

Audible and Infrasonic waves generated during the 2022 Hunga eruption: Observations from across Aotearoa New Zealand

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Abstract

The 15 January 2022 eruption of Hunga volcano (Kingdom of Tonga) featured one of the most powerful blasts in recent history, generating atmospheric acoustic phenomena observed around the world. Here we examine seismo-acoustic data of the eruption from across Aotearoa New Zealand, host of the densest network of seismo-acoustic sensors in the south-west Pacific. We find clear evidence for two wavepackets of audible acoustics generated by the eruption propagating north-to-south across Aotearoa New Zealand. Celerities estimated from manually picked arrival times indicate that each wavepacket was likely induced by nonlinear phenomena during the passage of Lamb and Pekeris waves, the latter an atmospheric resonance mode not observed prior to the eruption of Hunga volcano. We also highlight results from array processing across a large scale acoustic network, where we successfully detect and estimate backazimuths for coherent low frequency acoustic waves across a maximum aperture of 11 km. The observations presented here provide a new dataset for developing novel techniques for modelling and

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monitoring of rare atmospheric acoustic phenomena.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 On 15 January 2022, Hunga volcano underwent one of the most explo-
3 sive eruptions in recent history. The mostly submerged caldera volcano,
4 located in the southwest Pacific, is one of a chain of volcanoes along the
5 Tonga-Kermadec intraoceanic volcanic arc (Cronin et al., 2017; Brenna et al.,
6 2022). The 15 January eruption was the climax of a sequence that began
7 on 19 December 2021 with mostly Surtseyan activity, pyroclastic surges, and
8 sporadic ash plumes rising up to 20 km altitude (Global Volcanism Program,
9 2022a; Gupta et al., 2022). The main event was preceded by a large explosive
10 eruption on 13 January that generated a 20 km high, 260 km diameter ash
11 plume and removed the middle third of the Hunga Tonga-Hunga Ha’apai is-
12 land (Global Volcanism Program, 2022b; Gupta et al., 2022). The climactic
13 eruption began at approximately 04:00 UTC on 15 January, producing an
14 ash plume that quickly rose to a height of 57 km with the umbrella cloud
15 reaching a diameter of ~ 450 km within 150 minutes (Carr et al., 2022; Gupta
16 et al., 2022; Proud et al., 2022). Underwater volcanoclastic density currents
17 triggered by the eruption travelled >100 km from the volcano at velocities of
18 up to $122 \text{ km}\cdot\text{hr}^{-1}$ (Clare et al., 2023). The ash plume also featured record-
19 breaking levels of volcanic lightning, reaching peak levels of ~ 5000 flashes
20 per minute (Van Eaton et al., 2023; Jarvis et al., 2024). Within the atmo-
21 sphere, the eruption generated a broad range of intense acoustic waves that

22 were comparable to the 1883 eruption of Krakatau, most prominently a Lamb
23 wave (<0.01 Hz) that propagated four times around the world (Matoza et al.,
24 2022). Remarkably, the eruption was also audible at long range distances,
25 with reports from New Zealand ($\sim 1,900 - 3,200$ km from Hunga volcano;
26 Lawson et al., 2022, Clive et al. *In Review*), Alaska ($\sim 10,000$ km; Matoza
27 et al., 2022), and Germany ($\sim 16,800$ km; Kraft et al., 2023). Lastly, a com-
28 plex and globally observed tsunami was generated by the eruption including
29 air-sea coupling from the large Lamb wave (Carvajal et al., 2022; Gusman
30 et al., 2022; Kubota et al., 2022; Lynett et al., 2022).

31 Despite the wealth of observations from around the world on the eruption
32 and its effects, there is currently no general consensus on the exact sequence
33 and timing of eruptive activity after 04:00 on 15 January (all times here are
34 reported in UTC, unless otherwise indicated). The relative remoteness of the
35 volcano and intensity of the eruption precluded the possibility of direct visual
36 observations to corroborate the timing of signals in data. On the other hand,
37 the lack of consensus between different datasets may reflect the complexity
38 of the eruption processes that may have occurred during this particularly in-
39 tense eruption. In general, the key observations were as follows. An eruption
40 plume was first observed in satellite images at 02:57 which briefly rose to a
41 height of 15 km and persisted through to 03:57 (Van Eaton et al., 2023). The
42 main eruption phase began at approximately 04:00 with a gradual increase
43 in eruptive activity as seen in seismic and acoustic data (Matoza et al., 2022;
44 Vergoz et al., 2022; Purkis et al., 2023). An explosion occurred at 04:05-
45 06 which generated the first observed ash plumes over 20 km altitude and
46 generated the first ionospheric disturbance (Astafyeva et al., 2022; Le Bras

47 et al., 2022; Purkis et al., 2023). Seismic and acoustic data points to the peak
48 eruptive activity beginning at approximately 04:15 (Le Bras et al., 2022; Ma-
49 toza et al., 2022; Podglajen et al., 2022; Poli and Shapiro, 2022; Thurin et al.,
50 2022; Vergoz et al., 2022; Thurin and Tape, 2023), with ionosphere or tsunami
51 observations suggesting a slightly later time of 04:18 (Astafyeva et al., 2022;
52 Purkis et al., 2023). This event coincides with the origin of the globally
53 observed Lamb wave (Matoza et al., 2022). Acoustic and ionospheric data
54 indicate another potential major eruption at or shortly before 04:30 which
55 has been cited as an alternative origin time for the Lamb wave (Astafyeva
56 et al., 2022; Le Bras et al., 2022; Vergoz et al., 2022; Wright et al., 2022;
57 Purkis et al., 2023). Another major event potentially occurred at approxi-
58 mately 04:54 (Astafyeva et al., 2022; Podglajen et al., 2022; Vergoz et al.,
59 2022; Wright et al., 2022), with observations suggesting this generated the
60 largest near-field tsunami waves in the entire sequence (Purkis et al., 2023).
61 Several smaller eruptions were detected after 05:00 (Le Bras et al., 2022;
62 Vergoz et al., 2022; Wright et al., 2022) with the last eruptive activity on 15
63 January detected several hours later at approximately 08:25 (Le Bras et al.,
64 2022; Matoza et al., 2022; Podglajen et al., 2022). Note that this descrip-
65 tion is an approximation of what is described in the literature, with some
66 timelines including multiple subevents (e.g. Le Bras et al., 2022, describe 12
67 events from 03:40 to 05:30); a summary of the complexity and disagreements
68 of event timing between different data streams is provided in supplementary
69 Figure S1.

70 Here we present seismic and acoustic observations of the 15 January erup-
71 tion from across Aotearoa New Zealand (NZ), at distances of 2000 to 3200 km

72 from the volcano. The dataset is notable for being the densest geophysical
73 monitoring network in the southwest Pacific region, with high-quality, high-
74 sampling rate seismo-acoustic data giving us a detailed view of atmospheric
75 acoustic waves propagating north to south across both islands (Fig. 1). We
76 use these data to search for evidence of rare acoustic phenomena induced by
77 the eruption, including the propagation of a previously unobserved Pekeris
78 wave.

79 **2. Data and Methods**

80 *2.1. Data*

81 We analyse data from GeoNet, NZ’s national monitoring programme run
82 by GNS Science; the network collects a wide range of data to monitor and
83 respond to natural hazards such as volcanoes, landslides, earthquakes, and
84 tsunamis (e.g., Petersen et al., 2011). Seismic data was recorded by a net-
85 work of short-period and broadband seismometers (Fig. 1; GNS Science,
86 2021), as well as an extensive network of strong-motion accelerometers (Fig.
87 S2; GNS Science, 2020). Acoustic data was recorded by 22 microphones or
88 barometers deployed near actively monitored volcanoes on the North Island
89 as well as Rangitāhua (Fig. 1; GNS Science, 2022). All seismometers and
90 acoustic sensors recorded data at 100 samples per second, whereas strong-
91 motion accelerometers recorded at 200 samples per second. GeoNet acoustic
92 sensors are usually equipped with mechanical filters to systematically remove
93 frequencies >20 Hz which are typically due to noise from wind or anthro-
94 pogenic sources.

95 To help track the 15 January eruption atmospheric acoustics propagating

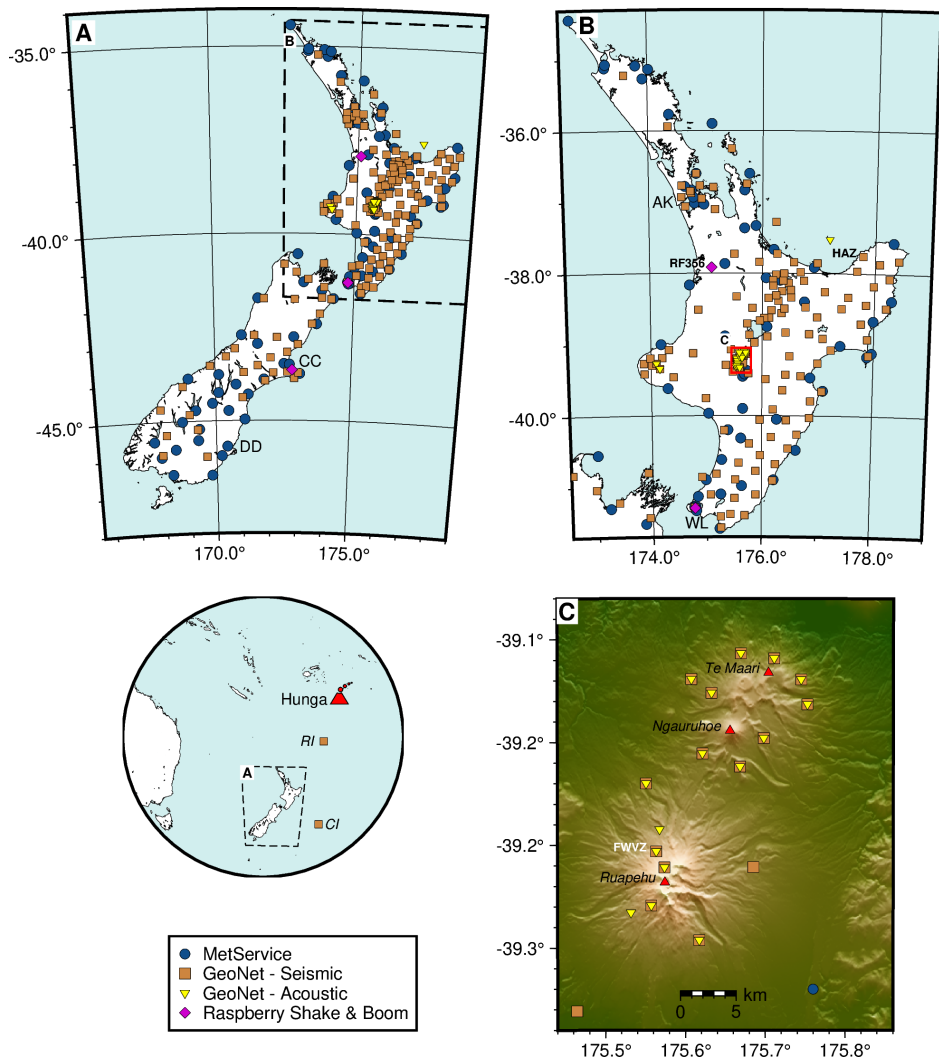


Figure 1: (A) Map of NZ with locations of all stations used in this study. Also marked are locations of major urban areas, AK: Auckland, WL: Wellington, CC: Christchurch, and DD: Dunedin. Inset map below panel A shows location of NZ relative to Hunga volcano (red marker), as well as stations on Rangitāhua (Raoul Island, RI) and Rēkohu (Chatham Island, CI), which also include MetService stations. (B) Zoomed-in map of the North Island within region marked by dashed lines in panel A. Red box marks region plotted in panel C. (C) Map of Tongariro National Park region showing distribution of stations in the area. Also noted are locations of historical eruptions in the area (red triangles; Ngauruhoe, Ruapehu, Te Maari). Locations of stations used in Figs. 2 and 4 are noted in panels B and C. Locations of strong-motion stations are plotted in Fig. S2.

96 across NZ, we also looked at measurements from two other networks. The
97 first is pressure data from weather stations operated by the national weather
98 authority, the Meteorological Service of New Zealand Ltd., Te Ratonga Tiro-
99 rangi (MetService). The Vaisala barometer at each station recorded atmo-
100 spheric pressure at 1 minute intervals, providing a good reference point for
101 the arrival time of the eruption Lamb wave across the country. We also used
102 seismic and acoustic data from the Raspberry Shake network (Fig. 1; Rasp-
103 berry Shake, S.A., 2016). We focused on three Raspberry Shake and Boom
104 (RS&B) stations that were recording on 15 January, as the co-located seismic
105 and acoustic sensors were useful for interpreting signals at audible frequen-
106 cies (>20 Hz); each Raspberry Shake and Boom sensor package records data
107 at 100 samples per second.

108 *2.2. Methods*

109 To provide more insights into the chronology of the 15 January Hunga
110 eruption sequence we applied array processing to acoustic data recorded by
111 GeoNet sensors. Traditionally, acoustic array processing was only applied
112 to sensors separated by distances of 10s to 100s of metres as they targeted
113 coherent arrivals with wavelengths of a similar magnitude (e.g., Ripepe and
114 Marchetti, 2002; Matoza et al., 2007; Fee et al., 2010). Lamb waves dom-
115 inate at frequencies <0.01 Hz, which equates to wavelengths of >30 km.
116 Therefore, for our array processing we considered the GeoNet network of 9
117 acoustic sensors around the Tongariro and Ngauruhoe volcanoes as one array
118 (maximum aperture of 11 km and elevation difference of 418 m; Fig. 1c).
119 We applied the Narrow-Band Least-Squares array processing approach (Iezzi
120 et al., 2022) to acoustic data recorded from 03:45 to 13:00 on 15 January,

121 bandpass filtered from 0.001 to 0.25 Hz. Processing was conducted across 8
122 frequency bands, with time windows ranging from 2400 to 180 s for lower to
123 higher frequency bands (see Table S1 for details). Coherent signals travel-
124 ling across the Tongariro-Ngauruhoe network were identified using Median
125 Cross-Correlation Maxima (MdCCM) >0.7 and $\sigma_\tau < 1$; σ_τ is an indicator of
126 nonplanar propagation across an array (Szuberla et al., 2006).

127 We applied a short-term average/long-term average (STA/LTA) algo-
128 rithm (Allen, 1978) to help quantify the characteristics of air-to-ground cou-
129 pled audible booms recorded via seismic data. We took advantage of GeoNet
130 sites with co-located seismometers and strong-motion accelerometers (Fig.
131 4d, e, S3), where STA/LTA “picks” on both sensors were more likely to be
132 real instead of false positives. Using a recursive STA/LTA algorithm (With-
133 ers et al., 1998) with 2 and 6 second short- and long-term windows, we used a
134 threshold of 1.6 in the resulting characteristics function to define a pick; picks
135 detected simultaneously by the seismometer and strong-motion accelerome-
136 ter were kept as detections. This analysis was conducted at 43 sites across
137 NZ, with data from each sensor highpass filtered at 20 Hz.

138 **3. Results**

139 *3.1. Acoustic observations and analysis*

140 Acoustic waves from the 15 January Hunga eruption were well recorded
141 across NZ (Fig. 2a) and were dominated by the large amplitude Lamb wave
142 (604 Pa peak-to-peak pressure difference; Fig. 2d, e). The Lamb wave ap-
143 pears similar at all MetService and GeoNet acoustic stations, with a total
144 duration of approximately 90 minutes (Fig. 2d). Manual picking of the onset

145 time of the Lamb wave at each MetService and GeoNet station gives a celerity of 313 m.s⁻¹ (black dotted line in Fig. 2a) with a backprojected origin
146 time at Hunga of 04:15, assuming a constant celerity. In contrast, the three
147 RS&B sensors could not capture the Lamb wave as they are not sensitive to
148 frequencies less than 1 Hz (Fig. 2a - c). However, unlike the GeoNet and
149 MetService sensors, they are sensitive to frequencies at 20 – 50 Hz due to
150 their higher sampling rate or lack of mechanical filters. Each RS&B sensor
151 records two distinct clusters of arrivals at frequencies >1 Hz, with some ar-
152 rivals extending into the audible range (>20 Hz; Fig. 2b, c). Henceforth, we
153 distinguish each high frequency cluster as Wavepackets 1 and 2. We also ob-
154 served an increase in acoustic energies that began approximately 15 minutes
155 before the apparent arrival of the Lamb wave (Fig. 2b).
156

157 Array processing of GeoNet acoustic data across the Tongariro-Ngauruhoe
158 network found coherent arrivals from 06:00 to 08:00, as well as a later ar-
159 rival at 10:30 to 11:00 (Fig. 3). We also observed coherent arrivals up to
160 15 minutes before the apparent arrival of the Lamb wave (black dotted line
161 in Fig. 3b). Backazimuths for all coherent arrivals were mostly centred at
162 approximately 25°, which corresponds to the backazimuth towards Hunga
163 volcano from Tongariro-Ngauruhoe volcanoes (Fig. 3c). Trace velocities for
164 both arrivals were within 300 – 350 m.s⁻¹, with higher frequencies correlating
165 with higher trace velocities (Fig. 3d). We also noted a significant decrease
166 in trace velocities during the first arrival at approximately 06:45 - 07:10; the
167 lowest value was 295 m.s⁻¹ at 07:05.

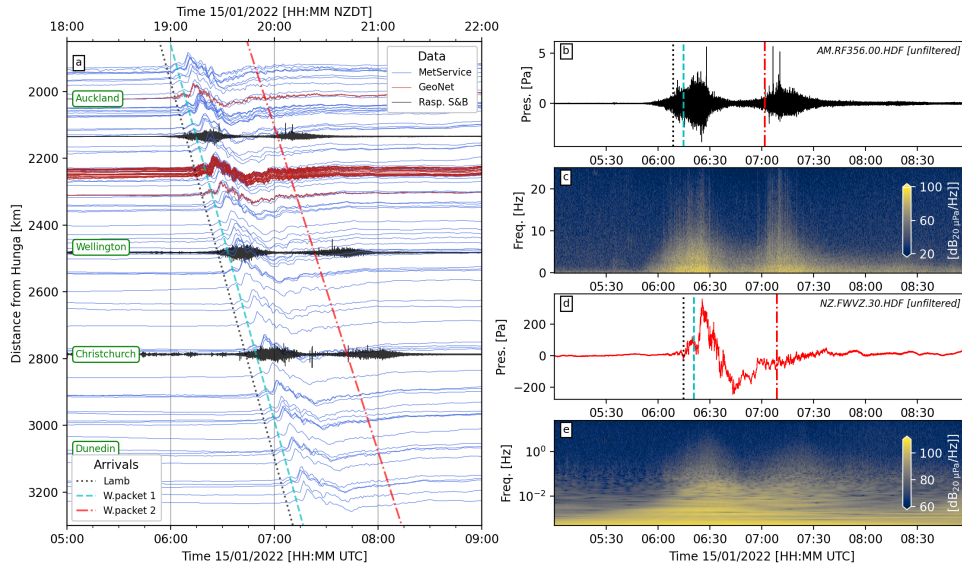


Figure 2: (a) Unfiltered atmospheric acoustic data recorded across NZ after the Hunga eruption on 15 January 2022. Also plotted are arrival times for the Lamb wave (black dotted line), and audible wavepackets 1 and 2 (cyan dashed and red dot-dash line), and distances of major cities in NZ. (b) Unfiltered acoustic data recorded by a Raspberry Shake and Boom station (RF356). (c) Frequency spectrogram of acoustic data recorded by RF356. (d) Unfiltered acoustic data recorded at a GeoNet acoustic sensor (FWVZ). (e) Continuous wavelet transform frequency spectrogram of acoustic data recorded at FWVZ.

168 3.2. Seismic observations and analysis

169 GeoNet acoustic stations were designed to monitor for eruptive activity
 170 so were exclusively deployed in close proximity to volcanoes in the North
 171 Island (Fig. 1). As a result, the GeoNet acoustic sensors can only pro-
 172 vide a limited view the Hunga eruption acoustic wavefield as it travelled
 173 over NZ. Seismic sensors commonly record ground-coupled airwaves, where
 174 incident atmospheric acoustic waves impinge on the earth surface and is par-

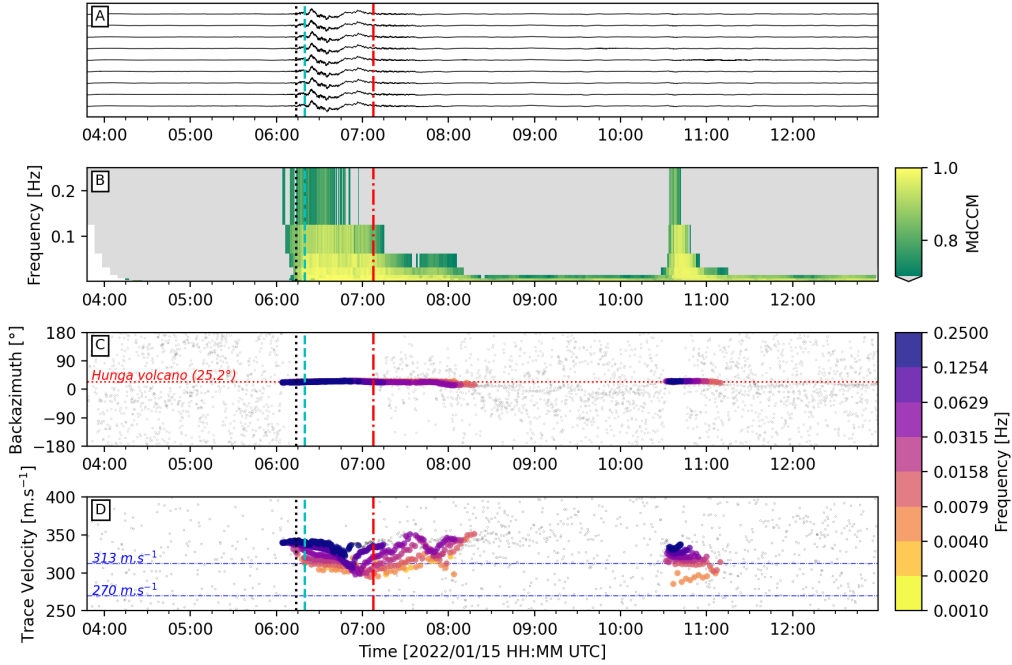


Figure 3: Results of array processing using microphones around the Tongariro-Ngauruhoe volcanoes. (A) Acoustic data as recorded by the stations used in the array processing, bandpass filtered at 0.001 to 0.25 Hz. (B) MdCCM for each time window and frequency band; estimations below the 0.7 threshold are coloured in grey. Each estimate is plotted at the end of their respective time window. (C) Back-azimuth and (D) Trace velocity estimates for MdCCM >0.7 and $\sigma_\tau <1$, coloured by frequency. Estimates which fall outside those thresholds are plotted as grey dots.

175 tially transmitted as a seismic wave (e.g., Arrowsmith et al., 2010; McKee
 176 et al., 2018; Dannemann Dugick et al., 2023). Therefore, we explored seis-
 177 mic data recorded by GeoNet broadband, short-period, and strong-motion
 178 sensors from across NZ (Fig. 1, S2) to track the passage of audible waves via
 179 ground-coupled airwaves.

180 After applying a highpass filter at 20 Hz, seismic data from across NZ

181 clearly record the clusters of arrivals we previously labelled as Wavepackets
182 1 and 2 (Fig. 4a-c, S3). To estimate the celerity of each wavepacket, we
183 manually picked their apparent arrival times at 27 seismic stations across
184 the country. We find that Wavepacket 1 had a celerity of 313 m.s^{-1} , whereas
185 for Wavepacket 2 it was 270 m.s^{-1} (Fig. 5). Assuming a constant celerity,
186 extrapolation back to the origin at Hunga volcano finds origin times of 04:21
187 and 04:50 for Wavepackets 1 and 2, respectively.

188 The number of detections found at each site analysed varied widely, rang-
189 ing from 2 to 238 (Fig. 6a). This was most likely due to local noise or site
190 conditions affecting signal-to-noise ratios or introducing non-natural signals
191 at each site. To extract picks related to the Hunga eruption wavepackets,
192 we excluded picks outside of two 30 minute time windows based on expected
193 arrival times calculated from the previously estimated celerities (Fig. 5, 6a);
194 the time windows start 5 minutes before each expected arrival. Detections
195 within each time window ranged from 1 to 96, with a median of 39. We
196 find that the number of detections was generally greater in Wavepacket 2
197 versus Wavepacket 1 (Fig. 6b, c). Using data in a 2 s window centred on
198 each detection, we also tracked seismic amplitudes at each station. We find
199 that median seismic amplitudes for detections decrease from north to south
200 (Fig. 6d). Furthermore, we also observed that median seismic amplitudes for
201 detections in Wavepacket 2 were generally larger than those in Wavepacket
202 1 (Fig. 6e, f). However, the median seismic amplitudes for Wavepacket 2
203 appear to decrease faster than Wavepacket 1 as the latter had higher values
204 in the south of NZ compared to the north (Fig. 6f).

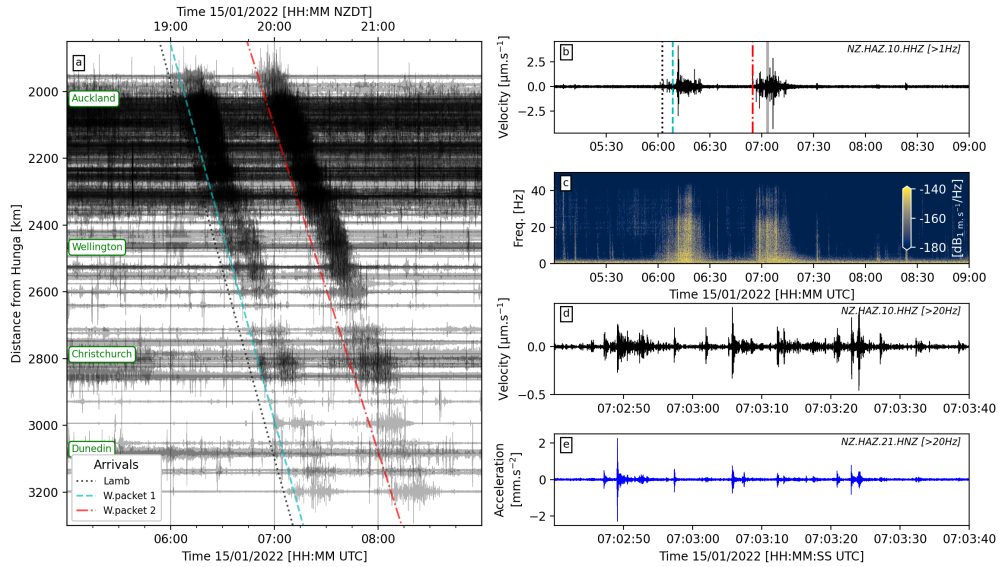


Figure 4: (a) Seismic data recorded across NZ after the Hunga eruption on 15 January 2022, highpass filtered at 20 Hz. Also plotted are arrival times for the Lamb wave (black dotted line), and audible wavepackets 1 and 2 (cyan dashed and red dot-dash line), and distances of major cities in NZ. (b) Seismic data recorded by GeoNet broadband seismometer HAZ, highpass filtered at 1 Hz. Gray area marks timespan of data plotted in panels d and e. (c) Frequency spectrogram of seismic data recorded at HAZ. (d) Clip of seismic data recorded at HAZ, highpass filtered at 20 Hz, during timespan marked by grey area in panel b. (e) Clip of strong-motion accelerometer data recorded at HAZ, during same time as panel d.

205 4. Discussion

206 The seismo-acoustic data recorded across NZ provides a unique view into
 207 the unprecedented eruption of Hunga volcano on 15 January 2022. The
 208 observation of two separate wavepackets of ground-coupled audible waves
 209 from the eruption has not been previously described and may in turn provide
 210 new insights into the chronology of events during the peak phase of eruptive

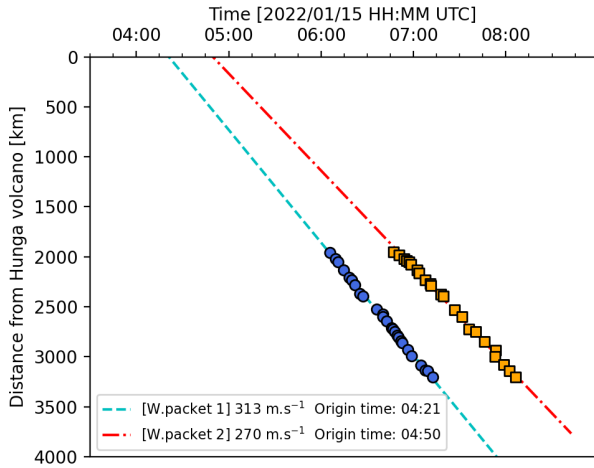


Figure 5: Picked arrival times for wavepackets 1 and 2, as well as interpolated linear relationships showing velocities and origin times at Hunga volcano.

211 activity on 15 January. We have divided our interpretations of the data into
 212 three parts: the first addresses the origin of the audible waves generated by
 213 the eruption, the second outlines the implications our observations may have
 214 for the activity timeline at Hunga volcano, and the third briefly examines
 215 the array processing conducted here.

216 *4.1. Source of audible acoustics*

217 The nationwide occurrence of audible acoustic signals was an unprece-
 218 dented phenomenon prior to the eruption of Hunga volcano on 15 January
 219 2022 (Lawson et al., 2022). Only the 1883 eruption of Krakatau provided
 220 any kind of precedent for long-range audible acoustics from volcanoes (Stra-
 221 chey, 1888). Previous studies had observed only one wavepacket of audible
 222 signals (Matoza et al., 2022; Kraft et al., 2023) but we show clear evidence
 223 for two wavepackets generated by the Hunga eruption (Figs. 2, 4). Based

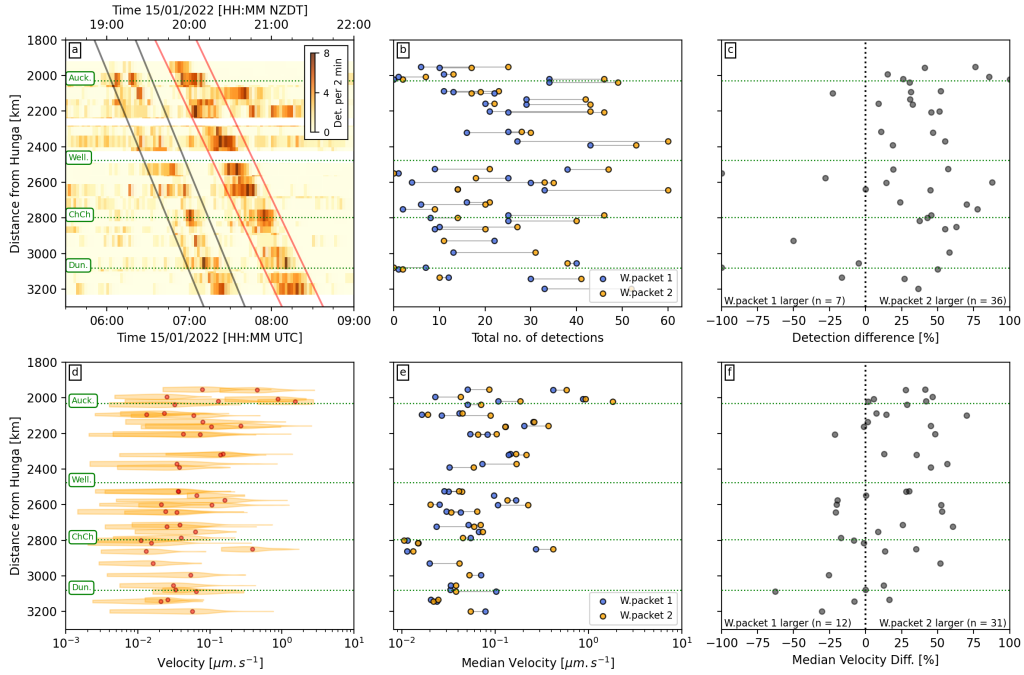


Figure 6: Results of detection analysis on co-deployed broadband and strong-motion seismic sensors. (a) Detections per 2 minute window at each site, where colour indicates the total number of detections within each window. Lines indicate windows used to delineate wavepackets 1 and 2. (b) Number of detections within wavepacket 1 (blue dots) versus wavepacket 2 (orange dots) for each station (connected by lines). (c) Comparison of total detections within each wavepacket, where +/- percentiles indicate greater detections in wavepacket 2/1, respectively. (d) Violin plots showing distribution of maximum seismic amplitudes of each detection at each station. Median values are plotted with red circles. (e) Median maximum seismic amplitudes for detections with Wavepacket 1 (blue circles) and Wavepacket 2 (orange circles) for each station (connected by lines). (f) Similar to panel c, but comparing differences in median maximum seismic amplitudes within each wavepacket.

224 on arrival times of each wavepacket across NZ (Fig. 5), Wavepacket 1 had a
 225 higher celerity (313 m.s^{-1}) than Wavepacket 2 (270 m.s^{-1}). The celerity for

226 the first wavepacket corresponded closely with previously estimated values
227 for the Hunga eruption Lamb wave (312 – 319 m.s⁻¹; Matoza et al., 2022;
228 Kraft et al., 2023; Jarvis et al., 2024), therefore we associate Wavepacket 1
229 with the passage of the Lamb wave over NZ. In contrast, few studies have
230 reported any atmospheric phenomena with celerities that correspond with
231 that of Wavepacket 2. Matoza et al. (2022) report infrasonic arrivals for a
232 continuous ~ 2 hour period after the Lamb waves with group velocities rang-
233 ing from 250 to 290 m.s⁻¹. Watanabe et al. (2022) used satellite radiance
234 observations to describe an atmospheric resonance mode with a phase speed
235 of 270 m.s⁻¹ south of Hunga volcano. This resonance mode, now called the
236 Pekeris wave, had never been previously directly observed since it was origi-
237 nally theorised in 1937 (Pekeris, 1937). Considering the distinct 30-45 minute
238 length of Wavepacket 2 and the close match in celerity with satellite obser-
239 vations, we consider the Pekeris wave a strong candidate for generating the
240 second group of audible atmospheric acoustics across NZ. It is notable that
241 the arrival of the Pekeris wave was not clearly recorded in the GeoNet and
242 Metservice sensors, despite clearly recording the preceding Lamb wave (Fig.
243 2a, d). However, the Pekeris wave was found to have an amplitude structure
244 that, relative to the Lamb wave, is amplified in the stratosphere and meso-
245 sphere relative to the troposphere (see Fig. 8 in Watanabe et al., 2022); this
246 was confirmed via comparing measurements of the upper ionosphere with
247 ground level atmospheric pressure in Japan (Ohya et al., 2024).

248 Two hypotheses have thus far been proposed for generating the audible
249 acoustics heard at global distances: the intense volcanic lightning activity
250 observed at Hunga volcano during and after the eruption (Kraft et al., 2023),

251 or nonlinear energy cascades from lower to audible frequencies (Matoza et al.,
252 2022). Record levels of volcanic lightning activity were observed for up to 3
253 hours after the main eruption at \sim 04:00 on 15 January 2022; further lightning
254 activity was observed during a later eruptive phase at 08:25 (Van Eaton
255 et al., 2023; Bór et al., 2023; Jarvis et al., 2024). A key observation was that
256 the lightning activity was occurring continuously after the main eruption,
257 which cannot explain the two distinct audible Wavepackets observed across
258 NZ (Figs. 2, 4). Furthermore, if both Wavepackets were generated by the
259 lightning then we would expect their celerities to match which was not what
260 we observed (Fig. 5). Therefore, we rule out volcanic lightning generated by
261 the Hunga eruption as a source for the global audible acoustics observed in
262 NZ, Alaska, and Germany.

263 The generation of audible acoustics by volcanic eruptions at long-range
264 distances (hundreds to thousands of kms) via nonlinear energy cascades was
265 originally proposed after the 1980 eruption of Mount St Helens (Reed, 1987).
266 We note that this phenomenon differs from the more commonly observed
267 acoustic shockwaves generated at the source (i.e., the eruption vent) which
268 decay rapidly and therefore are only recorded by sensors within a few kilome-
269 tres of the volcano (Dragoni and Santoro, 2020). For longer distances, it was
270 hypothesised that acoustic waves travelling into higher altitudes (>50 km)
271 form shockwaves which are then refracted back to ground level (Reed, 1987).
272 Recent studies have successfully modelled shockwaves in the upper atmo-
273 sphere from nonlinear evolution of low frequency acoustic waves induced by
274 tectonic earthquakes (Nozuka et al., 2024). However, these shockwaves were
275 only detectable in Global Navigation Satellite System Total Electron Content

276 observations as the shockwaves do not refract back to ground-level. As far
277 as we are aware, no model currently exists that can account for ground-level
278 observations of audible acoustic waves generated in the upper atmosphere.
279 We put forward that the dataset described here will provide a benchmark
280 upon which future modelling efforts can be tested against. The new models
281 will need to account for three key observations: i) audible waves were gener-
282 ated not only by the Lamb wave, but also the Pekeris wave, ii) audible waves
283 arrived 6 minutes after the onset of the Lamb wave, and iii) why audible
284 waves generated by the Pekeris were apparently more numerous and louder
285 than those generated by the Lamb wave (Fig. 6).

286 *4.2. Insights towards Hunga eruption chronology*

287 The complex sequence of activity at Hunga volcano on 15 January 2022
288 and the remoteness of the volcano has resulted in a general lack of consensus
289 between different datasets regarding the eruption chronology and the driving
290 processes behind them. While the seismo-acoustic data and observations
291 presented here cannot provide an unequivocal eruptive sequence, our results
292 help illuminate the processes that may have occurred during the eruption.
293 We focus on two key observations in the seismo-acoustic dataset: i) the origin
294 of the Lamb wave and the acoustic activity preceding it, and ii) the source
295 of the Pekeris wave.

296 Assuming a constant celerity, the Lamb waves originated at 04:15 at
297 Hunga volcano (Fig. 2a). This coincides closely with the timing of the
298 most energetic seismo-acoustic activity, a tsunami, and ionospheric distur-
299 bances (e.g. Astafyeva et al., 2022; Le Bras et al., 2022; Matoza et al., 2022;
300 Podglajen et al., 2022; Thurin et al., 2022; Purkis et al., 2023). This arrival

301 time is also sooner than an apparent event at 04:30 which was previously hy-
302 pothesised to have generated the Lamb wave (Astafyeva et al., 2022; Le Bras
303 et al., 2022; Vergoz et al., 2022; Wright et al., 2022; Purkis et al., 2023).
304 While our evidence is not conclusive and we have assumed a constant celer-
305 ity, our observations suggest that the 04:15 event was the origin for the Lamb
306 wave. Infrasonic waves were observed up to 15 minutes before the arrival of
307 the Lamb wave which suggests an earlier time for the onset of the eruptive
308 activity on 15 January (Fig. 2b). Multiple studies across different disciplines
309 have identified a period from 04:00 to 04:06 as the onset time for the activ-
310 ity at Hunga volcano (Vergoz et al., 2022; Matoza et al., 2022; Gupta et al.,
311 2022; Astafyeva et al., 2022). However, it must be noted that the acoustic ar-
312 rivals observed here have an emergent arrival, where an arrival time can only
313 be defined above a certain signal-to-noise ratio; this suggests that the onset
314 time of the activity may be earlier than 04:00. Weak infrasonic signals were
315 detected from Hunga volcano (albeit with large location errors) originating
316 at 03:46 (Le Bras et al., 2022; Matoza et al., 2022). An eruption plume was
317 observed as early as 02:57 and persisted through to 03:57 (Van Eaton et al.,
318 2023), suggesting the infrasonic activity preceding the Lamb wave was due
319 to relatively low-level eruptive activity before the main eruption at 04:15. It
320 was only once the main eruptive phase began at 04:00 - 04:06 was the ac-
321 tivity energetic enough to generate acoustic waves detectable at long-range
322 distances.

323 The origin of the Pekeris wave may be more enigmatic as it's arrival
324 time was derived from seismic data recorded across NZ (Figs. 4, 5). Our
325 arrival time picks suggest an origin time at Hunga volcano of 04:50 but if

326 we assume the same source process as the Lamb wave-generated audible
327 waves (see previous section) and note that the Lamb wave arrival preceded
328 Wavepacket 1 by 6 minutes (Fig. 2a) then the origin time of the Pekeris wave
329 may in fact be as early as 04:44. There were several notable observations
330 around this time period in the eruption: major seismic events were detected
331 at 04:30, 04:36 and 04:40 (Kintner et al., 2022; Matoza et al., 2022; Le Bras
332 et al., 2022), a major ionospheric event originated at 04:43 (Astafyeva et al.,
333 2022), an acoustic event was detected at 04:53 (Podglajen et al., 2022), and
334 a large tsunami originated at the volcano at 04:56 (Purkis et al., 2023).
335 Altogether, this suggests that a major explosive event occurred at Hunga
336 volcano between 04:40 to 04:56 and may be the source of the Pekeris wave
337 observed in this study. However, we also note that shortly after the ash plume
338 reached the mesosphere (>50 km) at 04:36 it collapsed down to 40 km at 04:47
339 before rising again up to 58 km 04:57 (Proud et al., 2022; Van Eaton et al.,
340 2023; Jarvis et al., 2024). This is approximately the same altitude where the
341 Pekeris wave was found to be amplified relative to lower altitudes (Watanabe
342 et al., 2022; Ohya et al., 2024). Later tsunami phases induced by the Hunga
343 eruption have also been linked to the propagation of the Pekeris wave (Fujii
344 and Satake, 2024). Therefore we propose an alternative hypothesis for the
345 origin of the Pekeris wave: the interaction of the fast-ascending ash plume
346 with the upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere. In other words, we propose
347 that the extremely rapid insertion and temporary collapse of a water-rich
348 ash plume at 40 – 60 km altitudes was sufficient to induce a large scale
349 atmospheric oscillation that was transmitted as a Pekeris wave. This process
350 may help explain the apparent separation in time between the seismic events

351 at 04:30 to 04:40 and the acoustic and tsunami events after 04:50, where
352 the seismicity was due to activity at or below the vent with no measurable
353 impact on the ash plume or atmosphere. Modelling of a 50 km high ash
354 plume containing 90% steam found mass ascent velocities of $>200 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ at
355 up to 40 km altitude (Mastin et al., 2024). However, careful atmospheric
356 modelling is required to assess whether this high ascent velocity combined
357 with the erupted ash plume mass is enough to induce Pekeris waves in the
358 atmosphere, therefore we cannot conclusively deduce how the Pekeris wave
359 was generated during the Hunga eruption.

360 *4.3. Large aperture array processing*

361 Our novel array processing method using a large aperture (11 km) network
362 successfully estimated back-azimuth directions of low frequency signals such
363 as Lamb waves ($<0.25 \text{ Hz}$; Fig. 3). We find coherent detections across all
364 frequency bands between 0.001 to 0.25 Hz during our analysis time span,
365 with two separate arrivals originating from the direction of Hunga volcano.
366 Trace velocities within the first arrival were broadly consistent with Lamb
367 wave velocities ($300 - 350 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$), with the noteworthy decrease to $<300 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$
368 coinciding with the arrival of the Pekeris wave. The second arrival from 10:30
369 to 11:00 likely originates from the last eruptive activity detected at Hunga
370 volcano on 15 January, several hours after the main eruption (Le Bras et al.,
371 2022; Matoza et al., 2022; Podglajen et al., 2022). As far as we are aware,
372 with a maximum inter-station distance of 11 km this is the largest aperture
373 network of atmospheric acoustic sensors used as an array for detecting signals
374 from a volcanic eruption.

375 To help quantify the sensitivity of this network array to detecting remote

376 volcanic activity, we expanded our analysis to assess if less energetic erup-
377 tive activity observed at Hunga volcano on 13-14 January was also detected
378 (Global Volcanism Program, 2022b; Gupta et al., 2022; Vergoz et al., 2022).
379 Activity during this period was characterised by an eruption that began at
380 15:20 on 13 January and continued until 18:00 on 14 January (Vergoz et al.,
381 2022), generating a 18 km high plume (Gupta et al., 2022), as well as a small
382 tsunami (Global Volcanism Program, 2022b). Array analysis over this time
383 period does not detect any coherent signals except for 3 or 4 low-frequency
384 arrivals during a four hour period from 08:00 to 12:00 on 14 January, with
385 estimated back-azimuths towards Hunga volcano (Figs. S5, S6). This period
386 coincides with reduced infrasonic intensity but preceded increased hydroa-
387 coustic intensity as observed at International Monitoring System stations
388 (Vergoz et al., 2022). Observed plume heights during this eruptive phase
389 were oscillating, suggesting the occurrence of multiple explosions during an
390 unsteady eruption (Gupta et al., 2022). It is not immediately clear why the
391 network array failed to detect the most intense acoustic acoustics on 13 Jan-
392 uary, but we hypothesise that atmospheric conditions were not favourable
393 for the propagation of acoustic waves from the earliest stages of this eruptive
394 phase. Nevertheless, the detection of multiple arrivals on 14 January coincid-
395 ing with infrasonic and hydroacoustic detections suggests the occurrence of
396 a major eruptive event during this phase of activity. We suggest this could
397 be linked to the collapse of the caldera rim between the islands of Hunga
398 Ha’apai and Hunga Tonga, as detected by satellite images (Global Volcan-
399 ism Program, 2022b). Altogether, these array processing results suggest the
400 network array was only sensitive to large, sub-Plinian or Plinian sized erup-

401 tions ($\text{VEI} \geq 3$) across the south-west Pacific and further afield. In general,
402 these results demonstrate how a large scale array of acoustic sensors could
403 be used to detect large scale volcanic eruptions across the SW Pacific, as well
404 as other sources of low frequency acoustics such as meteors, tectonic earth-
405 quakes, tsunamis, and human-induced explosions (Le Pichon et al., 2019, and
406 references therein).

407 5. Conclusions

408 Here we present an overview of seismo-acoustic observations of the 15
409 January 2022 eruption of Hunga volcano as recorded across NZ, with a fo-
410 cus on the passage of atmospheric acoustic waves across the country. The
411 results help illustrate the timing of eruptive activity at the volcano as well
412 as rare atmospheric resonance phenomena induced by the activity. We ob-
413 served infrasonic arrivals from Hunga volcano for at least 15 minutes prior
414 to the arrival of the Lamb wave, suggesting the main eruptive phase of the
415 15 January eruption began at or shortly before 04:00. We find evidence for
416 two wavepackets of audible acoustics generated by the eruption and recorded
417 across all of NZ. Celerities estimated from arrival times indicate that each
418 wavepacket was likely induced by nonlinear phenomena during the passage
419 of Lamb and Pekeris waves, the latter an atmospheric resonance mode not
420 observed prior to the eruption of Hunga volcano. The source process of the
421 Pekeris wave is unclear with timing suggesting either a second large explosion
422 after the main eruption at 04:15, or atmospheric resonance induced by the
423 injection of an ash plume to mesospheric altitudes. We also highlight results
424 from array processing across a large scale acoustic network near volcanoes

425 in central NZ, where we successfully detect and estimate backazimuths for
426 coherent acoustic waves across a maximum aperture of 11 km. We conclude
427 that the results presented here can provide a new dataset to help the devel-
428 opment of new techniques for modelling and monitoring of rare atmospheric
429 acoustic phenomena.

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434 **7. Data availability**

435 The GeoNet seismic and acoustic data analysed in this study are available
436 for download via the GeoNet FDSN web service (<https://www.geonet.org.nz/data/access/FDSN>).
437 Raspberry Shake and Boom data are available to download via the IRIS-
438 DMC (<https://ds.iris.edu/mda/AM/>). MetService data are available on re-
439 quest ([https://about.metservice.com/our-company/about-this-site/open-access-](https://about.metservice.com/our-company/about-this-site/open-access-data/)
440 [data/](https://about.metservice.com/our-company/about-this-site/open-access-data/)).

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446 **9. Author contributions**

447 Conceptualization: all authors; Investigation: O.D.L.; Visualization: O.D.L.;

448 Writing - original draft: O.D.L.; Writing - review & editing: all authors.

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Supplementary material for: Audible and Infrasonic waves generated during the 2022 Hunga eruption: Observations from across Aotearoa New Zealand

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August 8, 2024

Band	Frequency range [Hz]	Window length [s]
1	0.001 – 0.002	2400
2	0.002 – 0.004	2082
3	0.004 – 0.008	1765
4	0.008 – 0.016	1448
5	0.016 – 0.032	1131
6	0.032 – 0.063	814
7	0.063 – 0.125	497
8	0.125 – 0.250	180

Table S1: Details of windows used for narrow-band least squares array processing

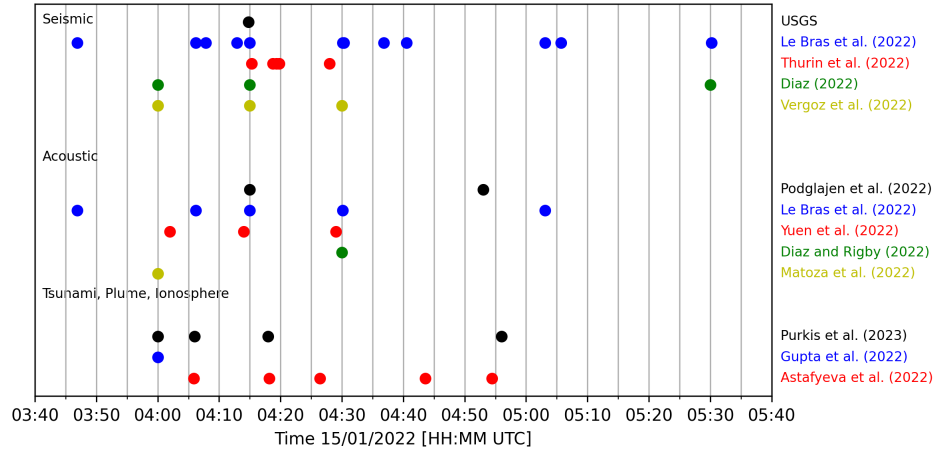


Figure S1: Illustration of eruption timelines from different investigations, where each dot indicates the time of an event identified by the investigators. The references for each investigation are indicated on the right.

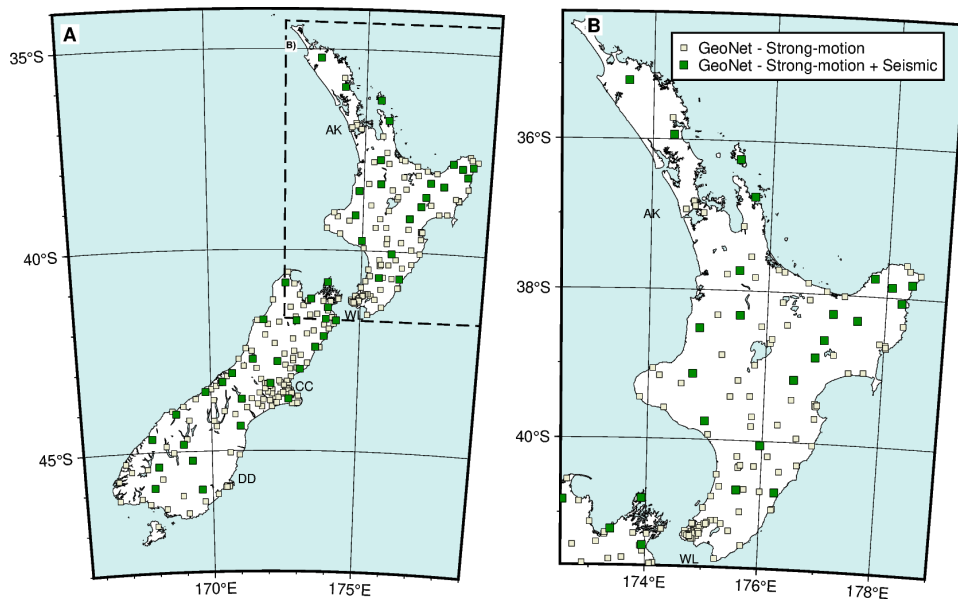


Figure S2: Map of Aotearoa New Zealand showing locations of strong-motion accelerometers co-located with seismometers used for STA/LTA analysis in this study (green squares). Also plotted are the locations of other GeoNet strong-motion accelerometers that were operating on 15 January 2022 but were not used for this study (light yellow squares).

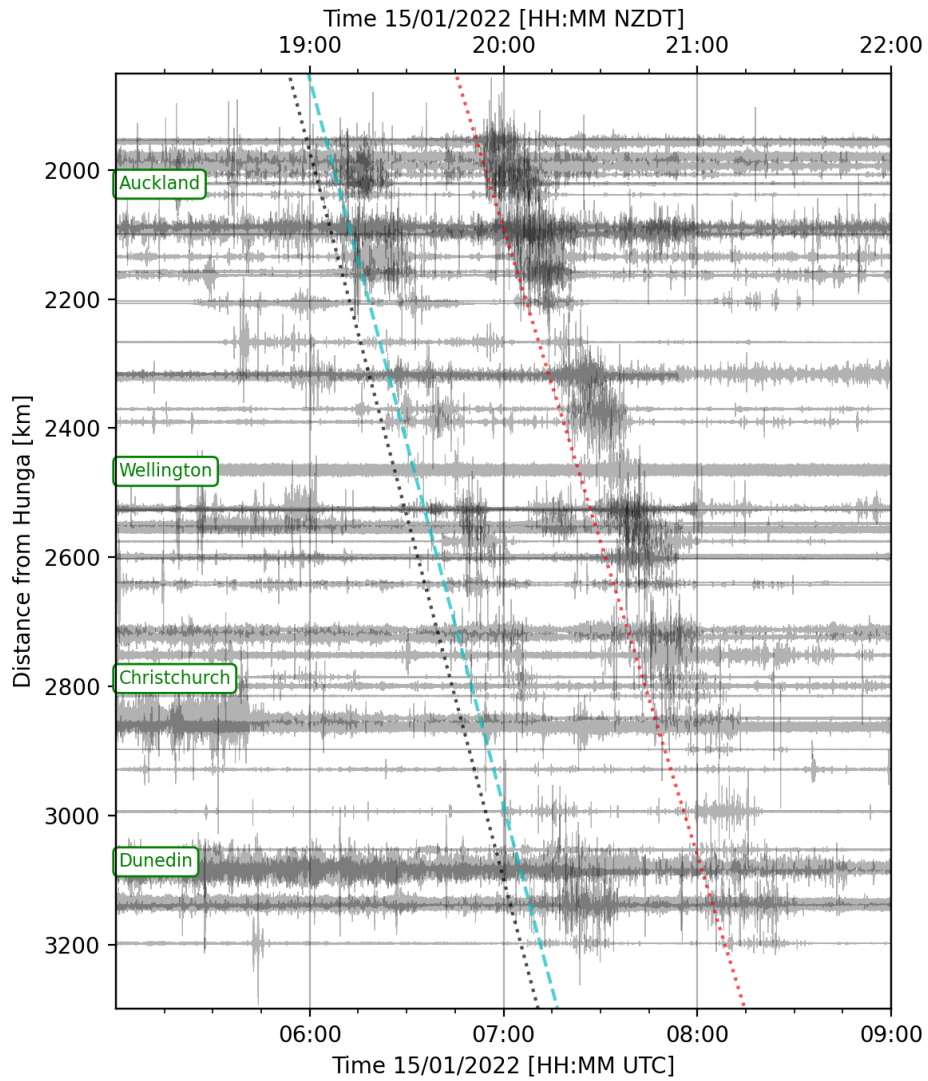


Figure S3: Data from strong-motion accelerometers co-located with seismometers in the GeoNet network as recorded on 15 January 2022. Also plotted are arrival times for the Lamb wave (black dotted line), and audible wavepackets 1 and 2 (cyan dashed and red dot-dash line), and distances of major cities in Aotearoa New Zealand.

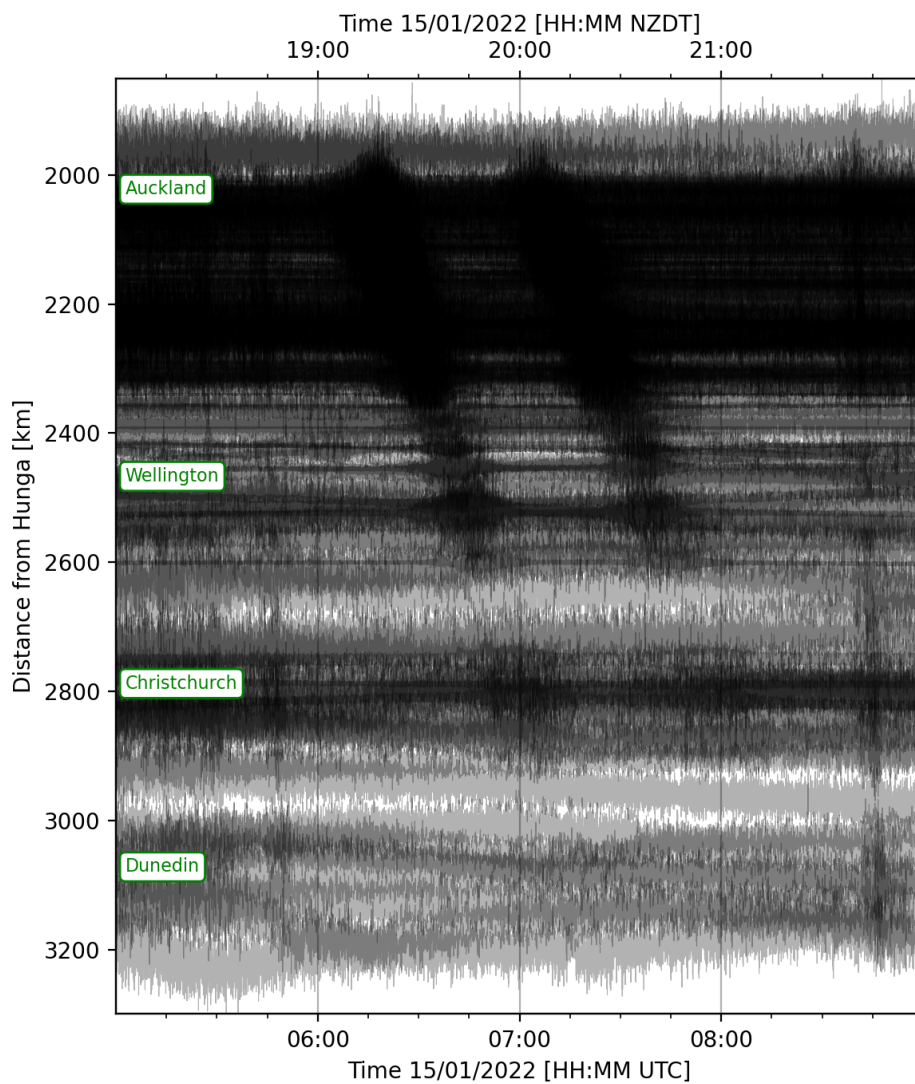


Figure S4: Unfiltered seismic data recorded across Aotearoa New Zealand after the Hunga eruption on 15 January 2022, highpass filtered at 20 Hz. Also plotted are distances of major cities in Aotearoa New Zealand.

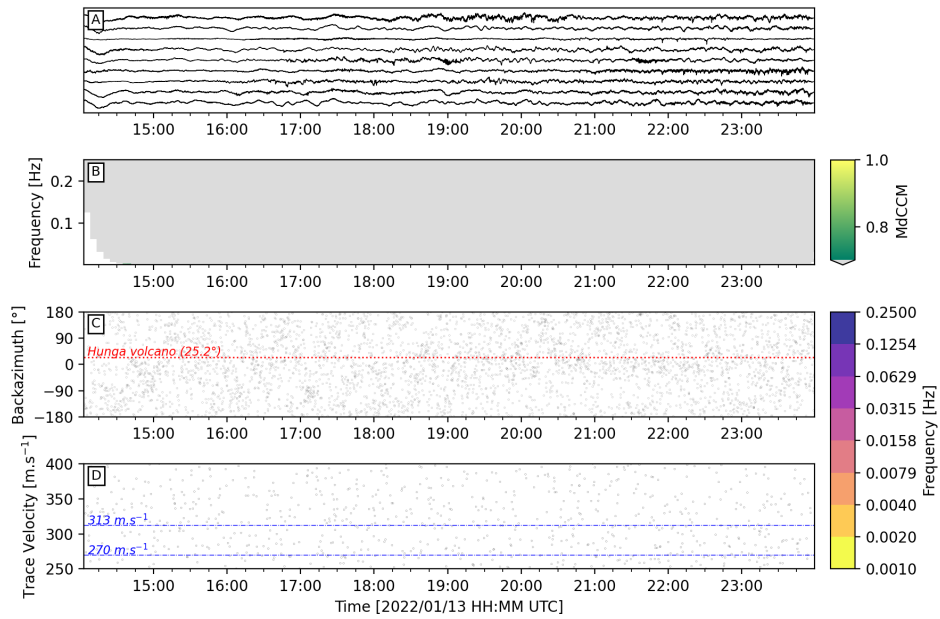


Figure S5: Results of array processing using microphones around the Tongariro-Ngauruhoe volcanoes for 13 January 2022. (A) Acoustic data as recorded by the stations used in the array processing, bandpass filtered at 0.001 to 0.25 Hz. (B) MdCCM for each time window and frequency band; estimations below the 0.7 threshold are coloured in grey. Each estimate is plotted at the end of their respective time window. (C) Back-azimuth and (D) Trace velocity estimates for MdCCM > 0.7 and $\sigma_\tau < 1$, coloured by frequency. Estimates which fall outside those thresholds are plotted as grey dots.

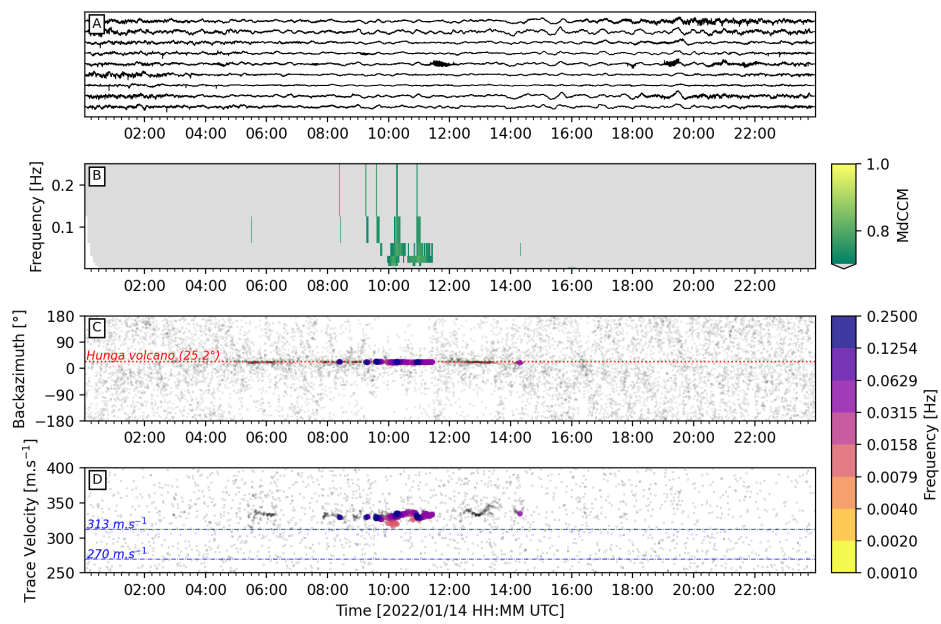


Figure S6: Results of array processing using microphones around the Tongariro-Ngauruhoe volcanoes for 14 January 2022. See caption for Fig. S5 for explanation of panels.