A Survey of Crowdsourcing Systems

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Abstract—Crowdsourcing is evolving as a distributed problemsolving and business production model in recent years. In crowdsourcing paradigm, tasks are distributed to networked people to complete such that a company's production cost can be greatly reduced. In 2003, Luis von Ahn and his colleagues pioneered the concept of "human computation", which utilizes human abilities to perform computation tasks that are difficult for computers to process. Later, the term "crowdsourcing" was coined by Jeff Howe in 2006. Since then, a lot of work in crowdsourcing has focused on different aspects of crowdsourcing, such as computational techniques and performance analysis. In this paper, we give a survey on the literature on crowdsourcing which are categorized according to their applications, algorithms, performances and datasets. This paper provides a structured view of the research on crowdsourcing to date.

Index Terms-crowdsourcing; survey

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, many tasks that are trivial for humans continue to challenge even the most sophisticated computer programs, such as image annotation. These tasks cannot be computerized. Prior to the introduction of the concept of crowdsourcing, traditional approaches for solving problems that are diffcult for computers but trivial for humans focused on assigning tasks to employees in a company. However, it increases a company's production costs.

To reduce a company's production costs and make more efficient use of labor and resources, crowdsourcing was proposed [33]. Crowdsourcing is a distributed problem-solving and business production model. In an article for Wired magazine in 2006, Jeff Howe defined "crowdsourcing" as "an idea of outsourcing a task that is traditionally performed by an employee to a large group of people in the form of an open call" [32]. An example of crowdsourcing tasks is the creative drawings, such as the Sheep Market [3], [46]. The Sheep Market is a web-based artwork to implicate thousands of workers in the creation of a massive database of drawings. Workers create their version of "a sheep facing to the left" using simple drawing tools. Each worker is responsible for a drawing receives a payment of two cents for his labor.

The explosive growth and widespread accessibility of the Internet have led to surge of research activity in crowdsourcing. Currently, all crowdsourcing applications have been developed in ad hoc manner and a lot of work has focused on different aspects of crowdsourcing, such as computational techniques and performance analysis. The literature on crowdsourcing can be categorized into application, algorithm, performance and dataset. Fig. 1 shows a taxonomy of crowdsourcing. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II presents the study on crowdsourcing applications. It describes the categories and the characteristics of crowdsourcing applications. It presents how the applications in the previous works be categorized based on our categorization. Section III examines the algorithms developed for crowdsourcing systems. Section IV presents the survey on the performance aspects on evaluating the crowdsouring systems. Section V describes the experimental datasets available on the Web. Section VI gives a discussion and conclusion of our work.

II. APPLICATION

Because of the popularity of Web 2.0 technology, crowdsourcing websites attract much attentions at present [91], [90]. A crowdsourcing site has two groups of users: requesters and workers. The crowdsourcing site exhibits a list of available tasks, associating with reward and time period, that are presented by requesters; and during the period, workers compete to provide the best submission. Meanwhile, a worker selects a task from the task list and completes the task because the worker wants to earn the associated reward. At the end of the period, a subset of submissions are selected, and the corresponding workers are granted the reward by the requesters. In addition to monetary reward, a worker gains credibility when his task accepted by the requester. Sometimes, the task requester is obligated to pay every worker who has fulfilled the task according to the requirements. In some cases, workers are not motivated by rewards, but they work for fun or altruis [66]. In this section, we group crowdsourcing applications into four categories, and they are voting system, information sharing system, game and creative system.

A. Voting System

An example of popular crowdsourcing websites are Amazon Mechanical Turk (or MTurk) [1]. A large number of applications or experiments were conducted in Amazon's MTurk site. It can support a large number of voting tasks. These voting tasks require a crowdsourcing worker to select his answer from a number of choices. The answer that the majority selected is considered to be correct. Voting can be used as a tool to evaluate the correctness of an answer from the crowd. Some examples are shown below:

• Geometric reasoning tasks - The ability to interpret and reason about shapes is a specific human capability that has proven difficult to reproduce algorithmically. Some



Fig. 1. A taxonomy of crowdsourcing

work were proposed to solve the problem of geometric reasoning on MTurk [39], [28].

- Named entity annotation Named entity recognition is used to identify and categorize textual references to objects in the world, such as persons and organizations. MTurk is a very promising tool for annotating large-scale corpora, such as Arabic nicknames, Twitter data, large email datasets and medical named entities [29], [20], [49], [89].
- **Opinions** Opinions are subjective preferences. Gathering opinions from the crowd can be achieved easily in a crowdsourcing system. Mellebeek et al. [59] used the crowdsourcing paradigm to classify Spanish consumer comments. They demonstrated that non-expert MTurk annotations outperformed expert annotations using a varity of classifiers.
- **Commonsense** Obviously, humans can poss commonsense knowledge about the world, but computer programs cannot. Many studies focused on collecting commonsense knowledge in MTurk [23], [84].
- **Relevance evaluation** Humans have to read through every document in a corpus to determine its relevance to a set of test queries. Alonso et al. [6] proposed crowdsourcing for relevance evaluation, so that each crowdsourcing work perform a small evaluation task.
- Natural language annotation Natural language annotation is a task that is easy for humans but currently difficult for automated processes. Recently, researchers investigated MTurk as a source of non-expert natural language annotation, which is a cheap and quick alternative to expert annotations [4], [11], [21], [41], [65], [72]. Akkaya et al. [4] showed that crowdsourcing for subjectivity word sense annotation is reliable. Callison-Burch and Dredze [11] demonstrated their success on creating data for speech and language applications with a very low cost. Gao and Vogel [21] proved that crowdsourcing workers outperformed experts on word alignment tasks in terms of alignment error rate. Jha et al. [41] showed that it is possible to build up an accurate prepositional phrase attachment corpus by crowdsourcing workers. Parent and Eskenazi [65] demonstrated a way to cluster a task of dictionary definitions in MTurk. Skory and Eskenazi [72] submitted open cloze tasks to MTurk workers and discussed ways to evaluate the quality of the results of these tasks.
- Spam identification Junk email cannot be determined

without the task of understanding content by humans. Some anti-spam mechanisms such as Vipul's $Razor^1$ use human votes to determine if a given email is spam.

B. Information Sharing System

Websites can help to share information easily among Internet users. Some crowdsourcing systems aim to share various types of information among the crowd. For monitoring noise pollution, Maisonneuve [53] designed a system called NoiseTube which enables citizens to measure their personal exposure to noise in their everyday environment by using GPSequipped mobile phones as noise sensors. The geo-localised measures and user-generated meta-data can be automatically sent and shared online with the public to contribute to the collective noise mapping of cities. Moreover, Choffnes et al. [15] utilized the crowdsoured contributions to monitor service-level network events and studied the impacts of network events on services in the view of end users. Furthermore, a lot of popular information sharing systems were launched on the Internet as shown in the following:

- *Wikipedia*² are online encyclopedias that are written by Internet users, and the writing is distributed in that essentially almost anyone can contribute to the Wiki.
- *Yahoo! Answers*³ is a general question-answering forum to provide automated collection of human reviewed data at Internet-scale. These human-reviewed data are often required by enterprise and web data processing.
- *Yahoo! Suggestion Board*⁴ is an Internet-scale feedback and suggestion system.
- The website 43Things⁵ also collects goals from users, and in turn it provides a way for users to find other users who have the same goals, even if they are uncommon.
- *Yahoo's flickr*⁶ is a popular photo-sharing site and provides a mechanism for users to caption their photos. These captions are already being used as alternative text.
- *del.icio.us*⁷ is a social bookmark site on the Internet developed by Golder and Huberman[22].

¹Vipuls razor web site, http://sourceforge.net/projects/razor

⁶Yahoo's flickr, http://www.flickr.com/

7del.icio.us, http://del.icio.us/

²The free encyclopedia, http://en.wikipedia.org

³Yahoo! answers, http://answers.yahoo.com/

⁴Yahoo! Suggestion Board, http://suggestions.yahoo.com/

⁵43things website for collecting goals from users, http://www.43things.com/

C. Game

The concept of "Social Game" was pioneered by Luis Von Ahn and his colleagues, who created games with a purpose [76]. The games produce useful metadata as a by-product. By taking advantage of people's desire to be entertained, problems can be solved efficiently by online game players.

The online ESP Game [77] was the first human computation system, and it was subsequently adopted as the Google Image Labeler⁸. Its objective is to collect labels for images on Web. In addition to image annotation, the Peekaboom system [81] can help determine the location of objects in images, and the Squigl system [2] provides complete outlines of the objects in an image. Besides, Phetch [78], [79] provides image descriptions that improve web accessibility and image searches, while the Matchin system [2] helps image search engines rank images based on which ones are the most appealing. The concept of the ESP Game has been applied to other problems. For instance, the TagATune system [48], MajorMiner [54] and The Listen Game [75] provide annotation for sounds and music which can improve audio searches. The Verbosity system [80] and the Common Consensus system [51] collect commonsense knowledge that is valuable for commonsense reasoning and enhancing the design of interactive user interfaces. Green et al. [26] proposed PackPlay to mine semantic data. Examples in social annotation were described in [8], [9], [85]. Several GWAP-based geospatial tagging systems have been proposed in recent years, such as MobiMission [25], Gopher game [13] and CityExplorer [57], [58]. To simplify the way of designing a social game for a specific problem, Chan et al. [14] presented a formal framework for designing social games in general.

D. Creative System

The role of human in creativity cannot be replaced by any advanced technologies. The creative tasks, such as drawing and coding, can only be done by humans. As a result, some researchers seeked for crowdsourcing workers to do some creative tasks to reduce the production costs. An example is the Sheep Market. The Sheep Market is a web-based artwork to implicate thousands of online workers in the creation of a massive database of drawings. It is a collection of 10,000 sheeps created by MTurk workers, and each worker was paid US\$0.02 to draw a sheep facing left [3], [46]. Another example is Threadless⁹. Threadless is a platform of collecting graphic tshirt designs created by the communicty. Although technological advances rapidly nowadays, humans can innovate creative ideas in a product design process but computers cannot. It has no clue about how to solve a specific problem for developing a new product. Different individuals may create different ideas such as designing a T-shirt [10]. Moreover, Leimeister et al. [50] proposed to crowdsource software development tasks as ideas competitions to motivate more users to support and participate. Nowadays, scientists are being confronted by

increasingly complex problems, but current technology unable to provide solutions. Some crowdsourcing systems were designed to solve these problems. Foldit¹⁰ is a revolutionary new computer game that allows players to assist in predicting protein structures, an important area of biochemistry that seeks to find cures for diseases, by taking advantage of humans' puzzle-solving intuitions.

A crowdsourcing system typically supports only simple, independent tasks, such as labeling an image or judging the relevance of a search result. Some works proposed an idea of coordination among many individuals to complete more complex human computation tasks [52], [44]. Little et al. presented TurKit [52], which is a toolkit for exploring human computation algorithms on MTurk. TurKit allows users to write algorithms in a straight-forward imperative programming style, abstracting MTurk as a function call. Rather than solving many small, unrelated tasks partitioned into individual HITs, TurKit presented the notion that a single task, such as sorting or editing text, might require multiple coordinated HITs, and offers a persistence layer that makes it simple to iteratively develop such tasks without incurring excessive HIT costs. Kittur et al. presented CrowdForge [44] a general purpose framework for micro-task markets that provides a scaffolding for more complex human computation tasks which require coordination among many individuals, such as writing an article. CrowdForge abstracts away many of the programming details of creating and managing subtasks by treating partition/map/reduce steps as the basic building blocks for distributed process flows, enabling complex tasks to be broken up systematically and dynamically into sequential and parallelizable subtasks.

III. Algorithm

An algorithm can help to formalize the design of a crowdsourcing system. Yan et al. [87] designed an accurate realtime image search system for iPhone called CrowdSearch. CrowdSearch combines automated image search with real-time human validation of search results using MTurk. Nevertheless, an algorithm can model the performance of a crowdsourcing system. Wang et al. [83] modeled the completion time as a stochastic process and build a statistical method for predicting the expected time for task completion on MTurk. The experimental results showed that how time-independent variables of posted tasks (e.g., type of the task, price of the HIT, day posted, etc) affect completion time. Singh [71] proposed a game-theoretic framework for studying user behavior and motivation patterns in social media networks. DiPalantino and Vojnovic [16] modeled a competitive crowdsourcing system, and evidenced that participation rates are logarithmically increasing as a function of the offered reward. Ipeirotis et al. [38] presented an algorithm for quality management of the labeling process in a crowdsourcing system. The algorithm can generate a scalar score representing the inherent quality of each worker. Carterette and Soboroff [12] presented eight

⁸Google Image Labeler, http://images.google.com/imagelabeler/

⁹Threadless website: http://www.threadless.com/

¹⁰Foldit website: http://www.fold.it

models of possible errors for relevance judgments from crowd and showed how each affects an estimate of average precision. Jain and Parkes [40] surveyed existing game-theoretic models for various human computation designs, and also outlined the research challenges by advancing the game theory to enable better design of human computation systems.

IV. PERFORMANCE

In addition to designing new applications and algorithms for the concept of crowdsourcing, several studies have investigated the performance aspect of crowdsourcing recently. These works can be categorized into user participation, quality management and cheating detection as shown in this section.

A. User Participation

In a crowdsourcing system, tasks are distributed to a population of anonymous Internet users for completion. Understanding the demographics of crowdsourcing workers and examining their behavior attracted significant attentions.

1) Demographics: As Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) is increasingly popular recently, Ross et al. [68] described how the worker population has changed over time, shifting from a primarily moderate-income, U.S.-based workforce towards an increasingly international group with a significant population of young, well-educated Indian workers. For these Indian workers, MTurk may increasingly function as a part- or full-time job. To disqualify the workers who participate but do not take the study tasks seriously, Downs et al. [17] screened MTurk workers by using two previously pilot tested screening questions. Experimental results showed that those that are professionals, students, and non-workers seem to be more likely to take the task seriously than financial workers, hourly workers, and other workers. Besides, men over 30 and women of any age were much more likely to qualify.

2) Financial Incentives: Numerous studies investigated the motivation of workers in crowdsourcing systems. Silberman et al. [70] presented that the importance of money compared to other motivations, with most respondents reporting they do not do tasks for fun or to kill time. 25 percent of Indian respondents and 13 percent of U.S. respondents reported that MTurk is their primary source of income. The impact of the financial incentives on specified crowdsourcing tasks were studied [27], [42], [60], [31]. Harris [27] found that financial incentives actually encourage quality if the task is designed appropriately in resume review. Kazai [42] found that low pay conditions result in increased levels of unusable and spam labels for a large corpus of digitized books. Moreno et al. [60] concluded that the question-answering sites should function better (faster answers by filling faster the FAQ lists) with both long-term and short-term rewards. To balance between a companys production cost and its workers' reservation wage, Horton and Chilton [31] presented a labor supply model to estimate a worker's reservation wage.

3) Intrinsic Incentives: Although monetary crowdsourcing incentive is dominant, some crowdsourcing systems do not offer monetary rewards to their workers, such as YouTube.

What are the motivations of contribution in these systems? We describe various incentives other than financial incentives in the following. In the case of YouTube, attention, measured by the number of downloads, is an important driver of contributions [36]. Obviously, there exists a correlation between the rate at which content is generated and the number of downloads in YouTube. A lack of attention leads to a decrease in the number of videos uploaded and the consequent drop in productivity, which in many cases asymptotes to no uploads whatsoever. Wu et al. [86] demonstrated that contributors in YouTube who stop receiving attention tend to stop contributing, while prolific contributors attract an ever increasing number of followers and their attention in a feedback loop. In question-answering sites, Nam et al. [61] found altruism, learning, and competency are frequent motivations for top answerers to participate, but that participation is often highly intermittent. Besides, they showed that higher levels of participation correlate with better performance. For the purpose of open bug reporting, Ko and Chilana [45] found that in the case of Mozilla, what Mozilla gained was a small pool of talented developers and a number of critical fixes before the release of Firefox 1.0. These power contributors that contribute to open source projects have no intention of becoming regular contributors; they just want a bug fixed or a feature implemented. For the purpose of program coding, Archak [7] presented an empirical analysis of determinants of individual performance in multiple simultaneous crowdsourcing contests using a unique dataset for the world's largest competitive software development community (TopCoder.com). It studied the effects of the reputation system currently used by TopCoder.com on behavior of contestants. From observation, high rated contestants face tougher competition from their opponents in the competition phase of the contest. In an online photo-sharing community, Nov et al. [62] showed that tenure in the community does affect participation, but that this effect depends on the type of participation activity.

4) Worker Behavior: Many previous works showed that user interfaces can affect the behavior of crowdsourcing workers. By analyzing the waiting time for the posted tasks on MTurk, Ipeirotis [37] found that workers are limited by the current user interface and complete tasks by picking the tasks available through one of the existing sorting criteria. In addition to user interfaces, other factors affecting the behavior of crowdsourcing workers were found in the literature. Grady and Lease [24] investigated human factors involved in designing effective tasks on MTurk for document relevant assessment. They found that many of the same workers completed tasks in multiple batches, compromising the experimental control and likely introducing effects of training or fatigue. However, MTurk cannot prevent this happens. It is necessary to ensure each experiment involves a different set of workers in order to increase the output accuracy. Besides MTurk, other crowdsourcing websites were studied in literature. In 2008, Yang et al. [88] observed several characteristics in workers' activity over time on one of the biggest crowdsourcing websites in China, Tasken.com. It found that most workers become inactive after only a few submissions, while others keep attempting tasks. They tend to select tasks where they are competing against fewer opponents to increase their chances of winning; or they tend to select tasks with higher expected rewards. Instead of public crowdsourcing, a firm can outsource tasks to its employees rather than assign tasks to specified employees. Based on quantifiable effort-level metrics, Stewart et al. [74] proposed a SCOUT ((S)uper Contributor, (C)ontributor, and (OUT)lier) model for describing user participation inside the enterprise (within a company's firewall) and showed that it is possible to achieve a more equitable distribution of 33-66-1.

B. Quality Management

In a crowdsourcing system, a requester has to decide how to break down a task into several small tasks. A central challenge in crowdsourcing systems is how should a task be designed so as to induce good output from workers. Several studies performed comprehensive experiments using real datasets to study the impacts of user behavior on the quality of humanreviewed data. Mason and Watts [56] showed that increased financial incentives increase the quantity, but not the quality, of work performed by crowdsourcing workers. It is necessary to derive a set of design principles for tasks on crowdsourcing systems to guarantee the output quality of workers.

1) Image Annotation: Using Amazon Mechanical Turk [1] as an example, Snow et al. compared the quality of nonexpert annotations and existing gold standard labels for natural language tasks provided by expert labelers [73]. The results demonstrated that it is required to collect an average of 4 non-expert labels per item in order to emulate expert-level label quality, and that the annotation quality can be improved significantly after applying bias correction techniques. Sheng et al. [69] proposed an analysis to model the data quality using repeated labeling with a cost. They found that, with repeated labeling, it is possible to improve the data quality at low cost, especially when labels are noisy. Moreover, when the cost of processing the unlabeled data is not free, repeated labeling is preferable in that it is effective and robust in providing labels of good quality. In 2010, Nowak and Rüger [63] conducted a study about inter-annotator agreement for multi-label image annotation. Although they did not answer the question how many annotation sets of non-experts are necessary to obtain comparable results to expert annotators, they evidenced that different annotators judge the same data and the inter-annotator agreement among different annotators can ensure the quality.

2) Text Annotation: Rashtchian et al. [67] found that the use of a qualification test provides the highest improvement of quality of linguistic data collected in MTurk. Hsuch et al. [34] considered the difficult problem of classifying sentiment in political blog snippets. They identified and confirmed the utility of the three selection criteria for high-quality annotations in MTurk: noise level, sentiment ambiguity, and lexical uncertainty. In fact, label quality is affected by cognitive awareness of human knowledge. Feng et al. [19] carried out experiments and showed that for the same task turkers answered questions quite differently if they were provided different knowledge in

advance. Local search relevance is limited to topical relevance and geographical aboutness. Paiement et al. [64] used interannotator agreement as a quality measure for MTurk labels and discussed a simple approach to select only the most reliable labels. Wikipedia improves through the aggregation of many contributors' efforts. Kittur and Kraut [43] showed that adding more editors to an article improved article quality only when they used appropriate coordination techniques and was harmful when they did not. Implicit coordination through concentrating the work was more helpful when many editors contributed, but explicit coordination through communication was not.

3) General Tasks: Some work focused on the quality management of general tasks [35], [82]. Huang et al. [35] introduced a general approach for automatically designing tasks on MTurk. They constructed models for predicting the rate and quality of work. These models were trained on worker outputs over a set of designs, and were then used to optimize a task's design. They demonstrated that their models can accurately predict the quality of output per unit task and generate different designs depending on the quality metric. Voyer et al. [82] presented a two-phase, hybrid model for generating training data. They used named entity recognition as an example. In the first phase, a trained annotator labels all named entities in a text irrespective of type. In the second phase, naive crowdsourcing workers complete binary judgment tasks to indicate the type(s) of each entity. Decomposing the data generation task in this way results in a flexible, reusable corpus that accommodates changes to entity type taxonomies. In addition, it makes efficient use of precious trained annotator resources by leveraging highly available and cost effective crowdsourcing worker pools in a way that does not sacrifice quality.

C. Cheating Detection

Due to the anonymity of crowdsourcing workers, malicious workers often try to maximise their financial gains by producing generic answers rather than actually working on the task. Currently, cheat-detection techniques are either based on control questions which are evaluated automatically or rely on manual checking by the requester. Eickhoff and de Vries [18] inspected the commonly observed methods of malicious crowdsourcing workers, such as task-dependent evaluation, interface-dependent evaluation and audience-dependent evaluation. Based on experimental results, they concluded that malicious workers are less frequently encountered in novel tasks that involve a degree of creativity and abstraction, and prior crowd filtering can greatly reduce the number of malicious workers.

For the crowdsourcing systems that control questions are not applicable and manual re-checking is ineffective, Hirth et al. [30] presented two crowd-based approaches to detect cheating workers: a majority decision (MD) and an approach using a control group (CG) to re-checking the main task. For MD, the same task is given to several different workers and the results are compared. The result which most of the workers submitted is assumed to be correct. For CG, a single worker works on a main task and a control group consisting of certain other workers re-checks the result, whether it is valid or not. Usually the main task is expensive, while the re-check task is cheaper. A task is considered to be valid, if the majority of the control group decides the task is correctly done. Experimental results showed that crowd-based cheat-detection mechanisms are cheap, reliable, easy to implement, and their applicability to different types of typical crowdsourcing tasks.

For some suitations, hiring experts for fraud detection is very expensive. Almendra and Schwabe [5] proposed the use of crowdsourcing to improve precision and recall of current fraud detection techniques for online auction sites. They showed that they could distinguish fraudsters from common sellers before negative feedback arrived and looking just at a snapshot of seller profiles.

V. DATASET

A number of crowdsourcing datasets are now available for further research. For example, von Ahn et al. contributed a list of 100,000 images with English labels from their ESP Game¹¹. Law et al. released the research dataset for a human computation game called TagATune¹² [48]. Their website contains human annotations collected by the TagATune game, the corresponding sound clips from a web site for downloading songs called Magnatune¹³, the source code of the scripts, and a detailed analysis of the track's structure and musical content. Recently, Chen et al. developed the ESP Lite game, which is similar to the ESP game introduced by von Ahn et al., and collected statistics for players playing the game¹⁴. Oversity Ltd. developed CiteULike¹⁵, a free website, to help academics keep track of the articles they are reading on. Users are encouraged to make their libraries publicly available on the web so others can get the benefit of discovering useful articles they might not otherwise have found. In 2009, Benjamin Markines and Filippo Menczer extracted relationships among tags and resources from the available datasets of two social bookmarking systems, Bibsonomy¹⁶ and GiveALink¹⁷ [55]. In 2010, Ipeirotis et al. gathered all avaliable information from Amazon Mechanical Turk by computing daily statistics for new projects and completed tasks once a day and shared the dataset to the public¹⁸. Körner and Strohmaier [47] posted a list of social tagging datasets made available for research¹⁹.

¹¹ESP Game dataset: http://server251.theory.cs.cmu.edu/ESPGame100k.tar.gz
¹²Tagatune Dataset website: http://tagatune.org/Magnatagatune.html

¹³Magnatune Website - Pay for downloading songs: http://magnatune.com

¹⁴The website of IIS-NRL Games With A Purpose - ESP Lite: http://hcomp.iis.sinica.edu.tw/dataset/dataset_esplite20100101.php

¹⁶The Bibsonomy.org website: http://Bibsonomy.org and the dataset website: http://bibsonomy.org/help/doc/api.html

¹⁷The GiveALink.org website: http://GiveALink.org and the dataset website: http://givealink.org/main/download

¹⁸Mechanical Turk Tracker website: http://www.mturk-tracker.com/

¹⁹A List of Social Tagging Datasets Made Available for Research: http://kmi.tugraz.at/staff/markus/datasets/

VI. CONCLUSION

We have surveyed various crowdsourcing systems, and categorized them into four types: application, algorithm, performance and dataset. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first extensive survey of the emerging crowdsourcing issue. This survey not only provides a better understanding about crowdsourcing systems, but also facilitates future research activities and application developments in the field of crowdsourcing.

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