

**Usefulness of 2D fusion of postmortem CT and antemortem chest radiography studies for human identification**

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical Statement

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

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4 Abstract

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6 *Purpose* To determine the feasibility of human identification by the two-dimensional  
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8 (2D) fusion of postmortem computed tomography (PMCT)- and antemortem **chest**  
9 **radiography**.

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11 *Materials and Methods* The study population consisted of 15 subjects who had  
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13 undergone **chest radiography** studies more than 12 months before death. These and  
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15 PMCT images were fused using a workstation, and the minimum-distance gap between  
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17 anatomical landmarks on images obtained with the two modalities was calculated. In  
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19 each case the mean-distance gap (MDG) was recorded as the mean of all minimum-  
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21 distance gaps. The anatomical landmarks were placed at soft tissue- and in bone sites.  
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23 The MDG was compared in the same- and different subjects.

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25 *Results* The MDG of the evaluation sites was significantly smaller when the fused  
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27 images were from the same- rather than a different subject ( $p < 0.01$ ). For the bone  
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29 landmarks, the same subject was identified as the first candidate in 33.3%, the 1st or 2nd  
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31 candidate in 73.3% and the 1st to 3rd candidate in 86.7% of the comparisons. Bone- were  
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33 superior to soft-tissue landmarks for the establishment of the candidate order ( $p < 0.05$ ).

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35 *Conclusion* The 2D fusion of antemortem **chest radiography**- and postmortem CT  
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37 images may assist in human identification.

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43 Keywords: Identification; 2D fusion; antemortem **chest radiography**; postmortem CT  
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4 Introduction

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6 Postmortem computed tomography (PMCT) is useful to detect the cause of death  
7 such as lethal hemorrhagic lesions, bone lesions, gas, liquid, foreign bodies, and so on.  
8 PMCT scans are performed to screen for the cause of death as an alternative to autopsy,  
9 or adjunct to autopsy, and to determine whether autopsy is required [1].  
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13 Human identification has been performed mainly based on DNA profiling,  
14 fingerprinting, dental X-ray and facial features. Recently radiologic features such as  
15 medical devices [2], aortic plaques [3], paranasal sinus morphology [3,4], cranial suture  
16 patterns [5], dental images [6], clavicles [7], thoracic vertebrae [8], bone trabecular  
17 patterns [9] are used for human identification.  
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22 **Chest radiography** studies are widely used to diagnose chest diseases and for  
23 medical checkups and cancer screening in certain countries including Japan. Therefore,  
24 **chest radiography** can be a common antemortem medical imaging.  
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28 Under the hypothesis that the comparison of antemortem **chest radiography**- and  
29 PMCT images is useful for the human identification, we fused these images to identify  
30 the subject from whom the two sets of images were obtained. The purpose of our study  
31 was to verify the hypothesis that the comparison of antemortem **chest radiography**- and  
32 PMCT images is useful for the human identification.  
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41 Materials and methods

42 Subjects

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44 This retrospective study was approved by our institutional review board; the  
45 requirement for informed consent was waived. Among 82 subjects who underwent  
46 PMCT studies at our institute between April 2010 and February 2014, we enrolled 15 (11  
47 men, 4 women; aged 20 to 90 years, mean  $65 \pm 19$  years) who had undergone **chest**  
48 **radiography** examinations more than 12 months prior to their death (Table. 1). The time  
49 period between the antemortem **chest radiography** and the PMCT was 372 to 4949 days,  
50 mean  $1397 \pm 1180$  days. The time period between death and the PMCT was 29 to 359  
51 minutes, mean  $114 \pm 94$  minutes. Cases with chest trauma were not included in this  
52 study.  
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6 **Chest radiography** and CT acquisition

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8 In 13 subjects a digital X-ray system (RADREX-i, Toshiba Medical Systems) was  
9 used. The conditions were upright position, postero-anterior projection, 120 kV, 200 mA,  
10 and source-to-image receptor distance (SID) 2 m. In 2 subjects the antemortem **chest**  
11 **radiography** studies were performed on a portable computed radiography (CR) system  
12 (Mobile Art Lumina, Shimadzu Medical Systems Corp., Osaka, Japan). The conditions  
13 were supine and antero-posterior projection, 120 kV, 250 mA, and 1 m SID.  
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17 For PMCT of 14 subjects we used a 64-detector row scanner (SOMATOM  
18 Definition AS+, Siemens Medical, Erlangen, Germany), 120 kVp. and automatic  
19 exposure control (AEC). PMCT of one subject was on a 4-detector row scanner (Aquilion  
20 TSX-101A/4A, Toshiba Medical Systems, Ohtawara, Japan) at 120 kVp and 300 mA.  
21 The PMCT image data consisted of 5-mm axial sections through the thoracic region.  
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30 2D Fusion of antemortem- and postmortem studies

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32 Image analysis was performed using a 2D fusion module on a workstation  
33 (Vincent Ver.4, Fuji Film Medical Systems, Tokyo, Japan). PMCT data were  
34 reconstructed into **chest radiography**-like RaySum images using the same workstation.  
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37 Two radiologists independently placed anatomical landmarks on the reconstructed  
38 RaySum images and the antemortem **chest radiography**. The observers were cognizant of  
39 the subjects' gender, age, and cause of death.  
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43 The 2D fusion module automatically placed a minimum distance between  
44 corresponding anatomical landmarks on the fused images. For each anatomical landmark  
45 a minimum-distance gap (mm) was automatically calculated and then the mean-distance  
46 gap, defined as the mean of all minimum distance gaps, was calculated. In mean-distance  
47 gaps measured by the 2 observers, the smaller value was used for final measurement of  
48 them.  
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54 The algorithm used for fusion was landmark-based registration [10]. Landmark-  
55 based registration and methods derived therefrom are widely used in for clinical positron-  
56 emission tomography (PET)-, CT-, and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) studies [11].  
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59 **Although 3D- and 3D images are often fused, we used 2D antemortem chest radiography-**  
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4 and 3D postmortem CT images. Therefore, we needed to manually adjust the orientation  
5 of the reconstructed images.  
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10 Assessment based on soft tissues (Experiment 1)

11 For each comparison the observers chose 5 soft tissue sites, i.e. the bilateral  
12 pulmonary apices, the carina, and the bilateral most distal edges of the thoracic cavity at  
13 the level of the carina. These sites were easily recognized on RaySum- reconstructed  
14 from PMCT- and antemortem chest radiography images. In the anatomical landmarks,  
15 the bilateral pulmonary apices and the carina were used for 3-point method, the bilateral  
16 pulmonary apices and the bilateral most distal edges of the thoracic cavity at the level of  
17 the carina for 4-point method, and all 5 of these landmarks for 5-point method (Fig. 1).  
18 On fused images displayed on the workstation, the mean-distance gap (mm) was  
19 automatically calculated. Approximately 60 sec were required to create the fusion  
20 images. For each comparison study we used 15 fused images of the same subject and 210  
21 (15×14) fused images of different subjects. A total of 675 fused images were created  
22 [(210 + 15) x 3] for assessments based on soft tissues.  
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35 Assessment based on bones (Experiment 2)

36 For these investigations the observers identified the dorsal parts of the 3rd and 4th  
37 ribs at the midline of the bilateral bony thorax (Fig. 1). On RaySum- reconstructed from  
38 PMCT- and antemortem chest radiography, these sites were chosen because they were  
39 more easily detected than the spine and sternum and because on chest radiography  
40 studies, breathing had less effect on the upper part of the thorax. The mean-distance gap  
41 (mm) was automatically calculated on the workstation. The observers evaluated a total of  
42 225 fused images; 15 from the same subject and 210 (15x14) from of different subjects.  
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51 Image analysis

52 We hypothesized that the mean-distance gap on fusion images was shorter for the  
53 same- than different subjects. We used the smallest mean-distance gap to identify the first  
54 candidate for being the same subject, the second smallest mean-distance gap for  
55 identifying the second candidate, etc. Thus, we determined the candidate order based on  
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4 the size of the mean-distance gap.  
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## 7 8 Statistical analysis 9

10 For each assessment, interobserver agreement was assessed with the intraclass  
11 correlation coefficient (ICC), in which  $ICC < 0.40 =$  poor,  $0.40-0.59 =$  fair,  $0.60-0.74 =$   
12 good, and  $ICC > 0.74 =$  excellent.<sup>12)</sup> Group analysis between the same and different  
13 subjects was performed with the Mann-Whitney *U*-test. The statistical significance of the  
14 mean difference in the order of candidates for being the same subject was assessed with  
15 the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. All statistical analyses were with commercial software  
16 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 23, SPSS, Chicago, Illinois;  
17 MedCalc for Windows, MedCalc Software, Mariakerke, Belgium). Differences of  $p <$   
18  $0.05$  were considered statistically significant.  
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## 29 30 Results

### 31 32 Assessment based on soft tissue (Experiment 1)

33 The ICC with a 95% confidence interval for interobserver agreement on 3-, 4-,  
34 and 5-point methods was excellent; it was 0.991 with 0.9879–0.9928 for 3-point method,  
35 0.999 with 0.9989–0.9994 for 4-point method and 0.998 with 0.9973–0.9984 for 5-point  
36 method.  
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40 When we used 3 soft-tissue sites, the mean-distance gap  $\pm$  standard deviation  
41 (SD) was  $4.13 \pm 2.99$  mm for the same- and  $5.61 \pm 3.08$  mm for different subjects. The  
42 difference was not statistically significant. With 4 sites, the mean-distance gap was  $4.01 \pm$   
43  $2.24$  mm for the same- and  $6.47 \pm 2.96$  mm for different subjects ( $p < 0.01$ ) and with 5  
44 sites it was  $4.70 \pm 2.57$  mm and  $6.77 \pm 2.73$  mm, respectively ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 2).  
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50 With 3 sites, the same subject was identified as the 1st candidate in 20.0%-, and  
51 as the 1st or 2nd-, the 1st to 3rd-, and as the 1st to 4th candidate in 40.0% of the  
52 comparisons (Fig. 3a). With 4 sites the same subject was identified as the 1st candidate in  
53 13.3%-, as the 1st or 2nd candidate in 53.3%, as the 1st to 3rd candidate in 60.0%, and as  
54 the 1st to 4th candidate in 66.7% of the comparisons (Fig. 3b). Using 5 sites, the same  
55 subject was identified as the 1st candidate in 33.3%-, as the 1st or 2nd candidate in  
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4 46.7%-, as the 1st to 3rd candidate in 66.7%-, and as the 1st to 4th candidate in 66.7% of  
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6 the comparisons (Fig. 3c).  
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10 Assessment based on bones (Experiment 2)

11 The ICC with a 95% confidence interval for interobserver agreement was  
12 excellent; it was 0.993 with 0.9910–0.9946. The mean-distance gap was  $0.82 \pm 0.30$  mm  
13 for the same subject and  $1.83 \pm 0.81$  mm for different subjects ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 4). The  
14 same subject was identified as the 1st candidate in 33.3%-, as the 1st or 2nd candidate in  
15 73.3%-, as the 1st to 3rd candidate in 86.7%-, and as the 1st to 4th candidate in 100% of  
16 the comparisons (Fig. 3d). With respect to the candidate order, assessment based on  
17 bones was significantly superior to soft-tissue comparisons irrespective of the number of  
18 soft-tissue sites evaluated ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 5).  
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30 Discussion

31 Our findings indicate that 2D fusion of antemortem **chest radiography** and  
32 postmortem CT images renders subject identification possible. We found that when  
33 comparisons were based on 4 or 5 soft-tissue sites, and when anatomical landmarks were  
34 used for bone-based comparisons, there were significant differences in the mean-distance  
35 gap between the same and different subjects. The bone-based was better than the soft-  
36 tissue-based method for establishing the candidate order, probably because bone tends to  
37 be less affected by the cause of death, the postmortem time lapse, and postmortem  
38 decomposition changes.  
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46 **Some radiographic features are useful for human identification.** Pfaeffli et al. [13]  
47 compared antemortem radiographs and PMCT images of the frontal sinus and pelvis.  
48 Their identification relies on visual morphological matching and is qualitative. We, on  
49 the other hand, compared antemortem radiographs with PMCT scans. This facilitated  
50 quantitative assessments using readily-available antemortem data. To our knowledge, we  
51 are first to report this identification method. **Compared with the previous method using**  
52 **antemortem radiographs and PMCT images of the frontal sinus and pelvis, our method**  
53 **using antemortem chest radiographs may be easier for obtaining antemortem X-ray data.**  
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4 Although our technique may be less accurate than DNA, fingerprint and dental X-  
5 ray data, it may be useful for the following situations. In some subjects, it might be  
6 difficult to obtain antemortem DNA. Postmortem fingerprint may not be taken due to  
7 skin injury such as burn. When a subject had severe head and neck injury, antemortem  
8 dental X-ray may not be helpful for human identification. In such situations, our  
9 technique may be useful for narrowing down identification of an individual from among  
10 several candidates. This is particularly important when the casualty number is high. The  
11 consensual selection of anatomical landmarks on 2D fusion images by our two  
12 radiologists required 1 to 2 minutes. The development of a computer system and special  
13 software for the automatic selection and comparison of anatomical landmarks is  
14 desirable.  
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24 Our study has some limitations. First, we only used specific bones as anatomical  
25 landmarks. Although the sternum, spinal column, and other bones are present in the chest  
26 region, it can be difficult to clearly identify the sternum and spinal column on  
27 radiographs even after adjusting the window level and width. Second, the CT slice  
28 thickness was relatively thick (5 mm). The use of thin-slice original images would render  
29 the placement of anatomical landmarks more accurate. Third, for antemortem chest  
30 radiographic- and PMCT studies, the body position and respiratory status were different.  
31 Fourth, cases with chest trauma were not included in this study. In cases of incident or  
32 mass disaster with several victims, thoracic trauma can be present. In such situations, this  
33 current technique may not be useful for human identification. Fifth, our data were  
34 obtained from a single-center study in a small number of patients. Additional studies with  
35 large populations are needed.  
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#### 48 Conclusion

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50 The 2D fusion of antemortem chest radiography- and postmortem CT images may  
51 assist in human identification; bones are better landmarks than soft tissues.  
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4 Figure Legends

5  
6 Figure 1

7 Placement of anatomical landmarks on antemortem chest radiography- (left upper, white  
8 squares) and RaySum images (left lower, white circles) reconstructed from postmortem  
9 CT (PMCT) scans.  
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- 15 a-c Soft-tissue assessment with (a) 3 sites, (b) 4 sites, (c) 5 sites. The anatomical  
16 landmarks were placed on the bilateral pulmonary apices, the carina, and/or the  
17 bilateral most distal edges of the thoracic cavity at the level of the carina.  
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20 d Bone assessment. The anatomical landmarks were the dorsal part of the 3rd and  
21 4th ribs at the midline of the bilateral bony thorax.  
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24 The 2D fusion module automatically set a minimum distance between corresponding  
25 anatomical landmarks on the fused images (right, white squares and circles). In each  
26 session, the mean-distance gap, defined as the mean of all minimum-distance gaps was  
27 calculated.  
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35 Figure 2

36 Soft-tissue assessment (experiment 1). Comparison of the mean-distance gaps (mm)  
37 between the same and different subjects using 3 (left), 4 (center), and 5 sites (right).  
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39 When 4 or 5 sites were used, the difference in the mean-distance gaps between the same-  
40 and different subjects was statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ).  
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48 Figure 3

49 The candidate order based on the size of the mean-distance gap.

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51 a-c Soft-tissue assessments (experiment 1) with (a) 3 sites, (b) 4 sites, (c) 5 sites  
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53 d Bone assessments (experiment 2)

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55 Black circle and white diamond identify the same- and other subjects, respectively. We  
56 considered the images with the smallest mean-distance gap to be the 1st candidate for the  
57 identification of the same subject.  
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4 With 3 sites (a), 3 of 15 subjects (20%, cases 2,4,8) were the 1st candidates for identity, 6  
5 (40%, cases 2,3,4,7,8,15) were 2nd-, 3rd-, and 4th candidates. Using 4 sites (b), 2  
6 subjects (13.3%, cases 2 and 8) were the 1st candidates, 8 (53.3%, cases  
7 1,2,4,7,8,9,13,15) were 2nd-, 9 (60%, cases 1,2,4,5,7,8,9,13,15) were 3rd-, and 10  
8 (66.7%, cases 1,2,4,5,7,8,9,11,13,15) were the 4th candidates. When we used 5 sites (c)  
9 we found that 5 subjects (33.3%, cases 2,4,8,9,15) were 1st-, 7 (46.7%, cases  
10 2,4,8,9,12,13,15) were 2nd-, and 10 (67%, cases 1,2,4,5,7,8,9,12,13,15) were 3rd or 4th  
11 candidates for identity.  
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19 In bone assessment studies (d), 5 of 15 subjects (33.3%, cases 3,4,5,8,15) were the 1st  
20 candidates for identity, 11 (73.3%, cases 1-5,8,10-13,15) were the 2nd-,13 (86.7%, cases  
21 1-5,7-13,15) the 3rd-, and all 15 subjects the 4th candidates.  
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#### 28 Figure 4

29 Bone assessments (experiment 2). Comparison of the mean-distance gaps (mm) between  
30 identical- and different subjects revealed a significant difference ( $p < 0.01$ ).  
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#### 37 Figure 5

38 Comparison of the candidate order between the soft-tissue assessments (experiment 1)  
39 with (a) 3 sites, (b) 4 sites and (c) 5 sites and the bone assessments (experiment 2). For all  
40 comparisons, there was a significant difference between the results obtained with the two  
41 experiments ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
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Table 1

Summary of subject's characteristics

Number of case	Age/sex	Time period between the antemortem chest X-ray and the PMCT (days)	Time period between death and the PMCT (minutes)	Cause of death
1	87/M	571	79	Acute cardiac failure
2	74/F	479	262	Acute cardiac failure
3	70/M	2475	59	Aspiration pneumonia
4	83/M	4949	29	Unknown
5	71/M	372	48	Pulmonary embolism
6	83/F	932	60	Drowning, Cerebral hemorrhage
7	35/F	1065	68	Shock(cause unknown)
8	90/M	1478	91	Acute cardiac failure
9	54/M	855	56	Acute cardiac failure
10	77/M	1082	359	Unknown
11	53/M	2547	150	Gastric cancer
12	21/M	1653	47	Acute cardiac failure
13	59/M	1015	154	Lung cancer
14	56/M	592	193	Acute myeloid leukemia
15	68/F	886	50	Acute aortic dissection

Note. M, male; F, female; PMCT, postmortem computed tomography

Antemortem radiography	Fused image
Postmortem CT	



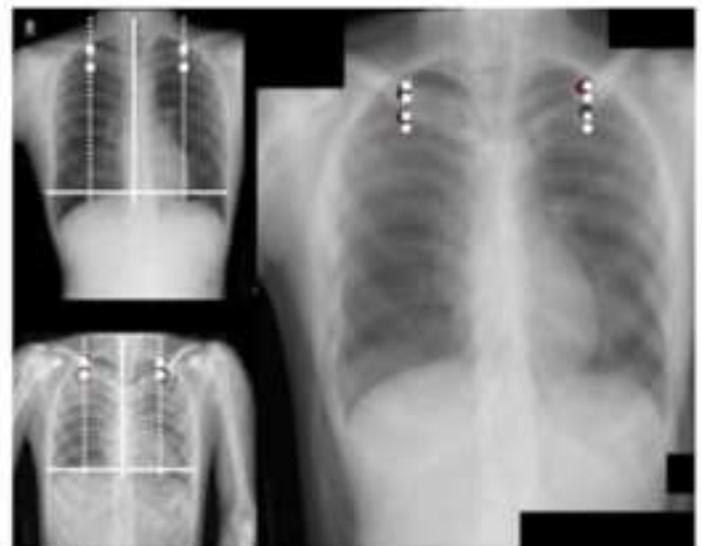
(a)



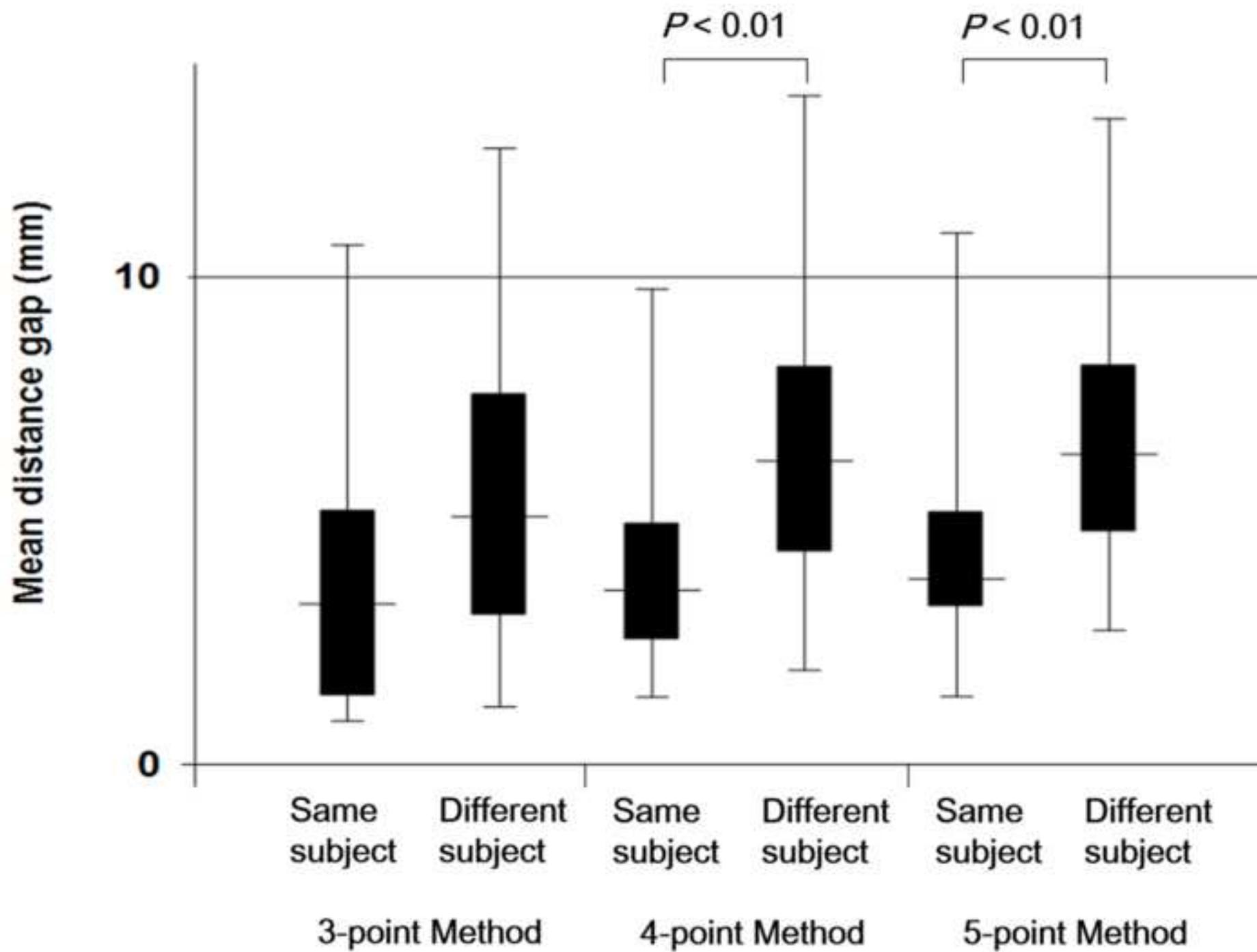
(b)

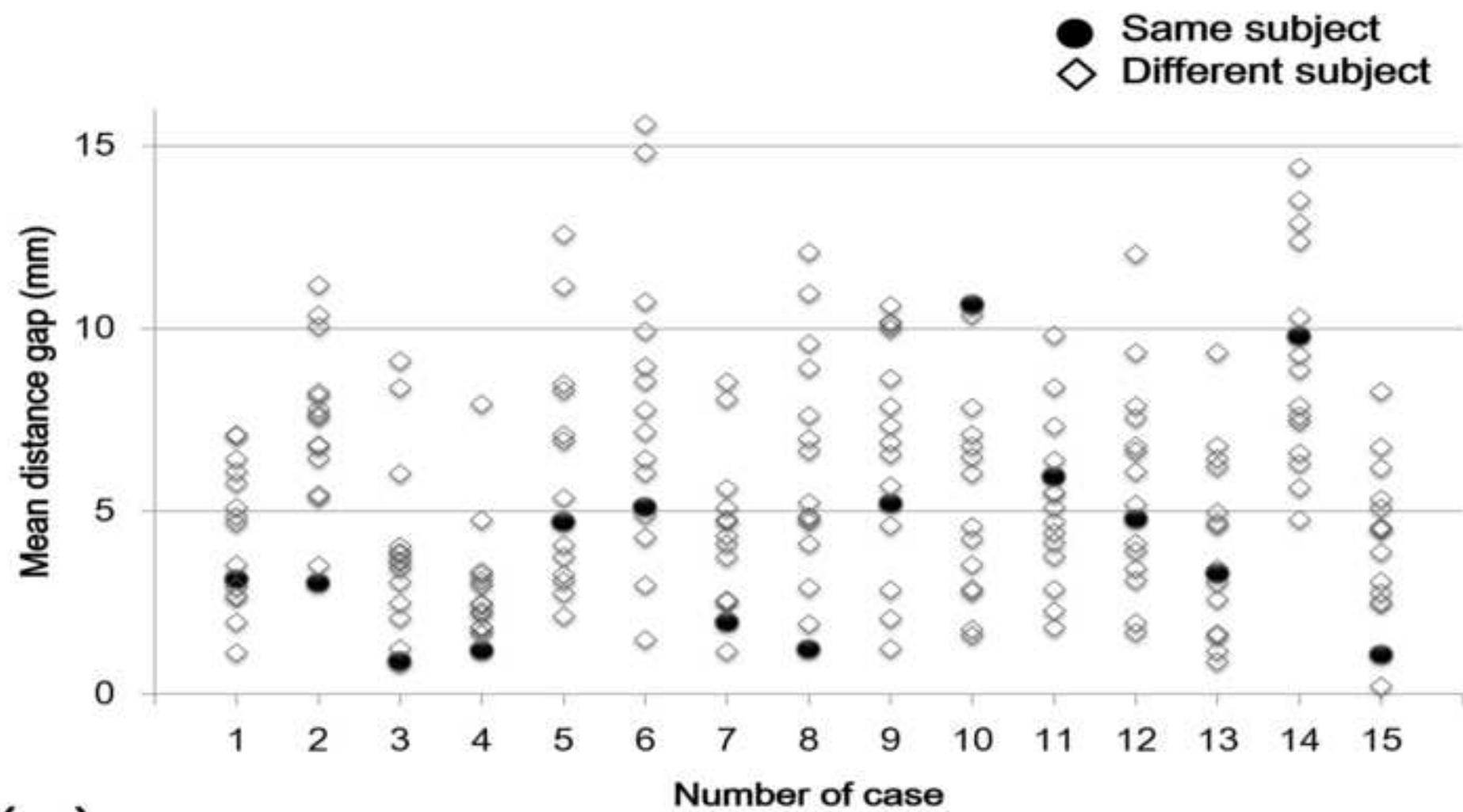


(c)

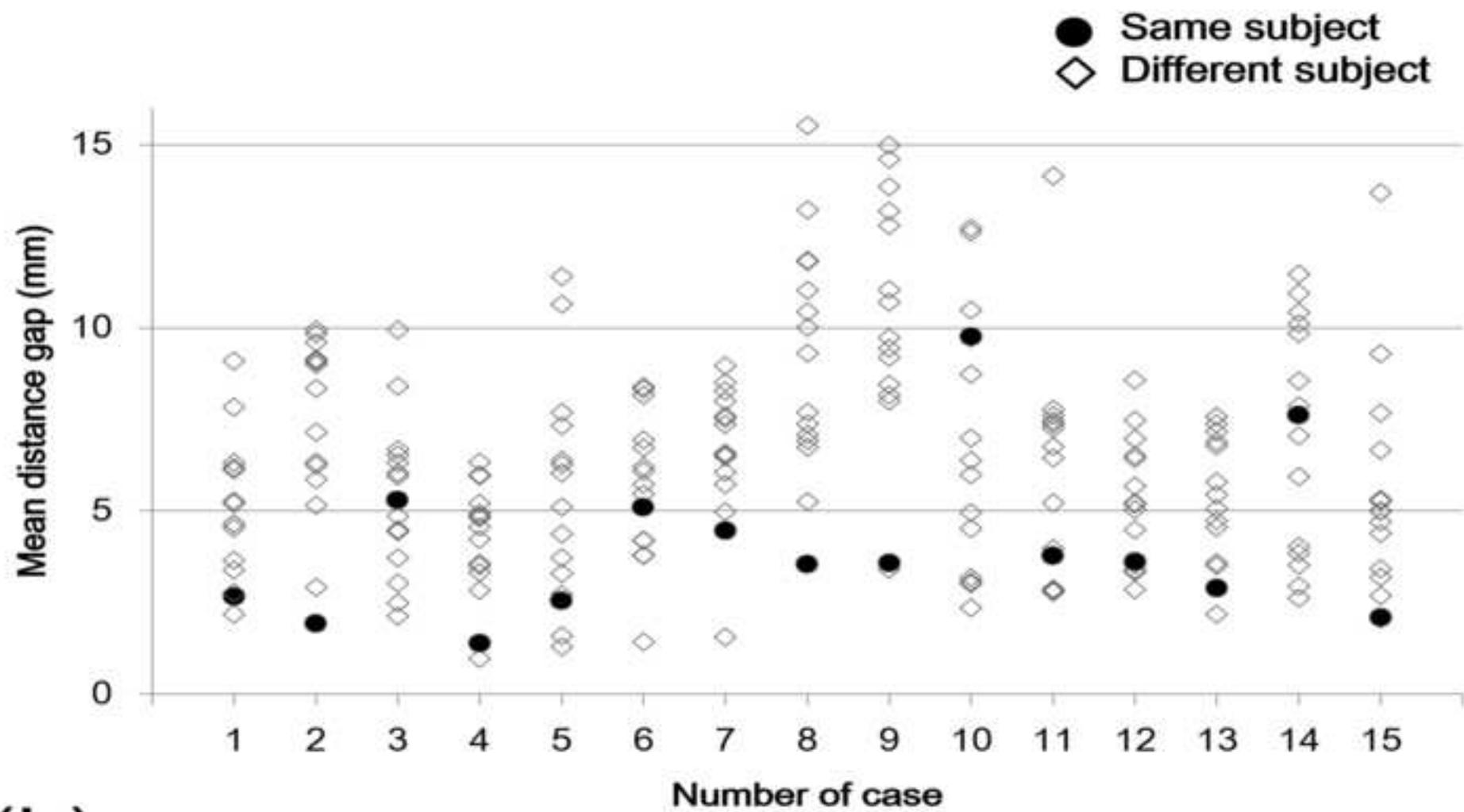


(d)

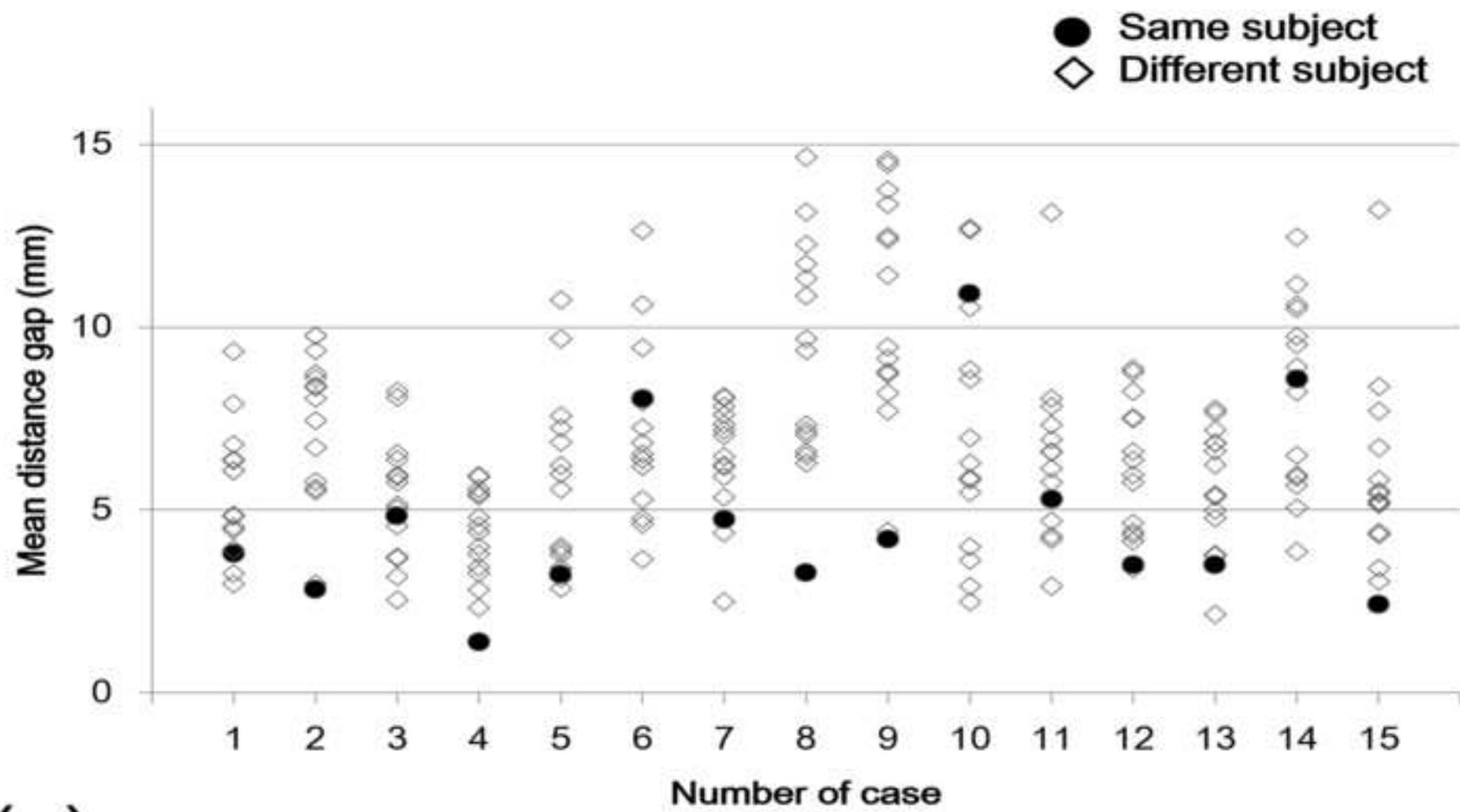




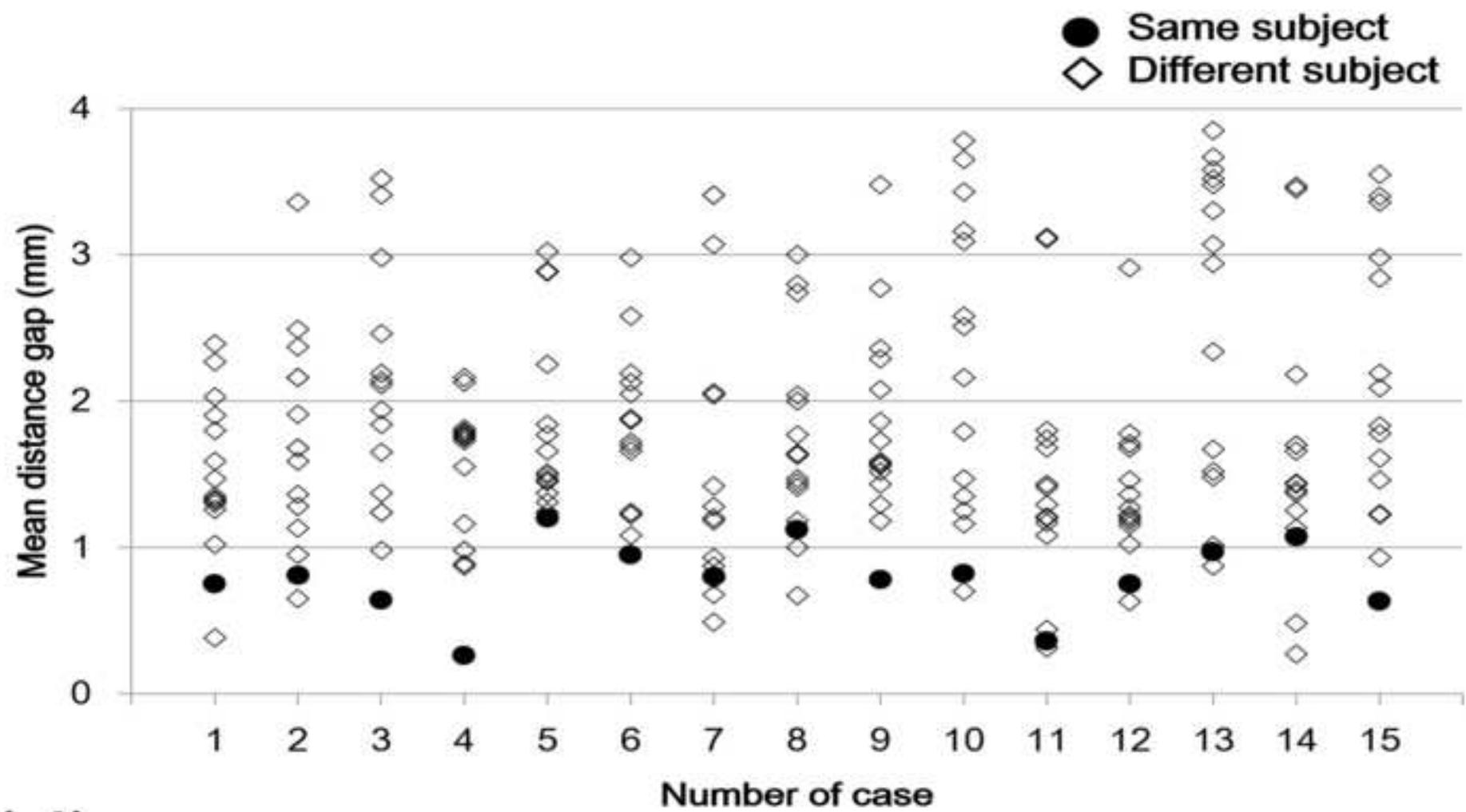
(a)



(b)



(C)



(d)

