



1014I – Communication systems and cybersecurity (2025/26)

Wired technologies for transport and access networks

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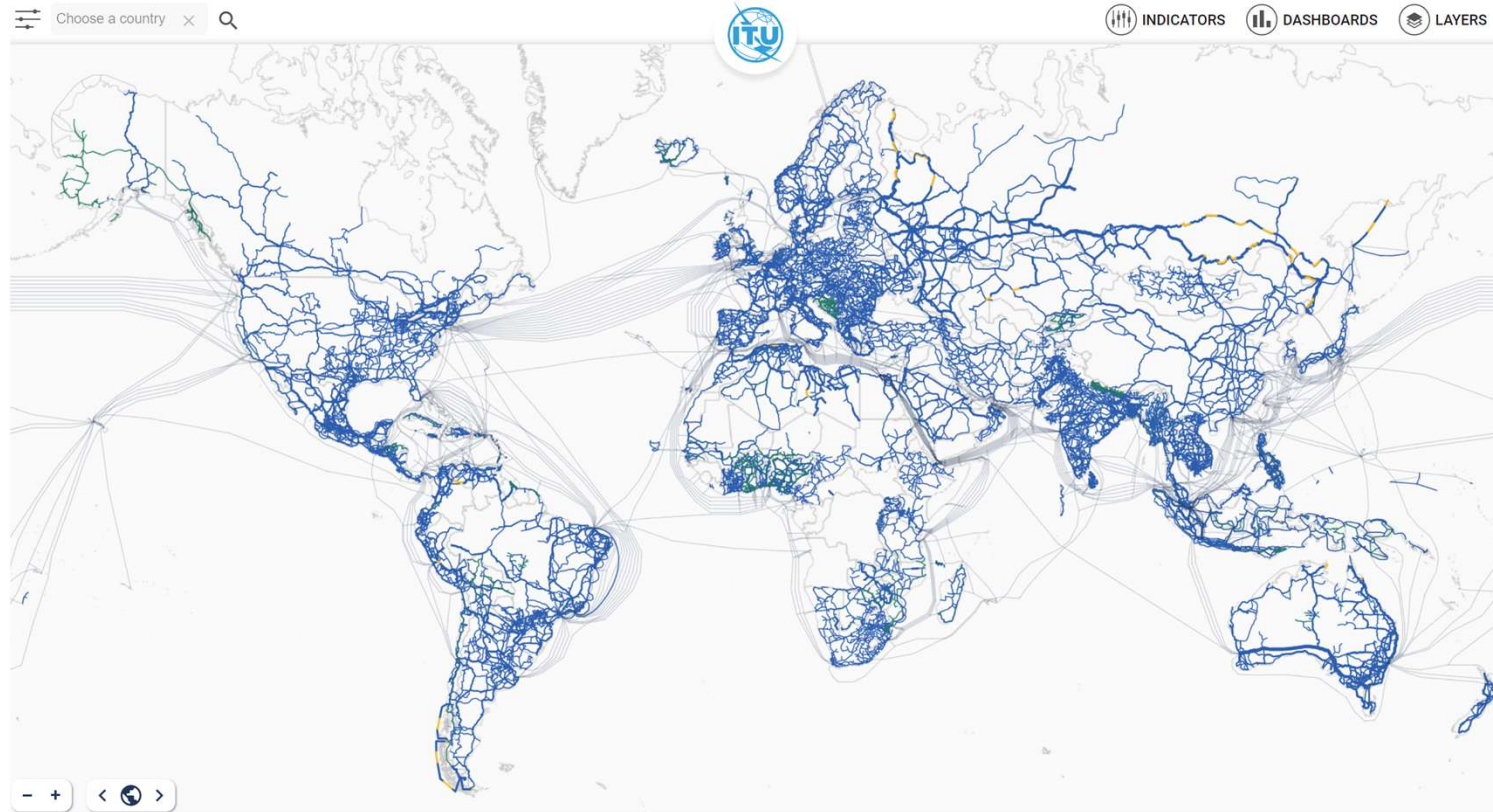
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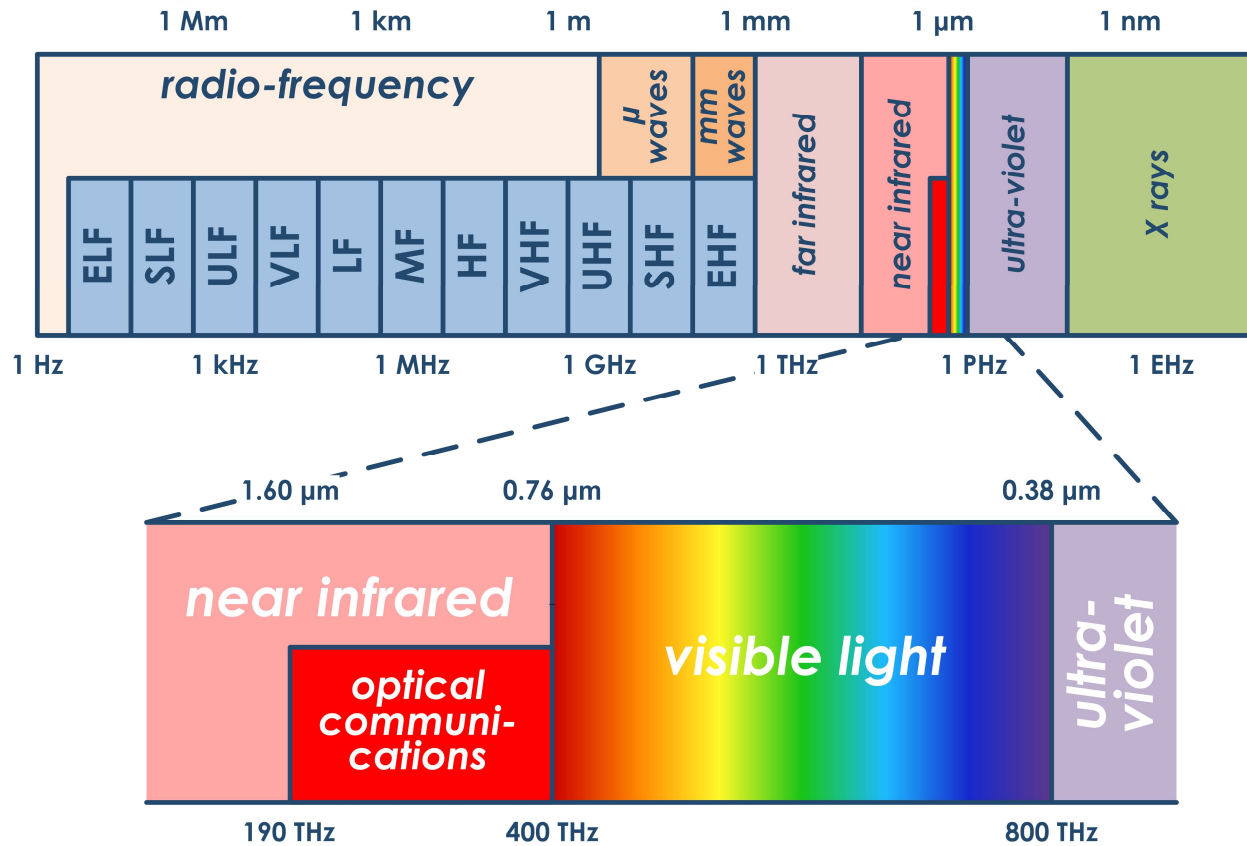
Radio vs. optical communications



Map of long-distance Internet backbone fiber cables



Spectrum of electromagnetic radiation



Driving criteria: path loss (1/2)

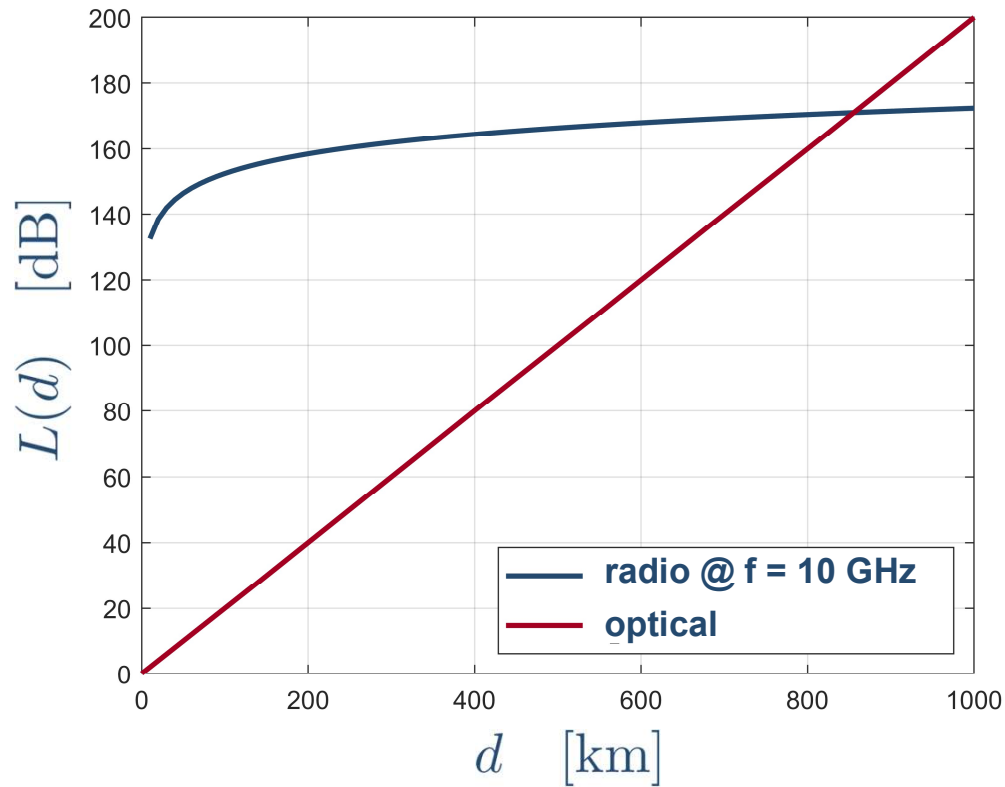
Radio communications:

$$L(d) = \left(\frac{4\pi d}{\lambda} \right)^2$$
$$\approx 1.75 \cdot 10^{11} \cdot d^2|_{\text{km}} @ f = 10 \text{ GHz}$$

Optical communications:

$$L(d) = 10^{0.02d|_{\text{km}}}$$

Driving criteria: path loss (2/2)



Driving criteria: bandwidth

For technological reasons, every bandpass communication has a bandwidth in the order of few percent of the carrier frequency:

$$\eta \triangleq \frac{B}{f_0} \approx 5\%$$

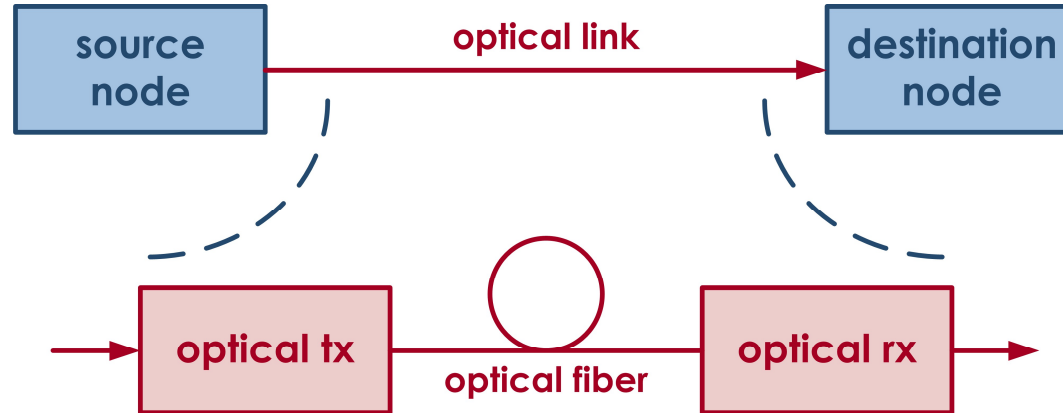
Following the relative-bandwidth rule, the available bandwidth on fibers is roughly 10 THz, **four orders of magnitude wider** than that of traditional radio communications



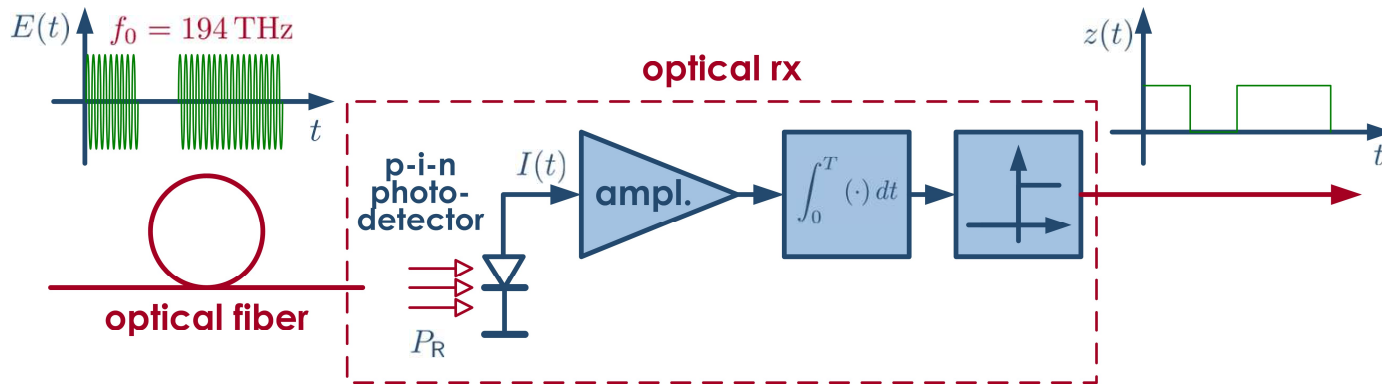
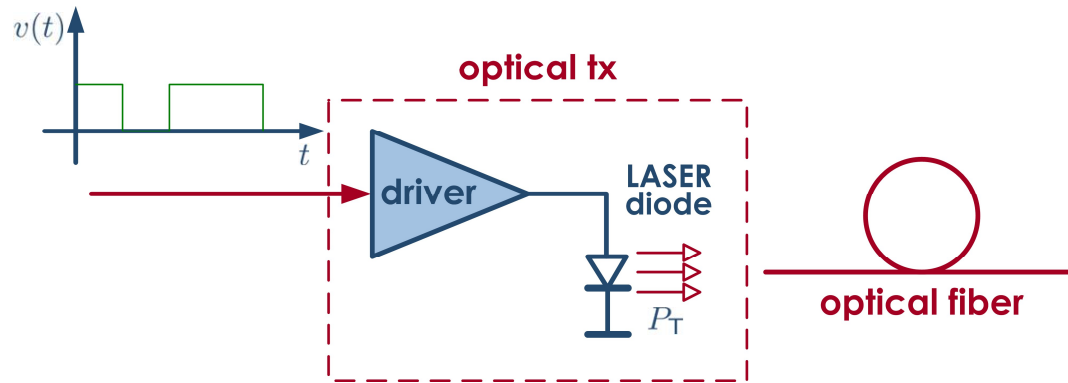
Naïve architecture of a fiber-optical link



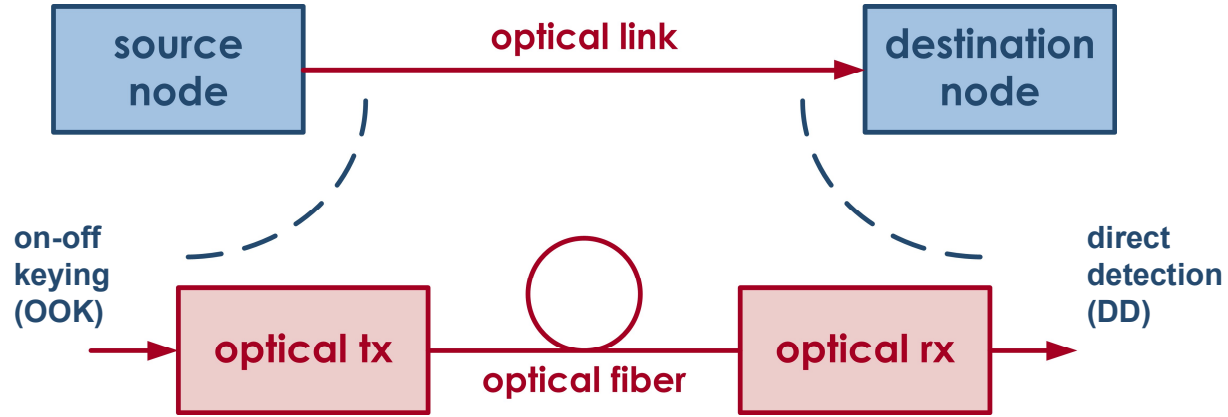
The optical fiber link (1/3)



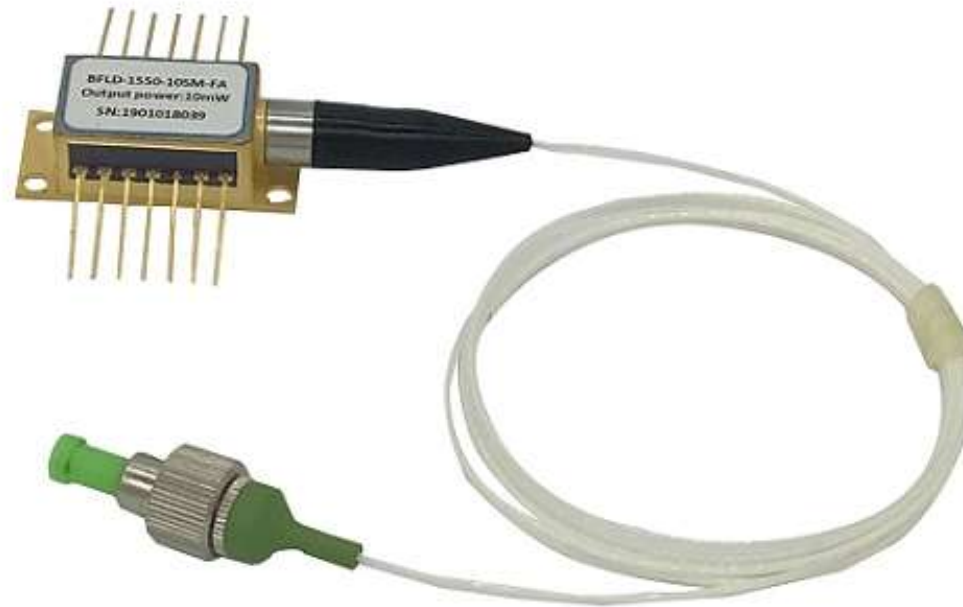
The optical fiber link (2/3)



The optical fiber link (3/3)



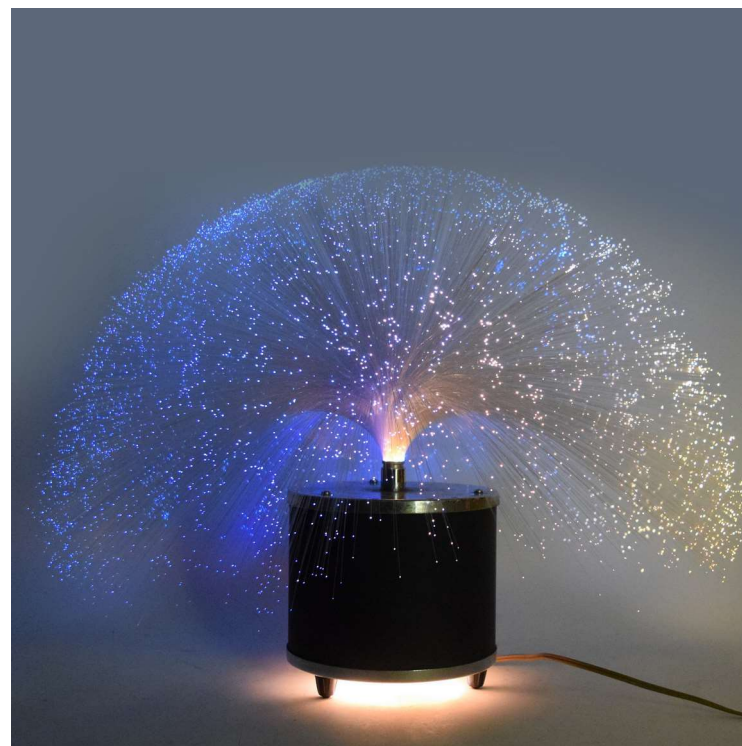
An example of an integrated semiconductor LASER



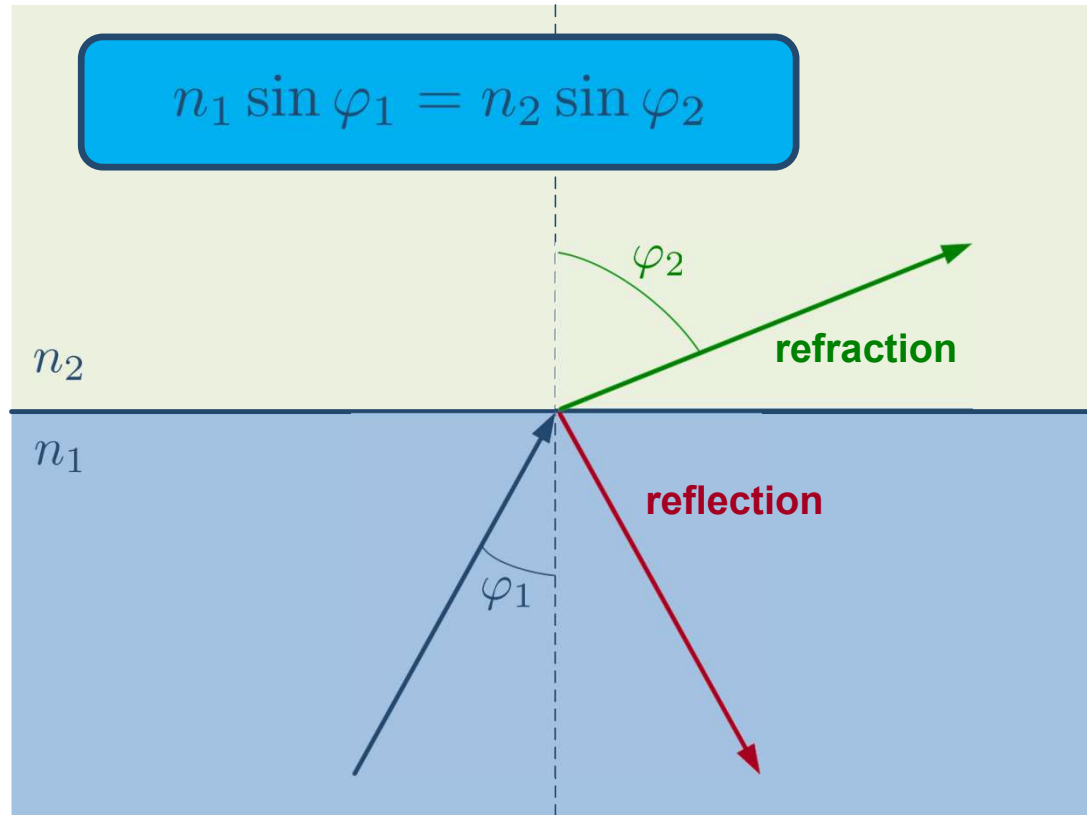
What is an optical fiber?



Vintage table lamp from the '70s



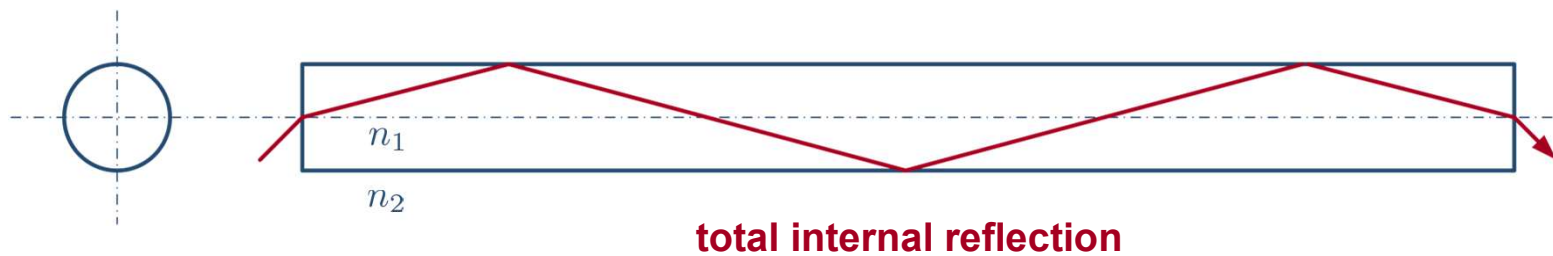
Reflection and refraction



Critical angle and total internal reflection

As long as the incident angle φ_1 increases, the refracted rays depart more and more from the normal, until we get to $\varphi_2 = \pi/2$:

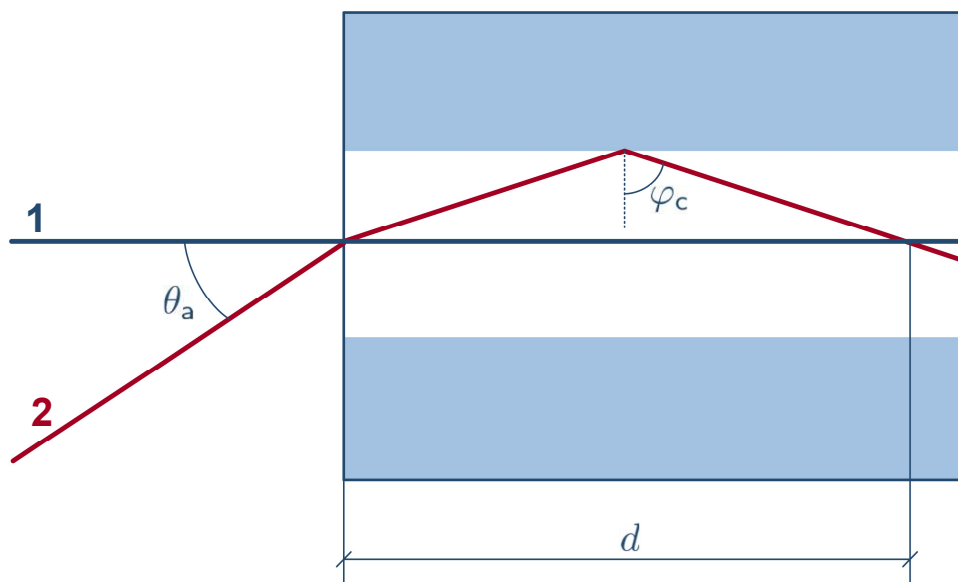
$$\varphi_c = \sin^{-1} (n_2/n_1)$$



Step-index fibers



Intermodal dispersion of the MM-SI fiber (1/2)



$$\Delta_t = t_2 - t_1 = \frac{d}{v} \left(\frac{1}{\sin \varphi_c} - 1 \right) \approx \frac{dn_1}{c} \Delta_n$$

Intermodal dispersion of the MM-SI fiber (2/2)

To limit the **pulse broadening**, we can impose:

$$\Delta_t \approx \frac{dn_1}{c} \Delta_n \leq T = \frac{1}{R_b}$$

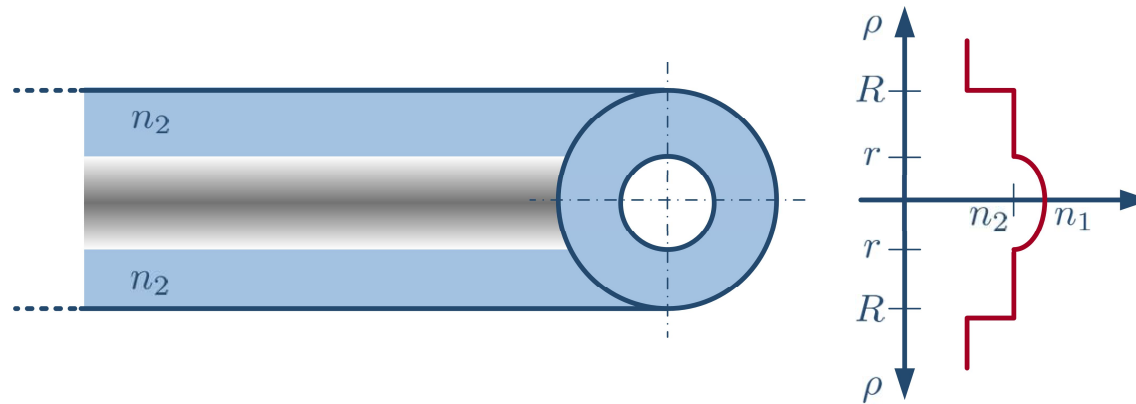
The limitation is on the **product** between the bitrate and the fiber length:

$$R_b \cdot d \leq \frac{c}{\Delta_n n_1}$$

Graded-index fibers

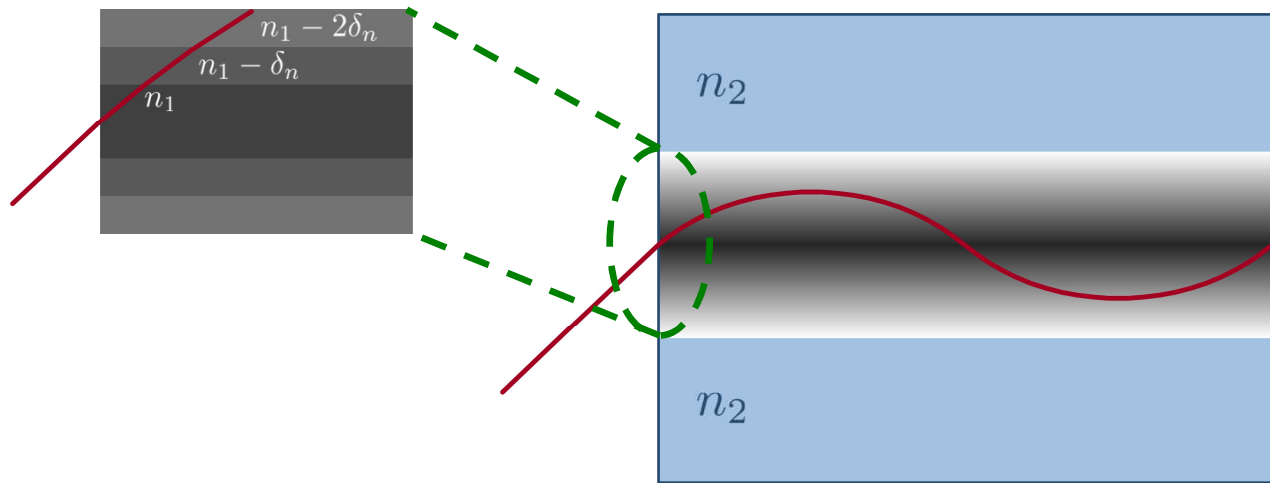


Refraction index

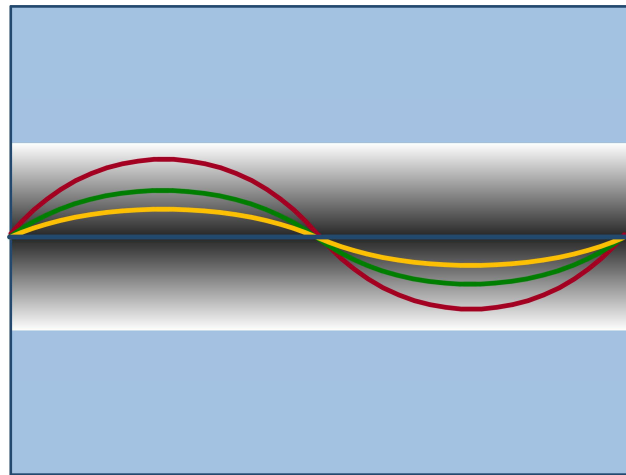


$$n(\rho) = \begin{cases} n_1 \sqrt{1 - 2\Delta_n (\rho/r)^\beta}, & |\rho| \leq r, \\ n_2, & r \leq |\rho| \leq R \end{cases}$$

Light path bending in the graded core



Light paths in a parabolic-profile MM-GI fiber



Intermodal dispersion of the MM-GI fiber

The impact of **pulse broadening** is reduced to

$$\Delta_t \approx \frac{dn_1}{8c} \Delta_n^2 \leq T = \frac{1}{R_b}$$

The capacity in terms of the **product** between bitrate and fiber length is:

$$R_b \cdot d \leq \frac{8c}{\Delta_n^2 n_1}$$





Single-mode SI fibers

From geometrical to electromagnetic optics

Geometrical analysis is valid as long as $\lambda_0 \ll r$

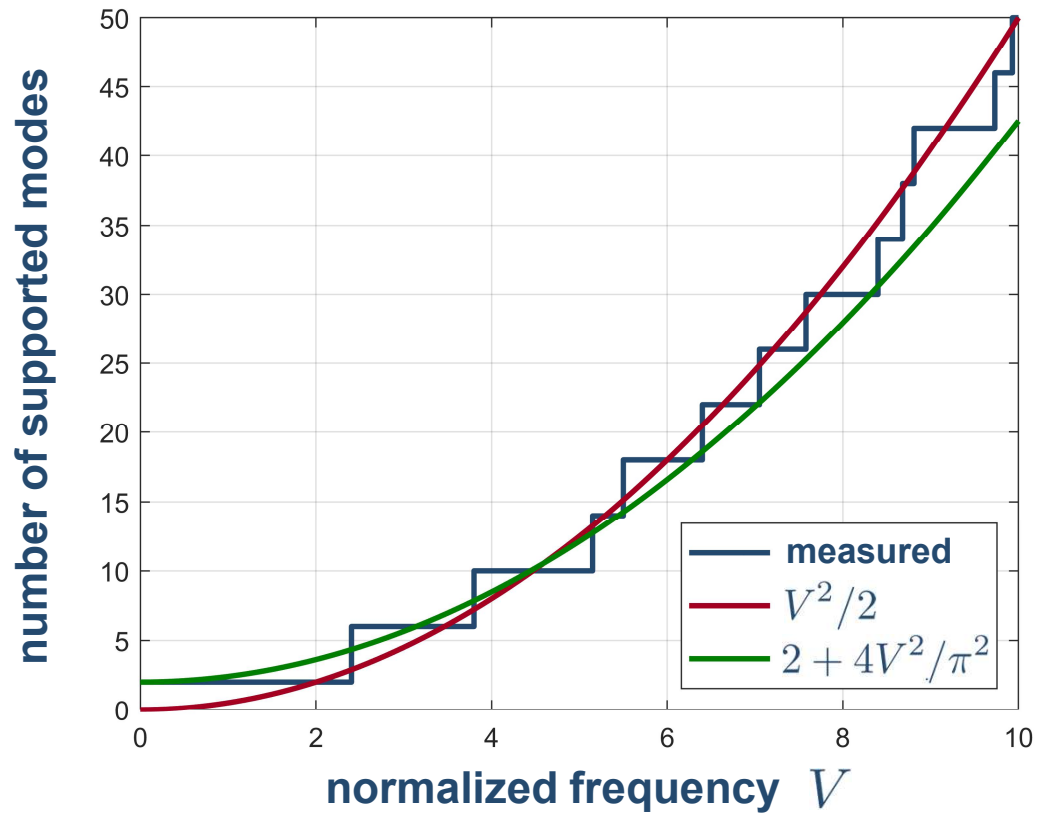
What happens with a **narrow-core fiber**, when $\lambda_0 \cong r$?

The number of supported modes depends on the **normalized frequency**:

$$V = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_0} \cdot r \cdot NA$$

transmission details fiber parameters

Number of propagation modes in an SI fiber



From multi-mode (MM) to single-mode (SM) fibers

Single-mode (SM) fibers can be obtained by ensuring $V \leq 2.405$

With the usual parameters, we get $r = 2 \mu\text{m}$

This derivation would have not been possible using the geometrical optics, as it violates the hypothesis $\lambda_0 \ll r$



Intramodal dispersion

Can SM fibers guarantee infinite bitrates?

Of course, the absence of MM dispersion does **not** provide infinite bitrates, due to the presence of intersymbol interference (ISI)

Due to glass properties, which show a refractive coefficient $n(f)$, when applying data modulation the LASER produces a wave which is **not monochromatic**



Chromatic dispersion

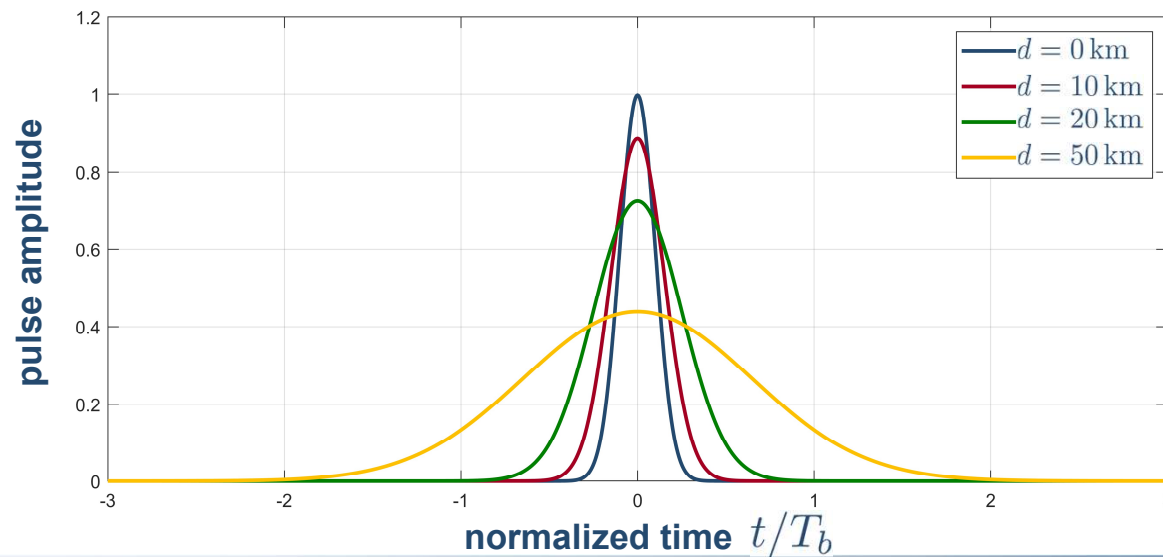


Pulse broadening due to intramodal dispersion

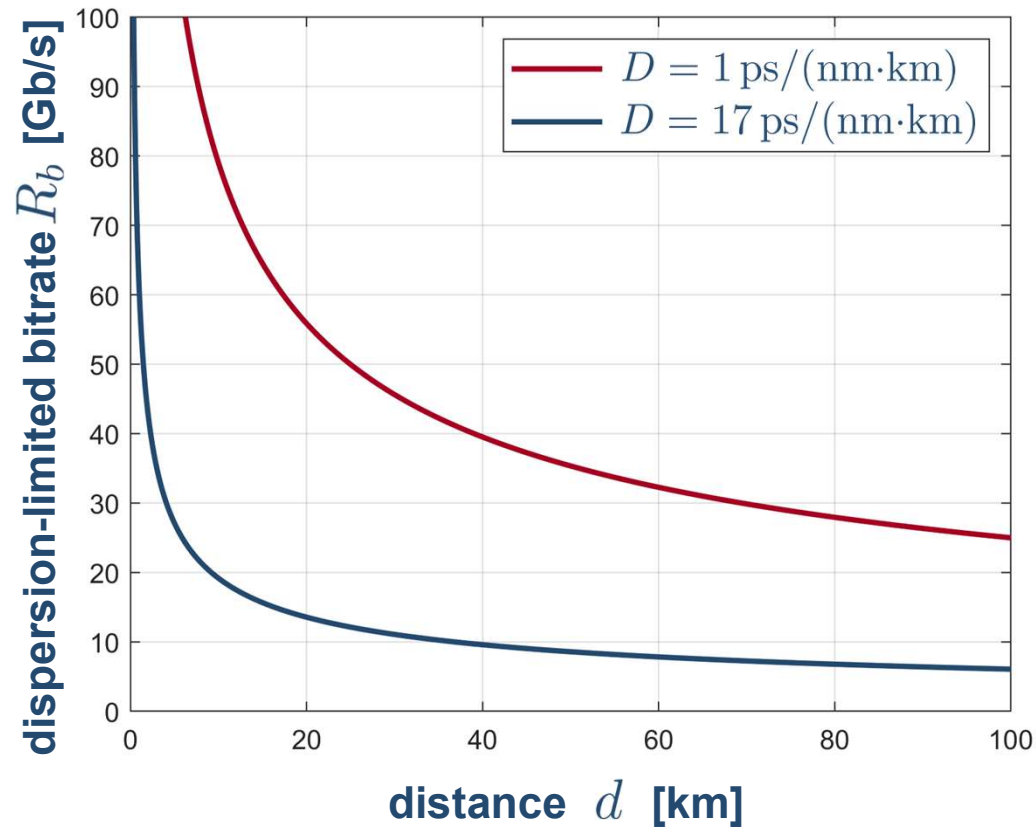
The **differential phase distortion** induced by chromatic dispersion provides a certain pulse broadening, equal to

$$\Delta_t \approx d \cdot \Delta\lambda \cdot |D|$$

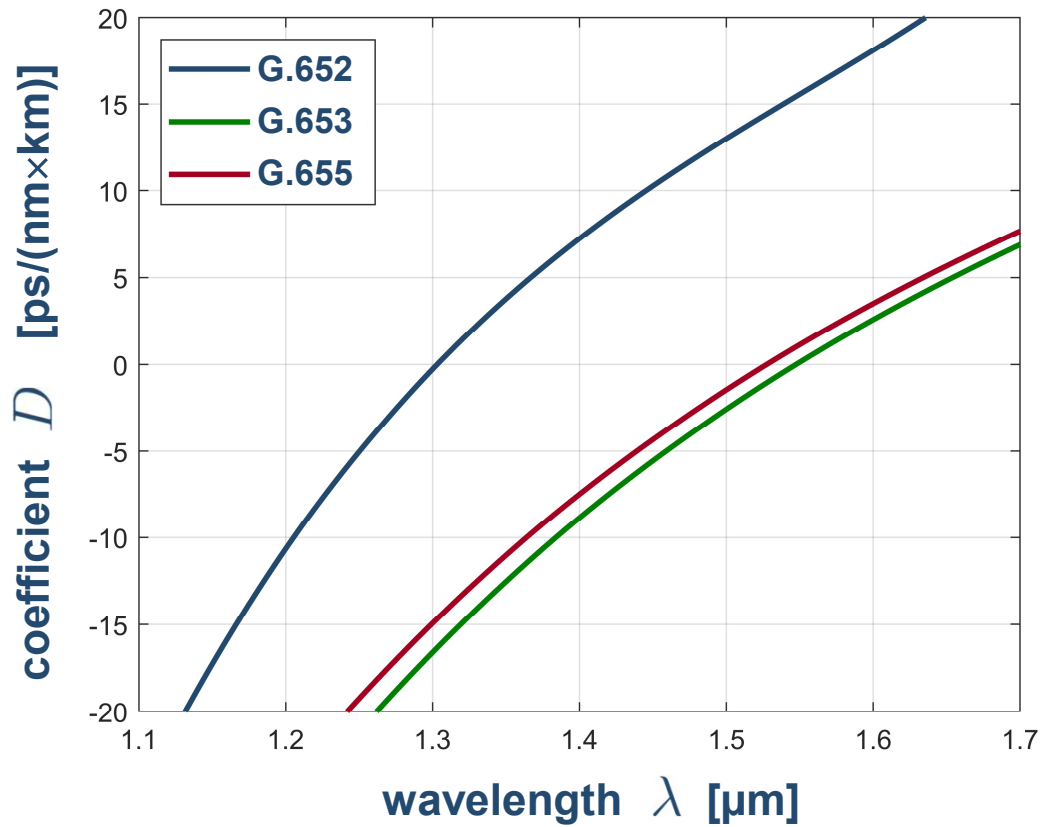
where D is the **dispersion coefficient** of the fiber



Dispersion-limited bitrate on the SM fiber



Variation of the material dispersion coefficient





Fiber attenuation

Why 1.55- μm fibers?

Unlike wireless communications, optical communications experience a different, **exponential** relation between transmitted and received power:

$$P_R(d) = P_T \cdot e^{-\bar{\alpha}d}$$

$$L(d) = 10\bar{\alpha} \log_{10} e \cdot d = \alpha \cdot d \quad [\text{dB}]$$

Attenuation coefficient of a fiber (1/2)

The very first optical experiments (mid-1960s) showed $\alpha \cong 1,000$ dB/km

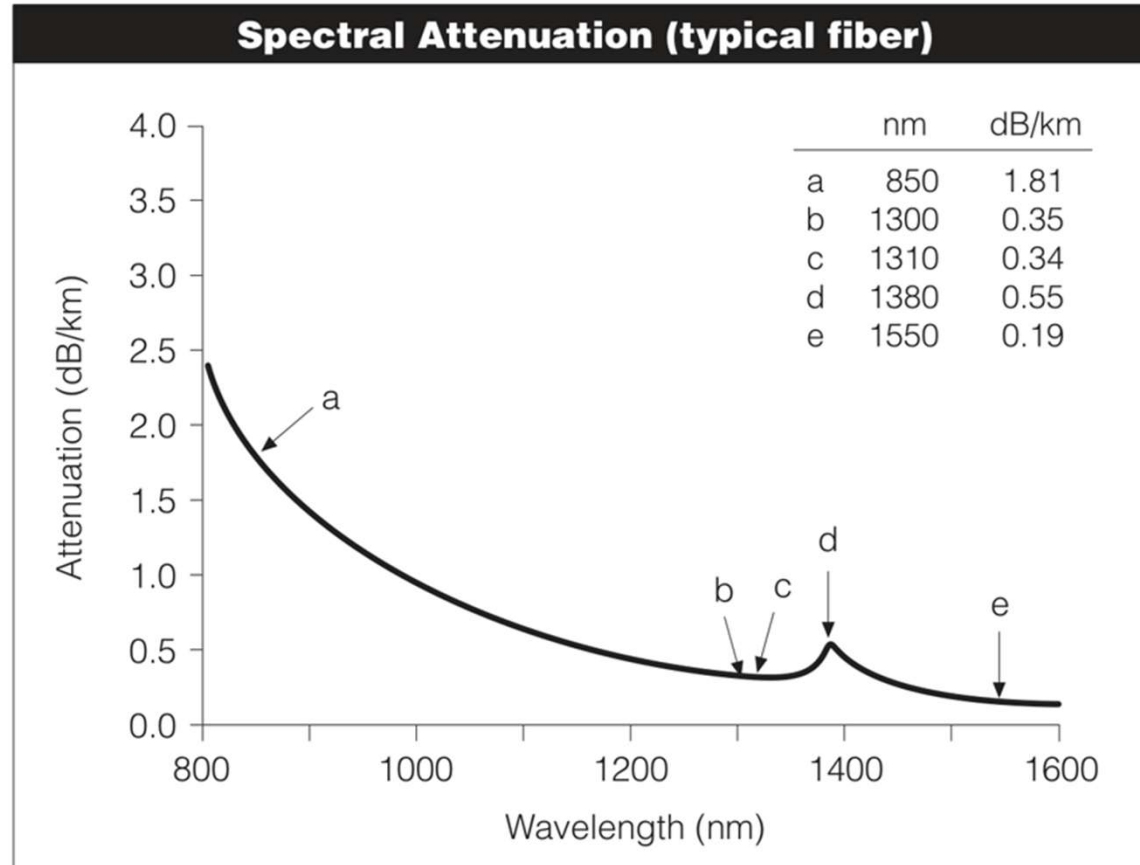


Attenuation coefficient of a fiber (2/2)

- very first optical experiments (mid-1960s): $\alpha \approx 1,000$ dB/km
- outside vapor deposition (OVD) fibers manufactured by Corning (mid-1970s): $\alpha \approx 20$ dB/km @ $\lambda_0 = 0.85 \mu\text{m}$
- current commercial SM fibers: $\alpha = 0.2$ dB/km @ $\lambda_0 = 1.55 \mu\text{m}$
- state-of-the-art fibers: $\alpha = 0.15$ dB/km @ $\lambda_0 = 1.55 \mu\text{m}$

Best performance in terms of attenuation are
much more important than dispersion issues

Example of the attenuation coefficient



Dispersion-shifted fibers



Waveguide dispersion (1/2)

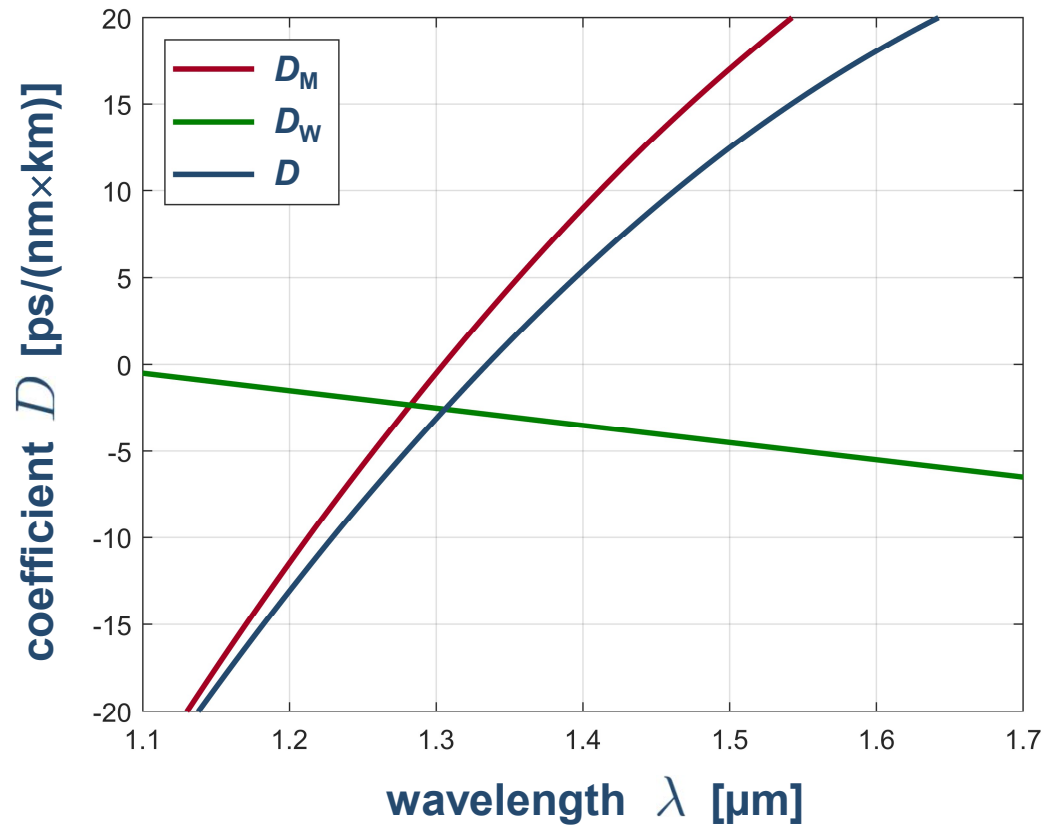
In addition to the chromatic (a.k.a. **material**) dispersion D_M , another (minor, but non-negligible) nuisance to the performance of an SM fiber is the so-called **waveguide dispersion** (due to the guidance effect) D_W

The **total (intramodal) dispersion coefficient** D is given by

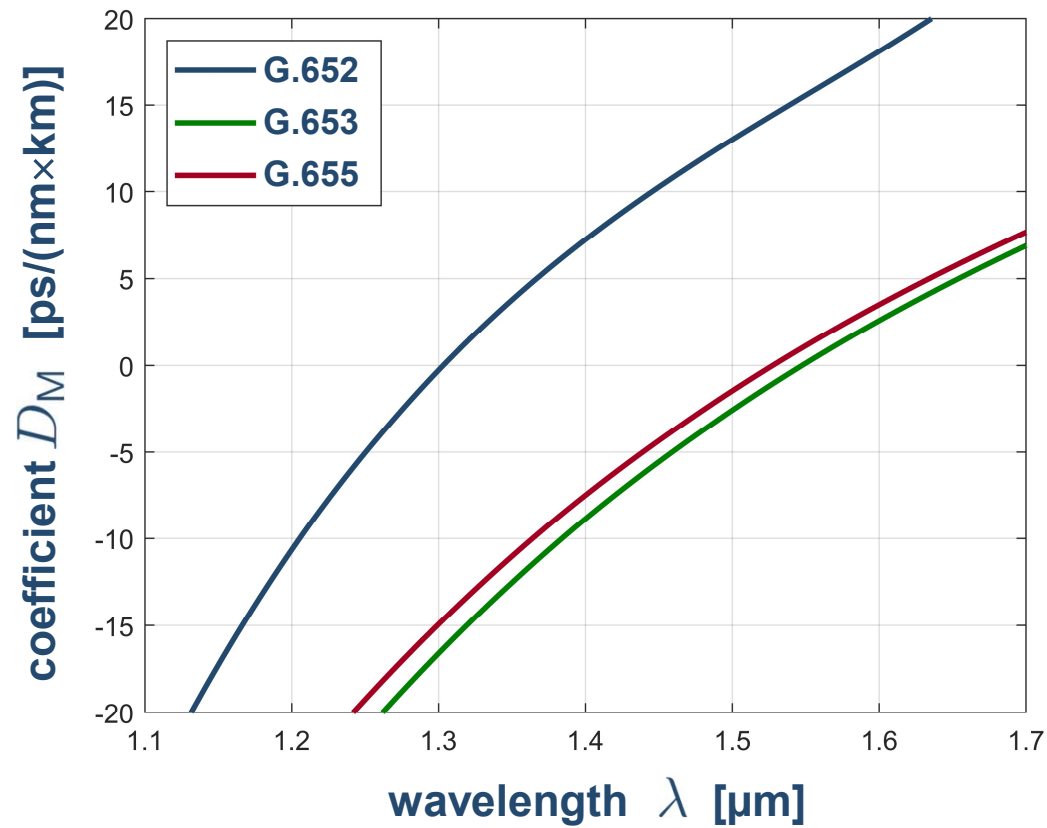
$$D = D_M + D_W$$



Waveguide dispersion (2/2)



Variation of the material dispersion coefficient (revisited)



Types of fibers

- ITU-T G.652: standard SM fiber
- ITU-T G.653: dispersion-shifted (DS) fiber, with $D_M = 0 @ \lambda_0 = 1.55 \mu\text{m}$
- ITU-T G.655: non-zero (NZ) DS fiber, with a small residual dispersion to prevent cross-talk phenomena



Optical devices

The optical fiber link (3/3)

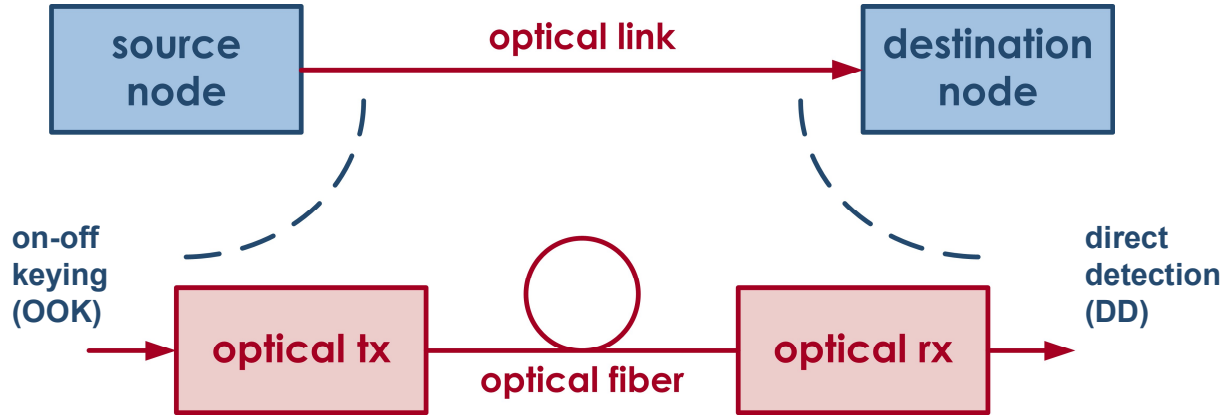
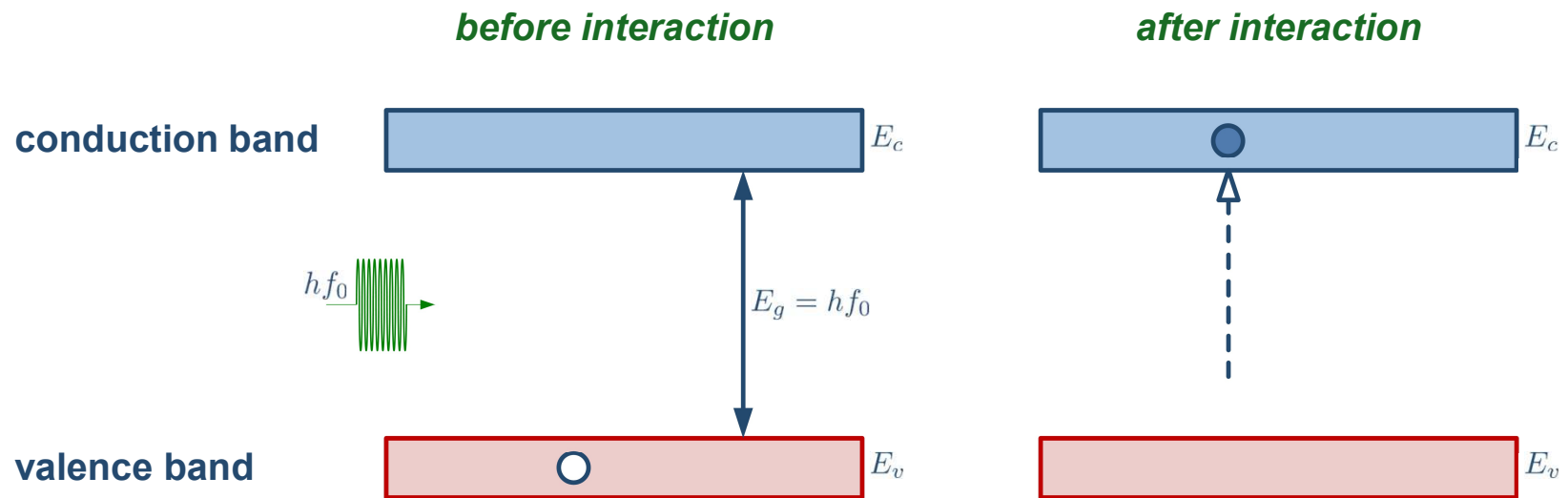


Photo-electric interactions

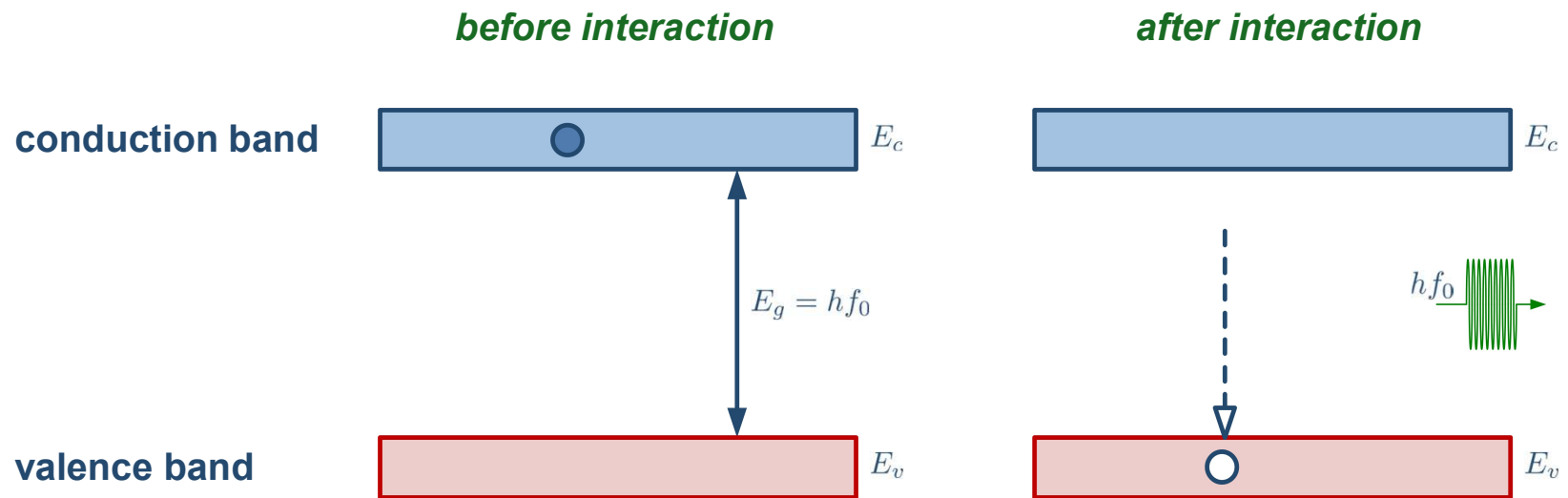
- **Absorption**
- **Spontaneous emission**
- **Stimulated emission**

Absorption

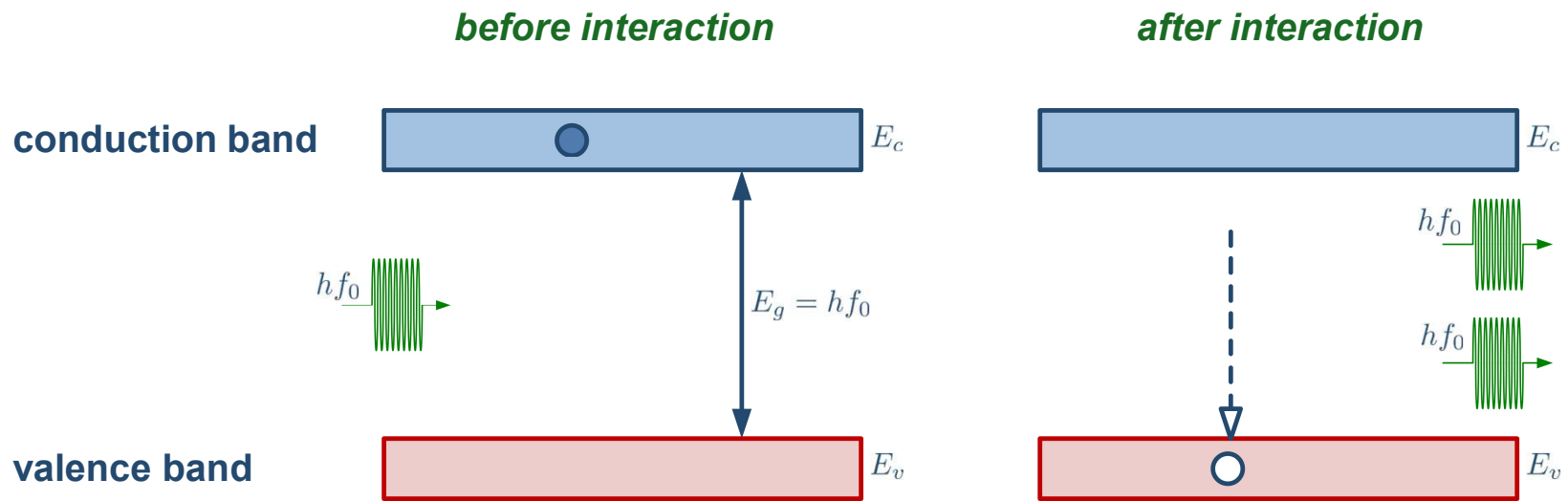


$$\text{gap energy: } E_g = E_c - E_v$$

Spontaneous emission



Stimulated emission

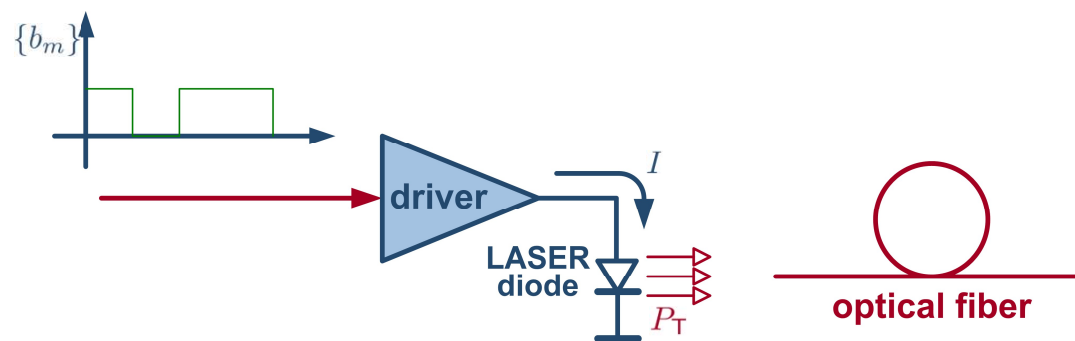


The two photons are clones: same frequency and same momentum

LASERs



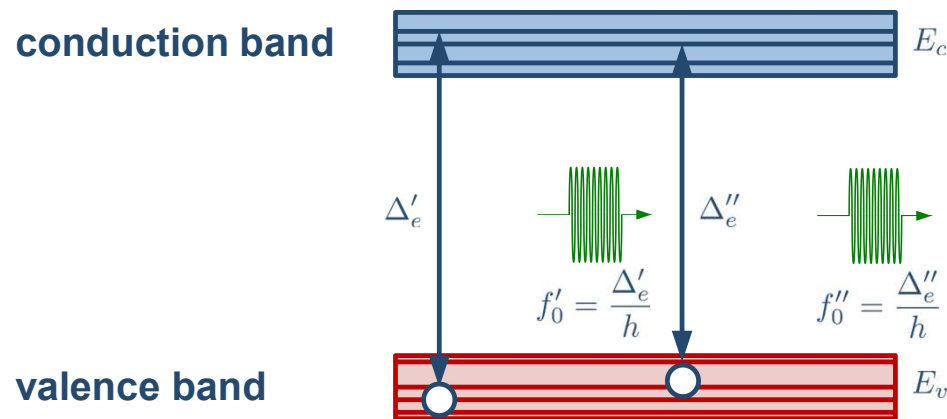
What is a LASER?



- **GaAs:** gallium arsenide
- **InGaAs:** ternary
- **InGaAsP:** quaternary

Light amplification via spontaneous emission

In a **semiconductor**, there are many adjacent levels that form continuous-like bands:

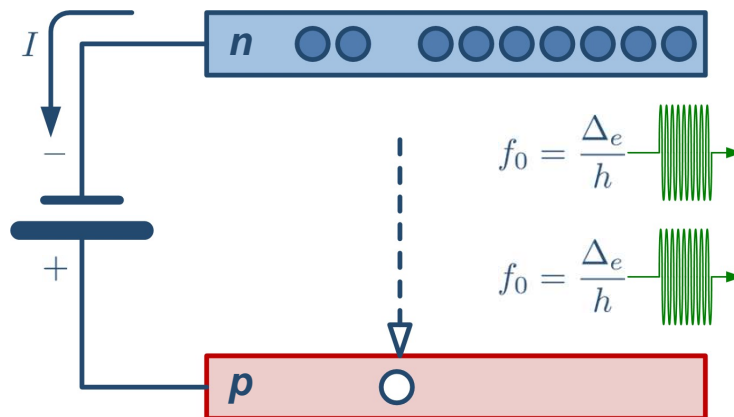


Since photons can have a different frequency and/or phase, the spectrum is **not monochromatic**, and hence **unsuitable** for optical applications

Spontaneous emission is typically used by light emitting diodes (LEDs)

Light amplification via stimulated emission

The (high) **drive current** leads to a large population of excited electrons:

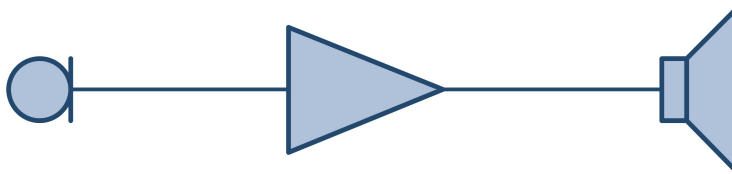


In the ***p-n junction***, the stimulated radiation prevails on the spontaneous one, yielding the desired **inversion of population**

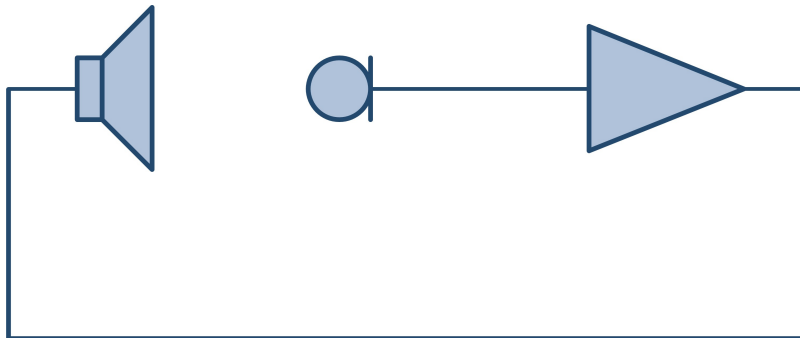
Clone photons provide a **coherent emission**

Amplifier vs. generator (1/2)

Acoustic domain:



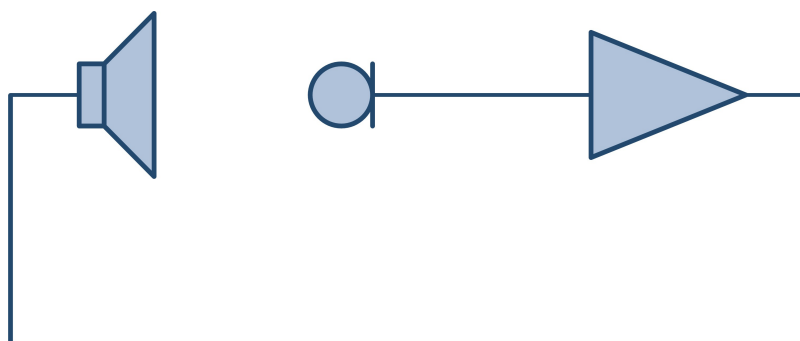
if there is **no** input, the output is **null**



to generate a signal, we can exploit the **Larsen effect**

Amplifier vs. generator (2/2)

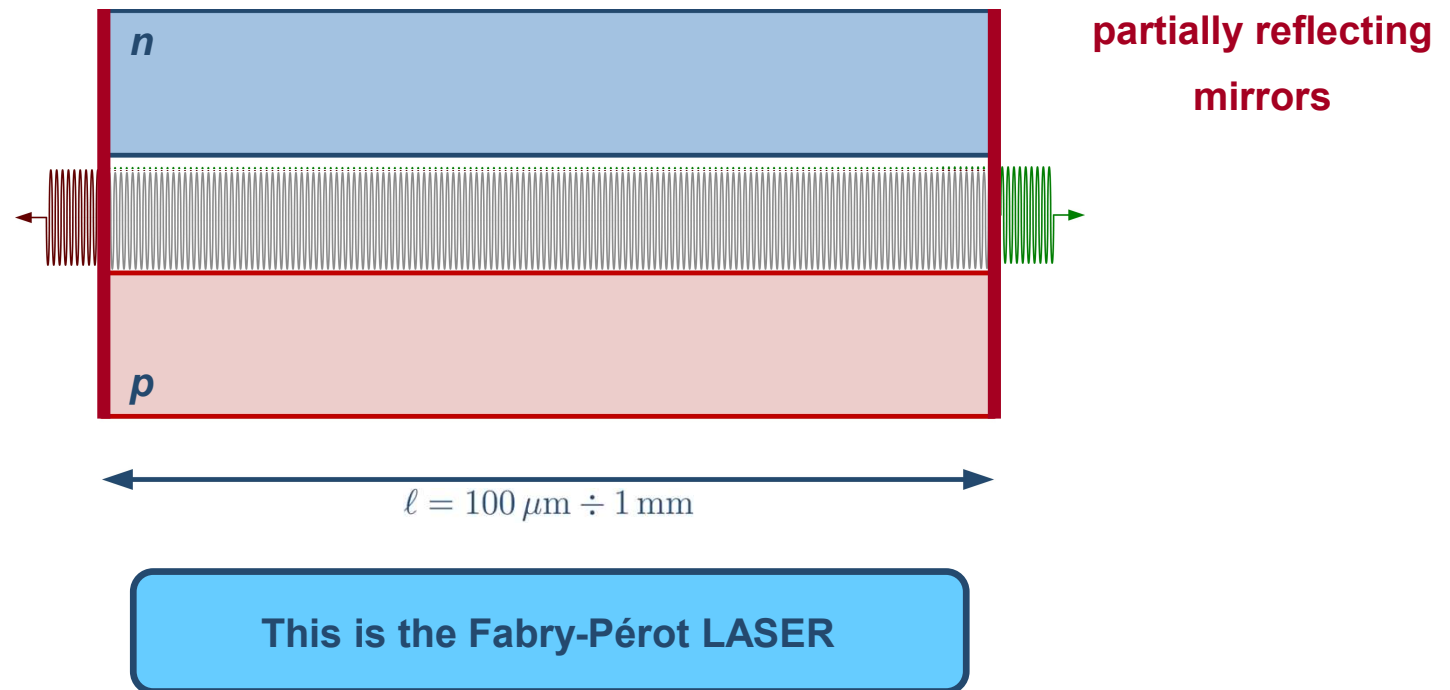
In general, we need to introduce a **positive feedback**:



In optics, this is obtained by exploiting the **light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation (LASER)**

The Fabry-Pérot LASER (1/3)

How can we **introduce** a positive feedback in the p - n junction?



The Fabry-Pérot LASER (2/3)

When propagating back and forth through the junction, the electrical field undergoes a **phase rotation**

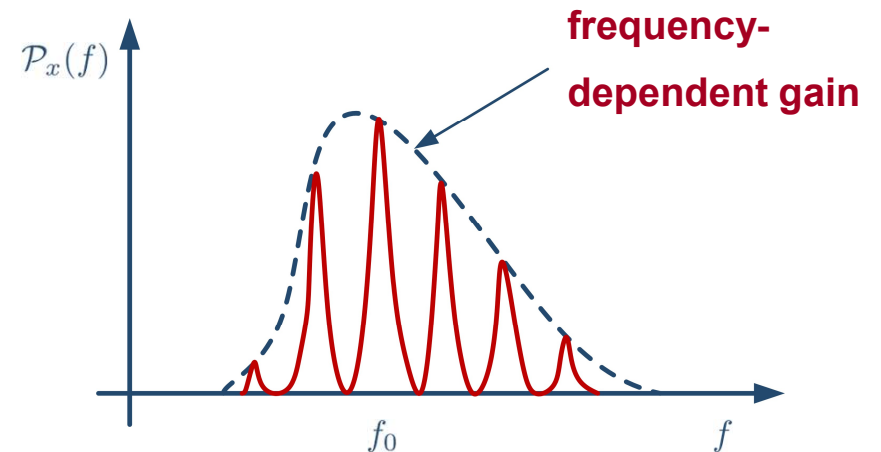
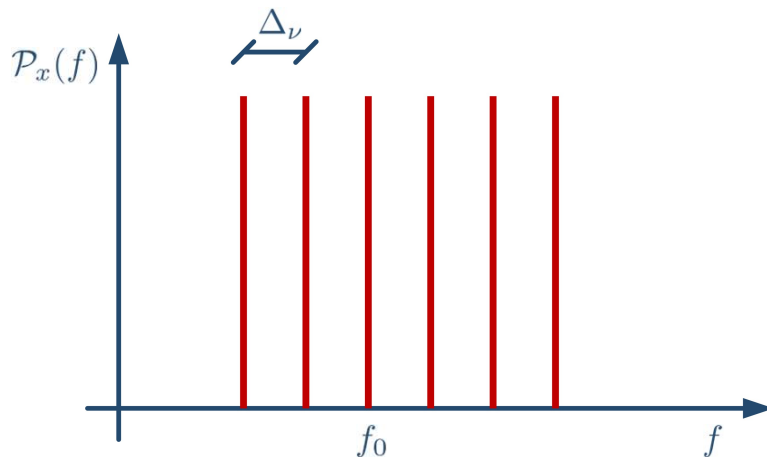
$$2\beta\ell = 2 \cdot \frac{2\pi n}{\lambda_0} \ell$$

refraction index of the semiconductor, $n = 3 \div 4$

The trigger condition for a **coherent** amplification is

$$2\beta\ell = 2\pi m, \quad m \in \mathbb{N}^+ \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_m = m\Delta_\nu, \quad \Delta_\nu \triangleq \frac{c}{2n\ell}$$

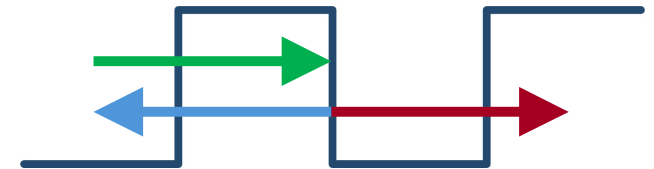
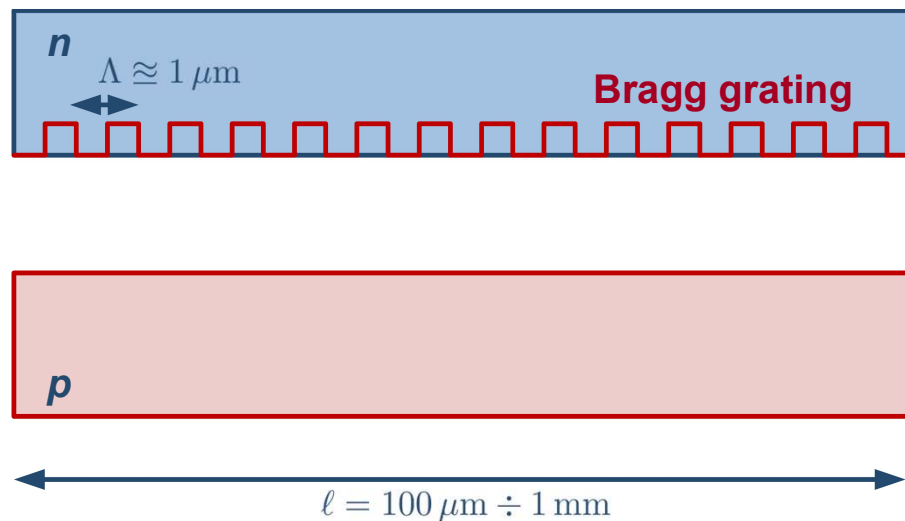
The Fabry-Pérot LASER (3/3)



The Fabry-Pérot LASER has a significant **dispersion**, which highly **limits** maximum achievable bitrates

The distributed feedback (DFB) LASER (1/2)

To improve the features of fiber communications, we can introduce a **distributed feedback (DFB)**:

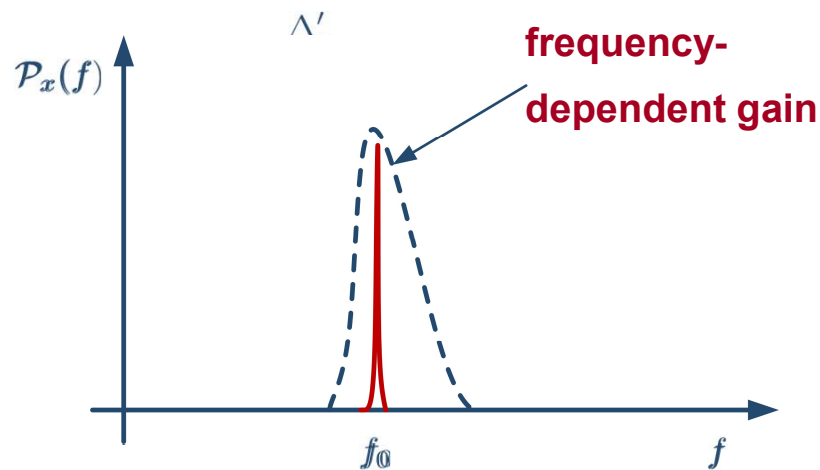


The distributed feedback (DFB) LASER (2/2)

Now we have **constructive** interaction (i.e., **positive** optical reaction) when

$$f_m = m \cdot \frac{c}{2n\Lambda} \triangleq m\Delta'_\nu$$

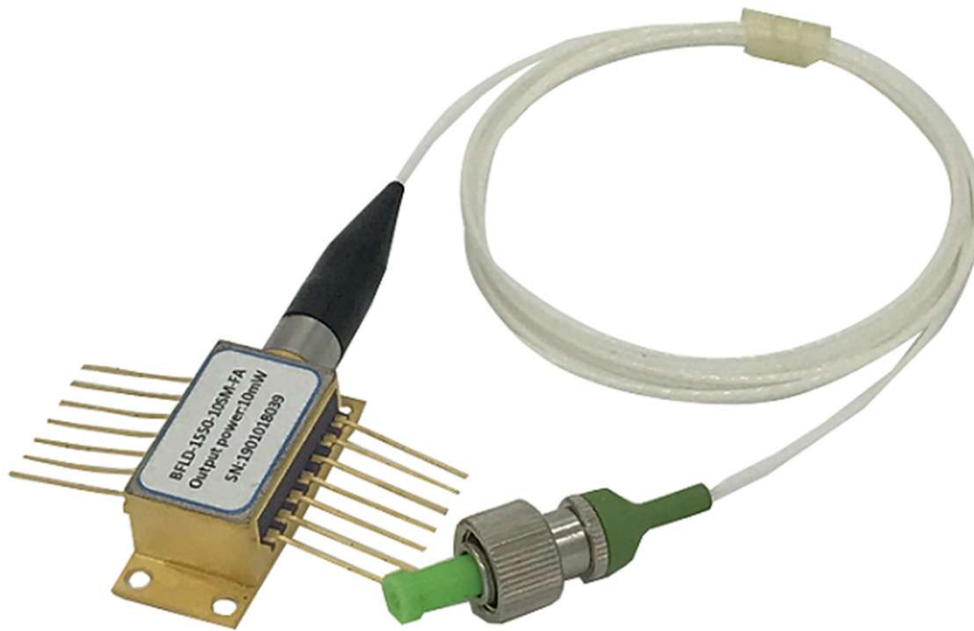
$$\Lambda \ll \ell \Rightarrow \Delta'_\nu \gg \Delta_\nu$$



Monochromatic LASER:

- GaAs: 0.85 μm
- InGaAsP: 1.3 ÷ 1.55 μm
(tunable)

An example of a commercial LASER



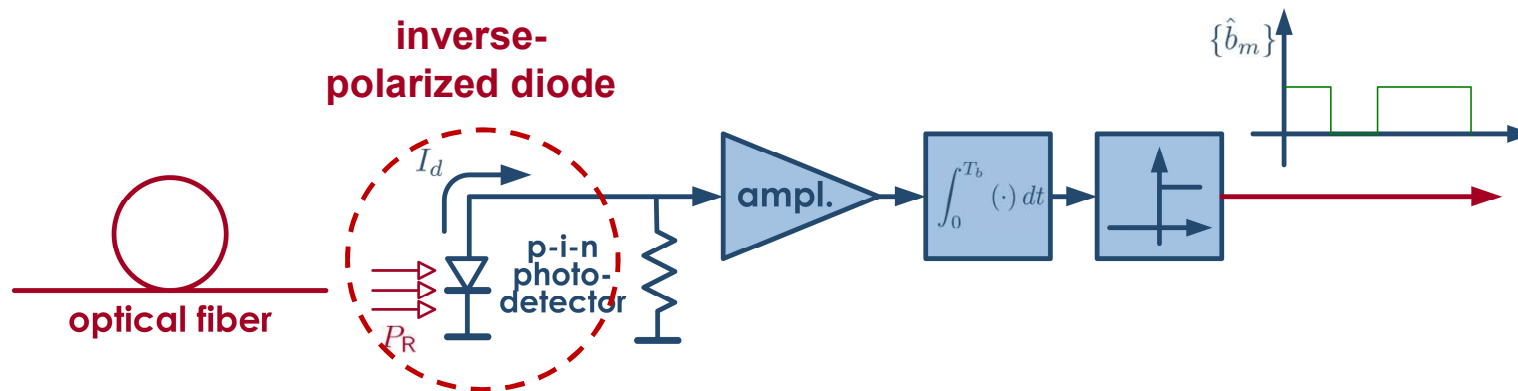
$$P_T \approx 10 \text{ mW}$$

$$\frac{P_T}{hf_0} \approx 7.8 \cdot 10^{16} \text{ photons/s}$$

Photodetectors



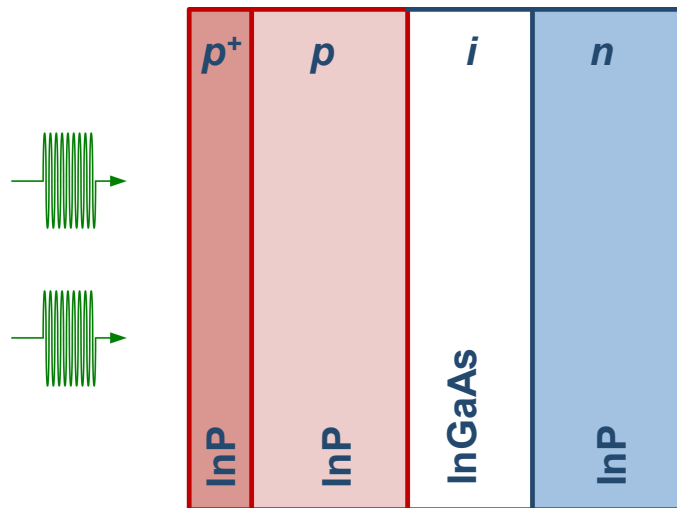
What is a photodetector?



When $P_R = 0$, dark currents have negligible values (in the order of nA)

The p-i-n semiconductor junction

The photodetector makes use of a **p-i-n diode**, in which the central layer is an **intrinsic** (i.e., not doped) one:



Photoelectric effect

Ideally, every photon is **absorbed** by one electron:

$$\eta \frac{P_R}{hf_0} = \frac{I_d}{q}$$

detection current

elementary charge

We can thus compute the detection current:

$$I_d = \eta \frac{q}{hf_0} P_R$$

responsivity [A/W]

quantum efficiency

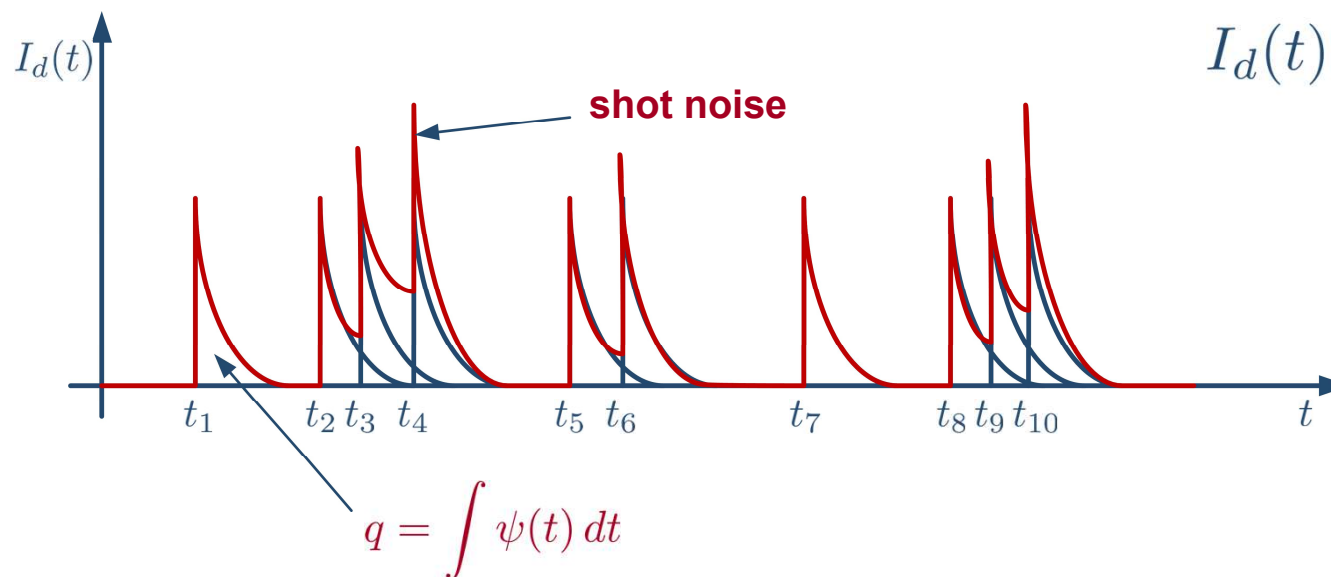
$$\eta < 1 \quad (\eta = 0.7 \div 0.8)$$



Link performance

The Campbell theorem (1/2)

In the practice, the (macroscopic) detection current is composed by a **combination** of elementary contributes, due to the absorption of a single photon:



$$I_d(t) = \sum_k \psi(t - t_k)$$

Poisson-distributed,
with intensity μ

The Campbell theorem (2/2)

Since the received current is a **filtered Poisson-distributed process**, we can derive the following relationships:

number of observed electrons

$$\Pr \{N_T = k\} = e^{-\mu T_b} \cdot \frac{(\mu T_b)^k}{k!}, \quad k \geq 0$$

$$I_d = \mathbb{E} \{I_d(t)\} = \mu \cdot q \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mu = \frac{I_d}{q} = \eta \frac{P_R}{hf_0}$$

To measure the BER performance, let us use the law of **total probability**:

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= \Pr \{E|b_m = 0\} \Pr\{b_m = 0\} + \Pr \{E|b_m = 1\} \Pr\{b_m = 1\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{E|b_m = 0\} + \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{E|b_m = 1\} \end{aligned}$$

↓
0

$$\Pr \{E|b_m = 1\} = \Pr \{N_T = 0\} = e^{-\mu T_b}$$

Quantum limit (2/3)

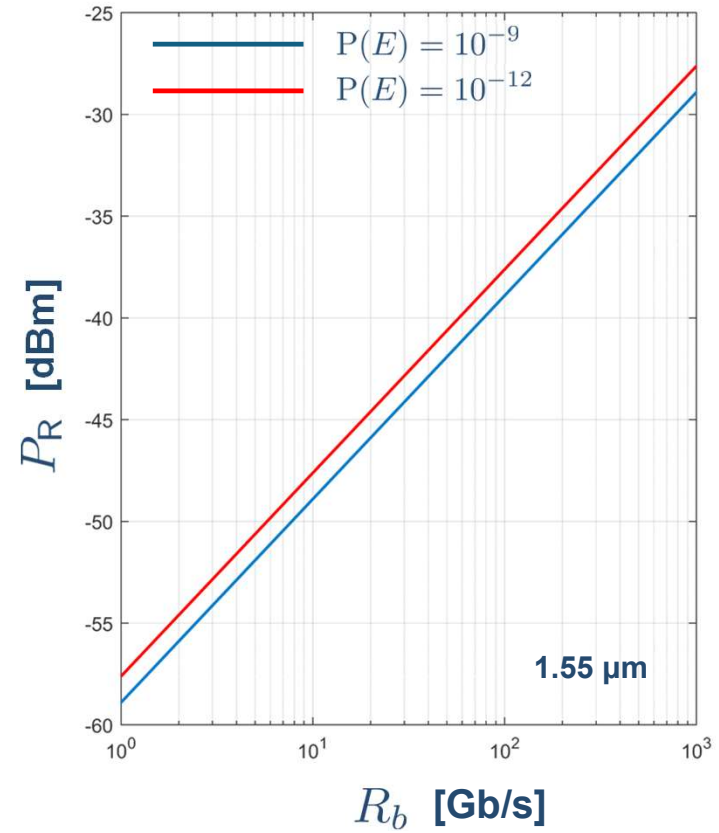
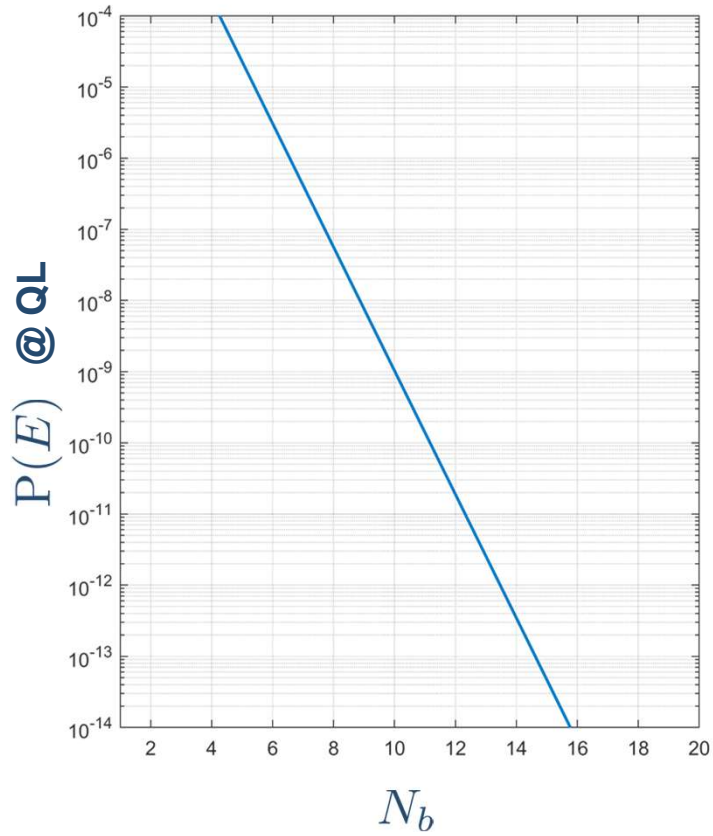
$$P(E) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-\mu T_b} = \frac{1}{2} e^{-2N_b}, \quad N_b \triangleq \frac{1}{2} \frac{\eta T_b 2P_R}{hf_0} \quad \text{average number of photons per bit}$$

When $\eta=1$, this is called **quantum limit (QL)** and accounts for the maximum achievable (ideal) performance of the DD receiver

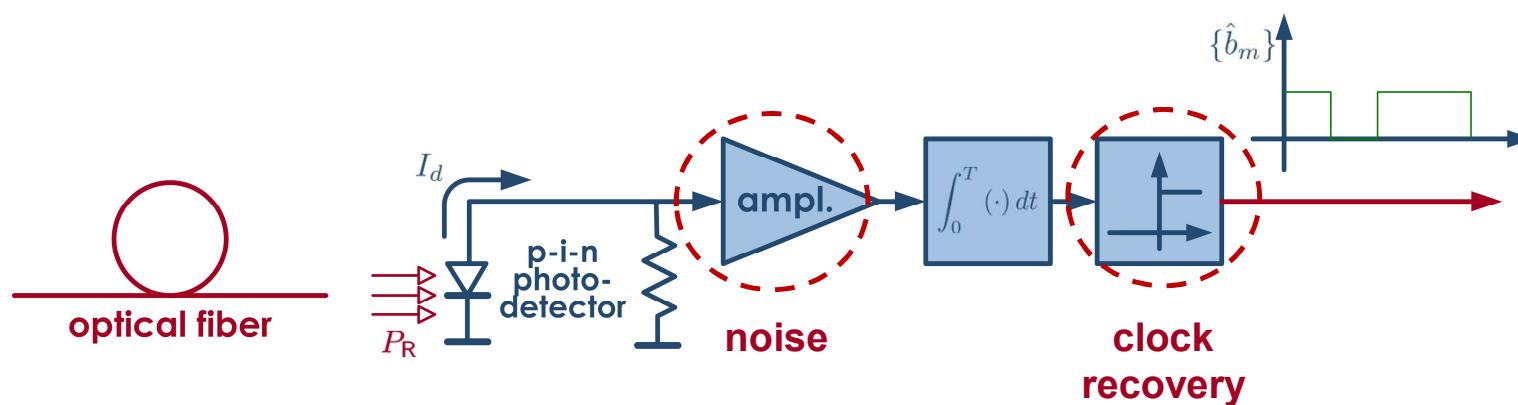
$$P_R = N_b hf_0 R_b = -\frac{1}{2} \ln \{2P(E)\} hf_0 R_b \quad \text{sensitivity of the receiver}$$



Quantum limit (3/3)



Impact of noise and clock recovery

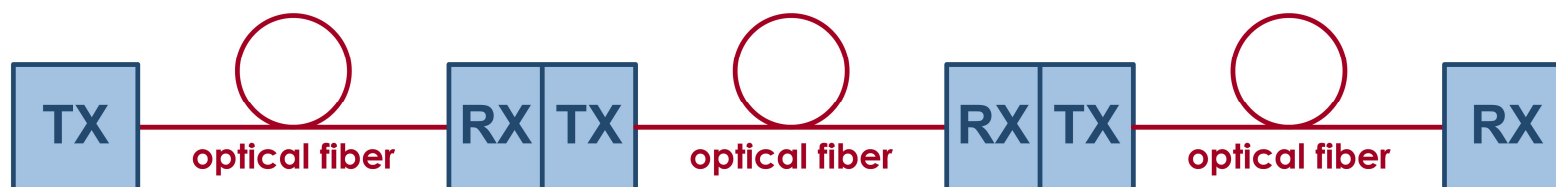


A way to improve the performance is to resort to **coherent receivers**

Wavelength division multiplexing (WDM)



Regenerative amplifiers

**Pros:**

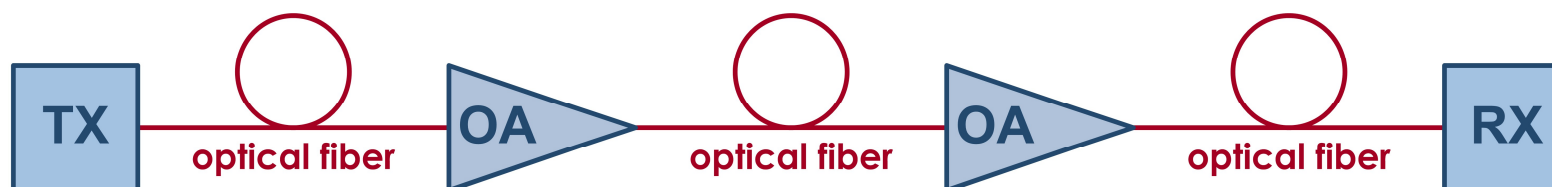
- Better SNR (quality)

Cons:

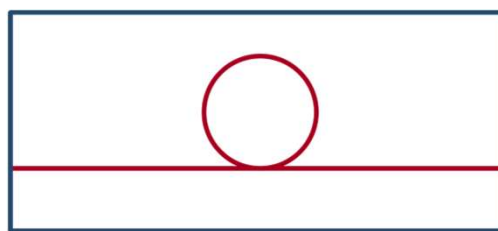
- Too complex and expensive
- Not flexible and future-proof
- Lower duration

Erbium doped fiber amplifier (EDFA) (1/2)

Since the late '90s, **transparent** approaches are preferable:



The optical amplification (OA) is performed using **Erbium-doped laser amplifiers (EDFAs)**, special fibers doped with Erbium, a rare-Earth element, that exploit stimulated emission:

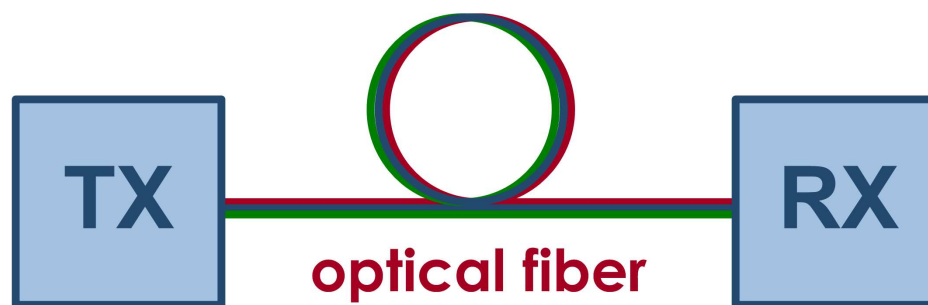


20-m special fiber

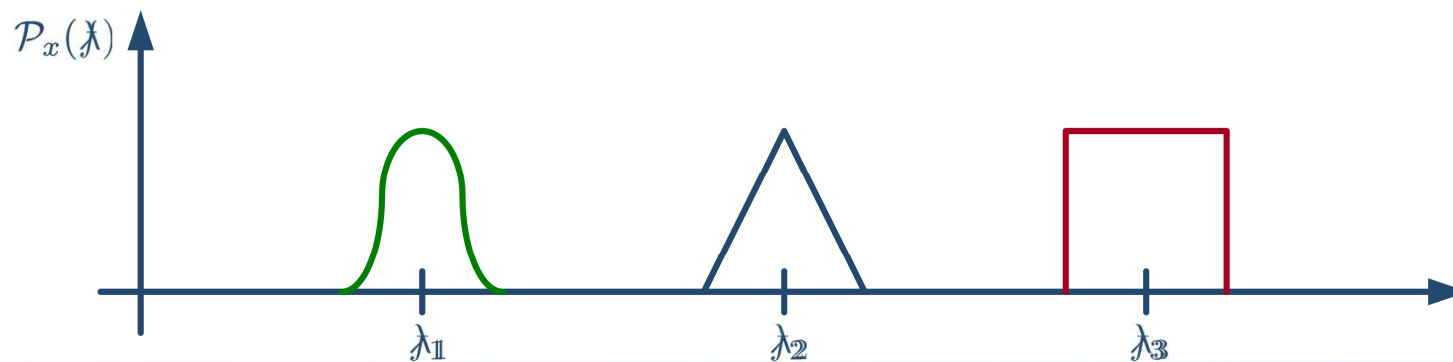
An example of a commercial EDFA



What is WDM?

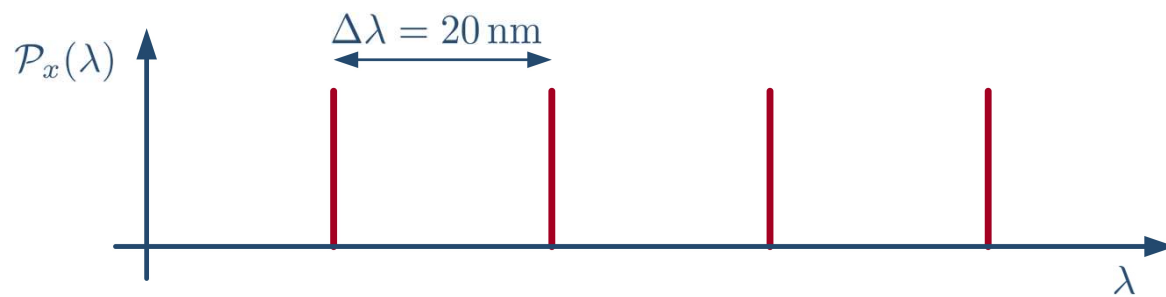


WDM is exactly FDM, done on an optical fiber:



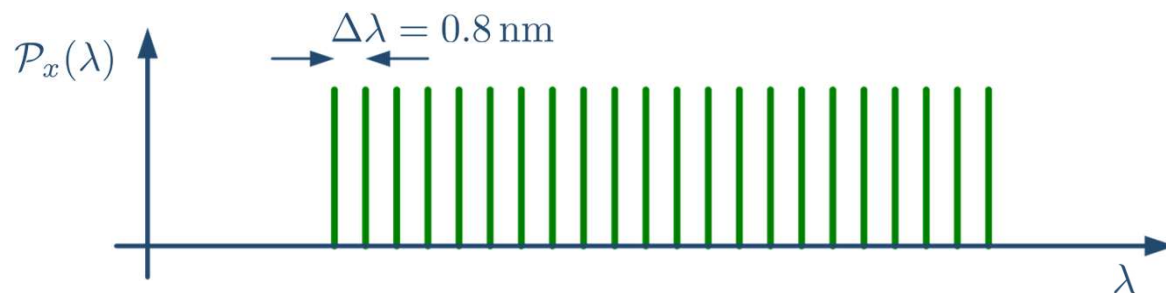
Coarse vs. dense WDM

Coarse WDM (CWDM):



$$\Delta f \approx \frac{f_0}{\lambda_0} \Delta \lambda \approx 2.5 \text{ THz}$$

Dense WDM (DWDM):



$$\Delta f \approx \frac{f_0}{\lambda_0} \Delta \lambda \approx 100 \text{ GHz}$$



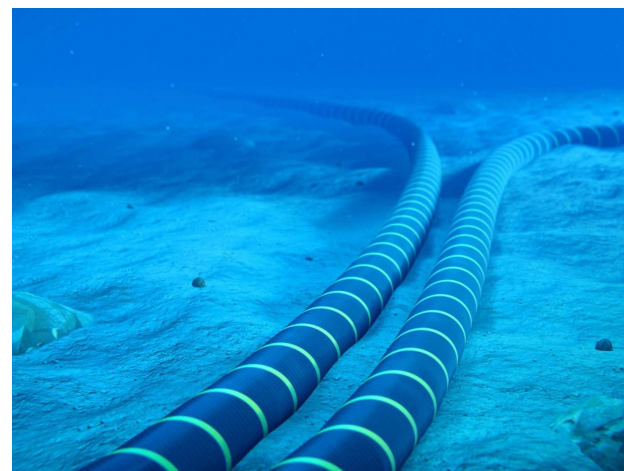
Access vs. transport

Access vs. transport networks



access (last mile)

vs.



transport (backbone)



Access technologies

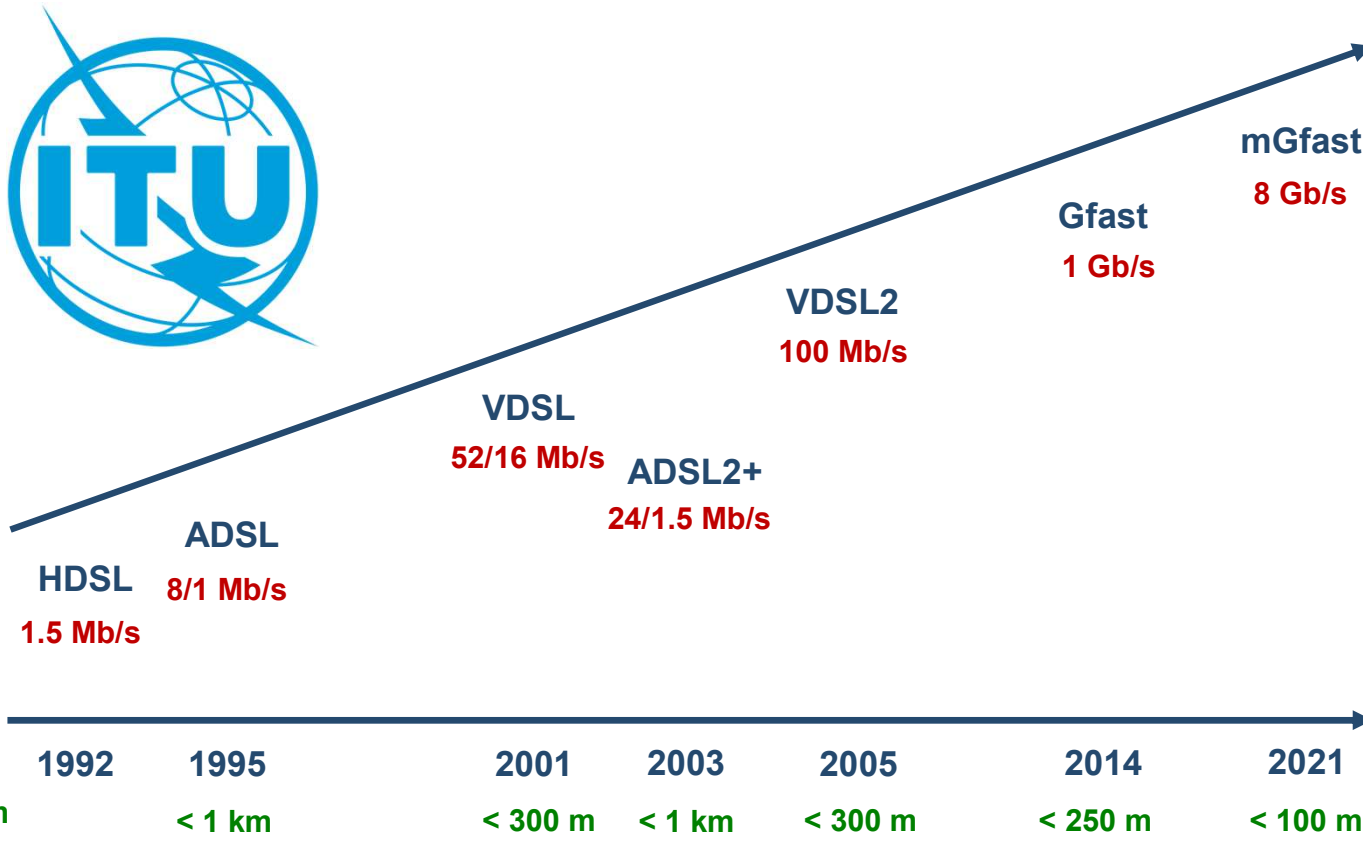
- **Wireless communications**
- **Fixed wireless access (FWA)**
- **Cable modems**
- **Satellite communications**
- **Digital subscriber line (DSL) technologies**
- **Fiber-based access**



xDSL technologies

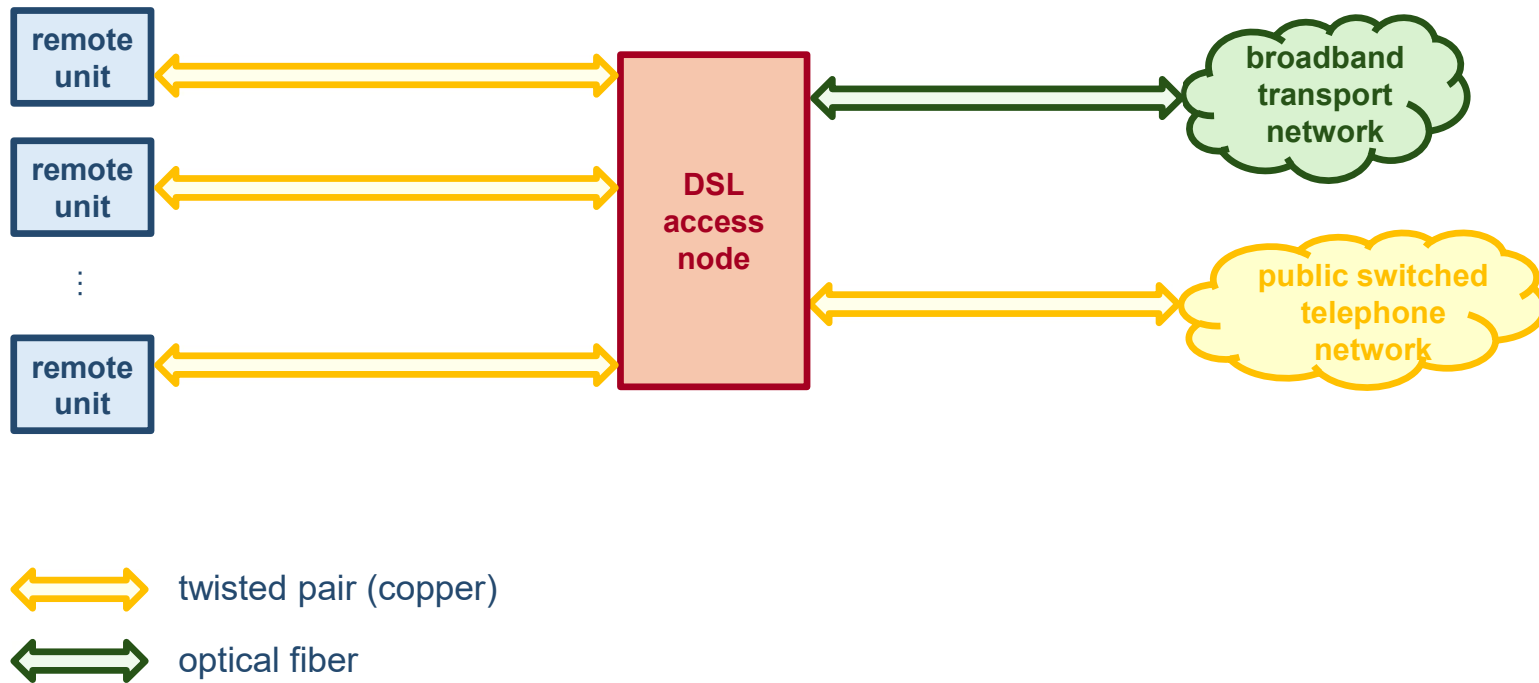


xDSL technologies

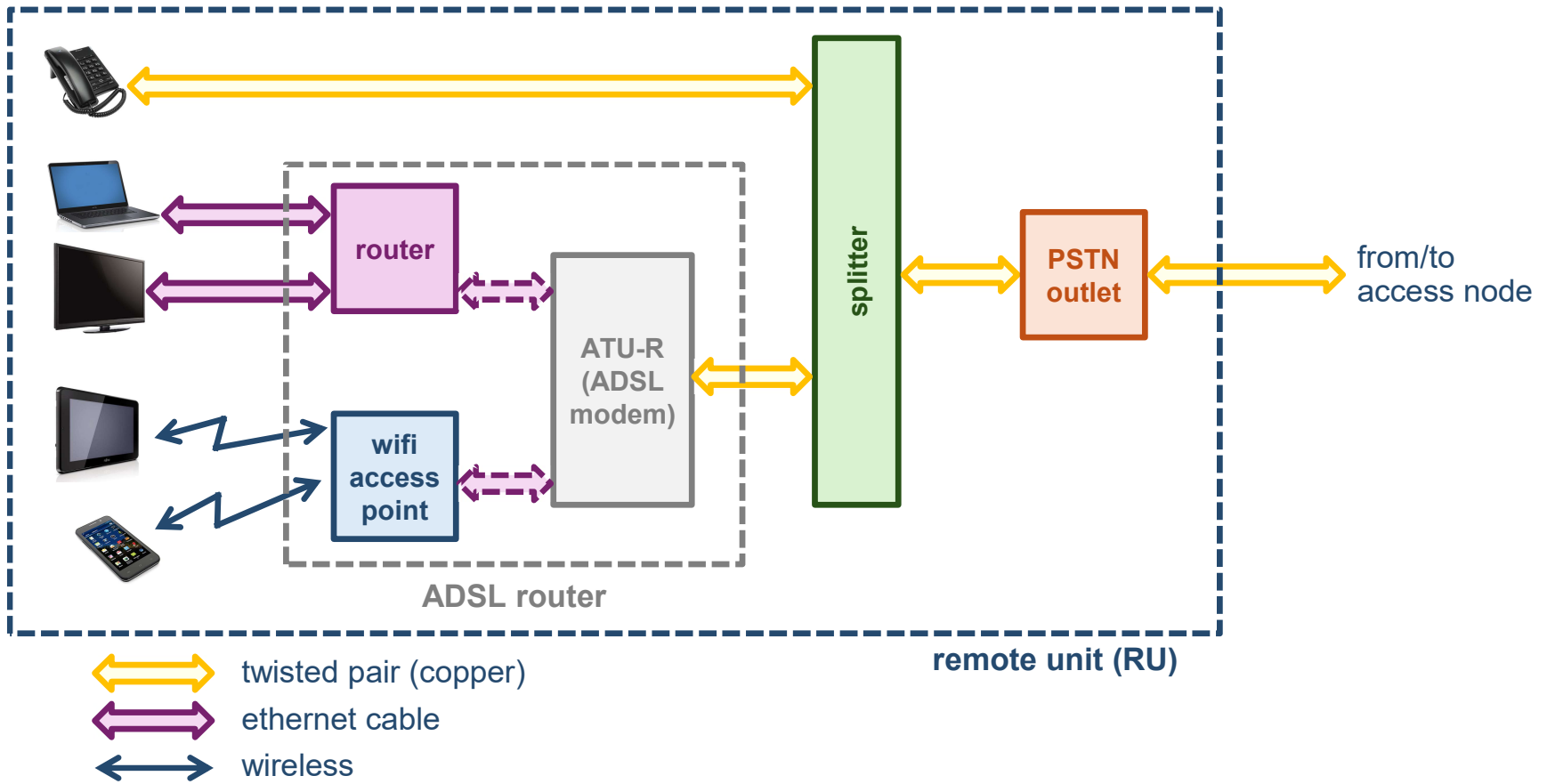


Communication systems (25/26) M.Sc. Communications Eng.

Architecture

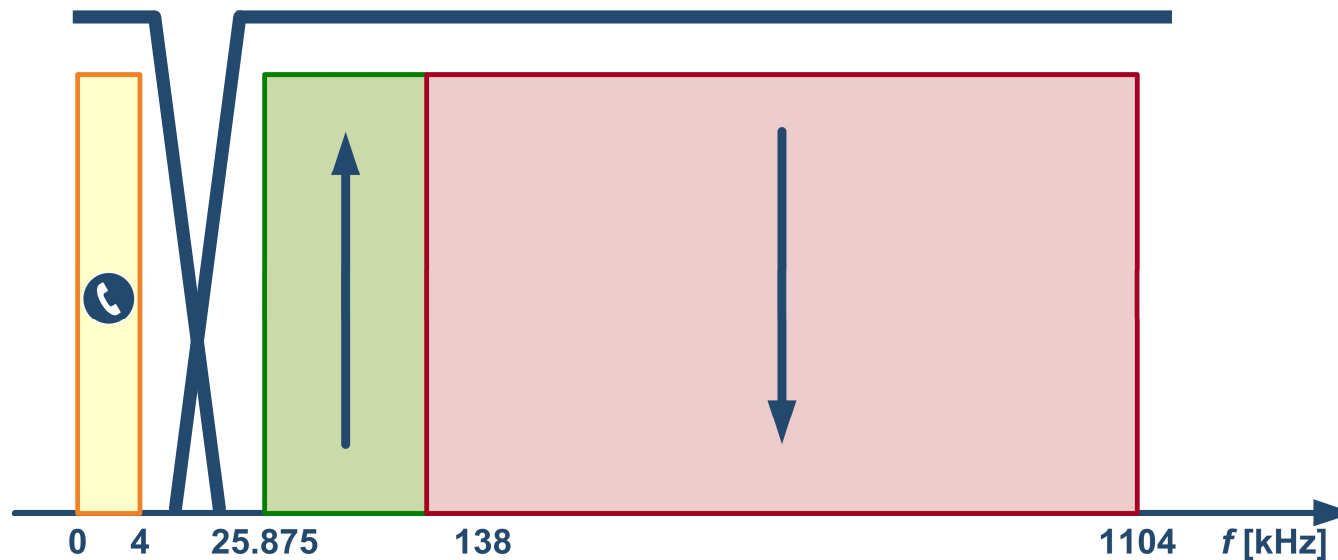


Architecture at end user (1/2)

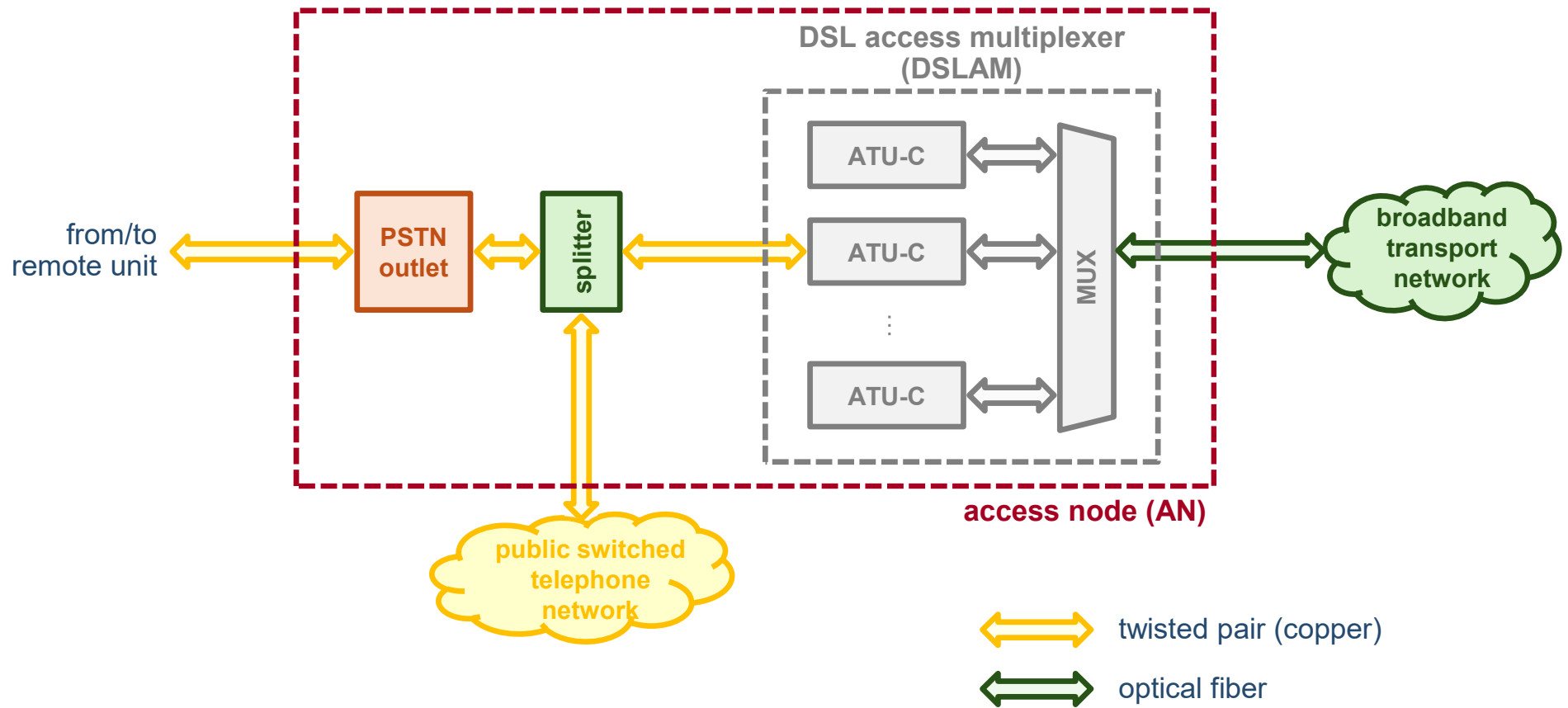


Architecture at end user (2/2)

The splitter is in practice a multiband **filter**, that separates the band allocated for PSTN services (voice) from the one allocated for data:

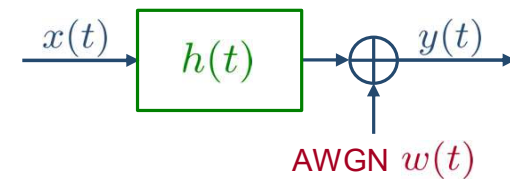
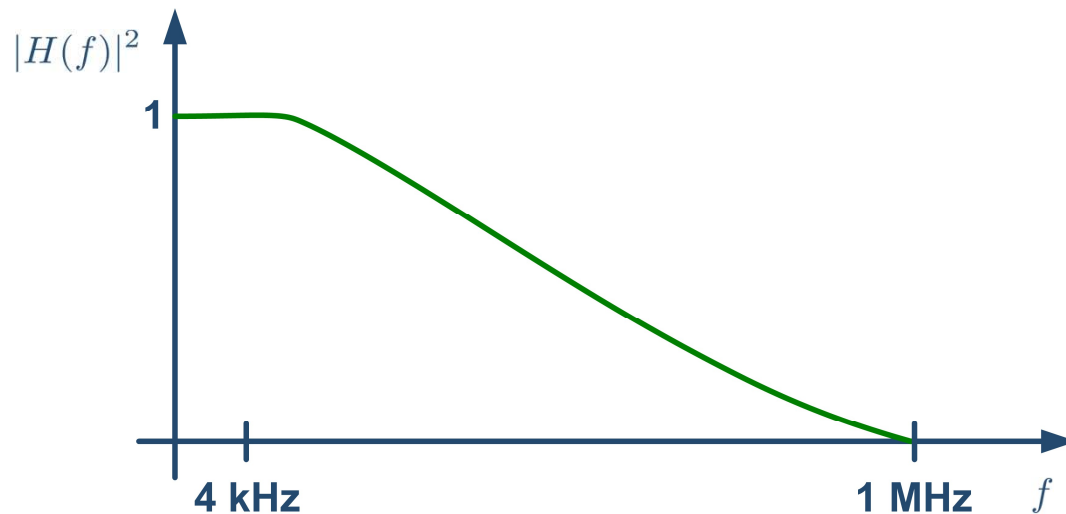


Architecture at access node

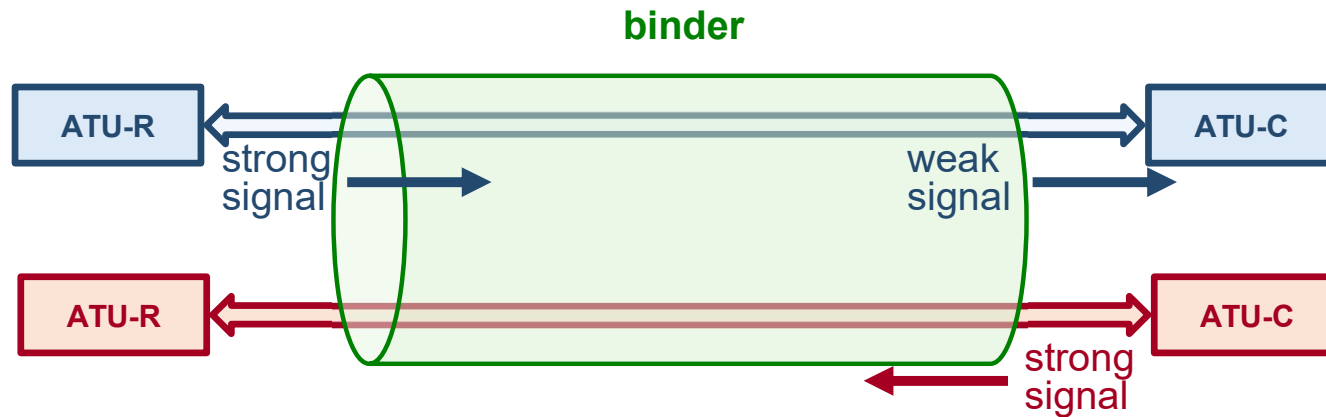


Impairments: colored noise and channel selectivity (1/4)

Suppose to use constellations with 10 bits/symbol: in any case, at least **1-MHz bandwidth** is needed



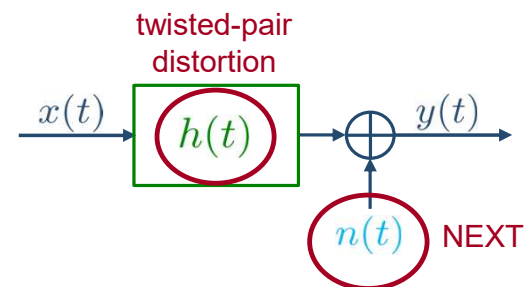
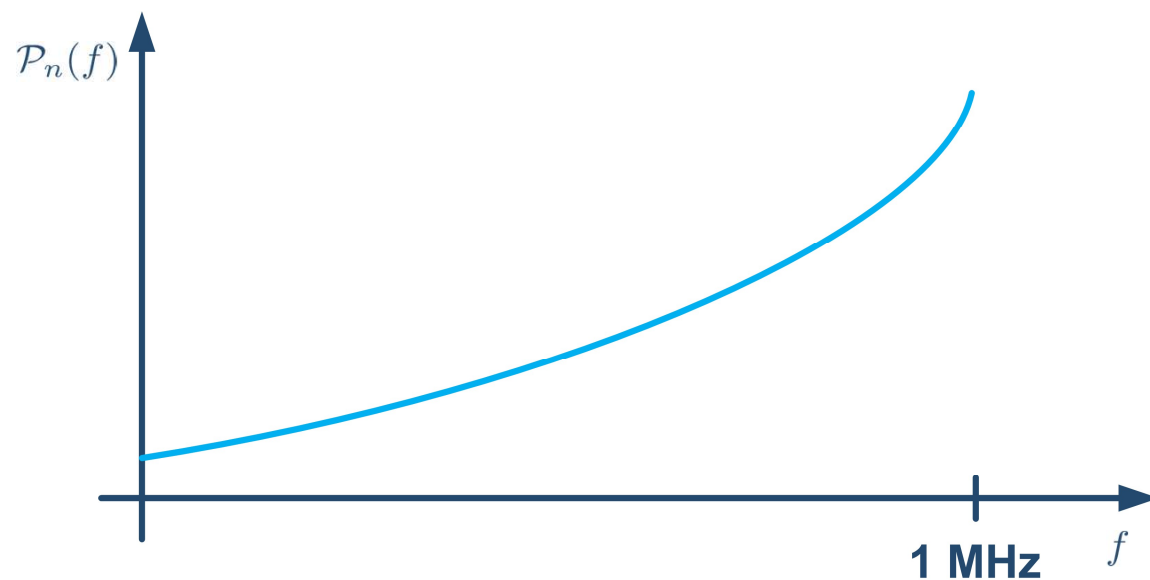
Impairments: colored noise and channel selectivity (2/4)



The huge imbalance between the weak upstream signal and the strong downstream signal generates **near-end cross-talk (NEXT)**

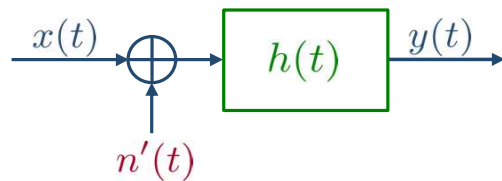
Impairments: colored noise and channel selectivity (3/4)

Due to NEXT, the noise is **colored**:

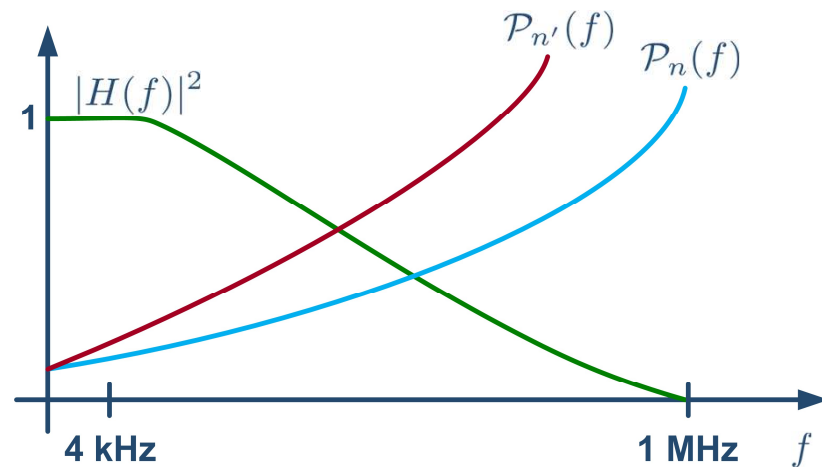


Impairments: colored noise and channel selectivity (4/4)

We can build an **equivalent** model as follows:

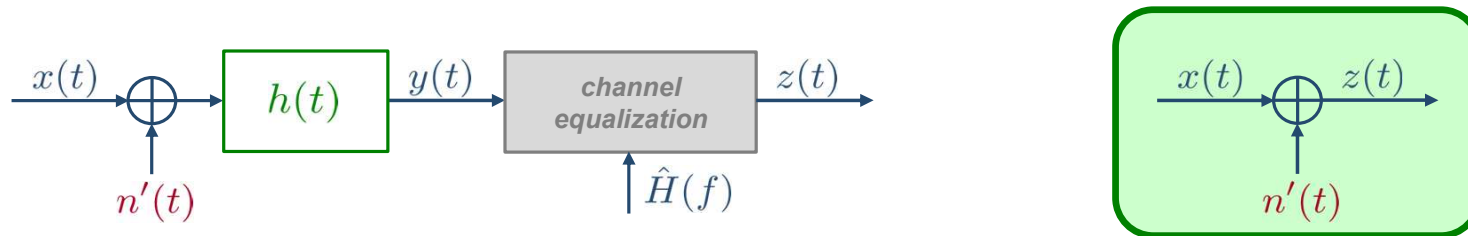


$$\mathcal{P}_{n'}(f) = \frac{\mathcal{P}_n(f)}{|H(f)|^2}$$



Discrete multi-tone (DMT) (1/3)

This formulation is convenient, because we can **isolate** the effect of the twisted pair, by **equalizing** the channel:



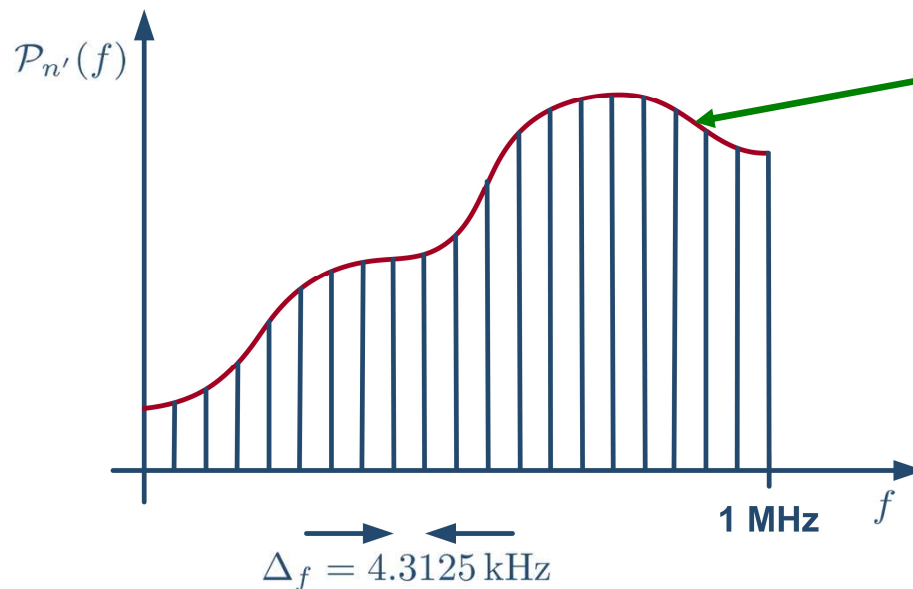
This system bears the **same** Shannon capacity as the original one

However, the Shannon capacity **does depend** on the distortion of the twisted pair, through the equivalent NEXT noise!

Discrete multi-tone (DMT) (2/3)

From the Shannon capacity with AWGN noise $C = B \cdot \log_2(1 + \gamma)$, we need to shift to the paradigm of Shannon capacity with **colored** noise:

$$C = \sum_k C_k = \sum_k \Delta_f \log_2(1 + \gamma_k)$$



the noise is practically white on each sub-band

$$\Delta_f = \frac{B}{K}, \quad K = 256$$

Discrete multi-tone (DMT) (3/3)

The **power allocation** can be done using a multicarrier technology, called **discrete multi-tone (DMT)**:

$$\gamma_k = \frac{p_k}{\sigma_k^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad p_k = \alpha \sigma_k^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad C_k = \Delta_f \log_2(1 + \alpha) \quad \forall k$$

Bitrate is adapted on a **subcarrier basis** (unlike OFDM, in which the same constellation is used on all subcarriers):

$$R_{b,k} \leq C_k$$

However, equalizing the SNRs per subcarrier does **not** yield the optimal power allocation:

$$C = \sum_k C_k = B \cdot \log_2(1 + \alpha)$$

The waterfilling criterion (1/2)

The **optimal constrained** power allocation is the solution to the problem

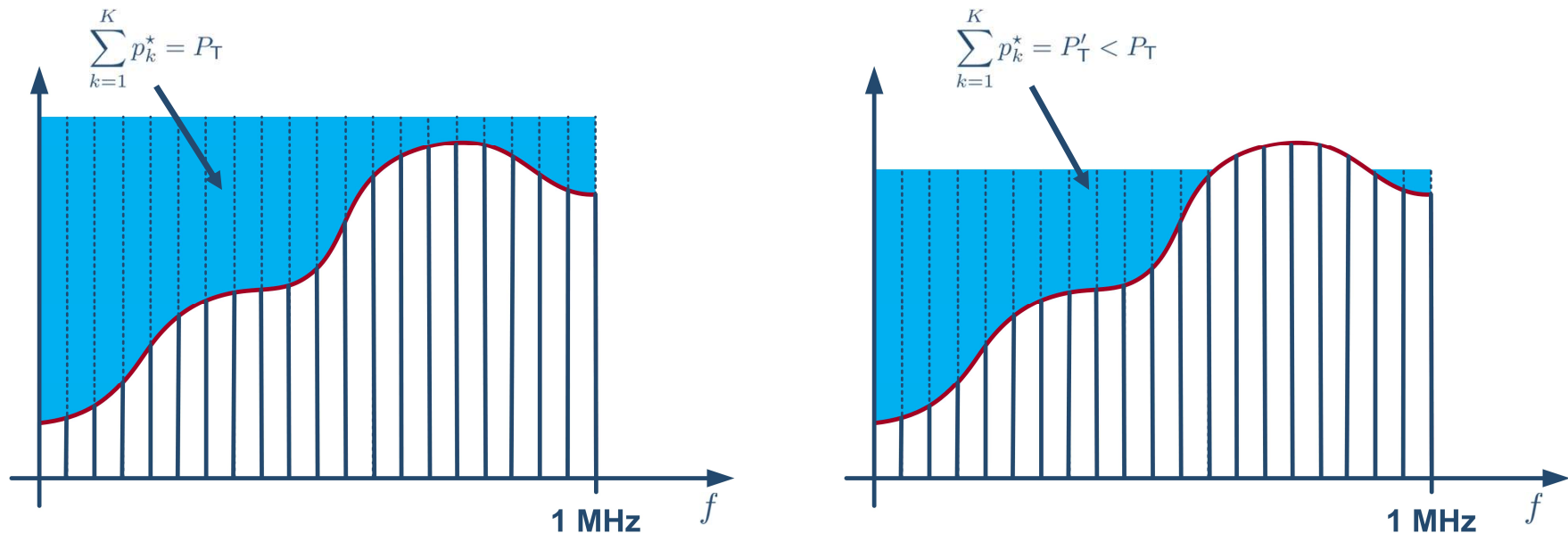
$$\mathbf{p}^* = [p_1^*, \dots, p_K^*]^T = \arg \max_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^K} \sum_{k=1}^K \Delta_f \log_2(1 + \gamma_k) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{k=1}^K p_k \leq P_T$$

Using the **Lagrange multipliers**, we find that the optimal powers are such that

$$p_k^* + \sigma_k^2 = P_T / K$$

The waterfilling criterion (2/2)

This leads to the **water-filling algorithm**:



After power allocation, we can perform **bit allocation** based on $R_{b,k} \leq C_k$ (up to 16k-QAM – 14 bits/symbol, although usually no more than 12 bits/symbol are used)

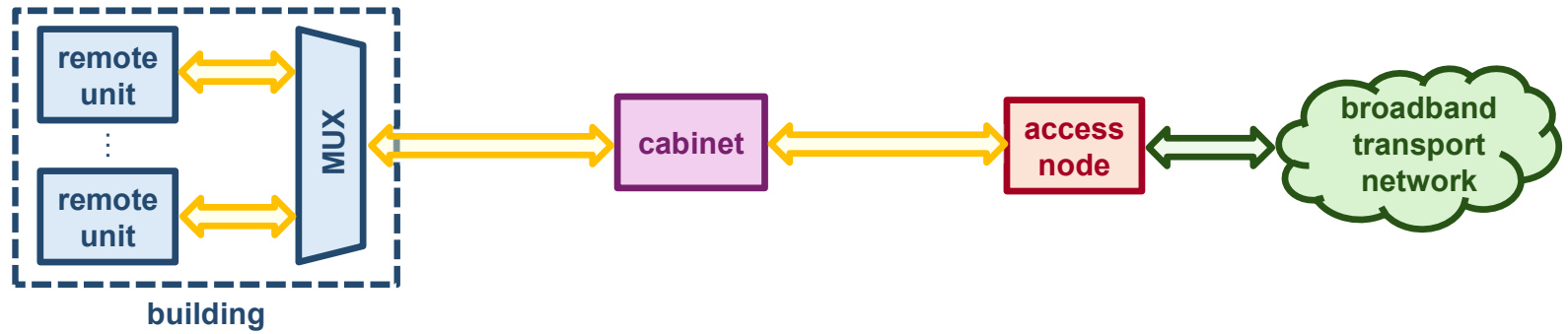


FTTx technologies

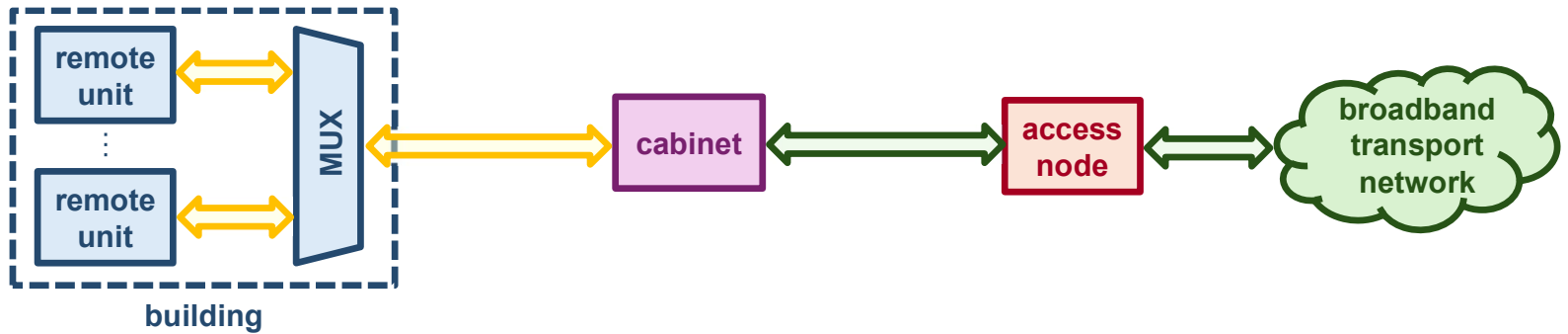
FTTC vs. FTTB vs. FTTH (1/2)

 twisted pair (copper)
  optical fiber

xDSL:
 24 / 2 Mb/s



FTTC (fiber-to-the-curb):
 100 / 30 Mb/s

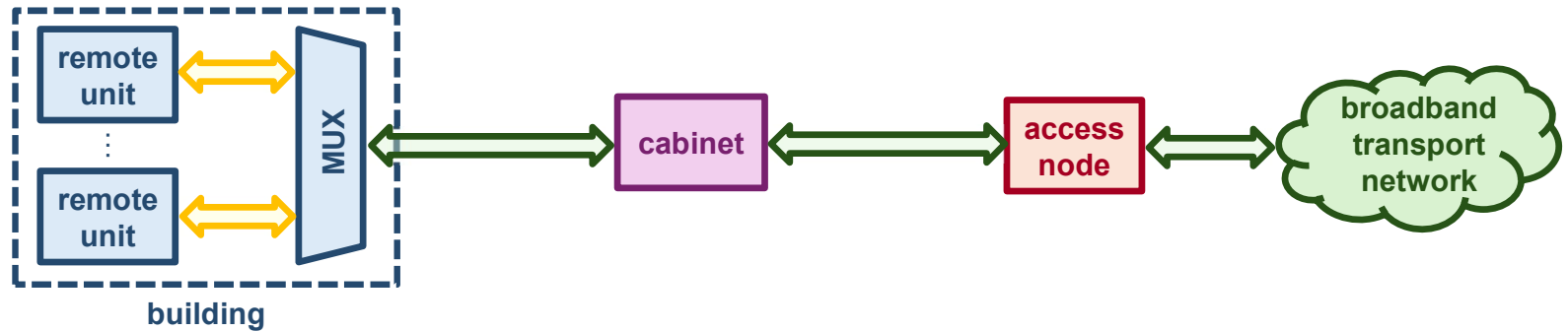


FTTC vs. FTTB vs. FTTH (2/2)

 twisted pair (copper)
  optical fiber

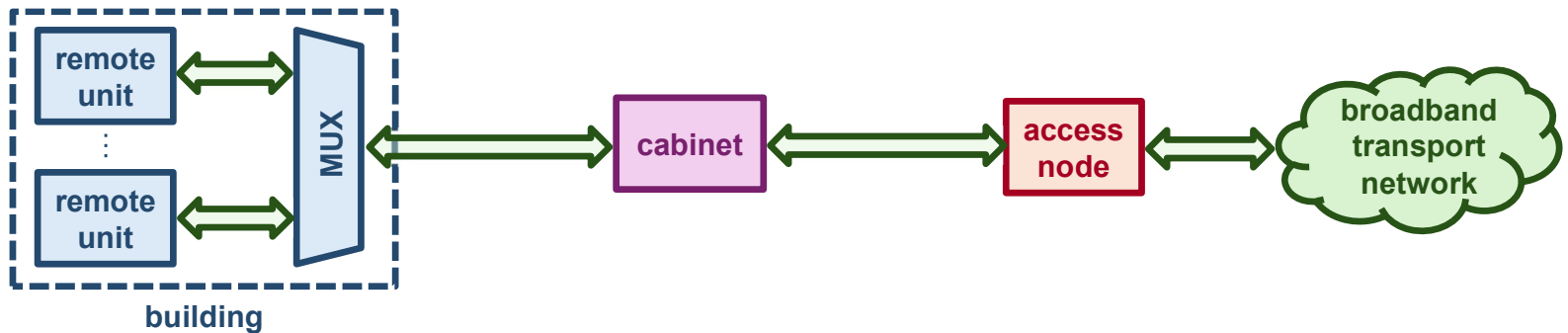
FTTB (fiber-to-the-building):

1 / 0.1 Gb/s



FTTH (fiber-to-the-home):

>1 Gb/s



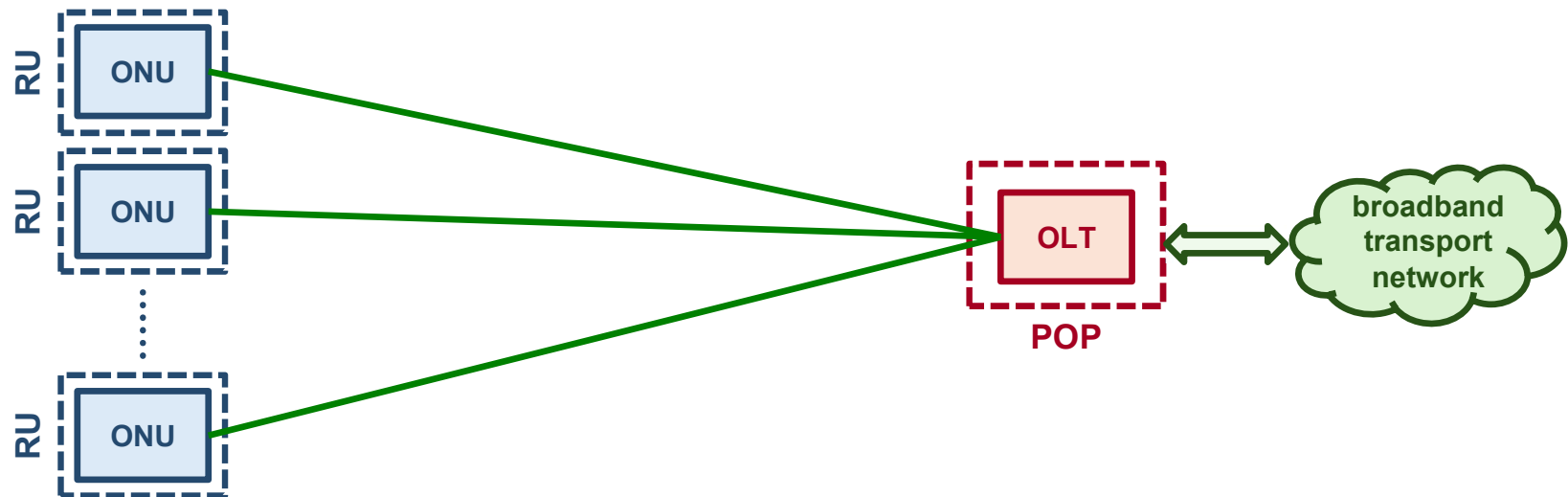
Point-to-point architecture @ FTTH

OLT: optical line termination

ONU: optical network unit

POP: point of presence

RU: remote unit



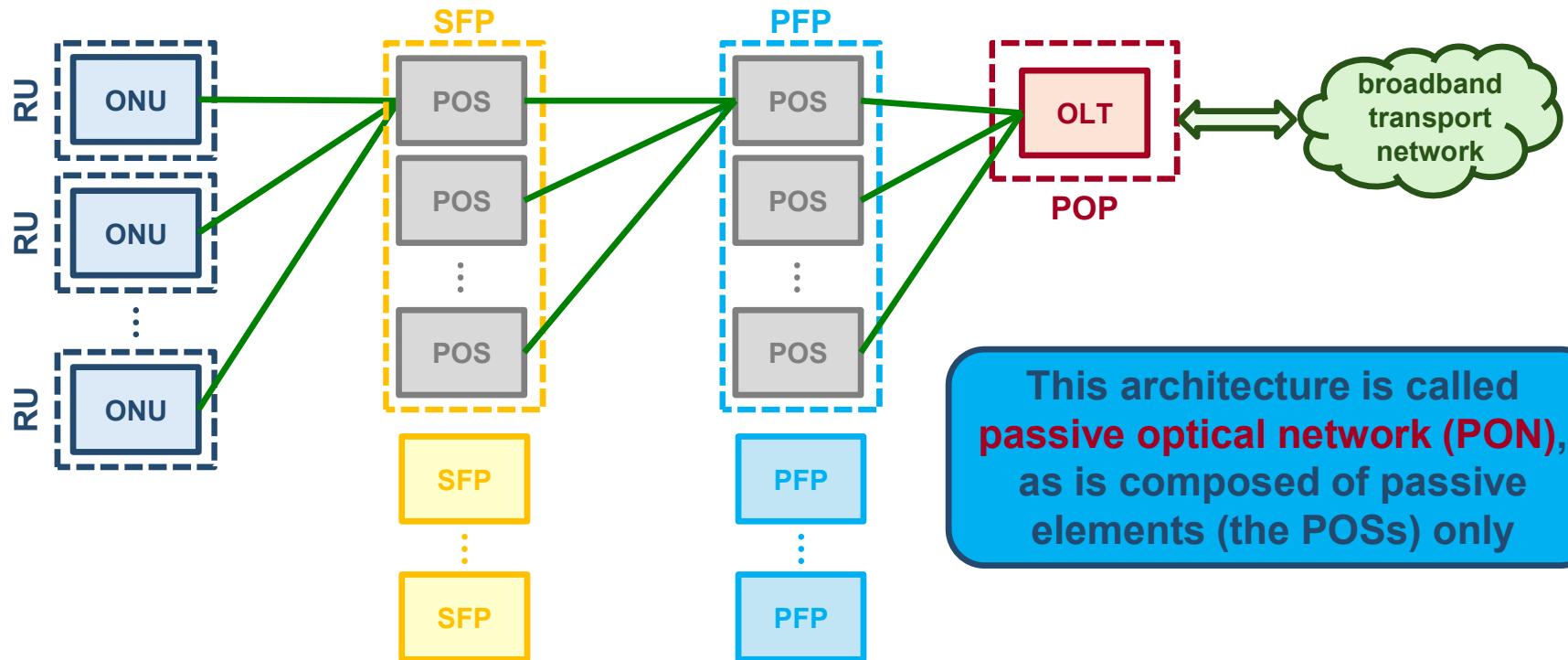
This architecture, while being future-proof, is extremely **expensive**

Point-to-multipoint architecture @ FTTH

OLT: optical line termination
ONU: optical network unit
PFP: primary flexibility point

PON: passive optical network
POP: point of presence
POS: passive optical splitter

RU: remote unit
SFP: secondary flexibility point



This architecture is called **passive optical network (PON)**, as is composed of passive elements (the POSs) only

Elements of a PON

SFP



PFP



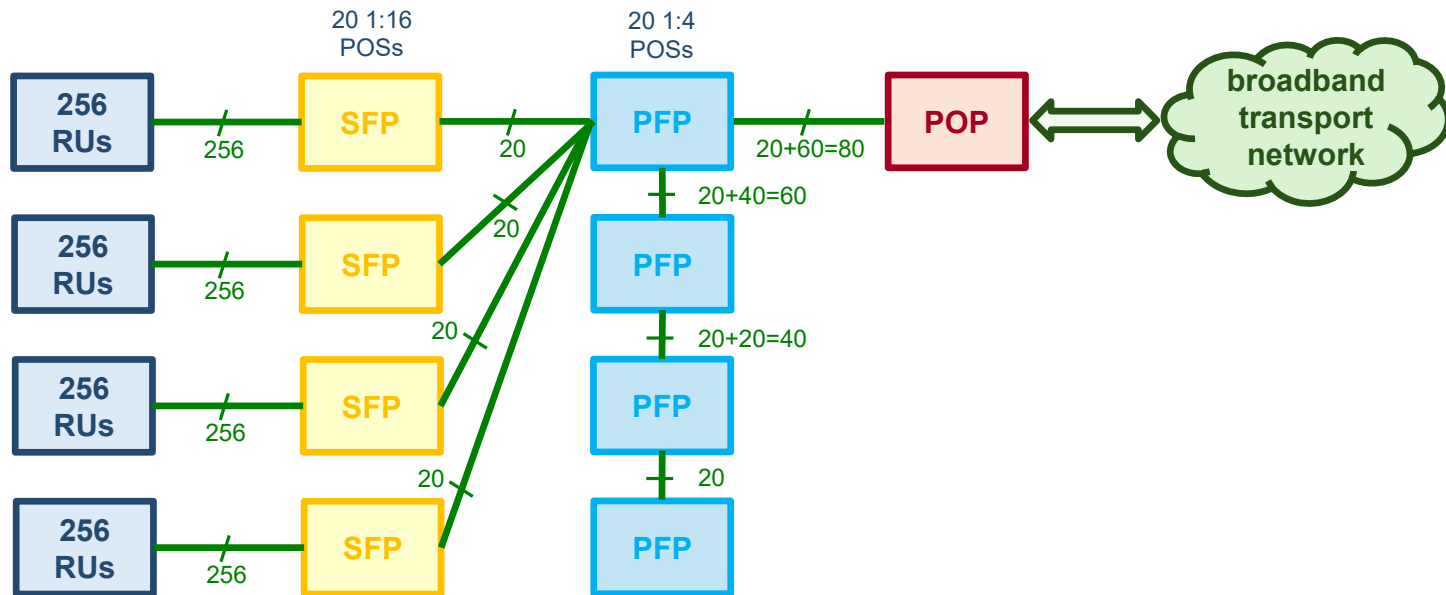
POS



Typical ratios:

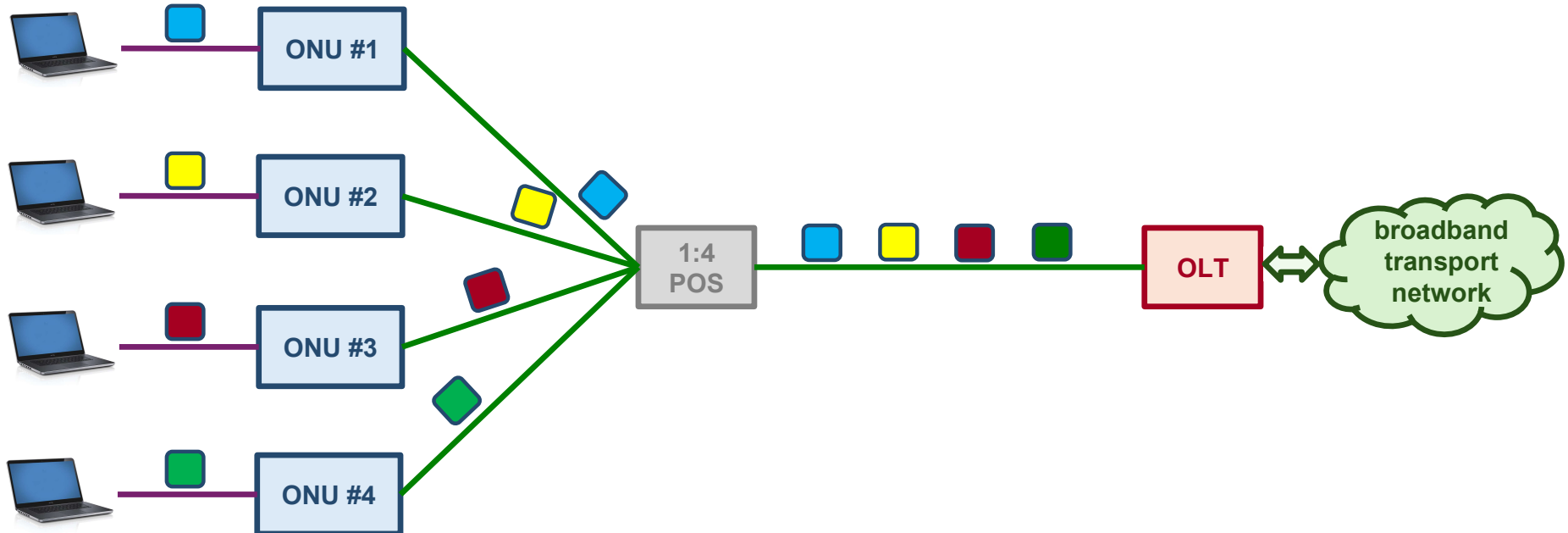
- 1:4
- 1:16
- 1:32

Example of a PON deployment



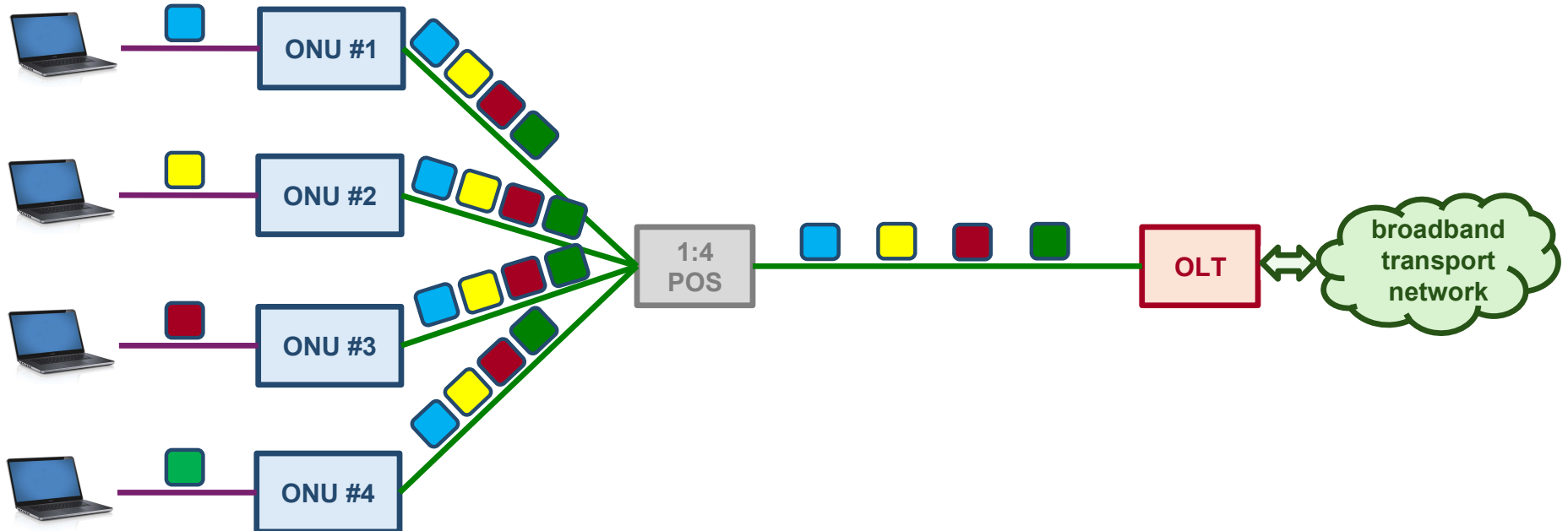
TDM(A) technology (1/2)

Upstream (usually in II window @ 1.3 μm): TDMA

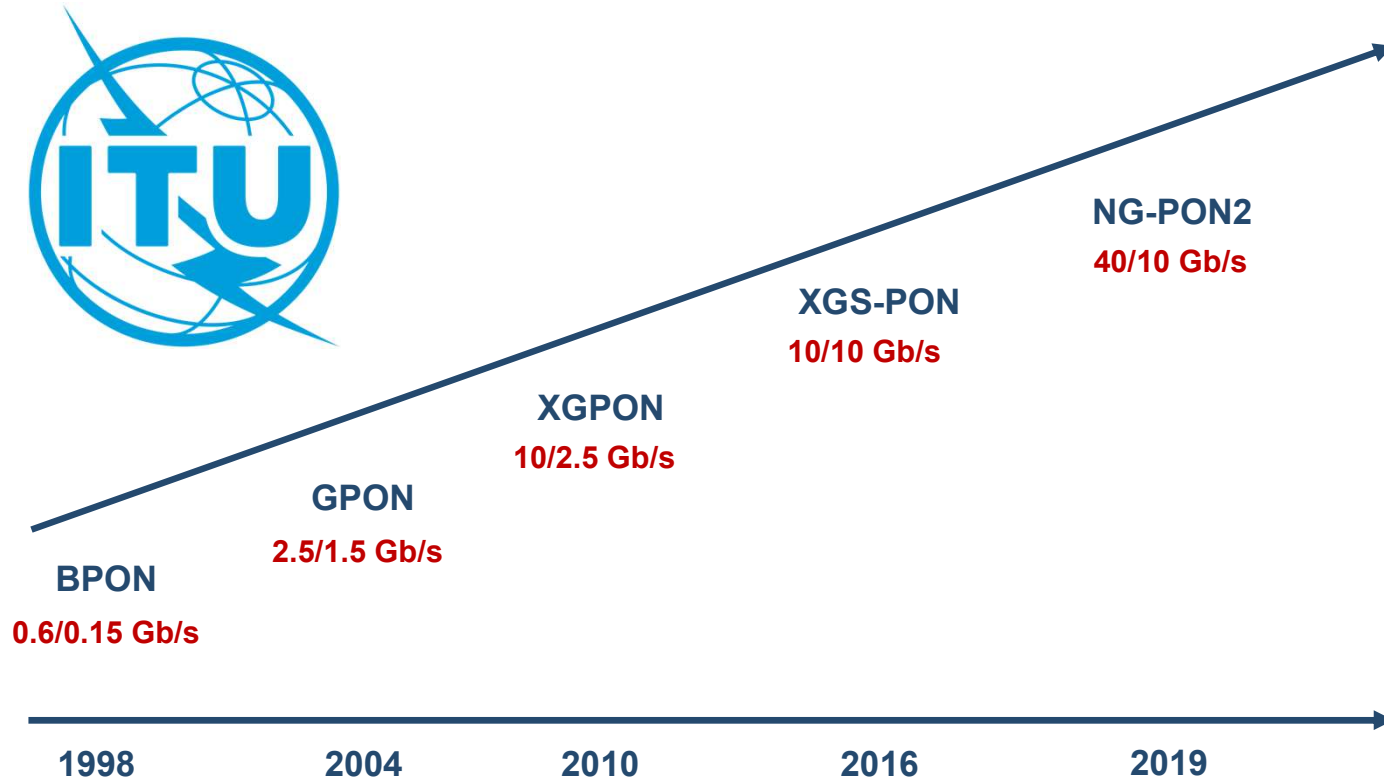


TDM(A) technology (2/2)

Dowstream (usually in III window @ 1.55 μm): TDM



Evolution of PON technologies



Bibliography

- [01] M. Luise, *Lecture Notes on Communication Technologies*. Pisa, Italy: Univ. Press, 2023.
- [02] G. Keiser, *Optical Fiber Communications*. Singapore: Springer Singapore, 2021.
- [03] G. P. Agrawal, *Fiber-Optic Communication Systems*. Hoboken, NJ: J. Wiley & Sons, 4th ed., 2010.