

VISA: Retrieval Augmented Generation with Visual Source Attribution

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Generation with source attribution is important for enhancing the verifiability of retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) systems. However, existing approaches in RAG primarily link generated content to document-level references, making it challenging for users to locate evidence among multiple content-rich retrieved documents. To address this challenge, we propose *Retrieval-Augmented Generation with Visual Source Attribution* (VISA), a novel approach that combines answer generation with visual source attribution. Leveraging large vision-language models (VLMs), VISA identifies the evidence and highlights the exact regions that support the generated answers with bounding boxes in the retrieved document screenshots. To evaluate its effectiveness, we curated two datasets: Wiki-VISA, based on crawled Wikipedia webpage screenshots, and Paper-VISA, derived from PubLayNet and tailored to the medical domain. Experimental results demonstrate the effectiveness of VISA for visual source attribution on documents’ original look, as well as highlighting the challenges for improvement. Code, data, and model checkpoints will be released.

1 Introduction

Retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) has become a key technique for enhancing the reliability in information-seeking processes (Gao et al., 2024). Traditional RAG pipeline directly generates an answer to a user query from retrieved candidate documents (Chen et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2020). Yet, it is hard for users to verify the sources and appropriately trust generated answers, given that models could produce hallucinated content (Min et al., 2023; Malaviya et al., 2024). Recent works have introduced the generation with citation paradigm (Gao et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2024), prompting the model to not only generate answers but also directly cite the identifiers

of the source documents. Such source attribution approaches make it possible for users to check the reliability of the outputs (Asai et al., 2024).

However, text-based generation with source attribution faces several issues: First, citing the source at the document level could impose a heavy cognitive burden on users (Foster, 1979; Sweller, 2011), where users often struggle to locate the core evidence at the section or passage level within the dense and multi-page document. Despite such granularity mismatch could be addressed through passage-citation-based generation methods — linking answers to specific text chunks, it requires non-trivial extra engineering efforts to match the chunk in the document source. Moreover, visually highlighting text chunks in the source document is more intuitive for users, but it remains challenging as it requires control over document rendering, which is not always accessible, such as in PDF scenarios.

Inspired by the recent document screenshot embedding retrieval paradigm — dropping the document processing module and directly using VLM to preserve the content integrity and encoding document screenshots for retrieval (Ma et al., 2024), we ask whether source attribution can also be integrated into such a unified visual paradigm to establish a fully visual, end-to-end verifiable RAG pipeline that is both user-friendly and effective?

To this end, we propose *Retrieval Augmented Generation with Visual Source Attribution* (VISA). In our approach, a large vision-language model (VLM) processes single or multiple retrieved document images and not only generates an answer to the user query but also returns the bounding box of the relevant region within the evidence document. As Figure 1 illustrated, this method enables direct attribution by visually pinpointing the exact position within the document, allowing users to quickly check the supporting evidence within the original context for the generated answer. VLMs are not restricted by document format or render-

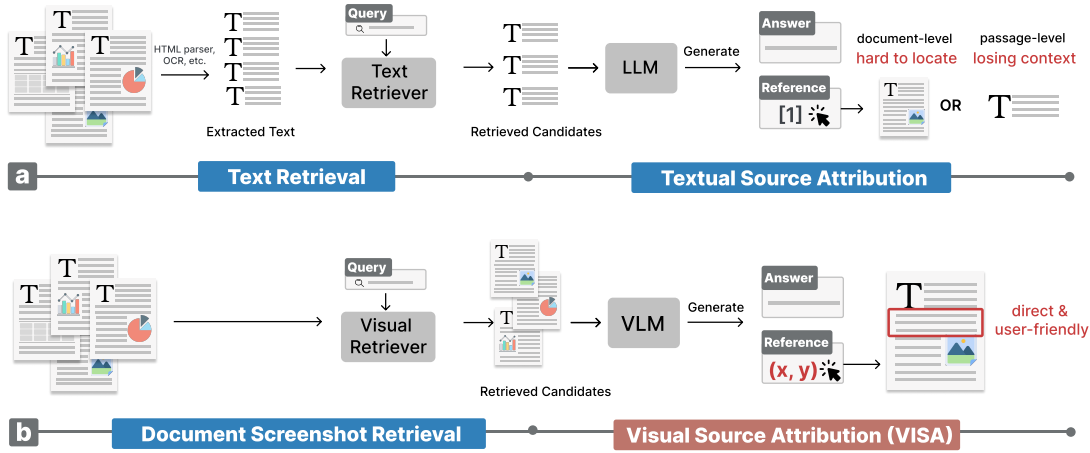


Figure 1: Comparison between (a) Text-based generation with source attribution in a RAG pipeline. and (b) Visual-based generation with source attribution in a V-RAG pipeline. VISA directly pinpoints the source evidence of the answer for user query in the original document with a bounding box.

ing, making them more versatile for diverse use cases. Moreover, this task serves as a meaningful evaluation of VLMs, assessing their ability to provide self-explanations and accurately localize supporting information within their input in an RAG paradigm. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to enable the visual source attribution in an end-to-end RAG framework using VLM.

To train and evaluate VISA, we curated two datasets: Wiki-VISA and Paper-VISA. Wiki-VISA is derived from the Natural Questions dataset (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019). It reconstructs the original Wikipedia webpages, using short answers as generation targets and corresponding long answer’s HTML bounding box as source attribution targets. This dataset supports the test of model’s ability to attribute sources across multi-document, multi-page, and multi-modal content. On the other hand, Paper-VISA, built from PubLayNet (Zhong et al., 2019) with synthetic query generation, focuses on the biomedical domain by evaluating performance on multi-modal scientific paper PDFs. Together, they provide diverse and challenging benchmarks for assessing the granularity and accuracy of source attribution in RAG systems. Our experiments, spanning both in-domain training and zero-shot evaluation, revealed existing state-of-the-art models like QWen2-VL-72B (Wang et al., 2024) struggle with precise visual source attribution in zero-shot prompting. Fine-tuning VISA on our curated datasets significantly improved model performance in visual attribution accuracy. Further analysis highlights key areas for improvement, such as enhancing bounding box precision for long image documents, multi-documents, and zero-shot

generalization capabilities.

2 Related Work

2.1 RAG attribution

Open-domain question answering with LLMs often suffer from two key issues: hallucinations and outdated internal knowledge. Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) has been recognized as an effective solution to these problems (Lewis et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2024; Ovadia et al., 2024). In RAG, relevant documents are first retrieved from an external database and then fed into LLMs alongside the question. This allows LLMs to reference the retrieved documents during answer generation. Furthermore, RAG can generate a list of citations attached to the generated answers, linking them to the retrieved documents so users can verify the accuracy of the output. This process is known as source attribution (Rashkin et al., 2023; Bohnet et al., 2023; Khalifa et al., 2024).

Typically, RAG with source attribution follows a text-only pipeline where all inputs and outputs, such as questions, retrieved documents, generated answers, and citations, are in textual form. Recently, vision-based RAG pipelines have emerged, where the retrieved documents are represented as screenshot images (Ma et al., 2024; Fayssse et al., 2024), and VLMs process both textual questions and these document images to generate answers (Riedler and Langer, 2024; Xia et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2024; Cho et al., 2024). Compared to traditional text-only RAG, vision-based RAG can leverage structured and visual information from documents, such as tables, graphs, and images, which are often challenging to extract through text-

only pipelines.

Our VISA attribution method proposed in this paper is a novel approach for vision-based RAG pipelines: directly drawing bounding boxes around the content in retrieved document screenshots that potentially supports the generated answers. This approach differs from existing attribution methods in two ways: (1) Granularity: Existing attribution methods often operate at the document level, requiring users to read entire documents to locate supportive content. In contrast, our method directly attributes the answer to specific content within the document, such as a passage, table, or image in the screenshot. (2) Presentation: Traditional attribution methods provide a list of textual citations, whereas our method uses bounding boxes, offering a visually-oriented form of attribution. This can help users quickly locate the relevant information.

2.2 Bounding Box Drawing with VLM

Bounding box-based object detection is a well-established task in computer vision (CV) (Zhao et al., 2019; Zou et al., 2023). Traditional approaches rely on convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (LeCun et al., 2015) or Vision Transformers (ViTs) (Dosovitskiy et al., 2021) to extract features and predict bounding boxes alongside object classification (Ren et al., 2015; Dai et al., 2016; Redmon et al., 2016; Carion et al., 2020).

Recent vision-language models (VLMs) like GPT4o (OpenAI, 2024), Qwen2-VL (Wang et al., 2024), and PaliGemma (Steiner et al., 2024) have shown the ability to generate bounding box coordinates in an image-to-text manner, taking input images and generate the top-left and bottom-right coordinates of target objects. Methods like BuboGPT (Zhao et al., 2023) and GLAMM (Rasheed et al., 2024) integrate additional modules or modify the VLM architecture tailoring for the visual grounding tasks. Unlike traditional object detection or grounding that focuses on natural images, our method applies bounding box drawing to text-intensive document screenshots. In addition, we intentionally leave the VLM architecture unchanged, envisioning visual attribution eventually can be naturally integrated into general-purpose VLM training data.

Grounding elements on screenshots have been explored in GUI agent systems (Cheng et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024), where bounding boxes are used to localize UI elements like buttons. However, these approaches focus on GUI contexts, our work tar-

gets visual source attribution in vision-based RAG processes, grounding bounding boxes to locate evidence within document images.

3 Method

3.1 Task Definition

Our model VISA is a novel source attribution method primarily designed for vision-based RAG systems. To formally define the task of RAG with visual-based source attribution: given a textual user query q as the RAG system input, the retrieval component of the system needs to retrieve a set of candidate documents $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$ from corpus \mathcal{C} . Then the generation component of the system needs to return three outputs: an answer a that answers the query q , the identifier i of the most relevant document d^* in D , and a bounding box coordinates $B_{d^*} = [(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)]$ within d_* that highlight the content supporting the generated answer a .

In a vision-based RAG setup, user queries are textual, while all documents in the corpus \mathcal{C} are screenshots of documents (e.g., webpages or PDF pages) provided as image inputs.

3.2 Generation with Visual Source Attribution

This paper focuses on VISA within the generation component of vision-based RAG systems. As discussed in the previous section, VISA must handle multimodal input. To achieve this, we leverage VLMs for implementing VISA. Specifically, for a given query and a set of retrieved candidate documents (i.e., screenshots of documents), the system processes the inputs as follows: query tokens are directly input into the language model, while document screenshots are first processed by the image encoder to extract image representations, which are then fed into the language model.

The language model subsequently generates the answer, the identifier of the relevant document, and the xy-coordinates of the bounding box’s top-left and bottom-right corner on the content that supports the generated answer. Notably, this entire process can be framed as a next-token prediction task. Finally, the generated identifier and bounding box coordinates are used to draw the bounding box on the target document screenshot, which is presented to the user along with the generated answer.

Technically, existing instruction-tuned VLMs, such as Qwen2-VL-72B (Wang et al., 2024), can

potentially be prompted to perform VISA in a zero-shot manner. However, we find that VISA remains a challenging task. Consequently, further supervised fine-tuning on a dedicated VISA task dataset is necessary. In the next section, we introduce the datasets we crafted specifically for training and evaluating VISA.

3.3 Dataset Acquisition

The training and evaluation data suitable for the VISA task needs to be formatted as follows: the input consists of a textual query and document screenshot images as multimodal inputs, while the target outputs include the textual short answer, the relevant document identifier, and the coordinates of the bounding box. To create datasets that meet these requirements, we craft existing publicly available datasets to support the training and evaluation of our proposed VISA method.

Wiki-VISA is derived from the Natural Questions (NQ) dataset (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019). The original NQ dataset provides natural questions, along with short and long answers sourced from Wikipedia webpages. We use the short answers as answer targets. However, the original dataset does not contain the original webpage screenshots. We use the Selenium Python toolkit¹ to access and render the webpage with the original URL with a history version stamp. And take a screenshot with 980 pixels width and up to 3920 pixels (4 pages) height. Using the long answer, we identify the corresponding element in the HTML from which the long answer is derived. We then draw a bounding box around this element to obtain the coordinates. Notably, the answers in this dataset can come from various elements, such as passages, tables, lists, or images within the webpage. Since the questions and answers in Wiki-VISA are human-judged, we consider this dataset a high-quality, supervised dataset and evaluation for VISA on general knowledge, with Wikipedia webpage.

Paper-VISA is derived from PubLayNet (Zhong et al., 2019), a dataset originally designed for document layout analysis of single-page PubMed PDF documents (adhering to a 3:2 aspect ratio). PubLayNet provides bounding box coordinates and class labels (e.g., title, text, table, figure, etc.) for each element in a paper’s PDF screenshot. However, the dataset does not include queries or answers associated with each document. To ad-

dress this limitation, we leverage instruction-tuned VLMs (e.g. Qwen2-VL-72B) to synthetically generate queries and answers. Specifically, for each paper screenshot sample in the PubLayNet training data, we select a bounding box within the sample and overlay it on the screenshot. The modified screenshot is then input to the VLM with a prompt designed to instruct the model to generate a question and a short answer based on the content within the bounding box. See Appendix A.10 for the prompt details and generation example. By augmenting the original PubLayNet in this way, we create synthetic queries and answers, enabling it to support VISA training. We consider the resulting Paper-VISA dataset as synthetic training and evaluation for scientific paper PDFs in the medical domain.

FineWeb-VISA is based on the FineWeb-edu corpus (Penedo et al., 2024), a high-quality text corpus of crawled webpages. We sampled 60k webpage URLs and used Selenium to capture screenshots of diverse, content-rich webpages (in 980x3920 pixels). A passage containing more than 50 words was randomly selected as the target source. A bounding box was drawn around the selected content, and a VLM was prompted to generate a query and short answer supported by the target content, similar as Paper-VISA. Although Fineweb-VISA provides a diverse layout, it does not guarantee be high-quality data as human annotated in Wiki-VISA or Paper-VISA that assessing a specific domain, we only leverage Fineweb-VISA as training data to analysis zero-shot and data augmentation effectiveness.

3.4 Multi-Candidates

By now, each query is paired with the triplet of a positive document, target short answer, and target evidence bounding box. To set up a RAG experimental environment for evaluating VISA, we in addition need to let the generator take multiple candidates as input, simulating the scenario that the generator is taking multiple retrieval candidates and attributing the evidence in most relevant documents. Given the query q , we use a retriever R to retrieve top- k candidates. And randomly sampled $m - 1$ candidates that are not ground truth as hard negative candidates. The hard negative candidates are mixed with the one ground truth document together as the input for the multi-document VISA. The reason we did not directly take top- m documents as the retrieval candidate is that we do not

¹<https://pypi.org/project/selenium/>

Dataset	# Train	# Test
Wiki-VISA	87k	3,000
Paper-VISA	100k	2,160
Fineweb-VISA	60k	-

Table 1: Datasets statistics for train and test splits.

want VISA biased on a specific retriever and position of the candidate docs. Generally, our model VISA does not rely on the type of retriever. It can be either a traditional text-based retriever that indexes the document with extracted text or a recent document screenshot retriever that directly indexes the original document screenshot. However, integrating with those visual-based retrievers enables us to build an end-to-end RAG solution without the necessity of explicit document content processes such as HTML parsing or OCR. Thus, we leverage an off-the-shelf Document Screenshot Embedding (DSE) model (Ma et al., 2024) to serve as the retrieval component of the RAG system. When encoding queries and documents, the model directly encodes textual queries and document screenshot images into single vector embeddings and performs cosine similarity search during inference. In this work, we set $k = 20$ and $m = 3$.

Additionally, an RAG pipeline may have the chance of having no ground truth document returned from the retriever. We use a probability of 20% to randomly replace the ground truth document in the candidates, to access the model’s capability to detect no-answer situations. After these operations, the data statistics are shown in Table 1.

4 Experiment Setup

4.1 Evaluation

Evaluation metrics assessed both generated answers and bounding box predictions. Relaxed exact match (EM) was used to measure generated answer accuracy, considering a generated answer correct if it shares a subsequence relationship with the golden answer and differs by no more than 20 characters. Intersection over Union (IoU) was calculated to determine bounding box precision, with an IoU threshold of 0.5 indicating a correct prediction.

To analyze performance across varying content types, test samples were categorized by the modality and location of the evidence. For Wiki-VISA, categories included first-page passages, passages beyond the first page, and non-passage content such as tables and figures. For Paper-VISA, since it is a single-page document, categories were divided

into passage and non-passage content. The overall accuracy for each dataset was computed as a macro average across these categories.

We evaluate the effectiveness of VISA in two different settings: *Single oracle candidate* and *Multi-candidate*. *Single oracle candidate* setting solely evaluates the generation and visual attribution component. We conduct controlled experiments by training and testing the VLMs using only a single ground truth relevant document screenshot as input. In this setup, it is guaranteed that the answer can be found within the input document. The VLMs do not need to predict the relevant document identifier and can focus exclusively on answer generation and bounding box prediction.

In a *Multi-candidate* setting, the model is evaluated on its ability to distinguish relevant documents from irrelevant ones, in addition to generating accurate answers and bounding boxes. This setup better reflects the RAG scenarios in which multiple candidate documents are retrieved, and the model must not only generate a correct response but also attribute it to the correct source document. For the *Multi-candidate* evaluation, we assess two configurations: *Multi-candidate*, *Oracle in Candidates* which has ground truth in candidates, this setting has the same query set as the single setting, hence directly comparable. *Multi-candidate*, *Oracle Not in Candidates* evaluated on the queries with no ground truth documents in candidates, assessing the model’s ability to recognize when there is no supporting evidence

4.2 Training Details

To train vision-language models (VLMs) for answer generation with VISA, we initialized the models using the open-source Qwen2-VL-2B-Instruct and Qwen2-VL-7B-Instruct (Wang et al., 2024), finetuning on training datasets (Sec. 3.3).

We first trained the models in a single-candidate setup, where the input was limited to a single oracle document image. In this setup, the model was trained to generate both the answer and its corresponding bounding box. We used the prompt template provided in Appendix A.8 to format the model’s input and output. Next, we trained the models in a multi-candidate setup. Here, the model received three document candidates and the task was to generate the identifier of the relevant document (if present), the answer, and the bounding box for the evidence. For cases where no relevant document was present (20% of the training samples),

Method	Wiki-VISA								Paper-VISA					
	Average		[<1] Passage		[>1] Passage		Non-Passage		Average		Passage		Non-Passage	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
<i>Zeroshot Prompt, Single Oracle Candidates</i>														
QWen2-VL-72B	1.5	60.4	3.4	58.5	0.1	54.9	0.9	67.9	1.5	43.1	0.5	40.2	2.5	45.9
<i>Fine-tune, Single Oracle Candidates</i>														
VISA-2B-single	37.5	57.1	70.0	61.1	18.7	44.9	23.8	65.3	63.0	38.3	50.6	34.4	75.3	42.1
VISA-7B-single	54.2	65.2	75.6	66.5	50.1	56.0	36.8	73.1	68.2	43.8	58.1	41.6	78.2	45.9
<i>Fine-tune, Multi Candidates, Oracle in Candidates</i>														
VISA-2B-multi	22.5	37.9	46.5	46.1	6.4	27.2	14.6	40.5	51.3	32.4	41.1	30.1	61.4	34.7
VISA-7B-multi	32.3	41.8	51.7	48.6	23.0	32.7	22.2	44.1	59.9	39.2	47.7	35.9	72.0	42.4
<i>Fine-tune, Multi Candidates, Oracle Not in Candidates</i>														
VISA-2B-multi	73.7	84.9	68.0	82.0	73.2	84.9	80.0	87.7	95.2	95.2	97.2	97.2	93.1	93.1
VISA-7B-multi	82.2	91.0	75.1	87.6	84.0	91.4	87.4	94.0	95.6	95.6	97.2	97.2	93.9	93.9

Table 2: Effectiveness of VISA on Wiki-VISA and Paper-VISA datasets for bounding box accuracy (bbx) and answer accuracy (ans). Fine-tuned models are trained individually on in-domain data. The *Multi-Candidate, Oracle in Candidates* setting uses the same query set as the Single Oracle Candidates setting, allowing direct comparison. The Oracle Not in Candidates setting is evaluated on the queries with no ground truth documents in candidates.

the model was trained to generate “No answer.” We used the prompt template in Appendix A.9 to format the model’s input and output.

During the training, random cropping was applied outside of the bounding box. This augmentation exposed the model to varying input sizes, which enhanced its zero-shot effectiveness on unseen document layouts. Bounding box targets were represented using absolute coordinate values. We also explored normalizing the scale of bounding box coordinates to values in the range[0-1]. Details can be found in Appendix A.3 and A.4.

5 Experimental Results

Table 2 presents the performance of VISA on the Wiki-VISA and Paper-VISA datasets across different experimental settings. Zero-shot prompting results reveal the difficulty of directly applying state-of-the-art VLMs to the visual source attribution task. QWen2-VL-72B achieves a reasonable answer generation accuracy of 60.4% on average on Wiki-VISA but fails to deliver effective bounding box predictions, with only 1.5% accuracy. This observation is consistent on Paper-VISA. These highlight the limitations of existing VLMs in pinpointing the source evidence in original documents with proper location and granularity.

Fine-tuning on our crafted training data enables the model to effectively execute the task. In the single-candidate setup, where the model processes only the relevant document, fine-tuned models demonstrate substantial gains compared to zero-shot prompting a much larger model. On Wiki-VISA, the 7B variant achieves 54.2% bounding box accuracy and 65.2% answer accuracy, while

on Paper-VISA, the corresponding scores reach 68.2% and 43.8%. It further demonstrates that the effectiveness of VISA is influenced by document characteristics, such as content location and modality. For Wiki-VISA, bounding box accuracy is significantly higher for passages on the first page ([<1] passage) compared to passages beyond the first page ([>1] passage). For example, the 2B variant achieves 70.0% accuracy for [<1] passages but only 18.7% for [>1] passages, indicating the challenges posed by long, multi-page documents. The larger model, the 7B variant, narrows this gap, reflecting the better handling of long-context inputs. Non-passage content, such as tables and figures, also have obviously a different level of grounding effectiveness, indicating the difference of effectiveness in different visual elements.

In the multi-candidate setting, which more closely mirrors real-world retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) systems, the 7B model achieves 32.3% bounding box accuracy and 41.8% answer accuracy when handling three candidate documents. This demonstrates the model’s capability to identify relevant sources among multiple documents while enabling fine-grained attribution. It should be noted that this setting is more challenging than the single-oracle candidate scenario, as visual source attribution among multiple candidates additionally requires the model to identify the relevant document among hard negatives.

When the oracle candidate is absent from the multi-candidate set, the model generally handles the “No Answer” scenario well. For example, VISA-7B-multi correctly indicates “No Answer” in 82.2% of cases on average for Wiki-VISA, refus-

Paradigm	Model	Paper-VISA					
		Average		Passage		Non-Passage	
		bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
Zero-Shot Prompt							
Textual	Qwen2-VL-72B	43.5	16.7	58.2	19.6	28.7	13.7
Visual	Qwen2-VL-72B	1.5	43.1	0.5	40.2	2.5	45.9
Fine-tune							
Textual	Qwen2-VL-2B	56.8	14.6	51.9	17.8	61.7	11.4
Textual	Qwen2-VL-7B	59.5	18.1	52.4	21.3	66.5	14.8
Visual	Qwen2-VL-2B	63.0	38.3	50.6	34.4	75.3	42.1
Visual	Qwen2-VL-7B	68.2	43.8	58.1	41.6	78.2	45.9

Table 3: Comparing with Text-based Visual Attribution in single oracle candidate setting of Paper-VISA. The visual paradigm indicates our VISA method. The textual method combines layout detector, OCR, and LLM.

ing to respond. In these cases, both attribution and answer are considered correct. In the remaining cases, the model attempts to answer despite lacking oracle evidence, leading to incorrect bounding boxes. Notably, in 8.8% of cases (91% - 82.2%), the model provides correct answers despite no oracle document in candidates, likely due to memorization, hallucination, or false negatives in candidate documents. This phenomenon does not occur in Paper-VISA, likely because synthetic queries in the publication domain are more directly related to the oracle document, whereas NaturalQuestions for Wiki-VISA are more general.

6 Analysis

6.1 Text-based Visual Source Attribution

Our VISA method performs RAG and visual source attribution in an end-to-end manner. Alternatively, a modularized text-based RAG pipeline—incorporating a layout prediction model, OCR, and text-based LLMs—could achieve similar functionality. Comparing VISA with such a modularized text-based pipeline would be valuable for understanding the advantages of different approaches. We construct a text-based pipeline for evaluating Paper-VISA in a single-oracle candidate setting. Using PubLayNet’s bounding boxes, we assume a perfect layout model that accurately detects document elements. We apply pytesseract OCR to extract text from each bounding box, then feed the text list and a given question into an LLM, which generates an answer along with the index of the supporting evidence. The corresponding bounding box is used for visual attribution. For a fair comparison, we use Qwen2-VL’s language model for both zero-shot prompting and fine-tuning.

As shown in Table 3, in the zero-shot setting, the text-based method achieves higher bounding box accuracy than the visual-based method, as LLMs are well-trained for text-based tasks. In contrast,

Train Data	Wiki-VISA		Paper-VISA	
	Average		Average	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
Wiki	54.2	65.2	27.8	36.2
Paper	0.2	42.6	68.2	43.8
FineWeb	37.6	50.2	22.0	43.3
Wiki+Fineweb	58.2	65.3	21.0	43.1
Paper+Fineweb	36.1	48.7	66.5	44.6
Wiki+Paper+Fineweb	58.1	64.8	67.6	44.3

Table 4: Effectiveness of VISA trained on different combinations of training data for bounding box accuracy (bbx) and answer accuracy (ans) in the single oracle candidate setting.

visual-based methods struggle with precise bounding box attribution without fine-tuning. However, the text-based method has lower answer accuracy due to OCR errors, which introduce typos (e.g., misrecognized technical terms) making it more difficult to match the ground truth answer. For fine-tuned variants, both bounding box accuracy and answer accuracy improve over the zero-shot setting. However, the text-based method still has inherent limitations. While integrating a vision-language model (VLM) for OCR could potentially enhance text extraction accuracy, it introduces additional latency and complexity in the system. Moreover, in this comparison, we assume the text-based method benefits from a perfect layout detector—an unrealistic assumption in real-world applications. These findings further support the advantages of the proposed visual-based solution for VISA.

6.2 Out-of-Domain Zero-Shot

Table 4 shows the effectiveness of VISA while trained with different data combinations in the single candidate setting. It enables us to study the effectiveness of out-of-domain transfer and augmentation. First, we highlight the challenges of zero-shot generalization in VISA. Training and evaluating on in-domain achieves an effective bounding box accuracy, e.g. 54.2% on average for Wiki-VISA. However, significant performance drops are observed when models are tested on out-of-domain datasets. For instance, a model trained on Wiki-VISA achieves only 27.8% bounding box accuracy on Paper-VISA, while a model trained on Paper-VISA achieves near-zero performance (0.2%) on Wiki-VISA. This gap underscores the difficulty of transferring visual source attribution capabilities across datasets with differing document structures, layouts, and content modalities. Interestingly, Wiki-VISA appears to transfer better to Paper-VISA compared to the reverse. This may be because of the

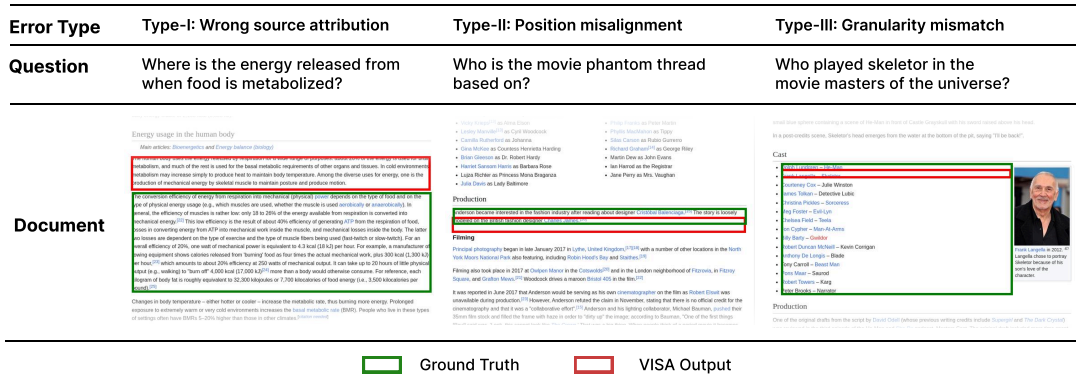


Figure 2: Type of errors in the evaluation of Wiki-VISA.

multi-page nature of Wiki-VISA, which provides richer training signals that generalize better to simpler single-page setting in Paper-VISA.

FineWeb-VISA shows as a promising resource for training models with improved zero-shot capabilities. When trained on FineWeb-VISA alone, the model achieves 37.6% bounding box accuracy on Wiki-VISA and 22.0% on Paper-VISA. Notably, FineWeb-VISA outperforms Wiki-VISA training on $[>1]$ passage bbx accuracy for Wiki-VISA (57.3% vs. 50.1%), suggesting its effectiveness in handling long and complex document structures. However, FineWeb-VISA does not perform as well on non-passage content, likely due to its training focus on passage-level targets.

6.3 Data Augmentation

The results also demonstrate the benefits of augmenting training data with FineWeb-VISA. On Wiki-VISA, combining Wiki and FineWeb training data improves bounding box accuracy from 54.2% to 58.2% and improves performance on $[>1]$ passages from 50.1% to 61.7%, indicating that FineWeb complements Wiki by enhancing the model’s ability to attribute evidence in multi-page contexts. For Paper-VISA, however, augmenting with FineWeb does not significantly improve in-domain performance. Training on Paper+FineWeb achieves a comparable bounding box accuracy to Paper alone, but it enhances zero-shot performance on Wiki-VISA (from 0.2% to 36.1%).

Training on the full combination of datasets (Wiki+Paper+FineWeb) yields strong results across both domains, with 58.1% bbx accuracy on Wiki-VISA and 67.6% on Paper-VISA. This shows the importance of diverse training data for building generalizable models capable of handling different document types, layouts, and evidence modalities. Future work should focus on expanding the

dataset diversity to further improve generalization and enable robust visual source attribution for a wide range of document structures.

6.4 Error Analysis

We conducted an error analysis on 50 randomly sampled cases from Wiki-VISA to better understand the limitations of VISA. Errors were categorized into three main types as demonstrated in Figure 2. The first type, wrong source attribution, occurred in 43 cases where the model attributed the source to an incorrect section of the document, failing to identify the precise region containing the evidence. The second type, position misalignment, was observed in 4 cases where the model appeared to have the correct intent but drew the bounding box inaccurately, either slightly off position or incorrectly sized. The third type, granularity mismatch, appeared in 3 cases where the model’s attributed source, such as a specific cell in a table or an item in a list, did not match the ground truth granularity. While these cases could potentially be considered false negatives, we leave it in error analysis to emphasize the challenge in real-world use cases where user preferences for granularity may differ from the model’s output.

7 Conclusion

We introduced VISA, a visual source attribution approach — generating answers while providing bounding boxes to locate evidence — for retrieval-augmented generation. Our curated datasets demonstrate its effectiveness across diverse document types, including complex multi-page and multimodal content. Experimental results show VISA bridges information retrieval and answer generation with finer-grained, visually grounded attribution. We hope VISA represents a pioneering step for more verifiable and user-friendly RAG systems.

8 Limitations

While VISA demonstrates promising results for answer generation and content grounding in vision-based RAG systems, it has several limitations.

Gap between our settings and real-world scenarios. Our approach focuses on generating short answers, which may not suffice for scenarios requiring detailed or explanatory responses, highlighting the need for enhancements in generating richer context. Besides, our curated datasets assume that answers are derived from a single, localized region within a document. However, in real-world applications, supporting evidence may span multiple sections or even multiple documents, limiting the model’s effectiveness in more complex retrieval scenarios. Additionally, in the Natural Questions dataset (converted to our Wiki-VISA), short answers are often extracted substring from the evidence section. This presents another gap, as real-world answers may be implied by the evidence rather than being an exact substring.

Cross-domain generalization. Although our evaluation spans web and medical scientific papers containing diverse content modalities (e.g., passages, tables, and figures), it does not fully capture the variability of real-world documents, such as scanned or handwritten content. These often feature more complex layouts and diverse aspect ratios, posing additional challenges. Our zero-shot evaluation shows that while the model achieves reasonable bounding box accuracy in cross-domain transfer, its performance still lags behind in-domain effectiveness. Enhancing cross-domain generalization would make the VISA pipeline more robust for vision-based RAG tasks across a broader range of document types.

Trade-off between accuracy and efficiency. To create challenging attribution tasks, we designed Wiki-VISA images to contain content from four pages. However, increasing the candidate set further raises training costs and frequently leads to out-of-memory (OOM) issues given our limited computing resources. We hence the number of document candidates to three in our multi-candidate setting following previous practice (Yu et al., 2024). Our findings show a clear performance difference between single-image and multi-candidate settings, underscoring the challenge of scaling candidate size. In practical applications where VISA is integrated with retriever, further research is needed to balance candidate size, accuracy, and computa-

tional efficiency.

Aligning with real user expectation on visual attribution As briefly discussed in Section 6.4, a potential challenge lies in whether the visual attribution provided by VISA aligns with users’ expectations in terms of granularity. Since VISA is designed to make answer verification more intuitive, conducting user studies in real-world deployment scenarios would provide deeper insights into its practical utility and potential refinements.

References

- Akari Asai, Zexuan Zhong, Danqi Chen, Pang Wei Koh, Luke Zettlemoyer, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Wen tau Yih. 2024. [Reliable, adaptable, and attributable language models with retrieval](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2403.03187.
- Bernd Bohnet, Vinh Q. Tran, Pat Verga, Roei Aharoni, Daniel Andor, Livio Baldini Soares, Massimiliano Ciaramita, Jacob Eisenstein, Kuzman Ganchev, Jonathan Herzig, Kai Hui, Tom Kwiatkowski, Ji Ma, Jianmo Ni, Lierni Sestorain Saralegui, Tal Schuster, William W. Cohen, Michael Collins, Dipanjan Das, Donald Metzler, Slav Petrov, and Kellie Webster. 2023. [Attributed question answering: Evaluation and modeling for attributed large language models](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2212.08037.
- Nicolas Carion, Francisco Massa, Gabriel Synnaeve, Nicolas Usunier, Alexander Kirillov, and Sergey Zagoruyko. 2020. End-to-end object detection with transformers. In *Computer Vision – ECCV 2020*, pages 213–229, Cham. Springer International Publishing.
- Danqi Chen, Adam Fisch, Jason Weston, and Antoine Bordes. 2017. [Reading Wikipedia to answer open-domain questions](#). In *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1870–1879.
- Kanzhi Cheng, Qiushi Sun, Yougang Chu, Fangzhi Xu, Li YanTao, Jianbing Zhang, and Zhiyong Wu. 2024. [SeeClick: Harnessing GUI grounding for advanced visual GUI agents](#). In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 9313–9332, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jaemin Cho, Debanjan Mahata, Ozan Irsoy, Yujie He, and Mohit Bansal. 2024. [M3DocRAG: Multi-modal retrieval is what you need for multi-page multi-document understanding](#).
- Jifeng Dai, Yi Li, Kaiming He, and Jian Sun. 2016. [R-fcn: Object detection via region-based fully convolutional networks](#). In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 29. Curran Associates, Inc.

774	Alexey Dosovitskiy, Lucas Beyer, Alexander Kolesnikov, Dirk Weissenborn, Xiaohua Zhai, Thomas Unterthiner, Mostafa Dehghani, Matthias Minderer, Georg Heigold, Sylvain Gelly, Jakob Uszkoreit, and Neil Houlsby. 2021. An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale . In <i>International Conference on Learning Representations</i> .	829
775		830
776		831
777		832
778		833
779		834
780		835
781		
782	Manuel Faysse, Hugues Sibille, Tony Wu, Bilel Omrani, Gautier Viaud, Céline Hudelot, and Pierre Colombo. 2024. Colpali: Efficient document retrieval with vision language models . Preprint, arXiv:2407.01449.	836
783		837
784		838
785		839
786	Jeremy J. Foster. 1979. <i>The Use of Visual Cues in Text</i> , pages 189–203. Springer US, Boston, MA.	840
787		841
788		842
789	Tianyu Gao, Howard Yen, Jiatong Yu, and Danqi Chen. 2023. Enabling large language models to generate text with citations . In <i>Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing</i> , pages 6465–6488, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.	843
790		844
791		
792		845
793		846
794	Yunfan Gao, Yun Xiong, Xinyu Gao, Kangxiang Jia, Jinliu Pan, Yuxi Bi, Yi Dai, Jiawei Sun, Meng Wang, and Haofen Wang. 2024. Retrieval-augmented generation for large language models: A survey . arXiv:2312.10997.	847
795		848
796		849
797		850
798		851
799		852
800	Muhammad Khalifa, David Wadden, Emma Strubell, Honglak Lee, Lu Wang, Iz Beltagy, and Hao Peng. 2024. Source-aware training enables knowledge attribution in language models . In <i>First Conference on Language Modeling</i> .	853
801		854
802		
803		855
804	Tom Kwiatkowski, Jennimaria Palomaki, Olivia Redfield, Michael Collins, Ankur Parikh, Chris Alberti, Danielle Epstein, Illia Polosukhin, Jacob Devlin, Kenton Lee, Kristina Toutanova, Llion Jones, Matthew Kelcey, Ming-Wei Chang, Andrew M. Dai, Jakob Uszkoreit, Quoc Le, and Slav Petrov. 2019. Natural Questions: A benchmark for question answering research . <i>Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics</i> , 7:452–466.	856
805		857
806		858
807		859
808		860
809		861
810		
811		862
812		863
813	Yann LeCun, Yoshua Bengio, and Geoffrey Hinton. 2015. Deep learning. <i>nature</i> , 521(7553):436–444.	864
814		865
815		866
816	Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, Sebastian Riedel, and Douwe Kiela. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks . In <i>Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems, NIPS ’20</i> , Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates Inc.	867
817		868
818		869
819		870
820		871
821		872
822		873
823		
824	Kevin Qinghong Lin, Linjie Li, Difei Gao, Zhengyuan Yang, Zechen Bai, Weixian Lei, Lijuan Wang, and Mike Zheng Shou. 2024. ShowUI: One vision-language-action model for generalist GUI . In <i>NeurIPS 2024 Workshop on Open-World Agents</i> .	874
825		875
826		876
827		877
828		878
		879
	Xueguang Ma, Sheng-Chieh Lin, Minghan Li, Wenhui Chen, and Jimmy Lin. 2024. Unifying multimodal retrieval via document screenshot embedding . In <i>Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing</i> , pages 6492–6505, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.	880
		881
		882
		883
		884
	Chaitanya Malaviya, Subin Lee, Sihao Chen, Elizabeth Sieber, Mark Yatskar, and Dan Roth. 2024. ExpertQA: Expert-curated questions and attributed answers . In <i>Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)</i> , pages 3025–3045, Mexico City, Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.	885
		886
		887
		888
		889
		890
		891
		892
		893
		894
		895
		896
		897
		898
		899
		900
		901
		902
		903
		904
		905
		906
		907
		908
		909
		910
		911
		912
		913
		914
		915
		916
		917
		918
		919
		920
		921
		922
		923
		924
		925
		926
		927
		928
		929
		930
		931
		932
		933
		934
		935
		936
		937
		938
		939
		940
		941
		942
		943
		944
		945
		946
		947
		948
		949
		950
		951
		952
		953
		954
		955
		956
		957
		958
		959
		960
		961
		962
		963
		964
		965
		966
		967
		968
		969
		970
		971
		972
		973
		974
		975
		976
		977
		978
		979
		980
		981
		982
		983
		984
		985
		986
		987
		988
		989
		990
		991
		992
		993
		994
		995
		996
		997
		998
		999
		1000

- Shaoqing Ren, Kaiming He, Ross Girshick, and Jian Sun. 2015. [Faster r-cnn: Towards real-time object detection with region proposal networks](#). In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 28. Curran Associates, Inc. 941
- Monica Riedler and Stefan Langer. 2024. [Beyond text: Optimizing rag with multimodal inputs for industrial applications](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2410.21943. 942
- Andreas Steiner, André Susano Pinto, Michael Tschanen, Daniel Keysers, Xiao Wang, Yonatan Bitton, Alexey Gritsenko, Matthias Minderer, Anthony Sherbondy, Shangbang Long, Siyang Qin, Reeve Ingle, Emanuele Bugliarello, Sahar Kazemzadeh, Thomas Mesnard, Ibrahim Alabdulmohsin, Lucas Beyer, and Xiaohua Zhai. 2024. [Paligemma 2: A family of versatile vlms for transfer](#). *arXiv:2412.03555*. 943
- John Sweller. 2011. [Chapter two - cognitive load theory](#). volume 55 of *Psychology of Learning and Motivation*, pages 37–76. Academic Press. 944
- Peng Wang, Shuai Bai, Sinan Tan, Shijie Wang, Zhihao Fan, Jinze Bai, Keqin Chen, Xuejing Liu, Jialin Wang, Wenbin Ge, Yang Fan, Kai Dang, Mengfei Du, Xuancheng Ren, Rui Men, Dayiheng Liu, Chang Zhou, Jingren Zhou, and Junyang Lin. 2024. [Qwen2-vl: Enhancing vision-language model’s perception of the world at any resolution](#). *arXiv:2409.12191*. 945
- Peng Xia, Kangyu Zhu, Haoran Li, Tianze Wang, Weijia Shi, Sheng Wang, Linjun Zhang, James Zou, and Huaxiu Yao. 2024. [Mmed-rag: Versatile multi-modal rag system for medical vision language models](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2410.13085.
- Xi Ye, Ruoxi Sun, Sercan Arik, and Tomas Pfister. 2024. [Effective large language model adaptation for improved grounding and citation generation](#). In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 6237–6251, Mexico City, Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Shi Yu, Chaoyue Tang, Bokai Xu, Junbo Cui, Junhao Ran, Yukun Yan, Zhenghao Liu, Shuo Wang, Xu Han, Zhiyuan Liu, and Maosong Sun. 2024. [Visrag: Vision-based retrieval-augmented generation on multi-modality documents](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2410.10594.
- Yang Zhao, Zhijie Lin, Daquan Zhou, Zilong Huang, Jiashi Feng, and Bingyi Kang. 2023. [Bubogpt: Enabling visual grounding in multi-modal llms](#). *arXiv:2307.08581*.
- Zhong-Qiu Zhao, Peng Zheng, Shou tao Xu, and Xindong Wu. 2019. [Object detection with deep learning: A review](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:1807.05511.
- Xu Zhong, Jianbin Tang, and Antonio Jimeno Yepes. 2019. [PubLayNet: Largest Dataset Ever for Document Layout Analysis](#). In *2019 International Conference on Document Analysis and Recognition (IC-*

Train Data	Wiki-VISA		Paper-VISA	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
Crop, Absolute	54.2	65.2	27.8	36.2
No Random Crop	58.8	65.6	1.7	36.9
Normalized Value	56.4	64.4	0.1	37.2
No Bounding Box	0	67.6	0	35.2

Table 5: Impact of bounding box target representation and cropping strategies during training on Wiki-VISA in the single oracle candidate setting.

A Appendix

A.1 Dataset Licenses

- NQ: Apache License 2.0
- Wikipedia: Creative Commons Attribution Share Alike, GNU Free Documentation License family.
- Fineweb-edu: Open Data Commons License Attribution family.
- PubLayNet: Community Data License Agreement – Permissive, Version 1.0.
- VISA Datasets: Our crafted datasets follow the same license as the source of the documents.

A.2 Model Backbone Licenses

- Qwen2-VL-72B-Instruct: Qwen LICENSE AGREEMENT.
- Qwen2-VL-2B-Instruct: Apache License.
- Qwen2-VL-7B-Instruct: Apache License.
- VISA Models: Our fine-tuned models follow the same licenses as the original model backbone.

A.3 Bounding Box Target

Table 5 shows the impact of different bounding box target representations and cropping strategies during training. Training with random cropping and absolute coordinate values achieves a balance between in-domain performance on Wiki-VISA (54.2%) and zero-shot generalization to Paper-VISA (27.8%) in bounding box accuracy. Removing random cropping slightly improves Wiki performance but drastically reduces zero-shot generalization, indicating that random cropping enhances the model’s robustness to varied input sizes. Normalizing coordinate values achieves moderate performance on Wiki-VISA but fails on Paper-VISA,

Model	Avg		[<1] Passage		[>1] Passage		non-Passage	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
<i>Zeroshot Prompt</i>								
Qwen2-72B-VL	1.5	60.4	3.4	58.5	0.1	54.9	0.9	67.9
gpt4o	0.0	52.8	0.0	50.9	0.0	43.3	0.0	64.3
<i>Fine-tune</i>								
QWen2-VL-2B	37.5	57.1	70.0	61.1	18.7	44.9	23.8	65.3
QWen2-VL-7B	54.2	65.2	75.6	66.5	50.1	56.0	36.8	73.1
Phi3-Vision	34.0	49.8	59.9	54.5	19.1	40.2	22.9	54.6

Table 6: Effectiveness of VISA prompted or finetuned with model other than Qwen2-VL in the single oracle candidate setting on Wiki-VISA.

suggesting that absolute bounding box values are better suited to our experiments.

The “No Bounding Box” row represents a vanilla visual retrieval-augmented generation setup without visual source attribution, where models generate answers without bounding box predictions. VISA enables visual source attribution capability while the effectiveness of answer generation is preserved at about the same level of effectiveness.

A.4 Training Hyper-parameters

The training objective for both single-candidate and multi-candidate setting are next-token prediction with cross-entropy loss. We fine-tuned the models for two epochs in the single-candidate setting, using LoRA with a learning rate of 1e-4, a batch size of 64, and 4×H100 GPUs. For the multi-candidate setting, we initialized the models with weights from the single-candidate setup and trained for one epoch with the same learning rate. We froze the image encoder to reduce GPU memory usage in the multi-candidate setting.

A.5 Model Backbone Choice

Beyond the QWen2-VL-Instruct series, we also explored prompt GPT4o for zero-shot visual source attribution or fine-tuning Phi3-Vision-Instruct on the single oracle candidate setting on the Wiki-VISA dataset. As shown in 6, the QWen2-VL-Instruct series performs better in the VISA task.

A.6 Detailed Results of Data Effectiveness

We provide the detailed results of Table 4 in Table 7.

A.7 Zero-Shot Prompting

In addition to the zero-shot prompt 72B Qwen2-VL-Instruct model, as in Table 2, we further explored zero-shot prompt 2B and 7B variants of Qwen2-VL-Instruct model as shown in Table 8. These results indicate similar trends as seen with

Train Data	Wiki-VISA								Paper-VISA					
	Average		[<1] Passage		[>1] Passage		Non-Passage		Average		Passage		Non-Passage	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
Wiki	54.2	65.2	75.6	66.5	50.1	56.0	36.8	73.1	27.8	36.2	20.5	32.6	35.1	39.7
Paper	0.2	42.6	0	46.3	0.4	33.5	0.1	48.1	68.2	43.8	58.1	41.6	78.2	45.9
FineWeb	37.6	50.2	48.9	45.1	57.3	52.3	6.6	53.1	22.0	43.3	26.5	41.7	17.4	44.9
Wiki+Fineweb	58.2	65.3	68.7	66.6	61.7	57.1	44.1	72.1	21.0	43.1	18.5	42.2	23.4	43.9
Paper+Fineweb	36.1	48.7	51.8	49.6	49.6	44.2	6.8	52.4	66.5	44.6	56.1	42.2	76.9	47.0
Wiki+Paper+Fineweb	58.1	64.8	69.9	65.0	58.7	56.7	45.8	72.7	67.6	44.3	55.9	41.5	79.3	47.1

Table 7: Effectiveness of VISA trained on different combinations training data for bounding box accuracy (bbx) and answer accuracy (ans) in the single oracle candidate setting.

Single Oracle Candidate	[<1] Passage		[>1] Passage		non-Passage	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
Qwen2-2B-VL (zeroshot prompt)	0.1	30.7	0.0	22.7	0.0	35.9
Qwen2-7B-VL (zeroshot prompt)	1.7	52.0	0.1	39.7	0.1	57.8

Table 8: Effectiveness of prompting Qwen2-VL-2B and 7B in zero-shot, in the single oracle candidate setting in Wiki-VISA.

larger models: zero-shot prompting methods are not ready to effectively conduct the VISA task.

A.8 Prompt for Single Oracle candidate VISA

The following prompt template was used to format the model’s inputs and outputs for training the *Single Oracle Candidate* VISA.

Model Input:
System:
Given a document image, your task is to answer the question and locate the source of the answer via a bounding box.

User:
{image} Image Size: {image.size}
Question: {question}

Model Output:
Assistant:
Answer: {answer}
Bounding Box: {bounding_box}

A.9 Prompt for Multi-candidate VISA

The following prompt template was used to format the model’s inputs and outputs for training the *Multi-candidate* VISA.

Model Input:
System:
Given document images, your task is to answer the question and locate the source of the answer via a bounding box.

User:
{image1} Image Size: {image1.size}
{image2} Image Size: {image2.size}
{image3} Image Size: {image3.size}
Question: {question}

Model Output:
Assistant:
Answer: {answer}
Evidence Document: {index}
Bounding Box: {bounding_box}

We also explored different prompting strategies that swap the order of Answer and Bounding Box in the above prompt template and the comparison is shown in Table 9.

Single Oracle Candidate	[<1] Passage		[>1] Passage		non-Passage	
	bbx	ans	bbx	ans	bbx	ans
VISA-7B-Single	75.6	66.5	50.1	56.0	36.8	73.1
VISA-7B-Single-Swap	72.8	65.0	44.0	53.9	34.8	69.3

Table 9: Comparison between using the above prompt template (VISA-7B-Single) and swapping the order of Answer and Bounding Box. (VISA-7B-Single-Swap)

A.10 Prompt for synthetic data generation

The following prompt was used for prompting QWen2-VL-72B to generate synthetic questions and answers for Paper-VISA and Fineweb-VISA datasets.

System:
Ask a question that can be specifically answered by the content in the red bounding box area and give a short answer. The question can be a wh- question, a yes/no question, or a how question, that can be answered in a few words.
Output format:

Question: <question>
Short Answer: <short answer>

Or simply return 'Empty' if the bounding box area is not visible or informative.

User: {image}

An example of synthetic data from Paper-VISA can be found in Figure 3.

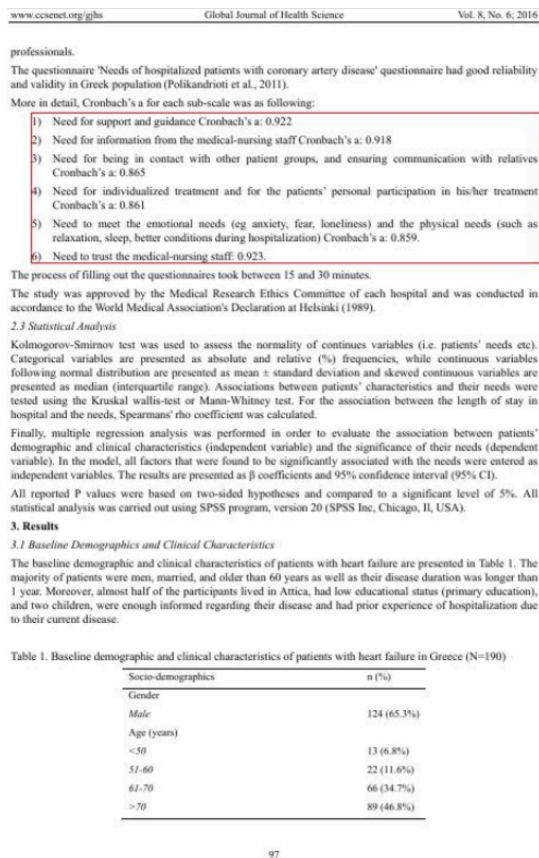
A.11 AI Assistant Usage

GPT4o is used during the writing to correct grammar errors and format tables.

A.12 Additional Qualitative Examples

In Figure 4 and Figure 5, we provide additional qualitative examples of the success and failure cases of our model VISA.

Input document screenshot with bounding box



Generated question and answer

Question: What is the Cronbach's alpha for the need for support and guidance sub-scale?

Short Answer: 0.922

Figure 3: An example of synthetic data from Paper-VISA.

Success Cases



Ground Truth



VISA Output

Q: Is a Japanese word meaning change for the better?

Q: When is Morocco playing in the world cup?

Q: When did the second basic principles committee presents its final report?

Wikipedia article: **Kaizen**

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Kaizen (改善) is the Japanese word for "improvement". In business, kaizen refers to activities that continuously improve all functions and involve all employees from the CEO to the assembly line workers. It also applies to processes, such as purchasing and logistics, that cross organizational boundaries into the supply chain.^[1] It has been applied in healthcare^[2] psychology^[3] fire-coaching, government, banking, and other industries.

By improving standardized processes and processes, kaizen aims to enhance waste (see lean manufacturing). Kaizen was first practiced by Japanese businesses after the Second World War, influenced in part by American business and quality-management theories, and most notably as part of The Toyota Way. It has since spread throughout the world^[4] and has been applied to environments outside business and productivity.

Overview

In Japanese word kaizen simply means "change for better", with no inherent meaning of either "continuous" or "philosophy" in business dictionaries or in everyday use. The word refers to any improvement, one-time or continuous, large or small, in the same sense as the English word "improvement".^[5] However, given the common practice in Japan of labeling industrial or business improvement techniques with the word "kaizen", particularly the practices spearheaded by Toyota, the word "kaizen" is typically applied to measures for improving continuous improvement, especially those with a "Japanese philosophy". The discussion below focuses on such interpretations of the word, as frequently used in the context of modern management discussions. This includes discussion how kaizen developed.^[6]

- Kaizen
- Kaizen

The former is oriented towards the flow of materials and information, and is often identified with the reorganization of an entire production area, even a company. The latter means the improvement of individual workstations. Therefore, improving the work production workers to their job is a part of a process kaizen. The use of the kaizen model for continuous improvement demands that both flow and process kaizen are used, although process kaizen are used more often to focus workers on continuous small improvements. In this model, operators modify task to small steps which, if possible, can be implemented on the same day. This is in contrast to traditional models of work improvement, which generally have a long time between concept development and project implementation.

Kaizen is a daily process, the purpose of which goes beyond simple productivity improvement. It is also a process that, when done correctly, harnesses the workplace, eliminates overly hard work (waste), and teaches people how to perform experiments on their work using the scientific method and how to learn to spot and eliminate waste in business processes. In all, the process suggests a humanist approach to workers and to increasing productivity. This idea is further the concept of "kaizen" as it is a process and encourages participation in kaizen activities.^[7] Successful implementation requires "the participation of workers in the improvement."^[8] People at all levels of an organization participate in kaizen, from the CEO down to janitorial staff, as well as external stakeholders when applicable. Kaizen is most commonly associated with manufacturing operations, as at Toyota, but has also been used in non-manufacturing environments.^[9] The format for kaizen can be individual, suggestion system, small group, or large group. At Toyota, it is usually a local improvement within a workstation or local area and involves a small group of improving their own work environment and productivity. This group is often guided through the kaizen process by a line supervisor, sometimes this is the line supervisor's key role. Kaizen on a broad, cross-departmental scale in companies, generates local quality management, and best human efforts through improving productivity using machines and computing power.^[10]

While kaizen by Toyota usually denotes small improvements, the culture of continual adopted small improvements and standardization yields large results in terms of overall improvement in productivity. This philosophy differs from the "continuous and control" improvement programs in the Western Process Improvement of the mid-twentieth century. Kaizen methodology includes making changes and monitoring results, then adjusting. Large-scale planning and extensive project scheduling are replaced by smaller improvements, which can be rapidly adopted as new improvements are suggested.^[11]

In modern usage, it is designed to address a particular issue over the course of a week and is referred to as a "kaizen blitz" or "kaizen event".^[12] These are limited in scope, and issues that arise from them are typically used to later dates.^[13] When a person makes a large contribution in the successful implementation of kaizen during kaizen events is awarded the title of "Kaizen".

History

Main article: Industrial change in occupied Japan

The small-step work improvement approach was developed in the USA under Training Within Industry program (TWI) Job Methods.^[14] Instead of encouraging large, radical changes to achieve desired goals, these methods recommended that organizations introduce improvements, preferably ones that could be implemented on the same day. The major reason was that during WWII there was neither time nor resources to large and innovative changes in the production of war equipment.^[15] The essence of the approach came down to improving the use of the existing experience and technologies.

As part of the Marshall Plan after World War II, American occupation forces brought in experts to help with the rebuilding of Japanese industry via the Civil Communications Section (CCS) developed a management training program that taught statistical control methods as part of the overall material. Horner, Sarason and Charles Professor developed and taught the course in 1945-1950. Sarason recommended W. Edwards Deming for further training in statistical methods.

The Economic and Scientific Section (ESS) group was also tasked with improving Japanese management skills and Edgar Moore was instrumental in bringing Lewis Miles to Japan to properly install the Training Within Industry (TWI) program in 1951. The ESS group had a training to introduce TWI's three "P" programs: Job Instruction, Job Methods and Job Relations. Titled "Improvement in Four Steps" (Kaizen was Ten Danka) this introduced kaizen to Japan.

For the government, introduction, and implementation of kaizen in Japan, the Emperor of Japan awarded the Order of the Sacred Treasure to Dr. Deming in 1960. Subsequently, the Japanese Union of Scientific and Engineers (JUSE) established the annual Deming Prize for achievement in quality and dependability of products. On October 18, 1989, JUSE awarded the Deming Prize to Toyota Power & Light Co. (TPCL), based in the US, for its exceptional accomplishments in process and quality control management, making it the first company outside Japan to win the Deming Prize.^[16]

Implementation

The Toyota Production System is known for kaizen, where all its personnel are expected to seek moving production line in case of any abnormality and, along with their supervisor, suggest an improvement to reduce the abnormality which may initiate a kaizen.

The cycle of kaizen activity can be defined as "Plan - Do - Check - Act". This is also known as the Shewart cycle, Deming cycle, or PDCA.

Another technique used in conjunction with PDCA is the 5 Why, which is a form of root cause analysis in which the user asks a series of "Why" questions about a failure that has occurred, basing each subsequent question on the answer to the previous.^[17] There are normally a series of causes stemming from one root cause.^[18] and the user can visualized using fishbone diagrams or fish tails. The Five Whys can be used as a foundational tool in personal improvement,^[19] or as a means to create wealth.^[20]

Masaaki Imai made him famous in his book *The Key to Japan's Competitive Success*.^[21]

In the Toyota Way Handbook, Liker and Moore discuss the kaizen blitz and kaizen blitz (or kaizen event) approaches to continuous improvement. A kaizen blitz, or rapid improvement, is a focused activity on a particular process or activity. The goal is to identify and quickly remove waste. Another approach is that of the kaizen blitz, a specific kaizen activity on a particular process in the value stream.^[22] Kaizen factories generally^[23] use go through training and certification before attempting a kaizen project.^[24]

In the 1960s, Professor Ikuo Kobayashi published his book *20 Keys to Workplace Improvement* and created a practical, step-by-step improvement framework called "The 20 Keys". He identified 20 operations focus areas which should be improved to obtain holistic and sustainable change. He went further and identified the 5 levels of implementation for each of these 20 focus areas. 4 of the focus areas are called Foundation Keys. According to the 20 Keys, these foundation keys should be launched ahead of the other focus areas in form a strong foundation in the company. The four foundation keys are Key 1 - Cleaning and Organizing to Make Work Easy, which is based on the 5S methodology; Key 2 - Good Alignment/Ordering the System Key 3 - Small Group Activities Key 4 - Leading and Site Technology.

See also

- 5S
- Business process reengineering
- Heijunka
- Kakuhiki
- Kanban, Kanban Method
- Leanring by doing
- Management list
- Motivator, a series of eight concerning waste
- Muda
- Overall equipment effectiveness
- Quality circle
- Six Sigma
- Statistical process control
- Theory of constraints
- Total productive maintenance
- TQC, the theory of innovative problem solving
- Visual control

References

Notes

- ↑ Imai, Masaaki (1986). *Kaizen: The Key to Japan's Competitive Success*. New York: Random House.
- ↑ Ward, Mike (July 25, 2005). "History: Difference Between the Kaizen". *The New York Times*.
- ↑ Mc Kenna (2002). "Kaizen in psychology: the concept of Kaizen". *Psychology Bulletin*. Royal College of Psychology: 144–158.
- ↑ Europe Japan Center. *Kaizen: Strategies for Improving Team Performance*. Ed. Michael Collins. London: Pearson Education Limited, 2007
- ↑ Debenedictis. "Kaizen - Japanese philosophy of continuous improvement".
- ↑ "Five Reasons to Implement Kaizen in Non-Manufacturing". *ie.jstage.jst.go.jp*. Retrieved March 23, 2015.
- ↑ Harold, Mark (2003). *Kaizen: The Secret of Continuous Improvement, Framework, and Detailed Tools for Effective Execution*. Society of Manufacturing Engineers. p. 20. ISBN 0-87201-923-5.
- ↑ Kaizen (2002). "Kaizen". *Encyclopedia Britannica*. Retrieved 24 April 2013.
- ↑ Kaizen (2002). *Kaizen: The Secret of Continuous Improvement, Framework, and Detailed Tools for Effective Execution*. Society of Manufacturing Engineers. p. 240. ISBN 0-87201-923-5.
- ↑ Grady, P. Wynn B. (2015). *The "Toyota Waybook: Essential Tools for Supervisors*. New York: Productivity Press. ISBN 9781493703653.

Wikipedia article: **Morocco at the FIFA World Cup**

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **FIFA World Cup**, sometimes called the **Football World Cup** or the **Soccer World Cup**, but usually referred to simply as the **World Cup**, is an international association football competition contested by the men's national teams of the members of Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), the sport's global governing body. The championship has been awarded every four years since the first tournament in 1930, except in 1942 and 1946, due to World War II.

The tournament consists of two parts, the **qualification phase** and the **final phase** (officially called the **World Cup Finals**). The qualification phase, which currently takes place over the three years preceding the Finals, is used to determine which teams qualify for the Finals. The current format of the Finals involves 32 teams competing for the title, all of whom within the final nation (or nations) are a period of about 16 days. The World Cup Finals is the most widely viewed sporting event in the world, with an estimated 725.1 million people watching the 2006 tournament final.

Morocco have qualified for the final stage of the FIFA World Cup on five occasions, which were in 1970, 1986, 1994, 1998 and 2018.^[1] Their best performance was in 1986, where they reached the round of 16.

World Cup record

Year	Round	Position	W	D	L	GF	GA
1930							
1934							
1938							
1950							
1954							
1958							
1962							
1966							
1970	Group stage	14th	3	0	1	2	6
1974							
1978							
1982							
1986	Round of 16	13th	4	1	2	3	2
1990							
1994	Group stage	23rd	3	0	3	2	5
1998	Group stage	19th	3	1	1	5	6
2002							
2006							
2010							
2014							
2018	Group Stage	27th	3	0	1	2	4
2022							
2026							
2030							
2034							
2038							
2042							
2046							
2050							
2054							
2058							
2062							
2066							
2070							
2074							
2078							
2082							
2086							
2090							
2094							
2098							
2102							
2106							
2110							
2114							
2118							
2122							
2126							
2130							
2134							
2138							
2142							
2146							
2150							
2154							
2158							
2162							
2166							
2170							
2174							
2178							
2182							
2186							
2190							
2194							
2198							
2202							
2206							
2210							
2214							
2218							
2222							
2226							
2230							
2234							
2238							
2242							
2246							
2250							
2254							
2258							
2262							
2266							
2270							
2274							
2278							
2282							
2286							
2290							
2294							
2298							
2302							
2306							
2310							
2314							
2318							
2322							
2326							
2330							
2334							
2338							
2342							
2346							
2350							
2354							
2358							
2362							
2366							
2370							
2374							
2378							
2382							
2386							
2390							
2394							
2398							
2402							
2406							
2410							
2414							
2418							
2422							
2426							
2430							
2434							
2438							
2442							
2446							
2450							
2454							
2458							
2462							
2466							
2470							
2474							
2478							
2482							
2486							
2490							
2494							
2498							
2502							
2506							
2510							
2514							
2518							
2522							
2526							
2530							
2534							
2538							
2542							
2546							
2550							
2554							
2558							
2562							
2566							
2570							
2574							
2578							
2582							
2586							
2590							
2594							
2598							
2602							
2606							
2610							
2614							
2618							
2622							
2626							
2630							
2634							
2638							
2642							
2646							
2650							
2654							
2658							
2662							
2666							
2670							
2674							
2678							
2682							
2686							
2690							
2694							
2698							
2702							
2706							
2710							
2714							
2718							
2722							
2726							
2730							
2734							
2738							
2742							
2746							
2750							
2754							
2758							
2762							
2766							
2770				</			

VISA Output

Q: how many episodes in season 2 of the durrells in corfu?

[illegible]

17