

Estimating Body Shapes from Measurements

Margarida Lima^a, Joaquim Jorge^b and João Pereira^c

INESC-ID Lisboa, Instituto Superior Técnico da Universidade de Lisboa, Av. Rovisco Pais, Lisbon, Portugal

Keywords: Virtual Garment Fitting, Body Shape, PCA, Linear Transformation, Body Measurements.

Abstract: e-Commerce now represents more than a third of apparel sales in the USA and accounts for most sales growth year on year. However, it is still hard for people to buy clothes online because they have no idea how they will look. Thus, we present an approach to model an approximation of a human body shape with a given set of body measurements to fit virtual clothes. To estimate a new body shape from body measurements, we developed two different models by using respectively linear transformations and PCA weights. Additionally, we selected the minimum number of body measurements required to estimate a similar shape as the ground truth. Finally, we evaluated our approach by comparing our results with estimations and visual evaluation via pictures and measurements taken from real people. Results show that we can approximate human shape through measurements with sufficient fidelity to simulate garment fitting.

1 INTRODUCTION

The percentage of online shopping increases year after year, and e-commerce captured an even greater share of apparel sales throughout 2020 due to the coronavirus pandemic with a leaps and bound growth of 33.6%, to a total of \$800 billion. The growth pattern is expected to maintain reaching \$908 billion in 2021 (Goldman, 2021). However, many still prefer to buy clothes in physical stores instead of e-commerce sites¹ One of the reasons relates to the difficulty of modeling garments realistically and thus hardly to know how a piece of clothing would look when dressed (Pezzini, 2021). Most devices do not have the resources to realistically simulate the fabric's physics, material, and texture. We approached this problem by comparing two models, one only using linear transformations and the other using feature extraction, to see which is the best approach to model a new body shape from only body measurements. We also wanted to see whether using PCA was helpful in mapping body shape with body measurements. Therefore, we contributed by modeling realistic 3D triangular meshes of human bodies, considering a set of body measurements that accurately

output a polygon mesh with approximately the exact measurements as the ones inserted by the user with a similar body shape. We also defined the minimum body measurements required to produce a mesh with a similar body shape as the original one. Since our target was virtual garment fitting, the produced body shape needed to resemble the original one the closest possible. Thus, the mesh quality evaluation was performed by considering two criteria. The first one consisted of comparing the final mesh directly with the estimated one by measuring the distance between the correspondent vertices of both meshes. Since we did not scan people to validate our approach, we compared the final mesh with silhouettes extracted from pictures during the tests with real people. Thus, at the testing phase, the users needed to manually insert their body measurements and an RGB image of themselves wearing minimal or tight clothes. The second criterion consisted of analyzing the final mesh measurements and seeing how closely these matched the original.

2 RELATED WORK

Until recently, body representation has been used almost entirely in the gaming industry to create realistic characters. Amaury and Thalmann describe in (Aubel and Thalmann, 2000) two major models to represent the human body: surface models where a mesh only

^a <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1762-8091>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5441-4637>

^c <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8120-7649>

¹ <https://www.lsretail.com/resources/why-physical-stores-are-still-vital-for-retail>

has skeleton and skin and multilayered techniques including fat and muscle layers.

Surface Models. Most recent work done in creating parametric avatars has been accomplished using machine learning techniques on a mesh database derived from 3D scanned bodies of real people. After scanning the necessary meshes, a system that estimates body parameters can be trained. The usage of neural networks proved to be efficient in this topic. Recent works *PIFuHD* (Saito et al., 2020) used neural implicit functions for shape representation. In *HS-Nets* (Dibra et al., 2016), the parameters themselves are computed based on images as input, and are used to reconstruct the 3D human shapes by using a statistical human shape model based on *SCAPE* (Anguelov et al., 2005). In *HS-Nets*, to learn the global mapping from the data to the parameters, a convolutional neural network (*CNN*) is trained. This *CNN* is trained by feeding the images from different views into the network. However, providing a 3D mesh with this system might lead to a wrong human body shape representation by misleading its body measurements. The same argument is applied to *Detailed Human Depth Network (DHDNet)* (Zhang et al., 2020), where Zhang uses *CNNs* in order to estimate a detailed and completed depth map from a single *RGB* image that contains occlusions of human body. Since information is retrieved from an *RGB* image, there is no certain that the displayed body representation of the individual in the image respects its body measurements. After obtaining the desired parameters, we can estimate a 3D model. The usage of blend shapes allows an approach without requiring any machine learning technique. Morphing requires a target shape to be able to morph from the base shape until the desired one. However, this kind of process requires a lot of modeling work. One example is *HMR* (Kanazawa et al., 2018), Zhang builds a standard model to be deformed and to recover occluded surface details using the depth information. Both *HMD* (Zhu et al., 2019) and Seo in (Seo and Magnenat-Thalmann, 2003) use blend shapes to update the shape of a model in real time by using an iterative interface. *IntExMa* (Volz et al., 2007) uses a morphing algorithm to comply with the desired body measurements as input. Another example is (Loper et al., 2015) where blend shapes are used not only for body poses but also for animations. *SMPL* (Loper et al., 2015) is a skinned vertex based model that accurately represents a wide variety of body shapes in natural human poses. This project deforms a mesh according to its body pose using blend shapes, that were calculated through *principal component analysis (PCA)*. Learning the human body shape through *PCA* is a strategy used by a lot

of projects (Baek and Lee, 2012) (Anguelov et al., 2005) (Loper et al., 2015) (Chen et al., 2019) and it is an effective strategy to learn the variation between different human body shapes, that is why this strategy will be used in this proposal as well to learn the blend shapes that most realistic modify a human 3D mesh. Seo in (Seo and Magnenat-Thalmann, 2003), uses a template mesh as using a database of 3D scanned meshes from real people, and it is used as examples to correspond a template mesh deformations with the body measurements.

2.1 Multi-layered Models

Multi-layered Models. A multilayered model also composed by some intermediary layers such as muscle and fat layer which improves animation results. This way, when the skeleton moves, that motion will be reproduced by all layers with the skin reproducing them all. *Multi-layer Lattice* (Iwamoto et al., 2015) achieve that using voxels. With a mesh and muscle-to-fat ratio as an input, this mechanism is able to fill the interior and to get separated layers without any extra modeling work. Each voxel was classified according to the muscle-to-fat ratio parameter that the user inserted. The differentiation between layers is useful for animation purposes, in which each layer behaves differently. For instance, the fat should be much more elastic than muscles. Another approach is to use previous modeled parts and adjust them to the inside of the input mesh, like in *Outside-In* (Pratscher et al., 2005). Similarly to *Multi-layer Lattice*, *Outside-In* takes a mesh as fills the insides with artificial muscles. Users can change muscle size in order to shape avatars to taste.

3 OVERVIEW

Our development work was divided into three stages: preprocessing, model generation, and evaluation. We first repaired and segmented the samples in the preprocessing phase before extracting the body measurements. That was accomplished by using three different distances between points on the mesh: length, height, and girth. The usage of geodesics was important because it takes into account the mesh surface to compute the distance. It simulates what a tailor would do while measuring people. We then used that information to build two models that estimate a new shape based on a set of body measurements in the model generation stage. The first one used feature extraction to learn the principal components that vary in a human body, and the second directly mapped body measure-

ments with coordinates using linear transformations. Finally, we validated the results obtained according to the shape and body measurements using both samples from the dataset and tested with real people.

3.1 Preprocessing

The input meshes were delivered by the *Semantic Parametric Reshaping of Human Body Models* (Yang et al., 2014), a dataset with 3000 meshes, where 1500 are male and 1500 are female. Each mesh contains 12500 vertices and all meshes are positioned in a neutral pose. All samples have been placed in point to point correspondence, means that for two meshes m_1 and m_2 all vertices $v_i \forall i$ in V are in the same semantic region. We use this dataset to extract the coordinates of each samples as well as their body measurements. We used manual segmentation in a single mesh using Blender interface², and replicate it to the other meshes using a Python and Blender integration module - blenderpy³. This is possible due the point-to-point correspondence on the dataset.

Mesh Repair. The results of (Yang et al., 2014) assume all meshes do not contain any non-manifold vertices. However, a preliminary analysis using *Blender* led us to conclude that most meshed contained non-manifold vertices which could interfere with extracting body measurements. We fixed these problems using *Wrap 3*, a professional tool developed by *Russian 3D Scanner*⁴.

Body Measurements. Users manually inserted body measurements as the system's input. The measurements required were split into three different categories: *girth* that measures the distance around the middle of something, *length* and *height* that measure the distance between two points. While lengths are measured on the mesh surface heights are not. The point correspondence property of the dataset is useful once more to extract the body measurements, we manually selected the initial and target points used to measure in one sample of the dataset and replicated it to the remaining meshes. Height measures the distance between two points using the Euclidean Distance on the z axis (the vertical one). The length measures the distance between two points considering the mesh's surface that contains the initial and target points. For this measurements we used the geodesic distance. We calculate a geodesic using a modified Dijkstra search algorithm (Dijkstra, 1959) to find the

shortest paths between vertices. Differently from Dijkstra, geodesics can intersect edges to form straight-line paths. Last, we compute girth measurements by intersecting a plane with the mesh.

3.2 Model Generation

We compared two distinct methodologies against each other. The first uses linear transformations to output a new body shape, while the second applies feature extraction to explain the maximum variance in the human body. But first, we performed unsupervised feature selection on the original dataset to obtain the minimum measurement subset that accounted for as much information as possible. Since there was no a priori classification of shapes, supervised methodologies for body measurement selection were ineffective. Feature selection reduced characteristics to approximately 17%, down to seven features from the initial 41. Both of our models used the subset returned from the feature selection process to output new body shapes.

Feature Selection. Unsupervised Feature Selection consisted on analyzing the dataset to filter 34 measurements out of 41. We proceeded to the distribution analysis of each variable. We replaced all outliers that were outside of the $\mu \pm 3\sigma$ Gaussian boundary by missing values, to prevent entropy in our system. The missing values count after replacing the outliers indicated that girth measurements were more affected by missing values than the other measurements, specially the underbust girth, bicep girth, armhole girth and knee girth. Since those measurements were prone to high amounts of error, we decided to exclude them from the final subset. Next, we normalized all variables, sorted them by variance and selected the ten variables that vary the most, resulting in the mea-

Table 1: Top 10 body measurements subset per gender sorted by higher (1) to lower (7) variance. Both subsets have 6 elements in common, but with a different variance level. BM stands for body measurement.

BM	Gender	
	Male	Female
1	Bust Girth	Bust Girth
2	Hip Girth	Hip Girth
3	Thigh Girth	Abdomen Girth
4	Rise Length	Thigh Girth
5	Waist Girth	Height
6	Abdomen Girth	Waist Girth
7	Height	Mid-Thigh Girth
8	Underbust-to-Belly-Button Length	Waist Height
9	Neck Girth	Inseam Height
10	Waist Height	Hip-to-Ankle Height

²<https://www.blender.org/>

³<https://pypi.org/project/blenderpy/>

⁴<https://www.russian3dscanner.com/>

measurements represented in Table 1. Next we calculated the correlation between the top 10 measurements and concluded that all height measurements are highly correlated. Thus, besides height, any other height measurement in the top ten could be removed without losing information loss. By only maintaining the height measurement from the top ten measurements, the female subset resulted with seven measurements and the male one with nine. In the male dataset, the neck girth is correlated with the rise and underbust to belly button lengths and we only maintained the neck girth measurement. We ended up with two subsets of seven body measurements, as shown in Table 2 with a highly uncorrelated variation. Both subsets shared six measurements, leaving only one unique measurement for each gender: neck girth for males and mid-thigh girth for females. We thus reduced the initial dataset by almost 83%.

Estimating Body Shapes with PCA The feature selection was applied on the dataset containing the body measurements, while the feature extraction was performed on the coordinates dataset. The feature extraction was performed on the coordinates dataset using Principal Component Analysis (*PCA*). We first calculated the template meshes for each gender, that are the mean of all samples. We then followed a similar approach to Wuhrer proposal for estimating human shapes based of body measurements (Wuhrer and Shu, 2012). As input to the method, it was given a database of n triangular manifold shapes S_0, \dots, S_{n-1} of human bodies with similar posture and a set of measurements M . Let M_i denote the measurements corresponding to S_i . Our aim is to estimate a shape S_{new} that interpolates the distances M_{new} . This approach proceeded by learning the correlation between the shapes and the measurements. The template meshes \bar{S} were used to calculate how much the samples differ from the average shape. Therefore, there is a new dataset D that is composed by the differences between all shapes of S and \bar{S} . Let D be a $(3v \times n)$ matrix. We performed PCA in D , and it yielded a matrix W that

Table 2: Final body measurements subset per gender sorted by higher (1) to lower (7) variance. Both subsets have the first 6 elements in common (even with a different sequence) and only the last element of both subsets is unique.

<i>BM</i>	<i>Gender</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
1	Bust Girth	Bust Girth
2	Hips Girth	Hips Girth
3	Thigh Girth	Abdomen Girth
4	Waist Girth	Thigh Girth
5	Abdomen Girth	Height
6	Height	Waist Girth
7	Neck Girth	Mid-Thigh Girth

corresponded to the transformed dataset D . The matrix W and matrix D are the representation of the same information but in different spaces. By applying PCA to D we extracted the information in the dataset by creating a new coordinates system that fitted the data where it varies the most. We lost information regarding the variables of D because new ones were created. However, if D and W are the same matrix in different coordinates systems, there was some matrix A that defines the transformation between them. Thus, a new shape S_{new} can be estimated via Equation 1 where the sum of the template mesh \bar{S} and the weights of a new set of measurements W_{new} transformed by A yields S_{new} .

$$X_{new} = AW_{new} + \mu \quad (1)$$

However we still needed to calculate matrices A and W_{new} . We knew that W is D transformed into the PCA coordinate system, thus A is responsible for the coordinate system swapping. So we can infer A from D and W , according to Equation 2 with D^+ being the pseudo-inverse of D .

$$W = AD \Leftrightarrow A = WD^+ \quad (2)$$

To calculate the weights matrix W_{new} , we took into consideration the body measurements and the PCA weights W_i of each shape S_i . For that, we learned a linear mapping from M_i to W_i with $i = 0, \dots, n-1$, by transforming each M_i to a new coordinate system W_i . To perform this, we calculated another transformation matrix B that maps body measurements to its corresponding PCA weights, as shown in Equation 3, where M^+ is the pseudo-inverse of B .

$$W = BM \Leftrightarrow B = WM^+ \quad (3)$$

With this, we were able to relate the body measurements to the information extracted from the human body variation through PCA and give it a weight. To reproduce the results obtained in (Wuhrer and Shu, 2012) we normalized each entry of W by its correspondent PCA eigenvalue. Finally, to estimate a new shape X_{new} based on a new set of body measurements M_{new} , we transformed M_{new} to the PCA coordinates, that resulted in a weight vector W_{new} and then transformed W_{new} to the coordinate system that dictates the shapes. Therefore, we rewrote the Equation 1 into Equation 4.

$$X_{new} = ABM_{new} + \mu \quad (4)$$

The mapping between the measurements and the PCA weights of the 3D shapes allowed us to find an new shape S_{new} given a new set of measurements M_{new} . With this process we understood how much the human shape vary from the average human shape \bar{S} . We related that variation with the body measurements M and estimate new shapes S_{new} with a new set of

body measurements M_{new} . By adding the weights corresponding to a new set of body measurements W_{new} to the template mesh \bar{S} we obtained a new shape that respects the variation dictated by M_{new} .

3.2.1 Body Shape from Linear Transforms

Body Shape from Linear Transforms. In this model, a shape can be directly obtained from the body measurements. We accomplished this by creating a transformation matrix between the coordinates and body measurements datasets. Let us use the same matrices and variables as in the previous model and assume that there is a function T that maps a measurements vector M into a vector of vertices coordinates S . In this case, A represents a linear transformation mapping the space of body measurements to the space of 3D coordinates, as represented as in Equation 5.

$$S_{new} = AM_{new} \quad (5)$$

Notice that S_{new} returns a column vector with $3v$ elements, therefore A was a $(3v \times m)$ matrix. Also note that A had $3v$ rows and m columns, whereas the transformation was from \mathcal{R}^m to \mathcal{R}^{3v} . To calculate the transformation matrix A we needed to start from Equation 5 and isolate A , just as demonstrated in Equation 6.

$$S = AM \Leftrightarrow A = SM^+ \quad (6)$$

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

We divided the evaluation into validation and evaluation processes. The validation was intended to verify if models were performing as expected. We observed which model performed the best and used the winner to the final evaluation process that involved real users. Both processes were evaluated regarding the shape and measurements of the estimated results.

4.1 Validation

To validate both models, we selected four different samples from the database. These included two male and two female scans, one smaller and the other larger. Using samples that cover many variations of human shape is essential to see whether the techniques can deal with comprehensive cases.

Body Shape. We calculated the distance between the correspondent vertices of the ground truth samples and the estimated ones. With all distances calculated, we visualized the error using a color

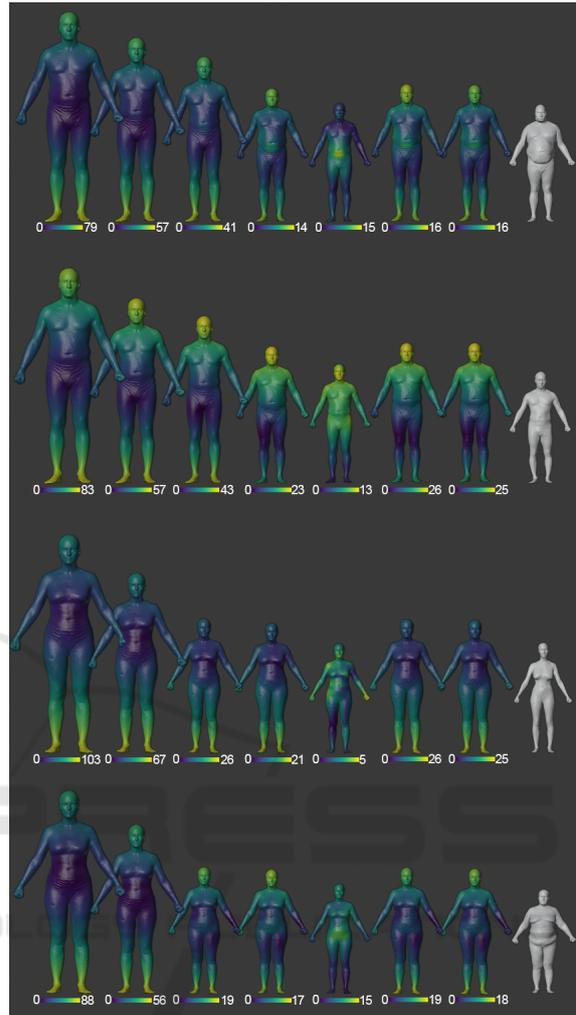


Figure 1: PCA Error color map using different measurement sets. Each column corresponds to a subset of the top ten body measurements or from the selected seven from Table 2, from left to right: (a) top two (b) top four (c) top six (d) top eight (e) top ten (f) selected six (g) selected seven (h) original shape. The yellow parts denote higher error, while the areas in dark blue are closer to the original shape.

map, like represented in Figures 2 and 1. Each column represents a different subset, from right to left: top 2, top 4, top 6, top 8, top 10, selected 6, selected 7 and ground truth. We estimated the same shape using the seven different body measurement subsets. To address to a specific estimation we use the nomenclature (xy) where x is the row number and y the column. We saw that the results were often better when using more measurements. This was supported by the MSE values, since they were higher as the number of measurements used to estimate a new shape decreases. However, in Figure 2 we saw that the difference between (Id) and (Ie) is almost 0 and their MSE difference was about 0.0002. This

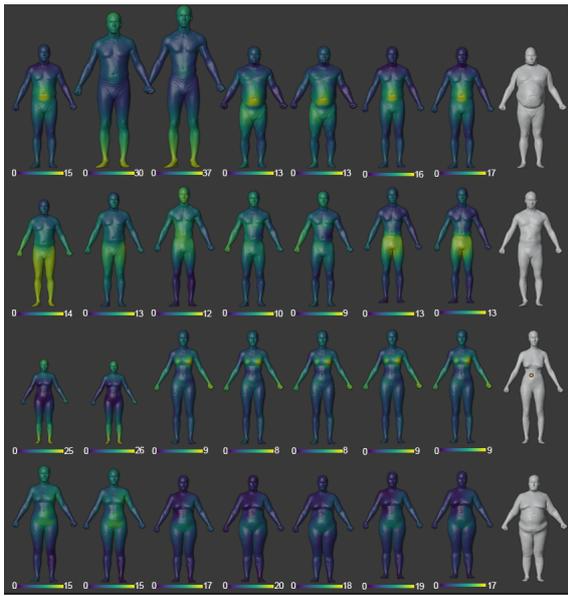


Figure 2: Linear Model Error color map with different measurements set. Each column corresponds to a subset of the top ten body measurements or from the selected seven from Table 2, from left to right: (a) top two (b) top four (c) top six (d) top eight (e) top ten (f) selected six (g) selected seven (h) original shape. The yellow parts have a higher distance error, while the dark blue parts are closer to the original shape.

indicates that the insertion of the body measurements nine and ten is irrelevant, and that we can obtain the same results using only the first eight measurements. In (1c) of Figure 2 we noticed a big difference in the height comparing the original sample. This happened specially to male meshes because the height is not part of the top six measurements, however it is more noticeable in (1c) than in (2c). This happened because of the high values of the remaining measurements, like waist bust, abdomen, etc. Like sample *SPRING306*'s body measurements were way higher than average on the dataset and there were not many samples with bigger sizes, the model estimated a new shape using the information that it had. This resulted in a shape that was very similar to the average male body, but in a bigger scale. This explained why in (1b) and (1c) of Figure 1 had a higher distance difference of sample *SPRING0306* in their feet and head, since the center of all meshes is on their groin. To produce a shape with such big measurements, the model scaled the shape in order to respect them and the model ends up being huge because in top six measurements we do not have height as a constraint. This effect is also visible in (1b) regarding the top four measurements, however in (1a) it is not visible. It is visible that in (1a), (1b) and (1c) the main differences regarding the original mesh are in the

belly. Sample (1g) was characterized by having larger dimensions and our linear model had difficulties representing those dimensions to perfection. However it returned a shape with larger dimensions but not as big as the ones inserted. This happened because groups of male with larger dimensions were poorly represented in the *Semantic Parametric Reshaping of Human Body Models* dataset (Yang et al., 2014). The estimation presented in (1a) was very similar to those in columns (1d) and (1e). While its maximum error was similar (15cm), it failed to represent the belly more similarly. We expected the columns (1g) and (1g) to perform better since the subsets were composed by body measurements that were obtained through feature selection, represented in Table 2. However, missing measures such as height and underbust-to-belly button hurt the returned shape, especially on the belly of the estimations where they had a higher distance error. Analyzing the estimation of sample *SPRING0306* and its MSE values, we concluded that the best subset of body measurements is the top eight.

Body Measurements. We validated the body measurements extracted from the estimated shapes with the original ones. The body measurement extraction of the estimated shapes was made just like the extraction of the measurements of the original shape was made. We observed that our linear model was more able to estimate shapes that belong to a group that is well represented in the dataset than samples that are poorly represented. Which means that the estimated measurements of average shapes were more similar to the original ones. In one of the female estimations we observed that all subsets, except for top four and top two, performed relatively well with a bigger error rate on the girth measurements. Thus, since the subsets obtained from Table 2 did not produce better results, we discarded them for the evaluation, focusing on the top eight with the linear model, instead.

4.2 Evaluation

We approached six different people, among friends and family, including five females and one male. Their ages ranged between 21 and 46 years, with 23 years on average. To perform the tests, we asked each individual to extract ten body measurements according to our selection and take two full-body pictures of themselves: a frontal and a profile one. We then used the photos to compare the estimated mesh with the user's body shape. Finally, we extracted the body measurements of the estimated mesh and compared those to the measures taken by subjects.

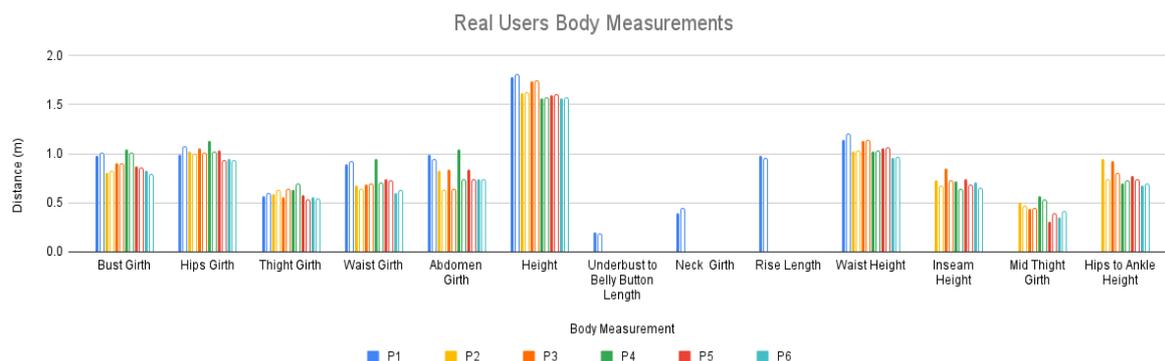


Figure 3: Real users’ final measurements. Each subject corresponds to a different color. The solid bar denotes the actual measurement value (ground truth of a specific person) and the hollow one its estimated value. To simplify the comparison, we show each user’s original measurement value and the estimated one. We evaluated the top ten measurements of each gender, represented in Table 1. There are six common measurements, while the last four are gender-specific.

Body Shape. To evaluate the body shape, we took two pictures of the users: a frontal and a profile one and extracted their silhouette. Finally, these images were placed side by side with their estimated. In Figure 4 we can see the final results. We noticed that our model had difficulty modeling the waist of estimated shapes. In cases where the original shape had hips relatively larger than the waist, as *P3* does, our model returned a shape with a larger waist than it should. However, our model estimated shapes with a waist relatively similar to the hips as having smaller waists. The data set contains the most typical shape variations: A more slim appearance for both represented genders and a waist thinner than the hip for females. This made possible for our model to return better estimations regarding *P1*, *P2*, *P3*, *P4* and *P5*. Since *P6* belongs to a group that is poorly represented in the dataset, the model struggled to estimate its shape. Our model also had difficulties estimating fuller thighs. *P2* is a good example. We see that the frontal silhouette had fuller thighs, something that the estimation does not. However, the interior of the thighs is not very similar. However, the estimations returned new shapes that were pretty similar to the original ones. We asked subjects whether the estimation was similar to their bodies. They pointed the issues that we related in this paper but said that overall the estimated shapes looked like them. We concluded that our model could correctly estimate body shapes from a few body measurements.

Body Measurements. We evaluated the body measurements of the estimations and compared them with the original ones and the results obtained from measuring estimations are represented in Figure 3. We noticed that the estimated height and waist height measurements in female estimations were the same as the original ones. However, the other height mea-

surements had some errors associated because people found it difficult to understand how to measure themselves. Other slight errors may be associated with the fluctuation of the waist point in the dataset meshes. The measurement that had more error associated was abdomen girth, with a distance difference reaching up to *31cm*. We believe this is also because the vertex fluctuations on the meshes and the girth extracted might sometimes be more similar to the waist than the abdomen itself. The estimations of the bust girth were usually smaller than the original, reaching a distance difference of *5cm* in the worst case. However, some measurements did not behave like this: thigh girth and mid-thigh girth estimations had a higher measurement value than the original value.

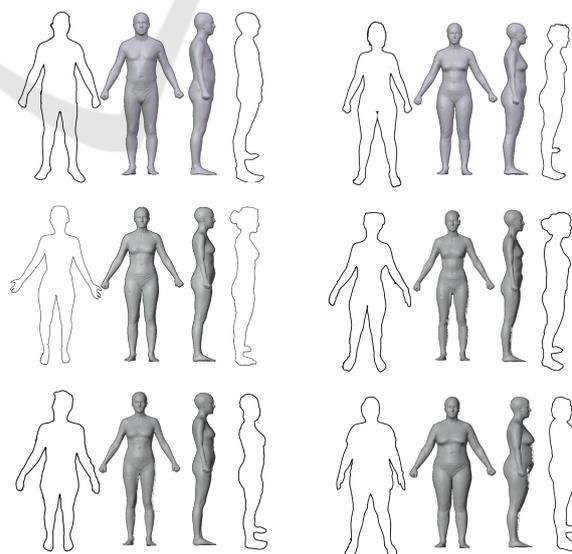


Figure 4: Visual comparison of real users silhouette with their correspondent shape estimation using the top 8 measurements subset. From left to right and top to bottom we called these estimations *P1*, *P2*, *P3*, *P4*, *P5* and *P6*.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We compared two models, one using PCA weights and the other using linear transformations to estimate new shapes and concluded that PCA weights are less adequate to estimate body shapes from measurements. While evaluating with real users, we estimated our linear model using our top eight subsets. Then, similarly to the validation step, we evaluated the resulting body shape and measurement estimations. We conclude that our model is not appropriate for estimating new shapes with similar body measurements as the original form. Moreover, since we aim to develop a virtual dressing room, there are concerns about how similar the estimated shape is to the actual user body. If the measurements differ, instead of helping people, our technique may mislead them into buying the wrong size clothes. On the other side, our model provided new body shapes that were very similar to the original ones. The users also supported this because the majority said that the estimation had a similar shape to theirs. Our models can then simulate garment fitting and rendering in virtual dressing rooms. Future work includes estimating measurements from a single photograph for a more expedited user experience.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The work reported in this article was partly supported by national funds through Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (FCT) under project UIDB/50021/2020.

REFERENCES

- Anguelov, D., Srinivasan, P., Koller, D., Thrun, S., Rodgers, J., and Davis, J. (2005). Scape: Shape completion and animation of people. In *ACM SIGGRAPH 2005 Papers*, SIGGRAPH '05, page 408–416, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Aubel, A. and Thalmann, D. (2000). Realistic deformation of human body shapes. In Magnenat-Thalmann, N., Thalmann, D., and Arnaldi, B., editors, *Computer Animation and Simulation 2000*, pages 125–135, Vienna. Springer Vienna.
- Baek, S.-Y. and Lee, K. (2012). Parametric human body shape modeling framework for human-centered product design. *Computer-Aided Design*, 44(1):56 – 67. Digital Human Modeling in Product Design.
- Chen, Y., Song, Z., Xu, W., Martin, R. R., and Cheng, Z.-Q. (2019). Parametric 3d modeling of a symmetric human body. *Computers & Graphics*, 81:52 – 60.
- Dibra, E., Jain, H., Öztireli, C., Ziegler, R., and Gross, M. (2016). Hs-nets: Estimating human body shape from silhouettes with convolutional neural networks. In *2016 Fourth International Conference on 3D Vision (3DV)*, pages 108–117.
- Dijkstra, E. W. (1959). A note on two problems in connexion with graphs. *Numerische mathematik*, 1(1):269–271.
- Goldman, S. (2021). Post-pandemic e-commerce: The unstoppable growth of online shopping.
- Iwamoto, N., Shum, H. P. H., Yang, L., and Morishima, S. (2015). Multi-layer lattice model for real-time dynamic character deformation. *Computer Graphics Forum*, 34(7):99–109.
- Kanazawa, A., Black, M. J., Jacobs, D. W., and Malik, J. (2018). End-to-end recovery of human shape and pose. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*.
- Loper, M., Mahmood, N., Romero, J., Pons-Moll, G., and Black, M. J. (2015). Smpl: A skinned multi-person linear model. *ACM Trans. Graph.*, 34(6).
- Pezzini, G. (2021). Why physical stores are still vital for retail.
- Pratscher, M., Coleman, P., Laszlo, J., and Singh, K. (2005). \mathbb{R}^3 anatomy based character rigging. In *Proceedings of the 2005 ACM SIGGRAPH/Eurographics Symposium on Computer Animation*, SCA '05, page 329–338, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Saito, S., Simon, T., Saragih, J., and Joo, H. (2020). Pifuhd: Multi-level pixel-aligned implicit function for high-resolution 3d human digitization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*.
- Seo, H. and Magnenat-Thalmann, N. (2003). An automatic modeling of human bodies from sizing parameters. In *Proceedings of the 2003 Symposium on Interactive 3D Graphics*, I3D '03, page 19–26, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Volz, A., Blum, R., Häberling, S., and Khakzar, K. (2007). Automatic, body measurements based generation of individual avatars using highly adjustable linear transformation. In Duffy, V. G., editor, *Digital Human Modeling*, pages 453–459, Berlin, Heidelberg. Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Wuhrer, S. and Shu, C. (2012). Estimating 3d human shapes from measurements. *Machine Vision and Applications*, 24(6):1133–1147.
- Yang, Y., Yu, Y., Zhou, Y., Du, S., Davis, J., and Yang, R. (2014). Semantic parametric reshaping of human body models. In *2014 2nd International Conference on 3D Vision*, volume 2, pages 41–48.
- Zhang, T., Wang, J., Zhu, Q., and Yin, B. (2020). See through occlusions: Detailed human shape estimation from a single image with occlusions. In *2020 IEEE International Conference on Image Processing (ICIP)*, pages 2646–2650.
- Zhu, H., Zuo, X., Wang, S., Cao, X., and Yang, R. (2019). Detailed human shape estimation from a single image by hierarchical mesh deformation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*.