

Training-Free Dataset Pruning for Polyp Segmentation via Community Detection in Similarity Networks

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Abstract

Recent advances in deep learning have been driven by the availability of larger datasets and more complex models; however, this progress comes at the expense of substantial computational and annotation costs. To address these issues, we introduce a novel, training-free dataset pruning method, *PRIME*, targeting polyp segmentation in medical imaging. To this end, *PRIME* constructs a similarity network among the images in the target dataset and then applies community detection to retain a much smaller, yet representative subset of images from the original dataset. Unlike existing methods that require model training for dataset pruning, our *PRIME* completely avoids model training, thus significantly reducing computational demands. The reduction in the training dataset cuts 56.2% data annotation costs and enables $2.3\times$ faster training of polyp segmentation models, with only a 0.5% drop in the DICE score. Consequently, our *PRIME* enables efficient training, fine-tuning, and domain adaptation across medical centers, thus offering a cost-effective solution for deep learning in polyp segmentation.

Keywords: Training-free, Dataset pruning, Polyp segmentation, Community detection

1. Introduction

Polyp segmentation plays a pivotal role in the early detection and prevention of colorectal cancer, one of the leading causes of cancer-related mortality worldwide. Indeed, accurate segmentation enables clinicians to precisely localize and characterize polyps in colonoscopy images, thus guiding therapeutic decisions and follow-up strategies. Recent advances in deep learning (Ronneberger et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2021; Rahman and Marculescu, 2023a; Wang et al., 2022a; Rahman et al., 2024), have brought remarkable improvements in segmentation performance, but these gains come at the cost of increasingly larger datasets with pixel-level annotations. Such annotations demand substantial time and expertise from medical professionals, thus making data curation both expensive and labor-intensive. Moreover, the heterogeneous appearance of polyps—varying size, shape, texture, and contrast—exacerbates the challenge of gathering representative training images to ensure robust model generalization.

While efforts in image segmentation research have primarily focused on improving model performance, less attention has been paid to reducing the annotation burden through efficient data selection. Some earlier efforts address the selection of informative data samples under various learning paradigms, particularly in active learning (Settles, 1995). In these methods, scoring functions, such as Shannon’s entropy (Shannon, 1948), variation ratio (Linton, 1965), and Monte Carlo (MC) dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016), are used to identify unlabelled images that maximize the informativeness of the annotated dataset under

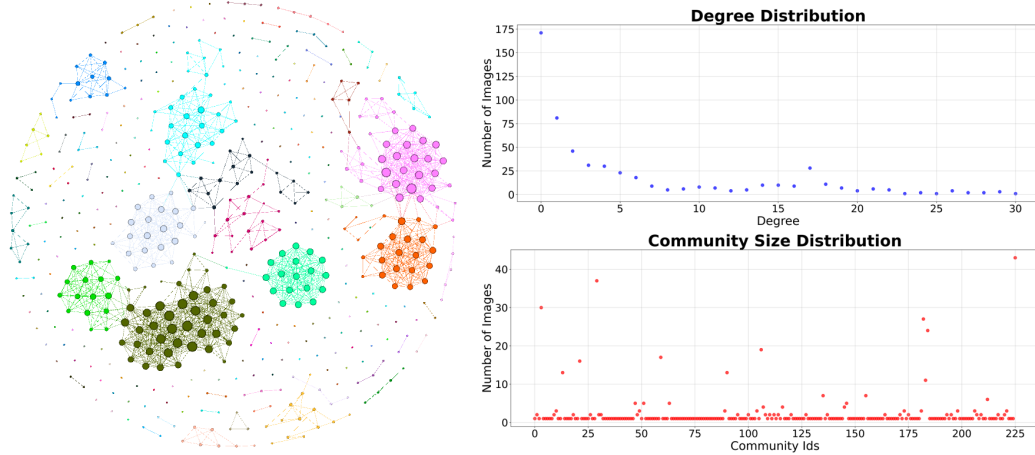


Figure 1: Communities identified with Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) threshold of 0.92 in the CVC-ClinicDB dataset (Bernal et al., 2015). Gephi’s algorithm (Blondel et al., 2008) identifies 226 communities with a modularity of 0.843. The degree distribution shows the number of nodes with varying connectivity (0 to 30, left-skewed), while the community distribution highlights the number of nodes per community (0 to <50). By considering top [10%] nodes from each community, we select only 245 (44.5%) representative nodes and prune the rest of the nodes (55.5%). More results are shown in Appendix B.

a constrained annotation budget. While these approaches have shown promise in classification tasks (Gal et al., 2017), less efforts have targeted semantic segmentation (Gorriz et al., 2017). One notable contribution addressing data selection for segmentation is KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023), which introduces a scoring function for constructing a set of support samples for few-shot microscopy image cells segmentation. Although this method outperforms traditional scoring functions like Shannon’s entropy and MC-dropout, it relies on model training to compute scores, which leads to high computational costs. Additionally, data selection remains underexplored in medical image segmentation tasks like polyp segmentation. As polyp segmentation continues to grow in importance for clinical practice, efficient strategies for curating high-quality datasets are increasingly necessary.

To address these limitations, to the best of our knowledge, we are the first to propose a *training-free dataset pruning* method, namely Pruning by Representation, Image-based Modeling, and Evaluation (*PRIME*) for polyp segmentation. Rather than relying on model-based metrics, *PRIME* constructs a similarity network to quantify the similarity among the images in a target dataset. *PRIME* then exploits community detection (Blondel et al., 2008) (see Fig. 1) to retain a diverse and representative subset of the original dataset, thus effectively removing redundant data. Critically, our *PRIME* requires no model training, hence reducing the computational costs associated with data reduction. *PRIME* ultimately reduces the annotation effort, enables faster segmentation model training, and reduces domain adaptation costs across medical centers. Our main contributions are as follows:

- **Training-Free Dataset Pruning:** We introduce a new, training-free dataset pruning method, *PRIME*, that first constructs a similarity network among images in the target dataset; then detects communities to select a much smaller, yet diverse and representative subset of the original data, thus eliminating redundant images.
- **Robust Generalizability Across Datasets:** By retaining a diverse and representative subset while pruning redundant images, our *PRIME* consistently achieves

high DICE scores across multiple datasets and similarity metrics. This robustness underscores the broad applicability of *PRIME* to polyp segmentation.

- **Reduction in Annotation and Computational Costs:** Our pruning method achieves up to 56.2% data reduction, thus significantly lowering the annotation effort while maintaining high segmentation performance with only a 0.5% drop in the DICE score. The training-free design of our pruning algorithm decreases the overall computational costs and enables $2.3\times$ faster training of segmentation models.

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses related work on polyp segmentation and dataset pruning methods. Section 3 describes our method. Section 4 presents the experimental evaluations. Section 5 summarizes our main contributions.

2. Related Work

2.1. Polyp Segmentation

Polyp segmentation has been extensively studied in medical imaging due to its paramount importance in diagnosing and preventing colorectal cancer. Deep learning, particularly U-shaped convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and vision transformers such as U-Net (Ronneberger et al., 2015), Attention UNet (Oktay et al., 2018), UNet++ (Zhou et al., 2018), UNet 3+ (Huang et al., 2020), DeepLabv3+ (Chen et al., 2018), PraNet (Fan et al., 2020), PolypPVT (Dong et al., 2021), CASCADE (Rahman and Marculescu, 2023a), SSFormer (Wang et al., 2022a), G-CASCADE (Rahman and Marculescu, 2024), and EMCAD (Rahman et al., 2024), have demonstrated remarkable performance for polyp segmentation. However, these models typically require large-scale, pixel-level annotated datasets, thus leading to substantial annotation costs. Additionally, the variability of polyp size, shape, and appearance further exacerbates the need for diverse training data, which can be prohibitively expensive in terms of both labeling and computational resources.

2.2. Dataset Pruning and Data Selection

Dataset pruning and data selection aim to retain the most representative samples from a dataset while removing redundancies, an objective that is crucial for polyp segmentation due to the high cost of pixel-level annotations. Existing methods primarily target classification tasks, relying on training-based metrics or scalar scores like compactness (Castro et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2022), diversity (Aljundi et al., 2019), or forgetfulness (Toneva et al., 2018) to identify the most informative samples. Another line of work focuses on synthesizing smaller yet informative datasets via distillation (Such et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018) or condensation (Zhao et al., 2021), however, they also involve complex training processes.

In the realm of semantic segmentation, especially medical image segmentation, dataset pruning remains comparatively underexplored. Most existing pruning or data selection methods have been developed and validated on classification benchmarks, with only a few adaptations to segmentation tasks. For instance, KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023) introduces a consistency-based method for selecting training samples to reduce annotation costs in few-shot microscopy image cell segmentation. Nevertheless, this method still depends on model training and has not been extended to polyp segmentation. The unique characteristics of polyp segmentation including heterogeneous polyp appearance and the

necessity for meticulous pixel-level labeling further emphasize the need for specialized and efficient data selection/pruning methods.

2.3. Existing Knowledge Gaps and the Need for a Training-Free Approach

Despite significant advancements, a key knowledge gap persists: Existing solutions either require model training at some stage or focus on other domains without specifically addressing polyp segmentation. Given the high cost of annotations and the logistical constraints in collecting and sharing medical data across institutions, computationally lightweight methods become crucial. Training-heavy pipelines exacerbate these challenges, particularly when dealing with large-scale, high-resolution datasets under strict privacy regulations.

We plan to address these limitations by introducing a *training-free dataset pruning* method designed explicitly for polyp segmentation. Rather than relying on gradient-based or generative scoring, we construct a similarity network among images and then apply community detection to isolate a diverse yet compact subset of the dataset. Our method does not only substantially reduce the computational cost, but also alleviates the annotation burden, thus paving the way for faster and more cost-effective polyp segmentation workflows.

3. Method

In this section, we formally define the problem of dataset pruning and describe the two key components of our *PRIME*: similarity network construction and sample selection.

3.1. Dataset Pruning: Problem Definition

Let $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ represent the original training dataset, where each x_i is an image, and n is the total number of images in the dataset. Our goal is to select a subset $\mathcal{D}' \subset \mathcal{D}$, such that $|\mathcal{D}'| = m$ and $m \ll n$, while preserving the model generalizability. Specifically, we want to minimize the difference in performance between a model trained on the original dataset \mathcal{D} and the pruned dataset \mathcal{D}' , i.e.:

$$\min_{\mathcal{D}'} \mathbb{E}_{x \in \mathcal{D}} [\mathcal{L}(f_{\mathcal{D}}(x), f_{\mathcal{D}'}(x))] \quad (1)$$

where $f_{\mathcal{D}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{D}'}$ represent models trained on the original dataset and the pruned dataset, respectively, and \mathcal{L} denotes the loss function (e.g., cross-entropy or DICE). Our goal is to select \mathcal{D}' such that it is significantly smaller than \mathcal{D} , but retains its diversity and representativeness, thus minimizing the performance degradation compared to the dataset \mathcal{D} .

3.2. Similarity Network Construction

For efficient pruning, we first construct a similarity network $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ from the training images, where each node $v_i \in \mathcal{V}$ represents an image $x_i \in \mathcal{D}$, and the edges \mathcal{E} capture the similarity between image pairs. The similarity between any image pair (x_i, x_j) is quantified using a metric such as Structural Similarity Index (SSIM)¹ or Pearson Correlation Coefficient (PCC). More precisely, the $SSIM \in [0, 1]$ of two images is calculated as Eq. 2:

$$SSIM(x_i, x_j) = \frac{(2\mu_i\mu_j + C_1)(2\sigma_{ij} + C_2)}{(\mu_i^2 + \mu_j^2 + C_1)(\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_j^2 + C_2)} \quad (2)$$

1. SSIM similarity achieves slightly better pruning results than PCC as shown in Figs. 4 and 5.

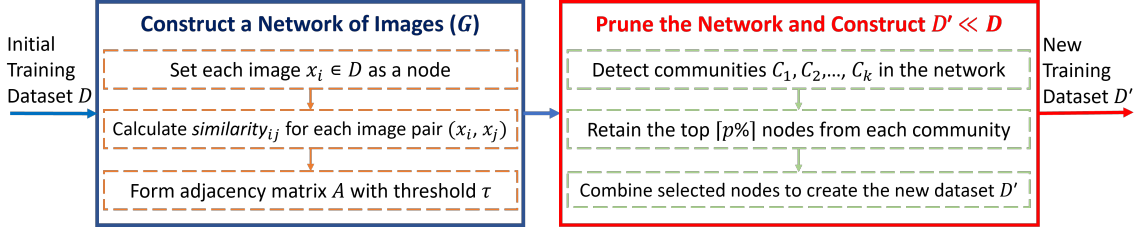


Figure 2: Proposed workflow diagram (left - network construction of images, right - pruning network to select a subset of images).

where μ_i and μ_j are mean intensities (average pixel values) of images x_i and x_j , σ_i^2 and σ_j^2 are their variances, and σ_{ij} is their covariance. Small positive constants C_1 and C_2 prevent instability in the division when variances or covariances are near zero.

The $PCC \in [-1, 1]$ between a pair of images is computed as Eq. 3:

$$PCC(x_i, x_j) = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x}_i)(x_j - \bar{x}_j)}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x}_i)^2} \sqrt{\sum (x_j - \bar{x}_j)^2}} \quad (3)$$

where \bar{x}_i and \bar{x}_j are mean intensities (average pixel values) of images x_i and x_j .

For each image pair (x_i, x_j) , an edge $e_{ij} \in \mathcal{E}$ is created between nodes v_i and v_j if their SSIM or PCC similarity exceeds a threshold τ (set based on the range of similarities in the target dataset). This results in an undirected graph \mathcal{G} , where pairs of images with sufficient SSIM or PCC similarities get connected. The adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} of \mathcal{G} is defined as Eq. 4:

$$\mathbf{A}_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } similarity(x_i, x_j) \geq \tau, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Fig. 2 (left box) illustrates this process. For example, in Fig. 1, the similarity network of the CVC-ClinicDB dataset is shown for an SSIM threshold of $\tau = 0.92$; this network has 550 nodes and 1510 edges. More details on this network are provided in the Appendix B.

3.3. Sample Selection via Community Detection

Our pruning method exploits community detection (Blondel et al., 2008) within the similarity network \mathcal{G} . Communities in the network correspond to clusters of highly similar images (Fig. 1) which can help us to select a much smaller, yet representative subset from each community. The steps of our pruning method (Fig. 2, right box) are described next.

3.3.1. COMMUNITY DETECTION

We use a community detection algorithm, namely the Louvain method (Blondel et al., 2008), to identify communities in the similarity network. Our goal is to maximize the modularity Q of the network, defined as in Eq. 5:

$$Q = \frac{1}{2|\mathcal{E}|} \sum_{i,j} \left[A_{ij} - \frac{k_i k_j}{2|\mathcal{E}|} \right] \delta(c_i, c_j) \quad (5)$$

where $|\mathcal{E}|$ is the cardinality of edges \mathcal{E} , A_{ij} denotes adjacency as in Eq. 4 (1 if nodes i and j are connected, 0 otherwise), k_i and k_j are the node degrees of nodes i and j , and c_i and c_j indicate the communities of nodes i and j . The indicator $\delta(c_i, c_j) = 1$ if $c_i = c_j$ (same community), and 0 otherwise. This process identifies the network communities² $\mathcal{C}_1, \mathcal{C}_2, \dots, \mathcal{C}_k$, where each community \mathcal{C}_k consists of a set of highly similar images.

2. We note that, in networks with a weaker structure, these groupings may be less distinct; this issue can be mitigated by using a smaller similarity threshold τ .

3.3.2. SAMPLE SELECTION

For each detected community \mathcal{C}_k , we retain only a representative subset of nodes (i.e., images) based on the size of the community: *i)* If $|\mathcal{C}_k| = 1$, we retain the single node, as it represents a unique image in the dataset; *ii)* If $|\mathcal{C}_k| > 1$, we retain the top $\lceil p\% \rceil$ of nodes based on their (higher) node degree within the community; the remaining nodes in the community are pruned. Finally, the retained subset \mathcal{D}' can be represented as in Eq. 6:

$$\mathcal{D}' = \bigcup_{k=1}^K \mathcal{C}_k^{\lceil p\% \rceil} \quad (6)$$

where $\mathcal{C}_k^{\lceil p\% \rceil}$ represents the top $\lceil p\% \rceil$ nodes selected from community \mathcal{C}_k , and K is the total number of detected communities.

Intuitively, the similarity threshold τ controls the network density, with lower values forming fewer, but denser communities and thus enabling higher pruning. A smaller $\lceil p\% \rceil$ retains fewer nodes per community which ensures each community is represented by its most representative images, thus reducing redundancy while preserving diversity.

4. Experiments

4.1. Segmentation Network Architectures

We utilize the PVT-v2-b2 (PVT) (Wang et al., 2022b) and ResNet50 (R50) (He et al., 2016) encoders (which are hierarchical backbones) and extract features from four stages. Then, we use the CASCADE decoder³ (Rahman and Marculescu, 2023b) (which is a local attention-based cascaded decoder) to decode and get the segmentation outputs of different stages. Finally, we use the output from the last stage to get the final segmentation map. We adopt the multi-stage loss aggregation for training as in (Rahman and Marculescu, 2023b).

4.2. Implementation Details

We implement all our experiments in Pytorch 1.11.0 and train all models on a single NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPU with 48GB of memory. We use different similarity thresholds (τ) to construct the similarity network. We do not use any data augmentations in our experiments.

We use the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2017) with a learning rate and weight decay of 1e-4 in our experiments. We use the combined weighted IoU and weighted Binary Cross Entropy (BCE) loss function for the polyp segmentation on CVC-ClinicDB and Kvasir datasets. We train the model for 200 epochs with a batch size of 16. We also utilize the pre-trained weights on ImageNet for backbone networks. Finally, we report the average DICE score (%) over five runs for evaluation.

4.3. Results

Impact of $\lceil p\% \rceil$ community representative: We conducted an ablation study on CVC-ClinicDB dataset with PVT-CASCADE model to see the impact of selecting different percentages of representatives from each community (Fig. 3). We can conclude that the DICE score increases only marginally when we select more than $\lceil 10\% \rceil$ from each community. Hence, we select the top $\lceil 10\% \rceil$ samples from each community for model training purposes and prune/remove rest of the nodes from the community in all of our experiments.

3. Other decoders such as EMCAD (Rahman et al., 2024) can be also used as shown in Appendix C.2.

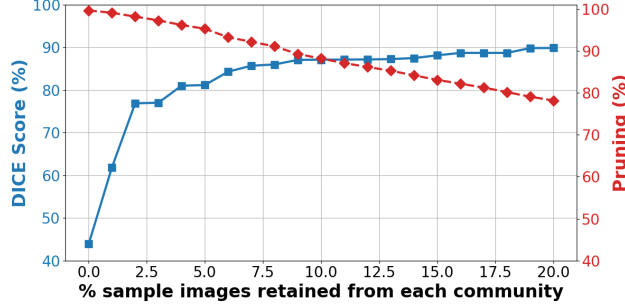


Figure 3: Pruning (%) and DICE scores (%) vs. images (%) selected from each community in CVC-ClinicDB dataset (total of 550 images) with PVT-CASCADE model. We use SSIM with a median threshold $\tau=0.5$ for a denser network construction with fewer communities.

Table 1: Experimental results (DICE %) on CVC-ClinicDB dataset using PVT-CASCADE and ResNet50 (R50)-CASCADE. τ is a similarity threshold that controls the density (i.e., pruning rate) of the similarity network. We select top $\lceil 10\% \rceil$ images based on the degree of each community in SSIM-based similarity networks.

Architectures	Methods/(τ , pruning %)	($\tau=0.92$, 55.5%)	($\tau=0.95$, 31.3%)	($\tau=0.97$, 15.1%)	($\tau=1$, 0% pruning)
PVT-CASCADE	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	89.82 \pm 1.4	91.77 \pm 1.0	92.63 \pm 0.8	94.29 \pm 0.5
PVT-CASCADE	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	90.18 \pm 1.3	92.25 \pm 0.9	92.81 \pm 0.7	
PVT-CASCADE	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	90.34 \pm 1.4	92.62 \pm 0.9	92.87 \pm 0.8	
PVT-CASCADE	Random	89.94 \pm 3.3	91.99 \pm 2.1	92.24 \pm 1.3	
PVT-CASCADE	PRIME (Ours)	92.85\pm1.3	94.18\pm0.7	94.48\pm0.5	
R50-CASCADE	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	89.37 \pm 1.5	91.43 \pm 0.9	92.21 \pm 0.7	93.97 \pm 0.4
R50-CASCADE	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	89.96 \pm 1.3	91.94 \pm 0.8	92.42 \pm 0.7	
R50-CASCADE	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	90.10 \pm 1.3	92.29 \pm 0.9	92.51 \pm 0.6	
R50-CASCADE	Random	89.53 \pm 3.1	91.61 \pm 1.9	91.86 \pm 1.4	
R50-CASCADE	PRIME (Ours)	92.45\pm1.1	93.82\pm0.8	94.08\pm0.4	

Generalizability in multiple models: Table 1 shows the effectiveness of our *PRIME* in improving generalizability across the PVT-CASCADE and R50-CASCADE models. At a similarity threshold of $\tau=0.92$ (i.e., 55.5% pruning), PVT-CASCADE achieves a DICE score of 92.85% vs. 89.94% with random selection, and R50-CASCADE scores 92.45% compared to 89.53%. As pruning decreases, our *PRIME* consistently outperforms the random selection. *PRIME* also outperforms KnowWhatToLabel, Entropy, and MC-dropout pruning methods. Even at $\tau=0.97$ (15.1% pruning), our *PRIME* maintains high DICE scores in both models, closely matching the results obtained with the full dataset. This demonstrates our *PRIME*'s ability to preserve data diversity and ensure robust segmentation performance with significantly reduced data. More results on Kvasir dataset are shown in Appendix C.1.

Generalizability on multiple datasets (centers) and similarity metrics: Figs. 4 and 5 show the efficacy of our *PRIME* on the CVC-ClinicDB and Kvasir datasets, using both PCC and SSIM similarity metrics. Our *PRIME* consistently yields higher DICE scores than random pruning, even at higher pruning rates. For instance, at 31.3% pruning on the CVC-ClinicDB (Fig. 4), our PCC-based pruning achieves 94.02% DICE score, and SSIM-based pruning reaches 94.2%, compared to only 92.0% with random pruning. At 71.9% pruning on the Kvasir dataset (Fig. 5), our *PRIME* maintains DICE scores of 91.1% (PCC) and 91.6% (SSIM), while random pruning drops to 89.6%. Our *PRIME* also consistently outperforms KnowWhatToLabel, Entropy, and MC-dropout pruning methods. Finally, the training time per epoch decreases from about 100 secs at 0% pruning to 28 secs at 71.9% pruning, thus validating the efficiency and robustness of our *PRIME* across datasets or imaging centers.

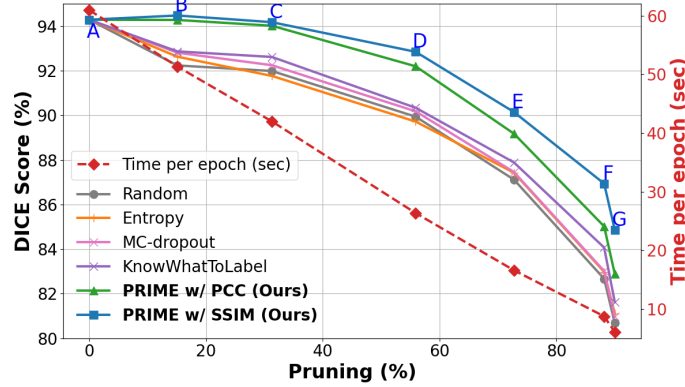


Figure 4: Pruning (%) vs. DICE (left axis) and Time (right axis) on the CVC-ClinicDB dataset (Bernal et al., 2015) (550 images) with the PVT-CASCADE model. SSIM thresholds $\tau=[1, 0.97, 0.95, 0.92, 0.9, 0.88, 0.85]$ are used to construct similarity networks, while PCC thresholds are adjusted to achieve similar pruning rates. Training time per epoch is reported averaging over 200 epochs. Our *PRIME* prunes 55.5%^(D) of data with only a 1.4%^(A-D) drop in DICE and reduces 2.3 \times training time. Notably, we can prune 15%^(B) of images with a 0.2%^(B-A) increase in DICE.

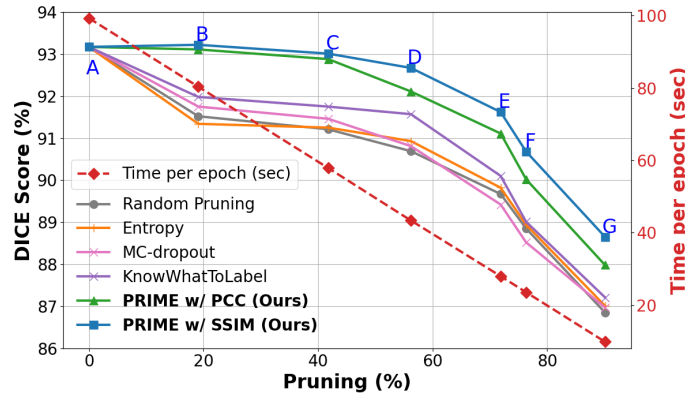


Figure 5: Pruning (%) vs. DICE score (left axis) and Time (right axis) on the Kvasir dataset (Jha et al., 2020) (900 images) with the PVT-CASCADE model. Training time per epoch is reported averaging over 200 epochs. SSIM thresholds $\tau=[1, 0.97, 0.90, 0.85, 0.8, 0.75, 0.7]$ are used to construct similarity networks, while PCC thresholds are adjusted to achieve similar pruning rates. Our *PRIME* prunes 56.2%^(D) of data with only a 0.5%^(A-D) drop in DICE and achieves 2.3 \times faster training.

5. Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we have introduced *PRIME*, a training-free dataset pruning method to minimize image annotation (labeling) efforts and enable efficient training of segmentation models. Experiments on multiple medical image segmentation datasets show its potential to maintain high DICE scores while reducing computational and data annotation costs.

Future work will focus on a deeper analysis of similarity networks and expanding experiments to diverse datasets (including 3D segmentation). Our *PRIME* holds promise in accelerating research in continual learning, active learning, contrastive learning, and few-shot learning by enhancing data efficiency in resource-intensive applications.

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Appendix A. Datasets Details

CVC-ClinicDB (Bernal et al., 2015) contains 612 images, which are extracted from 31 colonoscopy videos. Kvasir includes 1,000 polyp images, which are collected from the polyp class in the Kvasir-SEG dataset (Jha et al., 2020).

Following the settings in CASCADE (Rahman and Marculescu, 2023b), we adopt the same 550 and 900 images from CVC-ClinicDB and Kvasir datasets as the training set, and the remaining 50 and 100 images, respectively, are used as testsets.

Appendix B. Detailed Analysis of Similarity Network Properties and Community Detection

The structural properties of the constructed similarity network (900 nodes, 8922 edges) in Fig. 6 provide compelling evidence for the utility of community detection in training-free dataset pruning. Below, we analyze key metrics and their implications:

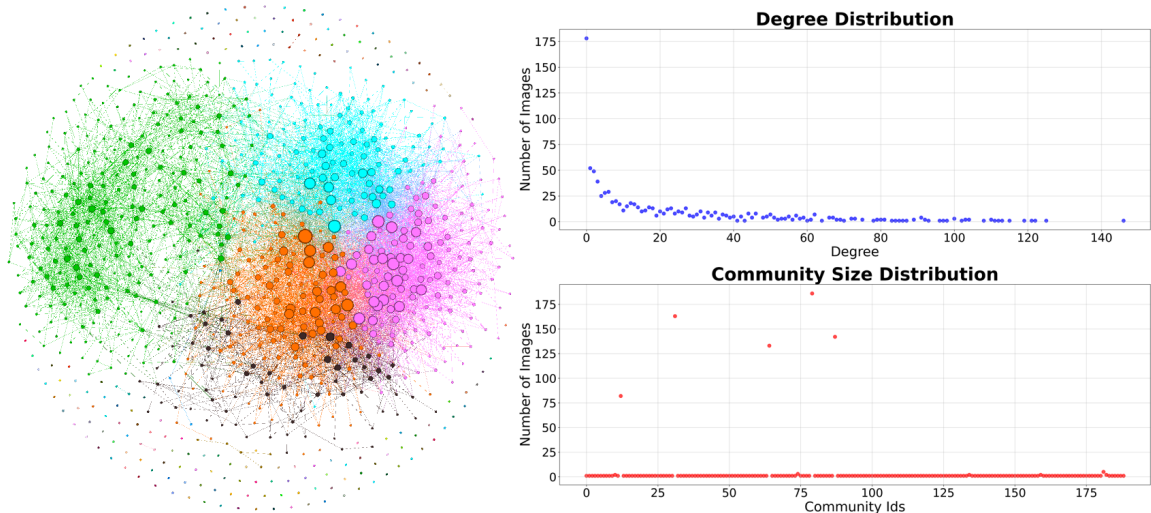


Figure 6: Communities identified with Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) threshold of 0.80 in the Kvasir dataset (Jha et al., 2020). Gephi’s community detection (Blondel et al., 2008) identifies 189 communities with a modularity of 0.512. The degree distribution shows the number of nodes with varying connectivity (0 to >175, left-skewed), while the community distribution highlights the number of nodes per community (0 to >175). By considering top [10%] nodes from each community, we select only 253 (28.1%) representative nodes and prune the rest of the nodes (71.9%).

B.1. Network Connectivity and Cohesion

- **Average Degree (19.827):** Each node is connected to 20 others, on average, indicating robust pairwise similarity relationships. This density ensures that communities are well-anchored by hubs (high-degree nodes) while retaining fine-grained connections between niche samples.

- **Graph Density (0.022):** The sparsity of the network (only 2.2% of possible edges exist) reflects a carefully calibrated similarity threshold, filtering out weak or noisy relationships. This sparsity enhances the discriminative power of detected communities, as retained edges likely correspond to semantically meaningful similarities.

B.2. Small-World Characteristics

- **Average Path Length (3.348):** The short average distance between nodes (3.348 hops) suggests a small-world topology, where tightly knit communities are interconnected by a few bridging nodes (Watts and Strogatz, 1998). This property enables efficient traversal of the network during pruning, thus ensuring that representative samples can be selected without exhaustive search.
- **Network Diameter (10):** The longest shortest path spans 10 edges, indicating that even the most dissimilar images are relatively proximate in the feature space. This compactness supports the hypothesis that the dataset contains latent hierarchical structures resolvable via community detection.

B.3. Community Detection Efficacy

- **Modularity (0.512):** A modularity score >0.3 confirms statistically significant community structure. The modularity value of 0.512 indicates strong separation between groups, where intra-community edges significantly outnumber inter-community edges. This ensures that detected clusters are cohesive and distinct, aligning with visually or pathologically meaningful subgroups.
- **Connected Components (184 \rightarrow 189 Communities):** The network initially contains 184 isolated components, but community detection resolves 189 clusters, demonstrating that the Gephi’s algorithm (Blondel et al., 2008) successfully identifies substructures within connected components. This granularity is critical for capturing fine-grained variations (e.g., polyp subtypes or imaging artifacts).

B.4. Local Clustering and Redundancy Reduction

- **Average Clustering Coefficient (0.597):** The high clustering coefficient indicates that nodes tend to form tightly connected triads, a hallmark of homophilic networks where similar nodes cluster together (Watts and Strogatz, 1998). This property ensures communities are internally homogeneous, reducing redundancy and enabling the selection of representative samples without oversampling.
- **Hub-Driven Cohesion:** Hubs (high-degree nodes) act as central coordinators, linking disparate regions of the network. By prioritizing hubs during pruning, our method retains images that anchor multiple communities, thus preserving the global dataset structure while minimizing the information loss.

B.5. Implications for Training-Free Dataset Pruning

The network’s small-world compactness (short average path of 3.348), scale-free topology (evidenced by hubs with degree >100 and average degree 19.827), and strong modularity (0.512) collectively validate community detection as a principled framework for dataset pruning. By leveraging these properties, our *PRIME* achieves:

- *Efficiency*: Short paths and hierarchical communities reduce computational overhead.
- *Representativeness*: Cohesive clusters preserve clinical diversity.
- *Interpretability*: Communities align with domain-specific patterns (e.g., pathology, imaging protocols).

Our method is particularly advantageous for polyp segmentation, where resource limitations (e.g., expert humans available to do annotation or computing resources to run intense computations) demand strategies that balance performance, efficiency, and clinical relevance.

Table 2: Experimental results (DICE %) on Kvasir dataset (Jha et al., 2020) using PVT-CASCADE and ResNet50 (R50)-CASCADE. τ is a similarity threshold that controls the density (i.e., pruning rate) of the similarity network. We select top $\lceil 10\% \rceil$ images based on the degree of each community in SSIM-based similarity networks.

Architectures	Methods/(τ , pruning %)	($\tau=0.83$, 56.2%)	($\tau=0.85$, 41.8%)	($\tau=0.88$, 19.1%)	($\tau=1$, 0% pruning)
PVT-CASCADE	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	90.93 \pm 1.2	91.25 \pm 0.9	91.34 \pm 0.6	93.17 \pm 0.4
PVT-CASCADE	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	90.81 \pm 1.3	91.46 \pm 0.9	91.75 \pm 0.7	
PVT-CASCADE	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	91.57 \pm 1.3	91.75 \pm 0.7	91.98 \pm 0.7	
PVT-CASCADE	Random	90.69 \pm 2.8	91.21 \pm 1.9	91.52 \pm 1.2	
PVT-CASCADE	PRIME (Ours)	92.11\pm1.2	92.88\pm0.6	93.15\pm0.5	
R50-CASCADE	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	90.58 \pm 1.4	91.06 \pm 1.0	91.22 \pm 0.7	93.02 \pm 0.5
R50-CASCADE	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	90.63 \pm 1.2	91.41 \pm 0.9	91.62 \pm 0.6	
R50-CASCADE	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	91.41 \pm 1.4	91.62 \pm 0.8	91.84 \pm 0.7	
R50-CASCADE	Random	90.53 \pm 2.9	91.12 \pm 1.7	91.45 \pm 1.5	
R50-CASCADE	PRIME (Ours)	92.01\pm1.3	92.73\pm0.9	92.96\pm0.6	

Appendix C. Additional Experiments

C.1. Results on the Kvasir dataset

Table 2 shows the efficacy of *PRIME* in balancing dataset pruning and segmentation performance. While existing methods (e.g., entropy-based selection, MC-dropout) exhibit performance degradation under aggressive pruning (e.g., 56.2% reduction at $\tau = 0.83$), *PRIME* consistently outperforms baselines, achieving higher DICE scores with narrower standard deviations (e.g., **92.11% vs. 90.93%** for PVT-CASCADE at $\tau = 0.83$).

Notably, at $\tau = 0.88$ (19.1% pruning), *PRIME* nearly matches the full-dataset baseline (93.15% vs. 93.17%), highlighting its ability to retain critical samples through community detection in similarity networks. This contrasts with random pruning, which suffers from high variance (e.g., ± 2.8 at $\tau = 0.83$), emphasizing the non-triviality of sample selection.

Our *PRIME*’s robustness across architectures (PVT vs. ResNet50) further validates its generalizability, though PVT’s superior performance suggests architectural advantages in

capturing polyp features. These findings position *PRIME* as a computationally efficient alternative for resource-constrained medical imaging tasks.

C.2. Results of ClinicDB dataset with the EMCAD decoder:

Table 3 shows that *PRIME* effectively optimizes data efficiency for polyp segmentation using recent EMCAD decoder (Rahman et al., 2024) as well, particularly in data-rich regimes. Under aggressive pruning ($\tau = 0.92$, 55.5%), *PRIME* achieves **92.87% DICE** for PVT-EMCAD, outperforming entropy-based selection by **+3.14%** and random pruning by **+3.02%**, despite higher variability (± 1.5 vs. ± 3.6 for random). This underscores its ability to retain diagnostically critical samples even with significant dataset reductions. As pruning relaxes ($\tau = 0.97$, 15.1%), *PRIME*’s performance nears the full-dataset baseline (94.61% vs. 94.65% for PVT-EMCAD), suggesting diminishing returns for retaining additional data. Notably, PVT-EMCAD consistently surpasses ResNet50-EMCAD (e.g., **94.61% vs. 94.15%** at $\tau = 0.97$), likely due to its hierarchical attention mechanisms better capturing polyp boundaries. These insights position *PRIME* as a architecture-agnostic dataset pruning method.

Table 3: Experimental results (DICE %) on CVC-ClinicDB dataset using PVT-EMCAD and ResNet50 (R50)-EMCAD. τ controls the similarity threshold and pruning rate. SSIM similarity achieves better DICE score than PCC in similar pruning rate.

Architectures	Methods/(τ , pruning %)	($\tau=0.92$, 55.5%)	($\tau=0.95$, 31.3%)	($\tau=0.97$, 15.1%)	($\tau=1$, 0% pruning)
PVT-EMCAD	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	89.73 \pm 1.7	91.83 \pm 1.4	92.85 \pm 1.2	94.65 \pm 0.6
PVT-EMCAD	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	90.15 \pm 1.6	92.31 \pm 1.3	93.05 \pm 1.1	
PVT-EMCAD	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	90.36 \pm 1.7	92.81 \pm 1.1	93.14 \pm 1.0	
PVT-EMCAD	Random	89.85 \pm 3.6	91.87 \pm 2.4	92.43 \pm 1.7	
PVT-EMCAD	PRIME w/ PCC (Ours)	92.58\pm1.4	94.23\pm0.9	94.34\pm0.7	
PVT-EMCAD	PRIME w/ SSIM (Ours)	92.87\pm1.5	94.47\pm1.0	94.61\pm0.8	
R50-EMCAD	Entropy (Shannon, 1948)	89.31 \pm 1.9	91.51 \pm 1.5	92.25 \pm 1.3	94.26 \pm 0.5
R50-EMCAD	MC-dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)	89.90 \pm 1.7	92.01 \pm 1.2	92.49 \pm 1.1	
R50-EMCAD	KnowWhatToLabel (Dawoud et al., 2023)	90.14 \pm 1.7	92.39 \pm 1.1	92.62 \pm 1.0	
R50-EMCAD	Random	89.46 \pm 3.5	91.72 \pm 2.3	91.97 \pm 1.8	
R50-EMCAD	PRIME w/ PCC (Ours)	92.25\pm1.5	93.72\pm0.9	94.02\pm0.6	
R50-EMCAD	PRIME w/ SSIM (Ours)	92.41\pm1.4	93.91\pm1.0	94.15\pm0.7	

Appendix D. Current Limitations and Future Work

Our dataset pruning method balances data reduction with high segmentation accuracy across models, datasets, and similarity metrics. Additionally, as a training-free method, our pruning method minimizes the annotation costs and effort by effectively identifying representative samples, which is particularly advantageous in medical imaging where data annotation (labeling) is time-intensive and costly.

However, the DICE scores decline at extreme pruning levels, indicating a potential loss of critical data diversity. Furthermore, the method requires similarity threshold tuning, which varies by dataset. Future work will focus on extending our method to other medical imaging tasks and incorporating adaptive similarity thresholding to enhance robustness and generalizability across diverse medical imaging scenarios.