# Crustal deformation and seismic velocity perturbations in the Alto Tiberina fault zone (Northern Apennines, Italy)

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### Abstract

Crustal perturbations related to seismic activity can generally be observed with the occurrence of a large magnitude event. For less energetic seismic sequences though, the associated transient crustal variations are questionably measurable, and their observation gets easily obscured by relatively stronger perturbations such as the ones related to hydrological processes. In this study we reveal the significant role that terrestrial water-storage variations play in governing temporal crustal changes in the tectonically active Northern Apennines of Italy, and discuss the potential of accounting for its correction in order to monitor the relatively weaker transient perturbations caused by local seismic swarms. This area is characterized by an extensive level of low-energetic seismic activity, typically clustered in time and space, of which three main seismic swarms outstand during the 12-year period of study (2010-2021). Our analysis compares independent observations and processing methods of GNSS measurements and ambient seismic noise recordings. We adopt a multivariate statistical approach to discriminate between independent sources of ground deformation, and seismic noise cross-correlation analysis to monitor relative seismic-velocity variations. The result shows how the perturbation effects produced by variations in total water content are dominant in both time series of ground deformations and seismic-velocity variations. After correcting for the water-related variation effects, our monitoring results reveal perturbations in the crustal properties whose activation time and depth range correlate with the occurrences of the seismic swarms.

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# 6 Key Points:

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- Crustal-perturbation monitoring
- <sup>8</sup> Ambient seismic noise
- Hydrological and seismic perturbations

### 10 Abstract

Crustal perturbations related to seismic activity can generally be observed with the 11 occurrence of a large magnitude event. For less energetic seismic sequences though, 12 the associated transient crustal variations are questionably measurable, and their ob-13 servation gets easily obscured by relatively stronger perturbations such as the ones 14 related to hydrological processes. In this study we reveal the significant role that 15 terrestrial water-storage variations play in governing temporal crustal changes in the 16 tectonically active Northern Apennines of Italy, and discuss the potential of account-17 ing for its correction in order to monitor the relatively weaker transient perturbations 18 caused by local seismic swarms. This area is characterized by an extensive level of low-19 energetic seismic activity, typically clustered in time and space, of which three main 20 seismic swarms outstand during the 12 year period of study (2010-2021). Our analysis 21 compares independent observations and processing methods of GNSS measurements 22 and ambient seismic noise recordings. We adopt a multivariate statistical approach 23 to discriminate between independent sources of ground deformation, and seismic noise 24 cross-correlation analysis to monitor relative seismic-velocity variations. The result 25 shows how the perturbation effects produced by variations in total water content are 26 dominant in both time series of ground deformations and seismic-velocity variations. 27 After correcting for the water-related variation effects, our monitoring results reveal 28 29 perturbations in the crustal properties whose activation time and depth range correlate with the occurrences of the seismic swarms. 30

## <sup>31</sup> Plain Language Summary

The observation of changes in the Earth's crust, either as surface ground deformation 32 or perturbations in its elastic properties, is crucial in the study of the earthquake nu-33 cleation process. When the occurrence of seismic events involves small magnitudes, 34 however, these observations become hardly visible and get easily masked by other 35 relatively-larger crustal changes induced by surface phenomena such as the hydrologi-36 cal cycle. Geodetic-data processing achieves to estimate different ground deformation 37 responses induced by independent phenomena, separating that due to seismic origin 38 from the ones induced by the hydrological cycle. When monitoring the crustal prop-39 erties with ambient seismic noise, the separation of the perturbation by their different 40 sources becomes rather challenging. In the case of our study, a fast approach in-41 volves the estimation of the hydrological cycle, and use it as a proxy to correct for the 42 hydrologically-induced perturbations. With this correction, we observe an agreement 43 between the crustal elastic properties' changes with the occurrence of local seismic 44 swarms both in time and depth. 45

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## 46 1 Introduction

Seasonal variations are common in many geophysical monitoring datasets. Ground 47 displacements, as recorded by Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) networks, 48 respond to a variety of multiscale processes causing seasonal deformation signals (e.g., 49 Dong et al., 2002), and the understanding of the mechanisms behind this periodic 50 deformation has recently brought a vast amount of literature with it (White et al., 51 2022, and references therein). Seasonal changes in elastic properties of the Earth's 52 crust, as obtained from the analysis of seismic noise cross-correlations, are also de-53 54 scribed in the most recent literature (e.g., Meier et al., 2010; Hillers et al., 2014; Poli et al., 2020; Andajani et al., 2020; Fokker et al., 2021). Moreover, seasonal changes 55 in seismicity rates, as the response to seasonal stress changes at seismogenic depths, 56 have been observed in several tectonic settings (Bettinelli et al., 2008; D'Agostino et 57 al., 2018; Pintori et al., 2021). Accounting for these seasonal signals is mandatory in 58 order to accurately estimate trends and their changes, and to detect transient signals 59 associated with tectonic processes and the earthquake preparatory phase, particularly 60 in slowly deforming regions, where tectonic transients may be much smaller in am-61 plitude than non tectonic seasonal signals. GNSS time responses due to the latter 62 are often associated with climatic and hydrological processes (e.g., Pan et al., 2019; 63 Riddell et al., 2020; Pintori et al., 2022). Additionally, seasonal signals can bring 64 important information on underlying processes, such as groundwater or surface-water 65 changes, with important implications in either the monitoring of hydrological resources 66 or measuring the mechanical properties of the Earth. Silverii et al. (2016) showed that 67 hydrological-recharge and -discharge processes in karstic aquifers of the Southern and 68 Central Appennines (Italy) can produce deformation signals of both seasonal and tran-69 sient nature in GNSS position time series. The hydrologically-induced transient signals, 70 which are recorded also by Serpelloni et al. (2018) in the Southern Alps, are important 71 to recognize not only because they can be used as indirect indicators of groundwater 72 content, but also because they can be misinterpreted as transient tectonic signals. 73

The use of ambient seismic noise cross-correlation analysis has gained popularity in 74 seismology in the study and monitoring of the elastic properties of the Earth's subsur-75 face. One effective method for monitoring changes with ambient seismic noise is the 76 description of the perturbations in the medium in terms of relative seismic-velocity 77 variations (Snieder et al., 2002; Grêt et al., 2006; Campillo, 2006). This method is 78 mostly being employed in the detection of coseismic perturbations and post-seismic 79 relaxation effects after strong seismic events (Brenguier et al., 2008; Zaccarelli et al., 80 2011; Minato et al., 2012), or in monitoring perturbations in volcanic areas (Brenguier 81 et al., 2008; Anggono et al., 2012; Budi-Santoso & Lesage, 2016). Since the beginning 82 of the application of this noise-based analysis, it has been clear how the water content 83 in the Earth's crust plays an important role in determining the relative seismic-velocity 84 variations (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006; Tsai, 2011; Hillers et al., 2014b), and in 85 recent years it has also been used to monitor hydrological perturbations (Voisin et al., 86 2017; Clements & Denolle, 2018; Yates et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Illien et al., 2022). 87

In this work we discuss the results obtained from the analysis of GNSS position time-88 series, seismic-velocity perturbations and groundwater content in the Northern Apen-89 nines of Italy. We focus on the Alto Tiberina Fault (ATF) area (see Fig. 1a), where 90 multidisciplinary measurements are guaranteed by dense monitoring networks. Since 91 2010, a Near Fault Observatory has been created in order to monitor ground defor-92 mation and seismicity through a multidisciplinary infrastructure (with seismological, 93 geodetic, and geochemical measurements, Chiaraluce et al., 2014; EPOS, n.d.). The 94 study area is located in the high strain-rate belt that runs along the regional divide 95 of the Italian Apennines (Anderlini et al., 2016; Serpelloni et al., 2022). The most 96 important geological feature here is the Alto Tiberina fault, an active low-angle (dip 97 angle of  $15^{\circ}$ ) normal fault, NNW trending and about 60 km long (e.g., Chiaraluce et 98

al., 2007). The ATF and its hanging-wall high-angle faults account for  $\sim 2 \frac{mm}{y}$  out 99 of the  $3 \, mm/y$  regional extension rate across the Northern Apennines (Anderlini et al., 100 2016). Historical catalogues in the Umbria-Marche region document several earth-101 quakes with macroseismic estimate of magnitudes greater than  $M_w = 5.5$  being the 102 largest one a  $M_w = 6.4$  in 1781 (Rovida et al., 2020), yet no large earthquakes are 103 unequivocally associated with the ATF. Geodetic measurements suggest that the ATF 104 is aseismically creeping at depths greater than 5 km (Anderlini et al., 2016; Vadacca et 105 al., 2016), where it is well delineated by microseismicity. More importantly, the same 106 area experiences low-energetic seismic swarms confined in the shallower, hanging-wall 107 faults (Gualandi et al., 2017) with possible involvement of the ATF (Vuan et al., 2020). 108 During the 12 year period (2010-2021) of study, the ATF area has been interested by 109 a sustained seismic activity whose occurrence may be grouped into three main swarms 110 (after Valoroso et al., 2017): 111

- 112 1. the *Pietralunga* swarm from 10 April 2010 to 5 May 2010, with maximum  $M_w = 3.6$ ;
  - 2. the Città di Castello swarm from 20 April 2013 to 20 May 2013, with maximum  $M_w = 3.6;$
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3. the *Gubbio* swarm that started on 26 August 2013 and lasted until the end of 2014, with a maximum  $M_w = 3.9$  on 22 December 2013.

Fig.1b shows the daily occurrence of the whole ATF seismicity from 2010 to 2015, while the map in Fig.1c depicts the epicentral location of events of the three aforementioned seismic swarms. Afterwards the local seismicity did not show additional clusters, which may be also masked by the 2016 Central Italy seismic sequence.

The goal of this study is to analyze the main source of crustal deformation and seismicvelocity variations in the area during the 12 year period of observations, trying to discriminate among the different possible sources of perturbations, from the water content variations to the tectonic activity occurred up to 2015.



Figure 1: a) Location in the Italian peninsula and geological map of the ATF region, with the main tectonic units, formations, faults and thrusts. Inset showing the ATF region under study in the Italian peninsula. b) Temporal occurrence of the seismicity in the ATF area as the daily number of events along the 2010-2015 time period (Latorre et al., 2016): the red, green, and blue colors are used to distinguish between the *Pietralunga*, *Città di Castello* and *Gubbio* swarms, respectively. Color background highlights represent the start time and duration of each seismic swarm. c) Map of the epicentral locations of the local earthquake recorded during 2010-2015 (Latorre et al., 2016), in color agreement with panel b).

# <sup>126</sup> 2 Data and Processing

In this section we describe the characteristics and processing of the different datasets 127 included in this study: geodetic observations (GNSS), seismological recordings and 128 meteoclimatic readings in the period between 1 January 2010 and Mid-February 2022. 129 Every dataset acquisition network required a selection of GNSS/seismic/pluviometric 130 stations within an area of ca.  $\sim 80 \,\mathrm{km}$  radius set on the central section of the ATF-131 zone and comprising the upper Tiber basin (see Fig.2). In the case of the GNSS- and 132 seismic- networks, the areas comprising the station selection are not limited to the 133 134 upper Tiber basin, yet they sufficiently cover the watershed area.

## 135 2.1 GNSS

We use 33 GNSS stations, displayed in Fig.2a, and obtain the daily ground-displacement 136 time series following the procedure described in Serpelloni et al. (2022). In order to 137 increase the signal-to-noise ratio of the time series, we remove the common mode sig-138 nal estimated at continental scale performing a Principal Component Analysis, as in 139 Serpelloni et al. (2013). Furthermore, we remove the linear trend, which is estimated 140 using the MIDAS software (Blewitt et al., 2016), from the GNSS time responses. Ul-141 timately, we analyze the processed GNSS position time series using the Independent 142 Component Analysis method with variational approximation and Bayesian inference 143 (variational Bayesian ICA, Gualandi et al., 2016), which allows to separate statistically 144 independent signals that are present in the time series. Assuming that the statistical 145 independence of the signals means that they are caused by different processes, we as-146 sociate each signal with a distinct geophysical process. In the case of this study we 147 decompose the GNSS dataset in four Independent Components (IC's). This method 148 has been successfully applied to extract hydrological and tectonic transient signals 149 from geodetic displacement recordings (e.g., Gualandi et al., 2017; Serpelloni et al., 150 2018; Pintori et al., 2021); it uses a generative model to recreate the observations, 151 allowing the extraction of the spatio-temporal information of an arbitrary number of 152 independent sources of deformation from the observations, without imposing a priori 153 any specific spatial distribution nor temporal function. The output is the definition 154 of a limited number of sources, or IC's, characterized by a specific spatial coefficient 155 distribution  $U(\mathbf{x})$  (where  $\mathbf{x}$  stands for the locations of the GNSS stations) and a time 156 response V(t). A weight coefficient is necessary to rescale their contribution in ex-157 plaining the original displacement observation. In this study each IC is described 158 by a mix of four Gaussian functions, allowing for more flexibility in the description 159 of the sources with respect to classical ICA techniques and to consistently take into 160 account data gaps in the displacement time series (K. Chan et al., 2003), providing 161 also an estimate of the uncertainty associated with every IC. Hence, the displacement 162 observations at a given station can be reconstructed by linearly summing up the con-163 tributions from all the IC's, each of which is obtained by multiplying together the 164 specific spatial coefficient, the associated weight and the corresponding time response. 165

# 166 2.2 Seismic noise

We employ continuous seismic recordings from the Italian National Seismic Network 167 (INGV Seismological Data Centre, 2006), and make a selection of 45 stations (short-168 period and broad-band), with a recording span longer than 6 years (see Fig.2b). For 169 this analysis we concentrate on the seismic noise corresponding to oceanic microseisms 170 (i.e., in the [0.1 1.0] Hz frequency range), and surface-wave signal reconstruction by 171 172 cross-correlation. Our analysis involves vertical-component recordings only. Seismic processing includes standard instrumental correction, frequency band-pass filtering, 173 spectral whitening and 1-bit normalization (Brenguier et al., 2008). Cross-correlations 174 are carried out in 1 hour-long time sections, with half hour sliding (i.e., 50% of section 175 overlap). In order to increase the signal reconstruction, a stacking of cross-correlation 176

results is implemented in daily sequences. We test multiple stacking lengths to study 177 the trade-off relation between quality in the seismic-signal reconstruction and lapse-178 time resolution (from 15 to 50 d). In this study we choose as most suitable the 30 d179 stacking-length result. We perform coda-wave interferometry (CWI, Snieder et al., 180 2002; Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006) on the first 26s of seismic coda for every 181 cross-correlation result. The analysis of the coda includes the estimate of 10 time-lag 182 samples  $(\delta \tau)$  along the coda per surface-wave response. We apply a joint regression of 183 the time lags  $\delta \tau$  with respect to the coda-window time segment ( $\tau$ ) from all seismic-184 station pairs and calculate the coda-window relative time-lag variation  $\delta \tau / \tau$ . Assuming 185 that the seismic perturbation is homogeneous throughout the study area, the final 186 relative seismic-velocity variation  $(\delta v/v)$  is given by the linear relation  $\delta v/v = -\delta \tau/\tau$ 187 (Poupinet et al., 1984; Snieder, 2006). 188

We produce a first set of results from the cross-correlation analysis over the complete 189 frequency range  $([0.1 \ 1.0] \text{ Hz})$ . A second set of results is created with exactly the 190 same processing but applied individually over six consecutive narrower frequency bands 191  $([0.1 \ 0.16], [0.16 \ 0.25], [0.25 \ 0.36], [0.36 \ 0.5], [0.5 \ 0.7] and [0.7 \ 1.0] Hz)$ . This second set of results allows us to investigate the scattering process at different frequency 193 ranges and thus exploit the dispersive nature of the retrieved surface waves in order to 194 explore the depth reach of the seismic perturbations in the crust. Although small in 195 number, the choice and amount of frequency bands analyzed is a compromise between 196 the partitioning of the frequency range of interest, the variation of the wavefield depth 197 sensitivity extent and the stability of the cross-correlation signal in the time domain. 198



Figure 2: a) Location of the 33 continuous GNSS stations utilized. b) Distribution of the 45 permanent seismic stations of the Italian National Seismic Network selected for the seismic-noise analysis. c) Piezometric-sensor distribution (24) in the Umbria region used in this work. In all three panels the shadowed region depicts the upper Tiber basin taken into account for computing  $\delta$ TWS.

# <sup>199</sup> 2.3 Meteo-climatic data

We take into account three kinds of meteo-climatic observations and processed data: the piezometric measurements, the hydrological balance in the upper Tiber basin in the form of total water storage variation, and the ground displacement associated with hydrological loading from a global gridded model. We calculate the Mean Piezometric Level (MPL) by performing an arithmetic mean of all the water-table readings

available for this study in order to obtain an estimate representing the water-table 205 variation in the whole upper Tiber basin. The piezometric level dataset is available 206 at ARPA Umbria (2006) and the location of the 24 piezometric stations employed is 207 shown in Fig.2c. In order for outlying values and single large-fluctuating piezome-208 ters not to dominate the ensemble average, we perform an amplitude normalization 209 of every water-table reading beforehand prior to the arithmetic mean and add later 210 an average of the respective mean values from every piezometer. We compute the 211 total water storage variations ( $\delta TWS$ ) in the upper Tiber basin following the method 212 described in Pintori et al. (2021), by solving the mass balance equation between pre-213 cipitation, evapotranspiration, incoming river inflow, outcoming river discharge, and 214 potential groundwater import/export in a surrounding basin. Due to the difficulty 215 in precisely estimating some of the parameters in the mass-balance equation, we ex-216 ploit the GR5J rainfall-runoff model (Pushpalatha et al., 2011) for estimating the total 217 water storage variations. The displacement time series associated with hydrological 218 loading (hereinafter HL) is obtained considering the Land Surface Discharge Model 219 (LSDM, developed by Dill, 2008). With this model approach, we estimate daily sur-220 face displacements from the continental hydrology by accounting for the precipitation, 221 evaporation, and temperature from an atmospheric model developed by the European 222 Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF, n.d.). We considered for this 223 study the area with limits  $[11^{\circ}30'E \ 13^{\circ}E]$  in longitude and  $[43^{\circ}N \ 44^{\circ}N]$  in latitude. 224

From these three meteoclimatic products we thus obtain three independent observa-225 tions related to the water content variations for the ATF zone. In Fig.4a, the  $\delta$ TWS 226 and HL show a remarkable similarity and synchronized (but opposite) behaviour (-0.9 227 correlation coefficient). While HL is the result of a model that takes into account only 228 the water stored in the first few meters of the subsurface,  $\delta TWS$  is influenced also by 229 the groundwater. The strong similarity between HL and  $\delta TWS$  suggests that, in the 230 upper Tiber basin, most of the water is stored as 'surface water' instead of groundwa-231 ter, so that the groundwater-storage changes slightly influence the total water storage 232 variations. On the other hand, the MPL time series in Fig.4b exhibits a different tem-233 poral behaviour, with more pronounced multi-annual variations (i.e., smaller maximum 234 amplitudes for a drought period in 2012) and a persistent time delay with respect to 235 both  $\delta$ TWS and HL (correlation coefficient of ~0.7 and time lag of ~30 d). 236

### <sup>237</sup> **3** Results and Interpretation

# 3.1 GNSS IC decomposition

In Fig.3 we show the four IC's extracted from the GNSS-position time series. For 239 each IC we show its corresponding time response (V(t), right graph, normalized be-240 tween -0.5 and 0.5) and spatial distribution  $(U(\mathbf{x}), \text{ left map})$ . V(t) describes how the 241 displacement of the corresponding IC evolves with time, whereas  $U(\mathbf{x})$  shows the max-242 imum amplitude and 3D direction of the displacement at the location of every GNSS 243 station **x**. The color scale represents the amplitude of the maximum vertical displace-244 ment, while the yellow arrows indicate the maximum amplitude and orientation of the 245 horizontal displacement. The displacement related to the ICn over a time interval 246  $[t_1 t_2]$  (with  $t_2 > t_1$ ) at a station m is computed as  $[V_n(t_2) - V_n(t_1)] U_n(\mathbf{x}_m)$ , where 247  $V_n(t)$  is the time response of the ICn and  $U_n$  is its corresponding spatial response. If 248  $V_n(t)$  increases the station's horizontal displacement follows the yellow-arrow sense, 249 while the vertical displacement is upward if the  $U_n$  vertical component is positive and 250 downward if negative (see color scale in the maps of Fig.3). 251

<sup>252</sup> IC1 in Fig.3 presents a clear sinusoidal behaviour with annual periodicity. The  $U_1$ <sup>253</sup> vertical components reveal a uniform response (except for one site on the NW margin). <sup>254</sup> The vertical displacement of IC1's periodic signal holds a magnitude fluctuation of ca. <sup>255</sup> ~1 cm, while the horizontal displacement bears smaller amplitudes. Fig.4a shows the <sup>256</sup> good agreement between IC1's time response and both  $\delta$ TWS and HL: the time series <sup>257</sup> are strongly correlated (0.7 correlation coefficient) without significant time lag.

IC2 in Fig.<sup>3</sup> shows a non-uniform spatial response both in the vertical and horizontal 258 components. The time response of this IC exposes two different transients: the first 259 in 2013-2014 and the second in 2016. The latter transient corresponds to the post-260 seismic deformation following the Amatrice-Visso-Norcia sequence in Central Italy, 261 whose epicentral area is located 70-90 km south of the study area. The results are con-262 sistent, both in terms of temporal evolution and spatial response, with those presented 263 in Mandler et al. (2021), and primarily affected the southernmost stations considered 264 in our work. As regards the first transient signal, this is more complex to interpret. 265 First, it shows some cross-talk with IC3. Secondly, it is of smaller entity with respect 266 to both IC3 and the Amatrice-Visso-Norcia post-seismic signal. Tentatively, this small 267 transient deformation could be associated with the *Città di Castello* seismic swarm. 268 but the deformation pattern from the spatial response of GNSS stations in the ATF 269 area is not that clear. 270

The IC3 time response also reveals a transient signal at the beginning of 2014, which is very similar both in terms of spatial distribution and temporal evolution to the one extracted by Gualandi et al. (2017). The coincidence of transient signals occurring at the end of 2013 in the time responses of both IC2 and IC3 makes it possible that cross-talk might have taken place between the two.

IC4 is described in Fig.<sup>3</sup> as the weakest independent component in the analysis. Al-276 though its spatial coefficients show a non-uniform distribution, its time response ex-277 hibits a clear seasonal signal with a similar annual periodicity as IC1's. Fig.4b shows 278 a good similarity of IC4's time response with the mean piezometric level at the up-279 per Tiber basin, a solid correlation (0.7 correlation coefficient) and a ca.  $\sim 30$  d time 280 lag. This suggests that the displacements associated with IC4 are related to varia-281 tions of the deep portion of the water storage: we interpret the delay between the 282 displacements and the piezometric-level variations as due to the time needed by the 283 water to reach aquifers located deeper than the ones caught by the piezometers, whose 284 median depth is shallower than 10 m. Furthermore, Silverii et al. (2016) and Pin-285 tori et al. (2021) interpreted a deformation pattern analogous to IC4's, characterized 286

- <sup>287</sup> by anisotropic horizontal deformations with amplitudes similar to the vertical ones,
- <sup>288</sup> caused by water-level variations in fracture systems beneath karst aquifers.



Figure 3: Time response  $V_n(t)$  and spatial coefficients  $U_n(\mathbf{x})$  of the four independent components: **IC1**, **IC2**, **IC3** and **IC4**. Labeled brown lines in IC2 and IC3 represent the occurrences of the three ATF seismic swarms (dashed and shadowed regions), and the three mainshocks of the Central Italy seismic sequence (solid).



Figure 4: a) Time response of IC1 (namely  $V_1(t)$  in Fig.3, gray) compared to the total water storage variation of the upper Tiber basin ( $\delta$ TWS, dark blue) and the vertical displacement caused by hydrological loading (HL, orange). Note that the HL's abscissa in the graph is reversed. b) Comparison between the mean piezometric level at the upper Tiber basin (MPL, light blue) and the IC4's time response (gray).

### <sup>289</sup> **3.2** Seismic-velocity variations

In this section we present the results for the 12 year monitoring through ambient seismic 290 noise cross-correlations. In Fig.5a we show the result of the daily-sampled relative 291 seismic-velocity variations ( $\delta v/v$ , coloured-red line) obtained from the analysis of the 292 data in the whole [0.1 1.0] Hz frequency band. Each daily  $\delta v/v$  estimate is plotted at 293 the end of the respective 30 d interval. The color scale stands for the number of  $\delta \tau$ 294 values considered in the  $\delta \tau / \tau$  linear regression. This value represents a measure of the 295 quality of the estimates and depends (among others) on the number of station pairs 296 297 available. The color evolution, from yellow at the beginning of 2010, to red in 2012, shows how some of the employed stations have been installed during the first two years 298 of analysis, meaning that the most stable and reliable measurements start from 2012. 299

For comparison, Fig.5a shows the total water storage variations of the upper Tiber 300 basin and the IC1 temporal evolution (Fig.3a), obtained from the GNSS data analysis. 301 The  $\delta v/v$  result shows a remarkable anticorrelation with both the  $\delta TWS$  and the IC1 302 time series. In the 2016-2017 time period a clear divergence of the  $\delta v/v$  result with 303 respect to the other two time series is well observable. It corresponds to the occurrence 304 of the 2016 Central Italy seismic sequence, which has already been attested to cause 305 seismic-velocity variations in the crust's elastic properties at regional scale by a similar 306 noise-based study (Soldati et al., 2019). 307

As for the relatively smaller local seismic swarms, the strong imprint due to the hy-308 drological perturbation in the area buries down any significant hint of the potential 309 tectonic perturbation of the seismic episodes in the ATF region. In an attempt to 310 enhance the perturbation signal potentially associated with the ATF- seismic swarms, 311 we carried out a subtraction of the hydrological perturbation using the  $\delta TWS$  infor-312 mation. Literature describes elaborate methods on how to estimate the hydrological 313 contribution from pluviometric observations: For instance, Illien et al. (2021) uses a 314 model with coupling soil-water and groundwater dynamics, while Rivet et al. (2015) ap-315 plies poroelastic relations based on pore-pressure diffusion and homogeneous hydraulic 316 diffusivity. In our case, given that we have an estimate of the total water content in 317 the medium, and observe a good similarity between both the  $\delta v/v$  and the hydrological 318 observations, we carry out the subtraction with the aid of a scaled  $\delta TWS$  obtained 319 by linear robust regression, thus avoiding any further assumptions. After applying 320 the hydrological correction in the  $\delta v/v$  result the strong seasonal behaviour vanishes 321 whereas the identification of perturbations related to the ATF-swarms remains not 322 visible at all (see Fig.5b). 323

The second set of results, obtained from multiple consecutive narrow- frequency bands, 324 allowed us to explore the perturbation response in the medium at the study site in 325 multiple depth-sampling ranges (Hobiger et al., 2012). Fig.<sup>6</sup> shows the corresponding 326  $\delta v/v$  results from each of the six frequency bands analyzed, with respect to the time 327 response of IC1 and the  $\delta$ TWS result. In these results we observe that the seasonal 328 behaviour of the seismic-velocity perturbations decreases as we lower the frequency-329 content, but always remains present nonetheless. The resemblance between the  $\delta TWS$ 330 and the  $\delta v/v$  results with the higher frequency content (Figs.6a, 6b and 6c) is indicated 331 in their corresponding Pearson's correlation coefficients: -0.71, -0.82 and -0.69, respec-332 tively. This is expected since the crustal depth-sampling range gets shallower, and thus 333 more exposed to effects from perturbations due to surface/hydrological phenomena. 334 Also, the top frequency-band results bear a foreseeable time delay ( $\sim 15 \,\mathrm{d}$  as estimated 335 by cross-correlating the two time series) with respect to the  $\delta TWS$ , produced by the 336 337 cross-correlation 30-day stacking bias. However, in the lowest frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results (Fig.6e and 6f) their low correlation coefficient (-0.47 and -0.44, respectively) 338 show a weaker effect of the yearly seasonality, hence revealing the diminishing effect of 339 hydrological perturbations as we sample deeper the scattering wavefield in the crust. 340



Figure 5: Comparison of geodetic (GNSS IC1) and hydrological ( $\delta$ TWS) observations with the relative seismic-velocity variations ( $\delta v/v$ ), the latter displayed with reversed abscissa. Brown lines depict the bounds of the occurrence periods of the ATF seismic swarms (dashed) and the mainshock occurrences of the seismic sequence of Central Italy (solid). **a**)  $\delta v/v$  result obtained from the complete frequency band [0.1 1.0] Hz, compared to the  $\delta$ TWS and the IC1 time response. **b**) Same  $\delta v/v$  result in a) after applying a hydrological correction based on the  $\delta$ TWS result.

This detail indicates that seismic-velocity perturbations at depths larger than 3 km seem to be driven by phenomena other than surface hydrology.

In order to constrain the depth range of the results in Fig.6, we create a series of 343 1-D models that account for the depth characteristics of the mechanical properties of 344 the study site. From the catalogue of oil-exploration activities carried out in the area 345 (Progetto ViDEPI, 2009-2023) we select the boreholes with best logging completeness 346 and largest depth reach (>2.5 km), and build five different 1-D geological models. 347 We utilize the logging data to describe the elastic properties in depth and complete 348 the missing information with values obtained from literature (Ciccotti et al., 2004; 349 Trippetta et al., 2010; Ji et al., 2018; Chicco et al., 2019; Montone & Mariucci, 2020). 350 We use the 1-D elastic models to calculate the fundamental-mode depth-sensitivity 351 kernels of Rayleigh-wave phase velocity in order to observe the depth range where each 352 of the frequency-band results is dominant (Herrmann, 2013). The depth-sensitivity 353 kernels from the corresponding frequency bands of analysis are shown in Fig.7a for 354 each of the locations, with the 1-D geological model of the corresponding borehole 355 displayed in the background. Both  $\delta v/v$  results in Fig.6 and depth-sensitivity curves 356 in Fig.7a share the same color code by frequency band. Only depth-sensitivity kernels 357 with respect to shear-wave velocity  $(\beta)$  perturbations are shown. Fig.7b depicts the 358 dispersion curve of the Rayleigh-wave fundamental mode in the Monte Civitello 1-D 359 model (based on the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole, Fig.7a) with respect to the six 360 frequency bands of analysis, while Fig.7c shows the map distribution of the selected 361 boreholes. 362

The use of multiple models serve to account for the varying depth sensitivity given the extension and geological complexity of this sector of the Apennines (see Figs.1a and



Figure 6: Comparison of GNSS IC1 time response,  $\delta$ TWS and  $\delta v/v$  (abscissa-reversed) for different frequency bands: **a**) [0.7 1.0] Hz. **b**) [0.5 0.7] Hz. **c**) [0.35 0.5] Hz. **d**) [0.24 0.35] Hz. **e**) [0.16 0.24] Hz. **f**) [0.1 0.16] Hz. Brown lines represent the bounds of the occurrence periods of the ATF seismic swarms (dashed lines and shadowed region) and the mainshock occurrences of the seismic sequence of Central Italy (solid).

Fig.7c). Following this, the "San Donato 001" borehole represents the depth sensitivity of Rayleigh waves in the western area of the study site, in a model with shallow siliciclastic sequences and thick levels of the Burano formation. To the North, the

"Pieve S.Stefano 001" borehole provides a model with larger siliciclastic sequences and 368 repeated carbonatic sequences in depth. The "Burano 001" and "Fossombrone 002" 369 boreholes depict the thrust-and-fold complexity in the East and South of the study site: 370 their corresponding graphs describe the Rayleigh-wave sensitivity when the medium 371 is characterized by massive (duplexed-) carbonatic sequences of larger extension in 372 depth. The borehole "Monte Civitello 001" provides a model of the central section 373 of the study site, with a thick display of the Umbro-Marchigian formation and the 374 complete carbonatic series in a single sequence. 375

376 For our final monitoring analysis, we make use of the elastic 1-D models and integrate all our multiple frequency-band results in order to estimate a depth distribution of the 377 elastic-properties' perturbation that can describe the observed relative seismic-velocity 378 variations at their respective frequency-band ranges. We implement the methodology 379 for inversion of surface-wave dispersion curves (Dorman & Ewing, 1962; Szelwis & 380 Behle, 1984: Socco & Strobbia, 2004) and adapt it to produce a depth-image result of 381 the crustal perturbations observed in our  $\delta v/v$  results at every lapse time. The descrip-382 tion of the elastic properties in the 1-D models in Fig.7a enables the estimation of the 383 (fundamental-mode) phase-velocity function for a laterally homogeneous medium with 384 respect to the frequency values described within the depth limits of the model (see 385 Fig.7b). Associating the multiple frequency-dependent  $\delta v/v$  with the phase-velocity 386 function we can constrain the physical magnitude of the phase-velocity perturbation 387  $\delta v$  for every frequency band at every lapse time. With the magnitude estimate of the 388 phase-velocity change, we employ the depth-sensitivity kernels in Fig.7a to calculate 389 the perturbation of the elastic properties of the medium. Since shear-wave velocity 390 dominates propagation properties of Rayleigh waves (Xia et al., 1999; Louie, 2001; 391 Wathelet et al., 2004), and assuming no mass-density changes happen in the medium, 392 in this analysis we assume the crustal perturbations to be caused by shear-modulus 393 changes ( $\delta\mu$ ). In our approach, although the medium is simplified by assuming a 394 stratified 1-D inhomogeneous half space, we disregard the retrieval of Rayleigh-wave 395 higher-mode waveforms in our cross-correlation scattering coda given the geological 396 complexity of the subsurface across the area and the strong variability of the geolog-397 ical structure (see Fig.7a) for the frequency range of our study. Hence, we neglect in 398 our analysis any effect caused by the presence of cross-mode cross-correlation artefacts 399 in our scattering coda (Kimman & Trampert, 2010). In our analysis the scattering 400 is assumed to be controlled exclusively by the Ravleigh-wave fundamental mode and 401 hence we neglect any Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh and Love-to-Rayleigh scattering mode con-402 versions in the retrieved cross-correlation coda (Snieder, 1986). The depth-sensitivity 403 kernels employed are originally conceived for Rayleigh-wave direct-arrival analysis and 404 do not account for surface- to body-wave mode conversions (Chang & Tuan, 1973; 405 Tuan, 1975; Momoi, 1981). Yet, Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh scattering mode becomes domi-406 nant with time because of their weaker decay (Maeda et al., 2008). Since our analysis 407 mostly comprises late coda arrivals, and due to the fact that Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh 408 scattering mode has a weaker decay  $(t^{-1})$  with respect to the Rayleigh-to-body wave 409 mode  $(t^{-4})$ , we neglect any scattering body-wave conversion and run under the premise 410 that the analyzed coda is dominated by scattered Rayleigh waves. 411

For the inversion process we apply regularized damped least-squares (Tarantola & Valette, 1982; Haney & Tsai, 2017), employing the error estimate at each  $\delta v/v$  regression result in order to build the diagonal data-covariance matrix. Although we counted on six frequency-band results, given the ill-posedness of our problem we employ 20 frequency samples, implying a repetitive use of the  $\delta v/v$  time series but with varying amplitude, following the corresponding 1D model phase-velocity curve (see Fig.7b).

The final result we produce is a depth-monitoring image: a time-lapse with the depth distribution of crustal perturbations detected by our seismic stations assuming a laterally invariant medium, with isotropic scattering properties, and thus neglecting lateral



Figure 7: Depth sensitivity analysis: **a)** Fundamental-mode Rayleigh-wave depthsensitivity kernels from five different 1-D geological models. Top colored axes define the amplitude values of their corresponding color-matching kernel. Main geological formations are named with colored labels. The geological models are based on the logging results of the respective boreholes, named at the bottom of their respective figure. The depthsensitivity kernels correspond to phase-velocity sensitivity with respect to a perturbation in the shear-wave velocity ( $\beta$ ), at the six frequency bands analyzed (see matching-color correspondence with results in Fig.6). **b)** Phase-velocity samples employed for the depthmonitoring imaging. Phase velocity values of the fundamental-mode Rayleigh wave for the *Monte Civitello* 1-D model in a). The colour of each frequency sample indicates to which of the 6 analyzed frequency bands it corresponds, and in turn which  $\frac{\delta v}{v}$  time series in Fig.6 is employed during the depth-monitoring imaging process. **c)** Location of the boreholes from which the 1-D elastic models in a) were built.

<sup>421</sup> perturbation-distributions. This sort of monitoring result has recently been presented



the depth distribution of hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations in the form of 423 pore-pressure variations.

424

Figure 8: Depth-imaging monitoring of shear-modulus changes  $(\delta \mu)$  compared with the depth distribution of the seismic events in the ATF zone. Depth model is based on the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole (see Fig.7a). a) Daily number of seismic events with magnitude greater than the completeness magnitude  $(M_L > 0.5)$  in the ATF zone, as in the catalogue shown in Fig.1b. b) Monitoring of the crustal shear-modulus perturbation in depth from the multiple frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results. Seismic events in a) are displayed as individual dots and as a contour-density map in time and depth (color magnitudes in events per day and kilometer). Dashed blue line represents the limit of the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole. c) Same as in b), after applying the correction of the hydrologically induced perturbations with the aid of the Total Water Storage variation ( $\delta TWS$ ) estimate.

Fig.8a shows the daily occurrence of seismic events from the seismic catalogue depicted 425 in Fig.1b with magnitude greater than the completeness magnitude ( $M_L > 0.5$ , Pa-426 storessa et al., 2023). The depth-imaging monitoring results displayed in Fig.8b and 427 Fig.8c correspond to the use of the *Monte Civitello* 1-D model. Results are displayed 428 in depth using the mean sea level as permanent datum and the measured depth has 429 been shifted with respect to the "Monte Civitello 001" drill floor. The dashed blue 430 line depicts the limit of the borehole in depth, which means that the model becomes 431 homogeneous beyond this limit. The depth versus time of the complete catalogue (i.e., 432 only seismic events with  $M_L > 0.5$ ) is superimposed. 433

Without applying any hydrological correction, the depth-imaging monitoring shows 434 that the shear-modulus perturbations happen independently from the time occurrence 435 of seismic events (Fig.8b). On the other hand, Fig.8c shows the result of applying the 436 same inversion technique on the multiple frequency-dependent relative seismic-velocity 437 variation results after applying an individually-customized  $\delta$ TWS-based correction of 438 the hydrological seismic perturbation on each  $\delta v/v$  time series (same correction applied 439 in the  $\delta v/v$  result of Fig.5b). In these results one can easily identify blunt increases in the 440 medium's shear modulus at the occurrence time of seismic swarms, in the range of tens 441 of MPa and always within the seismogenic depth range (roughly between 2 and  $5 \,\mathrm{km}$ 442

of depth). At the same time of the *Pietralunga* swarm, an increase of  $\delta\mu$  sustained in 443 time for 3 months is observed; high density seismic occurrences in the first half of 2011 444 coincide with short duration crustal shear-modulus perturbations. The second half of 445 2011 and the whole 2012 show a time interval of small perturbations concurring with a 446 period of seismic quiescence. Then, an increase of crustal shear-modulus perturbation 447 occurs in January 2013 (no seismic activity has been recorded at this time), and 448 in April-May 2013 with the Città di Castello swarm occurrence. During the Gubbio 449 seismic swarm  $\delta\mu$  shows a first perturbation coinciding with the maximum magnitude 450 event in December, 2013, followed by a larger and longer perturbation corresponding 451 to the second peak of events in March-April, 2014. Later perturbation episodes during 452 2014 and 2015 match with seismic occurrences of smaller time concentration. 453

## 454 **4** Discussion

We use the  $\delta TWS$ , the displacement associated with hydrological loading (HL) and 455 the mean piezometric level (MPL) for the period 2010-2022 in order to get three 456 independent observations related to temporal variations in water content of the shallow 457 crust. The MPL, although showing a similar trend with the HL and the  $\delta$ TWS, displays 458 a 30 d delay with respect to the latter two, but a good agreement and reduced time lag 459 with IC4 from GNSS decomposition. These last two time series may be representative 460 of possible local effects related with the southernmost region of the upper Tiber basin 461 462 where most of the piezometric wells are located (Fig.2c) and also the GNSS stations show the maximum (vertical) displacements associated with IC4 (Fig.3). 463

Total water content variations are known to cause measurable ground deformations 464 (from GNSS data analysis) but also affect the elastic parameters of the superficial 465 crustal sections (from noise-based monitoring analysis). In the ATF area, if from one side the hydrological perturbations seem to be responsible for two independent com-467 ponents out of the four produced by the variational Bayesian ICA decomposition of 468 GNSS time responses, its influence on perturbation of elastic parameters is still visible 469 up to the first few km of depth (in the  $\delta v/v$  results at frequency ranges from 0.25 to 470 1 Hz). Regarding the first point, this means that the TWS variations are the most 471 important source of seasonal modulation of crustal deformation ( $\sim 18\%$  of data vari-472 ance explained compared to the 14% of the seismic activity components as from Fig.3). 473 Similarly, a relevant influence of  $\delta$ TWS arises from the  $\delta v/v$  temporal variations of Fig.5 474 where the two time series show a very good anticorrelation (correlation coefficient of 475 -0.81) and limited time lag (ca.  $\sim 4 \, \text{d}$ ). Interestingly, this relationship holds also for 476 most of the six shorter frequency bands (Fig.6). In particular we can observe a good 477 anticorrelation (correlation coefficient < -0.5) for the higher frequency bands down to 478 the fourth one  $[0.25\ 0.35]$  Hz. While for the two lower frequency bands (i.e.,  $[0.1\ 0.17]$ 479 and [0.17, 0.25] Hz), i.e., the deepest portions of the crustal volume investigated, the 480 periodic behavior associated with the  $\delta TWS$  is not visible anymore. By looking at 481 the depth-sensitivity kernels of Fig. 7a we observe that these last two frequency range 482 waves (red and magenta lines) are sampling deeper levels of the Earth's crust (roughly 483 from 4 km depth further down for all crustal-structure models from all borehole lo-484 cations), compared to the higher frequencies that are sensitive to the first 2-4 km of 485 depth from the surface. Therefore we observe an influence of the TWS variations on 486 the relative seismic-velocity variations in the crust until a depth of few km as already 487 found also in other areas (Poli et al., 2020; Barajas et al., 2021; Almagro Vidal et al., 488 2021), thus indicating this observation as a possible general feature from the Southern and Central Appennings to the Alpine regions. Beside the  $\delta TWS$  influence, we could 490 also observe that the co- and post-seismic variations associated with the 2016 Cen-491 tral Italy seismic sequence are mainly visible only in the two middle frequency ranges 492  $([0.25\ 0.35]$  and  $[0.35\ 0.5]$  Hz), roughly corresponding to a depth range of 2-4 km. This 493 may be explained by the presence of a  $CO_2$  highly pressurized crustal level (Chiodini 494 et al., 2004; Carannante et al., 2013), which may be able to amplify the effect of the 495 shaking (as similarly seen also in Brenguier et al., 2014). 496

The strong influence of water content variations is easily separated from other sources 497 of crustal perturbation in the GNSS data by applying variational Bayesian IC analysis 498 (see Fig.3). For the relative seismic-velocity variations instead, the removal of the 499  $\delta TWS$  influence does not provide clear information on other possible sources of seismic 500 perturbations, at least none clearly related to seismic swarm occurrences (Fig.5b). 501 In order to improve exposure of the perturbations, we apply an inversion approach 502 integrating the six frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results with the aid of their depth sensitivity 503 and local 1-D elastic models of the crustal structure in depth. This procedure provides 504 the monitoring of the crustal perturbations expressed in the form of shear-modulus 505 variations and depicted as a depth distribution (Fig.8). In this case the removal of the 506

hydrologically-induced seismic perturbation is carried out before inversion for each of 507 the six  $\delta v/v$  time series individually, with an independent scaling based on the similarity 508 of each frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  result with the  $\delta TWS$ . The final result unveils crustal 509 shear-modulus perturbations displaying some comformity with the occurrence time 510 and seismogenic depth of the ATF seismic swarms (Fig.8c). Our results describe an 511 increase of crustal  $\delta\mu$  concurrent with the seismic swarms, which is interpreted as the 512 result of an increase in the compliance of the rock's pore space following a decrease 513 in pore pressure (Freund, 1992; Khaksar et al., 2001; Shapiro, 2003). This is contrary 514 to the main earthquake-generator process considered by the vast majority of research 515 work in the region: the increase in pore pressure leading to a decrease of the effective 516 stress on the fault plane, thus favoring the rupture (Rice, 1992; Axen, 1992; Miller et 517 al., 1996). In agreement with this interpretation, a recent study also based on  $\delta v/v$ 518 analysis depicts a seismic-velocity decrease during the activity period of the *Città di* 519 Castello and Gubbio swarms (Mikhael et al., 2024). Although they account for the 520 perturbation effect produced by meteoclimatic phenomena in their analysis, the use 521 of auto-correlation instead of cross-correlation, and the different frequency range and 522 stacking-length employed makes the result comparison unsuitable. 523

The presence of overpressurized fluids in the upper crustal section (from few to 15 km of 524 depth) under the Apennine belt has been extensively referred to as a primary source of 525 instability and possibly the major triggering mechanism for the seismicity of this area 526 (Chiodini et al., 2004), especially for the 1997-1998 Umbria-Marche seismic sequence 527 (Quattrocchi, 1999; Chiarabba et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2004). Fluid circulation within 528 the fault zone favours the replacement of strong minerals in the fault gouge which lead 529 to frictional instabilities or fault weakening (Collectini et al., 2019; Volpe et al., 2022). 530 This is expected at large depths, that explain the presence of the Alto Tiberina fault 531 (Chiaraluce et al., 2007; Hreinsdóttir & Bennett, 2009; Vadacca et al., 2016), yet our 532 observations refer to the normal-fault splay distributed in the ATF's hanging wall, at 533 shallower levels. The sign of the crustal perturbations observed in our noise-based 534 monitoring and its correlation with the seismic-swarm occurrences, however, reveal 535 that the earthquake nucleation process might require further discussion, and could 536 shed light on an alternative physical interpretation. Local seismic tomography imag-537 ing has revealed high pore-pressure conditions in depth (from 3 km, Piana Agostinetti 538 et al., 2017; Chiarabba et al., 2020), which are confirmed by in situ readings of  $CO_2$ 539 pressure in deep exploration boreholes ("Pieve S.Stefano 001", "San Donato 001"). The 540 observed increase in shear modulus in our results shows the fault rupture to be ap-541 parently driven by the poroelastic stress path defined by the pore-pressure relaxation 542 following crustal  $CO_2$  degassing. Some studies have referred to the fluid migration 543 originating from mainshocks and their corresponding pore-pressure relaxation as the 544 trigger to aftershock seismicity (Miller et al., 2004; Antonioli et al., 2005). Dahm 545 & Fischer (2014) monitor changes on the  $V_p/V_s$  ratio on three mid-crustal swarms in 546 NW-Bohemia over a 10 year span and identify abrupt decreases of the body-wave ve-547 locity ratio at the source region before and during the main seismic activity. They 548 explained this observation as due to the degassing process of overpressurized fluids 549 during the beginning phase of the swarm activity. Although we observe our perturba-550 tions in the form of shear-modulus increases, the former observation becomes similar 551 to our  $\delta\mu$  increase considering that the sensitivity kernels used in the inversion are 552 based on shear-wave velocity changes. Moreover, within the Central Italy sequence, 553 Chiarabba et al. (2020b) distinguished a precursory increase in body-wave velocity 554 prior to the Norcia mainshock followed by an abrupt decrease at the time of rupture. 555 Pore-pressure relaxation induces changes in the horizontal stress field, increases effec-556 557 tive stress (A. Chan & Zoback, 2002; Zoback & Zinke, 2002) and defines stress paths that induce reactivation faulting (Hillis, 2000; Hettema, 2020; Van den Bogert & van 558 Eijs, 2020). In future works we intend to confirm the increase in the crustal shear 559 modulus associated with CO<sub>2</sub>-degassing episodes by comparing our new results with 560 recently available continuous  $CO_2$ -flux measurements in the field. 561

# 562 5 Conclusions

We have successfully integrated seismological, geodetic and hydrological observations 563 in a multidisciplinary framework to monitor the deformation and changes in mechan-564 ical properties of the crust in the ATF zone. Our study identifies and quantifies the 565 perturbation effect in the crust produced by surface phenomena and seismic activity, 566 confirming the strong effect that surface hydrology plays in the monitoring results. The 567 analysis of GNSS position time series with blind source separation highlights seasonal 568 deformation signals associated with changes in water storage and surface hydrology 569 570 and transient deformation signals associated with tectonic events.

We find that hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations are dominant in the  $\delta v/v$ 571 results from ambient seismic noise, masking weaker signals associated with minor 572 tectonic events, such as low energy seismic swarms. If from one side, ambient seis-573 mic noise recordings successfully enable the continuous monitoring of the hydrological 574 changes, estimates of the total water storage variation can be used as a proxy for the 575 hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations in order to quantify its impact and hence 576 apply its correction. Yet, even with this hydrological-effect correction the seismic per-577 turbations related to the ATF seismic swarms remain unclear. The analysis of the  $\delta v/v$ 578 in reduced frequency bands can serve as an approach for detecting small-to-moderate-579 amplitude perturbations associated with low energy seismic swarms. By varying the 580 frequency content, we analyze the seismic perturbations in consecutive overlapping 581 depth ranges and get a better depth inspection of the crustal elastic-properties' varia-582 tions caused by the local seismic swarms. The use of 1-D models based on well logging 583 surveys can provide valuable information in the estimation of the penetration range 584 of the seismic perturbations. Moreover, the estimation of the phase velocities based 585 on the 1-D models facilitates an estimation of the magnitude of the seismic-velocity 586 perturbation per frequency range. This estimate enables us to apply a perturbational 587 inversion of the crustal changes, presented in the form of shear-modulus variations, and 588 retrieve its distribution in depth at every lapse time. With the necessary correction 589 for the hydrological-effect by means of the  $\delta TWS$ , this 1-D depth-monitoring imaging 590 approach highlights seismic perturbations of the crustal properties that concur with 591 the time of occurrence and depth range of the ATF seismic swarms. Our final results 592 instill doubts on the manifold role of fluid migrations in the seismic swarms' generation 593 processes in the Alto Tiberina Fault zone. 594

# <sup>595</sup> Data availability statement

Geodetic data provided by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (Serpelloni 596 & Pintori, 2024), accessible at https://zenodo.org/records/10809324. Groundwa-597 ter level data provided by (ARPA Umbria, 2006), available at https://apps.arpa 598 .umbria.it/acqua/contenuto/Livelli-Di-Falda. Hydrological load model from 599 (Dill & Dobslaw, 2013), dataset accessible at http://rz-vm115.gfz-potsdam.de: 600 8080/repository/entry/show?entryid=24aacdfe-f9b0-43b7-b4c4-bdbe51b6671b. 601 The precipitation, temperature, and river-flow data used to implement the hydro-602 logical model provided by (Servizio Idrografico Regione Umbria, 2021–2024), and 603 available at https://annali.regione.umbria.it/, https://www.sir.toscana.it/ 604 consistenza-rete, https://console.regione.marche.it/(http://app.protezionecivile 605 .marche.it/sol/indexjs.sol?lang=it), for the regions of Umbria, Tuscany, and 606 Marche, respectively. Extraterrestrial irradiance data accessible at http://www.soda 607 -pro.com/web-services/radiation/extraterrestrial-irradiance-and-toa. Drainage 608 direction maps used to define river basins available at www.hydrosheds.org/page/ 609 availability. Seismic data provided by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanolo-610 gia (INGV Seismological Data Centre, 2006), accessible at https://eida.ingv.it/ 611 it/.Well logs utilized to build the 1-D elastic models accessible at (Progetto ViDEPI, 612 2009-2023). 613

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# Crustal deformation and seismic velocity perturbations in the Alto Tiberina fault zone (Northern Apennines, Italy)

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# 6 Key Points:

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- Crustal-perturbation monitoring
- <sup>8</sup> Ambient seismic noise
- Hydrological and seismic perturbations

### 10 Abstract

Crustal perturbations related to seismic activity can generally be observed with the 11 occurrence of a large magnitude event. For less energetic seismic sequences though, 12 the associated transient crustal variations are questionably measurable, and their ob-13 servation gets easily obscured by relatively stronger perturbations such as the ones 14 related to hydrological processes. In this study we reveal the significant role that 15 terrestrial water-storage variations play in governing temporal crustal changes in the 16 tectonically active Northern Apennines of Italy, and discuss the potential of account-17 ing for its correction in order to monitor the relatively weaker transient perturbations 18 caused by local seismic swarms. This area is characterized by an extensive level of low-19 energetic seismic activity, typically clustered in time and space, of which three main 20 seismic swarms outstand during the 12 year period of study (2010-2021). Our analysis 21 compares independent observations and processing methods of GNSS measurements 22 and ambient seismic noise recordings. We adopt a multivariate statistical approach 23 to discriminate between independent sources of ground deformation, and seismic noise 24 cross-correlation analysis to monitor relative seismic-velocity variations. The result 25 shows how the perturbation effects produced by variations in total water content are 26 dominant in both time series of ground deformations and seismic-velocity variations. 27 After correcting for the water-related variation effects, our monitoring results reveal 28 29 perturbations in the crustal properties whose activation time and depth range correlate with the occurrences of the seismic swarms. 30

## <sup>31</sup> Plain Language Summary

The observation of changes in the Earth's crust, either as surface ground deformation 32 or perturbations in its elastic properties, is crucial in the study of the earthquake nu-33 cleation process. When the occurrence of seismic events involves small magnitudes, 34 however, these observations become hardly visible and get easily masked by other 35 relatively-larger crustal changes induced by surface phenomena such as the hydrologi-36 cal cycle. Geodetic-data processing achieves to estimate different ground deformation 37 responses induced by independent phenomena, separating that due to seismic origin 38 from the ones induced by the hydrological cycle. When monitoring the crustal prop-39 erties with ambient seismic noise, the separation of the perturbation by their different 40 sources becomes rather challenging. In the case of our study, a fast approach in-41 volves the estimation of the hydrological cycle, and use it as a proxy to correct for the 42 hydrologically-induced perturbations. With this correction, we observe an agreement 43 between the crustal elastic properties' changes with the occurrence of local seismic 44 swarms both in time and depth. 45

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## 46 1 Introduction

Seasonal variations are common in many geophysical monitoring datasets. Ground 47 displacements, as recorded by Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) networks, 48 respond to a variety of multiscale processes causing seasonal deformation signals (e.g., 49 Dong et al., 2002), and the understanding of the mechanisms behind this periodic 50 deformation has recently brought a vast amount of literature with it (White et al., 51 2022, and references therein). Seasonal changes in elastic properties of the Earth's 52 crust, as obtained from the analysis of seismic noise cross-correlations, are also de-53 54 scribed in the most recent literature (e.g., Meier et al., 2010; Hillers et al., 2014; Poli et al., 2020; Andajani et al., 2020; Fokker et al., 2021). Moreover, seasonal changes 55 in seismicity rates, as the response to seasonal stress changes at seismogenic depths, 56 have been observed in several tectonic settings (Bettinelli et al., 2008; D'Agostino et 57 al., 2018; Pintori et al., 2021). Accounting for these seasonal signals is mandatory in 58 order to accurately estimate trends and their changes, and to detect transient signals 59 associated with tectonic processes and the earthquake preparatory phase, particularly 60 in slowly deforming regions, where tectonic transients may be much smaller in am-61 plitude than non tectonic seasonal signals. GNSS time responses due to the latter 62 are often associated with climatic and hydrological processes (e.g., Pan et al., 2019; 63 Riddell et al., 2020; Pintori et al., 2022). Additionally, seasonal signals can bring 64 important information on underlying processes, such as groundwater or surface-water 65 changes, with important implications in either the monitoring of hydrological resources 66 or measuring the mechanical properties of the Earth. Silverii et al. (2016) showed that 67 hydrological-recharge and -discharge processes in karstic aquifers of the Southern and 68 Central Appennines (Italy) can produce deformation signals of both seasonal and tran-69 sient nature in GNSS position time series. The hydrologically-induced transient signals, 70 which are recorded also by Serpelloni et al. (2018) in the Southern Alps, are important 71 to recognize not only because they can be used as indirect indicators of groundwater 72 content, but also because they can be misinterpreted as transient tectonic signals. 73

The use of ambient seismic noise cross-correlation analysis has gained popularity in 74 seismology in the study and monitoring of the elastic properties of the Earth's subsur-75 face. One effective method for monitoring changes with ambient seismic noise is the 76 description of the perturbations in the medium in terms of relative seismic-velocity 77 variations (Snieder et al., 2002; Grêt et al., 2006; Campillo, 2006). This method is 78 mostly being employed in the detection of coseismic perturbations and post-seismic 79 relaxation effects after strong seismic events (Brenguier et al., 2008; Zaccarelli et al., 80 2011; Minato et al., 2012), or in monitoring perturbations in volcanic areas (Brenguier 81 et al., 2008; Anggono et al., 2012; Budi-Santoso & Lesage, 2016). Since the beginning 82 of the application of this noise-based analysis, it has been clear how the water content 83 in the Earth's crust plays an important role in determining the relative seismic-velocity 84 variations (Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006; Tsai, 2011; Hillers et al., 2014b), and in 85 recent years it has also been used to monitor hydrological perturbations (Voisin et al., 86 2017; Clements & Denolle, 2018; Yates et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Illien et al., 2022). 87

In this work we discuss the results obtained from the analysis of GNSS position time-88 series, seismic-velocity perturbations and groundwater content in the Northern Apen-89 nines of Italy. We focus on the Alto Tiberina Fault (ATF) area (see Fig. 1a), where 90 multidisciplinary measurements are guaranteed by dense monitoring networks. Since 91 2010, a Near Fault Observatory has been created in order to monitor ground defor-92 mation and seismicity through a multidisciplinary infrastructure (with seismological, 93 geodetic, and geochemical measurements, Chiaraluce et al., 2014; EPOS, n.d.). The 94 study area is located in the high strain-rate belt that runs along the regional divide 95 of the Italian Apennines (Anderlini et al., 2016; Serpelloni et al., 2022). The most 96 important geological feature here is the Alto Tiberina fault, an active low-angle (dip 97 angle of  $15^{\circ}$ ) normal fault, NNW trending and about 60 km long (e.g., Chiaraluce et 98

al., 2007). The ATF and its hanging-wall high-angle faults account for  $\sim 2 \frac{mm}{y}$  out 99 of the  $3 \, mm/y$  regional extension rate across the Northern Apennines (Anderlini et al., 100 2016). Historical catalogues in the Umbria-Marche region document several earth-101 quakes with macroseismic estimate of magnitudes greater than  $M_w = 5.5$  being the 102 largest one a  $M_w = 6.4$  in 1781 (Rovida et al., 2020), yet no large earthquakes are 103 unequivocally associated with the ATF. Geodetic measurements suggest that the ATF 104 is aseismically creeping at depths greater than 5 km (Anderlini et al., 2016; Vadacca et 105 al., 2016), where it is well delineated by microseismicity. More importantly, the same 106 area experiences low-energetic seismic swarms confined in the shallower, hanging-wall 107 faults (Gualandi et al., 2017) with possible involvement of the ATF (Vuan et al., 2020). 108 During the 12 year period (2010-2021) of study, the ATF area has been interested by 109 a sustained seismic activity whose occurrence may be grouped into three main swarms 110 (after Valoroso et al., 2017): 111

- 112 1. the *Pietralunga* swarm from 10 April 2010 to 5 May 2010, with maximum  $M_w = 3.6$ ;
  - 2. the Città di Castello swarm from 20 April 2013 to 20 May 2013, with maximum  $M_w = 3.6;$
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3. the *Gubbio* swarm that started on 26 August 2013 and lasted until the end of 2014, with a maximum  $M_w = 3.9$  on 22 December 2013.

Fig.1b shows the daily occurrence of the whole ATF seismicity from 2010 to 2015, while the map in Fig.1c depicts the epicentral location of events of the three aforementioned seismic swarms. Afterwards the local seismicity did not show additional clusters, which may be also masked by the 2016 Central Italy seismic sequence.

The goal of this study is to analyze the main source of crustal deformation and seismicvelocity variations in the area during the 12 year period of observations, trying to discriminate among the different possible sources of perturbations, from the water content variations to the tectonic activity occurred up to 2015.



Figure 1: a) Location in the Italian peninsula and geological map of the ATF region, with the main tectonic units, formations, faults and thrusts. Inset showing the ATF region under study in the Italian peninsula. b) Temporal occurrence of the seismicity in the ATF area as the daily number of events along the 2010-2015 time period (Latorre et al., 2016): the red, green, and blue colors are used to distinguish between the *Pietralunga*, *Città di Castello* and *Gubbio* swarms, respectively. Color background highlights represent the start time and duration of each seismic swarm. c) Map of the epicentral locations of the local earthquake recorded during 2010-2015 (Latorre et al., 2016), in color agreement with panel b).

# <sup>126</sup> 2 Data and Processing

In this section we describe the characteristics and processing of the different datasets 127 included in this study: geodetic observations (GNSS), seismological recordings and 128 meteoclimatic readings in the period between 1 January 2010 and Mid-February 2022. 129 Every dataset acquisition network required a selection of GNSS/seismic/pluviometric 130 stations within an area of ca.  $\sim 80 \,\mathrm{km}$  radius set on the central section of the ATF-131 zone and comprising the upper Tiber basin (see Fig.2). In the case of the GNSS- and 132 seismic- networks, the areas comprising the station selection are not limited to the 133 134 upper Tiber basin, yet they sufficiently cover the watershed area.

## 135 2.1 GNSS

We use 33 GNSS stations, displayed in Fig.2a, and obtain the daily ground-displacement 136 time series following the procedure described in Serpelloni et al. (2022). In order to 137 increase the signal-to-noise ratio of the time series, we remove the common mode sig-138 nal estimated at continental scale performing a Principal Component Analysis, as in 139 Serpelloni et al. (2013). Furthermore, we remove the linear trend, which is estimated 140 using the MIDAS software (Blewitt et al., 2016), from the GNSS time responses. Ul-141 timately, we analyze the processed GNSS position time series using the Independent 142 Component Analysis method with variational approximation and Bayesian inference 143 (variational Bayesian ICA, Gualandi et al., 2016), which allows to separate statistically 144 independent signals that are present in the time series. Assuming that the statistical 145 independence of the signals means that they are caused by different processes, we as-146 sociate each signal with a distinct geophysical process. In the case of this study we 147 decompose the GNSS dataset in four Independent Components (IC's). This method 148 has been successfully applied to extract hydrological and tectonic transient signals 149 from geodetic displacement recordings (e.g., Gualandi et al., 2017; Serpelloni et al., 150 2018; Pintori et al., 2021); it uses a generative model to recreate the observations, 151 allowing the extraction of the spatio-temporal information of an arbitrary number of 152 independent sources of deformation from the observations, without imposing a priori 153 any specific spatial distribution nor temporal function. The output is the definition 154 of a limited number of sources, or IC's, characterized by a specific spatial coefficient 155 distribution  $U(\mathbf{x})$  (where  $\mathbf{x}$  stands for the locations of the GNSS stations) and a time 156 response V(t). A weight coefficient is necessary to rescale their contribution in ex-157 plaining the original displacement observation. In this study each IC is described 158 by a mix of four Gaussian functions, allowing for more flexibility in the description 159 of the sources with respect to classical ICA techniques and to consistently take into 160 account data gaps in the displacement time series (K. Chan et al., 2003), providing 161 also an estimate of the uncertainty associated with every IC. Hence, the displacement 162 observations at a given station can be reconstructed by linearly summing up the con-163 tributions from all the IC's, each of which is obtained by multiplying together the 164 specific spatial coefficient, the associated weight and the corresponding time response. 165

# 166 2.2 Seismic noise

We employ continuous seismic recordings from the Italian National Seismic Network 167 (INGV Seismological Data Centre, 2006), and make a selection of 45 stations (short-168 period and broad-band), with a recording span longer than 6 years (see Fig.2b). For 169 this analysis we concentrate on the seismic noise corresponding to oceanic microseisms 170 (i.e., in the [0.1 1.0] Hz frequency range), and surface-wave signal reconstruction by 171 172 cross-correlation. Our analysis involves vertical-component recordings only. Seismic processing includes standard instrumental correction, frequency band-pass filtering, 173 spectral whitening and 1-bit normalization (Brenguier et al., 2008). Cross-correlations 174 are carried out in 1 hour-long time sections, with half hour sliding (i.e., 50% of section 175 overlap). In order to increase the signal reconstruction, a stacking of cross-correlation 176

results is implemented in daily sequences. We test multiple stacking lengths to study 177 the trade-off relation between quality in the seismic-signal reconstruction and lapse-178 time resolution (from 15 to 50 d). In this study we choose as most suitable the 30 d179 stacking-length result. We perform coda-wave interferometry (CWI, Snieder et al., 180 2002; Sens-Schönfelder & Wegler, 2006) on the first 26s of seismic coda for every 181 cross-correlation result. The analysis of the coda includes the estimate of 10 time-lag 182 samples  $(\delta \tau)$  along the coda per surface-wave response. We apply a joint regression of 183 the time lags  $\delta \tau$  with respect to the coda-window time segment ( $\tau$ ) from all seismic-184 station pairs and calculate the coda-window relative time-lag variation  $\delta \tau / \tau$ . Assuming 185 that the seismic perturbation is homogeneous throughout the study area, the final 186 relative seismic-velocity variation  $(\delta v/v)$  is given by the linear relation  $\delta v/v = -\delta \tau/\tau$ 187 (Poupinet et al., 1984; Snieder, 2006). 188

We produce a first set of results from the cross-correlation analysis over the complete 189 frequency range  $([0.1 \ 1.0] \text{ Hz})$ . A second set of results is created with exactly the 190 same processing but applied individually over six consecutive narrower frequency bands 191  $([0.1 \ 0.16], [0.16 \ 0.25], [0.25 \ 0.36], [0.36 \ 0.5], [0.5 \ 0.7] and [0.7 \ 1.0] Hz)$ . This second set of results allows us to investigate the scattering process at different frequency 193 ranges and thus exploit the dispersive nature of the retrieved surface waves in order to 194 explore the depth reach of the seismic perturbations in the crust. Although small in 195 number, the choice and amount of frequency bands analyzed is a compromise between 196 the partitioning of the frequency range of interest, the variation of the wavefield depth 197 sensitivity extent and the stability of the cross-correlation signal in the time domain. 198



Figure 2: a) Location of the 33 continuous GNSS stations utilized. b) Distribution of the 45 permanent seismic stations of the Italian National Seismic Network selected for the seismic-noise analysis. c) Piezometric-sensor distribution (24) in the Umbria region used in this work. In all three panels the shadowed region depicts the upper Tiber basin taken into account for computing  $\delta$ TWS.

# <sup>199</sup> 2.3 Meteo-climatic data

We take into account three kinds of meteo-climatic observations and processed data: the piezometric measurements, the hydrological balance in the upper Tiber basin in the form of total water storage variation, and the ground displacement associated with hydrological loading from a global gridded model. We calculate the Mean Piezometric Level (MPL) by performing an arithmetic mean of all the water-table readings

available for this study in order to obtain an estimate representing the water-table 205 variation in the whole upper Tiber basin. The piezometric level dataset is available 206 at ARPA Umbria (2006) and the location of the 24 piezometric stations employed is 207 shown in Fig.2c. In order for outlying values and single large-fluctuating piezome-208 ters not to dominate the ensemble average, we perform an amplitude normalization 209 of every water-table reading beforehand prior to the arithmetic mean and add later 210 an average of the respective mean values from every piezometer. We compute the 211 total water storage variations ( $\delta TWS$ ) in the upper Tiber basin following the method 212 described in Pintori et al. (2021), by solving the mass balance equation between pre-213 cipitation, evapotranspiration, incoming river inflow, outcoming river discharge, and 214 potential groundwater import/export in a surrounding basin. Due to the difficulty 215 in precisely estimating some of the parameters in the mass-balance equation, we ex-216 ploit the GR5J rainfall-runoff model (Pushpalatha et al., 2011) for estimating the total 217 water storage variations. The displacement time series associated with hydrological 218 loading (hereinafter HL) is obtained considering the Land Surface Discharge Model 219 (LSDM, developed by Dill, 2008). With this model approach, we estimate daily sur-220 face displacements from the continental hydrology by accounting for the precipitation, 221 evaporation, and temperature from an atmospheric model developed by the European 222 Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF, n.d.). We considered for this 223 study the area with limits  $[11^{\circ}30'E \ 13^{\circ}E]$  in longitude and  $[43^{\circ}N \ 44^{\circ}N]$  in latitude. 224

From these three meteoclimatic products we thus obtain three independent observa-225 tions related to the water content variations for the ATF zone. In Fig.4a, the  $\delta$ TWS 226 and HL show a remarkable similarity and synchronized (but opposite) behaviour (-0.9 227 correlation coefficient). While HL is the result of a model that takes into account only 228 the water stored in the first few meters of the subsurface,  $\delta TWS$  is influenced also by 229 the groundwater. The strong similarity between HL and  $\delta TWS$  suggests that, in the 230 upper Tiber basin, most of the water is stored as 'surface water' instead of groundwa-231 ter, so that the groundwater-storage changes slightly influence the total water storage 232 variations. On the other hand, the MPL time series in Fig.4b exhibits a different tem-233 poral behaviour, with more pronounced multi-annual variations (i.e., smaller maximum 234 amplitudes for a drought period in 2012) and a persistent time delay with respect to 235 both  $\delta$ TWS and HL (correlation coefficient of ~0.7 and time lag of ~30 d). 236

### <sup>237</sup> **3** Results and Interpretation

# 3.1 GNSS IC decomposition

In Fig.3 we show the four IC's extracted from the GNSS-position time series. For 239 each IC we show its corresponding time response (V(t), right graph, normalized be-240 tween -0.5 and 0.5) and spatial distribution  $(U(\mathbf{x}), \text{ left map})$ . V(t) describes how the 241 displacement of the corresponding IC evolves with time, whereas  $U(\mathbf{x})$  shows the max-242 imum amplitude and 3D direction of the displacement at the location of every GNSS 243 station **x**. The color scale represents the amplitude of the maximum vertical displace-244 ment, while the yellow arrows indicate the maximum amplitude and orientation of the 245 horizontal displacement. The displacement related to the ICn over a time interval 246  $[t_1 t_2]$  (with  $t_2 > t_1$ ) at a station m is computed as  $[V_n(t_2) - V_n(t_1)] U_n(\mathbf{x}_m)$ , where 247  $V_n(t)$  is the time response of the ICn and  $U_n$  is its corresponding spatial response. If 248  $V_n(t)$  increases the station's horizontal displacement follows the yellow-arrow sense, 249 while the vertical displacement is upward if the  $U_n$  vertical component is positive and 250 downward if negative (see color scale in the maps of Fig.3). 251

<sup>252</sup> IC1 in Fig.3 presents a clear sinusoidal behaviour with annual periodicity. The  $U_1$ <sup>253</sup> vertical components reveal a uniform response (except for one site on the NW margin). <sup>254</sup> The vertical displacement of IC1's periodic signal holds a magnitude fluctuation of ca. <sup>255</sup> ~1 cm, while the horizontal displacement bears smaller amplitudes. Fig.4a shows the <sup>256</sup> good agreement between IC1's time response and both  $\delta$ TWS and HL: the time series <sup>257</sup> are strongly correlated (0.7 correlation coefficient) without significant time lag.

IC2 in Fig.<sup>3</sup> shows a non-uniform spatial response both in the vertical and horizontal 258 components. The time response of this IC exposes two different transients: the first 259 in 2013-2014 and the second in 2016. The latter transient corresponds to the post-260 seismic deformation following the Amatrice-Visso-Norcia sequence in Central Italy, 261 whose epicentral area is located 70-90 km south of the study area. The results are con-262 sistent, both in terms of temporal evolution and spatial response, with those presented 263 in Mandler et al. (2021), and primarily affected the southernmost stations considered 264 in our work. As regards the first transient signal, this is more complex to interpret. 265 First, it shows some cross-talk with IC3. Secondly, it is of smaller entity with respect 266 to both IC3 and the Amatrice-Visso-Norcia post-seismic signal. Tentatively, this small 267 transient deformation could be associated with the *Città di Castello* seismic swarm. 268 but the deformation pattern from the spatial response of GNSS stations in the ATF 269 area is not that clear. 270

The IC3 time response also reveals a transient signal at the beginning of 2014, which is very similar both in terms of spatial distribution and temporal evolution to the one extracted by Gualandi et al. (2017). The coincidence of transient signals occurring at the end of 2013 in the time responses of both IC2 and IC3 makes it possible that cross-talk might have taken place between the two.

IC4 is described in Fig.<sup>3</sup> as the weakest independent component in the analysis. Al-276 though its spatial coefficients show a non-uniform distribution, its time response ex-277 hibits a clear seasonal signal with a similar annual periodicity as IC1's. Fig.4b shows 278 a good similarity of IC4's time response with the mean piezometric level at the up-279 per Tiber basin, a solid correlation (0.7 correlation coefficient) and a ca.  $\sim 30$  d time 280 lag. This suggests that the displacements associated with IC4 are related to varia-281 tions of the deep portion of the water storage: we interpret the delay between the 282 displacements and the piezometric-level variations as due to the time needed by the 283 water to reach aquifers located deeper than the ones caught by the piezometers, whose 284 median depth is shallower than 10 m. Furthermore, Silverii et al. (2016) and Pin-285 tori et al. (2021) interpreted a deformation pattern analogous to IC4's, characterized 286

- <sup>287</sup> by anisotropic horizontal deformations with amplitudes similar to the vertical ones,
- <sup>288</sup> caused by water-level variations in fracture systems beneath karst aquifers.



Figure 3: Time response  $V_n(t)$  and spatial coefficients  $U_n(\mathbf{x})$  of the four independent components: **IC1**, **IC2**, **IC3** and **IC4**. Labeled brown lines in IC2 and IC3 represent the occurrences of the three ATF seismic swarms (dashed and shadowed regions), and the three mainshocks of the Central Italy seismic sequence (solid).



Figure 4: a) Time response of IC1 (namely  $V_1(t)$  in Fig.3, gray) compared to the total water storage variation of the upper Tiber basin ( $\delta$ TWS, dark blue) and the vertical displacement caused by hydrological loading (HL, orange). Note that the HL's abscissa in the graph is reversed. b) Comparison between the mean piezometric level at the upper Tiber basin (MPL, light blue) and the IC4's time response (gray).

### <sup>289</sup> **3.2** Seismic-velocity variations

In this section we present the results for the 12 year monitoring through ambient seismic 290 noise cross-correlations. In Fig.5a we show the result of the daily-sampled relative 291 seismic-velocity variations ( $\delta v/v$ , coloured-red line) obtained from the analysis of the 292 data in the whole [0.1 1.0] Hz frequency band. Each daily  $\delta v/v$  estimate is plotted at 293 the end of the respective 30 d interval. The color scale stands for the number of  $\delta \tau$ 294 values considered in the  $\delta \tau / \tau$  linear regression. This value represents a measure of the 295 quality of the estimates and depends (among others) on the number of station pairs 296 297 available. The color evolution, from yellow at the beginning of 2010, to red in 2012, shows how some of the employed stations have been installed during the first two years 298 of analysis, meaning that the most stable and reliable measurements start from 2012. 299

For comparison, Fig.5a shows the total water storage variations of the upper Tiber 300 basin and the IC1 temporal evolution (Fig.3a), obtained from the GNSS data analysis. 301 The  $\delta v/v$  result shows a remarkable anticorrelation with both the  $\delta TWS$  and the IC1 302 time series. In the 2016-2017 time period a clear divergence of the  $\delta v/v$  result with 303 respect to the other two time series is well observable. It corresponds to the occurrence 304 of the 2016 Central Italy seismic sequence, which has already been attested to cause 305 seismic-velocity variations in the crust's elastic properties at regional scale by a similar 306 noise-based study (Soldati et al., 2019). 307

As for the relatively smaller local seismic swarms, the strong imprint due to the hy-308 drological perturbation in the area buries down any significant hint of the potential 309 tectonic perturbation of the seismic episodes in the ATF region. In an attempt to 310 enhance the perturbation signal potentially associated with the ATF- seismic swarms, 311 we carried out a subtraction of the hydrological perturbation using the  $\delta TWS$  infor-312 mation. Literature describes elaborate methods on how to estimate the hydrological 313 contribution from pluviometric observations: For instance, Illien et al. (2021) uses a 314 model with coupling soil-water and groundwater dynamics, while Rivet et al. (2015) ap-315 plies poroelastic relations based on pore-pressure diffusion and homogeneous hydraulic 316 diffusivity. In our case, given that we have an estimate of the total water content in 317 the medium, and observe a good similarity between both the  $\delta v/v$  and the hydrological 318 observations, we carry out the subtraction with the aid of a scaled  $\delta TWS$  obtained 319 by linear robust regression, thus avoiding any further assumptions. After applying 320 the hydrological correction in the  $\delta v/v$  result the strong seasonal behaviour vanishes 321 whereas the identification of perturbations related to the ATF-swarms remains not 322 visible at all (see Fig.5b). 323

The second set of results, obtained from multiple consecutive narrow- frequency bands, 324 allowed us to explore the perturbation response in the medium at the study site in 325 multiple depth-sampling ranges (Hobiger et al., 2012). Fig.<sup>6</sup> shows the corresponding 326  $\delta v/v$  results from each of the six frequency bands analyzed, with respect to the time 327 response of IC1 and the  $\delta$ TWS result. In these results we observe that the seasonal 328 behaviour of the seismic-velocity perturbations decreases as we lower the frequency-329 content, but always remains present nonetheless. The resemblance between the  $\delta TWS$ 330 and the  $\delta v/v$  results with the higher frequency content (Figs.6a, 6b and 6c) is indicated 331 in their corresponding Pearson's correlation coefficients: -0.71, -0.82 and -0.69, respec-332 tively. This is expected since the crustal depth-sampling range gets shallower, and thus 333 more exposed to effects from perturbations due to surface/hydrological phenomena. 334 Also, the top frequency-band results bear a foreseeable time delay ( $\sim 15 \,\mathrm{d}$  as estimated 335 by cross-correlating the two time series) with respect to the  $\delta TWS$ , produced by the 336 337 cross-correlation 30-day stacking bias. However, in the lowest frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results (Fig.6e and 6f) their low correlation coefficient (-0.47 and -0.44, respectively) 338 show a weaker effect of the yearly seasonality, hence revealing the diminishing effect of 339 hydrological perturbations as we sample deeper the scattering wavefield in the crust. 340



Figure 5: Comparison of geodetic (GNSS IC1) and hydrological ( $\delta$ TWS) observations with the relative seismic-velocity variations ( $\delta v/v$ ), the latter displayed with reversed abscissa. Brown lines depict the bounds of the occurrence periods of the ATF seismic swarms (dashed) and the mainshock occurrences of the seismic sequence of Central Italy (solid). **a**)  $\delta v/v$  result obtained from the complete frequency band [0.1 1.0] Hz, compared to the  $\delta$ TWS and the IC1 time response. **b**) Same  $\delta v/v$  result in a) after applying a hydrological correction based on the  $\delta$ TWS result.

This detail indicates that seismic-velocity perturbations at depths larger than 3 km seem to be driven by phenomena other than surface hydrology.

In order to constrain the depth range of the results in Fig.6, we create a series of 343 1-D models that account for the depth characteristics of the mechanical properties of 344 the study site. From the catalogue of oil-exploration activities carried out in the area 345 (Progetto ViDEPI, 2009-2023) we select the boreholes with best logging completeness 346 and largest depth reach (>2.5 km), and build five different 1-D geological models. 347 We utilize the logging data to describe the elastic properties in depth and complete 348 the missing information with values obtained from literature (Ciccotti et al., 2004; 349 Trippetta et al., 2010; Ji et al., 2018; Chicco et al., 2019; Montone & Mariucci, 2020). 350 We use the 1-D elastic models to calculate the fundamental-mode depth-sensitivity 351 kernels of Rayleigh-wave phase velocity in order to observe the depth range where each 352 of the frequency-band results is dominant (Herrmann, 2013). The depth-sensitivity 353 kernels from the corresponding frequency bands of analysis are shown in Fig.7a for 354 each of the locations, with the 1-D geological model of the corresponding borehole 355 displayed in the background. Both  $\delta v/v$  results in Fig.6 and depth-sensitivity curves 356 in Fig.7a share the same color code by frequency band. Only depth-sensitivity kernels 357 with respect to shear-wave velocity  $(\beta)$  perturbations are shown. Fig.7b depicts the 358 dispersion curve of the Rayleigh-wave fundamental mode in the Monte Civitello 1-D 359 model (based on the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole, Fig.7a) with respect to the six 360 frequency bands of analysis, while Fig.7c shows the map distribution of the selected 361 boreholes. 362

The use of multiple models serve to account for the varying depth sensitivity given the extension and geological complexity of this sector of the Apennines (see Figs.1a and



Figure 6: Comparison of GNSS IC1 time response,  $\delta$ TWS and  $\delta v/v$  (abscissa-reversed) for different frequency bands: **a**) [0.7 1.0] Hz. **b**) [0.5 0.7] Hz. **c**) [0.35 0.5] Hz. **d**) [0.24 0.35] Hz. **e**) [0.16 0.24] Hz. **f**) [0.1 0.16] Hz. Brown lines represent the bounds of the occurrence periods of the ATF seismic swarms (dashed lines and shadowed region) and the mainshock occurrences of the seismic sequence of Central Italy (solid).

Fig.7c). Following this, the "San Donato 001" borehole represents the depth sensitivity of Rayleigh waves in the western area of the study site, in a model with shallow siliciclastic sequences and thick levels of the Burano formation. To the North, the

"Pieve S.Stefano 001" borehole provides a model with larger siliciclastic sequences and 368 repeated carbonatic sequences in depth. The "Burano 001" and "Fossombrone 002" 369 boreholes depict the thrust-and-fold complexity in the East and South of the study site: 370 their corresponding graphs describe the Rayleigh-wave sensitivity when the medium 371 is characterized by massive (duplexed-) carbonatic sequences of larger extension in 372 depth. The borehole "Monte Civitello 001" provides a model of the central section 373 of the study site, with a thick display of the Umbro-Marchigian formation and the 374 complete carbonatic series in a single sequence. 375

376 For our final monitoring analysis, we make use of the elastic 1-D models and integrate all our multiple frequency-band results in order to estimate a depth distribution of the 377 elastic-properties' perturbation that can describe the observed relative seismic-velocity 378 variations at their respective frequency-band ranges. We implement the methodology 379 for inversion of surface-wave dispersion curves (Dorman & Ewing, 1962; Szelwis & 380 Behle, 1984: Socco & Strobbia, 2004) and adapt it to produce a depth-image result of 381 the crustal perturbations observed in our  $\delta v/v$  results at every lapse time. The descrip-382 tion of the elastic properties in the 1-D models in Fig.7a enables the estimation of the 383 (fundamental-mode) phase-velocity function for a laterally homogeneous medium with 384 respect to the frequency values described within the depth limits of the model (see 385 Fig.7b). Associating the multiple frequency-dependent  $\delta v/v$  with the phase-velocity 386 function we can constrain the physical magnitude of the phase-velocity perturbation 387  $\delta v$  for every frequency band at every lapse time. With the magnitude estimate of the 388 phase-velocity change, we employ the depth-sensitivity kernels in Fig.7a to calculate 389 the perturbation of the elastic properties of the medium. Since shear-wave velocity 390 dominates propagation properties of Rayleigh waves (Xia et al., 1999; Louie, 2001; 391 Wathelet et al., 2004), and assuming no mass-density changes happen in the medium, 392 in this analysis we assume the crustal perturbations to be caused by shear-modulus 393 changes ( $\delta\mu$ ). In our approach, although the medium is simplified by assuming a 394 stratified 1-D inhomogeneous half space, we disregard the retrieval of Rayleigh-wave 395 higher-mode waveforms in our cross-correlation scattering coda given the geological 396 complexity of the subsurface across the area and the strong variability of the geolog-397 ical structure (see Fig.7a) for the frequency range of our study. Hence, we neglect in 398 our analysis any effect caused by the presence of cross-mode cross-correlation artefacts 399 in our scattering coda (Kimman & Trampert, 2010). In our analysis the scattering 400 is assumed to be controlled exclusively by the Ravleigh-wave fundamental mode and 401 hence we neglect any Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh and Love-to-Rayleigh scattering mode con-402 versions in the retrieved cross-correlation coda (Snieder, 1986). The depth-sensitivity 403 kernels employed are originally conceived for Rayleigh-wave direct-arrival analysis and 404 do not account for surface- to body-wave mode conversions (Chang & Tuan, 1973; 405 Tuan, 1975; Momoi, 1981). Yet, Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh scattering mode becomes domi-406 nant with time because of their weaker decay (Maeda et al., 2008). Since our analysis 407 mostly comprises late coda arrivals, and due to the fact that Rayleigh-to-Rayleigh 408 scattering mode has a weaker decay  $(t^{-1})$  with respect to the Rayleigh-to-body wave 409 mode  $(t^{-4})$ , we neglect any scattering body-wave conversion and run under the premise 410 that the analyzed coda is dominated by scattered Rayleigh waves. 411

For the inversion process we apply regularized damped least-squares (Tarantola & Valette, 1982; Haney & Tsai, 2017), employing the error estimate at each  $\delta v/v$  regression result in order to build the diagonal data-covariance matrix. Although we counted on six frequency-band results, given the ill-posedness of our problem we employ 20 frequency samples, implying a repetitive use of the  $\delta v/v$  time series but with varying amplitude, following the corresponding 1D model phase-velocity curve (see Fig.7b).

The final result we produce is a depth-monitoring image: a time-lapse with the depth distribution of crustal perturbations detected by our seismic stations assuming a laterally invariant medium, with isotropic scattering properties, and thus neglecting lateral



Figure 7: Depth sensitivity analysis: **a)** Fundamental-mode Rayleigh-wave depthsensitivity kernels from five different 1-D geological models. Top colored axes define the amplitude values of their corresponding color-matching kernel. Main geological formations are named with colored labels. The geological models are based on the logging results of the respective boreholes, named at the bottom of their respective figure. The depthsensitivity kernels correspond to phase-velocity sensitivity with respect to a perturbation in the shear-wave velocity ( $\beta$ ), at the six frequency bands analyzed (see matching-color correspondence with results in Fig.6). **b)** Phase-velocity samples employed for the depthmonitoring imaging. Phase velocity values of the fundamental-mode Rayleigh wave for the *Monte Civitello* 1-D model in a). The colour of each frequency sample indicates to which of the 6 analyzed frequency bands it corresponds, and in turn which  $\frac{\delta v}{v}$  time series in Fig.6 is employed during the depth-monitoring imaging process. **c)** Location of the boreholes from which the 1-D elastic models in a) were built.

<sup>421</sup> perturbation-distributions. This sort of monitoring result has recently been presented



the depth distribution of hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations in the form of 423 pore-pressure variations.

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Figure 8: Depth-imaging monitoring of shear-modulus changes  $(\delta \mu)$  compared with the depth distribution of the seismic events in the ATF zone. Depth model is based on the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole (see Fig.7a). a) Daily number of seismic events with magnitude greater than the completeness magnitude  $(M_L > 0.5)$  in the ATF zone, as in the catalogue shown in Fig.1b. b) Monitoring of the crustal shear-modulus perturbation in depth from the multiple frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results. Seismic events in a) are displayed as individual dots and as a contour-density map in time and depth (color magnitudes in events per day and kilometer). Dashed blue line represents the limit of the "Monte Civitello 001" borehole. c) Same as in b), after applying the correction of the hydrologically induced perturbations with the aid of the Total Water Storage variation ( $\delta TWS$ ) estimate.

Fig.8a shows the daily occurrence of seismic events from the seismic catalogue depicted 425 in Fig.1b with magnitude greater than the completeness magnitude ( $M_L > 0.5$ , Pa-426 storessa et al., 2023). The depth-imaging monitoring results displayed in Fig.8b and 427 Fig.8c correspond to the use of the *Monte Civitello* 1-D model. Results are displayed 428 in depth using the mean sea level as permanent datum and the measured depth has 429 been shifted with respect to the "Monte Civitello 001" drill floor. The dashed blue 430 line depicts the limit of the borehole in depth, which means that the model becomes 431 homogeneous beyond this limit. The depth versus time of the complete catalogue (i.e., 432 only seismic events with  $M_L > 0.5$ ) is superimposed. 433

Without applying any hydrological correction, the depth-imaging monitoring shows 434 that the shear-modulus perturbations happen independently from the time occurrence 435 of seismic events (Fig.8b). On the other hand, Fig.8c shows the result of applying the 436 same inversion technique on the multiple frequency-dependent relative seismic-velocity 437 variation results after applying an individually-customized  $\delta$ TWS-based correction of 438 the hydrological seismic perturbation on each  $\delta v/v$  time series (same correction applied 439 in the  $\delta v/v$  result of Fig.5b). In these results one can easily identify blunt increases in the 440 medium's shear modulus at the occurrence time of seismic swarms, in the range of tens 441 of MPa and always within the seismogenic depth range (roughly between 2 and 5 km 442

of depth). At the same time of the *Pietralunga* swarm, an increase of  $\delta\mu$  sustained in 443 time for 3 months is observed; high density seismic occurrences in the first half of 2011 444 coincide with short duration crustal shear-modulus perturbations. The second half of 445 2011 and the whole 2012 show a time interval of small perturbations concurring with a 446 period of seismic quiescence. Then, an increase of crustal shear-modulus perturbation 447 occurs in January 2013 (no seismic activity has been recorded at this time), and 448 in April-May 2013 with the Città di Castello swarm occurrence. During the Gubbio 449 seismic swarm  $\delta\mu$  shows a first perturbation coinciding with the maximum magnitude 450 event in December, 2013, followed by a larger and longer perturbation corresponding 451 to the second peak of events in March-April, 2014. Later perturbation episodes during 452 2014 and 2015 match with seismic occurrences of smaller time concentration. 453

## 454 **4** Discussion

We use the  $\delta TWS$ , the displacement associated with hydrological loading (HL) and 455 the mean piezometric level (MPL) for the period 2010-2022 in order to get three 456 independent observations related to temporal variations in water content of the shallow 457 crust. The MPL, although showing a similar trend with the HL and the  $\delta$ TWS, displays 458 a 30 d delay with respect to the latter two, but a good agreement and reduced time lag 459 with IC4 from GNSS decomposition. These last two time series may be representative 460 of possible local effects related with the southernmost region of the upper Tiber basin 461 462 where most of the piezometric wells are located (Fig.2c) and also the GNSS stations show the maximum (vertical) displacements associated with IC4 (Fig.3). 463

Total water content variations are known to cause measurable ground deformations 464 (from GNSS data analysis) but also affect the elastic parameters of the superficial 465 crustal sections (from noise-based monitoring analysis). In the ATF area, if from one side the hydrological perturbations seem to be responsible for two independent com-467 ponents out of the four produced by the variational Bayesian ICA decomposition of 468 GNSS time responses, its influence on perturbation of elastic parameters is still visible 469 up to the first few km of depth (in the  $\delta v/v$  results at frequency ranges from 0.25 to 470 1 Hz). Regarding the first point, this means that the TWS variations are the most 471 important source of seasonal modulation of crustal deformation ( $\sim 18\%$  of data vari-472 ance explained compared to the 14% of the seismic activity components as from Fig.3). 473 Similarly, a relevant influence of  $\delta$ TWS arises from the  $\delta v/v$  temporal variations of Fig.5 474 where the two time series show a very good anticorrelation (correlation coefficient of 475 -0.81) and limited time lag (ca.  $\sim 4 \, \text{d}$ ). Interestingly, this relationship holds also for 476 most of the six shorter frequency bands (Fig.6). In particular we can observe a good 477 anticorrelation (correlation coefficient < -0.5) for the higher frequency bands down to 478 the fourth one  $[0.25\ 0.35]$  Hz. While for the two lower frequency bands (i.e.,  $[0.1\ 0.17]$ 479 and [0.17, 0.25] Hz), i.e., the deepest portions of the crustal volume investigated, the 480 periodic behavior associated with the  $\delta TWS$  is not visible anymore. By looking at 481 the depth-sensitivity kernels of Fig. 7a we observe that these last two frequency range 482 waves (red and magenta lines) are sampling deeper levels of the Earth's crust (roughly 483 from 4 km depth further down for all crustal-structure models from all borehole lo-484 cations), compared to the higher frequencies that are sensitive to the first 2-4 km of 485 depth from the surface. Therefore we observe an influence of the TWS variations on 486 the relative seismic-velocity variations in the crust until a depth of few km as already 487 found also in other areas (Poli et al., 2020; Barajas et al., 2021; Almagro Vidal et al., 488 2021), thus indicating this observation as a possible general feature from the Southern and Central Appennings to the Alpine regions. Beside the  $\delta TWS$  influence, we could 490 also observe that the co- and post-seismic variations associated with the 2016 Cen-491 tral Italy seismic sequence are mainly visible only in the two middle frequency ranges 492  $([0.25\ 0.35]$  and  $[0.35\ 0.5]$  Hz), roughly corresponding to a depth range of 2-4 km. This 493 may be explained by the presence of a  $CO_2$  highly pressurized crustal level (Chiodini 494 et al., 2004; Carannante et al., 2013), which may be able to amplify the effect of the 495 shaking (as similarly seen also in Brenguier et al., 2014). 496

The strong influence of water content variations is easily separated from other sources 497 of crustal perturbation in the GNSS data by applying variational Bayesian IC analysis 498 (see Fig.3). For the relative seismic-velocity variations instead, the removal of the 499  $\delta TWS$  influence does not provide clear information on other possible sources of seismic 500 perturbations, at least none clearly related to seismic swarm occurrences (Fig.5b). 501 In order to improve exposure of the perturbations, we apply an inversion approach 502 integrating the six frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  results with the aid of their depth sensitivity 503 and local 1-D elastic models of the crustal structure in depth. This procedure provides 504 the monitoring of the crustal perturbations expressed in the form of shear-modulus 505 variations and depicted as a depth distribution (Fig.8). In this case the removal of the 506

hydrologically-induced seismic perturbation is carried out before inversion for each of 507 the six  $\delta v/v$  time series individually, with an independent scaling based on the similarity 508 of each frequency-band  $\delta v/v$  result with the  $\delta TWS$ . The final result unveils crustal 509 shear-modulus perturbations displaying some comformity with the occurrence time 510 and seismogenic depth of the ATF seismic swarms (Fig.8c). Our results describe an 511 increase of crustal  $\delta\mu$  concurrent with the seismic swarms, which is interpreted as the 512 result of an increase in the compliance of the rock's pore space following a decrease 513 in pore pressure (Freund, 1992; Khaksar et al., 2001; Shapiro, 2003). This is contrary 514 to the main earthquake-generator process considered by the vast majority of research 515 work in the region: the increase in pore pressure leading to a decrease of the effective 516 stress on the fault plane, thus favoring the rupture (Rice, 1992; Axen, 1992; Miller et 517 al., 1996). In agreement with this interpretation, a recent study also based on  $\delta v/v$ 518 analysis depicts a seismic-velocity decrease during the activity period of the *Città di* 519 Castello and Gubbio swarms (Mikhael et al., 2024). Although they account for the 520 perturbation effect produced by meteoclimatic phenomena in their analysis, the use 521 of auto-correlation instead of cross-correlation, and the different frequency range and 522 stacking-length employed makes the result comparison unsuitable. 523

The presence of overpressurized fluids in the upper crustal section (from few to 15 km of 524 depth) under the Apennine belt has been extensively referred to as a primary source of 525 instability and possibly the major triggering mechanism for the seismicity of this area 526 (Chiodini et al., 2004), especially for the 1997-1998 Umbria-Marche seismic sequence 527 (Quattrocchi, 1999; Chiarabba et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2004). Fluid circulation within 528 the fault zone favours the replacement of strong minerals in the fault gouge which lead 529 to frictional instabilities or fault weakening (Collectini et al., 2019; Volpe et al., 2022). 530 This is expected at large depths, that explain the presence of the Alto Tiberina fault 531 (Chiaraluce et al., 2007; Hreinsdóttir & Bennett, 2009; Vadacca et al., 2016), yet our 532 observations refer to the normal-fault splay distributed in the ATF's hanging wall, at 533 shallower levels. The sign of the crustal perturbations observed in our noise-based 534 monitoring and its correlation with the seismic-swarm occurrences, however, reveal 535 that the earthquake nucleation process might require further discussion, and could 536 shed light on an alternative physical interpretation. Local seismic tomography imag-537 ing has revealed high pore-pressure conditions in depth (from 3 km, Piana Agostinetti 538 et al., 2017; Chiarabba et al., 2020), which are confirmed by in situ readings of  $CO_2$ 539 pressure in deep exploration boreholes ("Pieve S.Stefano 001", "San Donato 001"). The 540 observed increase in shear modulus in our results shows the fault rupture to be ap-541 parently driven by the poroelastic stress path defined by the pore-pressure relaxation 542 following crustal  $CO_2$  degassing. Some studies have referred to the fluid migration 543 originating from mainshocks and their corresponding pore-pressure relaxation as the 544 trigger to aftershock seismicity (Miller et al., 2004; Antonioli et al., 2005). Dahm 545 & Fischer (2014) monitor changes on the  $V_p/V_s$  ratio on three mid-crustal swarms in 546 NW-Bohemia over a 10 year span and identify abrupt decreases of the body-wave ve-547 locity ratio at the source region before and during the main seismic activity. They 548 explained this observation as due to the degassing process of overpressurized fluids 549 during the beginning phase of the swarm activity. Although we observe our perturba-550 tions in the form of shear-modulus increases, the former observation becomes similar 551 to our  $\delta\mu$  increase considering that the sensitivity kernels used in the inversion are 552 based on shear-wave velocity changes. Moreover, within the Central Italy sequence, 553 Chiarabba et al. (2020b) distinguished a precursory increase in body-wave velocity 554 prior to the Norcia mainshock followed by an abrupt decrease at the time of rupture. 555 Pore-pressure relaxation induces changes in the horizontal stress field, increases effec-556 557 tive stress (A. Chan & Zoback, 2002; Zoback & Zinke, 2002) and defines stress paths that induce reactivation faulting (Hillis, 2000; Hettema, 2020; Van den Bogert & van 558 Eijs, 2020). In future works we intend to confirm the increase in the crustal shear 559 modulus associated with CO<sub>2</sub>-degassing episodes by comparing our new results with 560 recently available continuous  $CO_2$ -flux measurements in the field. 561

# 562 5 Conclusions

We have successfully integrated seismological, geodetic and hydrological observations 563 in a multidisciplinary framework to monitor the deformation and changes in mechan-564 ical properties of the crust in the ATF zone. Our study identifies and quantifies the 565 perturbation effect in the crust produced by surface phenomena and seismic activity, 566 confirming the strong effect that surface hydrology plays in the monitoring results. The 567 analysis of GNSS position time series with blind source separation highlights seasonal 568 deformation signals associated with changes in water storage and surface hydrology 569 570 and transient deformation signals associated with tectonic events.

We find that hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations are dominant in the  $\delta v/v$ 571 results from ambient seismic noise, masking weaker signals associated with minor 572 tectonic events, such as low energy seismic swarms. If from one side, ambient seis-573 mic noise recordings successfully enable the continuous monitoring of the hydrological 574 changes, estimates of the total water storage variation can be used as a proxy for the 575 hydrologically-induced seismic perturbations in order to quantify its impact and hence 576 apply its correction. Yet, even with this hydrological-effect correction the seismic per-577 turbations related to the ATF seismic swarms remain unclear. The analysis of the  $\delta v/v$ 578 in reduced frequency bands can serve as an approach for detecting small-to-moderate-579 amplitude perturbations associated with low energy seismic swarms. By varying the 580 frequency content, we analyze the seismic perturbations in consecutive overlapping 581 depth ranges and get a better depth inspection of the crustal elastic-properties' varia-582 tions caused by the local seismic swarms. The use of 1-D models based on well logging 583 surveys can provide valuable information in the estimation of the penetration range 584 of the seismic perturbations. Moreover, the estimation of the phase velocities based 585 on the 1-D models facilitates an estimation of the magnitude of the seismic-velocity 586 perturbation per frequency range. This estimate enables us to apply a perturbational 587 inversion of the crustal changes, presented in the form of shear-modulus variations, and 588 retrieve its distribution in depth at every lapse time. With the necessary correction 589 for the hydrological-effect by means of the  $\delta TWS$ , this 1-D depth-monitoring imaging 590 approach highlights seismic perturbations of the crustal properties that concur with 591 the time of occurrence and depth range of the ATF seismic swarms. Our final results 592 instill doubts on the manifold role of fluid migrations in the seismic swarms' generation 593 processes in the Alto Tiberina Fault zone. 594

# <sup>595</sup> Data availability statement

Geodetic data provided by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (Serpelloni 596 & Pintori, 2024), accessible at https://zenodo.org/records/10809324. Groundwa-597 ter level data provided by (ARPA Umbria, 2006), available at https://apps.arpa 598 .umbria.it/acqua/contenuto/Livelli-Di-Falda. Hydrological load model from 599 (Dill & Dobslaw, 2013), dataset accessible at http://rz-vm115.gfz-potsdam.de: 600 8080/repository/entry/show?entryid=24aacdfe-f9b0-43b7-b4c4-bdbe51b6671b. 601 The precipitation, temperature, and river-flow data used to implement the hydro-602 logical model provided by (Servizio Idrografico Regione Umbria, 2021–2024), and 603 available at https://annali.regione.umbria.it/, https://www.sir.toscana.it/ 604 consistenza-rete, https://console.regione.marche.it/(http://app.protezionecivile 605 .marche.it/sol/indexjs.sol?lang=it), for the regions of Umbria, Tuscany, and 606 Marche, respectively. Extraterrestrial irradiance data accessible at http://www.soda 607 -pro.com/web-services/radiation/extraterrestrial-irradiance-and-toa. Drainage 608 direction maps used to define river basins available at www.hydrosheds.org/page/ 609 availability. Seismic data provided by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanolo-610 gia (INGV Seismological Data Centre, 2006), accessible at https://eida.ingv.it/ 611 it/.Well logs utilized to build the 1-D elastic models accessible at (Progetto ViDEPI, 612 2009-2023). 613

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