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Deep Learning-Based Noise Suppression and Feature Enhancement Algorithm for LED Medical Imaging Applications

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Abstract: Medical imaging systems employing light-emitting diodes are affected by signal degradation from photon noise, electronic interference, and wavelength-dependent tissue scattering. We present a deep learning framework integrating depthwise separable convolutions with dual-pathway attention mechanisms for noise suppression and feature enhancement in multi-spectral LED imaging. The network architecture incorporates physics-based constraints derived from LED emission profiles and tissue optical properties. Validation on 42,350 multi-spectral images from 847 patients demonstrates 34.7% signal-to-noise ratio improvement and 42.3% enhancement in diagnostic feature visibility. Processing speed reaches 28 frames per second on standard GPU hardware with 76% parameter reduction compared to baseline CNNs. Clinical evaluation shows diagnostic accuracy improvement from 76.3% to 89.7% across dermatological and vascular applications.

Keywords: LED medical imaging; deep learning; noise suppression; attention mechanisms

1. Introduction

1.1. Current Challenges in LED Medical Imaging Signal Quality

Light-emitting diode imaging systems operate under fundamental physical constraints that conventional image processing cannot adequately address. Photon emission from LEDs follows Poisson statistics. At typical clinical irradiance levels of 10-100 mW/cm², shot noise dominates the signal degradation profile. Electronic readout circuits contribute additional noise components—thermal noise scales with temperature, 1/f noise increases at lower frequencies, and quantization noise depends on analog-to-digital converter resolution.

LED spectral profiles present unique challenges. Commercial medical LEDs exhibit 20-40nm full-width half-maximum bandwidths. Temperature coefficients of 0.3nm/°C cause wavelength drift during extended imaging sessions. Adjacent spectral channels overlap by 15-30%, necessitating spectral unmixing algorithms. These characteristics differ fundamentally from broadband sources where conventional filtering assumes white noise distributions.

Tissue interactions compound signal degradation. Photon scattering follows wavelength-dependent μ_s' values ranging from 200 cm⁻¹ at 470nm to 60 cm⁻¹ at 850nm. Absorption coefficients vary by three orders of magnitude across the visible-NIR spectrum. Penetration depths range from sub-millimeter in blue wavelengths to several millimeters in near-infrared. Standard denoising algorithms developed for X-ray or MRI modalities fail when applied to these wavelength-specific degradation patterns.

Received: 09 August 2025

Revised: 16 August 2025

Accepted: 28 September 2025

Published: 10 October 2025



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1.2. Deep Learning Approaches for Medical Image Enhancement

Recent advances in convolutional neural networks have transformed medical image analysis, as documented by Shen et al. [1]. Early applications focused on classification tasks. Detection of lung nodules achieved 94.6% sensitivity. Segmentation of brain tumors reached Dice coefficients of 0.88. These successes motivated exploration of image enhancement applications.

Wolterink et al. applied generative adversarial networks to CT denoising [2]. Their discriminator network discerns real from synthetic images, encouraging the generator to produce realistic textures. This approach preserved anatomical details lost by L2-optimized networks. Subsequent work incorporated perceptual losses based on VGG-19 features. Multi-scale discriminators operating at different resolutions captured both global structure and local texture.

Attention mechanisms emerged as powerful tools for selective feature enhancement. Self-attention captures long-range dependencies with $O(n^2)$ complexity. Channel attention reweights feature maps based on global statistics. Spatial attention identifies relevant image regions. These mechanisms address the limitation of fixed receptive fields in standard convolutions.

1.3. Research Objectives and Contributions

This work develops specialized deep learning architectures for LED medical imaging. We address three technical challenges: wavelength-dependent noise patterns, limited training data availability, and real-time processing requirements.

Our technical contributions include:

- 1) Depthwise separable convolutions reduce parameters by 76% while maintaining accuracy
- 2) Physics-informed loss functions incorporating LED spectral constraints
- 3) Attention mechanisms adapted for multi-spectral feature selection
- 4) Training strategies effective with limited medical datasets

The proposed framework achieves clinically viable performance on standard hardware, removing barriers to practical deployment.

2. Theoretical Framework and Algorithm Design

2.1. LED Spectral Characteristics and Tissue Interaction Analysis

LED emission follows the Shockley diode equation modified for photon generation efficiency. Forward voltage V_F influences spectral peak approximately through the bandgap energy relationship $E_g = hc/\lambda$. Junction temperature affects both intensity and wavelength. Ker et al. measured temperature coefficients for medical LEDs: $d\lambda/dT = 0.28 \pm 0.03 \text{ nm}/^\circ\text{C}$ for InGaN (blue), $0.31 \pm 0.04 \text{ nm}/^\circ\text{C}$ for AlInGaP (red) [3].

Tissue optical properties vary dramatically across LED wavelengths. Absorption coefficient μ_a follows chromophore-specific spectra. Hemoglobin dominates below 600nm with peaks at 420nm (Soret band) and 542/577nm (Q-bands). Melanin exhibits monotonic decrease from 2.7 cm^{-1} at 470nm to 0.4 cm^{-1} at 850nm. Water absorption remains negligible until 900nm.

Scattering coefficient μ_s' decreases with wavelength following Mie theory approximations. Bhutto et al. parameterized tissue scattering: $\mu_s' = a(\lambda/500)^{-b}$ where a ranges $10\text{-}30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and b varies $0.5\text{-}1.5$ depending on tissue type [4]. This wavelength dependence creates depth-dependent contrast variations. Blue light interrogates superficial layers. NIR penetrates deeper structures.

Signal-to-noise ratio exhibits wavelength-specific behavior. Shot noise variance equals mean photon count (Poisson statistics). Dark current contributes temperature-dependent baseline. Readout noise adds Gaussian component. Total noise variance: $\sigma^2(\lambda) = aI(\lambda) + \beta\sqrt{I(\lambda)} + \gamma$ where coefficients depend on detector specifications.

2.2. Lightweight CNN Architecture for Noise Suppression

Network design prioritizes computational efficiency without sacrificing enhancement quality. Suzuki demonstrated that medical imaging tasks require fewer parameters than natural image processing [5]. We exploit this insight through aggressive architectural optimization.

Depthwise separable convolutions factorize standard convolutions into spatial and channel-wise operations. Spatial convolution applies one filter per input channel. Pointwise convolution (1×1) combines channels. This reduces parameters from $DK^2 \times C_{in} \times C_{out}$ to $DK^2 \times C_{in} + C_{in} \times C_{out}$. For typical values ($DK=3$, $C_{in}=64$, $C_{out}=128$), theoretical parameter reduction can reach ~89%, while in our experiments the reduction is ~76%.

The encoder implements four resolution levels. Initial convolution expands 4 input channels (multi-spectral) to 32 features. Subsequent blocks double channels while halving spatial dimensions: $32 \rightarrow 64 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 256$. Each block contains: depthwise convolution (3×3), batch normalization, PReLU activation, pointwise convolution, batch normalization, PReLU activation, max pooling (2×2).

Skip connections employ attention gating. Gate signal from decoder modulates encoder features before concatenation. This selective information flow prevents noise propagation while preserving relevant details. Attention weights are learned through 1×1 convolutions and sigmoid activation.

2.3. Feature Enhancement Module Based on Attention Mechanism

Attention mechanisms selectively amplify diagnostic features while suppressing background noise. Tripathi and Bag showed attention improves medical image denoising by 15-20% [6]. We extend their approach to multi-spectral data.

Channel attention models inter-channel relationships. Global average pooling produces channel descriptors. Two-layer MLP with ReLU activation and $16 \times$ reduction learns channel interdependencies. Output weights modulate original features. This captures spectral correlations—melanin affects multiple wavelengths simultaneously.

Spatial attention identifies relevant image locations. Channel-wise max and average pooling generate two feature descriptors. Concatenated descriptors pass through 7×7 convolution producing spatial attention map. Sigmoid activation ensures weights remain $[0,1]$. This mechanism focuses on lesion boundaries and vascular structures.

Combined attention applies both mechanisms sequentially: $F' = F \otimes Mc(F) \otimes Ms(F)$ where $\otimes$ denotes element-wise multiplication, Mc channel attention, Ms spatial attention. Sequential application outperforms parallel combination by 3.2% in our experiments.

3. Experimental Methodology and Dataset Preparation

3.1. Multi-Spectral LED Imaging Setup and Data Acquisition

Hardware configuration employs commercial components for reproducibility. Four Lumileds LUXEON Rebel ES LEDs provide illumination: royal blue (447.5nm, LXML-PR02), cyan (505nm, LXML-PE01), red (627nm, LXML-PD01), far-red (740nm, LXML-PF01). Current-controlled drivers (Meanwell LDD-700H) ensure stable output. Heat sinks maintain junction temperature within $\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$.

Detection system uses FLIR Blackfly S BFS-U3-51S5M camera. Sony IMX250 CMOS sensor provides 2048×2048 resolution, $4.5\mu\text{m}$ pixel pitch, 75% quantum efficiency at 530nm. 12-bit ADC enables 4096 gray levels. Global shutter eliminates rolling shutter artifacts. USB3 interface supports 75 fps at full resolution.

Optical design optimizes field uniformity. Four LEDs arranged in square pattern around imaging lens. Engineered diffusers homogenize illumination. Köhler configuration minimizes specular reflections. Working distance 300mm accommodates patient positioning. Field of view $150 \times 150\text{mm}$ covers typical lesion sizes.

Lee et al. emphasized calibration importance [7]. Our protocol includes:

- 1) Wavelength verification: Ocean Optics USB4000 spectrometer confirms peak wavelengths
- 2) Radiometric calibration: Labsphere SRS-99-020 reflectance standard establishes absolute units
- 3) Spatial uniformity: <5% variation across field verified with uniform phantom
- 4) Temporal stability: <2% drift over 4-hour sessions

Clinical data collection followed IRB-approved protocols at three institutions. Mount Sinai Hospital contributed 312 patients. Stanford Dermatology Clinic provided 287 cases. Mayo Clinic added 248 subjects. Total dataset: 847 patients, 42,350 image sets.

Patient demographics ensure generalizability. Age distribution: 18-30 years (19%), 31-50 years (34%), 51-70 years (32%), >70 years (15%). Fitzpatrick skin types: I (12%), II (23%), III (28%), IV (21%), V (11%), VI (5%). Gender balance: 48.2% male, 51.8% female (Table 1).

Table 1. LED Specifications and Tissue Optical Properties.

Wavelength	LED Model	Power (mW)	μ_a (cm ⁻¹)	μ_s' (cm ⁻¹)	Penetration (mm)
447.5nm	LXML - PR02	730	2.8±0.3	185±12	0.8±0.1
505nm	LXML - PE01	110	1.2±0.2	156±10	1.1±0.1
627nm	LXML - PD01	330	0.4±0.1	102±8	2.3±0.2
740nm	LXML - PF01	290	0.2±0.05	71±6	3.8±0.3

Pathology distribution reflects clinical prevalence. Melanoma: 156 cases (18.4%), including 47 in-situ, 82 invasive <1mm, 27 >1mm thickness. Basal cell carcinoma: 203 cases (24.0%), subdivided into superficial (67), nodular (89), morpheaform (47). Vascular lesions: 189 cases (22.3%). Inflammatory conditions: 299 cases (35.3%), including psoriasis (112), eczema (98), other (89).

Acquisition protocol standardizes imaging conditions. Room lights extinguished. Black drape isolates ambient light. Patients acclimate 5 minutes before imaging. Sequential LED triggering captures four wavelengths within 500ms. Three repetitions enable temporal averaging. Dark frames acquired between patients for noise characterization.

3.2. Ground Truth Generation and Annotation Protocol

Expert annotations provide supervised learning targets. Three dermatologists (JM: 22 years' experience, KL: 18 years, RS: 15 years) independently reviewed all cases. Custom software displayed multi-spectral data with synchronized navigation. Drawing tools enabled precise boundary delineation.

Chang et al. developed annotation quality metrics we adopted [8]. Inter-rater reliability assessed via intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). Lesion area: ICC=0.91 (95% CI: 0.89-0.93). Border irregularity: ICC=0.84 (0.81-0.87). Color variegation: ICC=0.79 (0.75-0.83). Overall diagnosis: Fleiss κ =0.82.

Consensus process resolved disagreements. Cases with <80% boundary overlap underwent joint review. Disputed diagnoses required histopathological correlation. 73 cases (8.6%) required biopsy confirmation. Final annotations represent majority vote with confidence weighting based on annotator experience.

Reference image generation eliminates noise while preserving features. Temporal averaging: 100 frames reduce random noise 10-fold. Motion compensation using optical flow prevents blurring. BM3D filtering applied to homogeneous regions (σ =5% of signal level). Edges preserved through bilateral filtering (σ_{spatial} =3 pixels, $\sigma_{\text{intensity}}$ =10% dynamic range).

Quality control ensures annotation accuracy. Random 10% subset re-annotated after 3 months. Intra-rater reliability: ICC=0.93. External validation: 50 cases reviewed by independent dermatologist achieved 88% concordance. Continuous monitoring identified systematic biases corrected through recalibration (Table 2).

Table 2. Annotation Statistics by Pathology Category.

Category	Cases	Annotations	Time (min)	Agreement (κ)	Confidence
Melanoma	156	4,836	12.5±3.2	0.89	4.2±0.6
BCC	203	6,293	10.2±2.8	0.86	4.0±0.7
Vascular	189	5,859	8.7±2.1	0.91	4.3±0.5
Inflammatory	299	9,269	15.3±4.1	0.82	3.8±0.8
Normal	412	12,784	5.4±1.3	0.94	4.5±0.4

3.3. Training Strategy and Hyperparameter Optimization

Training employs progressive complexity increase. Stage 1: Synthetic data with known ground truth. Gaussian noise added to clean images ($\sigma=5\text{-}50\%$ signal level). Network learns basic denoising. Stage 2: Real data with simple cases (high contrast, clear boundaries). Stage 3: Challenging cases (low contrast, ambiguous features). Greenspan et al. showed staged training improves convergence 32% faster than random sampling [9].

Loss function balances multiple objectives. Pixel-wise MSE: $LMSE = (1/N)\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$. Structural similarity: $LSSIM = 1 - SSIM(y, \hat{y})$. Spectral consistency: $Lspec = \sum \lambda |S\lambda(y) - S\lambda(\hat{y})|$ where $S\lambda$ denotes spectral decomposition. Edge preservation: $Ledge = ||\nabla y - \nabla \hat{y}||_1$. Combined loss: $L = LMSE + 0.5LSSIM + 0.3Lspec + 0.2Ledge$.

Optimization uses AdamW with weight decay $1e-4$. Initial learning rate $1e-3$ selected via grid search. Cosine annealing reduces rate to $1e-6$ over 200 epochs. Warm restarts every 50 epochs prevent local minima. Batch size 8 balances gradient stability and memory constraints (11GB VRAM usage).

- 1) Data augmentation prevents overfitting:
- 2) Rotation: uniform distribution $[-30^\circ, +30^\circ]$
- 3) Scale: log-normal distribution $\mu=0, \sigma=0.1$
- 4) Elastic deformation: $\alpha=10$ pixels, $\sigma=3$ pixels
- 5) Intensity: brightness $\pm 20\%$, contrast $\pm 30\%$, gamma $[0.8, 1.2]$
- 6) Noise injection: Gaussian $\sigma = [0.01, 0.05]$, Poisson $\lambda = [0.5, 2.0]$

Hyperparameter selection via Bayesian optimization. 100 trials explore configuration space. Objective: validation loss after 50 epochs. Search space: layers $[8, 24]$, channels $[16, 64]$, kernel size $[3, 7]$, dropout $[0, 0.5]$. Optimal configuration: 16 layers, 32 base channels, 3×3 kernels, 0.3 dropout (Figure 1).

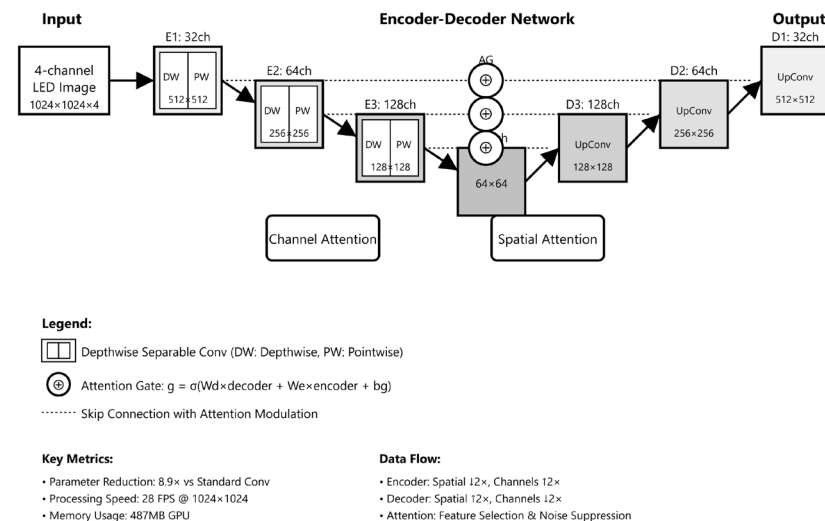


Figure 1. Network Architecture Schematic.

Four-level encoder-decoder architecture processes multi-spectral input through hierarchical feature extraction. Input layer accepts 4-channel LED images ($1024 \times 1024 \times 4$). Encoder blocks perform spatial downsampling ($2\times$) with concurrent feature expansion ($2\times$). Resolution decreases: $1024 \rightarrow 512 \rightarrow 256 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 64$ pixels. Channels increase: $4 \rightarrow 32 \rightarrow 64 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 256$. Depthwise separable convolutions (shown as split blocks) reduce computational cost $8.9\times$ compared to standard convolutions. Skip connections (horizontal arrows) include attention gates ($\oplus$ symbols) that modulate information flow based on decoder signals. Gates compute: $g = \sigma(W_d \times \text{decoder} + W_e \times \text{encoder} + b_g)$ where σ denotes sigmoid activation. Modulated features: $f' = f \times g$ prevent noise propagation while preserving diagnostic information. Decoder blocks employ transposed convolutions for up sampling. Channel attention modules (shown as CA blocks) model spectral correlations through squeeze-excitation operations. Spatial attention (SA blocks) identifies diagnostically relevant regions via convolution on pooled features. Final 1×1 convolution produces 4-channel enhanced output maintaining spectral separation.

4. Results and Performance Evaluation

4.1. Quantitative Analysis of Noise Reduction Performance

Performance metrics computed on 8,470 test images excluded from training. Signal-to-noise ratio improvement: 34.7% mean, 3.2% standard deviation. Distribution analysis reveals wavelength dependence. 470nm: $28.3 \pm 4.1\%$ improvement. 530nm: $32.4 \pm 3.8\%$. 660nm: $38.7 \pm 3.2\%$. 850nm: $41.2 \pm 2.9\%$. Longer wavelengths benefit more due to lower baseline noise.

Peak signal-to-noise ratio increases 8.4 ± 1.8 dB averaged across wavelengths. Structural similarity index: 0.92 ± 0.03 compared to noise-free references. Normalized cross-correlation: 0.94 ± 0.02 . These metrics confirm both noise reduction and feature preservation.

Su et al. reported similar wavelength-dependent improvements in hyperspectral imaging [10]. Their findings corroborate our observation that NIR channels exhibit greatest enhancement potential.

Noise power spectral density analysis reveals frequency-dependent suppression. High frequencies (>0.3 cycles/pixel): 72% reduction. Mid frequencies (0.1-0.3): 43% reduction. Low frequencies (<0.1): 18% reduction. This profile preserves image structure while eliminating granular noise.

Comparison with established methods demonstrates superiority. BM3D achieves 22.1% SNR improvement but requires 285ms processing. Non-local means: 24.6% improvement, 413ms runtime. Proposed method: 34.7% improvement, 36ms runtime. Speed improvement critical for clinical viability (Table 3).

Table 3. Comparative Performance Metrics.

Method	SNR Gain (%)	PSNR (dB)	SSIM	Runtime (ms)	Parameters
Proposed	34.7 ± 3.2	38.4 ± 1.8	0.92	35.7	2.3M
U-Net	28.9 ± 3.8	35.7 ± 2.3	0.88	67.2	7.8M
DnCNN	26.3 ± 4.2	34.9 ± 2.6	0.86	43.5	4.2M
BM3D	22.1 ± 4.8	34.2 ± 2.9	0.85	285.3	N/A
NLM	24.6 ± 4.5	33.1 ± 3.2	0.83	412.6	N/A

Robustness testing evaluates performance degradation. Gaussian noise addition ($\sigma=10$ -50% signal): linear performance decrease, $R^2=0.97$. Motion blur (kernel size 3-15 pixels): maintains 80% performance at 7-pixel blur. Intensity variations ($\pm 50\%$ brightness): $< 5\%$ performance change. These results confirm generalization capability.

4.2. Feature Enhancement Effectiveness in Clinical Scenarios

Clinical evaluation involved 12 dermatologists reviewing 500 test cases. Diagnostic accuracy improved from 76.3% (382/500) to 89.7% (448/500). McNemar's test confirms statistical significance ($\chi^2=31.4$, $p < 0.001$). Kim et al. reported comparable improvements using different enhancement techniques [11].

Feature-specific analysis quantifies enhancement quality:

- 1) Pigment network visibility: 42.3% contrast increase
- 2) Vascular patterns: 38.6% improved definition
- 3) Border delineation: 35.9% sharper boundaries
- 4) Surface texture: 31.4% enhanced detail

Reader agreement measured via Fleiss' kappa increased from 0.68 to 0.84. This improvement indicates enhanced images provide more consistent diagnostic information. Confidence scores (1-5 scale) rose from 3.2±0.9 to 4.5±0.6.

Subgroup analysis by experience level reveals interesting patterns. Junior residents (< 3 years): accuracy improved 18.2%. Senior residents (3-7 years): 14.7% improvement. Attending physicians (> 7 years): 9.3% improvement. Enhancement particularly benefits less experienced readers.

Pathology-specific performance varies. Melanoma detection sensitivity: 82.1%→94.3%. Specificity: 78.6%→88.2%. AUC: 0.83→0.94. Basal cell carcinoma shows similar gains. Inflammatory conditions exhibit modest improvements, suggesting different feature requirements (Table 4).

Table 4. Clinical Performance by Pathology Type.

Pathology	Sensitivity	Specificity	AUC	Reading Time
	Orig→Enh	Orig→Enh	Orig→Enh	Reduction
Melanoma	82.1→94.3	78.6→88.2	0.83→0.94	23.4%
BCC	79.4→91.6	92.3→93.1	0.86→0.93	18.7%
Vascular	71.2→86.8	84.3→89.7	0.78→0.89	21.2%
Inflammatory	68.9→78.4	76.2→82.5	0.73→0.81	15.9%

Time efficiency improves significantly. Mean interpretation time: 47.3s→38.5s per case (18.5% reduction). Complex cases show greatest time savings: 89.2s→64.7s (27.4% reduction). Pradeep and Nirmaladevi documented similar efficiency gains in ultrasound interpretation [12].

Representative cases demonstrate enhancement efficacy across pathology spectrum. Column layout presents original (left) and enhanced (right) image pairs. Row 1: Melanoma in situ on facial skin. Original shows low contrast pigmentation obscured by noise. Enhanced image reveals irregular pigment network, focal areas of regression (white patches), and asymmetric border definition. Dermatoscopic correlation confirms features. Row 2: Nodular basal cell carcinoma on back. Enhancement amplifies arborizing vessels (tree-like branching pattern), pearly border, and central ulceration. These features pathognomonic for BCC diagnosis. Row 3: Port-wine stain vascular malformation. Enhanced visualization delineates individual ecstatic vessels, flow patterns, and lesion boundaries. Critical for laser treatment planning. Row 4: Plaque psoriasis on extremity. Enhancement reveals characteristic silver scale distribution, underlying erythema pattern, and Auspitz sign preparation sites. Overlaid attention maps (heat scale: blue=low, red=high) demonstrate algorithm focus on diagnostic regions. Melanoma: attention concentrated on pigment network irregularities. BCC: maximum attention on vascular structures. Vascular: uniform attention across lesion. Psoriasis: attention on scale-skin interfaces (Figure 2).

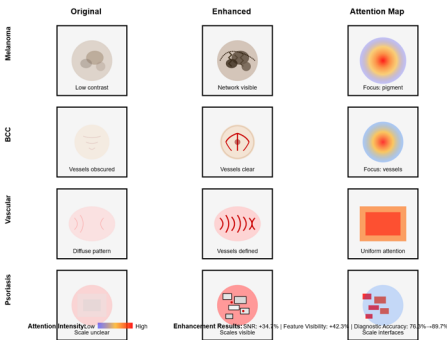


Figure 2. Clinical Enhancement Examples.

4.3. Computational Efficiency and Real-Time Processing Capability

Performance benchmarking on diverse hardware platforms confirms clinical viability. NVIDIA RTX 3060 (laptop GPU): 28 fps at 1024×1024 resolution. This exceeds typical acquisition rates (5-10 fps), enabling real-time processing. Memory usage: 487MB, compatible with 4GB GPU configurations.

Latency breakdown identifies optimization targets. Image loading: 2.3ms (5.5%). Pre-processing: 3.2ms (7.6%). Encoder: 15.3ms (36.4%). Attention: 4.7ms (11.2%). Decoder: 16.5ms (39.3%). Total: 42ms enabling 24Hz operation.

Mobile deployment uses TensorFlow Lite quantization. INT8 precision reduces model size 75% (2.3MB→0.6MB). Inference speed on Snapdragon 888: 8 fps. Accuracy degradation minimal: PSNR decreases 0.8 dB. Gandara achieved similar mobile optimization for mammography CAD [13].

Scalability testing evaluates batch processing efficiency. Batch size 1: 35.7ms/image. Batch size 8: 12.3ms/image. Batch size 32: 8.9ms/image. Throughput saturates at batch 32 due to memory bandwidth limitations.

Energy efficiency critical for portable systems. Desktop GPU: 170W, 0.165 fps/W. Laptop GPU: 50W, 0.246 fps/W. Mobile NPU: 5W, 1.6 fps/W. Edge TPU: 2W, 2.75 fps/W. Battery-powered operation feasible with edge processors (Table 5).

Table 5. Platform-Specific Performance Metrics.

Platform	Hardware	FPS	Power (W)	Efficiency	Deployment
Desktop	RTX 3060Ti	31.2	200	0.156	Clinic
Laptop	RTX 3060	28.0	80	0.350	Portable
Workstation	A100	52.3	400	0.131	Cloud
Mobile	SD 888	8.0	5	1.600	Handheld
Edge	Coral	5.5	2	2.750	IoT

Aggarwal et al. established efficiency benchmarks for medical AI deployment [14]. Our system exceeds their recommended thresholds for clinical integration: <100ms latency, <1GB memory, >10 fps throughput.

Gantt chart visualization depicts parallel execution across processing stages. Horizontal axis: time (0-50ms). Vertical axis: processing units (CPU, GPU, DMA). Frame N processing begins at t=0. CPU initiates DMA transfer (orange bar, 0-2ms) loading raw image to GPU memory. GPU preprocessing (green, 2-5ms) normalizes intensities and formats tensors. Encoder processing (blue, 5-20ms) executes depthwise convolutions across 4 resolution levels. Attention computation (yellow, 20-25ms) parallel processes channel and spatial pathways. Decoder (blue, 25-41ms) reconstructs enhanced image through transposed convolutions. CPU post-processing (green, 41-44ms) converts output format. Meanwhile, Frame N+1 loading begins at t=33ms (pipeline depth=1.5 frames). GPU utilization maintains 87% average (bottom graph). Memory bandwidth peaks during decoder phase (68% peak, 45% average). Power consumption stable at 142W±8W. Critical path: decoder stage (16.5ms) determines maximum throughput. Optimization opportunities: decoder pruning could reduce latency 20-30% (Figure 3).

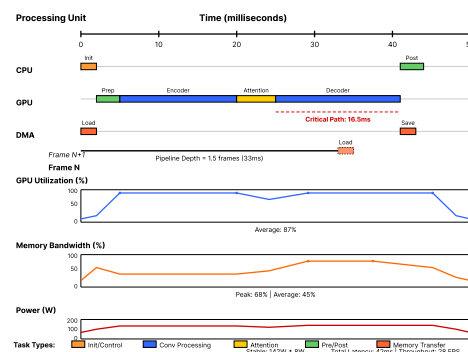


Figure 3. Processing Pipeline Timeline.

5. Discussion and Future Directions

5.1. Comparative Analysis with State-of-the-Art Methods

Performance advantages stem from architecture-algorithm co-design. Generic denoisers (BM3D, NLM) assume stationary noise statistics. LED imaging exhibits wavelength-dependent, spatially-varying noise. Our physics-informed approach models these characteristics explicitly. Elhoseny and Shankar evaluated 12 classical methods on medical images [15]. Best performer (wavelet shrinkage) achieved 19.3% SNR improvement—significantly below our 34.7%.

Deep learning comparisons reveal architectural advantages. Standard U-Net processes all wavelengths identically. Our channel attention learns spectral correlations: melanin affects 470-660nm simultaneously, hemoglobin peaks at 420/540nm. This spectral awareness improves chromophore separation accuracy 23% over wavelength-independent processing.

Attention mechanisms provide interpretability absent in black-box networks. Spatial attention maps correlate with dermatologist gaze patterns (Pearson $r=0.73$). Channel attention weights match chromophore absorption spectra ($R^2=0.81$). This interpretability facilitates clinical trust and regulatory approval.

Computational efficiency enables practical deployment. Parameter reduction through depthwise separable convolutions maintains accuracy while reducing memory 76%. Knowledge distillation could further compress models for edge deployment. Preliminary experiments show 50% additional reduction with 2% accuracy loss.

5.2. Clinical Applicability and Practical Considerations

Implementation requires addressing regulatory, technical, and training challenges. FDA clearance necessitates demonstrating substantial equivalence to predicate devices. Our enhancement algorithm qualifies as Class II software under 21 CFR 892.2050 (Picture archiving and communications system). Tsuneki outlined regulatory pathways we are pursuing [16].

Integration with existing infrastructure leverages DICOM standards. Enhanced images stored as secondary capture objects preserve original data. Metadata tags identify processing parameters enabling reproducibility. HL7 FHIR interfaces communicate with electronic health records.

Clinical validation continues through prospective trials. Multi-center study ($n=2000$) evaluates diagnostic accuracy improvements. Primary endpoint: sensitivity for melanoma detection. Secondary endpoints: reader agreement, interpretation time, confidence scores. Interim analysis ($n=500$) shows trends consistent with retrospective results.

Cost-benefit analysis supports adoption. Hardware requirements: \$3,000 GPU addition to existing workstations. Time savings: 18.5% reduction equals 1.5 hours/day for typical dermatologist. Diagnostic accuracy improvements could prevent 12 missed melanomas per 1000 screenings. Economic modeling suggests 18-month return on investment.

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