

Dipolar bright solitons and solitary vortices in a radial lattice

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Stabilizing vortex solitons with high values of the topological charge S is a challenging issue in optics, studies of Bose-Einstein condensates (BECs), and other fields. To develop an approach to the solution of this problem, we consider a two-dimensional dipolar BEC under the action of an axisymmetric radially periodic lattice potential, $V(r) \sim \cos(2r + \delta)$, with dipole moments polarized perpendicular to the system's plane, which gives rise to isotropic repulsive dipole-dipole interactions. Two radial lattices are considered, with $\delta = 0$ and π , i.e., a potential maximum or minimum at $r = 0$, respectively. Families of vortex gap soliton (GSs) with $S = 1$ and $S \geq 2$, the latter ones often being unstable in other settings, are completely stable in the present system (at least up to $S = 11$), being trapped in different annular troughs of the radial potential. The vortex solitons with different S may stably coexist in sufficiently far separated troughs. Fundamental GSs, with $S = 0$, are found too. In the case of $\delta = 0$, the fundamental solitons are ring-shaped modes, with a local minimum at $r = 0$. At $\delta = \pi$, they place a density peak at the center.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Nonlinear optical and matter waves carrying angular momentum readily self-trap into vortex modes, which may be considered as two-dimensional dark solitons supported by a modulationally stable flat background, or bright solitons with embedded vortices. Experimental and theoretical studies of vortices is a vast research area in nonlinear optics, studies of Bose-Einstein condensates (BECs), quantum fluids, and in other fields. The formation, stability, and dynamics of dark [1–13] and bright [14–49] vortices have been explored in a great variety of settings, including conservative and dissipative ones, continuous and discrete media, local and nonlocal interactions, and different types of the nonlinearity—cubic (self-focusing and defocusing), cubic-quintic, saturable, and quadratic (second-harmonic generating). A recent development has produced unexpected predictions in the form of bright semivortices (bound states of components with vorticities $S = 0$ and $S = 1$) in spinor BECs with the spin-orbit coupling and contact attractive interactions, which are stable in free space [50–55], as well as stable gap solitons of the semivortex type in the free space with dipole-dipole interactions (DDIs) [56].

In many cases, bright vortex solitons are stable solely with the unitary topological charge, $S = 1$. In particular, the spin-orbit coupling supports solitons with vorticities $S = 1$ and $S = 2$ in its two components, which are completely unstable [50,56]. Vortices in the self-attractive BEC trapped in a harmonic-oscillator potential also have a stability area solely for $S = 1$ [14,19,32,34]. Vortex solitons in the free space with the cubic-quintic nonlinearity [15] feature

stability regions for $S > 1$, but they are very narrow, starting from $S = 3$ [17]. Typically, the vortex solitons with $S > 1$ are subject to azimuthal perturbations which break them into S fragments [19,34,57,58]. This instability has been demonstrated experimentally for vortex beams propagating in saturable self-focusing media [59–61], as well as in quadratic ones [62].

Sufficiently large stability regions in the parametric space for vortex solitons with $S > 1$ were found in axisymmetric potential lattices with the Bessel functional profile in the radial direction, combined with the self-defocusing nonlinearity [63]. In that case, a deeper lattice is required to stabilize solitary vortices with higher values of S . Because the Bessel potential vanishes at $r \rightarrow \infty$, the total norm of modes trapped in it under the action of self-defocusing, strictly speaking, diverges in the infinite space. Truly confined gap solitons (GSs), i.e., solitons whose chemical potential falls in one of the band gaps generated by the underlying potential lattice, were constructed considering the combination of the self-defocusing cubic nonlinearity and a radially periodic potential, $\sim \cos(2kr)$, where r is the radial coordinate [64]. However, only radial GSs with $S = 0$ were found to be completely stable in the latter model, while all confined vortices featured a weak azimuthal instability. Self-trapped vortices, which remain stable, at least, up to $S = 5$, were recently found in a model of a polariton type, which combines the self-repulsive contact nonlinearity of a two-component BEC and effective nonlocal self-attraction mediated by the microwave field generated by transitions between two components resonantly coupled by the field [48]. Nonlocal interactions, considered in Ref. [48] or in the present work (see below), introducing their own radial scale, provide more options in the interplay with the radially periodic lattice, which helps, in particular, to stabilize vortex GS modes against the azimuthal instability.

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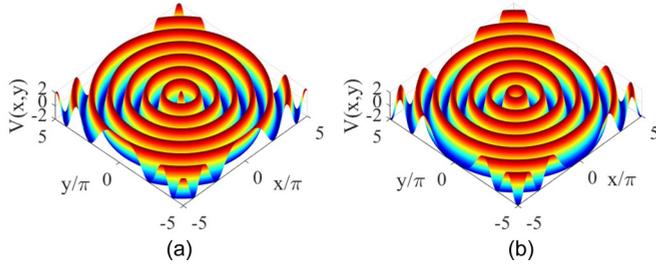


FIG. 1. Radial potentials (3) with $V_0 = 1$, for $\delta = 0$ (a) and $\delta = \pi$ (b).

The objective of the present work is to predict stable GSs with $S = 0$ and $S \geq 1$ in a dipolar BECs trapped in a radially periodic potential, with dipole moments polarized perpendicular to the system's plane, which gives rise to the isotropic repulsive DDI. In earlier works, DDIs were used to predict stable one-dimensional [65–68] and two-dimensional [69–79] solitons in other settings. In addition, it was found that quadrupole-quadrupole interactions are also able to create stable two-dimensional solitons [80,81]. However, the free-space DDI *per se* cannot stabilize vortex solitons with $S > 1$ [71]. In this work, we demonstrate that ring-shaped vortex GSs with higher values of S (at least, up to $S = 11$) are readily made stable by the combined effect of the radial lattice potential and repulsive isotropic DDIs. Furthermore, double and multiple sets of concentric vortex solitons, with different topological charges, may stably coexist, if placed in different annular potential troughs of the radial lattice. In that case, vorticity jumps take place at zero-amplitude notches separating the concentric vortices. The latter property was not reported in previously considered two-dimensional models.

The paper is structured as follows. The model is introduced in Sec. II, which is followed by presentation of numerical results for the fundamental ($S = 0$) and vortex ($S \geq 1$) GSs in Sec. III. The stability of the solitons is verified by means of systematic direct simulations. The paper is concluded by Sec. IV.

II. MODEL

According to what was said above, we consider an effectively two-dimensional setting, modeled by Gross-Pitaevskii

equation, which is written in the scaled form:

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) + V(r) \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) + \kappa \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \int R(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') |\Psi(\mathbf{r}', t)|^2 d\mathbf{r}', \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{r} = \{x, y\}$ is the set of coordinates, $\nabla^2 = \partial_x^2 + \partial_y^2$ is the respective Laplacian, $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is the mean-field wave function, and $\kappa > 0$ is the strength of the DDI, with the isotropic kernel corresponding to the particles' dipolar moments polarized perpendicular to the (x, y) plane:

$$R(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') = \frac{1}{[\epsilon^2 + (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}')^2]^{3/2}}. \quad (2)$$

Here, cutoff ϵ is the regularization parameter, which is determined by the confinement of the three-dimensional condensate in the transverse direction [65,66]. Further, the axisymmetric radially periodic lattice potential is taken as

$$V(r) = V_0 \cos(2r + \delta), \quad (3)$$

where $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, the depth of the lattice potential is $2V_0 > 0$, the radial period is fixed to be π by scaling, and δ is a phase constant. Here, we focus on the consideration of the two most essential cases, viz., $\delta = 0$ and $\delta = \pi$, which correspond to a potential maximum or minimum at the center, $r = 0$, respectively; see Fig. 1.

We look for stationary axisymmetric states with chemical potential μ and integer vorticity S as solutions to Eq. (1) in the form of

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \psi(r) \exp(iS\theta - i\mu t), \quad (4)$$

where θ is the angular coordinate. Self-trapped GS solutions are characterized by the total norm,

$$N = 2\pi \int_0^\infty \psi^2(r) r dr, \quad (5)$$

and the angular momentum, $M = SN$. Its energy is

$$E = E_K + E_V + E_{DDI}, \quad (6)$$

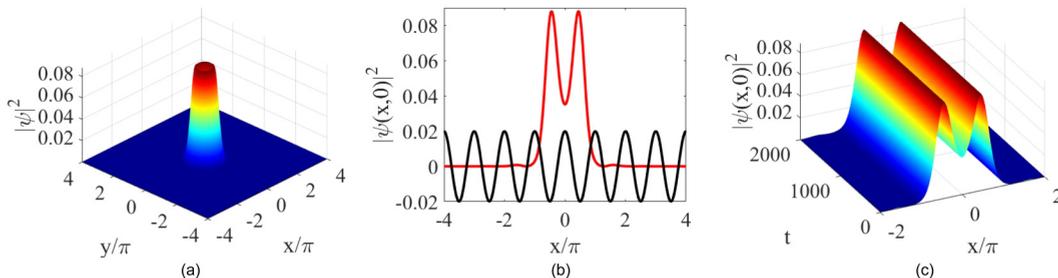


FIG. 2. A typical fundamental ($S = 0, n = 1$) ring-shaped gap soliton for $\delta = 0$, other parameters being $N = 1.3$ and $V_0 = 1$. (a) The density of stationary wave function in the (x, y) plane. (b) Its cross section, $|\psi(x, 0)|^2$, along $y = 0$. (c) The cross section of the real-time simulation, which demonstrates stability of the soliton.

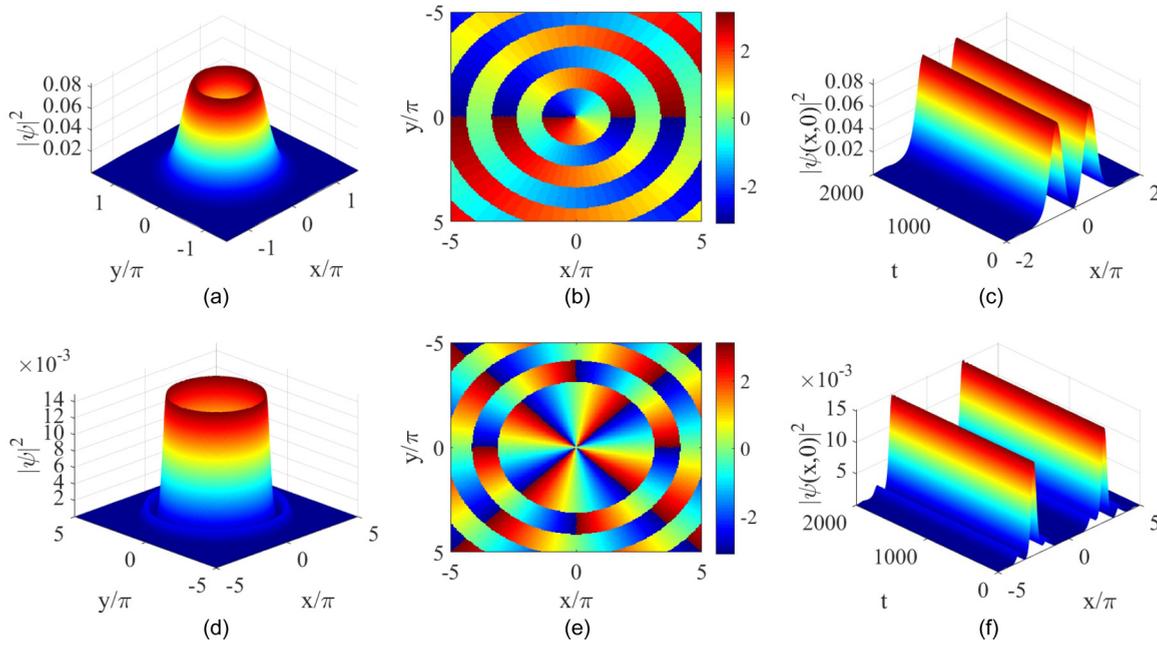


FIG. 3. Two typical examples of stable gap-vortex solitons for $\delta = 0$. (a), (b) Density and phase profiles of the vortex soliton for $S = 1, n = 1$ [n is defined as per Eq. (11)]. (c) The cross section of the real-time evolution, corroborating the stability of the vortex soliton. (d)–(f) The same as in (a)–(c), respectively, but for $S = 4, n = 3$. The norm of both vortex solitons is $N = 1.3$, and the strength of the radial potential is $V_0 = 1$.

where E_K , E_V , and E_{DDI} are the kinetic, potential, and DDI terms, respectively:

$$E_K = \int |\nabla \psi|^2 d\mathbf{r} \quad (7)$$

$$\equiv \pi \int_0^\infty \left[\left(\frac{d\psi}{dr} \right)^2 + \frac{S^2}{r^2} \psi^2(r) \right] r dr,$$

$$E_V = 2\pi \int V(r) \psi^2(r) r dr, \quad (8)$$

$$E_{DDI} = \frac{\kappa}{2} \iint R(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 |\psi(\mathbf{r}')|^2 d\mathbf{r} d\mathbf{r}'. \quad (9)$$

Two-dimensional bright GSs can be supported by the interplay of the radially periodic potential and repulsive

interaction [64]. In this work, we focus on the DDI, which was not previously considered in the present setting, neglecting contact interactions, which can be effectively suppressed by means of the Feshbach resonance [82]. In fact, effects of adding moderately strong contact interactions to the DDI were checked too (not shown in detail in this paper, as no dramatic changes in the results were observed in that case).

Numerical simulations have been carried out by dint of an algorithm of PCSOM [83], fixing $\kappa \equiv 1$ by means of scaling, and, typically, taking $\epsilon = 0.5$, which is small enough in comparison with the potential's period π , making it possible to produce generic results. It was additionally checked that taking still smaller ϵ (e.g., 0.25) does not produce any conspicuous change in the results. The stability of stationary soliton solutions was tested by means of real-time propagation, which was implemented with the help of the standard split-step-fast-Fourier-transform algorithm.

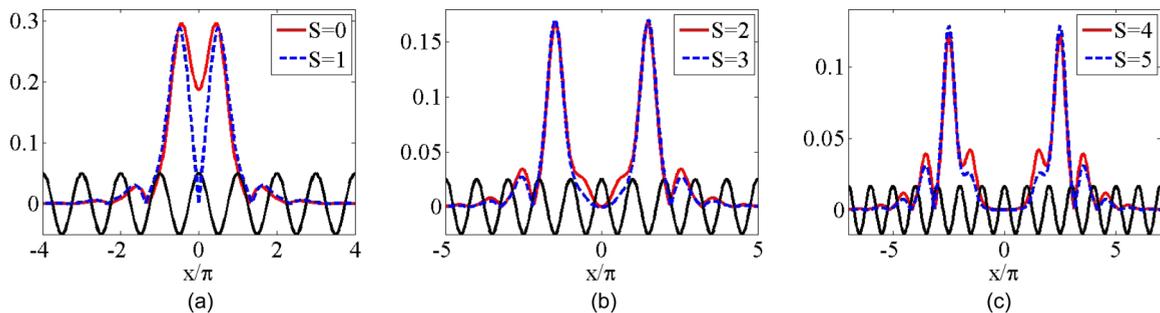


FIG. 4. (a) The cross section $|\psi(x,0)|$ of profiles of the gap solitons trapped in different annular potential troughs (here we display the absolute value of the field, rather than the density, to display the profiles in a clearer form). (a) The solitons with $S = 0$ and 1 in the first trough, which corresponds to $n = 1$ in Eq. (11). (b) $S = 2$ and 3 , in the trough with $n = 2$. (c) $S = 4$ and 5 , in the trough with $n = 3$. The norm of all the gap solitons displayed here is $N = 1.3$, and the half-depth of the periodic potential is $V_0 = 1$.

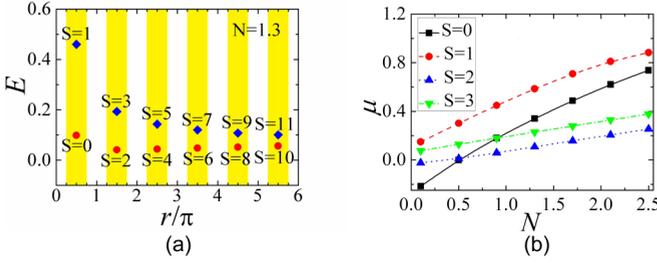


FIG. 5. (a) The energy, defined by Eqs. (6)–(10), of the gap solitons with different vorticities S , and the radial location of their main density peaks. Yellow stripes denote the respective potential troughs. The norm of all the solitons presented in this panel is $N = 1.3$. (b) Chemical potential μ for the gap-soliton families with different values of S vs the norm N at $V_0 = 1$. This panel demonstrates that all the families satisfy the anti-Vakhitov-Kolokolov criterion, $d\mu/dN > 0$, which is a necessary condition for the stability of solitons supported by a repulsive nonlinearity (see the main text).

III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

A. Radial lattice with $\delta = 0$ (potential maximum at the center)

When radial potential (3) has a maximum at the center, Eq. (1), naturally, cannot produce a fundamental soliton ($S = 0$) with a density peak at $r = 0$. Instead, the model readily produces stable GSs with $S = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ which feature a density minimum at the center, and the main radial density peak trapped in a trough with the bottom at one of potential minima,

$$r_{\min} = \pi(n - \frac{1}{2}), \quad n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, \quad (10)$$

where n is the number of the radial minimum. Typical examples of such ring-shaped solitons are displayed in Fig. 2 for $S = 0$, and in Fig. 3 for $S = 1$ and $S = 4$. The GSs with $S = 0$ and 1 place their density maxima close to $n = 1$, while the vortex with $S = 4$ chooses $n = 3$. It is worthy to note that the latter vortex mode, with a high value of the topological charge, $S = 4$, displayed in Figs. 3(d)–3(f), is definitely stable, contrary to a majority of models where it would be unstable. In fact, we have obtained stable vortex solitons with topological charges up to $S = 11$, as indicated below in Figs. 5(a) and 9(d).

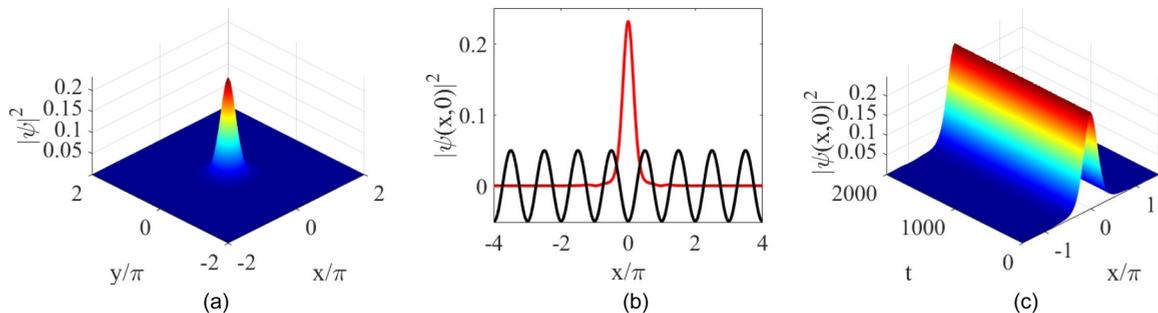


FIG. 6. A fundamental ($S = 0$) gap soliton trapped in the center of the radial lattice potential (3) with $\delta = \pi$. (a) The density profile of the soliton $|\psi(x, y)|^2$. (b) Its cross section, $|\psi(x, 0)|^2$. (c) The cross section of the simulated evolution of $|\psi(x, 0)|^2$, which demonstrates stability of the soliton. Its norm is $N = 0.5$, and the strength of the potential is $V_0 = 2$ in this case.

Systematic numerical results, collected in Figs. 4 and 5(a), demonstrate that the GSs with $S = 0$ and 1 are trapped in the trough with $n = 1$, GSs with $S = 2$ and 3 choose $n = 2$, with $S = 4$ and 5 choose $n = 3$, and so on, obeying an empiric relation

$$n_{\text{mainpeak}} = 1 + [S/2], \quad (11)$$

where $[\]$ stands for the integer part. Figure 5(a) also shows that the vortex modes with odd S have their energy decreasing with the growth of S , while the energy of ones with even S exhibit a very slow increase of energy, starting from $S = 2$. Further, the mode with odd S has its energy always higher than its counterpart with even vorticity, $S - 1$, sharing the same position of the density maximum.

The linear dependence in Eq. (12) for large S can be explained in a qualitative form. Indeed, the strongest dependence of the energy of ring-shaped solitons on the ring's radius, $R \approx \pi n$ for large n [see Eq. (11)], is provided by the second term in Eq. (8), $E_S \approx (S/R)^2 N$ [for comparison, the DDI energy, defined as per Eq. (10), can be estimated as $\sim \kappa N^2/R$]. On the other hand, the energy term which provides for the trapping of the ring-shaped mode in the annular trap is estimated as $E_{\text{trap}} \approx 2V_0 N$. Then, the balance of the two terms predicts $R \sim S/\sqrt{V_0}$.

The dependence of the chemical potential μ on norm N , which is displayed in Fig. 5(b) for the GS families with $S = 0, 1, 2, 3$, demonstrates that they obey the *anti-Vakhitov-Kolokolov criterion*, $d\mu/dN > 0$, which is a necessary condition for stability of solitons supported by any kind of repulsive nonlinearity [84,85]. The same is true for still larger values of S , up to $S = 11$ (largest S considered in the present work).

B. Radial lattice with $\delta = \pi$ (potential minimum at the center)

1. Fundamental gap solitons ($S = 0$)

Radial potential (3) with $\delta = \pi$ gives rise to a set of potential minima

$$r_{\min} = \pi n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, \quad (12)$$

cf. Eq. (11). In this case, is natural to expect the existence of stable fundamental GSs with a density peak at $r = 0$, which corresponds to the zeroth minimum, in terms of Eq. (13). This

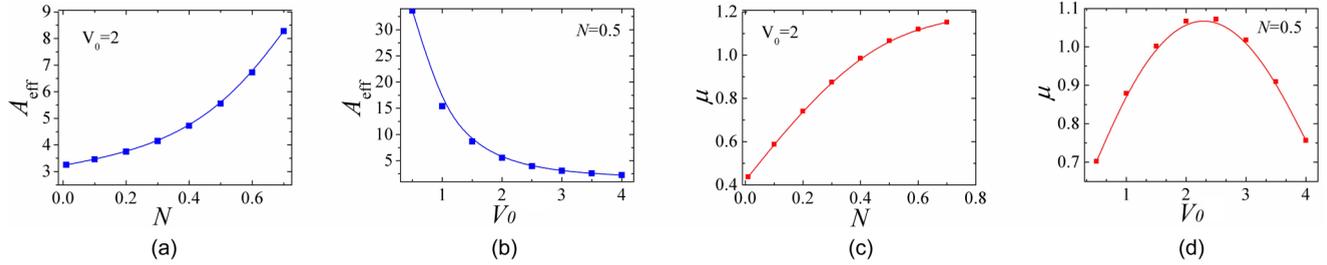


FIG. 7. (a), (b) A_{eff} for the fundamental gap soliton ($S = 0$), trapped in the central well of radial potential with $\delta = \pi$ [$n = 0$ in Eq. (13)], vs N and V_0 , respectively. In (a) $V_0 = 2$, and in (b) $N = 0.5$. (c) μ vs N with $V_0 = 2$. (d) μ vs V_0 with $N = 0.5$. Other parameters are $\kappa = 1$ and $\epsilon = 0.5$.

expectation is borne out by numerical results; see a typical example in Fig. 6.

To characterize the family of the fundamental GSs, we define its effective area as

$$A_{\text{eff}} = \frac{[\int |\psi(x,y)|^2 dx dy]^2}{\int |\psi(x,y)|^4 dx dy}. \quad (13)$$

Along with the chemical potential μ it is shown, as a function of the norm N and the potential depth V_0 , in Fig. 7. In particular, Figs. 7(a) and 7(b) show that, quite naturally, the size of the fundamental GS increases when the self-repulsive DDI becomes stronger, but decreases with the growth of the trapping potential. Further, Fig. 7(c) corroborates that these solitons satisfy the anti-Vakhitov-Kolokolov criterion. In agreement with this finding, the family of the fundamental GSs is entirely stable.

Finally, the transition from $d\mu/dV_0 > 0$ in the relatively shallow radial lattice, at $V_0 < 2.3$, to $d\mu/dV_0 < 0$ at $V_0 > 2.3$ implies that properties of the soliton family are dominated by the nonlinear interaction in the former case, and by the linear trapping potential in the latter one. Indeed, direct simulations demonstrate that the trapped mode with $S = 0$ “almost exists” in the deep potential with $V_0 > 2.3$ in the absence of the nonlinear interaction ($\kappa = 0$), exhibiting very slow decay.

2. Ring-shaped and vortex solitons

Besides the fundamental GSs trapped in the central potential well, the radial lattice with $\delta = \pi$ supports stable

ring-shaped GSs, trapped in an annular potential trough, also with $S = 0$, as well as ring-shaped vortex GSs. A typical example of the stable ring mode with $S = 0$, placed in the trough with $n = 1$, is displayed in Fig. 8. Further, Fig. 9 shows an example of a stable soliton with high vorticity, $S = 5$, which is trapped in the trough with $n = 3$ [see Eq. (13)].

Numerical results produce the same relation between the location of the ring-shaped solitons and their vorticity which is identified above for the radial potential with $\delta = 0$; see Eq. (12) (the same explanation for the linear dependence on large values of S , as that outlined above, is relevant in the present case too). Namely, the GSs with $S = 0$ and 1 are trapped in the trough with $n = 1$ in Eq. (13), ones with $S = 2$ and 3 are placed at $n = 2$, the solitons with $S = 4$ and 5 are trapped in the trough with $n = 3$, etc. These results are summarized in Fig. 9(d). Similar to the case of $\delta = 0$ [cf. Fig. 5(a)], the energy of the trapped states with odd S is higher than the energy of their counterparts with even vorticity, $S - 1$, with the same position of the density maximum. A difference from the case of $\delta = 0$ is that the modes with even S feature increase of their energy with the growth of S , starting from $S = 2$, while the energy of the modes with odd S remain virtually constant.

C. Stable coexistence of double and multiple solitons

The existence of stable ring-shaped GSs with different topological charges, located in different annular potential troughs, suggests that such modes with different values of S may have a chance to coexist in the system as concentric

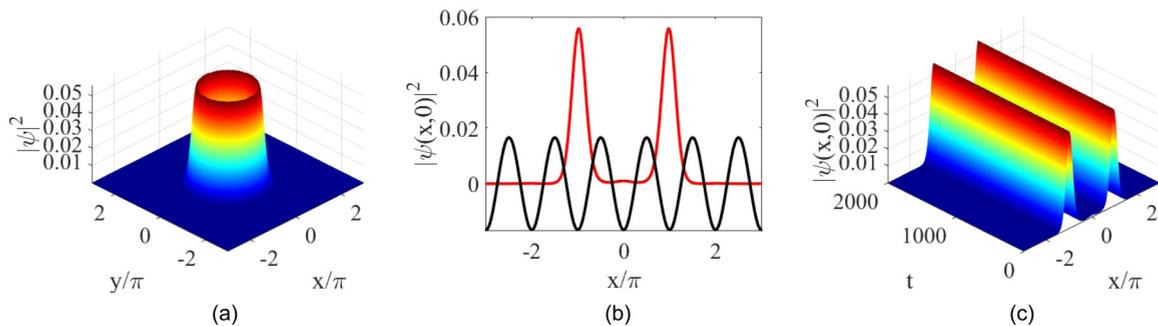


FIG. 8. A typical example of the fundamental ring soliton ($S = 0$) trapped in the radial potential (3) with $\delta = \pi$. (a) The density profile of this gap soliton, $|\psi(x,y)|^2$. (b) Its cross section $|\psi(x,0)|^2$, which clearly shows that it is trapped in the annular trough with $n = 1$; see Eq. (13). (c) Cross section of the simulated evolution, which confirms the stability of the soliton. The norm of the soliton is $N = 1.3$, and the half depth of the radial potential is $V_0 = 2$.

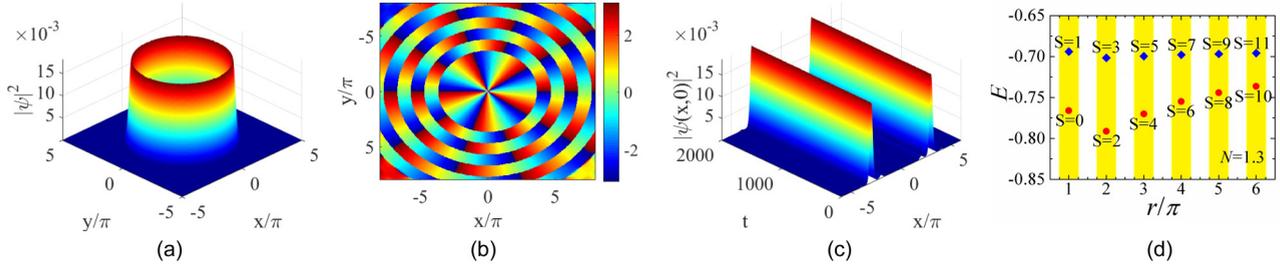


FIG. 9. An example of a stable vortex gap soliton with a high topological charge, $S = 5$, trapped in the third annular trough of the radial potential (3) with $\delta = \pi$. Parameters are $N = 1.3$ and $V_0 = 2$. (a), (b) The density and phase profiles of the vortex soliton. (c) The cross section of the simulated evolution, which corroborates the stability of the vortex. (d) The same as in Fig. 5(a), but for potential (3) with $\delta = \pi$ (the energy of the soliton with $S = 0$ trapped at the center of the lattice, $n = 0$, is $E_0 = 1.943$, which is not displayed in this panel, as it is much larger than the values presented here). Other parameters are fixed as $N = 1.3$, $V_0 = 2$.

modes, one embedded into the other. The coexistence of adjacent layers with different topological charges implies that they must be separated by zero-amplitude circular lines. Numerical results, produced by direct simulations of inputs built as superpositions of two ring vortices corroborate this conjecture, if the radial separation between the concentric rings is large enough (i.e., the interaction between them is sufficiently weak), as shown in Figs. 10(a)–10(c). Due to the relation between the radial location of the ring soliton and S [as per Eq. (12)], the latter condition implies that the concentric rings must pertain to sufficiently different values of S . Moreover, Figs. 10(d) and 10(e) demonstrate a similar result produced by the initial superposition of three concentric GSs, under the same condition that they are separated well enough. On the other hand, an input with conspicuous overlap between the initial vortex rings gives rise to unstable evolution; see Figs. 10(f) and 10(g).

IV. CONCLUSION

We have elaborated on a setting which makes it possible to readily stabilize bright vortex solitons with arbitrarily high values of the topological charge S . The setting is realized as a two-dimensional dipolar BEC trapped in an axisymmetric radially periodic potential, with dipole moments of particles polarized perpendicular to the system's plane, which gives rise to the isotropic repulsive DDI (dipole-dipole interaction). The radial potentials with both the maximum and minimum at the center were considered. The interplay of the radial lattice potential and repulsive interactions creates families of stable annular GSs (gap solitons) with $S = 0$ and $S \geq 1$. Unlike the similar setting with contact repulsive interactions [64], where the annular vortex GSs are (weakly) unstable, the present system gives rise to GS families which are completely stable (at least, up to $S = 11$). The ring-shaped GSs have their main density peak located in an annular potential trough

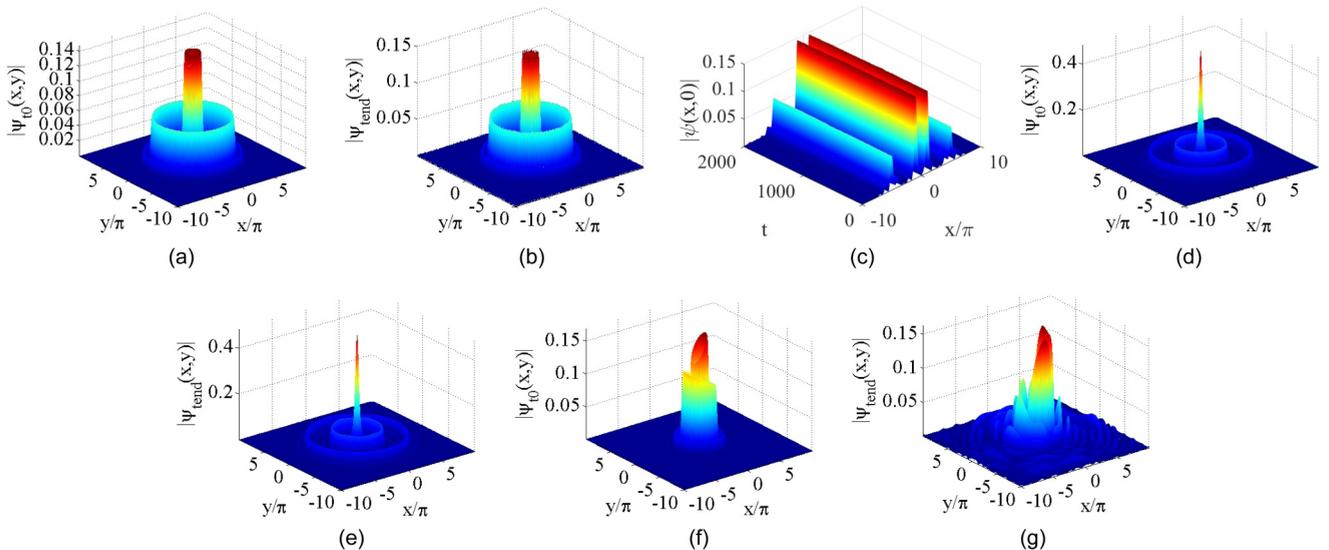


FIG. 10. (a) The absolute-value profile of the concentric superposition of ring vortices with $S = 1$ and $S = 8$ (inner and outer rings, respectively), used as an input for direct simulations, with potential (3) that has a minimum at the center ($\delta = \pi$). (b) The output pattern of the simulation initiated by the input in (a) at $t = 2000$. (c) The cross section along the x axis, illustrating the stable evolution of the concentric complex in the direct simulations. (d) The same as in (a), but with the input formed by the concentric superposition of three rings, with $S = 0$ (placed at the center), $S = 4$, and $S = 10$. (e) The stable output pattern produced by the evolution of the input from (d) at $t = 2000$. (f) The same as in (a), but for the input taken as a superposition of ring vortices with $S = 1$ and $S = 2$; in this case, a conspicuous interference is observed in the input. (g) The result of unstable evolution initiated by the input from (f). In all the cases, parameters are $N = 0.5$ and $V_0 = 2$.

whose number grows, for large S , as $S/2$ [see Eq. (12)]. The linear growth of the vortex's radial location with S was qualitatively explained on the basis of the energy considerations. Further, sets of concentric annular GSs with sufficiently large radial separation between them, i.e., with essentially different values of S , stably coexist in the present system. The optical angular momentum becoming an important factor in modern information-processing technologies [86,87], the setting analyzed in this work may find application to the storage of data encoded in values of the vorticity.

A challenging extension of the work is to construct three-dimensional bright GSs with embedded vorticity in the dipolar BEC, which will make it necessary to combine the radial potential with the a term which periodically varies along the transverse coordinate z [such as $\cos(qz)$], so as to build

an axially stacked version of the radial potential lattice, that should feature a full three-dimensional band gap in its spectrum.

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