Computer- and robot-assisted Surgery







Lecture Imaging II NATIONALES CENTRUM FÜR TUMORERKRANKUNGEN PARTNERSTANDORT DRESDEN UNIVERSITÄTS KREBSCENTRUM UCC

getragen von:

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Workflow Computer-assisted Surgery

Image acquisition















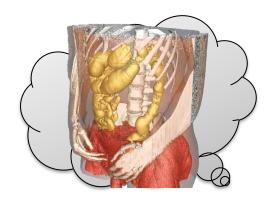


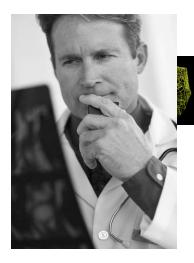










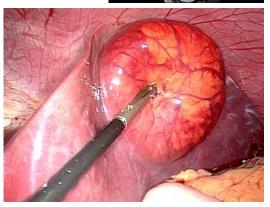




Content

- Magnetic resonance imaging
 - Physical principles: nuclear spin
 - Signal generation: longitudinal and transverse magnetisation
 - Signal measurement: relaxation processes
 - Signal coding: gradient fields
 - signal reconstruction
- Endoscopy imaging
 - Systems
 - Applications
 - Minimal-invasive surgery





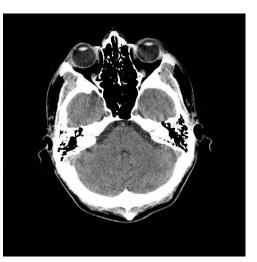


Tomographic Imaging

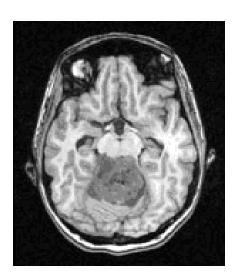
Computed tomography











Tomographic imaging provides cross-sectional images or slices of the human body



Recall CT

Principle

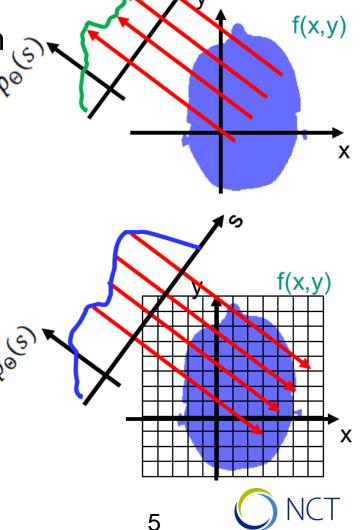
- Based on X-rays
- Many X-ray measurements taken from different angles
- Image reconstruction:
 - Iterative reconstruction
 - Filtered-Backprojection

Advantages

- Good visualisation of bone structures
- Very good resolution, very fast acquisition time

Disadvantage

Radiation exposure



MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING (MRI)



MRI - History

- Nuclear magnetic resonance 1946 (Bloch, Purcell)
- First whole body imaging in 1977 ca. 5 h.
- Noble price in medicine for the development of the MRI



Paul Lauterbur



Peter Mansfield





MRI - Principle

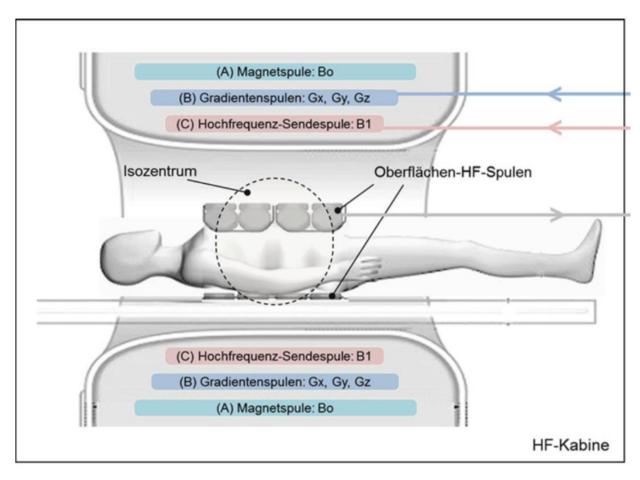




- Based on quantum properties of nuclear spins
- Excitation properties using radio frequency
- Measurement of tissue relaxation



MRI - Scanner



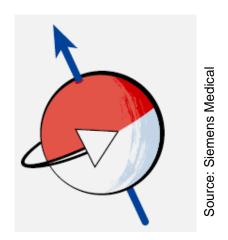
- Usually a tube-shaped system
- Strength of magnetic field: 1.5 Tesla or 3.0 Tesla
- Superconducting magnets → no electrical resistance (



Physical Principle: Nuclear Spin

MRI requirement: nuclear magnetic moment

- Atomic nucleus needs to have 2 properties:
 - Spin
 - Charge



- Atomic nucleus with an odd number of protons or neutrons have a spin
- Atomic nucleus with a spin have a nuclear magnetic moment (otherwise magnetic moment is zero)

 $\vec{\mu} = \gamma \vec{J} = \gamma \hbar \vec{I}$ gyromagnetic ratio (isotope specific)

Physical Principle: Nuclear Spin

MRI requirement: nuclear magnetic moment

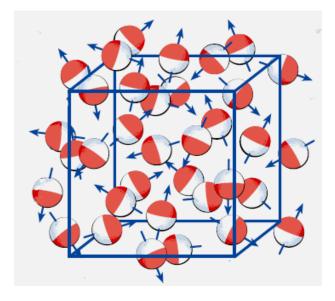
Good MR nuclei are hydrogen (¹H), carbon (¹³C), ¹⁹F, ²³Na,
 ³¹P

_	Kern	Kernspin I	Gyromagnetisches Verhältnis/2π [MHz/T]	Natürliche Häufigkeit
	$^{1}\mathrm{H}$	1/2	42,577	99,9885 %
	³¹ P	1/2	17,25	100 %
	²³ Na	3/2	11,27	100 %
	¹³ C	1/2	10,71	1,07 %
	¹⁹ F	1/2	40,08	100 %
	¹⁷ O	5/2	5,772	0,037 %
	¹²⁹ Xe	1/2	11,78	26,4 %
	³ He	1/2	32,43	0,000137 %

Nuclear Spin

Ground state— without external magnetic field ($B_0=0$)

- nuclear magnetic moments are randomly orientated (due to the thermal movement)
 - →non observable magnetisation



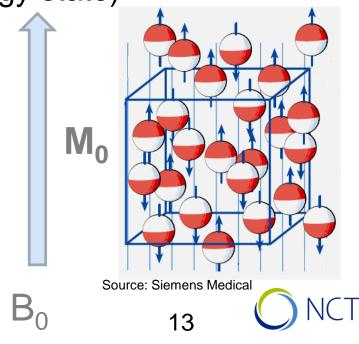
Source: Siemens Medical



Nuclear Spin

Excited state—with magnetic field (B₀>0)

- nuclear magnetic moments align with the magnetic field
- measurable net magnetic moment M₀ in direction of B₀
- Alignment: parallel Spin Up (low energy state) or anti-parallel Spin Down (high energy state)
- Ratio between both states is not 50:50
 - weak magnetisation M₀
- T=300 K (room temperature) $B_0=1.41$ T $\Rightarrow N_{up}/N_{down} \approx 0,9999904$ Every 100 000-te proton contributes to the signal

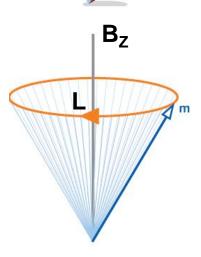


Precession

- Protons experience a torque in perpendicular to the direction of the applied magnetic field that causes precession
- Precession occurs with an angular frequency ω_0 (Larmor frequency):

$$\omega_0 = \gamma B_0$$

Proportional to the magnetic field strength B₀
 and gyromagnetic ratio

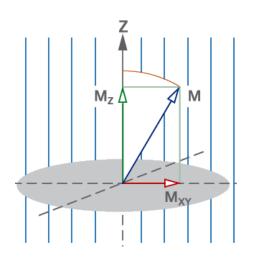


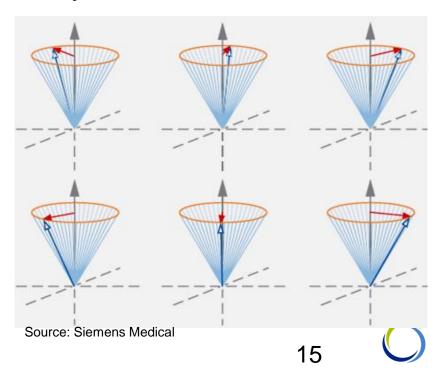
Source: Siemens Medical

Precession

State of identical atomic nucleus in the magnetic field B₀

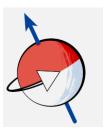
- Spins precess with the same Larmor frequency
- Magnetic moment of each spin has a longitudinal and a transverse component
- But: phase position is arbitrarily
 - → No transverse magnetisation
 - → No measurable signal

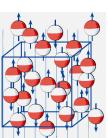


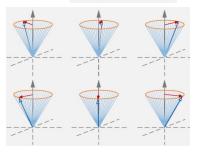


MRI - Summary I

- Some atomic nuclei have a nuclear spin
- Spins align in the magnetic field
 - Two possible (energy) states
- Spins precess with the same Larmor frequency but different phase position
- How is a signal generated?
- → Radio frequency (RF) pulse







Source: Siemens Medical



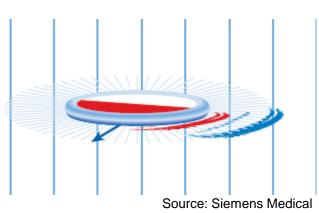
Radio frequency (RF) pulse

- Aim: Deflection of magnetisation from idle position
- Radio frequency (RF) pulse for given flip angle α
 - Short period of high intensity radio-waves at a frequency close to the Larmor frequency $\,\omega_{HF}=\varpi_0\,$
 - Generates a circular magnetic field B_{XY} in the x,y-direction

Two effects:

 Energy input: Spins are deflected from low to higher energy level (spin up to spin down)

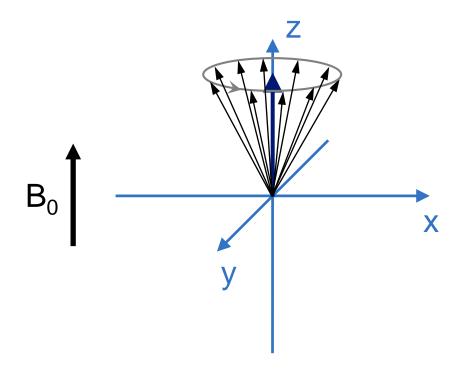
- → Change in the longitudinal magnetisation M₀
- Spins have same phase position
 - → Change in the transverse magnetisation M_{xy}





Longitudinal Magnetisation

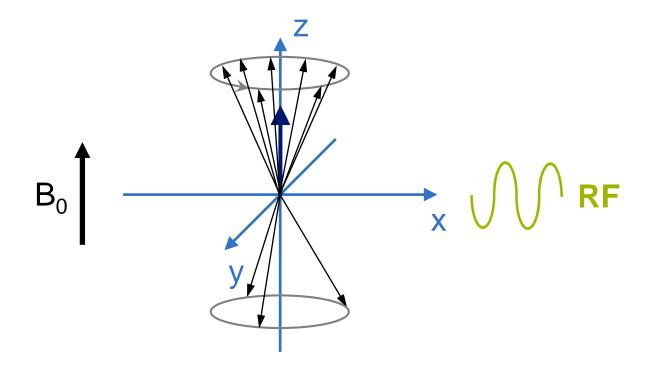
- Before RF pulse:
 - Longitudinal magnetisation is maximal
 - Spins precess around the magnetic field B₀





Transverse Magnetisation

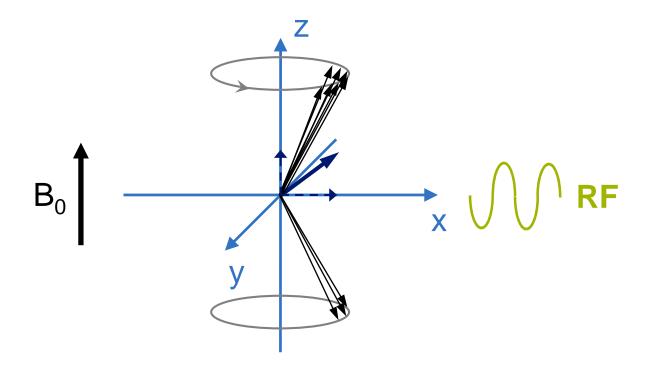
- During RF pulse: α =90°
 - Individual spins are flipped down, raised to an energetically higher level
 - Longitudinal magnetisation becomes smaller





Transverse Magnetisation

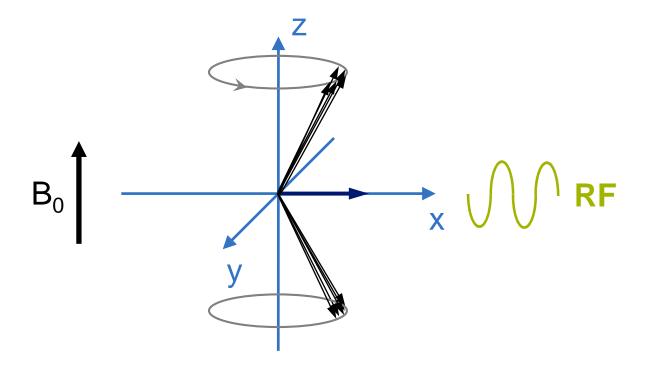
- During RF pulse: α =90°
 - Individual spins are flipped down, raised to an energetically higher level
 - Longitudinal magnetisation becomes smaller
 - Transverse magnetisation becomes higher





Transverse Magnetisation

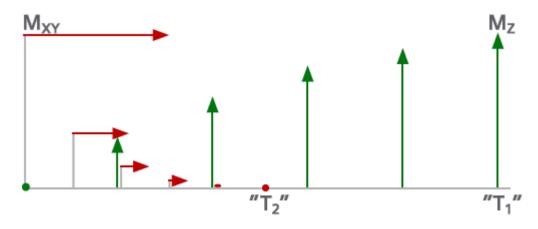
- During RF pulse: α =90°
 - Spins have the same phase position
 - Transverse magnetisation is equal to longitudinal magnetisation
 - Longitudinal magnetisation is zero





Nuclear Magnetic Relaxation

- Relaxation = "recovery"
- Immediately after the α =90° pulse:
 - Spins return to their equilibrium state → Relaxation
- Two effects occur:
 - **Spin-lattice Relaxation**: Individual spins "fold" from the energetically high (antiparallel) to the energetically low (parallel) state
 - → Longitudinal magnetisation M_z>0
 - Spin-Spin Relaxation: Spins no longer in phase, they diverge
 - → Transverse magnetisation M_{xv}=0





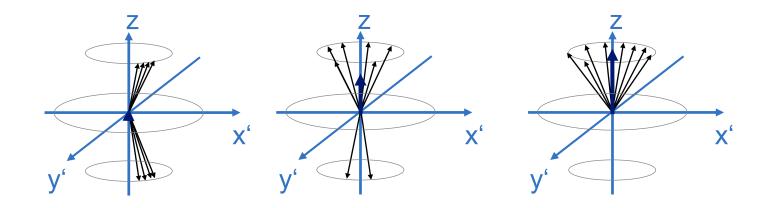
Spin-lattice Relaxation

After RF pulse:

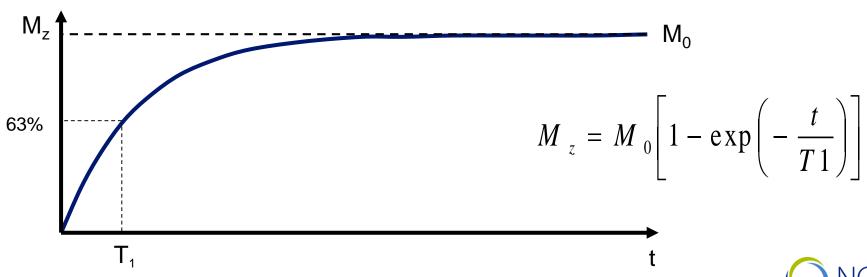
- Interaction with surrounding atoms
- Thermal equilibrium between atoms in the low and high energy levels (i.e., energy dissipation)
- Longitudinal magnetisation builds up exponentially with the time constant T₁ (longitudinal relaxation time)



Spin-lattice Relaxation

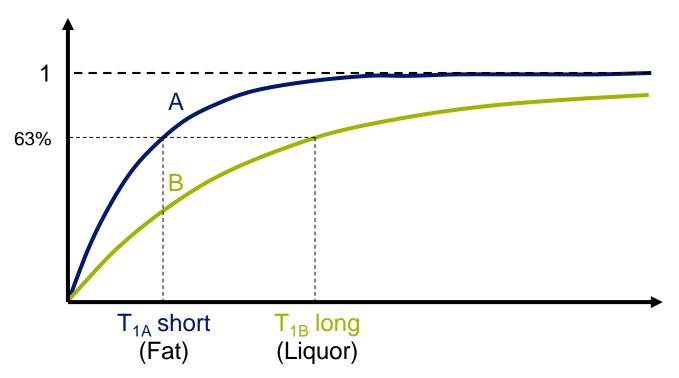


Longitudinal magnetisation

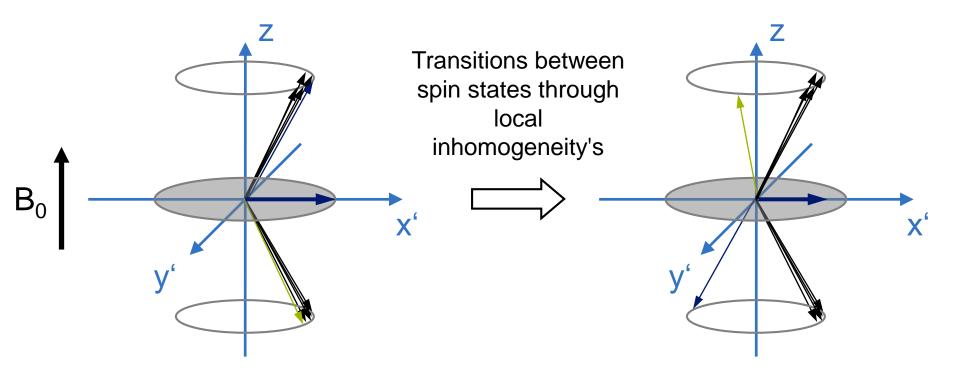


Spin-lattice Relaxation

- Each tissue has its own T₁ time
 - Time after which 63% of the original longitudinal magnetisation has been restored



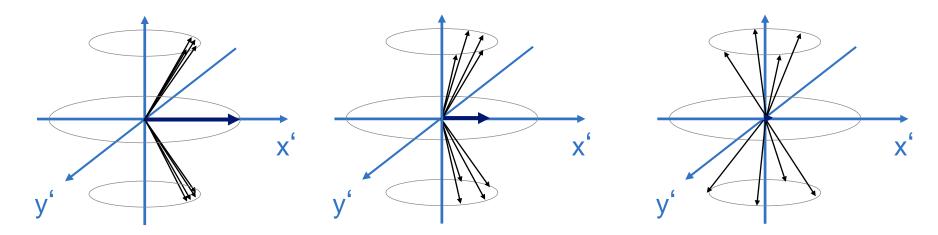




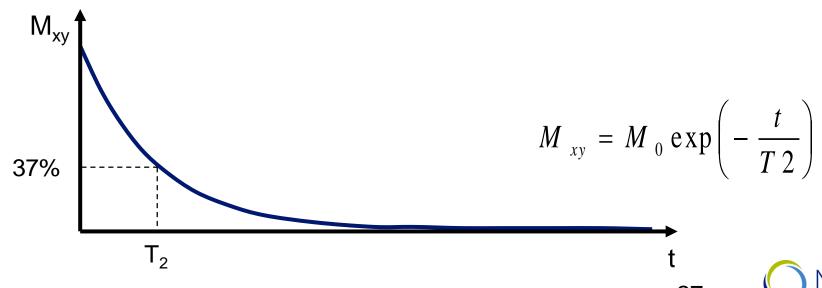
Max. Phase coherence Max. transverse magnetisation M_{xy} directly after 90° RF pulse Loss of phase coherence & transverse magnetisation M_{xy} through spin transitions (no changing the energy balance)

 \rightarrow T₂ relaxation

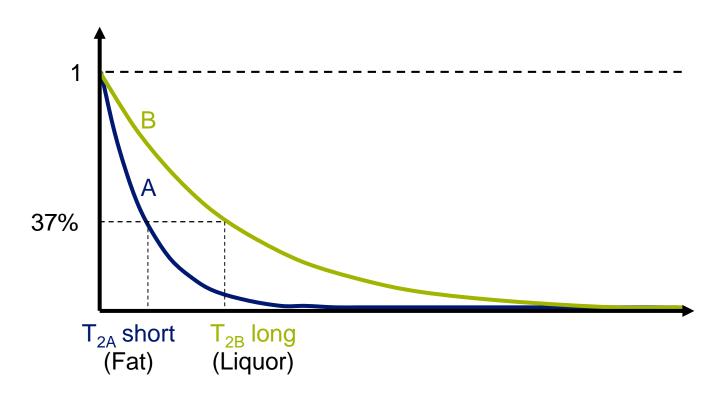




Transverse magnetisation

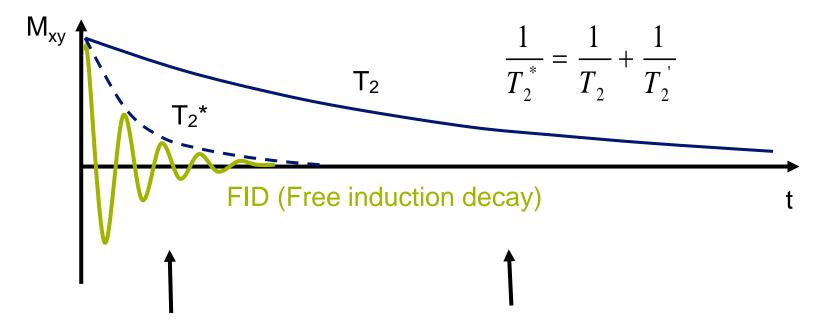


- Each tissue has its own T₂ time
 - Time after which the original transverse magnetisation has dropped to 37%





- Spin-spin relaxation is really caused by:
 - Spin-spin interactions (T₂)
 - Macroscopic magnetic field inhomogeneity's (T₂*)



Signal decays very fast with T₂* macroscopic magnetic field inhomogeneity's

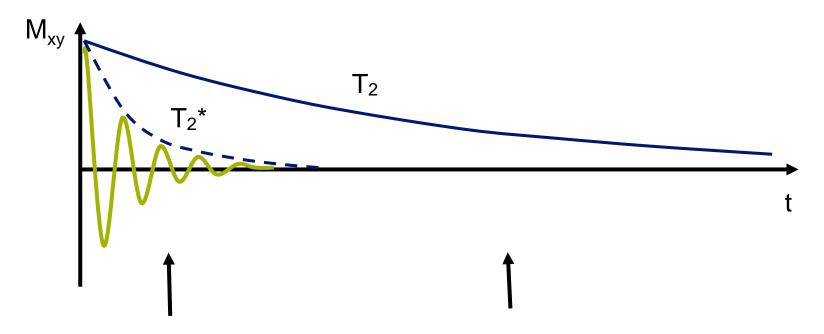
How can the signal be restored at this point?



MRI – Summary II

- Behaviour of the nuclear spins during and after the RF pulse
 - First effect: RF pulse disturbs balance of spins
 - Second effect: spins precess in phase
- After RF α =90°:
 - Longitudinal magnetisation M_Z=0
 - Transverse magnetisation M_{XY}=max
- Two relaxation processes with times T₁ and T₂
 - T₁ significantly greater than T₂
- Duration of relaxation depending on the tissue



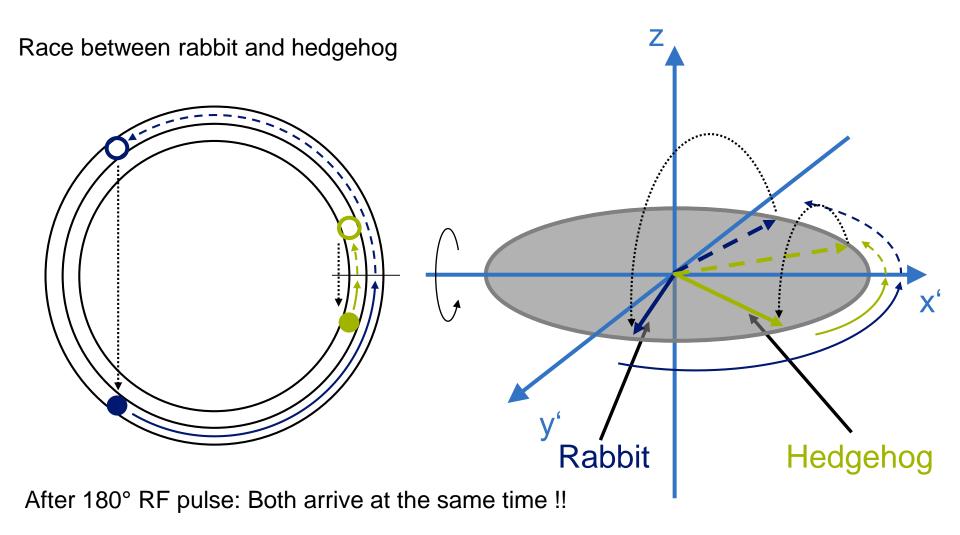


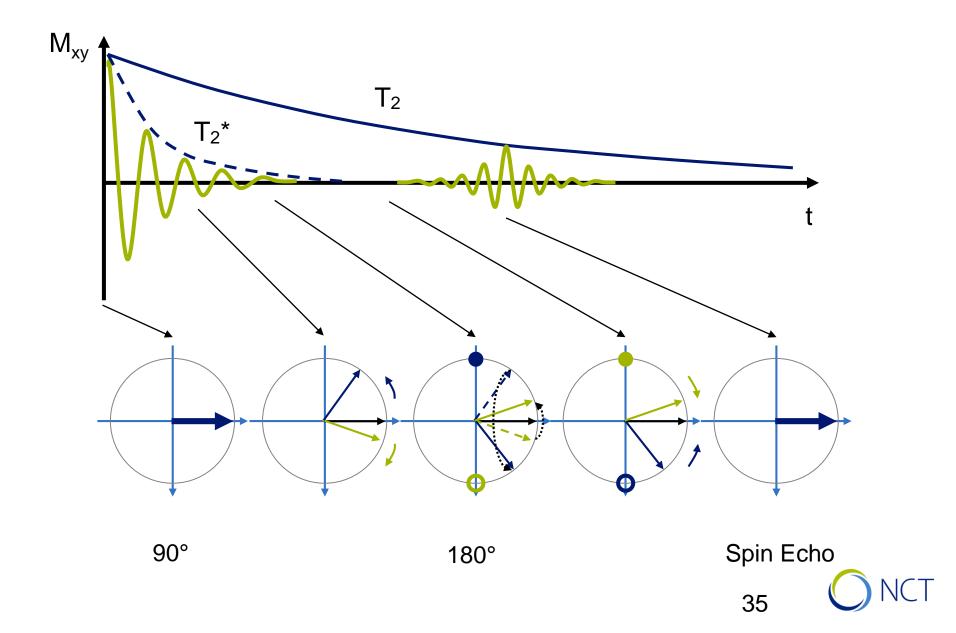
Signal decays very fast with T₂* macroscopic magnetic field inhomogeneity's

How can the signal be restored at this point?

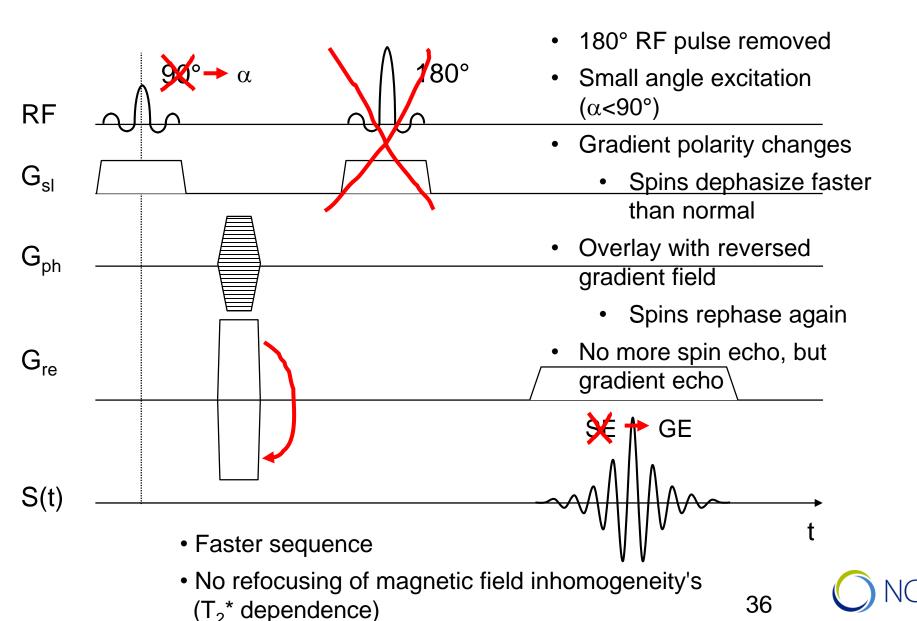






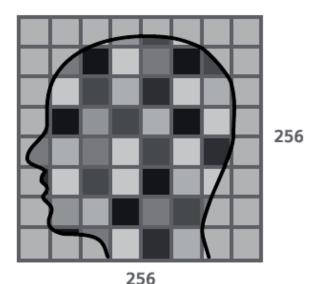


MR Image Sequences – Gradient Echo



From Signal to Images

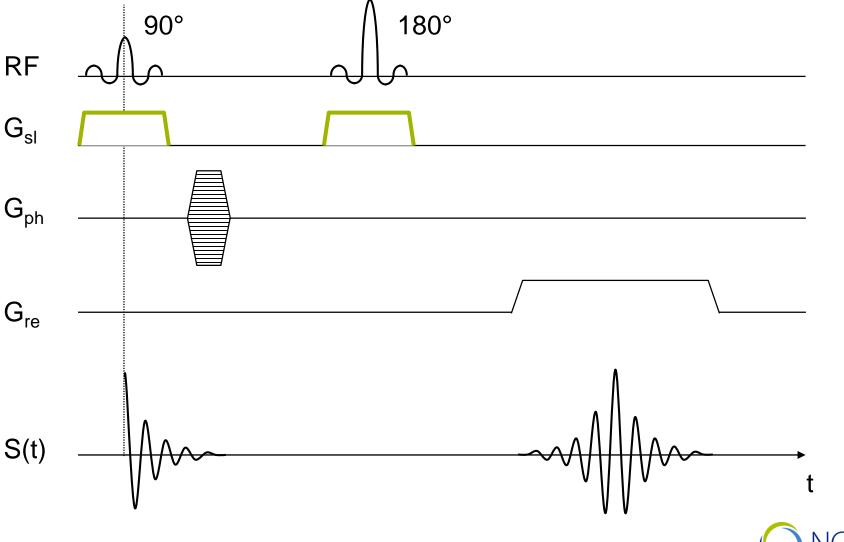
- The result of such measurement is a signal but no Image
- → Location encoding required
- Spatial encoding:
 - Make Larmor frequency
 ω = γ * B₀
 location-dependent
- Make magnetic field location dependent
 - During excitation
 - · During signal acquisition
 - Between
- Application of different gradient fields
 - Slice Selection Gradient (z-direction)
 - Phase encoding (y-direction)
 - Frequency coding (x-direction)



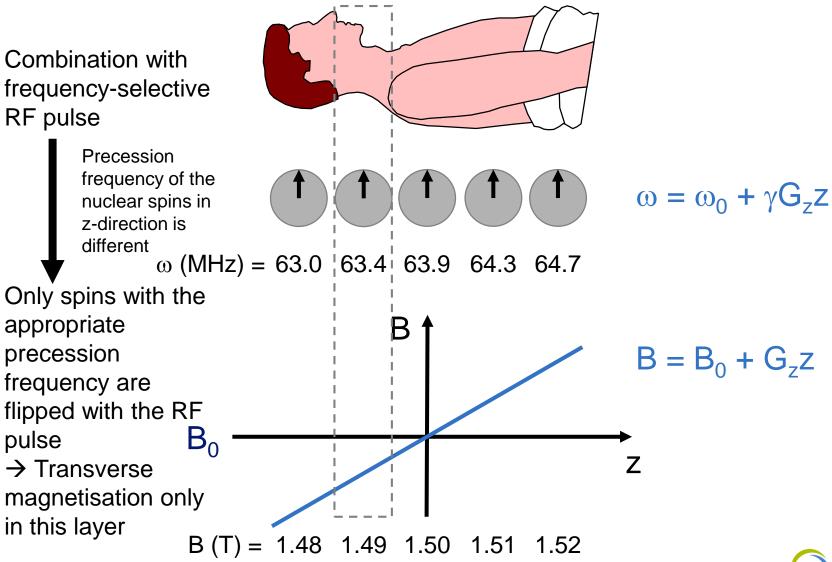
Source: Siemens Medical



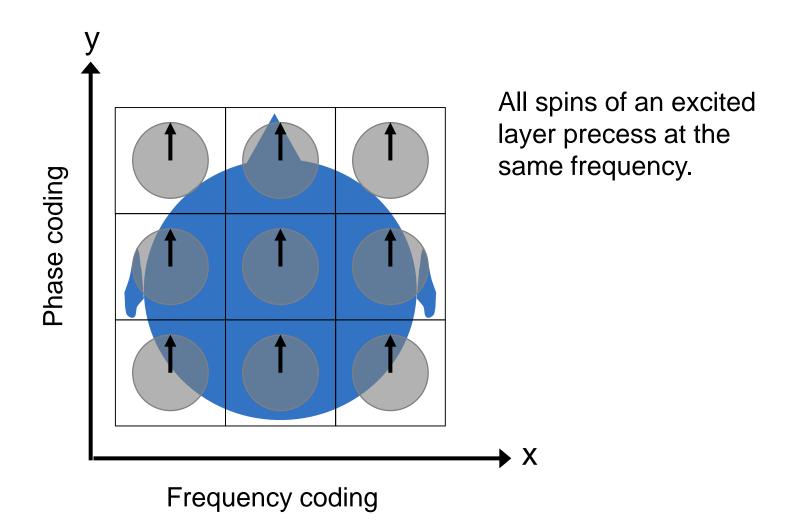
Slice Selection Gradient (z-direction)



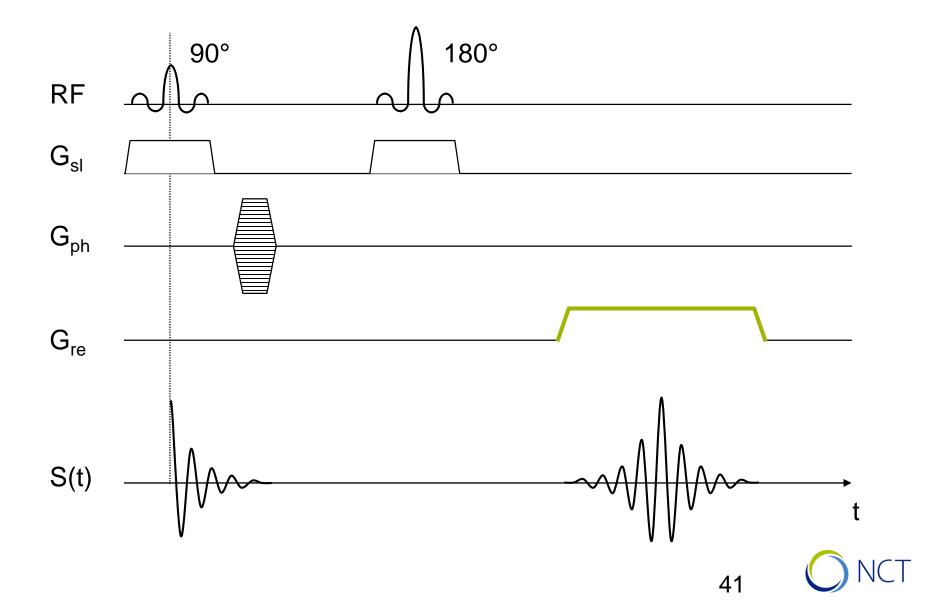
Slice Selection Gradient (z-direction)



Slice Selection Gradient (z-direction)



Frequency Coding Gradient (x-direction)

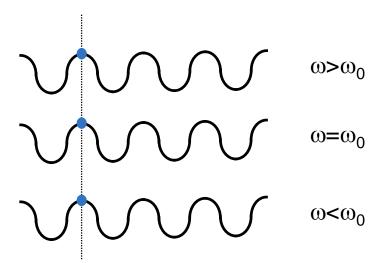


Frequency Coding Gradient (x-direction)

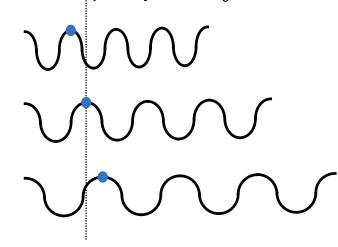
Before

Magnetic field is stronger. Spins precess higher frequency than ω_0 .

During



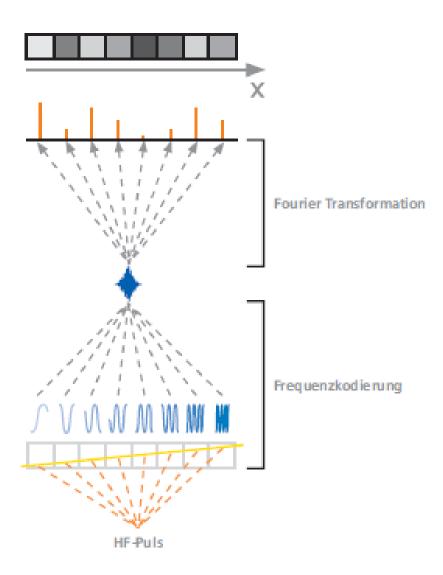
Spins feel the same magnetic field and precess with ω_0 .



Magnetic field is weaker. Spins precess at a lower frequency than ω_0 .



Frequency Coding Gradient (x-direction)

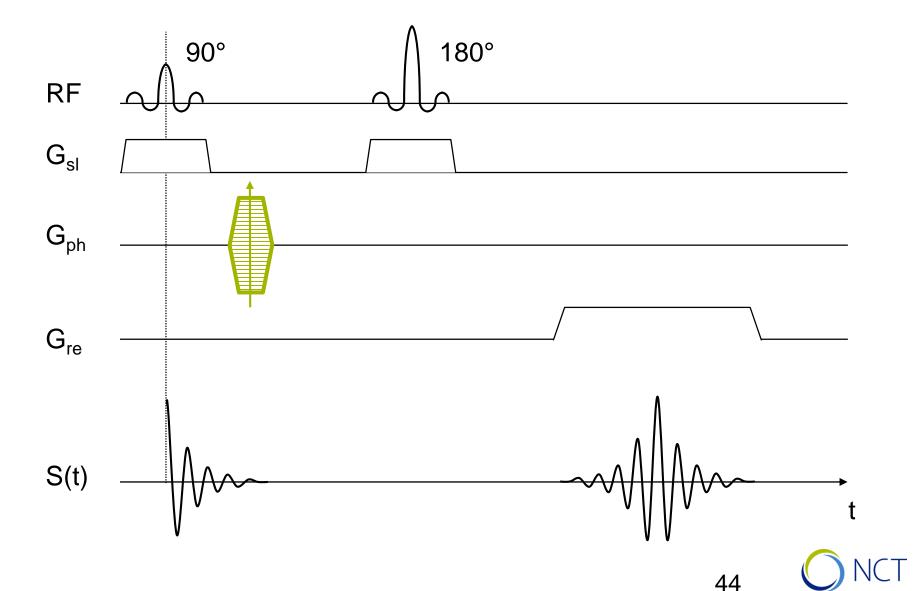


 Measured FID signal is the sum of all individual contributions.

- Spins precess at different frequencies according to their position in the magnetic field gradient.
- Each spin has an individual, frequencycoded locationdependent frequency.



Phase Coding Gradient (y-direction)



Phase Coding Gradient (y-direction)

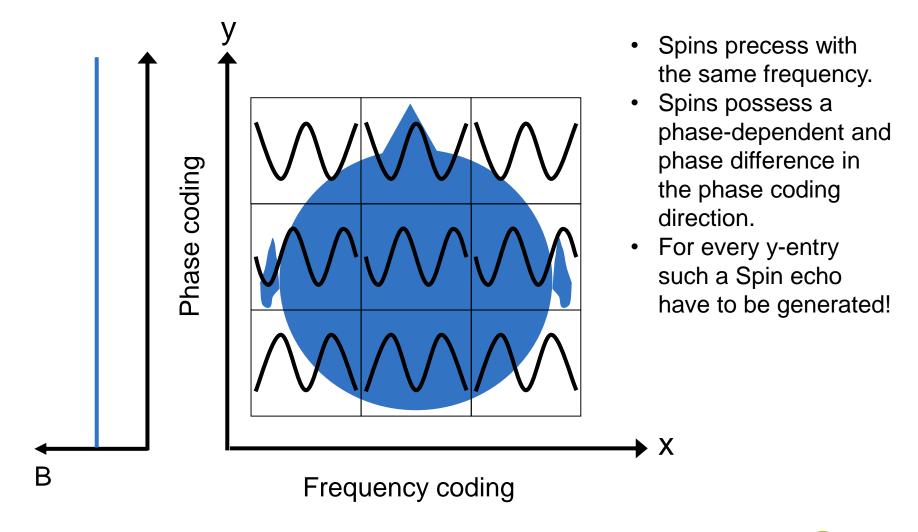




Image Reconstruction

Time domain (no location information)

Gradient

Gradient

K-Space

Fourier transform

Signal at certain time point

Signal at different time points and phase coding differences

Frequency domain (linked to location)

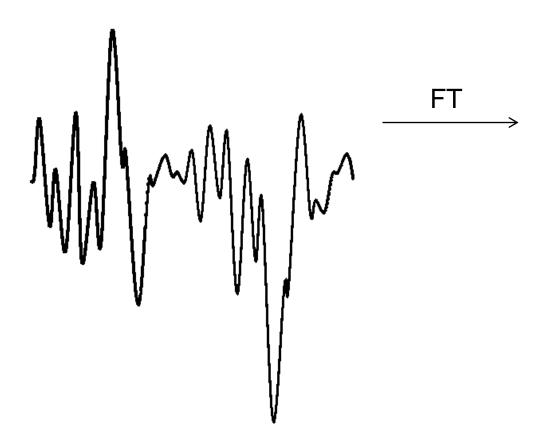


Gray value
corresponds to the
strength of the
transverse
magnetisation at the
time of measurement



Image Reconstruction – Fourier transform

Measured signal in the time domain



Decomposition into individual frequency components

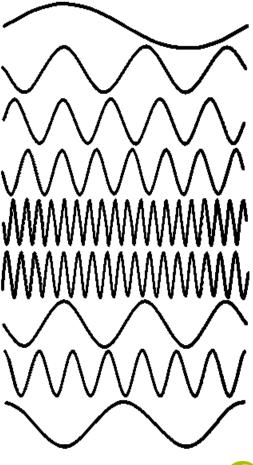
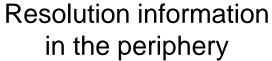
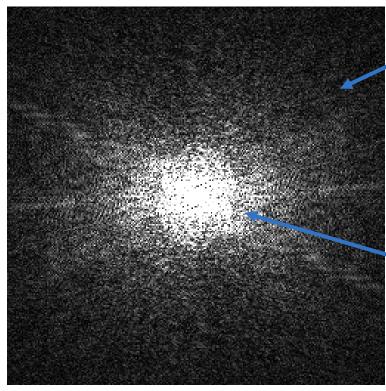




Image Reconstruction – k-Space property





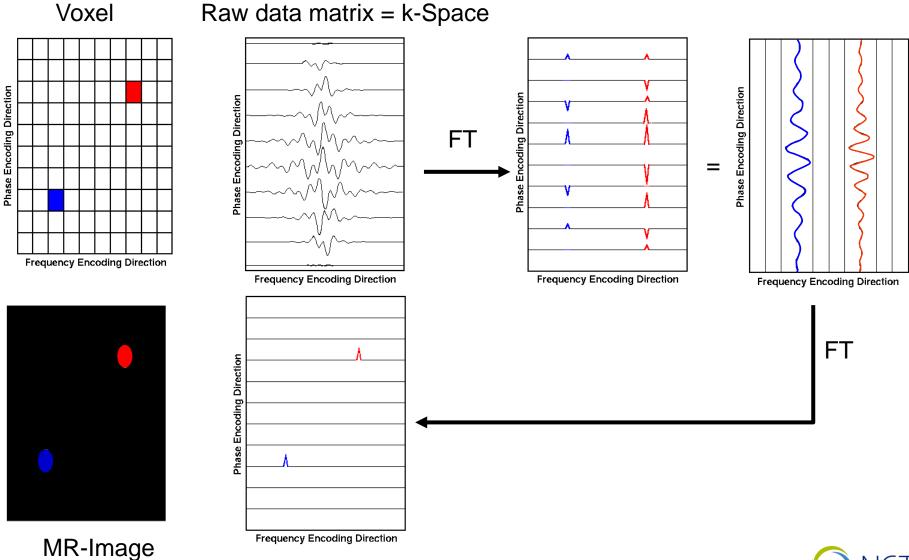
Contrast information in the centre







Image Reconstruction – Example

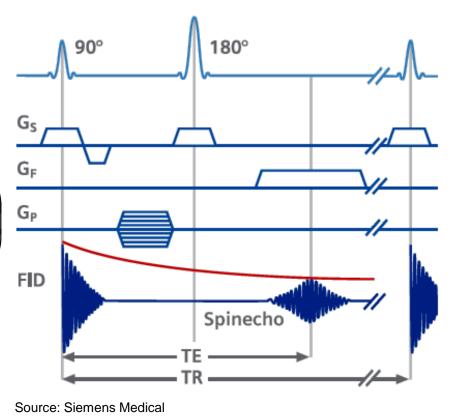


MR – Image Contrast

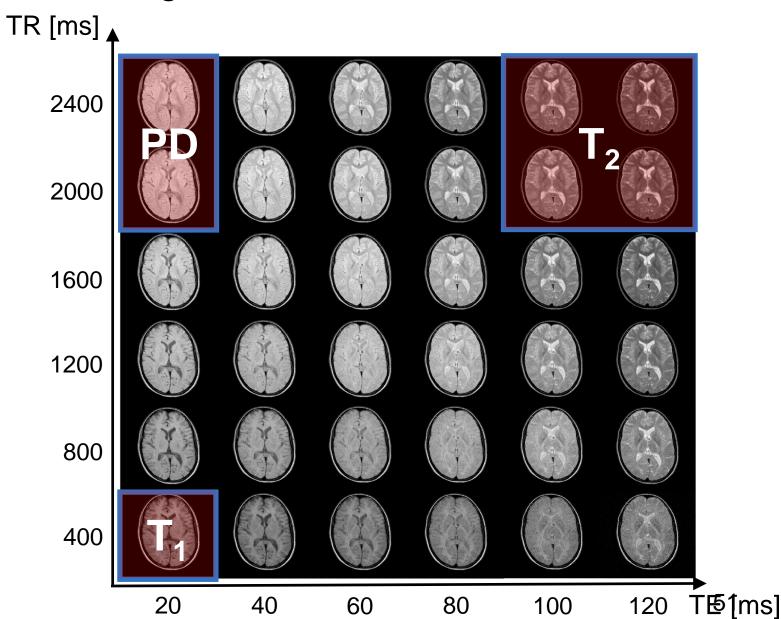
- Image contrast is determined by several physical quantities:
 - □ proton density
 - T₁ spin-lattice relaxation time
 - T₂ spin-spin relaxation time
- Spin-Echo-Signal:

$$S_{SE} = \rho \cdot \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{TR}{T1}\right)\right] \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{TE}{T2}\right)$$

- Sequence parameters:
 - TR Repetition time
 - TE Echo time



MR – Image Contrast





MRI – Summary III

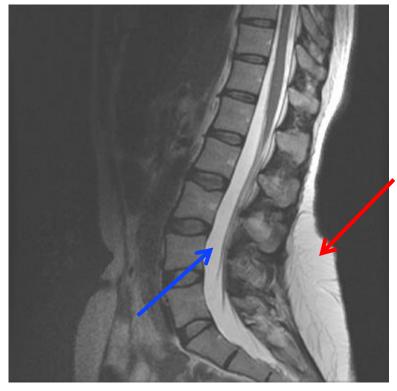
Principle of MR imaging:

- Measurement of the transverse magnetisation M_{XY}
- Obtaining the measurement signals using gradient fields:
 - Slice selection: excitation of spins within a specific layer
 - 2D measuring matrix by frequency and phase coding in one layer
- Reconstruction with 2D Fourier transformation
- Various contrast are possible during imaging



MRI – Example: Spinal Cord

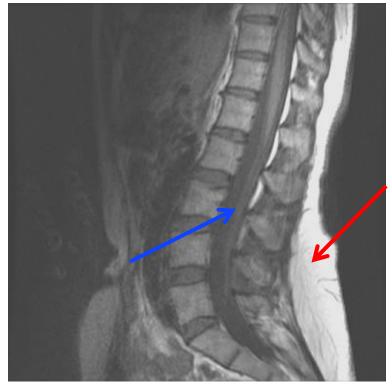
T2-weighted (Turbo-Spin-Echo)



Water: Fat:

bright bright

T1-weighted (Spin-Echo)

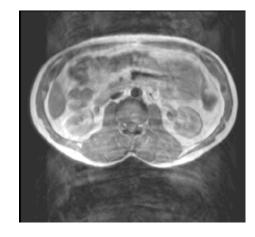


dark bright



MRI – Artefacts

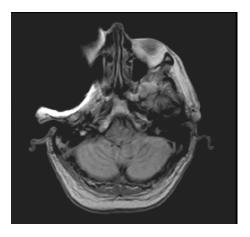
- Motion (Heart, breathing, motion,...)
- Folding artefacts
- Metal artefacts
- Distortion artefacts
- Chemical shift



Breathing



Folding



Metal pin

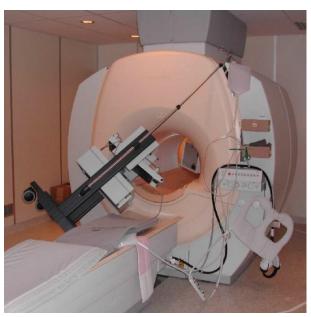


Motion



MRI – Safety Aspects

Superconducting magnets are ALWAYS on !!







MRT - Sicherheitsaspekte



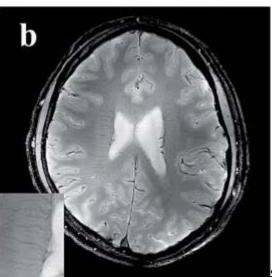


MRI - Resolution

3 Tesla

- Maximum resolution depends on the signal-to-noise ratio
- The strength of the MR signal increases quadratically to the magnetic field strength, noise only linearly
 - →Stronger magnetic field = higher resolution possible
- Problem: Relaxation time also shortened
 - → Faster imaging needed

a



7 Tesla

Source: Siemens Medical



MRI - Summary

Principle

- Certain properties of atoms in the magnetic field are used for imaging
- Signal coding by means of gradient fields
- Image contrast depends on several parameters

Advantages and disadvantages

- + No radiation exposure
- + High resolution: Good representation of soft tissue and organs
- Relatively long recording time
- Expensive
- Direct comparison between MRI images difficult
- Intraoperative use very difficult
- Loud and tight



ENDOSCOPY



Endoscopy

- The word "endoscope" comes from the Greek and means "to look inside" (endo = inside, scope= to look at)
- Endoscope = tube / tubular instrument that visualises images of the inside of the body via an optical system
- Advantages:
 - Real-time observation of reality
 - Interactive,
 - Easy interpretation of images
 - No radiation exposure



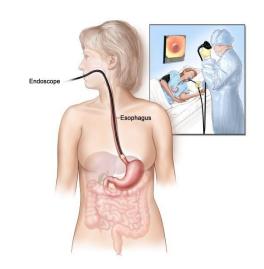




Endoscopy

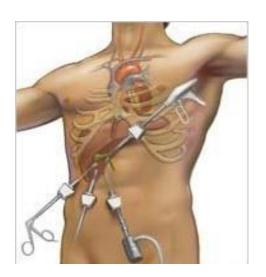
Diagnostic endoscopy:

- Endoscopic examination using available body cavities for diagnostic purposes
- Non-invasive



• Endoscopic (minimally invasive) surgery:

 Surgical procedures using an endoscope and special surgical instruments inserted through small incisions





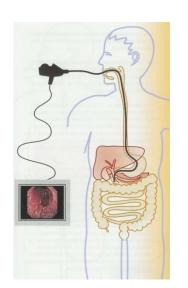
Diagnostic Endoscopy: Applications

Gastroscopy (esophagogastroduodenoscopy):

 Examination of the esophagus, stomach and duodenum with flexible gastroscope

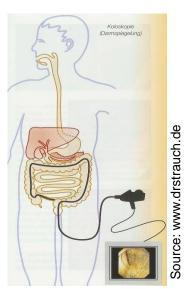
Colonoscopy (colonoscopy, rectoscopy):

 Examination of the rectum, the colon and the lower end of the small intestine. Endoscopes are between 20 cm (rigid rectoscope) and 180 cm (flexible coloscope).



Tracheotomy (bronchoscopy):

 With a flexible bronchoscope, the trachea and the bronchi can be examined.





Capsule-Endoscopy

- Endoscope capsule for the diagnosis of gastrointestinal diseases
- Presentation of the entire small intestine
- Capsule consists of:
 - Battery
 - Transmitter
 - Light source
 - Microchip camera (over 55,000 images in 6 hours)









Virtual Endoscopy

Simulation of an endoscopy based on tomographic data

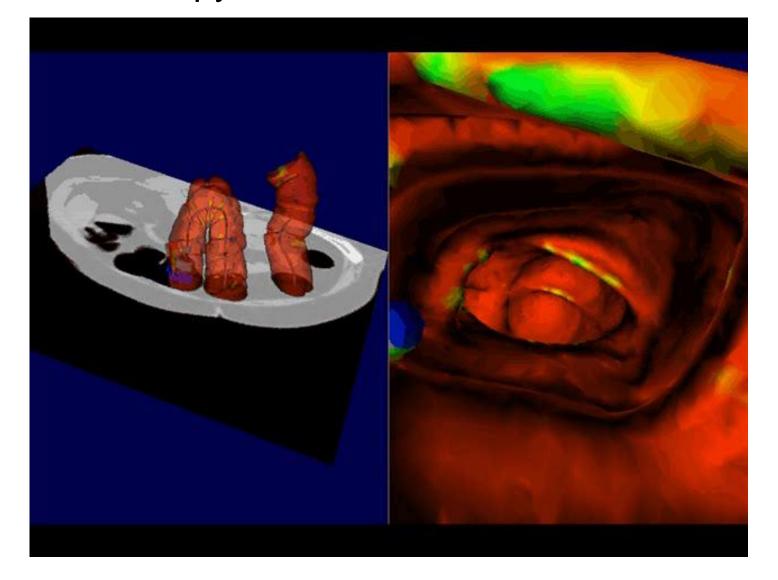
Method:

- Acquiring CT / MRI images of the patient
- Thresholds or manually set the interfaces between lumen and tissue
- 3D surface reconstruction
- Path of the virtual camera set
- Spatial impression through imaginary light source (reflections / shadows) and texturing of the surface



Quelle: MIT Al Lab

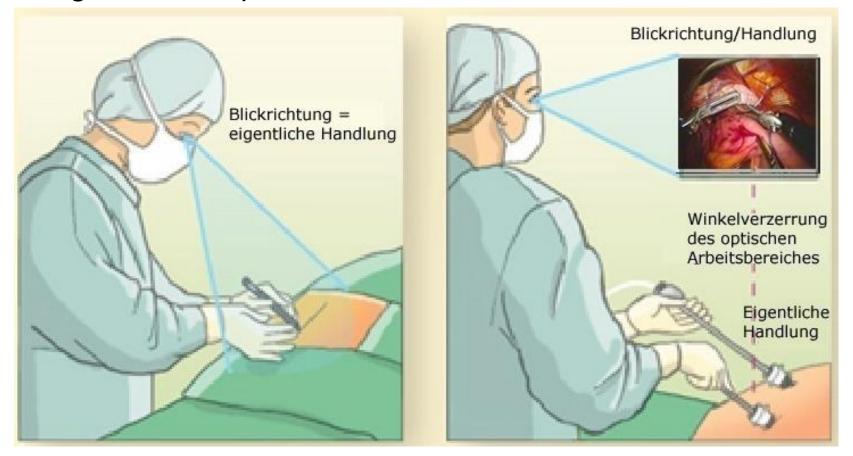
Virtual Endoscopy





Endoscopic usage in Surgery

Surgical techniques



Conventional

minimally invasive

Source:Websurg

Minimally Invasive Surgery: Examples

Laparoscopy:

- Minimally invasive procedure, in which the abdominal cavity and the organs inside are mirrored
- For example: gallbladder removal, cecum, removal of intestine, liver, prostate ...



Arthroscopy:

- Minimally invasive examination of joints with a special endoscope (Arthroscope)
- For example: injuries in the knee, shoulder, hand and ankle ...

Minimally invasive cardiac surgery:

- Most of the patients are operated in the so-called "off-pump" technique (without Life-support-machine)
- For example: bypass surgery, interventions on the atrium ...



Challenges of minimally invasive operations

- Altered surgical environment and posture of the surgeon
- Deviation between the enlarged 2D view and the actual 3D surgical field, missing depth perception
- Altered hand-eye coordination
- Special instruments and reduced tactile sensation
- Special surgical movements, movements are u. U. reversed or severely restricted

→ Intraoperative support of the surgeon useful (e.g. during navigation)



Endoscope: Technical Setup

Components:

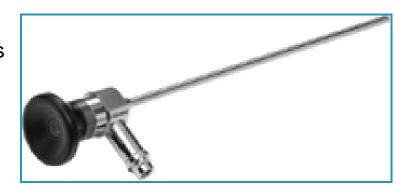
- Lens and objectives
- Camera or eyepiece
- Image Transfer System
 - Optical
 - Electronic
- Light transmission system
- Flushing / instrument channel equipments
- Trocar, light source, instruments, monitor ...



Endoscope: Basic Types

Rigid endoscope

 In the rigid endoscope, the optical system consists of a series of successively arranged prisms and lenses



Flexible endoscope

 Follows the course of natural body openings, optical system consists of glass fiber bundles

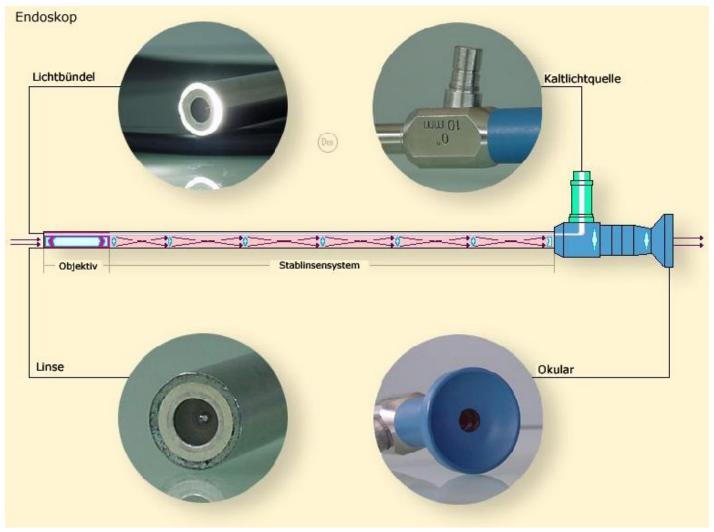
Videoscope

 The eyepiece image is forwarded to a monitor or an image processing system with the aid of a placement camera





Rigid Endoscopes

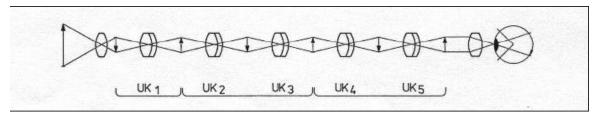


Source:Websurg



Rigid Endoscopes

 Imaging optics necessary to obtain a good view despite the extreme ratio of length to visible cross-section: image transfer with rod lens system (reversal system)

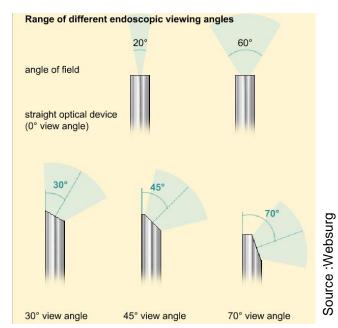


- Monocular endoscopes:
 - most common used in minimally invasive surgery

Viewing direction: 0 ° -120 °

Field of view: 20 ° - 60 °

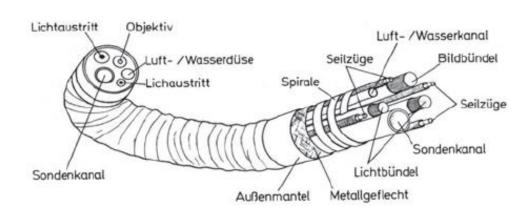
Caliber: 3mm-12mm



Flexible Endoscopes

- Light and image transmission via fiber optic conductors, ordered at the image guide (about 30 000 fibers), disordered at the light guide
- Flushing and aspiration via internal channels, which are controlled by valves



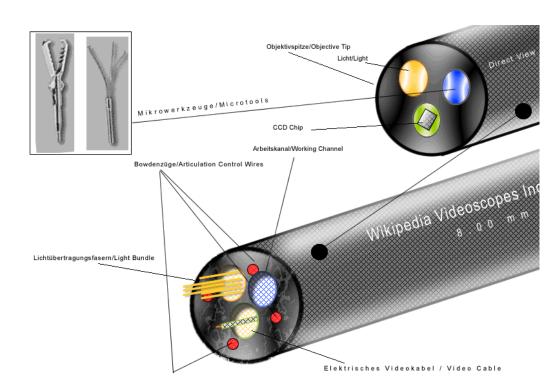


Quelle:Biomedizinische Technik, Hutten



Videoendoscopes

- Camera instead of eyepiece
- Allows to display the the image on the monitor
- Rigid or flexible systems
- Mostly mono, few stereo systems
- Further processing of the images is possible
- Modern endoscopes with chip in the top



Schematischer Schnitt durch ein Videoendoskope Videoendoscope Cross Sectional View

Source:Wikipedia



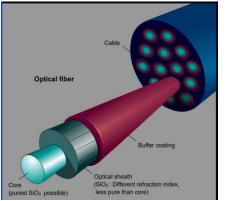
Light source and Insufflator

Light source:

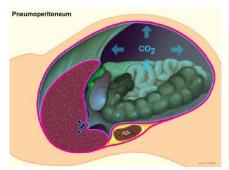
- Halogen or xenon lamps whose light has a high proportion of white.
- Light is generated externally and coupled as cold light into a light bundle of glass fibres.



- Generation and maintenance of pneumoperitoneum (working space between organs and abdominal wall)
- Pressure control (<12 mm Hg)
- Constant gas exchange









Source:Websurg



Trocar

Instrument for opening a body cavity, to introduce the endoscopes and instruments





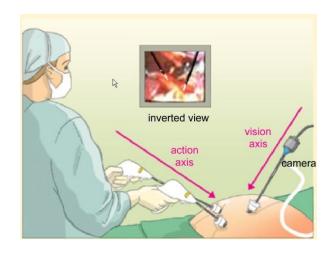
Source:Websurg



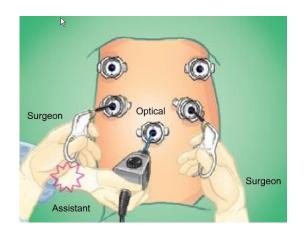
Trocar Positioning

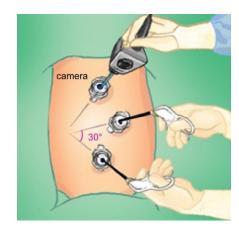
Each procedure has special trocar positioning, however, there are basic principles independent of intervention:

- Surgeon should face the target organ and make a line with lens and monitor
- Instruments that face the optics are difficult to use



Source:Websurg





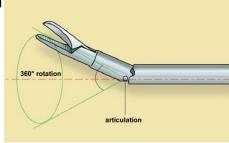


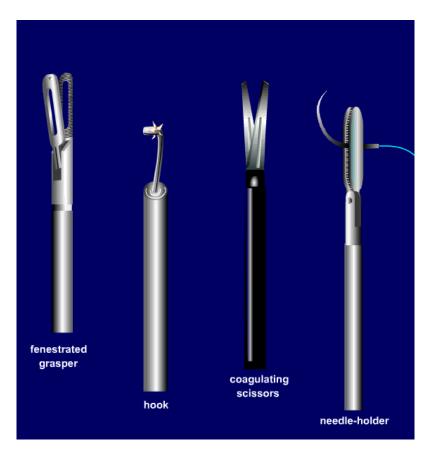
Instruments

- Every surgical procedure has special requirements to which the instruments are adapted
- Most of the instruments fit through 5mm-10mm trocars and have a length of 18cm - 45cm

Degrees of freedom: 360 ° rotation, usually 4 degrees of

freedor





Quelle:Websurg



DaVinci-Telemanipulator









Source: Intuitive Surgical



Computer-assisted Endoscopy

Motivation: Intraoperative support of the surgeon

What can be seen in the image?

Where is a particular structure?

Does a planning exist?

Is the tumour completely removed?

Lecture: Image Processing in Endoscopy and Visualisation / augmented reality

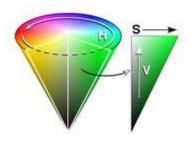




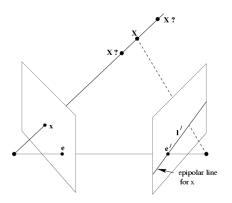
Upcoming Lecture

Basic Computer Vision I

- Modelling of cameras
- Image representation
- 3D reconstruction methods
- Epipolar geometry









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