

## Article

# Volcanic Gas Hazard Assessment in the Baia di Levante Area (Vulcano Island, Italy) Inferred by Geochemical Investigation of Passive Fluid Degassing

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**Abstract:** In a volcanic area, the composition of air is influenced by the interaction between fluids generated from many different environments (magmatic, hydrothermal, meteoric, and marine). Any physical and chemical variation in one of these subsystems is able to modify the outgassing dynamic. The increase of natural gas hazard, related to the presence of unhealthy components in air, may depend on temporary changes both in the pressure and chemical gradients that generate transient fluxes of gases and can have many different causes. Sometimes, the content of unhealthy gases approaches unexpected limits, without clear warning. In this case, an altered composition of the air can be only revealed after accurate sampling procedures and laboratory analysis. The investigations presented here are a starting point to response to the demand for a new monitoring program in the touristic area of Baia di Levante at Vulcano Island (Aeolian archipelago, Italy). Three multiparametric geochemical surveys were carried in the touristic area of Baia di Levante at Vulcano Island (Aeolian archipelago, Italy) in 2011, 2014, and 2015. Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) are the main undesired components, usually present at the local scale. Anomalous CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S outputs from soil and submarine bubbling vents were identified; the thermal anomaly of the ground was mapped; atmospheric concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S were measured in the air 30 cm above the ground surface. Atmospheric concentrations above the suggested limits for the wellbeing of human health were retrieved in open areas where tourists stay and where CO<sub>2</sub> can accumulate under absence of wind.

**Keywords:** gas hazard; environmental pollution; passive degassing; carbon dioxide; hydrogen sulfide; thermal mapping

## 1. Introduction

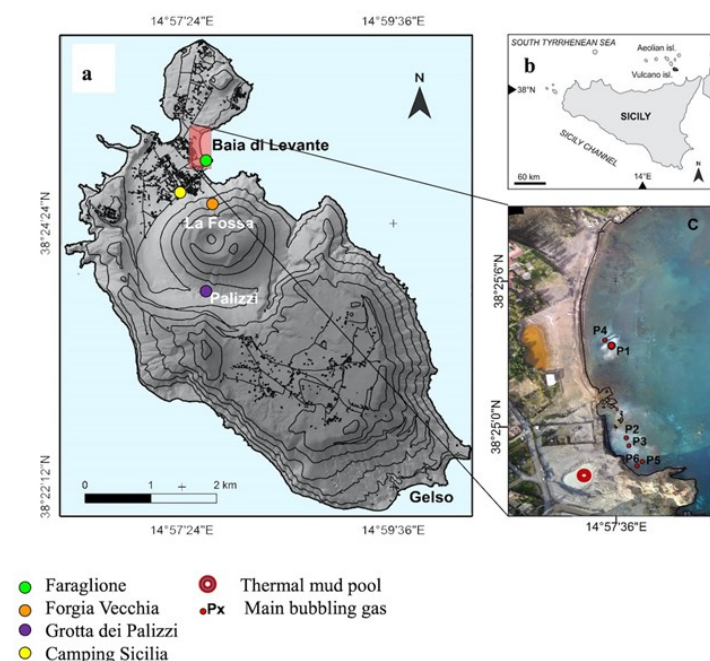
The passive release of fluids from hydrothermal and magmatic sources marks the interruptive periods of a volcanic system. Fluid permeability distribution, ruled by regional tectonic and/or caldera ring faults, controls the pathway toward the surface for magmas and hydrothermal fluids. Its changes have important implications in terms of mineralization, geothermal exploration, and the assessment of volcanic hazard [1–7]. Furthermore, the soil degassing activity can generate gas hazard, asphyxiation, or poisoning

in depressed areas, allowing the accumulation of harmful gases, especially under low wind conditions [8,9].

The best-known example worldwide is the event that occurred at Lake Nyos (Cameroun) in 1986 [10], where 1700 people died due to the release of a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> from the lake during the night. In the same country, two years earlier (1984), a limnic eruption occurred at Lake Monoun, where the release of a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> killed 38 people. In addition to sudden catastrophic events, attention must also be paid to the long-term release of hazardous gases that can affect human health: prolonged contact with harmful gases, albeit at low concentrations, can cause irreversible damage to health.

Among the volcanic/hydrothermal gases, hydrogen sulfide and carbon dioxide are the most commonly related to gas hazard conditions and are heavier than air. Hydrogen sulfide is an irritant, asphyxiant, inhibitor of metabolic enzymes [11], and at high concentrations is classified as poisonous [12,13]. It has a low odor threshold (its smell may be detected below 1 ppm), but at concentrations above 100 ppm, its detection ability is affected by a rapid temporary paralysis of the olfactory nerves, resulting in loss of the sense of smell. It can generally provoke headache, nausea, vomiting, confusion, paralysis, diarrhea, cough, breath shortness, pulmonary oedema, and eye and throat irritation. Carbon dioxide is asphyxiant and odorless, and that makes it extremely insidious. Health hazards related to CO<sub>2</sub> exposure may occur depending on the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inhaled and related exposure times, with progressive harmful effects ranging from headaches to increased frequency of heartbeat and, finally, death. For these reasons, these gases are named “the silent killers”.

Critical gas hazard conditions occur in volcanic areas with a high touristic vocation, where thousands of people arrive mainly in the summer season, such as at Vulcano Island in the Aeolian archipelago (Italy). For this reason, we focused our attention on the anomalous soil degassing area of Baia di Levante, where critical concentrations of harmful gases have been detected in the past. Here, in the summer of 1988, two children died of asphyxiation [9,14,15]. Again, in April 2015, a 9-year-old French child, closely approaching an undersea vent near the shoreline of the Baia di Levante area (Figure 1), was seriously intoxicated/asphyxiated by the emitted gases.



**Figure 1.** (a) Map of Vulcano Island (elevation contour interval 100 m) with location of the Baia di Levante area and of the main anomalous soil degassing points. (b) Location of Vulcano Island. (c) Detail of the Baia di Levante area with location of the main undersea hydrothermal vents from P1 to P6.

This last episode further marked the need for gas hazard evaluation in the Baia di Levante area, prompting the present work that is based on a multiparametric approach articulated in (i) identification and positioning of the main fluids emissions, (ii) determination of the chemical composition of the emitted fluids, (iii) quantification of diffuse soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux, (iv) thermal mapping of the area by both direct measures and thermal imagery, and (v) determination of atmospheric concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub> at ground level.

All these data were plotted on high-resolution digital elevation models (DEMs), digital surface models (DSMs), and orthophotos from unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs). We compared these new measurements with previous surveys and information from the INGV volcanic monitoring program, with the aim of depicting the ongoing degassing dynamic of the Baia di Levante area and its implications for gas hazard evaluation.

## 2. Geologic Framework and Volcanic Activity

The central and southern part of the Aeolian Archipelago lies on NNW–SSE-trending fault of a transpressive belt [16], characterized by a dominant right-lateral shear mechanism [17]. The island of Vulcano (Figure 1) resulted from a series of constructive and destructive stages of volcanic activity, from which the two main edifices lifted up: Vulcano Primordiale (120–100 ka) [18] and La Fossa cone, active during the last 6000 years [19]. La Fossa cone produced explosive activity events, characterized by phreatic and phreatomagmatic eruptions. The composition of the volcanic products ranges from calc-alkaline to shoshonitic series [20,21].

Two eruptive centers were active in the Baia di Levante area during the last 3000 years: the Faraglione tuff cone and the Vulcanello composite cone. The Faraglione Formation consists of highly fumarolized surge deposits, emplaced between 2.9 and 1.9 ka. The Vulcanello Formation is a 30 m thick succession of massive lava flows (shoshonites), associated with thin scoriae deposits and pahoehoe-type lavas (1.9 ka) [19].

The last eruption took place at La Fossa cone from August 1888 to March 1890 [22,23]. Since then, the closed-conduit volcanic system has been characterized by an intense fumarolic activity on the summit of La Fossa cone, a small (391 m a.s.l., 2 km in diameter), <5 ka old pyroclastic edifice, and diffuse CO<sub>2</sub> degassing from the soil [24,25]. Fumarolic fields are mainly distributed in the northern part of the island, in the Baia di Levante area and on the top of La Fossa cone (Figure 1a). The highest soil CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes are measured at Forgia Vecchia, Grotta dei Palizzi, Faraglione, and, occasionally, Camping Sicilia (Figure 1a).

The exhalative activity is periodically modulated by degassing crises lasting from a few months to a few years, associated with a weak shallow seismicity [26–30]; their main characters are increments in the diffuse soil [31] and fumarole [32] degassing, temperature (up to 700 °C) and steam, and other magmatic gases output increments from the fumarolic field of La Fossa cone [33].

The first changes in exhaling activity were documented between 1913 and 1916, when the fumarolic emissions increased either in number and/or intensity [34]. The volcanic surveillance program, active here since the early 1980s, allowed us to identify other degassing crises in 1988, 1996, 2004, and 2010 [15,31,32,35,36], with a character resembling a long-term cyclic behavior [29,30] and giving clues of functional relationships with seismic activity, either volcanic or tectonic [5,24,26,28]. Episodes of intensification of soil degassing, accompanied by sporadic variations of the gas/steam ratio, both in the summit and peripheral areas of the volcanic system, have been recorded [4,8,15,24,31,33,35,37–39].

At Baia di Levante, fumaroles are fed by a shallow hydrothermal aquifer heated by magmatic gases [39–49]. The distribution of the natural fluid discharges is strongly affected by the local fracture network [50]. These structural discontinuities are the local expression of the deformation field, dominated by a northward motion of the island [17,51]. The last variation of the exhaling activity at Baia di Levante, characterized by CO<sub>2</sub> dominated fluids with a few percent of H<sub>2</sub>S [52], started in 2010 and is still ongoing.

### 3. Geochemical Characterization of Baia di Levante Fluids

Currently, fumaroles are widespread in the northwestern sector of the crater rim and along the Baia di Levante beach. The associated hydrothermal system, ranging from 0.5 to 1.5 km in depth [41,47,53], feeds the solfataric activity. This hydrothermal system receives heat and fluids from the magmatic source, with a shallow magma chamber at a depth of 2–3 km b.s.l., and it seems to be periodically fed by deep fluids released by an underlying reservoir [54,55].

The Baia di Levante area is characterized by the presence of low-temperature fumaroles (<100 °C) and seafloor vents close to the shoreline, and it represents one of the most anomalous soil degassing areas of Vulcano Island [31]. The chemical composition of bubbling gases is CO<sub>2</sub>-dominant, associated with a few percent of H<sub>2</sub>S and hundreds of ppm of CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> [52,56,57]. Table 1 reports literature data and compositions determined in this study for the main vents.

**Table 1.** Chemical composition of bubbling gases at Baia di Levante, from references and measured in this study (TS); the letters between brackets in the site field indicate the identifier of the point as in the original text. Values are in ppm for H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub>, and in %vol for N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>S.

Site	Date	H <sub>2</sub>	O <sub>2</sub>	N <sub>2</sub>	CO	CH <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> S	Ref.
P1 (Vulcanel. 2)	May 1995	774	0.0001	1	b.d.l.	710	97.8	1.02	[16]
P1 (Vulcanel. 2)	November 1995	568	0.06	1	b.d.l.	960	97.8	1.05	[16]
P1 (Vent)	April 2011	4	0.21	1.5	0.4	1700	98.0	0.04	[57]
P1	July 2015	321	0.02	0.76	0.5	945	95.4	2.49	TS
P1	September 2015	22	0.07	0.78	0.5	1031	94.6	2.21	TS
P2 (Fum. Mare)	May 1995	4600	0.0001	0.6	b.d.l.	760	96.7	2.16	[16]
P2 (Fum. Mare)	November 1995	6600	0.0002	0.8	b.d.l.	550	97.7	1.51	[16]
P2	July 2015	11,400	0.03	0.84	1.6	710	93.2	3.2	TS
P2	September 2015	13,700	b.d.l.	0.86	1.4	783	93.8	3.04	TS
Mud Pool (Vasca Ipp.)	May 1995	479	b.d.l.	0.69	0.2	2010	96.9	2.47	[16]
Mud Pool (Vasca Ipp.)	November 1995	554	5	0.66	0.15	2240	97.3	1.86	[16]
Mud Pool	September 2015	2154	1.14	7.49	1.4	606	95.1	2.54	TS

The amount of carbon dioxide has been almost constant over time, while the reducing species, such as H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub>, have shown large relative variations. Furthermore, H<sub>2</sub>S contents show a wide areal variability [52]. This variability has been ascribed to a different interaction between hydrothermal fluids and shallow waters such as seawater and weakly acid meteoric waters.

### 4. Methods

#### 4.1. DEM, DSM, and Orthophotos

DEMs were acquired by using a lightweight UAV (1.1 kg quadricopter Phantom 3 Dji) equipped with an onboard digital camera, GPS, and autopilot system. This system was coupled with a well-suited photogrammetry and mapping device (Lens FOV 94°—20 mm, Sony Sensor EXMOR 1/2.3", effective pixel resolution of 12.4 M). Data acquisition from the entire survey was accomplished by a combination of two missions in a uniform crossed-

grid pattern. The missions were performed at an altitude of 50 m and a speed of 4 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The acquisition of 132 frames supplied a coverage of the entire area.

A set of ground control points (GCR) were used for georeferencing the digital model. A GPS NAVCOM SF-3040, with angular accuracy of 1 cm, allowed the locations of the selected GCRs. The photo-frame overlap was user-set in the 75–85% range, allowing for high-quality photogrammetric images matching. The technique of structure-from-motion (SfM) was applied. The SfM technique consists of an automated method for the production of high-resolution digital surface models (DSMs) with standard cameras [58–60]. The aerial survey photographs were processed into georeferenced orthoimages, a high-resolution digital surface model (DSM), and digital elevation model (DEM) using the photogrammetric 3D reconstruction technology software by Agisoft PhotoScan (Agisoft LLC, St. Petersburg, Russia, 2015).

#### 4.2. Thermal Mapping

On July 2015, a Thermal Flir camera 620T, handheld and tripod-mounted, was used to estimate the surface temperatures with an accuracy of  $\pm 2$  °C. The camera was set up to record temperatures in the calibration range from  $-20$  to  $250$  °C, according to the environmental conditions and the variety of fumarole temperatures expected in the field survey. The camera was calibrated before and after the survey, with a variable temperature target. The initial preprocessing of the TIR imagery involved the conversion of at-sensor-radiance values to surface temperature using a first-order correction for atmospheric absorption, surface emissivity, and environmental temperature effects using the ResearchIR Software. This correction included the distance from the target to the camera, the temperature, and the humidity content of the atmosphere. An emissivity value of 0.95 was used for the first-order correction to an appropriate value for this kind of volcanic rock.

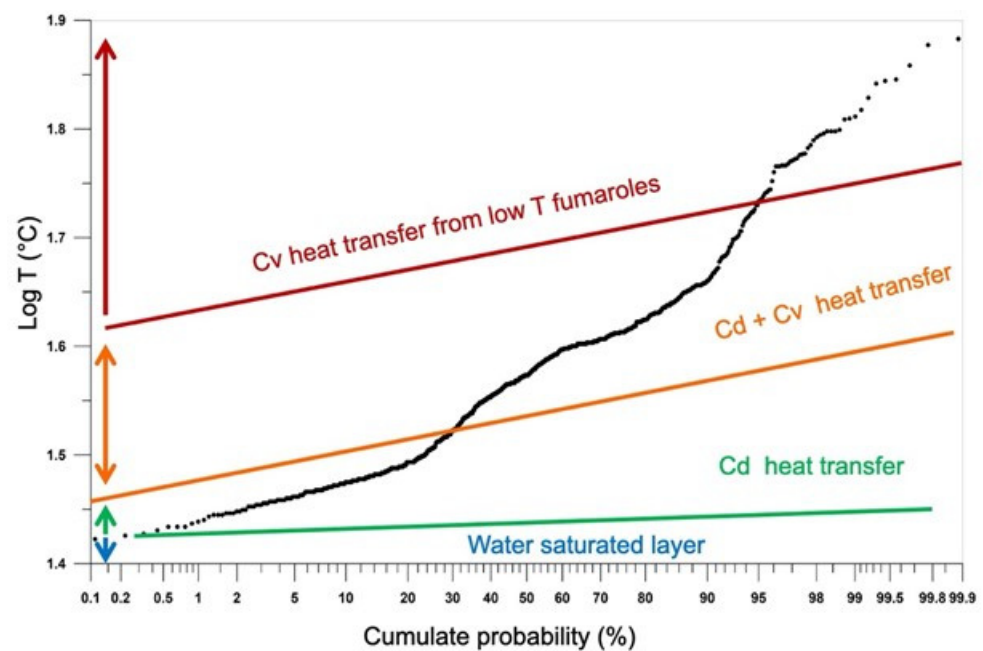
On July and September 2015, additional direct temperature measurements were performed with different instruments for a comparison with the IR thermal acquisitions. A close IR acquisition was carried out along the coastline using a “Pyrogips” instrument [61]. The optical distance between the temperature detector of Pyrogips and the targeted surface was 0.8 m, with a maximum detectable temperature of  $250$  °C. During the time of measurements, the atmospheric conditions were constant and the interception of steam or vapor clouds was avoided. The restricted pixel surface ( $12.5 \times 10^{-4}$  m<sup>2</sup>) and the proximity between the measuring device and the targeted surface guaranteed the thermal homogeneity at the sub-pixel scale.

The surveyed area was covered with 900 measurements, processed both with the graphical statistical approach (GSA) and the stochastic simulation approach. The GSA method allowed identifying the different populations in the datasets (Figure 2), according to the graphical procedure as described by [62]. The dataset was converted by normal score transformation to follow a Gaussian distribution. The normal score-transformed dataset was used to compute omnidirectional variograms and was finally interpolated with the sequential Gaussian simulations (sGs) method to produce 100 realizations.

The final maps were produced, averaging results of the 100 simulations, using the E-type post-processes method [63,64]. In these maps, only the dry ground was considered for temperature interpolations. Water surfaces showing constant temperatures were blanked.

#### 4.3. Diffuse Soil CO<sub>2</sub> Flux

Two field surveys were carried out in summer 2015 (July and September) to measure diffuse CO<sub>2</sub> soil gas emissions in the Baia di Levante area, utilizing randomly distributed points. These measures were interpolated over a grid covering an area of 24,300 m<sup>2</sup>, using the exponential variogram model.



**Figure 2.** Cumulate probability plot of the measurements by Pyrogips in September 2015. The colored arrows indicate the different ranges of temperature related to different heat transfer processes. Cd represents conductive; Cv represents convective.

The soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux was estimated using a WEST Systems equipment, based on a LICOR LI-820 single path, dual-wavelength, nondispersive infrared gas analyzer, that measures CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the range 0–10 vol% with  $\pm 1$  ppm resolution. [65]. The surface covered by the chamber was chosen to be as flat and as regular as possible to avoid differences of the internal volume of the chamber between different measurements.

Moreover, a further unpublished survey carried out in 2011 was utilized and integrated in our dataset. The characterization of the degassing area and the estimates of the total discharged CO<sub>2</sub> expressed in t d<sup>-1</sup> of the three different campaigns were derived using the sequential Gaussian simulation, which allowed the best interpolation of datasets.

#### 4.4. Air Concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S

In September 2015, a Multi-GAS instrument [66] was used to measure the atmospheric concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S. The Multi-GAS sniffs air at a fixed height of ~25–30 cm over the sea/ground surface (using a sit-on-top kayak for the marine survey) to detect, in real time, the concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> (by NDIR spectroscopy) and H<sub>2</sub>S (by specific electrochemical sensor). The specific sensors mounted onboard the Multi-GAS were a Gascard Edinburgh Instruments infrared spectrometer for CO<sub>2</sub> (0–10,000 ppmv range, with a resolution of 0.8 ppmv), a 0–50 ppmv H<sub>2</sub>S electrochemical sensor (from City Technology, quoting a resolution of 0.5 ppmv), and a temperature–humidity Galltec sensor (T range from –30 to 70 °C and Rh range from 0 to 100%).

The Multi-GAS sensors were calibrated before the field surveys in the laboratory by using standard gas cylinders (all in nitrogen matrixes) at different concentrations within the sensor ranges. Laboratory tests indicated a typical measurement error in the CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>S ratios  $\leq 20\%$  [67]. The Multi-GAS instrumentation was equipped with a GPS to have continuous time and space coordinates during acquisition. The CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S outputs were estimated using the sequential Gaussian simulation (sGs) approach and represented by maps based on the averaging of 100 simulations, using the E-type post-processes method [61].

#### 4.5. Gas Sampling and Undersea Vent Surveys

Free gases samples were collected in July and September 2015, from both undersea and subaerial vents, positioning a stainless-steel funnel on the emission points, connected by a Teflon tube to Pyrex sampling bottles, tapped at both ends with Thorion valves and fluxed several times with the fumarolic gases for preventing atmospheric contamination [68]. The positions of the main undersea degassing vents were determined using a single-frequency differential GPS system, Magellan Thales, with submetric accuracy, mounted on a sit-on-top kayak; the receiving antenna was located on the vertical of each vent with the assistance of a diver, who took undersea pictures using a waterproof Canon digital camera.

Gas compositions were determined in the laboratory facilities of INGV—Sezione di Palermo. The analyses were performed utilizing a gas chromatograph (Perkin Elmer Clarus 500) equipped with a double detector (thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID) with a methanizer, using Ar as the carrier gas and a 3 m packed column, Restek Shincarbon ST (see [68] for details).

### 5. Results

#### 5.1. Thermal Mapping by Direct Temperature Measurements

The surface temperature, as measured by Pyrogips, ranges from 24.30 to 78.20 °C. The Sinclair's partition method (1974) suggests the identification of three populations in the September 2015 dataset (Figure 2). The three different ranges of temperature are interpreted as surface conditions dominated by different heat transport regimes, according to the physical dominating phases (dry gases; vapor; liquid water).

The first range of temperatures (Cd in Figure 2), including values < 29 °C, depends on different effects of the solar irradiation on the dry ground surfaces. In this lower range, the conductive law dominates the heat transfer, and no relevant steam heating processes enhance the normal ambient temperature below the ground level.

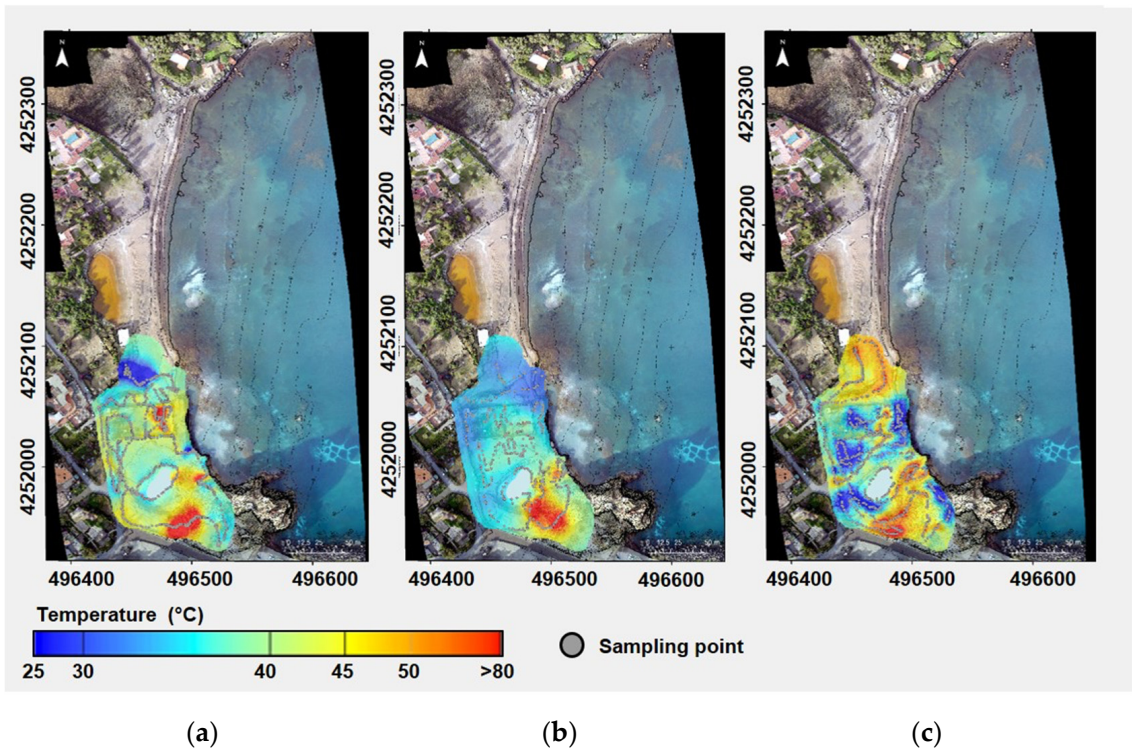
The intermediate range (from 29 to 47 °C) describes soil temperatures due to both the conductive and the convective heat transfer processes (Cd + Cv in Figure 2). This surface is heated by the condensation process of low-pressure vapor, occurring at a very shallow level under the ground, in which the pores can be filled by a biphasic mixture of dry gas and liquid water.

The third range, including temperature values up to 72 °C, describes the soil surface where the hydrothermal activity is dominant (Cv in Figure 2). Here, the hydrothermal circulation allows the steam to reach the atmosphere; the vapor phase is dominant in the pores and vapor visibly spreads from the main vents and surrounds.

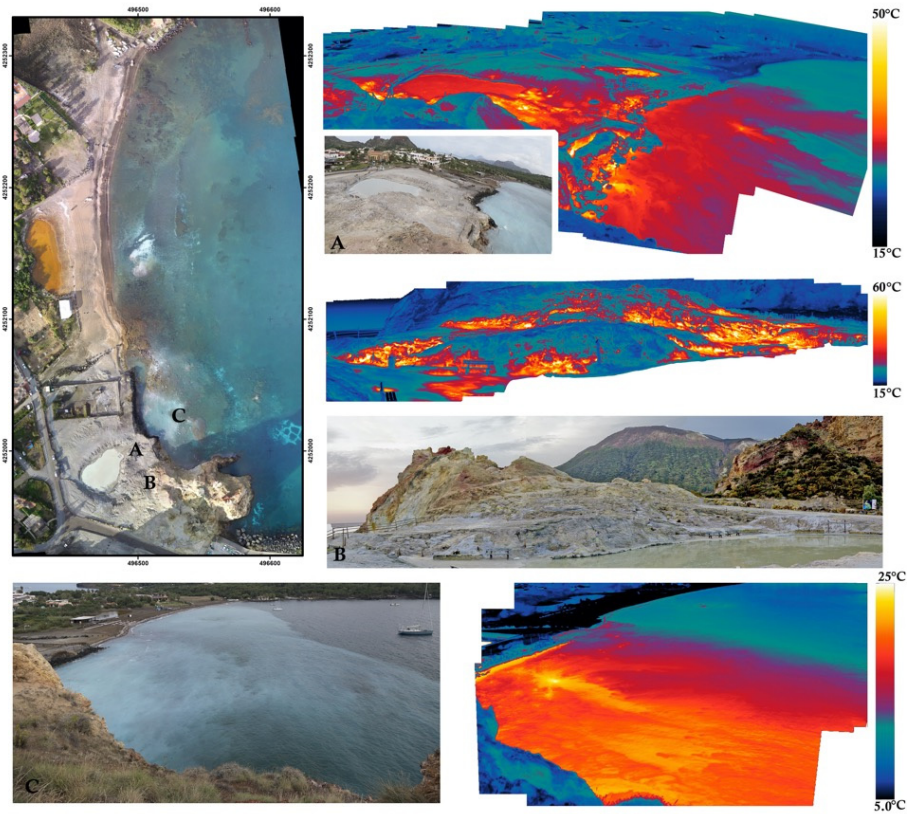
The IR maps (Figure 3) highlight the hydrothermal heat release inside the study area. The hottest area is located in the southernmost position, and from July 2014 to September 2015 it changed in intensity and shape. Moreover, in the last survey, a new thermal anomaly appeared in the northernmost part of the map.

#### 5.2. Thermal Mapping by Thermal Imagery

Some panoramic views of the thermal anomalies characterizing the Baia di Levante area are illustrated in Figure 4. The photomosaic in Figure 4A,C, shows the apparent temperature at the sea surface. The photomosaic in Figure 4B is focused on the dry soil on the east of the mud pool, where the highest temperature was detected. The IR thermal scans are associated with their visible images. The apparent temperatures of the surface shown in the figures reach maxima of 60 °C. The highest temperatures appear both onshore and offshore. A sharp variation of temperature in the sea surface occurs in the upper right corner, extending from NW to SE. The same sharp variation is recognizable in the visible images as different turbidity of seawater. The turbidity is partially due to the gas bubbling pushing sand from the bottom and to flocculation of whitish sulfur. Moreover, along the shoreline, the surface temperature results are comparatively higher than inland (Figure 4A,C).



**Figure 3.** Maps of soil temperatures derived from interpolation of the datasets acquired by Pyrogips in (a) July 2014; (b) July 2015; (c) September 2015.

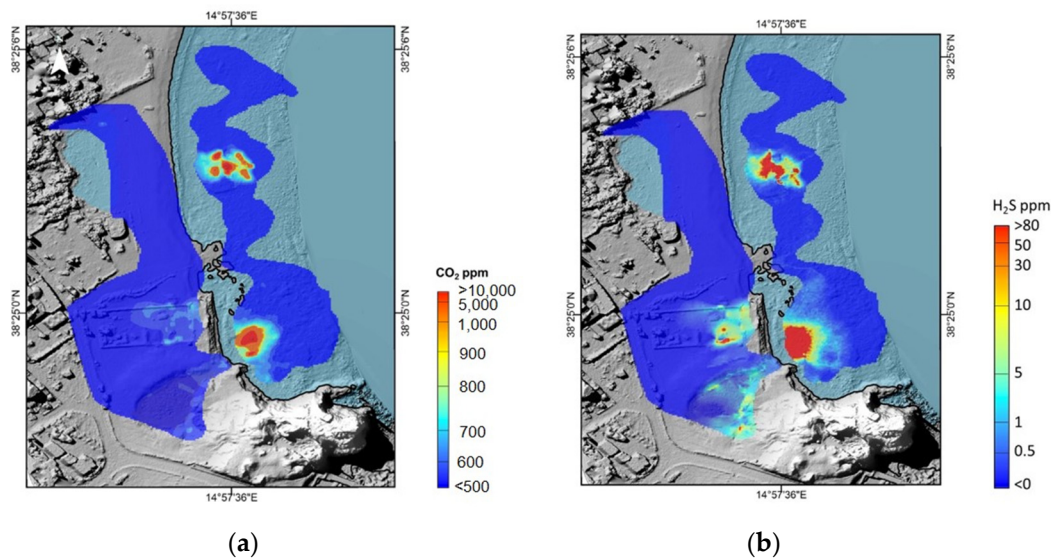


**Figure 4.** On the left, the Baia Levante beach orthophoto, the letters mark the thermal surveys: (A,B) and (C) photographs and forward-looking infrared radiometer (FLIR) thermal infrared (TIR) images documenting the anomalous thermal areas.



### 5.3. Air Concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S

Figure 5a shows the distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> atmospheric concentrations, ranging from ~500 to >10,000 ppm (July 2015). In detail, it is possible to notice that the offshore shows higher concentrations, especially above the emission vents, than the onshore. The lowest CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (<400 ppm in the bay and <500 ppm in the sea) were detected far from the gas vents. In contrast, two main clusters of high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (>10,000 ppm) were detected in the proximity of the main undersea vents, where the IR spectrometer is saturated. Minor peaks of concentrations (~1000 ppm) are observed close to the fumaroles in the bay, and around the muddy pool used by tourists for mud bathing.



**Figure 5.** Maps derived from the interpolation of the datasets acquired by the Multi-GAS gas analyzer, reporting the atmospheric concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> (a) and H<sub>2</sub>S (b).

Figure 5b shows a map derived from the interpolation of the H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations. Again, the H<sub>2</sub>S anomalies are consistent with the location of the main visible undersea vents, over which peaks of concentration (>80 ppm) were recorded, leading to the oversaturation of the electrochemical sensor. Other minor anomalies (concentrations between 30 and 50 ppm) are observed close to the muddy pool. The lowest concentrations were detected far from the main fumaroles/degassing vents.

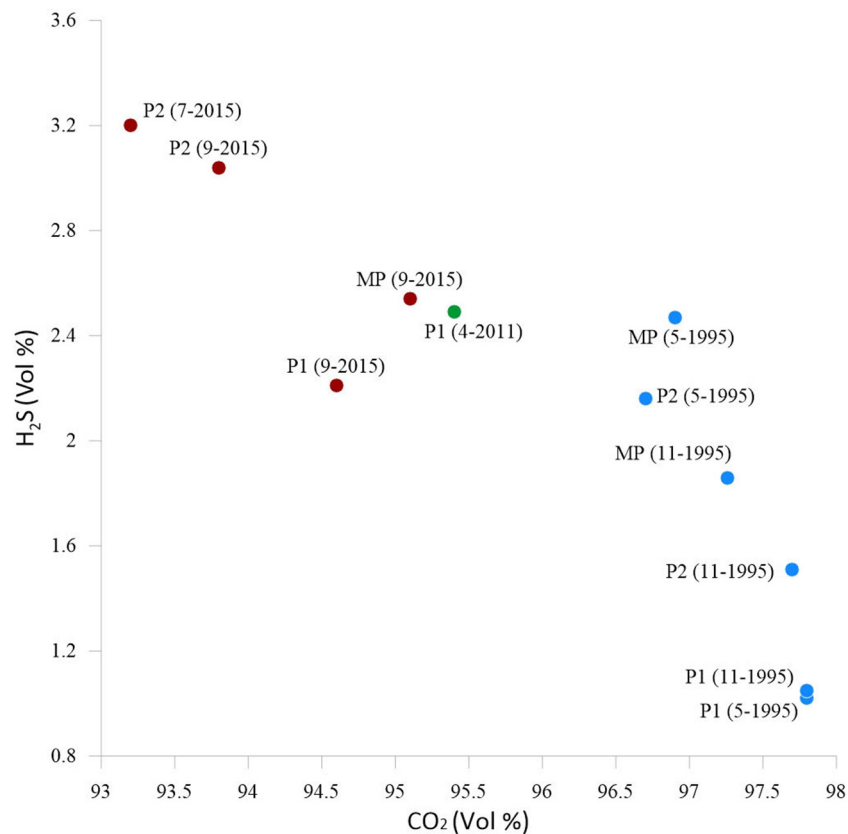
### 5.4. Gas Emissions from Submarine and Subaerial Vents

Two surveys were carried out in July and September 2015, sampling the main submarine gas bubbling vents (P1 and P2 sites in Figure 1c) and one fumarole located on the beach (Mud Pool, Figure 1c). The sampling site P1 showed the highest flux (qualitatively estimated from visual observations). Site locations are shown in Figure 2 and chemical compositions listed in Table 2, together with references from several investigations carried out by other authors on the same area in previous periods (1990–2011).

All the samples are CO<sub>2</sub>-dominated (94–98%), with air contamination <2%, and reduced species (H<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>S) <4%. The highest H<sub>2</sub>S content measured in the last 20 years in the undersea vents P1 and P2 was found in July 2015 (up to 3.2%vol; Table 1). The H<sub>2</sub>S versus CO<sub>2</sub> content in the gas emissions of the undersea dry samples is plotted in Figure 6, which highlights the great variability over time of H<sub>2</sub>S: in 2015, it was always higher than in 1995, but the lowest value was recorded in 2011, when the total CO<sub>2</sub> diffuse flux from the subaerial zone was also at its relative minimum (see following Figure 9 and related text).

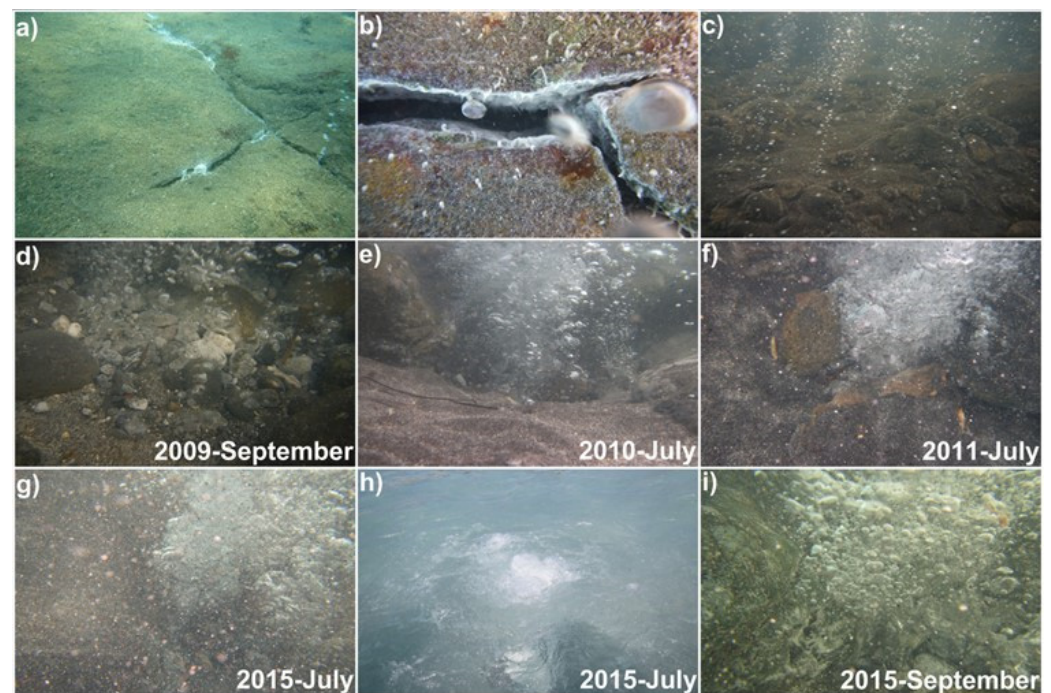
**Table 2.** Soil CO<sub>2</sub> output in the Baia di Levante Area from field measurements in May 2011, and July and September 2015.

	Field Parameters and Output Data	May 2011	July 2015	September 2015
Basics statistics	Points (number)	28	51	49
	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	12,600	23,200	24,300
	Average CO <sub>2</sub> flux (g m <sup>2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	160.8	432.0	379.8
	σ (g m <sup>2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	27.5	19.7	17.0
	Minimum CO <sub>2</sub> flux (g m <sup>2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	0.7	3	0
	Maximum CO <sub>2</sub> flux (g m <sup>2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	972	5782	4281
Results from sGs	Total CO <sub>2</sub> output from sGs (t d <sup>-1</sup> )	1.8	8.8	9.4
	σ (t d <sup>-1</sup> )	0.13	0.77	0.75
	Normalized (to area 24,300 m <sup>2</sup> ) total CO <sub>2</sub> output (t d <sup>-1</sup> )	3.5	9.2	9.4



**Figure 6.** H<sub>2</sub>S vs. CO<sub>2</sub> contents in the fluids of the Baia di Levante area, measured from 1990 to 2015.

The sequence of underwater photos (Figure 7) taken close to the shoreline of Baia di Levante, under very calm weather conditions, depicts the general character and the time variations of the bubbling gas release, with particular reference to the main vent P1 (Figure 1). Gas bubbling occurs from the fracture network, somewhere masked by a thin sandy deposit. The sequence of pictures from Figure 7d–g gives a qualitative evidence of flux variations that affected the main vent P1 from 2009 to 2015.



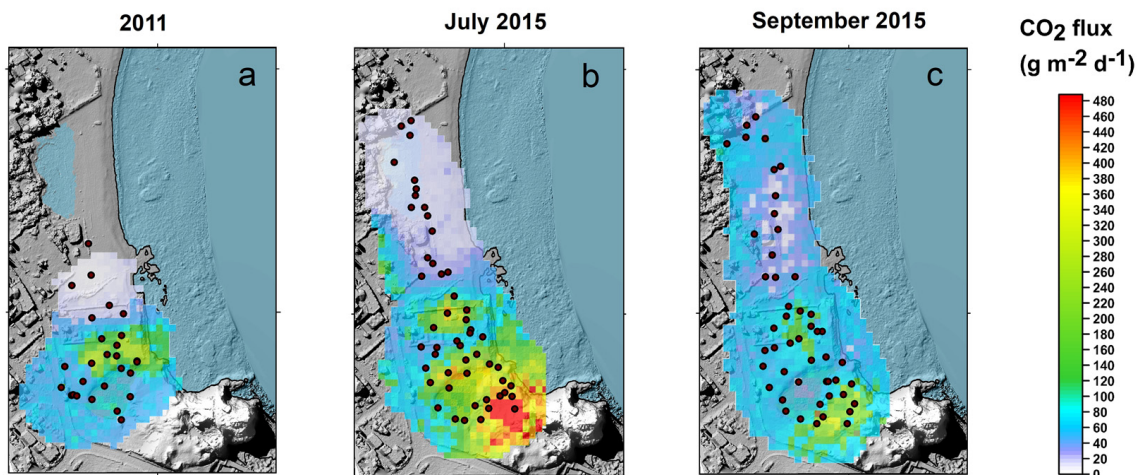
**Figure 7.** Underwater photos taken in the Baia di Levante, close to the shoreline (water depth 1 m). (a) Low degassing from the fracture network in the southern sector of the bay; (b) example of a degassing fracture with gas bubbles and whitish sulfur floccules around it; (c) degassing from coarse sandy and gravel deposits in the northern sector of the bay; (d–i) degassing from the P1 vent in different years. All the photos were taken from the same shot-point, except (h) which was taken from the surface.

The pictures suggest a progressively increasing gas bubbling, whose energy caused the suspension of progressively increasing amounts of sediments, including sand and small gravels, which in 2015 completely masked the vision of the vent. The image of gas bubbles erupting from the sea bottom (i) remarks the presence of a restricted area where the seawater is strongly contaminated by hydrothermal gases (mainly carbon dioxide), which escape from the sea surface, locally altering the air composition.

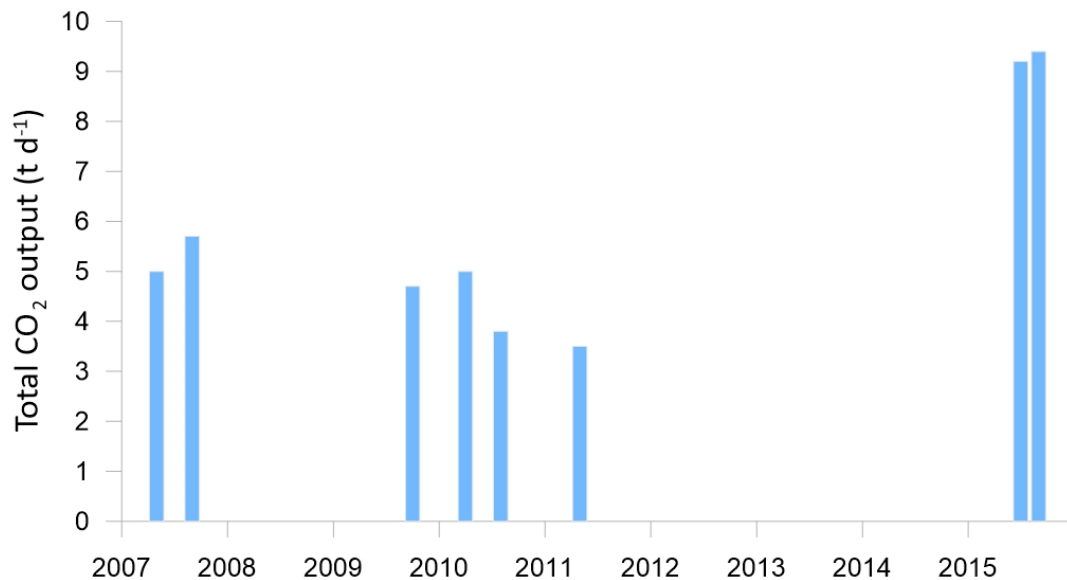
### 5.5. Diffuse Soil CO<sub>2</sub> Fluxes

Results of the field surveys carried out in May 2011 and July and September 2015 are summarized in Table 2 and are presented as contour maps in Figure 8. The following Figure 9 reports the total CO<sub>2</sub> outputs from the study area, estimated from these surveys, compared with previous data from literature [9,31]. It is worth noting that the survey of May 2011 covered a surface smaller than those investigated in 2015, which included the northernmost sector of the beach, making the normalization to the area of the total output estimations necessary for retrieving comparable values (Table 2 and Figure 8).

The spatial distribution of the anomalies exhibits a feature common to all the surveys: higher fluxes in the southern sector, close to the old eruptive center of “Il Faraglione” and characterized by the highest soil temperature and hot water discharge to the sea (see Sections 5.1 and 5.2). Time variations, illustrated in Figure 9, highlight a strong increase in the total CO<sub>2</sub> output from the BdL area in 2015, when it reached values above 9 t d<sup>-1</sup>, substantially higher than those detected during all the previous campaigns, in the period 2007–2011, when they ranged from 3.5 to 5.7 t d<sup>-1</sup>. The lowest total output was recorded in May 2011, when bubbling gases were characterized by the highest air contamination (Table 1) and the lowest H<sub>2</sub>S/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio (Figure 6), indicating a phase of minor deep volatiles contribution.



**Figure 8.** Maps of CO<sub>2</sub> diffuse flux derived from interpolation of the measurements made in the Baia di Levante in different periods: (a) May 2011; (b) July 2015; (c) September 2015.



**Figure 9.** Total output of soil CO<sub>2</sub> (t d<sup>-1</sup>) from the Baia di Levante area in the period 2007–15 (2011–15 this study; previous data from literature [9,31]).

## 6. Discussion

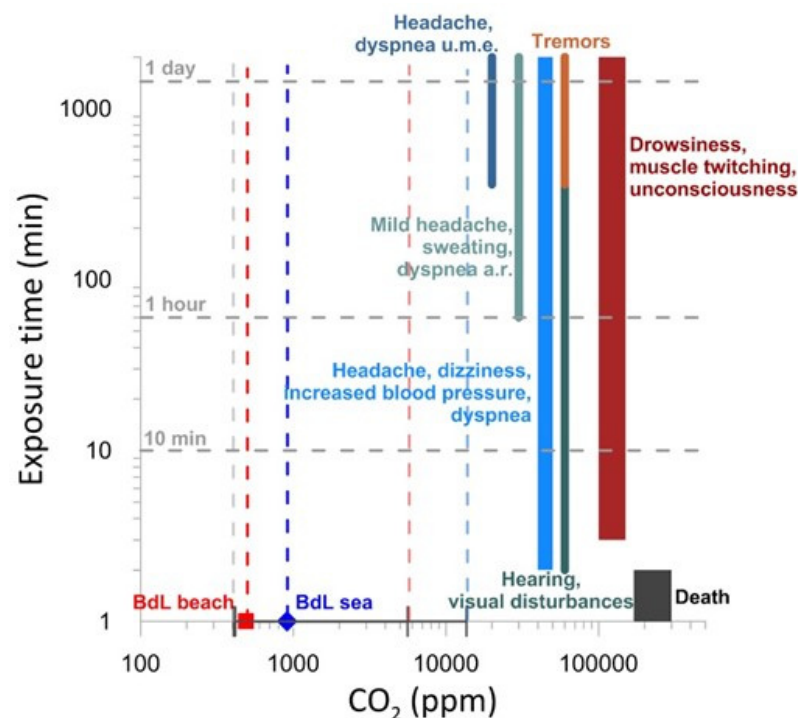
The comparison among soil temperatures (Figure 3) and the thermal images (Figure 4A–C) and the maps of CO<sub>2</sub> diffuse emissions (Figure 8) discriminates between high-temperature surfaces, associated with high CO<sub>2</sub> flux around the fumaroles, a widespread region with intermediate temperatures and low diffuse gas emissions, and background areas where the water-saturated layer reaches the surface, with ground temperatures <28 °C and no diffuse gas emissions.

The main discharge of heated groundwater toward the sea (Figure 4) is mainly concentrated in the southernmost sector of Baia di Levante, close to the old eruptive center of the Faraglione [19]. On the seaboard, (Figure 4B,C) thermal anomalies (apparent ground temperature over 35 °C) are about 500–550 m<sup>2</sup> wide in sector A, and about 70–80 m<sup>2</sup> wide in sector B. On the seaside, the thermally anomalous surface (apparent temperature 10 °C higher than the average undisturbed sea temperature) resulted in about 4000–4500 m<sup>2</sup> width (Figure 4C).

Consistent amounts of gas are constantly released into the atmosphere during the solfataric activity, both through fumaroles associated with thermal anomalies and via diffuse soil gas emissions. The diffuse soil carbon dioxide emissions mapped by our surveys (Figure 8, Table 2) showed significant increases in 2015 (around  $9 \text{ t/d}^{-1}$ ) with respect to previous measurements (around  $2\text{--}5 \text{ t/d}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 9).

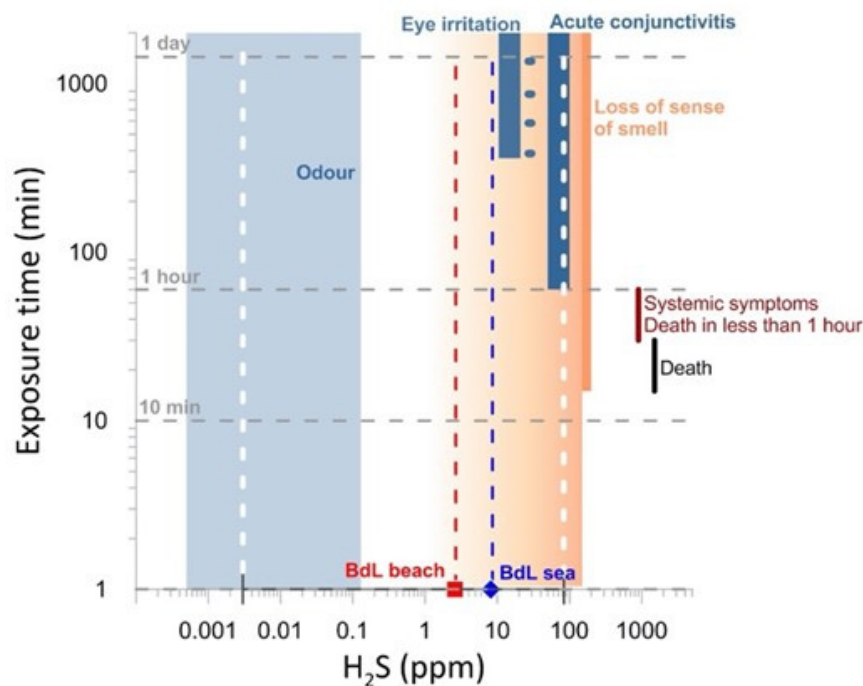
The main hazard associated with gas emission is related to the undersea vents. These release hydrothermal gas mixtures that are dominated in  $\text{CO}_2$ . They are also rich in  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Figures 1 and 7, Table 1), of which atmospheric concentrations over the vents can reach unhealthy values (Figure 5).

Since carbon dioxide and hydrogen sulfide are among the most harmful gas compounds for humans, their effects on human health must be primarily considered when evaluating the gas hazard at Baia di Levante. Breathing air with elevated concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  causes an increase of blood acidity, triggering adverse effects on the respiratory, cardiovascular, and central nervous systems [32,52]. The diffuse gas emission of  $\text{CO}_2$  from the ground showed wide ranges of values in the investigated area. Health hazards related to  $\text{CO}_2$  exposure may occur, mostly in the sandy beach where tourists have long sunbaths laying on the sand with their mouths and noses very close to the ground and where  $\text{CO}_2$  can accumulate under absence of wind. Depending on the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration inhaled and related exposure times (Figure 10), toxicological symptoms range from headaches ( $3\% \text{ CO}_2$  for 1 h), increased respiratory and heart rates, dizziness, muscle twitching, confusion, unconsciousness, and finally coma (concentrations  $> 15\%$  for 1 min) and death (concentrations exceeding  $50\%$ ) [32,52,69].



**Figure 10.** Atmospheric concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  on the sea surface and on the beach of Baia di Levante area compared with associated human health risks (reference values available at <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/co2appendixb.pdf>). Points indicate the average concentrations measured during the surveys. Blue and red vertical dashed lines represent average values for BdL beach and BdL sea, respectively. The grey vertical dashed line represents the minimum measured value for both BdL beach and BdL sea. Light blue and light red vertical dashed lines represent the maximum values measured at BdL sea and BdL beach, respectively. The acronyms u.m.e. and a.r. represent “upon mild exertion” and “at rest”, respectively.

Sulphur species are another group of harmful components of the solfataric activity. The oxidation state of sulfur changes, depending on the thermodynamic condition of the system. An exposure time up to several hours to the highest value of  $H_2S$  (Figure 11) would produce keratoconjunctivitis and pulmonary edema, while the intermittent exposures to concentrations of  $70\text{--}140\text{ mg m}^{-3}$  could cause largely subjective effects, from lingering manifestations to chronic intoxication. Various studies have associated exposure to hydrogen sulfide in concentrations as low as  $16\text{--}32\text{ mg m}^{-3}$  ( $10.5\text{--}21.0\text{ ppm}$ ) for several hours with eye irritation [12].



**Figure 11.** Atmospheric concentrations of  $H_2S$  on the sea surface and on the beach of Baia di Levante area compared with associated human health risks (reference values available at <http://www.inchem.org/documents/ehc/ehc/ehc019.htm>). Points indicate the average concentrations measured during the surveys. Blue and red vertical dashed lines represent average values for BdL beach and BdL sea, respectively. White vertical dashed lines represent minimum and maximum values measured both at the BdL beach and BdL sea.

Figures 10 and 11 clearly show the gas hazard in context of health, and that  $H_2S$  levels are probably more of a concern than  $CO_2$ ; despite emissions being dominated by  $CO_2$ , the  $H_2S$  becomes a toxic health concern at lower levels. This is worth emphasizing the different impacts of  $CO_2$  and  $H_2S$  in contrast to their relative emissions.

By comparing the new geochemical data with previous surveys and considering the general information from the INGV monitoring program, we exclude the renewal of volcanic activity as a possible source for the observed anomalies in the Baia di Levante area. The most reliable cause for the gas flow anomalies could be referred to as a rearrangement of the local shallow permeability, possibly driven by crustal stress variations, also linked to the differential subsidence rate acting between Vulcano and Lipari Islands [5].

However, the possibility that a resumption of volcanic activity could influence the degassing of this peripheral area cannot be totally excluded. Indeed, relationships between the peripheral and summit degassing of a volcano are well known and documented in various volcanic areas [70–72], and the increase of volatiles degassing could be revealing an awakening of the volcanic activity in the near future.

## 7. Conclusions

The results of this study focus on minor space and time changes, in the activity state of an active volcanic system, that have been highlighted by repeated multiparameter surveys on the same area. Those space and time changes can foster severe gas hazard conditions in the close proximity of degassing vents, leading to significant risk levels if these features are located inside crowded areas.

The increase of hydrothermal volatile release to the atmosphere, evaluated at Baia di Levante (Vulcano Island) in 2015, during a phase of passive degassing, showed that critical concentrations of gases are achieved in open air, with possible harmful effects to human health. The exhaling activity at Baia di Levante has been characterized by CO<sub>2</sub>-dominated fluids with a few percent of H<sub>2</sub>S, and the last variation was observed started in 2015.

Although modest variations in the spatial arrangement of hydrothermal vents are negligible for the assessment of a volcanic system activity, they are crucial in terms of risk related to the gas hazard, especially in areas of intense tourism, such as in the Baia di Levante area where thousands of people overcrowd the beach in summer.

The “silent killer” investigated in this study highlighted the danger of several volcanic gases, such as H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub>, in the boiling temperature discharged fluids system. However, these gases are not the only harmful gases that we can find in volcanic fluids, and the changes of thermodynamic conditions in the hydrothermal systems could produce more oxidant conditions allowing other species to be stable, (such as carbon monoxide and sulfur anhydride), representing a danger for human health even at relatively lower content in the air (with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> content).

In fact, for example, carbon monoxide is a silent killer which is specifically more insidious than CO<sub>2</sub> because the harmful effect on human health is not caused by direct asphyxiation due to lack of oxygen, but by indirect asphyxiation due to the chemical reaction between CO and hemoglobin, which saturates the sites of the oxygen–hemoglobin bond, no longer allowing the introduction of oxygen into the lungs with normal breathing.

Consequently, on volcanic systems with closed conduits, the continuous monitoring of extensive parameters, e.g., bulk CO<sub>2</sub> and sulfur fluxes (SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S fluxes), CO<sub>2</sub> diffuse flux from soils, and the determination of atmospheric gas composition in real time, could help decision-makers in mitigating the volcanic gas hazard.

Moreover, given the close areal association between the thermal anomalies of the ground, the thermal monitoring of the anomalous areas surrounding the main vents could be used to track changes in heat release from the ground correlated to the increase of volatile emanations of hydrothermal origin.

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