

# A Novel Pipelined Architecture for 4X4 Inversion Matrix of Kalman Filters Using Verilog in ASIC

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**Abstract:** A novel pipelined systolic array-based architecture for 4X4 matrix inversion is proposed. It is suitable for ASIC implementations as it is used for in Kalman filters. The 4X4 matrix inversion is implemented in verilog language for enabling the user for different size of Kalman filters suitable for different applications. It is scalable for different matrix size and as such allows employing parameterization that makes it suitable for customization for application-specific needs. The proposed architecture consists of pipeline registers, an innovative logic control unit, and a segmented Look up Table division scheme. This new proposed architecture has an advantage of reduced processing element complexity. The ASIC implementation architecture is useful to enable the novel pipelined systolic array for the quickest operation of Kalman filter. The precision error resulted is in the allowable range and it does not affect the performance of the overall system.

**Key words:** Systolic Array, Kalman Filter, Look up Table, Verilog, FPGA, ASIC, Floating Point Multiplier,

## 1. Introduction

Many DSP algorithms such as Kalman filter involve several iterative matrix operations, the most complicated begin matrix inversion, which requires  $O(n^2)$  computations ( $n$  is matrix size). This becomes the critical bottleneck of the processing time in such algorithms. Kalman filters have been widely used in many applications such as target tracking, navigation systems, adaptive control and many other dynamic systems. Kalman filter algorithm is based on minimizing the mean-square error recursively. The algorithm of an adaptive

Kalman filter involves several iterative matrix manipulations such as matrix inversion, multiplication, addition and subtraction. Real-time implementation of Kalman filters is hence limited by the computationally extensive nature of the algorithm. Many attempts have been made to employ various systolic architectures for VLSI implementation of Kalman filters [1], Systolic-based architectures should be modified to meet hardware requirements of the Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) technology [2]. This paper investigates the design and hardware implementation of a generic Kalman filter in verilog language where user is able to set the parameters to change the state number of the filter. Here for the 4X4 matrix has been implemented in verilog and speed and area are optimized.

## 2. Kalman Filter

The Kalman filter uses a system's dynamics model (e.g., physical laws of motion), known control inputs to that system, and multiple sequential measurements (such as from sensors) to form an estimate of the system's varying quantities (its state) that is better than the estimate obtained by using only one measurement alone. As such, it is a common sensor fusion and data fusion algorithm. Kalman filter is used to remove noise from a signal. Many physical processes, such as a vehicle driving along a road, a satellite orbiting the earth, a motor shaft driven by winding currents, or a sinusoidal radio-frequency carrier signal, are the linear systems which uses the application of Kalman filter. The main feature is that only the previous state estimate and the new input data's are

required to generate the new state estimate in each computation cycle, which results in a low memory requirement [7]. Kalman filter algorithm has two basic operations; prediction and filtering, both executing in a single cycle recursively

**State equation:**

$$x_{k+1} = Ax_k + Bu_k + w_k \longrightarrow (2.1)$$

**Output Equation:**

$$y_k = Cx_k + z_k \longrightarrow (2.2)$$

In the above equations  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are matrices;  $k$  is the time index;  $x$  is called the state of the system;  $u$  is a known input to the system;  $y$  is the measured output; and  $w$  and  $z$  are the noise. The variable  $w$  is called the process noise, and  $z$  is called the measurement noise. Thus, this paper concentrates on FPGA implementation of matrix inversion, matrix division which is in fact the “heart” of Kalman filter. In the above equations  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are matrices;  $k$  is the time index;  $x$  is called the state of the system;  $u$  is a known input to the system;  $y$  is the measured output; and  $w$  and  $z$  are the noise. The variable  $w$  is called the process noise, and  $z$  is called the measurement noise. Each of these quantities is (in general) vectors and therefore contains more than one element. The vector  $x$  contains all of the information about the present state of the system, but we cannot measure  $x$  directly. Instead, we measure  $y$ , which is a function of  $x$  that is corrupted by the noise  $z$ . knowing that the measured output is equal to the position, we can write our linear system equations as follows:

$$X_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & T \end{pmatrix} X_k + \begin{pmatrix} T \\ T^2/2 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow (2.3)$$

$$Y_k = [1 \ 0] X_k + Z_k \longrightarrow (2.4)$$

$Z_k$  is the measurement noise due to such things as instrumentation errors. If we want to control the vehicle with some sort of feedback system, we need an accurate estimate of the position  $p$  and the velocity  $v$ . need a way to estimate the state  $x$ . This is where the Kalman filter is used.

First, the average value of the state estimate to be equal to the average value of the true state. That is why the estimate is to be biased one way or another. Mathematically, we would say that the expected value of the estimate should be equal to the expected value of the state. Second, we want a state estimate that varies from the true state as little as possible. That is, not only do we want the average of the state estimate to be equal to the average of the true state, but we also want an estimator that results in the smallest possible variation of the state estimate mathematically, we would say that we want to find the estimator with the smallest possible error variance. It so happens that the Kalman filter is the estimator that satisfies these two criteria. But the Kalman filter solution does not apply

unless we can satisfy certain assumptions about the noise that affects our system. Remember from our system model that  $w$  is the process noise and  $z$  is the measurement noise. We have to assume that the average value of  $w$  is zero.

**2.1 Kalman Gain Equations:**

$$K_k = AP_k C^T (CP_k C^T + S_z)^{-1} \longrightarrow (2.5)$$

$$X_{k+1} = (AX_k + BU_k) + K_k(Y_{k+1} - CX_k) \longrightarrow (2.6)$$

$$P_{k+1} = AP_k A^T + S_w - AP_k C^T S_z^{-1} CP_k A^T \longrightarrow (2.7)$$

That’s the Kalman filter. It consists of three equations, each involving matrix manipulation. In the above equations, a  $-1$  superscript indicates matrix inversion and a  $T$  superscript indicates matrix transposition. The  $K$  matrix is called the Kalman gain, and the  $P$  matrix is called the estimation error covariance. Hence the implementation of this filter in hardware is a great bottle neck due to inversion operation; hence systolic array is used to overcome this problem.

**3. Floating Point Multiplier:**

Floating-point algorithms are used frequently in modern applications such as speech recognition, image processing and financial engineering because of its ability to represent a good approximation to the real numbers. The IEEE 754 floating point standard [ANS85] has been widely accepted for representing floating point numbers. With this standard, the result and the error of each floating-point operation can be retained the same even if the platform of the computation is changed. The floating-point arithmetic, including addition, subtraction and multiplication is covered in this chapter. The rounding error imposed by using floating-point arithmetic will be discussed. The concepts of quantization error between IEEE standard and the variant used in this thesis will be introduced.

With the increasing size of FPGA devices, implementing floating point arithmetic on FPGAs are now possible. However, as the size of the FPGA is still limited, a carefully designed floating-point implementation is essential. In custom hardware designs, there is always trade-off between connecting requirements of performance, area and quantization error to be addressed. For example, area can usually be reduced if a larger quantization error is allowed for a hand-held application. It would be desirable to allow a program to automatically determine the minimum exponent and fraction sizes required for each signal to reach some user-specified quantization error. A floating point library called float is presented to enable users to optimize the design. In addition, a library, which can generate arbitrary sized floating-point adders and multipliers, was developed to facilitate the FPGA-based floating-point applications. The first section will discuss the software aspect of this system. An example using floating-point tools to develop and optimize a digital sine-cosine compiler is presented. To

generate an arbitrary sized of floating point operator, a Perl program has been developed as a Verilog generation module.

#### 4. FPGA:

Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) can be used to implement just about any hardware design. One common use is to prototype a lump of hardware that will eventually find its way into an ASIC. However, there is nothing to say that the FPGA can't remain in the final product. Whether or not it does will depend on the relative weights of development cost and production cost for a particular project. (It costs significantly more to develop an ASIC, but the cost per chip may be lower in the long run. The cost tradeoff involves expected number of chips to be produced and the expected likelihood of hardware bugs and/or changes. This makes for a rather complicated cost analysis, to say the least.)

The development of the FPGA was distinct from the PLD/CPLD evolution just described. This is apparent when you look at the structures inside. Figure 2 illustrates a typical FPGA architecture. There are three key parts of its structure: logic blocks, interconnect, and I/O blocks. The I/O blocks form a ring around the outer edge of the part. Each of these provides individually selectable input, output, or bi-directional access to one of the general-purpose I/O pins on the exterior of the FPGA package. Inside the ring of I/O blocks lies a rectangular array of logic blocks. And connecting logic blocks to logic blocks and I/O blocks to logic blocks is the programmable interconnect wiring.

The logic blocks within an FPGA can be as small and simple as the macrocells in a PLD (a so-called fine-grained architecture) or larger and more complex (coarse-grained). However, they are never as large as an entire PLD, as the logic blocks of a CPLD are. Remember that the logic blocks of a CPLD contain multiple macrocells. But the logic blocks in an FPGA are generally nothing more than a couple of logic gates or a look-up table and a flip-flop.

Because of all the extra flip-flops, the architecture of an FPGA is much more flexible than that of a CPLD. This makes FPGAs better in register-heavy and pipelined applications. They are also often used in place of a processor-plus-software solution, particularly where the processing of input data streams must be performed at a very fast pace. In addition, FPGAs are usually denser (more gates in a given area) and cost less than their CPLD cousins, so they are the de facto choice for larger logic designs.

#### 5. Hardware Design and Development:

The process of creating digital logic is not unlike the embedded software development process you're already familiar with. A description of the hardware's structure and

behavior is written in a high-level hardware description language (usually VHDL or Verilog) and that code is then compiled and downloaded prior to execution. Of course, schematic capture is also an option for design entry, but it has become less popular as designs have become more complex and the language-based tools have improved. The overall process of hardware development for programmable logic is shown in Figure 3 and described in the paragraphs that follow.

Perhaps the most striking difference between hardware and software design is the way a developer must think about the problem. Software developers tend to think sequentially, even when they are developing a multithreaded application. The lines of source code that they write are always executed in that order, at least within a given thread. If there is an operating system it is used to create the appearance of parallelism, but there is still just one execution engine. During design entry, hardware designers must think-and program-in parallel. All of the input signals are processed in parallel, as they travel through a set of execution engines-each one a series of macrocells and interconnections-toward their destination output signals. Therefore, the statements of a hardware description language create structures, all of which are "executed" at the very same time. (Note, however, that the transference from macrocell to macrocell is usually synchronized to some other signal, like a clock.)

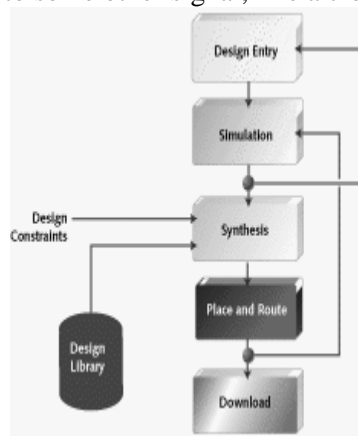


Fig 5.1 Programmable logic design process

Typically, the design entry step is followed or interspersed with periods of functional simulation. That's where a simulator is used to execute the design and confirm that the correct outputs are produced for a given set of test inputs. Although problems with the size or timing of the hardware may still crop up later, the designer can at least be sure that his logic is functionally correct before going on to the next stage of development. Compilation only begins after a functionally correct representation of the hardware exists. This hardware compilation consists of two distinct steps. First, an

intermediate representation of the hardware design is produced. This step is called synthesis and the result is a representation called a netlist. The netlist is device independent, so its contents do not depend on the particulars of the FPGA or CPLD; it is usually stored in a standard format called the Electronic Design Interchange Format (EDIF).

The second step in the translation process is called place & route. This step involves mapping the logical structures described in the netlist onto actual macrocells, interconnections, and input and output pins. This process is similar to the equivalent step in the development of a printed circuit board, and it may likewise allow for either automatic or manual layout optimizations. The result of the place & route process is a bit stream. This name is used generically, despite the fact that each CPLD or FPGA (or family) has its own, usually proprietary, bit stream format. Suffice it to say that the bit stream is the binary data that must be loaded into the FPGA or CPLD to cause that chip to execute a particular hardware design.

Increasingly there are also debuggers available that at least allow for single-stepping the hardware design as it executes in the programmable logic device. But those only complement a simulation environment that is able to use some of the information generated during the place & route step to provide gate-level simulation. Obviously, this type of integration of device-specific information into a generic simulator requires a good working relationship between the chip and simulation tool vendors.

**6. Look up Division Scheme:** *A. Division with multiplication:* Scalar division represents the most critical arithmetic operation within a processing element in terms of both resource utilization and propagation delay. This is particularly typical for FPGAs, where a large number of logic elements are typically used to implement division. For the efficient implementation of division, which still satisfies accuracy requirements, an approach with the use of LUT and an additional multiplier has been proposed and implemented. The numerical result of a divided by  $b$  is the same as a multiplied by  $1/b$ , the FPGA built-in multiplier can be used to calculate the division if an LUT of all possible values of  $1/b$  is available in advance. FPGA device provide a limited amount of memory, which can be used for LUTs. Due to the fact that 1 and  $b$  can be considered integers, the value of  $1/b$  falls into decreasing hyperbolic curve, while  $b$  tends to one, and so the value difference between two consecutive numbers of  $1/b$  decreases dramatically. To reduce the size of LUT, the inverse value curve can be segmented into several sections with different mapping ration. This can be

achieved by storing in inverse value, the median of the group of consecutive values of  $b$ . on an altera APEX device, when combining the LUT and multiplier into a single division module, a 16 bit by 26 bit multiplier consumes 838 logic elements, operating at 25MHz clock frequency and total memory consumption of 53248 memory bits for the specific target FPGA device. The overall speed improvement achieved through using the DLM method is 3.5 times when compared to using a traditional divider. Because of the extra hardware required for efficiently addressing the LUT, the improvement in terms of LEs is rather modest. The hardware-based divider supplied by altera, configured as 16 bit by 26 bit, consumes 1123 Les when it is synthesized for the same APEX device.

*A. Optimum Segmentation Approach:* Since  $b$  is a 16-bit number in 1.15 format, there are totally  $(2^{15} - 1) = 32767$  different values of  $1/b$ . Table 2 presents the mapping ratios for five different segmentation methods, namely *Seg-1* to *Seg-5*. Since the value of  $1/b$  retrieved from the LUT is then multiplied by  $a$ , any precision error will be magnified. Therefore, it is important to consider the worst-case error. Table 5.1 presents a comparison of the various mapping schemes in Table 5.2. Table 5.1. Segmentation of  $1/b$

Name	Segmentation	Mapping ratio
Seg 1	No segmentation	1:8
Seg 2	1 - 1023	1:1
	1024 - 2047	1:2
	2048 - 4095	1:4
	4096 - 8191	1:8
	8192 - 32767	1:16
Seg 3	1-511	1:1
	512 - 1023	1:2
	1024 - 2047	1:4
	2048 - 4095	1:8
	4096 - 8191	1:16
	8192 - 16383	1:32
	16384 - 32767	1:64
Seg 4	1-511	1:1
	512 - 1023	1:2
	1024 - 2047	1:4
	2048 - 4095	1:8
	4096 - 8191	1:16
	8192 - 16383	1:32
	16384 - 24575	1:64
	24575-32767	1:128

Seg 5	1-511	1:1
	512 – 1023	1:2
	1024 – 2047	1:4
	2048 – 4095	1:8
	4096 – 8191	1:16
	8192 – 9362	map to constant value 1/4
	9363 – 13107	map to constant value 1/3
	13108 – 21845	map to constant value 1/2
	21846 – 32767	map to constant value 1

Table 5.2 Comparison of the Segmented 1/b

	Seg1	Seg2	Seg3
Average error	0.13%	0.78%	<b>0.07%</b>
Worst case error	300%	3.03%	<b>0.21%</b>
Resource(bit)	53248	81920	<b>53248</b>

Figures in Table 5.2 suggest *Seg-3* would be the natural choice for composition of the LUT. The LUT holds 4096 inverse values with a 26-bit word length in 16.10 data format.

### 6. Systolic Array:

Systolic architecture represents a network of processing elements (PEs) that rhythmically compute and pass data through the system. This PEs is regularly pump data in and out such that a regular flow of data. As a result, systolic systems feature modularity and regularity, which are important properties of VLSI design.

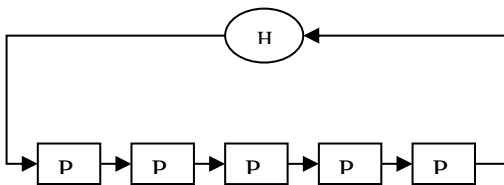


Figure 6.1: Basic systolic array

Systolic architectures are designed by using linear mapping techniques on regular dependence. A dependence graph (DG) is said to be regular if the presence of an edge in a certain at any node in the DG represents presence of an edge in the same direction at all nodes in the DG.

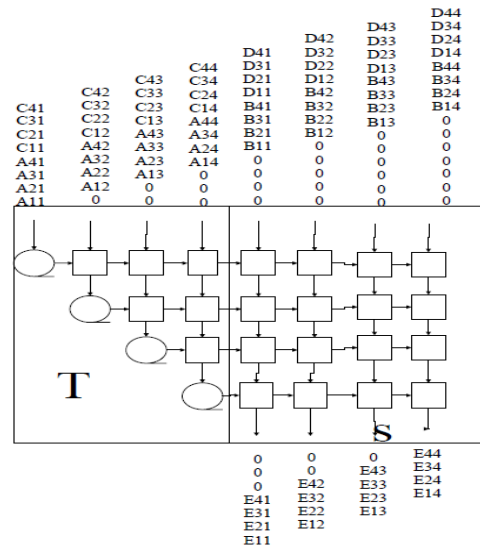


Fig.6.2: Systolic Array

### 7. Discussion of Results:

#### A. RTL Schematic of Systolic Array:

A systolic array which reduces the complexity of  $O(2n)$  from  $O(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is size of the matrix. Designing of the triangular systolic array with boundary cell and internal cell for  $2 \times 2$  matrixes. The RTL schematic of array has five internal cells and two boundary cells. RTL schematic of systolic array

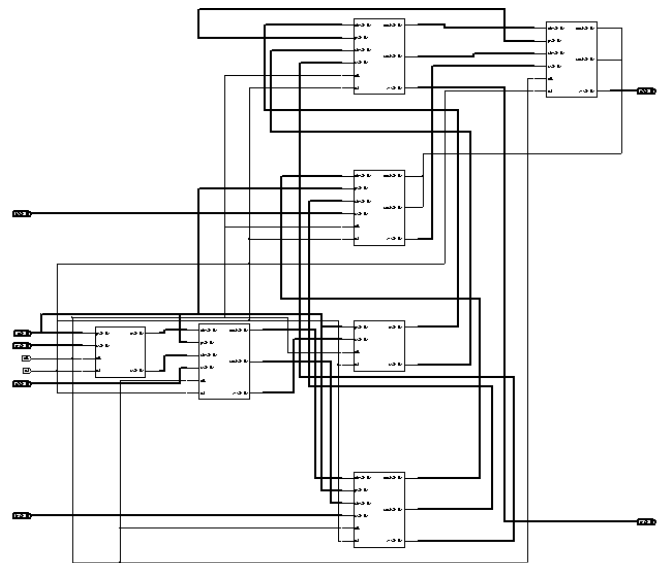


Fig 7.1 RTL of systolic array

#### B. RTL of Internal Cell:

The RTL schematic of internal cell is shown below with four inputs and clock. One input which filter coefficient  $P$  is fixed in internal cells. The two inputs are from the preceding boundary cell or internal cell. And another input is array input which is from the matrix for the two cases this will act according to the condition. The internal cells has two outputs which is regarded has sum, carry and next stage input is fed into the internal cells.

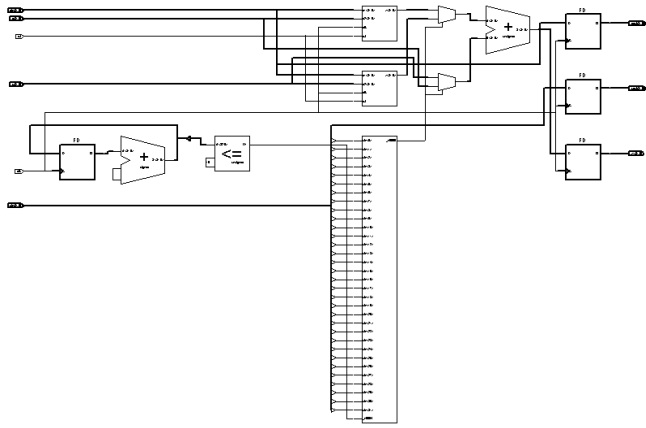
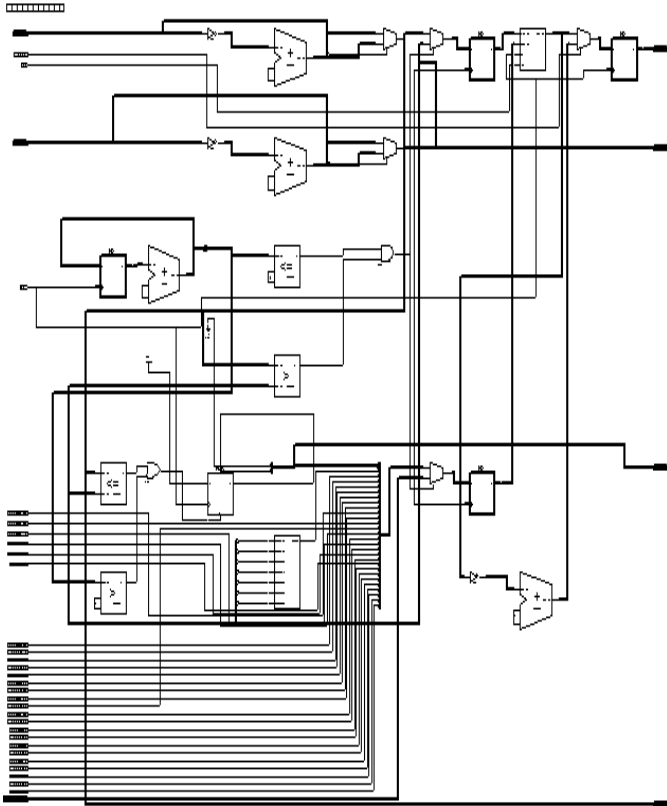


Fig 7.2: RTL schematic of internal cell

**B. RTL Schematic of Boundary Cell:**

The RTL schematic of boundary cell is shown below. It has two inputs. One of the inputs is filter coefficient and the other is fed from the previous stage or matrix input. There are two outputs, one of which is regarded as the sum and the other as the carry. These outputs are fed into the input of the internal cell.



7.3 RTL schematic of boundary cell

**8. Analysis:**

**A. Timing Analysis Report:**

The systolic array structure is working within a time slack of 500ps, hence the operation speed is increasing by using the new hardware structure for matrix inversion. Timing analysis:

```

Generated by:          Encounter(r) RTL
Compiler v06.10-p003_1
Generated on:          OCT 17 2017  11:08:23
PM
Module:                newarray
Technology library:    tsmc18 1.0
Operating conditions:  fast
(balanced_tree)
Wireload mode:        enclosed
=====

```

Pin	Type	Fanout	Load
Slew	Delay	Arrival	(fF)
(ps)	(ps)	(ps)	
-----			
(clock	clk)		launch
0	R		
(in_del_1)			ext delay
+2000	2000 F		
a2[0]	in port	30	142.7
0	+0 2000 F		
int1_1/x[0]			
a1/b[0]			
g4421/A			+0
2000			
g4421/Y	NAND2X4	4	33.9
94	+45 2045 R		
g4388/AN			+0
2045			
g4388/Y	NOR2BX4	2	22.4
82	+85 2130 R		
g329/B0			+0
8848			
g329/Y	OAI21X2	1	8.1
108	+42 8890 R		
add_24_6/z[15]			
g852/A			+0
8890			
g852/Y	NAND2X2	1	3.9
86	+16 8906 F		
g834/B			+0
8906			
g834/Y	NAND2X1	1	3.3
61	+56 8962 R		
z_reg[15]/D			DFFRXL
+0	8962		
z_reg[15]/CK	setup		0
+38	9000 R		
-----			
(clock	clk)		capture
9500	R		
-----			
Timing slack :	500ps		
Start-point :	a2[0]		
End-point :	int1_1/z_reg[15]/D		

**B. Power analysis report:**

The total number of cells which is used has the low power requirement compared to other hardware structures.

**Power analysis**

```

=====
Generated by:          Encounter (r) RTL
Compiler v06.10-p003_1
Generated on:         OCT 17 2017
05:07:46 PM
Module:              newarray
Technology library:  tsmc18 1.0
Operating conditions: fast
(balanced_tree)
Wireload mode:       enclosed
=====

```

Net	Switching Power (nW)	Leakage Power (nW)	Instance	Internal Cells Power (nW)
newa	56749	15994.652	200740657.572	
146195430.012	346936087.585			
int	8350	2689.544	31124197.183	
20596695.649	51720892.832	a	2771	
1362.033	15718497.163		9050443.340	
24768940.504	add76	98	52.196	
572022.309	236104.130	808126.439		
adddd74	86	52.087	477953.595	
214453.721	692407.316	add72	96	
50.333	590474.967		221107.620	
811582.587				
add60	17	49.457	441485.089	
56707.606	498192.695			
add56	24	49.335	469194.415	
75579.431	544773.846			
addinc_add6	17	47.914	271723.274	
44110.381	315833.654	addinc_add5	17	
47.798	221014.771		38038.661	
259053.432				
add52	17	47.301	468169.456	
59279.388	527448.844			
addinc_add5	17	46.441	244519.323	
46886.024	291405.347			
addinc_add82	107	46.051	573222.147	
280196.869	853419.016			
add48	17	45.848	472034.305	
56897.745	528932.050			
add80	109	45.403	565195.762	
280639.874	845835.635			
add68	86	44.709	478448.790	
198314.414	676763.204			
addinc_add50	17	44.326	188885.740	
47652.462	236538.202			

addinc_add86	117	44.226	588185.784
280273.316	868459.100		
addinc_add70	86	43.786	476716.225
198353.618	675069.843		
addinc_add78	110	43.628	476937.324
261221.152	738158.476		
add44	17	42.229	486347.928
54209.331	540557.259		
addinc_add4	21	41.886	171761.175
51446.429	223207.604		
add40	17	41.350	477275.334
57121.208	534396.542		
addinc_add66	31	41.112	291790.461
83506.480	375296.941		
add84	121	39.252	549697.013
290288.958	839985.971		
add64	40	39.249	431338.643
114279.660	545618.303		
add36	28	38.291	453463.634
52989.107	506452.740		
add88	98	33.584	441432.094
235834.602	677266.696		

**C. Area analysis report:**

The total area analysis report is shown below. The five internal cell and two boundary cell occupies the area of 56749 cells.

```

Area
=====
Generated by:          Encounter (r) RTL
Compiler v06.10-p003_1
Generated on:         OCT 17 2017
05:07:06 PM
Module:              newarray
Technology library:  tsmc18 1.0
Operating conditions: fast
(balanced_tree)
Wireload mode:       enclosed
=====

```

Instance	Wireload	Cells	Cell Area
newarray		56749	860244
0	<none>		
int1_2		11085	152492
0	<none>		
a1		5343	72213
0	<none>		
int1_1		11094	152289
0	<none>		
a1		5422	73088
0	<none>		
int1_3		10992	151877
0	<none>		
a1		5245	72253
0	<none>		

0	int1_4	8350	132078
0	<none>		
0	a1	2771	52231
0	<none>		
0	int1_5	8308	130847
0	<none>		
0	a1	2657	51509
0	<none>		
0	bound2	3465	70486
0	<none>		
0	a3	2321	50318
0	<none>		
0	bound1	3455	70174
0	<none>		
0	a3	2307	49959
0	<none>		

**D. Gate Summary:**

**Gate summary**

```

=====
Generated by:          Encounter(r) RTL
Compiler v06.10-p003_1
Generated on:          Oct 17 2017
05:07:31 PM
Module:                newarray
Technology library:    tsmc18 1.0
Operating conditions: fast
(balanced_tree)
Wireload mode:         enclosed
=====

```

Gate	Instances	Area	Library
ADDFHX1	295	22569.624	tsmc18
ADDFHX2	127	14363.395	tsmc18
ADDFHX4	8	931.392	tsmc18
ADDFHXL	7	512.266	tsmc18
ADDFX1	362	25287.293	tsmc18
ADDFX2	484	33809.530	tsmc18
ADDFXL	1	69.854	tsmc18
ADDHXL	35	1280.664	tsmc18
AND2X1	8	106.445	tsmc18
AND2X2	601	7996.666	tsmc18

Type	Instances	Area	Area %
sequential	453	26977.104	3.1
inverter	17236	124024.824	14.4
buffer	299	3991.680	0.5
logic	38761	705250.022	82.0
total	56749	860243.630	100.0

**E. Array Summary**

The systolic array which is implemented in the hardware structure which does not violated the max

transition design rule and max capacitance rule. The summary of the analysis report is shown below:

**Array summary**

```

=====
Generated by:          Encounter(r) RTL
Compiler v06.10-p003_1
Generated on:          Apr 18 2007
05:08:49 PM
Module:                new array
Technology library:    tsmc18 1.0
Operating conditions: fast
(balanced_tree)
Wire load mode:         enclosed
=====

```

**Timing**

Slack	Endpoint	Cost Group
-----	-----	-----
--		
+500ps	int1_5/z_reg[15]/D default	
Area		
----		
Instance Cells	Cell Area	Net Area
Wire load		
-----	-----	-----
New array	56749	860244
<none>		0

**Design Rule Check**

```

-----
Max_transition design rule: no violations.

Max_capacitance design rule: no
violations.
Hence the result which is obtained by using the systolic
array is compared with the direct implementation of the
matrix inversion. Hence the complexity of O(n^2)
O(2n).The hardware implementation of the systolic array
is done by using the cadence tool. The timing analysis,
power analysis, area analysis results are shown which are
much reduced then applying the direct inversion.

```

**9. Simulation Results:**

**A. Systolic Array Output:**

In the following fig shows the simulation output of systolic array. The array a1, a2, b1, b2 are stored in a file or given as a input while using for the filter. The filter coefficient P is given as a input to all the cells. And hence the output e1 is obtained in the 6 clock cycle and e2 is



obtained in the 7 clock cycle. And hence the output  $PA^{-1}$  is obtained by the systolic array method

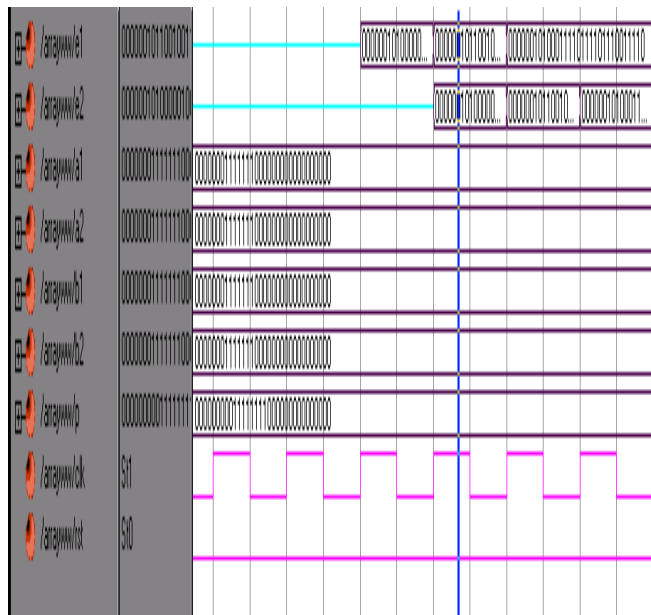


Fig.9.1 output of systolic array

**B. Boundary Cell Output:**

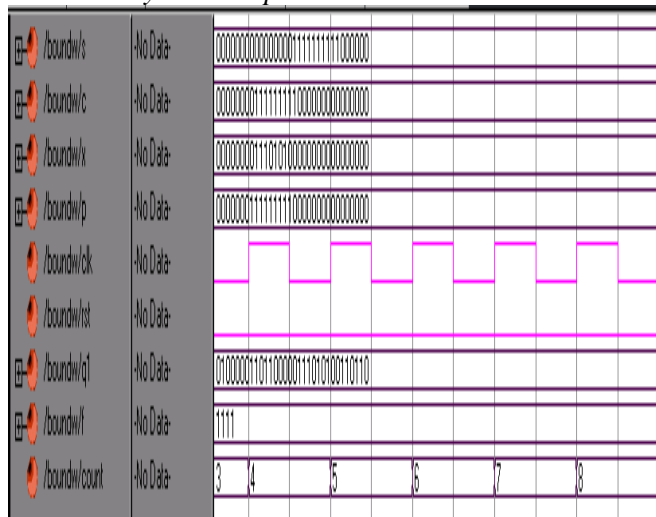


Fig. 9.2 Boundary Cell Output

**C. Internal cell output:**



Fig. 9.3 Internal Cell Output

**D. Synthesis report:**

The systolic array is downloaded to the Xilinx Spartan iii, in which it occupies most of the area. But the flip flop and the clock is used very low and hence the other clocks are wasted. And hence we are going for the ASIC implementation of the structure which uses very low area.

Synthesis report :

Device utilization summary:

```

-----
Selected Device: 4vfx12sf363-11
Number of Slices:           5984 out of  6144
97%
Number of Slice Flip Flops:  1051 out of 12288
8%
Number of 4 input LUTs:     10896 out of 12288
88%
Number of bonded IOBs:      225 out of  240 93%
Number of GCLKs:            1 out of  32  3%
  
```

**10. Conclusion:**

A customizable structure for an n-state Kalman filter has been designed in verilog and partly implemented in an Altera APEX device with smaller logic resource space. By applying Fadeev’s algorithm, matrix manipulations can be performed via the Schur complement. This paper presented a generic Pipeline Systolic Array structure with an advantage of reduced resource consumption, compared to the conventional in fixed-size systolic array structures reported in the literature. The precision error is allowable and within a range. The estimated area of proposed architecture for 4x4 matrixes with an ASIC in 0.35µm CMOS technology is about 125mm<sup>2</sup>. By applying state-of-the-art CMOS technology at the 100nm node, the ASIC area can be reduced to about 20mm<sup>2</sup>.

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