



Page NO.

1. 1 to 57 – Mid Term + Final Term
- 2.

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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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Fibre optic Specification :-

Fibre optic Cable Types:-

- Composed of one or more transparent fibers enclosed.
- Protects the glass.
- The glass helps light 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:-

⇒ Simplen:-

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

Duplex - ~~It's mostly about path & wavelength~~

→ Fiber optic cables with two optical fibers.

→ Set up side-by-side

→ Requires simultaneous, bi-directional data transfer.

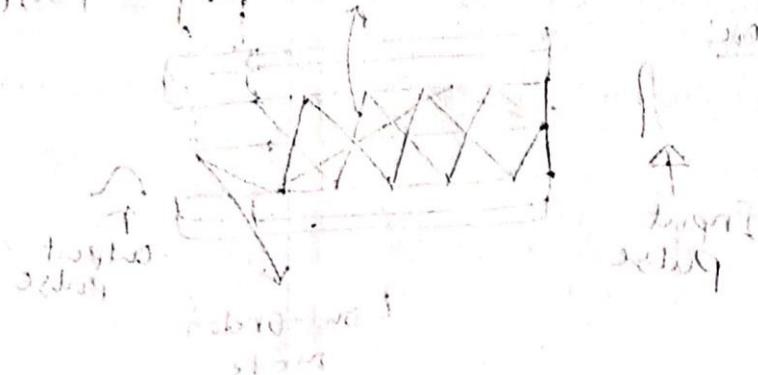
→ Duplex fiber is available in singlemode & multimode.

→ Two types:-

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

⇒ Full-Duplex - Data flows both direction simultaneously.

Ex:- phone calls.



Multimode vs. Singlemode Fiber types

Multimode	Singlemode
① Multimode Fiber	① Singlemode Fiber
② 62.5 + 14μm in Core diagram.	② 8.3 μm ² in Core diagram.
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:

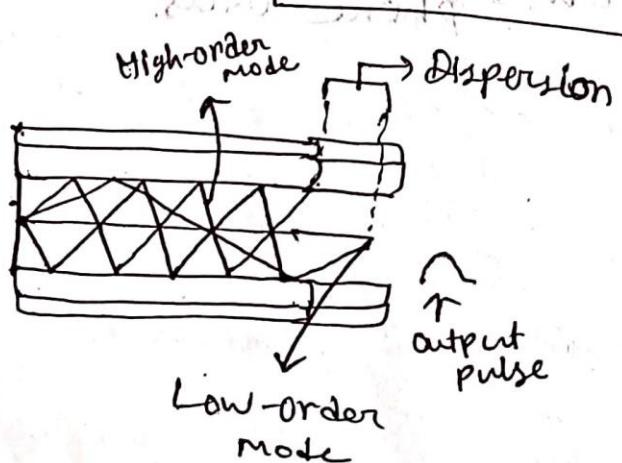
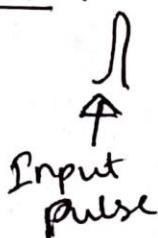
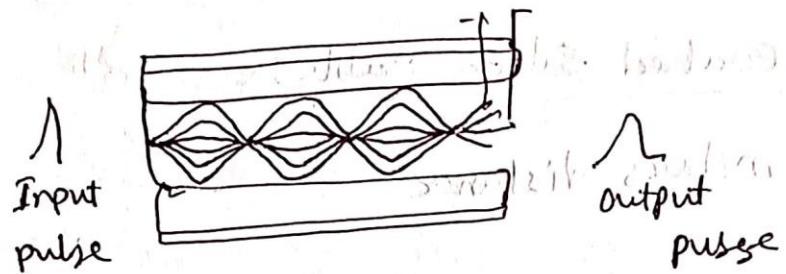


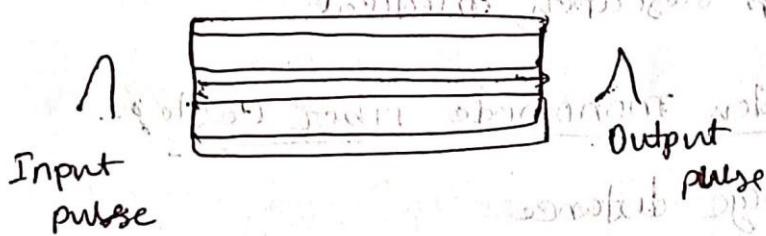
Fig: Step-Index.

Grade-Index -

Dispersion



Singlemode Step Index



Types of Fiber optic cables :-

① plastic cables:-

→ Travels a few meters

→ + mm cone diagram. working without splices

→ Inexpensive & works with inexpensive components

→ Low bandwidth. Can carry about 200 bits/s for a 50 m link.

→ Examples Industrial drives & generators, automotive.

→ Applications Manufacturing, medical, military.

Types

1] Plastic-coated Silica Cable:-

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

2] ~~or~~ 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

3] 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 fiber

- Longer distance than step-index
- Larger diameter
- Reduced mode dispersion & BW
- Higher cost than step-index
- Multiple layers of glasses contain dispersion

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~~ loss transmission.

④ → Huge

- ⇒ Huge cost
- Hard to install
- Doesn't use electricity.
- The glass or plastic core make it more fragile & ~~heavy~~ ^{fragile}

Features & Fiber Optic cable maintenance

- Polarize polarized O.F. 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 in patch panels.

Cleaning methods

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

Fiber Optic Connect Construction

Specification:-

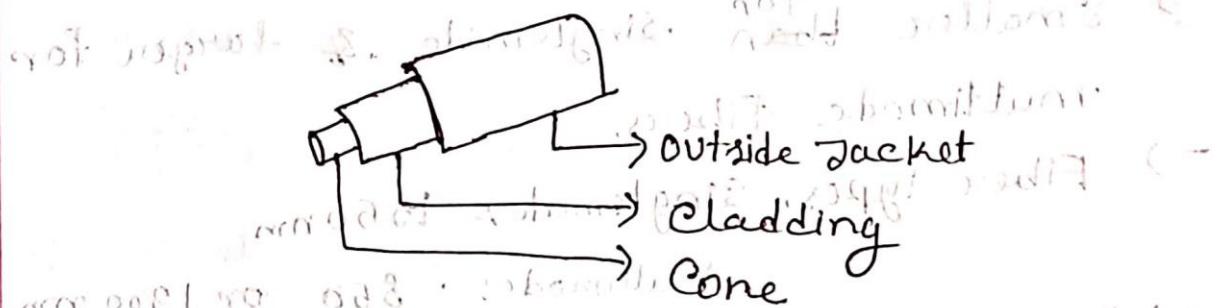


Fig:- Fiber optic

Cone:-

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

Cladding:

- outside portion of core
- Smaller than for singlemode & larger for multimode fibers.
- Fiber types, Singlemode:- 1550nm
Multimode:- 850 or 1300 nm.
- Diameter:- 8 to 62.5 μm .
- Most common:- 125 μm .

Buffer coating:

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

Laser Diode :-

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

Optical Fiber Function :-

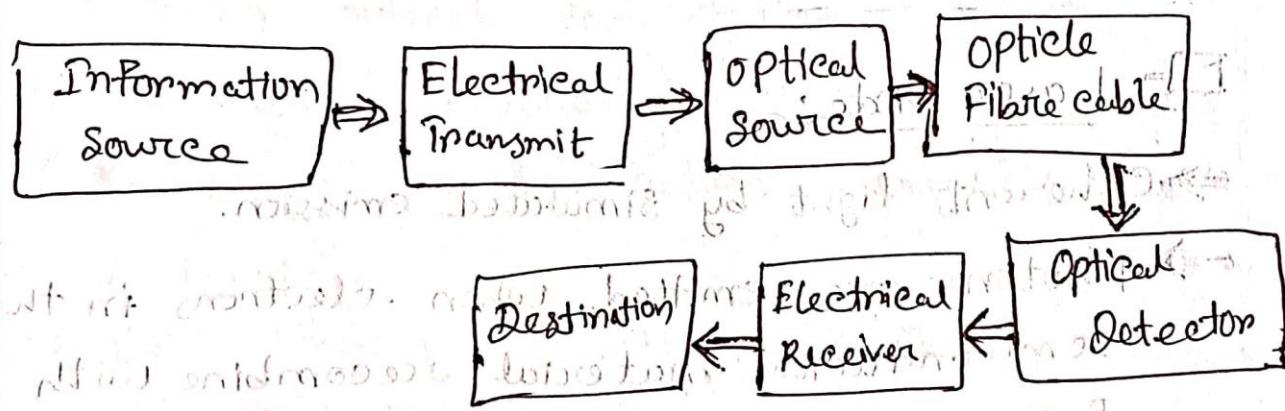


Fig 1 - Optical Fiber Function

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. PNP photo diode, photo transistors, To separate spin or sense polarization.

Electrical receiver:- Receives electrical signal

Destination:- The receiver



→ Coherent light by stimulated emission.

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

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

⇒ 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 if no breakdown of electric field.

→ Convert light signals into electrical signals.

→ Used in optical com. system.

→ Current 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.

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

Q) Attenuation & their class

Attenuation-

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

B) 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) Extrinsinc 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

Refrective Index,

Air = 1

water = 1.33 and glass = 1.5

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 medium

θ_1 = Angle of incidence

θ_2 = angle of refraction

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

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

or $n_1 / n_2 = \tan \theta_2 / \tan \theta_1$

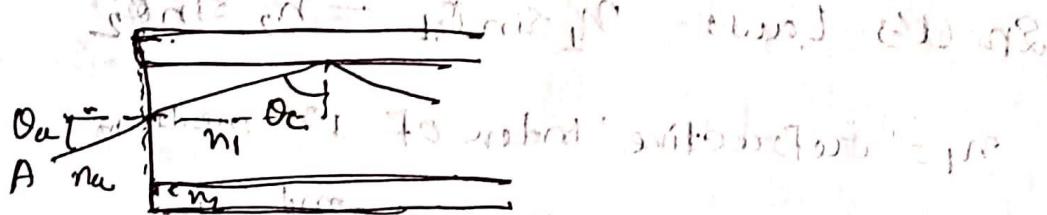
Critical Angle:

→ 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.

$$\sin \theta_1 = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \quad [\sin 90^\circ = 1]$$

Acceptance Angle:

The light accepted by an optical fiber is 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.

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

(Math)

- ① A low loss fiber has average loss of 3 dB/km at 900 nm . Power decreased by 75% . Compute the $\frac{\text{length}}{Z}$.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P(0)}{P(Z)} = \frac{1}{25} \text{ since power decrease } 75\%$$

as obtain formula showing length never to remain $\frac{1}{Z}$ length never $\frac{1}{Z}$ in result 70 dB/km not 3 dB/km

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

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

∴ $Z = 2 \text{ km}$.

- 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 $\frac{P(0)}{P(Z)}$.

⇒ we know,

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

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

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

$$\left[\frac{(S)4}{(S)4} \right] P(0) = 0.7 \quad \text{Ans}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.412 = \frac{200}{P(2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 30 \times 0.8 = 10 \log \left[\frac{200}{P(2)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (10)^2 = \frac{200}{P(2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(2) = 0.796 \text{ mW.} \quad (\text{Ans, Sure is it})$$

2) When a mean optical power ~~loss~~ launched into an 8 km length of fiber is $\frac{120}{2}$ mW, the mean optical power at fiber output is $\frac{3}{P(2)}$ mW.

\Rightarrow Determine,

Overall signal attenuation in dB. [Extended question, Q&A form 24/2]

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_0 = 10 \log \left(\frac{P(0)}{P(2)} \right)$$

$$= 10 \times \frac{1}{8} \log \left(0.12 \right)$$

$$= 0.752 \times 16.02 \times \frac{1}{8}$$

$$= 2.00$$

\therefore Attenuation per Km $= 2 \times 10$

$$= 20 \text{ dB/km} = 2.0 \text{ dB/m}$$

Here, [Extended part]

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

In 10 km link there will be 9 splices at 1 km intervals

$$\text{So, total attenuation} = 9 \times 1 \text{ dB} = 9 \text{ dB}$$

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

③ Optical power launched into fiber at transmitter end

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

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.

\Rightarrow Given,

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

$$z = 10 \text{ km} = 10 \times 10^3 \text{ m}$$

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

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

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

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

$$(10)^{-38.2} = \frac{150}{P(z)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 38.2 = 10 \log \frac{P(z)}{150} \Rightarrow 0.151 \text{ mW}$$

$$\text{Ans. } \alpha_1 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{0.151} \right] = 100 \text{ dB/km}$$

1st window: - due to air & glass (air + glass) total loss = 100 dB

$$\alpha_1 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{0.151} \right] = 2.09 \text{ dB/km}$$

(Ans. 2.09 dB/km)

2nd window:

due to glass + window frame + glass + air + glass = 100 dB (Ans. 100 dB)

$$\text{Ans. } \alpha_2 = 10 \times \frac{1}{10} \log \left[\frac{150}{47.5} \right] = 0.49 \text{ dB/km}$$

at windows (air) + glass + air + glass = 47.5 dB

3rd window:

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

at windows (air) + glass + air + glass = 75 dB

In rare medium incidence angle is 30°

& denser medium angle is 195° . Calculate reflective index.

$\rightarrow \theta_1$ in rare medium $= 30^\circ$ (Ans. 30)

$$\theta_2 = 195^\circ$$

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

we know, $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$

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

$$\Rightarrow n_2 = \frac{n_1 \sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \frac{1 \times \sin 30^\circ}{\sin 195^\circ} = \frac{\sin 30^\circ}{\sin 195^\circ}$$

Refractive Index

$$\text{Air} = 1$$

$$\text{Water} = 1.3$$

$$\text{Glass} = 1.5$$

$$= \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

$$= 1.497$$

$$\approx 1.50$$

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

\Rightarrow 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)

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.

b) There are couple of error sources. These are-

1) Shot Noise:-

→ Discrete nature of current flowing in electric devices, only permitting exit of batches of signal photons at the photodetector. These are sent towards the medium.

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 depends on the signal level.
→ Significant for PIN receiver with large optical input levels & for APD receiver due to the statistical nature of APDs.

CHAPTER 09

(FIBER OPTIC)

4) Intersymbol Interference (ISI)

→ Caused by pulse spreading in the optical fiber

5) Avalanche Multiplication Noise

→ Occurs in APD receiver

→ 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 & absorption coefficient gain.

8) Amplifier noise

→ Level loss due to fiber loss & loss due to noise of source & not being able to detect signal after passing NLP not working of detector due to low level signal loss due to noise due to detector noise.

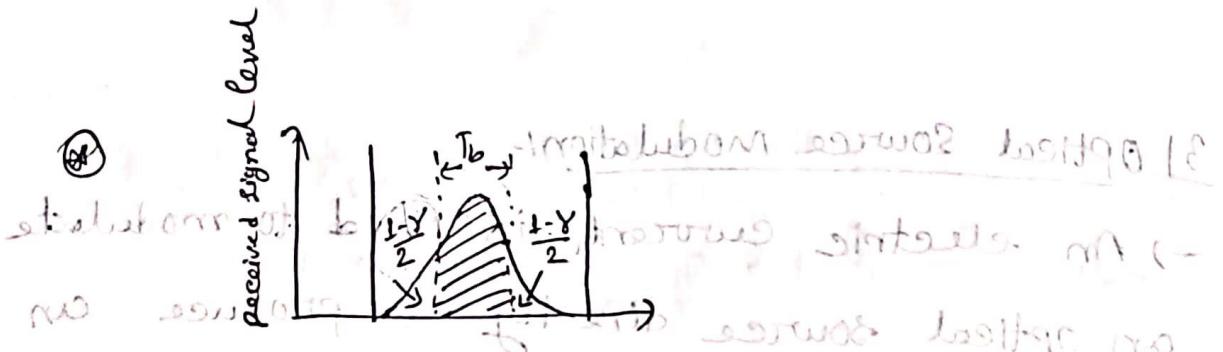
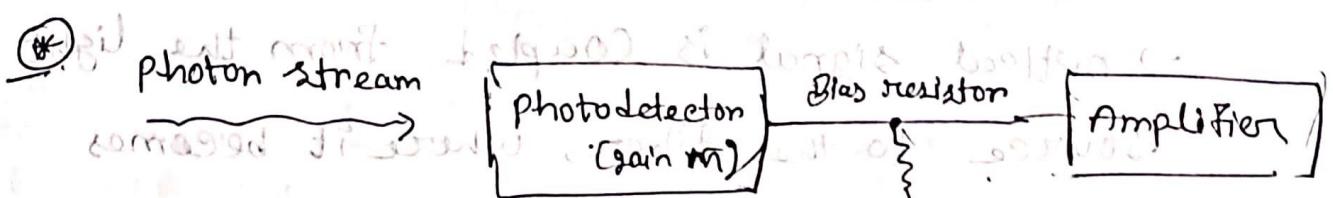


fig:- pulse spreading in an optical signal that leads to ISI.



- Quantum Noise
- Statistical gain fluctuation
- Thermal noise
- Amplifier noise

Fig:- Noise sources & disturbances in optical pulse.

Digital Signal Transmission:-

1) Binary Data Stream:-

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

2) Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK) :-

→ Simplest technique to send binary data.

→ A voltage level is switched between $V_{on} = 1$ and $V_{off} = 0$.

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.

→ Resulted decisions at level after a

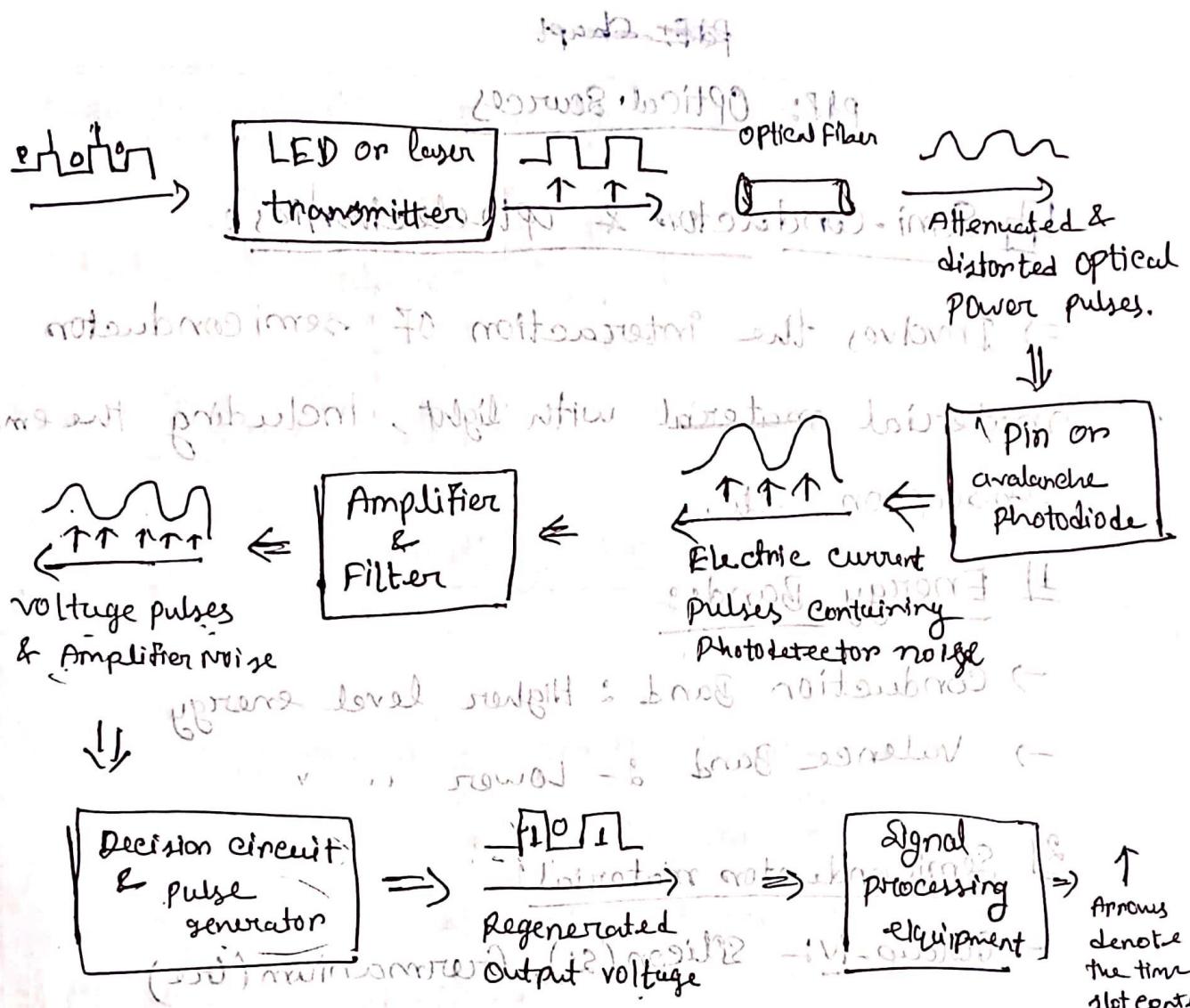


Fig:— Digital Signal Transmission

• LED (Light Emitting Diode)

• Light intensity modulated time slot center

• Attenuation due to fiber

• Attenuation due to noise

• (Additive noise) ISI

Part :- Optical Sources

4) Semi-Conductor & optoelectronics :-

→ 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 up to 2.5 μm.

(2) Emission characteristics :-

→ 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.

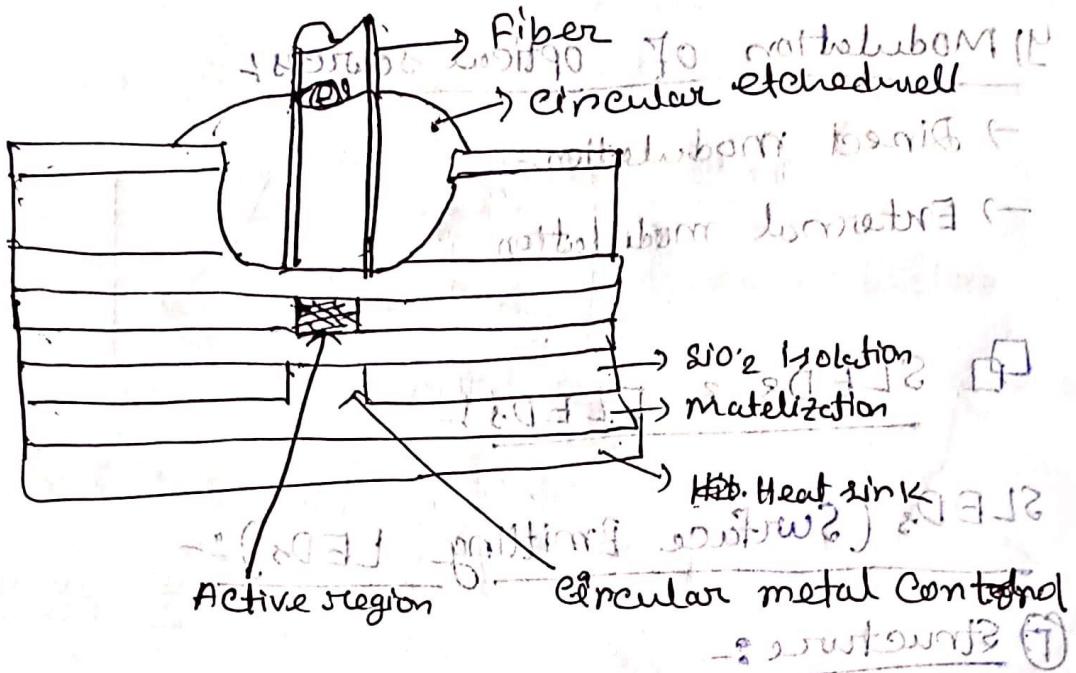


Fig:- SLEDs,

Edge Emitting Diode (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.

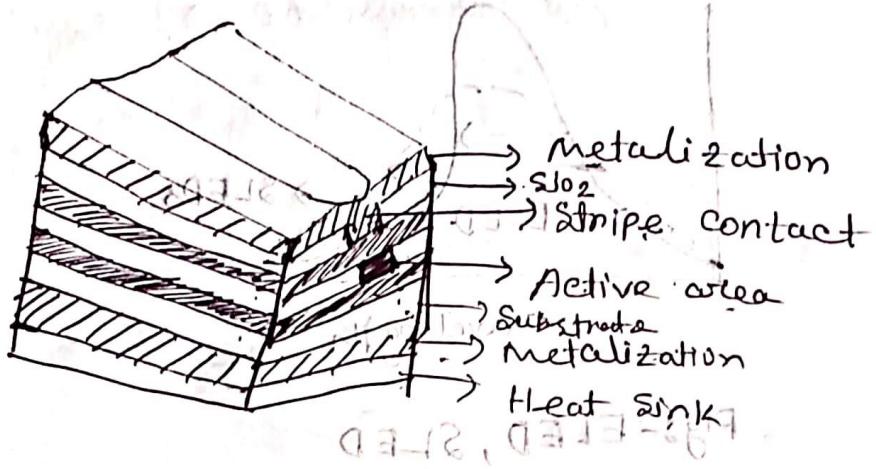


Fig:- ELEDs

Comparison:-

(1) Emission Pattern:-

- SLEDs emit light in a Lamberthal pattern.
- ELDs " " in narrower angle.

(2) Coupling Efficiency:-

- SLEDs directly bind 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.
- ELEDs for needing high efficiency.

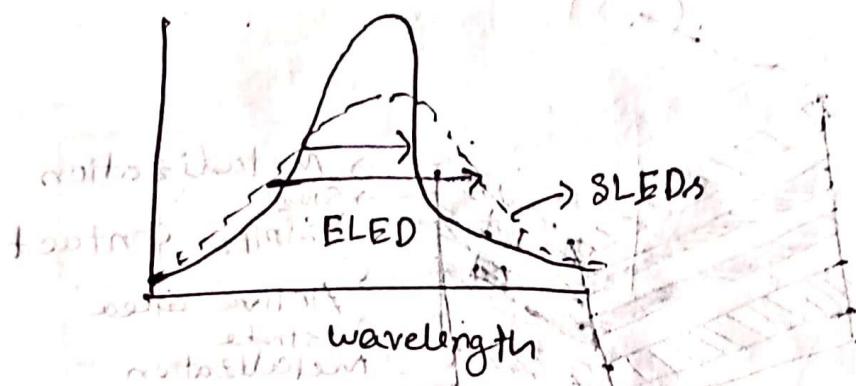


Fig- ELED, SLED

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 (LD).

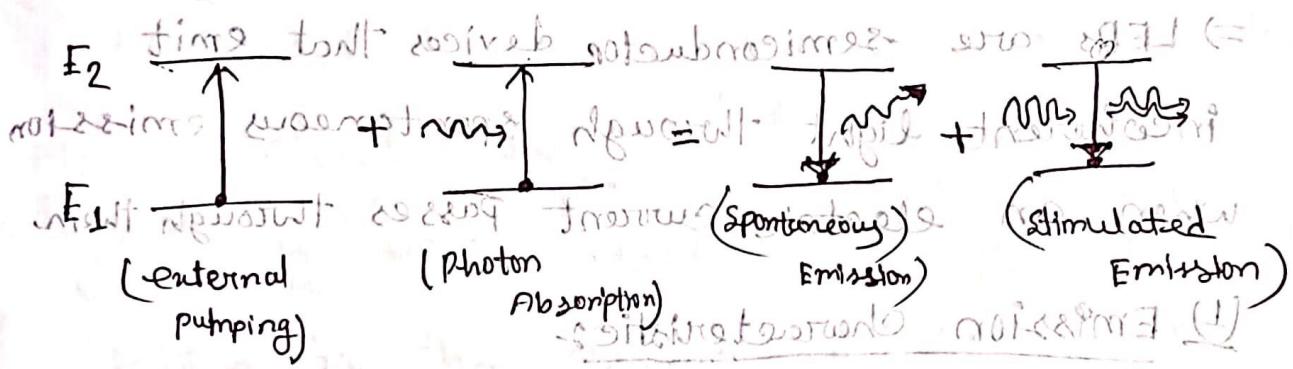
4 Basic Light Emission process.

i) Pumping :-

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

ii) Emission - (R)

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



5 Direct & Indirect Material

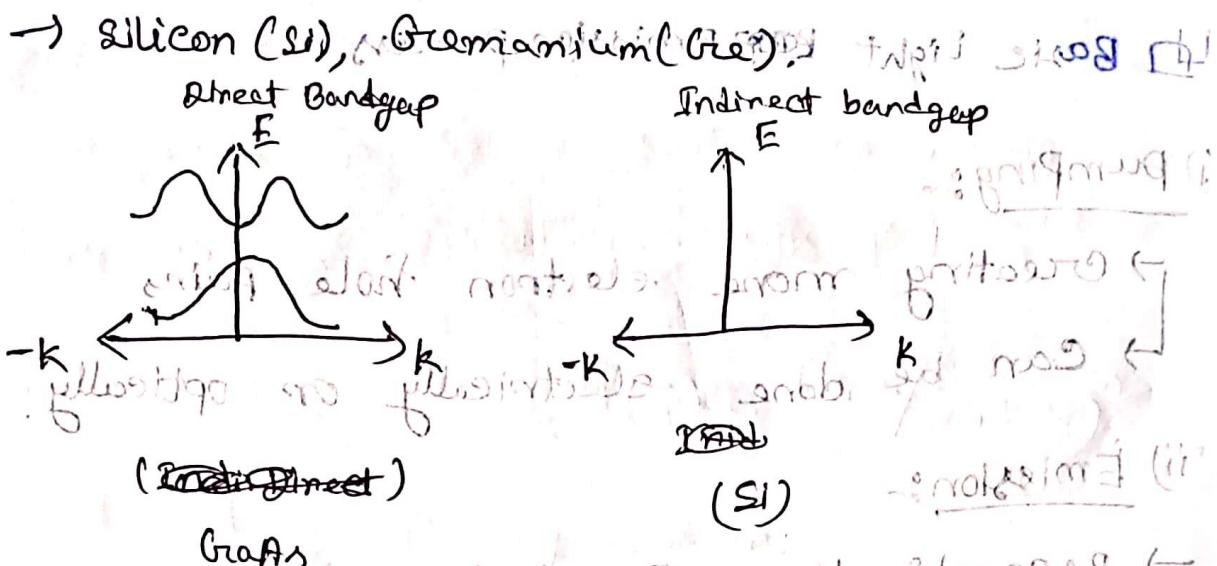
(i) Direct material :-

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

→ Photon emission occurs without a change in momentum.

(ii) Indirect material :-

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



Light Emitting Diodes

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

(1) Emission Characteristics

- Emits incoherent light ~~in~~ ~~to~~ ~~other~~ ~~direction~~ ~~is~~ ~~possible~~ ~~to~~ ~~emit~~ ~~light~~
- Used in multimode system with data rates of 100-200 Mbps.

→ Has broad spectral width & a wide output pattern.

(2) material & wavelengths

① 850 nm region:- materials like GaAsP & AlGaAs.

② 1300 - 1550 nm :- materials like InGaAsP & InP. ~~in~~ ~~in~~ ~~other~~ ~~direction~~ ~~is~~ ~~possible~~ ~~to~~ ~~emit~~ ~~light~~

• nonpolarized

③ Types of LED:- (i) SLEDs (ii) ELEDs

(iv) Performance requirements:

- For Fiber optic LEDs should have high radiance.
- Devices 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 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.

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

(ii) External efficiency

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

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

External efficiency for air:-

$$n_2 = 1, n_1 = n$$

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

Lasing operation :-

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

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.

$$N_E > N_G$$

$$(n_E + n_G) \propto \text{Intensity}$$

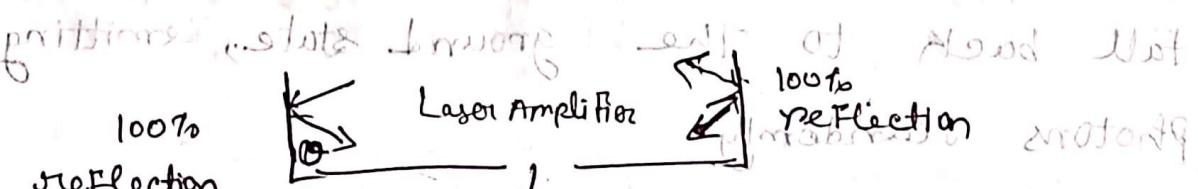
Heterojunction Devices are made by joining two semiconductors with different energy band structures.

(2) Laser Diode Mode & Threshold Conditions:

→ Most laser diodes have multilayered heterojunction devices where stimulated emission occurs from optical transitions between energy states in the valence & conduction bands.

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

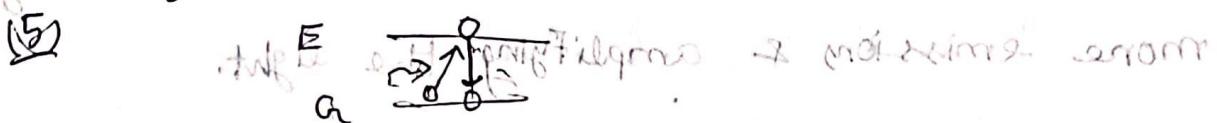
→ A pair of flat, partially reflected mirrors are directed toward each other to enclose the cavity.



(3) Stimulated Emission:

- Absorption
- Spontaneous Emission
- Stimulated Emission

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



concerning only portions of some old general mottoes, namely
conservate broad-sabres through life.

How a laser works

~~definition~~ → 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 layer operation :-

(1) Pumping: Energy is supplied to the laser

from the medium to excite the electrons. From the A \leftarrow

(2) Spontaneous Emission: When light is emitted by an atom or molecule.

Some excited electrons will spontaneously

Fall back to the ground state, emitting photons randomly.

(3) Stimulated emission,

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

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

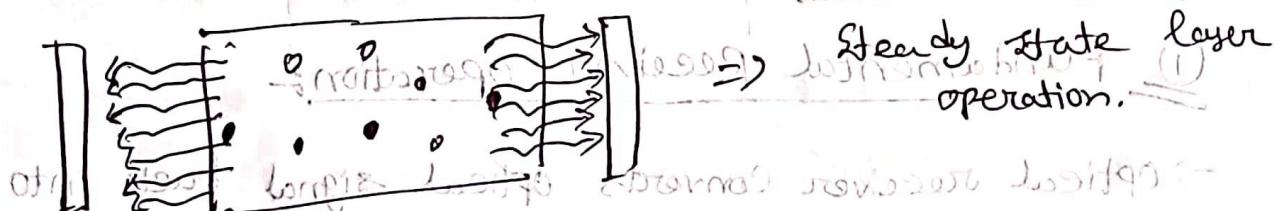
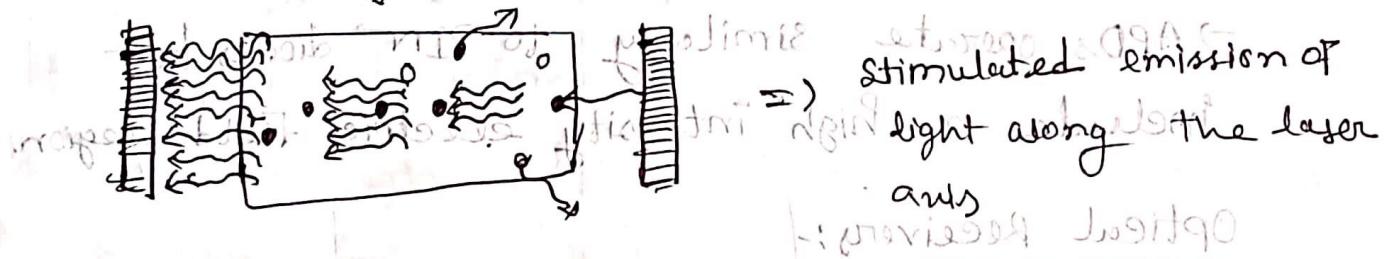
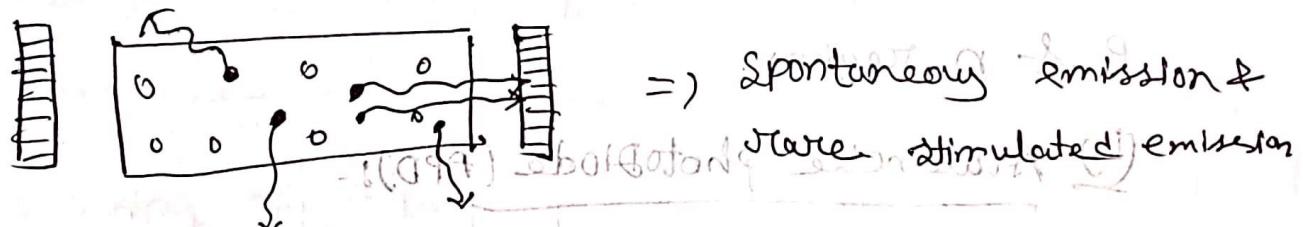
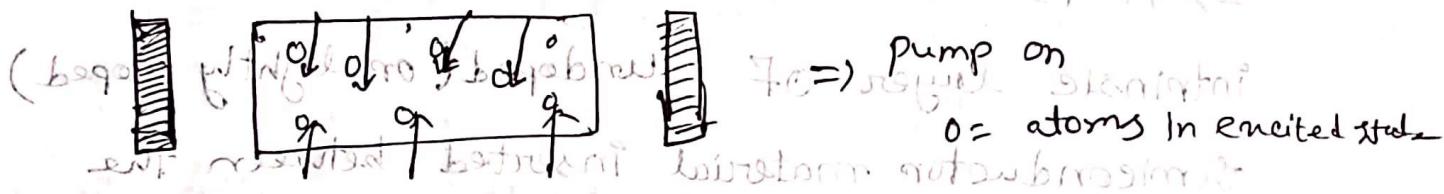
[notes informed about cavity length - 8769]

(5) Laser output: revised & notable notes (i)

the partially reflected mirror allows some of the amplified light to escape.

stable (i)

no anti reflector (i) as it absorbs A (i)



→ Long time Fig. How a laser works, botony A -
thered materials fibreglass to get more
transient long distance (i)

transient of distance of length (i) and (i)

pdP: - 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 Recovery:-

(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.

Q3(iii) Error sources:-

→ many errors are showed up during

laboratory transmission.

laboratory transmission.

(iv) Receiver Configuration:-

digit smart for 8006

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

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

Q4 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 photons is referred to as avalanche effect.

→ Avalanche multiplication results in amplification of single photodiode current.

(Note: Single JFET is also a multiplier)

Comparison of PIN Diode & APD's

PIN Diode

① Does not have high intensity electric field region.

② Responsivity of PIN is limited.

③ They exhibit lower noise levels.

④ Response time is half of

APD.

APD (Avalanche Photodiode)

① Has high intensity electric field region.

② Responsivity of APD can have much larger values.

③ Exhibits higher noise levels.

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)

Consideration of system design:-

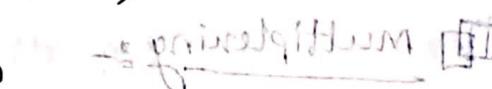
(1) Reconstruction Attenuation :- Loss of signal strength

(2) Dispersion :- Signal pulse विस्तार करने वाले यूके चम्प

(3) Info-transfer capability, डाटा रेट

(4) Optical sources :- (LED)

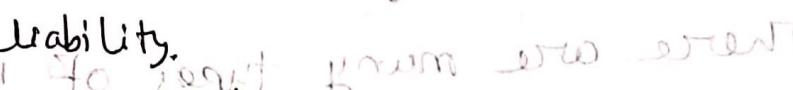
(5) Detectors :- (PIN, APD)

(6) Distance of transmission 

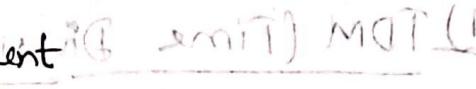
(7) Transmission type 

(8) System fidelity. 

(9) Repeater spacing 

(10) Cost Reliability. 

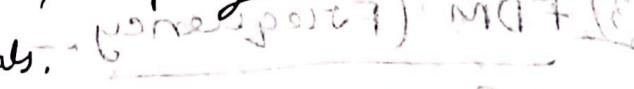
(11) Environmental factor 

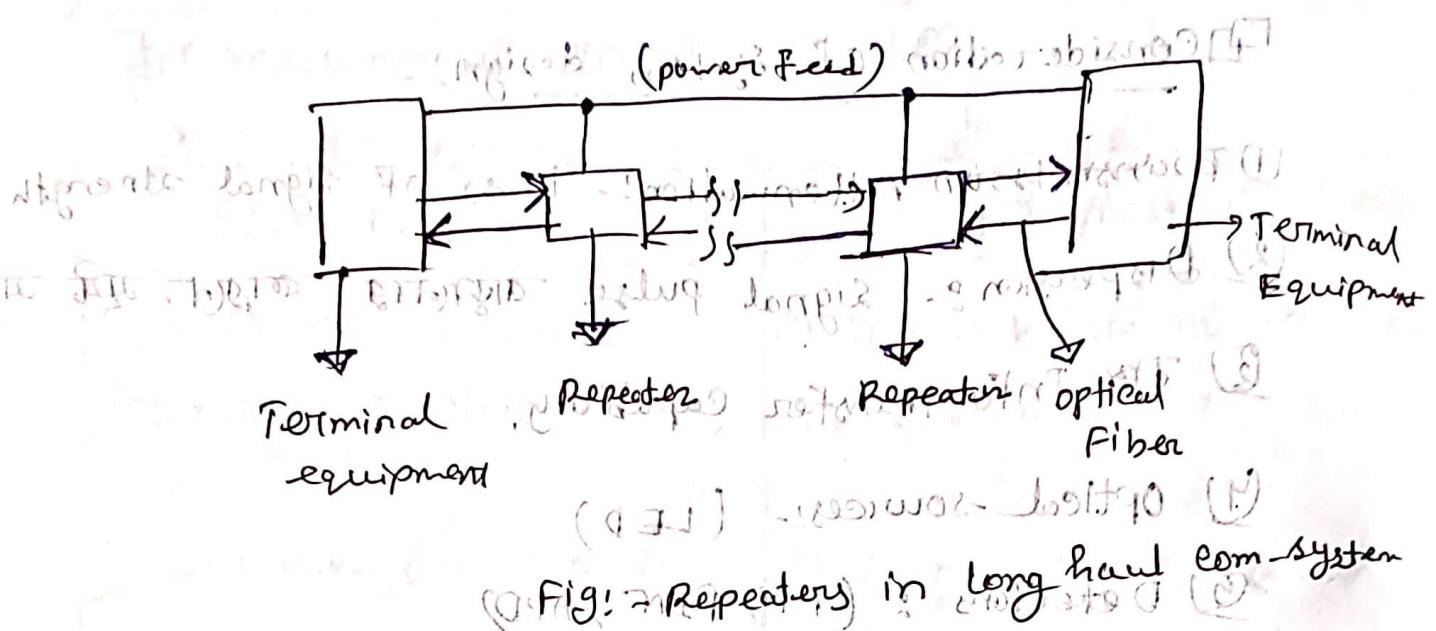
(12) Mechanical requirement 

(13) Multiplexing techniques. 

Repeater in long haul communication.

→ Repeaters are used to boost the signal over long

distances. Receive weak optical signals, convert them to electrical signals, amplify them & convert them back to optical signals. 



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 or 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.

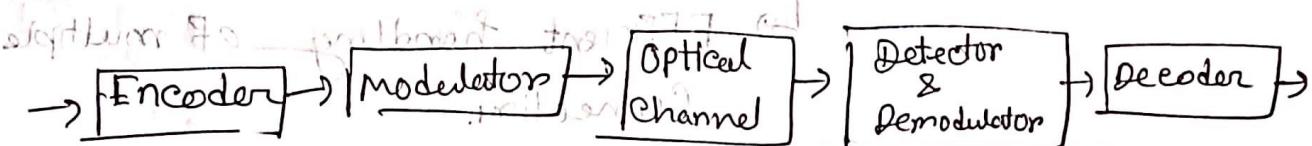


Fig :- point to point

(2) Distributed Architecture :-

→ Multiple nodes are connected

Components :- (1) Transmitter

(2) Receiver

(3) Optical Splitters

(4) Couplers

(5) Amplifier

Advantages

→ flexible in network design.

→ Scalability, to add more node

(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 WDMs:- (wavelength Division multiplexing)
- Increased capacity:- Allows multiple channel data channels to be transmitted simultaneously
- Scalability:- Can easily add more channel
- 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: 1270 nm to 1610 nm

→ 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

→ uses in long distance transmission

Howling Dog Analogy:

(long distance transmission traffic)

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

Optical Amplification:-

(i) Signal Transmission: -

→ sound, light, signal

(ii) Signal Attenuation: -

→ power loss similarly optical signal loss as it travels through fiber

(iii) Amplification Concept

=> ପୁରୁଷେ ଏହା କ୍ଷେତ୍ର ରେ କୋଣାର କିମ୍ବା ପୁରୁଷେ ଏହାରେ

— ନିର୍ଦ୍ଦିଷ୍ଟ କ୍ଷେତ୍ରରେ ଉଚ୍ଚମାନ ପାଇଁ ଯାତ୍ରା ନିଜ କରିବା ପଥାର

Amplifiers represent power (पावर) का लक्षण
होता है।

(iv) Repeater Dogs? - Different types of dogs →

⇒ ପ୍ରତିଟି କୁକୁର ଏବଂ କୁକୁରଙ୍ଗୁଳୀ sound ଏହାର ଧାରେ ଆମାର

—ପାତ୍ର ~~କିମ୍ବା~~ ଲେଖନ୍ତ ମାତ୍ର ଯାହାରେ ଆଦିତ୍ୱ ଯେତେ କିମ୍ବା ^{କିମ୍ବା} some

strength এ ~~পুরুষ~~, original sound এর মতো
like these

In optical communication EDFA's are used.

repeater dogs (Mar. 19, Mar. 20) principles, resolution, diagram

Key points

① Maintaining signal strength (Repeater part)

② NO conversion Needed (Dogs simply repeat howl)

(2) No connection between output of one stage and input of next stage without changing the original
(3) position of amplifiers

③ position of amplifiers

ମାତ୍ରା କାର୍ଯ୍ୟ ଶ୍ରୀନାଥାର୍ ପଦାର୍ଥ ହେଲ୍ପ୍ ଏଇଶ୍ୱରମାଣ୍ଜି ଲାଖିରେ ।

1 FJST ④ hours flight very fast

Wider elongated eye spot and postorbital bar longa (1)

2. longilobata (Burm.) T. N. Gill from Sikkim

west newest element the wet oak

Network Topology

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

A: → Easy to install & manage

→ High bandwidth & low latency.

D: → Limited scalability

→ Connection fails? communication 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

→ Data travel in both directions.

→ One link failure leads to route.

→ Higher latency.

→ More complex.

→ Diff. Router with switching function.

→ packet switching technique.

4) Mesh Topology— Every node connected with each other

A1 → Used in backbone networks of ~~high or friendly~~ ~~friendly~~ ~~but extremely fault tolerant~~ ~~is used in ESD~~

→ High availability, redundancy & no single point of failure

D1 → High cabling

→ High cost, high noise, difficult maintenance

→ Complex configuration

E) Bus Topology—

→ All nodes share a single communication line.

→ ~~uses~~ small network resources & less failures

A2 → Easy to install & not difficult to maintain

→ Requires less cabling.

D2 → A failure in the main cable stops all traffic

→ Limited cable length.

G) Tree Topology—→ Combines characteristics of star & bus topologies.

→ Used in large networks. (University & similar)

A3 → Hierarchical structure

→ Easy to manage.

D3 → Backbone line fails entire network fails

→ More complex cabling.

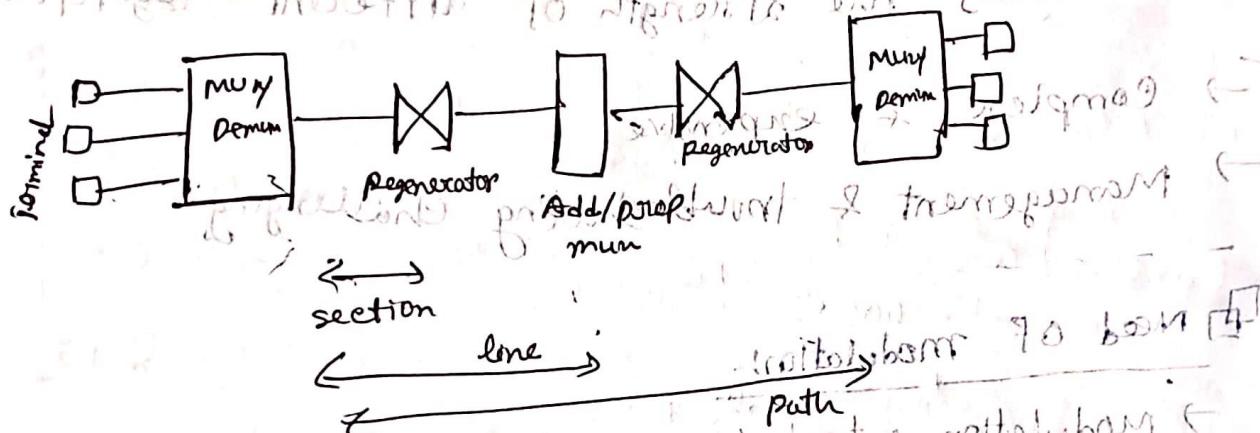
- 7) Hybrid Topology: Combination of two or more basic different topologies.
- ↳ ~~large & complex networks~~
 - Flexible and robust
 - Combines the strengths of different topologies
- Disadvantages:
- Complex & expensive
 - Management & troubleshooting challenging
 - Need of modulation
 - Modulation a technique to map information onto a carrier wave for transmission.
 - (1) Efficient use of BW.
 - (2) Signal Integrity → Noise Reduction
 - Dispersion management.
- 8) Long Distance Transmission:
- ↳ Power efficiency
 - ↳ Fiber connection
 - ↳ Multiplexing
 - ↳ Security
 - (2) Frequency translation

OPTICAL FIBRE

SONET and SDH are two main optical fiber transmission standards.

SONET:-

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



STS Multiplexer

→ Converts electrical signals to optical signal.

STS Demux

→ Converts optical signal to electrical signal.

Regenerator → Repeater

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

→ Regenerator

SONET Layers

(1) Path Layer

→ Responsible for the movement of signal.

(2) Line Layer

→ Responsible for the movement of signal across a

→ Physical links map optical bits to light

(3) Section layers (present above signal layer)

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

(4) photonic layers

→ Corresponds to the physical layer of the OSI model

(~~model~~)

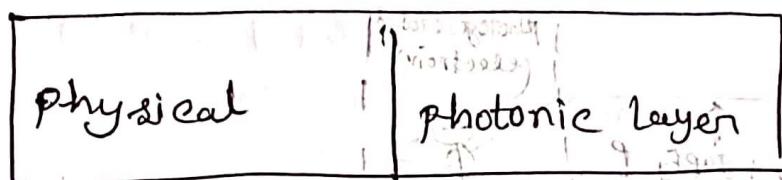
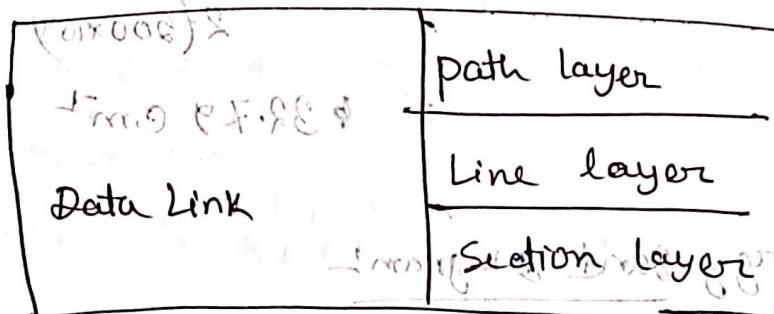


Fig: - layers.

Math

Q1 Find the optical value gain at threshold of a Heres R₁ laser diode having following parametric values.

R₁ = R₂ = 0.32

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

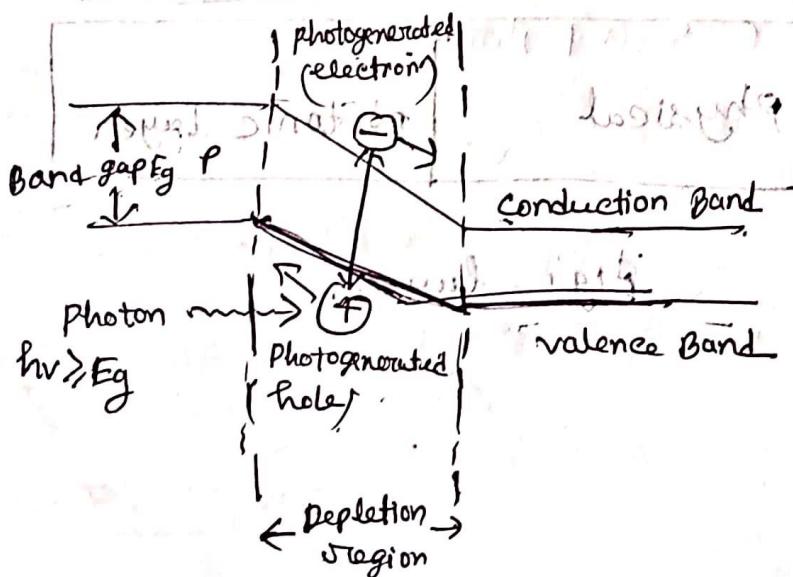
L = 500 μm = $500 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$

\Rightarrow we know, $R_{\text{gth}} = \alpha L + \frac{1}{2L} \ln \left(\frac{1}{R_1 \cdot R_2} \right)$

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

$$\approx 32.79 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Q2 Energy band diagram



$$\frac{2\lambda}{\lambda^2} = 50 \quad P_{\text{fixed}} = 50 \quad \theta_{\text{diff}} = 2^\circ$$

Q 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.

$$S/N = \frac{\text{Signal power from photocurrent}}{\text{Photocurrent} + (\text{Photodetector noise power} + \text{Amplifier noise power})}$$

Q Compute the emitted wavelength from an optical source having $n=0.07$.

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

Here, $n=0.07$

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

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

$$= 1.513 \text{ eV}$$

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

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

$$\Delta_C = \frac{hc}{Eg}$$

Now $\Delta_C = \frac{hc}{Eg} = \frac{1.24}{1.513} \rightarrow \text{given} = 0.819 \text{ nm}$

Total carrier density needs to match with Δ_C

with silicon Δ_C is not available yet

For an alloy with the quaternary alloy
composition ~~Li_{0.74}Ge_{0.26}As_{0.57}P_{0.43}~~ to be used in LED.

~~Li_{0.74}Ge_{0.26}As_{0.57}P_{0.43}~~ As p-type, it is found

that, find the wavelength

$$\Rightarrow x = 0.26 \text{ & } y = 0.57$$

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

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

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

$$= 1.35 - 0.4104 + 0.0389$$

$$= 0.978 \text{ eV}$$

$$\therefore \Delta_C = \frac{hc}{Eg} = \frac{1.24}{0.978} = 1.267 \text{ nm}$$

$$(0.0) 000.0 + 0.0 \times 000.1 + 000.1 = 0.1$$

$$(0.0) 000.0 + 0.0 \times 000.1 + 000.1 = 0.1$$

$$000.1 =$$

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 lifetime & optical power generated internally if the peak emission wavelength is 870 nm & the drive currents are 40 mA.

→ Here, we will find, recombination rate $\lambda = \frac{1}{T}$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{870 \text{ nm}} = 1.12 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\therefore T_r = 60 \text{ nsec}$$

$$T_{nr} = 90 \text{ nsec} \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda = \frac{1}{90 \text{ nsec}} = 1.11 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

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

i) Total carrier recombination lifetime

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{T} &= \frac{1}{T_r} + \frac{1}{T_{nr}} \\ &= \frac{1}{60} + \frac{1}{90} = 0.028 \text{ s}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

ii) We know, internal optical power,

$$P_{int} = \frac{1}{T} \cdot h \cdot c I = \frac{1}{T} \cdot \frac{h \cdot c I}{2D}$$

$$= 0.028 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-30} \text{ W} = 4.5 \times 10^{-30} \text{ W}$$

$$Q = \frac{(6.625 \times 10^{-4}) \times (3 \times 10^8) \times 0.04}{(1.602 \times 10^{-19}) (0.87 \times 10^{-6})}$$

Assume the area of the LED is 1.5 mm² with an illumination efficiency of

internal quantum efficiency of 0.95 with an injection current density of

1.5 A/cm². Find the radiative recombination rate.

i) An 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.

\Rightarrow Here,

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

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

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

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

ii) Bulk recombination :-

$$\eta_{int} = \frac{T_r}{T_{nr}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\eta_{int}} = \frac{1}{T_r} + \frac{1}{T_{nr}} = \frac{1}{30} + \frac{1}{100} = \frac{1}{23.076} \quad (ii)$$

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

URB2 [Ergo]

$$\therefore n_{int} = \frac{23.076}{30} = 0.7692008$$

(ii) Internal quantum efficiency (I.Q.E) (F.F.I) following to efficiency (transient current) \rightarrow

$$\text{Mittelstellung} = \frac{23.07}{30} = 0.7692$$

50
Lithobionta like) framework development in Neogene (
(gravelly &

Lindbergh wants to finance Hiball-¹-Salter

It turned out to have been a long night.

for random walk to go to the next term and so on.