

# 1 Short- and long-term velocity variations and strain evolution at Ischia (ITALY) and 2 their implications for dynamics of the hydrothermal system

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## 8 Key Points:

- 9 • We characterise short and long-term seismic wave velocity variations during 8 years at the  
10 volcanic Island of Ischia (Italy).
- 11 • We revealed a significant coseismic drop in occurrence of the 2017 M<sub>w</sub> 3.9 Casamicciola  
12 earthquake tracking the near-surface damage.
- 13 • We observe a remarkable sensitivity of the seismic wave velocity to depressurization  
14 processes of the hydrothermal system.

15

## 16 Abstract

17 In active volcanic systems, the elevated pressurization of fluids and the movement of melt  
18 materials have an enormous influence on the stress-state of rocks and their mechanical behavior.  
19 We use seismic ambient noise to evaluate the static seismic velocity variations related to long-term  
20 volcanic deformation, and the dynamic changes associated with the 2017 Casamicciola earthquake  
21 (M<sub>w</sub> 3.9), in the active volcanic complex of the Ischia Island (Italy). Our study reveals a significant  
22 dynamic velocity reduction (~0.2%) mostly related to the near-surface damage, with a  
23 permanent drop near the red zone, that we posit to be related to the documented landslides and  
24 the subsidence observed immediately after the earthquake. We also report a positive long-term  
25 linear trend of velocity variations, sensitive to a generalized contraction of the Ischia Caldera that  
26 we revealed with geodetic modeling. Our results suggest a depressurization of the shallow  
27 hydrothermal system, through degassing along faults or sills.

## 28 Plain summary Language

29 Volcanic rocks experience a wide range of phenomena characterized by complex and fast-  
30 paced dynamics, spanning from elevated geothermal gradients and convoluted stress patterns to  
31 pressurization/depressurization of fluids of heterogeneous composition, possibly with more  
32 thermodynamic phases. In this study, we use relative seismic wave velocity measurements from  
33 Coda Wave Interferometry and Global Positioning System measurements to show that velocity  
34 variations are extremely sensitive to depressurization processes, coseismic dynamic strains and  
35 level of damage, when distinguished from seasonal variations related to underground infiltration of  
36 rainwater. The sensitivity of velocity changes to dynamic stress perturbations is generally

considered a proxy of the level of pressurization of the hydrothermal and/or magmatic fluids in volcanic areas. Our findings reflect a heterogeneous shallow degassing, mostly effective in the northern part of the Island, and a reduced effective stress in the southern part, where a higher geothermal gradient and a more intense hydrothermal activity are present, characterized by highly pressurized fluids. While geodetic measurements are limited to the surface, seismic velocity variations enclose information on the interior of the crust. Their integrated use enables the characterization of deformation processes at different depth ranges, which is pivotal for the monitoring of the magmatic systems.

## Introduction

Volcanic systems undergo intricate deformations associated with the dynamics of deep magmatic systems, and their geodetic observation at the surface provides unique insights into the volcanic cycle (Caricchi et al., 2021; Segall, 2013; Snieder & Hagerty, 2004; Townsend, 2022). The rocks respond to these deformations by generating a complex strain field (Donaldson et al., 2019) and associated changes in the mechanical properties (Brenguier et al., 2016; Brenguier, Shapiro, et al., 2008; Rivet et al., 2014). These changes also lead to measurable variations in the seismic wave velocity ( $\delta v/v$ ) (Brenguier, Shapiro, et al., 2008; Donaldson et al., 2019; Duputel et al., 2009; Rivet et al., 2014; Snieder & Hagerty, 2004). The  $\delta v/v$  can be correlated, for instance, with pre-eruptive stress buildup within the magmatic reservoir (Rivet et al., 2014) or with velocity drops (increases) sensitive to summit inflations (deflations) (Duputel et al., 2009; Makus et al., 2023). Moreover, by establishing a relationship between strain and  $\delta v/v$  through the definition of strain sensitivity (Jin et al., 2018; Ostrovsky & Johnson, 2001), it becomes possible to derive fundamental insights about the non-linear response of rocks and, consequently, assess their rheology (Delorey et al., 2021; Poli et al., 2020).

To date, the combined study of geodetic methods and seismic wave velocity changes has yielded profound insights into the physical processes in active magmatic systems (Cabrera-Pérez et al., 2023; Caudron et al., 2021, 2022; Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2017; Olivier et al., 2019; Rivet et al., 2014), but has also extended its contribution to fundamental understandings of the rheology of volcanic rocks (Takano et al., 2019). To name a few examples of successful integration of interdisciplinary data, in central Iceland, the correlation between relative velocity and volumetric strain in regions of both compression and dilatation has been associated with a dike intrusion, which was partially masked by superimposed seasonal cycles resulting from elastic and poroelastic responses to changing snow thickness, atmospheric pressure, and groundwater level (Donaldson et al., 2019). In SW Iceland, repeated crustal magmatic intrusions in a complex plate boundary zone and the concurrent opening of new cracks to accommodate magma propagation resulted in a co-intrusive seismic velocity reduction (Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021). Thanks to the use of continuous seismic records and novel approaches, Caudron et al., (2021) revealed that an apparent quiescent period before a phreatic eruption at Mt Ontake was preceded indeed by an intriguing sequence of correlated seismic velocity and volumetric strain changes, starting months before the eruption and due to the dynamics of undetected pressurized fluids.

In this study, we investigate the velocity variation ( $\delta v/v$ ) of the Ischia volcanic complex in response to quasi-static and dynamic strain perturbations, respectively associated with long-term volcanic deformation and local earthquakes (Calderoni et al., 2019; Galvani et al., 2021; Sepe et al.,

2007; Trasatti et al., 2019) (Fig. 1). To achieve this objective, we employ ambient seismic noise interferometry to estimate  $\delta v/v$  at various seismic stations (N. M. Shapiro & Campillo, 2004). Concurrently, we quantify both static and dynamic strains through the utilization of a local GNSS network (De Martino et al., 2021) (see Fig. 1)

With our integrated approach, we untangled the significant short-term velocity reduction and permanent damage caused by small magnitude earthquakes impacting the shallow hydrothermal system, distinguishing it from a long-term velocity increase that connected with the depressurization of the shallow hydrothermal reservoir. Our multidisciplinary study highlights the possibility to decipher varied rock responses, contributing to elucidate the physical processes within the hydrothermal system and its connection to seismicity. This insight can further open new possibilities for monitoring the physical state of industrial geothermal sites.

## **The Ischia Volcanic complex**

The study area (Fig. 1) encompasses the westernmost active volcanic complex of the Campanian plain, incorporating Campi Flegrei, Procida, and Vesuvius in Southern Italy (Civetta et al., 1991). A hydrothermal system subject to depressurization (Sepe et al., 2007) exists within the volcanic edifice of Ischia, causing subsidence (up to  $-15 \pm 2.0$  mm/yr) with a centripetal displacement rate with the largest deformations on the southern flank of Mt. Epomeo (Galvani et al., 2021). This deformation field has been related to a deflating sill-like body, which represents a magmatic reservoir centered below the resurgent block at depth  $\sim 2$  km and contracting at a rate of  $\sim 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup>/y (Trasatti et al., 2019).

The island is characterized by geothermal activity, primarily occurring in the southwest portion (Chiodini et al., 2004). According to D'Auria et al., (2018) the southwest hydrothermal processes are unrelated to historical seismicity, while earthquakes predominantly affect the northern part, near the town of Casamicciola Terme, at very shallow depths ( $\sim 500$  m). The genesis of earthquakes is probably linked to the dynamic of structural features of the northern part of the island (D'Auria et al., 2018; Paoletti et al., 2013). Carlino et al., (2006) argued that seismicity in the northern sector, correlated with a lower geothermal gradient, shifting the brittle-ductile transition deeper thus favoring the shallow occurrence of earthquakes.

On August 21, 2017, a  $M_w$  3.9 earthquake in Casamicciola (orange star in Fig. 1) triggered landslides (blue stars in Fig.1), collapses (Nappi et al., 2018), and ground shaking with amplitudes reaching almost  $\sim 18$  cm/s. The scarcity of data, due to a lack of operating accelerometers on the island and saturation effects on the few working velocimeters (Nazeri et al., 2022) has led to controversy regarding the mechanism of the 2017 earthquake. Braun et al., (2018) proposed a normal faulting event triggering a shallow underground collapse to explain the 4 cm subsidence observed immediately after the earthquake (De Novellis et al., 2018). According to Trasatti et al., (Trasatti et al., 2019) the normal focal mechanism of the 2017 Casamicciola earthquake (Braun et al., 2018; De Novellis et al., 2018; Nappi et al., 2018) suggests that seismicity is consistent with a deflationary forcing process. Differently, Nazeri et al., (2022) asserted that the earthquake activated a reverse dipping-inward fault, which would be consistent with a resurgence mechanism of Monte Epomeo block. Albano et al., (2018) argued that slope movements partially overlapped the coseismic ground displacement retrieved by InSAR data, which resulted from a combination of fault-slip and surficial sliding induced by seismic shaking, that if not distinguished would lead to an improper definition of the source geometry and an overestimation of the coseismic fault slip. Works based on multitemporal differential interferometry techniques (Beccaro et al., 2021) also

highlighted a post-event accelerated subsidence rate that approximately returned to pre-earthquake levels after 6 months from the event.

Recently the historically seismic behavior of the island has been linked to a fault-valve type mechanism. This mechanism is coherent with periodic events of pressurization in the hydrothermal reservoir, driven by self-sealing processes, followed by depressurization episodes associated with ruptures (Calderoni et al., 2019). Self-sealing induces, in fact, an increase in fluid pressure, potentially causing local uplifts. The decrease in fluid pressure within ENE-WSW to E-W striking cracks at Mt Epomeo (789 m a.s.l., Fig. 1) may signify a reduction in fluid pressure within the larger-scale, deep hydrothermal system (Manzo et al., 2006; Sepe et al., 2007), leading to progressive crack closure (Sepe et al., 2007).

### Velocity variations measurements at Ischia volcanic complex

Using the three components continuous recordings acquired at IOCA, IMTC and IFOR stations (red triangles in Fig. 1), we construct ambient noise autocorrelations (Lobkis & Weaver, 2003; Poli et al., 2020; Sabra, 2005; N. M. Shapiro & Campillo, 2004) (See Supporting Information, Text S1). The analysis involves 8 years of data, from January 2016 to August 2023. The resulting  $\delta v/v$  for the coda time window 10-30s are reported in Fig. 2 a-c for the three seismic stations on the Ischia Island. The  $\delta v/v$  show periodic annual variations of 0.2% of amplitude, with minima of velocity during wet months (Fig. 2j) (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006; Wang et al., 2017). At station IOCA (Fig 2a) we additionally observe a clear velocity drop associated with the 2017  $M_w$  3.9 Casamicciola earthquake (Albano et al., 2018; Braun et al., 2018; Calderoni et al., 2019) (Fig. 1). A similar drop, albeit less visible, is present at other stations, but it is masked by the seasonal signals (Fig. 2b, c). We also observe that all stations show a generalized velocity increment over the full study time (Fig. 2). A similarly imbricated  $\delta v/v$ , with seasonal, earthquakes induced, and long-term velocity changes is observed for other coda time windows (Fig 2d-f, 2g-i). In previous studies<sup>14</sup> based on theoretical findings<sup>57</sup>, the coda lapse-time-dependent analysis has been designed to retrieve the behavior of velocity variations as function of relative depth. We evaluated the sensitivity of the scattered body waves by considering a 3D sensitivity kernel formulation (Pacheco & Snieder, 2005) (see Supporting Information, Text S2 and Fig. S1). Velocity variations are sensitive approximately to the first 2 km of the crust, whose brittle layer in Ischia Island is extremely thin (Carlino et al., 2006).

To discern the various components of the  $\delta v/v$  time series (see Fig. 2), we developed a comprehensive model, accounting for velocity variations induced by the 2017  $M_w$  3.9 Casamicciola earthquake (Bonilla et al., 2019; Boschelli et al., 2021; Chaves & Schwartz, 2016; Poli et al., 2020; Soldati et al., 2019; Taira et al., 2015, 2018; Wu et al., 2016) and its subsequent post-seismic relaxation and fault-healing processes (Brenguier, Campillo, et al., 2008; Li, 2003; Vidale & Li, 2003). The model also incorporates any permanent post-seismic  $\delta v/v$  (Hobiger et al., 2014), seasonal changes (Barajas et al., 2021; Hillers et al., 2015; Mikhael et al., 2024; Poli et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017), and long-term linear changes (Taira et al., 2018):

$$\frac{\delta v}{v}^{synth}(t) = A + Bt + \left[ C_{per} + C \exp\left(-\frac{t-t_{eq}}{D}\right) \right] H(t - t_{eq}) + E [\sin(wt)] + F [\cos(wt)]$$

[1]

163 In the equation 1 the constant  $A$  [%] represents offset,  $B$  [%/years] is the temporal linear trend  
 164 of velocity changes,  $C_{per}$  [%] is a permanent co-seismic variation of seismic velocity due to the  
 165 earthquake,  $C$  [%], is a transient co-seismic velocity change due to the earthquake, that is  
 166 recovered in a characteristic time  $D$  [year].  $E$  [%] and  $F$  [%] are annual velocity variations, and  $w$   
 167 in the sine and cosine terms were fixed to be  $2\pi \text{ year}^{-1}$ .  $H(t)$  is the Heaviside step function and  $t_{eq}$  is  
 168 the occurrence time of the earthquake;  $t$  is an elapsed time [year]. We estimate  $A, B, C_{per}, C, E, F$   
 169 using a nonlinear least squares approach to fit the measured velocity variations (Fig. 2) and provide  
 170 the 68% confidence bounds on the coefficients, that it is the percentage of values that lie within 1  
 171 standard deviation in a normal distribution. The best-fit model is represented as red lines in figure  
 172 2, and the resulting coefficients for each station and coda window are summarized in figure 3 and  
 173 figure S2.

#### 174 **Dynamic response to the Mw 3.9 Casamicciola earthquake**

175 The coefficients  $C$ ,  $C_{per}$  and  $D$  are associated with velocity variations and recovery after the  
 176 shaking induced by the  $M_w$  3.9 Casamicciola event (Albano et al., 2018; Braun et al., 2018;  
 177 Calderoni et al., 2019; Nappi et al., 2018; Nazeri et al., 2022).  $C$  and  $C_{per}$  represent the coseismic  
 178 velocity drop and its non-recovered amount ( $C_{per}$ ) and reveal a systematic variation across the  
 179 study area (Fig. 4 a-c). The largest negative velocity changes are induced at IOCA station which is  
 180  $\sim 1 \text{ km}$  far from the earthquake epicenter (Fig. 3g). Here, nearly all the co-seismic drop is  
 181 permanent, and it is maximal for the early coda window, reducing at later lapse time, indicating  
 182 larger damage close to the free surface (Obermann et al., 2013; Poli et al., 2020). The large and  
 183 permanent velocity changes at the free surface reflect the significant damage of the shallow rocks,  
 184 interested by several landslides which occurred in response to the  $M_w$  3.9 earthquake (Nappi et al.,  
 185 2018). At the other two stations the coseismic drop is fully recovered in 1-2 yrs (Fig. 3c) but is still  
 186 significantly large (about 0.2%) for such a small magnitude earthquake (Taira et al., 2018). At  
 187 station IFOR, located in the southern part of the island, we again observe a depth dependence of  
 188 the coseismic drop (Poli et al., 2020), highlighting largest damage due to the presence of less  
 189 consolidated shallow rocks (Foda & Chang, 1995; Nardone et al., 2023).

190 The dynamic strain sensitivity ( $\beta$ , for the complete derivation of the dynamic strain sensitivity see  
 191 Supporting Information, Text S3, Eq. A.1) is negative at all the 3 sites, as observed on rock samples  
 192 in laboratory (Renaud et al., 2012) and widely elsewhere (Hillers et al., 2019; Poli et al., 2020;  
 193 Takano et al., 2019). The strain sensitivity computed from dynamic strain induced by the  
 194 magnitude  $M_w$  3.9 event in 2017 is  $\sim 10$  at IMTC (green) and IOCA (blue, Fig. 3d). The behavior at  
 195 both sites is not far from co-seismic response in L'Aquila to the  $M_w$  6.2 earthquake (Poli et al.,  
 196 2020), where dynamic strain sensitivity is in the order  $\sim 10$  but for larger dynamic strains, and, as  
 197 well, in Turkey (Muller et al., 2023), where in a higher frequency band (2-4Hz) a coseismic seismic  
 198 velocity drop equal to -1.79% has been observed in response to the  $M_w$  7.8 earthquake. Besides,  
 199 the above-mentioned cases are one order larger than estimates in geothermal areas (Taira et al.,  
 200 2018). On the other hand, the strain sensitivity is even larger (in the order  $\sim 10^2$ ) in the site of  
 201 IFOR (red, Fig. 3d), in the most south part of the island, where geothermal activity is more intense  
 202 and it has caused in the past wells explosion, as also retrieved in local seismic records (D'Auria et  
 203 al., 2018). The observed strong coseismic velocity reductions at IFOR, in the southern part, mirror  
 204 indeed the major presence of pressurized volcanic fluids in this sector of the island (Brenguier et  
 205 al., 2014). It is well known, in fact, that the sensitivity of the seismic velocity to stress changes in



the rock increases with decreasing effective pressure (S. A. Shapiro, 2003) and that in volcanic region the effective pressure in the crust can be reduced because of the presence of highly pressurized hydrothermal and magmatic volcanic fluids at depth (Brennguier et al., 2014). In other words, our results on the dynamic strain sensitivity disclose the different levels of pressurization of the hydrothermal fluids circulating in the Ischia Island, responsible for a spatially heterogeneous seismic velocity susceptibility to dynamic stress.

## Long term velocity variations and volcanic deformation

The parameter B in Eq. 1 describes the long-term linear trend, which is positive at IOCA and IFOR stations, for all coda lapse time, suggesting a stable velocity increment occurring over a range of depth of several kilometers (Poli et al., 2020), while less resolved is the increment for station IMTC (Fig. 3e). Velocity increment in volcanic systems have been observed as results of strain decreases (compression) during dike intrusions (Donaldson et al., 2019), while stable velocity increases have been interpreted as resulting from pore pressure reduction in geothermal systems (Taira et al., 2018).

To gain more insights about the origin of the observed long-term increment, we estimate the strain evolution (see Supporting Information, Text S4) using GNSS data (dark cyan and cornflower squares in Fig. 1). Horizontal strains are in the order  $10^{-5}$  with a negative trend (Fig. 4), associated with the progressive contraction of the caldera (Trasatti et al., 2019). The strain rate shows a significant heterogeneous variation over the island, with larger values in the northernmost part of the island, in agreement with previous studies (Sepe et al., 2007). From the comparison of the linear trends in the seismic wave velocity variations and in the strain computed in the nearest triad of GPS stations to the velocimeter, we computed the quasi-static strain sensitivity retrieving a value  $\sim -10^2$  (Fig. 3f) for IFOR and IOCA, slightly smaller at IMTC and null in the first time-lapse window (10-30s).

## Discussion

Our long-term (6.7 years) geodetic modeling reveals a generalized contraction of the Ischia Caldera, also reported in previous studies (Galvani et al., 2021; Sepe et al., 2007; Trasatti et al., 2019). Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the observed contraction and related to the seismic activity in the northern part of the Island. Galvani et al. (Galvani et al., 2021) proposed a deep (4km) contraction of a magmatic reservoir, which feed the shallow faults systems with geothermal fluids. In this model the seismicity is controlled by rise in fluid pressure (Calderoni et al., 2019). On the other hand, Sepe et al. (Sepe et al., 2007) modeled the subsidence and contraction with a crack closure mechanism due to depressurization of shallow faults, through the  $CO_2$  degassing. In this second model, the seismicity in the northern part of the island is mainly controlled by tectonic stressing (Braun et al., 2018). Trasatti et al., (Trasatti et al., 2019) modeled a shallow cooling magma body, around 2 km of depth, plus a creeping fault in the NW part of the island. Their model predicts that degassing and cooling control the subsidence at Ischia and induce creep and related earthquakes in the faults located in the NW part of the island.

With our results we additionally highlight a systematic long-term increment of velocity across all coda window (Fig. 3e), which suggest that both surface and body wave speed increases during the study period (Obermann et al., 2013). The velocity increment can help us to better constrain the mechanism of deformation for the Ischia Caldera (Caudron et al., 2022; Duputel et

al., 2009; Makus et al., 2023; Rivet et al., 2014). An increment (decrease) of velocity can be associated with crack closure (opening) and reduction (increment) of pore pressure (Taira et al., 2018; Takano et al., 2017). Thus, any increment in pore pressure in the shallow fault system (Galvani et al., 2021) would manifest in our  $\delta v/v$ , at least for the early coda window. On the other hand, our results (Fig. 3e) better agree with a depressurization of the shallow hydrothermal system, through degassing along faults (Sepe et al., 2007) or sills (Trasatti et al., 2019). The  $\delta v/v$  rate varies across the island, with faster increment rate recorded at IOCA, where largest strain rates are also observed (Fig. 4, (Trasatti et al., 2019)). Our results thus highlight an heterogeneous shallow degassing, with mostly effective in the northern part of the Island, and might play a significant role in controlling the aseismic deformation of the Casamicciola faults (Trasatti et al., 2019)

Together with the long-term velocity increment we report significant velocity drops induced by the  $M_w$  3.9 Casamicciola earthquake (Fig. 3 a, b), which exceed the ones observed in regular tectonic environments (Chaves & Schwartz, 2016; Poli et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2016). The combination of a shallow rupture and the action of trapping geological structures (Nazeri & Zollo, 2023) as the volcanic deposits (Foda & Chang, 1995; Nazeri et al., 2022), operating as low-velocity waveguides, caused the amplification of the ground shaking for this moderate earthquake. The largest and permanent velocity changes observed close to the epicenter track the significant shallow damage induced by the earthquakes, including landslides (Albano et al., 2018; Marc et al., 2021; Nappi et al., 2018). The strain sensitivity to the dynamic perturbation (Eq. A.2, Fig. 3f), at IOCA, is in line with previous studies (Poli et al., 2020; Taira et al., 2018), while anomalous values are observed close to the IFOR station (Fig. 3f). In this zone, the lower strain rates we observe (Fig. 3g) indicate slower depressurization and related crack closure, leaving higher pore pressure in shallow rocks, which enhance the sensitivity to dynamic strain perturbation (Poli et al., 2020; Taira et al., 2018). This last observation agrees with previous report of geothermal wells explosion in this part of the island (D'Auria et al., 2018). 0.138

We additionally calculate the strain sensitivity (see Supporting Information, Text S4) using the long-term strain rates (Fig. 3g, 4) and velocity increments (Fig. 3e) for the quasi-static case. The results (Fig. 3f) reveal near zero values in the central part of the island (station IMTC), while remarkable similar large values of the strain sensitivity are observed at IOCA and IFOR. The different response for dynamic (Fig. 3d) and quasi-static (Fig. 3f) deformation suggest the existence of different mechanisms controlling the velocity changes at different frequencies (Rivière et al., 2016).

## Conclusion

Our integrated geophysical characterization of the deformation processes at Ischia Island revealed the power of including multiple techniques to deepen our understanding of the dynamic of magmatic systems (as previously experimented in multi-parametric studies (Cabrera-Pérez et al., 2023; Caudron et al., 2021, 2022; Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2017, 2019; Olivier et al., 2019; Rivet et al., 2014)). The synergy of geodetic methods and ambient noise monitoring has unveiled a noteworthy sensitivity of  $\delta v/v$  to depressurization processes. This discovery holds promising implications for the potential application of monitoring geothermal production, presenting a valuable avenue for further exploration and utilization.

## 289 Data availability

290 Seismic data are available from the FDSN webservice of the Italian National Institute of Geophysics  
291 and Volcanology – INGV (<http://webservices.ingv.it/fdsnws/dataselect/1/>). GPS data of the station  
292 ISC1 are from GNSS Campania network (<http://gps.sit.regione.campania.it/>). Rain data at  
293 pluviometric station of Forio have been downloaded at  
294 <https://centrofunzionale.regione.campania.it>.

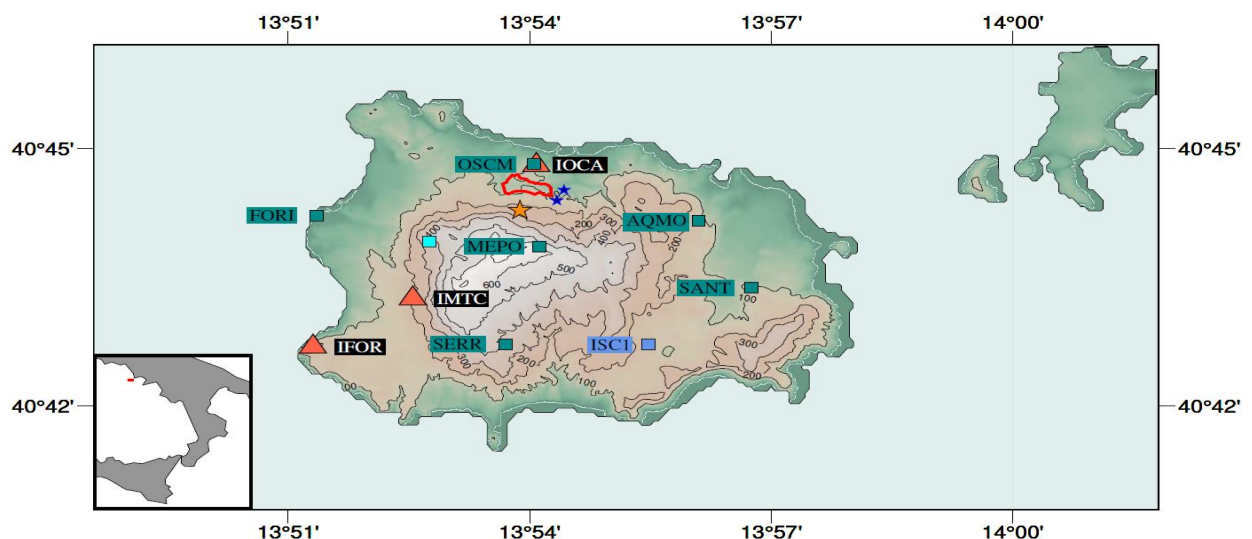
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299 Campania. Authors also acknowledge Prospero De Martino (Osservatorio Vesuviano, INGV) to  
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303 software package ([The Generic Mapping Tools \(generic-mapping-tools.org\)](http://www.generic-mapping-tools.org)) and MATLAB Version:  
304 9.13.0 (R2022b) Update 2 ([MATLAB Home - MATLAB & Simulink \(mathworks.com\)](http://www.mathworks.com)). Analysis was  
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## 308 Supporting information

309 Further details on the method used and additional figures are available in the supporting  
310 information.

## 311 FIGURES



*Figure 1 Map of the study area. The red triangles indicate the location of the seismic stations, while the darkcyan squares represents the GPS station of the NeVoCGPS network (Osservatorio Vesuviano) and the cornflower square the GPS station of the GNSS Campania network. The orange star indicates the epicenter of the 21<sup>st</sup> august 2017, Ischia Earhquake, cyan square represents the pluviometric station of Forio, while the blue stars indicate documented landslides (Nappi et al., 2018). The red line encloses the area most damaged by the earthquake (also called "red zone", (Azzaro et al., 2017). The inset shows the location of the study area (red rectangle) in Italy.*



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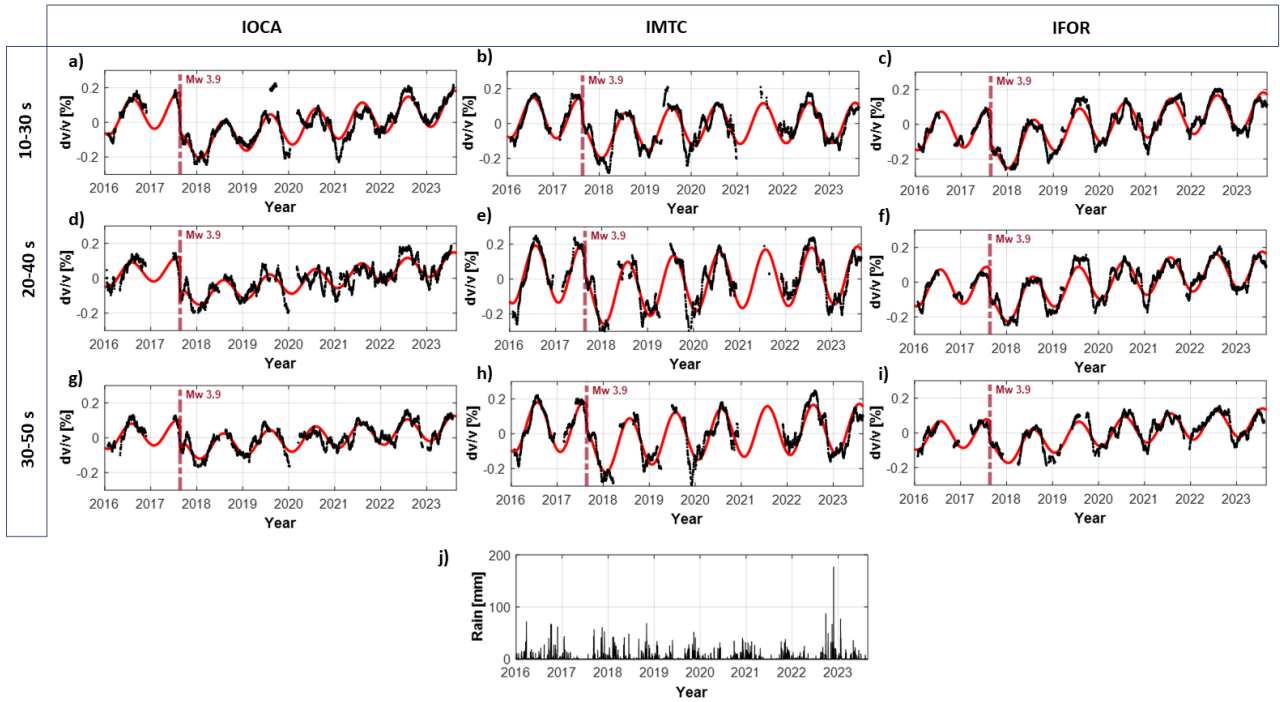


Figure 2 – **Time Series of Seismological Observations and Rain:** **a)-i)** velocity variations for coda waves time lapse using empirical Green's functions reconstructed by autocorrelation of seismic noise in the frequency band from 0.5 Hz to 1 Hz, for the station IOCA, IMTC and IFOR and using different coda time lapse for analysis (indicated on the left side of the figure). The vertical dashed line highlights the occurrence of Mw 3.9 Ischia earthquake, red line represents the result of fit of equation (1). In **j)** there is the time series of Rain recorded at pluviometric station of Forio (cyan square in fig. 1).

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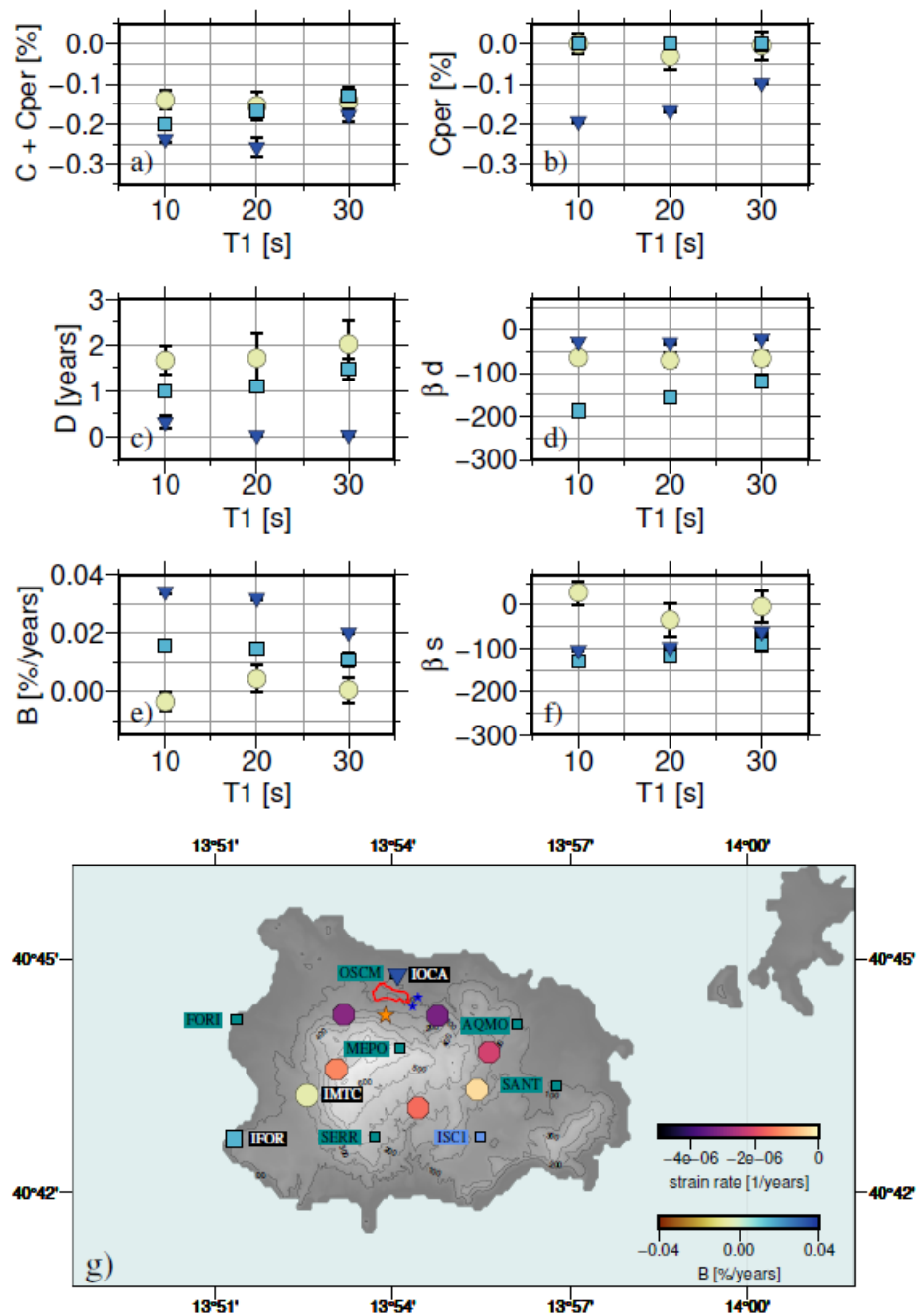


Figure 3 – **Summary of Results for different Coda Time Lapse at the seismological stations.** IOCA is represented by triangles, IMTC by circles and IFOR by squares; **a)** Global Velocity Drops; **b)** Permanent velocity drop; **c)** Recovery time; **d)** dynamic strain sensitivity of velocity variations; **e)** linear trend; **f)** static strain sensitivity of velocity variations; **g)** map view of strain rate (octagons) obtained from slopes of strain vs time curves in Fig 3b and linear trend (coefficient B, symbols ad in the panels a-f) ).

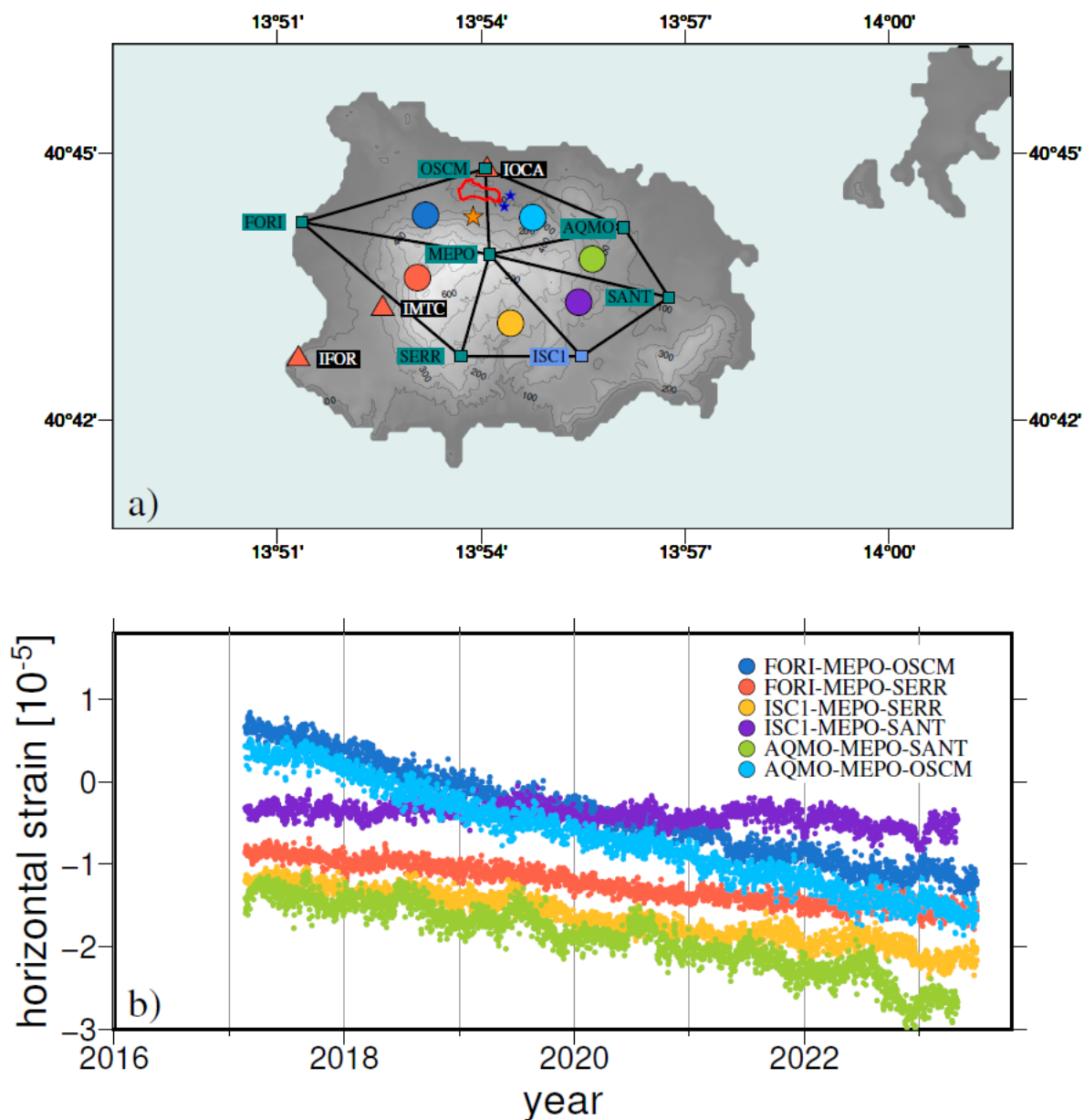


Figure 4 **Time series of horizontal strain:** **a)** triangles represent seismic station, cornflower and darkcyan squares are GPS station as in fig. 1, circles represent the centroid of the triads of stations (black lines) used to compute the temporal evolution of strain represented in **b)**.

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