# STEREOLOGY WITH CYLINDER PROBES

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### ABSTRACT

Intersection formulae of Crofton type for general geometric probes are well known in integral geometry. For the special case of cylinders with non necessarily convex directrix, however, no equivalent formula seems to exist in the literature. We derive this formula resorting to motion invariant probability elements associated with test systems, instead of using a traditional approach. Because cylinders are seldom used as probes in streological practice, however, this note is mainly of a theoretical nature.

Keywords: Cylinders, integral geometry, motion invariant measures, ratio design, stereology, test systems.

## INTRODUCTION

The fundamental equations of stereology - see for instance Miles (1972), Baddeley and Jensen (2005), (Section 2.2.3), or Cruz-Orive (2017) for their history, are based on intersections between a target set and a geometric probe. The latter is usually an r-plane, or a bounded portion of it. With rare exceptions (e.g. Horgan *et al.* (1993)) cylinder probes are seldom used in stereology - therefore, the present note is mainly theoretically oriented.

The classical stereological equations are usually ratios of motion invariant measures. For instance, the ratio  $B_A$  of the total planar curve length determined by a motion invariant test plane in the boundary of a compact three dimensional set, divided by the total planar section area determined in the set, is equal to  $(\pi/4)S_V$ , where  $S_V$  is the surface to volume ratio of the set. The identity is the result of dividing side by side two integral identities which belong to the family of Crofton intersection formulae of integral geometry. Such ratio identities hold formally unchanged for probes other than r-planes, notably cylinders. The Crofton integrals in the numerator and the denominator of a ratio, however, do in general depend on probe shape.

To fix ideas, consider a cylindrical surface  $Z_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ whose generator  $L_{1[0]}$  is a straight line and its directrix, namely its cross section by a plane  $L_{2[0]}$  through the origin, perpendicular to the generator, is a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve  $Z_1 \subset L_{2[0]}$  of perimeter length *b*, see Fig. 1. The object is a compact set  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ of surface area *S* and volume *V*. The motion invariant density of the cylinder is the kinematic density:

$$dZ_2 = dx \, du \, d\tau, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \, u \in \mathbb{S}^2, \, \tau \in \mathbb{S}, \tag{1}$$

where *x* is an associated point (AP) of the cross section  $Z_1$ , (namely a point rigidly attached to  $Z_1$  according to a fixed rule), whereas *u* is a unit vector on the unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$  giving the direction of the generator, and  $\tau$  is a rotation around the generator. The pertinent Crofton intersection formulae read as follows,

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$$\int B(\partial Y \cap Z_2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_2 = 2\pi^3 bS, \qquad (2)$$

$$\int A(Y \cap Z_2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_2 = 8\pi^2 bV, \tag{3}$$

and side by side division yields the aforementioned stereological equation  $S_V = (4/\pi)B_A$ . Analogous formulae arise for a solid cylinder  $Z_3 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  whose cross section  $Z_2 \subset L_{2[0]}$  is a domain of area *a* and perimeter





Fig. 1. Sketch of a cylinder  $Z_r \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  with generator  $L_{1[0]}$ and directrix  $Z_{r-1} \subset L_{2[0]}$ . For r = 1, 2, 3 the cylinder is a straight line, a cylindrical surface, or a solid cylinder, respectively. The remaining symbols are defined in the text.

While a Crofton intersection formula for general manifolds is well known, see for instance Santaló (1976), Eq. (15.20), we have not found an analogous formula for general cylinders in the literature. Schneider and Weil (2008) consider cylinders with convex directrix. Particular cases such as Eq. 2 and Eq. 3, among others, can be found in Santaló (1936), Eq. (115)-(118), who, in his Eq. (104), uses an invariant density dZ analogous to Eq. 1 for an unoriented cylinder Z, namely for  $u \in \mathbb{S}^2_+$ , whereby the relevant results are halved. Rey-Pastor and Santaló (1951) use the correct invariant density (Eq. (37.1)) and derive particular cases, namely Eq. (37.20), which is the same as Eq. 2 above, and Eq. (37.17) for the integral of the number of intersections between a cylinder surface and a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , see Eq. 35 below. In either of the preceding two publications the main emphasis was more on hitting measures (e.g. the measure of the number of cylinders hitting a compact set) than on intersection measures. This probably obeyed to the popularity of geometric inequalities (notably Minkowski's) over the first half of the 20th century. These preferences (at least as far as cylinders is concerned) were inherited by the books of Hadwiger (1957) and Santaló (1976). In p. 280, the latter book just reproduces the two particular formulae from Rey-Pastor and Santaló (1951) cited above.

Rey-Pastor and Santaló (1951) derive their Eq. (37.17) and Eq. (37.20) directly using *ad hoc* arguments which, being ingenious and elegant, lack a pattern that can be easily generalized. Here we derive a general Crofton intersection formula for cylinders (see Eq. 22 below) using invariant probability measures associated with test systems, instead of the traditional tools of integral geometry.

To make the note self contained, the main prerequisites are given next; the formula, and its proof, are given in the *Results* section.

## DEFINITIONS AND NOTATION

#### RELEVANT GEOMETRIC OBJECTS

A cylinder  $Z_r^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of dimension  $r \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  is defined as the set product

$$Z_r^n = L_{p[0]}^n \times Z_{r-p}^{n-p}, \quad p \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\},$$
(4)

where  $L_{p[0]}^{n}$  is a linear subspace of dimension p through a fixed origin  $O \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ , whereas  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$  is a compact submanifold of dimension r-p of class  $C^{2}$ , contained in the linear subspace  $L_{n-p[0]}^{n}$  perpendicular to  $L_{p[0]}^{n}$ .

Thus,  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$  may be visualized as:

a)  $Z_r^n \cap L_{n-p[0]}^n$ , the (r-p)-dimensional crosssection of  $Z_r^n$  determined by the (n-p)-plane  $L_{n-p[0]}^n$ .

b) The (r-p)-dimensional orthogonal projection of the cylinder  $Z_r^n$  onto  $L_{n-p[0]}^n$ .

The linear subspace  $L_{p[0]}^{n}$  is the generator, whereas the subset  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$  is the directrix of the cylinder  $Z_{r}^{n}$ .

*Examples for* n = 3 *and* p = 1*.* 

• If r = 1, then the cylinder  $Z_1^3$  is a straight line  $L_1^3$  normal to a given plane  $L_{2[0]}^3$ .

• If r = 2, then  $Z_2^3$  is a cylindrical surface whose cross section is a bounded curve  $Z_1^2$  contained in a plane  $L_{2[0]}^3$  normal to the straight line generator  $L_{1[0]}^3$ .

• If r = 3, then  $Z_3^3$  is a solid cylinder whose cross section is a domain  $Z_2^2$  of dimension 2 contained in  $L_{2[0]}^3$ .

An *n*-box  $J_0^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$J_0^n = [0, a_1) \times [0, a_2) \times \dots \times [0, a_n),$$
(5)

where  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  are finite, positive real numbers.

A bounded cylinder  $T_r^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a compact set defined as:

$$T_r^n = Z_{r-p}^{n-p} \times J_0^p.$$
(6)

*Example.* If p = 1, then  $T_r^n$  is a bounded right cylinder of base  $Z_{r-1}^{n-1}$  and finite height  $a_1 > 0$ .

#### MOTION INVARIANT DENSITIES

The material in this section, given to make the note self contained, is well known - for general reference see Santaló (1976).

A non-oriented linear subspace  $L_{p[0]}^{n}$  submitted to a rotation from the group  $G_{p,n-p}$  of rotations about a fixed point in  $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ , called the Grassmann manifold, has a rotation invariant density denoted by

$$dL_{p[0]}^{n} = dL_{n-p[0]}^{n}.$$
 (7)

It can be shown that

$$\int_{G_{p,n-p}} \mathrm{d}L_{p[0]}^{n} = \frac{O_{n-1}O_{n-2}\cdots O_{n-p}}{O_{p-1}O_{p-2}\cdots O_{0}},\qquad(8)$$

where

$$O_k = \frac{2\pi^{(k+1)/2}}{\Gamma((k+1)/2)}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$
(9)

denotes the surface area of the *k*-dimensional unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^k$  ( $O_0 = 2$ ,  $O_1 = 2\pi$ ,  $O_{k+2} = 2\pi O_k/(k+1)$ ).

As given below, the motion invariant density for cylinders involves an oriented *p*-subspace  $L_{p[0]}^{n}$ , which we denote by  $L_{p[0]}^{*}$ . Consequently, the measure given in Eq. 8 must be multiplied by  $O_0 = 2$ .

For a compact set  $T_r^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , not necessarily a bounded cylinder, the motion invariant density is the kinematic density, namely,

$$dT_r^n = dx_n du_n, \quad x_n \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ u_n \in G_{n[0]}, \tag{10}$$

where  $x_n$  is an AP fixed in  $T_r^n$ , whereas  $u_n$  is an element of the special group of rotations  $G_{n[0]}$ , isomorphic to SO(n), about a fixed point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . It can be shown that

$$\int_{G_{n[0]}} \mathrm{d}u_n = O_{n-1}O_{n-2}\dots O_1. \tag{11}$$

*Example.* For n = 3 we have  $u_3 = (u_2, u_1)$ , where  $u_2 \equiv (\phi, \theta) \in \mathbb{S}^2$  is a unit vector of spherical polar coordinates  $(\phi, \theta)$  whereas  $u_1 \equiv \tau \in \mathbb{S}^1$  is a rotation about  $u_2$ . Thus,

$$\int_{G_{3[0]}} \mathrm{d}u_{3} = \int_{\mathbb{S}^{2}} \mathrm{d}u_{2} \int_{\mathbb{S}^{1}} \mathrm{d}u_{1} = 4\pi \, 2\pi = 8\pi^{2}.$$
(12)

For a cylinder  $Z_r^n$  of cross section  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$ , where  $1 \le p \le r \le n$ , the motion invariant density is

$$dZ_r^n = dZ_{r-p}^{n-p} dL_{p[0]}^*,$$
(13)

(Santaló, 1976, Eq. (15.76)), where  $dZ_{r-p}^{n-p}$  is the kinematic density in  $L_{n-p[0]}$ , namely,

$$dZ_{r-p}^{n-p} = dx_{n-p} \ du_{n-p}.$$
 (14)

Substitution into the right hand side of Eq. 13 yields,

$$dZ_r^n = dx_{n-p} dL_{p[0]}^* du_{n-p},$$
(15)

where  $x_{n-p} \in L_{n-p[0]}^{n}$ ,  $L_{p[0]}^{*} \in G_{p,n-p}^{*}$ ,  $u_{n-p} \in G_{n-p[0]}$  (this group is isomorphic to the group of rotations about  $L_{p[0]}^{*}$ ). From Eq. 8 and Eq. 11 we get,

$$\int_{G_{p,n-p}^*} \mathrm{d}L_{p[0]}^* \int_{G_{n-p[0]}} \mathrm{d}u_{n-p} = O_{n-1} \dots O_p. \quad (16)$$

*Example*. For a cylinder  $Z_r^3$ , r = 2, 3, p = 1, the motion invariant density given by Eq. 15 reduces to Eq. 1.

### TEST SYSTEMS OF CYLINDERS

Consider a test system  $\Lambda_T \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  whose fundamental tile is an n-box  $J_0^n$ , whereas the fundamental probe is a bounded cylinder  $T_r^n \subset J_0^n$  given by Eq. 6 with its AP at the origin O, see Fig. 2. For details pertaining to the construction of a test system see Santaló (1976) under the term "lattice of figures".



Fig. 2. (a) Fundamental tile  $(n-box) J_0^n$  of a test system  $\Lambda_T$ . The fundamental probe  $T_r^n \subset J_0^n$  is a bounded cylinder given by Eq. 6. (b) A portion of the test system  $\Lambda_T$  generated by  $T_r^n$ , see (a), which is congruent with a test system  $\Lambda_Z$  of cylinders.

The motion invariant probability element adopted for  $\Lambda_T$ , for which we use the shorthand notation  $\mathbb{P}(d\Lambda_T)$ , is the normalitzed version of the kinematic density  $dT_r^n$ , as follows. For  $x_n \in J_0^n$ ,  $u_n \in G_{n[0]}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathrm{d}\Lambda_T) \equiv \mathbb{P}(\mathrm{d}x_n, \, \mathrm{d}u_n) = \frac{\mathrm{d}x_n}{\nu_n(J_0^n)} \frac{\mathrm{d}u_n}{\int \mathrm{d}u_n},\qquad(17)$$

where  $v_d(\cdot)$  denotes *d*-Hausdorff measure. The integral is given by Eq. 11. For details see Cruz-Orive (2002), or Appendix A in Voss and Cruz-Orive (2009).

Because  $T_r^n = Z_{r-p}^{n-p} \times J_0^p$ ,  $J_0^n = J_0^{n-p} \times J_0^p$ , and  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p} \subset J_0^{n-p}$ , any stack of probes of  $\Lambda_T$  is in fact

an infinite cylinder  $Z_r^n$ . Thus,  $\Lambda_T$  coincides with a test system  $\Lambda_Z \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of cylinders congruent with  $Z_r^n$ , whose fundamental tile is  $J_0^{n-p} \subset L_{n-p[0]}^n$ , whereas the fundamental probe is the orthogonal projection  $Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$  of  $Z_r^n$  onto  $L_{n-p[0]}^n$ . The motion invariant probability element corresponding to  $\Lambda_Z$  is the normalized density given by Eq. 15. Thus, for  $x_{n-p} \in J_0^{n-p}$ ,  $L_{p[0]}^* \in G_{p,n-p}^*$ ,  $u_{n-p} \in G_{n-p[0]}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(d\Lambda_{Z}) \equiv \mathbb{P}(dx_{n-p}, dL_{p[0]}^{*}, du_{n-p}) \\ = \frac{dx_{n-p}}{\nu_{n-p}(J_{0}^{n-p})} \frac{dL_{p[0]}^{*} du_{n-p}}{\int dL_{p[0]}^{*} du_{n-p}}, \quad (18)$$

where the integral involving the orientation variables is given by Eq. 16.

From the preceding considerations it follows that the test system  $\Lambda_Z$  equipped with the probability element given by Eq. 18, has identical statistical properties as the test system  $\Lambda_T$  equipped with the probability element given by Eq. 17. In particular, for a compact submanifold  $Y_q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of dimension  $q \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$ , with  $q + r \ge n$ , the following identity holds,

$$\mathbb{E}\nu_{q+r-n}(Y_q \cap \Lambda_T) = \mathbb{E}\nu_{q+r-n}(Y_q \cap \Lambda_Z), \qquad (19)$$

the expectations being with respect to the corresponding motion invariant probability elements.

## CROFTON INTERSECTION FORMULA FOR BOUNDED PROBES

For the compact submanifold  $Y_q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  just considered, hit by a compact probe  $T_r^n$  equipped with the kinematic density  $dT_r^n$  given by Eq. 10, the following identity holds,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times G_{n[0]}} v_{q+r-n}(Y_q \cap T_r^n) \, \mathrm{d}T_r^n$$

$$= c(q,r,n)v_q(Y_q)v_r(T_r^n),$$
(20)

(Santaló (1976), Eq. (15.20)), where

$$c(q,r,n) = \frac{O_n O_{n-1} \cdots O_1 O_{q+r-n}}{O_q O_r}.$$
 (21)

### RESULTS

## CROFTON INTERSECTION FORMULA FOR CYLINDERS

The main purpose of this note is to prove the following identity.

Proposition

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-p} \times G_{p,n-p}^* \times G_{n-p[0]}} v_{q+r-n}(Y_q \cap Z_r^n) \, dZ_r^n$$

$$= c_Z(q,r,n,p) v_{r-p}(Z_{r-p}^{n-p}) \, v_q(Y_q)$$
(22)

where

$$c_Z(q,r,n,p) = \frac{O_n O_{n-1} \cdots O_p O_{q+r-n}}{O_q O_r}.$$
 (23)

Proof

Set  $v \equiv v_{q+r-n}$ ,  $Y \equiv Y_q$ ,  $T \equiv T_r^n$ ,  $Z \equiv Z_r^n$ ,  $Z' \equiv Z_{r-p}^{n-p}$ and  $c \equiv c(q, r, n)$ , for short. In addition, the domains of integration  $G_{n[0]}$  for  $u_n$ ,  $G_{p,n-p}^*$  for  $L_{p[0]}^*$ , and  $G_{n-p[0]}$ for  $u_{n-p}$ , will be omitted in the sequel.

The proof is based on Eq. 19, whose left hand side becomes,

$$\mathbb{E}\nu(Y \cap \Lambda_T)$$

$$= \int_{x_n \in J_0^n} \nu(Y \cap \Lambda_T) \mathbb{P}(d\Lambda_T)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\nu_n(J_0^n) \int du_n} \int_{x_n \in J_0^n} \nu(Y \cap \Lambda_T) dx_n du_n$$

$$= \frac{1}{\nu_n(J_0^n) \int du_n} \int_{x_n \in \mathbb{R}^n} \nu(Y \cap T) dT,$$
(24)

where the last identity follows from Santaló's identity for test systems, see Santaló (1976), chapter 8, or Cruz-Orive (2002). In combination with Eq. 20 we obtain,

$$\mathbb{E}\nu(Y \cap \Lambda_T) = \frac{c\nu_q(Y)\nu_r(T)}{\nu_n(J_0^n)\int \mathrm{d}u_n}.$$
 (25)

Analogously,

$$\mathbb{E}\nu(Y \cap \Lambda_Z) = \int_{x_{n-p} \in J_0^{n-p}} \nu(Y \cap \Lambda_Z) \mathbb{P}(d\Lambda_Z)$$

$$= \frac{\int_{x_{n-p} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-p}} \nu(Y \cap Z) dZ}{\nu_{n-p}(J_0^{n-p}) \int dL_{p[0]}^* du_{n-p}}.$$
(26)

Finally, bearing Eq. 11 and Eq. 16 in mind, applying Eq. 19, and using the following identities,

$$\nu_n(J_0^n) = \nu_{n-p}(J_0^{n-p})\,\nu_p(J_0^p),\tag{27}$$

$$v_r(T) = v_{r-p}(Z') v_p(J_0^p),$$
 (28)

we obtain,

$$\int_{x_{n-p} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-p}} v(Y \cap Z) \, dZ$$

$$= \frac{O_n O_{n-1} \cdots O_p O_{q+r-n}}{O_q O_r} v_{r-p}(Z') v_q(Y).$$
(29)

which is the identity given by Eq. 22, thus completing the proof of the proposition.  $\Box$ 

### SPECIAL CASES FOR n = 2, 3 AND p = 1

A cylinder  $Z_2^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is a solid stripe of thickness t > 0, say, in the plane. Its boundary  $\partial Z_2^2 \equiv Z_1^2$  is the union of two parallel straight lines a distance *t* apart.

Consider a compact set  $Y_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  of area A > 0 and piecewise smooth boundary  $\partial Y_2 \equiv Y_1$  of length B > 0. Application of Eq. 22 with r = 1 yields:

$$\int v_0(Y_1 \cap Z_1^2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_1^2 = \frac{O_2 O_1 O_0}{O_1 O_1} v_0(Z_0^1) \, B = 8B, \quad (30)$$

because the projection  $Z_0^1$  of  $Z_1^2$  onto an axis normal to the stripe is the union of two points a distance *t* apart hence  $v_0(Z_0^1) = 2$ . As a cross-check, note that

$$\int v_0(Y_1 \cap Z_1^2) \, dZ_1^2 = 2 \int I(Y_1 \cap L_1^*) \, dL_1^*$$
  
= 4  $\int I(Y_1 \cap L_1^2) \, dL_1^2 = 8B$ , (31)

where  $L_1^2$  is a straight line with motion invariant density  $dL_1^2$ , and  $I(\cdot)$  denotes number of intersections - see Cruz-Orive (2017), Eq. (1), for references.

On the other hand

$$\int v_2(Y_2 \cap Z_2^2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_2^2 = \frac{O_2 O_1 O_2}{O_2 O_2} v_1(Z_1^1) A = 2\pi t A,$$
(32)

which is twice the value obtained in the classical manner (see Eq. (5.16) of Santaló (1976)), because we consider oriented stripes. Note that the projection  $Z_1^1$  of the stripe  $Z_2^2$  onto an axis normal to the stripe is a segment of length *t* - hence  $v_1(Z_1^1) = t$ .

Further

$$\int v_1(Y_2 \cap Z_1^2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_1^2 = \frac{O_2 O_1 O_1}{O_2 O_1} v_0(Z_0^1) \, A = 4\pi A, \quad (33)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\int v_1(Y_2 \cap Z_1^2) \, \mathrm{d}Z_1^2 = 4 \int L(Y_2 \cap L_1^2) \, \mathrm{d}L_1^2 = 4\pi A,$$
(34)

where  $L(\cdot)$  denotes intercept length, and the first integral pertains to the two oriented straight lines constituting  $Z_1^2$ , yielding  $2\pi A$  each.

For n = 3 and r = q = 2, Eq. 22 yields  $c_Z(2, 2, 3, 1) = O_3 O_2 O_1 O_1 / (O_2 O_2) = 2\pi^3$ , and we obtain Eq. 2.

For n = 3, q = 3, and r = 2 Eq. 22 yields  $c_Z(3,2,3,1) = O_3O_2O_1O_2/(O_3O_2) = 8\pi^2$  and we obtain Eq. 3.

Finally, for n = 3, r = 2, and q = 1, namely for  $Z_2^3 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  hitting a curve  $Y_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  of length *L*, we have  $c_Z(1,2,3,1) = O_3O_0 = 4\pi^2$  and,

$$\int v_0(Y_1 \cap Z_2^3) \, \mathrm{d}Z_2^3 = 4\pi^2 bL, \qquad (35)$$

see Santaló (1976), p. 280.

# STEREOLOGICAL EQUATIONS FOR TEST SYSTEMS OF CYLINDERS

Substitution of Eq. 29 into the right hand side of Eq. 26, yields the Hausdorff measure  $v_q(Y_q)$  of a compact submanifold  $Y_q \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  in terms of the measure of its intersection with a test system  $\Lambda_{Z_r}$  of cylinders of dimension *r*, namely,

$$\nu_{q}(Y_{q}) = \frac{O_{q}O_{r}}{O_{n}O_{q+r-n}} \frac{\nu_{n-p}(J_{0}^{n-p})}{\nu_{r-p}(Z_{r-p}^{n-p})} \cdot \mathbb{E}\nu_{q+r-n}(Y_{q} \cap \Lambda_{Z_{r}}).$$
(36)

The numerical constant in the right hand side of the preceding identity is the same as that arising for r-probes in general, see for instance Voss and Cruz-Orive (2009), Eq. (A28), (A32).

In stereology,  $v_q(Y_q)$  is often estimated via the ratio design, which is based on the identity,

$$\nu_q(Y_q) = \nu_n(X_n) \cdot R_{q,n},\tag{37}$$

where  $X_n \supset Y_q$  is a reference submanifold containing  $Y_q$ , whose volume is estimated separately (e.g. by the Cavalieri design). Ratio designs were studied in some detail by Cruz-Orive (1980) and Cruz-Orive and Weibel (1981), see also Baddeley and Jensen (2005). Thus, it only remains to estimate the ratio  $R_{q,n} \equiv v_q(Y_q)/v_n(X_n)$  via the identity,

$$R_{q,n} = \frac{O_q O_r}{O_n O_{q+r-n}} \cdot \frac{\mathbb{E}\nu_{q+r-n} (Y_q \cap \Lambda_{Z_r})}{\mathbb{E}\nu_r (X_n \cap \Lambda_{Z_r})}.$$
 (38)

Provided that the same test system  $\Lambda_{Z_r}$  is used in the numerator and denominator, the right hand side of the preceding identity does not involve any properties of  $\Lambda_{Z_r}$  itself - hence the relative popularity of ratios. Thus, with the usual conditions Eq. 38 holds for any *r*-dimensional test system; it was already obtained by Miles (1972), Eq. (2.16), and it encapsulates the classical stereological equations used in practice, see also Cruz-Orive (2002), Eq. (6.19).

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Work supported by Project UJIB2017-13 from Universitat Jaume I, Spain, and by Grant DPI2017-87333-R from the Spanish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities. REFERENCES

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