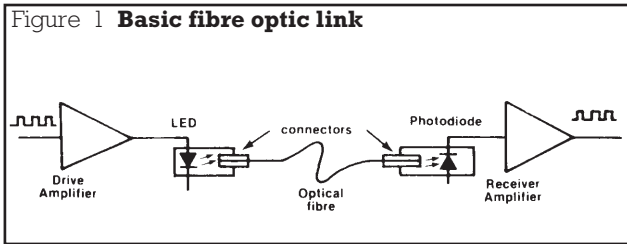




# Fibre optics

This data sheet discusses fibre optics in general terms and gives details of some of the basic RS products.

Fibre optics can offer solutions to many of the problems associated with traditional electrical hard wired transmission systems.



### Fibre optics vs copper wire

In an optical system, (Figure 1), signals are transmitted in the form of photons (light) which have no electrical charge and, therefore, cannot be affected by the electric fields as experienced in high voltage environments or during a lightning discharge. Similarly, high magnetic fields from motors, machinery, transformers etc., have no effect on optical transmission. There are no crosstalk problems as the small leakage of flux which may occur at the fibre boundary interface is retained by the opaque primary jacket ensuring that optical signals cannot interfere with each other when fibres are in close proximity. This factor also guarantees security of transmission, for the signal is unable to be externally detected throughout the length of the fibre.

### Features

- Freedom from electro-magnetic interference
- Freedom from crosstalk
- Security of transmission
- Elimination of sparking and fire hazards
- Electrical isolation
- Absence of ground loops
- Low weight coupled with high strength
- Increased bandwidth and lower transmission losses than in coaxial cables at high frequencies.

The insert nature of optical fibres means they can tolerate most kinds of weather and be immersed in many fluids. Their low weight and small size is useful in many applications. Complete electrical isolation is a distinct benefit, giving more freedom in the design of the transmitter and receiver and ensuring the elimination of ground loop problems. However, by far the major advantage is in bandwidth. In either coaxial or parallel wire cable the bandwidth varies inversely as the square of the length, while in fibre optic cables it varies inversely as the length, only.

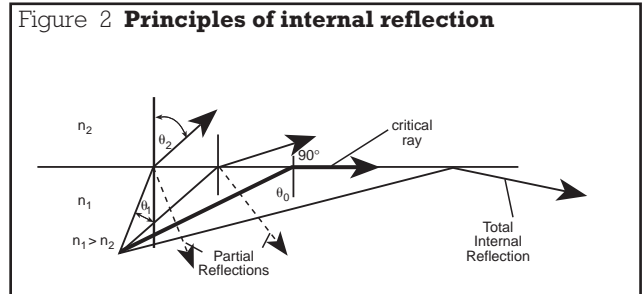
### Fibre optics theory

#### Total internal reflection TIR

Optical fibres transmit light by the phenomenon of total internal reflection. Light rays passing between the boundaries of two optically transparent media of different densities will experience refraction and change direction according to Snells Law:

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2 \quad \text{Snells Law}$$

Where  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the indices of refraction of the two media.



If rays pass from a dense to a less dense medium (ie,  $n_1 > n_2$ ) then at a certain value of  $\theta_1$  the resultant  $\theta_2$  will be  $90^\circ$ . This value  $\theta_c$  is known as the critical angle and is denoted  $\theta_c$ , (Figure 2).

$$\text{So, } n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 \sin 90^\circ.$$

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

#### Numerical aperture

In a fibre, rays which are internally reflected rebound along the length of the fibre and only exit at the far end. Partially reflected rays lose power at each rebound and consequently die away rapidly.

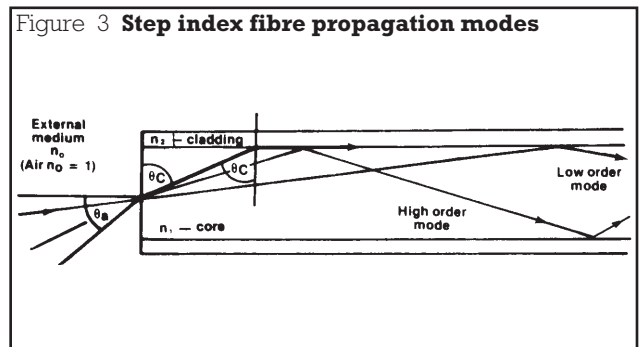


Figure 3 shows the air/fibre interface. The angle  $\theta_a$  is the maximum angle at which a ray incident to this interface can enter the core and experience total internal reflection.  $\theta_a$  is called the Acceptance Angle and  $\sin \theta_a$  is known as the Numerical Aperture (NA).

Numerical Aperture =  $\sin \theta_a$ .

From Snells Law:

$$\begin{aligned} n_o \sin \theta_a &= n_1 \sin (90^\circ - \theta_c) \\ &= n_1 \cos \theta_c \\ &= n_1 \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_c} \\ &= n_1 \sqrt{1 - (n_2/n_1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

When  $n_o = 1$  (i.e air)

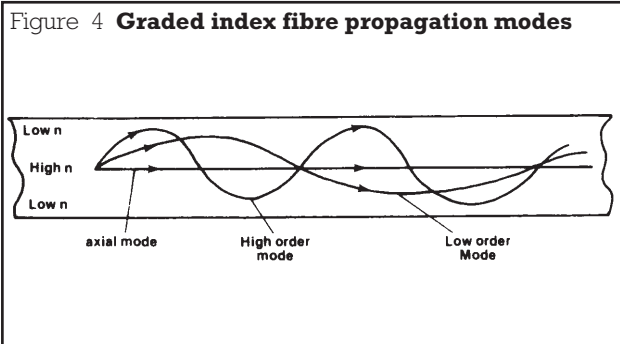
$$\sin \theta_a = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

**Propagation modes**

Light rays in a fibre may be classified as meridional and skew. Meridional rays are those that pass through the axis of a fibre after each rebound, while skew rays never intersect the fibre axis. There are also parallel rays which travel directly down the fibre, never being reflected. Basic fibre theory is concerned with meridional rays. These fall into two categories, low order modes and high order modes (Figure 3). Low order modes are those rays launched at small angles within the acceptance angle, while high order modes occur when rays are launched at large angles. Single-Mode fibres result when the core area and the NA are so small that only one mode can propagate. Other modes of propagation do exist but these disappear or do not affect the basic theory.

**Fibre construction**

Two types of fibre construction are commonly in use. A **step-index** fibre which consists of a cylindrical core of glass, silica or plastic of refractive index  $n_1$ , covered by a thin cladding of a lower refractive index  $n_2$ . The second type is a **graded index** whose refractive index changes gradually from a high refractive index at the centre to a lower index towards the perimeter. This causes the rays to propagate as in Figure 4.



**Dispersion**

Two types of dispersion are encountered in fibres which limit bandwidth. **Material** dispersion and **Modal** dispersion. Material dispersion results from the fact that different wavelengths travel at different velocities in the same medium. Consequently, the various wavelengths launched simultaneously within the flux will not arrive at the receiver simultaneously but will suffer time dispersion due to differences in travel time. This effect can be reduced by using an emitter with a narrow spectrum of emission (eg. laser).

Modal dispersion is caused by the difference in path lengths between low order modes and high order modes. As can be seen in Figures 3 and 4 the high order modes have a longer travel time than the lower order modes and simultaneously launched rays will suffer dispersion on arrival. Modal dispersion can be reduced in step-index fibres by decreasing the NA to allow only the lower modes to propagate. In graded-index fibres the effect is compensated for by the high order modes travelling faster in the lower-index regions, so the time differential between high and low order modes is not as large in graded-index fibres as it is in step-index fibres.

Dispersion is generally only a problem in long distance communications and consequently graded index fibres, although more costly than step-index fibres are used in these applications in conjunction with lasers. For shorter distances (< 500m) and/lower bandwidth step-index fibres are favoured for lower costs and easier coupling methods.

**Transmission loss**

There are four main causes of transmission loss in optical fibres:

1. Material absorption
2. Material scattering
3. Scattering due to irregularities at the core/cladding interface
4. Radiation due to curvature.

**Material absorption** is caused by molecular impurities within the core of the fibre which absorb certain wavelengths. High purification processes during manufacture limit the problem - but are costly. Alternatively, a suitable emitter is chosen whose peak wavelength corresponds approximately to the spectral region of maximum transmission of the fibre. Plastic fibres, for example generally have minimum absorption between 630 and 670nm and are therefore recommended to be used with visible red emitters.

**Material scattering** is caused by particle impurities and by fluctuations in temperature and composition (Rayleigh scattering) which interrupts the reflection paths of the light rays.

Further scattering is caused by **irregularities** at the core/cladding interface which results in transmission into the cladding and subsequent loss of energy on reflection.

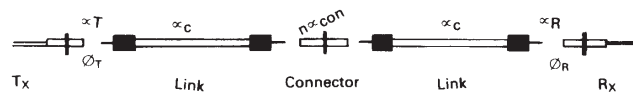
**Curvature** of the fibre may also cause losses. If the curvature is too great some rays will strike the boundary at angles less than the critical angle and partial transmission into the cladding will occur with a resultant loss of reflection.

The first three conditions contribute to the overall attenuation of the fibre given in dB/km.

**Coupling losses**

In addition to the losses inherent in a fibre, coupling losses must be considered when designing a fibre optic link. The three main loss mechanisms are, fibre to fibre (in-line), fibre to fibre (bulkhead) and fibre to emitter/detector unit. In the case of the RS systems a maximum figure is quoted for each coupling in dB. The loss is due to a number of factors but in particular, reflections at the mating faces, slight misalignment due to manufacturing tolerances and separation between the mating faces. The latter is deliberately engineered to prevent scratch damage to the fibre faces when the coupling is made.

**Attenuation calculations**



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Overall attenuation} &= 10 \log_{10} \frac{\Phi_T}{\Phi_R} \\ &= \alpha_T + \alpha_{C1} + n\alpha_{con} + \alpha_{C2} + \alpha_R \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Phi_T$  and  $\Phi_R$  is the power in  $\mu\text{W}$  transmitted and received respectively.

$\alpha_T$  and  $\alpha_R$  are the coupling losses between the fibre and transmitter and receiver respectively.

$\alpha_{con}$  is the total insertion loss due to 'n' number of coupling connectors (ie. in-line or bulkhead).

$\alpha_{C_1}$  and  $\alpha_{C_2}$  are the attenuation figures of the individual lengths of cable involved in the link.

**N.B.** It is important for system performance to keep connections to a minimum. It may be advantageous in certain instances to use a longer length of cable rather than incur coupling losses, by using in-line connectors to join shorter lengths in order to make up the desired distance.

Generally in designing a system, the flux which the transmitter produces and the length over which the data is to be transmitted is known. From the above attenuation equation, the flux appearing at the fibre/receiver interface can be calculated and a suitable circuit designed to amplify the received signal.

### Specification - Polymer system

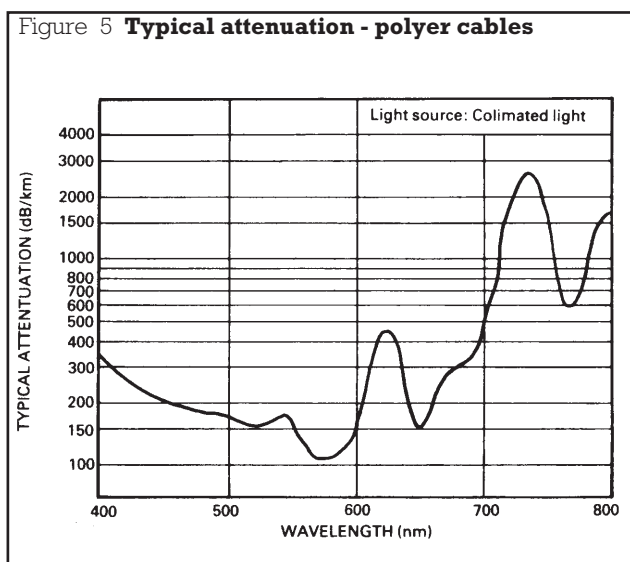
#### Polymer cable (RS stock no. 368-047 & 368-053)

Core material \_\_\_\_\_ polymethyl methacrylate  
 Cladding material \_\_\_\_\_ fluorinated polymer  
 Sheath material \_\_\_\_\_ black polyethylene  
 Core/Cladding diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 1.00mm  
 Overall diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 2.25mm  
 Optical construction \_\_\_\_\_ step index  
 Attenuation at 665nm \_\_\_\_\_ 200dB/km (max.)  
 Core refractive index \_\_\_\_\_ 1.492(n1)  
 Clad refractive index \_\_\_\_\_ 1.417 (n2)  
 Numerical aperture \_\_\_\_\_  $0.47 \pm 0.03 (\sqrt{(n1)^2 - (n2)^2})$   
 Acceptance angle \_\_\_\_\_  $56^\circ (2 \sin^{-1} (NA))$   
 Minimum bend radius \_\_\_\_\_ 15mm  
 Tensile strength \_\_\_\_\_ 5kg  
 Operating temp range \_\_\_\_\_ -30°C to +85°C  
 Maximum temperature \_\_\_\_\_ 100°C

#### End termination (RS stock no. 655-004)

Ferrule material \_\_\_\_\_ nickel-silver  
 Coupling nut material \_\_\_\_\_ nickel-plated brass  
 Heatshrink sleeving \_\_\_\_\_ polyolefin with inner adhesive lining  
 Coupling loss per connector \_\_\_\_\_ 2dB (max.)

Figure 5 Typical attenuation - polyer cables



### Bulkhead connector (RS stock no. 655-010)

Material \_\_\_\_\_ nickel-plated brass  
 Insertion loss \_\_\_\_\_ 2.5dB (max.) per coupling

### Specification - 9 mm SMA system

#### Terminated optical leads

#### 50/125µm

RS stock no.	Length (m)
361-254	10
361-260	20
361-276	25
361-282	50
361-298	100
361-305	200

#### Fibre data

Construction \_\_\_\_\_ glass  
 Core diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 50µm  
 Cladding diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 125µm  
 Coating diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 250µm  
 Attenuation at 820nm \_\_\_\_\_ 3 dB/km typical (4 dB/km max.)  
 Bandwidth \_\_\_\_\_ 400 MHz/km  
 Numerical aperture \_\_\_\_\_ 0.2

#### Cable data

Jacket material \_\_\_\_\_ LSOH polyethylene  
 Overall diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 3.2mm (tight jacket)  
 Minimum bend radius \_\_\_\_\_ 30mm (installed)  
 Maximum tensile load \_\_\_\_\_ 100N  
 Optical construction \_\_\_\_\_ graded index  
 Operating temperature \_\_\_\_\_ -15°C to +60°C

#### Connector data

Type \_\_\_\_\_ 9 mm SMA  
 Material - body \_\_\_\_\_ stainless steel and ceramic  
 knurled nut nickel plated beryllium copper

#### 200µm PCS

RS stock no.	Length (m)
368-564	2
368-570	5
368-586	10
361-592	20
361-609	25
361-615	50
368-637	100

#### Fibre data

Construction \_\_\_\_\_ plastic coated silica  
 Core diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 200µm  
 Cladding diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 389µm  
 Coating diameter \_\_\_\_\_ 600µm  
 Attenuation at 820nm \_\_\_\_\_ 7dB/km typical (10dB/km max.)  
 3dB bandwidth \_\_\_\_\_ 25MHz/km  
 Numerical aperture \_\_\_\_\_ 0.27

Figure 6 **Spectral output vs wavelength**

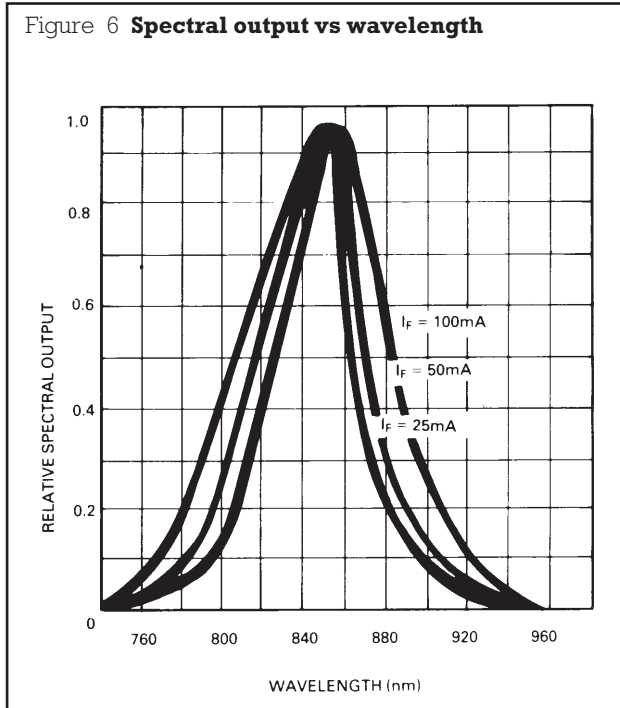
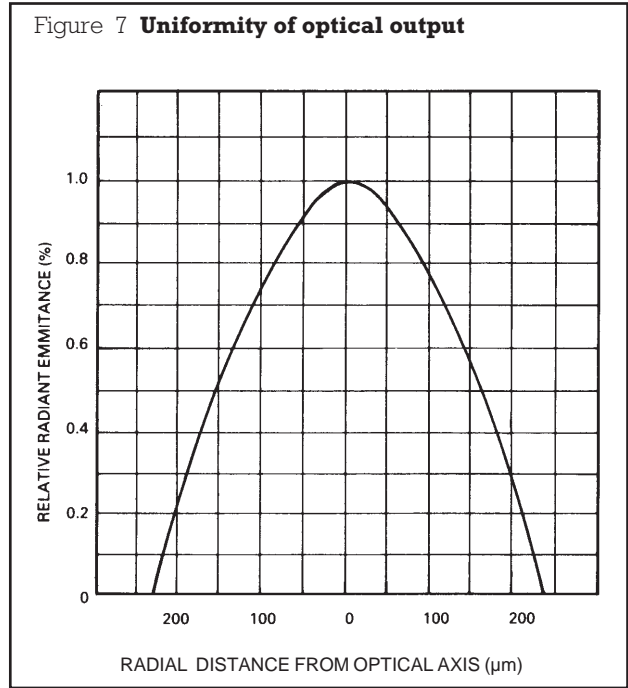


Figure 7 **Uniformity of optical output**



**Electro-optical characteristics ( $T_A = 25^\circ C$ ) - Emitters**

Parameter	Conditions	Min.	Typ.	Max.	Units
Forward voltage, $V_F$	$I_F = 100mA$			1.6	1.8 V
Reverse voltage, $V_R$	$I_R = 10\mu A$		1.0	5.0	V
Series resistance, $R_S$				4	$\Omega$
Device capacitance, $C$	$V_R = 0V, f = 1MHz$			70	pF
Peak emission wavelength, $\lambda_p$	$I_F = 100mA$			850	nm
Spectral bandwidth, $\Delta \lambda$				50	nm
Response time,	$t_r$	$I_{peak} = 100mA$			4.8 ns
	$t_f$	Prebias = 1V			6.10 ns
Launch power*					
Low power emitter (RS stock no. 633-290, 633-307)	50/125µm glass 200µm PCS	3µW (-25dBm) 50µW (-13dBm)			
High power emitter (RS stock no. 633-313, 633-329)	50/125µm glass 200µm PCS	10µW (-20dBm) 160µW (-8dBm)			

\* Measured at the end of a 10m length of fibre optic cable.

**Schmitt receiver (RS stock nos. 633-335, 633-341)**

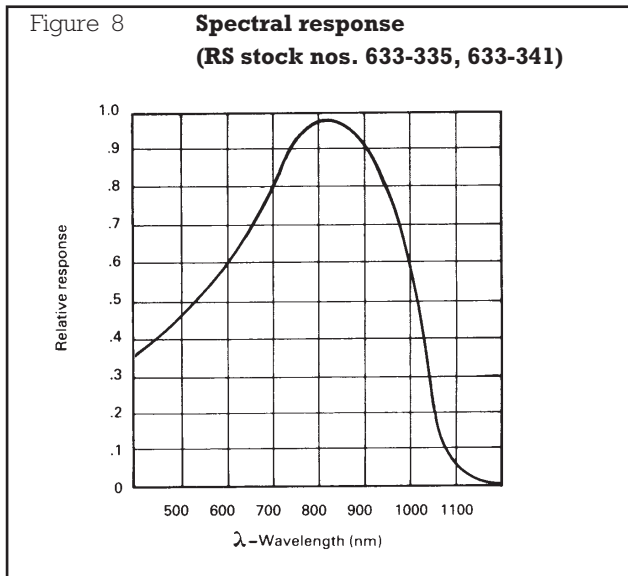
**Absolute maximum ratings**

Supply voltage \_\_\_\_\_ 4.5V to 16V

Continuous output sink current \_\_\_\_\_ 18mA

Operating temperature range \_\_\_\_\_ -40°C to + 100°C

Figure 8 **Spectral response**  
(RS stock nos. 633-335, 633-341)



Electro-optical characteristics (TA = 25°C) - Schmitt receiver (RS stock nos. 633-335, 633-341)

Parameter	Conditions	Min.	Typ.	Max.	Units
Input sensitivity	$I_p = 820\text{nm}$		3	5	$\mu\text{W}$
Rise time, $t_r$	$V_{CC} = 5\text{V}, R_L = 390\text{R}$		80	150	ns
Fall time, $t_f$			10	15	ns
Supply current	$V_{CC} = 5\text{V}$		8	12	mA

The table below gives a reference guide to the usage of RS emitters and detectors with both 50/125 $\mu\text{m}$  and 200 $\mu\text{m}$  PCS terminated optical leads. The transmission distances given are the guaranteed minimum for the various combinations of emitters and detectors shown.

**Note:** The figures quoted below are for uninterrupted lengths of fibre and are measured with a forward current of 50mA in each case and include a 3dB excess margin.

	Fibre: 50/125 $\mu\text{m}$		Fibre: 200 $\mu\text{m}$ PCS	
	Att:-3dB/km at 850nm		Att:-10dB/km (max) at 850nm	
	RS Emitters $\lambda = 850\text{nm}$		RS Emitters $\lambda = 850\text{nm}$	
	RS stock nos.		RS stock nos.	
	633-290 Bulkhead 633-307 PCB	633-313 Bulkhead 633-329 PCB	633-290 Bulkhead 633-307 PCB	633-313 Bulkhead 633-329 PCB
RS detectors	Launch power $3\mu\text{W}$ (min) -25dBm	Launch power $10\mu\text{W}$ (min) -20dBm	Launch power $50\mu\text{W}$ (min) -13dBm	Launch power $160\mu\text{W}$ (min) -8dBm
RS stock nos.				
Schmitt receiver sensitivity $1\mu\text{W}$ (typ) (-32 dBm). Data rate 200kBs				
633-335 Bulkhead SMA	0.75km	2km	1.4km	1.4km
633-341 PCB SMA	0.75km	2km	1.4km	1.4km

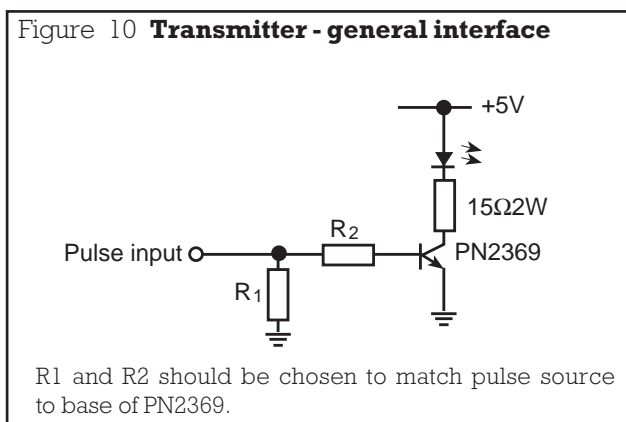
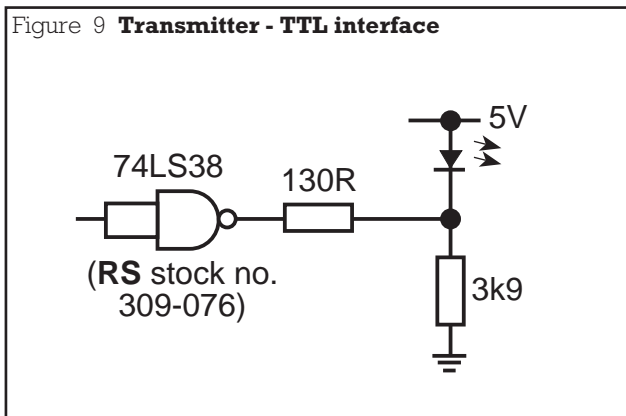
**Note:** Add 2dBm per connector if an in-line termination is used.

Applications

General illumination

The polymer cable can be used in its own right to illuminate inaccessible areas. Using only one filament lamp or light source many independent items can be illuminated, thereby improving reliability and decreasing servicing time in terms of bulb failure. Such applications include illumination in mimic displays, teaching aids eg. maps, plans etc, panel instruments eg. meters, switches, dials etc. Other applications include illumination of microscopes, tool tips, proximity sensing and remote sensing of light sources.

Data transmission




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