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Methane seepage dynamics and ground heating phenomena in the southern Po Valley: the case study of Santa Maria Nuova (Italy)

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1 **Methane seepage dynamics and ground heating phenomena in the**  
2 **southern Po Valley: the case study of Santa Maria Nuova (Italy)**

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## 21 **Highlights**

- 22 • Localised CH<sub>4</sub> seepage, up to 917 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, identified within a 1.5 ha agricultural field.
- 23 • Isotopic data support a microbial origin of CH<sub>4</sub> from shallow carbonate deposits.
- 24 • Methanotrophic oxidation of seeped CH<sub>4</sub> leads to local CO<sub>2</sub> release and ground heating.
- 25 • RVI satellite data reveal persistent vegetation stress in the seepage zone since 2017.
- 26 • Field data from 2022-2023 confirm stable CH<sub>4</sub> emission patterns matching remote sensing
- 27 anomalies.

28

29 *Keywords: CH<sub>4</sub> seepage; sedimentary basins; microbial oxidation; soil heating; stable isotopes, RVI*

30 *analysis*

31

## 32 **Abstract**

33 Natural reservoirs that release CH<sub>4</sub> can substantially increase atmospheric greenhouse gas levels,

34 posing environmental and safety risks. Degassing phenomena in the Emilia-Romagna region (Italy)

35 have been documented across a variety of fluids and reservoir types, with a focus on their origin and

36 evolution. This study combines ground measurements and satellite data analysis to explore the

37 relationships between CH<sub>4</sub> seepage, thermal anomalies, and vegetation stress at the Santa Maria Nuova

38 (SMN) site in southern Po Valley. The explosion of a CH<sub>4</sub>-saturated water well in July 2021 prompted

39 a two-year investigation in the adjacent cultivated field (1.5 ha), revealing significant spatial and

40 temporal variations in diffuse CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes (ranging from 0 to 917 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and corresponding CO<sub>2</sub>

41 fluxes (1.9 to 466 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). Soil temperature measurements and thermal imaging identified localised

42 ground heating, attributed to methanotrophic exothermic oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>. These hotspots

43 correspond to areas of visibly stressed vegetation, marked by reduced vitality and barren areas.

44 Satellite-derived Ratio Vegetation Index (RVI) data confirmed persistent vegetation stress over the

45 anomaly site from 2017 to 2024. Geochemical analysis of soil gases indicated a primarily biogenic

46 origin of CH<sub>4</sub>, supported by isotopic signatures ( $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$  values  $< -60$  ‰ V-PDB) and the presence  
47 of shallow Pleistocene carbonate deposits beneath the site, which can generate CH<sub>4</sub> seepage. These  
48 findings demonstrate the utility of integrating ground-based and remote sensing techniques for  
49 monitoring CH<sub>4</sub> seepage and its environmental impacts.

50

## 51 **1. Introduction**

52 Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) seepage refers to the release of natural gas from the subsurface into the surrounding  
53 environment. Methane-rich manifestations include onshore macro-seeps (such as mud volcanoes),  
54 submarine seepage, microseepage (as a diffusive flux from the soil), and thermal fluid discharges  
55 (Etiope et al., 2007a; 2009; Ricci et al., 2023). Around 53 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>, nearly 10% of the average global  
56 emission (EMEP/EEA 2023), are emitted from natural gas reservoirs into the atmosphere. However,  
57 due to the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of emissions, these estimates carry considerable  
58 uncertainty, as they rely on either bottom-up approaches or top-down modelling. Consequently, they  
59 are constrained by the extent of knowledge and the acquisition of direct measurements from  
60 geologically significant regions. A refined quantification of the geogenic CH<sub>4</sub> discharged into the  
61 atmosphere is crucial, as methane is a potent greenhouse gas with a global warming potential  
62 approximately 28-34 times higher than CO<sub>2</sub> over a 100-year period (IPCC, 2021). In addition to its  
63 role in climate change, atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> affects tropospheric ozone formation and the oxidising  
64 capacity of the atmosphere. On a local scale, uncontrolled seepage of CH<sub>4</sub> and associated hydrocarbons  
65 may degrade air quality, alter soil microbial activity, and pose safety and environmental risks such as  
66 groundwater contamination and increased probability of explosions in confined spaces (Schout et al.,  
67 2020). Measurement of natural CH<sub>4</sub> emissions targets both diffusive degassing and punctual gas  
68 emissions, such as those from mud volcanoes and abandoned wells for hydrocarbon exploitation (e.g.  
69 Boothroyd et al., 2016).

70 Hydrocarbon-prone sedimentary basins host most macros and microseepages worldwide, which have  
71 long been used as indicators for potential oil or gas fields since the 1930s (Laubmeyer, 1933; Klusman,  
72 1993; Tedesco, 1995; Abrams, 2005). In this environment, CH<sub>4</sub> is produced when organic matter  
73 buried within sediments undergoes biodegradation, carried out by microbial metabolic activity  
74 (biogenesis) and thermal alteration through cracking and reforming reactions caused by heat and  
75 pressure at depth (thermogenesis) (Schoell, 1980). Italy's methane reserves, currently totalling 37  
76 billion cubic meters (ENI, 2023), result from Apennine orogenesis combined with Neogene tectonics  
77 and have been exploited for over a century, significantly reducing the surficial seepages (Etiopie, 2009).  
78 In the Emilia-Romagna region (north-central Italy), historical records documented the occurrence of  
79 unusual events in several areas, such as gas bubbling, abrupt temperature increases in well water, rapid  
80 changes in the level of aquifer table, soil deformation and temperature increase, soil liquefaction, and  
81 the formation of sand and mud volcanoes (Capaccioni et al., 2015; Bonzi et al., 2017; Ricci et al.,  
82 2023). These phenomena have been observed concurrently with earthquakes (e.g., Sciarra et al., 2012),  
83 although without a clear spatiotemporal correlation pattern, while they also characterise periods of  
84 seismic quiescence (Sciarra et al., 2017). Active tectonics in sectors under compressive regimes are  
85 closely related to these gas seeps, as they promote the upward migration of gas by increasing pore  
86 pressure or creating new fractures, thereby enhancing permeability (Klusman, 1993; Etiopie, 1999).  
87 Santa Maria Nuova Spallicci (hereafter referred to as SMN) is situated in the southeastern part of the  
88 Emilia-Romagna Region. In July 2021, a significant explosion was reported at this site, impacting a  
89 private water well. A spark from a water pump at the top of the well triggered the event. The rapid  
90 onset of a vigorous bubbling of CH<sub>4</sub>-rich gases in the well water and a heavy metal panel at the well's  
91 exit created the conditions to rapidly exceed the lower flammability limit (4.4 vol% for CH<sub>4</sub>) in the  
92 well and the subsequent explosion. During the survey in the following days, vigorous gas bubbling  
93 was still occurring, and non-dispersive infrared sensors placed at the wellhead revealed hazardous CH<sub>4</sub>  
94 levels (>5 vol%). The residents living in the neighbourhood reported the occurrence of numerous

95 microseepage events over the last decades, such as gas bubbles in ponds on the ground during heavy  
96 rains or the interruption of construction work due to the presence of gas intercepted by excavations.  
97 Close to the well lies an agricultural field cultivated with barley, which displayed circular barren  
98 patches among the farming area. Similar surface manifestations have been observed in other areas of  
99 the region, such as the Terre Calde di Medolla (Modena province), where vegetative distress has been  
100 linked to diffuse gas emissions. In that area, CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes were found to drive methanotrophic oxidation,  
101 resulting in elevated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and localised soil heating, ultimately causing persistent vegetation  
102 stress (Capaccioni et al., 2015; Sciarra et al., 2021). The explosion event, along with the presence of  
103 anomalous vegetation patterns in the adjacent field, prompted a detailed investigation of gas seepage  
104 dynamics at the SMN site, focusing on CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and the potential occurrence of  
105 processes analogous to those documented at the Medolla site. Specifically, the research aims to (i)  
106 quantify gas emissions employing ground-based measurements (i.e., accumulation chamber method),  
107 (ii) characterise the origin of these emissions in terms of depth and production processes, (iii) propose  
108 a method to identify potential sites where phenomena similar to those discussed in this paper may  
109 occur, by analysing satellite-derived vegetation data.

110

## 111 **2. Study site**

112 SMN is in the Romagna Plain, approximately 8 km from the boundary with the Northern Apennines  
113 (Fig. 1a). The ongoing evolution of the Northern Apennines into a fold-and-thrust belt since the  
114 Cretaceous resulted from the collision between the European plate and the Adria microplate (Boccaletti  
115 et al., 1971; Marroni et al., 2002). Tectonic pressures arising from the reciprocal approach of the Alps  
116 and the Apennines, leading to a lowering in the central region, have generated the Po Valley. This vast  
117 subsiding area forms a sedimentary basin primarily filled with marine sediments at its deepest point.  
118 Alluvial sediments from rivers, including the Po River and its Alpine and Apennine tributaries,  
119 contributed to surface sedimentation through flooding (Severi and Bonzi, 2014). In the Emilia-

120 Romagna plain, river-derived sediments are several hundred meters thick, overlaying coastal  
121 sediments and gradually transitioning to deeper and older marine deposits beneath. The geological  
122 units most affected by tectonic deformation are situated below those composing the deepest portion,  
123 buried by Plio-Pleistocene deposits (Capozzi and Picotti, 2002a). In the area including the study site,  
124 sandy-loamy alluvial deposits date back to the Roman and post-Roman periods (ISPRA, 2009), while  
125 in the subsurface, the alluvial deposits reach a depth of about 175 meters (Emilia-Romagna Region-  
126 ENI Agip, 1998). The latter covers basal Middle Pleistocene coastal marine sediments, followed by  
127 progressively older marine deposits. SMN is roughly halfway between two buried thrust faults located  
128 near the Apennine margin (Fig. 1b) and a bundle of buried thrust faults positioned closer to the sea,  
129 while 1.5 km upstream from SMN, there is a normal fault. The contour lines of the Pliocene base  
130 demonstrate the presence of a complex tectonic framework. Active tectonic structures corresponding  
131 to buried thrust fronts are present in the subsurface. Near SMN, earthquakes with  $4 < M_w < 5.5$  having  
132 hypocentres at about 8 km have been recorded (Fig. 1b). In the Apennine foothills near Forlì, biogenic  
133 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions occur within deformed upper Neogene foredeep deposits (Capozzi and Picotti, 2002b).  
134 These units constitute an uplifted segment of the primary hydrocarbon system exploited in the eastern  
135 Po Plain (Mattavelli et al., 1983). These seepages are linked to biogenic CH<sub>4</sub> produced by degradation  
136 of Pliocene and Pleistocene organic-rich layers. It is plausible that a transitional border exists between  
137 a deeply buried zone of organic matter responsible for thermogenic CH<sub>4</sub> production and a shallowly  
138 buried zone where bacteria can still ferment the organic matter in the foredeep succession (Capozzi  
139 and Picotti, 2010).

140

### 141 **3. Materials and Methods**

#### 142 *3.1 Diffuse emissions of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> from the soil and interstitial soil gases*

143 Four seasonal field campaigns were conducted between May 2022 and October 2023 in the cultivated  
144 field at SMN to measure diffuse CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from the soil. Flux measurements were carried

145 out approximately every six months, and each survey was completed within a single day of fieldwork,  
146 providing a representative snapshot of emission patterns under different seasonal conditions. Sampling  
147 points were distributed across an area of approximately 1.5 hectares, encompassing both zones with  
148 visible signs of vegetation stress and areas with normal vegetation cover. Locations with bare soil or  
149 sparse vegetation were generally easier to measure due to better surface accessibility. The spatial  
150 resolution varied between 75 and 130 measurement points per campaign, depending primarily on  
151 vegetation density and field accessibility. Gas flux measurements were carried out via the  
152 accumulation chamber method (Chiodini et al., 1998; Cardellini et al., 2003), using a portable West  
153 System™ flux meter equipped with a LICOR Li-820 infrared spectrophotometer for CO<sub>2</sub> and a tunable  
154 diode laser combined with a Herriott multipass cell for CH<sub>4</sub>. The system operated with a Type B  
155 chamber, suitable for a wide range of fluxes. Measurement accuracy varies according to flux intensity:  
156  $\pm 25\%$  for fluxes between 1 and 1,500 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, and  $\pm 10\%$  for fluxes between 1.5 and 300 mol m<sup>-2</sup>  
157 d<sup>-1</sup>, as specified by the manufacturer. The measured fluxes (as g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) were processed through  
158 sequential Gaussian simulation (sGs) to extrapolate the values over a regular grid (5 x 5 meters). The  
159 sGs geostatistical method mitigates the smoothing effects produced by deterministic methods (e.g.,  
160 ordinary Kriging) by generating multiple random realisations. In sGs, during the estimating procedure  
161 for each unknown point, both the estimates at the previously simulated sites and the actual values at  
162 sampled locations are considered (Deutsch and Journel, 1998). For every dataset, 200 simulations were  
163 produced and post-processed to construct CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> flux maps. The total output in t d<sup>-1</sup> was  
164 computed based on the integration of the extrapolated fluxes over the entire area. Interstitial gas  
165 samples were collected where the gas flux and soil temperatures were anomalous (Fig. 2a). According  
166 to Tassi et al. (2015), soil gas was collected using a stainless-steel tube with an inner diameter of 4  
167 mm at approximately 25 cm depth inserted into the soil and connected to a 100 mL syringe via a PTFE  
168 three-way valve used to fill a 1L air sampling bags (Supelco®). Both inorganic (O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>) and  
169 organic (CH<sub>4</sub>) gases were analysed at the Fluid Geochemistry Laboratory of INGV Rome by a

170 MicroGC Varian 4900, with an analytical error <3%. The isotopic carbon ratio of both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>  
171 (expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$ , Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (VPDB) ‰) was determined via  
172 cavity ringdown spectroscopy (CDRS) with the Picarro G2201-i instrument, with a precision within  
173 0.16 ‰ for  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$  and 1.15 ‰ for  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$ .

174

### 175 *3.2 Soil temperatures*

176 To detect and characterise near-surface thermal anomalies potentially related to gas seepage, a multi-  
177 scale thermal survey was carried out. The September 2022 flux campaign was preceded by a drone-  
178 based thermal imaging survey using a DJI Matrice 300 UAV, equipped with a Zenmuse H20T  
179 radiometric thermal sensor, flown at 60 m above ground level. From that survey onward, each flux  
180 measurement campaign involved collecting soil temperature data at a depth of approximately 10 cm  
181 using a digital thermometer with a Type-K thermocouple of 20 cm. Thermal maps were also generated  
182 using the sGs method. Additionally, in 2024, a soil temperature station equipped with a Mini T1  
183 datalogger and thermocouple was installed at the main anomaly spot at a depth of about 50 cm, from  
184 January to November. This dataset is included in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S1).

185

### 186 *3.3 Vegetative cover and Sentinel-2 spectral data processing*

187 After screening the area with Google Earth Pro to assess the temporal persistence of vegetation  
188 anomalies (Fig. 2b), these features were interpreted as a spatial indicator of CH<sub>4</sub> seepage in the field.  
189 The presence of a recurrent vegetation stress signal over several years supported its use as a preliminary  
190 guide for field investigations. These associations between plant stress, ground heating, and natural gas  
191 emissions, already demonstrated in the Terre Calde di Medolla site (Capaccioni et al., 2015; Sciarra et  
192 al., 2021), further strengthened their role as reliable indicators of subsurface gas migration. To  
193 corroborate the observations from the analysis of the satellite images, the cloud-based platform for  
194 geospatial analysis, Google Earth Engine (GEE, <https://earthengine.google.com/>), provided an

195 extensive database of satellite acquisitions that enabled spectral data processing. Specifically, the  
196 distinct spectral conditions of various vegetative covers can be identified by their overall ground  
197 elements: while leaf cellular structures strongly reflect near-infrared radiation (760-900 nm), visible  
198 radiation in the red (630-690 nm) is absorbed by chlorophyll (Tucker, 1979). Combining these two  
199 spectral domains makes it possible to distinguish plants from the soil and use vegetative cover density  
200 to calculate photosynthetically active biomass. The "Ratio Vegetation Index" (RVI), developed by  
201 Pearson and Miller (1972), enhances the contrast between the ground and vegetation:

$$202 \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{RVI} = \text{NIR}/\text{R} \qquad \qquad \qquad (1)$$

203 Where R is the mean reflectance in the red channel, and NIR is the mean reflectance in the near-  
204 infrared channel. Considering this, the temporal trend of plant growth inhibition associated with gas  
205 seepage was evaluated by calculating the RVI of two different circular areas (~30 m radius) in the  
206 field: (1) one located in the central zone of the vegetative anomaly, where the ground was consistently  
207 bare or sparsely vegetated ( $\text{RVI}_{\text{an}}$ ) and (2) one in a reference area with nominally healthy vegetation,  
208 used as background ( $\text{RVI}_{\text{bg}}$ ). The selection of these areas was guided by the  $\text{CH}_4$  flux maps obtained  
209 during the initial field campaigns, which helped to delineate zones of active seepage and unaffected  
210 vegetation. The Sentinel-2 spatial resolution for both spectral bands was 10 m, and the RVI was  
211 calculated considering the cloud coverage probability and excluding all R band values  $< 0.1$ , i.e. the  
212 cloud threshold value proposed by the sentinel2-cloud-detector library.

213

#### 214 *3.4 Groundwater monitoring at the exploded well*

215 The exploded water well was equipped with an STS DL.WMS.BT.4G.LTC multi-parameter probe to  
216 continuously monitor potential signals of deep fluid migration. The probe includes a pressure sensor  
217 (0.05% full-scale accuracy), a temperature sensor ( $\pm 0.1$  °C), and a four-electrode electrical  
218 conductivity sensor with six titanium electrodes and a measurement error below 2.5% of the range.

219 Data were recorded at hourly intervals. The time series collected between June 2023 and December  
220 2024 is presented and discussed in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S2).

221

## 222 4. Results

### 223 4.1 Diffuse gas emissions from the SMN field

224 Table 1 presents a statistical summary of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from the soil, along with the output  
225 estimates obtained from the sGs extrapolation, during the 2022-2023 campaigns. In May 2022,  $\Phi_{\text{CH}_4}$   
226 varied from 0 to 917 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, yielding a total estimated output of  $0.82 \pm 0.1$  t d<sup>-1</sup>.  $\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$  fluctuated  
227 between 28.2 and 308.5 g m<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>, leading to a total emission of  $1.8 \pm 0.18$  t d<sup>-1</sup>. By September 2022,  
228 CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes had significantly decreased, with values ranging from 0 to 5.8 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and a total output  
229 of  $0.008 \pm 0.003$  t d<sup>-1</sup>, while  $\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$  spanned from 9.4 to 174.8 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with an output of  $0.62 \pm 0.05$   
230 t d<sup>-1</sup>. The April 2023 campaign showed a new peak for CH<sub>4</sub>, with fluxes up to 224.4 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and an  
231 estimated total output of  $0.51 \pm 0.09$  t d<sup>-1</sup>, whereas CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes ranged from 5.2 to 157.8 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>,  
232 contributing to a total emission of  $0.65 \pm 0.07$  t d<sup>-1</sup>. Finally, in October 2023, CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes were once  
233 again low, ranging from 0 to 4.6 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with a total output of  $0.005 \pm 0.002$  t d<sup>-1</sup>. CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes  
234 exhibited a broader range, from 1.9 to 466.1 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with an overall emission of  $0.66 \pm 0.04$  t d<sup>-1</sup>.  
235 The spatial distributions of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, as derived from sGs interpolation, are shown in Fig. 3,  
236 where a permanent anomaly can be observed, particularly to the south of the agricultural field,  
237 throughout the two-year monitoring period.

238

### 239 4.2. Interstitial Soil Gases and Isotopic Data

240 The analytical results for interstitial gases collected in September 2022 and April 2023 are summarised  
241 in Table 2. CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations ranged from 0.00074% (22A) to 54.1% (23E), while CO<sub>2</sub>  
242 concentrations ranged from 0.07% (23A) to 6.88% (23D). The CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> molar ratio spanned from  
243 0.01 (22A) to 8.80 (23C), whereas O<sub>2</sub> content ranged between 4.7% (22B) to 20.03% (23F), and N<sub>2</sub>

244 values varied from 37.6‰ (23E) to 78.7‰ (23A). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in  $\text{CH}_4$  ranged from -61‰ V-PDB  
245 (22A) to -77.8‰ V-PDB (23E), while the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\text{CO}_2$  values were from -52‰ V-PDB (23D) to -24‰  
246 V-PDB (23C). These data are graphically represented in Figure 4, where panel (a) reports the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
247 values of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  for all samples, and panel (b) shows the  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  molar ratio plotted against  
248  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\text{CO}_2$ .

249

#### 250 4.3. Soil temperature measurements

251 The spatial distribution of ground surface temperatures obtained through both UAV-based thermal  
252 imaging and point-based measurements during the flux campaigns is shown in Fig. 5. Panel (a) shows  
253 the thermal orthomosaic acquired via drone prior to the September 2022 campaign. A warmer area is  
254 clearly visible in the southern-central sector of the cultivated field, where surface temperatures exceed  
255 17 °C, contrasting with surrounding zones measuring as low as ~3 °C. Panels (b), (c), and (d) display  
256 soil temperature data collected at ~10 cm depth during the surveys conducted in September 2022, April  
257 2023, and October 2023, respectively. In all three cases, a consistent temperature gradient is observed  
258 across the field, with relatively higher values located in the central-southern portion where vegetation  
259 appears sparser or absent. The temperature difference between warmer and cooler zones varies across  
260 the three campaigns: approximately 3 °C in September 2022 (panel b), up to 3.5 °C in April 2023  
261 (panel c), and exceeding 10 °C in October 2023 (panel d). The more pronounced contrast visible in the  
262 UAV-derived dataset (panel a) is further addressed in the Discussion section.

263

#### 264 4.4. RVI Analysis

265 The temporal evolution of the RVI calculated from Sentinel-2 satellite data for both the SMN and  
266 Medolla fields is shown in Fig. 6. The Medolla site is included in the analysis as it represents another  
267 location where vegetation stress has been documented in association with similar phenomena. At the  
268 Medolla site, the  $\text{RVI}_{\text{an}}$  was calculated over a larger anomaly area rather than a single point, capturing

269 a broader spatial impact. Both graphs cover the period from July 2017 to May 2024. At the SMN site  
270 (upper panel),  $RVI_{bg}$  values (green circles) exhibit a clear seasonal pattern, with sharp increases during  
271 the spring and early summer of each year. These peaks vary in magnitude, with particularly high values  
272 recorded in 2019 and again between 2022 and 2023. Notably,  $RVI_{bg}$  values show greater dispersion  
273 and variability compared to the  $RVI_{an}$  values. The  $RVI_{an}$  data (orange squares) display a lower  
274 amplitude of seasonal variation throughout the time series, with most values remaining below 4. The  
275 contrast between  $RVI_{an}$  and  $RVI_{bg}$  is especially marked during the peak growing seasons, when  $RVI_{bg}$   
276 reaches its highest values, while  $RVI_{an}$  remains comparatively stable or only moderately increases.  
277 Dashed vertical lines indicate the four time points corresponding to the flux campaigns conducted in  
278 May 2022, September 2022, April 2023, and October 2023. At the Medolla site (lower panel), both  
279  $RVI_{bg}$  and  $RVI_{an}$  show well-defined seasonal cycles, with elevated values during vegetative periods  
280 and lower values during the winter months. As at SMN,  $RVI_{bg}$  generally displays higher peaks than  
281 the corresponding  $RVI_{an}$ , although the two curves follow a more similar trend over time compared to  
282 SMN. Peak  $RVI_{bg}$  values often exceed 15 and reach up to ~25–27 in some years (notably in 2019 and  
283 2020), whereas  $RVI_{an}$  values mostly remain below 15, even during peak growing seasons.

284

## 285 **5. Discussion**

### 286 *5.1 Origin of gases*

287 Methane in natural environments is mainly produced by two genetic processes, which can be  
288 distinguished using the carbon isotopic ratio of  $CH_4$ , expressed as  $\delta^{13}C-CH_4$ . Biogenic  $CH_4$ , mostly  
289 related to microbial activity in anoxic conditions, typically exhibits strongly depleted  $\delta^{13}C$  values <-  
290 50 ‰ V-PDB, whereas thermogenic  $CH_4$ , formed from the thermal decomposition of organic matter  
291 at high temperatures, shows less negative  $\delta^{13}C$  values ranging from -50‰ to -30‰ V-PDB (Schoell,  
292 1980; Whiticar, 1999). However, these isotopic signatures should be considered indicative rather than  
293 definitive, as overlaps can occur due to secondary processes such as fractionation or mixing of gases

294 from different origins (Mattavelli & Novelli, 1983), especially in complex geological settings. The  
295 isotopic analysis of SMN soil gases reveals a distinctly biogenic origin, with all  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  values below  
296  $-60\text{‰ V-PDB}$  (Table 2). Figure 4a illustrates the relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$ ,  
297 contextualised within the genetic fields and isotopic processes defined by Milkov and Etiope (2018).  
298 The isotopic composition of soil gases from the SMN site falls within the  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction (CR) field,  
299 indicating that  $\text{CH}_4$  is primarily generated through microbial carbonate reduction in marine sediments.  
300 This pathway favours the production of  $^{12}\text{C}$ -enriched  $\text{CH}_4$ , which is consistent with the characteristics  
301 of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions in the area (Tassi et al., 2012). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$  values of the soil samples also provide  
302 further insights that point to other methane-related processes. While approximately half of the samples  
303 display  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratio values typical of  $\text{CO}_2$  sources linked to soil respiration and organic matter  
304 decomposition (e.g.  $-20\text{‰}$  to  $-30\text{‰ V-PDB}$ ; Amundson et al., 1998), others exhibit significantly  
305 depleted  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$  values (e.g., 23D:  $-52\text{‰}$ , 23E:  $-37\text{‰}$ , 23A:  $-39\text{‰}$ ). Such highly negative values  
306 suggest an enhanced influence of methanotrophic activity, where the microbial oxidation of  $\text{CH}_4$   
307 results in the transfer of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  signature to  $\text{CO}_2$  through isotopic mass balance,  $^{12}\text{C}$  being  
308 preferentially incorporated into the oxidised  $\text{CO}_2$ . Although some degree of atmospheric  
309 contamination may affect the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in certain samples (particularly in sample 22A, which is  
310 characterised by low  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations and roughly atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  values), the overall  
311 isotopic signatures remain consistently depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$ . This suggests that atmospheric dilution has a  
312 limited impact on the measured isotopic composition of both gases and does not significantly bias the  
313 interpretation of their origin. Figure 4b further supports this interpretation by showing the relationship  
314 between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  and the  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  ratio. The observed trend indicates that as  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  decreases,  
315  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  becomes progressively enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$ . For comparison, Fig. 4b also includes gas data from  
316 the Terre Calde di Medolla site, sourced from Capaccioni et al. (2015). Despite variations in sampling  
317 depth, these data exhibit a similar trend of increasing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}\text{-CH}_4$  values with decreasing  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  ratios.  
318 The extent of  $\text{CH}_4$  oxidation, however, is likely influenced by several environmental factors, including

319 oxygen availability, temperature, soil moisture, microbial community density, soil composition, land  
320 use, and vegetation cover (Shukla et al., 2013). This interpretation aligns with the general  
321 characteristics of gas reservoirs in the Padania Plain and the southern Po River Basin, where CH<sub>4</sub> is  
322 generated at relatively shallow depths (1.5–2 km) and lower temperatures (~50°C) within the Pliocene–  
323 Pleistocene sedimentary infill of the Apennine Chain foredeep (Martinelli et al., 2012; Ricci et al.,  
324 2023). These microbial gas accumulations contrast with the thermogenic CH<sub>4</sub> found in the Emilian  
325 sector of the Apennines, west of the study area, where gas emissions display a clear thermogenic  
326 signature associated with deeper and higher-temperature formations (Tassi et al., 2012). The geological  
327 cross-section in Fig. 7 (trace shown in Fig. 1b) reveals that the marine deposits of Pliocene to  
328 Pleistocene age beneath the study area are less than 0.5 km thick. These sediments, consisting of  
329 alluvial gravel and sand with interbedded clay, directly overlie Messinian clay–sand alternations, as  
330 documented in the Cannuzzuola I well log (available at [www.videpi.com](http://www.videpi.com)). Given that microbial  
331 carbonate reduction typically occurs in shallow, organic-rich marine sediments, the Pliocene–  
332 Pleistocene layers represent a plausible domain for bacterial CH<sub>4</sub> generation. The underlying evaporitic  
333 sequence is considered an unlikely host for organic matter. Instead, a deeper gas source could be  
334 associated with the Marnoso-Arenacea turbidite formation, which lies at depths exceeding 1 km.  
335 However, CH<sub>4</sub> from this unit, as reported by Mattavelli et al. (1983), is of mixed biogenic and  
336 thermogenic origin and typically exhibits a heavier carbon isotopic signature than that observed in our  
337 samples. Moreover, the cross-section highlights two reverse faults intersecting the stratigraphic  
338 succession. These tectonic structures may act as preferential pathways for the upward migration of  
339 gas, supporting the hypothesis that fault-controlled permeability plays a key role in channelling the  
340 emissions observed at the surface.

341

342 *5.2 Spatial and temporal evolution of  $\Phi_{CH_4}$  and  $\Phi_{CO_2}$*

343 The spatial distribution maps of the CH<sub>4</sub> soil fluxes reveal a confined area, located south of the  
344 agricultural field, of significant anomaly consistently detected throughout the two-year surveys (Fig.  
345 3). During both spring campaigns (May 2022 and April 2023), the main CH<sub>4</sub> anomaly was consistently  
346 accompanied by a secondary flux anomaly located slightly to the west, an additional feature that was  
347 absent in the autumn surveys. Notably, CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes measured in spring reached values up to two orders  
348 of magnitude higher than those recorded in autumn. This recurring pattern suggests a potential seasonal  
349 control on CH<sub>4</sub> seepage. Various factors could drive this seasonality, with soil moisture playing a key  
350 role by influencing soil permeability and gas transport pathways. However, further targeted  
351 investigations are necessary to clarify the mechanisms underlying this seasonal variability. According  
352 to the Etiope and Klusman (2010) classification, high CH<sub>4</sub> microseepage is defined as fluxes greater  
353 than 50 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, medium microseepage ranges from 5 to 50 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, and low microseepage is  
354 from 0 to 5 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. At SMN, many CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes vastly exceeded the high microseepage range (Table  
355 1), even when environmental factors inhibit the flux. The spatial distribution of ΦCO<sub>2</sub> mirrored that  
356 of ΦCH<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 3), consistent with both gases being produced and consumed by microbial activity. This  
357 pattern aligns with previous studies in the Terre Calde di Medolla area (Capaccioni et al., 2015), which  
358 documented a strong correlation between CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes at sites dominated by microbial gas  
359 generation and oxidation processes. Typical biogenic soil respiration fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> in similar  
360 environments, in the absence of additional sources, generally reach several tens of g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Chiodini  
361 et al., 2008). In the anomalous spots of the study area, the observed ΦCO<sub>2</sub> values exceed these  
362 background levels, indicating a significant contribution from methanotrophy. To quantify the relative  
363 contribution of CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation and background soil respiration to total CO<sub>2</sub> flux, the distribution of  
364 September 2022 CO<sub>2</sub> flux values was modelled using a Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM), applying  
365 the Expectation-Maximisation (EM) algorithm to fit a finite model representing two normal  
366 populations of the empirical distribution. This statistical decomposition enabled the estimation of the  
367 mean and mixing fraction of each population (Fig. 8). The lower CO<sub>2</sub> flux population, which is the

368 most common, represents background soil respiration and is observed across both areas with and  
369 without CH<sub>4</sub> anomalies. This population accounted for 69% of the total flux, while the population  
370 associated with CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation contributed the remaining 31%. The mean and standard deviation of  
371 these two components were used in a Monte Carlo simulation with 3,000 iterations to estimate the  
372 mean flux and associated uncertainty for each population. The results indicated flux values of  $143.2 \pm$   
373  $26.5 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  for the CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation population and  $36.7 \pm 2.7 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  for the background  
374 soil respiration population.

375

376

### 377 *5.3 Thermal Anomaly and Vegetation Health Assessment*

378 A significant discrepancy in the recorded temperature ranges emerges between thermal maps derived  
379 from drone-based imaging and those obtained from ground-based measurements (Fig. 5). This is  
380 primarily due to the nature of the measurements since drone imaging captures the surface temperature,  
381 while the other maps represent soil temperature at a depth of 15 cm. Additionally, the thermal  
382 emissivity coefficient ( $\epsilon$ ) is uniformly applied to the entire acquisition, disregarding the presence of  
383 materials different from the soil (e.g., cement, metal from orchard fences). Despite the thermal maps  
384 not being directly comparable, this approach enables the identification of thermal anomalies while  
385 providing spatial continuity for the temperature parameter observed across various time intervals. The  
386 highest temperatures were consistently measured at and around the main CH<sub>4</sub> emission spot, even  
387 across time (Fig. S2), where the exothermic oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> generates localised heating  
388 (Capaccioni et al., 2015). Seasonal variations in ground temperature and soil moisture modulate the  
389 extent and intensity of this thermal anomaly since these environmental factors influence gas mobility  
390 and microbial growth in the soil. Furthermore, the release of CH<sub>4</sub> and subsequent oxidation into CO<sub>2</sub>  
391 by methanotrophic bacteria affect plant health, often leading to a charred appearance and irregular,  
392 thinning growth near the gas leaks (Davis, 1977). These stress responses are further compounded by

393 changes in nutrient cycling and microbial competition, which can reduce nitrogen availability essential  
394 for plant development (Karbin et al., 2015; Chang et al., 2024). The observed oxygen depletion in  
395 three interstitial gas soil samples (22B, 23D, 23E) also indicates that oxidative methane processes  
396 could impair root respiration. The adverse effects on vegetation are reflected in the RVI time series at  
397 SMN (Fig. 6), which shows consistently lower values at the anomaly spot compared to the surrounding  
398 areas. The seasonal RVI fluctuations (higher in spring and summer, lower in fall and winter) indicate  
399 regular vegetation cycles in unaffected regions. In contrast, the anomaly spot exhibits suppressed  
400 growth, reinforcing the hypothesis that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions negatively impact plant health. This difference  
401 in vegetation vitality is captured through satellite-derived spectral reflectance data. Typically, an RVI  
402  $< 1$  signals significant vegetation stress or sparse cover due to lower NIR reflectance relative to Red  
403 light (Richardson and Wiegand, 1977). However, despite expected distress from gas seepage, the  
404 anomaly (RVI<sub>an</sub>) remains above this threshold, likely due to the 10m resolution of Sentinel-2, which  
405 averages localised effects over a broader area, thus diluting the visible impact on vegetation. Other  
406 factors may also influence RVI, including the phenological stage, where young or senescing plants  
407 exhibit different reflectance from mature vegetation (Kobayashi et al., 2018). Additionally, the crop  
408 rotation (i.e., barley cultivation in 2022 and fava bean in 2024) introduces species with distinct spectral  
409 characteristics due to differences in leaf structure and water content, further altering the RVI. Soil  
410 moisture and background reflectance are also essential; moist soils reduce NIR reflectance, while dry  
411 soils increase it, potentially lowering RVI values (Polivova et al., 2022). A direct comparison of the  
412 SMN and Medolla RVI time series enhances understanding of how vegetation responds to gas-related  
413 stress under various site conditions. At both sites, the anomaly RVI consistently shows lower values  
414 than the surrounding background RVI, indicating persistent reduction in vegetation vitality near the  
415 gas seepage areas. However, the RVI<sub>bg</sub>-RVI<sub>an</sub> gap is notably wider at SMN (especially evident during  
416 the growing seasons), suggesting more intense or sustained stress. In contrast, the Medolla site exhibits  
417 more robust vegetation growth overall, with higher and sharper RVI peaks, even at the anomaly

418 location, implying either less severe environmental stress or more favourable baseline conditions. The  
419 more pronounced vegetation decline at SMN could be linked to chronic exposure to CH<sub>4</sub> emissions,  
420 whereas the stress at Medolla may be more episodic or buffered by local factors such as soil  
421 composition, land management, or microclimatic conditions.

422

## 423 **6. Conclusions**

424 The study investigated the spatial and temporal variability of CH<sub>4</sub> microseepage and associated ground  
425 heating phenomena at SMN site, in northern Italy. Seasonal gas flux monitoring revealed that methane  
426 emissions can vary by up to three orders of magnitude, with peak fluxes typically occurring in spring.  
427 The CH<sub>4</sub> seepage is attributed to microbial generation in shallow marine carbonate-rich sediments,  
428 consistent with other known seepage systems in the Po Plain. The observed ground heating, likely  
429 linked to exothermic methanotrophic oxidation, is associated with inhibited vegetation growth at the  
430 seepage site. Long-term satellite observations support the persistence of these effects over multiple  
431 years. Future studies could expand on these findings by incorporating vegetation stress indicators, such  
432 as chlorophyll content or spectral indices, to better quantify the impact of soil heating on plant health.  
433 Additionally, stable isotope analysis of plant tissues or rhizosphere gases could help refine the  
434 understanding of methane–biosphere interactions at these seepage sites.

435

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457 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

458 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
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460

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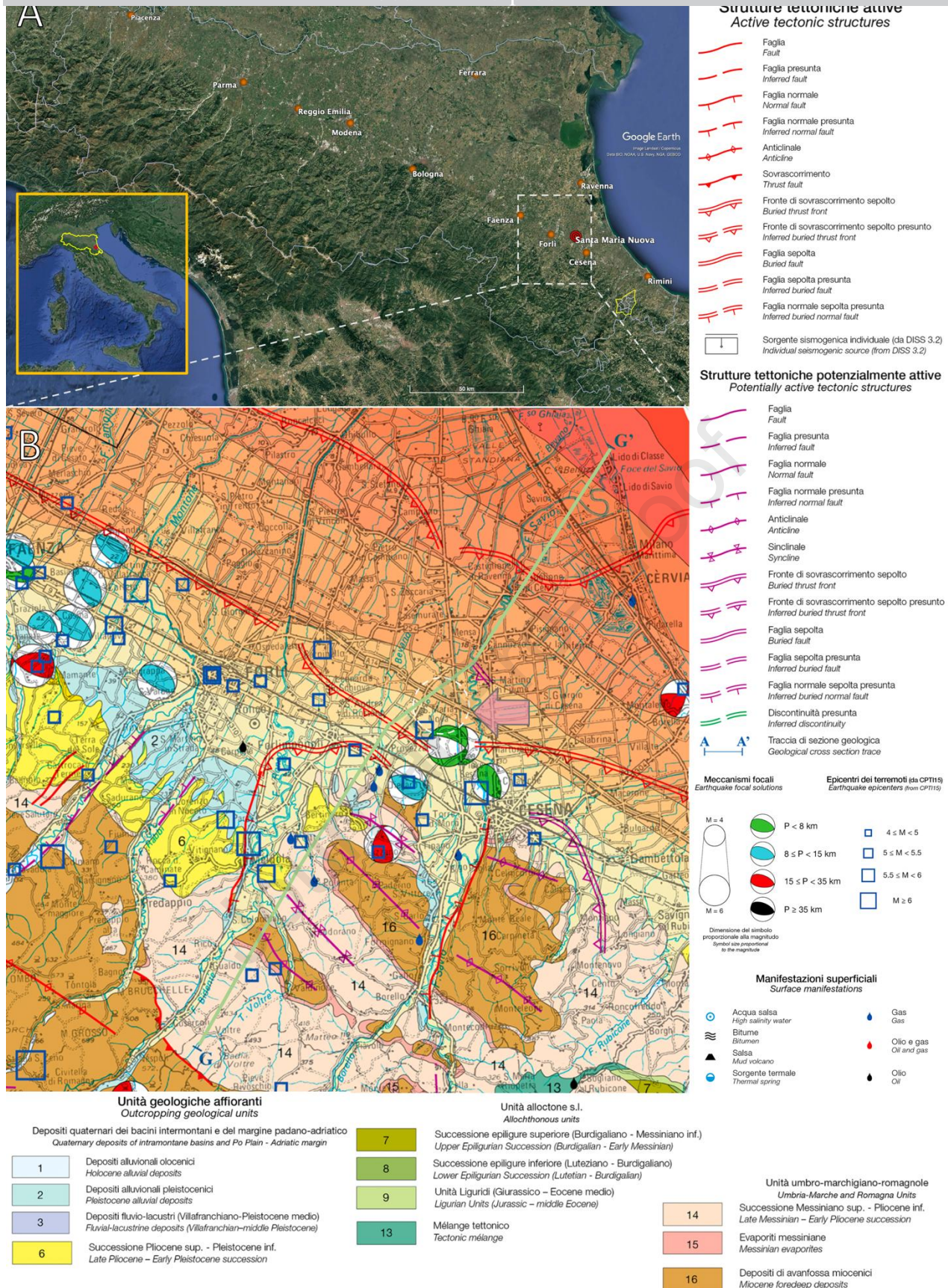
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Figure 1. Regional setting of the study area. (a) Satellite image of the Emilia-Romagna region (Google Earth) and its main cities, illustrating the location of the Santa Maria Nuova site (red circle). The grey dashed box corresponds to the detailed seismotectonic map (b), which displays the primary tectonic structures and geological formations in the vicinity of SMN (indicated by the pink arrow and encircled in white), the locations of earthquakes along with their magnitude and depth, as well as reports of hydrocarbon manifestations, including a trace of geological cross-section G-G' (highlighted in green)

648 that passes over the site (Emilia-Romagna Region; 2016). To view the complete map, please consult  
 649 [https://mappegis.regione.emilia-romagna.it/gstatico/documenti/sismotett\\_2016/Carta\\_Sismotettonica.pdf](https://mappegis.regione.emilia-romagna.it/gstatico/documenti/sismotett_2016/Carta_Sismotettonica.pdf).  
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651 Figure 2. (a) Aerial view of the SMN field and surrounding area. The yellow dashed line outlines the cultivated field where  
 652 gas flux measurements were conducted. The red circle shows the location of the  $\text{CH}_4$  saturated well, and orange triangles  
 653 indicate the sampling points for interstitial gas. (b) A time series of satellite photographs (Google Earth) of the field  
 654 emphasising the persistence of the anomaly in the vegetation.  
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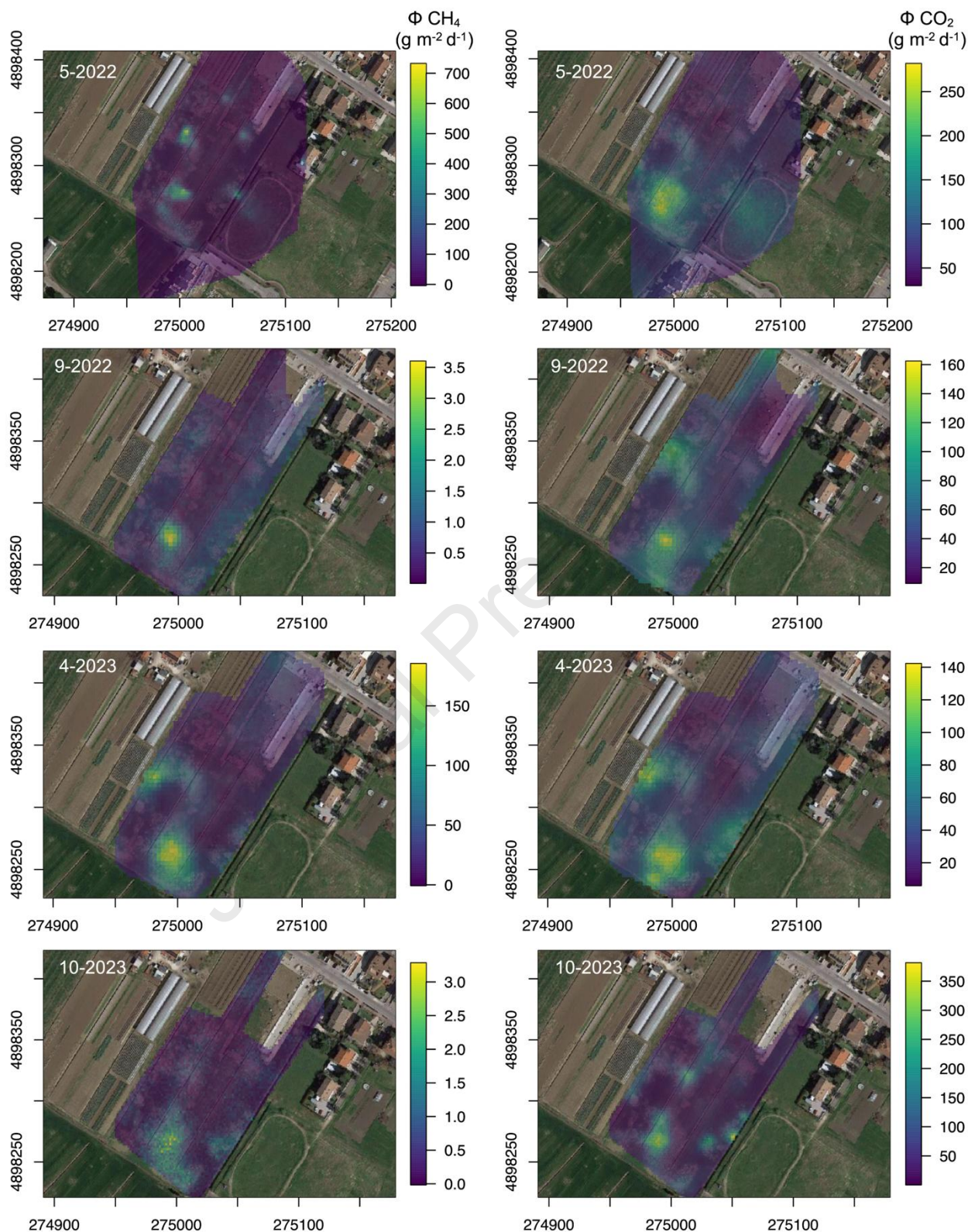
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| $\Phi\text{CH}_4$ ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) |             |      |        |                    |                             |  |
|---|-------------|------|--------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--|
|   | Value Range | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | Output in $\text{t d}^{-1}$ |  |
| May 2022  | 0 – 916.9   | 25.3 | 11.6   | 51.3               | $0.82 \pm 0.1$              |  |
| September 2022  | 0 – 5.8     | 0.5  | 0.4    | 0.4                | $0.008 \pm 0.003$           |  |
| April 2023  | 0 – 224.4   | 28.2 | 18.1   | 31.7               | $0.51 \pm 0.09$             |  |
| October 2023  | 0 – 4.6     | 0.4  | 0.2    | 0.5                | $0.005 \pm 0.002$           |  |

| $\Phi\text{CO}_2$ ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) |              |      |        |                    |                             |  |
|---|--------------|------|--------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--|
|   | Value Range  | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | Output in $\text{t d}^{-1}$ |  |
| May 2022  | 28.2 - 308.5 | 73.8 | 63.8   | 35.8               | $1.8 \pm 0.18$              |  |
| September 2022  | 9.4 - 174.8  | 42.4 | 35.8   | 24.3               | $0.62 \pm 0.05$             |  |
| April 2023  | 5.2 - 157.8  | 37.2 | 31.7   | 24.2               | $0.65 \pm 0.07$             |  |
| October 2023  | 1.9 – 466.1  | 43.9 | 26.3   | 48.3               | $0.66 \pm 0.04$             |  |

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the soil diffuse  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  flux values for the 2022-2023 surveys (in  $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) and total output in  $\text{t d}^{-1}$ .



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Figure 3. Flux distribution of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  at the SMN Site during the 2022-2023 observation period. Both flux measurements were processed using a Sequential Gaussian Simulation and are expressed in  $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ .

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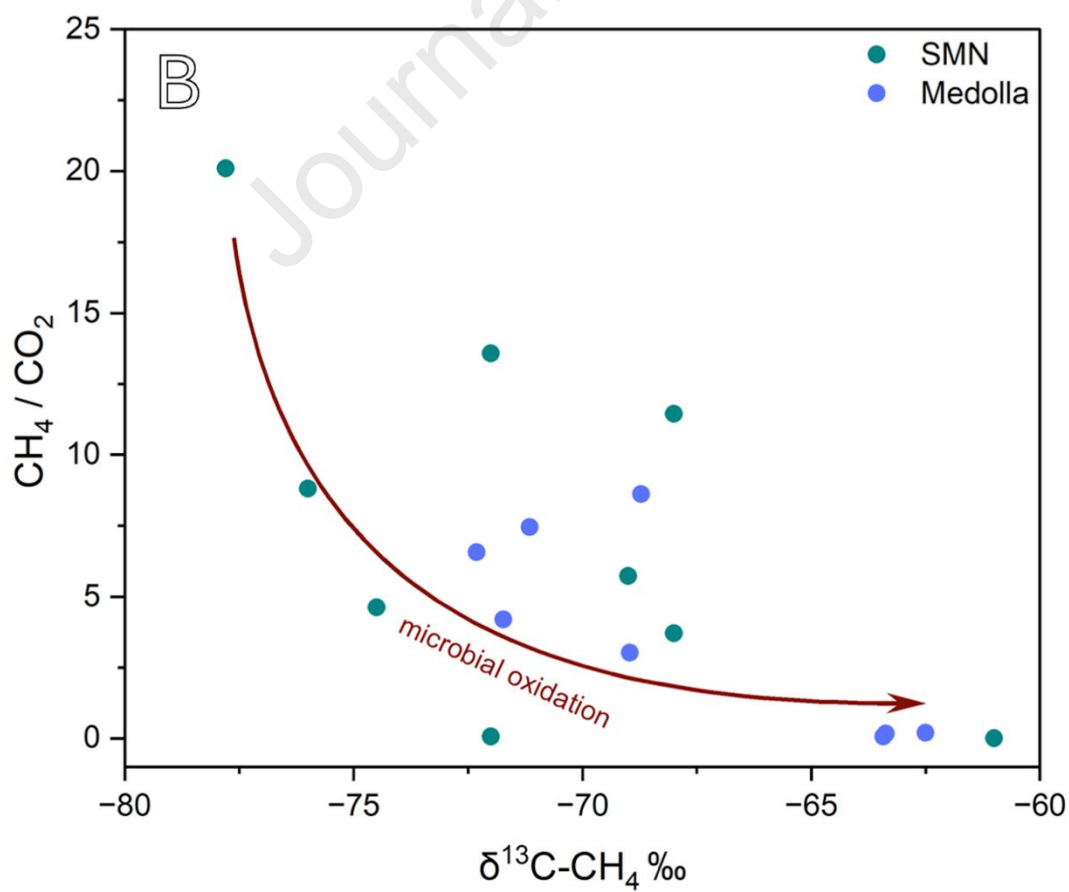
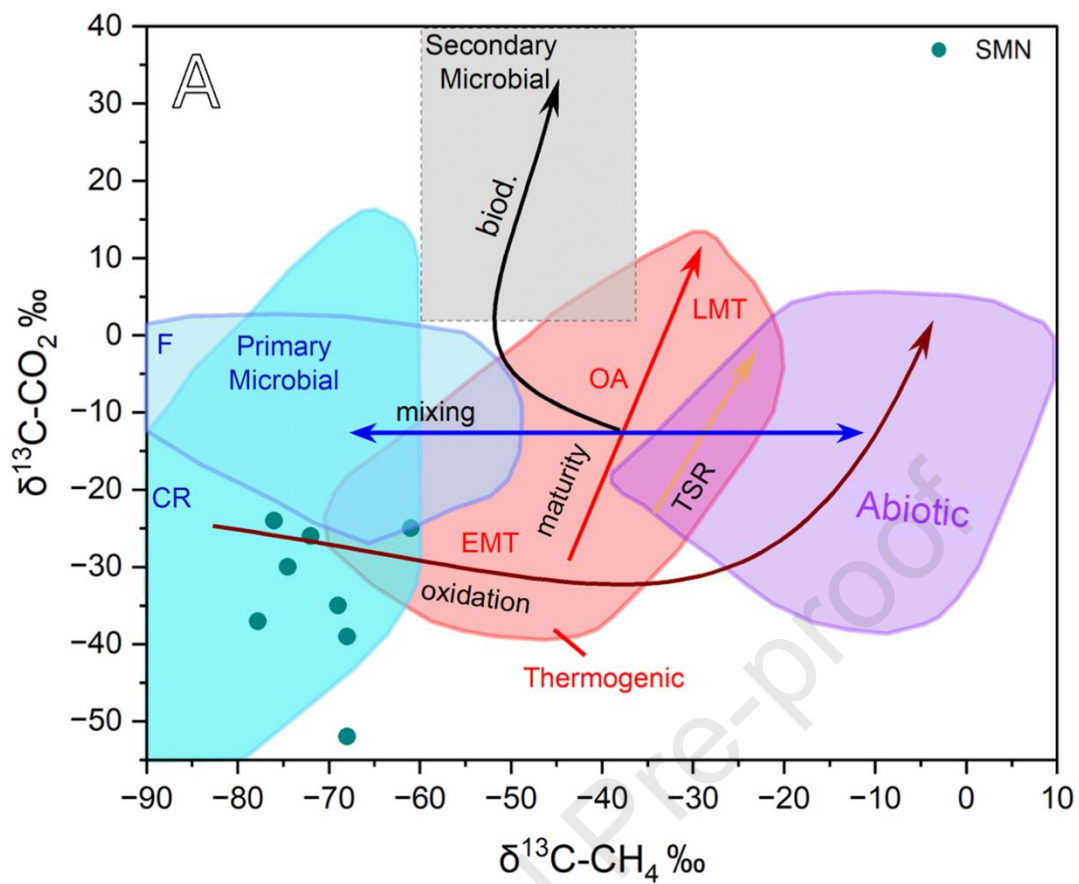
| ID   | Date       | O <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | N <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | CH <sub>4</sub><br>vol % | CO <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | CH <sub>4</sub> /CO <sub>2</sub> | $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$<br>‰ V-PDB | $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$<br>‰ V-PDB |
|------|------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 22A  | 2022/09/23 | 19.7                    | 75.5                    | 0.00074                  | 0.09                     | 0.01                             | -61                                   | -25                                   |
| 22B  | 2022/09/23 | 4.7                     | 61.7                    | 29.78                    | 6.43                     | 4.63                             | -74.5                                 | -30                                   |
| 23A  | 2023/04/04 | 19.99                   | 78.71                   | 0.95                     | 0.07                     | 13.57                            | -72                                   | -26                                   |
| 23A* | 2023/04/04 | 19.99                   | 77.65                   | 1.03                     | 0.09                     | 11.44                            | -68                                   | -39                                   |
| 23B  | 2023/04/04 | 17.73                   | 72.57                   | 7.05                     | 1.23                     | 5.73                             | -69                                   | -35                                   |
| 23C  | 2023/04/04 | 17.74                   | 72.14                   | 7.74                     | 0.88                     | 8.80                             | -76                                   | -24                                   |
| 23D  | 2023/04/04 | 8.25                    | 59.29                   | 25.57                    | 6.88                     | 3.72                             | -68                                   | -52                                   |
| 23E  | 2023/04/04 | 6.07                    | 37.61                   | 54.08                    | 2.69                     | 20.10                            | -77.8                                 | -37                                   |
| 23F  | 2023/04/04 | 20.03                   | 78.32                   | 0.01                     | 0.15                     | 0.07                             | -72                                   | -                                     |

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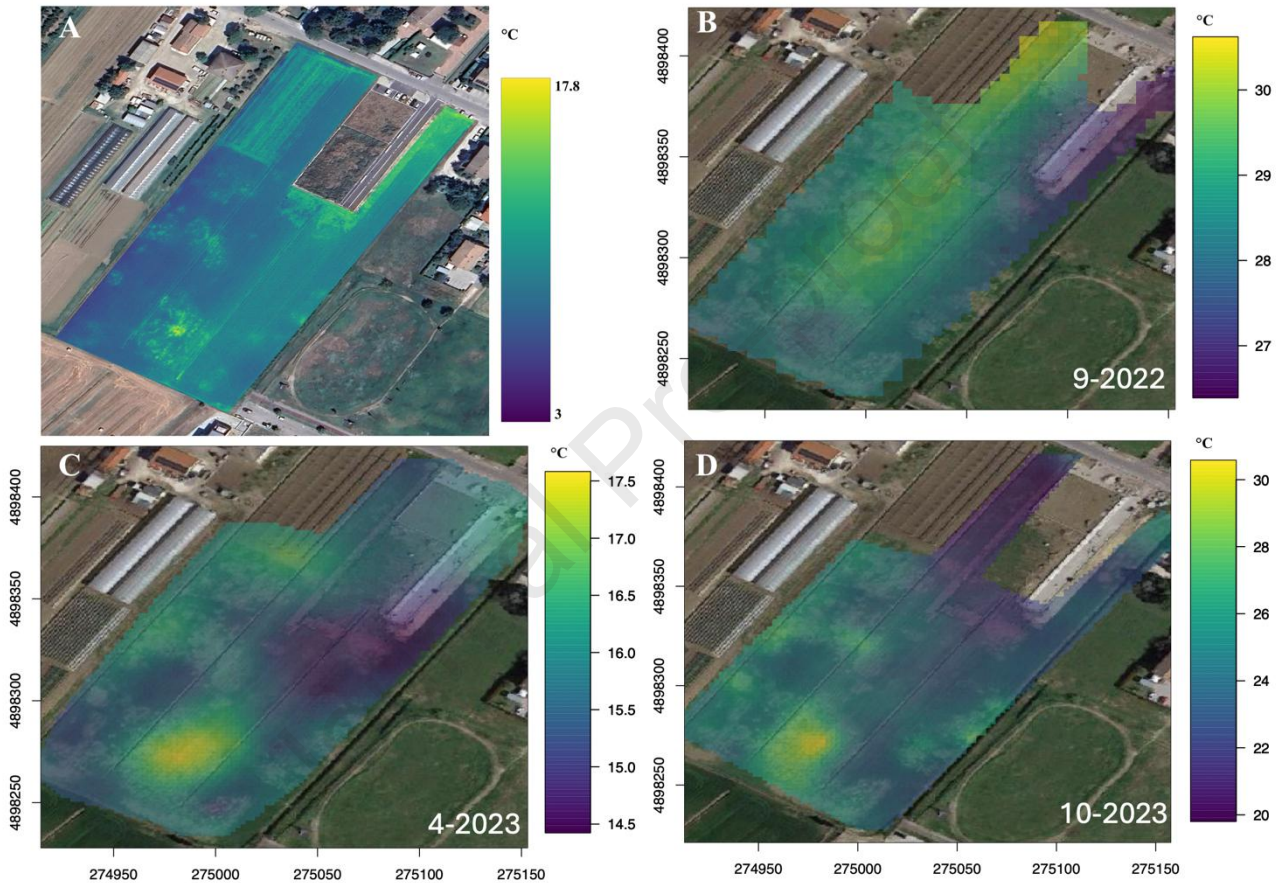
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693 Table 2. Displays the sample ID, date, depth, chemical composition in vol%, and the CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio, along with the isotopic  
694 carbon ratios of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ‰V-PDB for the interstitial gases at the SMN field. The analysis for  
695 sample 23A\* relates to a slightly greater depth of 35 cm.

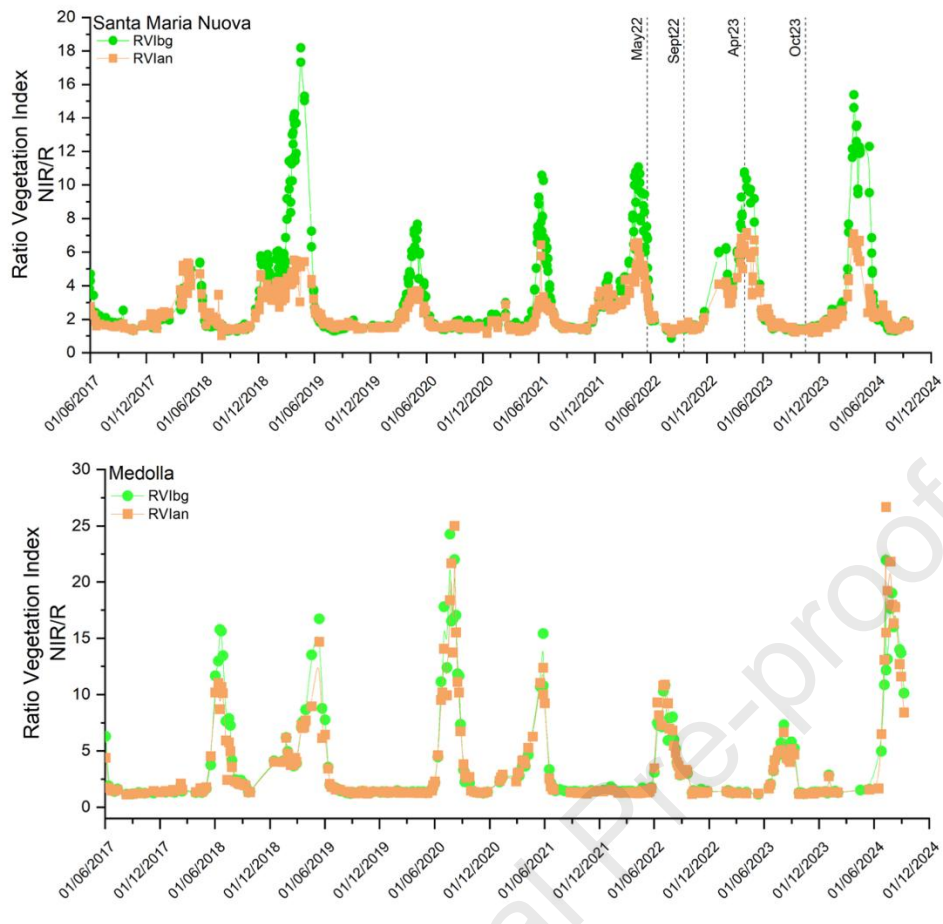
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698 Figure 4. (a) SMN soil gas samples are plotted on a diagram of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CH}_4$  versus  $\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CO}_2$ , which includes genetic fields  
 699 and processes influencing the carbon isotopic composition of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  in natural gases, as proposed by Milkov and  
 700 Etiope (2018). Field acronyms denote  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction (CR), methyl-type fermentation (F), secondary microbial (SM), early  
 701 mature thermogenic gas (EMT), oil-associated thermogenic gas (OA), and late mature thermogenic gas (LMT); while  
 702 process acronyms represent biodegradation (biod.) and thermochemical sulphate reduction (TSR). (b) Binary diagram of  
 703  $\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CH}_4$  versus  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  ratio for the SMN soil gas samples (green) and the Terre Calde di Medolla soil gas samples  
 704 (cyan) taken from Capaccioni et al. (2015).  
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 710 Figure 5. Orthomosaic image captured by the drone with a thermal camera (a) and thermal maps generated using sGs  
 711 interpolation from ground measurements (b, c, and d).  
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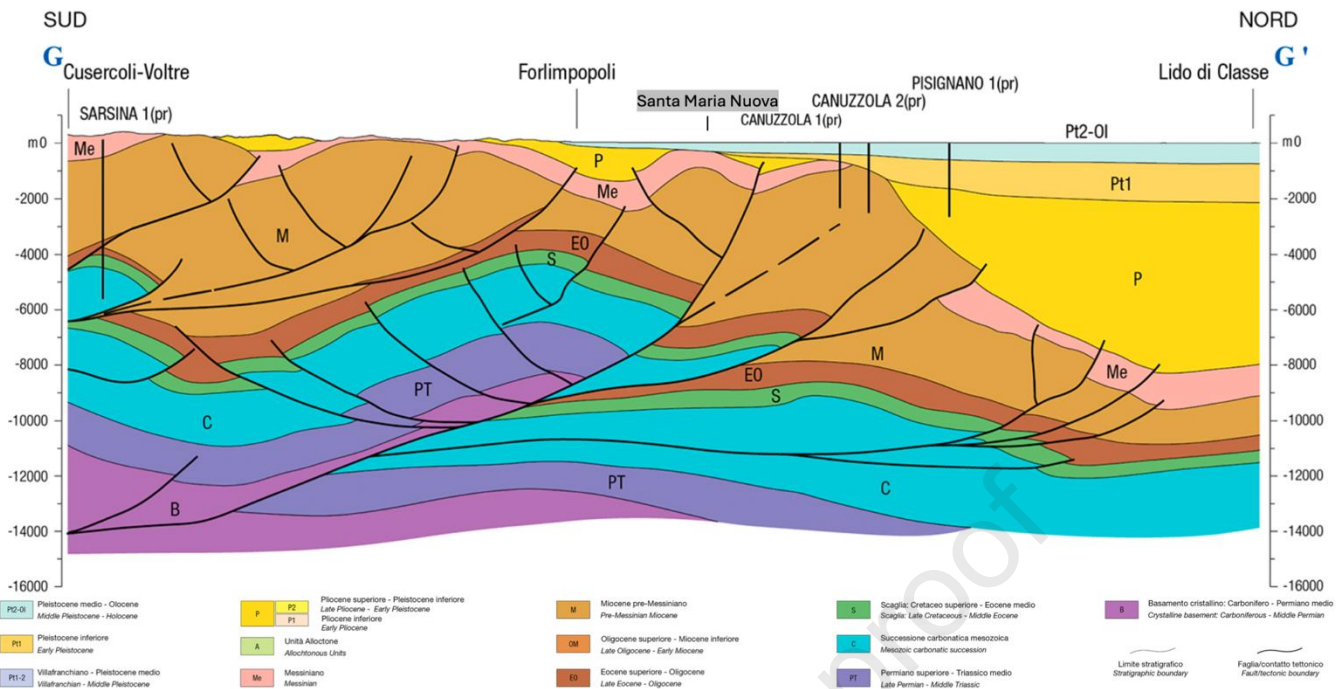
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716 Fig. 6. Time series of the Ratio Vegetation Index (RVI) derived from Sentinel-2 data for the SMN site (upper panel) and  
 717 Terre Calde di Medolla site (lower panel) over the 2017-2024 period. At each site, RVI was calculated both over vegetated  
 718 background areas (RVI<sub>bg</sub>, in green) and over zones affected by CH<sub>4</sub> seepage (RVI<sub>an</sub>, in orange). The satellite images display  
 719 the points from which the indices were derived. Dashed vertical lines in the SMN panel mark the dates of the four gas flux  
 720 surveys conducted in May 2022, September 2022, April 2023, and October 2023.

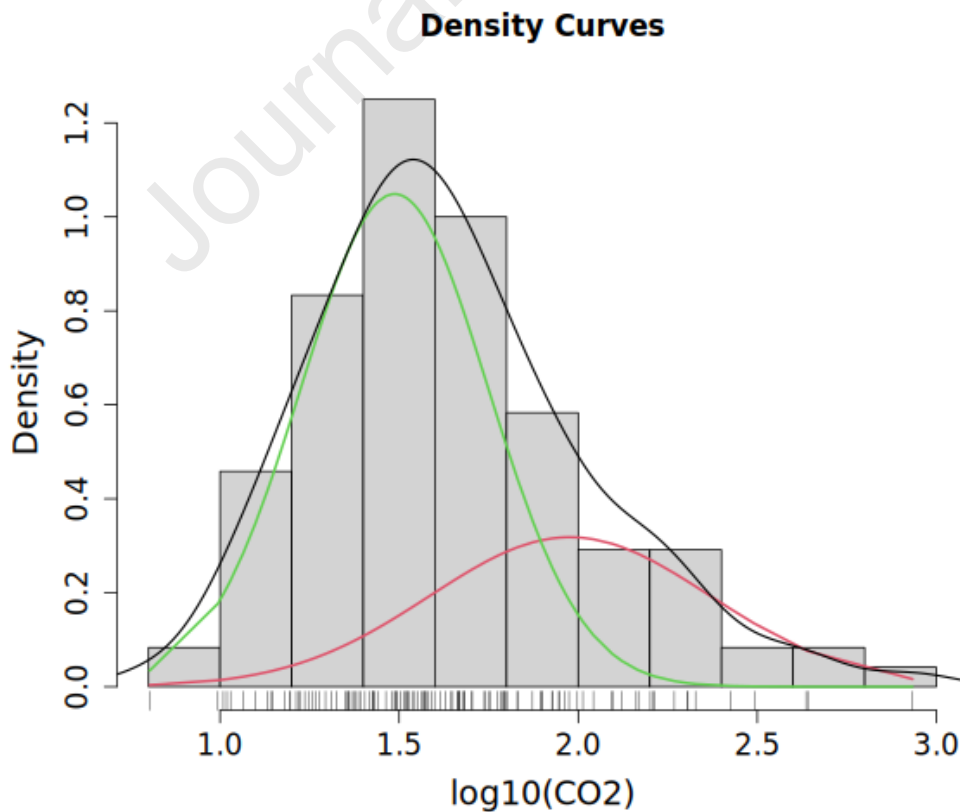
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724 Figure 7. The cross-section G-G', the trace of which is taken from the seismotectonic map in Fig. 1b (Emilia-Romagna  
 725 Region, 2016), illustrates the geological setting of the subsurface of the study area, located between Forlimpopoli and the  
 726 Cannuzzuola I well.



727 Figure 8. The mixing plot for the September 2022 flux campaign was created using the logarithm of CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes. The plot  
728 illustrates the proportion of the two CO<sub>2</sub> mixing factors, along with the mean value ( $\mu$ ) for each population: soil  
729 respiration in red and methane oxidation in green.

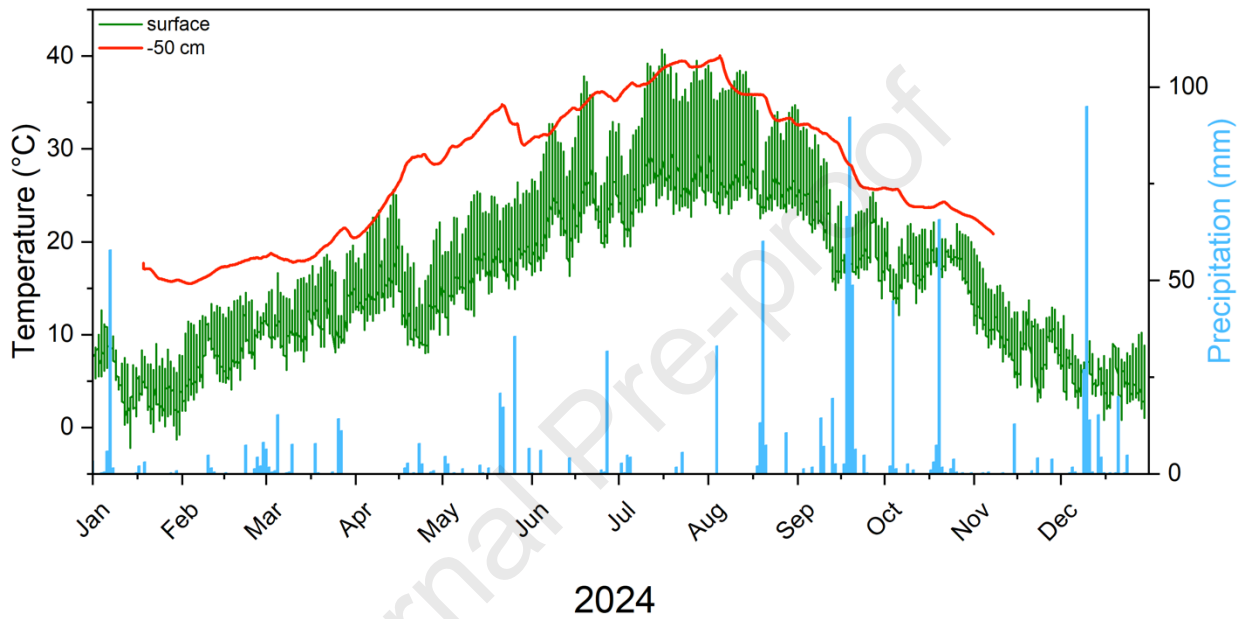
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## 732 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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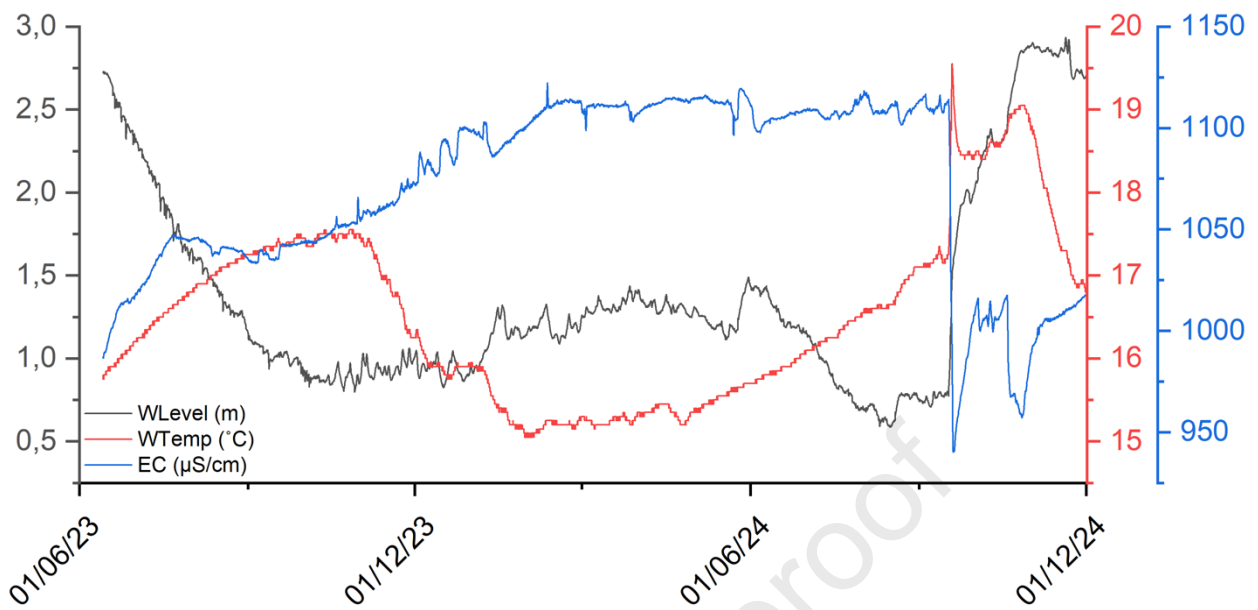
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735 Figure S1. Time series of the SMN anomaly soil temperature (in red) compared with ground temperature (in green, satellite  
736 data from ERA5) and daily precipitation (in light blue, data from Weather Underground  
737 <https://www.wunderground.com/dashboard/pws/IEMILIAR241> ).

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740 Figure S2. Monitoring time series of the SMN water well. The trends in temperature, level, and electrical conductivity  
741 parameters show no anomalies associated with rising fluids. The elevated initial water level of spring 2023 is due to heavy  
742 rainfall in May, which affected the entire region. Temperature exhibits a seasonal trend, while electrical conductivity  
743 displays fluctuations related to the dynamics of the piezometric level in the well.

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| $\Phi\text{CH}_4$ (g m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> ) |              |      |        |                    |                             |
|--|--------------|------|--------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
|  | Value Range  | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | Output in t d <sup>-1</sup> |
| May 2022   | 0 – 916.9    | 25.3 | 11.6   | 51.3               | 0.82 ± 0.1                  |
| September 2022   | 0 – 5.8      | 0.5  | 0.4    | 0.4                | 0.008 ± 0.003               |
| April 2023   | 0 – 224.4    | 28.2 | 18.1   | 31.7               | 0.51 ± 0.09                 |
| October 2023   | 0 – 4.6      | 0.4  | 0.2    | 0.5                | 0.005 ± 0.002               |
| $\Phi\text{CO}_2$ (g m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> ) |              |      |        |                    |                             |
|  | Value Range  | Mean | Median | Standard Deviation | Output in t d <sup>-1</sup> |
| May 2022   | 28.2 - 308.5 | 73.8 | 63.8   | 35.8               | 1.8 ± 0.18                  |
| September 2022   | 9.4 - 174.8  | 42.4 | 35.8   | 24.3               | 0.62 ± 0.05                 |
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| October 2023   | 1.9 – 466.1  | 43.9 | 26.3   | 48.3               | 0.66 ± 0.04                 |

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the soil diffuse CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> flux values for the 2022-2023 surveys (in g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and total output in t d<sup>-1</sup>.

| ID   | Date       | O <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | N <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | CH <sub>4</sub><br>vol % | CO <sub>2</sub><br>vol % | CH <sub>4</sub> /CO <sub>2</sub> | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CH <sub>4</sub><br>‰ V-PDB | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CO <sub>2</sub><br>‰ V-PDB |
|------|------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|---|---|
| 22A  | 2022/09/23 | 19.7                    | 75.5                    | 0.00074                  | 0.09                     | 0.01                             | -61   | -25   |
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| 23C  | 2023/04/04 | 17.74                   | 72.14                   | 7.74                     | 0.88                     | 8.8                              | -76   | -24   |
| 23D  | 2023/04/04 | 8.25                    | 59.29                   | 25.57                    | 6.88                     | 3.72                             | -68   | -52   |
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Table 2. Displays the sample ID, date, depth, chemical composition in vol%, and the CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio, along with the isotopic carbon ratios of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ‰V-PDB for the interstitial gases at the SMN field. The analysis for sample 23A\* relates to a slightly greater depth of 35 cm.

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Journal Pre-proof