

Neglected Free Lunch – Learning Image Classifiers Using Annotation Byproducts

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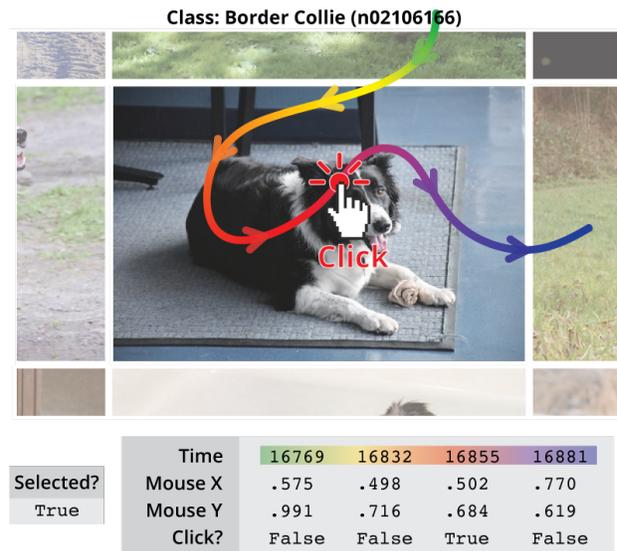
Abstract

Supervised learning of image classifiers distills human knowledge into a parametric model f_θ through pairs of images and corresponding labels $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$. We argue that this simple and widely used representation of human knowledge neglects rich auxiliary information from the annotation procedure, such as the time-series of mouse traces and clicks left after image selection. Our insight is that such **annotation byproducts** Z provide approximate human attention that weakly guides the model to focus on the foreground cues, reducing spurious correlations and discouraging shortcut learning. To verify this, we create **ImageNet-AB** and **COCO-AB**. They are ImageNet and COCO training sets enriched with sample-wise annotation byproducts, collected by replicating the respective original annotation tasks. We refer to the new paradigm of training models with annotation byproducts as **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)**. We show that a simple multitask loss for regressing Z together with Y already improves the generalisability and robustness of the learned models. Compared to the original supervised learning, LUAB does not require extra annotation costs. ImageNet-AB and COCO-AB are at github.com/naver-ai/NeglectedFreeLunch.

1. Introduction

Supervised learning of image classifiers requires the transfer of human intelligence to a parametric model f_θ . The transfer consists of two phases. First, human annotators execute human computation tasks [99] to put labels Y on each image X . The resulting labeled dataset $\{(X^i, Y^i)\}_{i=1}^N$ contains the gist of human knowledge about the visual task in a computation-friendly format. In the second phase, the model is trained to predict the labels Y for each input X .

In this work, we question the practice of collecting and utilising **only** the labels Y for each image X for training the models. In fact, common practise simply forgoes a large



Original

Our annotation byproducts

Figure 1: **Annotation byproducts from ImageNet.** Annotators leave traces like click locations as they select images with “Border Collie”. We argue that such byproducts contain signals that may improve model generalisation and robustness.

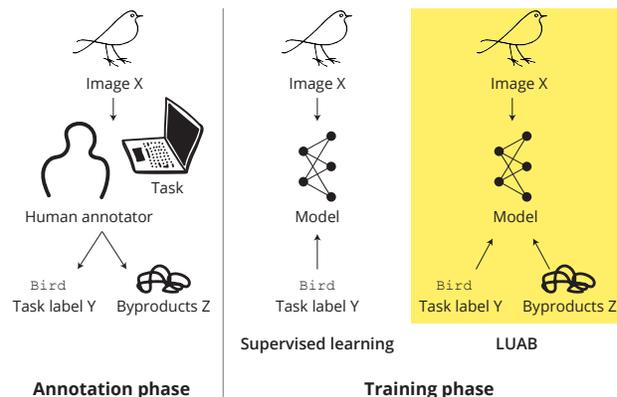


Figure 2: **Learning using Annotation Byproducts (LUAB).** LUAB exploits annotation byproducts Z that are unintentionally generated during the human intelligence tasks for annotation. LUAB exploits a large amount of additional signals from human annotators other than mere labels. When humans interact with computers

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through the graphical user interface, they leave various forms of unintentional traces. Input devices like the computer mouse produce time-series data in which information about what (*e.g.*, mouse action type) and where (*e.g.*, x-y coordinates in the monitor) are logged with timestamps. We refer to such auxiliary signals as **annotation byproducts** Z . See Figure 1 for an ImageNet annotation example [74, 68]. As annotators browse and click on images containing the class of interest, various byproducts are generated, *e.g.*, images over which were hovered during selection, mouse movement speed between images, pixels on which were clicked in an image, images that were deselected due to mistake, and latency between image selections, etc.

We introduce the new learning paradigm, **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)**, as a promising alternative to the usual supervised learning (Figure 2). We propose to use the annotation byproducts in the training phase, for further enhancing a model. This is a special case of learning using privileged information (LUPI) [98], where additional information Z other than input X and target Y is available during training but is not given at inference. LUAB is an attractive instance of LUPI, as it does not incur additional annotation costs for privileged information.

We demonstrate the strength of the LUAB framework by contributing datasets **ImageNet-AB** and **COCO-AB**, where the original ImageNet and COCO classification training sets are enriched with the annotation byproducts. We show that annotation byproducts from image-category labelling interfaces contain weak information about the foreground object locations. We show that performing LUAB with such information improves not only generalisability but also robustness by reducing spurious correlations with background features, a critical issue of model reliability these days [84, 51, 27].

Our contributions are (1) acknowledge a neglected information source available without additional costs during image labelling: annotation byproducts (§3); (2) LUAB as a new learning paradigm that makes use of annotation byproducts without extra annotation costs compared to the usual supervised learning (§4); (3) empirical findings that LUAB with byproducts weakly encoding object locations improves model generalisability and reduces spurious correlations with the background (§5); and (4) release of ImageNet-AB and COCO-AB dataset for future research (github.com/naver-ai/NeglectedFreeLunch).

2. Related work

We collect the annotation byproducts of the annotation process and exploit them for training models. We discuss three related fields of machine learning.

2.1. Privileged learning

Privileged learning [96, 97, 98] refers to a machine learning scenario where the model is supervised not only with the

directly task-relevant information (*e.g.* image label Y) but also with auxiliary information called **privileged information** (PI) that is not available at inference.

Learning using privileged information (LUPI) was first studied in the context of classical machine learning algorithms such as support vector machines (SVM) [98, 81, 104, 12, 25, 82]. LUPI has since been successfully applied to deep models with multitask learning framework where the PI is plugged in as auxiliary supervision [40, 105, 86]. PI may also be used as a representational bottleneck that regularises the cues for recognition [13, 50, 49]. “Learning with rationale” is an instance of LUPI actively being studied in natural language processing (NLP) domain [10, 43, 32, 106] with recent applications in computer vision problems [88, 35].

Our learning setup, **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)**, is an instance of privileged learning with the annotation byproducts as the PI. We hope that LUAB extends the LUPI paradigm by inviting creative methods for utilising the costless annotation byproducts.

2.2. Collecting auxiliary signals from annotators

It has been widely observed in the field of human-computer interaction that online annotators leave traces and logs that contain noisy yet important information [42, 75, 94]. There have been attempts in crowdsourcing image categories to record human gaze during task execution [107, 63, 90, 89, 44, 72, 87, 45]. Since gaze recording devices are costly and intrusive, proxy measurements such as mouse clicks and tracks [5, 66, 6, 59] and partially visible images [17, 48, 47, 53, 54, 23] have also been considered. Other works measure the annotators’ response time as a proxy for the sample difficulty [93, 61, 21]. Others have treated the degree of annotator disagreement as the level of difficulty or uncertainty for the sample [80, 64]. Finally, there exist research topics on estimating the annotators’ skills and expertise to reflect them in the training phase [8, 83, 77, 55, 91]. In our work, we collect similar signals from annotators, such as mouse signals and interactions with various front-end components. However, our work is the first attempt to collect them at a million scale (*e.g.* ImageNet) that are freely available as byproducts from the original annotation task.

One of the byproducts we collect, namely the click locations during ImageNet annotations, is similar to the “point supervision” considered in some previous work in weakly-supervised computer vision tasks [5, 71, 6]. While the data format (a single coordinate on an image) is similar, those works are *not directly comparable*. Our click locations are *cost-free byproducts* of the original ImageNet annotation procedure that arises *inevitably* from the annotators’ selection of images, while the point supervision requires a dedicated annotation procedure and incurs extra annotation costs.

2.3. Robustness to spurious correlations

Many datasets used for training machine learning models are reported to contain spurious correlations that let the model solve the problem in unintended ways [84, 51, 9, 3, 27, 16, 102]. The presence of such shortcuts is measured through “stress tests” [16]: the model is evaluated against a data distribution where the spurious correlations have been altered or eliminated. We take this approach in §5 to measure improvements in robustness due to LUAB.

Prior approaches to enhance the robustness to spurious correlations have utilised *additional human supervision* to further specify the “correct” correlations models must exploit. For example, [73, 85, 11, 26, 65, 62, 67] regularise the attention maps of image classifiers with respect to various forms of human guidance, such as bounding boxes, segmentation masks, human gaze, and language, to let the classifiers focus on the actual object regions. In this work, we use signals that are *unintentionally* generated by humans during widely-used image annotation procedures to enhance the robustness to spurious correlations. Those signals are available *at no extra cost* during the annotation.

3. Collecting annotation byproducts

To construct a comprehensive package of annotation byproducts, we replicate the annotation procedure for two representative image classification datasets, ImageNet [74], and COCO [52]. Resulting datasets with annotation byproducts, ImageNet-AB and COCO-AB, will be published.

3.1. Browsing versus tagging interfaces

There are two widely-used interfaces for annotating image labels: **browsing** (e.g., ImageNet) and **tagging** (e.g., COCO). A browsing interface presents a single concept along with a set of candidate images arranged in a grid and asks the annotator to select the images correctly depicting the concept. A tagging interface presents a single image at a time and asks the annotator to choose one or more objects and concept labels as necessary (survey of interfaces in [76]).

The two paradigms have different strengths. Browsing is advantageous for efficient batch processing of images, where the annotation precision matters less. Tagging is helpful for careful labelling and supports the annotation of multiple labels per image. Browsing interfaces have been used for the ImageNet [74, 68], Places [112], and CUB [100] datasets. Tagging interfaces have been used for Pascal [22], COCO [52], LVIS [31], and iNaturalist [95]. As representatives of each type, we replicate ImageNet [74, 68] and COCO [52].

3.2. ImageNet

ImageNet [74] is a single-label dataset annotated via browsing. We describe how we replicated the original annotation procedure and present the set of annotation byproducts

collected through the browsing annotation.

3.2.1 Replicating ImageNet annotations

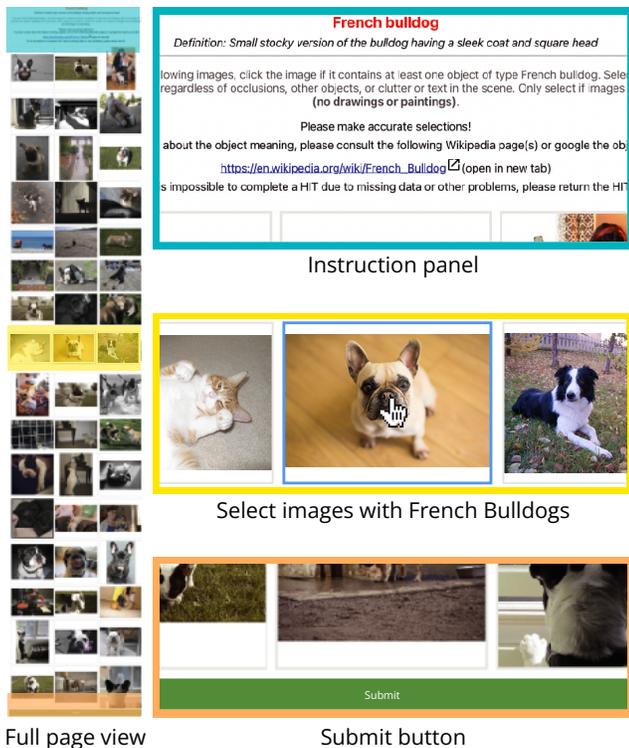
We replicate the annotation process for the training split of ImageNet1K (1,281,167 images). The original annotation procedure consists of the following four stages [74, 68]. (1) Construct the list of classes \mathcal{C} to annotate. (2) Crawl candidate images I_c^{cand} for each class $c \in \mathcal{C}$ from the web. (3) Crowdsourced annotators select true images I_c^{select} of class c . (4) Expert annotators clean up the dataset.

We replicate only the crowdsourcing stages (2) and (3) that are directly related to the generation of annotation byproducts. Our replication is based on the description in the original ImageNet [74] and ImageNetV2 [68] papers. For stage (1), we use the 1,000-class subset of the original 21,841 WordNet concepts [60], corresponding to the ILSVRC2012 subset, also known as the ImageNet1K [74].

Preparing candidate images I_c^{cand} for each class $c \in \mathcal{C}$. The candidate images for the original dataset are crawled from Google, MSN, Yahoo, and Flickr [68]. The search keywords are formulated by combining the class names and their “synsets” in WordNet [60]. The resulting set of images I_c^{cand} becomes the candidate image set for class c . The annotators later select a subset $I_c^{\text{select}} \subset I_c^{\text{cand}}$ to finalise the set of images that contain the class c . Our aim is to collect the annotation byproducts for the 1,281,167 original training images of ImageNet1K. We thus let the annotators select the final images from a mixture of the original training images I_c^{imagenet} and the set of new candidate images from Flickr I_c^{flickr} [1]. We set the ratio between the original ImageNet and Flickr-sourced images as 1:3. Our candidate set for each class c is $I_c^{\text{cand}} = I_c^{\text{imagenet}} \cup I_c^{\text{flickr}}$. Then the annotators select the images containing c , $I_c^{\text{select}} \subset I_c^{\text{cand}}$, where the hope is that I_c^{select} contains many original ImageNet samples I_c^{imagenet} . We report 86.7% of I_c^{imagenet} have been selected as a result. A 100% recall is conceptually impossible due to boundary cases and label noises in I_c^{imagenet} [7, 78].

Crowdsourced annotation via browsing interface. Following the original procedure, we let the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) [2] workers complete the selection process $I_c^{\text{select}} \subset I_c^{\text{cand}}$ for each class c . ImageNet and ImageNetV2 interfaces are shown in Figures 9 and 10 of the ImageNetV2 paper on arXiv [69], respectively. We closely follow the ImageNetV2 interface because the documentation is richer. Our interface is shown in Figure 3. Like ImageNetV2, we show 48 candidate images I_c^{cand} for a single class c for each task. MTurk annotators click on images containing class c and submit the selections I_c^{select} . Importantly, we have designed the front-end and back-end to record and save the annotation byproducts in the database. The annotation interface and crowdsourcing details are explained in Appendix §C.1.

Number of annotators per image. The original ImageNet



Full page view

Submit button

Figure 3: **ImageNet annotation interface.** We replicate the interface in [69]. Annotators read the category description in the instruction panel, select all the images corresponding to “French bulldog”, and click on the submit button.

```

"imageID": "n01440764/n01440764_105",
"originalImageHeight": 375,
"originalImageWidth": 500,
"selected": true,
"selectedRecord": [
  {"x": 0.540, "y": 0.473, "time": 1641425052}
],
"mouseTracking": [
  {"x": 0.003, "y": 0.629, "time": 1641425051},
  {"x": 0.441, "y": 0.600, "time": 1641425052}
]

```

Figure 4: **Annotation byproducts from ImageNet.** See Appendix Figure A for the full list of byproducts.

annotation procedure presents each image to 10 annotators for more precise annotations. This would require 240k USD for the annotation. Given the budget constraint, we have collected 1 annotation per image, spending 24k USD instead. The utility of annotation byproducts demonstrated in §5 is thus a lower bound on the actual utility.

3.2.2 ImageNet byproducts

We show the annotation interface for ImageNet in Figure 3. In the ImageNet annotation procedure, annotators click on the images containing the concept of interest. In the process, they leave the time-series of mouse positions (`mouseTracking`) and mouse click events (`selectedRecord`). The original annotation has not recorded them and only saved whether or not each image

is finally selected. During our replicated annotation, we saved them in the database. We show the list of annotation byproducts in Figure 4.

Among 1,281,167 ImageNet1K training images, annotators re-selected 1,110,786 (86.7%) and interacted with 1,272,225 (99.3%) images, leaving annotation byproducts.

3.3. COCO

COCO [52] is a multi-label dataset annotated with a tagging interface. We describe the creation of COCO-AB. We present and analyse the annotation byproducts for COCO.

3.3.1 Replicating COCO annotations

We replicate annotations for the 82,783 training images of COCO 2014 to collect the annotation byproducts. The original annotation procedure for COCO [52] consists of four stages. (1) Construct a list of classes to annotate. (2) Crawl and select candidate images from Flickr with more emphasis on images with multiple objects in context. (3) For each image, let crowdsourced annotators put all valid category labels. (4) Expert annotators do a final check-up.

We only replicate stage (3), which produces direct annotation byproducts, by letting annotators work on the 82,783 training images. Figure 5 shows the COCO annotation interface. We replicate the front-end of the original [52] (Figure 12a). For every image presented, the annotator must identify as many classes present as possible and place the corresponding class icons on the objects. We have replicated the superclass-browsing interface in [52] that lets annotators efficiently search through 80 COCO classes via 11 superclasses. The icon can be placed only once on an image per class. That is, even when there are multiple instances of a class, annotators should choose one of them to place the icon on. This is the same in the original COCO interface. Crowdsourcing details are in Appendix §C.2.

3.3.2 COCO Byproducts

COCO interface (Figure 5) has two main components: (1) the image on which the class icons are placed and (2) the class browsing tool showing the class icons. The annotation byproducts come from these two sources. See Figure 6 for the full list of annotation byproducts.

The `actionHistories` field describes the actions performed with the mouse cursor on the image. It lists the sequence of actions with possible types `add`, `move`, `remove` and the corresponding location, time, and the category label of the icon. The `mouseTracking` field records the movement of the mouse cursor over the image.

Annotators have reannotated 82,765 (99.98%) of the 82,783 training images. We found that only 61.9% of the class occurrences are retrieved on average. This confirms the

Please drag and drop icons from the bottom panel to matching objects in the image. If an icon matches multiple objects you can drag the icon onto any of the objects. There are 11 sets of objects to drag onto the image. Use the buttons or arrow keys to cycle through them. There are total of 20 images to label.



Figure 5: **COCO annotation interface.** ① Annotator works on a single image at a time. ② Find the classes present in the image by navigating superclasses. ③ Drag and drop class icons on the objects in the image. ④ When finished, click on the submit button.

```

"image_id": 459214,
"originalImageHeight": 428,
"originalImageWidth": 640,
"categories": ["car", "bicycle"], Original Annotation
"actionHistories": [
  {"actionType": "add",
   "iconType": "car",
   "pointTo": {"x": 0.583, "y": 0.588},
   "timeAt": 16686},
  {"actionType": "add",
   "iconType": "bicycle",
   "pointTo": {"x": 0.592, "y": 0.639},
   "timeAt": 16723}
],
"mouseTracking": [
  {"x": 0.679, "y": 0.862, "timeAt": 15725},
  {"x": 0.717, "y": 0.825, "timeAt": 15731}
]
Annotation Byproducts

```

Figure 6: **Annotation byproducts from COCO.** See Appendix Figure B for the full list of byproducts.

findings in Lin *et al.* [52] that the recall rate is low for multi-label annotation tasks and multiple annotators are necessary for every image. While desirable, collecting 10 annotations per image requires 100k USD, beyond our budget. We have instead assigned one annotator per image, spending 10k USD. Our setup presents a lower bound on the actual utility of the original annotation byproducts.

Finally, we emphasise those localisation byproducts are indeed general annotation byproducts for class labelling with a tagging interface. For example, Objects365 classes are obtained by labelling the 365 classes *along with instance bounding boxes* (§3.2.1 in [79]). Class labels in LVIS are collected *along with corresponding positions*, as in COCO (§3.1 in [31]). Location marking is often inseparable from multi-label annotations. Without any indication of *where*, subsequent quality control stages are highly inefficient. Suppose an annotator labels “chopsticks” in a cluttered kitchen photo. It will be challenging to quickly confirm if the label

is correct without knowing *where*.

4. Learning using annotation byproducts

We introduce the paradigm of **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)**. Compared to conventional supervised learning, we train models with additional annotation byproducts that have previously not been utilised in model training.

4.1. LUAB with weak localisation signals

Annotation byproducts contain rich information surrounding the input image and the cognitive process of the annotator executing the task. In this work, we focus on the byproducts related to **object locations**, such as the click locations on images. We expect them to provide the model with a weak signal on the actual foreground pixels of the objects. Albeit weak, we expect them to be helpful information for resolving spurious correlations with background features, a common phenomenon in vision datasets [103, 84].

Annotation byproducts encoding object locations. We hypothesise that the record of human interaction with the image annotation interfaces provides weak signals for the object locations. For ImageNet (§3.2), we consider the final click coordinates for every selected image (`selectedRecord`). For COCO (§3.3), we consider the coordinates of the final add action of a class icon on the image (`actionHistories`). We treat them as proxy, cost-free data for object locations for each image. We note that such points on objects provide rich information about the foreground locations [5, 6].

Precision of object localisation in annotation byproducts. We verify the localisation accuracy of the annotation byproducts mentioned above. For ImageNet, we consider the subset of training data with both (1) our annotation byproducts (87%) and (2) ground-truth boxes provided by the original dataset (42%). We use the boxes to measure click accuracy. This gives 82.9% accuracy. Qualitative examples are in Figure 7. For COCO, we use the ground-truth pixel-wise masks for measuring the precision of icon placements (`#correct placement/#all placements`). This gives 92.3% precision. Therefore, we confirm that the respective annotation byproducts are fairly precise proxies for the actual foreground pixels. See Appendix §E for more analysis.

Other annotation byproducts from class labelling. We conjecture that one may obtain an estimate for the extent of objects by taking the convex hull of a few mouse trajectory points before and after the click or icon placement. In addition to localisation, annotation byproducts may provide proxy signals on sample-wise difficulty through the completion time [93]. There also exists rich cross-sample association information: where two samples are annotated by the same annotator or on the same front-end page. Such information may help reduce annotator biases [28]. They are beyond the scope of our paper, but we discuss the possibilities in Appendix §D.1.

Annotation byproducts beyond class labelling. Polygonal instance segmentation [52] results in byproducts like the order of clicks and the history of corrections. In the language domain, one may not only record human text answers but the history of corrections in the answer, where we hypothesise that more corrections signify more ambiguity.

4.2. Multi-task learning baseline for LUAB

The usual ingredients for the supervised learning of image classifiers are image-label pairs (X, Y) . Our LUAB framework introduces a third ingredient, weak object location Z , for every image X . For single-class datasets like ImageNet, the coordinates are given as $Z \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, a relative position in each image. For multi-class datasets like COCO, this is given as $Z_c \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ for every class c present in the image.

We propose a simple baseline based on a **multi-task objective** for the classification of Y and the regression of Z . We expect that learning the localisation would condition the network to select features more from foreground object regions [109, 58, 24].

We write the original network architecture as $g(f(X))$, where f is a feature extractor, and g is a classifier that maps intermediate features to \mathbb{R}^C . The regression objective is applied to $h(f(X))$ where h maps the intermediate features to normalised x-y coordinates in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. For a single-class classification task (e.g. ImageNet), the objective is

$$\min_{f,g,h} \mathcal{L}(g(f(X)), Y) + \lambda \|h(f(X)) - Z\|_{s1}, \quad (1)$$

where \mathcal{L} is the cross-entropy loss and $\|\cdot\|_{s1}$ is the smooth- ℓ^1 loss [29]. $\lambda > 0$ regulates the weight of the regression term. The objective is identical for the multi-class classification (e.g. COCO), except that \mathcal{L} is a binary cross-entropy loss and the regression target is the mean of smooth- ℓ^1 losses for every class present in the image. We use the task labels Y from the original datasets for both ImageNet and COCO experiments. The regression term is applied only for samples for which Z is available.

Discussion. We show the minimal utility of the annotation byproducts by considering a simple baseline. We note that one may explore more advanced training schemes like regularising the model’s attribution map with Z [73, 85, 11] or forcing the model to pool features with attention Z [13]. We explore the latter method in Appendix §F.

5. Experimental results

We show the empirical efficacy of **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)** that weakly encode object locations. We verify whether the annotation byproducts improve the original image classification performance and robustness by guiding models to focus more on foreground features.



Figure 7: **ImageNet final clicks.** We visualise random training images; **points** are the final click positions in `selectedRecord`.

5.1. Results on ImageNet

Implementation details. We use the ImageNet-AB training set with annotation byproducts to train image classifiers. Considered backbones are ResNets [34] (ResNet18, ResNet50, ResNet101, and ResNet152), and Vision Transformers (ViT-Ti [92], ViT-S [92], and ViT-B [20]). To accommodate the multi-task objective, we have attached a separate head for the regression target at the penultimate layer of each backbone. This head is not used during the inference. We use the standard 100-epochs setup [34] for ResNets; the DeiT training setup¹ [92] is used for ViTs. This is to verify whether the annotation byproducts work together with the popular supervised training regimes. We select the last-epoch models. We further include results following the primitive setup [20] in Appendix Table D.

Evaluation. Along with the ImageNet1K validation set (IN-1K), we use many variants: ImageNet-V2/Real/A/C/O/R/Sketch/ObjNet [68, 7, 38, 37, 101, 36, 4]. In particular, we focus on the benchmarks designed to measure spurious correlations with the background cues: SI-Score [19] and BG Challenge [103]. Both datasets de-correlate the foreground and background features by constructing novel images with foreground and background masks cut and pasted from different images.

Random point baseline. We introduce a baseline trained with the same objective (Equation 1) but with a uniform-random point Z for each image. This baseline helps us rule out possible regularisation effects due to the multi-task learning itself and focus purely on the information gain from the weak object locations given by the annotation byproducts.

LUAB trains well. Figure 8 shows the training curves. The regression loss for Z decreases, and validation localisation accuracy increases for LUAB over the epochs, while the baseline random-point supervision yields higher losses and lower localisation accuracies. The baseline performance is fairly high because of the object-centric ImageNet data. We con-

¹We train models with the official DeiT codebase [92] with default settings for RandAug [15], Stochastic Depth [41], Random Erasing [39, 18], Mixup [110], Cutmix [108], and optimization setups – AdamW [57] and cosine learning rate scheduling [56], and gradual warmup [30].

Model	Params	IN-1K \uparrow	IN-V2 \uparrow	IN-Real \uparrow	IN-A \uparrow	IN-C \uparrow	IN-O \uparrow	Sketch \uparrow	IN-R \uparrow	Coccr \uparrow	ObjNet \uparrow	SI-size \uparrow	SI-loc \uparrow	SI-rot \uparrow	BGC-gap \downarrow	BGC-acc \uparrow
R18	11.7M	72.1	59.9	79.6	2.0	37.4	52.7	22.0	34.0	41.9	21.7	46.4	22.9	32.1	9.0	22.1
+LUAB	11.7M	72.2	59.9	79.6	1.9	37.6	53.0	21.6	34.3	44.7	21.9	47.8	23.1	32.7	8.6	20.4
R50	25.6M	77.4	65.2	83.5	5.5	43.8	56.7	25.4	37.8	53.7	27.8	53.9	31.9	40.1	6.3	26.7
+LUAB	25.6M	77.5	65.2	83.8	5.1	44.7	57.0	25.7	38.2	55.1	28.5	55.6	33.5	40.9	5.6	27.4
R101	44.5M	78.2	66.0	84.1	7.6	47.0	60.7	26.5	38.2	55.8	29.4	53.4	33.1	38.9	5.6	30.2
+LUAB	44.5M	78.6	66.4	84.3	7.8	47.9	60.5	27.0	39.0	58.5	30.0	54.4	33.3	39.8	5.5	28.2
R152	60.2M	79.0	67.2	84.5	9.5	49.5	62.0	27.6	39.6	58.8	30.5	53.9	33.3	38.6	6.6	27.2
+LUAB	60.2M	79.2	67.2	84.8	9.5	49.9	62.1	27.6	39.7	59.0	31.3	55.5	34.2	40.6	5.8	31.6
ViT-Ti	5.7M	72.8	60.7	80.7	7.9	48.5	52.3	20.5	32.8	63.8	23.1	46.3	23.8	33.9	8.2	13.9
+LUAB	5.7M	72.9	60.8	80.9	8.4	48.4	52.9	21.1	33.8	64.2	23.7	47.4	25.4	34.7	7.8	14.4
ViT-S	22.1M	80.3	69.1	86.0	20.0	60.3	53.4	29.4	42.3	73.8	31.2	54.5	32.0	39.5	6.4	17.4
+LUAB	22.1M	80.6	69.7	86.4	22.8	61.2	55.1	30.0	43.0	74.1	32.3	55.1	33.7	39.6	5.9	18.7
ViT-B	86.6M	81.6	70.3	86.6	26.1	64.1	58.0	33.0	45.7	76.0	31.7	56.6	35.1	41.3	6.4	18.1
+LUAB	86.6M	82.5	71.9	87.4	31.1	66.0	58.5	35.5	48.4	77.5	35.0	57.1	36.8	41.6	5.6	23.9

Table 1: **Performance of LUAB on ImageNet1K.** We report in-distribution generalisation metrics (IN-1K/V2/Real) and out-of-distribution metrics (IN-A/C/O/R/Sketch/Coccr/ObjNet). We also report metrics for detecting spurious correlations with background (SI-Score [19] and BG-Challenge [103]). LUAB training with annotation byproducts using a simple point regression target improves the overall performances. LUAB barely introduces any extra annotation or computational cost.

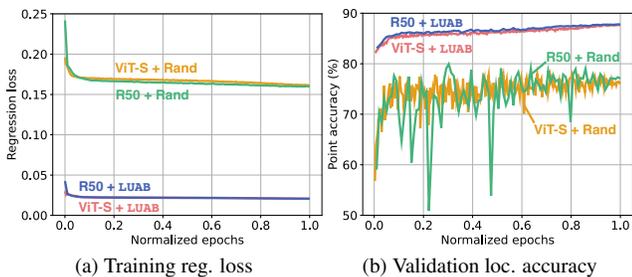


Figure 8: **Training curves for ImageNet.** “Rand” refers to the regression with respect to a randomly generated location Z .

Model	Annot.	IN-1K \uparrow	ObjNet \uparrow	SI-size \uparrow	SI-loc \uparrow	SI-rot \uparrow	BGC-gap \downarrow	BGC-acc \uparrow
R50	-	77.4	27.8	53.9	31.9	40.1	6.3	26.7
R50	Rand	77.3	28.1	54.5	31.5	39.7	5.9	27.6
R50	LUAB	77.5	28.5	55.6	33.5	40.9	5.6	27.4
ViT-Ti	-	71.8	20.1	40.6	16.5	26.2	12.1	13.6
ViT-Ti	Rand	72.2	22.0	42.5	18.1	27.5	11.0	15.3
ViT-Ti	LUAB	73.0	22.1	43.4	20.0	28.7	10.9	16.1
ViT-S	-	74.1	20.5	42.9	18.7	27.8	10.5	16.7
ViT-S	Rand	74.8	22.7	44.5	20.6	28.8	10.5	19.5
ViT-S	LUAB	75.3	23.6	47.8	22.6	32.2	8.7	19.7

Table 2: **Comparison with random point regression on ImageNet.** We compare the accuracies of supervised learning with/without additional supervision (“-”), with random points as guidance (“Rand”), and with our annotation byproducts (LUAB).

firm that the annotation byproducts contain localisation information that lets the model predict object locations.

LUAB improves classification performance. See Table 1 for the IN-1K validation accuracies before and after LUAB. We observe that LUAB introduces gains across the board

Annot.	Loc \uparrow	Annot.	IN-1K \uparrow	Bbox AP \uparrow	Mask AP \uparrow
R50	46.8	R50	77.4	37.0	34.6
+LUAB	48.4	+LUAB	77.5	37.4	34.8

Table 3: **WSOL on ImageNet [14].**

Table 4: **Fine-tuning ImageNet models on downstream tasks.** Object detection and instance segmentation.

(e.g. 81.6% to 82.5% for ViT-B). Similar gains are seen for IN-V2/Real. The LUAB help the models generalise better.

LUAB improves out-of-distribution (OOD) generalisation. Table 1 shows that LUAB improves the OOD generalisation (columns for IN-A/C/O/R/Sketch). 30 of the 35 combinations (5 metrics \times 7 models) have seen improvements due to LUAB. We hypothesise that the focus on foreground features improves generalisation to novel distributions.

LUAB reduces spurious correlations with the background. Table 1 also shows the results on metrics detecting spurious dependence on background features. For SI-Scores [19], we observe a clear advantage of LUAB, beating the baseline performance in *all* considered cases. For BG Challenge [103], LUAB surpasses the original models for the majority of cases (12 out of 14). The improvement due to LUAB on the benchmarks with de-correlated foreground and background features demonstrates the efficacy of the foreground guidance from the annotation byproducts.

Improvement is not due to the multi-task objective itself. Table 2 shows greater improvements due to LUAB compared to the random point baseline, which merely introduces a multi-task learning objective without additional location information. As such, we attribute the improvements to the weak foreground information in the annotation byproducts. **LUAB lets models focus on foreground features.** Class

activation mapping (CAM) [111] identifies the region-wise features that an image classifier uses to make the prediction. By using a weakly-supervised object localisation (WSOL) evaluation against the ground-truth object locations [14], one may confirm whether the utilised image features correspond to the object foreground. We show the results in Table 3. The 1.6%p improvement in WSOL accuracy against the original shows that LUAB lets the model focus on the foreground.

LUAB improves downstream localisation tasks. We report the box and mask APs on COCO val2017 after fine-tuning the baseline ResNet50 and LUAB-trained models for FasterRCNN [70] and Mask-RCNN [33], respectively, in Table 4. LUAB improves the downstream performances.

5.2. Results on COCO

Implementation details. We use the COCO-AB training set with annotation byproducts. Considered backbones are ResNet18/50/152 [34], and ViT-Ti/S/B [92, 20]. We attach one regression head per class on the penultimate layer. We follow the training recipe of the original papers. As in ImageNet, we consider the random point baseline: the localisation supervision Z_c is given as a uniform-random point.

LUAB trains well. Figure 9 shows the training curves for COCO with LUAB. Compared to the random-point baseline, LUAB decreases the regression loss and increases the validation localisation accuracy more quickly. We confirm: LUAB confers the model information about where the objects are.

LUAB improves classification performance. Table 6 and 7 show that LUAB improves the mean average precision (mAP), for example from 73.0% to 74.2% for ResNet50.

LUAB reduces spurious correlations with other classes. We consider metrics for detecting a spurious dependence on frequently co-occurring objects (*e.g.* monitor and keyboard). V^{avg} and V^{min} [84] compute the difference between the classification scores when class c of interest is removed and when another class than c are removed. V^{avg} erases a random class, while V^{min} erases the worst-case class for each image. Table 6 and 7 show a consistent decrease in V^{avg} and V^{min} scores after LUAB. This confirms the successful reduction in spurious background correlations via LUAB.

LUAB lets models focus on foreground features.

As in ImageNet, we measure the CAM performances of the COCO-trained ResNet50 with and without LUAB in Table 5. We compute CAM for every class and report the class-averaged $mPxAP$ [14]. We verify that the models attend more to the foreground features after training with LUAB.

6. Conclusion

We propose to log and exploit annotation byproducts that result from human interaction with input devices and

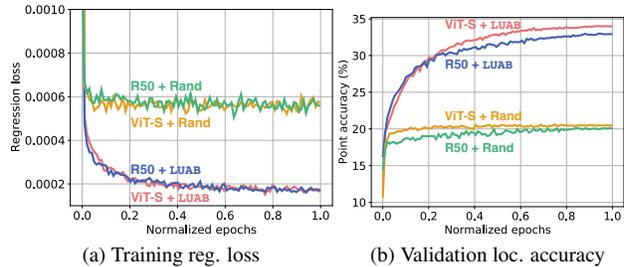


Figure 9: **Training curves for COCO.** “Rand” refers to the regression with respect to randomly generated locations Z_c .

Model	R18	Rand	LUAB	R50	Rand	LUAB	R152	Rand	LUAB
mAP \uparrow	67.9	67.8	68.0	73.0	73.6	74.2	73.3	74.6	75.4
$V^{min}\downarrow$	51.8	52.1	51.6	47.6	47.3	47.0	47.4	47.8	47.1
$V^{avg}\downarrow$	28.7	28.7	28.4	25.0	24.9	24.5	24.8	25.5	24.7

Table 6: **COCO Performance with ResNet.** We compare supervised learning, multi-task learning with random points, and LUAB.

Model	ViT-Ti	Rand	LUAB	ViT-S	Rand	LUAB	ViT-B	Rand	LUAB
mAP \uparrow	72.6	72.2	72.7	76.2	76.9	77.3	76.4	74.5	77.5
$V^{min}\downarrow$	49.1	48.9	48.4	47.1	46.9	45.8	46.6	47.1	45.6
$V^{avg}\downarrow$	27.0	26.9	26.8	25.7	25.6	24.6	25.0	25.1	24.5

Table 7: **COCO Performance with ViT.** We compare supervised learning, multi-task learning with random points, and LUAB.

various front-end components. We have created **ImageNet-AB** and **COCO-AB** by replicating the respective annotation procedures and logging **cost-free** annotation byproducts. We have introduced a new learning paradigm: **learning using annotation byproducts (LUAB)**. As an example, we have used the final click and icon placement locations as proxies for the object locations. They let models generalise better and depend less on spurious background features.

Limitations. We have performed only one annotation pass through ImageNet and COCO, rather than the 10 \times repetitions done in the original procedure. We may have seen even stronger results with LUAB if annotation byproducts were collected during the original procedure. There are also exciting possibilities for exploiting other types of byproducts; one may also estimate image difficulty and annotator biases from the raw annotation byproducts. Finally, we have restricted our scope to image classifiers. We believe that the LUAB paradigm will benefit other tasks and domains, such as text, audio, video, and tabular data.

Take-home messages for dataset building. When building a dataset, one should consider logging and releasing the annotation byproducts, along with the main annotations. They may improve models’ generalisation and robustness for free.

Ethical concerns. Our data collection for ImageNet-AB and COCO-AB has obtained an IRB approval from an author’s institute. We note that there exist potential risks that annotation byproducts may contain annotators’ privacy. Data

Annot.	$mPxAP\uparrow$
R50	20.8
+LUAB	21.5

Table 5: **WSOL on COCO** [14].

collectors may even attempt to leverage more private information as byproducts. We urge data collectors not to collect or exploit private information from annotators. Whenever appropriate, one must ask for the annotators' consent.

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