

Image segmentation

\rightarrow Towards image analysis

Goal: Describe the *contents* of an image, distinguishing meaningful information from irrelevant one.

First step: **Segmentation**, i.e. subdivision of the image into its constituent parts or objects. Autonomous segmentation is one of the most difficult tasks in image processing!

Segmentation algorithms are based on two basic properties of graylevel values:

• **Discontinuity**: the image is partitioned based on *abrupt changes* in gray level. Main approach is **edge detection**.

• **Similarity**: the image is partitioned into *homogeneous* regions. Main approaches are **thresholding**, **region growing**, and **region splitting and merging**.

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Toy problem & kids' problem



FIGURE 10.1 (a) Image containing a region of constant intensity. (b) Image showing the boundary of the inner region, obtained from intensity discontinuities. (c) Result of segmenting the image into two regions. (d) Image containing a textured region. (e) Result of edge computations. Note the large number of small edges that are connected to the original boundary, making it difficult to find a unique boundary using only edge information. (f) Result of segmentation based on region properties.



3 basic types of discontinuities in digital images: **Points, Lines, Edges**.

SNR-optimal *linear* filter in i.i.d. Gaussian noise: matched filter, a.k.a. template matching, a.k.a. cross-correlation approach



(c): g = |filter(f)| (d): |g| > T, with T = 0.9 * max(|g|)



Thin line detection

The output of the convolution will be stronger where a one-pixel-wide line is present in the corresponding direction.

Note: zero-sum masks (~ second-order directional derivative)

-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	2	-1	2	-1	2	-1	-1
2	2	2	-1	2	-1	-1	2	-1	-1	2	-1
-1	-1	-1	2	-1	-1	-1	2	-1	-1	-1	2
Horizontal		·	$+45^{\circ}$		````	Vertica	 1		-45°		



Edge: boundary between two regions with significantly distinct gray levels

Edge models, (also for *roof* edge):



Typical real-world problems:

- edges with different slopes
- objects with different sizes
 - → scale-space operators?
- uneven illumination
- not significant (?) details
- noise







 \rightarrow

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(x+1) - f(x)$$

First-order derivative has nonzero phase response

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = [f(x+1) - f(x)] - [f(x) - f(x-1)]$$
$$= f(x+1) + f(x-1) - 2f(x)$$

Ideal ramp edge plus noise having std = 0.1, 1, 10 gray levels (out of 256); first- and second-order derivatives



1-D case



Image segmentation: discontinuities 2-D case

Gradient







)			COy
	-1	0	0
	0	1	1

x

Laplacian
$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

1

Sobel H/V or 45/135 deg.



-1

$$x = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)$$

0	0	-1	

0

0	0	0	-2	0	2
1	2	1	-1	0	1
0	1	2	-2	-1	0
-1	0	1	-1	0	1
-2	-1	0	0	1	2

Sobel





a b c d

FIGURE 10.16 (a) Original image of size 834×1114 pixels, with intensity values scaled to the range [0, 1]. (b) $|g_x|$, the component of the gradient in the x-direction, obtained using the Sobel mask in Fig. 10.14(f) to filter the image. (c) $|g_y|$, obtained using the mask in Fig. 10.14(g). (d) The gradient image, $|g_x| + |g_y|$.



Edges from diagonal masks







a b c d

FIGURE 10.18

Same sequence as in Fig. 10.16, but with the original image smoothed using a 5×5 averaging filter prior to edge detection.



Thresholded images



a b

FIGURE 10.20 (a) Thresholded version of the image in Fig. 10.16(d), with the threshold selected as 33% of the highest value in the image; this threshold was just high enough to eliminate most of the brick edges in the gradient image. (b) Thresholded version of the image in Fig. 10.18(d), obtained using a threshold equal to 33% of the highest value in that image.



Edge detection based on **zero crossings of second-order derivative** (*Marr-Hildreth operator*)

Standard implementation of a Laplacian:

0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1
-1	4	-1	-1	8	-1
0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1

- Its magnitude produces double edges
- Unable to detect the edge direction
- Very sensitive to noise \rightarrow use Laplacian of Gaussian instead:

$$G(r) = \exp(-r^2/2\sigma^2); \qquad r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad -K \le x, y \le K$$
$$\nabla G(r) = \left(\frac{-r}{\sigma^2}\right) \exp(-r^2/2\sigma^2); \qquad \nabla^2 G(r) = -\left(\frac{r^2 - \sigma^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \exp(-r^2/2\sigma^2)$$



"Mexican hat" filter







0	0	-1	0	0
0	-1	-2	-1	0
-1	-2	16	-2	-1
0	-1	-2	-1	0
0	0	-1	0	0

а	b
С	d

FIGURE 10.21 (a) Threedimensional plot of the *negative* of the LoG. (b) Negative of the LoG displayed as an image. (c) Cross section of (a) showing zero crossings. (d) 5×5 mask approximation to the shape in (a).

To detect the zero crossings of the LoG image:

- center a 3x3 mask on each pixel p(x,y) of the LoG image
- check all pairs (p₁,p₂) of opposite neighbors (l/r, u/d, 45, 135)
- *p* is edge if at least in one pair pixels have different sign
- to reduce "noise", consider only {p: abs(p₁-p₂)>thresh.}







FIGURE 10.22 (a) Original image of size 834×1114 pixels, with intensity values scaled to the range [0, 1]. (b) Results

scaled to the range [0, 1]. (b) Results of Steps 1 and 2 of the Marr-Hildreth algorithm using $\sigma = 4$ and n = 25. (c) Zero crossings of (b) using a threshold of 0 (note the closedloop edges). (d) Zero crossings found using a threshold equal to 4% of the maximum value of the image in (b). Note the thin edges.







Comparison between Sobel (before thresholding) and zero crossings of LoG

Edges in LoG are thinner and tend to form loops; objects size is altered

Quality criteria

- small false alarm rate, small missed detection rate
- good localization
- one-pixel-wide edges
 - → Canny edge detector



Canny operator

- A good approximation of an ideal detector for 1-D noisy stepedges is the derivative of the Gaussian $\nabla G(x) = \left(\frac{-x}{\sigma^2}\right) \exp(-x^2/2\sigma^2)$
- In 2D, its response should be independent of the direction of the edge → circularly symmetric lowpass Gaussian filter, followed by computation of the gradient
- |G(x,y)| shows thick patterns → non-maxima suppression:
 1. determine the quantized direction d_k of the gradient
 2. if |G(x,y)| < at least one of its neighbours along d_k then set it to zero
- Perform hysteresis thresholding to reduce false alarms

Canny operator

Non-maxima suppression: gradient directions





a b c

FIGURE 10.24 (a) Two possible

(a) Two possible orientations of a horizontal edge (in gray) in a 3×3 neighborhood. (b) Range of values (in gray) of α , the direction angle of the edge normal, for a horizontal edge. (c) The angle ranges of the edge normals for the four types of edge directions in a 3×3 neighborhood. Each edge direction has two ranges, shown in corresponding shades of gray.



Canny operator:

Hysteresis thresholding

reduces both false alarms and missed detections

- 1. Set two thresholds: $T_{\rm L}$ and $T_{\rm H}$, with $T_{\rm H} \cong$ 3 $T_{\rm L}$
- 2. Generate two binary images:

 $G_{H} = \{|G(x,y)| > T_{H}\}$ (strong edges)

 $G_{L} = \{|G(x,y)| > T_{L}\}$ (strong and weak edges)

- 3. Eliminate from G_L all strong edge pixels (pixels that are nonzero in G_H): $G_L = G_L G_H$
- 4. Label all pixels in $G_{\rm H}$ as edge
- 5. Fill *edge gaps*:
 - a. Visit each nonzero pixel p in G_H and mark as edge all pixels

in G_L that are 8-connected to p

- b. Reset all unmarked pixels in G_{L}
- c. Final edge image = $G_{\rm H} + G_{\rm L}$

 $T_{\rm L} = 0.04, T_{\rm H} = 0.10$ (normalized pixel values) $\sigma = 4$, mask size =25x25





a b c d

FIGURE 10.25 (a) Original image of size 834×1114 pixels, with intensity values scaled to the range [0, 1].(b) Thresholded gradient of smoothed image. (c) Image obtained using the Marr-Hildreth algorithm. (d) Image obtained using the Canny algorithm. Note the significant improvement of the Canny image compared to the other two.





FIGURE 10.26 (a) Original he

(a) Original head CT image of size 512×512 pixels, with intensity values scaled to the range [0, 1]. (b) Thresholded gradient of smoothed image. (c) Image obtained using the Marr-Hildreth algorithm. (d) Image obtained using the Canny algorithm. (Original image courtesy of Dr. David R. Pickens, Vanderbilt University.)

 $T_{\rm L} = 0.05,$ $T_{\rm H} = 0.15$ σ = 2, mask size =13x13





We need **closed boundaries** for objects in image

- Local processing: image points with similar gradient

Join the detected edge pixels according to their similarity (e.g., similar *amplitude* and *direction* of the gradient), and form a boundary

E.g.: looking for rectangles

- calculate image gradient G(x,y)
- scan G(x,y) along rows and build binary edge image, setting pixels where $|G| > K\% |G|_{max}$ and $G_{angle} = \pm 90 \pm \delta$ deg.
- re-scan by rows and fill gaps shorter than *L*
- do the same by columns, $G_{angle} = 0 \pm \delta$, or $180 \pm \delta$ deg.
- add the two resulting images



K = 30 δ = 45 deg. *L* = 25 px.

 \rightarrow Note

detected



FIGURE 10.27 (a) A 534 \times 566 image of the rear of a vehicle. (b) Gradient magnitude image. (c) Horizontally connected edge pixels. (d) Vertically connected edge pixels. (e) The logical OR of the two preceding images. (f) Final result obtained using morphological thinning. (Original image courtesy of Perceptics Corporation.)



- Global processing: the Hough transform
 - A more efficient method to detect straight lines
 - Can be generalized to curves

Principle: transform (edge) points into lines

- 1. Generic line through a point in the image (x_i, y_i) : $y_i = ax_i + b$
- 2. In the parameters space (*a*,*b*), (x_i, y_i) define a line $b = -x_i a + y_i$
- 3. Take a second point in the *image* along the *same* generic line; its representation in the parameters space is:

$$(x_j, y_j): y_j = ax_j + b \implies b = -x_j a + y_j$$

- 4. Note that the two lines in the parameters space are *no longer the same line* (their slope and intercept *x*, *y* are different)
- 5. Let (a',b') be the coordinates at which the two lines intercept in the parameters space
- 6. a' and b' are the slope and intercept of the specific line through $(x_i, y_i), (x_j, y_j)$



- Global processing: the Hough transform



7. All points located on such a line in the image plane map to lines in the parameters space which intersect at (a',b') [indeed, the line in the image plane sets a well-defined pair of (slope, intersect) values]



an edge point

Image segmentation: edge linking





Suppose the image contains discontinuous straight edges that we want to connect Subdivide the parameters space into a matrix A(a,b) of cells and reset it For each edge point (x_i, y_i) in the image For each value of a solve $b = -x_i a + y_i$ increment A(a,b)Each run of the inner loop plots a line in A that corresponds to

The value Q in A(a,b) indicates that Q edge points in the image lie on a line of slope a and intersect b

 \rightarrow Bright points in A show the parameters of the main edges in the image.

Problem: vertical edges are difficult to represent since *a* tends to infinity Solution: use the *normal form* (trigonometric form) of a line:





- Global processing: the Hough transform

Points in the image space now define a sinusoid in the parameters space Let $(x_i, y_i), (x_j, y_j)$ define two sinusoids that intersect in $(\rho', \theta') \rightarrow$ these are the parameters of a line through $(x_i, y_i), (x_j, y_j)$ in the image Define a matrix $A(\rho, \theta)$ and reset it. For each edge point in the image

For each value of heta; find ho; increment A(ho, heta)

 \rightarrow Bright points in A show the parameters of the main edges in the image









FIGURE 10.34 (a) A 502×564 aerial image of an airport. (b) Edge image obtained using Canny's algorithm. (c) Hough parameter space (the boxes highlight the points associated with long vertical lines). (d) Lines in the image plane corresponding to the points highlighted by the boxes). (e) Lines superimposed on the original image.

E.g.: The Hough transform can be used to find reference lines in sports-field homographies (see slide in GeometricTransf)



- Global processing: the Hough transform

• Note 1:

Length of a segment is determined looking back at the positions of the edge points (first, last, aligned clusters) that contribute to $A(\rho, \theta)$

• Note 2:

The HT can be used in principle for any edge shape, represented by a function of the type g(v, coef) = 0, where v is a vector of coordinates and **coef** is a vector of coefficients.

→ E.g.: looking for circular objects: $(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 = c^2$

Three parameters (a,b,c), 3-D parameter space, cube-like cells, accumulator takes the form A(i,j,k).

Procedure:

- 1. Increment a and b
- 2. Solve for c
- 3. Update the accumulator associated with (a,b,c)



Thresholding



a b

FIGURE 10.26 (a) Gray-level histograms that can be partitioned by (a) a single threshold, and (b) multiple thresholds.



Thresholding (global)

for noisy or textured objects



FIGURE 10.36 (a) Noiseless 8-bit image. (b) Image with additive Gaussian noise of mean 0 and standard deviation of 10 intensity levels. (c) Image with additive Gaussian noise of mean 0 and standard deviation of 50 intensity levels. (d)–(f) Corresponding histograms.

(Edge-preserving noise smoothing preprocessing useful)



Thresholding (global)



FIGURE 10.37 (a) Noisy image. (b) Intensity ramp in the range [0.2, 0.6]. (c) Product of (a) and (b). (d)–(f) Corresponding histograms.

(Retinex preprocessing useful)

illumination x reflectance model



Thresholding (global)

(Morphological postprocessing useful)



A simple algorithm: Select a first value for T=T(0); threshold the image; evaluate the average gray-levels *Ga*, *Gb* of the two groups; set T(1)=(Ga+Gb)/2; repeat until $|T(k)-T(k-1)| < \varepsilon$

Optimal for split histograms, suboptimal for generic bimodal histograms (see later), unusable for single mode or multimodal histograms



Thresholding (global, optimal)

FIGURE 10.32 Gray-level probability density functions of two regions in an image.



More formally: A bimodal histogram can indicate the presence of two objects in the image, i.e. it can be the weighted sum of two unimodal densities (one for light, one for dark areas): $p(z) = P_1 p_1(z) + P_1 p_2(z)$

The parameters (probabilities P_1 and P_2 , with $P_1 + P_2 = 1$) are proportional to the areas of the picture of each brightness.

If a mathematical expression for the densities $p_1(z)$, $p_2(z)$ is known or assumed, determining an optimal (e.g. MMSE) threshold is possible.



Thresholding (global, optimal)

Consider a simple case (Ming Jiang 5.1.2)-



Figure 5.4 Grey level histograms approximated by two normal distributions; the threshold is set to give minimum probability of segmentation error: (a) Probability distributions of background and objects, (b) corresponding histograms and optimal threshold.



Thresholding (global, optimal)

using a *confusion matrix*



Above threshold

TP: # true positive FP: # false positive

Below threshold

TN: # true negative FN: # false negative



Thresholding (global, optimal)

Assume the image consists of object(s) and background, where the object occupy P_1 of the pixels ($P_1 + P_2 = 1$). Assume both object and background are subject to a **Normal** distribution; by the total probability rule, the image has the following density function:

$$p(z) = \frac{P_1}{\sigma_1 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(z - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}) + \frac{P_2}{\sigma_2 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(z - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2})$$

Let *T* be the threshold. A mis-segmentation takes place in two cases:

* Background pixels mis-classified into object pixels (FP): the error probability (or the number of errors) is *E1*

* Object pixels mis-classified into background pixels (FN): the error probability (or the number of errors) is *E2*

$$E1(T) = \int_T^\infty p_1(z)dz; \qquad E2(T) = \int_{-\infty}^T p_2(z)dz$$

The total segmentation error is $E(T) = P_1 E I(T) + P_2 E 2(T)$



Thresholding (global, optimal)

The total mis-segmentation error is $E(T) = P_1 E1(T) + P_2 E2(T)$ The optimal threshold is $T^* = \arg \min\{E(T)\}$. Differentiating E(T): $P_1 E1'(T) + P_2 E2'(T) = 0$

Substituting the formula for the Gaussian into the above equation:

$$\frac{P_1}{\sigma_1 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(T-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}) = -\frac{P_2}{\sigma_2 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(T-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2})$$
$$\frac{(T-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{(T-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2} = \log\frac{P_1\sigma_2}{P_2\sigma_1}$$

Two specific examples:

• If the s.d. are the same:

$$T^* = \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu_1 - \mu_2} \log \frac{P_1}{P_2} + \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}$$

• If the s.d. are the same and $P_1 = P_2 = 1/2$: $T^* = \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}$



Thresholding (Otsu)

no hypotheses on the distribution; method based just on image histogram

For any interval of gray levels [K1, K2], define CDF, mean, variance:

$$P = \sum_{i=K1}^{K2} p_i = \left(\sum_{i=K1}^{K2} n_i\right) / N; \qquad \mu = \sum_{i=K1}^{K2} i p_i; \qquad \sigma^2 = \sum_{i=K1}^{K2} (i - \mu)^2 p_i;$$

All are functions of (*K*1,*K*2), omitted

- Let class 1 be formed by all pixels whose gray level is ≤ a threshold T; class 2 by pixels > T;
- Define the between-class variance σ²_B as the squared distance of the mean intensity value of each class μ₁, μ₂ from the global mean μ_G, weighted by the relative fraction of pixels in the class P₁, P₂:

$$\mu_G = P_1 \mu_1 + P_2 \mu_2$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = P_1 (\mu_1 - \mu_G)^2 + P_2 (\mu_2 - \mu_G)^2 = P_1 P_2 (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2$$



Thresholding (Otsu)

Otsu: All possible thresholds are evaluated, and the one (T^*) that maximizes the between-class variance is chosen.

- BTW, this is equivalent to finding the minimum *intra-class* variance
- σ_B^2 is a measure of separation between the classes
- Quality of result is given by the *normalized between-class variance*, called separability, measured at T*

$$\eta(T) = \sigma_B^2(T) / \sigma_G^2 \qquad 0 \le \eta(T) \le 1$$

• Otsu's method can be extended to multiple thresholds

Thresholding (Otsu)







FIGURE 10.39 (a) Original image. (b) Histogram (high peaks were clipped to highlight details in the lower values). (c) Segmentation result using the basic global algorithm from Section 10.3.2. (d) Result obtained using Otsu's method.

 $T^* = 181$ $\eta = 0.467$

T = 169



0

Region growing



A defective weld

1. Select seed regions (e.g. values in the upmost 1% of the distribution)





Region growing

- 2. Detect all connected components, then erode them to one pixel
- 3. Define a predicate for the pixels of the image. E.g.: *«the luminance difference wrt the average of the original seed area is below a threshold; and the pixel is 8*
 - connected to at least one pixel in the region»
- 4. Sequentially append to the eroded seeds all the pixels that satisfy the predicate









Region splitting and merging



Define a predicate *P* [e.g.: *«the variance is below a threshold»*], and subdivide the image in regions for which *P* is satisfied. More precisely:

- **1.** Split into four quadrants any region *Ri* for which P(Ri) = false. Stop when a given min. size is reached (e.g. 1x1) \rightarrow a quadtree is created
- Merge any *adjacent* regions *Ri*, *Rj* for which *P*(*Ri* U *Rj*)=*true*. Stop when no further merging is possible



Watersheds

- The image is treated as a topographic map: gray level = height
- *Watershed lines* divide *catchment basins*
- Flooding is applied (a hole is punched in each local minimum, and water enters from below)
- Dams are built to prevent merging between basins

FIGURE 10.44

(a) Original
image.
(b) Topographic
view. (c)–(d) Two
stages of flooding.





Watersheds

- The final dams are the desired segmentation result (fig. h)
- Watershed lines form a connected path → continuous boundaries

Watershed segmentation is often applied to the *gradient* of the image



e f g h

FIGURE 10.44 (Continued) (e) Result of further flooding. (f) Beginning of merging of water from two catchment basins (a short dam was built between them). (g) Longer dams. (h) Final watershed (segmentation) lines. (Courtesy of Dr. S. Beucher, CMM/Ecole des Mines de Paris.)



Watersheds

Example

a b c d

FIGURE 10.46 (a) Image of blobs. (b) Image gradient. (c) Watershed lines. (d) Watershed lines superimposed on original image. (Courtesy of Dr. S. Beucher, CMM/Ecole des Mines de Paris.)





Fast Marching

sensors



Article

Lung Nodule Segmentation with a Region-Based Fast Marching Method

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Video segmentation

- Refers to both (spatial) *frame* segm. and (temporal) *shot* segm.
- We study *frame* segmentation here

MOTION is a useful cue for segmentation, even for humans.

- The trivial way: compare two successive frames, pixel by pixel, and search pixels for *significant* changes; **Difference Image** takes value 1 in positions where $| frame_n(x,y) - frame_{n-k}(x,y) | > T$ (k>=1)

This is sensitive to noise, spatial misregistration (camera motion or shake), variations of illumination

- Accumulative Difference Image (ADI): each pixel is a *counter*, incremented every time a significant difference is found between that location in a frame of the sequence and the same location in a *reference frame*. The reference frame can be the first one of the sequence.

E.g. Absolute ADI (A-ADI):

increment if $| ref(x,y) - frame_n(x,y) | > T$



Determination of the **reference** image is not trivial

Example: build a static reference image using ADIs

- when the white car has moved completely out of its position in the ref. frame, copy the corresponding background in the present frame into the ref. frame.
- repeat for all moving objects.



FIGURE 10.50 Building a static reference image. (a) and (b) Two frames in a sequence. (c) Eastbound automobile subtracted from (a) and the background restored from the corresponding area in (b). (Jain and Jain.)



Example: intrusion detection

Acquire a frame once per second and compare to the previous one:

- divide each frame into 8x8 blocks
- compute the SAD (sum of absolute differences) for each block in the same position in the two frames
- group 16 adjacent blocks to form 32x32 *macroblocks* (MBs)
- for each MB, calculate N_1 = number of blocks with SAD > T_1
- calculate N_2 = number of MBs with $N_1 > T_2$
- if $N_2 > T_3 \rightarrow \text{alarm}$









 $T_1 = 10$



 $T_1 = 20$

MBs with at least 6 blocks "with movement" ($T_2 = 6$)





Further reading (e.g.)

Main topic	Subtopics	Main points
Moving object extraction	How do we separate moving objects from their background. Methods of estimating the background. Methods of adapting the background model. Using morphology to improve silhouette quality.	Averaging and median filter for estimation of background image; background separation by subtraction; improvement by mixture of Gaussians and thresholding. Problems: Colour, lighting and shadows. Using erosion and dilation; opening and closing. Connected component analysis.
Tracking moving objects	Tracking single and multiple objects; achieving temporal consistency in the tracking process; modelling linear system dynamics.	Tracking by local search; the Lucas—Kanade approach. Including movement in the tracking process; Kalman filter; multiple object tracking; the Condensation algorithm; feature point versus background subtraction; problems and solutions. Camshift and Meanshift approaches. Tracking with object detection.
Analysis	Moving shape analysis and description.	Describing motion and extracting moving shapes by <i>evidence gathering</i> . Adding velocity and movement into the shape description. Describing the moving object for <i>recognition</i> purposes.

Mark S. Nixon and Alberto S. Aguado, "Feature Extraction and Image Processing for Computer Vision", Academic Press, Fourth Edition, 2020 (Ch.9)