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Research papers Origin of light hydrocarbons in gases from mud volcanoes and CH₄-rich emissions

F. Tassi ^{a,b,*}, M. Bonini ^b, G. Montegrossi ^b, F. Capecchiacci ^{a,b}, B. Capaccioni ^c, O. Vaselli ^{a,b}

^a Dept. of Earth Sciences, University of Florence, via G. La Pira 4, 50121 Florence, Italy

^b CNR-IGG Institute of Geosciences and Earth Resources, via G. La Pira 4, 50121 Florence, Italy

^c Dept. of Earth and Geological-Environmental Sciences, University of Bologna, P.zza di Porta S. Donato, 40127 Bologna, Italy

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents new chemical data of hydrocarbon-rich gases discharged from mud volcanoes and CH₄-rich emissions located in different areas of Italy (Northern Apennines and Sicily). The determination of C₅–C₁₀ alkanes, cyclics and aromatics was carried out by GC–MS, while the main gas species and C₁–C₄ hydrocarbons were analyzed by GC-TDC and GC-FID, respectively. Methane is by far the most abundant component of all the investigated gas emissions, with the exception of part of those discharging close to Mt. Etna volcano, which are CO₂-rich. The gas samples collected from the Emilia Apennine and Sicily show δ D–CH₄ and δ ¹³C–CH₄ values typical of thermogenic gases. Most gases from the Romagna Apennine discharge methane with a biogenic isotopic signature. Non-methane hydrocarbons of biogenic gases are almost exclusively C₂–C₄ alkanes, with minor amounts (fraction of µmol/mol) of C₄₊ compounds, including few aromatics and cyclics, likely deriving from minor thermogenic contribution not evidenced by the δ ¹³C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ values. The Etnean gases, whose R/Ra and δ ¹³C–CO₂ values indicate a strong contribution from a hydrothermal fluid source related to the nearby volcanic system, show a significant enrichment of aromatics compounds (up to 36% of the non-methane organic gas fraction), which is likely produced by catalytic reforming processes, such as dehydrocyclization of alkanes.

The thermogenic gases from the Apennines and southwestern Sicily are characterized by the presence of more than 20 different cyclic compounds with concentrations up to several µmol/mol. Cyclic compounds are likely formed by i) thermal cracking and ii) uncompleted aromatization of alkanes occurring at depth > 3 km and temperatures not exceeding 120–150 °C.

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1. Introduction

Mud volcano is a non-genetic, descriptive term that is referred to a superficial geological phenomenon in which a complex mixture of gas (mainly CH₄), liquid and solid material is continuously or explosively excreted at the surface mostly in a sedimentary environment due to pressurized fluids at depth. Mud volcanoes of variable shape and size (from a few m² to more than 100–200 km²) occur in both subaerial and sub-marine environments. They are formed as a result of the extrusion of mud, clasts and fluids caused by the release of high-pressure mud trapped at depth driven by very different mechanisms, such as rapid pressurization in a sedimentary basin and/or buoyancy (Milkov, 2000; Dimitrov, 2002; Kopf, 2002). Occasionally, they are the loci of explosive and paroxysmal events possibly triggered by seismic events, fault failure and drilling (Manga et al., 2009, and references therein). Mud volcanoes are often associated with rapid, subduction-related burying of organic-rich sediments, mainly located along convergent plate margins, where sediments,

E-mail address: franco.tassi@unifi.it (F. Tassi).

accumulated in deep-sea trenches at high rates, are affected by increasing stresses and temperatures related to the subduction process (Higgins and Saunders, 1974; Brown, 1990; Fryer, 1996; Kopf et al., 2001; Kopf, 2002; Deville et al., 2003; Yassir, 2003).

More than 900 continental mud volcanoes are recognized worldwide, whereas thousands of mud volcanoes supposedly occur in deep water areas (Milkov, 2000, 2005; Milkov et al., 2003; Etiope and Milkov, 2004). The origin of water discharged from mud volcanoes may be related to migration of formation waters, brines, freshened waters from mineral dehydration reactions or gas hydrate dissociation, and meteoric water (Martin et al., 1996; Robertson and Ocean Drilling Program Leg 160 Scientific Party, 1996; Slack et al., 1998). The gas phase typically consists of CH₄, with relevant concentrations of CO₂ and higher hydrocarbons (e.g. Stamatakis et al., 1987; Lavrushin et al., 1996; Blinova et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2005). On the contrary, mud volcanoes located near volcanic areas emit CO2rich gases (e.g., Chiodini et al., 1996; Giammanco et al., 2007). Investigations on the origin of light hydrocarbon gases discharged from emissions in different natural environments generally rely on the chemical and stable isotopic compositions of light alkanes (Bernard et al., 1978; Schoell, 1980, 1983, 1988; Chung et al., 1988; Whiticar, 1999). Noble gas isotopes and ${}^{14}C-CH_4$ age dating can be used to

^{*} Corresponding author at: Dept. of Earth Sciences, University of Florence, via G. La Pira 4, 50121 Florence, Italy. Tel: + 39 0552757477; fax: + 39 055284571.

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distinguish abiogenic vs. biogenic sources and fossil vs. recent diagenetic origins, respectively (Kessler et al., 2005; Sherwood Lollar et al., 2006). Misleading information from these geochemical parameters can be caused by secondary post-diagenetic processes, such as oxidation and molecular separation during migration of CH₄-rich fluids (James and Burns, 1984; Etiope et al., 2009a). According to the classification proposed by Etiope et al. (2009a), more than 76% of the terrestrial mud volcanoes from 12 different countries discharge thermogenic CH₄, i.e. produced by degradation of organic matter occurring within relatively deep reservoirs at temperatures > 100 °C.

Plinius, in his *Historia Mundi Naturalis* (77 AD), has provided the very first description of the Italian mud volcanoes. They mostly occur along the external compressive margin of the Apennine chain (Pellegrini et al., 1982; Martinelli and Judd, 2004). They are relatively small (up to 3–4 m in height) and characterized by rare explosive events that are occasionally related to local seismic activity (Martinelli et al., 1989; Bonini, 2009). Studies on the origin of gases from the Italian mud volcanoes based both on the main chemical composition and on stable isotopes of methane suggest that they are mostly related to thermogenic processes (Capozzi and Picotti, 2002; Grassa et al., 2004; Etiope et al., 2007, 2009a,b).

In the present work we report original data of hydrocarbons emitted from mud volcanoes, located in northern (Emilia-Romagna) and southern (Sicily) Italy. The dataset includes two CH₄-rich gas vents and one well located at Portico di Romagna and Bagno di Romagna, respectively, as well as a CH₄-rich bubbling gas emission located at Fondachello, along the southeastern Sicilian coast. Most of the mud volcanoes and gas emissions of the present paper were already investigated by previous authors on the basis of the composition of the major compounds and the isotopic signatures of CH₄ and CO₂ (e.g., Chiodini et al., 1996; D'Alessandro et al., 1997; Minissale et al., 2000; Capozzi and Picotti, 2002, 2010; Grassa et al., 2004; Pecoraino and Giammanco, 2005; Rizzo et al., 2006; Etiope et al., 2007, 2009a,b). We focused this study on the composition of C_2-C_{10} alkane, cyclic and aromatic compounds. At our best knowledge, in the literature a complete dataset of hydrocarbons of gases from mud volcanoes as that presented in this work is not available. The aims of this work are to: i) provide new insights on the origin of these organic gases, and ii) investigate the chemical–physical conditions acting at the fluid source and their relation with the regional/local geological and tectonic setting.

2. Regional setting of mud volcanoes of Italy

The Apennine fold-and-thrust belt developed in the framework of the European-African convergence, as a result of convergence and subduction of oceanic and continental crust at the collisional boundaries of the Corsica–Sardinia and Calabrian microplates, and Adria– Africa margins (e.g., Boccaletti et al., 1971; Malinverno and Ryan, 1986; Royden et al., 1987; Dewey et al., 1989). Mud volcanoes of Italy basically occur along the external front of this belt at three main geographical locations, namely: 1) Northern Apennines (Pede– Apennine margin of Emilia-Romagna), 2) Central Apennines (eastern Marche-Abruzzo), and 3) Sicily (Martinelli and Judd, 2004; see Fig. 1a).

2.1. Northern Apennine mud volcanoes

The Northern Apennines is a thrust belt-foredeep-foreland system, in which Late Oligocene–Miocene siliciclastic turbidite sequences have



Fig. 1. (a) Geographic and tectonic location of mud volcanoes of Italy (modified from Bonini, 2009). (b) Geological and structural sketch map of the Emilia-Romagna Apennines, showing the position of the main mud volcanoes and methane vent fields (modified form Bonini, 2007). Location of deep wells is from Videpi Project (available at www.videpi. com). Acronyms of mud volcanoes (sampled: red circle; not sampled: blue circle) are: Ri, Rivalta; To, Torre; C–Q. Casola–Querzola; Re, Regnano; Mc, Macognano; Ca, Canalina; Mg, Montegibbio; Mo, Montardone; Ce, Centora; Fi, Fiorano; Ni, Nirano; Pu, Puianello; Os, Ospitaletto; DdS, Dragone di Sassuno; Se, Val Sellustra; Cf, Casalfiumanese; Be, Bergullo; Acronym of the sampled dry methane seep (violet circle): PdR, Portico di Romagna; Acronym of the sampled well (green circle): BdR, Bagno di Romagna. Acronyms of the considered deep wells: PO1, Pozzolo 1; MB1, Monte Bosso1; TC1, Torre Chiara 1; QU1, Querciola 1; VI1, Viano 1; BA1, Baiso 1; LE1, Levizzano 1; RC1, Rio Ciano 1; RA1, Radicosa 1; VA1, Varignana 1; PA1, Palazzuolo 1; MA1, Marradi 1; MF2, Montefreddo 2; SP1, Spinello 1; MP1, Montepietra 1. (c) Schematic lithostratigraphic column showing the position of the web version of this article.)

filled the foredeep basins that developed in front of the northeastwardmigrating chain (Ricci Lucchi, 1986; Boccaletti et al., 1990). Sedimentation in the foredeep basins was interrupted by the progressive overthrusting of the Ligurian Units (LU; i.e., highly-tectonized ophiolites and their Jurassic to Eocene sedimentary cover), which achieved their current tectonic position as uppermost units in the Apennine nappe pile (e.g., Principi and Treves, 1984). The exposed Northern Apennine belt can be distinguished into two sectors: i) the Emilia Apennines to the northwest and ii) the Romagna Apennines to the southeast (Fig. 1b). The LU are mainly outcropping in the Emilia Apennines, with the underlying siliciclastic deposits being exposed only at tectonic windows and along the axial ridge. In contrast, the Romagna Apennines are characterized by the dominant outcropping of the Marnoso Arenacea foredeep siliciclastic sequence, with the LU cropping out as tectonic 'klippes' (Fig. 1b).

Mud volcanoes of relatively small size occur dominantly in the Emilia Apennines, where they are closely associated with the presence of LU in outcrop, and also when the LU are overlain by Messinian-to-Early Pleistocene deposits (Fig. 1b). In the Romagna Apennines, where the LU are thin or totally missing, the presence of mud volcanoes is restricted to an area southwest of Imola (Fig. 1b). The Emilia and Romagna mud volcanoes are roughly distributed sub-parallel to the Apennine foothills and adjacent to the Pede–Apennine margin. The latter represents the main physiographic element separating an uplifted and exposed accretionary wedge from the topographically flat Po river Plain, where the most external thrusts are buried beneath Pliocene–Quaternary sediments (Pieri and Groppi, 1981; Fig. 1b).

Mud volcanoes and seeps are closely related to petroleum systems, which in this region are considered to include three oil reservoirs, named (e.g., Lindquist, 1999): (1) Porto Garibaldi (Plio-Pleistocene and minor Miocene biogenic gas); (2) Marnoso Arenacea (Tertiary thermal gas, oil and condensate), and (3) Meride/Riva di Solto (Triassic thermal oil and gas). The position of the main hydrocarbon reservoirs, source and sealing rocks in the sedimentary sequence is shown in Fig. 1c. The mud volcanoes settled in the LU are driven by thermogenic methane (Etiope et al., 2007) that is likely sourced from both the Marnoso Arenacea, which attains thickness exceeding 3 km, and deeper, mostly Triassic, rocks (Riva, et al., 1986; Pieri, 2001; Capozzi and Picotti, 2002, 2010). In this view, the escaping methane would represent a mixing derived from the Marnoso Arenacea and Meride/Riva di Solto total petroleum systems. The Marnoso Arenacea sequence also provides most of the formation water expelled from the mud volcanoes (Lindquist, 1999; Capozzi and Picotti, 2002). Although heterogeneous, the LU act as an efficient impermeable barrier to the vertical migration of the ascending fluids. This suggests that fluid overpressure produced by the fluids accumulating underneath the impermeable LU represents a primary cause controlling mud volcanism (Bonini, 2007). A similar role is likely played by the Pliocene-Pleistocene claystones for the smallsized Romagna mud volcanoes, which are driven by biogenic methane (Etiope et al., 2007) of the Porto Garibaldi petroleum system (Fig. 1b).

2.2. Sicily mud volcanoes

The southward-verging Apennine–Maghrebian fold-and-thrust belt of Sicily is a Neogene–Quaternary thin-skinned accretionary wedge that progressively migrated southward over the Pelagian– African foreland. During this movement, stratigraphic successions pertaining to different Late Paleozoic to Cenozoic paleogeographic domains were involved (Ghisetti and Vezzani, 1984; Lentini et al., 1991, 1994; Butler et al., 1992; Catalano et al., 1996, 2000a, b; Finetti et al., 2005). At a regional scale, the Apennine–Maghrebian collision belt is interpreted as being tectonically sandwiched between two imbricated continental blocks: i) the Panormide block on the hanging-wall, whose leading edge is manifested by a major E–W-trending crustal oblique thrust (i.e., the Mount Kumeta– Alcantara Fault; Ghisetti and Vezzani, 1984), and ii) the Pelagian block made of African crust on the thrust belt footwall (Roure et al., 1990; Finetti et al., 2005; Catalano et al., 2011; Fig. 2). South of the Mount Kumeta–Alcantara fault the Apennine–Maghrebian fold-andtrust belt consists of a thick clastic sequence of Miocene–Pliocene sediments deposited in a system of amalgamated thrust-top basins (e.g., Butler et al, 1992; Catalano et al., 2000a, b). The Siculo-Calabrian Rift Zone delimits the Apennine–Maghrebian collision belt to the east, deforming the Ionian offshore area and the easternmost sector of Sicily, including the eastern flank of the Mount Etna volcano (Monaco and Tortorici, 2000; Catalano et al., 2008; Fig. 2).

The petroleum systems of Sicily are associated with both the (1) Neogene Apennine-Maghrebian fold-and-thrust belt and its (2) Pelagian foreland, where oil and thermogenic gases are related to Late Triassic-Early Jurassic source rocks and similarly aged traps (Granath and Casero, 2004; Bertello et al., 2008). Mud volcanoes occur in eastern and south-western Sicily (Fig. 2) essentially over the thick clastic sequences filling the system of Miocene to Pleistocene foredeep and piggy-back basins (Caltanissetta Basin). Mud volcanoes and other seeps of Sicily release either thermogenic methane or gases with isotope signatures that were interpreted as produced by mixing of thermogenic and microbial gases (Grassa et al., 2004). The origin of gases driving most of the mud volcanoes and seeps of central Sicily is presumably related to the presence of commercial hydrocarbons in the Apennine-Maghrebian fold-and-thrust belt, consisting of thermo- and biogenic gas-charged Tertiary reservoirs (Granath and Casero, 2004; Bertello et al., 2008). However, it is also possible that part of the thermogenic gas could be released from the deeper petroleum system through deeply rooted faults, such as for the normal faults around the Mount Etna volcano (Fig. 2).

3. Methods

3.1. Gas sampling

Gases of mud volcanoes and from CH₄-rich emissions were sampled using a plastic funnel up-side-down positioned above the bubbling mud pools and connected through silicone/tygon tubes to preevacuated 250 mL glass flasks equipped with Thorion® valves (Vaselli et al., 2006). The same apparatus was used to collected gases emitted from the CH₄-rich vents of Portico di Romagna. Dissolved gases from the Bagno di Romagna well, where no free gas was available, were collected using the "equilibrated headspace" method described by Chiodini (1996). The CO₂-rich gases were also collected with pre-evacuated 50 mL glass flasks partly filled with a 4 M NaOH solution for the determination of the major gases. Carbon dioxide solubilizes into the alkaline solution, whereas CH₄, N₂, O₂ and noble gases accumulate in gas vial headspace (Vaselli et al., 2006).

3.2. Analysis of the main gas species

The analysis of the main gas compounds (CH₄, CO₂, N₂, Ar, O₂ and He) was carried out using a Shimadzu 15A Gas Chromatographic (GC) system equipped with a 9 m long molecular sieve column and Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD). Carbon dioxide in the CO₂-rich gases was analyzed in the alkaline solution as CO_3^{2-} by acidimetric titration with 0.1 N HCl. The C₂-C₄ alkanes were analyzed with a Shimadzu 14A gas-chromatograph equipped with a Flame Ionization Detector (FID) using a 10 m long stainless steel column packed with Chromosorb PAW 80/100 mesh coated with 23% SP 1700. The analytical error for both the GC and titration analysis is <5%.



Fig. 2. Geological structural sketch map of Sicily (compiled and modified from Catalano et al., 2000a, b, 2008; Accaino et al., 2011). The position of the main mud volcanoes (sampled: red circle; not sampled: blue circle) and the Fuoco di Censo dry methane seep (violet circle) is also indicated (after Etiope et al., 2002; Grassa et al., 2004). Acronyms of mud volcanoes (sampled: red circle; not sampled: blue circle) are: Ma, Maccalube di Aragona; Si, Simeto; St, Stadio; Fo, Fondachello; MS, Monte Sara; SB, Santa Barbara; VS, Vallone Salato. Acronym of the sampled dry methane seep (violet circle): FdC, Fuoco di Censo. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

3.3. Analysis of the C_{4+} hydrocarbons

The C_{4+} hydrocarbons were analyzed by GC–MS (Gas Chromatography coupled with Mass Spectrometry) using the Solid Phase Micro-Extraction (SPME) technique (Arthur and Pawliszyn, 1990) to extract volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from the gas mixture and inject them in the GC-MS (Davoli et al., 2003; Mangani et al., 2003; Florez Menendez et al., 2004). From an operative point of view, gases are transferred from the sampling glass flasks into a pre-evacuated 10 mL glass vial sealed with a silicone rubber membrane. A manual SPME device is introduced through the silicon membrane into the vial to expose the gaseous mixtures to a divinylbenzene (DVB)-Carboxen-polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), 50/30 µm, 2 cm long fiber assembly (Supelco; Bellefonte, PA, USA) for 15 min. A Thermo Trace GC Ultra gas chromatograph coupled with a Thermo DSQ Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer is used for analytical separation and detection (Tassi et al., 2011). The mass spectrometer operates in full scan mode, in the mass range 40-400 m/z. The transfer-line temperature is set at 230 °C. The mass detector is equipped with EI with an ionization energy of 70 eV, whereas the source temperature is 250 °C. The gas chromatograph is equipped with a split/ splitless injection port operating in the splitless mode with a dedicated SPME liner (0.75 mm i.d.). Analytes are desorbed from the SPME fiber through direct exposure at 230 °C for 2 min in the GC injection port. The chromatographic column is a 30 m \times 0.25 mm i.d. 1.4 µm film thickness TR-V1 fused silica capillary column (Thermo). The carrier gas is helium set to a flow-rate of 1.3 mL/ min in constant pressure mode. The column oven temperature program is, as follows: 35 °C (hold: 10 min), ramp at 5.5 °C/min to 180 °C (hold: 3 min), ramp at 20 °C/min up to 230 °C (hold: 6 min). The organic compounds detected by the quadrupole detector are identified according both to their retention time of the chromatographic peak and to their mass spectra. The mass spectra database of the NIST05 library (NIST, 1995) is used for comparison. Quantitative analyses were performed using an external standard calibration procedure on the basis of calibration curves constructed measuring the instrumental signal of Accustandard® standard mixtures of compounds pertaining to the following functional groups: alkanes (12 C₄–C₁₀ alkanes, at concentrations ranging from 100 to 200 ppbv), cyclic compounds (5 C_5 - C_6 species, at 20 ppbv), aromatic compounds (15 species at concentrations ranging from 100 to 5000 ppbv) (Tassi et al., 2011). The values of the Relative Standard Deviation (RSD), calculated from five replicate analyses of the gas mixture in which the compounds of interest are present at a concentration of 50 ppbv, were <5%. The limit of quantification (LOQ) was determined by linear extrapolation from the lowest standard in the calibration curve using the area of a peak having a signal/noise ratio of 5 (Mangani et al., 2003).

3.4. Analysis of the δ^{13} C–CO₂, δ^{13} C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ ratios

The ¹³C/¹²C ratios of CO₂ (expressed as δ^{13} C–CO₂‰ V-PDB) were measured with a Finningan Delta S mass spectrometer after purification of the gas mixture by standard procedures (Evans et al., 1998). Internal (Carrara and San Vincenzo marbles) and international (NBS18 and NBS19) standards were used in order to estimate external precision. Analytical error and the reproducibility were ± 0.1 ‰.

The analyses of the ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ and ${}^{2}H/{}^{1}H$ ratios of CH₄ (expressed as $\delta^{13}C$ –CH₄‰ V-PDB and δ D–CH₄, ‰ V-SMOW, respectively) were

performed by mass spectrometry (Varian MAT 250) according to the procedure described by Schoell (1980). Analytical error was $\pm 0.15\%$.

4. Results

4.1. Chemical composition of the main gases

The chemical composition of the main gas compounds (in mmol/ mol) of the 21 gas discharges (13 mud volcanoes (Fig. 3a), 2 dry gas vents (Fig. 3b), 1 well from Emilia-Romagna (Fig. 1b), and 4 mud volcanoes and 1 bubbling gas from Sicily, southern Italy (Fig. 2)), analyzed in the present study, is reported in Table 1. These gases are dominated by CH₄ that ranges from 931 to 988 mmol/mol, with the only exception of the Vallone Salato (VS), Simeto (Si) and Stadio (St) gases (Fig. 2), which have relatively high CO₂ concentrations (from 582 to 935 mmol/mol). Significant contents of N₂, CO₂, O₂ and Ar (up to 41.5, 17.9, 2.85 and 1.05 mmol/mol, respectively) characterize the CH₄-dominated gases, whereas He does not exceed 0.026 mmol/mol. VS, Si and St gases have significant CH₄ (up to 390 mmol/mol) contents, whereas those of N₂, O₂ and Ar are in the same range as those in the CH₄-dominated gases.

4.2. δ^{13} C–CO₂, δ^{13} C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ ratios

The δ^{13} C–CO₂ values in the CH₄-dominated gas discharges (Table 2) vary within a wide range, comprised between -13.3 and 35.6% V-PDB, whereas those in the CO₂-rich gases are quite similar (ranging from -2.11 to 0.14% V-PDB). Most gases pertaining to the former group have δ^{13} C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ values clustering between -47.5 to -39.6% V-PDB and -182 to -170% V-SMOW, respectively. Similar carbon and hydrogen isotopic values were measured in CH₄ of the three CO₂-rich gas samples. On the contrary, Dragone di Sassuno (DdS), Bergullo (Be), Cà Robano (CR) and Bagno di Romagna (BdR) gases show more negative δ^{13} C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ values (<-60% V-PDB and >-192% V-SMOW, respectively).

4.3. Chemical composition of C_2 - C_{10} hydrocarbons

Up to 54 different hydrocarbons, pertaining to the alkane (27 compounds), aromatic (4 compounds) and cyclic (23 compounds)

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groups, were recognized (Table 2). The total hydrocarbon abundances range from 235 to 3410 µmol/mol. Ethane concentrations are up to one order of magnitude higher than the sum of all other alkanes. Benzene is the most abundant aromatic compound, although its concentrations in the CH₄-dominated gases slightly exceed those of C₇H₈. On the contrary, the C_6H_6/C_7H_8 ratios of the CO₂-rich gases reach values as high as 73. Methylated C₅, C₆ and C₈ cyclics show higher concentrations than those having ethyl, propyl and butyl branches. The alkane/100-cyclic-aromatic ternary diagram (Fig. 4) allows to distinguish three different groups of gases: 1) "MVA", including the CH₄-dominated gases from the Emilia Apennines, i.e. Rivalta (Ri), Torre (To), Casola-Querzola (C-Q), Macognano (Ma), Regnano (Re), Canalina (Ca), Puianello (Pu), Nirano (Ni), Montegibbio (Mg), Ospitaletto (Os), Portico di Romagna (PdR1 and PdR2) (Fig. 1b), and the Maccalube di Aragona (Ma) gas from Sicily (Fig. 2), display proportionally high concentrations of cyclic compounds; 2) "MVB", consisting of the three CO₂-rich gases (VS, Si and St; Fig. 2) and the CH₄-rich gas from Fondachello (Fo) (Fig. 2), is dominated by aromatics; 3) "MVC", which has relatively low concentrations of both cyclic and aromatic compounds and includes the DdS, Be and CR mud volcanoes and the BdR well (Fig. 1b).

5. Discussion

5.1. Origin of gas compounds

The investigated gas emissions show N₂/Ar ratios ranging from 40 to 53, i.e. intermediate between those of air saturated water (ASW: N₂/Ar = 38.3 at 20 °C in pure water) and air (83.6). This suggests that N₂ and Ar have an atmospheric origin and are mainly added to the uprising gases as air dissolved in the meteoric water that recharges the system. The relatively low O₂ concentrations (\leq 2.85 mmol/mol) indicate that air contamination of the gas samples have occurred during the gas sampling only at limited extent. Helium in the CH₄-dominated gases from Emilia-Romagna is mostly produced by the decay of radiogenic elements within the crust, as indicated by the relatively low ³He/⁴He ratios (<1 R/R_a, where R is the ³He/⁴He measured ratio and R_a is the ³He/⁴He ratio in air: 1.39×10^{-6} ; Mamyrin and Tolstikhin, 1984) reported in literature (Minissale et al., 2000). The isotopic composition of He (R/R_a ~6.5) of the MVB gases (Allard et al., 1997;



Fig. 3. (a) View of a typical mud volcano of the Emilia Apennines (Puianello); the tallest cone in the background is ca. 3 m high. (b) Everlasting fire fed by a CH₄ emission at Portico di Romagna (July 2010).

are expressed as	: % V-PDB and	% V-SMOW,	respectivel	ly; n.a.: not	analyzed																
	Ri	To	C-Q	Mc	Re	Ca	Pu	Ni	Mg	Os	PdR1	PdR2	SpG	CR E	3e E	3dR	Ma	VS	Fo	St	Si
	N44°3	N44°37′	N44°3	N44°21	N44°3	N44°2	N44°2	N44°30′	N44°3	N44°2	N44°0	N44°0	N44°2	N44°1 N	V44°1 N	143°5 I	N37°2	N37°3	N37°7	N37°3	N37°3
	7′50″	16″	4'26"	'11.5"	3'29"	4'50"	7'57"	49″	1'07"	6'22"	2'47"	2'47"	,60,0	5'04" &	3/39" 0	1.02"	2'32"	2'40"	6'77"	4'22"	4'05"
	E10°1	E10°20′	E10°3	E10°32′	E10°3	E10°4	E10°5	E10°49′	E10°4	E10°5	E11°4	E11°4	E11°2	E11°2 E	311°4 E	11°5	E13°3	E14°5	E15°2	E14°5	E14°5
	9′34″	15″	4'00"	58″	4′33″	3/40″	1'45"	25″	6'45"	3/03″	6'26"	6'34"	7'16"	8/20″ 4	1/18″ 7	''33"	5'58"	5'10"	1'78"	3'24"	1'51"
CH_4	956	973	974	976	965	975	982	981	980	982	952	945	988	984	988	931	975	390	971	57.9	85.5
CO ₂	17.9	16.5	14.2	13.9	14.8	11.7	9.46	9.75	4.97	11.8	13.4	11.8	2.12	2.54	3.03	48.6	13.8	582	5.64	935	908
N_2	25.1	8.75	10.8	7.49	18.5	12.8	6.80	7.50	14	5.60	32.7	41.5	8.50	12.5	7.80	18.8	9.75	26.3	21.6	5.90	6.40
Ar	0.50	0.22	0.25	0.17	0.35	0.28	0.14	0.15	0.29	0.14	0.78	1.05	0.2	0.31	0.19	0.43	0.24	0.61	0.53	na	na
02	0.98	1.17	0.58	2.85	1.25	0.68	1.85	1.77	0.89	0.69	1.29	1.11	0.85	1.08	0.77	1.14	1.11	1.29	1.09	1.40	0.51
He	0.016	0.026	0.011	0.00	8 0.012	0.008	0.011	0.006	0.008	0.005	0.006	0.005	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.011	0.095	0.007	0.013	0.018
δ ¹³ C-CH ₄	-43.1	-41.6	-39.6	-43.2	-44.5	-42.5	-43.3	-47.5	-46.2	-45.8	-41.6	-40.9	-60.8	-66.7	-68.9	-60.1	-45.1	-43.7	-40.9	-47.3	-46.8
8D-CH ₄	-182	-180	-170	-176	-171	- 182	-179	-182	-181	-180	-175	-171	-211	- 202 -	- 192 -	- 193	-178	-171	- 173	-177	-175
δ ¹³ C-CO ₂	28.3	27.5	22.6	27.8	na	6	35.6	13.5	na	15.1	10.3	na	na	-8.48	- 13.3	- 3.82	-2.44	-2.11	na	-0.32	0.14
	Emilia Apei	nnines									Romagna <i>i</i>	Apennin	es				Sicily				

Caracausi et al., 2003; Pecoraino and Giammanco, 2005; Rizzo et al., 2006) indicates significant contribution from a mantle source related to the proximity of Mount Etna volcano, whereas at the Maccalube di Aragona mud volcanoes He ($R/R_a = 0.7$) is predominantly crustal (Favara et al., 2001; Caracausi et al., 2003; Grassa et al., 2004). The marked mantle-derived He isotopic signature of the CH₄-rich Etnean gas (Fo) is apparently in contrast with its composition, typical of crustal gases. According to Caracausi et al. (2003) and Grassa et al. (2004), the composition of this gas emission is determined by selective dissolution of CO₂, whose solubility in water is significantly higher than that of CH₄ and the atmospheric gases. This suggests that the gases from the Etnean area (Fo, VS, Si and St), although compositionally different (Table 1), are affected by significant fluid contribution from a common deep (mantle) source.

The "Schoell" δ^{13} C–CH₄ vs. δ D–CH₄ diagram (Schoell, 1980) (Fig. 5) suggests that CH₄ in both the MVA and MVB gases has a thermogenic origin, i.e. produced by decomposition of organic matter buried in sediments at T>100 °C (e.g., Whiticar and Suess, 1990). These data are in agreement with those reported by other authors (Minissale et al., 2000; Capozzi and Picotti, 2002; Grassa et al., 2004; Etiope et al., 2007) for most of the investigated gases (Re, To, Ri, Ni, Os, PdR1, Ma, Fo, VS, and St). Differently, microbial carbonate reduction (e.g., Whiticar, 1999) seems to be the main cause for the production of CH₄ in the MVC gases. It is worth noting that the δ^{13} C–CH₄ and δ D–CH₄ values of the Be and PdR gases, reported by Etiope et al. (2007) and Minissale et al. (2000), respectively, are consistent with our data. On the contrary, the carbon isotopic signature of CH_4 in the DdS gas (-43.8% V-PDB) reported by Minissale et al. (2000), for which a thermogenic origin was suggested, is significantly different from both the δ^{13} C–CH₄ (–58.4‰ V-PDB) reported by Etiope et al. (2007) and δ^2 H–CH₄ (–60.1‰ V-PDB; present study: Table 1) values. The evolution of the CH₄ isotopic signature of the DdS gas from thermogenic to biogenic values could be related to the documented decrease of the discharge activity from this mud volcano, a hypothesis that was already claimed by Etiope et al. (2007).

In the "Bernard" $CH_4/(C_2H_6+C_3H_8)$ vs. $\delta^{13}C-CH_4$ diagram (Bernard et al., 1978) (Fig. 6) the MVC gases plot within the field of microbial hydrocarbon production, whereas the remaining samples seem to be related to mixing between microbial and thermogenic fluids. Post-genetic processes, such as molecular fractionation and secondary methanogenesis related to subsurface anaerobic biodegradation, may have changed the original chemical and isotopic composition of the MVA and MVB gases. Molecular fractionation and anaerobic biodegradation can cause an increase of the CH₄/C₂₊ ratios from reservoir to surface (Deville et al., 2003; Etiope et al., 2007, 2009a; Milkov and Dzou, 2007; Waseda and Iwano, 2008). Therefore, these secondary processes may explain the relatively high $CH_4/(C_2H_6 +$ C₃H₈) ratios of the MVA and MVB gases, higher than those typical of thermogenic gases (Fig. 6). The extremely variable δ^{13} C–CO₂ signature of the MVA and MVC gases (from -13.3 to 35.6% V-PDB) suggests that CO₂ is related to anaerobic oxidation of heavy hydrocarbons (Pallasser, 2000) followed in most cases by secondary methanogenesis, particularly for those gas samples characterized by high δ^{13} C–CO₂ values (>10% V-PDB; Table 1). This process, which depends on the type of microbial communities and physical-chemical reservoir conditions (Wang et al., 2005), is able to strongly enrich the residual CO₂ in 13 C (Etiope et al., 2009b). The CO₂ origin of the MVB gases, whose δ^{13} C-CO₂ values range from -2.11 to 0.14‰ V-PDB (Table 1), is likely related to a common magmatic source, also indicated by the helium isotopic signature, with some CO₂ contribution from carbonate rocks (Chiodini et al., 1996; D'Alessandro et al., 1997).

Light alkanes (C_2-C_9) of thermogenic gases are mainly produced by thermal cracking processes affecting organic matter even at relatively low temperatures (<100 °C; Hunt, 1984; Mango, 1997, 2000), whereas bacteriogenesis typically produces C_1-C_3 alkanes. The distribution of C_2-C_{10} alkane concentrations (Fig. 7) suggests that the MVC

Chemical and isotopic (δ^{13} C-CO₂, δ^{13} C-CH₄ and δ D-CH₄) composition of gases from mud volcanoes of Emilia and Romagna Apennines and of Sicily (Italy). Gas concentrations are in mmol/mol; δ^{13} C (in CO₂ and CH₄) and δ D-CH₄ ratios Table 7

able 2
Themical composition of C ₂ -C ₁₀ hydrocarbons of gases from mud volcanoes of Emilia and Romagna Apennines and of Sicily (Italy). Gas concentrations are in µmol/mol; nd: not detected.

	Ri	То	C–Q	Mc	Re	Ca	Pu	Ni	Mg	Os	PdR1	PdR2	DdS	CR	Ве	BdR	Ma	VS	Fo	St	Si
Ethane	745	884	1845	2174	2974	1165	1684	954	2519	1065	1251	1488	251	208	384	384	994	2311	1784	759	671
Propane	35	48	136	155	124	107	121	87	119	81	111	126	18	15	21	15	73	61	54	27	41
2 methyl propane	16	31	74	84	85	51	56	41	15	23	63	71	8.2	5.2	6.1	6.3	35	15	11	2.1	2.9
Normal butane	9	11	28	21	23	15	12	13	5.4	10	15	22	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.2	23	7.1	6.3	5.9	7.3
2 methyl butane	15	17	31	27	34	19	15	21	5.8	11	21	19	2.2	1.3	1.5	1.2	15	2.7	2.8	1.5	1.9
3 methyl butane	8.1	11	23	25	27	13	12	15	7.2	12	15	12	1.7	1.1	1.3	0.67	10	2.6	2.5	1.2	1.1
Normal pentane	6.3	5.4	12	13	15	7.8	10	12	5.3	7.0	8.2	9.1	0.92	0.41	0.71	0.51	13	3.4	3.6	2.8	2.9
2 methyl pentane	11	10	21	19	22	12	13	16	9.1	7.8	13	15	0.83	0.31	0.44	0.54	11	3.1	1.5	0.64	0.71
3 methyl pentane	6.0	6.5	12	12	12	7.5	6.5	8.5	3.5	5.6	7.7	6.2	0.70	0.11	0.52	0.61	5.7	1.5	1.9	0.38	0.39
2.3 dimethyl butane	2.9	4.4	5.6	6.2	7.1	5.0	4.7	6.5	3.5	3.8	5.3	4.7	0.94	0.26	0.31	0.37	4.3	0.51	0.25	nd	nd
Normal hexane	5.6	5.0	6.2	6.5	5.6	4.7	4.4	6.2	3.8	3.8	4.3	4.8	0.36	0.31	0.33	0.35	4.5	2.4	2.9	2.5	3.2
2 methyl hexane	4.5	5.1	7.7	7.4	7.2	5.5	5.1	6.4	3.4	3.8	5.6	5.1	0.44	0.15	0.22	0.22	5.3	0.79	0.87	0.95	0.87
3 methyl hexane	2.3	2.6	4.3	5.5	4.7	2.8	3.2	4.5	2.1	2.6	2.9	3.2	0.33	0.12	0.21	0.18	2.8	0.61	0.75	0.61	0.59
2.2.3 trimethylbutane	0.66	0.76	1.3	1.6	1.8	0.88	1.3	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.1	2.1	0.32	0.11	0.21	0.09	1.1	nd	nd	nd	nd
2.3 dimethyl pentane	0.87	0.50	1.5	1.5	1.7	0.77	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.5	0.27	0.16	0.15	0.15	0.69	nd	nd	nd	nd
2.4 dimethyl pentane	0.61	0.41	0.99	1.2	1.4	0.77	0.66	1.23	0.73	0.96	0.85	0.51	0.07	nd	0.09	0.07	0.53	nd	nd	nd	nd
Normal eptano	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.3	2.6	2.9	2.0	2.2	1.6	1.9	2.7	1.8	0.29	0.08	0.31	0.18	2.6	0.75	0.91	1.2	1.6
2.3.4 trimethyl pentane	0.46	0.63	0.98	1.2	0.89	0.79	0.74	0.55	0.54	0.59	0.78	0.66	0.18	0.11	0.15	0.12	0.41	nd	nd	nd	nd
2.3 dimethyl hexane	0.51	0.34	0.51	0.66	0.72	0.41	0.32	0.51	0.41	0.45	0.55	0.41	0.15	na	0.18	0.15	0.33	na	nd	na	na
2.5 dimetnyl nexane	0.49	0.47	0.62	0.66	0.79	0.47	0.41	0.47	0.34	0.30	0.51	0.38	0.25	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.25	na	na	nd 0.15	nd 0.12
2 methyl epiano	0.58	0.28	0.53	0.43	0.58	0.34	0.44	0.49	0.35	0.47	0.30	0.44	0.28	0.16	0.22	0.24	0.29	0.33	0.39	0.15	0.12
2 mothyl octano	0.51	0.45	0.42	0.34	0.54	0.44	0.47	0.59	0.20	0.56	0.45	0.51	0.52	0.15 nd	0.25	0.11	0.51	0.25	0.28	0.54	0.56
2 IIIetiiyi octaile Normal nonane	0.50	0.55	0.25	0.56	0.55	0.25	0.22	0.31	0.15	0.19	0.25	0.29	0.12	0.05	0.09	0.08	0.28	0.20	0.22	0.15	0.15
2.5 dimethyl octane	0.25	0.24	0.17	0.21	0.22	0.11	0.00 pd	0.34	0.17	nd	0.15	0.11	nd	0.05 nd	0.00 nd	nd	0.23	nd	0.15 nd	0.70 nd	0.87 nd
3 methyl nonane	0.31	0.27	0.21	0.15	0.11	0.15	0.11	0.27	0.11	0.06	0.21	0.15	0.12	nd	0.08	0.13	0.12	0.06	0.05	0.09	0.08
Normal decane	0.33	0.27	0.25	0.17	0.05	0.11	0.08	0.25	0.13	0.00	0.21	0.15	0.12	0.05	0.00	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.54	0.60
Benzene	2.5	3.4	5.2	49	6.2	2.1	2.6	0.15	3.1	14	2.5	1.8	0.28	0.05	0.54	16	2.4	218	251	175	189
Toluene	2.5	19	2.7	3.5	3.2	12	14	0.52	12	0.42	13	0.87	0.20	0.08	0.25	1.0	11	23	19	2.4	33
Ethylbenzene	0.85	0.71	0.65	1.1	0.77	0.65	0.38	0.33	0.51	0.44	0.55	0.41	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.55	9.1	8.7	4.1	3.5
m,p xylene	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.82	1.1	0.29	0.62	0.12	1.4	1.1	0.11	nd	0.09	0.55	0.71	2.4	2.1	1.8	1.9
Cyclopentane	1.9	2.7	3.4	3.9	4.6	3.6	3.0	2.1	3.9	2.6	4.1	4.5	0.13	0.05	0.17	0.20	3.9	0.32	0.56	0.22	0.24
1 methylcyclo pentane	4.2	4.8	4.4	5.1	6.0	4.3	3.8	2.4	4.1	3.1	4.6	5.3	0.10	nd	0.13	0.13	4.1	0.11	0.15	0.13	0.12
1.3 dimethyl cyclopentane	2.4	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.7	2.7	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.2	2.5	2.9	nd	nd	nd	nd	2.5	0.22	0.26	0.21	0.28
1.2.4 trimethyl cyclopentane	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.7	2.1	1.4	1.6	1.0	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.7	nd	nd	nd	nd	1.6	nd	0.15	nd	nd
1.1.3.4 tetramethyl cyclopentane	0.78	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.4	1.0	1.2	0.76	1.0	0.89	1.3	1.8	nd	nd	nd	nd	1.1	nd	nd	nd	nd
Pentamethylcyclo pentane	0.59	0.26	0.37	0.32	0.19	0.23	0.25	0.07	0.23	0.14	0.29	0.53	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.36	nd	nd	nd	nd
2 propyl cyclopentane	0.24	0.21	0.23	0.34	0.17	0.14	0.17	0.09	0.11	0.19	0.15	0.28	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd
2 methylbutyl cyclopentane	0.17	0.12	0.14	0.07	0.07	nd	0.06	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.11	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.09	nd	nd	nd	nd
Trans 1.3 diethyl cyclopentane	0.09	0.11	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.10	0.06	nd	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.11	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.12	nd	nd	nd	nd
Cyclohexane	3.6	4.3	4.4	5.2	6.1	3.9	3.3	2.3	3.0	2.1	2.8	3.3	0.17	0.11	0.12	0.19	4.4	0.26	0.59	0.11	0.21
1 methyl cyclohexane	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.4	2.3	2.7	1.6	2.6	1.9	1.7	2.1	0.23	0.15	0.19	0.24	3.6	0.21	0.41	0.23	0.32
1.3 dimethyl cyclohexane	2.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.9	2.6	3.0	1.3	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.9	nd	nd	nd	nd	2.8	0.11	0.15	0.07	0.19
1.5 dimethylcyclohexane	2.1	2.6	2.4	2.8	3.3	1.9	1.6	0.73	1.4	1.2	1.8	1.5	nd	nd	nd	nd	3.1	nd	nd	nd	nd
1.3.5 trimethylcyclohexane	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.9	1.2	1.3	0.74	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.4	nd	nd	nd	nd	2.2	nd	nd	nd	nd
1.3.4 trimethyl cyclohexane	0.89	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.59	1.0	0.78	1.1	1.2	nd	nd	nd	nd	1.5	nd	nd	nd	nd
1 ethyl 3 methyl cyclohexane	0.38	0.33	0.53	0.43	0.32	0.22	0.11	0.06	0.13	0.12	0.21	0.29	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.25	nd	nd	nd	nd
Trans 1 ethyl 1.4 dimethyl cyclohexane	0.08	0.13	0.07	0.16	0.27	0.12	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.11	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd
Trans 1,1,3,5 tetramethyl cyclohexane	0.10	0.14	0.13	0.09	0.14	0.06	0.09	nd	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.16	nd	nd	nd	nd
Cis 1.1.3.5-tetramethylcyclo hexane	0.06	0.05	0.20	0.23	0.11	0.08	0.04	nd	0.31	0.20	0.29	0.24	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.22	nd	nd	nd	nd
Cyclooctane	2.7	2.6	4.3	3.4	3.9	2.3	1./	0.89	1.3	0.89	1.9	1.1	0.06	nd	0.08	0.07	1.9	0.15	0.11	0.09	0.16
1.2 ulmetnyl cyclooctane	1.8	1.4	2.6	2.2	2./	1./	1.2	0.78 nd	1.0	0.75	1.1	1.2	nd	nd	nd	nd	1.5	nd	nd	nd	nd
1 othyl cyclooctane	0.50	0.31	0.30	0.13 pd	0.21	0.0ð	0.00 pd	nd	0.00	0.12 pd	0.25	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd	0.15	nd	nd	nd	nd
	Emilia A	pennines	0.07	nu	0.00	nu	nu	nu	0.10	nu	Romagna	Apennines	nu	nu	nu	nu	Sicily	nu	nu	nu	nu



Fig. 4. Σalkanes/100-Σaromatics-Σcyclics ternary diagram of gases from mud volcanoes and gas emissions of Emilia-Romagna and Sicily (Italy). MVA gases (open circles): Rivalta (Ri), Torre (To), Casola-Querzola (C-Q), Macognano (Ma), Regnano (Re), Canalina (Ca), Puianello (Pu), Nirano (Ni), Montegibbio (Mo), Ospitaletto (Os), Porito di Romagna (PdR 1 and PdR2) and Maccalube (Ma); MVB gases (closed squares): Fondachello (Fo), Vallone Salato (VS), Simeto (Si) and Stadio (St); MVC gases (open triangles): Dragone di Sassuno (DdS), Bergullo (Be), Cà Robano (CR), and Bagno di Romagna (BdR).

gases have significant amounts of C_{4+} compounds, although their concentrations are lower than those of MBA and MVB gases. This may imply that the MVC gases suffer a lesser contribution from a thermogenic source, which is not detectable on the basis of the CH_4 isotopic signature. The relatively low concentrations of the C_3-C_8 alkane in the MVB gases with respect to those of the MVA ones (Fig. 7) are likely to be related to i) the type of source rock feeding these emissions, and/or ii) post-genetic molecular fractionation due to fluid migration (Thompson, 2004, and references therein). The occurrence of heat and hydrothermal fluid contribution from the Mount Etna volcano (Caracausi et al., 2003; Grassa et al., 2004) may also cause the C_{3+} alkanes depletion in the MVB gases, since these compounds are characterized by low stability at increasing temperature.

Branched hydrocarbons are indicative of catalytic cracking via carbonium–ion mechanism, whereas free radical cracking, taking place in a relatively deep environment, preferentially produces normal



Fig. 5. δ^{13} C-CH₄ vs. δ D-CH₄ plot of gases from mud volcanoes of Emilia-Romagna and Sicily (Italy). Symbols as in Fig. 4.



Fig. 6. $CH_4/(C_2H_6+C_3H_8)$ vs. $\delta D-CH_4$ plot of gases from mud volcanoes of Emilia-Romagna and Sicily (Italy). Symbols as in Fig. 4.

alkanes (Hunt et al., 1980; Hunt, 1984; Tannebaum and Kaplan, 1985). The production of high iso/normal alkane ratios is related to biodegradation processes (Tissot and Welte, 1978), whereas normal alkanes are favored as temperature increases (Astaf'ev et al., 1973). The iso/normal alkane ratios are also used for investigations aimed at identifying the type of organic source, since enrichment in normal alkanes is considered to be related to the decomposition of sapropelic organic matter, whereas light hydrocarbons from humic organic matter bear isoalkanes (Dai, 1992; Hu et al., 2008).

As shown in Fig. 8, the iso/normal ratios of the C_4-C_{10} alkane compounds in the MVA and MVC gases are quite similar, thus this parameter seems not to be useful to distinguish thermogenic and biogenic hydrocarbons in gases originated by a low temperature source. On the contrary, the iso/normal ratios of the MVB gases are significantly

1000 - 0 - MVA - MVB - MVB - MVC 100 - 0 - MVA - MVB - MVC 10 - 0 - MVA - MVC - 0 - MVA - MVB - 0 - MVA - MVC - 0 - MVA - MVC - 0 - MVA - MVC - 0 - MVA - MVB - 0 - MVA - 0 - MVB - 0

Fig. 7. Mean values of C_2 - C_{10} hydrocarbon concentrations (in µmol/mol) in the gases from the mud volcanoes pertaining to the MVA, MVB and MVC groups (mean values). Symbols as in Fig. 4.



Fig. 8. Mean values of iso/normal ratios of the C_4 - C_{10} alkane compounds in the gases from the mud volcanoes pertaining to the MVA, MVB and MVC groups (mean values). Symbols as in Fig. 4.

lower, a feature that may be related to i) relatively high temperatures at the source of fluids, since the normal alkanes are more stable at increasing temperature, and/or ii) a different type of kerogen.

5.2. Origin of aromatic compounds

Monocyclic aromatic compounds are a significant fraction of the total organic carbon in oil reservoirs, as well as in fluids from hydrothermal and volcanic systems (Somerville et al., 1987; Simoneit et al., 1988; Fisher and Boles, 1990; Giggenbach and Corales, 1992; Darling, 1998; Capaccioni et al., 2000, 2004). Occurrence of these compounds in natural fluids depends on several factors, including the type of source matter, secondary fractionation and decomposition processes (Bennet and Larter, 1997; Dale et al., 1997). For example, thermal maturation of lignin and cellulose is known to produce relatively high concentration of aromatics (Leythaeuser et al., 1979). Furthermore, enrichments both in C₆H₆ and in C₇H₈ can be caused by phase- and migration-related compositional fractionation (Thompson, 1987). The ubiquitous presence of aromatic compounds in fluid discharges from different environments is also related to the high stability of the aromatic ring itself (C_6H_6) at high temperature, even under highly oxidizing conditions (Katritzky et al., 1990). Formation of aromatic compounds may proceed through catalytic "reforming" processes, such as dehydrogenation of cycloalkanes and dehydrocyclization of alkanes, whose efficiency is favored by temperatures ranging from 100 to 350 °C and presence of catalytic agents, such as free acids, allumosilicates and sulfur gas species (Capaccioni et al., 1993, 1995; Mango, 1994; Mèriaudeau and Naccache, 1997). These conditions are typical of hydrothermal systems, where monoaromatics may also be produced by thermal decomposition of alkylated aromatic compounds with long side chains (Savage and Klein, 1987; Smith and Savage, 1991; Kissin, 1998). This supports the idea that the MVB mud volcanoes (Fig. 4), which show relatively high concentrations of aromatic compounds, are significantly affected by a high convective heat flow related to the activity of Mount Etna volcano, as also suggested by their mantle He isotopic signature (Table 1). The high $C_6H_6/(C_7H_8 + C_8H_{10})$ ratios of these gases (up to 22), a common feature for hydrothermal/volcanic fluids (Capaccioni et al., 1995; Darling, 1998; Taran and Giggenbach, 2003; Tassi, 2004), are likely caused by the occurrence of oxidative decarboxylation and/or demethylation reactions affecting methylated mono- and poly-cyclic aromatic compounds (Taylor et al., 1997; McCollom et al., 2001).

5.3. Origin of cyclic compounds

A certain quantity of cyclic hydrocarbons is always present in sediments. The compositional features of these compounds are strongly related to: sedimentary environment, biological sources and diagenetic processes (Duan, 2000; Duan and Ma, 2001; Duan et al., 2004). Enrichments of methylhexane are found to occur in oils from terrigenous source rocks, whereas dimethylcyclopentane with different structures, deriving mainly from lipids of aquatic organisms, is a typical feature of light hydrocarbons of marine-derived oils (Leythaeuser et al., 1979; Dai, 1993; Wang and Zhang, 2008). Notwithstanding the abundance of cycloalkanes within the main sources of organic gases, these compounds were recognized in relatively low concentrations in gas discharges related to hydrothermal activity in sedimentary environments, and they are almost absent in hydrothermal and volcanic fluids (Tassi, 2004; Tassi et al., 2009a, 2010), as well as in soil gases (Tassi et al., 2009b), likely because these organic compounds have low stability at oxidizing conditions and temperature typical of hydrothermal/magmatic systems. The presence of several different cycloalkanes at concentrations even higher than those of the aromatic compounds (Table 2), although the latter are stable in a relatively wide range of redox and temperature conditions, represents the most peculiar features of the MVA gases. The origin of these organic compounds could be related to the type of source rock. However, the MVA gases display the same cyclic compositions (in Fig. 9a the cyclic concentrations are expressed in % with respect to the total cyclic abundances), including those produced by different petroleum systems, such as those from Emilia Apennine (Re), Romagna Apennine (PdR1) and Sicily (Ma), (Fig. 9b). This supports the idea that the origin of the cyclic compounds found in the Apennine and Sicilian thermogenic gases depends on specific chemical-physical conditions characterizing these zones, i.e. high pressures and temperature not exceeding 120-150 °C. At these conditions, cycloalkanes could be produced by thermal cracking of preexisting organic material. However, it is worth of note that numerous reaction pathways for the production of aromatic compounds proceed through dehydrogenation of cycloalkane intermediates formed from cyclization of alkanes (Davis, 1999, and references therein). Therefore, it is reasonable to suppose that the presence of cycloalkanes in the MVA gases can also be related to the occurrence of reforming processes at temperature too low to complete alkane aromatization that typically occur at hydrothermal conditions.

The paucity of cycloalkanes in the MVB gases is likely related to the relatively high temperatures caused by addition of hot hydrothermal fluids from the Mount Etna volcanic system. The MVC gases mostly derive from bacteria activity, which are not able to produce C_{4+} compounds including cycloalkanes, whose presence at low concentrations is likely related to trivial thermogenic contribution.

5.4. Hydrocarbon composition vs. fluid source regions

The structural setting of the Emilia and Romagna Apennines may offer a key to decipher the development and/or the origin of the two dissimilar MVA and MVC gas typologies. A regional crosssection longitudinal to the chain (constrained by logs from deep wells for hydrocarbon exploration available at www.videpi.com) shows the position of mud volcanoes and dry CH_4 seeps in relation to the structural setting and nappe pile geometry (Fig. 10). More specifically, most of the MVA gases occur in the Emilia sector, where the LU provide an overburden layer that may approach or even exceed 4 km in thickness, as documented by some deep wells (e.g., Querciola 1, Viano 1, Rio Ciano 1 wells; Figs. 1b and 10). Conversely, the MVC



Fig. 9. (a) Concentrations of cyclic compounds with respect to the total cyclic abundance in (a) the investigated gas samples and (b) the Re, PdR1 and Ma gases.

gases are from the Romagna Apennines, where the LU are mostly absent, or exhibit a thickness lower than ~1.5 km at the transition zone to the Emilia Apennines (Radicosa 1 and Varignana 1 wells; Figs. 1b and 10). As a result, there is little or no upper impermeable barrier to the escape of gases in the Romagna Apennines.

MVA gases of both Emilia mud volcanoes and some Romagna seeps (PdR1 and PdR2) likely represent a mix sourced from both the Marnoso Arenacea and the Upper Triassic dolostones (Burano Fm.; Lindquist, 1999; Pieri, 2001). Owing to its fracture permeability, the Marnoso Arenacea may also host the main fluid reservoirs sealed by the overlying LU (Pieri, 2001, and references therein). This implies that fluid reservoirs are expected to be located beneath the Marnoso Arenacea–LU interface. On the basis of the setting of some Emilia mud volcanoes, it can be roughly estimated that the development of the MVA gases, characterized by abundance of cyclic compounds, requires the overburden to exceed a thickness of ~3 km (Fig. 10).

Estimation of a paleogeothermal gradient is crucial for assessing the temperature of the source region of gases. Although difficult to be assessed, a reasonable paleo-geothermal gradient of 25 °C/km (acting since the Miocene) has been considered for the thermal evolution of the Marnoso Arenacea basin according to temperature measurements in deep well bores, vitrinite data, and heat flow distribution (Zattin et al., 2000). A similar geothermal gradient has also been assumed by Capozzi and Picotti (2002) for estimating the source depth of thermogenic methane released from the Regnano mud volcano. Therefore, a mean geothermal gradient of 25 °C/km, the ~3 km-thick minimum overburden apparently required to form the MVA gases, would correspond to temperatures > 75 °C, i.e. approaching thermodynamic conditions favorable for the occurrence of reforming processes able to produce cyclic-rich thermogenic gas. Gases from Maccalube di Aragona (Ma), pertaining to the MVA group, are likely produced by this genetic mechanism, and, consequently, are related to a deep fluid source whose temperature is regulated by a normal geothermal gradient.

The genesis of the MVC gases would instead require lower temperature (\leq 50 °C) and pressure that could broadly be estimated to correspond to depths not exceeding 1.5–2 km, as suggested by the

MVC-type DdS mud volcano, where the thickness of the underlying LU may vary between ca. 1200 and 1500 m (Figs. 1b and 10). These findings are in accordance with the MVC gas type determined for the CR mud volcano, which lies directly over the outcropping Marnoso Arenacea, thereby without any LU overburden (Figs. 1 and 10). The observation that other mud volcanoes in the region (for example Be) release MVC gas sourced from the Pliocene–Pleistocene deposits suggests that this gas type can originate from different source rocks, and that its formation is mostly depending upon burial depth and temperature.

The above scenario is in apparent contrast with the Emilia mud volcanoes that discharge the deep originated MVA gases. They are indeed located in the area where the Marnoso Arenacea is lifted by a fold anticline, referred to here as Sassuolo Anticline, and the LU cover is only ~1 km thick (Figs. 1b and 10). In our interpretation, the Sassuolo Anticline may act as collector of fluids generated in the deeper along-strike sectors, where the LU package is as thick as 3-4 km, or more (Fig. 10). Such gases would flow through the permeable layers in the periclinal terminations of the Sassuolo Anticline, in response to the lateral pressure gradient in the Marnoso Arenacea layer driven by the thickness variation of the overlying (and impermeable) LU overburden. In such a way, the rising gases may collect at the fold crest, and this might explain the concentration of mud volcanoes discharging MVA gases in this sector of the Pede-Apennine margin, where the LU package is thin and the brittle elements associated with the folding may provide efficient depth-to-surface structural conduits for the rising fluids (e.g., Bonini, 2007).

A final remark regards the possibility that the thrust faults producing the Sassuolo Anticline may also provide deeply-rooted pathways able to transfer upwards the thermogenic gas originated in the Triassic source rocks. A similar setting can also explain the occurrence of the MVA gases released at the PdR1 and PdR2 dry seeps of Romagna, where the LU are missing and the Marnoso Arenacea is only ~1 km-thick (see Montefreddo 1 and 2 well logs available at www.videpi.com). Such a lithostratigraphic setting markedly differs from that of the Emilia mud volcanoes releasing the same type (MVA) gases. However, the discharge of the MVA gases at the PdR1 and PdR2



Fig. 10. Schematic regional cross-section along-strike the Romagna and the Emilia Apennines (blue trace in b). The sampled mud volcanoes as well as the dry methane vent and the CH₄-rich well are projected on the profile to allow comparison with vertical stratigraphy. The Romagna sector is adapted from Anelli et al. (1994). Note the lateral pressure gradient in the Marnoso Arenacea layer and the inferred gas/fluid migration toward the Sassuolo Anticline core, which is supposedly driven by the lateral thickness variation of the impermeable (overlying) Ligurian Units overburden. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

seeps can be explained by considering that these gas emissions are situated above the core of a large thrust-related anticlinorium (Bonini, 2007), where (likewise the Sassuolo Anticline) the brittle elements associated with this fold may function as conduits releasing MVA gases mostly supplied from the Triassic source rocks.

6. Concluding remarks

The composition of light hydrocarbons (alkane, cyclic and aromatic compounds) of the gas discharges investigated in the present study evidences two distinct groups of thermogenic gases, which cannot be distinguished using the classic Schoell and Bernard geochemical parameters: 1) Aromatic-rich gases (MVB) from mud volcanoes (VS, Si, St) and a CH₄-rich emission (Fo) located in the south-eastern sector of Sicily which are fed by significant fluid contribution of a hydrothermal system related to the activity of Mount Etna volcano, which favors the aromatization of alkanes and cycloalkanes; 2) cyclic-rich gases (MVA) from mud volcanoes in the Emilia Apennines and in the south-western sector of Sicily, as well as CH₄-rich emissions (PdR1 and PdR2) in the Romagna Apennines. All these emissions are fed by organic sources located at depths≥3000 m, a genetic environment characterized by high pressure and temperatures in the 100-120 °C temperature range. At these conditions the production of cyclic compounds may proceed through both i) thermal cracking of heavier organic molecules and ii) catalytic reforming process likely consisting of incomplete aromatization of light alkanes.

Biogenic gases discharged from emissions located in the Romagna Apennines show relatively low concentrations of C_{4+} hydrocarbons. The presence of these compounds indicates the occurrence of small fluid contribution from a thermogenic component that is not shown by the CH₄ isotopic features, being masked by the dominant biogenic signature.

Summarizing, our results have highlighted that the gas composition of the investigated mud volcanoes and seeps reflects the complex, though intimate, interplay between the geological assessment and the chemical-physical conditions of the fluid reservoirs. Accordingly, light hydrocarbon speciation is to be regarded as a geochemical tool able to retrieve information on the fluid source and on gas genetic mechanisms in complex geological environments.

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