# Appendix for "Image Quality-aware Diagnosis via Meta-knowledge Co-embedding"

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### 1. Datasets Details

We used five datasets in our experiments, namely **DRAC** [1], **DeepDR** [2], **EYEQ** [3], **CT-IQAD** [4, 5], and **CXR-IQAD** [6, 7], for five different diagnosis tasks. As previously mentioned, Table 1 in the main section shows the label distribution for each dataset. Here, we provide more details on each dataset and our experimental settings.

DRAC. DRAC is a public competition in the Grand Challenge, which consists of 997 ultra-wide Optical Coherence Tomography Angiography (OCTA) images for diabetic retinopathy (DR) diagnosis. Ultra-wide OCTA images can provide more information than normal OCTA images and can demonstrate retina features in great detail. However, these images usually suffer from image quality problems, such as low-signal and segment artifacts, due to patients' movement and environmental conditions. Medical experts can evaluate DR grade by visually inspecting lesions in the foveal avascular zone and vascular structure. In this dataset, DR is graded into three levels, representing no diabetic retinopathy (NoDR), non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR), and proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR), respectively. The quality of each image is evaluated separately, and the quality annotation is a binary label with high-quality (HQ) or low-quality (LQ), where LQ images have obvious artifacts. The original setting of this dataset divides it into training and testing sets with 611 and 386 images, respectively, and we follow this setting in our experiments.

**DeepDR.** DeepDR provides fundus images from more than 1000 patients for DR grading with different quality levels. Fundus imaging is a standard screening tool for DR diagnosis. Unlike other datasets, DeepDR provides dualview fundus images from the same eyes with different areas in the center. The images in the dataset are evaluated and graded into five levels based on DR lesions. To align with the DRAC dataset, we reorganized the annotations of DeepDR to include three levels: no DR, NPDR, and PDR. Similar to OCTA, fundus images also contain artifacts, and HQ or LQ labels are provided to indicate image quality levels. This dataset comprises a total of 2000 images, and we followed their original data splits, i.e., 1200 training images, 400 validation images, and 400 testing images.

**EyeQ.** EYEQ is a dataset that has been re-annotated from the EyePACS dataset. The EyePACS dataset originally assessed retinal image quality with a binary annotation basis, but EYEQ selected 28,792 retinal fundus images and re-annotated them into three levels for good, usable, or poor quality. Images in this dataset are graded into five levels of diabetic retinopathy (DR) according to severity. Similar to the DeepDR dataset, we combined the second, third, and fourth levels into the non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR) class, while the first and fifth level images are regarded as no DR and proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR), respectively. Among the images, we used 17,274 images for training, 2,881 images for validation, and 8,637 images for testing.

**CT-IQAD.** Our CT-IQAD dataset is composed of 746 computed tomography (CT) images from COVID-X [5] and 2600 from SARS [4]. These datasets were originally collected to evaluate whether patients are infected with COVID-19, and the images are annotated as normal for non-infection and COVID-19 for infected cases. However, due to the nature of COVID-X images being collected in the wild, such as those downloaded from papers, their quality cannot be guaranteed, while SARS collects data from hospital patients with relatively higher quality. Thus, we labeled the images in COVID-X as LQ and those in SARS as HQ. The CT-IQAD dataset is divided into 1641 training images, 235 validation images, and 470 test images.

**CXR-IQAD.** It consists of chest X-ray (CXR) images from two different sources: [6] for child images and [7] for adult images. All images are labeled as either Normal or Pneumonia. To simulate low-dose CXR images [8], we downsampled 2928 images from [6] and all images from [7] using a bicubic kernel, which are considered LQ. The dataset is divided into three subsets: child images (HQ), low-dose child images (LQ-C), and low-dose adult images (LQ-A). We split the dataset into 5780 training images, 825 validation images, and 1651 test images.

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# 2. Implementation Details

We conducted our experiments using the Pytorch framework and ran them on a GeForce RTX<sup>™</sup> 3090 GPU. All images were resized to 256×256 and normalized to zero mean and unit variance in intensity values, individually for each dataset, before being divided into batches. The batch size was chosen adaptively to account for differences between image modalities. We used VGG16 as the backbone, along with focal loss and entropy loss for both the Task Net and Meta Learner. We also utilized SGD as the optimizer, with Task Net's learning rate  $\alpha$  and weight decay strategy kept constant at 0.01 and 0.0005, respectively, for all datasets. Moreover, the Meta Learner's learning rate  $\beta$  was chosen based on the specific dataset being used. To balance the effectiveness of Task Net and Meta Learner, we applied different weights to the entropy loss for each dataset. We tuned the length of  $y_{\omega}$  individually for each dataset to improve performance. A summary of the training parameters used for each dataset is provided below.

**DRAC.** The number of training epochs is set as 200, and we report the last epoch result because the official data split does not have a validation set. The learning rates for task net and meta learner are both 0.01. The batch size is 8, and the weight of entropy loss is 0.5, and the length of  $y_{\omega}$  is 7.

**DeepDR.** We set the number of training epochs is set as 200 and validate the model per 20 epochs to select the best model and evaluate it on the test set. The learning rates for task net and meta learner are 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. The batch size is 4, and the weight of entropy loss is 0.3, and the length of  $y_{\omega}$  is 10.

**EyeQ.** We train the model for 100 epochs and validate the model per 10 epochs to select the best model. The learning rates for task net and meta learner are 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. The batch size is 4, and the weight of entropy loss is 0.2, and the length of  $y_{\omega}$  is 5.

**CT-IQAD.** Similar to DeepDR, the number of training epochs is 200, and the validation is made per 20 epochs. The learning rates for task net and meta learner are both 0.01. The batch size is 4, and the weight of entropy loss is 0.2, and the length of  $y_{\omega}$  is 5.

**CXR-IQAD.** The number of training epochs is also 200 and validation interval is 20 epochs. The learning rates for task net and meta learner are 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. The batch size is 8, and the weight of entropy loss is 0.3, and the length of  $y_{\omega}$  is 7.

We took into consideration the unique characteristics of each dataset when selecting training parameters. For instance, we maintained the Meta Learner learning rate at 0.001 across all datasets except for DRAC and CT-IQAD, where the number and proportion of LQ images are lower than other datasets, and thus set the Meta Learner learning rate to 0.01. We also adjusted the batch size based on the nature of the images in each dataset. OCTA images contain clear lesion information compared to fundus images, which led us to set the batch size to 8 for DRAC and 4 for DeepDR and EYEQ. Additionally, since LQ images in CXR-IQAD are simulated and those degradations appear similar, compared to CT-IQAD, we set their batch sizes to 8 and 4, respectively. To adapt to different datasets, we applied different weights to the entropy loss. For small datasets like DRAC, we set a higher entropy loss weight of 0.5 to provide more encouragement to Meta Learner to generate appropriate  $y_{\omega}$ . For larger datasets like EYEQ and CXR-IQAD, we set the weight to 0.2. Finally, for other datasets, we set the weight to 0.3.

#### 3. Comparison Details

**Ophthalmic disease assessment.** MMCNN [9] employs a multi-cell architecture that performs regression and classification jointly. BIRA-Net [10] uses a two-stream CNN architecture with an attention module and bi-linear strategy. GREEN [11] utilizes a graph convolutional network with a class dependency prior for disease diagnosis tasks. CAB-Net [12] learns discriminative features for each disease category using a categorical attention block.

**Multi-task & auxiliary learning.** QGNet [13] uses image quality assessment as an auxiliary branch of the model supervised by center loss and weighted softmax loss. CANet [14] explicitly explores the internal relationship between diseases via attention-based modules. Multitask-Net [15] takes advantage of specific task layers to conduct multi-lesion diagnosis. MTMR-Net [16] proposes a margin ranking loss and explicitly leverages the relationship between regression and classification for disease diagnosis. MAXL [17] employs meta-auxiliary learning for selfsupervision in primary tasks. DETACH [18] proposes a dual-stream disentangled learning architecture on the task level to explore potential relationships among diseases.

Other adaptable methods. Mixup [19] is a classic augmentation method that mixes images to improve robustness. Mixstyle [20] conducts the mixing of feature statistics of training samples across domains to improve model robustness. Augmix [21] is a simple data processing technique that generates augmented images automatically to improve model performance on unseen domains. DDAIG [22] uses adversarial training to generate perturbed images to improve generalization ability.

# 4. Class Activation Map Visualization

In this paper, we use class activation mappings (CAMs) to perform a qualitative analysis of how MKCNet works. As shown in Figure 1, we present additional samples of OCTA images from DRAC and fundus images from DeepDR and EyeQ. In the DRAC dataset, both Vanilla and MKCNet exhibit desired attention on the high-quality image. However,

Vanilla is susceptible to misleading signs caused by image degradations, whereas MKCNet is more robust in handling such degradations. In contrast with OCTA images, Vanilla may disregard vascular structures or lesions that are relevant for diagnosing optic disc conditions in fundus images. Additionally, as shown in the last row, Vanilla may be easily distracted by large black areas around fundus images, whereas MKCNet focuses on anatomical structures or lesions instead of artifacts. Overall, MKCNet performs well in evaluating both OCTA and fundus images.



Figure 1. Qualitative analysis via CAM visualization on DRAC, EyeQ, and DeepDR.

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