

Chaos computing: a unified view

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Chaos computing is a non-traditional new paradigm that exploits the extreme non-linearity of chaotic systems. This article presents a unified theoretical view of chaos computing. It introduces the fundamental concept and the unique features that are characteristics of chaos computing, and discusses various implementation approaches. Basic aspects of digital chaos computing to realise logical gates are introduced, followed by two specific techniques: (1) direct utilisation of the threshold mechanisms; (2) an application of the chaos neuron model. After presenting these approaches, we discuss general characteristics of digital chaos computing. Other digital, analog and digital/analog hybrid forms of chaos computing are also considered. Potential advantages of chaos computing include: high speed, low power and low cost, a general-purpose form of computing, re-configurable or dynamic logical architecture, implementation of continuous logic, robustness against noise, and parallel and distributed computing.

Keywords: new computing paradigms; chaos computing fundamentals; chaos computing theory; chaos neuron model; FPGA; parallel processing

1. Introduction

Recently, there has been a growing interest for computing concepts based on new principles other than the traditional CMOS or silicon-based integrated circuit (so-called 'silicon-based') architecture [28]. While none of these new techniques has been seen as a possible replacement of the silicon-based architecture yet, these ideas have stimulated the scientific community by their fundamental nature, their intrinsic novelty, and their potential as the basis for new forms of information processing and applications. This article presents a unified theory of chaos computing, one of these new paradigms. Our primary focus is on the theoretical aspects rather than the physical implementation issues, which are beyond the scope of this article.

The study of chaotic systems, or chaos in short, has attracted much attention for the past 30 years or so. Chaos represents a deterministic dynamical system that is non-linear, sensitive to initial conditions and that exhibits sustained irregularity. There are abundant candidates for chaos computing since chaos is all around us and is found in many disciplines, such as engineering, physics, chemistry and biology. For example, chaotic phenomena are found in lasers, electronic circuits and chemical and biological systems. There is another reason to support high feasibilities of chaos computing: the versatility

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of chaotic functions in general gives us opportunities to exploit many input-to-output mappings, including the ones discussed in this article. Many researchers have worked in the field because of the theoretical and practical importance of the subject and the challenging and fascinating features of extreme non-linearity [9,26]. Successful applications include the exploitation of chaotic behaviour for control [33], synchronisation [10,32], encoding information [14], communications [41], cryptosystems [21,22] and computation [2].

More recently chaos has been observed in atomic and molecular scale phenomena such as atomic nuclei, electron billiards and inorganic/organic molecules, some of which have quantum effects [18,19]. These nano-scale and quantum platforms are the current major interests for new computing paradigms beyond CMOS. They can be potential candidates for chaos computing. Recent developments in the biological arena include the realisation of chaotic neuron-like behaviour in the platform of amoeba [5].

We begin the following discussion with common properties of digital chaos computing (Section 2). It follows two specific approaches: one based on direct threshold mechanisms (Section 3) and the other on the chaos neuron model (Section 4). After studying the two approaches, we generalise digital chaos computing by discussing the basic principles (Section 5). As further variations, other types of digital, analog and digital/analog hybrid forms of chaos computing are discussed (Section 6). Physical and biological implementation issues are briefly discussed (Section 7). Finally, the Conclusions section gives future perspectives of the chaos computing field.

2. Digital chaos computing prelude: common characteristics

Digital chaos computing aims at implementing computing functions through construction of logical gates by employing chaotic or non-linear elements. The basic computing functions are logical and arithmetic operations and construction of memory. These three basic computing functions are sufficient ingredients to build a computer. The logical gates (or functions) are one-input–output gate of the NOT operator and two-input–one-output gates such as the AND, OR, XOR, NOR and NAND operators. Once these logical gates are constructed, arithmetic operations and construction of memory can be realised by combining the logical gates.

Let I , I_1 and I_2 be the ‘interpreted’ inputs and O be the ‘interpreted’ output. Each of these variables can assume either 0 or 1, representing logical False and True, respectively. I is used for the NOT gate and I_1 and I_2 for two-input–one-output gates such as AND. Let X , X_1 and X_2 be the ‘actual’ inputs and Z be the ‘actual’ output. X is used for the NOT gate and X_1 and X_2 for two-input–one-output gates. Each of these variables can assume any one of two distinct values, for example, either 0 or δ , where δ is a positive constant. The actual values are similar to physical values; e.g. the values of 0 and δ correspond to the 0 and 1 of interpreted values, respectively. The two actual values can also be -1 and 1, corresponding to the 0 and 1 of interpreted values, respectively. As is the case with silicon-based systems, as well as with some of the new paradigms, our task is to realise mappings from the given input to the output employing a chaotic element.

In scenarios having two inputs, I_1 and I_2 , there are four cases of $(I_1, I_2) = (0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$. However, in chaos computing it is sufficient to consider only three cases, such that $(0, 1)$ and $(1, 0)$ are combined into one case as $(0, 1)$ or $(1, 0)$. This is because we always consider the linear sum of $I_1 + I_2$ as the *total input* to the system. Hence, we consider the following three cases:

Case 1: $I_1 + I_2 = 0$, representing $(I_1, I_2) = (0, 0)$;

Case 2: $I_1 + I_2 = 1$, representing $(I_1, I_2) = (0, 1)$ or $(1, 0)$;

Case 3: $I_1 + I_2 = 2$, representing $(I_1, I_2) = (1, 1)$.

In the following, we discuss how each logical gate can be realised for these three cases.

3. Digital chaos computing: direct threshold approach

For the past 8 years, a new computing scheme directly based on the threshold mechanisms of chaotic functions has been proposed [8,27,29,31,34–36]. For the completeness of this article, we describe fundamentals of this technique in this section.

3.1 Basic steps and conditions

The direct threshold approach works as follows:

Step 1. Initialisation of the state x of the system to x_0 and addition of external inputs:

$$x = x_0 + X_1 + X_2.$$

Step 2. Chaotic update: $x \rightarrow f(x)$, where $f(x)$ is a chaotic function.

Step 3. Threshold mechanism to obtain output, i.e. the output Z is: $Z = 0$ if $f(x) \leq \theta$
 $Z = \delta = f(x) - \theta$ if $f(x) > \theta$.

θ is called the threshold value of the system. In Step 2, let x at time t be $x(t)$. The chaotic update here means that $x(t)$ changes to $x(t+1) = f(x(t))$ after an appropriately selected time unit. The core of chaos computing is to realise various logical gates by carefully selecting the parameter values of δ , x_0 and θ .

The next step is to design our system in such a way that it yields the desired input-to-output mapping. More specifically, given a chaotic function $f(x)$, we want to have the three parameters, δ , x_0 , θ , be consistent with the procedure and also to achieve the required mapping. Take, for example, the case of $Z = \text{AND}(X_1, X_2)$. There are three possible input value combinations for $(X_1, X_2) = (0, 0)$, $(0, \delta)$ or $(\delta, 0)$ and (δ, δ) , that is, $(X_1, X_2) = 0, \delta$ and 2δ . In the case of the AND gate, they should yield outputs of 0, 0 and δ , respectively.

Case 1: both X_1, X_2 are 0. In this case, x in Step 1 is x_0 and $f(x)$ in Step 2 is $f(x_0)$. Since Z in Step 3 should be 0 in this case, we must have $f(x_0) \leq \theta$.

Case 2: one of X_1, X_2 is 0 and the other δ . In this case, x in Step 1 is $x_0 + \delta$ and $f(x)$ in Step 2 is $f(x_0 + \delta)$. Since Z in Step 3 is 0 in this case for AND, we must have $f(x_0 + \delta) \leq \theta$.

Case 3: both X_1, X_2 are δ . In this case, x in Step 1 is $x_0 + 2\delta$ and $f(x)$ in Step 2 is $f(x_0 + 2\delta)$. Since Z in Step 3 is δ in this case, we must first have $f(x_0 + 2\delta) > \theta$. Furthermore, $f(x) - \theta = f(x_0 + 2\delta) - \theta$ must end up with the value of $\delta > 0$ to be consistent with the value of δ in other places. Combining these two requirements, we write the condition for Case 3 to be $f(x_0 + 2\delta) - \theta = \delta$.

It is necessary to have all three conditions, $f(x_0) \leq \theta$, $f(x_0 + \delta) \leq \theta$ and $f(x_0 + 2\delta) - \theta = \delta$, satisfied simultaneously to implement $Z = \text{AND}(X_1, X_2)$, since mapping from (X_1, X_2) to Z must hold for all combinations of (X_1, X_2) . Conversely, when these three conditions are satisfied, $Z = \text{AND}(X_1, X_2)$ holds. That is, the three conditions are necessary and sufficient for $Z = \text{AND}(X_1, X_2)$. Necessary and sufficient conditions

for other logical operations can be obtained similarly. For example, to implement $Z = \text{OR}(X_1, X_2)$, the conditions are: $f(x_0) \leq \theta$, $f(x_0 + \delta) - \theta = \delta$ and $f(x_0 + 2\delta) - \theta = \delta$.

3.2 Case study

We consider a specific form of $f(x)$ called the logistic map: $f(x) = rx(1 - x)$, $0 < r \leq 4$. This is a one-dimensional function that is well known for its historic background and for the chaotic characteristics it can exhibit despite its simplicity [24,26]. This map has widespread relevance to physical and biological chaotic phenomena. For example, electrical circuits and non-linear oscillators can exhibit such phenomena. In the following, we consider a special case of the logistic map by selecting $r = 4$. Although other values of r close to four can also be used, $r = 4$ guarantees that the function is chaotic and that the dynamics are equivalent to those of the tent map. Under this consideration, the expressions in the previous subsection become more explicit, for example, $f(x_0) = 4x_0(1 - x_0)$. We can select the constant δ , common to both input and output and to all logical gates, to be $1/4$. For the AND operation, for example, selecting $x_0 = 0$ and $\theta = 3/4$ suffices the three conditions. Table 1 shows such numeric values for x_0 and θ for the logical gates under consideration.

3.3 Parallel chaos computing

The above *sequential* computing technique can be extended to *parallel* and *distributed* computing by various schemes. One approach is basically the same technique that is used by many traditional parallel and distributed computers – execute L ‘processors,’ or in this case L chaotic elements, at the same time. Another approach is to utilise the high dimensionality, or the number of variables, associated with some chaotic systems. Note that the term ‘dimension’ here is used to represent the number of variables associated with the system, rather than geometric forms. For example, in the case of a two-dimensional system, a dynamical system can generally be described by two recurrence equations, $x_1(t + 1) = f_1(x_1(t), x_2(t))$ and $x_2(t + 1) = f_2(x_1(t), x_2(t))$. In the case of a biological neuron model, x_1 represents an instantaneous membrane potential and x_2 a recovery current [35]. Each of these two variables can receive input, update its state based on its chaotic function, and emit output. By using these two variables we can achieve parallelism of degree two. Perhaps x_1 and x_2 both represent AND gates with different input and output values, or x_1 an AND gate and x_2 an OR gate with the same input values. In general, a system with m variables can implement parallelism of up to degree m . There are chaotic systems as high as $m = 120$ or more; for example, certain neuronal cells can be realistically described by 120 variables [38,42]. Furthermore, by combining the above two schemes in a hybrid approach with Lm -dimensional elements, we can achieve parallelism of degree mL .

Table 1. Numeric examples for x_0 and θ for $f(x) = 4x(1 - x)$ and $\delta = 1/4$.

Operation	x_0	θ
AND	0	3/4
OR	1/8	11/16
XOR	1/4	3/4
NAND	3/8	11/16
NOT	1/2	3/4

3.4 Why chaos?

One common question asked is why we must use chaos rather than simply non-linear. To implement the basic one-dimensional (one-variable x) logical gates discussed in subsection 3.1, it does not have to be chaos – non-chaotic non-linear functions suffice. Said another way, in this particular example chaos is a sufficient, but not a necessary, condition. In fact, many techniques, including the optical computing that started in the 1980s, employ such non-linear functions to implement logic gates [12]. The reason we employ chaos is its functional versatility and abundant availability in engineering and nature. For example, to achieve a high degree of parallelism discussed above, we would need much more flexibility for implementation, and this is achieved by chaos rather than non-chaotic non-linear functions. To implement OR, XOR and AND gates by employing three variables x , y and z , respectively, we must find initial and threshold values of these three variables and a δ value (a total of seven values) that simultaneously satisfy the required conditions [35]. The same is true for re-configurable or dynamic logic architecture that will be discussed later. Often it is hard, if not impossible, to implement computing by non-chaotic non-linear functions for those applications that require satisfaction of many conditions at the same time.

4. Digital computing based on the chaos neuron model

The chaotic function employed in this section is a model of a real neuron. It employs a threshold mechanism in a more implicit way than the one studied in the previous section. One major objective of this section is to demonstrate implementation of digital chaos computing by employing such a different model.

We consider a neuron with n inputs, X_1, \dots, X_n and one output Z . The inputs are associated with corresponding connection weights, w_1, \dots, w_n , respectively. We are interested in mapping from the input to the output. The simplest form of the neuron model proposed by McCulloch and Pitts is a step function given by:

$$Z = h(v) = \begin{cases} 1 & v \geq 0 \\ 0 & v < 0 \end{cases}, \quad (1)$$

where

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i - \theta_i \quad (2)$$

where θ is a threshold value. It can be shown that McCulloch and Pitts's neuron model can represent any logical function by selecting appropriate values of w_i and θ [25]. Table 2 shows an example of two input values, representing the OR logical function with $w_1 = w_2 = 1$ and $\theta = 0.5$. McCulloch and Pitts's neuron model can be considered as a logical device representing a specific logical function.

Table 2. An example of the OR logical function achieved by McCulloch and Pitts's neuron model.

X_1	X_2	$\sum_{i=1}^2 w_i X_i - \theta$	Z
0	0	- 0.5	0
0	1	0.5	1
1	0	0.5	1
1	1	1.5	1

The chaos neuron model proposed by Aihara *et al.* [4] is based on the chaotic behaviour in real nerve membranes and is given by:

$$\begin{cases} y(t+1) = ky(t) + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i(t) - \alpha Z(t) - \theta(1-k), \\ Z(t+1) = g(y(t+1)) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

In these equations, $y(t)$ is the internal state of the neuron, $Z(t)$ is the output of the neuron and $X_i(t)$ is the i th external input at discrete time t ; k ($0 \leq k < 1$) is the time decay factor of the internal state, α ($\alpha \geq 0$) is the refractory scaling parameter, θ is the threshold and w_i is the connection weight from the external input $X_i(t)$ to the neuron. The refractory scaling parameter α represents the degree at which a neuron that fired once becomes difficult to fire again, a property that is observed in a real neuron. That is, the past output of a neuron affects its present behaviour. Therefore, the chaos neuron model stores all past firing. The existence of the $\alpha Z(t)$ term makes this neural network model *recurrent*. The output function $g(v)$ is defined by Equation (4), where ε represents the steepness of the slope. Its function form is shown in Figure 1(a) for $\varepsilon = 0.03$.

$$g(v) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-v/\varepsilon)}. \quad (4)$$

The chaos neuron model includes many previous neuron models of discrete time as special cases. For example when $k = 0$, $\alpha = 0$ and $\varepsilon = 0$, the chaos neuron model reduces to McCulloch and Pitts's neuron model.

4.1 Unipolar and bipolar neurons

The range of both external input $X_i(t)$ and the output $Z(t)$ of the chaos neuron model in Equations (3) and (4) is $[0, 1]$. However, a model based on the range $[-1, +1]$ can give a better performance than the one based on the range $[0, 1]$ for actual implementation. The former, for example, may have a broader input range for the same output, allowing higher robustness against noise. Also, determining parameter values such as weights and thresholds for the range $[-1, +1]$ is easier, because it is symmetric with respect to 0. Furthermore, the determined thresholds have simpler values for this range (see Table 3). Hence, we present both cases of the ranges $[0, 1]$ and $[-1, +1]$.

We call a neuron with the range $[0, 1]$ *unipolar* and a neuron with the range $[-1, +1]$ *bipolar*. In the following, parameters, variables and functions superscripted with (u) indicate a unipolar neuron, while those with (b) indicate a bipolar neuron. It can be shown that results employing a bipolar neuron can be converted to their unipolar counterparts through simple transformation and vice versa. Hence, we can select either type of neuron (e.g. bipolar) for easier implementation, then convert the result to the other type.

The internal state of the bipolar chaos neuron model is shown as follows:

$$y(t+1) = k^{(b)}y(t) + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^{(b)}X_i^{(b)}(t) - \alpha^{(b)}g^{(b)}(y(t)) - \theta^{(b)}(1 - k^{(b)}). \quad (5)$$

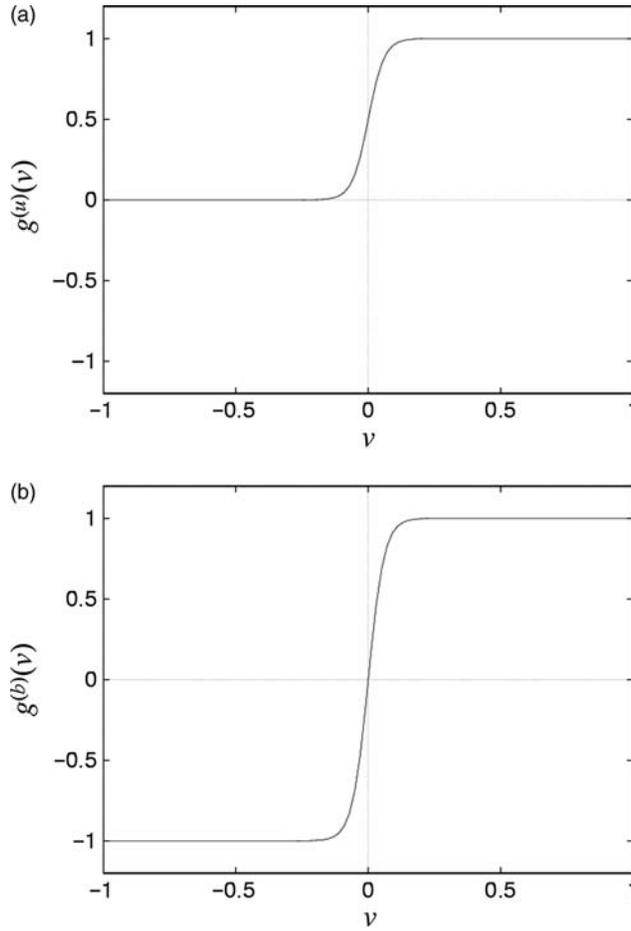


Figure 1. The characteristics of the output functions. (a) $g^{(u)}$ for $\varepsilon = 0.03$. (b) $g^{(b)}$ for $\varepsilon = 0.03$.

Table 3. Examples of parameter values to realise logical functions by the chaos neuron model.

Operation	Unipolar		Bipolar	
	$k = 0.5, \alpha = 1.2$		$k = 0.5, \alpha = 0.6$	
	w	θ	w	θ
AND	+2	+4.8	+1	+2
OR	+2	+0.8	+1	-2
NAND	-2	-7.2	-1	-2
NOR	-2	-3.2	-1	+2
NOT	-4	-7.2	-2	-2

For two-input gates, $w_1 = w_2 = w$. For one-input gate NOT, there is one weight w .

$g^{(b)}$ is defined by Equation (6). Figure 1(b) shows $g^{(b)}$ for $\varepsilon = 0.03$.

$$g^{(b)} = \frac{2}{1 + \exp(-v/\varepsilon)} - 1. \quad (6)$$

4.2 Implementation of logical functions

We consider implementing standard logical functions by employing a unipolar neuron. A unipolar neuron is easier to understand, but the actual implementation can be done using a bipolar neuron as discussed in the previous subsection. For the two-input–one-output logical functions such as AND, OR, NAND and NOR, we consider a special case of $n = 2$, i.e. two external inputs in Equation (3). It is sufficient to select $w_1 = w_2 = w$ in this case. The one-input–output logical function NOT is a special case where $n = 1$.

We constructed the OR and NAND logical gates and numerically simulated their dynamics. In the following, we assign parameter values $k = 0.5$, $\alpha = 1.2$ and $\varepsilon = 0.03$ for both OR and NAND gates. Selection of the remaining parameters θ and w determines the gate to be OR or NAND. The behaviour of the unipolar neuron for the OR gate is shown in Figure 2(a) with parameter values $w = 2$ and $\theta = 0.8$ and initial conditions of $y(0) = 0.001$ and $Z(0) = g(y(0))$. We interpret that output O is 0 for $Z(t) \leq 0.05$ and O is 1 for $Z(t) > 0.95$. Figure 2(a) is a relation between $X_1 + X_2$ and $Z(t)$ for $t = 1001, \dots, 1100$, after a transient phase of $t = 0, \dots, 1000$. The band-like regions (e.g. in the neighbourhoods of $X_1 + X_2 = 0.25$ and 0.75) exhibit the chaotic behaviour of the neuron model, where $Z(t)$ takes many values in terms of t . Similarly, Figure 2(b) shows the NAND gate with $w = -2$ and $\theta = -7.2$.

Implementation of standard logical functions by a bipolar neuron can be achieved similarly. Table 3 summarises examples of parameter values that are needed to realise various logical gates by employing unipolar and bipolar neurons. The NOT gate can be obtained as a special case of either the NAND or NOR gate by merging the two incoming edges into one. It is sufficient to consider only cases of $X_1 = X_2$ and assign $X = X_1$. We can select w for the NOT gate equal to $2w$ for the NAND or NOR gate. The table shows parameter values using the NAND gate.

Several notes follow. In the example above, when we change the values of w_1 and w_2 in the OR gate from 2 to -2 and change the value of θ from 0.8 to -7.2 , it changes to the NAND gate. This is the dynamic logic architecture discussed in the previous section. The concepts of parallel processing by a higher dimensionality of neurons and continuous

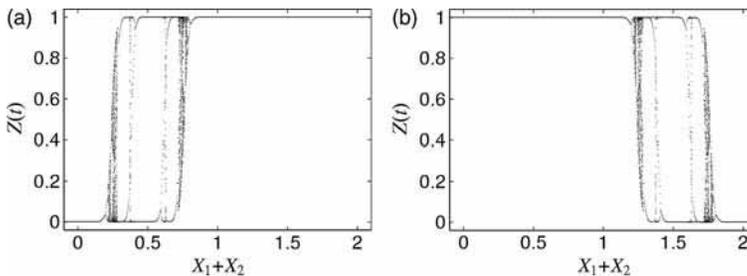


Figure 2. Behaviour of a unipolar chaos neuron ($k = 0.5$, $\alpha = 1.2$, $\varepsilon = 0.03$). (a) the OR gate ($w = 2$, $\theta = 0.8$). (b) the NAND gate ($w = -2$, $\theta = -7.2$).

logic discussed in the previous section also apply in this section. Robustness against noise can be observed for $Z(t)$ versus $X_1 + X_2$ in Figure 2. The values of $Z(t)$ in the neighbourhood of $X_1 + X_2 = 0, 1, 2$ stay constant. Hence, small amounts, say 5%, of noise in the input does not affect the resulting output.

5. General features of digital chaos computing

After studying the two specific approaches in the preceding sections, we are now ready to define digital chaos computing in more general terms. *Digital chaos computing* is any scheme used to implement basic computing ingredients – logical and arithmetic functions and memory – by employing chaotic elements. Since arithmetic functions and memory can be constructed by combining logical gates, the problem reduces to realisation of logical gates. For example, we can implement a half adder by combining an AND and an XOR gate. Furthermore, we can build full and higher bit adders and flip–flop memory by combining logical operations based on integrated circuits [7,20].

An essential point in digital chaos computing is that each input and output can assume one of two clearly distinguishable values, corresponding to 0 and 1. For the two-input logical gates such as AND, it is sufficient to consider a special form of inputs as $Z = \text{AND}(X_1 + X_2)$. Output Z of one gate must be accepted as input X of the next gate (cascading). The two approaches discussed in the preceding sections are special cases, and any other form that satisfies the conditions can be digital chaos computing.

Digital chaos computing has unique features that include the following:

Parallel computing. As discussed before for the direct threshold approach, parallel processing of degree n can be realised by utilising n physical quantities associated with each chaotic element.

Reconfigurable or dynamic logic architecture, where logical gates in a network can change during computation. This is a somewhat similar idea to FPGA (Field Programmable Gate Array) or evolvable hardware. Because of the characteristics of chaos, we can achieve various logical gates, adders and memory by applying small changes to the parameters on the same element. For example, consider the one-dimensional logistic map example discussed earlier. By selecting $x_0 = 0$ and $\theta = 3/4$, we have an AND gate; by changing them to $x_0 = 1/8$ and $\theta = 11/16$ on the *same* chaotic element, we can have an OR gate. Other types of gates such as XOR and NAND can be obtained in the same fashion by slightly (all on the order of 1/16) changing these parameter values. This is also true for the second approach, the chaos neuron model. Note that all these conversions are made at the ‘hardware’ level on the same physical unit. The flexibility of achieving various operation types by chaos computing leads to the new computing architecture concept called dynamic logic architecture or *evolvable dynamic architecture*.

Robustness against noise. There are three basic reasons that digital chaos computing is robust against noise: (1) the underlying physical phenomena are deterministic; (2) the input-to-output mappings are mostly obtained in a relatively small number of chaotic updates, often within a few steps; (3) the physical quantities for input and output values are based on broad ranges of values rather than single points. This is explained in the previous section. For the direct threshold approach, a numerical experiment is performed to demonstrate the robustness [35].

One of the common questions asked is that why chaos computing is sensitive to small changes, while at the same time being robust with respect to noise. The answer is it is a matter of the degree of smallness. Our assumption is that the range of noise is smaller than the magnitude needed for control. In Table 1, for example, to convert the AND gate to the OR, the ratio of changes in threshold value θ is $1/12 x \approx 8\%$, which is small, but not very small. We consider a typical noise level to be smaller, which gives the rationale for robustness. If this assumption does not hold, because either the noise level is higher or the control ratio is smaller, this can become an issue. In most implementations, however, we expect the assumption to hold.

A universal form of computing, i.e. a general-purpose computer for a wide spectrum of applications.

Abundant candidates in nature and engineering.

High/low speeds, low power, simple yet cost effective.

Compared with other new computing paradigms, chaos computing can be competitive in terms of speed, power consumption, cost and other characteristics. These elements, of course, depend on a specific implementation, but there are many candidates in nature for which these potential characteristics seem to be feasible. High speed computing may be realised by physical/engineering devices such as chaotic lasers. Low speed computing may be implemented in biological and micro/nano fluidic systems. These are typically for special purposes, and not aimed at replacing conventional silicon-based computers. Massively parallel processing may increase the effective speed for biological chaos computing. In micro/nano fluidic systems, turbulence due to ordinary convection does not occur because of low Reynolds numbers. Chaos-like phenomena, however, due to advection [6], may be a platform of chaos computing. Generating laser light may not require much power and may not be expensive (e.g. CD). It does not require an extreme environment such as the very low temperature and high magnetic fields that are required for quantum computing. Many chaotic systems are probably less sensitive than organic or biology-oriented computing to environmental changes such as temperature.

Chaos computing can overlap and interact with other important technical areas such as nanotechnology.

Extensions to non-discrete computing.

We note that although we employed chaotic elements to represent ordinary logical gates, the values involved change continuously. Hence, the methods can be extended to represent 'continuous' logic such as fuzzy logic and analog computing.

6. Chaos engineering and computing

In addition to the approaches discussed in the previous sections, the direct threshold mechanism and the chaos neuron model, there have been other chaos applications in digital form. One major difference between these two approaches and the others is that the first two are based on logical gates. That is, although they employ chaotic elements, the basic principle of computing is the same as silicon-based computing. This is also true for most other new computing paradigm techniques such as molecular and optical computing. On the other hand, the other digital chaos computing applications are not based on logical gates and do not perform general logical and arithmetic operations as do silicon-based

computers. Rather, they manipulate digital information for specialised applications. In this sense, the term chaos ‘computing’ can be somewhat misleading. One such example is the encryption application [21,22], which may be considered digital chaos computing. Quantum encryption is currently the most practical application of quantum computing. Conventional encryption algorithms are implemented on silicon-based computers in digital form. Other examples of digital chaos computing, in a broad sense, are applications of the synchronisation to communications [17].

Applications of chaotic systems come in many forms. In this article, we use the term ‘chaos engineering’ to represent engineering applications of chaotic systems in general. Chaos engineering exploits the unique characteristics of chaotic systems to manipulate, control or communicate a variety of systems and its practical applications started after 1990. Chaos engineering has been applied to various engineering problems such as control, synchronisation and communications, as well as to other fields such as biomedicine [3,9]. Many chaos engineering applications are based on analog systems; the remainder is digital, as cited in the above-mentioned encryption and communications applications. Chaos computing, as discussed in this article, can also be considered to be a special application domain of chaos engineering. Some of the analog forms of chaos engineering can be candidates for analog chaos computing.

Physical quantities in chaotic systems are all continuous. This is also true of the digital chaos computing discussed in the preceding sections. We can use these continuous physical quantities in chaotic systems without digitising them. This is the basis of *analog chaos computing*. For example, in a system with one input x and one output z in the direct threshold mechanism method, we can obtain an approximate value of z by chaotic update: $x \rightarrow z = f(x, t)$, where $f(x, t)$ is a chaotic function. The analog implementation of chaotic systems guarantees that we can obtain various desired values approximately for practical applications [11].

Past application examples of analog based chaos engineering include: stabilisation and control, synthesis of chaotic systems and synchronised chaos for communications and information processing [2,3,9,11,13]. The analog aspects of these techniques may be applied to analog chaos computing. The very basic idea is: *given input values in analog form, we compute desired output values in analog form using these chaos engineering systems*. Given a problem of a certain input-to-output mapping, we will search for a suitable system and parameter setting. There is no guarantee of finding such a system and parameter setting for a given problem, but considering the ergodic and fractal property of chaotic systems in general, the chance should be high.

Analog computing has mostly been applied to special rather than general purpose computing. This will also be true for chaos computing. For example, the three-dimensional Lorenz equations are modeled for chaotic weather patterns. It is known that there exists a correspondence between a coherently pumped far-infrared ammonia laser and the Lorenz system. Analog chaos computing based on such laser systems may be applicable for modeling weather patterns [29,35].

By combining the digital and analog schemes, we can also implement digital/analog hybrid chaos computing systems. Such systems can perform efficient computing, utilising the strength of each scheme. For example, analog input data may be preprocessed by the analog part, while the intelligent computing portion is performed by the digital part. A digital-analog hybrid system has also been implemented in hardware for large-scale chaotic neural network simulation. This system has been applied to solve hard problems such as the quadratic assignment problem [15,16]. Table 4 summarises the computing schemes discussed in this article.

Table 4. Summary of digital, analog and hybrid chaos computing implementations.

Digital or Analog	Chaos technique employed	Logic-gate based
Digital	Direct threshold approach	Yes
Digital	Chaos neuron model	Yes
Digital	General chaos engineering	No
Analog	General chaos engineering	No
Hybrid	A combination of above digital/analog	Yes/No

In the center column, 'Direct threshold' refers to the technique discussed in Section 3, 'Chaos neuron model' Section 4 and 'General chaos engineering' Section 5.

7. Physical and biological implementations

As stated in the beginning, the primary focus of this article is theory. Implementation involves extensive issues that are specific to the nature of the chaotic systems employed. Probably many studies will be developed to cover various implementations based on a wide range of chaotic systems. The basic idea and the current state regarding this issue are as follows.

First, a device that is based on electronic circuits has already been implemented to demonstrate chaos computing [30,31]. The system, which is based on Chua's circuit, can receive an electronic signal as input, change its internal state according to the chaotic function of the circuit and then give another electronic signal as output. The basic principle for other chaotic systems, whether they are electronic, optical or biological, is exactly the same. Given a chaotic system, we will first set characteristic parameter values, then will input signals (e.g. in form of a wave of electronic and laser pulses) and finally will detect output signals (e.g. electric, optical). There have been reports of other controlled chaotic systems; communication with chaotic lasers is an example [23,39–41]. Also, Section 4 of this article shows the feasibility of the scheme using a silicon-based computer. These experiments show that the basic principle of chaos computing is working.

Chaos computing is also closely related to a biological neuron or an artificial neural network. In fact, chaos computing, as discussed in Section 4, is based on a model of biological neurons and also on its extension to an artificial neural network. It is well known that a neuron exhibits chaotic behaviour and the basic idea is that we exploit this characteristic as an element of chaos computing. Perhaps work on chaos computing [2,4] may one day lead to a breakthrough in brain science e.g. by extending the concept of conventional attractor networks [1,37]. One major difference between chaos computing and a neuron is that the former can utilise any other chaotic systems, such as lasers.

8. Conclusions

The paradigm of chaos computing, either digital, analog or hybrid, could open up completely new ways of information processing that are different from the conventional CMOS architecture, as well as other new types of computers. One area of particular interest is micro/nano scale computing at molecular and atomic levels. Chaotic phenomena have been found at these levels and it is conceivable to apply the techniques discussed in this article to these domains. Advantages of computing techniques at these levels include: high speed, high density and parallelisms and few or none of the physical barriers found in conventional computers.

Chaos computing can also be implemented in other specialised domains such as a biological environment and micro/nano fluidics. The major objective will be to incorporate computing functions within their application domains, enhancing the system performance. In summary, chaos computing may lead to unique environments such as dynamic logic architecture and parallel processing in various domains.

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