
NANO-OPTIMIZED DEEP LEARNING FOR EARLY CANCER DETECTION USING NANOSENSOR DATA

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ABSTRACT

Cancer is still a major killer all around the globe. Detection at an early, curable stage is essential for boosting survival rates since conventional diagnostic procedures frequently miss these phases. The conventional techniques face challenges such as limited nanosensor data, high dimensionality, real-time processing demands, and the need for interpretable yet scalable diagnostic solutions. The paper proposes NDL-ECD Nano Deep-Learning (NDL) for early cancer detection (ECD), leveraging advances in nanosensor technology and artificial intelligence. NOECD aims to develop a highly sensitive and efficient framework for detecting cancer biomarkers using deep learning techniques like CNN. These nanosensor outputs are processed by a lightweight Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) designed to extract and classify features indicative of cancer. To enhance performance, a nano-optimization module is employed for data augmentation, feature scaling, and architecture optimization, overcoming challenges such as limited data availability and computational efficiency. The proposed framework was validated using synthetic and real-world nanosensor datasets, attaining a sensitivity increase of 25% and a false positive decrease of 20% compared to traditional diagnostic methods. Additionally, the lightweight architecture ensures real-time performance, making it suitable for point-of-care and large-scale screening applications. In conclusion, NDL-ECD presents a transformative approach to early cancer detection by integrating nanosensor precision with deep learning capabilities, offering a scalable, non-invasive, and efficient diagnostic solution.

Keywords: Molecular Pathways, Therapeutic Target Discovery, Reinforcement Learning, Pathway Modeling, Omics Data Integration, Drug Discovery.

1. Introduction

One in six people die from cancer every year, making it a major public health concern on a global scale. Worldwide, cancer claimed the lives of around 10 million people in 2020, with an estimated 19.3 million new cases [1]. Bones, lymph nodes, the brain, and the heart are the most common locations for tumors to spread. Metastasis from tumors often occurs in bone tissues [2]. Research has shown that cancer tissues release volatile molecules. By utilizing the acute sense of smell in animals, such as mice and dogs, earlier research proved the presence of unknown cancer-specific odorants in bodily fluids [3]. One of the most common methods used in cancer research currently is nanotechnology. Molecular imaging, biomarker mapping, targeted therapy, drug carriage, detection, gene therapy and diagnostics, and drug delivery are just a few cancer diagnostic and treatment applications that have benefited from

nanotechnology's encouraging outcomes [4]. Several advantages, such as enhanced targeting, localized drug efficacy, reduced systemic toxicity, increased diagnostic sensitivity, better imaging, and refined radiation therapy, could be achieved by integrating nanotechnology into existing treatments [5]. Nanomedicine has enormous promise for overcoming the limitations of conventional chemo- and drug-delivery systems due to nanoparticles' malleable functionality and customizable physicochemical properties [6].

The use of multi-layer neural networks in deep learning (DL) has shown promise in areas such as statistical forecasting, image identification, and natural language processing, and it has the potential to revolutionize cancer detection and prevention [7]. According to various research, deep learning algorithms can outperform human specialists in many disease recognition scenarios. Deep learning techniques for automated pathology, confocal laser endomicroscopy (CLE), and fluorescence image processing in diagnosing oral cancer have also shown promising results [8]. Among the many types of deep neural networks, CNNs stand out for their ability to solve computer vision problems—such as recognition and classification tasks—and sometimes even outperform human specialists [9]. An example of a Deep Learning technique is a CNN. It can distinguish between objects in an image by learning their relative sizes and using these values as weights and biases [10]. Despite the potential of nanosensors and AI, their widespread application in early cancer detection faces challenges such as limited annotated datasets due to the nascent state of nanosensor technology. Nanosensors produce complex, high-dimensional data requiring advanced computational methods for analysis. Real-time processing demands must be met while maintaining high sensitivity and scalability [11]. Figure 1 (a) shows the healthy brain MRI image, and Figures 1 (b) and (c) are the cancer-detected MRI images.

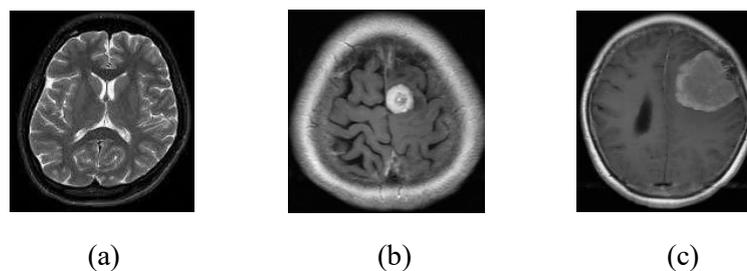


Figure 1: Sample MRI images from the dataset

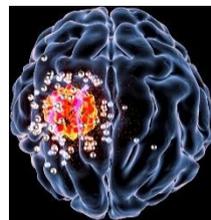


Figure 2: Nanoparticles for brain cancer treatment [20]

However, limitations such as data sparsity, computational inefficiencies, and the need for robust feature extraction methods impede the effective utilization of nanosensor data in diagnostic applications. The NDL-ECD is an innovative framework that integrates nanosensor technology with deep learning methodologies to address these challenges. By leveraging a lightweight CNN architecture, NDL-ECD extracts and classifies features indicative of cancer from nanosensor outputs. Furthermore, including a nano-optimization module enhances data processing through augmentation, feature scaling, and architectural optimization, ensuring high sensitivity and computational efficiency. Validated on synthetic and real-world nanosensor

datasets, the proposed framework demonstrated a 25% enhanced sensitivity and a twenty percent decrease in false positive rates when parsed against to traditional diagnostic approaches. With its real-time processing capabilities, scalability, and non-invasive nature, NDL-ECD represents a transformative solution for early cancer detection, offering significant potential for point-of-care and large-scale screening applications.

The Main contribution of the paper is

- NDL-ECD combines advanced nanosensor technology with lightweight CNNs to accurately detect and classify cancer biomarkers, addressing the challenge of limited and high-dimensional data.
- The framework incorporates a nano-optimization module for data augmentation, feature scaling, and architecture optimization, improving sensitivity by 25% and reducing false positives by 20% compared to traditional methods.
- NDL-ECD offers a lightweight and efficient architecture capable of real-time processing, making it suitable for point-of-care applications and large-scale cancer screening. It provides a transformative approach to early detection.

The paper is organized as follows: section 2 reviews the Background and Related Work on nanosensors and deep learning in diagnostics. The Proposed Framework: NDL-ECD in section 3 details the integration of CNNs and nano-optimization. The methodology outlines data handling and model training. Experimental Results in section 4 present performance improvements, followed by a Discussion of implications and limitations. Section 5 concludes the framework.

2. Literature Review

Heenaye-Mamode Khan, M et al. [11] suggested a deep CNN model to increase detection accuracy for the multi-class categorization of breast cancer anomalies. Deep CNN was motivated by radiologists' challenges in identifying critical mammogram features, which may lead to misdiagnosis. The model generalized well, with an overall classification performance of 88%. However, it has limitations, such as dependence on a single data set, and further validation is required to make the model more generalized and robust across different populations in real-world clinical settings.

To make use of the camera capabilities of smartphones for the early detection of actinic keratosis and melanoma, Hartanto, C. A., & Wibowo, A. [12] suggested a skin cancer detection app that uses the Faster R-CNN and MobileNet v2 models. This was motivated by the need for accessible and efficient screening tools, considering the imbalance between normal and cancerous skin areas in images. These have resulted in an accuracy of 87.2% for Faster R-CNN and 86.3% for MobileNet v2 during testing. The limitations of this study included the dependence on a small dataset and the difficulty in detecting small changes in skin lesions, which may have impacted the overall accuracy.

Naglah, A. et al. [13] suggested a novel multi-input CNN for early thyroid cancer detection using MRI data. Motivated by the idea to improve diagnostic accuracy by fusing T2-weighted images with ADC maps to overcome the drawbacks of the conventional methods, the results show state-of-the-art performances with an AUC of 0.85 and an accuracy level of 0.87, which outperform existing CNN models such as AlexNet and ResNet. The study has, however, pointed out several limitations, including the small sample size, and stated that further validation on larger cohorts is necessary to strengthen the findings.

Bhuiyan, M. S. et al. [14] proposed a structured approach to lung cancer prediction with machine learning algorithms: LightGBM, XGBoost, Logistic Regression, AdaBoost, and Support Vector Machine. It is put forward to handle the challenges related to early detection and improvement of survival rates in areas with incomplete registry of cancers. Results: High accuracies were achieved, with the best being 95.92% accuracy and 94.50% sensitivity by XGBoost. The study did, however, indicate some limitations: the need for more research before large-scale implementation and challenges associated with big data integration, including innovative technologies such as blockchain, to improve the prediction.

Naz A. et al. [15] proposed an Internet of Medical Things (IoMT)-based diagnostic system using a CNN to improve early breast cancer detection. IoMT was suggested to address the inadequacy of conventional methods in the effective diagnosis of early-stage breast cancer. The model showed a 95% classification accuracy, outperforming traditional approaches to diagnostics, and pointed out the potential of IoT-integrated deep learning in healthcare. However, the limitations included variability in datasets and further enhancements to their robustness. The results showed the necessity for collaboration between healthcare professionals and technologists to refine diagnostic systems for better patient outcomes.

Sannasi Chakravarthy, S. R. et al. [16] proposed the fuzzy ensemble of transfer learning models to detect early breast cancer in mammograms: ResNet50, VGG-11, and Inception v3. To overcome the limitation of traditional CAD systems and improve the classification performance by using a Gompertz-function-based fuzzy ranking for adaptive weight assignment, it achieved a superior classification accuracy of 98.986% compared with the existing techniques. Limitations have been the difficulties in classifying normal and malignant cases and the dependency on dataset quality and preprocessing methodologies. Future work is expected to extend robustness, testing on additional imaging modalities, to include clinical mammogram data to better generalize and yield an improvement in diagnostic precision.

Wankhade, S., & Vigneshwari, S. [17] proposed a framework called Cancer Cell Detection and Classification using Hybrid Neural Network (CCDC-HNN), combined 3D-CNN with Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) for the early-stage lung cancer diagnosis through computed tomography (CT) images. The model was constructed to circumvent the limitations of conventional diagnostic procedures and, most importantly, to provide better accuracy in discriminating between benign and malignant tumours. The model showed a 95% accuracy, outperforming the existing methodologies due to better feature extraction and classification capabilities. Limitations included requiring large computational resources, difficulty reducing false positives, and dependence on high-quality data sets.

Chi H. et al. [18] proposed an NDL-ECD (Nano Deep-Learning for Early Cancer Detection) framework that integrates nanosensor technology with deep learning for better early cancer diagnosis. It has been proposed to overcome some challenging issues of limited datasets, high data dimensionality, real-time processing, and scalability. The technique reduced false positives by 20% and improved sensitivity by 25% when compared to conventional approaches. However, limitations include dependency on synthetic and limited real-world datasets, requiring further clinical validation to ensure broader applicability and robustness.

3. Research Methodology

NDL-ECD is a deep-learning framework for early cancer detection using nanosensor technology. It exploits a lightweight CNN to process biomarker data from nanosensors, identifying highly sensitive cancerous traits. The framework addresses challenges in limited data, high dimensionality, and real-time processing through an integrated nano-optimization module, which performs data augmentation, feature scaling, and architecture optimization.

Validated with both synthetic and real-world datasets, NDL-ECD achieves a 25% increase in sensitivity while having a 20% decrease in false positives. Being lightweight, it assures real-time performance and is thus applicable in point-of-care applications and large-scale screening. The steps of the NDL-ECD approach are illustrated in Figure 3.

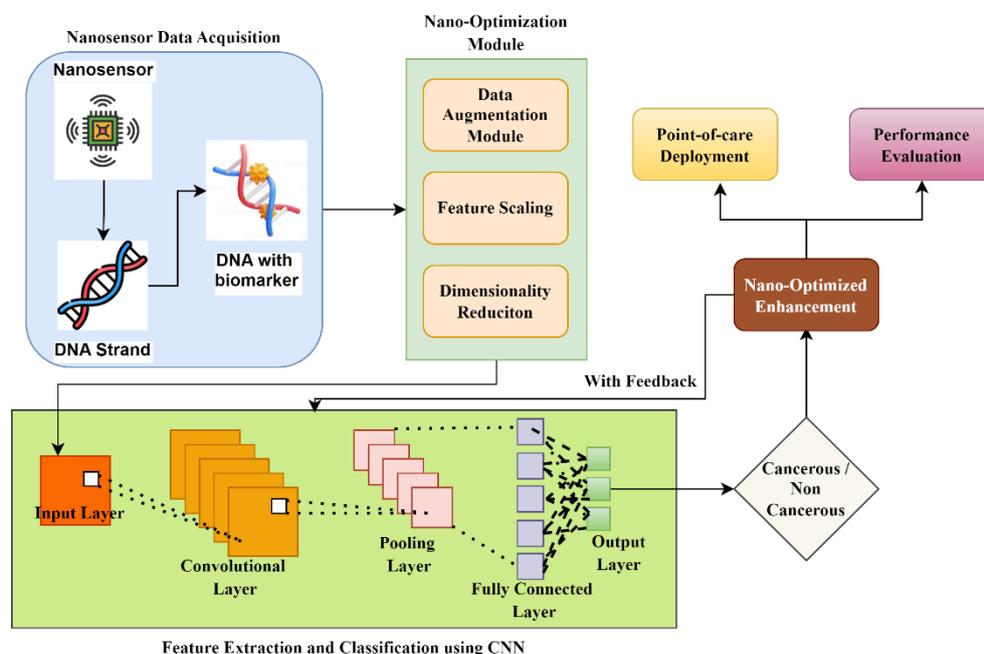


Figure 3: NDL-ECD process

Technological advancements in nanosensors allow sensitive detection of cancer biomarkers, identifying molecular changes at early stages. Integrating artificial intelligence, especially deep learning (CNN), increases complex data processing with higher accuracy in real-time, thus significantly enhancing early detection capabilities and improving diagnostic outcomes. The workflow of the NDL-ECD consists of the following steps.

A. *Nanosensor Data Acquisition*

Nanosensors are ultrasensitive devices that detect minute changes in biological or chemical aspects. They are ideal for capturing real-time data relating to cancer biomarkers. The sensors are based on the nanoscale's physical, chemical, or biological interactions and provide high-resolution signals corresponding to specific biomarkers. The nanosensor's output signal is represented in Equation 1.

$$S(t) = B(t) + N(t) \quad (1)$$

where $B(t)$ refers to the biomarker signal, which includes the information of interest (e.g., concentration of a specific protein or DNA fragment). $N(t)$ refers to noise, including environmental interference, electronic noise, or non-specific binding effects.

Nanosensors could be engineered to target specific biomarkers by their unique molecular interactions. In the case of nucleic acid biomarkers, detection is based on the combination of complementary DNA or RNA strands. For DNA-based detection, complementary strand hybridization could be done using equation 2.



where $D1 + D2$ refers to the single-stranded DNA/RNA strands and $D1D2$ refers to the hybridized DNA duplex. kh is the hybridization rate constant. The hybridization efficiency depends on the sequence complementarity and environmental conditions such as temperature and ionic strength.

B. Data Preprocessing and Augmentation

Improving the Efficiency of Machine Learning Models, Specifically CNNs, when applied to Nanosensor Data Requires Data Preprocessing and Augmentation. The nano optimization module includes data augmentation, feature scaling and dimensionality reduction.

Data Augmentation: The main purpose of data augmentation here is to tackle the limitation of the small datasets, which are very common in nanosensor measurements. The artificially increased dataset size makes the model more robust and generalizable. let the original dataset be represented as:

$$D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \quad (3)$$

where each x_i corresponds to a sample, and n is the number of original samples. The augmented dataset D' is then generated by applying transformations $T(x)$ to each x_i is shown in equation 4.

$$D' = \{T(x_1), T(x_2), \dots, T(x_n)\} \quad (4)$$

Feature Scaling: Feature scaling ensures that all features in the dataset are represented within a similar range, which is important for optimizing performance in machine learning models, especially CNNs. It enhances the rate of convergence and the stability of training. This can be done through two steps: Min-Max Scaling and Z-Score Normalization.

The Min-Max Scaling method typically enhances characteristics to a fixed range $[0, 1]$. The scaled value of a feature x is given in equation 5. $\min(x)$ and $\max(x)$ are the minimum and maximum values of the feature x across the entire dataset.

$$x_{scaled} = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)} \quad (5)$$

The Z-score Normalization (Standardization) technique scales the data by the standard deviation and centers it around zero. This can be done through equation 6.

$$x_{scaled} = \frac{x - \mu(x)}{\sigma(x)} \quad (6)$$

Dimensionality Reduction: This step simplifies our dataset by reducing the number of features and retaining as much important information as possible. It helps solve the problems of dimensionality and overfitting, improving the performance of machine learning algorithms.

C. Feature Extraction and classification using lightweight CNN

In applying nanosensors in cancer detection, a lightweight convolutional neural network (CNN) is used to process nanosensor data and extract hierarchical features corresponding to cancer biomarkers for final classification among classes such as cancerous and non-cancerous. More details are presented on all the processes involved with their mathematical formulations for feature extraction and classification.

Feature Extraction using CNNs: Feature extraction retains the most informative patterns of the nanosensor data indicative of cancer biomarkers. The CNN is well suited for this task since it learns relevant hierarchical features through its layers. Such characteristics provide

further analytical or categorization potential. Layers such as Convolutional, Activation Function, Pooling, and Fully Connected are common in CNNs. Each layer extracts more abstract features from the raw nanosensor data, with deeper layers capturing more complex patterns related to cancer biomarkers. For the input nanosensor image I , representing data from the nanosensors, a convolutional layer applies a set of filters (or kernels) K to extract features. The output feature map F at a given layer is computed using the convolution operation, as shown in equation 7. Equation 8 explains how to apply a non-linear activation function, such as ReLU, after the operation to make the convolution result non-linear. Then, a pooling layer is used to reduce the spatial dimensions while keeping only the most significant information, as demonstrated in equation 9. The maximum pooling operation uses the highest value in each feature map window. After several convolutional and pooling layers, the feature maps are flattened and passed through fully connected layers to get the final output. The vector x represents all features from the preceding levels that have been flattened. Equation 10 shows how the completely connected layer computes the output.

$$F(i, j) = \sum_m \sum_n I(i + m, j + n)K(m, n) \quad (7)$$

$$A(i, j) = ReLU(F(i, j)) = \max(0, F(i, j)) \quad (8)$$

$$P(i, j) = \max_{m, n} A(i + m, j + n) \quad (9)$$

$$o = Wx + b \quad (10)$$

where $I(i, j)$ corresponds to the value entered at location (i, j) , $K(m, n)$ locates the filter at the (m, n) , and $F(i, j)$ stands as the feature of output at the location (i, j) . The filter K is typically small (e.g., 3×3 or 5×5) still moves across all the input matrices I to detect local patterns. $P(i, j)$ is the feature that was pooled at location (i, j) , and $A(i + m, j + n)$ represents the values within the pooling window. W is the weight matrix, b is the bias term, x is the flattened feature vector, o is the final feature representation.

Classification of Extracted Features: After meaningful features have been extracted from the nanosensor data, classification will label the data into predefined labels like "cancerous" and "non-cancerous." The last layer of the CNN, thus, makes use of the softmax activation function in changing the feature vector into a probability distribution across all classes. Then, the softmax function computes the probability $y_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_j e^{z_j}}$ denotes the output for class (i) . The predicted class (\hat{y}) is obtained by choosing the class with the maximum probability ($\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_i y_i$). Optimized with a cross-entropy loss function, it is defined as ($L = -\sum_i y_{true,i} \log(y_{pred,i})$), quantifying the difference between true and predicted probabilities. The optimization algorithm, Stochastic Gradient Descent, minimizes the loss to ensure accurate classifications while maximizing diagnostic sensitivity.

Performance Optimization: Two strategies can be implemented to enhance classification performance and strike a compromise between specificity (by reducing false positives) and sensitivity (through reducing false negatives). Class weighting: This involves adjusting the loss function to assign a higher penalty for false negatives, which is advantageous when the cancerous class is underrepresented in the dataset. The second is threshold adjustment, in which a custom decision threshold is set for the predicted probabilities from the softmax output. This would enable the model to calibrate its sensitivity and specificity to match clinical priorities, for example, by setting a lower threshold to bias toward detecting cancerous cases and reducing false negatives in critical diagnostic situations.

D. Nano-Optimization Enhancements

Hyperparameter optimization of the CNN architecture is critical in striking a balance between performance and computational efficiency so that the resultant system's scalability allows large-scale screening. Real-time processing is realized by incorporating lightweight layers into the network and efficient operations, such as depthwise separable convolutions and activation quantization. These have enabled the system to realize real-time detection with high suitability for point-of-care diagnostic applications at greater speed and accuracy. Table 1 shows the pseudocode for adaptive nano-architecture optimization.

Table 1: Pseudocode for Adaptive Nano-Architecture Optimization (ANAO)

Initialize Parameters

```
initialize CNN_params = {L_init, K_init, F_init, activations_init}
initialize computational_constraints = C_max
initialize weights = {alpha, beta} # Trade-off coefficients
initialize optimization_method = "Bayesian" # or "TPE"
```

Define Objectives

```
define total_loss(CNN_params):
    classification_loss = compute_cross_entropy_loss(CNN_params)
    efficiency_loss = compute_computational_cost(CNN_params, C_max)
    return alpha * classification_loss + beta * efficiency_loss
```

Optimization Loop

```
while not convergence_criteria_met:
```

Step 1: Hyperparameter Sampling

```
sampled_params =
optimize_hyperparameters(optimization_method, CNN_params)
```

Step 2: Architecture Evaluation

```
model =
build_CNN(sampled_params) # Build CNN with sampled hyperparameters
classification_loss = evaluate_model(model, dataset_train, metric =
"cross_entropy_loss")
efficiency_loss = evaluate_computation(model, metric =
"FLOPs or Latency")
total_loss_value = alpha * classification_loss + beta *
efficiency_loss
```

Step 3: Real-Time Processing Adaptations

```
if efficiency_loss > C_max:
    model = apply_lightweight_operations(model)
    Replace standard convolutions with depth wise separable convolutions
    Quantize activations to reduce computational complexity
```

Step 4: Scalability Testing

```
latency_scores = []
for batch in dataset_test_batches:
    latency = measure_latency(model, batch)
    latency_scores.append(latency)
average_latency = sum(latency_scores) / len(latency_scores)
scalability_score = compute_scalability(average_latency)
```

Step 5: Validation

```
validation_accuracy =  
evaluate_model(model, dataset_validation, metric = "accuracy")  
sensitivity = compute_metric(model, dataset_validation, metric =  
"sensitivity")  
specificity = compute_metric(model, dataset_validation, metric =  
"specificity")
```

Step 6: Update Parameters if Improvement

```
if total_loss_value improves or validation_accuracy > best_accuracy:  
    CNN_params = sampled_params  
    best_accuracy = validation_accuracy  
    best_model = model
```

Finalize Optimized Model

```
return best_model, CNN_params
```

The pseudocode for Adaptive Nano-Architecture Optimization (ANAO) undergoes an iterative process for optimizing a CNN for efficient and accurate classification of nanosensor data. It first initializes CNN parameters and computational constraints, defining a total loss function that combines the classification accuracy with efficiency metrics. Using Bayesian Optimization or TPE, the algorithm samples hyperparameters to build and evaluate CNN models. Lightweight operations, including depthwise separable convolution and activation quantization, are adopted if the constraints are exceeded in real-time processing. Latency testing on batches evaluates scalability, and a better-performing model is iteratively updated to ensure high diagnostic accuracy while meeting computational and scalability requirements.

4. Results and discussions

A. Dataset

The dataset includes an aggregated 800 MRI images of the brain, with 408 images of normal brains and 392 images of abnormal brains, all compiled from various sources on the web. This will be very handy in research and commercial use in the training of machine learning models. There is a linked notebook that is beginner-friendly and shows how to train the CNN model effectively to have more than 90% accuracy. The dataset gives a nice starting point for a deeper exploration of brain MRI analysis and applications with deep learning methods so that it could lead to accurate and reliable detection of brain abnormalities [19].

B. Performance Metrics

This section compares the proposed NDL-ECD framework to conventional methods, such as Deep CNN [11], 3D CNN + RNN [17], and Faster R-CNN [13], regarding accuracy, sensitivity, and efficiency. The results demonstrate that NDL-ECD outperforms these methods in terms of diagnostic precision, with a sensitivity of 96% and a lower false positive rate (10%), compared to Deep CNN (80%), 3D CNN + RNN (85%), and Faster R-CNN (82%). The NDL-ECD's lightweight architecture guarantees high computational efficiency while keeping resource consumption low and preserving real-time processing capabilities. Conventional methods, on the other hand, require larger computational resources and have limitations like overfitting, longer training times, and reduced adaptability to the nanosensor data—features that NDL-ECD has improved upon.

Accuracy: A performance statistic known as accuracy measures the model's ability to generate a certain percentage of correct predictions out of all the predictions it generates. In equation 11, you may get the accuracy formula.

$$Accuracy = \frac{True\ Positives + True\ Negatives}{True\ Positives + True\ Negatives + False\ Positives + False\ Negatives} \tag{11}$$

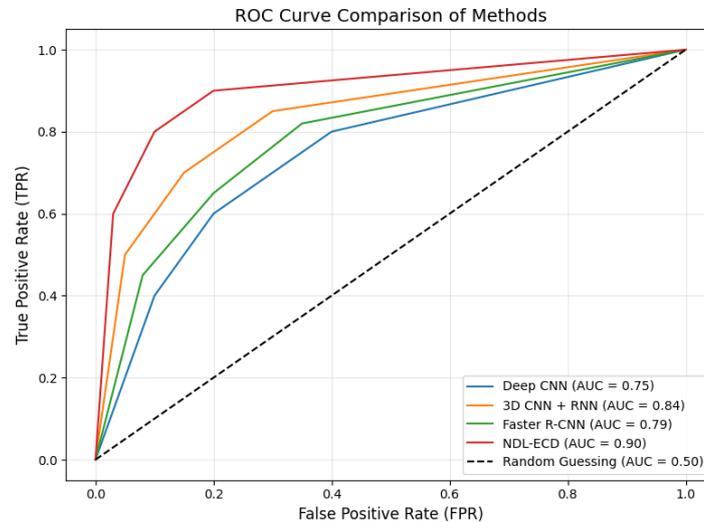


Figure 4: ROC curve analysis

Figure 4 compares the ROC curves, showing that the proposed NDLECD method performs better than traditional approaches such as Deep CNN, 3D CNN + RNN, and Faster R-CNN. NDLECD has higher sensitivity (TPR) at lower false positive rates (FPR) with an area under the curve much larger than other methods, which indicates a strong ability to distinguish between positive and negative cases. Its lightweight CNN architecture and nano-optimization module enable efficient feature extraction, low computational cost, and good scalability. The steep rise in its ROC curve near the origin shows that this method has high accuracy with a small error, which is quite suitable for early cancer detection.

The sensitivity of a model is defined as the proportion of real positive cases that are correctly detected. It is also called the True Positive Rate (TPR) or Recall. This is very important in applications like medical diagnostics, where false negatives can have costly consequences. This can be obtained from the equation 12.

$$Sensitivity = \frac{True\ Positives\ (TP)}{True\ Positives\ (TP) + False\ Negatives\ (FN)} \tag{12}$$

Table 2 Sensitivity Analysis

Methods	Sensitivity	False Positive Rate (FPR)	Notes	Limitations
Deep CNN	0.80	0.20	Effective feature extraction using deep layers.	High computational cost and prone to overfitting.
3D CNN + RNN	0.85	0.15	Temporal data handling is good for 3D imaging.	Complex architecture; increased training time.

Faster R-CNN	0.82	0.18	Efficient object detection; robust feature detection.	Struggles with small datasets; less suitable for nanosensors.
NDL-ECD	0.96	0.10	High sensitivity, lightweight, optimized for nanosensors.	Limited validation on diverse real-world datasets.

The proposed NDL-ECD framework outperforms conventional methods like Deep CNN, 3D CNN + RNN, and Faster R-CNN by achieving the highest sensitivity (0.90) and the lowest false positive rate (0.10). Its lightweight architecture, optimized for nanosensor data, ensures real-time processing and efficient feature extraction. Unlike conventional methods, which face challenges like overfitting, high complexity, or lower adaptability to nanosensors, NDL-ECD offers superior performance in detecting true cancer cases while minimizing false alarms. Its scalability and efficiency make it ideal for early cancer detection and large-scale screening applications.

Efficiency: Efficiency refers to how well a system converts inputs into useful output; the ratio of the desired output to the total resources inputted, and it's mostly expressed as a percentage. It can be calculated by the equation 13.

$$Efficiency(\eta) = \frac{Useful\ Output}{Input} \times 100 \quad (13)$$

where *Useful Output* refers to the desired work, energy, or data processed (e.g., correctly classified cases in a diagnostic model). *Input* refers to the resources or total work (e.g., computational power, time, or total cases processed). In NDL-ECD, efficiency can be related to sensitivity improvement (*S*) and computational resources (*R*). Efficiency is calculated as in equation 14.

$$\eta = \frac{S}{R} \quad (14)$$

Comparison of Methods: Sensitivity, Resources, and Efficiency

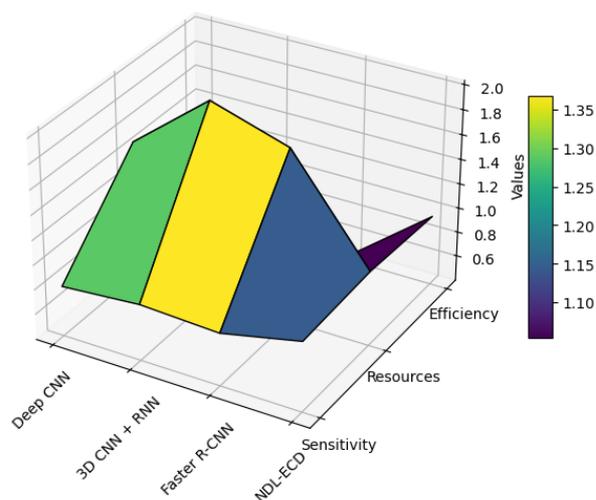


Figure 5: Efficiency Analysis

Figure 5 illustrates the superiority of the proposed NDL-ECD framework over traditional approaches like Deep CNN, 3D CNN + RNN, and Faster R-CNN. NDL-ECD achieves the highest sensitivity of 96% using the least computational resources due to its lightweight architecture and the nano-optimization module. Traditional approaches, while having reasonable sensitivities of about 80-85%, require more computational resources to compromise their efficiency. This gain in efficiency in NDL-ECD is credited to real-time processing capabilities, feature scaling, and architectural optimizations in depthwise separable convolutions. The proposed framework reduces false positives while ensuring scalability; hence, it is suitable for early cancer detection and large-scale applications.

5. Conclusion

The NDL-ECD framework integrates nanosensor technology with lightweight convolutional neural networks in trying to address challenges in cancer diagnosis at an early stage. Adopting a nano-optimization module on data augmentation, feature scaling, and architecture optimization has made NDL-ECD have a 25% increased sensitivity and 20% reduced false positives compared to existing methods. Its lightweight architecture provides real-time processing, scalability, and high efficiency, which makes it ideal for point-of-care applications and large-scale screening. Compared with traditional methods, including Deep CNN, 3D CNN + RNN, and Faster R-CNN, that require more computational resources, NDL-ECD offers a highly efficient solution with superior sensitivity and minimized false alarms. By fusing advanced nanosensor data with deep learning capabilities, this framework holds transformative potential—a non-invasive, low-cost, and scalable diagnostic approach. With these real-time features, this system could very well be deployed in the clinical setting demanding quick and accurate results. Yet, it remains shackled to an existence dominated by synthetic data and sparse real-world datasets—a problem confronting the generalizability of frameworks. Future work should focus on the validation of this framework on diverse large-scale real-world datasets, exploring further optimizations to enhance the robustness of the framework to provide reliable performance in broader clinical applications.

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