

Prediction of Organ Geometry from Demographic and Anthropometric Data based on Supervised Learning Approach using Statistical Shape Atlas

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Keywords: Statistical Shape Atlas, Demographic and Anthropometric Data, Principal Component Analysis, Regression Analysis, Supervised Learning, Allometry.

Abstract: We propose a method relating internal human organ geometries and non-invasively acquired information such as demographic and anthropometric data. We first apply a dimensionality reduction technique to a training dataset to represent the organ geometry with low dimensional feature coordinates. Regression analysis is then used to determine a regression function between feature coordinates and the external measurements of the subjects. Feature coordinates for the organ of an unknown subject are then predicted from external measurements using the regression function, subsequently the organ geometry is estimated from the feature coordinates. As an example case, lung shapes represented as a point distribution model was analyzed based on demographic (age, gender, race), and several anthropometric measurements (height, weight, and chest dimensions). The training dataset consisted of 124 topologically consistent lung shapes created from thoracic CT scans. The prediction error of lung shape of an unknown subject based on 11 demographic and anthropometric information was 10.71 ± 5.48 mm. This proposed approach is applicable to scenarios where the prediction of internal geometries from external parameters is of interest. Examples include the use of external measurements as a prior information for image quality improvement in low dose CT, and optimization of CT scanning protocol.

1 INTRODUCTION

Analysis of organ geometries using statistical shape atlases is a prevalent trend in various target application fields, such as cardiac modelling (Frangi et al., 2002), pelvis shape analysis for dose reduction (Chintalapani et al., 2010), 4-dimensional lung motion modelling (Ehrhardt et al., 2011), and a small animal research using Micro-CT (Hongkai Wang et al., 2012).

Most existing statistical shape atlases of human organ are created from an unnonimized CT dataset, thus the analyses were often confined to organ shape among a select disease group or subject population. To our knowledge, the relationship between anthropometric and demographic data with a

statistical atlas of generalized population is not investigated as yet.

In order to address this gap, we collected a thoracic computed tomography (CT) dataset together with non-invasively acquired “external measurements” including demographic information and several anthropometric metrics. We propose a method to analyze correlation between a subject’s external measurements and their internal organ geometry based on a supervised learning approach.

As an initial feasibility study, we used lung as a target organ and considered its geometric features as a cloud of connected points (Point Distribution Model, PDM).

Prediction of information about internal structure which are typically measured in invasive way from these readily measureable external measurements

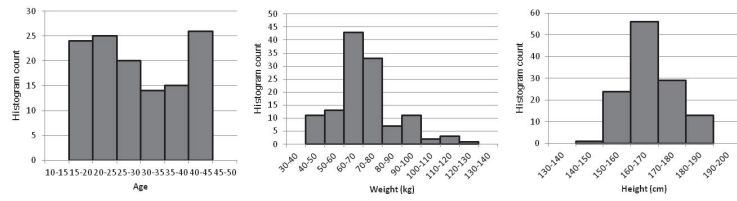


Figure 1: Demographic property distributions of the population in training dataset.

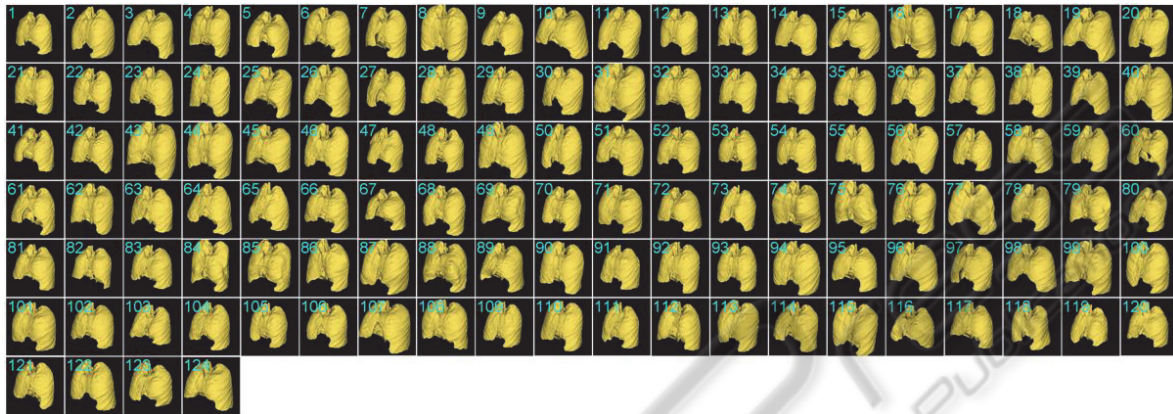


Figure 2: Training dataset. PDM (Point Distribution Model) of lung geometry of 124 subjects were created from CT dataset. Automatic segmentation combined with a deformable registration algorithm (Mjolnir (Ellingsen, Chintalapani, Taylor, & Prince, 2010)) using one subject (subject #44) as a template was employed to obtain topology-consistent meshes. Thus point correspondence was inherently solved. The subjects were chosen in such a way that the demographic characteristics were well balanced.

may be useful in a variety application scenarios ranging from medical device development to personalized medicine and protection. The use of external measurements as a prior information for image quality improvement in low dose CT, and optimization of CT scanning protocol are two potential example applications for this approach.

2 METHODS

2.1 Materials

Existing radiological CT scans of the chest region were collected from 124 patients. Following Johns Hopkins Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the radiology archives at Johns Hopkins Hospital were searched for thoracic or chest CT scans of males and females ages 17-45. Only very strictly normal scans of lung were included in this study (normal by report and inspection). Any scan with obvious or minimal pathology was excluded. Scans that showed lungs without disease but with findings different from normal (such as atelectasis, normal variants) were also excluded. Subject characteristics

of age, gender, ethnicity, height and weight were extracted from their medical records archives. In order to reduce population bias in the statistical atlas, the patients were selected to achieve a relatively even distribution of gender and ethnicity. For the purpose of this initial study, ethnic groups were binned as White, Black, Hispanic, and Other. Subjects were anonymized after extraction. Table 1 and Figure 1 show the distribution of demographic property of the population in the training dataset.

External measurements of each subject's chest span, chest depth, chest breadth, and inter-nipple distance were manually approximated from landmarks on the CT images. These measurements were selected to correspond with those used in common anthropometric surveys ((Gordon et al., 1989); (Robinette et. al., 2002)). Chest span (cranio-caudal) was defined as the vertical distance between highest level of first rib to the lower costophrenic angle. Chest breadth (or width) was defined as the skin to skin depth of the chest at the carinal plane at the level of nipples. Finally, the inter-nipple distance measurement was made in an axial plane view where both nipples were visible.

Table 1: Number of subjects in each population group in the training dataset.

| | White (n) | Black (n) | Hispanic (n) | Other (n) | Total (%) |
|------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| Male (n) | 19 | 15 | 14 | 12 | 48.4 |
| Female (n) | 19 | 17 | 14 | 14 | 51.6 |
| Total (%) | 31.6 | 25.8 | 22.6 | 21.0 | 100 |

2.2 Construction of Training Datasets

We selected a template CT image from the acquired dataset. This template was manually segmented, and used to generate a template tetrahedral mesh consisting of 112,602 vertices and 509,034 tetrahedrons.

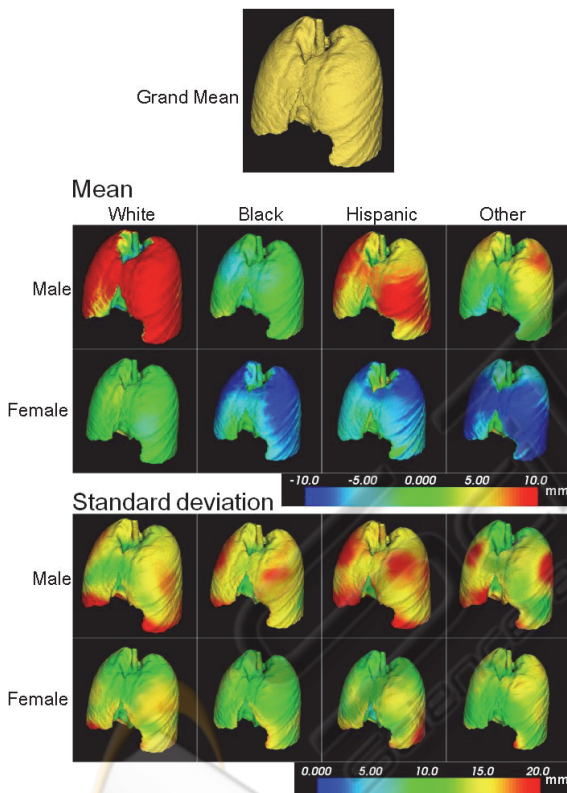


Figure 3: Mean shape (upper 2 rows) and standard deviation (lower 2 rows) of the training dataset in each population group. Colormap of mean indicates the displacement of each vertex from the grand mean (mean of the entire population) along the normal direction of a triangle mesh at each vertex, positive indicating outward direction.

An intensity based deformable registration method (Mjølner, (Ellingsen et al., 2010)) was applied to deformably register the CT data of each subject to the template CT. The resulting deformation field was applied to the template mesh

to create a tetrahedral mesh representing the particular subject. Thus, the point correspondences, which is one of the key considerations in a typical statistical atlas construction process, was inherently solved in our pipeline.

Figure 2 shows the entire training dataset that we used in this study. The mean of white male was more than 10 mm larger than the grand mean, and the means of female were almost the same (for White) or about 10 mm smaller than the grand mean. Figure 3 shows the mean shape and standard deviation among each population group classified based on race and gender.

2.3 Proposed Approach

As shown in Figure 4, the workflow of the proposed method consists of 2 steps including a modelling step and a prediction step.

In the modelling step, we modelled each shape instance as a vector of X, Y, Z coordinates of all the mesh vertices and applied dimensionality reduction algorithm which creates low dimensional feature coordinates for each subject. Two types of dimensionality reduction algorithms were tested, principal component analysis (PCA) (Figure 5) and Isomap (Tenenbaum et al., 2000). Linear least square regression analysis was performed to compute a regression function between the feature coordinates (also called mode weights in PCA) and the external measurements of the subject.

The prediction step predicted the feature coordinates of an unknown subject from its external measurements, and subsequently the organ shape was estimated from the predicted feature coordinates. As is the case with a typical regression analysis, the approach makes it possible to analyze magnitude and direction of correlation between each external measurement and the feature coordinates which encode the organ shape.

The proposed approach makes the analysis of the complex variation of organ shapes represented as a large dimensional vector tractable by using dimensionality reduction. The regression step can employ more general classes of non-linear regression methods, although a simple linear least square approach was used in our feasibility study reported here.

The following subsections detail each step in the proposed workflow.

2.3.1 Dimensionality Reduction

An organ geometry was represented as a $3V$ -vector

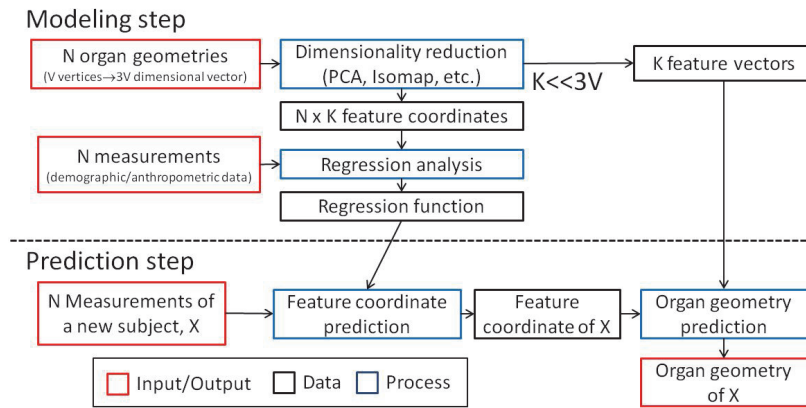


Figure 4: Overview of the workflow of organ geometry prediction. Modelling step reduces dimensionality of the organ geometry based on the training dataset and produces feature vectors and feature coordinates of each geometry. Then a regression function was created by a regression analysis on the demographic/anthropometric data and the feature coordinates. Prediction step determines shape of the target organ of a new subject based on feature coordinates predicted by the regression function.

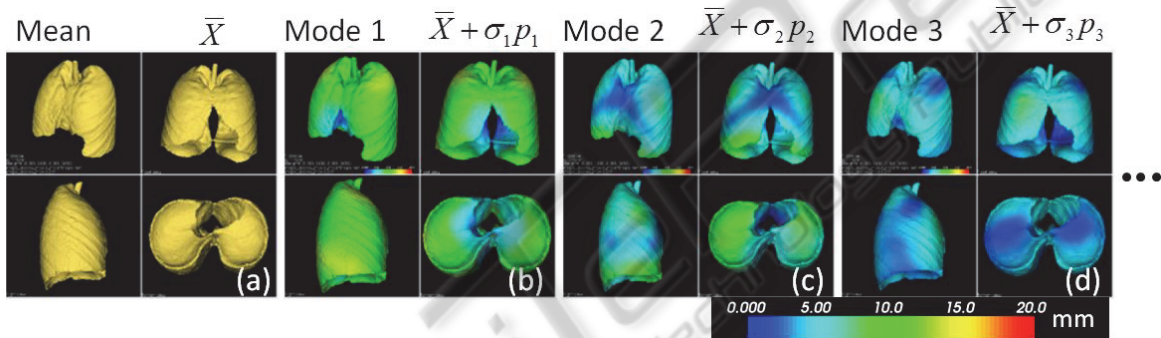


Figure 5: PCA analysis on point distribution model of lungs of the training dataset. (a) mean shape, mean plus one standard deviation in the direction of mode 1 (b), mode 2 (c), and mode 3 (d). The colormap (0-20 mm) shows displacement of each vertex from the mean shape.

x_i , (V : number of vertices, i : index of the subject).

Principal Component Analysis. PCA was performed on the set $\{x_i, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ (N : number of subjects) creating a new feature coordinate system that represents each geometry

$$x_i = \bar{x} + \sum_{j=1}^M a_j^i e_j \quad (1)$$

where e_j represents the feature vectors (principal mode vectors), which is eigenvectors of the covariance matrix of x_i sorted according to decreasing eigenvalues λ_j . \bar{x} is the mean shape and a_j^i are the feature coordinates (mode weights) that correspond to each feature vector. M is the number of feature vectors.

Given a set of feature coordinates for an unknown subject $\{a_j^u, j = 1, \dots, M\}$, its organ geometry x_u is estimated (reconstructed) by (1).

Isomap. Isomap is a type of non-linear dimensionality reduction method where the training datasets were modelled as weighted graph based on its distance matrix which produces a new distance measure called geodesic distance, and then classical eigen analysis, multidimensional scaling (MDS, (Borg and Groenen, 2005)) is applied on the geodesic distances. The connectivity of each data point in the neighbourhood graph is defined as its k-Nearest Neighbours (kNN) in the high-dimensional space. In this paper, a simple Euclidean distance was used as the distance metric in the high-dimensional space and $K=6$ was chosen for kNN. Thus, Isomap produces feature coordinates $\{a_j^i, j = 1, \dots, M\}$ for each subject i from the set of organ geometries $\{x_i, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ similar to PCA.

For reconstruction of an organ geometry of an unknown subject x_u from its feature coordinates, we used kNN interpolation in the feature space.

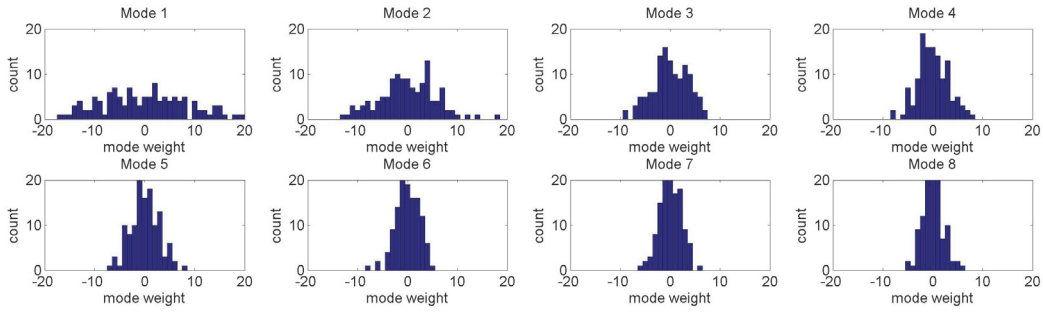


Figure 6: Distribution of mode weights in the training dataset. Histograms of the first 8 principal modes were plotted.

kNN was computed based on Euclidean distance between the feature coordinates and an inverse distance was used as the weight (Shepard, 1968) as follows.

$$x_u = \frac{\sum_{i \in kNN} x_i \frac{d_i^{-p}}{\sum_{j=1}^k d_j^{-p}}}{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M (a_m^u - a_m^j)^2}} \quad (2)$$

where d_i is the Euclidean distance between two M dimensional vector a^u and a^j . We employed a simple interpolation scheme due to limitation of computation time in our initial implementation, however, a more computationally intensive interpolation method such as radial basis function (RBF) (Press, 2007) can also be applied in this step.

2.3.2 Linear Least Square Regression on Mode Weights and Measurements

Linear least square regression analysis on the feature coordinates (a^j) and external measurements $\{X_i, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ were performed. Here X_i represents a K-vector consisting of K measurements of i^{th} subject.

Using X_i as independent variables and a^j as an dependent variable, we computed regression coefficients A_m (intercept) and $B_{m,k}$ for each feature coordinate independently. Thus the computed regression function can be written as follows.

$$\begin{cases} a_1 = A_1 + \sum_{k=1}^K B_{1,k} X_k \text{ (feature coord. 1)} \\ a_2 = A_2 + \sum_{k=1}^K B_{2,k} X_k \text{ (feature coord. 2)} \\ \vdots \\ a_M = A_M + \sum_{k=1}^K B_{M,k} X_k \text{ (feature coord. M)} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

2.3.3 Prediction of Organ Geometry from External Measurements

To compute the organ geometry of an unknown subject x_u from a set of external measurement of the subject X_u , we first computed a set of its feature coordinates $\{a_j^u, j = 1, \dots, M\}$ using the regression function (3). Then the organ geometry was computed based on the feature coordinates as described in 2.2.1.1 and 2.2.1.2 for PCA and Isomap respectively.

2.4 Validation Method

In order to evaluate accuracy of the proposed method, leave-out validation tests were performed.

In the first set of tests, 2 subjects (#33 & #47) were left out. The proposed modelling step was applied to the training dataset excluding the 2 subjects. Organ geometry of the 2 left-out subjects were predicted using the proposed approach and compared with the true geometry. Distance between the vertices of the predicted and the true shape were computed as an error metric and colormapped on the predicted shape.

The second validation tests were a series of leave-one-out test. Each subject was left-out one to the other, and the same test described above was repeated.

3 RESULTS & DISCUSSION

3.1 Comparison between Two Dimensionality Reduction Algorithms

Figure 7 shows an example sorting of the training datasets based on the first 2 principal modes (feature vectors) using the 2 different dimensionality reduction methods. Subjects in the training datasets

were sorted according to their feature coordinates and plotted in Figure 7(a) and 7(b). Figure 7 (c) and 7(d) demonstrate lung shapes each corresponding to the plots above (lung shapes close to each other are not shown).

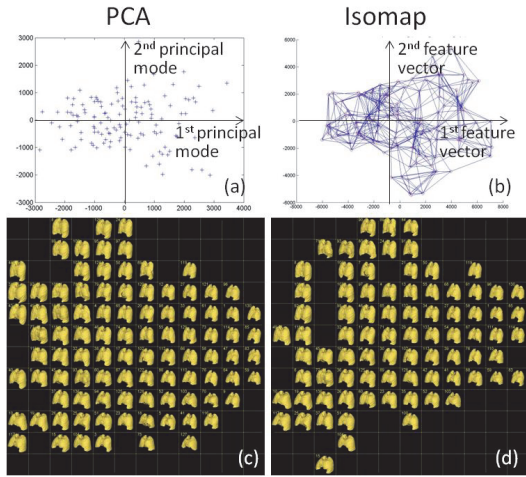


Figure 7: A comparison between 2 different dimensionality reduction algorithms: PCA and Isomap. The training datasets were sorted based on the first 2 principal modes (feature vectors). (a)(b) plots showing distribution of the training dataset, (c)(d) lung shape of each dataset that corresponds to the points in (a)(b). PCA and Isomap produced very similar results.

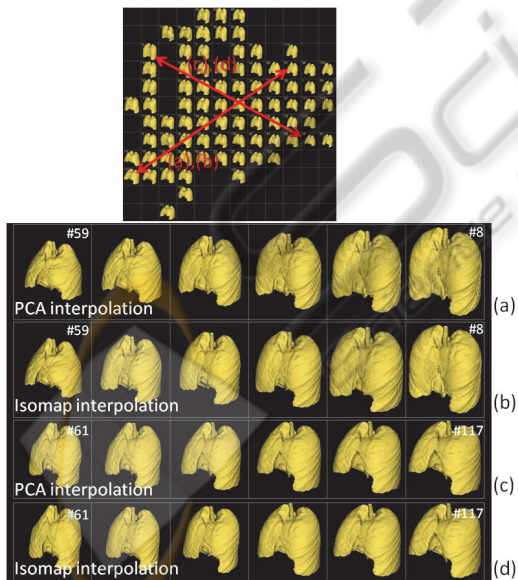


Figure 8: A comparison of interpolation using 2 methods. Interpolation from subject #59 to #8 using (a) Isomap and (b) PCA, from subject #61 to #117 using (c) Isomap and (d) PCA. Interpolated geometries were computed by k-NN interpolation ($K=6$) of feature coordinates (mode weights) of the two subjects. Similar to the sorting result (Figure 4), PCA and Isomap produced very similar results.

Figure 8 shows an example of interpolation between 2 subjects in the feature space using the 2 different methods. The interpolations were performed in its feature coordinates and 4 sequentially interpolated shapes (20, 40, 60, 80% between the two shapes) were shown.

As previous work noted (Seshamani et al., 2011), PCA and Isomap produced very similar results, which suggested that the modelling (parameterization) based on PDM does not produce a highly nonlinear manifold. However, as shown in (Tenenbaum et al., 2000), a different type of input dataset, such as face images, creates nonlinear manifold which can only captured by nonlinear dimensionality reduction methods. We believe that this suggests that the nonlinear algorithm would be required when CT data itself were used as an input training dataset rather than PDM. Since the PCA and Since Isomap produced similar results in the following discussions, we focus on PCA only. However, it is notable that any type of linear- or nonlinear- dimensionality reduction technique can be used with the proposed method.

3.2 Principal Component Analysis on the Training Datasets

Figure 8 shows distribution of mode weight values (a'_j) for mode 1 to 8 computed from PCA on the training datasets. The mode weights nearly followed normal distribution. Absolute value of the mode weights indicates the average displacement (mm) of all the vertices along each mode vector.

3.3 Regression on Mode Weights and Measurements

Results of the linear least square analysis on the first 10 mode weights were shown in Figure 9. Strong correlation between mode 1 and a few anthropometric data (chest breadth, chest span, height, etc.) was observed. Chest depth and span also showed higher correlation. From the three plots Figure 9 a-c), the stronger correlation between mode 1 and height (a), chest breadth (c) than IN distance (b) were clearly observed.

3.4 Leave-out Validation Test

Two subjects (#33 and #47) were left out, and PCA and regression analysis were performed using the other 123 subjects. The accuracy of the prediction of each mode weight was validated using the left-out 2 subjects. Table 2 shows the error in prediction of the

| | Intersept | Age | Race[B] | Race[H] | Race[O] | Gender [F] | Weight | Height | IN Distance | Chest Breadth | Chest Depth | Chset Span | R Square |
|---------|-----------|--------|---------|---------|---------|------------|--------|---------|-------------|---------------|-------------|------------|----------|
| Mode 1 | -81.547 | 0.037 | -3.278 | -3.186 | -2.609 | -2.550 | 0.036 | 8.356 | 0.143 | 0.671 | 0.545 | 1.280 | 0.787 |
| Mode 2 | -5.305 | -0.012 | -0.098 | -1.682 | -1.137 | -1.156 | 0.002 | 7.108 | 0.274 | 0.263 | 0.338 | -1.024 | 0.368 |
| Mode 3 | 14.117 | -0.031 | -0.821 | 1.242 | -1.463 | -0.058 | 0.044 | -13.172 | 0.145 | 0.117 | 0.098 | -0.099 | 0.226 |
| Mode 4 | 1.628 | 0.026 | -0.033 | 0.951 | 0.591 | -1.413 | -0.006 | 6.832 | 0.024 | 0.238 | -0.343 | -0.516 | 0.203 |
| Mode 5 | 1.023 | 0.043 | -1.396 | -0.911 | -0.926 | 0.418 | -0.040 | -0.622 | -0.003 | -0.323 | 0.598 | -0.055 | 0.282 |
| Mode 6 | 0.787 | 0.052 | 0.491 | 0.826 | -1.023 | -0.647 | -0.013 | 1.339 | -0.084 | 0.089 | -0.136 | -0.051 | 0.132 |
| Mode 7 | 2.630 | 0.036 | -0.729 | -1.541 | -1.386 | -0.037 | -0.034 | 1.375 | -0.063 | 0.117 | -0.121 | -0.088 | 0.137 |
| Mode 8 | 0.323 | 0.041 | -0.670 | 0.050 | -0.758 | -0.164 | -0.019 | 2.522 | -0.136 | -0.027 | -0.010 | -0.009 | 0.113 |
| Mode 9 | 3.296 | 0.007 | -0.111 | 0.400 | 0.399 | -0.386 | 0.003 | -1.592 | 0.025 | 0.013 | -0.048 | -0.035 | 0.029 |
| Mode 10 | -4.787 | -0.039 | 0.145 | 0.203 | 0.604 | 0.366 | -0.025 | -0.542 | -0.064 | 0.071 | 0.234 | 0.093 | 0.116 |

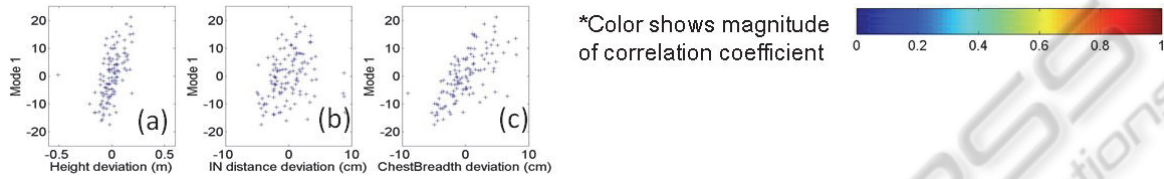


Figure 9: Results of linear least square analysis on the first 10 mode weights and 11 demographic/anthropometric measurements. The table shows coefficient of the computed regression functions. Magnitude of correlation coefficient was colormapped in the table. Strong correlation between mode 1 and a few anthropometric data is observed. Chest depth and chest span showed higher correlation with mode 4 and 5. Distribution of the of representative measurements (height, IN distance, chest breadth) vs 1st mode weight were shown below left (a)-(c).

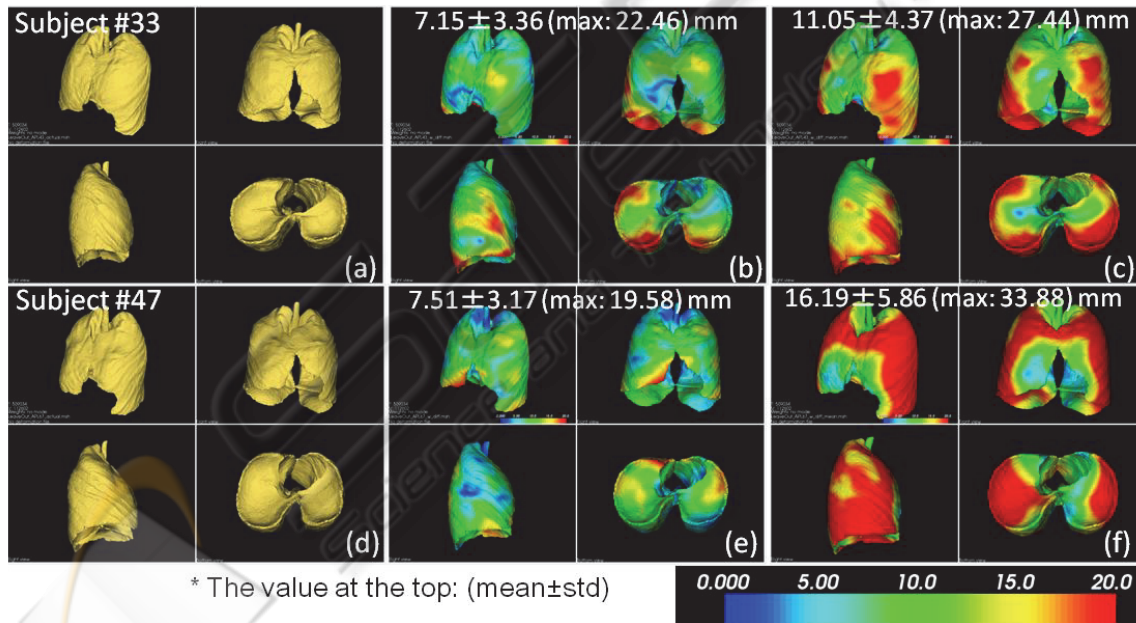


Figure 10: Results of the left-two validation test. (a-c) prediction of subject #33 (43 y.o., female, 48.53 kg, 152 cm). (a) true shape, (b) predicted shape, (c) mean shape. (d-f) true, predicted and mean shape of subject #47 (44 y.o, female, 49.9 kg, 160 cm). The color map shows the error at each vertex from the true shape. The predicted geometries were produced based on the predicted mode weights using kNN interpolation (K=6) in the feature space.

mode weights. Despite the large variation in the true mode weights (column 2 and 3), the proposed method predicted the mode weight with about 2 mm error on average.

Figure 10 shows the result of prediction of the lung geometry. We compared our prediction result

(middle column) to the mean shape (right column), since the mean shape is the best prediction when no additional information (external measurements) was involved. Compared to the error distribution in mean shape, our prediction clearly showed better results in both subjects especially around the lower edge.

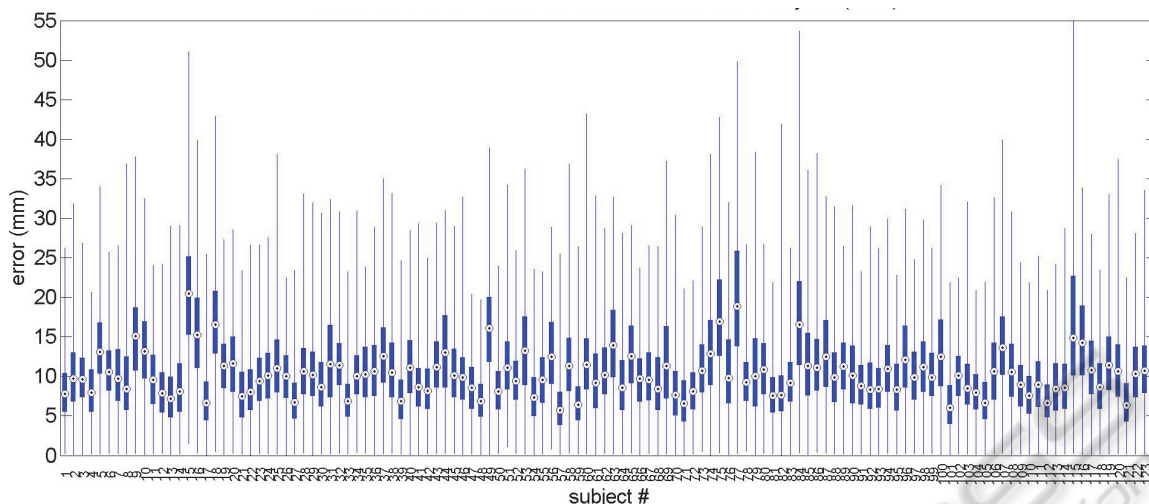


Figure 11: Results of leave-one-out validation test. All 125 subjects were left out and validated one at a time. Each plot shows the displacement error (mm) at 112,602 vertices of the lung (box plot: 25-75%, whisker plot: maximum and minimum, dot: median). Mean and standard deviation of the error over the entire subjects were 10.71 ± 5.48 mm.

Table 2: Results of mode weight prediction in leave-two-out validation test.

| Subject ID | True mode weights (mm) | | Predicted mode weights (mm) | | Prediction error (mm) | |
|------------|------------------------|-------|-----------------------------|--------|-----------------------|-------|
| | #33 | #47 | #33 | #47 | #33 | #47 |
| Mode 1 | -8.54 | -15.5 | -6.68 | -11.36 | 1.85 | 4.14 |
| Mode 2 | -4.10 | 1.78 | -3.80 | 1.16 | 0.30 | -0.62 |
| Mode 3 | -1.56 | -0.16 | -0.11 | -1.50 | 1.46 | -1.34 |
| Mode 4 | 1.54 | -2.10 | -0.81 | 0.51 | -2.35 | 2.61 |
| Mode 5 | -1.40 | 1.83 | 0.84 | 3.08 | 2.24 | 1.24 |
| Mode 6 | -2.28 | -0.09 | 0.75 | -0.95 | 3.03 | -0.87 |
| Mode 7 | 2.34 | -2.03 | 1.10 | 0.14 | -1.25 | 2.17 |
| Mode 8 | 0.56 | -0.69 | 0.78 | 0.07 | 0.22 | 0.76 |
| Mode 9 | -1.23 | -1.39 | 0.18 | 0.40 | 1.41 | 1.79 |
| Mode 10 | -0.61 | -0.08 | -0.38 | -0.53 | 0.23 | -0.45 |

Results of the repeated leave-one-out validation tests were shown in Figure 11. The distance error was about 10 mm on average. A few outliers that showed much larger error such as #15 or #115 were attributed as the error in the modelling step due to either segmentation/registration error.

Figure 12 shows a simple application example of the proposed workflow where the lung shape was predicted based on 2 simple external measurements, height and weight.

4 CONCLUSIONS

We proposed a framework to combine non-invasively measurable information (demographic/anthropometric information) with statistical shape atlas of internal organs using a supervised learning

approach. By incorporating dimensionality reduction methods, the proposed method can perform regression analysis with a reasonably small number of variables which leads the analysis of correlation between complex shape variation and demographic information tractable.

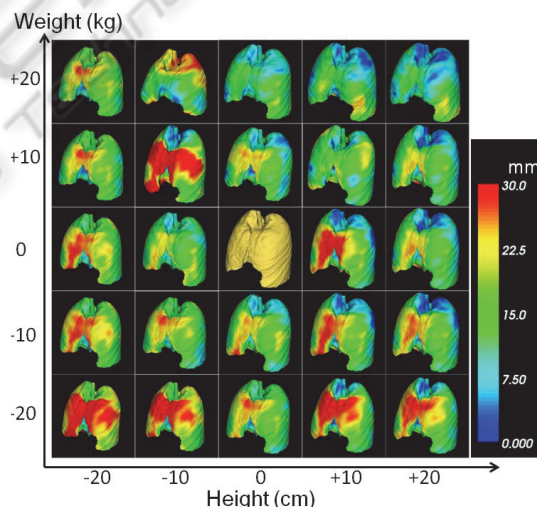


Figure 12: An example of lung shape prediction based on 2 demographic parameters (height and weight) using Isomap. Feature vectors were extracted from 124 training datasets using Isomap. Regression function was computed to predict feature coordinate of a new instance based on the 2 demographic parameters. The figures show lung shapes when height and weight were varied [-20 +20] cm, [-20 +20] kg respectively from a typical subject (#36, 68.03 kg, 173 cm). Color map indicates distance at each vertex from the subject’s lung (shown at the center).

The proposed method was piloted on an initial

dataset of 124 subjects. Improvement of the predictive models would likely be achieved by enlarging the training dataset. Future work includes sample size analysis to determine the sufficient number of samples for a particular application. Additionally, although only four external anthropometric features were selected in this paper, improvement of the predictive models may be increased by increasing the number of external features employed.

The proposed supervised learning based workflow consisting of dimensionality reduction and regression analysis is more broadly applicable to various cases. For example, CT data itself can be an input objects rather than PDM.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported in part by the United States Army Natick Soldier Research Development and Engineering Center. Cleared for public release, NSRDEC #U12-424.

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