

# Physical Layer Cabling: Fiber-Optic

- **Fiber-Optic Basics**
- **The EM Spectrum: Physics and Math**
- **Attenuation and Dispersion in Fiber**
- **Fiber-Optic Hardware**
- **Networking over Fiber-Optic**
- **Safety with Fiber**

# Fiber-Optic Basics

- Fiber-optic cabling is becoming more common for providing high-speed network cabling – displacing copper, in many places
- In particular, it is useful for supporting faster variants of Ethernet, such as 10 Gigabit and higher.
- Requirements are defined in the TIA/EIA 568-B.3 standards.
- A fiber-optic network features four components (*Figure 3.1*):
  1. **Fibers** (within cables) that carry data as (modulated) light beams
  2. A light **source** that places data/signal onto the beam
  3. A light **detector** that converts the (optical) signal back to electrical
  4. Optical **connectors** linking the cable to the source and detector

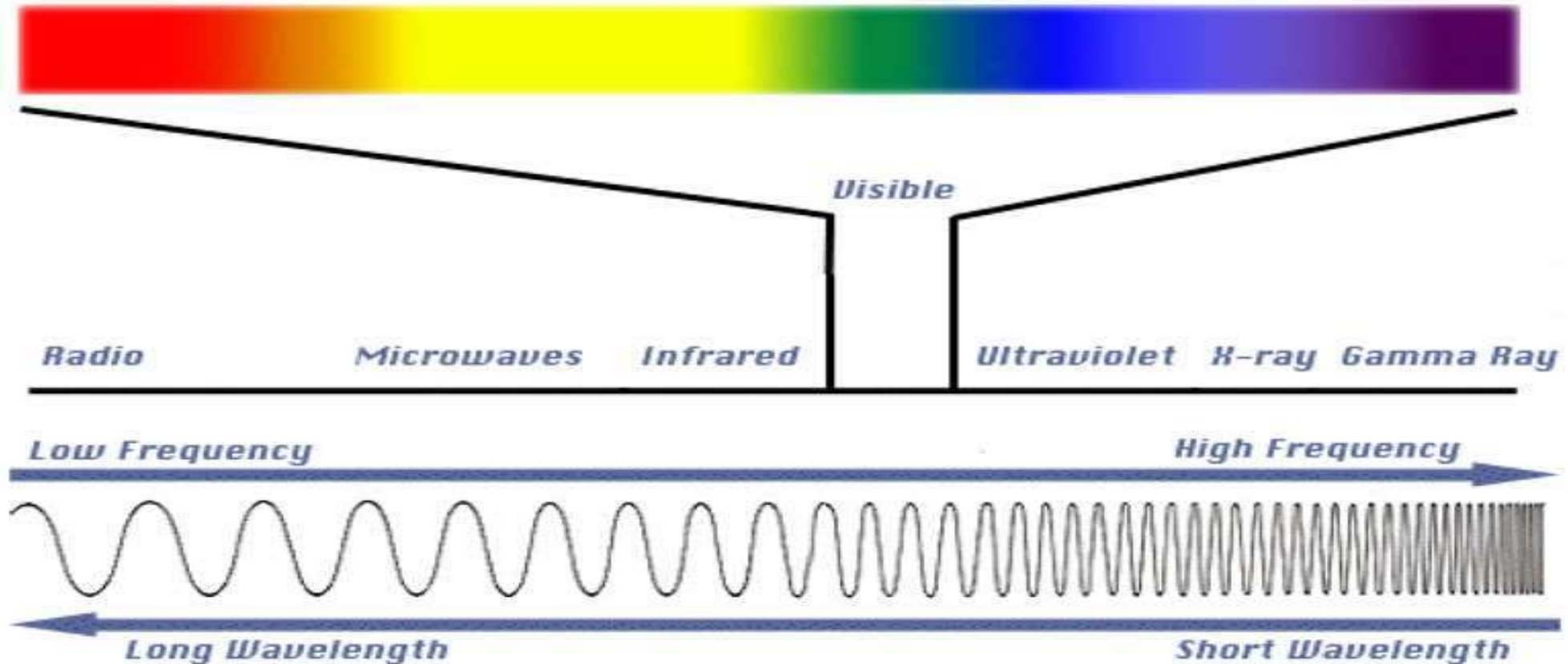
# Fiber-Optic Basics

- As compared to copper, fiber-optic cabling features many substantial advantages:
  - Most notably, the bandwidth is much higher – allowing for speeds well over 10 Gbps, when using laser light sources.
  - Also, fiber-optic cabling reduces or eliminates much of the signal issues of copper – electrical noise, crosstalk, and attenuation.
  - In addition, there are several practical advantages outside of speed and signal:
    - Reduced costs of fiber-optic cabling
    - Elimination of electrical hazards
    - No vulnerability to corrosion
    - Very difficult to tap or intercept

# The Science Behind It...

- The behavior of fiber optic cabling is based upon the transmission of *electromagnetic radiation (EMR)*:
  - What is EMR?
  - What are some technologies that make use of it?
    - Radios
    - Microwave Ovens
    - X-Ray machines
- You will hear the term "light" used much more generally to refer to EMR – versus our more common definition of *visible* light.
- These varieties of EMR are all located on the *electromagnetic spectrum*.

# The EM Spectrum

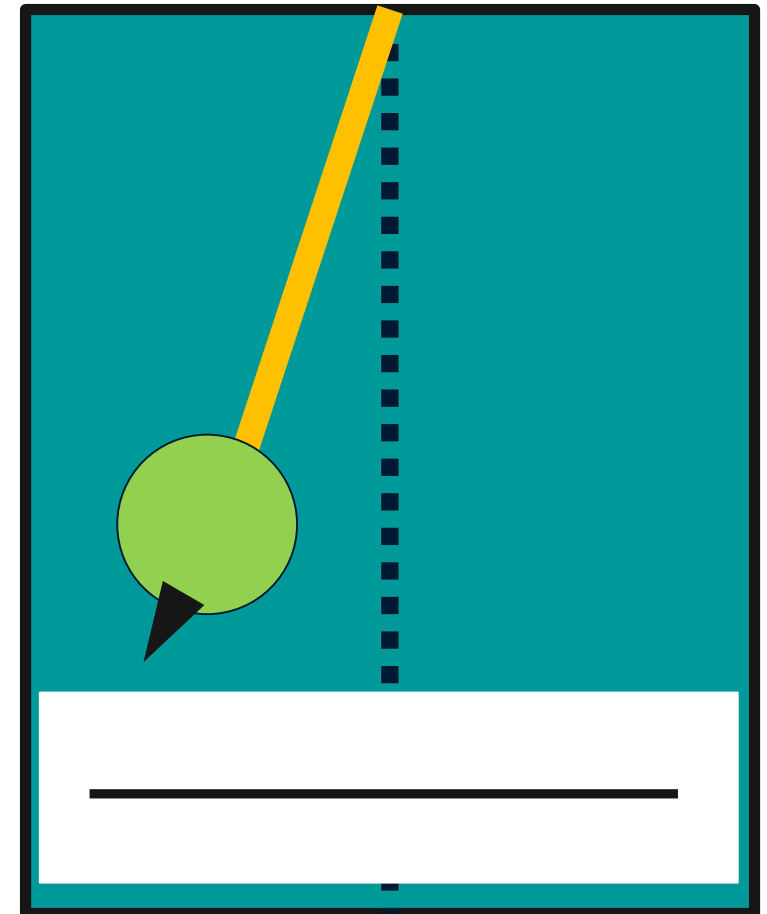


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**Video:** <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cfXzwh3KadE>

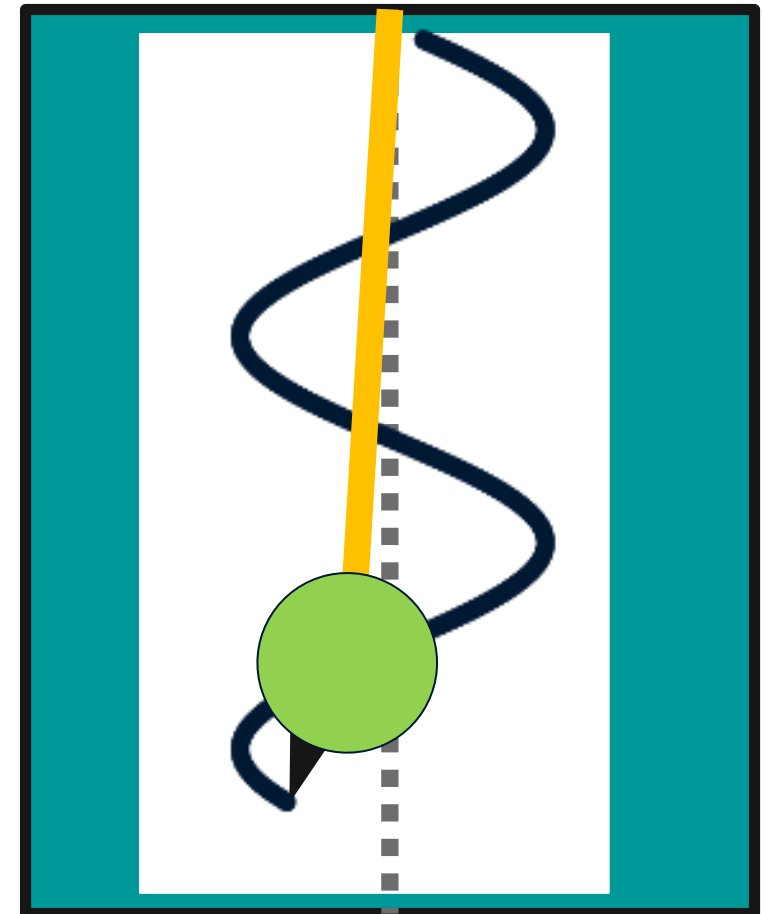
# The EM Spectrum

- EMR is generally conceptualized as waves – cyclic variations about a "center", in which energy is transferred. (In this case, the energy comes from various forms of EM activity.)
- To envision this, imagine a pendulum swinging to and fro...
  - With a pencil lead at the lowest point
  - In constant contact with paper
- If the paper is stationary, all the marks will remain within a single, one-dimensional space.



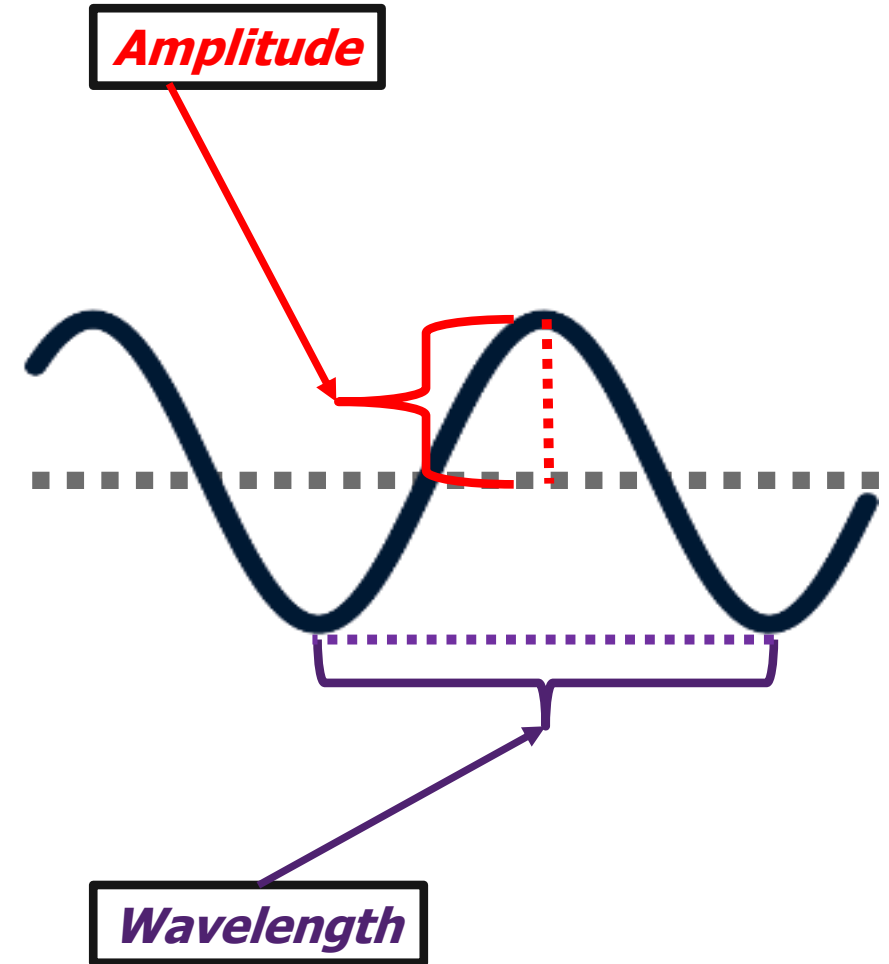
# The EM Spectrum

- However, if the paper – here being of indefinite length – is moving...
  - in one direction
  - at a constant speed
  - perpendicular to the pendulum's plane of motion
- ...then you will see a graph of the pendulum's position, relative to the center, over time
- In other words, a wave



# The EM Spectrum

- A wave – of EM radiation or another type – will feature a number of properties:
  - **Amplitude (A)**: The height of a wave, from the center. Unit: *meters*.
  - **Wavelength ( $\lambda$ )**: The distance between two analogous points on the wave graph. Unit: *meters*.
  - **Frequency (f)**: The number of waves passing a given point during a given time. Unit: *Hertz* or  $s^{-1}$
  - **Wave speed (v)**: wavelength multiplied by frequency. Unit:  $m*s^{-1}$  or *m/s*







MULTIPLICATION FACTOR	PREFIX	SYMBOL
1 000 000 000 000 000 000 = $10^{18}$	exa	E
1 000 000 000 000 000 = $10^{15}$	peta	P
1 000 000 000 000 = $10^{12}$	tera	T
1 000 000 000 = $10^9$	giga	G
1 000 000 = $10^6$	mega	M
1 000 = $10^3$	kilo	k
100 = $10^2$	hecto	h
10 = $10^1$	deka	da
0.1 = $10^{-1}$	deci	d
0.01 = $10^{-2}$	centi	c
0.001 = $10^{-3}$	milli	m
0.000 001 = $10^{-6}$	micro	μ
0.000 000 001 = $10^{-9}$	nano	n
0.000 000 000 001 = $10^{-12}$	pico	p
0.000 000 000 000 001 = $10^{-15}$	femto	f
0.000 000 000 000 000 001 = $10^{-18}$	atto	a

# The EM Spectrum

- In a vacuum, light (i.e., electromagnetic radiation) travels at a speed of  $3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$  (or  $\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ).
- **Recall:**  $v = f \cdot \lambda$ . Therefore, if you know a signal's frequency, then you can calculate its wavelength by dividing the speed of light ( $c$ ) by the frequency.  $\lambda = c / f$
- Consider WBZ, a Boston radio station broadcasting at a frequency of 1030 kHz – or 1.03 MHz:

$$\lambda = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}}{1.03 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}}$$

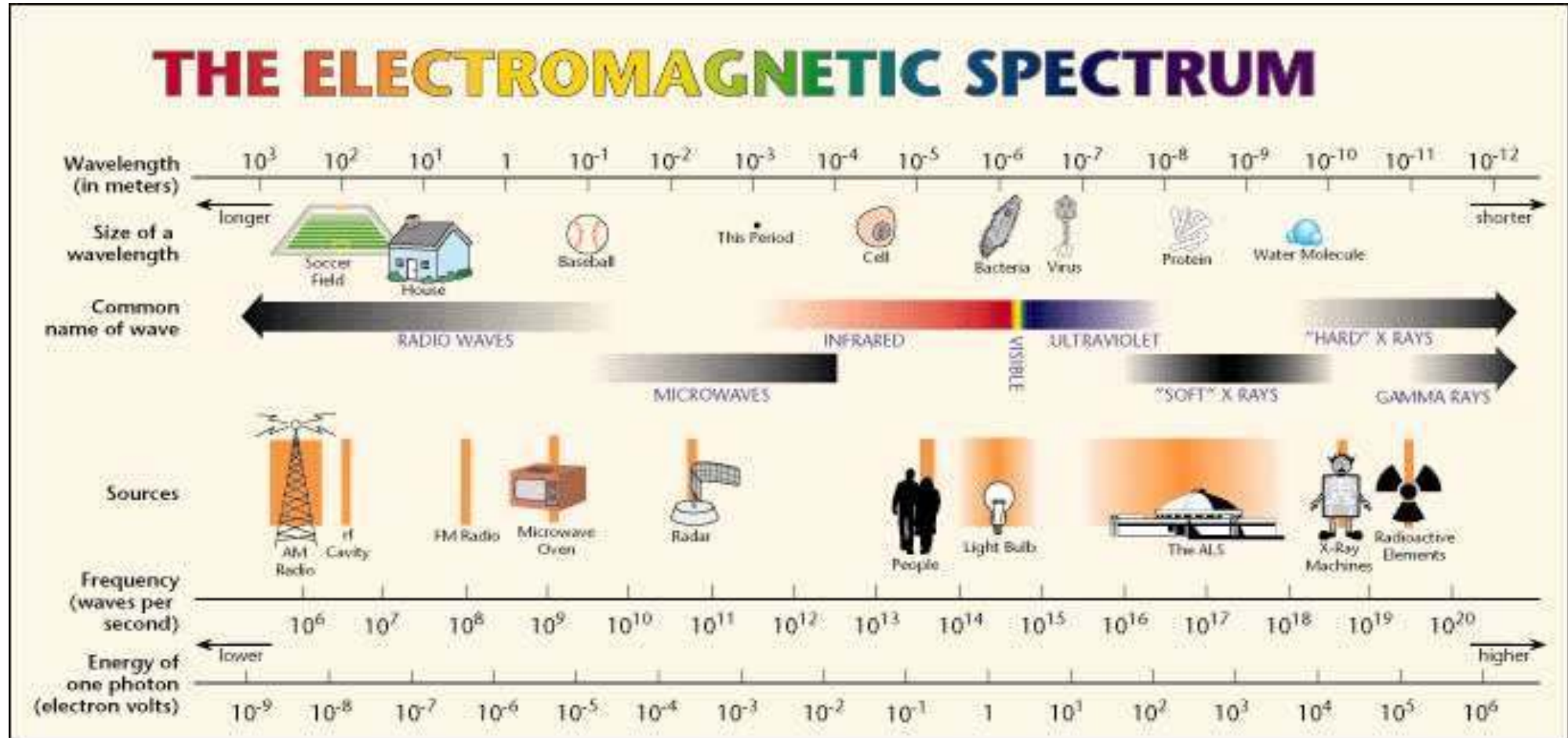
$$\lambda = \frac{3.00 \times 10^{\cancel{8}} \text{ m} \cdot \cancel{\text{s}^{-1}}}{1.03 \times 10^{\cancel{6}} \cancel{\text{s}^{-1}}}$$

# The EM Spectrum

$$\lambda = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^2 \cancel{\text{s}^{-1}}}{1.03 \times 10^6 \cancel{\text{s}^{-1}}} \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{3.00 \times 10^2 \text{ m}}{1.03} \rightarrow \lambda \approx 2.91 \times 10^2 \text{ m}$$

- In doing this, it is important to keep track of your units, including which ones combine or cancel out in the arithmetic.
- Understanding these concepts will be helpful not only for this chapter but also for subsequent chapters, such as wireless networking, which also uses EMR

# The EM Spectrum



# Nature of Light - *Refraction*

- The aforementioned speed of light ( $3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ ) is within a vacuum. However, within a medium, that speed may be reduced.
- When light passes from one physical medium into another – different densities -- its speed can change, causing it to bend. This bending is called refraction.
  - You can see this in the textbook in *Figure 3-2*.
  - At the very least, you get an angle off (part a). Imagine looking at a pencil in a glass of water, where the pencil will appear “cut”.
  - When the light is composed of different frequencies, you may get a *prism* effect (part b), as the frequencies experience different levels of change in speed/direction.

# Nature of Light - *Refraction*

- Each of the two materials will have a refractive index ( $n$ ) that indicates how much the light bends
  - It is calculated as a ratio of light speed in a vacuum to its speed through the material
  - A higher  $n$  value indicates that light is slowed down more when passing through the material.
- With *visible light*, in particular, it is often easier to speak of wavelength (in *nm*) rather than frequency because the numbers for the former are smaller.
- Wavelengths 680nm and above are considered part of the optical spectrum.

# Nature of Light - *Reflection*

- Reflection is what happens when light strikes a boundary and bounces back – rather than penetrating or being absorbed.
- First, we should realize that light is always passing through some medium: a vacuum, air, water, glass, etc.
- Each medium has a refractive index.
  - A vacuum, trivially, has an index of 1.000
  - Gases tend to be slightly higher, less than or equal to 1.001
  - Water is at 1.330
  - Solids have even higher refractive indices, such as diamond at 2.419 and the element Germanium (Ge) at over 4.000



# Nature of Light - Reflection

- These values, of course, are based upon the media at particular temperatures.
  - *Still, the temperature-based variations are rather small, so they would mostly matter in situations where precision is key.*
- But...how does this pertain to reflection?
- Reflection is caused by light passing...
  - **from** a medium with a *greater* refractive index ...
  - **to** one with a *lower* index.

# Nature of Light - Reflection

- The reflection can be partial – with the rest of the light being refracted or absorbed – or total.
  - This is affected by the angle at which the light wave hits the interface between the two media.
  - Within a certain range of angles, the wave will experience total internal reflection (TIR) – where the wave, as the name implies, will not penetrate the medium at all but, rather, be completely reflected.
  - **Video:** <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2kBOqfS0nmE>
  - This is how light-based signals propagate through a fiber-optic cable – by continuous TIR.

# Optical Anatomy

- In some ways, the construction of fiber-optic cables is considerably simpler than that of twisted-pair.
- A basic cable will consist of three layers:
  - **Core**: Carries the light down the cable
  - **Cladding**: Surrounds the core and has a lower refractive index so that the transmitted light will be continuously reflected inside and through the core.
  - **Jacket**: A protective coating of plastic
- Aside from these basics, optic fiber may vary in thickness, material, and modes (of signal propagation).

# Optical Anatomy

- One important factor for any kind of fiber is its numerical aperture, the ability to accept light and have the signal fully propagate.
  - A cable will have a range of directions – an acceptance cone – from which it can accept light and still experience TIR.
  - The cone will make an angle, and the numerical aperture is calculated based on that cone.
  - Similarly, if you know this value, then you can determine the range of the cone.

# Optical Anatomy

- Optical fibers can be differentiated by their mode of propagation, which concerns paths light can take through the fiber – i.e., frequency of bounces.
  - Multi-mode fiber allows for light to take more than one path through the fiber from start to end.
    - This can lead to pulse dispersion, where the signal stretches due to different paths through the cable. This can weaken the signal over longer distances
    - Multi-mode fiber has two varieties:
      - Step-Index (Figure 3-6): The modes are discretely separated.
      - Graded-Index (Figure 3-7): The variation in refractive index is more gradual, leading to greater preservation of the pulse.

# Optical Anatomy

- Single-mode: The light follows a single path. Cores are much narrower, as compared to multi-mode.
  - These cables are useful in long haul applications – transmission of data over extremely long distances.
  - Specifications for single-mode cables will often give the mode field diameter.
- Figure 3-8 shows comparisons in terms of core sizes, light paths, and light pulse preservation.
- Fiber optics systems tend to use light with wavelengths in the range of 850 to 1550 nm, depending on the type of cable.
  - However, longer wavelengths may be explored for single-mode fiber.
  - What type of waves are these?

# Distance-Limiting Parameters

- Although fiber-optic cables are capable of providing higher bandwidths over longer distances (as compared to copper twisted-pair), they too have their limitations.
- Signal travels in the form of light pulses, with some distance limits imposed by attenuation and dispersion.
- **Attenuation** is the loss of signal strength as the light propagates over a distance, as a result of four factors:
  1. Most loss is from **scattering** due to slight changes in refractive index – similar to air molecules scattering sunlight, making the sky appear blue.
  2. Signal is also lost to **absorption**, where some of the light interacts with the fiber (at an atomic level) and is converted to heat

# Distance-Limiting Parameters

3. **Macrobending** refers to larger-scale (i.e., relative to fiber diameter) bends in the fiber that cause light to penetrate the cladding.
  4. **Microbending** loss is from tiny deformations in the fiber caused by physical stress.
- It is typically measured in terms of decibels per kilometer (dB/km).
  - **Dispersion** – Or **pulse broadening** – is when a light pulse widens during transmission, causing possible bit errors (Figure 3-10)
    - Three types of dispersion are distinguished by their causes...
      1. In **modal dispersion**, a pulse broadens on account of different paths taken by different modes – such that they do not all arrive at the same time.



# Distance-Limiting Parameters

3. Chromatic dispersion occurs because of the velocities of the different frequencies in a light pulse.
  4. Finally, light pulses have horizontal and vertical polarizations, where differing velocities for each can lead to polarization mode dispersion.
- A cable with have a zero-dispersion wavelength – dependent on refractive index – where there is zero dispersion.
  - Shifts in this figure can help to compensate for dispersion, along with technologies such as...
    - Dispersion compensating fiber
    - Fiber Bragg grating

# Optical Hardware

- To recap, the four main piece of fiber optic hardware are: light sources, light detectors, the intermediate components (i.e., fiber), and connections.
- To begin with, the electrical signals must be converted into light pulses by either of two types of **sources**:
  1. **Diode Laser (DL)** : Can send data more quickly and put more signal power into a thinner fiber, more efficiently than LED. However, it also more expensive than LED and requires more complex circuitry.

# Optical Hardware

2. Light-Emitting Diode (LED) : These are not as fast or powerful as DL, but they are cheaper and easier to maintain. Their wider wavelengths mean that they are more susceptible to problems like dispersion.
- In addition, there are other forms of lasers used:
    - Distributed feedback (DFB) lasers, which are used in in dense wavelength division multiplex (DWDM) systems
    - Vertical cavity surface emitting lasers (VCSELs)
    - Tunable lasers, whose emission wavelength can be altered

# Optical Hardware

- Light detectors are responsible for converting the received light pulses back into electronic signals – i.e., bits
- Detectors can be characterized by:
  - Responsivity: Current put out for light received
  - Response speed: Potential data output rate of the detector
  - Spectral response: Actual responsivity relative to specified, for a particular wavelength.
- For these two to communicate, we need intermediates to link them...

# Optical Hardware

- The primary form of intermediate hardware (i.e., channels of signal transmission) is the fiber-optic strand, often called...
  - Fiber
  - Light pipe
  - Glass
- Beyond this, there are other – more specialized – forms of intermediate hardware:
  - Isolators, which keep the optical power flowing in a single direction
  - Attenuators, which reduce signal into a receiver
  - Other devices for splitting or altering signal

# Optical Hardware

- For effective signal transmission, fibers must be properly aligned with sources and detectors.
- Various alignment problems (Figure 3-13) may result in signal loss. Much of this can be achieved through effective joining:
  - Splicing is joining two fibers together, by one of two methods:
    1. Fusion splicing: A more permanent physical fusing/welding of the two. Video: <https://youtu.be/DIiBVuuRUtM?t=175>
    2. Mechanical splicing: Here, the splices leaves an air gap between the two fiber ends, which is filled with an index-matching gel

# Optical Hardware

- Just as copper twisted-pair cables have (typically) RJ-45 **connectors**, there are also several for fiber-optic cables.
- Some of the more common ones are SC, ST, FC, LC, and MT-RJ – which you can see in Figure 3-14
- Several concerns factor into connector choice
  - Ease of installation
  - Insertion loss and return loss
  - Repeatability
  - Cost
- Fiber-optic cable termination:  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rKWLCVgkNtM>

# Optical Networking

- As networking needs increase – so do demands for transmission bandwidth, creating scenarios that fiber-optic networking is well positioned to address:
  - Fiber expense (relative to copper) is diminishing
  - Fiber offers higher bandwidth and security – and over longer distances than copper
- Fiber-optic network types
  - SONET/SDH
  - Optical Ethernet



# Optical Networking

- For many years, the SONET (synchronous optical network) and SDH (synchronous digital hierarchy) were key in long-haul optical networking, offering...
  - Increase in network reliability
  - Network management
  - Defining methods for synchronous multiplexing of digital signals
  - Defining a set of generic operating/equipment standards
  - Flexible architecture

# Optical Networking

- SONET/SDH defines a *hierarchy* of data rates:

Signal	Bit Rate	Capacity
OC-1 (STS-1)	51.840Mbps	28DS-1s or 1 DS-3
OC-3 (STS-3)	155.52Mbps	84DS-1s or 3 DS-3s
OC-12 (STS-12)	622.080Mbps	336 DS-1s or 12 DS-3s
OC-48 (STS-48)	2.48832Gbps	1344 DS-1s or 48 DS-3s
OC-192 (STS-192)	9.95328Gbps	5376 DS-1s or 192 DS-3s

- Acronyms:

- OC - optical carrier
- STS - synchronous transport signals
- DS - digital signal (1 → 1.544 Mbps, 3 → 44.736 Mbps)

# Optical Networking

- Optical Ethernet has several numerics, similar to those given for twisted pair
  - In the case of fiber-optic, we assume distances of up to **2 km** (for multimode fiber) or **10 km** (for single mode)
  - Examples include:
    - ***10BASE-F***: 10 Mbps over fiber (generic specification)
    - ***100BASE-FX***: 100 Mbps over two strands of fiber
    - ***1000BASE-LX/SX***: Gigabit with long-/short-wavelength transmitters
    - ***10GBASE-R/W***: 10 Gigabit for LANs and WANs
- Converters will be required.

# Optical Networking

- Distribution in a fiber network will involve a number of considerations:
  - ***Lines:*** At least two fibers, Tx and Rx, for full-duplex operation
  - ***Cross-connects:***
    - Joining fibers, often through mechanical splicing
    - Converters, for moving between optic and electrical signals
  - ***Fiber Maps:***
    - *Logical:* A model of the network's structure, with links and levels
    - *Physical:* Fiber routes, within the concrete environmental context

# Safety

- Working with fiber optic cables may entail some hazards beyond those of twisted-pair, so be careful...
  - One primary danger is getting light in your eyes
    - Even more so because fiber is transmitting wavelengths the eye cannot see
    - Never look into a cable's end!
  - Also be wary of mechanical hazards, such as brittle ends of fiber.
- Safety glasses are a must!