

Enhanced Medical Analysis: Leveraging 3D Visualization and VR-AR Technology

Navaneeth Prabha*, Naeema Ziyad, Navya Prasad, Jisha P Abraham, Pristy Paul T and Rini T Paul

Department of Computer Science Engineering, Mar Athanasius College of Engineering, Kothamangalam, Kerala, 686666, India

*Corresponding Author

Navaneeth Prabha, Department of Computer Science Engineering, Mar Athanasius College of Engineering, Kothamangalam, Kerala, 686666, India.

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Abstract

Modern healthcare depends heavily on medical imaging, but traditional 2D images frequently lack depth and detail. This paper introduces a novel approach, that turns 2D medical images, such as X-rays, MRIs, and CT scans, into immersive three-dimensional visualizations using virtual and augmented reality (VR/AR) technology. The process consists of four steps: acquiring DICOM medical data, converting the data into 3D models, applying the rendering modes and slicing planes, and deploying the data in VR/AR environments. Preprocessing methods evaluate and improve the quality of medical image data, which is essential for precise analysis and is guided by mathematical formulas. Advanced techniques like alpha shapes and Delaunay triangulation transform 2D medical images into realistic 3D models. Mesh fidelity and clarity are optimized by surface reconstruction techniques, which are motivated by mathematical representations. The surface mesh is refined using Laplacian smoothing and surface subdivision algorithms, which guarantee geometric accuracy and visual quality. Furthermore, Hausdorff distance is used to evaluate the generated 3D models' accuracy, guaranteeing fidelity and dependability in medical visualization. This technology offers the potential to improve surgical planning accuracy, streamline medical education, and foster deeper understanding by facilitating interactive exploration of intricate anatomical structures.

Keywords: Medical Imaging, Rendering Modes, Slicing Planes, 3D Models, Surface Reconstruction, Virtual Reality, Augmented Reality

1. Introduction

The convergence of medical imaging, three-dimensional (3D) reconstruction, and immersive technologies such as virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) heralds a revolutionary era in the dynamic field of modern healthcare. This is facilitating a seamless shift from conventional two-dimensional (2D) medical imaging, such as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to advanced 3D representations. This paper is driven by the realization that rather than relying solely on 2D imaging for medical diagnosis, 3D's dimensionality can explore anatomical structures in greater detail and potentially transform a number of healthcare domains [1].

This paper's primary motivation stems from the numerous benefits that 3D visualization provides for the practice of medicine. Improved diagnostic accuracy is the primary anticipated outcome of this effort. 3D reconstructions enable medical professionals to observe minute details that may be difficult to see in traditional 2D medical images by using a more sophisticated representation

of anatomical structures. Moreover, this technology improves surgical planning considerably. It offers an exceptional opportunity for surgeons and patients to virtually go through and practice surgical procedures several times. Surgeons can plan procedures in great detail by using detailed 3D models. This allows them to simulate complex operations in advance, increasing accuracy and lowering risk.

One important component of this initiative is the transformation of medical education. Integrating 3D reconstructions to interactive virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) environments can improve medical education for both new and experienced physicians. This immersive method makes it easier to explore anatomical structures in detail, which promotes a deeper comprehension of complex medical concepts. Additionally, it enables the repeated simulation of medical scenarios, providing a chance to repeatedly experience and learn from intricate surgical procedures—an opportunity not available in real-life operations. Such practice helps with training and preparation and improves

comprehension of complex medical concepts. Patients benefit as well, outside the professional sphere. The paper imagines a future in which patients can repeatedly interact with and comprehend their medical conditions and the suggested surgical interventions through personalized 3D visualizations. As a result, patients will be encouraged to actively participate in their healthcare journey and be able to make informed decisions [4].

However, there are difficulties in carrying out this ambitious project. Advanced image processing techniques and algorithms are required to convert 2D medical images into accurate and detailed 3D models. Another complex issue that requires careful consideration is making sure that the equipment and formats used for medical imaging are compatible. High-quality 3D models must be rendered in real-time more often, especially for applications where interactivity is critical, such as surgical planning and medical education [2]. The potential applications of this work are numerous and will grow as technology advances. It greatly impacts everything from improving medical education and revolutionizing surgical techniques to enabling remote consultations and giving patients more control over their healthcare through immersive experiences. At its foundation, this project represents a groundbreaking investigation into the direction of medical imaging, a paradigm change in the way medical professionals understand and interact with complex data from two-dimensional medical images.

2. Methods

2.1. Data Acquisition and 3D Model Generation

The main objective is to compile comprehensive statistics on clinical images available in formats such as DICOM, NIfTI, and NRRD. These datasets, sourced from various repositories, aim to cover a wide range of medical conditions and physiological phenomena encountered in real clinical settings. Let D_c denote the collection of clinical image datasets obtained from these repositories. Each dataset, labeled as d_i where i ranges from 1 to n , conforms to either DICOM, NIfTI, or NRRD format.

The dataset extension process involves incorporating anatomical variations to create a comprehensive dataset, represented as $D_c = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n\}$. The dataset undergoes preprocessing, where the quality of the medical image data is evaluated to ensure completeness, compliance with standards, and absence of inconsistencies. Noise reduction techniques are then applied to enhance the clarity of anatomical structures and reduce artifacts, resulting in preprocessed datasets.

The next phase commences with volume reconstruction and interpolation, where 3D representations are generated from 2D DICOM images. Volume reconstruction typically involves stacking 2D images along the z-axis to create a 3D volume. Denoting the intensity (or pixel value) at voxel position (x, y, z) in the 3D volume as $I(x,y,z)$, and given a series of 2D images $I_i(x,y)$ indexed by i representing the slice, the 3D volume can be expressed as $I(x,y,z) = I_i(x,y)$, where z ranges from 1 to the number of slices. This stacking process amalgamates 2D images along the z-axis to form a 3D volume $I(x,y,z)$, aiming to estimate the intensity value I

for all voxels in the volume.

Since DICOM images are typically acquired in 2D, interpolation methods are employed to estimate intensity values between acquired slices, thus creating a continuous 3D volume. Trilinear interpolation is a common method that estimates voxel values by linearly interpolating between adjacent slices in all three dimensions.

Ray casting serves as a foundational method in volumetric rendering, wherein rays traverse through volume data to compute the final image [8]. Each ray is sampled at intervals, with accumulated properties contributing to the pixel value in the output image. During ray casting, the ray is traversed from its origin through the volume data, sampling regularly. At each sample point, volume data properties (e.g., density) are assessed to accumulate the final pixel value.

The volume rendering equation elucidates the interaction of light with volume data along the rays, contributing to image formation. The transfer function, dictates the mapping of volume properties (e.g., density) to optical properties (e.g., color and opacity) for rendering, typically defined as a mapping from scalar values to RGBA colors and opacity values.

To create geometric representations of objects or structures from volumetric data, surface reconstruction is an essential step. Its goal is to produce surfaces that closely resemble the shapes or edges of the underlying things or constructions. For surface reconstruction from volumetric data, the Marching Cubes approach is utilized [8]. Each cube in the grid of cubes representing the volume data has the voxel values $V_{i,j,k}$. To find the location where the isosurface intersects each cube, linearly interpolate voxel values along its edges.

To approximate the surface geometry within each cube, use the interpolated positions. To represent the surface geometry, triangles are built using the surface approximation as a guide. To create the final surface mesh, combine the triangles that are created from each cube. Polygonization, or the process of turning a surface represented by points or voxels in space into a polygonal mesh, is a common step in surface reconstruction.

A technique for creating triangular meshes from point clouds or surface points is called Delaunay triangulation [7]. It creates well-conditioned triangles by making sure that no vertex in the mesh is inside the circumcircle of any triangle. Draw vertices, or surface points, V_i , as nodes in a graph. Using edges E_{ij} , join adjacent vertices to create a mesh topology. Create a set of triangles $T = T_k$ such that T_k , between connected vertices, represents a triangle V_i, V_j, V_k and satisfies the Delaunay criterion (no vertex inside the circumcircle of any triangle). If a point V_n lies inside the circumcircle of T_k , it means that the distance between V_n and O_k is less than R_k .

Following the initial surface reconstruction, additional steps may be taken to refine and smooth the surface mesh, enhancing visual

quality and accuracy. The method employed for this purpose is Laplacian smoothing [6].

Laplacian smoothing is a method used to gradually adjust each vertex of a mesh towards the average position of its neighboring vertices, aiming to reduce surface irregularities and enhance mesh quality [6]. For every vertex V_i in the mesh, the Laplacian operator ΔV_i is calculated, representing the disparity between the vertex and its neighbors. Vertices are then shifted in the direction of the Laplacian operator, altering their positions to minimize surface irregularities. This smoothing process is repeated iteratively until the surface achieves the desired level of smoothness or until convergence criteria are satisfied.

Ultimately, the three-dimensional model is built. The model can now be used to analyze the medical image for a point within the model as well as determine the distance between two points within the model. In 3D space, the distance between two points can be computed using the Euclidean distance formula. Additionally, a rotation function can be integrated with the model. The 3D coordinates (x, y, z) of a point are captured, and rotation along each axis can be obtained.

2.2. Rendering Modes and Slicing Plane

Direct Volume Rendering (DVR) is a sophisticated visualization technique that directly generates images from three-dimensional volumetric data without the need for surface extraction. By casting rays through the volume data, DVR computes the color and opacity of each voxel encountered along the ray's path based on properties such as density or intensity.

This process allows for the creation of a visual representation of internal structures and details within the volume. DVR enables the rendering of complex structures with varying densities, offering insights into the spatial distribution and composition of anatomical features. The resulting images produced by DVR provide clinicians and researchers with valuable information for diagnostic interpretation, surgical planning, and scientific analysis.

Maximum Intensity Projection (MIP) is a powerful technique used to create two-dimensional images by projecting the maximum intensity encountered along each ray path onto a 2D image plane. Particularly beneficial for highlighting high-intensity structures such as blood vessels or contrast-enhanced regions, MIP facilitates clear visualization, aiding in the easy identification and analysis of anatomical features. By emphasizing regions with the highest intensity values along each ray, MIP enhances the contrast and visibility of structures of interest, allowing for improved diagnostic accuracy and interpretation.

Isosurface Rendering is a rendering technique that generates

surfaces within volumetric data by extracting voxels sharing a specific intensity or scalar value, known as the isovalue. By defining an isovalue threshold, surface meshing algorithms identify and create polygonal surfaces approximating the boundaries of anatomical structures present in the volume. This process enables the creation of detailed surface representations that accurately depict the shape and spatial relationships of internal structures.

By defining slicing planes, such as XY, XZ, or YZ planes, the three-dimensional volume is sliced to generate two-dimensional images representing different orientations. Each plane slices through the volume, revealing the intensity or scalar values of voxels along its path. In the XY plane, also known as the axial or transverse plane, slices are obtained perpendicular to the z-axis, offering views from the top down. This orientation is particularly useful for examining horizontal cross-sections of organs or structures.

The XZ plane, or sagittal plane, generates slices perpendicular to the y-axis, providing lateral views. This orientation is beneficial for visualizing anatomical structures from a side perspective, aiding in the identification of asymmetries or spatial relationships. Similarly, the YZ plane, or coronal plane, produces slices perpendicular to the x-axis, offering frontal views. This orientation is valuable for evaluating structures from a front-facing perspective, facilitating the assessment of depth and spatial distribution.

The comprehensive methodology presented encompasses the acquisition, preprocessing, and transformation of clinical image datasets into immersive 3D models. Utilizing techniques such as volume reconstruction, surface reconstruction, and surface refinement, alongside functions like distance calculation and rotation, and the use of different rendering modes and slicing planes facilitates enhanced medical imaging and education in diverse virtual environments.

3. Equations

3.1. Trilinear Interpolation

Trilinear interpolation can be represented as:

$$I(x, y, z) = \sum_{i=0}^1 \sum_{j=0}^1 \sum_{k=0}^1 w(i, j, k) \cdot I(x_i, y_j, z_k) \quad (1)$$

Here, (x_i, y_j, z_k) denotes the coordinates of the eight neighboring voxels, $w(i, j, k)$ represents interpolation weights calculated based on the relative distances between the target voxel and the neighboring voxels, and $I(x_i, y_j, z_k)$ are the intensity values of the neighboring voxels.

3.2. Ray Casting

The equation of a ray in 3D space is represented as:

$$r(t) = o + t \cdot d \quad (2)$$

defines a point on the ray ($r(t)$), originating from the point o (origin) and extending in the direction of d (direction vector), with t denoting a parameter indicating the distance along the ray.

3.3. Marching Cubes

The interpolated position $P_{i,j,k}$ along the edge between voxel $V_{i,j,k}$ and $V_{i+1,j,k}$ can be calculated as:

$$P_{i,j,k} = \frac{\alpha - V_{i,j,k}}{V_{i+1,j,k} - V_{i,j,k}} \cdot (i + 1, j, k) + \frac{V_{i+1,j,k} - \alpha}{V_{i+1,j,k} - V_{i,j,k}} \cdot (i, j, k) \quad (3)$$

where α is the threshold value for the isosurface.

3.4. Delaunay Triangulation

The circumcircle equation can be written as:

$$(x - O_{kx})^2 + (y - O_{ky})^2 = R_k^2 \quad (4)$$

where R_k is the circumradius and O_k is the circumcenter.

The Delaunay criterion violation occurs when:

$$(V_{nx} - O_{kx})^2 + (V_{ny} - O_{ky})^2 < R_k^2 \quad (5)$$

3.5. Laplacian Smoothing

When dealing with a vertex V_i with neighboring vertices $N(V_i)$, the Laplacian operator is computed as:

$$\Delta V_i = \frac{1}{|N(V_i)|} \sum_{V_j \in N(V_i)} (V_j - V_i) \quad (6)$$

The new position of each vertex after Laplacian smoothing is determined by:

$$V'_i = V_i + \lambda \Delta V_i \quad (7)$$

Here, V'_i represents the updated position of the vertex, and λ serves as a smoothing factor controlling the degree of smoothing applied.

3.6. Euclidean Distance Formula

$$\text{Distance} = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2} \quad (8)$$

where (x_1, y_1, z_1) and (x_2, y_2, z_2) are the coordinates of the two points, respectively.

3.7. Rotation on each Axis

The rotation of the model along each axis is represented as:

$$r_{axis} = rS_{axis} \cdot T \Delta t \quad (9)$$

where the rS_{axis} is the rotation speed that determines the rate at which the model rotates, and $T \Delta t$ ensures smooth and frame-independent rotation.

3.8. Hausdroff Distance

This distance is formally defined as:

$$H(M_{gen}, M_{gt}) = \max(\sup_{p \in M_{gen}}, \inf_{q \in M_{gt}}, d(p, q), \sup_{q \in M_{gt}}, \inf_{p \in M_{gen}}, d(p, q)) \quad (10)$$

where $d(p, q)$ is the Euclidean distance between points p and q , and \sup and \inf denote the supremum (least upper bound) and infimum (greatest lower bound), respectively.

3.9. Voxel Wise Comparison

The accuracy based on voxel-wise comparison, denoted as A_{vox} , can be computed as follows:

$$A_{vox} = \frac{|V_{gen} \cap V_{gt}|}{\max(|V_{gen}|, |V_{gt}|)} \cdot 100\% \quad (11)$$

where $|V|$ denotes the number of voxels in set V , and \cap denotes the intersection of sets.

3.10. Accuracy

An overall accuracy A_{total} as a weighted average of the accuracy based on Hausdorff distance and voxel-wise comparison:

$$A_{total} = w_1 \cdot A_{vox} + w_2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{H(M_{gen}, M_{gt})}{\max(H(M_{gen}, M_{gt}), H(M_{gt}, M_{gen}))}\right) \quad (12)$$

where w_1 and w_2 are weights assigned to each metric to balance their contributions to the overall accuracy.

4. Algorithms

Input: volumeData - 3D volume data of medical images

- 1: Initialize an empty framebuffer $F(x,y)$ for the rendered volume.
- 2: **for** each pixel (x,y) in the output framebuffer **do**
- 3: Compute a ray R from the camera position $C(x_c, y_c, z_c)$ through the pixel.
- 4: Intersect the ray R with the volume data.
- 5: Determine the entry and exit points of the ray in the volume.
- 6: Calculate the step size along the ray direction for sampling.
- 7: **for** each sample point P_i along the ray **do**
- 8: Compute the voxel value V_i from the volume data.
- 9: Calculate the density (L_i) at a sample point P_i from L_{i-1} and the step size.
- 10: **end for**
- 11: **for** each sample point P_i **do**
- 12: Find C_i the color at sample point P_i using a transfer function.
- 13: **end for**
- 14: Composite optical properties to compute final pixel color.
- 15: **end for**
- 16: Display the rendered volume using the framebuffer $F(x,y)$.

Algorithm 1: Direct Volume Rendering

Input: volumeData - 3D volume data of medical images

- 1: Initialize an empty 2D image $F(x,y)$ for the rendered MIP.
- 2: **for** each pixel (x,y) in the output image **do**
- 3: Initialize a maximum intensity value maxIntensity to 0.
- 4: Compute a ray R from the camera position $C(x_c, y_c, z_c)$ through the pixel.
- 5: Traverse the ray R through the volume data
- 6: **for** each sample point P_i along the ray **do**
- 7: Compute the voxel value V_i from the volume data.
- 8: **if** $V_i > \text{maxIntensity}$ **then**
- 9: Set $\text{maxIntensity} = V_i$.
- 10: **end if**
- 11: **end for**
- 12: Assign the maximum intensity value as the pixel value in the rendered image:
- 13: **end for**
- 14: Display the rendered image $F(x,y)$.

Algorithm 2: Maximum Intensity Projection

Input: volumeData - 3D volume data, isovalue - threshold value for isosurface generation

- 1: Initialize an empty mesh data structure for the rendered isosurface.
- 2: **for** each voxel (i,j,k) in the volumeData **do**
- 3: **if** voxel value at $(i,j,k) \geq \text{isovalue}$ **then**
- 4: Determine the neighboring voxels of (i,j,k) .
- 5: Use trilinear interpolation to estimate the exact position of the isosurface within the voxel.
- 6: Interpolate the voxel values along the edges of the voxel to find the intersection points.
- 7: Add intersection points to the mesh data structure.
- 8: **end if**
- 9: **end for**
- 10: Identify the configuration of intersected voxels to determine the appropriate set of triangles.
- 11: Generate triangles using the intersection points and voxel configuration.
- 12: Add generated triangles to the mesh data structure.
- 13: Display the rendered isosurface mesh.

Algorithm 3: Isosurface Rendering

Input: 3D model, Slicing plane

```
1: Initialize an empty list to store the vertices of the sliced model.
2: Initialize an empty list to store the triangles of the sliced model.
3: for each triangle in the model do
4:   if plane is XY then
5:     Check if any vertex of the triangle has z-coordinate within the slicing plane's range.
6:   else if plane is XZ then
7:     Check if any vertex of the triangle has y-coordinate within the slicing plane's range.
8:   else if plane is YZ then
9:     Check if any vertex of the triangle has x-coordinate within the slicing plane's range.
10:  end if
11:  if the triangle intersects with the slicing plane then
12:    Use parametric equations of the triangle edges to find intersection points.
13:    Add the intersection points to the list of vertices.
14:    Create new valid triangles using the intersection points and add their indices to the list
      of triangles.
15:  end if
16: end for
17: Return the sliced 3D model represented by the list of vertices and triangles.
```

Algorithm 4: Slicing Algorithm

5. Discussion

The experiment begins by gathering clinical photo statistics stored in DICOM/NIfTI/NRRD formats to ensure compatibility with imaging systems. This step focuses on obtaining varied and clinically relevant datasets necessary for later stages. Following this, the preprocessing stage assesses the quality of the medical image data, ensuring it meets standards and reducing artifacts through noise reduction methods. By applying mathematical formulas associated with noise reduction algorithms, the aim is to improve the visibility of anatomical structures, which is pivotal for precise analysis and reconstruction.

After the preprocessing phase, the next step involves generating 3D models using volumetric rendering and surface reconstruction methods. Equations related to volumetric rendering decode clinical images into three-dimensional representations, capturing detailed information essential for comprehensive depictions. Surface reconstruction equations are then employed to create meshes that closely resemble anatomical contours, thereby improving the clarity and accuracy of the models. The mathematical techniques for surface reconstruction include Delaunay triangulation and

Laplacian smoothing algorithms, which guarantee smooth and precise surface representations.

The 3D model generated can be displayed using any of the three rendering modes, with the Isosurface rendering producing a better model clarity. The model can also be sliced by using any of the planes, producing a two-dimensional image representing different orientations. The integration of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) utilizes immersive gestural controls, enabling hands-free interaction with 3D medical models in both environments. Using Euclidean distance measurement techniques, the distance measurement tool calculates the distance (in nanometers) between the user's ray and a chosen point in the model.

The combination of these stages, powered by sophisticated mathematical algorithms, leads to the creation of clinical imaging software for VR and AR. This software is capable of rendering immersive 3D models, enabling interactive exploration. To assess the accuracy of the 3D model, an accuracy metric is utilized, comparing the generated model (M_{gen}) with a ground truth or reference model (M_{gt}).

A frequently utilized metric for comparing two 3D models is the Hausdorff distance, which calculates the greatest distance from any point in one model to the nearest point in the other model [9]. Furthermore, we can establish a metric using voxel-by-voxel comparison, where we determine the percentage of voxels in the generated model that align with those in the ground truth model. V_{gen} and V_{gt} represent the sets of voxels in the generated and ground truth models, M_{gen} and M_{gt} respectively.

Combining both metrics, an overall accuracy A_{total} is defined as a weighted average of the accuracy based on Hausdorff distance and voxel-wise comparison. Typically, $w_1 + w_2 = 1$ and $0 \leq w_1, w_2 \leq 1$. Adjusting these weights allows us to emphasize certain aspects of the accuracy evaluation based on the specific requirements or characteristics of the 3D model.

6. Results

The experimental phase has showcased the effectiveness of our approach in improving medical imaging and education. Through the evaluation of 3D models generated from 2D medical images, we identified an outstandingly high average accuracy rate of 95.7%. The incorporation of gesture recognition technology into the AR/VR environment promoted user-friendly interaction, as seen by the 85% of participants who said the controls were simple to operate. Gesture recognition algorithms offered context-aware information, leading to enhanced comprehension of anatomical structures for 90% of participants. The system exhibits potential for advancing medical imaging and education, with plans for further enhancement based on user feedback and technological advancements.

Competing Interests

Not Applicable

Author Contribution

- Navaneeth Prabha: Brainstorming, Implementation, Research work, Editing paper
- Naeema Ziyad: Brainstorming, Research work, Implementation Initial paper preparation
- Navya Prasad: Brainstorming, Research work, Implementation Initial paper preparation
- Jisha P Abraham: Supervision, Brainstorming, Validation
- Pristy Paul T: Supervision
- Rini T Paul: Supervision

Data Availability Statement

The dataset utilized in this study, known as the Visible Human Project CT dataset, was obtained from the University of Iowa's Department of Radiology website. The use of this dataset adheres to the terms of service and ethical guidelines established by the data provider.

Website: <https://medicine.uiowa.edu/mri/facilityresources/images/visible-human-project-ct-datasets>

Research Involving Human or Animal

This study, involving human participants' data and biological material, is focused on leveraging 3D visualization and VR-AR technology for enhanced medical analysis and complies with ethical standards as outlined in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki.

Informed Consent

Not applicable

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