### Label Consistency-based Worker Filtering for Crowdsourcing

Jiao Li<sup>1</sup>

Liangxiao Jiang\*1

Chaoqun Li<sup>2</sup>

Wenjun Zhang<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Computer Science, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan 430074, China. <sup>2</sup>School of Mathematics and Physics, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan 430074, China.

#### **Abstract**

In crowdsourcing scenarios, we can obtain multiple noisy labels from different crowd workers on the Internet for each instance and then infer its unknown true label via a label integration method. However, noisy labels often have a serious negative impact on label integration. In this case, most existing works always focus on designing more complex label integration methods to infer unknown true labels more accurately from multiple noisy labels, but little attention has been paid to another perspective, i.e., purifying noisy labels before label integration. In this paper, we aim to purify noisy labels for existing label integration methods and propose a label consistency-based worker filtering (LCWF) algorithm. In LCWF, we consider that if all low-quality workers are filtered out and only high-quality workers remain, the label consistency should be high. Therefore, we utilize label consistency to filter out low-quality workers. Firstly, we directly transform the worker filtering problem into a discrete optimization problem and utilize label consistency to define the fitness function for this problem. Then, we search for the optimal solution to this problem by a genetic algorithm. Finally, we filter out all labels from low-quality workers according to the optimal solution we obtained. Experimental results on simulated and real-world datasets demonstrate that LCWF can effectively purify noisy labels and improve the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods.

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

Supervised learning has been proven to be incredibly powerful in various fields due to its ability to learn from labeled

data [Jiang et al., 2019a, Zhang et al., 2023a]. In supervised learning, a large amount of high-quality labeled data is an essential requisite for effective model learning [Wang and Wu, 2021, Chen et al., 2022b]. Traditionally, labeling tasks are primarily performed by experts in the field or well-trained workers. The labels obtained by this way show high quality, but result in high economic and time costs [Li et al., 2016, Xu et al., 2021, Zhu et al., 2023].

Fortunately, the advent of crowdsourcing has provided a cost-effective and convenient way for extensive label collection [Liang et al., 2022, Zhang, 2022]. Through crowdsourcing platforms [Buhrmester et al., 2011] such as Crowdflower, Click-worker and Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT), we can post crowdsourcing tasks and then obtain a large number of labels from hired crowd workers at a low cost [Chen et al., 2022a, Tong et al., 2020]. However, due to the lack of experience, well-training, etc., the quality of labels obtained from an individual crowd worker on the Internet is usually poor [Rodrigues and Pereira, 2018, Chen et al., 2020]. To address this problem, repeated labeling is proposed [Sheng et al., 2008], in which multiple noisy labels are provided by different crowd workers for each instance and then its unknown true label can be inferred via a label integration method [Ma et al., 2015].

In the past few years, although many works have proved the effectiveness of label integration, the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods is still far from perfect. This is primarily due to the serious negative impact from noisy labels. In this case, lots of efforts have been made by researchers on designing more complex label integration methods to infer unknown true labels more accurately. These label integration methods include: majority voting (MV) [Sheng et al., 2008], Dawid-Skene (DS) [Dawid and Skene, 1979], ZenCrowd (ZC) [Demartini et al., 2012], generative model of labels, abilities, and difficulties (GLAD) Whitehill et al. [2009], ground truth inference using clustering (GTIC) [Zhang et al., 2016], iterative weighted majority voting (IWMV) [Li and Yu, 2014], label similarity-based weighted soft majority voting (LSWSMV) [Tao et al., 2020],

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author, Liangxiao Jiang <ljiang@cug.edu.cn>

differential evolution-based weighted soft majority voting (DEWSMV) [Tao et al., 2021], multiple noisy label distribution propagation (MNLDP) [Jiang et al., 2022], label augmented and weighted majority voting (LAWMV) [Chen et al., 2022c], attribute augmentation-based label integration (AALI) [Zhang et al., 2023b], instance redistribution-based label integration (IRLI) [Zhang et al., 2024], etc.

As mentioned above, most existing works always focus on designing more complex label integration methods to infer unknown true labels more accurately from multiple noisy labels, but little attention has been paid to another perspective, i.e., purifying noisy labels before label integration. In theory, noisy labels are usually from low-quality workers. If we are able to filter out all low-quality workers, we can purify most of the noisy labels and subsequently reduce their negative impact on label integration. Therefore, in this paper, we aim to purify noisy labels by worker filtering to improve the performance of existing label integration methods.

To this end, we propose a label consistency-based worker filtering (LCWF) algorithm. In LCWF, we consider that if all low-quality workers are filtered out and only high-quality workers remain, the label consistency should be high. Therefore, we utilize label consistency to filter out low-quality workers. Firstly, we directly transform the worker filtering problem into a discrete optimization problem and utilize label consistency to define the fitness function for this problem. Then, we search for the optimal solution to this problem by a genetic algorithm. Finally, we filter out all labels from low-quality workers according to the optimal solution we obtained. In general, the contributions of this work can be summarized as follows:

- We propose to purify noisy labels before label integration to infer unknown true labels more accurately.
  Different from most existing works focusing on designing more complex label integration methods with better performance, we aim to purify noisy labels for existing label integration methods, which provides a new perspective for improving the performance of label integration.
- 2. We propose a label consistency-based worker filtering (LCWF) algorithm to purify noisy labels for existing label integration methods. In LCWF, we transform the worker filtering problem into a discrete optimization problem and utilize label consistency to define the fitness function. Then, a genetic algorithm is used to search for the optimal solution to this problem.
- 3. We conduct extensive experiments to evaluate the proposed LCWF on real-world and simulated datasets. The experimental results show that LCWF can effectively purify noisy labels and improve the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the work related to this paper. Section 3 introduces

the proposed LCWF in detail. Section 4 reports the experiments and results on real-world and simulated datasets. Section 5 summarizes this paper and outlines the research directions of future work.

#### 2 RELATED WORK

To infer unknown true labels from multiple noisy labels in crowdsourcing, label integration has attracted a great deal of attention from researchers. A variety of label integration methods have been proposed for better performance [Sheng and Zhang, 2019].

MV [Sheng et al., 2008] is the simplest label integration method, which regards the label with the highest votes as the integrated label directly. However, MV ignores the difference in the label quality of crowd workers, so its performance is very limited. After MV, more complex label integration methods have been proposed one after another for better performance. Specifically, DS [Dawid and Skene, 1979] jointly estimates the confusion matrix of each worker and the integrated label of each instance by the EM algorithm [Singh, 2006]. ZC [Demartini et al., 2012] uses a two-element parameter to iteratively estimate the reliability of each worker. GLAD [Whitehill et al., 2009] builds a probability model to infer the integrated labels, the labeling difficulty of instances and the professional level of crowd workers. GTIC [Zhang et al., 2016] uses the K-means algorithm to cluster all instances into distinct clusters and then assigns the same class label to instances within the same cluster. IWMV [Li and Yu, 2014] first uses original integrated labels obtained by MV to estimate the label quality of each worker, and then iteratively updates both the label quality and the integrated label.

In recent years, more label integration methods have been proposed from various novel perspectives, and they have further improved the performance of label integration. For example, DEWSMV [Tao et al., 2021] defines three objective functions to optimize the label quality of workers when labeling different instances by a differential evolution (DE) algorithm. Jiang et al. [2022] propose MNLDP, which first converts multiple noisy labels to multiple noisy label distributions and then optimizes the weights of the nearest neighbors. Finally, each instance obtains a portion of multiple noisy label distributions from its nearest neighbors while retaining a portion of its own. Chen et al. [2022c] propose LAWMV, which finds neighbors by the KNN algorithm to augment each instance's multiple noisy labels and obtains the integrated labels by weighted majority voting. Zhang et al. [2023b] propose AALI, which designs an attribute augmentation method to enrich the original attribute space and builds multiple component classifiers on reliable instances to predict the integrated labels.

Although label integration is often effective, a certain level

of noise still remains in the integrated labels. To our knowledge, since Li et al. [2016] propose to employ noise filters to filter the noise in integrated labels, plentiful works has been developed on noise handling after label integration. Noise handling consists of two steps: noise filtering and noise correction. Representative works on noise filtering include: CF [Gamberger et al., 1999], MVF [Brodley and Friedl, 1999], IPF [Khoshgoftaar and Rebours, 2007], etc. Representative works on noise correction include: PL [Nicholson et al., 2016], STC [Nicholson et al., 2016], CTNC [Dong et al., 2022], DVNC [Ji et al., 2023], etc.

However, the goal of these works is to purify the noise that is still present in the integrated labels after label integration, and the work aiming to purify the noise in the crowd labels before label integration is still limited. As we have analyzed, filtering low-quality workers can be an effective way to purify noisy labels. There exists a few works focus on worker filtering in crowdsourcing. For example, Raykar and Yu [2012] define the worker who assigns labels randomly for each instance as a spammer, and then propose an empirical Bayesian algorithm called SpEM to iteratively filter out the spammers. However, low-quality workers are not just likely to provide random labels. Therefore, this method cannot identify all low-quality workers. In addition, Dekel and Shamir [2009] evaluate the quality of each worker and filter out the low-quality ones with a very simple algorithm. But they only focus on the setting of a single noisy label per instance and binary classification problems. Therefore, in this paper, we aim to purify noisy labels for existing label integration methods and propose a label consistency-based worker filtering (LCWF) algorithm. Different from above works on worker filtering, LCWF considers low-quality workers without specific assumptions on their labeling strategy and is applicable to multi-class classification problems. We will describe LCWF in detail in Section 3.

# 3 LABEL CONSISTENCY-BASED WORKER FILTERING

#### 3.1 MOTIVATION

In crowdsourcing scenarios, a crowdsourced dataset is usually denoted by a set  $D = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{L}_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ , where N denotes the number of all instances in D,  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$  denotes the i-th instance and  $\boldsymbol{L}_i = \{l_{ir}\}_{r=1}^R$  denotes a multiple noisy label set associated with  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ . In  $\boldsymbol{L}_i$ ,  $l_{ir}$  denotes the label of  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$  from the worker  $u_r$   $(r=1,2,\ldots,R)$  and takes the value from a fixed set  $\{c_1,c_2,\ldots,c_Q,-1\}$ , where R and R denote the number of all workers and all classes, respectively. When  $l_{ir}$  takes as -1, it denotes that  $u_r$  does not label  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ . To infer the unknown true label  $y_i$  for the instance  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ , label integration is usually used to obtain an integrated label  $\hat{y}_i$  from  $\boldsymbol{L}_i$ , which is expected to be as consistent as possible with  $y_i$ .

Table 1: Multiple noisy labels of five instances.

	$u_1$	$u_2$	$u_3$	$u_4$	$u_5$
$oldsymbol{x}_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_1$
$oldsymbol{x}_2$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_2$
$\boldsymbol{x}_3$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_3$
$\boldsymbol{x}_4$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_3$
$x_5$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$

Table 2: Multiple noisy labels after filtering out a low-quality worker  $u_5$ .

	$u_1$	$u_2$	$u_3$	$u_4$
$oldsymbol{x}_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$
$\boldsymbol{x}_2$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$\boldsymbol{x}_3$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$
$\boldsymbol{x}_4$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_1$	$c_1$
$oldsymbol{x}_5$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$

Table 3: Multiple noisy labels after filtering out a high-quality worker  $u_1$ .

	$u_2$	$u_3$	$u_4$	$u_5$
$oldsymbol{x}_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_1$
$oldsymbol{x}_2$	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_2$
$\boldsymbol{x}_3$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_3$
$\boldsymbol{x}_4$	$c_2$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_3$
$oldsymbol{x}_5$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_1$	$c_2$

As mentioned above, in this paper, we aim to purify noisy labels before label integration to improve the performance of existing label integration methods. As noisy labels usually from low-quality workers, we consider to purify noisy labels by filtering out low-quality workers. So the key problem we have to solve is how to identify the low-quality workers.

For this purpose, we first anticipate the status when only high-quality workers remain and then attempt to achieve this status. Specifically, since it is easier to reach a consensus among high-quality workers, it is natural to note that if all low quality workers are filtered out and only highquality workers remain, the label consistency should be high. In other words, the multiple noisy labels of each instance should be highly consistent. Let us illustrate this with a concrete example. Assume that there exists five instances  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^5$  from a multi-class dataset, and the true label of these instances is  $c_1$ . Five different workers  $\{u_r\}_{r=1}^5$  have labeled them, which are shown in Table 1, where we use red to mark the correct labels and blue to mark the incorrect labels. It is obvious that the worker  $u_5$  is more likely to be a low-quality worker since most of the labels from  $u_5$  are incorrect. And other workers are more likely to be high-quality workers since most of their labels are correct. If the low-quality worker  $u_5$  is filtered out, the multiple noisy labels become more consistent, as shown in Table 2. On the contrary, if a high-quality worker  $u_1$  is filtered out, the multiple noisy labels become less consistent, as shown in

Table 3. Therefore, we can conclude that if higher label consistency is obtained after worker filtering, the workers who are filtered out are more likely to be low-quality workers.

It should be noted that, this conclusion is based on the assumption that there are more correct labels than incorrect labels. In fact, for a valuable crowdsourcing dataset, the proportion of correct labels really should be larger than the proportion of incorrect labels, and only based on this MV and most label integration methods can be performed effectively [Sheng et al., 2008, Karger et al., 2014]. So in this general crowdsourcing scenarios we focus on, the conclusion above can be made. Inspired by this conclusion, we attempt to identify low-quality workers by maximizing the label consistency after worker filtering. At this point, we have transformed the worker filtering problem into a discrete optimization problem with the goal of maximizing the label consistency after worker filtering.

In the past years, how to solve discrete optimization problems has already been widely studied, and various corresponding algorithms have been proposed, among which genetic algorithm (GA) [Holland, 1992] is a well-known one. Due to its powerful characteristics, GA has been applied successfully to a variety of discrete optimization problems, and various variants of GA have been proposed by researchers, which can broadly be classified into five main categories: real and binary coded [Shukla et al., 2019], multi-objective [Emmerich and Deutz, 2018], parallel [Harada and Alba, 2021], chaotic [Wang and Sobey, 2020], and hybrid GAs [El-Mihoub et al., 2006]. Although these variants of GA can deal with different scenarios well, them are relatively complex to be applied to solve the problem of this paper. In this paper, we just carry on the standard GA to identify and then filter out low-quality workers.

#### 3.2 THE PROPOSED LCWF

How to perform GA to identify the low-quality workers is the core problem we need to solve in this section. Generally speaking, although the details of different implementations of GA is various, they commonly share the same structure as follows: The algorithm operates by iteratively updating a pool of hypotheses, called the population. On each iteration, each member within the population is evaluated according to a fitness function and improved by three evolutionary operators: selection, crossover, and mutation. We follow the general structure of GA and adapt it to identify low-quality workers as follows:

**Initialization:** Firstly, we initialize a pool of hypotheses to form an initial population. We represent a hypothesis by a binary bit string, which corresponds to a solution for worker filtering. Specifically, for the k-th hypothesis  $h_k$  in the population  $P = \{h_k\}_{k=1}^K$ , where K denotes the population size, we represent  $h_k$  as  $\{h_{k1}, h_{k2}, \ldots, h_{kr}, \ldots, h_{kR}\}$ ,

where  $h_{kr} \in \{0, 1\}$ . If  $h_{kr}$  is 0, it means that the r-th worker  $u_r$  is identified as a low-quality worker. We randomly generate K hypotheses to P. In this way, we obtain the initial population P for the following evolutionary operators.

**Selection:** The selection operator is often used to select a certain proportion of hypotheses from the current population to the next generation or to produce offspring as parents. The probability of a hypothesis being selected is closely related to its fitness. Specifically, the hypothesis with higher fitness is more likely to be selected. In LCWF, we apply the roulette wheel selection as the selection operator. The probability of the hypothesis  $\boldsymbol{h}_k$  being selected is calculated as follows:

$$Pr(\boldsymbol{h}_k) = f(\boldsymbol{h}_k) / \sum_{k=1}^{K} f(\boldsymbol{h}_k),$$
 (1)

where f is a fitness function that assigns a fitness for a given hypothesis. According to the probability calculated by Eq.(1), in each generation, we select (1-s)\*K members of P to the next generation directly, where s is the fraction of the population to be replaced by crossover.

**Crossover:** Crossover is a crucial operator for the production of offspring in GA. In the crossover operator, the bit at each position r in each offspring is from the bit at the position r in one of the two parents. In LCWF, for each pair of parents, we produce two offspring by applying the uniform crossover operator. Firstly, for each position r, we randomly decide whether we need to swap the bit at the position r in parents. Then, after all bits have been determined, we copy the parents directly to the offspring. According to the probability calculated by Eq. (1), in each generation, we select s\*K/2 pairs of hypotheses from the population P to produce offspring by the crossover operator, and then we add these offspring to the next generation.

**Mutation:** The mutation operator is a useful approach to maintain the diversity of the population and escape from the local optimum. In each generation, we randomly select m percent of hpotheses to mutate. Specifically, we invert one randomly selected bit in their representation. That is, if the randomly selected bit is 1, we invert it to 0, Otherwise 1.

Now, the only left problem is how to design the fitness function, which is critical to LCWF. In the previous subsection, we have analyzed that the goal of GA is to maximize the label consistency after worker filtering. Thus, our fitness function should satisfy the following principle: For the hypothesis  $\boldsymbol{h}_k$  and its corresponding dataset  $D_k$ , which is constructed by filtering out some workers according to  $\boldsymbol{h}_k$ , if  $\boldsymbol{h}_k$  can lead to high label consistency of  $D_k$ , it should be given a high fitness, otherwise a low fitness. To satisfy this principle, for the r-th remained worker  $u_r$  in the dataset  $D_k$ , we calculate  $LC_r$  to measure the label consistency of  $u_r$  with other remained workers as follows:

$$LC_r = \frac{1}{|D_{kr}|} \sum_{i=1}^{|D_{kr}|} \sum_{\substack{r'=1\\l_{ir'\neq -1}}}^{R_k} (I(l_{ir} = l_{ir'}) - I(l_{ir} \neq l_{ir'})),$$

where  $D_{kr}$  is a dataset only containing all instances that have been labeled by  $u_r$  in  $D_k$ .  $R_k$  is the number of all workers in  $D_k$ .  $I(\cdot)$  is an indicator function that outputs 1 if the condition in the parentheses is true and 0 otherwise.

As we can see, the more consistent labels with other remained workers, the higher the  $LC_r$ . At the same time, the fewer inconsistent labels with other remained workers, the lower the  $LC_r$ . So the higher  $LC_r$  indicates a higher level of label consistency of the remained worker  $u_r$  with other remained workers. What's more, the positive and negative values of  $LC_r$  are also indicative. When  $LC_r$  is positive, it indicates that the labels from the remained worker  $u_r$  are generally consistent with those from other remained workers. Thus, the existence of worker  $u_r$  has improved the label consistency of  $D_k$ . So, it is more likely that the worker  $u_r$  should indeed be remained. On the contrary, if  $LC_r$  is negative, it indicates that the existence of the worker  $u_r$  has damaged the label consistency of  $D_k$ . So, it is more likely that the worker  $u_r$  should actually be filtered out.

If all remained workers have a high level of label consistency with other remained workers, the fitness of this hypothesis should be high. So, for the hypothesis  $h_k$ , we sum up the label consistency of each remained worker with other remained workers to calculate its fitness as follows:

$$f(\boldsymbol{h}_k) = \sum_{r=1}^{R_k} LC_r.$$
 (3)

It should be noted that, the fitness  $f(\boldsymbol{h}_k)$  calculated by Eq. (3) may be negative, which is not hoped in the definition of the fitness function. So we restrict the minimum value of the fitness to 0. That is, when the calculated fitness is less than 0, we directly set it to 0. What's more, there may exist some hypotheses that cause certain instances to have no labels after worker filtering. Since not all label integration methods can handle this situation, we also directly set the fitness of these hypotheses to 0.

Now, GA can be performed to identify the low-quality workers who should be filtered out. Furthermore, to guarantee the global convergence of LCWF, we have also adopted the widely used elitism strategy [Ahn and Ramakrishna, 2003] based on the standard GA. According to the elitism strategy, the best hypothesis in the current population will be copied directly into the next generation to replace the worst hypothesis, without any evolutionary operation.

Finally, when the number of generations reaches the maximum number of generations T, we can obtain an optimal

#### **Algorithm 1** LCWF (D, f, K, T, s, m)

**Input:** D: A crowdsourced dataset.

*f*: A fitness function.

K, T, s, m: The predefined parameters.

- 1: **Initialize**: Randomly generate K hypotheses to P.
- 2: **Evaluate**: For each  $h_k$  in P, compute  $f(h_k)$  by Eq. (3).
- 3: **for** t = 1 to T **do**
- 4: Create a new generation  $P^t$ :
- 5: **Select**: Select (1 s) \* K members of P to  $P^t$  according to the Eq. (1).
- 6: **Crossover**: Select s \* K/2 pairs of hypotheses from P according to the Eq. (1). For each pair of hypotheses, produce two offspring and add them to  $P^t$ .
- 7: **Mutate**: Randomly select m percent of hypotheses from  $P^t$  to mutate.
- 8: **Update**: Find the best hypothesis  $h_b$  from P to replace the worst hypothesis  $h_w$  from  $P^t$ . Then replace P with  $P^t$ .
- 9: **Evaluate**: For each  $h_k$  in P, compute  $f(h_k)$  by Eq. (3).
- 10: **end for**
- 11: Find the best hypothesis  $h_b$  from P.
- 12: Filter out labels from D according to  $h_b$  to obtain  $\hat{D}$ .
- 13: Return  $\hat{D}$ .

solution to the worker filtering problem. According to this optimal solution, we filter out all labels of low-quality workers from D to obtain  $\hat{D}$ , which can be fed into existing label integration methods for better performance. The whole learning process of LCWF is described in Algorithm 1.

#### 4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

#### 4.1 EXPERIMENTS SETUP

In this section, we evaluate the effectiveness of LCWF on improving the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods. We use the integration accuracy as the evaluation metric. Here, the integration accuracy is the proportion of integrated labels that are consistent with true labels. In our experiments, we use six state-of-the-art label integration methods: MV [Sheng et al., 2008], GTIC [Zhang et al., 2016], DEWSMV [Tao et al., 2021], MNLDP [Jiang et al., 2022], LAWMV [Chen et al., 2022c] and AALI [Zhang et al., 2023b]. We implement these label integration methods on the crowd environment and its knowledge analysis (CEKA) [Zhang et al., 2015] platform and keep the parameters of them consistent with the original papers. We also implement LCWF on the CEKA platform and set the four parameters K, T, s, m to 80, 50, 0.5, 0.05, respectively. We repeat each experiment in this section 10 times independently, and report the averages as the final results.

Table 4: Integration accuracy (%) comparisons on the uniform distribution.

	N	1V	G	ГІС	DEW	VSMV	MN	ILDP	LAV	WMV	A	ALI
Dataset	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after
anneal	88.57	92.22 •	55.79	74.25 •	88.36	92.05 •	91.92	94.52 •	82.24	87.37 •	90.04	93.64 •
audiology	78.81	84.51 •	76.64	79.73	78.98	84.56 •	76.73	83.45 •	78.14	84.87 •	80.84	83.27 •
autos	92.78	93.66	87.12	85.76	92.05	93.80	89.37	89.61	92.49	94.20 •	92.63	93.51
balance-scale	82.66	88.96 •	82.72	89.26 •	82.59	88.78 •	88.37	92.93	90.51	91.26	83.42	90.48
biodeg	77.39	80.78 •	77.39	82.32 •	77.21	81.08 •	83.08	86.53 •	89.54	90.65 •	81.35	84.85 •
breast-cancer	72.24	73.78 •	72.24	76.19 •	72.06	74.06	72.41	73.29 •	73.01	73.01	73.71	77.24 •
breast-w	76.92	79.11	76.92	80.80 •	76.77	79.37	89.81	91.97	95.65	95.74	78.11	86.71 •
car	80.08	87.82 •	77.32	88.33 •	80.02	87.64 ●	82.69	88.44 •	78.39	86.20 •	81.35	88.52 •
credit-a	72.49	74.41	72.49	74.10	72.23	74.59	75.42	76.03	81.29	81.23	75.52	78.01
credit-g	75.28	79.77 •	75.28	82.23 •	75.22	79.92 •	73.46	76.95 •	76.99	78.62 <b>●</b>	76.28	82.75 •
heart-c	74.06	74.59	41.22	42.97 ●	73.86	75.08	76.77	77.82	79.37	79.57	74.16	75.54
heart-h	77.28	81.63 •	46.16	49.25 •	76.94	80.95 •	80.27	83.64 •	85.07	86.46 •	77.35	81.29 •
heart-statlog	80.74	84.81	80.74	85.63 •	80.41	84.44	82.11	84.11	84.19	84.89 •	84.30	89.11
hepatitis	68.32	72.00	68.32	65.81	68.32	73.16	75.29	78.13	76.52	76.97	58.84	69.87
horse-colic	69.35	71.74	69.35	71.03	68.97	71.52	72.17	74.86	81.74	82.69	68.13	70.71
hypothyroid	85.32	90.78 •	67.29	81.18 •	85.19	90.73 •	94.11	96.13 •	92.29	92.29 •	85.54	90.63 •
ionosphere	71.48	72.91 •	71.48	71.68	71.51	72.88	78.38	76.72 0	72.17	70.97	70.83	71.51
diabetes	81.98	86.25	81.98	87.64	81.61	85.72	81.32	85.18	81.61	82.76	83.41	88.91
iris	81.80	84.80	81.33	83.87	81.93	84.07	95.93	97.47	97.93	98.8	89.07	90.40
kr-vs-kp	65.89	65.98	65.89	66.17	65.68	65.82	75.09	73.74 0	77.13	75.94 0	69.95	69.52
labor	67.02	70.70 •	67.02	68.07	67.02	70.88 •	80.18	78.42 o	79.47	78.95 ∘	74.74	74.21 0
letter	97.34	96.23	97.56	96.99	97.34	96.78	98.54	99.67	98.45	99.89	98.56	99.45
lymph	76.22	85.54 •	75.81	86.42 •	75.74	85.27 ●	81.15	89.80 •	84.86	90.27 •	77.30	87.23 •
mushroom	75.30	77.92 •	76.20	78.40 •	75.80	78.30 •	91.19	91.88 •	91.80	92.30 •	70.20	74.10 •
segment	94.62	92.23 0	94.58	92.18 0	94.55	92.14 0	98.71	98.48 0	96.23	97.35	96.01	94.96 0
sick	70.49	73.04 •	70.49	71.51 •	70.16	72.73 •	81.96	83.99 •	91.77	91.77	71.87	75.17 •
sonar	68.08	71.49 •	68.08	71.35 •	68.22	71.01 •	76.88	81.59 •	76.88	78.75 <b>●</b>	68.94	73.08 •
spambase	72.44	75.35 •	72.44	75.66 •	72.11	75.20 •	77.66	79.74 ●	80.02	80.74 ●	75.46	79.12 •
tic-tac-toe	73.36	76.97 <b>•</b>	73.36	77.84 •	73.15	76.52 •	71.24	72.21	77.97	78.95	74.81	78.90 •
vehicle	92.15	92.96	92.14	92.73	92.13	92.98	92.55	92.71	90.30	93.10	93.43	94.16
vote	77.70	82.55 •	77.70	83.17 •	77.56	82.39 •	87.31	91.10 •	91.52	92.85	78.00	83.98 •
vowel	97.36	95.36 0	97.49	95.34 0	97.35	95.31 0	99.94	99.79	97.93	97.08 0	98.52	96.63 0
waveform	90.04	93.02 •	90.03	92.99	89.79	93.05 •	94.6	95.72	97.82	98.25	92.31	95.23
Z00	86.83	87.43 •	89.90	88.81	87.13	87.03	93.56	95.15	93.56	96.24	89.80	92.48
Average	79.12	82.10	75.60	79.11	79.06	82.05	84.12	86.23	85.73	87.09	80.43	83.98
W/T/L	-	20/12/2	-	18/14/2	-	17/15/2	-	14/16/4	-	13/18/3	-	16/15/3

#### 4.2 EXPERIMENTS ON SIMULATED DATA

We conduct our experiments on the whole 34 simulated crowdsourced datasets published on the CEKA platform<sup>1</sup>. Since some datasets have missing values and the competitor MNLDP [Jiang et al., 2022] used in our experiments cannot handle missing values, we use the mean of numeric features or the mode of nominal features from the available data to replace all missing feature values. After that, we simulate crowd workers to provide labels for instances. We first hide the true labels of all instances and then set the probability p for each worker to provide labels consistent with the hidden true labels. In our simulated experiments, we set the number of workers to 9, and randomly generate each worker's label quality from a uniform distribution in the interval [0.3, 0.9].

Table 4 shows the detailed integration accurey comparison results of six label integration methods on 34 simulated crowdsourced datasets before and after worker filtering by LCWF. We also conduct corrected paired two-tailed t-tests [Nadeau and Bengio, 2003, Jiang et al., 2019b] at 95 percent significance level to compare the integration accuracy before and after worker filtering. The symbols • and ∘ in the table denote statistically improvement or degradation over its competitor, respectively. The average integration accuracy and the Win/Tie/Lose (W/T/L) values are summarized at the bottom of the table. We can see a significant improvement in the integration accuracy of these six methods on most of simulated datasets. Specifically, before worker filtering, the average integration accuracies of MV, GTIC, DEWSMV, MNLDP, LAWMV and AALI are 79.12%, 75.60%, 79.06%, 84.12%, 85.73% and 80.43%, respectively. After worker filtering, the integration accuracies of them are improved

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://ceka.sourceforge.net

Table 5: Integration accuracy (%) comparisons on the Gaussian distribution.

	N	ΙV	G	ГІС	DEW	VSMV	MN	ILDP	LAV	VMV	A	ALI
Dataset	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after
anneal	89.30	91.15 •	53.75	63.50 •	89.16	91.33 •	92.15	93.88 •	82.97	87.09 •	90.7	92.05 •
audiology	81.15	85.75 •	76.15	80.13	81.02	84.60 •	78.72	83.67 •	80.13	84.91 •	82.12	84.38
autos	92.05	92.49	85.56	86.98	91.8	92.00	88.63	88.54	91.61	93.56	91.37	93.07
balance-scale	83.6	87.89 •	83.73	88.13 •	83.39	87.81 •	88.75	92.43 •	90.34	90.67	84.75	90.88 •
biodeg	72.42	75.19 •	72.42	76.75 •	72.23	75.03 •	78.26	81.18 •	85.57	86.68	74.88	78.91 •
breast-cancer	68.88	74.16 •	67.48	74.62 •	68.74	74.06 •	70.59	74.51 •	75.03	76.64	72.73	77.24 •
breast-w	74.64	79.18	74.64	82.35	74.38	79.77	89.04	92.93	95.67	95.77	74.68	87.95
car	78.45	87.40 ●	74.69	87.10 •	78.32	87.41 •	82.24	88.58 •	76.97	86.67 •	79.57	88.41 •
credit-a	70.83	75.10 •	70.83	74.30 •	70.59	75.09 •	75.28	77.32 •	82.17	82.64 •	72.43	77.03 •
credit-g	70.74	72.15	70.74	72.83	70.4	72.01	70.8	71.15	72.8	73.17	72.77	75.09 •
heart-c	70.1	75.05 •	36.67	39.57 •	70.00	75.25 •	73.86	78.61 •	81.49	83.66 •	70.13	76.20 <b>•</b>
heart-h	75.58	78.78	40.41	46.43 ●	75.37	78.57	79.29	82.99	83.47	85.85	75.65	79.86 ●
heart-statlog	73.44	76.74 •	73.44	77.04 •	73.37	76.89 •	76.15	78.63	79.85	80.37	77.67	81.33 •
hepatitis	72.39	75.23	71.16	73.74	72.65	74.71	78.58	78.9	83.03	79.81	68.9	71.29
horse-colic	71.33	73.56	71.33	72.66	71.09	73.29	75.24	75.49	84.59	80.87	68.59	70.6
hypothyroid	83.21	87.49 •	64.12	77.21 •	83.21	87.51 •	92.9	95.29 •	92.29	92.30 •	83.50	87.69 •
ionosphere	79.06	82.22 •	79.06	81.57	78.58	82.22 •	86.89	88.09	80.60	81.79	81.57	82.79
diabetes	67.62	70.7	67.62	72.34	67.55	70.22	71.00	72.72	73.2	74.18	70.39	74.73
iris	87.6	91.13	86.93	90.87	87.6	91.4	98.13	98.6	98.27	99.00	93.27	96.6
kr-vs-kp	76.37	78.59	76.37	78.8	76.11	78.33	85.21	84.85 0	87.07	85.64 0	80.07	81.79
labor	72.81	74.21	72.81	71.93 0	72.63	73.51	78.95	82.81 •	83.16	86.32 •	76.49	77.19
letter	97.78	96.9	97.89	96.83	97.82	96.98	98.56	99.78 •	98.56	99.65 •	98.12	99.53 •
lymph	79.05	86.22 •	80.14	86.01 •	79.39	86.22 •	83.65	88.85 •	85.41	90.20 •	80.68	86.55 •
mushroom	75.79	77.98 •	75.79	78.07 ●	75.49	77.88 •	91.28	91.71 •	92.4	92.73 •	69.5	73.90 •
segment	96.58	95.34 0	96.52	95.41 0	96.6	95.55 0	99.05	98.92 0	96.75	97.60	97.83	97.47 0
sick	77.57	80.16 •	77.57	80.33 •	77.31	79.92	89.37	90.79 •	93.85	93.85 •	79.12	81.03 •
sonar	70.38	74.57 •	70.38	74.18 •	70.19	74.76 •	77.74	81.59 •	77.69	81.20 •	73.08	75.82 •
spambase	70.23	73.74 •	70.23	74.81 •	69.94	73.61 •	76.98	80.80 •	82.06	82.76	71.91	78.28 •
tic-tac-toe	74.75	78.86 <b>●</b>	74.75	80.11 •	74.58	78.76 •	71.57	72.16	80.76	82.53	76.02	81.46
vehicle	89.54	90.92	89.63	90.78	89.14	90.78	91.97	91.77	88.58	91.65	90.93	91.87
vote	70.94	75.38 •	70.94	75.63 •	70.87	74.28 •	80.23	82.48	83.52	83.77 •	72.14	75.45
vowel	96.57	92.92 0	96.68	93.02 0	96.48	92.8 0	99.92	99.54 0	96.54	96.04 0	97.96	94.34 0
waveform	86.06	90.35 •	86.01	90.38	85.83	90.29 •	93.08	94.69	96.96	97.35	90.03	92.82
Z00	86.93	87.72 •	88.42	89.7	87.13	88.42	92.28	94.16	93.66	95.25	90.79	92.18
Average	78.93	81.92	74.85	78.65	78.79	81.80	84.01	86.13	86.09	87.42	80.30	83.70
W/T/L	-	20/12/2	-	17/15/2	-	18/14/2	-	16/15/3	-	13/19/2	-	17/14/3

to 82.10%, 79.11%, 82.05%, 86.23%, 87.09% and 83.98%, respectively. These results powerfully demonstrate the effectiveness of LCWF on improving integration accuracy.

Besides, to verify the effectiveness of LCWF for different labeling quality distributions, we conduct another experiment, in which we randomly generate the labeling quality from a Gaussian distribution with  $N(0.6,0.3^2)$ . Table 5 shows the detailed experimental results of this experiment. Before worker filtering, the average integration accuracies of MV, GTIC, DEWSMV, MNLDP, LAWMV and AALI are 78.93%, 74.85%, 78.79%, 84.01%, 86.09% and 80.30%, respectively. After worker filtering, the integration accuracies of them are improved to 81.92%, 78.65%, 81.80%, 86.13%, 87.42% and 83.70%, respectively. Thus, we can draw to the conclusion that whether the simulated labeling quality of

crowd worker belongs to a uniform or Gaussian distribution, LCWF can notably improve the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods.

Finally, to more directly demonstrate the effectiveness of LCWF, we also conduct the experiments on the crowd label quality before and after worker filtering using LCWF both on the uniform and Gaussian distribution. Here, the crowd label quality is the proportion of crowd labels that are consistent with true labels in the dataset. Table 6 shows the detailed results of these experiments. After worker filtering, the average crowd label quality can be improved from 59.58 % to 66.16% on the uniform distribution and the average crowd label quality can be improved from 59.47% to 66.02% on the Gaussian distribution. All these experimental results powerfully demonstrate the effectiveness of LCWF again.

Table 6: Crowd label quality (%) comparisons on the uniform distribution and Gaussian distribution.

	unif	orm	Gaus	ssian
Dataset	before	after	before	after
anneal	59.29	71.21	61.14	70.66
audiology	53.8	67.12	56.21	66.81
autos	60.39	72.32	59.29	72.7
balance-scale	61.03	69.57	62.00	68.8
biodeg	61.51	65.17	59.32	61.91
breast-cancer	59.11	62.00	58.17	61.94
breast-w	61.8	64.24	60.29	64.98
car	58.63	68.66	57.33	69.75
credit-a	60.54	63.09	58.65	63.03
credit-g	60.86	65.24	58.75	60.91
heart-c	60.68	62.42	58.22	62.13
heart-h	61.90	66.18	61.33	64.06
heart-statlog	62.65	68.11	59.99	63.5
hepatitis	57.38	61.13	60.43	63.79
horse-colic	58.22	60.06	58.73	61.71
hypothyroid	60.11	71.77	58.92	68.05
ionosphere	59.29	61.31	62.26	65.68
diabetes	64.08	68.56	57.63	60.42
iris	56.44	67.75	60.11	71.28
kr-vs-kp	56.66	57.24	61.21	64.32
labor	58.01	60.18	59.69	62.75
letter	58.67	71.56	58.89	70.56
lymph	58.43	68.11	60.44	67.49
mushroom	61.20	64.40	61.41	64.05
segment	57.82	73.16	60.54	73.4
sick	58.57	60.70	62.21	64.61
sonar	57.29	60.33	58.94	62.32
spambase	59.85	62.67	58.5	61.54
tic-tac-toe	59.49	62.81	60.34	64.43
vehicle	60.46	71.37	57.22	71.23
vote	62.36	65.34	58.54	62.94
vowel	60.41	73.82	58.33	71.55
waveform	62.26	72.77	58.55	70.43
Z00	56.62	68.9	58.17	70.77
Average	59.58	66.16	59.47	66.02

#### 4.3 EXPERIMENTS ON REAL-WORLD DATA

To further valid the effectiveness of LCWF, we also conduct our experiments on the real-world crowdsourced dataset "Music\_genre" [Rodrigues et al., 2013], which is collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) platform. The "Music\_genre" dataset is a classic multi-class crowdsourced dataset that contains 700 instances, which are described by 124 features and 44 crowd workers are employed to label these instances. Totally, the dataset gets 2946 crowd labels, but nearly 43.93% of the crowd labels are noise, which is relatively high. Thus, it is suitable for LCWF to purify noisy labels, that's why we select this dataset for experiments.

Figure 1 shows the integration accuracy comparison results of six methods before and after worker filtering by LCWF. We can see a significant improvement in the integration ac-

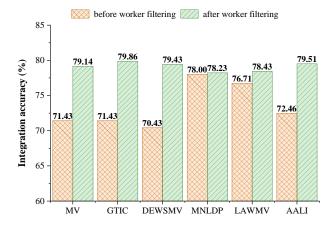


Figure 1: Integration accuracy (%) comparisons before and after worker filtering by LCWF.

curacy of these six methods. Specifically, before worker filtering, the integration accuracies of MV, GTIC, DEWSMV, MNLDP, LAWMV and AALI are 71.43%, 71.43%, 70.43%, 78.00%, 76.71% and 72.46%, respectively. After worker filtering, the integration accuracies of them are improved to 79.14%, 79.86%, 79.43%, 78.23%, 78.43% and 79.51%, respectively. The comparison results on the real-world dataset powerfully demonstrate the effectiveness of LCWF on improving integration accuracy again.

## 4.4 PARAMETER SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF LCWF

LCWF has four parameters: The fraction of the population to be replaced by crossover s, the mutation rate m, the population size K and the maximum of generations T. To analyse the influence of different settings of these four parameters on LCWF, we conduct following two series of experiments on the dataset "Music\_genre". In these experiments, we use the crowd label quality as the evaluation metric.

- 1. In the first experiment, we fix the value of *s* and *m* at 0.5 and 0.05, respectively, which refer to the settings in the paper [Jiang et al., 2005]. And then, we analyze the influence of *K* and *T* on the performance of LCWF.
- 2. In the second experiment, we fix the value of *K* and *T* at 80 and 50, respectively. And then, we analyze the influence of *s* and *m* on the performance of LCWF.

In the first experiment, we first fix T at 50 and observe the performance of LCWF as K increases from 10 to 100. Figure 2 (a) shows the detailed comparison results. We can see that when K increases from 10 to 80, the crowd label quality improves. When K is larger than 80, the crowd label quality varies slightly and tends to converge. This indicates that, the performance of LCWF is not sensitive to K when

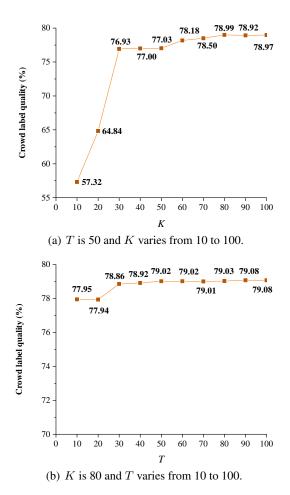
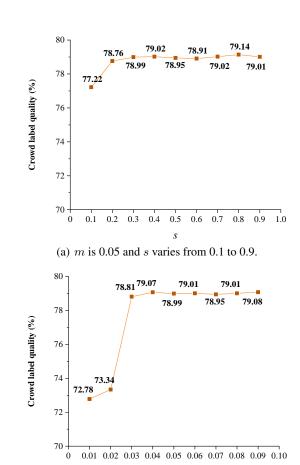


Figure 2: Crowd label quality comparisons on different settings of K and T when s and m are fixed at 0.5 and 0.05.

K is around or larger than 80. Then, we fix K at 80 and observe the performance of LCWF when T increases from 10 to 100. Figure 2 (b) shows the detailed comparison results. We can see that the performance of LCWF is not sensitive to T when T is around or larger than 50.

In the second experiment, we first fix m at 0.05 and observe the performance as s increases from 0.1 to 1. Figure 3 (a) shows the detailed comparison results. We can see that the performance of LCWF is not sensitive to s when s is around or larger then 0.2. Then, we fix the parameter s at 0.5 and observe the performance when m increases from 0.01 to 0.1. Figure 3 (b) shows the detailed comparison results. We can see that the performance of LCWF is not sensitive to m when m is around or larger than 0.03.

Based on above experimental results, we set K, T, s and m to 80, 50, 0.5, 0.05, respectively, in our experiments. From Figure 2 and Figure 3, we can see that around this parameter settings, the performance of LCWF is not sensitive.



(b) s is 0.5 and m varies from 0.01 to 0.09.

Figure 3: Crowd label quality comparisons on different settings of s and m when K and T are fixed at 80 and 50.

#### 4.5 DISCUSSION

Based on above experiment results on the simulated and real-world datasets, our proposed LCWF can perform well on improving the integration accuracy of the existing label methods. Although we have demonstrated the effectiveness of LCWF, it is actually not solid for every scenarios. For example, when most workers show low-quality, then most labels annotated on the same instances may be incorrect. Thus, high-quality workers can hardly reach consensus with other low-quality workers. In this case, if a high-quality worker is filtered out, the label consistency of the multiple noisy labels may even improve. Based on the current fitness function, the hypotheses which filter out high-quality workers can have a less fitness than the hypotheses which filter out low-quality workers, which will lead to poor performance on filtering out low-quality workers.

What' more, there may exist collusion between workers, it means that some workers provide totally consistent labels on most or even all of instances they have annotated. If the consistent labels of these collusive workers are correct, then worker collusion can be beneficial for LCWF to filter out low-quality workers. However, if the consistent labels of these collusive workers are incorrect, then LCWF may mistake these workers as high-quality workers due to the high label consistency of their labels and filter out the actual high-quality workers instead. Thus, the performance of LCWF is not stable when there is worker collusion.

Since these scenarios we discuss above are not common in the crowdsourcing and most of the label integration methods do not consider these special scenarios, we do not consider them in the current version of LCWF too. In these scenarios, the essential reason why LCWF cannot work well is that the label consistency with other workers become unreliable for the identification of low-quality workers. Therefore, to adapt to these special scenarios, the effort can be made to relax the dependence on the other workers, which is one of the directions to further improve or extend LCWF.

#### 5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we proposes a label consistency-based worker filtering (LCWF) algorithm. Different from most existing works focusing on designing more complex label integration methods, LCWF aim to purify noisy labels for existing label integration methods, which provides a new perspective for improving the integration performance. In LCWF, we transform the worker filtering problem into a discrete optimization problem and utilize label consistency to define the fitness function. Then, a genetic algorithm is used to search for the optimal solution. Experimental results on real-world and simulated datasets show that LCWF can effectively purify noisy labels and improve the integration accuracy of existing label integration methods.

In the current version of LCWF, we identify low-quality workers and then filter out all labels from them. Actually, the label quality of workers should be instance-dependent. Even low-quality workers can also provide high-quality labels on certain instances, so filtering out the low-quality workers directly may cause the loss of correct labels. Therefore, we believe that extending LCWF to be instance-dependent worker filtering can further improve its performance. What's more, the current version of LCWF cannot deal with some special scenarios, such as high proportion of low quality workers and worker collusion, which is also an important extension direction for us in the future.

#### Acknowledgements

We thank the anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments. The work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (62276241).

#### References

- Chang Wook Ahn and Rudrapatna S. Ramakrishna. Elitismbased compact genetic algorithms. *IEEE Trans. Evol. Comput.*, 7(4):367–385, 2003.
- Carla E. Brodley and Mark A. Friedl. Identifying mislabeled training data. *J. Artif. Intell. Res.*, 11:131–167, 1999.
- M. Buhrmester, T. Kwang, and S. D. Gosling. Amazon's mechanical turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspect. Psychol. Sci.*, 6(1):3–5, 2011.
- Chao Chen, Sen Yang, Yasha Wang, Bin Guo, and Daqing Zhang. Crowdexpress: A probabilistic framework for on-time crowdsourced package deliveries. *IEEE Trans. Big Data*, 8(3):827–842, 2022a.
- Pengpeng Chen, Hailong Sun, Yili Fang, and Xudong Liu. CONAN: A framework for detecting and handling collusion in crowdsourcing. *Inf. Sci.*, 515:44–63, 2020.
- Pengpeng Chen, Hailong Sun, Yongqiang Yang, and Zhijun Chen. Adversarial learning from crowds. In *Thirty-Sixth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI 2022, Thirty-Fourth Conference on Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence, IAAI 2022, The Twelveth Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence, EAAI 2022 Virtual Event, February 22 March 1, 2022*, pages 5304–5312, 2022b.
- Ziqi Chen, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Label augmented and weighted majority voting for crowdsourcing. *Inf. Sci.*, 606:397–409, 2022c.
- Alexander Philip Dawid and Allan M Skene. Maximum likelihood estimation of observer error-rates using the em algorithm. *J. R. Stat.Soc. : Series C (Appl. Stat.)*, 28(1): 20–28, 1979.
- Ofer Dekel and Ohad Shamir. Vox populi: Collecting high-quality labels from a crowd. In *COLT 2009 The 22nd Conference on Learning Theory, Montreal, Quebec, Canada, June 18-21, 2009, 2009.*
- Gianluca Demartini, Djellel Eddine Difallah, and Philippe Cudré-Mauroux. Zencrowd: leveraging probabilistic reasoning and crowdsourcing techniques for large-scale entity linking. In *Proceedings of the 21st international conference on World Wide Web*, pages 469–478, 2012.
- Yu Dong, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Improving data and model quality in crowdsourcing using co-training-based noise correction. *Inf. Sci.*, 583:174–188, 2022.
- Tarek A. El-Mihoub, Adrian A. Hopgood, Lars Nolle, and Alan Battersby. Hybrid genetic algorithms: A review. *Eng. Lett.*, 13(2):124–137, 2006.

- Michael T. M. Emmerich and André H. Deutz. A tutorial on multiobjective optimization: fundamentals and evolutionary methods. *Nat. Comput.*, 17(3):585–609, 2018.
- Dragan Gamberger, Nada Lavrac, and Ciril Groselj. Experiments with noise filtering in a medical domain. In *ICML*, pages 143–151, 1999.
- Tomohiro Harada and Enrique Alba. Parallel genetic algorithms: A useful survey. *ACM Comput. Surv.*, 53(4): 86:1–86:39, 2021.
- John H. Holland. Adaptation in Natural and Artificial Systems: An Introductory Analysis with Applications to Biology, Control, and Artificial Intelligence. MIT Press, 1992.
- Qiang Ji, Liangxiao Jiang, and Wenjun Zhang. Dual-view noise correction for crowdsourcing. *IEEE Internet Things J.*, 10(13):11804–11812, 2023.
- Liangxiao Jiang, Huajie Zhang, Zhihua Cai, and Jiang Su. Evolutional naive bayes. In *Proceedings of the 1st International Symposium on Intelligence Computation and Applications*, pages 344–350, 2005.
- Liangxiao Jiang, Lungan Zhang, Chaoqun Li, and Jia Wu. A correlation-based feature weighting filter for naive bayes. *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 31(2):201–213, 2019a.
- Liangxiao Jiang, Lungan Zhang, Liangjun Yu, and Dianhong Wang. Class-specific attribute weighted naive bayes. *Pattern Recognit.*, 88:321–330, 2019b.
- Liangxiao Jiang, Hao Zhang, Fangna Tao, and Chaoqun Li. Learning from crowds with multiple noisy label distribution propagation. *IEEE Trans. Neural Networks Learn. Syst.*, 33(11):6558–6568, 2022.
- David R Karger, Sewoong Oh, and Devavrat Shah. Budget-optimal task allocation for reliable crowdsourcing systems. *Operations Res.*, 62(1):1–24, 2014.
- Taghi M. Khoshgoftaar and Pierre Rebours. Improving software quality prediction by noise filtering techniques. *J. Comput. Sci. Technol.*, 22(3):387–396, 2007.
- Chaoqun Li, Victor S. Sheng, Liangxiao Jiang, and Hongwei Li. Noise filtering to improve data and model quality for crowdsourcing. *Knowl. Based Syst.*, 107:96–103, 2016.
- Hongwei Li and Bin Yu. Error rate bounds and iterative weighted majority voting for crowdsourcing. *CoRR*, abs/1411.4086, 2014.
- Xueqin Liang, Zheng Yan, and Raimo Kantola. GAIMMO: A grade-driven auction-based incentive mechanism with multiple objectives for crowdsourcing managed by blockchain. *IEEE Internet Things J.*, 9(18):17488–17502, 2022.

- Fenglong Ma, Yaliang Li, Qi Li, Minghui Qiu, Jing Gao, Shi Zhi, Lu Su, Bo Zhao, Heng Ji, and Jiawei Han. Faitcrowd: Fine grained truth discovery for crowdsourced data aggregation. In *Proceedings of the 21th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, Sydney, NSW, Australia, August 10-13, 2015*, pages 745–754, 2015.
- Claude Nadeau and Yoshua Bengio. Inference for the generalization error. *Mach. Learn.*, 52(3):239–281, 2003.
- Bryce Nicholson, Victor S. Sheng, and Jing Zhang. Label noise correction and application in crowdsourcing. *Expert Syst. Appl.*, 66:149–162, 2016.
- Vikas C. Raykar and Shipeng Yu. Eliminating spammers and ranking annotators for crowdsourced labeling tasks. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 13:491–518, 2012.
- Filipe Rodrigues and Francisco C. Pereira. Deep learning from crowds. In *Proceedings of the Thirty-Second AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, (AAAI-18), the 30th innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence (IAAI-18), and the 8th AAAI Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence (EAAI-18), New Orleans, Louisiana, USA, February 2-7, 2018*, pages 1611–1618, 2018.
- Filipe Rodrigues, Francisco C. Pereira, and Bernardete Ribeiro. Learning from multiple annotators: Distinguishing good from random labelers. *Pattern Recognit. Lett.*, 34(12):1428–1436, 2013.
- Victor S. Sheng and Jing Zhang. Machine learning with crowdsourcing: A brief summary of the past research and future directions. In *AAAI*, pages 9837–9843, 2019.
- Victor S. Sheng, Foster J. Provost, and Panagiotis G. Ipeirotis. Get another label? improving data quality and data mining using multiple, noisy labelers. In *Proceedings of the 14th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, Las Vegas, Nevada, USA, August 24-27, 2008*, pages 614–622, 2008.
- Alok Kumar Shukla, Pradeep Singh, and Manu Vardhan. A new hybrid feature subset selection framework based on binary genetic algorithm and information theory. *Int. J. Comput. Intell. Appl.*, 18(3):1950020:1–1950020:22, 2019.
- Ashok K. Singh. The EM algorithm and related statistical models. *Technometrics*, 48(1):148, 2006.
- Fangna Tao, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Label similarity-based weighted soft majority voting and pairing for crowdsourcing. *Knowl. Inf. Syst.*, 62(7):2521–2538, 2020.

- Fangna Tao, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Differential evolution-based weighted soft majority voting for crowd-sourcing. *Eng. Appl. Artif. Intell.*, 106:104474, 2021.
- Yongxin Tong, Zimu Zhou, Yuxiang Zeng, Lei Chen, and Cyrus Shahabi. Spatial crowdsourcing: a survey. *VLDB J.*, 29(1):217–250, 2020.
- Ning Wang and Jie Wu. Cost-efficient heterogeneous worker recruitment under coverage requirement in spatial crowd-sourcing. *IEEE Trans. Big Data*, 7(2):407–420, 2021.
- ZhenZhou Wang and Adam Sobey. A comparative review between genetic algorithm use in composite optimisation and the state-of-the-art in evolutionary computation. *Composite Structures*, 233:111739, 2020.
- Jacob Whitehill, Paul Ruvolo, Tingfan Wu, Jacob Bergsma, and Javier R. Movellan. Whose vote should count more: Optimal integration of labels from labelers of unknown expertise. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 22: 23rd Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2009. Proceedings of a meeting held 7-10 December 2009, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, pages 2035–2043, 2009.
- Wenqiang Xu, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Improving data and model quality in crowdsourcing using cross-entropy-based noise correction. *Inf. Sci.*, 546:803–814, 2021.
- Huan Zhang, Liangxiao Jiang, Wenjun Zhang, and Chaoqun Li. Multi-view attribute weighted naive bayes. *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 35(7):7291–7302, 2023a.
- Jing Zhang. Knowledge learning with crowdsourcing: A brief review and systematic perspective. *IEEE/CAA Journal of Automatica Sinica*, 9(5):749–762, 2022.
- Jing Zhang, Victor S. Sheng, Bryce Nicholson, and Xindong Wu. CEKA: a tool for mining the wisdom of crowds. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 16:2853–2858, 2015.
- Jing Zhang, Victor S. Sheng, Jian Wu, and Xindong Wu. Multi-class ground truth inference in crowdsourcing with clustering. *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 28(4):1080– 1085, 2016.
- Yao Zhang, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Attribute augmentation-based label integration for crowdsourcing. *Frontiers Comput. Sci.*, 17(5):175331, 2023b.
- Yao Zhang, Liangxiao Jiang, and Chaoqun Li. Instance redistribution-based label integration for crowdsourcing. *Inf. Sci.*, 674:120702, 2024.
- Kang Zhu, Siqing Xue, and Liangxiao Jiang. Improving label quality in crowdsourcing using deep co-teaching-based noise correction. *Int. J. Mach. Learn. Cybern.*, 14 (10):3641–3654, 2023.