

Complexity measurements for the thermal convection in a viscoelastic fluid saturated porous medium

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ABSTRACT

Measuring complexity statistical indicators is a key method to analyze and characterize dynamical systems. In this work, we perform a comparative analysis among the López-Ruiz, Mancini & Calbet complexity indicator and the largest Lyapunov exponent for the convection problem of a viscoelastic fluid in a porous medium with feedback control based in an Oldroyd carrier liquid through a four-dimensional generalized Lorenz system. With both indicators can be distinguished from chaotic to periodic states. We perform intensive numerical simulations with 4×10^6 in the space parameters, finding good agreement between them, such that difference is close to 2%. We have also detected that the computing time is much faster in the case of complexity indicator than for Lyapunov exponents. Finally, we have also studied the effect of the initial conditions in the coexistence states, encountering multistability.

Introduction

The concept of entropy plays a crucial role in macroscopic systems in order to determine the condition for thermodynamic equilibrium. The probability distribution of a restricted system to the accessible states is given by the principle of maximum entropy inference [1]. The typical macroscopic magnitudes as well as the relationship among them can be obtained by standard statistical mechanics techniques from the probability distribution function. In addition, in equilibrium, the concept of entropy can be connected to the amount of information that is accessible in a system [2]. A similar scheme could be extrapolated to systems far from equilibrium. However, under these circumstances, it is more difficult to establish a method to find the probability distribution function or to figure out the relevant magnitudes, which could allow us to predict the system behavior. This is one of the main topics of

nonequilibrium statistical mechanics [3–5]. In this context, the first approach to understand the dynamic states of non-equilibrium systems from a statistical perspective was defined in the Ref. [6], which is usually known as the López-Ruiz, Mancini & Calbet (LMC) complexity indicator. The main assumption was to define a dynamical system for which the complexity is obtained as the product of two measures: the information and disequilibrium. Such information is quantified by the Shannon entropy and the disequilibrium is a measure of the distance from the equiprobable distribution of the accessible states of a system. Hence, this product becomes zero for both: ordered and random systems. Interestingly, it can be interpreted as some sort of distance among the equiprobable states accessible by the system. Subsequently, it is stressed here that the complexity measure does not depend only on the concept of information (which are maximal and minimal for

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the above mentioned system). The prototype model used to test the theory was the logistic map, which is, undoubtedly, one of the most used models to study complex systems. Moreover, it was shown that the sum of the positive Lyapunov exponents is equal to the Kolmogorov–Sinai entropy [7] and that the upper bound of the Lyapunov exponents can be obtained using the permutation Shannon entropy [8]. Therefore, these studies provide a tangible possibility of being able to quantify the emergence of chaos through the complexity method. Furthermore, it has been possible to distinguish chaotic series from a noisy one [9]. Discussions, generalizations and applications of the complexity's concept can be found in Refs. [10–32]. For instance, this complexity indicator has been used to study nonequilibrium isolated system [13], to analyze the dynamical behavior of anti-ferromagnet [15], to examine the earthquake phenomenon [17], or to investigate astronomical data [22]. Generalization of LMC complexity to analyze chaotic states has also been performed [23,24] or examined the fluid motion [26] and financial time series [28], as well. Even more, interesting recent studies on complexity have been performed in electric circuits from experimental and theoretical points of view [33,34]. One of them can have an application for image encryption [33]. Apart from the complexity measurements, the authors have found multi-stable states with a new method to find them [34].

On the other hand, the study of convection in viscoelastic fluids has gained a lot of interest due to its technological applications as well as because its richness from a pure mathematical perspective. The state of the art is exposed in Refs. [35–44]. One of the central points has been the effect of viscoelasticity in the emergence of different types of instabilities through variants of the Lorenz model [45–47], which was motivated by the experimental results of Kolander who found oscillatory convective instability in viscoelastic carrier liquids [48]. It has also been studied how the effect of a porous medium in this type of fluid modifies the convection thresholds [49,50]. In particular, it has been shown that it is possible to obtain chaotic states in viscoelastic fluids in a porous medium [51,52]. In addition, it has been shown that using a feedback control system in fluids it is possible to induce a slow down the instability or taming chaos [53,54]. In fact, it is possible to stabilize the chaos using a time-delay control [55]. Recently, the dynamical behaviors of convective rolls with feedback control for an Oldroyd fluid have been characterized, finding intricate topological structures of regular states embedded in chaotic domains in the two-dimensional phase diagram of the largest Lyapunov exponent in the parameter space [56]. The analysis was performed for fixed porosity, then it opens the door to extend the examination of dynamics when the porosity and the other control parameters are modified.

In this work, we perform a comparative analysis among the LMC complexity indicator and the largest Lyapunov exponent for the problem of convection of a viscoelastic fluid in a porous medium with feedback control based on the Oldroyd model. For this study, we use the four-dimensional generalized Lorenz system [56], which is derived from the equations of hydrodynamics. From the physical viewpoint, we will focus on the effects of porosity and the feedback control parameter, as well as viscoelasticity, which have not been previously studied. This analysis enlarges the understanding of the influence of the viscoelastic properties on convection problems in porous media. In particular, we perform intensive numerical simulations for both indicators, performing several two-dimensional diagrams in the parameter space, each of them with 4×10^6 points. We will show that there is a coincidence of more than 98% between both dynamic indicators. The amount of simulations ensures that the comparison of the methods has statistical significance. Also, to perform further analysis of the dynamical system, we compute the isospoke diagrams to understand the periodicity of the regular states. Finally, we compute the coexistence of attractors and their corresponding basin of attractors for a specific set of parameters. The manuscript is arranged as follows: In Section “Theoretical model: generalized Lorenz system”, the theoretical model for the generalized Lorenz model is presented. In Section “Simulations”, the dynamical indicators and the numerical results are shown and analyzed. Finally, the conclusions are given in Section “Final remarks”.

Theoretical model: generalized Lorenz system

Let us consider a two-dimensional Oldroyd viscoelastic fluid in a saturated porous medium heated from below and cooled from above subject to the gravity field, such that the sensors and actuators to have feedback control are placed at the top and bottom heated plates of the fluid-saturated porous layer, respectively. This model is fully described by a nonlinear coupled system of partial differential equations for the velocity and thermal fields as well as for the stress tensor. If one considers a large container, a simplified model that describes the instability of rolls can be derived using a truncated Galerkin expansion [57,58], which produces a set of nonlinear ordinary differential equations. In this scenario, the corresponding modified Lorenz equations are given by [56]:

$$\dot{X} = W, \quad (1)$$

$$\dot{Y} = \bar{C}_g r X - Y - (\bar{C}_g r - 1) X Z, \quad (2)$$

$$\dot{Z} = 4\gamma(XY - Z), \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{W} = & \sigma \left[\left(\bar{C}_g r - \frac{1}{\Gamma} \right) X + \bar{r} Y \right] \\ & - \sigma [(\bar{C}_g r - 1) X Z - \bar{\Lambda} W], \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where the dot ($\dot{\cdot}$) denotes the time derivative $d(\cdot)/dt$. From the physical point of view, $\{X, W\}$ are related to the velocity field, whereas $\{Y, Z\}$ are related to the temperature field. Besides, for convenience, we have used the following notation: $\bar{C}_g = (10 - C_g)/10$, $\bar{\Lambda} = (\Lambda + (\sigma\Gamma)^{-1})$, and $\bar{r} = -1 + 1/\Gamma$, such that C_g is feedback control parameter, while Λ and Γ are the retardation number and the Deborah number, respectively. Both parameters account for the effect of viscoelasticity [45]. Also, the parameters σ and r are the normalized Vadasz number and the Darcy–Rayleigh number, respectively. We remark that σ represents the effect of porosity on the flow in a porous medium, while r accounts for the ratio of the buoyancy force to the diffusive resistance of the porous media, which is also called the Rayleigh number for a porous medium [51]. Finally, γ is a geometric parameter.

Let us remark that the previous dynamical systems, $\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X})$, is a generalization of the Lorenz equations, which considers the viscoelasticity and the feedback control. Besides, note that, the uncontrolled system ($C_g = 0$) was studied in Ref. [51], and the Newtonian limit ($\Lambda \rightarrow 1$ and $\Gamma \rightarrow 0$) was previously analyzed in Ref. [59]. Let us comment on this limit, the system can be reduced to the standard Lorenz model [57], which from a mechanical point of view, can be interpreted as the normal form of a quasi-reversible system [60]. Also, note that the set of uniform solutions, $\{\mathbf{X}_0\}$, are obtained from $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}_0) = \mathbf{0}$; and their linear stability $\det[\mathbf{J} - \zeta \mathbf{I}] = 0$, where ζ are the eigenvalue and $\mathbf{J}$ is the Jacobian matrix evaluated at $\mathbf{X}_0$. In the next section, we will perform intensive numerical simulations.

Simulations

In this section the dynamical behavior of the system (1)–(4) is analyzed. The numerical method to solve the equations is the classical fourth order Runge–Kutta method with a fixed time step of $\Delta\tau = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. In all simulations, we discard a time window of 8×10^5 time steps, to avoid transitory states. Other values of $\Delta\tau$ have been employed to check the accuracy, yielding no significant changes.

Indicators

We characterized the dynamical states as a function of the parameters using Lyapunov exponents, LMC complexity indicator, bifurcation diagrams and direct time-series analysis, like the isospoke diagrams that reveals how the periodicity changes when the parameters are tuned.

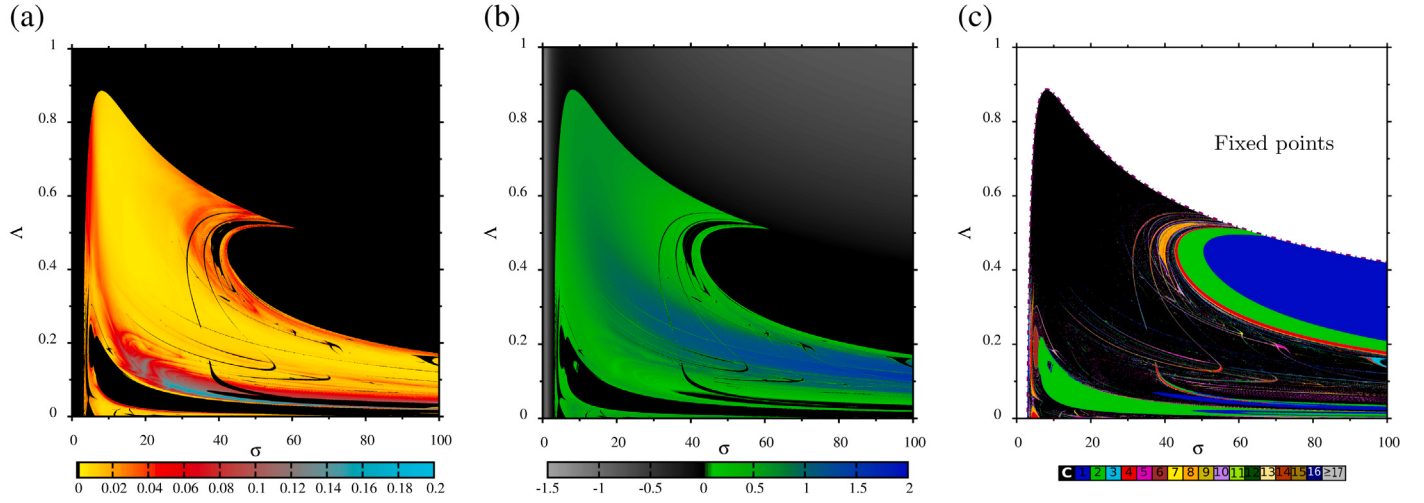


Fig. 1. Phase diagrams in color code as a function of both Λ and σ for the LMC complexity indicator (a), the LLE (b) and the Isospike of the Z component (c). The fixed parameters are $\Gamma = 1.0$, $r = 55.0$, $\gamma = 0.5$, and $C_g = 7.0$. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

The bifurcation diagrams are computed by counting the values of the local maximum of the time-series of a specific variable [58].

On the other hand, for a M -dimensional dynamical system, the Lyapunov exponents measure the sensibility to the initial conditions [61–63]. They are commonly denoted by the symbols λ_j with $j = (1, \dots, M)$, and ordered in a decreasing form, such as the largest Lyapunov exponent (LLE), denoted by λ_1 . The exponential divergence of two initially close trajectories, which is characteristic for chaotic dynamics, is detected when positive LLE are found. If the LLE is negative the state is stationary, whereas when LLE is zero the system exhibits a regular state, which can be periodic or quasi-periodic. Besides, if there are two positive Lyapunov exponents, the system exhibits a hyper-chaotic state [64–67]. If both the largest and the second largest Lyapunov exponents are zero, the system holds a quasi-periodic state. In addition, with the whole Lyapunov spectrum, one can calculate the Kaplan–Yorke dimension, D_{KY} . This indicator gives the attractor’s dimension and is a valuable tool in a dynamical system with a large number of variables to distinguish from low dimensional chaos to spatiotemporal one. The Kaplan–Yorke dimension can be computed as:

$$D_{KY} = k + \frac{1}{|\lambda_{k+1}|} \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i, \quad (5)$$

such that k is the largest integer for which $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \geq 0$. This definition implies that if there is only one positive Lyapunov exponent positive and all the rest with negative values, $D_{KY} > 1$, whereas if there is one positive and one zero Lyapunov exponent with all the rest negatives, $D_{KY} > 2$. Besides, if all Lyapunov exponents are negative, $D_{KY} = 0$. Let us remark that, the Lyapunov spectrum technique has been well established in several dynamical systems [62,63,68–71] and intensive numerical simulations can be found in Refs. [72–88]. Here, we apply the Gram–Schmidt orthogonalization procedure periodically (here, we renormalize every $\tau = 1$ unit). The integration for determining the Lyapunov exponents has been prolonged for a time of $\tau = 2^{15}$. These very long simulations allow minimizing the error on the computed exponents. The typical standard error on the maximum Lyapunov exponent was approximately equal to 9×10^{-5} .

To obtain the isospike diagrams [89,90], that is, to find the number of peaks per period of the oscillations, we first calculate the Lyapunov exponents to discard the chaotic states, and perform the integrations for 3×10^5 time steps, recording the maxima (or minima) of the time series of each component of the vector field, $\mathbf{X}(\tau)$, and check whether the peaks are repeated or not. Applications of isospike technique can be found in Refs. [91–104].

Now, let us present a small discussion on the statistical description of the system by using the LMC complexity indicator, $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$, which was originally derived in Ref. [6]. For this purpose, let $\zeta = \zeta(t)$ be a time series with N accessible states when it is observed from a certain scale. We will call it as N -system. Each state corresponds to a certain probability, then there is a set of N probability functions, $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N\}$, under the condition $\sum_{i=1}^N p_i = 1$, such that $p_i \neq 0$ for $\forall i$. At this level, all fundamental physical laws would incorporate the probability distribution for accessible states associated to the time series. To compute $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$, it is needed to convert the N -system into a binary system with values 1 and 0. To do that, we employ the following algorithm:

- 1.- The expected value, $\langle \zeta \rangle$ is calculated from the time series.
- 2.- The time series is normalized in the range (0, 1) by

$$\hat{\zeta} = \frac{|\zeta - \langle \zeta \rangle|}{\max(|\zeta - \langle \zeta \rangle|)}. \quad (6)$$

- 3.- The set of local maxima from the normalized time series is calculated, $\{\hat{\zeta}_{m,1}, \dots, \hat{\zeta}_{m,p}\}$, and from these maxima it is taken its corresponding mean value $\hat{\Sigma}$.

- 4.- The previous set is codified in binary code as: 0 if $\hat{\zeta}_{m,j} < \hat{\Sigma}$ and 1 if $\hat{\zeta}_{m,j} > \hat{\Sigma}$.

- 5.- For this binary code a pattern is identified from an array with a specific n_s . This array is selected and it is considered a micro-state.

- 6.- Now, the system has been converted into chain of binary numbers with an integer number of micro-state. The number of all micro-states is N .

- 7.- The histogram of the integer numbers that arise which correspond to the accessible micro-states, p_i , of the system is calculated.

- 8.- The steps 5–7 are repeated several times to ensure that the optimal n_s has been obtained.

- 9.- The information entropy of the system, $\mathcal{H}$, is calculated via

$$\mathcal{H} = -K \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \log p_i, \quad (7)$$

where K is a positive constant.

- 10.- The disequilibrium function, $\mathcal{D}$, is calculated through

$$\mathcal{D} = \sum_{i=1}^N (p_i - 1/N)^2. \quad (8)$$

- 11.- Finally, it is calculated the LMC complexity indicator, $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$, as the product between the entropy and disequilibrium function:

$$\mathcal{C}_{LMC} = \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{D}. \quad (9)$$

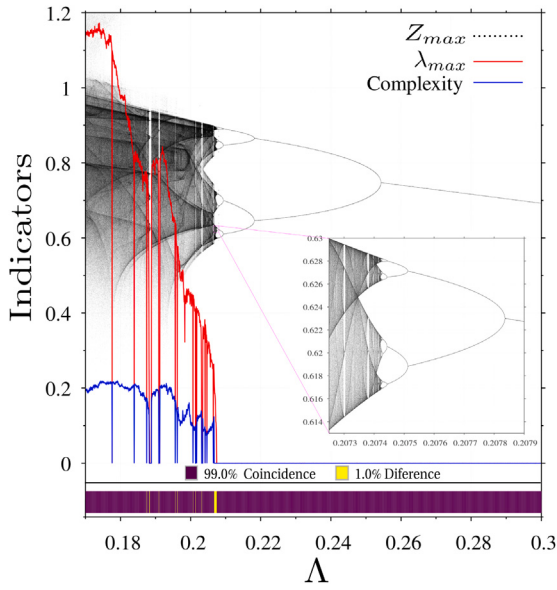


Fig. 2. Bifurcation diagram of the Z component (black dots), Largest Lyapunov exponent λ_{max} (red line) and Complexity indicator $\mathcal{C}$ (blue line), as a function of Λ at $\sigma = 80$. The other fixed parameters are the same as in Fig. 1. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

We remark that for this definition of entropy, we can infer that for a periodic and stationary states $\mathcal{H} = 0$, therefore, as there is only one single state, p . Due to $0 \leq \mathcal{D} \leq N/(N-1)$ and to $0 \leq \mathcal{H} \leq K$ imply that $\mathcal{C}_{LMC} \geq 0$. Therefore, in deterministic dynamical systems, $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$ for stationary and periodic states is zero ($\mathcal{C}_{LMC} = 0$), while for chaotic states is greater than zero, $\mathcal{C}_{LMC} > 0$.

For the present problem, the LMC complexity indicator is computed for each component of the vector field $\mathbf{X}$, and then we take the average:

$$\bar{\mathcal{C}} = \frac{\mathcal{C}_{LMC,X} + \mathcal{C}_{LMC,Y} + \mathcal{C}_{LMC,Z} + \mathcal{C}_{LMC,W}}{4} \quad (10)$$

Also, let us comment that to calculate micro-states array, we have used $n_s = 12$. We have explored other values of n_s and we found that this one was optimal value. In this context, we would also remark that the same value of n_s has been used for the original LMC work and in other dynamical systems as well [6,9,13,16]. From the numerical point of view, to ensure to have a good statistic, we have used after the transient a time series with 4×10^6 time steps.

In the next subsections, we present numerical results of these dynamical indicators and make a comparison of them. Due to the large numbers of parameters, we fix $r = 55.0$, $\Gamma = 1.0$ and $\gamma = 0.5$, while the parameters σ , Λ , as well as C_g will be varied. These parameters account the effect of the porosity, the viscoelasticity and the feedback control, respectively. In several simulations, two parameters are simultaneously varied, creating two-dimensional phase diagrams of the different dynamical indicators. The resolution of each diagram is 2000×2000 in the parameter space. Finally, let us comment that for most of the simulations, we fix the initial conditions at $\mathbf{X}(\tau = 0) = (0.9, 0.9, 0.9, 0.1)$, except in the last subsection in which the influence of initial conditions is examined.

Effects of the porosity and viscoelasticity

Fig. 1 shows color code two-dimensional phase diagrams as a function of Λ and σ for the largest Lyapunov exponent, λ_{max} , complexity indicator, $\mathcal{C}$ as well as for the isospikes. Let us remark that when λ_{max} is zero or lower than zero the system exhibits regular states, which are

(quasi)-periodic or stationary states, respectively. In these cases, one always has that $\mathcal{C}_{LMC} = 0$, because it does not discriminate among periodic and fixed point states because in both cases it is zero. We can observe that critical value of Λ as a function σ from the linear stability analysis follows the relationship $\Lambda_H(\sigma) = -a/\sigma^2 + b/\sigma^{1/3}$ where $(a, b) = (11.0054, 2.06637)$. Below the critical curve, the states are mostly chaotic. We can distinguish some internal structure where there are regular pattern embedded in chaotic domains. Besides, when it is compared the results from the panel (a) and (b) of Fig. 1, one can find a difference near to 2% between both dynamical indicators. This is an excellent agreement. From the third panel, in which the isospikes are shown, it is easy to distinguish the types of regular states. The white area corresponds to fixed points, while the discrete color bar provides the value of the periodicity, being black color chaos. We can observe that this diagram presents more information. It shows clearly the limit of the combined chaotic states, limit cycles and fixed point states (white region from panel c). From the physical point of view, in Fig. 1, we can notice that we will only have stationary convection rolls in the zone higher than the Λ_H curve. It also means that this regime continues for fluids closer to Newtonian behavior (near to $\Lambda \gtrsim 0.9$), regardless of the fluid's porosity (any value of the Vadasz number). For intermediate Vadasz values ($10 \lesssim \sigma \lesssim 40$), the convection rolls are chaotic or have high periodicities for a large spectrum of Λ values. Indeed, it is shown that viscoelasticity can tame chaos, having periodic solutions in a regime close to the Maxwellian fluid ($\Lambda \approx 0$). We also note that there is an engaging zone at high porosity ($\sigma \gtrsim 55$) below Λ_H curve, the rolls undergo a bifurcation from stationary to periodic states with period one. In fact, for instance, if one fixes $\sigma = 80$ after the period-one regime by reducing the elastic coefficient values, a cascade of bifurcations is produced before reaching chaos.

Fig. 2 shows λ_{max} , the complexity indicator $\mathcal{C}$ and a bifurcation diagram of the Z component as a function of Λ at $\sigma = 80$. This is a line of the complexity indicator phase diagram 1 at $\sigma = 80$ with a greater resolution in Λ , with 2×10^4 lattice points. We can observe that the bifurcation diagram shows an extended view of the unfolding periodic bifurcations as Λ increases, from chaos, passing from several multi-periodic states to period one solution. We can also verify that the λ_{max} and $\mathcal{C}$ has an excellent agreement in the whole range of the bifurcation parameter. In fact, the inferior part of Fig. 2 shows a barcode that represents the difference between $\mathcal{C}$ and λ_{max} from which we found that the percentage difference is only 1%. Let us remark that the differences are mainly occurred in the transition among periodic and chaotic states, in which the numerical sensibility of the indicators is crucial.

Fig. 3 displays three specific examples of the dynamical behaviors, one chaotic and two periodic states taken from previous simulations for three fixed values of Λ . In particular, we choose $\Lambda = (0.2, 0.21, 0.24)$, respectively. The top panels show the time series of the Z component, while the bottom ones display the three dimensional parametric plot of (X, Y, Z) components in the phase space. Panel (a) corresponds to a chaotic state, where a similar Lorenz attractor is obtained, whereas panel (b) and (c) show periodic cases. We can observe that for the periodic cases have four- and two-isospike, respectively. In these cases, the values of complexity are $\mathcal{C} = (0.07, 0, 0)$, as we expected the not zero value of $\mathcal{C}$ is for the chaotic state.

Effects of the porosity and feedback control

Now, let us focus on the effects of porosity and feedback control in detail. Fig. 4 shows the phase diagrams in color code of the complexity indicator, $\mathcal{C}$, the isospike diagram of the Z component, and the distribution of the periods calculated using fast Fourier transform of all components as a function of normalized Vadasz number, σ , and the feedback control parameter C_g . From panel (a) we can distinguish between chaotic ($\mathcal{C} > 0$) and regular ($\mathcal{C} = 0$) states. Indeed, we observe that the chaos appears for $\sigma \gtrsim 4$ and $C_g \lesssim 8.2$. Typical shrimp patterns from the different periodic islands can be observed in this

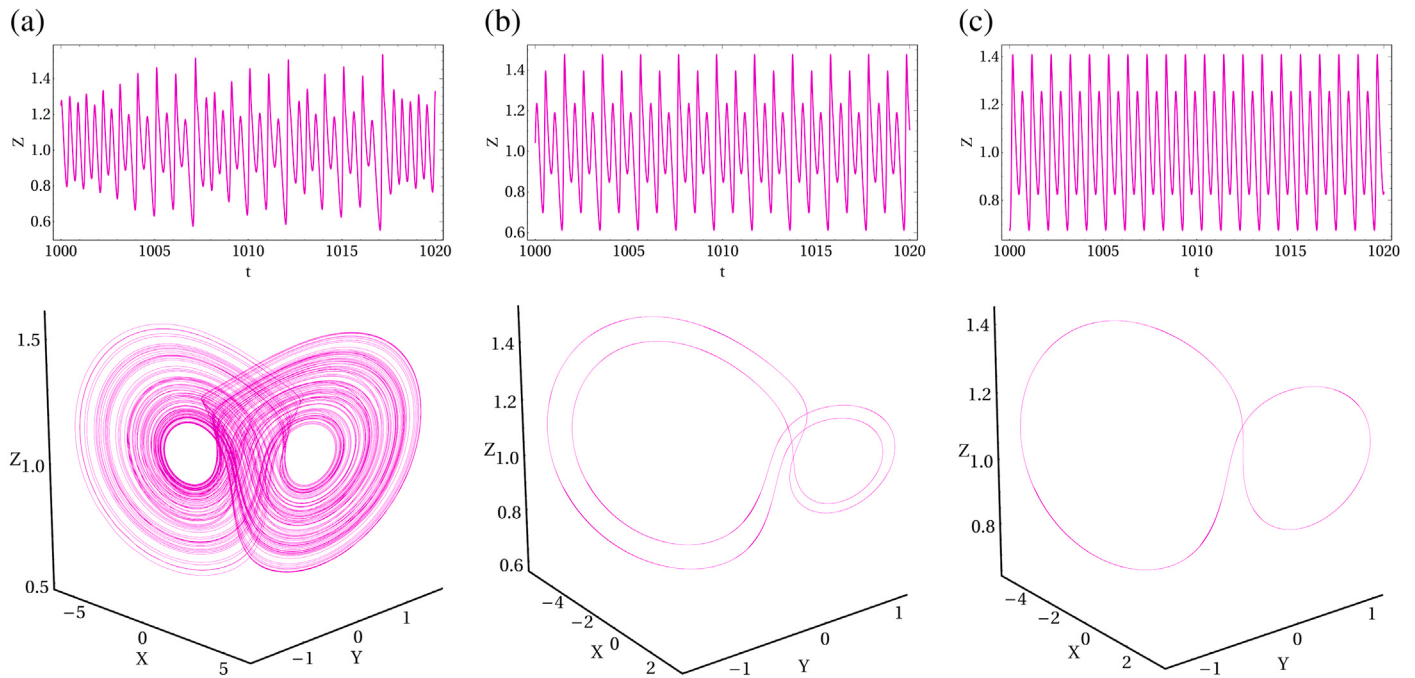


Fig. 3. Time series of the Z component and three dimensional phase diagram of the components (X, Y, Z) for (a) chaotic state, (b) a periodic state with 4-isopike and (c) periodic state with 2-isopike. The fixed values of Λ are $\Lambda = (0.2, 0.21, 0.24)$, respectively. The other fixed parameters are the same as for Fig. 2.

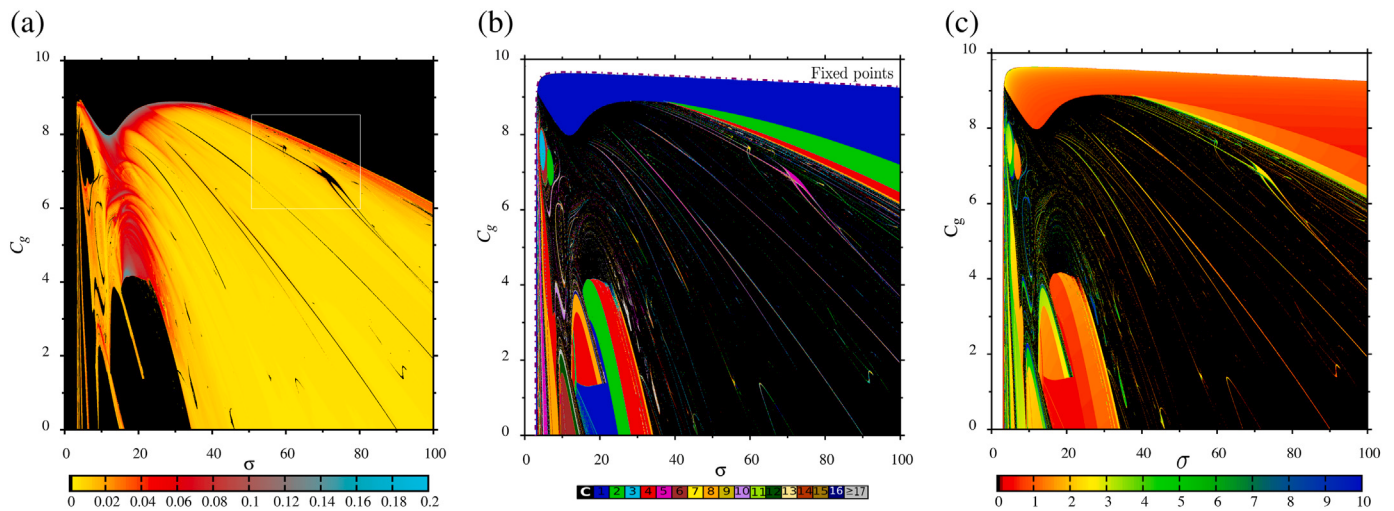


Fig. 4. Phase diagrams in color code as a function of both C_g and σ for LMC complexity indicator (a), isopike diagram of the Z component (b) and period distribution (c). The resolution in each panel is $\Delta C_g = 0.005$ and $\Delta \sigma = 0.05$. The fixed parameters are: $\Gamma = 1.0$, $\Lambda = 0.20$, $r = 55.0$ and $\gamma = 0.5$. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

region. Panel (b) provides information to discriminate between fixed point states and periodic states within the number of peaks in the time series of each periodic state. In this region, typical shrimp patterns from the different periodic islands can be observed. Also, we can observe that for $\sigma > 40$, a route towards chaos through the doubling of the bifurcation period as C_g decreases. The same happens for $\sigma \in (20, 40)$ for $C_g < 4$. Finally, panel (c) displays the phase diagram of the period distribution in arbitrary units. In the color bar, we have chosen black and white for chaotic and fixed points in which the period has no meaning. We can notice that for small values of isopike, the period is small too, and it increases when the values of isopike increase, given a strong correlation among both diagrams. From the physical point of view, we have chosen a parameter region that represents a standard Oldroyd viscoelastic fluid ($\Gamma = 1.0$ and $\Lambda = 0.2$) with a high-temperature gradient since the Darcy–Rayleigh number is $r = 55.0$. We

note that above the $C_{g,H}(\sigma) = 10.588/\sigma^{0.029} - 15/\sigma^2$ curve, all states are stationary convection rolls. Just after crossing the Hopf bifurcation, for high values of the feedback control parameter, the rolls bifurcate to periodic states with period-one, almost independent of porosity. Then in the intermediate zone of both parameters, there are multiple transitions among different states. On the other hand, we can also observe that when the feedback control parameter is less than half the maximum value, the chaotic states practically dominate for high and intermediate porosities.

Fig. 5 shows a zoom of the square in panel (a) of Fig. 4. It reveals a successive periodic structure pattern with shrimp form, which appear linearly ordered while their size increases as σ increases and C_g diminishes. Other smaller periodic structures also occur, but to reveal the shape, iterative zooms are needed. Panel b presents a bifurcation diagram of the maximum values of Z , $\mathcal{C}$ and λ_{max} as a function of the

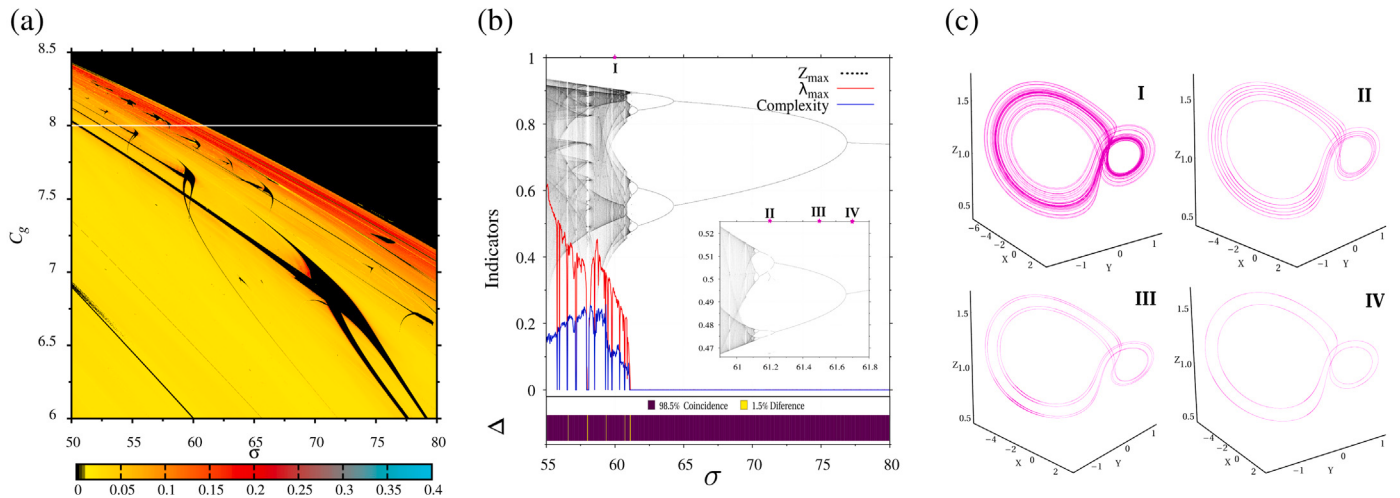


Fig. 5. Panel (a) shows an extended view of the Complexity phase diagram of Fig. 4a. Panel (b) corresponds to the bifurcation diagram, λ_{max} and the complexity corresponding to the solid line marked in panel (a). Panel (c) corresponds 3D plots in the phase space of the (X, Y, Z) components for the following fixed values: (I) $\sigma = 60.0$, (II) $\sigma = 61.2$, (III) $\sigma = 61.5$ and (IV) $\sigma = 61.7$. All the other fixed parameters are the same as in the Fig. 4.

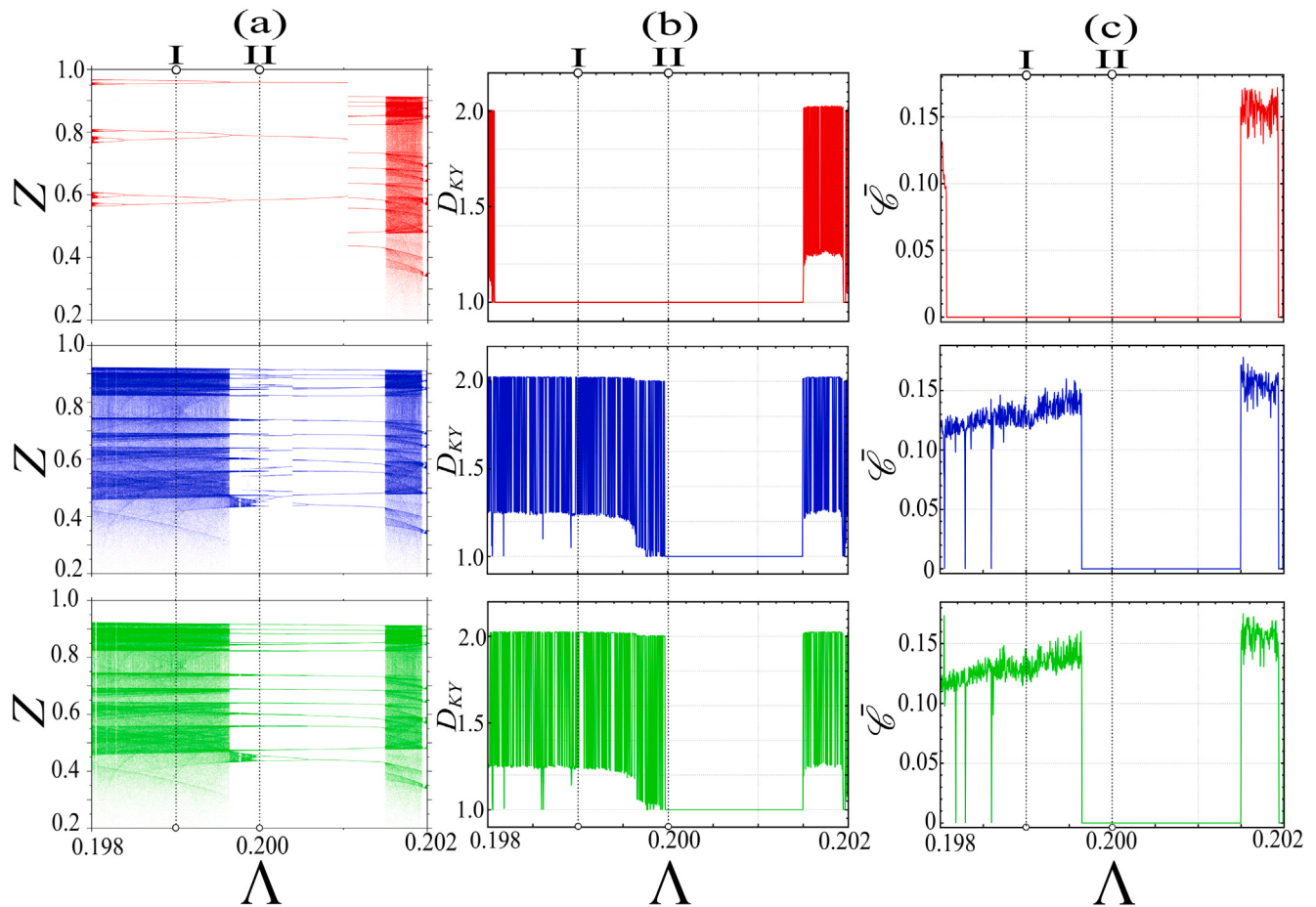


Fig. 6. (a) Bifurcation diagram of the Z component, (b) Kaplan-Yorke Dimension, D_{KY} , and (c) Complexity indicator $\mathcal{C}$, as a function of Λ starting with three different initial conditions. The three panels for each indicator represent different initial conditions, which are colored to identify by red (top), blue (intermediate) and green (bottom), respectively. The fixed parameters are: $\Gamma = 1.0$, $r = 55.0$, $\sigma = 58.0$, $\gamma = 0.5$ and $C_g = 8.0$. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

parameter σ for a fixed value of the feedback control, $C_g = 8.0$. We observe coincidence among the three indicators. In the chaotic regions where $\lambda_{max} > 0$, the bifurcation diagram shows dispersion associated with the maxima from the time series. We present a time window series that adjust very well to the indicators λ_{max} and $\mathcal{C}$. The bifurcation

diagram shows a route to chaos through the doubling of the period as σ decreases. In the lower part of panel (b) of Fig. 5, we show a bar that marks the distinct behavioral dynamics of the complexity $\mathcal{C}$ and λ_{max} . Note that the differences are easily observed at the frontiers between periodic and chaotic states with a percentage difference of less

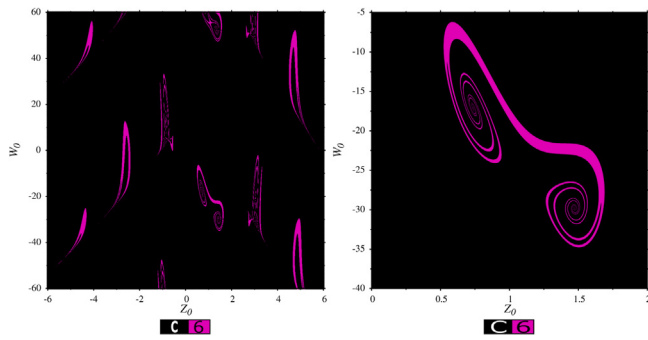


Fig. 7. Isospike diagram of the Z component as a function of the initial condition W_0 and Z_0 at $(X_0, Y_0) = (-34, 1.6)$. The fixed parameters are the same as in Fig. 6 at $\Lambda = 0.199$.

than 1.5%, which is a slight difference. Lastly, panel (c) shows four particular cases in the phase space for the X , Y , and Z components' behaviors. The selected parameters are marked in the Fig. 5b. For the case, (I) in $\sigma = 60.0$ corresponds to a chaotic state with a $\lambda_{max} = 0.29$, where once again a Lorenz-like attractor is obtained. Cases (II), (III), and (IV) correspond to a state with 12, 6, 4, and 2 isospike, where a periodic doubling sequence is lost. The diagram shows a discontinuity in the branches when $\sigma = 61.2$ due to the system presenting dual stability.

Effects of the initial conditions

Usually nonlinear systems, like generalized Lorenz model, can have multistable solutions, some of them are hidden attractors [34,62,86,97,100,105–111]. For instance, it has been recently found the coexistence of several attractors in a hyper-chaotic system [34]. Furthermore, in the Lorenz model has been found hidden attractors that coexists with other well known solutions [111]. Therefore, in this last subsection we study the effect of the initial conditions in order to explore the possibility of coexistence of different attractors in our dynamical system.

Panel (a) of Fig. 6 shows the bifurcation diagram of the Z component, panel (b) the Kaplan–Yorke dimension, D_{KY} , and panel (c) the complexity indicator $\mathcal{C}$, as a function of Λ , starting with three different initial conditions. We have performed the continuation processes for each of them. Also, there are sub-panels with different colors per condition. In particular, we have taken the values of these initial conditions at the beginning of the diagram as follows: $\mathbf{X}^{(r)}(\tau = 0) = (-4.65, -0.40, 0.63, -0.30)$ (red), $\mathbf{X}^{(b)}(\tau = 0) = (-3.27, -0.15, 1.49, 46.7)$ (blue) and $\mathbf{X}^{(g)}(\tau = 0) = (2.37, 0.85, 0.94, 9.01)$ (green). We can definitely observe that there are multistability among plenty of different states. We can also see that the transition from a regular to a chaotic state differs depending on the branch. However, all branches converge into the same periodic state in the range $\Lambda \in (0.199956, 0.201496)$ and then suddenly bifurcate to chaos at $\Lambda = 0.201498$. There are more similarities between the blue and green branches in the range $\Lambda \in (0.199644, 0.198058)$, in which both exhibit only chaotic states, whereas the red one displays only periodic states. On the other hand, we can notice that the three indicators show good agreement among them.

Now, let us analyze in more detail the basin of attractions of different states for two specific sets of parameters. In particular, we will focus on two cases, one in which there is coexistence of chaotic and periodic states and the other in which there is coexistence only among regular states. These sets are depicted as I and II in the bifurcation diagrams, respectively. Panel (a) of Fig. 7 shows the two-dimensional isospike diagram of the Z -component as a function of the values of the initial conditions W_0 and Z_0 for fixed (X_0, Y_0) . In this wide range of values, there are only two types of solutions, chaotic and periodic, with a 6-spike per period. The regular regions form quite fascinating

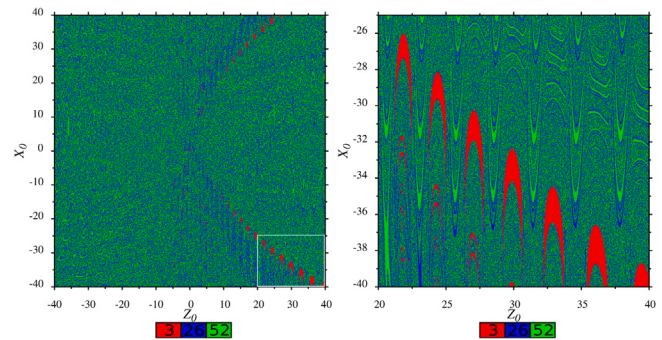


Fig. 8. Isospike diagram of the Z component as a function of the initial condition X_0 and Z_0 at $(Y_0, W_0) = (0.9, 0.1)$. The fixed parameters are the same as in Fig. 6 at $\Lambda = 0.2$.

patterns. In particular, we can observe a double spiral pattern, as it can be seen in the zoom exposed in panel (b) of the same figure. Finally, panel (a) of Fig. 8 displays the two-dimensional isospike diagram of the Z -component as a function of the values of the initial conditions X_0 and Z_0 for fixed (Y_0, W_0) . This diagram corresponds to the parameter set II. Here, we can observe that there is coexistence among three regular states with 3-, 26- and 52-isospike, repetitively. It can be seen that for negative values of Z_0 , there is no apparent order, such that the least predominant state is the 3-isospike. For positive values of Z_0 , an order emerges. A zoom is shown in panel (b) to notice better the pattern formation, where we see boomerang-like structures for the three types of periodic states.

Final remarks

In this manuscript, we have performed a comparative analysis of different dynamical indicators in the problem of the convection of a viscoelastic fluid in a porous medium with a control feedback mechanism. The system has been characterized by a set of four coupled nonlinear differential equations. We have focused mainly on the characterization by the largest Lyapunov exponent and LMC complexity indicator. We have carried out intensive numerical simulations in the space parameter with resolutions in the phase diagrams of 2000×2000 . Making a comparative analysis, we have been able to conclude that there is only a discrepancy of less than 2% between both indicators. This result is noteworthy because with $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$, it is only necessary to work with the time series, which significantly reduces the computation time. In fact, the ratio between the computation time of $\mathcal{C}_{LMC}$ and LLE for each phase diagram is almost five times faster when LLE is computed for a time of $\tau = 2^{15}$, whereas it is 174 times faster when $\tau = 2^{21}$. Let us remark since the LMC complexity indicator could be more accessible for experiments than the Lyapunov spectrum, which is more challenging to obtain. For completeness, we have also performed an analysis of the periodicities of the regular states using isospike diagrams, which reveal a rich structure in the space parameter. In addition, we have analyzed the influence of the initial conditions on the dynamical behavior for two different sets of parameters, finding bi-stability between a periodic and a chaotic state, and multistability among three regular states, respectively. In the near future, we will extend the study of complexity to other dynamical systems where the parameter space has been studied thoroughly from the Lyapunov exponents, as it is the case of magnetic systems.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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