# Soliton Management in Periodic Systems

**Boris A. Malomed** 



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### **Preface**

This books makes an attempt to provide systematic description of recently accumulated results that shed new light on the well-known object – solitons, i.e., self-supporting solitary waves in nonlinear media. Traditionally, solitons are studied theoretically (in an analytical and/or numerical form) as one-, two-, or three-dimensional solutions of nonlinear partial differential equations, and experimentally – as pulses or beams in uniform media. Propagation of solitons in inhomogeneous media was considered too (chiefly, in a theoretical form), and a general conclusion (which could be easily expected) was that the soliton would suffer gradual decay in the case of weak inhomogeneity, and faster destruction in strongly inhomogeneous systems.

However, it was recently found, in sundry physical and mathematical settings, that a completely different, and much less obvious, situation is possible too – a soliton may remain a truly robust and intrinsically coherent object traveling long distances in periodic heterogeneous media, composed of layers with very different properties. A well-known example is dispersion management in fiber-optic telecommunications, i.e., the situation when a long fiber link consists of periodically alternating segments of fibers with opposite signs of the group-velocity dispersion. Such a structure of the link is necessary, as the dispersion must be compensated on average, which is provided by the alternation of negative- and positive-dispersion segments. In this case, a simple result is that localized pulses of light feature periodic internal pulsations but remain stable on average (do not demonstrate systematic degradation) in the absence of nonlinearity. A really nontrivial result is that optical solitons, i.e., nonlinear pulses of light, may also remain extremely stable propagating in such a periodically heterogeneous system. Moreover, under certain conditions, (quasi-) solitons may be robust even in a random dispersion-managed system, with randomly varying lengths of the dispersion-compensated cells (each cell is a pair of fiber segments with opposite signs of the dispersion).

While the dispersion management provides for the best known example of stability of solitons under "periodic management", examples of robust oscillating solitons in periodic heterogeneous systems were also found and investigated in some detail in a number of other settings. Essentially, they all belong to two areas – nonlinear optics and Bose-Einstein condensation (being altogether different physically, these fields have a lot in common as concerns their theoretical description). It should be said that the action of the periodic heterogeneity on a soliton may be realized in two different ways – as motion of the soliton through the inhomogeneous medium, or as strong periodic variation of system's parameter(s) in time, while the soliton does not move at all.

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A very interesting example of the latter situation is the so-called *Feshbach-resonance management*, when the sign of the effective nonlinearity in a Bose-Einstein condensate periodically changes between self-attraction and self-repulsion. In the latter case, nontrivial examples of stable solitons have also been predicted.

The book aims to summarize results obtained in this field. In fact, a vast majority of results still have the form of theoretical predictions, as systematic experimental study of stability of solitons in periodic heterogeneous systems have only been performed in the context of the dispersion management in fiber optics. For this reason, the material collected in the book has a strong theoretical bias. A hope is that collecting the theoretical predictions in a systematic form may suggest directions for experimental investigation of solitons under the "periodic management". In particular, creation of solitons in Bose-Einstein condensates subjected to the Feshbach-resonance management, possibly in combination with spatially periodic potentials, provided by the so-called optical lattices, seems to be quite feasible in the real experiment, which would be especially interesting in two- and three-dimensional settings (creation of a three-dimensional soliton in a real experiment has never been reported in any field of physics, despite various theoretical predictions of this possibility).

As concerns theoretical results, virtually all of them are not rigorous ones, for an obvious reason – it is very difficult to rigorously prove the existence of stable oscillating localized solutions in models based on nonlinear partial differential equations with periodically varying coefficients, which provide for the theoretical description of the systems with periodic management. Therefore, theoretical results are either purely numerical ones, or, sometimes, they are known in a (semi-) analytical form, which is based (most frequently) on the variational approximation. Nevertheless, despite the lack of the rigorous theory, there is a possibility to summarize the results in a systematic and sufficiently consistent form. An attempt of that is done in this book. It should be said that the presentation of material in the book has a rather subjective character (which is, probably, inevitable in a book on such a topic), as emphasis is made on those issues and aspects which seem specially interesting or significant from the viewpoint of the author.

The subject of the periodic management of solitons is far from being completed. Not only the experimental results are very scarce, as said above, but also theoretical analysis (even in a non-rigorous form) of many important problems should be further advanced. However, although the field is in the state of development, a coherent description of its current status is quite possible.

Three distinct parts can be identified in the book. The first chapter (Introduction), which is, as a matter of fact, a separate part by itself, gives a possibly general overview of solitons, with an intention to briefly outline the most important theoretical models and results obtained in them, as well as most significant experimental achievements. Since the length of the introduction is limited, the outline was focused on models and settings related to the realms of nonlinear optics and Bose-Einstein condensation, as the concepts and techniques of the periodic soliton managements have been developed in these areas. The introduction also includes a brief description of the subject and particular objectives of the book. Then, two technical parts (one includes chapters 2-6, and the other chapters 7-10) report results, respectively, for one-dimensional and multidimensional solitons. Such separation is natural, as methods used for the study

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of one-dimensional settings, and the respective results, are very different from those which are relevant to multidimensional problems (nevertheless, chapter 10 includes some results for a one-dimensional situation too, which are closely related to the basic two-dimensional problem which is considered in that chapter).

Writing this book would not be possible without valuable collaborations and discussions with a large number of colleagues. It is my great pleasure to express the gratitude to F. Kh. Abdullaev, J. Atai, B. B. Baizakov, Y. B. Band, A. Berntson, J. G. Caputo, A. R. Champneys, P. Y. P. Chen, P. L. Chu, D. J. Frantzeskakis, B. V. Gisin, D. J. Kaup, P. G. Kevrekidis, Y. S. Kivshar, R. A. Kraenkel, T. Lakoba, U. Mahlab, D. Mihalache, V. Pérez-García, M. Salerno, M. Segev, N. Smyth, L. Torner, M. Trippenbach, F. Wise, and J. Yang. Special thanks are due to younger collaborators (some of them were my students or postdoc associates), including R. Driben, A. Gubeskys, M. Gutin, A. Kaplan, M. Matuszewski, T. Mayteevarunyoom, M. I. Merhasin, G. Theocharis, and I. Towers.

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List of acronyms used in the text:

1D, 2D, 3D - one-dimensional, two-dimensional, three-dimensional

AWG - antiwaveguide

BEC - Bose-Einstein condensation/condensate

BG - Bragg grating

CW - continuous-wave (solution)

DM - dispersion management

DS - dark soliton

FF - fundamental-frequency (wave)

FP - fixed point

FR - Feshbach resonance

FRM - Feshbach-resonance management

FWHM - full width at half-maximum (of an optical pulse)

FWM - four-wave mixing

GPE - Gross-Pitaevskii equation

GS - gap soliton

GVD - group-velocity dispersion

GVM - group-velocity mismatch

HS - hot spot (a local perturbation switching a spatial soliton)

ISI - inter-symbol interference

IST - inverse-scattering transform

KdV - Korteweg - de Vries (equation)

ME - Mathieu equation

NLM - nonlinearity management

NLS - nonlinear Schrödinger (equation or soliton)

ODE - ordinary differential equation

OL - optical lattice

PAD - path-average dispersion

PCF - photonic-crystal fiber

PDE - partial differential equation

PR - parametric resonance

OPM - quasi-phase-matching

RI - refractive index

RZ - return-to-zero (signal)

SH - second harmonic

SHG - second-harmonic generation

SPM - self-phase modulation

SSM - split-step model

STS - spatiotemporal soliton

TF - Thomas-Fermi (approximation)

TS - Townes soliton

VA - variational approximation

WDM - wavelength-division multiplexing

WG - waveguide (when referred to in the context of the waveguding-antiwaveguiding model)

XPM - cross-phase modulation

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

#### 1.1 An overview of the concept of solitons

The concept of solitons (solitary waves) plays a profoundly important role in modern physics and applied mathematics, extending beyond the bounds of these disciplines. It was introduced in 1965 by Zabusky and Kruskal who numerically simulated collisions between solitary waves (pulses) in the Korteweg - de Vries (KdV) equation, and discovered that these pulses not only are stable in isolation, but also completely recover their shapes after collisions [175]; this observation was an incentive which had soon led to the discovery of the inverse scattering transform (IST) and the very concept of integrable nonlinear partial differential equations (PDEs) [72]. The next principally important step in this direction was made by Zakharov and Shabat, who had demonstrated that the integrability is not a peculiarity specific to a single (KdV) equation, but is also featured by another equation which finds very important applications in physics, viz., the nonlinear Schrödinger (NLS) equation [177]. Integrability of the sine-Gordon equation, which was actually known, in terms of the Bäcklund transformation, since the 19th century, was also naturally incorporated into the IST technique (the sine-Gordon equation finds its most important physical realization in superconductivity, as a dynamical model of a long Josephson junction, i.e., a thin layer of an insulator sandwiched between two bulk superconductors [170]). Further development of the studies in this field has produced a body of results which have become a classical contribution to several core areas of physics and mathematics. The IST technique and results produced by it were summarized in several well-known books written by the very same people who had produced these results [176, 11, 133].

Parallel to the theoretical developments, great progress has been achieved in experimental studies of solitons. The very first published report of observation of a soliton is due to John Scott Russell, who spotted a stable localized elevation running on the surface of water in a canal in Edinburgh, and pursued it on horseback. In retrospective, the most astonishing feature of this report, published in 1844 [149], is the very fact that J. S. Russell was able to instantaneously understand the significance of the phenomenon.

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#### 1.1.1 Optical solitons

#### Qualitative consideration

In the modern experimental and theoretical studies of solitons, the most significant progress has been achieved in optics and, most recently, in Bose-Einstein condensates (BECs). A milestone achievement was the creation of bright temporal solitons in nonlinear optical fibers in 1980 [127], after this possibility had been predicted seven years earlier [79]. In the realm of nonlinear optics, this was followed by the creation of dark solitons in fibers [60, 98, 172], bright spatial solitons in planar nonlinear waveguides [118, 18], and gap solitons (GSs) in fiber Bragg gratings [57]. In all these cases, the soliton is supported by interplay between the chromatic dispersion (in the temporal domain) or diffraction (for spatial solitons) of the electromagnetic wave and cubic selffocusing nonlinearity, induced by the Kerr effect. The latter may be realized as an effective positive correction,  $\Delta n(I)$ , to the local refractive index (RI) of the material medium, which is proportional to the local intensity, I, of that very electromagnetic wave on which the RI acts, i.e.,  $\Delta n(I) = n_2 I$  with a positive coefficient  $n_2$ . Besides the self-focusing sign of the Kerr effect ( $\Delta n(I) > 0$ ), its essential property in normal optical materials is the instantaneous character (no temporal delay between  $\Delta n(I)$  and I). In view of the fundamental importance of the temporal and spatial optical solitons supported by this mechanism, it is relevant to present a short quantitative explanation for it here.

In the course of the propagation in the nonlinear medium, the light pulse accumulates a phase shift that, through the correction  $n_2I$  to the RI, mimics the temporal shape of the pulse, I=I(t). To understand this feature in a more accurate form, one may start from the normalized wave equation for the electric field E,

$$E_{zz} + E_{xx} + E_{yy} - (n^2 E)_{tt} = 0, (1.1)$$

where the subscripts stand for the partial derivative, z is the propagation distance, x and y are transverse coordinates, t is time, and n is the above-mentioned RI (detailed derivation of the wave equation can be found, e.g., in book [15]). A solution to Eq. (1.1) for a one-dimensional wave, which must be a real function, is looked for as

$$E(z,t) = u(z)e^{ik_0z - i\omega_0t} + u^*(z)e^{-ik_0z + i\omega_0t},$$
(1.2)

where  $\exp{(ik_0z-i\omega_0t)}$  represents a rapidly oscillating carrier wave, the asterisk stands for the complex conjugation, and u(z,t) is a slowly varying complex local amplitude. Substituting this in Eq. (1.1), in the lowest approximation one obtains the dispersion relation between the propagation constant (wave number) k and frequency  $\omega$ ,  $k_0^2=(n_0\omega_0)^2$ , with  $n_0$  the RI in the linear approximation. The next-order approximation, which takes into regard the above correction to the RI,  $n=n_0+n_2I$ , yields an evolution equation for the amplitude,

$$i\frac{du}{dz} + \frac{n_0 n_2}{k_0} \omega_0^2 Iu = 0. (1.3)$$

Actually, this equation is a nonlinear one, as the intensity is tantamount to the squared amplitude,  $I = |u|^2$ . A solution to Eq. (1.3) is simply  $\Delta \phi = (n_0 n_2) \left( \omega_0^2 / k_0 \right) Iz$ ,

where  $\Delta\phi$  is a nonlinear contribution to the wave's phase (the accumulation of the nonlinear phase is usually called self-phase modulation, SPM). The corresponding SPM-induced frequency shift being  $\Delta\omega=-\partial\Delta\phi/\partial t$ , one obtains an expression for it,

$$\Delta\omega = -n_0 n_2 \frac{\omega_0^2}{k_0} \frac{dI}{dt} z. \tag{1.4}$$

It follows from Eq. (1.4) that the lower-frequency components of the pulse, with  $\Delta\omega < 0$ , develop near its front, where dI/dt > 0 (the intensity grows with time), while higher frequencies, with  $\Delta\omega > 0$ , develop close to the rear of the pulse, where dI/dt < 0.

On the other hand, the dielectric response of the material medium is not strictly instantaneous, featuring a finite temporal delay. This implies that the linear part,  $\epsilon \equiv n_0^2$ , of the multiplier  $n^2$  in the wave equation (1.1) (the dynamic dielectric permeability) is, as a matter of fact, a linear operator, rather than simply a multiplier. The accordingly modified form of the linear term ( $\epsilon E$ )<sub>tt</sub> in Eq. (1.1) becomes  $(\int_0^\infty \epsilon(\tau) E(t-\tau) d\tau)_{tt}$ , where  $\tau$  is the delay time. Finally, approximating this nonlocal-in-time expression by a quasi-local expansion,  $\epsilon_0 E_{tt} + \epsilon_2 E_{tttt} + ...$ , which is justified when the actual delay in the dielectric response is very small, gives rise to second- and higher-order group-velocity-dispersion (GVD), alias chromatic-dispersion, terms in the eventual propagation equation, which can be translated into the corresponding linear dispersion relation,  $k = k(\omega)$  [15].

In particular, the normal (positive) GVD (which means that waves with a higher frequency have a smaller group velocity, as expressed by the condition that the second-order-dispersion coefficient is positive,  $\beta_2 \equiv d^2k/d\omega^2 > 0$ ) reinforces the above (nonlinearity-induced) trend to the temporal separation between the low- and high-frequency components of the pulse, contributing to its rapid spread. On the contrary, anomalous (negative) GVD ( $\beta_2 < 0$ ), which also occurs in real materials, may *compensate* the nonlinearity-induced spreading. With the magnitudes of the dispersion and intensity properly matched, the balance may be perfect, giving rise to very robust pulses, i.e., solitons.

#### Nonlinear Schrödinger equation and solitons

Putting all the above ingredients together, and assuming that the amplitude u in Eq. (1.2) is a slowly varying function of z and "reduced time",  $\tau \equiv t - k'_{\omega}z$  (here and below, the value of the derivative  $k'_{\omega}$  is calculated at the carrier-wave's frequency,  $\omega = \omega_0$ ), one arrives at the *nonlinear Schrödinger* (NLS) equation which governs the evolution of  $u(z, \tau)$ ,

$$iu_z - \frac{1}{2}\beta u_{\tau\tau} + \gamma |u|^2 u = 0,$$
 (1.5)

where  $\beta$  replaces  $\beta_2$  (the replacement will not lead to confusion, as higher-order dispersion, which is different from  $\beta_2$ , is not dealt with below), and  $\gamma \equiv n_2 \sqrt{\epsilon_0} \omega_0^2/k_0$ . The introduction of  $\tau$  instead of t is necessary to eliminate a term with the first derivative in t (the group-velocity term), thus casting the NLS equation in the simplest possible form, namely, the one given by Eq. (1.5).

4 INTRODUCTION

Below, a number of models will be considered that may be viewed as various generalizations of the NLS equation (1.5) – two-component systems, equations with different nonlinearities, multidimensional systems, etc. A very recent succinct review of equations of the NLS type can be found in article [105].

An elementary property of the NLS equation is its *Galilean invariance*: any given solution  $u(z,\tau)$  automatically generates a family of moving solutions by means of the *Galilean boost* that depends on an arbitrary real parameter c (it is an inverse-velocity shift, relative to the inverse group velocity,  $k'_{\omega}$ , of the carrier wave):

$$u(z,t;c) = u(z,\tau - cz) \exp\left(\frac{ic^2}{2\beta}z - \frac{ic}{\beta}\tau\right). \tag{1.6}$$

Another simple property of Eq. (1.5) is the *modulational instability* of CW (continuous-wave) solutions,  $u_{\rm CW} = A_0 \exp\left(i\gamma A_0^2 z\right)$  with an arbitrary amplitude  $A_0$ : although the CW solution does not contain the GVD coefficient  $\beta$ , it is stable in the case of  $\beta\gamma < 0$ , and unstable (against  $\tau$ -dependent perturbations) in the opposite case.

The NLS equation has natural Lagrangian and Hamiltonian representations. The former one will be considered below (see Eq. (2.7)), while the latter takes the form

$$iu_z = \frac{\delta H}{\delta u^*},\tag{1.7}$$

where  $\delta/\delta u^*$  is the functional derivative, the asterisk stands for the complex conjugation, and the Hamiltonian,

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left( \beta |u_{\tau}|^2 + \gamma |u|^4 \right) d\tau, \tag{1.8}$$

is considered as a functional of two formally independent arguments,  $u(\tau)$  and  $(u(\tau))^*$ . The Hamiltonian is a dynamical invariant of Eq. (1.5), i.e., dH/dz=0. Two other straightforward dynamical invariants of the NLS equation are energy E, alias norm of the solution (in the context of fiber optics, the energy is different from the Hamiltonian), and momentum P,

$$E \equiv \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |u(\tau)|^2 d\tau, \tag{1.9}$$

$$P \equiv i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} u u_{\tau}^* d\tau. \tag{1.10}$$

Due to the fact that the NLS equation is exactly integrable by means of the IST, it has an infinite set of higher-order dynamical invariants, in addition to E, P, and H [176]. In particular, the first two higher-order invariants are

$$I_4 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left( -\beta u u_{\tau\tau\tau}^* + 3\gamma |u|^2 u u_{\tau}^* \right) d\tau, \tag{1.11}$$

$$I_{5} = \frac{1}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left[ \beta^{2} |u_{\tau\tau}|^{2} + 2\gamma^{2} |u|^{6} + \gamma \beta \left( \left( |u|^{2} \right)_{\tau} \right)^{2} + 6\gamma \beta |u_{\tau}|^{2} u^{2} \right] d\tau (1.12)$$

(the subscripts 4 and 5 imply that they follow the first three elementary dynamical invariants, E, P, and H). These higher-order invariants do not have a straightforward physical interpretation, and are seldom used in applications. Nevertheless, an example of a physical application of the invariants (1.11) and (1.12) will be presented in this book, when analyzing splitting of higher - order solitons in the model based on Eq. (5.5), see subsection 5.2.3.

In the case of the anomalous GVD,  $\beta < 0$  (it is assumed that  $\gamma$  is positive), i.e., when the CW solutions are unstable, a commonly known family of soliton solutions to Eq. (1.5) is

$$u_{\text{sol}}(z,\tau) = \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \operatorname{sech}\left(\eta\left(\frac{\tau}{\sqrt{|\beta|}} - cz\right)\right) \exp\left(i\left[\frac{c\tau}{\sqrt{|\beta|}} + \frac{1}{2}\left(\eta^2 - c^2\right)z\right]\right),\tag{1.13}$$

where  $\eta$  and c are arbitrary real parameters, that determine the soliton's amplitude and the above-mentioned inverse-velocity shift. The function sech (hyperbolic secant) in this solution provides for the localization of the soliton. In the experiment, the temporal soliton is observed as a localized pulse running along the fiber with the velocity  $V=1/\left(k_\omega'+c\sqrt{|\beta|}\right)$ . The entire soliton family (1.13) is stable against small perturbations.

The application of the IST yields exact solutions of the NLS equation more complex than the fundamental soliton (1.13). In particular, the initial condition (in the case of  $\beta < 0$ )

$$u_0(\tau) = n \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \operatorname{sech}\left(\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{|\beta|}}\tau\right)$$
 (1.14)

with integer n and arbitrary  $\eta$ , that generates the fundamental soliton for n=1, gives rise to higher-order "n-solitons" for  $n\geq 2$  [154]. Analytical expressions for these solitons with  $n\geq 3$  are cumbersome. A relatively simple analytical solution describes the 2-soliton,

$$u_{2\text{sol}} = \frac{4\eta}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \frac{\cosh\left(3\eta\tau/\sqrt{|\beta|}\right) + 3\exp\left(4i\eta^2z\right)\cosh\left(3\eta\tau/\sqrt{|\beta|}\right)}{\cosh\left(4\eta\tau/\sqrt{|\beta|}\right) + 4\cosh\left(2\eta\tau/\sqrt{|\beta|}\right) + 3\cos\left(4\eta^2z\right)} \exp\left(\frac{i}{2}\eta^2z\right). \tag{1.15}$$

As seen from this expression, the shape of the 2-soliton, i.e., the distribution of the power in the soliton,  $|u(z,\tau)|^2$ , oscillates in z with the period

$$z_{\rm sol} = \frac{\pi}{2\eta^2},\tag{1.16}$$

which is called the *soliton period*. It can be demonstrated that all the exact n-soliton solutions generated by the initial condition (1.14) with  $N \geq 2$  oscillate with exactly the same period (1.16), irrespective of the integer value of n. In fact,  $z_{\rm sol}$  is also an