Generative Adversarial Networks in Ophthalmology: A Focused Review

Ritik M. Chavan¹, Mrs. Smita S. Sangewar²

¹P.G. Student, Department of CSE, DKTE Society's Textile and Engineering Institute Ichalkaranji, Maharashtra 416115, India.

²Assistant Professor & P.G. Coordinator Department of CSE, DKTE Society's Textile and Engineering Institute Ichalkaranji, Maharashtra 416115, India.

Abstract

In this review paper, we explore the transformative role of Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) in ophthalmology, focusing on their diverse applications in image enhancement, segmentation, synthesis, and disease prediction. With ophthalmology being a highly imagecentric specialty, the integration of GAN-based models offers promising solutions to overcome challenges such as low-resolution imaging, scarcity of labeled data, and the invasiveness of conventional diagnostic techniques. The review covers the implementation of various GAN architectures such as Conditional GANs, Pix2Pix, CycleGAN, and PGGAN for tasks including super-resolution, artifact removal, domain translation, and synthetic data generation. These techniques not only improve image quality and diagnostic performance but also support real-time decision- making in clinical workflows. Despite their potential, limitations related to data generalization, ethical concerns, interpretability, and regulatory acceptance remain critical barriers. The paper identifies existing research gaps and suggests future directions emphasizing real-time deployment, federated learning, and the need for diverse and longitudinal datasets to ensure safe and effective clinical integration of GANs in ophthalmology.

Keywords: Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), Ophthalmology, Retinal Imaging, Image Enhancement, Deep Learning, Medical Image Synthesis.

1. INTRODUCTION

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Deep Learning (DL) has significantly impacted the medical landscape, particularly in the areas of diagnosis, therapeutic planning, and patient care. With advancements in computational capabilities and access to vast medical datasets, AI models have evolved to deliver exceptional accuracy. For example, classification accuracy in image analysis improved remarkably from approximately 84% with AlexNet in 2012 to over 99% with EfficientNet in 2022 [1]. Similarly, reinforcement learning has demonstrated substantial progress, achieving around 800% of human-level performance in environments like Atari games by 2023 [2]. Initially, medical applications of AI primarily focused on discriminative models such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [3,4], Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (DCNNs) [5], Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) [6], Random

Forests [7], and Decision Trees [8]. Many of these have already been successfully deployed in clinical ophthalmology [9–11]. Notably, in 2018, the U.S. FDA authorized the first AI-based diagnostic system for early detection of diabetic retinopathy, offering both high sensitivity (92-93%) and specificity (89–94%) [12]. In contrast to these classification-oriented systems, a newer class of models known as generative models has gained traction. These models are capable of learning data distributions and producing new, realistic outputs that mirror the original datasets [13, 14]. Although generative approaches have gained attention in areas like text generation and simulation [15], their potential in clinical imaging- especially in specialties such as ophthalmology and radiology-has yet to be fully explored. The ability of generative models to create synthetic medical images, enhance visual clarity, and reduce artifacts presents a promising opportunity to overcome long-standing limitations in medical image processing [16,17].

Given that ophthalmology heavily relies on imaging for both diagnosis and treatment, the field presents an ideal use case for AI-powered tools. Common imaging techniques such as fundus photography, optical coherence tomography (OCT), and fluorescein angiography are essential for diagnosing various eye conditions, including glaucoma, diabetic retinopathy, and age-related macular degeneration (AMD). In recent studies, Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have shown potential in generating synthetic angiography images from fundus photographs [18], predicting therapeutic outcomes [19], and improving anatomical segmentation in structures like the optic disc and meibomian glands [20-22]. These applications highlight how GANs can help address critical issues such as image resolution deficits, limited labeled data, and noise-thereby advancing clinical decision-making in ophthalmology.



Fig.1 GAN applications in ophthalmology for image enhancement, segmentation, and multimodal translation.

Fig.1 illustrates three key applications of GANs in ophthalmology: (a) enhancing the quality of retinal OCT images, (b) segmenting anatomical structures in fundus images, and (c) transforming multimodal eye images for deeper clinical insights. Each subfigure demonstrates how GAN models take input images and generate improved or transformed outputs tailored to specific diagnostic tasks [23]. The objective of this mini review is to provide a focused overview of the application of Generative Adversarial Networks in Ophthalmology, particularly in retinal image enhancement, disease detection, and synthetic data generation. It aims to explain the underlying architecture of GANs, summarize their clinical applications in ophthalmology, highlight key research contributions, and identify current challenges and future directions. The intent is to serve as a primer for researchers and clinicians interested in the intersection of deep generative models and ophthalmic imaging.

2. OVERVIEW OF GAN ARCHITECTURE AND VARIANTS

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) are a class of deep learning models consisting of two neural networks that are trained simultaneously in a competitive setting. As shown in the Fig. 2, the Generator takes random noise as input and attempts to produce synthetic images that closely resemble real samples in this case, ophthalmic images such as retinal scans. Conversely, the Discriminator evaluates both genuine images from the training dataset and the images generated by the Generator, distinguishing between real and fake inputs. The interaction between these two components drives the learning process [1, 5, 6].



Fig.2 Architecture of a Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)

The Generator network is responsible for learning the data distribution of the original medical images. Its goal is to produce images that the Discriminator cannot easily distinguish from real ones. On the other hand, the Discriminator acts as a binary classifier, learning to differentiate between real and generated images. It outputs a probability score indicating whether the input image is genuine. Through back propagation, the Generator and Discriminator both update their parameters, enhancing their performance in every iteration [7]. The core of GAN learning is based on adversarial training, where the Generator and Discriminator are locked in a mini-max game. The Generator loss increases when the Discriminator easily identifies its output as fake, while the Discriminator loss increases when it fails to distinguish between real and generated images. Over time, this adversarial process pushes the Generator to improve image realism, while the Discriminator becomes more accurate in detection. This dynamic interaction is what enables GANs to learn complex data distributions, even from limited datasets [8, 11].

Several variants of GANs have been developed to address specific challenges in medical image analysis, especially in ophthalmology. Super-Resolution GANs (SRGANs) are widely used to enhance the resolution of low-quality retinal images, enabling better visibility of fine features such as blood vessels or lesions. SRGANs apply perceptual loss functions that prioritize structural and textural details crucial for clinical diagnosis [12, 14]. Another notable extension is the CycleGAN, which is particularly useful for unpaired image-to-image translation. For example, it can convert standard fundus images into fluorescein angiography without needing paired datasets. This facilitates multi-modal diagnostics. StyleGAN is another powerful variant used for high-quality synthetic image generation. Its ability to manipulate attributes such as lighting, texture, or shape makes it valuable in generating realistic and diverse retinal images for data augmentation and training of diagnostic models. Together, these GAN variants are transforming ophthalmic imaging by improving clarity, enabling modality translation, and expanding dataset diversity [15, 16].

3. APPLICATIONS OF GANS IN OPTHALMOLOGY

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have emerged as powerful tools for enhancing image quality, generating synthetic data, and aiding in diagnosis across ophthalmic imaging modalities. These models rely on a dual-network architecture comprising a generator and a discriminator that learn through adversarial training to produce high-quality synthetic outputs. Following are applications of GANs in ophthalmology [17].

3.11mage Quality Enhancement

Super-resolution GANs are specially designed to upscale low-resolution images by progressively refining details during training. These networks have shown great promise in improving the clarity of ophthalmic images such as fundus photographs and OCT scans, which may suffer from noise, blur, or resolution loss due to patient movement or poor imaging conditions [24, 25]. In the domain of eye care, where precise image interpretation is essential, super-resolution and progressive GANs enhance suboptimal images captured in challenging clinical environments, thereby supporting more accurate assessments and diagnoses [26, 27, 28].

3.2 Artifact Reduction and Noise Suppression

Ophthalmic images often suffer from artifacts caused by media opacities or small pupils. GANs, particularly super-resolution and denoising variants, can address such challenges by learning to reconstruct clean and detailed images from noisy inputs [29]. When dealing with OCT imaging where speckle noise and low resolution impede clinical evaluation, GANs have demonstrated their capacity to generate clearer, more informative visuals, improving the effectiveness of automated diagnostic systems and human interpretations alike [28, 29].

3.3 Image Inpainting and Data Augmentation

Inpainting GANs are capable of reconstructing missing regions in retinal scans or generating intermediate image slices that were not captured during acquisition. These networks fill gaps in OCT volumes or generate fluorescein angiography phases that may be absent due to incomplete imaging sessions [30]. By enabling reconstruction without the need for paired labels or pixel-wise correspondence, CycleGAN and other architectures facilitate broader applications such as unsupervised denoising and augmentation, even when labeled datasets are limited or unavailable [31, 32].

3.4 Fundus Autofluorescence (FAF) Translation

Fundus autofluorescence imaging is non-invasive but often limited by low signal strength and artifacts. GANs have been applied to translate enface OCT data into synthetic FAF images, which enhances the visualization of geographic atrophy and other retinal abnormalities [33]. For instance, RA-cGAN, combined with fuzzy c-means clustering and deep CNNs, has proven effective in segmenting GA more precisely. Additionally, GANs like Pix2PixHD and StyleGAN2-ADA have been used to generate synthetic FAF images for better classification of AMD and to address dataset imbalances in rare inherited retinal diseases (IRD) [34, 35].

3.5 Fluorescein Angiography (FA) Synthesis

Fluorescein angiography, though valuable, is invasive and carries risks like allergic reactions. To reduce dependency on invasive imaging, several GAN models-such as LA-GAN, LrGAN, HrGAN, and FA4SANS-GAN-have been developed to synthesize FA images from fundus photographs [36]. These synthetic FA outputs can reveal retinal vascular features without the need for dye injection, enabling safer and more accessible retinal assessments. Translation models have also been used for vessel segmentation and DR screening by mimicking late-phase angiograms [37, 38].

3.6 Ultra-Wide Field Imaging and Disease Detection

Recent advances involve the translation of ultrawide field images using GANs like UWAFA-GAN, which creates high- resolution synthetic FA from scanning laser ophthalmoscopy images [39]. These models assist in detecting microvascular changes linked to diabetic retinopathy and

spaceflight associated neuro-ocular syndrome (SANS). CycleGANs have also been integrated with CNNs for automated DR grading, yielding reliable classifications of NPDR and PDR based on ischemic and leakage indexes, further enhancing the use of synthetic data in clinical grading systems [40].

3.7 Broader Clinical Integration and Potential

The flexibility of GANs allows them to be tailored for numerous ophthalmic applications ranging from retinal disease screening to surgical planning. By reducing the dependency on large labeled datasets, GANs are opening pathways for semi-supervised and unsupervised learning in clinical workflows. Their integration into ophthalmology represents a shift toward AI-assisted imaging, where quality enhancement, cross-modality translation, and data generation come together to support timely, accurate, and non-invasive diagnosis for a range of retinal disorders [41]. Table 1 illustrates summary of GAN applications in ophthalmology.

Application Area	GAN Type/Model Used	Clinical Objective	Citation
Image Quality Improvement	Super- resolution GAN, Progressive GAN	Enhance resolution and reduce artifacts in OCT/fundus images	[24, 25-27]
Noise & Artifact Removal	Denoising GANs, CycleGAN	Improve image clarity impacted by opacities or low signal strength	[28-30]
Image Inpainting	Inpainting GANs, CycleGAN	Fill missing OCT slices, synthesize missing FA phases	[31,32,33]
FAF Synthesis from OCT	RA-cGAN, Pix2PixHD, StyleGAN2- ADA	Generate synthetic FAF for GA segmentation and IRD classification	[34, 35]
FA from Fundus Photos	LA-GAN, HrGAN, FA4SANS- GAN, Pix2PixHD	Replace invasive FA with synthetic images from fundus photos	[36, 37]
Retinal Vessel Segmentation	Cross- Modality GAN (Pix2PixHD)	Extract vessel details from synthetic FA images for DR analysis	[38, 39]
Ultra-Wide Field FA Synthesis	UWAFA- GAN	Translate UWF images into FA to detect microvascular abnormalities	[40]
DR Grading	CycleGAN + CNN	Differentiate NPDR and PDR using synthetic FA for grading severity	[41]

Table 1: Summary of GAN Applications in Ophthalmology

4. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS WITH CONVENTIONAL METHODS

With numerous variations such as Conditional GANs, Wasserstein GANs, CycleGANs, and Pix2Pix models, researchers have adapted these frameworks to suit specific ophthalmological challenges, ranging from vessel segmentation to feature extraction in Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) images [27-38]. One of the most critical applications of GANs in ophthalmology is image segmentation. Conditional GANs, particularly those using U-Net architectures, have been widely adopted for delineating retinal vessels, optic disc, and optic cup boundaries. Studies by Iqbal et al., Son et al., and Yang et al. demonstrate successful retinal vasculature segmentation from fundus images using patch-based discriminators and topological constraints [27, 28, 31]. Moreover, GANs have shown improved precision in identifying minute structures such as thin blood vessels, which are often overlooked by conventional models [30, 32].

4.1 Synthetic Data Generation and Augmentation

GANs play a pivotal role in data augmentation, particularly when real annotated ophthalmic datasets are scarce. Techniques like DCGAN and PGGAN can generate high-quality synthetic OCT and fundus images to enrich training sets, thereby improving the robustness of deep learning models [39-41]. For instances PGGAN to simulate realistic fundus datasets, while Yoo et al. applied CycleGAN to produce rare disease OCT samples, enabling more accurate few-shot classification [42, 43].

4.2 Image Enhancement: Denoising and Super-Resolution

Another notable domain is image enhancement, where GANs are employed to reduce noise and enhance image resolution. Enhanced SRGANs, CycleGANs, and modified conditional GANs have been used to clean retinal images by removing speckle noise, vessel shadows, or cataract-induced haze [43].

4.3 Domain Translation and Multimodal Mapping

Cross-domain translation using GANs enables the synthesis of one imaging modality from another. Conditional GANs like Pix2Pix and CycleGAN have been used to transform vessel images into fundus photographs, generate fundus autofluorescence from OCT volumes, and synthesize fluorescein angiograms from color fundus images [42].

4.4 Feature Extraction and Predictive Modeling

GANs also facilitate unsupervised feature extraction **and** disease prediction in ophthalmology. The f-AnoGAN model proposed by Schlegl et al. mapped anomalies in latent space to detect intra-retinal fluid, while Khan et al. developed a GAN to identify meibomian gland boundaries in infrared meibography [44, 45]. Similarly, GANs like Pix2Pix and CycleGAN have been employed to simulate post-treatment OCT images, enabling clinicians to visualize expected outcomes of anti-VEGF therapy or orbital decompression procedures [15, 39, 40].

GAN Technique	Application Domain	Strengths	Limitations	Citations
Conditional GAN (cGAN)	Segmentation, Data Augment- ation, Translation, Prediction	Flexible control over output, supports multi- class training, good for paired datasets	Requires paired data; may overfit if dataset is small	[27,29-32, 42]
Pix2Pix (cGAN- based)	Domain Translation, Prediction, Segmentation	High- quality image translation, effective in retinal and corneal tasks	Requires aligned pairs for training; limited generalizability	[42, 43]
CycleGAN	Domain Translation (unpaired), Enhancement	Can translate between domains without paired data; good for style transfer	May generate artifacts; requires careful tuning of cycle consistency loss	[45]
PGGAN	Data Augment- ation, Super- Resolution	Generates high- resolution, realistic synthetic images	High computational cost; longer training time	[40, 43]
SRGAN	Super- Resolution	Capable of detailed anatomical enhancement and 4× resolution up scaling	Sensitive to training instability; requires perceptual loss	[37]
Wasserstei n GAN (WGAN)	Domain Adaptation, Feature Extraction	Improved training stability and convergence	Less commonly used; may need additional tuning for healthcare applications	[34, 45]
Deshadow GAN	Image Enhancement (Artifact Removal)	Effective in removing vessel shadows in OCT	Requires manual masking and perceptual loss supervision	[16]
f-AnoGAN	Feature Extraction (Anomaly Detection)	Learns latent representati- ons of normal anatomy to detect anomalies	Requires clean normal dataset; anomaly score thresholding needed	[25]
CycleGAN + CNN Hybrid	Classification & Grading	Combines image translation with classification logic	Requires large datasets for CNN fine-tuning	[23]
Multi- channel GAN	Data Synthesis with Heterogen- eous Inputs	Utilizes labeled/unlabeled data simultaneously	Complex architecture; longer training and preprocessing	[44]

Table 2: Comparative Analysis of GAN Techniques in Ophthalmology

5. CHALLENGES

Despite the promise of GANs in advancing ophthalmic diagnostics, one of the primary challenges remains the quality and diversity of training data. Most GAN models depend heavily on large, annotated datasets for training, and their performance deteriorates when exposed to data outside their training domain. This lack of generalizability becomes critical in clinical applications, where patient demographics, imaging devices, and disease stages vary widely. Models trained on specific datasets may underperform or produce misleading results when applied to unseen clinical scenarios, leading to diagnostic inaccuracies [40, 43]. Another major concern is the potential misuse of synthetic images. While synthetic data can supplement scarce medical images and balance datasets, it also carries the risk of unintentional bias propagation and diagnostic confusion. Poorly validated GAN-generated images might be indistinguishable from real ones and could inadvertently be introduced into clinical records or training pipelines, leading to flawed decisions or overreliance on artificially generated content. If not clearly annotated and traceable, these images could compromise both patient safety and clinical trust [25, 42].

Moreover, there are growing regulatory and interpretability concerns. GANs, particularly black-box deep learning models, often lack transparency in how outputs are generated. This raises legal and ethical questions in clinical environments where accountability and explainability are crucial. Regulatory bodies, including the FDA and WHO, emphasize the importance of interpretable AI models, especially in healthcare, where misdiagnosis can lead to serious consequences. Thus, clear validation protocols, model explainability frameworks, and ethical AI governance are essential to ensure the safe deployment of GANs in ophthalmology [12, 34].

6. FUTURE SCOPES AND RESEARCH GAPS

Looking ahead, a key area for exploration is the integration of GAN models with clinical decision support systems (CDSS). Combining GAN-generated synthetic data with AI- driven diagnostic tools has the potential to improve disease detection and treatment planning. For example, hybrid models that incorporate image enhancement and automated classification can provide real-time alerts for retinal diseases. Seamless integration with electronic health records and diagnostic dashboards could enhance usability and trust among clinicians [15, 39-45]. Another promising direction involves developing real-time GAN applications for ophthalmology. While many current implementations operate offline, advances in hardware acceleration and lightweight architectures (e.g., mobile GANs) could make point-of-care applications viable. For instance, GANs embedded in portable fundus cameras or mobile OCT devices could instantly enhance image quality or simulate alternative imaging modalities without requiring cloud-based computation, improving accessibility in remote or low-resource settings [19, 21, 29].

Lastly, significant progress is needed in the creation of diverse, longitudinal, and multimodal datasets. Current training sets often lack demographic diversity and disease variation, limiting model robustness. Moreover, longitudinal data is essential for tasks like treatment prediction and progression modeling. Future research must prioritize building global consortia and federated learning systems that allow for secure data sharing and training across diverse populations. This would address current gaps in model generalization and ethical deployment, and ultimately support the safe translation of GANs into routine ophthalmic practice [40, 43].

7. CONCLUSION

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have emerged as transformative tools in ophthalmology, offering innovative solutions for image enhancement, segmentation, cross- modality translation, data augmentation, and even treatment prediction. By addressing challenges such as low-resolution imaging, limited labeled datasets, and the need for non- invasive diagnostic alternatives, GAN-based models have demonstrated significant potential to improve clinical workflows and diagnostic accuracy. Applications range from synthesizing high-quality retinal images and simulating fluorescein angiography to segmenting anatomical structures with precision-all of which contribute to enhanced patient outcomes and more accessible eye care.

However, for GANs to transition from research to routine clinical practice, critical challenges must be addressed. These include ensuring data diversity, improving model generalizability, and developing explainable frameworks that align with ethical and regulatory standards. Furthermore, integration with real-time clinical decision-making tools remains limited and presents a significant opportunity for future innovation. Overall, while the capabilities of GANs in ophthalmology are promising, continued interdisciplinary research, clinical validation, and ethical oversight will be essential to harness their full potential in improving vision health worldwide.

REFERENCES

- R. Remtulla, A. Samet, M. Kulbay, A. Akdag, A. Hocini, A. Volniansky, S. K. Ali, and C. X. Qian, "A Future Picture: A Review of Current Generative Adversarial Neural Networks in Vitreoretinal Pathologies and Their Future Potentials," *Biomedicines*, vol. 13, no. 2, p. 284, 2025.
- [2] A. Bohr and K. Memarzadeh, "The rise of artificial intelligence in healthcare applications," in *Artificial Intelligence in Healthcare*, Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier, 2020, pp. 25–60.
- [3] A. S. Ahuja, "The impact of artificial intelligence in medicine on the future role of the physician," *PeerJ*, vol. 7, p. e7702, 2019.
- [4] N. Aloysius and M. Geetha, "A review on deep convolutional neural networks," in *Proc. 2017 Int. Conf. Commun. Signal Process. (ICCSP)*, Chennai, India, Apr. 2017, pp. 588-592.
- [5] Z. Li, F. Liu, W. Yang, S. Peng, and J. Zhou, "A survey of convolutional neural networks: Analysis, applications, and prospects," *IEEE Trans. Neural Netw. Learn. Syst.*, vol. 33, pp. 6999–7019, 2021.
- [6] J. Gu et al., "Recent advances in convolutional neural networks,"*Pattern Recognit.*, vol. 77, pp. 354-377, 2018.
- [7] J. Zou, Y. Han, and S. S. So, "Overview of artificial neural networks," in *Artif. Neural Netw. Methods Appl.*, vol. 458, pp. 14–22, 2009.
- [8] B. Yegnanarayana, Artificial Neural Networks, Delhi, India: PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd., 2009.
- [9] L. Breiman, "Random forests," Mach. Learn., vol. 45, pp. 5–32, 2001.

- [10] A. J. Myles, R. N. Feudale, Y. Liu, N. A. Woody, and S. D. Brown, "An introduction to decision tree modeling," J. Chemom., vol. 18, pp. 275–285, 2004.
- [11] E. Çelik and E. İnan, "Artificial Intelligence in Ophthalmology Clinical Practices," *Izmir Democr. Univ. Health Sci. J.*, vol. 6, pp. 445–459, 2023.
- [12] A. K. Chaurasia, C. J. Greatbatch, and A. W. Hewitt, "Diagnostic accuracy of artificial intelligence in glaucoma screening and clinical practice," J. Glaucoma, vol. 31, pp. 285–299, 2022.
- [13] D. S. W. Ting et al., "Deep learning in ophthalmology: The technical and clinical considerations," *Prog. Retin. Eye Res.*, vol. 72, p. 100759, 2019.
- [14] S. K. Padhy, B. Takkar, R. Chawla, and A. Kumar, "Artificial intelligence in diabetic retinopathy: A natural step to the future," *Indian J. Ophthalmol.*, vol. 67, pp. 1004–1009, 2019.
- [15] C. R. Cleland et al., "Artificial intelligence for diabetic retinopathy in low-income and middleincome countries: A scoping review," *BMJ Open Diabetes Res. Care*, vol. 11, p. e003424, 2023.
- [16] R. Rajalakshmi, "The impact of artificial intelligence in screening for diabetic retinopathy in India," *Eye*, vol. 34, pp. 420–421, 2020.
- [17] J. S. Chen et al., "Deep Learning for the Diagnosis of Stage in Retinopathy of Prematurity," *Ophthalmol. Retin.*, vol. 5, pp. 1027–1035, 2021.
- [18] X. Leng et al., "Deep learning for detection of age-related macular degeneration: A systematic review and meta-analysis of diagnostic test accuracy studies," *PLoS ONE*, vol. 18, p. e0284060, 2023.
- [19] D. Nagasato et al., "Deep Neural Network-Based Method for Detecting Central Retinal Vein Occlusion Using Ultrawide-Field Fundus Ophthalmoscopy," J. Ophthalmol., vol. 2018, p. 1875431, 2018.
- [20] X. Ren et al., "Artificial intelligence to distinguish retinal vein occlusion patients using color fundus photographs," *Eye*, vol. 37, pp. 2026–2032, 2023.
- [21] Q. Chen et al., "Artificial intelligence can assist with diagnosing retinal vein occlusion," Int. J. Ophthalmol., vol. 14, pp. 1895–1902, 2021.
- [22] L. Cai et al., "Applications of Artificial Intelligence for the Diagnosis, Prognosis, and Treatment of Age-related Macular Degeneration," *Int. Ophthalmol. Clin.*, vol. 60, pp. 147–168, 2020.
- [23] H. Bogunović et al., "Predicting treat-and-extend outcomes and treatment intervals in neovascular age-related macular degeneration from retinal optical coherence tomography using artificial intelligence," *Front. Med.*, vol. 9, p. 958469, 2022.
- [24] A. Ha, S. Sun, Y. K. Kim, J. Lee, J. W. Jeoung, H. C. Kim, and K. H. Park, "Deep-learning-based enhanced optic-disc photography," *PLoS ONE*, vol. 15, p. e0239913, 2020.
- [25] J. Fu, L. Cao, S. Wei, M. Xu, Y. Song, H. Li, and Y. You, "A GAN- based deep enhancer for quality enhancement of retinal images photographed by a handheld fundus camera," *Adv. Ophthalmol. Pract. Res.*, vol. 2, p. 100077, 2022.
- [26] [V. Das, S. Dandapat, and P. K. Bora, "Unsupervised Super- Resolution of OCT Images Using Generative Adversarial Network for Improved Age-Related Macular Degeneration Diagnosis," *IEEE Sens. J.*, vol. 20, pp. 8746–8756, 2020.
- [27] R. A. Yeh, C. Chen, T. Y. Lim, A. G. Schwing, M. Hasegawa- Johnson, and M. N. Do, "Semantic Image Inpainting with Deep Generative Models," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1607.07539, 2016.
- [28] T. DeVries, A. Romero, L. Pineda, G. W. Taylor, and M. Drozdzal, "On the Evaluation of Conditional GANs," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1907.08175, 2019.

- [29] M. Mirza and S. Osindero, "Conditional Generative Adversarial Nets," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1411.1784, 2014.
- [30] K. Sricharan, R. Bala, M. Shreve, H. Ding, K. Saketh, and J. Sun, "Semi-supervised Conditional GANs," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1708.05789, 2017.
- [31] L. Lan et al., "Generative Adversarial Networks and Its Applications in Biomedical Informatics," *Front. Public Health*, vol. 8, p. 164, 2020.
- [32] R. Agarwal and A. Tripathi, "Current Modalities for Low Vision Rehabilitation," *Cureus*, vol. 13, p. e16561, 2021.
- [33] P. Isola, J. Y. Zhu, T. Zhou, and A. A. Efros, "Image-to-Image Translation with Conditional Adversarial Networks," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1611.07004, 2016.
- [34] J. Y. Zhu, T. Park, P. Isola, and A. A. Efros, "Unpaired Image-to- Image Translation using Cycle-Consistent Adversarial Networks," *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:1703.10593, 2017.
- [35] D. Huang et al., "Optical coherence tomography," Science, vol. 254, pp. 1178–1181, 1991.
- [36] J. G. Fujimoto, C. Pitris, S. A. Boppart, and M. E. Brezinski, "Optical Coherence Tomography: An Emerging Technology for Biomedical Imaging and Optical Biopsy," *Neoplasia*, vol. 2, pp. 9–25, 2000.
- [37] A. Gómez-Benlloch et al., "Optical Coherence Tomography in Inherited Macular Dystrophies: A Review," *Diagnostics*, vol. 14, p. 878, 2024.
- [38] J. Wang et al., "Weakly supervised anomaly segmentation in retinal OCT images using an adversarial learning approach," *Biomed. Opt. Express.*, vol. 12, p. 4713, 2021.
- [39] J. Ouyang, T. S. Mathai, K. Lathrop, and J. Galeotti, "Accurate tissue interface segmentation via adversarial pre-segmentation of anterior segment OCT images," *Biomed. Opt. Express.*, vol. 10, pp. 5291–5306, 2019.
- [40] M. J. Menten et al., "Exploring Healthy Retinal Aging with Deep Learning," aphthalmol. Sci., vol. 3, p. 100294, 2023.
- [41] L. C. Sun et al., "Generative adversarial network-based deep learning approach in classification of retinal conditions with optical coherence tomography images," *Graefes Arch. Clin. Exp. Ophthalmol.*, vol. 261, pp. 1399–1412, 2023.
- [42] T. K. Yoo, J. Y. Choi, and H. K. Kim, "Feasibility study to improve deep learning in OCT diagnosis of rare retinal diseases with few-shot classification," Med. Biol. Eng. Comput., vol. 59, no. 2, pp. 401-415, 2021.
- [43] T. K. Yoo, J. Y. Choi, H. K. Kim, I. H. Ryu, and J. K. Kim, "Adopting low-shot deep learning for the detection of conjunctival melanoma using ocular surface images," Comput. Methods Programs Biomed., vol. 205, p. 106086, 2021.
- [44] T. Schlegl, P. Seeböck, S. M. Waldstein, G. Langs, and U. Schmidt-Erfurth, "f-AnoGAN: Fast unsupervised anomaly detection with generative adversarial networks," Med. Image Anal., vol. 54, pp. 30-44, 2019.
- [45] Z. K. Khan, A. I. Umar, S. H. Shirazi, A. Rasheed, A. Qadir, and S. Gul, "Image-based analysis of meibomian gland dysfunction using conditional generative adversarial neural network," BMJ Open Ophthalmol., vol. 6, no. 1, p. e000436, 2021.