

Merging Virtual Objects with the Real World: Seeing Ultrasound Imagery within the Patient

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Abstract

We describe initial results which show "live" ultrasound echography data visualized within a pregnant human subject. The visualization is achieved by using a small video camera mounted in front of a conventional head-mounted display worn by an observer. The camera's video images are composited with computer-generated ones that contain one or more 2D ultrasound images properly transformed to the observer's current viewing position. As the observer walks around the subject, the ultrasound images appear stationary in 3-space within the subject. This kind of enhancement of the observer's vision may have many other applications, e.g., image guided surgical procedures and on location 3D interactive architecture preview.

CR Categories: I.3.7 [Three-Dimensional Graphics and Realism] Virtual Reality, I.3.1 [Hardware architecture]: Three-dimensional displays, I.3.6 [Methodology and Techniques]: Interaction techniques, J.3 [Life and Medical Sciences]: Medical information systems.

Additional Keywords and Phrases: Virtual reality, see-through head-mounted display, ultrasound echography, 3D medical imaging

1. Introduction

We have been working toward an 'ultimate' 3D ultrasound system which acquires and displays 3D volume data in real time. Real-time display can be crucial for applications such as cardiac diagnosis which need to detect certain kinetic features. Our 'ultimate' system design requires advances in both 3D volume data *acquisition* and 3D volume data *display*. Our collaborators, Dr. Olaf von Ramm's group at Duke University, are working toward real-time 3D volume data acquisition [Smith 1991; von Ramm 1991]. At UNC-Chapel Hill, we have been conducting research on real-time 3D volume data visualization.

Our research efforts at UNC have been focused in three areas:
1) algorithms for acquiring and rendering real-time ultrasound data,

2) creating a working virtual environment which acquires and displays 3D ultrasound data in real time, and 3) recovering structural information for volume rendering specifically from ultrasound data, which has unique image processing requirements. This third area is presented in [Lin 1991] and is not covered here.

Section 2 of this paper reviews previous work in 3D ultrasound and Section 3 discusses our research on processing, rendering, and displaying echographic data without a head-mounted display. Since the only real-time volume data scanners available today are 2D ultrasound scanners, we try to approximate our 'ultimate' system by incrementally visualizing a 3D volume dataset reconstructed from a never-ending sequence of 2D data slices [Ohbuchi 1990; 1991]. This is difficult because the volume consisting of multiple 2D slices needs to be visualized incrementally as the 2D slices are acquired. This incremental method has been successfully used in off line experiments with a 3-degree-of-freedom (DOF) mechanical arm tracker and is extendible to 6 degrees of freedom, e.g., a 3D translation and a 3D rotation, at greater computational cost.

Sections 4 and 5 present our research on video see-through head-mounted display (HMD) techniques involving the merging of computer generated images with real-world images. Our video see-through HMD system displays ultrasound echography image data in the context of real (3D) objects. This is part of our continuing see-through HMD research, which includes both optical see-through HMD and video see-through HMD. Even though we concentrate here on medical ultrasound imaging, applications of this display technology are not limited to it (see Section 6.2).

2. Previous Research in 3D Ultrasound

The advantages of ultrasound echography are that it is relatively safe compared with other imaging modalities and that images are generated in real time [Wells 1977]. This makes it the preferred imaging technique for fetal examination, cardiac study, and guided surgical procedures such as fine-needle aspiration biopsy of breast tumors [Fornage 1990]. Ultrasound echography offers the best real-time performance in 3D data acquisition, although slower imaging modalities such as MRI are improving.

The drawbacks of ultrasound imaging include a low signal to noise ratio and poor spatial resolution. Ultrasound images exhibit "speckle" which appears as grainy areas in images. Speckle arises from coherent sound interference effects from tissue substructure. Information such as blood flow can be derived from speckle but in

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general speckle is hard to utilize [Thijssen 1990]. Other problems with ultrasound imaging include attenuation that increases with frequency, phase aberration due to tissue inhomogeneity, and reflection and refraction artifacts [Harris 1990].

2.1 3D Ultrasound Image Acquisition

Just as ultrasound echography has evolved from 1D data acquisition to 2D data acquisition, work is in progress to advance to 3D data acquisition. Dr. Olaf von Ramm's group at Duke University is developing a 3D scanner which will acquire 3D data in real time [Shattuck 1984; Smith 1991; von Ramm 1991]. The 3D scanner uses a 2D phased array transducer to sweep out an imaging volume. A parallel processing technique called *Explososcan* is used on return echoes to boost the data acquisition rate.

Since such a real-time 3D medical ultrasound scanning system is not yet available, prior studies on 3D ultrasound imaging known to the authors have tried to reconstruct 3D data from imaging primitives of a lesser dimension (usually 2D images). To reconstruct a 3D image from images of a lesser dimension, the location and orientation of the imaging primitives must be known. Coordinate values are explicitly tracked either acoustically [Brinkley 1978; King 1990; Moritz 1983], mechanically [Geiser 1982a; Geiser 1982b; Hottier 1989; McCann 1988; Ohbuchi 1990; Raichelen 1986; Stickels 1984], or optically [Mills 1990]. In other systems, a human or a machine makes scans at predetermined locations and/or orientations [Collet Billon 1990; Ghosh 1982; Itoh 1979; Lalouche 1989; Matsumoto 1981; Nakamura 1984; Tomographic Technologies 1991].

A particularly interesting system under development at Philips Paris Research Laboratory is one of the closest yet to a real-time 3D ultrasound scanner [Collet Billon 1990]. It is a follow on to earlier work which featured a manually guided scanner with mechanical tracking [Hottier 1990]. This near real-time 3D scanner is a mechanical sector scanner, in which a conventional 2D sector scanhead with an annular array transducer is rotated by a stepper motor to get a third scanning dimension. In a period of 3 to 5 seconds, 50 to 100 slices of 2D sector scan images are acquired. Currently the annular array transducer in this system provides better spatial resolution, but less temporal resolution, than the real-time 3D phased array system by von Ramm et al., mentioned above. A commercial product, the *Echo-CT* system by Tomographic Technologies, GMBH, uses the linear translation of a transducer inside a tube inserted into the esophagus to acquire parallel slices of the heart. Image acquisition is gated by respiration and an EKG to reduce registration problems [Tomographic Technologies 1991].

2.2 3D Ultrasound Image Display

One should note that 3D image data can be presented not only in visual form, but also as a set of calculated values, e.g., a ventricular volume. The visual form can be classified further by the rendering primitives used, which can be either geometric (e.g., polygons) or image-based (e.g., voxels). Many early studies focused on non-invasively estimating of the volume of the heart chamber [Brinkley 1978; Ghosh 1982; Raichelen 1986; Stickels 1984]. Typically, 2D echography (2DE) images were stored on video tape and manually processed off-line. Since visual presentation was of secondary interest, wire frames or a stack of contours were often used to render

An interesting extension to 2D display is a system that tracks the location and orientation of 2D image slices with 6 DOF [King 1990]. On each 2D displayed image, the system overlays lines indicating the intersection of the current image with other 2D images already acquired. The authors claim that these lines help the viewer understand the relationship of the 2D image slices in 3D space. Other studies reconstructed 3D grey level images preserving grey scale, which can be crucial to tissue characterization [Collet Billon 1990; Hottier 1989; Lalouche 1989; McCann 1988; Nakamura 1984; Pini 1990; Tomographic Technologies 1991]. [Lalouche 1989] is a mammogram study using a special 2DE scanner that can acquire and store 45 consecutive parallel slices at 1 mm intervals. A volume is reconstructed by cubic-spline interpolation and then volume rendered. [McCann 1988] performed gated acquisition of a heart's image over a cardiac cycle by storing 2DE images on video tape and then reconstructing and volume rendering them. 'Repetitive low-pass filtering' was used during reconstruction to fill the spaces between radial slices, which suppressed aliasing artifacts. [Tomographic Technologies 1991] provides flexible re-slicing by up to 6 planes as well other imaging modes. [Collet Billon 1990] uses two visualization techniques: re-slicing by an arbitrary plane and volume rendering. The former allows faster but only 2D viewing on a current workstation. The latter allows 3D viewing but often involves cumbersome manual segmentation. The reconstruction algorithm uses straightforward low pass filtering.

3. Incremental Volume Visualization

We have been experimenting with volume rendering as one alternative for visualizing dynamic ultrasound volume data. Standard volume rendering techniques which rely heavily on preprocessing do not apply well to dynamic data which must be visualized in real time [Levoy 1988; Sabella 1988; Upson 1988]. We review here an incremental, interactive, 3D ultrasound visualization technique which visualizes a 3D volume as it is incrementally updated by a sequence of registered 2D ultrasound images [Ohbuchi 1990; 1991].

Our target function is sampled at irregular points and may change over time. Instead of directly visualizing samples from this target, we reconstruct a regular 3D volume from this time series of spatially irregular sample points. This places a limit on storage and computation requirements which would grow without bound if we retained all the past sample points. The reconstructed volume is then rendered with an incremental volume-rendering technique.

The reconstruction is a 4D convolution process. A 3D Gaussian kernel is used for spatial reconstruction followed by a temporal reconstruction based on simple auto regressive moving average (ARMA) filtering [Haddad 1991]. Time stamps are assigned to each 3D voxel, which are updated during reconstruction. The time stamp difference between a reconstructed voxel and an incoming sample is used to compute coefficients for the ARMA filter. The 3D Gaussian filter is loosely matched to the point spread function of the ultrasound transducer and is a good choice because it minimizes the product of spatial bandwidth and spatial frequency bandwidth [Hildreth 1983; Leipnik 1960].

An image-order, ray-casting algorithm based on [Levoy 1988] renders the final images incrementally. Rendering is incremental and fast only if the viewpoint is fixed and if the updated volume is relatively small. Shading and ray sampling are done only for voxels proximate to incoming data. The ray samples are stored

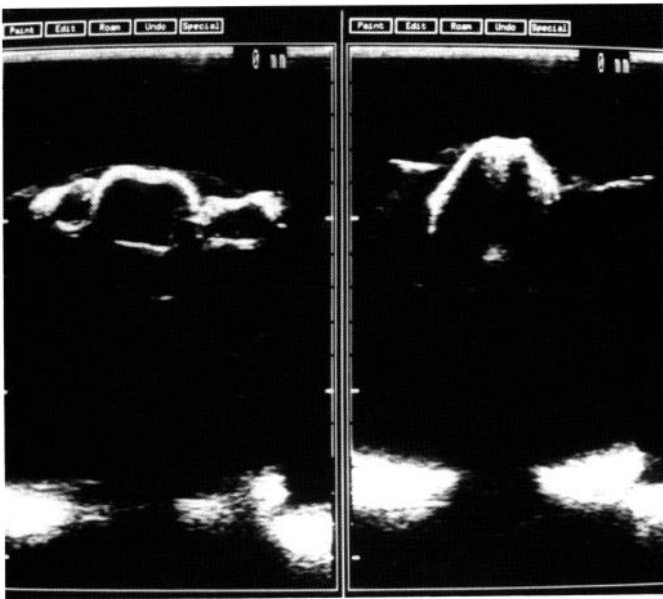


Figure 1. Two of 90 2D ultrasound echography images of a plastic toy doll phantom which was scanned in a water tank. The scans shown are at the torso (left) and at the head (right). The clouds at the bottom of the scans are artifacts due to reflections from the bottom of the water tank.



Figure 2. Reconstructed and rendered image of the toy doll phantom using incremental volume visualization.

in a 3D array in screen space called a "ray cache" for later use. The ray cache is hierarchical so that a small partial update of the ray cache can be composited quickly ($O(\log(n))$) [Ohbuchi 1991]. The hierarchical ray cache also allows fast rendering of polygons properly composited with volume data, which can enhance the volume visualization [Levoy 1990; Miyazawa 1991]. This incremental volume rendering algorithm is not restricted to ultrasound and is applicable to other problems which update volume data incrementally, e.g., interactive volume modeling by sculpting [Galyean 1991].

To test this visualization technique, we acquired a series of 2D images with a manually guided conventional 2DE scanhead attached to a mechanical tracking arm with 3 DOF (two translations and one rotation). As we scanned various targets in a water tank, their images and their corresponding geometry were stored off-line. We then ran the incremental volume visualization algorithm on a DECstation 5000 with 256 MB of memory using this data. With a reconstruction buffer size of $150 \times 150 \times 300$ and an image size of 256×256 , it took 15–20 seconds to reconstruct and render a typical image after insertion of a 2D data slice. This time varied with reconstruction, shading, and viewing parameters.

Figure 1 shows 2 out of 90 2D images of a plastic toy doll phantom which is visualized in Figure 2. The 2D images were produced by an ATL Mark-4 Scanner with a 3.5 MHz linear scanhead. The 2D images overlap but are roughly parallel at approximately 2 mm intervals.

4. Virtual Environment Ultrasound Imaging

Various medical ultrasound imaging applications require a registration of ultrasound images with anatomical references, e.g., in performing a fine needle aspiration biopsy of a suspected breast tumor [Fornage 1990]. A virtual environment which displays images acquired by ultrasound equipment in place within a patient's anatomy could facilitate such an application. We have developed an experimental system that displays multiple 2D medical ultrasound images overlaid on real-world images. In January 1992, after months of development with test objects in water tanks, we performed our first experiment with a human subject.

Our virtual environment ultrasound imaging system works as follows (note that this is a different system than our older one described in the previous section): as each echography image is acquired by an ultrasound scanner, its position and orientation in 3D world space are tracked with 6 degrees of freedom (DOF). Simultaneously the position and orientation of a HMD are also tracked with 6 DOF. Using this geometry, an image-generation system generates 3D renderings of the 2D ultrasound images. These images are video mixed with real-world images from a miniature TV camera mounted on the HMD. The resulting composite image shows the 2D ultrasound data registered in its true 3D location.

Figure 3 is a block diagram of our system's hardware. There are three major components: 1) an image-acquisition and tracking system, which consists of an ultrasound scanner and a Polhemus tracking system, 2) an image-generation system, which is our Pixel-Planes 5 graphics multicomputer, and 3) a HMD which includes a portable TV camera, a video mixer, and a VPL EyePhone. Each component is described in more detail in Sections 4.1–4.3.

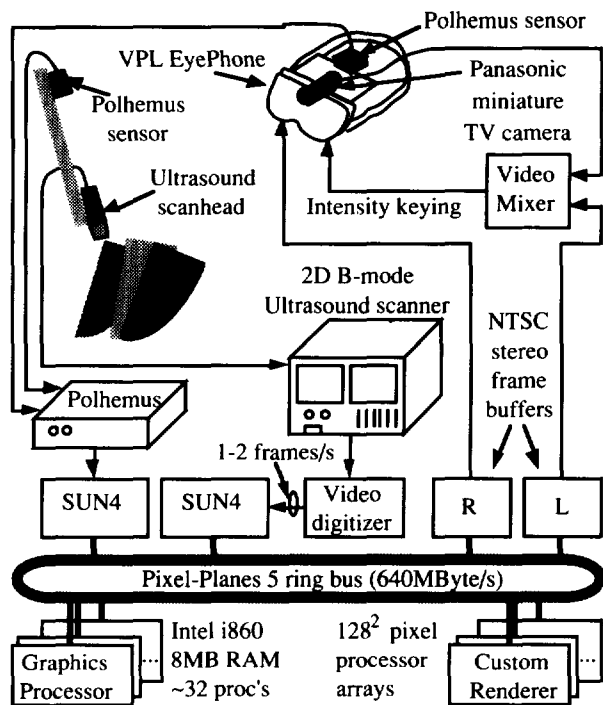


Figure 3. Hardware block diagram for the virtual environment ultrasound system.

4.1 Image Acquisition and Tracking

Two dimensional ultrasound images are generated by an IREX System III echography scanner with a 16 mm aperture 2.5 MHz phased array transducer. These images are digitized by a SUN 4 with a Matrox MVP/S real-time video digitizer and transferred to our Pixel-Planes 5 graphics multicomputer [Fuchs 1989]. The SUN 4 operates as a 2DE image server for requests from the Pixel-Planes 5 system. Images are distributed among the Graphics Processors (GPs) on a round-robin scan-line by scan-line basis. Due to the bandwidth limitations of the SUN 4 VME bus, transfer of the $512 \times 480 \times 8$ bits/pixel images is limited to 2 Hz.

A Polhemus system with one source and two receivers is used for tracking [Polhemus 1980]. One receiver tracks the HMD. The other tracks the ultrasound transducer. The Polhemus system is mounted in non ferrous materials away from magnetic interference sources such as the ultrasound transducer, HMD, and other lab equipment. A calibration procedure is used to relate both the ultrasound transducer to its Polhemus receiver and the HMD TV camera to its Polhemus receiver mounted on the HMD. This calibration procedure is described in Section 4.4.

4.2 Image Generation

Images are generated by the Pixel-Planes 5 system based on geometry information from the tracking system. Pixel-Planes 5 runs a custom PHIGS implementation which incorporates a facility to update display structures asynchronously from the display process. This separates the interactive virtual environment update rate from the 2D ultrasound image data acquisition rate. Images in the virtual

environment are registered to the real world within the update-rate limit of the tracking and display system and not within the acquisition-rate limit of the image-acquisition system.

Pixels from the 2D ultrasound images are rendered as small, unshaded sphere primitives in the virtual environment. The 2D ultrasound images appear as space-filling slices registered in their correct 3D position. The ultrasound images are distributed among the GPs where they are clipped to remove unnecessary margins and transformed into sphere primitives, which are then sent to the Renderer boards for direct rasterization. Pixel-Planes 5 renders spheres very rapidly, even faster than it renders triangles, over 2 million per second [Fuchs 1985; 1989]. Final images are assembled in double buffered NTSC frame buffers for display on the HMD. To reduce the number of sphere primitives displayed, the ultrasound images are filtered and subsampled at every 4th pixel. Due to the low resolution of the HMD and inherent bandwidth limitation of the ultrasound scanner, this subsampling does not result in a substantial loss of image quality. An option to threshold lower intensity pixels in 2D ultrasound images prior to 3D rendering can suppress lower intensity pixels from being displayed.

4.3 Video See-Through HMD

A video see-through HMD system combines real-world images captured by head-mounted TV cameras with synthetic images generated to correspond with the real-world images. The important issues are tracking the real-world cameras accurately and generating the correct synthetic images to model the views of the cameras. Correct stereo modeling adds concerns about matching a pair of cameras to each other as well as tracking and modeling them. [Robinet 1991] discusses stereo HMD in detail and includes an analysis of the VPL EyePhone.

A Panasonic GP-KS102 camera provides monocular see-through capability for the left eye in our current system. Images from this camera are mixed with synthetic images from the Pixel-Planes 5 system using the luminance (brightness) keying feature on a Grass Valley Group Model 100 video mixer. With luminance keying, the pixels in the output image are selected from either the real-world image or the synthetic image, depending on the luminance of pixels in the synthetic image. The combined image for the left eye and a synthetic image only for the right eye are displayed on a VPL EyePhone.

4.4 Calibration

Two transformations, a "transducer transformation" and a "camera transformation," are needed to calibrate our test system. The transducer transformation relates the position and orientation of the Polhemus tracker attached to the ultrasound transducer to the position and scale of 2D ultrasound image pixels in 3D space. The camera transformation relates the position and orientation of the head-mounted Polhemus tracker to the HMD TV camera position, orientation, and field of view.

Both transformations are calculated by first locating a calibration jig in both the lab (real) and tracker (virtual) 3D coordinate systems. This is accomplished by performing rigid body rotations with the transducer tracker about axes which are to be fixed in both the real and virtual coordinate systems. Two samples from the tracker, each consisting of both a position and an orientation, are

sufficient to fix each calibration axis. The transducer transformation is computed by taking an ultrasound image of a target of known geometry placed at a known position on the calibration jig. By finding the pixel coordinates of point targets in the ultrasound image, the world coordinates of pixels in the ultrasound image can be found. From this relationship and the location of the Polhemus tracker attached to the ultrasound transducer at the time the target was imaged, the transducer transformation is derived. Similarly, the camera transformation is found by placing the HMD TV camera at known positions and orientations relative to the calibration jig. The field of view of the TV camera is known from camera specifications. Manual adjustments are used to improve the camera transformation.

5. Experimental Results

In January 1992 we conducted an experiment with a live human subject using the method described above. We scanned the abdomen of a volunteer who was 38 weeks pregnant. An ultrasound technician from the Department of Obstetrics & Gynecology of the UNC Hospitals performed the ultrasound scanning.

Figure 4 is a scene from the experiment. A person looks on with modified VPL EyePhone with the miniature video camera mounted on top and in front. Figure 5 shows the left eye view from the HMD, a composition of synthetic and real images. Figure 6 is another view from the left eye of the HMD wearer which shows several 2D ultrasound images in place within the subject's abdomen.

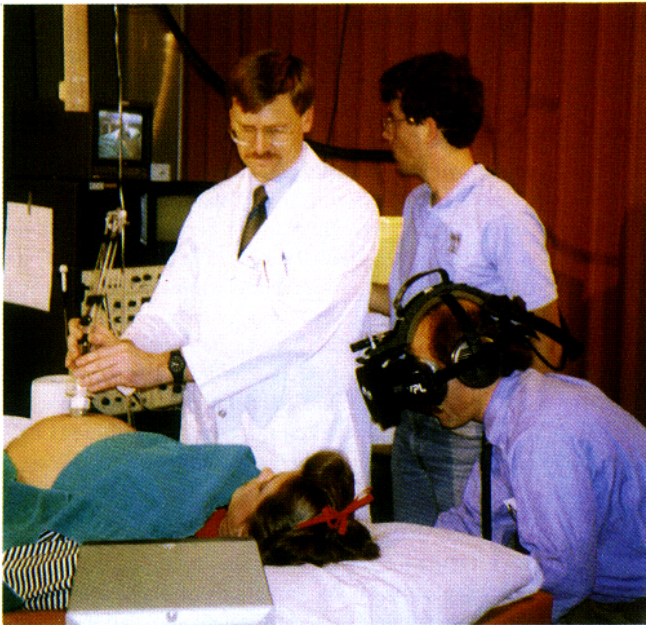


Figure 4. An ultrasound technician scans a subject while another person looks on with the video see-through head-mounted display (HMD). Note the miniature video camera attached to the front of the VPL EyePhone HMD.

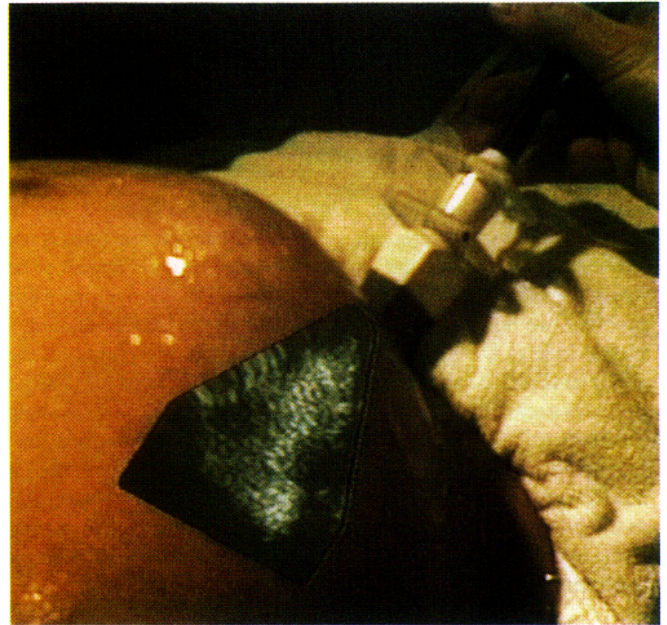


Figure 5. A video image presented to the left eye of the HMD showing a view of the subject's abdomen with a 2D ultrasound image superimposed and registered. Note the ultrasound transducer registered with the image acquired by it. The 2D image is from the antero-inferior view.

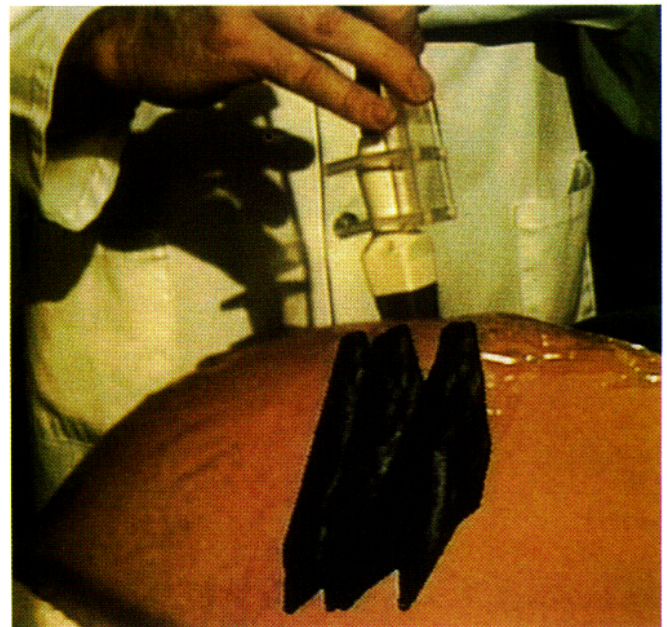


Figure 6. Another video image presented to the HMD showing several 2D image slices in 3D space within the patient's abdomen. The image slices are from the anterior view.

6. Conclusions and Future Directions

The results presented so far are the initial steps in the first application of what we hope will be a flourishing area of computer graphics and visualization.

6.1 Remaining Technical Problems

1) Conflicting visual cues: Our experiment (Figures 5 and 6) showed that simply overlaying synthetic images on real ones is not sufficient. To the user, the ultrasound images did not appear to be *inside* the subject, so much as pasted on *top* of her. To overcome this problem, we now provide additional cues to the user by making a virtual hole in the subject (Figure 7) by digitizing points on the abdominal surface and constructing a shaded polygonal pit. The pit provides occlusion cues by obscuring the abdominal surface along the inside walls of the pit. Shading the pit provides an additional cue. Unfortunately, this does not completely solve the problem; the pit hides *everything* in the real image that is in the same location (in 2D) as the pit, including real objects that are closer in 3D than the pit. (Note in Figure 7, the edge of the transducer is hidden behind the pit representation even though it should appear in front of it.)

To solve this problem, the systems needs to know depth information for both the real and synthetic objects visible from the HMD user's viewpoint. This would make it possible to present correct occlusion cues by combining the live and synthetic images with a Z-buffer like algorithm. An ideal implementation of this

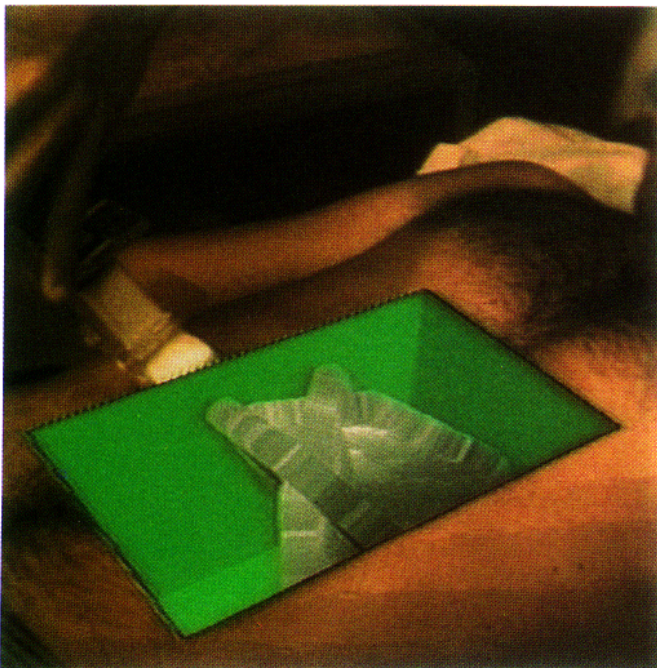


Figure 7. An image showing a synthetic hole rendered around ultrasound images in an attempt to avoid conflicting visual cues. Note the depth cues provided by occlusion of the image slices by the pit walls and shading of the pit. Also note the incorrect obscuration of the ultrasound transducer by the pit wall. (RT3200 Advantage II ultrasound scanner courtesy of General Electric Medical Systems.)

would require real-time range finding from the viewpoint of the HMD user - a significant technical challenge. Graphics architectures that provide real-time depth-based image composition are already under development [Molnar 1992].

Another remaining problem is the visualization of internal 3D structure in data captured by the ultrasound scanner. Neither our incremental volume rendering algorithm (Section 3) nor multiple explicit image slices in 3-space (Figure 6) solve this problem well. A combination of multiple visualization methods will probably be necessary in the future. We suspect that this problem is difficult because the human visual system is not accustomed to seeing structure within opaque objects, and so our development cannot be guided by the "gold standard" of reality that has been used so effectively in guiding other 3D rendering investigations.

2) System lag: Lag in image generation and tracking is noticeable in all head-mounted displays; but it is dramatically accentuated with see-through HMD. The "live video" of the observer's surroundings moves appropriately during any head movement but the synthetic image overlay lags behind. This is currently one of our system's major problems which prevents it from giving the user a convincing experience of seeing synthetic objects or images hanging in 3-space. A possible solution may be to delay the live video images so that their delay matches that of the synthetic images. This will align the real and synthetic images, but won't eliminate the lag itself. We are also considering predictive tracking as a way to reduce the effect of the lag [Liang 1991]. Developers of some multi-million dollar flight simulators have studied predictive tracking for many years, but unfortunately for us, they have not, to our knowledge, published details of their methods and their methods' effectiveness. For the immediate future, we are planning to move to our locally-developed "ceiling tracker" [Ward 1992] and use predictive tracking.

3) Tracking system range and stability: Even though we are using the most popular and probably most effective commercially available tracking system from Polhemus, we are constantly plagued by limitations in tracking volume and tracking stability [Liang 1991]. The observer often steps inadvertently out of tracker range, and even while keeping very still the observer must cope with objects in the synthetic image "swimming" in place. We are eagerly awaiting the next generation of tracking systems from Polhemus and other manufacturers that are said to overcome most of these problems. Even more capable tracking systems will be needed in order to satisfy the many applications in which the observer must move about in the real world instead of a laboratory, operating room or other controlled environment. Many schemes have been casually proposed over the years, but we know of no device that has been built and demonstrated. Even the room-size tracker we built and demonstrated for a week at SIGGRAPH '91 still needs special ceiling panels with infrared LEDs [Ward 1992].

4) Head-mounted display system resolution: For many of the applications envisioned, the image quality of current head-mounted video displays is totally inadequate. In a see-through application, a user is even more sensitive to the limitations of his head-mounted display than in a conventional non-see-through application because he is painfully aware of the visual details he's missing.

5) More powerful display engines: Even with all the above problems solved, the synthetic images we would like to see, for example, real-time volume visualization of real-time volume data, would still take too long to be created. Much more powerful image

generation systems are needed if we are to be able to visualize usefully detailed 3D imagery.

6.2 Other Applications

1) Vision in surgery: In neurosurgery, ultrasound is already used to image nearby arteries that should be avoided by an impending surgical incision.

2) Burning buildings: With close-range, millimeter wavelength radar, rescuers may be able to "see through" the smoke in the interior of burning buildings.

3) Building geometry: Geometry or other structural data could be added to a "live" scene. In the above "burning building" scenario, parts of a building plan could be superimposed onto the visual scene, such as the location of stairways, hallways, or the best exits out of the building.

4) Service information: Information could be displayed to a service technician working on complicated machinery such as a jet engine. Even simpler head-mounted displays, ones without head tracking, already provide information to users on site and avoid using a large cumbersome video screens. Adding head tracking would allow 3D superimposition to show, for instance, the location of special parts within an engine, or the easiest path for removal or insertion of a subassembly.

5) Architecture on site: Portable systems could allow builders and architects to preview buildings on site before construction or visualize additions to existing architecture.

With the work presented here and the identification of problems and possibilities for further research, we hope to encourage applications not only of "virtual environments" (imaginary worlds), but also applications that involve an "enhancement of vision" in our real world.

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