

BIOMEDICAL IMAGING

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Edited by
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In-Tech
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Published by In-Teh

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Olajnica 19/2, 32000 Vukovar, Croatia

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Additional copies can be obtained from:

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First published March 2010

Printed in India

Technical Editor: Melita Horvat

Cover designed by Dino Smrekar

Biomedical Imaging,

Edited by Youxin Mao

p. cm.

ISBN 978-953-307-071-1

Preface

Biomedical imaging is becoming an indispensable branch within bioengineering. This research field has recent expanded due to the requirement of high-level medical diagnostics and rapid development of interdisciplinary modern technologies. This book is designed to present the most recent advances in instrumentation, methods, and image processing as well as clinical applications in important areas of biomedical imaging. This book provides broad coverage of the field of biomedical imaging, with particular attention to an engineering viewpoint.

Chapter one introduces a 3D volumetric image registration technique. The foundations of the volumetric image visualization, classification and registration are discussed in detail. Although this highly accurate registration technique is established from three phantom experiments (CT, MRI and PET/CT), it applies to all imaging modalities. Optical imaging has recently experienced explosive growth due to the high resolution, noninvasive or minimally invasive nature and cost-effectiveness of optical coherence modalities in medical diagnostics and therapy. Chapter two demonstrates a fiber catheter-based complex swept-source optical coherence tomography system. Swept-source, quadrature interferometer, and fiber probes used in optical coherence tomography system are described in details. The results indicate that optical coherence tomography is a potential imaging tool for *in vivo* and real-time diagnosis, visualization and treatment monitoring in clinic environments. Brain computer interfaces have attracted great interest in the last decade. Chapter three introduces brain imaging and machine learning for brain computer interface. Non-invasive approaches for brain computer interface are the main focus. Several techniques have been proposed to measure relevant features from EEG or MRI signals and to decode the brain targets from those features. Such techniques are reviewed in the chapter with a focus on a specific approach. The basic idea is to make the comparison between a BCI system and the use of brain imaging in medical applications. Texture analysis methods are useful for discriminating and studying both distinct and subtle textures in multi-modality medical images. In chapter four, texture analysis is presented as a useful computational method for discriminating between pathologically different regions on medical images. This is particularly important given that biomedical image data with near isotropic resolution is becoming more common in clinical environments.

The goal of this book is to provide a wide-ranging forum in the biomedical imaging field that integrates interdisciplinary research and development of interest to scientists, engineers, teachers, students, and clinical providers. This book is suitable as both a professional reference and as a text for a one-semester course for biomedical engineers or medical technology students.

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Volumetric Image Registration of Multi-modality Images of CT, MRI and PET

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1. Introduction

1.1 Biomedical Imaging of Multimodality

Three-dimensional (3D) biomedical imaging starts from computed tomography (CT) in 1960's-1970's (Cormack, 1963, Hounsfield, 1973) followed by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) in 1970's (Lauterbur, 1973, Garroway et al, 1974, Mansfield & Maudsley, 1977). These anatomical imaging techniques are based on physical features of a patient's anatomy, such as linear attenuation coefficient or electromagnetic interaction and relaxation. 3D biological imaging (molecular imaging or functional imaging), such as positron emission tomography (PET) and single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT), was also developed in mid 1970's (Ter-Pogossian, et al, 1975, Phelps, et al, 1975). They detect biological features using a molecular probe, labelled with either a positron emitter or a gamma emitter, to target a molecular, cellular or physiological event, process or product. So, the x-ray/ γ -ray intensity from a particular anatomical site is directly related to the concentration of the radio-labelled molecular marker. Therefore, a biological event will be imaged in 3D space. Since the concept of hybrid PET/CT scanner was introduced (Beyer, et al, 2000), the co-registration of biological image with anatomical image offers both biological and anatomical information in space, assuming that there is no patient's motion between and during the two image acquisitions. Other combined scanners, such as SPECT/CT and PET/MRI, have also been developed (Cho, et al, 2007, Bybel, et al, 2008, Chowdhury & Scarsbrook, 2008). Registration of biological and anatomical images at acquisition or post acquisition provides multi-dimensional information on patient's disease stage (Ling, et al, 2000), facilitating lesion identification for diagnosis and target delineation for treatment.

In radiological clinic, although a particular imaging modality may be preferable to diagnose a particular disease, multimodality imaging has been increasingly employed for early diagnosing malignant lesion (Osman, et al, 2003), coronary artery diseases (Elhendy, et al 2002), and other diseases. Use of biological imaging enhances the success rate of correct diagnosis, which is necessary for early, effective treatment and ultimate cure.

In radiation therapy clinic, multi-modality imaging is increasingly employed to assist target delineation and localization, aiming to have a better local control of cancer (Nestle, et al,

2009). Radiation therapy (RT) contains three basic components: treatment simulation, treatment planning and treatment delivery (Song & Li, 2008). Simulation is to imaging a patient at treatment condition for planning, based on which the treatment is delivered. In image-based planning, multimodality images, including CT, MRI and PET, can be registered and used to define the target volume and location within the anatomy (Schad et al, 1987, Chen & Pelizzari, 1989). In image-guided delivery, on-site imaging which provides patient's positioning image, is used to register to the planning CT image for accurate patient setup, so that the target is treated as planned (Jaffray, et al, 2007).

Therefore, in both diagnostic and therapeutic imaging, image registration is critical for a successful clinical application. Beyond the 3D space, 4D (3D+time) biomedical imaging has become an emerging clinical research field, and some procedures have been adopted in the clinic, such as 4DCT (Li et al, 2008a). Motion is inevitably present during imaging as well as therapeutic processes, including respiratory, cardiac, digestive and muscular motions, causing image blurring and target relocation. 4D medical imaging aims to minimize the motion artefact and 4DRT aims to track and compensate for the target motion. Facing the challenge of patient's motion and change along the time, deformable image registration has been intensively studied (Hill, et al, 2001, Pluim et al, 2003, Li et al, 2008b). Although it remains as challenging topic, it will be only discussed briefly where it is needed, as it is not the main focus of this chapter.

1.2 Manual Image Registration

Manual or interactive image registration is guided by visual indication of image alignment. The conventional visual representation of an 3D images is 2D-based, three orthogonal planar views of cross-section of the volumetric image (West, et al, 1997, Fitzpatrick, et al, 1998). Here the discussion will be focused on anatomy-based image registration, rather than fiducial-based (such as superficial or implanted markers) or coordinate-based (such as combined PET/CT system). All clinical treatment planning systems utilize this visual representation for checking and adjusting the alignment of two images. In details, there are several means to achieve the visual alignment verification: (1) the chess-box display of two images in alternate boxes; (2) the simultaneous display of two mono-coloured images; and (3) the superimposed display of the two images with an adjustable weighting factor. Fig. 1 illustrates the first two of the three basic visualization methods.

The 2D visual-based fusion technique has been developed, validated and adopted for biomedical research as well as clinical practice (Hibbard, et al, 1987, Chen, et al, 1987, Hibbard & Hawkins, 1988, Pelizzari, et al, 1989, Toga & Banerjee, 1993, Maintz & Viergever, 1998, Hill, et al, 2001). Throughout the past three decades, this technique has evolved and become a well developed tool to align 3D images in the clinic. Multi-modality image registration is required (Schad et al, 1987, Pelizzari, et al, 1989) as more medical imaging is available to the clinic. However, reports have shown that this well established technique may suffer from (1) large intra- and inter-observer variability; (2) the dependency of user's cognitive ability; (3) limited precision by the resolution of imaging and image display; and (4) time consuming in verifying and adjusting alignment in three series of planar views in three orthogonal directions (Fitzpatrick, et al, 1998, Vaarkamp, 2001). These findings have become a concern whether this 2D visual-based fusion technique with an accuracy of 1-3

mm and time requirement of 15-20 minutes is sufficiently accurate and fast to meet the clinical challenges of increasing utilization of multi-modality images in planning, increasing adoption of image-guided delivery, and increasing throughput of patient treatments.

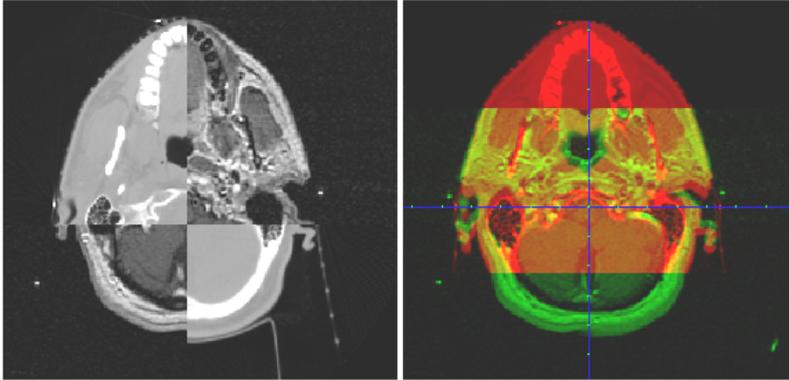


Fig. 1. Illustration of two common means of image alignment based on 2D planar views (Only one of the axial slices is shown, and the sagittal and coronal series are not shown).

The 3D visual representation or volumetric visualization (Udupa, 1999, Schroeder, et al, 2004) has recently been applied to evaluate the volumetric alignment of two or more 3D images (Xie, et al, 2004, Li, et al, 2005, 2007, 2008b and 2008c). This 3D volumetric image registration (3DVIR) technique aims to solve most of the problems associated with the conventional 2D fusion technique by providing a fundamentally different, volumetric visual representation of multimodality images. This volumetric technique has been successfully designed, developed and validated, while it is still relatively new to the medical field and has not been widely adopted as an alternative (superior) to the conventional 2D visual fusion technique. Two of the major obstacles for the limited clinical applications are that (1) from 2D to 3D visualization, the clinical practitioners have to be retrained to adapt themselves to this new technique, and (2) this technique has not yet been commercially available to the clinic.

1.3 Automatic Image Registration

Automatic image registration can improve the efficiency and accuracy of the visual-based manual fusion technique. There are three major components in any automatic image registration, including (1) registration criterion; (2) transformation and interpolation; and (3) optimization. These three components are independent of one another, so that they can be freely recombined for an optimal outcome in a particular clinical application. Here again, the discussion will focus on anatomy-based rigid image registration, rather than fiducial-based or coordinate-based registration.

Before mutual information criterion (negative cost function) was developed in 1995 (Viola & Wells, 1995), other algorithms were utilized, such as Chamfer surface matching criterion (Borgefors, 1988, van Herk & Kooy, 1994) or voxel intensity similarity criterion (Venot, et al, 1984). Mutual information is fundamentally derived from information theory and has been

extensively discussed in the literature (Hill, et al, 2001, Pluim, et al, 2003). It is worthwhile to mention that among existing criteria the common features in two different modality images are best described by the mutual information, which can serve as the registration cost function for maximization to achieve multi-modality image registration.

The transformation and interpolation are mathematical operations of the images. For rigid image registration, only six degrees of freedom (three rotational and three translational) are in the transformation and the transformed voxels are assigned through interpolation (linear, nearest neighbour, or Spline). For deformable image registration, however, the number of degree of freedom is dramatically increased, since all voxels are allowed to move (deform) independently and therefore the number of variables would be up to three times of the total number of voxels in an image. As a consequence, the performance of deformable image registration becomes one of the bottlenecks, despite that several simplified algorithms have been studied to address this challenging problem (Pluim et al, 2003, Li et al, 2008a & 2008b).

The optimization process is to minimize (or maximize) the cost function (or to refine the registration criterion) until a pre-determined threshold is met. There are many established algorithms available, including Gradient descent, Simplex, Genetics, and Simulated Annealing (Kirkpatrick et al, 1983, Goldberg et al, 1989, Snyman, 2005). The performance of these algorithms is evaluated based on their ability and speed to find a global minimum (or maximum), avoiding local traps, which will lead to a faulty result. Therefore, any automatic image registration must be verified visually to ensure a correct or acceptable result.

Image registration based on anatomic features has a fundamental assumption, which is the identical underlying anatomy in different imaging modalities. In other words, motion and deformation of the anatomy between scans will post uncertainty to rigid image registration. For rigid anatomy, such as head, the accuracy of the automatic registration based on maximization of mutual information (MMI) can reach sub-mm scale. Clinical images of a patient often contain anatomical variations, resulting in sub-optimal registration results, which must be visually verified and adjusted to a clinically accepted level. Manual adjustment is mostly based on the 2D fusion technique, together with anatomical and physiological knowledge. Therefore this process inherits the drawbacks of the 2D fusion technique and degrades the accuracy of automatic registration.

1.4 Hybrid Image Registration with Segmentation and Visualization

Anatomy-based image registration can be further categorized as (1) using all voxels within the field of view (the anatomy and surrounding objects), such as MMI and greyscale similarity, and (2) using selected anatomical landmarks, such as Chamfer surface (van Herk & Kooy 1994) and manual registration (Fitzpatrick, et al, 1998, Vaarkamp, 2001, Li, et al, 2005 & 2008c). In most medical images, some anatomies are more reliable to serve as landmarks than others, because of anatomical rigidity, less motion artefacts, and/or sufficient image contrast. Therefore, evenly utilizing the entire anatomy, including medical devices present in the images, is good for automation, but may not be optimal for achieving the most accurate and reliable result. In contrast, a feature-based image registration with full or semi automation is sometimes preferable, especially for clinical cases with high degree of

difficulty or with high accuracy requirement. We have found that pairing automatic MMI registration and the 3DVIR serves the best in terms of registration speed and outcome. The advantage of hybridized image registration is that it will take the advantage of multiple image processing techniques. Image segmentation/classification can extract more reliable features from the original image to enhance image registration with the more informative features. Image (volumetric) visualization can enhance image registration, if a classified reliable anatomy is visualized and utilized as the registration landmark. Therefore, hybrid image registration remains a focus of clinical research (Li, et al, 2008b). Although feature extraction is often application specific and few algorithms can be employed across the spectrum of all imaging modalities, hybrid image registration, such as the 3DVIR, has shown its promise to resolve particular clinical problems that require high accuracy.

1.5 Visual Verification of Registration

Although automatic rigid image registration using mutual information has been widely accepted in radiotherapy clinic, the necessity of visual verification of the result prior to clinical use will never change. Several causes for a sub-optimal automatic registration result include (1) changes in patient's anatomy between scans; (2) incomplete or insufficient anatomy, especially in biological images; (3) poor image quality, and (4) incorrect (local traps) or insensitive (flat surface) registration outcomes. Visual verification and adjustment allow user to check and correct any misalignment in the auto-registered images.

As discussed above, the only viable, visual method in the current clinic is the 2D-based fusion technique, which possesses many drawbacks, including observer dependency, error prone and time consuming (Vaarkamp, 2001, Li, et al, 2005). Therefore, no matter how accurate an automatic registration result would be, once it is adjusted with the manual fusion tool, the uncertainty of the result will fall back to that of the manual registration ($\pm 1-3$ mm). Thereby, the mismatch of accuracy between the automatic and manual registration will diminish the accuracy advantage of the automatic registration. In other words, the gain in reliability via visual verification and adjustment may sacrifice the accuracy.

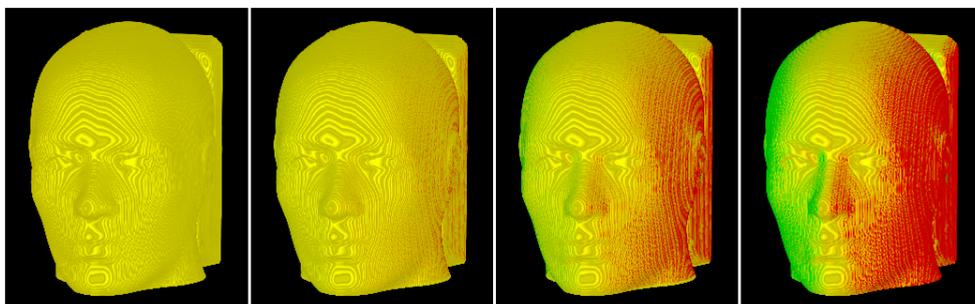


Fig. 2. Colour homogeneity/heterogeneity of two overlaid, identical images (red and green) with misalignment of 0.0, 0.2, 0.5 and 1.0 voxel (mm) from left to right using the 3DVIR. The “elevation contour pattern” is due to limited imaging resolution and should be ignored.

Recently, reports have shown that the 3DVIR technique is superior to the conventional 2D visual fusion method, in terms of improved registration performance as well as high

accuracy (± 0.1 mm) that matches or exceeds that of automatic registration (Li, et al, 2008c). Therefore, combining an automatic registration with the 3DVIR technique seems a desirable alternative to overcome the limitations of the 2D fusion method, providing a solution for registration verification with preserved or even enhanced accuracy, as shown in Fig. 2.

2. 3D Volumetric Image Registration (3DVIR)

2.1 Volumetric Image Visualization and Classification

Volumetric image visualization is an advanced image rendering technique, which generally offers two different approaches: (1) object-order volume rendering and (2) image-order volume rendering (Schroeder et al, 2004). Based on the camera (view point of an observer) settings, the former renders in the order of voxels stored while the latter is based on ray casting, which is employed in the 3DVIR technique.

Ray casting determines the value of each pixel in the image plane by passing a ray from the current camera view through the pixel into the scene, or the image volume in this case. An array of parallel rays is used to cover the entire image plane, as shown in Fig. 3. Along each ray, all encountered voxels will contribute to the appearance of the pixel through colour blending until the accumulated transparency (alpha, or A) becomes unity. Here an advanced voxel format is employed with four components (RGBA), representing red, green, blue, and alpha. The colour blending of the pixel can follow any mathematical formula. In the 3DVIR technique, however, the following equations are used to mimic the physical appearance of an image volume with controllable transparency:

$$\begin{aligned} R_{Accum}^{i+1} &= R_{Accum}^i + (1.0 - A_{Accum}^i) \cdot R^i \cdot A^i \\ G_{Accum}^{i+1} &= G_{Accum}^i + (1.0 - A_{Accum}^i) \cdot G^i \cdot A^i \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_{Accum}^{i+1} &= B_{Accum}^i + (1.0 - A_{Accum}^i) \cdot B^i \cdot A^i \\ A_{Accum}^{i+1} &= A_{Accum}^i + (1.0 - A_{Accum}^i) \cdot A^i \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where the superscripts i and $i+1$ represent the two consecutive steps along the ray path and the subscript represents accumulative values, which are the blended RGBA values for the pixels up to the steps i or $i+1$. For any voxel with $A^i = 0$ (totally transparent), it does not contribute to the pixel. For any voxel with $A^i = 1$ (totally opaque) or $A_{Accum}^i = 1$ (becoming opaque after step i), all voxels afterward along the ray are invisible as they no longer contribute to the blended pixel in the image plane.

Four lookup tables (LUTs) over the image histogram are utilized to control the voxel RGBA value based on voxel greyscale. The transparency A-LUT in the histogram can be used for image classification, which relies on large greyscale gradient at interface of an anatomy, as shown in Fig. 4. Mono-coloured image can also be created using the RGB LUT(s), such as a primary colour (e.g., red: $R; G=B=0$), a secondary colour (e.g., yellow: $R=G; B=0$), or a tertiary colour (e.g., white: $R=G=B$). These pseudo-colour representations of the volumetric images enable visual-based image alignment using volumetric anatomical landmarks. In

practice, we recommend to use the three primary colours (RGB), so that the origin of a voxel is instantly identifiable without interference from synthesized secondary colours. The white colour should be used for the 4th image, which can be identified by its colour appearance and by toggling on and off this image, since white can also result from overlay of the other three images (RGB). Up to four volumetric images can be rendered simultaneously via the ray casting and they can be individually turned on or off as desired.

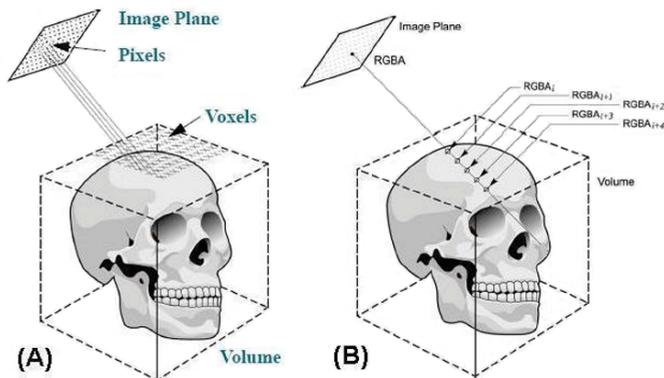


Fig. 3. Illustration of ray casting and RGBA blending for volumetric image rendering. (taken from Li, et al, JACMP, 2008c)

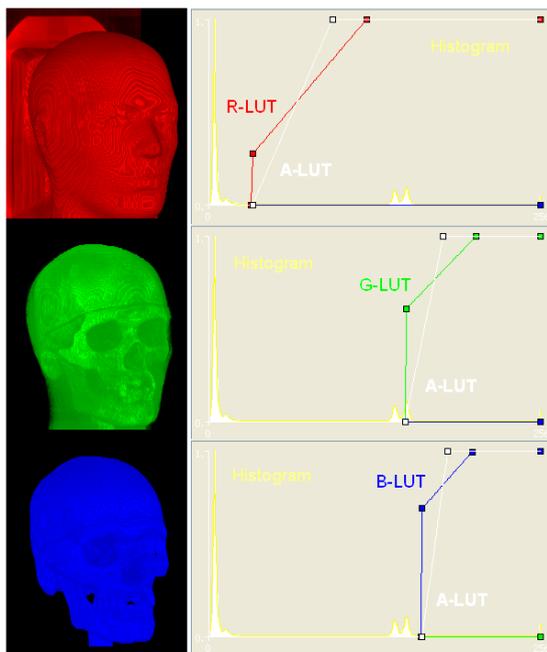


Fig. 4. Illustration of image classification using the transparency lookup table, which is the sophisticated form of window-level function. The skin (red) and bone (blue) are shown.

2.2 Visual Criterion of the Volumetric Image Registration

When two mono-coloured, identical images are overlaid in space, the colour blending of the equal-intensity (greyscale) voxels produce a homogeneously coloured image based on the colour synthesis rule of light. For instance, the overlay of equally-weighted red and green will result in a yellow appearance. Therefore, an ideal image alignment will show a perfect homogeneous colour distribution on a volumetric anatomic landmark. On the other hand, any misalignment of two rigid images will show various degrees of colour heterogeneity distributed on the volumetric landmark, as shown in Fig. 2. Therefore, the homogeneity of colour distribution on volumetric anatomical landmarks has been established as the visual registration criterion (Li et al, 2005).

It is worthwhile to mention that the greyscale of the mono-coloured image is controlled by the RGB-LUT(s), which have a value of 0 to 1 (dark to bright). Such mono-colour greyscale is important to show the stereo-spatial effect; without it (e.g., a flat LUT=constant) the landmarks are hard to be identified as 3D objects, except for the peripheral region in the 2D image plane. So, an uneven greyscale should be used in the RGB-LUT(s), as shown in Fig. 4, and the colour greyscale variation should not be regarded as colour heterogeneity.

2.3 Quantitative Criterion of the Volumetric Registration

Quantitatively, the above visual-based criterion for volumetric alignment can be directly translated into a mathematical expression. By definition, the homogeneity of the colour distribution on a given volumetric anatomical landmark should have minimal variance in the visible voxel intensity difference (VVID) between any two mono-coloured imaging modalities, namely a random colour distribution (or “snow pattern”). In other words, a misalignment should appear to have a systematic, colour-biased distribution (or global alignment aberration), which should show a large variation of the VVID.

With uniform sampling across the image plane, about 4% of the pixels are sufficient for evaluating the registration criterion. The visible voxels on the anatomical landmark can be traced along the ray automatically using a special algorithm under the ray casting rendering scheme (Li, et al, 2008c). Mathematically, for any visible voxel (i), the VVID is defined:

$$\Delta I_i = I_i^A - I_i^B \quad (3)$$

where I_i^A and I_i^B (<256 = 8 bits) are the VVI from images A and B, respectively. For all sampled voxels, the variance of the VVID is:

$$VAR = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(\Delta I_i - \Delta I)^2}{N} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(I_i^A - I_i^B - \Delta I)^2}{N} \quad (4)$$

where $\Delta I = \sum (\Delta I_i / N)$ represents the average of the VVID and N is the total number of the voxels sampled, excluding completely transparent rays. In case of two identical images, the variance of VVID approaches zero at the perfect alignment, as shown in Fig. 2.

In multi-modality image registration, the average voxel intensity of an anatomical landmark can differ substantially between modalities, so a baseline correction is required. Therefore, a modality baseline weighting factor (R) is introduced as:

$$R = \frac{\overline{I^A}}{\overline{I^B}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N I_i^A}{\sum_{i=1}^N I_i^B} \quad (5)$$

and the modified variance ($mVAR$) with baseline correction is defined as:

$$mVAR = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(\Delta I_i^* - \Delta I^*)^2}{N} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{((I_i^A/R) - I_i^B - \Delta I^*)^2}{N} \quad (6)$$

where $\Delta I^* = \sum (\Delta I_i^*/N)$ is the average of modified VVID ($\Delta I_i^* = I_i^A/R - I_i^B$). This quantitative measure, when minimized, indicates an optimal image alignment from a single viewing point.

To evaluate the volumetric image alignment, multiple views (e.g., six views) should be used to provide a comprehensive evaluation, although single view is sufficient for fine tuning around the optimal alignment (Li, et al, 2007). A simple or weighted average of the $mVAR$ from different views can serve as the cost function with a high confidence level, as each individual $mVAR$ can be cross-verified with each other. In addition, the quantitative criteria can be verified by visual examination with similar sensitivity, avoiding local minima.

2.4 Advantages of Volumetric Image Registration

With both the visual and the quantitative registration criteria, this interactive registration technique can be readily upgraded into an automatic registration technique, which is an ongoing investigation. Currently, the quantitative criterion can be applied in the fine-tuning stage of image registration, minimizing the potential user dependency. As a comparison, the 2D visual based fusion technique does not have such quantitative evaluation on the alignment. The precision for the rigid transformation and linear interpolation is set at 0.1 voxel (\sim mm), although it is not limited, matching the high spatial sensitivity of the 3DVIR technique, as shown in Fig. 2. Similar accuracy has been found between the visual and quantitative criteria (will be discussed in the next section), allowing visual verification of the potential automatic 3DVIR with the consistent accuracy and reliability.

The design of the volumetric image registration enables user to simultaneously process up to four images, meeting the challenges of increasing imaging modalities used in the clinic and eliminating potential error propagation from separated registrations. The flowchart of the volumetric image registration process is demonstrated in Fig. 5. The image buffer (32 bits) is divided into 4 fields for 4 images (8 bits or 256 greyscale each). Transformation operation can be applied to any of the four image fields for alignment and all four images are rendered together for real-time visual display, supported by a graph processing unit

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