- Review article: Brief history of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area (Campania, 1
- 2 Southern Italy): **AA** critical review

- 4 Stefano Carlino
- 5 Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, Sezione di Napoli, Osservatorio Vesuviano
- 6 Corrispondence Correspondence: stefano.carlino@ingv.it

7

- 8 **Abstract**
- 9 The presence of three active volcanoes (Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei and Ischia Island) along the coast 10 of Naples did not constrained the huge expansion of the urbanized zones around 11 them. On the contrary, since Greekthe Greco-Roman era, volcanoes have beenfeatured among the 12 favorite favourite sites for people who colonized colonising the Campania region. Stable The stable 13 settlements around Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei caldera and the Island of Ischia were progressively 14 enlarged, reaching theattaining maximum growth-rate between 1950 and 1980. Between 1982 and 15 1984, Neapolitan people Neapolitans faced the last and most dramatic volcanic crises, which occurred 16 at Campi Flegrei (Pozzuoli), without an eruption. Since that time, volcanologists have focused 17 thetheir attention on the problem of riskrisks associated towith eruptions in the Neapolitan area, but a systematic strategy to reduce the very high volcanic risk of this -zone is still laekslacking. A brief

18 19

obtainprovide new food for thought for the scientific community which that works to for the mitigation

history of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan district is narrated here reported, tryingin an effort to

of volcanic risk ofin this area.

21

22 23 **Keywords**: Neapolitan volcanoes, volcanic risk, volcanic hazard, risk mitigation, human settlements.

24 25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

20

1. Introduction

The district aroundregion surrounding Naples is one of the most-risky volcanic area in the Worldworld, due to the presence of three active volcanoes, the Vesuvius, the Campi Flegrei caldera and the Island of Ischia, which areis inhabited by more than 1,500,000 people, directly exposed to the risk (Alberico et al., 2011; Carlino, 2019) (Fig. 1). These volcanoes have been are capable to generateof generating a wide range of eruptions, from gentlygentle lava flow to those triggering catastrophic events effects and were active in historical times (the last eruption occurred occurring in 1944 at Vesuvius, in 1538 at Campi Flegrei and in 1302 at Ischia Island). Larger eruptions at Vesuvius generated the devastation of have devastated entire sectors of territory territories around the volcano,

up to a distance of 10-km to _20 km from the vent, such as was observed in the case of 79 AD 35 36 (Pompei) and 31,800 BC(Avellino) events,), respectively. At least two large caldera-forming eruptions occurred at Campi Flegrei (the Campania Ignimbrite (CI₅), ~39 ka, and the Neapolitan 37 38 Yellow Tuff (NYT₅), ~15 ka), which involved the wholeentire Campania Plain, such as the case of 39 the CI event. At Ischia, a large eruption occurred about 55 ka ago, while the subsequent activity was 40 mostly confined inside within the island (Piochide Vita et al., 20052010; De Vivo et al., 2006; 41 Mastrolorenzo et al., 2006; de VitaPiochi et al., 20102005). In figureFigure 2, a sketch of the eruptive 42 history of Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei and Ischia is reported (from presented (Piochi et al., 2005).

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

On one hand, volcanoes and their activity produced fertile soils for farming, hot waters and lakes for human recreation, raw materials and natural inlets along the coast for sea navigators (Carlino et al., 2010a; Scarpati et al., 2016). These features, make the Neapolitan area a favorable favourable site tofor human settlements and to the development of a local economy. On the other hand However, volcanic activity generated large devastations of has greatly devastated the area and left behind many victims (Scarpati et al., 2013). The city of Naples itself stands on various volcanic eenterscentres and, in particular, on the extended deposits of the NYT eruption (~15 ka) which generated); this eruption triggered the collapse of the present Campi Flegrei caldera (Isaia et al., 2009; Scarpati et al., 2013), the eastern rim of which is the site where an important residential area of the city (the *Posillipo hill*) stands (Fig. 3). Analyzing Analysing the most crucial historical moments whichthat marked the relationship between humans and Neapolitan volcanoes, is fundamental to understandunderstanding why so many people are nowadays livingresiding in a such a hazardous area. On the other sidehand, we need to also to analyze analyse the development of the research in volcanology and its impact in mitigating the risk of this highly inhabited area. During In the long history of relations between humans and Neapolitan volcanoes, a few important notable milestone events must be mentioned: the Pompei 79 AD eruption, reconstructed by the letters of Plinian the Younger; the eruption of Vesuvius of 1631 which, after almost 500 years of quiescence, openedushered a long period of continuous volcanic activity which endedending in 1944; the systematic exploration of Pompei (buried by the 79 AD event) starting from 1748; the foundation of the "Osservatorio Vesuviano" (Vesuvius Observatory) under the Bourbons domination; in 1841; the eruption of Vesuvius in 1944, which closed the activity of the volcano; and the unrests erisis occurred crises at Campi Flegrei caldera in 1970-72 and 1982-84 (Barberi et al., 1984; Cubellis et al., 2015; Giacomelli et al., 2003; Scandone et al., 2008; Perrotta and& Scarpati, 2009; CubellisScandone et al., 2015). In particular 2008). Particularly, in this paper, the latter two crises at Campi Flegrei will be discussed, since as they occurred during an important moment of challenges a challenging time in the field of the Earth Science and during the period of the improvement of volcanoes when volcanomonitoring networks were being improved and of the policies for management and prevention of the

risks in the Neapolitan area altered (Carlino, 2019). Starting formfrom that time, the problem of volcanic hazard and risk in the Neapolitan area has been systematically treated by manyseveral authors, trying to quantify the equation of the risk: risk = hazard x vulnerability x exposed value (see Blong, 1996 and the references therein). A larger part of the studies has been aimed to assessat assessing the hazard and, to a lesser extent, the risk (see, for instance Scandone, Mastrolorenzo et al., 19932006; Petrosino et al., 2004; Mastrolorenzo Scandone et al., 20061993) and the risk perception of communities exposed to potential volcanic activity (Carlino et al., 2008; Ricci et al., 2013). On the other sidehand, the primary drivers of vulnerability may be socio-economic, cultural and political, and so policy changes and reducing reduction of social inequality are more important than a-merely measuring of vulnerability itself. As discussed later, this topic encompasses social and policy sciences rather than volcanology. Other authors have debated the criteria usedadopted to identify the most risked area in the Neapolitan volcanic district (e.g. the red zones), criticising the emergency plan of Vesuvius, or proposing an alternative perspective to reduce the risk (De Natale et al., 2020; De Vivo et al., 2010; Dobran, 2000, 2007; Matsrolorenzo et al., 2006; De Vivo et al., 2010; Rolandi, 2010; De Natale et al., 2020).). Although the increasing of risk in this district has occurred since been becoming <u>increasingly vulnerable for</u> about 50 years ago, only in recent timetimes (starting from the early 2000) a number of have attempts been made to reduce its exposed values has been carried on, but, though unsuccessfully. Possibly, a more general analysis, from both the historical and scientific points of view, to understand the reasons why the attempts to reduce the volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area have systematically failed is necessary. It is not intention of this This paper does not intend to faceexamine such a complex issue, which deserves a wider, longer and multidisciplinary discussion, but <u>sparing</u> a thought <u>about for</u> this topic is <u>required</u>. <u>In thisessential</u>. <u>This</u> paper, it is <u>reported</u> <u>reports</u> a brief history of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area, and an account of recent studies and policies adopted to reduce the risk. As it will be showedshown, new proposals to mitigate the volcanic risk of this area could be ineffective if we do not take into account analyse the reasons why previous attempts to reduce the volcanic risk in Neapolitan area have failed. Furthermore, it is important to define, as more clearly as possible, the role of volcanologists in facing volcanic emergency and risk education policies in this high urbanized highly urbanised area.

98

99

100

101

102

103

70

71

72

73

74

75

7677

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

2. The progressive human settlement of Neapolitan volcanoes

The history of risk of Neapolitan volcanoes beginsharks back to before the birth of Christ, when the first stable population settled in the plain along Vesuvius and the Campi Flegrei caldera (Pappalardo, 2007). The great Greek geographer Strabo (64 B.C.-._19 A.D) reported provided in his work "Geography" one of the first descriptiondescriptions of the Campania Plain and its surroundings and

denoted, commenting on the splendorsplendour of these places, dominated by the presence of Vesuvius and bordered by mountains which extended extending along the sea forming the Gulf of Naples (Strabone, XIV-XXIII A.D.). Otherwise, it would seem that the The first and most ancient human settlements in Campania date back to the Paleolithic, mainly Palaeolithic period, primarily along the coasts of the Sorrento Peninsula. As far as we know, a According to Mastrolorenzo et al., (2006), , the first evidence of the disruption of disrupted human activity due to volcanic eruption in this area dates back about 3,800 years (Mastrolorenzo et al., 2006)... This is in fact the age of an ancient Bronze Age village near Nola, about 11 km north of Mount Vesuvius, where archaeological excavations uncovered archaeologists excavated a human village with many several findings in a state of excellent conservation. It was a massive explosive eruption explosion of Vesuvius (the Avellino eruption, 3,800 years ago) that had sealed the village beneath hot ash (Mastrolorenzo et al., 2006), in a fate similar to what happened in that of Pompeii a few thousand years later. That was the time when the natural environment of Vesuvius showed a less friendly face, and humankind was confronted with unexpected adversities. In fact, the geology and the landscape of Campania were the mainchief attractions for the populations that colonized colonising this area, that which Romans later called "Campania felix" (from Latin "felix" = lucky, happy) (Montone, 2010). The expression derives not only from the beauty of the places, place but also from the fertility of theits soil-coming from, made fertile by the volcanic activity, the presence of streams and the gentleness of gentle climate. The broad river and coastal plains, the modest mountain ranges overlooking them, the steam and the various volcanic areas, the thermal waters and natural coastal inlets to protect sailors,—all combined together to transform the area into the crossroads of different eivilizations (Carlino, 2019). The Campi Flegrei area is also linked to the myth, possible due to the suggestion recalled by the continuous emission of hot steam and the boiling of mud pots. It was there, along the Lake of Averno (a volcanic crater close to the city of Pozzuoli), that the ancients placed the cave of the Cumaean Sibyl (motioned in the famous literary work "L'Eneide" of Virgilio) and the entrance to the afterlife (Azcuy, 2013). This crater lake exhaled vaporsvapours and volcanic gases that probably kept some animals away, from which it gotderived its Greek name, "aoèrnov;", that is, "without birds". Following the migration of the Etruscan population, from central Italy to the Campania plain, from the 9th to the 5th century B.C., the first early urban eenterscentres were established (Maiuri, 1957). These populations immigrants predominantly settled in the fertile lowlands of the Campanian Plain, along the rivers or close to the river-mouths. With the arrival of the Greeks, and the development of the maritime trade, the inhabitants of Campania migrated towards coastal areas and began to settlestarted settling in the volcanic areas of Ischia (called "Pithecusae") and, later, of Campi Flegrei and Vesuvius (D'Ascia, 1867). The Greeks arrived between the 9th and the 8th centuries B.C., from a long and narrow island close to the coast of modern-day south-east Greece, namely Euboea. On the Phlegrean side, ancient signs of stable habitation dating to a period between the 77th and 6th centuries

104 105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113 114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131 132

133

134

135

136

137

138

B.C., were founddiscovered in the Rione Terra, the old town of thein present-day Pozzuoli (Pappalardo, 2007). The historical eentercentre of this town stands on a small volcanic promontory that, at that time, played host to a modest Cumaean mooring. Between 529 and 528 B.C., some Samnite exiles, banned by the tyrant Polycrates, founded a colony on the promontory with the rigid name of named Dikaiarchia, meaning "Just Government", Government", integrated into a territory still controlled from Cumae (Annecchino, 1996). In 194 B.C., the Romans transformed this small colony into a town called Puteolis (hereafter Pozzuoli), thus named for its abundance of thermal springs. The town soon became an imposing port and warehousing area for large quantities of foodstuffs. Before that, Earlier, the Greeks had moved eastwards, establishing forming the first inhabited elements of the city of Naples (called Pharthenophe), between Mount Echia (Fig. 3), an upland of volcanic origin, and the island of Megaride where Castel dell'Ovo stands today (Ghirelli, 2015). The Greek population was faced with the hazard of volcanoes in the island of Ischia. In fact, their migration from Ischia towards the coast of Campania was possibly influenced by the eruptions in the western and southern parts of the island that followed from the fifth5th century B.C. onwards. Amidst the lavas and the ash of the fifth5th century B.C. eruption and close to the port of Ischia, an old ground level was excavated containing potsherds and other archaeological finds from the 66th and 5th centuries B.C., demonstrating the existence of an ancient Greek settlement destroyed in the eruption (Carlino et al., 2010a). It was Strabo to bearbore witness to the eruptions in the Greco-Roman era, writing: "...."...in ancient times a series of extraordinary events took place on the island of Pithecusae. [...] when Mount Epomeo, which rises in the middle of the island, was shaken by earthquakes and erupted fire and (again) swept away everything that lay between itself and the shore and into the sea. At the same time a part of the ground, reduced to ash and thrown upwards, fell back onto the island like a maelstrom and the sea retreated for a distance of three stadia (about 500 m) and, flowing back shortly afterward, flooded the island, extinguishing the fire. Such was the deafening noise that the inhabitants of the mainland fled from the coast to the inner regions of Campania." The towns of Naples and Pozzuoli, and the villages ofin the Vesuvius area, such as Pompeii, were expanding rapidly, knowing about the disasters of the Roman era, but rapidly with its citizens having to deal with the adverse forces generated by the volcanic nature of the area. While in historical times (starting from the former civilized civilised human settlements), the Campi Flegrei caldera and the island of Ischia generated small eruptions, the Vesuvius, on the contrary contrarily, demonstrated its power with the 79 A.D. eruption, which seriously affected the cities of Pompei and Ercolano and the southern part of the volcano (Giacomelli et al., 2003). During the longest period of expansion of the Western Roman Empire, the cities around the volcanoes had expanded progressively. The volcanic activity of Ischia of In the early centuries before Christ and its insular nature had, however, contained its demographic expansion. On the other sidehand, the quiescence of the Campi Flegrei in eruptive terms did not meanimply that the volcanic nature of these places had been forgotten; the continuous

140 141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

puffs of steam and the hot thermal springs being a clear sign of that. But served as haunting symbols. However, in the minds of the people at least, the hostile nature of these places, sometimes sinister, was associated with the mood of the gods, and not the actual nature of the area itself (Carlino, 2019). In this emergesemerged the vision perception of the natural disaster disasters as a divine punishments for humankind, a vision which view that remained rooted in the culture of people up to the 17th century (Cocco, 2012). Starting from With Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) era, a gradual change of the approach to the study of the Earth Science and the risk related to natural phenomena took place occurred.

A crucial moment in the history of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area took placecame in 1631 when, after a long-period of quiescence, Vesuvius awoke with an explosive (sub-plinian) eruption, beginning an almost continuous eruptive activity that only-ceased only in 1944 at the end of World War II (Cocco, 2012; Kilburn & McGuire, 2001; Rosi et al., 1993; Kilburn and McGuire, 2001; Cocco, 2012). However, here too a theological meaning was attributed to this calamitous event, as an expiation of punishments—and, in. In this sense, the eruption of 1631 represented—a symbolic an event, which affected that, in the coming centuries, affected not only volcanology but also other political, sociological, literary, and, above all, religious disciplines (Scarth, 2009). Although the 17th century was Aristotelian science still dominated by Aristotelian culturein the 17th century, it was also the beginning of its end as a result of the works of the Galileans and Cartesians (Fiorentino, 2015). It was a The period of greatwitnessed immense cultural transformations, with new impulses in the field of scientific research coming from with the introduction of the experimental method by Galileo Galilei (Rossi, 2020). A further Further support and impetus to the scientific revolution was provided were lent by the foundation of the Royal Society of London in 1662 and of Acadèmic Royale des Sciences in Paris.

Actually, the <u>Vesuvius</u> eruption of 1631 of <u>Vesuvius</u> was the first event <u>whichthat</u> focused the attention on the problem of volcanic risk. In fact, the suggestion to mitigate the volcanic risk at Vesuvius was <u>first</u> formally proposed for the first time by the viceroy of Naples, Emmanuele Fonseca, in 1632. The viceroy placed an epigraph in the town of Portici (in the Granatello area), inviting the local population to abandon the Vesuvius area and recalling the catastrophic effects of the 1631 eruption. Many years later, for this inscription, the expression "the paradox of Granatello" was coined by Nazzaro (2001). It refers), referring to the attitude reluctance of Vesuvius residents not Vesuvius residents to consider the risk (Nazzaro, 2001; Gugg, 2018).

The continuous activity of Vesuvius pushed many scholars and artists to visit the volcano (during the famous Grand Tour epoch) and, at the urging of few intellectuals, the idea of <u>founding</u> a volcano observatory <u>was born</u> gradually <u>was born</u> (Luongo, 1997). <u>In particular Particularly</u>, an important

incentive to this idea impetus came from Sir William Hamilton (1730–1803), who arrived in Naples in 1764 as the British "Envoy Extraordinary to the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies". Hamilton's amateur activity inspired the intuition of active volcano surveillance and later, in 1841 (under the Bourbon Kingdom), the first volcanological observatory in the world was founded, the Vesuvius Observatory (Cubellis et al., 2015). It was a great moment for the Neapolitan School of Volcanology. In that periodThen, the interest of this new institution was mainly devoted to the observation of the eruptive activity and to the development of new instruments to monitor the volcano dynamic, such as the electromagnetic seismograph designed by Luigi Palmieri (1855–1896) (Palmieri, 1880). Thus, the attention was mainly posed ondirected at the volcanic hazard.

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

Later on, with the increase of population, the problem of volcanic risk became grew critical, because of the exponential increase of the exposed value. The increase of population which experienced in the Neapolitan volcanic district was possibly sustainable, inwith respect to volcanic risk, up to the economic boom of Italy, which followed following the Second World War (Carlino, 2019). Immediately after this war, western civilization faced civilisation suffered a long period of economic crisis. A global-scale response to the crisis was the activation of the Marshall Plan (the European Recovery Program, lasting from April 1948 to December 1951), whose aim was the creation of stable economic conditions in order to guarantee the survival of democratic institutions. The plan contributed to the renewal of the western European chemical, engineering, and steel industries and to a rise in gross national products of between 15 and 25% (The Marshal PlainPlan; https://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/marshall-plan-1). The demographic increase in the province of Naples and the consequent expansion of urban areas since the end of the Second World War have been largely influenced by the country's economic choices following the Industrial Revolution, a process that began beginning in the 19th century. For instance, the first mechanical plants began in Pozzuoli in Campi Flegrei where, in 1885, a factory for the construction of naval artillery was opened set up. The increase of population and postwar industrial activity mainly involved the Vesuvius area, and in conjunction with the volcano's quiescent state following its most recent eruption in 1944 (Carlino, 2019). The Campi Flegrei were also affected by a migratory flow (albeit to a lesser extent) particularly in the districts of Fuorigrotta and Bagnoli (located inside the caldera), where there was reflecting a strong phase of urban growth, especially following the expansion of the Bagnoli industrial area in 1954 (Andriello et al., 1991). The social and environmental change within the Campi Flegrei area had been drastic and often sudden, but the area around Vesuvius was even more badly affected. This latter came under attack from wildrampant "cementification" not following any town planning criteria, especially concerning the volcanic risk. In the westernmost sector of the volcano, at the border with the eastern outskirts of Naples, oil refineries and various mechanical industries were developed along the coastal strip, while between Portici and Torre Annunziata,

residential areas increasedexpanded enormously (D'Aprile, 2014). Agricultural land in many areas was converted into construction sites so that the landscape of farming and forestry use was transformed into a typically urban, densely populated environment, elashing stronglycontrasting sharply with Vesuvius in the background of Vesuvius. Between 1950the 1950s and the 1990s, the entire Vesuvius area witnessed uncontrolled speculative building with an exponential increase in residential areas, so as to make unrecognizable unrecognisable the boundaries between the towns that, especially in the coastal sector, became merely an expanse of housing and villas (Luongo, 1997; Carlino, 2019; Luongo, 1997). In the whole metropolitan area belonging to Naples, an increase of 1,000,000 residents occurred between 1950 and 1980 (Censimento Popolazione Città Metropolitana Napoli, 1861–2001). In this chaotic growth, the architectural beauties around Vesuvius left overleftover from the time of the Grand Tour, the historic villas, were engulfed and new buildings covered the lava flows arising from Vesuvius's most recent activity (Lancaster, 2008). This was a bad sign of the decline of local culture and of the corruption of the political establishment (Berdini, 2010; Curci et al., 2018).

With the onset of globalization globalisation and the expansion of international markets, the industrial activities in the areas of Campi Flegrei provedwent bankrupt. This led to the definitive closure ofdefinitively closed Bagnoli's industrial district in 1992 and leading to an attempt to reclaim the area, with numerous halts and course changes in course, but also, taking place in the sector east of the city of Naples, closer to Vesuvius. Meanwhile, the unbroken quiescence of Vesuvius, which has continued unbroken since 1944, gradually transformed the volcano from a perceived condition of risk to that of a "passive" actor in the landscape. This step resulted in inevitable demographic growth that did not take the security implications into account while the boom in the construction industry produced the extension of extended the cities around the volcano with increasingly invasive settlements. Between 1950 and 1981, in the town of Portici alone, now one of the most densely-populated places in the world, <u>saw</u> the population <u>roserise</u> from just over 30,000 to about 84,000 (ISTAT Censimento popolazione e abitazioni). The extension of the cities around Vesuvius took placeextended centripetally, approaching more and more frequently the areas that have been repeatedly affected by recent eruptions. If the quiescence of Vesuvius has caused a progressive decline in the perception of volcanic risk, the territorial management policies until the end of the last century, have continuously postponed to posterity the issue of the risks involved in spite of the continual efforts of the scientific community (Carlino et al., 2008). Only in relatively recent timerecently, following the unrest which affected in the Campi Flegrei caldera in 1982—84, scientists, local authorities and the Civil Protection faced the problem of excessive anthropic pressure in the Neapolitan volcanic area, but an organic plan for the decongestiondecongesting one of the most areas of the greatest volcanic risk is still lacking.

3. The last experience of volcanic emergency in the Neapolitan district: Pozzuoli 1970— 1984

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

A fundamental moment in the history of volcano emergency in Campania iswas the episode of volcanic unrest of Campi Flegrei caldera which affected affecting the town of Pozzuoli in 1970—72 and 1982-84, respectively. During those years, the ground of the town experienced the maximum cumulative uplift of about 3 meters, pushing forcing the local authorities to evacuate the town, during both the episodes (Barberi et al., 1984). By the beginning of the 1970s, the phenomenon of bradyseism (a Greek origin word which describes the up and down movement of the ground) was largely forgotten, since the last time it had occurred was more than 400 years before, when an uplift of about 20 m culminated in the eruption of Monte Nuovo in 1538, the most recent volcanic event at Campi Flegrei (Di Vito et al., 2016). In 1970, monitoring networks for volcano surveillance did not exist in the area, and the onset of the uplift was initially observed by local fishermen. In fact, the inversion in the movement of the ground, was signaled by fishermen, who suddenly managed to pass with their small boats beneath an arch at the entrance of the small harborharbour of Pozzuoli while standing, while it had normally been necessary to bend down (Carlino, 2019). The uplift, in the first phase, was almost aseismic, while the Vesuvius Observatory, decided to undertake a new elevation survey, which was performed by the engineers of the Genio Civile, to estimate the real amount of the ground uplift. The results showedindicated that the floor of the Serapeum of Pozzuoli (a ruin of an ancient Roman market) had risen by about 0_{52} 70 m since the last surveys, and that the area affected by this phenomenon included the entire town (Longo, 2019; Luongo, 2013; Longo, 2019). The concern about the volcano uplift focused the attention on the hazard related to a possible eruption. It There was not a common opinion oconsensus among scientists; thus, scientific meetings took place to understand the way in which possible evolution of the phenomenon might evolve and the associated volcanic risk. Experts likesuch as the volcanologists Alfred Rittman and Izumi Yokoyama participated in the debate together with the researchers of Vesuvius Observatory. However, the physical model adopted by the Japanese researchers associated the observed uplift with a high probability of an eruption. In 1972, the centercentre of Pozzuoli was evacuated, although the unrest was characterized by a modest seismic activity, while the maximum uplift was about 1.7 m and ended without eruption (Yokoyama, 1970). The evacuees were placed in the new Toiano district, whose construction was accelerated during the final stages of the bradyseismic episode. The 1970–72 bradyseism crisis, possibly was not handled in a transparent way, and this experience was made more complexcomplicated by the lack of sufficient knowledge about the

physics of the volcano phenomenon (Longo, 2019). This last fact, <u>joinedalong</u> with the virtual absence of a monitoring network, determined the decision to evacuate the <u>centercentre</u> of Pozzuoli, although the perceptible signs of a possible eruption were low, <u>whileand</u> all the local residents <u>criticized criticized</u> this decision. Nonetheless, it was during that period that <u>the Earth Science carth</u> <u>science</u> experienced new important studies and projects <u>which</u>, also <u>strengthened strengthening</u> the monitoring networks and the assessment of seismic and volcanic <u>hazard</u>hazards in the <u>Worldworld</u>.

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

Following the Campi Flegrei caldera unrest of 1970—72, the Italian peninsula was severely tested with the devastating earthquakes of Friuli in 1976 (leaving about 1,000 people dead and more than 100,000 displaced) and the one in Campania-Basilicata in 1980 (with about 3,000 deaths and 280,000 dis-placed) (Boschi and& Bordieri, 1998). Subsequent to these events Subsequently, a National Civil Protection service was established in Italy. Thus, when a new bradyseismic crisis occurred in Pozzuoli in 1982, the scientific community and the national and local authorities were better prepared to facehandle the emergency (Luongo, 2013). The Vesuvius Observatory had strengthened its surveillance network so that, over the course of throughout 1972-1981, it was possible to record a tendency to ground subsidence, and a new uplift in 1982. In the summer of that year, it became clear that a new episode of bradyseism was underway (Cannatelli et al., 2020). This episode It was most dramatic compared to the previous one. Continuous and significant seismic activity was recorded since spring 1983. Pozzuoli was shaken by hundreds of seismic events a day, while the population was frightened by the roars that accompanied accompanying the earthquakes and the continued ground movements which wrought widespread damage on the city's ancient buildings. A further increasing increase of seismic activity occurred between September and October 1983, reaching its peakpeaking on 4th October with a shallow magnitude 4.0 earthquake, eausing spreading panic among the population, damaging several buildings in the historic eentercentre of Pozzuoli and being clearly felt in Naples (Branno et al., 1984). The ground uplift in the Pozzuoli area reached a maximum rate of the order of centimetres per day. The main concern about the situation was primarily related to the building's damages damage to the buildings caused by the shallow earthquakes (2—3 km in depth). Accordingly, the Vesuvius Observatory and the National Group for Volcanology, responsible for surveillance, presented a seismic hazard map of the Phlegraean area, showingdemonstrating that the level of risk in the historical eentercentre of Pozzuoli had become very high, especially because of the high vulnerability of the buildings at risk (Luongo, 2013). A further concern-was related to the possibility of an eruption, for which the recorded uplift and the seismic activity appeared as clear precursors, although the likelihood of an eruption was considered low by the director of the Vesuvius Observatory. On 1st April 1984, a new dramatic seismic crisis, with continuous swarms throughout the morning, hit the town of Pozzuoli. At this stage, the problem of the evacuation was faced, also considering the possibility of an eruption occurrence inside the caldera of Campi Flegrei. In

collaboration with the Central Government, the evacuation plan was drawn up and, following the meetings between monitoring staff and civil <u>defensedefence</u> authorities it was decided to evacuate about 25,000 people from the <u>centercentre</u> of Pozzuoli. The evacuees were relocated <u>into</u> the new settlement area of Monteruscello, which was built in <u>a</u> few years, a few <u>kilometerskilometres</u> northwest of the centre of Pozzuoli, considered a safer area than the coastal strip.

During the 1984 emergency, an effective communication system was established between the monitors, the Civil Protection Service and the citizenry, and the crisis was handled with maximum transparency, especially in light of the 1970 experience (Luongo, 2013). In particular Particularly, the activation of a monitoring info-centercentre, close to Pozzuoli, was openedactivated to ensure athe correct management and spreading of information about the ongoing events. Meanwhile, while the plan was actualized the unrest seemed to decrease in intensity, and in December 1984 the uplifting and seismic activity ceased, marking the end of the crisis (Barberi and Carapezza, 1996). Pozzuoli remained for few years like a "ghost town", meanwhile while local and central governmentgovernments were deciding abouton the future of the city. Pozzuoli was later rebuilt without limiting the anthropic pressure that should have been contained within thresholds that would make the volcanic risk acceptable. Today, the municipality of Pozzuoli has about 82,000 residents, and it represents representing a coveted residential site for Neapolitan people.

4. The debate about the volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area

The subject of volcanic risk, and its mitigation, in the Neapolitan area has very important implications because this zone involves at least 1,200,2000 people who are potentially exposed to a very large eruption (Mastrolorenzo et al., 2006). Otherwise, givinggiven the long history of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area and the present very high risk of the area, two preliminary inquiries are required: i) can we find a new paradigm or an alternative plan to reduce the high risk of the area? and ii) how is it feasible is it in the Neapolitan area? We don'tdo not have a unique response to the questions, but, to analyzeanalyse the issue, we have to go back again revert to the last Campi Flegrei caldera unrest occurred between 1982 and 1984, and culminated culminating in the evacuation of the town of Pozzuoli (Barberi and& Carapezza, 1996). After this event, a strong debate ensued (among scientists, citizens and politicians) about the possible solutions to reduce the volcanic risk in the densely inhabited Neapolitan area took place.

Between 1980 and 1990, the problem of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area was facedconsidered by the National Group of Volcanology (GNV) (see De Vivo et al., 2010 and references therein), while the one of territorial planning was discussed during several Italian workshops, and the few solutions were focused primarily on two main actions (Leone, 1987; Ulisse, 1984): i) the short-term one with the preparation of the evacuation plans, ii) the long—term one, which provided the actions and methods, aimed to reduce the demographic pressure in the riskiest areas. As highlighted by Leone (1987), the latter is not a simply action simple, because it doesn't represent a cannot be forced action, while it would be necessary to developdeveloping a new organizational set-up of the whole Campania Region would be necessary by planning a "new geography" of the services industry and of the productive activities, allowing a spontaneous relocation of the residents from the risk areas.

After the last Campi Flegrei caldera unrest; ended in 1984, the volcano became restsrested again (up to 2005), but not the debate about volcanic risk. Later, to respondresponding to the solicitations and concerns comingemanating from the scientific and institutional world, and following the foundation of the Italian Civil Protection, the attention was mainly posedfocused on the Vesuvius, which is the most inhabited volcano of the district. The volcanic risk in this area was evaluated by Scandone et al., (1993), in terms of human losses, and according to the equation: *Risk = Exposed Value × Vulnerability × Hazard* (Blong, 1996). The authors evaluated the hazard based on the entire history of the volcano and identified the events likely to cause loss of human lives as those with Volcanic Explosivity Index (VEI) >~3. Later on, the first evacuation plan for the Vesuvius area was released by the Civil Protection in 1995.

After its foundation in 1999, the Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanolgia (INGV) became the reference scientific institution for the Civil Protection, to provideassess the assessment of volcanic hazard and its continuous updatingcontinuously update it for Neapolitan volcanoes. As regard theregards Vesuvius, the extension of the most hazardous zone (i.e. the Red Zone) involves about 600,000 inhabitants which, who must be evacuated in case of eruption (Protezione Civile: Update of the National Emergency Plan for Vesuvius). The extension of the Red Zone was obtained considering a medium energy scenario for the next eruption (a sub-plinian eruption) like that occurredsuch as the one in 1631. -The emergency plan for Vesuvius foresees, that a part of the population spontaneously movesmoving away from the Red Zone during the pre-alarm phase (Fig. 1). Depending on the state of the volcano, the actions to be taken are defined within the emergency plan by the different levels of alert, alertness in which the scientific and monitoring activities are decided upon depending on the assessment of the hazard. The lowest level (a "green" alert level) corresponds to the quiescence of the volcano, during which there are no significant changes in the parameters being monitored. If these changes are detected, however, the protocol provides for a transition to a level of attention ("yellow"),

during which there is an intensification of monitoring activities and a more frequent assessment of the condition of the volcano by the Civil Protection agency and the Italian Commissione Grandi Rischi (Major Risks Commission). The levels above this are those of pre-alarm ("orange") and alarm ("red"), which, for the latter, involves involve the evacuation of the population from the Red Zone. The Vesuvius evacuation plan has been updated and modified during the time. At the present, at least three days (compared to the previous three weeks) would be required to allow the effective evacuation ofeffectively evacuate 600,000 inhabitants. This should correspond to the actual possibility of forecasting the eruption with this level of forewarning. The last choice was also based on the forecasting experiences of the 1980 Mt. Saint Helens (USA) and 1991 Pinatubo (Philippine) eruptions (Swanson et al, 1983; Pinatubo Volcano Observatory Team, 1991; Swanson et al, 1983). The plan posed, among the scientific community, a number of concerns and criticisms about the actual possibility of forecasting the next eruption in advance and evacuate evacuating at least 600,000 people at risk. In the framework of this debate, an alternative plan to mitigate the volcanic risk of Vesuvius area was proposed by Flavio Dobran (Vesuvius 2000 plan, Dobran 2006, 2007). Although the first work of Flavio Dobran was published in 2006, the dissemination of his plan took place a few years earlier, with an intense information campaign around the Vesuvius area. More than an emergency or evacuation plan, Vesuvius 2000 was a proposal of proposed a new paradigm of development to reduce the risk of the area. The main intention of this proposal was "...to produce guidelines for transforming high-risk areas around Vesuvius into safe and prosperous communities. This would be accomplished through interdisciplinary projects involving engineers, environmentalists, urban planners, economists, educators, geologists, sociologists, historians, and the public" (Dobran, 2007). Among the general aimaims of Vesuvius 2000 planeplan, the decreasing of the resident population density in the most-risky areas was proposed, as well as improving of the resistance of the buildings to seismic shaking, the quality of infrastructure and the resilience of urban centerscentres. Furthermore, Dobran (2006, 2007) showed that, giving given the strong historical and social connection between "Vesuvius people" and their land, the lighteningdiminishing of urban pressure in most of the risky zones represented a very long-term aim, which needsneeding a complete social, cultural, urbanistic and economic reconsideration of the Vesuvius area and surroundings. This long-term action will minimizeminimise the economic and social costs due to of the evacuation of people from the red zone in case of an eruption. The great challenge of the ambitious Vesuvius 2000 plan, was therefore that people living around the volcano acquired the awareness of the environment in which they livelived and participated in the solution of this difficult situation conundrum (Dobran, 2006).

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

BehindAfter the solution proposed by Dobran (2006, 2007), a wide literature about the methods and the actions devoted to reduction and management of volcanic risk, and also of natural risks in general, was proposed by different authors, and in which most detailed descriptions of the limits of each

450 solution and the easescase history arewere reported (PetersonBarcklay et al, 1993; Newhall and 451 Punongbayan, 1996., 2008, 2015; Chester et al., 2000; Fearnley et al., 2017; Jenkins & Haynes, 2011; 452 Hansjürgens et al., 2008; Hicks et al., 2014; Hossain et al., Small and Naumann, 2001; 2017; Newhall 453 & Punongbayan, 1996; Papale, 2017; Peterson et al, 1993; Petrazzuoli and Zuccaro, 2004; Wisner, 2003; Petrosino et al., 2004; Small & Naumann, 2001; Spence et al., 2007; Hansjürgens et al., 2008; 454 455 Barcklay et al., 2008; 2015; Jenkins and Haynes, 2011; Usamah and & Haynes, 2012; Hicks et al., Wisner, 20032014; Hossain et al., 2017; Fearnley et al., 2017; Papale, 2017). Furthermore, some of 456 the above researches also demonstrate that a volcanic resettlement program must be directed by 457 458 meaningful consultation with the impacted community, as also suggested by Dobran (2006), 459 whowhich also shares in the decision making.

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

What happened in the period following the first releasing of the Vesuvius emergency plan and of the alternative paradigm <u>Vesuvius 2000 Vesuvius 2000</u> proposed by Flavio Dobran? The latter was not welcomed toby the political establishment and remained a mere proposal. On the other hand, the former (the institutional one) only partially guaranteed the restraint or decreasing of anthropic pressure around the volcano. To deal with this problem, a new plan called Vesuvia (https://www.viveretraivulcani.it/il-progetto-vesuvia) was approved in 2003 by the Campania Region regionale 21/2003, del Vesuvio", (Legge n. "Legge http://www.sito.regione.campania.it/leggi regionali2003/lr21 2003.htm). The intent of this project was to lighten the demographic pressure around the Vesuvius volcano. This intent would be promoted by offering economic incentives (up to 30 thousand euros) to the population (living in the red zone) willing to relocate themselves outside the dangerous areas. The project expected expects to reduce the number of people living in the red zone over a period of about 20 years by removing evacuating at least 100,000 people from this zone (Gugg, 2018). A further aim of *Vesuvia* was also the reconversion of available buildings into tourist reception facilities, in order to create an opportunity of valorization valorisation of the great cultural and natural heritage of the Vesuvius volcano. (http://www.cngeologi.it/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/Casa-Italia Rapporto-sicurezza-rischi naturali-patrimonio-abitativo.pdf). After three Three years from the launch of the project, there was a reduction of residents in the red zone of only 0.1%, moving prompting the promoters of the project to leaveabandon the endeavor. Actually, itendeavour. It was a resounding flop. The reasons of for the failure were described by Gugg (2018). Among the reasons reported by the author, the lack of involvement of the majors and the local communities in the development of the project was probably the most critical for its flop. Additionally, as also described by the Vesuvius 2000 plan (Dobran 2006, 2007), a relocation of people from the red zone outside the Vesuvius volcano is very unlikely lacking awithout long-term economic and social policies which stimulates timulating Vesuvius people to move into safer zones. It is clear that in a complex social, cultural and urban context likesuch as that

of Naples and surroundings, the choice to reduce the volcanic risk by relocating a part of people living in the red zones (Campi Flegrei and Vesuvius) outside the most-risky areas and by increasing the volcanic perception is a very grueling challenge (Carlino, 2019). Furthermore, the policies to improve the vulnerability of edifices against disasters (and reduce the risk) have been rarely been adopted in Italy, as demonstrated for instance by heavy damages suffered by many cities after moderate earthquakes occurred in recent times recently (Valensise et al., 2017). The main issues, in this case, are related to the actual perception of risk in general (as well as of volcanic risk in particular), but mainly to the morals and personal profit of politicians in doingtaking specific actions to reduce the risk and to other social and political problems of the Neapolitan area (Luongo, 1997; Carlino et al., 2008; Donovan and Oppenheimer, 2015; Donovan, 2019; Luongo, 1997). For instance, political timescales generally limit the amount of capital that is invested in the volcanic risk reduction. Basically; as reported by Donovan (2019), "if a politician is only in power for 4 years" (and this time is the best case in Italy!) "the probability of an eruption at a particular volcano within that timeframe is usually very low, and so, the personal-political cost-benefit analysis indicates that there are more socially acceptable policies to invest in". This is possibly one of the main reasons why a long-term plan for the risk reduction such as the one of Vesuvius 2000 was refused rejected by the political establishment. The example reported by Donovan (2019) appears particularly true for the Neapolitan area, where the volcanic risk increased exponentially during the last 50 years, and no policies actions have contained this trend. This aspect was also debated by De Vivo et al., (2010) who stated that while the Italian Civil Protection tries to convince people to dislocate from the risk zone, at the same time-it does not take a stand against the illegal buildings in the red zone. Otherwise, from the institutional point of view, the latter problem does not involve the Civil Protection, because the management control of illegal buildings and their compliance in respect to with the seismic risk primarily involves the municipalities (Decreto Legislativo 18 agosto 2000, n. 267; Testo unico delle disposizioni legislative e regolamentari in materia edilizia, d.P.R. n. 380/2001). In this regard, the seismic risk associated towith the volcano-tectonics earthquakes is not neglectable as well, at least for Campi Flegrei and Ischia. A representative case is the Island of Ischia. In 1883, the island was hit by a moderate and shallow earthquake (with magnitude around 4.5, Cubellis and Luongo, 1998). which devastated its northern sector (Casamicciola town) and eausedhad more than 2300 victims (Carlino et al., 2010b). This event was followed by an almost seismic silence, up to 2017. At least during the last 25 years, the scientific community stimulated urged the island local authorities and the municipality of Casamicciola to take actions in favor of favouring the mitigation of seismic risk in the island (Cubellis and Luongo, 1998; Luongo et al., 2012). But However, this message went unnoticed, up to the 21 August 2017, when an M_L4.0 earthquakes earthquake occurred in Casamicciola town and caused 2two victims, tens of injuries and heavy damage in the upper part of the municipality (De Novellis et al., 2018). FormFrom the above considerations, it appears that conciliating the emergency

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

plans, the drawing of the red zones of volcanoes, and the regulations regulating for the seismic risk, with the actual economic and land-use planning policies in the Neapolitan area is are a hard purpose to attain.

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

Recently, in August 2016, the emergency planning for the volcanic risk of the Campi Flegrei was updated (Protezione Civile: Update of the National Emergency Plan for Campi Flegrei), and the area of the new Red Zone to be evacuated as a precautionary measure in case of an eruption, was defined, together with the Yellow Zone, that which is potentially exposed to a high concentration of falling ash (Fig. 1). As for Vesuvius, the Red Zone and the Yellow Zone were defined by the Civil Protection, in agreement with the Campania Region, and based on the indications provided by the scientific community. As a whole, and considering that thean emergency plan for the island of Ischia (Gulf of Naples) is still lacking, about 1,000,000 of people could be directly affected by a moderate to large eruption (VEI 3-4) in the red zones of Campi Flegrei and Vesuvius, respectively. The high number of people exposed to the risk, and the uncertainty in eruptions forecasting (Sparks, 2003), pushed) motivated some authors to eriticize the evacuation plans and the policies of risk reduction policies in the Neapolitan district (Rolandi, 2010; De Natale et al., 2020). In particular; Rolandi, 2010). Particularly and recently, De Natale et al. (2020) have questioned about how the very high volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area can be effectively mitigated. The authors focused the attention on two problems related to the evacuation related problems: i) the extremely high number of people to evacuate in case of an impending eruption; ii) the lack of plans today to reallocate rehabilitate such a high number of evacuated people (600,000 and 700,000 for Campi Flegrei Caldera and Vesuvius, respectively). The analysis of De Natale et al., (2020) is not new, since their main conclusions, as well as and the weak points weaknesses they highlighted in respect to the present emergency plans, were already stated by other authors, and in particular by Dobran (2006, 2007, Vesuvius 2000 plan). It is important to highlight that some works eriticizing the evacuation plans (Dobran 2006; De Natale et al., 2020; Dobran 2006) do not exclude their effectiveness if a number of actions to mitigate the risk isare carried on. Unfortunately, what we have seen during the last 40 years of volcanic risk management in the Neapolitan area; is a predominance of the emergency policies in the respect to that of prevention. The result is that the present volcanic risk, giving given the current high values of society, appears non-acceptable.

5. The role of volcanologists

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

In the framework of the discussed topics, a fundamental issue is the role that of volcanologists must have in managing volcanic risk and volcanic crises. It was, in many cases, misinterpreted by people living in the Neapolitan area. The role and responsibilities of volcanologists in volcanic hazard evaluation, risk mitigation, and crisis response have been treatedoutlined by the International Association for Volcanology and Chemistry of the Earth's Interior (IAVCEI). Their main responsibility is to improve the scientific knowledge of volcanoes to better understand how they work and provide the most robust eruption forecasts, and to educate the local and global community (mainly exposed to eruptions) to the volcanic risk, making people more perceptive against of the risk itself. The latter is fundamental to get a good evoking an amenable response from people to an evacuation (IAVCEI, 2016). Anyway, the main task of volcanologists remains to provide as robust a forecast as more robust as possible of an eruption as possible. It is well-known how problematic it is to obtain a clear picture about of the progression of volcano processes during unrests and to understand which is what the actual state of the volcano is (critical state or not). In general (but not always), as the eruption is approaching approaches the number and the amplitude (or energy) of geophysical and geochemical signals increases and, the uncertainty in the forecast should decrease (Carlino, 2019; Decker, 1986; Kilburn, 2003; Sparks, 2003; Robertson et al., 2016; Sparks, 2003; Sparks and Cashman, 2017; Carlino, 2019;) (Fig. 4). An unsolved question is whether, and in whichat what moment, the volcano approaches the critical state during an unrest; that is the moment in which when the physical processes occurring within the volcano are irreversible, and the volcano will erupterupts (Fig. 4). This is the most critical issue, because the promulgation of a false alarm or a missed alarm, will adversely affect 600,000 to 1,500,000 of people leaving living in the Neapolitan area (De Natale et al., 2020). During the last 20 years, the monitoring networks for the surveillance of the Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei and Ischia volcanoes have been greatly improved, reaching one of the best standards worldwide (www.ov.ingv.it). This effort should correspond to a reduction of the uncertainty in forecasting the next eruption, although it depends on the capacity of volcanologists to correctly decipher the volcano signals. Beyond the efforts of scientists to improve their understanding of volcanic processes and providing provide more robust forecasts, it is fundamental to communicate communicating the systemic uncertainty of the forecast to the public-is fundamental. This can be done in an effective fashion effectively only if with a proficient direct communication network between volcanologists and the media is provided (Haynes et al, 2008). This is also a very important topic, particularly when the communication of an ongoing volcanic crisis involves large metropolitans' metropolitan areas like Naples and its surroundings. The example of what occurred during the 1982–84 unrest is emblematic inof this view. During that crisis, a unique channel of communication was established between the direction of Vesuvius Observatory and the

press, while the observatory was continuously in communication with the Minister for the Coordination of the Civil Protection (Luongo, 2013). The activation of the information centercentre for the citizens of Pozzuoli and the straight link between the latter and the direction of the Vesuvius Observatory, generated more confidence among people. How would it have gone turned out if the same crisis had happened today? The unrest and the evacuation at Pozzuoli occurred in a periodan era without the internet and social media (like-Facebook, Twitter and WhatsApp) which, nowadays, represent the main and quickerrapid dissemination channels of news and information. The social Social media platforms are a disruptor disruptors of traditional communication, opening up new opportunities for scientists to communicate (Dong et al., 2020) but, on the other side, givinghand, bestowing the right to evaluate or criticize scientific decisions toon everyone. This could lead to misinterpretations or distortions of scientific broadcasts and information and, consequently, to false alarms or unjustified panic among the population, in case of a volcanic crisis. This circumstance, albeit not related to a volcanic crisis, occurred in recent time, recently before the starting commencement of the Campi Flegrei Deep Drilling Project, at Campi Flegrei, a project aimed toat scientifically investigate investigating the caldera (Carlino, 2019). The project worried many local residents about the possible disturbance which that the scientific drilling would cause on unleash in the volcanic system. Just before the onset of the drilling, the declarations that continued to spreadspreading on social networks and newspapers became assumed an increasingly eatastrophical arming tone (sometimes atto the limit of the paradoxical) such as to seriously worry the municipal administration of Naples, which had issued clearance for cleared the drilling. The climax was reached onin October 2010, when the national newspaper "Il Mattino" led with the front-page title: "If you touch the volcano, Naples will explode" (Carlino, 2019, page 265). The project was temporarily suspended by the Naples administration of Naples to further clarify its aim and associated risk. This fact highlights that the position of volcanologist volcanologists in communicating the hazard and the risk in densely inhabited areas regions like Naples, is very tricky because the communication occurs within a complex social system where many people exposed to the risk are involved. Furthermore, a number of studies demonstrates demonstrate that Neapolitan people Neapolitans have a low perception of risk and a low level of risk education (Carlino et al., 2010b; Ricci et al., 2013).

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

As a whole, beyond the effort that scientists are sinkingexpending to improve the robustness of the volcanic eruptions forecast, a further effort is necessary to promulgate the culture of volcanic risk and promote open debates with the local population and authorities. In other words, volcanologists should be more present on the territory (not only during an ongoing volcanic unrest) and they should be an open book, not an acquired skill (Goodstain, 2010; Fearnley et al., 2017; Goodstain, 2010). This approach is fundamental to improve improving the confidence of people in a scientific institution such that of as INGV.

6. Conclusions

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

The past experiences concerning the management of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area reveal how complex is to devise the complexity of devising a collaboration around the active volcanoes of Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei caldera and Ischia Island to reduce the risk in such densely inhabited areas. The history of volcanic risk in this area demonstrates the leaningtendency to not to underestimate, the risk (which otherwise is an ahuman attitude of human being). Nonetheless, we cannot constraintreduce the problem of the high volcanic risk of the Neapolitan area to this latter consideration only. The present development of the urbanized areas around the volcanoes of Naples is the result of a very long history and stratification of different cultures and population whichpopulations that settled the Neapolitan area and its surroundings as a nicescenic and useful place to live, since the Bronze Age. This history left a huge cultural heritage in its wake but also a difficult demanding socio-economyeconomic condition, especially around Vesuvius. Thus, as also highlighted by Galliard (2008), in many cases the historical and cultural heritage and politicaleconomy remain of much greater importance and may overcome override the choice of people in the face of volcanic hazards. This fact emphasizes emphasises the importance of understanding the complex contexts of the Neapolitan area in proposing the policies to reduce the volcanic risk. It appears evident, for instance, that the choice of people not to relocate themselves outside the red zone of Vesuvius, and to remain in their native towns, despite the perceived threats, has little to do with volcanic activity. This point, already discussed by Galliard (2008), suggests that, in such a complex social context, the policies for volcanic risk mitigation need to go far beyond the only prevention of relatively rare events. A different and more general approach is thus required, and it should be aimed to a rational access and the use of resources in order to adapt the social and economic development of the area to its natural vocation, should be aimed at. This is a long-term objective which conflictsconflicting with the short-lived (and not forward-thinking)sighted policies adopted by the Campania Region and the Central Government. Consequently, the proposals to re-convert the riskiest areas of Neapolitan volcanoes into lower--risk zones using a different (and long-term) paradigm of development (e.g. Dobran, 2006, 2007), are struggling takingto take off. At the same timeSimultaneously, the proposed economic-incentives (Vesuvia project) to relocate people from the red zone (at Vesuvius) towards more safetysafer areas was a failure as well. Accordingly, these failures first have to do with a wrong territorial policy, and secondly with the volcanology.

Furthermore, at least during the last 25 years, the policies for the reduction of volcanic risk in the Neapolitan area have been disconnected from their natural, social and politico-economic context. This is possible possibly the result of a not so holistic approach to the problem of volcanic risk

657 reduction which, in particularly in this area, is unavoidable and, on the contrary, requires an 658 openly discussed method between academics of all disciplines, policymakers, and 659 stakeholders (Dovovan, 2019). Finally, after about 40 years of debates around the volcanic risk in the 660 Neapolitan area, an analysis of the reasons why the strategies aimed to reduce the risk in this area 661 were systematically failed is required. This step is necessary to propose more reliable solutions for 662 the risk reduction in a -very large and urbanizedurbanised territory likesuch as that of Neapolitan 663 volcanoes. A further effort is also required by Neapolitan scientists to connect the territorial 664 governance structures and local (at risk) communities withto the scientific network. In this 665 framework, ascientists must pay further attention of scientists must be addressed to avoid to politicize 666 the politicisation of volcanology inwhen advising the authorities (Donovan, 2019).

- Data availability: No datasets were used in this article.
- 668 Competing interests of interest: The author declares that he has no conflict.
- Acknowledgments: I'm very grateful to David K. Chester and Amy Donovan for their helpful comments which improved the quality of the paper. I'm also grateful to the Editor Paolo Tarolli for the handling of the paper.

Figure captions

667

672

- Fig. 1. The Neapolitan volcanic area with the three active volcanoes, Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei caldera
- and the Island of Ischia. The limits of the red zones of the evacuation plans for Vesuvius and Campi
- Flegrei caldera are reported, respectively (from www.protezionecivile.gov). More than 1,000,000 of
- people are living in both the red zones. A plan for the island of Ischia is currently in progress (base)
- 678 map is from Google Earth).
- Fig. 2. A timeline of the volcanic activity history at Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei and Ischia Island. The
- 680 most known eruptions are reported. Red and blue color indicates increasing and decreasing of
- volcanic activity, respectively.
- Fig. 3. The city of Naples with the location of the eruptive vents associated with different eruptive
- periods. The dotted line represents the eastern boundary of the caldera of Campi Flegrei (modified
- after Scarpati et al., 2013 and Carlino, 2019; base map is from Google Earth).
- Fig. 4. A qualitative sketch describing the possible state of a volcano approaching an eruption and its
- forecast reliability. For a quiescent volcano the reawakening is generally associated with the onset of

seismic activity indicating the variation of stress field within the volcano. The latter is generally due to circulation of pressurized fluids in the crust and, eventually, to magma migration at shallow level. This dynamic is accompanied by others precursors (ground deformations and variation of fluids emission) which make the forecast more reliable as the eruption is approached. The point at which the volcano overcomes the critical state, is the moment (t?) in which the physical processes occurring within the volcano are irreversible, that is to say the volcano will erupt. Volcanologists cannot predict the time (t?) because the processes are chaotic and the forecast has a probabilistic nature (after, Carlino, 2019).

Figures



<u>Fig.1</u>



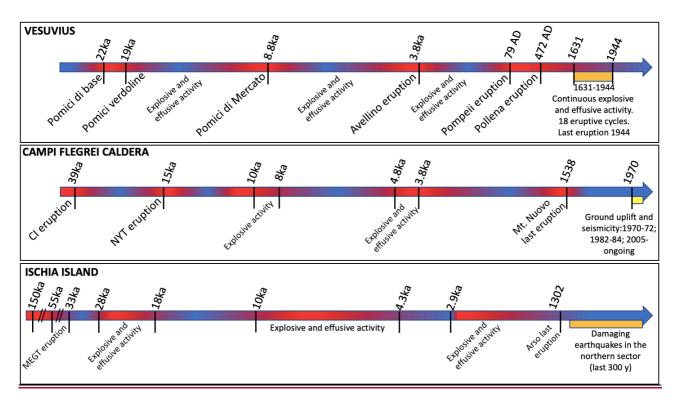


Fig.2

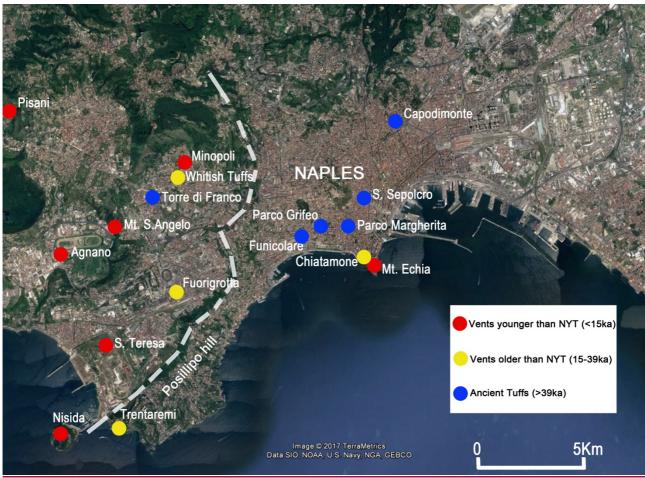


Fig. 3

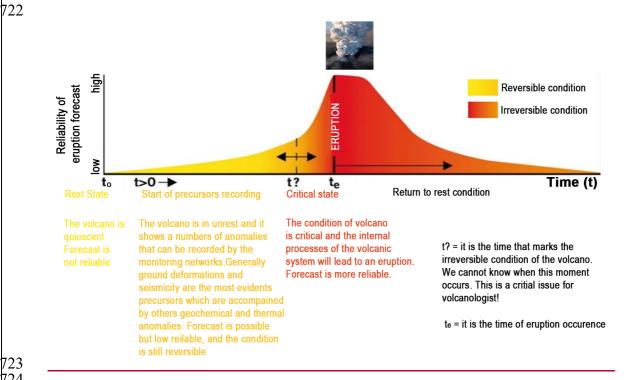


Fig.4

References

Andriello, V., Belli, A., Lepore, D.: Il luogo e la fabbrica. L'impianto siderurgico di Bagnoli e l'espansione occidentale di Napoli, edizioni Massa, 1991

Alberico, I., Petrosino, P., & Lirer, L: Volcanic hazard and risk assessment in a multi-source volcanic area: the example of Napoli city (Southern Italy). Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences, 11(4), 1057, 2011

Annecchino, R.: Storia di Pozzuoli e della zona flegrea, Adriano Gallina Editore, 414 pp, 1996

Azcuy, M. K. Louise Glück's Irenic Poems, "Crater Lake" and "Averno", 2013

Barberi, F., Corrado, G., Innocenti, F., Luongo, G.: Phlegraean Fields 1982–1984: brief chronicle of a volcano emergency in a densely populated area. Bull Volcanol 47(2): 175–185, 1984.

Barberi, F., Carapezza, M. L.: The problem of volcanic unrest: the Campi Flegrei case history. In Monitoring and mitigation of volcano hazards (pp. 771-786). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1996.

Barclay, J., Haynes, K., Mitchell, T., Solana, C., Teeuw, R., Darnell, A., ... & Fearnley, C.: Framing volcanic risk communication within disaster risk reduction: finding ways for the social and physical sciences to work together. Geological Society, London, Special Publications, 305(1), 163-177, 2008.

Barclay, J., Haynes, K., Houghton, B., & Johnston, D.: Social processes and volcanic risk reduction. In The Encyclopedia of Volcanoes (pp. 1203-1214). Academic Press, 2015.

Berdini, P.: Breve storia dell'abuso edilizio in Italia: dal ventennio fascista al prossimo futuro. Donzelli, 2010.

Blong, R. J.: Volcanic hazards risk assessment. In Monitoring and mitigation of volcano hazards (pp. 675-698). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1996.

Boschi, E., & Bordieri, F.: Terremoti d'Italia: il rischio sismico, l'allarme degli scienziati, l'indifferenza del potere (Vol. 119). Dalai Editore, 1998.

Branno, A., Esposito, E. G. I., Luongo, G., Marturano, A., Porfido, S., & Rinaldis, V.: The October 4th, 1983—Magnitude 4 earthquake in Phlegraean Fields: Macroseismic survey. Bulletin volcanologique, 47(2), 233-238.1984

Cannatelli, C., Spera, F. J., Bodnar, R. J., Lima, A., & De Vivo, B.: Ground movement (bradyseism) in the Campi Flegrei volcanic area: a review. In Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei, and Campanian Volcanism (pp. 407-433). Elsevier, 2020.

Carlino, S., Somma, R., and Mayberry, G. C.: Volcanic risk perception of young people in the urban areas of Vesuvius: Comparison with other volcanic areas and implications for emergency management, J. Volcanol. Geoth. Res., 172, 229–243, 2008.

Carlino, S., Cubellis, E., Delizia, I., & Luongo, G.: History of Ischia Harbour (Southern Italy). In Macroengineering Seawater in Unique Environments (pp. 27-57). Springer, Berlin, Heidelber, 2010a

Carlino, S., Cubellis, E., & Marturano, A.: The catastrophic 1883 earthquake at the island of Ischia (southern Italy): macroseismic data and the role of geological conditions. Natural hazards, 52(1), 231, 2010b

Carlino, S.: Neapolitan Volcanoes (pp. 179-274). Springer, Cham, 2019.

<u>Censimento Popolazione Citta Metropolitana Napoli, 1861-2011.</u> https://www.tuttitalia.it/campania/provincia-di-napoli/statistiche/censimenti-popolazione/

- Chester, D. K., Degg, M., Duncan, A. M., & Guest, J. E.: The increasing exposure of cities to the effects of volcanic eruptions: a global survey. Global Environmental Change Part B: Environmental Hazards, 2(3), 89-103, 2000.
- 788 <u>Cocco, S.: Watching Vesuvius: a history of science and culture in early modern Italy. University of Chicago Press, 2012</u>

804

808

809

- Cubellis, E., & Luongo, G.: Il Terremoto del 28 luglio 1883 a Casamicciola nell'Isola d'Ischia 'Il contesto fisico'. Monografia n, 49-123, 1998

 793
- 794 <u>Cubellis, E., de Vita, S., Di Vito, M. A., Ricciardi, G., Troise, C., Uzzo, T., & De Natale, G.: L'Osservatorio Vesuviano: storia della scienza e cultura del territorio nell'area vesuviana. L'Ambiente Antropico, 2015.</u>
- 797 <u>Curci, F., Formato, E., & Zanfi, F.: Territori dell'abusivismo: un progetto per uscire dall'Italia dei condoni.</u>
 798 <u>Donzelli Editore, 2018.</u>
- D'Aprile, M.: L'area costiera vesuviana tra il regno di Carlo di Borbone e la speculazione edilizia: il caso Portici, in A. Buccaro, C. de Seta (a cura di), Città mediterranee in trasformazione. Identità e immagine del paesaggio urbano tra Sette e Novecento, Atti del VI Convegno Internazionale di Studi CIRICE 2014 (Napoli, 13-15 marzo 2014), pp. 531-542, 2014
- d'Ascia, G.: Storia dell'isola d'Ischia descritta da Giuseppe d'Ascia:(Divisa in quattro parti-storia fisica-civileamministrativa-monografica) Volume unico. Gabriele Argenio, 1867.
 - Decreto Legislativo 18 agosto 2000, n. 267. https://www.camera.it/parlam/leggi/deleghe/testi/00267dl.htm
- Decker, R. W.: Forecasting volcanic eruptions. Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences, 14(1), 267-291, 1986.
- De Natale, G. D., Troise, C., & Somma, R.: Invited perspectives: The volcanoes of Naples: how can the highest volcanic risk in the world be effectively mitigated? Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences, 20(7), 2037-2053, 2020.
- 816
 817 De Novellis, V., Carlino, S., Castaldo, R., Tramelli, A., De Luca, C., Pino, N. A., ... & Bonano, M.: The 21
 818 August 2017 Ischia (Italy) earthquake source model inferred from seismological, GPS, and DInSAR
 819 measurements. Geophysical Research Letters, 45(5), 2193-2202, 2018.
 820
- de Vita, S., Sansivero, F., Orsi, G., Marotta, E., & Piochi, M.: Volcanological and structural evolution of the Ischia resurgent caldera (Italy) over the past 10 ky. Geol. Soc. Am. Spec. Pap, 464, 193-239, 2010.
- De Vivo, B.: Volcanism in the Campania Plain: Vesuvius, Campi Flegrei and Ignimbrites. Elsevier, 2006.
- De Vivo, B., Petrosino, P., Lima, A., Rolandi, G., & Belkin, H. E.: Research progress in volcanology in the Neapolitan area, southern Italy: a review and some alternative views. Mineralogy and Petrology, 99(1-2), 1-28, 2010.
- Di Vito, M. A., Acocella, V., Aiello, G., Barra, D., Battaglia, M., Carandente, A., ... & Scandone, R.: Magma transfer at Campi Flegrei caldera (Italy) before the 1538 AD eruption. Scientific reports, 6(1), 1-9, 2016
- Dobran, F.: VESUVIUS 2000 toward security and prosperity under the shadow of vesuvius. In Developments in Volcanology (Vol. 8, pp. 3-I). Elsevier, 2006.
- Dobran, F.: Urban Habitat Constructions Around Vesuvius. Environmental Risk and Engineering Challenges.
- In Proc. of COST Action C26 Seminar on Urban Habitat Constructions Under Catastrophic Events, Prague (pp. 30-31), 2007.

- 840 Dong, J. K., Saunders, C., Wachira, B. W., Thoma, B., & Chan, T. M.: Social media and the modern scientist:
- 841 a research primer on social media-based research, dissemination, and sharing. African Journal of Emergency
- 842 Medicine, 2020.

844 Donovan, A., Oppenheimer, C.: At the mercy of the mountain? Field stations and the culture of 845 volcanology. Environment and Planning A, 47(1), 156-171, 2015.

846

847 Donovan, A.: Critical volcanology? Thinking holistically about risk and uncertainty. Bulletin of 848 Volcanology, 81(4), 20, 2019.

849

850 Fearnley, C., Winson, A. E. G., Pallister, J., Tilling, R.: Volcano crisis communication: challenges and 851 solutions in the 21st century. In Observing the Volcano World (pp. 3-21). Springer, Cham, 2017.

852

853

854

Fiorentino, F.: The dark side of the Scientific Revolution. Dialogo, 2(1), 141-157, 2015

855

Gaillard, J. C.: Alternative paradigms of volcanic risk perception: The case of Mt. Pinatubo in the Philippines. Journal of volcanology and geothermal research, 172(3-4), 315-328, 2008.

856 857

Ghirelli, A.: Storia di Napoli, Store Einaudi Tascabili, 2015

859 860

858

861

Giacomelli, L., Perrotta, A., Scandone, R., & Scarpati, C.: The eruption of Vesuvius of 79 AD and its impact on human environment in Pompeii. Episodes-Newsmagazine of the International Union of Geological Sciences, 26(3), 235-238, 2003.

862 863 864

Goodstein, D. On fact and fraud, cautionary tales from the front lines of science. Princeton, 168 pp. 2010.

865 866

Gugg, G.: Anthropology of the Vesuvius Emergency Plan: History, perspectives and limits of a dispositive for volcanic risk government. Geographies of the Anthropocene, 105, 2018.

867 868 869

870

Hansjürgens, B., Heinrichs, D., Kuhlicke, C.: Mega-urbanization and social vulnerability. Megacities. Resilience and social vulnerability. UNU-EHS Source, 10, 20-28, 2008.

871 872

Hicks, A., Barclay, J., Simmons, P., & Loughlin, S.: An interdisciplinary approach to volcanic risk reduction under conditions of uncertainty: a case study of Tristan da Cunha. Natural Hazards and Earth System Science, 14(7), 1871-1887, 2014.

874 875

873

876 Hossain, S., Spurway, K., Zwi, A. B., Huq, N. L., Mamun, R., Islam, R., ... & Adams, A. M.: What is the 877 impact of urbanisation on risk of, and vulnerability to, natural disasters? What are the effective approaches for 878 reducing exposure of urban population to disaster risks. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, 879 UCL Institute of Education, University College London, 2017.

880 881

Haynes, K., Barclay, J., & Pidgeon, N.: The issue of trust and its influence on risk communication during a volcanic crisis. Bulletin of Volcanology, 70(5), 605-621, 2008

882 883 884

IAVCEI Task Group on Crisis Protocols: Toward IAVCEI guidelines on the roles and responsibilities of scientists involved in volcanic hazard evaluation, risk mitigation, and crisis response. Bulletin of Volcanology, 78, 1-3, 2016.

885 886 887

888 Isaia, R., Marianelli, P., & Sbrana, A.: . Caldera unrest prior to intense volcanism in Campi Flegrei (Italy) at 889 4.0 ka BP: Implications for caldera dynamics and future eruptive scenarios. Geophysical Research 890 Letters, 36(21), 2009

891

892 ISTAT,: Censimento abitazioni e popolazione, https://www.istat.it/it/censimenti-permanenti/popolazione-e-893 abitazioni

894

895 Jenkins, S., & Haynes, K.: Volcanic risk: Physical processes and social vulnerabilities. WISNER, B. et al., 896 2011.

- Kilburn, C. and McGuire, B.: Italian volcanoes. Classic Geology in Europe 2. Terra, 166 pp, 2001.
- Kilburn, C. R.: Multiscale fracturing as a key to forecasting volcanic eruptions. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 125(3-4), 271-289, 2003.
 - Lancaster, J.: In the shadow of Vesuvius: a cultural history of Naples. I.B. Tauris & Co., Ltd, 2008
- Leone, U.: La convivenza col rischio nelle aree vulcaniche campane: formazione ed informazione. Rischio vulcanico e programmazione territoriale. Provincia di Napoli, Osservatorio Vesuviano. Atti del Convegno, 1011-12 Febbraio 1987, Napoli-Casamicciola, pp79-82, 1984.
- Longo, M. L. How memory can reduce the vulnerability to disasters: the bradyseism of Pozzuoli in southern Italy. AIMS Geosciences, 5(3), 631. 2019
- Luongo, G. (edited by): Mons Vesuvius, Storie di sfide e catastrofi tra paura e scienza. Stagioni d'Italia, 1997.
- Luongo, G., Carlino, S., Cubellis, E., Delizia, I., & Obrizzo, F.: Casamicciola milleottocentottantatre: Il sisma
 tra interpretazione scientifca e scelte politiche. Bibliopolis, 2012.
- Luongo, G.: Il bradisismo degli anni ottanta, In: Ambiente, Rischio, Comunicazione. Che succede ai Campi
 Flegrei? Amra, n.5 Feb 2013.
- Mastrolorenzo, G., Petrone, P., Pappalardo, L., Sheridan, M. F.: The Avellino 3780-yr-BP catastrophe as a worst-case scenario for a future eruption at Vesuvius. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 103(12), 4366-4370, 2006.
 - Maiuri, A.: Passeggiate Campane, Sansoni 1957

902 903

904

924

925 926

927

934

938

939 940

941

- Montone, F.:Il tópos della Campania felix nella poesia latina. SALTERNUM, 2010
- Nazzaro, A.: Il Vesuvio. Storia eruttiva e teorie vulcanologiche, Liguori, Naples, 2001.
- Newhall, C. G., & Punongbayan, R. S.: The narrow margin of successful volcanic-risk mitigation.
 In Monitoring and mitigation of volcano hazards (pp. 807-838). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1996.
- Palmieri, L.:Il Vesuvio e la sua storia. Tip. Faverio, 1880.
- Papale, P.: Rational volcanic hazard forecasts and the use of volcanic alert levels, J. Appl. Volcanol, 6, 2–13, https://doi.org/10.1186/s13617-017-0064-7, 2017.
 - Pappalardo U.: Il Golfo di Napoli. Archeologia e storia di una terra antica, Arsenale ed., 2007.
 - Perrotta, A., & Scarpati, C.: Vulcani come distruttori e conservatori di habitat naturali ed antropici: il Vesuvio e gli insediamenti romani. De Simone and MacFarlane, 279-286, 2009.
- Peterson, D. W., Tilling, R. I., Kilburn, C. R. J., Luongo, G.: Interactions Between Scientists, Civil Authorities and the Public at Hazardous Volcanoes. Active Lavas, 1993.
- Petrazzuoli, S. M. and Zuccaro, G.: Structural resistance of rein- forced concrete buildings under pyroclastic flows: A study of the Vesuvian area, J. Volcanol., 133, 353–367, 2004.
- Petrosino, P., Alberico, I., Scandone, R., Dal Piaz, A., Lirer, L., Caiazzo, S.: Volcanic risk and evolution of the territorial system in the volcanic areas of Campania. Volcanic Risk and Evolution of the Territorial System in the Volcanic Areas of Campania, 1000-1015, 2004.
- Pinatubo Volcano Observatory Team.: Lessons from a major eruption: Mt. Pinatubo, Philippines. EOS Trans American Geophysical Union 72, pp. 545, 552-553, 555, 1991

- Piochi, M., Bruno, P. P., & De Astis, G.: Relative roles of rifting tectonics and magma ascent processes: Inferences from geophysical, structural, volcanological, and geochemical data for the Neapolitan volcanic region (southern Italy). Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems, 6(7), 2005
- Protezione Civile: Update of the National Emergency Plan for Vesuvius http://www.protezionecivile.gov.it/media-communication/dossier/detail/-/asset publisher/default/content/aggiornamento-del-piano-nazionale-di-emergenza-per-il-vesuvio
- Protezione Civile: Update of the National Emergency Plan for Campi Flegrei http://www.protezionecivile.gov.it/media-communication/dossier/detail/-
 - /asset publisher/default/content/aggiornamento-del-piano-nazionale-di-emergenza-per-i-campi-flegrei
 - Ricci, T., Barberi, F., Davis, M. S., Isaia, R., & Nave, R.: Volcanic risk perception in the Campi Flegrei area. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 254, 118-130, 2013.
 - Robertson, R. M., & Kilburn, C. R.: Deformation regime and long-term precursors to eruption at large calderas: Rabaul, Papua New Guinea. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 438, 86-94, 2016.
 - Rolandi, G.: Volcanic hazard at Vesuvius: An analysis for the revision of the current emergency plan. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 189(3-4), 347-362, 2010
 - Rosi, M., Principe, C., & Vecci, R.: The 1631 Vesuvius eruption. A reconstruction based on historical and stratigraphical data. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 58(1-4), 151-182, 1993.
 - Rossi, P.: La rivoluzione scientifica. Da Copernico a Newton, ETS Ed, 336 pp, 2020
- Scandone, R., Arganese, G., & Galdi, F.: The evaluation of volcanic risk in the Vesuvian area. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 58(1-4), 263-271, 1993
 - Scandone, R., Giacomelli, L., & Speranza, F. F.: Persistent activity and violent strombolian eruptions at Vesuvius between 1631 and 1944. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research, 170(3-4), 167-180, 2008.
 - Scarpati, C., Perrotta, A., Lepore, S., & Calvert, A.: Eruptive history of Neapolitan volcanoes: constraints from 40Ar–39Ar dating. Geological Magazine, 150(3), 412-425, 2013
 - Scarpati, C., Perrotta, A., & De Simone, G. F.: Impact of explosive volcanic eruptions around Vesuvius: a story of resilience in Roman time. Bulletin of Volcanology, 78(3), 21, 2016
 - Scarth, A.: Vesuvius: a biography. Princeton University Press, 2009
 - Small, C., Naumann, T.: The global distribution of human population and recent volcanism. Global Environmental Change Part B: Environmental Hazards, 3(3), 93-109, 2001.
 - Sparks, R. S. J.: Forecasting volcanic eruptions. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 210(1-2), 1-15, 2003.
- Sparks, R. S. J., & Cashman, K. V.: Dynamic magma systems: implications for forecasting volcanic activity. Elements, 13(1), 35-40, 2017.
 - Spence, R., Kelman, I., Brown, A., Toyos, G., Purser, D., et al.. Residential building and occupant vulnerability to pyroclastic density currents in explosive eruptions. Natural Hazards and Earth System Science, Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union, 2007, 7 (2), pp.219-230. hal-00299417, 2007.
- Strabone: Geografia, BUR Biled, 384 pp, 1998

Swanson, D. A., Casadevall, T. J., Dzurisin, D., Malone, S. D., Newhall, C. G., & Weaver, C. S.: Predicting eruptions at Mount St. Helens, June 1980 through December 1982. Science, 221(4618), 1369-1376, 1983.

- Testo unico delle disposizioni legislative e regolamentari in materia edilizia, d.P.R. n. 380/2001.

 https://www.bosettiegatti.eu/info/norme/statali/2001_0380.htm
- The Marshal Plain; https://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/marshall-plan-1 (last access Dec 2020)
- Valensise, G., Tarabusi, G., Guidoboni, E., Ferrari, G.: The forgotten vulnerability: A geology-and history-based approach for ranking the seismic risk of earthquake-prone communities of the Italian Apennines. International journal of disaster risk reduction, 25, 289-300, 2017.
- 1023 <u>Vesuvìa project: https://www.viveretraivulcani.it/il-progetto-vesuvia/</u> 1024
- Ulisse, C.: Il degrado del territorio vesuviano. Causa ed effetti. Rischio vulcanico e programmazione territoriale. Provincia di Napoli, Osservatorio Vesuviano. Atti del Convegno, 10-11-12 Febbraio 1987, Napoli-Casamicciola, pp 69-74, 1984.
- Usamah, M., Haynes, K.: An examination of the resettlement program at Mayon Volcano: what can we learn for sustainable volcanic risk reduction? Bulletin of volcanology, 74(4), 839-859, 2012.
- <u>Yokoyama, I.: Pozzuoli event in 1970. Nature 229(532–534):1970</u>
- 1033
 Wisner, B.: Disaster risk reduction in megacities: making the most of human and social capital. Building safer cities: The future of disaster risk, 181-96, 20