Slow and Fast-light in Optical Fibers: an Overview

Ronny Henker  
_Deutsche Telekom Fachhochschule Leipzig_

Thomas Schneider  
_Deutsche Telekom Fachhochschule Leipzig_

Kai-Uwe Lauterbach  
_Deutsche Telekom Fachhochschule Leipzig_

Markus Junker  
_Technological University Dublin_

Max Ammann  
_Technological University Dublin, max.ammann@tudublin.ie_

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Authors
Ronny Henker, Thomas Schneider, Kai-Uwe Lauterbach, Markus Junker, Max Ammann, and Andreas Schwarzbacher
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Ronny Henker\textsuperscript{1,2}, Thomas Schneider\textsuperscript{1}, Kai-Uwe Lauterbach\textsuperscript{1,2}, Markus Junker\textsuperscript{1,2}, Max James Ammann\textsuperscript{2}, and Andreas Thomas Schwarzbacher\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1}Deutsche Telekom AG, Hochschule für Telekommunikation, Leipzig (FH), Germany
\textsuperscript{2}School of Electronic & Communications Engineering, Dublin Institute of Technology, Dublin, Ireland
ronny.henker@hft-leipzig.de

Abstract - Slow- and Fast-Light is the control of the velocity of light in a medium by light. As a fascinating new field in physics there is a fundamental interest on this effect on the one side, but on the other side there exist a lot of practical applications for telecommunication and information systems. Among these are optical signal processing, the radio frequency-photonics, nonlinear optics and spectroscopy in time domain. Furthermore, the Slow- and Fast-Light effect can be seen as a key technology for optical delay lines, buffers, equalizers and synchronizers in packed switched networks. To realize the effect there are different methods and material systems possible. Beside these especially the nonlinear effect of stimulated Brillouin scattering (SBS) is of special interest because it has several advantages. This article gives an overview about the fundamentals and limits of the Slow- and Fast-Light effect in general and based on the SBS in optical fibers. Some experimental results which were achieved so far are shown.

I. INTRODUCTION

Today’s data networks consist of optical fibers for the transport of data signals and network nodes for their switching through the net. The data traffic is nearly doubled in transport networks every year. But, this is not a big problem for optical transmission technologies because every fiber is able to transmit more than 100 channels with data rates of 10 or 40 Gbit/s. Contrary to this the capacity of network nodes is doubled only every 18 months [1].

Inside every node the optical pulses are converted into electrical signals to process and to switch them. After that they are converted back into the optical domain to transmit them to the next node over the fiber. For the processing of the signal in the node it is necessary to store the pulses for a certain time otherwise it would be lead to collisions. Therefore, every signal channel needs an own card for the handling which is shown in Fig. 1.

If the data traffic increases in the networks the number of channels and so the number of handling cards increases as well. Then, one problem is that the physical dimensions of the nodes expand. Hence, the distance between the input and the output of the card increases drastically. Electrical signals with a high frequency cannot pass long distances without suffering significant losses and distortions. But for optical signals this is not a problem. That is why there has been a reinforced development of optical alternatives to electrical network nodes. Then, these optical nodes should take over all functions of the electrical ones including signal buffering.

II. OPTICAL BUFFERS

Most functions of an optical network node have already been shown in Ref. [2], [3]. But the intermediate storage of the signals is not a satisfactorily solved problem up to now. For an ideal processing the packets have to be buffered on the in- and outputs of the network channel cards. This basic requirement is shown in Fig. 2.

In the upper picture there are two packets (\(P_1\) and \(P_2\)) which want to access on one output port at the same time. Without an optical buffer this would lead to a collision and a blockade of the node. Hence, one of the packets (\(P_1\)) is...
delayed by $\Delta T$ like shown in the middle picture. So, the node has enough time to process $P2$ at first and then $P1$ as can be seen in the lower picture.

Such an optical buffer can be defined as follows [4]:

- The data stream is completely optically. No optical-electrical-optical conversion is proceeded.
- The buffer stores the signal for a time $\Delta T$ only with low distortions and attenuations.
- The delay time is variable and externally controllable.

The requirements on the storage capacity and the reaction rate depend on the respective application.

The basic form of an optical buffer is shown in Fig. 3. In the upper picture (Fig. 3a) a packet is sent to a delay line with a fixed length $L$, e.g. an optical fiber. Inside the fiber segment the signal moves with the group velocity:

$$v_g = \frac{c - \omega \frac{\partial n(k, \omega)}{\partial k}}{n(k, \omega) + \omega \frac{\partial n(k, \omega)}{\partial \omega}}$$

where $n$ is the real part of the refractive index of the fiber and $k$ is the wave number of the optical waveguide. Then, the time delay is caused by the fiber length and amounts $T_g = L/v_g$. With $a$ as the number of passes through the delay line the time delay becomes $a \times T_g$. Hence, the storage capacity and the number of bits, respectively, depend on $T_g$. But, if the number of bits is longer there occur interferences between the bits at the beginning and the end of the packet. And, if the packet is coupled into the fiber once it can be read out only after a whole circulation. Next to the fiber length the waveguide dispersion $\partial n/\partial k$ can influence the time delay.

Huge group delays can be achieved for example by optical waveguides which are wound up to a coil [5]. With resonators in ring structures which are built up by “Silicon-on-Insulator” (SOI) -structures it is possible to get extremely small optical buffers with dimensions of only $0.09 \text{ mm}^2$. This Silicon-chip is able to store 10 bit at data rates up to 5 Gbit/s error-free [6].

The main problem of these methods is that the storage time is fixed and cannot be varied. But, in data networks the arrival time is stochastic and not quantized. The attenuation of the signal in long passive delay lines is another problem.

Due to these disadvantages the so-called “Slow-Light” concept which could provide a way out of these problems has been discussed and developed for the last few years.

III. SLOW- AND FAST-LIGHT

Due to the Slow- and Fast-Light effect the time delay does not depend on the length of a fiber but on the value of the group index $n_g$ like shown in Fig. 3b. If the wave guide dispersion can be neglected (1) changes to:

$$v_g = \frac{c}{n(\omega) + \omega \frac{\partial n(\omega)}{\partial \omega}} = \frac{c}{n_g}$$

If $n_g$ is arbitrarily alterable then any time delay can be adjusted. Equation (2) shows that a change of the frequency sensitivity of the group index $\omega \partial n/\partial \omega$ results in a change of the group velocity. A strong material dispersion causes automatically a big change of the group delay. If it is positive the pulse is delayed and if it is negative the pulse is accelerated sometimes even to vacuum superluminal velocity.

Mostly such a dispersion occurs if the frequency of the light is nearby material resonances which results in absorption or amplification processes. The first experiments of the delay of light have been shown in thinned [7] and by the effect of “electromagnetically induced transparency” (EIT) [8] in ultra hot [9] and cold atom-gases [10]. But, the problem of such systems is that they have a narrow bandwidth and that the used wavelengths are not in the range of the applications in telecommunications. Furthermore, it is difficult to integrate cold and hot gases into optical networks.

This is the reason for a development of many other techniques which works at room temperatures and which can be easily integrated into existing communication systems. In this case the natural resonance of the material was not used anymore. Now, the resonances were created artificially in semiconductor-nanostructures [4], quantum-well [11] and quantum-dot [12] systems as well as in waveguides which work like photonic crystals [13]. The time delay nearby a resonance created by amplification was shown in Erbium-doped fiber amplifiers (EDFA) [14] and semiconductor optical amplifiers (SOA) [15]. The problem with such amplifiers is that the time delay is combined with a gain of the signal on the one hand but also an amplified spontaneous emission on the other hand. Finally, all these described methods have the disadvantage that the time delay is very low and the storage capacity does not exceed 1 bit.
IV. BRILLOUIN SCATTERING

In optical fibers also nonlinear effects offer the opportunity to change the group velocity. This has the big advantage that the fibers can be integrated seamlessly in optical networks. For generating Slow-Light one can use e.g. four wave mixing (FWM) together with the fiber dispersion [16] and Raman scattering [17]. But the effect of SBS is of very special interest [18] because there are several advantages:

- The SBS needs just small pump powers for high time delays.
- For SBS off-the-shelf telecommunication equipment can be used.
- The SBS works in all fiber types in their transparency range.

With SBS group velocities between 71000 km/s and vacuum superluminal velocity have been shown [19]. The principle of SBS can be seen in Fig. 4.

A strong pump wave propagates through the waveguide. A part of the optical power is scattered on fluctuations of the density in the opposite direction. This so-called Stokes-wave superimposes with the pump wave and creates a density wave in direction of the pump wave via electrostriction. Hence, more optical power is scattered on this density wave which in turn amplifies the density wave again and so on. So, from a certain power of the pump wave (threshold) the process becomes stimulated.

Thereby the pump and the density waves have a relative speed to each other, and hence the Stokes wave has another frequency and wavelength, respectively, as the pump wave \( f_p \).

This frequency shift is the so-called “Brillouin shift” \( f_B \) which is around 11 GHz in a standard single mode fiber (SSMF) at a pump wavelength of 1550 nm.

If the input power is under the threshold the pump wave creates a gain inside the fiber on which a contra propagating signal can be amplified. Therefore, the signal and the pump wave have to have a frequency shift equal to the Brillouin shift \( f_r = f_B \). If another wave is contra propagating with a frequency \( f_r + f_B \) it acts like a pump wave and transfers its power to the actual pump wave; it is attenuated. The result is a gain and a loss as can be seen in the upper picture of Fig. 5. These Brillouin gain and loss have a relatively small full width at half maximum (FWHM) bandwidth \( \Delta f_B \) of around 30 MHz and they are accompanied with a change of phase – which corresponds to a dispersion – and hence a change of the refractive index in the fiber, like the middle and lower part of Fig. 5 shows.

![Fig. 4 Principle of the stimulated Brillouin scattering [20].](image_url)

V. SLOW- AND FAST-LIGHT BASED ON SBS

According to (2) the gradient of the refractive index leads to a change of the group velocity. As can be seen in Fig. 5 for a Brillouin gain this gradient is positive and hence the group index increases. The group velocity is reduced and so the pulses are delayed (Slow-Light). For a Brillouin loss spectrum a negative gradient is resulted and the group index becomes smaller which leads to a higher group velocity (Fast-Light).

If a pulse is propagating through the medium the amplitude of the output pulse \( A(\omega, z) \) relating to the input pulse \( A(\omega, 0) \) is:

\[
A(\omega, z) = A(\omega, 0) e^{jk(\omega)z} \tag{3}
\]

with \( z \) as the length of the medium and \( k(\omega) \) as the complex wave number. A medium is not ideal in reality, hence the complex wave number can be developed into a Taylor-series:

\[
k(\omega) = k_0 + k_1(\omega - \omega_0) + \frac{1}{2}k_2(\omega - \omega_0)^2 + \ldots \tag{4}
\]

with \( k_1 = dk/d\omega \) and \( k_2 = dk^2/d\omega^2 \) as the reciprocal group velocity and as the group velocity dispersion [20]. So, the time delay due to the propagation through the fiber is \( \Delta T = z(k_r - 1/c) \). For a SBS gain the complex wave number in the fiber becomes:

\[
k(\omega) = n_0 \frac{\omega}{c} + g_0 \left( \frac{\gamma}{(\omega - \omega_0) + j\gamma} \right) \tag{5}
\]
with \( n_0 \) as the complex refractive index in the fiber, \( \gamma = \pi \Delta f_B \) as the half FWHM-bandwidth of the SBS as angular frequency and

\[
g_0 = \frac{g P L_{\text{eff}}}{A_{\text{eff}}} \tag{6}
\]
as the gain in the line center at \( \omega = \omega_0 \). In (6) \( g \) is the Brillouin gain, \( P \) is the optical input power, \( L_{\text{eff}} \) is the effective fiber length and \( A_{\text{eff}} \) the effective fiber profile [20].

The imaginary part of (5) leads to an amplification of the pulses (Fig. 5, top) and the real part to a phase change (Fig. 5, middle). According to (4) the derivation of the real part leads to a group index change (Fig. 5, bottom). Then, the time delay in the line center of the gain only caused by the SBS is:

\[
\Delta T_{\text{SBS}} = \frac{1}{c} \left( L_{\text{eff}} n_{\text{SBS}} - L n_{g_0} \right) = \frac{g_0}{\gamma} \tag{7}
\]

with \( n_{g_0} \) as group index without SBS and \( n_{\text{SBS}} \) as the group index only caused by the SBS.

Simultaneously the pulse is distorted by higher orders of (4). The factor of the pulse broadening \( B \) is the relation between the output- \( \tau_{\text{out}} \) and input pulse width \( \tau_{\text{in}} \). It can be described by [21]:

\[
B = \frac{\tau_{\text{out}}}{\tau_{\text{in}}} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{16 \ln 2}{\tau_{\text{in}}^2 \gamma^2} g_0} \tag{8}
\]

Thus, every time delay accompanies with a broadening of the pulse. But, with a broader bandwidth of the SBS the pulse broadening declines.

A possible experimental setup for the generation of Slow- and Fast-Light shows Fig. 6. At first only the components drawn with a solid line are needed. The fiber laser on the right hand side creates the carrier wave for the pulses which are generated by a pulse generator combined with a Mach-Zehnder modulator. Normally, we use pulses with a width of 30 ns and a repetition rate in the MHz-range at wavelengths of 1550 nm. Then, these are coupled into a 50 km long SSMF which is our Slow- and Fast-Light medium. We use such a long fiber in order to minimize the pump powers. All other research groups use shorter fibers but they just need higher pump powers. Another way is to use short highly-nonlinear fibers [22], [23].

From the other side a pump wave (Pump1) from a DFB-laser diode with the frequency \( f_{P1} \) is coupled into the same fiber via an optical circulator. The gain spectrum which is induced by this pump wave can be seen in the inset b of Fig. 6. To control the time delay the power of the pump laser is varied by a tunable optical attenuator. Finally, the delayed pulses are detected by a photodiode on port 3 of the circulator and interpreted via an oscilloscope.

**VI. LIMITS OF THE METHOD**

One problem of the SBS is the narrow FWHM-bandwidth of only 30 MHz which can be used for a delay of pulses with a maximum data rate of 15 Mbit/s. On the one hand the natural Brillouin bandwidth \( \Delta f_B \) is defined by parameters of the used fiber. But on the other hand the resulting bandwidth \( \gamma \) is based on a convolution between the bandwidth of the pump signal \( \Delta f_P \) and \( \Delta f_B \) [20]:

\[
\gamma = \pi (\Delta f_P \otimes \Delta f_B) \tag{9}
\]

Thus, the bandwidth of the SBS can easily be broadened by an external or direct modulation of the pump wave. In [19] for
example the pump laser was modulated directly with a pseudo random bit sequence (PRBS) signal with a data rate of 38 Mbit/s. The result was a pump spectrum of 325 MHz. In [24] the Slow-Light bandwidth was broadened to 1.9 GHz by a direct modulation of the pump wave with a Gaussian noise. The same method was used in [25]. There the SBS bandwidth was enhanced to 12.6 GHz inside a highly-nonlinear fiber with a Brillouin shift of 9.6 GHz.

As can be seen in Fig. 7 it is merely 1bit. With this method the line center height of the gain was shifted but the gradient of the spectrum was kept. If the gradient is changed in addition to the line center shift the maximum time delay can be further enhanced. For this we superimpose the gain spectrum (inset b of Fig. 6) with two loss spectrums (inset a of Fig. 6) which are positioned at the wings of the gain [31]. The resulting spectrum is shown in inset c of Fig. 6. These both loss spectrums are generated by an external modulation of the pump wave (Pump2) with a sinusoidal signal via MZM in double sideband suppressed carrier mode. Finally, we achieved a further enhancement of the maximum time delay up to 120 ns [32].

How much the storage capacity of these procedures is limited theoretically is not really known at this moment. In [33] it is supposed that the maximum time delay $\tau$ for a maximum tolerable pulse broadening to the double is:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta T_{SBS}}{\tau_{in}}\right)_{\text{max}} = \frac{3}{2}\gamma\tau_{in}$$

(10)

By choosing $\gamma$ as high as one wants the storage capacity can be reach any dimension. Another assumption is shown in [34] where the gain $G$ for buffering $N$ bits has to be:

$$G \approx 50N^2$$

(11)

For a storage capacity of more than 5 bits the gain should be higher than 560 dB which is not realistic. Even for our 3 bit delay we would need 260 dB. But, like one can see in Fig. 8 we used a gain of only 16 dB. Hence, in equation (11) there is disregarded the opportunity to decouple the time delay and the gain.
VII. CONCLUSIONS

Next to the fundamental interest on the control of the velocity of propagation of light in media there is an increasing interest to possible practical applications of this method. In this paper an overview about the fundamentals, the limits of Slow- and Fast-Light systems especially based on SBS and achieved experimental results so far was given. Thereby methods for an application in optical fiber networks were of special interest.

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