This WACV paper is the Open Access version, provided by the Computer Vision Foundation. Except for this watermark, it is identical to the accepted version; the final published version of the proceedings is available on IEEE Xplore.

SynergyNet: Bridging the Gap between Discrete and Continuous Representations for Precise Medical Image Segmentation

Vandan Gorade¹ Sparsh Mittal² Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, India

¹vangorade@gmail.com ²sparsh.mittal@ece.iitr.ac.in

Abstract

In recent years, continuous latent space (CLS) and discrete latent space (DLS) deep learning models have been proposed for medical image analysis for improved performance. However, these models encounter distinct challenges. CLS models capture intricate details but often lack interpretability in terms of structural representation and robustness due to their emphasis on low-level features. Conversely, DLS models offer interpretability, robustness, and the ability to capture coarse-grained information thanks to their structured latent space. However, DLS models have limited efficacy in capturing fine-grained details. To address the limitations of both DLS and CLS models, we propose SynergyNet, a novel bottleneck architecture designed to enhance existing encoder-decoder segmentation frameworks. SynergyNet seamlessly integrates discrete and continuous representations to harness complementary information and successfully preserves both fine and coarsegrained details in the learned representations. Our extensive experiment on multi-organ segmentation and cardiac datasets demonstrates that SynergyNet outperforms other state of the art methods including TransUNet: dice scores improving by 2.16%, and Hausdorff scores improving by 11.13%, respectively. When evaluating skin lesion and brain tumor segmentation datasets, we observe a remarkable improvement of 1.71% in Intersection-over-Union scores for skin lesion segmentation and of 8.58% for brain tumor segmentation. Our innovative approach paves the way for enhancing the overall performance and capabilities of deep learning models in the critical domain of medical image analysis.

Debesh Jha³ Ulas Bagci⁴ Northwestern University Chicago, IL ³debesh.jha@northwestern.edu

⁴ulas.bagci@northwestern.edu

1. Introduction

Medical image segmentation, a key step in gaining vital anatomical insights, assists clinicians in injury identification, disease monitoring, and treatment planning. As reliance on medical image analysis grows, the demand for precise, robust segmentation techniques rises. In this regard, deep learning has greatly improved our ability to do this. Existing deep learning models can be divided into continuous latent space (CLS) and discrete latent space (DLS) models. The CLS models represent latent variables as continuous values, enabling fine-grained representation.

CLS Models such as FCNs [17], UNet [23], and TransUNet [5] and others [4,14,19] have shown an ability to capture spatial relationships and fine-grained details for medical image segmentation. However, these models offer limited latent interpretable representations of structural information and robustness [25] in terms of generalization. DLS methods employ discrete codes instead of continuous values for latent variables. They use techniques such as vector quantization to discretize the latent space into a finite set of elements representing anatomical structures. This enables efficient and generalized data representation. Approaches such as VQVAE [27] and VQGAN [10] have shown promise in image generation, representation learning, and data compression.

Recent studies [12, 13, 15, 20, 25] highlight the effectiveness of DLS models in achieving interpretable and robust medical segmentation, particularly for organs like lungs, retinas, optic discs, and prostates. However, DLS models struggle to capture fine-grained details and complex spatial relationships, especially in multi-organ and cardiac segmentation tasks. Accurate modeling of spatial interdependencies between organs is crucial for precisely segmenting intricate boundaries and overlapping structures. Recent studies [5, 11, 16, 18, 21, 22, 28, 29] have highlighted the advantages of learning complementary information across various domains, including medical imaging. Motivated by this trend,

Sparsh is the corresponding author. The computing system used for this research was supported by IIT Roorkee under the grant FIG-100874. The project is supported by the NIH funding: R01-CA246704, R01-CA240639, U01 DK127384-02S1, and U01-CA268808.

our study aims to address the pivotal question: "How can we effectively integrate complementary information from discrete and continuous latent space models for improved medical image segmentation?".

We present SynergyNet, a novel bottleneck architecture designed specifically for encoder-decoder segmentation models, aiming to enhance medical image segmentation results by integrating continuous and discrete latent spaces. SynergyNet includes the Quantizer, DisConX, and Refinement modules. The encoder extracts a detailed continuous representation, while the quantizer module maps it to a compact discrete representation using vector quantization. By reducing dimensionality, the quantizer module enables efficient, structured representation while preserving essential information. The DisConX module serves as a bridge, employing cross-attention to effectively combine the discrete and continuous representations. Leveraging their complementary information, the DisConX module enhances pattern capture and interpretation. The refinement module further enhances the fused features, using hard attention to emphasize essential elements and filter out noise. The refinement module improves discriminative power and segmentation quality by focusing on relevant features. Our contributions are as follows:

- We propose SynergyNet, a novel method that integrates discrete and continuous representations to enhance medical image segmentation performance. This integration has not been explored in prior studies for medical image segmentation tasks.
- Our study demonstrates the effectiveness of combining CLS and DLS models in improving model generalization across diverse datasets. By leveraging CLS models for fine-grained detail capture and DLS models' structured latent space for encoding coarse-grained details, we observe notable enhancements in learning and generalization. This integration effectively utilizes the strengths of each approach, resulting in improved performance across various datasets.
- SynergyNet is extensively evaluated on four diverse datasets, including Synapse multi-organ segmentation, ACDC dataset for cardiac segmentation, ISIC 2018 dataset for skin lesion segmentation, and brain tumor segmentation dataset. Results show that SynergyNet outperforms both CLS [5, 9, 19, 23] and DLS-based methods [27] across all evaluated datasets. Qualitative analysis confirms the efficacy of SynergyNet in capturing intricate anatomical structures and achieving more precise segmentation compared to existing methods

2. Proposed Method

We first discuss the preliminaries (Section 2.1) and then present our newly proposed algorithm (SynergyNet) and its architecture (Section 2.2).

2.1. Preliminaries

2.1.1 Problem Statement

Medical image segmentation aims to automatically label anatomical structures or pathological regions within medical images. Mathematically, this involves finding a mapping function f that assigns labels y to pixels x in the input image domain \mathcal{X} . The goal is to maximize the conditional probability of the ground truth segmentation labels \hat{y} given the input image x, i.e., $\hat{y} = \arg \max_y P(y|x)$. Learning the parameters of the mapping function f involves assigning the correct labels to each pixel using training data. The learning process employs a loss function that usually consists of Binary Cross Entropy (BCE) and Dice similarity coefficient. This loss function can be defined as follows:

$$L_{seg} = BCE(y, \hat{y}) + (1 - Dice(y, \hat{y})), \qquad (1)$$

where $BCE(y, \hat{y})$ calculates the binary cross entropy loss between the predicted labels y and the ground truth segmentation \hat{y} , and $Dice(y, \hat{y})$ computes the dice similarity coefficient between y and \hat{y} .

2.1.2 Vector Quantization

Following VQVAE [27], Vector quantization (VQ) transforms continuous latent space vectors $z_{con} \in \mathbb{R}^{dim}$ into discrete codes e_k from a predefined codebook $E \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times dim}$, where K is the codebook size. The objective of VQ is to find the code e_k from the codebook that minimizes the euclidean distance to the input vector z_{con} . This code e_k serves as the discrete representation z_{dis} of z_{con} . During training, the codebook E and the mapping functions between the continuous and discrete representations are learned by minimizing the quantization loss $\mathcal{L}_{quant} =$ $||z_{con} - e_k||_2^2$. The quantization process efficiently encodes and decodes data while preserving important information in discrete representations. We use the total loss function $\mathcal{L}_{total} = \mathcal{L}_{seg} + \mathcal{L}_{quant}$ for end-to-end model training.

2.1.3 Multi-head Cross-attention Mechanism

The multi-head cross-attention mechanism extends the cross-attention by incorporating multiple attention heads. Each attention head attends to different subspaces of queries and keys, capturing diverse relationships and dependencies. Given a set of queries Q and keys K, multiple sets of attention weights are computed, one for each attention head. The relevance scores between a query q_i and a key k_j are obtained using a similarity function denoted as $score(q_i, k_j) = sim(q_i, k_j)$. The softmax function is applied to transform the relevance scores into attention weights for each attention head:

$$\mathcal{A}_{soft}^{(h)}(q_i, k_j) = \frac{\exp(score^{(h)}(q_i, k_j))}{\sum_{j'} \exp(score^{(h)}(q_i, k_{j'}))}$$
(2)



Figure 1. Figures (a) and (b) compare the bottleneck architecture of our proposed SynergyNet with the existing work [5]. Figure (c) illustrates the workflow of our architecture, where the input image is encoded to generate a continuous representation z_{con} . This continuous representation is quantized to obtain discrete codes e_k and forms a discrete representation z_q . The DisConX module (Section 2.2.1) is applied to both the continuous and discrete representations, resulting in a synergized representation z_{dc}^{attn} . The continuous representation z_{con} , discrete representation z_q , and attended representation z_{dc}^{attn} are then fused and processed through the refinement module (Section 2.2.2). The output of the refinement module is passed to the decoder to obtain the final result.

The multi-head cross-attention mechanism then computes a weighted sum of the values associated with the keys using the attention weights of each attention head h:

$$z_h^{attn} = \sum_j \mathcal{A}_{soft}^{(h)}(q_i, k_j) \cdot v_j.$$
(3)

Here, z_h^{attn} represents the aggregated result for the given query q_i , considering the importance assigned by the attention weights of the *h*-th attention head. The outputs from all the attention heads are concatenated and linearly transformed to produce the final output:

$$z^{attn} = Concat(z_1^{attn}, z_2^{attn}, \dots, z_h^{attn}) \cdot W^O.$$
(4)

The multi-head cross-attention mechanism enables the model to capture various interactions and dependencies between queries and keys, enhancing its representation and information retrieval capabilities.

2.2. Proposed Architecture

Our proposed architecture, illustrated in Fig. 1(c), consists of three key components: the encoder, bottleneck, and decoder. The bottleneck incorporates the *Quantizer*, *DisConX*, and *Refinement* modules. Starting with an input image X, the encoder function f generates the continuous representation z_{con} . The Quantizer module (Section 2.1.2) maps z_{con} to a more compact discrete representation z_{dis} , capturing essential information efficiently. The DisConX module (Section 2.2.1) combines the discrete and continuous representations through cross-attention, leveraging both benefits to enhance data interpretation. The Refinement module (Section 2.2.2) further improves the representation by emphasizing relevant features. This step enhances the model's discriminative power for the given task.

2.2.1 DisConX Module

The DisConX module integrates the discrete representation z_{dis} and continuous representation z_{con} using crossattention, as discussed in Section 2.1.3. It calculates relevance scores between discrete queries q_i and continuous keys k_j , and computes attention weights using a softmax function. The module then performs a weighted sum of the continuous values v_j associated with the keys based on the attention weights. The computation happens as:

$$z_{dc}^{attn} = \sum_{j} \mathcal{A}_{soft}^{(h_s)}(z_{dis}, z_{con}) \cdot z_{con}.$$
 (5)

Here, h_s represents the index of the attention heads, z_{dis}

denotes the discrete query, and z_{con} represents the continuous key/value. The resulting z_{dc}^{attn} is the aggregated representation, considering the attention weights from all attention heads. This integration of discrete and continuous representations enables the exchange of complementary information, enhancing the model's ability to capture complex patterns and improving performance in tasks such as semantic segmentation. Next, the information of z_{dis} , z_{con} , and z_{attn}^{dc} is fused as $z_f = Fusion(z_{dis}, z_{con}, z_{dc}^{attn})$.

The fusion operation integrates complementary information from discrete and continuous representations, enhancing the overall representation for subsequent refinement modules. We empirically choose addition for fusion.

2.2.2 Refinement Module

The proposed refinement module incorporates a hardnessaware self-attention mechanism, which captures the relevance and similarity between elements in the fused representation. This mechanism enhances the overall representation quality by emphasizing important elements and filtering out the noise. The element with the highest relevance score is identified as the most important. The attention weight for each element is determined by comparing its similarity to other elements. The equation below represents this calculation:

$$\mathcal{A}_{hard}^{(h_h)}(z_{f_i}) = \mathbb{I}(sim^{(h_h)}(z_{f_i}, z_{fj}) = \max_j sim^{(h_h)}(z_{f_i}, z_{f_j})).$$
(6)

Here, the indicator function \mathbb{I} checks if the similarity between element z_{f_i} and any other element z_{f_j} is the maximum among all similarities. h_h is the index of attention head. Next, the self-attention mechanism calculates a weighted sum of the values associated with the selected elements using the attention weights for each attention head:

$$z_{ref} = \sum_{j} \mathcal{A}_{hard}^{(h_h)}(z_{f_i}) \cdot (z_{f_j}).$$
(7)

The refined information z_{ref} represents the output of the self-attention mechanism for the h_h -th attention head. This process is repeated for all attention heads. The resulting refined information from all the attention heads is then concatenated and linearly transformed to produce the final refined representation. It highlights the most important elements within the fused representation, considering multiple attention heads. This refined representation enhances the discriminative power and overall quality of the fused features. Finally, the fused representation z_{f} is added to z_{ref} and then passed through the decoder.

3. Experimental Platform

Datasets: We utilized four open-source medical segmentation datasets for our experiments. The Synapse Multi-Organ Segmentation dataset [1] consists of 30 clinical CT cases with annotated segmentation masks for eight abdominal organs. We followed the configuration described in [5], using 18 cases for training and 12 cases for testing. The ACDC dataset [2] is a cardiac MRI dataset with 100 exams, including labels for the left ventricle (LV), right ventricle (RV), and myocardium (MYO). We divided the dataset into 70 training samples, 10 validation samples, and 20 testing samples as per [5]. For skin lesion segmentation, we adopted the ISIC 2018 dataset [8] and followed the division into train, validation, and test sets as per previous work [3, 24]. The Brain Tumour Segmentation (BTS) dataset [7] comprises 233 volumetric T1-weighted contrast-enhanced images from 233 patients (with a total of 3064 2D slices), including three types of brain tumors (meningioma, glioma, and pituitary tumor) with corresponding binary masks. We maintained an approximate 80:20 ratio for the training and test sets.

Metrics: We utilize the Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC) and the 95% Hausdorff Distance (HD) metrics for the synapse and ACDC datasets to follow the segmentation challange standards and benchmarking. For the ISIC-18 and BTS datasets, we employ a more comprehensive range of metrics per segmentation challenge benchmarking, including the Intersection over Union (IOU), DSC, Specificity (SP), Sensitivity (SE), and Accuracy (ACC). For HD, lower is better. For other metrics, higher is better.

Implementation Details: We use PyTorch framework and train the models on three RTX 2080 GPUs, each with 11GB of memory. The input image size was set to 224×224 . During training, we used a batch size of 8 and a learning rate of 0.01. We utilized the SGD optimizer with a momentum of 0.9 and weight decay of 0.0001. We employed data augmentations, such as flipping and rotating.

Architecture Configuration: SynergyNet employs a ResNet50 encoder pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset, although we have no restriction on the choice of architecture for encoder. The quantizer module utilizes a codebook size of K = 1024. The quantizer, DisConX and Refinement module maintain a hidden dimension of dim = 512. We evaluate multiple SynergyNet variants, for example, SynergyNet-8s2h implies that $h_s = 8$ and $h_h = 2$, i.e., it has 8 DisConX heads and 2 refinement heads. The pre-and post-quantization blocks consist of two convolution blocks. The decoder has the same depth as the encoder.

Techniques for Comparison: We compare SynergyNet against four CLS methods, i.e., UNet [23], Att-UNet [19], DeeplabV3+ [6] R50ViT [5, 9], TransUNet [5] and two DLS methods, i.e.,VQUNet [25–27] and TransVQUNet. TransVQUNet architecture is a combination of VQUNet and TransUNet. It consists of an encoder followed by a

Method	Mean	scores	Organ-wise dice similarity coefficient (DSC)							
	DSC	HD	Aorta	Gallbladder	KidneyL	KidneyR	Liver	Pancreas	Spleen	Stomach
R50 UNet	74.68	36.87	87.74	63.66	80.60	78.19	93.74	56.90	85.87	74.16
DeepLabV3+	77.63	39.95	88.04	66.51	82.76	74.21	91.23	58.27	87.43	73.53
R50 Att-UNet	75.57	36.97	55.92	63.91	79.20	72.71	93.56	49.37	87.19	74.95
R50 ViT	71.29	32.87	73.73	55.13	75.80	72.20	91.51	45.99	81.99	73.95
TransUNet	77.48	31.69	87.23	63.13	81.87	77.02	94.08	55.86	85.08	75.62
VQUNet	63.44	68.79	78.99	50.74	67.32	61.91	89.94	33.96	73.83	50.87
TransVQUNet-2s2h	65.44	40.79	80.95	48.29	71.42	61.89	90.90	36.88	77.59	55.61
TransVQUNet-8s2h	68.41	35.05	83.57	54.53	73.73	66.21	92.39	39.45	80.26	57.10
SynergyNet-2s2h	78.81	26.19	85.31	61.14	81.89	79.75	94.42	56.66	89.81	81.51
SynergyNet-8s2h	79.65	23.29	86.10	65.49	82.78	79.23	95.06	58.28	88.95	81.30
SynergyNet-8s8h	77.33	20.56	85.79	61.11	81.69	77.07	94.44	64.80	86.40	75.28

Table 1. Quantitative results for multi-organ segmentation: Green - best, Blue - second-best (R50=ResNet50).

quantizer module and a transformer bottleneck, similar to the bottleneck of TransUNet. We kept the hyperparameters and architectural design consistent across all the methods for consistency.

4. Experimental Results

4.1. Synapse multi-Organ segmentation

Table 1 compares SynergyNet with both CLS and DLS methods. SynergyNet outperforms both CLS and DLS methods by a significant margin. Ouantitatively, SynergyNet-8s2h achieves a 2.17pp improvement in DSC and a 12.20pp deterioration in HD compared to TransUNet, while showing an 11.24pp improvement in DSC and an 11.16pp deterioration in HD compared to TransVQUNet-8h (pp= percentage point). SynergyNet-8s8h variant shows the best results in terms of HD metric. SynergyNet demonstrates superior accuracy in delineating the organs and capturing the boundary between them. It outperforms other methods in learning both coarse-grained anatomical structures (e.g., stomach and liver) and fine-grained anatomical structures (e.g., gallbladder and spleen). TransUNet, a well-engineered CLS method, exhibits comparable performance in learning fine-grained structures. On the other hand, DLS methods can capture coarse anatomical structures but struggle to capture fine-grained boundaries. SynergyNet benefits from the complementary information extracted by continuous and discrete latent spaces. Fig. 3 further highlights the effectiveness of SynergyNet in accurately segmenting fine/coarse and complex structures. SynergyNet yields more robust and precise segmentation results even in the presence of intricate variations.

Interpretability Analysis: Here, we analyze the bottleneck architecture to evaluate learned representations. Fig. 2 visualizes the GradCAMs, revealing that CLS methods excel in capturing fine organ boundaries, while DLS methods excel

in locating organs but struggle with fine boundary details. In contrast, SynergyNet effectively captures both fine and coarse boundaries, emphasizing the importance of leveraging complementary information. These findings further support the significance of synergistic effects.



Figure 2. Grad-CAM visualization.

4.2. Cardiac Segmentation

From Table 2, we note that the proposed SynergyNet outperforms both continuous and discrete baselines. Synergy-Net can effectively capture complex heterogeneous structures. Compared to TransUNet and TransVQUNet-8s2h, SynergyNet-8s2h demonstrates 0.07pp and 11.61pp higher DSC and 0.06pp and 3.23pp lower HD. The qualitative results are shown in Fig. 3 further validate effectiveness of our approach in delivering more accurate segmentation results.

4.3. Skin Lesion Segmentation

Table 3 demonstrates the quantitative results on the ISIC 2018 dataset. Compared to CLS methods, DLS-based approaches can effectively capture shapes like lesions, which typically exhibit less variability in terms of shape and size compared to organs and cardiac structures. However, the proposed SynergyNet method consistently outperforms both CLS and DLS-based methods, showcasing its ability to generalize well across different scenarios. Fig. 4 further



Figure 3. Delineations on Synapse (first and second row) and ACDC (third and fourth row) datasets are shown with color-coded (First row, yellow: liver, blue: right kidney, green: left kidney, light blue: pancreas. Second row, blue, purple, and yellow represent the RV, LV, and MYO, respectively.). The overlapping white bounding box represents errors made by models.

Table 2. Quantitaive results for cardiac segmentation

Method	Mean Scores		Class-wise DSC			
	DSC	HD	RV	Муо	LV	
R50 UNet	87.94	2.01	84.62	84.52	93.68	
DeepLabV3+	88.35	4.45	85.65	85.55	93.85	
R50 AttnUNet	86.90	2.10	83.27	84.33	93.53	
R50 ViT	86.19	1.98	82.51	83.01	93.05	
TransUNet	89.71	1.92	86.67	87.27	95.18	
VQUNet	78.15	3.19	70.14	74.13	90.13	
TransVQUNet-2s2h	74.40	4.27	64.69	72.75	85.77	
TransVQUNet-8s2h	78.17	4.63	69.48	75.95	89.05	
SynergyNet-2s2h	88.96	2.41	86.80	85.51	94.60	
SynergyNet-8s2h	89.78	1.86	87.68	86.60	95.06	
SynergyNet-8s8h	89.37	2.14	87.63	86.49	94.98	

highlights SynergyNet's ability to capture both coarse and fine-grained structured skin lesions. CLS-based methods tend to over-segment non-contour structures, while DLSbased methods such as VQUNet tend to under-segment lesions. In contrast, SynergyNet successfully and accurately segments lesions with smoother boundaries, demonstrating the importance of learning synergistic representations.

Table 3. Quantitaive results for Skin lesion segmentation

	IOU	DSC	ACC	SP	SE
R50 UNet	77.86	87.55	94.05	96.69	85.86
DeepLabV3+	78.52	87.59	94.29	95.97	86.46
R50 AttnUNet	78.43	87.91	94.13	96.23	87.60
R50 ViT	78.13	87.45	93.53	96.13	87.10
TransUNet	78.97	88.25	94.32	96.48	87.60
VQUNet	79.13	88.35	94.46	97.09	86.29
TransVQUNet-2s2h	79.83	88.78	94.58	96.62	88.21
TransVQUNet-8s2h	79.68	88.69	94.54	96.64	88.01
SynergyNet-2s2h	79.80	88.77	94.56	96.59	88.26
SynergyNet-8s2h	80.68	89.31	94.91	97.3 7	87.28
SynergyNet-8s8h	80.05	88.92	94.66	96.81	87.98

4.4. Brain Tumour Segmentation

SynergyNet achieves the best score on all metrics on the the BTS dataset (Table 4) and outperforms the second-best method by a large margin. From Fig. 4, we note that DLS



Figure 4. Segmentation maps on BTD (first two rows) and ISIC-2018 (last two rows) datasets. Actual and predicted pathological regions are shown in **Red** and **Green**, respectively.

Table 4. Quantitaive results for Brain tumour segmentation

IOU	DSC	ACC	SP	SE
63.90	78.00	99.33	99.77	77.22
65.23	78.90	99.60	99.7 7	77.22
63.15	77.65	99.21	99.57	76.88
62.13	76.35	99.18	99.44	76.62
62.36	76.82	99.24	99.62	76.90
58.00	73.40	99.11	99.66	72.66
60.92	75.72	99.10	99.53	72.24
61.22	75.94	99.25	99.73	72.44
70.64	82.81	99.52	99.66	80.25
70.94	83.00	99.55	99.86	80.45
69.88	82.27	99.43	99.76	79.85
	IOU 63.90 65.23 63.15 62.13 62.36 58.00 60.92 61.22 70.64 70.94 69.88	IOU DSC 63.90 78.00 65.23 78.90 63.15 77.65 62.13 76.35 62.36 76.82 58.00 73.40 60.92 75.72 61.22 75.94 70.64 82.81 70.94 83.00 69.88 82.27	IOU DSC ACC 63.90 78.00 99.33 65.23 78.90 99.60 63.15 77.65 99.21 62.13 76.35 99.18 62.36 76.82 99.24 58.00 73.40 99.11 60.92 75.72 99.10 61.22 75.94 99.25 70.64 82.81 99.52 69.88 82.27 99.43	IOUDSCACCSP63.9078.0099.3399.7765.2378.9099.6099.7763.1577.6599.2199.5762.1376.3599.1899.4462.3676.8299.2499.6258.0073.4099.1199.6660.9275.7299.1099.5361.2275.9499.2599.7370.6482.8199.5299.6670.9483.0099.5599.8669.8882.2799.4399.76

methods tend to lose boundary information, but they segment regions of interest more accurately than CLS methods for this particular case. On the other hand, SynergyNet consistently identifies regions of interest with smoother boundaries, surpassing both CLS and DLS methods. SynergyNet accurately predicts lesions, even in case of varying locations, sizes, and modality views. It effectively suppresses irrelevant information, such as the background.

5. Ablation Studies

Unless otherwise mentioned, we use K = 1024, dim = 512, $h_h = 8$, $h_s = 2$ and backbone as ResNet-50.

Table 5. Codebook size (K) analysis

K	dim	Syn	apse	ACDC	
	aim	DSC	HD	DSC	HD
1024	512	79.65	23.29	89.78	1.86
512	512	79.61	23.89	88.89	2.42
256	512	79.21	29.47	89.29	1.62
128	512	78.48	30.97	89.01	1.79
64	512	77.29	88.67	88.79	1.98

5.1. Codebook analysis

From Table 5, we observe a direct relationship between K and the performance of SynergyNet on the Synapse dataset, where increasing K leads to a notable improvement in HD scores. On the ACDC dataset, the trend is different, such that K = 256 gives the best HD score, and K = 128 and K = 1024 give comparable results. A smaller codebook size in the quantization module leads to higher compression and more aggressive quantization, but it can result in the loss of local information. This loss of fine-grained details and subtle variations can negatively impact the segmentation model's ability to capture intricate boundaries, leading to lower HD scores. To achieve the best segmentation performance, the codebook size needs to be chosen so as to balance compression and preservation of local information.

5.2. Hidden Dimension (dim) Analysis

From Table 6, we observe that using a codebook size of K = 1024 with dim (hidden dimension size) greater than 512 or dim less than 512 leads to a deterioration in performance. Empirically, we found that setting K to be twice the value of dim (K = 2 * dim) yields the best performance. Thus, multiple parameters, including the dataset characteristics, influence the overall performance.

K	dim	Syn	apse	ACDC	
	aini	DSC	HD	DSC	HD
1024	2048	78.48	30.28	88.58	2.33
1024	1024	77.61	29.53	88.64	2.12
1024	512	79.65	23.29	89.78	1.86
1024	256	79.29	30.07	89.18	2.29
1024	128	78.98	35.81	88.87	2.60

Table 6. Hidden Dimension (dim) Analysis

5.3. Bottleneck Size Analysis

Table 7 presents the impact of the size of the DisconX module and the Refinement Module of SynergyNet on the overall segmentation performance. The combinations $h_s =$ $8, h_h = 0$ and $h_s = 2, h_h = 0$ denote the configurations without the refinement module. We observe a significant deterioration in the overall performance when the refinement module is not utilized. For the Synapse dataset, the best value of DSC is obtained for $h_s = 8, h_h = 2$ and the best value of HD is obtained for $h_s = 8, h_h = 8$. For the ACDC dataset, the combination $h_s = 8, h_h = 2$ results in the best values of DSC and HD. Overall, the optimal module size is dataset and task-dependent. It is crucial to consider these factors when determining the optimal sizes for the DisConX and refinement modules.

Table 7. Bottleneck Size Analysis

h. h	h_{L}	Syn	apse	ACDC		
		DSC	HD	DSC	HD	
8	0	78.62	26.82	87.95	2.33	
8	2	79.65	23.29	89.78	1.86	
2	8	78.45	25.19	88.96	2.41	
8	8	77.33	20.56	89.68	2.14	
2	2	78.81	26.19	88.96	2.41	
2	0	78.12	27.71	87.36	3.11	

5.4. Contribution of DisConX Module

The DisConX module plays a crucial role in the SynergyNet's ability to learn fine-grained local features. To understand its contribution, we create a variant Synergy-Net(Fusion), which replaces the DisConX module with a simple feature fusion approach. It combines discrete and continuous representations and passes them through a refinement module. As shown in Table 8, this variant attains lower performance, which clearly demonstrates that the DisConX module is essential for learning fine-grained local features. Overall, results indicate that selectively attending to complementary information preserves higherquality discriminative and semantic information.

Table 8. Contribution of DisConX module

Backbone	Syn	apse	ACDC		
	DSC	HD	DSC	HD	
SynergyNet(Fusion)	78.79	26.91	88.20	2.57	
SynergyNet	79.65	23.29	89.03	2.17	

5.5. Backbone Analysis

We evaluate SynergyNet with ResNet and EfficientNet backbones. For the Synapse dataset, ResNet-50 achieved a DSC score of 79.65%, and EfficientNet-B7 achieved the lowest HD score of 21.53%. In the ACDC dataset, ResNet-101 performed the best on both metrics. EfficientNet-B0 exhibited remarkable boundary delineation capabilities despite its shallower architecture. Please Refer to the supplementary materials for parameters analysis.

Table 9. Backbone Analysis

Backbone	Syn	apse	ACDC		
Duchkönic	DSC	HD	DSC	HD	
ResNet-18	77.28	27.88	88.82	2.08	
ResNet-34	78.35	25.58	89.42	1.93	
ResNet-50	79.65	23.29	89.78	1.86	
ResNet-101	78.66	28.50	91.49	0.91	
EfficientNet-B0	78.05	27.77	91.13	1.29	
EfficientNet-B7	78.70	21.53	90.81	2.90	

Limitations: i) The quantizer's reliance on selecting the most similar codebook item for input representation may lead to difficulties in capturing intricate patterns, potentially causing information loss. ii) Both CLS and DLS struggle to effectively model inter-class relationships, resulting in increased false negatives. SynergyNet reduces false negatives compared to CLS and DLS but still can be further improved.

6. Conclusion

We propose SynergyNet, a novel bottleneck architecture for learning complementary information from CLS and DLS. Extensive experiments and ablation studies confirm that SynergyNet captures both fine and coarse-grained details in the learned representations and outperforms previous works. SynergyNet is a promising framework for medical image analysis that offers high performance.

References

- [1] Multi-atlas abdomen labeling challenge. synapse multiorgan segmentation dataset. Available at: https://www. synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn3193805/wiki/ 217789, 2015. 4
- [2] Acdc (automated cardiac diagnosis challenge). Available at: https://www.creatis.insa-lyon.fr/ Challenge/acdc, 2017. 4
- [3] Reza Azad, Maryam Asadi-Aghbolaghi, Mahmood Fathy, and Sergio Escalera. Bi-directional convlstm u-net with densley connected convolutions. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision* workshops, pages 0–0, 2019. 4
- [4] Hu Cao, Yueyue Wang, Joy Chen, Dongsheng Jiang, Xiaopeng Zhang, Qi Tian, and Manning Wang. Swin-unet: Unet-like pure transformer for medical image segmentation. In *Proceedings of the European Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 205–218, 2022. 1
- [5] Jieneng Chen, Yongyi Lu, Qihang Yu, Xiangde Luo, Ehsan Adeli, Yan Wang, Le Lu, Alan L Yuille, and Yuyin Zhou. Transunet: Transformers make strong encoders for medical image segmentation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.04306*, 2021. 1, 2, 3, 4
- [6] Liang-Chieh Chen, Yukun Zhu, George Papandreou, Florian Schroff, and Hartwig Adam. Encoder-decoder with atrous separable convolution for semantic image segmentation. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision* (ECCV), pages 801–818, 2018. 4
- [7] Jun Cheng. Brain tumor dataset. https://doi.org/ 10.6084/m9.figshare.1512427.v5, 2017. 4
- [8] Noel CF Codella, David Gutman, M Emre Celebi, Brian Helba, Michael A Marchetti, Stephen W Dusza, Aadi Kalloo, Konstantinos Liopyris, Nabin Mishra, Harald Kittler, et al. Skin lesion analysis toward melanoma detection: A challenge at the 2017 international symposium on biomedical imaging (isbi), hosted by the international skin imaging collaboration (isic). In *Proceedings of the 15th international symposium on biomedical imaging (ISBI 2018)*, pages 168– 172, 2018. 4
- [9] Alexey Dosovitskiy, Lucas Beyer, Alexander Kolesnikov, Dirk Weissenborn, Xiaohua Zhai, Thomas Unterthiner, Mostafa Dehghani, Matthias Minderer, Georg Heigold, Sylvain Gelly, et al. An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale. arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11929, 2020. 2, 4
- [10] Patrick Esser, Robin Rombach, and Bjorn Ommer. Taming transformers for high-resolution image synthesis. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 12873–12883, 2021. 1
- [11] Azade Farshad, Yousef Yeganeh, Peter Gehlbach, and Nassir Navab. Y-net: A spatiospectral dual-encoder network for medical image segmentation. In *Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Medical Image Computing and Computer Assisted Intervention (MICCAI)*, pages 582–592, 2022. 1
- [12] Hugo Gangloff, Minh-Tan Pham, Luc Courtrai, and Sébastien Lefèvre. Leveraging vector-quantized variational

autoencoder inner metrics for anomaly detection. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Pattern Recog*nition (ICPR), pages 435–441, 2022. 1

- [13] Mark S Graham, Petru-Daniel Tudosiu, Paul Wright, Walter Hugo Lopez Pinaya, U Jean-Marie, Yee H Mah, James T Teo, Rolf Jager, David Werring, Parashkev Nachev, et al. Transformer-based out-of-distribution detection for clinically safe segmentation. In *International Conference on Medical Imaging with Deep Learning*, pages 457–476, 2022.
- [14] Moein Heidari, Amirhossein Kazerouni, Milad Soltany, Reza Azad, Ehsan Khodapanah Aghdam, Julien Cohen-Adad, and Dorit Merhof. Hiformer: Hierarchical multi-scale representations using transformers for medical image segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, pages 6202–6212, 2023. 1
- [15] Ge Jin, Xu Chen, and Long Ying. Deep multi-task learning for an autoencoder-regularized semantic segmentation of fundus retina images. *Mathematics*, 10(24):4798, 2022. 1
- [16] Junnan Li, Ramprasaath Selvaraju, Akhilesh Gotmare, Shafiq Joty, Caiming Xiong, and Steven Chu Hong Hoi. Align before fuse: Vision and language representation learning with momentum distillation. Advances in neural information processing systems, 34:9694–9705, 2021. 1
- [17] Jonathan Long, Evan Shelhamer, and Trevor Darrell. Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3431–3440, 2015. 1
- [18] Arsha Nagrani, Shan Yang, Anurag Arnab, Aren Jansen, Cordelia Schmid, and Chen Sun. Attention bottlenecks for multimodal fusion. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34:14200–14213, 2021. 1
- [19] Ozan Oktay, Jo Schlemper, Loic Le Folgoc, Matthew Lee, Mattias Heinrich, Kazunari Misawa, Kensaku Mori, Steven McDonagh, Nils Y Hammerla, Bernhard Kainz, et al. Attention u-net: Learning where to look for the pancreas. arXiv preprint arXiv:1804.03999, 2018. 1, 2, 4
- [20] Walter HL Pinaya, Petru-Daniel Tudosiu, Robert Gray, Geraint Rees, Parashkev Nachev, Sebastien Ourselin, and M Jorge Cardoso. Unsupervised brain imaging 3d anomaly detection and segmentation with transformers. *Medical Image Analysis*, 79:102475, 2022. 1
- [21] Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, et al. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In *Proceedings of the International conference on machine learning*, pages 8748–8763, 2021. 1
- [22] Maithra Raghu, Thomas Unterthiner, Simon Kornblith, Chiyuan Zhang, and Alexey Dosovitskiy. Do vision transformers see like convolutional neural networks? *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34:12116–12128, 2021. 1
- [23] Olaf Ronneberger, Philipp Fischer, and Thomas Brox. U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation. In Proceedings of the 18th International Conference on Med-

ical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention (*MICCAI*), pages 234–241, 2015. 1, 2, 4

- [24] Jiacheng Ruan, Suncheng Xiang, Mingye Xie, Ting Liu, and Yuzhuo Fu. Malunet: A multi-attention and lightweight unet for skin lesion segmentation. In *Proceedings* of the IEEE International Conference on Bioinformatics and Biomedicine (BIBM), pages 1150–1156, 2022. 4
- [25] Ainkaran Santhirasekaram, Avinash Kori, Mathias Winkler, Andrea Rockall, and Ben Glocker. Vector quantisation for robust segmentation. In *Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Medical Image Computing and Computer Assisted Intervention (MICCAI 2022)*, pages 663–672, 2022. 1, 4
- [26] Stanislaw Szymanowicz, James Charles, and Roberto Cipolla. Discrete neural representations for explainable anomaly detection. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV)*, pages 148–156, 2022. 4
- [27] Aaron Van Den Oord, Oriol Vinyals, et al. Neural discrete representation learning. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017. 1, 2, 4
- [28] Haoqing Wang, Xun Guo, Zhi-Hong Deng, and Yan Lu. Rethinking minimal sufficient representation in contrastive learning. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 16041– 16050, 2022. 1
- [29] Feiniu Yuan, Zhengxiao Zhang, and Zhijun Fang. An effective cnn and transformer complementary network for medical image segmentation. *Pattern Recognition*, 136:109228, 2023. 1