

Ground movement (bradyseism) in the Campi Flegrei volcanic area: a review

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Introduction

The Campi Flegrei volcanic district (CFVD) is an area located in Southern Italy just west of the city of Naples that has experienced intense volcanism, hydrothermal activity, and bradyseism over the past 100 ka. The CFVD, one of the most densely populated volcanically active areas in the world with about 1.5 million inhabitants, is considered one of the highest risk volcanic areas on Earth. The origin of volcanism in the CFVD and the geodynamics of the area have been the subject of intense research and heated debate for the past century (De Lorenzo, 1904; Oliveri del Castillo and Quagliariello, 1969; Casertano et al., 1976; Corrado et al., 1976; Berrino et al., 1984; AGIP, 1987; Aster and Meyer, 1988; Bonafede, 1990, 1991; De Natale et al., 1991; Cortini et al., 1991; Ferrucci et al., 1992; Cortini and Barton, 1993; Berrino and Gasparini, 1995; De Natale et al., 1995; Wortel and Spakman, 2000; Milia

and Torrente, 1999, 2003; Faccenna et al., 2001; Cubellis et al., 2002; Sartori, 2003; Todesco et al., 2003, 2004; Rolandi et al., 2003; Goes et al., 2004; Turco et al., 2006; Battaglia et al., 2006; Bodnar et al., 2007; Troise et al., 2007; Caliro et al., 2007; Lima et al., 2009; De Vivo et al., 2010).

Several hypotheses have been proposed for the origin of past volcanism in the Campi Flegrei (CF) caldera, mostly focused on its activity after the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff eruption (NYT, 15 ka, Deino et al., 2004). In general, these hypotheses involve one or more of the following: (1) magma-related intrusion or intermittent ascent, (2) heating or cooling of hydrothermal fluids, (3) various geothermal system processes, and (4) chaos theory.

The phenomenon of bradyseism (from the ancient Greek words “bradus” meaning slow,” and “seism” meaning movement”) has affected the CF region since at least Roman times, as testified by layers of boreholes left by marine mollusks on the marble columns of the Roman Temple of Serapis in Pozzuoli (Parascandola, 1947). In this contribution, we will compile geochemical and geophysical data from the literature and provide a review of several models proposed for bradyseism at CF over the past 40 years. Developing a correct interpretation to explain bradyseismic event at CF is not just for academic interest; it is required to develop robust hazard assessment because the evacuation of large numbers of citizens have caused financial, emotional, and physical stress on the affected population. Hence, the relationship between bradyseism and eruption probability is critically important.

Over the last 2000 years, there have been many phases of ground movements at CF, but eruptions associated with uplift have been rare. The only case documented was the eruption of Monte Nuovo in CE 1538 and perhaps a small phreatic event in CE 1198, where bradyseism was directly associated with an eruptive event. This phenomenon of ground deformation *without* eruption is quite common in other areas characterized by significant bradyseism, such as Yellowstone (Pierce et al., 2002; Lowenstern and Hurwitz, 2007) and the Long Valley caldera (Hill et al., 2002; Foulger et al., 2003). Active bradyseism not always implies recent emplacement of magma or an imminent eruption (Acocella et al., 2015), although generally the emplacement of magma at shallow depth can lead to ground displacements at the surface as documented extensively at Hawaii (e.g., Polland, 2014). Although magma emplacement has been often *inferred* for CF based on bradyseism, it has not been unequivocally demonstrated to date.

Based on geochemical/geophysical data and models proposed by several authors in the last four decades, we propose that the hydrothermal model without magmatic recharge, suggested by

Bodnar et al. (2007) and Lima et al. (2009), is most compatible with the breadth of observational data and therefore paints the most consistent picture of the bradyseism phenomenon at CF.

Geologic setting at Campi Flegrei

The Campanian margin is a tectonically active area, characterized by extensional structures that affected the Apennine fold and thrust belt and formed half-grabens during the Pleistocene (Fig. 15.1). Normal fault activity controls stratigraphic architecture,

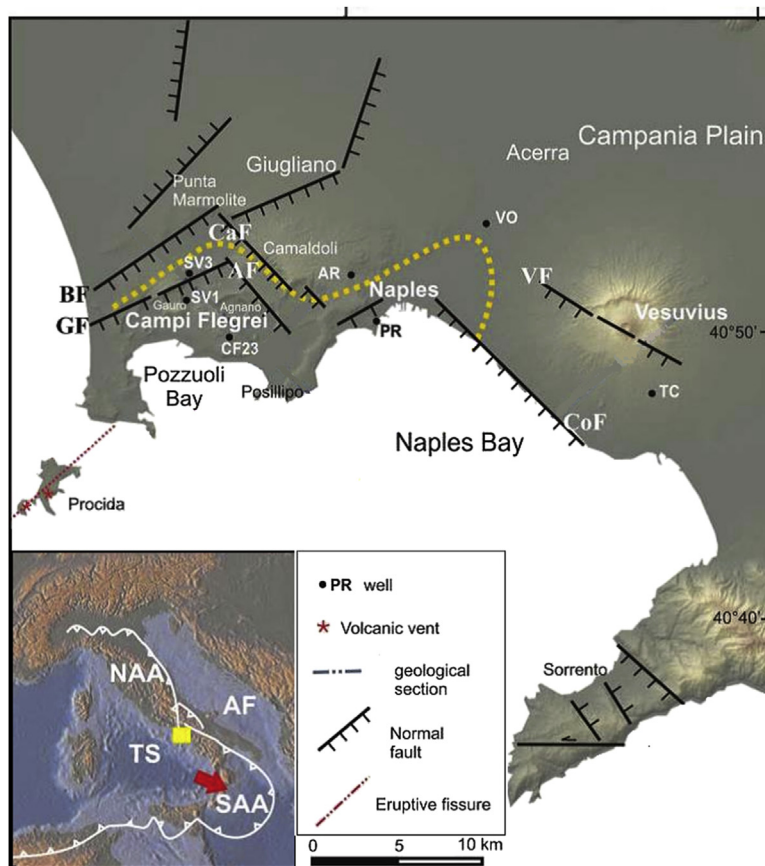


Figure 15.1 Structural map of the Campanian volcanic zone, showing location of volcanic vents (red stars), crustal sections (black lines), and deep boreholes (black dots). The yellow dotted line corresponds to the palaeoshelf edge before ignimbrite emplacement. *AF*, Adriatic Foreland; *AF*, Agnano fault; *AR*, Arenella well; *BF*, breakaway fault; *CaF*, Camaldoli fault; *CF23*, CF23 well; *CoF*, coastal fault; *GF*, Gauro fault; *NAA*, Northern Apennine Arc; *PR*, Palazzo Reale well; *SAA*, Southern Apennine Arc; *SV1*, San Vito1 well; *SV3*, San Vito3 well; *TC*, Trecase well; *TS*, Tyrrhenian Sea; *VF*, Vesuvius cone fault; *VO*, Volla well. The inset shows a schematic structural map of Italy and Campanian volcanic zone. The red arrow shows the migration of the SAA over the last 700 ka. Modified from Milia A., Torrente M.M., 2011. The possible role of extensional faults in localizing magmatic activity: a crustal model for the Campanian Volcanic Zone (Eastern Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy). *J. Geol. Soc.* 68, 471–484.

depositional environments, and rate of subsidence in the Campanian margin (Milia and Torrente, 1999, 2003). During the late-Quaternary, active uplift and E-W left-lateral strike-slip faulting have been documented along the margin contemporaneous with normal faults activity (Milia and Torrente, 2003), whereas NW-SE extensional tectonics were responsible for the formation of several deep basins, one of which is represented by the actual CF *sensu stricto* (Milia and Torrente, 1999).

The boundary of the CF area both onshore and offshore is affected by high-angle normal faults, which characterize the structural framework of the CFVD. The southern part of CF, corresponding to the Bay of Pozzuoli, records active folding (Milia et al., 2000; Milia and Torrente, 2000), represented by the culmination of an anticline near the city of Pozzuoli and a syncline located in the Bay of Pozzuoli. The maximum uplift associated with bradyseism at CF is recorded at the anticline culmination, where a compressional tectonic regime is active, but the area of uplift decreases very rapidly toward the CF boundary where the main high-angle faults occur. Similarly, earthquakes associated with bradyseism are recorded close to the city of Pozzuoli (anticline culmination) and in the middle of the Bay near the locus of tectonic folding. According to Milia et al. (2003), the basement of the Campanian margin is composed of Mesozoic–Cenozoic carbonate successions forming the Apennine fold and thrust belt, overlain by terrigenous conglomerates and a marine succession of siltstones and calcarenites of the Lower Pleistocene (Fig. 15.2). Milia and Torrente (2003) associated the maximum depth of the earthquakes with the stratigraphic boundary between the carbonates of the Mesozoic–Cenozoic succession and the overlying stratified clastic succession of Pleistocene age.

According to Milia and Torrente (2011), structural, stratigraphic, and paleogeographical analyses reveal evidence for up to 750 m of subsidence, which has occurred at a mean rate of up to 4.9 mm/year over the past 154 ka, suggesting that extensional tectonics is responsible for the regional subsidence. By matching the structural and stratigraphic architecture with published geophysical and geochemical data, Milia and Torrente (2011) proposed a crustal tectonomagmatic model that shows high-angle faults rooted into a low-angle detachment, which in turn is rooted into a deep sill-like magma reservoir. Their model suggests that extensional faults play a role in localizing magmatic activity, especially during ignimbrite eruptions, as magma exploits preexisting fractures in its ascent to the surface.

The CF stratigraphic sequence is based on data from the 3000 m deep San Vito and Mofete geothermal wells (De Vivo et al., 1989, and unpublished data), where the uppermost

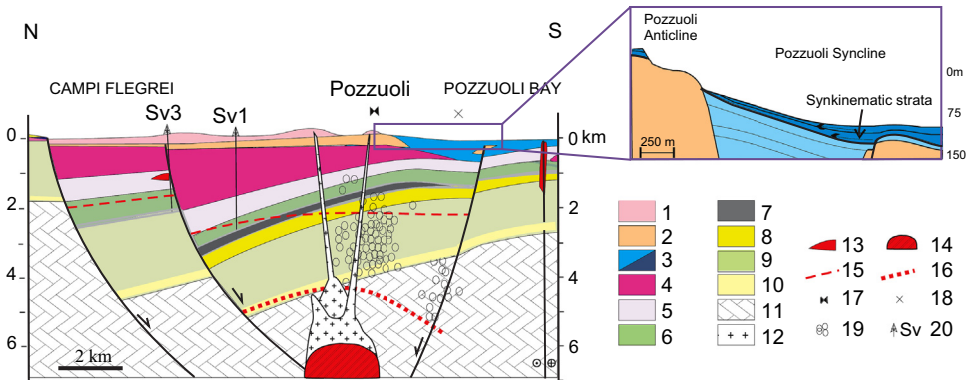


Figure 15.2 Geologic cross section across Campi Flegrei–Pozzuoli Bay. 1, Holocene volcanics; 2, Neapolitan Yellow Tuff; 3, main sediments post 39 ka; 4, Campanian Ignimbrite and pre-CI tuffs; 5, Middle Pleistocene sandstones, siltstones, and volcanics; 6, Middle Pleistocene marine sediments; 7, fine-grained Middle Pleistocene marine sediments; 8, Middle Pleistocene deep-water debris flows; 9, Lower Pleistocene marine sediments; 10, continental deposits and conglomerates; 11, Meso-Cenozoic substrate; 12, crystallized magma; 13, volcanic bodies; 14, magma body; 15, thermometamorphic boundary; 16, impermeable zone surrounding the crystallizing magma body; 17, Pozzuoli Anticline; 18, Pozzuoli Bay Syncline; 19, 1983–84 earthquake hypocenters; 20, deep geothermal wells; 21, magmatic fluids. Inset A: north-south cross section showing Pozzuoli Anticline-Syncline. Modified from Bodnar, R.J., Cannatelli, C., De Vivo, B., Lima, A., Belkin, H.E., Milia, A., 2007. Quantitative model for magma degassing and ground deformation (bradyseism) at Campi Flegrei, Italy: implications for future eruptions. *Geology* 35, 791–794.

2000 m is composed of recent volcanoclastic products with minor trachytic volcanics and a low permeability cap rock that lies at a depth of about 2–3 km. A metamorphic aureole is observed below ~2 km in the San Vito boreholes, which is interpreted to represent the downward migration of magma layer from 4 to 5 km in the past to the current level of ≥ 6 km.

Bodnar et al. (2007) and Lima et al. (2009) proposed that the structure and magnitude of the permeability field is critical for the onset of bradyseism at the CF because low-permeability layers impede the upward movement of fluids released by magma degassing and provide a quasibarrier to the deep flow of meteoric fluids. In particular, Lima et al. (2009) describe a permeability oscillation between high and low values extending stratigraphically downward from the surface to the crystallized rind (contact aureole) of the magma body, with values ranging from high (coarse clastics and volcanoclastics) to low (transgressive siltstones and claystones) to high (debris flows) to low (marine calcarenites and siltstones) to high (fluvial conglomerates) and finally to low (carbonates, thermometamorphic, and plutonic rocks). From modeling studies, it is well known that vertical variations in permeability, strongly anisotropic permeability fields, or thermohaline hydrothermal convection can severely constrain

vertical fluid trajectories in porous media (Rosenberg and Spera, 1990, 1992a,b; Schoofs et al., 2003).

Volcanism at Campi Flegrei volcanic district

Multiple eruptions have occurred in the CFVD in the last 300 ka (Pappalardo et al., 2002). The eruption of the Campanian Ignimbrite (CI) at 39 ka (De Vivo et al., 2001) is generally considered to be the dominant event in the CF (150 km³ dense rock equivalent (DRE), Civetta et al., 1997; 200 km³ DRE, Rolandi et al., 2003), followed by the NYT (50 km³ DRE, Scarpati et al., 1993) that formed at 15 ka (Deino et al., 2004). Some authors relate the formation of the CF caldera to two major eruptions: the CI (VEI = 7) dated at 39 ka by De Vivo et al. (2001) and the NYT (VEI = 6, Pappalardo and Mastrolorenzo, 2012). Some authors (Rosi and Sbrana, 1987; Orsi et al., 1996; Signorelli et al., 1999) relate the CI eruption to a caldera rim fracture system located in the CFVD, while other authors (De Vivo et al., 2001; Rolandi et al., 2003) suggest that the CI originated from fractures activated along the neotectonic Apennine fault system parallel to the Tyrrhenian coastline. The latter authors argue that eruptions from >300 ka to 19 ka are not confined to a unique volcanic center or isolated vent system in CFVD as suggested by Rosi and Sbrana (1987) and Orsi et al. (1996). De Vivo et al. (2001) and Rolandi et al. (2003) argue that only the NYT erupted from vents within the CF, whereas the CI had a much wider source and dispersal area. According to Pappalardo et al. (2002), the interval between the CI and NYT eruptions is characterized by a number of small magnitude volcanic events. Since the NYT eruption, the margins of the region have been the site of at least 65 eruptions (Fig. 15.3) ($0 < \text{VEI} < 5$, Pappalardo and Mastrolorenzo, 2012), divided into three periods of activity (15–9.5, 8.6–8.2, and 4.8–3.8 ka, Di Vito et al., 1999). The only eruptive event in historical time in the CF topographic depression is the Monte Nuovo eruption (CE 1538), which represents a rather minor event in the eruptive history of this area (VEI = 2), having produced a relatively small volume of magma (about $2.5 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ or 0.025 km³) and a 150 m volcanic cone near the city of Pozzuoli. The Monte Nuovo eruptive volume is approximately 10,000 times smaller than sum of the CI and NYT ignimbrites.

Bradyseism at Campi Flegrei

The occurrence of slow, vertical ground movements (bradyseism) at CF has been known since before Roman times (Parascandola, 1947). The deformation cycles of inflation (uplift) and deflation

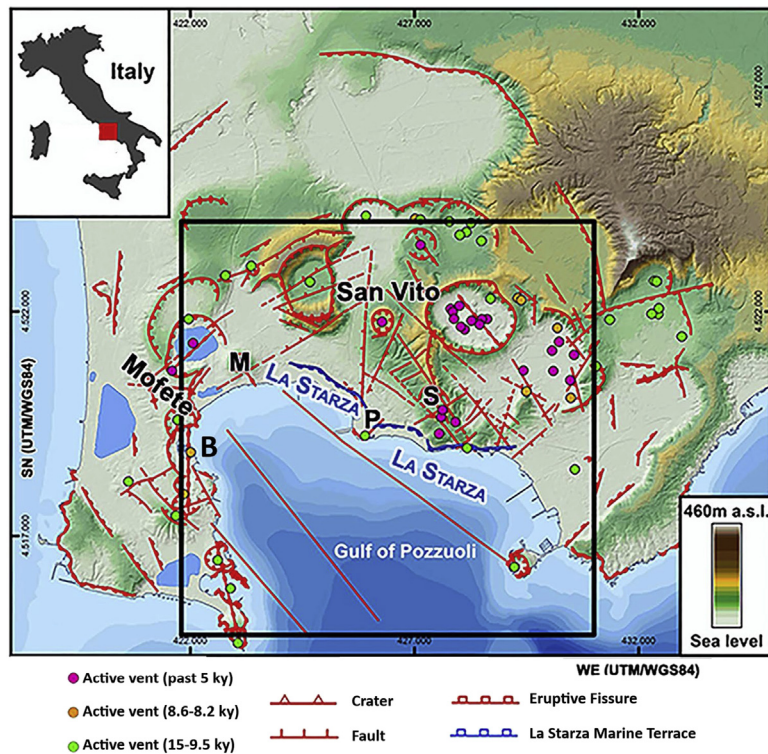


Figure 15.3 Campi Flegrei volcanic district structural map. Volcanic centers of Pozzuoli (P), Baia (B), Solfatara (S), and Monte Nuovo (M) are labeled with bold letters; volcanic vents and major faults are marked with colored circles (green, orange, and pink, according to age) and red lines, respectively, Modified from De Siena, L., Chiodini, G., Vilardo, G., Del Pezzo, E., Castellano, M., Colombelli, S., Tisato, N., Ventura, G., 2017. Source and dynamics of a volcanic caldera unrest: Campi Flegrei, 1983–84. *Sci. Rep.-UK* 7: 8099. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-08192-7>.

(subsidence) have been well documented through time, mainly due to the geographical location and long history of habitation and construction in the area. At the beginning of the 16th century, the area between Baia and Pozzuoli (B and P, Fig. 15.2) experienced progressive ground inflation and migration of the coastline. Several seismic swarms that occurred 2 years before the eruption of Monte Nuovo accompanied the bradyseismic phenomenon. According to Guidoboni and Ciuccarelli (2011), significant ground uplift and earthquakes occurred at least 70 years before the eruption of Monte Nuovo. Starting in the 19th century, the first interpretations of bradyseismic events in the area were put forward (Breislak, 1792; Forbes, 1829; Niccolini, 1839, 1845; Babbage, 1847; Lyell, 1872; Gunther, 1903; Parascandola, 1947) by studying boreholes left by marine organisms *Lithodomus lithophagus* on

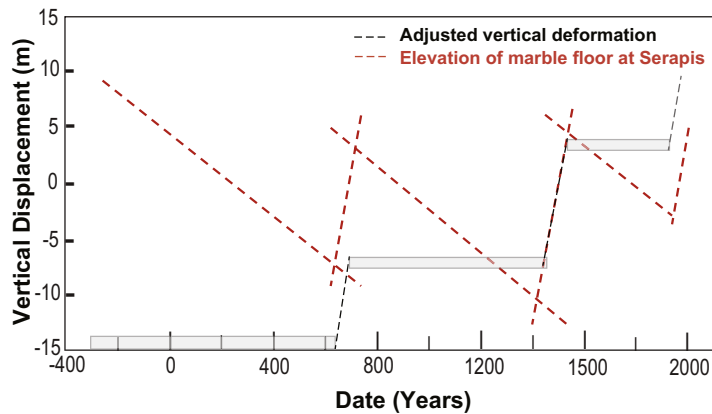


Figure 15.4 Vertical movements at Serapis (orange dotted line), showing two major uplifts, and step-like pattern of uplift (black dotted line). Black arrow indicates the Monte Nuovo eruption of 1538 AD Modified from Bellucci, F., Woo, J., Kilburn, C.R.J., Rolandi, G., 2006. Ground deformation at Campi Flegrei, Italy: implications for hazard assessment. In: Troise, C., De Natale, G., Kilburn, C.R.J. (eds), *Mechanisms of Activity and Unrest at Large Calderas*. Geological Society, London, Special Publications vol. 269, 141–157.

the marble columns of the Roman Temple of Serapis, an ancient market of Roman Age located near the harbor of Pozzuoli. Dvorak and Mastrolorenzo (1991) updated the work of Parascandola (1947) on the boreholes and reconstructed the history of CF vertical movements. The boreholes left by the mollusks can be traced for the past 2000 years on the ~ 7 m-high columns of the temple (Morhange et al., 2006) and show a trend of subsidence at a rate of ~ 1.5 – 2.0 cm/yr starting from the eruption of Monte Nuovo and centered at Pozzuoli harbor (Fig. 15.4). This subsidence is very consistent with the ultragranular data developed using modern geodetic tools at, for example, Kilauea volcano, Hawaii, USA, for the 1983–present eruptive episode.

Geodetic methods have been used to establish subannual to decadal displacements that include $+0.73$ m (uplift) during the period 1950–52 (Del Gaudio et al., 2010), $+1.77$ m (uplift) during the period 1969–72, -0.2 m (subsidence) during 1972–75 (Lima et al., 2009 and references therein), and $+1.79$ m in the period 1982–84 (Del Gaudio et al., 2010). This latter episode was accompanied by more than 16,000 earthquakes with magnitudes up to 4 (D’Auria et al., 2011), followed by -0.2 m (subsidence) from 1985 to 1988, and $+0.13$ m (uplift) in the period 1988–89 (Lima et al., 2009 and references therein). This led to the temporary evacuation of about 40,000 people from the town of Pozzuoli that lasted

for several months (Barberi et al., 1984). The evacuated population was moved to two newly formed towns (Rione Toiano and Monteruscello) built a few km away from the town of Pozzuoli but still located inside the area of CF caldera that was considered to be at risk for an eruption! After 1988, the general subsidence phase has been interrupted by minor, short duration uplift phases in 1989, 1994, and 2000. After two decades of prevailing subsidence at CF, uplift resumed in November 2004 but with a highly unstable behavior, alternating between increased uplift rate and subsidence or showing constant deformation trends (D'Auria et al., 2011; De Martino et al., 2014). Very recently, between April 2012 and January 2013, an accelerating ground uplift rate was recorded at CF, with a peak rate of about 3 cm/month (De Martino et al., 2014; Trasatti et al., 2015). Also from the period 2012–13, D'Auria et al. (2015) identified renewed magmatic activity at the CF caldera. The authors propose that the driving mechanism for the accelerated ground uplift in this period is the emplacement, at shallow depth (3090 ± 138 m), of a magmatic sill (0.0042 ± 0.0002 km³ in volume) beneath CF. The observed uplift can be explained by intermittent injections of small magma batches feeding a shallow magmatic reservoir associated with transient perturbations of the hydrothermal system. The authors also propose that the presence of melt before 2012 was probably due to the existence of a persistent structure, which has been repeatedly refilled in the last decades as suggested by the abundant layers of subvolcanic rocks that are found in various boreholes (Piochi et al., 2014) and by petrological evidence (Pappalardo and Mastrolorenzo, 2012). A recent discussion by Kilburn et al. (2017) argues that the bradyseismic events from 1950 should be considered as part of a progressive evolution. Each time a bradyseismic event occurs without an eruption, the underlying rock strata changes incrementally from a quasielastic to an inelastic regime. This may suggest that the CF volcanic-tectonic system is evolving toward conditions more favorable to eruption.

Models for ground movements at Campi Flegrei

Various models have explained ground movements at CF. In the 1980s, a mechanical model of CF attributed unrest episodes to (1) an intrusion of new magma at shallow depth (Corrado et al., 1976; Berrino et al., 1984; Bonafede et al., 1986; Bianchi et al., 1987); (2) intermittent ascent of magma between a reservoir at depths of

8–15 km or greater and a much smaller, shallower system at depths of about 3–4 km (Bellucci et al., 2006); (3) heating and expansion of fluids (Oliveri del Castillo and Quagliariello, 1969; Casertano et al., 1976; Todesco et al., 2003, 2004; Battaglia et al., 2006; Troise et al., 2007; Caliro et al., 2007); (4) fluid dynamic processes in the shallow geothermal system (Bonafede, 1990, 1991; De Natale et al., 1991, 2001; Trasatti et al., 2005); and (5) chaos theory (Cortini et al., 1991; Cortini and Barton, 1993; Cubellis et al., 2002).

Several authors, using mainly SAR data, have proposed different models to describe the source of deformation at CF, including models of tensile faults (Dvorak and Berrino, 1991), point spheres (Avalone et al., 1999), prolate spheroids (Manconi et al., 2010), horizontal circular cracks (Gottsmann et al., 2006; Battaglia et al., 2006; Amoroso et al., 2008; Woo and Kilburn, 2010), isotropic elementary sources (Camaco et al., 2011; D'Auria et al., 2012), or generic moment tensors (Trasatti et al., 2011). Some source models imply a constant deformation pattern during positive and negative bradyseismic phases, while others show a different pattern. Amoroso et al. (2014) compiled ground displacement data from 1980 to 2010 to determine if differences exist between inflations and deflations and if anomalies are concentrated in particular areas of the CF caldera. Their results show that the CF deformation pattern may have formed by two stationary parts (slightly evolving over time, based on source strength), with both of them represented by simple deformation sources. Based on ground deformation, fumarolic geochemical data (Chiodini et al., 2010 and references therein) and seismicity (De Siena et al., 2010), Amoroso et al. (2014) determined that large-scale deformations are due to a quasihorizontal elongated crack, oriented NW to SE and embedded at a depth of 3.6 km in an inelastic layered half-space with the shape of a triaxial ellipsoid. Residual deformations are confined to the area of the Solfatara fumarolic field and are represented by a small spheroid located beneath Solfatara at about 1900 m in depth.

Other authors (Corrado et al., 1976; De Natale et al., 1995) have pointed out that seismicity at CF occurs only during unrest episodes. Between 1982 and 1984, more than 16,000 earthquakes occurred, ranging from 0.4 to 4.0 in magnitude (Aster et al., 1992). Based on seismological studies, De Natale et al. (1995) proposed that this activity was generated from faults associated with an inner caldera collapse structure. A selection of seismic events recorded at CF in 1983–84 was analyzed by Guidarelli et al. (2002) to obtain Rayleigh wave group velocities and tomographic maps and was merged with cellular dispersion data for the entire

Neapolitan volcanic region by [Panza et al. \(2004, 2007\)](#). A structural model for CF up to a depth of about 30 km has been developed ([Guidarelli et al., 2006](#) and references therein), revealing a low shear wave velocity layer at about 10 km depth, consistent with one found below Mt. Vesuvius at 8 km that has been interpreted to be an area of diffuse partial melts.

Ground deformation and seismicity are associated with intense fumarolic and hydrothermal activity, which are concentrated in the crater of Solfatara where CO₂ fluxes are particularly intense during uplift and reflect magmatic degassing ([Chiodini et al., 2012](#)). These same fumarolic fluids, based on their stable isotopic composition, are interpreted to be magmatic fluids that have been variably contaminated by connate and meteoric components ([Allard et al., 1991](#); [Todesco and Scarsi, 1999](#); [Panichi and Volpi, 1999](#)). More recently, models based on the interaction of magmatic fluids with hydrothermal systems dominated by non-magmatic fluids have been proposed by [Gaeta et al. \(2003\)](#), [Todesco et al. \(2003, 2004\)](#), [Todesco and Berrino \(2005\)](#), [Battaglia et al. \(2006\)](#), [Troise et al. \(2007\)](#), and [Caliro et al. \(2007\)](#). [Todesco et al. \(2003, 2004\)](#) and [Todesco and Berrino \(2005\)](#) believe ground surface deformations are triggered by pressure variations in the hydrothermal system. In particular, [Todesco et al. \(2003\)](#) indicate that an increase in the permeability at shallow depth may have an important influence on the system condition and fluid discharge. [Battaglia et al. \(2006\)](#) indicate that the migration of fluids to and from the caldera hydrothermal system is the cause of ground deformation and consequent unrest. These same authors infer that the “intrusion of magma takes place at the beginning of each period of unrest” and suggest that uplift may be used to forecast eruptions at CF.

Hydrothermal activity at Campi Flegrei

Calderas are often sites of pervasive hydrothermal circulation due to their structure and morphology, and fluids can play an active role in triggering episodic unrest events ([Chiodini et al., 2003, 2017](#)). In recent years (1985–2011), the dynamics of CF have been mostly linked to its hydrothermal system ([Chiodini et al., 2015](#) and references therein), and several authors have shown a remarkable correlation between ground deformation and fluid geochemical parameters in the 2005–11 interval. [Chiodini et al. \(2015\)](#) interpreted this correlation as the “signature” of transient disturbances propagating through the hydrothermal system; however, this correlation broke down in 2012, suggesting that the driving mechanism of the ground uplift changed.

The abovementioned authors found strong evidence that the recent dynamics of CF can be explained by the potential emplacement of a magma batch within a flat, sill-shaped, magmatic reservoir. By combining CF seismicity with ground deformation data and compositions of the main fumaroles located inside Solfatara, the most active zone of the caldera, [Chiodini et al. \(2017\)](#) conclude that the ongoing crisis at CF is controlled by a unique process represented by a thermo-fluid dynamic model, where high temperature magmatic fluids are repeatedly injected into the hydrothermal system feeding the fumaroles of Solfatara, similar to the episodic release of magmatic fluids into the hydrothermal system proposed by [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#).

Determining gas budgets during periods of unrest is fundamental to understanding the activity, evolution, and possible future eruptions of a caldera ([Lowenstern et al., 2006](#)). [Aiuppa et al. \(2013\)](#) measured low S (1.5–2.2 tons/day) and high CO₂ fluxes (≈ 1560 tons/day) in the CF caldera from fumarolic and soil degassing. This elevated output of CO₂ is not in agreement with the hypothesis that current degassing unrest at CF is triggered by gas released from a relatively older, evolved (CO₂-poor), and crystallizing/crystallized magma volume ([Bodnar et al., 2007](#); [Lima et al., 2009](#)). [Aiuppa et al. \(2013\)](#) propose that the degassing unrest period from 2005 to the present has been sourced by a more fertile (CO₂-rich) magma source of variable size and located between 4 and 7 km depth. The role of fluids as drivers during periods of unrest at CF is strongly supported by the temporal coincidence between changes in gas composition and uplift ([Chiodini et al., 2003, 2010, 2017](#); [Caliro et al., 2014](#); [Gresse et al., 2016](#)), physical simulations of episodic gas injection into the hydrothermal system ([Chiodini et al., 2003, 2012](#); [Cardellini et al., 2017](#); [Todesco et al., 2003, 2014](#); [Romano et al., 2018](#)), quantitative analyses of shallow seismicity ([Bianco et al., 2004, 2010](#); [D'Auria et al., 2011](#)), and seismic tomography data ([Vanorio et al., 2005](#); [Zollo et al., 2008](#); [De Siena et al., 2010, 2017](#); [De Landro et al., 2017](#)). Although the origin of emitted fluids is unequivocally magmatic ([Allard et al., 1991](#); [Caliro et al., 2007, 2014](#)), the volume, storage depth, and gas content of the magmatic source remains somewhat disputed ([Bodnar et al., 2007](#); [Zollo et al., 2008](#); [Arienzo et al., 2010](#); [Di Vito et al., 2016](#)).

During each seismic and ground uplift crisis, the magmatic component fraction ($X_{\text{CO}_2}/X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$) in fumaroles increases (up to ~ 0.5 , [Caliro et al., 2007](#); [Moretti et al., 2013, 2018](#)), suggesting that periodic injections of CO₂-rich magmatic fluids near the base of the hydrothermal system trigger bradyseismic crises. [Troise et al. \(2007\)](#) associate the uplift with the input of magmatic

fluids from a shallow magma chamber based on the ratio of maximum horizontal to vertical displacement measured from continuous GPS data, while [Moretti et al. \(2018\)](#) propose that the uplift is generated by the shallow intrusion of a sill-like magmatic body and subsequent injection of hot steam-rich fluids into the hydrothermal reservoir, based on the geochemistry of gas discharge. According to these authors, small uplift events can reflect the overpressure of deeper source magmatic fluids, whereas large uplift events may represent the overpressure of shallower aquifers. As demonstrated by the models of [Battaglia et al. \(2006\)](#) and [Troise et al. \(2007\)](#), magma plays an active role in uplift and possibly eruption. Finally, in the model of [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#), fluid expelled during crystallization of preexisting magma supplies the fluids involved in bradyseism, but the intrusion of new magma does not play an active role in uplift episodes. [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#) predict that uplift between 1982 and 1984 is associated with crystallization of $\sim 0.83 \text{ km}^3$ of H_2O -saturated magma at $\sim 6 \text{ km}$ depth. The latter depth is in good agreement with recent findings ([Arienzo et al., 2010](#); [Vetere et al., 2011](#); [Esposito et al., 2018](#)). Near the approximate depth of the magma–country rock interface indicated by [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#), seismic tomography data show that a magma sill is located at $\sim 7.5 \text{ km}$ depth ([Zollo et al., 2008](#)). The seismic tomography results support the concept that shallow-level magma intrusion at CF is not the cause of bradyseism and uplift. According to the model of [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#), the solid–melt boundary of the mush zone of the crystallizing magma body migrates downward and fresh magma injection is not a prerequisite for bradyseism ([Fig. 15.5A–C](#)). The subsurface magmatic-hydrothermal activity at CF for the period from pre-1982 to 1984 AD is shown schematically in [Fig. 15.5\(A–B\)](#).

Evidence for connectivity between the deep and shallow systems is provided by $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios of fumarolic fluids at CF ([Fig. 15.6](#)), which increase during uplift and reach a maximum shortly after deflation begins (i.e., after the low-permeability cap rock is breached).

Thermodynamic model for ground movements at Campi Flegrei

[Lima et al. \(2009\)](#) extend the contribution of [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#) by presenting a thermodynamic description of the earlier semi-quantitative models and proposing a new model consistent with geological, geochemical, and geophysical data. Without including

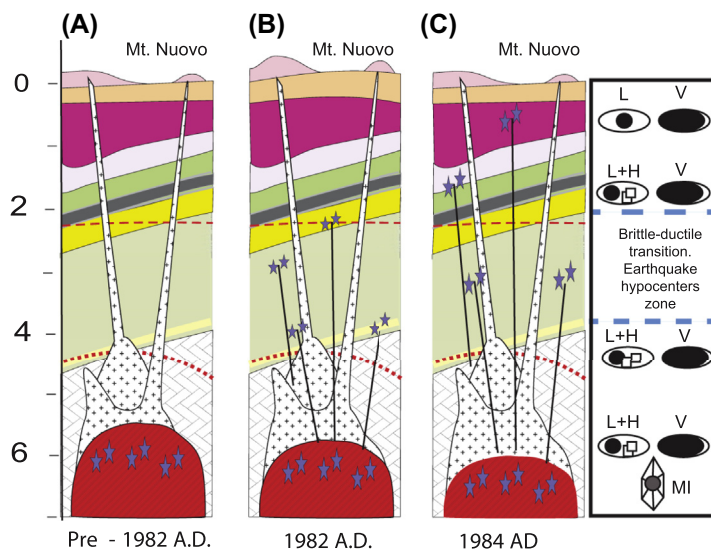


Figure 15.5 Schematic interpretation of subsurface magmatic-hydrothermal activity at Campi Flegrei. (A) After the Monte Nuovo eruption (1538 AD), the magma body became a closed system with magmatic volatiles accumulating below the impermeable crystallized carapace. (B) In 1982, the carapace fractured, allowing magmatic fluids to enter the overlying rocks beneath the low permeability cap rock, causing vertical ground deformation. (C) In 1984, the ground deformation ended and deflation began when fractures penetrated the low-permeability cap rock, allowing the deep fluids to migrate into the shallow hydrostatic aquifers and flow toward the surface. The lateral inset shows the systematic variation in the types of fluid and melt inclusions that occur at different depth (L, liquid-rich inclusion; V, vapor-rich inclusion; L + H, halite-bearing fluid inclusion; MI, melt inclusion) Modified from Lima, A., De Vivo, B., Spera, F.J., Bodnar, R.J., Milia, A., Nunziata, C., Belkin, H.E., Cannatelli, C., 2009. Thermodynamic model for uplift and deflation episodes (bradyseism) associated with magmatic-hydrothermal activity at Campi Flegrei (Italy). *Earth Sci. Rev.* 97, 44–58

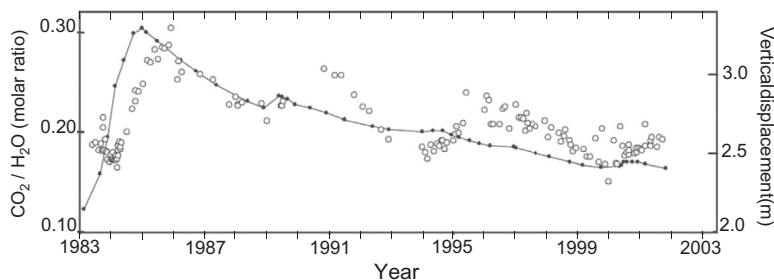


Figure 15.6 $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios recorded during the past 20 years La Solfatara fumarole, compared with vertical displacement measured at Pozzuoli Modified from Lima, A., De Vivo, B., Spera, F.J., Bodnar, R.J., Milia, A., Nunziata, C., Belkin, H.E., Cannatelli, C., 2009. Thermodynamic model for uplift and deflation episodes (bradyseism) associated with magmatic-hydrothermal activity at Campi Flegrei (Italy). *Earth Sci. Rev.* 97, 44–58

the input of new magma, [Lima et al. \(2009\)](#) attributes the phenomenon of ground movements at CF to magmatic–hydrothermal processes driven by the crystallization of hydrous magma at depth, which leads to the exsolution and expulsion of lithostatically pressured fluids into the overlying country rock. The petrologic basis for the generation of magmatic fluids by a “second boiling” was documented in CF magmas in other areas ([Fowler et al., 2007](#); [Cannatelli, 2012](#)). The deep fluid environment at CF is similar to that described in magmatic–hydrothermal ore deposit systems associated with porphyry copper deposits ([Bodnar and Beane, 1980](#); [Beane and Titley, 1981](#); [Audétat and Pettke, 1993](#); [Bodnar, 1995](#); [Beane and Bodnar, 1995](#); [Roedder and Bodnar, 1997](#); [Sasada, 2000](#)).

In the [Lima et al. \(2009\)](#) model, the evolution of melt (MI) and fluid inclusions (FI) in porphyry copper deposits is compared with the crystallization of intermediate to silicic volatile-bearing magmas. The authors do not believe a porphyry deposit is currently forming at CF, but instead propose that during crystallization of hydrous magmas in the upper crust, a volatile phase generally consisting of a low salinity H₂O-rich fluid is exsolved from the melt. This fluid is composed of variable amounts of volatiles (CO₂, H₂S, or SO₂) and ore metals (Cu, Au, Mo, Pb, Zn, and Ag) ([Bodnar, 1995](#); [Roedder and Bodnar, 1997](#)) as well as major LIL fluid–soluble elements (Rb, Cs, Ba, Pb, and Sr) ([Spera et al., 2007](#)). During the initial phase of crystallization, the melt becomes saturated in volatiles due to the precipitation of anhydrous phases. As a consequence, the fluid gets trapped beneath the impermeable igneous rock/pyrometamorphic contact aureole (rind) surrounding the magma, and the local fluid pressure in the magma body increases. The CF hydrothermal system shows some similarities with porphyry copper systems, with the crystallization front migrating slowly and gradually toward the deeper part of the system and the magma becoming saturated in water and forming a carapace composed of crystals + silicate melt + magmatic fluids in the overlying intrusive magma body and immediately below the crystalline impermeable layer.

At CF, volatiles exsolved from the magma at variable depths between 4 and 10 km are composed of high-salinity brine and vapor ([Fig. 15.7A](#)) in the deeper portions of the system and a lower salinity, low-viscosity vapor phase in the shallower levels of the system. Fracturing of the overlying impermeable rocks allows the low salinity fluid to move toward the surface and interact/mix with meteoric water present in fractures and pores at

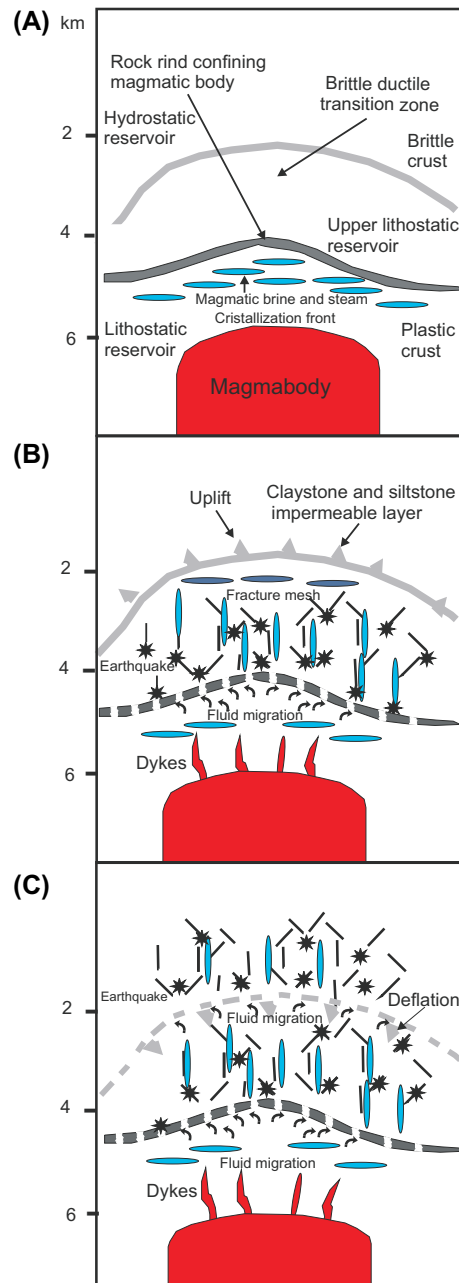


Figure 15.7 Schematic representation of magma, fluids, and crustal deformation at Campi Flegrei. (A) Sealed magmatic–hydrothermal system showing the plastic and brittle domains separated by an intermediate lithostatic–hydrostatic reservoir. (B) The impermeable carapace confining the magmatic system allows magmatic fluids to enter the overlying rocks beneath the low-permeability cap rock, causing ground uplift. (C) Ground uplift ends and deflation begins when fractures penetrate the surficial low-permeability cap rock, allowing the fluids to migrate into the shallow aquifers and flow toward the surface. Modified from Lima, A., De Vivo, B., Spera, F.J., Bodnar, R.J., Milia, A., Nunziata, C., Belkin, H.E., Cannatelli, C., 2009. Thermodynamic model for uplift and deflation episodes (bradyseism) associated with magmatic-hydrothermal activity at Campi Flegrei (Italy). *Earth Sci. Rev.* 97, 44–58.

shallower depths (Fig. 15.7C). This interaction produces a low salinity boiling assemblage so that trapped FIs are low salinity liquid rich or vapor rich at room temperature (Bodnar, 1995; Bodnar and Student, 2006), and MIs and FIs are trapped in phenocrysts and veins as the system evolves (De Vivo et al., 1989, 1995, 2006). Crystals + silicate melt + magmatic fluid coexists in the deepest part of the system, as recorded in coexisting MI and FI from crustal xenoliths at CF (Fedele et al., 2006). According to the thermodynamic transport model of Lima et al. (2009), bradyseism is driven by the transient connection between the deeper lithostatic reservoir and the overlying permeable hydrostatic reservoir. The long timescale (10^3 – 10^4 yr) of the model by Lima et al. (2009) is associated with the crystallization of a volatile-bearing magma at ~ 6 km depth and the release of magmatic fluids (as also shown by Cannatelli et al., 2007 and Cannatelli, 2012) into a deep aquifer with high lithostatic pressure, separated from a shallower hydrostatic aquifer by a low-permeability barrier zone (~ 2.5 – 3.0 km depth). Lima et al. (2009) show that the shorter timescale (1–10 yr) of their model is intrinsically episodic in nature and associated with transient fracture propagation events that connect the lower lithostatic reservoir with the upper hydrostatic one (Fig. 15.7) until connectivity is dampened by mineral precipitation accompanying irreversible fluid decompression with concomitant mineral precipitation that alters the local permeability.

At CF, vertical ground deformations are produced by the breaching of the rock “rind” confining the magmatic system (at about 4 km depth, similar to earthquake hypocenters), which in turn allows magmatic fluids to escape and enter the overlying rocks beneath the low permeability cap rock (~ 2.5 – 3.0 km) (Fig. 15.7A). The fracture of the crystallized rind produces a pressure quench of additional magma that leads to the release of CO_2 (Lima et al., 2009). Evidence of this last phenomenon is the ratios of $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in fumarolic fluids at CF (Fig. 15.4), which increase during uplift and reach a maximum shortly after deflation begins (i.e., after the low-permeability cap rock is breached). Uplift ends and deflation begins when fractures penetrate the low permeability cap rock (Fig. 15.7B), allowing the deep magmatic fluids to migrate into the shallow aquifers and ascend toward the surface (Lima et al., 2009).

The above-described process may culminate in a steam blast if water at shallow depths is heated to its flash point. A magmatic eruption may follow if the reduced confining pressure on the magma leads to a runaway process of bubble formation in the melt, ascent, and growth (as was the case for

the Monte Nuovo eruption at CF). A hydraulic surge can be triggered by tectonic activity that characterizes the CF area, disrupting the transition seal and allowing magmatic geopressured fluids to invade the country rock. According to [Lima et al. \(2009\)](#), ground movements at CF are driven by the ongoing cooling of magma at depth. According to this model, the probability that an eruption will occur at CF is decreasing, and today it is the lowest as it has been in the last 500 years. The scenario may change and the possibility of an eruptive event will increase should new magma enter the deep feeding system of CF (6 km depth).

Conclusions

Several models have been proposed to explain the phenomenon of bradyseism at CF, but the topic is still the subject of intense debate. Some authors propose a “magmatic model” to explain bradyseism at CF, suggesting that there is a continuous (or intermittent) intrusion of new magma at shallow depth for every uplift event recorded in the area, with subsequent eruption alerts being unjustified. Other authors, such as [Bodnar et al. \(2007\)](#) and [Lima et al. \(2009\)](#), propose a “hydrothermal model” based on petrological, geochemical, and geophysical observations and suggest that magmatic-hydrothermal processes at CF are driven by the crystallization of a volatile-bearing magma at depth (~ 6 km), which release magmatic fluids into a deep aquifer separated from a shallower one by a low permeability zone (~ 3 km depth). According to this model, uplift and seismicity at CF are produced by the fracture of the rock rind confining the magmatic system, which in turn leads to the release of CO_2 . Evidence of this phenomenon is the increase of $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios in fumaroles during uplift at CF. Vertical ground movements end, deflation begins when fractures penetrate the low permeability zone, and the deep magmatic fluids migrate and flow toward the surface. Models that explain bradyseismic events at CF without including magma are preferable as there is no evidence (geochemical or geophysical) of new magma entering the feeding system. Detailed studies in several volcanic areas of the world, which experience bradyseismic phenomena similar to those at CF (such as Rabaul in New Guinea, Long Valley in California, and Yellowstone National Park in Wyoming), have demonstrated that active bradyseism does not necessarily reflect recent emplacement of magma or that an eruption is imminent, with the latter being a very exceptional event.

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