

Nontrivial behavior of the fixed-point version of $2D$ -chaotic maps

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Abstract

This paper deals with a family of interesting $2D$ -quadratic maps proposed by Sprott, in his seminal paper [1], related to “chaotic art”. Only results for the floating point representation of these maps have been published in the open literature. Our main interest in these maps is they may be used to generate a novel encryption system, because they present multiple chaotic attractors depending on the selected point in the parameter’s space. Consequently the objective of this paper is to extend the analysis to the digital version, to make possible the hardware implementation in Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA) in fixed point arithmetics. Our main contributions are: (a) the study of the domains of attraction in fixed point arithmetics; (b) the determination of the *threshold* of the bus width that preserves the integrity of the domain of attraction and (c) the comparison between two quantifiers based on respective probability distribution functions and the well known Maximum Lyapunov Exponent (*MLE*) to detect the above mentioned threshold. PACS:xxxx

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1 Introduction

Chaotic systems has an increasing number of applications and their implementation is specially involved due to the *extreme sensitivity to initial conditions*.

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In computers and digital devices only *pseudo chaotic* attractors may be generated. But discretization may even destroy the *pseudo chaotic* behavior and consequently is a non trivial process.

Among many chaotic systems available in the literature, we are interested in a family of 2D-maps [1] proposed by Sprott, and modeled by a pair of coupled quadratic equations:

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+1} = a_1 + a_2 x_n + a_3 x_n^2 + a_4 x_n y_n + a_5 y_n + a_6 y_n^2 \\ y_{n+1} = a_7 + a_8 x_n + a_9 x_n^2 + a_{10} x_n y_n + a_{11} y_n + a_{12} y_n^2 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $\{x, y\}$ are the state variables and $\{a_i, i = 1, \dots, 12\}$ are the parameters. The reasons to study this particular system are two-fold:

- (1) using floating point arithmetics Sprott show that by automatic swept of parameters a_i a huge number of points in the parameter's space (about $6 \sim 10^{16}$) having a chaotic permanent regime may be detected. He also found a correlation between the correlation dimension and the Lyapunov exponents of these chaotic attractors, with their *visual appeal*, an interesting issue for automatic *art* generation
- (2) it is possible to generate a novel encryption system, because they present multiple chaotic attractors depending on the selected point in the parameter's space. ACA PODRIA IR UNA CITA

Digital hardware implementation of dynamical systems, requires the use of a finite number of bits to represent the state variables. Only rational numbers may be represented in a computer, in spite of the arithmetics used (fixed point or floating point arithmetics). From an engineering point of view fixed point arithmetic is more efficient than floating point because it uses less resources, and each operation requires a lower number of clock cycles. As a consequence power consumption is also diminished using fixed point arithmetics. Floating point architecture, on the other hand, allows one to *recreate* the ideal system's trajectories in \mathbb{R}^n .

Only results for the floating point representation of the maps in Eq. 1 have been published in the open literature. The objective of this paper is to extend the analysis to the digital version, to make possible the hardware implementation in fixed point arithmetics.

Several strategies has been proposed in the literature for a correct selection of the optimal number of bits in hardware implementations. However, most of these procedures are limited to linear systems [2,3]. In digital chaotic systems a completely different behavior may be obtained by varying the precision. This issue has gained interest recently and several new schemes have been proposed [4–6].

Grebogi's work [7] showed that the average length T of periodic orbits of a dynamical system implemented in a computer, scales as a function of the computer precision ξ and the correlation dimension of the chaotic attractor, as $T \sim \xi^{-d/2}$. In [8] some findings on a new series of dynamical indicators, which can quantitatively reflect the degradation effects on a digital chaotic map realized with a fixed-point finite precision have been reported, but they are restricted to 1D piecewise linear chaotic maps (PWLCM).

In this work we developed a detailed analysis of the *degradation* of the multi-attractor chaotic system modeled by Eqs. 1 as a fixed point implementation is used. By *degradation* we mean: (a) the appearance of stable fixed points and stable periodic orbits with short periods, inside a floating point domain of attraction without stable orbits; (b) the attractor itself becomes periodic and its statistical characteristics change, making the system more deterministic.

The main contributions of this paper are: (a) the analysis of the domains of attraction of the chaotic attractors for a given set of parameters as the number of bits (that encode the decimal part of the number) increases; the appearance of stable fixed points and periodic orbits with short periods are specially considered. (b) the determination of the consequent *threshold width* for the bus, in order to make the statistical properties of the digital implementation close to those of the floating point implementation; (c) two different probability distribution functions (*PDF*) are assigned to evaluate the stochasticity of the time series for different bus widths. Each *PDF* P is measured by the respective *normalized Shannon entropy* $H(P)$. These entropies have abrupt changes at specific bus widths. The maximum Lyapunov exponent *MLE* that measures sensitivity to initial conditions is also evaluated and results are compared with H 's.

This work is organized as follows: section 2 gives a brief description of the chaotic maps analyzed. In section 3 a detailed explanation of how the digitalization is performed and the analysis of the degradations of the domains of attraction is performed. Section 4 describes the quantifiers and the method used to study the degradation of the attractors. We emulate fixed point representation in Section ?? and give experimental results in Section 5. Finally, the conclusions and future work are given in section ??.

2 Chaotic system under study

The family of 2D quadratic maps studied here is given by the above equation 1. The 12D parameters space generated by coefficients $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_{12}\}$ is very hard to be explored. But Spratt discovered that this set of equations produce a huge number of chaotic attractors (about $6 \sim 10^{16}$) in floating

point arithmetics. Three of these chaotic attractors are shown together in Fig. 1. Their parameters sets A_i are:

- (1) $A_1 = \{-0.7, -0.4, 0.5, -1.0, -0.9, -0.8, 0.5, 0.5, 0.3, 0.9, -0.1, -0.9\}$,
- (2) $A_2 = \{-0.6, -0.1, 1.1, 0.2, -0.8, 0.6, -0.7, 0.7, 0.7, 0.3, 0.6, 0.9\}$,
and
- (3) $A_3 = \{-0.1, 0.8, -0.7, -1.1, 1.1, -0.7, -0.4, 0.6, -0.6, -0.3, 1.2, 0.6\}$.

Figures 1a to d show the same three attractors A_1 to A_3 and also the attractor with $A_4 = \{-1, 0.9, 0.4, -0.2, -0.6, -0.5, 0.4, 0.7, 0.3, -0.5, 0.7, -0.8\}$, superimposed with their basins of attraction (in grey). The white areas of each Fig. correspond to those initial conditions generating divergent trajectories of the system.

3 Degradation of the domains of attraction for fixed point arithmetics

Using m bits to represent the state variables of a D - dimensional system the maximum theoretical period T_{max} that can be reached is $T_{max} = 2^{D*m}$. But some periodic orbits with period much lower than T_{max} , that are unstable in a floating point arithmetics, become stable in fixed point arithmetics. The appearance of these low period stable periodic orbits represents a *degradation* of the domains of attraction in the sense that certain initial conditions do not evolve toward the pseudo chaotic attractor. Then, to assure the desired pseudo chaotic behavior a threshold in m_{min} exists. Consequently the hardware implementation requires the design of a bus with at least this number of bits m_{min} . In this paper we want to emulate the behavior of a FPGA implementation, making mandatory to exactly replicate the operation of the FPGA. Our interest is to measure how the domains of attraction degrades with a change in the number of bits m employed, as well as to find the threshold value m_{min} .

Then a color scale is required in order to reflect the more complex domains of attraction. VER DONDE VA ESTA FRASE !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

A C code that simulates the nonlinear system in Eq. 1 was reproduced as it would be implemented in a digital hardware dispositive, for example a FPGA implementation. The Code employs signed integer arithmetic this is equivalent to use fixed point precision.

The system is intended to be working in decimal fixed point architecture. With 4 bits for representing the integer part ($m = 4$) in two's complement

arithmetic convention (Ca_2) and it automatically scans the number of bits representing the fractional part (n). Because precision is an important matter in alinear systems, is necessary to employ some bits to represent the fractional part of the number. The aim of the code is to analyze how the system reacts when the precision changes.

Internally, the C code employs signed integer variables, these values represent the bits that the digital platform works with. Designers must interpret these bits based on the desired arithmetic, in this case signed binary fractional data

In order to use the parameterizable operations provided by the FPGA's libraries, that work with signed integer variables, an equivalence between decimal fixed point numbers and signed integers can be done as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 shows an example of equivalences when using $n_{bits} = 6$ (4 bits for the integer part, $m = 4$, and 2 bits for the decimal part, $n = 2$) in Ca_2 convention.

Table 1
Table of equivalences.

Binary	Decimal Fixed point	Signed Integer
0111, 11	7, 75	31
0111, 10	7, 5	30
0111, 01	7, 25	29
...
0000, 00	0	0
1111, 11	-0, 25	-1
1111, 10	-0, 5	-2
...
1000, 00	-8	-32

As it is shown in the table, the same binary number can be interpreted as an integer signed number or as signed decimal number, considering a decimal point located at some position. This means that the same n_{bits} bits can be interpreted as a signed decimal number by eq. 2, or as a signed integer number by eq. 3.

$$number = -2^{(m-1)} \dots 2^0, 2^{-1} 2^{-n} \quad (2)$$

where $n_{bits} = m + n$.

In order to make this conversion, each decimal number must be multiplied by 2^n to obtain the equivalent Signed Integer number. Where n is the quantity of bits used to represent the decimal part of the number. This is equivalent to right-shift n positions the decimal point.

$$number = -2^{(m-1+n)} \dots 2^0 \quad (3)$$

The advantage of using the integer arithmetic is that operations are quite the same, operating with signed integers and decimal.

When operating with this equivalence the following considerations must be taken into account :

- Addition, this operation does not need any consideration just to make sure not to exceed the limits of the arithmetic used.
- Multiplication, the result of this operation must be divided by 2^n to adjust the result to the correct range.
- Division, the result must be always rounded towards minus infinity: 7.28 to 7 , -14.9 to -15 .

Hence, the operations in the Code are done using signed integer variables that are equivalent to decimal fixed point numbers.

After each operation the corresponding adjustment is performed to work exactly as the FPGA does.

4 Degradation effect of discretization on the state variables

OJO QUE LAS ENTROPIAS ESTAN CALCULADAS A LA SERIE DE LOS X Y EN CAMBIO EL MLE A LA SERIE XY

4.1 Defining the PDF

From a statistics point of view a chaotic system is the *source* of a symbolic time series with an alphabet of M symbols. Entropy is a basic concept in information theory. To evaluate entropy one needs first to define a probability distribution function (*PDF*) of the time series. There is not a unique procedure to obtain this *PDF* and the determination of the best *PDF* P is a fundamental problem because P and the sample space are inextricably linked. Several methods deserve mention:

- (1) frequency counting [9],
- (2) procedures based on amplitude statistics [10],
- (3) binary symbolic dynamics [11],
- (4) Fourier analysis [?] and,
- (5) wavelet transform [12], among others.

Their applicability depends on particular characteristics of the data, such as stationarity, time series length, variation of the parameters, level of noise contamination, etc.

Basically one may consider the statistics of individual symbols or the statistics of sequences of several consecutive symbols. In the first case P is *non-causal* because it does not change if the outcomes are mixed up and the number of different possible outcomes is M (the number of symbols in the source alphabet). In the second case, the outcome changes if the output is mixed and then one says that P is *causal*. In this second case the number of different outcomes is equal to n^M and increases rapidly with n . Bandt and Pompe made a proposal in [13] that is computationally efficient but retains causal effects. In previous works devoted to *PRNG*'s, the use of two Probability Distribution Functions (*PDF*'s) was successful for the comparison between different systems. One *PDF* is the normalized histogram, and its normalized Shannon entropy is denoted here H_{hist} . The other one is the ordering *PDF* proposed by Bandt & Pompe [13] and its normalized Shannon entropy is here denoted as H_{BP} . Let us summarize how these *PDF*'s are obtained.

4.1.1 *PDF based on histograms*

The first step is to normalize the state variables in the interval $[0, 1]$ and define a finite number n_{bin} of non overlapping subintervals A_i : $[0, 1] = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_{bin}} A_i$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \ \forall i \neq j$. One then employs the usual histogram-method, based on counting the relative frequencies of the time series values within each subinterval. It should be clear that the resulting *PDF* has no information regarding temporal evolution. The only pieces of information we have here are the x_i -values that allow one to assign inclusion within a given bin, ignoring just the position i where they are located.

4.1.2 *PDF based on Band and Pompe methodology*

Let x be the source output and let x_1 to x_N be a N -length digital time series. To use the Bandt and Pompe [13] methodology for evaluating of probability distribution P one starts by considering a vector of length D given by:

$$(s) \mapsto \left(x_{s-(D-1)}, x_{s-(D-2)}, \dots, x_{s-1}, x_s \right) \quad (4)$$

which assign to each time s the D -dimensional vector of values at times $s, s-1, \dots, s-(D-1)$. Clearly, the greater the D -value, the more information on the past is incorporated into our vectors. By the “ordinal pattern” related to the time (s) we mean the permutation $\pi = (r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{D-1})$ of $(0, 1, \dots, D-1)$ defined by

$$x_{s-r_{D-1}} \leq x_{s-r_{D-2}} \leq \dots \leq x_{s-r_1} \leq x_{s-r_0} . \quad (5)$$

In order to get a unique result we set $r_i < r_{i-1}$ if $x_{s-r_i} = x_{s-r_{i-1}}$. Thus, for all the $D!$ possible permutations π of order D , the probability distribution $P = \{p(\pi)\}$ is defined by

$$p(\pi) = \frac{\sharp\{s | s \leq M - D + 1; (s), \text{ has type } \pi\}}{M - D + 1} . \quad (6)$$

In this expression, the symbol \sharp stands for “number”.

The Bandt-Pompe’s methodology is not restricted to time series representative of low dimensional dynamical systems but can be applied to any type of time series (regular, chaotic, noisy, or reality based), with a very weak stationary assumption (for $k = D$, the probability for $x_t < x_{t+k}$ should not depend on t [13]). One also assumes that enough data are available for a correct attractor-reconstruction. Of course, the embedding dimension D plays an important role in the evaluation of the appropriate probability distribution because D determines the number of accessible states $D!$. Also, it conditions the minimum acceptable length $M \gg D!$ of the time series that one needs in order to work with a reliable statistics.

4.2 The maximum Lyapunov exponent

The Lyapunov exponents are quantifiers that characterize the sensitivity to initial conditions. In the case of a source one study how evolves the distance between two trajectories starting at initial positions that are very near, [14]. It is generally well known that chaotic behaviors require at least one Lyapunov exponent greater than zero, otherwise, the system is stable. It is computationally easier to evaluate only the maximal Lyapunov exponent MLE and it is enough to find that it is greater than zero to assure the source is chaotic. In fact the distance between two trajectories starting at very near points, evolves on average as 2^{MLE} per iteration. Consequently if $MLE < 0$ the trajectories approach to each other and to a fixed point; if $MLE = 0$ the trajectories keep their distance (this may be due to a limit cycle); but if $MLE > 0$, the distance between trajectories increases and this is an indicator of chaos [14].

One can estimate the MLE by means of the following procedure: two very near points of the time series are detected, lets call them x_a and x_b ; assuming

the source is a dynamical system one consider the following values as the trajectory. The Euclidean distance between both trajectories is measured (d_n in the n_{th} sample) (eq. 7), and the b trajectory is relocalized after each iteration (eq. 9), obtaining the points x_{ar} and (x_{br}) . Then the Lyapunov exponent can be calculated as shown in eq. (8).

A hardware implementation of this algorithm was developed in [15]. There, the design was optimized in terms of accuracy employing floating point architecture to represent the values. The design implemented exploits the underline parallel nature of the *MLE* computation equations with the aim of optimizing the proposed architecture design, allowing its concurrent implementation based on FPGA technology. The major drawback of this algorithm is that the analytical expression of the system under analysis is necessary. As in this case it is available we have employed this algorithm.

In this case the system was simulated in C code, as it is running in the FPGA using fixed point. Then the *MLE* is calculated using floating point architecture also in the C code. The aim of this is to analyze this sttistical property as if it was running on the device. This can be directly implemented in a FPGA

We will next implement Kantz's method ([16]), that is a *MLE* approximation calculated from the sequence already generated, and with few points.

This work is included in a more ambitious project, the development and hardware implementation of tools for the analysis of nonlinear systems. Having these tools will be a significant advance in the field of implementation of nonlinear systems. It would allows to understand and describe more accurately the behavior of the digital version of this type of system.

$$\begin{aligned} d_{0(i-1)} &= \sqrt{(x_{a(i-1)} - x_{br(i-1)})^2 + (y_{a(i-1)} - y_{br(i-1)})^2} \\ d_{1(i)} &= \sqrt{(x_{a(i)} - x_{b(i)})^2 + (y_{a(i)} - y_{b(i)})^2} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

$$MLE = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=2}^M \log_2 \frac{d_{1(i)}}{d_{0(i-1)}} \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{br(i)} &= x_{a(i)} + (x_{b(i)} - x_{a(i)})d_{o(i-1)}/d_{1(i)} \\ y_{br(i)} &= y_{a(i)} + (y_{b(i)} - y_{a(i)})d_{o(i-1)}/d_{1(i)} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

5 Results

The map has been iterated with initial conditions x_0 and y_0 from -2 to 2 in steps of 0.001 , that means 16008001 different points. On each case it was determined whether the systems evolves to a fixed point, diverges or goes towards a periodic cycle. It was also reported the repetition period of these cycles.

For every value of precision n we obtained a 4001×4001 matrix whose elements correspond to each initial condition. This means, the program outputs on each position the final state of the system for that initial condition.

There are some desirable properties that constitutes a “good” PRNG, some of the most important ones are large period, few fixed points and, of course, that do not diverge.

Figures ?? to ?? display some of the results (i.e. for different values of n) obtained, these are the set of final states for each initial condition. With final state we mean: fixed point, divergent point or the value of the period when the CI converges to a cycle.

The abscissa and ordinate axis correspond to initial values of x and y respectively. They have been swept from -2 to 2 in steps of 0.001 .

It can be seen that for small values of n the zone presents bigger areas of divergent and fixed points. As the value of n increases, it can be seen that the area of divergent points tends to the one of the floating point (Fig. ??).

Lower values of n present irregular, or rough surfaces, with predominant dark colors indicating that there is a prevalence of short periods cycles. As the value of n increases the area smoothes and the color tends to be lighter, indicating that the CIs converge to higher periods cycles. This means that the range of initial values that generate useful sequences increases for higher values of n . An analysis of these outputs can be seen in Figures 4 to 6.

Fig. 5 and 4 show the quantity of points that diverge and converge to fixed points respectively as the value of n increases, in both cases the final value tends to the floating point case. It is clear from these figures that for $n \sim 12$ the system seems to behave sufficiently accurate to the real one. However Figure 6 shows that a value of 12 for n the system still have a quite short maximum period.

Figure 7 shows the quantity of initial conditions that presents periods T higher and lower than 1000. Again, a value of 12 for n seems to be the limit to obtain a good approximation of system.

We realized that the analysis performed up to this point was not enough to determine a conclusion, so we decided to further analysis the data obtained by employing some statistical quantifiers the Entropy applied to the *hist* and *BandtPompe* distributions. Figure 9 shows the values of the quantifier normalized Shannon entropy applied over two PDFs, the histogram (H_{hist}) and Bandt-Pompe distribution (H_{BP}). In the figure it can be seen that the two quantifiers tend to the value calculated using floating-point arithmetic. While H_{BP} is concordant with the previous analysis and shows that it stabilizes for $n \sim 12$, H_{hist} reaches the theoretical value for $n \sim 19$, showing that there are properties of the output sequences that only this quantifier can detect.

In Table 6 the value of MLE for some values of n . The cases for $n = 11, 12, 13$ and 25 are showed. Also, the theoretical value calculated with Matlab using floating point arithmetic. It can be seen that as the value of m increases the MLE tends to the theoretical value. Figure 6 displays MLE vs. n , there again the quantifier reaches the theoretical value at $n \sim 13$.

6 Conclusion

The results show that, compared to floating-point, fixed-point arithmetic executed on an integer datapath has a limited impact on the accuracy.

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Fig. 1. Three attractors for three different sets of coefficients.

n	MLE
11	0.049214459144086
12	0.107498218078192
13	0.139472468153184
14	0.135756935006498
15	0.144155039896011
16	0.137514471652835
25	0.142134613438658
27	0.141180317168284
float	0.142275657734227

Fig. 2. Four chaotic attractors and their domains of attraction in floating point arithmetics. The set of parameters are (see text): (a) $\{a_i\}$ =key 3; (b) $\{a_i\}$ =key 5; (c) $\{a_i\}$ =key 9; (d) $\{a_i\}$ =key 2.

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Fig. 3. Domains of attraction xxxxx for: a) $n_b = 5$, (b) $n_b = 6$, c) $n_b = 7$, d) $n_b = 8$, e) $n_b = 9$, f) $n_b = 10$, g) $n_b = 11$, h) $n_b = 12$, i) $n_b = 13$, j) $n_b = 14$, k) $n_b = 17$, l) $n_b = 18$. Coefficients a_0 to a_{11} have the values $\{a_i\} = \{-1.0, 0.9, 0.4, -0.2, -0.6, -0.5, 0.4, 0.7, 0.3, -0.5, 0.7, -0.8\}$. The initial conditions $\{x_0, y_0\}$ are in the square $x_0 \in [-2, +2]$, $y_0 \in [-2, +2]$, on a grid with step 0.001. Each initial condition is iterated 10^5 times.

Fig. 4. Quantity of fixed points.

Fig. 5. Quantity of divergent points.

Fig. 6. Maximum periods reached.

Fig. 7. Quantity of initial conditions with period (T) higher and lower than 1000.

Fig. 8. Quantifiers H_{BP} , H_{hist} and MLE as functions of the number of bits.

Fig. 9. Plane H_{hist} - H_{BP} for different number of bits.