TITLE

GAS GEOCHEMISTRY AT GRANDE COMORE AND MAYOTTE VOLCANIC ISLANDS (COMOROS ARCHIPELAGO), INDIAN OCEAN

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Key Points:

- Map of the spatial distribution of ground CO2 emissions and its isotopic characteristics in both islands Grande Comore and Mayotte
- Geochemical characterisation of fumarolic and hydrothermal gases in terms of both primary component species and isotopic characteristics
- Correlation between the variability of geochemical tracers and the new submarine volcano off Mayotte and its implications for the risk to the island's inhabitants

Abstract

The Comoros Archipelago is an active geodynamic region of intra-plate volcanism within which the youngest and oldest islands (Grande Comore and Mayotte respectively) are characterized by recent volcanic activity. The frequent eruptions of the large shield volcano Karthala on Grande Comore (last eruption 2007), and the recent birth of a large submarine volcano since 2018 at the submarine base of Mayotte are associated with permanent fumarolic emissions, bubbling gas seeps, and soil gas emissions, which are studied in detail here for the first time. CO_2 fluxes and chemical and isotopic gas compositions acquired during two surveys in 2017 and 2020 are

integrated with older datasets collected between 2005 and 2016, permitting the identification of a possible influence of the recent volcanic and magmatic activity at Mayotte.

At Karthala, high gas fluxes with high temperature, and a marked magmatic signature are concentrated close to the summit crater area, while only weaker emissions with a stronger biogenic signature are found on the volcano flanks. At Mayotte, lower temperature and higher CH_4 content are recorded in two main seep areas of CO_2-rich fluid bubbling, while soil emissions on land record a higher proportion of magmatic fluids compared to Karthala. Our preliminary results reveal two quite separate gas emission patterns for each island that are distinct in composition and isotopic signatures, and well-correlated with the present state of volcanic activity. This work may potentially provide support for local observation infrastructures and contribute to the improvement in volcanic and environmental monitoring.

1. Introduction

Comoros archipelago is located in the Mozambique Channel between the east coast of Africa and the north-western coast of Madagascar. The formation of a huge submarine volcanic edifice since 2018, about 50 km offshore east of Mayotte, has prompted a renewal of multidisciplinary researches on the seismo-volcanic activity of the Comoros Archipelago by the international volcanological community (Bachèlery et al., 2019; Berthod et al., 2020; Cesca et al., 2020; Feuillet et al., 2019; Lemoine et al., 2020; REVOSIMA, 2019). The archipelago consists of four main islands from NW to SE: Grande Comore, Mohéli, Anjouan, and Mayotte (Figure 1), amongst which Grande Comore hosts the large and frequently active basaltic Karthala volcano (last eruption in 2007). Subaerial Holocene volcanic activity related to a range of alkaline magma compositions (from basanite to phonolite) has been documented in the other islands (Bachèlery et al., 2016; Michon et al., 2016; Tzevahirtzian et al., 2021 and references therein). Comoros Archipelago is considered as the potential diffuse Lwandle-Somali sub-plate boundary and part of the SE extension of the East African Rift System (Michon et al., 2016; Famin et al., 2020). The recent review of morphological, geological and chronological data of Tzevahirtzian et al. (2021) suggests that Mayotte and Moheli are the oldest islands, while Anjouan and Grande Comore are the most recent ones. The recent volcanism of Karthala in Grande Comore has been interpreted as hot-spot-related by geochemical studies (e.g. Class et al., 1998). Grande Comore and Anjouan are high altitude volcanic islands, intersected by well developed triple-armed volcanic rifts. On the contrary, Moheli and Mayotte are lower islands, with less well developed rift zones, and a wide insular shelf, which is very narrow on Grande Comore and Anjouan. Karthala is the second most

active volcano in the Indian Ocean, after Piton de la Fournaise in La Réunion island, with permanent hydrothermal and fumarolic emissions close to its summit area (Bachelery et al., 1996; Bernabeu et al., 2018). Two years after the last summit Karthala eruption, Bernabeu et al. (2018) document high CO_2 fluxes in the soil close to the eruptive vent. However, the absence of chemical or isotopic analysis did not permit to attribute these emissions to the recently emplaced magma or to deeper sources. Seep areas of low-temperature CO_2-rich bubbling gases have been reported for the first time between 1993 and 1998 at Mayotte, on the small island (Petite Terre) located on its eastern side (Traineau et al., 2006 and references therein).

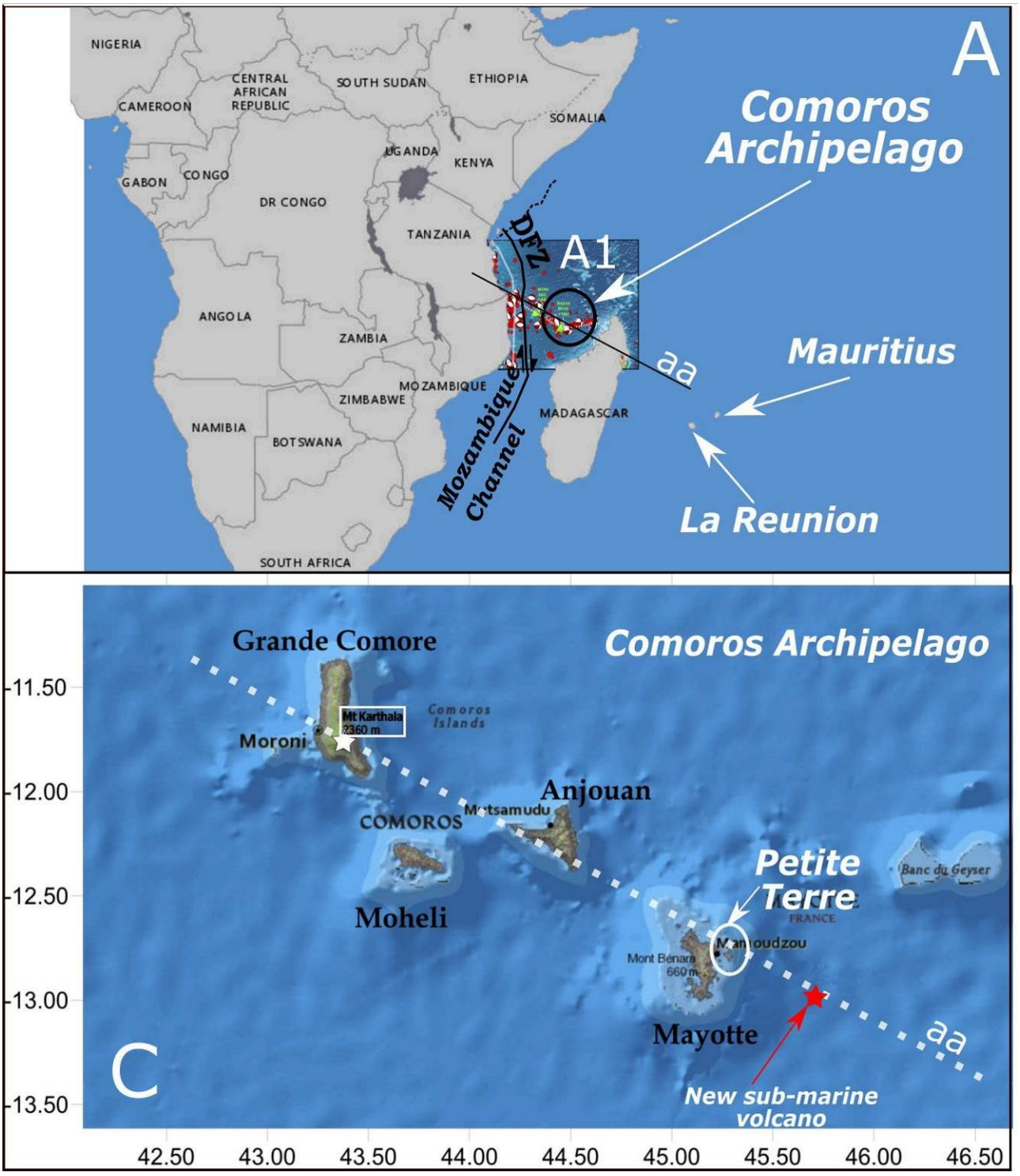


Figure 1. Map of the Comoros Archipelago, which is located on the northern zone of the Mozambique Channel (A), in which is also shown the Davie Fracture zone (DZF). The elongated trend N120° "a-a" of the islands corresponding with the recognised regional structural trend well defined by distribution of the 1901–2018 seismicity for M > 4 showed in the inset A1 (from Lemoine et al., 2020 modified). In (B) highlighted on the map is the little island on the east coast of Mayotte called Petite Terre, where have been acquired all the measurements (both from the soil and from the bubbling area on the sea) mentioned in this paper regarding Mayotte island. The white star at Grande Comore indicates the Karthala volcano. The red star is the approximate location of the new submarine volcano.

In this work, we focus on the gaseous emissions on the oldest (Mayotte) and youngest (Grande Comore) islands, which are also the two recently active volcanic systems of the Comoros

archipelago, with the aim at constraining the extent and spatial distribution of the outgassing areas and the geochemical signature of the gas emissions. Data were collected by a team of researchers from IPGP/OVPF and INGV who carried out surveys on the two islands between 2017 and 2019. In addition, we included data from older measurement campaigns which were undertaken for different purposes between 2005 and 2014. The results of the geochemical investigation highlight the differences in outgassing characteristics between the two volcanic islands and their link with the recent volcanic activity. We perform a comparison with the gas geochemistry of La Réunion island, where a deep and plume-like undegassed mantle contribution has been since long identified.

Grande Comore and Mayotte are densely populated islands and in view of the high level of seismic and volcanic activity and the related hazards, these first results represent a significant contribution to pave the way for future activities on geochemical monitoring and hazard mitigation.

2. Geological context

The islands of the Comorian archipelago are located within the Mozambique Channel in a particularly complex geodynamic region where the tectonic features are yet to be unambiguously defined. The main and better known tectonic structure, the Davie Fracture Zone (DFZ) (Phethean et al., 2016), is considered the kinematic hinge that allowed the southward drift of Madagascar following the Gondwana breakup. Despite its well defined structure, the DFZ has been described as either a western transform fault (Coffin et al., 1986) or as a continent-ocean transform margin (Gaina et al., 2013) of the Western Somali Basin (Figure 1A). The alignment of the islands is NW-SE and coincident with the main seismic zone of the archipelago (Figure 1 B - from Lemoine et al., 2020, modified). This orientation of islands separates the North Somali basin, which is agreed to be oceanic, and the South Somali basin, which for some authors is thought to be oceanic crust (e.g. Klimke et al., 2016; Rabinowitz et al., 1983), while other authors identify this as a thinned continental crust (e.g. Bassias & Leclaire, 1990; Roach et al., 2017).

The two main hypotheses that have been developed over time to explain the origin of the Comoros volcanism are:

a) a mantle plume, which interacts with the oceanic lithosphere (Claude-Ivanaj et al., 1998; Class et al., 2005; Deniel, 1998; Nougier et al., 1986; Emerick and Duncan, 1982; Hajash and

Armstrong, 1972). The link with a deep mantle hot spot has been invoked to explain the eastward migration of volcanism age, but also to explain the variability of geochemical magma composition measured along the Archipelago. Karthala lavas are those recording a stronger hot spot signature (Bachèlery and Hémond, 2016; Claude-Ivanaj et al., 1998; Class et al., 2009; Coltorti et al., 1999). Recent seismic tomography (French and Romanowicz, 2015) fails to unambiguously identify a deep plume rooted in the mantle below Comoros archipelago.

b) the reactivation of regional lithospheric structures, which interact with asthenospheric processes. This hypothesis rejects the previous model because it is inconsistent with the current volcanic activity which includes both Karthala volcano and the recent and still ongoing submarine volcanic activity eastward of Mayotte and with the absence of a clear age decrease along the archipelago (Tzevahirtzian et al., 2021; Famin et al., 2020; Lemoine et al., 2020; Michon, 2016; Nougier et al., 1986)

At Mayotte, the volcanic activity becomes increasingly older from the eastern side (Petite Terre island), to the western main island (Grande Terre) (Nehlig et al., 2013). The still ongoing (at the time of writing), large-volume and long-lasting sub-marine eruption of Mayotte, the largest submarine event ever detected by monitoring networks (Cesca et al., 2020; Lemoine et al., 2020), challenges current models on the origin of Comoros volcanism. Since 2018, several km^3 of evolved basanite lava have been emitted on the 3.5 km deep seafloor 50 km east from Mayotte from a deep source located in the upper lithospheric mantle (Bachèlery et al., 2019; Berthod et al., 2020; Lemoine et al. 2020). The new volcano grows on a N120° oriented volcanic ridge, which runs along the eastern submarine flank of Mayotte and whose western subaerial tip is the small island of Petite Terre (Tzevahirtzian et al., 2021; Figure 1C). On Petite Terre, recent volcanic activity has built on the coral reef a set of Holocene basaltic scoria cones and phonolitic maars (Zinke et al., 2001; Nehlig et al., 2013), and two main areas of low-temperature CO_2-rich gas bubbling seeps. A first bubbling area occurs in the NE part of Petite Terre inside the intracrateric lake of the Dziani phonolitic maar, where several CO_2- and CH_4- rich bubbling spots have been identified (Milesi et al., 2020). A second area, first described in 1998 on the eastern tidal flat of Petite Terre is located close to the “Airport beach” (BAS site; Traineau, 2006; Sanjuan, 2008). There, tens of bubbling spots occur at the southern feet of the large “Vigie” phonolitic maar, on a muddy flat area exposed to significant tide and extended for about 250x300m from the beach (see also Figure 8A-8C).

In Grande Comore, at least three volcanic massifs have been identified: the old and inactive M'Badjini massif in the southernmost part of Grande Comore, the rarely active La Grille volcano in the north (last dated eruption: 1029-1424 CE) and in between the frequently active Karthala shield volcano (last eruption: 2007) (Bachelery et al., 2016 and references therein). Karthala volcano is a large (summit elevation 2361 m) basaltic shield volcano, the highest relief of the Comoros Archipelago, and exhibits well-developed rift zones diverging from a 3.6 x 2.7 km wide summit polylobate caldera. The average frequency of its eruptions, occurring both at the volcano summit and on the flanks, is of one eruption every 6-8 years over the past 100 years and the volcano was frequently active in the 1991-2007 period (Bachèlery et al., 2016). The self-potential study of the summit caldera performed by Lénat et al. (1998) and Bernabeu et al. (2018) show that the main hydrothermal activity of the volcano does not occur below the main summit crater (Choungou-Chahalé), but on the northern part of the summit caldera, where several recent eruptions have occurred. We sampled two main areas, the first one correspond to steaming grounds and fumaroles located close to the Choungou-Chagnoumeni pit crater located in the northern part of the caldera and filled by the lavas of the last eruption in 2007 (see Figure 7B site CC) and a second one, the "Soufriére" fumarolic area located on recent lavas 1.7 km north of the summit caldera, along the northern rift zone (see Figure 7B site LS).

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Previous datasets

In this study, we present the results of our 2017-2020 surveys on soil gas fluxes and their composition as well as on the composition of Mayotte gas bubbling and Grande Comore fumarolic areas (Figures 7 and 8). Our dataset is integrated with older and partly unpublished surveys acquired on the two islands.

At Mayotte, the BAS bubbling site has been first studied by BRGM in November 2005 (Traineau, 2006; BRGM report) and April 2008 (Sanjouan, 2008; BRGM report) in terms of spatial distribution, gas fluxes, temperature, pH and chemical and isotopic composition. In the BRGM campaigns, $\delta^{13}C$ and dD data were not acquired on methane and preliminary noble gases data were produced by the IPGP laboratory (M. Moreira). A rich biological, chemical and isotopic dataset (C-H-S species, not including the noble gases) of the Dziani intracrateric lake and of its bubbling was acquired in the period 2012-2018 (Jovovic et al., 2017; Leboulanger et al., 2017; Gérard et al., 2018; Hugoni et

al., 2018; Milesi et al., 2019; 2020; Cadeau et al., 2020). Milesi et al. (2020) collected fluids in August 2016 by focusing on the spatial distribution and C-H chemical and isotopic composition of bubbling gases in the Dziani lake, while only a single analysis (G7 sample) is reported for the BAS area.

On Karthala volcano, the summit steaming grounds and fumarole have been first described (but not sampled) by Bachelery and Coudray (1993). Soil CO_2 and temperature profiles were measured between March 2008 and January 2010 in the hot grounds (40-80°C) close to the summit 2007 pit crater by Bernabeu et al. (2018). The first detailed study of the gas emissions in Grande Comore was performed in 2014 in the frame of an international geothermal exploration project (Benavente et al., 2015; Chaheire et al., 2016).

3.2 Gas sampling and analysis

Grande Comore field works were performed in December 2017 (volcano flanks) and October 2018 (volcano flanks and summit area). Mayotte surveys were carried out on Petite Terre (Figure 1) in four campaigns, i.e. in December 2018, April 2019, September 2019 and November 2020 (Table 1).

Soil gas samples for isotopic ($\delta^{13}C$ in CO_2) and chemistry analysis were collected by introducing a steel probe into the ground (50 cm long) and collected in 10 mL Exetainer glass vials and in two-stopcock glass bottles 100mL.

Dry gases from fumarolic fields at Karthala were collected using a steel probe (the same as for soil sampling) introduced into the ground and connected to a three-way valve equipped of a syringe and a tube connected to the bottles for gas storage. Bubbling gases at Mayotte have been taken using a steel funnel connected to a three-way valve equipped of a syringe and a tube connected to two-stopcock glass bottles 250mL (chemistry and C-H isotopic analysis), two-stopcock steel bottles 100mL (noble gases elemental and isotopic analysis), and pre-weighed evacuated bottles containing absorbing alkaline solution (4N NaOH) following the method of Giggenbach and Goguel (1989).

All the gas samples were analysed at the laboratories of INGV (Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia), Sezione di Palermo, for their chemistry and for the isotopic compositions of noble gases (He, Ne, and Ar), C of CO_2, and C and H of CH_4. Analyses are reported in Table 3.The chemical composition of He, H_2, O_2, N_2, CO, CH_4, and CO_2 was measured by a gas chromatograph (Clarus 500,

Perkin Elmer) equipped with a 3.5-m column (Carboxen 1000) and double detector (hot-wire detector and flame ionization detector [FID]), for which the analytical errors were < 3%.

The C-isotope composition of CO_2 (expressed as $\delta^{13}C$ ‰) vs. V-PDB (Vienna-Pee Dee Belemnite) was determined using a continuous-flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Delta Plus XP, Finnigan), connected to a gas chromatograph (Trace GC) and interface (Thermo GC/C III, Finnigan). The gas chromatograph and its column (length = 30 m and i.d. = 0.32 mm; Poraplot-Q) were operated at a constant temperature of 50°C using He as the carrier gas. The analytical errors were <0.1‰ The same instrument has been used for C and H isotope determination in CH_4, where a combustion interface (Thermo GC III, Finnigan) was used to produce CO_2 from CH_4 and a gas-chromatograph/thermal-conversion interface provided online high-temperature conversion of CH_4 into H. The SDs for the $\delta^{13}C$ and δD measurements of CH_4 were <0.2 and <2.5‰, respectively.

Noble gas (He, Ne, Ar) isotopes were analyzed at the noble-gas laboratory at INGV-Palermo. ^3He and ^4He were measured into a split flight tube mass spectrometer (GVI-Helix SFT), after purification of the sample from the major gaseous species and separation from the other noble gases. ^{20}Ne was determined by admitting Ne into a multicollector mass spectrometer (Thermo-Helix MC plus), after purification procedure into a stainless steel ultra-high vacuum line distinct from that of He and Ar, as above described for helium. The $^3He/^4He$ ratio is expressed as R/Ra (being Ra the He isotope ratio of air and equal to $1.39 \cdot 10^{-6}$) with an analytical uncertainty (1σ) below 0.3%. Hereafter we discuss the $^3He/^4He$ ratio corrected for atmospheric contamination using the measured $^4He/^{20}Ne$ ratio (e.g., Sano and Wakita, 1985) that is reported in units of Rc/Ra, as follows:

$$\frac{R}{R_a} = \frac{\left(\frac{R_m}{R_a}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{^4He}{^{20}Ne}\right)_m - \left(\frac{^4He}{^{20}Ne}\right)_a}{\left(\frac{^4He}{^{20}Ne}\right)_m - \left(\frac{^4He}{^{20}Ne}\right)_a} \qquad (1)$$

where subscripts *m* and *a* refer to measured and atmosphere theoretical values, respectively [$(He/Ne)_a = 0.318$] (Ozima and Podosek, 1983). We highlight that the correction on the $^3He/^4He$ ratio is small or negligible for most of the gas samples [$(^4He/^{20}Ne)_m >> (^4He/^{20}Ne)_a$.

The Ar elemental and isotopic composition (^{36}Ar, ^{38}Ar, and ^{40}Ar) were quantified in a multicollector mass spectrometer (Helix MC-GVI). The analytical uncertainty (1σ) for single $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$

measurements was <0.1%. ^{40}Ar was corrected for air contamination ($^{40}Ar^*$) in samples showing $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar>315$ assuming that the ^{36}Ar present derived from atmosphere, as follows:

$$^{40}Ar^{¿} = {}^{40}Ar_{sample} - Ar_{sample} \cdot ¿¿ \qquad (2)$$

Typical blanks for He, Ne, and Ar were $<10^{-15}$, $<10^{-16}$, and $<10^{-14}$ mol, respectively, and are at least two orders of magnitude lower than the sample signals at the relative mass spectrometers. Further details on samples purification and analysis are described by Rizzo et al. (2019) and Boudoire et al (2020).

3.3 Soil CO_2 fluxes

The soil CO_2 emissions data presented in this study have been acquired drawing on two different methods: accumulation chamber (Chiodini et al. 1998) and dynamic concentration (Gurrieri and Valenza, 1988). The methods differ owing to the fact that different teams carried out measurement surveys on different islands at different times. However, each single measurement campaign is consistent for the method used (Table 1).

3.3.1 Accumulation chamber method

Both Benavente et al. (2015) surveys in Grande Comore and two of our surveys at Mayotte (September 2019 and November 2020) adopted the accumulation chamber method for measurements of soil CO_2 flux emissions using a West Systems portable accumulation chamber equipped with two different IR spectrometers. Benavente's campaign used a West System portable instrument with a LI-COR 820 IR and a 200 mm diameter chamber (West System chamber B), which introduces soil gas through the infrared spectrometer via tubing with an inline $Mg(ClO_4)_2$ filter (avoiding the absorption of moisture which may cause interference in CO_2 concentration). Our campaigns in 2019 and 2020 at Mayotte Island used a West Systems portable accumulation chamber equipped with a Dräger Polytron IR sensor and a chamber with the same geometry as the one used by Benavente in Grande Comore (West system chamber B). We recorded soil temperature at each measurement location using a handheld Type K thermocouple probe inserted to 10 cm below ground level. In addition, pressure measurements and other weather parameters were recorded by a hand-held instrument meter (Kestrel 5000 series). Soil CO_2 flux ($g\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$) from each site were calculated using the following equation (1):

$$CO_2 = 44.01 \cdot \frac{86400 \cdot P}{10^6 \cdot R \cdot T_k} \cdot \frac{V}{A} \cdot \frac{\delta_c}{\delta_t} \qquad (3)$$

where δ_c/δ_t is the change in the CO_2 concentration with time (ppm s^{-1}), P is the measured pressure in mbar, R is the gas constant (bar L K^{-1} mol^{-1}), T is the measured temperature (K), V is the chamber net volume (0.006186 m^3) and A is chamber inlet net area (0.0314 m^2). The measurement accuracy of the CO_2 flux measurements method is ±12.5 % (Evans et al., 2001)

3.3.2 Dynamic concentration method

In our Grande Comore surveys, we focused on CO_2 soil emissions on the volcano flanks, where the Benavente et al. (2015) surveys failed in identifying significant anomalies using the accumulation chamber method. Therefore, we performed most of our measurements using the dynamic concentration method in our 2017 and 2018 field works and compared them with a subset acquired on the same sites using the accumulation chamber technique. This approach permits us to compare the Karthala dataset with that acquired on the Piton de la Fournaise volcano (Liuzzo et al., 2015). The dynamic concentration method (Gurrieri and Valenza, 1988) is based on an empirically identified relationship between soil CO_2 flux and CO_2 concentration in a gas mixture obtained by diluting soil gas with air (dynamic concentration), by means of a specific 50 cm probe inserted into the soil. Through a constant flux rate of 0.8 l/m, the gas from the soil is pumped to an IR spectrophotometer which measures CO_2 concentration. The spectrophotometer used was manufactured by Edinburgh Instruments Ltd. (range 0–10%; accuracy ±2%; digital resolution 0.01%) pressure and temperature corrected and it is the same used in the surveys on Piton de la Fournaise volcano. The CO_2 flux is derived from the CO_2 dynamic concentration value through an empirical relationship (2) verified experimentally in the laboratory for a range of applicable permeability 0.36–123 μm^2 and pumping flux 0.4–4.0 L/min:

$$CO_2 = \left(32 - 5.8 \cdot k^{0.24}\right) C_d + 6.3 \cdot k^{0.6} \cdot C_d^3 \qquad (4)$$

where ϕCO_2 is the soil CO_2 flux expressed in kg m^{-2} d^{-1}, k is the numerical values of the gas permeability (μm^2), and C_d is the numerical value of molar fraction of the diluted CO_2 concentration. In this work, ϕCO_2 is converted into g m^{-2} d^{-1}. For more details on the method, see Camarda et al. [2006a, 2006b]. In this work we used a k value of 30, which is very close to the k value (35) used at Reunion island in previous studies on Piton de la Fournaise (Boudoire *et al.*, 2017; Liuzzo *et al.*, 2013; Liuzzo et al., 2015). In consideration of the typical range of permeability in volcanic soils, k=30 value is a reasonable value limiting the error into less than 7% of the measurement (see table S1 supplementary materials).

4. Results

4.1 Gas composition of fumaroles and bubbling gases

4.1.1 Chemistry

Karthala gases (CC, from the summit caldera fumaroles; LS from the Soufrière area. For the locations see figure 5 and 6) show a general higher degree of air contamination with respect to Mayotte samples (table 3), with the exception of sample Ka-Su-01 from Soufrière that shows the highest CO_2 concentration (up to 92.2%), a significant content of H_2 (25,992 ppm), low concentrations of CH_4 (346 ppm). With regard to noble gases, He varies in a narrow concentration range (10.0-12.7 ppm), ^{20}Ne is between 0.03 (sample Ka-Su-01) and 7.7 ppm, ^{40}Ar 32.8 (sample Ka-Su-01) and 5,152.8 ppm. In the Mayotte sample set noble gases show a variable concentration, with He ranging between 8.2 and 113.2 ppm, ^{20}Ne between 0.052 and 7.65 ppm, ^{40}Ar in the range 55.1-3346.6 ppm. Among the other samples taken from high flux pools, only the sample CI-1a has a significant air contamination, showing concentrations of N_2 and O_2 of 54.9% and 14.9% respectively. The BAS bubbling gases from the tidal flat show a CO_2 dominant composition up to 98.69% and a variable concentration in CH_4 ranging between 416 and 2982ppm. The concentration of CH_4 increases significantly in the "MAN" samples, taken from low-flux pools located close to littoral mangroves (up to 4621 ppm). In the BAS samples, H_2 and CO are generally in low concentrations ranging between 2.2 and 318 ppm for H_2 and 0.7 and 18 ppm for CO.

The chemical composition of Karthala and Mayotte gases is plotted in the ternary diagrams of Figure 2. The relative proportions of N_2, He and Ar, display a mixing trend between a He-rich component and a atmospheric component (air or air-saturated water – ASW). Both gases from the fumarolic Karthala areas (CC and LS) and the bubbling gases from Mayotte (BAS) show a variable degree of contamination by an atmospheric endmember, and its contribution is higher for air than for ASW. On the whole, the He-Ar-N_2 variability falls within a typical compositional range of crustal gases of which the two dominant mixing sources appear to be atmospheric and MORB-type mantle, well distinguished from typical subduction-related gases. An exception is the sample Ka-Su-01 which is significantly different from the present Karthala database, where only the samples SKM182 and SKM183 (fumarole 6 - survey 2014 Benavente et al. 2015) show some similarity in low ^{40}Ar and He/N_2 ratio. The chemical composition in relation to the plot of CO_2-CH_4-He highlights that low temperature gas seeps of Mayotte have a larger CH_4 proportion with respect to Karthala fumarolic gases. In the plot, it is also reported the field of variability of La Reunion bubbling gases that allows to argue that Comoros gases are in general CH_4-enriched.

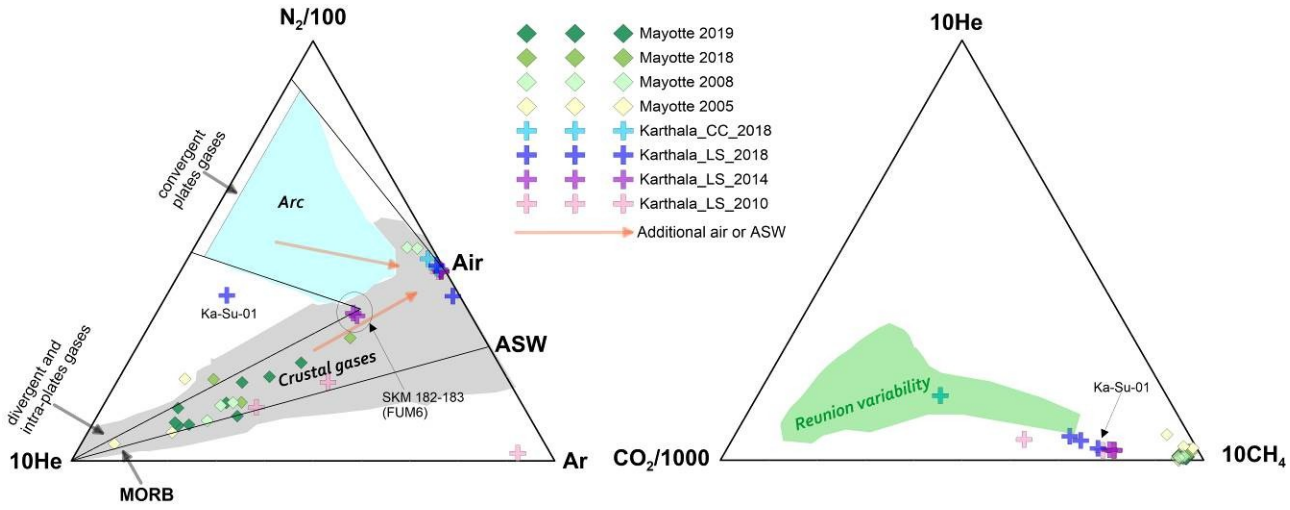


Figure 2. Relative proportion of He-Ar-N_2 in a ternary diagram on the left showing also the areas of crustal gases and arc volcanism from literature. Data collected at Grande Comore and Mayotte show a variable air and ASW contamination. CO_2-CH_4-He ternary diagram on the right displays a relatively CH_4-enrichment of Grande Comore and particularly in Mayotte. For comparison is also shown the field of variability of La Reunion gases.

4.1.2 Isotopic ratios of noble gases, CO_2 and CH_4

Table 1 reports the isotopic compositions of noble gases CO_2, and CH_4 of the sampled gases. Karthala gases have R/Ra values ranging from 3.8 (Ka-Su-02) and 5.71 Ra (Ka-Su-01), with an overlap between CC and LS emissions. After correction for the contamination by atmospheric fluids (Rc/Ra), the highest $^3He/^4He$ value (5.72) is still measured in the sample Ka-Su-01, since it has the minor air contamination. Instead, the other samples range from 5.4 to 5.9 Ra due to a variable atmospheric contribution. In gases from Karthala, the $^4He/^{40}Ar^*$ ratio calculated after the correction of ^{40}Ar for atmospheric contamination (see eq. 2 in section 3.2) is available only for sample Ka-Su-01 and is 1.4. The relatively higher air contamination in Karthala gases, than in Mayotte gases, is also highlighted by the $^4He/^{20}Ne$ ($^4He/^{20}Ne_{air}$=0.318), which is generally low with an average of 1.5 (with exception of Ka-Su-01, $^4He/^{20}Ne$ = 356.58), and $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$ ($^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar_{air}$=295.5), which is in average 303.2 (with exception of Ka-Su-01, $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$ = 378).

In the BAS bubbling gases there is the lack of a strong air contamination as previously indicated by the chemistry of these gases since the $^4He/^{20}Ne$ ratios (up to 1663) are orders of magnitude higher the ratio in air (0,318), therefore no significant changes can be observed in the comparison between R/Ra and Rc/Ra values, except for only one sample (MAR-1) sampled in 2018. In fact, this sample shows a $^3He/^4He$ ratio of 3.2 Ra and a $^3He/^4He$ ratio of 4.2 (Rc/Ra) after correction for air contamination. The latter value strongly differs from the rest of the dataset of BAS gases, thus we suspect that this sample underwent some storage and transport to the laboratory issues that

fractionated the $^{3}He/^{4}He$, leading us to exclude it for the following discussion. In support of this, we highlight that the sample MAR-3 collected in April 2019 from the same degassing area yielded an Rc/Ra value of 7.2 (Table 3). The $^{4}He/^{40}Ar^{*}$ values of BAS gases range between 1.2 and 1.7 with a general overlap of the values among the different emissions and surveys. $^{4}He/^{20}Ne$ in Mayotte samples vary up to 1660 and only the MAR-1 and MAN-2 ($^{4}He/^{20}Ne$ = 1.07 and 43.59, respectively) samples, both taken from pools with a relatively low flux, show significant air contamination. The variability of $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$ span up to 434, with MAR-1 and MAN-2 again showing the highest air contamination ($^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$ = 290 and 308, respectively).

The C-isotope composition of CO_2 ($\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$) of Karthala gases varies between −4.98‰ and −4.48‰, except for sample Ka-Su-02 that shows the most positive value of −3.91‰. At Mayotte the $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ values of BAS gases vary from −5.74‰ and −3.5‰, whereas the most negative ratios are measured in samples from MAN.

The C and H pair isotope in methane were measured only in BAS gases. In detail, the C-isotope composition of CH_4 ($\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$) was determined in most of the samples and varies between −24.4‰ and −18.7‰, except for two samples from MAN 1 and 2 that showed the less negative ratios of −12.4‰ and −11.7‰. The H_2-isotope composition of CH_4 (δD_{CH4}) was measured only in C1-2 and DIST-1 that were sampled in 2019 through Giggenbach bottles to enrich the concentration of CH_4 of dry gases. These samples yielded a δD of −118.1‰ and−137.8‰ V-SMOW, respectively.

5. Discussion

5.1 Light noble gas signature

Our new He-isotopic data for Karthala and Mayotte span a significant range of $^{3}He/^{4}He$ signatures (4.18-7.53 Ra), with systematic differences between the two islands of Comoros archipelago. In detail, gases from Mayotte show Rc/Ra values higher than those from Karthala. Interestingly, the Rc/Ra variability we measured in 2017-2020 gases from Mayotte (7.5-6.4 Ra) and Karthala (5.9-4.7 Ra) matches that found in fluid inclusions from the two active volcanic edifices of the Grande Comore, la Grille and the Karthala (6.9 and 5.2 Ra respectively; Class et al., 2005). In Figure 3, we modelled two air-magma mixing curves considering data from Class et al. (2005) at Grande Comore and considering the average of the values for La Grille and Karthala fluid inclusions as representative of possible mantle reservoirs end-members. According to Class et al. (1998, 2005, 2009) that propose the presence of a plume contribution in the mantle beneath Gran Comore, our data show that Comoros gases have a low-He signature, like the fluid inclusions in lavas from the

same volcanic systems (Karthala volcano). This low $^{3}He/^{4}He$ signature is well distinct from that documented in typical hot-spot contexts like the adjacent Afar region (R/Ra up to 19.6; Marty et al., 1996; Hilton et al., 2011) and la Réunion (R/Ra = 14.5-12; Marty et al., 1993; Boudoire et al., 2020). In Figure 3, data of bubbling gases of Piton des Neiges from La Reunion are plotted together with two mixing curves that explain their variability, showing that they fall within the range of Rc/Ra values measured in fluid inclusions of eruptive products of the island.

Ocean island basalts (OIB) from the Comoros archipelago display geochemical features different from the other Indian OIB [Späth et al. (1996), Class and Goldstein (1997), Class et al. (1998), Claude-Ivanaj et al. (1998), Deniel (1998), Class et al. (2009), Pelleter et al. (2014), Bachelery and Hemond (2016)]. Comoros volcanisms has produced a suite of variably silica-undersaturated, alkaline lavas (from melilitites and basanites, to alkali basalts to phonolites), enriched in incompatible trace elements and with variable relative depletion in K. With the exception of La Grille lavas, most lavas on the Archipelago record the signature of variable degrees of fractionation during their storage and ascent to the surface after their emission from the deep garnet-bearing mantle source (Bachelery et al., 2016). Several geochemical models have been proposed to explain the elongated array of their Sr-Nd-Pb isotopic signature, whose end-members range from i) mixing between heterogeneous deep plume sources (EMI, HIMU) and a shallower depleted convective ambient mantle or ii) mixing between a homogeneous deep plume sources (EMI component), plus a variable contribution of the shallower heterogeneous and old metasomatised oceanic lithosphere. Whatever the source of the mantle heterogeneities, all authors agree that Karthala lavas and rare old samples from Mayotte record the strongest EM1 contribution of the Comorian plume (Pelleter et al., 2014). According to Class et al. (1998), the alkali basalts of Karthala reflect mainly plume derived melts, while the basanites of La Grille are the products of interaction of plume melts with the metasomatised oceanic lithosphere. Class et al. (2005) show that olivines in Grande Comore lavas span a relatively small range of low-$^{3}He/^{4}He$ compositions. La Grille "lithosphere-dominated" lavas have preserved a nearly MORB signature (6.75–7.08 R_A) suggesting that amphibole forming metasomatism occurred before the arrival of the plume. All samples show good correlations between Sr–Nd–He isotope ratios, indicating that the Grande Comore $^{3}He/^{4}He$ ratios are not significantly influenced by crustal contamination and reflect recent mixing between plume- and lithosphere-derived melts. These authors highlight that the deep plume component has a low and well constrained $^{3}He/^{4}He$ signature of 5.2 ± 0.2 R_A. On the basis of the correlation with Osmium isotopes, Class et al. (2009) argue that the low-He signature does not record

contribution from subcontinental lithospheric mantle, but that of a deep plume interacting with oceanic lithosphere. In this frame, the Comoros plume would represent a "low $^{3}He/^{4}He$ – high $^{187}Os/^{186}Os$" hotspot whose deep source is dominated by recycled ^{4}He-rich material.

A detailed treatment of this topic is out of the scope of this paper and will be treated in ongoing studies. Whatever the specific process producing the low-$^{3}He/^{4}He$ signature, we show that Karthala gases record a signature consistent with that recorded in the fluid inclusions of its lavas. On the contrary, Mayotte gases have a slightly higher $^{3}He/^{4}He$ signature, which matches that of la Grille lavas. These findings are consistent with the barometric results of previous works (Bachèlery et al., 2019; Berthod et al., 2020) on the lavas of Mayotte submarine eruption, showing that these evolved basanite magmas are extracted by large shallow mantle reservoirs (50-20 km depth) located between the Moho and the upper oceanic lithosphere.

The $^{4}He/^{40}Ar^{*}$ values measured in Karthala (only one reliable value) and Mayotte gases vary in a narrow range (1.2-1.7), falling within that typical of fertile mantle ($^{4}He/^{40}Ar^{*}$ =1-5; Marty, 2012) and magmatic values from other geodynamic settings (e.g., Paonita et al., 2012; Bräuer et al., 2013; Boudoire et al., 2018; Rizzo et al., 2019). In magmatic environments, this ratio varies during melts degassing and is indicative of relative entrapment pressures (e.g., Paonita et al., 2012; Boudoire et al., 2018). Focusing on Mayotte gases for which $^{4}He/^{40}Ar^{*}$ is available for different gas emissions and surveys dates, we do not notice systematic variations. This leads us to two important deductions: the first is that this ratio is not modified by gas-water interaction as e.g. He/CO_2 (see section 5.2) and thus can be used to track temporal variations eventually related to changes in magmatic dynamics; the second is that Mayotte gas emissions reflect a magmatic degassing occurring in a narrow range of depth. In other words, we could consider a homogeneous (in terms of depth) source of degassing. If we consider the findings of a recent study carried out at La Reunion, in which Boudoire et al. (2018) constrained a range of $^{4}He/^{40}Ar^{*}$=2.1±0.4 for fluids exsolved at underplating (10-15 km below Piton de la Fournaise), assuming a comparable ratio in primary magmas below Mayotte, we could speculate that BAS emissions reflect the degassing of a melt ponding at comparable depths. Finally, the lack of evident temporal variations leads us to consider limited depth variations of the melt feeding the discharge of BAS emissions.

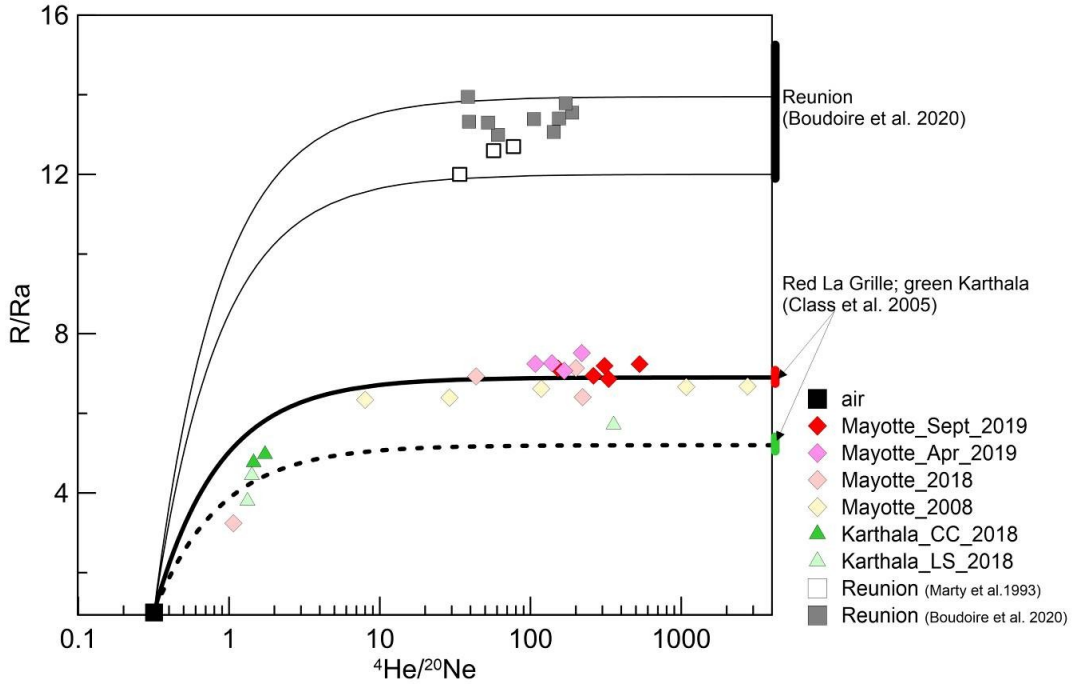


Figure 3. $^{4}He/^{20}Ne$ versus $^{3}He/^{4}He$ (R/Ra) in fumaroles and bubbling gas from Grande Comore and Mayotte. For comparison are shown data from bubbling gases at La Reunion from Boudoire et al., (2020) and Marty et al., (1993). Thick and dash black lines indicating air-magma mixing are calculated from the average value [from Class et al., (2005)] of La Grille and Karthala fluid inclusions respectively. Thin black lines are calculated as the minimum and maximum of bubbling gases at La Reunion. At the right side of the diagram are also indicated three solid black red and green bars, corresponding to the range of the R/Ra variability of La Reunion, La Grille and Karthala fluid inclusions respectively.

5.2 Evidences of gas-water interaction and origin of CO_2 and CH_4

To evaluate the carbon origin of CO_2 in Karthala and Mayotte gases, $\delta^{13}C$ is diagnostic of the original geochemical environment, being able to discriminate between a magmatic source (-8‰<$\delta^{13}C$<-4‰; Sano and Marty, 1995), the contribution from subducted marine limestone with $\delta^{13}C$=0‰, and sedimentary rocks of organic origin with much lighter $\delta^{13}C$=-25‰ (Hoefs, 2015). Thus, we correlated the variation of the $CO_2/^{3}He$ versus $\delta^{13}C$ ratio based on the approach proposed by Sano and Marty (1995 and references therein). Figure 4A plots two mixing curves modelled considering both an organic and a limestone endmember, in which the mantle corresponds to $CO_2/^{3}He$= $5.0x10^{9}$ and $\delta^{13}C$=-4.4‰, which result from the average values of our data and data from literature. For both organic and limestone endmembers, a value of $CO_2/^{3}He$=$1.0x10^{13}$ is assumed, whereas for organic and limestone $\delta^{13}C$ endmember is assumed $\delta^{13}C$=-25‰ and $\delta^{13}C$=0‰ respectively (Sano and Marty, 1995). As known from other studies in hydrothermal gases (Capasso et al., 2005; Gilfillan et al., 2009; Dubaqc et al., 2012; Rizzo et al., 2019), the $CO_2/^{3}He$, He/CO_2, CH_4/CO_2 ratios and $\delta^{13}C$ isotopic signature can be potentially modified by gas-water interaction in

which CO_2 dissolves preferentially with respect to the other species. These effects need to be evaluated and eventually filtered out in order to calculate the thermobarometric conditions of the hydrothermal system feeding the gas seeps (Figures 2 and 4). In Mayotte gases, we observe only a modest variability of the He/CO_2 ratio (Figure 4), which overlaps with that found in Karthala fluids, with the exception of two 2018 samples from the "MAN" pools with low gas flux that show $He/CO_2>1.0x10^{-4}$. Similar evidences were observed by BRGM in 2005 samples 9a,b,c over the whole Mayotte tidal flat (Traineau, 2006) and might suggest an increase in gas fluxes after 2005. In order to constrain the pristine C isotopic signature of CO_2 in Karthala and Mayotte, we modelled a Rayleigh fractionation assuming a dissolution under equilibrium conditions based on the approach used in Rizzo et al. (2019). The Clark and Fritz (1997) equation is as follows:

$$\delta^{13}C_{CO2}=¿ \quad (5)$$

where the subscript *0* indicates the initial CO_2 isotope composition and *f* is the fraction of the residual gas phase, while ε is the fractionation factor between DIC (dissolved inorganic carbon) and gaseous CO_2 ($CO_{2\cdot(g)}$). In turn, ε depends on water temperature and pH, which are unknown, therefore, for our purpose the values of temperature and pH has been chosen which better approximate our dataset corresponding to T=32°C and pH=5.71. These values correspond to those measured in the marine water of the Mayotte tidal flat by BRGM surveys (Traineau, 2006; Sanjouan, 2008). Our results show that Karthala gases are not evidently affected by interaction with shallow waters, as well as most Mayotte bubbling gases record only a minor partial dissolution of CO_2 (Figure S1 supplementary materials). The modest effect of preferential dissolution of CO_2 in water with respect to CH_4 and He is evident in Figure 4B, where He/CO_2 vs Rc/Ra are shown. Therefore, not considering the samples MAN affected by minor dissolution effects, the general variability of Mayotte and Karthala gases falls well within the range of mantle values (Figure 4A). In spite of streaming through a thick carbonate sequence of the coral reef or of the extensive bacterial contribution recorded in the nearby gas bubbling of the Dziani lake (Milesi et al., 2019, 2020), the gases of Mayotte tidal flat do not show any obvious limestone or organic contributions. Their magmatic signature can be constrained at $\delta^{13}C\approx-4.3‰$, which can also represent the magmatic signature of Karthala gases. This statement is supported by the narrow variability of $\delta^{13}C$ range both at Karthala fumaroles ($-4.9‰\leq\delta^{13}C\leq-3.9‰$) and Mayotte BAS high flux bubbling pools least affected by gas-water interaction ($-4.9‰\leq\delta^{13}C\leq-3.5‰$), as well as by their relatively stability in time considering data from BRGM of 2006 and 2008 campaigns ($-4.3‰\leq\delta^{13}C\leq-$

3.2‰) as well as in 2016 with $\delta^{13}C$=-3.2‰ (G7 point by Milesi et al., 2020). Therefore, a $\delta^{13}C$≈-4.3±0.2‰ is a reasonable approximation of a possible $\delta^{13}C$ magmatic signature for the Archipelago.

If compared to the bubbling springs of La Réunion (Figure 4A), we notice that the $\delta^{13}C$ signature of Mayotte and Karthala gases is slightly less negative and shows a minor variability. It is worth noting that La Réunion gases with $\delta^{13}C$≈-6‰ display a trend of decrease of $CO_2/^3He$ suggesting the occurrence of a process of selective dissolution of CO_2 in water, which is observed in Mayotte only for the samples MAN 1 and 2.

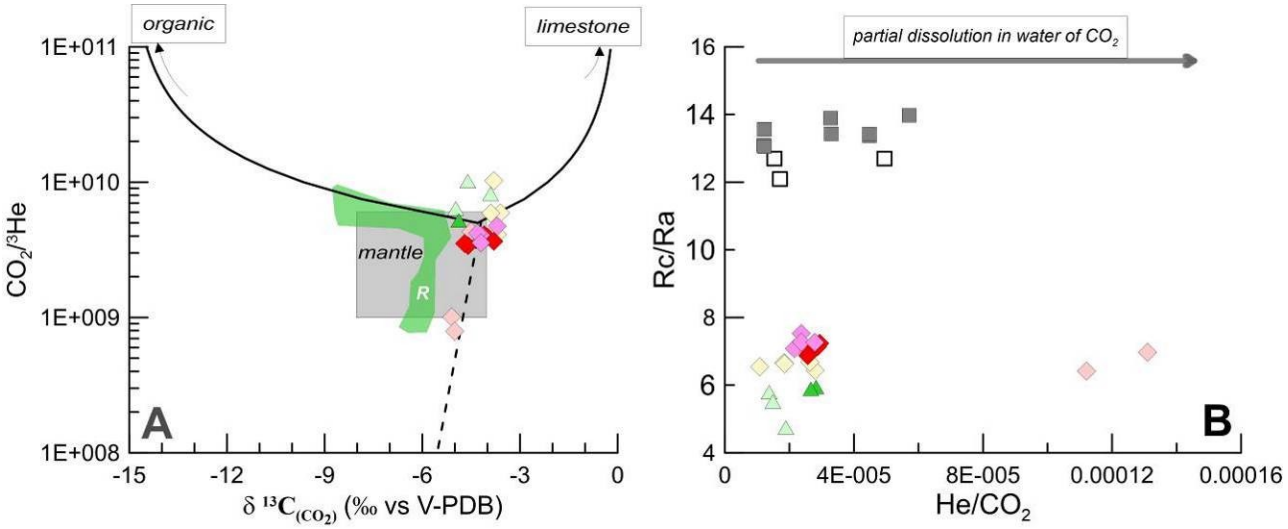


Figure 4. A: $\delta^{13}C$ of CO_2 versus $CO_2/^3He$ diagram of fumaroles and bubbling gases at Grande Comore and Mayotte. B: He/CO_2 versus Rc/Ra. Symbols as in figure 3. For comparison is indicated also the variability of corresponding gases at La Reunion (R). Diagram 4A shows that gases at Comore archipelago are in the field of Mantle-like origin with no evident organic or limestone contributions. Solid lines are mixing curves between organic, mantle and limestone endmembers, while the dashed line indicates a Rayleigh fractionation dissolution. Diagram 4B displays a variable degree of water-gas interaction affecting CO_2 variability.

Even if the Karthala and Mayotte fluids are CO_2 dominated, we recall that they show a progressive enrichment in CH_4 up to concentrations of 2982 ppm in gases from Mayotte, which allowed to measure its isotopic composition of C and H (δD of methane was measured only in DIST-1 and C1-2, table 3). Following the classification proposed by Schoell (1980) (Figure S2 supplementary materials), samples DIST-1 and C1-2 could be considered of abiogenic origin, coherently with the G3 bubbling spot with the highest gas flux in the Dziani lake, recently documented by Milesi et al. (2020) The same authors report of a G7 sample in the BAS area which shows similar $\delta^{13}C$ of DIST-1 and C1-2 but very negative δD of methane (-250‰). However, it must be stressed that distinguishing between methanogenesis processes of biological origin or thermogenic processes at the origin of CH_4 (Mazzini et al, 2011; Schoell, 1980; Welhan, 1988) is complicated by possible

mixing between endmembers with different isotopic signature (Taran et al. 2010) or by the occurrence of oxidation processes (e.g., Batista Cruz et al., 2019). It is therefore clear that further data are needed to better constrain the origin of methane in the BAS area of Mayotte

5.3 CO_2 degassing from soil

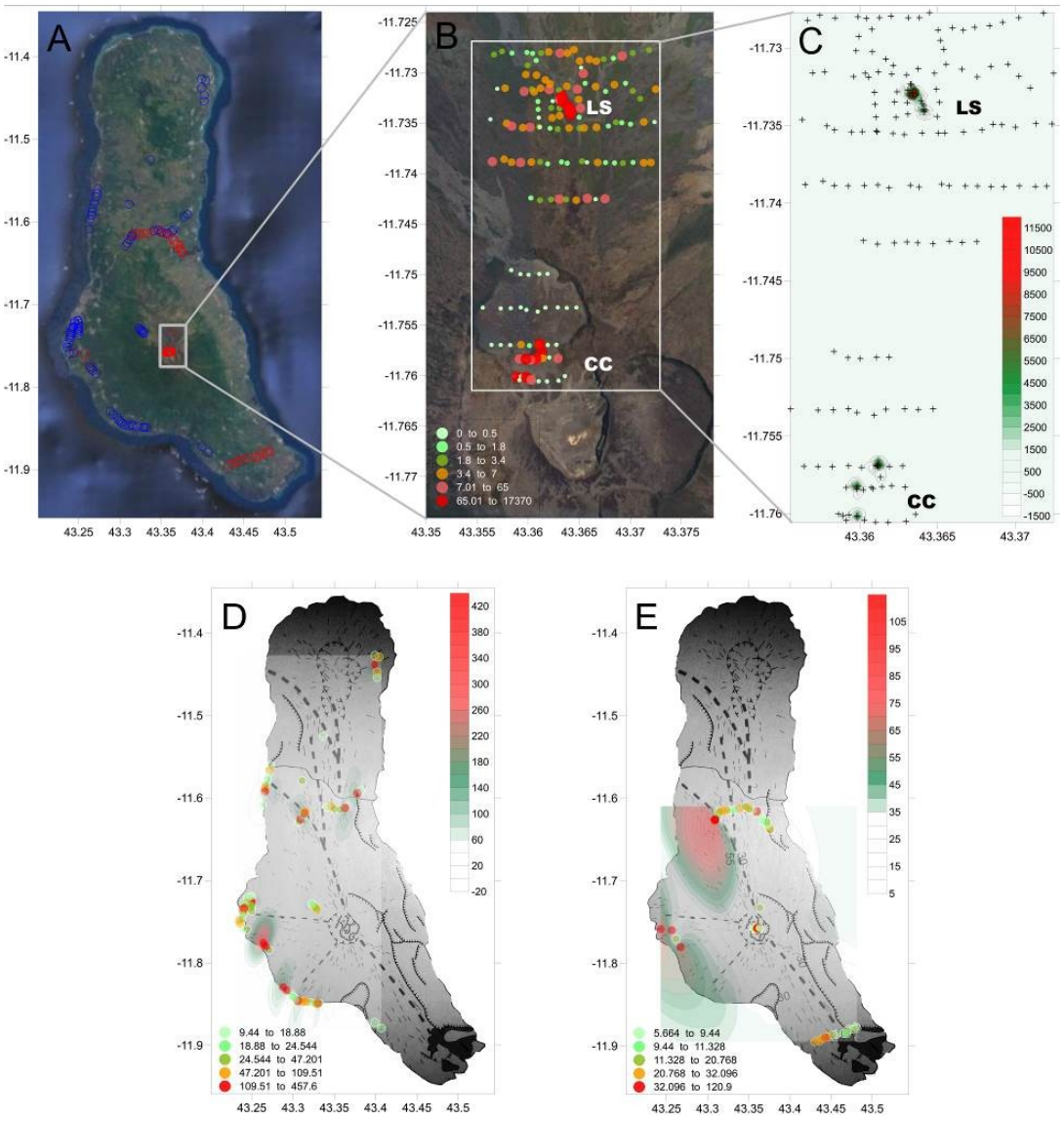
Volcanic areas are often places where diffuse outgassing of CO_2 emission occurs, facilitated by tectonic structures which locally increase soil permeability. On seismically and volcanically active areas like the Comoros, soil CO_2 emissions have been investigated in order to identify hidden tectonic structures driving fluid emissions to the surface (e.g., Bonforte et al., 2013; Boudoire et al., 2017; Giammanco et al., 2006; Gurrieri et al., 2008; Irwin and Barnes, 1980; Liuzzo et al., 2013). In volcanic tropical settings like the Comoros, the presence of significant fraction of soil CO_2 emissions can also be ascribed to biogenic activity, which may be mixed with gas originating from magmatic sources and whose relative proportion may evolve in time as a function of seasonal effects and the evolution of the seismic and volcanic activity (e.g., Boudoire et al., 2018a; Chiodini et al. 2008; Liuzzo et al., 2015).

While rift zones are marked by well defined alignments of volcanic cones in Grande Comore, they are much less defined in Mayotte, where a set of mafic scoria cones and phonolite maars are scattered on the Petite Terre island (Nehligh et al., 2013; Michon et al., 2016; Famin et al., 2020; Tzevahirtzian et al., 2021). In Grande Comore, volcano flanks are often resurfaced by the frequent emplacement of lava flows, nevertheless thick soils and sand covers are found in most locations, suitable for the measurement of soil CO_2 fluxes. At Petite Terre, the recent explosive activity of phonolitic maars emplaced a widespread cover of several meters thick fine grained ashes that, together with the low altitude of the island and the widespread urban context, limit the areas suitable for CO_2 flux measurements. In our survey strategy, we aimed at characterizing the CO_2 fluxes from the soil on the territory and linking them with known or hidden tectonic structures and with the main degassing areas (summit of Karthala in Grande Comore and Dziani lake and Airport tidal flat in Mayotte). Measurements on Mayotte tidal flat were performed at low tide, when the sandy/muddy flat is wet but without a continuous water cover, excepted some large bubbling pools. Samples of soil gas were taken alongside the soil CO_2 flux measurements to investigate the isotopic signature of carbon in CO_2 and thus constrain the sources of the soil CO_2 emission. As previously mentioned in 3.1, as the soil CO_2 dataset was acquired using two different methods and at different times, it is not uniform and therefore our choice in data analysis was to consider each

555 area separately. Even if acquired in different seasons and times, all the measurements were
556 carried out on dry sunny days and generally stable weather conditions. Where possible,
557 measurements were performed at a spacing of ca. 50 m or less, though in some cases distances
558 between individual sites and length and orientation of the tracks were dependent upon local
559 urban density, morphological obstacles, and vegetation cover.

560 ### 5.3.1 Grande Comore

561 At Grande Comore three campaigns were conducted for the measurement of soil CO_2 using two
562 different methods: a) Accumulation chamber, b) Dynamic concentration (Figure 5).



563

564 Figure 5. Soil CO_2 measurements at Grande Comore. In A sites of measurements distinct in blue and red for 2017 and
565 2018 surveys respectively. Inside the white rectangular are indicated the 2018 sites of measurements not indicated in
566 B. In figure 7B a classed post map of the 2014 survey at the summit of Karthala volcano realized using the
567 accumulation chamber method. CC indicates the Central Caldera area; LS indicates La Sufriere. In C a contour plot of
568 soil CO_2 emission of the Karthala summit area. Figures 7D and E are related to 2017-2018 surveys respectively realized

using the “Dynamic concentration method” [Gurrieri and Valenza (1988)]. On both maps it has overlapped the structural map from Bachèlery and Coudray (1993).

The first survey at Grande Comore was conducted by Benavente et al. (2015) and focused on exploring the potential geothermal resources of the island. Using the accumulation chamber method (Chiodini et al., 1998), the survey concentrated on the summit area of Karthala volcano, providing a total of 155 measurements of CO_2 flux (table 2), and only a subset of measurements was performed on the volcano flanks showing very low soil degassing rates. In the summit caldera, the survey by Benavente et al. (2015) focused on the northern and recently active (2007) part of the caldera, consistently with previous geophysical and CO_2 surveys of Lénat et al. (1998) and Bernabeu et al. (2018), showing that the strongest hydrothermal activity occurs in this area (CC area). In addition, Benavente et al. (2015) provide the first dataset on the most active and high temperature Soufrière area, on the northern rift (LS area). The results of the 2014 survey are plotted in Figure 5 (B, C). The soil CO_2 flux ranges from background air (0 flux) up to 17,364 g/ m^2day. The grid of points in the area investigated by Benavente et al. (2015), was suitable for the estimation of the total budget of CO2 flux emission at that period, resulting in an average of 288.8 and 559.5 g/m^2day at the crater and La Soufrière areas respectively. The remaining summit area investigated of Karthala volcano is characterized by a general very low average of CO_2 flux.

In 2017 and 2018, the second and the third soil CO_2 measurement surveys were carried out by IPGP and INGV teams, using the Dynamic method (Gurrieri and Valenza, 1988) and focusing on the volcano flanks and La Grille area. The unknown *k* value, necessary for the application of the dynamic method (equation 2), has been chosen from those which give the minimum percentage deviation between the most probable range of *k* values in volcanic soils (Camarda et al., 2006a) and in consideration of the similarity with soil CO_2 emission measured at La Reunion (Boudoire et al., 2017; Liuzzo et al., 2015). For all the measurements at Karthala a *k* value of 30 μm^2 has been chosen (see supplementary materials Table, S2). Considering reasonable that the probable range of permeability in volcanic soil ranges between 20 and 40 μm^2, the percentage deviation is less than 6.5% in all the measurements carried out at Karthala.

87 measurements were taken during the 2017 campaign in the distal area of the Karthala volcano (table 1), with soil CO_2 flux ranging between approximately 9 and 450 g/m^2day (table 2). During the 2018 campaign, we carried out 65 measurements, where some were partially overlapping the previously surveyed area, however most were in new areas not covered by the 2017 survey

(Figure 7A). In 2018, minimum and maximum fluxes are around 5 and 950 g/m^{2}day respectively, and confirmed that the maximum fluxes occur inside the summit caldera, close to the CC hot ground and fumarolic field. The findings of these two campaigns (Figure 5D and 5E) show a clear correlation between the main structures (Bachèlery and Coudray, 1993) and the highest flux emissions, confirming that the spatial distribution of the soil CO_2 flux is tightly linked to the tectonic structures of Grande Comore. The Soufrière fumaroles and the maxima on the volcano flank fall on the main rift zones previously identified on the basis of the alignment of volcanic cone. Interestingly, anomalous areas of high CO_2 soil flux extend at low altitude, both in the northern and western part, where a recent seismic and volcanic activity has occurred, while very low fluxes are measured in the southern part of the island, which corresponds to the oldest little active part of Grande Comore (see Bachelery et al., 2016 for a recent review).

Soil gas fluxes and their spatial distribution reminds that documented on Piton de la Fournaise volcano where fluxes, in the range 5.52 to 701.56 g/m^{2}day, have been measured during quiescence phases (Liuzzo et al., 2015). In spite of its strong eruption rate, Piton de la Fournaise lacks an area of strong degassing near its summit, which instead occurs on the older and quiescent Piton des Neiges volcano (Marty et al., 1993; Boudoire et al., 2020).

5.3.2 Mayotte - Petite Terre

The occurrence of a widespread ash cover makes the dynamic concentration method not suitable for most CO_2 flux measurements at Petite Terre, Mayotte, where surveys were performed using the accumulation chamber method in September 2019 and in November 2020 (Figure 6). On this island, a total of 166 measurements of CO_2 flux were taken from the soil and 53 on the tidal flat of the Airport (BAS: bubbling area in the sea Figure 6C). We did not perform a CO_2 survey inside the Dziani crater, however it represents a target of future investigations. Not surprisingly the strongest CO_2 soil emissions were measured in the Airport tidal flat, where the CO_2-rich bubbling pools are located, with a range of values between 12 and 70,485 g/m^{2}day. Peak emissions are thus 4 times higher than those measured at Karthala. The grid of points for this initial exploration did not lend itself to estimating the overall CO2 flux budget, which will instead be the focus of future investigations. On land, we measured fluxes that span from background levels (corresponding to the air values concentrations) to 173.4 g/m^{2}day, being much lower than in the volcano flanks of Karthala or of la Réunion. Our surveys show that at Mayotte the underlying hydrothermal system is the main source of the outgassing of the island and the bubbling area on the tidal flat is an important area of high CO_2 flux. This could arise from a combination of high fluxes focused in two

633 areas (Airport tidal flat and Dziani) and the widespread and poorly permeable fine ash cover on
634 Petite Terre. The possible influence of the ash cover on soil CO_2 fluxes is however not
635 straightforward. At Petite Terre, the thickness of fine ashes increases from west to east and the
636 soil CO_2 fluxes as well, together with the occurrence of the two main areas of gas bubbling, which
637 are located on the eastern side of the island. Even if the on land soil CO_2 emissions are generally
638 modest compared with other sites, their spatial distribution still permits to identify preferential
639 areas of CO_2 emissions on the ground and to discuss their possible link with hidden tectonic
640 structures, not always recognisable with other methods of investigation. Available datasets
641 (Tzevahirtzian et al., 2021; Famin et al., 2020) show that Petite Terre is the tip of a huge and
642 mostly submarine volcanic ridge with a broad regional alignment in the N120° direction,
643 corresponding to the main regional structure of Comoros archipelago and interpreted as a right-
644 lateral shear in the lithosphere (Famin et al., 2020; Michon, 2016). Results from our surveys
645 (Figure 6B) show a distribution of soil CO_2 degassing which might be overlapped to a possible
646 structural scheme in which a system of fractures is determined by a combination of the main
647 structural trends along N120° and a combination of Riedel's structures coherent with the right
648 shear (Figure 6D). In this scheme, the N120° is well correlated to the alignment of Holocene
649 tephritic scoria cones corresponding to the oldest phase of the recent volcanism of Petite Terre
650 (Nehilg et al., 2013). A NNE-SSW (R') trend of soil CO_2 emission is overlapped on the most recent
651 volcanism of the phonolitic maars, where the principal evidence of outgassing is shown by the BAS
652 zone at the feet of the large "Vigie" maar and the bubbling manifestation inside the Dziani lake
653 (Milesi et al., 2020). A possible trend corresponding to R structures is also appreciable in the
654 central area of the island. Even if this first approach proposes an interpretative evaluation of the
655 spatial outgassing distribution, however it must be stressed that future investigations on larger
656 areas are needed to better understand the detailed structural pattern on Mayotte Island.

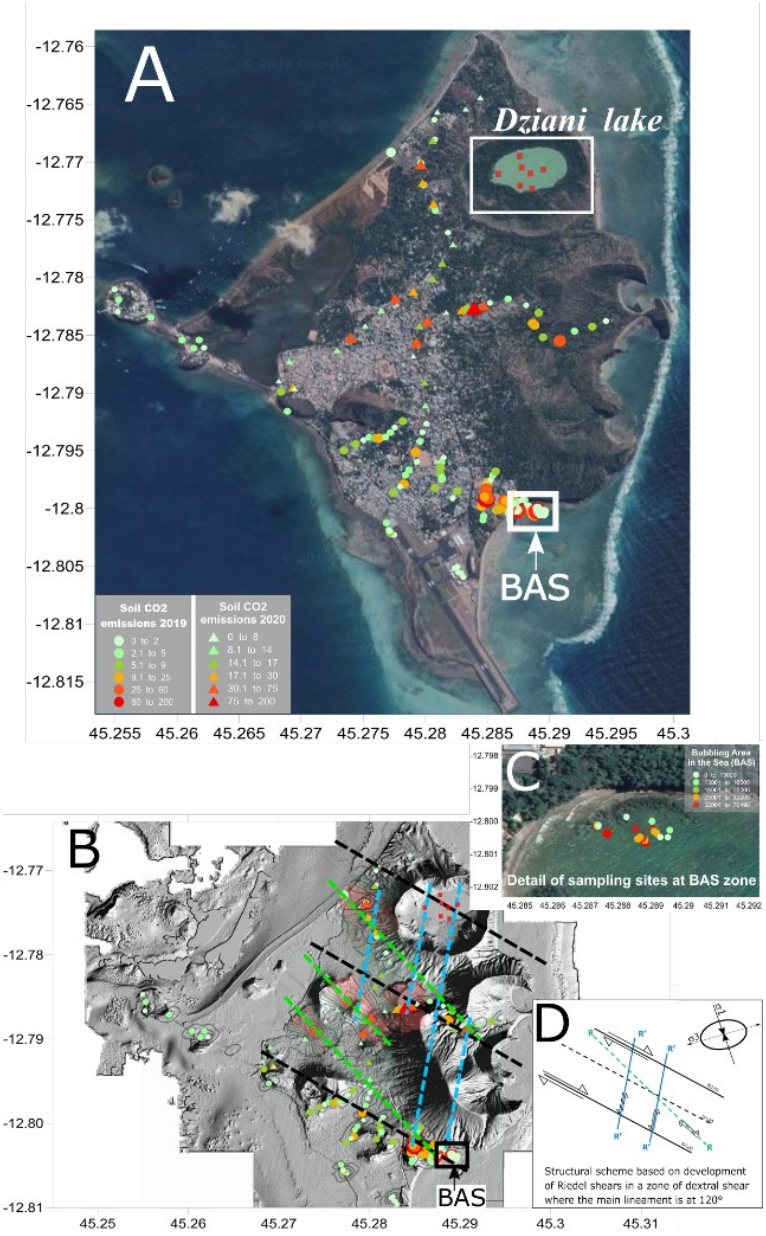


Figure 6. (A) Petite Terre (Mayotte) classed post map showing 2019 and 2020 surveys indicated as circles and triangles respectively. Also shown inside the white rectangular at the Dziani lake (red squares) the bubbling area investigated by Milesi et al., (2020). BAS indicates the bubbling area in the sea, which is magnified in (C) as a classed post map of the CO_2 flux measurements carried out in 2019. In (B) digital elevation map of Petite Terre highlighting the volcanic cones and the contour map of the soil CO_2 emissions. The structural trend in (B) is adapted to the Mayotte soil emissions from the theoretical structural scheme exposed in figure (D) based on a dominant shear zone N120°.

5.4 Equilibrium temperature of hydrothermal gases

In the previous paragraphs, we have shown that the fumarolic and bubbling gases of Grande Comore and Mayotte have relatively high methane contents with the proportion of methane being highest at Mayotte. We also highlighted the effect on gas chemistry of partial dissolution of CO_2 in water, as well as identified the samples that showed the most evident effects of this process.

Data of CO_2 and CH_4 poorly or not affected by the dissolution of CO_2 in water allowed us to evaluate the possible gas equilibrium conditions among different gas species in hydrothermal environments. In several geothermal systems, the Fischer-Tropsch process has been successfully used to define the origin of methane since the 60s (D'amore and Panichi, 1980; Hulston and McCabe, 1962). Nowadays an extensive scientific literature exists that explores the conditions of equilibrium among gas species in hydrothermal environments in order to obtain useful geo-indicators for temperature and pressure (Chiodini and Marini, 1998; Fischer and Chiodini, 2015). Assuming that in the hydrothermal system an equilibrium is attained between the dominant species H_2O-H_2-CO_2-CO-CH_4, methane can form inorganically from the reaction:

$$CO_2+4H_2=CH_4+2H_2O \quad (6)$$

where the formation of methane is favoured by the decreasing temperature. For this system we assumed as a condition of thermal equilibrium between CH_4 and CO_2 the equation proposed by Giggenbach (1992):

$$\log (X_{CH4} / X_{CO2}) = 4625/(t_e + 27\ 3) - 10.4 \quad (7)$$

where t_e is the equilibrium temperature (°C) while X_{CH4} and X_{CO2} are the molar fraction of CH_4 and CO_2 respectively.

Under these assumptions, equilibrium temperatures range between around 381 and 460°C at Karthala (Figures S2 supplementary m.) which is consistent with data from Benavente et al., (2015). At Mayotte temperature vary between 314 and 339 °C (excluding MAN 1 and 2 which are recognized as affected by a severe dissolution of CO_2 in water). Interestingly, we do not record a change neither in equilibrium temperature nor in outlet temperature (in equilibrium with sea water temperature) in bubbling gases of the BAS Mayotte tidal flat in the period 2005-2019 in spite of the large magmatic event occurring at ca. 50 km from its coast.

To explore possible evidences of recent input of deep fluids in Mayotte hydrothermal system we evaluated the thermal equilibrium in combination with their isotopic signatures on the basis of their $\delta^{13}C$ isotopic fractionation factor between CO_2 and CH_4. In our BAS samples, $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ ranges from -24.4 to -11.7‰, the most positive values corresponding to the MAN samples collected by a low-flux pool close to the mangrove area (Figures S2 supplementary m.). To this aim, we have combined the temperatures obtained from (7) with the temperatures (t_e) calculated using the equation proposed by Bottinga (1969) valid for temperatures ranging between 0-700 °C:

$$\Delta = 22166/(t_e+273)-13.8 \quad (8)$$

where Δ is the difference between $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ values. The relation (8) provides on the whole higher temperatures, ranging between 370 and 515°C (Figures S2 supplementary materials), where the samples MAN-1 and MAN-2 – (16-12-2018), which have been hypothesized to be affected by a strong fluid-water interaction, provide a much higher apparent equilibrium temperature up to 940°C and therefore they are not discussed further.

It is known that temperatures calculated from the CO_2-CH_4 isotopic geothermometer are generally higher than temperatures obtained from geothermometers based on chemical equilibrium (Horita, 2001). This difference is attributable to several process which can affect the final equilibrium and various hypotheses have been invoked to account such outcomes. If external factors able to affect the hydrothermal system cannot be excluded (e.g. an external sources of gas interacting with the hydrothermal system) amongst the causes that might determine discrepancy on the estimation of temperature, a sort of "quenching effect" on the isotopic signature of hydrothermal gases may be considered relevant. Under this assumption, CO_2 and CH_4 were initially in isotopic equilibrium attained at the original source (supposed to be deep) however, during the ascent of the gas to shallow depths, there may not be enough time for the isotopic readjustment thus preserving the original isotope ratios. Such a quenching effect is also justifiable by the faster rate of reequilibration (about 100 times) of the chemical system than the isotopic system (Giggenbach, 1982).

In order to understand if the different temperature obtained by the chemical and isotopic geothermometers could be an expression of a quenching effect acting on the BAS area at Mayotte we plotted the log of the concentration ratio of CH_4 and CO_2 versus the $\delta^{13}C$ of both methane and CO_2 (Ono et al., 1993). In Figure 7 the thick black lines were modelled assuming that both chemical and isotopic equilibrium is maintained with a fixed $\delta^{13}C_{C02}$ corresponding to the range of magmatic signature, here -4‰ and -8‰ (dashed black lines) by coupling the equations (7) and (8):

$$\log\left(\frac{X_{CH_4}}{X_{CO_2}}\right) = \frac{4625(\Delta+13{,}8)}{22166} - 10{,}4 \quad (9)$$

In addition, the equilibrium temperature calculated using the equation (7) (green line) is shown. The trend of the continuous black lines therefore should represent the variation of the $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ expected if equilibrium conditions are attained by gases injected in the hydrothermal system. However, our data show a significant shift of the methane toward heavier isotopic concentrations.

Bacterial oxidation of thermogenic CH_4 can explain isotopic fractionation determining an increase of the isotopic ratio (Baker and Fritz, 1981; Coleman et al., 1981). For instance, this process may be probable in the Dziani lake, where Milesi et al. (2020) have underlined a probable mixing between gas of biogenic and magmatic origin.

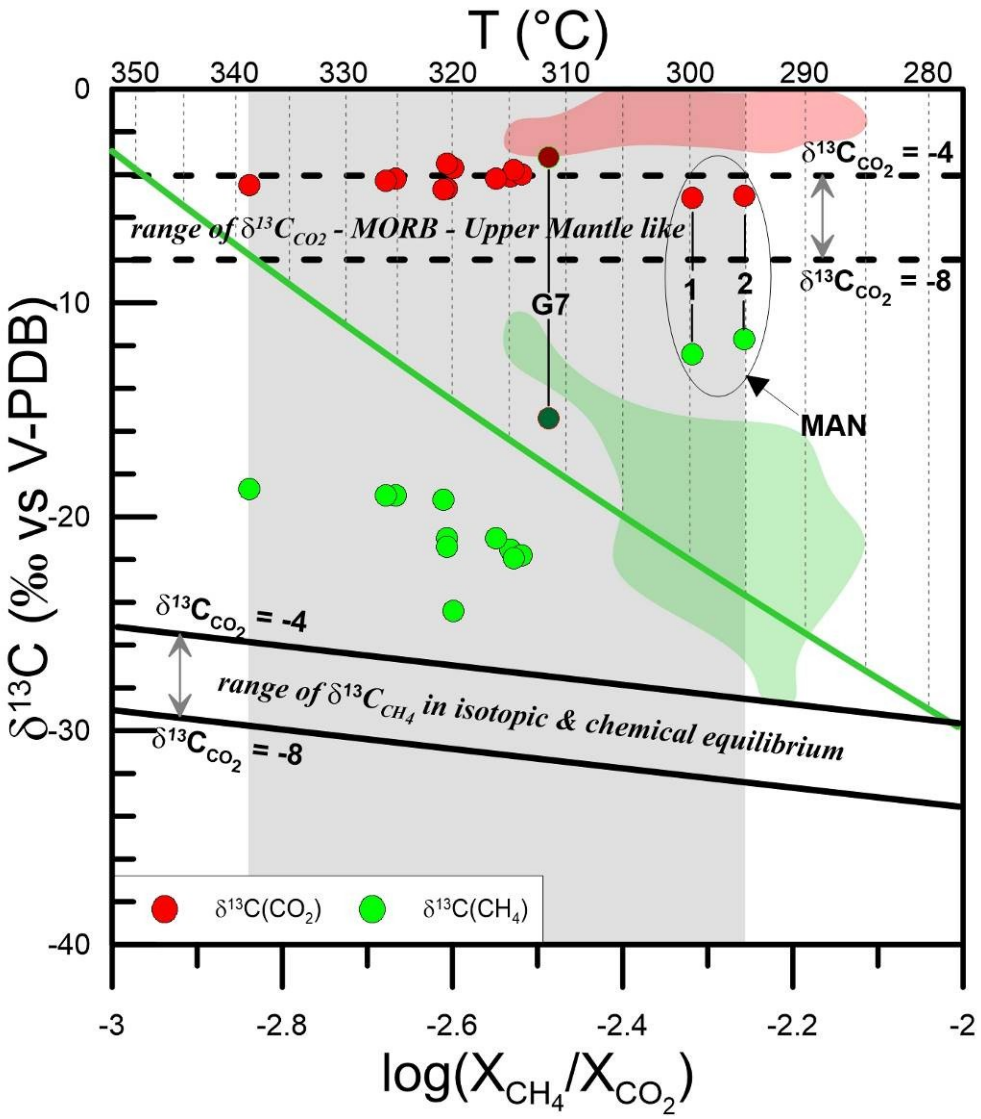


Figure 7. $\delta^{13}C$ for CO_2 (red) and CH_4 (green) versus log (X_{CH4}/X_{CO2}) of Mayotte bubbling gases. Dark red and green symbols are referred to the G7 sample of Milesi et al., (2020) mentioned in the text, also the red and green area are referred to the variability of the Dziani lake samples from the same authors. The green line correspond to the CH_4 and CO_2 thermal equilibrium expressed in equation (7) (Giggenbach, 1992), the thick black lines are calculated as the equation (9) for isotopic and chemical equilibrium between CH_4 and CO_2 for two cases of $\delta^{13}C$ (CO_2) corresponding at -4‰ and -8‰ which in turn are indicated as dashed lines.

Although a carbon isotopic fractionation of methane cannot be excluded, some important differences between the gases of the BAS area and Dziani Lake should be underlined. The range of variability of $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ of the BAS samples is consistent with an abiogenic source (Schoell, 1980).

Moreover, the δD values of the samples DIST -1 and C1-2 are -137.8‰ and -118.05‰, respectively, being much higher than the value of G2 (-272‰) methane-rich pool of Dziani lake reported by Milesi et al. (2020), confirming a probable abiotic origin of methane at BAS. Chemical equilibrium temperatures are systematically higher at BAS than at Dziani (<290°C), further suggesting an inorganic origin of BAS methane, or a more magmatic contribution in the hypothesis of a binary mixing between biotic and abiogenic methane. The methane-rich geochemical environment of the Dziani gases is definitely conditioned by the microbial activity in lacustrine waters, very different from the CO_2-rich geochemical environment of the BAS area. It is therefore likely that a quenching effect could explain the shift towards more positive $\delta^{13}C$ values of methane in the BAS data that "freezes" the isotopic equilibrium at corresponding higher temperatures. Assuming that a quenching effect is significant on the BAS samples, the consequences are equally important; under this hypothesis the temperature would have a corresponding isotopic equilibrium in the range estimated by the equation (8), that is between 370 and 515°C and, in turn, such high temperatures can be explained by deep magmatic inputs.

5.5 Temporal variations of $^3He/^4He$ in gases from Mayotte

In order to have further evidences of possible variations of geochemical parameters that may have recorded the ongoing submarine volcanic activity, we evaluated the time variation of the helium isotope ratio. This tracer was found to be crucial in defining magmatic recharge in deep reservoirs in many volcanic systems on Earth (Boudoire et al., 2020; Caracausi et al., 2003; Sano et al., 2015; Paonita et al., 2016; Rizzo et al., 2015, 2016). Figure 6 shows values from the 2008 (BRGM repository) and the 2018-2019 surveys. As discussed before, the interpretation of this parameter is quite complex in the Comoros context, because of the possible “low-$^3He/^4He$” signature of the deeper undegassed astenospheric source. Our data suggests that the helium isotopic signature of the BAS fluids (Figure 8) was relatively low in the 2008 samples and it becomes significantly higher (average increase of 0.58 Rc/Ra) in the samples from the 2018 survey. This shift is consistent with the drainage of large volumes of evolved basanite magma from shallow mantle lithospheric depth feeding the Mayote gaseous emissions at least in 2008, whose potential signature is very close to that recorded by fluid inclusions at La Grille (Class et al., 2005). Since the beginning of the eruption, the Rc/Ra signature of BAS fluids approaches that conventionally accepted for convective MORB mantle (8±1 Ra, Graham, 2002). Thus, we can tentatively speculate that this time evolution is associated with the emplacement of sub-lithospheric magmas at shallower depth along the large Mayotte volcanic ridge.

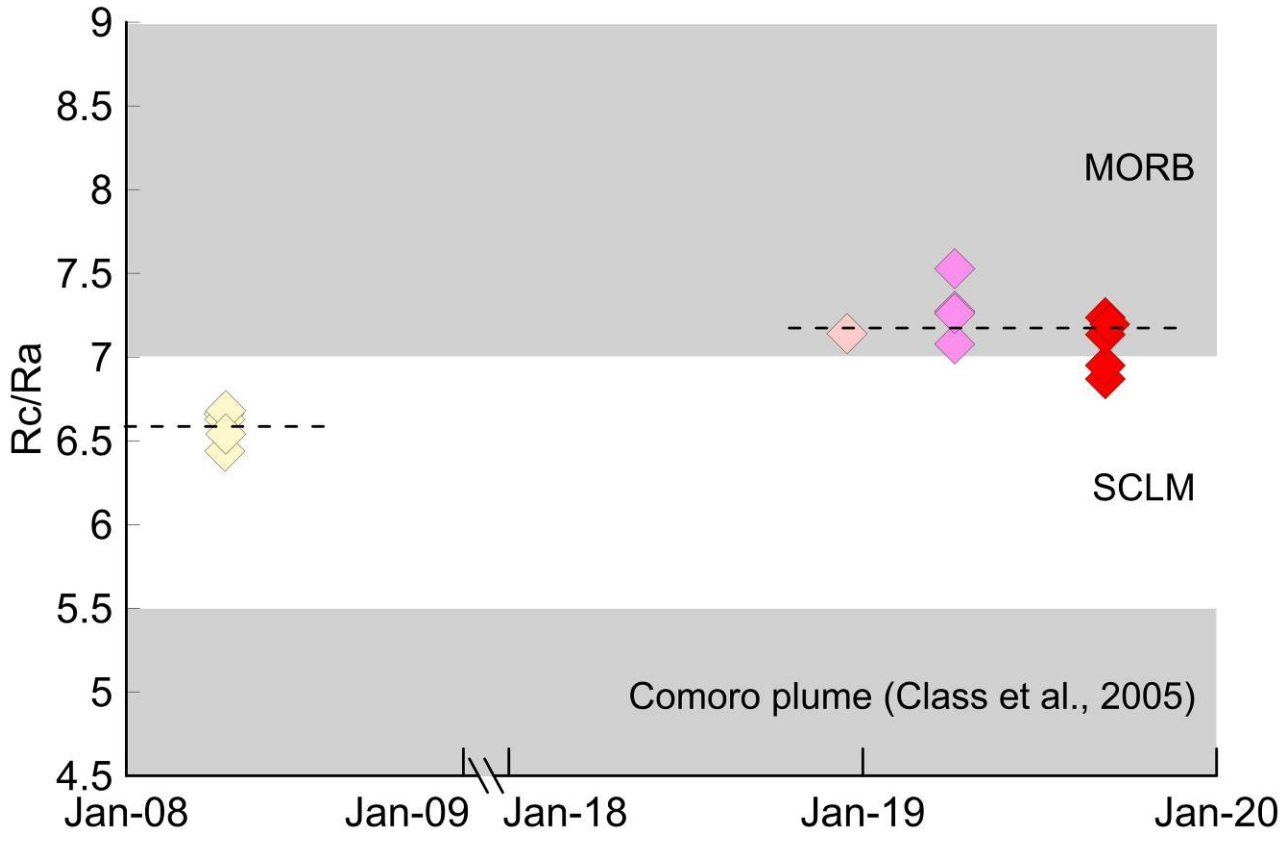


Figure 8. Rc/Ra time series with symbols as in figure 3. Rc/Ra has increased by an average 0.5 of between 2008 and 2018-2019. Black dashed lines indicate the averages Rc/Ra for the two distinct periods.

5.6 Gas emissions from the soil

Soil CO_2 emission can be ascribed to various origins and generally the total outgassing budget results from a mixture of different sources (Amundson et al., 1998; Cerling et al., 1991; Chiodini et al., 2008; Liuzzo et al. 2015). With the aim at quantifying the different contributions other than those of magmatic origin, such as biogenic source or air contamination in soil CO_2 flux, 22 gas samples were collected at Grande Comore and at Mayotte for CO_2 concentration and carbon isotopic analysis ($\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$) (table 1). All the samples were taken directly at 0.5 m depth in the soil, as described in section 3.2. The results of their CO_2 concentration and C isotopic signature are shown in Figure 9, and are modelled as a mixing of three possible endmembers: atmospheric, biogenic and magmatic. Figure 9 also reports $\delta^{13}C$ of gas from fumarolic fields at Karthala (central crater CC and La Soufrière LS, Figure 5B) and from the bubbling marine area off the coast at Mayotte (BAS, Figure 6), both obtained from the 2017-2018 surveys. Included in Figure 9 are also data collected at Mayotte by BRGM in 2005-2008 (BRGM/RP-568082 Final reports 2008) and in 2016 from Milesi et al. (2020) at the Dziani volcanic lake, with the exception of sample G7 that was collected in 2016

796 at the bubbling area BAS. We report the endmembers of atmospheric ($\delta^{13}C$ = -8‰) and "biogenic"
797 ($\delta^{13}C$ = -25‰; Hoefs, 2015) carbon (corresponding to organic matter). In Figure 9, we report the
798 mixing curves between the three endmembers reported above. The effect of dissolution in water
799 on the CO2 emission from the soil, if any, is not included here, and in every cases it should be
800 modest. The "magmatic" endmember was fixed considering the $\delta^{13}C$ average values of CO_2 of
801 fumarolic and bubbling gases from Karthala and Mayotte, which we considered representative of
802 the magmatic signature beneath these islands of the Comore Archipelago ($\delta^{13}C$=-4.3‰). This
803 choice is supported by the small narrow variability of $\delta^{13}C$ range of variation both in at Karthala
804 fumaroles (-4.9‰≤$\delta^{13}C$≤-3.9‰) and Mayotte BAS high flux bubbling pools least affected by gas-
805 water interaction (-4.9‰≤$\delta^{13}C$≤-3.5‰, slightly higher values up to 5.7 being those of the MAN low
806 flux pool), and their relatively stability in time considering data from BRGM of 2006 and 2008
807 campaigns (-4.3‰≤$\delta^{13}C$≤-3.2‰) as well as in 2016 with $\delta^{13}C$=-3.2‰ (G7 point by Milesi et al.,
808 2020), thus a reasonable approximation of a possible $\delta^{13}C$ magmatic signature for the Archipelago.
809 The effect of dissolution in water of the CO2 emission from the soil it is not considered here
810 because could be considered modest.

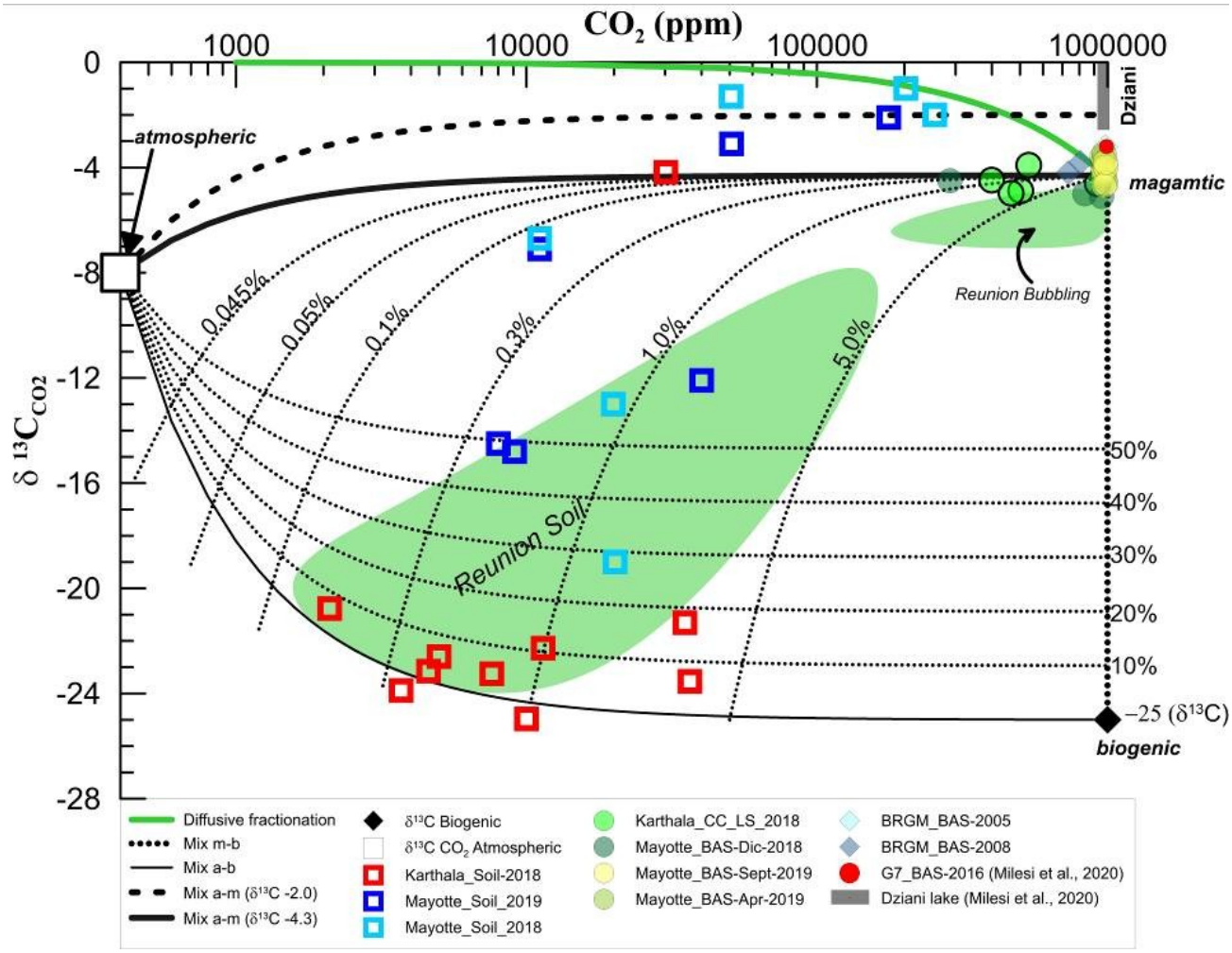


Figure 9. Diagram plotting carbon isotopic composition of soil CO_2 versus soil CO_2 log-concentrations (ppm) showing the theoretical binary mixing curves between three endmembers: atmospheric, biogenic and magmatic. Also shown are the binary mixing curves (hyphen curve) which allow a differentiation in the percentage of the magmatic component (M) in the hypothesis that the biogenic contribution could be extended up to $\delta^{13}C$ 25‰ (Hoefs, 2015). Green areas are referred to La Reunion soil and bubbling gases data repository, while the grey bar is the $\delta^{13}C_{(CO2)}$ Diziani lake's variability from Milesi et al., (2020).

The Karthala isotopic signature regarding $\delta^{13}C$ in CO_2 from the soil is much wider than in the fumaroles and ranges in the interval $-24.9‰ \leq \delta^{13}C \leq -4.2‰$. Almost all of the isotopic values show a low contribution of magmatic gas and a variable degree of air contamination. A few samples showing high CO_2 concentration have however a modest magmatic contribution (less than 20%) and correspond to sites close to the main structural lineaments showed in Figure 7. A single $\delta^{13}C$ value from the soil at Karthala has an isotopic signature close to the magmatic endmember and the corresponding site is very close to the steaming fumarolic field inside the summit CC caldera. These results allow us to conclude that during the 2017 and 2018 surveys, which were performed during a phase of quiescence of the volcano, soil CO_2 emission on the flanks at Grande Comore was predominantly of biogenic origin, while clear evidence of volcanic origin CO_2 emission was detectable only at the summit crater of Karthala. This overall picture of gas fluxes and isotopic

signature at Karthala is in strong contrast with that found during a similar quiescence period at Piton de la Fournaise (Liuzzo et al., 2015). On Piton de la Fournaise, only weak emission of low-temperature fluids and low CO_2 fluxes occur in the central summit area during quiescence periods, while diffuse CO_2 emissions with a clear and strong magmatic contribution (up to 60% of the diffuse fluid composition) have been detected along the main rift zones on the flanks of the volcano. On both volcanoes deep fluid percolation is focused on the main rift zones crossing the volcano edifice. However, the much lower rate of volcanic activity and longer quiescence duration at Karthala translates in low soil CO_2 fluxes with a dominant organic signature. The absence of permanent CO_2-rich emissions below the summit area of Piton de la Fournaise has been attributed to the geometry of its deep plumbing system, which is laterally shifted with respect to the central summit area (Liuzzo et al., 2015; Michon et al., 2015).

At Mayotte the isotopic values of soil gases taken on land are much more scattered than the Karthala data sampled on the volcano flanks. The range of isotopic variation spans the $19.0‰ \leq \delta^{13}C \leq -1‰$ range at various CO_2 concentrations. In contrast with Karthala soil emissions, those from Mayotte show a significant magmatic contribution. It is interesting to notice a scattered distribution similar to that previously reported for $\delta^{13}C$ in soil emission at La Reunion (Boudoire et al, 2017; Liuzzo et al, 2015). The Comoros archipelago is located in the Equatorial rainforest climate zone and La Réunion in a rainy tropical context. Therefore it is reasonable to consider that the soil of these islands is characterised by similar paedogenesis and biogenic processes to those identified in other tropical zones (Basile-Doelsch et al., 2005; Frank et al., 2002, 2006; Rouff et al., 2012), which in turn can significantly affect the isotopic signature of carbon in soil CO_2, as reported at La Reunion by Liuzzo et al. (2015). It is therefore not surprising that $\delta^{13}C$ of CO_2 distribution in Mayotte lies within a comparable range of values as those reported for isotopic soil CO_2 measurements at La Reunion in previous works (Boudoire et al 2017, Liuzzo et al. 2015). Interestingly, in terms of soil emissions, the fluid composition and fluxes of Mayotte, where a huge submarine eruption is occurring, mimic those measured on the other very active volcano of the Indian ocean, Piton de la Fournaise.

The less negative $\delta^{13}C$ values ($-3‰ < \delta^{13}C < -1‰$) were recorded at several soil CO_2 sampling areas that were taken on the beach or on a cliff very close to the BAS bubbling zone. However, these values cannot be explained as a mixing of atmospheric and magmatic CO_2 fixed at -4.3‰. The less negative $\delta^{13}C$ values for these two sites elicit three possible hypotheses: either 1) they may lie in a

mixing curve between atmospheric and magmatic endmember where the magmatic signature is more positive (around $\delta^{13}C$= -2‰); 2) they can be affected by isotopic fractionation on the aquifer; or 3) they are affected by kinetic fractionation due to a process of CO_2 diffusion through the soil as observed in other studies (Capasso et al., 2001; Cerling, 1984; Hesterberg and Siegenthaler, 1991; Severinghaus et al., 1996). We stress that we identify this process only in a limited area, very close to the BAS tidal flat, which is affected by a process determining a significant modification of the isotopic signature that ends with less negative $\delta^{13}C$ value. Regarding the first hypothesis, a mixing curve between air and magmatic endmember fixed at $\delta^{13}C$=-2‰ seems to correlate well to these more positive isotopic data (black dashed curve in Figure 9). In addition, the mixing curve at $\delta^{13}C$=-2‰ lies in the range of isotopic signatures of Dziani lake (Milesi et al., 2020). However, Dziani lake lies within a closed volcanic crater that receives a significant volcanic CO_2 contribution. According to Milesi et al. (2019) also in such lacustrine site biogenic and microbial methanogenesis CO_2 reduction is particularly significant (thus potentially affecting the isotopic signature of CO_2 shifting $\delta^{13}C$ toward more positive signature. These microbial processes have not been identified in our beach context. The similarity of the $\delta^{13}C$ signature between Dziani lake and these few ground sites discussed is unrealistic also because the mentioned soil degassing area is far from Dziani lake, while instead very close to the BAS (a few tens of meters). As a consequence, we should expect an isotopic signature closer to that measured in BAS fluids. Moreover, it is difficult to explain alongside the entire dataset presented here, especially considering that the Karthala data fall within a range comparable to the bubbling data at Petite Terre. The second hypothesis invokes an isotopic fractionation that may be ascribed to the interference with the (salty) aquifer, which in turn should determine more negative isotopic values. In addition, the composition of soil gas samples collected at Mayotte do not show detectable CO_2 dissolution in water (see Figure S1 supplementary), therefore the interference of the aquifer at this site seems to be very modest. Regarding the third hypothesis, a curve of diffusive fractionation was modelled (green line in Figure 9) following Capasso et al. (2001):

$$\delta_i = -\Delta x \cdot \left(\frac{D_{j-a}}{D_{i-a}} - 1 \right) \cdot 10^3 ‰ \qquad (9)$$

where δ_i is the expected fractionated isotopic value of soil CO_2 sample; Δ_x is the variable molar fraction between CO_2 in air and in the sample; D is the binary diffusion coefficient of CO_2 in air; where specifically, D_j is related to ^{12}C, and D_i is related to ^{13}C. In our case, the diffusivity ratio of

carbon in CO_2 (by the way $D_{j\text{-}a}/D_{i\text{-}a}$) is equal to 1.0044 (from Reid et al., 1977). For these samples, which were collected in the area close to the bubbling zone, it is therefore reasonable to consider a variable grade of isotopic diffusive fractionation that modified gases with a starting isotopic signature probably close to the bubbling gas thus leading to the conclusion that a kinetic diffusive fractionation might be the main process acting in this specific zone of the island.

We are aware that a wider dataset would certainly contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the various processes responsible of the isotopic signature in soil CO_2 gas at Petite Terre. We however underline that the most significant results from this dataset support the hypothesis of a clear fingerprint of an active magmatic source into soil CO2 emissions which has not been clearly identified on the volcano flanks of Karthala. Consequently, we conclude that the high CO_2 fluxes from the BAS tidal area and the time evolution of their He isotopic signature, together with the stronger magmatic CO_2 contribution emissions diffused on land at Petite Terre, potentially record the large magmatic and volcanic event occurring on the submarine flanks of the island. On the contrary, we can anticipate that the future reactivation of Karthala volcano should be recorded by a significant change in CO_2 emissions from the soil in terms of both fluxes, areal distribution and isotopic composition, as observed on other active volcanoes (Liuzzo et al. 2013).

6. Conclusion

This work presents the results of recent campaigns for the measurement of soil, fumarolic and bubbling gas emissions in two islands within the Comoros archipelago: Grande Comore and Mayotte. Although the measurement campaigns of soil CO_2 emissions are not exhaustive for the entire territory of these two islands, the first results show that they are spatially distributed along the main structural features of both Grande Comore and Petite Terre. A significant difference is found in the origin of the CO_2 emitted from the soil. The carbon isotopic signature of soil CO_2 emissions highlights evidence of a low magmatic contribution at distal areas of Karthala volcano, and a significantly higher magmatic contribution in CO_2 emissions at Petite Terre.

Gas geochemistry of fumarolic fields at Karthala (Grande Comore), and bubbling gases at Mayotte fall within the typical range of MORB-type mantle source. Compared with La Reunion dataset (Liuzzo et al., 2015; Boudoire et al., 2018), the Comoros islands dataset shows a CH_4 enrichment, and a variable degree of air contamination.

The isotopic signature of helium ($^3He/^4He$) in gas emissions confirms relatively low Rc/Ra values (4.18-7.53) for the entire archipelago compared to other volcanic systems in the Indian Ocean such as Reunion (12-14.6). $^3He/^4He$ data are consistent with average values of fluid inclusions for both Karthala and Petite Terre, spanning in the interval of 6.41≤ Rc/Ra ≤ 7.53 at Petite Terre and 4.68 ≤ Rc/Ra ≤ 5.87 at Karthala. The origin of CO_2 in the fumarolic emissions is basically magmatic (-5.7; -3.2) with no evidence of significant organic or sedimentary contribution for both Grande Comore and Mayotte.

Based on the CO_2, H_2, H_2O and CH_4 contents, a hydrothermal system below Mayotte has been recognized with an equilibrium temperature of ~ 300°C. Water-gas interaction process has been detected in Mayotte resulting in a partial CO_2 dissolution in water. The methane of the hydrothermal system seems to be abiogenic in origin.

The differences recognized between Grande Comore and Mayotte may be ascribed to the different states of volcanic activity at the two islands at the time of the surveys. Soil CO_2 emissions at Grande Comore are generally dominated by biogenic origin while there is a clear magmatic CO_2 contribution in Petite Terre.

Moreover, the increased value of Rc/Ra between 2008 and 2018-19 at Mayotte coupled to a not fully-reached isotopic equilibrium of the pair $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$-$\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ in the hydrothermal fluids may be ascribed to the recent volcanic activity which generated the new submarine volcano 45 km offshore from Petite Terre.

Further investigations and a suitable geochemical monitoring program are needed to better understand the complex volcanic system of Comoros archipelago. Nevertheless, our results show some clues of a potential volcano activity of Mayotte which opens important scenarios for the implication regarding procedures aimed to reduce volcanic hazard in this region.

Acknowledgments

This work is part of the PhD (XXXIV cycle) of Marco Liuzzo at the University of Ferrara. The work has been partially founded by INGV (GECO project Fondi Ricerca libera 2019 INGV) and by REVOSIMA Initiative (IPGP, CNRS, BRGM, IFREMER) for fieldwork and analytical activities. We are grateful to CNDRS of Moroni for the local assistance to our team, as well as thankful to the Interreg Hatari support to A. Di Muro e B. Shafik. All datasets for this research are included in this paper (and its supplementary information files) and listed in tables 1-3 and table S1. Dataset not

included in the mentioned tables, which are showed in the figures 3, 4, 7, 9, S2, are available through the inside references cited and also listed in the final reference section.

The authors are very thankful to P. Allard for lending us the accumulation chamber for soil CO_2 surveys and C. Ventura Bordenga for his invaluable support on the Karthala field. We also thank INGV, Sezione di Palermo, for allowing the access to the analytical facilities. In particular, we are grateful to S. Cappuzzo who provided some of the technical equipment, F. Salerno and M. Longo for performing analyses of gases chemistry, M. Tantillo and M. Misseri for carrying out the noble gases isotopic measurements in the laboratory, G. Capasso, Y. Oliveri and A. Sollami for providing CO_2 and CH_4 isotopic analysis in the stable isotopes laboratory.

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1257

Table 2 – Soil CO_2 flux (g m^{-2} d^{-1}) surveys at Grande Comore and Mayotte

1258

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	-11.760030	43.358620	0.00
2	-11.760120	43.358940	992.60
3	-11.760440	43.359140	0.00
4	-11.760070	43.359300	0.00
5	-11.760150	43.359830	5378.00
6	-11.760410	43.360290	8.90
7	-11.760550	43.361020	0.00
8	-11.760560	43.361840	0.00
9	-11.760500	43.362970	0.00
10	-11.760040	43.363590	0.00
11	-11.758290	43.362920	30.20
12	-11.758200	43.362060	0.00
13	-11.757630	43.361340	1242.70
14	-11.758260	43.361440	5.70
15	-11.758390	43.360850	24.50
16	-11.758310	43.360750	153.50
17	-11.758460	43.360220	7.90
18	-11.758430	43.359810	0.00
19	-11.758320	43.359130	21.30
20	-11.758320	43.359790	6931.00
21	-11.756940	43.356410	0.00
22	-11.756960	43.357310	0.00
23	-	43.358240	0.00

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	11.756970		
24	-11.756920	43.359290	4.00
25	-11.757020	43.360120	1.30
26	-11.756930	43.361020	4.60
27	-11.756870	43.361130	9811.10
28	-11.756960	43.361920	0.00
29	-11.756930	43.362760	0.00
30	-11.753250	43.364720	0.00
31	-11.753290	43.363780	0.00
32	-11.753240	43.362890	0.00
33	-11.753270	43.361690	0.00
34	-11.753660	43.360930	0.00
35	-11.753490	43.359830	0.00
36	-11.749920	43.361890	0.00
37	-11.749930	43.361090	0.00
38	-11.750010	43.360040	0.00
39	-11.749950	43.359240	0.00
40	-11.749550	43.358340	0.00
41	-11.753260	43.355550	0.00
42	-11.753240	43.359270	0.00
43	-11.753320	43.358290	0.00
44	-11.753340	43.357310	0.00
45	-11.734620	43.356290	0.00

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
46	-11.731600	43.356970	0.00
47	-11.728210	43.356650	2.50
48	-11.727900	43.357430	2.60
49	-11.728070	43.358410	1.10
50	-11.727990	43.359880	1.50
51	-11.728090	43.360430	1.40
52	-11.728050	43.361270	1.90
53	-11.727940	43.362010	4.70
54	-11.728060	43.363120	9.10
55	-11.728050	43.363840	3.60
56	-11.727720	43.364480	3.80
57	-11.732320	43.363310	21.50
58	-11.732320	43.363260	796.70
59	-11.732820	43.362400	0.00
60	-11.731670	43.362060	10.10
61	-11.731540	43.361200	6.10
62	-11.731630	43.360350	3.30
63	-11.731850	43.359590	7.20
64	-11.731530	43.357740	4.10
65	-11.735020	43.357890	5.30
66	-11.735290	43.358390	8.10
67	-11.735430	43.359460	4.90
68	-	43.360180	8.00

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	11.735390		
69	-11.735350	43.361070	3.20
70	-11.735510	43.362140	1.30
71	-11.735580	43.362880	3.00
72	-11.735400	43.361130	0.00
73	-11.734460	43.361040	0.00
74	-11.733640	43.360980	1.30
75	-11.732860	43.360950	1.60
76	-11.731890	43.360570	5.80
77	-11.730180	43.359770	6.30
78	-11.729260	43.359940	1.80
79	-11.728800	43.360780	1.60
80	-11.730240	43.360810	4.80
81	-11.730710	43.361680	4.80
82	-11.731120	43.362160	6.60
83	-11.733480	43.362250	2.10
84	-11.734470	43.362340	6.70
85	-11.734260	43.363090	3.40
86	-11.733520	43.363050	2.70
87	-11.732700	43.363090	8.50
88	-11.731730	43.363020	2.80
89	-11.731340	43.363770	6.00
90	-11.731630	43.364810	8.20

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
91	-11.732660	43.364940	6.10
92	-11.733500	43.365130	7.50
93	-11.734420	43.364980	1.30
94	-11.735480	43.365060	2.90
95	-11.735480	43.364010	5.40
96	-11.734120	43.364140	313.40
97	-11.733950	43.364120	8994.00
98	-11.733710	43.364130	553.70
99	-11.733580	43.364050	175.80
100	-11.733390	43.363960	3046.10
101	-11.732920	43.363410	17364.40
102	-11.732400	43.363310	396.10
103	-11.735470	43.365470	4.50
104	-11.735410	43.366680	4.20
105	-11.735290	43.367860	1.60
106	-11.734920	43.368590	2.70
107	-11.734950	43.369160	1.50
108	-11.735100	43.370020	1.30
109	-11.734880	43.371330	4.30
110	-11.734890	43.372370	0.00
111	-11.731630	43.372480	5.30
112	-11.727760	43.371830	2.70
113	-11.728050	43.370230	3.00
114	-11.728340	43.369200	13.50
11	-	43.368350	1.30

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
5	11.728570		
116	-11.728670	43.367390	2.60
117	-11.728860	43.366670	5.70
118	-11.728690	43.365970	4.80
119	-11.728840	43.365040	4.40
120	-11.729510	43.365180	0.00
121	-11.730080	43.365400	9.00
122	-11.731050	43.365570	1.20
123	-11.731370	43.366580	5.50
124	-11.731860	43.367570	0.50
125	-11.731190	43.368440	4.00
126	-11.731050	43.369530	1.10
127	-11.731810	43.370240	3.00
128	-11.732570	43.370970	2.20
129	-11.738900	43.372030	4.40
130	-11.738920	43.371310	4.20
131	-11.738890	43.370270	1.60
132	-11.738950	43.369280	2.70
133	-11.738940	43.368460	1.50
134	-11.738900	43.367580	1.30
135	-11.738890	43.366800	4.20
136	-11.738880	43.365750	0.00
137	-11.738770	43.365270	2.50
138	-11.738960	43.363820	1.10
139	-11.738840	43.363260	1.50

	Grande Comore 2014		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
140	-11.739020	43.361900	1.40
141	-11.738830	43.361170	1.90
142	-11.738850	43.360300	4.60
143	-11.738890	43.359250	8.90
144	-11.738860	43.358360	3.60
145	-11.738570	43.357640	3.70
146	-11.738800	43.356490	21.10
147	-11.742410	43.360250	1.30
148	-11.742630	43.361150	2.20
149	-11.742560	43.362230	2.90
150	-11.742500	43.363040	7.20
151	-11.742550	43.363730	3.30
152	-11.742620	43.364710	6.00
153	-11.742450	43.365780	10.00
154	-11.742530	43.366600	0.00
155	-11.742480	43.367530	7.80

	Grande Comore 2017		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	-11.579000	43.311000	32.10
2	-11.525000	43.337000	15.10
3	-11.879000	43.407000	22.66
4	-11.872000	43.399000	18.88
5	-11.735000	43.329000	18.88
6	-11.735000	43.329000	47.20
7	-11.734000	43.328000	33.98
8	-11.733000	43.327000	18.88
9	-11.732000	43.326000	52.86
10	-11.731000	43.326000	45.31
11	-11.730000	43.324000	16.99
12	-11.728000	43.323000	22.66
13	-11.723000	43.250000	24.54
14	-11.725000	43.249000	168.07
15	-11.727000	43.250000	239.87
16	-11.730000	43.250000	32.10
17	-11.730000	43.249000	20.77
18	-11.732000	43.250000	30.21
19	-11.734000	43.249000	33.98
20	-11.737000	43.250000	24.54
21	-11.720000	43.249000	13.22
22	-11.849000	43.332000	20.77
23	-11.849000	43.330000	256.89
24	-11.849000	43.328000	41.54
25	-	43.328000	98.18

	Grande Comore 2017		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	-11.849000		
26	-11.848000	43.321000	18.88
27	-11.847000	43.316000	49.09
28	-11.846000	43.314000	79.30
29	-11.847000	43.311000	54.75
30	-11.846000	43.306000	179.40
31	-11.844000	43.303000	22.66
32	-11.842000	43.301000	18.88
33	-11.840000	43.299000	18.88
34	-11.837000	43.297000	11.33
35	-11.833000	43.292000	120.84
36	-11.829000	43.288000	145.40
37	-11.784000	43.271000	30.21
38	-11.780000	43.267000	226.64
39	-11.778000	43.265000	160.51
40	-11.775000	43.264000	457.58
41	-11.719000	43.249000	16.99
42	-11.721000	43.245000	22.66
43	-11.723000	43.245000	16.99
44	-11.727000	43.244000	60.42
45	-11.728000	43.243000	22.66
46	-11.728000	43.240000	22.66
47	-11.730000	43.242000	15.10
48	-11.733000	43.241000	226.64
49	-11.735000	43.240000	118.96

	Grande Comore 2017		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
50	-11.737000	43.240000	94.41
51	-11.740000	43.240000	43.42
52	-11.742000	43.239000	16.99
53	-11.747000	43.238000	22.66
54	-11.748000	43.235000	50.98
55	-11.752000	43.236000	52.86
56	-11.759000	43.239000	11.33
57	-11.759000	43.244000	37.76
58	-11.560000	43.273000	9.44
59	-11.566000	43.272000	94.41
60	-11.570000	43.271000	13.22
61	-11.577000	43.269000	18.88
62	-11.584000	43.267000	35.87
63	-11.588000	43.266000	103.85
64	-11.592000	43.266000	109.51
65	-11.597000	43.263000	11.33
66	-11.609000	43.263000	13.22
67	-11.629000	43.307000	20.77
68	-11.626000	43.309000	306.06
69	-11.622000	43.312000	20.77
70	-11.618000	43.314000	135.95
71	-11.616000	43.315000	62.31
72	-11.594000	43.378000	147.29
73	-11.591000	43.382000	16.99
74	-	43.404000	98.18

	Grande Comore 2017		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	11.429000		
75	-11.427000	43.399000	39.65
76	-11.438000	43.399000	120.84
77	-11.447000	43.402000	100.07
78	-11.454000	43.402000	22.66
79	-11.610000	43.365000	16.99
80	-11.612000	43.363000	228.53
81	-11.614000	43.357000	24.54
82	-11.613000	43.350000	24.54
83	-11.610000	43.346000	71.75
84	-11.611000	43.341000	13.22

	Grande Comore 2018		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	-11.876616	43.480066	7.55
2	-11.878802	43.481346	7.55
3	-11.879880	43.477517	13.22
4	-11.879253	43.472302	7.55
5	-11.882023	43.469274	13.22
6	-11.885114	43.468817	9.44
7	-11.884848	43.465353	11.33
8	-11.885446	43.457200	7.55
9	-11.886513	43.452216	18.88
10	-11.888558	43.445997	28.32
11	-	43.442657	33.98

	Grande Comore 2018		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	11.890019		
12	-11.890607	43.440029	22.66
13	-11.893221	43.435186	20.77
14	-11.894565	43.430336	28.32
15	-11.756312	43.355270	7.55
16	-11.758078	43.357018	9.44
17	-11.757963	43.357585	7.55
18	-11.757925	43.357977	9.44
19	-11.758013	43.358559	9.44
20	-11.757705	43.358812	7.55
21	-11.757610	43.359170	16.99
22	-11.757605	43.359566	30.21
23	-11.757513	43.359916	22.66
24	-11.757327	43.360275	11.33
25	-11.757155	43.360631	802.29
26	-11.757020	43.360974	951.98
27	-11.756931	43.361213	45.31
28	-11.756826	43.361449	283.36
29	-11.756816	43.361700	32.10
30	-11.756957	43.362062	9.44
31	-11.757067	43.362450	7.55
32	-11.757152	43.362882	7.55
33	-11.732509	43.363215	15.10
34	-11.637843	43.376308	11.33
35	-11.636014	43.375007	22.66

	Grande Comore 2018		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
36	-11.634025	43.373187	7.55
37	-11.632313	43.371923	7.55
38	-11.628818	43.372358	9.44
39	-11.628904	43.372267	13.22
40	-11.627732	43.368685	9.44
41	-11.627151	43.365583	7.55
42	-11.622232	43.365063	5.66
43	-11.619964	43.363529	5.66
44	-11.615842	43.359638	47.20
45	-11.614397	43.355913	7.55
46	-11.613988	43.352644	7.55
47	-11.613266	43.350659	16.99
48	-11.611125	43.349181	30.21
49	-11.609914	43.345950	11.33
50	-11.612037	43.338725	28.32
51	-11.613682	43.333515	9.44
52	-11.614027	43.329282	7.55
53	-11.614261	43.324552	9.44
54	-11.614549	43.322405	20.77
55	-11.614855	43.317845	20.77
56	-11.615610	43.314634	16.99
57	-11.618371	43.313629	28.32
58	-11.621824	43.312271	9.44
59	-11.626042	43.308930	105.74
60	-	43.309033	56.64

	Grande Comore 2018		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
	11.625871		
61	-11.626137	43.308888	120.84
62	-11.780161	43.267323	67.97
63	-11.770174	43.261717	11.33
64	-11.759701	43.256409	37.76
65	-11.758396	43.242995	84.96

	Mayotte 2019		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	45.286856	-12.799818	50.66
2	45.286886	-12.799780	3.50
3	45.286808	-12.799860	7.62
4	45.286780	-12.799913	4.02
5	45.286777	-12.799973	9.68
6	45.286748	-12.799982	5.70
7	45.286731	-12.800008	5.66
8	45.286717	-12.800075	3.90
9	45.286699	-12.800123	4.26
10	45.286686	-12.800178	3.95
11	45.286703	-12.800208	30.90
12	45.286661	-12.800261	2.92
13	45.286664	-12.800280	4.80
14	45.286682	-12.800339	2.04
15	45.286693	-12.800380	0.52
16	45.286672	-12.800439	1.64
17	45.286711	-12.800493	2.28
18	45.285713	-12.800167	5.28
19	45.285764	-12.800136	4.86
20	45.285806	-12.800110	12.65
21	45.285844	-12.800085	8.40
22	45.285883	-12.800070	17.57
23	45.285907	-12.800087	5.70
24	45.286072	-12.800006	22.82
25	45.286160	-12.800000	9.00
26	45.286118	-12.799945	17.06
27	45.286107	-12.799880	7.76
28	45.286142	-12.799805	5.36
29	45.286244	-12.799578	21.54

	Mayotte 2019		CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
30	45.286335	-12.799336	41.57
31	45.286491	-12.799352	14.70
32	45.286694	-12.799469	19.13
33	45.286883	-12.799525	6.48
34	45.287022	-12.799293	11.90
35	45.287079	-12.799116	8.10
36	45.287149	-12.798782	12.95
37	45.282678	-12.805537	0.45
38	45.282875	-12.805612	1.18
39	45.283069	-12.805955	0.00
40	45.282586	-12.805040	1.63
41	45.282379	-12.805167	1.00
42	45.277490	-12.802276	0.00
43	45.277386	-12.802210	0.00
44	45.277352	-12.802227	0.00
45	45.277246	-12.802167	4.45
46	45.277162	-12.802143	4.36
47	45.277292	-12.802176	1.21
48	45.277152	-12.802055	8.00
49	45.277126	-12.801957	1.64
50	45.277061	-12.801850	0.52
51	45.276823	-12.801281	15.70
52	45.276858	-12.801248	4.21
53	45.284543	-12.799820	11.56
54	45.284848	-12.799386	37.94
55	45.284923	-12.799228	173.44
56	45.285052	-12.799154	39.81
57	45.285033	-12.797719	0.00
58	45.285041	-12.797734	11.98
59	45.284897	-12.797933	4.84
60	45.284909	-12.798320	27.11
61	45.284959	-12.798641	13.28
62	45.284912	-12.798811	42.42
63	45.284776	-12.799008	9.62
64	45.285290	-12.797520	1.69
65	45.285442	-12.797118	2.12
66	45.285659	-12.796799	6.87
67	45.284645	-12.801006	2.36
68	45.284708	-12.800662	3.18
69	45.286793	-12.800945	3.26
70	45.288012	-12.799281	2.55
71	45.287850	-12.799243	0.49
72	45.287528	-12.799367	0.00
73	45.287306	-12.799543	4.04
74	45.287123	-12.799624	1.61

Mayotte 2019			CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
75	45.281475	-12.795606	1.99
76	45.281311	-12.796021	4.06
77	45.281218	-12.796457	6.18
78	45.281190	-12.797037	6.81
79	45.281312	-12.797480	2.53
80	45.281154	-12.798122	2.03
81	45.280780	-12.798222	7.22
82	45.281349	-12.797331	2.60
83	45.282582	-12.798498	5.60
84	45.282209	-12.799108	1.80
85	45.280079	-12.792672	1.06
86	45.279778	-12.793405	1.45
87	45.279577	-12.794203	3.39
88	45.279207	-12.795135	13.83
89	45.279342	-12.795964	0.00
90	45.278689	-12.796682	3.46
91	45.278386	-12.797120	2.67
92	45.278279	-12.797905	16.76
93	45.277967	-12.798124	0.00
94	45.277448	-12.798648	7.81
95	45.255220	-12.782986	1.97
96	45.255288	-12.781948	3.81
97	45.254958	-12.781035	0.00
98	45.257887	-12.783449	2.11
99	45.260400	-12.785424	3.47
100	45.261339	-12.786133	2.61
101	45.262178	-12.786088	0.00
102	45.261778	-12.785416	3.32
103	45.264903	-12.787605	5.05
104	45.268356	-12.789905	5.71
105	45.268894	-12.791590	2.73
106	45.273430	-12.794984	8.00
107	45.274379	-12.794448	5.34
108	45.275029	-12.794076	1.03
109	45.275483	-12.793842	2.43
110	45.275939	-12.793916	7.21

Mayotte 2019			CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
111	45.276297	-12.793910	12.45
112	45.276781	-12.793827	3.11
113	45.277189	-12.793428	2.68
114	45.277539	-12.792994	1.97
115	45.278188	-12.792446	5.57
116	45.280727	-12.766360	0.00
117	45.280762	-12.768051	0.39
118	45.279645	-12.770106	2.52
119	45.279858	-12.771997	3.38
120	45.280814	-12.774220	2.93
121	45.281827	-12.776119	1.50
122	45.294567	-12.783769	1.70
123	45.293457	-12.784258	6.53
124	45.292021	-12.784650	3.35
125	45.290841	-12.785500	26.03
126	45.289486	-12.785186	6.06
127	45.288814	-12.784143	10.06
128	45.288652	-12.783974	11.54
129	45.289141	-12.783073	6.76
130	45.288129	-12.782416	1.27
131	45.286670	-12.781859	4.26
132	45.285204	-12.782200	0.00
133	45.283348	-12.782728	6.09

Mayotte Bubbling Area Sea 2019			CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	45.288840	-12.800657	33304.40
2	45.288840	-12.800657	33304.40
3	45.288818	-12.800576	29549.64
4	45.288818	-12.800576	29549.64
5	45.288787	-12.800533	20025.38
6	45.288787	-12.800533	20025.38
7	45.288766	-12.800518	21481.59
8	45.288766	-12.800518	21481.59
9	45.288766	-12.800518	21481.59
10	45.288766	-12.800518	21481.59
11	45.288734	-12.800502	34896.13
12	45.288734	-12.800502	34896.13
13	45.288676	-12.800483	22764.99
14	45.288611	-12.800534	27874.64
15	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
16	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
17	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
18	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
19	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
20	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
21	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
22	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
23	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
24	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.

Mayotte 2019			CO2 flux [g/(m² day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
			93
25	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
26	45.288257	-12.799866	12330.93
27	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
28	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
29	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
30	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
31	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
32	45.287666	-12.800374	35046.24
33	45.287361	-12.800153	18028.15
34	45.287361	-12.800153	18028.15
35	45.287361	-12.800153	18028.15
36	45.287361	-12.800153	18028.15
37	45.287364	-12.800154	47932.23
38	45.287370	-12.800155	12824.78
39	45.287392	-12.800154	13008.43
40	45.287356	-12.800126	18762.74
41	45.287356	-12.800126	18762.74
42	45.287388	-12.800106	23629.43
43	45.287388	-12.800106	23629.43
44	45.287388	-12.800106	23629.43
45	45.287402	-12.800144	136.21
46	45.288553	-12.800236	35046.24
47	45.289069	-12.800259	70485.66
48	45.289104	-12.800310	17064.31
49	45.289178	-12.800359	26435.

	Mayotte 2019		CO2 flux [g/(m^2 day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
			94
50	45.289290	-12.800481	8730.58
51	45.289524	-12.800485	5952.67
52	45.289584	-12.800270	15537.98
53	45.289039	-12.800000	14289.19

	Mayotte 2020		CO2 flux [g/(m^2 day)]
	Latitude	Longitude	
1	45.28444	-12.7644	4.81
2	45.28326	-12.7654	6.69
3	45.28096	-12.7656	5.95
4	45.28058	-12.7681	15.93
5	45.27964	-12.7702	34.82
6	45.27978	-12.7718	17.22
7	45.28066	-12.7736	26.00
8	45.28116	-12.7753	17.04
9	45.28222	-12.7771	13.72
10	45.28137	-12.7787	16.14
11	45.28062	-12.7801	15.93
12	45.27904	-12.7812	29.44
13	45.27759	-12.7818	39.00
14	45.27644	-12.7828	8.52
15	45.27516	-12.7842	4.78
16	45.27395	-12.7852	48.00
17	45.27289	-12.7863	8.96
18	45.26905	-12.7873	10.93
19	45.26936	-12.7895	19.95
20	45.26946	-12.7896	3.85
21	45.26819	-12.789	7.94
22	45.2847	-12.7824	62.91
23	45.28392	-12.7826	159.30
24	45.28293	-12.7828	28.73
25	45.28168	-12.783	6.07
26	45.28016	-12.7838	48.72
27	45.27952	-12.7842	14.55
28	45.27929	-12.7856	13.95
29	45.2793	-12.7856	37.36
30	45.27905	-12.7868	4.03
31	45.27994	-12.7891	15.85
32	45.28001	-12.7911	12.56
33	45.28612	-12.7999	29.08

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Table 3 – Synopsis of soil CO_2 results and relative method used and year of measurements

CO_2 flux [g m^{-2} day^{-1}]	Grande Comore	Grande Comore		Mayotte		Mayotte Bubbling Sea
	2014	2017	2018	2019	2020	2019
Min	0.0	9.44	5.66	0.0	3.85	12.2
Max	17364.4	457.58	951.98	173.4	159.3	70485.7
Average	365.6	67.61	51.91	8.2	23.90	21084.0
σ	1886.3	79.41	153.91	17.0	28.39	12045.2
	Accumulation Chamber	***Dynamic Concentration (K=30)***		***Accumulation Chamber***		***Accumulation Chamber***