Mathematical Foundations of Computational Anatomy

Geometrical and Statistical Methods for Biological Shape Variability Modeling

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Editors:
Xavier Pennec (Asclepios, INRIA Sophia-Antipolis, France)
Sarang Joshi (SCI, University of Utah, USA)
Preface

The goal of computational anatomy is to analyze and to statistically model the anatomy of organs in different subjects. Computational anatomic methods are generally based on the extraction of anatomical features or manifolds which are then statistically analyzed, often through a non-linear registration. There are nowadays a growing number of methods that can faithfully deal with the underlying biomechanical behavior of intra-subject deformations. However, it is more difficult to relate the anatomies of different subjects. In the absence of any justified physical model, diffeomorphisms provide a general mathematical framework that enforce topological consistency. Working with such infinite dimensional space raises some deep computational and mathematical problems, in particular for doing statistics. Likewise, modeling the variability of surfaces leads to rely on shape spaces that are much more complex than for curves. To cope with these, different methodological and computational frameworks have been proposed (e.g. smooth left-invariant metrics, focus on well-behaved subspaces of diffeomorphisms, modeling surfaces using courants, etc.)

The goal of the Mathematical Foundations of Computational Anatomy (MFCA) workshop is to foster the interactions between the mathematical community around shapes and the MICCAI community around computational anatomy applications. It targets more particularly researchers investigating the combination of statistical and geometrical aspects in the modeling of the variability of biological shapes. The workshop aims at being a forum for the exchange of the theoretical ideas and a source of inspiration for new methodological developments in computational anatomy. A special emphasis is put on theoretical developments, applications and results being welcomed as illustrations. Following the very successful first edition of this workshop in 2006 (see http://www.inria.fr/sophia/asclepios/events/MFCA06/), the second edition was held in New-York on September 6, in conjunction with MICCAI 2008.

Contributions were solicited in Riemannian and group theoretical methods, Geometric measurements of the anatomy, Advanced statistics on deformations and shapes, Metrics for computational anatomy, Statistics of surfaces. 34 submissions were received, among which 9 were accepted to MICCAI and had to be withdrawn from the workshop. Each of the remaining 25 paper was reviewed by three members of the program committee. To guaranty a high level program, 16 papers only were selected.

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Xavier Pennec
General Chair
MFCA’08
Tiling Manifolds with Orthonormal Basis

Moo K. Chung\textsuperscript{1,2}, Anqi Qiu\textsuperscript{4}, Brendon, M. Nacewicz\textsuperscript{2}, Seth Pollak\textsuperscript{3}, Richard J. Davidson\textsuperscript{23}

\textsuperscript{1}Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, \textsuperscript{2}Waisman Laboratory for Brain Imaging and Behavior, \textsuperscript{3} Department of Psychology and Psychiatry University of Wisconsin, Madison, USA \textsuperscript{4}Division of Bioengineering, Faculty of Engineering National University of Singapore, Singapore

\texttt{mkchung@wisc.edu}

Abstract. One main obstacle in building a sophisticated parametric model along an arbitrary anatomical manifold is the lack of an easily available orthonormal basis. Although there are at least two numerical techniques available for constructing an orthonormal basis such as the Laplacian eigenfunction approach and the Gram-Smidt orthogonalization, they are computationally not so trivial and costly. We present a relatively simpler method for constructing an orthonormal basis for an arbitrary anatomical manifold. On a unit sphere, a natural orthonormal basis is the spherical harmonics which can be easily computed. Assuming the manifold is topologically equivalent to the sphere, we can establish a smooth mapping $\zeta$ from the manifold to the sphere. Such mapping can be obtained from various surface flattening techniques. If we project the spherical harmonics to the manifold, they are no longer orthonormal. However, we claim that there exists an orthonormal basis that is the function of spherical harmonics and the spherical mapping $\zeta$.

The detailed step by step procedures for the construction is given along with the numerical validation using amygdala surfaces as an illustration. As an application, we propose the pullback representation that reconstructs surfaces using the orthonormal basis obtained from an average template. The pullback representation introduces less inter-subject variability and thus requires far less number of coefficients than the traditional spherical harmonic representation. The source code used in the study is freely available at \texttt{http://www.stat.wisc.edu/~mchung/research/amygdala}.

1 Introduction

We present a novel orthonormal basis construction method for an arbitrary anatomical surface that is topologically equivalent to a sphere. The method avoids the well known Gram-Smidt orthogonalization procedure [7], which is inefficient for high resolution polygonal meshes. In order to perform the Gram-Smidt orthogonalization as described in [7], for a surface mesh with $n$ vertices,
we need to perform the Choleski decomposition as well as the inversion of matrix of size $n \times n$. For a cortical mesh generated with FreeSurfer [6], $n$ can easily reach up to 200000.

On the other hand, Qiu et al. [15] constructed an orthonormal basis as the eigenfunctions of the Laplace-Beltrami operator in a bounded regions of interest (ROI) on a cortical surface (Figure 3). The finite element method (FEM) is used to numerically construct the orthonormal basis by solving a system of large linear equations. The weakness of the FEM approach is the computational burden of inverting a matrix of size $n \times n$. One advantage of the eigenfunction approach is that since the eigenfunctions and eigenvalues are directly related to the Laplace-Beltrami operator, it is trivial and geometrically intuitive to construct the heat kernel analytically and perform a various heat kernel smoothing based modeling [4].

We propose a completely different method that avoids the computational bottleneck by using a conceptually different machinery. We assume an arbitrary anatomical surface to be topologically equivalent to a sphere. Then using a smooth mapping $\zeta$ obtained from a surface flattening technique, we project the spherical harmonics to the anatomical surface. Obviously the projected spherical harmonics will no longer be orthonormal. However, if we correct the metric distortion introduced from the surface flattening, we may be able to make the projected spherical harmonics orthonormal somehow. This is the basic idea behind our new proposed method. For the surface flattening, we present a new method that treats the mapping $\zeta$ as the geodesic path of the heat equilibrium state.

As an application of the proposed technique, we present the novel pullback representation for parameterizing anatomical boundaries that outperforms the traditional spherical harmonic (SPHARM) representation [2] [3] [8] [16] [17]. We claim that our proposed representation has far less intersubject variability in the estimated parameters than SPHARM and converges faster to the true boundary with less number of basis.

2 Methods

It is assumed that the anatomical boundary $\mathcal{M}$ is a smooth 2-dimensional Riemannian manifold parameterized by two parameters. The one-to-one mapping $\zeta$ from point $p = (p_1, p_2, p_3)' \in \mathcal{M}$ to $u = (u_1, u_2, u_3)' \in S^2$, a unit sphere, can be obtained from various surface flattening techniques such as conformal mapping [1] [8] [9], quasi-isometric mapping [18], area preserving mapping [2] [16] [17] and the deformable surface algorithm [13]. Since the conformal mapping tend to introduce huge area distortion, most spherical harmonic literature tend to use area preserving mapping [2] [16] [17].

In this paper, we present a new flattening technique via the geodesic trajectory of the equilibrium state of heat diffusion. The proposed flattening technique is numerically simpler than any other available methods and does not require optimizing a cost function. The methodology is illustrated using the 47 amygd-
Fig. 1. The diffusion equation with a heat source (amygdala) and a heat sink (enclosing sphere) corresponds. After sufficient amount of diffusion, the heat equilibrium state is reached. By tracing the geodesic path from the heat source to the heat sink using the geodesic contours, we obtain a smooth mapping \( \zeta \).

Fig. 2. Amygala surface flattening is done by tracing the geodesic path of the heat equilibrium state. The numbers corresponds to the different the geodesic contours. For simple shapes like amygdala, 5 to 10 contours are sufficient for tracing the geodesic path.

dala binary segmentation obtained from the 3-Tesla magnetic resonance images (MRI).

High resolution anatomical MRI were obtained using a 3-Tesla GE SIGNA scanner with a quadrature head coil. Details on image acquisition parameters are given in [14]. MRIs are reoriented to the pathological plane for optimal segmentation and comparison with an atlas. This global alignment guarantee that amygdala are approximately aligned in the same orientation.

Manual amygdala segmentation was done by a trained expert and the reliability of the manual segmentation was validated by two raters on 10 amygdale resulting in interclass correlation of 0.95 and the intersection over the union of 0.84 [14]. Afterwards a marching cubes algorithm was used to extract the boundary of the binary segmentation as a triangle mesh with approximately 2000-3000 vertices. The amygdala surface is then mapped onto a sphere using the new flattening algorithm.
2.1 Diffusion-Based Surface Flattening

Given an amygdala binary segmentation $M_a$, we put a larger sphere $M_s$ that encloses the amygdala (Figure 1 left). The amygdala and sphere serve as Dirichlet boundary conditions for solving the Laplace equation. The amygdala is assigned the value 1 while the enclosing sphere is assigned the value -1, i.e.

$$f(M_a, \sigma) = 1, f(M_s, \sigma) = -1$$

for all $\sigma$. The amygdala and the sphere serve as a heat source and a heat sink respectively. Then we solve an isotropic diffusion

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \Delta f$$

within the empty space bounded by the amygdala and the sphere. $\Delta$ is the 3D Laplacian. After enough diffusion, the system reaches the heat equilibrium state where the additional diffusion does not make any difference in the heat distribution (Figure 1 middle). Once we obtained the equilibrium state, we trace the geodesic path from the heat source to the heat sink for every mesh vertices. The trajectory of the geodesic path provides a smooth mapping from the amygdala surface to the sphere. The geodesic path can be easily traced by constructing geodesic contours that correspond to the level set of the equilibrium state (Figure 1 right). Then the geodesic path is constructed by finding the shortest distance from one contour to the next and iteratively connecting the path together. Figure 2 shows the process of flattening using five contours corresponding to the temperature 0.6, 0.2, -0.2, -0.6, -1.0.

Although we did not apply our flattening technique to other anatomical objects, the proposed method can be applied to more complex object than the amygdala. At the equilibrium state, we no longer has change in heat change over time, i.e. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = 0$, so we have the Laplace equation

$$\Delta f = 0$$

with the same boundary condition. The Laplace equation has been previously used to trace the distance between outer and inner cortical surfaces and to compute cortical thickness [10] [12] [19]. Since the solution to the Laplace equation with the boundary condition (1) is unique even for highly convoluted and folded structures, the geodesic path will be uniquely defined.

2.2 Orthonormal basis in two sphere $S^2$

Suppose a unit sphere $S^2$ is represented as a high resolution triangle mesh consisting of the vertex set $V(S^2)$. We have used an almost uniformly sampled mesh with 2562 vertices and 5120 faces. Let us parameterize coordinates $u \in S^2$ with parameters $\theta, \varphi$:

$$(u_1, u_2, u_3) = (\sin \theta \cos \varphi, \sin \theta \sin \varphi, \cos \theta),$$
where \((\theta, \phi) \in \mathcal{N} = [0, \pi] \otimes [0, 2\pi]\). The polar angle \(\theta\) is the angle from the north pole and \(\phi\) is the azimuthal angle. The orthonormal basis on the unit sphere is given by the eigenfunctions of

\[
\Delta f + \lambda f = 0,
\]

where \(\Delta\) is the spherical Laplacian. The eigenfunction \(Y_{lm}\) corresponding to the eigenvalue \(l(l+1)\) is called the spherical harmonic of degree \(l\) and order \(m\) [5].

With respect to the inner product

\[
\langle f, g \rangle_{S^2} = \int_{S^2} f(\mathbf{u}) g(\mathbf{u}) \, d\mu(\mathbf{u}),
\]

with measure \(d\mu(\mathbf{u}) = \sin \theta d\theta d\phi\), \(Y_{lm}\) form the orthonormal basis in \(L^2(S^2)\), the space of square integrable functions on \(S^2\), i.e.

\[
\langle Y_{lm}, Y_{l'm'} \rangle_{S^2} = \delta_{ll'}\delta_{mm'}.
\]

The inner product can be numerically computed as the Riemann sum over mesh vertices as

\[
\langle Y_{lm}, Y_{l'm'} \rangle_{S^2} \approx \sum_{\mathbf{u}_j \in V(S^2)} Y_{lm}(\mathbf{u}_j) Y_{l'm'}(\mathbf{u}_j) D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j),
\]

where \(D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j)\) is the discrete approximation of \(d\mu(\mathbf{u})\). Let \(T_{u_j}^1, T_{u_j}^2, \ldots, T_{u_j}^{l_{m'}}\) be the area of triangles containing the vertex \(\mathbf{u}_j\). Then we estimate \(D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j)\) as

\[
D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j) = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{l_{m'}} T_{u_j}^k.
\]

The discrete approximation (6) defines the area of triangles at a mesh vertex. The factor \(1/3\) is chosen in such a way that

\[
\sum_{\mathbf{u}_j \in V(S^2)} D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j) = 12.5514 = 4 \cdot 3.1378,
\]

analogous to the relationship

\[
\int_{S^2} d\mu(\mathbf{p}) = 4\pi.
\]

The discrepancy between the integral and its discrete counter part is due to the mesh resolution and it should become smaller as the mesh resolution increases.

Based on the proposed discretization scheme, we have computed the inner product (5) for all degrees \(0 \leq l, l' \leq 20\). Figure 3 (left) shows the inner products for every possible pairs. Since for up to the \(k\)-th degree, there are total \((k + 1)^2\) basis functions, we have total \(441^2\) possible inner product pairs, which is displayed as a matrix. For the diagonal terms, we obtained \(0.9988 \pm 0.0017\) while for the off-diagonal terms, we have obtained \(0.0000 \pm 0.0005\) indicating our basis and the discretization scheme is orthonormal with two decimal accuracy.
2.3 Orthonormal basis on manifold $\mathcal{M}$

For $f, g \in L^2(\mathcal{M})$, the orthonormality is defined with respect to the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{M}} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} f(p)g(p) \, d\mu(p).$$

Using the spherical harmonics in $S^2$, it is possible to construct an orthonormal basis in $\mathcal{M}$ numerically without the computational burden of solving the large matrix inversion associated with the eigenfunction method or the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization. Since the spherical harmonics are orthonormal in $S^2$ and the manifolds $S^2$ and $\mathcal{M}$ can be deformed to each other by the mapping $\zeta$, one would guess that the orthonormal basis in $\mathcal{M}$ can be obtained somehow using the spherical harmonics. Surprisingly, this guess is not wrong as we will show in this section.

For $f \in L^2(S^2)$, let us define the pullback operation $^*$ as

$$\zeta^* f = f \circ \zeta.$$

While $f$ is defined on $S^2$, the pullbacked function $\zeta^* f$ is defined on $\mathcal{M}$. The schematic of the pull back operation is given in Figure 6 (a). Then even though we do not have orthonormality on the pullbacked spherical harmonics, i.e.,

$$\langle \zeta^* Y_{lm}, \zeta^* Y_{l'm'} \rangle_{\mathcal{M}} \neq \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'},$$

we can make them orthonormal by using the Jacobian determinant of the mapping $\zeta$ somehow.

Consider the Jacobian $J_\zeta$ of the mapping $\zeta : p \in \mathcal{M} \rightarrow u \in S^2$ defined as

$$J_\zeta = \frac{\partial u(\theta, \phi)}{\partial p(\theta, \phi)}.$$

For functions $f, g \in L^2(S^2)$, we have the following change of variable relationship:

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{S^2} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} \zeta^* f(p) \zeta^* g(p) |J_\zeta| \, d\mu(p). \quad (7)$$

Similarly, we have the inverse relationship given as

$$\langle \zeta^* f, \zeta^* g \rangle_{\mathcal{M}} = \int_{S^2} f(u)g(u) |J_{\zeta^{-1}}| \, d\mu(u). \quad (8)$$

By letting $f = Y_{lm}$ and $g = Y_{l'm'}$ in (7), we obtain

$$\delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} \zeta^* Y_{lm} \zeta^* Y_{l'm'} |J_\zeta| \, d\mu(p) \quad (9)$$

Equation (9) demonstrates that functions

$$Z_{lm} = |\det J_\zeta|^{1/2} \zeta^* Y_{lm} \quad (10)$$

are orthonormal in $\mathcal{M}$. We will refer $l$ as degree and $m$ as order of the basis function. Using the Riesz-Fischer theorem [11], it is not hard to show that $Z_{lm}$ form a complete basis in $L^2(\mathcal{M})$. 

Fig. 3. Left: inner products of eigenfunctions of the Laplacian for every pairs [15]. The pairs are rearranged from low to high degree. Right: representative eigenfunctions $\Psi_j$ on the left amygdala template surface obtained by solving $\Delta \Psi_j + \lambda_j \Psi_j = 0$.

### 2.4 Numerical Implementation

Although the expression (10) provides a nice analytical form for an orthonormal basis for an arbitrary manifold $\mathcal{M}$, it is not practical. If one want to use the basis (10), the Jacobian determinant needs to be numerically estimated somehow. We present a new discrete estimation technique for the surface Jacobian determinant that avoids estimating unstable spatial derivative estimation.

The Jacobian determinant $J_\zeta$ of the mapping $\zeta$ can be expressed in terms of the Riemannian metric tensors associated with the manifolds $S^2$ and $\mathcal{M}$. Consider determinants $\det g_{S^2}$ and $\det g_{\mathcal{M}}$ of the Riemannian metric tensors associated with the parameterizations $u(\theta, \varphi)$ and $p(\theta, \varphi)$ respectively. Note that the integral of the area elements $\sqrt{\det g_{S^2}}$ and $\sqrt{\det g_{\mathcal{M}}}$ with respect to the parameter space $\mathcal{N}$ gives the total area of the manifolds, i.e.

$$
\int_{\mathcal{N}} \sqrt{\det g_{S^2}} \, d\mu(\theta, \varphi) = 4\pi, \quad \int_{\mathcal{N}} \sqrt{\det g_{\mathcal{M}}} \, d\mu(\theta, \varphi) = \mu(\mathcal{M}).
$$

Then we have the relationship

$$
|\det J_{\zeta^{-1}}| = \frac{\sqrt{\det g_{\mathcal{M}}}}{\sqrt{\det g_{S^2}}}, \quad |\det J_{\zeta}| = \frac{\sqrt{\det g_{S^2}}}{\sqrt{\det g_{\mathcal{M}}}}.
$$

Note that the Jacobian determinant $\det J_{\zeta}$ measures the amount of contraction or expansion in the mapping $\zeta$ from $\mathcal{M}$ to $S^2$. So it is intuitive to have this quantity to be expressed as the ratio of the area elements. Consequently the discrete estimation of the Jacobian determinant at mesh vertex $\mathbf{u}_j = \zeta(\mathbf{p}_j)$ is obtained as

$$
|\det J_{\zeta}| \approx \frac{D_{S^2}(\mathbf{u}_j)}{D_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{p}_j)}.
$$
Then our orthonormal basis is given by

\[ Z_{lm}(p) = \sqrt{D_M(p)} \zeta^* Y_{lm}(p). \] (11)

The numerical accuracy can be determined by computing the inner product

\[ \langle Z_{lm}, Z_{lm'} \rangle_M \approx \sum_{p_j \in V(M)} Z_{lm}(p_j)Z_{lm}(p_j)D_M(p_j). \]

\[ = \sum_{p_j \in V(M)} \zeta^* Y_{lm}(p_j)\zeta^* Y_{lm'}(p_j)D_M^2(\zeta(p_j)) \]

\[ = \sum_{u_j \in V(S^2)} Y_{lm}(u_j)Y_{lm'}(u_j)D_{S^2}(u_j) \]

\[ = \langle Y_{lm}, Y_{lm'} \rangle_{S^2} \]

Since this is tautology, the order of the numerical accuracy in \( Z_{lm} \) is identical to that of spherical harmonics given in the previous section. There is no need for additional validation other than given in the previous section. Hence we conclude that our basis is in fact orthonormal within two decimal accuracy. Figure 4 shows the result of our numerical procedure applied to the average amygdala surface template. The template surface is constructed by averaging the surface using the spherical harmonic correspondence given in [3].

We have also constructed an orthonormal basis on a cortical surface with more than 40000 mesh vertices (Figure 5). The diagonal elements in the inner product matrix are 0.9999 ± 0.0001 indicating that our basis is orthonormal within three decimal accuracy. As the mesh resolution increases, we expect to have increased accuracy. The proposed orthonormal basis construction methods...
Fig. 5. Orthonormal basis $Z_{lm}$ on a cortical surface. The basis is projected on a sphere to show how the nonuniformity of the Jacobian determinant is effecting the spherical harmonics $Y_{lm}$. The color scale is thresholded at $\pm 0.003$ for better visualization.

avoids inverting matrix of size larger than $40000 \times 40000$ associated with the eigenfunction approach and the Gram-Smidt orthogonalization process.

Although the pattern of tiling in the eigenfunction approach (Figure 3) and the pullback based method (Figure 4) looks different, it can be shown that they are actually linearly dependent.

3 Application: Pullback Representation

As an application of the proposed orthonormal basis construction, we present a new variance reducing Fourier Series representation that outperforms the traditional spherical harmonic representation [2] [3] [8] [16] [17]. We will call this method as the pullback representation.

The spherical harmonic (SPHARM) representation models the surface coordinates with respect to a unit sphere as

$$
p(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{l=0}^{k} \sum_{m=-l}^{l} p_{lm} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)
$$

(12)

where $p_{lm} = \langle p, Y_{lm} \rangle_{S^2}$ are spherical harmonic coefficients, which can be viewed as random variables. The coefficients are estimated using the iterative residual fitting algorithm [3] that breaks a larger least squares problem into smaller ones in an iterative fashion. The MATLAB code for performing the iterative residual fitting algorithm for arbitrary surface mesh is given in http://www.stat.wisc.edu/~mchung/softwares/weighted-SPHARM/weighted-SPHARM.html. Note that all MRIs were reoriented to the pathological plane guaranteeing an approximate global alignment before the surface flattening to increase the robustness of the coefficient estimation.
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Fig. 6. Left: schematic showing how the pullback operation $\ast$ is working. Point $p \in M$ is mapped to $u \in S^2$ via our new flattening technique. As an illustration $f = Y_{3,2} + 0.6Y_{2,1}$ is plotted on $S^2$. The function $f$ is pulled back onto $M$ by $\zeta$. Right: sample standard deviation of Fourier coefficients of for 47 subjects plotted over the index of basis. In average, the traditional SPHARM representation (black) has 88% more variability than the pull back method (red).

The shortcoming of the spherical harmonic representation is that the reconstruction is respect to a unit sphere that is not geometrically related to the original anatomical surface. On the other hand, the pullback representation will reconstruct the surface with respect to the average template surface reducing substantial amount of variability compared to SPHARM.

In the pullback representation, we represent the surface coordinates with respect to the template surface $M$ as

$$p(\theta, \varphi) = \sum_{l=0}^{k} \sum_{m=-l}^{l} p_{lm} Z_{lm}(\theta, \varphi)$$

with $p_{lm} = (p, Z_{lm})_M$. Then we claim that the pullback representation has smaller variance in the estimated coefficients so that

$$\text{Var}(p_{lm}) \leq \text{Var}(p_{0m}).$$

The equality in (14) is obtained when the template $M$ becomes the unit sphere, in which case the spherical mapping $\zeta$ collapses to the identity, and the inner products coincide. We have computed the sample standard deviation of Fourier coefficients for 47 subjects using the both representations. In average, the SPHARM contains 88% more intersubject variability compared to the pullback representation (Figure 6 right). This implies that SPHARM is an inefficient representation and requires more number of basis to represent surfaces compared to the pullback method.

Although the pullback method is more efficient, the both representations (12) and (13) converge to each other as $k$ goes to infinity. We have computed the
Fig. 7. Comparison of SPHARM and the pullback representations for degree 5 to 25. Red colored numbers are the average Euclidean distance between two representations in mm.

squared Euclidean distance between two representations numerically (Figure 7). In average, the difference is 0.0569 mm for 20 degree representation negligible for 1mm resolution MR. Figure 7 also visually demonstrate that the pullback representation converges to the true manifold faster than SPHARM again showing the inefficiency of the SPHARM representation.

4 Conclusion

We have introduced a computationally efficient way to construct an approximate orthonormal basis on an arbitrary manifold by pulling back the spherical harmonics to the manifold and accounting for the metric distortion using the Jacobian determinant. The proposed technique is very general so that it can be applicable to other types of anatomical manifolds. The constructed basis on an amygdala is used to show the new pullback representation that reconstruct the manifold as linear combination of the basis functions.

References