

Soliton-based discriminator of noncoherent optical pulses

S. K. Turitsyn and S. A. Derevyanko

Photonics Research Group, Aston University, Aston Triangle, Birmingham B4 7ET, United Kingdom

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We introduce the concept of noncoherent optical pulse discrimination from a coherent (or partially coherent) signal of the same energy using the phenomenon of soliton generation. The impact of randomization of the optical signal content on the observable characteristics of soliton generation is examined and quantified for the particular example of a rectangular pulse.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The comparative study of the properties of coherent vs noncoherent waves (fields, signals) and ordered vs disordered systems plays an important role in both modern physics and technological applications (see, e.g., [1,2] and references therein). The examples range from Anderson localization [3] to the interaction of signals with noise, the latter being one of the major factors limiting performance of modern optical communication systems (see, e.g., [2]). Optically amplified transmission systems typically comprise a chain of optical amplifiers (e.g., erbium-doped fiber amplifiers) which add noise into the system. Amplifier noise accumulated along the fiber links degrades the quality of transmission. For instance, statistically rare occurrences of parasitic noisy spikes having the same energy as the signal pulses might lead to errors in the transmission of information. The origin of such errors is in the application of sub-optimal receivers that make decisions based on information about the energy (or fraction of energy) of the incoming pulse only and discard any information about the phase (as well as the internal structure of the pulse itself). Therefore there is no possible way for a standard detection device to distinguish between a true logical “1” (characterized by a high level of coherence) and the disordered spurious pulse of the same energy. However, the latter “ghost” pulse generally differs from the true signal due to a higher level of noncoherence and in this paper we propose a soliton-based device intended to separate the signal from random fluctuations of the same energy. We also discuss here an interesting link between the problem of separation of the coherent signal component from noncoherent noise in fiber optics and the theoretical problem of the emergence of localized states in a random potential. In particular, we examine the generation of coherent localized modes (solitons) from a random initial field distribution (serving as a potential in the corresponding non-Hermitian spectral problem).

Separation of a signal from noise is one of the fundamental research problems that occurs in a broad range of scientific and technological applications. Nonlinear techniques might be of special interest in this field as they can offer new opportunities that cannot be realized in linear systems. For instance, nonlinear optical processing might enable one to distinguish (in the optical domain) between the signal and noise accumulated within the signal bandwidth—something that is not possible using linear techniques [4]. Optical fiber

nonlinearity is of particular interest because the resulting nonlinear systems for some range of parameters can be described by well-studied soliton models, and the powerful mathematical apparatus can be applied to a variety of physical and technical problems (see, e.g., [2,4,5]). Note that optical soliton techniques are widely known in the context of signal transmission. However, their great potential in the field of signal processing is yet to be explored.

Recent progress in advanced modulation formats [6] and the growing interest in coherent optical communications have emphasized the importance of techniques that exploit the nature of the signal, in particular, the optical phase. Signal processing utilizing the optical phase might offer many advantages over traditional electrical processing that relies only on the signal intensity. Stable optical structures such as solitons might play a crucial role in the design and development of a new generation of optical processing devices that use the signal phase as well as the intensity. Recent demonstration of a quasilossless fiber span [7] that can be used as one of the building blocks of optical soliton devices has rekindled interest in soliton-based signal processing.

In this paper we propose to use soliton generation as a technique to discriminate between coherent (or almost coherent) signals and parasitic noncoherent pulses of the same energy. We focus here on fiber-optic applications employing the on-off keying data format—when logical 1’s are presented by pulses and logical zeros—by empty time slots. We would like to point out, however, that the considered approach can be generalized to a variety of systems and modulation formats. Note that the propagation of partially coherent pulses in Kerr-type media has long been a subject of investigation in different physical contexts, including random phase modulation of temporal solitons [8], nonlinear Fraunhofer diffraction of random fields [9,10], and other interesting examples [11]. We would also like to stress that here we are not using solitons for transmission of information but rather as building blocks of a nonlinear filter element, which distinguishes the proposed approach from the one employed in conventional soliton-based transmission links. The reader interested in noise effects in conventional soliton transmission links is referred to the monograph [2] as well as the review [12].

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

An accumulation of the amplified spontaneous emission noise along a fiber-optic link leads to the generation of a

randomly modulated noncoherent background. In the on-off keying data format transmission there exist time intervals when no deterministic signal is present (time slots corresponding to logical zeros). Radiative background noise manifests itself as a noise-generated ghost pulse. It fluctuates and hence can achieve an energy high enough to be wrongly detected by a receiver as a logical 1. Note that, in the standard approach to signal detection, the decision is made taking into account only the received pulse energy, and any additional information related to the optical phase is not used at all and is lost. Any noise field accumulated within the time interval T_b and having the optical bandwidth (optical filter bandwidth) B can be presented (following, e.g., [2]) as a sum of statistically independent modes:

$$q(t) = \sum_{k=-M/2}^{M/2} \eta_k \exp(i2\pi kt/T_b), \quad M = \text{int}[BT_b]; \quad (1)$$

here $\text{int}[\cdots]$ means the integer part of an expression. The complex coefficients η_k are independent random variables with zero mean and variance $\langle \eta_k \eta_k^* \rangle = (2\sigma^2/T_b)\delta_{kk}$. For a chain of N optical amplifiers with the same gain coefficient G , the amplifier inversion factor n_{sp} , and carrier frequency of the envelope ω_0 , the noise power spectral density per polarization is $2\sigma^2 = n_{sp}\hbar\omega_0(G-1)N$. The average energy of the noise is $\langle E_{\text{ASE}} \rangle = 2\sigma^2(M+1)$, which is typically small. However, some rare fluctuations can produce random spikes with energy close to that of a logical “1” degraded by the same noise. It is highly desirable therefore to distinguish between noisy (noncoherent) fluctuations and a deterministic localized pulse of the same total energy E . Now by normalization of time using a bit length T_b (see below), we can express the normalized bandwidth through the value of M ; therefore, in what follows we will simply quantify the bandwidth by the number of modes, M .

The key idea of the proposed approach is to use the soliton generation effect for the discrimination between coherent and noncoherent pulses. Indeed, the energy of a complex Gaussian field (1) is characterized by a χ^2 distribution with $2(M+1)$ degrees of freedom, while the phase of each complex harmonic η_k is uniformly distributed between 0 and 2π . Such random phase and amplitude modulation typical of parasitic pulses affects soliton generation and, thus, can be detected through these changes in a passive fiber-based device. Without loss of generality, we consider here a true soliton system that can be implemented in lossless fiber spans [7] or in short pieces of highly nonlinear fiber with negligible loss effect. Evolution in z of the optical field $Q(t, z)$ is then governed by the well-known nonlinear Schrödinger equation (NLSE) [2,4,5]

$$i\frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial t^2} + |Q|^2 Q = 0. \quad (2)$$

Equation (2) is written in dimensionless soliton units, with time normalized by the pulse width, $t \rightarrow t/T$, and power normalized by $P_s = (\gamma L_D)^{-1} \equiv |\beta_2|/(\gamma T^2)$, where γ is the nonlinear coefficient in W^{-1}/km , $L_D = T^2/|\beta_2|$ is the dispersion length measured in kilometers, and β_2 is the (anomalous)

group velocity dispersion parameter measured in ps^2/km (see, e.g., [2,5]). Energy is measured in units $E_s = P_s T$. The particular shape of the input pulse in the proposed approach is not critically important, but without loss of generality, we assume in what follows a real rectangular pulse shape with width $T \leq T_b$, amplitude Q_0 , and energy $E = Q_0^2 T$.

III. SOLITON GENERATION

In the case of a real, unmodulated, rectangular, initial condition, the energy threshold of the generation of the N th soliton can be readily derived [13]: $E_N = \pi^2(2N-1)^2/4$. In the presence of noise, the deterministic formula for a number of generated solitons $N = \text{int}[0.5 + \sqrt{E}/\pi]$ is replaced by the set of probabilities P_N of generating N soliton states. Those probabilities $P_N(E, \sigma)$ will depend on the pulse energy E as well as the strength of disorder σ (and the bandwidth parameter M). Our main goal here is to determine how the dependence of the average number of the generated solitons, $\langle N \rangle = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} N P_N$, on input pulse energy evolves when switching from a deterministic localized input to a noisy noncoherent signal of the same energy.

Here it is pertinent to mention the closely related problem of the influence of chirp (both deterministic and random) on soliton generation [8,14,15]. In particular, one may be interested in finding analytical criteria for the number of created solitons (and corresponding energy thresholds) for different initial pulse shapes. Indeed, when the input pulse is a real function wave form, a simple criterion by Kivshar and Burzlaff (KB) [16] applies that relates the number of created solitons to the area of the pulse. In the particular case of a rectangular pulse one recovers the analytical result above. However, it is not straightforward to apply this criterion beyond the formal scope of its validity. Indeed, because this criterion relies only on the area of the pulse it is insensitive to any nontrivial phase modulation of the pulse. But any such phase modulation (deterministic or random) critically affects the soliton content of the pulse—an effect that is missed completely when applying the KB criterion. For the simple case of a constant linear chirp the problem of soliton pulse generation from a Gaussian wave form was examined in [15], where it was shown that the linear chirp severely decreases the number of soliton states in the pulse. It is no surprise then that the KB criterion is not applicable also to the random complex input (1). As an alternative, a standard WKB approximation can be used to estimate the number of created solitons [17] but its applicability is restricted to the regime where the number of solitons is large. So, unfortunately, there are no reliable analytical criteria for establishing the number of emerging solitons for the output in the form (1).

A. Zakharov-Shabat spectral problem for random potentials

According to the inverse scattering transform theory any initial condition of the NLSE (2) evolves into a combination of solitons plus quasilinear oscillating wave packets. The parameters of the solitons formed, as well as their number, can

be derived via the non-self-adjoint Zakharov-Shabat spectral problem (ZSSP) [17], which is a special case of the more general Ablowitz-Newell-Kaup-Segur scheme (see [18]):

$$\begin{aligned} i\partial\psi_1/\partial t + Q\psi_2 &= \zeta\psi_1, \\ -i\partial\psi_2/\partial t + R\psi_1 &= \zeta\psi_2, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

with complex potentials R and Q . The ZSSP for Eq. (2) corresponds to the non-self-adjoint reduction of (3): $R \equiv -Q^*$. Other important reductions include $R \equiv Q^*$, which corresponds to the NLSE with positive (normal) group velocity dispersion (or defocusing nonlinearity), and the case $R \equiv 1$, which leads directly to the Hermitian Schrödinger equation with the “energy” given by ζ^2 connected with the Korteweg–de Vries equation. In any reduction, the random nature of the potential leads to interesting properties of the spectra. In particular, the reduction that yields the linear Schrödinger equation with random potential is known to exhibit *Anderson localization* [1,3], which manifests itself as an exponential decay of the transmission coefficient through a disordered potential with the growth of the width of the potential T . The corresponding decrement $\tau(\zeta)$ is known as *localization length* (or rather, localization time in our notation). For the self-adjoint reduction $R=Q^*$, a similar phenomenon exists [19] where it was proven that the localization length does not depend on the spectral parameter ζ . In what follows we will focus on the focusing NLSE (2) with non-self-adjoint reduction where each (random) discrete eigenvalue located in the upper complex half plane of ζ corresponds to a bright optical soliton emerging from a noisy input pulse. As mentioned in the previous section, the existing deterministic criteria for soliton creation are not applicable to the noncoherent complex pulses of the form (1). Therefore we have to resort to the numerical Monte Carlo (MC) simulations of the stochastic ZSSP eigenproblem (3) and the problem of determination of the average number of solitons, $\langle N \rangle$, reduces thus to the calculation of the distribution and the average number of discrete eigenvalues of ZSSP.

IV. CONCEPT OF SOLITON DISCRIMINATOR AND RESULTS

Now we present the results of the MC simulations for different system parameters. Those are to be compared with the analytical result (as discussed above) for a deterministic rectangular pulse of the same energy. Again we would like to convey the idea that we are specially interested in rare fluctuations when the energy of the ghost pulse coincides with that of a real pulse. In the MC simulation we had to ensure that for each realization of the input field the total energy was fixed at the same level E . This was achieved by picking $(M+1)$ complex Fourier harmonics with equal amplitudes (fixed by the total energy E) and independent random phases uniformly distributed between 0 and 2π . Figure 1 shows the average number of emerging solitons for the totally noncoherent input (1) versus pulse energy (normalized by the soliton energy), for a different number of random harmonics on a log-log scale. It is seen from Fig. 1 that the introduction of randomness dramatically reduces the probability of soliton

generation; and the average numbers of solitons can be less than unity, even for relatively high values of energy. This demonstrates the feasibility of the proposed concept of a soliton discriminator since it shows that a totally noncoherent input pulse is unlikely to produce a stable soliton content. The interesting question remains open of whether the different curves in Fig. 1 have a finite size scaling (FSS) with M , i.e., whether there exists an effective “phase transition” in M ; in other words, whether there exist a universal function f and parameters α , β , and E_{th} so that the average number of solitons scales with energy as $M^\alpha f((E-E_{\text{th}})/M^\beta)$. Standard algorithms [20] have failed to establish such a scaling, but the results are still inconclusive, and more advanced analysis is needed.

Another observation is that the deterministic thresholds of soliton creation (shown in Fig. 1 as vertical dashed lines) also do not apply for the disordered input. We define a soliton creation threshold for a disordered pulse as the first value of E where the average value of solitons is nonzero. The computationally resolved thresholds for different numbers of harmonics are given by the left end points of the graphs in Fig. 1. As seen from Fig. 1, the data points in the vicinity of the thresholds tend to fluctuate, which is a natural consequence of the Monte Carlo averaging procedure: the first nonzero contribution to the average number of solitons comes from the extremely rare fluctuations which are notoriously difficult to sample. In our simulations we saw no solitons created below the first deterministic threshold $E_1 = 2.46$ after 1000 Monte Carlo runs. Because the FSS algorithm failed to establish a unique threshold energy E_{th} , we cannot rigorously prove that such processes are forbidden. This issue requires a separate study with higher resolution and advanced Monte Carlo techniques (such as, e.g., multi-canonical sampling). This, however, lies beyond the scope of the current paper.

Figure 1 shows only the average number of solitons and not the corresponding probability distributions of soliton formation P_N . It is instructive to study the individual probabilities P_N , and in particular verify whether they follow a Poissonian distribution. Therefore, in Fig. 2 we also present separately the probability distribution obtained via Monte Carlo simulation of a system with $M=8$ noisy harmonics and energy $E=360$ (in soliton units). The results are compared with the Poissonian fit with the same average $\langle N \rangle = 0.73$. One can see that the numerical distribution is somewhat wider and less localized than the Poissonian fit.

Let us now illustrate different possible scenarios of a ghost pulse propagation by providing space-time traces of pulse evolution for different values of the parameters E and M . The goal of this detour is to help the reader to gain a qualitative understanding of “dangerous” noise fluctuations that are able to trigger the creation of spurious solitons during pulse evolution. In Fig. 3 we provide space-time traces of pulse evolution from the stochastic input (1). We opted here for the following system parameters: $T_b = 60$ ps, $\beta_2 = -20$ ps²/km, $\gamma = 3$ W⁻¹ km⁻¹. The four scenarios shown in Fig. 3 are as follows: one-soliton generation at high energy and low number of noisy modes [Fig. 3(a)], two-soliton generation for the same parameters [Fig. 3(b)], no soliton created for high energy and high number of modes [Fig. 3(c)],

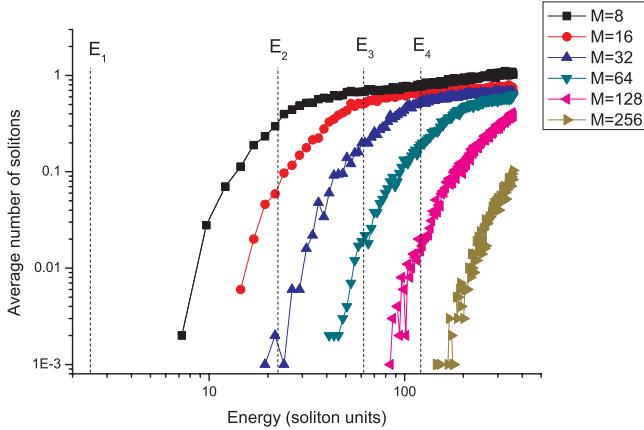


FIG. 1. (Color) Average number of emerging solitons versus pulse energy for noncoherent input pulse for different numbers of modes M . Vertical lines show deterministic thresholds ($E_1=2.46$, $E_2=22.46$, $E_3=61.8$, and so on) of N -soliton generation in soliton units.

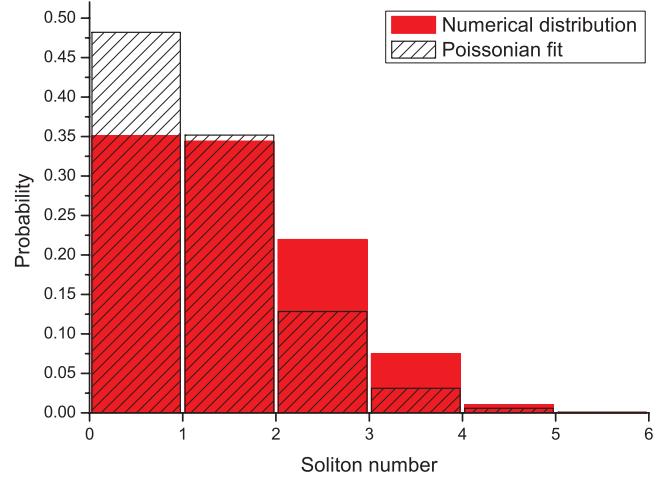


FIG. 2. (Color) Probability distribution of the number of created solitons (solid red bars) and the Poissonian fit (dashed bars).

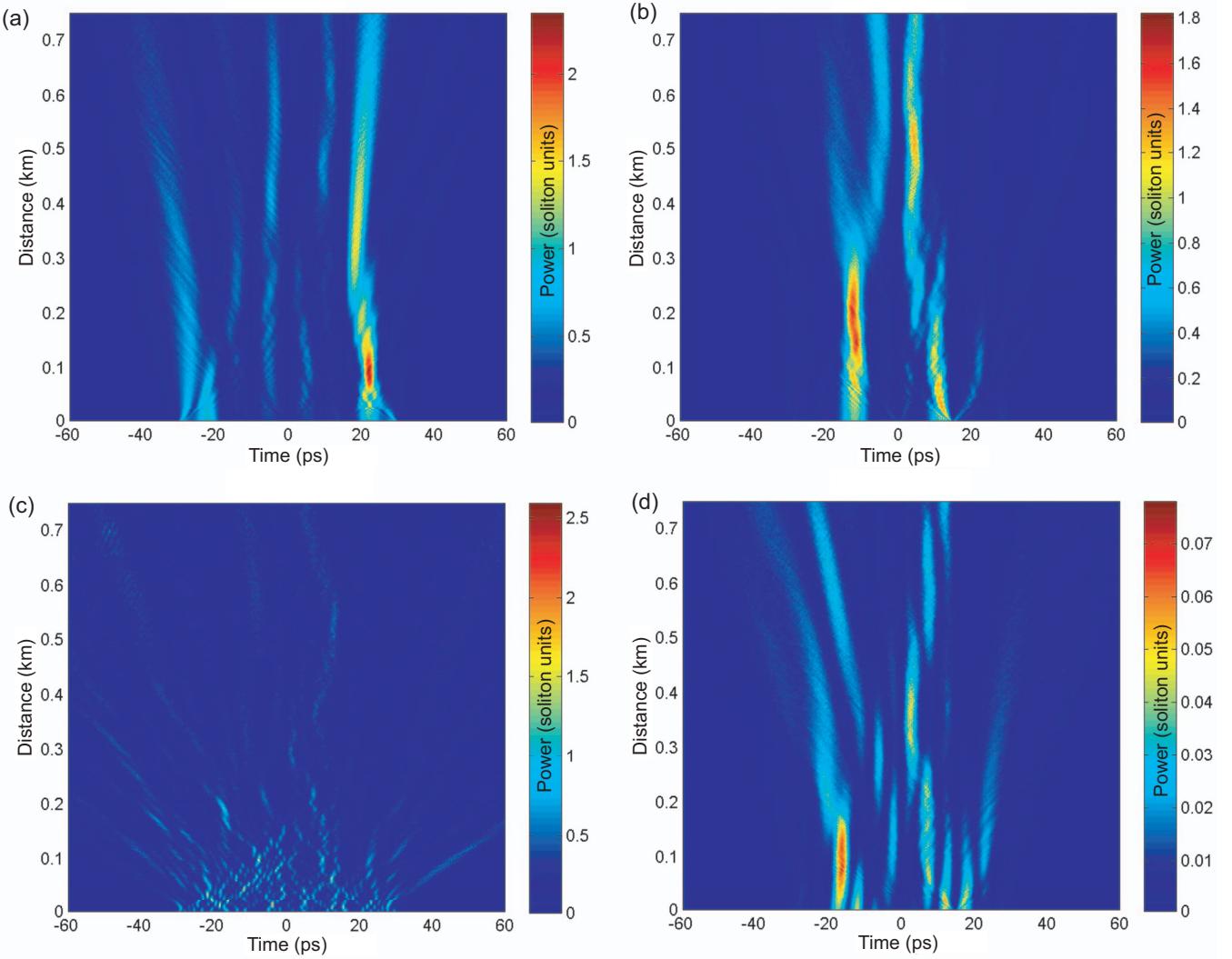


FIG. 3. (Color) Possible scenarios of stochastic soliton creation. The energy (in soliton units) and the number of modes are $E=360$, $M=8$ for (a) and (b), $E=360$, $M=64$ for (c), and $E=13.5$, $M=16$ for (d).

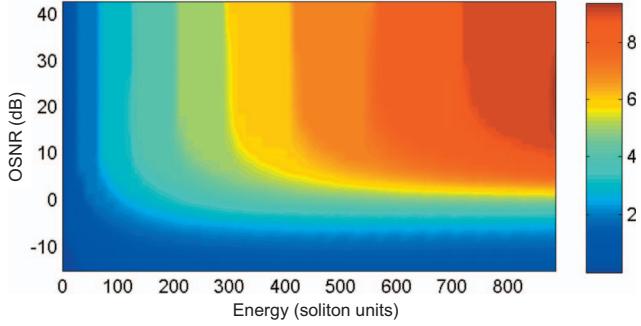


FIG. 4. (Color) Averaged number of solitons versus the pulse energy E and OSNR. Here $M=64$.

and, finally, no soliton generated at subthreshold low energy [Fig. 3(d)].

So far we have only considered the evolution and soliton content of a purely disordered pulse of the form (1). However, typically in optical communications, a signal arriving at the decision device is only partially noncoherent and generally can be presented as a deterministic component $Q_0(t)$ mixed with an accumulated noise $q(t)$, $Q(t)=Q_0(t)+q(t)$, where $q(t)$ is given by (1). For this case we compute the number of emerging soliton states for the ZSSP (3) for the input pulse $Q(t)$ rather than for $q(t)$. Figure 4 shows the impact of noise on the generation of solitons in this case. The contribution of noise to the initial pulse (i.e., the measure of noncoherence) is characterized by an optical signal-to-noise ratio (OSNR)= $E/[2\sigma^2(M+1)]$, a quantity often used in optical communications. Figure 4 demonstrates two important limits: large OSNR corresponds to the deterministic limit described analytically above, and the limit of small OSNR leads to the situation of fully noncoherent pulses, similar to Fig. 1. It also gives a qualitative estimate of the level of noncoherent noisy content in the pulse that can be distinguished by such a nonlinear soliton-based filter. It is seen from Fig. 4 that pulses with OSNR less than roughly 10 dB have quite different characteristics in terms of the number of generated solitons compared to their deterministic counterparts of the same energy (top of the picture). This means that, if the noncoherent share of the total pulse energy content is more than approximately one-tenth, the proposed device should be able to discriminate between such partially coherent signals and noncoherent noisy ghost pulses.

The action of a soliton discriminator is illustrated in Fig. 5, where a typical evolution of a given pattern 10100 is shown in two cases: (a) when all bits are deterministic and (b) when the central bit is a noisy, noncoherent ghost pulse of the same energy as a deterministic 1 in (a). For the particular realization of the noisy input (bottom panel) we picked $M=64$ harmonics with the same total energy as the coherent pulse in (a). Figure 5 demonstrates how noncoherence prevents the creation of soliton structures, and one readily observes in the top panel, Fig. 5(a), that most of the pulse energy quickly settles in an emerging single soliton which is the reverse of the case of Fig. 5(b). In real world units, this discrimination can be observed at propagation scales of several kilometers for a standard fiber or just several meters for highly nonlinear fibers. This implies that a potential soliton-

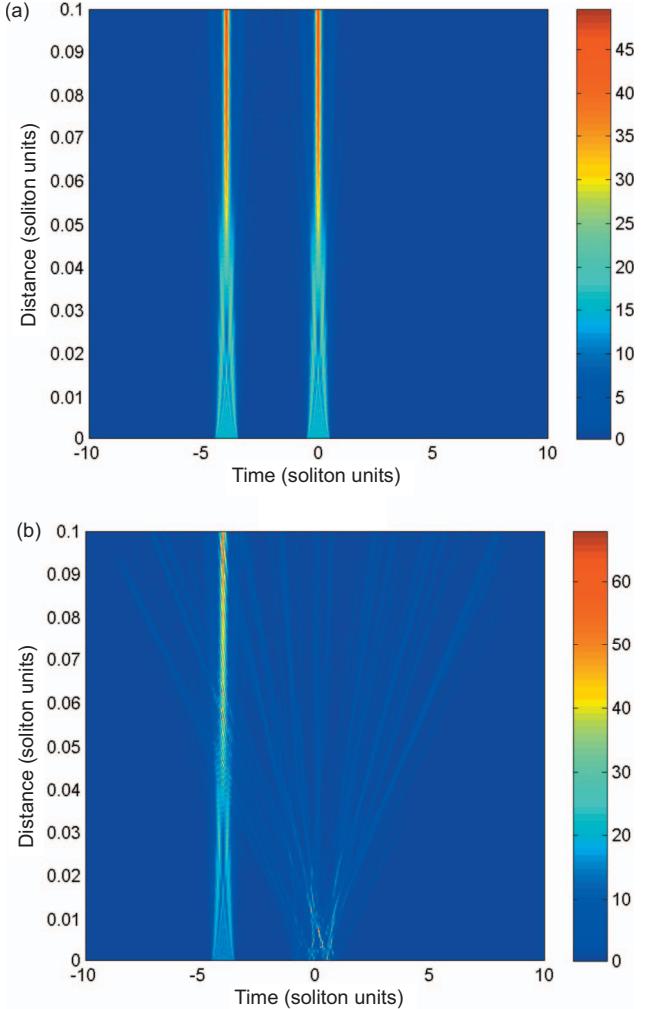


FIG. 5. (Color) Evolution of a given pattern with the real central 1 (a) and a spurious central 1 (b) of the same energy.

discriminating device will not require large fiber spans and could thus be quite portable. We would like to emphasize that Fig. 5(b) presents just a single realization of the event when a noisy background accumulates energy comparable to that of the logical 1. In other words, the proposed soliton discriminator might be particularly efficient when the system performance is limited by such fluctuations. Figure 5 illustrates that the proposed device is feasible and is capable of discriminating between coherent and noncoherent inputs even if the energies are the same and no difference would have been detected by a standard integrate-and-dump receiver.

Let us discuss now the issue of the speed of convergence of a disordered input to a final (multi)soliton state. Indeed, when analyzing a general pulse-to-soliton conversion problem there are quite a few examples when such a convergence to a final sech-shape solution is very slow (see, e.g., [21–23]). This, however, does not have a serious impact on the proposed concept of the soliton discriminator. Indeed, in order for the soliton discriminator to operate one does not have to wait until the amplitude of the emerged soliton stabilizes at a certain fixed level. It is not even required at all for the solution to stabilize at a prescribed “clean” sech shape.

The important point is to have a solution with a finite energy after the radiation has been shed—this will ensure that true logical 1's survive the transmission. The final shape of the emerging solution is not of importance for this application, it just has to be localized in the time domain. In the meantime it is desirable that a pulse of the same energy but generated from random Fourier harmonics—Eq. (1)—will simply collapse and will not give rise to any soliton state at all. And Fig. 5 illustrates just that: a ghost 1 collapses into linear radiation very quickly (and therefore will rightly be detected as zero) while the true logical 1 evolves into an asymptotic soliton state. True, the convergence in the latter case is slow, but the most important fact is that it survives and still carries enough energy to be rightly detected as 1.

Evidently, there are a number of technical issues to be resolved before any practical implementation of the proposed soliton-discriminating device can be achieved. In particular, the timing jitter of partially noncoherent signals should be accounted for in the analysis of errors. Also pattern effects and soliton interaction must be considered in any practical implementation. However, there is an important factor that makes the concept of a soliton discriminator quite feasible. All the adverse effects listed are more pronounced when the propagation distance increases (e.g., timing jitter) and cannot be neglected when propagating through distances on the order of a couple of dispersion lengths L_D . However, as

stressed earlier the soliton discriminator can operate at much smaller distances. A distance of several kilometers or even meters usually suffices, thus diminishing the majority of mentioned detrimental effects. In addition, a number of standard well-developed control techniques (modulation, optical filtering) can be applied to reduce these effects even further.

V. CONCLUSIONS

We have proposed soliton generation as a candidate technique to discriminate between coherent signals and parasitic noncoherent (or partially coherent) pulses of the same energy. The principal idea was to use lossless transmission spans (modeled by the integrable NLSE) to filter the noisy dispersive part of the solution from the emerging soliton part. Using numerical modeling, we have demonstrated the feasibility of the proposed approach. We have also determined how the average number of generated solitons is affected by the presence of noise in the partially noncoherent input signal.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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