

# Journal Pre-proof



Shallow submarine mud volcano in the Northern Tyrrhenian sea, Italy

Anna Saroni, Alessandra Sciarra, Fausto Grassa, Andreas Eich, Miriam Weber, Christian Lott, Giacomo Ferretti, Roberta Ivaldi, Massimo Coltorti

PII: S0883-2927(20)30214-6

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2020.104722>

Reference: AG 104722

To appear in: *Applied Geochemistry*

Received Date: 24 April 2020

Revised Date: 4 July 2020

Accepted Date: 28 July 2020

Please cite this article as: Saroni, A., Sciarra, A., Grassa, F., Eich, A., Weber, M., Lott, C., Ferretti, G., Ivaldi, R., Coltorti, M., Shallow submarine mud volcano in the Northern Tyrrhenian sea, Italy, *Applied Geochemistry*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2020.104722>.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

# Shallow submarine mud volcano in the Northern Tyrrhenian sea, Italy

Anna Saroni<sup>a</sup>, Alessandra Sciarra<sup>a,b</sup>, Fausto Grassa<sup>c</sup>, Andreas Eich<sup>d</sup>, Miriam Weber<sup>d</sup>, Christian Lott<sup>d</sup>, Giacomo Ferretti<sup>a</sup>,  
Roberta Ivaldi<sup>e</sup>, Massimo Coltorti<sup>a,c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Physics and Earth Sciences, University of Ferrara, Via Saragat 1, 44122, Ferrara, Italy

<sup>b</sup> Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Sezione Roma 1, via di Vigna Murata 605, 00143, Rome, Italy

<sup>c</sup> Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Sezione di Palermo, via Ugo La Malfa 153, 90146, Palermo, Italy

<sup>d</sup> HYDRA Marine Sciences GmbH, Burgweg 4, 76547, Sinzheim, Germany

<sup>e</sup> Istituto Idrografico della Marina, Ministero della Difesa, Passo dell'Osservatorio 4, 16134, Genova, Italy

*Keywords: submarine emission, mud volcano, methane, gas geochemistry, Tyrrhenian sea.*

## ABSTRACT

Submarine methane emissions in the Tuscan Archipelago have been studied since the 1960s, both for economic and research purposes. Offshore gas seepage is mainly concentrated southward and westward of Elba island, along N-S faults related to recent extensional activity in the Tuscan shelf and N-S trending positive magnetic anomalies, which have been interpreted as serpentinites associated with ophiolitic rocks due to their very high magnetic susceptibility.

This study focuses on the gas chemistry of a new emission site corresponding to a shallow water mud volcano in the Scoglio d'Affrica area. The Scoglio d'Affrica seep has a gas composition typical of mud volcanoes, with methane as the prevalent component (95 vol%) and minor gases which include carbon dioxide, nitrogen and trace amounts of helium. The combined stable C and H isotope composition of CH<sub>4</sub> ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) and the enrichment in heavy carbon isotopes of CO<sub>2</sub>, highlight a prevalent secondary microbial origin for these fluids ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} \sim -35.8$  ‰ vs VPDB;  $\delta^2\text{H} \sim -166$  ‰ vs VSMOW;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  up to + 21.7 ‰ vs VPDB). Thus, in spite of the occurrence of positive magnetic anomalies, a possible abiogenic origin of methane is excluded. Moreover, the gas from the mud volcano is extremely depleted in <sup>3</sup>He and presents typical <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He ratios of a geological setting in which radiogenic crustal helium is strongly predominant. A photo-mosaic of the mud volcano is also reported. A possible connection with other submarine methane emissions in the Tuscan Archipelago is limited to emissions located few kilometers from the Scoglio d'Affrica area. Recent emissions in the area suggest that gases similar in composition from distinct reservoirs, find their way to the surface from Eocene deposits in different time intervals and through different faults and fractures, placed along the Elba-Pianosa ridge.

## 1. Introduction

Mud volcanoes are formed in sedimentary basins as the surface expression of hydrocarbon migration (Dimitrov, 2002; Etiope, 2015). The combination of gas overpressure (high pore fluid pressure at great depth) and gravitative instability of shales (Niemann and Boetius, 2010; Mazzini and Etiope, 2017) may result in the migration, through faults or fissures, towards the surface of a multi-phase material called mud breccia. Mud breccia is made up of sediments, together with rock clasts coming from the different stratigraphic horizons through which the mud passes on its way to the surface, gas (mainly hydrocarbons), water (from brackish to brine composition), and occasionally oil. The mud discharge, fluidified by gas and water, creates cone shaped structures. Usually, there is not only a single isolated cone, but the mud volcano consists of a group of cones and crater systems (Mazzini and Etiope, 2017).

The prevalent compound of the gas released by mud volcanoes is usually methane, often above 80 vol%. Other minor gases are carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), alkanes (ethane to butane) and trace amounts of helium (He) (Milkov et al., 2003; Mazzini and Etiope, 2017). A global data set of analysed gas from onshore mud volcanoes show that they are mostly of thermogenic origin (about

51 76%), meaning that they are produced by thermal degradation of organic matter or oil cracking  
52 (catagenesis) in relatively deep sediments at temperatures typically up to 230–240 °C ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -  
53  $\text{CH}_4 \sim -46.4\text{‰}$  VPDB - Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite, as average of 201 mud volcanoes; Etiope et al.,  
54 2009a).

55 Mud volcanism is a common phenomenon both onshore and offshore. Although the mechanism  
56 of formation, the tectonic setting, the products, the activity and the contribution to greenhouse  
57 effects of terrestrial mud volcanism have been clearly delineated from the early 1900s on (e.g.  
58 Goubkin and Fedorov, 1938), submerged mud volcanism has been characterized by practical and  
59 visual difficulties around sampling and identification. Hence, it is probable that a significant  
60 number of submarine mud volcanoes are still to be discovered. The literature regarding offshore  
61 mud volcanoes has expanded in the last decades thanks to the diffusion of side scan sonar,  
62 Remotely Operated Vehicles and the advances in sampling equipment. Several studies confirm their  
63 presence in the eastern and western Mediterranean Sea (Cita et al., 1981; Limonov et al., 1994;  
64 Ivanov et al., 1996; Akhmanov and Woodside, 1998; Milkov A. V., 2000; Bellaiche et al., 2001;  
65 Kopf et al., 2001; Zitter et al., 2005; Lykousis et al., 2009; Mascle et al. 2014) as a result of the  
66 convergence of the African and Eurasian plates. In this context, cold seeps and mud volcanism are  
67 predominant within the Mediterranean Ridge, in correspondence with the accretionary prism of the  
68 Hellenic Arc subduction zone, but they are also found along the Cyprus Arc, within the Nile deep-  
69 sea fan, in the Ionian sea and further west in the Gulf of Cadiz (Zitter et al., 2005; Rabaute and  
70 Chamot-Rooke, 2007; Dupré et al., 2008; 2010; Loher et al., 2018). However, in these geological  
71 contexts mud volcanism is found in deep water (more than 400 m water depth).

72 We found the shallowest mud volcano in the Mediterranean Sea near the Scoglio d'Affrica,  
73 which is located at about 7-12 m depth in the Tyrrhenian sea (figure 1). Methane emissions in the  
74 Tuscan Archipelago had already been reported since the 1960s (Del Bono and Giammarino, 1968).  
75 The Italian oil company AGIP (Azienda Generale Italiana Petroli) carried out exploration projects  
76 of the site through two wells, Martina 1 and Mimosa 1, near Pianosa island and Scoglio d'Affrica  
77 area, revealing the presence of hydrocarbon gas in Early Miocene sand levels and in Eocene flysch  
78 formations. However, neither of the two wells were economically feasible to exploit and they were  
79 abandoned (Camera dei Deputati, 1984). More recently, two other shallow water cold seeps were  
80 discovered and studied for research purposes, one off the west coast of Elba island, near Pomonte  
81 (Ruff et al., 2016; Wiedling, 2010; Meister et al., 2018; Sciarra et al., 2019a) and the other one near  
82 Pianosa Island (Meister et al., 2018) (figure 1).

83 In Pianosa, gas emissions occur at 10 to 45 m water depth out of carbonate sand and rocky outcrops  
84 and there is no data about their chemical and isotope composition. On the contrary, Pomonte gas  
85 bubbles are escaping from sediments and sandy patches between seagrass beds. In this area, the  
86 released gas is methane dominant ( $\text{CH}_4 > 85 \text{ vol}\%$ ) with a very low  $\text{CO}_2$  content ( $< 1.5 \text{ vol}\%$ ) and a  
87 helium isotope signature which indicates a non-negligible mantle derived component (Sciarra et al.,  
88 2019a). The main gas chemistry, the stable C and H isotopic compositions of  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{-CH}_4} = -18\text{‰}$ ;  
89  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{-CH}_4} = -141\text{‰}$ ) and the reconstruction of the geological-structural setting of the Elba ophiolite  
90 sequence, suggest that the  $\text{CH}_4$  is likely to be abiotic in origin and that it derives from a process of  
91 serpentinization in a continental ultramafic rock system (Sciarra et al., 2019a).

92 The seepages in Pomonte together with the emissions in the Scoglio d'Affrica are seen to be aligned  
93 as the N-S trending positive magnetic anomaly, found at the eastern margin of the Elba-Pianosa  
94 ridge, whereas Elba island marks a W-E oriented zone of magnetic lineations site. The positive  
95 anomalies could be linked to the ophiolitic suture zone, as Eriksson and Savelli (1989) suggested  
96 and as the Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV) expedition reported (INGV, July  
97 2017).

98 This paper contains the first combined visual seafloor observations, sedimentology and facies  
99 analyses together with the chemical and isotope characterization on the fluids emitted from a mud

100 volcano in the Scoglio d’Affrica area, acquired during a research project in the summer of 2018. We  
101 present a photo mosaic of the mud volcano area, together with visual observations and data of gas,  
102 water, sediment and rock analyses. The synthesis of the gas geochemical data, compared with  
103 previous studies, evidences constraints on spatial and temporal variations of mud volcanism and  
104 sheds light on the gas origin together with possible links with other emission sites.  
105

## 106 **2. Geological setting**

107 The geologic history of the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea is strictly linked to the Northern Apennine  
108 Orogeny, developed since the late Eocene as a consequence of the collision due to the closure of the  
109 Tethys Ocean (Carminati and Doglioni, 2012). After this collision, an extensive tectonic regime  
110 became predominant over time. This stretched inner part of the Apenninic orogenic belt allowed the  
111 opening of the Tyrrhenian Basin and the genesis and the rise of anatectic melts, due to the uplift of  
112 the asthenospheric mantle (Pandeli et al., 2013). Magmatic bodies developed in several islands in  
113 the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea, such as Capraia (between ~7.2 and ~4.8 Ma; Carminati and Doglioni,  
114 2012), western and eastern Elba, Montecristo (~7.1 Ma; Carminati and Doglioni, 2012), and Giglio  
115 (~5 Ma; Carminati and Doglioni, 2012), forming the Tuscan Magmatic Province with the Tuscany  
116 mainland. The overall result of the crustal stretching in the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea produced  
117 uniformly oriented normal fault sets trending north-south and northwest-southeast (Keller and  
118 Coward, 1996 and references therein) that created several small Neogene sedimentary basins  
119 surrounded by structural ridges which characterize the Tuscan shelf (Pascucci et al. 1999). The most  
120 active zone tectonically is the Elba-Pianosa Ridge, which is a rising antiform, with a N-S axis that  
121 divides the Tuscan shelf from the Corsica basin, filled with about 8.5 km of Eocene to present  
122 sedimentary deposits (Mauffret et al. 1999).

123 The sampling area is part of the Elba-Pianosa Ridge. This mainly submarine structural high  
124 emerges to the surface at Pianosa Island and Scoglio d’Affrica and consists of a thick (more than  
125 3,000 m) Eocene-Oligocene silicoclastic succession where the presence of gas localized in Eocene,  
126 Oligocene and Miocene turbiditic deposits was found in the 70s and 80s during the AGIP drilling  
127 projects. Pianosa island consists of Lower Miocene (Burdigalian) to Pleistocene shallow marine to  
128 continental deposits (Marina del Marchese, Golfo della Botte and Pianosa Formations; Cornamusini  
129 et al., 2002 and references therein), whereas Scoglio d’Affrica is composed of shallow marine  
130 organogenic limestones with a prevalent algal component and frequent malacofauna. These  
131 sediments are dated between the Pleistocene and Holocene, contemporary to the Tuscan Nappe  
132 (Motteran and Ventura, 2005). Two lithofacies were specifically identified, both related to high  
133 hydrodynamic environments: packstones-wackestones which correspond to a depositional  
134 environment of seashore, and coral lithofacies (grainstone), situated on top of the former (Motteran  
135 and Ventura, 2005). These sediments are sub-horizontal and lay in a transgressive sequence on the  
136 carbonate rocks of the Tuscan Nappe (Cornamusini et al., 2002). Cornamusini et al. (2002) also  
137 suggest that the islet is bordered by high angle normal faults, which were active during post-  
138 Burdigalian time. Regarding the seafloor around Scoglio d’Affrica, morphological terraces, faults  
139 and methane activity had already been reported by Barletta et al. (1969).

140

## 141 **3. Methods**

### 142 *3.1 Gas sampling and analysis*

143 Gas samples were collected in July 2018 by SCUBA diving by placing open bottles at the top of  
144 the mud cones or the fractured rock, in correspondence to the bubble emissions. The gas was stored  
145 in 100 mL glass bottles after water displacement. A total of 4 sites, from the same area were  
146 sampled.

147 Permanent gases (He, H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>) were measured by means of a gas  
148 chromatograph (GC, Agilent 7890 equipped with PPU and MS5A columns) associated with a  
149 MicroGC module (equipped with a PPU column) and a double detector (TCD and FID) using argon  
150 as carrier gas. Higher hydrocarbons (C<sub>2</sub>-C<sub>5</sub>) were analyzed using a Shimadzu 2010 GC equipped  
151 with FID and a capillary CP Poraplot column (Q 25 m, 0.25 i.d.) using helium as carrier gas. The  
152 column temperature was programmed to start at 25°C for 4 min and then increased by  
153 5°C/min up to 180°C, where it remained for 5 min. Analytical precision for GC analyses is better  
154 than ±5% for trace gases and ±10% for alkanes. Stable carbon and hydrogen isotope compositions  
155 of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> were measured using a Delta Plus XP IRMS coupled with a Thermo TRACE GC  
156 and a Thermo GC/C III interface and equipped with a Poraplot column (Q 25 m, 0.32 i.d.). The  
157 column temperature was isothermal at 50°C. An in-house reference gas ( $\delta C_1 = -49.5 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ,  $\delta D = -$   
158  $200 \pm 2.5\text{‰}$ ; CH<sub>4</sub> grade 6.0 i.e. 99.9999%) calibrated against H-Iso reference (SCOTT 2500 ppm,  
159  $\delta C_1 = -23.9 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ,  $\delta D = -156 \pm 5\text{‰}$ ) and BIO (SCOTT 2500 ppm,  $\delta C_1 = -68.6 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ,  $\delta D = -240 \pm 5\text{‰}$ )  
160 was used for isotopic standards. <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratios are reported as  $\delta^{13}C$  values (1  $\sigma = 0.1\text{‰}$ ) against  
161 VPDB standard and <sup>2</sup>H/<sup>1</sup>H ratios are reported as  $\delta^2H$  values (1  $\sigma = 1\text{‰}$ ) against VSMOW standard.  
162 Helium isotope composition (expressed as R/Ra, which is <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He of the sample versus the same  
163 <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He ratio in atmosphere, Ra =  $1.386 \times 10^{-6}$ ) and <sup>20</sup>Ne content were analyzed by a GVI Helix SFT  
164 mass spectrometer.

165 All the chemical and isotope analyses on gas samples were carried out at INGV-Palermo  
166 laboratories.

167

### 168 *3.2 Sediment, rock and water sampling and analysis*

169 Sediment samples were taken using plastic corers and plastic bags. The cores were driven to a  
170 depth of about 30 cm into the mud cones by hand. The upper part was then closed using a rubber  
171 stopper with a hole for pressure balance. Surrounding sediment was carefully removed to close the  
172 bottom end with a second rubber stopper. The sampled cores were then opened and the sediment  
173 split into three sections corresponding to three different depths and collected into plastic bags and  
174 plastic bottles. Sediment samples were stored at 5 °C until further analysis. Two different methods  
175 of grain size analysis were used: sieving and X-ray sedimentation analysis. The first one was used  
176 for coarse-grained sediment ( $\geq 63 \mu\text{m}$ ), whereas X-ray sedimentation technique was performed for  
177 the fine-grained part of the samples ( $< 63 \mu\text{m}$ ) using Micromeritics SediGraph 5100.

178 Rock samples were taken using hammer and chisel from blocks and clasts at the seabed close to  
179 the emission site. Thin sections were prepared and analyzed by a polarization microscope to define  
180 the rock type.

181 Porewater samples were taken using Rhizon membranes attached to syringes. The membrane  
182 was inserted into the ground to about 4 cm depth. Seawater samples, instead, were taken using  
183 plastic bottles and syringes. Electrical conductivity (EC) values were read using a RS 180-7127  
184 Conductivity Meter after adopting a dilution factor of 100 using Milly-Q water (Millipore USA).  
185 Anions were determined by an ion chromatographer with an isocratic dual pump (Dionex ICS-  
186 1000) equipped with an AS9-HC 4x250 mm high-capacity column and an AERS 500 4-mm  
187 suppressor. An AS-40 Dionex auto-sampler was employed to run the analysis. Sodium carbonate (9  
188 milliMol) was used as eluent with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Standards were prepared from the  
189 stocked solution (Dionex Seven Anion Standard II in deionized water) adopting a serial dilution of  
190 1, 2, 10 and 100 factors. Blank sample was prepared using Milly-Q water. Main cations and trace  
191 elements were measured using a X-Series Thermo-Scientific spectrometer (ICP-MS). Specific  
192 amount of Rh and Re were added to the analyzed solutions as internal standard, in order to correct  
193 the instrumental drift.

194 Sediment, rock and water samples analysis were carried out at the University of Ferrara,  
195 Department of Physics and Earth Sciences.



196

## 197 4. Results

### 198 4.1 Visual seafloor observations

199 The area near the two previous expeditions (HYDRA, 2011; INGV, March 2017) was explored  
200 by research divers from the University of Ferrara and the HYDRA Institute in collaboration with  
201 the Capitaneria di Porto of Portoferraio in July 2018. During the 2018 exploration, emission activity  
202 was very low in the south shoal (2017 site), whereas no signs of emissions were found in the north  
203 shoal (2011 site); however, another emission point was discovered between these two sites. It  
204 corresponds to a shoal about 5 km north-east of Scoglio d'Affrica, which is dominated by blocks  
205 and clasts alternated to muddy sediment located in correspondence to the emissions. All these three  
206 emission sites correspond to three different morphological levels of about 7-10 m depth. Active  
207 mud volcanic areas were identified from *in situ* observations by geological characteristics of fresh  
208 mud eruption or visible fluid and gas emissions (at least 10 emission points were identified, shown  
209 in figure 2). The gas was emitted in big bubbles (10-15 cm) from conical mud mounds or from  
210 bubbles of mm- to cm-size from sandy-muddy sediment or fissures in the blocks as a peripheral  
211 discharge (figure 3).

### 212 4.2 Gas chemistry

213 The general gas chemistry of these submarine emissions is quite similar to those of the terrestrial  
214 mud volcanoes summarized by Etiope et al. (2009a). The results are reported in table 1. The  
215 prevalent gas component is methane ranging from 95.5 to 96.82 vol%. Other gases include carbon  
216 dioxide (from 0.97 to 1.30 vol%), nitrogen (from 0.41 to 0.84 vol%), ethane (0.026–0.036 vol%)  
217 and helium (up to 0.0046 vol%). The  $\text{CH}_4/(\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+\text{C}_3\text{H}_8)$  ratio ranges from ~2670 to ~3700,  
218 highlighting very high values relative to most thermogenic gas. Low  $\text{C}_1/\text{C}_{2+}$  ratios ( $<10^3$ ) are a  
219 definite indication of thermogenic hydrocarbon contributions to the fluids, whereas higher  $\text{C}_1/\text{C}_{2+}$   
220 ratios ( $>10^3$ ) do not rule out the involvement of thermogenic hydrocarbons (Bernard et al., 1978;  
221 Kim et al., 2012). The isotopic composition of  $\text{CH}_4$  between samples varies in a narrow range, from  
222  $-163$  to  $-168\text{‰}$  vs VSMOW for  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{CH}_4}$  and from  $-34.9$  to  $-36.8\text{‰}$  vs VPDB for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$ .  $\text{CO}_2$  is  
223 strongly-enriched in heavy carbon isotopes with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  ranging from  $+15.3$  to  $+21.7\text{‰}$  vs VPDB.  
224 The  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios, normalized to the same ratio in the atmosphere (denoted as  $\text{Ra}=1.39\cdot 10^{-6}$   
225 Mamyrin et al., 1970; Clarke et al., 1976; Sano et al., 2008; Mabry et al., 2013) are identical in all  
226 the collected gas seeps and equal to 0.01 Ra. The  $^4\text{He}/^{20}\text{Ne}$  ratios, spanning from 75 to ~330, are at  
227 least two orders of magnitude higher than that of air ( $^4\text{He}/^{20}\text{Ne}=0.318$ , Sano & Wakita, 1985) thus  
228 indicating a negligible contribution from atmospheric gas. The  $\text{CH}_4/^3\text{He}$  ratios range from  $1.24\cdot 10^{12}$   
229 to  $1.76\cdot 10^{12}$ .

### 230 4.3 Petrography

231 Mudstone samples showed a very fine matrix with vuggy microporosity, microfossils and veins  
232 of calcite. Crystals were not distinguishable in the groundmass. The porosity could be secondary  
233 due to fossil and grain dissolution. Fossils were not easy to identify, because of the alteration and  
234 the poor preservation of the sample. Nevertheless, some single valves were recognizable, possibly  
235 bivalves, and also some globular forms. These last ones showed trochospiral tests and globular  
236 inflated chambers, typical of the *Globigerinidae*, a family of planktonic foraminifera. Their  
237 biostratigraphic distribution ranges from Paleocene to nowadays.

238 Siltite samples showed a very thin (micrometric) groundmass interrupted by several millimetric  
239 veins of calcite and of quartz in minor quantity. Calcite and quartz crystals were allotriomorphic  
240 and anhedral. The texture of the rock consisted of sub-parallel, wavy to crenulated laminations on  
241 micrometric scale. In the matrix it was possible to distinguish some quartz and oxide minerals.

244

245 

#### 4.4 Grain size analysis of the extruded sediment

246 The extruded sediment was characterized by a wide range of grain sizes. According to the guide  
 247 lines for the granulometric analysis of marine sediments deliberated by Sistema Nazionale per la  
 248 Protezione dell'Ambiente (SNPA) in 2018 (Romano et al., 2018), Shepard's diagram (1954) was  
 249 considered for the classification of samples with <20% of gravel, where gravel is incorporated to  
 250 sand percentage (figure 4A). Samples that had more than 20% of gravel, were classified using a  
 251 modified Shepard's diagram, where silt and clay are put together (figure 4B). According to this  
 252 classification, it was possible to identify silty clay, sand-silt-clay and gravelly mud sediments (table  
 253 2).

254

255 

#### 4.5 Porewater and seawater chemistry

256 In the mud volcano area, porewater and seawater samples did not show significant differences  
 257 from the water samples taken outside the area. The pH was around 8.00 and salinity was about 38  
 258 PSU. Porewater samples showed an enrichment in B (6.34 and 11.55 mg/l) compared to samples  
 259 taken outside the mud volcano area (~4.35 mg/l). B is a typical element that derives from fluid-  
 260 rock interaction (Mazzini et al., 2009; Hensen et al., 2015); in the marine environment, its  
 261 enrichment can derive from clay dehydration (Palmer et al., 1987; Barth, 1997). The results are  
 262 shown in table 1S, 2S and 3S in the supplementary material.

263

264 

## 5. Discussion

265 

### 5.1 Gas origin

266 The gas chemistry of the collected samples is typical of mud volcanoes (Etiope et al., 2009b),  
 267 with methane as the prevalent gas component (>95 vol%) and minor gases which include carbon  
 268 dioxide, nitrogen and heavier alkanes and helium, whereas CO is present in trace amounts. In order  
 269 to assess the origin of the hydrocarbon gases, the stable isotopes as well as the molecular  
 270 composition have been successfully used in several geological contexts.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  values from -30‰  
 271 to -50‰ are interpreted as thermogenic gases, given that as source rocks become more thermally  
 272 mature, they expel  $\text{C}_1$  relatively enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$ . Thermogenic gases are also characterized by  
 273  $\text{C}_1/(\text{C}_2+\text{C}_3)$  ratios (the so-called Bernard parameter) lower than 50. On the contrary, very early  
 274 mature thermogenic gases have  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  from -55‰ to -73‰ (Milkov and Etiope, 2018), thus  
 275 significantly overlapping with the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  values of the primary microbial gases ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4} < -50‰$ ).  
 276 Microbially produced hydrocarbons can be distinguished from very early mature thermogenic gas  
 277 because of their Bernard ratios from  $10^3$  to  $10^5$ .

278 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  values of the analyzed gas have an average of  $\sim -35.8‰$ , which is in the range of  $^{13}\text{C}$   
 279 values for thermogenic gas, whereas the Bernard parameter (between 2676 and 3687) is typical for  
 280 microbial-produced gas. The  $\text{CH}_4$  isotope data and the Bernard ratio are also potentially consistent  
 281 with the oxidation of microbial methane; however, oxidation usually implies extreme enrichment of  
 282 carbon and hydrogen in heavy isotopes (reaching values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  as high as +45‰ and  
 283 +301‰; Milkov and Etiope, 2018). Moreover, bacterial consumption of  $\text{CH}_4$  appears to proceed at  
 284 a significantly greater rate than for hydrocarbon gases with higher molecular weight, such as ethane  
 285 and propane; the result is a decrease of the  $\text{C}_1/(\text{C}_2 + \text{C}_3)$  ratio from values of  $10^3$  and  $10^5$ , with the  
 286 possibility of reaching values of less than 10 (Whiticar, 1999; Milkov and Etiope, 2018). The  
 287  $\text{C}_1/(\text{C}_2 + \text{C}_3)$  ratio higher than 2600 could be explained as follows: i) a molecular fractioning  
 288 occurring during migration of a thermogenic gas that may increase the  $\text{C}_1/(\text{C}_2+\text{C}_3)$  ratio while the  
 289 isotopic composition of  $\text{C}_1$  remains unaltered (Etiope et al., 2009b), or ii) as the result of microbial

290 degradation during the biodegradation of liquid hydrocarbons to methane (James and Burns, 1984;  
291 Jay Katz, 2011).

292 In the most common genetic diagrams, such as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  vs  $\text{C}_1/(\text{C}_2+\text{C}_3)$  (Bernard et al., 1977: figure  
293 5A) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$  vs  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{CH}_4}$  (Schoell, 1983; Whiticar et al., 1986; figure 5C and figure 6), which have  
294 been recently revised by using a larger global dataset (Milkov and Etiope, 2018), the collected gases  
295 fall in the field between late mature thermogenic gas (LMT) and secondary microbial gas (SM),  
296 suggesting a possible mixture of the two components. However, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  values highlight that  
297 microbial processes are strongly predominant (figure 5B). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  values span from +15.3 to  
298 +21.7‰ vs V-PDB. They fall far from the typical values found either in mantle-derived fluids  
299 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  in MORB – Mid Ocean Ridge Basalts – from –8 to –4‰ vs VPDB; Des Marais & Moore,  
300 1984; Marty et al., 1989; Sano and Williams, 1996) and in crustal gas originated from thermo-  
301 metamorphic reactions ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  from –2 to +2‰ vs VPDB; Sano and Marty, 1995). Moreover,  
302 such unusual extremely  $^{13}\text{C}$ -rich values are heavier than the carbon isotope signature of  $\text{CO}_2$   
303 associated to late mature thermogenic gas (LMT; figure 5B; Shuai et al., 2013).  $\text{CO}_2$  enriched in  
304 heavy carbon isotopes is very often associated to secondary microbial methanogenesis following  
305 hydrocarbon biodegradation. The residual  $\text{CO}_2$  deriving from the biodegradation of methane has  
306  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  generally exceeding +2‰ (Milkov, 2018) which may reach values up to +36‰ (Tassi et al.,  
307 2012).

308 All the gases collected in the Scoglio d’Affrica area fall into the secondary microbial origin region  
309 (figure 5B), far from the nearby Pomonte gases, which clearly show abiotic origins. Secondary  
310 microbial gases (mainly  $\text{CH}_4$ ) are made by microbes during oil biodegradation (they represent the  
311 end result of biodegradation) and are usually mixed with oil-associated biodegraded thermogenic  
312 gas. A huge increase in  $^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  such as in the Scoglio d’Affrica samples is almost never  
313 observed in gases of other origins (Milkov and Etiope, 2018). Therefore, the molecular and isotope  
314 composition of hydrocarbons seems to indicate that i) the secondary processes (biodegradation),  
315 which may have altered the pristine molecular gas composition, are the main methanogenic  
316 processes in the Scoglio D’Affrica seeps and ii) the thermal degradation of organic matter is  
317 considered as a minor process.

318 The composition of the gas sampled in 2018 is well comparable to the gas sampled by the  
319 HYDRA Institute in 2011 (figure 5) and reported in Meister et al. (2018) from a site located about 1  
320 km to the north from the Scoglio d’Affrica sampling area. The gases released from these two areas  
321 are likely to be fed by two separate reservoirs having a homogeneous chemical and isotope  
322 composition rather than by the same gas reservoir.

323 The helium isotopes are powerful natural tracers which allow us to distinguish the origins of the  
324 three main reservoirs on Earth (mantle, crust and atmosphere; Ozima and Podosek, 2002).  $^3\text{He}$  is  
325 mainly primordial in origin, originating from mantle degassing or from Air-Saturated Water (ASW)  
326 trapped in the pores and minerals. By contrast,  $^4\text{He}$  is essentially produced by the decay of U and Th  
327 in the continental crust. This results in  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios close to  $8\pm 1$  Ra (Kurz et al., 1982) in the  
328 upper mantle (MORB-type) whereas the continental crust is characterized by  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios in the  
329 range between 0.01 and 0.05 Ra (Morrison and Pine, 1955).

330 The samples collected at Scoglio d’Affrica are extremely depleted in  $^3\text{He}$ , with  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios  
331 values of 0.01 Ra. These values are usually found in gas emitted from a geological setting in which  
332 radiogenic crustal helium is strongly predominant, as several studies of noble gases from other mud  
333 volcanoes and hydrocarbon-related fluids confirm (e.g.  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios values ranging from 0.03 to  
334 0.05 Ra in Ballentine and O’Nions (1994); from 0.01 Ra in Lavrushin et al. (1996); from 0.02 Ra in  
335 Kopft et al. (2003); from 0.02 to 0.17 Ra in Battani et al. (2010); from 0.03 to 0.05 Ra in Zheng et  
336 al. (2017); from 0.01 to 0.1 Ra in Nuzzo et al. (2019); from 0.02 to 0.03 Ra in Sciarra et al.  
337 (2019b)). On the contrary, a mantle contribution corresponds to higher  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios values (e.g.



338 values up to 1.4 Ra in Lavrushin et al. (1996) and in Kopft et al. (2003); from 0.4 to 1.9 Ra in Yang  
339 et al. (2003); up to 1.60 Ra in Lavrushin et al. (2009)). Therefore, these values suggest that the  
340 tectonic discontinuities which drive mud volcanism in the Scoglio d'Affrica area are not deeply  
341 rooted but rather limited to shallow crustal levels (Caracausi et al., 2005; Caracausi and Paternoster,  
342 2015). Moreover, it seems that a possible  $^3\text{He}$  contribution directly released from mantle or from  
343 remnant magmatic sources (e.g. a magmatic intrusion) can be excluded, whereas it occurs in the  
344 case of the nearby Pomonte seeps. In this latter area, Sciarra et al. (2019a) estimated a mantle-  
345 derived helium component from 10 to 30% likely due to the degassing of the Monte Capanne pluton  
346 on the western sector of Elba Island (figure 7A).

347 The  $\text{CH}_4/{}^3\text{He}$  ratio is another effective parameter to discriminate the abiotic component of the gas;  
348 values from  $10^{12}$  to  $10^{13}$  are consistent with biogenic and crustal contributions (Wakita et al., 1990;  
349 Sakata et al., 1997), whereas abiotic methane in hydrothermal systems can reach values of  $10^6$   
350 (Sano et al., 2017). The average molecular ratio of  $\text{CH}_4$  to  ${}^3\text{He}$  in the Scoglio d'Affrica samples is  
351  $\sim 1.55 \cdot 10^{12}$ , which definitely excludes an abiotic origin of the gas. On the other hand, the Pomonte  
352 gases show a  $\text{CH}_4/{}^3\text{He}$  ratio of  $\sim 1.92 \cdot 10^9$ , confirming the presence of an abiotic component (figure  
353 7B).

354

### 355 *5.2 Relations between local geology and gas emissions*

356 Regarding the lithology, the siltites and the marly mudstones found in the sampling area are  
357 different from the shallow marine organogenic limestones of Scoglio d'Affrica islet; therefore, the  
358 possibility that the fragments of rock found in the mud volcano area could derive from erosional  
359 processes of the islet was discarded. In relation to the siliciclastic succession of Eocene-Oligocene  
360 strata found in Martina 1 and Mimosa 1 wells by AGIP, four depositional units are identified in  
361 literature (figure 8), all separated by unconformities recognized by truncation in seismic  
362 stratigraphic analysis (Cornamusini et al., 2002; Cornamusini and Pascucci, 2014). According to  
363 Cornamusini and Pascucci (2014), who reported a detailed description of the depositional units, the  
364 more superficial lithology consists of Pleistocene deposits, mainly hybrid siliciclastic sandy-clay of  
365 shallow marine environment, which differs from the fragments found around the mud volcano. The  
366 other units, instead, contain mudstones and siltstones at several depths.

367 Moreover, the bathyal up to neritic environments that characterize these units are consistent with  
368 the microfossils found in the mudstones. The recognized microfossils are in fact attributable to the  
369 *Globigerinidae* family, which are planktonic foraminifera that commonly proliferate in pelagic  
370 environments. Biostratigraphic distribution of these microfossils spans from the Paleocene to  
371 nowadays and they can actually thrive at the latitude of the sampling area. Nonetheless, these  
372 foraminifera are commonly abundant only in deep sea sediments, whereas they are very rare or even  
373 absent in neritic sediments and in water shallower than 10 m such as those of the sampling area.  
374 The possibility that they were transported by stream flows from bathyal environments is not  
375 consistent with the high-energy condition of the investigated area and with the fine muddy matrix of  
376 the sample. Therefore, it is more likely that these globigerinids were deposited in more ancient  
377 sediments typical of deeper environments (bathyal) such as those of the Sub2 Unit of Mimosa 1  
378 well. Unfortunately, the conservation state of the fossils prevents further in-depth classification,  
379 thus it was neither possible to date them nor correctly and consistently correlate them with the Unit  
380 of the mentioned wells. Although magnetic and gravimetric data of very high magnetic  
381 susceptibility are found in the Scoglio d'Affrica area, as they are found offshore in western Elba,  
382 the interpretation of this data as ophiolitic bodies (Eriksson and Savelli, 1989; Cassano et al., 2001;  
383 Caratori Tontini et al., 2004) is not supported by the stratigraphic sequences.

384 The geological setting of the mud volcano area suggests a possible correlation between methane  
385 reservoirs discovered by AGIP and the recent emissions. According to the temperatures from the  
386 Martina 1 deep exploration well, located  $\sim 14$  km north of Scoglio d'Affrica, the estimated local

387 geothermal gradient is about 32 °C/km (GeoThopica: figure 1S). Thermal degradation of organic  
388 matter or oil cracking (catagenesis) in relatively deep sediments occurs at temperatures >60 °C,  
389 which in this case, correspond to a depth >1650 m. In line with the stratigraphical reconstruction  
390 reported by Cornamusini and Pascucci (2014) and assuming a secondary microbial origin of the  
391 gas, it is conceivable to infer that Eocene deposits are responsible of the process of methanogenesis.  
392 Moreover, the presence of hypothetical faults reported in literature (Pascucci et al., 1999;  
393 Cornamusini and Pascucci, 2014) could justify the rising of fluids to the surface.

394

## 395 **6. Conclusions**

396 Based on the morphology as well as the sedimentary, petrographic and geochemical  
397 characteristics of the solid materials together with the fluids expelled from the Scoglio d'Affrica  
398 site, these seeps can be classified as a mud volcano. The investigated area revealed three main  
399 active mud volcano sites, which showed seepage in 2011, 2017 and 2018. All these areas are  
400 characterized by the occurrence of conical-round morphologies at a shallow water depth (from 7 to  
401 12 m) well distinguished from the seafloor which in turn is characterized by the presence of blocks  
402 and mud. The gas is emitted as large bubbles (up to 15 cm in diameter) from conical mud mounds  
403 or from centimeter to millimeter size bubbles from sandy-muddy sediment or fissures in the blocks  
404 as a peripheral discharge or during a dormant phase. The extruded sediment is characterized by a  
405 wide range of grain sizes, including mud.

406 All three sites, together with the gas found in the AGIP wells in the 70s, show the same gas  
407 composition, with methane as the prevalent gas component (>95 vol%) and minor gases which  
408 include carbon dioxide, nitrogen and little amounts of helium. Molecular and isotopic compositions  
409 of samples collected in 2011 and in 2018 point to a predominant secondary microbial origin of the  
410 methane ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean around -35.7 ‰ vs. VPDB, positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  values up to + 21.7 ‰ vs. VPDB  
411 and Bernard ratios around 3000).  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios, which were determined for the first time in the  
412 samples collected in 2018, show typical values for a gas crustal emitted from a geological setting in  
413 which the radiogenic helium component is strongly dominant. Moreover, the contribution of deep  
414 magmatic fluids, as well as a  $^3\text{He}$  component derived from the degassing of intruded magmatic  
415 bodies, can be ruled out.

416 The geological and stratigraphic reconstruction of the mud volcano area revealed the presence of  
417 lithologies that are also found in the clasts discovered within the mud breccias, with planktonic  
418 foraminifera that are commonly found in deep sea sediments. Based on the lithostratigraphic  
419 reconstructions and the local geothermal gradient, the source rocks can be identified in the Eocene  
420 deposits at a depth greater than 1700 m. On the contrary, the reconstruction of the geology does not  
421 identify the ophiolitic bodies that are considered responsible for the offshore magnetic anomalies in  
422 western Elba.

423 Finally, considering the depth of the gas source, the geological setting and the main chemical and  
424 isotope composition of the gas, which is similar to the samples collected in 2011, the Scoglio  
425 d'Affrica emissions are not comparable to those of the Pomonte seeps. Methane from Scoglio  
426 d'Affrica has a clear secondary microbial origin and helium is entirely produced within the crust  
427 from a radiogenic decay, whereas the Pomonte gas is characterized by shallow cold seeps of abiogenic  
428 methane with a non-negligible mantle-derived  $^3\text{He}$ -rich component (Sciarra et al., 2019a).

429

## 430 **Acknowledgments**

431 Authors are indebted to Capitaneria di Porto of Portoferrario, in particular Alessandro Guerra,  
432 Gilberto Cesaretti, Ruggiero Agripino and Domenico Castro for their support during the sampling  
433 campaign. Thanks are also due to two anonymous referees and to the editor for the constructive  
434 criticism and suggestions, which greatly improved the first version of the manuscript.

Journal Pre-proof

## References

- Akhmanov G. G. and Woodside J. M. (1998). Mud volcanic samples in the context of the Mediterranean Ridge mud diapiric belt. In: Robertson A. H. F., Emeis K. C., Richter C. and Camerlenghi A. (eds.). *Proceedings of the ODP, Scientific Results*, 160: College station, TX (Ocean Drilling Program), pp. 597-605.
- Ballentine C. J. and O’Nions R. K. (1994). The use of natural He, Ne and Ar isotopes to study hydrocarbon-related fluid provenance, migration and mass balance in sedimentary basins. Geological Society London Special Publications *Geofluids*, v. 78, p. 347–361.
- Barletta S., Del Bono G.L., Salvati L. (1969). Nota preliminare sui lavori geomorfologici e geominerari subacquei effettuati dal Servizio Geologico d’Italia dal 1964 al 1969. *Boll. Serv. Geol. It. CX*, 83-89.
- Barth S. (1997). Boron isotopic analysis of natural fresh and saline waters by negative thermal ionization mass spectrometry. *Chemical Geology*, 143, 255-261.
- Battani A., Prinzhofer A., Deville E. (2010). Trinidad mud volcanoes: The origin of the gas. In: L. Wood (ed.). *Shale tectonics: AAPG Memoir 93*, pp. 225 – 238.
- Bellaiche G., Loncke L., Gaullier V., Mascle J., Courp T., Moreau A., Radan S., Sardou O. (2001). Le cone sous-marin du Nil et son réseau de chenaux profonds; nouveaux résultats (campagne Fanil). *Comptes Rendus de l’Academie des Sciences, Serie II. Sciences de la Terre et des Planètes 333/7*, 399-404.
- Bernard B., Brooks J. M. Sackett, W. M. (1977). A geochemical model for characterization of hydrocarbon gas sources in marine sediments. *9th Annual OTC Conference*, 2934, 435–438.
- Bernard B.B., Brooks J.M., Sackett W.M. (1978). Light-hydrocarbons in recent Texas continental-shelf and slope sediments. *J. Geophys. Res.-Oceans*, 83, 4053–4061.
- Blumenberg M., Pape T., Seifert R., Bohrmann G. & Schlömer S. (2018). Can hydrocarbons entrapped in seep carbonates serve as gas geochemistry recorder? *Geo-Mar Lett*, 38, 121-129. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00367-017-0522-6>.
- Camera dei Deputati. Resoconto stenografico. IX Legislatura, 185° Seduta, 24 settembre 1984. [http://www.legislature.camera.it \(01/09/2017\)](http://www.legislature.camera.it (01/09/2017)).
- Caracausi A., Favara R., Italiano F., Nuccio, P. M., Paonita, A., & Rizzo, A. (2005). Active geodynamics of the central Mediterranean Sea: Tensional tectonic evidences in western Sicily from mantle-derived helium. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 32, L04312.
- Caracausi, A. and Paternoster, M. (2015). Radiogenic helium degassing and rock fracturing: A case study of the southern Apennines active tectonic region. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 120, 2200–2211.
- Caratori Tontini F., Stefanelli P., Giori I., Faggioni O., Carmisciano C. (2004). The revised aeromagnetic anomaly map of Italy. *Ann. Geophys.*, 47.
- Carminati E. and Doglioni C. (2012). Alps vs. Apennines: The paradigm of a tectonically asymmetric Earth. *Earth-Science Reviews*, 112, 67-96.



- Cassano E., Anelli, L. Cappelli, V. Giori I., La Torre P. (2001). The Island of Elba - northern Tyrrhenian sea aeromagnetic and gravity data. *Ofioliti*, 26, 153–160.
- Chiocci F. L., Casalbore D., Martorelli E., Beaubien S., Bigi S., Pierdomenico M. (2017). Emissioni di fluidi al largo dello scoglio d’Africa (Arcipelago Toscano). Rapporto per il Dipartimento di Protezione Civile.
- Cita M. B., Ryan W. B. F., Paggi L. (1981). Prometheus mud breccia: an example of shale diapirism in the Western Mediterranean Ridge. *Ann. Géol. Pays Hellén.*, 30, 543–570.
- Clarke W. B., Jenkins W. J., Top, Z. (1976). Determination of tritium by mass spectrometric measurement of  $^3\text{He}$ . *International Journal of Applied Radiation and Isotopes*, 27 (9), 515–522.
- Cornamusini G., Lazzarotto A., Merlini S., Pascucci V. (2002). Eocene-Miocene evolution of the north Tyrrhenian Sea. *Boll. Soc. Geol. It., Volume Speciale n. 1*, 769-787.
- Cornamusini G., Pascucci V. (2014). Sedimentation in the Northern Apennines–Corsica tectonic knot (Northern Tyrrhenian Sea, Central Mediterranean): offshore drilling data from the Elba–Pianosa Ridge. *International Journal of Earth Sciences*, 103, 821-842.
- Del Bono G.L. and Giammarino S. (1968). Rinvenimento di manifestazioni metanifere nelle Praterie a Posidonie sui fondi marini prospicienti lo «Scoglio d’Africa» nell’Arcipelago Toscano. *Atti Ist. Geol. Univ. Genova*, VI (1), 11.
- Des Marais D.J., Moore J.G. (1984). Carbon and its isotopes in mid-oceanic basaltic glasses. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.*, 69, 43-57.
- Dimitrov L. I. (2002). Mud volcanoes—the most important pathway for degassing deeply buried sediments. *Earth. Sci. Rev.* 59, 49–76.
- Dupré S., Buffet G., Mascle J., Foucher J.-P., Gauger S., Boetius A., Marfia C., The AsterX AUV Team (2008). High-resolution mapping of large gas emitting mud volcanoes on the Egyptian continental margin (Nile Deep Sea Fan) by AUV surveys. *Mar. Geophys. Res.*, 29, 275–290.
- Dupré S., Woodside J., Klaucke I., Mascle J., Foucher J.-P. (2010). Widespread active seepage activity on the Nile Deep Sea Fan (offshore Egypt) revealed by high-definition geophysical imagery. *Mar. Geol.*, 275 (1/4), 1–19.
- Eriksson L. and Savelli C. (1989). Magnetic anomalies and magmatic events in and around the island of Elba (Northern Tyrrhenian Sea). *Marine Geology*, 87, 85-93.
- Etiop G. (2017). Abiotic methane in continental serpentinization sites: an overview. *Procedia Earth Planet. Sci.* 17, 9–12.
- Etiop G. (2015). Natural Gas Seepage – The Earth’s Hydrocarbon Degassing. Springer, pp. 199.
- Etiop G., Feyzullayev A., Baciuc C. L. (2009a). Terrestrial methane seeps and mud volcanoes: a global perspective of gas origin. *Mar. Pet. Geol.*, 26, 333–344.
- Etiop G., Feyzullayev, A., Milkov, A.V., Waseda, A., Mizobe, K., Sun, C.H. (2009b). Evidence of subsurface anaerobic biodegradation of hydrocarbons and potential secondary methanogenesis in terrestrial mud volcanoes. *Mar. Pet. Geol.*, 26, 1692–1703.
- Etiop G. and Schoell M. (2014). Abiotic gas: atypical but not rare. *Elements*, 10, 291–296.

- Etioppe G., Samardžić N., Grassa F., Hrvatović H., Miošić N., Skopljak F. (2017). Methane and hydrogen in hyperalkaline groundwaters of the serpentinized Dinaride ophiolite belt, Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Appl. Geochem.* 84, 286–296.
- GeoThopica. Banca Nazionale dei Dati Geotermici a cura del CNR – Istituto di Geoscienze e Georisorse ed in collaborazione con ENI S.p.A. [http://palici.igg.cnr.it/wm\\_geothopica/map.phtml?winsize=large&language=it&config=](http://palici.igg.cnr.it/wm_geothopica/map.phtml?winsize=large&language=it&config=) (accessed 28 March 2020).
- Goubkin I.M., Fedorov S.F. (1938). Mud Volcanoes of the Soviet Union and Their Connection with the Genesis of Petroleum Fields in Crimean-Caucasus Geologic Province. USSR Academy of Science, Moscow (in Russian).
- Hensen C., Scholz F., Nuzzo M., Valadares V., Gràcia E., Terrinha P., Liebetrau V., Kaul N., Silva S., Martínez-Loriente S., Bartolome R., Piñero E., Magalhães V. H., Schmidt M., Weise S. M., Cunha M., Hilario A., Perea H., Rovelli L., Lackschewitz K. (2015). Strike-slip faults mediate the rise of crustal-derived fluids and mud volcanism in the deep sea. *Geology*, 43 (4), 339–342.
- HYDRA Institut für Meereswissenschaften (2011). Extract of expedition logbook Scoglio d’Africa/Formiche di Montecristo (unpublished).
- INGV (March 2017). Relazione di sintesi sulle indagini svolte a seguito delle violente emissioni gassose nel tratto di mare tra le isole di Montecristo e Pianosa.
- INGV (July 2017). Attività di prospezione geofisica e oceanografica su Nave Aretusa (IIM- Marina Militare) nel tratto di Mare tra le isole di Montecristo e Pianosa (Scoglio d’Africa). Rapporto tecnico.
- Ivanov M. K., Limonov A. F., van Weering Tj. C. E. (1996). Comparative characteristics of the Black Sea and Mediterranean Ridge mud volcanoes. *Marine Geology*, 132, 253-271.
- James A.T., Burns B.J. (1984). Microbial alteration of subsurface natural gas accumulations. *American Association of Petroleum Geologists Bulletin*, 68, 957–960.
- Jay Katz B. (2011). Microbial Processes and Natural Gas Accumulations. *The Open Geology Journal*, 5, 75-83.
- Keller J. V. A. and Coward M. P. (1996). The structure and evolution of the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea. *Geological Magazine*, 133 (1), 1-16.
- Kim J.-H., Torres M.E., Choi J.Y., Bahk J.J., Park M.H., Hong W.L. (2012). Inferences on gas transport based on molecular and isotopic signatures of gases at acoustic chimneys and background sites in the Ulleung Basin. *Org. Geochem.*, 43, 26–38.
- Kopf A. and Behrmann J. N. (2001). Extrusion dynamics of mud volcanoes on the Mediterranean Ridge accretionary complex. In: Vendelille B. C., Mart Y. and Vigneresse J. L. (eds.). *Salt, shales and igneous diapirs in and around Europe* (Vol. 174) (pp. 169-204). London: Geological Society of London, Special Publications.
- Kopf A., Deyhle A., Lavrushin V.Y., Polyak B.G., Buachidze G.I., Eisenhauer A. (2003). Isotopic evidence for deep gas and fluid migration from mud volcanoes in a zone of incipient continental collision (Caucasus, Russia). *Int. J. Earth Sci.*, 92, 407-426.

- Kurz M. D., Jenkins W. J., Schilling J. G., Hart S. R. (1982). Helium isotopic variations in the mantle beneath the central North Atlantic Ocean. *Earth Planet Sci. Lett.*, 58, 1–14.
- Lavrushin V.U., Polyak B.G., Prasolov R.M., Kamenskii I.L. (1996). Sources of material in mud volcano products based on isotopic, hydrochemical, and geological data. *Lithol. Miner. Resour.*, 31 (6), 557-578.
- Lavrushin V. Yu., Polyak B. G., Pokrovskii B. G., Kopp M. L., Buachidze G. I., Kamenskii I. L. (2009). Isotopic–Geochemical Peculiarities of Gases in Mud Volcanoes of Eastern Georgia. *Lithology and Mineral Resources*, 44 (2), 183–197.
- Limonov A. F., Woodside J., Ivanov M. K. (1994). Mud volcanism in the Mediterranean and Black Sea and shallow structure of the Eratostene seamount. *UNESCO Rep. Mar. Sci.*, 64, 173.
- Loher M., Pape T., Marcon Y., Römer M., Wintersteller P., Praeg D., Torres M., Sahling H., Bohrmann G. (2018). Mud extrusion and ring-fault gas seepage – upward branching fluid discharge at a deep-sea mud volcano. *Scientific Reports*, 8 (6275).
- López-Rodríguez C., De Lange G. J., Comas M., Martínez-Ruiz F., Nieto F, Sapart C. J., Mogollón J. M. (2019). Recent, deep-sourced methane/mud discharge at the most active mud volcano in the western Mediterranean. *Marine Geology*, 408, 1–17.
- Lykousis V., Alexandri S., Woodside J., de Lange G., Dählmann A., Perissoratis C., Heeschen K., Ioakim C., Sakellariou D., Nomikou P., Rousakis G., Casas D., Ballas D., Ercilla G. (2009). Mud volcanoes and gas hydrates in the Anaximander mountains (Eastern Mediterranean Sea). *Mar. Petrol. Geol.*, 26, 854–872.
- Mabry J., Lan T., Burnard P., Marty B. (2013). High-precision helium isotope measurements in air. *J. Anal. At. Spectrom.* 28, 1903. doi:10.1039/c3ja50155h
- Mamyrin B. A. and Tolstikhin I. N. (1984). Helium isotopes in nature. New York: Elsevier, pp. 273.
- Marty B., Jambon A., Sano Y. (1989). Helium isotopes and CO<sub>2</sub> in volcanic gases of Japan. *Chem. Geol.*, 76, 25-40.
- Masclé J., Mary F., Praeg D., Brosolo L., Camera L., Ceramicola S., Dupré S. (2014). Distribution and geological control of mud volcanoes and other fluid/free gas seepage features in the Mediterranean Sea and nearby Gulf of Cadiz. *Geo-Marine Letters*, 34 (2-3), 89-110.
- Mauffret A., Contrucci I., Brunet C. (1999). Structural evolution of the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea from new seismic data. *Mar. Petrol. Geol.*, 16, 381–407.
- Mazzini A., Svensen H., Planke S., Guliyev I., Akhmanov G.G., Fallik T., Banks D. (2009). When mud volcanoes sleep: Insight from seep geochemistry at the Dashgil mud volcano, Azerbaijan. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, 26, 1704–1715.
- Mazzini A., Etiope G. (2017). Mud volcanism: an updated review. *Earth-Science Reviews*, 168, 81-112.
- Meister P., Wiedling J., Lott C., Bach W., Kuhfuß H., Wegener G., Böttcher M. E., Deusner C., Lichtschlag A., Bernasconi S. M., Weber M. (2018). Anaerobic methane oxidation inducing carbonate precipitation at abiogenic methane seeps in the Tuscan Archipelago (Italy). *PLoS One*, 13.

- Milkov A.V. (2000). Worldwide distribution of submarine mud volcanoes and associated gas hydrates. *Mar. Geol.*, 167, 29–42.
- Milkov A.V., Sassen R., Apanasovich T. V., Dadashev F. G. (2003). Global gas flux from mud volcanoes: A significant source of fossil methane in the atmosphere and the ocean. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 30 (2), 1037.
- Milkov A.V., 2018. Secondary microbial gas. In: Wilkes, H. (Ed.), *Hydrocarbons, Oils and Lipids: Diversity, Origin, Chemistry and Fate. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology*. Springer, Cham.
- Milkov A. V. and Etiope G. (2018). Revised genetic diagrams for natural gases based on a global dataset of >20,000 samples. *Organic Geochemistry*, 125, 109-120.
- Morrison and Pine (1955). Radiogenic Origin of the Helium Isotopes in Rock. *Annals of the New York Academy of sciences*, 62 (3), 71-92.
- Motteran G. and Ventura G. (2005). Aspetti geologici, morfologici e ambientali dello scoglio d'africa (arcipelago toscano): nota preliminare. *Atti Soc. tosc. Sci. nat., Mem., Serie A*, 110, 51-60.
- Niemann H. and Boetius A. (2010). Mud volcanoes. In Timmis K. M. (eds). *Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology* (pp. 205-214). Berlin Heidelberg: Springer.
- Nuzzo M., Tomonaga Y., Schmidt M., Valadares V., Faber E., Pinero E., Reitz A., Haeckel M., Tyroller L., Godinho E., Kipfer R., Terrinha P. G., Hensen C. (2019). Formation and migration of hydrocarbons in deeply buried sediments of the Gulf of Cadiz convergent plate boundary - Insights from the hydrocarbon and helium isotope geochemistry of mud volcano fluids. *Marine Geology*, 410, 56–69.
- Ozima M. and Podosek F. A. (2002). *Noble Gas Geochemistry* (2nd edition). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, pp. 286.
- Palmer R.M., Spivack A. J. and Edmond J. M. (1987). Temperature and pH controls over isotopic fractionation during adsorption of boron on marine clay. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, 51, 2319–2323.
- Pandeli E., Principi G., Bortolotti V., Benvenuti M., Fazzuoli M., Dini A., Fanucci F., Menna F., Nirta G. (2013). The Elba Island: an intriguing geological puzzle in the Northern Tyrrhenian Sea. *Geological Field Trips*, 5 (2.1).
- Pascucci V., Merlini S., Martini I. P. (1999). Seismic stratigraphy of the Miocene-Pleistocene sedimentary basins of the northern Tyrrhenian Sea and western Tuscany (Italy). *Basin Research*, 11, 337-356.
- Rabaute A. and Chamote-Rooke N. (2007). Quantitative mapping of active mud volcanism at the western Mediterranean Ridge-backstop contact. *Mar. Geophys. Res.*, 28, 271-295.
- Romano E., Ausili A., Bergamin L., Celia Magno M., Pierfranceschi G., Venti F., 2018. Analisi granulometriche dei sedimenti marini. Linee Guida SNPA 18/2018.
- Ruff S.E., Kuhfuss H., Wegener G., Lott C., Ramette A., Wiedling J., Knittel K., Weber M. (2016). Methane seep in shallow-water permeable sediment harbors high diversity of anaerobic methanotrophic communities, Elba, Italy. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7 (374).



- Sakata S., Sano Y., Maekawa T. and Igari S. I. (1997). Hydrogen and carbon isotopic composition of methane as evidence for biogenic origin of natural gases from the Green Tuff basin, Japan. *Org. Geochem.*, 26, 399–407.
- Sano Y. and Wakita H. (1985). Geographical distribution of  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratios in Japan: Implications for arc tectonics and incipient magmatism. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 90, 8729–8741.
- Sano Y. and Marty B. (1995). Origin of carbon in fumarolic gas from island arcs. *Chem. Geol. (Isot. Geosci. Sect.)*, 119, 265–274.
- Sano Y. and Williams S. (1996). Fluxes of mantle and subducted carbon along convergent plate boundaries. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 23 (20), 2749–2752. <https://doi.org/10.1029/96GL02260>
- Sano Y., Tokutake T., Takahata N. (2008). Accurate measurement of atmospheric helium isotopes. *Anal. Sci.*, 24, 521–525.
- Sano Y., Kinoshita N., Kagoshima T. et al. (2017). Origin of methane-rich natural gas at the West Pacific convergent plate boundary. *Sci. Rep.*, 7, 15646.
- Schoell M. (1983). Genetic characterization of natural gases. *Am. Assoc. Pet. Geol. Bull.*, 67, 2225–2238.
- Sciarra A., Saroni A., Etiope G., Coltorti M., Mazzarini F., Lott C., Grassa F., Italiano F. (2019a). Shallow water submarine seep of abiotic methane from serpentinized peridotites off the Island of Elba, Italy. *Appl. Geoch.*, 100, 1–7.
- Sciarra A., Cantucci B., Ricci T., Tomonaga Y., Mazzini A. (2019b). Geochemical characterization of the Nirano mud volcano, Italy. *Appl. Geoch.*, 102, 77–87.
- Shepard F. P. (1954). Nomenclature based on sand-silt-clay ratios. *Journal Sedimentary Petrology*, 24, 151–158.
- Shuai Y., Zhang S., Peng P., Zou Y., Yuan X., Liu J. (2013). Occurrence of heavy carbon dioxide of organic origin: Evidence from confined dry pyrolysis of coal. *Chemical Geology*, 358, 54–60.
- Tassi F., Fiebig J., Vaselli O., Nocentini M. (2012). Origins of methane discharging from volcanic–hydrothermal, geothermal and cold emissions in Italy. *Chemical Geology*, 310–311, 36–48.
- Vacquand C., Deville E., Beaumont V., Guyot F., Sissmann O., Pillot D., Arcilla C., Prinzhofer A. (2018). Reduced gas seepages in ophiolitic complexes: evidences for multiple origins of the  $\text{H}_2\text{-CH}_4\text{-N}_2$  gas mixtures. *Geochem. Cosmochim. Acta* 233, 437–461.
- Yang, T.F., Chen, C.H., Tien, R.L., Song, S.R., Liu, T.K. (2003). Remnant magmatic activity in the coastal range of east Taiwan after arc-continent collision: fissiontrack data and  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  ratio evidence. *Radiat. Meas.*, 36, 343–349.
- Wakita H., Sano Y., Urabe A. and Nakamura Y. (1990). Origin of methane-rich natural gas in Japan: formation of gas fields due to large-scale submarine volcanism. *Appl. Geochem.*, 5, 263–278.
- Whiticar M.J., Faber E. and Schoell M. (1986). Biogenic methane formation in marine and freshwater environments:  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction vs. acetate fermentation — isotope evidence. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, 50, 693–709. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0016-7037\(86\)90346-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0016-7037(86)90346-7).

- Whiticar M.J. (1999). Carbon and hydrogen isotope systematics of bacterial formation and oxidation of methane. *Chemical Geology*, 161, 291-314.
- Wiedling J. (2010). Biogeochemical investigations on a shallow water methane seep in the Mediterranean Sea. Bachelor Thesis, Greifswald University.
- Zheng G., Ma X., Z. Guo, Hilton D. R., Xu W., Liang S., Fan Q., Chen W. (2017). Gas geochemistry and methane emission from Dushanzi mud volcanoes in the southern Junggar Basin, NW China. *Journal of Asian Earth Sciences*, 149, 184–190.
- Zitter T.A.C., Huguen C., Woodside J. M. (2005). Geology of mud volcanoes in the eastern Mediterranean from combined sidescan sonar and submersible surveys. *Deep-Sea Research I*, 52, 457-475.

## Figure captions

**Figure 1** – Bathymetric map of the area between the island of Elba and Montecristo showing the location of Scoglio d’Affrica, Pomonte and Pianosa emission sites. In the inset, locations of the Scoglio d’Affrica emission activities detected in 2011, 2017 and 2018 are shown. In 2011 the HYDRA Institute investigated the mud volcano near Scoglio d’Affrica at 8-10 meters of water depth. The area was about 15 by 5 meters large with three gas emissions and some emissions in between the rocks in crevices around the mud volcano (HYDRA Institute, 2011; Meister et al. 2018). On the 16th March 2017, local fishermen reported a column of muddy water of 10 m height gushing out from the sea surface in an area located south of the site explored in 2011. The Italian Protezione Civile investigated the area and found gas emission spots predominant in shallow water (8-10 m), sometimes inconstant and without temperature anomalies. Some of these seeps were N-S aligned with CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration anomalies (Chiocci et al., 2017).

**Figure 2** – Photo mosaic of the emission area in 2018 at Scoglio d’Affrica mud volcano. At least 10 sites of emission are recognizable. The inset shows the geolocation of the photo mosaic. The shoal to the south-east of the photo mosaic is the site related to the emission activity detected in 2017. For higher resolution image, see figure 2S in the Supplementary Material.

**Figure 3** – Scoglio d’Affrica mud volcano in 2018. A, B: mud mound corresponding to emission point 7 in figure 2. C: bubbles emission corresponding to point 3 in figure 2. D: view of the mud volcano area from point 5 of figure 2.

**Figure 4** – A: granulometric composition of samples S2, S4-5 and S8 in Shepard’s diagram (1954). B: granulometric composition of sample S4 in Shepard’s diagram modified as in Romano et al. (2018).

**Figure 5** – A, B, C: Scoglio d’Affrica mud volcano 2018 gas (SdA MV 2018) compared with 2011 (Meister et al., 2018) and Pomonte gases (Sciarra et al., 2019a), together with other MVs gases from literature, inserted into the revised genetic diagrams from Milkov and Etiope (2018). A: CH<sub>4</sub>/(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>+C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>) ratio versus  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$  diagram comparing gases from Scoglio d’Affrica MV (2018), Pomonte seeps, Venere MV (Loher et al. 2018; Blumenberg M., 2018), Ginsburg MV and Mercator MV (Nuzzo et al., 2019). Venere MV is an offshore mud volcano, located in the Ionian Sea at 1600 m water depth. The molecular and isotopic composition of the methane emitted from this mud volcano reveals a thermogenic origin, as also Loher et al. (2018) and Blumenberg et al. (2018) reported. Mercator and Ginsburg MVs are at ~900 m water depth in the Gulf of Cadiz and fit thermogenic values in the genetic diagrams. B:  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$  versus  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$  diagram comparing gases from Scoglio d’Affrica MV (2011 and 2018), Pomonte seeps and Nirano MV (Sciarra et al., 2019b). Nirano MV is located onshore, in the western sector of the Modena Apennine margin (Italy), upon an anticline structure associated to the Pede-Apennines thrust (Sciarra et al., 2019b). C:  $\delta^{13}\text{C-CH}_4$  versus  $\delta^2\text{H-CH}_4$  diagram comparing gases from Scoglio d’Affrica MV (2018), Pomonte seeps, Carmen MV (Lopez et al., 2019), Venere MV, Mercator MV and Ginsburg MV. Carmen MV is located in the westernmost part of Mediterranean Sea, in the Alboran Basin, that consists of Miocene to Quaternary sedimentary sequences of up to 8 km in thickness. Carmen MV extends for 65 m in height and 1 km in diameter (Lopez et al., 2019): CR – CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, F – methyl-type fermentation, SM – secondary microbial, EMT – early mature thermogenic gas, OA – oil-associated thermogenic gas, LMT – late mature thermogenic gas.

**Figure 6** – Stable carbon and hydrogen isotope ratios of methane in Scoglio d’Affrica mud volcano compared to other gases compositions from conventional petroleum systems and serpentized peridotites. The diagram compares methane of biotic and abiotic origins: small dots refer to biotic (microbial and thermogenic) gas in sedimentary basins (from unpublished global data-sets; see Etiope and Schoell, 2014 and references therein), whereas triangles refer to gas from serpentization processes (from Etiope, 2017;

*Etioppe et al., 2017 and references therein, with additional data from Vacquand et al., 2018). The gases from Scoglio d'Affrica MV fit the range of biotic origin, whereas Pomonte-Elba samples fit the range of abiotic origin.*

**Figure 7** – A:  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  versus  $^4\text{He}/^{20}\text{Ne}$  diagram showing crustal-/mantle-derived helium contribution; B:  $\text{CH}_4/{}^3\text{He}$  ratio versus  $\delta^{13}\text{C}-\text{CH}_4$  diagram comparing gases from Scoglio d'Affrica MV (2018) and Pomonte seeps. Four end members are considered: (1) biogenic methane produced by chemical reactions, as observed on the East Pacific Rise (EPR); (2) biogenic methane produced by microbial activity utilizing inorganic carbon; (3) thermogenic methane from the thermal decomposition of organic matter; and (4) oxidized methane with heavier carbon isotope values formed through microbial fractionation in old gas plumes.

**Figure 8** – Synthetic stratigraphy of the two wells Mimosa 1 and Martina 1, showing the unconformity bounded units. Main seismic unconformities (after Cornamusini et al., 2002): X at the base of the Unit Sub2; A at the base of the Unit Lit0; D at the base of the Unit Lit7 (from Cornamusini and Pascucci, 2014).



Tab. 1 – Gas analysis results.

ID	He (ppmv)	CO (ppmv)	N <sub>2</sub> (vol%)	CH <sub>4</sub> (vol%)	CO <sub>2</sub> (vol%)	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub> (vol%)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ (VPDB)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CH}_4}$ (VPDB)	$\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{CH}_4}$ (VSMOW)	$^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ (R <sub>s</sub> /R <sub>a</sub> )	$^4\text{He}/^{20}\text{Ne}$	C <sub>1</sub> /C <sub>2</sub> +C <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub> / $^3\text{He}$
GG2	42	1.30	0.70	96.05	1.30	0.036	15.5	-35.0	-163	0.01	317.43	2676	$1.76 \cdot 10^{12}$
GG3	44	1.10	0.84	95.50	1.10	0.026	15.3	-36.4	-167	0.01	329.92	3687	$1.76 \cdot 10^{12}$
GG5	44	b.d.l.	0.41	96.82	1.18	0.030	15.6	-36.8	-168	0.01	172.24	3249	$1.45 \cdot 10^{12}$
GG6	46	0.60	0.72	96.75	0.97	0.036	21.7	-34.9	-165	0.01	75.15	2718	$1.24 \cdot 10^{12}$

H<sub>2</sub> and propane (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>) are below detection limits in all samples.

Tab. 2 – Extruded sediment samples.

Sample ID	Point of sampling	Depth of sampling from the sea bottom	Shepard's classification
S4	Mud volcano point 4	Superficial sediment	Gravelly mud
S8	Mud volcano point 8	0 - 5 cm depth	Silty clay
S2	Mud volcano point 2	20 - 30 cm depth	Silty clay
S4-5	No more active mud volcano between point 4 and 5	Superficial sediment	Sand-silt- clay (loam)

Figure 1

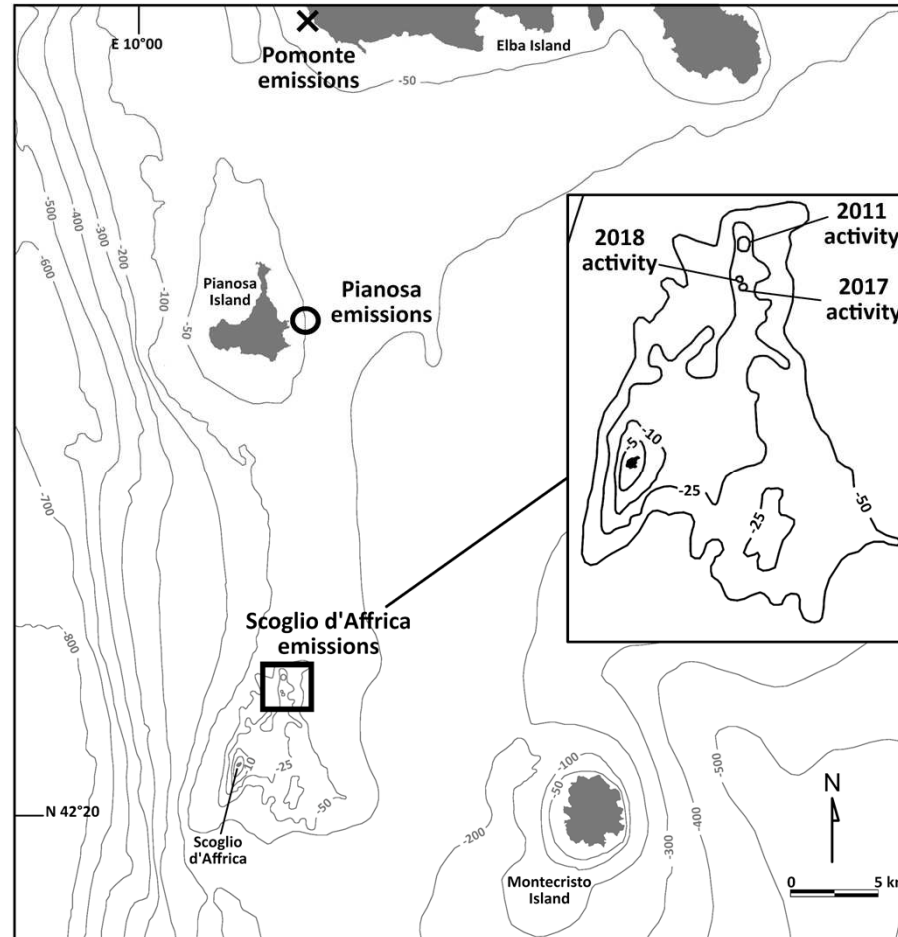


Figure 2

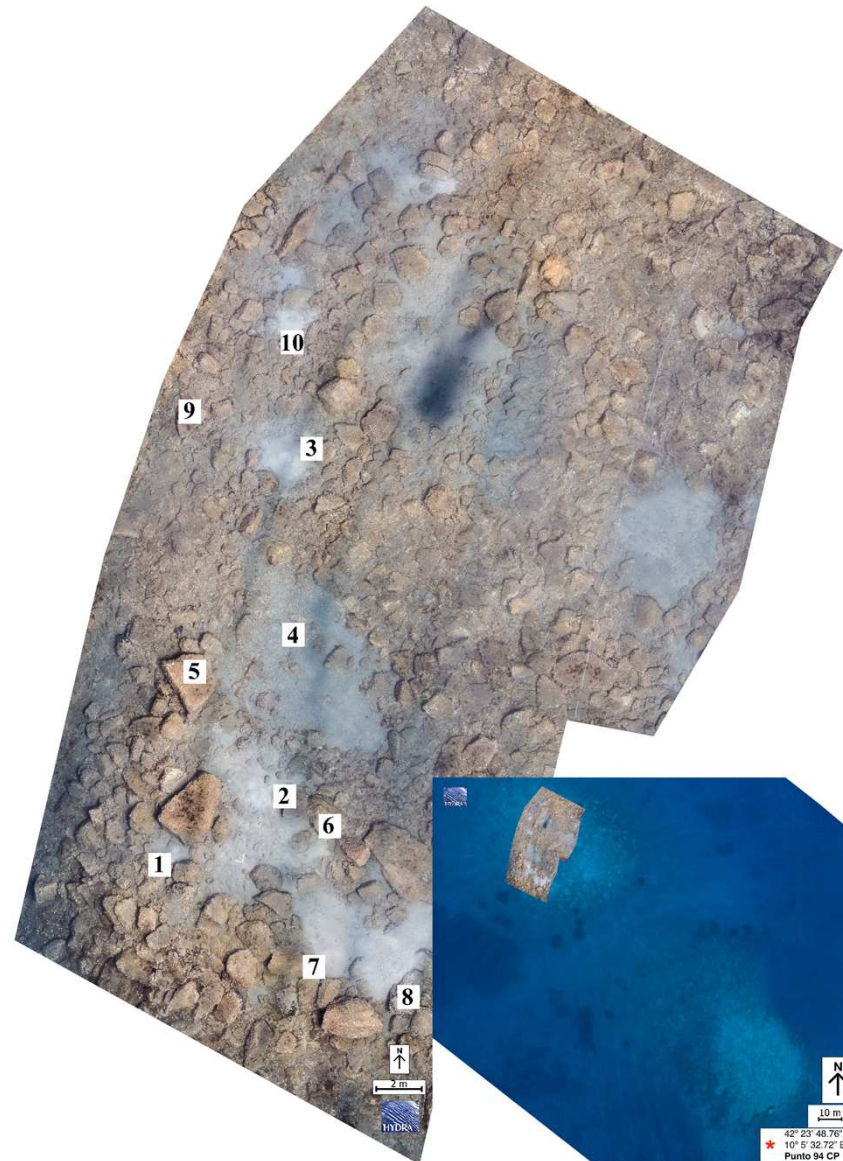


Figure 3

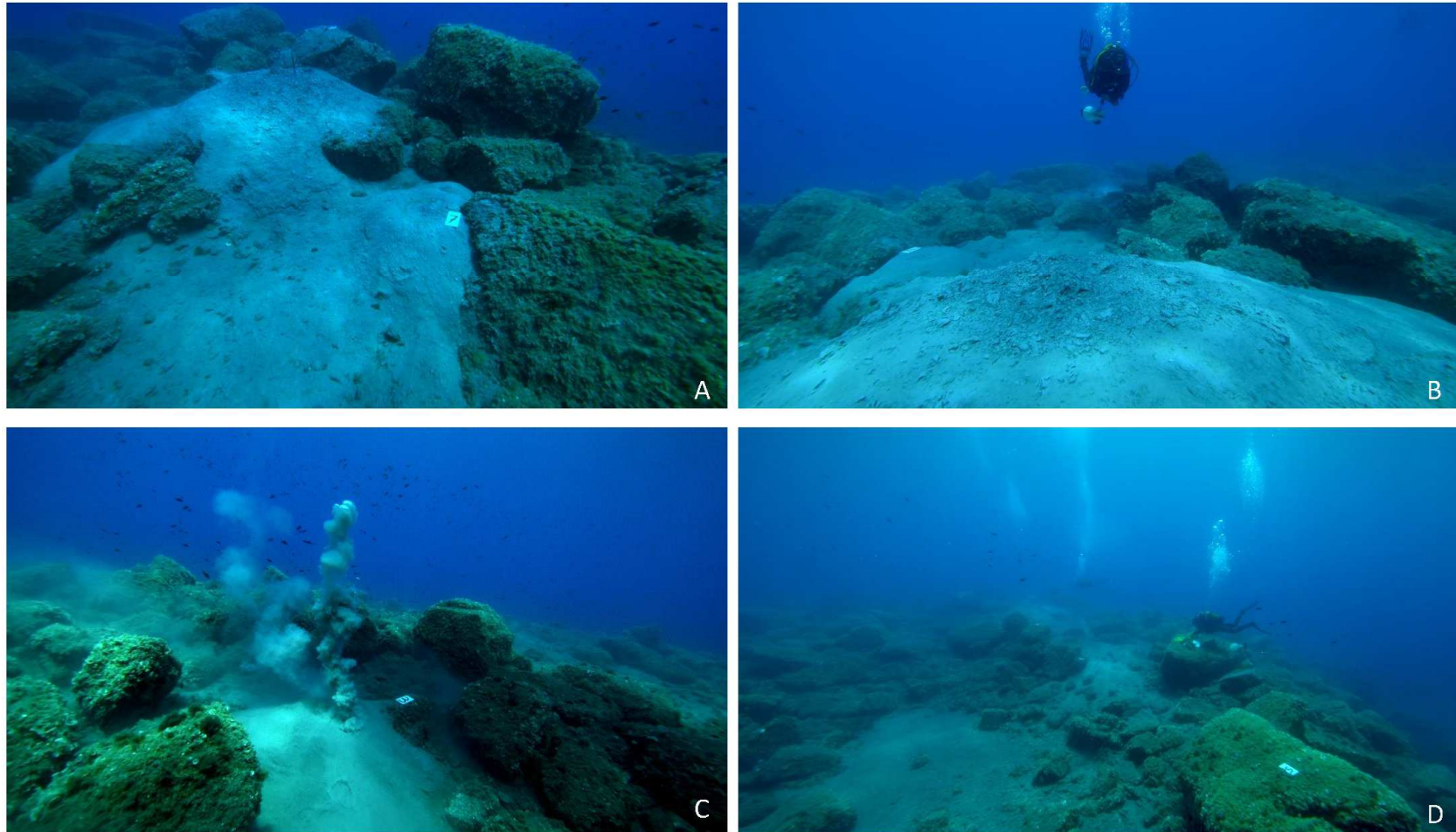




Figure 4

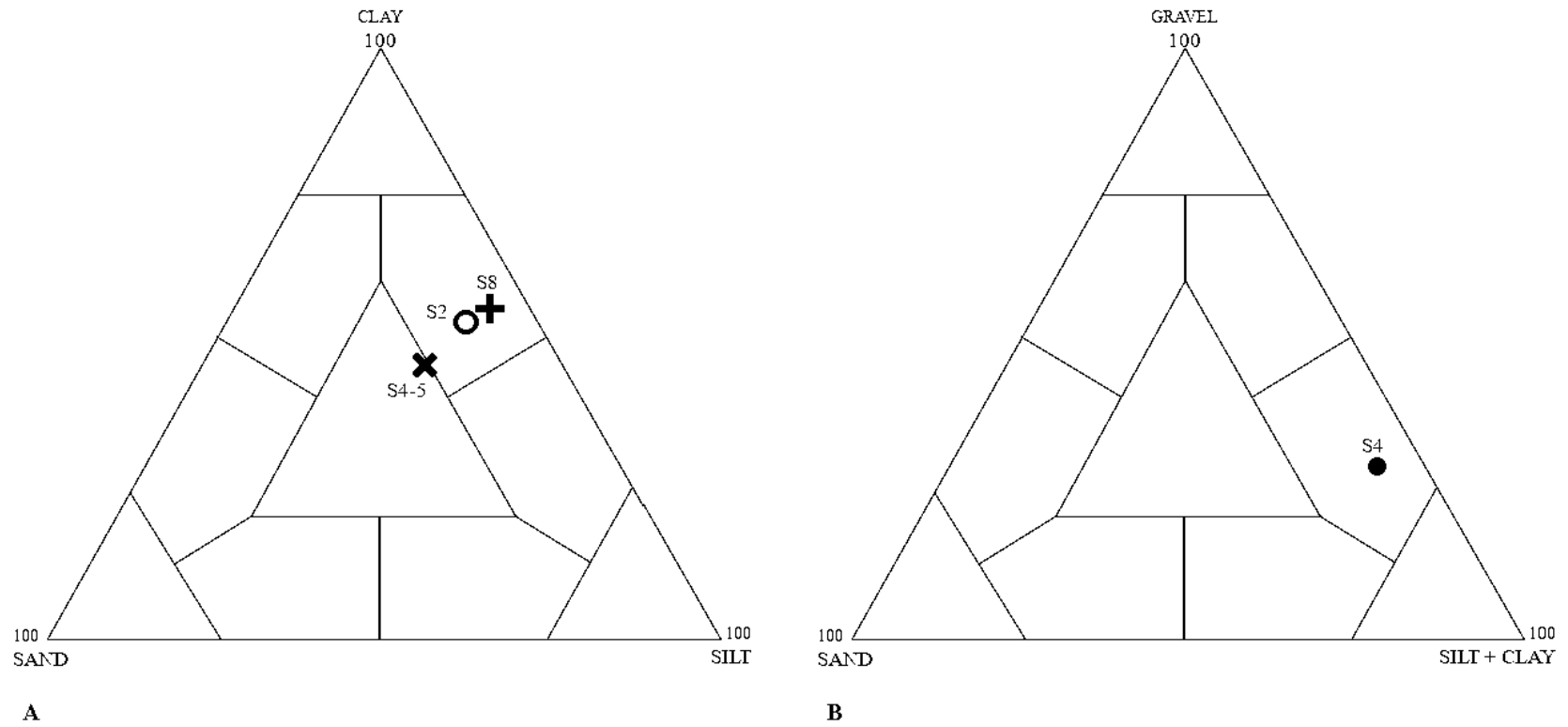


Figure 5

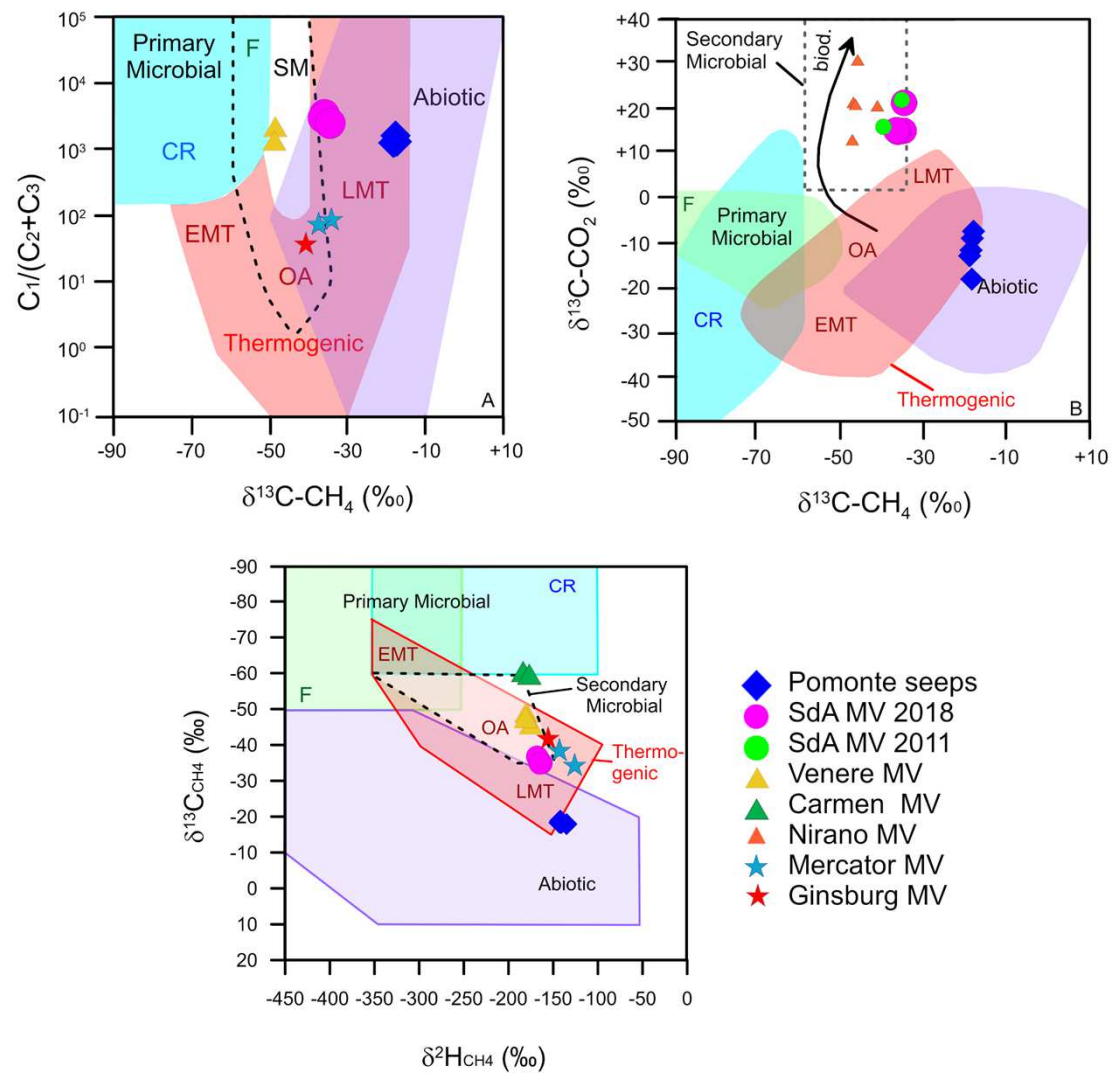


Figure 6

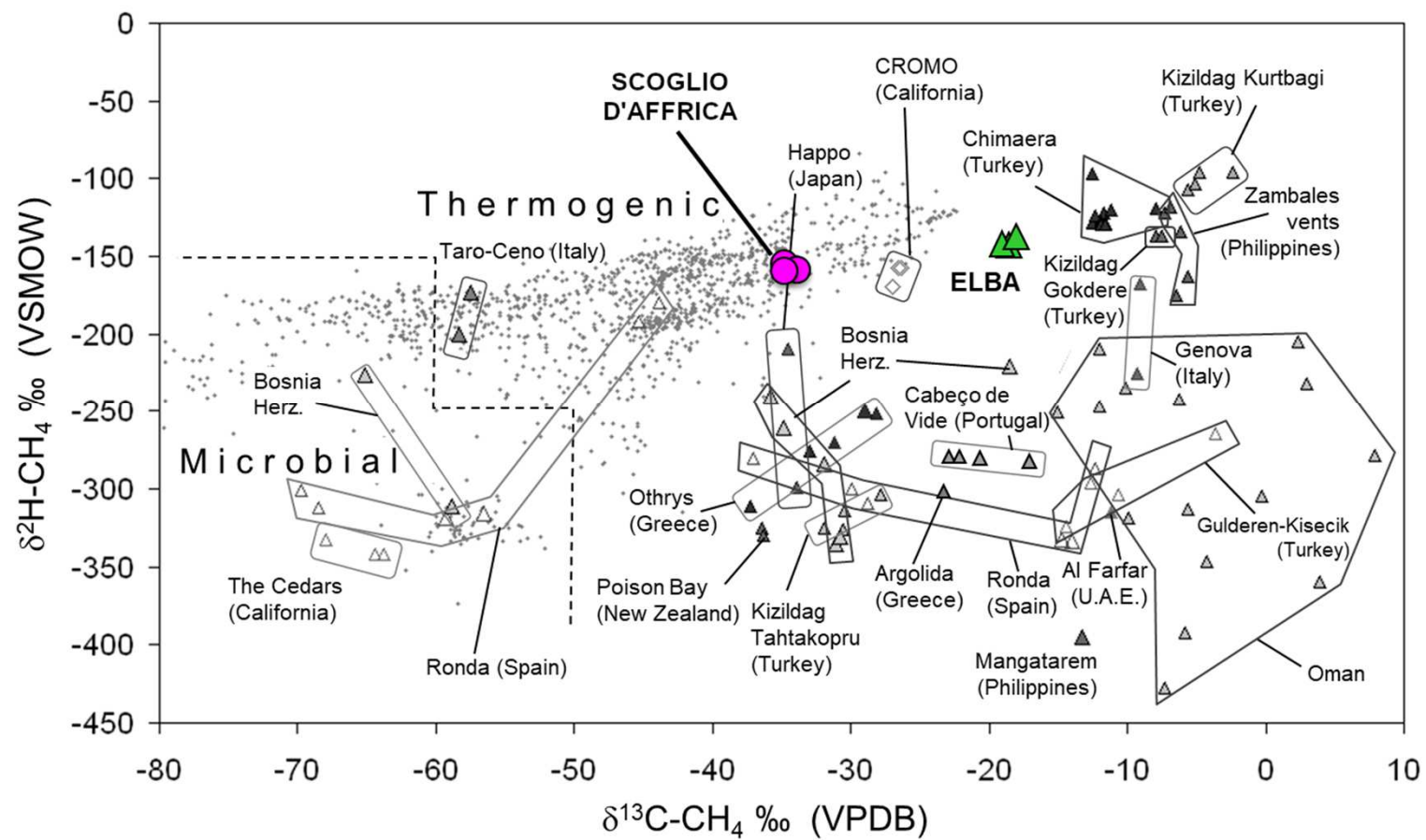


Figure 7

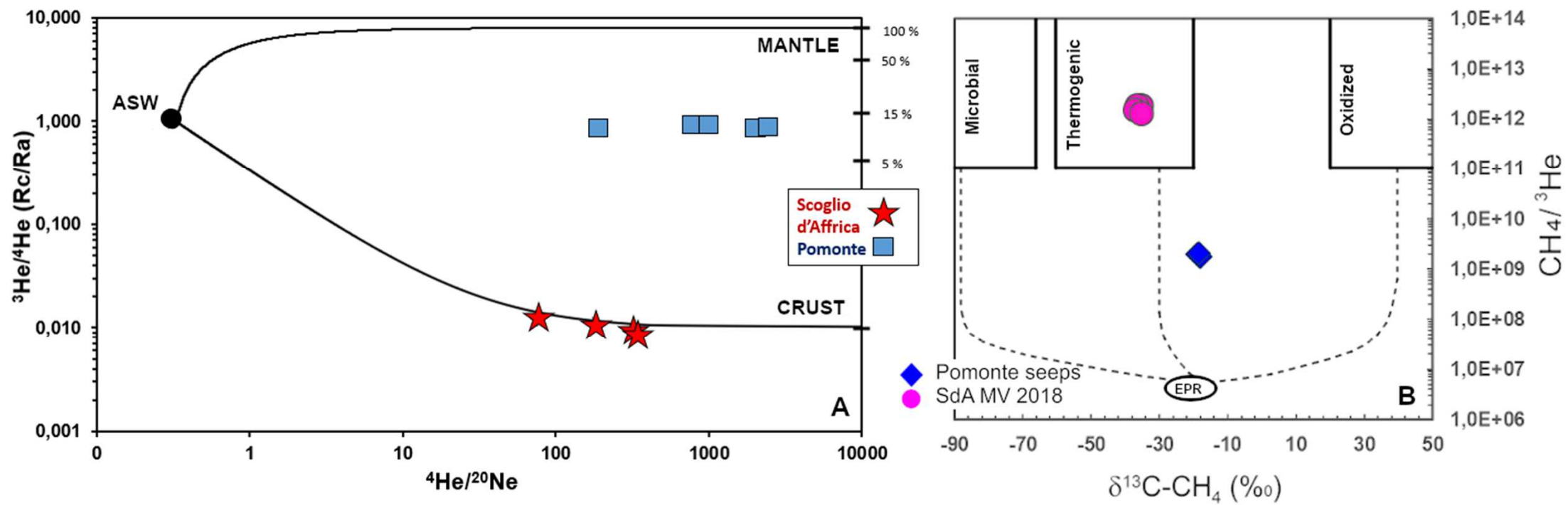
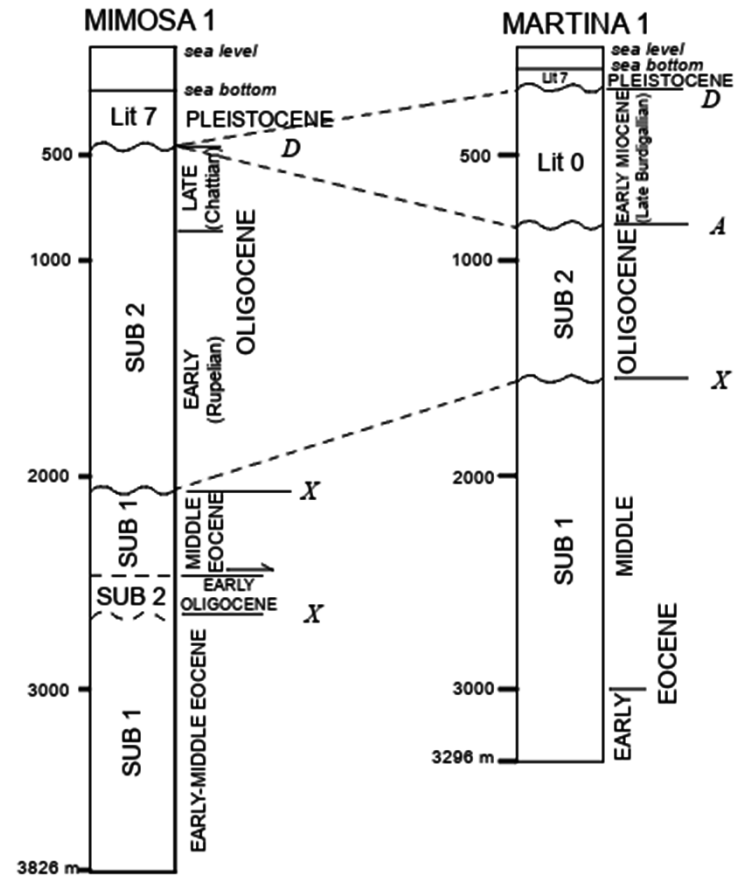


Figure 8





- A photo-mosaic of the shallowest mud volcano in the Tyrrheanian Sea is reported
- Analysis of isotopic and molecular composition of submarine methane emissions
- Carbon dioxide is enriched in heavy carbon isotopes
- Radiogenic crustal helium reveals discontinuities in shallow crustal levels
- Secondary microbial origin is predominant; abiotic origin is discarded

Journal Pre-proof

**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