

1 **Evaluating the geogenic CO₂ flux from geothermal areas by analysing Quaternary travertine**
2 **masses. New data from western Central Italy and review of previous CO₂ flux data.**

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28 **Abstract**

29

30 Quantification of carbon fluxes between solid Earth and its atmosphere is necessary to understand
31 the global geological carbon cycle. Some of the main CO₂ contributors are metamorphism and
32 magmatic-mantle degassing. CO₂ is discharged from active and quiescent volcanoes, fault zones,
33 geothermal systems and CO₂ rich groundwater. Here a new method for the estimation of the
34 geogenic flux of CO₂ from tectonically active regions, based on the volume, composition and age of
35 travertine deposits, is proposed. The method is applied to the travertine deposits of western Central
36 Italy where travertine deposition is driven by degassing of CO₂ charged groundwater.

37 Results show that the study areas are characterized, since Middle Pleistocene, by diffuse CO₂
38 degassing processes with time averaged CO₂ fluxes ranging between $1.24 \pm 0.12 \cdot 10^6 \text{ mol y}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$
39 and $1.38 \pm 0.42 \cdot 10^6 \text{ mol y}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$. These values are of the same order of magnitude of carbon
40 dioxide fluxes measured by different methods in western central Italy and are higher than the global
41 baseline CO₂ flux from high heat flow regions.

42 The review of the available ²³⁴U/²³⁰Th and ¹⁴C data shows that the CO₂ degassing processes that
43 affects western Central Italy nowadays were already active at least 350 Ka ago, proving that this
44 region is a globally relevant case for the study of Earth degassing.

45 Considering the widespread occurrence of travertine deposits in tectonically active areas worldwide,
46 the proposed approach can be used as a reliable tool to estimate the CO₂ flux in different
47 geodynamic settings within system Earth.

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49 **Key words:** Travertines; Quaternary; Carbon Dioxide degassing; western Central Italy.

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52 **1. Introduction**

53

54 A better quantification of the carbon fluxes between solid Earth and Earth's atmosphere is
55 necessary for modelling the carbon cycle over geological times and its future evolution. It also
56 allows to study the connections between atmospheric CO₂ and climate (Kump et al., 2000;
57 Kurschner, 2001). Even if the geologic component of the carbon cycle - 300 Mt/y CO₂ according to
58 Mörner and Etiope (2002); >600 Mt/y CO₂ according to Burton et al. (2013) - operates slowly in
59 comparison to the other parts of the global carbon cycle, such as the anthropogenic component that
60 is currently characterised by a CO₂ flux 50-100 times higher (Gerlach, 2011; IPCC, 2013; Regnier
61 et al., 2013; Le Quéré et al., 2015), in the long term the carbon budget of Earth's atmosphere is
62 largely controlled by the relative fluxes of CO₂ consumed by chemical weathering of silicates vs
63 CO₂ degassed by metamorphism and magmatism (Berner et al., 1983; Berner, 1993, 2004; Kerrick
64 and Caldeira, 1993, 1998). Most of the models of geologic carbon cycle derive the CO₂ degassing
65 rate assuming that the present-day degassing flux is equal to the flux of CO₂ consumed by chemical
66 weathering of silicates (Berner et al., 1983; Lasaga et al., 1985; Berner, 2006). However, this steady
67 state assumption could be inadequate since there are still major uncertainties on the net direction
68 and magnitude of tectonic carbon fluxes from mantle and crust to the atmosphere: therefore, the
69 degassing flux and the CO₂ consumption by weathering should be estimated independently.

70 Despite the fact that in recent years some authors computed various global estimations of the carbon
71 dioxide degassing rates from igneous and metamorphic activity (Mörner and Etiope, 2002; Burton
72 et al., 2013), the total subaerial lithospheric CO₂ flux is still far from being quantified. Except for
73 the areas of active volcanism, only a few data on diffuse CO₂ degassing from tectonically active
74 areas are available (e.g. Chiodini et al., 2000; Crossey et al., 2009).

75 The amount of CO₂ released to the atmosphere from active faults, hydrothermal systems, mantle
76 degassing and/or degassing from non-erupting magmas, is potentially of the same order of
77 magnitude, or greater, than the amount directly measured from active volcanoes (Mörner and
78 Etiope, 2002; Burton et al., 2013; Scott and Lindsey, 2016; Frondini et al., 2019), but at present it is
79 not considered by IPCC estimates (IPCC, 2013), because present day estimations of regional CO₂

80 fluxes in tectonically active areas are very scarce and regionally widely scattered.

81 A notable exception is Central-southern Italy, which is one of the few regions of the world where
82 detailed mapping and quantification of the CO₂ fluxes have been performed in the last two decades
83 (Chiodini et al., 1999, 2000, 2004; Minissale, 2004). In particular, Chiodini et al. (2000) showed
84 that a large portion of the inorganic carbon dissolved in groundwater circulating in the central
85 Apennines is derived from a deep, mantle-related source. In addition, Chiodini et al. (2004), based
86 on the carbon balance of regional aquifers, produced the first regional map of CO₂ degassing in
87 central and southern Italy, showing that a globally significant amount of deeply derived CO₂ ($2.1 \times$
88 10^{11} mol/y) is released by two large areas in western Italy, called by the authors Tuscan Roman
89 Degassing Structure (TRDS) and Campanian Degassing Structure (CDS); the amount of
90 endogenous CO₂ released to the atmosphere through diffuse regional degassing is the main
91 component of the geological CO₂ budget in Italy (Fron dini et al., 2018) and is higher than the
92 amount of CO₂ discharged by active volcanoes, as reported by Burton et al. (2013) for the Etna,
93 Stromboli and Vulcano volcanic complex, and volcanoes with hydrothermal activity (Campi Flegrei
94 and Vesuvio; Fron dini et al. 2004; Cardellini et al. 2017).

95 In western Italy, the areas of diffuse degassing are also characterised by focused gas emissions,
96 anomalous heat flux, thermal and mineral springs and active travertine deposition (Chiodini et al.,
97 1999, 2000, 2013; Minissale et al., 2002; Minissale, 2004).

98 In this region, deposition of travertine (Capezzuoli et al., 2014) is generally driven by degassing of
99 CO₂ charged groundwater circulating in deep carbonate-evaporitic reservoirs (Fron dini, 2008;
100 Fron dini et al., 2012; Brogi et al., 2016). When high pCO₂ groundwater emerges at springs, it
101 rapidly degases CO₂, due to the lower atmospheric pCO₂, leading to oversaturation with respect to
102 calcite that precipitates according to the following overall reaction:

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106 The reaction stoichiometry shows that for each mole of calcite precipitated by groundwater, one
107 mole of CO₂ is degassed to the atmosphere. This simple observation suggests that the estimation of
108 the volume of travertine deposits can be used as an indirect measure of the amount of CO₂ degassed
109 during travertine deposition. For example, D'Alessandro et al. (2007), based on the estimated
110 volume of travertines of the S-W flanks of Mt. Etna (Italy), showed that between 10 and 20 Gg/y
111 ($2.2\text{-}4.5 \times 10^9$ mol/y) of CO₂ were involved in travertine deposition for a time span of about 20 Ka.
112 If the age of the travertine is also known together with the surface area of the hydrogeological basin
113 feeding the travertine-depositing springs, it is possible to compute both the cumulative amount of
114 CO₂ degassed during travertine deposition and the time averaged flux of carbon dioxide per unit
115 area. The latter parameter could be very useful both to compare the CO₂ fluxes from different
116 regions and to compare past and present-day carbon dioxide fluxes within the same region.

117 In this work, we analyze three of the most notable travertine outcrops, deposited in a similar time
118 range (Pleistocene-Holocene), in western central Italy: i.e. Rapolano Terme, Canino and Tivoli
119 (Fig. 1).

120 The objectives of the study are: (i) to quantify the travertine volume within each area, (ii) to
121 compute the amount of CO₂ degassed related to travertine deposition and (iii) to compare the paleo
122 CO₂ fluxes to the present-day CO₂ flux of the regions. All the considered travertine deposits are
123 related to large thermal spring systems where travertine deposition is still active or was recently
124 active and for all the systems the ages of the travertine deposits are known. Given these
125 characteristics and considering their large extent and thickness, these travertine deposits can act as
126 examples of some of the largest travertine occurrences in the world.

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128

129 **2. Overall geological setting**

130

131 The travertine masses are located in the western side of the Northern Apennines (Fig. 1), a
132 collisional belt derived from the progressive convergence and collision of the European continental
133 margin (Corsica-Sardinia block) and the Adriatic promontory (Adria) being part of the African plate
134 (Patacca et al., 1992; Carmignani et al., 1994; Molli, 2008; Carminati and Doglioni, 2012; Rossetti
135 et al., 2015). The inner zone of the orogen (i.e. the hinterland) developed through several tectonic
136 phases, mostly during the Cretaceous-Early Miocene, which gave rise to a tectonic pile formed by
137 units belonging to different paleo-geographic domains (Carmignani et al., 1994). The orogenic
138 wedge comprises tectonic units deriving both from oceanic and continental domains of the African
139 paleomargin (Bianco et al., 2015 with references therein). In more detail, the stacked tectonic units
140 are: (a) the Ligurian Units, consisting of several slices made by fragments of Jurassic oceanic crust
141 overlain by the Cretaceous-Palaeocene sedimentary cover (Decandia and Elter, 1969; Marroni et al.,
142 2001; Pandeli et al., 2005); (b) the Subligurian (Eocene-Oligocene) and Tuscan Units, made of
143 evaporite, carbonate and terrigenous, non-metamorphic to very low-grade metamorphic successions
144 (Kalin et al., 1979), and metamorphic units (blueschist and greenschist facies - Jolivet et al., 1998;
145 Rossetti et al., 1999, 2002; Brogi and Giorgetti, 2012; Bianco et al., 2015) ranging from Palaeozoic
146 to Early Miocene; (c) the Umbria-Marche and Sabina Units, principally consisting of an evaporite
147 succession overlain by platform and pelagic carbonates deposited on the thinning and subsiding
148 Adria continental crust formed from the Triassic to the early Tertiary (Barchi et al., 2010; Cosentino
149 et al., 2010).

150 The Neogene-Quaternary tectonic evolution of the inner Northern Apennines was characterized by
151 the development of simultaneous, co-axial, and eastward migrating compression (in the outer zone)
152 and extension (in the inner zone) (Elter et al., 1975; Ricci Lucchi, 1986; Ori et al., 1986; Boccaletti
153 et al., 1990; Patacca et al., 1992; Barchi, 2010), with a maximum extension oriented almost parallel
154 to the direction of maximum shortening.

155 Extension and crustal thinning began in the western side of the Northern Apennines (northern
156 Tyrrhenian sea) since Early-Middle Miocene (Bartole, 1995; Carmignani et al., 1995; Brogi and

157 Liotta, 2008; Barchi, 2010; Brogi, 2011), while, toward the East, accretion was still active at the
158 front of the orogenic wedge (Malinverno and Ryan 1986; Doglioni, 1991; Gueguen et al., 1997).
159 Today, the accretion of the Apennine orogen is still active in the outer zone of the belt, while in the
160 western sector the compressive structures are partly disrupted by extensional tectonics (Lavecchia,
161 1988; Barchi, 2010). These extensional processes, characterized by a system of NW–striking
162 normal faults and NE–striking transfer faults, produced numerous Neogene-Quaternary basins filled
163 by marine to continental sediments (Martini and Sagri, 1993; Bartole, 1995; Liotta et al., 1998;
164 Brogi and Liotta, 2008; Mancini et al., 2014; Milli et al., 2017).

165 Such a Neogene-Quaternary tectonic evolution was accompanied by widespread magmatism in the
166 inner Northern Apennines (Serri et al., 1993; Peccerillo, 2003, 2005; Dini et al., 2005; Acocella and
167 Funicello, 2006). At present the area is characterized by (i) thinned lithosphere (Calcagnile and
168 Panza, 1981; Locardi and Nicolich, 2005), (ii) a positive regional Bouguer anomaly (Giese et al.,
169 1981), (iii) high heat flow (Della Vedova et al., 2001; Chiodini et al., 2013), (iv) localised and
170 regional uplift (Dallmeyer and Liotta, 1998) and geothermal fluids circulation, in the past (Liotta et
171 al., 2010; Zucchi et al., 2017) and today (Barbier, 2002; Batini et al., 2003; Bellani et al., 2004;
172 Chiodini et al., 2007).

173 Furthermore, the area is characterized by widespread travertine deposits (Capezzuoli et al., 2009)
174 that have long been considered as powerful tools for investigating neotectonics and reconstructing
175 palaeoseismic events (Brogi et al., 2017; 2018).

176 The recent travertine deposits are clear indicators of active tectonics (Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009;
177 Brogi et al., 2012) and are generally associated to hydrothermal activity and deep carbon dioxide
178 degassing (Barnes et al., 1978; Chiodini et al., 2000), resulting at the surface in numerous
179 tectonically controlled thermal springs (Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009; Brogi et al., 2012) and CO₂
180 degassing areas (Chiodini et al., 2004; Minissale, 2004; Frondini et al., 2008). Hydrothermal
181 circulation is favoured by the damaging fluid-flow enhancement related to the fault–fault

182 intersection, well documented for the Tyrrhenian margin of the Central Apennines until the latest
183 Quaternary (Brogi et al., 2010 and references therein).

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185

186 **3. Study areas**

187

188 The travertine deposits considered in this work (Rapolano Terme, Canino and Tivoli) are key
189 examples of Quaternary travertine bodies for this area. They are strictly related to tectonic activity,
190 circulation of CO₂ enriched hydrothermal fluids and are characterized by different lithofacies.
191 According to Capezzuoli et al. (2014), travertine is a continental calcium carbonate deposit related
192 to the circulation of non-marine hydrothermal waters. The different lithofacies typically make up
193 travertines (Pentecost, 2005), can be divided in (i) abiotically, related to physical and chemical
194 processes controlled by high temperature, turbulence and water composition, and (ii) biotically,
195 instead related to biological processes as well as to CO₂-degassing and water cooling creating more
196 favourable life conditions (Pentecost, 1990; Jones and Renaut, 1995; Guo and Riding, 1994; Rainey
197 and Jones, 2009; Fouke, 2011; Gandin & Capezzuoli 2014; Della Porta, 2015). The Rapolano
198 Terme travertines mainly formed in a slope environment where crystalline facies (related to abiotic
199 processes) are dominant and porosity is consequently low-medium. On the contrary, Canino and
200 Tivoli travertine systems are dominantly characterized by biotically-related (microbial) lithofacies
201 typical of distal environments and generally characterized by medium-high porosity.

202

203 **3.1 Rapolano Terme travertines**

204

205 Rapolano Terme (Fig. 2a) is located in the eastern side of the Siena-Radicofani Basin (Bossio et al.,
206 1993; Brogi, 2011), a 90 Km long, NNW-SSE structural depression developed during Neogene
207 extension and filled by Early-Middle Pliocene marine and Quaternary continental deposits made of

208 gravel, sand, clay and travertine deposits (Bertini et al., 1991; Carmignani et al., 1994; Liotta et al.,
209 1998; Costantini et al., 2009). The Pleistocene-Holocene travertine deposits cover an area of about
210 14 km² with an average thickness of 50 m, and deposited by hydrothermal fluids discharged by
211 thermal springs (Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009). Depositional environment results mainly formed by
212 several, coalescent slope systems (Brogi et al., 2010) laterally passing to palustrine and fluvio-
213 lacustrine ones (Cipriani et al., 1972; Guo and Riding 1992, 1994, 1998, 1999; Guo et al. 1996;
214 Brogi and Capezzuoli 2009). Presently, the travertine deposits are intensely quarried for ornamental
215 stone.

216 Both the travertine and the active thermal springs are aligned along the Rapolano fault (Carrara et
217 al., 1998; Minissale et al., 2002), a regional normal fault, NNW-SSE striking (Costantini et al.,
218 2009), which bounds the eastern margin of the Siena-Radicofani Basin and separates the Neogene
219 sediments from the pre-Neogene units exposed in the Rapolano-Trequanda Ridge (pre-Neogene
220 marine carbonate and turbidite succession of the non-metamorphic Tuscan Succession – Losacco,
221 1952; Bernoulli et al., 1979; Kalin et al., 1979; Decandia et al., 1993; Lazzarotto et al., 2003).

222 Today the thermal springs are characterised by temperatures up to 38°C, high salinity, Ca-SO₄
223 composition and a total discharge rate of about 40 l/s (Celati et al., 1990; Frondini 2008; Frondini et
224 al., 2008). The recharge zone of the thermal aquifer roughly coincides with the Mesozoic carbonate
225 rocks exposed in the Rapolano-Trequanda Ridge (Brogi et al., 2007), even if its area is not well
226 defined. The recharge area of the geothermal system can be estimated in 5.7±2.5 km²; the average
227 flow rate per unit area of similar spring systems is considered to be 7±3 l/km² (Celati et al., 1990).

228

229 **3.2 Canino travertines**

230

231 Canino area (Fig. 2b) is located 80 km north-west of Rome and is characterized by a broad plain, of
232 about 80 km², mostly covered by travertine (about 70 km²) with a thickness ranging from a few to
233 more than 100 m (Carrara, 1994). Travertines overlie the Miocene-Pliocene sediments and the

234 Quaternary pyroclastics and lava flows, this latter related to the alkali potassic volcanism of the
235 Vulsini Mts (Peccerillo, 2005). The plain is limited, (i) to the west by the Fiora River and by the
236 Romani Mts ridge, where crop out the phyllite and quartzites of the Palaeozoic and Triassic
237 metamorphic basement (Dessau et al., 1972), and (ii) to the north-east by the structure of Canino
238 Mt. composed by non-metamorphic Mesozoic carbonates and terrigenous successions of the Tuscan
239 Units (Cocozza, 1963).

240 The deposition of travertines, started in Middle Pleistocene and is still active, is connected to an
241 intense hydrothermal activity (Carrara, 1994) and figured out by several thermal springs
242 discharging Ca-SO₄ and Na-Cl waters (up to 200 l/s; Chiodini et al., 1991) with high salinity, high
243 pCO₂ and temperatures up to 50°C. The resulting depositional system is mainly composed by
244 depressional environments (Guo and Riding, 1998) representing the extensive, distal portion of the
245 eastern-located thermal springs. The shallower aquifer is almost completely hosted within the
246 travertine deposit and is partly recharged by the carbonate units exposed in the Canino Mt. The
247 aquifer release CO₂ to the atmosphere when groundwater is discharged at the surface from springs.
248 Here, a large part of the discharged groundwater is drained by small streams where water rapidly
249 degasses and total carbon and carbonic acid contents decrease of about one order of magnitude in
250 the first hundred meters: as a consequence, the waters become strongly oversaturated with respect
251 to calcite and precipitate travertine (Chiodini et al., 1999).

252

253 **3.3 Tivoli travertines**

254

255 The Acque Albule Basin (Faccenna et al., 2008; Fig. 2c) is located west of Tivoli village (Latium,
256 Central Italy), about 30 Km east of Rome. The basin is confined by the Neogene Appenine fold and
257 thrust belt to the north and to the east (i.e. Cornicolani-Lucretili and Tiburtini Mts.), by the
258 Pleistocene quiescent volcano complex of Colli Albani to the south (Karner et al., 2001) and to the
259 west by the Tiber valley, formed during the Pliocene-Quaternary period (De Filippis et al., 2013)

260 and related with the Tyrrhenian extensional domain. According to De Filippis et al. (2013), the
261 Acque Albule Basin could be considered as a pull-apart basin: faults, mostly NW-striking and
262 extensional (Alfonsi et al., 1991), was accompanied by transverse or oblique (N-NE-striking) strike-
263 slip faults, acting as accommodation structures between the different extensional sectors. The basin
264 is worldwide famous for the *Lapis Tiburtinus* (stone of Tivoli) travertine deposits, used to create
265 many monuments by the early Roman architects. The *Lapis Tiburtinus* travertine, covering an area
266 of more than 20 Km², is overlaying the local Plio-Pleistocene alluvial, lacustrine, and epivolcanic
267 deposits, and the Meso-Cenozoic marine carbonate succession (La Vigna et al., 2013). Travertine
268 deposition developed mostly in an over logged, flat environment (Erthal et al., 2017) occurring after
269 or concurrently with the last volcanic phase activity of the Region, during the Late Pleistocene
270 (Faccenna et al., 2008). The *Lapis Tiburtinus* reaches a maximum thickness of 90 m along a N-S
271 line crossing the Acque Albule Basin, with an average thickness of 60 m. The local thermal (23-24°
272 C; La Vigna et al., 2013), Ca-SO₄ rich waters, are enriched by large quantity of CO₂ derived mainly
273 by the decarbonation of Meso-Cenozoic limestones and mantle degassing (Chiodini et al., 2001;
274 Minissale et al., 2002), with recharge area to the north, northeast and east of the basin (Lucretili-
275 Tiburtini and Cornicolani Mts.; La Vigna et al., 2013; Carucci et al., 2012). The most important
276 hydrothermal springs, characterised by T ~23 °C, pH 6.0-6.2 and associated CO₂, and H₂S
277 emissions (Pentecost and Tortora 1989; Minissale et al., 2002; Minissale, 2004; Carucci et al.,
278 2012; La Vigna et al., 2013; Di Salvo et al., 2013) are located in the central part of the plain (Regina
279 Lake; ~1850 l/s and Colonnelle Lake; ~250 l/s; La Vigna et al., 2013). The total natural discharge
280 of the system is about 4000 l/s corresponding to a recharge area of about 220 Km² (Boni et al.,
281 1986; Chiodini et al., 2000).

282

283

284 **4. Methods**

285

286 For the estimation of the CO₂ flux released to the atmosphere during travertine deposition it is
287 necessary to know the age of the travertines, their volume and their average CaCO₃ content.

288 The absolute ages and the periods of travertine formation are quite well known for the three study
289 areas (Taddeucci and Voltaggio, 1987; Carrara, 1994; Minissale et al., 2002; Minissale, 2004). The
290 volumes of the travertine deposits have been estimated using a 3D geological model, developed for
291 each study area, based on available data refined by some new field observations.

292 Finally, for evaluating the average CaCO₃ content, 86 travertine samples have been collected and
293 analyzed (29 at Rapolano; 34 at Canino; 23 at Tivoli).

294

295 **4.1 Age of the travertine deposits**

296

297 For the ages of the three travertine deposits, which all developed during the Pleistocene, we refer to
298 the values obtained by uranium-series disequilibrium datings reported in literature:

299 - at Rapolano travertine deposition started at 157 ± 15 Ka in the southern part of the deposit
300 (Brogi et al., 2010) and is still active today in its northern part (Guo and Riding, 1992, 1994,
301 1998, 1999);

302 - at Canino the lowermost part of the succession was dated by Radtke et al. (1976) at 300 Ka
303 and by Carrara et al. (1994) at more than 350 Ka. No travertines with ages between 300 Ka
304 and 237 Ka are present and most deposits are younger than 200 Ka (Taddeucci and
305 Voltaggio, 1987; Carrara et al., 1994). The base of the succession, excluding the oldest
306 travertine that are almost completely eroded, is dated between 237 and 181 Ka (209 ± 28 Ka
307 on average - Carrara et al., 1994);

308 - the beginning of travertine deposition in the Acque Albule Basin (Tivoli) started at 115 ± 8
309 Ka and, according to Faccenna et al. (2008), continued till 28 ± 16 Ka, covering an interval
310 of deposition of 87 ± 24 Ka. At present deposition occurs only in some very minor seeps
311 forming very limited amounts of travertine, At present deposition occurs only in some very

312 minor seeps forming very limited amounts of travertine, even if degassing is still active in a
313 large part of the Tivoli area.

315 **4.2 Estimation of the travertine deposits volumes**

316
317 Digital Elevation Models (DEM) have been computed for each study area, using elevation data
318 from aerial photos, topographic maps and new GPS data collected during field work. Areas of
319 travertine outcrops were delineated (Fig. 2) based on the available geological maps (Chiodini et al.,
320 1991; Faccenna et al., 2008; Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009). Finally, new detailed field observations
321 (supplementary material 1), integrated with the available stratigraphic data (Chiodini et al., 1991;
322 Carrara, 1994; Faccenna et al., 2008; Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009) allowed to reconstruct the
323 thicknesses of travertine successions and to interpolate isopach lines for each deposit (Fig. 3). The
324 shape of the deposits and their volumes were estimated intersecting the DEM surfaces with surfaces
325 representing the base of the travertines (Fig. 3).

327 **4.3 Determination of the carbonate content and porosity of the travertine samples**

328
329 In order to determine CaCO₃ content and porosity of the travertines, a portion of each sample has
330 been dried and weighted with a high precision balance (precision 0.001 g) and its bulk volume has
331 been determined by water displacement after coating the rock surface with paraffin. Then its bulk
332 density has been computed from the weight/volume ratio and the sample porosity has been inferred
333 from

$$335 \quad p = 1 - (\rho_b / \rho_p) \quad (2)$$

336

337 where ρ_b is the bulk density and ρ_p is the particle density (assumed to be 2.7 g cm^{-3} , being the
338 density of calcite).

339 For the determination of the CaCO_3 fraction a known amount (some grams) of each sample has
340 been dissolved in a 5M HCl solution. Each solution has been filtered with a cellulose acetate 0.45
341 μm membrane filters and the insoluble residue has been dried and weighted. The carbonate fraction
342 of each travertine sample has been computed from:

$$343 \quad f_{\text{CaCO}_3} = (W_i - W_r) / W_i \quad (3)$$

344 where W_i is the initial weight and W_r the weight of the insoluble fraction.
345

346 **4.4 Determination of the CO_2 flux associated to travertine deposition**

347
348
349
350 The total moles of CaCO_3 of each travertine deposit have been computed from

$$351 \quad \text{moles CaCO}_3 = (V \times \rho_b \times f_{\text{CaCO}_3}) / M \quad (4)$$

352
353
354 where V is the volume of the deposit, ρ_b is the average bulk density of the travertine, f_{CaCO_3} is the
355 fraction of CaCO_3 in the travertine and M is the molar mass of CaCO_3 . According to equation (1),
356 the moles of CaCO_3 correspond to the cumulative amount of CO_2 degassed during travertine
357 deposition.

358 Finally, the CO_2 discharge rate ($F\text{-CO}_2$) has been computed dividing the moles of CaCO_3 by the
359 duration of the travertine formation and the average CO_2 flux ($f\text{-CO}_2$) has been computed dividing
360 $F\text{-CO}_2$ by the area of the hydrological basin feeding the travertine-depositing CO_2 -rich springs.
361

362

363 **5. Results**

364

365 The three study areas are characterised by different surface extensions of the travertine outcrops: i.e.
366 Rapolano, 3.9 Km²; Canino, 70 Km²; Tivoli, 26 Km². The volumes of the deposits, as calculated
367 through the 3D geological models, are: 0.046 km³ for Rapolano; 0.9 km³ for Canino; 1.1 km³ for
368 Tivoli (Fig. 3).

369 The central tendency, the tendency of quantitative data to cluster around some central value, and the
370 variability of porosity and CaCO₃ fraction (reported as weight %) are summarized in Table 1 (full
371 dataset in supplementary material 2). Porosity values range from 0.27% to 30.68% and show a
372 positively skewed distribution (Fig. 4a) with a mean (12.14%) being greater than the median
373 (10.68%). Rapolano and Tivoli samples show similar porosity values (median values of 8.45% and
374 9.05%, respectively) while Canino samples are characterized by a higher porosity (median =
375 16.78%).

376 The CaCO₃ content is very similar in the three areas (median values of 98.34%, 99.09% and
377 99.29% respectively). Considering the whole dataset, the distribution is characterized by a left
378 skewed log-normal distribution (Fig. 4b) with a median (99.09%) higher than arithmetic mean
379 (97.44%) and a very small variability (interquartile range, IQR = 2.89%).

380 Considering that both porosity and CaCO₃ content do not follow a gaussian distribution, the median
381 values are more representative of the central tendency with respect to the arithmetic mean and have
382 been used in calculations of F-CO₂ and *f*CO₂.

383 The results of the CO₂ flux calculations are summarized in Table 2.

384 In the three areas considered in the present work, the CO₂ discharge rates estimated through the
385 volume of the travertine deposits (F-CO₂) range from $(1.11 \pm 0.02) \times 10^6$ mol y⁻¹ at Rapolano to
386 $(26.49 \pm 0.69) \times 10^6$ mol y⁻¹ at Tivoli. Despite the large differences in F-CO₂ values, the resulting *f*-

387 CO₂ values, that is the specific CO₂ discharge per unit area, are rather uniform, ranging in a very
388 small interval between $(1.24 \pm 0.12) \times 10^6 \text{ mol y}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ and $(1.38 \pm 0.42) \times 10^6 \text{ mol y}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ (Tab. 2).

389

390

391 **6. Discussion**

392

393 In western central Italy, travertines are mostly associated to spring systems discharging to the
394 surface warm, CO₂ rich and acidic waters. Groundwaters circulate into carbonate aquifers hosted by
395 Jurassic-Cretaceous formations, where they increase their pCO₂ and dissolve carbonate minerals
396 (Fron dini, 2008). The high CO₂ content of groundwater is principally caused by the high flux of
397 endogenous CO₂ characterizing the region (Chiodini et al., 2000, 2004) as confirmed by the isotopic
398 analysis of both dissolved inorganic carbon of groundwater (Chiodini et al., 2000, 2004) and calcite
399 in travertines (Panichi and Tongiorgi, 1975; Manfra, 1976; Minissale et al., 2002). When
400 groundwaters are discharged by springs they re-equilibrate to the surface conditions degassing CO₂
401 and rapidly precipitating solid carbonates. Through this process the amount of deposited travertine
402 is directly linked to the amount of CO₂ degassing from the groundwater, which is proportional to
403 the influx of deep CO₂ into the aquifers. In this kind of systems, the estimation of the volumes and
404 CaCO₃ fraction of travertines (of known age) is a proxy to estimate the average CO₂ discharged by
405 the system since the beginning of travertine deposition.

406 In the diagram F-CO₂ values vs recharge area (Fig. 5), the three study areas are compared to the
407 geothermal systems and spring systems of the region. Our data roughly plot along the same line,
408 just above the global baseline of CO₂ fluxes from high heat flow regions ($10^6 \text{ mol y}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ - Kerrick
409 et al., 1995), suggesting that, at least in the western Apennine region, the degassing processes are
410 characterized by scale invariance: the CO₂ flux ($f\text{-CO}_2$) doesn't change significantly when scales (F-
411 CO₂ and recharge area) are multiplied by a common factor.

412 The deduced CO₂ fluxes associated to travertine deposition (i) fall in the range of the present day
413 deep CO₂ fluxes of western central Italy (10⁵ to 10⁷ mol y⁻¹ km⁻² - Chiodini et al., 2000), (ii) are
414 slightly higher than the global baseline of CO₂ fluxes from high heat flow regions (10⁶ mol y⁻¹ km⁻²
415 - Kerrick et al., 1995), (iii) are lower but of the same order of magnitude of the current CO₂ flux of
416 medium-high enthalpy geothermal systems in central Italy, ranging from 2×10⁶ to 8×10⁶ mol y⁻¹ km⁻²
417 (Gambardella et al., 2004).

418 The estimated *f*-CO₂ values, that represent the time averaged CO₂ fluxes of each study area, are a
419 minimum estimation of the deep CO₂ degassing processes, because part of the travertine deposits
420 may have been eroded. As reported in Parise et al. (2008) dissolution and erosion affect the
421 carbonate rocks, especially travertines in different ways. Such processes are influenced by latitude,
422 temperature, and biological activity and strongly depend on the climatic zone.

423 A further cause of underestimation of the CO₂ flux is the possible CO₂ loss from the thermal water
424 before travertine deposition starts. Often CO₂-charged thermal waters are undersaturated with
425 respect to carbonate minerals and reach oversaturation only after loosing part of the dissolved CO₂.
426 This part does not create recognizable deposits. In some cases deep groundwaters are characterised
427 by very high pCO₂ (>1 bar) and can lose a significant part of their CO₂ content from bubbling pools
428 or dry gas emissions (e.g. Rogie et al., 2000; Gulec et al., 2002; Mutlu et al., 2008).

429 The extent of the underestimation can be roughly evaluated by comparing the results of our
430 calculations to the direct measurements of CO₂ flux or to the carbon mass and isotopic balance of
431 the aquifers feeding the springs, when available (Chiodini et al., 1999; Chiodini et al., 2000).

432 At Rapolano the possible underestimation is not valuable but can be significant only in the southern
433 part of the study area, where bubbling pools and CO₂ vents are present. At Canino our estimation is
434 about 70% of the value computed from the carbon mass balance (see Fig.6). At Tivoli, travertine
435 deposition is very limited nowadays, but CO₂ degassing is still very strong: the average specific
436 flux computed with the methods proposed in this work is about 66% of the present day specific CO₂

437 flux computed from the carbon balance of the Prenestini Mts aquifer (the aquifer feeding Tivoli
438 springs) by Chiodini et al. 2000 (1.86×10^6 vs 2.78×10^6 mol/km² y⁻¹).

439 Our data, although they are a minimum estimate of the CO₂ degassing process, are in agreement
440 with earlier studies (Chiodini et al., 2000, 2004; Frondini et al., 2008) and confirm that western
441 central Italy is a globally relevant source of (deeply mantle derived and metamorphic) carbon.

442 The CO₂ degassing process that is currently affecting the region was active, with similar discharge
443 rates, at least since 200 Ka ago (probably more, considering that the older, eroded travertines at
444 Canino were dated by Carrara et al. (1994) at more than 350 Ka). Other travertine deposits in
445 western central Italy, for which ²³⁴U/²³⁰Th and ¹⁴C data are available (Fig. 6), fall in the same time
446 interval (e.g. from 268 ± 22 ka to the present at Sarteano - Brogi et al. 2012; 134.8 ± 1.6 Ka at
447 Civita Castellana - Minissale et al., 2002; from 350 to 40 Ka in the Albegna Basin - Vignaroli et al.,
448 2016; 23.216 ± 0.124 Ka Acqua Borra - Brogi et al., 2014; 182 ± 82 Ka San Casciano dei Bagni -
449 Vignaroli et al., 2013) but could be even older, considering that travertine is prone to erosion. The
450 widespread presence of travertine bodies in the study area highlights the temporal continuity of the
451 degassing process in western central Italy from (at least) 350 Ka to the present.

452

453 **6. Conclusion**

454

455 A better quantification of diffuse degassing is necessary to constrain the global carbon cycle and to
456 give a realistic estimate of the CO₂ degassing process at a global scale (Frondini et al., 2018).

457 The proposed method is an independent approach to estimate CO₂ fluxes related to direct
458 measurements; the similarity of the results obtained by the two methods supports the reliability of
459 its outcome and suggests the possibility of its applications to other areas characterized by travertine
460 deposits.

461 Considering the widespread occurrence of travertine deposits in geothermal areas, active fault
462 zones, volcanic and seismic regions, the proposed approach can be used as a tool to compute the
463 deep CO₂ flux in several tectonically active areas of the world.

464 In particular, computing the CO₂ fluxes from the volumes and the ages of travertine deposits may
465 be useful in order (i) to compare the present-day CO₂ fluxes to the time integrated paleo CO₂ fluxes,
466 (ii) to estimate a baseline CO₂ flux in large regions where direct measurements are not easily
467 achievable and (iii) to study the Earth degassing process in seismically active fault zones.

468

469

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471

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475

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1094 **Figure caption**

1095
1096 **Fig. 1.** Geological map of Central Italy and location of study areas. Red circles indicate present-day
1097 geothermal systems and blue circles indicate CO₂-rich springs. Purple stars indicate the three study
1098 areas, i.e. from N to S, Rapolano, Canino and Tivoli (redrawn and modified after De Rita et al.
1099 1995, 2002; Gaeta et al. 2000; Karner et al. 2001; Minissale, 2004; Della Porta et al., 2017).

1100
1101 **Fig. 2.** Aerial view of the three study areas (images modified from Google Earth/Maps; Digital
1102 Globe 2018): A) Rapolano; B) Canino; C) Tivoli. For each area the isopachs of the travertine
1103 deposits are shown as well as the rivers and main springs. Alongside are shown the geological maps
1104 of the three study areas. The Meso-Cenozoic limestones generally represent the major fractured
1105 aquifers hosting deep CO₂ rich fluids. Faults and open fractures represent the zone where deep
1106 fluids can reach the surface, generating the thermal springs depositing travertines (modified after
1107 Chiodini et al., 1991; Faccena et al., 2008; Brogi and Capezzuoli, 2009; Della Porta et al., 2017).

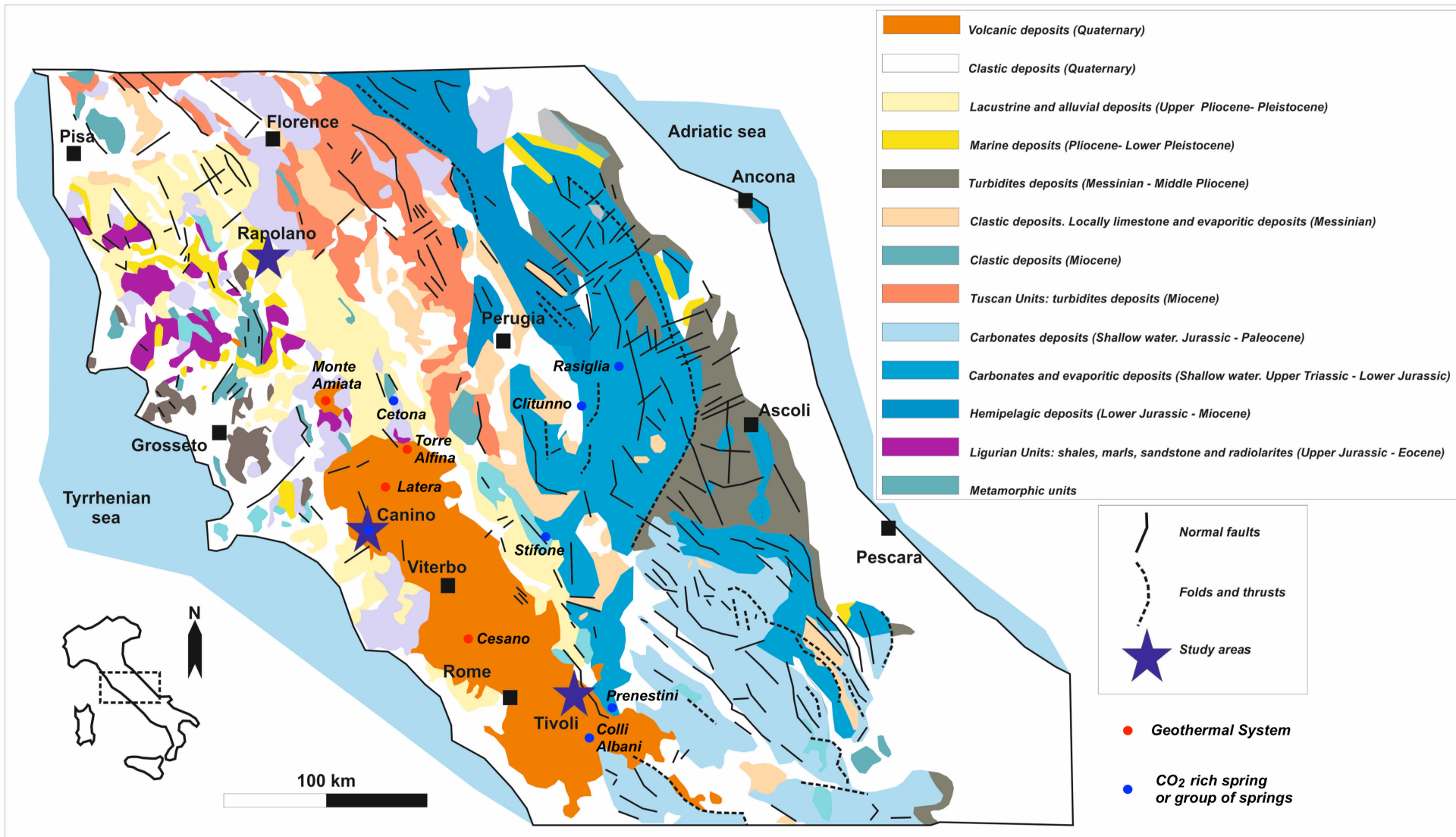
1108
1109 **Fig. 3.** 3D reconstructions of the volume occupied by the travertine deposits: A) Rapolano Terme;
1110 B) Canino; C) Tivoli. The limits and the isopachs of the travertine deposits have been used to
1111 reconstruct the 3D models. The different colors indicate the thicknesses of the deposits. The
1112 different morphologies highlight the presence of paleo-valleys and depressions filled during
1113 travertine deposition.

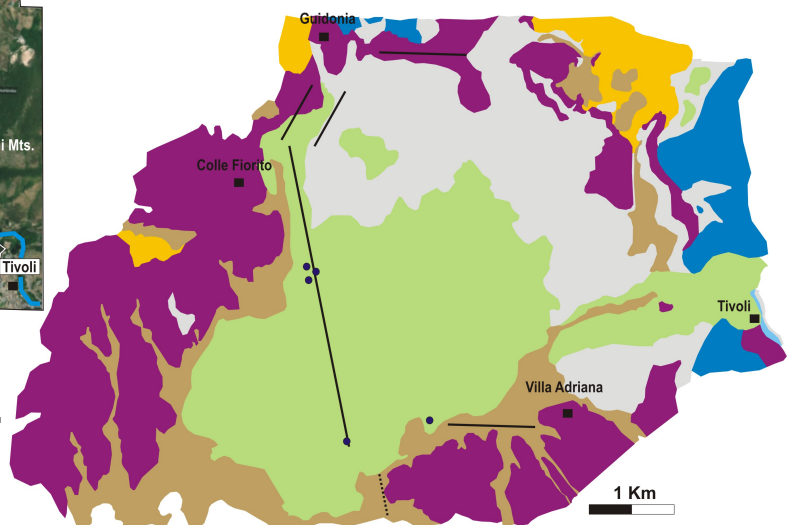
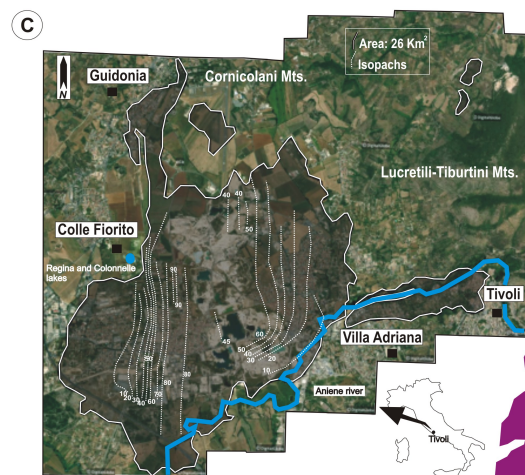
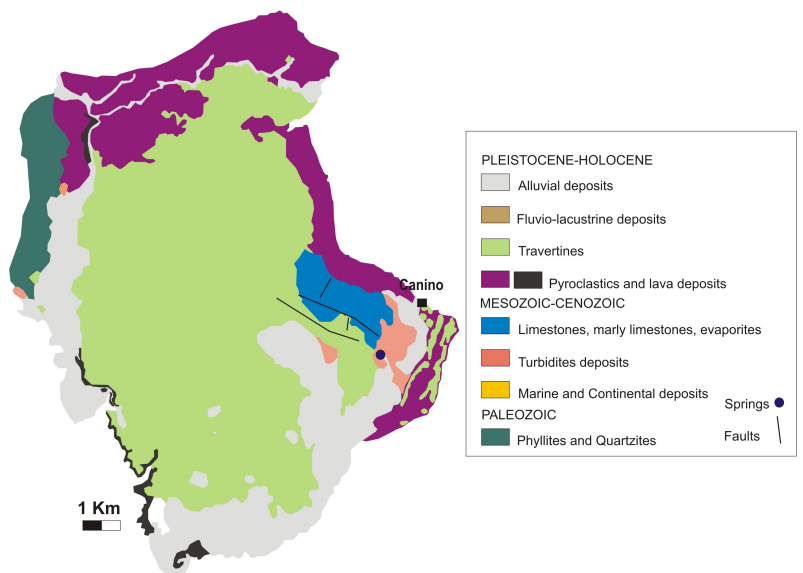
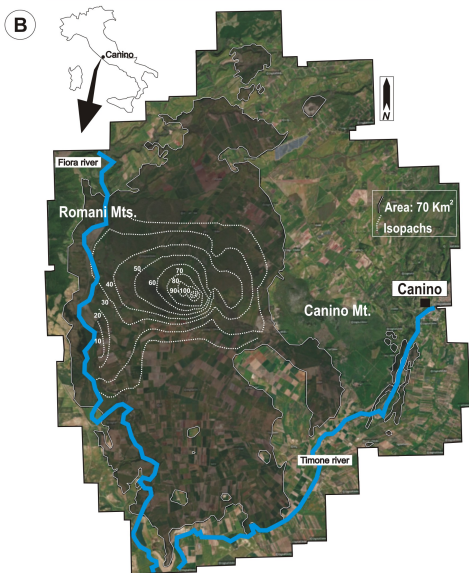
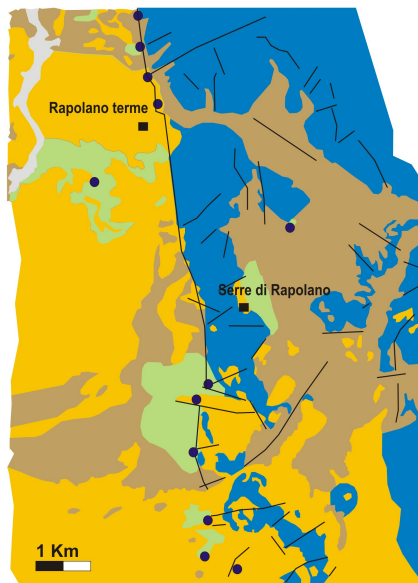
1114
1115 **Fig. 4.** Histograms of (a) porosity and (b) CaCO₃ content.

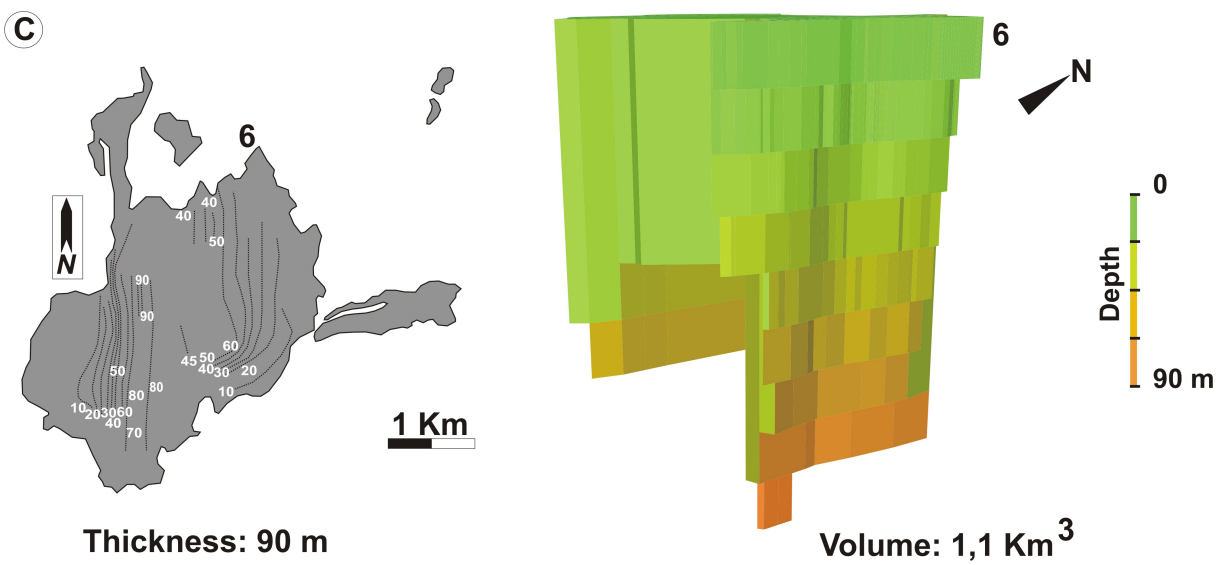
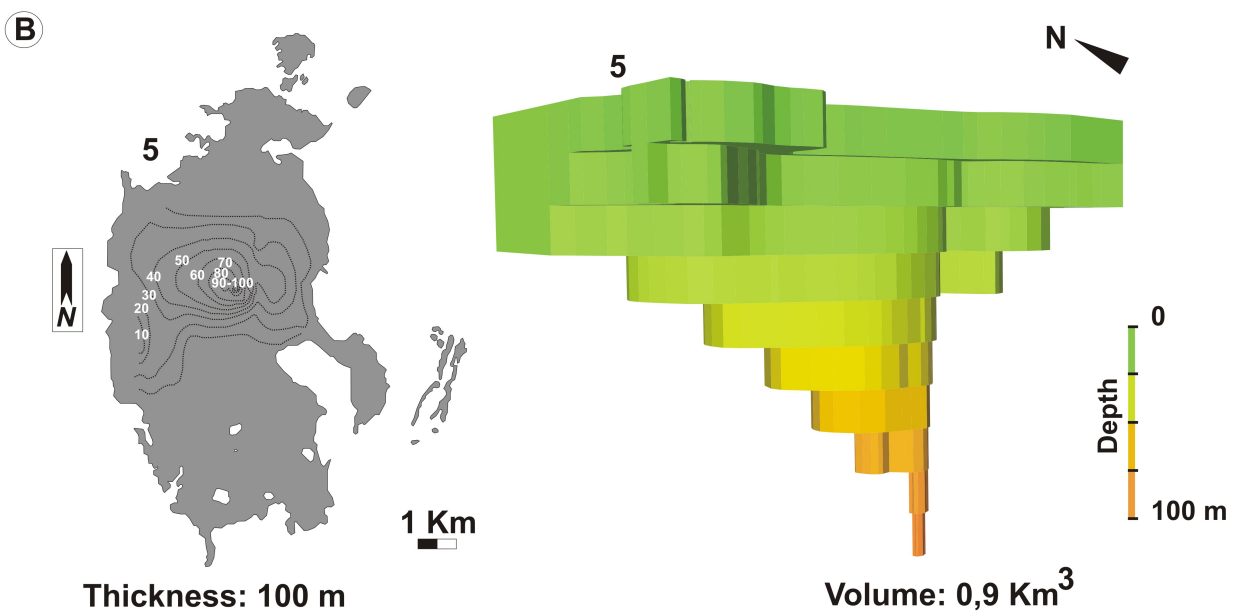
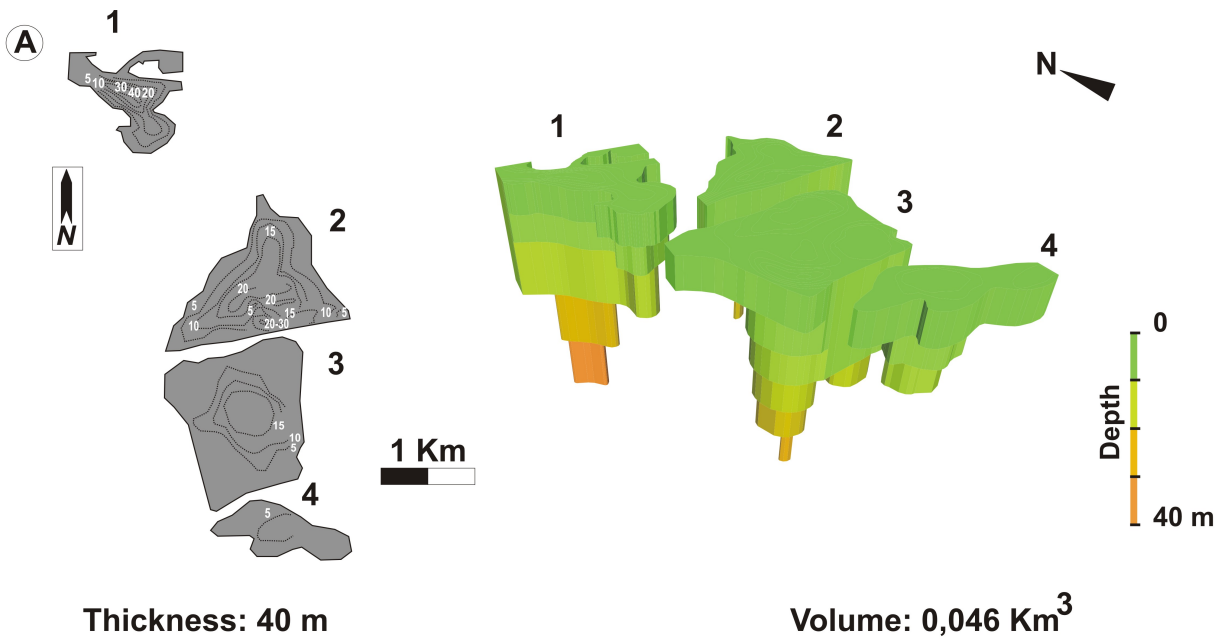
1116
1117 **Fig. 5.** Log F-CO₂ vs logarithm of the recharge area. Along with the CO₂ discharge rate of
1118 Rapolano, Canino and Tivoli travertine systems, in the diagram are shown (a) CO₂ discharge rates
1119 of adjacent main geothermal fields of the study area (red circles - Gambardella et al., 2004) and (b)

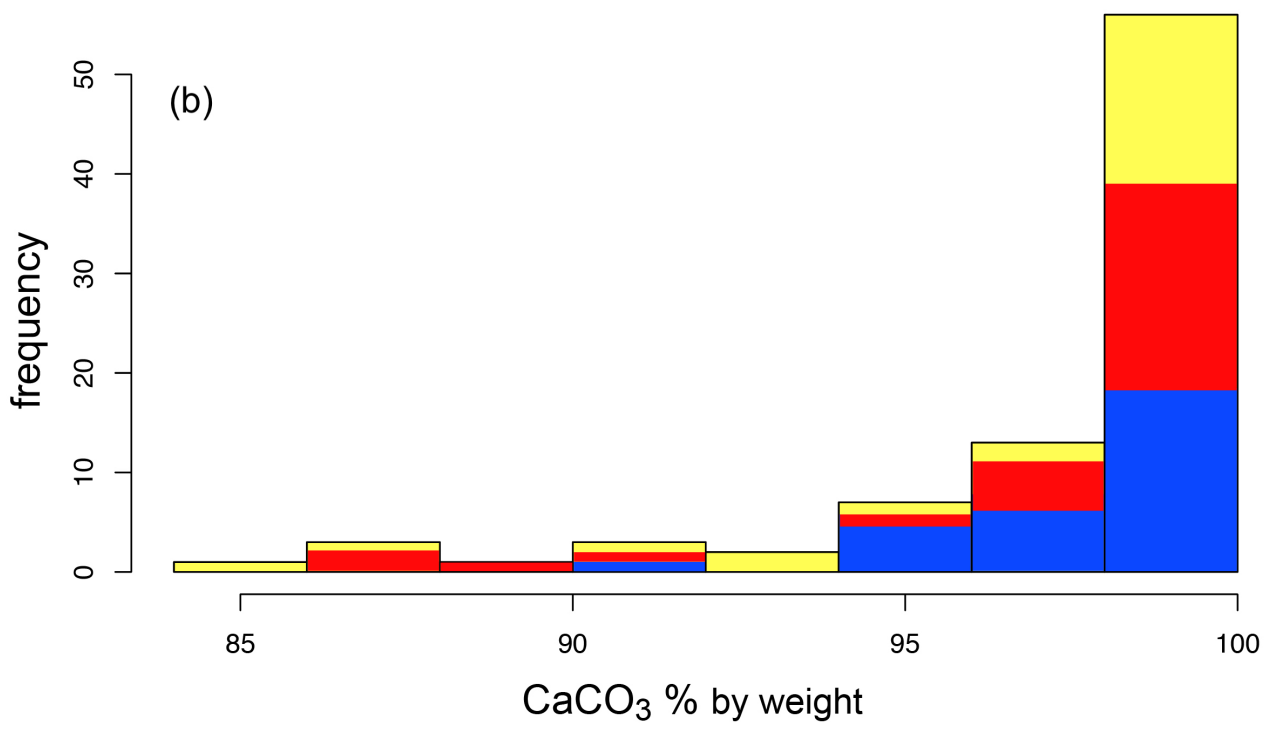
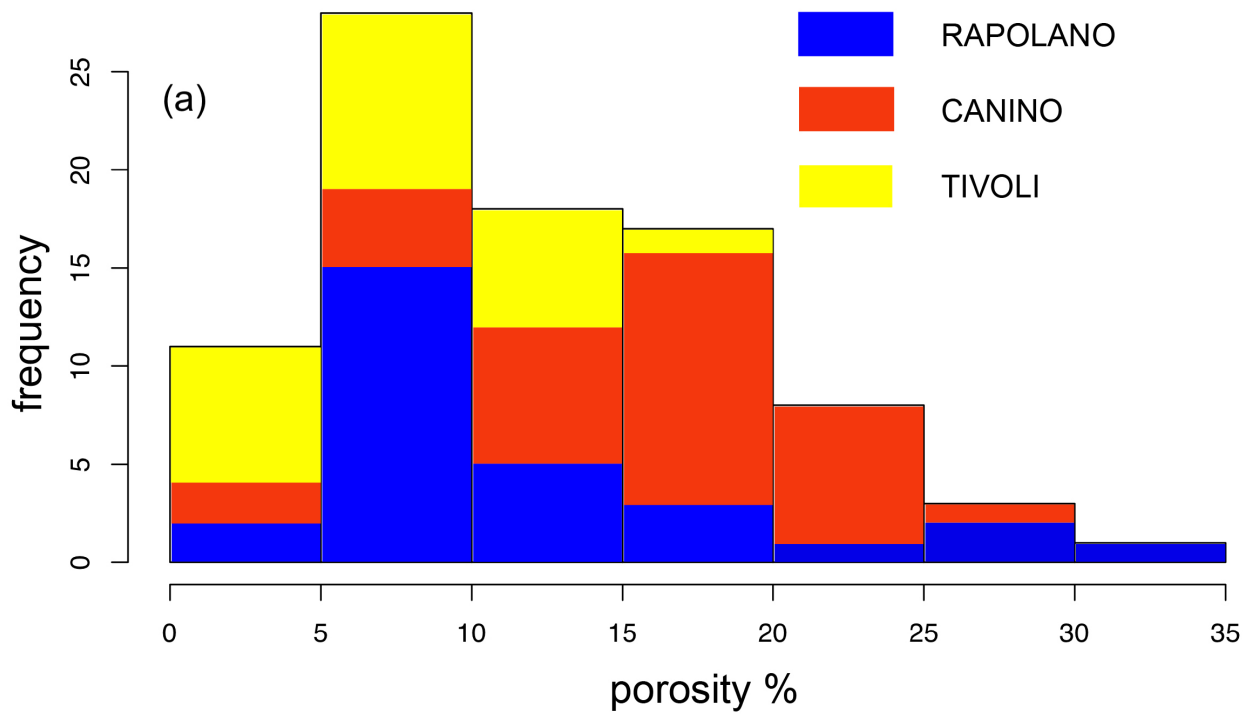
1120 the CO₂ discharge rates of some large, CO₂ rich, springs or groups of springs (blue circles -
1121 Chiodini et al., 1999 & 2000; Chiodini and Frondini, 2001; Frondini 2008; Frondini et al., 2012).
1122 The solid line represents the global baseline of CO₂ fluxes from high heat flow regions (Kerrick et
1123 al., 1995) and the dashed lines indicate the range of variation of Δ CO₂ in western central Italy
1124 (Chiodini et al., 2000).

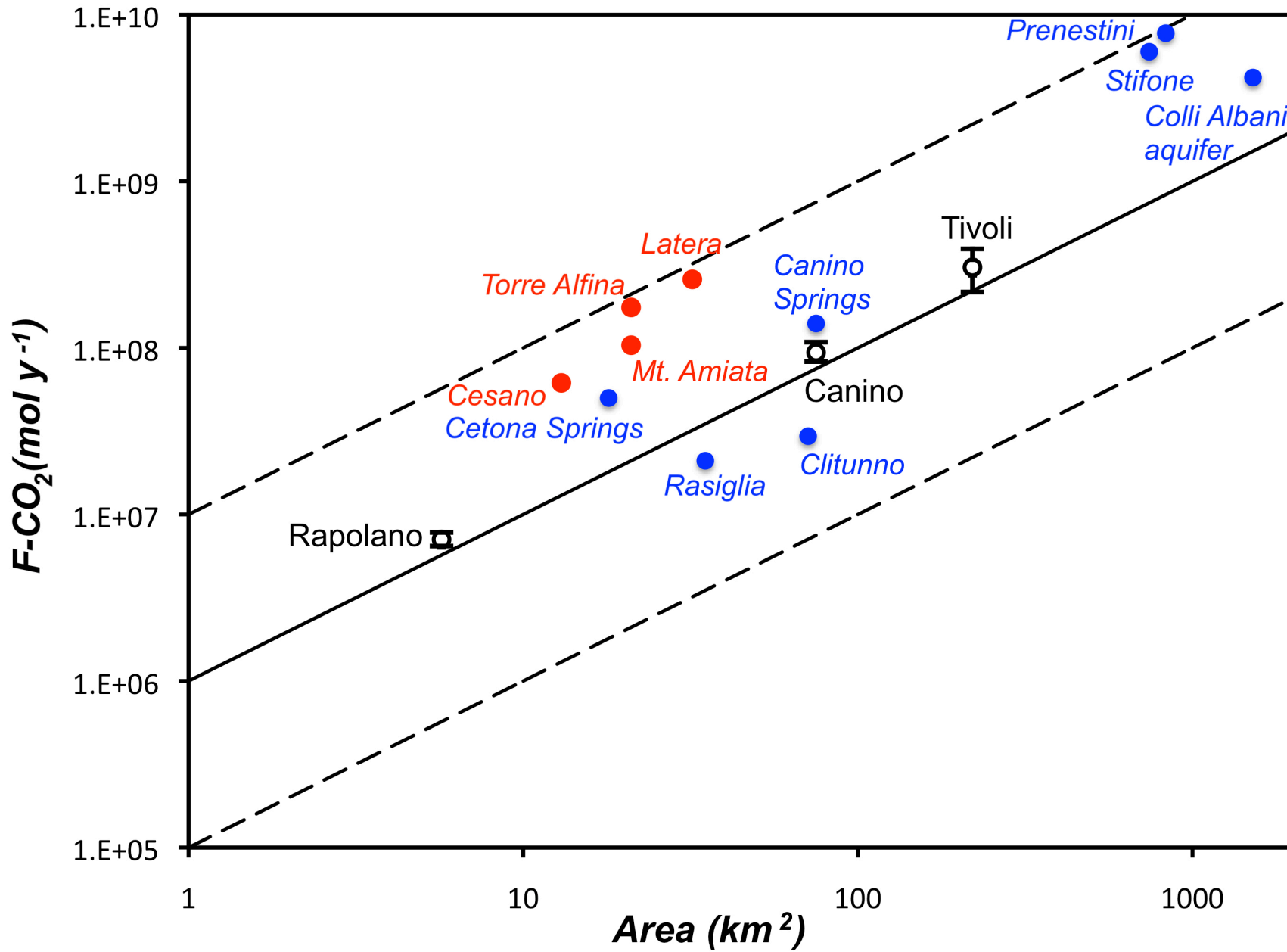
1125
1126 **Fig. 6.** Travertine deposits dating by ²³⁴U/²³⁰Th and ¹⁴C in western central Italy.











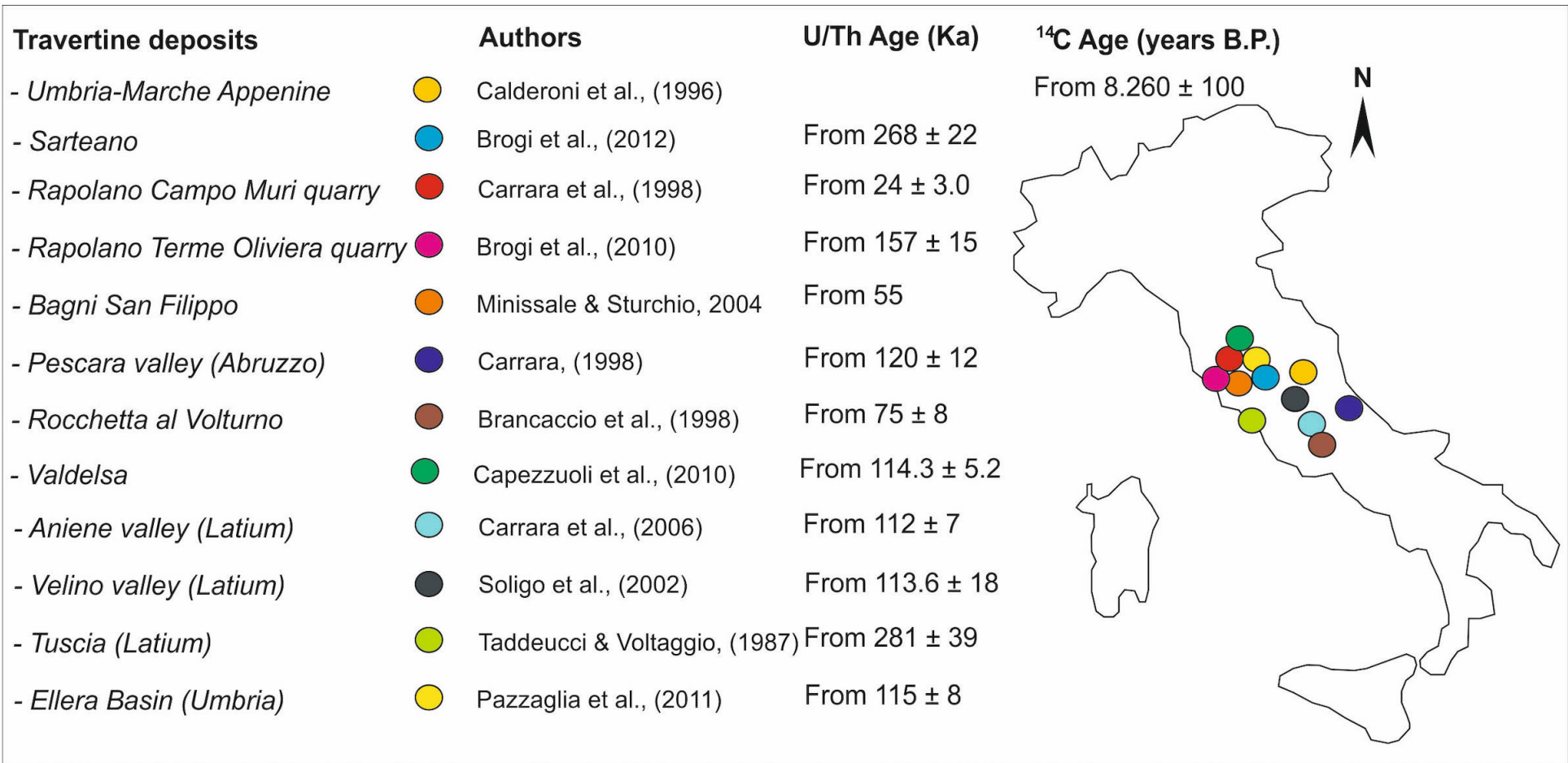


Table 1. Central tendency and variability of porosity and CaCO₃ content obtained from dissolution analysis. For each variable are reported: the mean, the standard deviation, the median, the mean absolute deviation from median (MAD) and the interquartile range (IQR)

	Rapolano	Canino	Tivoli	All samples
observations	29	34	23	86
porosity (%)				
mean	11.39	15.93	7.48	12.14
std	7.23	5.84	4.01	6.75
median	8.45	16.78	9.05	10.68
MAD	2.96	4.42	3.34	4.96
IQR	6.90	5.94	6.53	10.21
CaCO₃ (%)				
mean	97.71	96.90	98.06	97.44
std	2.13	4.11	3.46	3.39
median	98.34	99.09	99.29	99.09
MAD	1.58	2.64	1.64	2.06
IQR	2.71	3.26	1.19	2.89

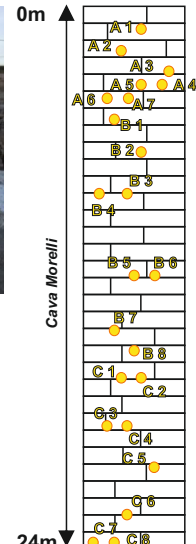
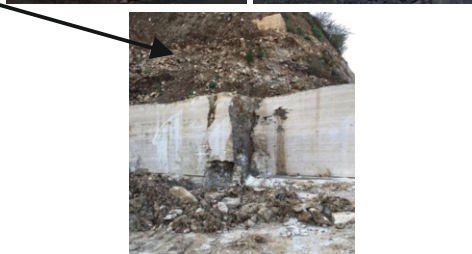
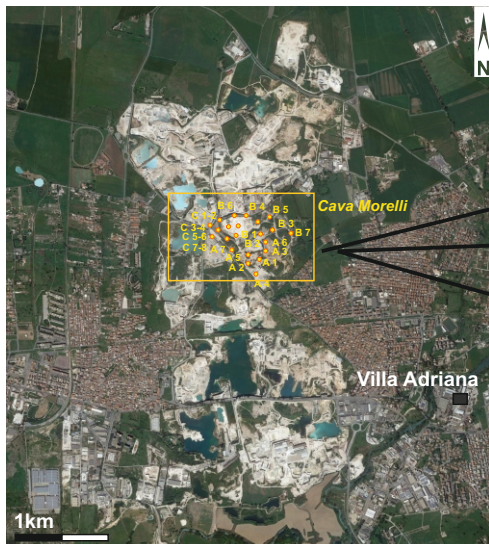
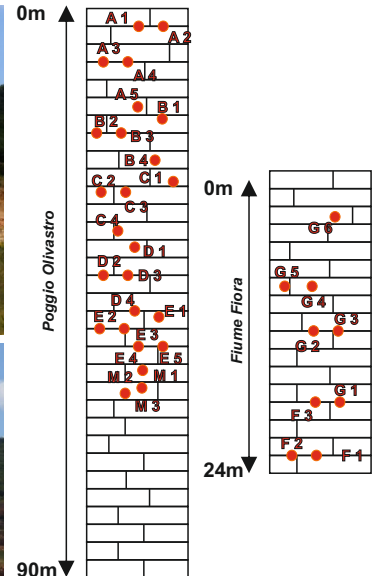
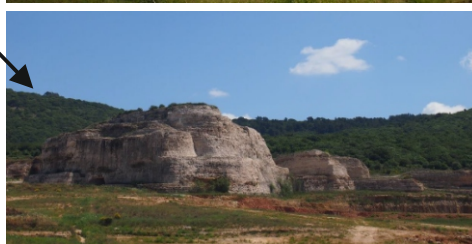
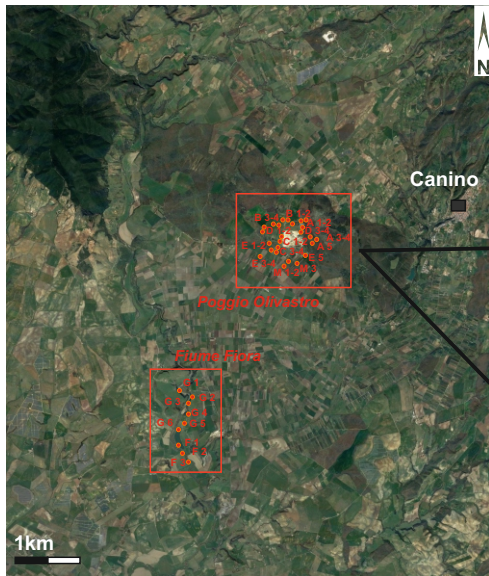
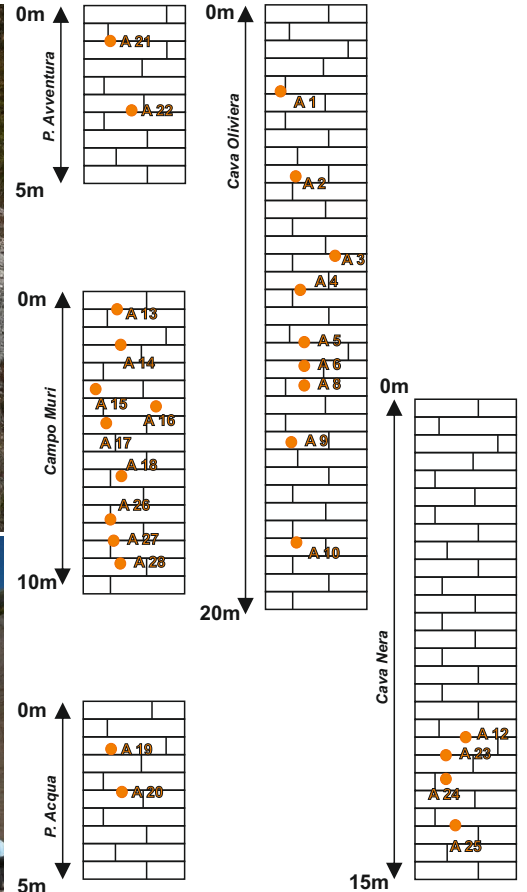
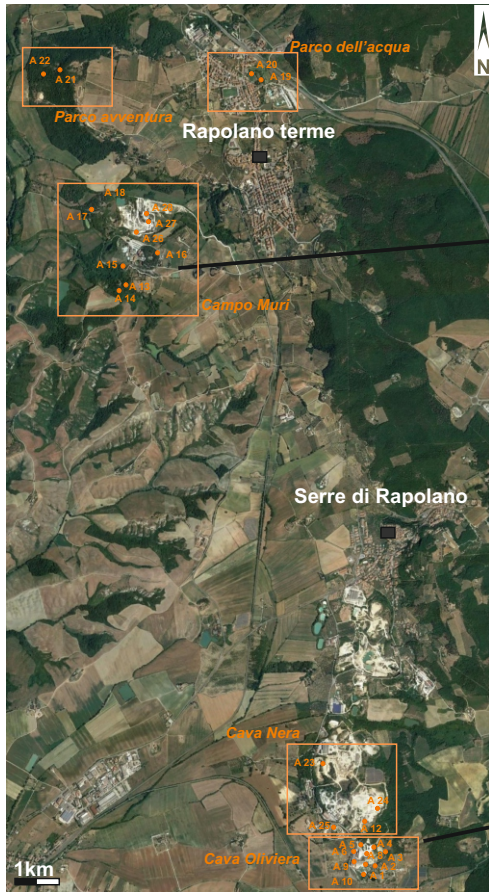
Table 2. Carbon dioxide flux calculations

	Rapolano	Canino	Tivoli
travertine volume (km ³)	0.046	0.90	1.10
recharge area (km ²)	5.7	75	220
CaCO ₃ (moles x10 ¹²)	1.11± 0.02	19.60 ± 0.52	26.49 ± 0.69
Age (ka)	157 ± 15	209 ± 28	87 ± 24
F-CO ₂ (mol y ⁻¹ x10 ⁶)	7.1±1.1	93.8±12.8	304.5±88.9
<i>f</i> -CO ₂ (mol y ⁻¹ km ⁻² x 10 ⁶)	1.24±0.12	1.25±0.18	1.38±0.42

Individual contribution to the paper

Alessandro Mancini: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Writing- Original draft preparation. **Francesco Frondini:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Supervision, Writing- Original draft preparation. **Enrico Capezzuoli:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing- Original draft preparation. **Eduard Galvez Mejia:** Investigation. **Gabriele Lezzi:** Investigation. **David Matarazzi:** Investigation. **Andrea Brogi:** Writing- Original draft preparation. **Rudy Swennen:** Conceptualization, Writing- Original draft preparation.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 1: samples and stratigraphic logs



SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 2: Mass, volume of travertine specimens and results of dissolution experiments

System	Section	ID	W _i g	V cm ³	ρ _b g/cm ³	W _r g	CaCO ₃ g	Porosity fraction	Porosity %	CaCO ₃ %	CaCO ₃ fraction
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A1	34.266	13.50	2.54	0.63	33.64	0.06	5.99	98.17	0.982
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A2	28.911	15.00	1.93	0.80	28.11	0.29	28.61	97.23	0.972
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A3	26.749	10.50	2.55	0.16	26.59	0.06	5.65	99.42	0.994
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A4	31.028	12.50	2.48	0.09	30.94	0.08	8.07	99.72	0.997
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A5	29.538	11.50	2.57	0.09	29.45	0.05	4.87	99.71	0.997
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A6	23.396	9.50	2.46	2.25	21.15	0.09	8.79	90.39	0.904
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A8	36.459	15.50	2.35	2.07	34.39	0.13	12.88	94.33	0.943
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A9	31.731	12.50	2.54	0.58	31.15	0.06	5.98	98.16	0.982
Rapolano	Cava Oliviera	A10	33.103	16.50	2.01	0.43	32.68	0.26	25.69	98.71	0.987
Rapolano	Cava Nera	A12	24.665	9.50	2.60	0.63	24.04	0.04	3.84	97.45	0.974
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A13	20.355	8.50	2.39	0.19	20.17	0.11	11.31	99.09	0.991
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A14	36.914	15.50	2.38	1.08	35.84	0.12	11.79	97.09	0.971
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A15	22.336	10.00	2.23	0.26	22.08	0.17	17.27	98.86	0.989
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A16	20.474	9.00	2.27	0.15	20.33	0.16	15.74	99.29	0.993
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A17	14.037	7.50	1.87	0.12	13.92	0.31	30.68	99.16	0.992
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A18	22.044	10.50	2.10	0.92	21.13	0.22	22.24	95.85	0.958
Rapolano	Parco dell'Acqua	A19	23.482	9.50	2.47	1.23	22.25	0.08	8.45	94.76	0.948
Rapolano	Parco dell'Acqua	A20	36.606	14.50	2.52	0.56	36.05	0.06	6.50	98.48	0.985
Rapolano	Parco Avventura	A21	32.006	12.50	2.56	0.20	31.81	0.05	5.17	99.39	0.994
Rapolano	Parco Avventura	A22	30.273	12.50	2.42	1.59	28.68	0.10	10.30	94.75	0.948
Rapolano	Cava Dei	A23	28.426	11.50	2.47	0.95	27.48	0.08	8.45	96.68	0.967
Rapolano	Cava Nera	A24	31.896	12.50	2.55	0.17	31.73	0.05	5.49	99.48	0.995
Rapolano	Cava Nera	A25	29.407	11.50	2.56	0.49	28.92	0.05	5.29	98.34	0.983
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A26a	43.385	17.50	2.48	1.78	41.61	0.08	8.18	95.91	0.959
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A26b	27.226	11.00	2.48	0.76	26.46	0.08	8.33	97.20	0.972
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A27a	19.947	8.00	2.49	0.06	19.89	0.08	7.65	99.71	0.997
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A27b	16.581	7.00	2.37	0.55	16.04	0.12	12.27	96.71	0.967
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A28a	29.378	12.00	2.45	0.06	29.32	0.09	9.33	99.79	0.998
Rapolano	Campo Muri	A28b	31.950	14.00	2.28	0.08	31.87	0.15	15.48	99.75	0.997
Canino	Poggio Olivastro A	A-1	16.260	8.00	2.03	0.08	16.18	0.25	24.72	99.53	0.995
Canino	Poggio Olivastro A	A-2	26.870	12.80	2.10	0.25	26.62	0.22	22.25	99.08	0.991
Canino	Poggio Olivastro A	A-3	15.930	7.50	2.12	0.06	15.87	0.21	21.33	99.64	0.996
Canino	Poggio Olivastro A	A-4	18.920	9.00	2.10	0.04	18.88	0.22	22.14	99.80	0.998
Canino	Poggio Olivastro A	A-5	19.250	9.00	2.14	0.02	19.23	0.21	20.78	99.91	0.999
Canino	Poggio Olivastro B	B-1	13.240	7.00	1.89	0.11	13.13	0.30	29.95	99.19	0.992
Canino	Poggio Olivastro B	B-2	18.020	8.00	2.25	0.29	17.73	0.17	16.57	98.41	0.984
Canino	Poggio Olivastro B	B-3	21.940	10.00	2.19	0.34	21.60	0.19	18.74	98.46	0.985
Canino	Poggio Olivastro B	B-4	15.690	7.00	2.24	0.10	15.59	0.17	16.98	99.38	0.994
Canino	Poggio Olivastro M	M-1	20.110	8.00	2.51	2.57	17.54	0.07	6.90	87.24	0.872
Canino	Poggio Olivastro M	M-2	18.480	7.00	2.64	0.17	18.31	0.02	2.22	99.10	0.991
Canino	Poggio Olivastro M	M-3	18.070	8.00	2.26	0.43	17.64	0.16	16.34	97.64	0.976
Canino	Poggio Olivastro C	C-1	18.820	9.00	2.09	0.04	18.78	0.23	22.55	99.80	0.998
Canino	Poggio Olivastro C	C-2	25.010	11.00	2.27	0.08	24.93	0.16	15.79	99.69	0.997
Canino	Poggio Olivastro C	C-3	25.500	11.00	2.32	0.54	24.96	0.14	14.14	97.89	0.979
Canino	Poggio Olivastro C	C-4	19.100	9.00	2.12	0.09	19.01	0.21	21.40	99.54	0.995
Canino	Poggio Olivastro D	D-1	33.180	13.50	2.46	0.23	32.95	0.09	8.97	99.32	0.993
Canino	Poggio Olivastro D	D-2	17.230	7.50	2.30	0.11	17.12	0.15	14.91	99.38	0.994
Canino	Poggio Olivastro D	D-3	22.200	10.00	2.22	0.20	22.00	0.18	17.78	99.11	0.991
Canino	Poggio Olivastro D	D-4	20.590	8.00	2.57	0.11	20.48	0.05	4.68	99.48	0.995
Canino	Poggio Olivastro E	E-1	25.150	10.00	2.52	0.10	25.05	0.07	6.85	99.61	0.996
Canino	Poggio Olivastro E	E-2	20.490	9.00	2.28	0.45	20.04	0.16	15.68	97.82	0.978
Canino	Poggio Olivastro E	E-3	26.500	12.00	2.21	0.26	26.24	0.18	18.21	99.03	0.990
Canino	Poggio Olivastro E	E-4	18.420	8.00	2.30	0.05	18.37	0.15	14.72	99.74	0.997
Canino	Poggio Olivastro E	E-5	20.110	9.00	2.23	0.02	20.09	0.17	17.24	99.92	0.999
Canino	Fiume Fiora F	F-1	16.610	7.50	2.21	0.89	15.72	0.18	17.98	94.66	0.947
Canino	Fiume Fiora F	F-2	21.920	10.00	2.19	1.68	20.24	0.19	18.81	92.35	0.923
Canino	Fiume Fiora F	F-3	20.840	9.00	2.32	2.68	18.16	0.14	14.24	87.15	0.872
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-1	17.880	8.00	2.24	2.05	15.83	0.17	17.22	88.55	0.886
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-2	20.420	8.50	2.40	0.70	19.72	0.11	11.02	96.59	0.966
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-3	34.320	14.00	2.45	1.28	33.04	0.09	9.21	96.28	0.963
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-4	26.580	12.00	2.22	3.27	23.31	0.18	17.96	87.71	0.877
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-5	21.680	9.00	2.41	2.03	19.65	0.11	10.78	90.65	0.907
Canino	Fiume Fiora G	G-6	28.230	12.00	2.35	1.98	26.25	0.13	12.87	93.00	0.930
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A1	23.196	9.50	2.44	0.16	23.03	0.10	9.57	99.29	0.993
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A2	23.170	9.50	2.44	0.14	23.03	0.10	9.67	99.40	0.994
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A3	19.637	8.00	2.45	0.01	19.63	0.09	9.09	99.94	0.999
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A4	22.424	8.50	2.64	0.23	22.19	0.02	2.29	98.96	0.990
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A5	31.384	12.50	2.51	0.03	31.36	0.07	7.01	99.91	0.999
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A6	25.324	10.50	2.41	0.05	25.28	0.11	10.67	99.81	0.998
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 3° banco	A7	25.515	10.50	2.43	0.02	25.49	0.10	10.00	99.91	0.999

Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B1	24.749	10.50	2.36	2.40	22.35	0.13	12.70	90.30	0.903
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B2	24.326	9.50	2.56	0.03	24.30	0.05	5.16	99.88	0.999
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B3	27.541	10.50	2.62	3.96	23.59	0.03	2.85	85.64	0.856
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B4	26.924	10.50	2.56	0.37	26.55	0.05	5.03	98.61	0.986
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B5	24.490	9.50	2.58	0.60	23.89	0.05	4.52	97.56	0.976
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B6	21.375	9.50	2.25	0.04	21.33	0.17	16.67	99.80	0.998
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B7	31.068	13.00	2.39	1.52	29.55	0.11	11.49	95.10	0.951
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 2° banco	B8	25.447	10.50	2.42	0.17	25.28	0.10	10.24	99.32	0.993
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C1	26.529	11.00	2.41	0.24	26.29	0.11	10.68	99.11	0.991
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C2	23.329	9.50	2.46	0.09	23.24	0.09	9.05	99.60	0.996
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C3	27.397	11.00	2.49	0.11	27.29	0.08	7.75	99.60	0.996
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C4	29.619	11.00	2.69	1.06	28.56	0.00	0.27	96.43	0.964
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C5	26.962	11.00	2.45	0.08	26.88	0.09	9.22	99.71	0.997
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C6	24.698	9.50	2.60	0.18	24.52	0.04	3.71	99.28	0.993
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C7	26.357	10.00	2.64	0.24	26.11	0.02	2.38	99.07	0.991
Tivoli	Cava Morelli 1° banco	C8	26.403	10.00	2.64	0.22	26.18	0.02	2.21	99.15	0.992
