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Advancements in needle visualization enhancement and localization methods in ultrasound: a literature review

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Abstract

Ultrasound guidance plays a central role in numerous minimally invasive procedures involving percutaneous needle insertion, ensuring safe and accurate needle placement. However, it encounters two primary challenges: (1) aligning the needle with the ultrasound beam and (2) visualizing the needle even when correctly aligned. In this review, we offer a concise overview of the physics foundation underlying these challenges and explore various approaches addressing specific challenges, with a focus on software-based solutions. We further distinguish between hardware-based and software-based solutions, placing a stronger emphasis on the latter. The incorporation of artificial intelligence into these methods to enhance needle visualization and localization is briefly discussed. We identify state-of-the-art needle detection methods, showcasing submillimeter precision in tip localization and orientation. Additionally, we provide insights into potential future directions, aiming to facilitate the translation of these advanced methods into the clinic. This article serves as a comprehensive guide, offering insights into challenges, evolving solutions, and prospective research directions to effectively address these issues.

Keywords: Needle enhancement, segmentation, localization, ultrasound, biopsy, machine learning, deep learning

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INTRODUCTION

Ultrasound guidance lies at the heart of many minimally invasive procedures that require percutaneous needle insertion. Applications can include minimally invasive localized anesthesia, tissue biopsy, central venous cannulation, percutaneous drainage, and therapeutic delivery $[1-3]$ $[1-3]$ $[1-3]$ $[1-3]$. Guidance ensures that the needle reaches its intended target without unnecessary pricking of tissue along the way, improving procedure efficacy and minimizing postoperative complications. Ultrasound is the gold standard for needle visualization vis-a-vis patient anatomy owing to its safety (it does not use ionizing radiation), real-time nature and often low $cost^{[2,4,5]}$ $cost^{[2,4,5]}$ $cost^{[2,4,5]}$ $cost^{[2,4,5]}$ $cost^{[2,4,5]}$. .

However, ultrasound needle guidance demands expertise and is challenging, especially for less trained users, as in resource-constrained settings such as rural and remote communities^{[\[6](#page-17-5)]}. The two major challenges with ultrasound needle guidance include: (1) aligning the needle with the ultrasound beam, and (2) visualizing and localizing the needle within the ultrasound image even when properly aligned^{[\[6\]](#page-17-5)}. Traditionally, clinicians employ various handheld techniques to enhance needle visibility, including scanning the ultrasound probe over the patient's skin by sliding, rotating, or tilting the transducer to align the needle with the ultrasound beam signal. The visualization of the needle and its trajectory can also be improved by moving the entire needle in a short in-and-out or side-to-side motion, or by using hydrolocalization techniques where a fluid or an ultrasound contrast agent is injected throughout the needle to create a contrast on the ultrasound image^{[\[6-](#page-17-5)[8](#page-17-6)]}. However, movements of the entire needle could result in unintentional tissue structural damage if the needle is not visualized, and microbubbles formed during hydrolocalization can lead to acoustic shadowing and consequently obscure the image of target structures^{[\[6](#page-17-5)]}. .

Various approaches have been proposed to address aligning and localizing the needle within the ultrasound plane, but a review of the broad literature available is necessary to advance research on this topic. Scholten *et al*. provided an extensive review on needle tip visualization and localization but focused mainly on hardware-based methods[[9](#page-17-7)]. In contrast, Yang *et al*. gave an extensive review on medical instrument detection, including needle detection, but only focused on software-based methods with a general outlook on medical instrument detection, including catheters that have different acoustic properties from needles[[10](#page-17-8)]. Beigi *et al*. reviewed both hardware-based and software-based methods but did not discuss the underlying challenges with ultrasound needle guidance nor provide a thorough synthesis of the existing approaches $[11]$. .

Given the broad range of literature on the topic of needle visualization and localization in ultrasound^{[\[9](#page-17-7)[-13](#page-17-10)]}, it would be helpful to have a compact review of the development of different methods, the motivation behind them, and the state-of-the-art performance. The main contributions of this review are: (1) we provide a physics foundation of the exact challenges of needle detection in ultrasound; (2) we provide a concise review of the existing methods with a focus on learning-based methods; (3) we compare and contrast the performance of such methods over time; and (4) we highlight promising directions for future research on needle detection in 2D ultrasound. This review could serve as a reference for further research in a more focused direction.

NEEDLE APPEARANCE IN ULTRASOUND

An ultrasound transducer consists of an array of piezoelectric elements that generate high-frequency sound waves, which are then transmitted into the body. For ultrasound transducers used in needle interventions, these sound waves range from 3 to 15 MHz^{[[6](#page-17-5)]}. Upon hitting tissue boundaries along the line of transmission, the sound waves are reflected as echoes, which are received by the piezoelectric elements. The time delay between transmission of the sound wave and reception of the echo is used to determine the depth of the

Insertion technique

Insertion angle

Figure 1. Needle visibility depends on the insertion technique used and needle insertion angle. (A) For in-plane insertion (top), both the shaft and tip are visible; however, for out-of-plane insertion, (bottom), only the tip is visible (bottom)^{[[15](#page-17-11)]};(B) For shallow insertion angles, (first column), specular reflection is high and the needle is visible; however, for steeper insertion angles, (second and third column), needle visibility is lost.

tissue boundary from the transducer. The ultrasound device then forms a 2D image where the brightness at any point in the image is proportional to the intensity of the echo from a tissue boundary at the corresponding distance from the probe. The echo intensity depends on the acoustic impedance of the tissues at the boundary. For instance, the higher the difference between the acoustic impedance of the tissues, the stronger the echo $^{[6,14]}$ $^{[6,14]}$ $^{[6,14]}$ $^{[6,14]}$ $^{[6,14]}$. .

A needle appears as a bright signal in the ultrasound image due to its high acoustic impedance as compared to biological tissue^{[[6](#page-17-5)]}. However, needle visibility in the ultrasound image depends on the insertion technique, insertion angle, and insertion depth. Two primary techniques are more commonly employed: in-plane and out-of-plane techniques [[Figure 1A](#page-2-0)]^{[[15](#page-17-11),[16](#page-17-13)]}. With the in-plane technique, the ultrasound probe is aligned parallel to the needle's trajectory, allowing for continuous visualization of the entire needle length within a single plane on the ultrasound screen. This technique is particularly beneficial when precise needle placement and avoidance of adjacent structures are paramount. The in-plane approach provides a clear, longitudinal view of the needle, aiding in maintaining accuracy throughout the procedure^{[\[17](#page-17-14)]}. The challenge with in-plane insertion is aligning the needle, which typically has a diameter of 1 mm, with the ultrasound beam of width 1 mm^{[\[18\]](#page-17-15)}. The out-of-plane technique involves positioning the ultrasound probe perpendicular to the needle's path. Needle advancement is visualized as a dot on the ultrasound display, and is suitable for procedures where the entire length of the needle is not critical. This technique is commonly applied when targeting larger structures or when a shallower angle of angle of insertion insertion is required^{[\[17\]](#page-17-14)}. Finally, needle visibility depends on the depth of the insertion, with deeper insertions having poor needle visibility due to attenuation of the ultrasound beam [\[Figure 1B\]](#page-2-0).

LITERATURE SEARCH METHODOLOGY

We performed a thorough search of the literature using PubMed, Scopus, IEEE Xplore, Google Scholar, and Semantic Scholar databases. We searched for articles on needle visualization enhancement and localization in ultrasound. We used the keywords: needle, enhancement, detection, localization, visualization, and ultrasound, with the search query "ultrasound AND needle AND (detection OR localization OR visualization)". We reviewed the titles and abstracts of the search hits to ensure they were proposing methods for enhancing needle detection in ultrasound with the major focus placed on software-based approaches. Various commercial products have been developed for needle enhancement and localization in ultrasound, but these are out of the scope of this review.

REVIEW RESULTS

We categorized all the literature based on the challenges being solved and whether they are hardware-based or software-based [\[Figure 2\]](#page-4-0). In this section, we briefly describe the different approaches, providing their motivation, strengths, limitations, and how they have evolved.

Needle alignment

A main challenge with ultrasound needle-guided procedures is aligning the needle with the ultrasound beam. Most solutions are hardware-based methods and can be broken down into two categories: (1) guided insertion of the needle in the ultrasound plane; and (2) increasing the field view of the ultrasound probe.

Hardware-based methods

Guided insertion

The simplest guided insertion solution is to use needle guides that attach to the transducer to keep the needle within the ultrasound plane^{[\[19\]](#page-17-16)}, or to attach a laser on the ultrasound probe which projects a line on the skin to indicate the ultrasound plane^{[[20](#page-17-17)]}. In central venous catheterization, needle guides have been shown to increase success rate under ultrasound^{[[21\]](#page-17-18)}. However, the needle can still deviate from the ultrasound plane once inside the skin. In addition, a fixed system limits the degrees of freedom of the needle^{[[9\]](#page-17-7)}. Robotic systems have been used clinically to perform ultrasound-guided needle insertion either autonomously or semi-autonomously under the control of the surgeon^{[\[22\]](#page-17-19)}. The first semi-autonomously robotic ultrasound-guided nerve block in humans was conducted in 2013 with a 100% success rate and a decrease in procedure time^{[[23](#page-17-20)]}. Autonomous systems have been utilized in phantom models, successfully maneuvering the ultrasound probe and needle simultaneously using Kalman and Random Sample Consensus (RANSAC) algorithms with a 1 mm accuracy^[24]. Recent handheld robotic devices can guide non-expert ultrasound users in probe localization and needle insertion, enabling them to achieve procedure times and success rates similar to those of experts^{[\[25\]](#page-18-1)}. Howe[ver](#page-18-0), the cost of implementing robotic technology is high, and autonomous systems are still at the proof-of-concept phase.

Probe choice

Another approach to align the needle with the ultrasound beam is to maximize the field of view for a given procedure, such as 3D imaging. A 3D image can be constructed by sweeping a 2D transducer over a region of interest to capture numerous images. These 2D images are then processed with segmentation algorithms to reconstruct the 3D view. 3D rendered images have been useful in analyzing anatomical structures and guiding catheters for spreading local anesthetics after peripheral nerve blocks in patients[26]. However, 3D imaging and needle tracking in real time are not simultaneously possible using a 2D transducer. In contrast, an electronic beam steering matrix array transducer can emit and receive sound waves in [3D](#page-18-2), allowing for real-time or 4D imaging. In a mid-line epidural lumbar spine needle placement study, the distance between the puncture site identified by the 3D probe and standard palpitation was within 3 mm^{[\[27\]](#page-18-3)}. Therefore, 3D transducers show promise in aligning the needle within the ultrasound image. However, their resolution and screen refresh rate (i.e., visible feed pauses) are inferior to 2D transducers^{[[28](#page-18-4)]}. .

Needle visualization and localization

Even when the needle is aligned with the ultrasound beam, it can often be challenging to visualize it and then localize it. This section briefly highlights the various approaches that have been proposed to enhance needle visualization and localization.

Figure 2. Existing literature on improving needle visibility in ultrasound can be categorized into two: (top row) those improving needle alignment with the ultrasound beam (bottom row), and those improving needle visualization and localization. Each of these two categories can be further classified into hardware-based methods (left column) and software-based methods (right column). It can be noted that there are currently no software-based approaches for improving needle alignment.

Hardware-based methods

Needle tip visualization and localization under ultrasound procedures is critical for needle navigation. Existing solutions can be clustered into two categories: (1) needle modification; and (2) needle tracking.

Needle modification

The first example of needle texture modifications is an echogenic needle designed to enhance visibility under ultrasound imaging. This is done by creating polymeric coatings or rough etches on the surface of the needle to create special reflective properties that enable them to produce strong echoes when they are struck by ultrasound waves $[29,30]$ $[29,30]$ $[29,30]$. Echogenic needles are most commonly used for biopsies, injection aspirations, and nerve blocks^{[[30](#page-18-6)[,31\]](#page-18-7)}. In biopsy procedures, echogenic needles are shown to be more advantageous for needle visibility for finer gauge needles since they are more useful for difficult procedures where the needle angle is suboptimal to the transducer^{[\[29\]](#page-18-5)}. However, echogenic needles tend to be more expensive compared to conventional needles due to the specialized materials and manufacturing process. Furthermore, the entrapment of micro air bubbles in surface-modified needles can create acoustic shadowing and artifacts^{[\[29,](#page-18-5)[32](#page-18-8)]}. .

Another needle modification approach is to integrate a piezoelectric buzzer and mechanically vibrate the needle tip. Needle oscillations are detected with Doppler in a cadaveric study^{[\[33](#page-18-9)]}, and more recently, in a clinical feasibility trial^{[[34](#page-18-10)]}. Tracking needle movement within a structure can be done with duplex ultrasound, which overlays brightness-mode (B-mode) with Doppler mode. Briefly, B-mode imaging converts the magnitude of the reflected sound waves to shapes that can be displayed in 2D, while Doppler mode analyzes the sound frequency between the moving needle and the stationary transducer to determine relative motion^{[\[35,](#page-18-11)[36](#page-18-12)]}. In an interstitial prostate brachytherapy study, the Doppler signal produced at the needle tip was imaged within 1-mm accuracy but was dependent on tissue stiffness and composition^{[\[34\]](#page-18-10)}. .

Therefore, there remains a need for a better system for needle tip localization that does not involve the excess costs associated with modifying all new needles.

Needle tracking

Needle tip tracking can be accomplished optically by tracking markers on the needle shaft. Briefly, an optical camera is affixed to the ultrasound transducer and tracks the markers as the needle penetrates the skin and deeper tissue. Simultaneously, a tracking algorithm predicts the trajectory of the needle tip by calculating the relative position of the needle to the transducer^{[[37](#page-18-13)[,38\]](#page-18-14)}. In a pediatric central venous catheter placement feasibility study, two stereo cameras fixed to the transducer predicted the catheter trajectory and led to a 90% successful central vein cannulation on the first pass. However, no statistical results on whether this method improved catheter placement were assessed in the study^{[\[39](#page-18-15)]}. The main drawback of an optical tracking approach is that the system assumes that the needle tip does not bend during surgery. Acoustic sensors, such as fiber-optic piezoelectric hydrophones, have been developed to facilitate physicians to localize the needle within the ultrasound image^{[[40](#page-18-16)[-42\]](#page-18-17)}. These sensors are integrated into an intraoperative needle to measure the time difference between sound emission by the ultrasound transducer and reception at the needle tip^{[\[40\]](#page-18-16)}. In bovine phantoms, the accuracy of fiber optic hydrophones was found to be within 1 mm between tracked and labeled positions, and its tracking performance was independent of needle insertion angle^{[[41](#page-18-18)]}. In a porcine phantom, anesthesiologists found that using acoustic sensors reduced the procedure time and the number of hand movements in out-of-plane peripheral nerve block procedures^{[\[42](#page-18-17)]}. . A similar approach to hydrophones is using a photoacoustic emitter at the needle tip. A pulse laser is transmitted through an optical fiber onto a photoacoustic material which transforms light into acoustic sound waves at the needle tip. The produced sound waves are then detected by the ultrasound transducer and the needle tip can be localized in real time^{[[43](#page-18-19)]}. In a phantom simulation study, anesthesiologists, residents, and medical students watched videos of needle tip placements: two successful and one failed, with and without the photoacoustic emissions. Failure of needle placement was identified with 100% across all participants for both in-plane and out-of-plane approaches^{[[44](#page-18-20)]}. However, the efficacy of photoacoustics in clinical practice remains to be determined.

Another approach that can help the localization of the needle in an ultrasound image is to use a filament sensor embedded in the needle. Briefly, the sensor induces a small current which can be detected by an electromagnetic measuring device^{[\[45,](#page-18-21)[46](#page-18-22)]}. The needle tip position is then triangulated and projected onto the ultrasound image. In a clinical study, electromagnetic needle tracking was shown to reduce the number of needle reinsertion and shorten block performance time in out-of-plane approaches[[47\]](#page-18-23). Moreover, in percutaneous liver biopsies, the spatial accuracy of the needle tip displayed electronically was within 2 mm from the real position seen on the ultrasound image^{[[48](#page-18-24)]}. However, the magnetic interference caused by surrounding magnetic tools and the required proximity of the field generator to the procedure are limitations for such a system. Although prototypes have been developed to integrate magnetic sensors into the transducer to reduce the additional equipment needed^{[\[49,](#page-18-25)[50](#page-18-26)]}, such solutions still require magnetizing the needles instead of using standard operative needles.

Software based methods

Software-based methods for needle visualization and localization can be categorized into three: (1) image acquisition methods; (2) classical image processing methods; and (3) learning-based methods. In this section, we briefly describe these methods.

Image acquisition

Currently, the image acquisition method used to improve needle visualization is beam steering, in which the

ultrasound beam is perpendicular to the needle to maximize specular reflection^{[[6](#page-17-5)]}. The steered images are then spatially compounded to form a single image in which the needle is more conspicuous. Cheung and Rholing developed an algorithm that automatically adjusts the steering angle in linear 2D ultrasound arrays^{[\[51\]](#page-18-27)}. The challenge with beam steering is that it does not localize the needle and also has a limited steering angle that makes needle enhancement challenging for steeper and deeper insertions^{[[52](#page-18-28)]}. .

Classical image processing methods

The challenges faced by image acquisition methods inspired exploration into image processing methods that were independent of beam-steering. Classical image processing methods follow a workflow involving: image preprocessing, feature extraction, needle detection from the features, and postprocessing to localize the needle [\[Figure 3](#page-7-0)]. In the image processing step, the input ultrasound images are transformed using a preprocessor *P* with corresponding parameters *s*. Early image processing approaches involved modeling ultrasound signal transmission to estimate signal loss due to attenuation^{[\[53\]](#page-19-0)}. However, this approach only works for in-plane insertion. This challenge can be overcome using digital subtraction of consecutive frames^{[\[54](#page-19-1)]} or optical flow methods^{[[55](#page-19-2)]} to capture subtle motion changes even when the needle is imperceptible. Image processing for 3D ultrasound volumes could involve transforming the volume into appropriate views to normalize deformed object representations inherent in 3D ultrasound transducers^{[\[56\]](#page-19-3)}. .

After image processing, features are extracted using a handcrafted feature extractor *E* parameterized in $λ$ ₁. . Classical feature extractors can be categorized into two: intensity-based feature extractors and phase-based feature extractors. Intensity-based feature extractors use edge-detection methods to localize the needle, for instance, Ayvali and Desai used a circular Hough Transform to directly localize the tip of a hollow needle in 2D ultrasound^{[\[57\]](#page-19-4)}. The challenge with intensity-based features is that they depend on the visibility of the needle and assume the needle to be the brightest object within the image^{[\[57\]](#page-19-4)}. Such features quickly fail in the presence of other high-intensity artifacts such as tissue close to bone. This led to the adoption of scale and rotation invariant features extractors such as Gabor filters, log-Gabor filters, and Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)^{[\[56,](#page-19-3)[58](#page-19-5)[-60\]](#page-19-6)}. .

Based on the extracted features, the input image is segmented by the handcrafted decoder *D* parameterized in *^λ*² to obtain a binary map indicating which pixels are likely to be the needle. To localize the needle in the segmentation map, postprocessing approaches such as the RANSAC^{[[61](#page-19-7)]}, Kalman filter^{[\[61\]](#page-19-7)}, Hough Transform[[52](#page-18-28)[-57\]](#page-19-4) , and Radon Transform[[53](#page-19-0)] are used to fit a line through the segmentation map to obtain the needle trajectory. The needle tip is then determined as the pixel with the highest intensity at the distal end of the estimated trajectory. However, this naive approach is not robust to high-intensity artifacts along the estimated trajectory, and methods such as Maximum Likelihood Estimation Sample Consensus (MLESAC) can be used to determine the most likely pixel corresponding to the needle tip^{[\[62\]](#page-19-8)}. .

Generally, image processing methods can take as input either a single ultrasound image^{[[53](#page-19-0)[,63\]](#page-19-9)}, two consecutive images^{[[54](#page-19-1)[,61,](#page-19-7)[64\]](#page-19-10)} or a video stream of ultrasound images^{[[52](#page-18-28)[,57,](#page-19-4)[59\]](#page-19-11)}. Algorithms that rely only on a single image to make a prediction are generally more suitable for needle tip verification, such as in needle ablation procedures. Nevertheless, they can be successively applied on a stream of ultrasound images to facilitate needle guidance toward a target in real time^{[[65\]](#page-19-12)}. However, algorithms that rely on a stream of images before making a prediction are more suited for needle guidance as they benefit from the temporal information encoded within the image stream. These algorithms have the potential to model needle motion during insertion, making them good candidates for needle guidance^{[\[55,](#page-19-2)[66](#page-19-13)]}. .

Figure 3. Software-based needle localization methods can be categorized into three: (A) classical image processing methods that use a handcrafted feature extractor and decoder; (B) machine learning-based methods with a trainable decoder; (C and D) and deep learningbased methods with a trainable feature extractor and decoder. Generally, software-based methods take as input either single ultrasound images or a video stream of ultrasound images.

Classical image processing methods face two major challenges: (1) they require carefully engineered feature extractors *E* with arbitrarily or heuristically selected parameters λ , which are generally not robust to intensity, scale and orientation changes, or are computationally expensive^{[\[63\]](#page-19-9)}; (2) designing a decoding algorithm for high dimensional features is not tractable. These challenges led to the adoption of methods to automatically learn features necessary for needle detection and also learn robust classifiers for highdimensional features.

Learning-based methods

Learning-based methods can be broadly categorized into two categories: (1) machine learning-based methods in which only the parameters *λ*₂ of the decoder *D* are learned, and (2) deep learning-based methods in which the parameters λ_1 and λ_2 of both the feature extractor *E* and decoder *D*, respectively, are learned [\[Figure 3B](#page-7-0) and [C\]](#page-7-0). Initial attempts at learning a classifier involved combining various combinations of threshold responses of the image to the feature extractors using the Adaboost statistical algorithm^{[\[67\]](#page-19-14)}. The intuition behind this approach is that, independently, the threshold responses are weak classifiers, but when combined, a strong classifier can be obtained. However, this approach is wasteful as it only utilizes a subset of all the extracted features. Other common classification algorithms used include Bayesian classifer^{[\[68\]](#page-19-15)}, , linear discriminant analysis (LDA)[\[56\]](#page-19-3), support vector machine (SVM)[[60\]](#page-19-6), and its variant linear support vector machine (LSVM)^{[\[56\]](#page-19-3)}. .

The most commonly used decoder in machine learning methods is the SVM algorithm, which can learn to classify high-dimensional features from data. For needle detection, the SVM is fed with all the extracted features and it outputs a binary segmentation mask where white pixels represent the needle and black pixels the background^{[\[55,](#page-19-2)[60](#page-19-6),[69\]](#page-19-16)}. The challenge with SVMs is that they do not directly output probability estimates of their predictions which may be required for uncertainty estimation and postprocessing. While machine learning approaches solve the decoder issues faced in classical image processing methods, they still rely on handcrafted features that exhibit the challenges mentioned in Section "Classical image processing methods".

Deep learning-based methods, on the other hand, aim to leverage data to learn both the feature extractor *Eλ*₁ and decoder $D\lambda_2$. Early approaches used multi-layer perceptrons (MLPs) to learn relevant needle features and classify them accordingly^{[[70](#page-19-17)]}. In the approach proposed by Geraldes and Rocha, the MLP took as input a region of interest (ROI) selected from the input ultrasound image, output a probability estimate for each pixel in the ROI being a needle, and a threshold applied to the output to localize the needle^{[[70\]](#page-19-17)}. This approach, however, yielded tip localization errors greater than 5 mm.

Most deep learning methods use convolutional neural networks (CNNs) with multiple layers, whereby the first layers learn local features from the image and the deeper layers combine the local features to learn more global features. CNN-based approaches can be categorized into four: (1) classification; (2) regression; (3) segmentation; and (4) object detection. Using CNNs for classification is common in methods working with 3D ultrasound. For instance, in the approach by Pourtaherian *et al*., a CNN is used to classify voxels extracted from 3D ultrasound volumes as either needle or background yielding a 3D voxel-wise segmentation map of the needle^{[\[71,](#page-19-18)[72\]](#page-19-19)}. A cylindrical model is then fitted to this map using RANSAC to estimate the needle axis which is used to determine the 2D plane containing the entire needle. Another approach would be to classify each scan plane in the 3D volume as either containing a needle or not, and then similarly combine and visualize the 2D plane that contains the entire needle^{[\[54\]](#page-19-1)}. While these approaches enhance the visualization of the needle in 3D ultrasound, they do not localize the needle tip.

With regression, the features extracted by the CNN are used to directly regress the needle tip coordinates (x, y) ^{[\[65\]](#page-19-12)}, or their proxy by regressing four values representing the two opposite vertices of a tight bounding box centered around the needle tip^{[[66](#page-19-13)]} [[Figure 3D\]](#page-7-0). These approaches are suitable for needle localization in both in-plane and out-of-plane insertion as they do not heavily rely on shaft information. The only downside of these approaches is that they do not enhance visualization of the entire needle during in-plane insertions.

For segmentation, the high-level features extracted by the CNN are used in reverse to generate a probability map with pixel-wise probabilities of the existence of a needle^{[[72](#page-19-19)[-78\]](#page-19-20)}. This probability map can then be postprocessed, usually by thresholding, to generate a binary segmentation map. CNNs with segmentation are the most commonly used deep learning approach for needle detection because they can detect the entire needle, including the shaft, while producing probabilities for their outputs, which leaves room for a variety of postprocessing approaches [\[Figure 3C\]](#page-7-0). A special case of segmentation can be found in high dose rate (HDR) prostate brachytherapy applications where multiple needles are segmented simultaneously^{[\[79-](#page-20-0)[82](#page-20-1)]}. In these applications, transverse 2D slices obtained from the 3D ultrasound volume are passed as input to the CNN trained to output the corresponding multi-needle segmentations for each slice. Unlike shaft segmentations for in-plane needle insertion, segmentations in HDR prostate brachytherapy slices are circular and centered around each needle in a given slice. These segmentations are then combined and the centers of the circles are considered to be the needle shaft with the most distal bright intensity considered as the needle tip.

Object detection methods are similar to segmentation methods but output bounding boxes encasing the detected needle. For instance, Mwikirize *et al*. used a CNN to automatically generate potential bounding box regions containing the needle and fed them to a region-based CNN (R-CNN) to classify which regions contained the needle^{[[83](#page-20-2)]}. On the other hand, Wang *et al*. used the Yolox-nano detector that outputs bounding box predictions for each pixel. These predictions are then combined using non-max suppression to obtain a single bounding box indicating the predicted needle^{[\[84\]](#page-20-3)}. Rubin *et al.* combined a 3D CNN, to extract temporal features from an ultrasound video stream, with a 2D Yolov3-tiny object detector to

efficiently detect the needle^{[\[85](#page-20-4)]}. Object detection can also be performed directly for the needle tip instead of the entire needle[\[86\]](#page-20-5). .

DISCUSSION

Various methods and approaches have been developed to enhance needle alignment, visualization, and localization in ultrasound. Currently, all methods that are aimed at improving needle alignment are hardware-based [\[Figure 2\]](#page-4-0), and require additional hardware which increases the cost of the ultrasound systems and also disrupts normal workflow. The same applies to the hardware-based needle visualization methods. This can be a big challenge, especially in resource-constrained communities such as rural and remote settings, and low- and middle-income countries that can not afford additional hardware.

On the other hand, software-based methods do not require additional hardware and could be a potential alternative in such scenarios. Classical image-based methods for needle visualization and localization rely heavily on carefully engineered feature extractors and classifiers which are often not robust to various image acquisition settings and image quality. Learning-based methods address this challenge by automatically learning the feature extractor and/or classifier from existing data. Deep learning-based methods exhibit superior performance compared to classical methods, and thus, this discussion will mainly focus on the most recent deep learning-based methods for needle visualization and localization, summarized in [Table 1](#page-10-0) and detailed in [Table 2](#page-11-0).

The challenge with learning-based methods is that they require a lot of data to be trained. This data can be collected from tissue-mimicking phantoms, freshly excised animal cadavers, or *in vivo* during clinical procedures. Most methods use data collected by performing needle insertions in vitro with phantoms, and *ex vivo* with porcine, bovine, and chicken while mimicking clinical scenarios [[Table 1\]](#page-10-0). Only methods developed for HDR prostate brachytherapy consistently use human *in vivo* data for evaluation. Future methods can find motivation from Gillies *et al*., who evaluated their approach on *in vivo* datasets from multiple organs and scenarios on top of the phantom datasets^{[[89](#page-20-6)]}. .

The data are typically annotated by an expert sonographer who performed the needle insertion experiments to obtain the ground truth labels. In some scenarios, a hardware-based tracking system is used to obtain a more accurate needle tip location, especially for cases where the needle is imperceptible to the human eye^{[\[54](#page-19-1)[,66,](#page-19-13)[88](#page-20-7)]}. In all the proposed approaches, local datasets were collected and this is not ideal for comparing the proposed methods as noise and biases can easily be introduced into the data. To date, there is no benchmark dataset on which developed methods can be evaluated, which has significantly stifled progress[\[11\]](#page-17-9). .

The typical evaluation metric for learning-based methods is needle tip error, as the ultimate goal for needle localization is to avoid puncture of critical tissue such as veins along the needle trajectory. For segmentation methods that also detect the needle shaft, needle trajectory/orientation error is an important metric, on top of the needle tip error, to assess model performance for needle guidance during insertion. Needle localization performance has progressed over the years, in terms of needle tip localization error, up until 2022, when there seems to be a decrease in progress [\[Figure 4\]](#page-16-0). However, needle orientation error is also used to ensure that a large portion of the needle shaft is also accurately detected. Out of all the proposed methods, deep learning-based methods that report both tip localization and orientation error achieve state-of-the-art performance [\[Figure 4B\]](#page-16-0)^{[\[76,](#page-19-21)[78,](#page-19-20)[83](#page-20-2)]}. Another key metric for software-based methods is inference time on central processing unit (CPU), given that when deployed, these algorithms should achieve real-time performance, which is considered to be any processing speed greater than 16 fps^{[\[14\]](#page-17-12)}. .

Mode 2D+t indicates methods that incorporate temporal information, that is, they take as input multiple consecutive ultrasound images before making a prediction. Almost all methods were trained and evaluated only on phantom datasets, with the exception of those developed for HDR prostate brachytherapy. Note that blanks in the table indicate that the entry was not reported in the paper. HDR: High dose rate.

One observation from many of the proposed learning-based methods performing needle segmentation is the use of metrics, such as the Dice coefficient and intersection over union (IOU), that do not reflect clinical needs for needle localization. For instance, both DICE and IOU only measure the overlap between the prediction and the ground truth; they are inherently biased to focus more on the needle shaft, which may not be as informative as the needle trajectory error (degrees) or tip localization error (mm). The trend toward such metrics has mainly increased with machine learning and deep learning-based methods and could be a result of adopting metrics commonly used in other domains where they directly reflect the domain needs. Caution should thus be taken when selecting metrics to optimize and evaluate proposed software-based methods^{[[93](#page-20-11)[,94\]](#page-20-12)}. Maier-Hein *et al.* developed a comprehensive framework to act as a guideline in selecting problem-aware metrics for assessing medical image processing machine learning algorithms^{[[93](#page-20-11)]}. .

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Table 2. A summary of the deep reviewed learning-based methods listed in descending order of date published

- 2D detector outputs bounding box of needle in current frame

CPU: Central processing unit; SOTA: state-of-the-art; ROIs: region of interests; CNN: convolutional neural network; LSTM: long short-term memory; DBSCAN: density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise; RANSAC: Random Sample Consensus; CT: computed tomography; PCA: principal component analysis; GPU: graphics processing unit; MLP: multi-layer perceptron.

While a lot of progress has been made in the needle visualization and localization approaches, little progress has been made in developing effective needle alignment approaches and this has hindered clinical adoption. The current software-based methods alone cannot solve both challenges and they greatly rely on the assumption that the needle is correctly aligned with the probe and is imperceptible to the naked eye.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

A benchmark dataset containing data from different organs, needle types, and ultrasound scanners from multiple centers, with clearly defined evaluation metrics, should be collected and made publicly available for fair comparison of any proposed software-based methods. An ideal needle detection method would then be one that can maintain its performance across multiple organs, needle types, and ultrasound devices used, as it is not feasible to always develop a new method for each scenario. In terms of needle enhancement, future investigations could focus on directly detecting needles from raw radio frequency (RF) signals before image reconstruction. The hypothesis posits that the raw RF signal, being rich in information, may contain distinct patterns indicative of needles, allowing for their detection and isolation amidst background noise. Another exciting avenue for future research on software-based image acquisition techniques is specular beamforming. Instead of using the conventional delay-and-sum beamforming that assumes scattered reflection, specular beamforming takes into account the physics of specular reflection from acoustically hard objects such as needles to improve their visibility in ultrasound^[95]. .

Innovative strategies are needed to enhance needle alignment with ultrasound probes, particularly for inexperienced clinicians, while maintaining procedural efficiency. These strategies could potentially combine hardware-based needle alignment approaches with software-based methods for needle visualization enhancement and localization. Future research could also explore utilizing the entirety of video information, mirroring the approach taken by clinicians when adjusting probes and needles. Software-based methods that track probe and needle motion can be developed to improve needle alignment with the ultrasound beam. These can leverage inertial measurement unit (IMU) data, which are available in some ultrasound devices^[96]. Additionally, it is crucial to investigate integrating needle detection and tracking methods, as relying solely on needle localization methods may not fully ad[dr](#page-20-24)ess the challenge of needle alignment^[87]. .

CONCLUSION

Ultrasound-guided needle insertion is crucial during many minimally invasive procedures but faces two major challenges: (1) aligning the needle with the

Figure 4. Various approaches have been developed for needle tip localization (A), but only 7 report both needle tip localization and needle orientation error (B). Until 2022, progress was being made in reducing the needle tip localization error; however, most recent approaches seem to have reversed this trend (A). Current state-of-the-art methods achieve sub-millimeter needle tip localization and needle orientation errors (B). However, caution should be taken as these results are based on the self-reported errors on local datasets.

ultrasound probe; and (2) visualizing the needle under ultrasound. In this paper, we reviewed the various methods proposed to improve needle visibility in ultrasound with a major focus on software-based methods but also briefly described relevant hardware-based approaches. Various approaches have been proposed, with AI methods achieving state-of-the-art performance with submillimeter tip localization and orientation errors. However, these approaches have not yet seen clinical applications as they only solve needle visualization but not needle alignment. We believe that when combined with approaches that help with needle alignment, the proposed needle visualization approaches have very significant potential in improving ultrasound-guided needle procedures.

DECLARATIONS

Authors' contributions

Made substantial contributions to the conception and design of the study: Hacihaliloglu I, Liu D

Reviewed literature on needle appearance in ultrasound: Tadayon P

Reviewed literature on the hardware-based methods: Arora I, Pieters A

Reviewed literature on the software-based methods: Gulam S, Kimbowa A

Made substantial contributions to the writing of the initial draft: Pieters A, Tadayon P, Arora I, Gulam S, Kimbowa A

Made substantial contributions to the writing of the final manuscript: Pieters A, Pinos A, Kimbowa A, Hacihaliloglu I

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable.

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Conflicts of interest

All authors declared that there are no conflicts of interest.

Ethical approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

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