

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_w 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_w 3.9), in the active volcanic complex of the Ischia Island (Italy). Our study reveals a significant
22 dynamic velocity reduction ($\sim 0.2\%$) 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

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

45

46 **Introduction**

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

60 To date, the combined study of geodetic methods and seismic wave velocity changes has yielded
61 profound insights into the physical processes in active magmatic systems (Cabrera-Pérez et al.,
62 2023; Caudron et al., 2021, 2022; Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2017; Olivier et al.,
63 2019; Rivet et al., 2014), but has also extended its contribution to fundamental understandings of
64 the rheology of volcanic rocks (Takano et al., 2019). To name a few examples of successful
65 integration of interdisciplinary data, in central Iceland, the correlation between relative velocity
66 and volumetric strain in regions of both compression and dilatation has been associated with a
67 dike intrusion, which was partially masked by superimposed seasonal cycles resulting from elastic
68 and poroelastic responses to changing snow thickness, atmospheric pressure, and groundwater
69 level (Donaldson et al., 2019). In SW Iceland, repeated crustal magmatic intrusions in a complex
70 plate boundary zone and the concurrent opening of new cracks to accommodate magma
71 propagation resulted in a co-intrusive seismic velocity reduction (Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021).
72 Thanks to the use of continuous seismic records and novel approaches, Caudron et al., (2021)
73 revealed that an apparent quiescent period before a phreatic eruption at Mt Ontake was preceded
74 indeed by an intriguing sequence of correlated seismic velocity and volumetric strain changes,
75 starting months before the eruption and due to the dynamics of undetected pressurized fluids.

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

79 2007; Trasatti et al., 2019) (Fig. 1). To achieve this objective, we employ ambient seismic noise
80 interferometry to estimate $\delta v/v$ at various seismic stations (N. M. Shapiro & Campillo, 2004).
81 Concurrently, we quantify both static and dynamic strains through the utilization of a local GNSS
82 network (De Martino et al., 2021) (see Fig. 1)

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

90 **The Ischia Volcanic complex**

91 The study area (Fig. 1) encompasses the westernmost active volcanic complex of the Campanian
92 plain, incorporating Campi Flegrei, Procida, and Vesuvius in Southern Italy (Civetta et al., 1991). A
93 hydrothermal system subject to depressurization (Sepe et al., 2007) exists within the volcanic
94 edifice of Ischia, causing subsidence (up to -15 ± 2.0 mm/yr) with a centripetal displacement rate
95 with the largest deformations on the southern flank of Mt. Epomeo (Galvani et al., 2021). This
96 deformation field has been related to a deflating sill-like body, which represents a magmatic
97 reservoir centered below the resurgent block at depth ~ 2 km and contracting at a rate of
98 $\sim 10^5$ m³/y (Trasatti et al., 2019).

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

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

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

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

133 **Velocity variations measurements at Ischia volcanic complex**

134 Using the three components continuous recordings acquired at IOCA, IMTC and IFOR stations (red
135 triangles in Fig. 1), we construct ambient noise autocorrelations (Lobkis & Weaver, 2003; Poli et al.,
136 2020; Sabra, 2005; N. M. Shapiro & Campillo, 2004) (See Supporting Information, Text S1). The analysis
137 involves 8 years of data, from January 2016 to August 2023. The resulting $\delta v/v$ for the coda time
138 window 10-30s are reported in Fig. 2 a-c for the three seismic stations on the Ischia Island. The
139 $\delta v/v$ show periodic annual variations of 0.2% of amplitude, with minima of velocity during wet
140 months (Fig. 2j) (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006; Wang et al., 2017). At station IOCA (Fig 2a) we
141 additionally observe a clear velocity drop associated with the 2017 M_w 3.9 Casamicciola
142 earthquake (Albano et al., 2018; Braun et al., 2018; Calderoni et al., 2019) (Fig. 1). A similar drop,
143 albeit less visible, is present at other stations, but it is masked by the seasonal signals (Fig. 2b, c).
144 We also observe that all stations show a generalized velocity increment over the full study time
145 (Fig. 2). A similarly imbricated $\delta v/v$, with seasonal, earthquakes induced, and long-term velocity
146 changes is observed for other coda time windows (Fig 2d-f,2g-i). In previous studies¹⁴ based on
147 theoretical findings⁵⁷, the coda lapse-time-dependent analysis has been designed to retrieve the
148 behavior of velocity variations as function of relative depth. We evaluated the sensitivity of the
149 scattered body waves by considering a 3D sensitivity kernel formulation (Pacheco & Snieder, 2005)
150 (see Supporting Information, Text S2 and Fig. S1). Velocity variations are sensitive approximately to
151 the first 2 km of the crust, whose brittle layer in Ischia Island is extremely thin (Carlino et al., 2006).

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

160

$$161 \frac{\delta v}{v}^{synth}(t) = A + Bt + \left[C_{per} + C \exp\left(-\frac{t-t_{eq}}{D}\right) \right] H(t - t_{eq}) + E [\sin(wt)] + F [\cos(wt)]$$

162

[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 (β , 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 ~ 10 at IMTC (green) and IOCA (blue, Fig. 3d). The behavior at
195 both sites is not far than 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 ~ 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 (Brenquier et
205 al., 2014). It is well known, in fact, that the sensitivity of the seismic velocity to stress changes in

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

212 Long term velocity variations and volcanic deformation

213 The parameter B in Eq. 1 describes the long-term linear trend, which is positive at IOCA and IFOR
214 stations, for all coda lapse time, suggesting a stable velocity increment occurring over a range of
215 depth of several kilometers (Poli et al., 2020), while less resolved is the increment for station IMTC
216 (Fig. 3e). Velocity increment in volcanic systems have been observed as results of strain decreases
217 (compression) during dike intrusions (Donaldson et al., 2019), while stable velocity increases have
218 been interpreted as resulting from pore pressure reduction in geothermal systems (Taira et al.,
219 2018).

220 To gain more insights about the origin of the observed long-term increment, we estimate the strain
221 evolution (see Supporting Information, Text S4) using GNSS data (dark cyan and cornflower squares
222 in Fig. 1). Horizontal strains are in the order 10^{-5} with a negative trend (Fig. 4), associated with the
223 progressive contraction of the caldera (Trasatti et al., 2019). The strain rate shows a significant
224 heterogeneous variation over the island, with larger values in the northernmost part of the island,
225 in agreement with previous studies (Sepe et al., 2007). From the comparison of the linear trends in
226 the seismic wave velocity variations and in the strain computed in the nearest triad of GPS stations
227 to the velocimeter, we computed the quasi-static strain sensitivity retrieving a value $\sim -10^2$ (Fig.
228 3f) for IFOR and IOCA, slightly smaller at IMTC and null in the first time-lapse window (10-30s).

229 Discussion

230 Our long-term (6.7 years) geodetic modeling reveals a generalized contraction of the Ischia
231 Caldera, also reported in previous studies (Galvani et al., 2021; Sepe et al., 2007; Trasatti et al.,
232 2019). Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the observed contraction and related to
233 the seismic activity in the northern part of the Island. Galvani et al. (Galvani et al., 2021) proposed
234 a deep (4km) contraction of a magmatic reservoir, which feed the shallow faults systems with
235 geothermal fluids. In this model the seismicity is controlled by rise in fluid pressure (Calderoni et
236 al., 2019). On the other hand, Sepe et al. (Sepe et al., 2007) modeled the subsidence and
237 contraction with a crack closure mechanism due to depressurization of shallow faults, through the
238 CO_2 degassing. In this second model, the seismicity in the northern part of the island is mainly
239 controlled by tectonic stressing (Braun et al., 2018). Trasatti et al., (Trasatti et al., 2019) modeled a
240 shallow cooling magma body, around 2 km of depth, plus a creeping fault in the NW part of the
241 island. Their model predicts that degassing and cooling control the subsidence at Ischia and induce
242 creep and related earthquakes in the faults located in the NW part of the island.

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

247 al., 2009; Makus et al., 2023; Rivet et al., 2014). An increment (decrease) of velocity can be
248 associated with crack closure (opening) and reduction (increment) of pore pressure (Taira et al.,
249 2018; Takano et al., 2017). Thus, any increment in pore pressure in the shallow fault system
250 (Galvani et al., 2021) would manifest in our $\delta v/v$, at least for the early coda window. On the other
251 hand, our results (Fig. 3e) better agree with a depressurization of the shallow hydrothermal
252 system, through degassing along faults (Sepe et al., 2007) or sills (Trasatti et al., 2019). The $\delta v/v$
253 rate varies across the island, with faster increment rate recorded at IOCA, where largest strain
254 rates are also observed (Fig. 4, (Trasatti et al., 2019)). Our results thus highlight an heterogenous
255 shallow degassing, with mostly effective in the northern part of the Island, and might play a
256 significant role in controlling the aseismic deformation of the Casamicciola faults (Trasatti et al.,
257 2019)

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

273 We additionally calculate the strain sensitivity (see Supporting Information, Text S4) using
274 the long-term strain rates (Fig. 3g, 4) and velocity increments (Fig. 3e) for the quasi-static case. The
275 results (Fig. 3f) reveal near zero values in the central part of the island (station IMTC), while
276 remarkable similar large values of the strain sensitivity are observed at IOCA and IFOR. The
277 different response for dynamic (Fig. 3d) and quasi-static (Fig. 3f) deformation suggest the existence
278 of different mechanisms controlling the velocity changes at different frequencies (Rivière et al.,
279 2016).

280 **Conclusion**

281 Our integrated geophysical characterization of the deformation processes at Ischia Island
282 revealed the power of including multiple techniques to deepen our understanding of the dynamic
283 of magmatic systems (as previously experimented in multi-parametric studies (Cabrera-Pérez et al.,
284 2023; Caudron et al., 2021, 2022; Cubuk-Sabuncu et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2017, 2019; Olivier
285 et al., 2019; Rivet et al., 2014)). The synergy of geodetic methods and ambient noise monitoring
286 has unveiled a noteworthy sensitivity of $\delta v/v$ to depressurization processes. This discovery holds
287 promising implications for the potential application of monitoring geothermal production,
288 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>.

295

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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
305 done in MATLAB and Python (<http://www.python.org>). ST was supported by MYBURP Pianeta
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307 Administrations).

308 **Supporting information**

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

311 **FIGURES**

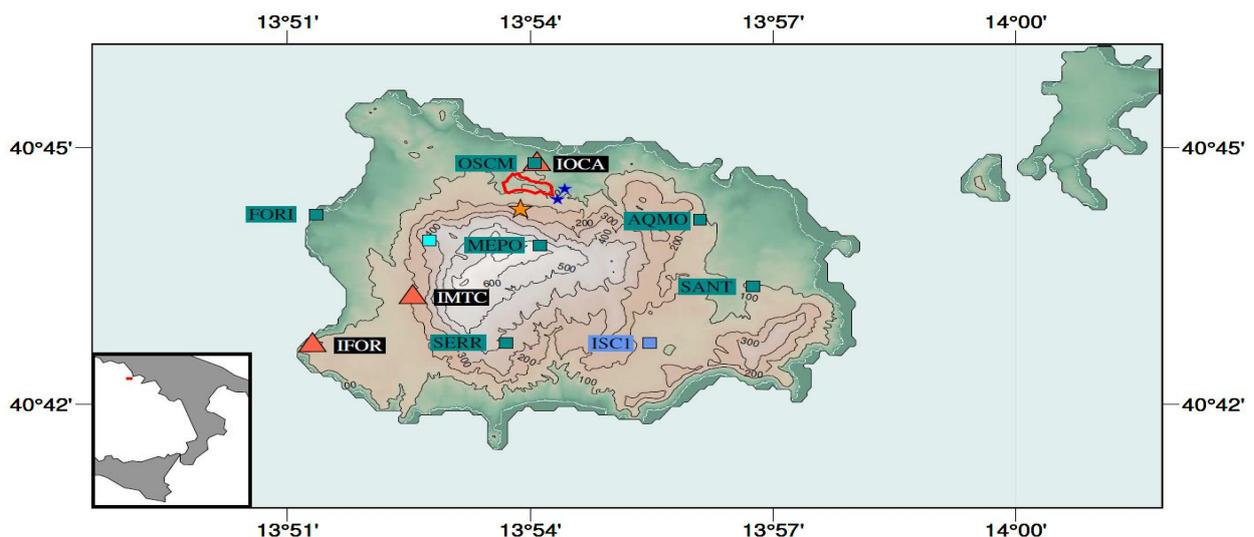


Figure 1 **Map of the study area.** The red triangles indicate the location of the seismic stations, while the darkcyan squares represents the GPS station of the NeVoCGPS network (Osservatorio Vesuviano) and the cornflower square the GPS station of the GNSS Campania network. The orange star indicates the epicenter of the 21st 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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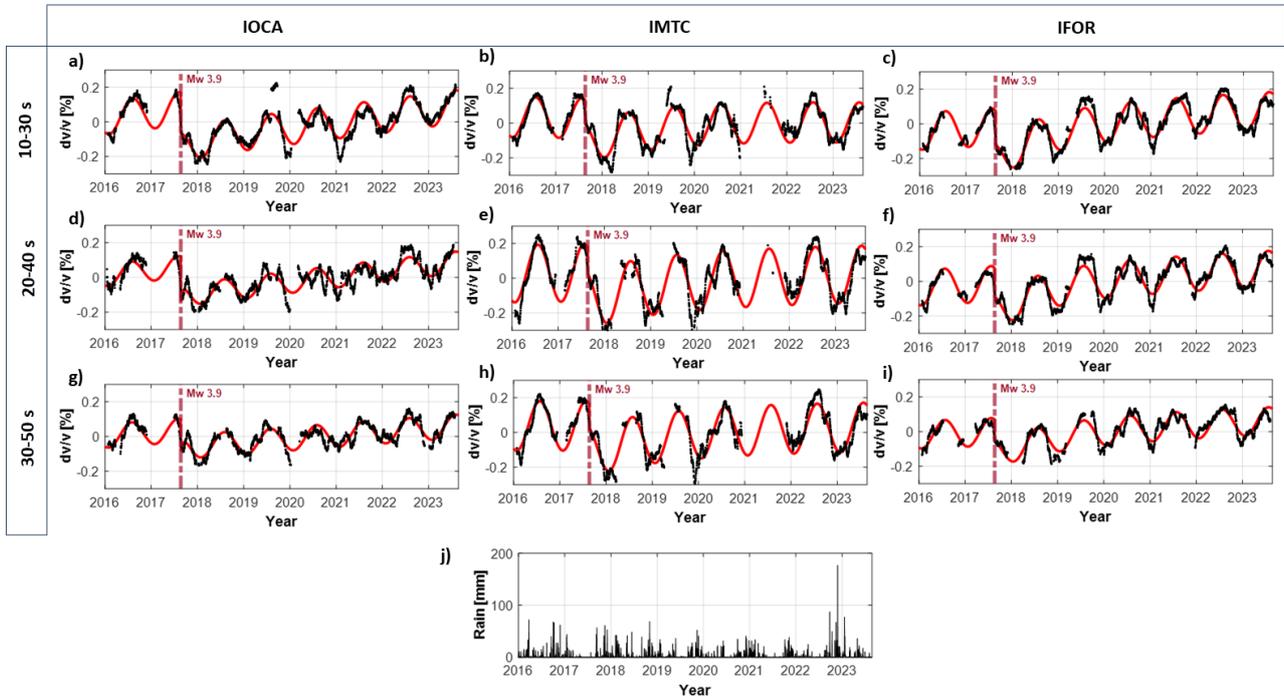


Figure 2 – **Time Series of Seismological Observations and Rain:** a)-i) velocity variations for coda waves time lapse using empirical Green's functions reconstructed by autocorrelation of seismic noise in the frequency band from 0.5 Hz to 1 Hz, for the station IOCA, IMTC and IFOR and using different 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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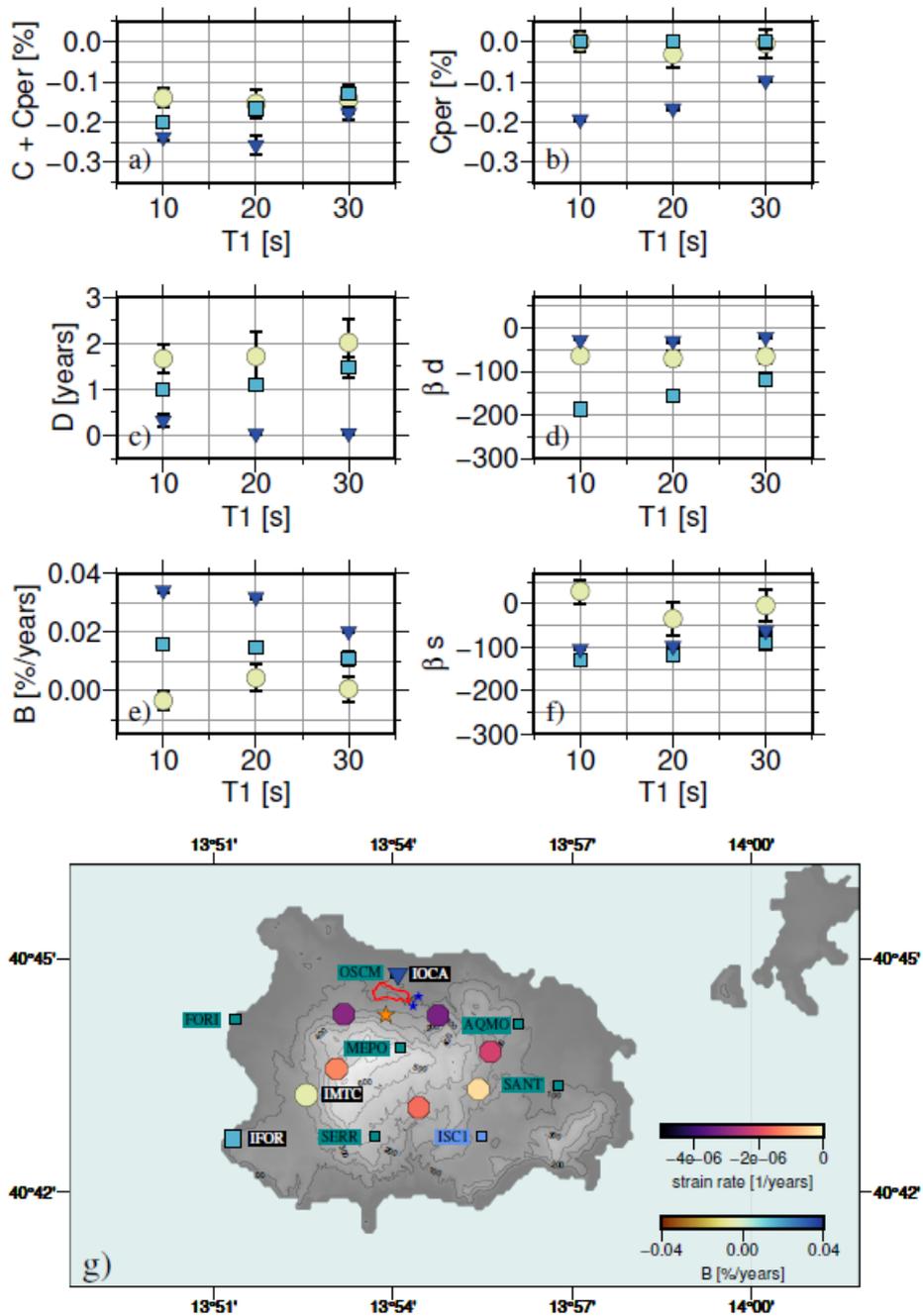
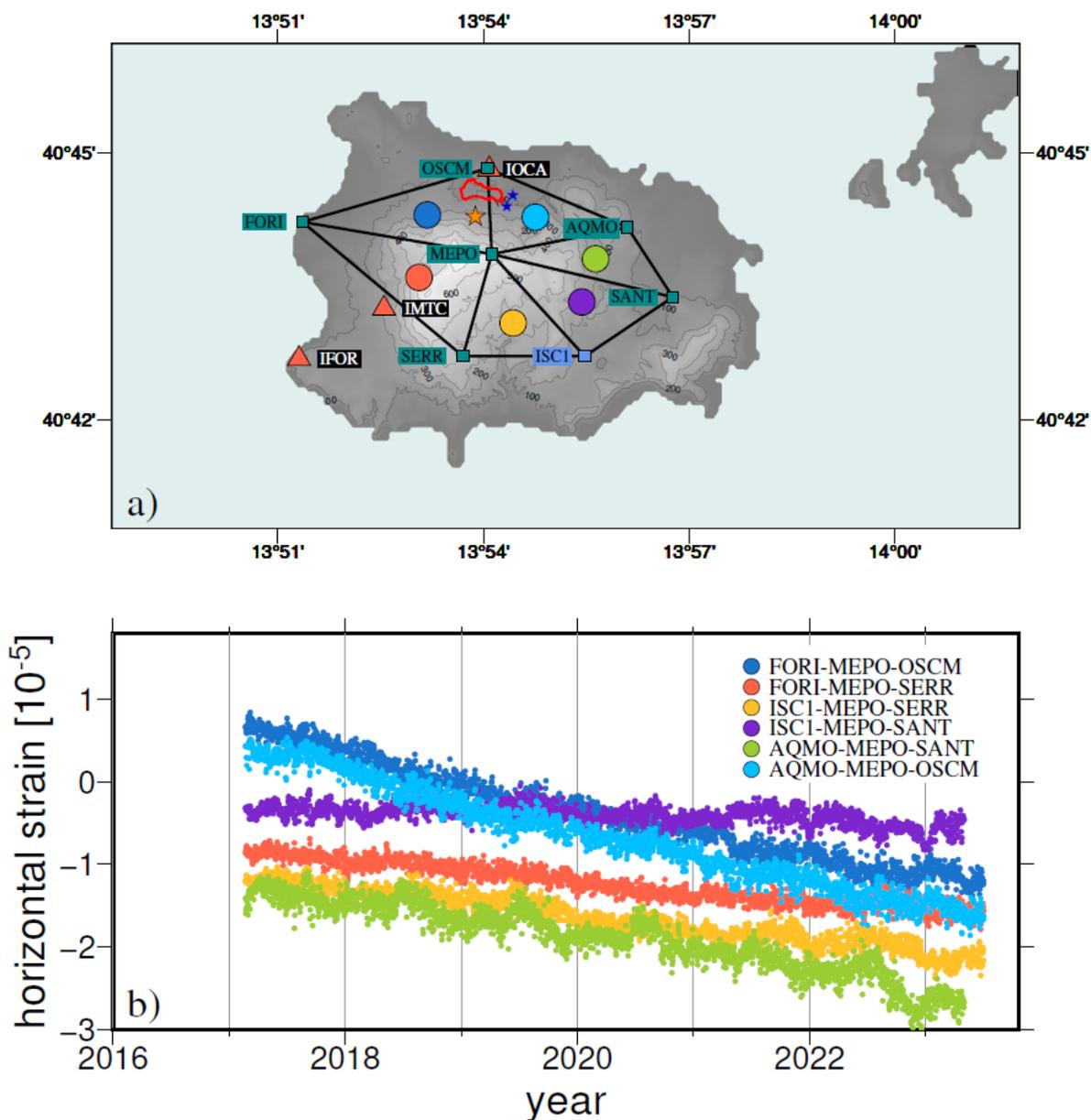


Figure 3 – **Summary of Results for different Coda Time Lapse at the seismological stations.** IOCA is represented by triangles, IMTC by circles and IFOR by squares: **a)** Global Velocity Drops; **b)** Permanent velocity drop; **c)** Recovery time; **d)** dynamic strain sensitivity of velocity variations; **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).



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

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