
2 Nonlinear Effects in One-Dimensional Photonic 3 Lattices

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10 1.1 Introduction

11 Optical waves propagating in photonic periodic structures are known to ex-
12 hibit a fundamentally different behavior when compared to their homoge-
13 neous counterparts in bulk materials. In such systems the spatially periodic
14 refractive index experienced by light waves is analogous to the situation in
15 crystalline solids, where electrons travel in a periodic Coulomb potential [1].
16 Consequently, the propagating extended (Floquet Bloch) modes of a linear
17 periodic optical system form a spectrum that is divided into allowed bands,
18 separated by forbidden gaps, too, and the two different physical systems share
19 most of their mathematical description. Photonic band-gap materials, which
20 may be artificially fabricated to be periodic in three, two, or only one dimen-
21 sion, hold strong promise for future photonic applications like miniaturized
22 all-optical switches, filters, or memories [2]. Here novel opportunities are of-
23 fered when nonlinear material response to light intensity is taken into account.
24 When studying such nonlinear photonic crystals it turns out that light propa-
25 gation is governed by two competing processes: linear coupling among different
26 lattice sites and energy localization due to nonlinearity. For an exact balance
27 of these counteracting effects self-localized states can be obtained, which are
28 called lattice solitons [3–6].

29 Uniform one-dimensional (1D) waveguide arrays (WAs) may be under-
30 stood as a special case of 1D photonic crystals with a periodicity of the re-
31 fractive index scaled to the wavelength of light. These arrays consist of equally
32 spaced identical channel waveguides, where energy is transferred from one site
33 to another through evanescent coupling or tunnelling of light. Although such
34 arrays share many of their linear and nonlinear properties with other periodic
35 systems in nature, for example excitons in molecular chains [7], charge density
36 waves in electrical lattices [8], Josephson junctions [9], spin waves in antiferro-
37 magnets [10], or Bose-Einstein condensates in periodic optical traps [11], they

1 have some advantages making them attractive candidates for studying gen-
 2 eral nonlinear lattice problems: Due to the larger wavelength of light when
 3 compared to, e.g., electrons, wave amplitudes can be directly imaged, thus
 4 allowing for a full experimental control of input and output signals. The rel-
 5 atively easy sample fabrication and compact experimental setups, together
 6 with suitable working environments at room temperature without the need
 7 for vacuum chambers, have put the optics domain at the forefront of research
 8 on nonlinear periodic systems.

9 In this chapter we will provide a brief overview on light propagation and
 10 soliton dynamics in 1D nonlinear WAs, and will discuss some recent exper-
 11 imental results on the example of arrays in photorefractive lithium niobate
 12 (LiNbO_3). In the following section, we discuss some basic linear properties of
 13 WAs like discrete diffraction, normal and anomalous diffraction, and meth-
 14 ods to engineer tailored photonic band structures using different experimental
 15 techniques and material systems. The third part is devoted to nonlinear light
 16 propagation in 1D WAs. After discussing the instability regimes of extended
 17 Floquet-Bloch (FB) modes in 1D lattices, which coincide with the occurrence
 18 of discrete modulation instability, we give an overview of different types of
 19 localized nonlinear excitations, for example multi-hump, dark, or vector lat-
 20 tice solitons, that have been investigated in WAs. Finally, the last section is
 21 devoted to the interaction of light with lattice defects and other light beams,
 22 which may form the basic elements for novel applications in photonics.

23 1.2 Linear properties and Waveguide Array Formation

24 1.2.1 Band-gap Structure and Floquet-Bloch Modes of 25 One-Dimensional Lattices

26 In absence of nonlinear effects optical beams will spread in space because of
 27 diffraction while pulses will experience temporal broadening due to dispersion.
 28 Although diffraction is an omnipresent geometrical effect and dispersion is ma-
 29 terial dependent and absent in vacuum, both effects occur because of different
 30 rates of phase accumulation for different spatial or temporal frequencies. In
 31 physics, the dispersion relation is the relation between the system's energy (or
 32 propagation constant) and its corresponding momentum (Bloch momentum).
 33 The dispersion relation of linear waves in bulk or continuous media has a
 34 parabolic form [12]. Consequently, in a 1D planar waveguide layer unlimited
 35 transverse propagation of modes results in a continuous dispersion spectrum
 36 with the same parabolic shape. A vivid example for a planar waveguide fabri-
 37 cated in LiNbO_3 is given in Fig. 1.1a. By a modified prism coupler setup [13]
 38 the effective indices $n_{\text{eff}} = \beta\lambda/2\pi$ have been measured (normalized to the
 39 substrate index n_{sub}) as a function of Bloch momentum, where β is the cor-
 40 responding (longitudinal) propagation constant and λ is the light wavelength.
 41 Having in mind analogies drawn between dispersion and diffraction [12, 14],

1 diffraction is determined by the curvature at the corresponding point of the
 2 dispersion curve while the direction of propagation of light is normal to this
 3 curve. As can be seen, in this example the diffraction coefficient is negative
 4 (normal diffraction) for all propagating waves.

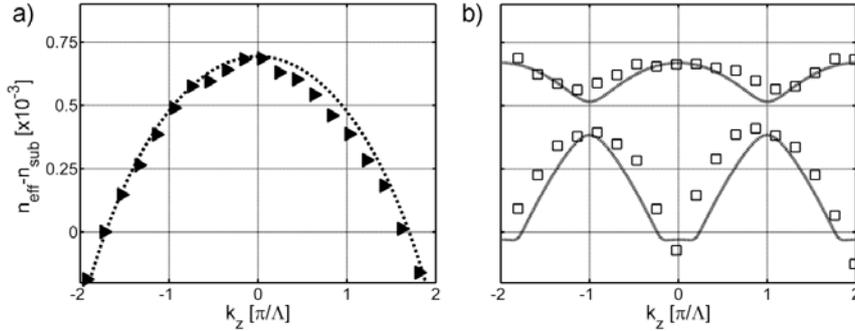


Fig. 1.1. Experimentally measured band structures of (a) a planar waveguide and (b) a 1D WA (grating period $\Lambda = 8\ \mu\text{m}$). Symbols are measured propagation constants. The dashed line in (a) is just a guide for the eye, whereas in (b) solid lines show the corresponding calculated band structure.

5 In media with a periodic index modulation a band structure arises with
 6 allowed bands separated by gaps where light propagation is forbidden [12,15].
 7 The form of the band-gap structure depends on system parameters such as,
 8 for example, the distance between adjacent channels of the nonlinear WA and
 9 the strength of the refractive index modulation, which can be fully controlled
 10 in the fabrication process. To take up the previous example, an additional 1D
 11 periodic index modulation can be formed in the planar waveguide of Fig. 1.1a
 12 by two-beam holographic recording of an elementary grating [16]: Each refractive
 13 index maximum of the modulated pattern forms a single-mode channel
 14 waveguide which is evanescently coupled to its first neighbors. An example
 15 of the obtained band structure which shows the first two bands of a LiNbO_3
 16 WA is given in Fig. 1.1b. While diffraction in bulk media is always normal, in
 17 periodic media diffraction can reverse its sign leading to regions of anomalous
 18 diffraction, for example, within the first band for $\pi/2 < k_z\Lambda < \pi$ and around
 19 the center of the first Brillouin zone (BZ) in the second band. Here, k_z stands
 20 for the transverse component of the wave number, and Λ denotes the grating
 21 period. Furthermore, diffraction may even vanish at certain points in the dis-
 22 persion diagram (e.g., for $k_z\Lambda \approx \pi/2$ in the first band), allowing for almost
 23 diffraction-free propagation of light.

24 Another example of a measured band structure with four guided bands
 25 of a 1D WA with stronger modulation is given in Fig. 1.2a. Experimental
 26 values of propagation constants are denoted by squares, whereas solid lines

1 correspond to numerically calculated bands. If the condition $n_{\text{eff}} - n_{\text{sub}} > 0$
 2 fulfilled modes are guided, otherwise they are radiative. The implementation
 3 of the prism coupling method [13] allows for the selective excitation of pure FB
 4 modes of the periodic structure. Some illustrative examples of excited modes
 5 are given in Fig. 1.2b. Numerical results shown in the upper rows correspond
 6 fairly well to the experimentally obtained images measured at the samples'
 7 output facet.

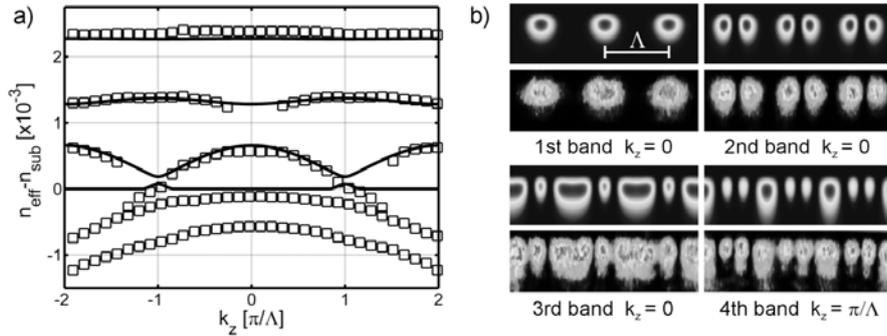


Fig. 1.2. (a) Band-gap structure of WA with period $\Lambda = 8 \mu\text{m}$. (b) Intensity of FB modes from different bands: numerical results (*top*) and experimental data (*bottom*).

8 1.2.2 Fabrication of Nonlinear Waveguide Arrays

9 One-dimensional WAs have been fabricated in quite different materials rang-
 10 ing from semiconductors [4, 17] and photorefractives [18, 19], to polymers [20],
 11 glasses [21], and liquid crystals [22]. WAs in the semiconductor AlGaAs have
 12 been formed by, e.g., reactive-ion etching of adequate wafers with epitaxially
 13 fabricated layers. This semiconductor crystal possesses an instantaneous Kerr-
 14 like focusing nonlinearity for optical wavelengths in the infrared, and typical
 15 optical powers required are in the range of 10^2 – 10^3 W. In silica-based glasses
 16 either ion exchange in molten salts or direct writing using femtosecond lasers
 17 has been used. WAs in polymers have been fabricated by UV lithography,
 18 whereas in liquid crystals a set of regularly spaced transparent electrodes has
 19 been used. In photorefractive crystals, where nonlinearities are based on light-
 20 induced space charge fields and the electrooptic effect, two different methods
 21 for WA formation have been used so far: induction of index gratings by il-
 22 lumination of the crystal with light [18], or permanent index changes due to
 23 indiffusion of titanium stripe patterns [19]. Light-induced lattices are based
 24 on the interference of two or more writing laser beams propagating inside
 25 the bulk sample. Such lattices are both rewritable and dynamically tunable.
 26 One may control the coupling between channels by adjusting the intensity of

1 the recording light while Bragg reflection is defined by the angle between the
2 interfering beams. However, the achievable refractive index modulations are
3 rather limited and clumsy equipment is required to stabilize the interference
4 patterns. On the other hand, there exist several methods to fabricate permanent
5 waveguides and structures in photorefractive crystals [23]. In LiNbO_3
6 the method of in-diffusion of titanium has been used to form permanent WAs
7 with lattice periods ranging from 2 to 20 microns. Furthermore, in-diffusion of
8 impurities like iron or copper may be used to tailor the photorefractive prop-
9 erties of the material. Besides its wide use in nonlinear optics, for example
10 for frequency conversion and fast optical modulation of light, LiNbO_3 possess
11 a rather high nonlinear index change at very low light intensities. However,
12 this material is also sensitive to holographic light scattering and has a rather
13 long build-up time for nonlinear index changes in the range of seconds or even
14 minutes.

15 1.3 Light Localization and Lattice Solitons

16 1.3.1 Lattice Solitons

17 Lattice solitons are localized structures which exist due to the exact balance
18 between periodicity and nonlinear effects. They comprise both discrete and
19 gap solitons. Discrete solitons exist in the first (semi-infinite) band-gap due
20 to total internal reflection. Near the top of the first band, which is located
21 at the center of the first BZ (see Fig. 1.1b), where beam diffraction is normal,
22 unstaggered (adjacent elements are in-phase) discrete solitons may exist
23 provided that a self-focusing or positive nonlinearity is present [4, 24–27]. The
24 prediction of the existence of fundamental optical lattice solitons in WAs dates
25 back to 1988 [3], and ten years later the group of Silberberg succeeded in the
26 experimental observation of such solitons in a Kerr-like focusing medium [4],
27 which has stimulated intense research in this field [28–30].

28 Gap solitons [5, 7, 31–33] are yet another type of stable nonlinear structures
29 that can be observed in periodic media. Due to a nonlinear index change the
30 propagation constant of these solitons is shifted inside the gap in-between
31 two allowed bands. Fundamental gap solitons may be excited either from the
32 top of the second band at the edge of the first BZ (normal diffraction) in
33 lattices with self-focusing nonlinearity [34], or from the first band at the edge
34 of the first BZ (anomalous diffraction) in lattices exhibiting self-defocusing
35 nonlinearity [33]. In the latter case, soliton structures are of staggered form
36 (adjacent elements are out-of-phase) [35–37].

37 A recent example of discrete gap soliton formation in a LiNbO_3 WA with
38 defocusing nonlinearity is given in Fig. 1.3a. The top image of the output
39 facet is taken immediately after light is coupled in and monitors linear discrete
40 diffraction inside the array. With increasing recording time the nonlinearity
41 builds up and finally the light is trapped predominantly in a single channel.

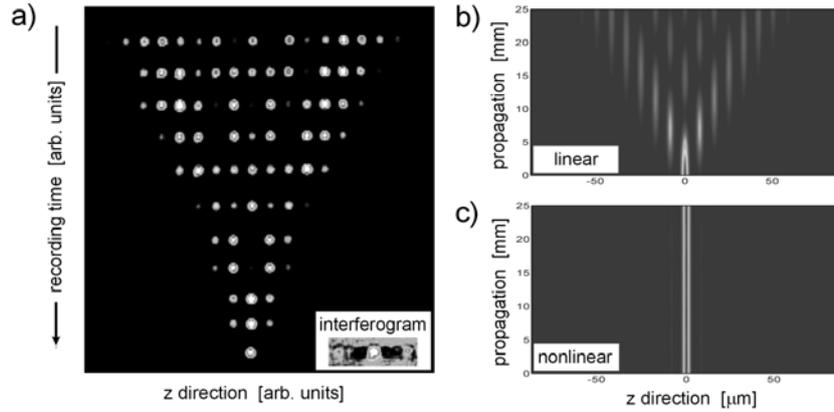


Fig. 1.3. Gap soliton formation in a LiNbO₃ WA with period $\Lambda = 7.6 \mu\text{m}$ at the edge of the first BZ of the first band. (a) Output intensity for single-channel excitation with input power $P_{\text{in}} = 30 \mu\text{W}$. (b), (c) Related BPM simulations for the linear (b) and nonlinear (c) case.

- 1 The inset shows the corresponding interferogram of the output light with
- 2 a superimposed plane wave, which represents an experimental proof for the
- 3 staggered amplitude of the formed soliton. A numerical simulation (based on
- 4 a beam propagation method (BPM)) which corresponds to the case of discrete
- 5 diffraction is presented in Fig. 1.3b, while Fig. 1.3c shows the nonlinear case
- 6 of stable soliton propagation inside the gap.

7 1.3.2 Discrete Modulational Instability

8 Experimentally, discrete and gap solitons may be obtained through the mech-
 9 anism of modulational instability (MI) of a wide input beam. Discrete MI
 10 represents a nonlinear phenomenon in which initially smooth extended waves
 11 of the periodic system (FB modes) desintegrate into regular soliton trains under
 12 the combined effects of nonlinearity and diffraction. It has been predicted
 13 that FB modes exhibiting anomalous diffraction become unstable in the pres-
 14 ence of self-defocusing nonlinearity while modes exhibiting normal diffraction
 15 break up under the effect of a self-focusing nonlinearity [3, 35, 38–40]. Experi-
 16 mentally, this has been proven for the first time in AlGaAs arrays exhibiting a
 17 focusing cubic nonlinearity [41], followed later by related experiments in both
 18 quadratic [42] and defocusing WAs [43].

19 An example of numerical and experimental evidence of discrete MI in
 20 LiNbO₃ in the first and second band is presented in Fig. 1.4 [44]. The experi-
 21 mental pictures on the top consist of 75 intensity line scans each, which have
 22 been taken from the output facet every minute, mimicing the time evolution

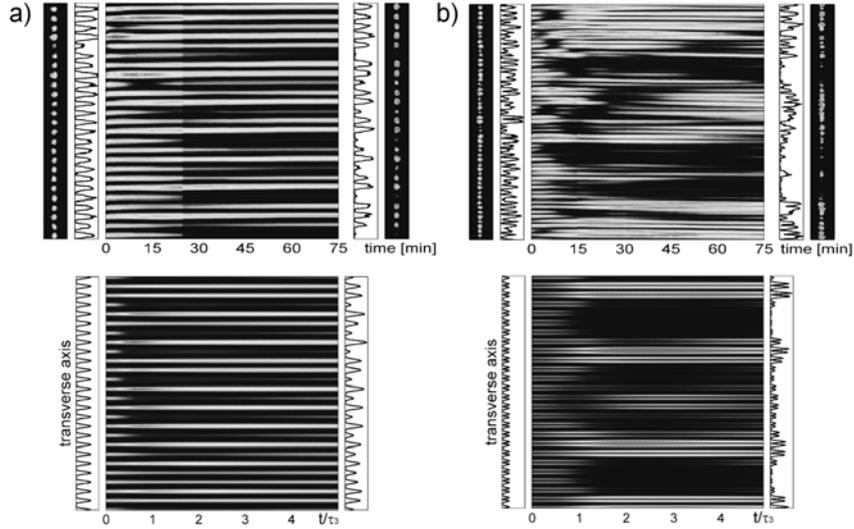


Fig. 1.4. Discrete MI in a defocusing WA: Comparison of experimentally measured and simulated light intensity at the output facet. (a) Edge of the first BZ in the first band for $P_{\text{in}} = 10 \mu\text{W}$ (*top*) and related numerical simulation (*bottom*), and (b) at the center of the first BZ in the second band for $P_{\text{in}} = 21 \mu\text{W}$ (*top*) and related numerical simulation (*bottom*).

1 of light intensity. Discrete MI may be observed only for a limited region of
 2 in-coupled light power in-between lower and upper MI thresholds [39]. Here
 3 the upper threshold arises from saturation of the nonlinearity, which stabilizes
 4 the system by decreasing the nonlinear gain and increases the threshold for
 5 the onset of MI.

6 1.3.3 Discrete Vector Solitons

7 Vector solitons [45] are composite structures that consist of two or more com-
 8 ponents which are individually incapable to form stable structures, but which
 9 mutually self-trap in a nonlinear medium. Discrete vector solitons (DVS) in 1D
 10 WAs are yet another, more complex class of vector solitons which have been
 11 investigated both theoretically [46–49] and experimentally [50,51]. Recently it
 12 has been recognized that both complex vector structures whose components
 13 stem from different bands [52–54] and composite band-gap solitons [55, 56]
 14 may be found in nonlinear periodic systems, too.

15 First experiments on DVSs in 1D media have been performed by Stege-
 16 man’s group using AlGaAs WAs with cubic nonlinearity [50], where both TE
 17 and TM components have a single-hump structure. Whereas in these media
 18 a separation of four-wave mixing processes and cross-phase modulation

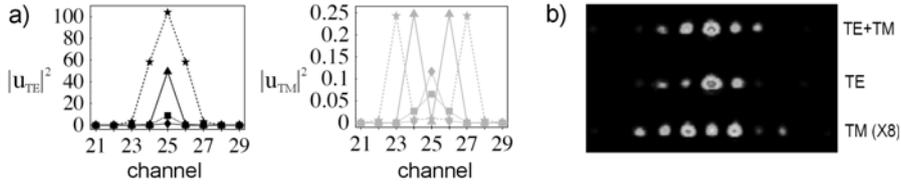


Fig. 1.5. Discrete vector soliton formation. (a) Stationary profiles of TE (lhs) and TM modes (rhs). Diamonds, squares, triangles and stars correspond to $\nu = -5, -1, 0$ and 1.1 . (b) Measured stationary output of a DVS for mutually incoherent input beams with power ratio $P_{\text{TE}}/P_{\text{TM}} = 1.5$, both components together (*top*), TE (*middle*) and TM component alone (*bottom*, amplified 8 times).

1 is possible, these two terms are non-separable in arrays with saturable non-
 2 linearity [51]. Here the power of the dominating TE mode grows in a similar
 3 fashion as the on-site mode from Ref. [57], giving rise to speculations that such
 4 iso-frequency DVSs could be moved and routed across the array. Interestingly,
 5 the TM mode exhibits a splitting into a two-hump structure. Fig. 1.5 shows
 6 results obtained for a LiNbO₃ WA with saturable defocusing nonlinearity.
 7 Numerically obtained stationary profiles of TE and TM modes for different
 8 values of soliton parameter ν are presented in Fig. 1.5a. The shape of the DVS
 9 slightly changes for different power ratios $P_{\text{TE}}/P_{\text{TM}}$, however, the center is
 10 mostly TE polarized while tails have dominant TM polarization. An experi-
 11 mental example for mutually incoherent input beams is given in Fig. 1.5b. As
 12 predicted, a dominating single-hump TE polarized component and a weaker
 13 double-humped TM component are observed [51].

14 1.3.4 Higher Order Lattice Solitons

15 It is well known that even 1D lattices support a wide spectrum of various
 16 strongly localized modes. Except the most often studied on-site and inter-site
 17 solitons (modes A and B, respectively) [58–64], various forms of lattice solitons
 18 such as twisted [36,61,65], quasi-rectangular [66], multi-hump solitons [67–70],
 19 and higher-order soliton trains [71] have been studied as well. Higher order
 20 lattice solitons are complex structures which may be intuitively viewed as a
 21 nonlinear combination of on-site solitons residing in adjacent channels. Such
 22 multi-hump structures are stable above a critical power threshold which can
 23 be estimated by linear stability analysis [68].

24 Recently, higher order lattice solitons have been observed experimentally
 25 in a Cu-doped LiNbO₃ WA using simultaneous in-phase excitation of two
 26 or three channels. Stationary profiles of such multi-humped solitons are pre-
 27 sented in Fig. 1.6a. Experimentally observed images of an even two-hump
 28 soliton, which has been excited by two individual in-phase Gaussian beams,
 29 and a three-soliton train, which has been excited by a single super-Gaussian
 30 beam, are shown in Fig. 1.6b. The corresponding numerical results are given

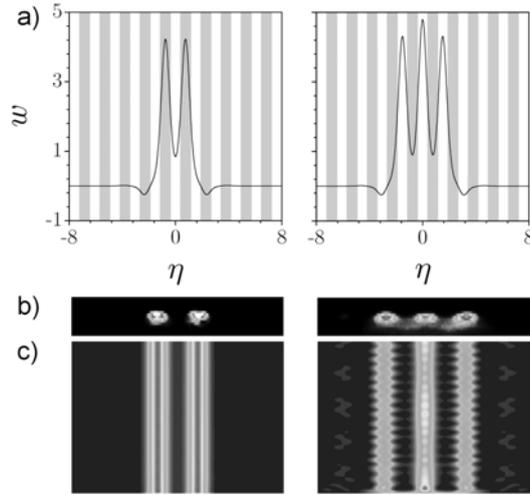


Fig. 1.6. Higher-order solitons in a WA. (a) Stationary profiles of an even two-hump soliton (lhs) and a three-soliton train (rhs). (b) Experimental images on the output facet for input power $P_{\text{in}} = 10 \mu\text{W}$. (c) BPM results showing stable propagation of two- and three-channel input excitations.

1 in Fig. 1.6c. Generally, the performed investigations indicate that the here
 2 used excitation of multi-humped solitons is quite efficient even in rather short
 3 arrays and confirm the possibility of dense soliton packing in form of soliton
 4 trains.

5 1.3.5 Discrete Dark Solitons

6 As noted in Ref. [59], the modes A and B can be seen as two dynamical states
 7 of a single mode moving across the array. The difference in their energy is
 8 related to the Peierls-Nabarro (PN) potential, which represents a barrier that
 9 has to be overcome in order to move a discrete soliton half of the lattice period
 10 aside. In media with cubic self-focusing nonlinearity the PN potential grows
 11 with increase of mode power, thus disabling stable propagation of mode B and
 12 free steering of large amplitude solitons [60, 62]. On the other hand, in arrays
 13 with saturable nonlinearity it has been discovered that the PN potential can
 14 vanish and reverse its sign [36, 63, 72]. Therefore stable propagation of mode B
 15 becomes possible and solitons may be steered through the lattice. Numerical
 16 evidence of stable propagation of bright inter-site modes were presented for
 17 both saturable [63] and cubic-quintic nonlinearities [73].

18 Beside bright solitons 1D lattices may support also dark discrete soli-
 19 tons [74–77]. Such solitons have one or more dark elements on a constant
 20 bright background and possess a π phase jump across the center of the struc-
 21 ture. In LiNbO_3 arrays it has been demonstrated both analytically and exper-

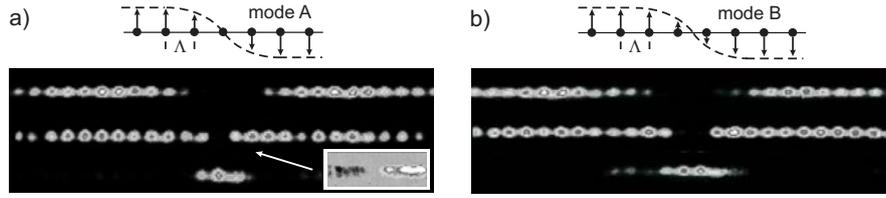


Fig. 1.7. Formation of discrete dark solitons. (a) Phase profile of unstaggered on-site dark soliton, formation of stable soliton state and guiding of a weak probe beam, respectively. The inset shows the corresponding interferogram. (b) The same for the unstaggered inter-site dark soliton.

1 imentally that the dark mode B can propagate in stable manner, too [64, 76].
 2 Experimental results on dark soliton formation in a LiNbO₃ WA are given in
 3 Fig. 1.7 [76]. On the lhs the situation for mode A with a phase jump located
 4 on-channel is monitored. The first row shows linear discrete diffraction of the
 5 dark notch, while in the nonlinear case (second row) a narrow dark soliton
 6 with staggered phase profile (see inset) is formed. The rhs shows the analogue
 7 situation for mode B, where the tailored input light pattern has been shifted
 8 by half a lattice period to locate the phase jump in-between channels. The
 9 lowest rows show the guiding of weak probe beams that are launched after
 10 the pump light was turned off. Here for mode A a single waveguide is formed
 11 while for mode B a two-channel-wide guiding structure is obtained.

12 1.4 Interactions of Light Beams in One-Dimensional 13 Photonic Lattices

14 Among the most interesting properties of spatial optical solitons is the non-
 15 linear interaction that takes place when solitons intersect or propagate close
 16 enough to each other within the nonlinear material [78]. Especially in discrete
 17 media like coupled WAs, a realization of all-optical functions would strongly
 18 benefit from the inherent multi-port structure of the array. Therefore, optical
 19 lattice solitons are prominent candidates to become main information carriers
 20 in future all-optical networks, and many new applications like all-optical
 21 switching [79–83], steering [6, 7, 21, 63, 84–87], and amplification [88] have been
 22 proposed.

23 1.4.1 Interactions with Defects

24 Having in mind that perfectly periodic media do not exist, several groups
 25 have investigated the interaction of lattice solitons with various structural
 26 defects. Generally, defects can be created by changing the spacing of two
 27 adjacent waveguides in an otherwise uniform array [89], by variation of the

1 effective index or the width of a single channel [90,91], or by optical induc-
 2 tion techniques [92]. Defects can either attract or repel solitons, and soliton
 3 trapping has been investigated in the presence of both linear and nonlinear
 4 defects [93]. In modulated arrays additional defects can be used for Bloch wave
 5 filtering [91], and the number of bounded modes in an array can be dynami-
 6 cally controlled [90]. On the other hand, uniform linear WAs with nonlinear
 7 defects have been proposed as suitable candidates for the observation of Fano
 8 resonances [94].

9 1.4.2 Blocker Interaction

10 Weak probe beams launched into a lattice will spread quickly in transverse
 11 direction because of evanescent coupling of energy among adjacent sites. How-
 12 ever, diffraction may be considerably reduced if the beam is launched at an
 13 angle corresponding to diffraction-less propagation [13]. Recently, interactions
 14 of such low-power (linear) probe beams with both coherent [95] and incoher-
 15 ent bright blocker solitons [96] have been studied in Kerr-like semiconductor
 16 WAs. In defocusing and saturable LiNbO₃ arrays both bright and dark blocker
 17 solitons were used for probe beam deflection [97]. It has been also realized that
 18 such nonlinear processes, of which an example is presented in Fig. 1.8, are suit-
 19 able for the realization of all-optical beam splitters with adjustable splitting
 20 ratios.

21 1.4.3 Collinear Interaction

22 Interactions and collisions of discrete solitons have been investigated mainly
 23 numerically [7,98–101]. Depending on the relative phase between the beams,
 24 their amplitude and the type of nonlinearity, soliton repulsion, fusion, and
 25 fission as well as energy transfer and oscillatory behavior have been observed.
 26 In arrays exhibiting a cubic nonlinearity and, in most experimental realiza-
 27 tions, also in saturable arrays, strong soliton beams are pinned to a certain
 28 channel. Therefore, mostly interactions of co-propagating parallel beams have
 29 been investigated experimentally [102,103]. Fig. 1.9 presents an example of
 30 co-propagating solitons launched in-phase into two channels of a LiNbO₃
 31 WA [103]. Fig. 1.9a depicts a comparison between experimentally (top) and
 32 numerically (bottom) obtained results in the linear case of discrete diffraction.
 33 In the lower power regime (Fig. 1.9b) soliton fusion in the central channel is
 34 observed, a process that does not occur in cubic media [102]. In the region
 35 of higher power (Fig. 1.9c) an almost independent soliton-like propagation
 36 (pinning) of the two beams is found. Interestingly, in the case of out-of-phase
 37 beams in discrete media with self-defocusing nonlinearity, a pure oscillatory
 38 behavior of beams is found by means of numerical simulations [103].

39 Interactions of counter-propagating solitons in 1D WA have been exper-
 40 imentally investigated in both LiNbO₃ [104] and strontium-barium niobate
 41 crystals [105]. Main result is the experimental confirmation of the existence

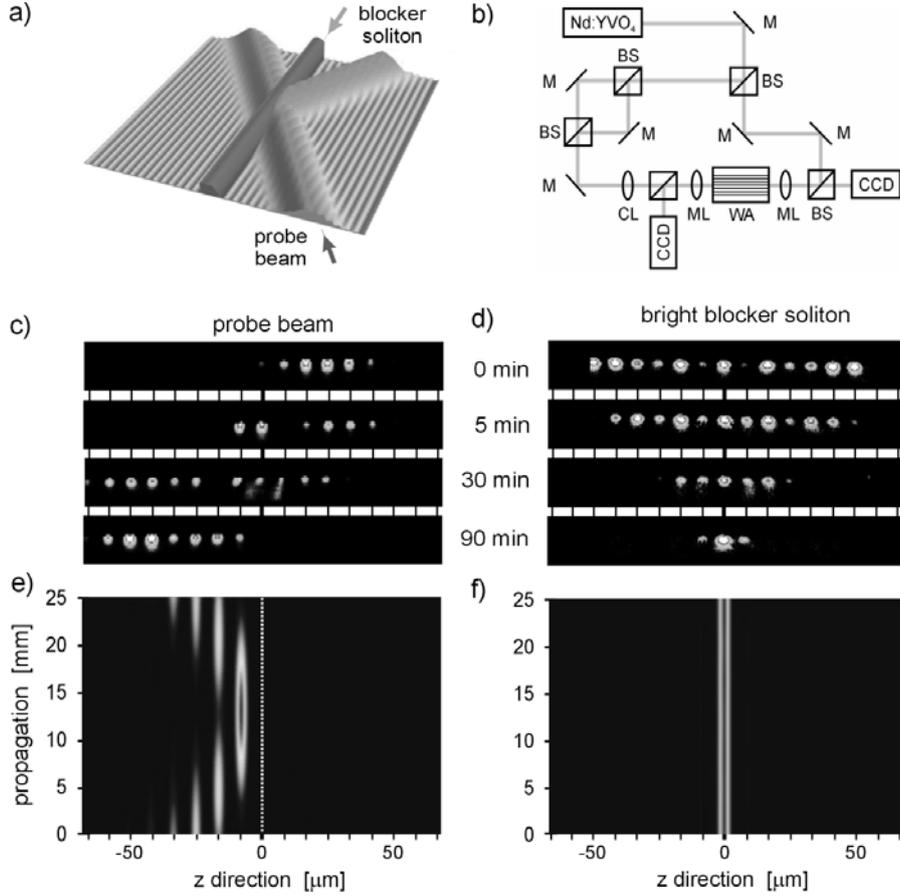


Fig. 1.8. (a) Interaction scheme of a weak probe beam with a counter-propagating bright blocker soliton. (b) Experimental setup (for notation see Ref. [97]). (c), (d) Temporal evolution of the intensity on the output facet when a low-power probe beam and a bright soliton beam of higher power intersect. (e), (f) BPM simulation of steady-state propagation of probe beam (propagation downwards) and bright soliton (propagation upwards), respectively.

1 of three dynamical regimes predicted theoretically [106]. For low input power
 2 a regime of stable propagation of counter-propagating beams is found where
 3 vector solitons are formed. As this stable co-existence of counter-propagating
 4 beams does not exist in bulk media, this monitors the stabilizing effect of the
 5 lattice on soliton propagation. However, when the input power is increased, in-
 6 stability occurs also in the lattice leading to discrete beam displacements, and
 7 finally a regime of high optical power is reached showing chaotic dynamics.

8 Beside in uniform WAs, various nonlinear effects have been investigated in
 9 engineered arrays [83, 107], binary arrays [108], double-periodic lattices [17],

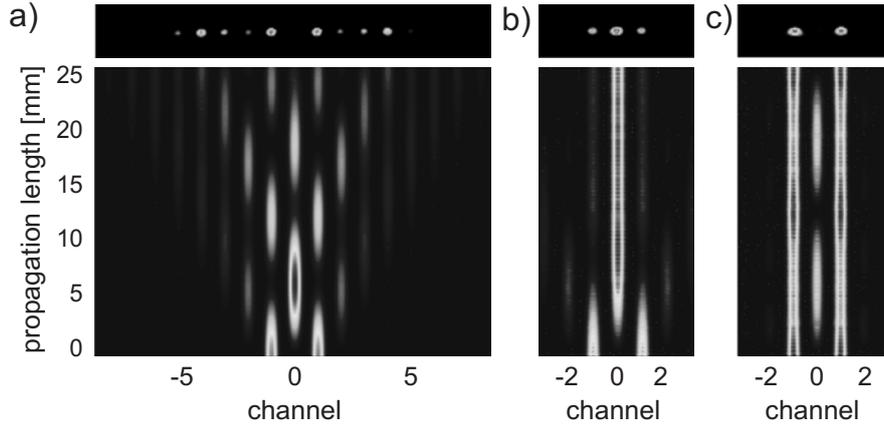


Fig. 1.9. Comparison of in-phase interaction of two collinearly propagating beams for different input powers in a defocusing lattice. Experimental output on endfacet (*top*) and BPM simulation (*bottom*). (a) Discrete diffraction, (b) fusion of solitons at low power, and (c) soliton-like propagation for higher input power.

1 chirped arrays [109] and arrays of curved waveguides [110]. Some other types of
 2 lattice solitons such as incoherent solitons [111], random phase solitons [112],
 3 polychromatic solitons [113] and surface solitons [114] will be covered in detail
 4 in other chapters of this book.

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