

Manuscript Number: JAES-D-11-00114

Title: Methane flux of miniseepage in mud volcanoes of SW Taiwan: Comparison with the data from Europe and Azerbaijan

Article Type: Special Issue: Gas/Fluid Geochemistry

Keywords: mud volcano; miniseepage; macroseepage; global methane emission

Abstract: Mud volcanoes (MVs) are considered as important methane (CH₄) sources for the atmosphere; gas is not only released from macroseepage, i.e., from craters and visible gas bubbling manifestations, but also from invisible and pervasive exhalation from the ground, named miniseepage. CH₄ flux related to miniseepage was measured only in a few MVs, in Azerbaijan, Italy, Japan, Romania and Taiwan.

This study examines in detail the flux data acquired in 5 MVs and 1 "dry" seep in SW Taiwan, and further compares with other 23 MVs in Italy, Romania and Azerbaijan. Miniseepage in SW Taiwan MVs and seeps annually contribute at least 110 tons of methane directly to the atmosphere, and represents about ~80 % of total degassing during a quiescent period. Combining miniseepage flux and geo-electrical data from the Wu-shan-ding MV revealed a possible link between gas flux and electrical resistivity of the vadose zone. This suggests that unsaturated subsoil is a preferential zone for shallow gas accumulation and seepage to the atmosphere. Besides, miniseepage flux in Chu-huo everlasting decreases by increasing the distance from the main gas channelling zone and molecular fractionation (methane/ethane ratio) is higher for lower flux seepage, consistently with what observed in other MVs worldwide. Measurements from Azerbaijan, Italy, Romania, and Taiwan converge to indicate that miniseepage is directly proportional to the vent output and it is a significant component of the total methane budget of a MV. A miniseepage vs. macroseepage flux equation has been statistically assessed and it can be used to estimate theoretically the flux of miniseepage for MVs of which only the flux from vents was evaluated, or will be evaluated in future, in case miniseepage detection systems were not available. This will allow a more complete and objective quantification of gas emission in MVs, thus also refining the estimation of global methane emission.

1 **Methane flux of miniseepage in mud volcanoes of SW Taiwan: Comparison with**
2 **the data from Europe and Azerbaijan**

3
4 Wei-Li Hong^{1*}, Giuseppe Etiope², Tsanyao Frank Yang¹, Ping-Yu Chang³

5 ¹. Department of Geosciences, National Taiwan University. No.1, Sec. 4, Roosevelt
6 Road, Taipei 10699, Taiwan

7 ². Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Sezione Roma 2, Italy

8 ³. Institute of Applied Geosciences, National Taiwan Ocean University. No.2, Pei-Ning
9 Rd., Keelung City 202, Taiwan

10
11
12 *Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 541 737 2467

13 *E-mail addresses:* willyhong71@gmail.com (W.-L. Hong), etiope@ingv.it (G.
14 Etiope), tyyang@ntu.edu.tw (T. F. Yang), pingyuc@mail.ntou.edu.tw (P.-Y.
15 Chang)

16 ^a*Current address:* College of Oceanic and Atmospheric Science, Oregon State
17 University, 104 COAS administration building, Corvallis, Oregon, 97331, USA

18

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Mud volcanoes (MVs) are considered as important methane (CH₄) sources for the
22 atmosphere; gas is not only released from macroseepage, i.e., from craters and visible
23 gas bubbling manifestations, but also from invisible and pervasive exhalation from the
24 ground, named miniseepage. CH₄ flux related to miniseepage was measured only in a
25 few MVs, in Azerbaijan, Italy, Japan, Romania and Taiwan. This study examines in
26 detail the flux data acquired in 5 MVs and 1 “dry” seep in SW Taiwan, and further
27 compares with other 23 MVs in Italy, Romania and Azerbaijan. Miniseepage in SW
28 Taiwan ~~MVs and seeps~~ annually contribute at least 110 tons of methane directly to the
29 atmosphere, and represents about ~80 % of total degassing during a quiescent period.
30 Combining miniseepage flux and geo-electrical data from the Wu-shan-ding MV
31 revealed a possible link between gas flux and electrical resistivity of the vadose zone.
32 This suggests that unsaturated subsoil is a preferential zone for shallow gas
33 accumulation and seepage to the atmosphere. Besides, miniseepage flux in Chu-huo
34 everlasting decreases by increasing the distance from the main gas channelling zone
35 and molecular fractionation (methane/ethane ratio) is higher for lower flux seepage,
36 consistently with what observed in other MVs worldwide. Measurements from
37 Azerbaijan, Italy, Romania, and Taiwan converge to indicate that miniseepage is
38 directly proportional to the vent output and it is a significant component of the total

from the 6 gas manif

do you mean everlasting fire?

I would say:
...theoretically at least the
order of magnitude of the
flux....

39 methane budget of a MV. A miniseepage vs. macroseepage flux equation has been
40 statistically assessed and it can be used to estimate theoretically the flux of
41 miniseepage for MVs of which only the flux from vents was evaluated, or will be
42 evaluated in future, ~~in case miniseepage detection systems were not available~~. This
43 will allow a more complete and objective quantification of gas emission in MVs, thus
44 also refining the ~~estimation of~~ global methane emission.

..the estimate of the global
methane emission from
geological sources.

45
46 *Keywords:* mud volcano, miniseepage, macroseepage, global methane emission

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49

50 Mud volcanoes (MVs) are the largest surface expression of migration of
51 hydrocarbon (methane-rich) fluids through neotectonic faults/fractures in petroleum
52 bearing sedimentary basins. Their distribution, geology, formation mechanisms and
53 impact to atmospheric methane budget are described in a wide literature (e.g., Milkov,
54 2000; Dimitrov, 2002; Etiope and Milkov, 2004; Etiope et al., 2011). Until few years
55 ago, methane emission from MVs was generally attributed only to macro-seeps, i.e.,
56 visible gas manifestations like bubbling pools, salses and gryphons, and to eruptive
57 events; flux data were acquired in a few MVs (mainly in Azerbaijan) and most of

58 them were rough estimates, often based on visual observations (Gulyev and
59 Feyzullayev, 1997; Dimitrov, 2002). Since 2002, the application of the
60 closed-chamber method, a system widely used to measure gas fluxes from soil
61 respiration, wetlands or rice fields, revealed that gas also exhales pervasively from the
62 muddy ground around the visible vents, up to hundreds of meters from the MV center
63 (Etiope et al., 2002; 2004a; b; 2011; Spulber et al, 2010). Thus, eruptions, fires and
64 bubbles are not the only degassing process: they are just the visible and localised
65 component of a wider “breath” of the MV occurring potentially throughout its surface:
66 this invisible exhalation is named “miniseepage” or “microseepage” depending on its
67 intensity and distance from the macro-seeps. Initially only the term “microseepage”
68 was generically used (Etiope et al., 2002; 2004a; b) but more recent surveys suggested
69 the introduction of the term “miniseepage” to distinguish the high gas fluxes
70 (typically hundreds to thousands of $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) around the macro-seepage zone, from
71 lower “microseepage” fluxes (typically units up to hundreds of $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) more
72 distant from vents, typically outside the muddy cover, and often independent of MV
73 occurrence (Spulber et al., 2010; Etiope et al., 2011).

74 The invisible ground degassing was measured for the first time in 2001 in south Italy
75 and eastern Romania (Etiope et al., 2002, 2004a), then in four MVs in Azerbaijan
76 (Etiope et al., 2004b), and more recently in Japan (Etiope et al., 2011) and Taiwan

to the MVs

insert at least a reference here

77 (this study). All the results clearly showed that methane fluxes are pervasive
78 throughout most of the MV area and the amount of gas released into the atmosphere,
79 calculated for the whole MV area, is comparable to, or even larger than the output
80 from the macro-seeps alone. In other words, there is no a sharp jump of high flux
81 from a vent to “zero emission” in the surrounding ground, but a gradual passage,
82 leading to nil or “normal” negative methane fluxes only outside the MV area. Thanks
83 to these studies, it was possible to elaborate improved estimates of global emission of
84 methane from MVs to the atmosphere which likely exceed 10 Mt yr^{-1} (Etiope et al.,
85 2011).

86 Miniseepage data from five MVs and one seep in SW Taiwan are presented and then
87 integrated in a wider database including similar data from Italy, Romania and
88 Azerbaijan. The main features of MV miniseepage, in terms of magnitude,
89 distribution and spatial variability are examined. Furthermore, gas flux data of a MV
90 in Taiwan are compared with ~~the~~ measurements of electrical resistivity in the vadose
91 zone in order to evaluate the miniseepage distribution in relation to the fluid saturated
92 and unsaturated subsoil conditions. A miniseepage vs. macro-seep flux equation is
93 then statistically assessed: such an equation can be used to estimate theoretically the
94 flux of miniseepage for MVs of which only the flux from vents is known, allowing a
95 more complete and objective quantification of gas emission from MVs.

In this study, all the gas “flux” results will be presented in three forms with corresponding units which are flux ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$), output (ton yr^{-1}), and emission factor ($\text{ton km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Flux is the fundamental way we expressed our miniseepage flux results. Miniseepage output can be derived by different upscaling techniques (e.g., Etiope et al., 2011). Macroseepage results are reported as output. Emission factor is then defined as summation of mini- and macroseepage output divided with the area of each MV (Etiope et al., 2011).

2. Measurement methods for miniseepage

Miniseepage measurements were made, everywhere, by using the closed-chamber method, a technique initially developed for studies on the exchange of carbon and nitrogen bearing gases at the soil-atmosphere interface, such as soil respiration (e.g., Livingston and Hutchinson, 1995; Norman et al., 1997). The technique was then applied to detect positive flux of methane migrating from deep hydrocarbon reservoirs (Klusman et al., 2000), from coal mines (Thielemann et al., 2000) and gas exhalations in geothermal or volcanic areas (e.g., Hernandez et al., 1998; Cardellini et al., 2003; Etiope et al., 2005, Lan et al., 2007).

To date, closed-chamber seepage measurements in MVs have been carried out only in Italy, Romania, Azerbaijan and Japan by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e

Vulcanologia (e.g., Etiope et al., 2004a; 2004b; 2007; 2011), in Romania by Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca (Spulber et al., 2010) and in Taiwan by the National Taiwan University (NTU; this study). All chambers used in Europe and Asia were similar to the “Crill” system (Norman et al., 1997): the shape is always circular, with volumes from 5 to 15 liters (height 4 to 10 cm) and the material is PVC, stainless-steel or aluminium (Fig. 1). An internal fan is generally used to assure mixing of gas and air inside the chamber.

In the methodology used by INGV for Azerbaijan, Italy (Sicily) and Romania MVs (Table 1; Etiope et al., 2002; 2004a; b) gas samples were collected twice or three times into syringes at time intervals varying from 1 to 20 minutes after the deployment of the chamber (Fig. 1a), and methane was analyzed in duplicate by portable gas chromatograph with flame ionization detector. Gas flux was calculated on the basis of the concentration increment with time, chamber height, temperature and pressure (e.g., Livingston and Hutchinson, 1995). The methane flux F is generally expressed in terms of $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$ and it is given by the equation:

use d-1 or day-1, consistently throughout the text, as requested by the journal format

$$F = (V_c / A_c) \times (c_2 - c_1) / (t_2 - t_1) \dots (1)$$

133 where V_C (m^3) is the volume of the chamber, A_C (m^2) its area, c_1 and c_2 ($mg\ m^{-3}$) are
 134 methane concentrations at times t_1 and t_2 (days). The flux measurement
 135 reproducibility was within 13% and 20% for fluxes below and above $5,000\ mg\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$,
 136 respectively. Measurements of MVs in north-central Italy (Table 1; Etiope et al.,
 137 2007) were performed by directly connecting the chamber on line with a portable
 138 solid state CH_4 detector (METREX 2, Huberg; detection limit 1 ppmv, accuracy 10%,
 139 leading to a flux detection limit of $30\ mg\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ with 10 to 20 minutes of
 140 accumulation time, depending on chamber size). The latest data in Transylvania
 141 (Spulber et al. 2010) and Japan (Etiope et al., 2011, not included in this work) were
 142 acquired by using a new closed-chamber system (Fig. 1b) developed by West Systems
 143 srl (Italy) in collaboration with INGV; the system is equipped with portable CH_4 and
 144 CO_2 sensors and wireless data communication to a palm-top computer; the gas fluxes
 145 are calculated through a linear regression of the gas concentration build-up in the
 146 chamber. The CH_4 sensor includes semiconductor (range 0-2000 ppmv; lower
 147 detection limit: 1 ppmv; resolution: 1 ppmv), catalytic (range: 2000 ppmv - 3% v/v),
 148 and thermal conductivity (3% - 100% v/v) detectors (precision of 5%). Maximum
 149 accumulation time of 15 minutes allowed detecting fluxes down to $10\ mg\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$. The
 150 CO_2 detector is a double beam infrared sensor (LiCor) with accuracy of 2%,
 151 repeatability ± 5 ppmv and full scale range of 2000 ppmv. The chamber is then

equipped with a Nafion® dryer for humidity removal. Laboratory tests based on known gas fluxes suggested a reproducibility better than 5% (Etiope et al., 2011). Gas flux measurements in Taiwan were based on discrete gas sampling (up to 5 repeated samplings at one location with 1 to 5 minutes time interval between each sampling) from a fan-equipped aluminum chamber. Gas samples were then stored in 10 ml serum vials which were capped with septa and filled with saturated sodium chloride solution before sampling (Fig. 1c and d); the concentration of CH₄, CO₂ and ethane (C₂H₆) is then measured in laboratory by GC (gas chromatograph; SRI 8610C) with flame ionization detector. Detection limit for CH₄, CO₂, and C₂H₆ are 0.0011, 38.7, and 6.3 ppm, respectively; the analytical error for the three gases is within 2% (Lee et al, 2005). Gas flux is determined by equation (1). Detection limit is ca. 10 mg m⁻² day⁻¹. The measurements at each MV were distributed as evenly as possible to obtain unbiased flux estimation.

so low? please check

use ppmv, consistently throughout the text

if the lowest detection limit of CH₄ is 0.001 ppmv, why this flux detection limit is similar to that for the West Systems method where CH₄ detection limit is 1 ppmv? Is the accumulation time different? Please clarify

3. Miniseepage flux magnitude and distribution in SW Taiwan MVs

3.1 General description of the MVs in SW Taiwan

171 Methane flux in Taiwan was measured in five MVs named Shiao-kung-shuei (SKS),
172 Gung-shuei-ping (GSP), Shin-yang-nyu-hu (SYNH), Wu-shan-ding (WSD) and
173 Li-yu-shan (LYS), and for comparison, in a “dry” seep (without water discharge)
174 independent of mud volcanism, characterized by an everlasting fire named Chu-huo
175 (CH) (Fig. 2). The distribution of these MVs and seep is closely associated ~~with~~ active
176 tectonic regimes in SW Taiwan as described in Yang et al. (2004). SKS locates closely
177 to the axis of Gu-ting-keng structural anticline; GSP and LYS are at the Coastal Plain;
178 SYNH and WSD are close to the active Chi-shan Fault; CH locate at the southern end
179 of Taiwan island which is now actively uplifted (Huang et al., 1997). Geologic setting
180 of these active areas are described by Mouthereau et al. (2001) and Huang et al.
181 (2006).
182 These structures, as well as MVs, extend seaward to the northern continental slope of
183 South China Sea (Lin et al., 2008). Many mud diapirs and offshore MVs had been
184 identified by Chiu et al. (2006) from seismic and chirp sonar surveys as shown in Fig.
185 2. Besides, both high methane flux in the sediments and high methane concentration
186 in water column had been observed previously (Chuang et al. 2006, 2010; Yang et al.,
187 2006; Lin et al., 2006). Due to the similarity in geological background and
188 distribution of MVs between onshore and offshore SW Taiwan, our survey could
189 potentially provide a perfect analog to offshore MVs, both in the way CH₄ is emitted

which structures? are you referring to the "active areas" above mentioned?

If so, it would be better to write:

The tectonic structures of such active areas, along which the MVs
developed, extend....

I would be prudent in this respect.
The way CH₄ is emitted from seafloor can be
that on subaerial conditions...
please clarify better what you mean or omit th

and the magnitude of flux.

Except for the LYS, the degassing behavior of the other four MVs is more or less

constant. ~~Multiple craters with constant bubbling on the top of craters are typically~~

~~observed indicating continuous gas emission from the macro-seeps~~ (Yang et al., 2004

and Chao et al., 2010). Craters are usually surrounded by un-vegetated dry mud where

most of our measurements were performed. Vegetation usually appears several tens of

meters away from the craters, outside the muddy cover, where gas leakage is much

lower. Some craters may change locations from time to time inferring lateral

migration of the seepage channels. Different from these four MVs, the degassing

behavior of LYS is more frequently characterized by explosive eruptions (2-3 times

per year with eruptions lasting 6-12 hours). Several vigorous explosions at LYS had

been witnessed and recorded by local inhabitants. Mud expelled from the explosions

could be up to ~5 meters; flames lit by local habitants can be up to ~10 meters high.

Besides those MVs, the only “dry” seep reported in this study (CH) is characterized

by continuous degassing which is however visible thanks to a flame lit by local

inhabitants.

3.2 Miniseepage fluxes and total emission

209 The following flux estimation was based on 187 measurements conducted in a
 210 relatively calm degassing period in 2006 (no significant blow-ups or eruption were
 211 observed during our survey) at the six studied locations. The number of measurements
 212 at each location may vary depending on the area of measureable dry soil. The largest
 213 two MVs, GSP and WSD, hosted 43 and 93 measurements, respectively. In the
 214 smaller MVs (SYNH, SKS, and LYS) and “dry” seep (CH), 6, 8, 12 and 25
 215 measurements were made. Significant CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes were measured in all six
 216 locations (Fig. 3). Besides, considerable C₂H₆ fluxes (up to $8.3 \times 10^5 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$)
 217 were detected at CH but not at the other five MVs. This is consistent with the ethane
 218 concentration which is higher in the CH gas vent and much lower in the other MVs, as
 219 reported by Yang et al. (2004).
 220 Average miniseepage CH₄ flux in all locations ranges from 10^0 to $10^5 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$,
 221 with the highest flux at CH and the lowest flux at SKS. Average miniseepage CO₂
 222 flux ranges from 10^0 to $10^3 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$; the highest and lowest fluxes were observed
 223 at CH and WSD respectively. In order to estimate the annual contribution of CH₄ and
 224 CO₂ through miniseepage to the atmosphere, we calculated the total annual output at
 225 these 6 locations as follow_λ

add space here

this is really a huge flux for ethane; and what is the CH₄ flux here? Did
 you verify if the C₁/C₂ flux ratio is similar to the C₁/C₂ concentration
 ratio?
 This would be a good exercise to test the reliability of the flux values...
 please add it!

use d-1 or day-1, consist
 requested by the journal

226

227

$$\bar{E}_{\min} \left(\frac{\text{ton}}{\text{yr}} \right) = \bar{F}_{\min} \left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{day}} \right) \times A(\text{m}^2) \times 365 \left(\frac{\text{day}}{\text{yr}} \right) \times 10^{-9} \left(\frac{\text{ton}}{\text{mg}} \right) \dots (2)$$

228

229 where \bar{F}_{\min} is the average of all CH₄ or CO₂ flux measurements at each location (being
230 the surveyed area, A, quite small) and \bar{E}_{\min} is the average of miniseepage output. The
231 total annual miniseepage outputs of CH₄ and CO₂ from all six locations are then ~110
232 ton and ~6.3 ton, respectively.

233 CH₄ output data from macro-seeps are available for two different periods, the first
234 during a relatively low degassing activity (as in our miniseepage survey), with an
235 output of 28 ton year⁻¹ (Yang et al., 2004), and the second which was characterized by

write ton year-1 or ton/yr consistently throughout the text

236 higher degassing activity (980-2010 ton/yr; Chao et al. (2010)). Total CH₄ emission
237 (miniseepage + macro-seepage) for low degassing activity would be then around 130
238 ton year⁻¹. It is very likely that in the period with the higher macro-seep fluxes
239 measured by Chao et al. (2010) miniseepage was also higher. In particular, the YNH
240 mud volcano was extinct during our miniseepage survey, but its CH₄ output measured
241 by Chao et al. (2010) was 3 to 4 orders of magnitude higher than that reported by
242 Yang et al. (2004). This suggests the also miniseepage may vary significantly during
243 the MV life; this should be verified by measurements repeated in different stages.

244

245 3.3 Miniseepage distribution around a dry vent

246 Although CH is not a mud volcano, flux measurements provided further elements to

this explanation could also be anticipated in the introduction, (line 76) where the seep is mentioned for the first time; in that point it was not clear why a seep is considered if that is something different from MV

understand the distribution of invisible gas seepage around a macro-seep (in this case
 a “dry” seep with everlasting fire). The fire zone emits ~~large~~ amounts of CH₄, CO₂,
 and C₂H₆ to the atmosphere (average flux for the three gases are 3×10⁵ mg m⁻² day⁻¹
 of CH₄, 1×10⁴ mg m⁻² day⁻¹ of CO₂, and 3×10³ mg m⁻² day⁻¹ of C₂H₆) ~~compared with~~
~~other MVs in SW Taiwan~~. The order of magnitude of the CH₄ flux is the same of that
 measured in other burning seeps in Europe (e.g., Etiope et al., 2007). The high flux of
 “dry” seeps reflects a seepage system which is quite different from that of MVs
 (Etiope et al., 2009), in terms of water content, gas flow velocity and permeability in
 the subsoil (as discussed in section 4.1). At CH, soil and subsoil are mostly composed
 of sands and pebbles and are therefore quite dry and more permeable (Fig. 4A)
 compared to the ground of MVs. Miniseepage of C₂H₆ and CH₄ exhibits a significant
 spatial variation at this location (Fig. 4). High C₂H₆ and CH₄ fluxes were observed in
 the everlasting fire zone (13 flux measurements ranging from 3.4×10⁴ to 1.9×10⁶ mg
 m⁻² d⁻¹ for CH₄ and 1.7×10³ to 8.3×10⁵ mg m⁻² d⁻¹ for C₂H₆); lower or nil C₂H₆ flux (7
 measurements from below the detection limit to 5×10³ 5×10³ mg m⁻² d⁻¹) was
 detected at the ground without vegetation outside the everlasting fire zone, while CH₄
 fluxes were still relatively high (from 2×10² to 5×10⁵ mg m⁻² d⁻¹); both C₂H₆ and CH₄
 fluxes (5 measurements) were below detection limit (< 1×10¹ mg m⁻² d⁻¹) at the
 ground with vegetation outside the everlasting fire zone.

266

267 Such a zonation in CH_4 and C_2H_6 miniseepage flux could be the result of differential
268 molecular fractionation. As observed in other seeps and MVs, during migration to the
269 surface the gas mixture can be affected by molecular fractionation, that is a
270 progressive separation of CH_4 from other heavier alkanes, due to differential
271 solubility and molecular adsorption on solid grains, so that gas at the surface is dryer
272 (more methane and less ethane and propane) than the deeper original gas (Etiope et al.,
273 2009). This fractionation seems to be inversely proportional to the gas flow (Chao et
274 al., 2010 and Etiope et al., 2007; 2011). The center of CH everlasting fire zone is the
275 main seepage channel: here the gas flux velocity is higher and the bulk gas mixture
276 ascends rapidly without substantial fractionations. As the distance from the main
277 seepage channel increases, subsoil permeability likely decreases, gas spreads with
278 lower advective velocity, and either diffusion processes or gas-water-sediment
279 interactions increase leading to a more substantial molecular separation. As a
280 consequence, C_2H_6 flux to the atmosphere would decrease rapidly.

281

282 3.4 *miniseepage flux and vadose zone in Wu-shan-ding*_A

283 The comparison between flux measurements in WSD and a geo-electrical survey
284 (Chang et al., 2010) conducted in the same period suggests a possible link between

miniseepage flux and subsoil condition. From the distribution of all flux measurements in Fig. 5A, high gas fluxes in WSD are clustered in two groups: one group at the northeast of the survey area, the other group extends from the southeast corner to the northwest corner of the survey area. The electrical resistivity, which is an indication of unsaturated vadose zone, increases in the high flux zone, as evidenced by three profiles (Fig. 5B). This would suggest that miniseepage increases as the water content in subsoil decrease, and completely saturated subsoil can reduce gas leakage to the surface.

4. Gas emission database from 28 MVs in Italy, Romania, Azerbaijan, and Taiwan

Table 1 summarises the miniseepage and macroseepage output data acquired in 28 European and Asian MVs plus 1 "dry" seep site (CH) for comparison. Total emission in Table 1 is the sum of mini- and macro-seepage outputs. Emission factor is thus the total emission divided by the area of individual MV.

I think this should be the measured area, for which the total emission was derived, right? so it can be different from the actual MV area...please clarify.

4.1 Gas flux vs. subsoil condition

Our experience suggests that in many cases diffuse exhalation of gas in a MV strongly depends on the water content of the ground. Wet conditions, such as those typically

304 occurring along fresh mud flows from active gryphons, seem to produce an efficient
305 impermeable cover to gas. However significant gas fluxes were also detected just in
306 correspondence with fresh mud around vents (Etiope et al., 2011). The existence of
307 wet mud on the surface, as a result of mud flow from craters or gryphons, does not
308 necessarily imply saturated conditions below the ground. Vice versa, dry mud on the
309 surface may hide a wet, saturated vadose zone. As we have demonstrated in previous
310 paragraph, the saturation of subsoil probably plays an important role in modulating
311 surface miniseepage flux. Probably more factors including gas pressure gradient,
312 subsoil permeability and water content determine the intensity of miniseepage at the
313 surface.

314 Due to the possible impermeable barrier induced by water on the surface (fresh mud)
315 or in the subsoil, the flux measurements are generally performed in ~~the~~ areas
316 uncovered by wet mud. In this respect, two different configurations of MV are
317 depicted in Fig. 6. Type A: is typical of small or medium-size MV, where the active
318 area, composed by a single or multiple craters, is almost completely covered by mud
319 flows or wet mud (i.e., wet-mud area larger than dry area). In this condition,
320 miniseepage measurements are possible (or have higher chance to detect gas
321 migration signals) only at the external flanks or MV margin. MVs of this type include
322 Paclele Mici, Beciu (in Romania), Frisa, Ospitaletto (Italy), Gung-shuei-ping,

in the previous

323 Shing-yang-nyu-hu, and Shiao-kun-shuei (Taiwan). An example is shown in Fig. 7A.

324 For type-B MV, the release of water, and consequent mud flow, is spatially relatively

325 limited. Most of the ground is dry, even around bubbling pools (e.g., Pineto,

326 Maccalube, Regnano, Nirano in Italy; Paclele Mari, Homorod and Fierbatori in

327 Romania; Wu-shan-ding and in Taiwan; almost all MVs in Azerbaijan, given their

328 size). So, type B allows a wider miniseepage survey. An example is shown in Fig. 7B.

329 In large type B mud volcanoes, two or three main different seepage zones can be

330 recognised:

- 331 - high degassing zone: flux in the order of 10^3 - 10^5 mg m⁻² d⁻¹; generally
- 332 coincident with the ground around bubbling pools and dry vents, typically at
- 333 the central part of the mud volcano.
- 334 - “normal” degassing zone: flux in the order of 10^1 - 10^3 mg m⁻²d⁻¹ (generally
- 335 <5000). It is the largest part of the MV, including summit area (when dry), and
- 336 flanks.
- 337 - Low degassing zone: flux <100 mg m⁻²d⁻¹. It is generally at the MV margins
- 338 and outside the MV boundary, but can occur also in central sectors, between
- 339 the active zones. This exhalation should be more properly named
- 340 “microseepage” (Spulber et al., 2010; Etiope et al., 2011)

341 This “zonation”, however, does not appear in small mud volcanoes, especially those

belonging to type A.

4.2 Total emission from miniseepage

The total gas output from miniseepage is estimated by identifying homogeneous sectors showing similar fluxes (i.e., with low variance): for each sector the output is given by multiplying the mean flux with the sector area; alternatively, the output from each “homogeneous” sector can be derived by kriging or natural neighbor interpolation methods (Spulber et al., 2010; Etiope et al., 2011). Total miniseepage emission is then the sum of the outputs from the several sectors. This is a standard “emission factor” based up-scaling method, also recommended by the EMEP/EEA Atmospheric Emission Inventory Guidebook (EMEP-EEA, 2009). The estimated methane outputs are summarised in the last columns of Table 1 and in Fig. 8. The Taiwanese data shown in Table 1 refer only to miniseepage measured over dry mud. From Fig. 8, it is intuitive that more CH₄ is emitted when the area of MV is larger. This relationship indicates that larger MVs are more important CH₄ emitter in terms of total quantity. However, as we are going to discuss in the next paragraph, if the amount of CH₄ emitted from a certain area during a certain time is calculated (i.e. emission factor), smaller MVs can actually emit more CH₄ to atmosphere (Fig. 9B).

more CH₄ in comparison with bigger MVs?
probably you mean that the emission factor is higher,, so you should write
smaller MVs are more important CH₄ emitter on a unit area

4.3 *Miniseepage vs. microseepage*

Beyond the data-set of Table 1, a fair number of measurements were also performed outside the MV boundaries, which are generally identified with the end of the older mud cover and the margin of the grassland and trees. Positive methane fluxes have been detected also at tens and hundreds meters from the MV boundaries, indicating that also microseepage (see definition in Etiope et al., 2011) can be attributed to the MV if the flux clearly tends to zero (or to normal negative values) as the distance from the active MV zone increases and no significant fluxes (above tens of $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) are detected far from the MV area or hill. In some cases, instead, low CH_4 fluxes exist around MV zones just because they belong to the widespread microseepage related to faults and deep reservoirs, independently from the existence of mud volcanism. This kind of microseepage, a very important methane source on a global scale, is discussed elsewhere (Etiope and Klusman, 2010).

In analogy with the procedures for estimations of greenhouse gas emission recommended by EMEP/EEA guidelines (EMEP-EEA, 2009), we consider the MV “emission factor” as the sum of mini- and macro- output (tons/year) divided by area (km^2). For a more convenient statistical elaboration, the four factors, mini-, macro-seepage, area, and emission factor are converted into log-transferred form. Two

linear correlations, miniseepage vs. macro-seepage (Fig. 9A) and emission factor vs. area (Fig. 9B), can be observed from our 29 data (LYS and CH are excluded). The linear regression formulas are

$$\text{Ln}(\text{miniseepage output}) = 0.98 \times \text{Ln}(\text{macroseepage output}) + 0.24 \dots (3)$$

and

$$\text{Ln}(\text{emission-factor}) = -0.34 \times \text{Ln}(\text{area}) + 5.39 \dots (4)$$

where “Ln” denotes natural logarithm.

For the relationship between miniseepage and macro-seepage output, LOK and FRI are not included in the calculation due to lack of macroseepage measurements; SKS and GSP are treated as outliers and excluded from the calculation, since they became inactive during the period of our survey compared to several years ago (Yang et al., 2004).

For these two relationships, significant tests and prediction intervals had been calculated. F test was applied in order to check whether the correlations are statistically significant. F value is calculated from MS_{reg} (mean of square regression)

399 over MS_{res} (mean of square residual). This value is an indication of the relative
 400 contribution between regression and residual (or error). The null hypothesis of this
 401 test is the relative contribution of regression equals to it from residual (so that F will
 402 equals to 1). From our ANOVA table (Analysis of variance; Table 2), the F values for
 403 the two relationships are 23.7 and 48.9. Both of them are higher than the threshold
 404 values ($F_{0.01}(1,26)=7.677$ and $F_{0.01}(1,22)=7.945$ from appendix F in Howell (2002))
 405 for $\alpha=0.01$, which means that there is only 1% of possibility that we would incorrectly
 406 reject the null hypothesis when in fact it is true. Thus, we can conclude that the null
 407 hypothesis has to be rejected; or in other words, the contribution from the regression
 408 is significantly larger than from residual. The 95% prediction intervals were
 409 calculated following Wilks (2006): predicted value $\pm 1.96 \times (MS_{res})^{1/2}$ which were
 410 shown as the dark grey lines in Fig. 9.

411

412 In general, higher macro-seepage output implies higher miniseepage output,
 413 regardless MV type, size and activity (Fig. 9A). This relationship implies that like
 414 venting, also the invisible miniseepage is an expression of the MV activity and it is
 415 determined by the same endogenous gas pressure regime. This is consistent with
 416 theoretical migration models of seepage related to gas advection processes (Brown,
 417 2000; Etiope et al., 2008). This means that surface mud condition (due to its water

content, viscosity and very low permeability) is not the only factor determining the miniseepage flux, but it just modulates, sometimes completely hiding, the subsoil seepage activity. Also, it is evident that miniseepage is often a significant component of the total gas emission of a MV. In type B MVs, where the dry mud area is comparatively much larger than the vent area, miniseepage is generally one order of magnitude (up to two) higher than macro-seep output (e.g. WSD in Taiwan or Regnano, and Nirano in Italy). This relationship can then be applied to those MVs which have only macro-seepage flux measurements, so that the methane budget from these MVs can be more completely assessed.

For the second relationship, area vs. emission factor, it seems that larger MV area usually exhibits smaller emission factor. This may be due to the fact that, generally, larger the MV area, smaller is the ratio between macro-seepage area (area covered by active gas vents) and non-venting mud area. This relationship is further proved by recent study at Chung-Lun (CL) pool in Taiwan (Cheng et al., 2008), a mud pool which emits mostly CO₂ (Yang et al., 2003, 2004). Cheng et al. (2008) measured gas flux from CL pool by using an open funnel and thermal mass flow meter. Their result showed that ~5.5 tons of CH₄ were emitted from this pool with area of 300 m². This fits well with our relationship which provides confidence to our results.

this? which
relationship?

the relationship of
equation 4? please
clarify

437

438 Although CH and LYS are excluded from our calculation, they were still plotted for

439 comparison. The poor fitting of these two locations indicates that this relationship is

440 only suitable for MVs and mud pools that continuously emit gas through macro- and

441 miniseepage but not for everlasting fire areas like CH or MVs like LYS that emit gas

442 solely by violent eruptions.

443

at least the order of magnitude of
the

444 Large uncertainties associated with the two relationships proposed here emphasize the

445 need of more flux data to derive a better model. However, these relationships provide

446 a preliminary but objective way to estimate total CH₄ emission from MVs, especially

447 when miniseepage measurements are not possible.

448

449

450 **5. Conclusions**

451

452 From the survey of MVs in Taiwan and the flux database including measurements

453 from Europe and Azerbaijan, the significance of ~~microseepage~~ or miniseepage flux in

454 MVs was re-emphasized in this study. The main conclusions of this work can be

455 summarised as follows:

456

457 (a) About 110 tons of CH₄, 6.3 tons of CO₂, and 0.7 tons of C₂H₆ are estimated to be
458 emitted only by miniseepage from 6 locations (5 MVs and 1 seep) in SW Taiwan. The
459 miniseepage output represents about ~80 % of total emission which includes
460 macro-seepage fluxes (Yang et al. (2004). Periods of increased macro-seepage activity
461 (Chao et al., 2010) may then correspond to higher miniseepage.

462

463 (b) Around a dry seep, e.g., CH₄, methane flux decreases by increasing the distance
464 from the main gas channelling zone. This decrease is accompanied by an increase of
465 molecular fractionation, so that the methane/ethane ratio is higher for lower seepage.
466 This phenomenon was also observed in other mud volcanoes in Europe and Japan
467 (Etiope et al., 2011).

468

469 (c) The subsoil water content and permeability are important factors that may
470 modulate surface miniseepage flux. A good correlation between high electrical
471 resistivity and high gas flux observed at the WSD MV, suggests that unsaturated
472 subsoil is a preferential zone for shallow gas accumulation and seepage to the
473 atmosphere. This phenomenon also suggests that eventual lack of detectable
474 exhalation in correspondence with wet mud does not mean that gas is up-welling only

in correspondence with the craters and vents; wet mud may just modulate and eventually hide the subsoil seepage activity.

d) Flux data of 28 MVs from Italy, Romania, Azerbaijan and Taiwan converge to indicate that miniseepage is directly proportional to the vent output and it is a significant component of the total methane budget of a MV: it is generally of the same level of or one order of magnitude higher than the gas output from the vents. Small MVs have a higher emission factor in comparison with large MV due to the smaller ratio between macro-seep area (area covered by active gas vents) and non-venting mud area.

e) A preliminary miniseepage vs. macro-seep flux equation has been statistically assessed and it can be used to estimate theoretically the flux of miniseepage for MVs of which only the flux from vents is evaluated. The positive correlation between the two parameters suggests that also miniseepage flux, as macro-seepage, is an expression of the MV activity. This will allow a more complete quantification of gas emission in MVs, thus refining also global methane emission estimates.

Acknowledgements

Authors would like to thank T.F. Lan, C.C. Fu, H.F. Lee, C.Y. Wu, C.Y. Cheng, K. W. Wu at the Department of Geosciences of NTU for helping in the collection and analysis of the samples. The National Science Council (NSC97-2116-M-002-021-; 98-2116-M-002-006-/TFY) and Central Geological Survey of Taiwan financially support this research.

References

- Brown, A., 2000. Evaluation of possible gas microseepage mechanisms. American Association of Petroleum Geologists Bulletin **84**, 1775-1789.
- Cardellini, C., Chiodini, G., Frondini, F., Granieri, D., Lewicki, J., and Peruzzi, L., 2003. Accumulation chamber measurements of methane fluxes: application to volcanic-geothermal areas and landfills. Applied Geochemistry **18**, 45-54.
- Chang, P. Y., Yang, T. F., Chi, L., and Hong, W. L., 2010. An observation of the electrical resistivity variation before and after the Pingtung Earthquake in the Wushanting Mud Volcano Area in Southwestern Taiwan. Journal of Environmental and Engineering Geophysics **15**, 219-213.
- Chao, H.-C., You, C.-F., and Sun, C.-H., 2010. Gases in Taiwan mud volcanoes: Chemical composition, methane carbon isotopes, and gas fluxes. Applied

513 Geochemistry **25**, 428-436.

514 Cheng, C.Y., Heinicke, J., Fu, C.C., Yang, T.F. and Tong, L.T., 2008. Emission flux of

515 CO₂ through an active fault zone in SW Taiwan. Eos Transactions American

516 Geophysical Union, 89(53), Fall Meeting Supplementary, Abstract

517 U41B-0015.

518 Chiu, J. K., Tseng, W. H., and Liu, C. S., 2006. Distribution of gassy sediments and

519 mud volcanoes offshore southwestern Taiwan. Terrestrial Atmospheric and

520 Oceanic Sciences **17**, 703-722.

521 Chuang, P. C., Yang, T. F., Hong, W. L., Lin, S., Sun, C. H., Lin, A. T. S., Chen, J. C.,

522 Wang, Y., and Chung, S. H., 2010. Estimation of methane flux offshore SW

523 Taiwan and the influence of tectonics on gas hydrate accumulation. Geofluids

524 10, 497-510.

525 Chuang, P. C., Yang, T. F., Lin, S., Lee, H. F., Lan, T. F. F., Hong, W. L., Liu, C. S.,

526 Chen, J. C., and Wang, Y., 2006. Extremely high methane concentration in

527 bottom water and cored sediments from offshore southwestern Taiwan.

528 Terrestrial Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences **17**, 903-920.

529 Dimitrov, L. I., 2002. Mud volcanoes - the most important pathway for degassing

530 deeply buried sediments. Earth-Science Reviews **59**, 49-76.

531 EMEP/EEA, 2009 EMEP/EEA air pollutant emission inventory guidebook - 2009.

532 Technical guidance to prepare national emission inventories. European
533 Environment Agency Technical report No 6/2009. European Environment
534 Agency, Copenhagen, DOI: 10.2800/23924.

535 Etiope, G. and Klusman, R., 2010. Microseepage in drylands: flux and implications in
536 the global atmospheric source/sink budget of methane. *Global and Planetary*
537 *Change*, 72, 265-274.

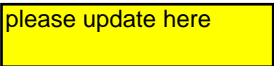
538 Etiope, G. and Milkov, A. V., 2004. A new estimate of global methane flux from
539 onshore and shallow submarine mud volcanoes to the atmosphere.
540 *Environmental Geology* **46**, 997-1002.

541 Etiope, G., Baci, C., Caracausi, A., Italiano, F., and Cosma, C., 2004a. Gas flux to the
542 atmosphere from mud volcanoes in eastern Romania. *Terra Nova* **16**, 179-184.

543 Etiope, G., Feyzullayev, A., Baci, C. L., and Milkov, A. V., 2004b. Methane emission
544 from mud volcanoes in eastern Azerbaijan. *Geology* **32**, 465-468.

545 Etiope, G., Caracausi, A., Favara, R., Italiano, F., and Baci, C., 2002. Methane
546 emission from the mud volcanoes of Sicily (Italy). *Geophysical Research*
547 *Letters* **29(8)**, 1215, DOI:10.1029/2001GL014340.

548 Etiope, G., Feyzullayev, A., and Baci, C.L., 2009. Terrestrial methane seeps and mud
549 volcanoes: a global perspective of gas origin. *Marine Petroleum Geology*, 26,
550 333-344.

- 551 Etiope, G., Guerra, M., and Raschi, A., 2005. Carbon Dioxide and Radon Geohazards
552 over a Gas-bearing Fault in the Siena Graben (Central Italy). *Terrestrial,*
553 *Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences* **16**, 885-896.
- 554 Etiope, G., Martinelli, G., Caracausi, A., and Italiano, F., 2007. Methane seeps and
555 mud volcanoes in Italy: Gas origin, fractionation and emission to the
556 atmosphere. *Geophysical Research Letters* **34**, L14303.
- 557 Etiope, G., Milkov, A. V., and Derbyshire, E., 2008. Did geologic emissions of
558 methane play any role in Quaternary climate change? *Global and Planetary*
559 *Change* **61**, 79-88.
- 560 Etiope, G., Nakada, R., Tanaka, K., and Yoshida, N., 2011. Gas seepage from
561 Tokamachi mud volcanoes, onshore Niigata Basin (Japan): origin, post-genetic
562 alterations and CH₄-CO₂ fluxes. *Applied Geochemistry* (in press). 
- 563 Guliyev, I. and Feizullayev, A., 1997. All about mud volcanoes. Geology Institute,
564 Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences.
- 565 Hernandez, P., Perez, N., Salazar, J., Nakai, S., Notsu, K., and Wakita, H., 1998.
566 Diffuse emission of carbon dioxide, methane, and helium-3 from Teide
567 volcano, Tenerife, Canary Islands. *Geophysical Research Letters* **25**.
- 568 Howell, D., 2002. Statistical methods for psychology. Duxbury Press Belmont, CA.
- 569 Huang, C. Y., Wu, W. Y., Chang, C. P., Tsao, S., Yuan, P. B., Lin, C. W., and Xia, K. Y.,

570 1997. Tectonic evolution of accretionary prism in the arc-continent collision
 571 terrane of Taiwan. *Tectonophysics* **281**, 31-51.

572 Huang, C. Y., Yuan, P. B., and Tsao, S. J., 2006. Temporal and spatial records of active
 573 arc-continent collision in Taiwan: A synthesis. *Geological Society of America*
 574 *Bulletin* **118**, 274-288.

575 Klusman, R., Leopold, M., and LeRoy, M., 2000. Seasonal variation in methane
 576 fluxes from sedimentary basins to the atmosphere: Results from chamber
 577 measurements and modeling of transport from deep sources. *Journal of*
 578 *Geophysical Research-Atmospheres* **105**, D20, 24661-24670.

579 Lan, T. F., Yang, T. F., Lee, H. F., Chen, Y. G., Chen, C. H., Song, S. R., and Tsao, S.,
 580 2007. Compositions and flux of soil gas in Liu-Huang-Ku hydrothermal area,
 581 northern Taiwan. *Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research* **165**,
 582 32-45.

583 Lee, H. F., Yang, T. F., Lan, T. F., Song, S. R., and Tsao, S., 2005. Fumarolic gas
 584 composition of the Tatun Volcano Group, northern Taiwan. *Terrestrial*
 585 *Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences* **16**, 843-864.

586 Lin, A. T., Liu, C. S., Lin, C. C., Schnurle, P., Chen, G. Y., Liao, W. Z., Teng, L. S.,
 587 Chuang, H. J., and Wu, M. S., 2008. Tectonic features associated with the
 588 overriding of an accretionary wedge on top of a rifted continental margin: An

589 example from Taiwan. *Marine Geology* **255**, 186-203.

590 Lin, S., Hsieh, W. C., Lim, Y. C., Yang, T. F., Liu, C. S., and Wang, Y., 2006. Methane
591 migration and its influence on sulfate reduction in the Good Weather Ridge
592 region, South China Sea continental margin sediments. *Terrestrial
593 Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences* **17**, 883-902.

594 Livingston, G. and Hutchinson, G., 1995. Enclosure-based measurement of trace gas
595 exchange: applications and sources of error In: Matson, P. and Harriss, R.
596 (Eds.), *Biogenic trace gases: measuring emissions from soil and water*.
597 Blackwell Scientific Publications, London, pp. 14-51.

598 Milkov, A. V., 2000. Worldwide distribution of submarine mud volcanoes and
599 associated gas hydrates. *Marine Geology* **167**, 29-42.

600 Mouthereau, F., Lacombe, O., Deffontaines, B., Angelier, J., and Brusset, S., 2001.
601 Deformation history of the southwestern Taiwan foreland thrust belt: insights
602 from tectono-sedimentary analyses and balanced cross-sections.
603 *Tectonophysics* **333**, 293-318.

604 Norman, J. M., Kucharik, C. J., Gower, S. T., Baldocchi, D. D., Crill, P. M., Rayment,
605 M., Savage, K., and Striegl, R. G., 1997. A comparison of six methods for
606 measuring soil-surface carbon dioxide fluxes. *Journal of Geophysical
607 Research-Atmospheres* **102**, 28771-28777.

608 Spulber, L., Etiope, G., Baci, C., Maloss, C., and Vlad, S. N., 2010. Methane
609 emission from natural gas seeps and mud volcanoes in Transylvania
610 (Romania). *Geofluids* **10**(4), 463-475.

611 Thielemann, T., Lucke, A., Schleser, G.H., and Littke, R., 2000. Methane exchange
612 between coal-bearing basins and the atmosphere: the Ruhr Basin and the Lower
613 Rhine Embayment, Germany. *Organic Geochemistry* **31**, 1387-1408.

614 Wilks, D., 2006. Statistical methods in the atmospheric sciences. Academic Press.

615 Yang, T. F., Chuang, P. C., Lin, S., Chen, J. C., Wang, Y., and Chung, S. H., 2006.
616 Methane venting in gas hydrate potential area offshore of SW Taiwan:
617 Evidence of gas analysis of water column samples. *Terrestrial Atmospheric
618 and Oceanic Sciences* **17**, 933-950.

619 Yang, T.F., Chou, C.Y., Chen, C-H., Chyi, L.L. and Jiang, J.H., 2003. Exhalation of
620 radon and its carrier gases in SW Taiwan. *Radiation Measurements* **36**,
621 425-429.

622 Yang, T. F., Yeh, G. H., Fu, C. C., Wang, C. C., Lan, T. F., Lee, H. F., Chen, C. H.,
623 Walia, V., and Sung, Q. C., 2004. Composition and exhalation flux of gases
624 from mud volcanoes in Taiwan. *Environmental Geology* **46**, 1003-1011.

625

626

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Closed-chamber systems used in miniseepage measurements. (A) and (B) chambers used by INGV; (B) is ~~the new~~ West Systems instrumentation, with the chamber connected to a semiconductor sensor. (C) chamber used by NTU and sample storage procedure (D).

Fig. 2. Distributions of mud volcanoes and ~~seep~~ studied in SW Taiwan. Offshore mud volcanoes are shown for comparison.

Fig. 3. Results of CH_4 and CO_2 miniseepage flux from mud volcanoes and seep in SW Taiwan. Arrow shows the upper range of flux with error at each mud volcano. Lower range of flux for all locations is below detection limit. (SYNH: Shing-yang-nyu-hu; WSD: Wu-shan-ding; GSP: Gung-shuei-ping; SKS: Shiao-kung-shuei; LYS: Li-yu-shan; CH: Chu-ho)

Fig. 4. Miniseepage measurements at the CH everlasting fire. High CH_4 and C_2H_6 fluxes were observed inside the everlasting fire zone (A) High CH_4 flux but low C_2H_6 flux were observed at the ground without vegetation outside the fire zone. CH_4 and

add full stop

C₂H₆ flux were both below detection limit several meters far from the central vent (B).

Fig. 5. Spatial distribution of miniseepage CH₄ flux in WSD and 2D electrical resistivity surveys conducted by Chang et al. (2010). (A) Distribution of methane flux was shown at left. Green dots represent location with significant miniseepage flux while black dots are spots with flux below detection limit. Size of green dots is proportional to flux magnitude. Result of electrical resistivity from Chang et al. (2010) was shown at right for comparison. Two zones of high miniseepage flux were observed (northeast of the survey area and a NW-SW elongation across the area) which seems to have some spatial correlation with the electrical resistivity. (B) Both flux and electrical resistivity results along the three E-W profiles (X, Y, and Z-lines) were plotted for detail comparison. Again, such spatial correlation is emphasized; such correlation may suggest a link between miniseepage flux and subsoil water content.

Fig. 6. Two main configurations of mud volcanoes in relation with mud flow extension and dry-mud or soil distribution. In type (A), miniseepage may not be detectable on the MV summit or around the main crater zone, but only along the

external flanks. Type (B) allows a wider miniseepage survey.

Fig. 7. Examples of mud volcanoes. (A) Shing-yang-nyu-hu (SYNH) MV in Taiwan, classified as type-A. (B) aerial view of Maccalube MV, Italy, classified as type-B.

Fig. 8. Relationship between miniseepage output vs. mud volcano area. Larger MVs are more important CH₄ sources in terms of total quantity.

Fig. 9. Miniseepage vs. macroseepage (A) and emission factor vs. area (B) correlations and regression formulas. Long dash lines are the regression lines; solid lines are 95% prediction intervals. (A) The positive correlation infers that, as macroseepage, miniseepage also serves as the indication of MV activity. (B) Smaller MVs are actually more important CH₄ emitter on a unit area and unit time base. These relationships provide a more objective way to quantify CH₄ flux from MV to atmosphere.

681 TABLE CAPTIONS

682 Table 1. Miniseepage and macro-seepage flux data from 28 mud volcanoes and one
683 everlasting fire.

684 Table 2. ANOVA table for (A) $\ln(\text{area})$ vs. $\ln(\text{emission-factor})$ and (B)
685 $\ln(\text{macroseepage output})$ vs. $\ln(\text{miniseepage output})$.

Figure1

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

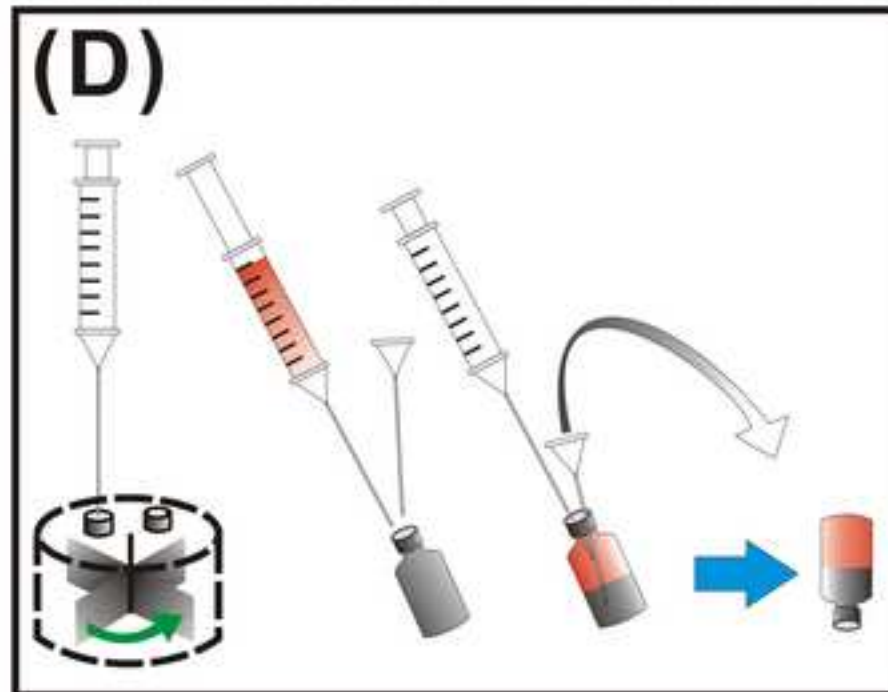
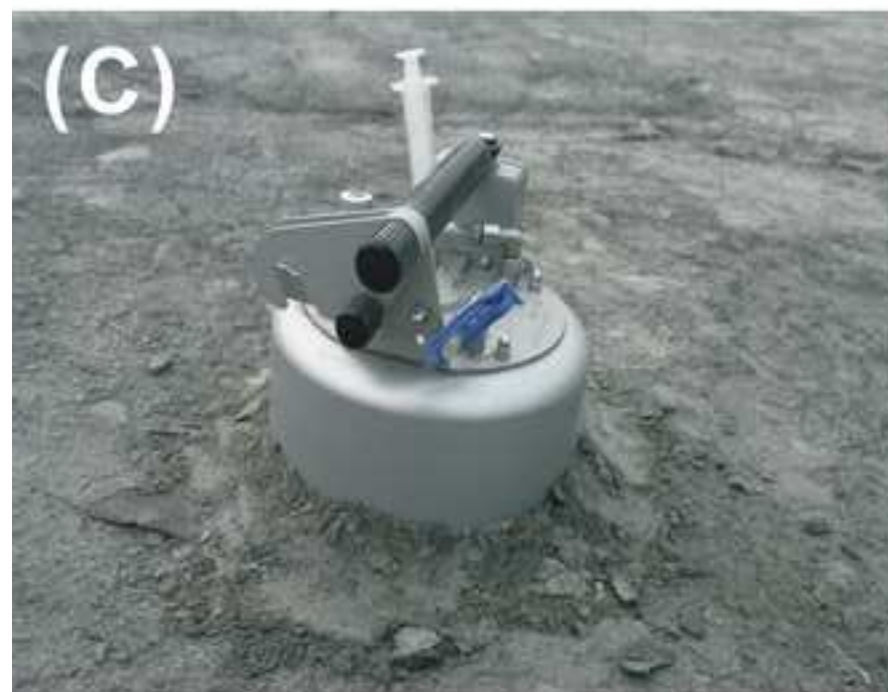


Figure2

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

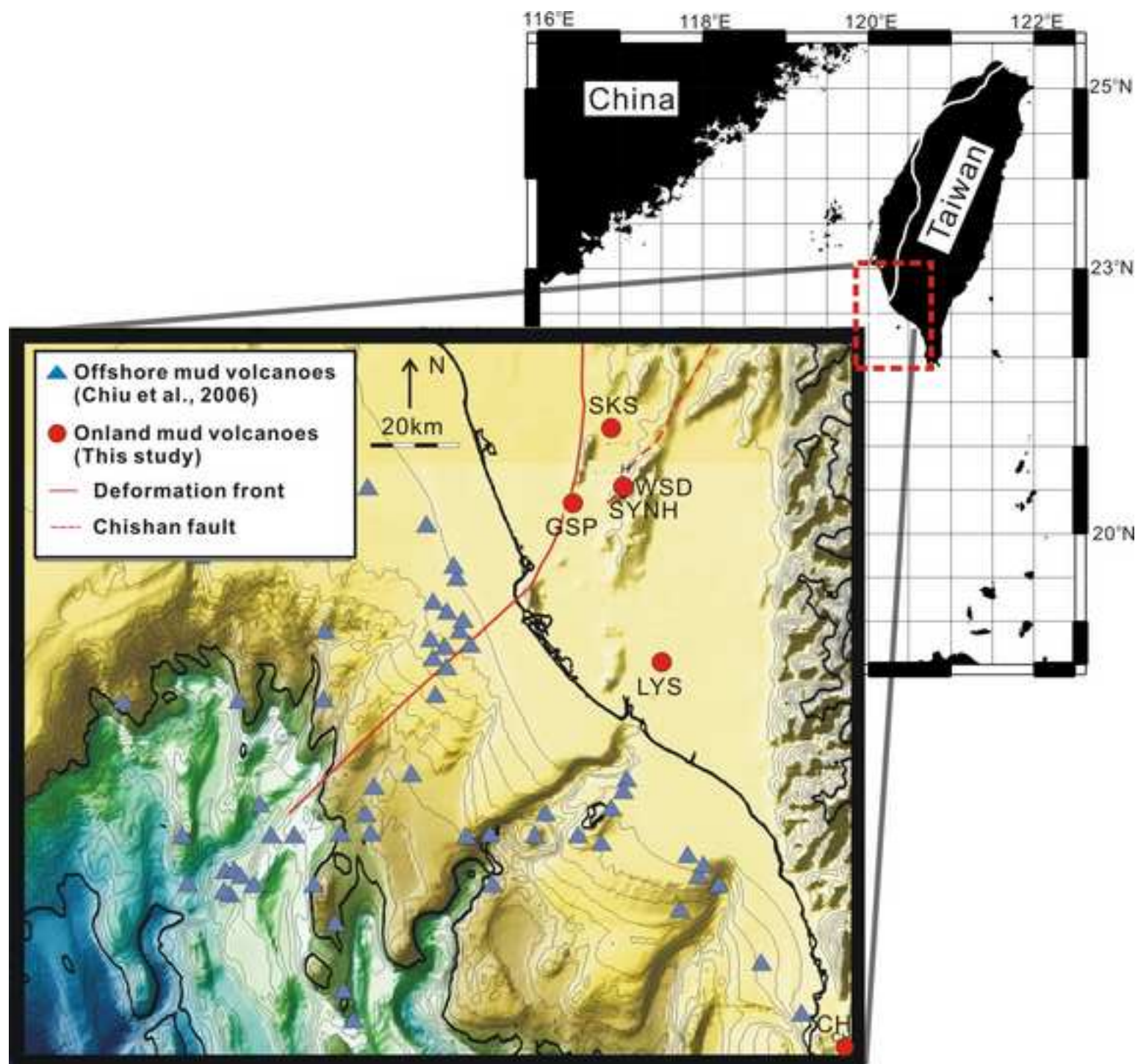


Figure3
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

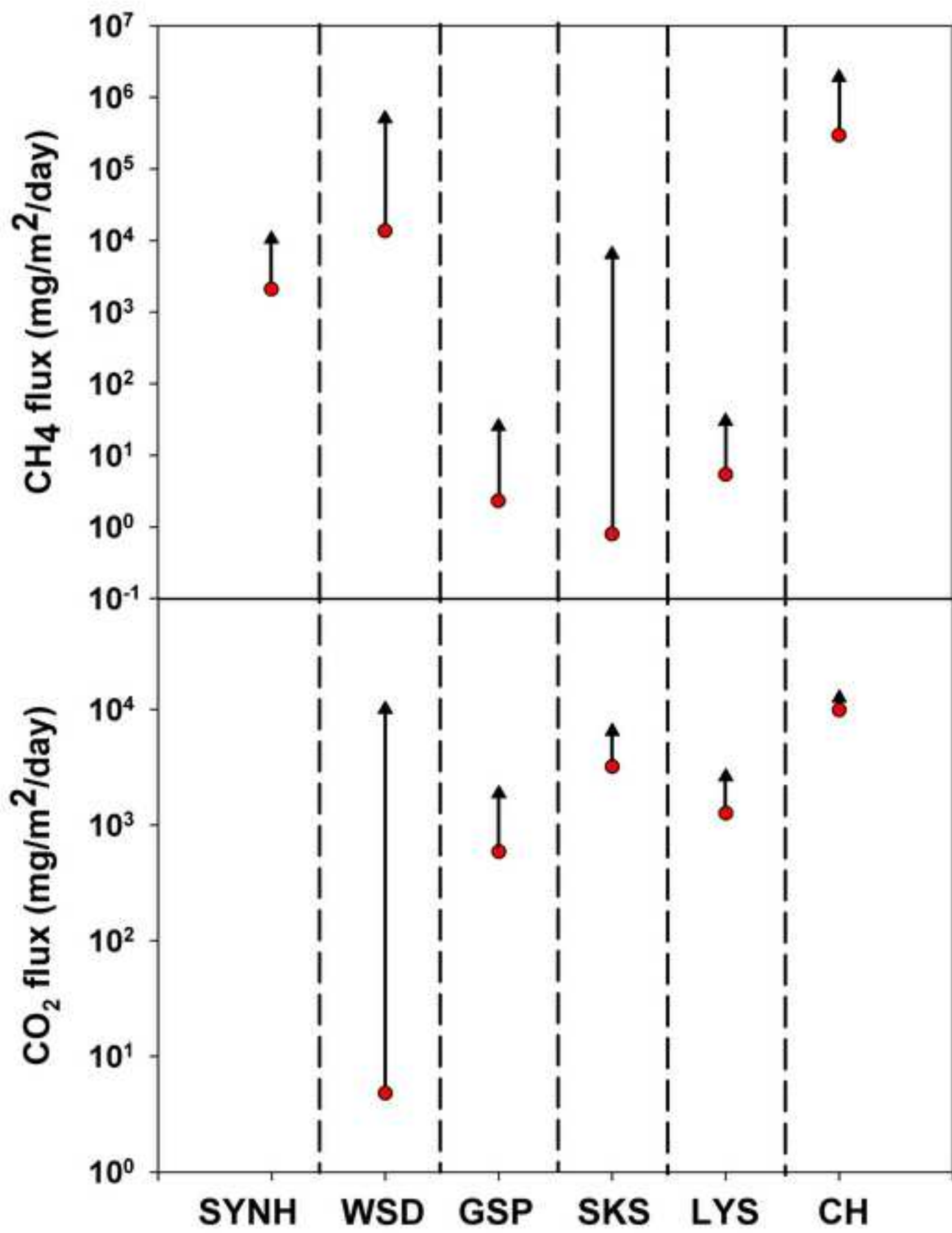


Figure4

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

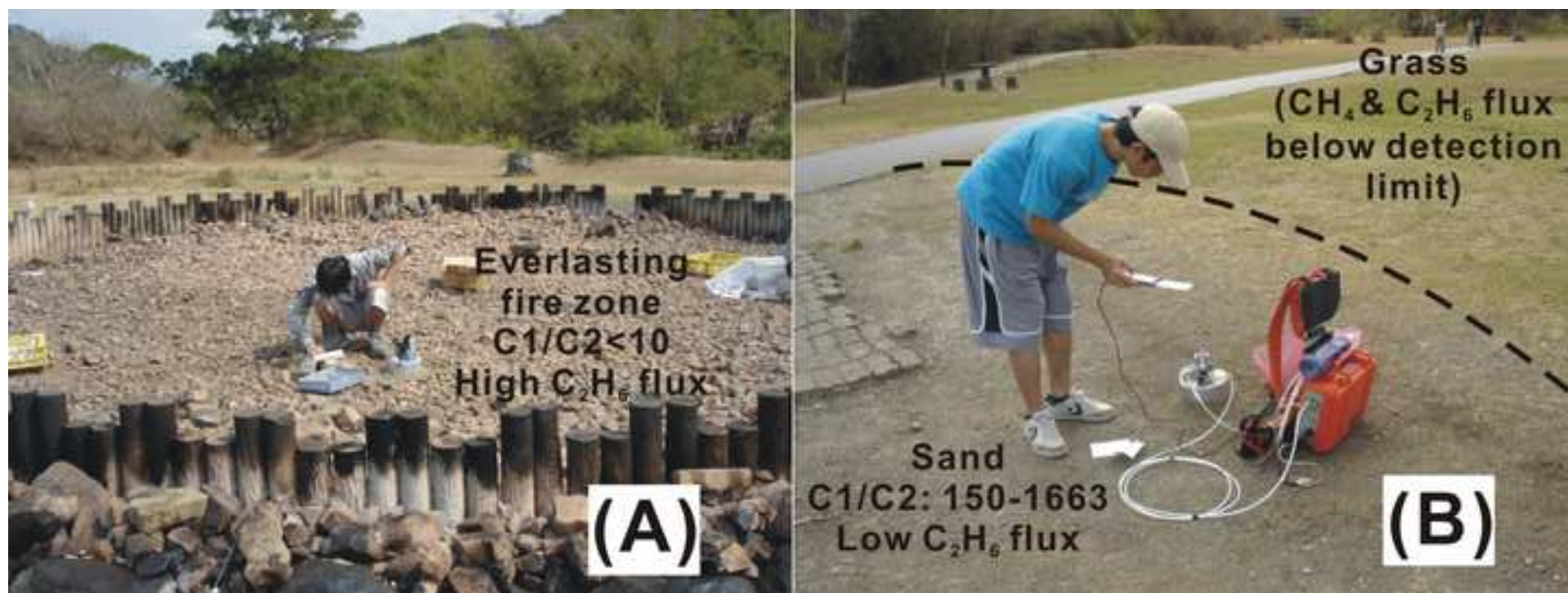


Figure5A

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

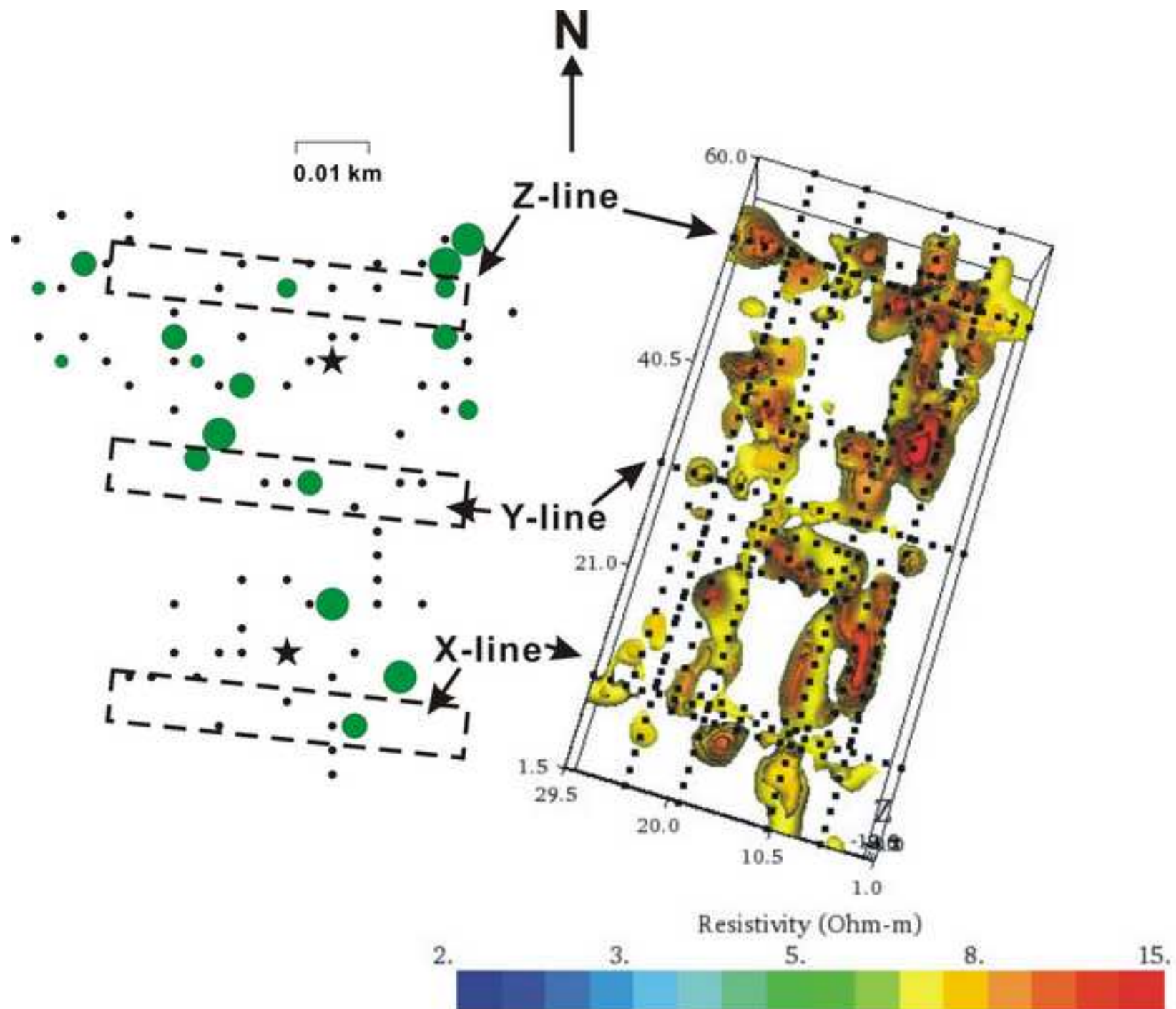


Figure5B

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

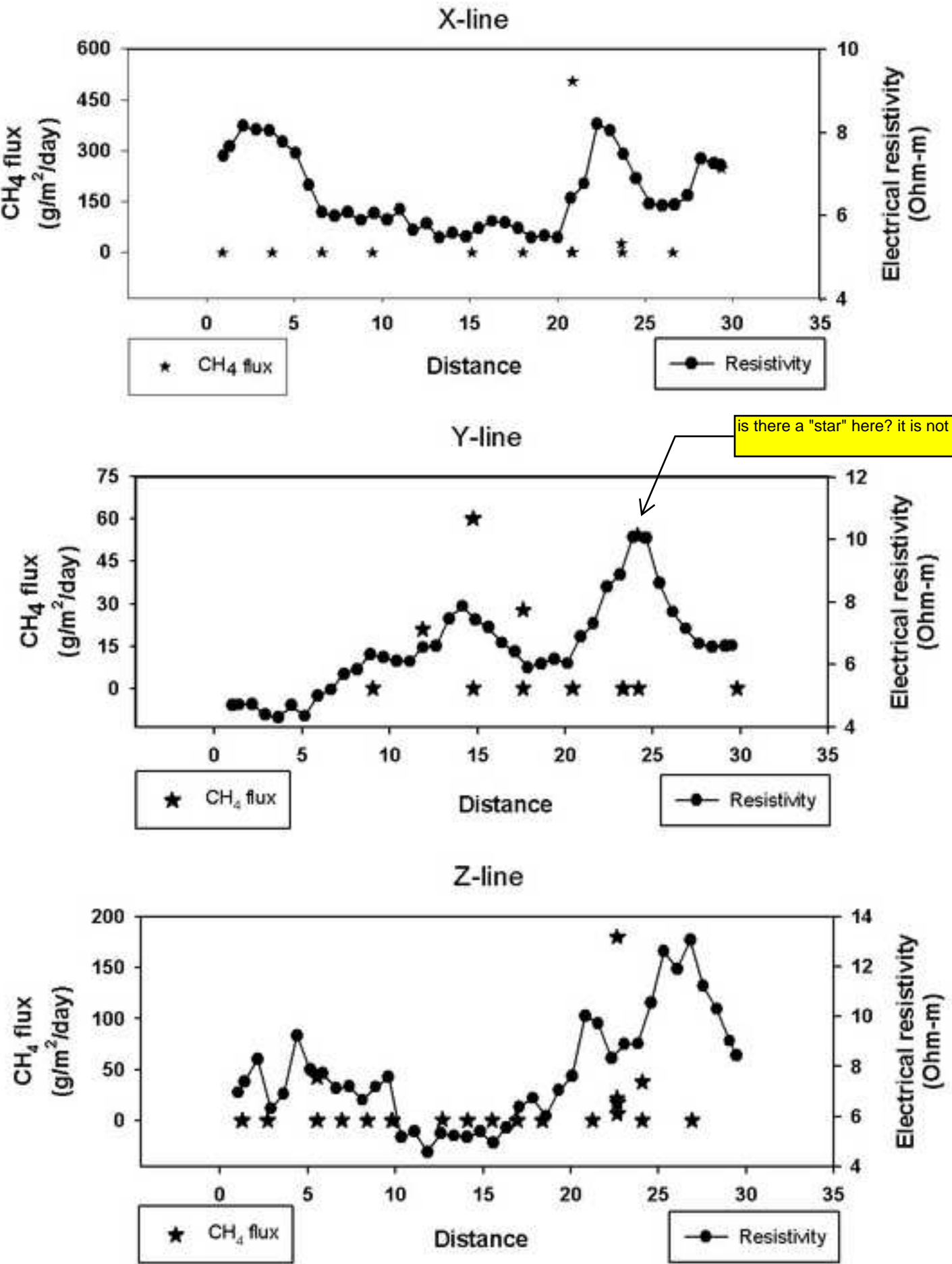
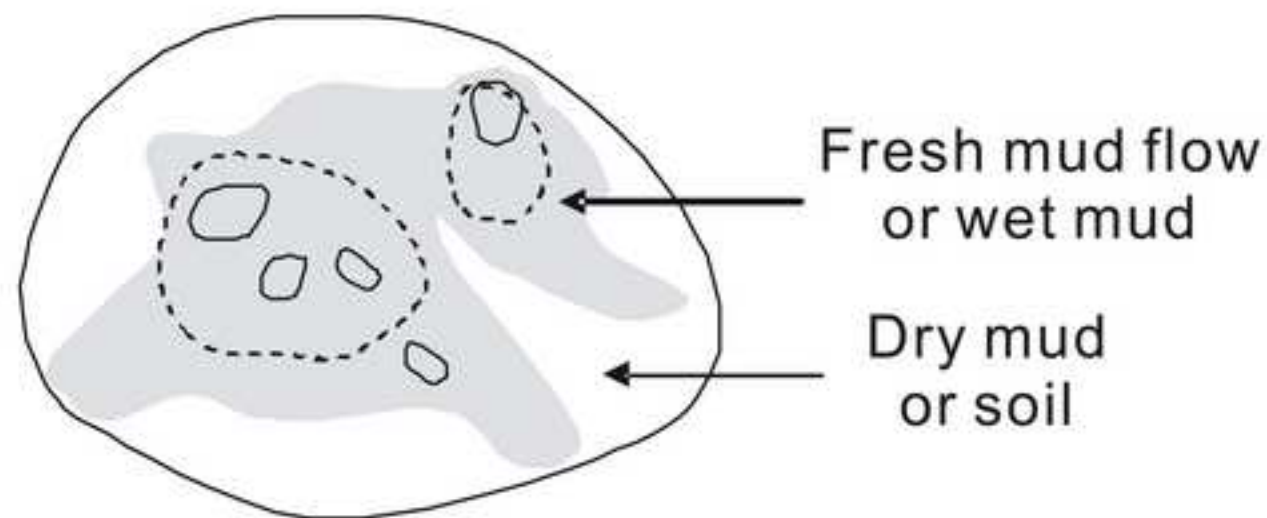


Figure6

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

Type (A) Wide wet mud area ($>$ dry area)



Type (B) Limited wet mud ($<$ dry area)

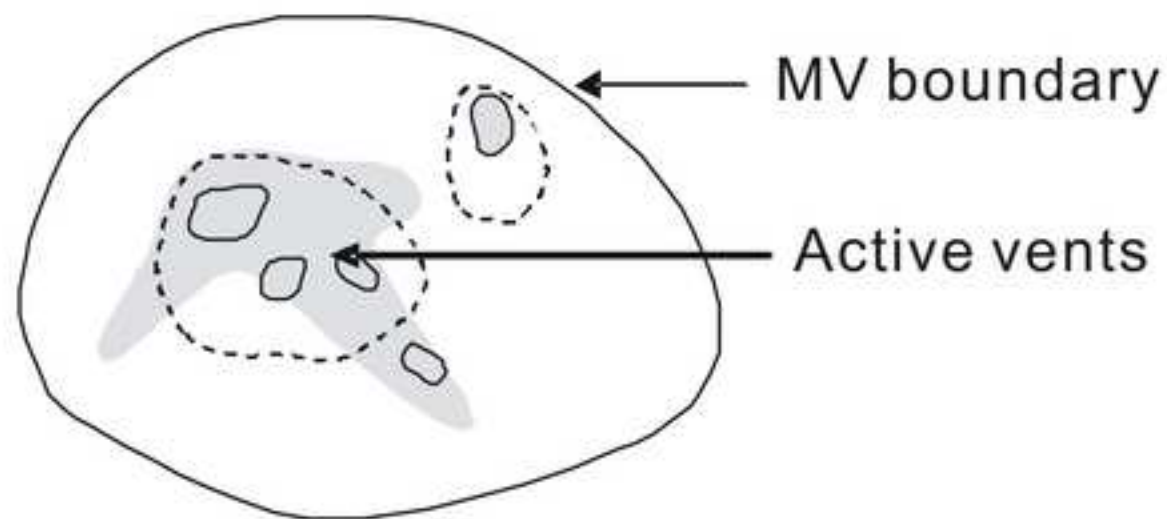


Figure7
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

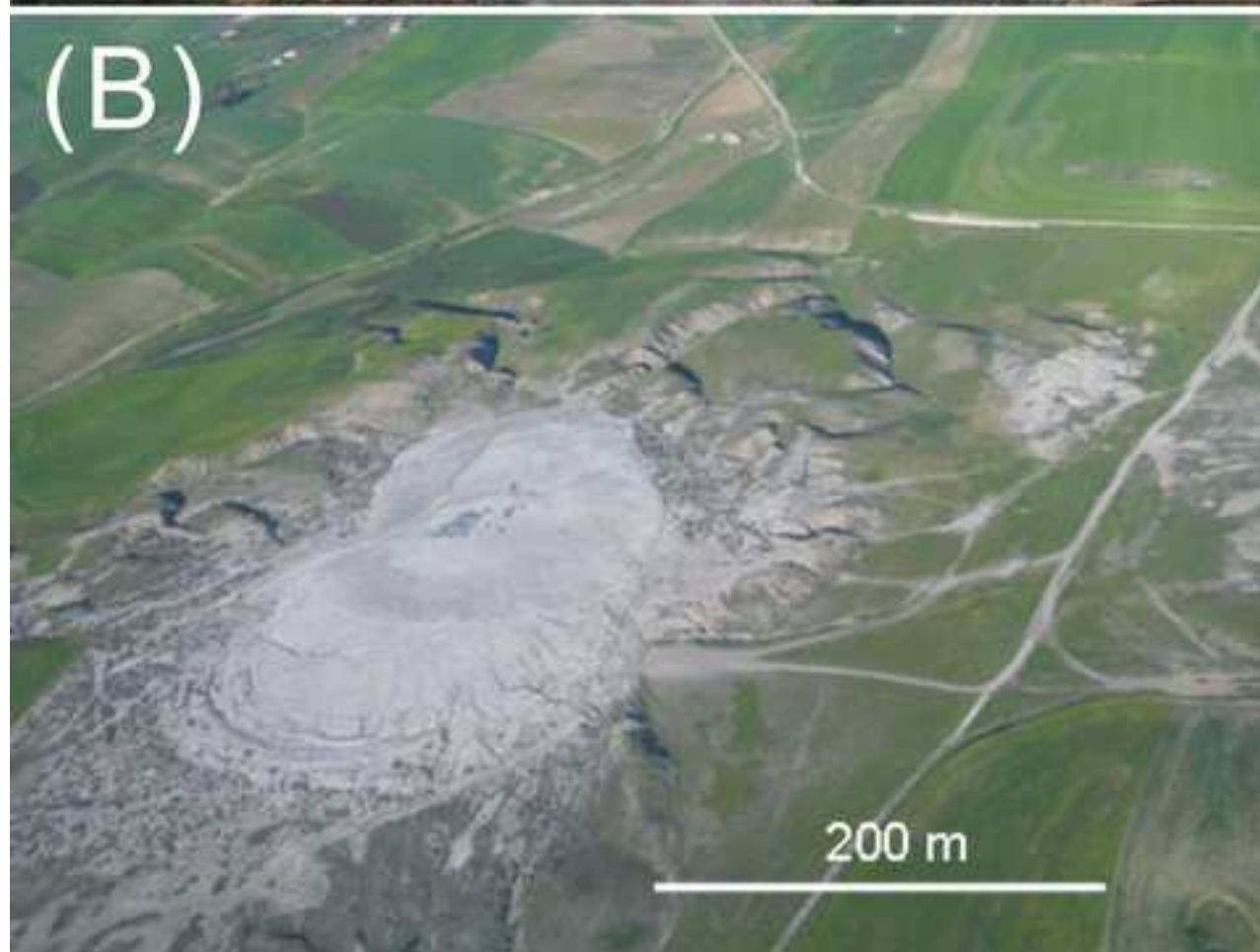


Figure8
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

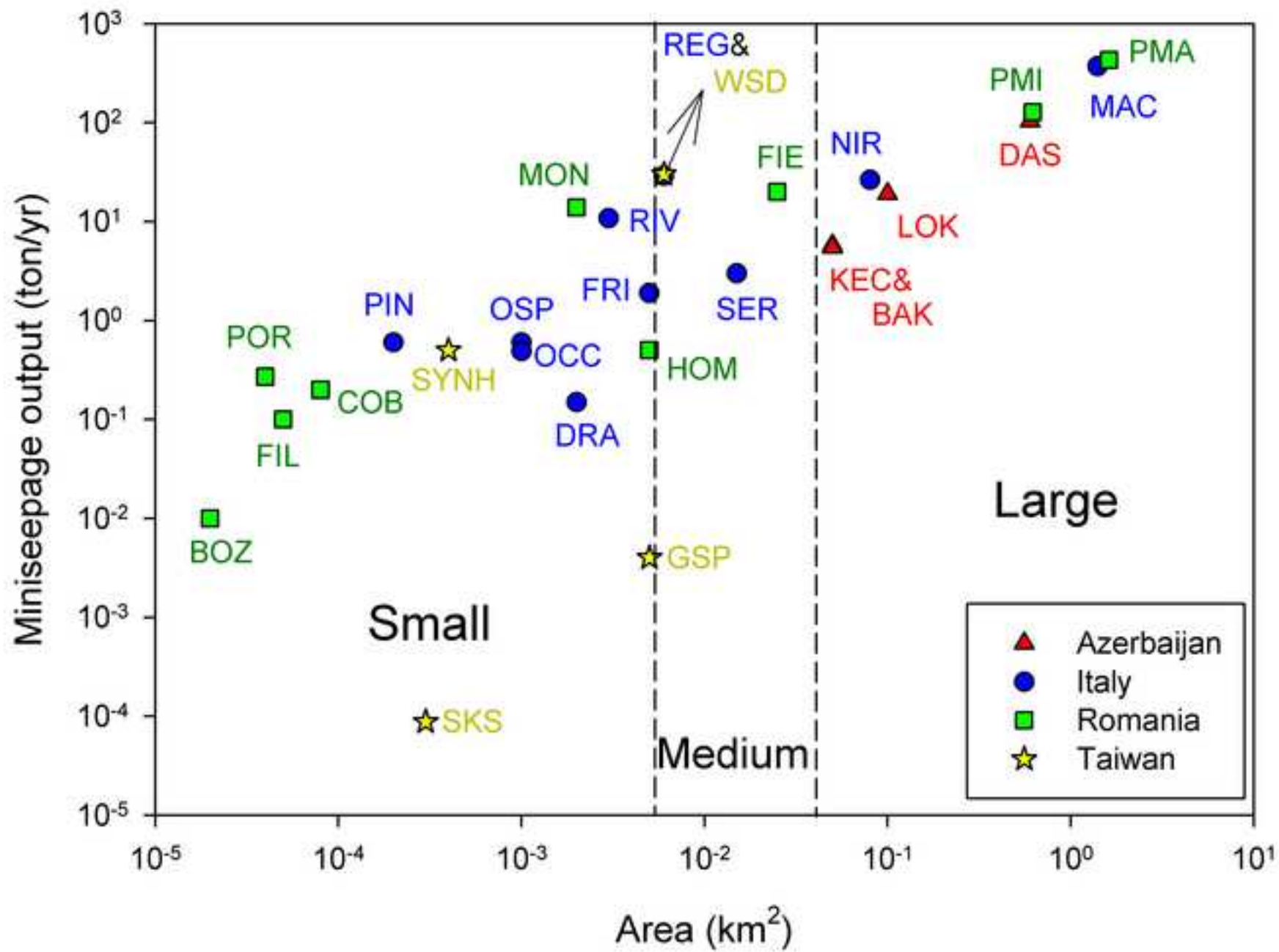


Figure9
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

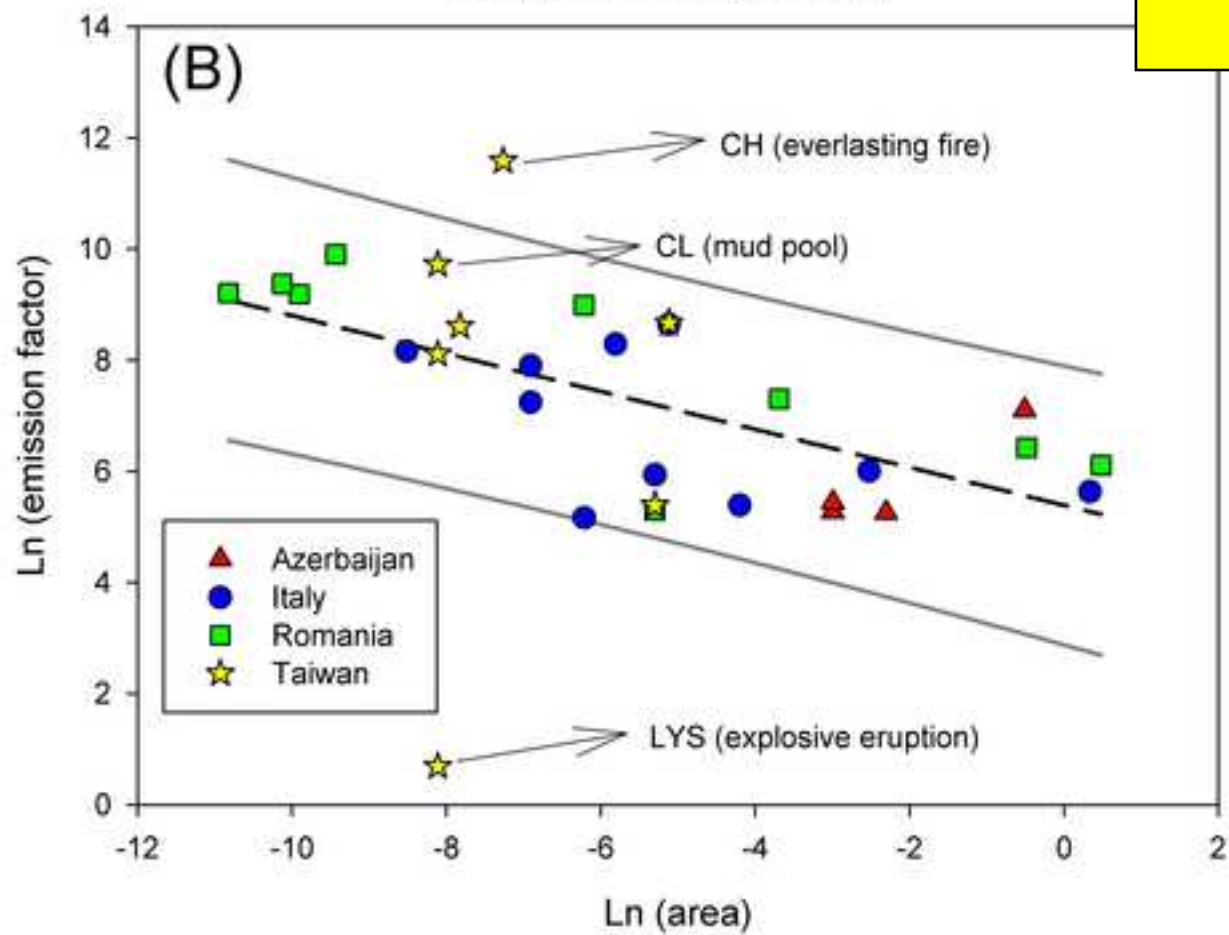
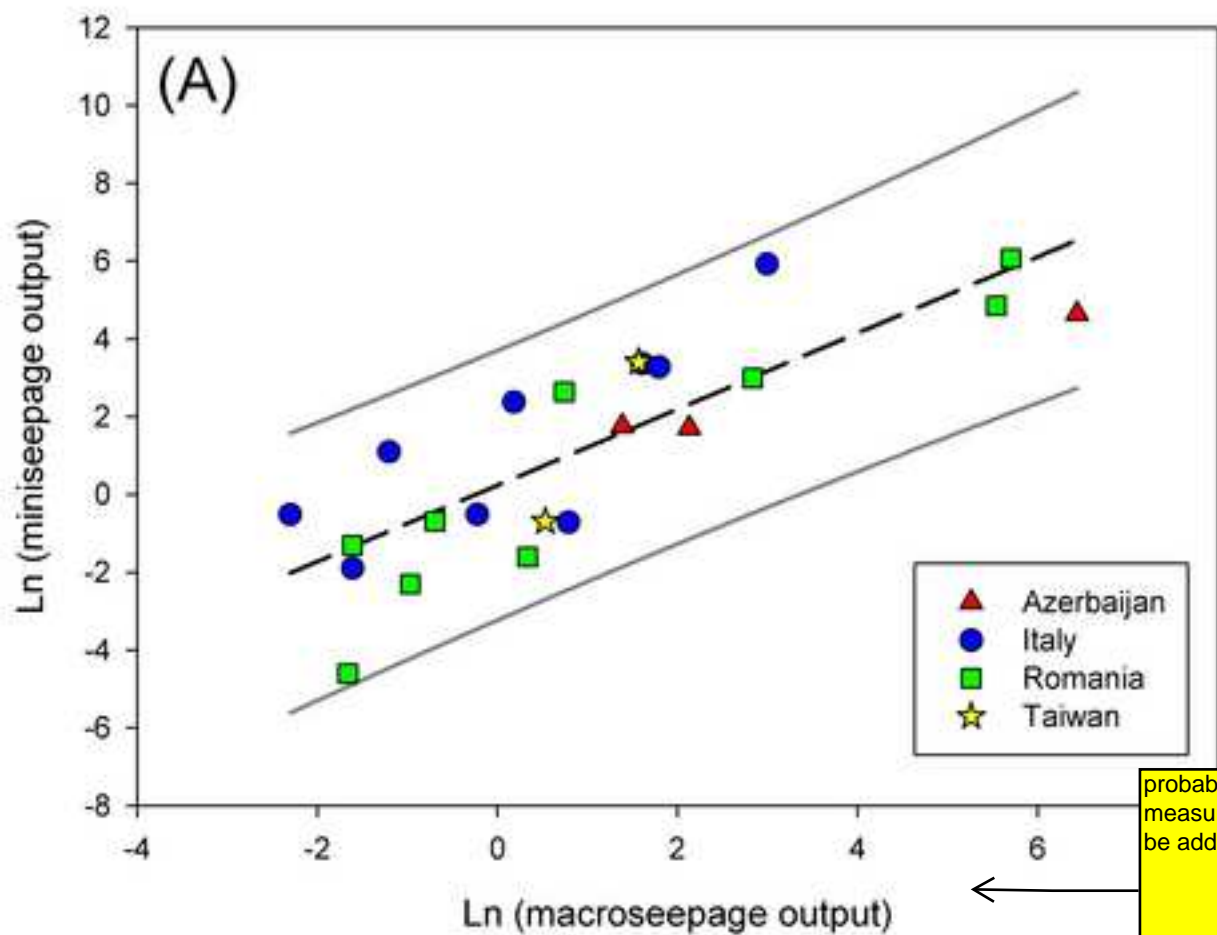


Table 1.

Country	Mud volcano	Measured area (km ²)	MV size ¹	Miniseepage output (t y ⁻¹)	Macro-seep output (t y ⁻¹)	Total emission (t y ⁻¹)	Emission factor (t km ⁻² y ⁻¹)	References
Azerbaijan	Lokbatan	0.1	large	19.2	n.m.	19.2	192	Etiope et al. (2004a)
	Dashgil	0.6	large	104	623	727	1211	“
	Kechaldag	0.05	large	5.8	4	9.8	196	“
	Bakhar	0.05	large	5.5	8.4	14	230	“
Italy	<i>Sicily</i>							
	Maccalube	1.4	large	374	20	394	281	Etiope et al. (2002)
	Occhio abisso	0.001	small	0.49	2.2	2.7	2700	“
	<i>North-central Italy</i>							
	Frisa	0.005	small	1.9	n.m.	1.9	380	Etiope et al. (2007)
	Ospitaletto	0.001	small	0.6	0.8	1.4	1400	“
	Pineto	0.0002	small	0.6	0.1	0.7	3500	“
	Rivalta	0.003	small	10.8	1.2	12	4000	“
	Regnano	0.006	medium	29	5	34	5667	“
	Nirano	0.08	large	26.4	6	32.4	405	“
	Dragone	0.002	small	0.15	0.2	0.35	175	“
	Serra de Conti	0.015	medium	3	0.3	3.3	220	“
Romania	Paclele Mici	0.62	large	128	255	383	618	Etiope et al. (2004b)
	Paclele Mari	1.62	large	430	300	730	451	“
	Fierbatori	0.025	medium	20	17	37	1480	“
	<i>Trasylvania</i>							
	Homorod	0.005	small	0.5	0.5	1	200	Spulber et al. (2010)
	Monor	0.002	small	13.9	2.1	16	8000	“
	Filias	0.00005	small	0.1	0.38	0.49	9800	“
	Porumbeni Mici	0.00004	small	0.27	0.2	0.47	11750	“
	Cobatesti	0.00008	small	0.2	1.4	1.6	20000	“
Taiwan	Boz	0.00002	small	0.01	0.19	0.20	10000	“
	Shing-yang-nyu-hu	0.0004	small	0.5	1.7	2.2	5500	This study
	Gung-shuei-ping	0.005	small	0.004	1.1	1.1	220	“
	Shiao-kung-shuei	0.0003	small	8.8E-5	1	1	3333	“
	Li-yu-shan	0.0003	small	0.0006	n.m.	0.0006	2	“
	Wu-shan-ding	0.006	medium	30.2	4.8	35	5833	“
	Chu-ho	0.0007	fire	75.5	-	75.7	107860	

¹Size is distinguished on the basis of the diameter of the muddy cover for single-dome MV or of the area of the multiple vents as follows:

Large: diameter >100m; medium: 20<diameter<100m; small: <10 m.

nm = not measurable, two to three times explosive emission every year

Table 2

(A)	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	F
Total	22	178.60	8.12	
Regression	1	123.17	123.17	46.66
Residual	21	55.43	2.64	
Variables	coeff.	s.e.		
slope	0.98	0.60		
intercept	0.24	0.22		

(B)	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	F
Total	26	65.02	2.50	
Regression	1	31.02	31.02	22.81
Residual	25	34.00	1.36	
Variables	coeff.	s.e.		
slope	-0.34	0.51		
intercept	5.39	0.08		

df: degree of freedom, SS: Sum of Squares, MS: Mean of Square, F: F statistic, s.e.: standard error of residuals