Data Models for Dataset Drift Controls in Machine Learning
With Images

Luis Oala∗
Fraunhofer HHI
luis.oala@hhi.fraunhofer.de

Marco Aversa∗
Dotphoton AG and University of Glasgow
marco.aversa@dotphoton.com

Gabriel Nobis
Fraunhofer HHI
gabriel.nobis@hhi.fraunhofer.de

Kurt Willis
Fraunhofer HHI
kurt.willis@hhi.fraunhofer.de

Yoan Neuenschwander
HEPIA/HES-SO
yoan.neuenschwander@hesge.ch

Michèle Buck
Klinikum rechts der Isar
michele.kyncl@tum.de

Christian Matek
Helmholtz Zentrum Munich
christian.matek@helmholtz-muenchen.de

Jérôme Extermann
HEPIA/HES-SO
jerome.extermann@hesge.ch

Enrico Pomarico
HEPIA/HES-SO
enrico.pomarico@hesge.ch

Wojciech Samek
Fraunhofer HHI
wojciech.samek@hhi.fraunhofer.de

Roderick Murray-Smith
University of Glasgow
roderick.murray-smith@glasgow.ac.uk

Christoph Clausen
Dotphoton AG
christoph.clausen@dotphoton.com

Bruno Sanguinetti
Dotphoton AG
bruno.sanguinetti@dotphoton.com

∗Equal contribution
Abstract

Camera images are ubiquitous in machine learning research. They also play a central role in the delivery of important public services spanning medicine or environmental surveying. However, the application of machine learning models in these domains has been limited because of robustness concerns. A primary failure mode are performance drops due to differences between the training and deployment data. While there are methods to prospectively validate the robustness of machine learning models to such dataset drifts, existing approaches do not account for explicit models of machine learning’s primary object of interest: the data. This limits our ability to study and understand the relationship between data generation and downstream machine learning model performance in a physically accurate manner. In this study, we demonstrate how to overcome this limitation by pairing traditional machine learning with physical optics to obtain explicit and differentiable data models. We demonstrate how such data models can be constructed for image data and used to control downstream machine learning model performance related to dataset drift. The findings are distilled into three applications. First, drift synthesis enables the controlled generation of physically faithful drift test cases to power model selection and targeted generalization. Second, the gradient connection between machine learning task model and data model allows advanced, precise tolerancing of task model sensitivity to changes in the data generation. These drift forensics can be used to precisely specify the acceptable data environments in which a task model may be run. Third, drift optimization opens the possibility to create drifts that can help the task model learn better faster, effectively optimizing the data generating process itself to support the downstream machine vision task. This is an interesting upgrade to existing imaging pipelines which traditionally have been optimized to be consumed by human users but not machine learning models. Alongside the data model code we release two datasets to the public that we collected as part of this work. In total, the two datasets, Raw-Microscopy and Raw-Drone, comprise 1,488 scientifically calibrated reference raw sensor measurements, 8,928 raw intensity variations as well as 17,856 images processed through twelve data models with different configurations. A guide to access the open code and datasets is available at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit.

1 Introduction

In this study we demonstrate how explicit data models for images can be constructed and then be used for advanced dataset drift controls in machine learning workflows. We connect raw image data, differentiable data models and the standard machine learning pipeline. This combination enables novel, physically faithful validation protocols that can be used towards intended use specifications of machine learning systems, a necessary pre-requisite for the use of any technology in many application domains such as medicine or autonomous vehicles.

Camera image data are a staple of machine learning research, from the early proliferation of neural networks on MNIST [1–4] to leaps in deep learning on CIFAR and ImageNet [5–7] or high-dimensional generative models [8, 9]. Camera images also play an important role in the delivery of various high-impact public and commercial services. Unsurprisingly, the exceptional capacity of deep supervised learning has inspired great imagination to automate or enhance such services. During the 2010s, "deep learning for ..." rang loud in most application domains under the sun, and beyond [10], spanning medicine and biology (microscopy for cell detection [11–14], histopathology [15, 16], ophthalmology [17–19], malaria detection [20–23]), geospatial modelling (climate [24–26], precision farming [27–29], pollution detection [30–32]) and more.

However, the excitement was reined in by calls for caution. Machine learning systems exhibit particular failure modes that are contingent on the makeup of their inputs [33–35]. Many findings from the machine learning robustness literature confirm supervised learning’s tremendous capacity for identifying features in the training inputs that are correlated with the true labels [36–40]. But these findings also point to a flipside of this capacity: the sensitivity of the resulting machine learning model’s performance to changes - both large and
small - in the input data. Because this dependency touches on generalization, a *summum bonum* of machine learning, the implications have been studied across most of its many sub-disciplines including robustness validation [41–54], formal model verification [55–71], uncertainty quantification [72–82], out-of-distribution detection [34, 83–87], semi- [88–90] and self-supervised learning [91, 92], learning theory and optimization [93–96], federated learning [97–99], or compression [100–102], among others.

We refer to the mechanism underlying changes in the input data as dataset drift\(^1\). Formally, we characterize it as follows. Let \((X_{\text{RAW}}, Y) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^{H,W} \times \mathcal{Y}\) be the raw sensor data generating random variable\(^2\) on some probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})\), for example with \(\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}^K\) for a classification task. Raw inputs \(x_{\text{RAW}}\) are in a data state before further processing is applied, in our case photons captured by the pixels of a camera sensor as displayed in the outputs of the "Measurement" block in Figure 1. The raw inputs \(x_{\text{RAW}}\) are then further processed by a *data model* \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}} : \mathbb{R}^{H,W} \to \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W}\), in our case the measurement hardware like a camera itself or other downstream data processing pipelines, to produce a processed view \(v = \Phi_{\text{Proc}}(x_{\text{RAW}})\) of the data as illustrated in the output of the "Data model" block in Figure 1. This processed view \(v\) could for example be the finished RGB image, the image data state that most machine learning researchers typically work with to train a *task model* \(\Phi_{\text{Task}} : \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W} \to \mathcal{Y}\). Thus, in the conventional machine learning setting we obtain \(V = \Phi_{\text{Proc}}(X_{\text{RAW}})\) as the image data generating random variable with the target distribution \(\mathcal{D}_t = \mathbb{P} \circ (V, Y)^{-1}\). A different data model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}\) generates a different view \(\tilde{V} = \Phi_{\text{Proc}}(X_{\text{RAW}})\) of the same underlying raw sensor data generating random variable \(X_{\text{RAW}}\), resulting in the *dataset drift*

\[
\mathcal{D}_s = \mathbb{P} \circ (\tilde{V}, Y)^{-1} \neq \mathcal{D}_t.
\]

This characterization of dataset drift is closely related to the concept of distributional robustness in the sense of Huber where 'the shape of the true underlying distribution deviates slightly from the assumed model' [104]. In the distributional robustness literature it is typically assumed that *something* changes from \(\mathcal{D}_t\) to \(\mathcal{D}_s\), however without exactly specifying *what* changes. This makes it unclear what is actually being compared, whether the considered change is plausible and what factors contribute to the change. Data models offer us a way out of this ambiguity through exact description of the data generating process. In practice, a common reason for dataset drift in images is a change in the camera types or settings, for example different acquisition microscopes across different lab sites \(s\) and \(t\) that lead to drifted distributions \(\mathcal{D}_s \neq \mathcal{D}_t\). Anticipating and validating the robustness of a machine learning model to these variations in an exact and traceable way is not just an engineering concern but also mandated by quality standards in many industries [105–107]. Omissions to perform physically faithful robustness validations has, among other reasons, slowed or prevented the rollout of machine learning technology in impactful applications such as large-scale automated retinopathy screening [108], machine learning melanoma detection [109, 110] or yield prediction [111] from drone cameras.

Hence, the calls for realistic robustness validation of image machine learning systems are not merely an exercise in intellectual novelty but a matter of integrating machine learning research with real world infrastructures and performance expectations around its core ingredient: the data.

### 1.1 The status quo of dataset drift controls for images

How can one go about validating a machine learning model’s performance under image dataset drift? The dominant empirical techniques can broadly be categorized into augmentation and catalogue testing. Each approach has particular benefits and limitations (see Table 1 for a conceptual comparison).

Augmentation testing involves the application of perturbations, for example Gaussian noise, to already processed images [43, 112, 113] in order to approximate the effect of dataset drift. Given a processed dataset this allows fast and easy generation of test samples. However, [114] point out that perturbations applied to an already processed image can produce drift artifacts that are unfaithful to the physics of camera processing.

\(^1\)Note that the nomenclature around dataset drift is as heterogeneous as the disciplines in which it is studied. See [103] for a good discussion of cross-disciplinary taxonomy. Here we are concerned with dataset drift as defined in Equation (1), that is changes in \(V\) that are induced by changes in \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}\) which some works also refer to as covariate shift or more generally as distribution shift.

\(^2\)We write an uppercase letter \(\mathbf{A}\) for a real valued random variable and a lowercase letter \(\mathbf{a}\) for its realization. A bold uppercase letter \(\mathbf{A}\) denotes a random vector and a bold lowercase letter \(\mathbf{a}\) its realization. For \(N \in \mathbb{N}\) realizations of the random vector \(\mathbf{A}\) we write \(\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_N\). The state space of the random vector \(\mathbf{A}\) is denoted by \(\mathbf{A} = \{\mathbf{A}(\omega) | \omega \in \Omega\}\).
Results in optics further support the concern that noise obtained from a composite image processing pipeline, such as the data model block in Figure 1, is distinct from noise added to an image that has already been processed on hardware [115, 116]. For illustration, assume we carry out augmentation testing to test the robustness of the task model wrt. to the dataset drift (1). Let $\xi \sim D_{\text{noise}}$ be a noise sample additively applied to the the view resulting in $v + \xi$. Doing so, the task models robustness is tested wrt. the distribution $P \circ (V + \Xi)^{-1}$ that might not approximate $D$ well. Since $P$ is unknown, this is difficult to resolve. For physically faithful robustness testing we need to ensure that a sample is an element of the image $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}[X_{\text{RAW}}]$ of $X_{\text{RAW}}$ under $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$. Accordingly, we define a physically faithful data point wrt. the dataset drift (1) as a view $\tilde{v}$ that satisfies $\tilde{v} \in \Phi_{\text{Proc}}[X_{\text{RAW}}]$. In augmentation testing, the test samples are not restricted to physically faithful data points wrt. to any data model.

A physically faithful alternative to augmentation testing is what we call catalogue testing. It involves the collection of datasets from different cameras which are then used as hold-out robustness validation datasets [49, 117–119]. It does not allow for as flexible and fast in-silico simulation of test cases as augmentation testing because cataloguing requires expensive data collection after which the test cases are "locked-in". Notwithstanding, catalogue testing comes with the appealing guarantee that test samples conform to the processing physics of the different cameras they were gathered from, ensuring that only physically faithful data points are used for testing.

However, the root of input data variations - the data model of images - has received little attention in machine learning robustness research to date. While machine learning practitioners are acutely aware of the dependency between data generation and downstream machine learning model performance, as 75% of respondents to a recent study confirmed [120], data models are routinely treated as a black-box in the robustness literature. This blind spot for explicit data models is particularly surprising since they are standard

---

**Figure 1**: Schematic illustration of an optical imaging pipeline, the data states and novel, raw-enabled drift controls. Data $x$ transitions through different representations. The measurement process yields metrologically accurate raw data $x_{\text{RAW}}$, where the errors on each pixel are uncorrelated and unbiased. From the RAW sensor state data undergoes stages of image signal processing (ISP) $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$, the data model we consider here. Finally, the data is consumed by a machine learning task model $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ which outputs $\hat{y}$. Combining raw data with the standard machine learning pipeline and a differentiable data model $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ enables useful controls for dataset drift comprising (1) drift synthesis, (2) drift forensics, and (3) processing adjustments under drift.
Table 1: A conceptual comparison of different empirical approaches to dataset drift validation for machine learning task models. While augmentation testing allows flexible, ad-hoc synthesis of test cases, they are, in contrast to catalogue testing, not guaranteed to be physically faithful. Pairing qualified raw data with explicit data models allows for flexible synthesis of physically faithful test cases. In addition, the differentiable data model opens up novel drift controls including drift forensics and drift adjustments.

| Augmentation testing | Catalogue testing | Data models |
|----------------------|------------------|-------------|
| Simulation of test samples | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ |
| Physically faithful test samples | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Differentiable data model | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ |

practice in other scientific communities, in particular optics and metrology [121–124], as well as advanced industry applications, including microscopy [125–127] or autonomous vehicles [128–130].

1.2 Our contributions

In this manuscript we outline how to alleviate this blind spot and obtain data models by connecting conventional machine learning with physical optics. Combining raw image data, differentiable data models $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ of image signal processing (ISP) and the standard machine learning pipeline enables us to go beyond what is possible with augmentation and catalogue testing. We obtain explicit, differentiable models of the data generating process for flexible, physically faithful drift controls for image machine learning models. Our core contributions are:

- The combination of raw sensor data and data models enables three novel dataset drift controls:
  1. **Drift synthesis**: Controlled synthesis of physically faithful drift test cases for model selection and targeted generalization. This is demonstrated for a classification and a regression task and compared to physically unfaithful alternatives (Section 5.1).
  2. **Drift forensics**: Given a particular data model $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$, the gradient from the upstream task model $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ can propagate to $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$, thus enabling precise data forensics: precise specification of data generation environments that should be avoided for a given task model (Section 5.2).
  3. **Drift optimization**: Lastly, the gradient connection between data $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ and task model $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ allows directly adjusting the data and data generating process themselves via backpropagation to aid the downstream task model learn better faster (Section 5.3).

- We collected and publicly release two raw image datasets in the camera sensor state for data modelling. The raw datasets come with full annotations and processing variations for both a classification (Raw-Microscopy, 17,860 total samples) and a regression (Raw-Drone, 10,412 total samples) task. The data can be downloaded from the anonymized record https://zenodo.org/record/5235536 as well as through the data loader integrated in our code base below.

- We provide modular PyTorch code for explicit and differentiable data models $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ from raw camera sensor data. All code is accessible at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit.

2 Related work

While physically sound data models of images have to the best of our knowledge not yet found their way into the machine learning and dataset drift literature, they have been studied in other disciplines, in particular physical optics and metrology. Our ideas on data models and dataset drift controls we present in this manuscript are particularly indebted to the following works.

**Data models for images** [131, 132] employ deep convolutional neural networks for modelling a raw image data processing which is optimized jointly with the task model. In contrast, we employ a parametric data
model with tunable parameters that enables the modular drift forensics and synthesis presented later. [133] propose a differentiable image processing pipeline for the purpose of camera lens manufacturing. Their goal, however, is to optimize a physical component (lens) in the image acquisition process and no code or data is publicly available. Existing software packages that provide low level image processing operations include Halide [134], Kornia [135] and the rawpy package [136] which can be integrated with our Python and PyTorch code. We should also take note that outside optical imaging there are areas in machine learning and applied mathematics, in particular inverse problems such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or computed tomography, that make use of known operator learning [137, 138] to incorporate the forward model in the optimization [139] or, as in the case of MRI, learn directly in the k-space [140].

**Drift synthesis** As detailed in Section 1, the synthesis of realistic drift test cases for a task model in computer vision is often done by applying augmentations directly to the input view $v_{GC}$, e.g. a processed .jpeg or .png image. Hendrycks et al. [43] have done foundational work in this direction developing a practical, standardized benchmark. However, as we explain in Section 1.1 there is no guarantee that noise $\xi$ added to a processed image $v$ will be physically faithful, i.e. that $v + \xi \in \Phi_{Proc}[X_{RAW}]$. This is problematic, as nuances matter [141] for assessing the cascading effects data models have on the task model $\Phi_{Task}$ downstream [120, 142]. For the same reason, the use of generative models [47] like GANs has been limited for test data generation as they are known to hallucinate visible and less visible artifacts [143, 144]. Other approaches, like the WILDS data catalogue [145, 146], build on manual curation of so called natural distribution shifts, or, like [68], on artificial worst case constructions. These are important tools for the study of dataset drifts, especially those that are created outside the camera image signal processing. Absent explicit, differentiable data models and raw sensor data, the shared limitation of catalogue approaches is that metrologically faithful drift *synthesis* is not possible and the data generating process cannot be granularly studied and manipulated.

**Drift forensics** Phan et al. [147] use a differentiable raw processing pipeline to propagate the gradient information back to the raw image. Similar to this work, the signal is used for adversarial search. However, Phan et al. optimize adversarial noise on a per-image basis in the raw space $x_{RAW}$, whereas our work modifies the parameters of the data model $\Phi_{Proc}$ itself in pursuit of harmful parameter configurations. The goal in this work is not simply to fool a classifier, but to discover failure modes and susceptible parameters in the data model $\Phi_{Proc}$ that will have the most influence on the task model’s performance.

**Drift adjustments** An explicit and differentiable image processing data model allows joint optimization together with the task model $\Phi_{Proc}$. This has been done for radiology image data [148–150] though the measurement process there is different and the focus lies on finding good sampling patterns. For optical data, a related strand of work is modelling inductive biases in the image acquisition process which is explained and contrasted to this work above [116, 133].

**Raw image data** Camera raw files contain the data captured by the camera sensors [121]. In contrast to processed formats such as .jpeg or .png, raw files contain the sensor data with minimal processing [115, 151, 152]. The processing of the raw data usually differs by camera manufacturer thus contributing to dataset drift. Existing raw data sets from the machine learning, computer vision and optics literature can be organized into two categories. First, datasets that are sometimes treated - usually not by the creators but by users of the data - as raw data but which are in fact not raw. Examples for this category can be found for both modalities considered here [153–163]. All of the preceding examples are processed and stored in formats including .jpeg, .tiff, .svs, .png, .mp4 and .mov. Second, datasets that are labelled raw data which are raw. In contrast to the labelled and precisely calibrated raw data presented here, existing raw datasets [164–167] are collected from various sources for image enhancement tasks without full specification of the measurement conditions or labels for classification or segmentation tasks.

### 3 Preliminaries: a data model for images

Before proceeding with a description of the methods we use to obtain the data models $\Phi_{Proc}$ in this study, let us briefly review the distinction between raw data $x_{RAW}$, processed image $v$ and the mechanisms $\Phi_{Proc}:\mathbb{R}^{H, W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{C, H, W}$ by which image data transitions between these states. Image acquisition has

---

3We recommend [122] for a good introduction to the physics of digital optical imaging.
traditionally been optimized for the human perception of a scene [122, 168]. Human eyes detect only the visible spectrum of electromagnetic radiation, hence imaging cameras in different application domains such as medical imaging or remote sensing are usually calibrated to aid the human eye perform a downstream task. This process that gives rise to optical image data, which ultimately forms the backbone for any machine learning downstream, is rarely considered in the machine learning literature. Conversely, most research to date has been conducted on processed RGB image representations. The raw sensor image $x_{\text{RAW}}$ obtained from a camera differs substantially from the processed image that is used in conventional machine learning pipelines. The $x_{\text{RAW}}$ state appears like a grey scale image with a grid structure (see $x_{\text{raw}}$ in Figure 1). This grid is given by the Bayer color filter mosaic, which lies over sensors [121]. The final RGB image $v$ is the result of a series of transformations applied to $x_{\text{RAW}}$. For many steps in this process different possible algorithms exist. Starting from a single $x_{\text{RAW}}$, all those possible combinations can generate an exponential number of possible images that are slightly different in terms of colors, lighting and blur - variations that contribute to dataset drift. In Figure 1 a conventional pipeline from $x_{\text{RAW}}$ to the final RGB image $v$ is depicted. Here, common and core transformations are considered. Note that depending on the application context it is possible to reoder or add additional steps. The symbol $\Phi_i$ is used to denote the $i^{\text{th}}$ transformation and $v_i$ (view) for the output image of $\Phi_i$. The first step of the pipeline is black level correction $\Phi_{BL}$, which removes any constant offset. The image $v_{BL}$ is a grey image with a Bayer filter pattern. A demosaicing algorithm $\Phi_{DM}$ is applied to construct the full RGB color image [169]. Given $v_{DM}$, intensities are adjusted to obtain a neutrally illuminated image $v_{WB}$ through a white balance transformation $\Phi_{WB}$. By considering color dependencies, a color correction transformation $\Phi_{CC}$ is applied to balance hue and saturation of the image. Once lighting and colors are corrected, a sharpening algorithm $\Phi_{SH}$ is applied to reduce image bluriness. This transformation can make the image appear more noisy. For this reason a denoising algorithm $\Phi_{DN}$ is applied afterwards [170, 171]. Finally, gamma correction, $\Phi_{GC}$, adjusts the linearity of the pixel values. For a closed form description of these transformations see Section 4.2. Compression may also take place as an additional step. It is not considered here as the input image size is already small. Furthermore, the effect of compression on downstream task model performance has been thoroughly examined before [172–176]. However, users of our code can add this step or reorder the sequence of steps in the modular processing object class per their use case needs4.

4 Methods

In order to obtain advanced data models for images, raw sensor data is required. Next, we explain how to obtain raw sensor data from existing optical hardware. We collected two datasets for two representative machine learning tasks. Both datasets are made available for free, public use at https://zenodo.org/record/5235536.

4.1 Raw dataset acquisition

As public, scientifically calibrated and labelled raw data is, to the best of our knowledge, currently not available, we acquired two raw datasets as part of this study: Raw-Microscopy and Raw-Drone. Raw-Microscopy consists of expert annotated blood smear microscope images. Raw-Drone comprises drone images with annotations of cars. Our motivation behind the acquisition of these particular datasets was threefold. First, we wanted to ensure that the acquired datasets provide good coverage of representative machine learning tasks, including classification (Raw-Microscopy) and regression (Raw-Drone). Second, we wanted to collect data on applications that, to our minds, are disposed towards positive welfare impact in today’s world, including medicine (Raw-Microscopy) and environmental surveying (Raw-Drone). Third, we wanted to ensure the downstream machine learning application contexts are such where errors can be costly, here patient safety (Raw-Microscopy) and autonomous vehicles (Raw-Drone), hence necessitating extensive robustness and dataset drift controls. Since data collection is an expensive project in and of itself we did not aspire to provide extensive benchmark datasets for the respective applications, but to collect enough data to demonstrate the advanced data modelling and dataset drift controls that raw data enables.

4See pipeline_torch.py and pipeline_numpy.py in our code.
In the following we provide detailed information on the two datasets and the calibration setups of the acquisition process. Samples of both datasets can be inspected in Figure 2 and Appendix A.3. Full datasheet documentation following [177] is also available in Appendix A.5.

**Raw-Microscopy**  
Assessment of blood smears under a light microscope is a key diagnostic technique for many healthcare services such as cancer treatment and kidney failure as well as blood disorder detection [178]. The creation of image datasets and machine learning models on them has received wide interest in recent years [13, 179, 180]. Variations in the image processing can affect the downstream task model performance [181]. Dataset drift controls can thus help to specify the perimeter of safe application for a task model. A raw dataset was collected for that purpose. A bright-field microscope was used to image blood smear cytopathology samples. The light source is a halogen lamp equipped with a 0.55 NA condenser, and a pre-centred field diaphragm unit. Filters at 450 nm, 525 nm and 620 nm were used to acquire the blue, green and red channels respectively. The condenser is followed by a $40 \times$ objective with 0.95 NA (Olympus UPLXAPo40X). Slides can be moved via a piezo with 1 nm spatial resolution, in three directions. Focus was achieved by maximizing the variance of the pixel values. Images are acquired at 16 bit, with a 2560 $\times$ 2160 pixels CMOS sensor (PCO edge 5.5). The point-spread function (PSF) was measured to be 450 nm with 100 nm nanospheres. Mechanical drift was measured at 0.4 pixels per hour. Imaging was performed on de-identified human blood smear slides (Ma190c Lieder, J. Lieder GmbH & Co. KG, Ludwigsburg/Germany). All slides were taken from healthy humans without known hematologic pathology. Imaging regions were selected to contain single leukoytes in order to allow unique labelling of image patches, and regions were cropped to 256 $\times$ 256 pixels. All images were annotated by a trained hematological cytologist using the standard scheme of normal leukocytes comprising band and segmented neutrophils, typical and atypical lymphocytes, monocytes, eosinophils and basophils [182]. To soften class imbalance, candidates for rare normal leukocyte types were preferentially imaged, and enrich rare classes. Additionally, two classes for debris and smudge cells, as well as cells of unclear morphology were included. Labelling took place for all imaged cells from a particular smear at a time, with single-cell patches shown in random order. Raw images were extracted using JetRaw Data Suite features. Blue, red and green channels are metrologically rescaled independently in intensity to simulate a standard RGB camera condition. Some pixels are discarded complementary on each channel in order to obtain a Bayer filter pattern.

**Raw-Drone**  
Automated processing of drone data has useful applications including precision agriculture [183] or environmental protection [184]. Variation in image processing has been shown to affect task model performance [111, 115], underlining the need for drift controls. For the purposes of this study, a raw car segmentation dataset was created for the drone image modality. A DJI Mavic 2 Pro Drone was used, equipped with a Hasselblad L1D-20c camera (Sony IMX183 sensor) having 2.4 $\mu$m pixels in Bayer filter array. The objective has a focal length of 10.3 mm. The f-number was set to $N = 8$, to emulate the PSF circle diameter relative to the pixel pitch and ground sampling distance (GSD) as would be found on images from high-resolution satellites. The PSF was measured to have a circle diameter of 12.5 $\mu$m. This corresponds to a diffraction-limited system, within the uncertainty dominated by the wavelength spread of the image. Images were taken at 200 ISO, a gain of $0.528 \text{DN/e}^-$. The 12-bit pixel values are however left-justified to 16-bits, so that the gain on the 16-bit numbers is $8.448 \text{DN/e}^-$. The images were taken at a height of 250 m, so that the pixel size is $5.8 \times 5.8$ mm.

\[ \Phi_{\text{Proc}}(x_{\text{RAW}}) \]

\[ y \]

\[ \Phi_{\text{Proc}}(x_{\text{RAW}}) \]

\[ y \]
GSD is 6 cm. All images were tiled in 256 × 256 patches. Segmentation color masks were created to identify cars for each patch. From this mask, classification labels were generated to detect if there is a car in the image. The dataset is constituted by 548 images for the segmentation task.

Both datasets include six additional raw variations at different intensity scales, augmented with JetRaw Data Suite.

4.2 Data models: Image signal processing \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}} \)

The second ingredient to this study are the data models of image processing. Let \((X_{\text{RAW}}, Y) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^{H,W} \times \mathcal{Y}\) be the raw sensor data generating random variable on some probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})\), with \(\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}^{H,W}\) for classification and \(\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}^{H,W}\) for segmentation. Let \(\Phi_{\text{Task}} : \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W} \to \mathcal{Y}\) be the task model determined during training. The inputs that are given to the task model \(\Phi_{\text{Task}}\) are the outputs of the data model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}\).

We distinguish between the raw sensor image \(\Phi_{\text{RAW}}\) and a view \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}(x_{\text{RAW}})\) of this image, where \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}: \mathbb{R}^{H,W} \to \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W}\) models the transformation steps applied to the raw sensor image during processing.

The objective in supervised machine learning is to learn a task model \(\Phi_{\text{Task}} : \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W} \to \mathcal{Y}\) within a fixed class of task models \(\mathcal{H}\) that minimizes the expected loss wrt. the loss function \(L : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [0, \infty)\), that is to find \(\Phi_{\text{Task}}\) such that

\[
\inf_{\Phi_{\text{Task}} \in \mathcal{H}} \mathbb{E}[L(\Phi_{\text{Task}}(V), Y)]
\]

is attained. Towards that goal, \(\Phi_{\text{Task}}\) is determined during training such that the empirical error

\[
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} L(\Phi_{\text{Task}}(v_n), y_n)
\]

is minimized over a sample \(\mathcal{S} = ((w_1, y_1), \ldots, (w_N, y_N))\) of views. Modelling in the conventional machine learning setting begins with the image data generating random variable \((V, Y) = (\Phi_{\text{Proc}}(X_{\text{RAW}}), Y)\) and the target distribution \(D_t = \mathbb{P} \circ (V, Y)^{-1}\). Given a dataset drift \(D_* = \mathbb{P} \circ (V, Y)^{-1} \neq D_t\), as specified in Equation (1), without a data model we have little recourse to disentangle reasons for performance drops in \(\Phi_{\text{Task}}\). To alleviate this underspecification, an explicit data model is needed. We consider two such models in this study: a static model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}}\) and a parametrized model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{para}}\).

In the following, we denote by \(x_{\text{RAW}} \in [0,1]^{H,W}\) the normalized raw image, that is a grey scale image with a Bayer filter pattern normalized by \(2^{16} - 1\), i.e.

\[
x_{\text{RAW}} = \begin{bmatrix}
A_{1,1} & \cdots & A_{1,w} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
A_{H,1} & \cdots & A_{H,w}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

with 

\[
A_{h,j} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{r_{2h+1,2w+1}}{2^{16}}, \frac{g_{2h+1,2w+1}}{2^{16}}, \frac{b_{2h+2w}}{2^{16}}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where the values \(r_{2h+1,2w+1}, g_{2h+1,2w+1}, b_{2h+2w}\) correspond to the values measured through the different sensors and normalized by \(2^{16} - 1\). We provide here a precise description of the transformations that we consider in our static model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}}\), followed by a description how to convert this static model into a differentiable, parametrized model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{para}}\).

4.2.1 The static data model \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}}\)

Following common steps in ISP, the static data model is defined as the composition

\[
\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} = \Phi_{\text{GC}} \circ \Phi_{\text{DN}} \circ \Phi_{\text{SH}} \circ \Phi_{\text{CG}} \circ \Phi_{\text{WB}} \circ \Phi_{\text{DM}} \circ \Phi_{\text{BL}},
\]

mapping a raw sensor image to a RGB image. We note that other data model variations, for example by reordering or adding steps, are feasible. The static data models allow the controlled synthesis of different, physically faithful views from the same underlying raw sensor data by manually changing the configurations of the intermediate steps. Fixing the continuous features, but varying \(\Phi_{\text{DM}}, \Phi_{\text{SH}}\) and \(\Phi_{\text{DN}}\) results in twelve different views for the configurations considered here. Samples for each of the twelve data models are provided...
in 3a. The individual functions of the composition $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{flat}}$ are specified as follows. If not stated otherwise, writing the equation $v_{c,h,w} = a_{c,h,w} + b_{c,h,w}$ defines $v_{c,h,w}$ for all $1 \leq c \leq 3$, $1 \leq h \leq H$ and $1 \leq h \leq W$.

**Black level correction (BL)** removes thermal noise and readout noise generated from the camera sensor. The transformation is given by

$$\Phi_{\text{BL}} : [0,1]^H \times W \rightarrow [0,1]^H \times W, x_{\text{RAW}} \mapsto v_{\text{BL}},$$

with

$$v_{\text{BL}}(2h+1,2w+1) = x_{\text{BL}}(2h+1,2w+1) - b_1,$$

$$v_{\text{BL}}(2h,2w+1) = x_{\text{BL}}(2h,2w+1) - b_2,$$

$$v_{\text{BL}}(2h+1,2w) = x_{\text{BL}}(2h+1,2w) - b_3,$$

$$v_{\text{BL}}(2h,2w) = x_{\text{BL}}(2h,2w) - b_4,$$

By design of $b \in \mathbb{R}^4$, black level correction ensures that $v_{\text{BL}}$ is again an element of $[0,1]^H \times W$.

**Demosaicing (DM)** is applied to reconstruct the full RGB color image through interpolation. We use one of the three demosaicing algorithms BayerBilinear ($\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{BL}}$), Menon2007 ($\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$) and Malvar2004 ($\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Mal}}$) from the Python package color-demosaicing and denote this transformation by the map

$$\Phi_{\text{DM}} : [0,1]^3 \times H \times W \rightarrow [0,1]^3 \times H \times W, v \mapsto v_{\text{DM}}.$$  

**White balance (WB)** is applied to obtain a neutrally illuminated image. The transformation is given by

$$\Phi_{\text{WB}} : [0,1]^3 \times H \times W \rightarrow [0,1]^3 \times H \times W, v \mapsto v_{\text{WB}},$$

where $w_b \in [0,1]^3$ adjusts the intensities by

$$(v_{\text{WB}})_{c,h,w} = w_b c \cdot (v_{\text{DM}})_{c,h,w}.$$  

**Color correction (CC)** balances the saturation of the image by considering color dependencies. Let $M \in \mathbb{R}^{3,3}$ be the color matrix. The transformation is defined by

$$\Phi_{\text{CC}} : [0,1]^3 \times H \times W \rightarrow [0,1]^3 \times H \times W, v \mapsto v_{\text{CC}},$$

where

$$v_{\text{CC}} = \begin{bmatrix} (v_{\text{CC}})^{1,h,w} \\ (v_{\text{CC}})^{2,h,w} \\ (v_{\text{CC}})^{3,h,w} \end{bmatrix} = M \begin{bmatrix} (v_{\text{WB}})^{1,h,w} \\ (v_{\text{WB}})^{2,h,w} \\ (v_{\text{WB}})^{3,h,w} \end{bmatrix}. $$

The entries of the resulting $v_{\text{CC}}$ are no longer restricted to $[0,1]$.

**Sharpening (SH)** reduces the blurriness of an image. We use the two methods sharpening filter ($\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$) and unsharp masking ($\Phi_{\text{SH}}^{\text{UM}}$) that are applied after a transformation of the view $v_{\text{CC}}$ to the YUV-color space. To convert the view to the YUV-color space we use the skimage.color function rgb2yuv ($\Phi_{YUV}$). The

| Data models | Used functions |
|-------------|----------------|
| bi,s,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{BL}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| bi,s,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| bi,u,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{ML}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| bi,u,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{ML}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| me,s,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| me,s,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| me,u,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| me,u,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| ma,s,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| ma,s,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| ma,u,me    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |
| ma,u,ga    | $\Phi_{\text{DM}}^{\text{Men}}$, $\Phi_{\text{UM}}^{\text{SH}}$ |

A version with higher resolution is omitted here to save space and can instead be found in Figure 8 in the appendices.
sharpening filter
\[ SF : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \]  \hspace{1cm} (12)
is defined by a channel-wise convolution
\[ (SF(v))_{c,h,w} = ((v_c \ast k)_{h,w})_c \quad \text{with} \quad k := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (13)
of the view
\[ v = \Phi_{YUV}(v_{CC}). \]  \hspace{1cm} (14)
For unsharp masking we use the `skimage.filters.unsharp_mask` function modeled by \( UM \). To formally define the sharpening we write
\[ \Phi_{SH} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, v \mapsto v_{SH} \]  \hspace{1cm} (15)
where
\[ v_{SH} = algo \circ \Phi_{YUV}(v_{CC}) \quad \text{with} \quad algo \in \{ SH, UM \}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (16)

**Denoising (DN)** reduces the noise in an image that is (partly) introduced by SH and transforms the YUV-color space view back to the RGB-color space. For the latter transformation, the `scipy.ndimage.yuv2rgb` function is used. We apply one out of the two methods Gaussian denoising (\( \Phi_{GD} \)) and Median denoising (\( \Phi_{DN} \)). For Gaussian denoising, we apply a Gaussian filter (GF) with standard deviation of \( \sigma = 0.5 \) from the `scipy.ndimage.GD` package. Formally, this reads as
\[ \Phi_{DN} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, v \mapsto v_{DN} \]  \hspace{1cm} (17)
where
\[ v_{DN} = \Phi_{YUV}^{-1} \circ algo(v_{SH}) \quad \text{with} \quad algo \in \{ GF, UM \}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (18)

**Gamma correction (GC)** equilibrates the overall brightness of the image. First, the entries of the view \( v_{DN} \) are clipped to \([0,1]\) leading to
\[ (v_{CPF})_{c,h,w} = (v_{DN})_{c,h,w} \mathbb{1}(0 \leq (v_{DN})_{c,h,w} \leq 1) + \mathbb{1}((v_{DN})_{c,h,w} > 1). \]  \hspace{1cm} (19)
Second, the brightness adjusting transformation is defined by
\[ \Phi_{GC} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \rightarrow [0,1]^{3,H,W}, v \mapsto v_{GC} = (v_{CPF})^\gamma \]  \hspace{1cm} (20)
for some \( \gamma > 0 \) applied element-wise. Note that zero-clipping is necessary for \( v_{GC} \) to be well-defined.

In total, we define the composition
\[ \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} : [0,1]^{H,W} \rightarrow [0,1]^{3,H,W} \]  \hspace{1cm} (21)
of the above steps
\[ \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} := \Phi_{GC} \circ \Phi_{DN} \circ \Phi_{SH} \circ \Phi_{CC} \circ \Phi_{WB} \circ \Phi_{DM} \circ \Phi_{BL} \]  \hspace{1cm} (22)
and call \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} \) the **static pipeline**.

To test the effect of different static data models on the performance of two task models, we fix the continuous features \( \mathbf{bl}, \mathbf{wb}, \mathbf{M} \) and \( \gamma \), but vary the denoising method, the sharpening method and the denoising method, resulting in twelve different views, generated by different configurations of \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} \). An overview of the data model configurations and their corresponding abbreviations can be found alongside processed samples in Figures 3a and 3b.

### 4.2.2 The parametrized data model \( \Phi_{\text{Para}}^{\text{Proc}} \)

For a fixed raw sensor image, the **parametrized data model** \( \Phi_{\text{Para}}^{\text{Proc}} \) maps from a parameter space \( \Theta \) to a RGB image. It is similar to the static data model with the notable difference that each processing step is differentiable w.r.t. its parameters \( \theta \). This allows for backpropagation of the gradient from the output of the task model \( \Phi_{\text{Task}} \) through the data model \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}} \) all the way back to the raw sensor image \( x_{\text{RAW}} \) to perform drift forensics and drift adjustments. Hence, we aim to design a data model \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}} : \mathbb{R}^{H,W} \times \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{C,H,W} \) that is differentiable in \( \theta \in \Theta \) satisfying
\[ \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} = \Phi_{\text{Para}}^{\text{Proc}}(\cdot, \theta^{\text{stat}}) \]  \hspace{1cm} (23)
for some choice of parameters \( \theta^{\text{stat}} \) and some fixed configuration of the static pipeline \( \Phi_{\text{Proc}}^{\text{stat}} \).
Black level correction (BL) For the parametrized black level correction define the map
\[ \Phi_{BL}^{\text{stat}} : [0, 1]^{H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{H,W}, (x_{\text{RAW}}, \theta_1) \mapsto v_{BL} = \Phi_{BL}(x_{\text{RAW}})|_{\theta=\theta_1}. \] (24)
and set \( \Theta_1 := \mathbb{R}^{4}. \)

Demosaicing (DM) We first convert \( v_{BL} \) to a three channel image \( [R, G, B] \in \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \) where the entries of \( R, G \) and \( B \) are zero except
\[ R_{2h+1,2w+1} = v_{BL_{2h+1,2w+1}}, \quad B_{2h,2w} = v_{BL_{2h,2w}}, \]
\[ G_{2h+1,2w} = v_{BL_{2h+1,2w}}, \quad G_{2h,2w+1} = v_{BL_{2h,2w+1}}. \]
To parametrize \( \Phi_{DM}^{\text{Bil}} \) define the map
\[ \Phi_{DM}^{\text{para}} : [0, 1]^{H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^{3,3,3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, (v_{BL}, \theta_2) \mapsto v_{DM} \] (25)
with \( \theta_2 = [k_1, k_2, k_3] \), where the kernels \( k_1, k_2, k_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3,3} \) are separately applied to each color channel resulting in
\[ v_{DM_{1,h,w}} = (R \ast k_1)_{h,w}, \]
\[ v_{DM_{2,h,w}} = (G \ast k_2)_{h,w}, \]
\[ v_{DM_{3,h,w}} = (B \ast k_3)_{h,w}. \]
The source code of BayerBilinear shows that the parameter choice
\[ k_1 = k_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.25 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 1 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.25 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad k_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0.5 & 0.25 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.25 & 0.5 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} \] (26)
leads to
\[ \Phi_{DM}^{\text{Bil}} = \Phi_{DM}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_2). \] (27)
Towards the definition of the parameter space set \( \Theta_2 := \mathbb{R}^{3,3,3} \times \Theta_1. \)

White balance (WB) For the parametrized white balance define the map
\[ \Phi_{WB}^{\text{para}} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, (v_{DM}, \theta_3) \mapsto v_{WB} = \Phi_{WB}(v_{DM})|_{\theta=\theta_3} \] (28)
and set \( \Theta_3 := \mathbb{R}^{3} \times \Theta_2. \)

Color correction (CC) For the parametrized color correction define the map
\[ \Phi_{CC}^{\text{para}} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, (v_{WB}, \theta_4) \mapsto v_{CC} = \Phi_{CC}(v_{WB})|_{\theta=\theta_4} \] (29)
and set \( \Theta_4 := \mathbb{R}^{3} \times \Theta_3. \)

Sharpening (SH) We parametrize the sharpening filter configuration of the static pipeline, by using the entries of \( k \in \mathbb{R}^{3,3} \) defined in (13) as parameters leading to
\[ \Phi_{SH}^{\text{para}} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, (v_{CC}, \theta_5) \mapsto v_{SH} = \Phi_{SH}(v_{CC})|_{k=\theta_5} \] (30)
and \( \Theta_5 := \mathbb{R}^{3,3} \times \Theta_4. \)

Denoising (DN) We parametrize the configuration where the Gaussian denoising method is applied. Applying the Gaussian filter from scipy.ndimage with \( \sigma = 0.5 \) is equivalent to a convolution of the view in the YUV-color space with a specific \( k_{\text{gauss}} \in \mathbb{R}^{5,5} \). For the specific values of \( k_{\text{gauss}} \) see K_BGR at the code of the parametrized pipeline. Therefore, to parametrize DN we define the map
\[ \Phi_{DN}^{\text{para}} : \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W} \times \mathbb{R}^{5,5} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3,H,W}, (v_{SH}, \theta_6) \mapsto v_{DN} = \Phi_{DN}(v_{SH})|_{k_{\text{gauss}},\theta_6} \] (31)
and set \( \Theta_6 := \mathbb{R}^{5,5} \times \Theta_5. \)

Gamma correction (GC) Define the parametrized gamma correction by
\[ \Phi_{GC}^{\text{para}} : [0, 1]^{3,H,W} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]^{3,H,W}, (v_{DN}, \theta) \mapsto v = v_{GC} = \Phi_{GC}(v_{DN})|_{\gamma=\theta}. \] (32)
Using all the above steps, we define for \( \theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_7) \in \Theta \) the parametrized processing model
\[ \Phi_{\text{proc}}^{\text{para}} : [0, 1]^{3,H,W} \times \Theta \rightarrow [0, 1]^{3,H,W}, (x_{\text{RAW}}, \theta) \mapsto v \] (33)
by the composition
\[ v = (\Phi_{GC}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta) \circ \Phi_{DN}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_6) \circ \Phi_{SH}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_5) \circ \Phi_{CC}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_4) \circ \Phi_{WB}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_3) \circ \Phi_{DM}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_2) \circ \Phi_{BL}^{\text{para}}(\cdot, \theta_1))(x_{\text{RAW}}). \] (34)
We call $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ the *parametrized data model*. The operations used above are differentiable except for the clipping operation in the GC that is $a.e.$-differentiable, since the set $\{0, 1\}$ of non-differentiable points has measure zero. Assuming in addition that $P\left((v_{\text{DN}})_{c,h,w} \in \{0, 1\}\right) = 0$ holds true for the entries of $v_{\text{DN}}$, results in an $a.e.$-differentiable processing model. We further say that $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ is differentiable, noting that this holds only $a.e.$ under the aforementioned assumption.

### 4.3 Task models $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$

Finally, two task models are employed in the experiments. For the classification task on the Raw-Microscopy dataset a 18-layer residual net (ResNet18) \cite{ResNet18} was used as reference task model. To segment cars from the Raw-Drone dataset the convolutional neural network proposed in \cite{U-Net} (U-Net) was used. Both task models were trained using common data augmentations on processed views $v$ of the image measurements to avoid naive robustness failures. A detailed description of the task models and their hyperparameters is given in A.2.

### 5 Applications

With data models, raw data and task models in place we are now able to demonstrate the advanced dataset drift controls comprising 1 drift synthesis, 2 modular drift forensics and 3 drift optimization.

#### 5.1 Drift synthesis

The static data model enables physically faithful synthesis of drift test cases: individual components of the data model can be swapped out, allowing the controlled creation of different, physically faithful processed views from one raw reference dataset. A typical use case of drift synthesis for machine learning researchers and practitioners is the prospective validation of their task model to drift from different camera devices, for example microscopes across different labs, without having to collect measurements from the different devices. This simulation can be done insilico as software because the hardware specific processing that takes place on optical measurement devices after the sensor reading is also insilico. Thus, the extraction of raw sensor readings from one device allows the emulation of different processing variations present on other devices. A typical workflow of this data synthesis starts with an engineer constructing a data model of interest, then passing raw measurements through it and finally getting emulated data to test how the downstream task model would fare on processing variations from different devices.

We provide twelve possible example data models in the following experiments. For each of the twelve data models laid out in Section 4.2, the task models were trained for 100 epochs on image data processed through the training data model. Hyperparameters were kept constant across all runs to isolate the effect of varying the data models. Then, dataset drift test cases were synthesized by processing the raw test data through the remaining eleven data models. The task models were then evaluated on test data from all twelve data models. All results that follow are reported as the mean with error bars over a 5-fold cross-validation. The metrics used to evaluate the task models are accuracy for classification and IoU for segmentation.

#### 5.1.1 Physically faithful versus physically unfaithful robustness validation

The leukocyte classification model, as displayed in the left matrix of Figure 4, has a critical drop for few configurations, suggesting that it is relatively robust to processing induced dataset drift except for the (ma,s,me) configuration. Note that diagonal elements serve as reference corresponding to test data that was processed in the same way as the training data. The segmentation task model (left matrix in Figure 5) displays a more heterogeneous pattern with symmetries for certain combinations of data models, such as (bi, u, me/ga) and (me, s, me/ga), which are mutually destructive to the task model performance. The average performance of the task models drops from 0.82 to 0.8 between train and test data models for classification and from 0.71 to 0.65 for segmentation. The results for individual components of the data models can also be directly compared in Figures 4 and 5. For example, to understand how changes in the demosaicing algorithm

---

\(^6\)a.e. stands for almost everywhere  
\(^7\)You can find a full description of task model hyperparameters and experimental setup in Appendix A.2.
Drift synthesis with $\Phi_{\text{stat}}^{\text{Proc}}$: Microscopy

Figure 4: 5-fold cross-validation results of the Raw-Microscopy drift synthesis experiments. Each cell contains the average accuracy with a color coded border for the standard deviation. Task models were trained on the data models on the vertical axis and then tested on processed data as indicated on the horizontal axis. Numbers 1-3 left to the vertical axis denote the ranking of task models according to their average accuracy across all test pipelines (respective corruptions). Stars denote the train pipeline under which the task model performed best on the respective test pipeline/corruption. Full ranking results can be found in Tables 5 to 7 of Appendix A.4. Top-left: Varying the data model leads to mild performance drops except (ma,s,me). Diagonal is $\Phi_{\text{Proc}} = \tilde{\Phi}_{\text{Proc}}$. Top-Right: Comparison to the corruption benchmark at medium severity (level 3). The average performance drop is more than thirteen times higher compared to data model variations. First column is $\Phi_{\text{Proc}} = \tilde{\Phi}_{\text{Proc}}$. Bottom: Visual inspection of worst case train/test pipelines.

Under augmentation testing with the Common Corruptions Benchmark [43] corruptions such as Gaussian blur are applied to already processed images $v$, which, as we have shown in Section 1, are not physically faithful. We include them here in direct comparison because they are often used in machine learning robustness research in lieu of realistic validation of image classifiers and we want to demonstrate how the conclusions drawn from it differ from a physically faithful approach. Only those corruptions that can plausibly be related to the ISP were used in this comparison. Others, such as Fog, Spatter, Motion, Snow, Frost were excluded.

In contrast to physically faithful test data, the performance drops under corruptions are more severe across the board: from 0.82 to 0.55 for classification and from 0.71 to 0.49 for segmentation. This is more than thirteen

---

8A comparative overview of included and excluded corruptions can be found in Figure 14 of Appendix A.4

9Results at additional severity levels for the common corruptions can be found in Appendix A.4.
5.1.2 Implications for model selection

Similarly, the conclusions for model selection diverge depending on whether physically faithful data or corruptions are used. In terms of the average performance across all test conditions, none of the top-3 training...
data models\textsuperscript{10} overlap between ISP and common corruptions on the classification task. For segmentation, only one of the training data models (bi,s,ga) overlaps in the top-3 under ISP and common corruptions. Similarly, the training data models under which task models perform best in individual testing conditions vary widely between ISP and common corruptions, both for classification and segmentation. Why does physical faithfulness matter in dataset drift testing? A test result is only as reliable as its constituting parts. If we are to rely on robustness test results to decide whether to use a task model in a certain data environment or not, we need to ensure the test cases represent real-world data models. If the test cases are not physically faithful, the results based on them are of limited use to make decisions.

5.1.3 Data models and targeted generalization

Recent advances in learning theory by Krikamol Muandet conjecture the impossibility to design rational learning algorithms that have the ability to successfully learn across heterogeneous environments \[96\]. Explicit data models allow us to rethink the problem of generalization in a similar vein. With data models it is possible to i) precisely specify individual environments and ii) observe what combinations of environments and task model play together nicely. Rather than selecting task models with best average performance across all heterogeneous test environments, we can serve the task model with the right data model depending on which environment it is deployed in. When we analyze the columns of the matrices in Figures 4 and 5 we can observe under what training data model (or 'environments' in Muandet's language) the task model performs best in which testing environment. These configurations are marked by a star (\(\star\)). For example, in the case of classification we can observe that for a task model to perform well in (bi,u,me) and (bi,u,ga) test data environments, the (ma,u,ga) training data environment is best (left matrix, Figure 4). However, for the segmentation task, to perform best in the same testing data environments, the (bi,u,me) training data environment is preferable (left matrix, Figure 5).

5.1.4 Use cases and limitations of drift synthesis

The most immediate use cases for drift synthesis is physically faithful, prospective validation without measurement. In this scenario an engineer will have a task model as well as reference raw measurements. She would then construct data models of interest, for example for two different microscopes across laboratory sites \(s\) and \(t\). She would then pipe the reference measurements through data models \(s\) and \(t\) to obtain two different datasets and test the task models on them. She could observe the effect of the processing in lab site \(t\) from a computer without ever having to take expensive measurements on site. Building up a catalogue of data models, as we demonstrated in the experiments, then further allows to perform model selection or targeted generalization management where the task model is paired with suitable data models during deployment. All these applications presuppose access to raw data as well as knowledge of the data model specification so that they can be constructed accordingly in software.

5.2 Drift forensics

Clear and precise specification of the limitations of use is a mandated requirement for many products that can potentially contain machine learning components, such as software as a medical device \[105, 106\] or autonomous vehicles \[187\]. Without knowledge and control over the data acquisition process in practice this requirement cannot be met. An explicit, differentiable data model paired with raw data offers a viable solution to this problem. \(\Phi_{\text{Proc}}\) enables the analysis of the task model’s susceptibility to dataset drift in an interpretable manner using adversarial search. Related work, such as \[147\] also uses a differentiable raw processing pipeline to propagate the gradient information back to the raw image. There, however, the signal is used in a classical adversarial setup, to optimize adversarial noise on a per-image basis. In our work here, gradient updates are not applied to individual images, but to the data model parameters. The goal of such an analysis is to identify the parameter configurations of the data model under which the task model should not be operated. The resulting adjustments correspond to plausible changes which reflect changes in data model, for example due to changing camera ISPs. In order to limit the parameter ranges, we chose an explicit

\textsuperscript{10}Denoted by the numbers 1-3 alongside the rows of the matrices in Figures 4 and 5
\[ \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \lambda \| V - \tilde{V} \|_2^2 - \mathcal{L}(\tilde{V}, Y) \]  

where \( V = \Phi_{\text{para}}^{\text{Proc}}(X_{\text{RAW}}, \theta) \) are the RGB images obtained from the original data model and \( \tilde{V} = \Phi_{\text{para}}^{\text{Proc}}(X_{\text{RAW}}, \tilde{\theta}) \) are the RGB images obtained from adversarial search on the data model parameters. Equation (35) maximizes the classification loss under a relaxed \( \ell_2 \)-constraint controlled by the hyperparameter \( \lambda \geq 0 \). This procedure yields data model parameters that deteriorate the task model performance while keeping the measured distortion minimal and the within constraints of physical faithfulness. All of the pipeline’s parameters are optimized jointly to search for a task model’s overall data model related weaknesses. Targeting select parameters is also possible and provides insight into a parameter’s effect on the task model’s performance.

### 5.2.1 Sensitivity to data models

The left plot in block (a) of Figure 6 shows sensitivities of the classification task model to changes in the data model parameters. With increased relaxation of the \( \ell_2 \)-regularization, the accuracy declines exposing configurations under which the task model deteriorates. As to be expected, the setting allowing for all parameters to be altered shows the biggest effect on the resulting performance. Individually, changes in the black level configuration \( \Phi_{\text{para}}^{\text{BL}} \) and the denoising parameters \( \Phi_{\text{para}}^{\text{DN}} \) pose the greatest risk for task model performance under a relaxed regularization weight. In contrast to the classification model the performance drops for the segmentation model are less severe (top plot in block (c) of Figure 6). We hypothesize that this is because classification problems are inherently discontinuous while inverse problems inherently allow for more stable solutions [188], thus being less susceptible to instabilities.

### 5.2.2 Sensitivity in relation to magnitude

For comparison, the right plot in block (a) of Figure 6 shows the regularization weight \( \lambda \) against the resulting \( \ell_2 \). Interestingly, a higher norm in the resulting RGB images does not directly translate to the most severe
Drift adjustments with $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$

(a) Low intensity (0.001) $X_{\text{RAW}}$ with $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$

Frozen

Learned

Validation metric

Frozen

Learned

(b) High intensity (1.0) $X_{\text{RAW}}$ with $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$

Figure 7: Low (a) and high (b) intensity images processed by a frozen and a learned pipeline. This type of drift optimization would not be possible with processed data. The plots columns three and six display the mean of validation metrics over five cross validation runs. Error bars are reported as one standard deviation. Optimization step 1439 and 915 correspond to epoch 60 into training.

5.2.3 Use cases and limitations of drift forensics

A practical use-case of drift forensics looks follows: party $s$ develops and trains a model and then licenses it to party $t$ for use. Party $t$ wants to know what the data conditions are under which the task model performs well and under which conditions it should not be used. Party $s$ runs drift forensics and provides party $t$ with a forensic signature, as seen in Figure 6, detailing which parameters in the data model can be changed and which should not be touched to maintain task model performance. Party $t$ can use this information to calibrate their data processing and knows which data settings to avoid for the specific task model. As with the other drift controls, access to the raw data as well as data models is required to perform drift forensics.

5.3 Drift optimization

In the previous two experiments we demonstrated how raw data and a differentiable data model can be used to identify and then modularly test for unfavorable data models that should be avoided during deployment of the machine learning task model. The same mechanics can also be exploited to optimize the data itself, effectively creating a beneficial drift. In the drift optimization setting, the gradient from the task model $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ is propagated into the data model $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ to jointly optimize both of them. In the learned setting, the data model parameters are jointly optimized with the task model parameters. In the frozen setting, only the task model parameters are optimized and the data model parameters are kept fixed.\(^\text{11}\)

5.3.1 Convergence and stability

In the left column (a) of Figure 7 these two scenarios are compared. The learned data model creates a drift that improves stability of the learning trajectory. This is indicated by the blue line which displays the validation accuracy against optimization steps for the first half of training (step 1439 corresponds to epoch 60). It exceeds that of the frozen data model (red line) by up to 25 percentage points in accuracy at a lower

\(\text{11}\) The initialization of $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ (both frozen and learned) is set to standard values which can be found in Appendix A.1 as well as in pipeline_torch.py of the code.
variance. For the segmentation task (bottom row Figure 7) the stabilization effect cannot be observed. This could be due to the low resolution of the problem itself as the drift optimization may not have a large effect on enhancing the solid blocks of cars in the raw data. Other evidence further suggests that inverse problems are inherently less unstable [188].

5.3.2 Helpful artifacts

In fact, the processed image from a learned data model with optimized drift (see learned column in block (a) of Figure 7 for an example) can contain visible artifacts that aid stability and generalization vis-a-vis the image from the frozen baseline data model which, arguably, looks cleaner to the human eye. A possible explanation for the improved learning trajectory could be that a varying optimized drift automatically generates samples akin to data augmentation. Such uses could further be explored in scarce data settings like fine tuning, semi-supervised or few-shot learning. Having gradient access to the data model thus offers the opportunity to optimize data generation itself for a given machine learning task. If learned data models are to be applied in real-world applications, it thus appears likely that a tradeoff has to be made between human perceived visual quality and artifacts that can be helpful to the task model.

Similar outcomes for stability and artifacts can also be observed for the reverse situation (high intensity 1.0 $x_{RAW}$) in the right column (b) of Figure 7.

5.3.3 Raw and data models

We demonstrated how parametrized data models can be used to optimized drift under data model constraints. Going beyond physically faithful drift controls, an interesting extension to drift optimization is training directly on raw data to optimize task model performance. While in this manuscript we are concerned with providing building blocks to emulate optical data models used in practice, training directly on raw opens up the possibility to learn purely machine-optimized optical data processing free of existing data model constraints. In the last column of Figure 7 an optimization directly on raw data is displayed for each task. For classification, a performance similar to the learned setting is achieved with a more volatile optimization trajectory. For the segmentation task, the performance is not on par with either the learned or frozen setting, but it appears plausible that this gap can be substantially reduced with further finetuning. Learning directly on raw data thus appears as a promising direction for data model-free machine vision.

5.3.4 Use cases and limitations of drift optimization

Drift optimization can be used to squeeze out performance from a task model by creating drift that is helpful. A common use case is the adjustment of imaging pipelines, such as microscopes, that have traditionally been optimized for human end users, for example medical staff, which are increasingly being used in conjunction with automated machine learning models, for example for cell detection. By adjusting the parameters in the data models of existing optical laboratory infrastructure performance gains can be achieved. Due to the improved convergence and stability of the optimization trajectory it can also potentially be used in situations where compute is expensive or scarce altogether. However, these benefits do not hold across all tasks, as we saw in the case of the segmentation model, and for cases where no data models are present, such as novel or custom optical hardware, learning directly on raw data offers a promising extention.

6 Discussion

The main message we hope to convey in this manuscript is that black-box data models for images neither have to be the norm in machine learning research nor in engineering. Leveraging established knowledge from physical optics enables us to push the modelling goalpost further towards machine learning’s core ingredient: the data. Paired with raw data, precise differentiable data models for images allow for advanced controls of dataset drift, a common and far reaching challenge across many machine learning disciplines. Applications beyond robustness validation in areas of machine learning that are also held back by black-box data, such as federated learning and formal model certifications, appear opportune, too.
Drift synthesis allows the creation of physically faithful of drift test cases. In contrast to augmentation testing, the performance drops for physically faithful test cases are less severe across the board for both uses cases in our experiments, changing the conclusions we arrive at for model selection and enabling new ways to think about generalization with targeted, data model specific deployment of task models. A plausible practical application scenario of drift synthesis for machine learning researchers and practitioners is the prospective validation of their task model to drift from different camera devices, for example microscopes across different lab sites or autonomous vehicles, without having to collect measurements from the different devices. Drift synthesis could also be interesting for other application domains that rely on data synthesis (semi- [88–90] and self-supervised learning [91, 92]) or on precise data models (aleatoric uncertainty quantification [72–82], out-of-distribution detection [34, 83–87]). While we cross-validated a substantial number of data model variations in our experiments, it should be noted that further variations, for example by reordering or adding steps, are possible. Furthermore, it should not be overlooked that dataset drift can also be caused by factors outside the ISP data model, for example the optical components of a camera. Our current data models are not yet capable of capturing factors that go beyond the ISP. Integrating work from lens manufacturing [133] to expand the reach explicit data models offers a promising next step for drift synthesis.

Drift forensics allow the precise specification of data model limitations of use for a given machine learning task model. Data models under which the task model should not be operated can be identified by gradient search and then documented. In our demonstration, the setting allowing for all parameters to be altered shows the biggest effect on the resulting performance. Individually, changes in the black level configuration and the denoising parameters pose the greatest risk for performance of the task model at hand. Interestingly, a higher norm in the resulting RGB images does not directly translate to the most severe performance degradation of the task model. This underscores the importance of precise data models for dataset drift validation. In practice, clear specification of the limitations of use is a mandated requirement for many products that can potentially contain machine learning components, such as software as a medical device [105, 106] or autonomous vehicles [187]. Drift forensics with explicit data models can help to utilize the precision of machine learning and data engineering to satisfy such regulatory constraints. Explicit data models combined with gradient search may also be interesting to explore in areas such as formal model verification [55–71] to obtain tighter error bounds. Other constraints beyond $\ell_2$ are feasible, depending on the particular use case to be analyzed, and can be plugged into our code.

We also showed how differentiable data models can be used for drift optimization where the data generating process is jointly optimized with the task model parameters. It leads to improved stability of the learning trajectory on the classification task in both low and high intensity measurements. Interestingly, the processed image from a learned data model can contain visible artifacts that aid stability and generalization vis-a-vis the image from the frozen baseline data model which arguably looks cleaner to the human eye. In practice, the extension of the gradient connection from the task model $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$ to the data model $\Phi_{\text{Proc}}$ enables the extension of machine learning right into the data generating process. Thus, data generation itself can be optimized to best suit the task model at hand. Furthermore, the stabilization effect could prove useful for learning problems where training is costly and speedup precious (for example large models or large datasets). This capacity could also be exploited in other areas that deal with heterogenous training or deployment environments, such as different clients in federated learning [97–99] or domain adaptation techniques [189]. However, the above drift adjustment benefits could only be observed for the classification task, not the regression task, possibly due to the low resolution of the segmentation problem. How far we can push the gradient into the real world is an interesting future direction for data modelling. Including more parts of the data acquisition hardware into the data model and consequently the machine learning optimization pipeline appears feasible [190] and represents an important next step in aligning machine learning with real world data infrastructures.

Finally, raw data, which is already routinely used in optical industries [125–130], for representative machine learning tasks has to become more accessible to researchers to align robustness research with physically faithful data models and infrastructures. While most optical imaging devices support the extraction of raw data and this procedure is well established in industry and physics, data collection procedures for machine learning robustness research still have to catch up in order to make raw datasets and their benefits more

---

12 Argument `args.adv_aux_loss` in `train.py`
widely available. Norms around established benchmarking datasets of processed images, such as CIFAR or ImageNet, can slow down this progress. To that end, we collected and publicly release two raw image datasets in the camera sensor state. The assumptions with respect to the practicality of the procedures we propose here are mild in our eyes. Raw subsets of data could be stored and then pulled in-code from cloud storage, as demonstrated in the code that we provide, for the purposes of drift synthesis or drift forensics. Learned data models obtained from drift adjustments could be calibrated directly on hardware such that the bandwidth requirements would not change compared to current image acquisition and transmission. Better APIs to optical hardware would allow more researchers and industries to make their raw data accessible and service a culture of data modelling that can help overcome the limitations of machine learning in the pure task model regime.

**Use of Personal Data and Human Subjects** The microscopy slides were purchased from a commercial lab vendor (J. Lieder GmbH & Co. KG, Ludwigsburg/Germany) who attained consent. The drone dataset does not directly relate to people. Instances with potential PIIs such as faces or license plates were removed. Full datasheet documentation following [177] can be found in Appendix A.5.

**Negative Societal Impact** Machine learning risk management, such as the drift controls, can make ML deployment possible and safer. More deployment translates to increases in automation. A net risk-benefit analysis of automation is beyond the scope of this manuscript. What we do know is that steel can be cast into ploughs and swords. We are against the use of our findings for the latter purpose.
References

[1] CL Wilson and MD Garris. Handprinted character database. technical report special database 1. Technical report, National Institute of Standards and Technology, 1990. 2

[2] MD Garris and RA Wilkinson. Handwritten segmented characters database. technical report special database 3. Technical report, National Institute of Standards and Technology, 1992.

[3] Michael Garris. Design, collection, and analysis of handwriting sample image databases. (31), 1994-08-10 1994. URL https://tsapps.nist.gov/publication/get_pdf.cfm?pub_id=906483.

[4] Yann LeCun, Léon Bottou, Yoshua Bengio, and Patrick Haffner. Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. Proceedings of the IEEE, 86(11):2278–2324, 1998. 2

[5] Alex Krizhevsky et al. Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. 2009. 2

[6] Olga Russakovsky, Jia Deng, Hao Su, Jonathan Krause, Sanjeev Satheesh, Sean Ma, Zhiheng Huang, Andrej Karpathy, Aditya Khosla, Michael Bernstein, Alexander C. Berg, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. volume 115, page 211–252, USA, dec 2015. Kluwer Academic Publishers. doi: 10.1007/s11263-015-0816-y. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/s11263-015-0816-y.

[7] Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. Commun. ACM, 60(6):84–90, may 2017. ISSN 0001-0782. doi: 10.1145/3065386. 2

[8] Ziwei Liu, Ping Luo, Xiaogang Wang, and Xiaoou Tang. Deep learning face attributes in the wild. In Proceedings of International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV), December 2015.

[9] Tero Karras, Timo Aila, Samuli Laine, and Jaakko Lehtinen. Progressive growing of gans for improved quality, stability, and variation. arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.10196, 2017.

[10] Hamed Valizadegan, Miguel J. S. Martinho, Laurent S. Wilkens, Jon M. Jenkins, Jeffrey C. Smith, Douglas A. Caldwell, Joseph D. Twicken, Pedro C. L. Gerum, Nikash Walia, Kaylie Hausknecht, Noa Y. Lubin, Stephen T. Bryson, and Nikunj C. Oza. ExoMiner: A highly accurate and explainable deep learning classifier that validates 301 new exoplanets. The Astrophysical Journal, 926(2):120, feb 2022. doi: 10.3847/1538-4357/ac4399. URL https://doi.org/10.3847/1538-4357/ac4399.

[11] Thomas J Fuchs and Joachim M Buhmann. Computational pathology: challenges and promises for tissue analysis. Computerized Medical Imaging and Graphics, 35(7-8):515–530, 2011.

[12] T Terwilliger and MJBCJ Abdul-Hay. Acute lymphoblastic leukemia: a comprehensive review and 2017 update. Blood cancer journal, 7(6):e577–e577, 2017.

[13] Christian Matek, Simone Schwarz, Karsten Spiekermann, and Carsten Marr. Human-level recognition of blast cells in acute myeloid leukaemia with convolutional neural networks. Nature Machine Intelligence, 1(11):538–544, 2019.

[14] Qiwei Wang, Shusheng Bi, Minglei Sun, Yuliang Wang, Di Wang, and Shaobao Yang. Deep learning approach to peripheral leukocyte recognition. PloS one, 14(6):e0218808, 2019.

[15] Daisuke Komura and Shunpei Ishikawa. Machine learning methods for histopathological image analysis. Computational and Structural Biotechnology Journal, 16:34–42, 2018. ISSN 2001-0370. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j/csbi.2018.01.001. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2001037017300867.

[16] Miriam Hägele, Philipp Seegerer, Sebastian Lapuschkin, Michael Bockmayr, Wojciech Samek, Frederick Klauschen, Klaus-Robert Müller, and Alexander Binder. Resolving challenges in deep learning-based analyses of histopathological images using explanation methods. Scientific Reports, 10(1):1–12, 2020.

[17] Maciej Wojtkowski, Tomasz Bajraszewski, Iwona Gorczyć, Tomasz Targowski, Andrzej Kowalczyc, Wojciech Wasilewski, and Czesław Radzewicz. Ophthalmic imaging by spectral optical coherence tomography. American Journal of Ophthalmology, 138(3):412–419, 2004. ISSN 0002-9394. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajo.2004.04.049. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0002939404004635.

[18] Daniel Shu Wei Ting, Louis R Pasquale, Lily Peng, John Peter Campbell, Aaron Y Lee, Rajiv Raman, Gavin Siew Wei Tan, Leopold Schmetterer, Pearse A Keane, and Tien Yin Wong. Artificial intelligence and deep learning in ophthalmology. British Journal of Ophthalmology, 103(2):167–175, 2019. ISSN 0007-1161. doi: 10.1136/bjophthalmol-2018-313173. URL https://bjo.bmj.com/content/103/2/167.

[19] Yan Tong, Wei Lu, Yue Yu, and Yin Shen. Application of machine learning in ophthalmic imaging modalities. Eye and Vision, 7(1):1–15, 2020.
[20] MT Makler, CJ Palmer, and AL Ager. A review of practical techniques for the diagnosis of malaria. *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology*, 92(4):419–433, 1998. 2

[21] Mahdieh Pooetchi, Kamolrat Silanunt, Richard J. Maude, Stefan Jaeger, and George Thoma. Image analysis and machine learning for detecting malaria. *Translational Research*, 194:36–55, 2018. ISSN 1931-5244. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trsl.2017.12.004. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S193152441730333X. In-Depth Review: Diagnostic Medical Imaging.

[22] KM Fuhad, Jannat Ferdousey Tuba, Md Sarker, Rabiiul Ali, Sifat Momen, Nabeel Mohammed, and Tanzilur Rahman. Deep learning based automatic malaria parasite detection from blood smear and its smartphone based application. *Diagnostics*, 10(5):329, 2020.

[23] Rose Nakasi, Ernest Mwebaze, Aminah Zawedde, Jeremy Tusubira, Benjamin Akera, and Gilbert Maiga. A new approach for microscopic diagnosis of malaria parasites in thick blood smears using pre-trained deep learning models. *SN Applied Sciences*, 2(7):1–7, 2020. 2

[24] Markus Reichstein, Gustau Camps-Valls, Bjorn Stevens, Martin Jung, Joachim Denzler, Nuno Carvalhais, et al. Machine learning and process understanding for data-driven earth system science. *Nature*, 566(7743):195–204, 2019. 2

[25] David Rolnick, Priya L. Donti, Lynn H. Kaack, Kelly Kochanski, Alexandre Lacoste, Kris Sankaran, Andrew Slavin Ross, Nikola Milojevic-Dupont, Natasha Jaques, Anna Waldman-Brown, Alexandra Sasha Luccioni, Tegan Maharaj, Evan D. Sherwin, S. Karthik Mukkavilli, Konrad P. Kording, Carla P. Gomes, Andrew Y. Ng, Denis Hassabis, John C. Platt, Felix Creutzig, Jennifer Chayes, and Yoshua Bengio. Tackling climate change with machine learning. *ACM Comput. Surv.*, 55(2), feb 2022. DOI: 10.1145/3485128. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3485128.

[26] Qiangqiang Yuan, Huanfeng Shen, Tongwen Li, Zhiwei Li, Shuwen Li, Yun Jiang, Hongzhang Xu, Weiwei Tan, Qianqian Yang, Jiwen Wang, Jianhao Gao, and Liangpei Zhang. Deep learning in environmental remote sensing: Achievements and challenges. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 241:111716, 2020. ISSN 0034-4257. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2020.111716. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0034426720300857. 2

[27] John Quinn, Vanessa Frias-Martinez, and Lakshminarayan Subramanian. Computational sustainability and artificial intelligence in the developing world. *AI Magazine*, 35(3):36–47, Sep. 2014. doi: 10.1609/aimag.v35i3.2529. URL https://ojs.aaai.org/index.php/aimag/article/view/2529. 2

[28] Vittorio Mazzia, Lorenzo Comba, Aleem Khaliq, Marcello Chiaberge, and Paolo Gay. Uav and machine learning based refinement of a satellite-driven vegetation index for precision agriculture. *Sensors*, 20(9), 2020. ISSN 1424-8220. doi: 10.3390/s20092530. URL https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/20/9/2530.

[29] Abhinav Sharma, Arpit Jain, Prateek Gupta, and Vinay Chowdary. Machine learning applications for precision agriculture: A comprehensive review. *IEEE Access*, 9:4843–4873, 2021. doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3048415. 2

[30] Odei Garcia-Garin, Toni MonleÃ±ez-Brosa, AsunciÃ±n Borrell, Alex Aguilar, Ricardo Borja-Robalino, Luis Cardona, and Morgana Vighi. Automatic detection and quantification of floating marine macro-litter in aerial images: Introducing a novel deep learning approach connected to a web application in r. *Environmental Pollution*, 273:116490, 2021. ISSN 0269-7491. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2021.116490. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0269749121000683. 2

[31] Ferda Olli, Patrick Meier, Muhammad Imran, Carlos Castillo, Devis Tuia, Nicolas Rey, Julien Briand, Pauline Millet, Friedrich Reinhard, Matthew Parkan, et al. Combining human computing and machine learning to make sense of big (aerial) data for disaster response. *Big data*, 4(1):47–59, 2016.

[32] Monique M Kuglitsch, Ivanka Pelivan, Serena Ceola, Mythili Menon, and Elena Xoplaki. Facilitating adoption of ai in disaster natural management through collaboration. *Nature communications*, 13(1):1–3, 2022. 2

[33] Christian Szegedy, Wojciech Zaremba, Ilya Sutskever, Joan Bruna, Dumitru Erhan, Ian Goodfellow, and Rob Fergus. Intriguing properties of neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6199*, 2013. 2

[34] Lukas Ruff, Jacob R Kauffmann, Robert A Vandermeulen, Grégoire Montavon, Wojciech Samek, Marius Kloft, Thomas G Dietterich, and Klaus-Robert Müller. A unifying review of deep and shallow anomaly detection. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 2021. 3, 20

[35] Adarsh Subbaswamy, Roy Adams, and Suchi Saria. Evaluating model robustness and stability to dataset shift. In Arindam Banerjee and Kenji Fukumizu, editors, *Proceedings of The 24th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 130 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 2611–2619. PMLR, 13–15 Apr 2021. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v130/subbaswamy21a.html. 2
[36] Sebastian Lapuschkin, Stephan Wäldchen, Alexander Binder, Grégoire Montavon, Wojciech Samek, and Klaus-Robert Müller. Unmasking clever hans predictors and assessing what machines really learn. *Nature communications*, 10(1):1–8, 2019.

[37] Andrew Ilyas, Shibani Santurkar, Dimitris Tsipras, Logan Engstrom, Brandon Tran, and Aleksander Madry. Adversarial examples are not bugs, they are features. In H. Wallach, H. Larochelle, A. Beygelzimer, F. d’Alché-Buc, E. Fox, and R. Garnett, editors, *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 32. Curran Associates, Inc., 2019. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper/2019/file/e2c420d928d4bf8ce0ff2ec19b371514-Paper.pdf.

[38] Robert Geirhos, Jörn-Henrik Jacobsen, Claudio Michaelis, Richard Zemel, Wieland Brendel, Matthias Bethge, and Felix A Wichmann. Shortcut learning in deep neural networks. *Nature Machine Intelligence*, 2(11):665–673, 2020.

[39] Emma Pierson, David M Cutler, Jure Leskovec, Sendhil Mullainathan, and Ziad Obermeyer. An algorithmic approach to reducing unexplained pain disparities in underserved populations. *Nature Medicine*, 27(1):136–140, 2021.

[40] Judy Wawira Gichoya, Imon Banerjee, Ananth Reddy Bhimireddy, John L Burns, Leo Anthony Celi, Li-Ching Chen, Ramon Correa, Natalie Dullerud, Marzyeh Ghassemi, Shih-Cheng Huang, Po-Chih Kuo, Matthew P Lungren, Lyle J Palmer, Brandon J Price, Saptarshi Purkayastha, Ayis T Pyrros, Lauren Oakden-Rayner, Chima Okechukwu, Laleh Seyyed-Kalantari, Hari Trivedi, Ryan Wang, Zachary Zaiman, and Haoran Zhang. AI recognition of patient race in medical imaging: a modelling study. *The Lancet Digital Health*, 2022. ISSN 2589-7500. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(22)00063-2. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2589750022000632.

[41] A.A. Minai and R.D. Williams. Perturbation response in feed-forward neural networks. In *Proceedings 1992 IJCNN International Joint Conference on Neural Networks*, volume 3, pages 857–862 vol.3, 1992. doi: 10.1109/IJCNN.1992.227092.

[42] Wenjie Ruan, Min Wu, Youcheng Sun, Xiaowei Huang, Daniel Kroening, and Marta Kwiatkowska. Global robustness evaluation of deep neural networks with provable guarantees for the hamming distance. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Eighth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, IJCAI-19, pages 5494–5952. International Joint Conferences on Artificial Intelligence Organization, 7 2019. doi: 10.24963/ijcai.2019/824. URL https://doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2019/824.

[43] Dan Hendrycks and Thomas Dietterich. Benchmarking neural network robustness to common corruptions and perturbations. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2019. 3, 6, 14, 38, 39, 40.

[44] Fuxun Yu, Zhuwei Qin, Chenchen Liu, Liang Zhao, Yanzhi Wang, and Xiang Chen. Interpreting and evaluating neural network robustness. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, IJCAI'19, page 4199–4205. AAAI Press, 2019. ISBN 9780999241141.

[45] Dan Hendrycks, Norman Mu, Ekin D. Cubuk, Barret Zoph, Justin Gilmer, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. AugMix: A simple data processing method to improve robustness and uncertainty. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.

[46] Nimit Sohoni, Jared Dunnmon, Geoffrey Angus, Albert Gu, and Christopher Ré. No subclass left behind: Fine-grained robustness in coarse-grained classification problems. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:19339–19352, 2020.

[47] Shiori Sagawa, Pang Wei Koh, Tatsunori B Hashimoto, and Percy Liang. Distributionally robust neural networks for group shifts: On the importance of regularization for worst-case generalization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.08731*, 2019.

[48] Pang Wei Koh, Shiori Sagawa, Henrik Marklund, Sang Michael Xie, Marvin Zhang, Akshay Balsubramani, Weihua Hu, Michihiro Yasunaga, Richard Lanas Phillips, Irena Gao, Tony Lee, Etienne David, Ian Stavness, Wei Guo, Berton Earnshaw, Imran Haque, Sara M Beery, Jure Leskovec, Anshul Kundaje, Emma Pierson, Sergey Levine, Chelsea Finn, and Percy Liang. Wilds: A benchmark of in-the-wild distribution shifts. In Marina Meila and Tong Zhang, editors, *Proceedings of the 38th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 139 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 5637–5664. PMLR, 18–24 Jul 2021. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v139/koh21a.html.
[50] Francesco Croce, Maksym Andriushchenko, Vikash Sehwag, Edoardo Debenedetti, Nicolas Flammarion, Mung Chiang, Prateek Mittal, and Matthias Hein. Robustbench: a standardized adversarial robustness benchmark. In Thirty-fifth Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track (Round 2), 2021.

[51] Steffen Schneider, Evgenia Rusak, Luisa Eck, Oliver Bringmann, Wieland Brendel, and Matthias Bethge. Improving robustness against common corruptions by covariate shift adaptation. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:11539–11551, 2020.

[52] Andrew Ilyas, Shibani Santurkar, Dimitris Tsipras, Logan Engstrom, Brandon Tran, and Aleksander Madry. Adversarial examples are not bugs, they are features. Advances in neural information processing systems, 32, 2019.

[53] Saul Calderon Ramirez, Luis Oala, Jordina Torrentes-Barrena, Shengxiang Yang, David Elizondo, Armaghan Moemeni, Simon Colreavy-Donnelly, Wojciech Samek, Miguel Molina-Cabello, and Ezequiel Lopez-Rubio. Dataset similarity to assess semi-supervised learning under distribution mismatch between the labelled and unlabelled datasets. IEEE Transactions on Artificial Intelligence, 2022.

[54] Frederick M Howard, James Dolezal, Sara Kochanny, Jefree Schulte, Heather Chen, Lara Heij, Dezheng Huo, Rita Nanda, Olufunmilayo I Olopade, Jakob N Kather, et al. The impact of site-specific digital histology signatures on deep learning model accuracy and bias. Nature communications, 12(1):1–13, 2021. 3

[55] Kaidi Xu, Zhouxing Shi, Huan Zhang, Yihan Wang, Kai-Wei Chang, Minlie Huang, Bhavya Kailkhura, Xue Lin, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. Automatic perturbation analysis for scalable certified robustness and beyond. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:1129–1141, 2020. 3, 20

[56] Linyi Li, Xiangyu Qi, Tao Xie, and Bo Li. Sok: Certified robustness for deep neural networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.04131, 2020.

[57] Runtian Zhai, Chen Dan, Di He, Huan Zhang, Boqing Gong, Pradeep Ravikumar, Cho-Jui Hsieh, and Liwei Wang. Macer: Attack-free and scalable robust training via maximizing certified radius. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2019.

[58] Jongheon Jeong and Jinwoo Shin. Consistency regularization for certified robustness of smoothed classifiers. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:10558–10570, 2019.

[59] Hadi Salman, Greg Yang, Huan Zhang, Cho-Jui Hsieh, and Pengchuan Zhang. A convex relaxation barrier to tight robustness verification of neural networks. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 32, 2019.

[60] Sven Gowal, Krishnamurthy Dvijotham, Robert Stanforth, Rudy Bunel, Chongli Qin, Jonathan Uesato, Relja Arandjelovic, Timothy Mann, and Pushmeet Kohli. Scalable verified training for provably robust image classification. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision, pages 4842–4851, 2019.

[61] Hadi Salman, Jerry Li, Ilya Razenshteyn, Pengchuan Zhang, Huan Zhang, Sebastien Bubeck, and Greg Yang. Provably robust deep learning via adversarially trained smoothed classifiers. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 32, 2019.

[62] Sumanth Dathathri, Krishnamurthy Dvijotham, Alexey Kurakin, Aditi Raghunathan, Jonathan Uesato, Rudy R Bunel, Shreyas Shankar, Jacob Steinhardt, Ian Goodfellow, Percy S Liang, et al. Enabling certification of verification-agnostic networks via memory-efficient semidefinite programming. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:5318–5331, 2020.

[63] Jeremy Cohen, Elan Rosenfeld, and Zico Kolter. Certified adversarial robustness via randomized smoothing. In International Conference on Machine Learning, pages 1310–1320. PMLR, 2019.

[64] Zhulin Yang, Linyi Li, Xiongjun Xu, Bhavya Kailkhura, and Bo Li. On the certified robustness for ensemble models and beyond, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=IUYthV321bK.

[65] Julian Bitterwolf, Alexander Meinke, and Matthias Hein. Certifiably adversarially robust detection of out-of-distribution data. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:16085–16095, 2020.

[66] Shafi Goldwasser, Guy N Rothblum, Jonathan Shafer, and Amir Yehudayoff. Interactive proofs for verifying machine learning. In 12th Innovations in Theoretical Computer Science Conference (ITCS 2021). Schloss Dagstuhl-Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, 2021.

[67] Shafi Goldwasser, Adam Tauman Kalai, Yael Kalai, and Omar Montasser. Beyond perturbations: Learning guarantees with arbitrary adversarial test examples. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:15859–15870, 2020.
68 Adarsh Subbaswamy, Roy Adams, and Suchi Saria. Evaluating model robustness and stability to dataset shift. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 2611–2619. PMLR, 2021.

69 Mayee Chen, Karan Goel, Nimit S Sohoni, Fait Poms, Kayvon Fatahalian, and Christopher Ré. Mandoline: Model evaluation under distribution shift. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 1617–1629. PMLR, 2021.

70 Patrick Cousot. Abstract interpretation. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, 28(2):324–328, 1996.

71 Timon Gehr, Matthew Mirman, Dana Drachsler-Cohen, Petar Tsankov, Swarat Chaudhuri, and Martin Vechev. AII2: Safety and robustness certification of neural networks with abstract interpretation. In *2018 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*, pages 3–18. IEEE, 2018.

72 David A Nix and Andreas S Weigend. Estimating the mean and variance of the target probability distribution. In *Proceedings of 1994 ieee international conference on neural networks (ICANN'94)*, volume 1, pages 55–60. IEEE, 1994.

73 Glenn Shafer and Vladimir Vovk. A tutorial on conformal prediction. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 9(3), 2008.

74 Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. Dropout as a bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning. In Maria Flora Balcan and Kilian Q. Weinberger, editors, *Proceedings of The 33rd International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 48 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 1050–1059, New York, New York, USA, 20–22 Jun 2016. PMLR. URL: http://proceedings.mlr.press/v48/gal16.html.

75 Balaji Lakshminarayanan, Alexander Pritzel, and Charles Blundell. Simple and scalable predictive uncertainty estimation using deep ensembles. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017.

76 Jochen Gast and Stefan Roth. Lightweight probabilistic deep networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 3369–3378, 2018.

77 Hartmut Maennel. Uncertainty estimates and out-of-distribution detection with sine networks. 2019.

78 Joost Van Amersfoort, Lewis Smith, Yee Whye Teh, and Yarin Gal. Uncertainty estimation using a single deep deterministic neural network. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 9690–9700. PMLR, 2020.

79 Jeremiah Liu, Zi Lin, Shreyas Padhy, Dustin Tran, Tania Bedrax Weiss, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Simple and principled uncertainty estimation with deterministic deep learning via distance awareness. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:7498–7512, 2020.

80 Luis Oala, Cosmas Heiß, Jan Macdonald, Maximilian März, Gitta Kutyniok, and Wojciech Samek. Detecting failure modes in image reconstructions with interval neural network uncertainty. *International Journal of Computer Assisted Radiology and Surgery*, 16(12):2089–2097, 2021.

81 Zachary Nado, Neil Band, Mark Collier, Josip Djolonga, Michael Dusenberry, Sebastian Farquhar, Angelos Filos, Marton Havasi, Rodolphe Jenatton, Ghassen Jerfel, Jeremiah Liu, Zelda Mariet, Jeremy Nixon, Shreyas Padhy, Jie Ren, Tim Rudner, Yeming Wen, Florian Wenzel, Kevin Murphy, D. Sculley, Balaji Lakshminarayanan, Jasper Snoek, Yarin Gal, and Dustin Tran. Uncertainty Baselines: Benchmarks for uncertainty & robustness in deep learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.04015*, 2021.

82 Anastasios N Angelopoulos and Stephen Bates. A gentle introduction to conformal prediction and distribution-free uncertainty quantification. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.07511*, 2021.

83 Dipankar Dasgupta. *Artificial immune systems and their applications*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.

84 Skyler Speakman, Sriram Somanchi, Edward McFowland III, and Daniel B Neill. Penalized fast subset scanning. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 25(2):382–404, 2016.

85 Kimin Lee, Kibok Lee, Honglak Lee, and Jinwoo Shin. A simple unified framework for detecting out-of-distribution samples and adversarial attacks. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 31, 2018.

86 Eric Nalisnick, Akihiro Matsukawa, Yee Whye Teh, Dilan Gorur, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Do deep generative models know what they don’t know? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.09136*, 2018.

87 Xuefeng Du, Zhaoqing Wang, Mu Cai, and Yixuan Li. Vos: Learning what you don’t know by virtual outlier synthesis. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2021.

88 AGB Oliiver, AGB Odena, CGB Raffel, EGB Cubuk, and JGB Goodfellow. Realistic evaluation of semi-supervised learning algorithms. In *International conference on Learning Representations*, pages 1–15, 2018.
Qizhe Xie, Zihang Dai, Eduard Hovy, Thang Luong, and Quoc Le. Unsupervised data augmentation for consistency training. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:6256–6268, 2020.

David Berthelot, Nicholas Carlini, Ian Goodfellow, Nicolas Papernot, Avital Oliver, and Colin A Raffel. Mixmatch: A holistic approach to semi-supervised learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 2019.

Yonglong Tian, Chen Sun, Ben Poole, Dilip Krishnan, Cordelia Schmid, and Phillip Isola. What makes for good views for contrastive learning? *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:6827–6839, 2020.

Jean-Bastien Grill, Florian Strub, Florent Altché, Corentin Tallec, Pierre Richemond, Elena Buchatskaya, Carl Doersch, Bernardo Avila Pires, Zhaohan Guo, Mohammad Gheshlaghi Azar, et al. Bootstrap your own latent-a new approach to self-supervised learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:21271–21284, 2020.

Chiyuan Zhang, Samy Bengio, Moritz Hardt, Benjamin Recht, and Oriol Vinyals. Understanding deep learning (still) requires rethinking generalization. *Communications of the ACM*, 64(3):107–115, 2021.

Benjamin Recht, Rebecca Roelofs, Ludwig Schmidt, and Vaishaal Shankar. Do imagenet classifiers generalize to imagenet? In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 5389–5400. PMLR, 2019.

Mahdi Haghifam, Gintare Karolina Dziugaite, Shay Moran, and Dan Roy. Towards a unified information-theoretic framework for generalization. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34, 2021.

Krikamol Muandet. Impossibility of collective intelligence, 2022. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2206.02786. 3, 16

Felix Sattler, Simon Wiedemann, Klaus-Robert Müller, and Wojciech Samek. Robust and communication-efficient federated learning from non-iid data. *IEEE transactions on neural networks and learning systems*, 31(9):3400–3413, 2019.

Felix Sattler, Klaus-Robert Müller, Thomas Wiegand, and Wojciech Samek. On the byzantine robustness of clustered federated learning. In *ICASSP 2020-2020 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 8861–8865. IEEE, 2020.

Hao Wang, Zachary Kaplan, Di Niu, and Baochun Li. Optimizing federated learning on non-iid data with reinforcement learning. In *IEEE INFOCOM 2020 - IEEE Conference on Computer Communications*, pages 1698–1707, 2020. doi: 10.1109/INFOCOM41043.2020.9155494.

Naftali Tishby, Fernando C Pereira, and William Bialek. The information bottleneck method. *arXiv preprint physics/0004057*, 2000.

Pascal Vincent, Hugo Larochelle, Yoshua Bengio, and Pierre-Antoine Manzagol. Extracting and composing robust features with denoising autoencoders. In *Proceedings of the 25th international conference on Machine learning*, pages 1096–1103, 2008.

Jonathan Frankle and Michael Carbin. The lottery ticket hypothesis: Finding sparse, trainable neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.03635*, 2018.

Georg Krempl, Vera Hofer, Geoffrey Webb, and Eyke Hüllermeier. Beyond Adaptation: Understanding Distributional Changes (Dagstuhl Seminar 20372). *Dagstuhl Reports*, 10(4):1–36, 2021. ISSN 2192-5283. doi: 10.4230/DagRep.10.4.1. URL https://drops.dagstuhl.de/opus/volltexte/2021/13735.

Peter J Huber. Robust statistics. In *International encyclopedia of statistical science*, pages 1248–1251. Springer, 2011.

AMA TIR57. Principles for medical device security—risk management. *Arlington, VA: Association for the Advancement of Medical Instrumentation*, 2016.

IMDRF SaMD Working Group et al. Software as a medical device (samd): Application of quality management system, 2018.

Luís Oala, Jana Fehr, Luca Gilli, Pradeep Balachandran, Aliandro Werneck Leite, Saul Calderon-Ramirez, Danny Xie Li, Gabriel Nobis, Erick Alejandro Muñoz Alvarado, Giovanna Jaramillo-Gutierrez, et al. M4h auditing: From paper to practice. In *Machine learning for health*, pages 280–317. PMLR, 2020.

Emma Beede, Elizabeth Baylor, Fred Hersch, Anna Iurchenko, Lauren Wilcox, Paisan Ruamviboonsuk, and Laura M. Vardoulakis. A human-centered evaluation of a deep learning system deployed in clinics for the detection of diabetic retinopathy. In *Proceedings of the 2020 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, page 1–12, New York, NY, USA, 2020. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 9781450367080. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3313831.3376718.
Susan M. Swetter. Artificial intelligence may improve melanoma detection. *Dermatology Times*, 41(9):36, 2020. URL https://cdn.sanity.io/files/0vv8moc6/dermatologytimes/4ba31530532b36ae8b0506dd6b1bb5691d841d06.pdf. 3

Andre Esteva, Brett Kuprel, Roberto A Novoa, Justin Ko, Susan M Swetter, Helen M Blau, and Sebastian Thrun. Dermatologist-level classification of skin cancer with deep neural networks. *nature*, 542(7639):115–118, 2017. 3

Maitiniyazi Maimaitijiang, Vasit Sagan, Paheding Sidike, Sean Hartling, Flavio Esposito, and Felix B. Fritschi. Soybean yield prediction from uav using multimodal data fusion and deep learning. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 237:111599, 2020. ISSN 0034-4257. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2019.111599. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0034425719306194. 3, 8

Phillip Chlap, Min Hang, Nym Vandenberg, Jason Dowling, Lois Holloway, and Annette Haworth. A review of medical image data augmentation techniques for deep learning applications. *Journal of Medical Imaging and Radiation Oncology*, 65, 06 2021. doi: 10.1111/1754-9485.13261. 3

Christian Matek and Carsten Marr. Robustness evaluation of a convolutional neural network for the classification of single cells in acute myeloid leukemia. In *ICLR 2021, RobustML workshop*, 2020. 3

Rohan Taori, Achal Dave, Vaishaal Shankar, Nicholas Carlini, Benjamin Recht, and Ludwig Schmidt. Measuring robustness to natural distribution shifts in image classification. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2020. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2007.00644. 3

GJJ Verhoeven. It’s all about the format—unleashing the power of raw aerial photography. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 31(8):2009–2042, 2010. 4, 6, 8

Ronznachai Jaroenrsi, Camille Biscarrat, Miika Aittala, and Frédéric Durand. Generating training data for denoising real rgb images via camera pipeline simulation. *arXiv*, 1904.08825, 2019. 4, 6

B Albertina, M Watson, C Holback, R Jarosz, S Kirk, Y Lee, and J Lemmerman. Radiology data from the cancer genome atlas lung adenocarcinoma [tcca-luad] collection. *The Cancer Imaging Archive*, 2016. 4

C Matek, S Schwarz, C Marr, and K Spiekermann. A single-cell morphological dataset of leukocytes from aml patients and non-malignant controls (aml-cytomorphology_lmu). *The Cancer Imaging Archive (TCIA)*, 2019.

Weixin Liang and James Zou. Metashift: A dataset of datasets for evaluating contextual distribution shifts and training conflicts. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=MTex8qKavoS. 4

Nithya Sambasivan, Shivani Kapania, Hannah Highfill, Praveen Paritosh, and Lora M Aroyo. “everyone wants to do the model work, not the data work”: Data cascades in high-stakes ai. In *Proceedings of the 2021 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, New York, NY, USA, 2021. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 9781450380966. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3411764.3445518. 4, 6

Bryce E Bayer. Color imaging array, July 20 1976. US Patent 3,971,065. 5, 6, 7

Andy Rowlands. *Physics of digital photography*. IOP Publishing, 2017. 6, 7

Shinsuke Tani, Yasuhiro Fukunaga, Saori Shimizu, Munenori Fukunishi, Kensuke Ishii, and Kosei Tamiya. Color Standardization Method and System for Whole Slide Imaging Based on Spectral Sensing. *Analytical Cellular Pathology*, 35(2):107–115, 2012. ISSN 2210-7177, 2210-7185. doi: 10.1155/2012/154735. URL http://www.hindawi.com/journals/acp/2012/154735/.

Daniel L. Bongiorno, Mitch Bryson, Donald G. Dansereau, and Stefan B. Williams. Spectral characterization of COTS RGB cameras using a linear variable edge filter. page 86600N, Burlingame, California, USA, January 2013. doi: 10.1117/12.2001460. URL http://proceedings.spiedigitallibrary.org/proceeding.aspx?doi=10.1117/12.2001460. 5

HAMAMATSU. ORCA-Flash4.0 V3 Digital CMOS camera C13440-20CU - Technical note. HAMAMATSU. URL https://www.hamamatsu.com/eu/en/product/cameras/cmos-cameras/C13440-20CU.html#element-id-95e67d91-3547-3319-a6c7-fd29c03e0089. 5, 20

PerkinElmer. TotalChrom Workstation User’s Guide - Volume I. PerkinElmer. URL https://www.perkinelmer.com/CMSResources/Images/44-74577MAN_TotalChromWorkstationVolume1.pdf.

ZEISS. Exporting Images and Movies in ZEN Blue. ZEISS. URL https://www.zeiss.com/content/dam/Microscopy/us/download/pdf/zen-software-education-center/exporting-images-and-movies-in-zen-blue.pdf. 5
De Jong Yeong, Gustavo Velasco-Hernandez, John Barry, and Joseph Walsh. Sensor and sensor fusion technology in autonomous vehicles: A review. *Sensors*, 21(6), 2021. ISSN 1424-8220. doi: 10.3390/s21062140. URL https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/21/6/2140.

Andrej Karpathy. Tesla ai day 2021. URL https://youtu.be/j0z4FweCy4M.

Gert Rudolph and Uwe Voelzke. Three sensor types drive autonomous vehicles, 2017. URL https://www.fierceelectronics.com/components/three-sensor-types-drive-autonomous-vehicles.

Nai-Sheng Syu, Yu-Sheng Chen, and Yung-Yu Chuang. Learning deep convolutional networks for demosaicing. *arXiv*, 1802.03769, 2018.

S. Ratnasingam. Deep camera: A fully convolutional neural network for image signal processing. In *2019 IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision Workshop (ICCVW)*, pages 3868–3878, Los Alamitos, CA, USA, oct 2019. IEEE Computer Society. doi: 10.1109/ICCVW.2019.00480. URL https://doi.ieeecomputersociety.org/10.1109/ICCVW.2019.00480.

Ethan Tseng, Ali Mosleh, Fahim Mannan, Karl St-Arnaud, Avinash Sharma, Yifan Peng, Alexander Braun, Derek Nowrouzezahrai, Jean-François Lalonde, and Felix Heide. Differentiable compound optics and processing pipeline optimization for end-to-end camera design. *ACM Trans. Graph.*, 40(2), June 2021. ISSN 0730-0301. doi: 10.1145/3446791. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3446791.

Jonathan Ragan-Kelley, Connelly Barnes, Andrew Adams, Sylvain Paris, Frédéric Krauss, and Saman Amarasinghe. Halide: a language and compiler for optimizing parallelism, locality, and recomputation in image processing pipelines. *ACM Sigplan Notices*, 48(6):519–530, 2013.

E. Riba, D. Mishkin, D. Ponsa, E. Rublee, and G. Bradski. Kornia: an open source differentiable computer vision library for pytorch. In *Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, 2020. URL https://arxiv.org/pdf/1910.02190.pdf.

Felix Schill. pyraw. https://github.com/fschill/pyraw, 2015.

Andreas K Maier, Christopher Syben, Bernhard Stimpel, Tobias Würfl, Mathis Hoffmann, Frank Schebesch, Wellin Fu, Leonid Mill, Lasse Kling, and Silke Christiansen. Learning with known operators reduces maximum error bounds. *Nature machine intelligence*, 1(8):373–380, 2019.

Andreas Maier, Harald Köstler, Marco Heisig, Patrick Krauss, and Seung Hee Yang. Known operator learning and hybrid machine learning in medical imaging—a review of the past, the present, and the future. *Progress in Biomedical Engineering*, 2022.

Tatiana A Bubba, Gitta Kutyniok, Matti Lassas, Maximilian März, Wojciech Samek, Samuli Siltanen, and Vignesh Srinivasan. Learning the invisible: a hybrid deep learning-shearlet framework for limited angle computed tomography. *Inverse Problems*, 35(6):064002, 2019.

Bo Zhu, Jeremiah Z Liu, Stephen F Cauley, Bruce R Rosen, and Matthew S Rosen. Image reconstruction by domain-transform manifold learning. *Nature*, 555(7697):487–492, 2018.

Samuel Dodge and Lina Karam. A study and comparison of human and deep learning recognition performance under visual distortions. In *2017 26th International Conference on Computer Communication and Networks (ICCCN)*, pages 1–7, 2017. doi: 10.1109/ICCCN.2017.8038465.

Aharon Azulay and Yair Weiss. Why do deep convolutional networks generalize so poorly to small image transformations? *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 20:1–25, 2019.

Joseph Paul Cohen, Margaux Luck, and Sina Honari. Distribution matching losses can hallucinate features in medical image translation. In *Medical Image Computing and Computer Assisted Intervention – MICCAI 2018*, pages 529–536. Springer International Publishing, 09 2018. ISBN 978-3-030-00928-1. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-00928-1_60.

Florian Schiffer, Zekuan Yu, Steve Arguin, Andreas Maier, and Qiushi Ren. Synthetic fundus fluorescein angiography using deep neural networks. In Andreas Maier, Thomas M. Deserno, Heinz Handels, Klaus Hermann Maier-Hein, Christoph Palm, and Thomas Tołxdorff, editors, *Bildverarbeitung für die Medizin 2018*, pages 234–238, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2018. Springer Berlin Heidelberg. ISBN 978-3-662-56537-7.

Sara Beery, Grant Van Horn, and Pietro Perona. Recognition in terra incognita. In *Proceedings of the European Conference on Computer Vision (ECCV)*, pages 456–473, 2018.

Pang Wei Koh, Shiori Sagawa, Henrik Marklund, Sang Michael Xie, Marvin Zhang, Akshay Balsubramani, Weihua Hu, Michihiro Yasunaga, Richard Lanas Phillips, Irena Gao, Tony Lee, Etienne David, Ian Stavness, Wei Guo, Berton Earnshaw, Imran Haque, Sara M Beery, Jure Leskovec, Anshul Kundaje, Emma Pierson, Sergey Levine, Chelsea Finn, and Percy Liang. Wilds: A benchmark of in-the-wild distribution shifts. In *Proceedings
[164] Duc-Tien Dang-Nguyen, Cecilia Pasquini, Valentina Conotter, and Giulia Boato. Raise: A raw images dataset for digital image forensics. In Proceedings of the 6th ACM Multimedia Systems Conference, MMSys ’15, page 219–224, New York, NY, USA, 2015. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 9781450333511. doi: 10.1145/2713168.2713194. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/2713168.2713194.

[165] Chen Chen, Qifeng Chen, Jia Xu, and Vladlen Koltun. Learning to see in the dark. 2018 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 3291–3300, 2018.

[166] Abdelrahman Abdelhamed, Stephen Lin, and Michael S. Brown. A high-quality denoising dataset for smartphone cameras. In IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), June 2018.

[167] Samuel W. Hasinoff, Dillon Sharlet, Ryan Geiss, Andrew Adams, Jonathan T. Barron, Florian Kainz, Jiawen Chen, and Marc Levoy. Burst photography for high dynamic range and low-light imaging on mobile cameras. ACM Transactions on Graphics (Proc. SIGGRAPH Asia), 35(6), 2016.

[168] Robert William Gainer Hunt and Michael R Pointer. Measuring colour. John Wiley & Sons, 2011.

[169] Xin Li, Bahadir Gunturk, and Lei Zhang. Image demosaicing: A systematic survey. In Chen Chen, Qifeng Chen, Jia Xu, and Vladlen Koltun. Learning to see in the dark. 2018 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 3291–3300, 2018.

[170] Bhawna Goyal, Ayush Dogra, Sunil Agrawal, BS Sohi, and Apoorav Sharma. Image denoising review: From classical to state-of-the-art approaches. Information Fusion, 55:220–244, 2020. ISSN 1566-2535. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inffus.2019.09.003. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1566253519301861.

[171] Chunwei Tian, Lunke Fei, Wenxin Zhang, Yong Xu, Wangmeng Zuo, and Chia-Wen Lin. Deep learning on image denoising: An overview. Neural Networks, 131:251–275, 2020. ISSN 0893-6080. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neunet.2020.07.025. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0893608020302665.

[172] Mathieu Dejean-Servières, Karol Desnos, Kamel Abdelouahab, Wassim Hamidouche, Luce Morin, and Maxime Pelcat. Study of the impact of standard image compression techniques on performance of image classification with a convolutional neural network. Research Report hal-01725126, INSA Rennes; Univ Rennes; IETR; Institut Pascal, 2017.

[173] Yong-Yeon Jo, Young Sang Choi, Hyun Woo Park, Jae Hyeok Lee, Hyojung Jung, Hyo-Eun Kim, Kyounglan Ko, Chan Wha Lee, Hyo Suong Cha, and Yul Hwangbo. Impact of image compression on deep learning-based mammogram classification. Scientific Reports, 11(1):1–9, 2021.

[174] Farhad Ghazvinian Zanjani, Svitlana Zinger, Bastian Piepers, Saeed Mahmoudpour, Peter Schelkens, and Peter H. N. de With. Impact of JPEG 2000 compression on deep convolutional neural networks for metastatic cancer detection in histopathological images. Journal of Medical Imaging, 6(2):1–9, 2019. doi: 10.1117/1.JMI.6.2.027501. URL https://doi.org/10.1117/1.JMI.6.2.027501.

[175] Matt Poyser, Amir Atapour-Abarghouei, and Toby P Breckon. On the impact of lossy image and video compression on the performance of deep convolutional neural network architectures. In 2020 25th International Conference on Pattern Recognition (ICPR), pages 2830–2837. IEEE, 2021.

[176] Enrico Pomarico, Cédric Schmidt, Florian Chays, David Nguyen, Arielle Plantchette, Audrey Tissot, Adrien Roux, Laura Battì, Christoph Clausen, Theo Lasser, et al. Statistical distortion of supervised learning predictions in optical microscopy induced by image compression. Scientific reports, 12(1):1–10, 2022.

[177] Timnit Gebru, Jamie H. Morgenstern, Briana Vecchione, Jennifer Wortman Vaughan, Hannah M. Wallach, Hal Daumé, and Kate Crawford. Datasheets for datasets. arXiv, 1803.09010, 2018. 8, 21, 36, 42

[178] B. Bain. Diagnosis from the blood smear. The New England journal of medicine, 353:5:498–507, 2005.

[179] Ruggero Donida Labati, Vincenzo Piuri, and Fabio Scotti. All-idb: The acute lymphoblastic leukemia image database for image processing. In 2011 18th IEEE International Conference on Image Processing, pages 2045–2048, 2011. doi: 10.1109/ICIP.2011.615881.

[180] Vinay Ayyappan, Alex Chang, Chi Zhang, Santosh Kumar Paidi, Rosalie Bordett, Tiffany Liang, Ishan Barman, and Rishikesh Pandey. Identification and staging of b-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia using quantitative phase imaging and machine learning. ACS Sensors, 5(10):3281–3289, 2020. doi: 10.1021/acssensors.0c01811. URL https://doi.org/10.1021/acssensors.0c01811. PMID: 33092347.

[181] David Tellez, Geert Litjens, Péter Bárdi, Wouter Bulten, John-Melle Bokhorst, Francesco Ciompi, and Jeroen van der Laak. Quantifying the effects of data augmentation and stain color normalization in convolutional neural networks for computational pathology. Medical Image Analysis, 58:101544, 2019. ISSN 1361-8415. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.media.2019.101544. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1361841519300799.
[182] S Longanbach, MK Miers, EM Keohane, LJ Smith, and JM Walenga. Rodak's hematology: Clinical principles and applications. 2016. 8

[183] Marek Kulbacki, Jakub Sejen, Wojciech Knieć, Ryszard Klempous, Konrad Kluwak, Jan Nikodem, Julita Kulbacka, and Andrea Serester. Survey of drones for agriculture automation from planting to harvest. In 2018 IEEE 22nd International Conference on Intelligent Engineering Systems (INES), pages 000353–000358. IEEE, 2018. 8

[184] Xiyue Jia, Yining Cao, David O'Connor, Jin Zhu, Daniel CW Tsang, Bin Zou, and Deyi Hou. Mapping soil pollution by using drone image recognition and machine learning at an arsenic-contaminated agricultural field. Environmental Pollution, 270:116281, 2021. 8

[185] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 770–778, 2016. doi:10.1109/CVPR.2016.90. 13, 35

[186] Olaf Ronneberger, Philipp Fischer, and Thomas Brox. U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation. In International Conference on Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention, pages 234–241. Springer, 2015. 13, 35

[187] USDOT NSTC. Ensuring american leadership in automated vehicle technologies: Automated vehicles 4.0. Las Vegas. Recuperado el 25:2020–02, 2020. 16, 20

[188] Martin Genzel, Jan Macdonald, and Maximilian Marz. Solving inverse problems with deep neural networks - robustness included. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, pages 1–1, 2022. doi:10.1109/TPAMI.2022.3148324. 17, 19

[189] Shai Ben-David, John Blitzer, Koby Crammer, Alex Kulesza, Fernando Pereira, and Jennifer Wortman Vaughan. A theory of learning from different domains. Machine learning, 79(1):151–175, 2010. 20

[190] Logan G Wright, Tatsuhiro Onodera, Martin M Stein, Tianyu Wang, Darren T Schachter, Zoey Hu, and Peter L McMahon. Deep physical neural networks trained with backpropagation. Nature, 601(7894):549–555, 2022. 20

[191] Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. CoRR, 1412.6980, 2015. 35

[192] Olga Russakovsky, Jia Deng, Hao Su, Jonathan Krause, Sanjeev Satheesh, Sean Ma, Zhiheng Huang, Andrej Karpathy, Aditya Khosla, Michael Bernstein, Alexander C. Berg, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. Int. J. Comput. Vision, 115(3):211–252, dec 2015. ISSN 0920-5691. doi: 10.1007/s11263-015-0816-y. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/s11263-015-0816-y. 35

[193] Dan Hendrycks and Thomas Dietterich. Benchmarking neural network robustness to common corruptions and perturbations. arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.12261, 2019. 41
A Appendices

A.1 Data model samples and initialization

Figure 8: Samples for both datasets, Raw-Microscopy and Raw-Drone, from all twelve pipelines used in the drift synthesis experiments. The legend for abbreviations can be found in Figure 3b.
The following values were used to initialize the parametrized pipeline (both "Frozen" and "Learned") in experiment Section 5.3:

```python
class ParametrizedProcessing(nn.Module):
    """Differentiable processing pipeline via torch transformations
    Args:
    camera_parameters (tuple(list), optional): applies given camera parameters in processing
    track_stages (bool, optional): whether or not to retain intermediary steps in processing
    batch_norm_output (bool, optional): adds a BatchNorm layer to the end of the processing
    """
    def __init__(self, camera_parameters=None, track_stages=False, batch_norm_output=True):
        super().__init__()
        self.stages = None
        self.buffer = None
        self.track_stages = track_stages
        if camera_parameters is None:
            camera_parameters = DEFAULT_CAMERA_PARAMS
        self.black_level, self.white_balance, self.colour_matrix = camera_parameters
        self.gamma_correct = nn.Parameter(torch.as_tensor(self.gamma_correct).reshape(3, 3))
        self.gaussian_blur = nn.Conv2d(1, 1, kernel_size=5, padding=2, padding_mode='reflect', bias=False)
        self.gaussian_blur.weight.data[0] = K_SHARP.clone()
        self.batch_norm = nn.BatchNorm2d(3, affine=False) if batch_norm_output else None
        self.register_buffer('M_RGB_2_YUV', M_RGB_2_YUV.clone())
        self.register_buffer('M_YUV_2_RGB', M_YUV_2_RGB.clone())
        self.additive_layer = None

where

- K_G = torch.Tensor([[0, 1, 0],
                      [1, 4, 1],
                      [0, 1, 0]]) / 4
- K_RB = torch.Tensor([[1, 2, 1],
                        [2, 4, 2],
                        [1, 2, 1]]) / 4
- M_RGB_2_YUV = torch.Tensor([[0.999, 0.587, 0.114],
                               [-0.1474119, -0.28886916, 0.43601035],
                               [0.61497538, -0.51496512, -0.10001026]])
- M_YUV_2_RGB = torch.Tensor([[1.00000000e+00, -4.1827794561e-09, 1.1398830414e+00],
                               [1.00000000e+00, -3.9464232356e-01, -5.8062103857e-01],
                               [1.00000000e+00, 2.0320618153e+00, -1.2232688220e-09]])
- K_BLUR = torch.Tensor([[6.9625e-08, 2.0809e-05, 2.0755e-04],
                        [2.0809e-05, 1.1332e-02, 8.3731e-02],
                        [2.0755e-04, 8.3731e-02, 8.3731e-02, 2.0755e-04],
                        [2.0809e-05, 1.1332e-02, 8.3731e-02, 2.0809e-05],
                        [6.9625e-08, 2.0809e-05, 2.0755e-04, 2.0809e-05, 6.9625e-08]])
- K_SHARP = torch.Tensor([[0, -1, 0],
                          [-1, 5, -1],
                          [0, -1, 0]])
- DEFAULT_CAMERA_PARAMS = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
```

Note that the camera parameters are camera, and conversely in our case dataset, dependent and defined in the dataset classes.
A.2 Description of the task models $\Phi_{\text{Task}}$

| Classification | Segmentation |
|----------------|--------------|
| ResNet18 based on [185] trained with Adam [191] for 100 epochs learning rate: $10^{-4}$ mini-batch size: 128 | U-Net++ based on [186] trained with Adam for 100 epochs learning rate: $7.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ mini-batch size: 12 |

Table 2: Summary of the training procedure for both task models.

Table 3: A set of random test samples for the segmentation task under learned processing. Top row: Targets, middle row: predictions of the task model after the first epoch, last row: predictions of the task model after the last epoch.

**ResNet18** This model is designed to classify images from ImageNet [192] and has therefore an output dimension of 1000. In order to use the model to classify images from Raw-Microscopy, we changed the output dimension of the fully-connected layer to nine. The model was trained for 100 epochs using pre-trained ResNet features. Hyperparameters were kept constant across all runs to isolate the effect of varying image processing pipelines. For implementation the code provided at https://pytorch.org/hub/pytorch_vision_resnet/ was used. The model consists of 34 layers with approximately 11.2 million trainable parameters. The storage size of the model is 44.725 MB.

**U-Net++** The model was trained for 100 epochs using pretrained ResNet features as the encoder of the U-Net++. Hyperparameters were kept constant across all runs to isolate the effect of varying image processing pipelines. For implementation we used the code provided at https://github.com/qubvel/segmentation_models.pytorch. The model has approximately 26.1 million trainable parameters. The storage size of the model is 104.315 MB.

For a summary of the training procedure see Table 2.
Figure 9: (a) An illustration of the imaging setup. (b) Datasets visualization. (Top-left) RGB raw microscopy classes are shown. (Top-right) Drone raw images are shown with the segmentation mask applied over it. (Bottom) Different intensity realizations are shown for the microscopy case. Images on the top are directly print out in the same scale of the original image. Images in the bottom row are normalized on their own min and max values to highlight the role of noise levels on low intensity images.

| Composition of Raw-Microscopy | Class | Proportion in % |
|-------------------------------|-------|----------------|
| Type of instances | Image and label | Basophil (BAS) | 1.99 |
| Objects on images | White blood cells | Eosinophil (EOS) | 5.74 |
| Type of classes | Morphological classes | Smudge cell / debris (KSC) | 17.34 |
| Number of instances | 940 | atypical Lymphocyte (LYA) | 3.19 |
| Number of classes | 9 | typical Lymphocyte (LYT) | 24.47 |
| Image size | 256 by 256 pixels | Monocyte (MON) | 20.32 |
| Mask size | 256 by 256 pixels | Neutrophil (band) (NGB) | 0.85 |
| Original image size | 3648 by 5472 pixels | Neutrophil (segmented) (NGS) | 22.98 |
| Raw image format | .tif | Image that could not be assigned a class (UNC) | 3.19 |

Table 4: Summaries of the compositions of Raw-Microscopy and Raw-Drone

A.3 Dataset information

In the following, core information on the two acquired datasets is provided. In Appendix A.5 you can also find detailed datasheets for both datasets, following the documentation good practices introduced by [177].

Raw-Microscopy for segmentation comes with 940 raw images, twelve differently processed variants totaling 11280 images and six additional raw intensity levels totaling 5640 samples.

Raw-Drone for segmentation comes with 548 raw images, twelve differently processed variants totaling 6576 images and six additional raw intensity levels totaling 3288 samples.
## A.4 Additional results

### A.4.1 Drift synthesis

| Rank | Microscopy-ISP |  | Microscopy-CC |  | Drone-ISP |  | Drone-CC |  |
|------|----------------|---|----------------|---|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| 1    | ma,s,me        | 0.83 | bi,u,me        | 0.63 | ma,u,ga   | 0.68 | ma,s,ga   | 0.60 |
| 2    | ma,u,me        | 0.83 | me,s,me        | 0.63 | bi,s,ga   | 0.68 | bi,s,ga   | 0.57 |
| 3    | ma,u,ga        | 0.82 | bi,u,ga        | 0.62 | bi,s,me   | 0.67 | me,s,ga   | 0.57 |
| 4    | bi,s,me        | 0.81 | ma,s,me        | 0.62 | ma,s,me   | 0.67 | ma,s,me   | 0.55 |
| 5    | me,s,me        | 0.81 | ma,s,ga        | 0.62 | me,u,ga   | 0.67 | me,s,me   | 0.55 |
| 6    | bi,s,ga        | 0.81 | ma,u,me        | 0.61 | ma,u,me   | 0.66 | bi,s,me   | 0.54 |
| 7    | me,s,ga        | 0.80 | me,s,ga        | 0.60 | ma,s,ga   | 0.66 | ma,s,me   | 0.54 |
| 8    | me,u,me        | 0.80 | bi,s,me        | 0.59 | bi,u,me   | 0.65 | me,u,me   | 0.53 |
| 9    | ma,s,ga        | 0.80 | ma,u,ga        | 0.59 | me,s,ga   | 0.65 | me,u,ga   | 0.51 |
| 10   | bi,u,ga        | 0.79 | bi,s,ga        | 0.58 | me,s,ga   | 0.64 | bi,u,me   | 0.48 |
| 11   | me,u,ga        | 0.79 | me,u,ga        | 0.58 | bi,u,ga   | 0.61 | bi,u,ga   | 0.46 |

Table 5: Rankings of task models from Section 5.1 trained on different data models (columns 2, 4, 6, 8) according to their average accuracy or IoU (columns 3, 5, 7, 9) across all test pipelines respective corruptions. ISP corresponds to drift synthesis with physically faithful data models, CC corresponds to common corruptions.

| Rank | Microscopy-ISP |  | Microscopy-CC |  | Drone-ISP |  | Drone-CC |  |
|------|----------------|---|----------------|---|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| 1    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ug | ma,ume | ma,ug | ma,ug | ma,ug | ma,ug |
| 2    | ma,ume         | ma,ug | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ug | ma,ug | ma,ug | ma,ug |
| 3    | bi,ume         | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug |
| 4    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 5    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 6    | bi,ume         | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug |
| 7    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 8    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 9    | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 10   | bi,ume         | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ume | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug | bi,ug |
| 11   | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |
| 12   | ma,ume         | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ume |

Table 6: Ranking of task models from Section 5.1 trained under different train pipelines (columns 2 - 13).

| Rank | identity | gauss noise | shot | impulse | speckle | Microscopy-CC |  |  |
|------|----------|-------------|------|---------|---------|----------------|---|---|
| 1    | ma,ume   | ma,ume      | bi,ume | bi,ume | ma,ug   | ma,ug | bi,ga | bi,ga | me,s,me | ma,s,me | maize | bi,ga |
| 2    | ma,ume   | ma,ug       | ma,ume | ma,ume | ma,ug   | ma,ug | bi,ga | bi,ga | me,s,me | ma,s,me | maize | bi,ga |
| 3    | bi,ga    | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 4    | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 5    | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 6    | me,ume   | ma,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 7    | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 8    | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 9    | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 10   | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 11   | ma,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |
| 12   | me,ume   | me,ume      | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | me,ume | ma,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | me,s,me | maize | me,s,me |

Table 7: Ranking of task models from Section 5.1 trained under different train pipelines (rows) for each individual test corruptions (columns 2 - 12).
Table 8: Ranking of task models from Section 5.1 trained under different train pipelines (rows) for each individual test pipeline (columns 2 - 13).

| Rank | bi,s,me | bi,a,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,s,me | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
|------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1    | bi,s,me | bi,a,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,s,me | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 2    | bi,u,me | bi,a,me | bi,a,ga | bi,u,me | ma,s,me | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 3    | ma,s,ga | ma,s,ga | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 4    | bi,a,ga | ma,a,me | ma,a,ga | ma,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 5    | me,u,me | me,a,me | me,a,ga | me,a,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 6    | bi,a,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 7    | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 8    | me,a,ga | me,a,me | ma,a,me | me,a,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 9    | ma,a,ga | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,u,me | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 10   | me,u,me | me,u,me | me,u,me | me,u,me | me,u,me | me,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 11   | ma,a,ga | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | ma,a,me | me,u,me | me,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | ma,a,ga | ma,a,ga | me,s,me | me,s,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |
| 12   | bi,u,me | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | me,u,ga | me,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | bi,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga | me,u,me | me,u,ga |

Table 9: Ranking of task models from Section 5.1 trained under different train pipelines (rows) for each individual test corruptions (columns 2 - 12).

Figure 10: Experiment from Section 5.1 with weak severity (level 1) for the Common corruptions benchmark.
Figure 11: Experiment from Section 5.1 with strong severity (level 5) for the Common corruptions benchmark.

Figure 12: Experiment from Section 5.1 with weak severity (level 1) for the Common corruptions benchmark.
Figure 13: Experiment from Section 5.1 with strong severity (level 5) for the Common corruptions benchmark.
Figure 14: A comparative overview of the physically faithful data models (ISPs, top-left) and the Common Corruptions (CC, top-right) used in the drift synthesis experiments of Section 5.1. A matching heuristic based on possible visual perception of the drift artifacts (top-middle) is provided for readers who would like to relate specific data models to specific corruptions. However, we emphasize that this is a purely qualitative heuristic and has no metrological basis. Since CCs are not physically faithful it is not clear how to relate them to actual variations in the optical data generating process. Finally, corruptions that were excluded from the experiments in Section 5.1 are displayed (bottom). The CC examples where stitched from the original paper [193] for authenticity.
A.5 Datasheet documentation

We follow the datasheets documentation framework proposed in [177], using the template https://de.overleaf.com/latex/templates/datasheet-for-dataset-template/jgqyyzyprxth from Christian Garbin.

A.5.1 Datasheet for Raw-Microscopy

Motivation

For what purpose was the dataset created?

With Raw-Microscopy we provide a publicly available raw image dataset in order to examine the effect of the image signal processing on the performance and the robustness of machine learning models. This dataset enables to study these effects for a supervised multiclass classification task: the classification of white blood cells (WBCs).

Who created this dataset (e.g., which team, research group) and on behalf of which entity (e.g., company, institution, organization)?

This dataset has been created by the Laboratory of Applied Optics of the Micro-Nanotechnology group at HEPIA/HES-SO, University of Applied Sciences of Western Switzerland. Single-cell images were annotated by a trained cytologist.

Who funded the creation of the dataset?

The creation of the dataset has been funded by HEPIA/HES-SO.

Composition

What do the instances that comprise the dataset represent (e.g., documents, photos, people, countries)?

An instance is a tuple of an image and a label. The image shows a human WBCs and the label indicates the morphological class of this cell. The following eight morphological classes appear in the dataset: Basophil (BAS), Eosinophil (EOS), Smudge cell / debris (KSC), atypical Lymphocyte (LYA), typical Lymphocyte (LYT), Monocyte (MON), Neutrophil (band) (NGB), Neutrophil (segmented) (NGS). The nth class consists of images that could not be assigned a class (UNC) during the labeling process.

How many instances are there in total (of each type, if appropriate)?

The data set consists of 940 instances. For the proportion of each class in the dataset see table 10.

Does the dataset contain all possible instances or is it a sample (not necessarily random) of instances from a larger set?

The dataset does not contain all possible instances. It is limited to WBC classes normally present in the peripheral blood of healthy humans. In order to cope with intrinsic class imbalance in cell distribution, rare cell class candidates such as Basophils were preferentially imaged.

What data does each instance consist of? “Raw” data (e.g., unprocessed text or images) or features?

Each instance consists of an image of 256 by 256 pixels. The image is a raw image in .tiff format.

Is there a label or target associated with each instance?

Each instance is associated to a label, that indicates the morphological class of the image.

Is any information missing from individual instances?

No information is missing.

Are relationships between individual instances made explicit (e.g., users' movie ratings, social network links)?

No, relationships between individuals are not made explicit.

Are there recommended data splits (e.g., training, development/validation, testing)?

There are no recommended data splits. All the data splits that we used for our experiments were randomly picked.

Are there any errors, sources of noise, or redundancies in the dataset?
To the best of our knowledge, there are no errors in the dataset. However, a key source of variability between slides from different laboratories and processing times is stain intensity. The samples used in this work all come from the same source, hence we assume the preanalytic treatment and staining protocol to be similar. As all images were obtained on the same microscopy equipment, focus handling and illumination are identical for all samples. Image labelling was performed by one trained morphologist with experience in hematological routine diagnostics. It is known that morphology annotations are subject to inter- and intra-rater variability. However, as we limit ourselves to normal WBCs the labeling is expected to be stable.

Is the dataset self-contained, or does it link to or otherwise rely on external resources (e.g., websites, tweets, other datasets)?

The dataset is self-contained.

Does the dataset contain data that might be considered confidential (e.g., data that is protected by legal privilege or by doctor-patient confidentiality, data that includes the content of individuals non-public communications)?

The dataset consist of medical data, disclosing the morphological classes of single human WBCs. In principle, the distribution of cell types conveys information on the health state of a patient. However, the subjects in this dataset are fully deidentified, so that the image data cannot be linked back to the healthy donors of the scanned blood smears. Furthermore, it is not disclosed which cell image was taken from which blood smear, so that no frequencies of individual cell types can be determined. Additionally, we only consider cell types present in normal blood, so that no specific hematologic pathology can be deduced from cell morphologies.

Does the dataset contain data that, if viewed directly, might be offensive, insulting, threatening, or might otherwise cause anxiety?

No. The dataset does not contain data with any of the above properties.

Does the dataset relate to people?

Yes. The dataset consist of images of human WBCs.

Does the dataset identify any subpopulations (e.g., by age, gender)?

The donors of the blood smears used in this dataset are fully deidentified, and no information on subpopulation composition is provided.

Is it possible to identify individuals (i.e., one or more natural persons), either directly or indirectly (i.e., in combination with other data) from the dataset?

No. It is not possible to identify individuals from an image of their white blood cells or visa versa.

Does the dataset contain data that might be considered sensitive in any way (e.g., data that reveals racial or ethnic origins, sexual orientations, religious beliefs, political opinions or union memberships, or locations; financial or health data; biometric or genetic data; forms of government identification, such as social security numbers; criminal history)?

No. While the distribution of cell types for a specific patient could reveal information about that patient’s health status, isolated single-cell images of normal leukocytes do not allow for this inference.

Any other comments?

See table 11 for a summary of the composition of Raw-Microscopy.

| Class                          | Proportion in % |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|
| Basophil (BAS)                | 1.91            |
| Eosinophil (EOS)              | 5.74            |
| Smudge cell / debris (KSC)    | 17.34           |
| atypical Lymphocyte (LYA)     | 3.19            |
| typical Lymphocyte (LYT)      | 24.47           |
| Monocyte (MON)                | 20.32           |
| Neutrophil (band) (NGB)       | 0.85            |
| Neutrophil (segmented) (NGS)  | 22.98           |
| Image that could not be assigned a class (UNC) | 3.19 |

Table 10: The proportion of the classes in Raw-Microscopy.

Collection Process

How was the data associated with each instance acquired?

Images of the dataset have been acquired directly from a CMOS imaging sensor. They are in a raw unprocessed format.

What mechanisms or procedures were used to collect the data (e.g., hardware apparatus or sensor, manual human curation, software program, software API)?
Imaging data have been obtained via a custom bright-field microscope.

If the dataset is a sample from a larger set, what was the sampling strategy (e.g., deterministic, probabilistic with specific sampling probabilities)?

Images have 256×256 pixel size and have been cropped from larger images. The dataset corresponds to a selection of white blood cells in the acquired large images. A sampling strategy aimed at increasing the proportion of rare classes of white blood cells has been used.

Who was involved in the data collection process (e.g., students, crowdworkers, contractors) and how were they compensated (e.g., how much were crowdworkers paid)?

A research assistant has been involved in the data collection process and has been compensated with a monthly salary.

Over what timeframe was the data collected? Does this timeframe match the creation timeframe of the data associated with the instances (e.g., recent crawl of old news articles)?

Data have been collected on a timeframe of two months, corresponding to the availability of the physical samples to image. Data have been collected on purpose for this work.

Were any ethical review processes conducted (e.g., by an institutional review board)?

The microscopy data was purchased from a commercial lab vendor (J. Lieder GmbH & Co. KG, Ludwigsburg/Germany) who attained consent from the subjects included.

Does the dataset relate to people?

Yes. The dataset consists of microscopic images of human white blood cells.

Did you collect the data from the individuals in question directly, or obtain it via third parties or other sources (e.g., websites)?

Data have not been obtained via third parties.

Were the individuals in question notified about the data collection?

As the blood smear slides were bought from a company, notification to individuals of the data collection has been performed by the company.

Did the individuals in question consent to the collection and use of their data?

Yes, they did.

If consent was obtained, were the consenting individuals provided with a mechanism to revoke their consent in the future or for certain uses?

We do not know the conditions of consent adopted by the selling company. However, we believe the company provided the individuals a complete freedom in revoking their consent in the future, if desired.

Has an analysis of the potential impact of the dataset and its use on data subjects (e.g., a data protection impact analysis) been conducted?

No, this kind of analysis has not been conducted.

Preprocessing/cleaning/labeling

Was any preprocessing/cleaning/labeling of the data done (e.g., discretization or bucketing, tokenization, part-of-speech tagging, SIFT feature extraction, removal of instances, processing of missing values)?

Intensity scaled images are generated with Jetraw Data Suite forboth datasets, which applies a physical model based on sensor calibration to accurately simulate intensity reduction. Microscopy Raw images are extracted from RGB Microscopy data through a pixel selection from images taken with three filters, in order to have a Bayer Pattern. Pixels intensities are rescaled with Jetraw Data Suite to match the measured transmissivities of a Bayer colour filters array.

Was the “raw” data saved in addition to the preprocessed/cleaned/labeled data (e.g., to support unanticipated future uses)?

Raw images are available in the dataset.

Is the software used to preprocess/clean/label the instances available?

All code used in the experiments of this manuscript is publicly available. Jetraw products that were used for acquiring the data are commercially available.

Uses
Has the dataset been used for any tasks already?
The dataset has not yet been used.

Is there a repository that links to any or all papers or systems that use the dataset?
The repository at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit associated to this work, maintained by Luis Oala.

What (other) tasks could the dataset be used for?
The dataset can be used to study the effect of image signal processing on the performance and robustness of any other machine learning model implemented in PyTorch, designed for a supervised multiclass classification task.

Is there anything about the composition of the dataset or the way it was collected and pre-processed/cleaned/labeled that might impact future uses?
To the best of our knowledge, we do not recognize such impacts.

Are there tasks for which the dataset should not be used?
To the best of our knowledge, there are no such tasks.

Distribution

Will the dataset be distributed to third parties outside of the entity (e.g., company, institution, organization) on behalf of which the dataset was created?
Yes. The dataset will be publicly available.

How will the dataset will be distributed (e.g., tarball on website, API, GitHub)
A guide to access the dataset is available at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit. Moreover, the dataset can be downloaded anonymously and directly at https://zenodo.org/record/5235536 under the doi: 10.5281/zenodo.5235536.

When will the dataset be distributed?
The dataset is already publicly available.

Maintenance

Will the dataset be distributed under a copyright or other intellectual property (IP) license, and/or under applicable terms of use (ToU)?
The dataset will be distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International.

Have any third parties imposed IP-based or other restrictions on the data associated with the instances?
No.

Do any export controls or other regulatory restrictions apply to the dataset or to individual instances?
There are no such restrictions.

Who will be supporting/hosting/maintaining the dataset?
Bruno Sanguinetti on behalf of Dotphoton AG.

How can the owner/curator/manager of the dataset be contacted (e.g., email address)?
By email address via bruno.sanguinetti@dotphoton.com.

Is there an erratum?
At the time of submission, there is no such erratum. If an erratum is needed in the future it will be accessible at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit.

Will the dataset be updated (e.g., to correct labeling errors, add new instances, delete instances)?
Yes. The dataset will be enlarged wrt. the number of instances.

If the dataset relates to people, are there applicable limits on the retention of the data associated with the instances (e.g., were individuals in question told that their data would be retained for a fixed period of time and then deleted)?
To the best of our knowledge, there are no such limits.

Will older versions of the dataset continue to be supported/hosted/maintained?
Older versions will be supported and maintained in the future. The dataset will continue to be hosted as long as https://zenodo.org/ exists.

If others want to extend/augment/build on/-contribute to the dataset, is there a mechanism for them to do so?

For any of these requests contact either Luis Oala (luis.oala@hhi.fraunhofer.de) or Bruno Sanguinetti (bruno.sanguinetti@dotphoton.com). For now, we do not have an established mechanism to handle these requests.

| Composition of Raw-Microscopy |
|------------------------------|
| Type of instances            | Image and label          |
| Objects on images            | White blood cells        |
| Type of classes              | Morphological classes    |
| Number of instances          | 940                      |
| Number of classes            | 9                       |
| Image size                   | 256 by 256 pixels        |
| Image format                 | .tif                     |
| Raw image format             | Please see Section 4.1   |

Table 11: A summary of the composition of Raw-Microscopy.
A.5.2 Datasheet for Raw-Drone

Motivation

For what purpose was the dataset created?
With Raw-Drone we provide a publicly available raw dataset in order to examine the effect of the image data processing on the performance and the robustness of machine learning models. This dataset enables to study these effects for a segmentation task: the segmentation of cars. The dataset was taken with specified parameters: sensor gain, point-spread function and ground-sampling distance, so that physical models may be used to process the data. It also was taken with a easily accessible and affordable system, so that it may be reproduced.

Who created this dataset (e.g., which team, research group) and on behalf of which entity (e.g., company, institution, organization)?
The dataset was created by Bruno Sanguinetti on behalf of the company Dotphoton AG.

Who funded the creation of the dataset?
The data collection was funded by Dotphoton AG. The calibration of the image characteristics was jointly funded by Dotphoton AG and the European Space Agency.

Composition

What do the instances that comprise the dataset represent (e.g., documents, photos, people, countries)?
An instance is a tuple of an image and a segmentation mask. The image shows a landscape shot from above. The segmentation mask is a binary image. A white pixel in this mask corresponds to a pixel within a region in the image where a car is displayed. A black pixel in this mask corresponds to a pixel within a region in the image where no car is displayed.

How many instances are there in total (of each type, if appropriate)?
The dataset consists of 548 instances.

Does the dataset contain all possible instances or is it a sample (not necessarily random) of instances from a larger set?
The dataset does not contain all possible instances. Only images with at least one white pixel in the associated segmentation mask are considered.

What data does each instance consist of? “Raw” data (e.g., unprocessed text or images) or features?
Both, the image and the segmentation mask consist of 256 by 256 pixels. The image is a raw image in .tif format and the segmentation mask is in .png format. The images are cropped sub-images of 12 raw images in .DNG format, consisting of 3648 by 5472 pixels.

Is there a label or target associated with each instance?
Each instance is associated to a binary segmentation mask.

Is any information missing from individual instances?
No information is missing.

Are relationships between individual instances made explicit (e.g., users’ movie ratings, social network links)?
Since every image is a cropped sub-image of an original image, several of these sub-images belong to the same original image. All sub-images are disjoint, i.e. no different images share a pixel from the original image.

Are there recommended data splits (e.g., training, development/validation, testing)?
There are no recommended data splits. All the data splits that we used for our experiments were randomly picked.

Are there any errors, sources of noise, or redundancies in the dataset?
To the best of our knowledge, there are no errors in the dataset. The segmentation mask is created by hand and hence noisy, especially at the boundaries between a region with a car and a region without a car.

Is the dataset self-contained, or does it link to or otherwise rely on external resources (e.g., websites, tweets, other datasets)?
The dataset is self-contained.

**Does the dataset contain data that might be considered confidential (e.g., data that is protected by legal privilege or by doctor-patient confidentiality, data that includes the content of individuals non-public communications)?**

No. The dataset does not contain data of any of the above types.

**Does the data set contain data that, if viewed directly, might be offensive, insulting, threatening, or might otherwise cause anxiety?**

No. The dataset does not contain data with any of the above properties.

**Does the dataset relate to people?**

The dataset does not relate to people. The drone data was screened for PIIs such as faces or license plates on cars and removed by the data collection team.

**Any other comments?**

See table 12 for a summary of the composition of the Raw-Drone.

---

### Collection Process

**How was the data associated with each instance acquired?**

The data was collected by flying a drone and saving the raw data. The calibration data for the drone’s imager was acquired both under laboratory conditions and using a ground-based calibration target, so that it could be acquired under operating conditions.

**What mechanisms or procedures were used to collect the data (e.g., hardware apparatus or sensor, manual human curation, software program, software API)?**

To acquire the drone images, we used a DJI Mavic 2 Pro Drone, equipped with a Hasselblad L1D-20c camera (Sony IMX183 sensor). This system has 2.4 µm pixels in Bayer filter array. Images were taken with the drone hovering for maximum stability. This stability was verified to be better than a single pixel by calculating the correlation of subsequent images. The objective has a focal length of 10.3 mm. We operated this objective at an f-number of $N = 8$, to emulate the PSF circle diameter relative to the pixel pitch and ground sampling distance (GSD) as would be found on images from high-resolution satellites. Operating at $N = 8$ also minimises vignetting, aberrations, and increases depth of focus. The point-spread function (PSF) was measured to have a circle diameter of 12.5 µm using the edge-spread function technique and a ground calibration target. This corresponds to $\sigma = 2.52 \text{px}$, which also corresponds to a diffraction-limited system, within the uncertainty dictated by the wavelength spread of the image. Images were taken at 200ISO, corresponding to a gain of 0.528 DN/e$^-$. The 12-bit pixel values are however left-justified to 16-bits, so that the gain on the 16-bit numbers is 8.448 DN/e$^-$. The images were taken at a height of 250 m, so that the GSD is 6 cm. All images were tiled in 256x256 patches. Segmentation color masks were created to identify cars for each patch. From this mask, classification labels were generated to detect if there is a car in the image. The dataset is constituted by 548 images for the segmentation task, and 930 for classification. Six additional intensity scales were created with Jetraw.

**If the dataset is a sample from a larger set, what was the sampling strategy (e.g., deterministic, probabilistic with specific sampling probabilities)?**

The entire dataset is presented.

**Who was involved in the data collection process (e.g., students, crowdworkers, contractors) and how were they compensated (e.g., how much were crowdworkers paid)?**

The dataset was taken by a company employee, compensated by his salary. Labeling was performed by both a company employee and a PhD student, who’s PhD is funded by the company.

**Over what timeframe was the data collected? Does this timeframe match the creation timeframe of the data associated with the instances (e.g., recent crawl of old news articles)?**

The dataset was taken as the initial step of writing this article.

**Were any ethical review processes conducted (e.g., by an institutional review board)?**

The dataset does not contain any elements requiring an ethical review process.

**Does the dataset relate to people?**
The dataset does not relate to people. There are individuals on the images, but it is not possible to identify these individuals.

### Preprocessing/cleaning/labeling

Was any preprocessing/cleaning/labeling of the data done (e.g., discretization or bucketing, tokenization, part-of-speech tagging, SIFT feature extraction, removal of instances, processing of missing values)?

No further processing was applied to the Raw-Drone data.

Was the “raw” data saved in addition to the preprocessed/cleaned/labeled data (e.g., to support unanticipated future uses)?

Raw images are available in the dataset.

Is the software used to preprocess/clean/label the instances available?

All code used in the experiments of this manuscript is publicly available. Jetraw products that were used for acquiring the data are commercially available.

### Distribution

Will the dataset be distributed to third parties outside of the entity (e.g., company, institution, organization) on behalf of which the dataset was created?

Yes. The dataset will be publicly available.

How will the dataset be distributed (e.g., tarball on website, API, GitHub)?

A guide to access the dataset is available at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit. Moreover, the dataset can be downloaded anonymously and directly at https://zenodo.org/record/5235536 under the doi: 10.5281/zenodo.5235536.

When will the dataset be distributed?

The dataset is already publicly available.

Will the dataset be distributed under a copyright or other intellectual property (IP) license, and/or under applicable terms of use (ToU)?

The dataset will be distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International.

Have any third parties imposed IP-based or other restrictions on the data associated with the instances?

No.

Do any export controls or other regulatory restrictions apply to the dataset or to individual instances?

There are no such restrictions.

### Uses

Has the dataset been used for any tasks already? The dataset has not yet been used.

Is there a repository that links to any or all papers or systems that use the dataset?

The repository at https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit associated to this work, maintained by Luis Oala.

What (other) tasks could the dataset be used for?

The dataset can be used to study the effect of image signal processing on the performance and robustness of any other machine learning model implemented in PyTorch, designed segmentation task.

Is there anything about the composition of the dataset or the way it was collected and preprocessed/cleaned/labeled that might impact future uses?

To the best of our knowledge, we do not recognize such impacts.

### Maintenance

Who will be supporting/hosting/maintaining the dataset?

Bruno Sanguinetti on behalf of Dotphoton AG.

How can the owner/curator/manager of the dataset be contacted (e.g., email address)?

Are there tasks for which the dataset should not be used?

To the best of our knowledge, there are no such tasks.
By email address via bruno.sanguinetti@dotphoton.com.

**Is there an erratum?**

At the time of submission, there is no such erratum. If an erratum is needed in the future it will be accessible at [https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit](https://github.com/aiaudit-org/raw2logit).

**Will the dataset be updated (e.g., to correct labeling errors, add new instances, delete instances)?**

Yes. The dataset will be enlarged wrt. the number of instances.

**If the dataset relates to people, are there applicable limits on the retention of the data associated with the instances (e.g., were individuals in question told that their data would be retained for a fixed period of time and then deleted)?**

To the best of our knowledge, there are no such limits.

**Will older versions of the dataset continue to be supported/hosted/maintained?**

Older versions will be supported and maintained in the future. The dataset will continue to be hosted as long as [https://zenodo.org/](https://zenodo.org/) exists.

**If others want to extend/augment/build on/-contribute to the dataset, is there a mechanism for them to do so?**

For any of these requests contact either Luis Oala (luis.oala@hhi.fraunhofer.de) or Bruno Sanguinetti (bruno.sanguinetti@dotphoton.com). For now, we do not have an established mechanism to handle these requests.

| Composition of Raw-Drone |
|--------------------------|
| Type of instances        | Image and mask |
| Objects on images        | Landscape shots from above |
| Number of instances      | 548 |
| Number of original images| 12 |
| Image size               | 256 by 256 pixels |
| Mask size                | 256 by 256 pixels |
| Original image size      | 3648 by 5472 |
| Image format             | .tif |
| Mask format              | .png |
| Raw image format         | .DNG |

Table 12: A summary of the composition of Raw-Drone.