

**ECE 2026    Spring 2015**  
**Lab #7: FIR Filtering of Digital Images**

Date: 23–26 February 2015

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**You should read the Pre-Lab section of the lab and do all the exercises in the Pre-Lab section before your assigned lab time.**

**Verification:** The Warm-up section of each lab must be completed **during your assigned Lab time** and the steps marked *Instructor Verification* must also be signed off **during the lab time**. When you have completed a step that requires verification, simply raise your hand and demonstrate the step to the TA or instructor. After completing the warm-up section, turn in the verification sheet to your TA *before leaving the lab*.

It is only necessary to turn in Section 4 as the lab report for this lab. More information on the lab report format can be found on t-square under the **INFO** link. Please *label* the axes of your plots and include a title and Figure number for every plot. In order to reduce *orphan plots*, include each plot as a figure *embedded* within your report. This can be done easily with MATLAB's `notebook` capability. For more information on how to include figures and plots from MATLAB in your report file, consult the **INFO** link on t-square, or ask your TA for details.

***Forgeries and plagiarism are a violation of the honor code and will be referred to the Dean of Students for disciplinary action. You are allowed to discuss lab exercises with other students, but you cannot give or receive any written material or electronic files. In addition, you are not allowed to use or copy material from old lab reports from previous semesters. Your submitted work must be your own original work.***

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## 1 Introduction

One objective in this lab is to learn showing how interpolation is used to create color images for a digital camera. For the interpolation, you will learn how to implement FIR filters in MATLAB, and then use these FIR filters to perform the interpolation of images.

### 1.1 Digital Camera Color Imaging

Digital cameras are now ubiquitous because most cell phones come equipped with cameras pictures with digital cameras. When a digital image is recorded, the camera needs to perform a significant amount of processing in order to provide the user with a viewable image.<sup>1</sup> With a little knowledge of DSP, we can investigate some of that processing.

A color image requires at least three color values at each pixel location, usually red, green and blue for a computer image. Ideally, a camera would use three separate sensors in order to measure the red, green and blue intensities at every single pixel location. To reduce size and cost, many cameras use a single sensor array in conjunction with a color filter array. The color filter array (CFA) will pass the red, the green or the blue component of light to a given pixel location on the sensor array. This means that the initially captured image matrix does not contain full color information at any pixel location; rather, any one pixel contains only red, or green, or blue intensity information for that pixel. Therefore, the camera must estimate the two missing color values at each pixel, and this estimation process is known as *demosaicking*.

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<sup>1</sup>Ref: B. K. Gunturk, J. Glotzbach, Y. Altunbasak, R. W. Schafer, R. M. Mersereau, "Demosaicking: Color Filter Array Interpolation in Single-Chip Digital Cameras," Center of Signal and Image Processing, Georgia Institute of Technology, Available at <http://users.ece.gatech.edu/~rmm/fall2003/ece6258/Demosaicking-SPM.pdf>

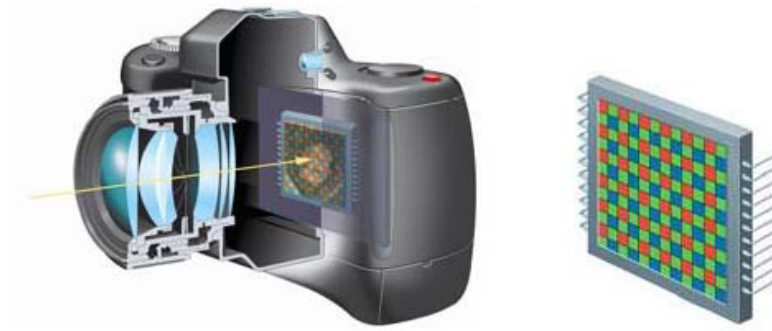


Figure 1: CFA in the digital camera (left), CFA module (right).

### 1.1.1 Bayer CFA

Although several possible patterns exist for the CFA, the Bayer pattern is the one that is most commonly used.<sup>2</sup> As shown in Fig. 2, the Bayer CFA measures the green components of the image on a quincunx

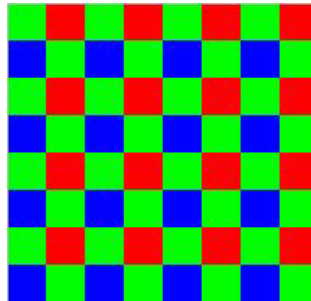


Figure 2: Bayer CFA pattern for an  $8 \times 8$  image.

(checkerboard pattern) grid, while the red and blue components are measured on rectangular grids. The density of green pixels is twice that of either the red or blue pixels.

### 1.1.2 Image Sensors

Two technologies exist to manufacture imaging sensors: CCD (Charge Coupled Device) and CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor). Most digital cameras use CCD sensors. The CCD is a collection of tiny light-sensitive diodes that convert photons (light) into electrons (electrical charge). These diodes are called photosites. As their name suggests, photosites are sensitive to light—the brighter the light that is incident on the photosite, the greater the electrical charge that will accumulate at that site. The amount of electrical charge that accumulated at each photosite (pixel) is read, and an ADC (analog-to-digital converter) turns each pixel's value into a digital value that is recorded. In the block diagram of the imaging system shown in Fig. 3, the 2D array of these digitized intensities is the output of the imaging array.

To summarize:

- A color image requires at least three color samples at each location. This would require three separate sensors at each location.
- For economic and size reasons, cameras are built with a single sensor in each location and a color filter array (CFA).

<sup>2</sup>Note: The Bayer pattern is the exact CFA that should be referred to for the remainder of this lab.

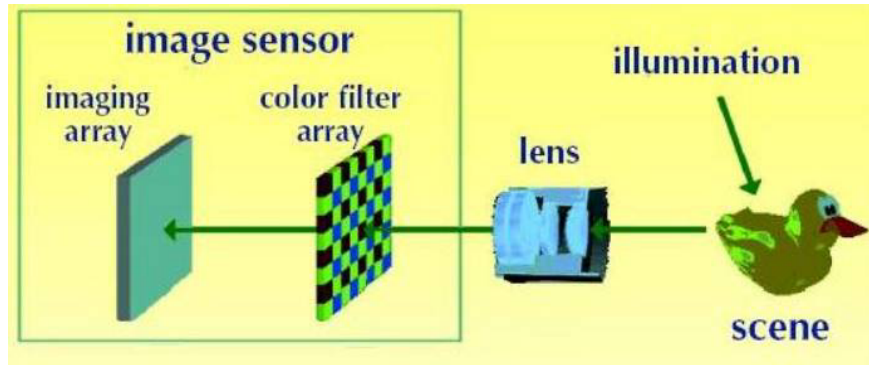


Figure 3: Digital still camera: image capture principle.

- At each pixel location, only one of the three color components is recorded.
- The 2D array of digitized intensities is the starting point for the demosaicking process.
- The DSP algorithm in the camera must estimate the two missing color values at each pixel; this is what will be implemented for the lab project.

## 1.2 Demosaicking Process

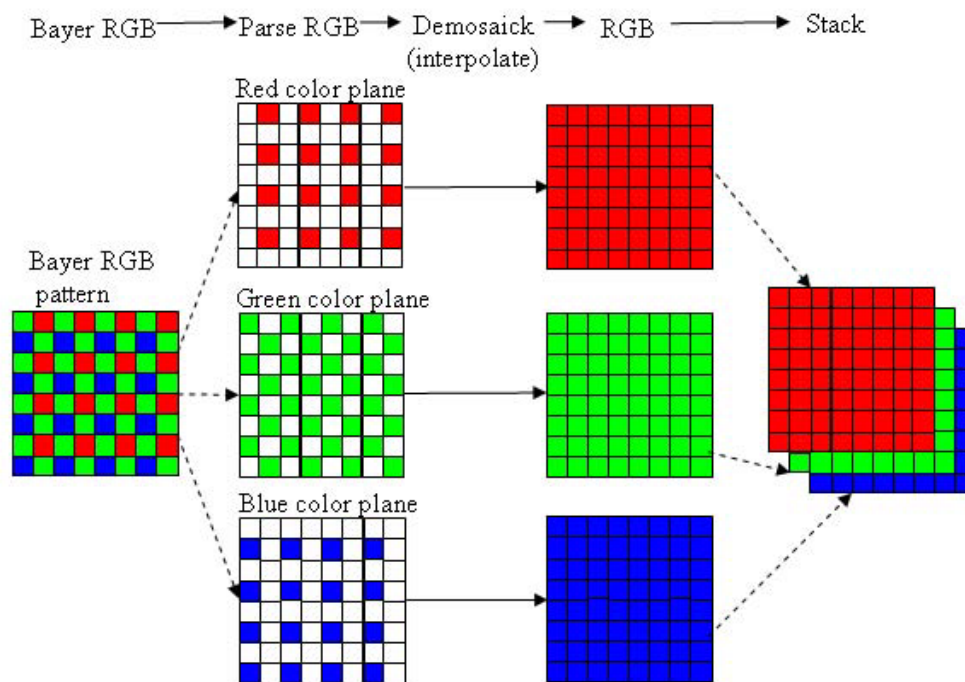


Figure 4: A demosaicking procedure that requires interpolation.

The demosaicking process is illustrated in Fig. 4; the steps in the procedure are as follows:

1. Read in the recorded Bayer CFA array.
2. Then parse the CFA array into three color planes, RGB.
3. Perform different interpolations (with FIR filters) on each of the color planes.

4. Stack the RGB color planes to form a 3D array that can be displayed via `show_img` or `imshow`.

Figure 5 shows the first step of taking the recorded Bayer CFA array (left image) and identifying the RGB color information which is shown in the right image.

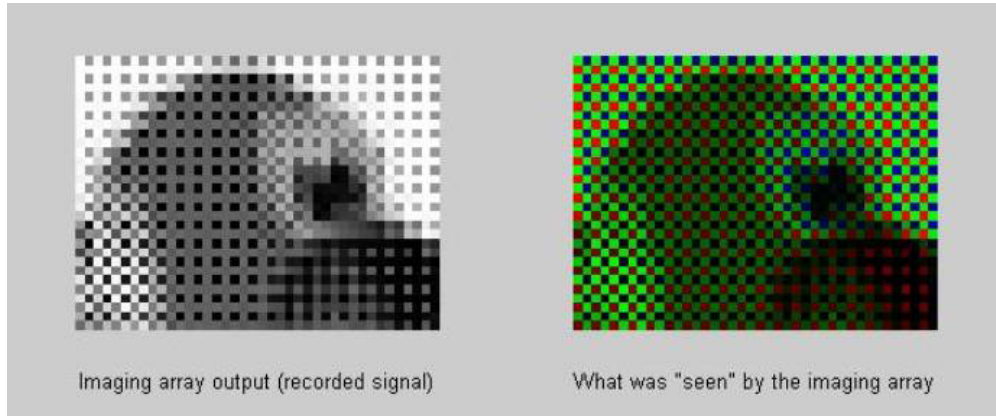


Figure 5: Images at two different stages in the image processing chain: (left) recorded CFA intensities, (right) color image after the RGB pixels have been separated.

## 2 Pre-Lab

The goal of this lab is to learn how to implement FIR filters in MATLAB, and then study the response of FIR filters to various signals, including images or speech. As a result, you should learn how filters can create interesting effects such as blurring and echoes. In addition, we will use FIR filters to study the convolution operation and properties such as linearity and time-invariance.

In the experiments of this lab, you will use `firfilt()`, or `conv()`, to implement 1-D filters and `conv2()` to implement two-dimensional (2-D) filters. The 2-D filtering operation actually consists of 1-D filters applied to all the rows of the image and then all the columns.

### 2.1 Discrete-time Convolution GUI

This lab involves the use of a MATLAB GUI for convolution of discrete-time signals, `dconvdemo`. This is exactly the same as the MATLAB functions `conv()` and `firfilt()` used to implement FIR filters. This demo is part of the *SP-First* Toolbox.

### 2.2 Overview of Filtering

For this lab, we will define an FIR *filter* as a discrete-time system that converts an input signal  $x[n]$  into an output signal  $y[n]$  by means of the weighted summation formula:

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k] \quad (1)$$

Equation (1) gives a rule for computing the  $n^{\text{th}}$  value of the output sequence from present and past values of the input sequence. The filter coefficients  $\{b_k\}$  are constants that define the filter's behavior. As an example, consider the system for which the output values are given by

$$\begin{aligned} y[n] &= \frac{1}{3}x[n] + \frac{1}{3}x[n-1] + \frac{1}{3}x[n-2] \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \{x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]\} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

This equation states that the  $n^{\text{th}}$  value of the output sequence is the average of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  value of the input sequence  $x[n]$  and the two preceding values,  $x[n-1]$  and  $x[n-2]$ . For this example, the  $b_k$ 's are  $b_0 = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $b_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ , and  $b_2 = \frac{1}{3}$ .

MATLAB has two built-in functions, `conv()` and `filter()`, for implementing the operation in (1), and the *SP-First* toolbox supplies another M-file, called `firfilt()`, for the special case of FIR filtering. The function `filter` implements a wider class of filters than just the FIR case. Technically speaking, both the `conv` and the `firfilt` function implement the operation called *convolution*. The following MATLAB statements implement the three-point averaging system of (2):

```
nn = 0:99;           %<--Time indices
xx = cos( 0.08*pi*nn ); %<--Input signal
bb = [1/3 1/3 1/3]; %<--Filter coefficients
yy = firfilt(bb, xx); %<--Compute the output
```

In this case, the input signal `xx` is contained in a vector defined by the cosine function. In general, the vector `bb` contains the filter coefficients  $\{b_k\}$  needed in (1). The `bb` vector is defined in the following way:

$$\text{bb} = [\text{b0}, \text{b1}, \text{b2}, \dots, \text{bM}].$$

In MATLAB, all sequences have finite length because they are stored in vectors. If the input signal has  $L$  nonzero samples, we would normally store only the  $L$  nonzero samples in a vector, and would assume that  $x[n] = 0$  for  $n$  outside the interval of  $L$  samples, i.e., don't store any zero samples unless it suits our purposes. If we process a finite-length signal through (1), then the output sequence  $y[n]$  will be longer than  $x[n]$  by  $M$  samples. Whenever `firfilt()` implements (1), we will find that

$$\text{length}(\text{yy}) = \text{length}(\text{xx}) + \text{length}(\text{bb}) - 1$$

In the experiments of this lab, you will use `firfilt()` to implement FIR filters and begin to understand how the filter coefficients define a digital filtering algorithm. In addition, this lab will introduce examples to show how a filter reacts to different frequency components in the input.

## 2.3 Discrete-Time Convolution Demo

The first objective of this lab is to demonstrate usage of the `dconvdemo` GUI. If you have installed the *SP-First* Toolbox, you will already have this demo on the `matlabpath`. In this demo, you can select an input signal  $x[n]$ , as well as the impulse response of the filter  $h[n]$ . Then the demo shows the *sliding window* view of FIR filtering, where one of the signals must be *flipped and shifted* along the axis when convolution is computed. Figure 6 shows the interface for the `dconvdemo` GUI.

In the pre-lab, you should perform the following steps with the `dconvdemo` GUI.

- Click on the Get  $x[n]$  button and set the input to a finite-length pulse:  $x[n] = (u[n] - u[n-10])$ . Note the length of this pulse.
- Set the filter to a three-point averager by using the Get  $h[n]$  button to create the correct impulse response for the three-point averager. Remember that the impulse response is identical to the  $b_k$ 's for an FIR filter. Also, the GUI allows you to modify the length and values of the pulse.
- Observe that the GUI produces the output signal in the bottom panel.
- When you move the mouse pointer over the index " $n$ " below the signal plot and do a click-hold, you will get a *hand tool* that allows you to move the " $n$ "-pointer to the left or right; or you can use the left and right arrow keys. By moving the pointer horizontally you can observe the sliding window action of convolution. You can even move the index beyond the limits of the window and the plot will scroll over to align with " $n$ ."

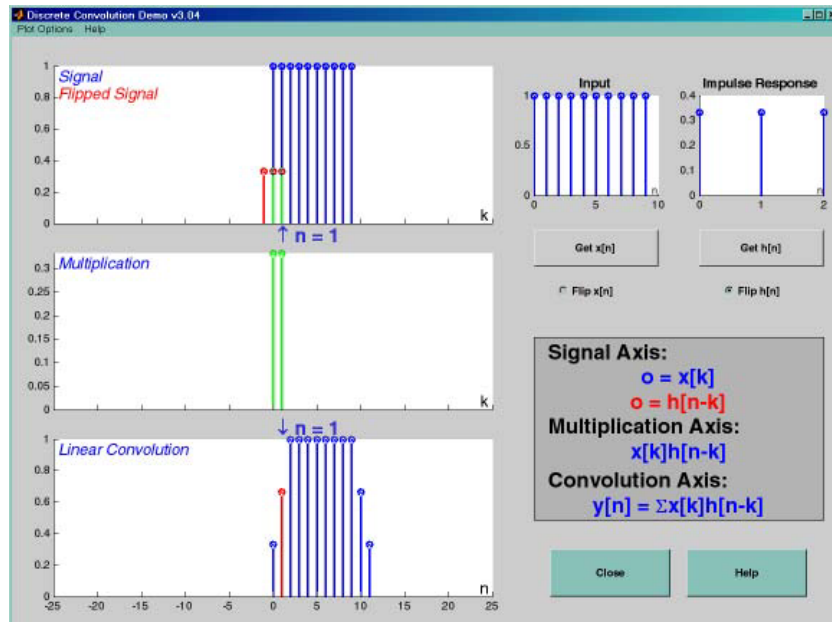


Figure 6: Interface for discrete-time convolution GUI called dconvdemo. This is the convolution of a three-point averager with a ten-point rectangular pulse.

## 2.4 Filtering via Convolution

You can perform the same convolution as done by the dconvdemo GUI by using the MATLAB function `firfilt`, or `conv`. For ECE-2025, the preferred function is `firfilt`.

- (a) For the Pre-Lab, you should do some filtering with a three-point averager. The filter coefficient vector for the three-point averager is defined via:

$$\text{bb} = 1/3 * \text{ones}(1,3);$$

Use `firfilt` to process an input signal that is a length-10 pulse:

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

*Note:* in MATLAB indexing can be confusing. Our mathematical signal definitions start at  $n = 0$ , but MATLAB starts its indexing at “1”. Nevertheless, we can ignore the difference and pretend that MATLAB is indexing from zero, as long as we don’t try to write `x[0]` in MATLAB. For this experiment, generate the length-10 pulse and put it inside of a longer vector with the statement `xx = [ones(1,10), zeros(1,5)]`. This produces a vector of length 15, which has 5 extra zero samples appended.

- (b) To illustrate the filtering action of the three-point averager, it is informative to make a plot of the input signal and output signal together. Since  $x[n]$  and  $y[n]$  are discrete-time signals, a stem plot is needed. One way to put the plots together is to use `subplot(2,1,*)` to make a two-panel display:

```
nn = first:last;      %--- use first=1 and last=length(xx)
subplot(2,1,1);
stem(nn-1,xx(nn))
subplot(2,1,2);
stem(nn-1,yy(nn),'filled')  %--Make black dots
xlabel('Time Index (n)')
```

This code assumes that the output from `firfilt` is called `yy`. Try the plot with `first` equal to the beginning index of the input signal, and `last` chosen to be the last index of the input. In other words, the plotting range for both signals will be equal to the length of the input signal, even though the output signal is longer. Notice that using `nn-1` in the two calls to `stem()` causes the  $x$ -axis to start at zero in the plot.

- (c) Explain the filtering action of the three-point averager by comparing the plots in the previous part. This averaging filter might be called a “smoothing” filter, especially when we see how the transitions in  $x[n]$  from zero to one, and from one back to zero, have been “smoothed.”

### 3 In-Lab Exercises

#### 3.1 Discrete-Time Convolution

In this section, you will generate filtering results needed in a later section. Use the discrete-time convolution GUI, `dconvdemo`, to do the following:

- (a) The convolution of two impulses,  $\delta[n-3] * \delta[n-5]$ .
- (b) Filter the input signal  $x[n] = (-3)\{u[n-2] - u[n-8]\}$  with a first-difference filter. Make  $x[n]$  by selecting the “Pulse” signal type from the drop-down menu within Get `x[n]`, and also use the text box “Delay.”  
Next, set the impulse response to match the filter coefficients of the first-difference. Enter the impulse response values by selecting “User Signal” from the drop-down menu within Get `h[n]`. Illustrate the output signal  $y[n]$  and write a simple formula for  $y[n]$  which should use only two impulses.
- (c) Explain why  $y[n]$  from the previous part is zero for almost all  $n$ .
- (d) Convolve two rectangular pulses: one with an amplitude of 2 and a length of 7, the other with an amplitude of 3 and a length of 4. Make a sketch of the output signal, showing its starting and ending points, as well as its maximum amplitude.
- (e) State the *length* and *maximum amplitude* of the convolved rectangles.
- (f) The first-difference filter can be used to find the *edges* in a signal or in an image. This behavior can be exhibited with the `dconvdemo` GUI. Set the impulse response  $h[n] = \delta[n] - \delta[n-1]$ . In order to set the input signal  $x[n]$ , use the *User Input* option to define  $x[n]$  via the MATLAB statement `double((sin(0.5*(0:50))+0.2)<0)`, which is a signal that has *runs* of zero and ones.  
The output from the convolution  $y[n]$  will have only a few nonzero values. Record the locations of the nonzero values, and explain how these are related to the *transitions* in the input signal. Also, explain why some values of  $y[n]$  are positive, and others are negative.

**Instructor Verification** (separate page)

#### 3.2 Filtering Images via Convolution

One-dimensional FIR filters, such as running averagers and first-difference filters, can be used to process one-dimensional signals such as speech or music. These same filters can be applied to images if we regard each row (or column) of the image as a one-dimensional signal. For example, the 50<sup>th</sup> row of an image is the  $N$ -point sequence `xx[50,n]` for  $1 \leq n \leq N$ , so we can filter this sequence with a 1-D filter using the `conv` or `firfilt` operator, e.g., to filter the  $m_0$ -th row:

$$y_1[m_0, n] = x[m_0, n] - x[m_0, n-1]$$

- (a) Load in the image `echart.mat` (from the *SP-First* Toolbox) with the `load` command. This will create the variable `echart` whose size is  $257 \times 256$ . We can filter one row of the image by applying the `conv()` function to one row extract from the image, `echart(m, :)`.

```
bdiffh = [1, -1];
yy1 = conv(echart(m,:), bdiffh);
```

Pick a row where there are several black-white-black transitions, e.g., choose row number 65, 147, or 221. Display the row of the input image `echart` and the filtered row `yy1` on the screen in the same figure window (with `subplot`). Compare the two stem plots and give a qualitative description of what you see. Note that the polarity (positive/negative) of the impulses will denote whether the transition is from white to black, or black to white. Then explain how to calculate the width of the “E” from the impulses in the stem plot of the filtered row.

*Note:* Use the MATLAB function `find` to get the locations of the impulses in the filtered row `yy1`.

**Instructor Verification** (separate page)

## 4 Homework: FIR Filtering of Images

FIR filters can produce many types of special effects, including:

1. *Edge Detection*: a first-difference FIR filter will have zero output when the input signal is constant, but a large output when the input changes, so we can use such a filter to find edges in an image.
2. *Echo*: FIR filters can produce echoes and reverberations because the filtering formula (1) contains delay terms. In an image, such phenomena would be called “ghosts.”
3. *Deconvolution*: one FIR filter can (approximately) undo the effects of another—we will investigate a cascade of two FIR filters that distort and then restore an image. This process is called *deconvolution*.

In the following sections, we will study how an FIR filter can perform *Edge Detection* as a pre-processing step for measuring the widths of black bars found in the UPC bar codes.

### 4.1 Finding Edges: 1-D Filter Cascaded with a Nonlinear Operators

More complicated systems are often made up from simple building blocks. In the system of Fig. 7, a 1-D FIR filter processes one or more rows; then a second system does detection by using a threshold on the absolute value of the filtered output. If the input row  $x[m_0, n]$  is very “blocky” with transitions between two levels, then the output signal,  $d[m_0, n]$ , should be very *sparse*—mostly zero with only a few nonzero values. In other words,  $d[m_0, n]$  can be written as the sum of a small number of shifted deltas (impulses). The *locations of the impulses* correspond to transitions in the input signal from one level to another. In MATLAB the `find` function can extract the locations and produce an output signal  $\ell[m_0, n]$  that is dense, i.e., no zeros, because a value like  $\ell[m_0, 5]$  is the location of the fifth impulse in  $d[m_0, n]$  which is a positive integer.

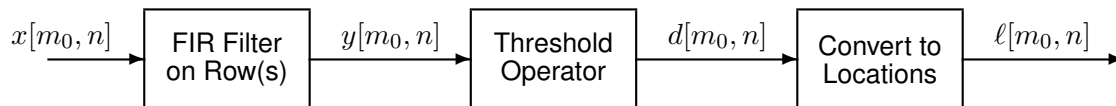


Figure 7: Using an FIR system plus a threshold operator to detect and locate edges, i.e., transitions.



### 4.1.1 Edge Detection and Location via 1-D Filters

Use the function `firfilt()` to implement the “first-difference” FIR filter:  $y[n] = x[n] - x[n - 1]$  on the input signal  $x[n]$  defined via the MATLAB statement:

```
xx = 255*(rem(1:159,30)>19);
```

Doing the first-difference filter in MATLAB requires that you define the vector of filter coefficients `bb` needed for `firfilt`.

- Plot both the input and output waveforms  $x[n]$  and  $y[n]$  on the same figure, using `subplot`. Make the discrete-time signal plots with MATLAB’s `stem` function.
- Explain why the output appears the way it does by writing an explicit mathematical formula for the output signal. In other words, justify the effect of the first-difference operator on this input signal.
- Note that  $y[n]$  and  $x[n]$  are not the same length. Determine the length of the filtered signal  $y[n]$ , and explain how its length is related to the length of  $x[n]$  and the length of the FIR filter.
- The *edges* in a 1-D signal such as `xx` are the transitions. If you need an indicator for the edges, then you must define an additional system whose output is 1 (true) at the “exact” edge location, and 0 (false) otherwise. For example,

$$d[n] = \begin{cases} \text{Edge true if} & |y[n]| \geq \tau \\ \text{Edge false if} & |y[n]| < \tau \end{cases}$$

Determine an appropriate value of the threshold  $\tau$  to get the edges. In MATLAB use the `abs` function along with a logical operator (such as `>` or `<`) to define this thresholding system that gives a “TRUE” binary output for the edges, with  $y[n]$  as the input to this thresholding system.

- Use MATLAB’s `find` function to produce a shorter signal that contains the edge locations; make a stem plot of this “signal,” and determine its length.

*NOTE: you will mark only one side of the transition as true when you threshold the output of the first-difference filter. Is it located before or after the transition?*

## 4.2 Bar Code Detection and Decoding

A 12-digit bar code consists of alternating black and white bars; the white bars appear to be spaces. The UPC (Universal Product Code) uses widths of the bars to encode numbers. There are four widths which are integer multiples of the thinnest black bar, or thinnest white space. We will define a 3-wide black bar as three times as wide as the thinnest black bar; likewise, for 2-wide and 4-wide bars—whether black or white. Look at any bar code, and you should be able to identify the four widths.

Each number from 0 to 9 is encoded with a quadruplet. Here is the encoding of the digits 0–9:

0 = 3-2-1-1	5 = 1-2-3-1
1 = 2-2-2-1	6 = 1-1-1-4
2 = 2-1-2-2	7 = 1-3-1-2
3 = 1-4-1-1	8 = 1-2-1-3
4 = 1-1-3-2	9 = 3-1-1-2

For example, the code for the number “5” is 1-2-3-1, meaning it could be a one-unit wide white space, followed by a 2-wide black bar, followed by a 3-wide white space, and finally a 1-wide black bar (or inverted: 1-wide black, 2-wide white, 3-wide black, and 1-wide white).

The UPC (Universal Product Code) consists of twelve digits delimited on each end by 1-1-1 (black-white-black), and separated in the middle (between the sixth and seventh digit) by white-black-white-black-white (1-1-1-1-1). Thus the entire UPC must have 30 black bars and 29 white bars for a total of 59. Furthermore, note that the encoding for each digit always adds up to seven so the total width of the bar code is always the same. In terms of the unit width where the thinnest bars have width one, it should be easy to determine that the total width of the UPC bar code is 95 units.<sup>3</sup>

#### 4.2.1 Decode the UPC from a Scanned Image

Follow the steps below to develop the processing needed to decode a typical bar code from a scanned image. A decoder for the final step is provided as a MATLAB p-code file. The data files and the decoder for the lab are available from a posted ZIP file.

- (a) Read the image HP110v3.png into MATLAB with the `imread` function. Extract one row (in the middle) to define a 1-D signal  $x[n]$  in the MATLAB vector `xn` for processing.
- (b) Filter the signal  $x[n]$  with a first-difference FIR filter; call the output  $y[n]$ . Make a stem plot of the input and output signals, using a subplot to show both in the same figure window.
- (c) Create a sparse detected signal  $d[n]$  by comparing the magnitude  $|y[n]|$  to a threshold. Then convert the sparse signal  $d[n]$  into a location signal  $\ell[n]$  by using the `find` function to extract locations. Make a stem plot of the location signal,  $\ell[n]$ .

*Note:* The length of the location signal must be greater than or equal to 60, if the rest of the processing is going to succeed.

- (d) Apply a first-difference filter to the location signal; call the output  $\Delta[n]$ ; these should be the widths of the bars. Make a stem plot of  $\Delta[n]$ , and put this plot and the previous one of  $\ell[n]$  in the same figure window by using `subplot`. Explain how the plot of  $\Delta[n]$  conveys the idea that there are (approximately) four different widths in the bar code.
- (e) One problem with the idea of having four widths is that the width of the thinnest bar may not be an integer number of pixels. For example, when the basic width is 3.5, we would expect the plot of  $\Delta[n]$  to jump between 3 and 4 for 1-wide bars. Such variation will complicate the final decoding, so it is important to estimate the *basic width* ( $\theta_1$ ) of the thinnest bar, and use that to fix  $\Delta[n]$ .

First of all, prove that the total width of a valid 12-digit bar code is equal to  $95\theta_1$ . Write a logical argument to justify the total width.

- (f) Next, use the fact that a valid bar code has 59 bars to derive a simple method to estimate  $\theta_1$  from the signal  $\Delta[n]$ . Since the length of  $\Delta[n]$  will generally be greater than 59, it will be necessary to perform this estimate for every subset of length 59.

*Note:* The method for estimating  $\theta_1$  could also be based on the signal  $\ell[n]$ .

- (g) Using your estimate of  $\theta_1$  from the previous part, convert the values of  $\Delta[n]$  into relative sizes by dividing by  $\theta_1$  and rounding. The result should be integers that are equal to 1, 2, 3 or 4, assuming you are analyzing a valid bar code.
- (h) Now you are ready to perform the decoding to digits. A p-code function `decodeUPC` is provided for that purpose. It takes one input vector which has to be a length-59 vector of integers, i.e., the output of the previous part. The function `decodeUPC` has one output which should be a vector of twelve single-digit numbers, if the decoder does not detect an error. When there is an error the output may be partially correct, but the incorrect decodes will be indicated with a -1.

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<sup>3</sup>For an example, see <http://electronics.howstuffworks.com/gadgets/high-tech-gadgets/upc3.htm>.

- (i) For the test image HP110v3.png the correct answer is known because it is included at the bottom of the barcode. Check your result.
- (j) Another image must also be processed; OFFv3.png. In this case, the scan is a bit skewed and the answer is not known. Process this image to extract its UPC from the bar code. The estimate of  $\theta_1$  will be different for this case.

**Final Comment:** Include all images and plots for the previous parts to support your discussions in the lab homework.

**Application: Iris Recognition** *Biometrics* refers to the use of innate human features for identification, e.g., fingerprints. Often a biometric feature requires significant signal processing to be reduced to a simple code. One new biometric is *Iris Recognition*<sup>a</sup> in which the patterns in the colored part of the eye are encoded and used to verify a person's identity. The first step in this type of system is isolating the iris by finding its boundaries. The figure shows a typical image that would have to be processed. A small amount of glare from the lighting of the photo evident on both sides of the pupil makes the processing harder.



Image of an eye showing that the iris region is bounded by the pupil, eyelids and the white region of the eye.

<sup>a</sup>J.Daugman, Statistical Richness of Visual Phase Information: Update on Recognizing Persons by Iris Patterns, *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 2001.

#### 4.2.2 Information About File Formats

Images obtained from JPEG files might come in many different formats. Two precautions are necessary:

1. If MATLAB loads the image and stores it as 8-bit integers, then MATLAB will use an internal data type called `uint8`. The function `show_img( )` cannot handle this format, but there is a conversion function called `double( )` that will convert the 8-bit integers to double-precision floating-point for use with filtering and processing programs.

```
yy = double(xx);
```

You can convert back to 8-bit values with the function `uint8( )`.

2. If the image is a color photograph, then it is actually composed of three “image planes” and MATLAB will store it as a 3-D array. For example, the result of `whos` for a  $545 \times 668$  color image would give:

Name	Size	Bytes	Class
xx	545x668x3	1092180	uint8 array

In this case, you should use MATLAB's image display functions such as `imshow( )` to see the color image. Or you can convert the color image to gray-scale with the function `rgb2gray( )`. For more information on the image processing functions in MATLAB, try `help`:

```
help images
```

**Lab #7****ECE-2026 Spring-2015****WORKSHEET & VERIFICATION PAGE**

*For each verification, be prepared to explain your answer and respond to other related questions that the lab TA's or professors might ask. Turn this page in at the end of your lab period.*

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ gtLoginUserName: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

⇒ Completed Peer Evaluation?  
 Uploaded ZIP file with .m and .doc files?

Part	Observations (Write down answers for each part)
3.1(a)	Convolve impulses: $\delta[n - 3] * \delta[n - 5] =$ write formula
3.1(b)	Rectangular Pulse through a First-Difference filter: $y[n] =$ write formula
3.1(c)	Explain why $y[n]$ is zero for most values of $n$ .
3.1(d)	Convolve two rectangles, sketch result; make sure you have the correct beginning and end!
3.1(e)	Maximum Amplitude and Length of the convolved-rectangles output.
3.1(f)	List the locations of the transitions in the output signal, $y[n]$
3.1(f)	Explain polarity (positive/negative) of the transitions in the output signal, $y[n]$

Verified: \_\_\_\_\_ Date/Time: \_\_\_\_\_

Part 3.2(a) Process one row of the input image `echart` with a 1-D first-difference filter. Explain how the output from the first-difference filter makes it easy to measure the width of black regions. Use MATLAB's `find` function to help in determining the width of the black "E" from the impulses in the first-difference output signal.

Verified: \_\_\_\_\_ Date/Time: \_\_\_\_\_

## Lab #7

ECE-2026 Spring-2015

### LAB HOMEWORK QUESTION

Turn this page in to your lab grading TA at the very beginning of your next scheduled Lab time.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ gtLoginUserName: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part 4.2.1 (a):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (b):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (c):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (d):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (e):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (f):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (g):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (h):** *Explain.*

**Part 4.2.1 (i):** did you match the decoded sequence?

**Part 4.2.1 (j):** what is the decoded sequence?