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# SegNeuron: 3D Neuron Instance Segmentation in Any EM Volume with a Generalist Model

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Abstract. Building a generalist model for neuron instance segmentation from electron microscopy (EM) volumes holds great potential to accelerate data processing and analysis in connectomics. However, the diversity in visual appearances and voxel resolutions present obstacles to model development. Meanwhile, prompt-based foundation models for segmentation struggle to achieve satisfactory performance due to the inherent complexity and volumetric continuity of neuronal structures. To address this, this paper introduces SegNeuron, a generalist model for dense neuron instance segmentation with strong zero-shot generalizability. To this end, we first construct a multi-resolution, multi-modality, and multi-species volume EM database, named EMNeuron, consisting of over 22 billion voxels, with over 3 billion densely labeled. On this basis, we devise a novel workflow to build the model with customized strategies, including pretraining via multi-scale Gaussian mask reconstruction, domainmixing finetuning, and foreground-restricted instance segmentation. Experimental results on unseen datasets indicate that SegNeuron not only significantly surpasses existing generalist models, but also achieves competitive or even superior results with specialist models. Datasets, codes, and models are available at https://github.com/yanchaoz/SegNeuron.

Keywords: Connectomics · Neuron Segmentation · Volume Electron Microscopy · Deep Learning · Generalist Model

## 1 Introduction

Efficient and accurate neuron segmentation from electron microscopy (EM) volumes has become a bottleneck that hinders progress in connectomic analysis [\[1,](#page-8-0)[27\]](#page-9-0). Consequently, automatic neuron segmentation methods based on deep neural networks have emerged as a solution, effectively trading computational resources for expert reconstruction time. As shown in Fig.  $1(a)$ , existing methods can be categorized as boundary- and object-based. Specifically, boundary-based



<span id="page-1-0"></span>Fig. 1. Widely adopted pipelines and key challenges in generalist model development.

approaches [\[21,](#page-9-1)[20](#page-9-2)[,28\]](#page-9-3) train models to predict descriptors for neuron boundaries (e.g., affinity maps) and then employ graph-based agglomeration for instance segmentation [\[4,](#page-8-1)[11\]](#page-9-4). In contrast, object-based approaches execute single-neuron filling by extending the trace area from the seed points iteratively [\[16,](#page-9-5)[26\]](#page-9-6). While effective, these methods suffer from poor model generalization, which requires repetitive annotation, training, inference, and proofreading for new datasets.

Such cumbersome workflow could be streamlined and expedited with a generalist model that robustly determines the instance-level belonging of each voxel in any EM volume. Nonetheless, the diverse visual appearances and voxel resolutions present in EM data, as illustrated in Fig. [1\(](#page-1-0)b), due to variations in species, tissues, sample preparation protocols, and imaging techniques [\[25,](#page-9-7)[15,](#page-9-8)[27,](#page-9-0)[36\]](#page-10-0), pose challenges in model development. Recently, visual foundation models via prompt engineering have garnered significant attention for segmentation tasks of natural and biomedical images [\[18,](#page-9-9)[2,](#page-8-2)[22\]](#page-9-10). While they seem to seamlessly integrate into instance-based pipelines, the complexity of neural structures and the homogenization of EM images bring difficulties in identifying neuron instances. More importantly, those 2D models fail to tackle the extensive neuron splitting and merging in 3D space. Fortunately, neuronal membranes exhibit consistent characteristics across datasets, making it possible to develop a generalist model to predict boundary descriptors (i.e., affinity maps) for 3D neuron reconstruction.

In this paper, we introduce SegNeuron, a boundary-based neuron segmentation model, generalized across diverse data distributions and spatial resolutions. Such strong adaptability hinges on a large-scale database and customized training strategies (see Fig. [2\)](#page-2-0). Specifically, we construct a heterogeneous and nonreductant volumetric EM dataset, *i.e.*, **EMNeuron**, containing over 22 billion voxels in total. Combining publicly labeled datasets with crowdsourced annotations, we get fine-grained instance-level annotations of over 3 billion voxels after preprocessing. On this basis, we introduce a Gaussian noise addition-recovery proxy task for model pretraining. This novel technique builds mask reconstruction without distribution distortion in a multi-scale manner, enabling robust representation learning from unlabeled EM volumes. Moreover, the HOG feature is employed as an additional target to enhance the extraction of high-frequency features. The pretrained model is then finetuned on the labeled dataset to predict affinity maps. To prompt general feature extraction, we introduce frequency



<span id="page-2-0"></span>Fig. 2. A large-scale database and customized training strategies for SegNeuron.

and spatial domain mixing to generate training data with style-augmented appearances and mixed voxel resolutions. Finally, we restrict predicted affinities via foreground masks to remove noisy values for graph-based segmentation.

Qualitative and quantitative results illustrate the superior performance and strong generalizability of SegNeuron on both in- and out-of-distribution datasets. All key components are proven effective through extensive ablation studies.

### 2 Method

In the paper, we aim to train a generalist model for neuron segmentation, capable of predicting voxel affinities along the  $x$ -,  $y$ -, and  $z$ -axes for any EM volume. Here, we provide a formal definition of affinity maps. For a given EM image  $I \in \mathbb{R}^{D\times H\times W}$ , the three-channel affinity map  $A \in \{0,1\}^{3\times D\times H\times W}$  used to characterize neuron boundaries is generated from dense instance annotations  $G \in \mathbb{N}^{D \times H \times W}$ . Each affinity value indicates whether two adjacent voxels belong to the same object along the  $x/y/z$  axis (1 for belonging and 0 for not). Furthermore, the foreground mask is denoted by  $F \in \{0,1\}^{D \times H \times W}$ , where 1 represents the neuronal region and 0 represents the plasma membrane and myelin in G.

## 2.1 Database Construction

EMNeuron integrates 16 volume EM datasets (4 in-house, 12 publicly available), covering diverse species, sample preparation protocols, imaging techniques, and voxel resolutions. Detailed information is shown in Table [1](#page-3-0) and Fig. [2\(](#page-2-0)a). Dataset

<span id="page-3-0"></span>Table 1. Details of EMNeuron. Underlined items represent in-house datasets.

Dataset	Modality	Res. $(nm)$ Total Labeled Dataset $(x, y, z)$ voxels voxels Dataset			Modality $\frac{\text{Res.}(nm)}{(x, y, z)}$ voxels voxels			
1.ZFinch[19]	<b>SBF-SEM</b>	9,9,20		3635M 131M 9.HBrain[25] FIB-SEM		8,8,8	3072M 844M	
2.ZFish[23]	<b>SBF-SEM</b>	9,9,20		1674M -  10.FIB25[29]FIB-SEM		8,8,8	312M 312M	
3.vEM1	<b>ATUM-SEM</b>	8,8,50		$1205M$ 157M $ 11.M$ innie $ 7 $ ssTEM		8,8,40	2096M	$\sim$ $-$
4. vEM2	<b>ATUM-SEM</b>	8,8,30		1329M 281M 12.Pinky[10]	ssTEM	8.8.40	1165M 117M	
5.vEM3	<b>ATUM-SEM</b>	8,8,40		1301M 253M 13.FAFB[36]	ssTEM	8,8,40	2625M 577M	
6. MitoEM[32] $ATUM-SEM$ 8,8,30			1048M -	14.Basil[7]	ssTEM	8,8,40	23M	23M
7.H01[27]	$ATUM-SEM$	8,8,30		$1166M$ 118M $ 15.Harris 12 $	others	6,6,50	30M	30M
8.Kasthuri[17] $ATUM-SEM$ 6,6,30				1526M 478M  16.vEM4	others	8,8,20	45M	45M

1∼13 is used for model development, and 14∼16 for evaluation. Notably, the overall size of most datasets reaches the petabyte level, making it impractical to utilize all for training. Therefore, we first select representative and informative unlabeled areas from each dataset and integrate them with the labeled parts to construct our dataset. To avoid ambiguous feature learning caused by inconsistent annotation styles, we conduct comprehensive data cleaning and transforming, which includes adjusting tangential resolutions  $(x, y)$  to 6∼9 nm, unifying membrane thickness, and masking out unlabeled myelin and glial regions.

#### 2.2 Model Training

Pretraining via Multi-scale Gaussian Mask Reconstruction Mask reconstruction is a well-established proxy task that learns general representations from large-scale unlabeled data. The key is to design appropriate masking strategies for EM data to eliminate information from the input. Transformer-based models make this easy by directly deleting selected patches or replacing them with mask tokens [\[14](#page-9-17)[,33\]](#page-10-2). However, given the diverse resolutions and highly differentiated structures in EM datasets, operating in a single-scale manner with a fixed patch size limits the network's ability to capture boundary information at different levels. Another straightforward idea is to set masked pixels to zero/mean value. Unfortunately, this process leads to global statistics distortion and severe distribution changes between original and masked EM input.

To address these issues, we propose an architecture-agnostic masked image modeling framework tailored for volumetric EM datasets: masking voxels with random Gaussian noise in a multi-scale manner, as shown in Fig.  $2(c)$ . Specifically, we first partition input data equally into 3D spatial patches. The patch size is randomly generated based on input dimensions, prompting the network to learn multi-scale representations from the EM database with a diverse voxel resolution. Patches for masking are chosen randomly according to the masking ratio, and their pixel values are replaced with random values drawn from a Gaussian distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$  that matches the grayscale distribution of the original input. This strategy effectively alleviates global statistics distortion in masked inputs and prompts better modeling of local low-frequency information. The masked input is then fed into the network consisting of an encoder E and two decoders  $D_1, D_2$ , as in Fig. [2\(](#page-2-0)b).  $D_1$  is utilized to reconstruct the original input. For  $D_2$ , we adopt the histogram of oriented gradients (HOG) [\[8\]](#page-8-4) as an additional prediction target, which proved to be effective in extracting high-frequency features [\[31,](#page-10-3)[6\]](#page-8-5). The overall loss function  $\mathcal{L}^{pre}$  can be expressed as

$$
\mathcal{L}^{pre} = \mathcal{L}_{Rec}^{pre} + \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{Hog}^{pre} = \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(E(D_1(\tilde{I}, I))) + \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(E(D_2(\tilde{I}, H))), \quad (1)
$$

where  $\tilde{I}$  represents the masked input, H is the calculated HOG feature,  $\mathcal{L}_{MSE}$ denotes mean squared error loss, and  $\lambda_1$  is the weight coefficient.

Domain-mixing Finetuning As illustrated in Fig. [2\(](#page-2-0)b), we first initialize the encoder  $E$  in the segmentation network with pretrained weights. Subsequently, the entire model is finetuned in a supervised manner on a high-quality, heterogeneous EM database with diverse visual appearances and voxel resolutions.

To encourage learning of generalized knowledge for neuron affinities and avoid overfitting to dataset-specific biases, we introduce two customized mixing strategies in the frequency and spatial domains respectively (Fig.  $2(c)$ ). In the frequency domain, the amplitude spectrum represents low-level features such as texture and appearance, while the phase spectrum captures higher-level content such as shape and boundary. Hence, for each layer of the 3D input, we preserve the phase spectrum and replace the low-frequency amplitude component with that of the sampled auxiliary input, determined by frequency mixing ratio  $\beta_1$ . This operation preserves discriminative boundary information while significantly enriching the style and texture of the training data [\[34\]](#page-10-4). In the spatial domain, we extend CutMix [\[35\]](#page-10-5) to the neuron segmentation task, generating new inputs with mixed semantic content based on spatial mixing ratio  $\beta_2$ . Consequently, we integrate data with diverse appearances and voxel resolutions into a unified input, which forces the network to extract domain-invariant features of affinity relationships. During training, we predict both neuron affinities and foreground masks for those mixed inputs via two decoders of the segmentation network, denoted as  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The supervised loss function  $\mathcal{L}^{sup}$  is given by

$$
\mathcal{L}^{sup} = \mathcal{L}_{Aff}^{sup} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{Fg}^{sup} = L_{CE}(E(S_1(\hat{I}, A))) + \lambda_2 L_{CE}(E(S_2(\hat{I}, F))), \quad (2)
$$

where  $\hat{I}$  is the mixed input,  $L_{CE}$  denotes the cross entropy loss, and  $\lambda_2$  denotes the weight assigned to the foreground segmentation task.

Foreground-restricted Segmentation To mask noise values, we filter background voxels in each channel of the predicted affinity map  $a$  using the predicted foreground mask f, as  $a_{c,d,h,w}^r \equiv \min(a_{c,d,h,w}, f_{d,h,w})$ . Such foreground-restricted affinity map  $a^r$  then serves as input for graph-based segmentation (Fig. [2\(](#page-2-0)b)).

### 3 Experiments

#### 3.1 Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

We employ the vEM4  $(8, 8, 20 \text{ nm}, \text{in-house})$ , Basil  $(8, 8, 40 \text{ nm}, \text{public})$  [\[7\]](#page-8-3), and Harris  $(6, 6, 50 \text{ nm}, \text{ public})$  [\[12\]](#page-9-15) datasets for **out-of-distribution** evaluation,

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	vEM4		<b>Basil</b>		Harris			
Architectures	$\text{Parameters}/$ <b>FLOPs</b>	Pretraining schemes	$VI \downarrow$	ARE $\downarrow$	VI 1	$ARE \downarrow$	$VI \downarrow$	$ARE \downarrow$
UNETR[13]	115M/ 334G	from scratch SimSiam[5] MAE[14] Ours	1.1190 1.1059 1.0829	0.1490 0.1492 0.1391 1.0493 0.1369 1.8002 0.4182 2.8000 0.2877	1.8955 1.8446	0.4489 0.4161 1.8145 0.4130	3.0017 2.8935 2.9475	0.3209 0.2734 0.3032
SwinUNETR[30]	62M/ 197G	from scratch SimSiam[5] Ours	1.0944	0.1679 $1.0825$ 0.1624 1.0748 0.1628 1.4662 0.3131 2.4239 0.2252		1.5552 0.3509 1.5092 0.3562	2.5673 2.5210	0.2736 0.2367
$PNI-Net[21]$	33M/ 317G	from scratch SimSiam[5] Ours	0.9984 0.9804	0.1480 0.1393 0.9674 0.1295 0.8479 0.1647 0.8314 0.0934	0.9018 0.8878	0.1782 0.1765	0.9615 0.8316	0.1319 0.1052
MNet[9]	40M/ 471G	from scratch Ours(SegNeuron)	0.9096	0.1211 0.8655 0.1022 0.7719 0.1531 1.0221 0.1170	0.8437	0.1543	1.0788	0.1244

<span id="page-5-0"></span>Table 2. Qualitative results of different network architectures and pretraining schemes.

which are unseen during model development and exhibit different appearances and voxel resolutions. Additionally, we reserve a small portion of the labeled database for **in-distribution** evaluation, including two annotated subvolumes from FIB25  $(8, 8, 8, nm, public)$  [\[29\]](#page-9-13), a proofread subvolume from Kasthuri  $(6, 6, ...)$ 30 nm, public) [\[17\]](#page-9-16), and two proofread subvolumes cropped from the FAFB (8, 8, 40 nm, public) [\[36\]](#page-10-0). Two common voxel-level metrics are used to evaluate the reconstruction performance: the variation of information (VI) [\[24\]](#page-9-20) and adapted Rand error (ARE) [\[3\]](#page-8-7). Lower values in both metrics indicate higher segmentation quality, with the background being ignored during evaluation.

#### 3.2 Implementation Details

We optimize all models using Adam with a learning rate of 1e-3, and a batch size of 8 for 400,000 iterations on 4 NVIDIA RTX V100 GPUs. Skip connections are disabled during pre-training. Instance results are obtained by solving the multicut problem with the Kernighan-Lin solver [\[4\]](#page-8-1). The masking ratio ranges between 0.5 and 0.7, and the mixing ratios  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  are 0.005 and 0.5. The weighting coefficient  $\lambda_1$  in pretraining and  $\lambda_2$  in finetuning are set to 5 and 1. The following data augmentation is used in finetuning: reflection, rotation, photometric perturbation, Gaussian noise/blur, Cutout, and anisotropic scaling. Please refer to the supplementary material and released codes for more details.

#### 3.3 Results

Network Architectures and Pretraining Schemes For architecture, we consider the following alternatives in volumetric segmentation: UNETR [\[13\]](#page-9-18), a network that adopts Vision Transformer as encoder; SwinUNETR [\[30\]](#page-10-6), a segmentation model leveraging Swin Transformer as encoder; PNI-Net [\[21\]](#page-9-1), a CNN-based model widely used in neuron segmentation; and MNet [\[9\]](#page-9-19), a CNNbased network with mesh architecture. For pretraining schemes, we compare our

Methods		vEM4			Basil	Harris		
		VI↓	$ARE \downarrow$	VI↓	$ARE \downarrow$	VI↓	$ARE \downarrow$	
2D	SAM[18]	2.8579	0.8113	2.3677	0.7881	2.0374	0.5252	
	MicroSAM[2]	3.9972	0.9310	3.3483	0.8891	2.1904	0.5755	
	SegNeuron	0.4028	0.0839	0.6749	0.0922	0.5229	0.1063	
3D	SAM[18]	5.5215	0.8985	4.6624	0.9482	5.1034	0.8538	
	MicroSAM[2]	5.7512	0.9640	4.8111	0.9655	4.4460	0.6566	
	SegNeuron	0.8655	0.1022	0.7719	0.1531	1.0221	0.1170	

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Table 3. Quantitative comparison of the generalist models.



Fig. 3. 2D (top) and 3D (bottom) visual comparison of the generalist models.

<span id="page-6-1"></span>method with MAE [\[14\]](#page-9-17) and SimSiam [\[5\]](#page-8-6). Quantitative results on three out-ofdistribution datasets provided in Table [2](#page-5-0) support the following conclusions: (a) The proposed pretraining method demonstrates effectiveness across various network architectures and achieves consistent improvements over alternative strategies. (b) Transformer-based UNETR struggles to model diverse voxel resolutions and thus exhibits poor performance in affinities segmentation. SwinUNETR alleviates this problem through a heuristic structure, however it still lags behind CNN-based models by a wide margin in performance. (c) Due to the significant anisotropy present in the Harris dataset, PNI-Net with a 2.5D structure shows superior adaptability; Benefiting from a mesh architecture, MNet achieves optimal evaluation results on vEM4 and Basil datasets. In consideration of all factors, we adopt MNet as the architecture for SegNeuron in subsequent experiments.

Comparison with Generalist Models We consider the following generalist models for neuron reconstruction on out-of-distribution datasets: SAM [\[18\]](#page-9-9), a prompt-based foundation model for segmentation, and MicroSAM [\[2\]](#page-8-2), a finetuned version of SAM on EM data. Both methods first perform inference on every layer with grid-point prompts and non-maximum suppression. Then, an overlap-based connection algorithm is used to obtain the instance results in 3D space. Quantitative results in Table [3](#page-6-0) demonstrate that in neuron segmentation, whether in 2D or 3D space, SegNeruon significantly outperforms existing generalist models, i.e., with an average gain of 400% on VI and 600% on ARE. Moreover, visual comparisons are provided in Fig. [3.](#page-6-1) The segmentation results of



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<span id="page-7-0"></span>Fig. 4. Quantitative comparison with specialist models.

SegNeuron exhibit exceptional accuracy and spatial continuity. In contrast, SAM tends to generate false positive predictions in organelles, and while MicroSAM mitigates this after training on EM data, it also introduces more false negatives and even causes a decrease in overall performance. In conclusion, the practical value of SAM and MicroSAM in zero-shot neuron segmentation is limited, whereas SegNeuron effectively bridges this gap with strong generalizability.

Comparison with Specialist Models As shown in Fig. [4\(](#page-7-0)a), SegNeuron achieves competitive segmentation performance with the specialist models on indistribution datasets. This demonstrates that training a generalist model on heterogeneous datasets using the proposed strategies does not cause in-distribution performance degradation. For out-of-distribution evaluations, quantitative results in Fig. [4\(](#page-7-0)b) suggest that SegNeuron can effectively extract general features of neuron boundaries on unseen distributions rather than overfitting the training data. Furthermore, we achieve further performance improvements and obtain the best results on out-of-distribution datasets by finetuning SegNeruon under the same settings. This indicates that SegNeuron can also serve as a powerful foundational model, providing excellent pretraining for new datasets.

	vEM4		Basil		Harris		
	$VI \downarrow$	$ARE \downarrow$	VI ↓	$ARE \downarrow$	$VI \downarrow$	$ARE \downarrow$	
Database	$w/$ preprocessing		0.1241	0.9929 $0.9338$ $0.1217$ 0.9625 $0.1805$ 1.1036 0.1246	0.2288	1.2300	0.1298
Pretraining	zero mask mean mask Gaussian mask Gaussian mask w/o multi-scale Gaussian mask $w/o$ HOG loss	0.9338 0.9377 0.9191 0.9241 0.9119 0.9341	0.1217 0.1173 0.1197 0.1102 0.1168 0.1190	0.9625 0.8644 0.9199 0.8213 0.9029 0.8446	0.1805 0.1854 0.1921 0.1647 0.1713 0.1651	1.1036 1.0888 1.1024 1.0600 1.0940 1.0882	0.1246 0.1107 0.1194 0.1141 0.1306 0.1155
Finetuning	frequency mixing W/ $w/$ spatial mixing spatial & frequency mixing W/	0.9241 0.9031 0.9058 0.8655	0.1102 0.1112 0.1133 0.1022	0.8213 0.7821 0.8208 0.7719	0.1647 0.1544 0.1617 0.1531	1.0600 1.0563 0.9935 1.0221	0.1142 0.1197 0.1126 0.1170
Segmentation	$w$ o foreground restriction	0.8879	$0.8655$ $0.1022$ 0.1056	0.7719 0.8069	0.1531 0.1620	1.0221 1.0414	0.1170 0.1182

<span id="page-7-1"></span>Table 4. Abaltaion study for the generalist model development.

Ablations We validate the effectiveness of key components through ablation experiments on unseen datasets. Results in Table [4](#page-7-1) show that: (a) Our pretraining strategy effectively leverages multi-scale perception and reduces statistics distortion, making it well-suited for neuron segmentation. (b) The mixing strategies in spatial and frequency domains encourage domain-invariant learning and enhance model generalization. (c) Preprocessing and foreground-restricted segmentation significantly improve performance without extra overhead.

## 4 Conclusion

This paper proposes SegNeuron, a neuron instance segmentation model trained on large-scale heterogeneous EM datasets with strong zero-shot generalization capabilities. We believe the released model can significantly simplify existing workflows and accelerate the scientific analysis of connectomics.

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