

Semiclassical asymptotics for nonlinear Schrödinger equation with periodic potential

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Joint work (in parts) with:
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1. Basic Setting

We study the asymptotic behavior for $0 < \varepsilon \ll 1$ of the following (weakly) nonlinear Schrödinger equation (NLS)

$$i\varepsilon \partial_t u^\varepsilon = -\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \Delta u^\varepsilon + V_\Gamma \left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon} \right) u^\varepsilon + U(x) u^\varepsilon + \varepsilon \kappa |u^\varepsilon|^2 u^\varepsilon, \quad (1)$$

with $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$.

Here $U(x)$ is some given (slowly varying) potential, whereas $V_\Gamma = V_\Gamma(y) \in \mathbb{R}$ is assumed to be **periodic** with respect to some **regular lattice** $\Gamma \simeq \mathbb{Z}^d$, i.e.

$$V_\Gamma(y + \gamma) = V_\Gamma(y), \quad \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^d, \gamma \in \Gamma. \quad (2)$$

where

$$\Gamma \equiv \left\{ \gamma = \sum_{l=1}^d \gamma_l \zeta_l \in \mathbb{R}^d : \gamma_l \in \mathbb{Z}, \zeta_l \in \mathbb{R}^d \right\}.$$

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Equation (1) appears in the description of superfluid dynamics of **Bose-Einstein condensates** in optical lattices:

$$i\varepsilon\partial_t u^\varepsilon = -\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\Delta u^\varepsilon + V_\Gamma\left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right)u^\varepsilon + U(x)u^\varepsilon + \varepsilon\kappa|u^\varepsilon|^2u^\varepsilon.$$

In this case a particular example of the periodic lattice potential V_Γ is then

$$V_\Gamma(x) = \sum_{l=1}^3 \frac{\hbar^2 \xi_l^2}{2m} \sin^2(\xi_l x_l),$$

where $\xi = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$ denotes the wave vector of the laser field. Moreover we typically have

$$U(x) = \frac{|x|^2}{2},$$

describing a harmonic trap (needed to obtain a condensate).

Remark. Other applications appear in the modeling of electronic charge transport in crystals or semiconductor superlattices (including Hartree-Nonlinearities).

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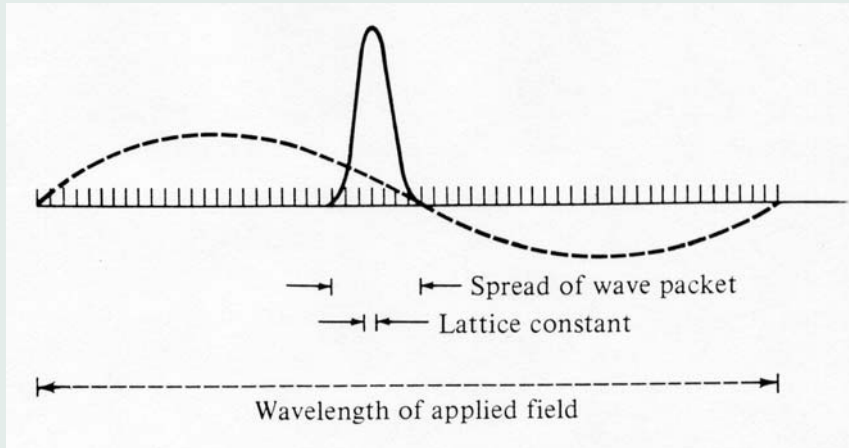
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We are led to a **two scale problem**:



As $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, we expect fast oscillations of wavelength $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$ to be induced by the *periodic Hamiltonian operator*

$$H_{\text{per}}^\varepsilon := -\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\Delta + V_\Gamma\left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right), \quad (3)$$

We thus need to understand the spectral properties of $H_{\text{per}}^\varepsilon$. To this end recall Bloch's eigenvalue problem (cell problem):

We set $y = x/\varepsilon$ and consider

$$\begin{cases} \left(\frac{1}{2} (-i\nabla_y + k)^2 + V_\Gamma(y) \right) \chi_m(y, k) = E_m(k) \chi_m(y, k), & m \in \mathbb{N}, y \in Y, \\ \chi_m(y + \gamma, k) = \chi_m(y, k), & \text{for } \gamma \in \Gamma. \end{cases}$$

Here, $Y \subset \Gamma$ is the (centered) fundamental domain of the lattice Γ , equipped with periodic boundary conditions. The fundamental domain of the corresponding dual lattice (equipped with periodic b.c.), the so-called **Brillouin zone**, is denoted by $\mathcal{B} \equiv Y^*$.

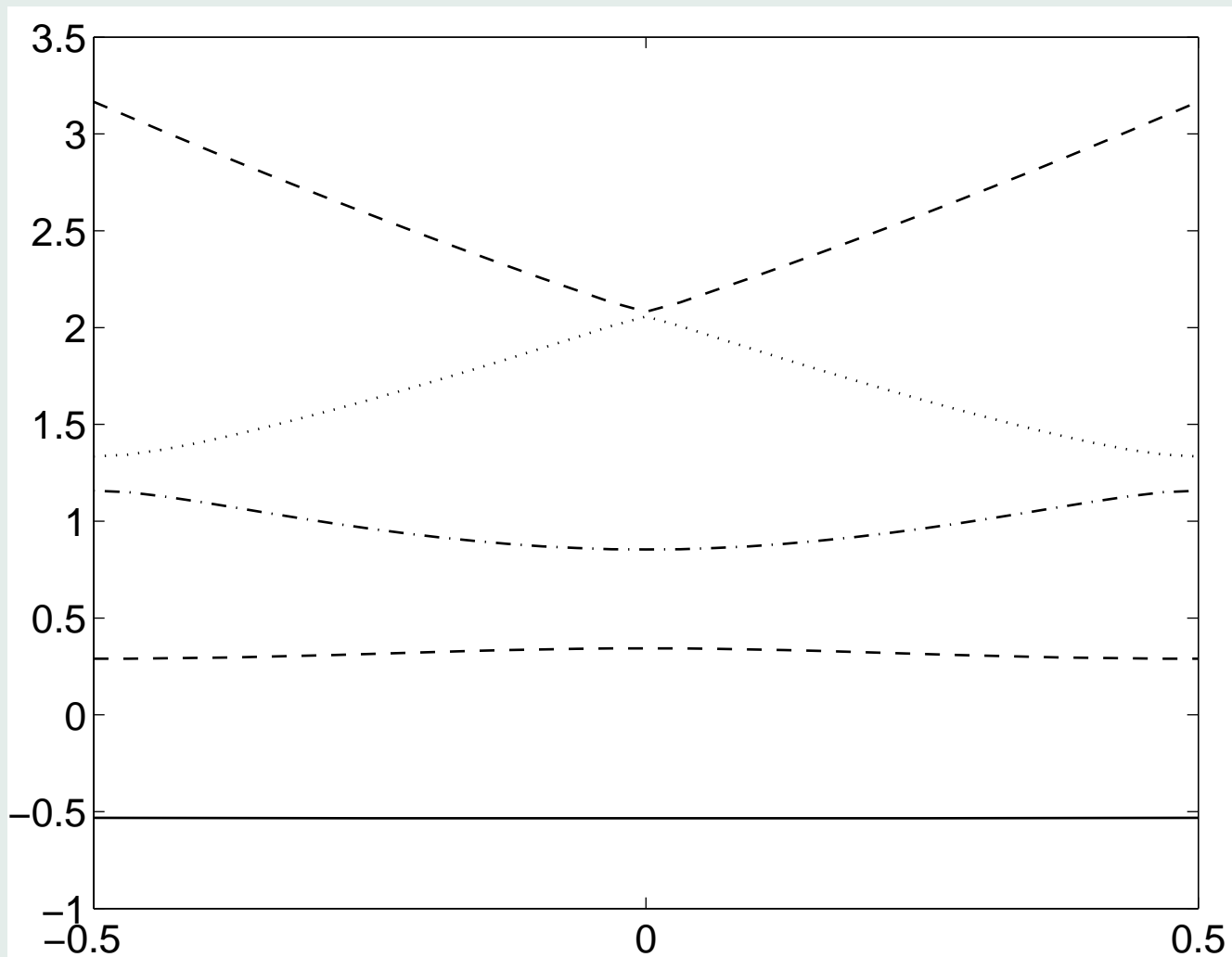
Under very mild conditions on V_Γ , the eigenfunctions $\chi_m(y, k)$ exist and form a complete ONB of $L^2(Y)$. The set

$$\{E_m(k) \in \mathbb{R} : E_m(k) \leq E_{m+1}(k), k \in Y^*\}$$

is called the m -th energy band, or Bloch band. A band $E_m(k)$ is called **isolated** if it holds:

$$E_{m-1}(k) < E_m(k) < E_{m+1}(k), \quad \text{for all } k \in \mathcal{B}.$$

The first few Bloch bands for $V_{\Gamma} = \cos x$, drawn over $\mathcal{B} \equiv Y^*$.



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2. Asymptotic results

In [Carles-S.-Markowich, JSP 04] we assumed that the initial data is of **WKB type** and concentrated in a single (isolated) Bloch band $E_m(k) \in \mathbb{R}$. Then it has been proved (**adiabatic decoupling**)

$$u^\varepsilon(t, x) \sim a(t, x) \chi_m \left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}, \nabla_x S(t, x) \right) e^{iS(t, x)/\varepsilon} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon), \quad m \in \mathbb{N},$$

where $S(t, x) \in \mathbb{R}$ solves the **semi-classical Hamilton-Jacobi** equation

$$\partial_t S + E_m(\nabla_x S) + U(x) = 0. \quad (4)$$

This fully nonlinear equation determines S only **locally in time**, since in general caustics will appear in the corresponding rays of geometrical optics.

As long as S is smooth, the (complex-valued) amplitude $a(t, x) \in \mathbb{C}$ is determined by the following transport equation:

$$\partial_t a + \nabla_k E_m(\nabla_x S) \cdot \nabla_x a + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{div}_x(\nabla_k E_m(\nabla_x S))a - \beta_m(t, x)a = -i\kappa_m^* |a|^2 a,$$

where

$$\beta_m(t, x) := \langle \chi_m(\cdot, \nabla_x \phi), \nabla_k \chi_m(\cdot, \nabla_x \phi) \rangle_{L^2(Y)} \cdot \nabla_x U(x),$$

the so-called **Berry phase term** $\beta_m(t, x) \in i\mathbb{R}$ (purely complex) and

$$\kappa^*(t, x) := \kappa \int_Y |\chi_m(y, \nabla_x S)|^4 dy.$$

the effective self-interaction (for cubic NLS).

Remark. Note that, since the nonlinearity is purely complex, we get the usual conservation law

$$\partial_t n + \operatorname{div}_x(\nabla_k E_n(\nabla_x S)n) = 0.$$

where $n(t, x) := |a(t, x)|^2$.

An extension of the above WKB approach is given in [C.S., SIAM 06] where one looks on even longer time-scales:

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To this end, consider the dispersive scaling (semi-classics on longer time-scales)

$$i\partial_t u^\varepsilon = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta u^\varepsilon + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} V_\Gamma \left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon} \right) u^\varepsilon + U(x) u^\varepsilon + \kappa |u^\varepsilon|^2 u^\varepsilon, \quad (5)$$

Assuming single-band plane wave initial data of WKB type, we find

$$u^\varepsilon(t, x) \sim f(t, \tilde{x}) \chi_m \left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}, k_0 \right) e^{ik_0 \cdot x / \varepsilon} e^{-iE_m(k_0)t / \varepsilon^2} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon),$$

where we need to take into account a **large drift** given by

$$\tilde{x} := x - \frac{t}{\varepsilon} \vartheta_m(k_0), \quad \text{with } \vartheta_m(k_0) := \nabla_k E_m(k_0).$$

Moreover f is determined by the (homogenized) **effective mass NLS**, i.e.

$$i\partial_t f = -\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{div}_x (M_m \nabla_x) f + U(x) f + \kappa_m^* |f|^2 f,$$

with an **effective mass tensor** (not necessarily positive definite)

$$M_m(k_0) := \partial_k^2 E_m(k_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3},$$

which describes dispersive effects along the rays of geometrical optics.

3. Numerical approach

In [Huang-Jin-Markowich-S., JCP 06] we proposed a new **time-splitting algorithm**, based on the Bloch decomposition. To this end let $d = 1$, for the moment, and

$$\varphi_m(y, k) := e^{iky} \chi_m(y, k) \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{N},$$

and recall that upon solving Bloch's eigenvalue problem one obtains a decomposition of space $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ into a direct sum of orthogonal **band spaces**:

$$L^2(\mathbb{R}) = \bigoplus_{m=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_m.$$

Thus

$$\forall f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) : \quad f(y) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} f_m(y), \quad f_m \in \mathcal{H}_m.$$

where the corresponding **projection** of m -th band space is given by

$$f_m(y) \equiv (\mathbb{P}_m f)(y) = \int_{\mathcal{B}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(\zeta) \bar{\varphi}_m(\zeta, k) d\zeta \right) \varphi_m(y, k) dk.$$

In what follows, we will denote by

$$C_m(k) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(\zeta) \bar{\varphi}_m(\zeta, k) \, d\zeta$$

the **coefficient** of the Bloch decomposition.

The main use of the Bloch decomposition is that it reduces

$$i\partial_t u = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_{yy} u + V_\Gamma(y)u, \quad u|_{t=0} = u_{\text{in}}(y),$$

into countably many, **exactly solvable** problems on \mathcal{H}_m . On each \mathcal{H}_m one finds

$$i\partial_t u_m = E_m(-i\partial_y)u_m, \quad u_m|_{t=0} = (\mathbb{P}_m u_{\text{in}})(y),$$

where $E_m(-i\partial_x)$ denotes the Fourier-multiplier corresponding to the symbol $E_m(k)$.

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In order not avoid the introduction of a numerical Bloch-transform and **rely entirely on** the use of **FFT**, we also introduce the following unitary transformation of $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$

$$(Tf)(y, k) \equiv \tilde{f}(y, k) := \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} f(\varepsilon(y + 2\gamma)) e^{-ik \cdot \gamma}, \quad y \in Y, k \in \mathcal{B}.$$

The following inversion formula holds

$$f(\varepsilon(y + \gamma)) = \int_{\mathcal{B}} \tilde{f}(y, k) e^{ik \cdot \gamma} dk.$$

Moreover we can compute $C_m(k)$ via

$$C_m(k) = \int_Y \tilde{f}(y, k) \overline{\varphi}_m(y, k) dy,$$

which is what we will use in the following.

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The splitting-algorithm then works as follows:

Step 0. As a preprocessing one has to compute the Bloch bands $E_m(k)$ and the corresponding $\chi_m(k)$. For smooth V_Γ in $d = 1$ this can be done easily, by expanding

$$V_\Gamma(y) = \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{V}(\lambda) e^{i\lambda y}, \quad \widehat{V}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} V_\Gamma(y) e^{-i\lambda y} dy.$$

and likewise

$$\chi_m(y, k) = \sum_{\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{\chi}_m(\lambda, k) e^{i\lambda y}, \quad \widehat{\chi}_m(\lambda, k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \chi_m(y, k) e^{-i\lambda y} dy.$$

For smooth V_Γ , taking only the first few coefficients suffices and we consequently approximate Bloch's eigenvalue problem by the solution of an algebraic eigenvalue problem.

Note that the number of coefficients is indeed **independent** of the spatial grid. Thus the numerical costs of this preprocessing are almost negligible compared to those of the evolutionary algorithm.

Step 1. First, we solve the equation

$$i\varepsilon\partial_t u^\varepsilon = -\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\partial_{xx}u^\varepsilon + V_\Gamma\left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right)u^\varepsilon, \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

on a fixed time-interval Δt . To do so we consider for each fixed $t \in \mathbb{R}$, the corresponding transformed solution $(Tu^\varepsilon(t, \cdot)) \equiv \tilde{u}^\varepsilon(t, y, k)$ and decompose it via

$$\tilde{u}^\varepsilon(t, y, k) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} (\mathbb{P}_m \tilde{u}^\varepsilon) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} C_m^\varepsilon(t, k) \varphi_m(y, k).$$

Of course, we have to truncate this summation at a certain **fixed** $M \in \mathbb{N}$. Numerical experiments on the band mixing give us enough experience to choose M large enough to guarantee mass conservation up to sufficient high accuracy (typically $M = 32$). This yields

$$i\varepsilon\partial_t C_m^\varepsilon(t, k) = E_m(k) C_m^\varepsilon(t, k),$$

which implies

$$C_m^\varepsilon(t, k) = C_m^\varepsilon(0, k) e^{-iE_m(k)t/\varepsilon}.$$

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Step 2. In a second step, we solve the ordinary differential equation

$$i\varepsilon\partial_t u^\varepsilon = \left(U(x) + \kappa|u^\varepsilon|^2 \right) u^\varepsilon,$$

on the same time-interval as before, where the solution obtained in Step 1 serves as initial condition for Step 2. Thus

$$u^\varepsilon(t, x) = u^\varepsilon(0, x) e^{-i(U(x) + \kappa|u^\varepsilon|^2)t/\varepsilon}.$$

Note that this splitting **conserves the particle density** $\rho^\varepsilon(t, x) := |u^\varepsilon(t, x)|^2$, also on the fully discrete level.

Remark. Clearly, the algorithm given above is first order in time. But we can easily obtain a second order scheme by the **Strang splitting** method, i.e. performing Step 1 with time-step $\Delta t/2$, then Step 2 with time-step Δt , and finally integrate Step 1 again with $\Delta t/2$.

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Remarks.

- If $U(x) = 0$ and also $\kappa = 0$ (i.e. no nonlinearity) our algorithm solves the evolutionary problem with periodic potential **exact**.
- Numerical experiments show that (in the linear case) our algorithm converges with $\Delta x = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$ and $\Delta t = \mathcal{O}(1)$ for quadratic observables in u^ε . The latter is a **huge advantage** in comparison with a standard time-splitting methods, which require $\Delta t = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$ (\Rightarrow we can compute much longer times).
- The numerical cost of our algorithm is comparable to the one of a usual time-splitting method.
- The algorithm can be easily **generalized to higher dimensions** $d > 1$, if V_Γ is of the form

$$V_\Gamma(y) = \sum_{j=1}^d V_j(x_j), \quad \text{such that } V_j(x_j + \gamma_j) = V_j(x_j),$$

which is the case for our main motivation, namely lattice-BECs. If V_Γ does not separate as above, the solution of Bloch's eigenvalue problem is in itself a highly nontrivial task.

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4. Numerical examples

We consider the equation on a bounded domain $\mathcal{D} = [-\lambda, \lambda]$, for some large enough $\lambda > 0$, equipped with periodic boundary conditions.

For definiteness we also choose V_Γ to be 2π -periodic. For example Mathieu's model

$$V_\Gamma(x) = \cos(x),$$

or the Kronig-Penney model

$$V_\Gamma(x) = 1 - \sum_{\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbf{1}_{x \in [\frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi\gamma, \frac{3\pi}{2} + 2\pi\gamma]},$$

where $\mathbf{1}_\Omega$ denotes the characteristic function of a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$.

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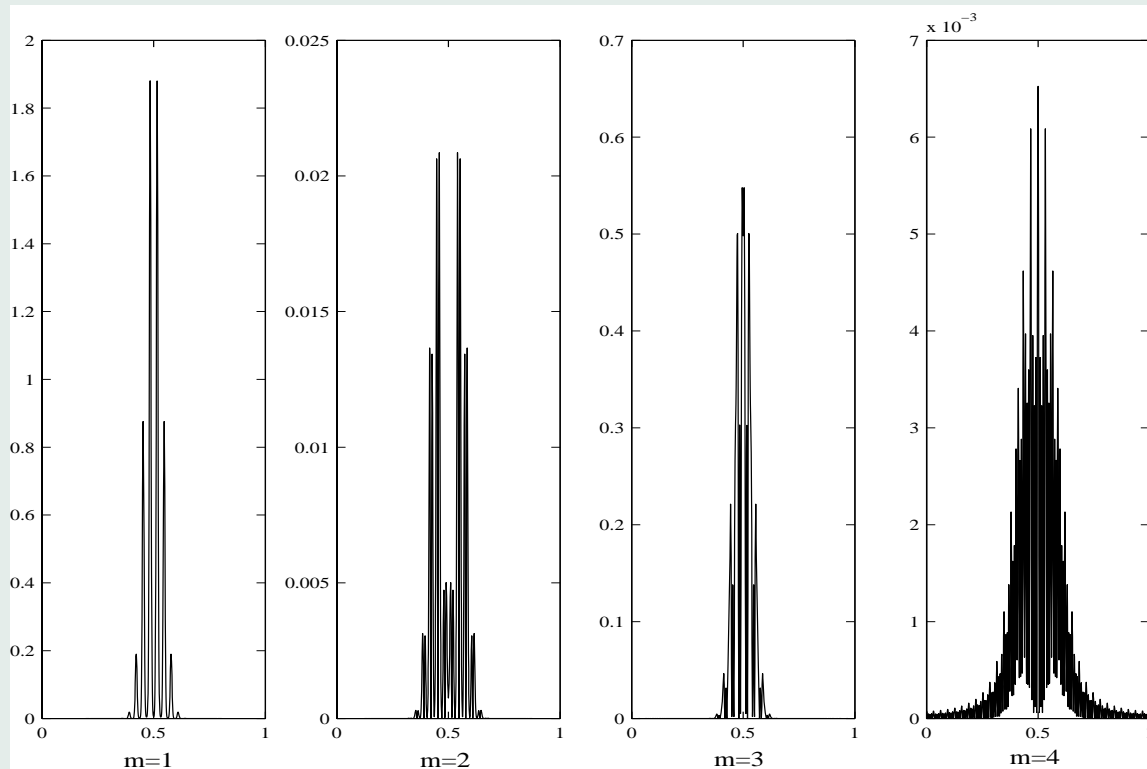
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Example. Take $V_\Gamma = \cos x$ and initially

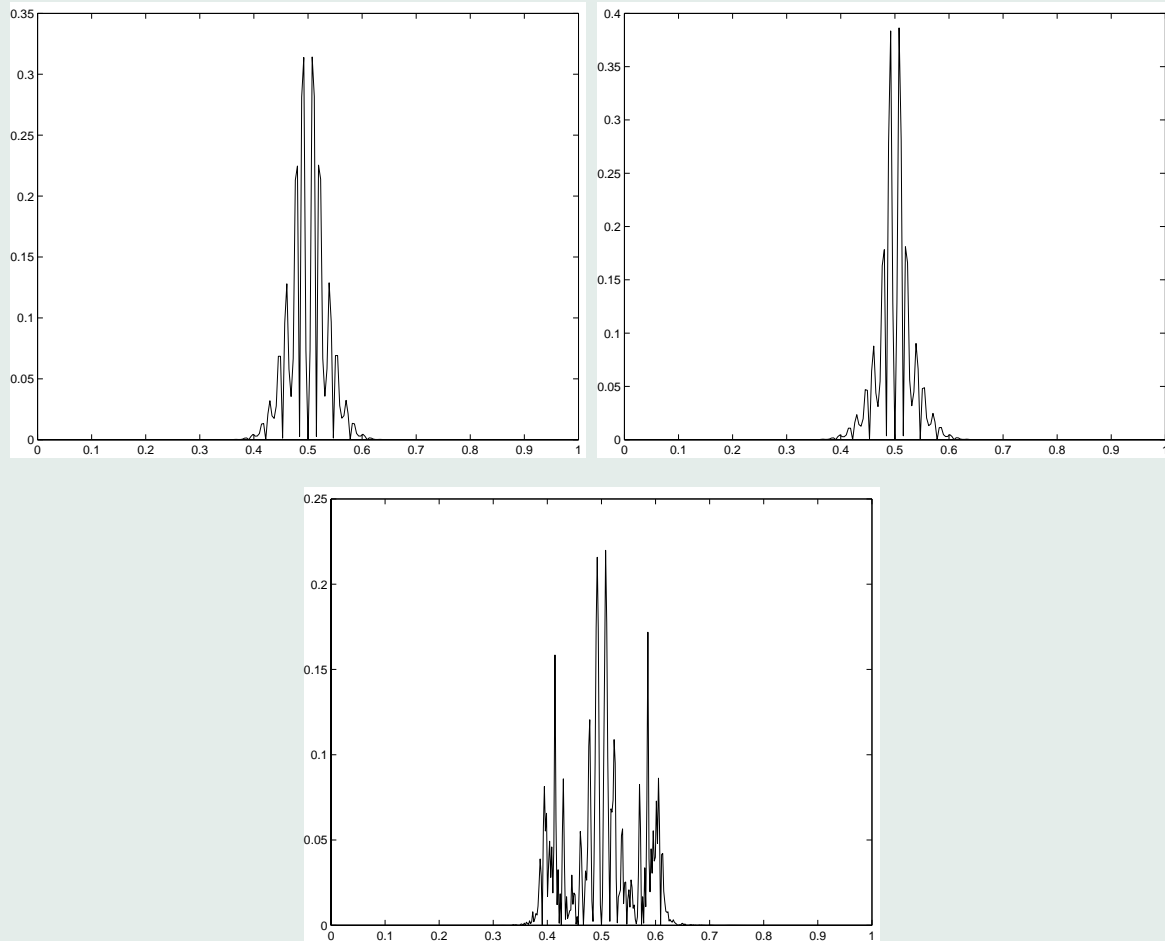
$$u_{\text{in}}(x) = (10/\pi)^{1/4} e^{-5(x-\pi)^2}.$$

The decomposition into the corresponding bands:



$$|\mathbb{P}_m^\varepsilon u_{\text{in}}|^2, m = 1, \dots, 4 \text{ for } \varepsilon = 1/32.$$

In the linear case, for smooth $U(x)$, we only need $M = 8$ bands to guarantee mass conservation up to an error of 10^{-6} .



Time-evolution of $|u^\varepsilon(t, x)|^2$, plotted for $t = 0.1$, $t = 0.25$, and $t = 0.5$.

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Example. (band mixing)

In the linear case one also knows that the Bloch bands are **adiabatically stable** up to small errors. More precisely, let initially $u_{\text{in}}(x) = (\mathbb{P}_{m_0} f(x))$ (i.e. concentrated in a single band), then

$$D_{m_0}(t) := \left\| u^\varepsilon(t, \cdot) - (\mathbb{P}_{m_0} u^\varepsilon(t, \cdot)) \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R})} = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon),$$

for **isolated bands** $m_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, on time-scales of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

In the nonlinear case band mixing is an open problem: We consider

$$\kappa = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^\alpha), \quad D_{m_0}(t) = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^\gamma), \quad \alpha, \gamma \geq 0,$$

and we aim to numerically quantify the connection between α and γ .

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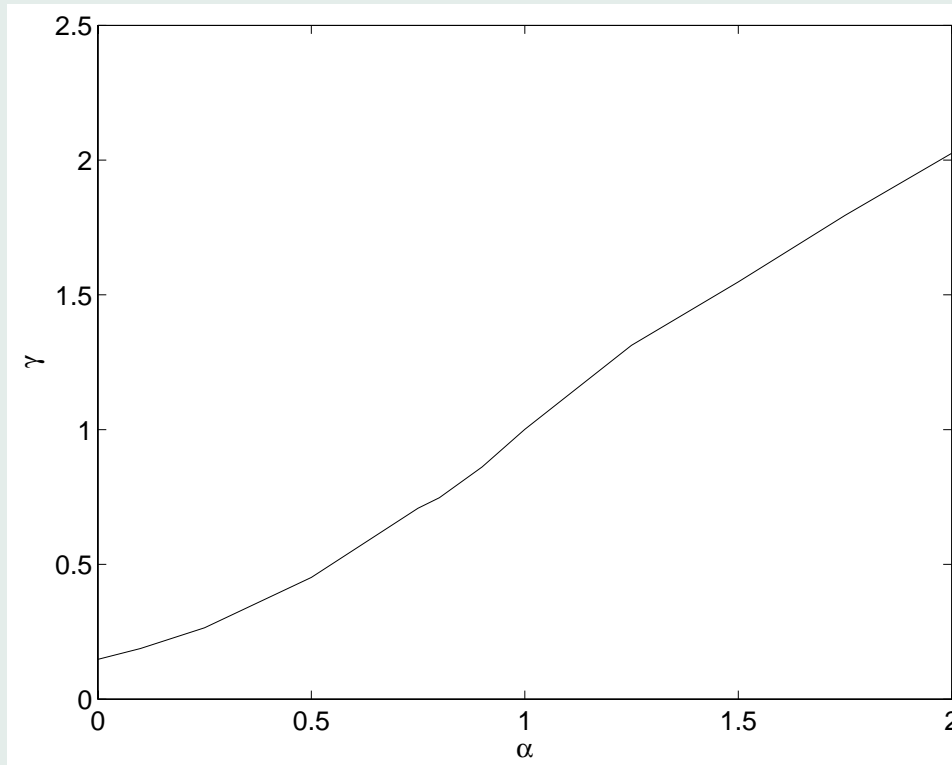
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Nonlinear band mixing: $U(x) = 0$ (no external potential).



$m_0 = 1, \varepsilon = 1/32.$

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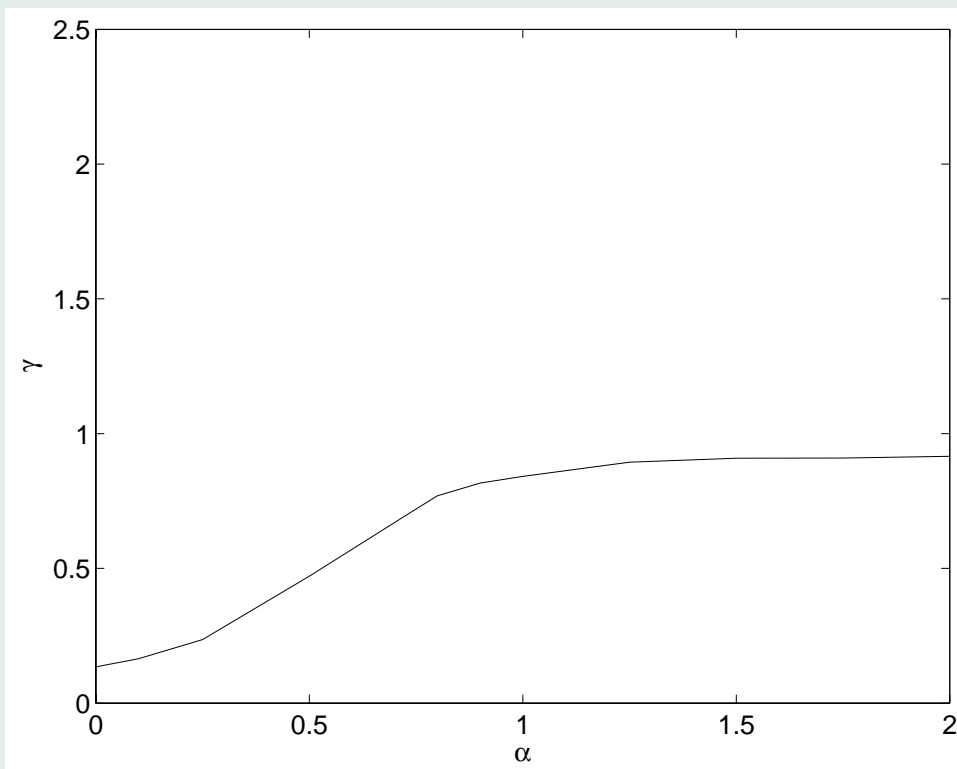
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Nonlinear band mixing: $U(x) = x$.



$m_0 = 1, \varepsilon = 1/32$.

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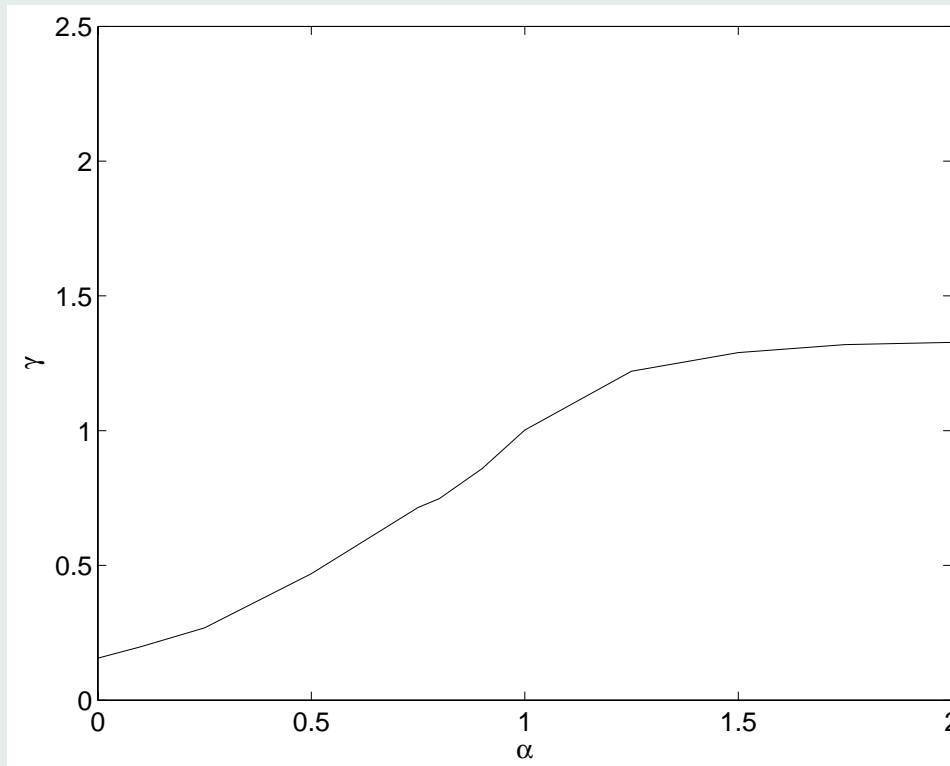
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Nonlinear band mixing: $U(x) = \frac{1}{2} |x - \pi|^2$.



$m_0 = 2, \varepsilon = 1/32$.

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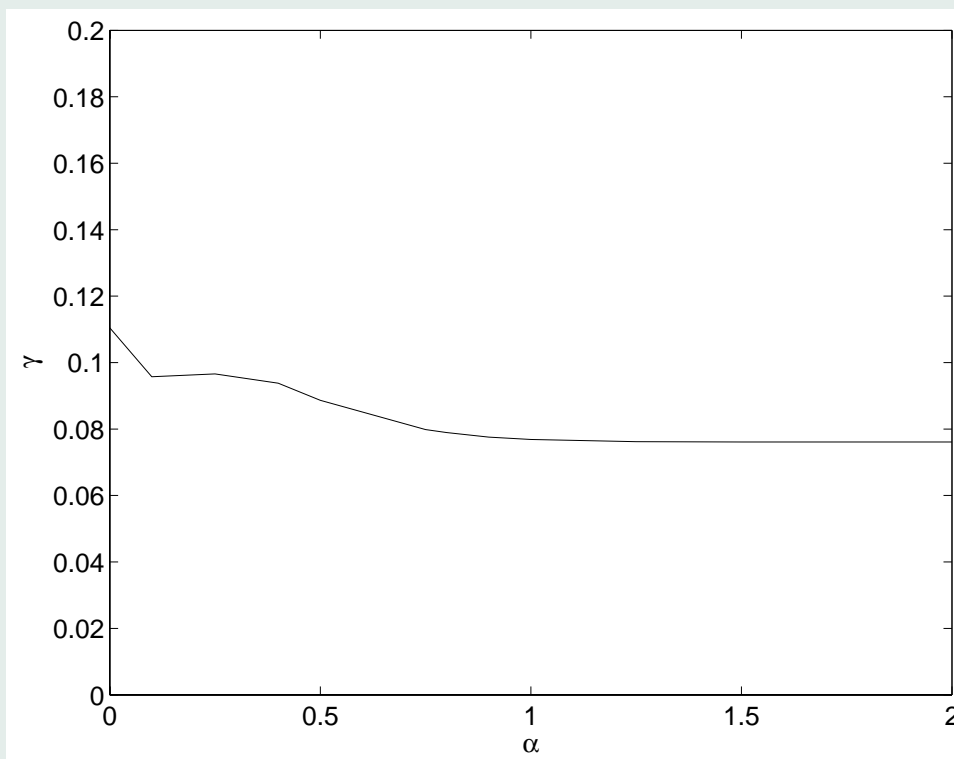
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Nonlinear band mixing: $U(x) = \frac{1}{2} |x - \pi|^2$.



$m_0 = 4$ (non-isolated), $\varepsilon = 1/32$.

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Example. (3D lattice BEC)

Finally we aim to perform a three dimensional simulation of a lattice BEC, having in mind the following experimental set-up:

First, the BEC is formed **only** under the influence of a confining $U(x)$ (harmonic oscillator) and then the periodic potential V_Γ is turned on.

The physical relevant initial data is thus given by the **ground state** of

$$-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \Delta \phi^\varepsilon + U\phi + \kappa |\phi^\varepsilon|^2 \phi^\varepsilon = \mu^\varepsilon \phi^\varepsilon, \quad \|\phi^\varepsilon\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)} = 1,$$

where $|\kappa| > 0$ (repulsive interaction). In our scaling ϕ^ε can be well approximated by the so-called **Thomas-Fermi** limit, i.e. discarding the dispersion term $\propto \varepsilon^2$. Thus we take as initial data

$$\phi_g(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\lambda} (\mu_g - U(x))_+},$$

where $\mu_g = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{15\lambda}{4\pi} \right)^{2/5}$.

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Surface plot of $|u^\varepsilon(t, x)| = 0.25$ at different times, with $\kappa = 1$ and $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}$.

