An Introduction to MATLAB

1 What is MATLAB?

The Mathworks, Inc., makers of MATLAB, claims that MATLAB is “the language of technical computing.” By and large, they are right. MATLAB is widely used in a great number of scientific fields. For those who work with signals and systems, MATLAB is a de facto standard. One of the main reasons for MATLAB’s popularity arises from its wide array of uses. So what is MATLAB?

1.1 MATLAB is a mathematics environment that can easily handle vectors and matrices

MATLAB was originally written to provide an easy-to-use interface to the mathematical subroutines included in LINPACK and EISPACK. These two packages are sets of subroutines written in FORTRAN for a wide variety of linear algebra operations. MATLAB’s original focus on linear algebra means that it has very well developed capabilities for handling vectors and matrices\(^1\). In fact, MATLAB is short for “Matrix Laboratory.” For our purposes, both vectors and matrices are examples of signals—a mathematical environment that can easily handle vectors and matrices makes working with signals just as easy.

Let’s look at an example to see exactly what this buys us. Suppose that we have two signals, \(x\) and \(y\), each of which is simply an array with 100 elements. How would we add these signals in a language like C++? The easiest way probably involves the following fragment of code:

```c
double z[100];
for(int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
    z[i] = x[i] + y[i];
}
```

This is a simple enough piece of code, but it is not as clear as it could be. In MATLAB we can simply do the following:

```matlab
z = x + y;
```

Simply adding two signals (vectors or matrices) with the same size automatically performs an element-by-element sum. Which of these two is easier to understand? Using

\(^1\)Vectors and matrices are simply one- and two-dimensional arrays, respectively
this MATLAB syntax, we can see immediately what is happening. MATLAB takes care of
any necessary looping and variable declarations for us. This is a very common feature in
MATLAB; many operations that you would normally need to perform explicitly in another
programming language can be performed implicitly in MATLAB.

1.2 MATLAB is tool for visualizing data

You are probably very familiar with how much easier it is to interpret a graph than a table
of numbers or a formula. By producing a plot of the relevant data or formula, you can
gain a visual sense of what is going on that otherwise might be lacking. This is one of
the motivations behind the use of graphing calculators in high school math. Simply put,
MATLAB is one of the best tools for visualizing data that is currently available.

You will find that these capabilities very useful in your study of signals and systems. By
looking at a signal, you can often gain some insight into how it behaves. The same applies
to systems. Certain systems are said to “smooth” signals because of the visual appearance
of the resulting signal. In certain cases (like image processing), the visual result of a system
is the primary reason for its use.

1.3 MATLAB is a prototyping language

In many respects, MATLAB is like a UNIX shell. It has the same sort of interactive interface
for normal usage, but it also has most of the standard programming language constructs
like loops and conditional statements. You can put commands into a file and call it as a
script. Alternatively, you can write functions with input and output parameters.

The main difference between MATLAB and programming languages like C++ is the speed
with which you can implement algorithms (especially mathematical algorithms). This is
because MATLAB operates at a higher level than many other programming languages. It is
also usually easier to understand MATLAB code than code in other programming languages.
The sum-of-vectors example given above is a prime example of this. All of this makes
MATLAB a very good prototyping language. It is easy to whip up a “proof of concept”
program in MATLAB to make sure that your algorithm actually works. Then, you can code
a “development” version using a more traditional compiled programming language.

1.4 MATLAB can do more...

One of the key rules of thumb to remember about MATLAB is that it can perform almost
any mathematical task you could want. Often, there will be a built-in function to do what
you want. If it’s not a part of the main MATLAB distribution, it is probably available as
part of an add-on toolbox. Some toolboxes can be purchased from the Mathworks, while
others are developed and distributed for free by third party developers.

In this course, we will be focusing on the core MATLAB distribution and the signal
processing toolbox. (We will also be doing some image processing, but you will not need
the image processing toolbox for this course.) We recommend that you consider purchasing
the student version of MATLAB and the signal processing toolbox; you find it to be useful
throughout your academic career.
2 Demos for the first tutorial lab section

1. Recording, displaying, and manipulating signals in MATLAB
2. Image Compression via JPEG
3. DTMF (Touch-tone) telephone tones

3 Using MATLAB: The basics

3.1 Starting MATLAB

The first step to using MATLAB is to bring up the program on your computer system. Starting MATLAB on a Windows machine or a Macintosh usually requires finding the appropriate icon either on the desktop or in the Start menu\textsuperscript{2}. At a UNIX system, simply typing “matlab” should be sufficient. Note that you can run MATLAB remotely on UNIX servers through telnet or ssh, but MATLAB version 6 generally requires an X-Windows connection to run\textsuperscript{3}. When MATLAB is finished loading, you’ll see the MATLAB program window, possibly with several subwindows. The most important window is the command window, which contains a command prompt that looks something like this:

\texttt{>>}

3.2 How to get help

So now what do you do? Well, the first step is to make use of MATLAB’s single most useful command:

\texttt{>> help}

See that list of categories? You can call help on any of these categories to get an organized list of commands with brief discussions. Then, you can call \texttt{help} on any of the commands for a complete description of that command. The description also includes a “see also” line near the bottom which suggests other commands that may be related to the one you’re looking at. Select a category that looks interesting and call \texttt{help} on it. Do the same for whichever command strikes your fancy. For instance:

\texttt{>> help elmat}
\texttt{>> help why}

Most often you’ll use \texttt{help} in this last capacity. Unfortunately it isn’t so helpful if you don’t know the name of the command you’re looking for. One way around this is to use the \texttt{lookfor} command. For instance, if you know you’re looking for a function that deals with time, you can try:

\texttt{>> lookfor time}

\textsuperscript{2}On CAEN machines, make sure you find the icon for MATLAB 6 or higher rather than MATLAB 5.3.

\textsuperscript{3}Previous versions run by default in a terminal window.
This searches the first line of the every help description for the word “time.” This can take a while, though (depending upon your system’s configuration). You should get into the habit of reading the help on every new command that you run across. So call help on both help and lookfor. There’s some useful information there.

Another good source of help is the MATLAB helpdesk. It may or may not be available on your system; to find out, simply try:

```matlab
>> helpdesk
```

If it is available, you will see a help window. The MATLAB helpdesk contains all of the help pages that you can find using help or lookfor, along with many other useful documents. The helpdesk is also easily searchable (and often much faster than lookfor), so you would benefit from becoming familiar with this tool.

### 3.3 Using MATLAB as a calculator (with variables)

Not surprisingly, you can use MATLAB to do arithmetic. It operates very much like you might expect, employing infix arithmetic like that used on standard calculators. MATLAB can evaluate simple expressions or arbitrarily complicated ones with parentheses used to enforce a particular order of operations.

```matlab
>> 6 * 7
>> (((12 + 5) * 62/22.83) - 5)^2.4
(The `^` operator performs exponentiation). Notice that when you execute these commands, MATLAB indicates that \texttt{ans} = 7.4977e+003 (or whatever). This indicates that the result has been stored in a variable called \texttt{ans}. We can then refer to this quantity like this:
```

```matlab
>> 0 * ans
>> ans + 1
```

It is important to note that each of these commands overwrites \texttt{ans}. If we want to save an answer, we can simply perform assignment, like this:

```matlab
>> my\_variable = 42
```

This is the only declaration of \texttt{my\_variable} that is needed, and we can use this variable later just as we could with \texttt{ans}. Further, \texttt{my\_variable} will retain its value until we explicitly assign something else to it. We can clear variables, and typing \texttt{who} or \texttt{whos} will list what variables we have in our workspace.

Using variables, then, is straightforward.

```matlab
>> x = 5.4
>> y = 2
>> z = (my\_variable*y)^x
```

Note that sometimes you don’t need or want to see what MATLAB returns in response to a particular command. To suppress the output, simply add a semicolon, ;, after the command. Try any of the above commands with and without the semicolon to see what this does.

We also have access to a wealth of standard mathematical functions. Thus, we can if we want to calculate the sine of the square-root of two and store it in a variable called \texttt{var}, we simply type:

```matlab
>> my\_variable = 42
>> x = 5.4
>> y = 2
>> z = (my\_variable*y)^x
```

Note that sometimes you don’t need or want to see what MATLAB returns in response to a particular command. To suppress the output, simply add a semicolon, ;, after the command. Try any of the above commands with and without the semicolon to see what this does.

We also have access to a wealth of standard mathematical functions. Thus, we can if we want to calculate the sine of the square-root of two and store it in a variable called \texttt{var}, we simply type:
Type `help elmat` to see how to call most of the elementary mathematical functions like these. There are also a number of constants built into MATLAB that are very useful. The number $\pi$ is referred to as `pi` (note that MATLAB is case sensitive!). Both $i$ and $j$ default to $\sqrt{-1}$, but you can still use either (or both) as variable names if you like. You should glance at `help i` so that you can see the various options for building complex numbers. Note that you can overwrite variables like `pi`, $i$, and $j$, but then you will not be able to use their special properties.

4 Vectors, Matrices, and Arrays

So far, we've been using MATLAB to deal with scalar numbers. The real power of MATLAB, though, comes from its ability to handle vectors and matrices. In MATLAB, vectors and matrices are simply one-dimensional and two-dimensional arrays, respectively. An array is simply a collection of numbers, each of which is indexed by an $n$-tuple. For an array, the dimension is equal to the length of the $n$-tuple. For instance, consider the following vector and matrix:

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

To access the 3 from vector $v$, we simply need to know that it is in the third row. Thus the vector is one-dimensional. To access the 6 in the matrix $M$, though, we need to know that it is in the second row and the third column. We index the 6 using the pair $(2,3)$, and so matrix is two-dimensional. MATLAB arrays can have any number of dimensions. In practice, though, we will only need vectors and matrices.

4.1 Constructing arrays

There are many different ways to build up and manipulate arrays in MATLAB. For instance, consider (and execute) the following commands:

```matlab
>> a = [1 2 3 4 5 6 7]  \>
>> b = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7]  \>
>> c = [1 2 3 4 5 6 7]  \>
>> d = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9; 10 11 12]
```

The first two commands both build up the same vector, a $1\times7$ row-vector. The third command builds up a $7\times1$ column-vector with the same elements. The fourth command builds a $3\times4$ matrix.

4.2 Concatenating arrays

The comma (or the space) within the square brackets concatenates horizontally and the semicolon concatenates vertically. The elements being concatenated do not need to be scalars, either:

$\text{In MATLAB, indices are given as row } \times \text{ column.}$
4.3 Transposition and “flipping” arrays

The single apostrophe, ', is MATLAB’s transposition operator. It will turn a row-vector into a column-vector and vice versa. Similarly, it will make an \( n \times m \) matrix into an \( m \times n \) matrix. To see how this works, type \( d' \) and look at the results. (Warning: ' is actually a complex conjugate transpose, so complex numbers will have the sign of their imaginary parts changed. To perform a straight transposition, use the .' operator. For real arrays, both operators are identical.) Other useful commands for matrix manipulation include flipud and fliplr, which mirror matrices top-to-bottom and left-to-right, respectively. Look at help elmat for other useful functions.

4.4 Building large arrays

Building small arrays by hand is fine, but it can become very tedious for larger arrays. There are a number of commands to facilitate this. The ones and zeros commands build matrices that are populated entirely with ones or zeros. The eye command builds identity matrices. repmat is especially useful for making matrices out of vectors. diag builds diagonal matrices from vectors, or returns the diagonal (vector) of a matrix. Check the help for all of these commands. For an example, try these:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{>> } & \text{ones}(5,3) \\
\text{>> } & \text{zeros}(3,4) \\
\text{>> } & \text{zeros}(5) \\
\text{>> } & \text{eye}(4)
\end{align*} \]

4.5 The colon operator

The colon operator is one way of creating long vectors that are useful for indexing (see the next section). Execute the following commands:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{>> } & 1:7 \\
\text{>> } & 1:2:13 \\
\text{>> } & 0.1:0.01:2.4
\end{align*} \]

Each of these commands defines a row-vector. With only two arguments, as in the first command, the colon operator produces a row vector starting with the first argument and incrementing by one until the second argument has been reached. The optional middle argument (seen in the second two commands) provides a different increment amount. The colon operator is extremely useful, so it is recommended that you check out help colon for more details. Play with some other combinations of parameters to familiarize yourself with the behavior of this operator.
5 Array Arithmetic

MATLAB allows you to perform mixed arithmetic between scalars and arrays as well as two different types of arithmetic on vectors and arrays. Mixed scalar/array arithmetic is the most straightforward. Adding, subtracting, multiplying or dividing a scalar from an array (or an array from a scalar) is equivalent to performing the operation on every element of the array. It is also useful to note that most of the provided mathematical functions (like \texttt{sqrt} and \texttt{sin}) operate in a similar element-by-element fashion. Thus, the commands

\begin{verbatim}
>> t = 0:.1:pi;
>> sin(t)
\end{verbatim}

return a 32-element vector (the same size as \texttt{t}) containing the sine of each element of \texttt{t}.

If we have two arrays, addition and subtraction is also straightforward. Provided that the arrays are the same size, adding and subtracting them performs the operation on an element-by-element basis. Thus, the \((3,4)\) element in the output (for instance) is the result of the operation being performed on the \((3,4)\) elements in the input arrays. If the arrays are not the same size, MATLAB will generate an error message.

For multiplication, division, exponentiation, and a few other operations, there are two different ways of performing the operation in question. The first involves matrix arithmetic, which you may have studied previously. You may recall that the product of two matrices is only defined if the “inner dimensions” are the same; that is, we can multiply an \(m \times n\) matrix with an \(n \times p\) matrix to yield an \(m \times p\) matrix, but we cannot reverse the order of the matrices. Then, the \((p,q)\) element of the result is equal to the sum of the element-by-element product of the \(p^{\text{th}}\) row of the first matrix and the \(q^{\text{th}}\) column of the second. Division and exponentiation are defined with respect to this matrix product. It is not imperative that you recall matrix multiplication here (most likely you will see it in a linear algebra course in the future); however, it is important that you note that in MATLAB the standard mathematical operators (\(\times\), \(/\), and \(^{-}\)) default to these forms of the operations.

A form of multiplication, division, and exponentiation for arrays that is more useful for our purposes is the element-by-element variety. To use this form, we must use the “dot” forms of the respective operators, \(\cdot\times\), \(\cdot\div\), and \(\cdot^{-}\). Once again, the arrays must have the same dimensions or MATLAB will return an error. Thus, the commands

\begin{verbatim}
>> [1 2 3 4] .* [9 8 7 6]
>> [7; 1; 4] ./ (1:3)'
>> 2.^ [1 2 3 4 5 6]
\end{verbatim}

perform element-by-element multiplication, division, and exponentiation. Note that the \(^{-}\) form is necessary even for scalar-to-array exponentiation operations.

The array arithmetic capabilities of MATLAB contribute greatly to its power as a programming language. Using these operators, we can perform mathematical operations on hundreds or thousands of numbers with a single command. This also has the side effect of simplifying MATLAB code, making it shorter and easier to read (usually).
6 Indexing

6.1 Basic indexing
To make arrays truly useful, we need to be able to access the elements in those arrays. First, let’s fill a couple of arrays:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{>> } \mathbf{a} = 5:5:60 \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{d} = [9, 8, 7, 6 ; 5, 4, 3, 2]
\end{align*}
\]

Now, let’s access elements in them:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{>> } \mathbf{a}(6) \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{a}(3) = 12 \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{d}(2,3)
\end{align*}
\]

The first command retrieves the sixth element from the vector \( \mathbf{a} \). The second assigns a number to the third element of the same vector. For the third command, the order of the dimensions is important. In MATLAB, the **first dimension is always rows and the second dimension is always columns**. Note particularly that this is the opposite of \((x, y)\) indexing. Thus, the third command retrieves the element from row two, column three.

6.2 Single number indexing
We can also index into matrices using single numbers. In this case, the numbers count **down the columns**. This is called “column-major” and is the opposite of array indexing in C or C++. For instance, notice what happens when you use the following commands:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{>> } \mathbf{d}(2) \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{d}(3) \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{d}(7)
\end{align*}
\]

6.3 Vector indexing
It is not necessary to index arrays only with scalars. One of the most powerful features of MATLAB is the ability to use one array to index into another one. For instance, consider the following commands:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{>> } \mathbf{a}([1, 4, 6]) \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{b}(3:7) \\
&\text{>> } \mathbf{c}(2:2:\text{end})
\end{align*}
\]

These commands return a subset of the appropriate vector, as determined by the indexing vector. For instance, the first command returns the first, fourth, and sixth elements from the vector \( \mathbf{a} \). Notice the use of the \texttt{end} keyword in the third command. In an indexing context, \texttt{end} is interpreted as the length of the currently indexed dimension. This is particularly useful because MATLAB will return an error if you try to access the eighth element of a seven-element vector, for instance. In general, indices must be strictly positive integers less than the length of the dimension being indexed. **Thus, unlike C or C++, the indices begin at one rather than at zero.**

Using multiple indices into multi-dimensional arrays is slightly more complicated than doing so with vectors. Consider the following commands:
>> d([1 3],2)
>> d([2 3],[1 4])
>> d(2,:)

The first command, as you might expect, returns the first and third elements of the second column. The second command returns the second and third rows from the first and fourth columns. Note particularly that this command does not return the individual elements at (2,1) and (1,4). (To index individual elements in this manner, we need to use single-index method along with the sub2ind command). The colon operator in the second command is a shortcut for 1:end; thus, the third command returns all of the second row.

6.4 Finding the size of an array

Two very useful commands that can be used to facilitate indexing are size and length. size returns a vector containing the length of each dimension of an array. Alternately, size can be used to request the length of a single dimension. length is primarily useful for vectors when you’re not sure about their orientation. length returns the length of the longest dimension. Thus, length(v) is the same whether v is a row-vector or a column-vector, but size(v,1) will only properly return the length of a column-vector.

6.5 Vector indexing to modify arrays

It is important to note that all of these indexing techniques are used not only to retrieve many elements from an array but also to set them. When performing array assignment, you must be careful to make sure the array being assigned has the same size as the array to which it is being assigned. For instance, consider the following command:

>> d([1 3],[2 4]) = [9 8; 7 6]

Note that both of the matrixes on the left and right of the equal sign are 2 × 2, so the assignment is valid. Look at the results of this command and make sure you understand what it does and why.

6.6 Conditional statements and the “find” command

One last command that is extremely useful in context of indexing in MATLAB is find. find will return a vector containing the indices of any nonzero elements in an array. Note that find uses the single-index indexing scheme that was mentioned earlier. At first glance, this has relatively few uses; however, it is in fact extremely useful because of the behavior of conditional statements in MATLAB (i.e., >, <, and ==). The command a > 5 will return an array with the same size as a, but with each element either 1 or 0 depending on whether or not it is greater than 5. Using find on this array will provide the indices of elements greater than 5. One particularly good use of the find command is the following contexts. Suppose you wish to set all negative elements in a matrix to zero. You can do this with a single command like so:

>> m = [-1 5 10; 3 -8 2; -4 -9 -1];
>> m(find(m < 0)) = 0;

Alternately, if you wish to square every element that is greater or equal to 4, you can use the find command twice in a single line, like this:
7 Data Visualization

7.1 Using “plot”

So now we know how to build arbitrarily large arrays, populate them with interesting things, and get individual elements or sections of them. However, pouring over pages and pages of numbers is generally not much fun. Instead, we would really like to be able to visualize our data somehow. Of course, MATLAB provides many options for this. Let’s start by building a vector we can use throughout this section, and then looking at it. Execute the following commands:

```matlab
>> x = sin(2*pi*(1:200)/25);
>> plot(x);
>> zoom on;
```

The first command builds up a sine wave, and the second command plots it. A window should have popped up with a sine wave in it. Notice the y-axis extents from -1 to 1 as we would expect. Using this form of plot, the x-axis is labeled with the index number; that is, our vector has 200 elements, and so the data is plotted from 1 to 200. The third command turned on MATLAB’s zooming capabilities. If you left-click on the figure, it will zoom in; right-clicking\(^5\) will zoom out. You can also left-click and drag to produce a zoom box that lets you control where the figure zooms. Experiment with this zoom tool until you’re comfortable with it. Depending on the version of MATLAB that you are using, there may also be an icon of a magnifying glass with a + in it above the figure; clicking this icon will also enable and disable zoom mode.

7.2 Interpolation; line and point styles

If you zoomed in closely enough on the plot, you probably noticed that the signal isn’t perfectly smooth. Instead, it is made up of line segments. This is because our vector, \(x\), is made up of a finite collection of numbers. MATLAB defaults to interpolating between these points on the plot. You can tell MATLAB to show you where the data points are, or to not interpolate, by changing the line and point styles. Try each of these commands and look at the results before executing the next one:

```matlab
>> plot(x,'x-')
>> plot(x,'o')
>> plot(x,'rd:')
```

help plot lists the various combinations of characters that you can use to change line styles, point styles, and colors.

7.3 Axis labels and titles

Often, we want to indicate what each axis of a plot represents or add a figure title. The commands xlabel, ylabel, and title do this for us. For instance:

\(^5\)For Mac users, I believe you double-click to zoom out all the way.
>> xlabel('Time (seconds)');
>> ylabel('Amplitude');
>> title('Plot of x[n]');

Note that the single tick marks, ‘’, delimit strings that are passed to these commands.

7.4 Commands related to “plot”

There are a few similar commands for plotting vectors as well. Try these commands, and make sure you zoom in on each one so you can see the results:

>> stem(x)
>> stairs(x)
>> bar(x)

In this course, you will most often be using the **plot** and **stem** commands. Each is useful in a somewhat different context.

7.5 Plotting with an x-axis

When you checked the **help** for **plot** (you *did* look at the **help**, didn’t you?), most likely you noticed that there are some more explicit ways to use the function. There is an optional first parameter that gives the x-position of each data point. Thus, we use plot for x-y scatter plots and other things. Calling plot without the first parameter is equivalent to the following command:

>> plot(1:length(x),x,'x-');

Sometimes, we’ll have a time axis that we want to plot against. For instance,

>> t = 0:.01:1.99;
>> plot(t,x);

This scales the time axis to match t. We will find this very useful when working with sampled signals.

7.6 Plotting multiple vectors on the same figure

It possible (and often desirable) to plot multiple vectors simultaneously. One way (which is probably the easiest to remember) requires a set of parameters for each vector. Execute the following commands:

>> y = .8*sin(2*pi*(1:200)/14 + 0.5);
>> plot(t,x,'go-',t,y,'rx--');

This plots x and y versus t on the same figure with different line types. Note that the line style arguments are optional; without them, MATLAB will plot each curve using a different color.

The **hold** command provides another method of plotting several curves on the same figure. When we type **hold on**, an old figure will not be erased before a new one is plotted. To add a curve to the plot we produced above, use the commands:
A third way to plot multiple lines simultaneously makes use of the fact that `plot` will plot the columns of a matrix as separate lines. Execute the following commands.

```matlab
>> hold on;
>> plot(t,.3*x,'ks:');
>> hold off;
```

7.7 Legends

You can add a legend to a plot using the `legend` command like this:

```matlab
>> legend('Data set 1', 'Data set 2');
```

The `legend` command can take any number of parameters; usually, though, you want one string for each data set on your plot.

7.8 Putting several axes on one figure

Often we'll want to plot two vectors next to one another but not on the same set of axes. To do this, we use the `subplot` command. `subplot` takes three parameters: the number of rows, the number of columns, and the figure number. Thus, the following command the fourth `subplot` in an array of subplots with three rows and two columns.

```matlab
>> subplot(3,2,4);
```

(Notice that it opens the fourth counting across the rows, as you would read a page. This is notably different from single number indexing of MATLAB arrays.)

Now, to put several plots in subplots like this, we simply execute several subplot commands like this:

```matlab
>> subplot(2,1,1);
>> plot(1:10, (1:10).^2);
>> subplot(2,1,2);
>> plot(1:10, (1:10).^3);
```

7.9 Two-dimensional arrays

You’re probably not surprised by now that MATLAB also has facilities for visualizing two dimensional arrays. Let’s look at some of them. First, we need an interesting matrix to look at. Execute the following command:

```matlab
>> z = membrane(1,50);
```

We now have a 101x101 matrix of numbers. The most straightforward way to look at this data is using the `imagesc` command, which displays the matrix as though it were an image. Execute the following commands:

```matlab
>> imagesc(z); axis xy; colorbar;
```
Our surface has been displayed in color. Notice the colorbar along the right side of the image, which tells what values the various colors map to. This type of display, where different colors are used to represent different values, is known as a pseudocolor display. If we look at the image we’ve got a “high” spot in the lower right that tapers off to “low” regions around the outside. The surface also has an overall L-shape. Another way to visualize this uses the contour command. Try this:

```
>> contour(z,20); colorbar;
```

This display, the \textit{contour plot}, shows us lines of constant height. This is the way that meteorologists usually display atmospheric pressure on weather maps.

We also have some more interesting options. Try each of the following commands separately:

```
>> mesh(z); rotate3d on
>> surf(z); rotate3d on
```

Now we have some “3-D” visualizations of our surface. If you click-and-drag the plot, you should be able to rotate the surface so that you can see it from various directions. Experiment with this until you’re comfortable with how it works. Notice what happens if you look at the surface from directly above.

\textsc{Matlab} has some very powerful tools for data visualization; here, you’ve seen only a small sampling. There many more. If you’re interested in exploring this topic further, check \texttt{help graph2d}, \texttt{help graph3d}, and \texttt{help specgraph}.

8 Programming in MATLAB

Programming in \textsc{Matlab} is really just like using the environment at the command line. The only difference is that commands are placed in a file (called an \texttt{M-file}) so that they can be executed by simply calling the file’s name. We’ll also see that \textsc{Matlab} has many of the same control flow structures, like loops and conditionals, as other, more traditional programming languages.

8.1 Paths and working directories

Before we jump into programming in \textsc{Matlab} we need to make a few comments about files in \textsc{Matlab}. \textsc{Matlab} has access to a machine’s file system in roughly the same way a command-line based operating system like DOS or UNIX. It has a “present working directory” (which you can see with the command \texttt{pwd}); any files in the present working directory can be seen by \textsc{Matlab}. You can change the present working directory in roughly the same way that you do in DOS or UNIX, using the \texttt{cd} command (for “change directory”). \textsc{Matlab} also has a “path,” like the path in DOS or UNIX, which lists other directories that contain files that \textsc{Matlab} can see. The \texttt{path} command will list the directories in the path. We’ll be making a few files in this tutorial, and you’ll need to store commands in files when doing the laboratories. You’ll probably want to make a directory somewhere in your personal workspace, \texttt{cd} to that directory, and store your files there. Unless you’re working on your own system, do not store them in the main \textsc{Matlab} directory; if you do, the system’s administrator will probably become very irritated with you.
8.2 Types of command files in MATLAB

There are two types of files containing commands that MATLAB can call. Both use the “.m” file extension. The first type is a script, which contains nothing but a list of commands. When you call the script (by simply typing in the script’s filename), MATLAB will execute all of the commands in the file and return to the command line exactly as if you had typed the commands in by hand. Let’s write a short script.

8.3 Editors

First, we need an editor. If you’re using a Windows or Macintosh system, or MATLAB 6 on a UNIX, just type in `edit` at the MATLAB prompt and a text editor will pop up. Older versions of MATLAB under UNIX do not have a built-in editor, so you’ll need to use some other editor, like emacs or vi. Use the system to open a new terminal and open your favorite text editor.

8.4 MATLAB scripts

Place the following lines in the text file and save it as “hello.m”.

```matlab
% hello.m -- Introductory 'Hello World' script
% These lines are comments, because they start with '%'
hw = 'Hello World!'; disp(hw);
```

Now execute it by typing `hello` at the MATLAB prompt. (Remember that the file needs to be in your present working directory or on the path for MATLAB to see it – `cd` to the correct directory if necessary). As a result of executing the script, you should now have a variable ‘hw’ in your workspace (remember, `who` lists variables in your workspace).

8.5 MATLAB functions

The second type of file that we can put commands in is called a function. A function communicates with the current workspace by passing parameters. It also creates a separate workspace so that it’s variables don’t get mixed up with whatever variables you have in your current workspace. Using your text editor, make a new file that contains the following lines and save it as “hello2.m.”

```matlab
% hello2.m -- Introductory 'Hello World' function
% Try typing 'help hello2' when you're done, and see what happens
%
% function output = hello2(input)

function output = hello2(input)
% The line above tells MATLAB that this is a function
% with one input and one output parameter

hw2 = ['Hello World! x' num2str(input)];
disp(hw2);
output = hw2;
```

---

6 *pico* or *nano* are UNIX text editors that are easy to use if you don’t already have a favorite.
To call this function, type `hello2(2)`. Note that once you’ve done this, the variable `hw2` does not show up in your workspace. However, the data that was stored in `output` (the output parameter) has been placed in `ans`. This is exactly what happens if you called a MATLAB built-in function without supplying an output parameter. Similarly, the ‘2’ is an input parameter which is passed into the function. When a function is executed, it will not have any variables defined except those defined inside the function itself and the input parameters. For further help on these two types of M-file, type `help function` or `help script` at the MATLAB prompt.

8.6 Control Structures

In MATLAB we also have a number of programming constructs at our disposal. While primarily used in M-files, these constructs can also be used at the command line. However, anything complicated enough to need a loop or an if-statement is usually worth putting into an M-file. Let’s look at the most typical types of programming constructs.

Loops

The `for` loop is used to execute a set of commands a certain number of times, while also providing an index variable. Consider the simple loop here:

```matlab
for index = 1:10
    disp(index);
end
```

This loop executes the `disp` command ten times. The first time it is executed, `index` is set to 1. Thereafter, it is incremented by one each time the commands in the loop are executed. Note that the colon form of the `for` loop is not mandatory; any row-vector can be used in its place, and the index (which, of course, can be renamed) will be sequentially set to each of the elements in the vector from left to right. We can use `while` loops in a similar manner. Consider this:

```matlab
ct = 10;
while ct > 0.5
    ct = ct/2;
    disp(ct);
end
```

As long as the conditional after `while` is true, the loop will be executed.

Conditional statements

A more traditional method of conditional execution comes from the `if-else` statement. Consider this:

```matlab
if pi > 4
    disp('Pi is too big!');
elseif pi < 3
    disp('Pi is too small!');
else
    disp('Pi is just about right.');
end
```
Here, MATLAB will first check the conditional, \( \pi > 4 \). If this is true, the first display command will be executed and the remainder of the if-else statement will be skipped (that is, none of the other conditionals will be tested). If the first conditional is false, MATLAB will begin to check the remaining conditionals. There can be any number of elseif statements in this construct (including none), and the else statement is entirely optional. If you have a large number of chained conditionals, you might consider using the switch-case construct (type help switch or help case).

8.7 Strings and string output

In hello2 above, we constructed a string and displayed it. Though not so useful at the command line, in programming we often want to work with strings and display them. In MATLAB, strings are delimited by the single-tick ‘'. Thus, 'STRING' is treated as a literal string. Strings, though, are just row-vectors of characters. This means that we can build strings using the same vector concatenation operators that we presented earlier. Thus, the following command:

\[
\text{>> } [ \text{'}string\text{' } \text{'}test\text{' }] \\
\text{outputs the string } \text{'}stringtest\text{'.}
\]

Rather than echoing strings (or numbers, for that matter) by omitting the semicolon, we can also use the disp command. Notice the difference when we call this command:

\[
\text{>> disp([} \text{'}string\text{' } \text{'}test\text{']);}
\]

Also, for any C programmers in the audience, note that you can perform formatted string output with fprintf and sprintf.

It is often useful to convert numbers to strings. We can use the num2str command to do this. Consider this:

\[
\text{>> for counter = 1:10} \\
\text{>> disp([} \text{'}Percent completed: ' num2str(10*counter) '\%\'}]);} \\
\text{>> end}
\]

In this way, we can produce formatted output without using fprintf or sprintf.

9 Debugging your MATLAB code

Inevitably, when you put MATLAB commands into a file as a script or a function, you will make mistakes and need to locate them. Because of its interpreted environment, MATLAB is actually one of the most pleasant languages to debug. And, as is always the case when debugging code, there are many ways to accomplish this.

If you are executing a script or function and MATLAB encounters an error, it will immediately print the line number of the function on which the error occurred. If the error occurs in a file other than the calling file, a call stack will be printed. This listing shows which file called which other files and on what line number. This allows us to pinpoint the source of the error quickly.

One of the simplest ways to debug is a method you are probably familiar with from other programming languages. We can force MATLAB to print strings or variables using the
The disp command. This way, we can display for loop counters or other relevant variables to determine what they contain and exactly when in the program flow the code “breaks.”

The real power of MATLAB debugging comes from our ability to "break" at any point in the code and then proceed to execute any MATLAB commands. There are a number of ways to do this. For instance, you can tell MATLAB to stop and enter “debug mode” whenever an error is encountered. When you’re in debug mode, the command line changes to K>>. You will then have access to all of the variables that are in scope at the time. Turn on this option with the command

```matlab
>> dbstop if error
```

To turn it off again, use the command

```matlab
>> dbclear if error
```

We can also set and clear breakpoints elsewhere in the code using the same commands. To set (and then clear) a breakpoint in hello2.m at line 11, call

```matlab
>> dbstop in hello2 at 11
>> dbclear in hello2 at 11
```

dbstatus will show all breakpoints that are currently active. Note that if you try to set a breakpoint at a non-command line (such as a comment), the breakpoint will be set at the next valid command.

Another useful command is dbstep, which advances one command in the m-file. If you call dbstep in or dbstep out, you can step into and out of called functions (that is, you traverse up and down the call stack, which contains a list of which functions have been called to reach the current point in the code). dbstack lists the current call stack including your current file and the line number in this file. dbtype types all or parts of an m-file. Eventually, you’ll want to get out of debug mode, so you can call dbquit to halt execution of the file or dbcont to continue execution until the end of the file or the next breakpoint. In general, help debug is the starting point in the help system for learning about the MATLAB command line debugger.

If you are running MATLAB on a Windows system (or possibly a Macintosh), the debugger is also available through the built in editor. The exact implementation depends on your system and the version of MATLAB, but usually breakpoints will show up as red circles next to commands. In debug mode, the current command will be pointed to with an arrow, so you can follow where you are in the code. There are typically shortcut keys and menu items to insert and remove breakpoints, step through the code, and toggle flags such as stop-if-error.

If you save a file that has breakpoints, you may find that your breakpoints disappear. This can be very annoying, so there is an alternative method of entering debug mode. Placing the command keyboard into your code is effectively the same as placing a breakpoint in the code, such that you can execute commands before returning to program execution (with the command return).

There are a number of error types that you are likely to encounter. One very good rule of thumb says that if an error occurs inside a MATLAB function, the error is almost assuredly in the calling function. Usually this means that the function is being passed improper parameters; check the call stack or dbstep out until you find the line in your program which is causing problems. Other common errors include indexing errors (indexing with 0 or a
number greater than the length of the indexed dimension of a variables) and assignment size mismatches. MATLAB is usually pretty descriptive with its error messages once you figure out how to interpret what it is saying. As is usually the case when debugging, an error message at a particular line may in fact indicate an error that has occurred several lines before.
# List of Commonly Used MATLAB Commands

## Elementary Math Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>abs</code></td>
<td><code>atan</code></td>
<td><code>exp</code></td>
<td><code>log</code></td>
<td><code>rem</code></td>
<td><code>sqrt</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>acos</code></td>
<td><code>ceil</code></td>
<td><code>fix</code></td>
<td><code>log10</code></td>
<td><code>round</code></td>
<td><code>tan</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>angle</code></td>
<td><code>conj</code></td>
<td><code>floor</code></td>
<td><code>mod</code></td>
<td><code>sign</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>asin</code></td>
<td><code>cos</code></td>
<td><code>imag</code></td>
<td><code>real</code></td>
<td><code>sin</code></td>
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</table>

## Graphing and Plotting Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>axis</code></td>
<td><code>figure</code></td>
<td><code>line</code></td>
<td><code>print</code></td>
<td><code>stem</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>bar</code></td>
<td><code>grid</code></td>
<td><code>loglog</code></td>
<td><code>semilogx</code></td>
<td><code>subplot</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>clf</code></td>
<td><code>hold</code></td>
<td><code>plot</code></td>
<td><code>semilogx</code></td>
<td><code>text</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>close</code></td>
<td><code>legend</code></td>
<td><code>polar</code></td>
<td><code>shg</code></td>
<td><code>title</code></td>
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</table>

## Relational and Logical Functions

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<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>all</code></td>
<td><code>eq</code> (==)</td>
<td><code>ge</code> (&gt;=)</td>
<td><code>isempty</code></td>
<td><code>isnan</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>and</code> (&amp;)</td>
<td><code>exist</code></td>
<td><code>gt</code> (&gt;)</td>
<td><code>isfinite</code></td>
<td><code>le</code> (&lt;=)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>any</code></td>
<td><code>find</code></td>
<td><code>ischar</code></td>
<td><code>isinf</code></td>
<td><code>lt</code> (&lt;)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>strcmp</code></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

## Programming and Control Flow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>break</code></td>
<td><code>disp</code></td>
<td><code>end</code></td>
<td><code>if</code></td>
<td><code>pause</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>case</code></td>
<td><code>else</code></td>
<td><code>error</code></td>
<td><code>input</code></td>
<td><code>return</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>catch</code></td>
<td><code>elseif</code></td>
<td><code>for</code></td>
<td><code>otherwise</code></td>
<td><code>switch</code></td>
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<td><code>while</code></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

## General Purpose Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>who</code></td>
<td><code>length</code></td>
<td><code>exit</code></td>
<td><code>which</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>whos</code></td>
<td><code>clear</code></td>
<td><code>quit</code></td>
<td><code>lookfor</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size</code></td>
<td><code>why</code></td>
<td><code>help</code></td>
<td><code>helpdesk</code></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><code>zeros</code></td>
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</table>

## File and Directory Functions

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>cd</code></td>
<td><code>fclose</code></td>
<td><code>load</code></td>
<td><code>path</code></td>
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<td></td>
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<td><code>save</code></td>
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<td></td>
<td><code>fopen</code></td>
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<td><code>rmdir</code></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td><code>type</code></td>
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</table>

## Debugging Commands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
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<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>dbclear</code></td>
<td><code>dbquit</code></td>
<td><code>dbstatus</code></td>
<td><code>dbstop</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>dbcont</code></td>
<td><code>dbstack</code></td>
<td><code>dbstep</code></td>
<td><code>dbtype</code></td>
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<td></td>
<td><code>dbup</code></td>
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<td></td>
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<td><code>keyboard</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 Useful MATLAB Facts

1. MATLAB starts indexing its arrays from 1 rather than from 0.

2. Use the up-arrow to recall previous commands. If you type in a few characters and then hit the up-arrow, MATLAB will try to find a previous command that started with those characters.

3. When indexing matrices, the indices are always given \( a(\text{row}, \text{column}) \). Similarly, \texttt{size(a)} returns a two-element vector \([\text{num\_rows}, \text{num\_columns}]\).

4. Semicolons at the end of a line are not necessary; they simply suppress output.

5. If I multiply (or divide, or exponentiate) two arrays without using the dot-operators, I probably won’t get what I’m expecting (unless I want to do matrix multiplication).

6. We concatenate arrays (and strings) using square brackets. To do so \textit{horizontally}, we separate the arrays with spaces or commas:

   \[
   \texttt{[ones(3), zeros(3)]}
   \]

   To do so \textit{vertically}, we separate the arrays with a semicolon:

   \[
   \texttt{[ones(3); zeros(3)]}
   \]

7. When a function returns multiple parameters, we use square brackets to retrieve them:

   \[
   \texttt{[max\_value, index]} = \max([4.3, 2.9, 8.6, 6.3, 1.0])
   \]

   Otherwise, only one parameter is returned.

8. Most MATLAB commands (like \texttt{min}, \texttt{max}, \texttt{sum}, \texttt{prod}, and a host of others) work on matrices by operating down each column individually. Thus, after executing this command:

   \[
   \texttt{[max\_value, index]} = \max(\texttt{eye(6)})
   \]

   \texttt{max\_value} has a vector of six ones (since the maximum value in each column is 1) and \texttt{index} is a vector containing the row number of the 1 in each column.

9. The \texttt{end} keyword is exceptionally useful when indexing into arrays of unknown size. Thus, if I want to return all elements in a vector but the first and last one, I can use the command:

   \[
   \texttt{x(2:end-1)}
   \]

   which is equivalent to the command:

   \[
   \texttt{x(2:length(x)-1)}
   \]

10. MATLAB automatically resizes arrays for you. Thus, if I want to add an element on to the end of a vector, I can use the command:

    \[
    \texttt{x(end+1) = 5;}
    \]