

Simulation Chain for Acoustic Ultra-high Energy Neutrino Detectors

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Abstract

Acoustic neutrino detection is a promising approach for large-scale ultra-high energy neutrino detectors in water. In this article, a Monte Carlo simulation chain for acoustic neutrino detection devices in water is presented. It is designed within the SeaTray/IceTray software framework. Its modular architecture is highly flexible and makes it easy to adapt to different environmental conditions, detector geometries, and hardware. The simulation chain covers the generation of the acoustic pulse produced by a neutrino interaction and the propagation to the sensors within the detector. In this phase of the development, ambient and transient noise models for the Mediterranean Sea and simulations of the data acquisition hardware, similar to the one used in ANTARES/AMADEUS, are implemented. A pre-selection scheme for neutrino-like signals based on matched filtering is employed, as it can be used for on-line filtering. To simulate the whole processing chain for experimental data, signal classification and acoustic source reconstruction algorithms are

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integrated. In this contribution, an overview of the design and capabilities of the simulation chain will be given, and some applications and preliminary studies will be presented.

Keywords:

Acoustic Particle Detection, Neutrino Detection, Simulation

1. Introduction

Acoustic neutrino detection uses the effect that ultra-high energy (UHE) neutrinos can produce a detectable acoustic pulse according to the thermo-acoustic model [1]. This model describes the generation of an acoustic pulse due to the local heating of the medium by a hadronic shower, which is caused by an UHE neutrino interaction. The fast deposition and slow dissipation of the energy by the cascade in the medium leads to a bipolar pulse (BIP) and due to the cylindrical geometry of the shower the wave propagates through the medium in a disk-like shape perpendicular to the main axis of the cascade. Given the expected low flux of neutrinos with energies in excess of 100 PeV, a potential acoustic neutrino telescope must have large dimensions of presumably $\gtrsim 100 \text{ km}^3$. The attenuation length of sound in water is of the order of 1 km for the peak spectral density of around 10 kHz, allowing for a less dense instrumentation. In this article, the efforts taken to develop a complete simulation chain to reproduce the acoustic pulse generation, the detector properties, and the deep-sea acoustic environment are reported.

17 2. Simulation Chain

18 In this section, the design of the simulation chain and the capabilities of
19 the different modules will be presented. The simulation chain consists of the
20 following stages, which build up on each other to create a simulated event:

- 21 • An interaction vertex is located at a random position in a given volume
22 around the detector and the energy and direction of the shower are set
23 randomly.
- 24 • The formation of the shower and the resulting acoustic signal, which is
25 generated by an UHE neutrino interaction, are simulated.
- 26 • The acoustic environment of the deep sea is reproduced including both
27 the ambient and transient noise conditions.
- 28 • The data acquisition (DAQ) hardware is simulated including the system
29 response and inherent noise of the sensors and read-out electronics.
- 30 • A pre-selection scheme is applied.

31 The simulation chain was designed within the SeaTray/IceTray software
32 framework [2, 3]. Its modular architecture is highly flexible and makes it easy
33 to adapt it to different environmental conditions, data acquisition hardware,
34 and detector geometries. The generation of the Monte Carlo (MC) shower
35 is the first step described here. The MC shower is produced from a parame-
36 terization, which is based on work by the ACoRNE collaboration [4, 5]. This
37 parameterization describes the distribution of the deposited energy in the
38 surrounding medium, in this case water. The longitudinal and radial energy
39 density distribution of a 10^{11} GeV shower is shown in Fig. 1. From this energy

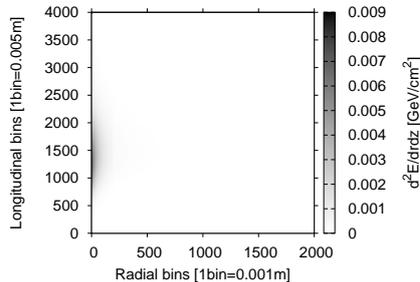


Figure 1: The longitudinal and radial distribution of the deposited energy of the shower in water. The total shower energy is 10^{11} GeV.

40 distribution, a point distribution is produced with a point density propor-
 41 tional to the energy density distribution. The representation of the shower
 42 is shown in Fig. 2; it is about 20 m long and has a diameter of about 10 cm.
 43 After the cascade has been simulated, the acoustic pulse and its propagation
 44 to the sensors within the detector are calculated. The deposited energy of
 45 the shower produces a local heating of the medium. With respect to hydro-
 46 dynamical time scales, the energy deposition at time t_0 is instantaneous and
 47 the dissipation of the energy is slow in comparison. The energy deposition
 48 $\epsilon(\mathbf{r}, t)$ can be factorized into a spatial and temporal part using the Heaviside
 49 function.

$$\epsilon(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r})\Theta(t - t_0) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\epsilon(\mathbf{r}, t) = \tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r})\delta(t - t_0) \quad (1)$$

50 Assuming an total energy deposition E with cylindrical symmetry, the spatial
 51 part $\tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r})$ can be expressed for the longitudinal and radial positions z and r
 52 in the shower as:

$$\tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{E} \frac{1}{2\pi r} \frac{d^2 E}{dr dz} \quad (2)$$

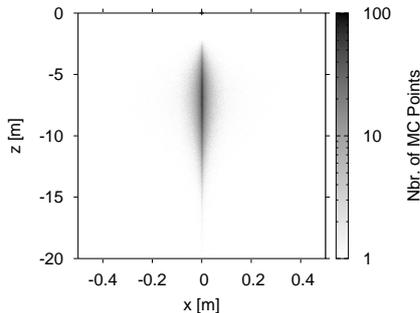


Figure 2: MC point distribution generated proportional to the deposited energy distribution of a 10^{11} GeV hadronic shower as in Fig. 1. Bin sizes are 0.001 m in x and 0.005 m in z , where the points have been projected from a three-dimensional distribution upon the xz -plane.

53 Inserting Eq. 1 and Eq. 2 into the expression for the pressure p , following [6]:

$$p(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\alpha}{4\pi C_p} \int \frac{d^3 r'}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \epsilon(\mathbf{r}', t - \frac{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|}{c_s}), \quad (3)$$

54 where α is the thermal expansion coefficient, C_p is the specific heat capacity
 55 at constant pressure and c_s the speed of sound in the medium. Eq. 3 can be
 56 further reduced to:

$$p(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{E\alpha}{4\pi C_p} \int \frac{d^3 r'}{R} \tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r}') \frac{d}{dt} \delta(t - \frac{R}{c_s}), \quad (4)$$

57 where $R = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|$ is the distance between the shower maximum and the
 58 sensor. A velocity potential can be defined:

$$E_{xyz}(t) = \frac{E\alpha}{4\pi C_p} \int \frac{d^3 r'}{R} \tilde{\epsilon}(\mathbf{r}') \delta(t - \frac{R}{c_s}). \quad (5)$$

59 As described before, the distribution of points within the MC shower is pro-
 60 portional to the energy density distribution of the shower. So the pressure at
 61 a sensor in a distance R from the shower can be numerically calculated. The

62 signal propagation time from each point within the MC shower to a sensor
63 in the detector is calculated and entered into a histogram with a bin-width
64 according to the sampling rate (here $1 \mu s$) and a size big enough to hold the
65 distribution (here 2^{15} bins). After normalising each bin with the number of
66 points in the shower, scaling it with the constant term (see Eq. 5), and divid-
67 ing by the mean distance to the shower, this results in the velocity potential
68 $E_{xyz}(t)$ as shown in Fig. 3. The Fourier Transform of Eq. 4 including Eq. 5
69 can be written as:

$$\hat{p}(\omega) = \int \frac{d}{dt} E_{xyz}(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt = i\omega \hat{E}_{xyz}(\omega), \quad (6)$$

70 taking into account the basic property of the Fourier Transform that the
71 derivative in the time domain is the same as multiplying by $i\omega$ in the fre-
72 quency domain. $\hat{E}_{xyz}(\omega)$ is derived from the histogram $E_{xyz}(t)$ using the Fast
73 Fourier Transform (FFT). The frequency dependent sound attenuation in sea
74 water is multiplied with the pressure signal in the frequency domain. The at-
75 tenuation is based on a model by Ainslie and McColm [7] extended to its
76 complex representation. This procedure leads to the characteristic acoustic
77 signal – a bipolar pulse – at the sensor as shown in Fig. 4.

78 The background for acoustic neutrino detection in the deep sea consists
79 of two different types of noise: transient and ambient noise. Transient noise
80 signals are short, but of high amplitude, and can mimic bipolar pulses from
81 neutrino interactions. In the simulation, four types of transient signals are
82 implemented so far: bipolar and multipolar pulses, sinusoidal signals, and sig-
83 nals with brown noise frequency characteristics. Sources of these four types
84 can be anthropogenic sources like shipping traffic or marine mammals. The
85 ambient noise is mainly caused by agitation of the sea surface [8], i.e. by

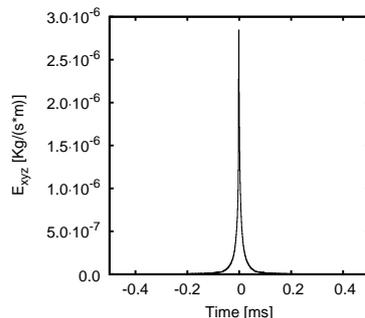


Figure 3: The velocity potential $E_{xyz}(t)$ as a function of the signal propagation time, which is normalized to the mean propagation time. The total energy deposition of the shower is 10^{11} GeV at a distance of 1000 m from the sensor.

86 wind, breaking waves, spray, and cavitations. Thus it is correlated to the
 87 weather conditions, mainly to the wind speed. The model used for the sim-
 88 ulation of the ambient noise is based on the so-called Knudsen spectra [9],
 89 which are adapted to the deep sea by applying attenuation effects. The power
 90 spectrum density (PSD) of the ambient noise is shown in Fig. 5; the scatter
 91 plot presents the PSD of ambient noise for different levels of the wind speed
 92 and shipping traffic. The wind speed distribution included in the simulation
 93 corresponds to measurements at several weather stations near the coast of
 94 Marseilles, France. The mean noise level $\langle\sigma_{noise}\rangle$ is about 25 mPa for the
 95 frequency range from 1-100 kHz and for 95 % of time the the noise level is
 96 smaller than $2\langle\sigma_{noise}\rangle$ [10]. This is reproduced by the simulation as shown in
 97 Fig. 6.

98 The simulation of the DAQ hardware comprises two parts: the simulation
 99 of the sensor and the read-out electronics response. The design of the DAQ
 100 hardware is inspired by the AMADEUS [11] project. This includes acoustic
 101 sensors using the piezo-electric effect (hydrophones) and read-out electronics

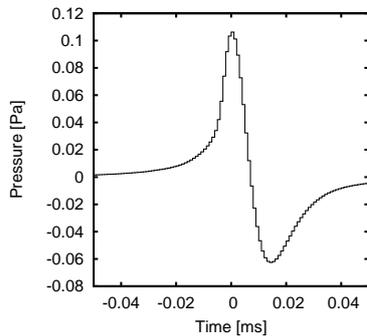


Figure 4: Simulated acoustic pressure signal for a 10^{11} GeV shower as recorded at the position of the sensor. The distances between shower and sensor is 1000 m. The bipolar shape of waveform with an asymmetric tail is recognisable.

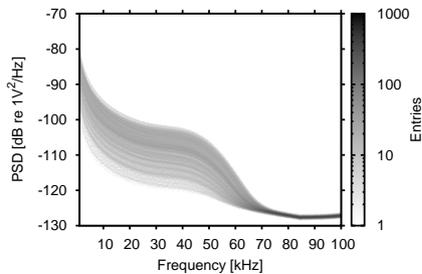


Figure 5: Power spectrum density (PSD) of the ambient noise as produced by the model described in the text. This scatter plot shows the PSD for the different levels of the weather conditions and shipping activities.

102 to amplify and digitise the signal. The inherent noise and the system transfer
 103 function, for both the sensors and the electronics, have been measured in the
 104 laboratory. Sensors normally show a directional dependency of their sensitiv-
 105 ity, therefor signal and ambient noise have to be treated separately. In this
 106 case, the incident direction of the noise is the sea surface above the detector.
 107 Signal and ambient noise are then superimposed. The inherent noise of the
 108 sensor is added. For the read-out electronics, the resulting waveform is con-

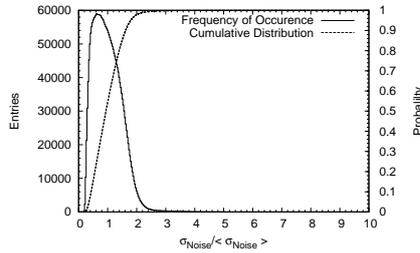


Figure 6: Frequency of occurrence distribution of the ambient noise level as function of the ratio between the noise level σ_{noise} of the sample and the mean noise level $\langle\sigma_{noise}\rangle$. This simulation is based on an ambient noise model as described in the text. The left-side y-axis shows the number of occurrences and the right-side y-axis the probability that a noise level occurs.

109 voluted with the system transfer function and the inherent noise is added.
 110 The output is directed to a simulation of an on-line filter system [12], which,
 111 for real data, is used to reduce the amount of data to store and to pre-select
 112 for further off-line analysis. The filter is based on a matched filter, which uses
 113 a pre-defined bipolar pulse as reference to select signals with bipolar shape.
 114 In addition, a coincidence test between the sensors is performed.

115 3. Applications

116 The simulation chain is used to study signal classification [13] and re-
 117 construction algorithms [14]. For the presented studies, a detector geometry
 118 similar to the configuration of AMADEUS [11] is used, assuming six clusters
 119 of six sensors each at fixed positions and with fixed orientation. The precise
 120 reconstruction of the arrival time of the signal is crucial for the direction
 121 and position reconstruction of the acoustic source. The arrival time is de-
 122 termined by performing up-sampling of the filtered waveform sample and

123 cross-correlation with a pre-defined bipolar pulse. This procedure achieves
 124 a precision of about $1 \mu s$. Due to the narrow opening angle of the acoustic
 125 emission of a neutrino interaction, local clusters of sensors could be preferred
 126 in a detector design. Such clusters, consisting of several sensors arranged
 127 with interspaces of a few meters, have also advantages for the coincidence
 128 test used by the on-line filter and for the reconstruction of acoustic source
 129 position. The direction reconstruction is based on a least square fit of the
 130 measured arrival times at a given sensor cluster:

$$\min(\sum_i (t_{measured_i} - t_{expected_i}(\theta, \phi))^2), \quad (7)$$

131 where $i \in 1..N$ (N sensors of the cluster), t the arrival time and θ and ϕ the
 132 zenith and azimuth angle, respectively. The acoustic sources for this analysis
 133 were generated in cube of $5 \times 5 \times 2.5 \text{ km}^3$ around the detector centre. The
 134 angular resolution reached with this algorithm is centred around zero with a
 135 sigma of about 0.7° for both zenith and azimuth angle as shown in Fig. 7.
 136 This is consistent with the resolution of the reconstruction of the arrival
 137 times. The position reconstruction of the acoustic source is obtained from
 138 triangulation of the previous determined direction of the incoming signal.
 139 If the directions were reconstructed for at least two of the sensor clusters,
 140 the triangulation is performed by minimising the distance between the rays
 141 starting at the sensor clusters and pointing into the reconstructed direction.
 142 The distribution of the distance between the reconstructed position and the
 143 true one peaks at about 5 m, but is also broad with a mean of about 30 m
 144 and a sigma of 25 m (cf. Fig. 8). This is in agreement with the resolution of
 145 the direction reconstruction.

146 As a further application, signal classification will now be presented. The clas-

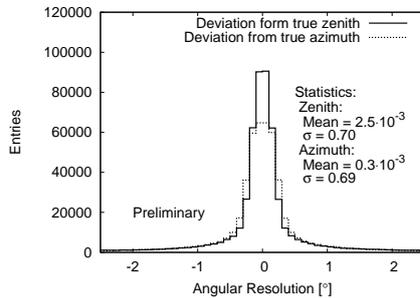


Figure 7: Angular resolution of the direction reconstruction algorithm shown for the zenith and azimuth angle. The mean of the distribution is around zero and the sigma is about 0.7° for both zenith and azimuth angle. The acoustic sources were generated in cube of $5 \times 5 \times 2.5 \text{ km}^3$ around the detector centre.

147 sification system stems from machine learning algorithms trained and tested
148 with data from the simulation. As input, either an extracted feature vector or
149 the filtered waveform is used; as output, binary class labels – bipolar or not
150 – are predicted [13]. The Random Forest and Boosted Trees algorithms [15]
151 have achieved the best results for individual sensors and clusters of sensors.
152 A Random Forest is a collection of decision trees. The classification works as
153 follows: The Random Forest takes the input feature vector, makes a predic-
154 tion with every tree in the forest, and outputs the class label that received
155 the majority of votes. The trees in the forest are trained with different sub-
156 sets of the original training data. Boosted Trees combine the performance of
157 many so-called weak classifiers to produce a powerful classification scheme.
158 A weak classifier is only required to be better than a random decision. Many
159 of them smartly combined, however, result in a strong classifier. Decision
160 trees are used as weak classifiers in this boosting scheme. In contrast to a
161 Random Forest, the decision trees are not necessarily full-grown trees. For

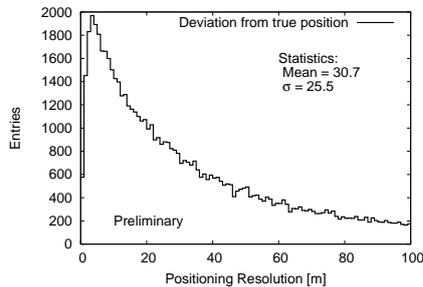


Figure 8: Resolution of the position reconstruction of the acoustic source shown as the distance between the reconstructed position and the true one. The resolution peaks at about 5 m, the distribution is broad with a mean of about 30 m and a sigma of about 25 m for the given range. The acoustic sources for this analysis were generated in cube of $5 \times 5 \times 2.5 \text{ km}^3$ around the detector centre.

162 individual sensors, the classification error is of the order of 10 % for a well
 163 trained model. The combined results of the individual sensors in a cluster
 164 are used as new input for training. This method obtains a classification error
 165 below 2 %.

166 4. Conclusion and Outlook

167 As shown, the simulation chain is capable of reproducing the aspects nec-
 168 essary for acoustic neutrino detection – from the generation of the acoustic
 169 signal to different detector geometries and components. Also the deep-sea
 170 environment with its variable and diverse noise conditions is well replicated.
 171 Not yet integrated into the simulation is the refraction due to the depth de-
 172 pendence of the speed of sound in water. Furthermore, the whole processing
 173 chain for data can be tested as the simulation chain employs reconstruc-
 174 tion and classification algorithms. The algorithms presented are the result of
 175 various studies to find the most suited ones. Detailed studies about the effi-

176 ciency of on-line filters, effective volume and sensitivity of future large-scale
177 detectors are currently pursued.

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