

A multi-instrumental geochemical approach to assess the environmental impact of CO₂-rich gas emissions in a densely populated area: The case of Cava dei Selci (Latium, Italy)

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ABSTRACT

The Colli Albani volcanic complex (Lazio, Italy) hosts areas characterized by anomalously high emissions of CO₂-rich gases (e.g. Tivoli, Cava dei Selci, Tor Caldara, Solforata). The source of these gases is a regional aquifer within the Mesozoic carbonate rock sequences. These degassing zones release significant concentrations of H₂S and other toxic gases (e.g. GEM: Gaseous Elemental Mercury, and Rn) and represent a serious hazard for local inhabitants, especially for those living at Cava dei Selci (near Rome, Italy), where the emitting areas are nested inside residential neighborhoods. In April 2016, a comprehensive geochemical survey was carried out in an abandoned stone quarry nearby the urban settlement aimed to: (i) investigate the gas composition from both punctual discharges and anomalously high diffuse soil degassing sites, and (ii) evaluate their environmental impact on the local air quality. The spatial distribution of the soil CO₂ fluxes was mainly dependent on the local geostructural setting, whereas shallow secondary processes (e.g. oxidation and gas-water interaction) likely represent the main controlling factor on reactive and/or water-soluble gas species, such as CH₄ and H₂S. The total output of CO₂ from the abandoned stone quarry accounted for 0.53% of total CO₂ discharged from the whole Colli Albani volcanic district. The naturally emitted toxic gases (e.g. CO₂, H₂S, CH₄, GEM) largely affect the air quality and pose a serious threat for the health of the local residents. A mobile multi-instrumental station able to continuously and simultaneously acquire CO₂, H₂S, SO₂, CH₄, GEM and CO was deployed to verify the concentrations of both the main deep-originated gas compounds and potential secondary gaseous contaminants (i.e. SO₂) around and inside the urban settlement most exposed to the lethal gases. Hydrogen sulfide was found to be the most impacting gas, occasionally exceeding the 24-h air quality guideline for ambient air and causing odor annoyance at a distance up to more than 250 m downwind from the emitting area. In poorly ventilated basements, toxic gas accumulations up to hazardous levels were measured, producing anomalous outdoor air concentrations at the street level in front of the descending vehicular access to private garages and relatively far from the main emitting area. The geochemical survey, carried out via mobile station and soil gas measurements, resulted to be particularly efficient for evaluating the potential effects caused by gas emissions in inhabited areas. The multi-measurement approach adopted in the present study is of paramount importance for managing future urban development plans.

1. Introduction

Geogenic CO₂-rich gas emissions discharge from large sectors of the

peri-Tyrrhenian segment in central and southern Italy (i.e. southern Tuscany, Latium and Campania; [Chiodini et al., 2000, 2004](#); [Chiodini, 2008](#); [Chiodini et al., 2013](#)), where degassing areas are favored by (i)

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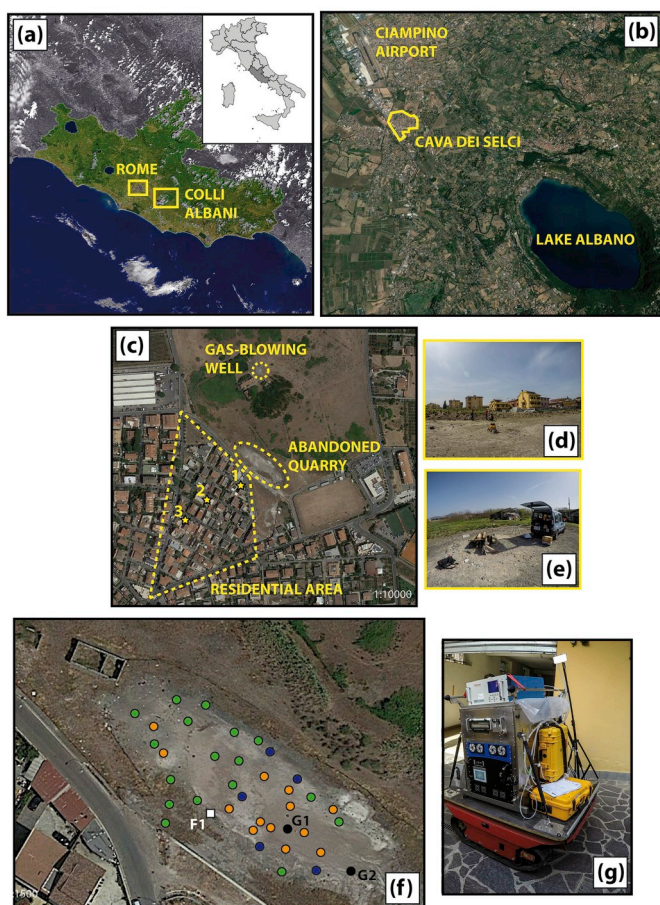


Fig. 1. (a) Satellite image of Latium (Italy) with the location of Colli Albani and Rome. (b) Satellite image of the Colli Albani area, from Ciampino airport to Lake Albano. The location of Cava dei Selci is reported. (c) Satellite image of Cava dei Selci. The emitting areas from the abandoned stone quarry and the gas-blowing well are countered with a dashed yellow line, together with the residential area where real-time continuous measurements of air quality were performed. The location of the windowless garage, the aerated garage and the descending vehicular access to a private garage are indicated with yellow stars (labeled 1, 2, and 3, respectively). (d) Photograph of the abandoned stone quarry in front of the houses of Cava dei Selci. (e) Photograph of the gas-blowing well and the fixed measuring station at F2 for air quality measurements. (f) Location of the sampling sites where the punctual gas emissions (G1 and G2; black circles) and interstitial soil gases (A soil gases: orange circles; B soil gases: green circles; C soil gases: blue circles) were collected and position of the fixed measuring station for air quality measurements (F1; white square) in the abandoned stone quarry. (g) Photograph of the mobile prototype for real-time continuous measurements of air quality. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

crustal thinning (< 25 km; Scrocca et al., 2003), (ii) seismic activity (Frepoli and Amato, 1997; Mariucci et al., 1999; Chiodini et al., 2004 and references therein), (iii) high heat flow (up to 200 mW/m²; Cataldi et al., 1995) and (iv) Quaternary volcanism. The latter formed a NW-SE-aligned sequence of volcanic complexes (Mattei et al., 2010) that also includes Colli Albani (Fig. 1a). This volcanic system is considered in a quiescent period (Carapezza et al., 2012; Marra et al., 2016), although Trasatti et al. (2018) suggested a rejuvenation of the Colli Albani magmatic system based on deformation modelling and helium isotopic signature in local gas manifestations. The volcanic complex, that hosts a 175 m deep lake (e.g. Cioni et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2008; Barbieri et al., 2013; Cabassi et al., 2013), is at about 20 km SE of Rome (Latium, Central Italy; Fig. 1a) and is located in one of the most densely populated municipalities of Latium. Permanent gas (mainly consisting of

CO₂ and H₂S) emissions (e.g. Hooker et al., 1985; Giggenbach et al., 1988; Minissale, 2004; Carapezza et al., 2012) dot the whole area. The total CO₂ discharged from the Colli Albani volcanic district was estimated to be higher than 4.2×10^9 mol/y (Chiodini and Frondini, 2001). Sudden gas leakages from CO₂ oversaturated ground waters are often documented (Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007). The gas manifestations frequently occur in close proximity to residential settlements, arousing severe environmental concern about possible human health risks related to both short- and long-term exposure to the discharged gaseous compounds. Being denser than air, CO₂ and H₂S may accumulate in topographic depressions and house basements up to hazardous levels (Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Beaubien et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2003, 2012). Carbon dioxide has severe health effects on humans and animals (e.g. rapid breathing and heart rate, headache, nausea and vomiting, collapse, convulsions, and even coma and death) at high concentrations (e.g. Gellhorn, 1936; Sechzer et al., 1960; Langford, 2005). The immediately dangerous to life or health (IDLH) value established by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) is of 72,000 mg/m³ (NIOSH, 1996; Department of Health and Human Services (NIOSH), 2007). Consequently, few minutes of exposure at 126,000–180,000 mg/m³ causes unconsciousness (NIOSH, 1996). H₂S levels > 450 mg/m³ can induce, in order of increasing concentration: pulmonary edema, strong central nervous system stimulation, hyperpnoea followed by respiratory arrest, immediate collapse with respiration paralysis (WHO, 2000). The lowest-observed-adverse-effect level (LOAEL) of H₂S is 15 mg/m³, when eye irritation occurs, although a lower threshold (2.8 mg/m³) was recognized for respiratory effects in asthmatics (WHO, 2003 and references therein). Besides CO₂ and H₂S, several other toxic species are present at hazardous concentrations in the gases discharged from Colli Albani. For instance, Beaubien et al. (2003) measured anomalously high concentrations of Rn in soil gases (> 250 kBq/m³), exposing the residents to a long-term risk of developing lung cancer (Dubois, 2005).

One of the most important and impressive degassing sites at Colli Albani is located in an abandoned stone quarry at the northeastern edge of the town of Cava dei Selci (Fig. 1b), 20 m away from buildings and houses. Endogenous gases are discharged both from punctual emissions and through diffuse soil degassing in such a huge amount that the surrounding air occasionally becomes almost unbreathable up to even 2 m above the ground level (Pizzino et al., 2002; Carapezza et al., 2003 and references therein). Moreover, gas tends to permeate and accumulate into the nearby basements and ground floors, frequently causing hazardous indoor concentrations of CO₂ and H₂S. Occasionally, local Authorities are forced to evacuate the residents when the meteorological conditions favor the increment of the noxious gases (Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007; Carapezza et al., 2012). The degassing area of Cava dei Selci and the related gas hazard were studied in detail by several authors, who mainly focused on specific interdisciplinary issues, such as (i) unraveling the origin of gas emissions (e.g. Giggenbach et al., 1988), (ii) estimating the total output of CO₂ and H₂S from the abandoned quarry (e.g. Chiodini and Frondini, 2001), (iii) measuring air concentrations of CO₂ and H₂S in the emitting area (e.g. Carapezza et al., 2012), and (iv) determining soil gas concentrations of specific toxic compounds (e.g. Rn; Beaubien et al., 2003). Nevertheless, a deeper understanding of the complex environmental issues at Cava dei Selci requires a multidisciplinary approach to provide a more holistic comprehension of the impact of natural gas emissions on air quality and human health and reliable information for the definition of intervention plans.

As a consequence, a complete characterization of the Cava dei Selci gases should consider both punctual gas emissions and interstitial soil gases, whose composition can significantly be modified by secondary chemical-physical (e.g. oxidation reactions, vapor condensation, interactions with shallow aquifers; e.g. Tassi et al., 2013) and biochemical (e.g. Huber et al., 2000; Norris et al., 2002; Glamoclija et al., 2004;

Henson et al., 2005; D'Alessandro et al., 2011; Gagliano et al., 2014; Tassi et al., 2015a,b) processes, which govern the release of gaseous compounds at the air-soil interface.

Once emitted in the atmosphere, gases are dispersed according to: (i) output rate from the emitting source(s), (ii) meteorological parameters (e.g. wind speed and direction, air humidity and temperature), (iii) physical properties of each gas species (e.g. molecular weight), and (iv) chemical reactions affecting the different gas species as a function of their reactivity. A fixed monitoring station may not be able to acquire all the necessary information to characterize a certain area affected by air contamination (e.g. Peralta et al., 2013; Olafsdottir et al., 2014). Consequently, mobile measurement platforms (e.g. Kolb et al., 2004) are an interesting and reliable alternative since they are set to obtain large datasets of air pollutants within and in the surroundings of a specific area to (i) gather information about the role played by the environmental parameters and chemical processes on air quality (e.g. Cabassi et al., 2017 and references therein), (ii) recognize areas more prone to hazardous gases, and (iii) select the best sites to locate fixed measuring stations.

In this paper, the abandoned stone quarry at Cava de Selci and surrounding areas were the sites where we adopted a multidisciplinary strategy, which included direct and remote measurements, aimed to (i) chemically and isotopically characterize the gases released from punctual discharges and those permeating the soil at shallow depths, (ii) measure soil CO₂, H₂S and CH₄ fluxes, and (iii) determine the concentrations of CO₂, H₂S, SO₂, CH₄, GEM and CO in air at the stone quarry and the residential area from both outdoor and indoor environments. The field survey was carried out at Cava dei Selci from the 5th to the 6th of April 2016.

2. Study area

Cava dei Selci is an intensely urbanized area in the municipality of Marino (ca. 43,500 inhabitants), close to the Ciampino International Airport (Rome, central Italy). It is located on the NW side of Colli Albani (Fig. 1a,b), a quiescent alkali-potassic volcanic district (Trigila et al., 1995; Peccerillo, 1999, 2005; Giordano et al., 2006; Carapezza et al., 2010) characterized by a low-to-medium-enthalpy CO₂-rich fluid reservoir (Giggenbach et al., 1988) that is part of a regional aquifer (e.g. Chiodini et al., 1999) hosted in the structural highs of the Mesozoic carbonates overlying a Paleozoic metamorphic basement (e.g. Orlando et al., 1994). The origin of CO₂ was ascribed to (i) metamorphic reactions involving carbonate formations and (ii) mantle degassing (Giggenbach et al., 1988; Rogie et al., 2000; Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Minissale, 2004; Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007; Iacono Marziano et al., 2007). Nitrogen, H₂S and CH₄ are minor constituents of the gases emitted from the area (Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Carapezza et al., 2003), as well as the short-lived Rn isotopes, whose presence suggests that fluids rise quite rapidly through high permeable pathways, i.e. faults and fractures (Beaubien et al., 2003). Cava dei Selci lies on the north-western margin of the NE volcanotectonic active structure bordering the Ciampino horst, a NW-SE-oriented structural high of the Mesozoic carbonate basement (Amato and Chiarabba, 1995; Di Filippo and Toro, 1995; Carapezza et al., 2003), where one of the main degassing sites of the Colli Albani volcanic complex is located. It consists of a 10,000 m² wide area located close to residential buildings (Fig. 1c and d). Until the 1970s, the site was a stone quarry. The excavation removed the superficial low permeability volcano-sedimentary cover and formed a depression that was filled with loose material after the closure of the quarry. The highly permeable filling deposits were progressively altered by the uprising acidic fluids, and turned to be clay-rich (Carapezza et al., 2003, 2012; Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007). A stagnant water pool emerges at the bottom of the depression during the rainy season (November to March) and disappears in the summer period (June to September). The gas is released both diffusively from the soil and through punctual vents, the

latter forming bubbling pools in the rainy season (Carapezza et al., 2003). Less than 200 m north of the degassing area, a dry gas emitting old water well (Fig. 1c,e) is present. It is reported that a gas blast likely occurred in the recent past as happened for other wells in the region (Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007; Carapezza et al., 2010).

In the abandoned quarry, lethal concentrations of both CO₂ and H₂S were occasionally measured by Carapezza et al. (2010, 2012) at ≤ 1 m height above the ground, particularly at dawn when wind ceases to blow. Several lethal accidents caused by gas inhalation occurred in the area, involving both humans (a man died in December 2000) and animals (29 cows in 1999, a sheep in March 2000 and 3 sheep in 2001 were asphyxiated; Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2003). An exhaustive solution to the problem is far from being achieved by risk stakeholders, notwithstanding the insistent recommendations based on outdoor and indoor measurements of toxic gases, clearly highlighting the strong risks posed by these natural gas emissions (e.g. Beaubien et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2003, 2010, 2012). After the installation of a CO₂ measurement station that was prematurely dismissed, the main emission zone, i.e. the old quarry, was only temporarily fenced with some wire mesh.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Sampling and analytical methods for gases

3.1.1. Sampling procedures

Gases from two punctual gas vents (G1 and G2; Fig. 1f) and the gas-blowing well (G3) (Fig. 1c,e) were collected into (i) two-way Pyrex bottles, for the analysis of the ¹³C/¹²C ratios of CO₂ and CH₄ and the isotope compositions of He and Ar, (ii) pre-evacuated 60 mL glass flasks, equipped with Teflon stopcocks and filled with 20 mL of a 4 M NaOH solution, for determination of the chemical composition (Vaselli et al., 2006) and (iii) 30 mL glass bottles equipped with two stopcocks for measuring H₂ and CO. At each sampling point, a fourth aliquot for the analysis of the organic gases was collected into a 12 mL glass vial equipped with a pierceable rubber septum (Labco Exetainer[®]) (Tassi et al., 2015a).

Interstitial soil gases were collected from 35 sites in the abandoned stone quarry (Fig. 1f) using 12 mL glass vials and a 1 m long stainless steel tube (Tassi et al., 2015a) inserted at 20 or 10 cm depth. The shallowness of the water table or the soil hardness prevented to go deeper.

3.1.2. Analytical techniques

Inorganic gases in both the headspace of the 60 mL glass flasks (N₂, O₂ + Ar, Ne, and He) and the 12 mL glass vials (N₂, O₂ + Ar) were analyzed using a Shimadzu 15A gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a 10 m long 5A Molecular Sieve column and He or Ar as gas carrier. Carbon dioxide and H₂S in the glass vials were analyzed using the same GC equipped with a 3 m long column packed with Porapak Q 80/100 mesh and He as gas carrier. Argon and O₂ peaks were efficiently separated using a Thermo Focus gas chromatograph equipped with a 30 m long capillary molecular sieve column and a TCD. Hydrogen and CO were measured in the 30 mL glass bottles using a Carlo Erba GC, equipped with a Reductant Gas Detector (RGD) and 5 m long 5A Molecular Sieve packed column.

The alkaline solution in the glass flasks was used for the analysis of (i) CO₂, as CO₃²⁻ by acidimetric titration (AT) with 0.5 N HCl solution, and (ii) H₂S, as SO₄²⁻ by ion chromatography (IC) after oxidation with H₂O₂ (Montegrossi et al., 2001; Vaselli et al., 2006).

Light hydrocarbons (C_{≤3}) were analyzed using a Shimadzu 14A gas chromatograph equipped with a Flame Ionization Detector (FID) and a 10 m long stainless steel column packed with Chromosorb PAW 80/100 mesh coated with 23% SP 1700. The heavier Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) were analyzed by GC (Thermo Trace Ultra) coupled to a Thermo DSQ Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (MS) after extraction

using the Solid Phase Micro Extraction (SPME; Arthur and Pawliszyn, 1990) technique. The SPME was carried out using a 2 cm long three-phase fiber made of DiVinylBenzene (DVB) – Carboxen (Car) – Poly-DiMethylSiloxane (PDMS) (Supelco; Bellefonte, PA, USA). In the laboratory, the fiber was introduced into the glass vials through the porous membrane using a manual SPME device and exposed to the sampled gases for 30 min at 20 °C. Then, the VOCs absorbed into the SPME fiber were desorbed for 2 min at 230 °C in the column headspace of the GC-MS. The desorbed gases were injected through a port operating in splitless mode and equipped with a SPME liner (0.75 mm inner diameter) into a 30 m × 0.25 mm (1.4 μm inner diameter) film thickness TR-V1 fused silica capillary column (Thermo), using He as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.3 mL/min in constant pressure mode. The column oven temperature was set, as follows: 35 °C (hold 10 min), ramp at 5.5 °C/min to 180 °C (hold 3 min), ramp at 20 °C/min up to 230 °C (hold 6 min). After the chromatographic separation, gases passed through a transfer-line set at 230 °C to the MS operating in positive electron impact mode (EI), with an ionization energy of 70 eV and a source temperature of 250 °C. A mass range from 35 to 400 m/z in full scan mode was analyzed. Retention times of the chromatographic peaks and the mass spectra were both used to identify VOCs detected by the quadrupole detector, using the mass spectra database of the NIST05 library (NIST, 2005) for comparison. Quantitative analyses were carried out by external standard calibration procedure using Accustandard® mixtures in methanol or, alternatively, hexane solvent. Relative Standard Deviation (RSD), calculated from five replicate analyses of the standard mixtures, was < 5%. The limit of quantification (LOQ) was determined by linear extrapolation from the lowest standard in the calibration curve using the area of a peak having a signal/noise ratio of 5. Analytical errors for GC, AT and IC were < 5%.

Gas samples for noble gas isotopic analyses were purified in high-vacuum line with cryogenic traps (10 K) directly connected to the mass spectrometer. The ³He/⁴He ratios were measured by a Helix SFT-GVI double collector and ⁴⁰Ar, ³⁸Ar, e³⁶Ar by a Helix MC-GVI mass spectrometer. Calibration for measurements of isotope abundances of He and Ar were performed using atmospheric standards. The analytical errors for He and Ar isotope analyses were ≤ 0.3% and ≤ 0.1%, respectively.

The ¹³C/¹²C ratios of CO₂ (expressed in ‰ vs. V-PDB) were measured with a Thermo Delta V Plus dual inlet mass spectrometer after purification of the gas mixture by standard procedures using cryogenic traps (Evans et al., 1998; Vaselli et al., 2006; Paonita et al., 2012). Calibration was performed by using a standard prepared by quantitative reaction of certified Carrara Marble (δ¹³C_{MAB} = +2.45‰ vs. V-PDB) with anhydrous phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄).

The isotopic analysis ¹³C/¹²C of CH₄ was performed using a Delta Plus XP IRMS equipped with a Thermo TRACE GC interfaced with Thermo GC/C III. Thermo TRACE gas chromatograph was equipped with a Poraplot-Q column. The injection system is better described in Grassa et al. (2010). CH₄ was quantitatively converted to CO₂ by passing through a combustion oven (T = 940 °C). The ¹³C/¹²C ratios are reported as δ¹³C values against V-PDB standard. The uncertainties of measurements are ± 0.15‰.

3.2. Soil flux measurements

Soil fluxes of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂S were measured at 81 sites in the abandoned stone quarry using the “accumulation chamber” (AC) method (Chiodini et al., 1998). The measurements were performed using West Systems Co. Ltd. portable flux meters, consisting of (i) an inverted chamber (a cylindrical metal vase with a basal area of 200 cm² and an inner volume of 3060 cm³), (ii) CO₂, CH₄ or H₂S gas detectors, (iii) an analog-to-digital (AD) converter, and (iv) a palmtop computer. The AC detectors consist of (i) an Infra-Red (IR) spectrophotometer (Licor® Li-820, measurement range and accuracy: 0–36,000 mg/m³ and 4%, respectively) for CO₂, (ii) a detector based on tunable diode laser

absorption spectroscopy (TDLAS) combined with a Herriot multipass cell for CH₄, and (ii) an electrochemical detector for H₂S. Once the chamber was firmly placed on the ground, the soil gas was continuously pumped from the chamber, using a low-flux pump (20 mL/s), to the IR spectrophotometer, and then injected back into the chamber to minimize the disturbance on the gas flux. The gas flux from the soil (Φ_{*i*}, where *i* is CO₂, CH₄ or H₂S) was then determined, according to the following equation (Chiodini et al., 1998):

$$\phi_i = cf \times dC_i/dt \quad (1)$$

where *cf* is the proportionality factor between the increase in time of the gas concentrations inside the chamber (dC_{*i*}/dt) and Φ_{*i*}, which depends on the geometry of the measuring equipment (Chiodini et al., 1998). The lower detection limits (d.l.) for ΦCO₂, ΦCH₄ and ΦH₂S were ~ 0.08, ~ 0.008 and ~ 0.00348 g m⁻² day⁻¹, respectively. For statistical analysis, values below d.l. were replaced by d.l./2.

The probability distribution analysis of flux data and the estimation of the total CO₂, CH₄ and H₂S output from the study area was performed through the graphical statistical approach (GSA) method described by Chiodini et al. (1998), while the sequential Gaussian simulations (sGs) approach was applied in order to produce a map of CO₂ diffuse degassing (Deutsch and Journal, 1998; Cardellini et al., 2003, 2017; Frondini et al., 2004).

3.3. Measurements of air pollutants

Air pollutants were determined (i) at two fixed measuring stations, located in the abandoned stone quarry (F1; Fig. 1f) and close to the gas-blowing well (F2; Fig. 1c,e), respectively, and (ii) along the streets and inside two private garages in the residential area (Fig. 1c) using a Mobile Multi-instrumental Station (MMS; Fig. 1g). The sites where the fixed stations were installed and the measuring pathways throughout the town were digitalized using a portable GPS (Garmin® GPSMAP 62), whilst the meteorological parameters (wind speed and direction) were measured with a Davis® Vantage Vue weather mobile station placed within the study area. The measured air pollutants were, as follows: CO₂, H₂S, SO₂ and GEM (Gaseous Elemental Mercury). The δ¹³C-CO₂ values at the fixed stations and the concentrations of CO and CH₄ via the mobile station were also measured.

3.3.1. Fixed measuring stations

At F1 and F2 the measurements were performed at 1 and 0.25 m above the ground, respectively. The instruments were placed downwind of the emitting area and the gas-blowing well, respectively.

The air concentrations of sulfur-bearing inorganic gases (H₂S and SO₂) were determined using a Thermo® 450i analyzer featuring a pulsed fluorescence technology. The air is pumped at 1 L/min into the analyzer and directed to either (i) a converter, where H₂S is oxidized to SO₂ (efficiency > 80%) or (ii) the fluorescence chamber, i.e. bypassing the converter. In the fluorescence chamber, pulsating UV light excites the SO₂ molecules. As the excited SO₂ molecules decay to lower energy states, they emit a UV light, detected by a photomultiplier tube (PMT), whose intensity is proportional to the SO₂ concentration. When the air sample passes through the converter, the instrument measures the concentrations of Combined Sulfur (CS), i.e. the sum of SO₂ and H₂S. When the air flux bypasses the converter, the analyzer only determines SO₂. The H₂S content is then calculated as the difference between the two signals (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 2012). The instrument provides concentrations by averaging the measurements carried out each 60s (precision ± 1%; Thermo Fisher Scientific, 2012). The detection limits were 5.2 and 2.8 μg/m³ for SO₂ and H₂S, respectively (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 2012). During the field surveys, the instrumentation was power-supplied by a high-performance portable gel battery.

GEM air concentration measurements were performed using a Lumex® RA-915M analyzer, i.e. a portable atomic absorption spectrometer with Zeeman background correction for interference-free

measurements combined with high frequency modulation of polarized light. The radiation source (Hg lamp) is placed in a permanent magnetic field, whereby the 254 nm mercury resonance line is split into three polarized components, two of which are detected for the analysis. After passing through a polarization modulator, the radiation reaches a multi-path cell that isolates the 254 nm resonance line allowing high selectivity and sensitivity (Sholupov and Ganeyev, 1995; Sholupov et al., 2004). The instrument operates at a flow rate of 10 L/min and is supplied by a rechargeable internal battery allowing up to 8 h of continuous measurements. The detection limit was 2 ng/m³ while the accuracy of the method was 20% from 2 to 50,000 ng/m³ (Sholupov and Ganeyev, 1995; Sholupov et al., 2004). For the present study, the measurement acquisition frequency was of 1 s and GEM data were averaged over 1 min to be coupled with those of H₂S and SO₂.

Concentration and isotopic composition of CO₂ in air were determined using a Thermo Scientific Delta Ray™ Isotope Ratio Infrared Spectrometer (IRIS) analyzer. The instrument is equipped with a tunable diode laser operating at a mid-infrared wavelength (4.3 μm) employing a simple and direct absorption approach using a path length of only 5 m. The analyzer works at ambient CO₂ over the concentration range of 360–6300 mg/m³ and high precision is achieved using gas standard for calibration at known CO₂ concentration and isotope composition every 20 min. The sampling frequency of the detector signal is recorded at 1 Hz, and the δ¹³C_(CO2) values were averaged over a time interval of 60 s of stable acquisition.

The isotope composition of carbon was expressed as δ¹³C-CO₂‰ versus V-PDB. The adopted measurement method allowed to achieve precision for δ¹³C_(CO2) of ± 0.15‰ (Di Martino et al., 2016).

3.3.2. Mobile multi-instrumental station (MMS)

The MMS is a prototype developed by West Systems Co. Ltd (Laville et al., 2015) for real-time continuous monitoring of air quality. The traction system (Fig. 1g) includes a self-propelled crawler machine equipped with two engines and the respective electronic controllers. The battery pack of the crawler machine, coupled with an inverter of 24 VDC input, provides AC (alternating current) power (up to 1500 W) to the instruments (Laville et al., 2015).

The gas analyzers set on the MMS was composed by 4 modules, as follows: (i) Thermo 450i analyzer, (ii) Lumex RA-915M analyzer, (iii) Los Gatos Research Ultraportable Greenhouse Gas Analyzer (LGR-UGGA) for CO₂ and CH₄, and (iv) Los Gatos Research LGR 913-0015 analyzer for CO. The inlet tubes of the instruments were fixed to a mast installed on the MMS allowing to convey air samples from ~1.80 m above the ground.

The LGR UGGA and LGR 913-0015 gas analyzers are spectrometers using Los Gatos Research's patented off-axis ICOS (integrated cavity output spectroscopy) technology, a fourth-generation cavity. They require 60 W (powered with 10–30 VDC) and 300 W (powered with 230 VAC), respectively. The measurement range of LGR UGGA was from 1 to 36,000 mg/m³ and from 0.007 to 66 mg/m³ for CO₂ and CH₄, respectively, whilst the linear dynamic range of LGR 913-0015 was from 0.006 to 4.58 mg/m³.

4. Results

4.1. Chemical and isotopic (δ¹³C-CO₂, ⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar and R_c/R_a) composition of gas emissions

The chemical and isotopic composition of gases emitted from (i) the two punctual vents (G1 and G2; Fig. 1f) and (ii) the gas-blowing well (G3; Fig. 1c,e) are reported in Table 1. The chemical composition of the inorganic gas fraction was largely dominated by CO₂ (with concentrations ranging from 982 to 990 mmol/mol), followed by H₂S (from 5.6 to 11 mmol/mol). The concentrations of N₂ varied from 3.2 to 5.6 mmol/mol, whilst O₂ and Ar ranged from 0.087 to 0.13 and from 0.026 to 0.051 mmol/mol, respectively. Methane had concentrations between

Table 1

Chemical and isotope compositions of gases emitted from punctual gas emissions at Cava dei Selci. The concentrations of inorganic gas species and methane are expressed in mmol/mol, whilst the contents of organic compounds are reported in μmol/mol. The δ¹³C values of CO₂ and CH₄ are expressed in delta (δ) per mil (‰) against Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB).

	G1	G2	G3
CO ₂ (mmol/mol)	985	982	990
H ₂ S (mmol/mol)	9.2	11	5.6
N ₂ (mmol/mol)	4.3	5.6	3.2
O ₂ (mmol/mol)	0.13	0.087	0.095
Ar (mmol/mol)	0.032	0.051	0.026
Ne (mmol/mol)	0.000078		0.000013
He (mmol/mol)	0.0011		0.0011
H ₂ (mmol/mol)	0.036	0.056	0.015
CO (mmol/mol)	0.0033	0.0009	0.0013
CH ₄ (mmol/mol)	0.82	0.91	0.68
d ¹³ C-CO ₂ (‰ vs. V-PDB)	1.08	0.9	0.73
D ¹³ C-CH ₄ (‰ vs. V-PDB)	-29	-30	-32
R/R _a	1.40		1.41
R _c /R _a	1.41		1.41
⁴⁰ Ar/ ³⁶ Ar	293		299
³⁸ Ar/ ³⁶ Ar	0.19		0.19
C ₂ H ₆ (μmol/mol)	3.3	3.6	2.5
C ₃ H ₈ (μmol/mol)	0.51	0.66	0.44
i-C ₄ H ₁₀ (μmol/mol)	0.16	0.15	0.21
n-C ₄ H ₁₀ (μmol/mol)	0.22	0.18	0.25
C ₅₊ alkanes (μmol/mol)	0.71	0.69	0.56
C ₆ H ₆ (μmol/mol)	0.61	0.64	0.47
branched aromatics (μmol/mol)	0.64	0.78	0.61
ketones (μmol/mol)	0.15	0.60	0.28
aldehydes (μmol/mol)	0.15	0.13	0.11
Esters + acids (μmol/mol)	2.4	2.1	1.8
S-substituted (μmol/mol)	1.7	2.5	3.9
others (μmol/mol)	0.24	0.39	0.11

0.68 and 0.91 mmol/mol, while those of H₂ and CO ranged from 0.015 to 0.056 and from 0.0009 to 0.0033 mmol/mol, respectively. Helium and Ne were up to 0.0011 and 0.000078 mmol/mol, respectively.

The total content of VOCs ranged from 10.8 to 12.4 μmol/mol (Table 1). Alkanes were the most abundant species, with concentrations ranging from 4.0 to 5.3 μmol/mol, corresponding to 35–45% of the total organic fraction (ΣVOCs). The concentrations of ethane (C₂H₆, from 2.5 to 3.6 μmol/mol) were one order of magnitude higher than those of propane (C₃H₈, ≤ 0.66 μmol/mol), normal-butane (n-C₄H₁₀, ≤ 0.25 μmol/mol) and iso-butane (i-C₄H₁₀, ≤ 0.21 μmol/mol) and long-chain C₅₊ alkanes (≤ 0.71 μmol/mol). S-substituted compounds were relatively abundant, ranging from 1.7 to 3.9 μmol/mol (i.e. from 16 to 35 %ΣVOCs). O-bearing species included esters + acids (from 1.8 to 2.4 μmol/mol), ketones (from 0.15 to 0.60 μmol/mol) and aldehydes (from 0.11 to 0.15 μmol/mol), corresponding to 19 up to 25% of the organic gas fraction. Among aromatics, C₆H₆ was the most abundant (from 0.47 to 0.64 μmol/mol) species, while the concentrations of branched aromatics ranged from 0.61 to 0.78 μmol/mol. On the whole, aromatics added up to 10–12% ΣVOCs.

The δ¹³C-CO₂ and δ¹³C-CH₄ values ranged from 0.73 to 1.08‰ vs. V-PDB and from -32 to -29‰ vs. V-PDB, respectively (Table 1), i.e. similar to those reported by previous studies (Giggenbach et al., 1988; Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Annunziatelli et al., 2003; Carapezza and Turchini, 2007; Carapezza et al., 2012).

The ⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar ratios (from 293 to 299; Table 1) were consistent with the atmospheric value (295.5). The measured isotopic composition of He was expressed as R/R_a, where R refers to the ³He/⁴He ratio in the sample and R_a is the ³He/⁴He ratio in the air (i.e. 1.4 × 10⁻⁶). The measured R/R_a values (Table 1) were corrected for air contamination by using the He/Ne ratio, as follows:

Table 2
Chemical composition of main gas species (CO₂, H₂S, N₂, O₂, Ar, CH₄, in mmol/mol) and VOCs (in μmol/mol) in interstitial soil gas samples from Cava dei Selci.

ID	Depth	Type	CO ₂ (mmol/ mol)	H ₂ S (mmol/ mol)	N ₂ (mmol/ mol)	O ₂ (mmol/ mol)	Ar (mmol/ mol)	CH ₄ (mmol/ mol)	C ₂ H ₆ (μmol/ mol)	C ₃ H ₈ (μmol/ mol)	iC ₄ H ₁₀ (μmol/ mol)	nC ₄ H ₁₀ (μmol/ mol)	C ₆ H ₆ (μmol/ mol)	C ₅₊ alkanes (μmol/ mol)	Alkenes (μmol/ mol)	branched aromatics (μmol/ mol)	Kenotes (μmol/ mol)	Aldehydes (μmol/mol)	carboxyl acids (μmol/ mol)	Cyclics (μmol/ mol)	S- substituted (μmol/mol)	Others (μmol/ mol)
1	20	C	272		498	218	12	0.023	0.085	0.011	0.0023	0.0015	0.0014	0.008	0.011		0.0015	0.0011	0.0016	0.0018		
2	10	A	903	1.3	89	4.4	2.2	0.058	0.24	0.075	0.0088	0.0066	0.0054	0.076	0.056	0.00037	0.0074	0.0047	0.0065	0.0061	0.0007	0.0006
3	10	B	886	2.1	101	8.1	2.3	0.067	0.31	0.087	0.0091	0.0075	0.0074	0.091	0.069	0.00049	0.0023	0.0015	0.0026	0.0048	0.0009	0.0009
4	20	A	934	3.3	59	1.6	1.4	0.075	0.44	0.11	0.026	0.015	0.011	0.15	0.087	0.0012	0.016	0.013	0.011	0.012	0.0012	0.0011
5	20	A	928	3.2	66	1.2	1.6	0.044	0.21	0.061	0.011	0.0067	0.0069	0.045	0.048	0.00028	0.0026	0.0029	0.0033	0.0075	0.0011	
6	20	A	907	2.6	81	6.8	1.9	0.075	0.39	0.061	0.01	0.0055	0.006	0.041	0.044	0.00026	0.0033	0.0021	0.0036	0.0066	0.0006	0.0008
7	20	B	843	0.13	131	22	3.4	0.019	0.077	0.012	0.0021	0.0014	0.0012	0.084	0.071		0.0038	0.0036	0.0045	0.0015		
8	10	C	4.9		665	315	15	0.015	0.065	0.011	0.0018	0.0011	0.0012	0.045	0.0036		0.0013	0.0008	0.0021	0.0011		
9	20	A	917	2.4	77	1.4	1.8	0.055	0.23	0.075	0.013	0.0077	0.0066	0.051	0.033	0.00027	0.0016	0.0011	0.0023	0.0054	0.0008	
10	20	A	913	1.9	81	1.5	1.9	0.13	0.61	0.15	0.026	0.015	0.012	0.16	0.11	0.0011	0.015	0.023	0.012	0.012	0.0005	0.0012
11	20	B	886	1.1	104	5.4	2.5	0.12	0.52	0.11	0.016	0.011	0.010	0.12	0.087	0.00085	0.011	0.16	0.011	0.012	0.0006	0.0008
12	20	C	19		671	295	15	0.026	0.095	0.014	0.0025	0.0018	0.0015	0.061	0.056		0.0018	0.0012	0.0022	0.0016		
13	20	A	928	0.88	66	3.6	1.6	0.036	0.18	0.032	0.0041	0.0016	0.0012	0.11	0.012	0.00031	0.0026	0.0018	0.0034	0.0014		
14	20	A	944	1.9	51	1.5	1.4	0.11	0.56	0.096	0.012	0.0085	0.0078	0.088	0.076		0.0055	0.0026	0.0058	0.0055	0.0007	0.0013
15	20	A	948	0.64	48	2.1	1.4	0.022	0.091	0.015	0.0023	0.0021	0.0015	0.012	0.015	0.00017	0.0021	0.0014	0.0025	0.0016		
16	20	A	920	0.14	76	2.3	1.8	0.025	0.11	0.023	0.0036	0.0041	0.0025	0.015	0.014	0.00019	0.0023	0.0015	0.0026	0.0027		
17	20	C	299		484	205	12	0.011	0.056	0.0095	0.0015	0.0011	0.0012	0.0011	0.0016		0.0008	0.0006	0.0011	0.0015		
18	20	A	962	0.39	36	0.51	0.85	0.098	0.47	0.086	0.0091	0.0075	0.0068	0.067	0.055	0.00023	0.0044	0.0021	0.0046	0.0069		0.0007
19	20	C	302		551	136	11	0.021	0.074	0.005	0.0005	0.0002	0.0002				0.0013	0.0005	0.0007	0.0005		
20	20	B	508		395	87	9.6	0.018	0.066	0.004	0.0006	0.0004	0.0003				0.0007	0.0005	0.0006	0.0004		
21	20	B	498		388	104	9.9	0.015	0.052	0.003	0.0005	0.0003	0.0002				0.0011	0.0005	0.0004	0.0006		
22	20	B	831	0.056	131	35	3.3	0.041	0.14	0.045	0.0094	0.0066	0.0045	0.033	0.025	0.00018	0.0041	0.00026	0.0054	0.0031		
23	20	B	846	0.22	125	26	3.1	0.034	0.13	0.042	0.0084	0.0051	0.0044	0.025	0.011	0.00015	0.0032	0.0017	0.0036	0.0039		
24	20	B	759	0.12	187	49	4.7	0.023	0.088	0.012	0.0018	0.0009	0.0005	0.077	0.0055		0.0023	0.0012	0.0029	0.0006		
25	20	B	640	0.13	284	69	6.7	0.021	0.087	0.01	0.0016	0.0008	0.0007	0.061	0.0033		0.0025	0.0017	0.0028	0.0008		
26	20	B	882	0.056	103	12	2.5	0.026	0.096	0.011	0.0015	0.0009	0.0008	0.048	0.0025		0.0031	0.0016	0.0033	0.0007		
27	20	B	896	0.12	94	7.8	2.3	0.014	0.057	0.008	0.0009	0.0007	0.0006	0.0011	0.0016		0.0013	0.0006	0.0015	0.0005		
28	20	B	689	0.069	256	48	6.4	0.011	0.036	0.005	0.0007	0.0005	0.0006				0.0015	0.0008	0.0016	0.0003		
29	20	A	904	0.056	87	6.6	2.1	0.046	0.21	0.035	0.0066	0.0027	0.0039	0.026	0.012	0.00025	0.0024	0.0014	0.0021	0.0041		
30	20	B	876	0.46	115	5.1	2.8	0.054	0.28	0.049	0.0081	0.0035	0.0044	0.045	0.016	0.00039	0.0061	0.0038	0.0065	0.0026		
31	20	A	900	0.29	86	12	1.9	0.024	0.12	0.025	0.0051	0.0021	0.0036	0.014	0.0087	0.00011	0.0023	0.0012	0.0033	0.0035		
32	20	B	745	0.095	185	66	4.2	0.019	0.094	0.011	0.0016	0.0026	0.0021	0.0058	0.0011		0.0024	0.0013	0.0027	0.0026		
33	20	B	599	0.087	381	11	9.2	0.023	0.11	0.021	0.0066	0.0044	0.0035	0.016	0.012	0.00012	0.0036	0.0022	0.0033	0.0039		
34	20	B	744	0.11	215	36	4.7	0.021	0.085	0.015	0.0045	0.0039	0.0029	0.011	0.0076	8E-05	0.0021	0.016	0.0025	0.0025		
35	20	B	742	0.12	202	51	4.5	0.022	0.091	0.017	0.0051	0.0044	0.0035	0.012	0.0078	9E-05	0.0022	0.0015	0.0025	0.0037		

$$R_c/R_a = \frac{(R/R_a)(\text{He/Ne})_m - (\text{He/Ne})_a}{(\text{He/Ne})_m - (\text{He/Ne})_a} \quad (2)$$

where subscripts *m* and *a* refer to the values measured in samples and in air, respectively. The corrected R_c/R_a ratios were 1.41 in both G1 and G3 samples (Table 1).

4.2. Chemical composition of interstitial soil gases

The chemical composition of the interstitial soil gases is reported in Table 2. Concentrations of CO_2 and N_2 were highly variable (from 4.9 to 962 mmol/mol and from 36 to 671 mmol/mol, respectively) and inversely correlated. On the basis of the CO_2/N_2 ratio, three groups of interstitial soil gases were distinguished, as follows: (i) group A, characterized by a chemical composition largely dominated by CO_2 , with CO_2/N_2 ratios higher than 10 and up to 27, (ii) group B, with CO_2/N_2 ratios ranging from 1.28 to 9.53, and (iii) group C, with a N_2 -dominated composition and CO_2/N_2 ratios ≤ 0.62 .

Group A soil gases were characterized by relevant concentrations of CO_2 (≥ 900 mmol/mol), H_2S (from 0.06 to 3.30 mmol/mol) and CH_4 (from 0.02 to 0.13 mmol/mol). Concentrations of N_2 , O_2 and Ar ranged from 36 to 89 mmol/mol, from 0.51 to 12 mmol/mol and from 0.85 to 2.20 mmol/mol, respectively.

Similarly to A soil gases, those of group B were dominated by CO_2 (≤ 896 mmol/mol). On average, lower concentrations of H_2S and CH_4 relative to those measured in the A soil gases were detected (ranging from 0.06 to 2.10 mmol/mol and from 0.01 to 0.12 mmol/mol), whereas N_2 , O_2 and Ar showed higher contents (from 94 to 395 mmol/mol, from 5.10 to 104 mmol/mol and from 2.30 to 9.90 mmol/mol, respectively).

Group C soil gases, showing N_2 , O_2 and Ar concentrations ≥ 484 , ≥ 136 and ≥ 11 mmol/mol, respectively, had CO_2 and CH_4 abundances of ≤ 302 and ≤ 0.03 mmol/mol, respectively, whereas H_2S was below the detection limit.

The total content of VOCs, ranging from 0.05 to 1.15 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, increased with the CO_2/N_2 ratio, the highest and lowest concentrations being generally measured in the groups A ($\Sigma\text{VOCs} \geq 0.15 \mu\text{mol/mol}$) and C ($\Sigma\text{VOCs} \leq 0.13 \mu\text{mol/mol}$). The organic fraction was largely dominated by alkanes (ranging from 73 to 97% with respect to the ΣVOCs), mainly consisting of ethane (up to 0.61 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$) and propane (up to 0.15 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$), with minor amounts of iso-butane (up to 0.026 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$), normal-butane (up to 0.015 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$) and C_{5+} alkanes (up to 0.16 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$). The relative abundances of alkanes generally increased as the CO_2/N_2 ratio decreased, with values ranging from 82 to 91 % ΣVOCs , from 73 to 97 % ΣVOCs , and from 85 to 96 % ΣVOCs in groups A, B and C, respectively (Fig. 2). Moreover, S-bearing compounds were almost exclusively detected in the A soil gases (≤ 0.3 % ΣVOCs and up to 0.0012 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$), although they were occasionally measured in the B soil gases (≤ 0.2 % ΣVOCs and up to 0.0009 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$). Alkenes showed an opposite trend with respect to alkanes, with relative abundances up to 11.8 % ΣVOCs in A soil gases (i.e. $\leq 0.110 \mu\text{mol/mol}$) and ≤ 8.7 % ΣVOCs (i.e. $\leq 0.011 \mu\text{mol/mol}$) in C soil gases (Fig. 2). No clear trends were observed between the relative abundances of aromatic and cyclic compounds (ranging from 0.2 to 2.4 % ΣVOCs and from 0.5 to 2.5 % ΣVOCs , respectively) among the analyzed soil gases. The concentrations of aromatic and cyclic compounds in groups A and B (≤ 0.013 and $\leq 0.012 \mu\text{mol/mol}$, respectively) were comparable, whereas those measured in C soil gases were lower (≤ 0.0015 and $\leq 0.0018 \mu\text{mol/mol}$, respectively). Differently, O-bearing compounds, specifically aldehydes, ketones and carboxylic acids, were strongly enriched in B soil gases (up to 17 % ΣVOCs and 0.182 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$) with respect to those measured at both groups A and C (≤ 4.5 % ΣVOCs and up to 0.050 and 0.005 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, respectively; Fig. 2).

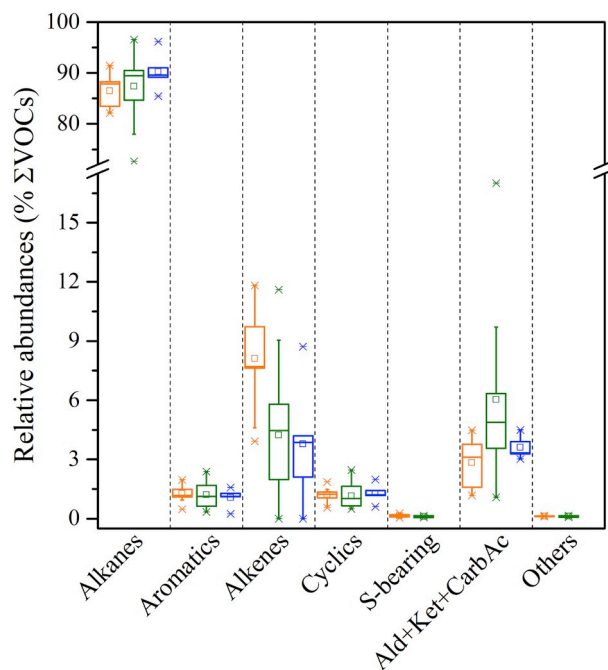


Fig. 2. Box plots of relative abundances (expressed as % ΣVOCs) of alkanes, aromatics, alkenes, cyclics, S-bearing compounds, aldehydes + ketones + carboxylic acids, and other VOCs in A (orange boxes), B (green boxes) and C (blue boxes) soil gases from Cava dei Selci. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

4.3. Soil fluxes

The soil CO_2 , CH_4 and H_2S fluxes were measured at 81 sites in an area of about 1070 m^2 within the abandoned stone quarry. The ΦCO_2 values ranged from 13.7 to 13,638 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$, whereas lower ΦCH_4 (up to 2.21 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) and $\Phi\text{H}_2\text{S}$ (up to 74.4 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) values were measured (Table 3).

As expected, relatively high ΦCO_2 (from 833 to 13,638 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$), ΦCH_4 (up to 1.54 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) and $\Phi\text{H}_2\text{S}$ (up to 74.4 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) values (Table 3) were recorded in A soil gas sampling sites, whereas those from C sites were relatively low (≤ 344 , ≤ 0.01 and $\leq 0.01 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$, respectively; Table 3). Intermediate CO_2 , CH_4 and H_2S soil fluxes (up to 3,669, 0.74 and 13.53 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) were measured in B soil gas sampling sites (Table 3).

In Fig. 3, the dot maps of soil CO_2 , CH_4 and H_2S fluxes measured in the abandoned stone quarry are reported (Fig. 3a,c,d), together with the map of ΦCO_2 values produced by the sGs method (Fig. 3b). The highest emission zone was recognized in the SE portion of the study area, where the highest ΦCO_2 , ΦCH_4 and $\Phi\text{H}_2\text{S}$ values were also measured by previous studies (e.g. Carapezza et al., 2003, 2012). This indicates that the anomalous degassing zone is well identified in space and time.

4.4. Measurements of air pollutants

4.4.1. Gas concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$ values in air at the fixed measuring stations

The main statistical parameters of the CO_2 , H_2S , SO_2 and GEM concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$ values measured in F1 and F2 (Fig. 1c,e,f) in April 2016 are reported in Table 4.

At F1, CO_2 ranged from 874 to 1514 mg/m^3 on April 5 and from 896 to 2782 mg/m^3 on April 6. These values exceeded the typical CO_2 concentration in air suggesting that an external source of carbon dioxide contributed to the composition of air at F1 site. Throughout the time window of the survey, the H_2S concentrations ranged from 53 to

Table 3

Soil CO₂, CH₄ and H₂S fluxes (expressed in g m⁻² day⁻¹) measured in the abandoned stone quarry of Cava dei Selci.

ID	ΦCO ₂ (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	ΦCH ₄ (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	ΦH ₂ S (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)
1	122	0.01	
2	5125	0.74	14.19
3	3669	0.74	13.53
4	13638	1.54	20.45
5	12640	1.50	74.40
6	7734	0.94	44.64
7	1030	0.04	
8	14		0.01
9	5191	0.94	14.73
10	4373	0.79	12.28
11	1319	0.15	5.37
12	16		
13	833	0.10	4.56
14	8134	1.14	14.44
15	1257	0.19	1.91
16	895	0.13	
17	344		
18	956	0.13	3.05
19	83		
20	114		
21	159		
22	2022	0.29	
23	1939	0.32	0.22
24	1223	0.14	0.04
25	842	0.10	0.02
26	1425	0.11	
27	2109	0.09	0.02
28	541		
29	2011	0.33	
30	2012	0.25	0.59
31	1063	0.04	0.03
32	661		
33	194		
34	461		
35	550		0.01
36	113		
37	1122	0.06	
38	3270	0.21	
39	212	0.03	
40	2865	0.12	0.07
41	889	0.10	
42	17	0.00	
43	1100	0.11	
44	144	0.01	
45	237		0.01
46	484	0.01	
47	339	0.00	0.00
48	338	0.02	
49	191		
50	71	0.00	0.00
51	334		
52	198	0.00	0.01
53	1316	0.21	0.00
54	140	0.01	
55	484	0.07	0.07
56	471	0.03	0.03
57	58	0.01	0.09
58	691	0.10	0.17
59	206	0.03	
60	2183	0.55	0.34
61	82	0.01	0.58
62	203	0.03	0.67
63	299	0.03	0.54
64	278	0.03	0.62
65	603	0.09	0.88
66	312	0.07	1.25
67	616	0.09	3.21
68	1364	0.20	4.46
69	964	0.15	5.28
70	1135	0.19	5.25
71	3041	0.41	7.67
72	1769	0.27	9.30
73	4929	1.19	12.20

Table 3 (continued)

ID	ΦCO ₂ (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	ΦCH ₄ (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	ΦH ₂ S (g m ⁻² day ⁻¹)
74	2394	0.38	12.81
75	2918	0.40	13.33
76	4577	0.98	17.76
77	4014	0.77	43.96
78	4665	0.87	21.57
79	4885	1.05	19.09
80	8010	2.09	23.82
81	9286	2.21	47.71

982 μg/m³ and from 41 to 568 μg/m³, respectively, whereas those of SO₂ were ≤ 33 μg/m³. At F2, the CO₂, H₂S and SO₂ concentrations measured on April 6 (up to 4590 mg/m³, 34,407 μg/m³ and 408 μg/m³, respectively) were even higher than those measured at F1. On the contrary, the highest concentrations of GEM were measured at F1 (up to 195 ng/m³ on April 5), while at F2 they varied from 35 to 137 ng/m³.

The isotopic composition of CO₂ at F1 varied from −6.49 to −1.39‰ vs. V-PDB and from −6.10–1.84‰ vs. V-PDB on April 5 and 6, respectively, and from −8.11 to 0.09‰ vs. V-PDB at F2. The carbon isotope composition indicates that CO₂ was enriched in ¹³C with respect to the composition of uncontaminated air (δ¹³C-CO₂ = −8‰ vs. V-PDB). Both the less negative and positive values of δ¹³C-CO₂ in air agreed with the isotope composition of CO₂ emitted from F1 site, demonstrating that soil degassing governs both the concentration and the carbon isotope composition of air-CO₂ in the surroundings of F1 site. Furthermore, high concentrations of CO₂ in air and positive δ¹³C-CO₂ values were generally associated with low wind speed throughout the survey.

During the air measurements in F1, the wind speed was ≤ 1.3 m/s on April 5, whereas on April 6 wind was basically absent. At F2, the wind speed was up to 0.9 m/s.

4.4.2. Gas concentrations in air within the residential area of Cava dei Selci

The main statistical parameters of the air pollutants (i.e. CO₂, H₂S, SO₂, GEM, CO and CH₄) measured within the residential area of Cava dei Selci (Fig. 1c) are reported in Table 4. The concentrations of CO₂ ranged from 767 to 1174 mg/m³, whereas those of H₂S varied from 2.9 to 351 μg/m³. The concentrations of SO₂ and GEM ranged from 5.5 to 15 μg/m³ and from 19 to 33 ng/m³, respectively. Methane and CO contents were up to 1.7 and 0.77 mg/m³, respectively. Prevailing winds (from 0 to 0.9 m/s) blew from NNE, i.e. from the main emitting areas (Fig. 1c).

Air measurements were also performed inside a windowless private garage and in the aerated underground garage of a house (Fig. 1c; Table 4). While the GEM concentrations in the two garages were similar (~25 ng/m³), those of CO₂, CO and SO₂ in the windowless garage were about 2 or 3 times higher than those recorded in the aerated basement. Methane concentrations in the windowless garage were up to 8 times higher (up to 11 mg/m³; Table 4) than those measured in the aerated basement. Remarkably, H₂S in the windowless garage was up to 1358 μg/m³, i.e. more than 100 times higher than that measured in the aerated basement (up to 9.2 μg/m³).

5. Discussion

5.1. Origin of the endogenous gases

The CO₂-dominated gases emitted from Cava dei Selci were characterized by δ¹³C-CO₂ values (from 0.73 to 1.08‰ vs. V-PDB) comparable to those reported by Minissale et al. (1997) for gas manifestations from north-central Italy. These values, significantly higher than those expected for a shallow organic derivation for CO₂ (typically characterized by δ¹³C-CO₂ < -20‰ vs. V-PDB; Degens, 1969; Rollinson, 1993; Sano and Marty, 1995), were interpreted as related to

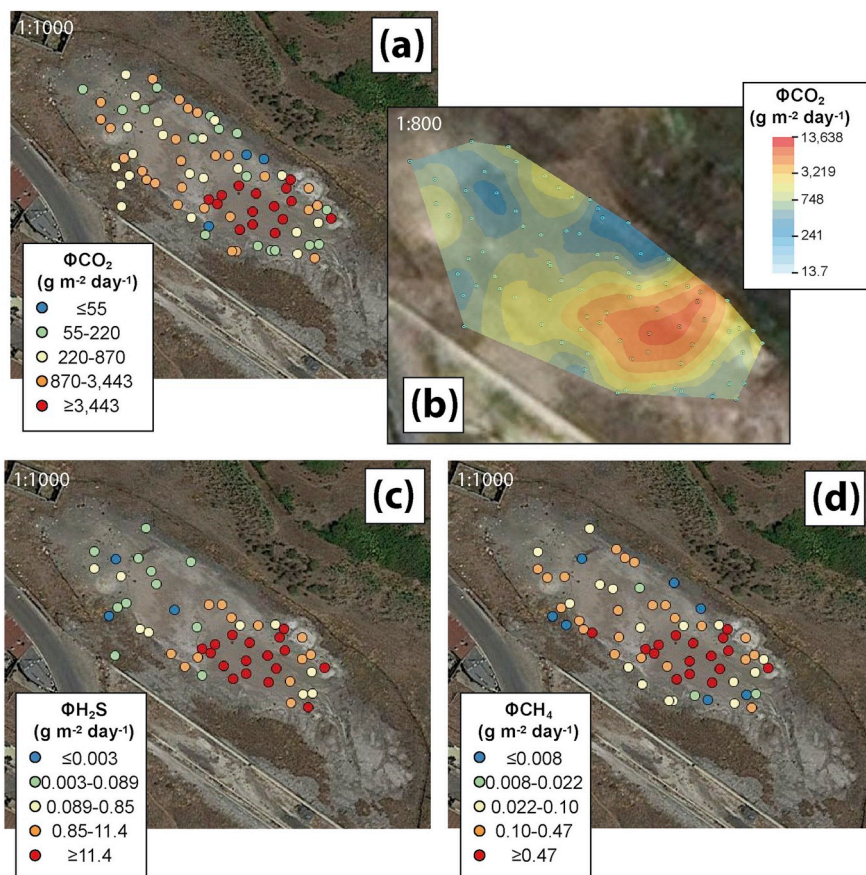


Fig. 3. Dot maps of soil (a) CO₂, (c) H₂S and (d) CH₄ fluxes measured in the abandoned stone quarry of Cava dei Selci. (b) The map of ΦCO₂ values produced by sGS method is also reported.

a deep high-temperature source (e.g. Giggenbach et al., 1988; Capasso et al., 1997; Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Annunziatellis et al., 2003). According to Chiodini et al. (2004), in the peri-Tyrrhenian sector of central Italy (i.e. from the Larderello geothermal field in Tuscany to the Colli Albani volcanic complex in Latium), a large portion of CO₂ degassing at the surface or dissolved in ground waters originates from a deep mantle-related source, which would account for a total CO₂ release of 1.4×10^{11} mol/y. Gases from Cava dei Selci were also characterized by a significant amount of mantle He, as indicated by the relatively high R_c/R_a values (1.41) that were higher than those measured in gases emitted from the other Latium volcanic districts (i.e. from 0.2 to 0.6; Hooker et al., 1985). Similar R_c/R_a values (from 0.44 to 1.73) were measured in fluid inclusions of phenocrysts from the Colli Albani volcanic rocks (Martelli et al., 2004; Carapezza et al., 2012). Besides the deep source, metamorphic decarbonation processes also contribute to the CO₂ discharged at the surface in the Colli Albani area. Giggenbach et al. (1988) ascribed the relatively high δ¹³C-CO₂ values measured in gas discharges in the Colli Albani area to the involvement of marine carbonates in the production of CO₂. Carbonate assimilation in the upper crust is likely representing an important additional mechanism of CO₂ production in active volcanic zones from central-southern Italy (Iacono Marziano et al., 2007). In the CO₂-³He ratios vs. δ¹³C-CO₂ diagram (Fig. 4a), the Cava dei Selci gases plot along a mixing curve between the mantle and limestone end-members, confirming the twofold source. As shown in the Ar-N₂-He ternary diagram (Fig. 4b), N₂ from the Cava dei Selci gases is sourced by air and a deep N₂-rich source. Accordingly, the measured N₂/Ar ratios (up to 134) were higher than those of both air saturated water (ASW, 38) and air (83), confirming the presence of an excess, non-atmospheric N₂ (N_{2exc}). The amount of N_{2exc} can be estimated, as follows:

$$N_{2exc} = N_2 - [(N_2/Ar)_{atm} \times Ar] \quad (3)$$

where the (N₂/Ar)_{atm} is the N₂/Ar ratio in either ASW or air, assuming that Ar is entirely derived from an atmospheric component. The validity of this assumption was confirmed by the measured ⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar and ³⁸Ar/³⁶Ar ratios, which were comparable to those of air (i.e. 296 and 0.188, respectively; Ozima and Podosek, 2002). The N_{2exc}/³He ratios ranged from 4.85×10^8 to 1.46×10^9 , i.e. higher than that expected for a pure mantle contribution (N_{2exc}/³He ratio of 2.3×10^8 ; Marty and Zimmermann, 1999; Hilton et al., 2002; Taran, 2011), indicating an extra-atmospheric crustal source. According to Minissale et al. (1997), the N₂ excess observed in several gas manifestations from north-central Italy is likely derived from organic nitrogen and ammonium-rich feldspar and micas within the Paleozoic metasedimentary basement rocks. However, the relatively low CH₄ contents measured in this study allow to exclude the occurrence of a significant organic nitrogen source, as also reported by previous investigations (Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2003; Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007).

As far as the origin of CH₄ is concerned, the δ¹³C-CH₄ values measured in gas manifestations from Cava dei Selci were higher than those expected for microbially-produced CH₄ (≤ -50‰ vs. V-PDB) and thermogenic CH₄ (from -50 to -30‰ vs. V-PDB) (Whiticar, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2007). Moreover, the CH₄/(C₂H₆ + C₃H₈) ratio (the so-called “Bernard parameter”, after Bernard et al., 1978) varied from 214 to 231, i.e. intermediate between values characterizing gases from thermogenic (< 100) and microbial sources (> 1000). Hence, the chemical and isotopic features of CH₄ and light alkanes are not consistent with a classical interpretation. In Fig. 4c, the gas manifestations from Cava dei Selci approach the compositional field (δ¹³C-CH₄ from -24 to -13‰ vs. V-PDB; CH₄/(C₂H₆ + C₃H₈) > 1000) considered by some authors (e.g. McCollom and Seewald, 2007) typical of a purely

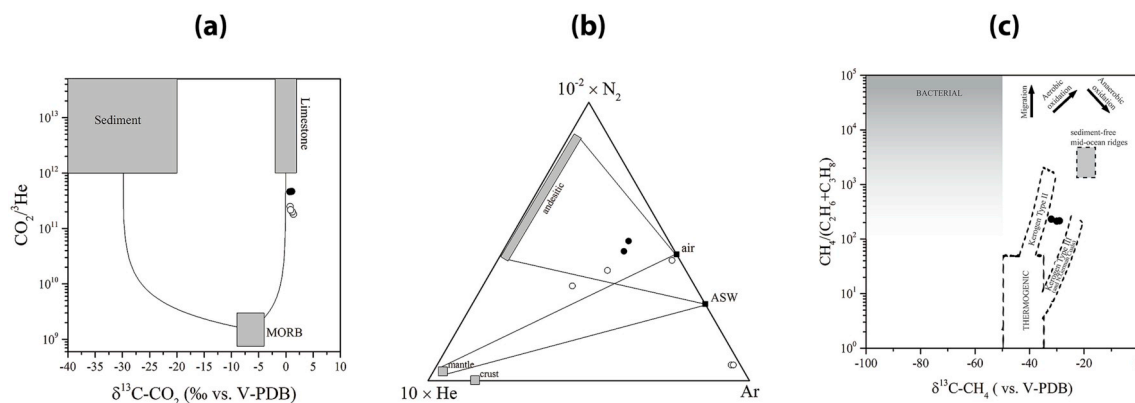
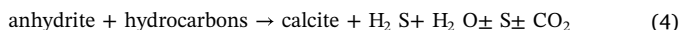
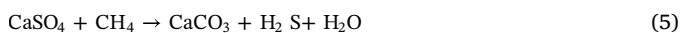


Fig. 4. (a) $\text{CO}_2/{}^3\text{He}$ vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$ binary diagram (after [Sano and Marty, 1995](#)) for punctual gas emissions from Cava dei Selci (black circles = data from this study; white circles = data from [Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007](#); [Carapezza et al., 2012](#)). Mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB), limestone and sediment fields are also indicated. (b) Ar- N_2 -He ternary diagram (after [Giggenbach et al., 1983](#); [Giggenbach, 1991, 1996](#)) for gases discharged from Cava dei Selci (black circles = data from this study; white circles = data from [Giggenbach et al., 1988](#); [Chiodini and Frondini, 2001](#); [Carapezza et al., 2012](#)). Andesitic, mantle and crustal end-members are also reported, together with those of air and air saturated water (ASW). (c) $\text{CH}_4/(\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{C}_3\text{H}_8)$ vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$ binary diagram for punctual gas emissions from Cava dei Selci (after [Bernard et al., 1978](#); [Whiticar, 1999](#)). Existence fields of biogenic origin (microbial and thermogenic) and unsedimented mid-oceanic ridges, sediment-covered ridges and igneous rocks are reported ([McCollom and Seewald, 2007](#), and references therein) for comparison. The black arrows depict the trends related to migration, aerobic oxidation and anaerobic oxidation (e.g. [Moore et al., 2018](#)).

abiogenic origin. [Tassi et al. \(2012\)](#) also reported similar values for CO_2 -rich gas manifestations from the whole peri-Tyrrhenian part of central Italy (Tuscany and Latium) and ascribed to the addition of thermogenic gases due to secondary CH_4 production from CO_2 reduction. Nevertheless, the shift towards higher $\text{CH}_4/(\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{C}_3\text{H}_8)$ ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$ of the gas samples from Cava dei Selci with respect to the typical thermogenic field, as observed in [Fig. 4c](#), could be similarly ascribed to either a migrated hydrocarbon-rich fluid that experienced oxidation approaching the surface or a highly-oxidized, hydrocarbon-rich fluid ([Harkness et al., 2017](#); [Moore et al., 2018](#)), without the involvement of abiotic fluids. The occurrence of a thermogenic organic gas source at Cava dei Selci was confirmed by the presence of C_4+ alkanes, benzene and other aromatics. Similarly, other gas species, such as H_2S and GEM, were likely produced as a result of gas reactions, re-equilibrations and mobilization processes in the hydrothermal reservoir ([Minissale et al., 1997](#); [Bagnato et al., 2009](#)). In particular, the origin of H_2S can be ascribed to thermogenic reduction of Triassic anhydrites, which are present at the base of the Mesozoic carbonate sequence ([Giordano et al., 2014](#)), as also observed in H_2S -bearing gases discharging from the northern part of the Roman Magmatic Province (e.g. Sabatini and Vicano-Cimino volcanic districts; [Cinti et al., 2011, 2014, 2017](#)). In particular, the H_2S production from the evaporitic formations may proceed through thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR), a process involving hydrocarbons, according to the following reaction ([Worden and Smalley, 1996](#)):



and primarily CH_4 , as follows ([Worden and Smalley, 1996](#)):



5.2. Estimation of gas output through diffuse degassing

In order to estimate the total output of CO_2 , CH_4 and H_2S from the study area, the population partitioning method proposed by [Sinclair \(1974\)](#) was applied. The probability plots of $\ln\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$, $\ln\Phi_{\text{CH}_4}$ and $\ln\Phi_{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$ are reported in [Fig. 5](#). As suggested by [Fig. 5a](#), most $\ln\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$ variations can be ascribed to a single population, with the exception of (i) some values with low Φ_{CO_2} values ($\leq 17 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$), likely representing biological CO_2 from soil respiration and (ii) some outliers with $\Phi_{\text{CO}_2} \geq 7734 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, likely related to the occurrence of fractures causing an increase of soil permeability at a local scale. Differently from

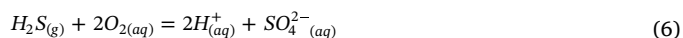
$\ln\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$, the probability plots of $\ln\Phi_{\text{CH}_4}$ ([Fig. 5b](#)) and $\ln\Phi_{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$ ([Fig. 5c](#)) suggest the presence of two different populations (A and B). This cannot be related to the soil permeability, as this parameter should likewise affect Φ_{CO_2} producing an analogous polymodal distribution of $\ln\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$. Hence, the populations recognized in [Fig. 5b](#) and [c](#) are likely reflecting the occurrence of physicochemical processes affecting CH_4 and H_2S with no influence on CO_2 . The total output of CO_2 and H_2S from the study area was estimated in 2660 and 12 kg day^{-1} , whereas the total emission of CH_4 resulted in 0.42 kg day^{-1} .

5.3. Processes affecting gases emitted through diffuse degassing

The soil gases emitted from the study area showed anomalously high concentrations of components not originated by an atmospheric source. The soil gas concentrations of CH_4 and H_2S displayed a moderate correlation with the Φ_{CH_4} and $\Phi_{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$ values measured at the same points, whereas a better correspondence was observed between CO_2 contents and Φ_{CO_2} values ([Fig. 6](#)).

Although the CO_2 concentration in the soil is generally depending on biotic processes (e.g. microbial activity) and environmental factors (e.g. soil temperature and moisture content, soil permeability), the positive correlation with the Φ_{CO_2} values suggests that the fate of this gas in the abandoned quarry was strictly controlled by the supply of fluids from the deep reservoir. Accordingly, the CO_2 concentrations in interstitial soil gases were inversely correlated with those of atmospheric gases (N_2 , O_2 and Ar).

However, as shown in the $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{S}\text{-N}_2$ ternary diagram ([Fig. 7a](#)), the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios were largely variable, ranging from 283 to 16,143, i.e. 2–3 orders of magnitude higher than those measured at the punctual gas emissions (from 89 to 177). It is worthwhile to mention that, during the geochemical survey at the Cava dei Selci emitting area, the water table was found at around 40 cm depth or shallower, which emerges above the ground during the rainy season forming a stagnant water pool, strongly interacting with the percolating gases ([Giggenbach et al., 1988](#)). The N_2/Ar ratio in the interstitial soil gases varies in a narrow range (from 34 to 50), which is similar to that of ASW, suggesting that the primary deep fluids are partly modified before reaching the surface. In addition, as the deep-seated gases percolate through shallow ground waters, H_2S is oxidized, as follows:



Accordingly, the composition of the seasonal stagnant pool water

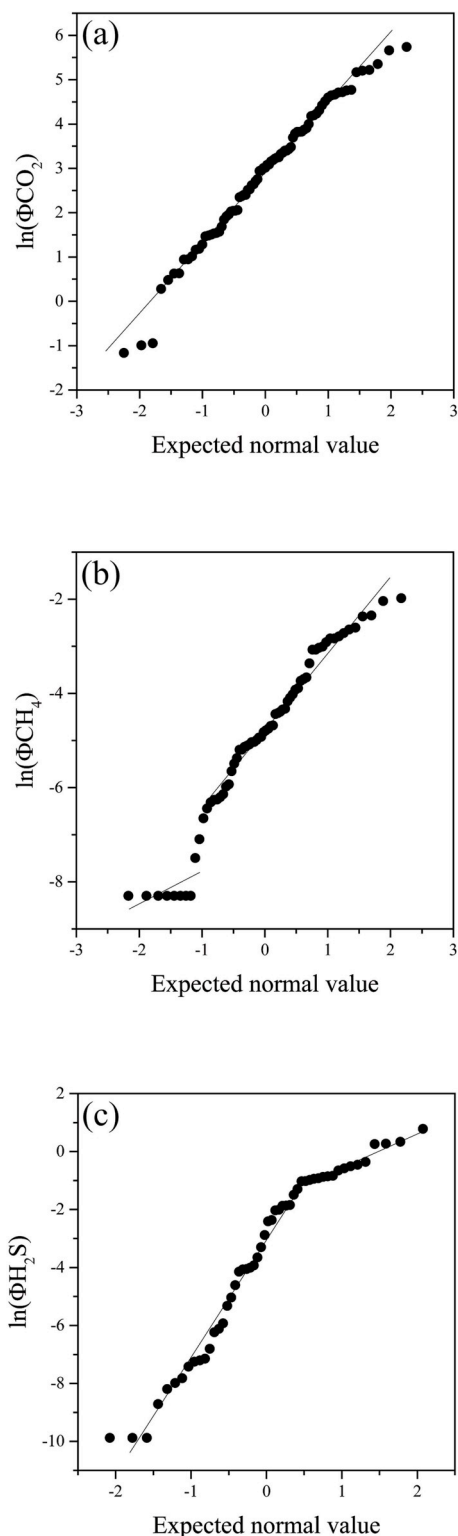


Fig. 5. Probability plots of (a) $\ln\Phi_{CO_2}$, (b) $\ln\Phi_{CH_4}$ and (c) $\ln\Phi_{H_2S}$.

occurring in the abandoned stone quarry is characterized by a SO_4 -dominated composition (Giggenbach et al., 1988). Then, the two trends depicted in Fig. 7a are related to (i) oxidation, and (ii) air dilution processes. A similar distribution is observed in Fig. 7b where H_2S is replaced by CH_4 . Methane has a low solubility in water and consequently it is not expected to be scrubbed when interacting with shallow ground waters. On the other hand, methanotrophic bacteria may catalyze the oxidation of CH_4 to methanol and, eventually, CO_2 (e.g. Rojo,

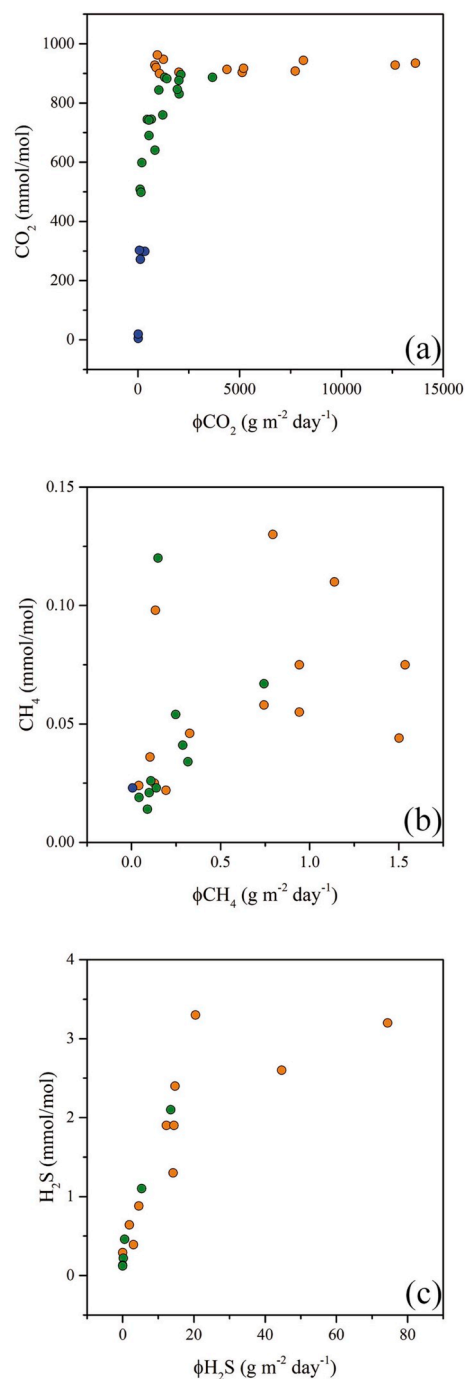


Fig. 6. (a) CO_2 vs. Φ_{CO_2} , (b) CH_4 vs. Φ_{CH_4} and (c) H_2S vs. Φ_{H_2S} binary diagrams (A soil gases: orange circles; B soil gases: green circles; C soil gases: blue circles). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

2009). Microbially-driven oxidative processes at shallow depths are generally enhanced as the diffuse degassing decreases, determining an enrichment in O-bearing organic compounds in soil gases with respect to punctual gas emissions (e.g. Tassi et al., 2015a,b and references therein). Nevertheless, A soil gases were depleted in O-bearing organic compounds relative to the gas vents and a decrease in the relative abundances of these compounds was observed in C with respect to B soil gases (Fig. 2). It has to be considered that O-bearing VOCs, such as the intermediates of CH_4 oxidation to CO_2 , are water soluble due to the polarity of their molecules. Thus, they can be affected by the interaction with the shallow water table. Similarly, the decrease in the alkenes at

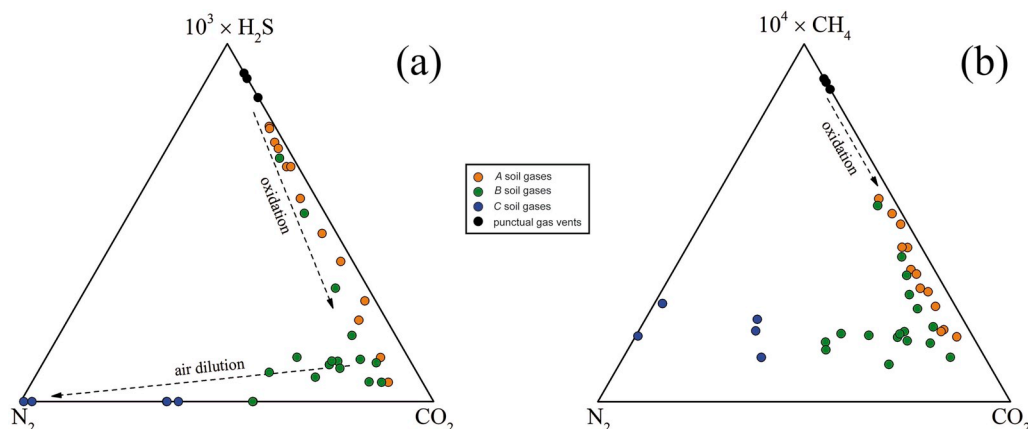


Fig. 7. (a) $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{S-N}_2$ and (b) $\text{CO}_2\text{-CH}_4\text{-N}_2$ ternary diagrams for interstitial soil gases (A soil gases: orange circles; B soil gases: green circles; C soil gases: blue circles) and punctual gas emissions (black circles). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

decreasing CO_2/N_2 ratios in the soil gases (Fig. 2) is likely related to the high reactivity of the C=C bond that makes these compounds prone to degradation processes in an aquatic environment, e.g. hydration. Selective gas dissolution could also explain the enrichment in apolar-saturated hydrocarbons (i.e. alkanes) recorded in the soil gases with respect to those occurring at the gas vents.

Accordingly, the chemical composition of interstitial soil gases is expected to be controlled by both (i) structural and lithological factors (e.g. brittle structures and permeability), which govern the flux of deep hydrothermal fluids, and (ii) chemical rearrangements, induced by gas-water interaction processes, microbial activity and increasingly oxidizing conditions at shallow depths. Among the endogenous gases, reduced and highly soluble species are expected to be particularly affected by secondary processes during the upward motion of fluids from the deep reservoir up to the surface. This implies that substantial compositional changes occur when gases from punctual vents and interstitial soils are compared.

5.4. Impact on air quality

5.4.1. Fixed measuring stations

The presence of favorable conditions to the emissions of CO_2 - and H_2S -rich gases from the study area poses severe risks to the health of local population (e.g. Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Beaubien et al., 2003; Carapezza et al., 2003, 2010, 2012). The CO_2 concentrations in air measured at F1 and F2 stations (~ 1080 and 2825 mg/m^3 on average, respectively) were significantly higher than the global monthly average concentration of atmospheric CO_2 , i.e. 733 mg/m^3 (Scripps CO_2 Program). However, the highest value (4590 mg/m^3) measured at F2 exceeded neither the 8 h time weighted average (TWA) threshold of 9000 mg/m^3 (NIOSH, 1996; Department of Health and Human Services - NIOSH, 2007) nor the 15 min short-term exposure limit (STEL) of $54,000 \text{ mg/m}^3$ (NIOSH, 1996; Department of Health and Human Services - NIOSH, 2007). Nevertheless, a recent study by Martrette et al. (2017) demonstrated that prolonged exposure to relatively low CO_2 doses (1260 mg/m^3 for 6 h a day for 15 days) can cause behavioral and physiological changes in mammals, affecting general behavior, hormonal status and myosin heavy chain (MHC) profile of diaphragm and oral respiratory muscles of young female rats. Noteworthy, CO_2 concentrations $> 1260 \text{ mg/m}^3$ were occasional at F1 and frequent at F2.

In Fig. 8, the $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ values are plotted against the ratios between the concentration of CO_2 in unpolluted air (733 mg/m^3) and the concentrations of CO_2 measured at F1 and F2. The data from F2 seem to describe a mixing curve between air ($\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2 = -8\text{‰}$ vs. V-PDB; Scripps CO_2 Program) and the endogenous CO_2 source whose $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ value result in the range of $0.73\text{--}1.39\text{‰}$ vs. V-PDB, in agreement with those measured in gases from punctual vents (Giggenbach et al., 1988;

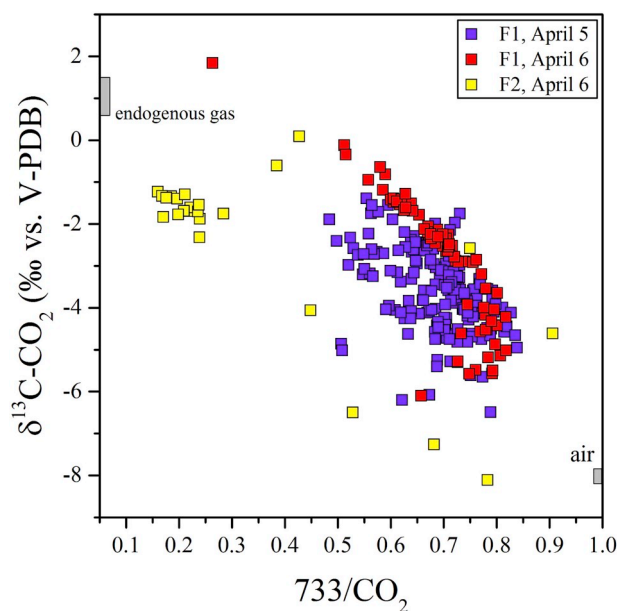


Fig. 8. $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ vs. $733/\text{CO}_2$ binary diagram of air measurements in F1 on April 5 (violet squares) and 6 (red squares) and in F2 (yellow squares). Air and endogenous gas (grey fields) are plotted for comparison. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

Annunziatellis et al., 2003; Carapezza and Tarchini, 2007; Carapezza et al., 2012; this study). While endogenous gas was adjectively discharged at F2 through the blowing well, diffusive transport process exerted a pivotal influence on the total output of endogenous gas at F1. Accordingly, the $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ values measured at F1, which are slightly higher than those measured at F2 and those expected for a simple mixing between air and endogenous gas, were likely due to isotopic fractionation processes occurring in the soil layers in response to gas diffusion and microbial activity (Cerling et al., 1991; Capasso et al., 2001; Camarda et al., 2007; Federico et al., 2010; Tassi et al., 2015b).

H_2S measured in air at the fixed measuring stations ($\geq 41 \mu\text{g/m}^3$) largely exceeded the 30-min average concentration considered as the threshold for odor annoyance in ambient air ($7 \mu\text{g/m}^3$; WHO, 2000). The average ($213 \mu\text{g/m}^3$) and maximum ($568 \mu\text{g/m}^3$) H_2S air concentrations measured at F1 on April 5 and 6, 2016, respectively, were significantly higher than the air quality guideline threshold ($150 \mu\text{g/m}^3$; WHO, 2000). At F2, this limit was overcome during the whole measurement period as the H_2S concentrations varied from 179 to

22,238 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, i.e. in some cases higher than the NIOSH recommended exposure limit (REL) in workplaces (15,000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; Department of Health and Human Services (NIOSH), 2007). These concentrations were largely lower than those measured by Carapezza et al. (2010, 2012) from 0 to 7 a.m. (up to 708 mg/m^3 at 20 cm above the ground). This confirms that the risk of exposure to hazardous gas concentrations drastically increases during the night, when lack of wind and sun irradiation favor gas accumulation at ground level (e.g. Tassi et al., 2009; Vaselli et al., 2011). At Cava dei Selci, the persistence of H_2S in air with concentrations higher than the TWA threshold in the diurnal period suggests that H_2S , rather than CO_2 , represents the main threat for inhabitants. The $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios in air (from 1016 to 28,139 and from 24 to 4235 at F1 and F2, respectively) were higher than those measured in the gas vents (from 89 to 177), likely due to the contribution from diffuse degassing from the soil where H_2S is partially consumed by oxidation processes (at F1) and dissolution in the aquifer (at F2). Further H_2S consumption likely occurred in air. Whilst CO_2 can be considered chemically inert at ambient conditions, H_2S can undergo oxidation to SO_2 by reacting with ozone (O_3), molecular oxygen (O_2) or hydroxyl radicals (HO^\bullet). Since H_2S oxidation involving O_3 and O_2 is slow under atmospheric conditions, the formation of SO_2 from H_2S in air is mainly proceeding through reaction with HO^\bullet via production of HS^\bullet radical, as follows:



It is worth noting that the average SO_2 air concentrations exceeded the WHO guideline value of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (as 24-h average; WHO, 2006) at both F1 and F2 on the 6th of April, where the highest SO_2 air concentration approached the 10 min average threshold of 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ recommended by WHO (2000, 2006), although SO_2 was below the detection limit in gases from the punctual vents.

These results show that secondary pollutants, i.e. those produced after the input of gases in air from a contaminant source, may have a strong impact on air quality. Sulfur dioxide is a strong-irritant gas (e.g. Petruzzini et al., 1994; Tunnicliffe et al., 2001), causing inflammation of eyes, nose and throat at 13–26 mg/m^3 and leading to respiratory failure at 79–105 mg/m^3 (WHO, 2006). Moreover, it affects trees and plants by damaging foliage and decreasing growth and contributes to acid rain, harming ecosystems and damaging materials and buildings (WHO, 2000).

5.4.2. Mobile multi-instrumental station

As the prevailing winds blew from NNE, gases emitted from the abandoned stone quarry and the gas-blowing well moved towards the nearby residential area (Fig. 9). Accordingly, anomalous CO_2 and H_2S concentrations ($\geq 767 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ and $\geq 2.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively) were detected along the measurement pathway, especially in the sector facing the abandoned quarry where CO_2 and H_2S were up to 914 mg/m^3 and 225 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (Fig. 9a,e). The concentrations of H_2S were higher than the odor annoyance threshold in a large portion of the residential area and up to distances > 250 m from the abandoned stone quarry (Fig. 9e). Despite the common source of these two gases, large variations of the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios in air (from 2592 to 203,319; Fig. 9b) were observed. Since the concentrations of the inert CO_2 in air are mainly controlled by dilution during its transport from the source, the remarkable changes observed in the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios are to be ascribed to either (i) chemical processes affecting and consuming H_2S , i.e. chemical oxidation to SO_2 , or (ii) different transport dynamics of the two gases in air. Whilst the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios increased with the distance from the emitting area (Fig. 9b), the $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{SO}_2$ ratios decreased (Fig. 9g), supporting the hypothesis of a progressive oxidation of H_2S . Nevertheless, SO_2 concentrations measured in the residential area ($\leq 15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; Fig. 9f) were lower than the limit (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for ambient air

reported by WHO (2006). A relatively high $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{SO}_2$ ratio (53; Fig. 9g) was measured in correspondence with the highest CO_2 and H_2S concentrations (1174 mg/m^3 and 351 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively; Fig. 9a,e). Surprisingly, this site was located in front of the descending vehicular access to a private garage (Fig. 1c), quite far from the main emitting zone. To verify the cause(s) of this anomaly, the mobile multi-instrumental station was positioned inside private garages to carry out indoor measurements that revealed alarmingly high pollutants concentrations (CO_2 concentrations up to 2010 mg/m^3 , H_2S and SO_2 concentrations exceeding the 24-h average thresholds, i.e. up to 1358 and 24.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively). This demonstrated how the hazard related to endogenous gas emission may dramatically increase under poorly ventilated conditions, especially at basement and ground levels. It is worth noting that, at about 150 m ESE from this point, H_2S was detected at high concentration (225 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in front of a house that was evacuated in March 2018 due to severe odor nuisance. The installation of an early warning alarm system to continuously monitor at least CO_2 and H_2S is highly recommended to avoid serious health problems to the inhabitants of these houses.

Other pollutants potentially affecting the air quality at Cava dei Selci included GEM, CO and CH_4 . The GEM concentrations in air at F1 and F2 (up to 195 and 137 ng/m^3 , respectively) were significantly higher than the typical background concentration in unpolluted areas, i.e. $\sim 2 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ (USEPA, 1997; Ebinghaus et al., 2002). Along the measuring pathway in the residential area GEM ranged from 19 to 33 ng/m^3 , i.e. above the mean concentrations measured in some urban environments (Denis et al., 2006 and references therein). However, the GEM spatial distribution was decoupled with respect to those of CO_2 and H_2S (as confirmed by the CO_2/GEM dot map; Fig. 9i), since it increased moving from NNE to SSW, the highest values being measured > 250 m away from the emitting area (Fig. 9h). This suggests a different transport dynamic of GEM with respect to those of CO_2 and H_2S , controlled by peculiar processes regulating the behavior of the pollutant once released in the air. GEM is in fact relatively stable in the atmosphere (e.g. Schroeder and Munthe, 1998; Sommar et al., 2001; Fitzgerald and Lamborg, 2007). It has a low solubility in water and little tendency to be scavenged by physical removal processes, e.g. dry deposition on vegetation (Fu et al., 2010). Moreover, meteorological parameters such as temperature, humidity and wind speed and direction were proven to exert a greater impact on GEM concentrations than photochemical reactions (e.g. Esbrí et al., 2016), contrarily to H_2S , which is more affected by secondary (oxidation) processes in air.

The concentrations of CO and CH_4 (from 0.46 to 0.77 mg/m^3 and from 1.3 to 1.7 mg/m^3 , respectively) were largely higher than global background concentrations ($\leq 0.14 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ and $\sim 1.18 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$; WHO, 2000). The dot map of the CO_2/CH_4 ratios (Fig. 9c) closely resembles that of CO_2 levels (Fig. 9a), pointing to a negligible spatial variation of the CH_4 concentrations in air. Moreover, the CH_4 concentrations in air were comparable to those measured in other urban areas ($\sim 1.4 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$; e.g. Thi Nguyen et al., 2010), suggesting that its impact in the residential area is negligible. The distribution map of the CO_2/CO ratios (Fig. 9d) evidences higher values in the central portion of the residential zone and a faster decrease of CO concentrations in air with respect to those of CO_2 as the distance from the emitting source increased, suggesting that CO likely undergoes oxidation processes once it is released in air. Conversely, the decrease of the CO_2/CO ratios in distal areas from the emitting sources can likely be attributed to the influence of a different contaminant source, such as vehicular traffic. Consequently, the impact of CO due to the gas emissions is limited to the surroundings of the abandoned quarry, although the levels of CO in air, even inside the non-ventilated private garage, were largely lower than those measured in urban traffic environments (8-h average CO concentrations generally lower than 20 mg/m^3 ; WHO, 2000). Differently, CH_4 inside the windowless garage reached contents up to 11 mg/m^3 , i.e. up to one order of magnitude higher than those recorded in outdoor ambient air, confirming the strong impact of the endogenous gases on

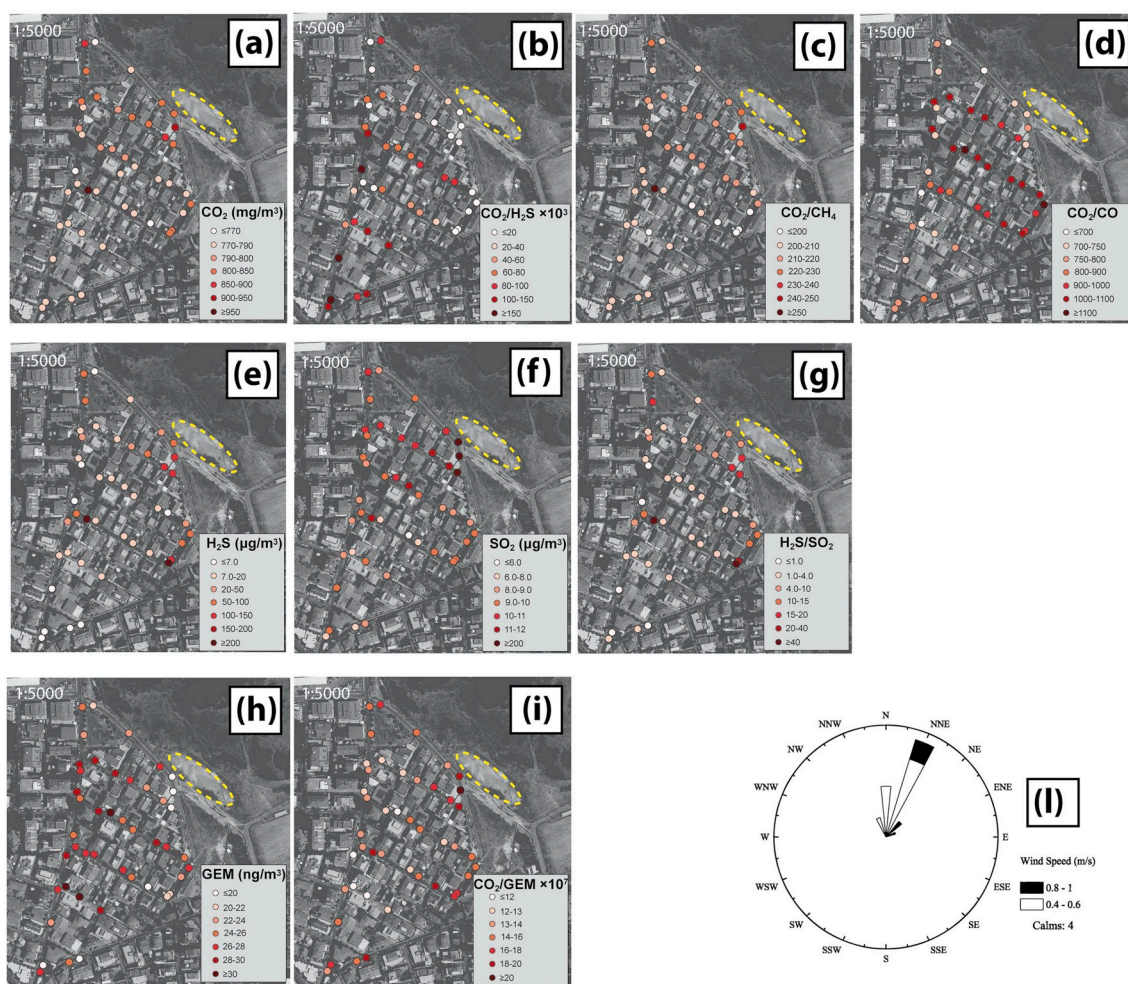


Fig. 9. Dot maps of air concentrations of (a) CO_2 , (e) H_2S , (f) SO_2 , (h) GEM and concentration ratios of (b) $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$, (c) CO_2/CH_4 , (d) CO_2/CO , (g) $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{SO}_2$ and (i) CO_2/GEM measured in the residential area in Cava dei Selci. The yellow dashed ellipse identifies the location of the abandoned quarry. (j) Wind direction and speed. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

indoor environments.

6. Conclusions

Natural gas emissions and diffuse soil degassing strongly affect the air quality in the intensely urbanized area of Cava dei Selci (20 km SE of Rome) as testified by the lethal accidents that occurred in the past and caused by gas inhalation. The multi-parametric geochemical survey carried out in this area in April 2016 evidenced that CO_2 , mainly originated by mantle and/or magmatic degassing with a minor crustal contribution, was the main constituent of the discharged gases, followed by significant concentrations of other toxic species, such as H_2S , CH_4 and GEM. The comparison between the chemical composition of punctual vents and soil diffuse gases revealed that secondary biogeochemical processes occurring at shallow depth (e.g. oxidation reaction, gas-water interaction and microbial activity) were able to strongly and efficiently affect the reduced gas species. Consequently, secondary processes play a key role in controlling the effective amounts of these species discharged into the atmosphere. Accordingly, whilst the total outputs of CO_2 , H_2S and CH_4 from the study area were estimated in 2,660, 12 and 0.42 kg day⁻¹, respectively, the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and CO_2/CH_4 ratios of the gases diffusively released from the soil were significantly higher than those measured in gases from the punctual emissions (from 89 to 177 and from 1079 to 1,456, respectively). Our results indicated that the effective evaluation of the potential impact of air pollutants from deep gas reservoirs requires a complete geochemical survey on

both diffuse and punctual emissions.

The air quality was estimated by a MMS approach, which produced a snapshot of the concentrations of the main deep-originated and by-product gas compounds along a pathway passing through the urban settlement mostly exposed to the lethal gases. Hydrogen sulfide was found to be the most impacting gas, producing odor annoyance up to more than 250 m from the emitting area and occasionally exceeding the 24-h air quality guideline for ambient air. High concentrations of CO_2 , H_2S and CH_4 were also recorded in a poorly ventilated garage, likely due to gas permeation through the basement.

In the urban area of Cava dei Selci, the MMS survey coupled with a meteorological station allowed us to individuate the sites most prone to the deterioration of the air quality and provide useful information for deploying an early warning system based on gas monitoring through automated gas sensor network by the local authorities in order to avoid further lethal events and mitigate the potential hazard effects due the inhalation of toxic gases.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2019.01.003>.

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