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3 **Diffuse emission of CO₂ and convective heat release at Nisyros caldera (Greece)**
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62 **Abstract**
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65 The diffuse emission of CO₂ from the south east sector of Nisyros caldera (Lakki plain) has been
66 measured during a detailed survey (~ 1400 soil CO₂ flux measurements) performed in October
67 2018. The gas emissions are fed by hydrothermal sources and, in minor part, by the soil biogenic
68 activity whose mean CO₂ flux (4 g m⁻² d⁻¹) is here estimated for the first time. The total amount of
69 hydrothermal CO₂ reaches 92 ± 8 t/d, a value that is slightly higher than that estimated with the
70 same method between 1999 and 2001 (74 ± 7 t/d). The gas is emitted by different diffuse degassing
71 structures (DDSs), including volcanic-hydrothermal structures (craters and domes) and NE-SW and
72 NW-SE-trending tectonic lineaments.
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75 Even if the total CO₂ emission is not particularly high at Nisyros (close to the median of CO₂
76 emissions measured in volcanoes worldwide), the process is very energetic. The thermal energy
77 associated with the shallow condensation of the steam in the DDSs reaches ~ 60 MW, while we
78 estimate at 134-270 MW the total amount of thermal energy involved in the convective rising of the
79 deep geothermal liquids that transport the gas from the depth toward the surface. This large flux of
80 energy could dramatically increase during future earthquakes by addition of heat and mass from a
81 deep hydrothermal reservoir, potentially triggering hydrothermal explosions, as it happened several
82 times in the past few centuries.
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92 **Keywords:** Nisyros Caldera; CO₂ diffuse degassing; Thermal energy; Convective hydrothermal
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97 **1. Introduction**
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100 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is one of the most abundant volatiles emitted from volcanic areas.
101 Plumes, fumaroles, crater lakes and degassing grounds supply high amounts of deep-originated CO₂
102 (either magmatic or metamorphic) into the atmosphere (e.g., Perez et al., 2011; Burton et al., 2013,
103 Aiuppa et al., 2015; Cardellini et al., 2017). Volcanic CO₂ degassing is controlled by many factors,
104 including the presence in the subsurface of magmatic or hydrothermal sources and factors affecting
105 the permeability (such as the structural features and rock porosities, e.g., Chiodini et al., 2001;
106 Caliro et al., 2005; Pérez et al., 2013; Viveiros et al., 2010). During volcanic crises, plumes and
107 fumarolic vents release high amounts of volatiles, but even during periods of dormancy, volcanoes
108 emit significant quantity of gases. In particular, CO₂ diffuse degassing from soil represents an
109 important process to be considered during these dormant stages (Chiodini et al., 1998; Perez et al.,
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121 2013; Cardellini et al., 2017). Indeed, due to its relatively low solubility in silicate melt and its
122 relatively non-reactive behaviour, CO₂ can be used to investigate the dynamics of deep degassing
123 (e.g., Gerlach et al., 1997; Poland et al., 2012; Aiuppa et al., 2013). Measuring CO₂ from diffuse
124 soil emanations can be particularly informative in volcanic edifices or calderas associated with large
125 hydrothermal systems, where fluids are discharged from several locations, and where the acidic
126 soluble gas species (e.g. SO₂, HCl, HF) are dissolved in the aquifer (Hernandez et al., 1998; Mori et
127 al., 2001; Frondini et al., 2004; Bloomberg et al., 2014; Werner et al., 2014; Cardellini et al., 2017).
128 In such scenarios, periodical measurements of ground CO₂ fluxes from large areas may be a key
129 monitoring tool to follow the evolution of volcanic systems by tracking the variations of the total
130 output and migration/changing of the main diffuse degassing structures (DDS) (e.g., Chiodini et al.,
131 2010; Perez et al., 2013; Cardellini et al., 2017). In addition, CO₂ flux anomalies allow to identify
132 and map hidden tectonic and volcanic structures (e.g., faults, fractures and crater rims) when acting
133 as preferential pathways for the ascent of magmatic/hydrothermal fluids (e.g. Barberi and
134 Carapezza, 1994; Giammanco et al., 1998; Chiodini et al., 2001; Baubron et al., 2002; Aiuppa et al.,
135 2004; Chiodini et al., 2004; Werner and Cardellini, 2006; Schütze et al., 2012).

145 At Nisyros Volcano, soil diffuse degassing of hydrothermal CO₂ affects a large part of the
146 eastern sector of the caldera (Lakki plain, Fig.1b) that has been the location of historical
147 hydrothermal eruptions. Previous detailed studies in the 1996-2001 period has provided a complex
148 picture of CO₂ degassing, being emitted from hydrothermal craters, volcanic domes, faults and
149 fractures (Brombach et al., 2001; Cardellini et al., 2003; Caliro et al., 2005). Here we present the
150 result of a new detailed soil CO₂ flux campaign, performed in October 2018 (~ 1400 measurements
151 over an area of 2.2 km²). A main aim is to check for eventual variations in the amount of emitted
152 CO₂ and in the geometry of the diffuse degassing structures (DDS) with respect to the results of
153 several campaigns performed in the 1999-2001 period in the frame of GEOWARN project
154 (GEOWARN, 2003; Cardellini et al., 2003; Caliro et al., 2005).

161 Recently, soil CO₂ flux measurements have found useful applications in geothermal studies for
162 geothermometric purposes (Harvey et al., 2017), for environmental monitoring and health risk
163 assessment (Viveiros et al., 2010; Bergfeld et al., 2015), and to evaluate the thermal energy emitted
164 by hydrothermal systems (Fridrikson et al., 2006; Chiodini et al., 2007; Bloomberg et al., 2014;
165 Harvey et al., 2015). In this frame, a second objective of the work is to compute, for the first time,
166 the H₂O mass and thermal budgets of the entire process (from depth to the surface) using the
167 measured CO₂ emission as a tracer of the original liquids convectively rising at Lakki plain.
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182 *1.1 Volcanic-hydrothermal setting and recent activity of the volcano*
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185 Nisyros volcano belongs to a group of volcanic islands (including Kos, Yali, and other minor
186 islands; Di Paola, 1974; Francalanci et al., 1995; Vougioukalakis, 1998), in the easternmost edge of
187 the active Aegean arc (Fig. 1a). Volcanism in the Kos-Nisyros-Yali volcanic complex started at
188 least 3 Ma ago (Matsuda et al., 1999; Bachmann et al., 2010), and erupted a number of units (both
189 explosive and effusive) until recent times (e.g., see summary in Pe-Piper & Piper, 2002); the
190 youngest eruptions were probably located on Yali and Nisyros, with pumice fall and lava
191 domes/flows dating back to < 30-25 kyr (Wagner et al., 1976; Federman and Carey, 1980). The
192 Kos-Nisyros-Yali volcanic field is characterized by a large caldera-forming eruption at ~160-165
193 Kyr (Smith et al., 1996; Bachmann et al., 2010), which formed the (> 60 km³ D.R.E) Kos Plateau
194 Tuff (KPT).
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201 Nisyros volcano sits on the southern edge of the 5-10 km wide caldera that collapsed during the
202 KPT, and all its subaerial units appear younger than the KPT (see summary in Bachmann et al.,
203 2010). The activity of the volcano is dominated by 2 large explosive eruptions, the Lower and
204 Upper Pumice (Fig. 1b), likely a few km³ Dense Rock Equivalent (DRE) each (e.g., Longchamp et
205 al., 2011). These eruptions built a ~4 km-diameter collapse structure in the center of the island that
206 was partly flanked and subsequently filled by large lava flows of dacite to rhyodacitic composition.
207 The most recent activity of the volcano is characterized by historical hydrothermal eruptions that
208 occurred in the southern half of the Lakki plain (Fig. 1b), the last of which led to the formation of
209 Polybote Micros crater in 1887 (Marini et al., 1993).
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215 At Lakki plain, hot altered grounds, bubbling/mud pools and fumaroles represent the surface
216 manifestations of a still active hydrothermal circulation. The data of the two deep wells Nis-1 and
217 Nis- 2 (Fig. 1b), together with the geochemical interpretation of the fumarolic fluids and thermal
218 springs, indicate the presence of a shallow (at depths of 250-700 m, T < 250°C) and a deep (at depth
219 >1000-1500 m, T > 290°C) aquifer beneath the Lakki plain (Chiodini et al., 1993; Brombach et al.,
220 2003). According to Marini et al. (1993), the sudden injection of the deeper hotter fluids into the
221 shallower aquifer, caused by local volcano-tectonic earthquakes, could be the trigger of the
222 hydrothermal explosions that occurred in the area. Following this model, it is likely that the seismic
223 crisis occurred in 1996-1997 (Papadopoulos et al., 1998; Sachpazi et al., 2002) led to variations in
224 the chemical composition of the fumaroles, as a consequence of the input of hot, sulphur-rich deep
225 fluids into the shallower part of the hydrothermal system (Chiodini et al., 2002).
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239 Between 2001 and 2002, two collapse events occurred in the northern part of the Lakki plain,
240 leading to the formation of a 600 m long fissure. Based on the chemical (e.g. H₂S, CH₄, H₂) and
241 isotopic ($\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$) composition of the interstitial gases collected at 40 cm depth from the bottom
242 of the fracture, as well as the chemical and mineralogical features of the fissure wall deposits,
243 Venturi et al. (2018) suggest that the circulation of acidic fluids (CO₂- and H₂S-rich) may have
244 weakened the terrain, triggering such collapses. In this frame, we carried out detailed CO₂ flux
245 measurements along the bottom of this fracture to highlight the eventual occurrence of anomalous
246 degassing.
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252 253 **2. Materials and methods**

254 255 *2.1 Soil CO₂ flux*

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260 Soil CO₂ fluxes were measured over an area of 2.2 km², roughly corresponding to the central
261 and southern parts of the Lakki plain (Fig. 1b), during a survey carried out from 1 to 14 October
262 2018. In order to obtain a high resolution of the main structures, we adopted a measurement density
263 of about 1 every 1700 m². The entire data set consists of 1437 points (Fig. 3), which includes also
264 data from detailed surveying of Stefanos crater (80 points), of the fracture opened in 2001-2002 (30
265 points), and of a NW-SE lineament (89 points) located in the northern part of the studied area
266 (Appendix a).
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271 The measurements were performed using the accumulation chamber method (AC; Chiodini et
272 al., 1998). The instrument we used was developed at Perugia University (Italy) and it is composed
273 of (i) a metal cylindrical chamber (volume-chamber of 2.8 L), (ii) an infrared sensor (LICOR Li-
274 820, working in the range 0-20,000 ppm of CO₂), (iii) an analog-digital converter and a (iv)
275 smartphone (see Fig. S4 Cardellini et al., 2017). The chamber is placed on the ground and the gas is
276 pumped from the chamber, at a rate of $\sim 0.0167 \text{ L s}^{-1}$, into the sensor. After passing through the
277 infrared spectrophotometer, the gas is reinjected into the chamber through a perforated manifold in
278 order to avoid depressurization and to homogenize the gas inside the chamber (Cardellini et al.,
279 2017). The analogic signal from the infrared sensor is then digitally converted and saved on a
280 smartphone through Bluetooth connection. Using the Gasdroide app (Cardellini et al., 2017), the
281 device plots the CO₂ concentration (C_{CO_2}) over time and allows to compute in real time the rate of
282 increase of CO₂ in the chamber ($\alpha = dC_{\text{CO}_2}/dt$), i.e. the initial slope of the C_{CO_2} -t curve. The flux of
283 CO₂ from soil is proportional to α and a geometric factor, cf , theoretically the height of the chamber
284 (see Chiodini et al., 1998 for further details), according to the relation $\phi_{\text{soil CO}_2} = cf \times \alpha$. The cf of the
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298 used apparatus was determined by an instrumental calibration test carried out in laboratory at
299 Perugia University before the survey (see Chiodini et al., 1998; Cardellini et al., 2017 for further
300 details on calibration procedure).
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303 The measured CO₂ fluxes were elaborated by statistical and geostatistical tools (i.e. GSA
304 method and sequential Gaussian simulations). The GSA method (Graphical Statistical Approach,
305 Chiodini et al., 1998) was used in order to distinguish the main sources of the soil CO₂ flux (i.e.
306 biological vs. volcanic). In fact, the multiple origin of the CO₂ can result in a polymodal statistical
307 distribution of CO₂ flux values, which plots as a curve with $n-1$ inflection points on a logarithmic
308 probability plot when n log-normal distributed populations overlap (Sinclair, 1974; Chiodini et al.,
309 1998; Cardellini et al., 2003). According to Sinclair (1974), a graphical method can be used for the
310 partition of such complex statistical distributions into individual log-normal populations and
311 compute the fraction (f_i), the mean (M_i) and the standard deviation of each of them. The same
312 approach was used to elaborate the data of isotopic composition of the soil CO₂ provided by Venturi
313 et al. (2018). Since the computed M_i value for the CO₂ flux refers to the logarithm of the CO₂ flux
314 values, the mean value of CO₂ flux was then estimated using a Montecarlo simulation procedure.
315 The results of the Montecarlo simulation procedure were also used to define the uncertainty of the
316 estimated mean CO₂ flux values as the standard deviation of n simulated values.
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325 In order to (1) characterize the spatial distribution CO₂ fluxes, (2) map the soil CO₂ degassing
326 and (3) estimate the total CO₂ output, a geostatistical approach based on sequential Gaussian
327 simulations (sGs method) was used. The sGs method is based on the *sgsim* algorithm of the GSLIB
328 software library (Deutsch and Journel, 1998) and was first proposed for the study of soil CO₂
329 diffuse degassing by Cardellini et al. (2003). It consists of the production of numerous equiprobable
330 realizations of the spatial distribution of CO₂ flux (i.e. CO₂ flux maps). The CO₂ flux values were
331 simulated at locations defined by a regular grid in order to reproduce the CO₂ flux statistical
332 distribution and the CO₂ flux spatial structure (i.e., the variogram of the CO₂ flux; Appendix b). The
333 simulations were run in order to produce 200 realizations for each dataset. The produced
334 realizations were post-processed to realize maps of the CO₂ flux and probability maps. The map of
335 CO₂ flux was obtained through a pointwise linear average of all the realizations. The probability
336 map consists in a map of the probability that, among all the realizations, the simulated CO₂ flux at
337 any location (i.e. at grid nodes) is above a cut-off value.
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346 We applied the same elaborations also to the data of five surveys performed in September 1999,
347 May 2000, September 2000, June 2001 and September 2001 (1999-2001 survey in the following,
348 Caliro et al., 2005). The 2018 campaign and the 1999-2001 survey were carried out during dry
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357 periods when the soil water content, the main parameter which could affect the diffusion of gases
358 (e.g. Viveiros et al., 2008), is not altered by the rain.
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362 2.2 From CO₂ flux to H₂O mass and energy budgets 363 364

365 Kerrick et al. (1995) considered a convective model for the transfer of heat and CO₂ in the Taupo
366 geothermal area to compute the CO₂ flux starting from heat flux, temperature and CO₂ content of
367 the deep geothermal liquids. Later, the same conceptual model of the convective ascent of deep
368 fluids transporting heat and CO₂ was used to estimate the thermal energy involved in the CO₂
369 degassing process at Reykjanes geothermal area (Iceland, Fridrikson et al., 2006) and at Lateral
370 caldera (Italy, Chiodini et al., 2007). According to this convective model, we can assume that the
371 hydrothermal CO₂ currently emitted at Lakki plain is originally dissolved in deep geothermal
372 liquids and released during their ascent, depressurization and boiling. Based on this conceptual
373 model (Fig. 2), on the measured CO₂ fluxes, and on assumptions suitable for the Nisyros case (see
374 the results section), we estimated the mass flux (Q_i) and the associated thermal energies (QH_i) of
375 the deep hydrothermal liquid (Q_{L0} , QH_{L0}), and of the steam that separates with the CO₂ during the
376 boiling process and condenses approaching the surface (Q_{cond} , QH_{cond}).
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384 The mass flux of the condensates, i.e. Q_{cond} (in kg/s), and the associated thermal energy, i.e.
385 QH_{cond} (latent heat of condensation plus cooling of the condensates at ambient temperature, in
386 MW), are given by:
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$$391 \quad Q_{cond} = Q_{CO_2} \times R_{H_2O/CO_2} \quad (1)$$

$$392 \quad QH_{cond} = Q_{cond} \times (H_{V, 100^\circ C} - H_{L, 20^\circ C}) \times 0.001 \quad (2)$$

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397 where Q_{CO_2} is the CO₂ output (in kg/s), R_{H_2O/CO_2} is the H₂O/CO₂ weight ratio of the fumaroles
398 located in the degassing CO₂ areas (Chiodini et al., 2005), $H_{V, 100^\circ C}$ and $H_{L, 20^\circ C}$ are the enthalpies of
399 the steam at 100 °C and of the liquid at ambient temperature (2676 kJ/kg and 83.9 kJ/kg,
400 respectively; Keenan et al., 1969), and 0.001 is the factor to convert kW in MW. Note that the
401 assumption of a condensation at 100° C is supported by the observation that the temperature of the
402 hot soils degassing CO₂ increases with depth up to reach the boiling temperature of the water (~
403 100°C) while, at higher depths, it remains constant (see Chiodini et al., 2005 and references
404 therein).
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The mass flux of the geothermal liquid Q_{L0} (kg/s) and the associated thermal energy QH_{L0} (MW) are computed, as follows:

$$Q_{L0} = Q_{CO2} / m_{CO2,d} \quad (3)$$

$$QH_{L0} = Q_{L0} \times H_{L,T0} \times 0.001 \quad (4)$$

where Q_{CO2} (in mol/s) is the CO₂ output, $m_{CO2,d}$ (mol/kg) is the concentration of the degassed CO₂ originally dissolved in the liquid (Chiodini et al., 2007), $H_{L,T0}$ (kJ/kg) is the enthalpy of the liquid at the original temperature T_0 , and 0.001 is the factor to convert kW in MW.

The difference $Q_{res} = Q_{L0} - Q_{cond}$ includes the mass of the residual liquid remaining after boiling and of the steam that condense in the subsurface (lateral outflow or descending column of the convective cells) while the difference $QH_{res} = QH_{L0} - QH_{cond}$ is the sum of the others terms of the energy balance (e.g., the thermal energy transported by the lateral outflow, the energy transmitted to the media to maintain hot the system, etc.)

In the case of Nisyros, the variables of the equations 1 to 4 were estimated, as follow:

Q_{CO2} : computed from soil CO₂ flux measurements;

$R_{H2O/CO2}$: was set as the H₂O/CO₂ mean weight ratio of the fumaroles located within the zones degassing CO₂, the compositions of which are available in the literature (Chiodini et al., 1993; Brombach et al., 2003; Caliro et al., 2005; Appendix c);

T_0 : the temperature of the original geothermal liquids was assumed as that estimated for the deep reservoirs reached by the geothermal wells Nis-1 and Nis-2 (340°C and 290°C, respectively; Marini and Fiebig, 2005);

$m_{CO2,d}$: the CO₂ molalities estimated from preliminary tests of the wells Nis-1 ($m_{CO2} = 0.29$ mol/kg at 340°C) and Nis-2 ($m_{CO2} = 0.12$ mol/kg at 290°C, see Table 9.2 in Marini and Fiebig, 2005) were selected as the most suitable proxy for the CO₂ concentration in the original deep liquids ($m_{CO2,L0}$). We also assumed that the CO₂ is completely degassed during the ascent and the depressurization of the deep fluids (i.e. $m_{CO2,d} = m_{CO2,L0}$).

3. Results

3.1 Hydrothermal CO₂ output at Lakki plain

3.1.1 Background estimation and total output of hydrothermal CO₂

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477 The measured soil CO₂ flux varies from 0.07 g m⁻² d⁻¹ to 3725 g m⁻² d⁻¹ with a mean value of 55 g
478 m⁻² d⁻¹. The data were used to map the soil CO₂ flux (Fig. 3) and to estimate the total CO₂ output
479 and its uncertainty applying the sGs method (see section 2.1). The obtained total CO₂ output of
480 100.6 ± 7.9 t/d (Table 1) includes both the gas produced by the biological activity in the soil
481 (background flux) and the gas supplied by the hydrothermal source. The background flux was
482 estimated by two approaches based on independent data sets:
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- 488 1. The first approach is based on the selection of measurements from the northern part of the
489 investigated area (288 measurements, see rectangular area in Fig. 3) where low fluxes (blue
490 colour) dominate. In the log-probability plot of Fig. 4a, these data describe a curve with 2
491 inflation points indicating the overlapping of 3 populations. The lowest flux Population A ($f_A =$
492 0.07, mean = 0.59 ± 0.08 g m⁻² d⁻¹) is representative of the degassing of soils with scarce or null
493 vegetation, a consideration that is supported by both the very low fluxes and field observations.
494 The highest flux Population C ($f_C = 0.35$, mean = 32.7 ± 3.9 g m⁻² d⁻¹) represents outlets the
495 hydrothermal source (see next sections), whereas the Population B ($f_B = 0.58$, mean = $3.96 \pm$
496 0.20 g m⁻² d⁻¹) reflects the background fluxes fed by soil biogenic activity.
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- 503 2. The second approach is based on the results of a soil CO₂ prospecting available in the literature
504 (Venturi et al., 2018). The work, among other parameters, reports 50 carbon isotopic
505 compositions of soil CO₂ at a depth of 40 cm and as many measurements of soil CO₂ fluxes
506 performed in the same sites. In the probability plot of Fig. 4b, the δ¹³C values are again
507 interpretable with the overlapping of 3 populations. The population with the highest values
508 (δ¹³C = $-1.6\text{‰} \pm 0.8\text{‰}$) is easily identified as the hydrothermal CO₂ as it is characterised by an
509 isotopic signature close to the that of the fumarolic CO₂ (δ¹³C from -1‰ to -1.4‰ , Venturi et
510 al., 2018; δ¹³C from -0.4‰ to -4‰ , Brombach et al., 2003). The population with the lowest
511 values (δ¹³C = $-22.3\text{‰} \pm 1.5\text{‰}$) is produced by the soil biogenic CO₂ as clearly indicated by the
512 negative values that are close to the biologically derived carbon (see Chiodini et al. 2008 and
513 references therein). Both the hydrothermal and soil biogenic populations are characterised by a
514 low variance suggesting that the values that are intermediate between them cannot be ascribed
515 to the overlapping of the two populations but rather to the occurrence of the physical mixing
516 between the two sources (the third population, mixing of the two sources in Fig. 3b, δ¹³C = $-$
517 12.6‰ ± 5‰). The CO₂ fluxes associated with the soil biogenic CO₂ population 3 vary from
518 0.03 gm⁻²d⁻¹ to 14.9 gm⁻²d⁻¹ with a mean value of 4 gm⁻²d⁻¹.
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534 The two independent methods give comparable results, indicating a mean CO₂ production from
535 soil biogenic activity of ~ 4 g m⁻² d⁻¹. This value is relatively low in comparison with measurements
536 in other hydrothermal areas of the world (e.g. Table 3 in Harvey et al., 2015; Viveiros et al., 2010),
537 but expected considering the scarce vegetation and/or the presence of bare soils. This biogenic-
538 background value allowed us to estimate an output of ~8 t/d of biogenic CO₂ for the entire surveyed
539 area and to obtain a value of ~92 t/d for the total CO₂ output from the hydrothermal source. This
540 estimate of the flux produced by the hydrothermal source has to be considered a minimum value,
541 since the biogenic CO₂ flux of 4 g m⁻² d⁻¹ has been estimated in the northern zone, which is the most
542 vegetated area. The total hydrothermal CO₂ output obtained for the 2018 survey is ~24% higher
543 than that obtained, adopting the same approach, for the 1999-2001 survey (Table 1; Caliro et al.,
544 2005)

553 3.1.2 Probability maps and definition of the DDSs

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556 In order to define the locations where the hydrothermal source fed the soil CO₂ flux (i.e. the
557 DDSs), we first defined a maximum threshold for the CO₂ flux generated by the soil biogenic
558 source alone. We selected a precautionary threshold of 15 g d⁻¹ m⁻² above which < 1% of the
559 background flux population B belongs (Fig. 4a). The DDSs were defined as those areas where the
560 probability, among all the performed realizations, that the simulated CO₂ flux is higher than the
561 biogenic CO₂ flux threshold is over 50% (Cardellini et al., 2003), i.e. the CO₂ flux is reasonably fed
562 by the hydrothermal source. The probability maps for the 2018 and 1999-2001 surveys are shown in
563 Fig. 5a and 5b respectively, and the computed extent of the DDSs is reported in Table1. The DDSs
564 correspond to hydrothermal-volcanic structures (hydrothermal craters and domes) that are located
565 along the fault bordering to the east and to the west the Lakki plain (Fig. 5) and, in the northern
566 sector, to obvious NE-SW and NW-SE-trending lineaments likely of tectonic origin (Fig. 5).

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568 In order to better define and understand such complex pattern of degassing structures, either
569 linked to evident hydrothermal activity, or controlled by tectonics structures where no obvious
570 thermal manifestations occur, we separately considered the following nine DDSs (Fig. 5): 1) the
571 hydrothermal crater of Stefanos; 2) the hydrothermal craters of Kaminakia; 3) the hydrothermal
572 craters of Polybote; 4) the hydrothermal crater of Phlegeton; 5) the Lofos dome; 6) the
573 hydrothermal site of Ramos; 7) the NE fault bordering to the east the caldera floor; 8) and 9) the
574 hundreds meters long lineaments of relatively high CO₂ flux located in the northern part of the
575 studied area (NE-SW and NW-SE). For each of them, specific computations were carried out
576 applying the same method used for the entire area, i.e. based on CO₂ flux maps for the estimation of
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593 the total output and on probability maps for the computation of the singular DDS extent (Appendix
594 d) . The results are summarized in Table 2 and in Fig. 6 for both the 2018 and 1999-2001 datasets.
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596 The nine DDSs differed in shape and magnitude of degassing. The Stefanos, Kaminakia and
597 Lofos DDSs had the highest CO₂ outputs (10-20 t/d) whereas the lowest emissions were computed
598 from the linear DDSs in the northern sector (8-NESW line and 9-NWSE line, 1-4 t/d, see Table 2
599 and Fig. 6). The hydrothermal CO₂ output was assumed equal to the total CO₂ output for the DDSs
600 where no relevant vegetated soil is present (1-Stefanos, 2-Kaminakia, 3-Polybote, 4-Phlegeton, 5-
601 Lofos dome, 6 Ramos), whereas the biogenic background correction was applied to the other zones
602 (Table 2).
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608 Particular attention was paid to the fracture area opened in 2001-2002, which is located in DDS
609 no.8 (Fig. 5). Preliminary data processing, performed during the field work, showed that the
610 measurement grid adopted did not allow us to highlight any CO₂ flux anomaly linked to the
611 fracture. This consideration, supported by the final elaboration of the soil CO₂ flux data (Fig. 3 and
612 Fig. 7a), suggested us to adopt a more detailed sampling along the entire 600 m long fracture (30
613 measurements in the bottom of the fracture, red points in Fig. 7b, c). The data set, integrated with
614 these specific measurements, allowed us to highlight a weak CO₂ flux anomaly along the entire 600
615 m long fracture (Fig. 7b). All the measurements performed inside the fracture, even if not high in
616 absolute, were indeed systematically higher than those performed outside the fracture (see transects
617 *c1* to *c10* in Fig. 7c).
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625 *3.2 H₂O mass and energy budget of the convective hydrothermal system feeding the CO₂ emission*

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628 The total flux of condensed steam (Q_{cond}) and the associated thermal energy released through
629 condensation and cooling (QH_{cond}), computed by summing the contribution of each DDS and
630 scaling the results over the entire surveyed area (Table 3), are 23.4 kg/s and 60.7 MW, respectively.
631 This latter value is higher than previous estimations (42.5 MW, Caliro et al., 2005), according to the
632 increased emission of the deeply derived CO₂.
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636 The computed amount of hot liquids (Q_{L0}) transporting from depth the CO₂ varies from 83.9 kg/s
637 (Nis-1 case) to 209 kg/s (Nis-2 case) with associated thermal energies (QH_{L0}) from 134 MW to 270
638 MW. Most of this energy would be transported by the residual liquids that escape the system
639 through a lateral outflow (and/or are possibly involved in the descending columns of the convective
640 cells) and/or to heat the rocks of the system (QH_{res} from 74 to 211 MW). Numerous thermal springs
641 located close to the coast (at sea level, Fig. 1b), discharge mixtures of a thermal component with sea
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652 water and groundwaters confirming the existence of a significant lateral outflow of geothermal
653 liquids.
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655 656 **Discussion and Conclusions**

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659 One of the aims of our study was to check the eventual variations in the diffuse degassing process
660 affecting the area over decadal timescales. In October 2018, the hydrothermal CO₂ emission at
661 Lakki plain was of 91.6 t/d, close to the median diffuse emission of deep CO₂ from 73 worldwide
662 volcanoes (112 t/d) that were measured and published in the last years and recently compiled in an
663 open access database (Cardellini et al., 2013; www.magadb.net) and used for a review of volcanic
664 CO₂ emissions (Werner et al., 2019). This CO₂ output for Nisyros is higher than a previous estimate
665 (68 t/d Caliro et al., 2005). This increase is partially due to the different evaluation of the
666 background contribution from the soil biogenic source that was assumed to be of 8 gm⁻²d⁻¹ in Caliro
667 et al. (2005). However, a new treatment of the soil flux data together with the elaboration of the
668 carbon isotopic compositions of soil gases (data only recently available in the literature) indicated a
669 value of 4 gm⁻²d⁻¹ is more appropriate. Hence, the total 1999-2001 hydrothermal CO₂ output should
670 be ~ 74 t/d after processing the data with the same methods applied to the 2018 datasets. This still
671 leads to an imbalance of ~ 20 t/d between 1999-2001 and 2018 (from 74 to 92 t/d); the increase of
672 the CO₂ emission in the 20 years is accompanied by the enlargement of the area degassing
673 hydrothermal fluids (from 0.77 km² in 1999-2001 to 0.92 km² in 2018; Table 1). Although the
674 1999-2001 surveys were carried out with significantly higher number of measured points comparing
675 to the 2018 campaign, the observed increase of ~ 24% can not be attributed to the different number
676 of measurements. Indeed, the measurements number of both the surveys are sufficiently high to
677 provide an estimation of the total CO₂ output with errors lower than 5% as predicted by applying
678 the relation between the estimate uncertainty and the number of measurements within the DDS (see
679 section 3.2.3 in Cardellini et al., 2003).
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693 The changes in the diffuse emission of CO₂ were further investigated by dividing the area in nine
694 DDSs (Fig. 6; Table 2). This detailed new treatment of the data shows that the enlargement of the
695 areas degassing hydrothermal CO₂ affected almost all the DDSs (Fig. 6a), while the increase in the
696 total emission results are less homogeneous (Fig. 6b). The strongest increases involve the Lofos
697 dome (12.6 t/d in 1999-2001, 20 t/d in 2018; Table 2) and the hydrothermal site of Ramos (4.83 t/d
698 in 1999-2001, 10.5 t/d in 2018; Table 2), whereas a significant decrease in the CO₂ output was
699 observed at Kaminakia craters (20.8 t/d in 1999-2001, 12.8 t/d in 2018; Table 2). In other zones, the
700 degassing process remained nearly constant (e.g., Stefanos crater with output of 14.7 t/d in 1999-
701 2001 and 16.8 t/d in 2018; Table 2).
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711 In general, the DDSs points to a strong structural control; they are located along the NE-SW faults
712 that border to the east and to the west the Lakki plain or along NE-SW and NW-SE lineaments in
713 the plain (Fig. 5), the latter corresponding to the two main directions of regional tectonics at Nisyros
714 the plain (Fig. 5), the latter corresponding to the two main directions of regional tectonics at Nisyros
715 (Vougioukalakis, 1993). The role played by the local faults is particularly evident at
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- 718 1. Lofos dome, where the degassing zone is limited by NE-SW and NW-SE rectilinear
719 borders (Fig. 5), and
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- 721 2. in the northern sector of the surveyed area, where CO₂ anomalies correspond to evident
722 NE-SW and NW-SE lineaments likely of tectonic origin (Fig. 5).
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724 Significant efforts were devoted to measure the CO₂ flux from the fracture that opened in 2001-
725 2002 following the NE-SW and the NW-SE directions (Figs. 7). Previous investigations discovered
726 hydrothermal gases (CO₂ and H₂S) in the soil of the fracture but did not highlight anomalies in the
727 CO₂ emission (Venturi et. al, 2018). Here, after adopting a suitable measurement strategy, we show
728 clear evidence of the anomalous CO₂ ascent from the entire 600 m long fracture (Fig. 7b). This new
729 result agrees well with the presence at shallow depth of CO₂- and H₂S-rich fluids that alter the
730 minerals of the rocks, cause self-sealing and permeability decrease (Venturi et al., 2018), hence
731 preventing high gas fluxes. Such permeability reduction, possibly occurring within any fracture in
732 the volcanic edifice of Nisyros, can be reversed by seismic activity. This process of reducing-
733 increasing permeability could explain the gas flux fluctuations between 1999-2001 and 2018.
734 Indeed, Nisyros is located in a seismically active area where, during this century, an average of 2.7
735 events per month with M > 2.8 was observed (Papadimitriu et al., 2017). In addition periods of
736 enhanced seismicity occurred in 2011, 2014 (Papadimitriu et al. 2017) and 2017 (Kos earthquake M
737 6.6, Heidarzadehet al., 2017).
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740 Assuming a convective model for the heat and the gas transfer, we computed the mass and heat
741 fluxes of the ascending deep liquids ($Q_{Lo} = 84-209$ kg/s; $QH_{Lo} = 134-270$ MW) and the mass and
742 thermal energy of the steam condensing at the surface ($Q_{cond} = 23$ kg/s; $QH_{cond} = 61$ MW). We
743 stress that the Q_{Lo} and QH_{Lo} estimations can be affected by uncertainties larger than those of Q_{cond}
744 and QH_{cond} . The latter are in fact computed based only on measurements and on the observation of
745 the presence of hot soils in the main degassing areas while the estimations of Q_{Lo} and QH_{Lo} are
746 dependent also on the original temperature and CO₂ concentration in the deep geothermal liquids.
747 This information is not available in many hydrothermal degassing sites of the world or can only
748 roughly be estimated. At Nisyros, we use temperatures and CO₂ concentrations estimated from
749 preliminary tests of two wells (Nis-1 and Nis-2) that were never in production. We are confident,
750 however, of the reliability of the data because they are close to those expected for typical
751 geothermal systems as described by the empirical T- m_{CO_2} relation of Arnorsson and Gunnlaugsson
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770 (1985) (Fig. 8). Unfortunately, the flow rate of the undiluted thermal component transported by the
771 springs, that could be used for independent estimations of mass and energy budget, is unknown. In
772 spite of these uncertainties, the high Q_{Lo} and QH_{Lo} estimates (84-209 kg/s; 134-270 MW) and the
773 high values of the mass and heat of the shallow steam condensation ($Q_{cond} = 23.4$ kg/s; $QH_{cond} =$
774 60.7 MW) point to a very large amount of energy involved in the process that fed the CO_2
775 degassing. For example, the convective heat flux, computed by dividing only the measured Q_{cond} by
776 the Nisyros island area (41 km²), results at 1.6 W m⁻² a value that is comparable to the convective
777 heat flux at Yellowstone and higher than that estimated at Long Valley caldera (~ 2 W m⁻² and \sim
778 0.6 W m⁻², respectively; Sorey, 1985)

779
780 The flux of deep liquids involved in the convection, currently estimated in hundreds of kg/s, could
781 rise dramatically during the occurrence of earthquakes, as permeability increases. It was suggested
782 that earthquake-related increase of the deep and hot fluid fluxes into the shallow aquifer could have
783 caused hydrothermal explosions and the debris flows that originated the several craters of Lakki
784 plain (Marini et al., 1993). This fault/earthquake-controlled mechanism for the genesis of the
785 hydrothermal craters is in agreement with both the previous interpretation of the Nisyros
786 hydrothermal craters and the historical chronicles of the most recent hydrothermal eruptions that
787 occurred concurrently with strong earthquakes (Marini et al. 1993 and references therein). In this
788 frame, of particular relevance is the NE-SW CO_2 anomaly (DDS 8 evident in both the 1999-2001
789 and 2018 data; Fig. 5) that does not correspond to any geological superficial feature, but is likely
790 linked to a fault covered by the recent intra-caldera deposits of Lakki plain. The extension towards
791 SW of this 800 m long lineament connects the northern part of Lakki plain to the hydrothermal
792 crater of Stefanos, possibly highlighting a fault that in the past allowed the hot fluids of the deeper
793 aquifer to transfer rapidly into the shallower levels, triggering the hydrothermal explosion that
794 generated the crater.

795
796 In conclusion, the new maps and estimations of the CO_2 emission, the DDS by DDS treatment of
797 the data, and the estimation of the H_2O mass balance and of the energy balance provide a detailed
798 and comprehensive picture of the CO_2 degassing process currently affecting the Nisyros caldera.

799
800 The results obtained and the methods used can be useful to plan a future detailed monitoring system
801 of the volcano, particularly in time of crisis. It can also find valuable applications in geothermal
802 prospecting of convective hydrothermal systems and monitoring activity in other volcanic areas
803 around the world.

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1242 Fig. 1. a) The volcanoes of the Aegean arc and location of Nisyros. b) Simplified geological map of
1243 Nisyros redrawn from Vougioukalakis and Androulakakis (2008).
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1248 Fig. 2. Conceptual model of a convective hydrothermal system used for the computation of the H₂O
1249 mass and energy balances. Q_i and QH_i are the mass and thermal energy fluxes of the deep original
1250 liquid (subscript *L0*), of the residual liquid remaining after boiling (subscript *res*) and of the steam
1251 separated during the boiling that condense in the subsurface (subscript *cond*).
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1256 Fig. 3. Map of soil CO₂ flux at Lakki plain realised based on the October 2018 survey. The map was
1257 realised by averaging the results of 200 sequential Gaussian simulation over a grid of 317×408 cells
1258 of 5×5 m. The white rectangular indicates the zone where the background was computed (see text
1259 for further explanations). The coordinates refer to the WGS 84/UTM zone 35 S.
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1264 Fig. 4. (a) Log probability plot of soil CO₂ fluxes measured in the NE sector of the study area (see
1265 Fig.2 and the text for further explanations) and (b) probability plot of δ¹³C soil CO₂ composition
1266 (data from Venturi et al., 2018)
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1271 Fig. 5. Probability maps realised using 200 sequential Gaussian simulations. The colours refer to the
1272 probability that, among all the realizations, the simulated CO₂ flux at any location is above the cut-
1273 off value of 15 g m⁻² d⁻¹. The map highlights the areas where the CO₂ flux is fed by the
1274 hydrothermal source because the selected cut-off is a maximum value for the background (biogenic)
1275 CO₂ flux (see Fig. 3 and the text). The maps show the main volcanic-hydrothermal and tectonic
1276 features of Lakki plain (redraw from Caliro et al., 2005) and the most evident lineaments (dashed
1277 lines) highlighted by CO₂ fluxes. In the map are reported also the nine DDSs that are treated one by
1278 one (see table 2).
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1286 Fig. 6. Extent (a) and total CO₂ output (b) of the nine DDSs in 2018 compared with the same data
1287 of the 1999-2001 surveys.
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1291 Fig. 7. Maps of soil CO₂ flux in the area of the 2001-2002 fracture. Panel a) refers to the general
1292 data set while the map in panel b) was realised considering also 30 points specifically measured at
1293 the bottom of the fracture. Panel c shows the soil CO₂ flux transects c1-c10 whose location is
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Fig. 8. The CO₂ molalities and temperatures estimated for Nis-1 and Nis-2 wells (Marini and Fiebig, 2005) are compared with the T- m_{CO2} empirical relation valid for many geothermal systems of the world (Arnorsson and Gunnlaugsson, 1985). The horizontal lines refer to the convective flux of original liquids computed for different CO₂ concentrations and for the 2018 total hydrothermal CO₂ emission of 91.6 t/d. See the text for further explanations.

Table 1. Results of the 2018 survey (DDS extent and Total CO₂ output) compared with the results obtained for the 1999-2001 survey.

Date	Investigated area (km ²)	Total CO ₂ output (t/d)	Hydrothermal CO ₂ output (t/d)	DDSs Extent km ²
1999-2001	1.97	81.6±6.8	73.7	0.77
2018	2.22	100.6±7.9	91.6	0.92

Table 2. Number of measurements (n.), hydrothermal CO₂ output and extent of the nine DDSs of Nisyros (see Fig. 4 and Appendix d). The 2018 results are compared with those of the 1999-2001 surveys.

Name	1999-2001			2018		
	n.	CO ₂ output (t/d)	Extent (km ²)	n.	CO ₂ output (t/d)	Extent (km ²)
1-Stefanos	232	14.7±1.9	0.063	162	16.8±1.6	0.086
2-Kaminakia	241	20.8±1.0	0.130	112	13.4±1.5	0.164
3-Polybote	117	6.61±0.73	0.035	49	5.59±1.42	0.031
4-Phlegeton	178	4.87±0.68	0.047	79	3.44±0.41	0.053
5-Lofos	517	12.6±0.8	0.154	146	20.0±2.1	0.196
6-Ramos	102	4.83±0.66	0.057	74	10.5±2.2	0.048
7-NEfault	305	3.99±0.0.28	0.092	124	8.27±1.2	0.098
8-NESWline	281	2.90±0.11	0.097	194	4.11±0.15	0.120
9-NWSEline	188	0.86±0.08	0.015	134	1.86±0.17	0.029

Table 3. Thermal emission by condensation of the steam (QH_{cond}) computed for the nine DDSs of Nisyros. The ratio H₂O/CO₂ ($R_{H2O/CO2}$) refers to the fumaroles located in the DDS or to the closest fumaroles (Chiodini et al., 1993; Brombach et al., 2003; Caliro et al., 2005). The Total (DDSs) is the sum of the contributions from the nine DDSs, while the Total Area values were scaled to the entire surveyed area

Name	Q_{CO2} (kg/s)	$R_{H2O/CO2} \pm 1\sigma$	Q_{cond} (kg/s)	QH_{cond} (MW)
1-Stefanos	0.194	36.0 ± 4.2	7.00	18.1
2-Kaminakia	0.155	6.9 ± 2.6	1.08	2.8
3-Polybote	0.065	26.0 ± 5.1	1.68	4.4
4-Phlegeton	0.040	21.2 ± 4.0	0.85	2.2
5-Lofos	0.231	27.3 ± 2.3	6.31	16.4
6-Ramos	0.122	16.5 ± 2.6	2.01	5.2
7-NEfault	0.096	6.9 ± 2.6	0.66	1.7
8-NESWline	0.048	27.3 ± 2.3	1.30	3.4
9-NWSEline	0.022	27.3 ± 2.3	0.59	1.5
Total (DDSs)	0.972		21.5	55.7
Total Area	1.060		23.4	60.7

Table 4. Water mass and thermal budget of the process generating the soil emission of hydrothermal CO₂ at Lakki plain assuming the original temperature and CO₂ molality equal to that of Nis-1 and Nis-2 geothermal wells.

Well name	Q_{CO_2} (kg/s)	Q_{L0} (kg/s)	Q_{cond} (kg/s)	Q_{res} (kg/s)	QH_{L0} (MW)	QH_{cond} (MW)	QH_{res} (MW)
Nis-1	1.06	83.9	23.4	61.0	134	60.7	74.4
Nis-2	1.06	208.5	23.4	185.6	270	60.7	211















