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# Segment Anything Model Meets Semi-supervised Medical Image Segmentation: A Novel Perspective

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Haifeng Zhao<sup>1,2</sup>, Haiyang Li<sup>1,2</sup>, Lei-Lei Ma<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Dengdi Sun<sup>2,3\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Anhui Provincial Key Laboratory of Multimodal Cognitive Computation,  
School of Computer Science and Technology, Anhui University, China

<sup>2</sup>Key Lab Intelligent Comp & Signal Proc, Minist Educ, Anhui University, China

<sup>3</sup>School of Artificial Intelligence, Anhui University, China

## Abstract

The scarcity of annotated medical imaging data has driven significant progress in semi-supervised learning to alleviate reliance on expensive expert labeling. While foundational vision models such as the Segment Anything Model (SAM) exhibit robust generalization in generic segmentation tasks, their direct application to medical images often results in suboptimal performance. To address this challenge, in this work, we propose a novel fully SAM-based semi-supervised medical image segmentation framework and develop the corresponding knowledge distillation-based learning strategy. Specifically, we first employ an efficient SAM variant as the backbone network of the semi-supervised framework and update the default prompt embedding of SAM to unleash its full potential. Then, we utilize an original SAM, which is rich in prior knowledge, as the teacher to optimize our efficient student SAM backbone through hierarchical knowledge distillation and a dynamic loss weighting strategy. Extensive experiments on various medical datasets demonstrate that our method outperforms state-of-the-art semi-supervised segmentation approaches. Especially, our model requires less than 10% of the parameter size of the original SAM, enabling substantially lower deployment and storage overhead in real-world clinical settings.

## 1 Introduction

Medical image segmentation aims to delineate precise anatomical structures from imaging data and serves as a fundamental basis for clinical applications [1, 2]. Recently, as an important foundational vision model for general image segmentation, the Segment Anything Model (SAM) [3] has been applied to medical images, resulting in various medical SAM variants. Through fine-tuning on medical datasets [4, 5, 6] and generating high-quality prompts [7, 8, 9, 10], these variants have achieved considerable segmentation results. Despite significant progress in medical image segmentation, the cumbersome and costly manual annotation process still hinders its development. To address this challenge, semi-supervised learning has gained traction as a robust approach that enhances model performance and generalization by leveraging both limited labeled data and abundant unlabeled data. However, there are still some key issues regarding how to effectively integrate the powerful capabilities of foundational models into semi-supervised medical image segmentation (SSMIS).

**First, existing SSMIS frameworks have yet to fully leverage the capabilities of SAM.** Lately, researchers have conducted numerous explorations into the application of SAM in SSMIS. For instance, SemiSAM [11] leverages coarse masks from the segmentation model to derive prompt points, which are then fed into SAM to generate more accurate pseudo-labels for model optimization. SFR [12] introduces an improved approach by pre-training SAM on labeled data, allowing it to

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\*Correspondence to: Lei-Lei Ma (xiaoleilei1990@gmail.com) and Dengdi Sun (sundengdi@163.com).

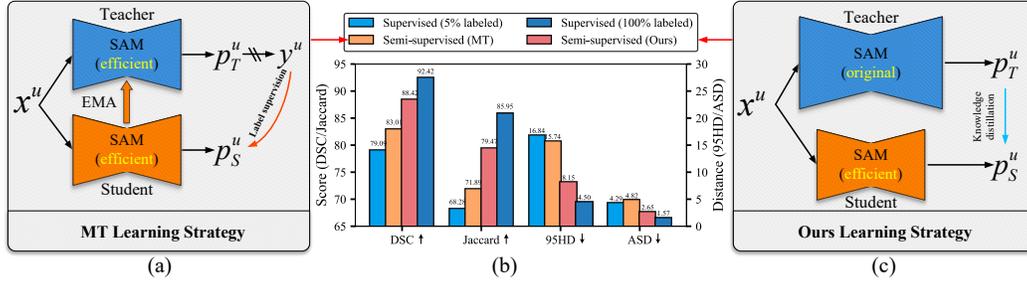


Figure 1: (a) Mean Teacher for ESDE. (b) Two semi-supervised approaches based on ESDE (Mean Teacher and our approach, colored in orange and red) with 5% labeled data and 95% unlabeled data vs. fully supervised learning (colored in blue) using 5% and 100% labeled data on the LA dataset. Our approach achieves competitive performance, with an 88.42% DSC, improving by 9.33% over the 5% labeled supervised setting. (c) Our proposed approach for ESDE.

directly generate high-quality pseudo-labels. However, due to the large parameter size of SAM, these approaches do not fully adopt SAM for semi-supervised segmentation but instead typically deploy it as an auxiliary component in SSMIS only for generating pseudo-labels as an additional source of supervision. This strategy inevitably restricts the potential of SAM. Moreover, such implementations are critically dependent on the prompts generated by the segmentation model, and inaccurate prompts can severely degrade the segmentation performance of SAM [13]. Therefore, the key challenge lies in maximizing the segmentation advantages of SAM while minimizing the impact of prompts, which is critical to advancing its application in SSMIS.

It is worth noting that to overcome the substantial computational demands of SAM, the community has proposed various lightweight approaches to improve efficiency without compromising accuracy. These methods focus on training lightweight models entirely from scratch [14, 15, 16] and use knowledge distillation with appropriate supervision for model training [17, 18, 19, 20, 21]. The success of efficient SAM variants inspires us to consider whether they can serve as backbone networks in semi-supervised learning frameworks, replacing traditional ConvNet-based backbones to fully leverage their capabilities. Moreover, when employing SAM as the segmentation model, updating its default prompt embedding can naturally enable high-quality segmentation results, while also mitigating the negative effects of inaccurate prompts. Therefore, we propose a novel fully SAM-based SSMIS framework that utilizes an Efficient SAM variant as the backbone with a Default Embedding (ESDE), which is promising to address the aforementioned challenges.

**Second, commonly used learning strategies are incompatible with the fully SAM-based SSMIS framework.** As shown in Figure 1 (a), we present a preliminary analysis by applying ESDE to a popular semi-supervised learning approach, Mean Teacher (MT) [22], where a teacher model is updated via exponential moving average (EMA) of a student model. However, as shown in Figure 1 (b), despite the availability of extensive unlabeled data, ESDE with MT achieves only a marginal improvement of less than 4% in Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC). We attribute this limitation to the ViT-based architecture of SAM, which has weaker inductive biases compared to ConvNets, making it less effective in general semi-supervised paradigms [23]. Therefore, another key objective of this work is to develop a simple yet effective semi-supervised learning strategy for ESDE, in which the efficient SAM variant can better benefit from unlabeled data.

Based on the above analysis, as illustrated in Figure 1 (c), we propose a knowledge distillation-based learning strategy coupled with a customized training pipeline for ESDE to advance SSMIS. Specifically, we utilize an original SAM to optimize the efficient SAM backbone through knowledge distillation. The customized training process is divided into two steps: first, we apply parameter-efficient fine-tuning to the original SAM, progressively adapting its general segmentation capability to medical-specific tasks. Notably, this approach maintains the robustness of the foundational model while improving the precise recognition of anatomical structures. Then, the fine-tuned SAM serves as the teacher model, where it provides comprehensive guidance to the efficient student SAM through a hierarchical knowledge transfer mechanism operating on global contextual features and local boundary details. To address potential limitations, a dynamic weighting strategy adjusts the distillation intensity during training, thereby mitigating the excessive influence of the frozen teacher. Through the phased training pipeline, the framework effectively utilizes unlabeled data while preserving the segmentation strength of SAM in medical scenarios.

Overall, in this work, we design a fully SAM-based SSMIS framework and develop the corresponding knowledge distillation-based learning strategy. Our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- To our knowledge, we are the first to fully use efficient SAM as the backbone network in a semi-supervised learning framework. Meanwhile, we update the default prompt embedding of SAM to avoid the negative impact of inaccurate prompts. This innovative attempt harnesses its full power while reducing the complexity of deployment.
- We propose a novel semi-supervised learning strategy to address the limitations of ESDE in traditional settings. It constructs a hierarchical knowledge distillation pipeline to transfer structural knowledge and boundary details, and designs a dynamic weighting mechanism that adaptively adjusts distillation intensity based on the student’s evolving capabilities.
- Comprehensive experiments across various medical segmentation tasks demonstrate that our proposed method achieves superior performance compared to other state-of-the-art semi-supervised methods.

## 2 Related Work

### 2.1 Semi-supervised Medical Image Segmentation

Since medical image annotation requires specialized expertise, incurs high costs, and is time-consuming, semi-supervised learning (SSL) [24, 25, 26] has emerged as an effective approach to tackle the challenge of insufficient labeled data in medical image segmentation. Most existing semi-supervised segmentation methods are typically grouped into two categories: consistency regularization [22] and pseudo-labeling [27]. Consistency regularization aims to learn more robust and generalizable representations by maintaining consistent predictions for the same input under different perturbations [28, 29]. Pseudo-labeling leverages the high-confidence predictions of the model on unlabeled data as temporary labels for supervised training [30, 31]. Unlike these methods, which are typically optimized using ConvNet-based backbones, we propose introducing an efficient SAM variant as the backbone network and designing a novel fully SAM-based framework.

### 2.2 SAM Adaptation for Medical Images

The Segment Anything Model (SAM) [3], trained on the large-scale SA-1B dataset, exhibits remarkable zero-shot generalization for natural images [32]. However, its performance drops sharply when applied to medical images [33, 34, 35], especially for unseen anatomical structures or pathologies [36, 37]. To better adapt SAM for medical images, researchers are focusing on generalizing SAM using automatic prompting techniques and different fine-tuning strategies. For instance, MaskSAM [38] provides accurate guidance to SAM through the design of a learnable prompt generator. Med-SA [5] fine-tunes the prompted SAM with points and boxes, incorporating lightweight adaptation blocks to extract domain-specific medical prior knowledge. Moreover, prompt-free SAM adaptation approaches introduced for medical segmentation suggest that prompts may not be completely essential [39, 40]. SAMed [6] integrates LoRA [41] layers into the image encoder while eliminating the prompts. Building on this progress, H-SAM [42] employs a hierarchical decoding structure to optimize the process of fine-tuning with limited medical data and attains impressive results. In this work, we also adopt a prompt-free strategy to decrease the adverse effects of inaccurate prompts, further optimizing the application of SAM in semi-supervised medical image segmentation.

### 2.3 Efficient SAM with Knowledge Distillation

Knowledge distillation (KD) is a model compression technique that improves a lightweight student by transferring knowledge from a complex teacher [43]. When deploying KD to accelerate SAM [3], the objective is to convey knowledge from the original, larger SAM to more compact and efficient SAM-like models. Considering the encoder-decoder architecture of SAM, KD strategies are typically divided into two approaches: distilling the entire SAM model or distilling only the image encoder. For example, MobileSAM [20] distills the image embedding from the image encoder into a lightweight ViT encoder while replicating the prompt-guided decoder. Based on this method, EfficientSAM [15] achieves a great speed-performance trade-off through masked image pretraining. However, TinySAM [17] points out that the absence of mask-level supervision for the student network

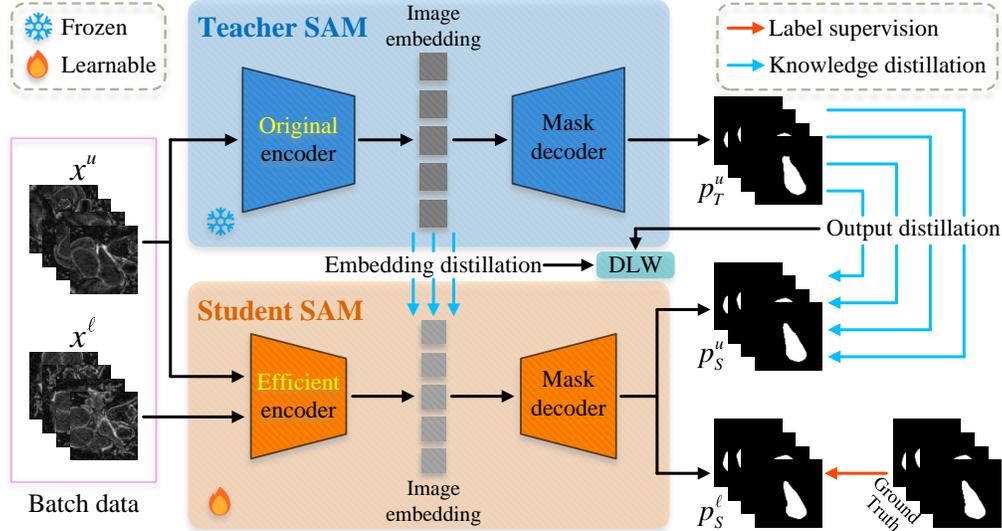


Figure 2: Overview of the proposed knowledge distillation-based semi-supervised learning strategy for ESDE. For labeled data, the student SAM receives direct supervision from ground-truth masks via segmentation losses. For unlabeled data, hierarchical distillation transfers knowledge from the frozen teacher (encoder embeddings and decoder outputs) to the student via KL divergence. Moreover, DLW strategy automatically adjusts the distillation intensity for better model optimization.

may lead to significant performance degradation and, therefore, proposes a full-stage distillation framework. Inspired by these methods, in this work, we leverage KD by transferring knowledge from the teacher model to refine the predictions on unlabeled samples during semi-supervised learning.

### 3 Preliminaries

**Notations.** Let  $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$  denote the image space, where each medical image  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  has a resolution of  $H \times W$ . The corresponding label space is defined as  $\mathcal{Y} \subset \{1, \dots, C\}^{H \times W}$ , where each pixel is assigned one of  $C$  anatomical or pathological categories. In the semi-supervised setting, we have two datasets:  $\mathcal{D}^\ell = \{(x_i^\ell, y_i^\ell)\}_{i=1}^N$ ,  $\mathcal{D}^u = \{x_i^u\}_{i=N+1}^{N+M}$ , where  $\mathcal{D}^\ell$  contains  $N$  labeled samples and  $\mathcal{D}^u$  contains  $M$  unlabeled samples, typically  $N \ll M$ . A SAM-based segmentation model  $f_\Theta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  can be decomposed as an encoder-decoder:

$$f_\Theta(x) = \mathcal{G}_{\Theta_g}(\mathcal{E}_{\Theta_e}(x), q), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathcal{E}_{\Theta_e}$  denotes the image encoder,  $\mathcal{G}_{\Theta_g}$  denotes the mask decoder, and  $q$  is the query of the mask decoder, which is formed by concatenating the prompt embedding with the output tokens. Let  $\Theta_f = \{\Theta^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^K$  be the set of all parameter tensors of model  $f_\Theta$ . The total parameter count is defined as  $P(f_\Theta) = \sum_{i=1}^K |\Theta^{(i)}|$ , where  $|\Theta^{(i)}|$  denotes the number of scalar parameters in tensor  $\Theta^{(i)}$ . In particular, if  $f_{\Theta_1}$  and  $f_{\Theta_2}$  are two models,  $P(f_{\Theta_1}) > P(f_{\Theta_2})$  means  $f_{\Theta_1}$  has more parameters.

**Problem Definition.** The goal of SSMIS is to learn a segmentation function  $f_\Theta$  that approaches the performance of a fully supervised model using limited annotations. This can be formulated as a semi-supervised expected risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{\Theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x^\ell, y^\ell) \sim \mathcal{D}^\ell} [\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}(f_\Theta(x^\ell), y^\ell)] + \lambda \mathbb{E}_{x^u \sim \mathcal{D}^u} [\mathcal{L}_{\text{unsup}}(f_\Theta, x^u)], \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}$  is the supervised loss (e.g., Dice or cross-entropy),  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{unsup}}$  exploits unlabeled data via consistency learning, pseudo-labeling, or knowledge distillation, and  $\lambda$  balances their contributions.

We adopt a teacher-student paradigm to tackle the above problem. The teacher model  $f_{\Theta_T}$  provides supervision, while the student  $f_{\Theta_S}$ , which has fewer parameters ( $P(f_{\Theta_T}) > P(f_{\Theta_S})$ ), learns from labeled data and the teacher's guidance on unlabeled samples. Hierarchical knowledge distillation and dynamic loss weighting allow the student to inherit both the teacher's visual priors and domain-specific knowledge, yielding a high-performance yet lightweight segmentation model.

## 4 Method

### 4.1 Overview

As shown in Figure 2, our SSMIS framework employs a teacher model  $f_{\Theta_T}$  (original SAM) and a student model  $f_{\Theta_S}$  (efficient SAM variant), both using the default prompt embedding for segmentation. The training process comprises two sequential stages: *supervised fine-tuning* and *semi-supervised learning*. **In the first stage** (*supervised fine-tuning*), both teacher and student are fine-tuned on the labeled dataset  $\mathcal{D}^\ell$ . For the teacher model  $f_{\Theta_T}$ , we apply the low-rank-based (LoRA) fine-tuning strategy to the image encoder, preserving generic visual features while incorporating medical domain knowledge. The student model  $f_{\Theta_S}$  is fine-tuned simultaneously to learn task-specific representations with limited annotations. **In the second stage** (*semi-supervised learning*), the fine-tuned teacher is frozen and guides the student on unlabeled data  $\mathcal{D}^u$ . Crucially, hierarchical distillation pipeline transfers different-level feature representations from teacher to student, while dynamic loss weighting adaptively balances the distillation intensity, enabling efficient and stable knowledge transfer. **During testing**, only the lightweight student model  $f_{\Theta_S}$  is used for inference, providing fast and memory-efficient predictions while maintaining high segmentation performance.

### 4.2 Fine-tuning Stage

As illustrated in Figure 3, our foundational teacher model is built upon the original SAM, and it is composed of three components: a ViT-based image encoder, a prompt encoder, and a mask decoder. The image encoder is the most heavyweight part, comprising a significant proportion of total parameters. Specifically, we freeze all layers in the image encoder and add a smaller, trainable bypass for each transformer block. These bypasses, which constitute the LoRA layers, first compress the transformer features into a low-rank space and subsequently reproject these condensed features to align with the channel dimensions of the output features in the frozen transformer blocks. During training, only the LoRA layers are updated, facilitating subtle yet impactful adjustments to the model and enabling efficient parameter adaptation with minimal memory overhead.

For the SSMIS task, the prompt encoder plays a crucial role in achieving more accurate segmentation results. Here, we update the default embedding, which refers to the embedding generated by the prompt encoder when no prompts are provided, to enhance SAM’s performance and eliminate the need for manual inputs. This strategy not only avoids the potential pitfalls of inaccurate prompts, but also enables automated medical diagnosis. For the mask decoder, we update all parameters. In summary, we adopt the same implementation as SAMed [6] to fine-tune the teacher model. During fine-tuning, we utilize a supervised loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}$  as the fine-tuning stage optimization objective  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ft}}$ , enabling the model to learn accurate segmentation boundaries from labeled medical data effectively. The fine-tuning optimization is formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ft}}(\mathbf{x}_i^\ell, \mathbf{y}_i^\ell) = \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}(\mathbf{p}_i^\ell, \mathbf{y}_i^\ell), \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}(\mathbf{p}_i^\ell, \mathbf{y}_i^\ell) = \lambda_{\text{dice}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{dice}}(\mathbf{p}_i^\ell, \mathbf{y}_i^\ell) + \lambda_{\text{ce}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ce}}(\mathbf{p}_i^\ell, \mathbf{y}_i^\ell), \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{p}_i^\ell = f_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}_i^\ell)$  denotes the model prediction for a labeled image, and  $\mathbf{y}_i^\ell$  is the corresponding ground-truth mask.  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dice}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ce}}$  represent the Dice loss and Cross-entropy loss, respectively, with  $\lambda_{\text{dice}}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{ce}}$  controlling their relative contributions.

To obtain an efficient SAM backbone, we replace the image encoder of the original SAM with a much smaller ViT, while the rest of the components remain unchanged. For this student SAM, similarly, we also retain the strategy of updating the default embedding. During fine-tuning, all parameters are optimized, utilizing the same loss function as the teacher model.

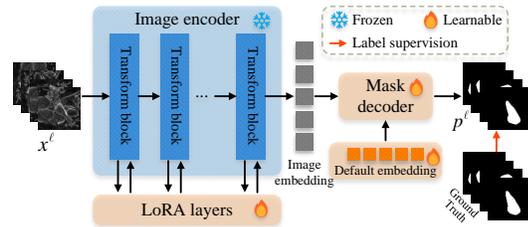


Figure 3: The pipeline for fine-tuning the teacher SAM. We freeze the image encoder and integrate LoRA layers into transformer blocks for efficient fine-tuning. Additionally, we update the prompt encoder using a default embedding to enable a prompt-free setting.

### 4.3 Semi-supervised Learning Stage

After fine-tuning, we further optimize the model through semi-supervised learning. As shown in Figure 2, our framework employs a teacher-student architecture to strategically leverage both labeled and unlabeled data. Specifically, the teacher model remains frozen to preserve reliable knowledge and generalization capability, while the student model maintains full trainability to assimilate two learning signals: direct supervision from labeled data via ground-truth annotations and knowledge distillation from the teacher’s embedding-level and logit-level for unlabeled data. In this work, the proposed distillation mechanism is implemented through the newly designed hierarchical distillation pipeline and dynamic loss weighting strategy, both of which are detailed subsequently.

**Hierarchical Knowledge Distillation.** Inspired by MobileSAM [20], we adopt the image encoder output as the distilled information. Since  $\mathcal{E}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)$  and  $\mathcal{E}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)$  are feature maps of shape  $D \times H' \times W'$ , we compute KL divergence for each spatial position after softmax along the channel dimension. Given a batch of  $N'$  unlabeled images  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{N'} \subset \mathcal{D}^u$ , the embedding-level distillation loss is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{emb}} = \frac{1}{N' \cdot H' \cdot W'} \sum_{i=1}^{N'} \sum_{u=1}^{H'} \sum_{v=1}^{W'} D_{\text{KL}}\left(\hat{\mathcal{E}}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} \parallel \hat{\mathcal{E}}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v}\right), \quad (4)$$

where  $\hat{\mathcal{E}}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} = \text{softmax}(\mathcal{E}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v})$ ,  $\hat{\mathcal{E}}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} = \text{softmax}(\mathcal{E}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v})$ ,  $D_{\text{KL}}(p\parallel q) = \sum_{d=1}^D p_d \log \frac{p_d}{q_d}$ , with  $u, v$  indexing spatial positions and  $d$  denoting the number of dimensions.

Although the global features extracted by the image encoder provide a broad understanding of the image structure, they are insufficient for the precise requirements of pixel-level mask prediction. Segmentation tasks rely more on features near the output layer, which capture localized details and boundaries. Hence, the teacher’s logit output is also selected as a distillation target to provide fine-grained guidance. The logit-level distillation loss is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{logit}} = \frac{1}{H \cdot W} \sum_{u=1}^H \sum_{v=1}^W D_{\text{KL}}\left(\hat{\mathcal{G}}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} \parallel \hat{\mathcal{G}}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v}\right), \quad (5)$$

where  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}_T(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} = \text{softmax}(\mathcal{G}_T(\mathcal{E}_T(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{q}_T)_{:,u,v})$ ,  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}_S(\mathbf{x}_i)_{:,u,v} = \text{softmax}(\mathcal{G}_S(\mathcal{E}_S(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{q}_S)_{:,u,v})$ .

Combining the embedding and logit distillation losses helps the student better replicate the teacher’s performance. Thus, the overall knowledge distillation loss function is given as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{kd}} = \lambda_{\text{emb}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{emb}} + \lambda_{\text{logit}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{logit}}, \quad (6)$$

where  $\lambda_{\text{emb}}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{logit}}$  are weight coefficients that balance the contributions of the embedding and logit distillation losses, respectively.

**Dynamic Loss Weighting.** To prevent the static knowledge of the frozen teacher from dominating the learning process, we design a dynamic loss weighting (DLW) strategy that automatically adjusts the distillation intensity based on comparative performance metrics. The key mechanism involves monitoring the supervised losses of both models on labeled data: the teacher’s loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^T$  serves as a fixed reference benchmark after fine-tuning, while the student’s loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^S$  reflects its current learning progress. At each epoch  $t$ , we update the distillation weight  $\lambda_{\text{kd}}$  through conditional decay:

$$\lambda_{\text{kd}}^{(t)} = \begin{cases} \alpha \cdot \lambda_{\text{kd}}^{(t-1)}, & \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^S < \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^T, \\ \lambda_{\text{kd}}^{(t-1)}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where  $\alpha$  is a scaling factor (e.g., 0.95) for gradual decay and  $\lambda_{\text{kd}}^{(0)} = 1.0$  initiates strong guidance. Note that  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^T$  is only used to compute  $\lambda_{\text{kd}}$  and does not contribute to the backpropagation of gradients. DLW helps the student rely more on the teacher’s guidance in the early stages while gradually focusing on self-learning as training progresses, which aids in adapting to unlabeled data and improving generalization to unseen data.

In summary, the overall optimization objective for semi-supervised learning is written as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{all}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}} + \lambda_{\text{kd}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{kd}}. \quad (8)$$

Differing from  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}^S$ , which denotes the supervised loss of the student model on labeled data summed over an entire epoch,  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}$  here denotes the loss for each training iteration.

Table 1: Comparisons with SOTA semi-supervised segmentation methods on the LA dataset.

Method	Scans used		Metrics				Scans used		Metrics			
	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓
UA-MT [29]			82.26	70.98	13.71	3.82			87.79	78.39	8.68	2.12
SASSNet [49]			81.60	69.63	16.16	3.58			87.54	78.05	9.84	2.59
DTC [50]			81.25	69.33	14.90	3.99			87.51	78.17	8.23	2.36
URPC [51]			82.48	71.35	14.65	3.65			86.92	77.03	11.13	2.28
MC-Net [52]	4(5%)	76(95%)	83.59	72.36	14.07	2.70	8(10%)	72(90%)	87.62	78.25	10.03	1.82
SS-Net [31]			86.33	76.15	9.97	2.31			88.55	79.62	7.49	1.90
BCP [30]			88.02	78.72	<b>7.90</b>	<b>2.15</b>			89.62	81.31	6.81	<b>1.76</b>
Ours			<b>88.42</b>	<b>79.47</b>	8.15	2.65			<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	1.97

Table 2: Comparisons with SOTA semi-supervised segmentation methods on the Brats-2019 dataset.

Method	Scans used		Metrics				Scans used		Metrics			
	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓
DAN [53]			81.71	71.43	15.15	2.32			83.31	73.53	10.86	2.23
DTC [50]			81.75	71.63	15.73	2.56			83.43	73.56	14.77	2.34
CPS [54]			82.52	72.66	13.08	2.66			84.01	74.02	12.16	2.18
URPC [51]			82.59	72.11	13.88	3.72			82.93	72.57	15.93	4.19
CPCL [55]	25(10%)	225(90%)	83.36	73.23	11.74	1.99	50(20%)	200(80%)	83.48	74.08	9.53	2.08
AC-MT [56]			83.77	73.96	11.37	<b>1.93</b>			84.63	74.39	9.50	2.11
MLRPL [57]			84.29	74.74	9.57	2.55			85.47	76.32	7.76	<b>2.00</b>
Ours			<b>85.14</b>	<b>75.56</b>	<b>8.58</b>	2.57			<b>86.46</b>	<b>77.21</b>	<b>7.64</b>	2.21

## 5 Experiments

We validate our proposed method on three widely-used semi-supervised medical image segmentation datasets: the LA dataset [44], the Brats-2019 dataset [45], and the PROMISE12 dataset [46]. Additionally, to facilitate a comprehensive comparison with existing prompt-free medical SAM variants, we conduct experiments on the Synapse Multi-Organ CT dataset [47]. For the foundational teacher SAM, we conduct all experiments based on the “ViT-B” version, while for the efficient student SAM, we replace the original image encoder with TinyViT-5M [48]. More details of the datasets, evaluation metrics, and method implementation, as well as additional experimental results such as the effectiveness of the fine-tuned teacher and model complexity analysis, are provided in the Appendix.

### 5.1 Comparison with State-of-the-Art Methods

**Results on LA Dataset.** We evaluate our method on the LA dataset against state-of-the-art semi-supervised methods, including UA-MT [29], SASSNet [49], DTC [50], URPC [51], MC-Net [52], SS-Net [31], and BCP [30], using labeled ratios of 5% and 10%. As shown in Table 1, our approach outperforms these competitors, achieving a 0.40% improvement in DSC with 5% labeled data and 0.85% with 10%. Additionally, other metrics highlight its competitiveness, with gains of 1.40% in Jaccard and 0.40 in 95HD under the 10% setting. It demonstrates the feasibility of using SAM as the backbone network with a default embedding and validates the effectiveness of the proposed knowledge distillation-based semi-supervised learning strategy. Moreover, qualitative results in Figure 4 demonstrate that our method produces finer segmentation boundaries and better overall agreement with ground-truth annotations compared to existing approaches.

**Results on Brats-2019 Dataset.** Brain tumor segmentation is highly challenging due to variations in tumor appearance and uncertain boundaries. To demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach, we conduct experiments on the Brats-2019 dataset with 10% and 20% labeled ratio, comparing it with several methods, including DAN [53], DTC [50], CPS [54], URPC [51], CPCL [55], AC-MT [56], and MLRPL [57]. As evidenced in Table 2, our method achieves state-of-the-art performance on both labeled protocols. With 10% labeled data, we obtain 85.14% DSC and 75.56% Jaccard scores, outperforming the strongest baseline (MLRPL) by 0.85% and 0.82%, respectively. This advantage further expands to 1.0% DSC and 0.89% Jaccard improvements under the 20% labeled setting. Furthermore, our approach reduces 95HD by 0.99 compared to MLRPL with 10% labeled data, demonstrating a superior boundary adherence capability for complex tumor structures. The consistent

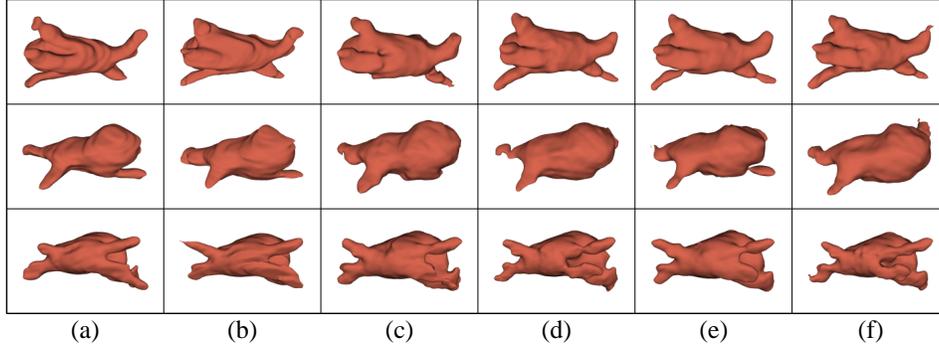


Figure 4: Visualization of segmentation results on the LA dataset with 10% labeled data. (a) Ground-truth. (b) Ours results. (c) BCP results. (d) SS-Net results. (e) MC-Net results. (f) DTC results.

performance gains validate the effectiveness of our proposed hierarchical knowledge distillation and dynamic loss weighting strategy in handling ambiguous tumor margins.

**Results on PROMISE12 Dataset.** We also perform experiments on the PROMISE12 dataset with 20% labeled ratio against CCT [58], URPC [51], SS-Net [31], SLC-Net [59], SCP-Net [60], BCP [30], and ABD [28], as well as ABD with 10% labeled ratio. Detailed results are shown in the Appendix.

## 5.2 Ablation Studies

We conduct ablation studies to evaluate the impact of key components in our method, including combinations of knowledge distillation losses, the ratios of  $\lambda_{emb}$  and  $\lambda_{logit}$  (Eq (6)), fine-tuning the student model, and the proposed DLW strategy. All experiments here are performed on the LA dataset, with ablation results on other datasets provided in the Appendix.

Table 3: Ablation study on combinations of knowledge distillation losses.

Embedding Logit		Scans used		Metrics			
loss	loss	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC $\uparrow$	Jaccard $\uparrow$	95HD $\downarrow$	ASD $\downarrow$
$\checkmark$				81.72	70.92	23.24	6.24
	$\checkmark$	4(5%)	76(95%)	88.07	79.00	10.73	2.82
$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$			<b>88.42</b>	<b>79.47</b>	<b>8.15</b>	<b>2.65</b>
	$\checkmark$			84.53	75.18	11.75	3.57
$\checkmark$		8(10%)	72(90%)	90.19	82.26	6.64	2.02
$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$			<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>

Table 4: Ablation study on ratios of  $\lambda_{emb}$  and  $\lambda_{logit}$  with 10% labeled data.

		Metrics			
$\lambda_{emb}$	$\lambda_{logit}$	DSC $\uparrow$	Jaccard $\uparrow$	95HD $\downarrow$	ASD $\downarrow$
1/4	3/4	90.28	82.39	6.70	2.03
1/3	2/3	<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>
1/2	1/2	90.25	82.35	6.81	2.13
2/3	1/3	89.92	81.86	6.95	2.14
3/4	1/4	89.38	80.94	9.24	2.94

Table 5: Effectiveness of fine-tuning in the student model.

Method	Scans used		Metrics			
	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC $\uparrow$	Jaccard $\uparrow$	95HD $\downarrow$	ASD $\downarrow$
w/o fine-tune			86.57	76.73	9.95	3.08
w/ fine-tune	4(5%)	76(95%)	<b>88.42</b>	<b>79.47</b>	<b>8.15</b>	<b>2.65</b>
w/o fine-tune			88.90	80.19	7.05	2.30
w/ fine-tune	8(10%)	72(90%)	<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>

Table 6: Effectiveness of the proposed DLW strategy.

Method	Scans used		Metrics			
	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC $\uparrow$	Jaccard $\uparrow$	95HD $\downarrow$	ASD $\downarrow$
w/o DLW			88.00	78.94	<b>8.10</b>	2.67
w/ DLW	4(5%)	76(95%)	<b>88.42</b>	<b>79.47</b>	8.15	<b>2.65</b>
w/o DLW			90.02	81.97	7.04	2.25
w/ DLW	8(10%)	72(90%)	<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>

**Different Knowledge Distillation Losses.** Table 3 examines the effectiveness of different combinations of knowledge distillation losses, including embedding loss and logit loss, to evaluate their contributions. The results reveal that the logit loss plays a critical role, as it closely aligns with the supervised information and directly impacts the evaluation metrics. Using the embedding loss alone shows weaker performance, while the logit loss alone yields noticeable improvements. However, combining both losses significantly enhances segmentation performance. These findings highlight the complementary roles of embedding loss, which enables the student encoder to learn semantic knowledge of image-dense features and spatially structured relationships from the teacher encoder, and logit loss, which leverages the supervised alignment output to better align with the teacher.

**Effect of Balancing Embedding and Prediction Losses.** To explore the impact of different weight ratios between embedding loss and logit loss, we conduct an ablation study with 10% labeled data, as

Table 7: Comparisons with SAM-assisted semi-supervised segmentation methods on the LA dataset.

Method	Scans used		Metrics				Scans used		Metrics			
	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓	Labeled	Unlabeled	DSC↑	Jaccard↑	95HD↓	ASD↓
SemiSAM [11]			80.42	68.05	18.23	5.16			84.45	73.75	14.56	3.31
UP-SAM [62]			84.06	72.90	13.78	3.14			-	-	-	-
SFR [12]	4(5%)	76(95%)	87.95	78.83	9.23	2.89	8(10%)	72(90%)	89.99	81.93	7.07	2.04
Ours			<b>88.42</b>	<b>79.47</b>	<b>8.15</b>	<b>2.65</b>			<b>90.47</b>	<b>82.71</b>	<b>6.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>

Table 8: Comparisons with SOTA prompt-free medical SAM variants on the Synapse dataset with 10% labeled data.

Method	Params	Aorta	Gallbladder	Kidney(L)	Kidney(R)	Liver	Pancreas	Spleen	Stomach	Metrics	
										DSC↑	95HD↓
SAM Adapter [5]	131.5M	66.74	22.38	66.77	68.38	89.69	26.76	72.42	53.15	58.29	54.22
AutoSAM [40]	112.5M	75.19	24.87	76.53	77.44	88.06	34.58	68.80	52.70	62.27	31.67
SAMed [6]	108.8M	78.72	63.15	82.62	<b>82.25</b>	92.72	52.12	85.82	67.20	75.58	23.02
H-SAM [42]	112.3M	79.65	59.76	82.71	82.14	91.73	47.48	<b>86.35</b>	<b>75.31</b>	75.68	21.34
Ours	10.1M	<b>86.58</b>	<b>67.22</b>	<b>83.23</b>	79.04	<b>93.00</b>	<b>57.08</b>	86.18	75.05	<b>78.42</b>	<b>17.87</b>

shown in Table 4. The results indicate that the balance between the two losses significantly affects segmentation performance. When the ratio  $\lambda_{emb} : \lambda_{logit}$  is set to 1/3 : 2/3, the best performance is achieved. However, as  $\lambda_{emb}$  increases, a noticeable decline in performance is observed, with DSC dropping from 90.47% to 89.38% at 3/4 : 1/4. This indicates that overemphasizing the embedding loss undermines the contribution of the logit loss, which is more aligned with the supervised signals.

**Fine-tuning in Student.** Motivated by [61], we apply fine-tuning to the student model prior to semi-supervised learning. This step helps the student better adapt to the target task by leveraging labeled data for initial optimization, creating a more robust foundation for knowledge distillation. As shown in Table 5, fine-tuning reliably improves performance across all metrics, with significant gains observed in DSC and Jaccard scores. These results highlight the importance of initializing the student model with task-specific knowledge, which enhances its capacity to benefit from the subsequent semi-supervised learning process.

**Dynamic Loss Weighting Strategy.** In this work, we propose the DLW strategy to mitigate the potential over-reliance of the student model on the fixed outputs of the teacher model. To validate its effectiveness, we perform ablation experiments to evaluate its impact on segmentation performance. As shown in Table 6, incorporating DLW consistently enhances the results. For 5% labeled data, DLW improves the DSC to 88.42% and slightly reduces the ASD to 2.65. Similarly, for 10% labeled data, it significantly decreases the ASD from 2.25 to 1.97. By dynamically adjusting the weight of the distillation loss during training, DLW allows the student model to initially leverage the teacher’s guidance while gradually shifting focus toward self-learning. This adaptive mechanism supports effective utilization of unlabeled data and contributes to better generalization.

### 5.3 Comparisons with SAM-assisted Semi-supervised Methods

In this work, we directly use SAM as the backbone network with a default embedding and design a novel knowledge distillation-based learning strategy. Therefore, we also conduct quantitative experiments on the LA dataset to compare the proposed method with three existing SAM-assisted semi-supervised methods: SemiSAM [11], UP-SAM [62], and SFR [12]. It is important to highlight that these methods use SAM as an auxiliary component to a ConvNet backbone for semi-supervised learning, and the outputs from the ConvNet are regarded as the final segmentation maps. As shown in Table 7, our method achieves the best performance, verifying that employing SAM as the segmentation pipeline to unleash its capability yields more substantial benefits than using it as an auxiliary module. This superiority can be attributed to the fact that the ConvNet-centric architectures of existing methods and their provision of unreliable prompts inevitably compromise the inherent segmentation potential of SAM, while our model with prompt-free setting successfully circumvents error accumulation in pseudo-label generation.

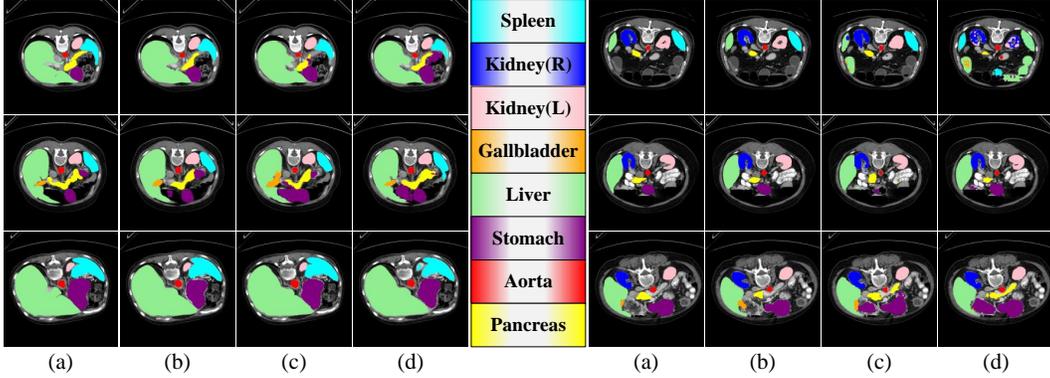


Figure 5: Visualization of segmentation results on the Synapse dataset with 10% labeled data. (a) Groud-truth. (b) Ours results. (c) H-SAM results. (d) SAMed results.

#### 5.4 Comparisons with Prompt-free Medical SAM Variants

For a more comprehensive evaluation, we further compare our method with several prompt-free medical SAM variants, including SAM Adapter [5], AutoSAM [40], SAMed [6], and H-SAM [42], all of which default to the “ViT-B” version. Table 8 shows the quantitative results on the multi-class task using the Synapse dataset with 10% labeled data. For fair comparison, we upsample  $224 \times 224$  CT images to  $512 \times 512$  as input instead of directly using a resolution of  $512 \times 512$ , to maintain consistency with the methods mentioned above. Notably, compared to these fully supervised methods, our method compresses the knowledge of a teacher SAM (equivalent to SAMed) into a student SAM with more than  $10 \times$  fewer parameters, while also effectively leveraging a large amount of unlabeled data. It can be observed that our method consistently outperforms the other methods across the majority of organs, achieving higher segmentation accuracy while significantly reducing inference costs. Moreover, Figure 5 gives some qualitative results where our model yields smoother and more accurate segmentation regions compared to other methods.

## 6 Conclusion

In this work, we explore a better adaptation of SAM in semi-supervised medical image segmentation. Capitalizing on advancements in lightweight SAM techniques, we pioneer its deployment as the backbone network in semi-supervised frameworks to fully leverage its segmentation capability. To address the incompatibility of conventional semi-supervised methods with the SAM backbone, we develop a novel knowledge distillation-based learning strategy that achieves hierarchical distillation by aligning the anatomical semantics of the encoder with the boundary details of the decoder, and incorporates dynamic loss weighting to progressively reduce the distillation intensity for better exploitation of unlabeled data. In this way, the proposed method achieves higher segmentation accuracy while significantly reducing model parameters, enhancing the feasibility of clinical deployment. This work also establishes a new technical paradigm for the practical implementation of foundational models in medical image segmentation.

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