

1 *Review*

2 **Impact of Nonlinearities on Fiber Optic** 3 **Communications**

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8 **Abstract:** A number of third order nonlinear processes can occur in single-mode fibres and an
9 understanding of such phenomena is almost a prerequisite for actual lightwave-system designers.
10 In this paper we review the main limitations imposed by several nonlinear effects, namely the self-
11 and cross-phase modulation, four-wave mixing, stimulated Raman scattering and stimulated
12 Brillouin scattering, on the performance of optical fiber communication systems.

13 **Keywords:** Optical fibers: optical fiber communications; nonlinear fiber optics

14

15 **1. Introduction**

16 Glass fibres for optical communications are made of fused silica, an amorphous material, to
17 which dopant materials of various kinds can be added to produce changes in refractive index. A
18 number of third order nonlinear processes can occur; these can grow to appreciable magnitudes over
19 the long lengths available in fibres, even though the nonlinear coefficients in the materials are
20 relatively small. The effects are particularly important in single-mode fibres, in which the small mode
21 field dimensions result in substantially high light intensities with relatively modest input powers.

22 Fiber nonlinearities fall into two general categories [1]. The first category of nonlinearities arises
23 from modulation of the refractive index of silica by intensity changes in the signal (Kerr effect). This
24 gives rise to nonlinearities such as self-phase modulation (SPM), whereby an optical signal alters its
25 own phase; cross-phase modulation (XPM), where one signal affects the phases of all others optical
26 signals and vice-versa; and four-wave mixing (FWM), whereby signals with different frequencies
27 interact to produce mixing sidebands. The second category of nonlinearities corresponds to
28 stimulated scattering processes, such as stimulated Brillouin scattering (SBS) and stimulated Raman
29 scattering (SRS), which are interactions between optical signals and acoustic or molecular vibrations
30 in the fiber.

31 Fiber nonlinearities have different influences on the communication systems. The SPM, for
32 instance, leads to a change in the dispersion behaviour in high-bit-rate transmission systems; the
33 XPM, SRS, and SBS determine a decrease of the signal to noise ratio; the SRS and FWM will increase
34 the crosstalk between different WDM channels [1]. On the other hand, the same nonlinear effects
35 offer a variety of possibilities for ultrafast all-optical switching, amplification and regeneration [1,2].
36 The FWM, SRS, and SBS, for instance, are able to amplify optical signals in spectral ranges that can
37 never be reached by erbium-doped fiber amplifiers. The FWM offers the possibility for a pure optical
38 wavelength conversion and the realization of nonlinear optical phase conjugation, that can
39 compensate completely the distortions of the optical pulses. Optical solitons offer the possibility of
40 transmitting optical pulses over extremely large distances without distortion [3,4]

41 In this paper we review the main limitations to the performance of optical fiber communication
42 systems arising from fiber nonlinearities. In Section 2 we review the limitations imposed by SPM,
43 XPM, and FWM effects, whereas in Section 3 we consider those limitations due to SRS and SBS effects.
44 Section 4 summarizes the main conclusions.

45

46 2. Kerr Effect

47 Nonlinear effects are attributed to the dependence of the susceptibility on the electric field,
 48 which becomes important at high field strengths. As a result, the total polarization vector \mathbf{P} can be
 49 written in the frequency domain as a power series expansion in the electric field vector [5]:

$$50 \quad \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) = \epsilon_0 \left[\chi^{(1)} \cdot \mathbf{E} + \chi^{(2)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \chi^{(3)} : \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E} + \dots \right] = \mathbf{P}_L(\mathbf{r}, \omega) + \mathbf{P}_{NL}(\mathbf{r}, \omega) \quad (1)$$

51 where $\chi^{(j)}$ ($j = 1, 2, \dots$) is the j th order susceptibility. To account for the light polarization effects,

52 $\chi^{(j)}$ is a tensor of rank $j+1$. The linear susceptibility $\chi^{(1)}$ determines the linear part of the
 53 polarization \mathbf{P}_L . On the other hand, terms of second and higher order in Eq. (1) determine the
 54 nonlinear polarization \mathbf{P}_{NL} . Since SiO_2 is a symmetric molecule, the second-order susceptibility
 55 $\chi^{(2)}$ vanishes for silica glasses. As a consequence, virtually all nonlinear effects in optical fibers are

56 determined by the third order susceptibility $\chi^{(3)}$. In time domain, the form of the expansion is
 57 identical to Eq. (1) if the nonlinear response is assumed to be instantaneous.

58
 59 The presence of $\chi^{(3)}$ implies that the refractive index depends on the field intensity, I , in the
 60 form

$$62 \quad n = \sqrt{1 + \chi^{(1)} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{\chi^{(3)}}{c\epsilon_0 n_0^2} I} \approx n_0 + n_2 I \quad (2)$$

63
 64 where $n_0 = \sqrt{1 + \chi^{(1)}}$ is the linear refractive index and $n_2 = 3\chi^{(3)} / (4c\epsilon_0 n_0^2)$ is the refractive index
 65 nonlinear coefficient, also known as the *Kerr coefficient*.

66
 67 In the case of silica fibers, we have $n_0 \approx 1.46$ and $n_2 \approx 3.2 \times 10^{-20} \text{ m}^2 / \text{W}$. Considering a single-mode
 68 fiber with an effective mode area $A_{\text{eff}} = 50 \mu\text{m}^2$ carrying a power $P = 100 \text{ mW}$, the nonlinear part of
 69 the refractive index is $n_2 I = n_2 (P / A_{\text{eff}}) \approx 6.4 \times 10^{-11}$. In spite of this very small value, the effects of the
 70 nonlinear component of the refractive index become significant due to very long interaction lengths
 71 provided by the optical fibers.

72
 73 The Kerr nonlinearity gives rise to different effects, depending on the shape of the field injected
 74 into the fiber. In the following, the main effects due to Kerr nonlinearity and the limitations imposed
 75 by them on lightwave communication systems will be reviewed.

76

77 2.1. Self-Phase Modulation

78 The change in refractive index due to the Kerr effect determines a corresponding change in the
79 propagation constant. As a consequence, the phase of a signal propagating through the fiber varies
80 with distance according to the equation:

$$81 \quad \phi = n_0 k_0 z + \gamma P(t) z \quad (3)$$

82 where $\gamma = n_2 k_0 / A_{eff}$. The first term in Eq. (3) represents the linear phase shift due to signal
83 propagation; the second term represents the nonlinear phase shift. When the incident wave is a pulse
84 with a power variation given by $P(t)$, the output pulse is chirped. This phenomenon is called *self-*
85 *phase modulation* (SPM), since the power variation within the pulse leads to its own phase modulation.
86 In the leading edge of the pulse, where $dP/dt > 0$, the instantaneous frequency is downshifted from
87 the central frequency, whereas in the trailing edge, where $dP/dt < 0$, the instantaneous frequency is
88 upshifted. The chirping due to nonlinearity leads to increased spectral broadening.

89 The maximum phase shift due to SPM is given by

$$90 \quad \phi_{NL} = \gamma P_0 L_{eff} \quad (4)$$

91 where P_0 is the peak power of the pulse and

$$92 \quad L_{eff} = N \frac{1 - e^{-\alpha L_A}}{\alpha} \quad (5)$$

93 is the effective length of the transmission link, α being the fiber attenuation coefficient, L_A the
94 spacing between consecutive amplifiers, and $N = L/L_A$ the number of sections constituting the
95 transmission link. When $\alpha L \gg 1$ the effective length approaches a limiting value, given by:

$$96 \quad L_{eff}^{max} = \frac{N}{\alpha} \quad (6)$$

97 The phase shift given by Eq. (4) becomes significant ($\sim \pi/2$) when the power times the net
98 effective length of the system reaches 1 W.km or 1 mW.Mm. The first set of units is appropriate for
99 repeaterless systems and the second for long amplified systems. In the first case the effects of SPM
100 are of little concern, since other nonlinear effects, namely stimulated Brillouin scattering, limit
101 themselves power levels to below 10 mW [6,7]. In the second case, however, SPM can be a major
102 limiting factor, since its effects accumulate over the entire link and the maximum phase shift increases
103 linearly with the number of amplifiers, N . Considering $L_{eff} \approx N/\alpha$ and using typical values, we find
104 that the peak power is limited to below 3 mW for links with only 10 amplifiers.

105 The impact of the SPM effects on the transmission system depends on the modulation format of
106 the carrier. For example, in the case of phase binary shift keying (PSK) systems the information lies
107 in the carrier phase, which changes between $+\pi/2$ and $-\pi/2$. Phase noise leads to a reduction of
108 the signal to noise ratio (SNR), which can be significant if semiconductor lasers are directly phase-
109 modulated, due to their strong intensity fluctuations.

110 In the presence of dispersion, the spectral broadening due to SPM determines two situations
111 qualitatively different. In the normal dispersion region (wavelength shorter than the zero dispersion
112 wavelength) the chirping due to dispersion corresponds to a downshift of the leading edge and to an
113 upshift of the trailing edge of the pulse, which is a similar effect as that due to SPM. Thus, in this
114 regime the chirping due to dispersion and SPM act in the same direction and lead to a stronger
115 temporal broadening of the pulse than the dispersion alone, thus determining a more significant
116 reduction of the system capacity.

117 If the pulse, spectrally-broadened by SPM, is transmitted in the anomalous dispersion regime,
118 the red-shifted leading edge travels more slowly, and moves toward the pulse center. Similarly, the
119 trailing edge of the pulse, which has been blue-shifted, travels more quickly, and also moves toward

120 the center of the pulse. Therefore, GVD and SPM act in different directions, resulting in a compression
121 of the pulse.

122 In the range of anomalous dispersion, nonlinearity and dispersion induced chirpings can
123 partially or even completely cancel each other. When this cancellation is total, the pulse neither
124 broadens in time nor in its spectrum and such pulse is called a fundamental soliton.

125 2.2. Cross-Phase Modulation

126 When two or more signals having different carrier frequencies are transmitted simultaneously
127 inside an optical fiber, the nonlinear phase evolution of the signal at frequency ω_i depends also on
128 the power of the other signals. This nonlinear phenomenon is known as *cross-phase modulation* (XPM)
129 and it is due to the intensity dependence of the refractive index in Eq. (5). The nonlinear phase shift
130 of the signal at ω_j becomes:

$$131 \quad \phi_j = \gamma_j L_{eff} \left[P_j + 2 \sum_{m \neq j}^M P_m \right] \quad (7)$$

132 where P_m is the power of the signal at ω_m . The first term in the square brackets represents the
133 contribution of SPM, while the second term is the contribution from the XPM. The factor 2 in Eq. (7)
134 indicates that XPM is twice as effective as SPM for the same amount of power.

135 The effect of XPM is different in amplitude- and in phase-modulated systems. In the last case,
136 since the power in each channel is the same for all bits, the main limitation results from arbitrary
137 phase fluctuations, which lead directly to a deterioration of the signal-to-noise ratio. Such phase
138 fluctuations can be induced via the XPM by intensity variations, as happen if semiconductor lasers
139 are directly phase-modulated.

140 In the case of amplitude-modulated direct detection systems, the XPM has no effect on the
141 system performance if the dispersion is neglected. Actually, since the phase alteration due to XPM is
142 associated with a frequency alteration, the dispersion determines an additional temporal broadening
143 or compression of the spectral broadened pulses, which affects the system performance.

144 The impact of XPM is particularly significant in the case of amplitude-modulated coherent
145 communication system, employing a phase-sensitive detection scheme. In fact, the phase in a given
146 channel depends on the bit pattern of neighboring channels. In the worst case, in which all channels
147 have "1" bits in their time slots, the XPM-induced phase shift is maximum. Assuming a repeaterless
148 system such that the power P in each channel is the same, this phase shift is given by
149

$$150 \quad \phi_{max} = \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} (2M - 1)P \quad (8)$$

151 where it was assumed that $\alpha L \gg 1$. Considering a maximum tolerable phase shift $\phi_{max} = 0.1$, the
152 power in each channel is limited to

$$153 \quad P < \frac{\alpha}{10\gamma(2M - 1)} \quad (9)$$

154 For typical values of α and γ , P should be below 1 mW even for five channels.

155 The impact of XPM would be negligible in frequency- or phase-modulated coherent systems if
156 the channel powers were really constant in time. However, this is not the case in practice, since the
157 intensity noise of the transmitters or the ASE noise added by the optical amplifiers cause fluctuations
158 of the channel powers. XPM converts such fluctuations into phase fluctuations, which degrade the
159 performance of the coherent receiver.

160 The XPM effect determines a mutual influence between two pulses only if they overlap at some
161 extent. However, in the presence of finite dispersion, the two pulses with different wavelengths will
162 move with different velocities and thus will walk off from each other. If the pulses enter the fiber
163

164 separately, walk through each other and again become separated, it is said that they experience a
 165 complete collision. In a lossless fiber, such collision is perfectly symmetric and no residual phase shift
 166 remains, since the pulses would have interacted equally with both the leading and the trailing edge
 167 of the other pulse. However, in case the pulses enter the fiber together the result is a partial collision,
 168 since each pulse will see only the trailing or the leading edge of the other pulse, which will lead to
 169 chirping. Moreover, in the case of a periodically amplified system, power variations also make
 170 complete collisions asymmetric, resulting in a net frequency shift that depends on the wavelength
 171 difference between the interacting pulses. Such frequency shifts lead to timing jitter in multichannel
 172 systems, since their magnitude depends on the bit pattern as well as on channel wavelengths. The
 173 combination of amplitude and timing jitter degrades significantly the system performance [8].

174 2.3. Four-Wave Mixing

175 Four-wave mixing (FWM) is a parametric interaction among waves satisfying a given phase
 176 relationship called *phase matching*. Different phenomena may be originated by FWM process
 177 depending on the relation among interaction frequencies. If three optical fields with carrier
 178 frequencies ω_i ($i=1,2,3$) copropagate inside the fiber simultaneously, it appears that the third-order
 179 polarization vector has several components: three components have the frequencies of the input
 180 fields, the others have an angular frequency ω_4 given by

$$181 \quad \omega_4 = \omega_1 \pm \omega_2 \pm \omega_3 \quad (10)$$

182
 183
 184 If no field is present in the fiber at the frequency ω_4 , a new field component is created at this
 185 frequency. If a field at the frequency ω_4 is already present in the fiber, it will be affected by the
 186 nonlinear interaction between the fields at ω_i , which causes crosstalk in multichannel
 187 communication systems.

188 The phase-mismatch among all four waves is given by

$$189 \quad \Delta\beta = \beta(\omega_1) + \beta(\omega_2) - \beta(\omega_3) - \beta(\omega_4) \quad (11)$$

190 where $\beta(\omega)$ is the propagation constant for an optical field with frequency ω . Assuming
 191 that the frequencies are closely and equally spaced (i.e., $\omega_1 = \omega_2 - \Delta\omega$, $\omega_3 = \omega_2 - 2\Delta\omega$, $\omega_4 = \omega_2 + \Delta\omega$
 192) and making a Taylor series expansion of all β s about the frequency ω_2 , we get

$$193 \quad \Delta\beta = 2\beta_2(\Delta\omega)^2 \quad (12)$$

194 where $\beta_2 = \partial^2\beta/\partial\omega^2$ is the group velocity dispersion (GVD). When $\beta_2 = 0$ we have a perfect
 195 phase matching and thus an efficient FWM. This situation is desirable for applications such as all-
 196 optical signal processing, wavelength conversion, pulse compression, etc. [1,2]. However, in WDM
 197 systems FWM causes a transfer of power from each channel to its neighbors. Such a power transfer
 198 not only results in the power loss for the channel but also induces interchannel crosstalk that degrades
 199 the system performance severely.

200 In the case of WDM systems with equal channel spacing, the degradation due to FWM is
 201 particularly severe, since in this case most new frequencies coincide with the original channel
 202 frequencies. The interference between the original and the new generated waves depends on the bit
 203 pattern and leads to significant fluctuations in the detected signal at the receiver, thus increasing the
 204 BER in the system. Note that in systems with channels equally spaced in wavelength the frequency
 205 spacing will not be uniform. However, the unequal frequency spacing in this case is not sufficient to
 206 prevent interference. The difference in frequency spacing, and hence the offset of mixing product
 207 from the channel must be at least twice the bit rate to avoid interference [9]. To prevent the
 208 coincidence of the mixing products with any channel, the difference between any two channel
 209 frequencies must be unique [9]. Such objective can be achieved with a computer search.

210 In the case of WDM systems with unequal channel spacing, crosstalk due to FWM is suppressed,
 211 since the new frequencies fall in between the existing channel frequencies and only add to overall
 212 noise. The use of unequal channel spacings to reduce the FWM-induced degradation was shown to
 213 be effective in a 1999 experiment, in which 22 channels, each operating at 10 Gb/s, were transmitted
 214 over 320 km of dispersion-shifted fiber with 80-km amplifier spacing [10].

215 Even for a non-zero value of dispersion, the FWM process can be resonantly enhanced for certain
 216 values of channel spacing due to the contribution of SPM and XPM [11]. In fact, both these effects can
 217 produce phase matching when the GVD is in the anomalous regime [1]. The resonance enhancement
 218 of FWM occurs if the frequency of the gain peak of modulation instability nearly coincides with the
 219 channel spacing in a WDM system. Such channel spacing is approximately given by [1]:
 220

$$221 \quad \Delta f_{ch} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{2\gamma P_{ch}}{|\beta_2|} \right)^{1/2} \quad (13)$$

222

223 Considering the values $P_{ch} = 5$ mW, $\beta_2 = -0.1$ ps²/km, and $\gamma = 2$ W⁻¹/km, we obtain a
 224 channel spacing $\Delta f_{ch} \approx 70$ GHz, which is within the range usually considered in modern WDM
 225 systems.

226 In spite of the advantages of using fibers with high local dispersion to reduce the FWM
 227 efficiency, it is also very important to have a small dispersion of the fiber span in the case of high bit
 228 rate communication systems. A solution for the above dilemma is provided by the technique of
 229 dispersion-management. In this case, fibers with normal and anomalous dispersion are combined to
 230 form a periodic dispersion map, such that the local GVD is high but its average value is kept low.
 231 Due to its simplicity of implementation, the dispersion-management technique became quite
 232 common since 1996 to control the FWM-induced limitations in WDM systems [12].

233 3. Stimulated Light Scattering

234 Stimulated scattering processes, such as stimulated Raman scattering (SRS) and stimulated
 235 Brillouin scattering (SBS), correspond to interactions between optical signals and acoustic or
 236 molecular vibrations in the fiber, respectively. Both these processes are inelastic, since they can be
 237 understood as scattering of a photon to a lower energy photon, such that the energy difference
 238 appears in the form of a phonon: an optical phonon in Raman scattering and an acoustic phonon in
 239 Brillouin scattering

240 3.1. Stimulated Raman Scattering

241 Stimulated Raman scattering occurs as a consequence of the coherent interaction between the
 242 optical fields of the incident wave (also called the pump wave) and of the new frequency-shifted
 243 wave (also called the Stokes wave). This interaction originates a driving force that excites the
 244 molecular resonances. In a quantum mechanical description, one has simultaneously the absorption
 245 of a photon from the pump beam at frequency ω_p and the emission of a photon at the Stokes
 246 frequency ω_s . The difference in energy is taken up by a high energy phonon (molecular vibration)
 247 at frequency ω_v .

248 The pump wave intensity (I_p) and the Stokes wave intensity (I_s) satisfy the following
 249 equations [1]:
 250

$$251 \quad \frac{dI_s}{dz} = g_R I_s I_p - \alpha I_s \quad (14)$$

252

$$253 \quad \frac{dI_P}{dz} = -\frac{\omega_P}{\omega_S} g_R I_S I_P - \alpha I_P \quad (15)$$

254

255 where α takes into account the fiber losses and g_R is the Raman gain coefficient. The most
 256 significant feature of the Raman gain in silica fibres is that g_R extends over a large frequency range
 257 (up to 40 THz) with a broad dominant peak near 13 THz. This behaviour is due to the amorphous
 258 nature of silica glass, whose molecular vibrational energy levels merge together to form a band. The
 259 peak value of the Raman gain coefficient for silica fibres is $9.4 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m.W}^{-1}$ for a pumping
 260 wavelength $\lambda_p = 1.0 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and varies as λ_p^{-1} [13].

261 When the input Stokes wave intensity is weak, such that $I_{S0} \ll I_{P0}$, the evolution of the Stokes
 262 wave intensity is given from Eq.s (14) and (15) approximately by:

263

$$264 \quad I_S(z) \approx I_{S0} \exp\left\{ \frac{g_R I_{P0} [1 - \exp(-\alpha z)]}{\alpha} - \alpha z \right\} \quad (16)$$

265

266 In the absence of an input signal I_{S0} , the Stokes wave arises from spontaneous Raman
 267 scattering along the fiber. The threshold for stimulated Raman scattering is defined as the input pump
 268 power at which the output powers for pump and Stokes wave become equal. In long polarization-
 269 maintaining fibers, such that $L_{eff} \approx 22 \text{ km}$, and considering an effective core area of $A_{eff} = 50 \text{ }\mu\text{m}^2$,
 270 the threshold for the stimulated Raman scattering is $P_{P0}^h \approx 600 \text{ mW}$ at $\lambda_p = 1.55 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. However, in
 271 standard single-mode fibers with similar characteristics, the threshold would be $P_{P0}^h \approx 1.2 \text{ W}$.

272 Because SRS has a relatively high threshold, it is not of concern for single-channel systems.
 273 However, in WDM systems SRS can cause crosstalk between channels signals whose wavelength
 274 separation falls within the Raman gain curve. Specifically, the long-wavelength signals are amplified
 275 by the short-wavelength signals, leading to power penalties for the latter signals. The shortest-
 276 wavelength signal is the most depleted, since it acts as a pump for all other channels. The Raman-
 277 induced power transfer between two channels depends on the bit pattern, which leads to power
 278 fluctuations and determines additional receiver noise. The magnitude of these deleterious effects
 279 depends on several parameters, like the number of channels, their frequency spacing, and the power
 280 in each of them.

281 If dispersion is neglected and considering the worst case of "one" bits being simultaneously
 282 transmitted on all N channels of a WDM system, spaced by Δf_{ch} and each of them carrying a power
 283 P_{ch} , it can be shown that the product of total power ($N P_{ch}$) and total bandwidth ($(N-1) \Delta f_{ch}$) must be
 284 smaller than 500 GHz-W to guarantee a penalty for the shortest wavelength channel lower than 1 dB
 285 [14].

286 In WDM systems that contain no optical amplifiers, the SRS leads to a power reduction of the
 287 short wavelength channels and, therefore, a degradation of the SNR. However, in long haul
 288 transmission systems, a number of optical amplifiers is generally used. Besides providing the desired
 289 amplification of the signal, such optical amplifiers add also noise. Since noise is added periodically
 290 over the entire length of a system, it experiences less Raman loss than the signal. For small
 291 degradations, the fractional depletion of the noise is half the fractional depletion of the signal.
 292 Therefore, the SRS reduces the SNR and the capacity in amplified systems.

293 Raman crosstalk can be suppressed by reducing the channel power, but such approach may not
 294 be practical in some circumstances. Another possibility is to use the technique of mid-span spectral

295 inversion [15]. This technique leads to an inversion of the whole WDM spectrum in the middle of the
 296 transmission link. Hence, channels with higher wavelengths would become short-wavelength
 297 channels and vice-versa. As a result, the direction of Raman-induced power transfer will be reversed
 298 in the second half of the fiber span and a balance of the channel powers will be achieved at the end
 299 of the fiber link. Spectral inversion can be realized inside a fiber through phase conjugation provided
 300 by the FWM effect.

301 3.2. Stimulated Brillouin Scattering

302 The process of stimulated Brillouin scattering (SBS) can be described as a classical three-wave
 303 interaction involving the incident (pump) wave of frequency ω_p , the Stokes wave of frequency ω_s
 304 and an acoustic wave of frequency ω_a . The pump creates a pressure wave in the medium owing to
 305 electrostriction, which in turn causes a periodic modulation of the refractive index. Physically, each
 306 pump photon in the SBS process gives up its energy to create simultaneously a Stokes photon and an
 307 acoustic phonon.

308 The three waves involved in the SBS process must conserve both the energy and the momentum.
 309 The energy conservation requires that $\omega_p - \omega_s = 2\pi f_a$, where f_a is the linear frequency of the
 310 acoustic wave, which is about 11.1 GHz in standard fibers. The momentum conservation requires
 311 that the wave vectors of the three waves satisfy $\mathbf{k}_a = \mathbf{k}_p - \mathbf{k}_s$. In a single-mode fiber, optical waves
 312 can propagate only along the direction of the fiber axis. Since the acoustic wave velocity $v_a \approx 5.96$
 313 km/s is by far smaller than the light velocity, $|\mathbf{k}_a| = 2\pi f_a / v_a > |\mathbf{k}_p| \approx |\mathbf{k}_s|$. In this case the momentum
 314 conservation has the important consequence that Brillouin effect occurs only if the Stokes and the
 315 pump waves propagate in opposite directions.

316 In the SBS process, the Stokes mode intensity, I_s , and the pump intensity, I_p , satisfy equations
 317 similar to (14) and (15), in which the Raman gain coefficient, g_R , is replaced by the Brillouin gain
 318 coefficient, g_B . This coefficient is estimated to be about $2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m.W}^{-1}$ for typical fibers, a value
 319 which is two orders of magnitude larger than the Raman gain coefficient at $\lambda_p = 1.55 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

320 SBS can affect the performance of a transmission system by several ways. First, the threshold of
 321 the SBS process determines the maximum power which can be launched into the system. Such
 322 maximum power can be of the order of some few mW. This fact limits the maximum SNR and the
 323 transmission distance which can be reached without amplification. Once the SBS threshold is
 324 surpassed, as a consequence of the power transfer to the Stokes wave, the pump signal is depleted,
 325 which determines again a degradation of the SNR and leads to an increase of the BER. Moreover, the
 326 backward propagating Stokes wave can destabilize and even destroy the signal transmitter if no
 327 optical isolator is appropriately inserted in the system.

328 In actual transmission systems optical amplifiers are periodically inserted to compensate for the
 329 fiber losses. Each amplifier includes generally an optical isolator, which avoids the passage and
 330 successive growth of the backward propagating Stokes wave. In spite of this action, SBS between
 331 consecutive amplifiers still can degrade the system performance if the signal power is above the
 332 threshold.

333 Another main detrimental effect of SBS is related with the interchannel crosstalk in WDM
 334 systems. Such crosstalk occurs only if the fiber link supports the propagation of channels in opposite
 335 direction and if the channel spacing between two counterpropagating channels is approximately equal
 336 to the Brillouin shift ($\sim 11\text{GHz}$). If both these conditions are fulfilled, the channel with the Stokes
 337 frequency is amplified at the expense of the channel with the pump frequency. In fact, impairments

338 resulting from SBS-induced crosstalk can be observed in bidirectional transmission systems at power
339 levels far below the SBS threshold [16]. However, this kind of crosstalk can be easily suppressed with
340 a slight change of the channel spacing.

341 Much attention has been paid to estimating the SBS limitations in practical fiber transmission
342 systems. SBS is very sensitive to signal modulation because the origin of SBS involves a process which
343 is not instantaneous on the time scale of the information rate. The narrow Brillouin linewidth is a
344 consequence of the long lifetimes of the acoustic phonons involved in light scattering. In general, high
345 modulation rates produce broad optical spectra, which will determine a reduction of the Brillouin
346 gain.

347 Concerning the coherent transmission systems, the SBS threshold depends on whether the
348 amplitude, phase, or frequency of the optical carrier is modulated for information coding. Assuming
349 a fixed bit pattern and that the fundamental modulation frequency for ASK and PSK, as well as that
350 the difference between the two frequencies of the FSK is much higher than the bandwidth of the
351 Brillouin gain, it can be shown that the powers of the distinct spectral components of pump and
352 Stokes wave satisfy a pair of coupled equations similar to Eq. (14) and (15) [17]. In these
353 circumstances, the different frequency components of the modulated wave will not influence each
354 other. For WDM systems, SBS will not occur if each frequency in each individual channel remains
355 below threshold. Within the same conditions, it was shown that the threshold for ASK, PSK and FSK
356 systems is 2, 2.5, and 4 times, respectively, that of a CW wave [17].

357 4. Conclusions

358 In this paper we presented a review of several the nonlinear effects occurring in optical fibers,
359 namely the self- and cross-phase modulation, four-wave mixing, stimulated Raman scattering and
360 stimulated Brillouin scattering. The main limitations imposed by these nonlinear effects on the
361 performance of optical fiber communication systems were also discussed. Besides such limitations,
362 the same effects offer also new possibilities and can find useful applications, namely in the areas of
363 all-optical signal processing, amplification and regeneration.

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