Canonical Realization of Chua’s Circuit Family

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Abstract — In this paper we present a new canonical piecewise-linear circuit capable of realizing every member of the Chua’s circuit family [6]. It contains only six two-terminal elements: five of them are linear resistors, capacitors, and inductors, and only one element is a three-segment piecewise-linear resistor. It is canonical in the sense that (1) it can exhibit all possible phenomena associated with any three-region symmetric piecewise-linear continuous vector fields, including those defined in [1] and [2]; and more; and (2) it contains the minimum number of circuit elements needed for such a circuit.

Using this circuit, we proved a theorem that specifies the constraint on the types of eigenvalue patterns associated with a piecewise-linear continuous vector field having three equilibrium points. This theorem has an explicit physical meaning and unifies the corresponding theorem in [1] and [2]. We also present some computer simulation results of this circuit, including some new attractors that have not been observed before.

I. INTRODUCTION

AMONG GENERAL piecewise-linear systems, the class of three-region symmetric (with respect to the origin) piecewise-linear continuous vector fields (henceforth denoted by \( L \)) is of particular interest and importance [1]-[10]. It is proved in [1] and [2] that any two vector fields \( \xi \) and \( \xi' \) in \( L \) are linearly conjugate if and only if their corresponding eigenvalues in each region are identical, and are linearly equivalent if and only if their corresponding normalized eigenvalues in each region are identical. Here, linear conjugacy implies the respective dynamic behaviors are identical, whereas linear equivalence implies qualitatively similar dynamic behaviors.

Therefore, if we can build a piecewise-linear circuit whose natural frequencies are equal to an arbitrarily prescribed set of eigenvalues, we can derive all possible phenomena in \( L \) by analyzing this one circuit alone. Such an attempt for the most general class of Chua’s circuit, called the Chua’s circuit family, has been mentioned in [6], but no such circuit has been reported to date.

Although Chua’s circuit displays rather rich nonlinear dynamics [8], many phenomena other than those observed from this circuit have been discovered from other piecewise-linear circuits belonging to the Chua’s circuit family [9], [10]. However, we will prove that not one of these circuits is general enough to satisfy our above-cited objective.

In this paper, we will present a new piecewise-linear circuit. It contains the minimum number of circuit elements needed to generate all possible phenomena in any three-dimensional, three-region continuous and symmetric piecewise-linear vector fields. In Section II, we demonstrate why no existing circuits can fulfill our purpose. In Section III, we give the structure of the canonical piecewise-linear circuit and the explicit formulas for calculating its element parameters from an arbitrarily given set of eigenvalues. In Section IV, based on this circuit, we prove a theorem on the class of realizable eigenvalues, thereby unifying the corresponding theorems in [1] and [2]. In Section V, we present some simulation results, including a few attractors that have not been reported before. For certain eigenvalues where the canonical circuit in Section III requires negative dynamic elements, and/or too many negative resistors, other equivalent but more practical piecewise-linear circuit realizations are presented in Section VI.

II. EIGENVALUE CONSTRAINTS FOR EXISTING CIRCUITS

Consider the class of three-dimensional three-region and symmetric (with respect to the origin) piecewise-linear continuous vector fields. The eigenvalues in the inner region \( D_0 \) are denoted by \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \) and \( \mu_3 \). The eigenvalues in the two outer regions \( D_2 \) and \( D_1 \) are equal, since the vector field is symmetric with respect to the origin. We denote them by \( \nu_1, \nu_2, \) and \( \nu_3 \). Some of the \( \mu \)'s and the \( \nu \)'s may be complex conjugate numbers. In order to avoid complex numbers, let us define

\[
\begin{align*}
p_1 &= \mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3; & p_2 &= \mu_1 \mu_2 + \mu_2 \mu_3 + \mu_3 \mu_1; \\
p_3 &= \mu_1 \mu_2 \mu_3; \\
q_1 &= \nu_1 + \nu_2 + \nu_3; & q_2 &= \nu_1 \nu_2 + \nu_2 \nu_3 + \nu_3 \nu_1; \\
q_3 &= \nu_1 \nu_2 \nu_3. 
\end{align*}
\]

Let us analyze the type of eigenvalue patterns that can be produced by Chua’s circuit, as shown in Fig. 1(a). The \( v-i \) relationship of the nonlinear resistor \( G_N \) is shown in...
Fig. 1. (a) Chua's circuit. (b) The \( v \sim i \) characteristic of the nonlinear resistor \( G_N \).

Fig. 1(b). The state equations of this circuit are

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_1} \left[ G(v_2 - v_1) - \left( G_b v_1 + \frac{1}{2} (G_u - G_b)(|v_1| + 1 - |v_1| - 1) \right) \right] \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_2} \left[ G(v_1 - v_2) + i_3 \right] \\
\frac{di_3}{dt} &= -\frac{v_2}{L}
\end{align*}
\]

where we have chosen \( v_1 = \pm 1 \) as the break points for simplicity.

In the \( D_0 \) region, the state equations are linear

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} \\
\frac{di_3}{dt}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{G + G_u}{C_1} & G & 0 \\
G & \frac{G}{C_2} & -G \\
0 & -\frac{1}{L} & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
v_1 \\
v_2 \\
i_3
\end{bmatrix} = M_0 \begin{bmatrix}
v_1 \\
v_2 \\
i_3
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where \( M_0 \) is a constant matrix.

The characteristic equation of \( M_0 \) is

\[
|sI - M_0| = s^3 + s^2 \left( \frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{G_u}{C_1} \right) + \frac{G + G_u}{LC_2} + \frac{GG_u}{LC_2} = 0.
\]

On the other hand, since \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \) and \( \mu_3 \) are the eigenvalues we want this system to possess, we have

\[
(s - \mu_1)(s - \mu_2)(s - \mu_3) = s^3 - p_1 s^2 + p_2 s - p_3 = 0.
\]

Comparing (5) with (6), we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{G_u}{C_1} &= -p_1 \\
\frac{GG_u}{C_1 C_2} + \frac{1}{LC_2} &= p_2 \\
\frac{G + G_u}{LC_2} &= -p_3,
\end{align*}
\]

Similarly, in the \( D \pm 1 \) regions we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{G_u}{C_1} &= -q_1 \\
\frac{GG_u}{C_1 C_2} + \frac{1}{LC_2} &= q_2 \\
\frac{G + G_u}{LC_2} &= -q_3.
\end{align*}
\]

Subtracting (10) from (7), (11) from (8), and (12) from (9), we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{G_u - G_b}{C_1} &= -p_1 + q_1 \\
\frac{G(G_u - G_b)}{C_1 C_2} &= p_2 - q_2 \\
\frac{G_u - G_b}{LC_2} &= -p_3 + q_3
\end{align*}
\]

or,

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{C_1} &= -p_1 + q_1 \\
\frac{1}{C_2} &= \frac{p_2 - q_2}{G(q_1 - p_1)} \\
\frac{1}{L} &= \frac{G(q_3 - p_3)}{p_2 - q_2}.
\end{align*}
\]

Substituting (16), (17), and (18) into (7), (8), and (9), and after some algebraic manipulations, we obtain a set of linear algebraic equations in \( G, G_u, \) and \( G_b \):

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
(p_2 - q_2)(q_1 - p_1) \\
(p_2 - q_2)q_3 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
G \\
G_u \\
G_b
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}.
\]
This set of homogeneous algebraic equations has nonzero solutions only if the determinant of the matrix is equal to zero, i.e.,

\[
\det \begin{bmatrix}
(p_2 - q_2) + q_1(q_1 - p_1) & (q_2 - p_2) - p_3(q_1 - p_1) \\
q_3 & -p_3
\end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (20)
\]

or

\[
(p_2 - q_2) - (p_3 - q_3) = (p_1 - q_1)(p_3 q_1 - q_3 p_1). \quad (21)
\]

This is the main eigenvalue constraint on Chua's circuit. Only those eigenvalues subject to this constraint can be realized by Chua's circuit. In addition, the following obvious constraints must also be satisfied:

\[
p_1 \neq q_1, \quad p_2 \neq q_2, \quad p_3 \neq q_3. \quad (22)
\]

Otherwise, \(C_1, C_2,\) or \(L\) will tend to infinity in view of (16)–(18).

Let us consider a numerical example using the following element values from Chua's circuit in [7]:

\[
C_1 = 1/9, \quad C_2 = 1, \quad G = 0.7, \quad G_a = -0.8 \\
G_b = -0.5, \quad L = 1/7. \quad (23)
\]

Using (7)–(12), we obtain

\[
p_1 = 0.2, \quad p_2 = 1.96, \quad p_3 = 6.3 \\
q_1 = -2.5, \quad q_2 = 3.85, \quad q_3 = -12.6. \quad (24)
\]

It is easy to verify that (24) does satisfy (21).

Consider next the piecewise-linear circuit in Fig. 2. Since it is related to the torus attractors [9], we will refer to it as the "torus circuit." By analysis similar to the above, we can show that the sets of eigenvalues of this circuit are subject to the following two constraints:

\[
p_2 - q_2 = 0 \quad (25a) \\
p_3 - q_3 = 0. \quad (25b)
\]

Comparing with (21), (25) has one more constraint on the values of \(p\)'s and \(q\)'s. It is understandable since the number of circuit elements in the torus circuit is smaller than that in Chua's circuit by one. Also, it is easy to see that (25) is a special case of (21). However, (25a) violates (22). Therefore, all eigenvalue sets produced by the torus circuit cannot be produced by Chua's circuit, no matter how one adjusts the circuit parameters in this circuit.\(^1\)

\(^1\)This does not mean that Chua's circuit cannot display torus attractors. As a matter of fact, we have obtained torus attractors from Chua's circuit, which are associated with eigenvalues different from those in [9].

Consider next the piecewise-linear circuit in Fig. 3. We will refer to it as the "double hook circuit" [10]. By a similar analysis we can show that this circuit is also subject to the eigenvalue constraints (21) and (22), as in Chua's circuit. Hence from the point of view of computer simulation they are equivalent. However, the corresponding element parameters in these two circuits are different for a particular set of eigenvalues. From the point of view of experimental observation, one of these two circuits therefore would be a better choice if it requires fewer negative dynamic elements in a particular case.

III. THE CANONICAL PIECEWISE-LINEAR CIRCUIT

In this section, we will present a universal piecewise-linear circuit for realizing any eigenvalue pattern associated with any vector field in \(L\).

First we have to decide the minimum number of elements such a circuit needs. Since our objective is a three-dimensional three-region symmetric piecewise-linear continuous vector field, the circuit under consideration is allowed to have only one nonlinear resistor whose \(v-i\) characteristic is three-segment piecewise-linear and symmetric with respect to the origin. The circuit must have three dynamic elements (capacitors and/or inductors) since the system is of third order. The rest are all linear resistors. Let us investigate next how many linear resistors are needed in general.

A linear autonomous RC circuit has two circuit elements and has only one natural frequency \(\omega = 1/RC\). If we increase \(C\) to \(aC\) and decrease \(R\) to \(R/\alpha\), the natural frequency of the circuit will remain unchanged. Therefore, to produce a natural frequency \(\mu\), we can assign an arbitrary value to \(C\) or \(R\) (e.g., let \(C = 1\)) and find the value for the other parameter.

The situation is similar for Chua's circuit. In (7)–(12) there are six unknown parameters: \(C_1, C_2, G, G_a, G_b,\) and \(L\). However, if we regard \(C_1, C_2, G, G_a, G_b,\) and \(1/L\) as the unknown variables, the left-hand sides of (7)–(12) are homogeneous functions of the zeroth order. For any particular set of \(p\)'s and \(q\)'s, if \((C_{10}, C_{20}, G_{10}, G_{20}, G_{a0}, L_0)\) is a solution of (7)–(12), then \((\alpha C_{10}, \alpha C_{20}, \alpha G_{a0}, \alpha G_{20}, \alpha G_{a0}, L_0/\alpha) (\alpha\) is an arbitrary real number) will also be a solution. In other words, if (7)–(12) have solutions, we can assign an arbitrary value to any one of the six parameters (e.g., let \(C_1 = 1\)) and calculate the remaining five parameters. This means that out of the six circuit parameters, the "degree of freedom" is only five. From the point of view of circuit theory, we can refer to this observation as "impedance scaling."
The above analysis reveals why Chua’s circuit cannot produce an arbitrary set of eigenvalues. There are not enough circuit parameters! Since we have six eigenvalues in our problem, we need at least seven parameters. Therefore, besides three dynamic elements and one nonlinear resistor (with the two slopes in different regions counted as two circuit parameters), we need at least two linear resistors to build a canonical circuit.

Of course, not every circuit containing that many elements will qualify as a canonical circuit. Our canonical circuit is shown in Fig. 4(a).

The state equations of this circuit are

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_1} \left[ -f(v_1) + i_3 \right] \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_2} \left[ -Gv_2 + i_3 \right] \\
\frac{di_3}{dt} &= \frac{1}{L} \left( (v_1 + v_2 + R_{i_3}) \right)
\end{align*}
\]  

(26)

where

\[
f(v) = G_v v + \frac{1}{2} (G_s - G_h) (|v + 1| - |v - 1|)
\]  

(27)

is the \(v-i\) characteristic of the nonlinear resistor shown in Fig. 4(b).

In the \(D_0\) region (i.e., \(|v_1| < 1\)), the state equation (26) becomes linear:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} \\
\frac{di_3}{dt}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-G_s}{C_1} & 0 & \frac{1}{C_1} \\
0 & \frac{-G_h}{C_2} & \frac{1}{C_2} \\
\frac{-1}{L} & \frac{-1}{L} & \frac{-R}{L}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
v_1 \\
v_2 \\
i_3
\end{bmatrix} = M_0
\begin{bmatrix}
v_1 \\
v_2 \\
i_3
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(28)

where \(M_0\) is a constant matrix. The characteristic equation of \(M_0\) is

\[
|sI - M_0| = s^3 + s^2 \left( \frac{G_s}{C_1} + \frac{G_h}{C_2} + \frac{R}{L} \right) + s \left( \frac{G_sG_h}{C_1C_2} + \frac{G_sR}{LC_1} + \frac{GR}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} \right) + \frac{G + G_s + GG_hR}{LC_1C_2} = 0.
\]  

(29)

Just as in Section II, we obtain

\[
\frac{G_s + G_h}{C_1} + \frac{R}{C_2} + \frac{L}{-p_1} = 0
\]  

(30)

and

\[
\frac{G_sG_h}{C_1C_2} + \frac{G_sR}{LC_1} + \frac{GR}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} = p_2
\]  

(31)

\[
\frac{G + G_s + GG_hR}{LC_1C_2} = -p_3.
\]  

(32)

Similarly, from the equation in the \(D_{\pm 1}\) regions (i.e., \(|v_1| > 1\)), we obtain

\[
\frac{G_s}{C_1} + \frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{R}{L} = -q_1
\]  

(33)

\[
\frac{G_sG_h}{C_1C_2} + \frac{G_sR}{LC_1} + \frac{GR}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} = q_2
\]  

(34)

\[
\frac{G + G_s + GG_hR}{LC_1C_2} = -q_3.
\]  

(35)

Subtracting (33), (34), and (35) from (30), (31), and (32), respectively, we obtain

\[
\frac{G_s - G_h}{C_1} = -p_1 + q_1
\]  

(36)

\[
\frac{G_s - G_h}{C_1} \left( \frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{R}{L} \right) = p_2 - q_2
\]  

(37)

\[
\frac{(G_s - G_h)(GR + 1)}{LC_1C_2} = -p_3 + q_3.
\]  

(38)

Substituting (36) into (37) and (38), we obtain

\[
\frac{G}{C_2} + \frac{R}{L} = \frac{-p_2 + q_2}{p_1 - q_1}
\]  

(39)

and

\[
\frac{(GR + 1)}{LC_2} = \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1}.
\]  

(40)

Substituting (39) into (30) and (33), we obtain

\[
\frac{G_s}{C_1} = -p_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1}
\]  

(41)
and

\[ \frac{G_b}{C_1} = -q_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1}. \]  
(42)

As mentioned before, among the seven parameters we can assign an arbitrary value to any one of them. Let us take

\[ C_1 = 1. \]  
(43)

Then we obtain the values of parameters \( G_a \) and \( G_b \) from (41) and (42):

\[ G_a = -p_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1}, \]  
(44)

\[ G_b = -q_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1}. \]  
(45)

Substituting (39), (40), (41), and (43) into (31), we obtain the following value of \( L \):

\[ L = \frac{1}{p_2 + \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right) \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right) - \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1}}. \]  
(46)

Now from (32) we have

\[ \frac{G}{C_2} = -L \left( p_3 + \frac{G_a (p_3 - q_3)}{C_1 (p_1 - q_1)} \right) = k \]  
(47)

where the constant \( k \) is introduced for simplicity. Substituting (47) into (39), we obtain the value of \( R \):

\[ R = -L \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} + k \right). \]  
(48)

From (40) we have

\[ \frac{1}{LC_2} = \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1} = \frac{GR}{LC_2} = \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1} + k \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right). \]  
(49)

Hence, the value of \( C_2 \) is given by

\[ C_2 = \frac{1}{L \left( \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1} + k \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right) \right)}]. \]  
(50)

Finally, from (47) we obtain the value of \( G \):

\[ G = kC_2. \]  
(51)

Equations (43)–(46), (48), (50), and (51) are explicit formulas for calculating the seven parameters in our canonical circuit from any given set of eigenvalues. The only constraint is

\[ p_1 \neq q_1. \]  
(52)

Otherwise some of the parameters will tend to infinity. Constraint (52) is mainly academic since in the unlikely event that

\[ p_1 = q_1 \]  
(53)

for a given set of eigenvalues, we can usually eliminate this singular situation by perturbing one of the \( \mu \)'s or \( \nu \)'s without causing qualitative changes in the system's dynamics.

IV. SOME PROPERTIES OF THE CANONICAL CIRCUIT

The three-dimensional vector fields produced by our canonical circuit have the following properties.

1. The vector field is continuous everywhere and symmetric with respect to the origin.
2. The state space is partitioned into three regions \( D_{-1}, D_0, \) and \( D_{+1} \) by two parallel planes located at \( \nu_1 = \pm 1. \)
3. The vector field is linear in region \( D_0 \) and affine in regions \( D_{-1} \) and \( D_{+1}. \)

These properties are obvious from the structure of the canonical circuit. In [1] and [2], the vector fields under consideration are more restricted. They always have one equilibrium point in each region \( D_{-1}, D_0, \) and \( D_{+1}. \) Besides, the vector fields discussed in [1] all have one real eigenvalue and a pair of complex conjugate eigenvalues in each region (henceforth called type \( I \) eigenvalues), while those discussed in [2] all have three real eigenvalues in the \( D_0 \) region, and one real and a pair of complex conjugate eigenvalues in the \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions (henceforth called type \( II \) eigenvalues). These two types of eigenvalue patterns are more interesting because their vector fields can exhibit chaotic attractors. However, the vector fields that can be produced by the canonical circuit have no such constraints. Their eigenvalues may be either all real, or one real plus a pair of complex conjugate values in each region. In the canonical circuit, the origin is of course an equilibrium point. However, the \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions may or may not have equilibrium points. In the latter case, we say the region \( D_0 \) has two virtual equilibrium points, in addition to the equilibrium point at the origin. In [1] and [2], there are theorems stating under what condition there will be equilibrium points in regions \( D_{\pm 1}. \) The proofs of these theorems did not make use of any nonlinear circuit theory, and hence are quite involved and have little physical meaning. For our canonical circuit we can prove a similar theorem using a much simpler proof, which at the same time gives a much clearer physical meaning.

**Theorem 1:** The following three conditions are equivalent, each one giving a necessary and sufficient condition for a vector field realized by our canonical circuit to have equilibrium points in the \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions.

1. The canonical circuit has three dc operating points,
2. \( (G + G_a(1 + GR))(G + G_a(1 + GR)) < 0, \) and
3. \( p_3q_3 < 0. \)
Proof:

1) The equilibrium points of the nonlinear system described by (26) are obtained by solving

\[ f(v_1) - i_3 = 0 \]
\[ G v_2 - i_3 = 0 \]
\[ v_1 + v_2 + R i_3 = 0. \]

Equations (56) are exactly the KCL and KVL equations of the resistive circuit shown in Fig. 5(a), which is obtained from the canonical circuit with the capacitors open-circuited and the inductor short-circuited. It is obvious from the state equations (28) that the canonical circuit has one and only one equilibrium point at the origin in the \( D_0 \) region (whenever \(|M_0| \neq 0\)). Hence, if the circuit has three dc operating points, two of them must be located in the \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions. The converse is true, too. Fig. 5(b) gives the physical interpretation: whenever the loadline has three intersection points with the three-segment piecewise-linear characteristic, two of them must necessarily be located in the \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions.

2) Segment \( B^+ \) in Fig. 5(b) is described by the equation

\[ i = (G_a - G_b) + G_b v. \]  

The loadline is described by

\[ i = \frac{-v}{R + \frac{1}{G}}. \]

The abscissa of the intersection point of (57) and (58) is given by

\[ v_0 = \frac{(G_a - G_b)(1 + GR)}{G + G_b(1 + GR)}. \]

Observe that the region \( D_{\pm 1} \) has an equilibrium point if and only if

\[ v_0 > 1. \]

It is easy to show that (60) is equivalent to (54) after some simple algebraic manipulations.

3) From (32) and (35), we have

\[ \frac{(G + G_b(1 + GR))(G + G_b(1 + GR))}{L^2 C_1^2 C_2^2} = p_3 q_3. \]

This implies that (54) and (55) are equivalent. □

Remark:

1) When eigenvalues are of type I, the signs of \( p_3 \) and \( q_3 \) are determined by the signs of \( \gamma_0 \) and \( \gamma_1 \), respectively, where \( \gamma_0 \) and \( \gamma_1 \) denote the real eigenvalues in the \( D_0 \) and \( D_{\pm 1} \) regions. Therefore, (55) is equivalent to the condition 

\[ \gamma_0 \gamma_1 < 0. \]

When the eigenvalues are of type II, the sign of \( p_3 \) is determined by the sign of \( \mu_1 \mu_1 \mu_3 \) and the sign of \( q_3 \) is determined by the sign of \( \gamma_1 \). Therefore (55) is equivalent to the condition 

\[ \mu_1 \mu_1 \mu_3 \gamma_1 < 0. \]

Conditions (62) and (63) are exactly the same conditions given in [1] and [2]. We have, therefore, unified theorem 3.1 in [1] and theorem 4.1 in [2], in addition to giving an explicit physical interpretation to the theorem.

2) It is obvious from (59) that the locations of the equilibrium points depend only on the values of \( G \), \( G_n \), \( G_p \), and \( R \), and not on the values of \( C_1 \), \( C_2 \), and \( L \).

V. RESULTS OF COMPUTER SIMULATIONS

In this section we present a sample of some computer simulation results for our canonical piecewise-linear circuit.

The eigenvalue parameter space is six-dimensional. Every point in this parameter space corresponds to one or more attractors. To search and classify all possible attractors in such a huge space is a difficult project. Our simulation is by no means comprehensive. However, the simulation results presented here include not only all attractors discovered in \( L \) and reported so far in the literature, but also some newly discovered ones.

Table I shows the simulation results when the inner region contains a pair of complex conjugate eigenvalues. Table II shows the simulation results when the inner region contains only real eigenvalues. Table III summarizes the values of the eigenvalues and the circuit parameters for a sample of attractors listed in Tables I and II.

Since all vector fields with the same normalized eigenvalues are linearly equivalent [1], [2], all examples in Table III have been normalized with \( \omega_1 = 1 \) for comparison purposes.

In Tables I and II, limit cycles have been observed for 12 different eigenvalue patterns. Most limit cycles observed have simple shapes and we therefore present only one figure (Fig. 6) for one of them. Whenever there are toroidal or chaotic attractors observed for a particular eigenvalue pattern, we give at least one example in Table III. For each attractor listed in Table III, we present a figure that is a two-dimensional projection of that attractor. Some attractors cannot be classified as toroidal or chaotic merely from a two-dimensional projection of the
### TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>$\gamma_1$</th>
<th>$\gamma_2$</th>
<th>$\gamma_3$</th>
<th>$\gamma_4$</th>
<th>Stable at origin?</th>
<th>Does $P_s$ exist?</th>
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*1: see Fig.6 for an example of a periodic attractor.
*2: see Fig.7,8,9 for examples of chaotic attractors.
*3: see Fig.10,11 for examples of toroidal attractors.
*4: see Fig.12,13,14 for examples of chaotic attractors.
*5: see Fig.15,16 for examples of toroidal attractors.
*6: see Fig.17 for an example of a chaotic attractor.

In our simulations, chaotic attractors have been observed for six different eigenvalue patterns. These observations greatly enrich the knowledge of dynamical behaviors in the Chua's circuit family. Moreover, some interesting dynamical phenomena (e.g., intermittency) have been observed from this canonical piecewise-linear circuit, and we will report them elsewhere.

### VI. AN ALTERNATIVE REALIZATION OF THE CANONICAL CIRCUIT

We do not claim that the canonical circuit in Fig. 4 is unique. However, so far we have not found any other circuit having the same degree of generality.

Fig. 21(a) shows an alternative piecewise-linear circuit. The state equations of this circuit are

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_1} (-G v_1 + i_3) \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} &= \frac{1}{C_2} (-G v_2 + i_3) \\
\frac{di_3}{dt} &= -\frac{1}{L} [v_1 + v_2 + f(i)]
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
f(i_3) = R_s i_3 + \frac{1}{2} (R_a - R_b)(|i_3 + 1| - |i_3 - 1|)
\]
TABLE II

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<th>Class</th>
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<th>Observed attractor</th>
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*7: see Fig.18 for an example of a chaotic attractor.

*8: see Fig.19 for an example of a chaotic attractor.

*9: see Fig.20 for an example of a chaotic attractor.

In the $D_0$ region (i.e., $|\lambda_2| \leq 1$), the state equations (64) become linear:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{dv_1}{dt} &= \left[ -\frac{G_1}{C_1} 0 \frac{1}{C_1} \right] v_1 + M_0 v_2 \\
\frac{dv_2}{dt} &= \left[ 0 -\frac{G_2}{C_2} \frac{1}{C_2} \right] v_2 \\
\frac{di_3}{dt} &= \left[ -\frac{1}{L} -\frac{1}{L} -\frac{R_a}{L} \right] i_3
\end{align*}

(66)

where $M_0$ is a constant matrix. The characteristic equation of $M_0$ is

$$s^3 - \lambda_1 = s^3 + s^2 \left( \frac{G_1}{C_1} + \frac{G_2}{C_2} + \frac{R_a}{L} \right)

+ s \left( \frac{G_1 G_2}{C_1 C_2} + \frac{G_1 R_a}{LC_1} + \frac{G_2 R_a}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} \right)

+ \frac{G_1 + G_2 + G_1 G_2 R_a}{LC_1 C_2} = 0.

(67)

It follows from (67) that

$$
\frac{G_1}{C_1} + \frac{G_2}{C_2} + \frac{R}{L} = -p_1

(68)

$$
\frac{G_1 G_2}{C_1 C_2} + \frac{G_1 R_a}{LC_1} + \frac{G_2 R_a}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} = -p_2

(69)

G_1 + G_2 + G_1 G_2 R_a = -p_3.

(70)

Similarly, from the equation in the $D_{\pm 0}$ regions (i.e., $|\lambda_2| > 1$) we obtain

$$
\frac{G_1}{C_1} + \frac{G_2}{C_2} + \frac{R_b}{L} = -q_1

(71)

$$
\frac{G_1 G_2}{C_1 C_2} + \frac{G_1 R_a}{LC_1} + \frac{G_2 R_a}{LC_2} + \frac{1}{LC_1} + \frac{1}{LC_2} = -q_2

(72)

G_1 + G_2 + G_1 G_2 R_a = -q_3.

(73)

Subtracting (71), (72), and (73) from (68), (69), and (70),
### Table III

Parameters of the Canonical Circuit Associated with Different Attractors in Figs. 6–20

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* The parameters $\mu_1$ and $C_1$ for all attractors are assumed to be equal to 1.

*1: A Double Scroll attractor. The same as Fig.2 of [7].

*2: A Rössler's spiral-type attractor. The same as Fig.8 of [8].

*3: A Double Hock attractor. The same as Fig.3 of [10].

respectively, we obtain

$$
\frac{R_a - R_b}{L} = -\mu_1 + q_1,
$$

(74)

$$
\frac{R_a - R_b}{L} \left( \frac{G_1}{C_1} + \frac{G_2}{C_2} \right) = p_2 - q_2,
$$

(75)

$$
\frac{G_1G_2(R_a - R_b)}{LC_1C_2} = -p_3 + q_3.
$$

(76)

Substituting (74) into (75) and (76), we obtain

$$
\frac{G_1 + G_2}{C_1} = \frac{-p_2 + q_2}{p_1 - q_1},
$$

(77)

and

$$
\frac{G_1G_2}{C_1C_2} = \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1}.
$$

(78)

Since one parameter can be assigned an arbitrary value, let us take

$$
L = 1.
$$

(79)

Substituting (77) and (78) into (68) and (71), we obtain the following values of $R_a$ and $R_b$:

$$
R_a = -\mu_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1},
$$

(80)

$$
R_b = -q_1 + \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1}.
$$

(81)

On the other hand, (77) and (78) imply that $G_1/C_1$ and $G_2/C_2$ are the two roots of the following quadratic equation:

$$
\frac{x^2 + x \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right) + \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1}}{x^2 + x \left( \frac{p_2 - q_2}{p_1 - q_1} \right) + \frac{p_3 - q_3}{p_1 - q_1}} = 0.
$$

(82)
Fig. 6. An example of a limit cycle associated with a type I class 3 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((v_2, v_1)\)-plane.)

Fig. 7. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type I class 3 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((v_2, v_1)\)-plane.)
Fig. 8. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type 1 class 3 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(x_1, x_2)$-plane.)

Fig. 9. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type 1 class 3 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(x_1, x_2)$-plane.)
Fig. 10. An example of a toroidal attractor associated with a type 1 class 7 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(x_2, x_1)$-plane.)

Fig. 11. An example of a toroidal attractor associated with a type 1 class 7 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(x_1, x_2)$-plane.)
Fig. 12. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type I class 7 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((v_2, t_2)\)-plane.)

Fig. 13. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type I class 7 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((v_1, v_2)\)-plane.)
Fig. 14. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type I class 7 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((c_1, c_2)\)-plane.)

Fig. 15. An example of a toroidal attractor associated with a type I class 10 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((c_1, c_3)\)-plane.)
Fig. 16. An example of a toroidal attractor associated with a type I class 10 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(r_1,r_2)$-plane.)

Fig. 17. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type I class 10 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the $(r_2,r_3)$-plane.)
Fig. 18. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type II class 3 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((e_1,e_2)\)-plane.)

Fig. 19. An example of a chaotic attractor associated with a type II class 6 eigenvalue pattern. (Projection onto the \((r_2,i_2)\)-plane.)
algebraic equations in $1/C_1$ and $1/C_2$, which is easy to solve. Finally, we can calculate $G_1$ and $G_2$ from (83) and (84):

$$G_1 = k_1 C_1$$
$$G_2 = k_2 C_2.$$  

(87)  
(88)

Since all circuit parameters can be explicitly calculated from the given set of eigenvalues, this circuit seems qualified as an alternative canonical circuit. However, it is subject to a somewhat stronger restriction than the canonical circuit proposed in Section III. This is because (83) and (84) have real solutions only if

$$(p_2 - q_2)^2 \geq 4(p_1 - q_1)(p_3 - q_3).$$  

(89)

Therefore, it is not general enough to qualify as a canonical circuit. If we are only interested in computer simulation, the canonical circuit in Fig. 4 is more than adequate and there is no need to search for alternative circuits. However, our canonical circuit may contain some negative dynamic elements for some sets of eigenvalues. In the laboratory, negative $C$ and $L$ are usually harder to realize than negative $R$. Consequently, if another circuit can produce the same vector field but contains fewer negative dynamic elements, then it may be preferable to use such an alternative equivalent circuit for practical realization purposes.

VII. Concluding Remarks

We have developed a canonical circuit that is general enough for simulating all possible dynamics associated with any three-dimensional three-region and symmetric
piecwise-linear continuous vector field. It contains only one three-segment piecewise-linear resistor and the least number of two-terminal linear elements. Moreover, it requires no controlled sources. All circuit parameters can be determined uniquely and explicitly from any given set of eigenvalues with no constraints. It would of course be highly desirable to derive analogous canonical circuits for higher dimensional systems.

REFERENCES


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