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2 **Inflation and Asymmetric Collapse at Kīlauea Summit**  
3 **during the 2018 Eruption from Seismic and Infrasound Analyses**

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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • We characterized the large seismic events at the Kīlauea summit using particle motion,  
15 infrasound, and seismic moment tensor inversion.
- 16 • Near-field seismic observation is essential to resolve the isotropic contribution due to  
17 inflation of the Halema'uma'u reservoir.
- 18 • Two independent moment tensor inversions show that the caldera collapsed  
19 asymmetrically along the northwest corner.  
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21

## 22 **Abstract**

23 Characterizing the large M4.7+ seismic events during the 2018 Kīlauea eruption is  
24 important to understand the complex subsurface deformation at the Kīlauea summit. The first 12  
25 events (May 17 - May 26) are associated with long-duration seismic signals and the remaining  
26 50 events (May 29 - August 02) are accompanied by large-scale caldera collapses. Resolving the  
27 source location and mechanism is challenging because of the shallow source depth, significant  
28 non double-couple components, and complex velocity structure. We demonstrate that combining  
29 multiple geophysical data from broadband seismometers, accelerometers and infrasound is  
30 essential to resolve different aspects of the seismic source. Seismic moment tensor solutions  
31 using near-field summit stations show the early events are highly volumetric. Infrasound data  
32 and particle motion analysis identify the inflation source as the Halema'uma'u reservoir. For the  
33 later collapse events, two independent moment tensor inversions using local and global stations  
34 consistently show that asymmetric slips occur on inward-dipping normal faults along the  
35 northwest corner of the caldera. While the source mechanism from May 29 onwards is not fully  
36 resolvable seismically using far-field stations, infrasound records and simulations suggest there  
37 may be inflation during the collapse. The summit events are characterized by both inflation and  
38 asymmetric slip, which are consistent with geodetic data. Based on the location of the slip and  
39 microseismicity, the caldera may have failed in a 'see-saw' manner: small continuous slips in the  
40 form of microseismicity on the southeast corner of the caldera, compensated by large slips on the  
41 northwest during the large collapse events.

42

## 43 **Plain Language Summary**

44 Characterizing the large seismic events that occurred at the Kīlauea summit is important to  
45 understand the subsurface deformation process during the 2018 eruption. There are a total of 62  
46 events where the first 12 events are accompanied with long-duration seismic signals and the later  
47 50 events are associated with large collapses within the caldera. There are several challenges in  
48 characterizing these events due to the complex volcanic environment that can be overcome by  
49 using multiple geophysical datasets including seismic waves that travel in the Earth and  
50 infrasound that travels in the atmosphere to provide a more complete perspective on the seismic  
51 source – its location and how it deforms. While the shallow magma reservoir at the summit  
52 experiences an overall deflation throughout the eruption, we found that the reservoir inflates  
53 temporarily during the earlier seismic events. For the later collapse events, the caldera slipped  
54 on only one side instead of a complete subsidence of the entire caldera which is commonly  
55 assumed. Our finding of both inflation and one-sided slip is consistent with other independent  
56 studies and suggests this asymmetric slip may be a common feature for basaltic volcanoes like  
57 Kīlauea.

58

## 59 **1 Introduction**

60 The 2018 Kīlauea eruption completely transformed the Kīlauea summit from its previous state of  
61 small-scale continuous eruptions, starting from the drainage of the lava lake at the vent within  
62 the Halema‘uma‘u crater to the eventual large-scale caldera collapse (Neal et al. 2019). During  
63 the 2018 eruption, 62 large seismic events were recorded at the Kīlauea summit: the initial 12  
64 events from May 17 to May 26 had moment magnitudes ( $M_w$ ) between 4.3 and 4.7, and were  
65 often accompanied by long-duration seismic signals; the remaining 50 events from May 29 to  
66 August 2 were stronger (average  $M_w$  5.3) and associated with broad scale collapses (Neal et al.,  
67 2019). These seismic events were potentially related to a dynamic, transient process at the  
68 subsurface reservoir. The presence of a shallow reservoir was well-established through modeling  
69 the eruption behavior at the summit prior to 2018 including the fluctuations of the lava lake  
70 level, several Very-Long-Period (VLP) seismic events, and deflation-inflation episodes.

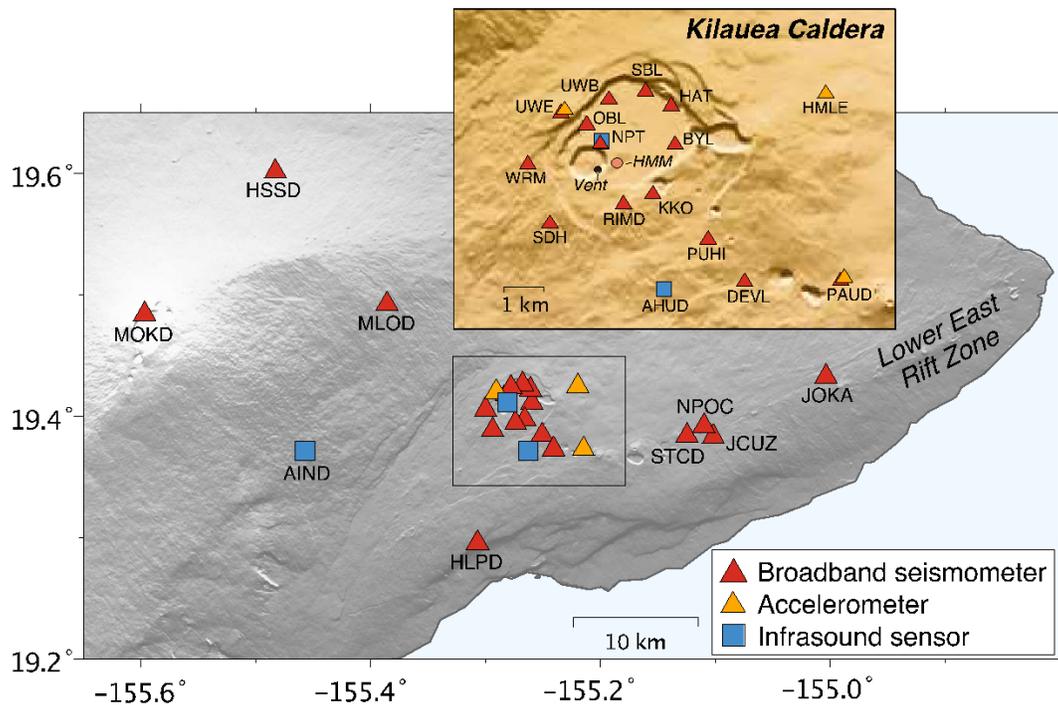
71 Analyses based on these observations including tilt inversion (Anderson et al., 2015), geodetic  
72 modeling using interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR) data (Baker and Amelung,  
73 2012), seismic modeling of the VLP events (Dawson et al., 2010; Chouet et al., 2010), and  
74 modeling of the lava-lake sloshing mode during the VLP events (Dawson and Chouet, 2014;  
75 Liang et al., 2020) pointed to a reservoir slightly east of the Halema‘uma‘u crater at a depth of  
76 between 1 - 2 km below the surface. The Halema‘uma‘u reservoir is thought to be hydraulically  
77 connected to the vent and the lava lake (Patrick et al., 2015), a deeper magma reservoir (Poland  
78 et al., 2014) and to the rift zone downstream (Anderson et al., 2015; Patrick et al., 2019). The  
79 geometry of the Halema‘uma‘u reservoir is modelled geodetically as a Mogi-type spherical  
80 source (Baker and Amelung, 2012) and an ellipsoidal chamber (Anderson et al., 2019), and  
81 seismically as an intersecting dual-dike system (Chouet et al., 2010).

82 Characterizing the seismic events in the 2018 eruption can help us to infer the deformation  
83 process beneath the summit and its relation to the overall eruption sequence. However,  
84 describing complex seismic source processes at volcanic regions is challenging due to  
85 observational limitations. Many caldera collapses at remote locations are monitored by seismic  
86 stations at teleseismic distances as in-situ stations are rare. As a result, seismic source studies are  
87 restricted to only using long-period surface wave data recorded in the far-field which have  
88 several disadvantages. First, long-period waves have little sensitivity to the focal depth for  
89 shallow sources. Given magma reservoirs can occupy a wide range of depths (1- 20 km),  
90 accurate determination of source depths can help pinpoint the deforming reservoir. Furthermore,  
91 due to zero traction at the free surface, long-period seismic waveforms related to dip-slip  
92 components are weakly excited for shallow seismic sources (Julian et al., 1998). Caldera collapse  
93 often generates shallow seismic sources with significant non double-couple contributions, i.e.  
94 volumetric and vertical compensated-linear-vector-dipole (CLVD), which are highly correlated  
95 (Kawakatsu, 1996). The correlated waveforms make it hard to distinguish source processes such  
96 as reservoir pressurization, crack opening or closing, or shear slip around a ring fault (Fukao et  
97 al., 2018; Sandanbata et al., 2021). The combined issues of indeterminate focal depth and weak  
98 excitation for shallow source can be overcome using higher frequency waves up to 0.15 Hz;  
99 However, the trade-off issue between the volumetric component and vertical CLVD still remains  
100 (Hejrani and Tkalčić, 2020). Characterization of non double-couple sources can be improved by  
101 increasing the coverage of the source focal sphere. An example is the analysis of the volcanic  
102 earthquake at the submarine Smith Caldera near the Izu-Bonin Arc in the western Pacific. The  
103 pressure gauge array which samples the upper hemisphere of the source radiation pattern,

104 recorded a strong tsunami motion, meaning the caldera seafloor is uplifted and this process could  
 105 not be uniquely determined from seismic data alone (Fukao et al, 2018).

106 The 2018 Kīlauea summit eruption were recorded by several types of geophysical instruments at  
 107 the summit and southern part of the island including broadband seismometers, accelerometers,  
 108 and infrasound arrays (Figure 1), providing a unique opportunity to characterize the seismic  
 109 sources and infer the underlying deformation process. In this study, we employed multiple  
 110 techniques including particle motion analysis, seismic moment tensor analysis, infrasound travel  
 111 time study, and infrasound simulations. Seismic moment tensor analysis using long period waves  
 112 provides a first-order constraint on the seismic source representation. We showed that near-field  
 113 summit stations are essential to resolve the volumetric contribution. Using regional data of  
 114 relatively high frequency waves also allows for stable inversions of the faulting mechanism.  
 115 Infrasound and particle motion analyses further provide the crucial constraints on source depth  
 116 and location which is hard to resolve from seismic source inversions alone. Finally, we  
 117 confirmed our results with an independent teleseismic moment tensor inversion, compared our  
 118 results to geodetic analysis, and described the chronology of the Kīlauea summit deformation.

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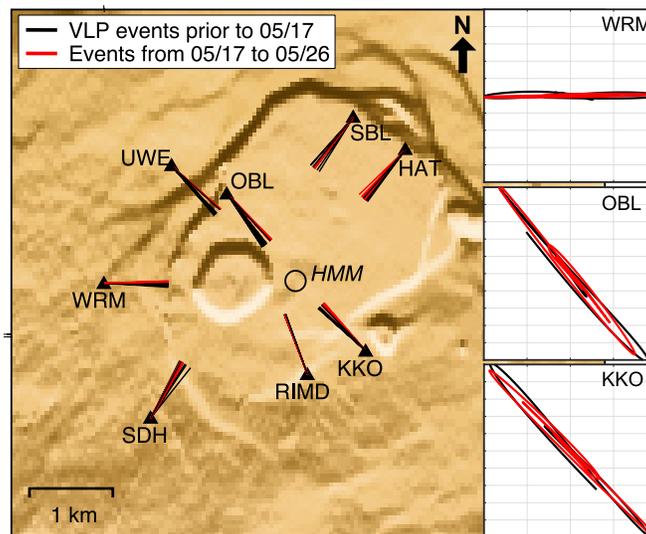
121 **Figure 1.** Map of Kīlauea Caldera and Lower East Rift Zone before the 2018 eruption. The inset  
 122 focuses on the summit including the smaller Halema'uma'u crater (dashed line), the vent with an  
 123 active lava lake (black dot) and the predicted centroid location of the Halema'uma'u (HMM)  
 124 magma reservoir (orange circle). The map also shows the regional geophysical instruments  
 125 maintained by USGS Hawai'i Volcano Observatory (HVO): broadband seismometers in red  
 126 triangles, accelerometers in yellow triangles, and infrasound sensors in blue squares.

127

## 128 2 Event location from particle motion analysis

129 Particle motion provides an independent constraint to locate the source and track how a seismic  
 130 source migrates, which is challenging in seismic moment tensor inversions due to reduced  
 131 sensitivity to location at long periods. Previous work by Kawakatsu et al. (2000) at Aso volcano  
 132 found that near field static displacements of large seismic events show a rectilinear polarization  
 133 pointing towards the source location. To measure the particle motions, we applied a long period  
 134 filter (20 – 50 seconds) to the seismic waveforms and measured the back-azimuth by treating the  
 135 two horizontal components as a covariance matrix and calculating the angle of rotation of the  
 136 eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue. Strong velocity heterogeneities and sharp topographic  
 137 change can distort the ray path from the direct great-circle path, causing the particle motions to  
 138 not project onto a common point. Liang and Dunham (2020) have shown that the seismic signals  
 139 from the past VLP events shortly before the first large explosive events originate from the known  
 140 Halema'uma'u (HMM) reservoir. Therefore, we compare the particle motion of individual  
 141 stations measured from the seismic events during the eruption and these VLP events to identify if  
 142 the source is the same. We found that the horizontal particle motions for the first 12 events (May  
 143 17 to May 26) overlap with the particle motions from the past VLP events, indicating an  
 144 identical seismic source localized at the HMM reservoir (Figure 2). The analysis using the radial  
 145 and vertical particle motions also showed minimal difference in the dip angle (Figure S1),  
 146 meaning the events have a common source depth, determined to be at 1 km by Liang and  
 147 Dunham (2020).

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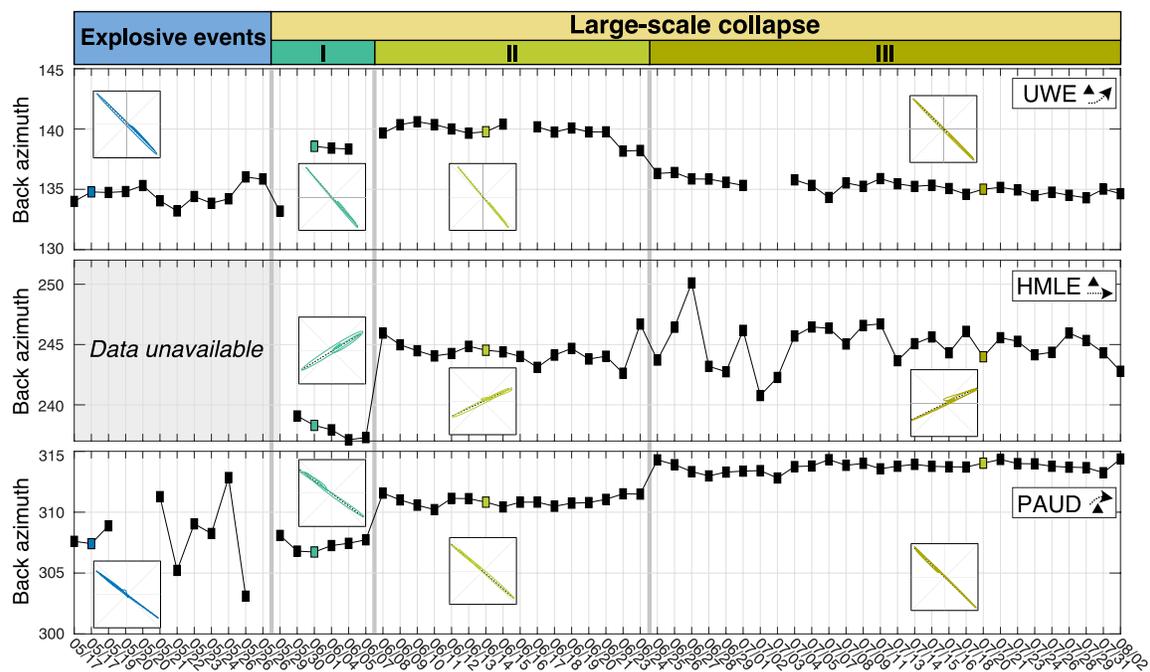


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150 **Figure 2.** Back azimuths of horizontal particle motions recorded by broadband seismometers on  
 151 the summit for the Very Long Period (VLP) events prior to May 17 (i.e., March 15, April 6, May  
 152 9 and events studied by Liang et al. (2019) between May 3 and May 7) and the first twelve  
 153 explosive seismic events (May 17 to May 26 in red). Right plots show the comparison of particle  
 154 motions from a VLP event to an explosive event recorded at station WRM, OBL and KKO.

155 We further analyzed the horizontal particle motion of the accelerometer recordings (UWE,  
 156 HMLE, and PAUD) which remained unclipped throughout the eruption. The particle motions are

157 measured using waveforms deconvolved to velocity and filtered at 0.03 to 0.08 Hz. The particle  
 158 motion showed four distinct episodes (Figure 3). For the first 12 events, the accelerometer  
 159 closest to the caldera, UWE, showed a consistent back-azimuth, indicating a localized source.  
 160 For the remaining 50 events, we see a small (less than 5 degree) but systematic change in back-  
 161 azimuth at station UWE and PAUD with a marked transition around June 7-8 and June 24-25.  
 162 The decrease in back-azimuth for UWE which is located northwest of the caldera, and the  
 163 increase in back-azimuth for PAUD, which is southeast of the caldera, suggest that the seismic  
 164 source is migrating eastward. Given HMLE is located to the east of caldera, we expect minimal  
 165 changes in the back-azimuth from an eastward migration of the source. The timing of the  
 166 transition determined by the particle motion corroborates with the changes in displacement  
 167 behavior observed by several global position system (GPS) stations at the caldera (Tepp et al.,  
 168 2020).



169

170 **Figure 3.** Back azimuths of horizontal particle motions recorded at three accelerometers (UWE,  
 171 HMLE and PAUD) for all large seismic events from May 17 to August 2. A selection of particle  
 172 motions for some events, which are color-coded, are plotted and the measured back azimuths are  
 173 marked in thick dashed line. The arrows in the top right insets show the direction of the source  
 174 migration with respect to the station location. Unreliable measurements are discarded. The  
 175 quality of the particle motion measurement is shown in Figure S2.

### 176 3 Moment tensor analysis using summit and regional stations

#### 177 3.1 Methodology

178 Seismic-source tensors provide important information about the deformation process including  
 179 event size, pressurization, and fault geometry. By decomposing the source tensor (e.g., Chapman  
 180 and Leaney, 2012), we can determine the relative contribution of the isotropic term, which  
 181 represents pressure change, and the deviatoric term which describes the displacement

182 discontinuity on a fault and can be further decomposed into double-couple (DC) and CLVD  
183 components. In this study, we used the generalized Cut-and-Paste (gCAP) moment-tensor  
184 inversion method (Zhao and Helmberger, 1994; Zhu and Helmberger, 1996; Zhu and Ben-Zion,  
185 2013) which allows independent time shifts for all three components while cross-correlating the  
186 predicted and observed waveforms to minimize the errors due to inaccurate event location and  
187 velocity model. The time-shift window is carefully selected to avoid cycle-skipping. The Green's  
188 functions are computed with the frequency-wavenumber method described in Zhu and Rivera  
189 (2002) using a 1-D velocity model constructed from a layer average of the 3-D local P-wave  
190 seismic tomography (Lin et al., 2014). We approximate the source time function with an  
191 isosceles triangle and determine the duration through grid search between 1 and 25 seconds.

192 We used a selection of broadband seismometers maintained by the USGS Hawaiian Volcano  
193 Observatory, 14 near-field stations within 3 km radius from the summit and 8 regional stations  
194 within 35 km radius (Figure 1). The near-field summit stations, which are directly above the  
195 source and sensitive to the upper hemisphere of the source radiation pattern, are crucial to  
196 determine the isotropic component of the moment tensor as the isotropic and vertical-CLVD  
197 terms produce similar azimuthal radiation patterns in the far-field. To illustrate, the synthetics  
198 from the GCMT solution, which has a strong vertical-P CLVD component, and the best  
199 deviatoric solution determined by gCAP fit the regional data and not the near-field data recorded  
200 at the summit (Figure S3 and S4). Full moment tensor solution that searches for all DC, CLVD  
201 and isotropic terms can fit the near-field data well for all azimuths (Figure 4a). However, these  
202 near-field data are only available for the initial 12 events and are clipped for the remaining 50  
203 events. Hence, we performed separate inversions for the early (Section 3.2) and later events  
204 (Section 3.3).

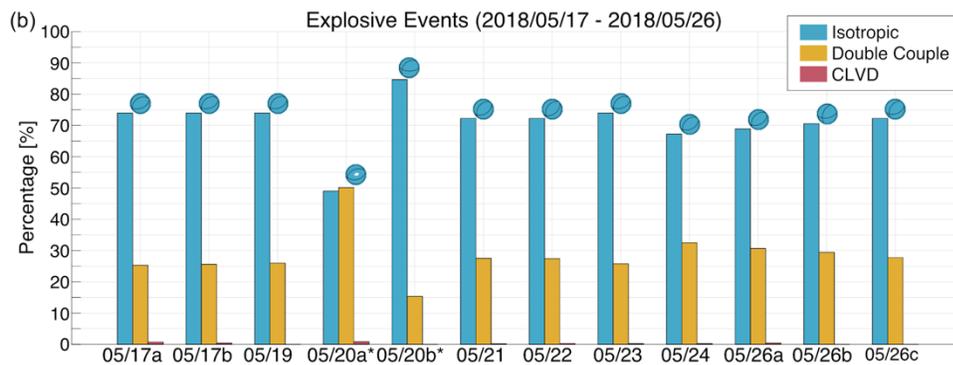
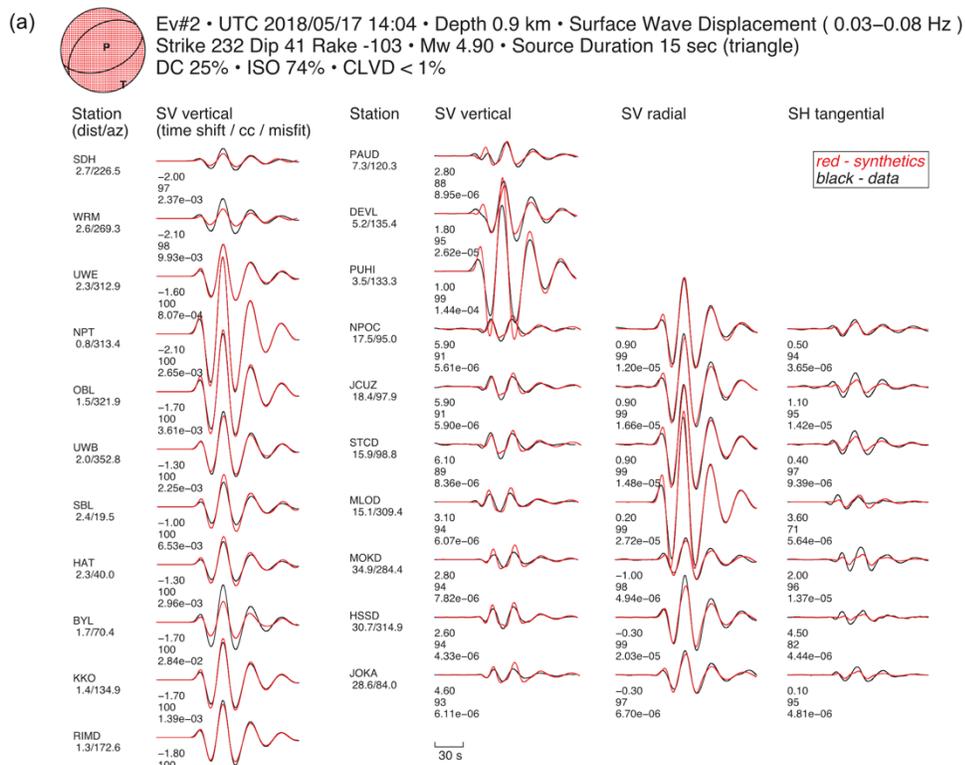
205 Stations further away on the island are not used as they do not show clear single elliptical-  
206 particle motions owing to a strong multipathing behavior, indicating surface waves arriving at  
207 multiple azimuths. Summit stations are limited to the vertical component as the horizontal  
208 components at long period are highly susceptible to tilt due to deflation or inflation processes  
209 (Wielandt and Forbriger, 1999). Waveforms recorded at near field ( $< 3$  km) are weighted less  
210 than the regional data to prevent their large amplitude from dominating the inversion results.  
211 Based on the particle-motion results, the source is set at the HMM reservoir ( $19.4069^\circ$ , -  
212  $155.2752^\circ$ ; from Baker and Amelung, 2012), which is similar to centroid location determined by  
213 Liang and Dunham (2020). The inversion is repeated for a range of source depths between 0.1  
214 and 5 km.

### 215 3.2 Early explosive events (05/17 – 05/26)

216 The full moment tensor inversion results show that for the first 12 events, the best-fit solutions  
217 have moment magnitudes between  $M_w$  4.37 to 4.95 with high isotropic contribution (average  
218 72.4%), significant DC (average 27.4%), and negligible CLVD ( $< 1\%$ ) (Figure 4b). The strike,  
219 rake, and dip of the focal mechanisms are also similar throughout the events (average 66/-72/49)  
220 and are stable as supported by the bootstrapping analysis (Figure S5). Grid search results show  
221 that most of the early events fit well at a depth range between 0.7 and 2.0 km, with the best depth  
222 at 900 m from the surface (Figure S6). The depth, with the uncertainty, is similar to the depths  
223 estimated for HMM reservoir from seismic studies at  $\sim 1$  km (Chouet et al., 2010; Liang and  
224 Dunham, 2020) and from geodetic inversions at  $\sim 2$  km (Baker and Amelung, 2012; Anderson et  
225 al., 2019).

226 The source durations of these events range between 10 to 20 seconds which are an order of  
 227 magnitude longer than the durations for similar-magnitude tectonic earthquakes (Kanamori and  
 228 Brodsky, 2004). The source durations correlate well with the length of the long-period pulse in  
 229 the raw waveforms (Figure S7) and have no obvious correlation with other parameters such as  
 230 event magnitude or event time. These long source durations are also consistent with the findings  
 231 by Flinders et al. (2020) using synthetic measurements derived from GPS where the durations  
 232 are best described by  $26 \pm 5$  seconds long radially outward and upward displacement ramp  
 233 function. Events 4 and 5 have exceptionally long source durations exceeding the period  
 234 bandwidth of the input waveforms hence their moment tensor solutions are unreliable. An  
 235 inspection on the broadband data also showed the two events are fairly complicated and appear  
 236 to have multiple short and distinct subevents, unlike the other events. The use of time shifts in  
 237 the gCAP inversion prevents us from determining the centroid time of the events.

238



239

240 **Figure 4. (a)** Plot of the best-fitting full moment tensor solution inverted for explosive event 2,  
 241 which is highly isotropic (74%) with the strike, dip and rake value of 232, 41 and -103  
 242 respectively. The waveforms are surface wave displacement filtered at 0.03 – 0.08 Hz. The  
 243 observed displacements are plotted in black and the synthetics in red. The distances measured in  
 244 kilometers and azimuth of the stations to the epicenter, and the time shifts used in gCAP,  
 245 correlation coefficient (cc) and waveform misfit are also listed. Note that the bandpass filter  
 246 applied will introduce Gibbs-ringing (as detailed in Flinders et al., 2020) to the waveforms (both  
 247 data and synthetics) but does not affect the moment tensor solution. **(b)** Graph shows the  
 248 similarity of the best-fitting full moment tensor solutions, focal mechanisms, and the  
 249 contributions of the isotropic, CLVD, and double-couple components for the 12 explosive events  
 250 between May 17 and May 26. The moment tensor solutions for events 4 and 5 (May 20a and  
 251 May 20b), marked with asterisks, are poorly determined due to the anomalously long source  
 252 duration.

253

### 254 3.3 Late collapse events (05/29 – 08/02)

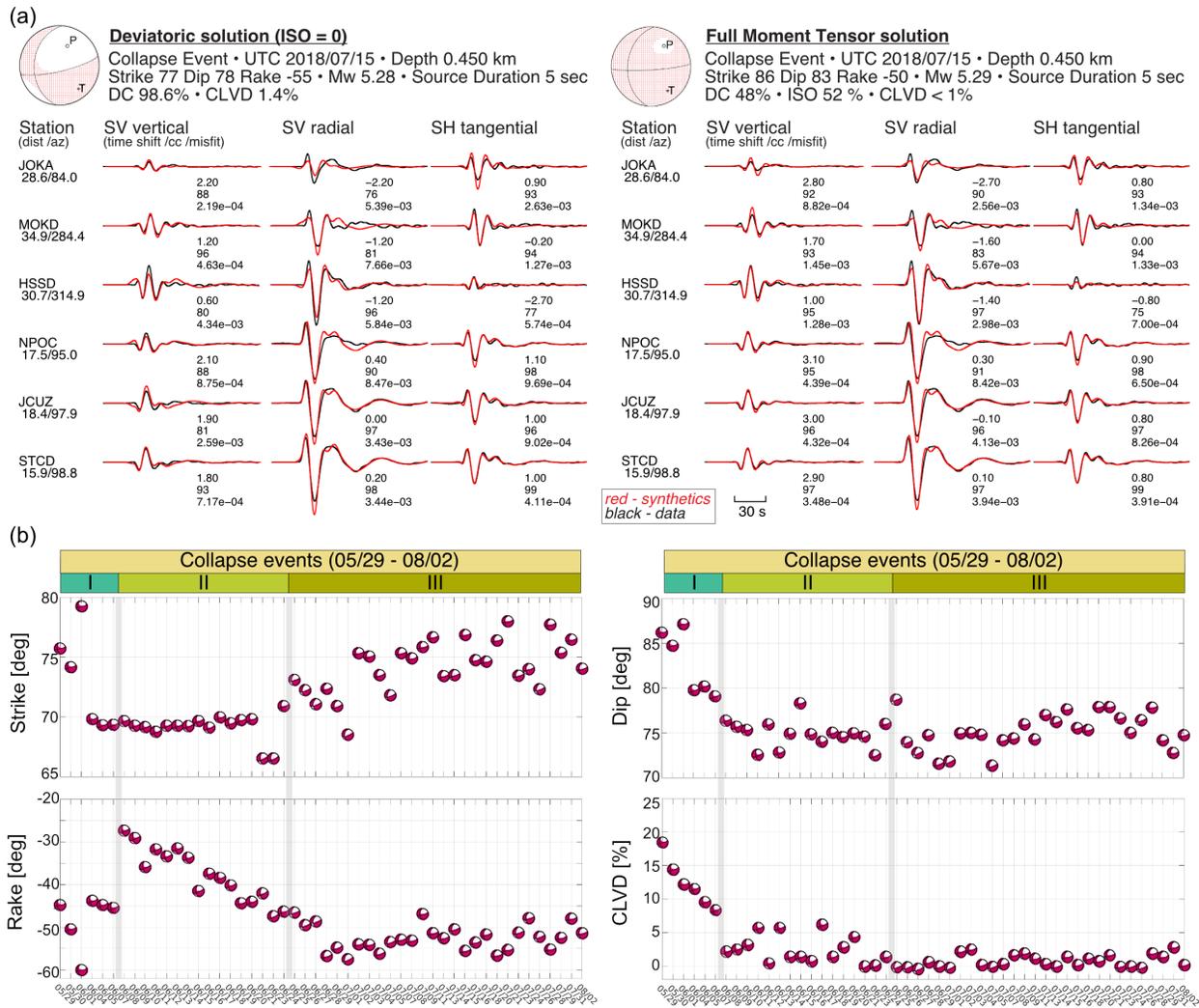
255 For the later events, the isotropic contribution cannot be determined due to the fits of deviatoric  
 256 and full moment tensor solutions to the waveforms being similarly good (Figure 5a). Hence, we  
 257 focused on the deviatoric solution to resolve the fault geometry (strike, rake, dip) and the  
 258 strength of CLVD term. The input waveforms are filtered between 12.5 to 50 seconds (0.02-0.08  
 259 Hz). The hypocenter is fixed at the HMM reservoir location as the regional waveforms are  
 260 insensitive to the small changes in location around the caldera. The source depth is fixed at 450  
 261 m, informed by infrasound simulations (details in Section 4.2). The preferred source duration is 5  
 262 seconds based on grid search results. Bootstrapping analysis showed that there is a tight  
 263 constraint on the focal mechanism despite the small number of stations (Figure S8).

264 The inversion results show that the remaining 50 events are shear slips along inward-dipping  
 265 normal faults with minimal CLVD component (< 5%) (Figure 5b). The events evolve throughout  
 266 the eruption with three marked transitions in the focal mechanisms. Between May 29 to June 7,  
 267 the events have a relatively high CLVD term (maximum 20 %) with an average strike/rake/dip of  
 268 73/-50/75. From June 8, the strength of CLVD term decreases, along with changes in the strike,  
 269 rake, and dip to a new average of 69/-38/75 until June 25 when the focal mechanism stabilized  
 270 and remained fairly constant until the end of the collapse sequence. The later focal mechanisms  
 271 have a small CLVD component, and an average strike, rake, and dip of 74/-52/75., The  
 272 transitions coincide with the changes in particle motion determined from accelerometers which  
 273 show the source migrated eastward over time (Figure 3). The nodal plane is selected to be  
 274 striking northeast-southwest in order to be consistent with the increasing strike value and the  
 275 eastward source migration along the caldera. The inversion results suggest the roof block above  
 276 the caldera has collapsed asymmetrically at its northwest corner, instead of a commonly assumed  
 277 complete ring-fault slip. There may be a significant volumetric component associated with these  
 278 events as observed in the rapid inflationary steps in tilt data (Anderson et al., 2019; Segall et al.,  
 279 2019), but is not resolved for these events.

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283

284 **Figure 5. (a)** Figure shows both best fitting deviatoric (left) and full moment tensor (right)  
 285 solutions for collapse event 51 (July 15, 2018) can fit the regional waveforms well. The observed  
 286 displacements are plotted in black and the synthetics in red. The distance and azimuth of the  
 287 stations to the epicenter, and the time shift used in gCAP, correlation coefficient (cc) and  
 288 waveform misfit are listed. **(b)** Figure shows the best-fitting deviatoric solutions for all 50  
 289 collapse events between May 29 to August 2. The changes in strike, rake, dip, and CLVD  
 290 component follow closely the transitions (marked by grey lines) observed in the particle motion  
 291 measurements (Figure 3).

292

#### 293 4 Source depth from infrasound analysis

294 Infrasound are pressure waves with frequencies below 20 Hz that can be generated during a plume  
 295 eruption into the atmosphere or by shallow seismic source which its seismic energy couples with  
 296 the free surface and propagates in the air at acoustic sound velocities (Fee and Matoza, 2013). As  
 297 infrasound is sensitive to upward radiating energy like the near-field summit stations, it can  
 298 provide additional constraint on the source processes (e.g., Fukao et al. 2018). During the 2018  
 299 eruption, the nearby AHUD infrasound array recorded a variation in infrasound arrival-time and

300 waveform shape (Figure S9). For each event, we can compute the theoretical arrival time based on  
301 the sound velocity and the distance from the vent to the sensor. For the first 12 events, AHUD  
302 records fairly weak pressure signals, with occasional strong-upward pulses that are significantly  
303 delayed from their expected acoustic arrival times. These upward pulses are also observed during  
304 the VLP events prior to the large seismic events on March 15, April 6 and May 9. For the remaining  
305 50 events, there are two distinct arrivals: (1) weak high frequency waves traveling at seismic  
306 Rayleigh-wave velocity and (2) a strong low frequency pulse with initial downward polarity  
307 traveling at acoustic speed.

#### 308 4.1 Infrasond observations for early events

309 The arrival time of the compressional peaks are clearly observed by infrasond sensors at multiple  
310 distances (< 1 km, 4.5 km and 19 km; Figure 6a). The origin time is assumed to be the catalog  
311 origin time for the events during the eruption and the seismic arrival time at the closest seismic  
312 station (NPT; < 1 km) for the previous VLP events. The waveforms are plotted at reduced time,  
313 which is the total time subtracted by the travel time from the vent to the sensor. On March 15 and  
314 April 6, we observed that the strong infrasond peak arrived at about the zero mark which is the  
315 expected acoustic arrival time. From May 9 to May 26, the arrival of the infrasond peak is  
316 progressively delayed in time. The time delay observed has some similarities to that at Miyake-  
317 jima (Kobayashi et al., 2005) where the signal traveled along a conduit at a distinct velocity before  
318 propagating as an infrasond pulse at acoustic speed from the vent to the sensor. While the signal  
319 is interpreted as acoustic signal at Miyake-jima, given the large time delay (up to 33 seconds), it  
320 is unlikely that the infrasond pulses are direct pressure waves from the seismic source as the  
321 expected maximum time delay of these waves propagating up a hot conduit is around 3 to 5  
322 seconds (~400 m/s (Morrissey and Chouet, 2001) at 1 – 2 km conduit). Simulation results also  
323 suggest the infrasond pulses from the inflation at depth are weak (details in Section 4.2).

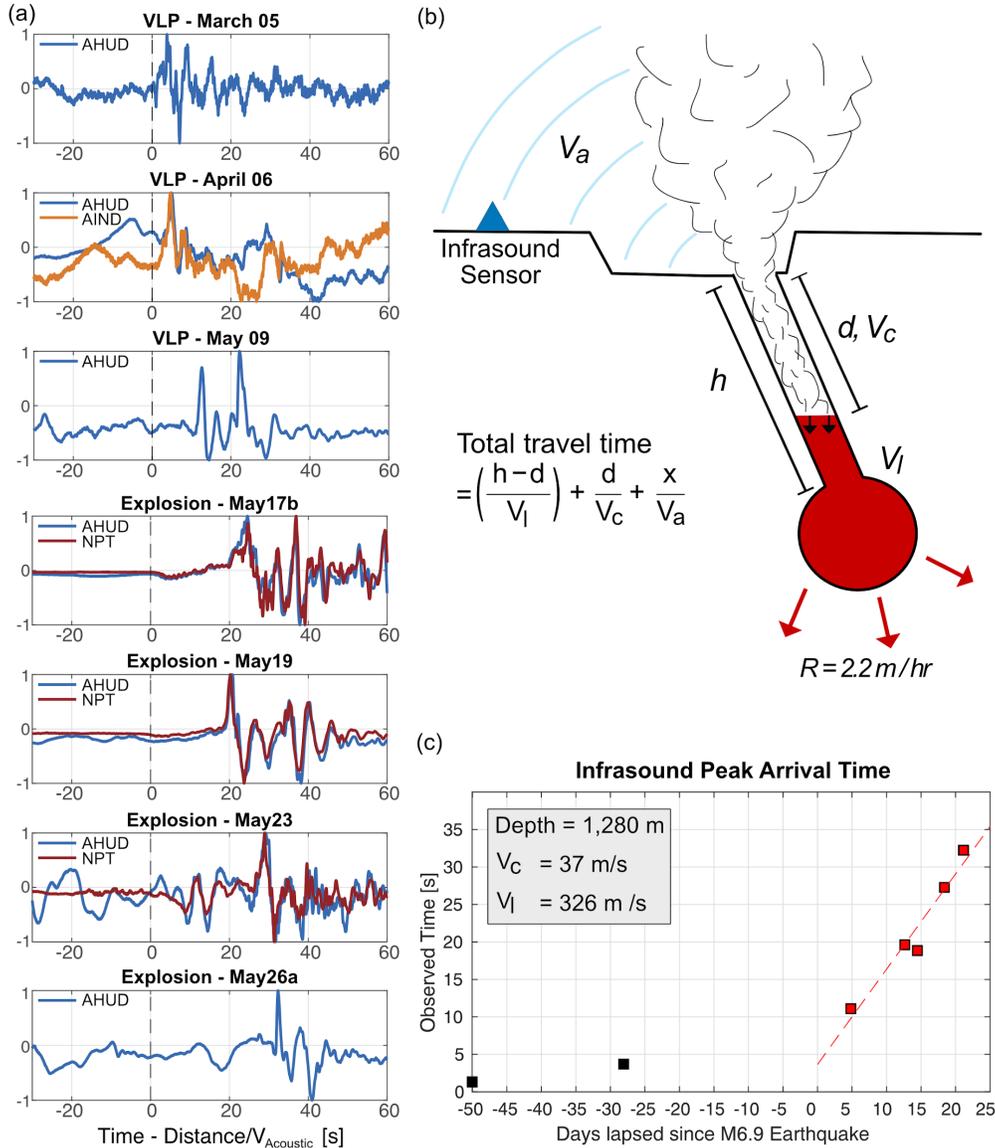
324 We hypothesize the infrasond pulse is to be a result of gas emission during the seismic event. Gas  
325 emission at volcanoes has been correlated to compressional acoustic pulse (Johnson and Lees,  
326 2000). The gas emission initiates at the reservoir depth, rises upward through a connected path and  
327 exits at the vent. The path could be a collection of dikes but is modelled here as a simple conduit  
328 as we lack details on the dike formations. The gas expansion at the vent creates an upward  
329 compressional pulse and the time delay is governed by the speed of gas rising the conduit. The  
330 propagation time in the conduit is controlled by the lava lake elevation, which was visible at the  
331 vent throughout the spring of 2018 and started draining at an estimated rate of 2.2 meter per hour  
332 on May 2 (Anderson et al., 2019). Theoretically, when the conduit was completely filled, the signal  
333 arrived at the sensor at a time corresponding to the vent-to-sensor distance. As the lava lake began  
334 to drain, the length of drained conduit increased, delaying the infrasond pulse. Towards the end  
335 of the first 12 events, the lava level is assumed to reach the reservoir depth and the entire conduit  
336 was drained. Factors like clear or clogged path and amount of gas accumulation can affect the  
337 effectiveness of gas expelling from depth. These factors may explain the varying infrasond pulse  
338 amplitude where pulses from the earlier events are more impulsive as the path is less drained and  
339 hence potentially less clogged.

#### 340 4.2 Source depth constrained from infrasond

341 From the infrasond arrival-time measurements, we constrain the velocity of the gas rising, the  
342 speed of degassing signal in the lava medium and most importantly the length of the conduit. The

343 relation between the arrival time of the infrasound pulse and the propagation distance is described  
 344 as total time,  $t_{total} = (1/V_c)d + (1/V_l)(h - d) + (1/V_a)x$ , where  $h$  is the length of conduit,  $d$  is the  
 345 length of the drained conduit,  $x$  is the distance from the vent to the sensor,  $V_c$  is the velocity of the  
 346 gas rising,  $V_l$  is the compressional velocity of the magma, and  $V_a$  is the acoustic speed at surface  
 347 (Figure 6b). The term  $(1/V_a)x$  is known and  $V_a$  is determined from the average slowness of the  
 348 pulse crossing the AHUD infrasound array, at 340 m/s. Assuming the draining rate,  $R$ , remains  
 349 constant over the course of the eruption,  $d$  is calculated by taking  $d = R\Delta T$ , where  $\Delta T$  is the time  
 350 elapsed between each eruption. To estimate  $h$ ,  $V_c$ , and  $V_l$ , an additional condition is needed. Based  
 351 on the hypothesis, an appropriate condition is that the entire length of the conduit is completely  
 352 drained by event 12, that is  $t_{last} = (1/V_c)h$ . Event 12 had a very weak infrasound pulse, so we take  
 353 the clear signal from a slightly earlier event on the same day (Event 10) as an approximation. With  
 354 this condition and the infrasound time measurements, we obtained the values of  $V_c$ ,  $V_l$  and  $h$  from  
 355 a simple linear regression of the total time,  $t_{total}$  and time elapsed,  $\Delta T$ . The uncertainties given in  
 356 parentheses are obtained based on 95% prediction interval of the slope. We estimated  $h$  to be 1280  
 357 (851 – 1778) m,  $V_c$  to be 37 (26 – 55) m/s, and  $V_l$  to be 326 (137 – 1702) m/s (Figure 6c). The  
 358 estimated  $h$  is slightly deeper than the depth of the seismic source obtained from the seismic  
 359 moment tensor inversion at 900 m, but still within the uncertainty from inversion (0.7 to 2 km).  
 360 The estimated  $h$  is also consistent with the lava lake elevation at the end of the explosive events at  
 361 1260 m, which is estimated from the draining rate (Figure S10). The value of  $V_c$  is in the same  
 362 order of magnitude as strong Strombolian-type degassing (31 – 34 m/s in Patrick et al. (2007); 38  
 363 – 53 m/s in Taddeucci et al. (2012)) and is comparable to the previously recorded plume velocities  
 364 at Kīlauea (ranging between 5.8 and 16.6 m/s in Fee et al. (2010)). The value of  $V_l$  in the order of  
 365  $\sim 100$ s to  $\sim 1000$ s m/s suggests that it is not the velocity of fragmentation wave in the magma (which  
 366 is in the order of  $\sim 10$ s m/s, e.g., Alidibirov, 1994; Spieler et al., 2004) but more likely the  
 367 compressional velocity of magma with some fraction of bubbles (in the order of  $\sim 100$ s m/s, e.g.,  
 368 Kumagai and Chouet, 2000). However, we will not overly interpret  $V_l$  as the uncertainty of  $V_l$  is  
 369 large. Given  $V_l$  is at least an order of magnitude larger than  $V_c$ , the infrasound time delay is  
 370 governed by the inverse of rising gas speed,  $V_c$ .

371



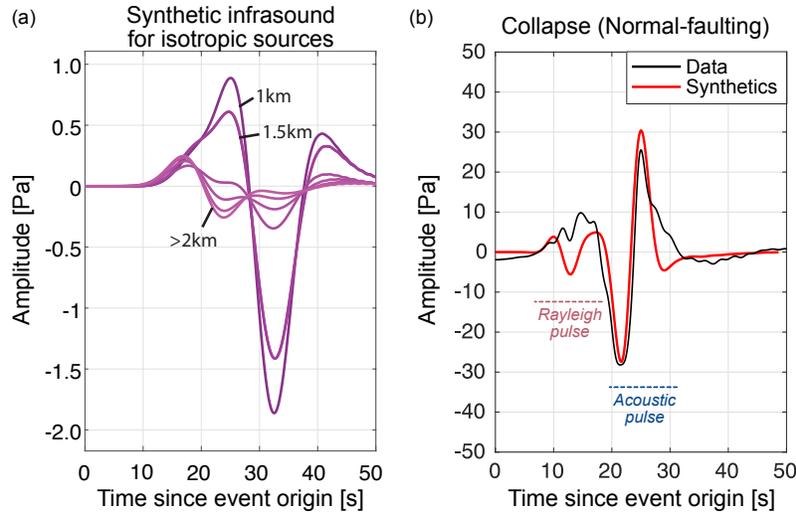
372

373 **Figure 6. (a)** Plot shows the raw infrasound data for three VLP events and four selected  
 374 explosive events. The data are plotted in normalized amplitude at reduced velocity, corrected for  
 375 the travel time from the vent to the sensor. **(b)** Schematic shows the variables involved in  
 376 calculating  $h$ , i.e. length of the conduit, which include:  $d$ , the length of the drained conduit;  $x$ , the  
 377 distance from the vent to the sensor;  $V_c$ , the velocity of the rising plume;  $V_i$ , the compressional  
 378 speed of the magma; and  $V_a$ , the acoustic speed at surface. The lava lake is draining at an  
 379 estimated speed of  $R$  (2.2 m/hr from Anderson et al., 2019). **(c)** Graph shows the observed time  
 380 delay in the peak arrival against the number of days elapsed since the M6.9 earthquake. The  
 381 estimated values of  $h$ ,  $V_c$  and  $V_i$  are obtained from linear regression using the events marked in  
 382 red.

### 383 4.3 Infrasound simulation for explosive and collapse events

384 We also tested the infrasound data against the seismic moment tensor solutions. To simulate, we  
 385 used a hybrid Galerkin – 2D spectral element method (Brissaud et al., 2017) which accounts for

386 the elastic wave propagating away from the seismic source and the acoustic wave generated due  
 387 to the coupling between solid Earth and atmosphere. The effects of atmospheric structure and  
 388 variability can be ignored for short distance simulation (4.5 km). Simulation using the highly  
 389 isotropic solution from the earlier events generates synthetics which have very weak amplitudes  
 390 and arrive at the expected acoustic travel times (Figure 7a), supporting the previous hypothesis  
 391 that the observed late strong upward pulse does not originate from seismic source. For the later  
 392 collapse events, infrasound simulations using the deviatoric moment tensor solution are able to  
 393 reproduce the seismic-acoustic coupling of both the early, high frequency Rayleigh pulse and the  
 394 late, low frequency, high amplitude acoustic pulse (Figure 7b).



395

396 **Figure 7. (a)** Plot shows the comparison of synthetic infrasound generated at different source  
 397 depths using the moment tensor solution from Event 2 which is highly isotropic. **(b)** Plot shows  
 398 the comparison of observed infrasound (black) with synthetics (red) from the predominantly  
 399 normal faulting moment tensor. The synthetic fits the early Rayleigh pulse and the downward  
 400 acoustic pulse but does not fit the late broad peak at 25 seconds. Both data and synthetics are  
 401 filtered with a second-order Butterworth filter from 0.04 to 0.5 Hz.

402

403

404 We prefer to use the amplitude ratio between the acoustic and Rayleigh pulses rather than the  
 405 absolute amplitude. There are a few factors which makes modeling the absolute amplitude  
 406 challenging: the primary one being the near-surface velocity model which is not easy to  
 407 characterize but can greatly amplify the acoustic pulse (Martire et al., 2018). Using the amplitude  
 408 ratio can mitigate some of the potential biases in the choice of velocity model and 2d modelling  
 409 assumptions. For comparison, we scaled the synthetics to match the amplitude of the observed  
 410 downward acoustic pulse. The amplitude ratio is highly dependent to the source depth. For a  
 411 shallow source, the acoustic pulse is amplified compared to the Rayleigh pulse (Figure S11),  
 412 which is consistent with the infrasound observations for underground nuclear explosions  
 413 (Averbuch, 2020). For source depths shallower than 1 km, the amplitude ratio is large due to  
 414 stronger Rayleigh pulse; for deeper source depths, the amplitudes for both pulses are similarly

415 weak. Other factors such as a slow layer near the surface do not affect deeper sources and can  
416 further increase the amplitude ratio for shallow sources (Figure S11).

417 Webcam recordings (from HVO) and geodetic measurements (Segall et al., 2020) suggest there  
418 is roof subsidence during each collapse events, which is reinforced by the similarity of the  
419 infrasound observations at Kīlauea and at Miyake-jima in which Fujiwara et al. (2014) explained  
420 the observation at Miyake-jima with partial roof subsidence. While surface subsidence can  
421 generate infrasound signal, we recognize the subsidence is caused by the normal-faulting event,  
422 and by simulating the earthquake source directly, we can model the infrasound signal and use it  
423 to provide constraints on the seismic source depths which is important for the moment tensor  
424 analysis. Based on qualitative comparison with the observed amplitude ratio, we estimate that the  
425 seismic source of the collapse events should be at depths shallower than 1 km. For seismic  
426 magnitude of Mw 5.0, the rupture length is close to 1 km (Kanamori and Anderson, 1975).  
427 Hence, we set the source centroid depth at 450 m for the moment tensor analysis (Section 3.3) to  
428 mimic fault rupturing all the way to the surface.

429 The infrasound data has a late strong peak arriving at 25 seconds which is broader than the initial  
430 downward pulse (Figure 7). The normal faulting solution, however, cannot fully fit the observed  
431 signal and only produces synthetics with peak equal or weaker amplitude and symmetric in pulse  
432 width compared to the downward pulse, regardless the source depths and near-surface source  
433 model. This mismatch in amplitude and duration may potentially be accounted for by isotropic  
434 sources at 1 – 1.5 km depth, which has a weak peak arriving at the right time range, and points to  
435 a potential dual process of normal-faulting and inflation during the collapse event. While the  
436 topography is not expected to play a significant role for low-frequency acoustic waves, a detailed  
437 analysis which considers other important factors such as the interplay between the choice of  
438 source time function and velocity model is needed to accurately reproduce the absolute  
439 amplitude and is beyond the scope of this study.

## 440 **5 Discussion**

### 441 5.1 Factors controlling isotropic component

442 Seismic moment-tensor characterization is key to identify the source mechanism during volcanic  
443 eruptions (e.g., Bárðarbunga, Iceland (Gudmundsson et al., 2016; Ágústsdóttir et al., 2019),  
444 Piton de la Fournaise, Réunion Island (Duputel and Rivera, 2019; Fontaine et al., 2019), Miyake-  
445 jima, offshore Japan (Kumagai et al., 2001), and Kīlauea, Hawaii (Alvizuri et al., 2021; this  
446 study). However, there are several factors that can affect the moment tensor, in particular the  
447 resolved isotropic component. In this study, we emphasized the necessity of using near-field data  
448 to constrain the isotropic component and using other independent observational data to constrain  
449 depth. In Figure S12, we found that without the near-field data, the full moment tensor solutions  
450 for explosive and collapse events have negative isotropic component across all depths, indicating  
451 implosion which is inconsistent with the inflationary signal observed in tilt and GPS (Anderson  
452 et al., 2019). The results of negative isotropic component hold regardless of the choice of  
453 velocity models. This unstable inversion is due to the trade-off between the vertical-P CLVD and  
454 negative isotropic components at distant stations. There is also a strong correlation between  
455 depth and the strength of the isotropic component. Seismic moment tensor inversions alone have

456 limited sensitivity for depth as they give similar error misfits for a range of depth with the  
 457 smallest misfit at deeper depths. Therefore, other independent data, such as particle motion and  
 458 infrasound, are important to constrain depth and, in turn, the isotropic component.

459 In our moment tensor analyses, the volumetric component is represented by an isotropic inflation  
 460 at a spherical source. However, the  $M_{xx}$  and  $M_{yy}$  components dominate over  
 461 the  $M_{zz}$  components (see moment tensor catalog in Supporting Information), suggesting that the  
 462 inflation may occur along vertical cracks, analogous to the intersecting-dike system inferred  
 463 by Chouet et al. (2010). This uneven amplitude ratio between the principal moments is also  
 464 observed at Miyake-jima (Kumagai et al., 2001). Note that, the true  $M_{zz}$  may be greater than  
 465 measured seismically as  $M_{zz}$  is preferentially damped in seismic observations for shallow seismic  
 466 sources due to zero traction at the free surface.

## 467 5.2 Asymmetric slip resolved from teleseismic moment tensor inversion

468 The 2018 Kīlauea caldera collapse bears much resemblance to the 2014 Bárðarbunga caldera  
 469 collapse in Iceland where the seismicity focused on one corner of the caldera and at shallow  
 470 depths not deeper than 4 km (Ágústsdóttir et al., 2019). The source mechanisms at Bárðarbunga  
 471 were also predominantly double-couple on inward-dipping normal faults. This asymmetric slip  
 472 differs from the commonly assumed piston-type collapse where the entire ring fault slips during  
 473 the caldera collapse. To confirm the partial ring-fault slip, we conducted another independent  
 474 moment tensor inversion for all 50 collapse events using very long period teleseismic waves  
 475 (over  $\sim 100$  s) to solve for the deviatoric solution. An advantage in using very-long period data is  
 476 that complex velocity structures around the caldera will not affect the inversion results.

477  
 478 Because the small contribution to very long period seismic waves by the dip-slip components in  
 479 shallow sources, there are large uncertainties in estimating the dip angle and seismic moment  
 480 (Sandanbata et al., 2021). Hence, following the method in Sandanbata et al. (2021), we  
 481 constrained the ring fault geometry by focusing only on the resolvable components of the  
 482 inverted moment tensor: vertical CLVD ( $\mathbf{M}_{vCLVD}$ ) and strike-slip ( $\mathbf{M}_{SS}$ ) components (Text S1;  
 483 Figure S13). This resolvable moment tensor ( $\mathbf{M}_{RES} = \mathbf{M}_{vCLVD} + \mathbf{M}_{SS}$ ) relates to the ring-fault  
 484 geometry in two ways. Firstly, the ratio of CLVD moment to the resolvable moment ( $k_{CLVD}$ )  
 485 positively correlates the short arc angle or the fraction of the ring fault that slipped (Figure  
 486 S13c). Secondly, the direction of the pressure (P) axes of  $\mathbf{M}_{SS}$  gives the orientation of the fault  
 487 plane measured at the midpoint of the curved fault (Figure S13d). The P-axis orientation and the  
 488 relationship between  $k_{CLVD}$  and the arc angle are independent of dip angle and scalar seismic  
 489 moment and hence can be estimated without the dip-slip component. The procedure for the  
 490 inversion is in Text S2. Note that there is a trade-off between vertical-P CLVD and pure positive  
 491 isotropic sources due to the similarity in far-field waveforms (Figure S14) but we found that  
 492 estimation of  $k_{CLVD}$  is only reduced even when we assume an additional pure positive isotropic  
 493 component for the inversion (see Text S2). Hence, we constrained zero isotropic contribution for  
 494 the inversion to estimate the upper limit of the  $k_{CLVD}$  value, enabling us to infer the maximum arc  
 495 angle of the ring fault that slipped.

496  
 497 The results from the moment tensor inversion using global stations for all the 50 collapse events  
 498 show normal-faulting focal mechanism with consistent  $k_{CLVD}$  value and P-axis orientation  
 499 (Figures S15 and S16). The  $k_{CLVD}$  value is small, indicating the ring fault has partially slipped

500 with an arc angle less than  $90^\circ$ . The P-axis has a strike of northeast-southwest, which suggests  
501 the fault plane can be either along northwest or southeast corner of the ring fault. The teleseismic  
502 moment tensor solution is consistent with the inward-dipping normal faulting solution derived  
503 using regional stations and supports an asymmetric slip during the collapse events. The evolution  
504 in focal-mechanism properties throughout the collapse events, as seen in the local moment tensor  
505 inversion, cannot be observed at very-long periods.

### 506 5.3 Reconciling seismic, infrasound and geodetic observations

507 The characterization of the large seismic events at the Kīlauea summit sheds light on the  
508 underlying mechanisms driving the complex sequence of early VLP-dominant events and  
509 subsequent broad-scale collapse events. Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the  
510 VLP signals at the Kīlauea summit, including (1) gas slug ascending, expanding and eventual  
511 bursting, exciting the VLP signal at depth (Chouet et al., 2010), and (2) rockfalls impacting the  
512 lava lake, triggering both plume and VLP signal from the pressure transient transmitted along the  
513 conduit (Orr et al., 2013). Early in the 2018 eruption, large ash plumes were frequently observed.  
514 However, many of these plume eruptions occurred outside of the VLP-dominant events, some  
515 after the events have ceased, hence the VLP seismic signal and ash plume generation may not be  
516 necessarily linked. On the other hand, the consistency of the seismic source at the Halema'uma'u  
517 reservoir depth, obtained through particle motion studies, seismic moment tensor inversion, and  
518 infrasound analysis, suggests that the magma reservoir governs the seismic behavior. One way to  
519 generate a volumetric seismic signal is by pressurizing the magma chamber through an intrusion  
520 of an overburden roof or 'piston', resulting in transient expansion in reservoir, similar to the  
521 mechanism suggested for Miyake-jima volcano (Kumagai et al., 2001) and for Kīlauea from  
522 geodetic observations (Segall et al., 2019, 2020). Rockfall could also be a possible trigger. As the  
523 conduit empties during the eruption, rockfalls may become more frequent, generating explosions  
524 and degassing signals almost simultaneously. However, the seismic characters of the later  
525 collapses can be explained dominantly by fault slipping, hence we suggest the early seismic  
526 events are a result of fault slipping into the Halema'uma'u reservoir, driven by magma  
527 withdrawal from summit.

528 Our finding is consistent with the geodetically-inferred 'slip and inflation' model by Segall et al.  
529 (2019 and 2020) where during the caldera collapse, the roof block slips into the Halema'uma'u  
530 reservoir, inducing a proportionate inflation within the reservoir. In particular, the GPS  
531 displacement pattern imposes that the slip should occur along a steep inward-dipping normal  
532 fault, which is consistent with our resolved focal mechanisms of shear slip along inward-dipping  
533 normal fault with an average dip of  $75^\circ$ . Unlike a symmetric ring-fault slip proposed by Segall et  
534 al. (2019 and 2020), two independent moment-tensor inversions show that the later collapses slip  
535 partially along the northwest corner of the caldera. The partial faulting may explain the  
536 asymmetry observed in GPS displacement where the geodetic model under-predicts the  
537 displacements along the northwest and southeast corners; and over-predicts those on the  
538 orthogonal corners.

539 With the constraints from near-field stations, particle motion and infrasound, we could conclude  
540 that an extended inflation occurred at the Halema'uma'u reservoir during the earlier events, as  
541 suggested by the long seismic source duration (10-20 seconds). There is also evidence for the  
542 'slip' process expected from the inflation as all the early events show substantial (25%) double-  
543 couple contribution with strike, rake and dip values consistent to a normal faulting behavior.

544 Based on the InSAR data, the slip may occur on a buried fault and only cause a minor surface  
545 depression close to the predicted center of the Halema'uma'u reservoir (Anderson et al., 2019).

546 For the later collapses, seismic data can detect the slip process but not the corresponding  
547 inflation which is inferred from the infrasound-simulation results. The particle motions from the  
548 accelerometer data were also able to track the evolution of the slip which radiates most of the  
549 seismic energy. However, we postulate that the slip process happens before the inflation, which  
550 is consistent with the process described in 'slip and inflation' model (Segall et al., 2019 and  
551 2020). Butler (2018) compiled stacked antipodal PKIKP polarities for the collapse events that  
552 capture the initial seismic energy propagating vertically downward away from the collapse  
553 source to the antipodal ends in southern Africa. These PKIKP phases show dilatational first  
554 motions which only fit solutions with minimal isotropic component at less than 5% (Figure S17),  
555 supporting an initial slip process.

#### 556 5.4 Chronology of the Kīlauea summit deformation

557 The chronology of the summit deformation during the 2018 eruption is summarized in Figure 8.  
558 The drop of lava lake elevation beginning May 2 indicates a reduction in the magma reservoir  
559 pressure (Anderson et al., 2019), causing the inert fault structures within the caldera which was  
560 previously supported by the reservoir pressure to fail. The slip intruded into the Halema'uma'u  
561 chamber, pressurized the chamber at depth, and generated long-duration volumetric signals. The  
562 slip could potentially trigger gas escaping at depth in two ways: (1) by promoting magma  
563 fragmentation with the dynamic pressure perturbation or (2) via the "stomp-rocket" model  
564 proposed by Shelly and Thelen (2019), in which the sudden compression due to the collapsing  
565 roof block expels the accumulated gas at the top of the reservoir and generates infrasound pulse.  
566 Given the low speed of magma fragmentation (in Section 4.2), the "stomp-rocket" model is most  
567 probable, and it also fits our hypothesis of how the infrasound pulse is generated, which is by gas  
568 rising from depth and expanding at the vent.

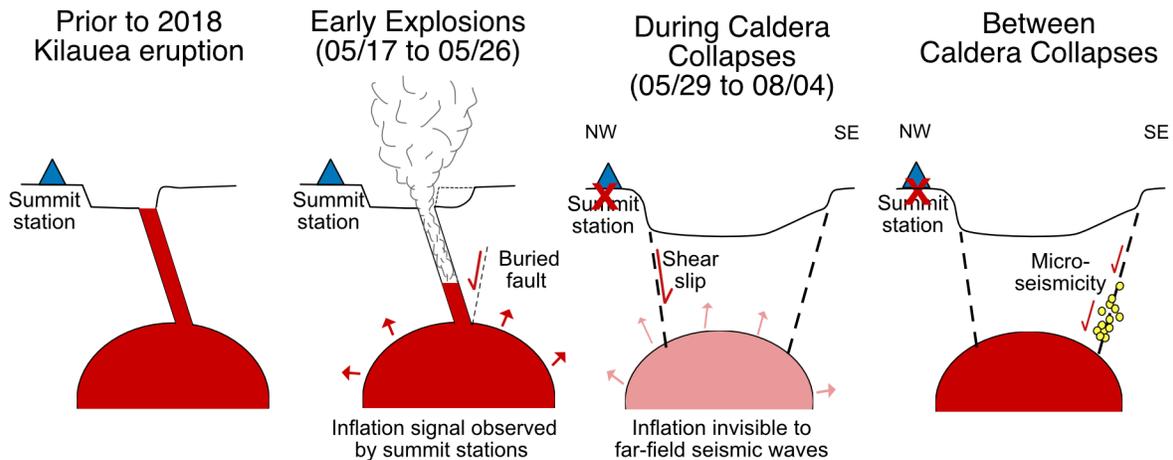
569 The transition from the early inflationary events to the later collapse events is intriguing as it  
570 coincides with a coalescence of fissure eruptions at the Lower East Rift Zone to a single fissure  
571 (Fissure 8) with high effusion rate (Neal et al., 2019). This high effusion rate may have  
572 accelerated the decrease of magma pressure at the summit, driving a series of normal-faulting  
573 collapse events. The initial collapses (May 29- June 7) have a relatively high CLVD component  
574 (~12%), which is an apparent effect of slip along curved faults. The later collapses (June 8 – 24,  
575 June 25 – August 2) have little CLVD component, indicating the faults are more linear. The rake  
576 also becomes increasingly negative and stays constant from June 25 onwards, suggesting the  
577 faulting behavior is becoming purely normal. Based on the increasing strike value and the  
578 eastward source migration observed in particle motion, the slips developed over time across  
579 continuous fault-like structures bounding the caldera. This fault could be the reactivation of a  
580 pre-existing ring-fault, the development of a new ring-fault structure or failures along pre-  
581 existing dike structures.

582 The most notable characteristic is that the caldera collapse is asymmetric, confined to the  
583 northwest corner of the caldera. There are a few potential scenarios that may have encouraged  
584 such asymmetry. Prior to 2018, Kīlauea summit has experienced multiple episodes of fissure  
585 eruption, most recently in 1974 on the floor of Halema'uma'u crater (Holcomb, 1987) with  
586 similar strikes to the ones obtained in this study. The repeating eruption may have created  
587 heterogenous mechanical properties across the caldera, which fails under different stress

588 thresholds, and contribute to the observed asymmetric collapse. The asymmetry can also be  
 589 formed as the summit is subjected to a prevalent extensional stress due to a seaward motion of  
 590 the volcano's south flank (Poland et al., 2014), which is reflected in the similar orientation of the  
 591 pressure and tension axes observed in all the seismic events. The asymmetry does not preclude  
 592 an overall subsidence of the roof block as a limited number of GPS stations within the caldera  
 593 measured downward vertical displacement during the collapse (Neal et al., 2019), but indicates  
 594 there is a more substantial slip on the northwest side.

595 The majority of the relocated large collapse events in Shelly and Thelen (2019) occurred at the  
 596 northwest corner of the caldera, consistent with our findings (Figure S18). Shelly and Thelen  
 597 (2019) also relocated the microseismicity clusters in between the caldera collapses and  
 598 interestingly, they show a strong asymmetry, concentrating at the eastern half of the caldera  
 599 opposite of the collapse fault plane. The occurrence frequency of the microseismicity has a  
 600 consistent pattern of increasing from few and peaking right before the collapse event. The final  
 601 topography images show an overall subsidence of the roof block by the end of the eruption  
 602 (Lundgren et al., 2019), which may give the impression that the roof block dropped in a single  
 603 block during each collapse. However, given the distribution of large slip and microseismicity, it  
 604 is possible that the roof piston may have failed in a 'see-saw' manner in two stages: small  
 605 continuous slips in the form of microseismicity on the southeast corner of the caldera,  
 606 compensated by major large slips on the northwest corner during the large seismic events.

607



608

609 **Figure 8.** Schematic shows the chronology of the Kīlauea summit deformation during the 2018  
 610 Kīlauea eruption: (1) Prior to the eruption, the lava-lake level reached the vent and started to  
 611 decrease on May 2. (2) The early seismic events show strong inflation signal observed by  
 612 summit stations and are accompanied by occasional plume eruptions. Shear slip occurring on  
 613 buried fault may cause a minor surface depression. (3) The asymmetric collapses are  
 614 characterized as normal faulting along inward dipping fault on the northwest corner of the

615 caldera. Inflations cannot be resolved without the summit stations. (4) In between the large  
616 collapses, microseismicity cluster are observed mostly at the southeast corner of the caldera.

## 617 **6 Conclusions**

618 Seismic and infrasound data reveal a complex deformation process at the Kīlauea summit during  
619 the large seismic events, involving both inflation of the Halema'uma'u reservoir and a dominant  
620 asymmetric slip along the northwest corner of the caldera. Near-field summit stations were  
621 crucial to resolve the volumetric contribution in the early explosive events. Although the  
622 inflation for the later collapses cannot be resolved, the fault geometry for the later collapses, i.e.,  
623 slip along inward-dipping normal fault, were determined using two independent moment tensor  
624 inversions. Infrasound data and particle motion analysis provide further constraints on source  
625 migration pattern, source location and length of the lava lake conduit above the Halema'uma'u  
626 reservoir. The asymmetric collapse at Kīlauea can explain other features including  
627 microseismicity distribution and overestimation in geodetic modeling.

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635 webservices (<https://doi.org/10.7914/SN/HV>). The moment tensor catalogs are provided with  
636 details in the Supporting Information.

637

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