

Transmission of signals and  
impairments  
(attenuation and distortion)

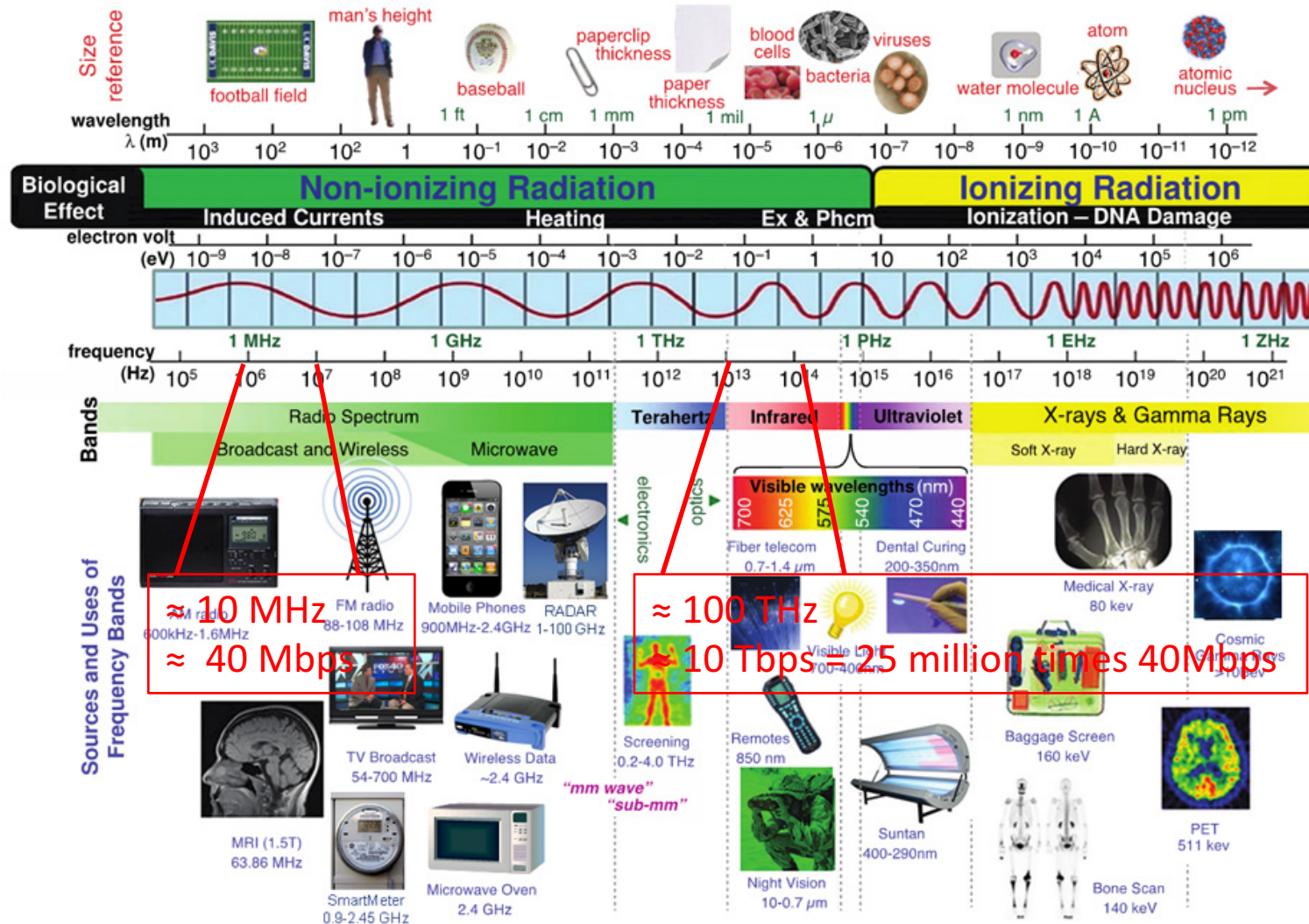
# Optical fibre

- Uses the total internal reflection phenomenon
- Typical path loss is 0.2 dB/Km
  - Signal can go 150 Km without amplification

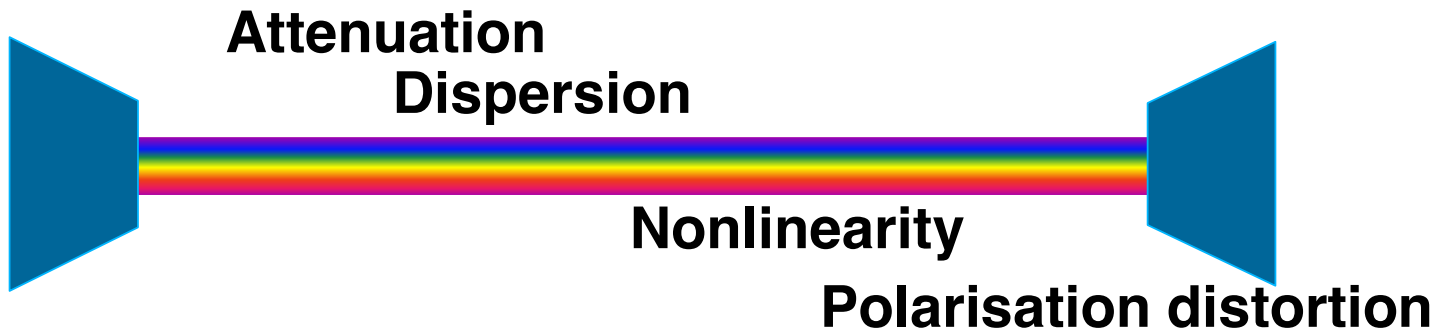


# What is light?

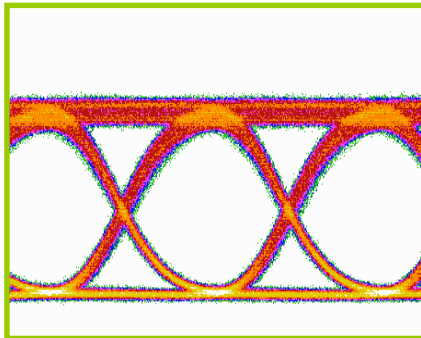
## ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION SPECTRUM



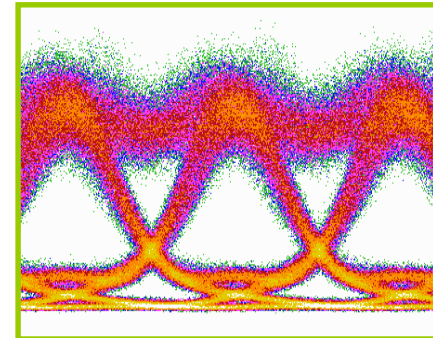
# FIBRE FUNDAMENTALS



The aim is to transmit signals with the minimum distortion



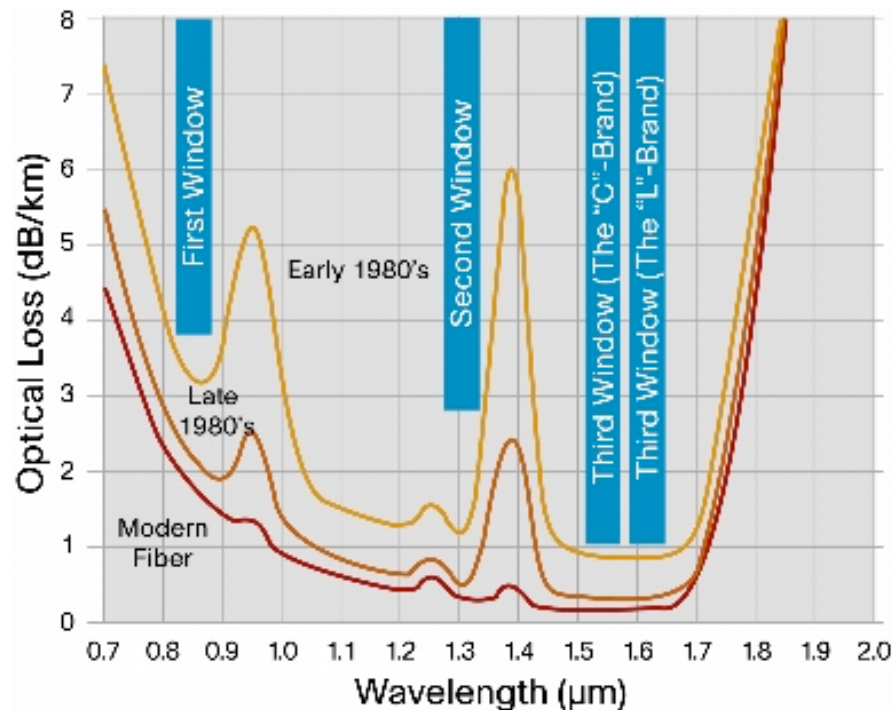
**Transmitted Data Waveform**



**Waveform After 1000 Km**

# Path loss in fibre

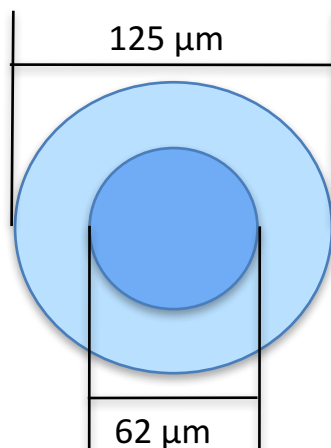
- The amount of power lost during propagation depends on the frequency (or wavelength) used for transmission.
- The smallest loss is at a wavelength of  $1.55\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ , and is  $0.2\text{ dB/Km}$



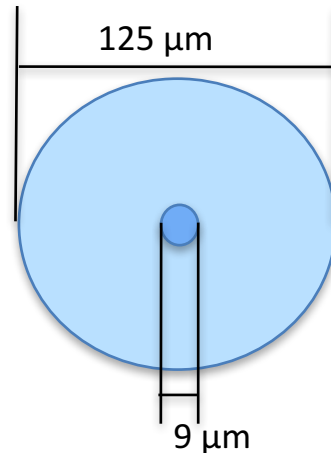
# Single-mode vs. multi-mode

- An optical fibre is made of very pure glass
  - It has a core and a cladding, both made of glass, but with different refraction indexes
- A multi-mode fibre has a larger core, which allows multiple modes of propagation to coexist
- A single-mode fibre has a smaller core, which only allows one propagation mode.

Multi-mode fiber

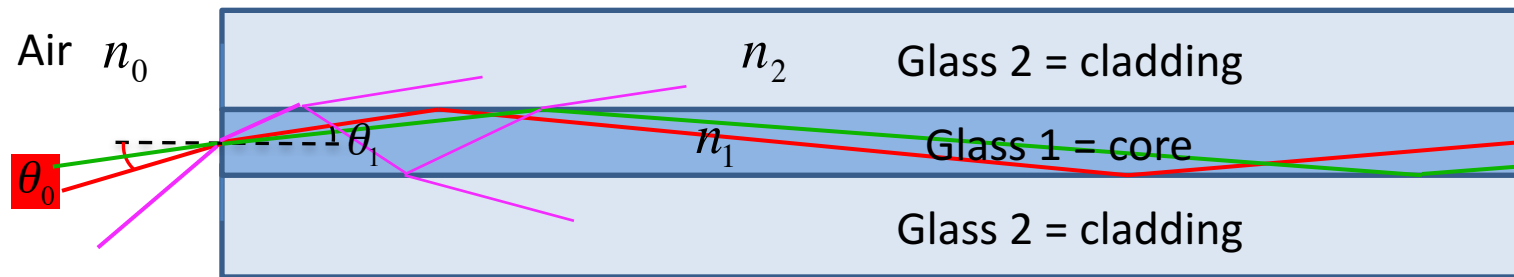


Single-mode fiber



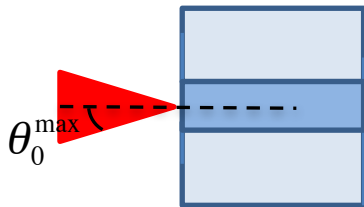
**Single-mode fiber is the most used in telecommunications**

# Propagation in optical fibre



*This fibre is called step-index, because the index  $n$  changes suddenly between cladding and core.*

- Rays — incident at an angle  $\leq \theta_0^{\max}$  will propagate in the fibre through total internal reflection
- Rays — incident at an angle  $> \theta_0^{\max}$  will lose power while propagating through the refracted ray



All rays with  $\theta_0 \leq \theta_0^{\max}$  form a “Cone of acceptance”

$$\theta_0^{\max} = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0}\right)$$

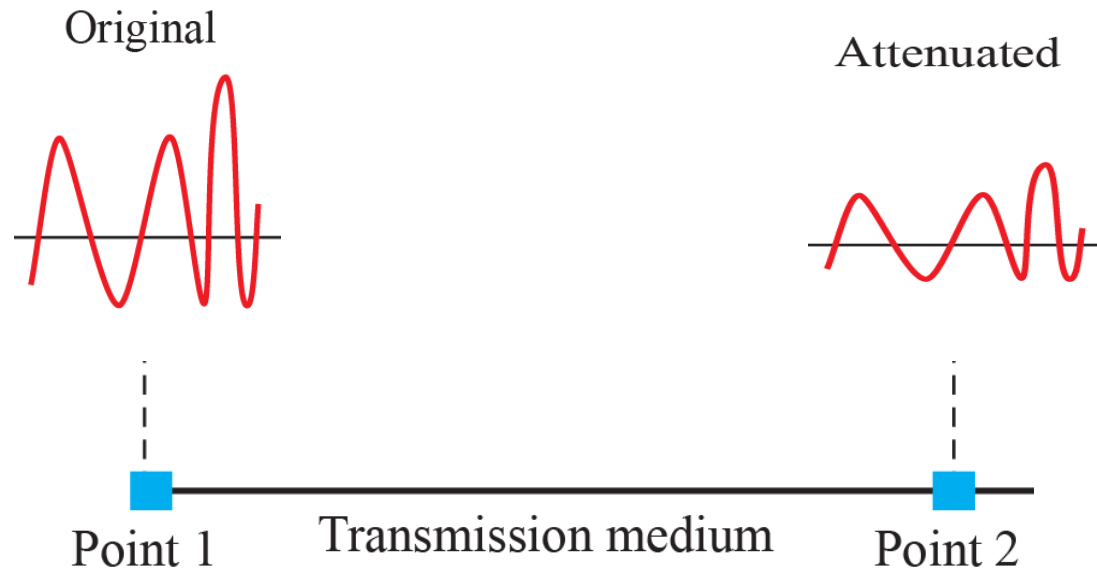
# Signal impairments

- In the real world, signals are transmitted through media which are imperfect, and will change some of the signal properties, thus deteriorating the information it carries.
- Signal impairments can be grouped into three categories:
  - **Attenuation**: the signal loses power as it propagates
  - **Distortion**: the signal changes shape as it propagates
  - **Noise**: interference with other man-made or random signals.



# Attenuation

- Attenuation reduces the signal power progressively as it propagates in a lossy medium.



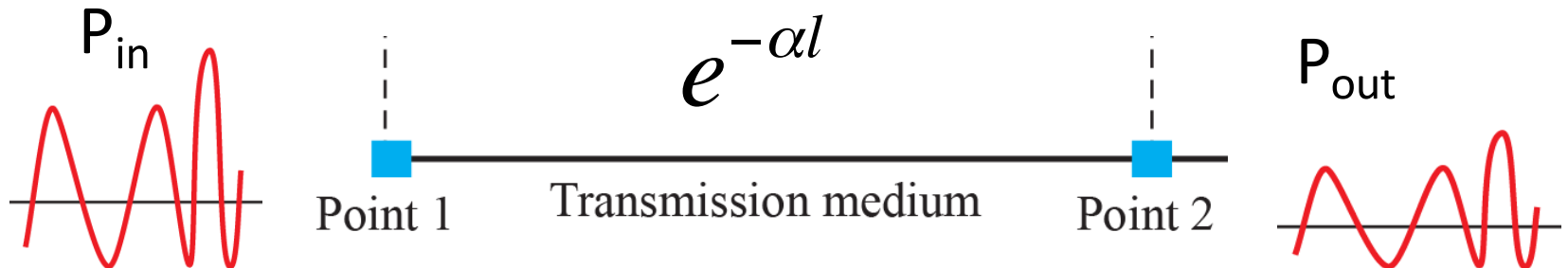
# Attenuation calculations

- The loss of power in a lossy transmission medium follows an exponential law.
- If we name  $P_{in}$  the input power we launch in the medium and  $P_{out}$  the output power, this relation holds:

$$P_{out} = P_{in} e^{-\alpha l} \text{ [W]}$$

$\alpha$  is the loss coefficient,  $l$  the transmission distance

- Power is measured in Watts [W]



# Power loss

- In telecommunication systems it is common to measure the power loss, which can be expressed as the ratio between output power and input power

$$L = \frac{P_{in}}{P_{out}} = e^{\alpha l}$$

# The Decibel unit (dB)

- Decibels (dB): since power loss follows an exponential law, typical ranges can be several order of magnitude: i.e. from 0.0000001 to 1000 Watts [W]
- It is common to use a **logarithmic** scale to represent the ratio between two quantities.
- Since power loss (L) is the ratio between two quantities, this can be well expressed in dB

$$L_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{P_{out}} \right)$$

- notice that being a ratio of two similar dimensions **L is dimensionless**

# dB conversions

- $L = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{P_{out}} \right)$  tells how to calculate exactly the dB value, so you can do that precisely with a calculator
- However there are also simple useful rules that can be applied:
  - doubling the loss equals adding 3dB
  - halving the loss equals subtracting 3dB
  - Multiplying the loss by 10 means adding 10dB
  - Dividing the loss by 10 means subtracting 10dB

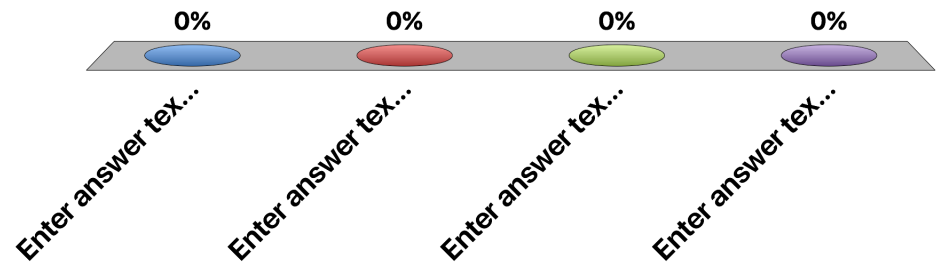
Loss ratio	Loss in dB
1	0
2	3
4	6
10	10
100	20
0.4	-4
0.1	-10
0.01	-20

# Examples of dB conversion

- Convert a loss of 80 into dB
  - ➔  $80 = 1 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 10$
  - ➔  $\ln \text{ dB} = 0 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 10 = 19 \text{ dB}$
- Convert a loss of 0.04 into dB
  - ➔  $0.04 = 0.01 \times 2 \times 2 = 1 / 100 \times 2 \times 2$
  - ➔  $\ln \text{ dB} = 0 - 20 + 3 + 3 = -14$   
(A negative loss is an amplification!)
- Convert a loss of 22 dB into decimal
  - ➔  $23 = 0 + 3 + 20$
  - ➔  $\ln \text{ dB} = 1 * 2 * 100 = 200$

# Why use dB (i.e., logarithmic scale)?

- A. It expands a small range into a large interval of numbers
- B. It can be measured in Watts
- C. It increases by multiple of 3 dB
- D. It compresses a large range of values into smaller numbers



# dBW and dBm

- We said that dB is dimensionless, so it cannot be used to measure input or output power but only their ratio (i.e., the power loss)
- However, if I put at the denominator a fixed reference power of 1W, then I can express power unit in **dBW**.

$$P_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{1W} \right)$$

- $P_{dB}$  is measured in:
  - dBW (dB\_Watt), if the reference power is 1 W
  - dBm (dB\_MilliWatt) if the reference power is 1mW



# dBW

- $P = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{1W} \right)$  gives the precise amount of dBW
- However the same simple rules we saw can be applied here as well:
  - doubling the power equals adding 3dB
  - halving the power equals subtracting 3dB
  - Multiplying the power by 10 means adding 10dB
  - Dividing the power by 10 means subtracting 10dB

Loss ratio	Loss in dB
1	0
2	3
4	6
10	10
100	20
0.4	-4
0.1	-10
0.01	-20

# dBm

$$P = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{1mW} \right) = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{in}}{0.001W} \right) \text{ expresses power in dBm}$$

- Same simple rules apply...
  - Notice the relation between dBW and dBm:
    - 1 mW = 0.001 W = 1 W / 1000
- 0 dBm =                      = 0 dBW -30 = -30dBW

So dBm and dBW are separated by 30 dB

Loss ratio	Loss in dB
1	0
2	3
4	6
10	10
100	20
0.4	-4
0.1	-10
0.01	-20

# Attenuation calculations in dB

- One advantage of dB calculations is that when using logarithms, multiplication and divisions become addition and subtraction

- If I have an input power of 8 mW and a loss value of 200:

- Out power in mW:  $P_{out} = \frac{8}{200} = 0.04mW$

- Out power In dBW:  $P_{out} = 9dBm - 23dB = -14dBm$

# Example

- A signal with a launch power of 4 mW propagates through 100m of line with loss of 0.1 dB/m, it then gets amplified by 200 times, and is transmitted again through another transmission line with an overall loss of 22 dB.
- What is the power at the receiver in mW?
- The best way is to work in dB, so change all values into dB and then operate sums and subtractions:
  - Launch power 4 mW  $\rightarrow$  6dBm
  - First loss: 100m x 0.1dB/m  $\rightarrow$  -10dB
  - Amplification of 200 times  $\rightarrow$  +23dB
  - Second loss  $\rightarrow$  -22 dB
  - $\rightarrow$  Received power = 6-10+23-22=-3 dBm  $\rightarrow$  0.5 mW

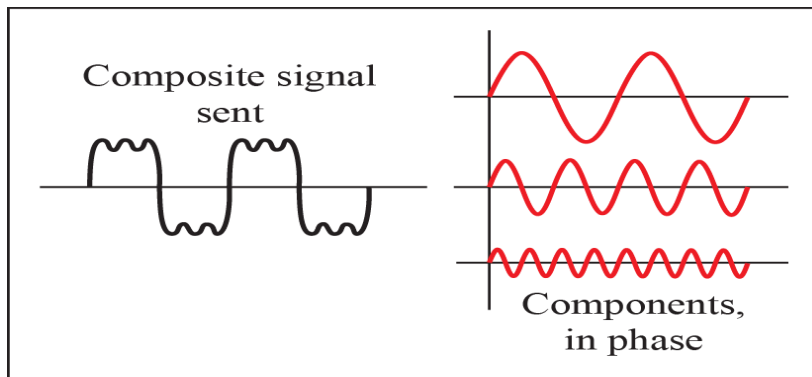
**Notice that when I calculate output power, losses are subtractions and amplification are sums!**

# Signal impairments

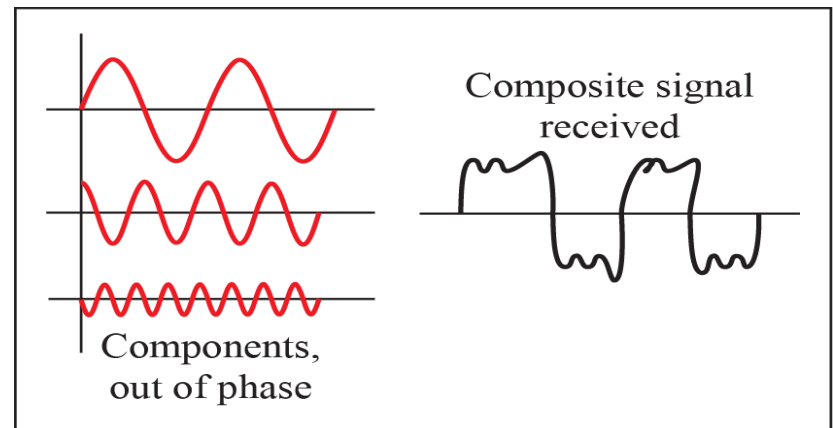
- **Attenuation**: the signal loses power as it propagates
- **Distortion**: the signal changes shape as it propagates
- **Noise**: interference with other man-made or random signals.

# Distortion

- Distortion changes the shape of the signal as it propagates. The reason is that the different frequencies propagate differently in the transmission medium (i.e., at different speed).
- Since a signal is the sum of multiple frequency components, at the receiver the frequency components will sum up with different delays, building a different signal from the original



At the sender

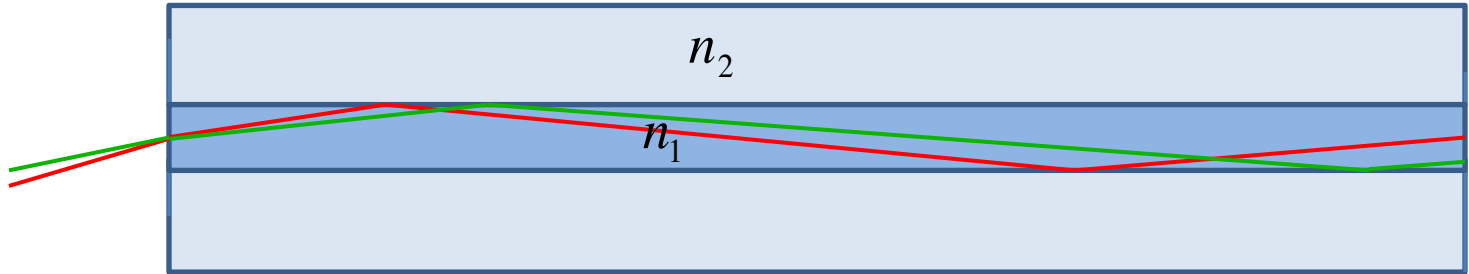


At the receiver

# Dispersion in optical fibre

- Dispersions is a major cause of distortion in optical fibre. There are three types of dispersion:
  - Modal dispersion: occurs in multi-mode fibre, where different modes can propagate in parallel at different speed. This is very severe, but it only occurs in multi-mode fibres.  
→ Today typically single-mode fibres are used, which do not suffer from this issue.
  - Chromatic dispersion: because a light pulse (even if made of a single mode) is composed by different frequencies (remember the Fourier Series/Integral) which propagate at different speed. This causes the light pulse to spread out.
  - Polarization mode dispersion: because pulses typically propagate across two perpendicular polarizations, a vertical one and a horizontal one. Due to fibre asymmetries one polarization can propagate at a different speed than the other, causing the whole pulse (seen as the sum of the two polarizations) to spread out.

# Modal dispersion



- The **green** and **red** rays are called modes of propagation in the fiber.
- Since **red** is reflected at a narrower angle than **green**, it will travel a longer distance for a same amount of fibre.
- Since **green** and **red** travel at the same speed, **red** will arrive at destination later than **green**.



# Impairments caused by modal dispersion

- If I transmit a pulse it will be composed of a number of different rays, for example **red** and **green**



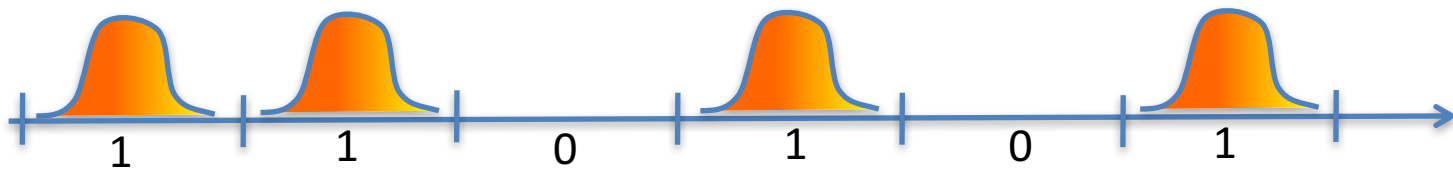
because **red** is slower than **green** the pulse spreads, and its peak power decreases

- In a communication channel where I transmit a series of pulses, they end up overlapping → intersymbol interference (ISI)

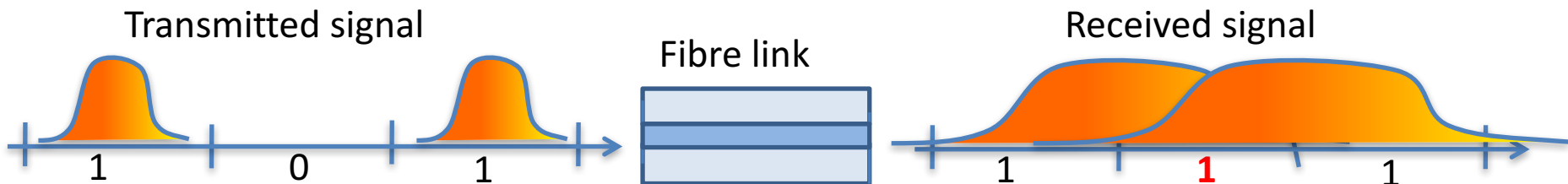


# Chromatic dispersion

- Each pulse has a finite spectral width as it's made of a number of adjacent frequencies (remember the Fourier series/integral)



- Chromatic dispersion makes different frequencies travel at different speed: as a result the pulse spreads, causing transmission errors



# Chromatic dispersion calculation

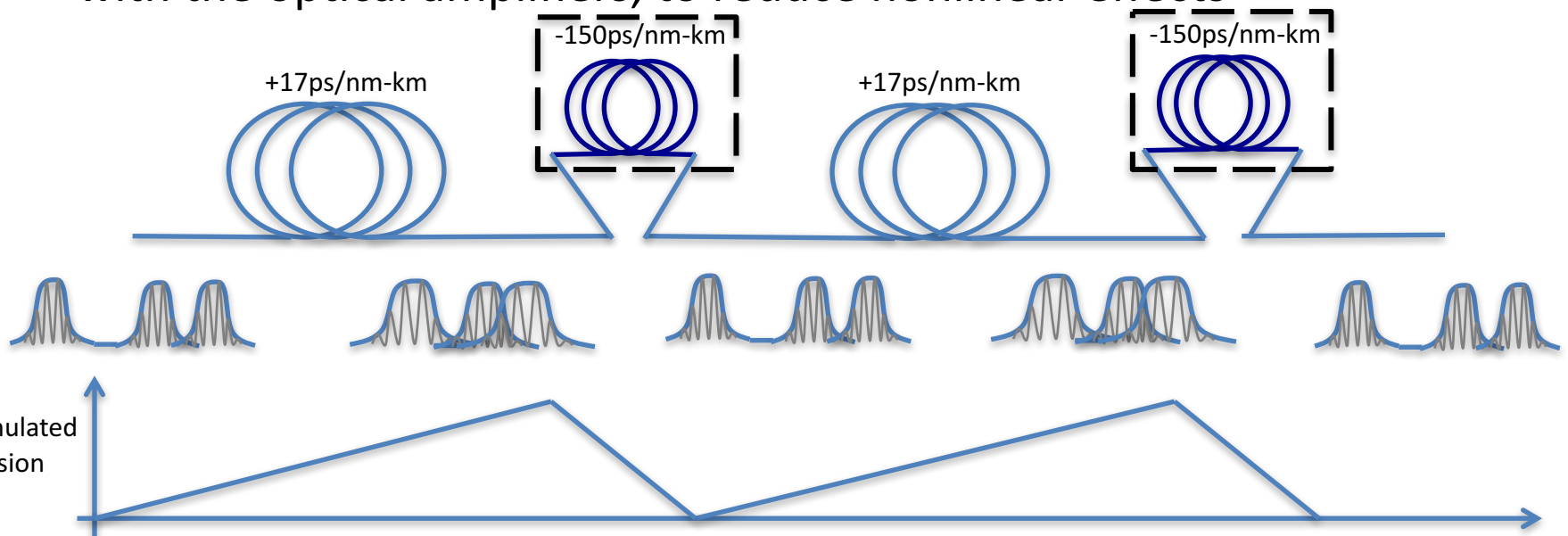
- The dispersion coefficient  $D$  is  $D = -\frac{\lambda}{c} \frac{\partial^2 n}{\partial \lambda^2}$  and is measured in  $\frac{ps}{nm \cdot km}$
- We see it depends on the variation of the refractive index with wavelength, as well as to the wavelength itself
- In fibre the refractive index decreases as the wavelength increases (= frequency decreases), thus higher wavelength (= lower frequencies) travel faster than lower frequencies.



- The dispersion increases with the signal bandwidth.
- The pulse broadening increases with the distance.
- $D$  is positive ( $17 \frac{ps}{nm \cdot km}$ , at 1550 nm) in optical fibre, meaning that a pulse of bandwidth 1 nm, will spread by 17 ps after 1km distance

# Chromatic dispersion compensation

- If the dispersion accumulated is too large it will make pulses overlap, thus it needs to be compensated.
- Up to a few years ago, a typical way of compensating chromatic dispersion consists on adding a length of fiber with opposite dispersion characteristic, called Dispersion compensating Fibre (DCF)
- If done with DCF, compensation can be done at the end of the link. However it is usually distributed over multiple stages and co-located with the optical amplifiers, to reduce nonlinear effects

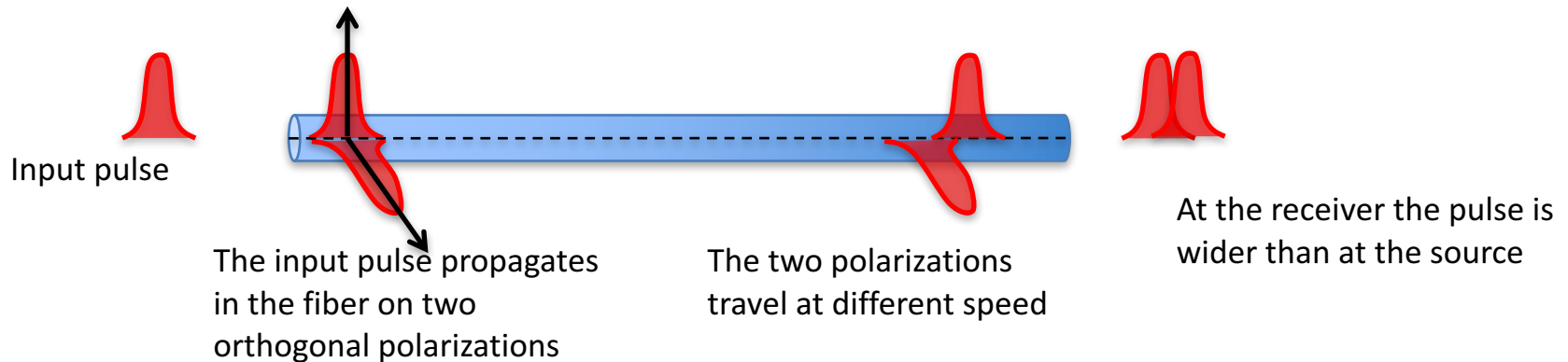


# Modern Dispersion compensation

- Today coherent transmission systems can digitally compensate for all dispersion at the receiver.
- Since the receiver has both amplitude and phase information of the received signal, and the dispersion of fibre is well known, the receiver can fully compensate it by applying a digital filter.
- In this module, as far as exercises are concerned, we'll assume that the dispersion can be compensated at the receiver.

# Polarization-mode dispersion (PMD)

- The electric field in a single mode fibre propagates with two orthogonal polarization
- Because of imperfect production techniques, the fiber is not completely symmetrical
  - ➔ The two orthogonal components of the electric field have different propagation characteristics



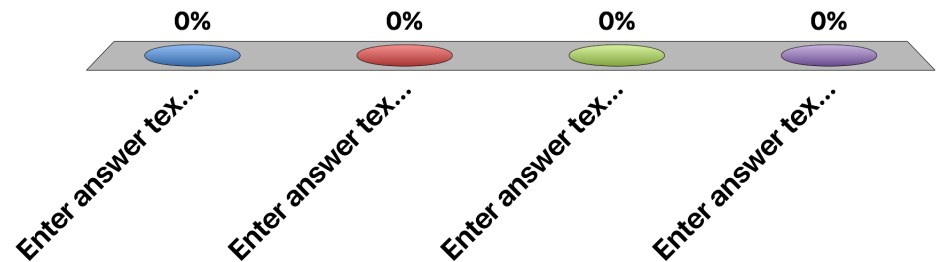
- PMD is less severe than chromatic dispersion: about 0.5 ps/km

# Distortion caused by non-linear effects

- Nonlinearity implies that the transfer function of the fiber depends on the signal being transmitted. Their effects increase with the transmitted power.
- Mentioning a few effects:
  - Self-phase modulation (SPM): since the refractive index depends on the intensity of the traveling light, an amplitude-modulated signal sees different values of  $n$ , and is subject to a different propagation constant
  - Cross-phase modulation (CPM): if there are multiple wavelengths in a fiber (WDM), the modulation of other wavelengths produce changes in the refractive index that affects (re-modulate) the signal
  - Both SPM and CPM produce a broadening of the pulse, so create additional dispersion and are more problematic at higher rates
  - Four-wave mixing (FWM): the refractive index nonlinearity also generates new frequencies (e.g.  $2\omega_i - \omega_j, \omega_i + \omega_j - \omega_k$ ). This can generate noise in WDM systems. It does not depend on data rate, but it is worse when the waveneght spacing is small

# What is the largest cause of dispersion in single-mode fibre

- A. Modal dispersion
- B. Chromatic dispersion
- C. Polarisation-mode dispersion





# In single mode fibre

- A. Propagation speed increases with frequency
- B. Dispersion is not compensated in modern coherent systems
- C. Multiple wavelengths can propagate in parallel
- D. modal dispersion is 100 times less severe than chromatic dispersion

