

Review of Water Leak Detection and Localization Methods through Hydrophone Technology

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Abstract

Acoustic technologies are popular for detection of leak detriments in water pipelines. However, problems of false alarms, detection of weak or difficult leaks, accurate leak pinpointing, and the high cost of long-term monitoring remain prevalent. These issues demand a more sophisticated testing approach suitable for real-world application. In particular, hydrophone technology has strong promise for long-range leak detection in high attenuation conditions. However, existing review studies only cover the methods of leak detection holistically with limited insight into the practical implementation of sensing technologies for water leak detection. In particular, the problem of detecting and localizing leaks using hydro-acoustic data has not been yet extensively studied. The current study, therefore, presents a state-of-the-art review of the extant literature on water leak detection and localization taking hydrophones as a good example of hydro-acoustic water leak detection. The study compares hydrophones with other popular sensing technologies like accelerometers and guides on its better application for detecting water leaks. Current research directions, gaps, and future work foci are also identified to enable further development of a hydrophone-based water leak detection system. Review shows that existing experiments are limited to controlled conditions where impacts of surrounding strata, ambient noise, and difficult pipe geometries cannot be studied. Future studies can apply the technology to real-life cases, developing faster analytical methods and hybrid solutions using a multi-sensing approach. This can help water leak experts enormously in cost-effective, efficient detection of leaks.

Keywords: Hydrophones, Water leaks, Detection, Localization, WDN

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32 **1 Introduction**

33 Water leakage is a plaguing issue in the current throes of global water crises. It is the biggest
34 constituent of the 126 billion cubic meters volume per year of non-revenue water (NRW)
35 estimates (Liemberger and Wyatt 2019). Discontinued water supply for an extended time
36 during leak rectifications can cause a further nuisance to users. Additionally, false alarms and
37 wrong assessment of leak location can cause huge repair costs. Thus, early and accurate
38 identification of leaks and timely rectifications can significantly improve water distribution and
39 supply efficiency. In this regard, acoustic techniques have the potential for both short and long-
40 term leak monitoring and control (Hunaidi and Chu 1999; Khulief et al. 2013; Xu et al. 2019).
41 Among these techniques, hydrophones have invoked interest for their capability of capturing
42 the in-pipe acoustic signature of leak signals (Khulief et al. 2012). This is significantly different
43 from out-of-pipe technologies like accelerometers (Marmarokopos et al. 2018).
44 Generally, pipe leaks can generate high-frequency noise if there is unsteady flow separation at
45 the leak location, or low-frequency noise if hydrodynamic cavitation occurs at the leak location
46 (Gao et al. 2004). During cavitation, pressure drop below the vapor pressure can generate shock
47 waves which upon falling on the pipe wall create sound (Khulief et al. 2013; Khulief et al.
48 2012). In this situation, leak orifices act as high-pass sound filters, expelling high-frequency
49 sound energy outside the pipe system and reflecting low-frequency sound signals into the pipe
50 (Brennan et al. 2019). The high-frequency sound wave is attenuated significantly inside the
51 pipe, leaving low-frequency sound signals to be the primary source of data for leak diagnostic
52 studies. As hydrophones are efficient in detecting low-frequency noise signals, they can be the
53 most suitable instrument for leak detection in such conditions (Hamilton and Charalambous
54 2020). Plastic pipes and large diameter having high attenuation of sound waves making
55 hydrophones successful in producing high-resolution correlation in this case as compared to
56 other technologies (Gao et al. 2017; Hunaidi and Chu 1999). Various experimental studies

57 demonstrate hydrophones to produce similar or higher accuracy results as compared to
58 accelerometers, pressure sensors, or ground microphones (Gao et al. 2005). Furthermore, Cody
59 et al. (2020) suggest that acoustic methods deliver high-resolution data for the detection of
60 small leaks. However, coverage of the entire network through hydrophones is argued to be
61 time-consuming, costly, and non-effective as compared to other hardware technologies (Li et
62 al. 2015).

63 This implies a lack of clarity in the effective implementation of hydrophone sensor technology
64 for leak detection and localization/pinpointing. A detailed knowledge base seems to be missing
65 in this regard to provide practical guidance. Generally, the review studies available in this
66 domain of knowledge mostly aim to compare all available techniques for water leak detection.
67 For example, Puust et al. (2010) discussed the leakage assessment methods, the major
68 technologies in-use for leak detection and pinpointing, and the hydraulic transient models for
69 managing leaks. Li et al. (2015) categorized the leak detection methods into hardware and
70 software-based methods. Furthermore, Datta and Sarkar (2016) presented a detailed taxonomy
71 for fault detection methods, distinguishing between blockage and leakage detection methods.
72 Zaman et al. (2020). Similarly, El-Zahab and Zayed (2019) overviewed all popular leak
73 detection methods. These studies only use a broad scope to advance the taxonomical and
74 epistemological construct for water leak detection methods. Generic discussion on all methods,
75 however, does not help practitioners gain a working insight of any hardware-based acoustic
76 methods like hydrophones for practical implementation in the field. In this regard, some of the
77 relevant empirical studies have revealed its merit to be used for real-time monitoring for leak
78 detection (Lechgar et al. 2016; Xu et al. 2019). However, practical implementation requires the
79 identification of constraints for its use for efficient leak detection, accurate localization, and
80 long-term monitoring of real networks. The current study addresses this knowledge gap by a
81 systematic review to explore the analytical methods applicable to hydro-acoustic data.

82 Advancement in the application is explored through the identification of current research
83 directions, gaps in knowledge, and possible future directions for the use of hydrophones for
84 water leak detection.

85 **2 Research Methodology**

86 The study conducts a review on leak detection in water distribution systems using hydrophones
87 based on scientometric techniques and qualitative content analysis. The research themes are
88 first identified by analyzing the citation data of articles. The identified themes of research are
89 then discussed in-depth to highlight the current practices, research gaps and future directions
90 of work. The search design for articles involved both database search from Web of Science
91 (WoS) and backward snowballing. At first, the literary works were first identified through a
92 focused search on the WoS database. The WoS search was designed using relevant keywords:
93 ‘hydrophones’, ‘leak detection’, ‘pinpointing’, ‘localization’, ‘burst detection’, and ‘water
94 leaks’. In total, 39 relevant literary sources were identified using the process highlighted in Fig.
95 1. To find more relevant articles, the method of backward snowballing was utilized (Mourão
96 et al. 2020). For the backward snowballing, cited references from the initially identified 39
97 works were included in the search. Through this hybrid approach, a total of 252 more relevant
98 articles were identified. In total, 291 articles were collected and screened for duplicates and
99 irrelevant articles based on Title-Abstract-Keyword search. After screening, 80 articles were
100 found eligible for further analysis. Full-text analysis of these 80 articles was then conducted to
101 finalize 72 articles for review. The PRISMA flow diagram showing the detailed shortlisting
102 process and exclusion criteria are presented in Fig. 1. The shortlisted studies are first classified
103 based on study type, hydrophone type, and leak detection phases. Furthermore, bibliographic
104 coupling using VOSviewer version 1.6.9 was used to identify prominent research directions
105 and research topics. Bibliographic coupling is a similarity-based network analysis method
106 forming a network of publications based on the number of citations common between them

107 (Patrício and Ferreira 2020). It does this by forming clusters using two measures: the number
108 of citations and the total link strength (TLS). The number of citations shows the individual
109 influence of the publication itself and the TLS indicates the strength of correlation between
110 publications. After categorizing the dominant research themes, detailed content analysis was
111 carried out to identify the topics of interest, after which particular research gaps and future
112 directions in the research were suggested using qualitative full-text analyses of the articles.

113 **3 Research trends**

114 The year-wise analysis of the shortlisted studies is presented in Fig. 2. Results reveal very
115 limited studies on the subject till the year 2000 with more than 50% of articles published in the
116 last five years. A growing interest implies promise for use of hydrophone devices for leak
117 detection. Therefore, the current study presents a timely review examining the scholarly space
118 to identify useful and pragmatic outlooks for its diverse application in different aspects of the
119 water leak detection problem.

120 **4 Classification of scholarly works**

121 **4.1 Types of research studies**

122 The type of studies conducted till now in the domain is presented in Fig. 3. The research in the
123 domain of leak detection is generally guided by empirical evidence. This is supported by the
124 high number of experimental studies on the application of hydrophones for leak detection (63%
125 of total). There are 23% of studies in the data which are marked both theoretical and
126 experimental. Such studies offer a conceptual construct as the basis of their experimental work.
127 For example, Gao and Liu (2017) developed a theoretical model for the relationship between
128 internal pressure and wall displacements and validated the model using lab experiments.
129 Moreover, only scattered efforts are made towards studying the physical concepts and
130 mechanisms of wave propagation inside the pipe. Only 7% of real-life cases and theoretical
131 studies could be found on the topic which implies a big gap in research. For example, Lechgar

132 et al. (2016) explored hydrophone implementation for leak detection in Casablanca. Overall,
133 theoretical studies including a review of previous work on the current research area are also
134 negligible. Findings overall, reveal three-scale experimentation using hydrophones: lab, test-
135 bed, and real pipe network. Most studies for leak detection are based on lab or test-bed
136 experimentation as shown in Fig. 3 (Gao et al. 2009; Hunaidi and Chu 1999). Although
137 effective for understanding fundamental physical principles, controlled conditions are difficult
138 to replicate in the field. This is due to the presence of various uncertainties, attenuation effects,
139 and high background noise in real conditions. Thus, extending the lab experiments to real
140 networks is an important step for demonstrating the feasibility of the technique (Guo et al.
141 2019).

142 **4.2 Leak detection phases**

143 Generally, the leak detection process can be classified into three phases: Detection,
144 localization, and pinpointing (Hamilton and Charalambous 2020). It can be seen that in almost
145 all situations, a leak is suspected in the system if there is a distinct peak in the sound signal. To
146 determine whether or not the suspected leak is real, pre-processing is required to remove the
147 ambient noise effects as there can be a false alarm in the system. This process to confirm the
148 presence of a leak in the system is known as ‘leak detection’ or ‘leak identification’ (Cody et
149 al. 2020). El-Zahab and Zayed (2019) included differentiating leaks from false alarms as an
150 essential step of leak identification. Once the presence of a leak is confirmed, the location of
151 the leak is determined. This process can be termed as ‘localization’, ‘location’, or pinpointing’
152 depending upon the accuracy with which we can determine the distance of the leak from the
153 sensor (Sun et al. 2020). Many authors differentiate between these terms for the particular focus
154 of their research or the purpose of brevity. For example, El-Zahab and Zayed (2019) consider
155 narrowing down the location of the leak to a particular segment of the water network or a
156 specific district metered area (DMA) as “leak localization”; determining the location of the

157 leak with an accuracy of 30cm as “leak location” and determining the leak location with an
158 accuracy of 20cm as “pinpointing”. On the contrary, Zaman et al. (2020) define “leak
159 localization” as pinpointing the location of the leak. In practical terms, these three terms refer
160 to the same process of estimating the location of the leak (Datta and Sarkar 2016; El-Zahab
161 and Zayed 2019; Ma et al. 2019). On basis of the generic three-phase leak categorization, it
162 was observed through content analysis that 57 studies discuss leak detection, 41 discuss
163 location/localization, and only 6 studies focus on pinpointing the exact location of leak through
164 hydrophones. Very few articles focus on two or three leak detection phases, simultaneously.

165 **5 Significant Research Directions**

166 Analyzing the past research developments in any field helps in building the theoretical
167 background for more advanced research. The current study does this using the results of
168 bibliographic coupling. The current study uses the metric to track research developments
169 because of its retrospect perspective of analysis (Ferreira 2018). Fig. 5 shows the developments
170 using the network visualization in the VOS viewer. In total, 4 main clusters of research foci are
171 visible in Fig. 5, formed through bibliographic coupling explained in section 2. As 60 out of
172 the 72 shortlisted studies were connected, the network formed was visualized using 60
173 publications. The resulting clusters have been assigned names following the dominant research
174 direction of the articles in the cluster and discussed in the same order in the sub-sections:
175 **Cluster#1 (Section 5.1): 5.1** Leak detection and localization using hydrophones and
176 comparison with accelerometers; **Cluster#2 (Section 5.2):** Innovation for long-term leak
177 detection and localization; **Cluster#3 (Section 5.3):** Implementation of hydrophones in real
178 networks; and **Cluster#4 (Section 5.4):** Hydrophone measurements and pipe flow dynamics.

179 **5.1 Leak detection and localization using hydrophones and comparison with**
180 **accelerometers**

181 Cluster#1 has 21 articles including the five most cited works in the field presented in Table 1
182 and Table 2. Mainly the studies in Cluster#1 involve the comparison of hydrophones with other
183 sensors for selection of suitable acoustic methods (Gao et al. 2005), modeling the acoustic
184 properties for leak noise and efficient time-delay estimation (Hunaidi and Chu 1999), and
185 improving the signal analysis and signal quality of cross-correlation function (Brennan et al.
186 2019; Gao et al. 2017). Seminal work from Hunaidi and Chu (1999) empirically compared the
187 performance of hydrophones and accelerometers for water leak detection through
188 experimentation. Their results demonstrated the promising use of hydrophones especially for
189 low-frequency leak signal propagation (<50 Hz) in PVC pipes whose material has high signal
190 attenuation properties. In the experimentation of their related work, Hunaidi et al. (2000)
191 further demonstrated that hydrophones can detect small leaks even at 6 L/min (1.6 GPM).

192 These studies have inspired many researchers to design similar experiments and improve the
193 leak detection process and cross-correlation accuracy. For example, Gao et al. (2004)
194 developed a model for cross-correlation of leak signals in plastic pipes exploring the effect of
195 anti-aliasing filters on the removal of noise from low-frequency noise data. By combining the
196 cross-correlation with the concepts of wave propagation in fluid-filled pipes, a cut-off filter
197 range of 10-50Hz was estimated for leak detection through hydrophones. Gao et al. (2004) and
198 Gao et al. (2005) further compared the findings of hydrophone data with accelerometers. It was
199 found that acoustic pressure data from hydrophones is useful for correlation for leak cases with
200 small signal-to-noise (SNR) ratio. Furthermore, Gao et al. (2006) explains the method of cross-
201 correlation for leak localization in-depth and compares the different time delay estimators used
202 for the purpose.

227 towards changes in the distance ratio as compared to others. Specifically, for good correlation,
228 the ratio of distance should satisfy $1/10 \leq \frac{l_1}{l_2} \leq 10$.

229 For the GCC method, pre-filtering is done on the input signals either in time or frequency
230 domains (Gao et al. 2009; Gao et al. 2017; Hunaidi et al. 2000). For the time domain, signals
231 can be filtered before delay calculation and for the frequency domain, window or weighting
232 functions can be applied to the cross-spectral density (CSD) function before the application of
233 inverse Fourier transform. The weighting functions used for the purpose are ROTH impulse
234 response, smoothed coherence transform (SCOT), the WIENER, the phase transform (PHAT),
235 and the maximum likelihood (ML) estimators and help in increasing the resolution of the cross-
236 correlation function. The GCC function, $R_{s_1 s_2}^g(t)$ between two random signals,
237 $s_1(t)$ and $s_2(t)$ is given by Equation 3.

238
$$R_{s_1 s_2}^g(t) = F^{-1}[\varphi_g(\omega) C_{s_1 s_2}(\omega)] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{+\infty}^{-\infty} \varphi_g(\omega) C_{s_1 s_2}(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation (3)}$$

239 Where $F^{-1} []$ denotes the inverse Fourier transform, $C_{s_1 s_2}(\omega)$ the cross-spectral density and
240 $\varphi_g(\omega)$ the frequency weighting function. For $\varphi_g(\omega) = 1$, the GCC=BCC. Further details of
241 the suitability of these methods for different conditions can be seen in Gao et al. (2006) and
242 Gao et al. (2009) which establish the effect of pipe dynamics and reflective properties of the
243 pipe material on the cross-correlation peaks. It was found that the PHAT estimator gives the
244 best results and can be termed as an improved GCC method or the GCC-PHAT method. It pre-
245 whitens the modulus of cross-spectrum and leaves the phase spectrum information only, from
246 which the time delay can then be efficiently calculated. However, the method assumes does
247 not take coherence between two signals into account and assigns equal weights to all
248 frequencies irrespective of signal strength. Instead of improving the GCC function, an alternate
249 method for the time delay estimation is the generalized phase spectrum method (GPS).

250 The GPS method defines the best time-delay estimate as to the one for which the mean square
 251 error between the measured and estimated phase of the cross-spectral density (CSD) is
 252 minimized over a pre-defined frequency bandwidth. Brennan et al. (2007) compared the GPS
 253 method with BCC and GCC-PHAT methods and found the time and frequency domain analysis
 254 equivalent. Both hydrophones and accelerometers were used for demonstrating the GPS
 255 method. Most of the signals detected from the hydrophone ranged from 10 and 120 Hz. The
 256 coherence between signals was generally better than accelerometers. However, the phase
 257 spectrum revealed phase shifts at 60Hz and 80Hz. Such phase shifts can cause inaccurate time
 258 delays and were attributed to hydrophone mounting resonances. Thus, the frequency bandwidth
 259 was limited to 10–50 Hz for the hydrophone. Almeida et al. (2014) presented the time delay
 260 estimation using phase spectrum as per Equation 4.

261
$$t_{peak} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^i [D_{s1s2}(\omega_j)] \theta(\omega_j) \omega_j}{\sum_{j=1}^i [D_{s1s2}(\omega_j)] \omega_j^2} \dots \dots \dots Equation 4$$

262 Among the recent studies, Almeida et al. (2014) used this method to explore the choice of
 263 acoustic sensors by experimentation on leak noise data from a test rig. It was found that in the
 264 case of their experiment, all sensors proved efficient in detecting strong leaks (high SNR).
 265 However, hydrophones were unable to detect weak leaks (low SNR) because of their
 266 invasiveness and presence of high background. This is in contrast to the findings of Gao et al.
 267 (2005) who particularly recommended the use of a hydrophone sensor for low SNR signal
 268 detection as they are least affected by attenuation. This indicates the limitation of the lack of
 269 standardization in experiments. Furthermore, Almeida et al. (2015) highlighted that for
 270 Equation 1, estimation of the speed of wave propagation, c in the pipe needs to be accurate to
 271 find the location of the leak from time-delay estimation. The study proposed an in-situ
 272 measurement of c to control error in leak localization. Furthermore, to control the resonance
 273 effects, extra peaks due to reflections, and achieve a good coherence, the PHAT correlation

274 estimator has been demonstrated (Gao et al. 2017). Additionally, Brennan et al. (2019)
275 examined the effect of instrumentation issues like clipping and quantization through the
276 application of signum function and random telegraph theory. For the hydrophones, it was
277 observed that clipping effects cause severe distortions on amplitude, coherence, and phase
278 angle above frequency >50 Hz. However, the clipping effect has a negligible effect on the
279 normalized cross-correlation and thus, does not affect the time delay estimation. The studies
280 give fundamental knowledge for hydrophone use in the leak detection field. However, they
281 only consider basic modeling and signal processing for the improvement of time-delay
282 estimation and involve manual computations which are laborious and time-consuming.

283 **5.2 Innovation for long-term leak detection and localization**

284 In Cluster#2, there are 22 articles, 17 of which are published in the last 3 years. Most cited
285 articles in cluster 2 are shown in Table 3 and Table 4 top articles with respect to total link
286 strength. This implies that these publications can help identify the current state of research
287 directions in the area. After an in-depth review of articles, it is apparent that the research
288 directions focus on 1) improvements in time delay estimation methods; 2) application of
289 advanced data analytics for automated leak detection and localization; 3) exploring innovative
290 technologies for long-term monitoring and early detection of a leak; 4) factors of complexity
291 in the adopted experimental approach.

292 In cluster#2, some studies have focused on presenting alternative methods for the pre-filtering
293 requirement in the GCC method. Most significant work in the cluster in terms of link strength
294 shown in Table 5, Gao et al. (2018) introduced the differentiation process (DIF) as an improved
295 version of the generalized cross-correlation (GCC). Instead of adopting the pre-whitening
296 methods of the GCC, the DIF method modifies the pipe system characteristics by applying a
297 higher-order frequency weighting function, $\varphi_f(\omega) = \omega^n$ before the cross-correlation. This
298 makes the pipe system act as a high-band pass filter, making available more information than

299 what could be achieved through pre-whitening GCC methods and BCC. This reduces the effect
300 of resonance and ambient noise effect at low frequencies and allows for a more reliable cross-
301 correlation peak. The method works well with hydrophones but has limited application for
302 accelerometer-based noise correlators due to the diminishing effect on SNR. It is previously
303 established that time delay estimation can be done using the phase spectrum (Almeida et al.
304 2014). In related work, Ma et al. (2019) further developed a novel method for time delay
305 estimation (TDE). They developed a new frequency response function (FRF) using only the
306 phase information of the leak signals and proposed an adaptive phase transform (ADPHAT)
307 algorithm based on it for TDE. Time delay can be estimated by taking the inverse Fourier
308 transform of the FRF given by equation 5 as $h(n) =$
309 $F^{-1}\left[\sqrt{H_{12}(\omega)H_{21}(\omega)}\right]$ Equation 5

310 It is worth mentioning that the method is an improved version of the least mean square (LMS)
311 method and can estimate time delay even without information on spectral characteristics of the
312 signals.

313 Currently, novelty detection methods have become appealing for the application of long-term
314 leak detection and localization. These methods identify novel or anomalous events from a
315 normal set of data in any machine learning system using either statistical approaches or neural
316 network approaches (Markou and Singh 2003; Markou and Singh 2003). These methods are
317 data-driven and only require the signal data for leak diagnostics. For fully supervised training,
318 historical data for both leaks and the no-leak condition is required. However, for semi-
319 supervised training, only the normal state data is required to detect anomalies (Cody et al.
320 2018). As the historical data sets for leak data might not be available, semi-supervised
321 approaches seem more attractive to leak detection practitioners (Cody et al. 2020). In this
322 regard, Cody et al. (2018) used single-spectrum analysis (SSA) and a one-class support vector

323 machine (OCSVM) for leak detection. This is a non-parametric approach to effectively
324 decompose signals into components showing promising ability to detect leaks in strong
325 background noise. However, the method does not apply to leak localization. Similarly,
326 Harmouche and Narasimhan (2019) employed association rules (AR) mining, a non-parametric
327 unsupervised learning approach for leak detection. In this study, a mean-shift clustering was
328 used for finding the ARs based on which a leak index matrix is then established. This leak
329 index then serves as a reference model for detecting any new leak in the system with high
330 sensitivity. On the contrary, Cody et al. (2020) uses a linear prediction (LP) method for leak
331 detection and localization. This is a parametric signal processing method assuming a Gaussian
332 mixture model for novelty detection from a baseline. The detected leak is localized using cross-
333 correlation.

334 One commonality between these studies is the use of feature engineering during the pre-
335 processing of hydro-acoustic data. In feature extraction, domain knowledge is applied to extract
336 relevant features from a dataset acting as an input for the algorithm or analysis being used for
337 leak detection (Zheng and Casari 2018). Though effective for lab experiments, the variability
338 of the features over a real WDN is not established. Additionally, repeating this step for each
339 new location can be tedious and complex. Cody et al. (2020) avoided the use of feature
340 engineering through a novel approach applying auto encoders based on deep learning. The
341 technique uses spectrograms of hydro-acoustic data for novelty detection. In the study, a
342 convolution neural network (CNN) is used with a variational autoencoder (VAN) using which
343 the spectrograms are used as training sets for normal data. The approach neither requires prior
344 training of data sets nor any feature extraction for leak detection. This is the only study for
345 hydro-acoustic data applying the neural network-based novel detection. A 97% classification
346 accuracy was achieved during testbed experiments under realistic noisy conditions. A unique

347 feature of the experiment design of the study is the use of only a single hydrophone installed
348 at the base of the hydrant for data collection.

349 Based on a detailed review, it is evident that various factors affect signal propagation of leaks
350 determining the accuracy of cross-correlation. These factors are either internal or external.
351 Internal factors are related to internal flow and pipe system characteristics including flow rate,
352 line pressure, wave propagation speed, pipe size, leak size, pipe material, pipe geometry, pipe
353 condition (old or new), unknown discontinuities in the pipe network, number of leaks in the
354 pipe, and whether the leak is old or new (Butterfield et al. 2018; Butterfield et al. 2018; Gao et
355 al. 2009; Gao et al. 2005; Martini et al. 2017). External factors include the surrounding factors
356 like soil pressure due to backfill in buried pipes, placing of sensors on the pipe, type of sensor,
357 season, time of sounding, traffic and other background noise, the experience of engineers, and
358 the conditions during experimentation (Butterfield et al. 2018; Hunaidi and Chu 1999; Zhao et
359 al. 2020). There are, however, very few studies among existing which have explored such
360 attenuation factors or incorporated these effects in their calculations. In cluster#2 various
361 studies have focused their attention on expanding the complexity of experimentation to include
362 such factors. For example, Khalifa et al. (2012) established some important factors affecting
363 acoustic wave propagation in pipelines like the effect of sensor placing from the leak source,
364 the effect of changes in flow conditions like line pressure, and flow rate.

365 One impending challenge is the scale and scope of leak experiments as very few real network-
366 based studies can be found in the shortlisted publications (Bracken and Cain 2012; Butterfield
367 et al. 2018; Lechgar et al. 2016; Ma et al. 2019). In lab conditions, standardization of
368 experiments to study the impact of any single factor is difficult. In real networks, there can be
369 multiple leaks in the system at the same time, the pipe geometry can involve bends, valves,
370 fittings, discontinuities, varying diameters, and corresponding line pressure depending on pipe
371 functions, and differences in pipe material within the network. In this regard, Butterfield et al.

372 (2018) investigated the effect of different pipe materials on the efficacy of sensors for cross-
373 correlation of leak localization. The experiments were done on a real WDN using artificially
374 created leaks and showed poor cross-correlation results for plastic pipes using vibration.
375 However, the use of hydrophones has been encouraged to get better results.

376 In cluster#2, in addition to such methodical and analytical improvements, technological
377 innovations are also discussed. These innovations are briefly explained in section 3 as a case
378 of technological innovation for overcoming instrument capability issues, Khulief et al. (2012)
379 designed a novel experiment for leak detection using a free-swimming hydrophone. Although
380 the use of a free-swimming sensor allows the long-distance survey of pipe network and greater
381 reach to less approachable pipeline sections, the applicability has some limitations as well. Past
382 experiment scenarios based their findings on a comparison of the *leak* and *no leak states*. So,
383 in this case, data will be needed to be collected in a leak-free pipe section as well, or correlation
384 using a multi-sensor system will be needed. Additionally, uninterrupted access to GPS and
385 continuous recording of sound data are dependent on battery life. Design and access limitations
386 also exist in terms of navigating around sharp bends and narrow pipe diameters.

387 Apart from innovation in the method of deployment of hydrophones, alternatives to
388 piezoelectric materials for fabrication are also being explored for better precision, low cost,
389 and smaller size e-g MEMS-based and Fiber-optic hydrophones. The application of
390 hydrophones for metal pipes and long-term monitoring is also a new endeavor due to its
391 capability of long-range detection. Recently, Guo et al. (2019) demonstrated a long-term
392 monitoring system for leakage in water pipes by deploying four fiber-optic-based hydrophones
393 on the pipe walls of a real network of ductile cast iron pipes. The hydrophones monitor the pipe
394 condition in real-time and trigger an alarm upon any leak. The positioning accuracy of leak
395 localization was 99.829%. The error in estimation increases with the distance of the sensor
396 from the leak. Xu et al. (2019) used microelectromechanical system (MEMS) hydrophones for

397 leak detection and pinpointing. The sensors were installed both inside and outside the pipes to
398 study attenuation effects on correlation. It was found that inside installation had a lower chance
399 of false alarms and the setup can detect both old and new leaks for flow rate as low as 30L/min.
400 Although the feasibility of MEMS and FOH hydrophones is demonstrated for leak detection
401 and pinpointing, the technologies are still in the testing stage.

402 **5.3 Use of hydrophones in real networks**

403 In cluster#3 9 articles are dealing with 1) leak detection and localization of in-service pipes and
404 2) the Implementation of hydrophones in real networks. Among these, Martini et al. (2017)
405 have a total link strength (TLS) of 193 with 21 citations. The study has explored longitudinal
406 leak development in high-density polyethylene (HDPE) service pipes. As the leaks in this pipe
407 are difficult to detect due to the low flow rate, making the service leaks one of the significant
408 components of pipe losses. There are very few studies that deal with this pipe type. The
409 analytical approach adopted in the study is a statistics-based novelty detection method. But the
410 difference between this study and the studies in Cluster#2 is that this study only adopts the
411 basic statistical feature analysis for leak detection. The parameter used for detection is the
412 standard deviation of raw signal for various condition changes. It was observed that
413 hydrophones and accelerometers performed similarly on these pipes, with hydrophones being
414 able to detect leaks farther away than accelerometers. In a similar work, Martini et al. (2017)
415 presented a leak monitoring index (MI) and compared the monitoring index efficiency of both
416 hydrophones and accelerometers for leaks induced in small diameter polyethylene pipes. It was
417 observed that hydrophones showed much better performance than accelerometers for long-
418 distance leaks. However, accelerometers are still commonly much cheaper than hydrophones.
419 In another related work, Martini et al. (2018) further demonstrated the successful use of the
420 autocorrelation method for detecting and pinpointing water leaks in service pipes using vibro-
421 acoustic measurements. Meanwhile, Muntakim et al. (2017) and Lechgar et al. (2016) both

422 performed experiments on hydro-acoustic data on real network cases in Canada and
423 Casablanca, respectively. Muntakim et al. (2017) focused on leak identification using
424 coherence of two acoustic signatures from sensors installed on the fire hydrants as part of a
425 setup called LeakFinder-ST. The leak is further localized using advanced commercial
426 correlation software. Lechgar et al. (2016) on the other hand presented a unique case study for
427 demonstrating artificial intelligence as a potential way for the optimal placing of hydrophones
428 for fast and efficient leak detection in real networks. As otherwise, full coverage of the network
429 using hydrophones is not financially viable as compared to cheaper accelerometers. The
430 method used the greedy algorithm and SLOTS algorithms as inputs for the genetic algorithm
431 for leak detection. Such case studies serve as good examples for future demonstration of
432 developed methods on real networks.

433 **5.4 Hydrophone measurements and pipe flow dynamics**

434 Overall, there are very few studies that have focused on studying the attenuation characteristics
435 of a submerged plastic pipe. Thus, cluster#4 studies are unique in their theoretical contribution
436 to understanding the pipe and water interaction in buried plastic pipes. In this regard,
437 Muggleton and Brennan (2004) developed a theoretical model for wave attenuation for plastic
438 pipes and investigated its validity via laboratory experiments. As leak-generated acoustic
439 energy in buried water pipes propagate at a low frequency, so it is useful to study the pipe flow
440 dynamics at frequencies less than 200 Hz (Muggleton et al. 2002). At lower frequencies than
441 the ring frequency, acoustic energy dissipates in different wave types. Out of these, most of the
442 leak energy is concentrated in the axisymmetric ($n=0$), fluid-borne wave ($s=1$), the behavior of
443 which is studied in relevant studies in the cluster (Pinnington and Briscoe 1994). The
444 axisymmetric, fluid-borne wave is denoted by the wavenumber, $n=0, s=1$ in the literature (Gao
445 and Liu 2017). Using an assembly of three hydrophones suspended along a centerline inside
446 an MDPE pipe, the attenuation effects were experimentally compared with the theory. It was

447 found that for low frequencies, the wave propagation speed and attenuation pattern are almost
448 the same whether the pipe is suspended in air, or submerged in water or soil.

449 However, it should be noted that the soil type has an impact on the attenuation effects. Sandy
450 soil may have air pockets in them creating similarly high attenuation as occurring in-air pipe.

451 These relationships can further judge the attenuation impacts on hydrophone collected leak
452 signals and improve process efficiency. For example, In cluster#4, Gao and Liu (2017) have

453 the highest TLS of 228 with 4 citations. The study has a theoretically developed relationship
454 between internal pressure and wave propagation and demonstrated using two accelerometers

455 and one hydrophone. The relationship between internal pressure and radial displacement in the

456 pipe wall for the s=1 wave is given in equation 6 as: $P_{s1} = \frac{\omega^2 \rho_F}{k_{s1}^r J_0(k_{s1}^r a)} W_{s1}$ Equation 6

457 Where P_{s1} and W_{s1} denote the acoustic pressure and radial pipe displacement, respectively. k_{s1}^r

458 is the radial wavenumber of s=1 wave, J_0 is the Bessel function of order zero and a is the

459 radius of the pipe.

460 For any noise-free case, the ratio between distances of two sensors (l_1/l_2) from the leak should

461 be less than about 10 (or greater than 1/10) for pressure responses and less than 3 or greater

462 than 1/3 for acceleration responses. In this regard, Gao and Liu (2017) practically demonstrated

463 that the pressure signals from the hydrophone can be detected at two locations between 10-

464 93m from the leak source. For accelerometers, the range was 26-77 m from the leak source.

465 This implies that instead of the absolute distances of the sensors from the leak source, the ratio

466 of the two distances is more meaningful while deploying sensors for data collection. Further,

467 Li et al. (2019) developed a theoretical model for the effect of pipe wall thickness and radius

468 on wave attenuation. For a higher radius/thickness ratio, the radial vibration of the pipe wall

469 increases, creating a strong power dissipation to the surrounding medium, causing higher wave

470 attenuation. Further, using the findings on asymmetric wave propagation, Sun et al. (2020)

471 compared new polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) wire sensors as a non-intrusive, in-expensive,

472 and easily deployable alternative to commercially available piezoelectric hydrophones for leak
473 detection and localization.

474 **6 Highlights, research gaps, and future directions**

475 Although the scholarly works have been discussed in-depth in section 4.4, it is pertinent to
476 highlight some notable features of the research to guide practitioners looking to use
477 hydrophones as their sensor choice for leak detection. Such features are presented in this
478 section and shown in Fig.6, identifying the gaps and future direction of the research.

479 **6.1 Method of Analysis**

480 Many models have been identified in literature which can be combined with other analytical
481 methods and signal processing techniques to identify and locate the leak. As shown in Table 5,
482 two main kinds of methods can be found: Time delay estimation (TDE) and Novelty Detection
483 Methods. For TDE, various signal processing models have been developed following the
484 correlation principle and very few studies use the phase spectrum information to locate the
485 leak. Moreover, the adoption of an automated GPS approach called the ADPHAT method is
486 limited. But automated approaches with less computational and pre-processing requirements
487 can increase the feasibility of hydrophones for long-term leak detection and localization.
488 Conversely, novelty detection methods detect anomalies in a normal system through fully
489 supervised or semi-supervised machine learning approaches. But very few studies utilize
490 statistical modeling and machine learning-based algorithms to analyze hydro-acoustic data.
491 Table 5 shows that such models are innovative and require further work for efficient leak
492 detection and precision pinpointing. Future studies can further improve the limitations of the
493 discussed methods as presented in Table 5.

494 **6.2 Application to Real Networks**

495 There are studies available that demonstrate the leak detection methods on real networks (Cody
496 et al. 2020; Martini et al. 2018). However, the authors observe two limitations: 1) Most studies
497 demonstrate their developed methods on a lab or testbed scale and do not discuss the
498 performance of their analysis methods on real networks. 2) The experiments presented for real
499 networks provide limited insight into the implementation issues, and experimental designs they
500 followed for other practitioners to follow. In real water distribution networks (WDNs), the
501 results might not same (Hamilton and Charalambous 2020). In real networks, there can be
502 multiple leaks in the system at the same time, the pipe geometry can involve bends, valves,
503 fittings, discontinuities, varying diameters, and corresponding line pressure depending on pipe
504 functions, and differences in pipe material within the network. In this regard, Butterfield et al.
505 (2018) investigated the effect of different pipe materials of a real WDN on the efficacy of
506 sensors for cross-correlation of leak localization and results showed poor cross-correlation
507 results for plastic pipes using vibration, unlike expectation. Therefore, it is important to apply
508 the developed model to the WDN network.

509 The selection of leak detection techniques for real network testing is not straightforward.
510 Various factors like life cycle cost, efficiency, time duration required for leak detection are
511 involved in this decision-making. Additionally, every technology has associated advantages
512 and limitations. For example, leak noise correlators have high accuracy but have high
513 investment costs (Lai et al. 2016). Hydrophones can locate very difficult leaks but their
514 installation in the field is difficult due to access issues (Khulief et al. 2012). Vibro-acoustic
515 sensors like accelerometers result in very clear correlation results, however, they get affected
516 by obstructions, and background noise (Brennan et al. 2019). Leak noise loggers prove to very
517 effective but report the problem of false alarms (El-Abbasy et al. 2016). Hydrophones generally
518 have a difficult deployment method and are considered invasive if they are directly inserted in

519 water. On the contrary, accelerometers can be connected to the pipelines using duct tape or
520 magnets and are thus considered non-invasive and convenient to use in the field.
521 Accelerometers are not considered very efficient for leak detection in plastic pipes or
522 conditions of low SNR whereas, hydrophones perform well for detecting small leaks, and leaks
523 in plastic pipes.

524 To develop a best practice or optimized approach, hybrid solutions for leak detection may be
525 of interest. Such hybrid approaches can be created in two ways: by mounting multiple sensors
526 on the same device or by combining different sensors in the system during the data collection.
527 Either way, compatible methods of analysis need to be developed. For example, from Equation
528 15, it should be noted that as the pressure and wall displacement are directly proportional,
529 acceleration signals can be obtained by double differentiating the pressure signals from
530 hydrophones (Gao et al. 2018). Thus, there is potential to combine the accelerometers with the
531 hydrophones for leak detection and localization. Similarly, more comparative studies are
532 encouraged to develop best practices framework. Such a framework can serve as a guiding tool
533 for the selection of technology as per conditions. For example, Hamilton and Charalambous
534 (2020) have developed a guide for practitioners for the selection of technology as per the pipe
535 diameter, flow conditions, and pipe material. Based on such a framework, hybrid mechanisms
536 for efficient long-term leak detection monitoring can be enabled in realtime.

537 **6.3 Practical implications for the use of hydrophones**

538 As limited real-time testing has been reported, the situations where hydrophones will be the
539 best choice can not be recommended with certainty. Still, some reasonable deductions
540 regarding their use can be made through literature as follows:

541 *6.3.1 Frequency ranges, hydrophone type, and pipe material*

542 Three hydrophone technologies have been reported in the literature: piezoelectric, fiber-optics,
543 and MEMS. In earlier studies, mostly piezoelectric hydrophones were used which worked well

544 for low-frequency signal ranges within the threshold range of 5-50 Hz. This made them
545 effective for use in high attenuation conditions like that of plastic pipes or large diameter mains
546 (Gao et al. 2005; Hunaidi and Chu 1999). Though this can serve as a good thumb rule, however,
547 Guo et al. (2019) recently demonstrated their potential application for detecting high-frequency
548 water leaks in metal pipes through fabrication technology improvements. They used a new
549 custom fiber-optic hydrophone in their experiment. As fiber optics is a new technology, it is
550 relatively expensive than other commercially available hydrophones. As an alternative, Xu et
551 al. (2019) and Phua et al. (2020) have recommended the use of MEMS-based hydrophone
552 which is low-cost, low-power, and smaller in size. It is easier to deploy than commercial
553 piezoelectric hydrophones and is compatible with IoT technology. This implies that with
554 certain innovations, the testing difficulties for the use of hydrophones in long-term leak
555 detection systems may be overcome.

556 6.3.2 *Detection, localization, or pinpointing*

557 As shown in Fig. 4, most studies related to the use of hydrophones deal with either leak
558 detection or localization, or both. There are very few studies dealing with the use of
559 hydrophones for pinpointing a leak. The studies using a hydrophone for pinpointing use a free-
560 swimming hydrophone. Also, some of the methods presented in Table 5 are limited to
561 application for leak detection only. Further work on such machine learning-based methods for
562 real networks should be demonstrated for the detection of both old and new leaks.

563 6.3.3 *Experimentation Complexity and Variations*

564 One of the main drawbacks of studies conducted on the subject is the lack of standardization
565 of experiments. Many designs for experiments are available offering different flow and line
566 pressure conditions, pipe geometries, and hydrophone types that exist in the literature.
567 However, the consideration for pipe bends and discontinuities is rarely considered. The number
568 of sensors that should be used for specific conditions is also vague. From the literature, it seems

569 that for locating small or difficult leaks, a single swimming hydrophone can be used. For step
570 surveys, the use of a typical two-sensor assembly looks plausible. However, for real scenarios
571 like villages or small towns where two hydrants are not spaced within 100m distance of each
572 other, what strategy should be adopted?

573 Additionally, whether the hydrophone can be fitted onto the hydrant/ valve, or be installed in
574 the pipe with help of a tether will also affect the design. Such scenarios have not been
575 considered while designing the experiments. Moreover, there is no guideline to choose the best
576 design of the experiment for testing the use of hydrophones for leak detection. For this purpose,
577 further review of experiments needs to be carried out to select appropriate conditions for
578 testing. It is observed that none of the studies related their results with the sensor specifications,
579 sensitivity, or directional abilities. To optimize the design, the impact of model selection needs
580 to be considered. Moreover, most of the experiments use simulated leaks in the test-rig for
581 testing the hydrophones. This is beneficial but results may differ for real leaks. A summary of
582 the main findings of sections 4.4 and 5 is presented in Fig. 6.

583 *6.3.4 Comparison of hydrophones with other sensors*

584 As elaborated in section 5.1, hydrophones have been currently compared with accelerometers,
585 geophones, pressure transducers, and PVDF wire sensors (Almeida et al. 2014; Gao et al. 2005;
586 Khalifa et al. 2010; Sun et al. 2020). They have been reported to show either better or similar
587 performance to these sensors. Hydrophones offer a significant advantage in being less prone to
588 ambient noise and high attenuation due to in-pipe measurement producing high-quality data
589 reducing chances of false alarms. Accelerometers and PVDF wire sensors, although non-
590 invasive but can face serious issues in the real environment due to slippage, pipe bulging, and
591 ambient noise. Hydrophones are not prone to such issues and offer high sensitivity to low-
592 frequency data as compared to accelerometers and geophones. Accurate prediction of leak
593 location, however, relies on wave speed. Wave speed estimate changes with temperature

594 variations changing Young's modulus of pipe material making the season during data
595 collection relevant. The data collection for vibro-acoustic sensing devices are affected by
596 ambient noise. This is a frequently identified drawback and overcome by taking data in low
597 usage hours during the night or early morning. The process can be further automated using a
598 data logger and cloud system with the hydrophone for efficient data transfer.

599 **7 Conclusion**

600 The current study conducts an in-depth review of hydrophone applications for water leak
601 detection. Main research directions, gaps in the literature, and future directions of work were
602 identified to aid practical implementation. Presently, the acoustical characteristics, pipe flow
603 dynamics, and attenuation properties for various pipe materials and flow conditions for water
604 leak detection have been studied for hydrophones. Hydrophones perform well for high
605 attenuation conditions and have a long-range of leak detection. Additionally, they collect data
606 directly from water, thus showing less sensitivity to background noise and reduced chances of
607 false alarms. Hydrophones, however, face limitations for sensing high-frequency noise, or
608 detecting leaks in metal pipes and should be combined with other approaches to enhance
609 efficiency. Future work requires the development of hybrid approaches for multiple-sensing
610 technologies. Further, the sophistication of experimental designs, real-world case studies, and
611 new fabrication technologies like MEMS and fiber optics need to be tested for performance
612 improvement.

613 **Data Availability Statement**

614 All data support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
615 reasonable request.

616 **8 Acknowledgment**

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788

789 **Figure Captions**

790 **Fig. 1.** Research Methodology

791 **Fig. 2.** Year-wise Analysis

792 **Fig. 3.** Study types and scale of experiment for leak detection through hydrophones

793 **Fig. 4.** Study Focus w.r.t leak detection phases addressed in the publications

794 **Fig. 5.** Bibliographic Coupling of Shortlisted Publications

795 **Fig. 6.** Summary of main findings

796 **Table 1.** Most significant articles w.r.t. no. of citations and total link strength in Cluster 1

Rank	Most Significant Articles	No. of Citations
1	Hunaidi and Chu (1999)	149
2	Hunaidi et al. (2000)	124
3	Gao et al. (2004)	95
4	Gao et al. (2005)	91
5	Gao et al. (2006)	78

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798 **Table 2.** Most significant articles w.r.t to total link strength in Cluster 1

Rank	Most Significant Articles	Total Link Strength
1	Gao et al. (2018)	220
2	Li et al. (2018)	161
3	Cody et al. (2020)	150
4	Butterfield et al. (2017)	146
4	Butterfield et al. (2018)	107
5	Ma et al. (2019)	107

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800 **Table 3.** Most significant articles w.r.t. no. of citations in Cluster 2

Rank	Publications	Citations
1	Hunaidi and Chu (1999)	149
2	Hunaidi et al. (2000)	124
3	Gao et al. (2004)	95
4	Gao et al. (2005)	91
5	Gao et al. (2006)	78

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803 **Table 4** Most significant articles w.r.t. total link strength in Cluster 2

Rank	Publications	Total Link Strength
1	Almeida et al. (2015)	184
2	Gao et al. (2006)	172
3	Gao et al. (2009)	161
4	Brennan et al. (2019)	157
5	Gao et al. (2017)	149

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809 **Table 5.** Methods for leak detection and localization/pinpointing application for hydrophones

Type	Method	Advantages	Limitations	References
Time Delay Estimation	Basic Cross-Correlation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Computationally simplistic approach ii. Less sensitivity for system resonance giving more robust results for time delay 	Fundamental approach and pipe conditions like discontinuities and background noise can lead to errors. Thus, quiet conditions are required.	(Almeida et al. 2018; Gao et al. 2009)
	Generalized Cross-Correlation (GCC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Applicable to multiple leak detection technologies. ii. Pre-filtering enhances the signal resolution, suppresses background noise, and sharpens the correlation function to make accurate detection of a leak. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Manual pre-processing is tedious. ii. Continuous data from two sources is required for long-term monitoring which proves expensive. ii. Variables and conditions need to be known a priori. 	(Gao et al. 2017)
	GCC-PHAT Methods	The differentiation method can control resonance effects at low frequency for a more reliable TDE in real networks	May reduce the SNR limiting application to leak detection through hydrophones	(Gao et al. 2018)
	Generalized Phase Spectrum Methods (GPS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) No resolution problems like in GCC ii) Only phase spectrum information is required iii) Independent of sensor used for detection iv) No pre-filtering or pre-whitening efforts required in comparison to GCC v) The adaptive PHAT method based uses the least means square (LMS) algorithm also effective for low SNR. 	Only considers the phase information of signals so can ignore the dispersion during leak noise propagation in a pipe	(Brennan et al. 2007; Ma et al. 2019)
	Basic Statistical Feature Analysis	Automated leak detection enabled for small diameter HDPE service pipes. In-pipe measurements can also be made for pinpointing using a swimming hydrophone.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Reliance on basis statistical features increases sensitivity for baseline conditions. ii. Applicability of identified features may not apply to real conditions. iii. Large scale application difficult due to tedious feature analysis for each location 	(Khulief et al. 2012; Martini et al. 2017)
Novelty Detection Methods	Parametric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Potential for autonomous long term leak detection and localization ii. Applicable for complex pipe geometries iii. Can even detect small leaks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Multiple leaks and pipe backfill conditions cause significant deviations during real application ii. Depends on the minimum threshold selection iii. Historical data is required for training sets 	(Cody et al. 2020)
	Non-Parametric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Completely data-driven ii. Computationally efficient iii. Early leak detection for small and difficult leaks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Limited to leak identification only ii. Can only detect new leaks 	(Cody et al. 2020)

Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Research Methodology

Fig. 2. Year-wise Analysis

Fig. 3. Study types and scale of experiment for leak detection through hydrophones

Fig. 4. Study Focus w.r.t leak detection phases addressed in the publications

Fig. 5. Bibliographic Coupling of Shortlisted Publications

Fig. 6. Summary of main findings

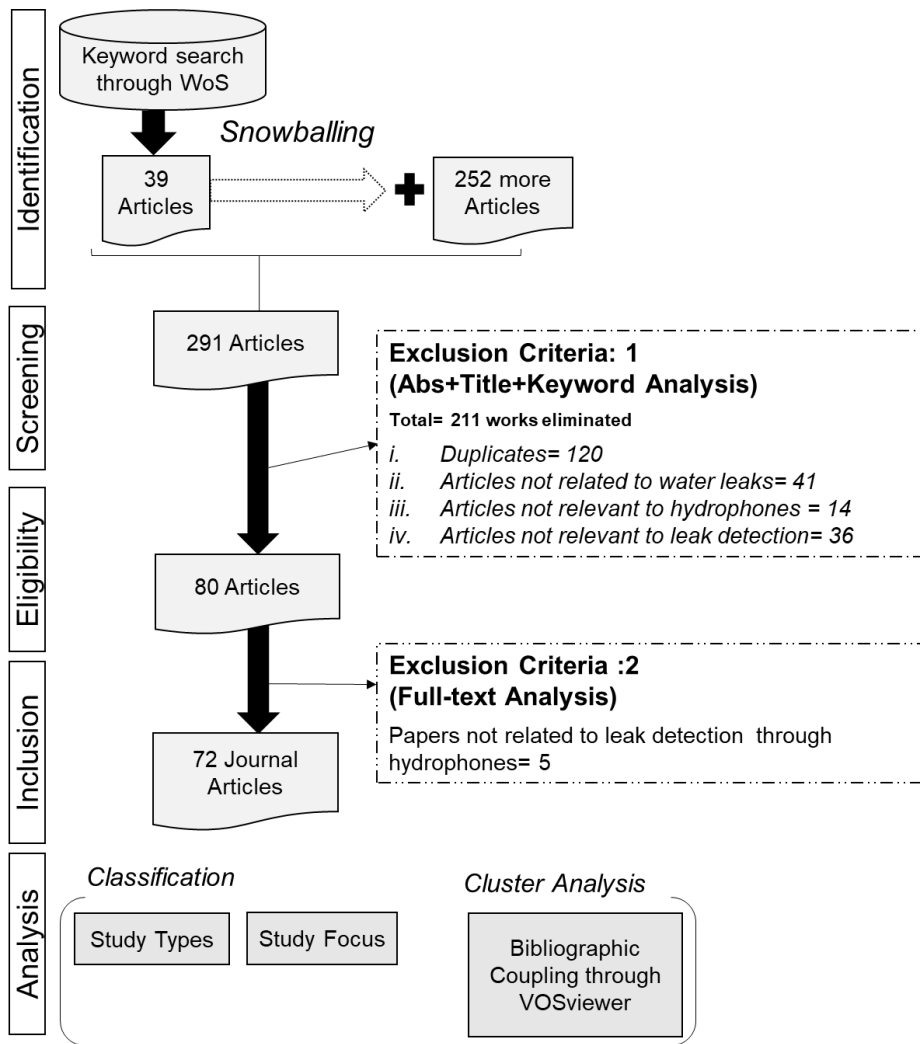


Fig. 1. Research Methodology

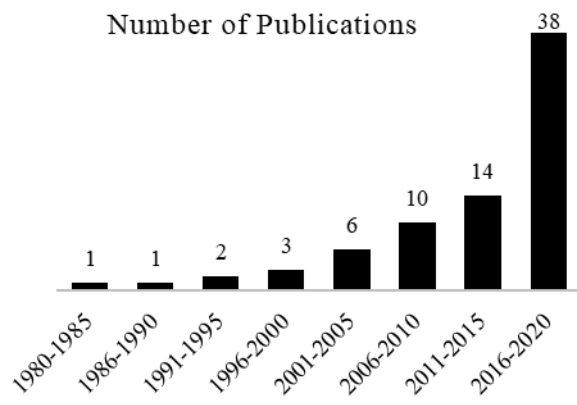


Fig. 2. Year-wise Analysis

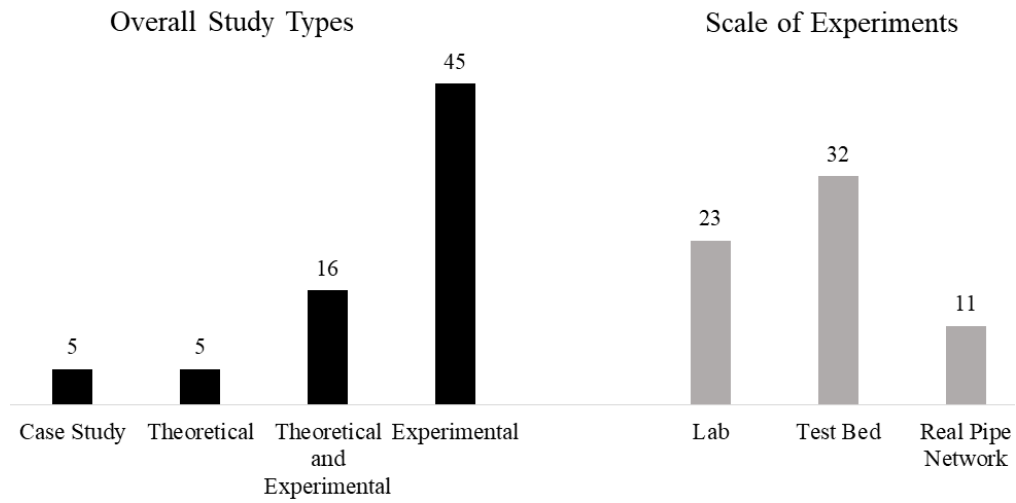


Fig. 3 Study types and scale of experiment for leak detection through hydrophones

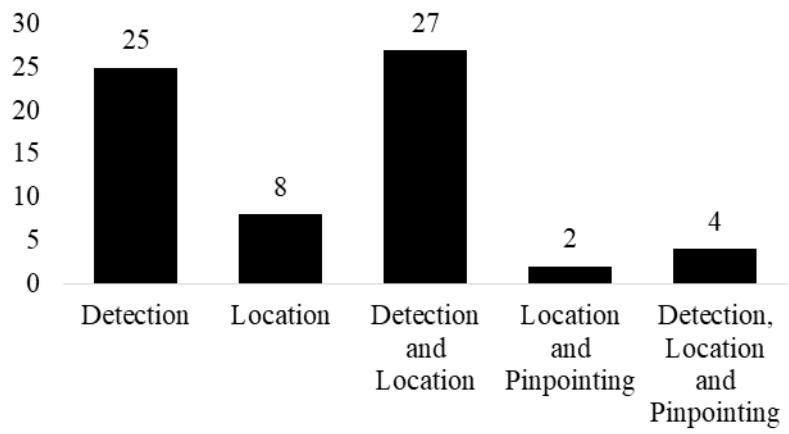


Fig. 4 Study Focus w.r.t leak detection phases addressed in the publications

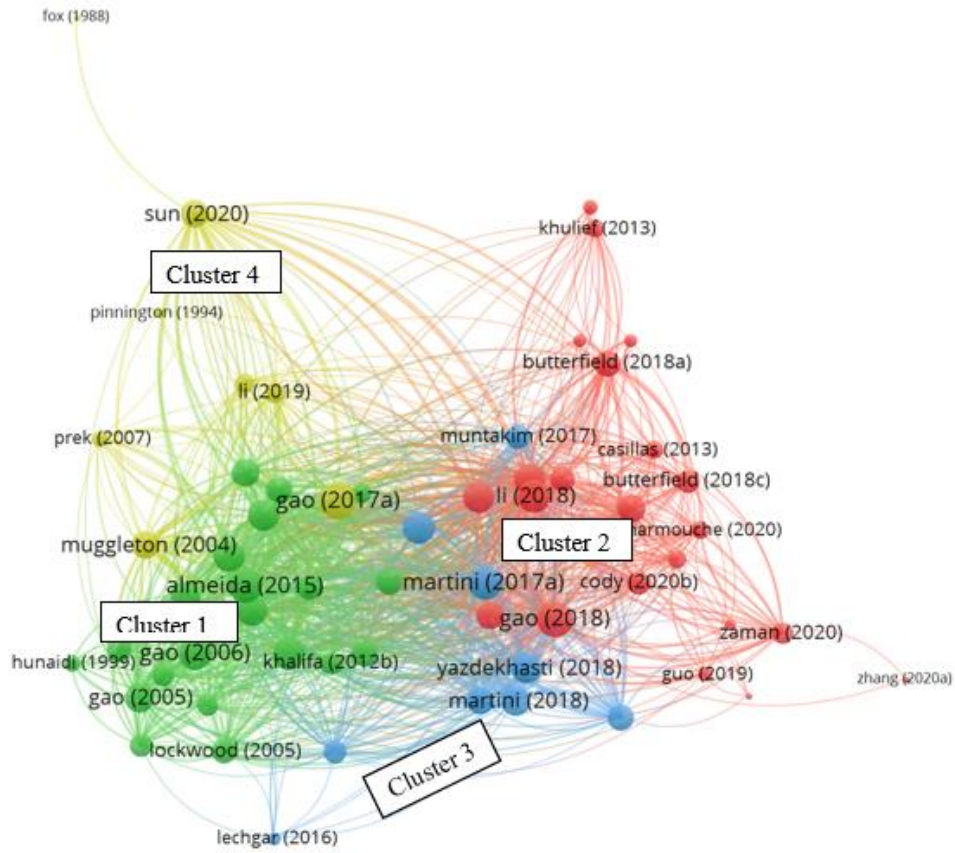


Fig. 5 Bibliographic Coupling of Shortlisted Publications

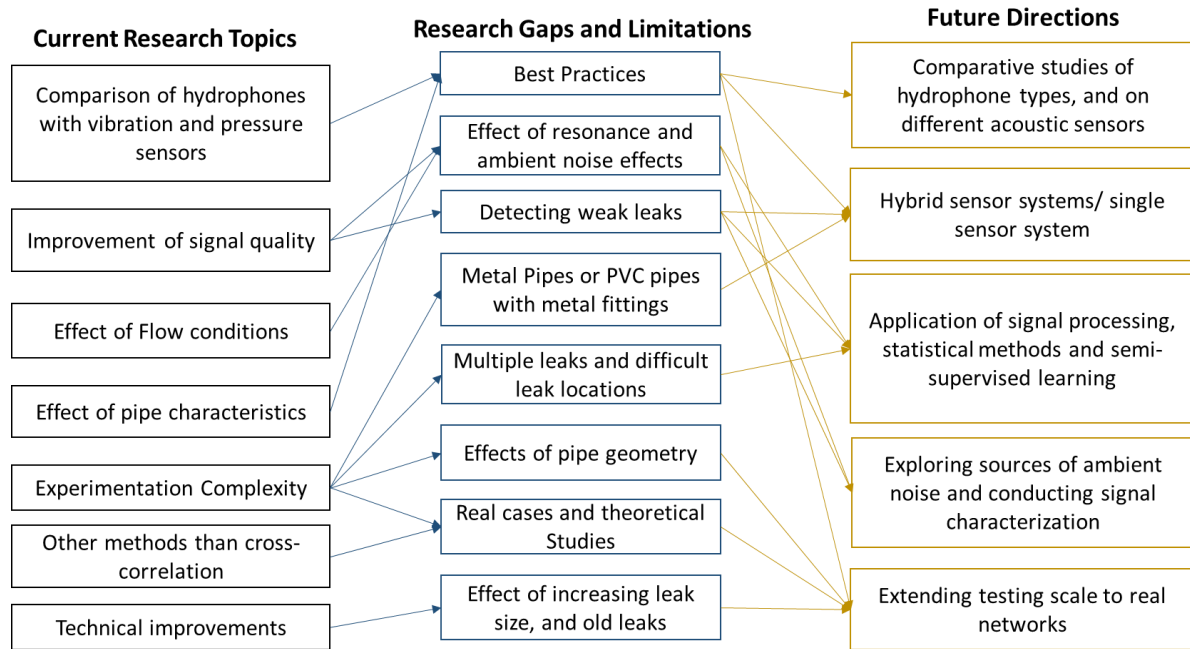


Fig. 6 Summary of main findings