (less) relevant than the negative (positive) label t; and $\mathbf{xgp}_i(\mathbf{xgn}_i)$ denotes the set of groundtruth relevance aware positive (negative) examples over the whole label set on example \mathbf{x}_i . The whole groundtruth relevance aware examples are:

$$\mathbf{XGP} = \{\mathbf{xgp}_i\}, \quad \mathbf{XGN} = \{\mathbf{xgn}_i\}. \tag{19}$$

We can see the above examples actually represent the relevance comparison between one pair of labels on particular

examples. Based on the above definition, each annotator j's expertise q_{ij}^{st} on example \mathbf{x}_i over label s and t is defined as how annotator j's relevance comparison between label s and t agrees with the groundtruth:

$$q_{ij}^{st} := P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xr}_{ij} | (\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i)$$

$$:= 1 - P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xr}_{ij} | (\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_i).$$
(20)

We also define the probability of the groundtruth relevance comparison between labels as:

$$p_i^{st} := P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i)$$

$$:= 1 - P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_i).$$
(21)

Here p_i^{st} denotes the probability that in groundtruth, label s is more relevant than label t on example \mathbf{x}_i . Given Eq.20, 21, the likelihood of each example in Eq.15 can be calculated as:

$$P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xr}_{ij}) = q_{ij}^{st} p_i^{st} + (1 - q_{ij}^{st})(1 - p_i^{st}).$$
 (22)

We note that while our Eq. 22 shares the similar ranking idea as that in [42], our problem is quite different, and the induction procedure stemming from the crowds' annotating behavior is unique. Treating each $\{\mathbf{xr}_{ij}^{st}\}$ independently, the likelihood of all examples \mathbf{XR} can be formulated as:

$$P(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{R}|\theta) = \prod_{j=1}^{M} \prod_{i \in N^{j}} \prod_{s,t} P((\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{x}\mathbf{r}_{ij})$$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^{M} \prod_{i \in N^{j}} \prod_{s,t} q_{ij}^{st} p_{i}^{st} + (1 - q_{ij}^{st})(1 - p_{i}^{st}).$$
(23)

Here θ denotes the parameters involved in the equation.

Defining the annotators' expertise as in Eq.20, we achieve several advantages: first, we avoid the complexity of modeling annotators' expertise variances on individual labels; meanwhile, the annotators' *effort-saving* behavior and the label pair relevance relationship is naturally captured.

Assuming each annotator's expertise over the label relevance depends both on the instance they observe and the class labels, here we exploit a logistic sigmoid function acting on two linear discriminating functions to model q_{ij}^{st} :

$$q_{ij}^{st} = f(\mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_j^s, \alpha_j^t) = \frac{\exp(\alpha_j^{s'} \mathbf{x}_i)}{\exp(\alpha_j^{s'} \mathbf{x}_i) + \exp(\alpha_j^{t'} \mathbf{x}_i)}$$
$$= \sigma[(\alpha_j^s - \alpha_j^t)' \mathbf{x}_i]. \tag{24}$$

Here α_j^s , α_j^t are d-dimensional coefficient vectors modeling annotator j's understanding over label s and t. The probability is reflected through the sigmoid function $\sigma(x) = 1/(1 + exp(-x))$.

Similarly, the groundtruth relevance comparison probability between labels p_i^{st} is defined as:

$$p_i^{st} = f(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}^s, \mathbf{w}^t) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{w}^{s'} \mathbf{x}_i)}{\exp(\mathbf{w}^{s'} \mathbf{x}_i) + \exp(\mathbf{w}^{t'} \mathbf{x}_i)}$$
$$= \sigma[(\mathbf{w}^s - \mathbf{w}^t)' \mathbf{x}_i]. \tag{25}$$

Here \mathbf{w}^l is the d-dimensional coefficient vector for label l. $\mathbf{f}_l(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^{l'}\mathbf{x}_i$ can be regarded as the classifier model defined on label l and predict the groundtruth for \mathbf{x}_i .

Learning Objective Function To learn the annotators' and classifiers' parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}, \{\alpha_j\}\}\$, we maximize the log-likelihood of Eq. 23:

$$\hat{\theta} = \{\hat{\mathbf{w}}, \{\hat{\alpha}_j\}\} = \arg\max_{\theta} \{\ln P(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{R}|\theta)\}.$$
 (26)

Regarding the underlying groundtruth relevance in Eq. 17, 18 as latent variables, we use Expectation-Maximization (EM) [41] to iteratively estimate $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$ given θ in the E-step, and estimate θ given $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$ in the M-step.

E-step: Given the estimation of $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}, \{\alpha_j\}\}$ from last M step, the posteriors probability of $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$, $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_i\}$ are:

$$P\{(\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_{i}\}$$

$$\{ \propto \prod_{j \in M^{i}} \prod_{s, t} P(\mathbf{xr}_{ij}^{st} \in \mathbf{xr}_{ij} | (\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_{i}, \theta) \cdot$$

$$P((\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_{i} | \theta)\} \propto \prod_{j \in M^{i}} \prod_{s, t} q_{ij}^{st} p_{i}^{st},$$

$$P\{(\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_{i}\}$$

$$\{ \propto \prod_{j \in M^{i}} \prod_{s, t} P(\mathbf{xr}_{ij}^{st} \in \mathbf{xr}_{ij} | (\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_{i}, \theta) \cdot$$

$$(28)$$

$$P((\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_i | \theta)\} \propto \prod_{j \in M^i} \prod_{s, t} (1 - q_{ij}^{st})(1 - p_i^{st}).$$

Substituting Eq.24, 25 into Eq.27, 28, E-step reduces to:

$$P\{(\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_{i}\}$$

$$\propto \prod_{j \in M^{i}} \prod_{s, t} \sigma[(\alpha_{j}^{s} - \alpha_{j}^{t})' \mathbf{x}_{i}] \sigma[(\mathbf{w}^{s} - \mathbf{w}^{t})' \mathbf{x}_{i}], \quad (29)$$

$$P\{(\mathbf{x}_{i}, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgn}_{i}\}$$

$$\propto \prod_{j \in M^{i}} \prod_{s, t} \sigma[-(\alpha_{j}^{s} - \alpha_{j}^{t})' \mathbf{x}_{i}] \sigma[-(\mathbf{w}^{s} - \mathbf{w}^{t})' \mathbf{x}_{i}]. \quad (30)$$

M-step: To estimate θ , we maximize the expectation of the joint log-likelihood of $(\mathbf{xr}_{ij}^{st}, (\mathbf{x}_i, s, t))$ over $\theta = \{\mathbf{w}, \{\alpha_j\}\}$, with respect to the posterior probability of $(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i$ computed by last E step:

$$\theta = \arg\max_{\theta} QE(\theta),$$

$$QE(\theta) = E_{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i} [\ln P(\mathbf{XR}, \{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t)\}_i^{st}) | \theta)]$$

$$= QE(\{\mathbf{w}\}) + \sum_{i=1}^{M} QE(\alpha_i), \tag{31}$$

where $QE(\mathbf{w})$, $QE(\alpha_i)$ are induced as,

$$QE(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{s,t} \{\ln \sigma[(\mathbf{w}^s - \mathbf{w}^t)' \mathbf{x}_i] P_{oldE}$$

$$+ \ln \sigma[-(\mathbf{w}^s - \mathbf{w}^t)' \mathbf{x}_i] (1 - P_{oldE}) \},$$

$$QE(\alpha_j) = \sum_{i \in N^j} \sum_{s,t} \{\ln \sigma[(\alpha_j^s - \alpha_j^t)' \mathbf{x}_i] P_{oldE}$$

$$+ \ln \sigma[-(\alpha_j^s - \alpha_j^t)' \mathbf{x}_i] (1 - P_{oldE}) \}.$$
(32)

We introduce P_{oldE} to denote $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$ computed by the last E step for the convenience of presentation.

Based on Eq. 32 and 33, the multi-label classifier ${\bf w}$ and worker parameter α_j can be independently inferred by maximizing $QE({\bf w}),\ QE(\alpha_j)$ with respect to ${\bf w},\ \alpha_j$. One solution is alternatively maximizing $QE({\bf w}),\ QE(\alpha_j)$ with respect to one class associated parameters, e.g., ${\bf w}^l,\ \alpha_j^l,$ with the others fixed. In the multi-label crowdsourcing tasks, this strategy would be very slow when the number of labels and workers are large. In this paper, we employ the more

Algorithm 2 The RAM Approach

Input: data D; parameter C=100, $\gamma_o=5*1e^{-4}$ Output: multi-label classifier w, workers' parameters $\{\alpha_j\}$ Algorithm:

- 1: Repeat
- 2: *E-step*: Given \mathbf{w} , $\{\alpha_j\}$ computed from last M-step, estimate the posterior probability $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$ by Eq. 29, 30 .
- 3: *M-step*: Given $P\{(\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) \in \mathbf{xgp}_i\}$ computed from last E-step, estimate $\mathbf{w}, \{\alpha_j\}$ by maximizing Eq. 32 and 33 using SGD stated in Eq. 34- 37
- 4: **until** the value Eq. 23 converges or maximum number of iterations is reached

efficient stochastic gradient descent(SGD) [43] approach to minimize $-QE(\mathbf{w})$, $-QE(\alpha_j)$ as following:

To minimize $-QE(\mathbf{w})$, at each iteration of SGD, we randomly sample an instance \mathbf{x} , two labels s, t to form a triplet (\mathbf{x}, l^s, l^t) and perform gradient descent on $\mathbf{w}^s, \mathbf{w}^t$:

$$\mathbf{w}^{s(T+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{s(T)} - \gamma^{(T+1)} \mathbf{x} (P_{oldE} - P_{oldw})$$
(34)

$$\mathbf{w}^{t(T+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{t(T)} - \gamma^{(T+1)} \mathbf{x} (P_{oldw} - P_{oldE})$$
 (35)

To minimize $-QE(\alpha_j)$, at each iteration of SGD, we randomly sample an instance \mathbf{x} , one positive tagged label s and one negative or untagged label t such that $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^s = 1$ and $\mathbf{y}_{ij}^t = -1/0$ to form a triplet (\mathbf{x}_i, s, t) and perform gradient descent on α_j^s , α_i^t :

$$\alpha_j^{s(T+1)} = \alpha_j^{s(T+1)} - \gamma^{(T+1)} \mathbf{x} (P_{oldE} - P_{oldal})$$
 (36)

$$\alpha_j^{t(T+1)} = \alpha_j^{t(T+1)} - \gamma^{(T+1)} \mathbf{x} (P_{oldal} - P_{oldE})$$
 (37)

Here $\gamma^{(T+1)} = \gamma_o/(T+1)$ is the step size updated in each iteration of SGD, γ_o is the initialized step size value. $P_{oldw} = \sigma[(\mathbf{w}^{s(T)} - \mathbf{w}^{t(T)})'\mathbf{x}], P_{oldal} = \sigma[(\alpha_j^{s(T)} - \alpha_j^{t(T)})'\mathbf{x}]$ are introduced for the convenience of presentation. After the SGD update, to overcome overfitting, $\mathbf{w}^s, \mathbf{w}^t, \alpha_j^t, \alpha_j^t$ are normalized to have a L2 norm smaller than a constant C. Algorithm 2 summarizes the overall process of RAM.

4 SCENARIO 2: ACTIVE CROWDSOURCING

Considering that the labeling budget is often limited, whereas annotating the whole dataset may lead to unnecessary information redundancy, we extend NAM and RAM to the active crowdsourcing learning scenario to query and learn from the most valuable annotations. We consider the pool-based active learning case and first give the formal description of the learning setting and process.

Different from the previous scenario with pre-collected annotations, we are given a small number of N_l initially labeled examples with groundtruth available $D_l = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{z}_1, \{\mathbf{y}_{1j}\}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_{N_l}, \mathbf{z}_{N_l}, \{\mathbf{y}_{N_lj}\})\}$, with \mathbf{z}_i denoting the groundtruth of \mathbf{x}_i , \mathbf{y}_{ij} denoting worker j's annotation for \mathbf{x}_i . Besides, a pool of N_u unlabeled examples $D_u = \{\mathbf{x}_{N_l+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N_l+N_u}\}$ are available. During the learning process with M workers available for annotating, we iteratively alternate between the two steps: we select the most valuable annotation to query from the workers, and update the crowdsourcing classifier given the annotations.

Based on the previous learning process, NAM and RAM can respectively get an estimation of each worker's expertise \mathbf{e}_{ij}^l , q_{ij}^{st} over individual label and label pairs, as implemented in Eq.6, Eq.24, and the classifier $f_{0,\theta}^l(\mathbf{x}_i) = (\mathbf{w}_0^l)'\mathbf{x}_i$, $\mathbf{f}_l(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^{l'}\mathbf{x}_i$ on each label. In the following, we introduce the instance, label, and worker selection criteria computed based on the prediction results of NAM and RAM.

Instance Selection To select the most informative instance for the current multi-label classifier, typical methods defined some uncertainty measure for the instances considering the prediction uncertainty over labels, such as the average or minimal margin of all labels to their respective svm classifier [44], [45]. In this work, driven by our crowdsourcing query setting, we adopt the query diversity regularized uncertainty measure QCI defined in [46], which was extended from the LCI (Label Cardinality Inconsistency) measure proposed in [47], for our instance selection.

LCI was motivated by the label cardinality observation that the multi-label instances usually have similar number of positive labels. Defined as the inconsistency between the number of predicted positive labels of instances and the average number of positive labels of the initial labeled data, LCI was formulated as:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}_i} LCI(\mathbf{x}_i) = |\sum_{l=1}^{L} I(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_i^l = 1) - \frac{1}{N_l} \sum_{j=1}^{N_l} \sum_{l=1}^{L} I(\mathbf{z}_j^l = 1)|.$$
 (38)

Here $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_i^l$ is the label estimation of instance \mathbf{x}_i on l. To avoid always querying the most uncertain instances, Huang *et al.* [46] extended LCI to QCI as:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}_{i}} QCI(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = \frac{|\sum_{l=1}^{L} I(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{i}^{l} = 1) - \frac{1}{N_{l}} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{l}} \sum_{l=1}^{L} I(\mathbf{z}_{j}^{l} = 1)|}{\max\{0.5, \mathsf{anno}(\mathbf{x}_{i})\}}.$$
 (39)

Here $anno(\mathbf{x}_i)$ denotes the queried times of instance \mathbf{x}_i and 0.5 is used avoid zero divisor.

Different from conventional active learning where each label is queried at most one time, in crowdsourcing, each label can be queried for multiple times from several workers. Thus the query regularization is meaningful to give more chance to the less queried instances which could contain more unknown information. In the experiment, we give some analysis over the instance selection criteria.

Label Selection Previous multi-label active learning mainly select labels which are most uncertain such as labels closest to the decision boundary [46], or which improve the classifier best like minimizing the generalization error [48]. Different from them, we consider the *label sparsity* property of multi-label tasks, i.e., the number of *positive* labels for each example is far less than the number of the *negative* counterparts, and their information is critical for learning. Given the selected instance \mathbf{x}_* by Eq.39, we propose to query its l most possibly positive labels, i.e., the top-l ranked labels predicted by the classifier:

$$L_l^* = \{ l^* \mid \mathbf{w}^{l^*} \mathbf{x}_{i^*} \text{ ranks top } l \text{ among label predictions } \}.$$
 (40)

We test l with varying values in the experiments.

Annotator Selection Given the selected instance and label (\mathbf{x}_{i^*}, l^*) by Eq. 39 and Eq. 40, we need to select the most reliable annotator to collect high quality annotations. For

Algorithm 3 The Active Crowdsourcing Procedure

Input: data $D = \{D_l, D_u\}$

- 1: Initialize the crowdsourcing data D_c as D_l , learn the crowdsourcing model on D_c using NAM/RAM
- 2: Repeat:
- 3: Get label predictions for each $\mathbf{x} \in D_u$
- 4: Select instance \mathbf{x}_{i^*} by Eq. 39
- 5: Select the labels L_l^* for \mathbf{x}_{i^*} by Eq. 40
- Select worker j* for x_{i*} by Eq. 41/ Eq. 42 for NAM/RAM
- 7: Query $\{\mathbf{y}_{i^*j^*}^l\}$ for \mathbf{x}_{i^*} on $l^* \in L^*_l$ from workers j^*
- 8: Add $\{\mathbf{y}_{i^*j^*}^{l^*}\}$ to the crowdsourcing data D_c
- 9: Update crowdsourcing model on D_c by NAM/RAM
- 10: **Until** The maximum number of queries is reached

Test:

1: For instance \mathbf{x}_t , get the label predictions using the multi-label classifier

NAM, Eq. 6 provides each worker's expertise \mathbf{e}_{ij}^l over each label l, thus we select the most reliable worker by

$$NAM: j^* = \arg\max_{j} \mathbf{e}_{i^*j}^{l^*} = \sigma((\mathbf{w}_{j}^{l^*})' \mathbf{x}_{i^*}).$$
 (41)

For RAM, Eq.24 provides each worker's expertise q_{ij}^{st} over each label pair. To select the most reliable worker for the most possibly positive label l^* , we select the worker that gives the most possibly positive annotation:

$$RAM: j^* = \arg\max_{j} \exp(\alpha_j^{l^*} \mathbf{x}_{i^*}). \tag{42}$$

After the instances, labels and annotators are selected, the annotations are queried and added to the training data to update the crowdsourcing model. The overall process is summarized in Algorithm 3.

5 COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

For NAM and RAM, in each EM iteration, their computation complexity in the E-step and M-step are respectively O(LNMd), O(tLNMd) and $O(NL^2Md)$, O(tMd), here t is used to denote the maximum iteration number of GD/SGD for NAM/RAM in the M-step. Besides, the enhanced representation computation for NAM is $O(N^2(d +$ Mk))(computing the distance between all instances costs N^2d , finding the k nearest neighbors for each instance among N instances costs kN). Thus the computation complexity of NAM and RAM are respectively $O(N^2(d+Mk)+$ TtLNMd) and $O(T(NL^2 + t)Md)$, here T denotes the maximum EM iteration number. In the experiment, we use LIBLINEAR [49] to initialize the classifier and workers' parameters and set T = 100, which show good performance. For the active crowdsourcing, the computation composes of the update of the model, and the active selection by Eq. 39-42, which is $O(N_u + M)Ld$.

6 EXPERIMENT 1: GROUNDTRUTH ESTIMATION

In this section, we conduct experiments estimating the groundtruth labels from the given crowdsourcing annotations. We experiment on several simulated and real world datasets with a few baselines.

Baselines We compare with four multi-label crowdsourcing methods **D-DS**, **P-DS**, **ND-DS** [12] and **MLNB** [9]. We also adopt four state of the art single-label crowdsourcing methods **MV**, **DS** [33], **MaxEn** [35] **Yutc** [6] as baselines by applying them on each individual label.

Besides, from the partial label view, the unknown annotations of each worker on its untagged images can be seen as missing entries of the annotation matrix $Y \in \{1,-1,0\}^{N \times (L \times M)}$, where $Y(i,(j-1) \times L+l) = (-1)1$ denotes worker j annotated image i and (did not)tag(ged) label l as positive, $Y(i,(j-1) \times L+l) = 0$ denotes worker j did not annotate image i. Considering entries in Y are repetition annotations over the same label set, thus a low rank structure assumption of Y is reasonable and we adopt the low rank assumption based partial label recovery method \mathbf{Maxide} [29] to recover the missing annotations. Then majority voting is used to get the groundtruth estimation. Maxide exploited instance features as side information and was theoretically and experimentally validated to be superior than alternatives [28].

The parameters for the proposed methods are tuned on a small subset of instances with their groundtruth labels available on our real data dataset1 and fixed during the experiments. For NAM, the neighbor size k is tuned in [1, 2, ..., 10] and set as 5, the prior distribution parameter λ is tuned in $\{10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, ..., 10^{2}\}$ and set as 10^{-3} . For RAM, the initial step size of SGD is set as 5×10^{-4} , and the norm upper bound C is tuned in $\{0.1, 1, ..., 10^5\}$ and set as 100. For practical usage, if the groundtruth labels are not available, their estimations by state of the art methods such as MV and MaxEn[31] can be used as substitution. For baselines, implementation code are provided by their authors and the recommended parameters values are used. Note that in the above baselines, except for Yutc and Maxide utilizing the instance features during learning, other baselines infer the groundtruth labels only from the annotations.

We report the macroF1 (MacF1) classification results, which evaluates the macro average results of the F1 classification score on each class label, with larger value indicating better performance. As RAM currently learns no threshold value to separate the positive and negative predictions, to evaluate the classification performance, we treat the top l ranked labels as positive and other labels as negative. Here l is the number of groundtruth positive labels of each example. For fair of comparison, the best result among this strategy and the heuristic real value threshold strategy (0.5 for crowdsourcing baselines' probabilistic output and 0 for Maxide's signed real valued output) for baselines are used. Similar results on other measures such as microF1, average precision and ranking loss are also obtained and omitted here.

6.1 Simulation Data

In this subsection, we conduct experiments on three multilabel benchmarks from text, image and biology fields.

Text Categorization The *Emotions (Em.)* [50] dataset is a collection of 593 songs that are classified into 6 classes of emotions. Each song has on average 1.9 ± 0.7 labels.

Image Annotation The *Scene* (*Sc.*) [51] dataset contains 2407 natural scene images and 6 possible labels. Each image has on average 1.1 ± 0.2 labels.

TABLE 1
The MacF1 scores of generated workers in **Setting I**

		w1	w2	w3	w4	w5	w6	w7
	p = 90%	.501	.519	.521	.519	.520	.516	.499
Em.	p = 30%		.387	.421	.441	.425	.413	.386
	p = 90%	.590	.590	.595	.586	.587	.592	.592
Sc.	p = 30%	.530	.487		.541	.512	.533	.518
	p = 90%	.603	.603	.609	.604	.603	.605	.607
Ye.	p = 30%	.602	.596	.585	.587	.592	.590	.595

TABLE 2
The MacF1 scores of generated workers in **Setting II**

	w1	w2	w3	w4	w5	w6	w7
p = 90%	.498	.478	.437	.442	.492	.449	.450
Em. $p = 30\%$.481	.392	.472	.447	.473	.434	.513
p = 90%	.533	.449	.520	.535	.460	.466	.435
Sc. $p = 30\%$.530	.500	.529	.498	.510	.524	.493
p = 90%	.598	.569	.599	.595	.574	.597	.601
Ye. $p = 30\%$.565	.575	.582	.578	.597	.574	.587

Gene Functional Classification The Yeast (Ye.) [18] dataset contains 2417 genes and 14 possible class labels. Each gene has on average 4.2 ± 1.6 labels.

We study two types of annotation generating process. In **Setting I**, as binary crowdsourcing tasks, the annotations are generated for each label separately. To simulate workers presenting similar annotations for instances with similar features, we randomly hold out 50% instances of the whole dataset for crowdsourcing learning, whose annotations of each worker are given by the LIBLINEAR [49] classifier trained on each label using random p fraction data of the other half instances. Multiple annotators are simulated by repeating this process for several times. We generate a moderate number of 7 workers for each dataset, and test p=90%, 30% to simulate different worker expertise levels.

In **Setting II**, treating the multi-label tasks different from multiple binary tasks, we simulate the crowds' *effort-saving* behavior of just annotating the few most relevant labels. We use the classic RankSVM [52] multi-label classifier which predicts the relevance ranking of labels. Similar as Setting I, we generate a moderate number of 7 workers for each dataset with two p values.

For both settings, the average and standard deviation performances over 10 times data generation are recorded respectively in Table 3, 4. We also give the average rank of methods on each dataset over different p settings.

Before diving into the massive result details, we first take an overall look at the annotations' quality generated by the above process. For the three datasets and the two annotation generating setting, the MacF1 scores of the workers are shown in Table 1 and Table 2. Comparing Table 1 and Table 2, we can see that the annotations generated by the two processes are quite different. When p=90%, the MacF1 scores of the workers in Setting II are universally lower than that in the Setting I on all datasets, whereas with p=30%, there is no such monotone phenomenon. Besides, scores of the workers generated by Setting II are more diverse compared to that in Setting I.

Now look at the aggregation results in Table 3 and 4, the proposed NAM and RAM always rank the top

TABLE 3

MacF1 results (the larger, the better) (mean ± std.) for **Setting I** on the simulated datasets. • (o) /▼ (∇) indicates that NAM/ RAM is significantly better(worse) than the compared method (paired t-tests at 95% significance level).

	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.
NAM	.620±.016	.628±.005	1.6	.737±.008	.750±.004	1.0	$.607 \pm .003$.617±.003	2.6
RAM	.617±.003	$.631 \pm .003$	2.0	$.724 \pm .008$	$.742 \pm .004$	2.0	$.610 \pm .018$	$.616 \pm .000$	2.3
D-DS	.520±.011•▼	.551±.007•▼	8.6	.675±.009●▼	.636±.001•▼	8.3	.597±.004●▼	.605±.001•▼	5.3
P-DS	.259±.014•▼	.300±.006•▼	11.0	.474±.008●▼	.432±.001•▼	10.0	.469±.003•▼	.471±.001•▼	10.0
ND-DS	.514±.007∙▼	.552±.004●▼	8.3	.674±.005●▼	.637±.000•▼	8.6	.595±.003•▼	.607±.001•▼	5.0
MLNB	Em334±.025•▼	.344±.005•▼	10.0	Sc168±.002•▼	.174±.005•▼	11.0 Ye.	.306±.002•▼	.311±.002•▼	11.0
MV	.606±.014●▼	.610±.005•▼	7.0	.685±.007●▼	.657±.001•▼	7.0	.628±.007∘⊽	.636±.002∘⊽	1.0
DS	.608±.009●▼	.618±.013•▼	4.3	.705±.009●▼	.672±.008•▼	5.3	.576±.007•▼	.595±.004●▼	7.0
MaxEn	.614±.007●▼	.623±.007•▼	4.6	.704±.005•▼	.678±.006●▼	5.6	.560±.005•▼	.575±.003•▼	8.3
Yutc	.611±.012∙▼	.624±.003•▼	4.6	.718±.006•▼	.715±.001•▼	3.0	.514±.001•▼	.583±.003•▼	8.6
Maxide	.611±.004●▼	.624±.002●▼	3.6	.708±.005•▼	.713±.002•▼	4.0	.603±.001•▼	.608±.001•▼	4.6

TABLE 4

MacF1 results (the larger, the better) (mean ± std.) for **Setting II** on the simulated datasets. • (o) /▼ (∇) indicates that NAM/ RAM is significantly better(worse) than the compared method (paired t-tests at 95% significance level).

	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.	p = 90%	p = 30%	avk.
NAM	.615±.009	.634±.015	1.6	.734±.006	.737±.004	1.0	.632±.007	.618±.002	1.6
RAM	.624+.005	.628±.006	2.0	$.727 \pm .008$	$.731 \pm .007$	2.0	.630±.002	.608±.003	2.6
D-DS	.520±.012•▼	.553±.006●▼	9.0	.594±.007•▼	.653±.003•▼	9.0	.587±.005•▼	.592±.002•▼	5.6
P-DS	.289±.005•▼	.327±.031•▼	11.0	.391±.006•▼	.448±.008•▼	10.0	.442+.011•▼	.467±.005•▼	10.0
ND-DS	.529±.008•▼	.560±.012•▼	8.0	.599±.008•▼	.659±.009•▼	8.0	.600+.002•▼	.582±.003•▼	5.0
MLNB	Em344±.016•▼	.333±.017•▼	10.0		.181+.014●▼	11.0 Ye		.305±.001•▼	11.0
MV	.612±.006•▼	.628±.006•	4.0	.632+.012•▼	.674+.010•▼	7.0	.638±.002∘∇	.615±.004▽	1.6
DS	.596±.012•▼	.616±.010•▼	7.0	.645+.009●▼	.691±.011•▼	5.6	.568±.019•▼	.609±.016•▼	6.0
MaxEn	.615±.013▼	.620±.007•▼	3.0	.652+.009•▼	.693±.007•▼	5.3	.544+.006●▼	.569±.015•▼	8.3
Yutc	.613±.009▼	.619±.013•▼	5.3	.714+.007•▼	.732±.005•	3.0	.554+.014•▼	.526±.036•▼	8.6
Maxide	.603±.006•▼	.622±.005•▼	5.0	.705±.005•▼	.710±.008●▼	4.0	.604±.003•▼	.584±.002•▼	5.3

two, followed by Maxide and the single-label baselines. Assuming a low rank structure among the annotations, Maxide achieves not bad performance here, which should be explained by that the training data used to generate the workers are largely overlapped thus making the crowds' annotations differ not too much. Among the multi-label baselines, MLNB ranks the worst. There are possibly two reasons for this phenomenon, first, MLNB considers the label co-occurrence correlation to learn the multi-label taxonomies, for which the label co-occurrence is specially pertinent, but for problems lacking label hierarchies, the label cooccurrence is not as common; second, MLNB uses the same sensitivity and specificity parameter for all workers without modeling crowds' expertise variance. Comparing D-DS, P-DS extending DS [33] to consider label relationship among all label powersets, label set of two labels, ND-DS performs the most effective by using conditional independent label dependency, which overcomes the label sparsity.

Results on Yeast is a bit different, showing that except for the proposed methods, Maxide, MV and D-DS, ND-DS, the rest methods perform even worse than the original annotations. This may be explained by the relative high difficulty of the Yeast dataset, for which each instance is associated with 4 to 5 positive labels thus correctly tagging all proper labels is more difficult.

Another notable thing is that although in Table 1 and 2, each of the workers generated using p=30% training data is less reliable than those generated using 90%, there is no such consequential results in Table 3 and 4, i.e., the aggregation performance for p=30% are not necessarily worse than p=90%. This should be explained by the

larger diversity among workers generated in the p=30% setting. This may suggest that similar as ensemble learning, the diversity among workers also plays a role.

6.2 Real Data

To get real data, we distributed two image annotation tasks on the AMT platform, and ask the workers to annotate the proper labels for the image they see.

dataset1 The dataset1 contains 700 images with 6 candidate labels {desert, beach, sea, mountain, tree, sunriseset}. On average each image has 1.2 ± 0.4 labels. The images with more than one label comprise about 23%. Annotations from 18 workers each annotating no less than 70 images are kept for experiment. On average each worker annotated 267 ± 201 images, each image was annotated by 6.9 ± 2.3 workers.

dataset2 The dataset2 contains 1495 images with 16 candidate labels {desert, beach, sea, boat, mountain, flower, tree, garden, waterfall, building, city, car, person, indoor, sunriseset, sky}. On average each image has 1.8 ± 0.9 labels. The images with more than one label comprise about 61%. Annotations from 15 workers each annotating no less than 100 images are kept. On average each worker annotated 397 ± 453 images, each image was annotated by 10.1 ± 1.4 workers.

We use the two tasks with different instance and label sizes to test the algorithms. The groundtruth labels are annotated by human volunteers, and a 1248-dim fisher vector is extracted as feature representation for each image.

To get some rough idea about the crowds' annotation quality, we conduct some initial analysis. For each worker, we calculate its macroF1 classification result on its corresponding annotated example set: on *dataset1* and *dataset2*,

TABLE 5

MacF1 results (the larger, the better) (mean \pm std.) on *dataset1*. nw denotes the number of workers. \bullet (o) / \blacktriangledown (\triangledown) indicates that NAM/ RAM is significantly better(worse) than the compared method (paired t-tests at 95% significance level).

	Alg.	nw = 1	nw = 3	nw = 5	nw = 7	nw = 9	nw = 11	nw = 13	nw = 15	avg.rk.
	NAM	.745±.131	.823±.027	.862±.018	.878±.016	.890±.013	.895±.005	.897±.004	$.900 \pm .003$	1.2
	RAM	$.726 \pm .148$	$.836 \pm .020$	$.858 \pm .018$	$.869 \pm .011$.883±.012	.892±.008	$.894 \pm .008$.900±.004	1.8
	D-DS	.466±.341•▼	.723±.065●▼	.768±.053●▼	.797±.050●▼	.826±.037●▼	.846±.016●▼	.855±.003•▼	.860±.004●▼	6.0
	P-DS	.243±.183•▼	.350±.064●▼	.365±.045●▼	.381±.040●▼	.397±.028●▼	.408±.013●▼	.414±.004●▼	.417±.003●▼	10.0
	ND-DS	.467±.341•▼	.734±.070•▼	.780±.053●▼	.812±.049●▼	.836±.037●▼	.857±.017●▼	.868±.008•▼	.875±.004●▼	4.8
	MLNB	.141±.041•▼	.192±.014•▼	.189±.011•▼	.186±.006●▼	.207±.016●▼	.204±.017●▼	.204±.011•▼	.206±.008●▼	11.0
	MV	.465±.280•▼	.703±.062●▼	.766±.057●▼	.798±.047●▼	.829±.035●▼	.859±.014●▼	.870±.008•▼	.881±.006●▼	5.6
dataset1	DS	.496±.259●▼	.718±.064●▼	.737±.036●▼	.748±.044●▼	.777±.031●▼	.801±.027●▼	.815±.008•▼	.844±.016●▼	7.5
	MaxEn	.505±.259●▼	.709±.048•▼	.778±.050•▼	.820±.049●▼	.846±.038●▼	.865±.017●▼	.876±.010•▼	.880±.008●▼	4.1
	Yutc	.631±.185●▼	.729±.021•▼	.758±.014●▼	.768±.024●▼	.779±.018•▼	.799±.012●▼	.801±.010•▼	.809±.008•▼	6.9
	Maxide	.729±.093 ▼	.757±.027●▼	.764±.020●▼	.767±.012•▼	.771±.002•▼	.767±.010•▼	.766±.006●▼	.765±.006●▼	7.0

TABLE 6

MacF1 results (the larger, the better) (mean \pm std.) on *dataset2*. nw denotes the number of workers. \bullet (\circ)/ \blacktriangledown (\triangledown) indicates that NAM/ RAM is significantly better(worse) than the compared method (paired t-tests at 95% significance level).

	Alg.	nw = 1	nw = 3	nw = 5	nw = 7	nw = 9	nw = 11	nw = 13	nw = 15	avg.rk.
	NAM	$.406 \pm .143$	$.750 \pm .055$	$.775 \pm .044$.799±.042	.839±.012	.857±.005	$.859 \pm .004$	$.865 \pm .000$	1.1
	RAM	$.389 \pm .145$	$.745 \pm .073$	$.759 \pm .049$	$.788 \pm .028$	$.817 \pm .006$	$.831 \pm .049$	$.828 \pm .006$	$.836 \pm .002$	2.6
	D-DS	.076±.016●▼	.569±.220•▼	.621±.161●▼	.670±.100•▼	.752±.028●▼	.777±.008●▼	.784±.006●▼	.793±.000•▼	6.7
	P-DS	.014±.015•▼	.131±.210•▼	.142±.152•▼	.148±.110•▼	.157±.030●▼	.157±.009●▼	.162±.007•▼	.161±.000•▼	10.1
	ND-DS	.021±.013•▼	.657±.190•▼	.678±.147•▼	.705±.107•▼	.767±.028●▼	.779±.008●▼	.786±.008•▼	.601±.000•▼	5.3
	MLNB	.077±.003•▼	.104±.011•▼	.106±.012•▼	.108±.009●▼	.109±.008●▼	.115±.004●▼	.114±.009•▼	.113±.009•▼	10.6
	MV	.134±.014•▼	.555±.188•▼	.612±.153●▼	.674±.114●▼	.773±.039●▼	.815±.011●▼	.835±.007•	.850±.000∙∇	5.3
	DS	.141±.015•▼	.578±.184•▼	.629±.143●▼	.686±.101•▼	.759±.032●▼	.765±.005●▼	.760±.005•▼	.770±.003•▼	5.9
dataset2	MaxEn	.141±.013•▼	.575±.195●▼	.631±.161●▼	.690±.119●▼	.786±.038●▼	.826±.007●▼	.836±.004●♡	.844±.000∙∇	3.8
	Yutc	.302±.073•▼	.564±.074●▼	.601±.033●▼	.604±.032●▼	.634±.020●▼	.635±.028●▼	.640±.022●▼	.655±.023•▼	7.4
	Maxide	.530±.041∘⊽	.613±.040•▼	.583±.050•▼	.567±.024●▼	.560±.030●▼	.541±.010●▼	.574±.031•▼	.544±.000∙▼	7.4

the macroF1 scores for their 18 and 15 workers are respectively $\{0.62,\ 0.69,0.76,0.77,0.78,\ 0.79,\ 0.80,\ 0.80,\ 0.80,\ 0.82,\ 0.83,\ 0.83,\ 0.83,\ 0.83,\ 0.84,\ 0.85,\ 0.85,\ 0.91\ \},\ \{0.60,\ 0.71,\ 0.75,\ 0.76,\ 0.76,\ 0.76,\ 0.76,\ 0.77,\ 0.77,\ 0.78,\ 0.78,\ 0.80,\ 0.80,\ 0.83,\ 0.85\ \}.$ We can see that the crowds' macroF1 scores are mainly around [0.70,0.80], indicating that most workers are intending to provide good annotations.

Following [7], [31], we show the approaches' varying performance affected by the numbers of annotations each example receives. Workers are added one by one randomly. To alleviate the effects of worker order randomness, the process is repeated for 10 times. The average and standard deviation results as the number of workers varies from 1 to 15 for the two datasets are shown in Table 5, 6.

It can be seen that in most cases, NAM and RAM achieve significant better performance than baselines. Though the partial label learning approach Maxide performs nice when the number of workers is small (less than 5), it fails to gain more benefits when the number of annotations increases, which should be due to its ignorance of modeling the crowds' expertise. This indicates that crowdsourcing learning itself is different from other problems, for which careful attention to crowds' labeling expertise should be paid.

For the crowdsourcing baselines, we can see an overall monotone performance increasing trend as the number of workers grows from small, and tend to reach a flat level as the number of workers become large. Similar as results on the simulation data, MLNB ranks the worst. Comparing D-DS, P-DS and ND-DS, ND-DS achieves the best performance by using conditional independent label dependency properties to overcome the data sparsity problem.

Among the single-label baselines, when the number of workers is less than 11, there is an obvious gap between them and our proposed methods, suggesting that to get the same good performance, NAM and RAM needs much fewer annotations. While MV and MaxEn increase faster as annotations grow, other baselines increase slower and achieve relatively inferior results. Ignoring label correlations and the crowds' specific annotating expertise on multi-label tasks, treating multi-label crowdsourcing tasks as repetitions of single-label problem shows inferiority.

Taking into account the local influence of neighborhoods' label correlations, and crowds' effort-saving annotating behavior, our NAM and RAM achieves the best performance.

6.3 Parameter Study

In the above results, parameters are fixed for NAM and RAM. Here we explore the effects of the two parameters λ and neighbor size k to NAM, and the norm upper bound C to RAM. Tuning λ in $\{10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, ..., 10^2\}$ and k in $\{0, 5, 9, 13\}$ for NAM, tuning C in $\{0.1, 1, ..., 10^5\}$ for RAM, we report the *MacroF1* results on *dataset1* and *dataset2* with 5 and 15 workers in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

From Figure 2, we can see that compared to the mild effect of k, the value of λ affects the learning more significantly. With all four k values, the performance of NAM is stably good (degenerates much) for λ no larger than 10^{-3} (no smaller than 10^{-2}). For the neighbor size k, the performance improves as k increases from 0 to 5, and degenerates as k becomes large. This is reasonable as the effects of far away neighbors become weak. Given the results in Figure 2, we suggest $\lambda=10^{-3}$ and k=5 in practical use.

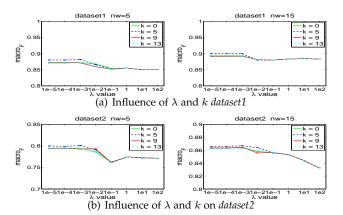


Fig. 2. Influence of the two parameters λ and neighborsize k for NAM with two different number of workers nw=5 and nw=15.

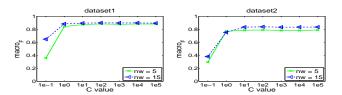


Fig. 3. Influence of parameter C for RAM on dataset1 and dataset2 with two different number of workers nw=5 and nw=15.

From Figure 3, we can see C shows a similar effect on RAM as λ on NAM, with stably good performance when no smaller than 100, the value we use in the experiments. It's not strange that same preference for C are shared over datasets since the performance variance due to the varying of data size (number of instances, labels, and annotations) is normalized out using SGD optimization.

7 EXPERIMENT 2: ACTIVE CROWDSOURCING 7.1 Setup

In this section, we study the effect of active crowdsourcing strategies on the two real datasets. For each dataset, we randomly partition the instances into three parts comprising 5%, 70% and 25% of the whole data to construct the initial labeled annotated training data, the unlabeled training data and the test data. At each query, the (instance, label, worker) triple(s) are selected and their annotations are added into the data to update the learning model. The average performances over five times random data partition is reported.

Comparison I We conduct two sets of comparisons. First, we fix the instance selection strategy as QCI [46] defined in Eq. 39, and test the following label and worker selection strategies for NAM and RAM: 1)LP, 2)LU, 3)LR which select label that is most possibly to be Positive (using Eq. 40), select label that is most Uncertain(label probability closest to 0.5), and select label Randomly; 1)WE, 2)WR which select worker that is most Expertised (using Eq. 41/ Eq. 42 for NAM/RAM), and select workers Randomly. To get an intuition on the relative performance of the proposed method, we also incorporate the Single-label Active Crowdsourcing (SAC) method [37] as baseline. SAC selects the most uncertain instance (with one label whose probability is closest to 0.5) to query from the most reliable worker (with highest labeling accuracy).

Comparison II In the second comparison, we demonstrate the effectiveness of the QCI instance selection criterion we adopted from [46]. Fixing the label and worker selection strategy as LP and WE, we investigate the effect of three instance selection strategies: 1)the QCI strategy in Eq. 39, 2)the LCI in Eq. 38, and 3) Random instance selection.

We test the number of queried labels l=1,3. To take advantage of the newly added annotations, the *enhanced* instance representations for NAM are updated after every 50 queries. The results for the two kinds of comparisons are shown in Figure 4-5 and Figure 6.

7.2 Results and Analysis

Results of Comparison I We first look at the results for Comparison I with l = 1 in Figure 4(a) and 4(b). To give a clear demonstration, we show three plots for each data, representing the results of the three label selection strategies while fixing the worker selection strategy as WE, WR, and the comparison of WE and WR with the label selection fixed as LP. Comparing the results of NAM on dataset1 in the left three plots of Figure 4(a), we can see that: 1) either with WE or WR, comparing LP, LU and LR, a) in most time, LP is much better than the LR random selection, b) LU sometimes does not performs good until enough annotations are collected, for example, 500, 800 on dataset1 with worker selection strategy WE, WR. This phenomenon is more obvious on dataset2 which concerns 16 labels. This could be due to the label sparsity property where the queried annotations are mostly negative, whose contribution to modeling the crowds maybe misleading; 2) fixing the label selection strategy as LP, the comparison of WE and WR in the third figure of the left (right) three plots validates that WE always performs better than WR. In the right three plots of Figure 4(a) for NAM on dataset2 with larger number of labels, more obvious gaps between comparison methods are observed. With the same setting, the comparison of RAM with different label and worker selection strategies are similarly shown in Figure 4(b), from which the proposed LP and WE strategies are most effective.

For the results of l=3 in Figure 5, we get similar comparison between the strategies, but with smoother and faster converged results (3000 queries compared to 5000 for l=1), especially on *dataset2* with a rather larger label set. From this we recommend l=3 for practical usage, which is a moderate number of labels for the workers to tag, and at the same time makes the learning process more efficient.

Results of Comparison II The results of Comparison II are shown in Figure 6. We omit the similar results for dataset2 due to space limitation. From Figure 6 we can see that, with label and worker selection fixed as LP and WE, QCI consistently performs better than random and LCI, but not that significant as the effect of label and worker selection. It's noteworthy that random selection here is a rather strong choice, which actually is not rare case for multi-label active learning tasks. The reason is probably because the informativeness of multi-label data could be ambiguously distributed over the instance set, due to the intrinsic simultaneous concern of multiple label, and random selection gives even chance to instances which may capture more valuable information.

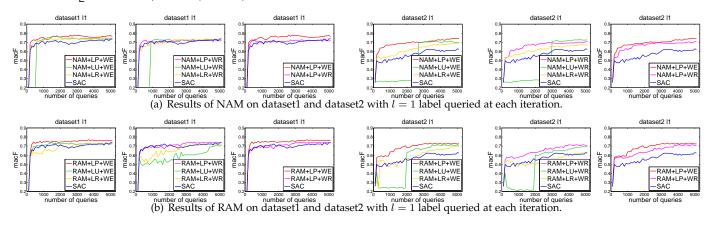


Fig. 4. Results for label strategies $\{LP, LU, LR\}$ and worker strategies $\{WE, WR\}$ with queried labels l=1. Instances selection is fixed as QCI.

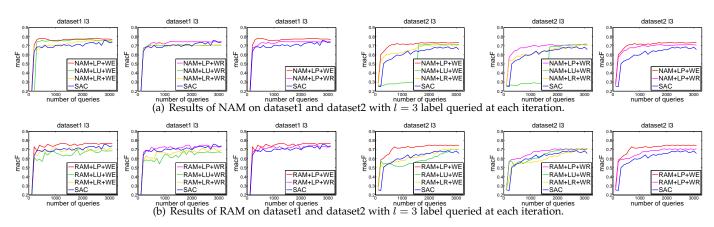


Fig. 5. Results for label strategies $\{LP, LU, LR\}$ and worker strategies $\{WE, WR\}$ with queried labels l=3. Instances selection is fixed as QCI.

Comparing the effects of instance, label, and worker strategies, from Figure 4-5, 6, we can see that the label and worker strategies play significant roles in finding the helpful annotations. With label and worker selection fixed as LP and WE, the instance can be selected with more flexibility. For example, in scenarios where efficiency is more concerned, random instance can be used which is very fast compared to active instance selection.

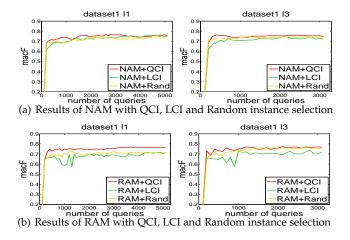


Fig. 6. Instance selection strategy study for NAM and RAM on dataset1, with top ranked queried label 1,3.

8 Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, we deal with multi-label crowdsourcing learning and propose two approaches NAM/RAM (Neighborhood/Relevance Aware Multi-label crowdsourcing) modeling the crowds' expertise and label correlations from different perspectives. Based on the idea that instances similar in the feature space should share similar annotations, NAM models the crowds' expertise on each individual label and utilizing the local influence of neighborhoods' label correlations. RAM captures the workers' *effort-saving* annotating behavior and models their expertise as their ability to distinguish the label relevance. Considering that the labeling budget is always limited, we also extend NAM and RAM to the active crowdsourcing learning paradigm.

Currently, we do not pay special attention to spammer workers which provide no beneficial annotations, for future work, we would like to conduct spammer worker filtering. Besides, a number of issues arise in scenarios of large label crowdsourcing: firstly, simply presenting the whole label set to the crowds would be too low-efficient and result in uncontrollable labeling errors; secondly, the computational complexity is a big problem. Thus efficient and effective label collection modes and learning algorithms are worth study directions, e.g., richer information collection including but not limited to membership labels, strategies on label grouping or problem reduction to transform the problem into smaller easy to handle subproblems.

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