

# Distributed Acoustic Sensing for detecting near surface hydroacoustic signals

Alexander S. Douglass<sup>1</sup>, Alexander S Douglass<sup>2</sup>, Shima Abadi<sup>2</sup>, and Bradley P Lipovsky<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Affiliation not available

<sup>2</sup>School of Oceanography, University of Washington

<sup>3</sup>Department of Earth and Space Sciences, University of Washington

March 16, 2023

# Distributed Acoustic Sensing for detecting near surface hydroacoustic signals

Alexander S. Douglass,<sup>1,a</sup> Shima Abadi,<sup>1</sup> and Bradley P. Lipovsky<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *School of Oceanography, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195, USA; [asd21@uw.edu](mailto:asd21@uw.edu), [abadi@uw.edu](mailto:abadi@uw.edu)*

<sup>2</sup> *Department of Earth and Space Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195, USA; [bpl7@uw.edu](mailto:bpl7@uw.edu)*

## Abstract

1 Distributed Acoustic Sensing (DAS) is a technology in which a fiber-optic cable is  
2 turned into an acoustic sensor by measuring backscatter of light caused by changes in  
3 strain from the surrounding acoustic field. In October 2022, 9 days of DAS and co-  
4 located hydrophone data were collected in Puget Sound near Seattle, WA. Passive data  
5 was continuously recorded for the duration and a broadband source was fired from  
6 several locations and depths on the first and last days. This dataset provides direct  
7 comparisons between DAS and hydrophone measurements, and demonstrates the  
8 ability of DAS to measure acoustics signals up to ~500Hz.

9

10 Keywords: Distributed Acoustic Sensing, Submarine Fiber Optic Cable

---

<sup>a</sup> Author to whom correspondence should be addressed.

## 11    **1. Introduction**

12            Acoustic monitoring is an important component of studying the wide variety  
13    of sounds and sound sources in the ocean. Applications of ocean acoustics range from  
14    general oceanography, studying of marine mammals, monitoring of natural and  
15    anthropogenic ocean noise, defense, ocean exploration, and more. Unfortunately,  
16    dense sampling of the acoustic field in large regions of the ocean can be impractical.  
17    Deployment of large hydrophone arrays is challenging - the hydrophones may be  
18    expensive and often require maintenance (which is particularly challenging for deeper  
19    regions of the ocean), and denser sampling is only achieved by deploying more  
20    hydrophones. Thus, alternatives that allow for increased coverage of the ocean at  
21    reduced cost are highly desirable.

22            Distributed fiber optic sensing (DFOS) is a class of techniques in which a  
23    fiber-optic cable, typically used for data transfer, acts as the sensor, capable of  
24    measuring temperature (Distributed Temperature Sensing, DTS), strain (Distributed  
25    Strain Sensing, DSS), or vibrations (Distributed Acoustic Sensing, DAS) (Bao and  
26    Chen 2012). The use of fiber optic cables to measure acoustic waves (DAS) is a recent  
27    development in this class of measurement techniques. DAS utilizes Rayleigh  
28    backscattering of light from nano-scale defects in the fibers to measure acoustic waves  
29    (Hartog, 2017; Masoudi and Newson 2015). An interrogator device attached to one  
30    end of the cable sends repeated laser pulses through the cable and as these waves  
31    interact with the fibers, phase changes in the scattered light over small sections of cable  
32    (the gauge length) allow spatially resolved measurement of strain or strain-rate. These  
33    strain and strain-rate measurements provide information about the average acoustic  
34    field over the chosen gauge length, sampled at regular intervals along the cable. The

gauge length and sampling resolution are both parameters that can be varied depending on the application and limitations of the cable. The ranges over which the cables can be used to sense the acoustic field can be limited by several factors: the distance to the first repeater (if applicable), the attenuation along the fiber resulting in an SNR that is too low, or the sampling rate (such that each light pulse has enough time to travel to the desired point along the cable, and the backscattered light to propagate back to the interrogator, prior to the next pulse). Frequency capabilities are still an active area of exploration, but are known to extend to at least several hundred Hz (Taweessintananon et al. 2021, Lindsey and Martin 2021).

DAS was first explored as a technique for seismic applications and has received significant attention in that community over the last decade. The first demonstration of DAS was in 2009, using the technology as a replacement for borehole geophones, with additional similar field trials in 2010 (Mestayer et al. 2011). These initial field trials demonstrated the ability to do seismic imaging with DAS and produce comparable results to geophone-produced images in terms of signal-to-noise ratio and resolution. Additional demonstrations of DAS technology, capabilities, and applications followed over the next decade and it has become a significant area of research in seismology (Dou et al. 2017, Karrenbach et al 2018, Zhan et al. 2020, Lindsey et al. 2019, Sladen et al. 2019).

Recently, DAS has been explored as a means for measuring acoustic fields at frequencies above those typically relevant for seismic applications ( $>20$  Hz). By extending DAS capabilities to higher frequencies, the technology can be utilized for measurements of acoustics in the water column. To date, only a small number of demonstrations of DAS for water column acoustics have been completed. DAS has

59 shown the ability to produce seismic images comparable to those generated by a typical  
60 towed array method, particularly utilizing the lower spectral content of the seismic  
61 source and when the offset range did not exceed the channel depth (Taweessintananon  
62 et al. 2021, Matsumoto et al. 2021). Ship detection and tracking with signals up to 100  
63 Hz has seen success in both shallow and deep water channels, with deeper water  
64 performing better due to lower SNRs (Rivet et al. 2021). Finally, additional ship  
65 tracking and detection of baleen whale calls below 100 Hz using a cable in the arctic  
66 (Bouffaut et al. 2022, Landrø et al. 2021) and ship noise and fin whale calls ( $<20$  Hz)  
67 utilizing a cable from the Ocean Observatories Initiative (Wilcock et al. 2023) have  
68 been demonstrated.

69       The focus of this manuscript is on an active-source experiment conducted in  
70 the Puget Sound near Seattle, WA. The goal for this data is two-fold - to explore the  
71 capabilities of DAS at frequencies up to 1 kHz, and to provide hydrophone  
72 measurements taken close to the cable for direct comparison of the DAS  
73 measurements. The remainder of this manuscript provides a detailed overview of the  
74 experiment and a brief overview of some of the DAS measurements.

75

## 76 **2. DASCAL22 Experiment**

77       The DAS Calibration 2022 (DASCAL22) experiment took place in the  
78 Saratoga Passage region of the Puget Sound in Washington State from October 19th,  
79 2022 to October 28th, 2022. In this experiment, three hydrophones were deployed  
80 adjacent to a fiber-optic DAS cable is buried in the seabed between Camano Island  
81 and Whidbey Island. The water depth varies from 0 m (at the entry points to the water),  
82 to a maximum of  $\sim 100$  m, with the majority of the cable lying between  $\sim 80$ -90 m

83 depth. The approximate location of the cable and the bathymetry along the cable are  
84 shown in Figs 1a and 1b, respectively. A mooring with three hydrophones was  
85 deployed next to the cable at ~93 m depth. Two hydrophones, a SQ26-H1B and a  
86 CR1A (hydrophones A and B, respectively), were moored roughly 5 m from the sea  
87 floor, and a third hydrophone, another CR1A (hydrophone C), was moored roughly  
88 25 m from the sea floor (all hydrophones provided by Cetacean Research Technology,  
89 Seattle, WA). The mooring location and layout are shown in Figures 1b and 1c,  
90 respectively. The hydrophones all recorded ~9 days of passive acoustic data with 44.1  
91 kHz sampling rates. During the mooring deployment and recovery days, an acoustic  
92 source providing broadband impulsive signals was broadcast from three different  
93 depths (1 m, 5 m, and 10 m) at 5 second intervals from various locations near the  
94 mooring (with the boat's engine turned off during these broadcasts). The results  
95 shown in this paper are from the data recorded on the recovery day (28 October, 2022)  
96 when the current was weak, leading to a smaller variation in position during the  
97 broadcasts.

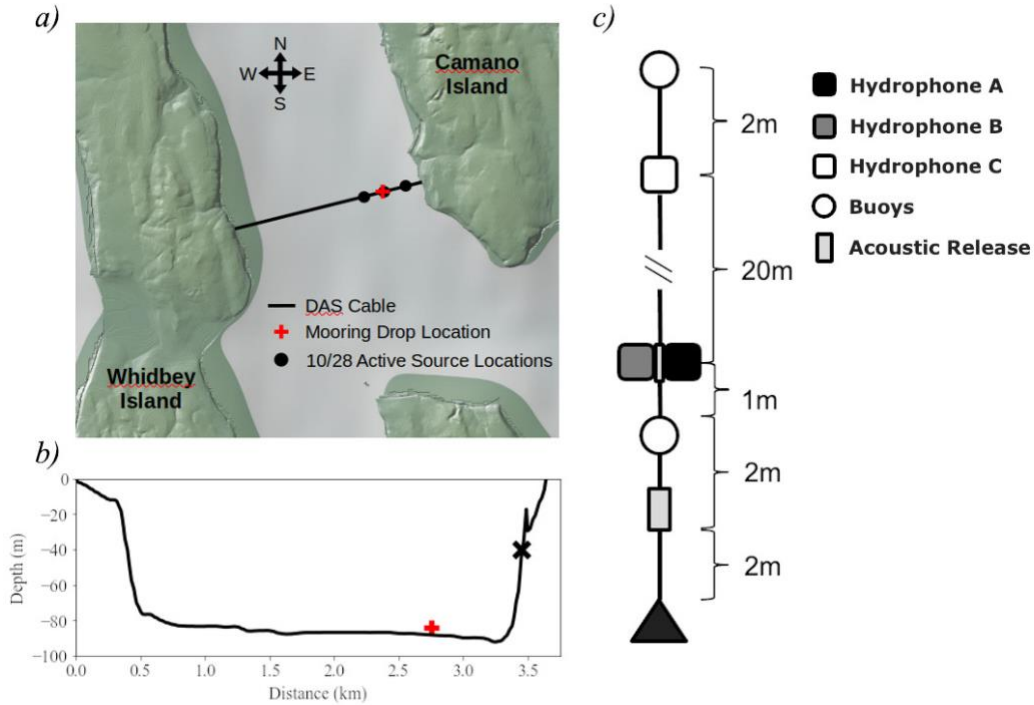
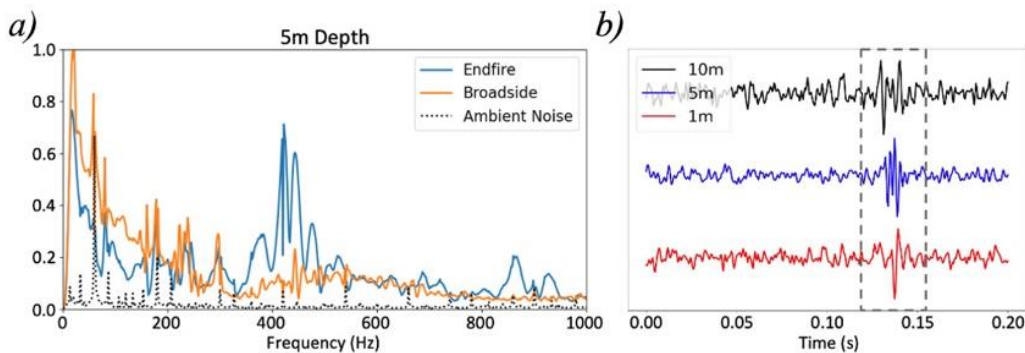


Fig. 1. DASCAL22 experimental setup. (a) The locations of the DAS cable, mooring, and active source testing, (b) the bathymetry along the DAS cable with the mooring location indicated by a red '+' and approximate location of the DAS channels considered in this study indicated by a black 'x'. (c) The mooring layout.

The acoustic source used during the experiment was a bubble pulser designed for geophysical surveys. The source consists of two electromechanical plates that are drawn together by applying a voltage to the plates, reversing direction after impacting, thus producing short-duration impulsive signals. In all broadcasts, the endfire dimension (along the face of the plates) was aligned parallel to the boat. On the equipment deployment day (19 Oct), a small reference hydrophone, an HTI-96-Min (High Tech, Inc., Long Beach, MS), was mounted 1 m from the center of the source to measure the signature from both broadside and endfire orientations at a 2 kHz sampling rate, allowing for characterization of the source signal measured by the

112 moored hydrophones and DAS cable. Figure 2a provides a normalized spectral  
 113 average of 10 shots (per curve) at 5 m depth, at both endfire and broadside  
 114 orientations, as well as an ambient noise curve for reference, taken using windows of  
 115 data just prior to the shot recordings. A 15 Hz high pass filter is applied to all data, as  
 116 well as a 1 Hz bandpass filter at 60, 180, 300, 420, 540, 660, 780, and 900 Hz,  
 117 compensating for amplitude spikes caused by equipment noise at multiples of 60 Hz  
 118 (this compensation is imperfect, and as a result, some sharp amplitude fluctuations are  
 119 still visible at some of these frequencies). These plots show that the source provides a  
 120 broadband signal with significant SNR across most of the frequency spectrum. Most  
 121 notably, a significant amount of acoustic energy exists between  $\sim 350$ -600 Hz in the  
 122 endfire direction, and the broadside direction seems to provide a stronger signal at  
 123 lower ( $<200$  Hz) frequency ranges. Figure 2b shows a time domain measurement of  
 124 three DAS channels (described next) with the source fired from three different depths  
 125 and locations, demonstrating the capability of DAS to detect this source impulse. The  
 126 Lloyd's mirror effect is noticeable in all three signals.



127  
 128 Fig. 2. (a) Spectra of the bubble pulser measured by a hydrophone mounted  
 129 approximately 1 m from the source center at endfire (blue) and broadside (orange)  
 130 while at a 5 m depth. (b) Time domain measurements of the bubble pulser



131 broadcasting from three depths (1, 5, and 10 m) at DAS channels 427, 431, and 433,  
132 respectively.

133 The submerged portion of the DAS cable is just over 3.5 km long, the full  
134 length of which was sampled at a 2 kHz sampling rate. A gauge length of 6.38 m and  
135 spatial resolution of 6.38 m were used. Though the water entry and exit points are  
136 known exactly, the precise positions on the seafloor are not perfectly known and are  
137 simply interpolated between these two points. DAS data was collected by Sintela Onyx  
138 v1.0 interrogator.

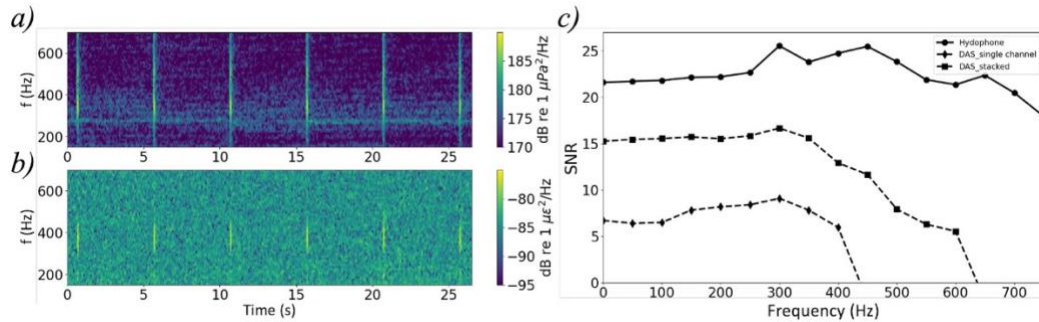
139 Over the 9 days between the equipment deployment and recovery, the three  
140 moored hydrophones and DAS cable generated ~4 TB of data and measured the  
141 acoustic field continuously, during which time there was significant boat traffic and a  
142 variety of weather, including windy and rainy conditions. The focus of this paper is  
143 only on the bubble pulser data recorded on the last day of deployment.

144

### 145 **3. Results & Discussion**

146 This data set provides an opportunity for direct comparison of DAS and  
147 hydrophone measurements, and can be used for calibrating DAS outputs for proper  
148 representation of ocean acoustic data. The goal for this manuscript, beyond the  
149 introduction of this experiment and dataset, is to demonstrate that DAS is capable of  
150 measuring an acoustic field at ranges >100 Hz. Figure 3 demonstrates one example of  
151 such a recording. Six consecutive shots from the active source, broadcast on the  
152 equipment recovery date (10/28), are plotted with data recorded by hydrophone A  
153 (Figure 3a), showing a clear broadband signal with notable SNR. The output of a single

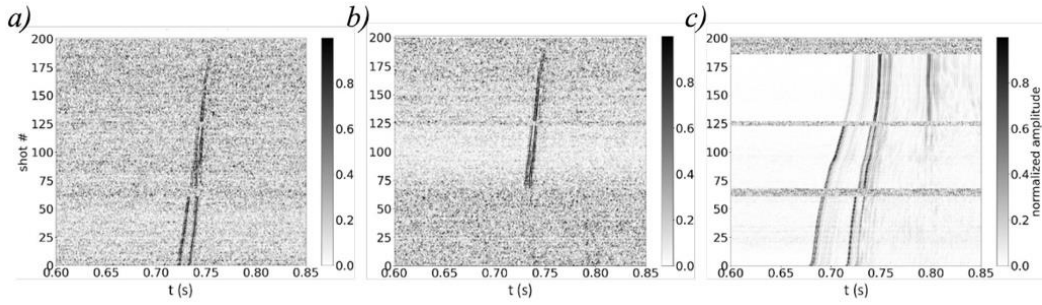
154 DAS channel (channel 431) over the same period of time also clearly shows  
 155 measurements of six pulses, with notably lower SNR, but still clearly visible between  
 156  $\sim 300$ -450 Hz (Figure 3b). The frequency response of a moving average with a period  
 157 equal to the gauge length (6.38m) has frequency notches at  $\sim 235$  Hz (speed of sound  
 158 divided by gauge length) and  $\sim 470$  Hz - notably the energy observed in these DAS  
 159 signals are nicely within the bounds of these two notches. The Signal-to-Noise Ratio  
 160 (SNR) for both hydrophone and DAS data is calculated from a 60 ms shot sample  
 161 recorded at channel 431 and a 60 ms noise sample recorded 600 ms before the  
 162 reception of the shot signal (Figure 3c). The SNR of the two measurements shows  
 163 that the hydrophone measurements are significantly less noisy, but that significant  
 164 improvements to the DAS SNR can be made by stacking 15 shots.



165  
 166 Fig. 3. (a) Six consecutive shots of the bubble pulser at 5 m below the surface  
 167 measured by hydrophone A and (b) channel 431 of the DAS cable. (c) The SNR of  
 168 the pulses as measured by hydrophone A, DAS channel 431, and DAS channel 431  
 169 with 15 shots stacked.

170 Figure 4 provides a waterfall plot of 200 consecutive time windows for two  
 171 DAS channels (channel 427 in a, channel 431 in b) and hydrophone A (c), spanning  
 172  $\sim 20$  minutes, at source depths of 10 m (shots 0-62), 5 m (shots 68-122), and 1 m (shots

128-186), with the source turned off during depth changes (evident in the waterfall plots), and the boat drifting with the current throughout the time window. During this time, the bathymetry at the source location varies from 66 m (starting) to 43 m (ending). The DAS measurements in both panels show a small time delay between two arrivals, corresponding to the direct path and surface reflection (note the delay shrinking when the source depth is decreased), as well as a slightly changing arrival time as the boat drifts further from the cable channels. The hydrophone shows similar characteristics, with time delayed surface reflections and a response slowly moving over time, as well as some multipath propagation. The first path corresponds to the direct path arrival, while the second is likely a path reflecting off of the sloped bathymetry, towards the hydrophone. The third path that arrives towards the top of the plot is likely due to a bathymetry change as the boat drifts, leading to a new, strong arrival. Note that the hydrophone is estimated to be  $\sim 750$  m from the two DAS channels, thus the different impulse responses are expected. The two DAS channels shown here clearly pick up a direct path signal corresponding to the bubble pulser. The source is expected to be very close to these channels, thus a single strong arrival is expected. Additional arrivals, if they exist, may have lower SNRs that are undetectable, or propagate perpendicular to the cable where DAS has less sensitivity (Wilcock et al. 2023). Either of these may be the reason for a lack of signal detection in the first third of Figure 4b.



193

194 Fig. 4. Waterfall plots of  $\sim 200$  shots of the bubble pulser for DAS channels (a) 427  
 195 and (b) 431 at , and for (c) hydrophone A. All plots begin at  $\sim 16:36:00$  UTC.

196 These results demonstrate the ability of DAS to record acoustic signals at  
 197 frequencies  $>100$  Hz, up to nearly 500 Hz without stacking and up to nearly 700 Hz  
 198 with stacking. Some of the limitations of DAS are also highlighted in these results: the  
 199 inability to detect broadside signals and the low SNR achievable relative to  
 200 hydrophones both may impact the measurements shown here. While the  
 201 measurement taken by the hydrophones has clear advantages, the DAS cable provides  
 202 some advantages as well - particularly in the sampling density. While the SNR in a DAS  
 203 channel is significantly lower, the abundance of channels provides the capability to  
 204 coherently combine measurements to increase SNR, on top of the advantages  
 205 discussed previously. This data provides multiple opportunities to explore and  
 206 improve the understanding of DAS capabilities in ocean acoustics, such as improving  
 207 SNR, applying standard array signal processing techniques to the data, extension of  
 208 measurements up to 1 kHz, and consideration of other acoustic sources available in  
 209 these measurements.

210

## 211 4. Conclusions

212 DAS technology is an exciting frontier in ocean acoustics, potentially  
213 providing the ability to continuously monitor large regions of the ocean with dense  
214 arrays. However, the technology is in its infancy and significant work exists to fully  
215 exploit its capabilities. This experimental dataset provides a significant step towards  
216 this goal, with co-located hydrophone and DAS measurements, allowing for direct  
217 comparisons of the two measurements and calibration of signals recorded on DAS  
218 cables. An overview of the DASCAL22 experiment was provided and several  
219 conclusions from initial analysis of the data resulted.

220 First, it has been demonstrated that DAS technology is capable of detecting  
221 acoustic signals up to approximately 700 Hz, and it is likely that the capabilities extend  
222 to higher frequencies. Second, it is shown that the SNR of DAS cables is significantly  
223 lower than that of traditional hydrophone recordings, which was expected, but that  
224 some SNR can be recovered with clever combinations of measurements in the densely  
225 sampled array. In these results, a difference of  $\sim 5$ -15 dB SNR is seen, depending on  
226 whether the channels are stacked or single measurements. However the DAS channels  
227 used for this analysis are not co-located with the hydrophone, so this comparison is  
228 not direct. Third, we see evidence of the impact of arrival angle on DAS channel  
229 recordings, evidenced by the lack of multipath visible in DAS measurements shown  
230 here.

231

232 **Acknowledgments**

233           We thank the crew of the R/V Weelander in the School of Oceanography at  
234 the University of Washington. We also thank Dick Sylwester from the Northwest  
235 Geophysical Services for generously lending us his bubble pulser to use in our study.

## 236   **References**

- 237    Bao, X. and Chen, L. (2012). “Recent Progress in Distributed Fiber Optic Sensors,”  
238       Sensors **12**, 8601-8639.
- 239    Bouffaut, L., Taweessintananon, K., Kriesell, H. J., Rørstadbotnen, R. A., Potter, J. R.,  
240       Landrø, M., Johansen, S. E., Brenne, J. K., Haukanes, A., Schjelderup, O., and  
241       Storvik, F. (2022). “Eavesdropping at the Speed of Light: Distributed Acoustic  
242       Sensing of Baleen Whales in the Arctic,” Front. Mar. Sci. **9**, 901348.
- 243    Daley, T. M., Freifeld, B. M., Ajo-Franklin, J., Dou, S., Pevzner, R., Shulakova, V.,  
244       Kashikar, S., Miller, D. E., Goetz, J., Henningses, J., and Lueth, S. (2013). “Field  
245       testing of fiber-optic distributed acoustic sensing (DAS) for subsurface seismic  
246       monitoring,” The Leading Edge **32**, 699-706.
- 247    Dou, S., Lindsey, N., Wagner, A. M., Daley, T. M., Freifeld, B., Robertson, M.,  
248       Peterson, J., Ulrich, C., Martin, E. R., and Ajo-Franklin, J. B. (2017). “Distributed  
249       Acoustic Sensing for Seismic Monitoring of The Near Surface: A Traffic-Noise  
250       Interferometry Case Study,” Sci. Rep. **7**, 11620.
- 251    Hartog, A. H. (2017). An introduction to Distributed Optical Fibre Sensors (CRC  
252       Press, Boca Raton, FL), p. 472.
- 253    Karrenbach, M., Cole, S., Ridge, A., Boone, K., Kahn, D., Rich, J., Silver, J., and  
254       Langton, D. (2019). “Fiber-optic distributed acoustic sensing of microseismicity,  
255       strain and temperature during hydraulic fracturing,” Geophysics **84**, D11-D23.

256 Landrø, M., Bouffaut, L., Kriesell, H. J., Potter, J. R., Rørstadbotnen, R. A.,  
 257 Taweesintananon, K., Johansen, S. E., Brenne, J. K., Haukanes, A., Schjelderup,  
 258 O., and Storvik, F. (2022). “Sensing whales, storms, ships and earthquakes using  
 259 an Arctic fibre optic cable,” *Sci. Rep.* 12, 19226.

260 Lindsey, N. J., Dawe, T. C., and Ajo-Franklin, J. B. (2019). “Illuminating seafloor  
 261 faults and ocean dynamics with dark fiber distributed acoustic sensing,” *Science*  
 262 366(6469), 1103–1107.

263 Lindsey, N. J., and Martin, E. R. (2021). “Fiber-optic seismology,” *Annu. Rev. Earth*  
 264 *Planet. Sci.* 49, 309–336.

265 Masoudi, A. and Newson, T. (2016). “Contributed Review: Distributed optical fibre  
 266 dynamic strain sensing,” *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **87**, 011501.

267 Matsumoto, H., Araki, E., Kimura, T., Fujie, G., Shiraishi, K., Tonegawa, T., Obana,  
 268 K., Arai, R., Kaiho, Y., Nakamura, Y., Yokobiki, T., Kodaira, S., Takahashi, N.,  
 269 Ellwood, R., Yartsev, V., and Karrenbach, M. (2021). “Detection of  
 270 hydroacoustic signals on a fiber-optic submarine cable,” *Sci. Rep.* **11**, 2797

271 Mestayer, J., Cox, B., Wills, P., Kiyaschenko, D., Lopez, J., Costello, M., Bourne, S.,  
 272 Ugueto, G., Lupton, R., Solano, G., Hill, D., and Lewis, A (2011). “Field Trials of  
 273 Distributed Acoustic Sensing for Geophysical Monitoring,” *Society of*  
 274 *Exploration Geophysicists*, 4253-4257.

275 Rivet, D., de Cacqueray, B., Sladen, A., Roques, A., and Calbris, G. (2021).  
 276 “Preliminary assessment of ship detection and trajectory evaluation using  
 277 distributed acoustic sensing on an optical fiber telecom cable,” *J. Acoust. Soc.*  
 278 *Am.* **149**, 2615-2627.

279 Sladen, A., Rivet, D., Ampuero, J. P., De Barros, L., Hello, Y., Calbris, G., and  
 280 Lamare, P. (2019). “Distributed sensing of earthquakes and ocean-solid Earth  
 281 interactions on seafloor telecom cables,” *Nat. Commun.* 10(1), 5777.  
 282 Taweesintananon, K., Landrø, M., Brenne, J. K., and Haukanes, A. (2021).  
 283 “Distributed acoustic sensing for near-surface imaging using submarine  
 284 telecommunication cable: A case study in the Trondheimsfjord, Norway,”  
 285 *Geophysics* **86**, B303-B320.  
 286 Wilcock, W. S. D., Abadi, S., and Lipovsky, B. (2023). “Distributed acoustic sensing  
 287 recordings of low-frequency whale calls and ship noise offshore Central  
 288 Oregon,” *JASA Express Lett.* **3** (2).  
 289 Zhan, Z. (2019). “Distributed Acoustic Sensing Turns Fiber-Optic Cables into  
 290 Sensitive Seismic Antennas,” *Seismol. Res. Lett.* **91**, 1-15.