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# Neural spike renormalization. Part II – Multiversal chaos

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## ABSTRACT

Reported here for the first time is a chaotic infinite-dimensional system which contains infinitely many copies of every deterministic and stochastic dynamical system of all finite dimensions. The system is the renormalizing operator of spike maps that was used in a previous paper to show that the first natural number 1 is a universal constant in the generation of metastable and plastic spike-bursts of a class of circuit models of neurons.

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## 1. Introduction

A new class circuit models for excitable membranes was constructed in [2] by separating the transmembrane's ion current into active currents of ion pumps and passive currents of both the electromagnetic and the diffusive kinds. It was further demonstrated in [3] that the models exhibit not only many important and known phenomena found from the Hodgkin–Huxley type models [9,11,10,1,8] but also a new and unique phenomenon in metastable and plastic spike-bursts driven by the intracellular biochemical energy conversion via the ion pumps. It was demonstrated in the previous paper [5] that the metastable plasticity of the spike-bursts of different types of neural circuits can be described by the so-called isospiking bifurcation of spike-bursts and the bifurcation admits a universal constant in the same sense as Feigenbaum's renormalization [6,7] for the logistic map family except that the universal constant is the first natural number 1 and the renormalization operator is the neural spike renormalization group associated with the isospiking bifurcation.

More specifically, the prototypical family of maps for spike-bursts is  $\psi_\mu : [0, 1] \mapsto [0, 1]$  with  $\psi_\mu(x) = x + \mu$  if  $0 \leq x < 1 - \mu$  and  $\psi_\mu(x) = 0$  if  $1 - \mu \leq x \leq 1$  for which  $0 < \mu < 1$  is a parameter proportional to the total absolute current through neuron's ion pumps that in turn is related to its intracellular biochemical energy conversion [4]. It was demonstrated in the previous paper that

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the generation of a burst of  $n$  spikes is through the isospiking bifurcation point,  $\mu_n$ , which is proportional to  $1/n$ , about the energy expenditure amount per spike. It was further demonstrated that this scaling law,  $\mu_n \sim 1/n$  can be explained by a renormalization argument. That is, in the space of renormalizable maps the renormalizing operator,  $\mathcal{R}$ , has the identity map  $\psi_0(x) = x$ ,  $x \in [0, 1]$ , as a non-hyperbolic fixed point at which the operator has a 1-dimensional center-unstable manifold which is precisely the family  $\psi_\mu$ , and the weakly-expanding eigenvalue is the first natural number 1. Parallel to Feigenbaum's universality for the period-doubling cascade to chaos [6,7], the neural universality implied by the limit  $(\mu_{n+1} - \mu_n)/(\mu_n - \mu_{n-1}) \rightarrow 1$  is explained by the property that all 1-parameter families of neural spike maps converge to the fixed point's center-unstable manifold by the way of the so-called  $\lambda$ -lemma for the infinitely dimensional dynamical system  $\mathcal{R}$ .

In this paper we will continue the analysis of the spike renormalization but focus instead on its dynamics on the center-stable manifold of the fixed point  $\psi_0$ , and to prove in a series of propositions the following statements:

**Theorem of multiverse chaos.** *The spike renormalizing operator  $\mathcal{R}$  is chaotic in a subset  $X_0$  of the center-stable manifold of the fixed point  $\psi_0$  in the sense that it has a dense set of periodic orbits; the property of sensitive dependence on initial conditions; and a dense orbit. Moreover, every finite dimensional dynamical system, deterministic or probabilistic, is conjugate to infinitely many subsystems of the operator inside the chaotic set  $X_0$ .*

At a cursory glance it seems that all infinitely dimensional systems arising from partial differential equations are excluded from the conjugate embedding to the renormalization  $\mathcal{R}$ , but in fact the opposite is the case. This is because any practical implementation and simulation of such a PDE always results in a discrete, finite dimensional system which in turn is part of  $\mathcal{R}$  by the theorem. This is true regardless the precision with which such infinitely systems are approximated through discretization. Even for time-independent PDEs their finitely dimensional discretizations will be represented as stationary states of the renormalization  $\mathcal{R}$ . At a conceptual level, there are only finitely many atoms or elementary particles in the visible universe that we live in and that in turn is probably not infinitely divisible neither spatially nor temporally. Thus, any discrete temporal evolution of all particles in an essentially finitely grided universe is conceptually a finite system in dimension, which according to the theorem is just one of infinitely many subsystems of the neural renormalizing group. That is, if there were infinitely many parallel universes like ours as many physicists now believe, they would be part of the chaotic renormalizing group as well. It is in this sense that  $\mathcal{R}$ 's chaos is multiversal.

## 2. Neural spike renormalization

The rest of the paper is to prove the theorem in a sequence of propositions. Like the previous paper once the operator is defined all proofs are set up as straightforward verifications of statements requiring at most the preparation of the first year graduate course on analysis knowing concepts up to separate spaces. We now begin by recalling some preparatory results from [5] in this section. By definition, a spike map  $g: [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  of the unit interval satisfies the following conditions:

- (a) There is a constant  $c_0^g \in (0, 1]$  such that  $g$  is continuous everywhere except at  $x = c_0^g$ .
- (b)  $g$  is strictly increasing in interval  $[0, c_0^g]$ .
- (c)  $g(x) \geq x$  for  $x \in [0, c_0^g]$ .
- (d) The right limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow (c_0^g)^+} g(x)$  exists and  $g(x) \leq g(0)$  for  $c_0^g \leq x \leq 1$ .

The set of all spike maps is denoted by  $Y$  and it is endowed with the  $L^1$  norm,  $\|g\| = \int_0^1 |g(x)| dx$ . That is,  $Y$  is a subset of the  $L^1[0, 1]$  Banach space and the norm  $\|g - h\| = \int_0^1 |g(x) - h(x)| dx$  of the difference represents the average distance  $|g(x) - h(x)|$  over the interval  $[0, 1]$  between the maps. Sometime it is convenient to find the norm by thinking it as the area bounded between the graphs of the two functions.

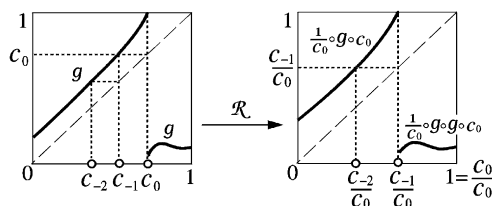


Fig. 1. A geometric illustration for  $\mathcal{R}$ .

Let  $D = \{g \in Y: \exists c_{-1} \in (0, c_0) \text{ such that } g(c_{-1}) = c_0\}$ . Then the *renormalizing operator* (or *renormalizing group*)  $\mathcal{R}: D \rightarrow Y$  is defined as follows

$$g \in D \rightarrow \mathcal{R}[g](x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{c_0} g(c_0 x), & 0 \leq x < \frac{c_{-1}}{c_0}, \\ \frac{1}{c_0} g \circ g(c_0 x), & \frac{c_{-1}}{c_0} \leq x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

That is, the graph of  $g$  over the subinterval  $[0, c_{-1}]$  is scaled up to  $[0, c_{-1}/c_0]$  and that over  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  is first composed with itself over  $[c_0, 1]$  and then scale the composition in  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  to  $[c_{-1}/c_0, 1]$ . Both are scaled by the same factor  $1/c_0$ . Fig. 1 illustrates the operation graphically. A spike map from  $D$  is referred to as *renormalizable* and  $D$  is the *renormalizable* subset of  $Y$ .

It follows by definition of  $\mathcal{R}$  and by induction that the following formula holds for any iterate of  $\mathcal{R}$  whenever its previous iterate is renormalizable:

$$\mathcal{R}^k[g](x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{c_{-k+1}} g(c_{-k+1} x), & 0 \leq x < \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}}, \\ \frac{1}{c_{-k+1}} g^{k+1}(c_{-k+1} x), & \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} \leq x \leq 1. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Here  $c_{-k} = g^{-k}(c_0) \in [0, c_0]$  is the back iterates of  $c_0$  by the renormalizable element  $g$ , which must exist for some  $n \leq \infty$  and all  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$  because of the renormalizable conditions (b), (c). More specifically, if  $c_0$  has  $n$  backward iterates  $c_{-k} = g^{-k} \in [0, c_0]$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , then the new point  $c_{-1}/c_0$  which partitions the graph of  $\mathcal{R}[g]$  into the parts above and below the diagonal has  $n - 1$  backward iterates  $c_{-j-1}/c_0 = \mathcal{R}[g]^{-j}(c_{-1}/c_0) \in [0, c_{-1}/c_0]$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n - 1$ .

We further partition the spike map space  $Y$  as follows. Let

$$X = \{g \in D: \exists x_* \in [0, c_0], \text{ such that } x_* = g(x_*^-)\}$$

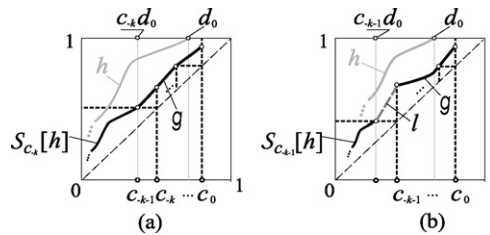
where  $g(x_*^-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_*^-} g(x)$ . For  $g \in X$ , let  $x_g = \sup\{x_* \in [0, c_0]: x_* = g(x_*^-)\}$ , namely the right most fixed point,  $x_g = g(x_g^-)$ , of the map  $g$  in  $X$ . Then we define

$$X_0 = \{g \in X: x_g = 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad X_1 = \{g \in X: x_g > 0\}.$$

Naturally we have  $X = X_0 \cup X_1$  and  $g \in Y - X$  if and only if  $g$  does not have a fixed point in  $[0, 1]$ . It is trivial to note that the membership  $g \in X_0$  forces  $0 \leq g(x) \leq g(0) = 0$  for  $x \in [c_0, 1]$ .

We need to introduce for the remainder of the paper a so-called *concatenation* operation between two types of functions related to the set  $Y$ . Here is how. Let  $g$  be any function over an interval  $[c_{-k-1}, c_0] \subset (0, 1)$  with these properties:

- (i)  $g(x) > x$  for  $x \in [c_{-k-1}, c_0]$ .
- (ii)  $g$  is increasing.
- (iii)  $\{c_{-i}\}$  is the backward iterates of  $c_0$ :  $g^{-i}(c_0) = c_{-i}$  or  $g(c_{-i}) = c_{-i+1}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k + 1$ .



**Fig. 2.** A schematic illustration for the definition of the concatenation operation. (a) The case of  $c_{-k}d_0 = c_{-k-1}$  for which  $S_{c_{-k}}[h]$  connects perfectly with  $g$ . (b) The other case of  $c_{-k}d_0 \neq c_{-k-1}$  for which a line segment  $l$  is used to bridge the missing connection between  $S_{c_{-k-1}}[h]$  and  $g$ .

Let  $h$  be a function over an interval  $[d_1, d_0] \subset [0, 1]$  such that  $h(x) \geq x$ ,  $x \in [d_1, d_0]$ , and  $h(d_0) = 1$ . To define the concatenation,  $g \vee h$ , from  $g$  to  $h$ , we first scale down  $h$  by the factor of  $c_{-k}$ , and denote

$$S_{c_{-k}}[h](x) := c_{-k}h\left(\frac{1}{c_{-k}}x\right), \quad c_{-k}d_1 \leq x \leq c_{-k}d_0.$$

For a pair of such functions  $g, h$ , the operation  $\vee$  is defined depending on the following two situations: (a) If  $c_{-k}d_0 = c_{-k-1}$ , then we define

$$g \vee h(x) = \begin{cases} S_{c_{-k}}[h](x), & c_{-k}d_1 \leq x \leq c_{-k}d_0 = c_{-k-1}, \\ g(x), & c_{-k-1} \leq x \leq c_0, \end{cases}$$

see Fig. 2(a). (b) If  $c_{-k}d_0 \neq c_{-k-1}$ , then we scale  $h$  down further

$$S_{c_{-k-1}}[h](x) = c_{-k-1}h\left(\frac{1}{c_{-k-1}}x\right), \quad c_{-k-1}d_1 \leq x \leq c_{-k-1}d_0 < c_{-k-1}.$$

Since  $c_{-k-1}d_0 < c_{-k-1}$  the domains of  $S_{c_{-k-1}}[h]$  and  $g$  do not overlap. Also since  $S_{c_{-k-1}}[h](c_{-k-1}d_0) = c_{-k-1} < c_{-k} = g(c_{-k-1})$ ,  $S_{c_{-k-1}}[h]$  lies below  $y = c_{-k}$  and  $g$  lies above  $y = c_{-k}$ . We define  $g \vee h$  by joining the points  $(c_{-k-1}d_0, c_{-k-1})$  and  $(c_{-k-1}, c_{-k})$  in the box  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  by a line denoted by  $l$ . That is, we define

$$g \vee h(x) = \begin{cases} S_{c_{-k-1}}[h](x), & c_{-k-1}d_1 \leq x \leq c_{-k-1}d_0 < c_{-k-1}, \\ l(x), & c_{-k-1}d_0 \leq x \leq c_{-k-1}, \\ g(x), & c_{-k-1} \leq x \leq c_0, \end{cases}$$

with

$$l(x) = \frac{c_{-k} - c_{-k-1}}{c_{-k-1} - c_{-k-1}d_0}(x - c_{-k-1}d_0) + c_{-k-1},$$

see Fig. 2(b). The following properties will be used for the remainder of the paper.

### Lemma 1.

- (1)  $(g \vee h)(x) \geq x$  and  $g \vee h$  is continuous in the domain of definition if both  $g$  and  $h$  are.
- (2) If  $h$  satisfies properties (i)–(iii) as  $g$  does, then so does  $g \vee h$ .
- (3)  $g \vee h$  can be extended to be an element in  $X_0$ , and  $\mathcal{R}^i[g \vee h] = h$  either  $i = k$  or  $i = k + 1$ .
- (4) The operation is associative, i.e.,  $g \vee (h \vee f) = (g \vee h) \vee f$ , and we will denote  $g \vee h \vee f = g \vee (h \vee f)$ .

(5) If all defined, let  $\bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} g_i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bigvee_{i=1}^n g_i = g_1 \vee g_2 \vee g_3 \cdots$ . Then it holds that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left( \bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} g_i \right)(x) = 0.$$

**Proof.** For property (1)(a), it is straightforward to check in this case that  $g \vee h(x) \geq x$  and  $g \vee h$  is continuous as  $\mathcal{S}_{c-k}[h](c_{-k-1}) = c_{-k}h(\frac{1}{c_{-k}}c_{-k}d_0) = c_{-k} \cdot 1 = g(c_{-k-1})$ . It is also the case for (b) as well by construction. Property (2) also follows from the construction. For property (3), it is based on the fact that the scaling down operation  $\mathcal{S}_c[h]$  and the scaling up operation  $\mathcal{R}$  are inverse operations of each other. More specifically, we have by definition,  $g \vee h(x) = g(x)$ ,  $x \in [c_{-k-1}, c_0]$ , and

$$\mathcal{R}^i[g \vee h](x) = h(x) \quad \text{over } x \in [d_1, d_0]$$

for  $i = k$  if  $c_{-k}d_0 = c_{-k-1}$  and  $i = k + 1$  if  $c_{-k}d_0 \neq c_{-k-1}$ . Property (4) is also obvious. For property (5), we have that for any  $n \geq 1$ , the function  $\bigvee_{i=1}^n g$  is defined over an interval  $[a_n, c_0]$  whose left end point  $a_n$  is bounded from above by  $c_{-k-1}c_{-k}^{n-1}$  by the definition of  $\vee$ . Thus,  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} g_i(x) = 0$  follows by the monotonicity of the infinite concatenation.  $\square$

### 3. Multiverse chaos

We begin by pointing out the structure of  $X_1$  is extremely simple. It is almost completely described by the following three propositions.

**Proposition 1.** For any point  $g \in X_1$ , either  $x_g = 1$  for which  $g$  is a fixed point of  $\mathcal{R}$  or  $0 < x_g < 1$  for which the orbit of  $g$  converges to a fixed point of  $\mathcal{R}$  in  $X_1$ .

**Proof.** Because of the monotonicity of  $g$  in  $[0, c_0]$ , the backward iterative sequence  $c_{-k}$  converges to  $x_g$  from above,  $c_{-k} \searrow x_g$ . By (1),  $x_{g^k} = c_{-k}/c_{-k+1} \rightarrow x_g/x_g = 1 = x_{g^\infty}$  for which the limit  $\lim g^k = g^\infty$  is a fixed point in  $X_1$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.** For any  $0 < \rho < 1$ , there is an element  $s_\rho \in X_1$  such that the orbit  $\{\mathcal{R}^n[s_\rho]\}$  converges to the fixed point  $\text{id} = \psi_0$  at the given rate  $\rho$ .

**Proof.** This is done by construction. For each  $0 < \rho < 1$ , let

$$s_\rho(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{1}{\rho}(x - \frac{1}{2}) + \frac{1}{2}, & \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{1+\rho}{2}, \\ 0, & \frac{1+\rho}{2} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Thus, we have  $c_0 = (1 + \rho)/2$ , and  $x = 1/2$  is the largest fixed point of  $s_\rho$ . Since  $s_\rho$  is increasing with slope  $1/\rho$  in  $[1/2, (1 + \rho)/2]$ ,  $c_{-k} = s_\rho^{-k}(c_0)$  exists for all  $k$  and  $c_{-k} \searrow 1/2$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Also because  $s_\rho$  is linear in  $[1/2, (1 + \rho)/2]$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{\rho}(c_{-k} - c_{-(k+1)}) = (c_{-k+1} - c_{-k})$$

for all  $k \geq 0$ , with  $c_0 = (1 + \rho)/2$  and extending the notation to  $c_1 = 1$ . Solving this equation gives

$$c_{-k} = \frac{1}{2}[\rho^{k+1} + 1] \quad \text{for } k \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad c_{-k} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

By (1),

$$\mathcal{R}^k[s_\rho](x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}}, \\ \frac{1}{\rho} \left( x - \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}} \right) + \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}}, & \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}} \leq x \leq \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}}, \\ 0, & \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is easy to see  $\mathcal{R}^k[s_\rho] \rightarrow id$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . To demonstrate the convergence rate, we consider  $\|\mathcal{R}^k[s_\rho] - id\|$  which consists of calculating the area of the triangle between  $s_\rho$  and the diagonal over the interval  $[1/(2c_{-k+1}), c_{-k}/c_{-k+1}]$  and the trapezoid bounded between the diagonal and the  $x$ -axis over the interval  $[c_{-k}/c_{-k+1}, 1]$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{R}^k[s_\rho] - id\| &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} - \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}} \right] \left[ 1 - \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} \right] \left[ 1 + \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho^k(1-\rho)}{1+\rho^k} \left[ 2 \frac{c_{-k}}{c_{-k+1}} - \frac{1}{2c_{-k+1}} \right] \sim O(\rho^k) \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

**Remark.** This result can be extended to any fixed point in  $g \in X_1$  with  $x_g = 1$ . We only need to modify in the construction above by using  $\frac{1}{2}g(2x)$  for  $x$  in the leftmost interval  $[0, 1/2]$ . The only difference is in the estimation of the convergence rate which is not as straightforward as for the identity fixed point  $id$  in the proof above.

**Proposition 3.** For every  $\lambda > 1$ , there exist fixed points  $r_\lambda \in X_0$ ,  $r_{1/\lambda} \in X_1$  and backward invariant families  $U_\mu, V_\mu$  with  $U_0 = r_\lambda$ ,  $V_0 = r_{1/\lambda}$  so that  $\mathcal{R}$  expands at the rate of  $\lambda$  on both  $U_\mu$  and  $V_\mu$ .

**Proof.** This is proved similarly as Proposition 2. Consider first the  $r_\lambda$  case. For each  $\lambda > 1$  define

$$r_\lambda(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}, \\ 0, & \frac{1}{\lambda} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is straightforward to check that  $c_0 = 1/\lambda$ ,  $c_{-k} = 1/\lambda^{k+1}$ , and that  $r_\lambda$  is a fixed point of  $\mathcal{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}[r_\lambda] = r_\lambda$ , because of the linearity of  $r_\lambda$ . Define a family of renormalizable maps to be

$$U_\mu(x) = \begin{cases} \mu + \lambda x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1-\mu}{\lambda}, \\ 0, & \frac{1-\mu}{\lambda} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is the same ray as  $r_\lambda$  but translated upward by  $\mu$  amount and clipped at  $c_0 = (1-\mu)/\lambda$ . Again, since  $U_\mu$  is linear in  $[0, (1-\mu)/\lambda]$ , it is easy to check that  $U_\mu$  is backward invariant with  $\mathcal{R}[U_\mu] = U_{\frac{\lambda\mu}{1-\mu}}$  and  $U_0 = r_\lambda$ . To show the expanding rate, we first derive a formula for the distance  $\|U_\mu - U_0\|$  which consists of the area of the parallelogram between  $U_\mu$  and  $U_0$  over the interval  $[0, (1-\mu)/\lambda]$  and the area of the trapezoid between  $U_\mu$  and  $U_0$  over the interval  $[(1-\mu)/\lambda, 1/\lambda]$ . Namely,

$$\|U_\mu - U_0\| = \mu \frac{1-\mu}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1-\mu}{\lambda} \right] \left[ 1 + \lambda \frac{1-\mu}{\lambda} \right] = \frac{\mu}{\lambda} \left[ 2 - \frac{3\mu}{2} \right].$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\|\mathcal{R}[U_\mu] - \mathcal{R}[U_0]\|}{\|U_\mu - U_0\|} = \frac{\lambda}{1-\mu} \frac{2 - \frac{3}{2} \frac{\lambda\mu}{1-\mu}}{2 - \frac{3}{2}\mu} \rightarrow \lambda, \quad \text{as } \mu \searrow 0.$$

This proves that  $\mathcal{R}$  expands along  $U_\mu$  at  $U_0 = r_\lambda$  at the rate of  $\lambda$ . A similar proof can be constructed for the  $r_{1/\lambda}$  case. Specifically, we define

$$r_{1/\lambda}(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda}(x-1) + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad V_\mu(x) = \begin{cases} r_{1/\lambda}(x) + \mu, & 0 \leq x \leq 1 - \lambda\mu, \\ 0, & 1 - \lambda\mu < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is similar to verify these identities:  $V_0 = r_{1/\lambda}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}[V_\mu] = V_{\frac{\lambda\mu}{1-\lambda\mu}}$ ,  $\|V_\mu - V_0\| = \mu(1+\lambda) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda\mu^2$ , and as a consequence  $\|\mathcal{R}[V_\mu] - \mathcal{R}[V_0]\|/\|V_\mu - V_0\| \rightarrow \lambda$  as  $\mu \searrow 0$ , which completes the proof.  $\square$

We note that the proof above in fact applies to the case with  $\lambda = 1$ , reducing it to the special family of renormalizable maps

$$W_{id}^u := \{\psi_\mu: 0 \leq \mu \leq 1/2\} \quad \text{with } \psi_\mu(x) = \begin{cases} \mu + x, & 0 \leq x < 1 - \mu, \\ 0, & 1 - \mu \leq x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

As it was shown in [5], the family defines a weakly-expanding center-unstable set of  $\mathcal{R}$  at the fixed point  $id = \psi_0 = r_1$ , with the expanding rate  $1/(1-\mu)$  because  $\mathcal{R}[\psi_\mu] = \psi_{\mu/(1-\mu)}$  which in turn reduces to the corresponding non-hyperbolic eigenvalue  $\lambda = 1$  at  $\mu = 0$ .

**Proposition 4.** *The set of periodic points of  $\mathcal{R}$  in  $X_0$  is dense in  $X_0$ .*

**Proof.** We need to show that for any  $g \in X_0$ , there is a sequence of periodic points  $p_k$  such that  $p_k \rightarrow g$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . To construct  $p_k$ , we begin with the fact that since  $g(x) > x$  for  $0 < x \leq c_0$ ,  $g(0) = 0$ , and  $g$  is increasing in  $[0, c_0]$ , thus  $c_{-k} = g^{-k}(c_0)$  exists for all  $k \geq 1$  and  $c_{-k} \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . If  $g(c_0) = 1$ , then we let  $\tilde{g}_k = g|_{[c_{-k-1}, c_0]}$ . If  $g(c_0) < 1$ , then for large  $k$  we let

$$\tilde{g}_k(x) = \begin{cases} g(x), & c_{-k-1} \leq x \leq c_0 - \frac{1}{k}, \\ k[1 - g(c_0 - \frac{1}{k})](x - c_0) + 1, & c_0 - \frac{1}{k} \leq x \leq c_0. \end{cases}$$

That is,  $\tilde{g}_k$  in this case is constructed to be  $g$  over  $[0, c_0 - 1/k]$  and the line connecting the point  $(c_0 - 1/k, g(c_0 - 1/k))$  on the graph of  $g$  and the point  $(c_0, 1)$  on the top edge of the box  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . In both cases  $\tilde{g}_k$  satisfies the conditions (i)–(iii) for the concatenation operation  $\vee$ . Hence, if we let

$$p_k(x) = \begin{cases} \bigvee_{i=1}^\infty \tilde{g}_k(x), & 0 < x \leq c_0, \\ 0, & x = 0 \text{ or } c_0 < x \leq 1, \end{cases}$$

then  $p_k$  is continuous at  $x = 0$  by Lemma 1(5). Moreover,  $p_k \in X_0$  and either  $\mathcal{R}^k[p_k] = p_k$  or  $\mathcal{R}^{k+1}[p_k] = p_k$  by Lemma 1(3). Thus,  $p_k$  is a periodic point of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Since  $p_k$  and  $g$  can differ only on  $[0, c_{-k}]$  and  $[c_0 - 1/k, c_0]$ , we have

$$\|p_k - g\| = O\left(\max\left\{\frac{1}{k}, c_{-k}\right\}\right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

This proves the proposition.  $\square$

**Proposition 5.** *The closure of the stable set of any  $h \in X_0$  is  $X_0$ . More specifically, for any pair  $g \in X_0, h \in X_0$  and any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an element  $f_{h,g} \in X_0$  from the  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of  $g$ , i.e.,  $\|f_{h,g} - g\| < \epsilon$ , so that  $\mathcal{R}^n[f_{h,g}] = \mathcal{R}[h]$  for some  $n \geq 0$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $g \in X_0$  and  $h \in X_0$ . As in the proof of Proposition 4 above,  $c_{-k} = g^{-k}(c_0^g) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $g_k = g|_{[c_{-k-1}, 1]}$ . Then  $g_k$  and  $\mathcal{R}[h]$  satisfy the conditions for the concatenation operation  $\vee$ , and we define  $f_{h,g} = g_k \vee \mathcal{R}[h]$ . Clearly  $f_{h,g} \in X_0$ . Since  $f_{h,g}$  and  $g$  differ only possibly on  $[0, c_{-k-1}]$ , we have  $\|f_{h,g} - g\| = O(c_{-k-1})$ . Also, from the proof of Lemma 1(3) for  $\vee$ , either  $\mathcal{R}^k[f_{h,g}] = \mathcal{R}[h]$  or  $\mathcal{R}^{k+1}[f_{h,g}] = \mathcal{R}[h]$  depending on whether or not  $c_{-k}c_0^h = c_{-k-1}$ . Thus, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an integer  $n \geq 1$  so that  $\|f_{h,g} - g\| < \epsilon$  and  $\mathcal{R}^n[f_{h,g}] = \mathcal{R}[h]$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 6.**  *$\mathcal{R}$  has the property of sensitive dependence on initial conditions. That is, there is a constant  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that for any  $g \in X_0$  and any small  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $h \in X_0$  and  $n > 0$  satisfying  $\|h - g\| < \epsilon$  and  $\|\mathcal{R}^n[h] - \mathcal{R}^n[g]\| \geq \delta_0$ .*

**Proof.** We need to construct an  $h \in X_0$  for each  $g \in X_0$  that satisfies the stated properties. To this end, we first demonstrate that any  $g \in X_0$  can be properly separated from some element  $\ell \in X_0$  by construction. More specifically, let  $c_0 \in [0, 1]$  be the point of discontinuity of  $g$ . Then there is always a point in  $(0, 1)$  denoted by  $c_0^\ell$  that is no less than  $1/4$  apart from  $c_0$ :

$$|c_0^\ell - c_0| \geq \frac{1}{4}.$$

Let  $\ell$  be the line through the origin  $(0, 0)$  and  $(c_0^\ell, 1)$  over  $[0, c_0^\ell]$  and 0 over  $(c_0^\ell, 1]$ . Then  $\|\ell - g\|$  must be greater than the area of the trapezoid below the diagonal and over the interval  $[c_0^\ell, c_0]$  if  $c_0^\ell < c_0$  and  $[c_0, c_0^\ell]$  if  $c_0 < c_0^\ell$ . This area is in turn greater than the area of the equal lateral right triangle which is the top part of the trapezoid. Since the area of that triangle is

$$\frac{1}{2}|c_0^\ell - c_0||c_0^\ell - c_0| \geq \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{32} := \delta_0,$$

it follows that

$$\|\ell - g\| > \delta_0 = \frac{1}{32}.$$

We are now ready to show the property of sensitive dependence on initial conditions. For each  $g \in X_0$ , we have  $c_{-k} = g^{-k}(c_0) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . For each  $k$ , let  $\ell_k$  be such a function associated with  $\mathcal{R}^{k+1}[g]$  that is separated from  $\mathcal{R}^{k+1}[g]$  by at least  $\delta_0$  amount. Moreover, we impose the condition that  $c_0^{\ell_k}c_{-k} \neq c_{-k-1}$  in the construction of  $\ell_k$ . Let  $g_k = g|_{[c_{-k-1}, 1]}$  and define

$$h_k = g_k \vee \ell_k.$$

It is obvious that  $\|h_k - g\| \leq c_{-k-1} \rightarrow 0$  since  $h_k$  and  $g$  differ only in the interval  $[0, c_{-k-1}]$  with  $h_k|_{[c_{-k-1}, 1]} = g_k = g|_{[c_{-k-1}, 1]}$ . However, because  $c_0^{\ell_k}c_{-k} \neq c_{-k-1}$ , we have by the definition of  $\vee$  that

$$\|\mathcal{R}^{k+1}[h_k] - \mathcal{R}^{k+1}[g]\| = \|\ell_k - \mathcal{R}^{k+1}[g]\| > \delta_0. \quad \square$$

**Proposition 7.** *There are infinitely many dense orbits in  $X_0$ .*



**Proof.** The proof is based on the fact that the  $L^1[0, 1]$  space is separable, i.e., having a countable dense set [12]. To be precise, let  $\mathcal{D}_1$  denote the subset of  $L^1[0, 1]$  that contains piecewise continuous and piecewise linear functions connecting vertexes of rational coordinates, in particular, with vertexes having the  $x$ -coordinates in the form of  $i/n$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n$  and  $n \geq 2$ . Clearly  $\mathcal{D}_1$  is countable and dense. For each  $g \in X_0$ , we can certainly approximate it by a sequence of functions  $g_n$  from  $\mathcal{D}_1$  each of which is (i) continuously increasing over  $[0, c_0^{g_n}]$ , i.e.,  $g_n(x_1) < g_n(x_2)$ ,  $0 \leq x_1 < x_2 \leq c_0^{g_n}$ ; (ii) above the diagonal  $y = x$  over  $[0, c_0^{g_n}]$ , i.e.,  $g_n(x) > x$ ,  $0 < x \leq c_0^{g_n}$ ; (iii) vanishing at 0 and in  $(c_0^{g_n}, 1]$ . In other words, such a sequence can come from  $X_0$ . That is,  $X_0$  itself is separable with the countable dense set  $\mathcal{D}_2 = X_0 \cap \mathcal{D}_1$ . Next for each  $g \in \mathcal{D}_2$  we modify it to get a sequence by taking the following two steps. (1) If  $g(c_0^g) = 1$ , we do nothing about the discontinuity point  $c_0^g$  and set  $g_n = g$ . (2) Otherwise,  $g(c_0^g) < 1$ . Then we construct a sequence  $g_n$  with (i)  $c_0^{g_n} = c_0^g + 1/n$ ; (ii)  $g_n(x) = g(x)$  for  $0 \leq x \leq c_0^g$  and  $c_0^g + 1/n < x \leq 1$ ; (iii)  $g_n$  is the line connecting  $(c_0^g, g(c_0^g))$  and  $(c_0^{g_n}, 1)$ . It is trivial to see that  $g_n \in \mathcal{D}_2$  and  $g_n \rightarrow g$  in  $L^1$ . That is,  $g_n$  is everything of any other  $\mathcal{D}_2$  elements except that  $g_n(c_0^{g_n}) = 1$ . Denote this subset of  $\mathcal{D}_2$  by  $\mathcal{D}_3 \subset \mathcal{D}_2 \subset X_0$ . Then we know  $\mathcal{D}_3$  is countable and dense in  $\mathcal{D}_2$ , so is dense in  $X_0$ . We further modify  $\mathcal{D}_3$  as follows. For each  $g \in \mathcal{D}_3$ , we have  $c_{-k} = g^{-k}(c_0) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x = 0$  is the only fixed point of  $g$ . We construct a sequence  $h_k$  each is the function  $g$  restricted on  $[c_{-k}, c_0]$ , i.e.,  $h_k = g|_{[c_{-k}, c_0]}$ . This sequence  $\{h_k\}$  has the property that by making any  $L^1$ -extension of  $h_k$  to the left-over interval  $[0, c_{-k}]$ , we will always have

$$\|h_k - g\|_{L^1[0, c_0]} \leq c_{-k} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

Denote by  $\mathcal{D}_4$  the set of all  $h_k = g|_{[c_{-k}, c_0]}$  for all  $g \in \mathcal{D}_3$ . Then  $\mathcal{D}_4$  is a countable set. Also, although  $\mathcal{D}_4$  is not a subset of  $X_0$ , it can be treated to be dense in  $X_0$  because for each  $g \in X_0$  there is a sequence  $\{g_{n_k}\}$  from  $\mathcal{D}_4$  such that with an arbitrary extension to  $[0, a_k]$  and 0 to  $[c_0^{g_{n_k}}, 1]$  for each  $g_{n_k}$  with  $[a_k, c_0^{g_{n_k}}]$  the domain of  $g_{n_k}$ , we have  $g_{n_k} \rightarrow g$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

We are now ready to construct a dense orbit in  $X_0$ . Since  $\mathcal{D}_4$  is countable, we have

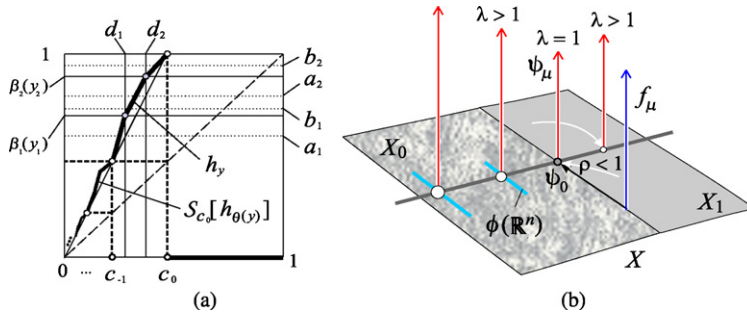
$$\mathcal{D}_4 = \{g_1, g_2, \dots\}.$$

We now construct

$$g_* = \begin{cases} \bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} g_i(x), & 0 < x \leq c_0^{g_1}, \\ 0, & x = 0 \text{ or } c_0^{g_1} < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is obvious that by the definition of the concatenation operation  $\vee$ ,  $g_*$  is continuous and increasing over the left open interval  $(0, c_0^{g_1})$ . Let  $c_0 = c_0^{g_*}$  and  $c_{-k} = g_*^{-k}(c_0)$ . It is obvious that  $c_{-k} \in [0, c_0)$  exist for all  $k \geq 0$  by the definition of infinite concatenation as in  $\bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} g_i$ . Therefore,  $c_{-k} \searrow x_*$  exists as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  and  $x_* \in [0, c_0)$  is a fixed point of  $g_*$ . To show  $g_*$  is continuous at  $x = 0$  and  $g_* \in X_0$ , we only need to show that  $x_* = 0$ . Suppose otherwise that  $x_* > 0$ . Then,  $g_0 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}^k[g_*]$  must exist and  $g_0$  is a fixed point of  $\mathcal{R}$  with  $g_0(1^-) = 1$ . On the other hand, by the definition of  $\vee$  we have  $g_n(x) = \mathcal{R}^k[g_*](x)$  for some  $k \geq 0$ , with  $k$  depending on  $n$ , and for all  $x$  from  $g_n$ 's domain of definition  $[a_n, c_0^{g_n}]$ . The existence of the limit  $g_0 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}^k[g_*]$  forces the conclusion that  $c_0^{g_n} \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since  $\mathcal{D}_4 = \{g_n\}$  can be regarded as a dense set of  $X_0$ , the existence of the limit  $c_0^{g_n} \rightarrow 1$  would imply that every element  $g \in X_0$  must have the property that  $g(1^-) = 1$ . This is certainly a contradiction to the fact that  $x = 0$  is the only fixed point for every element  $g \in X_0$ . This completes the proof that  $g_* \in X_0$ .

We are now ready to show that the orbit through  $g_*$  is dense in  $X_0$ . In fact, for any  $g \in X_0$  and any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $g_k \in \mathcal{D}_4$  that is  $\epsilon$ -close to  $g$  with any arbitrary  $X_0$ -extension of  $g_k$  to the left of its domain and 0 extension to the right of its domain. By the definition of the concatenation operation  $\vee$  there is an integer  $n$  such that  $\mathcal{R}^n[g_*] = g_k \vee \bigvee_{i=k+1}^{\infty} g_i$  over  $[0, c_0^{g_k}]$  and 0 over  $[c_0^{g_k}, 1]$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{R}^n[g_*]$  is  $\epsilon$ -close to  $g$ . This shows that the orbit  $\{\mathcal{R}^n[g_*]\}$  is dense in  $X_0$ .



**Fig. 3.** (a) A schematic illustration for conjugating a 2-dimensional map  $\theta: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  to a sub-dynamics of  $\mathcal{R}$ . (b) A depiction for the dynamics of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

Last, from the construction above we clearly see there are infinitely many ways to construct such dense orbits.  $\square$

**Proposition 8.** Any finite dimensional mapping is conjugate to  $\mathcal{R}$  on a subset of  $X_0$  and there are infinitely many such subsets of  $X_0$ . More precisely, for any finite dimensional mapping  $\theta: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , there are infinitely many conjugate mappings  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow X_0$  such that  $\mathcal{R} \circ \phi = \phi \circ \theta$ .

**Proof.** We need to construct a conjugacy  $\phi$  for each mapping  $\theta: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  that maps any point  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to a corresponding element  $\phi(y) \in X_0$  so that  $\mathcal{R} \circ \phi(y) = \phi \circ \theta(y)$ . The construction to be used below will show that there are infinitely many such  $\phi$  for every mapping  $\theta$ .

We start by fixing any  $\lambda > 1$  and the ray  $r_\lambda$  considered in the proof of Proposition 3 above. Here  $r_\lambda(x) = \lambda x, 0 \leq x < 1/\lambda$ , and  $r_\lambda(x) = 0, 1/\lambda < x \leq 1$ . The point of discontinuity is  $c_0 = 1/\lambda$  and  $c_{-k} = 1/\lambda^{k+1}$  with  $r^{-1}(c_{-k}) = c_{-k-1}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . The goal is to construct for each  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  an element  $g = \phi(y) \in X_0$  with the property that  $c_{-k}^g = c_{-k} = 1/\lambda^{k+1}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{R} \circ \phi(y) = \mathcal{R}[g](y) = \phi \circ \theta(y)$ , see Fig. 3(a). In fact, we will construct  $g$  to be a piecewise linear curve from  $X_0$  having exactly  $n + 1$  line segments over each interval  $[c_{-k-1}, c_{-k}], k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . The key step is in constructing the piece over the first interval  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  by embedding  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into the space of piecewise linear functions from  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  to  $[c_0, 1]$ .

To this end, we first arbitrarily pick and fix  $n$  points  $c_{-1} < d_1 < d_2 < \dots < d_n < c_0$ . Denote the images of  $d_i$  under  $r_\lambda$  by  $a_i = r_\lambda(d_i) = \lambda d_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ . By  $r_\lambda$ 's monotonicity, this gives  $c_0 = r_\lambda(c_{-1}) < a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_n < 1 = r_\lambda(c_0)$ . We then arbitrarily pick and fix  $b_i$  so that  $a_i < b_i < a_{i+1}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , with  $a_{n+1} = 1$ . We are now ready to embed  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into the space of piecewise linear functions from  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  to  $[c_0, 1]$ . More specifically, let  $\beta_i: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (a_i, b_i)$  be any 1-to-1 and onto map and let  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $y_i$  being the  $i$ th coordinate. We then define  $h_y$  to be the graph over interval  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$  that connects the vertex points  $(c_{-1}, c_0), (d_1, \beta_1(y_1)), \dots, (d_i, \beta_i(y_i)), \dots, (d_n, \beta_n(y_n)),$  and  $(c_0, 1)$  with line segments. Because of the choice that  $\beta_i(y_i) < b_i < a_{i+1} < \beta_{i+1}(y_{i+1})$ , each line through  $(d_i, \beta_i(y_i))$  and  $(d_{i+1}, \beta_{i+1}(y_{i+1}))$  must be increasing. Hence  $h_y$  is increasing in  $[c_{-1}, c_0]$ . It is continuous by construction and  $h_y(c_{-1}) = c_0, h_y(c_0) = 1$ . It lies above the diagonal because it lies above the ray  $r_\lambda$ . Therefore  $h_y \vee h_z$  is well defined with any  $y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , in particular, with  $z = \theta(y)$ . We now complete our construction for  $g = \phi(y)$  by defining

$$g = \phi(y) = \begin{cases} \bigvee_{i=0}^{\infty} h_{\theta^i(y)}(x), & 0 < x \leq c_0, \\ 0, & x = 0 \text{ or } c_0 < x \leq 1, \end{cases}$$

see Fig. 3(a). By the definition of  $\vee$  we have  $\mathcal{R}[\phi(y)](x) = \bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty} h_{\theta^i(y)}(x) = \phi(\theta(y))(x)$  for  $x \in [0, c_0]$  and 0 otherwise. That is,  $\mathcal{R}[\phi(y)] = \phi(\theta(y))$  as desired. Finally, we point out that there are infinitely many ways to construct the conjugacy  $\phi$  above by, e.g., starting with distinct rays  $r_\lambda$  for  $\lambda > 1$ , or by varying the parameters  $d_i, a_i, b_i$ . (Also, it is easy to see by the construction above that this result can be generalized to include mappings on product spaces, e.g.,  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$ , which include shift maps.)

Last the construction above shows that the finite dimensional system  $\theta$  need not to be deterministic. It can be a purely stochastic process for which all (forward) temporal sequences of the system's probabilistic outcomes are used instead to conjugate orbits of  $\mathcal{R}$  in the subset  $\phi(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .  $\square$

#### 4. Closing remarks

Fig. 3(b) is a dynamical representation of the renormalization, encapsulating all results of this paper and the previous one in the series. The grainy texture for the chaotic space  $X_0$  is meant to represent the operator's dense orbits. The one-parameter, spike renormalizable family  $f_\mu$  is a qualitative representation of a typical family of the Poincaré return maps from our circuit models of neurons, satisfying the universality conditions of [5]. It is transversal to the center-stable manifold of the identity map  $\psi_0$ , arising from the boundary between the chaotic set  $X_0$  and the non-chaotic one  $X_1$ . The family  $\psi_\mu$  represents the 1-dimensional, eigenvalue-1 but weakly-expanding center-unstable manifold of  $\psi_0$ . The convergence of  $f_\mu$  to  $\psi_\mu$  under the iteration of  $\mathcal{R}$  gives rise to the universality of the isospike bifurcation sequence  $\mu_n \sim \frac{1}{n}$ .

We end the paper by pointing out that there are many interesting and nontrivial topological properties of the embedding maps that are open for future studies. For example, the continuity or differentiability of the embedding  $\phi$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $X_0$  at a  $\theta$  depends on the continuity or differentiability of  $\theta$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to itself. Also, a preliminary investigation seems to suggest that the embedding map will preserve the Lyapunov exponents of deterministic dynamical systems if the exponents are no greater than the expanding rate  $\lambda$  (or  $\lambda^2$ ) of the fixed point  $r_\lambda$  near which the conjugating embedding takes place.

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