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25th BATCH

COMPUTER AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING

International Islamic University Chittagong

COURSE CODE: CCE-4801

COURSE TITLE: Fiber Optic Communication

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Optical Fibre & Communication

Fibre optic Specification :-

Fibre optic: Cable Types:-

- Composed of one or more transparent Fibers enclosed
- protects the glass.
- The glass helps ^{light} glass to pass long distances.
- Glass is coated into two layers:-
 - Plastic gives equivalent mirror ~~reflect~~ effect & creates total internal reflection.
 - Light travels using reflection. This happens when the light hits the interface at angle larger than the critical angle.

Fibre optic Cable Types:-

⇒ Simplex:-

- A single optical Fiber.
- One way data transfer
- Available in singlemode & multimode
- Ex- TV broadcasting.

Duplex:-

⇒ Fibre optic cables with two optical fibres.

Fibers.

→ Set up side-by-side

→ Requires simultaneous, bi-directional data transfer.

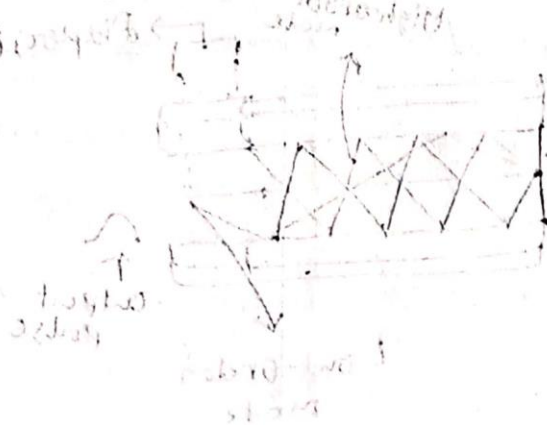
→ Duplex fiber is available in singlemode & multimode.

→ Two types:-

⇒ Half Duplex:- Data flows both direction but not simultaneously. Ex:- Walkie-Talkie

⇒ Full Duplex:- Data flows both direction simultaneously.

Ex:- phone calls.



Comparison of Multimode vs Singlemode Fiber types:

Multimode	Singlemode
① Multimode Fiber	① Singlemode Fiber
② 62.5 + Mm in core diameter.	② 8.3 μm in core diameter.
③ Cheap-light emitting diode	③ Expensive laser light.
④ Multiple path used by light.	④ Uses single path
⑤ Short distances, < 5 miles.	⑤ Long distances > 5 miles
⑥ Power distribution 100%	⑥ Power in the center of the fiber.

Multimode -

Step-Index:

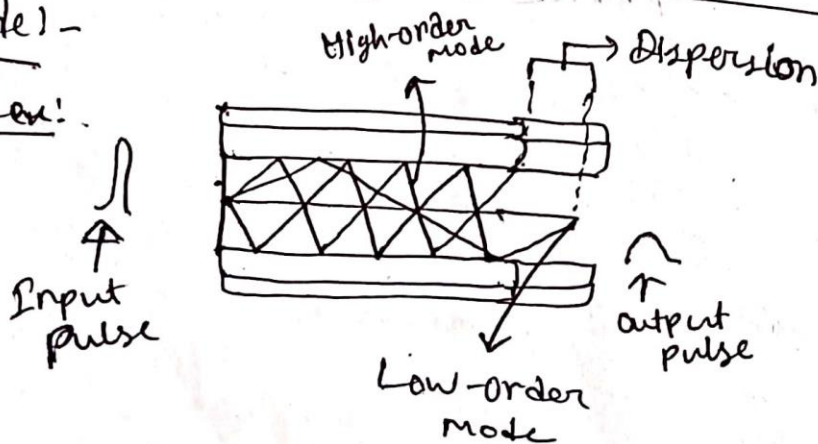
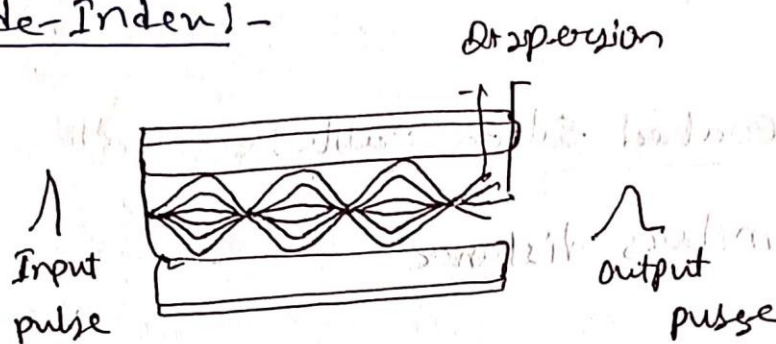
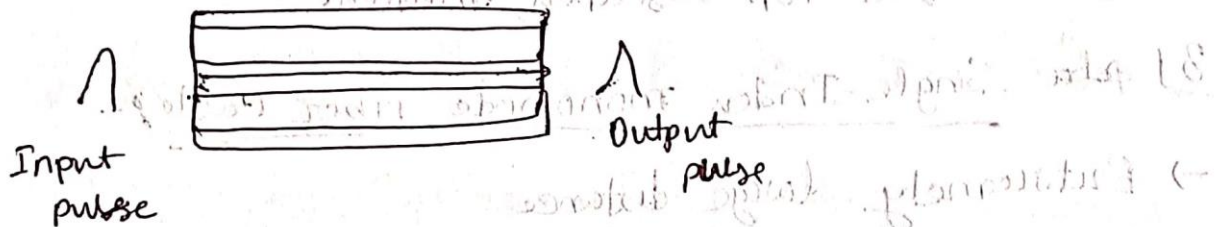


Fig. 1 - Step-Index

Graded-Index



Singlemode Step Index



Types of Fibre Fiber optic cables:-

① plastic cables:-

- Travels a few meters
- 1 mm core diameter
- Inexpensive & works with inexpensive components
- Low bandwidth. Can carry about 200 Mbit/s for a 50 m link.
- Example - Industrial drives & generators, automotive.

Types

2] Plastic-coated silica cable:-

- A few meters distance
- 1 mm
- Better than plastic cable
- Expensive
- BW:- used for research, medical

3] ~~Two~~ Single-Index monomode Fiber Cable-

- Extremely large distance
- very narrow core
- Highest BW.
- Most expensive & most difficult to handle.
- Allow for one data stream or mode

4] Step-Index multimode cable:-

- Short distances.
- Larger diameter core
- Can carry encoded data
- Don't support high BW.
- Design for LAN & light is generated with a LED.

5) Broadband-index Multimode Cable

- Longer distance than step-index
- Larger diameter
- Reduced mode dispersion & BW
- Higher cost than step-index.
- Multiple layers of glasses contain dispersion enough to provide that increases cable distances.

6) Application of Fiber Optic Cables

- Used by Telecom Companies
- Telephone signals, Internet, TV signals used this.
- Used for long distance
- Used for full transmission capacity.
- Higher Bandwidth & Low ~~cost~~ low loss transmission.

7) Huge

- ⇒ Huge cost
- Hard to install
- Doesn't use electricity.
- The glass or plastic core make it more fragile & less flexible.

Feature & Fiber optic cable maintenance

- Polarize OF. light that enters
- Operating temperature
- Metallized fibers helps in increased temperature.
- Can break any time.
- Two types of fiber optic connector applications

(i) Free connectors on a fiber optic patch cable.

(ii) Connectors plugged into patch panels.

Cleaning method:

- Dry cleaning
- wet cleaning (with Isopropyl Alcohol)
- Non Abrasive cleaning
- Abrasive

7] Fiber Optic Connect Construction & Specification

Specification:

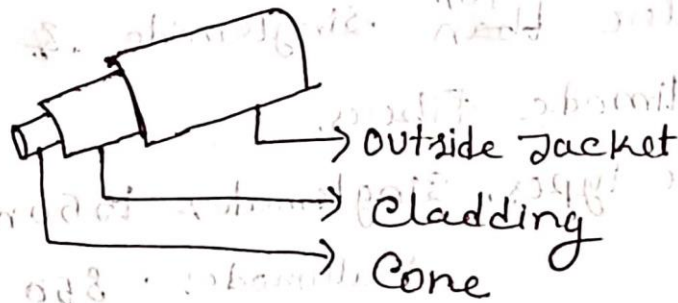


Fig:- Fiber Optic

Core:-

- Inner part of Fiber.
- Guides the light & has higher refractive index than cladding & jacket.
- Light hits at an angle & reflects back.
- The core is made from a transparent glass or plastic.
- Distance up to 100 miles.
- As the

Cladding

- Outside portion of core
- Smaller than ^{for} singlemode & larger for multimode fibers.
- Fiber types. Singlemode: - 1550 nm
Multimode: - 850 or 1300 nm.
- Diameter: - 8 to 62.5 μ m.
- Most common: - 125 μ m.

Buffer coating

- Protects inner part.
- Diameter 250 to 900 μ m.
- Provide mechanical protection.
- Flexibility.
- Made of soft, hard plastic.
- Single mode: yellow jacket.
multimode: orange "
- Cables used for outside application uses black jacket.

① Laser Diode:-

- Continuous operation.
- Modulate over a wide range of modulating freq.

② Optical Fiber Function:-

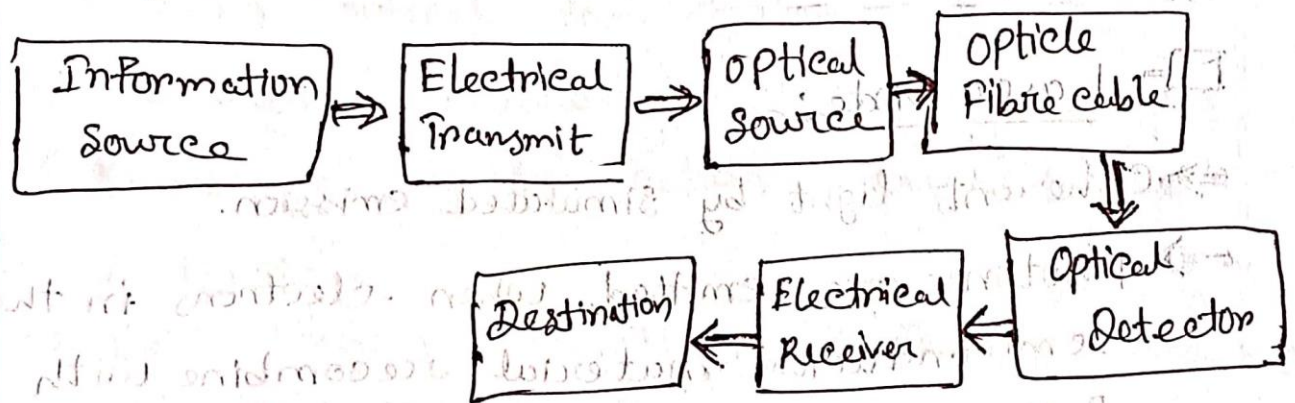


Fig 1:- Optical Fiber Function

Information Source:- provides the input electrical signal

Electrical Transmitter:- Gives modulation of light wave carrier.

Optical Source:- provide electrical to optical conversion.

Optical Fibre cable:- Used as a transmission medium to compensate for losses during transmission repeaters.



Optical Detectors:- Detects & converts optical to electrical signal. Ex:- photo diode, photo transistors.

Electrical receiver:- Receives electrical signal

Destination - The receiver.

Laser Diode:-

→ Coherent light by simulated emission.

→ Photons are emitted when electrons in the semiconductor material recombine with holes.

→ Laser diode produce intense, monochromatic light with narrow spectral BW.

2) LED (Light Emitting Diode):-

→ Emit incoherent light

→ Electrons recombine with holes in the semiconductor material.

→ Maintain principles of electroluminescence.

→ They are energy efficient.

→ Longer lifespan.

→ Have various colors.

→ Less expensive than laser diodes.

Avalanche photodiode :-

→ High gain.

→ Convert light signals into electrical signals.

→ used in optical com. system.

→ Carriers generated by incoming photons,

undergo multiplication through impact

ionization.

→ Offer higher sensitivity & faster response.

→ capable of detecting weak optical signals.

Photodiode :-

→ converts light into electrical current.

→ principles based on internal photoelectric effect.

→ ~~linear~~ offers linear response to light.

Attenuation & its class:-

Attenuation:-

Refers to the reduction in the intensity or magnitude of a signal as it propagates through medium.

A) Absorption:-

→ Energy of light absorbed by the material.

⇒ When light interact with matter, certain wavelengths of light are absorbed by the atoms or molecules in the material.

(i) Intrinsic Absorption:-

→ Occurs within the material itself.

→ This happens when light with photons of specific energies interacts with the material.

Ex:- Semiconductors.

(ii) Extrinsic Absorption:-

→ Occurs due to impurities.

→ Ex:- In doped materials.

(b) Scattering:- Refers to the process by which light or (electromagnetic) waves are redirected in different direction.

(i) Rayleigh Scattering

-> When the size of the scattering particles is much smaller than the wavelength.

(ii) Mie Scattering:- occurs when the size of the scattering particles is comparable.

Snell's law

Refractive Index,

Air = 1

Water = 1.33

Glass = 1.5

Snell's Law:- $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$

n_1 = refractive index of 1st medium

n_2 " " " 2nd "

θ_1 = Angle of incidence

θ_2 = " " " refraction.

Critical Angle:-

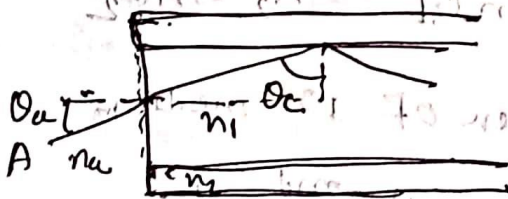
→ Minimum angle of incidence (θ_1) is progressively increased, there will be progressive increase of refractive angle (θ_2). At some condition of θ_1 the θ_2 becomes 90° . And this is called critical angle.

$$\theta_c = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1} \right) \quad \left[\sin 90^\circ = 1 \right]$$

Acceptance Angle:-

→ Light accept

The angle at which the light ray first encounters the core of an optical fiber is called acceptance angle.



Numerical Aperture:- The ability of the optical system to collect all of the light incident on it, in one area.

Attenuation, $\alpha_{dB/km} = 10 \cdot \frac{1}{z} \log \left[\frac{P(0)}{P(z)} \right]$

(Math)

① A low loss fiber has average loss of 3 dB/km at 900 nm . power decreased by 75% . Compute the length.

$\Rightarrow \frac{P(0)}{P(z)} = 0.25$ since power decrease 75%

$3 = 10 \times \frac{1}{z} \log (0.25)$

$z = 0.3 = \frac{1}{z} \log (0.25)$

$z = 2 \text{ km}$

② For a 30 km long fiber attenuation 0.8 dB/km at 1300 nm . If a 200 mW power is launched into the fiber, find the output power.

\Rightarrow we know,

$\alpha = 10 \cdot \frac{1}{z} \cdot \log \left[\frac{P(0)}{P(z)} \right]$

$\Rightarrow 0.8 = 10 \cdot \frac{1}{30} \log \left[\frac{200 \text{ mW}}{P(z)} \right]$

$\Rightarrow \log \left[\frac{200 \text{ mW}}{P(z)} \right] = \frac{0.8 \cdot 30}{10} = 2.4$

$$\left[\frac{(10)^9}{(5)^4} \right] \text{ per } \frac{1}{5} \text{ of } \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.412 = \frac{200}{P(z)} \quad (\text{NB: } \mu)$$

$$\Rightarrow 30 \times 0.8 = 10 \log \left[\frac{200}{P(z)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (10)^{2.4} = \frac{200}{P(z)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(z) = 0.796 \text{ mW} \quad (\text{Ans. Swer \# 11})$$

2) When a mean optical power ~~loss~~ launched into an 8 km length of fiber is 120 mW, the mean optical power at fiber output is 3 mW.

⇒ Determine,

Overall signal attenuation in dB. Extended question

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = 10 \log \left(\frac{P(0)}{P(z)} \right)$$

$$= 10 \times \frac{1}{8} \log \left(\frac{120}{3} \right)$$

$$= 0.952 \times 16.02 \times \frac{1}{8}$$

$$= 2.00$$

∴ Attenuation per km = 2 × 10

$$= 20 \text{ dB/km} \Rightarrow$$

Here, Extended part

$$P(z) = P(0) \cdot e^{-\alpha \cdot z} \cdot P^2$$

In 10 km link there will be 9 splices at 4 km intervals

$$\text{attenuation} = \left[\frac{0.21}{1010} \right] \text{ per splice} = 1.8 \text{ dB}$$

$$\text{So, total attenuation} = 20 + 9 = 29 \text{ dB}$$

③ Optical power launched into Fiber at transmitter end

is 150 MW . The power at the end of $\frac{10 \text{ km}}{2}$

length of the link working in (First window is

-38.2 dBm) (Another system of same length working

in second window is 47.5 MW) (Same length system

working in third window has 50% launched power)

Calculate Fiber attenuation for each case & mention wavelength of operation.

=> Given,

$$P(0) = 150 \text{ MW} \text{ [Input]}$$

$$z = 10 \text{ km}$$

$$\alpha = -38.2 \text{ dBm}$$

$$P(z) \alpha = 10 \frac{1}{2} \log \left[\frac{P(0)}{P(z)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow -38.2 = 10 \frac{1}{2} \log \left[\frac{150}{P(z)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow -38.2 = \log \left(\frac{150}{P(z)} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow -38.2 = 10 \log \frac{P(z)}{1 \text{ mW}} = 0.151 \text{ MW}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cdot 151 \rightarrow \frac{151 \times 100}{50} \\
 & \cdot 1 \rightarrow \frac{1 \times 100}{50}
 \end{aligned}$$

1st window:-

$$\alpha_1 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{0.151} \right] = 2.99 \text{ dB/km}$$

2nd window:-

$$\alpha_2 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{47.5} \right] = 0.499 \text{ dB/km}$$

3rd window:-

$$\alpha_3 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{75} \right] = 0.30 \text{ dB/km}$$

In rare medium incidence angle is 30°
 & denser medium angle is 19.5°. Calculate reflective index.

→ θ_1 in rare medium = 30°

θ_2 " " " = 19.5°

Assuming, air as the rarer medium, $n_1 = 1$

we know,

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$

$$n_2 = \frac{n_1 \sin(\theta_1)}{\sin(\theta_2)} = \frac{1 \times \sin(30^\circ)}{\sin(19.5^\circ)}$$

Refractive Index

Air = 1
 Water = 1.3
 Glass = 1.5

$$\left(\frac{(1.5) \sin 30^\circ}{(1)} \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sin 30^\circ}$$

$$= 1.497$$

$$\approx 1.50$$

(Ans.)

Q) Light passes from air into glass at an angle of 50° , find the angle of refraction.

⇒ Here,
 $n_1 = 1$

$n_2 = 1.5$

$\theta_1 = 50^\circ$

$\theta_2 = ?$

We know,

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_2 = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{n_1 \sin \theta_1}{n_2} \right)$$

(FIBER OPTICAL)

1] Error sources in Fiber optical

In Fiber optic communication systems, errors can arise from various sources. Identifying & understanding these sources is crucial for optimizing performance & maintaining signal integrity.

There are couple of error sources. These are-

1) Shot Noise :-

→ Discrete nature of current flow in electric

devices results from the random arrival state of

→ Results from the random arrival state of signal photons at the photodetector.

2) Thermal Noise :-

→ Originates from the random motion of electrons in a conductor

→ Affects applications with low signal-to-noise ratios when using a PIN photodiode.

3) Quantum Noise :-

→ Form of shot noise, dependent on the signal level

→ Significant for PIN receivers with large optical input levels, & for APD receiver due to the statistical nature of APDs.

(FIBER OPTICAL)

4) Intersymbol Interference (ISI)

→ Caused by pulse spreading in the optical fiber

5) Avalanche Multiplication Noise

→ Occurs in APD receivers

→ Arises from the statistical nature of the avalanche multiplication process

6) Poisson Noise

→ Related to the primary photocurrent generated by the photodiode.

→ The number of electron hole pairs generated fluctuates according to a Poisson distribution.

7) Excess Noise Factor

→ It varies with the photodiode material & gain.

8) Amplifier Noise

→ Form of shot noise dependent on the signal level
→ Significant for PIN receivers with large optical input levels & for APD receivers due to the statistical nature of APD

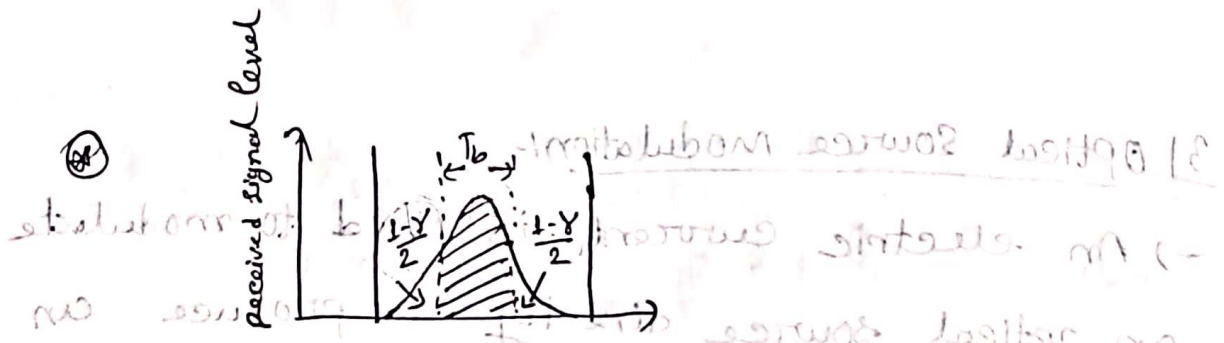


Fig:- pulse spreading in an optical signal that leads to ISI.

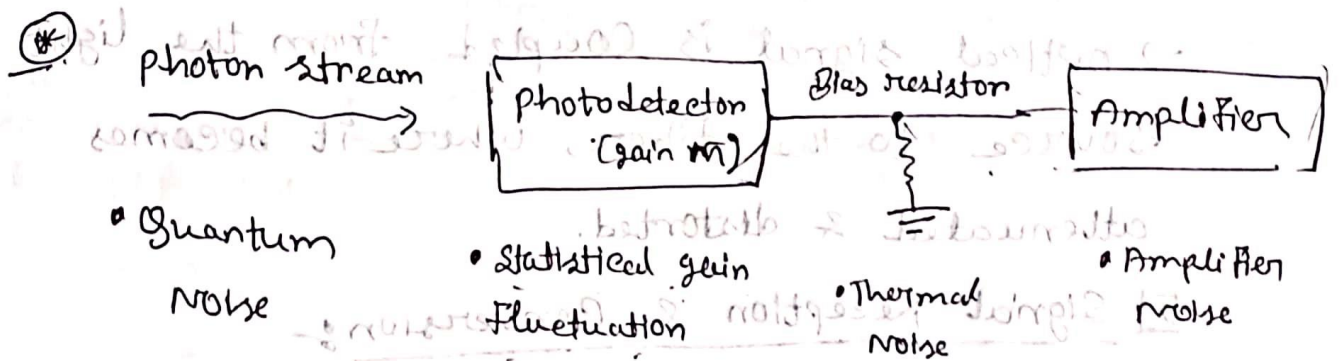


Fig:- Noise sources & disturbances in optical pulse.

Digital Signal Transmission:-

1] Binary Data Stream:-

Transmitted signal is a two level binary data stream. 0 or a 1

2] Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK):-

→ simplest technique to send binary data.

→ A voltage level is switched between on = 1 or off = 0.

3) Optical Source Modulation-

→ An electric current is used to modulate an optical source directly to produce an optical output power.

4) Propagation & Attenuation

→ Optical signal is coupled from the light source to the fiber, where it becomes attenuated & distorted.

5) Signal Reception & Conversion

→ Upon reaching the receiver, either a PIN photodiode or an avalanche photodiode (APD) converts the optical signal back to an electrical format.

6) Decision Circuitry

→ A decision circuit compares the amplified signal in each time slot with a threshold level.

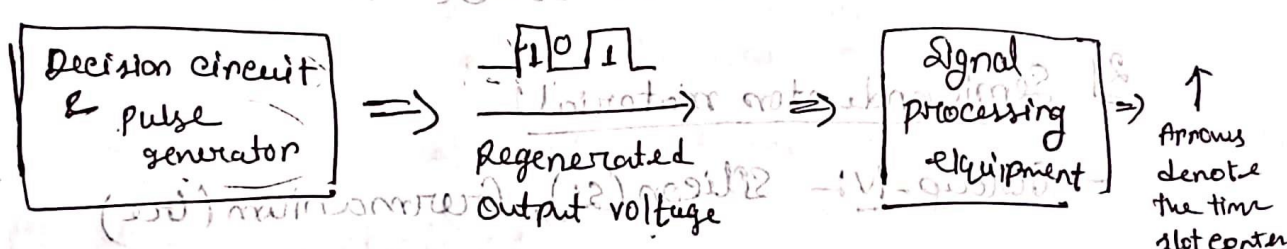
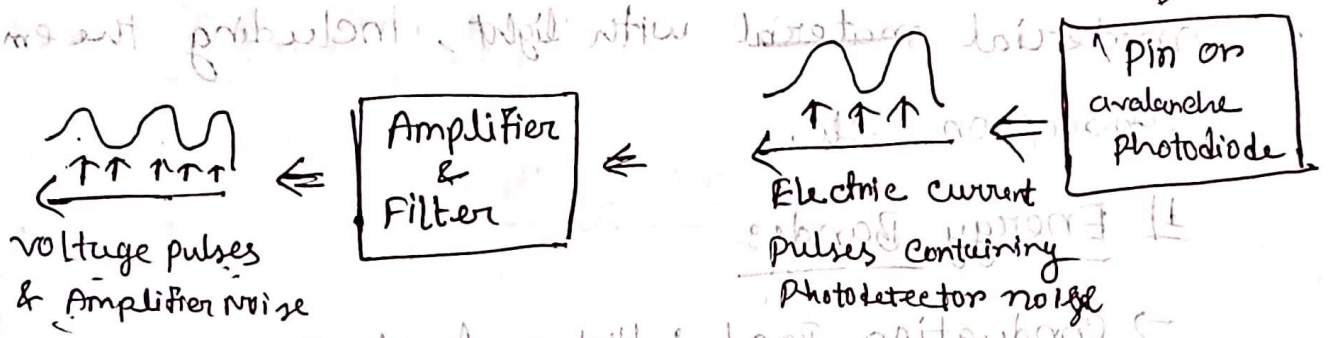
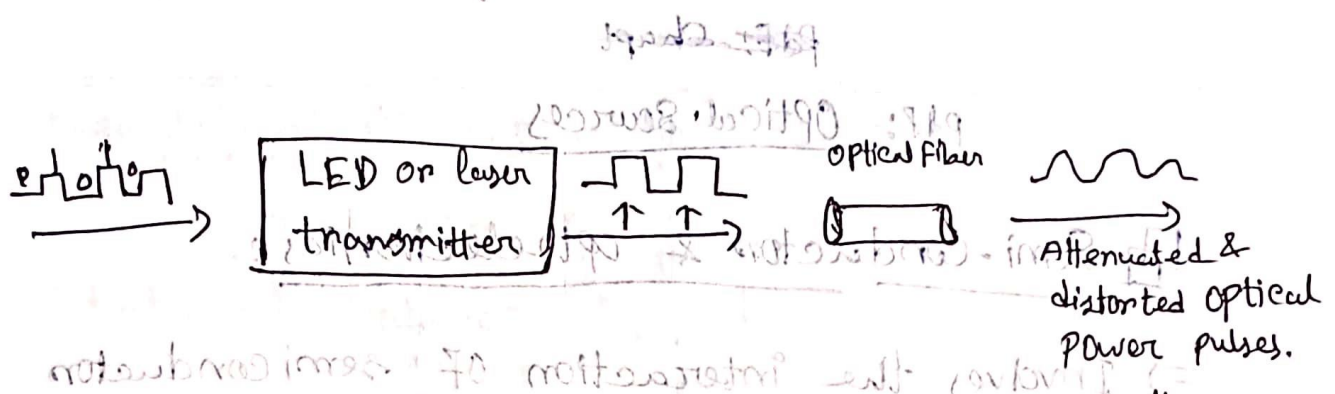


Fig: - Digital Signal Transmission

PAP:- Optical Sources

1] Semi-conductor & opto-electronics :-

=> Involves the interaction of semiconductor

material with light, including the emission, absorption etc.

1] Energy Bands :-

-> Conduction Band :- Higher level energy

-> Valence Band :- Lower energy

2] Semiconductor material :-

-> Group-IV :- Silicon (Si), Germanium (Ge)

-> Group III-V :- Gallium-Arsenide (GaAs)

3] Optical Sources :-

• LED (Light Emitting Diode) :-

-> Emit coherent light

-> Broad spectral width

-> Commonly used in multimode system

• LD (Laser Diodes) :-

->

4) Modulation of optical sources

- Direct modulation:-
- External modulation

□ SLEDs & ELEDs:-

SLEDs (Surface Emitting LEDs):-

① Structure:-

- Primary region is small circular area
- Active region has a diameter of 20-50 μm & thickness of up to 2.5 μm .

② Emission characteristic:-

- ~~Isotropic~~ Isotropic emission. It radiates light in all directions.

③ Coupling to optical fiber:-

- A well is etched in the substrate.
- Emission area of the substrate is perpendicular to the axis of the optical fiber.

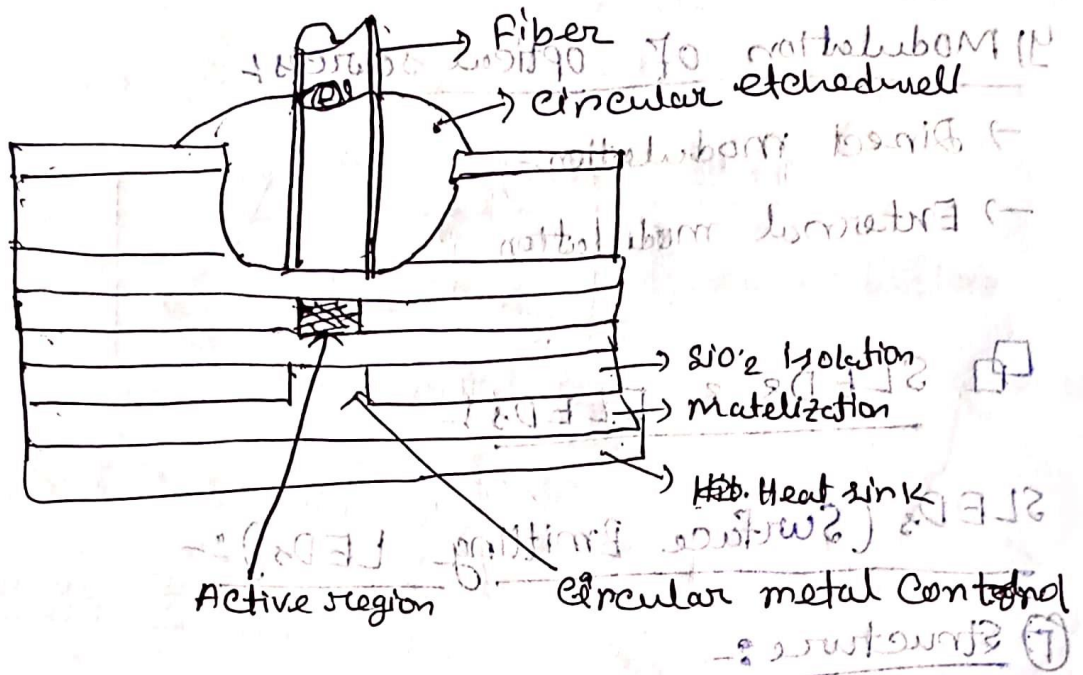


Fig. - SLEDs

Edge Emitting LED (ELEDs):

① Structure:

→ The semiconductor is cut & polished so the emission strip region runs between the front & back of the device.

② Emission characteristic:

→ rear face of the semiconductor is polished
 → front face is coated with anti reflective material, allowing light to reflect from the rear face

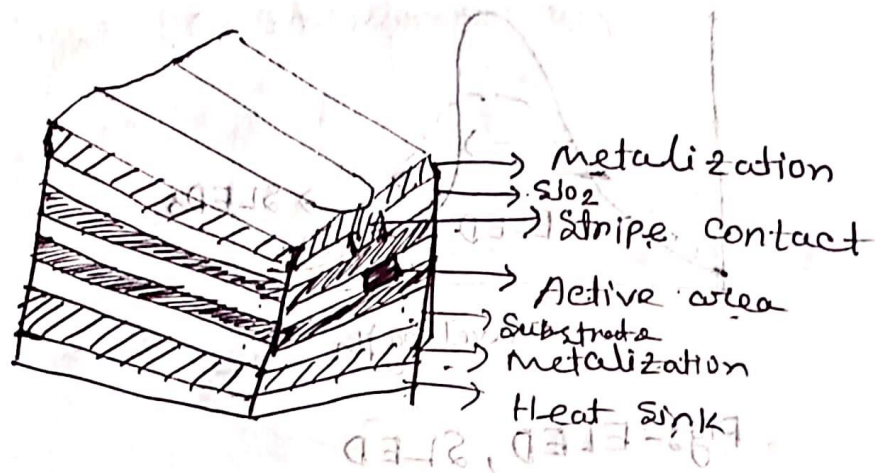


Fig:- ELEDs

Comparison:-

① Emission Pattern:-

- SLEDs emit light in Lambertian pattern.
- ELEDs " " in narrower angle.

② Coupling Efficiency:-

- SLEDs directly binding the fiber to the substrate with an epoxy resin.
- ELEDs are designed with a reflective rear face & anti reflective front face.

③ Applications:-

- SLEDs are suitable for application requiring broad, uniform light distribution.
- ~~SLEDs~~ ELEDs for needing high efficiency.

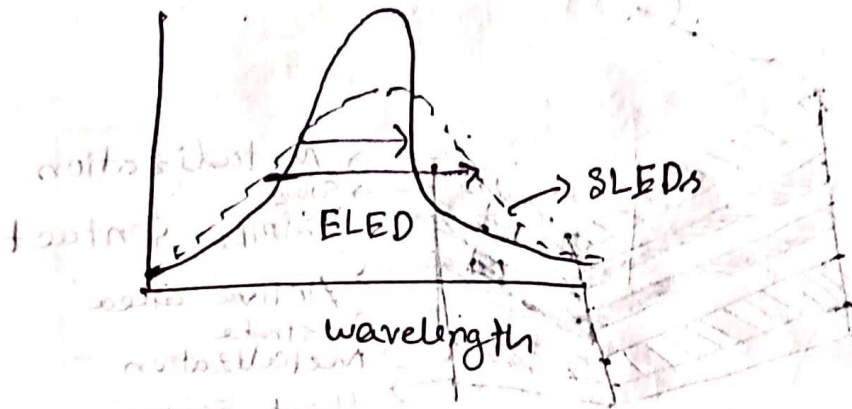


Fig. - ELED, SLED

☐ Photon Emission Type:-

① Spontaneous Emission:-

→ When an electron in an excited state spontaneously

→ Emitted photons are random in phase & direction.

→ Type of emission is dominant in LED.

② Stimulated Emission:-

→ Happens when an incoming photon causes an electron to fall to a lower energy state, emitting a second photon.

→ Fundamental to the operation of laser diode (LDs).

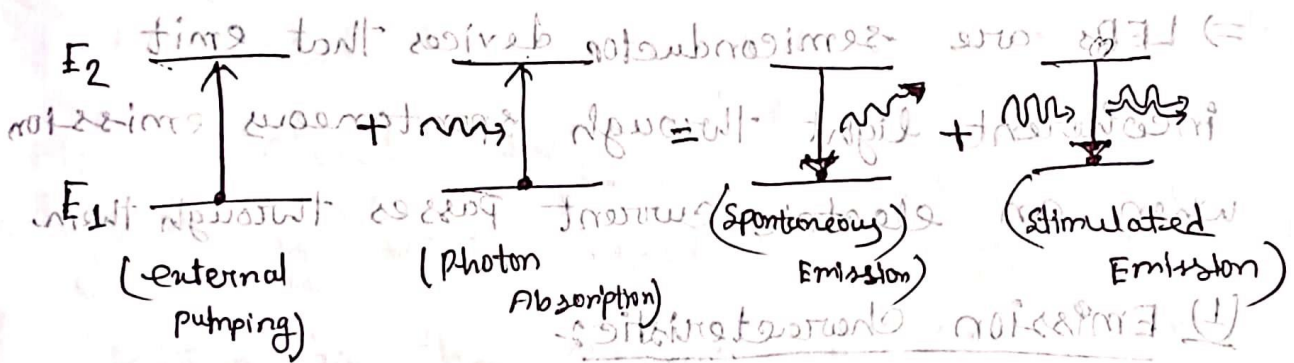
Basic Light Emission process

i) Pumping:-

- Creating more electron-hole pairs
- Can be done electrically or optically.

ii) Emission:-

- Recombination of electron-hole pairs.
- Includes both spontaneous & stimulated emission.



Direct & Indirect Material

(i) Direct material:-

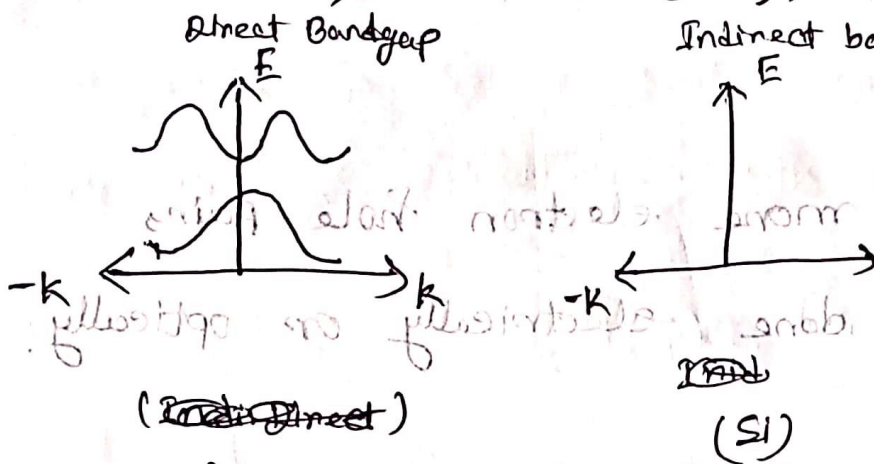
- Minimum of the conduction bands directly above the maximum of the valence band.

- Photon emission occurs without a change in momentum. Ex: → GaAs, InP

(ii) Indirect material:-

- Require a change in momentum for electron-hole recombination.

→ Silicon (Si), Germanium (Ge), ↳ Band light



↳ Recombination of electron-hole pairs

↳ Light Emitting Diode

⇒ LEDs are semiconductor devices that emit incoherent light through spontaneous emission when an electric current passes through them

(1) Emission Characteristics

- Emits incoherent light
- used in multimode system with data rates of 100-200 Mbs.

→ Has broad spectral width & a wide output pattern.

(2) Material & Wavelengths

① 850 nm region, materials like GaAs & AlGaAs.

② 1300-1550 nm - materials like InGaAsP & InP.

3) Types of LED:- (i) SLEDs

(ii) ELEDs

(4) Performance requirements:-

→ For Fiber optic LEDs should have high radiance.

→ Device can be double or single hetero-structure

5) Hetero Junction [LED Structure]:-

→ Advanced design to reduce diffraction loss

in optical cavity.

→ It is lightly doped with p-type material,

which has the highest index of refraction, creating a light pipe effect that confines

the layer's light to the active region.

6) Quantum Efficiency:-

(i) Internal efficiency, Ratio between the radiative

recombination rate & the sum of radiative & non-radiative recombination rates.

$$\eta_{int} = R_r / (R_r + R_{nr})$$

(ii) External efficiency:-

Depends on the Fresnel Transmission Coefficient
For air & specific design of LED.

$$\text{Fresnel Coefficient: } T(\theta) = \frac{4n_1n_2}{(n_1+n_2)^2}$$

External efficiency for air:-

$$\eta_{\text{ext}} = \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$$

Lasering operation:-

→ Lasering operation in lasers involves several key concepts & processes that are crucial for the generation & amplification of light.

(i) Population Inversion

⇒ In thermal equilibrium, the density of electrons in the excited state is very small.

But for lasing to occur the excited state electrons must exceed that of the ground state, a condition known as population inversion.

$$N_E > N_G$$

$$\left(\frac{n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right) > \left(\frac{n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \right)$$

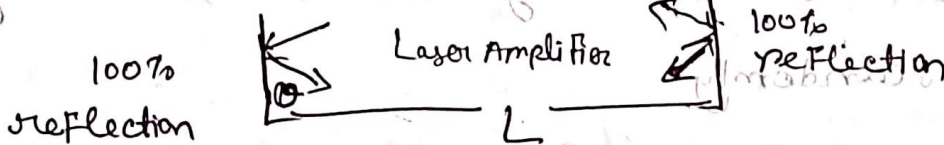
Heterojunction devices are made by joining two semiconductors with different energy band structures.

(2) Laser Diode Mode & Threshold Conditions:

⇒ Most laser diode are multilayered heterojunction devices where stimulated emission arises from optical transitions between energy states in the valance & conduction bands.

→ The radiation in the laser diode is generated within a Fabry-Perot resonator cavity.

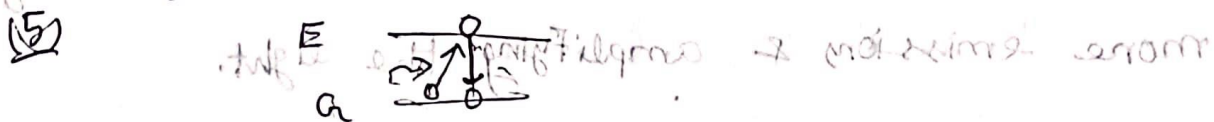
→ A pair of flat, partially reflected mirrors are directed toward each other to enclose the cavity.



(3) Stimulated Emission:

- Absorption
- Spontaneous Emission
- Stimulated Emission

(4) Lasing condition: Happens when gain of one or several guided modes exceeds the optical loss during one roundtrip.



How a laser works

→ A laser (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation) operates based on the principles of stimulated emission & population inversion within a resonant optical cavity.

Steps of laser operation:

(1) pumping: Energy is supplied to the laser medium to excite electrons.

(2) Spontaneous Emission:

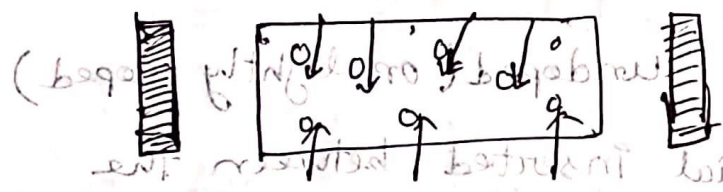
Some excited electrons will spontaneously fall back to the ground state, emitting photons randomly.

(3) Stimulated emission:

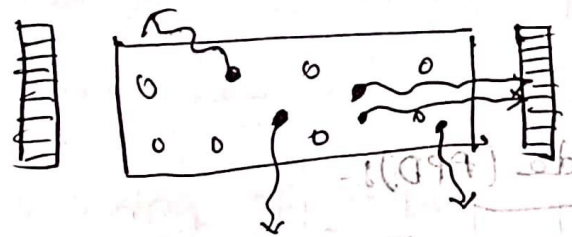
→ Photons emitted from spontaneous emission or from external sources stimulate other excited electrons.

(4) Photon amplification: The emitted photons are reflected back & forth between the mirrors of the optical resonator, stimulating more emissions & amplifying the light.

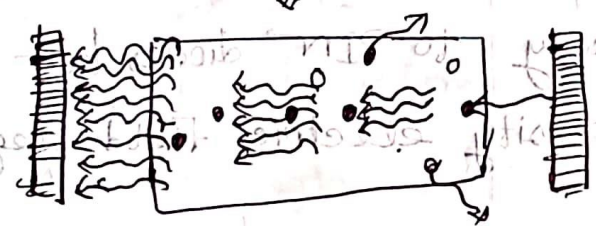
(5) Laser output - The partially reflected mirror allows some of the amplified light to escape.



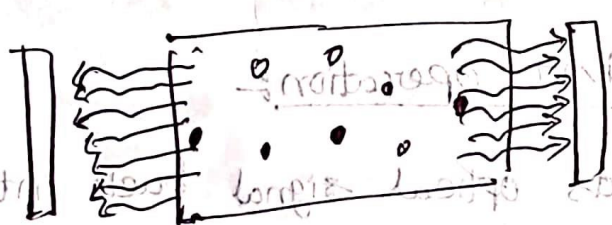
=> pump on
o = atoms in excited state



=> Spontaneous emission & some stimulated emission



=> stimulated emission of light along the laser axis



=> Steady State laser operation.

Fig. 1 - How a laser works. A laser generates a corresponding electrical current through a photodiode.

The optical signal is modulated to represent

pdpa - Fiber optical communication

Optical Detector & Receiver:

Optical Detectors:-

(i) PIN Diode

⇒ A PIN Diode is a P-N junction with an intrinsic layer of undoped (or lightly doped) semiconductor material inserted between the

P & n regions.

(ii) Avalanche photodiode (APD):-

→ APDs operate similarly to PIN diodes but include a high intensity electric field region.

Optical Receiver:-

(i) Fundamental Receiver operation:-

→ Optical receiver converts optical signal back into electrical signals.

→ A photodetector receives the optical signal & generates a corresponding electrical current

(ii) Digital Signal Transmission:-

→ The optical signal is modulated to represent 0, 1.

(iii) Error Source

→ Many errors are showed up during

transmission.

(iv) Receiver Configuration:-

→ Receiver design involves appropriate photodetectors, amplifiers, signal processing unit.

→ Configuration aims to maximize the sensitivity & accuracy of the receiver.

Working of APD

→ It has high intensity electric field region

→ In this region electron hole-pairs are generated by the incident photons.

→ The physical phenomenon behind the internal current gain is known as impact ionization.

→ The impact ionization leads to avalanche breakdown.

→ Generation of more than one electron-hole pair

from incident photon is referred to as avalanche effect.

→ Avalanche multiplication results in amplification of photodiode current.

(Note: Avalanche multiplication is a non-linear process.)

Comparison of PIN Diode & APD

PIN Diode	APD (Avalanche Photodiode)
① Does not have high intensity electric field region.	① Has high intensity electric field region.
② Responsivity of PIN is limited.	② Responsivity of APD can have much larger values.
③ They exhibit lower noise levels.	③ Exhibits higher noise levels.
④ Response time half of APD.	④ Response time is double than PIN.

Optical Receiver Design: (Diagram of Digital Signal Transmission)

- ⇒ Design includes a photodetector (like PIN/APD)
- converts optical signals into electrical signals.
- = - - (Same as Digital Signal Transmission)

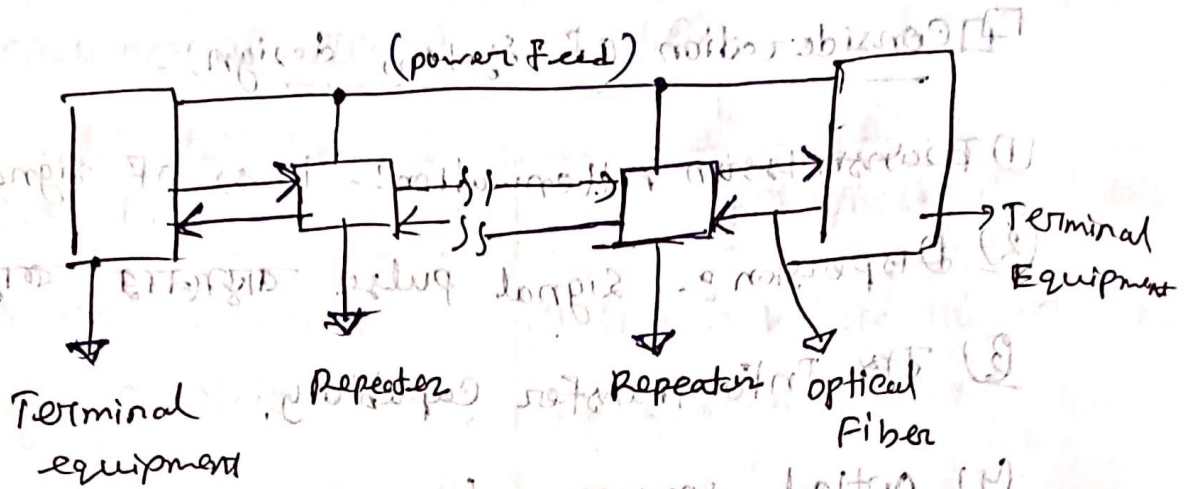


Fig: Repeater in long haul com-system

Multiplexing

→ It is a technique used in optical communication to combine multiple signals for transmission over a single fiber optic cable.

There are many types of multiplexing.

(1) TDM (Time Division Multiplexing)

→ Divides the time into slots, each allocated to a different signal.

(2) WDM (Wavelength Division Multiplexing)

→ Uses different wavelengths of light to carry different signals.

(3) FDM (Frequency)

→ Each signal a unique frequency.

Optical Communication System Architecture

(1) point to point Architecture - Directly connects two locations.

Components:-

- (i) Transmitter
- (ii) Optical Fiber
- (iii) Receiver

Advantages:-

- High bandwidth & low latency
- Simple & straightforward design.

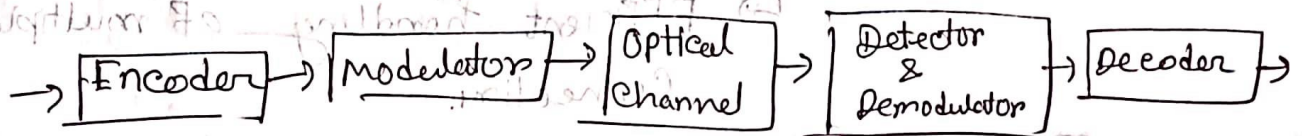


Fig: point to point

(2) Distributed Architecture

→ Multiple nodes are connected

Component:-

- (1) Transmitter
- (2) receiver
- (3) optical splitters
- (4) couplers
- (5) Amplifier

Advantages

- Flexible in network design.
- Scalability, to add more nodes

(3) Local Area Networks (LAN)

→ multiple devices within a localized area are connected, usually within a building or campus.

Components:- (i) Transceiver

(ii) Optical switches

(iii) Hubs

(iv) Fiber optical cables.

Advantages:-

→ High Speed data transfer

→ Efficient handling of multiple connections

→ Need of WDM:- (wavelength Division Multiplexing)

→ Increased Capacity:- Allows multiple channel data channels to be transmitted simultaneously

→ Scalability:- Can easily add more channels

→ Flexibility:- Supports a mix of different data rates.

CWDM vs DWDM:-

CWDM:-

- Coarse wavelength Division Multiplexing
- Typically spans from 1270 nm to 1610 nm
- wider spacing of 20 nm
- Supports upto 18 channels within the standard

CWDM range:

→ used in MAN

DWDM:-

→ Dense wavelength Division Multiplexing

→ Operates in the C-band (1525 nm to 1565 nm)

→ Much narrower spacing (0.8 nm, 0.4 nm)

→ Can support up to 80 or more

→ used in ~~MAN~~ Trunk network.

Howling Dog Analogy:-

⇒ A simple & illustrative way to explain the concept of optical amplification.

Optical Amplification:-

(i) Signal Transmission:- दूरकृत पावर का प्रसारण को बिना बिना

मात्र, दूरकृत पावर sound के रूप में।

(ii) Signal Attenuation:- दूरकृत पावर दूरकृत पावर Obstacles कारण

power कम हो जाता। Similarly optical signal के loss हो as it travels through fiber

(iii) Amplification Concept :-

=> কুকুরের ডাক দূর হলে জানার জন্য কুকুর ডাককে নির্দিষ্ট ক্ষমতা হতে পূরণ করার দিতে হবে। যেহেতু যার Amplifiers এতে represent করে। power বাড়ানোর জন্য।

(iv) Repeater Dogs :-

=> প্রতিটি কুকুর অন্য কুকুরের sound, তাদের যখন আমরা পর ~~কিছু~~ একত্রে থাকে তার ফলে তাদের ^{সমস্ত} strength এ থাকে, original sound এর মতো।

In optical communication EDFA's are like these

repeater dogs

Key points :-

- ① Maintaining signal strength (Repeater part)
- ② NO conversion needed (Dogs simply repeat howl without changing the original)
- ③ position of amplifiers

Optical Amplification

① Signal transmission length

② Signal attenuation

③ Power loss through fiber

7] Topology

(1) Point to Point:- Direct connection between two nodes.

A:-
→ Easy to install & manage
→ High bandwidth & low latency.

D:-
→ Limited scalability
→ Connection fail? communication is disrupted.

(2) Star Topology:- All nodes are connected to a central hub or switch.

A:-
→ Easy to add or remove
→ Centralized management.

D:-
→ Central hub is a single point of failure
→ Higher cabling cost.

(3) Ring Topology

⇒ Each node is connected to two other nodes.

→ Used in MANs, LANs

→ ~~Can~~ Data travel in both directions.

→ One link failure leads to outage.

→ Higher latency.

→ More complex.



Mesh Topology - Every node connected with each other

A2 Used in backbone networks
→ Extremely fault tolerant

→ High availability, redundancy

D1 → High cabling

→ High cost

→ Complex configuration

B1 Bus Topology

⇒ All nodes share a single communication line.

→ ^{uses m} Small networks

A2 → Easy to install

→ Requires less cabling

D2 → A failure in the main cable stops all
→ Limited cable length

C1 Tree Topology -> Combining characteristics of star & bus topologies.

→ Uses in large networks. (University & similar)

A1 → Hierarchical structure

→ Easy to manage.

D2 → Backbone line fails entire network fails

→ more complex cabling.

3] Hybrid Topology - combination of two or more different topologies.

→ large & complex networks

→ Flexible

→ Combines the strength of different topologies



→ Management & troubleshooting challenging

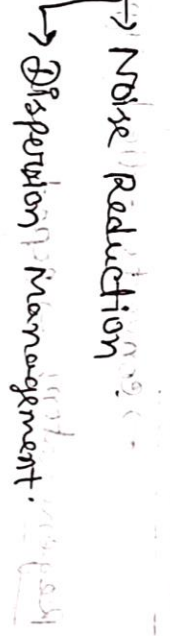
Need of modulation

→ modulation a technique to encode information

onto a carrier wave for transmission.

(1) Efficient use of BW.

(2) Signal Integrity



(3) Long Distance Transmission

(4) Compatibility with Digital System

(5) Multiplexing

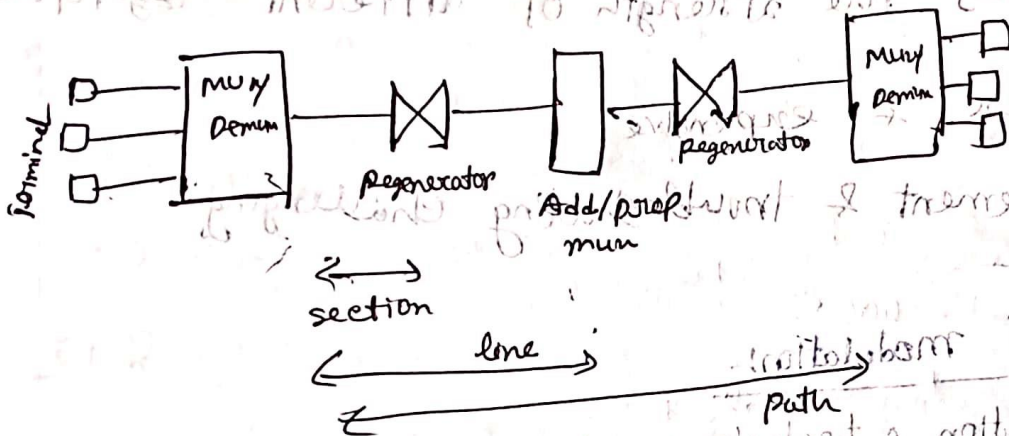
(6) Security

(7) Faster transmission

→ carrier wave for transmission and modulation

SONET:-

Synchronous optical Network (SONET) is a standardized protocols that transfers multiple digital bit streams over optical fiber using laser or LEDs.



STS Multiplexers:-

→ Converts electrical signals to optical signal

STS Demux:-

→ converts optical signal to electrical signal

Regenerator:- → Repeater

Add/Drop:- Add signal coming from different sources.

SONET Layers:-

① path Layer:-

→ Optical source to destination (responsible for the movement of signal).

② Line Layer:-

→ Responsible for the movement of signal across a

Wrote

Physical link

Section layer

→ Responsible for the movement of signal across a physical section.

Photonic layer

→ Corresponds to the physical layer of the OSI model

model

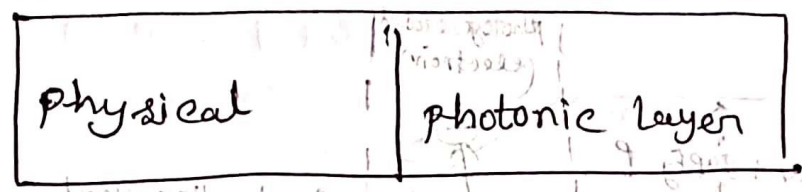
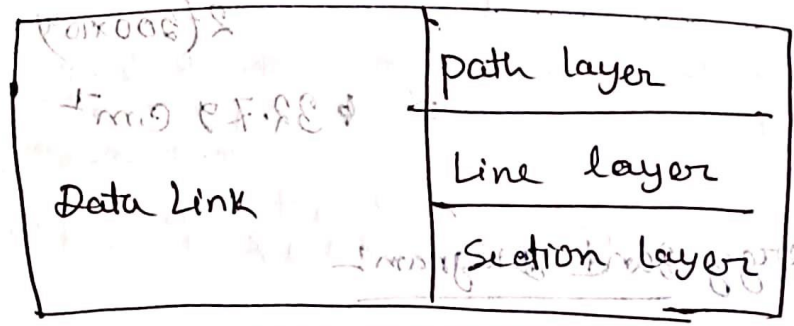


Fig: - layer

math

Find the optical ~~value~~ gain at threshold of a ~~HeNe~~ laser diode having following parametric values.

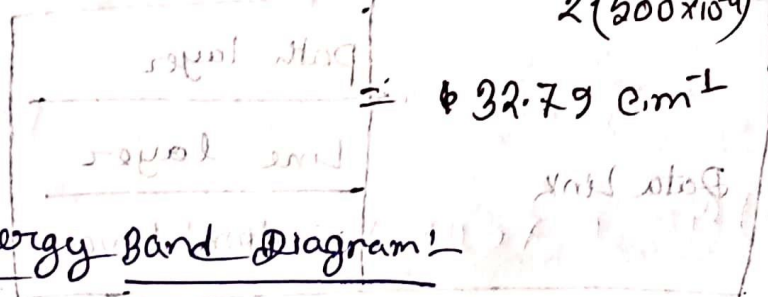
$R_1 = R_2 = 0.32$

$\alpha = 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

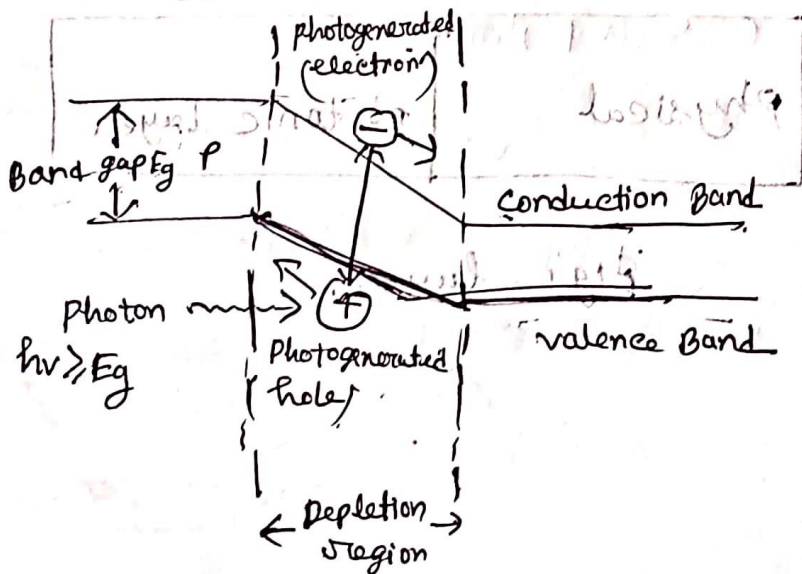
$L = 500 \mu\text{m} = 500 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$

\Rightarrow we know, $\Gamma g_{th} = \alpha = \alpha + \frac{1}{2L} \ln \left(\frac{1}{R_1 \cdot R_2} \right)$

$= 10 + \frac{1}{2(500 \times 10^{-4})} \ln \left(\frac{1}{0.32 \times 0.32} \right)$



Energy Band Diagram



Photodetector Noise & S/N

⇒ Detection of weak optical signal requires that

the photodetector & its following amplification circuitry be optimized for desired signal to noise ratio.

→ The minimum detectable optical power defines the sensitivity of photodetector.

$$S/N = \frac{\text{Signal power from photo current}}{\text{photodetector noise power} + \text{Amplifier noise power}}$$

⇒ Compute the emitted wavelength from an optical

source having $n = 0.07$. $E_g = 1.424 + 1.266n + 0.266n^2$

⇒ Here, $n = 0.07$

$$E_g = 1.424 + 1.266n + 0.266n^2$$

$$E_g = 1.424 + 1.266 \times 0.07 + 0.266 (0.07)^2$$

$$= 1.513 \text{ eV}$$

$$h_c = 6.625 \times 10^{-34}$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8$$

$$\lambda_c = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

now,

$$\lambda_c = \frac{hc}{E_g} = \frac{1.24}{1.513} = 0.819 \text{ nm}$$

For an alloy with the quaternary alloy composition $x=0.26$ & $y=0.57$ it is found that, Find the wavelength

$$\Rightarrow x = 0.26 \quad \& \quad y = 0.57$$

$$E_g = 1.35 - 0.72y + 0.12y^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{using, } E_g = 1.35 - 0.72y + 0.12y^2$$

$$= 1.35 - 0.72 \times 0.57 + 0.12(0.57)^2$$

$$= 1.35 - 0.4104 + 0.0389$$

$$= 0.978 \text{ eV}$$

$$\lambda_c = \frac{hc}{E_g} = \frac{1.24}{0.978} = 1.267 \text{ nm}$$

Q. The radiative & non radiative recombination life times of minority carriers, in the active region of a double heterojunction LED are 60 nsec & 90 nsec respectively. Determine the total carrier recombination life time & optical power generated internally if the peak emission wavelength is 870 nm & the drive current is 40 mA

⇒ Here,

$$\lambda = 870 \text{ nm} = 870 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$\tau_r = 60 \text{ nsec}$$

$$\tau_{nr} = 90 \text{ nsec}$$

$$I = 40 \text{ mA} = 0.04 \text{ Amp}$$

① Total carrier recombination lifetime

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\tau} &= \frac{1}{\tau_r} + \frac{1}{\tau_{nr}} \\ &= \frac{1}{60} + \frac{1}{90} = 0.022 \quad \tau = 36 \end{aligned}$$

② We know, internal optical power,

$$P_{int} = \frac{h \cdot c \cdot I}{q \cdot \lambda}$$

$$\tau_{nr} = \frac{\tau_r \tau_{nr}}{\tau_r + \tau_{nr}} = \frac{(30 \text{ ns})(100 \text{ ns})}{30 \text{ ns} + 100 \text{ ns}} = 23.076 \text{ ns}$$

Q1) A double hetero junction InGaAsP LED operating at 1310 nm has radiative & non-radiative recombination times of 30 & 100 ns respectively. The current injected is 40 mA.

Calculate - Bulk recombination life time, Internal quantum efficiency, internal power level.

⇒ Here,

$$\lambda = 1310 \text{ nm} = 1.31 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$\tau_r = 30 \text{ ns}$$

$$\tau_{nr} = 100 \text{ ns}$$

$$(i) I = 40 \text{ mA} = 0.04 \text{ Amp}$$

(ii) Bulk recombination :

$$\eta_{int} = \frac{\tau_r}{\tau_r + \tau_{nr}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau_r} + \frac{1}{\tau_{nr}} = \frac{1}{30} + \frac{1}{100} = \frac{10 + 3}{300} = \frac{13}{300}$$

$$\therefore \tau = 23.076 \text{ ns}$$

$$\therefore \eta_{int} = \frac{23.076}{30} = 0.7692$$

(ii) Internal quantum efficiency

$$\eta_{int} = \frac{23.07}{30} = 0.7692$$

→ For the movement of hole in valence band (light emission) →

→ For the movement of electron in conduction band (light emission) →

→ For the movement of hole in valence band (light emission) →

→ For the movement of electron in conduction band (light emission) →