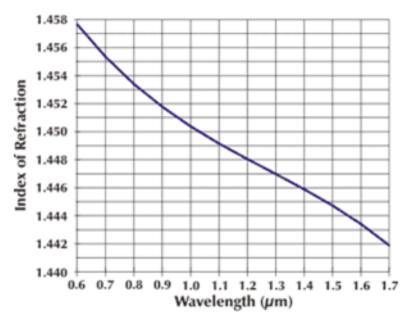
Lecture 4

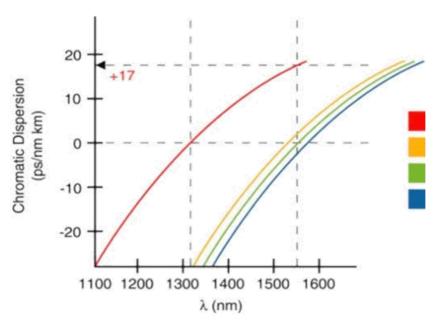
- Dispersion in single-mode fibers
 - Material dispersion
 - Waveguide dispersion
- Limitations from dispersion
 - Propagation equations
 - Gaussian pulse broadening
 - Bit-rate limitations
- Fiber losses

Dispersion, qualitatively

- Different wavelengths (frequency components) propagate differently
- A pulse has a certain spectral width and will broaden during propagation



The index of refraction as a function of wavelength



The dispersion in SMF (red) and different dispersion-shifted fibers

Group delay, group index, and GVD parameter (2.3.1)

Each spectral component of a pulse has a specific group velocity

The *group delay* after a distance *L* is

$$T = \frac{L}{v_g} = L \frac{d\beta}{d\omega}$$

The group velocity is related to the **mode group index** given by $\overline{n}_g = \overline{n} + \omega \frac{dn}{d\omega}$

$$v_{g} = \frac{c}{\overline{n}_{g}} = \frac{c}{\overline{n} + \omega \frac{d\overline{n}}{d\omega}} = \frac{c}{\overline{n} - \lambda \frac{d\overline{n}}{d\lambda}}$$

Assuming that $\Delta\omega$ is the spectral width, the pulse broadening is governed by

$$\Delta T = \frac{dT}{d\omega} \Delta \omega = L \frac{d^2 \beta}{d\omega^2} \Delta \omega \equiv L \beta_2 \Delta \omega$$

where β_2 is known as the *GVD parameter* (unit is s²/m or ps²/km)

The dispersion parameter

Measuring the spectral width in units of wavelength (rather than frequency), we can write the broadening as

$$\Delta T = D \Delta \lambda L$$

where D [ps/(nm km)] is called the **dispersion parameter**

D is related to β_2 and the effective mode index according to

$$D = -\frac{2\pi c}{\lambda^2} \beta_2 = \left\{ \beta_2 = \frac{d^2 \beta}{d\omega^2}, v_g = \left(\frac{d\beta}{d\omega}\right)^{-1} \right\} = -\frac{2\pi c}{\lambda^2} \frac{d}{d\omega} \left(\frac{1}{v_g}\right) = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2} \left(2\frac{d\overline{n}}{d\omega} + \omega \frac{d^2 \overline{n}}{d\omega^2}\right)$$

The dispersion parameter has two contributions:

material dispersion, D_M : The index of refraction of the fiber material depends on the frequency

waveguide dispersion, D_w : The guided mode has a frequency dependence

Material dispersion (2.3.2)

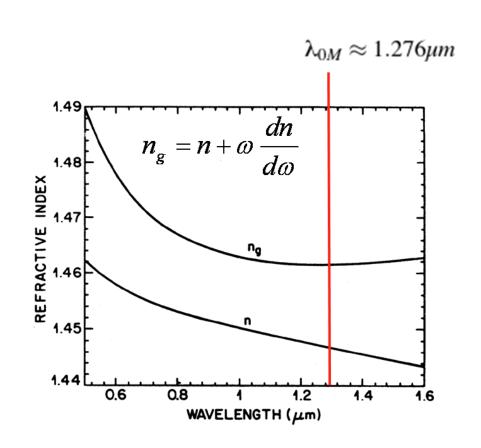
The material dispersion is related to the dependence of the cladding material's group index on the frequency

$$D_{M} = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^{2}} \frac{dn_{2g}}{d\omega}$$

An approximate relation for the material dispersion in silica is

$$D_M \approx 122 \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{0M}}{\lambda}\right)$$

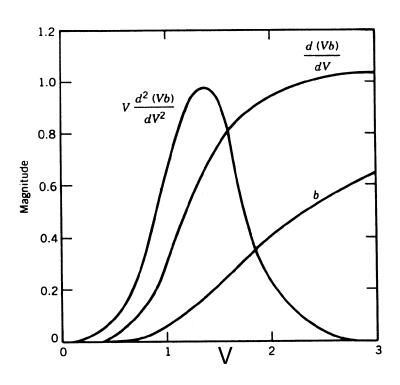
where D_M is given in ps/(nm km)



Waveguide dispersion (2.3.3)

The waveguide dispersion arises from the modes' dependence on frequency

$$D_{W} = -\frac{2\pi\Delta}{\lambda^{2}} \left[\frac{n_{2g}^{2}}{n_{2}\omega} \frac{Vd^{2}(Vb)}{dV^{2}} + \frac{dn_{2g}}{d\omega} \frac{d(Vb)}{dV} \right]$$



 n_{2a} : the cladding group index

V: the normalized frequency

$$V = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2} \approx \frac{\omega}{c} a n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta}$$

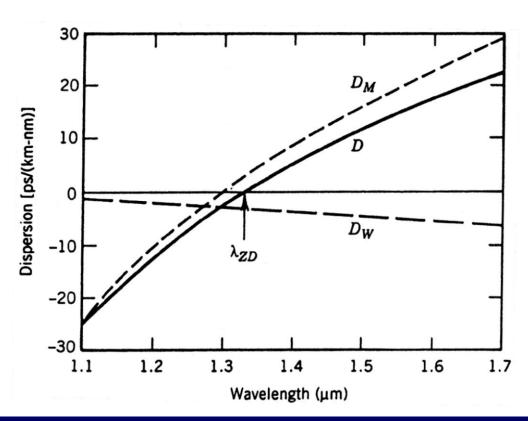
b: the normalized waveguide index

$$b = \frac{\overline{n} - n_2}{n_1 - n_2}$$

Total dispersion

The total dispersion D is the sum of the waveguide and material contributions $D = D_{W} + D_{M}$

Note: D_W increases the net zero dispersion wavelength



The zero-dispersion wavelength is denoted either λ_0 or λ_{ZD}

An estimate of the dispersionlimited bit-rate is

$$|D|B\Delta\lambda L < 1$$

where B is the bit-rate, $\Delta\lambda$ the spectral width, and L the fiber length

Anomalous and normal dispersion

The dispersion can have different signs in a *standard single-mode fiber* (SMF)

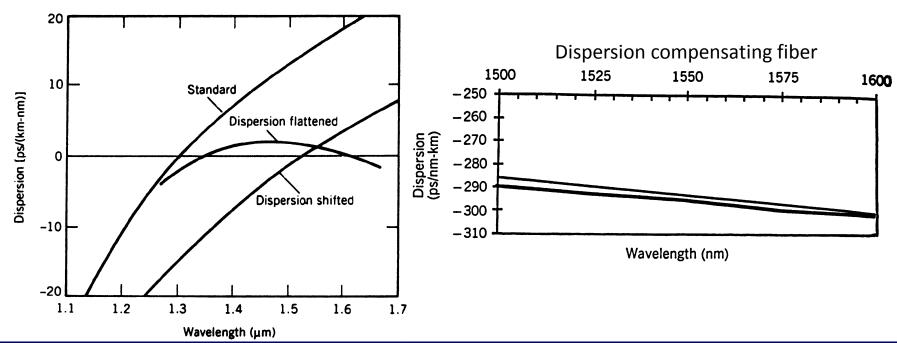
D > 0 for $\lambda > 1.31$ µm: "anomalous dispersion", the group velocity of higher frequencies is higher than for lower frequencies

D < 0 for λ < 1.31 µm: "normal dispersion", the group velocity of higher frequencies is lower than for lower frequency components

Pulses are affected differently by nonlinear effects in these two cases

Different fiber types

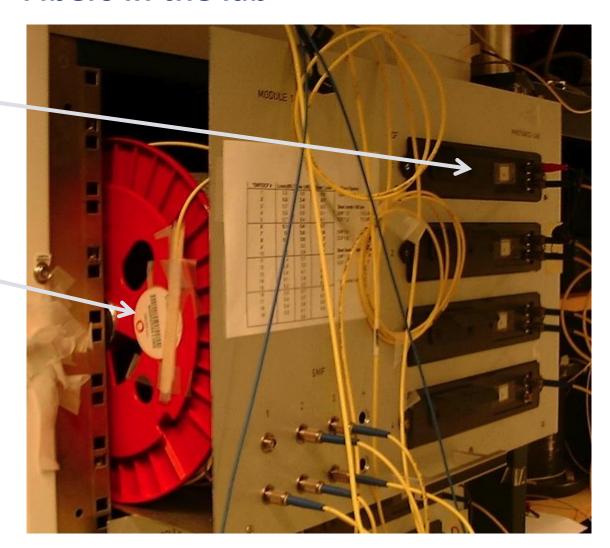
- The fiber parameters can be tailored to shift the λ_0 -wavelength from $\approx 1.3 \ \mu m$ to $1.55 \ \mu m$, dispersion-shifted fiber (DSF)
- A fiber with small D over a wide spectral range (typically with two λ_0 -wavelengths), **dispersion-flattened fiber** (DFF)
- A short fiber with large normal dispersion can compensate the dispersion in a long SMF, *dispersion compensating fibers* (DCF)



This dispersion compensating module contains 4 km of DCF...

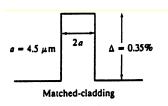
...and it compensates the dispersion in this 25 km roll of SMF

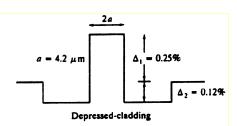
Fibers in the lab



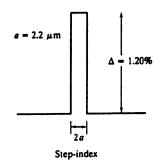
Index profiles of different fiber types

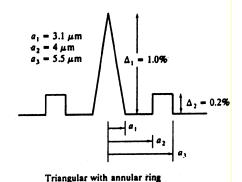
 Standard single-mode fiber (SMF)



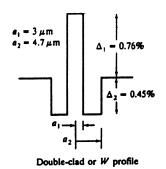


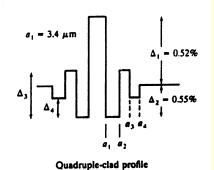
Dispersion-shifted fiber (DSF)





Dispersion-flattened fiber (DFF)



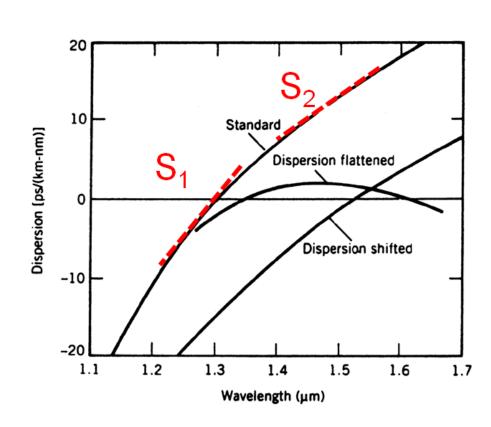


Higher order dispersion (2.3.4)

- Near the zero-dispersion wavelength $D \approx 0$
 - The variation of D with the wavelength must be accounted for

$$S \equiv \frac{dD}{d\lambda} = \left(\frac{2\pi c}{\lambda^2}\right)^2 \frac{d^3 \beta}{d\omega^3}$$

- We have used $\beta_2 = 0$
- S [ps/(nm² km)] is called the dispersion slope
 - Typical value in SMF is 0.07 ps/(nm² km)

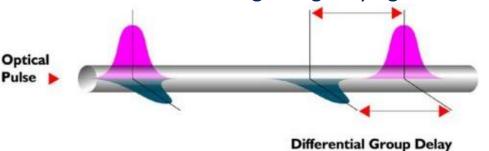


Polarization-mode dispersion (PMD) (2.3.5)

- An optical fiber is always slightly elliptical
 - Different index of refraction for x and y polarization, difference is Δn
 - Changes along the fiber
 - Changes with frequency
 - Changes with time
- This leads to:
 - The state-of-polarization (SOP) of the signal in the fiber will be random
 - Different delay for different polarizations, differential group delay (DGD)

$$\Delta \tau = \left| \frac{L}{v_{gx}} - \frac{L}{v_{gy}} \right| = L \left| \beta_{1x} - \beta_{1y} \right| = L(\Delta \beta_1)$$

DGD acting along varying axes leads to polarization-mode dispersion (PMD)



$$\sigma_T \approx (\Delta \beta_1) \sqrt{2l_c z} = D_p \sqrt{L}$$

 D_p is the PMD parameter (typical value is 0.05–1 ps/Vkm)

Basic propagation equation

We will now develop the theory for signal propagation in fibers The electric field is written as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) = \operatorname{Re}\left[\hat{\mathbf{x}} F(x,y) A(z,t) \exp(i\beta_0 z - i\omega_0 t)\right]$$

- The field is polarized in the x-direction
- F(x, y) describes the mode in the transverse directions
- A(z, t) is the complex **field envelope**
- β_0 is the propagation constant corresponding to ω_0

Only A(z, t) changes upon propagation (described in the Fourier domain)

$$\widetilde{A}(z,\omega) = \widetilde{A}(0,\omega) \exp[i\beta(\omega)z - i\beta_0 z]$$

$$\widetilde{A}(z,\omega) = \widetilde{A}(0,\omega) \exp\left[i\beta(\omega)z - i\beta_0 z\right]$$

$$\left(\widetilde{A}(z,\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(z,t) \exp(i\omega t) d\omega\right)$$

Each spectral component of a pulse propagates differently

The propagation constant

The propagation constant is in general complex

$$\beta(\omega) = [\overline{n}(\omega) + \delta n_{NL}(\omega)](\omega/c) + i\alpha(\omega)/2 \approx \beta_L(\omega) + \beta_{NL}(\omega_0) + i\alpha(\omega_0)/2$$

- α is the attenuation
- $-\delta n_{NL}$ is a small nonlinear (= power dependent) change of the refractive index
- Dispersion arises from $\beta_i(\omega)$
 - The frequency dependence of β_{NL} and α is small
- We now expand $\beta_L(\omega)$ in a Taylor series around $\omega = \omega_0$ ($\Delta \omega = \omega \omega_0$)

$$\beta_{L}(\omega) \approx \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}(\Delta \omega) + \frac{\beta_{2}}{2}(\Delta \omega)^{2} + \frac{\beta_{3}}{6}(\Delta \omega)^{3} + ..., \quad \beta_{m} = \frac{d^{m}\beta}{d\omega^{m}} \Big|_{\omega = \omega_{0}}$$

$$1/v_{p} \quad 1/v_{q} \quad \text{GVD(rel. to } D) \quad \text{dispersion slope(related to } S)$$

Basic propagation equation (2.4.1)

Substitute β with the Taylor expansion in the expression for the evolution of $A(z, \omega)$, calculate $\partial A/\partial z$, and write in time domain by using $\Delta\omega \longleftrightarrow i \partial/\partial t$

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} + \beta_1 \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + i \frac{\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\beta_3}{6} \frac{\partial^3 A}{\partial t^3} = i \beta_{NL} A - \frac{\alpha}{2} A$$

The nonlinearity is quantified by using $\delta n_{NL} = n_2 I$ where n_2 [m²/W] is a measure of the strength of the nonlinearity, and I is the light intensity

 $\beta_{\rm NL} = \gamma |A|^2$, where $\gamma = 2\pi n_2/(\lambda_0 A_{\rm eff})$ is the nonlinear coefficient

 $A_{\rm eff}$ is the effective mode area and $|A|^2$ is normalized to represent the power γ is typically 1–20 W⁻¹ km⁻¹

Basic propagation equation

- Use a coordinate system that moves with the pulse group velocity!
 - This is called **retarded time**, $t' = t \beta_1 z$
 - We neglect β_3 to get

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} + i \frac{\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} = i \gamma |A|^2 A - \frac{\alpha}{2} A$$

- This is the nonlinear Schrödinger equation (NLSE)
 - The primes are implicit
- The loss reduces the power ⇒ reduces the impact from the nonlinearity
- The average power of the signal during propagation in the fiber is

$$P_{\text{av}}(z) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |A(z,t)|^2 dt = P_{\text{av}}(0)e^{-\alpha z}$$

• Note: α is in m⁻¹ while loss is often expressed in dB/km

Chirped Gaussian pulses (2.4.2)

To study dispersion, we neglect nonlinearity and loss

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} + i \frac{\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

The formal solution is

$$\widetilde{A}(z,\omega) = \widetilde{A}(0,\omega) \exp\left(i\frac{\beta_2}{2}\omega^2 z\right)$$

- Note: Dispersion acts like an all-pass filter
- We study chirped Gaussian pulses

$$A(0,t) = A_0 \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(1+iC)(t/T_0)^2\right]$$

- A₀ is the peak amplitude
- C is the chirp parameter
- T_0 is the 1/e half width (power) $T_{\text{FWHM}} = 2(\ln 2)^{1/2} T_0 \approx 1.665 T_0$

Chirp frequency

- For a chirped pulse, the frequency of the pulse changes with time
 - What does this mean???
- Study a CW (continuous wave)

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) = \operatorname{Re}\left[\hat{\mathbf{x}} F(x,y) A(z,t) \exp(i\beta_0 z - i\omega_0 t)\right]$$

- A is a constant
- Writing $A \exp(i\beta_0 z i\omega_0 t) = A \exp(i\phi)$, we see that $\omega_0 = -\partial \phi/\partial t$
- We define the chirp frequency to be

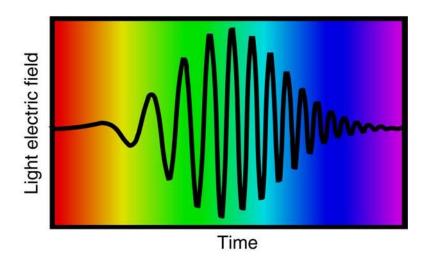
$$\omega_c = -\partial \phi(t) / \partial t$$

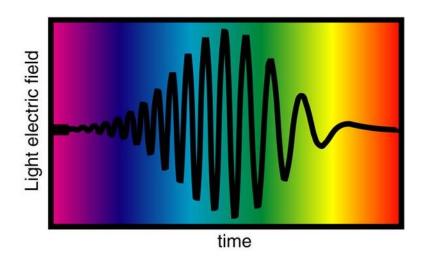
- We allow ϕ to have a time dependence
- We get φ from the complex amplitude
- In this way, the chirp frequency can depend on time
 - For the Gaussian pulse we get $\omega_c = Ct/T_0^2$

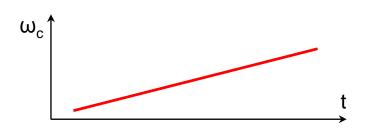
A linearly chirped pulse

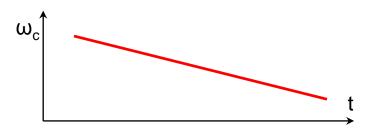
Frequency increases with time

Frequency decreases with time









Time-bandwidth product

The Fourier transform of the input Gaussian pulse is

$$\widetilde{A}(0,\omega) = A_0 \left(\frac{2\pi T_0^2}{1+iC}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{\omega^2 T_0^2}{2(1+iC)}\right]$$

The 1/e spectral half width (intensity) is $\Delta\omega_0 = \sqrt{1+C^2} / T_0$ The product of the spectral and temporal widths is $\Delta\omega_0 T_0 = \sqrt{1+C^2}$

If *C* = 0 then the pulses are chirp-free and said to be *transform-limited* as they occupy the smallest possible spectral width

Using the full width at half maximum (FWHM), we get

$$\Delta v_{\text{FWHM}} T_{\text{FWHM}} = \frac{2 \ln 2}{\pi} \sqrt{1 + C^2} \approx 0.44 \sqrt{1 + C^2}$$

Chirped Gaussian pulses (2.4.2)

We introduce $\xi = z/L_D$ where the **dispersion length** $L_D = T_0^2/|\beta_2|$ In the time domain the dispersed pulse is

$$A(\xi,t) = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{b_f}} \exp \left[-\frac{(1+iC_1)t^2}{2T_0^2 b_f^2} + \frac{i}{2} \arctan \left(\frac{\xi}{1+C\xi} \right) \right]$$

$$b_f(\xi) = [(1 + sC\xi)^2 + \xi^2]^{1/2}$$

$$C_1(\xi) = C + s(1 + C^2)\xi$$

$$s = \text{sign}(\beta_2)$$

The output width (1/e-intensity point) broadens as

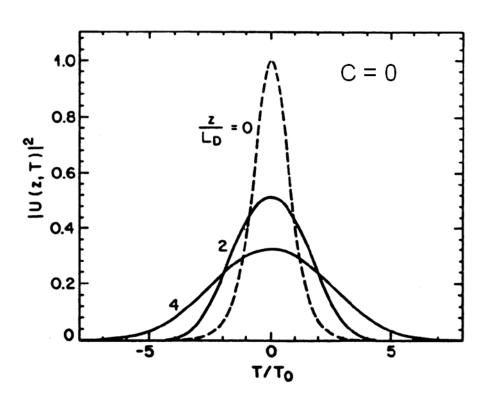
$$b_f(z) = \frac{T_1(z)}{T_0} = \left[\left(1 + \frac{C\beta_2 z}{T_0^2} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\beta_2 z}{T_0^2} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

A Gaussian pulse remains Gaussian during propagation

The chirp, $C_1(\xi)$, evolves as the pulse propagates

If $(C \beta_2)$ is negative, the pulse will initially be compressed

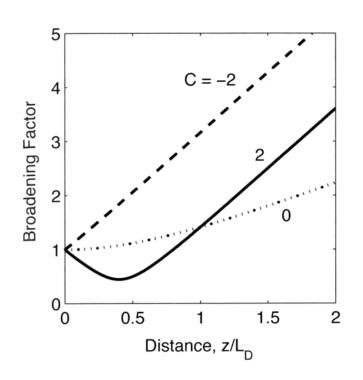
Broadening of chirp-free Gaussian pulses

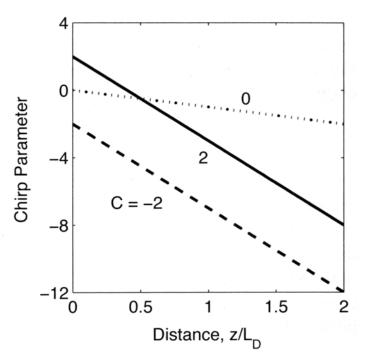


$$b_f(z) = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{z}{L_D}\right)^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{|\beta_2|z}{T_0^2}\right)^2}$$

Short pulses broaden more quickly than longer pulses (Compare with diffraction of beams)

Broadening of linearly chirped Gaussian pulses





For $(C \beta_2)$ < 0, pulses initially compress and reaches a minimum at

$$z = |C|/(1+C^2)L_D$$
 at which $C_1 = 0$ and $T_1^{min} = \frac{T_0}{\sqrt{1+C^2}} = \frac{1}{\Delta\omega_0}$

Chirped pulses eventually broaden more quickly than unchirped pulses

Non-Gaussian pulses

Only Gaussian pulses remain Gaussian upon propagation Not even Gaussian pulses remain Gaussian if β_3 cannot be ignored In these cases, the RMS-pulse width can be used

$$\sigma_{p} = \sqrt{\langle t^{2} \rangle - \langle t \rangle^{2}} \qquad \langle t^{m} \rangle = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^{m} |A(z, t)|^{2} dt}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |A(z, t)|^{2} dt}$$

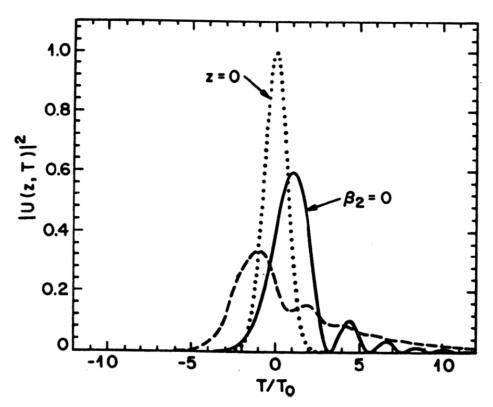
 σ_p can be calculated when the initial pulse is known

Example 1: An unchirped rectangular Example 1: An unchirped rectangular pulse will, in presence of only β_2 , broaden as $\sigma_p^2 = \sigma_0^2 \left[1 + \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{L}{L_D} \right)^2 \right]$

$$\sigma_p^2 = \sigma_0^2 \left[1 + \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{L}{L_D} \right)^2 \right]$$

Example 2: An unchirped Gaussian pulse will, in presence of only β_2 , broaden as $\sigma_p^2 = \sigma_0^2 \left[1 + \left(\frac{L}{L_D} \right)^2 \right]$

Chirped Gaussian pulses in the presence of β_3



Higher order dispersion gives rise to oscillations and pulse shape changes

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2} = \left(1 + \frac{C\beta_2 L}{2\sigma_0^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\beta_2 L}{2\sigma_0^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\beta_3 L(1 + C^2)}{4\sqrt{2}\sigma_0^3}\right)^2 \qquad \sigma_0 = T_0 / \sqrt{2}$$

Effect from source spectrum width

Using a light source with a broad spectrum leads to strong dispersive broadening of the signal pulses

In practice, this only needs to be considered when the source spectral width approaches the symbol rate

For a Gaussian-shaped source spectrum with RMS-width σ_{ω} and with Gaussian pulses, we have

$$\frac{\sigma_p^2}{\sigma_0^2} = \left(1 + \frac{C\beta_2 L}{2\sigma_0^2}\right)^2 + (1 + V_\omega^2) \left(\frac{\beta_2 L}{2\sigma_0^2}\right)^2 + (1 + C^2 + V_\omega^2)^2 \left(\frac{\beta_3 L}{4\sqrt{2}\sigma_0^3}\right)^2$$

where $V_{\omega} = 2\sigma_{\omega}\sigma_0$

 $V_{\omega} << 1$ when the source spectral width << the signal spectral width

Limitations on bit rate, incoherent source (2.4.3)

If, as for an LED light source, $V_{\omega} >> 1$ we obtain approximately

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2 + (\beta_2 L \sigma_\omega)^2 \equiv \sigma_0^2 + (DL \sigma_\lambda)^2$$

A common criteria for the bit rate is that $\sigma \le T_B/4 = 1/(4B)$

For the Gaussian pulse, this means that 95% of the pulse energy remains within the bit slot

In the limit of large broadening

$$4BL|D|\sigma_{\lambda} \leq 1$$

 σ_{λ} is the source RMS width in wavelength units

Example: D = 17 ps/(km nm), $\sigma_{\lambda} = 15 \text{ nm} \Rightarrow (BL)_{max} \approx 1 \text{ (Gbit/s) km}$

Limitations on bit rate, incoherent source

In the case of operation at $\lambda = \lambda_{ZD}$, $\beta_2 = 0$ we have

$$\sigma^{2} = \sigma_{0}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} (\beta_{3} L \sigma_{\omega}^{2})^{2} \equiv \sigma_{0}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} (SL \sigma_{\lambda}^{2})^{2}$$

With the same condition on the pulse broadening, we obtain

$$\sqrt{8}BL|S|\sigma_{\lambda}^{2} \le 1$$

The dispersion slope, S, will determine the bit rate-distance product

Example: D = 0, S = 0.08 ps/(km nm²), $\sigma_{\lambda} = 15$ nm $\Rightarrow (BL)_{max} \approx 20$ (Gbit/s) km

Limitations on bit rate, coherent source (2.4.3)

For most lasers $V_{\omega} \ll 1$ and can be neglected and the criteria become

Neglecting
$$\beta_3$$
: $\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2 + (\beta_2 L/2\sigma_0)^2 \equiv \sigma_0^2 + \sigma_D^2$

The output pulse width is minimized for a certain input pulse width giving

$$4B\sqrt{|\beta_2|L} \le 1$$

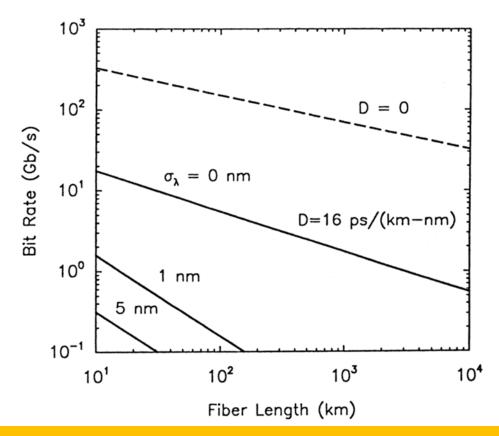
Example: $\beta_2 = 20 \text{ ps}^2/\text{km} \rightarrow (B^2L)_{\text{max}} \approx 3000 \text{ (Gbit/s)}^2 \text{ km}$ 500 km @ 2.5 Gbit/s, 30 km @ 10 Gbit/s

If
$$\beta_2 = 0$$
 (close to λ_0): $\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2 + (\beta_3 L/4\sigma_0^2)^2/2 \equiv \sigma_0^2 + \sigma_D^2$

For an optimal input pulse width, we get

$$B(|\beta_3|L)^{1/3} \le 0.324$$

Limitations on bit rate, summary



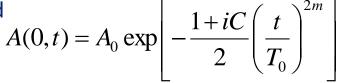
A coherent source improves the bit rate-distance product

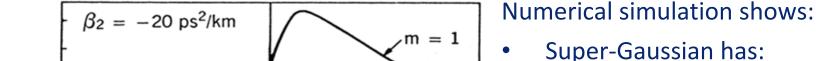
Operation near the zero-dispersion wavelength also is beneficial...

...but may lead to problems with nonlinear signal distortion

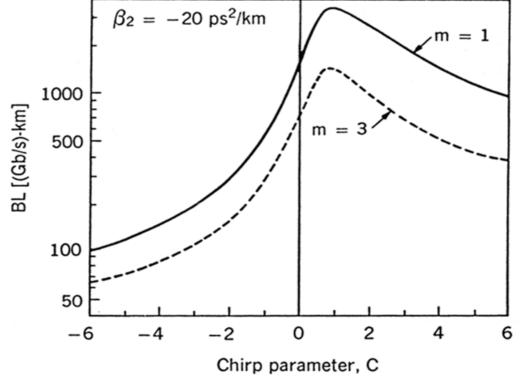
Super-Gaussian pulses

- Super-Gaussian pulses are flat-top and can be used to model NRZ...
 - ...but more accurate modeling is preferred
 - If $m = 1 \Rightarrow$ We recover the Gaussian
 - If $m > 1 \Rightarrow$ The shape is more rectangular

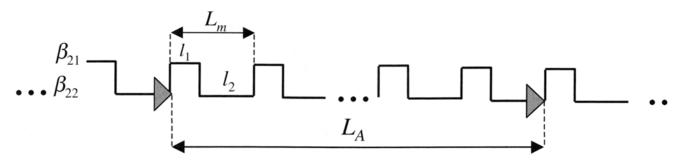




- Smaller bit rate-distance product...
 - ...due to more problems with dispersion...
- ...due to the sharper edges
- A small chirp can be beneficial:
 - $C \approx 1$ is optimal



Dispersion compensation



- Dispersion is a key limiting factor for an optical transmission system
- Several ways to compensate for the dispersion exist
 - More about this in a later lecture...
- One way is to periodically insert fiber with opposite sign of D
 - This is called dispersion-compensating fiber (DCF)
 - Figure shows a system with both SMF and DCF
 - The GVD parameters are β_{21} and β_{22}
- Group-velocity dispersion is perfectly compensated when

$$\beta_{21}I_1 + \beta_{22}I_2 = 0$$
, which is equivalent to $D_1I_1 + D_2I_2 = 0$

GVD and PMD can also be compensated in digital signal processing (DSP)

Fiber losses (2.5)

- Fiber have low loss but the loss grows exponentially with distance
 - Approx. 20–25 dB loss over 100 km
 - Optical receivers add noise...
 - ...and the input power may be too low to obtain sufficient SNR
- The optical power in a fiber decreases exponentially with the propagation distance as $P_{out} = P_{in} \exp(-\alpha z)$
 - α is the attenuation coefficient (unit m⁻¹)
- Often, attenuation is given in dB/km and its relation to α is

$$\alpha_{\text{dB}} = -\frac{1}{L} 10 \log_{10} e^{-\alpha L} = -\frac{10}{L} \frac{\log e^{-\alpha L}}{\log 10} = \frac{10}{\log 10} \alpha \approx 4.343 \alpha$$

• Typical value in SMF at 1550 nm α_{dB} = 0.2 dB/km \Rightarrow α = 0.046 km⁻¹ = 1/(21.7 km)

Attenuation mechanisms

- Material absorption
 - Intrinsic absorption: In the SiO₂ material
 - Electronic transitions (UV absorption)
 - Vibrational transitions (IR absorption)
 - Extrinsic: Due to impurity atoms
 - Metal and OH⁻ ions, dopants
- Rayleigh scattering
 - Occurs when waves scatter off small, randomly oriented particles
 - (Makes the sky blue!)
 - Proportional to λ⁻⁴
- Waveguide imperfections
 - Core-cladding imperfections on $> \lambda$ length scales (Mie scattering)
 - Micro-bending (bending curvature $\sim \lambda$)
 - Macro-bending (negligible unless bending curvature < 1–5 mm)

Total attenuation

- Minimum theoretical loss is 0.15 dB/km at 1550 nm
- Main contributions: Rayleigh scattering and IR absorption
- Left figure: Theoretical curves and measured loss for typical fiber
- Right figure: Loss for sophisticated fiber with negligible loss peak

