



Quantification of volcanic degassing and analysis of uncertainties using numerical modeling: the case of Stephanos crater (Nisyros Island, Greece)

Silvia Massaro^{1,2} · Giancarlo Tamburello² · Giulio Bini² · Antonio Costa² · Manuel Stocchi¹ · Franco Tassi^{3,4} · Rebecca Biagi³ · Orlando Vaselli^{3,4} · Giovanni Chiodini² · Fabio Dioguardi^{1,5} · Jacopo Selva⁶ · Laura Sandri² · Giovanni Macedonio⁷ · Stefano Caliro⁷ · Georges Vougioukalakis⁸

Received: 5 April 2024 / Accepted: 24 October 2024
© The Author(s) 2024

Abstract

Nisyros Island (Greece) is affected by widespread gas emissions from fumarolic fields located at the bottom of hydrothermal craters in the southern part of its caldera. This morphology and the current low gas fluxes make Nisyros an ideal site for testing the limits of physics-based gas dispersal models in confined and low-emission conditions. Here, we focused our attention on the local scale volcanic gas dispersion from the Stephanos hydrothermal crater. In April 2023, a 1-week survey was carried out to measure weather data, CO₂ and H₂S gas fluxes, air concentrations from portable gas stations, and chemical composition of fumarolic gases and to acquire thermal images of the crater floor. These data were used as inputs and boundary conditions for numerical simulations using a DISGAS-2.6.0 model in order to quantify the present-day volcanic degassing and its associated uncertainties, accounting for the meteorological variability. Model results are provided in terms of H₂S probabilistic exceedance and persistence maps, showing gas concentrations within the crater that fall below the thresholds indicated for the occurrence of serious respiratory problems. Since DISGAS-2.6.0 does not account for chemical reactions, this study represents a good opportunity to discuss the methodological limits of simulating the dispersion of H₂S which is challenging due to its rapid degradation and dilution in the atmosphere. In this regard, we also provided an empirical law of the H₂S depletion in low-emission conditions that takes into account the uncertainties related to the field measurements.

Keywords Volcanic degassing · Carbon dioxide · Hydrogen sulfide · Probabilistic concentration maps

Introduction

Much of the present-day knowledge about the degassing of natural systems comes from studies on persistently active volcanoes (e.g., Etna, Italy; e.g., Allard et al. 1991;

Nyiragongo, Congo; e.g., Arellano et al. 2017; Ambrym, Vanuatu; e.g., Allard et al. 2006; Kīlauea, USA; e.g., Kern et al. 2020; Masaya, Nicaragua; e.g., van Manen et al. 2014; Erta Ale, Ethiopia; e.g., Boucher et al. 2018). These have, besides water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂) as one of the most

Editorial responsibility: A. Tadini

✉ Silvia Massaro
silvia.massaro@uniba.it

- ¹ Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra e Geoambientali, Università degli Studi "Aldo Moro", Bari, Italy
- ² Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia - Sezione di Bologna, Bologna, Italy
- ³ Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Università degli Studi di Firenze, Florence, Italy
- ⁴ Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche - Istituto di Geoscienze e Georisorse, Florence, Italy

- ⁵ British Geological Survey, The Lyell Centre, Edinburgh, UK
- ⁶ Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, dell'Ambiente e delle Risorse, Università degli Studi "Federico II", Naples, Italy
- ⁷ Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia - Osservatorio Vesuviano, Naples, Italy
- ⁸ Hellenic Survey of Geology and Mineral Exploration, Athens, Greece

abundant magmatic volatiles, together with sulfur dioxide (SO₂) (e.g., Symonds 1994).

During quiescent periods, magmatic gases may be released from volcanic systems via diffusive soil degassing (e.g., Granieri et al. 2003; Chiodini et al. 2004) and fumarolic discharges (e.g., Solfatara, Campi Flegrei, Chiodini et al. 2001; Piton de la Fournaise, Reunion Island, Toutain et al. 2002; Furnas, Azores archipelago, Viveiros et al. 2012).

While CO₂ in soils and air behaves conservatively over relatively long periods, the atmospheric distribution and concentration of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), mainly produced by SO₂ reduction in hydrothermal environments, are affected by weather conditions (e.g., Watson et al. 1978; Rickard and Luther 2007). Although the main sink of H₂S in the atmosphere is the reaction with “OH” radicals (e.g., Watts 2000), other minor sinks can be found on a local scale, during and subsequent to rainfall events (Kristmannsdottir et al. 2000, Thorsteinsson et al. 2013) or due to reaction in lakes, soils, and vegetation (Bussotti et al. 1997; Cihacek and Bremner 1990). However, these interactions typically do not have first-order control. For example, Olafsdottir et al. (2014) conducted ad hoc measurement campaigns in Iceland showing that the depletion of H₂S from the atmosphere is insignificant compared to the emissions within a 35 km distance from the sources.

Prolonged volcanic gas emission may produce acidification of soil, pollution of water, impinge on livestock, and fisheries and affect animal and human health (e.g., Baxter 1990; Baxter and Kapila 1989; Cronin and Sharp 2002; Costa et al. 2005; Linhares et al. 2015; Carapezza et al. 2023) even at very low concentration (< 1 ppm; ATSDR 1999; U.S. EPA 2003). Fatal consequences from sudden and violent volcanic gas emissions were also documented during limnic eruptions (Folch et al. 2009). The most famous example comes from the 1986 catastrophic event at Lake Nyos (Cameroon) where a CO₂ cloud was suddenly released, leading to the deaths of about 1700 people (e.g., Costa and Chiodini 2015, and references therein).

Many other deaths occurred because of accumulations of CO₂ or H₂S in low-lying areas as flows and clouds (e.g., Auken et al. 2013; Stewart et al. 2022). Recently, a fatal incident occurred in September 2017 at La Solfatara crater (Italy), when an Italian family fell into a pit (<https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-41243134>) and died after having inhaled volcanic gases (https://www.ilmattino.it/napoli/cronaca/solfatara_il_piccolo_lorenzo_morto_per_scattare_un_foto_alla_fangaia-3872912.html). The key characteristic of CO₂ hazard is that usually there is no warning or a perceivable sign of it (Edmonds et al. 2018). H₂S is instead detected by the rotten eggs odor, and it can cause a wide range of breathing difficulties even at relatively low concentrations (e.g., Baxter et al. 1990; World Health Organization

2000; Guidotti 2010; Santana et al. 2022). It was responsible for at least 46 fatalities (since the early twentieth century) at Rotorua (New Zealand) and a number of volcanoes in Japan (i.e., Kusatsu-Shirane and Adatara volcanoes; Williams-Jones and Rymer 2015).

Gas dispersal is controlled by multiple variables such as source location and magnitude, wind and terrain conditions, and gas species composition. In the last few years, more attention has been paid to test the capabilities of dispersion models to either quantify the associated hazard assessment (Massaro et al. 2021; 2022; Rafflin et al. 2024) or indirectly estimate the unknown gas contribution of fumarolic fluxes (Viveiros et al. 2023).

In this study, we investigated the permanently active degassing area at the Stephanos crater, Island of Nisyros (Dodecanese, Greece), located within the southeastern sector of the Lakki Plain area (Fig. 1). Combining geochemical data and numerical modeling, we provided a new methodology to quantify the volcanic degassing and the associated uncertainties in order to better understand the potential health risks in areas characterized by a persistent exposure to volcanic gas emissions.

Precautionally, the local authorities have delimited the fumarolized and boiling pools (observed in the center of the crater in April 2023) areas by ropes, so that they cannot be approached by tourists.

In the following, we describe the volcanological context of the site, the methods to acquire the geochemical data during the April 2023 gas survey, and the modeling approach. In the “Results” section, we confirmed the capability of DISGAS-2.6.0 in capturing the order of magnitude of the observed degassing within the crater and in the very proximal areas. We further provided the model outputs in terms of probabilistic exceedance and persistence maps of H₂S concentration based on the current degassing scenario, incorporating meteorological data from the ECMWF-ERA5 global model (Hersbach et al. 2018a, b) collected over the past 30 years. Finally, modeling limits, uncertainties of field measurements, and chemical aspects of the H₂S degradation and dilution in the atmosphere were critically addressed in the “Discussion” section.

Volc Volcanological context, hydrothermal activity, and gas origin

Nisyros is a calc-alkaline volcano formed during the Pliocene–Pleistocene in the southeastern part of the Aegean Volcanic Arc (Fig. 1a, b; Vougioukalakis 1993). Two eruptive cycles include the cone-building activity fed by basaltic andesitic and andesitic magmas, the caldera-forming explosive activity, rhyolitic phreatomagmatic eruptions, and extrusion of dacitic-rhyolitic domes and lava

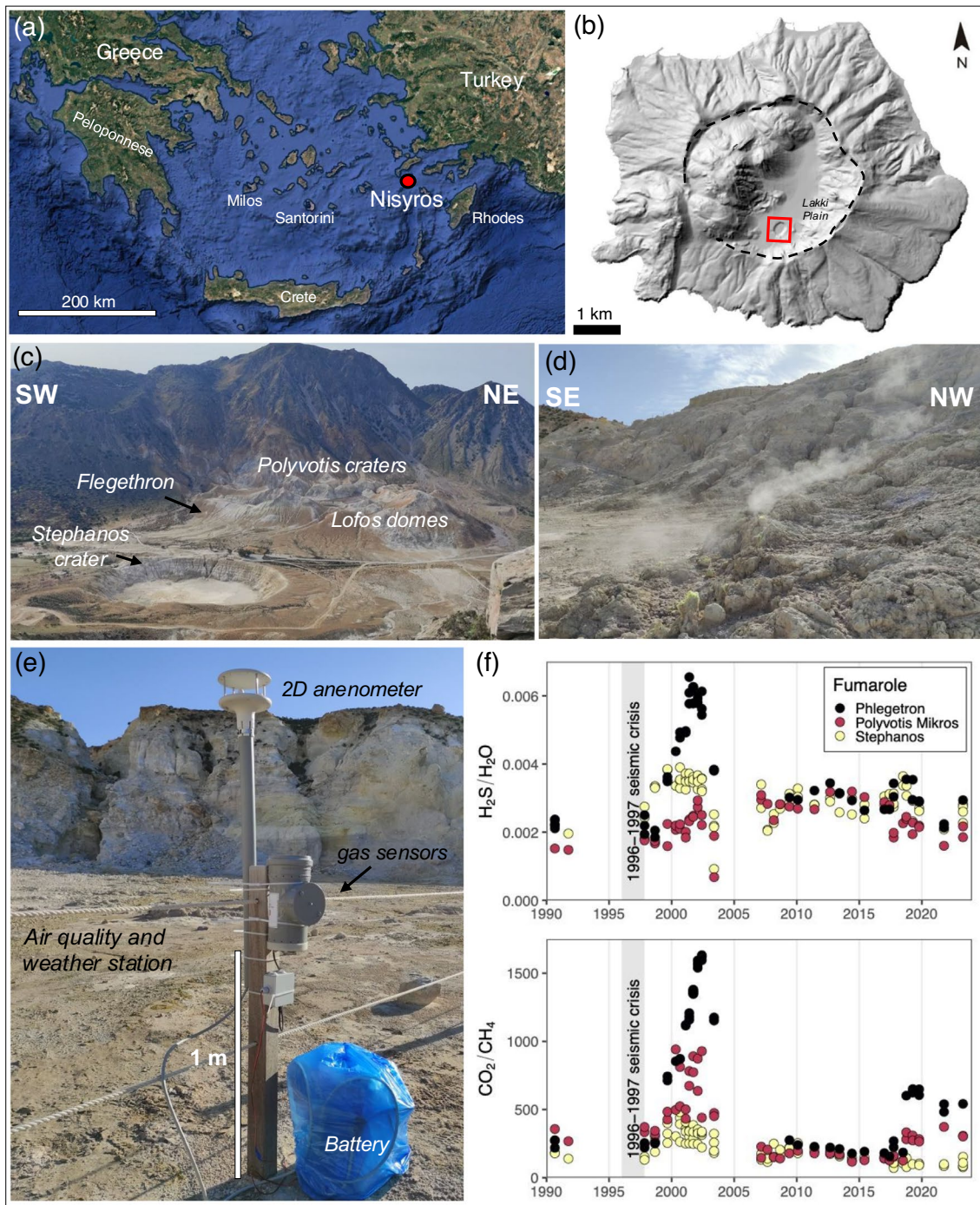


Fig. 1 **a** Location of Nisyros Island in the Hellenic volcanic arc, Greece (©2023 Google); **b** 5 m resolution digital elevation model (DEM) of Nisyros (courtesy of HSGME). The red box included the investigated area. **c** Panoramic photo of the Lakki Plain area showing Stephanos crater, Flegethron, Polyvotis craters, and Lofos dome. **d** Fumarolic degassing from the inner wall of Stephanos crater during

20 April 2023. **e** Photo showing the 2D anemometer installed on the air quality station located in Stephanos crater at 1 m from the ground. **f** H₂S/H₂O and CO₂/CH₄ molar ratios in fumarole gases collected from 1990 to 2023 (including those from this survey; after Bini et al. 2022)

flows. Since the last eruptions (about 20 ka; Popa et al. 2020), the volcanic activity has remained in a dormant stage, showing a large hydrothermal system expressed in

fumaroles at boiling temperature of water and, at minor extent, thermal waters (e.g., Tibaldi et al. 2008; Dietrich and Lagios 2017).

Several hydrothermal eruptions occurred in the southern part of the caldera in historical times, concurrently with periods of enhanced seismicity. The last eruptions took place in 1871–1873 and 1887, generating the craters of Flegethron and Polyvotis (Marini et al. 1993, Fig. 1c). The largest crater is Stephanos (e.g., Marini et al. 1993; Fig. 1c), an elliptical crater (260 × 350 m, maximum depth 27 m) of unknown age, but probably prehistoric according to its well-preserved shape that seems to be affected by NE trending active faults and marked by an alignment of fumarolic vents (Dietrich and Lagios 2017).

During 1996–1997, a seismic crisis occurred (Papadopoulos et al. 1998) without culminating in any hydrothermal eruptions. However, the chemistry of fumarolic gases recorded a significant uprising of magmatic volatiles (e.g., a spike in the CO₂/CH₄ ratio, increasing trend of H₂S/H₂O as shown in Fig. 1f) which caused pressure–temperature build-up in the hydrothermal system (Chiodini 2009; Bini et al. 2022).

Nisyros is one of the first volcanoes where soil CO₂ fluxes were measured (Brombach et al. 2001) and detailed maps of the degassing structures were identified (Caliro et al. 2005; Bini et al. 2019). Gases are emitted through the soil and fumarolic vents from the Stephanos, Flegethron, Kaminakia, Polyvotis craters, and Lophos domes and from fractures controlled by the regional tectonic faults-oriented NE–SW and NW–SE (Bini et al. 2019). The total soil CO₂ emission has not been high during the last 20 years (1999–2001: 81.6 ± 6.8 t d⁻¹; 2018: 100.6 ± 7.9 t d⁻¹; Bini et al. 2019 over a surveyed area of ca. 2.2 km²) compared to other Mediterranean volcanoes (e.g., Solfatara of Campi Flegrei emits on average 1300 t d⁻¹ over a surveyed area of 1.4 km²; Cardellini et al. 2017), but the hydrothermal system shows a large flux of energy which could increase during future unrests (e.g., Bini et al. 2019). The fumarolic gas discharges show outlet temperatures (96–100 °C) close to the boiling point of water at sea level and mainly consist of H₂O followed by CO₂ and H₂S, while N₂, H₂, CH₄, CO, Ar, and He are minor components. The absence of strongly acid gases (i.e., SO₂, HCl, and HF) indicates that the fumarolic effluents are generated from a boiling hydrothermal reservoir rather than from direct magma degassing (Chiodini et al. 1993, 2007).

Methods

Diffusive gas flux

We estimated the CO₂ diffuse emission from the soil of the Stephanos crater during April 15–16, 2023 through 301 measurements carried out over a regularly spaced grid of 20 m × 20 m (Fig. 2a), using the accumulation chamber method (Chiodini et al. 1998). We used two fluxmeters manufactured

by the University of Perugia and West Systems (Italy), which were intercalibrated by measuring given CO₂ concentration at increasing fluxes (Cardellini et al. 2003). To measure the soil CO₂ emission, the cylindrical chamber of the fluxmeter is placed on the soil, the soil gas enters the chamber, and it is pumped toward an infrared detector (LICOR LI-820 and LI-850). Eventually, the soil gas is reinjected into the chamber. The infrared detector records in real time the increase of the CO₂ concentration within the cylindrical volume, which is proportional to the soil CO₂ flux (in gm⁻² d⁻¹). To estimate the budget of CO₂ diffusively emitted into the atmosphere, we modeled the spatial continuity of the measured soil CO₂ fluxes, and then we fit the empirical variogram through weighted least-squares regression.

Then, we used this variogram model (spherical, nugget = 0.18, range = 175 m) to simulate the CO₂ fluxes at the unsampled locations of the investigated domain (5 m × 5 m) through sequential Gaussian simulations (sGs; see Cardellini et al. 2003, for further details). We constructed 1000 realizations and averaged the results in the center of each 5 m × 5 m cell of the domain. This geostatistical routine was performed using the package *gstat* (Pebesma 2004) of R (R Core Team 2023) providing a total diffusive CO₂ flux of ~25 t d⁻¹ (~0.28 kg s⁻¹; Fig. 2a). We remark that H₂S is more soluble than CO₂ in water and is more likely to be dissolved in shallow aquifers during the upflow of gases toward the surface (Symonds et al. 2001). Furthermore, high diffusive emissions of CO₂ are often emitted into the atmosphere from areas characterized by soil temperatures close to the boiling point of water. This thermal anomaly reflects shallow steam condensation below the surface, facilitating the sequestration of more soluble gas species, such as H₂S (Chiodini et al. 2005). For this reason, we assume the diffusive H₂S from the soil is negligible.

Fumarolic gas flux

At Nisyros, the gas emission from vents consists of relatively low-flux fumaroles dominated by water vapor, which are grouped within well-defined areas at the bottom of the hydrothermal eruption craters. The steam flux was measured from five selected fumaroles showing the highest fluxes and temperatures (the most vigorous ones) located at the bottom of the Stephanos crater (F1–F5 in Fig. 2b; Table 1), a very well-monitored area over time (see Chiodini et al. 1993; Marini and Fiebig 2005; Bini et al. 2022).

Attempts to measure low-flux fumaroles did not produce enough steam condensation to be measured. We used a properly designed stainless-steel funnel (Pecoraino et al. 2008) positioned upside down on the vents and cooled with water. Water vapor condensing from the fluids entering the funnel was collected and quantified. Such a steam flux, coupled with the gas/steam weight ratios analyzed in fumarolic fluids

Fig. 2 **a** Map of the diffusive CO₂ flux (~25 t d⁻¹) emitted from Stephanos crater area built using sequential Gaussian simulations. **b** Locations of instantaneous CO₂ and H₂S concentration (ppm) collected at ~1 m from the ground during April and June 2023 (Table 2). The black line indicates the pathway of the MG measurements. In red are the positions of the 73 active fumaroles along the inner wall of the crater observed during 18–22 April 2023. Maps coordinates are in Datum WGS84 (Projection UTM 35N)

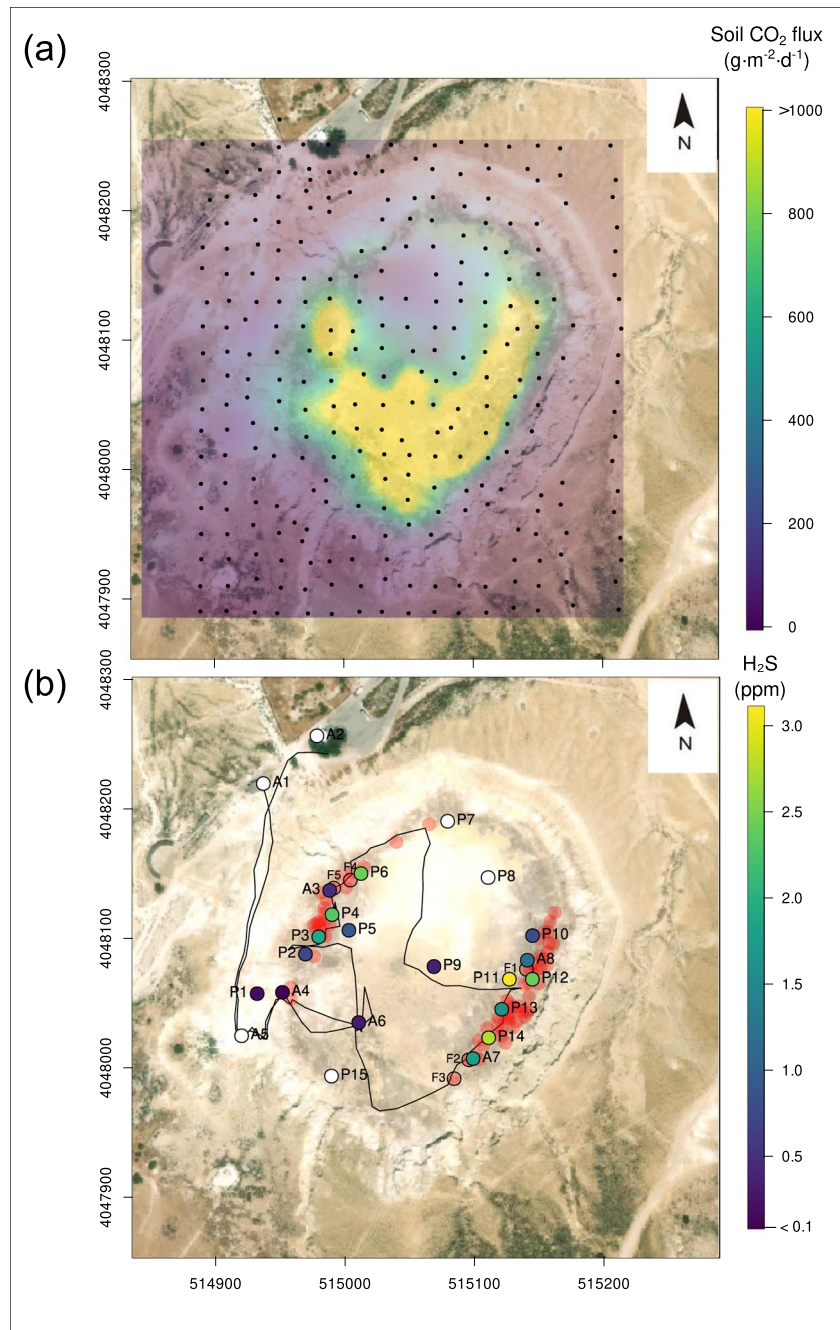


Table 1 Estimation of H₂O flux from five fumaroles (F1–F5; Fig. 2b) converted in H₂S and CO₂ flux (t d⁻¹) and used to provide an averaged estimation considering the 73 active fumaroles within the crater (Fig. 3). The location of the samples are in Datum WGS84 (Projection UTM 35N)

ID fumaroles	Coordinates (Easting, Northing in m)		H ₂ O (ml d ⁻¹)	H ₂ S (t d ⁻¹)	CO ₂ (t d ⁻¹)
F1	515139.95	4048076.74	52,052	2.55·10 ⁻⁴	1.56·10 ⁻³
F2	515095.52	4048006.89	49,159	2.41·10 ⁻⁴	1.47·10 ⁻³
F3	515084.19	4047992.34	78,039	3.83·10 ⁻⁴	2.34·10 ⁻³
F4	514991.33	4048139.27	15,136	7.41·10 ⁻⁵	4.54·10 ⁻⁴
F5	514992.77	4048136.61	51,067	2.51·10 ⁻⁴	1.53·10 ⁻³
<i>Average flux:</i>				2.4·10 ⁻⁴	1.47·10 ⁻³
<i>Standard Dev:</i>				1.1·10 ⁻⁴	6.71·10 ⁻⁴

(i.e., $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$) collected through direct sampling techniques (see Vaselli et al. 2006, and Caliro et al. 2015, for further details), enabled us to compute the fumarolic flux of H_2S and CO_2 shown in Table 1.

To this end, we used the averaged H_2O flux from the five fumaroles (Table 1), multiplied by the averaged $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ weight ratio of ~ 0.0049 to get a representative averaged H_2S flux for a single fumarole of $\sim 2.4 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ t d}^{-1}$ ($\sim 2.8 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ kg s}^{-1}$).

In order to assess the total number of fumarolic gas sources, thermal images of the crater floor were acquired from the northern rim (Fig. 3a, b). Fumaroles were identified as temperature maxima in the thermal image, which varied from ~ 20 up to ~ 50 °C (Fig. 3c, d). Such temperatures were lower than those measured with a thermocouple during fumarolic gas sampling (~ 100 °C). This discrepancy may be due to (i) a low resolution of the thermal sensor averaging the temperature over a large emissive surface and (ii) the temperature referred to the outermost portion of the shallow rock/soil.

To identify the threshold peak temperature above which we consider the point to be a fumarole, we plotted the number of identified fumaroles at different threshold temperatures. Our objective was to minimize the residual standard

error (RSE) of the two best-fit lines in order to identify the threshold temperature at which fumarole counts exhibited a slower rate of decrease. We chose 30 °C as the threshold temperature value, above which we referred to the “flattening” of the fumarole count (Fig. 3e).

Since we measured the fluxes from the strongest fumaroles and associated their fluxes with minor fumaroles observed during the mapping, such an estimate should be considered a maximum estimate. The total number of detected fumaroles ($n=73$; 24 to the west and 49 to the east) was then multiplied by the averaged H_2S flux for a single fumarole to get the total averaged H_2S fumarolic flux of $\sim 1.8 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ t d}^{-1}$ ($\sim 2.0 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ kg s}^{-1}$) within the crater. Using the same approach, we obtained the averaged fumarolic CO_2 flux of $\sim 0.43 \text{ t d}^{-1}$ ($\sim 5.0 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ kg s}^{-1}$), considering the averaged $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ weight ratio of ~ 0.03 .

Acquisition of wind data and CO_2 and H_2S concentrations from the gas stations

A Delta Ohm HD53LS 2-axis ultrasonic static anemometer was installed on station S4 at ~ 1.5 m from the ground (Fig. 1e), to measure wind speed, direction (U-V Cartesian

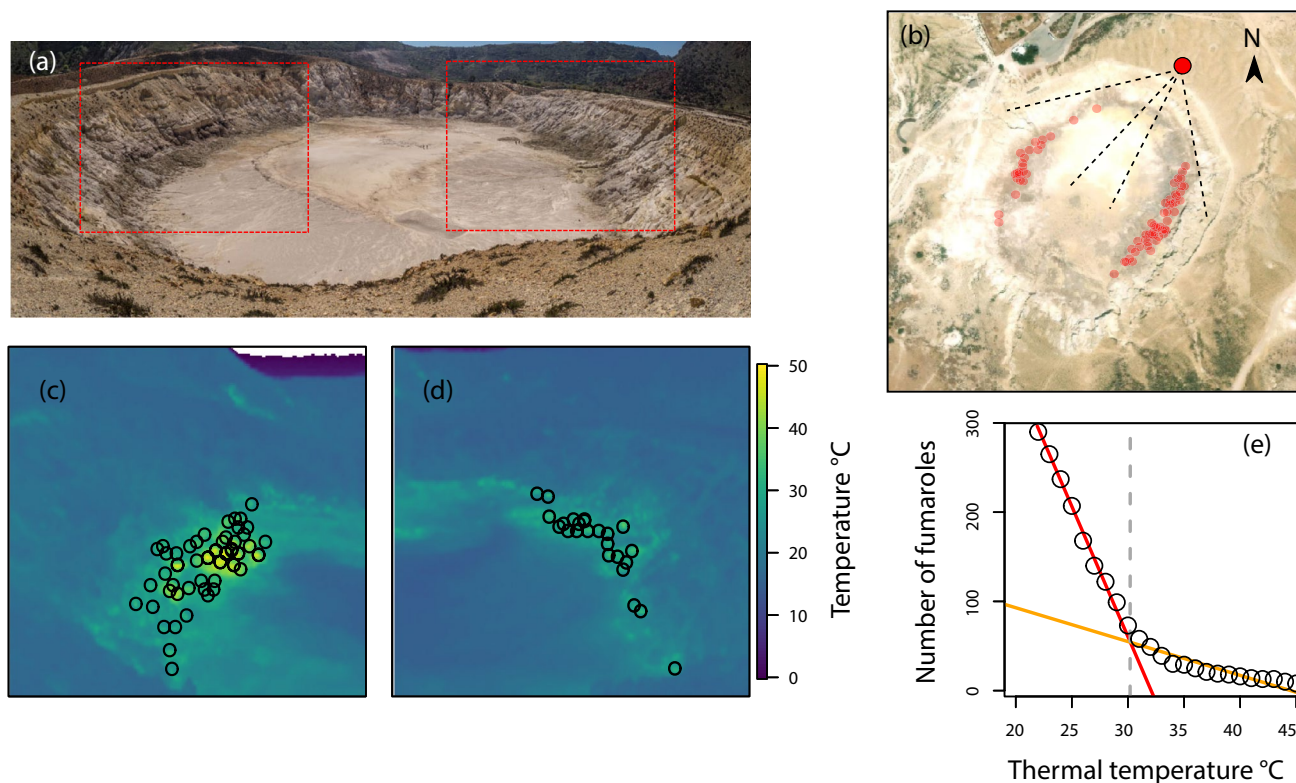


Fig. 3 **a** Photo of the Stephanos crater floor indicating two areas (red boxes) where the most active fumarolic degassing has been assessed during 18–22 April 2023. **b** Field of view (FOV) of the 73 active fumaroles identified by the thermal images of the crater floor (**c**, **d**)

indicating the emission sources (black dots) having temperatures between 20 and 50 °C. **e** graph plotting the number of identified fumaroles

components of wind speed), and wind gust with an acquisition rate every 15 s (Supplementary Material). The low power consumption of the instrument allowed the installation with power from a 12-V battery for ~ 5 days.

CO₂ and H₂S concentrations in the air were measured with three different methods: (i) portable infrared sensors installed on the gas stations, (ii) MultiGas (MG) analyzer, and (iii) bubblers (alkaline chemical traps).

- (i) Four cost-effective gas stations developed by the University of Florence (Biagi et al. 2024; Fig. 1e) and equipped with diffusive sensors were assembled to continuously measure CO₂ concentrations in the ambient air surrounding the emitting sources from 18 to 22 April 2023 (Supplementary Material for technical details).
- (ii) The MG analyzer (<https://www.tecnosens.it/multi-sensor/multisensor-board>) was equipped with a diffusive electrochemical H₂S sensor (range, 0–100 ppm; maximum overload, 500 ppm; repeatability: < ± 2% H₂S equivalent) and infrared CO₂ sensor (range, 0–5000 ppm; repeatability, < ± 2% CO₂ equivalent) that were used to measure the air gas concentrations along multiple transects (at different distance from the fumaroles, Fig. 2b).

The response time (T90) for the CO₂ and H₂S sensors are < 30 and < 25 s (at 20 °C), respectively. This

T90 difference generates a delay of a few seconds between the CO₂ and H₂S concentration time series that has been corrected by cross-correlation. Then, we calculated the volcanic CO₂/H₂S molar ratio following the method described in Tamburello (2015).

- (iii) The third employed methodology enabled us to calculate instantaneous gas concentrations at ~ 1 m from the ground by bubbling the air in 25 ml of a 4 M NaOH and 0.15 M Cd(OH)₂ trap (Montegrossi et al. 2001) with a portable pump with a flux of 200 cc/min. Air samples were collected in 23 sites (Fig. 2b) within Stephanos crater during the April 2023 survey and June 2023. Both CO₂ and H₂S are reactive species, which were absorbed in the alkaline solution. H₂S was trapped by precipitating as CdS, and the concentrations were analyzed by ion chromatography (Metrohm 761 Advanced Compact IC) after converting sulfide to sulfate through the addition of H₂O₂ and dissolving the solid phase in a solution of 10 ml solution of ultrapure water (resistivity of 18.2 MΩ.cm at 25 °C, Milli-Q) and 0.025 g NaOH in pellets (Montegrossi et al. 2001). The CO₂ content, dissolved in the liquid phase, was determined through acidimetric titration. The values of H₂S and CO₂ concentrations at the sample points are reported in Table 2.

Table 2 Instantaneous CO₂ and H₂S concentration (ppm) measured with the bubblers within Stephanos crater during April (A1–A8) and June 2023 (P1–P15) at ~ 1 m from the ground (Fig. 2b). The CO₂ background (ca. 415 ppm) is included. Map coordinates are in Datum WGS84 (Projection UTM 35N)

Period	Sample points	Coordinates (Easting, Northing in m)		CO ₂ (ppm)	H ₂ S (ppm)
April 2023	A1	514937.70	4048218.27	420	< 0.1
April 2023	A2	514980.13	4048255.17	451	< 0.1
April 2023	A3	514988.83	4048135.83	568	0.48
April 2023	A4	51454.17	4048057.78	495	0.11
April 2023	A5	514922.91	4048024.23	415	< 0.1
April 2023	A6	515011.20	4048034.81	550	0.31
April 2023	A7	515099.82	4048006.68	623	1.6
April 2023	A8	515142.09	4048082.18	590	1.1
June 2023	P1	514932.21	4048057.99	471	0.21
June 2023	P2	514969.46	4048088.25	511	0.69
June 2023	P3	514979.74	4048101.60	622	1.7
June 2023	P4	514990.027	4048118.76	650	21
June 2023	P5	515002.993	4048106.67	554	0.89
June 2023	P6		4048150.49	630	2.2
June 2023	P7	515079.19	4048190.86	425	< 0.1
June 2023	P8	515110.43	4048147.40	415	< 0.1
June 2023	P9	515068.64	4048078.76	490	0.36
June 2023	P10	515144.74	4048102.57	523	0.75
June 2023	P11	515126.80	4048069.08	642	2.8
June 2023	P12	515144.57	4048069.11	610	2.2
June 2023	P13	515120.92	4048045.94	590	1.5
June 2023	P14	515110.86	4048023.88	633	2.5
June 2023	P15	514936.97	4047994.30	420	< 0.1

Numerical modeling

The atmospheric dispersion of CO₂ emitted from the crater soil and fumaroles was modeled through DISGAS v2.6.0 (Costa and Macedonio 2016), a 3D Eulerian dilute gas dispersion model, which solves the advection–diffusion equation.

DISGAS is coupled with DIAGNO, a diagnostic wind simulator (Douglas et al. 1990) to provide a quasi-steady-state gridded wind field in the computational domain. This model adjusts the domain-scale mean wind for kinematic terrain effects and then calculates a new wind field with a divergence minimization to ensure mass conservation.

The passive condition is assumed to be governed by the wind and atmospheric turbulence that it is legitimate for diluted gases (see Costa et al. 2005; Costa and Macedonio 2016). The validity of such a passive approximation can be assessed by estimating the Richardson number (Britter and McQuaid 1988; Cortis and Oldenburg 2009; Costa et al. 2013) of the emission source:

$$Ri = \frac{1}{v^2} \left(\frac{g'q}{R} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} = \frac{\sqrt[3]{\frac{g^2(\rho_g - \rho_a)^2}{\rho_a^2} q^2}}{v^2 R^{\frac{2}{3}}} \quad (1)$$

where g' is the apparent gravity acceleration; ρ_g and ρ_a are the air and the gas densities, respectively; q is the volumetric flow rate; R is the plume size (e.g., plume radius); and v is the wind velocity at the reference altitude (i.e., 10 m). For $Ri < 0.25$, transport is substantially passive, whereas for $R_i > 1$ is mainly density-driven (Cortis and Oldenburg 2009; Costa et al. 2013).

We validated the passive approximation with the Richardson number (Eq. 1). Considering the CO₂ diffusive flux of $\sim 25 \text{ t d}^{-1}$ ($\sim 0.28 \text{ kg s}^{-1}$), a reference plume radius of $\sim 300 \text{ m}$ (as approximation of the radius of the crater, which is where the diffuse degassing occurs), a CO₂ density of $\sim 1.45 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (at $T = 100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and $P = 1013 \text{ mbar}$) and air density of $\sim 1.2 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (at standard conditions), we get $Ri \approx 0.012$. Considering the fumarolic CO₂ flux of $\sim 0.43 \text{ t d}^{-1}$ ($\sim 5.0 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ kg s}^{-1}$) emitted in typical wind conditions ($\sim 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ as a mean of typical wind velocities during the day and night measured with our anemometer), a reference plume radius of ca. 6 m (as seen from the active fumaroles within the crater) and a CO₂ density of ca. 1.28 kg m^{-3} (at $T = 150 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and $P = 1013 \text{ mbar}$), we get $Ri \approx 0.005$. In both cases, the dispersion can be assumed passive. To provide the probabilistic outputs, we used VIGIL-v1.3.5 workflow (Dioguardi et al. 2022), a Python tool interfaced with both passive (DISGAS v2.6.0) and dense gas (TWODEE-2 v2.6.0; Folch et al. 2009) flow models. The workflow has three stages that must be run sequentially. These can be run in parallel, saving high computational times to run the

simulations for probabilistic volcanic hazard assessment applications. At the beginning, DIAGNO starts to generate time-dependent terrain-adapted wind fields from either user-provided or retrieved data by the ECMWF-ERA5 global model (Hersbach et al. 2018a,b). Since the ERA5 data refer to grid points with a spatial resolution of 0.25° ($\sim 30 \text{ km}$) and the typical domain of simulations run by VIGIL has dimensions of hundreds of meters to a few km, the data are linearly interpolated onto the midpoint of the computational domain and furnished to the DIAGNO module. In our case, to model the CO₂ concentration at specific tracking points, we assumed CO₂ the main tracking species given that we inferred the total CO₂ flux (Fig. 2). Additionally, we remark that CO₂ has a low solubility in water and hence is almost entirely emitted into the atmosphere (Chiodini et al. 2005). For this reason, the effect of condensation on CO₂ can be considered negligible.

Hence, the outputs yield concentrations expressed values in excess of background CO₂ levels in the air at heights selected by the user. Consequently, to model H₂S concentration, we assumed H₂S as the main tracked species using as input data the estimated fumarolic H₂S flux described above. We then provided the probabilistic exceedance maps posed by H₂S dispersion considering the meteorological variability of the past 30 years (1993–2023). In order to get a robust statistical similarity, wind profiles of 1000 days were randomly sampled from the ECMWF-ERA5 dataset and automatically downloaded by VIGIL-1.3.5 in GRIB format with a 1-h temporal resolution. The computational domain was set to a square area of $600 \times 600 \text{ m}$ with a horizontal resolution of 5 m. A 5-m resolution DEM (courtesy of HSGME) was used as topography. All the simulations were run and stored at the ReCaS DataCenter of the University of Bari and the National Institute of Nuclear Physics (<https://www.recas-bari.it/index.php/it/>).

Results

We run a single simulation from April 18 to 22, 2023, using the local wind conditions acquired from the 2D anemometer (Fig. 1e; Supplementary Material) to reproduce the order of magnitude of the observed volcanic degassing for CO₂ and H₂S, respectively.

As input data, we used the total amount of CO₂ flux composed by the diffusive of $\sim 25 \text{ t d}^{-1}$ and the fumarolic contribution of $\sim 0.43 \text{ t d}^{-1}$. Regarding H₂S, we used the fumarolic flux of $\sim 1.8 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ t d}^{-1}$.

Five tracking points (T1–TP5) corresponding to the installed air quality gas stations were selected. For each point, we built the ECDF of the simulated average of CO₂ and H₂S concentration at 1 m from the ground (Fig. 4). This stepwise function represents the proportion of observations

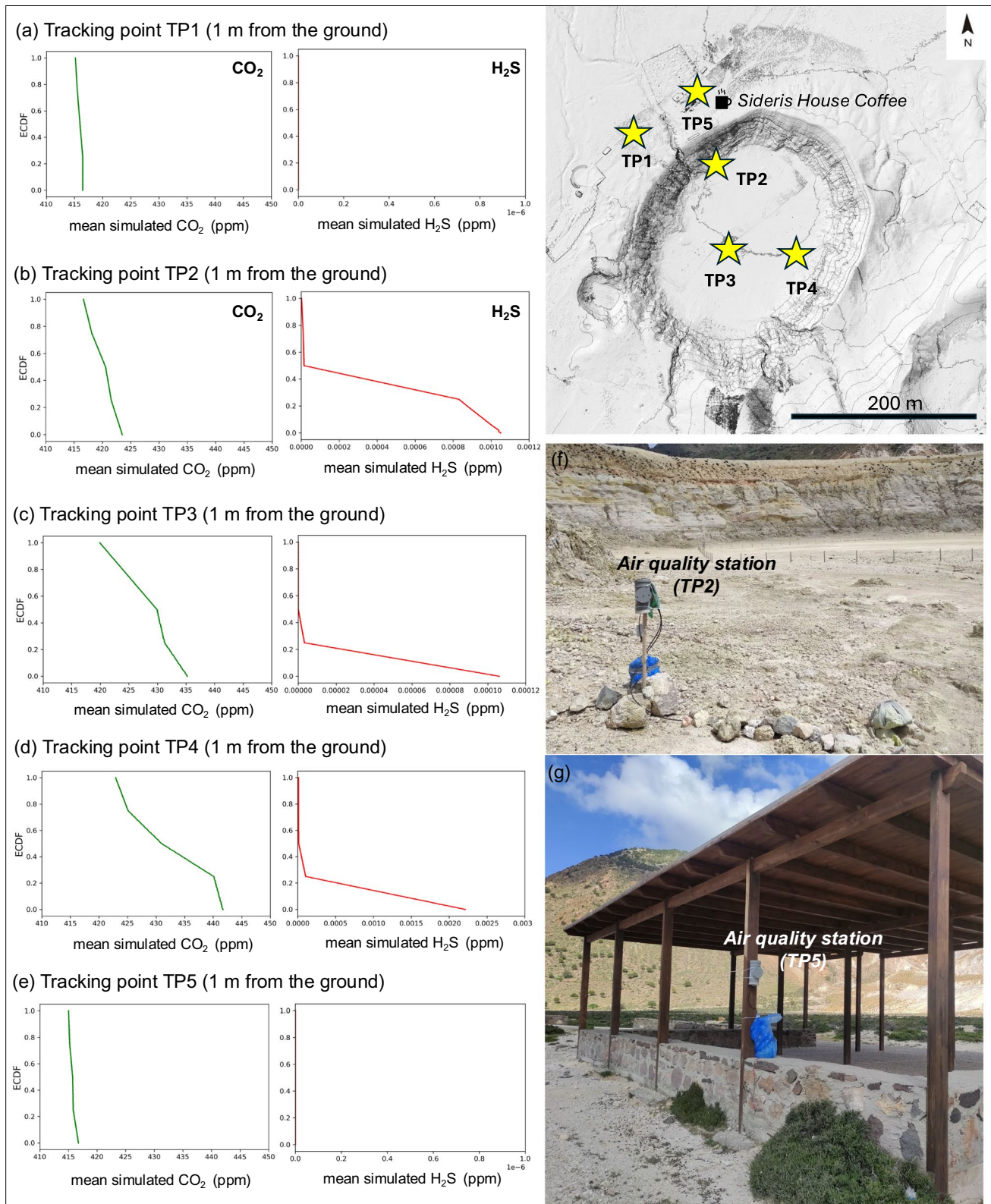


Fig. 4 ECDFs of the mean CO₂ and H₂S concentration from April 18 to 22, 2023, at 1 m from the ground corresponding to the air quality stations (yellow stars) corresponding to the tracking points: **a** TP1 (514933.77, 4048212.71), **b** TP2 (515002.93, 4048160.14), **c** TP3 (515010.39, 4048031.70), **d** TP4 (515095.35,

4048050.34), and **e** TP5 (514985.12, 4048264.27). The simulations were run using the local weather data acquired by the 2D anemometer (corresponding to TP4; Fig. 1e). The calculated value of the CO₂ background is 415 ppm. The location of the tracking points are in Datum WGS84 (UTM 35N)

that fall below a given value, providing a visual representation of how values are distributed at that location over time. It shows, for each value on the x -axis, the probability that observations at the point are less than or equal to that value.

The ECDFs of the simulated average of CO₂ show a negligible value (<5 ppm) over the background value (~415 ppm) outside the crater (TP1 and TP5; Fig. 4a, e, and g) reaching a slight increase within the crater (~10–20 ppm; TP2–3–4; Fig. 4b, c, d, and f). This qualitative comparison highlighted that CO₂ is very far from posing a hazard to human health (Table 3). The simulated average of H₂S concentration is ~0 ppm outside the crater (TP1–TP5; Fig. 4a, e, and g) and negligible at TP3 (<0.0001 ppm; Fig. 4c). Slightly higher values can be observed at tracking points 2 (<0.001 ppm; Fig. 4b) and 4 (<~0.002; Fig. 4d).

Figure 5 reports the long-term probabilistic exceedance maps posed by H₂S dispersion, merging 1000 runs. It is

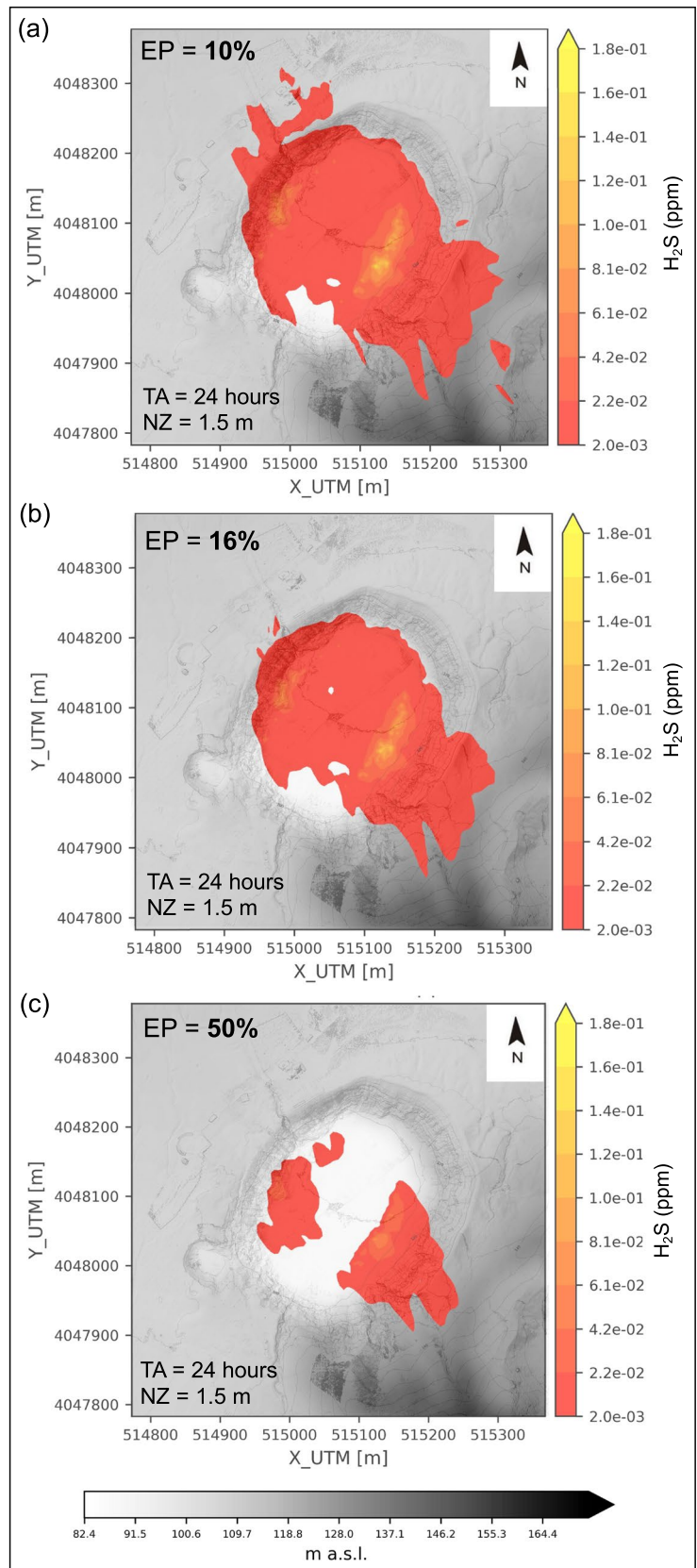
worth noting that the exceedance probability at a point is simply 1 - ECDF (value at that point). For example, if a location has an ECDF value of 0.9 for a particular concentration, this implies that 90% of the time, the concentration is below or equal to that value, and therefore, the exceedance probability is 10%, meaning the concentration will exceed this threshold in 10% of cases.

The maps indicate the daily averaged H₂S concentration field at 1.5 m above the ground (the typical breathing height of adult humans) at three selected exceedance probabilities: 10% as generally employed in Bayesian Event Tree models, 16% equivalent to 1 σ level of uncertainty, and 50% as the mean. The H₂S dispersion is within the crater ranging from 0.002 ppm to a peak value of ~0.15 ppm at 10%, ~0.14 ppm at 16%, and ~0.07 ppm at 50% of exceedance probability, only when closely approaching the active fumaroles.

Table 3 Threshold limits, principal effects, and exposure time for ambient air H₂S concentration. *TWA* time-weighted average, measure used to assess the average exposure to a substance over a specified period, usually an 8-h workday. *STEL* short-term exposure limits, usually 15 min

H ₂ S thresholds	Effect for human health	Exposure time	References
0.0036 ppm	No effects reported	1 year in Iceland	Olafsdottir et al. (2014)
0.005–0.01 ppm	Level at which the general population is protected from eye irritation or odor	From 30 min to 24 h	WHO (1981)
0.025 ppm	No effects reported	1-h limit in Hawaii	State of Hawaii (2002)
0.02 ppm	Level at which human exposure is likely to be without appreciable adverse health effects	15 days–1 year	Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) (1999)
0.03 ppm	Odor threshold (highly variable)	24-h running average in Iceland 1-h limit in California	Olafsdottir et al. (2014) www.arb.ca.gov WHO (2000)
0.2–0.65 ppm	Risk of cataract and eye irritation		WHO (2000)
0.7–1 ppm	Acute eye damage and respiratory irritation	8-h occupational exposure in Italy	WHO (2000)
1 ppm	Dangerous consequences in asthmatic people		
<2 ppm			
5 ppm	Moderate offensive odor may be associated with nausea, headaches, tearing of the eyes	8-h occupational exposure in Iceland and Europe (TWA) 1-h limit average in New Zealand (not in geothermal areas)	Guidotti (2010) European Union (2009) Olafsdottir et al. (2014) www.mfe.govt.nz
10 ppm		8-h occupational exposure limit in Alberta	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S.EPA) (2003); European Union (2009)
15 ppm*		15-min occupational exposure limit in Iceland and Europe (STEL) *15-min occupational exposure limit in Alberta	Guidotti (2010)
10.8–35.9 ppm	Acute ocular, respiratory, muscular pathologies		WHO (2000)
20–50 ppm	Conjunctivitis (eye irritation) and lung irritation. Possible eye damage after several days of exposure		Guidotti (2010)
100 ppm	Immediate danger to healthy people (e.g., olfactory paralysis)		WHO (2000)
> 500 ppm	Immediate danger to healthy people	Instantaneous	WHO (2000)

Fig. 5 **a** Long-term probabilistic H₂S concentration maps considering 1000 days of wind profiles randomly sampled from the ECWMF-ERA5 global model from 1993 to 2023. The daily averaged concentration values (ppm) are referred to 1.5 m from the ground with the exceedance probability of **a** 10%, **b** 16%, and **c** 50%



Discussion

Analysis of the probabilistic gas dispersion and health impacts

The probabilistic outputs shown in Fig. 4 indicate that there is no hazard posed by CO₂ and H₂S outside the crater, as well as no serious conditions are expected to occur within it, considering the present-day volcanic degassing. Our simulated averaged concentrations result to be lower than those reported in the literature for the same investigated area (see Gagliano et al. 2019) and are in very good agreement with the instantaneous concentrations acquired during the April–June 2023 (Fig. 2b; Table 2) and the CO₂ concentration time series measured by the gas sensors during the gas survey (Supplementary Material).

The probabilistic H₂S concentration maps shown in Fig. 5 indicate a worse occurrence (i.e., 10% of exceedance probability) of the averaged concentration field up to ~0.15 ppm only in the proximity of the active fumaroles, considering a long-term series of reanalysis weather data which statistically cover the seasonal effect of winds variability over the island. However, the maps do not explore the full variability of the input parameters since these are based on a single-degassing scenario defined by field measurements considering a fixed number of fumaroles, location, and an averaged H₂S gas flux. These variables can vary in time, but a robust estimation of the total number of active fumaroles during the April 2023 gas survey ($n = 73$) has been assessed despite the variability of the coefficients of reflectivity, emitted temperature, and actual distance. We are interested in a relative threshold value, and this would not change the number of identified fumaroles (Fig. 3).

H₂S poses an immediate danger to healthy people at very high concentrations (> 100 ppm), but some guidelines indicate that dangerous consequences can also occur at concentrations from 0.02 to 2 ppm in asthmatic individuals (Table 3). Using the 1000 model results, we calculated the probabilistic H₂S persistence which indicates the fraction of time during a day in which the H₂S concentration persists in the atmosphere. In Fig. 6, we show the long-term persistence maps showing the probability of exceeding a specific concentration threshold during an exposure time (set by the user, according to the odor nuisance and health impacts set in different countries; Table 3) which can be continuous or discontinuous throughout the day. In this way, it is possible to know how often, across all the simulations, the gas concentration thresholds are exceeded, based on a robust statistics of meteorological conditions (i.e., 30 years). For computational reasons, the minimum temporal resolution considered in the simulations is 1 h.

Considering that this area is daily visited by tourists almost over the entire year (e.g., Dietrich and Lagios 2017), in Fig. 6a, we show the probability of overcoming values of 0.03 ppm for 1 h (considering this a reasonable maximum time to visit the crater), which is significantly high (up to 100%) close to the crater rim in the eastern and western sectors. We selected such a threshold value following Lambert et al. (2006) that, for short-term exposure, suggests 25 ppb (~0.03 ppm) of H₂S as the lowest concentration capable of causing eye irritation.

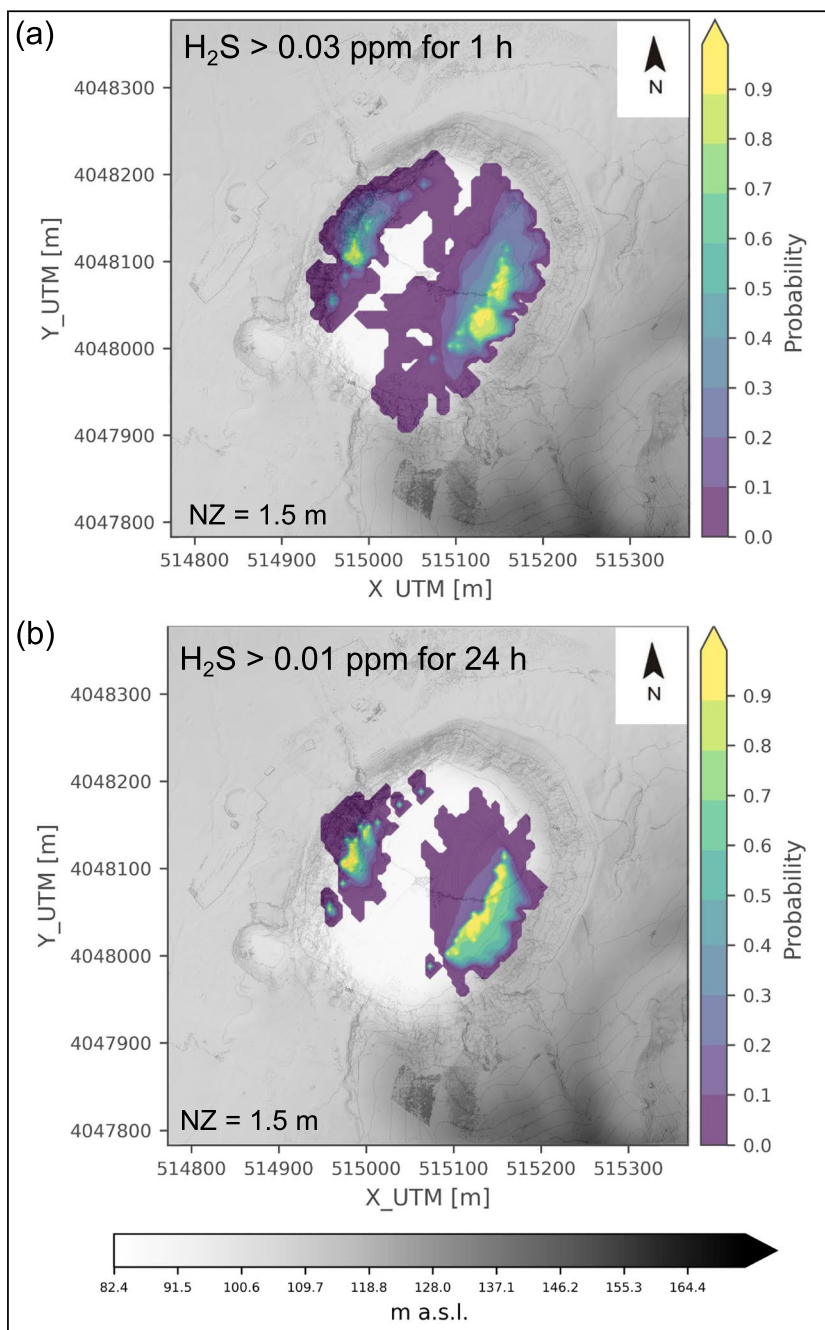
In Fig. 6b, we show the map using a H₂S concentration threshold of 0.01 ppm for an exposure time of 24 h (Table 3). Also, in this case, the highest probabilities are found in the eastern and western sectors of the crater rim. This implies that these areas are almost constantly affected by non-negligible levels of H₂S which, for shorter intervals, can overcome 0.03 ppm. Such conditions may represent a hazard for people affected by pre-existing respiratory problems and/or distress to healthy individuals (e.g., nausea, headaches, tearing of the eyes) in case of calm wind conditions.

It is worth noting that after the volcanic unrest occurred during the 1996–1997 seismic crises, both the seismicity and the chemical composition of fumarole gases returned to pre-crisis values, and currently Nisyros caldera appears to be in a dormant stage, characterized by a low degassing activity (e.g., Bini et al. 2022). Bini et al. (2022) hypothesized that the last episode of magmatic degassing during the unrest (1996–1997) occurred from a mature, silicic reservoir, whose presence was also consistent with the evolved products erupted in the last ~ 100 ka at Nisyros (Popa et al. 2019; 2020). These eruptions are thought to have been triggered by mafic magma recharges in the shallow mature reservoir below the caldera (Popa et al. 2019). Currently, there are no signs of more primitive gases that could recharge the system, and a forthcoming eruptive activity thus appears unlikely. This supports the idea that over a long-time scale, the total gas emission might be similar to that estimated today. However, new episodes of magmatic degassing are able to pressurize the hydrothermal system and cause a variation in the chemistry of gas emission, and an increase of their fluxes cannot be excluded.

Modeling limits and H₂S degradation in the atmosphere

The results presented in this study confirm DISGAS-2.6.0 as a tool for an improved understanding of the atmospheric and environmental impacts of the low H₂S degassing from the Stephanos crater but also its potential for reliable prediction in case of unexpected events. However, the quantification of volcanic degassing and its associated uncertainties are strictly affected by the limits of the numerical modeling and

Fig. 6 Long-term probabilistic persistence maps indicating the probability to reach H₂S concentrations greater than **a** 0.03 ppm in 1 h and **b** 0.01 ppm in 24 h at 1.5 m from the ground, according to the threshold limits set by different countries and organizations (Table 3)



the field measurements that have to be taken into account in this analysis.

DISGAS-2.6.0 is a physics-based model that does not account for chemical reactions. A chemical module able to account for the degradation of H₂S (e.g., oxidation) at increasing distance from the source is essential to provide a more reliable reproduction of the concentration field in the atmosphere of such a reactive compound and has to be integrated in the next version of DISGAS.

In order to assess the extent of H₂S degradation inside Stephanos crater, we carried out measurements of gas

concentrations at different distances from the fumaroles. We measured H₂S concentrations > 10 ppm at a few centimeters from the fumaroles (with the MG analyzer). Hence, we calculated the volcanic CO₂/H₂S molar ratio (removing the atmospheric CO₂ background of ~415 ppm) at different values of H₂S concentrations (ranging from 0.1 to 100 ppm). In conservative conditions, the fumarolic CO₂/H₂S molar ratio (~3.3) should not change significantly during diffusion in the atmosphere. Instead, Fig. 7 shows that the CO₂/H₂S molar ratio increases as H₂S concentrations decrease. This effect is more evident at H₂S concentrations below 20 ppm.

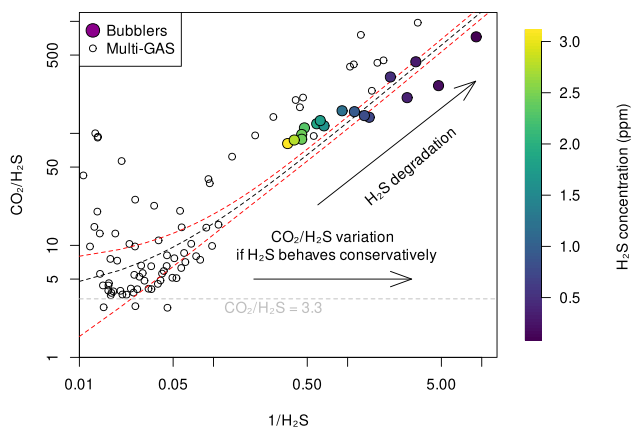


Fig. 7 Diagram of the observed trend of the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ molar ratio vs. $1/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentration (ppm) estimated with MG and bubblers during the April 2023 gas survey

Our data (MG and bubblers) shows a $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ asymptotic value of 3.55 for increasing H_2S concentrations, very close to the composition obtained with the direct sampling where air dilution is negligible. The observed variation of the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratio with the concentration of H_2S suggests that part of the H_2S is lost due to oxidation processes occurring from the fumaroles to the measuring stations, as observed in other similar contexts by Badalamenti et al. (2001), Carapezza et al. (2003), and Biagi et al. (2022).

If we consider that the H_2S degradation already occurs at only a few centimeters from the fumaroles and that at several meters H_2S was below the detection limit of the bubblers (0.1 ppm), we argue that our modeled gas dispersion must be considered an overestimate. The real H_2S concentrations in the air are certainly lower, minimizing the risk for visitors in the crater.

Conclusions

This study represents an initial attempt to quantify the local-scale dispersion of volcanic gases from Stephanos crater (Nisyros, Greece) by integrating field measurements and numerical modeling, as well as a valuable opportunity to address the methodological constraints in simulating the dispersion of H_2S , which poses challenges due to its rapid degradation and dilution in the atmosphere.

Our results suggested that the DISGAS-2.6.0 model is able to reproduce the order of magnitude of the observed gas concentrations during the April 2023 gas survey. Although this model still does not account for chemical reactions, long-term probabilistic exceedance and persistence maps of H_2S concentration were built using VIGIL-1.3.5 workflow considering a fixed degassing scenario but

randomly varying the meteorological data over the last 30 years. The model outputs indicate that no serious health impacts can be addressed within Stephanos crater considering the present-day H_2S gas fluxes. In order to take into account the effects related to the temporal and spatial loss of H_2S , a new empirical model of H_2S depletion under low-emission conditions is also proposed, accounting for uncertainties associated with field measurements. A simplified flowchart of the adopted procedure is reported in Supplementary Material.

Finally, the proposed methodology can be applied to any other volcanic area and could assist decision-makers in conducting future risk assessments and formulating mitigation strategies in active volcanic regions, such as Nisyros.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00445-024-01779-9>.

Acknowledgements Hersbach et al. (2018a,b) were downloaded from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) (2023). The results contain modified Copernicus Climate Change Service Material 2020. Neither the European Commission nor ECMWF is responsible for any use that may be made of the Copernicus Material or data it contains. We thank Roberto Sulpizio for his precious contribution in the conceptualization of this study. We thank Jacopo Natale for providing the high-resolution photogrammetric DEM used in Figs. 4, 5, and 6. A warm acknowledgement to Sideris for the precious welcome to his Coffee House during the period of the April 2023 gas survey.

Funding This research was supported by the HGME Sub-Project No. 2 «Susceptibility estimation for Landslides in the Hellenic Territory – Volcanic Hazard and Risk Assessment—GEOKA» VOLCANIC SUSCEPTIBILITY ASSESSMENT OF THE HELLENIC TERRITORY. This study was carried out within the RETURN Extended Partnership and received funding from the European Union Next-GenerationEU (National Recovery and Resilience Plan – NRRP, Mission 4, Component 2, Investment 1.3 – D.D. 1243 2/8/2022, PE0000005). SM was also supported by the PON Research and Innovation 2014–2020 project referring to research contracts on green topics (grant no. CODICE CUP H95F21001440006). AC and GB were supported by the EU Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under grant agreement No 858092 (IMPROVE Project). GT was supported by MIUR, grant number project no. PRIN2017-2017LMNLAW “Connect4Carbon.” This work is published with permission of the Executive Director of the British Geological Survey (UKRI).

Data availability Input files of numerical simulations and raw data of the local weather data and gas concentrations provided by the air quality stations are stored in the Supplementary Material.

Code availability DIAGNO model v.1.5.0 (Douglas et al. 1990) can be freely downloaded at <http://datasim.ov.ingv.it/models/diagno.html>.

DISGAS model v.2.6.0 (Costa and Macedonio 2016) can be freely downloaded at <http://datasim.ov.ingv.it/models/disgas.html>.

VIGIL workflow v.1.3.5 (Dioguardi et al. 2022) can be freely downloaded at <https://github.com/BritishGeologicalSurvey/VIGIL>.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

References

- Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) (1999) Toxicological profile for hydrogen sulfide. ATSDR, Atlanta, GA
- Allard P, Carbonnelle J, Dajlevic D, Le Bronec J, Morel P, Robe MC, Maurenas JM, Faivre-Pierret R, Martin D, Sabroux JC, Zettwoog P (1991) Eruptive and diffuse emissions of CO₂ from Mount Etna. *Nature* 351:387–391
- Allard V, Robin C, Newton PCD, Liefvering M, Soussana JF (2006) Short and long-term effects of elevated CO₂ on *Lolium perenne* rhizodeposition and its consequences on soil organic matter turnover and plant N yield. *Soil Biol Biochem* 38(6):1178–1187
- Arellano S, Yalire M, Galle B, Bobrowski A, Dingwell A, Johansson M, Norman P (2017) Long-term monitoring of SO₂ quiescent degassing from Nyiragongo's lava lake. *J African Earth Sci* 134:866–873
- Auker MR, Sparks RSJ, Sieber L, Croweller HS, Ewert J (2013) A statistical analysis of the global historical volcanic fatalities record. *J Applied Volcanol* 2:1–24
- Badalamenti B, Liotta M, Valenza M (2001). An automatic system for continuous monitoring of CO₂, H₂S, SO₂ and meteorological parameters in the atmosphere of volcanic areas. *Geochem Trans* 5. <https://doi.org/10.1039/B104622P>
- Baxter PJ (1990) Medical effects of volcanic eruptions: I. Main causes of death and injury. *Bull of Volcanol* 52:532–544
- Baxter PJ, Kapila M (1989) Acute health impact of the gas release at Lake Nyos, Cameroon, 1986. *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 39(2–3):265–275
- Biagi R, Tassi F, Caliro S, Capecchiacci F, Venturi S (2022). Impact on air quality of carbon and sulfur volatile compounds emitted from hydrothermal discharges: the case study of Pisciarelli (Campi Flegrei, South Italy). *Chemosphere* 297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.134166>
- Biagi R, Ferrari M, Venturi S, Sacco M, Montegrossi G, Tassi F (2024) Development and machine learning-based calibration of low-cost multiparametric stations for the measurement of CO₂ and CH₄ in air. *Heliyon* 10(9):e29772. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e29772>
- Bini G, Chiodini G, Cardellini C, Vougioukalakis GE, Bachmann O (2019) Diffuse emission of CO₂ and convective heat release at Nisyros caldera (Greece). *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 376:44–53
- Bini G, Chiodini G, Calir S, Tassi F, Vaselli O, Rizzo A, Mollo S, Vougioukalakis GE, Bachmann O (2022) Nitrogen, helium, and argon reveal the magmatic signature of fumarole gases and episodes of outgassing from upper-crustal magma reservoirs: the case of the Nisyros caldera (Aegean Arc, Greece). *Geochim Cosmochim Acta* 335:68–84
- Boucher C, Lan T, Marty B, Burnard PG, Fischer TP, Ayalew D, Mabry J, Maarten de Moor J, Zelenski ME, Zimmermann L (2018) Atmospheric helium isotope composition as a tracer of volcanic emissions: a case study of Erta Ale volcano, Ethiopia. *Chem Geol* 480:3–11
- Britter RE, McQuaid JD (1988). Workbook on the dispersion of dense gases, Technical report, HSE Contract Research Report No. 17/1988, Trinity Road Bootle, Merseyside L20 3QY, UK
- Brombach T, Hunziker JC, Chiodini G, Cardellini C, Marini L (2001) Soil diffuse degassing and thermal energy fluxes from the southern Lakki Plain, Nisyros (Greece). *Geophys Res Lett* 28(1):69–72
- Bussotti F, Bottacci A, Grossoni P, Mori B, Tani C (1997) Cytological and structural changes in *Pinus pinus* L. needles following the application of an anionic surfactant. *Plant Cell Environ* 20(4):513–520
- Caliro S, Chiodini G, Galluzzo D, Granieri D, La Rocca M, Saccorotti G, Ventura G (2005) Recent activity of Nisyros volcano (Greece) inferred from structural, geochemical and seismological data. *Bull Volcanol* 67:358–369
- Caliro S, Viveiros F, Chiodini G, Ferreira T (2015) Gas geochemistry of hydrothermal fluids of the S. Miguel and Terceira Islands. *Azores Geochimica Et Cosmochimica Acta* 168:43–57
- Carapezza ML, Badalamenti B, Cavarra L, Scalzo A (2003) Gas hazard assessment in a densely inhabited area of Colli Albani Volcano (Cava dei Selci, Roma). *J Volcanol Geoth Res* 123:81–94. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0377-0273\(03\)00029-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0377-0273(03)00029-5)
- Carapezza ML, Tarchini L, Ancona C, Forastiere F, Ranaldi M, Ricci T, De Simone G, Mataloni F, Pagliuca NM, Barberi F (2023) Health impact of natural gas emission at Cava dei Selci residential zone (metropolitan city of Rome, Italy). *Environ Geochem Health* 45(3):707–729
- Cardellini C, Chiodini G, Frondini F (2003) Application of stochastic simulation to CO₂ flux from soil: mapping and quantification of gas release. *J Geophys Res* 108(B9):2425
- Cardellini C, Chiodini G, Frondini F, Avino R, Bagnato E, Caliro S, Lelli M, Rosiello A (2017) Monitoring diffuse volcanic degassing during volcanic unrests: the case of Campi Flegrei (Italy). *Sci Rep* 7(1):6757
- Chiodini G, Cioni R, Leonis C, Marini L, Raco B (1993) Fluid geochemistry of Nisyros Island, Dodecanese. Greece *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 56(1–2):95–112
- Chiodini G, Cioni R, Guidi M, Raco B, Marini L (1998) Soil CO₂ flux measurements in volcanic and geothermal areas. *Appl Geochem* 13(5):543–552
- Chiodini G, Avino R, Brombach T, Caliro S, Cardellini C, De Vita S, Frondini F, Granieri D, Marotta E, Ventura G (2004) Fumarolic and diffuse soil degassing west of Mount Epomeo, Ischia, Italy *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 133(1–4):291–309
- Chiodini G, Frondini F, Cardellini C, Granieri D, Marini L, Ventura G (2001) CO₂ degassing and energy release at Solfataro volcano, Campi Flegrei, Italy. *J Geophys Res* 106 (B8), 16: 213–16, 221
- Chiodini G, Granieri D, Avino R, Caliro S, Costa A, Werner C (2005) Carbon dioxide diffuse degassing and estimation of heat release from volcanic and hydrothermal systems. *J Geophys Res Solid Earth* 110(B8)
- Chiodini G, Baldini A, Barberi F, Carapezza ML, Cardellini C, Frondini F, Granieri D, Ranaldi M (2007) Carbon dioxide degassing at Latera caldera (Italy): evidence of geothermal reservoir and evaluation of its potential energy. *J Geophys Res Solid Earth* 112(B12)
- Chiodini G (2009) CO₂/CH₄ ratio in fumaroles a powerful tool to detect magma degassing episodes at quiescent volcanoes. *Geophys Res Lett* 36(2)
- Cihacek LJ, Bremner JM (1990) Capacity of soils for sorption of hydrogen sulfide. *Comm in Soil Sci Plant Anal* 21(5–6):351–363
- Cortis A, Oldenburg CM (2009) Short-range atmospheric dispersion of carbon dioxide. *Bound Lay Meteorol* 133(1):17–34. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10546-009-9418-y>

- Costa A, Chiodini G (2015) Modelling air dispersion of CO₂ from limnic eruptions. *Volcanic lakes*. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, pp 451–465
- Costa A, Folch A, Macedonio G (2013) Density-driven transport in the umbrella region of volcanic clouds: implications for tephra dispersion models. *Geophys Res Lett* 40(18):4823–4827
- Costa A, Macedonio G (2016) DISGAS: a model for passive DISpersion of GAS. *Rapporti tecnici INGV*. 332. Istituto Nazionale Di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Italy (2039e7941)
- Costa A, Macedonio G, Chiodini G (2005) Numerical model of gas dispersion emitted from volcanic sources. *Ann Geophys* 48(4–5)
- Cronin SJ, Sharp DS (2002) Environmental impacts on health from continuous volcanic activity at Yasur (Tanna) and Ambrym. Vanuatu. *Int J Environm Health Res* 12(2):109–123
- Dietrich VJ, Lagios E (eds) (2017) Nisyros volcano: the Kos-Yali-Nisyros volcanic field. Springer
- Dioguardi F, Massaro S, Costa A, Chiodini G, Folch A, Macedonio G, Sandri L, Selva J, Tamburello G (2022) VIGIL: a python tool for automatized probabilistic Volcanic Gas dISpersion modelLing. *Ann Geophys* 65(1):DM107. <https://doi.org/10.4401/ag-8796>
- Douglas SG, Kessler RC, Carr EL (1990) User's guide for the Urban Airshed Model. Volume 3. User's manual for the Diagnostic Wind Model (No. PB-91-131243/XAB). Systems Applications, Inc., San Rafael, CA (USA)
- Edmonds M, Grattan J, Michnowicz S (2018) Volcanic gases: silent killers. *Observing the Volcano World: Volcano Crisis Communication* 65–83
- European Union (2009) Directive 2009/161/EU - indicative occupational exposure limit values. [https://osha.europa.eu/en/legislation/directives/commission-directive-2009-161-eu-indicative-occupational-exposure-limit-values_!!NLFgqXoFfo8MMQ!ttLq7IH4zL0kFCDX5tvdTbVpKpYfJ380c3UjZtmNSLclggt2dbf8fMUjTolWzPsj6nTFZ0P9dYkQbh4rqaShMc4L_Sg\\$](https://osha.europa.eu/en/legislation/directives/commission-directive-2009-161-eu-indicative-occupational-exposure-limit-values_!!NLFgqXoFfo8MMQ!ttLq7IH4zL0kFCDX5tvdTbVpKpYfJ380c3UjZtmNSLclggt2dbf8fMUjTolWzPsj6nTFZ0P9dYkQbh4rqaShMc4L_Sg$)
- Folch A, Costa A, Hankin RKS (2009) TWODEE-2: a shallow layer model for dense gas dispersion on complex topography. *Comput Geosci* 35:667–674
- Gagliano AL, Calabrese S, Daskalopoulou K, Cabassi J, Capecchiacci F, Tassi F, D'Alessandro W, (2019) Degassing and cycling of mercury at Nisyros volcano (Greece). *Geofluids*, ID 4783514, <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/4783514>
- Granieri D, Chiodini G, Marzocchi W, Avino R (2003) Continuous monitoring of CO₂ soil diffuse degassing at Phlegraean Fields (Italy): influence of environmental and volcanic parameters. *Earth Planet Sci Lett* 212(1–2):167–179
- Guidotti TL (2010) Hydrogen sulfide: advances in understanding human toxicity. *International J Toxicol* 29(6):569–581
- Hersbach H, Bell B, Berrisford P, Biavati G, Horányi A, Muñoz Sabater J, Nicolas J, Peubey C, Radu R, Rozum I, Schepers D, Simmons A, Soci C, Dee D, Thépaut JN (2018a) ERA5 hourly data on single levels from 1940 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS). <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47>. Accessed on 30–12–2023
- Hersbach H, Bell B, Berrisford P, Biavati G, Horányi A, Muñoz Sabater J, Nicolas J, Peubey C, Radu R, Rozum I, Schepers D, Simmons A, Soci C, Dee D, Thépaut JN (2018b) ERA5 hourly data on pressure levels from 1940 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS). <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47>. Accessed on 30–12–2023
- Kern C, Lerner AH, Elias T, Nadeau PA, Holland L, Kelly PJ, Werner CA, Clor LE, Cappos M (2020) Quantifying gas emissions associated with the 2018 rift eruption of Kilauea volcano using ground-based DOAS measurements. *Bull Volcanol* 82(7):55
- Kristmannsdóttir H, Sigurgeirsson M, Ármannsson H, Hjartarson H, Ólafsson M (2000) Sulfur gas emissions from geothermal power plants in Iceland. *Geothermics* 29(4–5):525–538
- Lambert TW, Goodwin VM, Stefani D, Strosher L (2006) Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) and sour gas effects on the eye. A historical perspective. *Sci Total Environ* 367(1):1–22
- Linhares D, Garcia PV, Viveiros F, Ferreira T, Rodrigues ADS (2015) Air pollution by hydrothermal volcanism and human pulmonary function. *Biomed Res Int* 2015(1):326794
- Marini L, Principe C, Chiodini G, Cioni R, Fytikas M, Marinelli G (1993) Hydrothermal eruptions of Nisyros (Dodecanese, Greece). Past events and present hazard. *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 56:71–94
- Marini L, Fiebig J (2005) Fluid geochemistry of the magmatic-hydrothermal system of Nisyros (Greece)
- Massaro S, Stocchi M, Tamburello G, Costa A, Sandri L, Caliro S, Chiodini G, Selva J, Dioguardi F, Folch A (2022) Validating gas dispersion modelling at La Solfatara (Campi Flegrei, South Italy). *Nuovo Cimento Soc Ital Fis C* 45(6):186
- Massaro S, Dioguardi F, Sandri L, Tamburello G, Selva J, Moune S, Jessop DE, Moretti R, Komorowski JC, Costa A (2021) Testing gas dispersion modelling: a case study at La Soufrière volcano (Guadeloupe, Lesser Antilles). *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 417. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvolgeores.2021.107312>
- Montegrossi G, Tassi F, Vaselli O, Bucciante A, Garofalo K (2001) Sulfur species in volcanic gases. *Anal Chem* 73(15):3709–3715. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ac001429b>
- Olafsdóttir S, Gardarsson SM, Andradóttir HO (2014) Natural near field sinks of hydrogen sulfide from two geothermal power plants in Iceland. *Atm Environm* 96:236–244
- Papadopoulos GA, Sachpazi M, Panopoulou G, Stavrakakis G (1998) The volcanoseismic crisis of 1996–97 in Nisyros, SE Aegean Sea, Greece. *Terra Nova* 10:151–154
- Pebesma EJ (2004) Multivariable geostatistics in S: the gstat package. *Comput Geosci* 30(7):683–691
- Pecoraino G, Scalici L, Avellone G, Ceraulo L, Favara R, Candela EG, Scaletta C (2008) Distribution of volatile organic compounds in Sicilian groundwaters analysed by head space-solid phase micro extraction coupled with gas chromatography mass spectrometry (SPME/GC/MS). *Water Res* 42(14):3563–3577
- Popa RG, Bachmann O, Ellis BS, Degruyter W, Tollan P, Kyriakopoulos K (2019) A connection between magma chamber processes and eruptive styles revealed at Nisyros-Yali volcano (Greece). *J Volcanol Geoth Res* 387:106666
- Popa RG, Guillong M, Bachmann O, Szymanowski D, Ellis B (2020) U-Th zircon dating reveals a correlation between eruptive styles and repose periods at the Nisyros-Yali volcanic area, Greece. *Chem Geol* 555:119830
- R Core Team (2023) R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <https://www.R-project.org/>
- Rafflin V, Boudoire G, Massaro S, Stocchi M, Costa Grassa F, Giuffrida G, Gailler L, Liuzzo M, Planche C, Banson S, Harris A (2024) Modelling CO₂ dispersion in the air during potential limnic eruption at the lake Pavin (France). *J Volcanol Geoth Res* 447:108024
- Rickard D, Luther GW (2007) Chemistry of iron sulfides. *Chem Rev* 107(2):514–562
- Santana MC, Weir A, Rumbelha WK (2022) A comprehensive review of treatments for hydrogen sulfide poisoning: past, present, and future. *Toxicol Mech Methods* 33(3):183–196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15376516.2022.2121192>
- State of Hawaii (2002) Report on hazard evaluation and emergency response office activities for FY 2001. Department of Health, State of Hawaii
- Stewart C, Damby DE, Horwell CJ, Elias T, Ilyinskaya E, Tomašek I, Longo BM, Schmidt A, Carlsen HK, Mason E, Baxter PJ, Cronin S, Witham C (2022) Volcanic air pollution and human health: recent advances and future directions. *Bull Volcanol* 84(1):11

- Symonds RB (1994) Volcanic-gas studies: methods, results, and applications, in Volatiles in magma. *Rev Mineral* 30:1–66
- Symonds RB, Gerlach TM, Reed MH (2001) Magmatic gas scrubbing: implications for volcano monitoring. *J Volcanol Geoth Res* 108(1–4):303–341
- Tamburello G (2015) Ratiocalc: software for processing data from multicomponent volcanic gas analyzers. *Comput Geosci* 82:63–67
- Thorsteinsson T, Hackenbruch J, Sveinbjörnsson E, Jóhannsson T (2013) Statistical assessment and modeling of the effects of weather conditions on H₂S plume dispersal from Icelandic geothermal power plants. *Geothermics* 45:31–40
- Tibaldi A, Pasquare FA, Papanikolaou D, Nomikou P (2008) Tectonics of Nisyros Island, Greece, by field and offshore data, and analogue modelling. *J Struct Geol* 30(12):1489–1506
- Toutain JP, Baubron JC, François L (2002) Runoff control of soil degassing at an active volcano. The case of Piton de la Fournaise, Réunion Island. *Earth Planet Sci Lett* 197(1–2):83–94
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S.EPA) (2003) IRIS record for hydrogen sulfide. https://iris.epa.gov/static/pdfs/0061_summary.pdf
- van Manen SM (2014) Perception of a chronic volcanic hazard: persistent degassing at Masaya volcano. *Nicaragua J Applied Volcanol* 3(1):1–16
- Vaselli O, Tassi F, Giannini L, Capaccioni B, Montegrossi G (2006) Sampling and analysis of volcanic gases. *Sampling and Analysis of Volcanic Gases* 1000–1012
- Viveiros F, Cardellini C, Ferreira T, Silva C (2012) Contribution of CO₂ emitted to the atmosphere by diffuse degassing from volcanoes: the Furnas Volcano case study. *Intern J Global Warm* 4(3–4):287–304
- Viveiros F, Baldoni E, Massaro S, Stocchi M, Costa A, Caliro S, Chiodini G, Andrade C (2023) Quantification of CO₂ degassing and atmospheric dispersion at Caldeiras da Ribeira Grande (São Miguel Island, Azores). *J Volcanol Geotherm Res* 438:107807
- Vougioukalakis G (1993) Volcanic stratigraphy and evolution of Nisyros Island. *Bull Geol Soc Greece* 28(2):239–258
- Watson AJ, Lovelock JE, Margulis L (1978) Methanogenesis, weathering and the regulation of atmospheric oxygen. *Nature* 272:189–192. <https://doi.org/10.1038/272189a0>
- Watts SF (2000) The mass budgets of carbonyl sulfide, dimethyl sulfide, carbon disulfide and hydrogen sulfide. *Atm Environm* 34(5):761–779
- Williams-Jones G, Rymer H (2015) Hazards of volcanic gases. In: *The encyclopedia of volcanoes*. Academic Press, pp 985–992
- World Health Organization (2000) Air quality guidelines for Europe, 2nd edn. World Health Organization, Regional Office for Europe
- World Health Organization (1981) Disability prevention and rehabilitation: report of the WHO Expert Committee on Disability Prevention and Rehabilitation [meeting held in Geneva from 17 to 23 February 1981]