

Signature of the 2005 Flood Event in the Sediments of Lake Brienz: Implications for Flood Reconstruction

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Abstract

In August 2005, an extreme precipitation event led to episodes of erosion, flooding, landslides and debris flows over Switzerland. Strong rainfall initiated on the 20th of August, peaking on August 22 and finally decreasing on the 23rd of August. Between 20-23rd of August, more than 300 mm of rain fell in some regions. Lake Brienz (Bernese Oberland) is considered to be the one of the most representative examples of the destructive power of the event. In the night between the 22nd and 23rd of August, two debris flows from two mountain torrents (Trachtbach and Glyssibach) hit the villages of Brienz and Schwanden bei Brienz, damaging and partly destroying the area and causing the death of two inhabitants. During the event, flooding was also observed for the two main tributaries of the lake, Lütschine and Aare, with discharges increasing by an order of magnitude of 3-4 compared to normal levels.

The present study focuses on a sedimentological and hydrological analysis of the 2005 flood event in Lake Brienz. The 2005 layer was identified in the sediment record and the contribution of the different inflows during the event was assessed based on sedimentary differences within the layers and the geochemical composition of the sediments. Geochemical analysis provided insights on the two main controlling factors of the sediments, such as lithology and grain size. The lithological signal allowed to differentiate the contribution of Aare and Lütschine inflows, which present a different catchment geology and lithology. Cores presenting a Lütschine signal show a carbonate and siliciclastic composition, while cores reflecting the Aare signal mainly present a siliciclastic composition. Calcium was therefore used as proxy for the distinction of Aare and Lütschine input. Grain size and carbon content analysis were also applied to better differentiate the different riverine contributions, as well as to identify the two debris flows within the sediment record. Trachtbach and Glyssibach presented a higher carbonate content in respect to the two major inflows due to sedimentary composition of the two catchments, and their related debris flows were identified in two cores. The extent of the different riverine contributions during the flood was assessed, however missing layers in the deep centre precluded a complete reconstruction of the extent of the turbidic plumes deriving from the event. Missing layers have been interpreted to be a result of erosion or unsuccessful core recovery due to very coarse and thick material accumulated in the centre of the lake. Discharge and precipitation time series were also analysed in order to reconstruct the succession of events during the 2005 flood. Finally, an estimation of the volume of sediments transported and accumulated in the lake basin was presented for all the studied inflows. It was estimated that around 1 Mio m³ of material deposited during the event.

Overall, Lake Brienz provided valuable insights on sedimentary processes characterizing the flood of August 2005 in the area, allowing to extend the flood record in the Holocene and to better interpret climatic conditions of floods triggered by extreme precipitation events.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Research Motivation

Flood events represent one of the most common and disruptive natural hazards, leading to extensive and costly damage and therefore representing a major threat for human lives, infrastructure, economy and natural ecosystems (Münich, 2014; Barredo, 2007; IPCC, 2012). In the last few decades, Europe has been struck by several major floods. An example of such catastrophic events is the massive flooding in the catchments of Danube and Elbe in August 2002. This event caused 38 casualties and more than 18 billion Euros worth of damage. During this episode, Germany alone registered a financial damage amounting to 11,6 billion Euros. In 2007, extreme precipitation in Great Britain led to several flood events and led to 14 fatalities and to a financial damage of about 5,4 billion Euros (Hilker, Badoux, & Hegg, 2009).

Mountainous regions, specifically, are one of the most sensitive ecosystems to such events. Atmospheric patterns such as temperature and precipitation, as well as specific micro-climates and geomorphological characteristics of the area, highly influence the initiation of floods in Alpine regions (Weingartner et al., 2003; Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004). Because of their high elevation, mountainous areas are characterized by higher rainfall compared to lowlands (Viviroli et al., 2010). However, vegetation cover, topographic relief, soil type and runoff characteristics of the area strongly determine a rapid or slow conversion of precipitation into runoff (Weingartner et al., 2003; Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004; Viviroli et al., 2010). For this reason, a change in atmospheric variables will largely influence hydrological processes, especially in sensitive regions such as the Alps. As projected from the IPCC, temperature and precipitation patterns will be subjected to seasonal and regional changes (IPCC, 2012), which will in turn affect seasonal runoff and discharge. Therefore, there is a need to improve the understanding of processes related to the initiation and development of flood events, especially in complex and important regions such as mountains. It is thus important to study past events in order to have a more comprehensive understanding about triggers, magnitudes and frequency of floods in the last hundreds (or thousands) of years. Lake sediments provide valuable, continuous, long-term and highly-resolved records of processes influencing the area surrounding the lake throughout time (Schillereff et al., 2014). Flood events can be identified in the sediment records based on different depositional processes and other specific characteristics, such as thickness, geochemistry and lithology (Gilli et al., 2003).

In this project, lake sediments will be used to study a specific flood event. In August 2005, a particular low-pressure system triggered a large-scale heavy rainfall over Switzerland, Southern Germany and partly Eastern Europe. Central Switzerland, especially on the northern flanks of the Alps, has been strongly affected by the torrential rainfalls, which registered up to 300 mm in three days (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). This exceptional water discharge led to soil saturation, massive erosion, floods, landslides and debris flows in many regions of Switzerland, causing up to 3 billion CHF damage and leading to six casualties. Overall, the flood of August 2005 has been described as the most destructive event that has ever been registered in Switzerland since 1972, when the systematic recording of storm damages began (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). Specifically, the Canton of Bern has been one of the most affected areas, accounting for 25% of the total damages (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). In particular, the region of Lake Brienz in the Bernese Oberland is one of the most representative examples of the destructive power of the event. During the night between the 22nd and the 23rd of August, two large debris flows hit the village of Brienz and Schwanden b. Brienz, causing the destruction of several buildings and leading to two casualties (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007; Müller, 2007).

As far as reviewed literature has shown, no publications to date have focused on the sedimentological aspects of the 2005 event, rather they directed their attention on the causes and predisposition of the event, as well as on the singular inflows and related flooding (Zimmermann, 2006a, 2006b; Müller & Loew, 2009). For this reason, this thesis will focus on the reconstruction and understanding of the event from a sedimentary point of view. The sedimentary record of the lake will be analysed through a series of visual, physical, geochemical and particle-size analyses in order to retrieve information about the different catchments' contribution to the event. The discharges from the main inflows will be also analysed in order to investigate the succession of events during the flood, and an estimation of the sediments transported into the lake by individual inflows will be presented.

1.2 Floods

The Special Report from the IPCC (2012), defines floods as *“the overflowing of the normal confines of a stream or other body of water or the accumulation of water over areas that are not normally submerged. Floods include river (fluvial) floods, flash floods, urban floods, pluvial floods, sewage floods, coastal floods and glacial lake outburst floods”*. River floods, which this thesis will focus on, are usually related to an increase in stream discharge. This often rapid increase in water-flow causes overbanking with subsequent flooding of the surrounding area (Støren, 2011). The damages associated to such events depend on the intensity of the flood (the speed and the volume of transported water), as well as on the suspended load carried during the event (Kundzewicz et al., 2014). The magnitude defines the return period (or recurrence interval) between two floods of a specific size (e.g. 100-, 200-, 300-year flood) (Støren, 2011). High magnitude floods can be defined as extreme events, which are defined from the IPCC (2012) as *“[...] a value of a weather or climate variable above a threshold value near the upper ends of the range of observed values of the variable”*. Statistically speaking, extremes are events, which deviate from the mean and are as rare or rarer than the 90th percentile (IPCC, 2012). Such events are usually of short duration and with a large return period (Støren, 2011).

1.2.1 Floods in Switzerland

In the last decades Switzerland experienced several natural events, which caused serious damage. Figure 1.1, for example, shows the result of a study conducted by Hilker et al. (2009), in which a flood and landslide damage database was created for Switzerland for the time period between 1972 and 2007.

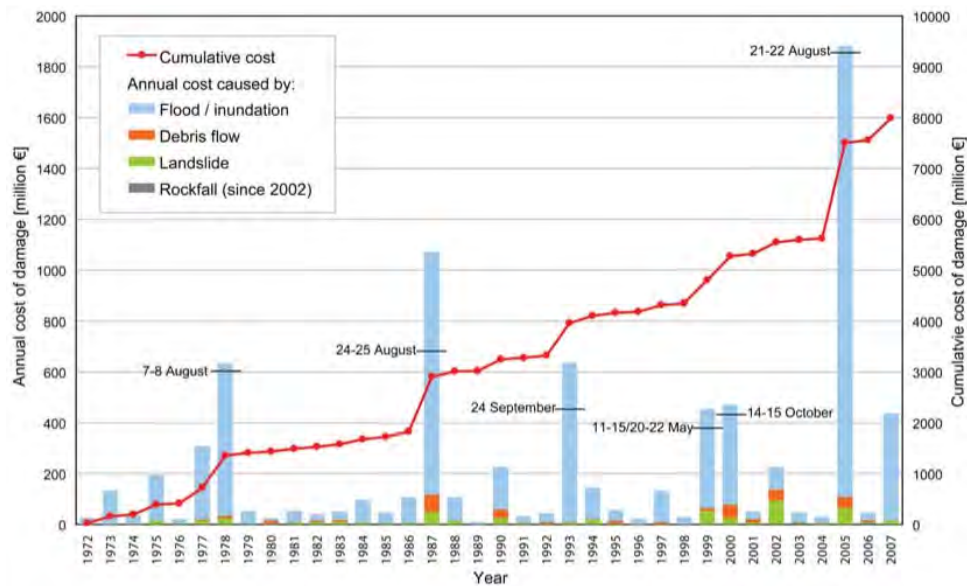


Fig. 1.1 Flood and landslide damage in Switzerland from 1972 to 2007 (Hilker et al. 2009). Bars represents annual costs (in million Euros) due to natural hazards. Blue bars are indicative for flood and inundations, red bars for debris flows, green bars for landslides and grey bars for rockfalls. The red dotted line indicates the cumulative cost for the studied period (in million Euros).

Figure 1.1 shows the cumulative cost of damage deriving from floods and/or inundations, debris flows, landslides and rockfalls. Six major events are clearly visible: August 1978, August 1987, September 1993, March 1999, October 2000 and August 2005. From the period of 1972 to 2007, natural events caused around 8 billion Euros worth of damage in Switzerland. The six events mentioned before totalled 56% of the overall damage. 89% of the total costs (7110 million Euros) were caused by floods and inundations, while debris flows covered only 4% (340 million Euros). Landslide and rockfall events caused 6% (520 million Euros) and less than 1% (15 million Euros) of the total cost, respectively. The study also shows that 75% (6000 million Euros) of the total losses were caused by an event triggered by high-duration rainfall, while thunderstorms were accountable for just 23%, representing 1850 million Euros. Most significantly, the six major disasters were all reported to be caused by long-lasting rainfall. Regarding the temporal distribution of flooding, the study showed that most of the events (72%) occurred from June to August, with August recording the highest number of flood events. The likelihood to have flood events in summertime shows quite a stable pattern concerning timing of discharge on a mountain catchment, as it will be presented in the next section 1.2.2.

1.2.2 Floods in Mountain Regions

Mountain regions play a significant role concerning hydrological processes. Covering around a quarter of the Earth's surface (Weingartner et al., 2003), they differ from the lowlands in terms of micro-climate, elevation, evaporation, temperature and precipitation patterns, providing higher rainfall and discharge and therefore supplying the lowlands in terms of water demand (Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004). The Swiss Alps, in particular, play a major role for production and transport of water surplus to the surrounding lowlands (Weingartner et al., 2003). Situated in Central Europe, the Alps are influenced by three different humid areas - the Mediterranean, the Atlantic and the Northern Sea (Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004) - and can therefore rely on constant sources of humidity (Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004). The higher precipitation occurring in mountainous environments (in the form of rain in the summer and stored as snow and ice in the winter), as well as reduced evapotranspiration, lower net radiation, higher snow cover and a more opened vegetation cover leads to a high storage of water in

such regions (Viviroli et al., 2010). For this reason, the Swiss Alps are defined as “the water tower of Europe” (Mountain Agenda, 1998). Characterized by one of the densest hydrological network, the Swiss Alps constantly distribute their water surplus not only to the Swiss lowlands, but also to Western and Central Europe, as well as to the Mediterranean Sea (Weingartner et al., 2003; Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004; Beniston, 2010). While in many regions of the planet there is minimal usage of mountains for human settlements, the surrounding lowlands are usually characterized by a higher density of settlements, industries and agricultural areas (Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004). Mountain discharge as such has a great importance concerning the population living in the lowlands, which uses the incoming water for land use, energy production, and human development. However, the role of mountain-water supply comes with dangers, namely the highly destructive potential of mountain discharge, usually experienced in form of floods (Weingartner et al., 2003). It is therefore of great importance to understand the complexity behind such events in Alpine regions.

In mountainous areas, the initiation of floods is mainly determined by the hydrological and geomorphological characteristics of the catchment. These characteristics are twofold: the ones connected with altitude, such as precipitation, temperature, soil development and vegetation, and the elements connected with the surrounding relief, such as wind and slope (Weingartner et al., 2003). Altitude is an important characteristic for floods triggered in Alpine regions. Catchments located between 1000 and 2000 meters above sea level (m a.s.l.) are the most vulnerable. Characterized by steep slopes, thin soils, a poor vegetation cover and high precipitation intensity, such catchments often respond very rapidly to weather events. A further element, which contributes to this vulnerability, is the dense river network, which characterizes most of the Alpine catchments and contributes to a rapid conversion of precipitation into surface runoff (Weingartner et al., 2003). By contrast, catchments situated both in lowlands and higher up in the Alpine area (lower 1000 m a.s.l or above 2000 m a.s.l) are characterized by lower runoff coefficients and are less likely to trigger a flood event (Weingartner et al., 2003).

1.2.3 Precipitation

Precipitation is a major trigger for floods in alpine regions (Froidevaux & Martius, 2016; Weingartner et al., 2003). Acting as a physical barrier, the Alps are characterized by convective and advective weather systems, which are not able to cross the mountain chain resulting in higher rates of precipitation with increasing elevation (Viviroli et al., 2010). This, along with a catchment’s other characteristics (shallow soils, steep slopes, open vegetation), contributes to the rapid conversion of precipitation into runoff (Viviroli et al., 2010).

1.2.3.1 Precipitation in Alpine Regions

There are two major atmospheric precursors, which lead to rainfall: (1) there must be strong and continuous moisture in a region, which is transported towards Switzerland, and (2) this moist air must ascent towards the Alps (Froidevaux & Martius, 2016). Concerning the transport of moist air masses, atmospheric rivers (ARs) play a crucial role. ARs are weather systems, which can be defined as corridors transporting water vapour (Stucki et al., 2012). These corridors are usually related to tropical and moist air masses, which get transported further inland (Froidevaux & Martius, 2016). Once transported towards the Alps, the second atmospheric precursor comes into play. The ascension of moist and warm air is caused by two main processes: convective systems (Fig. 1.2a) and orographic uplift (Fig. 1.2b). Also known as Mesoscale Convective Systems (MSC), these convective systems are characterized by several thunderstorms clustered and acting as a single system (NSSL, n.d). In meteorology, a convective

process refers to an upward movement and a subsequent heating up of the air mass caused by a warm surface. The warmer air mass becomes less dense and therefore rises up in the atmosphere, leading to formation of clouds and instabilities as shown in Fig. 1.2a (WW2010, n.d). At high altitude, the mass cools and its water holding capacity decreases, therefore leading to rainfall. Usually related to intense and short-lasting rainfall in summer, these systems have a major role controlling precipitation events over the European Alps, especially in the Alpine foothills (Weingartner et al., 2003).

Orographic uplift is another type of advection process that largely affects the Alps. For this process, air masses coming from the surrounding regions encounter mountainous relief and are therefore forced to rise. The large evaporation from the warm sea surface, combined with low-pressure systems on the Mediterranean, cause the transport of humid air masses towards the Alps, where the uplifting process takes place. This causes precipitation events, which affect especially the southern Alps, causing long-lasting flood events in spring and autumn (Weingartner et al., 2003). In general, however, the Alpine chain acts as an obstacle towards atmospheric flows coming from different directions, which releases heavy precipitation only on one side of the mountain, while the opposite side is characterized by lower precipitation (Fig. 1.2b) (Viviroli et al., 2010).

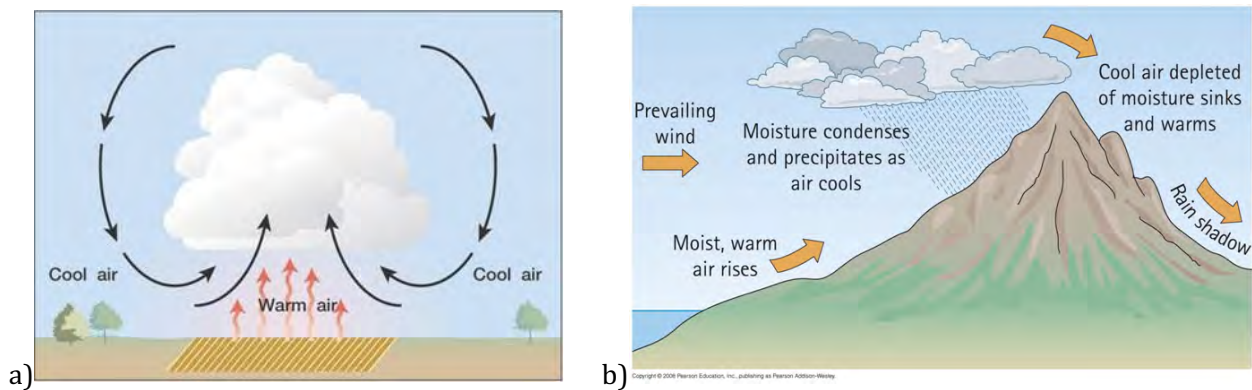


Fig. 1.2 Schemes of convective (a) and orographic (b) systems (from Hegg, 2013)

Despite the multitude of atmospheric processes, which can trigger natural hazards, there are particular weather patterns, which are related to flood events. For example, as the study by Stucki et al. (2012) indicates, the major floods of the last 120 years were caused by similar weather systems such as the Potential Velocity (PV) “cut-off” (PCO), PV streamers and/or zonal flow. *PCO*, for instance, was the weather system related to the 2005 flood event. In section 1.7.1., related to the August 2005 flood event, this synoptic system will be presented more in details.

Finally, precipitation can have either a solid or liquid form. Thus far liquid precipitation has been described. Solid precipitation, such as snow, hail and ice, play an important role in temporary storing water on the Alpine chain, and therefore contributing to the water balance in Alpine catchments (Viviroli et al., 2010).

1.2.4 Vegetation

Vegetation is an important parameter for flood events and, more specifically, for a catchment’s response to precipitation. It influences soil conditions, as well as the micro-climatic conditions of the region and acts as interceptor of rainfall (Weingartner et al., 2003). Forested areas located in the Eastern Alps, for example, intercept around 20-30% of yearly precipitation, which therefore does not contribute to runoff (Viviroli et al., 2010). Moreover, through a dense network of roots, such areas improve the stability of

soils, and thus the stability of slopes, which as a result acts as a better protection against such events (Daniel Viviroli et al., 2010). As stated before areas located above 1000 m a.s.l. are more sensitive to flood events (Weingartner et al.; 2013). This statement can also be explained through soil cover: catchments situated above this altitude provide much less vegetation cover, which in turn leads to a less stable and less water-retaining soil covered by rocks and debris. Such soils are more prone to surface runoff (Viviroli et al., 2010).

1.2.5 Topographic Relief

Topographic relief plays a key role concerning flood generation. In mountain areas, catchments are usually characterized by steep slopes, which accelerate the discharge during a rainfall event and create high-energy conditions, leading in turn to stronger erosion and mobilization of material (Weingartner et al., 2003).

1.2.6 Soil

With the ability to absorb and retain water, soils influence the occurrence of the catchment's discharge and the consequent runoff during extreme precipitation events (Weingartner, 2003).

1.2.7 Runoff

Interacting between each other, all previously mentioned processes and catchment's characteristics play a major role in the creation of discharge. The magnitude of such discharge also highly depends on the basin characteristics. Here, not only topography, altitude, soil and vegetation are taken into consideration, but also the geology of the catchment and the land-use of the region (Daniel Viviroli et al., 2010). As a result of the afore mentioned Alpine and basin characteristics, discharge is higher at higher altitudes. Concerning the timing of runoff, seasonality plays a major role. In Alpine catchments, winter runoff is largely influenced by snow and ice accumulation, while spring and early summer runoff is characterized by snowmelt. Summer discharge in Alpine catchment is largely influenced by the presence of glaciers and their relative melting processes, as well as by the weather pattern described in section 1.3.1.1 (Weingartner et al., 2003; Daniel Viviroli et al., 2010; Froidevaux & Martius, 2016).

Floods are extremely complex events, accounting for a multitude of different triggers and dependent not only on global atmospheric circulation, but also on the regional and local characteristics of the region and of the studied catchment. In addition, there are limitations in the understanding of hydrological processes in Alpine regions resulting from the inadequacy of measuring networks tackling the high spatial and temporal variability of hydrological processes (Viviroli & Weingartner, 2004). Weingartner et al. (2003) show that, despite the relatively dense measurement network in the Swiss Alpine area (on average one station per 120 km²), because of the complexity concerning precipitation patterns and topography, the network is still poorly represented. The study shows that just 18% of the stations are located above 1312 m a.s.l., with a density of measuring networks at high altitude of just one station every 350 km². As the area between 1000 and 2000 m a.s.l. is the most sensitive to flood events, it is implied that there is a lack of measurement stations in the most responsive region of Switzerland.

1.3 Floods and Climate

Future behaviour of flood events largely depends on the changes within the climate system (Messerli et al., 2004). Changes in climate will impact the sensitive hydrological cycle (IPCC, 2012; Schillereff, Chiverrell, Macdonald, & Hooke, 2014). Temperature and precipitation patterns are therefore important variables whose future changes need to be understood in order to predict changes in the intensity and frequency of flood events. In general, it is expected that in the future an increase in moisture in the atmosphere of 7% approximately per degree of warming will occur, following the Clausius-Clapeyron relation (Frei et al., 2000). A warmer and more humid atmosphere will lead to an intensification not only of evaporation, but of the entire hydrological cycle (Frei et al., 2000).

In Europe, large-scale warming is expected during all four seasons, with a larger increase in winter temperatures over Northern Europe and an increase in summer temperatures over Southern Europe (CH2011, 2011). Precipitation patterns will most likely experience a change as well, with an increase in precipitation over Northern Europe and a decrease over Southern Europe (CH2011, 2011; IPCC, 2012). Europe will, in general, experience a shift in mean precipitation, with a decrease in summer and an increase in winter months. Consistent with European patterns, Switzerland will most likely experience an increase in temperature. Temperatures are expected to rise, especially during the summer months, with a higher increase in the southern part of Switzerland (CH2011). The amplitude of the change in temperature varies depending on the climate scenario. On the other hand, precipitation changes are more uncertain for Switzerland. As Switzerland is located in the transition zone between the two above-mentioned European projected precipitation patterns, there is more uncertainty about changes in future precipitation. However, there is a general consensus that precipitation will follow an increase in winter and spring (Beniston, 2006).

1.4 Floods in the Future

In Alpine catchments, changes in hydrological processes due to an increase in temperature and changes in precipitation will mainly affect the melting of glaciers and snow, and therefore strongly influencing seasonal river discharge (CH2014, 2014). A change in such atmospheric variables will lead to a change in the ratio of liquid and solid precipitation for the winter and spring season. This modification in seasonal storage will therefore be followed by a change in seasonal discharge patterns (Viviroli et al., 2010; Köplin et al., 2014). The interaction between temperature, precipitation and atmospheric processes is complex and there are uncertainties on how and to which extent they will interact together, as well as on the role they will have for flood patterns in the future (CH2011, 2011). In the literature there are conflicting opinions on the range of changes in flood events in the future. Most studies focus on changes in future seasonality rather than flood frequency or intensity. As stated from the IPCC 5th Assessment Report “[...] there continues to be a lack of evidence and this low confidence regarding the sign of trend in the magnitude and/or frequency floods on a global scale”.

A study from Birsan et al. (2005) focused on the detection and identification of Alpine runoff trends from 1931 to 2000, a period during which changes in the climate were observed. The study performed an analysis of precipitation and discharge, as well as of a wide range of catchment's characteristics (basin area, mean altitude, mean slope, soil depth, geology, rock and glacier coverage) for 48 basins located throughout Switzerland. The results showed that for the study period, a general increase in annual discharge was recorded for all basins. A stronger increase has been found especially in winter and spring, while the detection of a summer trend was more complex and less consistent. Other studies focused on a longer time-scale (e.g. Schmockler-Fackel & Naef, 2010; Wirth et al., 2013), showing that

flood frequency in Switzerland was high during the second half the 19th century and decreased during the beginning of the 20th century until 1975. After this date, it was shown that the frequency of flood events increased again. Specifically, between 1882 and 1976, Switzerland has been affected by only a few natural disasters (Pfister, 2009). Such “disaster gap” lead to a decrease in consciousness and awareness of the destructive power of flood events. Therefore, time series spanning along the 20th century in Switzerland recorded the “disaster gap”, and can therefore be misleading for what concerns trends of floods and other natural hazards, showing a strong increase in frequency despite of the fact that the 19th century recorded many flood events.

Beniston (2010) followed an approach more focused on the future. This study shows that projections for Alpine discharge in 2100 indicate that a first peak runoff will be recorded two or three months earlier in the year, followed by a second peak in summer. According to the author, the volume of the summer peak will strongly depend on the volume of the upstream glaciers, which is expected to decline under a warmer climate. Therefore, the runoff peak in summer is expected to be much more modest compared to spring due to the smaller availability of snow-pack and glaciers. Further, the study states that heavy precipitation events will occur in early spring and winter (melting seasons), and that such events will have a cumulative effect on water release. Catchments will not be able to absorb the excess of water, which will result in an increase discharge and thus an increase in flood risk.

Yet precise projections on future mountain discharge patterns under a changing climate are difficult to draw, especially considering the difficulty and uncertainty that global circulation models (GCMs) and regional climatic forecasts have in projecting climatic change on a regional and local level (Messerli et al., 2004). Hydrological models are extremely complex and as such are difficult to apply to higher altitudes and snow-covered areas (Messerli et al., 2004). To conclude this section, flood occurrences are likely to change in a future climate. However, the understanding of the extent of this change has still to be improved.

1.5 Lake Sediments as Archives

The understanding of flood processes and their related future changes in frequency and intensity is of great value in a mountainous area like Switzerland. The damage potential of such events must not be underestimated, and in order to infer some information about the future it is important to look into the past. Instrumental and historical records, however, do not cover a long enough time span. In order to acquire a comprehensive understanding of past processes and their relation with and variability to changes in climate, long-term records (on a centennial to millennial scale) are required (Schillereff et al., 2014). In the inner Alps, for example, systematic instrumental measurement of hydrological parameters has been collected only for the past 100 years (L. Schulte, Peña, et al., 2015). For this reason, an increasing number of scientific studies are focusing on reconstructing past flood events in various locations of the planet using lake sediments (Amann et al., 2015). Wirth et al. (2013), for example, used lake sediments to study flood frequency spanning throughout the last 10'000 years, covering a much longer time-span compared to instrumental measurements.

Depending on the characteristics of an Alpine region, catchments can be more or less prone to erosive processes and mobilization of material. Clastic, allochthonous material coming from the catchment, the surrounding area or from the atmosphere is continuously transported into the basin by the catchment's hydrological network (Gilli et al., 2003; Schillereff et al., 2014). Once the transported material reaches the lake, it settles on the lake basin and becomes incorporated into the sediment. Normal 'vertical' sedimentation refers to background sedimentation, which is a low and continuous sedimentation rate

(Gilli et al., 2003). This vertical or pelagic-type 'endogenic' sedimentation contrasts to 'lateral' sedimentation where various forms of flows transport and redistribute detrital constituents through the lake. The process of incorporation and sedimentation of transported material occurs since the formation of the lake, providing information about past conditions surrounding the water basin. Lakes, therefore, provide highly-resolved, long and continuous records of processes and variables influencing the formation of the lake and its history, such as past climate, vegetation, tectonic activity, bedrock composition, anthropogenic impacts (Cohen, 2003), as well as information on lake conditions and their surroundings (Gilli et al., 2003). Thus lakes can act as archives, recording palaeoenvironmental conditions. Lake sediments therefore provide ideal archives for the investigation of changes in past sedimentation rates, which can provide insight on palaeofloods or debris flood events. In order to reconstruct flood events a more specific focus on the sedimentation processes of a river flume are required.

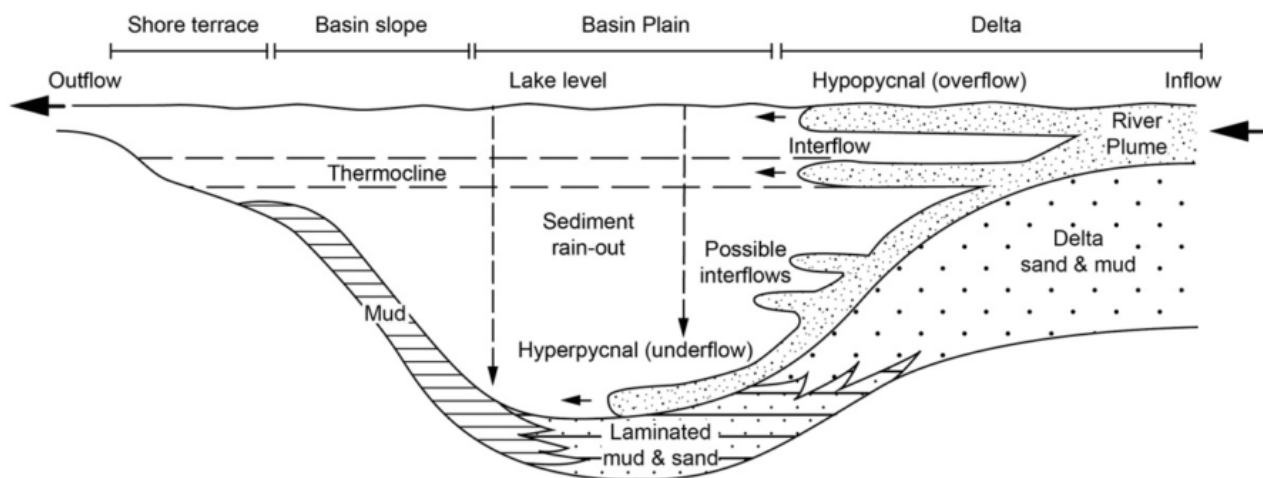


Fig. 1.3 Sedimentation scheme for a clastic lake, as proposed by Sturm and Matter (1978) and modified by Schillereff et al. (2014)

Figure 1.3 represents a scheme of sedimentation processes and their relative deposits in a lake. The scheme was produced for a study for Lake Brienz (Sturm & Matter, 1978), and can therefore be applied to lakes characterized by a major input of clastic material. Figure 1.3 shows the sedimentary processes involved when a river plume enters a lake. Such a plume can develop into three types of flows: hypopycnal (or overflow), interflow and hyperpycnal (or underflow). Differences in density between the water body of a lake and the incoming water flow determine the distribution of the transported sediment load into one of the three afore-mentioned flow types (Schillereff et al., 2014). If the incoming streamflow is characterized by a lower density than that of the lake basin (such as for normal discharge), it will enter the lake as overflow. Interflows are located at the boundary between warm and less dense lake surface waters (epilimnion) and the deep, cold and dense waters (hypolimnion). This boundary is referred as thermocline, which represents a thermal stratification between the surface and deep waters (Cohen, 2003). Interflow occurs in stratified lakes when the density of the river discharge is lower than the hypolimnion but higher than the epilimnion (Sturm & Matter, 1978). For both inter- and overflows, the material is then transported in suspension and slowly integrated into the sedimentary record as it settles, forming laminations.

Underflows, or hyperpycnal flows, occur when sedimentation within a lake is largely dependent on sediment supply (Gilli et al., 2003). Extreme events, such as floods or debris-flows, increase erosive processes in the catchment, therefore mobilizing large volumes of particles, which are transported along stream channels and floodplains. In contrast to the normal sedimentation process described in Figure

1.3, water flows containing large amounts of suspended material are much denser than lake waters. Such high-density flows will therefore enter the lake as underflows (also called turbiditic underflow) (Gilli et al., 2013) moving along the deepest region of the basin. There, flow velocity decreases and the underflow spreads on the lake bed and is deposited as a distinct detrital layer (Gilli et al., 2013). These detrital layers will be here forth be referred to as turbidites. Turbidites differ from the background sedimentation in a wide range of characteristics, which are detectable through sedimentological and geochemical analyses. The following list contains the main characteristics of a turbidite:

- **THICKNESS:** flood events mobilize a large amount of material, which is transported to the lake in a short period of time and therefore leaves a distinct thicker sediment layer.
- **LITHOLOGY AND COMPOSITION:** flood-related turbidites usually have a different mineralogical composition, in line with the surrounding catchment composition, and are commonly characterized by a low organic content (Gilli et al., 2003). Such differences are visible in the sediment layering, for example, if the background sedimentation is characterized by authigenic material (light colour, such as for Lake Brienz), the turbidite will present a darker colour. On the contrary, if the sedimentation within the lake consists of organic material (dark colour), the detrital layer will be characterized by a lighter colour (Gilli et al., 2003). This characteristic allows for a first, visual differentiation of the flood layer.
- **SEDIMENTOLOGY AND DEPOSITIONAL PROCESSES:** differing from background sedimentation, turbidites are characterized by a different sedimentation processes which reflect flood dynamics (Gilli et al., 2003). The depositional characteristics of turbidites, especially their grain size, are dependent on flow energy and velocity (Mulder et al., 2001; Mulder et al., 2003). During a flood event, while the coarser and heavier fraction may not leave the catchment (depositing rather on alluvial fans), the finer particles stay in suspension in the water flow, and are transported longer distances to the lake basin. For this reason, turbidites are usually characterized by an upward grading of grain size. Depending on the magnitude of the event, turbidites can be characterized by normal or inversely graded sections (Wirth et al., 2011). While normally graded sections show a fining upward of grain size, with coarser material at the bottom and finer at the top, inversely graded sections show a coarsening up of grain size towards the top (Mulder et al., 2003). The first deposit is characteristic for the initial peak discharge, which is followed by a decline in flow energy. Inversely graded turbidites mirror an increase in flow velocity during the flood event (Wirth et al., 2011).
- **GEOCHEMISTRY:** geochemical analysis are common techniques for the identification and differentiation of turbidites and detrital layers along a sediment core. Elements, which are characteristics of turbidites are, for example, aluminium (Al), silicon (Si), iron (Fe), potassium (K) and titanium (Ti) (Croudace et al., 2006; Ian W Croudace & Rothwell, 2015; Gilli et al., 2003).

1.6 August 2005 Flood Event

In August 2005, Europe was hit by a major flood event. The major affected areas were located in southern Bavaria, Germany, Salzburg, Austria, Switzerland, Romania and Bulgaria (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). During the event, Switzerland was severely impacted and the event caused damages costing 3 billion CHF (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007).

1.6.1 Meteorological Situation

The August 2005 flood event was triggered by a particular cyclonic system, the so-called PCO (Pivoting cut-off). The term pivoting refers to the path of the cyclonic system, which in this case “cuts off” and surrounds the Alps, moving from the Mediterranean across northern Italy (Stucki et al., 2012). This synoptic weather system moves following the pattern of the classic Van Bebber cyclone track (Vb), which is known to have high potential for triggering summer floods (Stucki et al., 2012; Messmer et al., 2015). Despite cyclonic systems often develop during summer season, the reason the event caused such a high degree of damage is explained by a succession of weather events and processes, which lead up to the main flooding event. In the days prior to the event a low-pressure system, situated over Great Britain, moved towards France, bringing with it humid air masses. The eastern side of this low-pressure system reached central Switzerland on the 18th of August causing heavy storms. Already leading up to the 18th of August, central and eastern Switzerland registered 75% more rainfall than usually experienced for the month of August (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). While such precipitation events are not uncommon in the summer season, the succeeding stages and development of the system played a crucial role in the triggering of the flood event. On the 19th of August, a low-pressure system characterized by cyclonic activity developed over the Netherlands, moving towards Benelux. During this day, Switzerland registered between 20 and 40 mm of rain over its territory. This cyclonic system subsequently moved to northern Italy on the 20th of August, where at the same time a further surface low-pressure system developed over the Gulf of Genoa. The associated humid air mass slowly moved from the Mediterranean across northern Italy and towards Switzerland. There, such masses shifted their main North-South axis towards a much more horizontal orientation, pivoting around the Alps from the East, following in an anti-clockwise direction. During this phase, Switzerland experienced north-easterly winds caused by the convective character of the system, which caused long-lasting and intense precipitation on both sides of the Swiss Alps. The 21st of August was characterized by an intensification of the low-pressure system south of the Alps. The system increased its power, and a large area of rainfall developed over central Switzerland, with a specific focus on the Bernese Oberland, where the highest rainfall intensities were registered in Switzerland (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). During the morning of the 22nd, the low-pressure system reached its maximum and the entire system moved eastwards (concentrically) towards the northern Adriatic. Upper winds turned north of the Alps, with the northern flanks of the Alpine chain experiencing the majority of heavy precipitation. All of Switzerland was consequently impacted by precipitation, significantly so in Central and Eastern Switzerland. During the 22nd of August the highest daily sums of the entire precipitation event were registered, with rainfall registered for the entire 24 hour day. On the 23rd of August, the wet air masses moved over Hungary, relieving Switzerland and converging on Bavaria and Austria. Figure 1.4 shows the evolution of precipitation in Switzerland during the event.

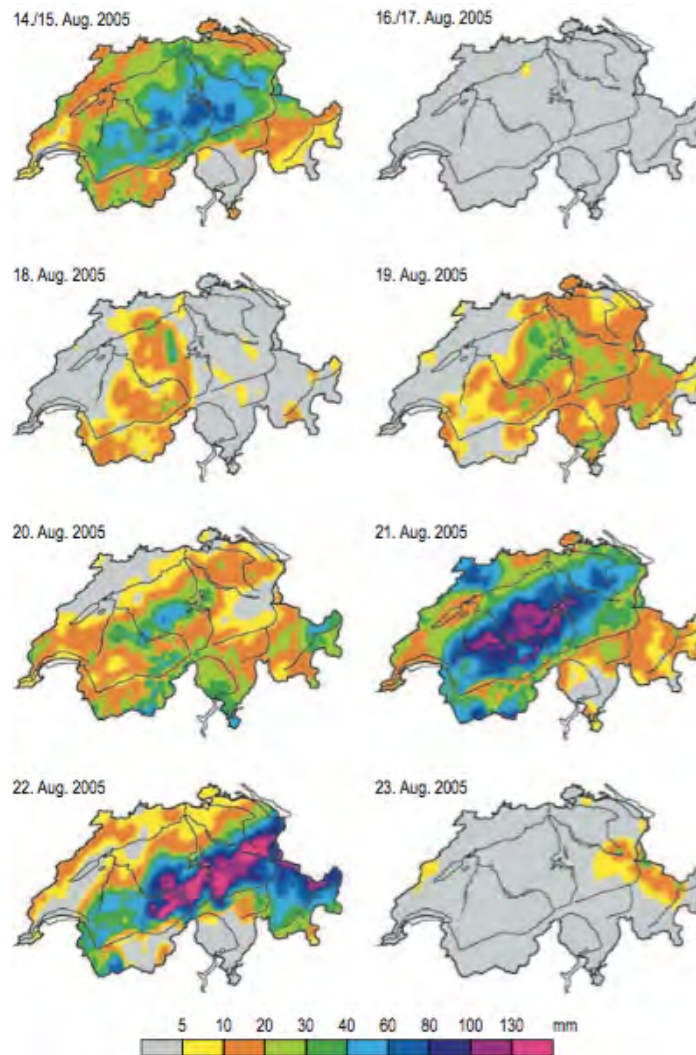


Fig. 1.4 Evolution of total daily precipitation over Switzerland from the 14th to the 23rd of August (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). The first two images (14/15th of August and 16/17th of August present total precipitation over 2 days)

The PCO characterizing the August 2005 flood event was reported to have caused the most extreme flood event of the 20th century in Switzerland in terms of precipitation rates, hydrological discharge and damage (Stucki et al., 2012). Stucki et al. (2012) reported in their work that the 2005 event was one of the highest episodes of precipitation, lasting 42 hours over the Alps. Heavy precipitation was observed from the 19th to the 22nd of August, with a maximum intensity reached on the 21-22nd of August. The total amount of rain, which fell during those two days exceeded 200 mm in 48 hours, with a maximum of 350 mm of precipitation falling from the 20th to the 23rd of August (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007; Jaeggi, 2007). Following the exceptional amount of rain fall over the territory, high runoff occurred in many streams with peak discharges exceeding a 100-year flood in many basins across Switzerland (Jaeggi, 2007). As a consequence of both long-lasting, intense precipitation and elevated discharge, several regions experienced strong erosive processes. Those, in turn, lead to a destabilization of slopes and river banks and a subsequent transport of material. The instability and transport of material lead to a number of landslides and debris flows, as well as flood events, caused both from instability or strong depositional processes due to mobilized material (Rickenmann & Koschni, 2010). Figure 1.5 shows some examples of processes triggered by the August 2005 event in Switzerland.



Fig. 1.5 Natural hazards triggered by the August 2005 event. In pictures, (a) Flood in Sarnen (SRF, 2014) (b) highly swollen River Aare in Bern (BE) (Müller, 2007) (c) Flooding in the streets of Oey (BE) (MySwitzerland.com, n.d) and (d) Flooding in the mountainous region of Klosters (GR) (Schweizer Luftwaffe, 2005)

Although the entire Swiss territory was affected by the event, major damages occurred mostly in Central Switzerland, from the Bernese Oberland to the St-Gallen Rhine Valley, as it can be observed from Figure 1.6.

The total amount of damage caused by the August 2005 flood event is ~3 billion CHF for the entire territory of Switzerland, with the recorded damage mainly results from the long duration of heavy rainfall rather than its peak intensity (Jaeggi, 2007). The 2005 event has been described as “the most catastrophic event of the last century” (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007; Stucki et al., 2012). Despite being referred to as “the event of the century”, it has been revealed that, when considering the entire event in Europe, the return period on a local scale is of about 80 years (Roger Müller & Loew, 2009). This would therefore classify the August 2005 flood event was “rare but not exceptional”.

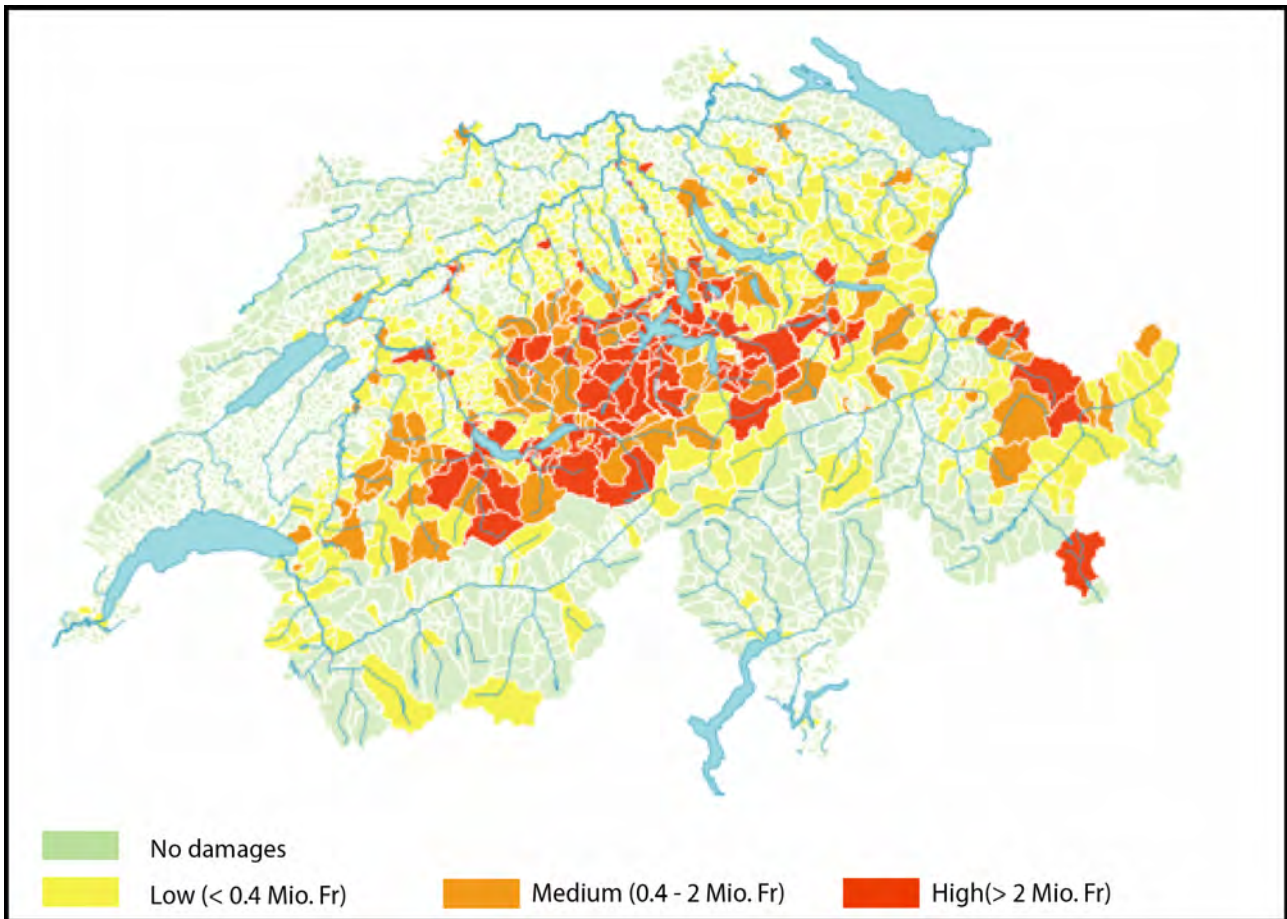


Fig. 1.6 Total damages per municipalities during the event, in million CHF. Colour green characterizes municipalities not affected in terms of damages, yellow corresponds to municipalities, which experienced low damages (< 0.4 millions CHF). Orange areas experienced medium damages (0.4-2 Mio CHF) and red areas show municipalities characterized by high damages (> 2 millions CHF). Modified from Rickenmann & Koschni (2010).

1.6.2 Lake Brienz

Lake Brienz can be described as the most representative example of the devastating power of the 2005 event. Strong rain fall in the area began on the 20th of August and peaked on the 22nd of August, reaching 215 mm in Brienz and 307 mm at higher altitudes (Roger Müller & Loew, 2009). Figure 1.7 shows the rate of daily precipitation in Brienz throughout the year 2005 and, as clearly indicated, the observed precipitation amount during the 2005 August event is outstanding. While on the 22nd of August the observed amount of precipitation reached 73 mm, the wettest day was the 23rd of August, during which 98 mm of rainfall fell in one day.

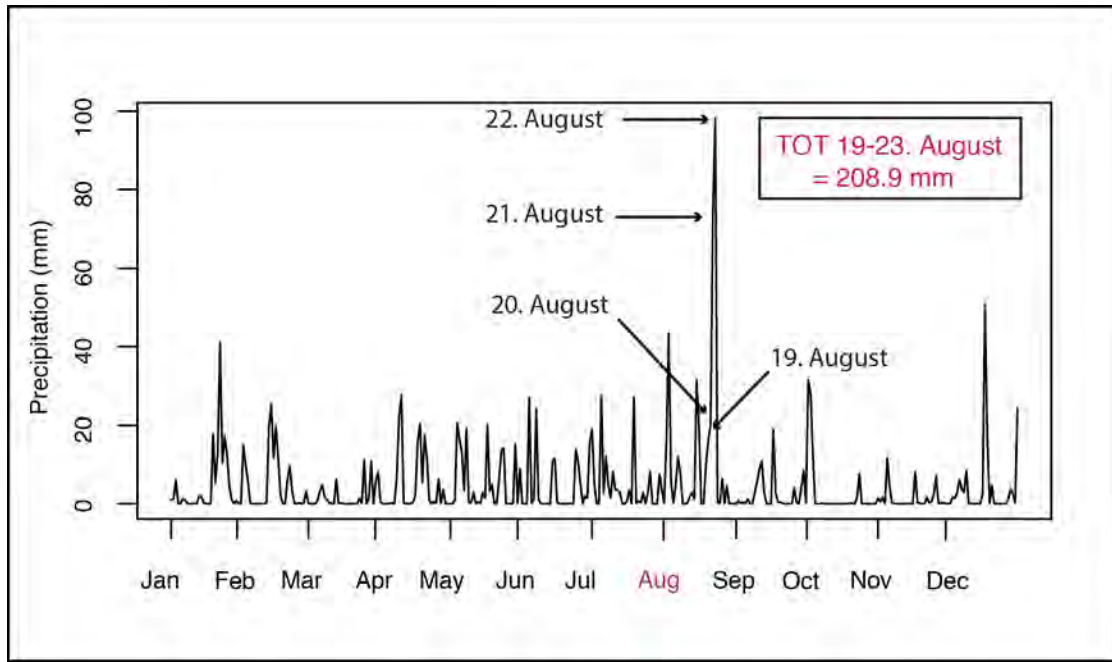


Fig. 1.7 Daily precipitation (in mm) at Brienz for the year 2005 (data from MeteoSchweiz)

The days prior the event experienced some rainfall (31 mm fell on the 15th of August and 19 mm on the 16th). Subsequently, no precipitation was recorded for the 17th and 18th, with the main precipitation event beginning only on the 19th of August with an increasing quantity of precipitation falling during the following days. Maximum rainfall was recorded on the 22nd, thereafter an abrupt discontinuation of precipitation was recorded with only 0.4 mm on the 23th of August. Such intense precipitation facilitated strong erosion on the steeper slopes surrounding the catchment, with many roads, railways lines and bridges destroyed as a result of bank collapses. Lower areas experienced rapid accumulation of material, which in turn caused flooding and overflows (Jaeggi, 2007). The river and streams of the Brienz catchment experienced a rapid increase in discharge: similarly to precipitation, discharge during the August 2005 flood event was also outstanding when compared to the runoff throughout the year (Figure 1.8).

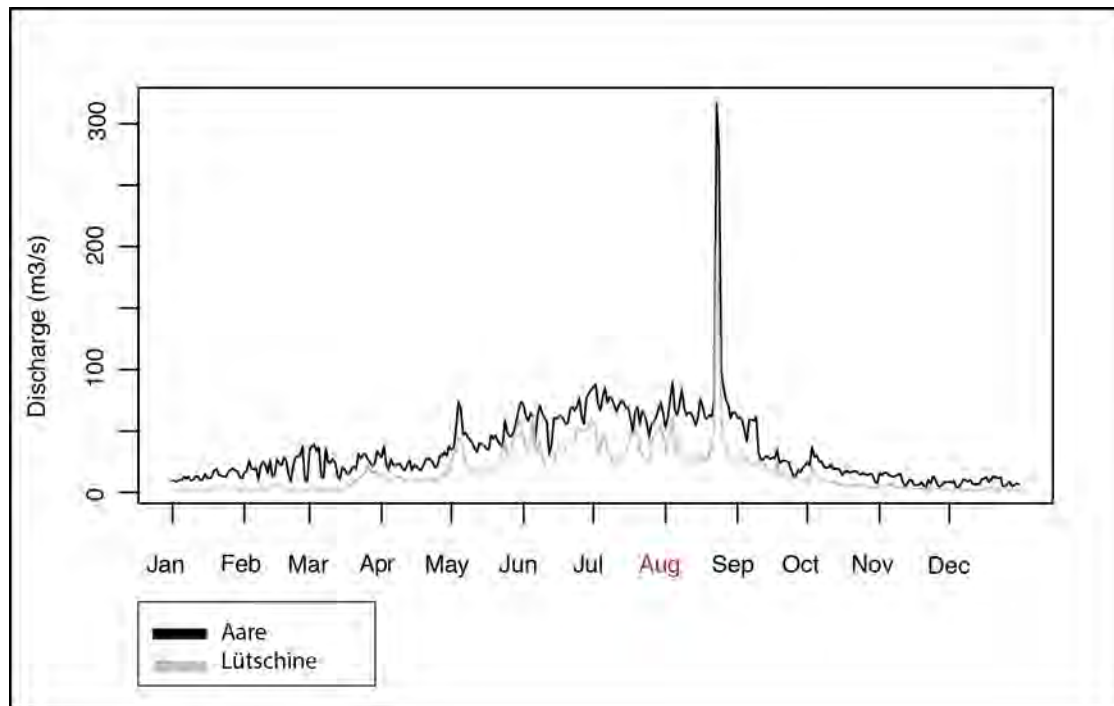


Fig. 1.8 Daily discharge (in m³/s) for Aare and Lütischine river for the year 2005, as recorded at the gauging stations of Lütischine-Gsteig and Aare-Brienzwiler

Figure 1.8 shows daily discharge for the year 2005 for both Aare (black) and Lütischine (grey). The highest discharge was reached on the 23rd of August for both tributaries, with a mean discharge reaching 204 m³/s and 316 m³/s for Lütischine and Aare, respectively. In contrast to the gradually increasing precipitation development in the catchment, discharge prior to the 23rd of August was not particularly high, with discharge values for both rivers prior to the event in line with usual discharge. Concerning the Aare discharge, an important contributor during the event was the hydropower network located upstream. In section 2.6, a more detailed explanation is given for the four hydropower stations in the region of the Grimsel Pass. Nevertheless, during the August 2005 event, the hydropower dams contributed to a reduction in the discharge of the river and accumulated water upstream. In total, 21.5% of the water mass characterizing the flood (from the Aare) was retained in such reservoirs (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). During the event, the Lütischine, which has a channelized entrance into Lake Brienz and is surrounded by levees, experienced a rapid increase of water-flow. The gauging station of Lütischine Gsteig stopped measuring discharge when 227 m³/s was reached, with an estimated peak occurring at above 250 m³/s (Jaeggi, 2007). Prior to the 2005 event, a 100-year flood was estimated at 195 m³/s, while a 200-year flood at 208 m³/s. The channelized river therefore exceeded the expected discharge, overtopping and destroying the surrounding levees (Jaeggi, 2007). In total, about half a million cubic meters of water outflowed the banks, flooding a surface of 2 km² in the area of Bönigen and Interlaken (Tiefbauamt des Kantons Bern, 2007).

It was reported by the report from Bezzola & Hegg (2007) that the estimated sediment loads transported by Lütischine and Aare were of 250'000 m³ and 350'000 m³, respectively. These volumes are an order of magnitude of 3 (Lütischine-Gsteig) and 4.5 (Aare-Brienzwiler) times higher than the average annual loads. However, a report from the Tiefbauamt des Kantons Bern (2007) estimated that the volume of sediments transported into Lake Brienz from Lütischine was ca. 20'000 m³, while the rest of the material accumulated in the flood plain due to low inclination. For Aare, no further information on the exact volume of transported sediments in the lake was available.



Fig. 1.9 The Brienz area after the 2005 flood event. Fig. a) Lütischine flood in Bönigen (Hunziker, 2014); Aare flood near Brienz (Jungfrau Zeitung, 2005); c) Glyssibach debris flow in Schwanden b. Brienz (Protection forest, Loat BWG, 2005); d) Cars destroyed by Trachtbach debris flow (Jungfrau Zeitung, 2005)

Despite both the Aare and the Lütischine rivers flooding and causing damages to the surrounding areas, the major, and most devastating, contributors to the 2005 event were the Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents. These two mountain torrents are located in the region above Brienz and Schwanden b. Brienz, on the eastern flank of the lake. The intense precipitation, which fell in the catchment during the event (more than 300 mm in three days) triggered two landslides from the Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents. The subsequent development of such landslides (moderately deep, between 2 and 10 m depth) into debris flows caused major damage in the villages of Brienz and Schwanden b. Brienz (Müller, 2009).

1.6.2.1 Trachtbach & Glyssibach Debris Flows

Müller and Loew (2009) showed through geological mapping and historical records that this area has been subject to a number of moderately deep (>2 m) and large (between 100 m³ and several 10'000 m³) landslides in the past. Such landslides often developed into debris flows, which in turn caused damage in the piedmont area of Brienz and consequently flowed into the lake. The explanation behind this is related to the geomorphology and geology of the catchments of Trachtbach and Glyssibach. In this area (mid-slope, 700-1400 m a.s.l.), mean slope gradients are on a range between 30° and 45° (Roger Müller & Loew, 2009) and are prone to erosion, instability and mass-movements. Geologically, the area comprise Jurassic and Cretaceous sediments from the Wildhorn nappe (R. Müller, 2007). From a geological and stratigraphical point of view, this area has been proven to be unstable, as will be described below in more detail. Figure 1.10 shows the geographical setting of the two catchments, prior to the 2005 event.

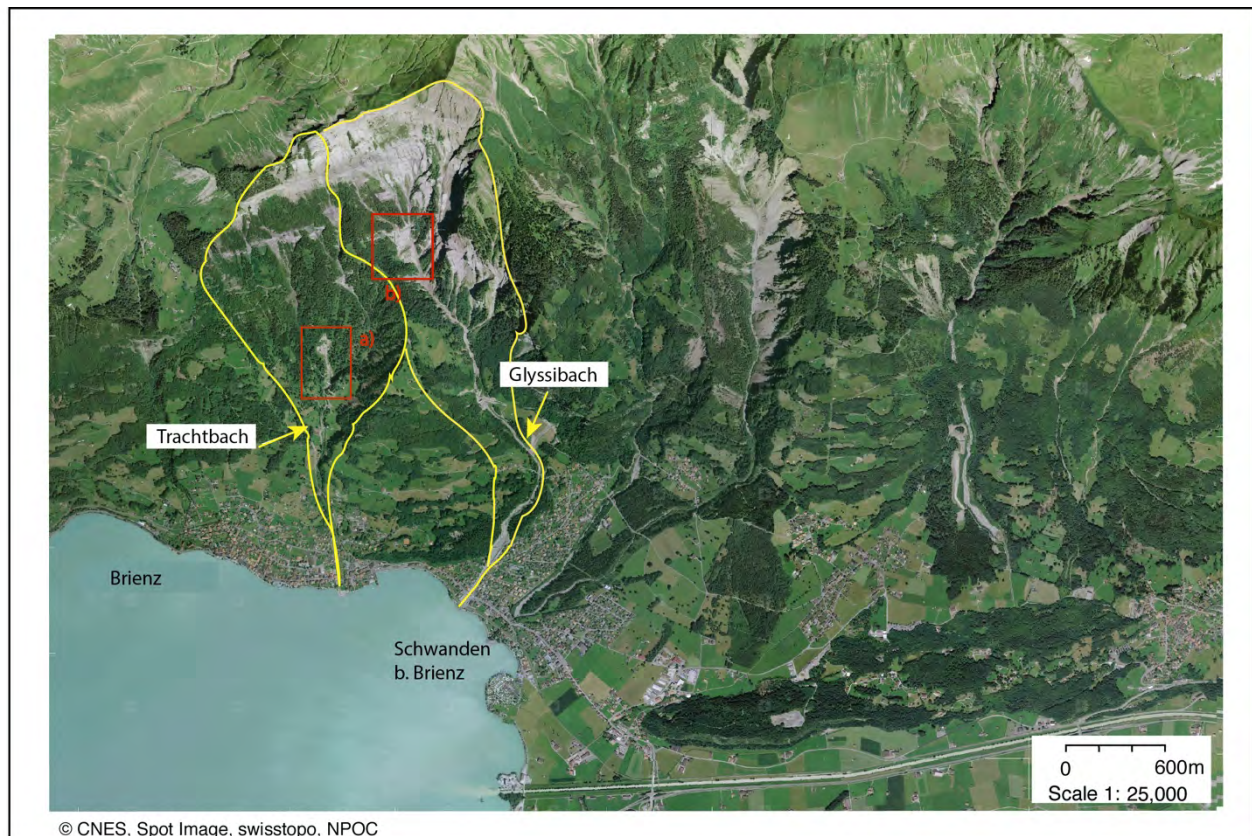


Fig. 1.10 Location of Brienz and its surroundings. Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents are indicated with white arrows. A) Location of Trachtbach landslide and b) location of Glyssibach landslide. The two catchments are indicated in yellow. Modified after Swisstopo.ch

Trachtbach Landslide

During the 2005 event, a landslide was triggered in the Ritzwald forest situated above Brienz. The weathered rock and soil composed by an unstable geological formation of Cretaceous Marls from the Wildhorn nappe. The Cretaceous series is faulted, folded and detached from the Wildhorn nappe. The detachment is due to a sequence of incompetent, soft shales and marls (Palfris Formation) forming a sliding surface between Cretaceous sediments and the Wildhorn nappe (Müllet & Loew, 2009). Thus, the area is characterized by a highly unstable alternation of Valanginian Marls from the Cretaceous. The sequence is composed by hard limestones and soft marls and shales, and through weathering of the bedrock such alternation leads to a low-permeability structure overlaid by a more permeable surface soil (Müller & Loew, 2009). During the 2005 event, such weathered and unstable formation failed, creating a sliding surface. The estimated volume of the displaced material caused by such a failure amounts to $\sim 57'000 \text{ m}^3$, while the estimated sediment load, which reached the lake is $\sim 10'000 \text{ m}^3$ (Müller & Loew, 2009; Rickenmann & Koschni, 2010). The exact time at which the landslide occurred is still unknown. As reported by Müller (2009), *“a first, highly viscose debris flow was observed at Rauenhag (750 m asl) on August 22, at 10 pm. At 10.15 and 10.20 two subsequent low-viscosity debris flows reached Lake Brienz without leaving the Trachtbach canal. The following surges overtopped the dams of the canal and inundated about 76'000 m² of land with debris in the central part of the village of Brienz”*. The Trachtbach landslide was a reactivation of an historical slide, which occurred in 1978. Brienz is located precisely on the alluvial fan of this historical landslide, and consequently the 2005 Trachtbach landslide caused the destruction of 20 habitations (Zimmermann, 2006a,b)

Glyssibach Landslide

During the August 2005 flood event, the major damage was caused by the landslide triggered in the Glyssibach catchment, located above the village of Schwanden. As with the Trachtbach landslide, the unstable geological alternation of marls and limestones failed, creating a sliding surface. The total volume of the initially mobilized material was $\sim 80'000 \text{ m}^3$ of material, of which $\sim 30'000 \text{ m}^3$ remained in the rupture (Müller and Loew 2009). The remaining material subsequently slid into the headwater channel. In contact with water, the landslide developed into a rapid debris-flow (6-10 m/s) of $\sim 70'000 \text{ m}^3$, composed of both debris and large boulders of a diameter of more than 4 m. The material is expected to have been transported to the village in two, separate phases (Zimmermann, 2006b). The main debris flow hit the village of Schwanden b. Brienz at around 2am, causing the death of two inhabitants and the destruction of 28 houses.

1.7 Project Aim

The presented Master Thesis Project will focus on reconstructing the August 2005 flood event from a sedimentological perspective. The chosen study site is the basin of Lake Brienz, which as presented in section 1.7, is the most representative example concerning the magnitude and destructive power of the event. This thesis will analyse the basinal sediments of the lake from a visual, physical and geochemical perspective, with the goal of answering the following research questions:

1. Can we distinguish the **individual flood layers** from the respective inflows?
2. Can we distinguish the **2005 event** layer in the sediment record?
3. Can we distinguish the **extent of the contribution of the different catchments** during the 2005 event as recorded in the sediments of Lake Brienz?
4. How much sediment was **transported** to the lake from the different catchments?
5. What was the **temporal succession** of extreme runoffs and can that be reconstructed using the set of sediment cores?

1.8 Project Design:

In order to answer the above-mentioned research questions, this MSc thesis project was designed as followed:

- **SAMPLING:** Sediment cores and riverine samples were collected from Lake Brienz and its tributaries between July 2015 and July 2016. Cores were sampled along the Western-Eastern transect of the lake using a ETH gravity corer with a 6 cm diameter PVC tube.
- **LOGGING AND SCANNING TECHNIQUES:** Physical properties of the cores were analysed through logging and analysis of bulk density and magnetic susceptibility. The geochemical characteristics of the sediments were analysed via micro X-ray fluorescence core-scanning.

- **LABORATORY ANALYSIS:** Laboratory analysis of grain size, carbon content (TIC and TOC) and smear slide analysis were performed on the 2005-layers along the cores.
- **STATISTICS:** Correlation Analysis and Principal Component Analysis were performed on the elemental profiles derived from micro X-ray fluorescence analysis
- **INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS:** The results were interpreted in order to answer the research questions presented in section 1.7

2 Study Site

2.1 Geography

The site of interest, Lake Brienz, is one of the numerous peri-alpine lakes situated on the front range of the Swiss Alps, in the Bernese Oberland, Central Switzerland. Lying at an altitude of 564 m a.s.l., the lake basin occupies an area of 29.8 km² along a deep, longitudinal valley formed by erosion of the Aare glacier during the last Ice Ages. The retreat of the glacier, at first, led to the formation of a single lake called Wendelsee, which extended from Meiringen to Thun (Adams et al., 2001; Liechti, 1994). Through transport and accumulation of sediments from the Lüttschine and Lombach rivers throughout time, a fan delta was built up where Interlaken lies today, dividing the basin in two and therefore shaping the present-day landscape characterized by the two distinct lakes of Thun and Brienz (Liechti, 1994; Schulte et al., 2009).

Today, the surrounding geomorphology of the 1134 km² Brienz catchment shown in Fig. 2.1 (Finger, 2006) is characteristic of an alpine area, with about a half of the area situated above 2000 m a.s.l. and with a maximum elevation of 4,272 m a.s.l. (Finger, 2006; Girardclos et al., 2007; Schulte et al., 2015). Modelled by the movement of past glaciers, the catchment is characterized by a wide variety of formations, such as glacier forefields, cirques, scree slopes and moraines, as well as debris and alluvial cones, deltas and glacial lakes (Schulte et al., 2015). About 56% of the catchment is characterized by unproductive areas, of which around 19% is glaciated (Girardclos et al., 2007; Schulte et al., 2015). The rest of the catchment is occupied by forested (21 %) and agricultural (21%) areas, with the rest 2% inhabited (Finger, 2006; Wüest et al., 2007). The large catchment is composed by several sub-catchments, of which the two most important concerning size and sediment contribution are the Aare and Lüttschine drainage systems (Fig. 2.1). The Aare catchment (Fig. 2.1a) extends over an area of 596 km² (Schulte et al., 2015), and it is delimited by the Grimsel on its southern side, and from a range of mountains on the eastern and western sides, such as the Titlis and the Finsteraarhorn, respectively. The mean altitude of the catchment lies at 2150 m a.s.l. (Finger, 2006), with a maximum altitude of 4262 m a.s.l. (Schulte et al., 2015). The Lüttschine catchment (Fig. 2.1b) lies at a mean altitude of 2050 m a.s.l. and with a maximum elevation of 4158 m a.s.l. (Finger, 2006; Schulte et al., 2009), occupies an area of 379 km² (Schulte et al., 2009). The catchment extends from the Lauterbrunnen Valley on the West, to the Jungfrau on the south and to the Wetterhorn to the east. In this project, two other sub-catchments will be taken into consideration, those of Glyssibach (Fig. 2.1c) and Trachtbach (Fig. 2.1d). Located on the area above the village of Brienz, their catchments occupy an area of 2.02 km² and 1.55 km², respectively (Rickenmann & Koschni, 2010).

The main settlements present in the vicinity of the lake are the homonymous town of Brienz, on the NE side of the lake, and Interlaken and Bönigen on the SW side. The area nearby the Lüttschine delta counts the higher population, with 5659 inhabitants at Interlaken and 2520 at Bönigen in 2014 (Swiss Statistics). Brienz, on the other hand, in 2014 counted 2998 inhabitants.

2.2 Geology and Catchment Lithology

Geologically, the basin of Brienz lies entirely within the Helvetic zone (Hänni & Pfiffner, 2001), which forms a folded and thrust area along the northern flank of the central Swiss Alpine chain (Pfiffner, 2011). This nappe system originates from the southern margin of the Eurasian plate, and is characterized by

Mesozoic and (to a minor degree) Cenozoic sediments (Pfiffner, 2011). To the east, it extends into the Austrian Eastern Alps, while to the west continues to the French Chaînes subalpines. The northern and southern limit of the Helvetic zone is determined by the tectonically underlying Subalpine Molasse and by the overlying Penninic nappes (Pfiffner, 2011).

The Helvetic Zone, in turn, is composed by two separated zones, the Helvetic nappes and the underlying Infrahelvetic complex (Pfiffner, 2011). The Helvetic nappes can still be divided into several single nappes. As shown in Fig. 2.1, Lake Brienz lies parallel to two of those structures, the Wildhorn thrust on the north and the Axen thrust on the south (Pfiffner, 2011). While the lithology of the Wildhorn Nappe is mainly characterized by Cretaceous and Cenozoic beds composed by sedimentary rocks such as marls and limestone (Swisstopo; Sturm, 1976), the Axen Nappe is defined by Jurassic carbonate rocks such as limestone, calcareous sandstone, marl and phyllite (Schulte et al., 2015). Acting as a separation between the Axen thrust and the Aare Massif lies a narrow band of the Infrahelvetic Nappe, whose base is defined by pre-Triassic crystalline rocks and its cover consists in Mesozoic and Cenozoic sedimentary rocks (flysh, marls, limestones and sandstone-rich formations) (Pfiffner, 2011; Schulte et al., 2009, 2015).

South of the Axen nappe and the Infrahelvetic, the lake's catchment partially lies on the Aare massif: the Aare drainage system is in fact partly located on the typical units of the Northern Aare Massif, the Para-Mesozoic and Late Paleozoic, which are composed by crystalline rocks such as granite, diorite and quartz (Schulte et al., 2015). On the other hand, the southern area of the Lütschine catchment is only partly characterized by the above-mentioned typical units of the Aare massif: while the latter formations of the Northern Aare Massif mainly characterize the southern area of the Aare catchment, the southern side of the Lütschine drainage system is composed by the crystalline rocks of the Aare Massif on its upper altitudinal region, while at lower elevation is composed by Mesozoic sedimentary rocks (limestones) from the Doldenhorn Nappe (Swisstopo; Schulte et al., 2009, 2015; Hänni & Pfiffner, 2001).

The difference of the two catchments of the Aare and Lütschine is therefore visible from both a geological and lithological point of view, with the Lütschine draining three times more carbonate from its catchment (Matter & Sturm, 1982). This difference is visible in the sediments of Lake Brienz, in which higher carbonate content can be found along the southern shore (Matter & Sturm, 1982).

As specific interest for this study project, the geology of the area around the settlement of Brienz plays an important role concerning landslides and debris-flow formations such as in the case of the 2005 event. In a Diploma Thesis from (Müller, 2007) it is in fact shown that the surrounding area is characterized, under soil layer of a few meters depth, by weathered Valanginian Marls belonging to a sedimentary sequence defined by an alternation of hard marls and soft layers of limestones. This bedding sequence is highly unstable and prone to weathering, which lead in the past (in 2005 for instance) to sliding processes subsequently turning into landslides.

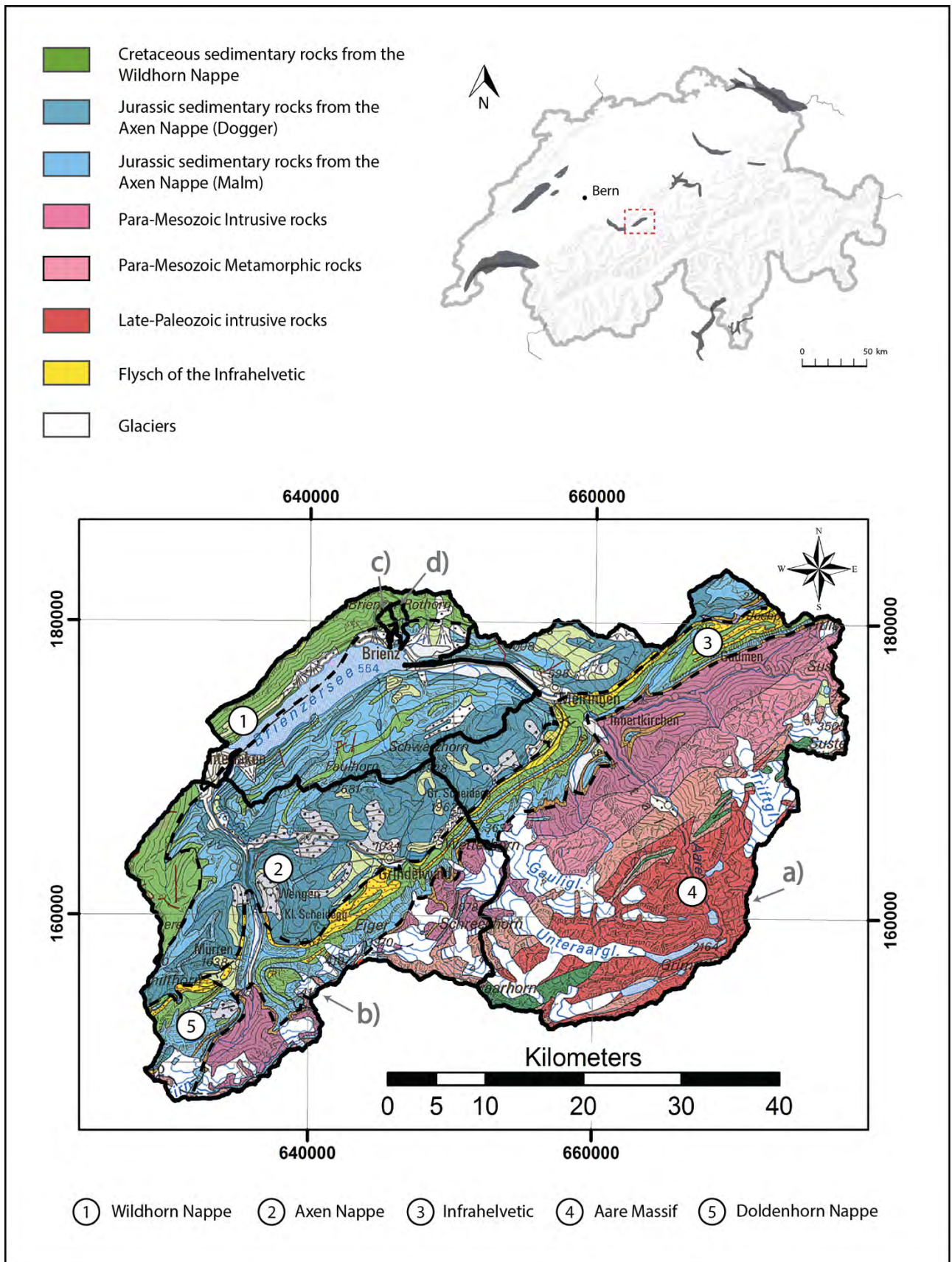


Fig. 2.1 Site location and geology of the catchment. Black lines indicate Aare (a), Lutschine(b), Glyssibach (c) and Trachtbach(d) catchments. Black dotted lines indicate the different tectonic units: Wildhorn Nappe (1), Axen Nappe (2), Infrahelvetic (3), Aare Massif (4) and Doldenhorn Nappe (5). Map of Switzerland (top right) modified after Myswitzerland.com

2.3 Climate

As specified in the previous sections, Lake Brienz is located on the northern flank of the Swiss Alps. Climatologically, the Alps are located in a transition area between different climatic zones such as continental and oceanic regimes, as well as Mediterranean and North-Atlantic climates (Beniston, 2006; Wanner, Rickli, & Salvisberg, 1997). The climatic conditions of the Alps are also strongly conditioned by the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), and specifically by its positive and negative phases, which reflects lower precipitation and milder temperatures for NAO+ and higher precipitation and colder temperatures during NAO- phases (Beniston, 2006). The particular location of the alpine range, with different climatic influences on the region, makes the Alpine range very sensitive to extreme precipitation events and therefore to flood triggers (Wanner et al., 1997).

The Alpine region is also strongly influenced by regional climate, which is in turn dependent on the complex topography of the region: orographic precipitation, downslope winds are for instance characteristic features and processes of an Alpine climate (Wanner et al., 1997). Regarding climate in Lake Brienz, precipitation is recorded to be around 1175 mm/yr at Interlaken, reaching up to 2800 mm/yr at the summit of the Aare sub-catchment (Schulte et al., 2015). The wettest season is summer, with precipitation varying between 120-150 mm in the months from May to August at Interlaken (Meteonews). The precipitation pattern of the studied area is 40% higher than the regional average, which is characteristic for a typical climatic situation for Alpine regions (Finger, 2006). Temperatures at Interlaken vary between -4°C (min T in January) to 24°C (max T in August) (Meteonews). Fig. 2.2 shows, for instance, daily precipitation in Brienz from 1990 to present-day. As it can be observed, there is no clear trend and precipitation varies from a minimum of 0 mm per day to almost 100 mm per day in 1990, 1992 and 2005. Fig. 2.3 shows the seasonal pattern of precipitation through boxplots, calculated on the period 1990-2015.

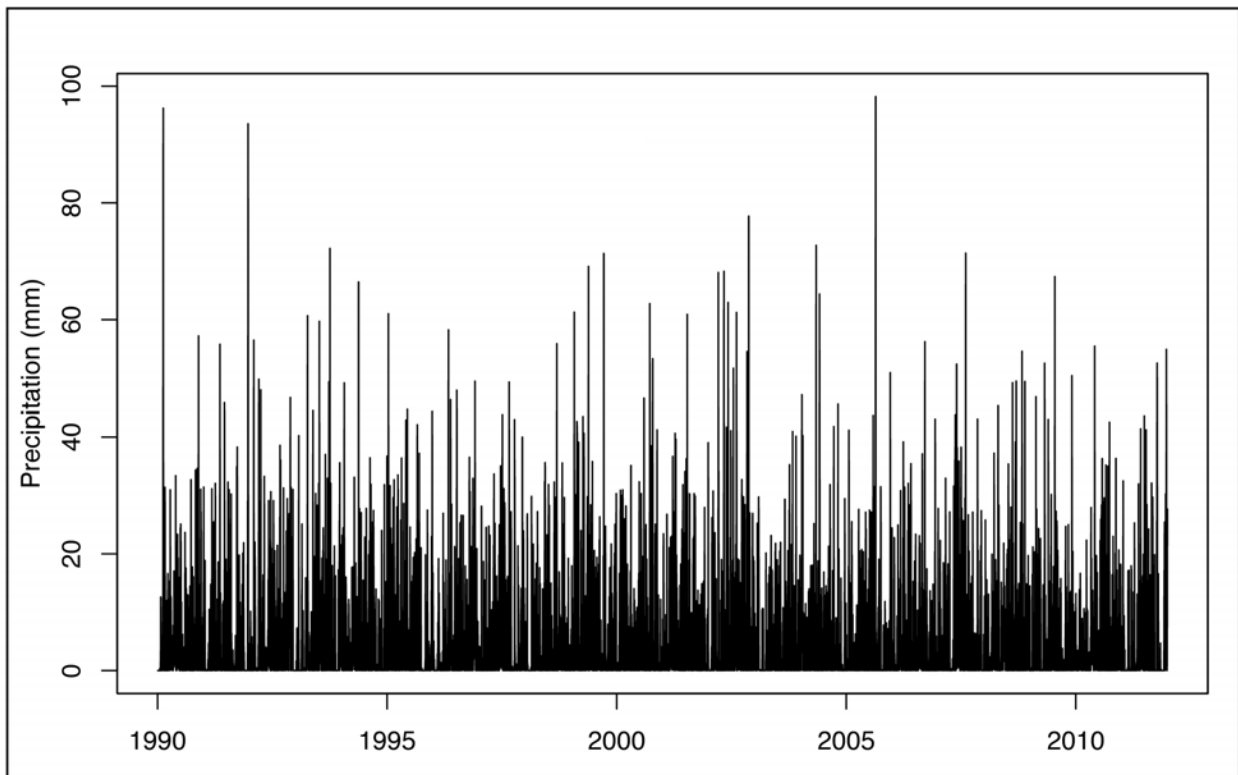


Fig 2.2 Daily Precipitation (in mm) in Brienz for the period of 1990-2015. Data from MeteoSchweiz

The boxplot shows monthly distribution of precipitation throughout the entire study period. As it can be observed, the months from May to August are characterized by highest amounts of precipitation, with May as the most variable month concerning precipitation distribution. The median of such months varies between 150 to 200 mm of rain, with a maximum value of around 380 mm reached in August. The lowest precipitation distribution is characteristic of the winter months (December to February), with the median located around 100 mm. In spite of this distribution, minimum precipitation are reached in October (around 0 mm), while maximum precipitation are given by an outlier event in November, which reached more than 400 mm of precipitation in a month.

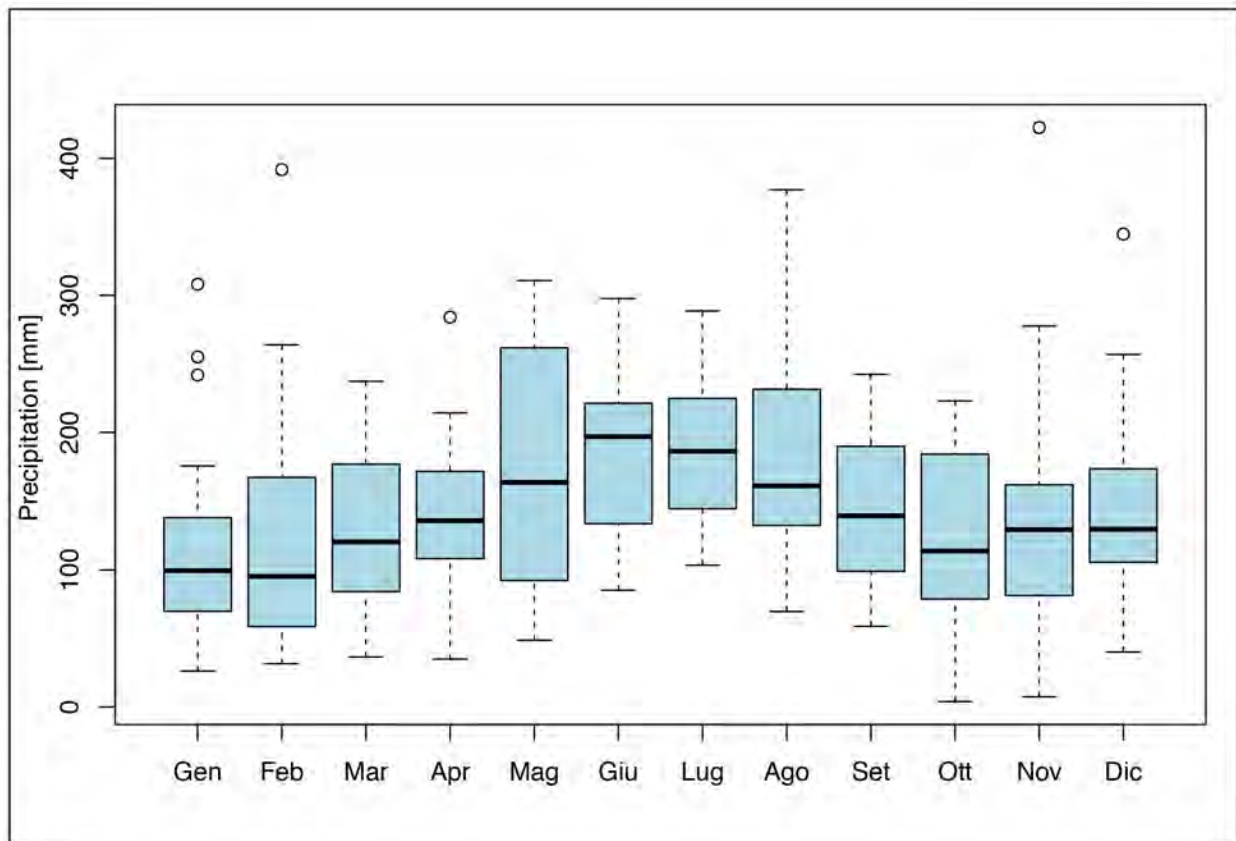


Fig. 2.3 Boxplot of monthly distribution of precipitation (in mm) of the period between 1990-2015 in Brienz. In the boxplot, the Median is shown by the black, thick line. Blue boxes indicate the distribution between the Lower Quartile (25th Percentile) and the Upper Quartile (75th Percentile). Dotted lines represent the Whisker, which is indicative for the variability outside the lower and upper quartiles. The lines at the end of the Whisker represent minimum and maximum values, while the circles are indicative for outliers or single data point outside the normal distribution.

Finally, Lake Brienz is also characterized by a specific type of wind, the Foehn, which blows from the Alpine range through the the lake and it is one of the strongest wind system present in the Alps (Adams et al., 2001).

2.4 Vegetation and Soil

As presented in section 2.1, the catchment around Lake Brienz is covered by 21% of forested area (Wüest et al., 2007). More specifically, the vegetation around the lake is mainly coniferous on its southern side and deciduous on the northern slopes (Swisstopo). The upper reaches (above 1400 m a.s.l) on the northern slopes are characterized a high erosive potential (around 500 t/ha/yr, Swisstopo),

with landslides, rockfalls and avalanches detaching and therefore affecting the stability of lower regions (Müller, 2007). Middle reaches are mainly forested, and are dominated by toppling, sliding and creep processes as well as from a network of channelized water system. Finally, the lower reaches are mainly influenced by debris flow processes, with scree-slopes deltas and debris fans forming along the shores (Müller, 2007). In general, landslides around the Brienz settlement are relatively common events, recorded in both geological and historic records (Müller, 2007) since it is situated on debris fans of the Trachtbach and Glyssibach active catchments. The instability of the soil is also given by the geological structure.

2.5 Hydrology and Lake System

Lake Brienz is an open system, characterized by two main tributaries, the Aare and the Lütschine rivers, as well as by several lateral torrents. While the Aare and the Lütschine are responsible for the majority of the sediment load, drained by their large catchments, the role the lateral streams have on sediment input and therefore on sedimentation is neglectable (Sturm & Matter, 1978).

The lake occupies a volume of 5.17 km³, is 14 km long and 3 km wide and is characterized by a flat, smooth and deep central basin, with a maximum depth of 260 m. Steep slopes (>30°) at the flanks of the lake cause a shallow, littoral zone (Sturm & Matter, 1978). The eastern and western ends of the basin are characterized by the two deltas formed by the Aare and the Lütschine, respectively (Matter & Sturm, 1982). Because of their high erosive force, the two tributaries created gullies, channels and levees in their deltas, which can reach 30 m deep and 200 m wide in the case of the Aare delta (Matter & Sturm, 1982). The lateral torrents, in turn, drain small, secondary catchments around the lake, therefore building narrow and steep alluvial fans at the lateral shores of the lake (Sturm, 1976).

Lake Brienz is an oligotrophic lake with an extremely low nutrient input caused by a small densely populated area and the scarce agricultural activities in the region (Finger, 2006; R. Müller, 2007). The dominant role of the two main tributaries in the sediment input can be observed from the large extent of their two deltas (Matter & Sturm, 1982). The Aare and Lütschine rivers transport the majority of the sediments from the glaciers located in the upper areas of their sub-catchments, with highest discharge in summer and spring (Sturm & Matter 1978) and lowest water-flow in winter, when the temperature in the catchments decreases below the freezing point (Finger, 2006). This massive input of clastic material gives the characteristic milky-grey colour of the water in the lake (Finger, 2006). Discharge pattern is characterized by a strong seasonality, as it is visible in Fig. 2.4, showing daily discharge for Aare river during 1990-2015.

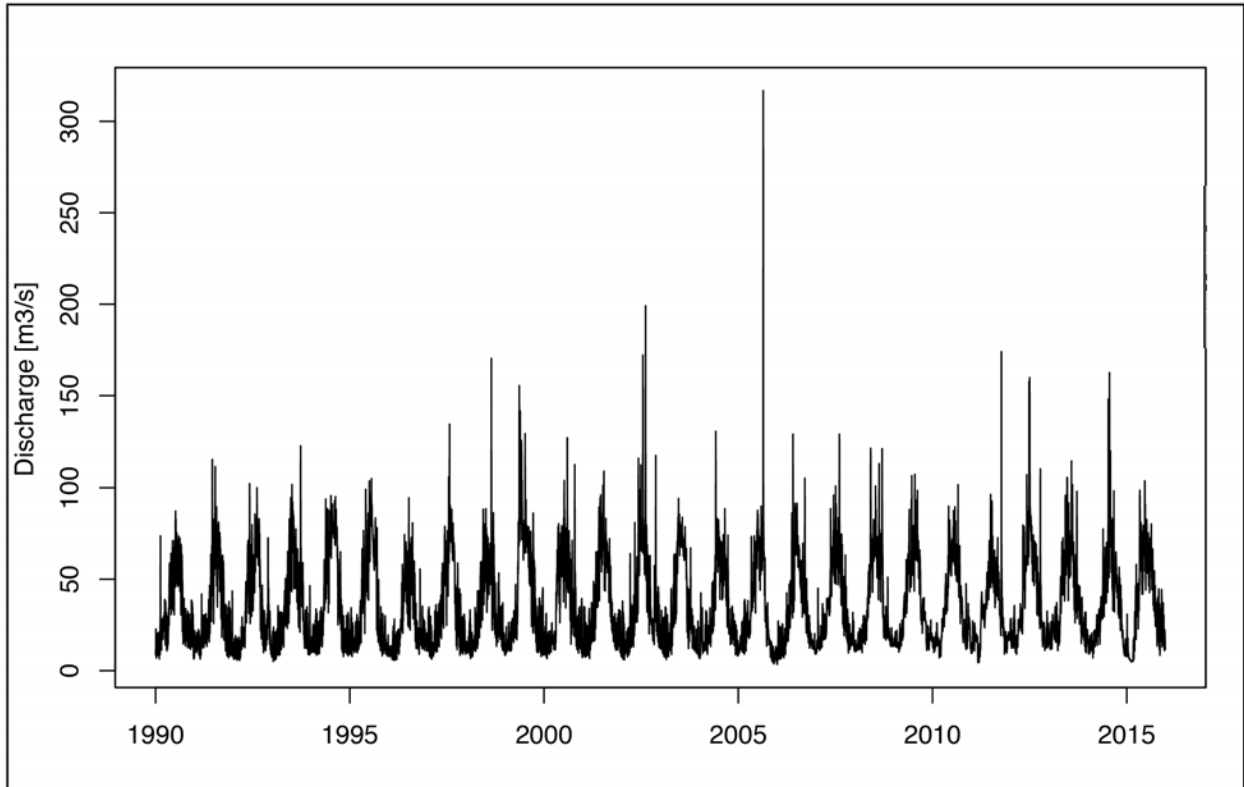


Fig. 2.4 Daily discharge (in m³/s) for Aare river during 1990-2015. The plot clearly shows a high seasonal pattern, with higher discharge in the summer season and lower during winter months.

The following Fig. 2.5 highlights the seasonal character of Aare discharge. From the figure, the seasonal pattern is clear, with highest discharge (in blue) for the months from June to August. The lowest discharge (orange-red) is on the contrary characteristic for the winter months. As it can be observed from the colour, the maximum discharges were reached during the studied period in August 1995, May 1999, August 2005, and June July 2012. Interestingly, the highest discharge was not recorded in August 2005, but in May 1999. Lütshine shows a very similar discharge pattern as that shown in Fig. 2.4 and Fig. 2.5, only with lower discharge values.

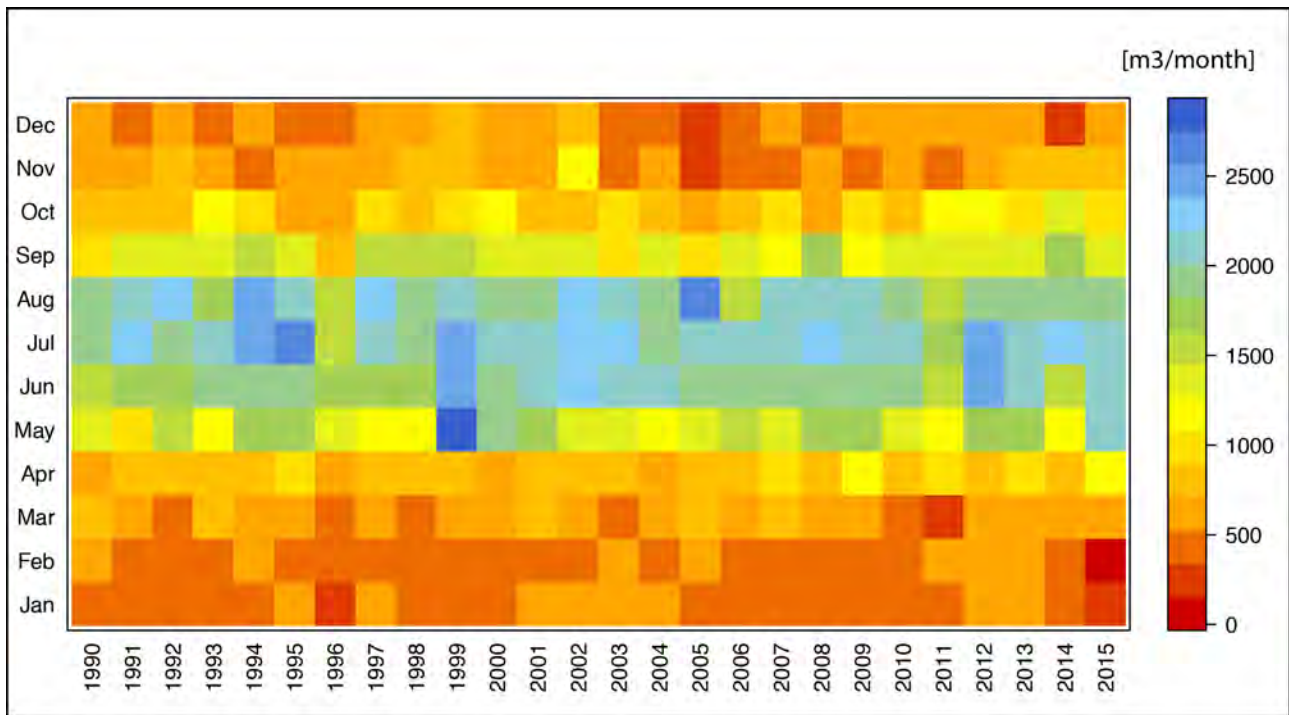


Fig. 2.5 Monthly distribution of discharge (in m^3/month) for Aare river, as recorded at Aare-Brienzwiler gauging station, for the period 1990-2015. Red-orange colours indicate lower discharge, while blue-greenish colours indicate higher discharge.

As stated before, the two main tributaries play a dominant role in the sediment input of the lake. With both catchments characterized with a nival-glacial regime given from the large percentage of glaciated areas (Finger, 2006), they differ however in the type of drained material. While the Aare river drains mostly crystalline material coming from the glaciers located in its upper catchment on the Aare Massif, the Lütshine river drains relatively small amounts of crystalline material, with a sediment input of sedimentary origin, and the material entering the lake is therefore composed by a large carbonate fraction (Sturm & Matter, 1978). Because of their geologically different catchments, the two tributaries are characterized by different lithological and mineralogical signatures (Sturm & Matter, 1978). The Aare and Lütshine differ also in term of discharge: the mean annual discharge of the Aare river lies around $35 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, with a maximum reached on the 22nd of August 2005 of about $444 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (Schulte et al., 2015). The Lütshine river, in turn, has a mean discharge of $18.8 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, with also a maximum reached on the 22nd of August 2005, when the discharge went up to more than $250 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (Schulte et al., 2009).

The lake is characterized as holomictic, with a thermal stratification occurring from April to October with a counter-clockwise movement of the water mass mainly driven by the continuous and powerful input of the Aare and the Lütshine, as well as by the Coriolis force (Nydegger, 1967). The pelagic sedimentation within the lake is largely influenced by density differences in the water column. The water density of the river is usually higher than the one of the basin, and therefore the waterflow will enter the lake as underflow (Sturm & Matter, 1987). However, if the water density and the suspended load transported by the rivers cause the water to be less dense than the lake basin, the river water will enter the lake as interflow or overflow (Sturm & Matter, 1987). This, in turn, causes the presence of a turbid layer / current to move along or above the thermocline. Turbidity currents are, as presented in the study from Sturm & Matter (1987), rare sedimentological events in the lake. When they occur, they flow on the bottom of the lake as underflow because of their higher density, and they are usually related to erosive processes.

2.6 Anthropogenic Impact on Lake Brienz

The area surrounding Lake Brienz is characterized by a low density population, with only 2% of the catchment inhabited (Wüest, 2010). Despite the relative marginality of Lake Brienz, compared for instance to other alpine lakes such as lake Thun or lake Biel, the lake has been indirectly heavily impacted by anthropogenic activities throughout the last few decades.

Firstly, between 1866 and 1855 the Aare river was channelized, shifted south its natural flow and inflow (Sturm & Matter, 1978) and formed a new delta. Between 1929 and 1953, three dams were built for hydropower generation and water exchange in the upper Aare basin, specifically in Grimsel area: the Grimselsee, the Räterichsbodensee and the Oberaarsee (Anselmetti et al., 2007), as shown in Fig. 2.6. The three basins, lying at an altitude of 1909, 1767 and 2303 m a.s.l, respectively (Thevenon et al., 2013), are connected by a network of pipelines (Anselmetti et al., 2007). Because the three reservoirs are fed directly from the Unteraar- and Oberaar Glaciers, the basins register low water level in winter and high water level in summer, analogous to the melting of the glacier (Anselmetti et al., 2007).

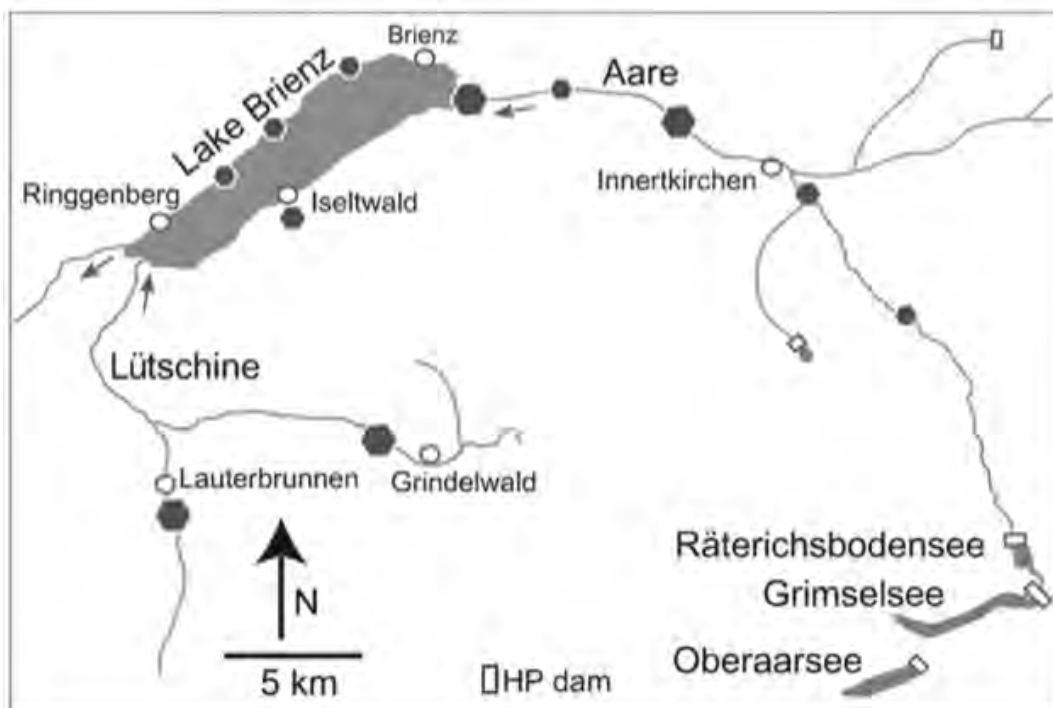


Fig. 2.6 The three hydropower stations (rectangles) and sewage treatment plants (exagon) in the area of Brienz. Modified after Wüest et al. (2007).

As presented from several studies in the area (Finger, 2006; Anselmetti et al., 2007) this extensive damming in the upstream region of Lake Brienz caused the retention of large amounts of sediments – more specifically the coarse fraction, with only 3% of fine particles ($< 4 \mu\text{m}$ diameter) retained in the three basins. This, in turn, had important consequences on the sediment supply of the lake from the glaciers located in the area, drained by the Aare river. One of the consequences of this damming procedure is that the overall sediment input from the Aare was reduced by two thirds (Thevenon et al., 2013), with 232 kt/yr of material trapped in the three upstream basins (Anselmetti et al., 2007). As a consequence, despite the Aare discharge being twice as the Lütchine's discharge, the suspended annual sediment load coming from the Aare river is 26% lower than the ones transported from the Lütchine catchment, with 128 kt/yr against 174 kt/yr, respectively (Finger, 2006). The same study from Finger

(2006) showed that, in a hypothetical no-dams situation, the mean suspended particle load would be annually 2.8 times higher (360 kt/yr) than today (128 kt/yr). The decrease in particle concentration of the Aare, if combined with the low salinity (0.0069 g/kg, Finger, 2006) caused by the crystalline composition of its catchment, also lead to a lowering of the water density compared to the Lütschine (Finger, 2006). This, in turn, causes an annual particle input in the upper water column of the lake being dominated by the Aare riverflow (92.8 kt/yr vs 64.7 kt/yr for Lütschine, Anselmetti et al, 2007). Damming had consequences not only on sedimentation processes, but it caused an alteration of the seasonality of the Aare flow as well, with a shift of 17% of the annual water flow from summer season to winter (Finger, 2006; Anselmetti et al., 2007). As a result, winter season experienced an increase in turbidity, which in turn increased light attenuation in winter and decreased it in summer (Finger, 2006).

Another anthropogenic influence on Lake Brienz is determined by the construction in the 70s of sewage water treatment plants (Fig. 2.6), which strongly reduced phosphate concentration back to natural levels (Finger, 2006). This, combined with the light attenuation effect mentioned above, lead to a decrease in algae production which in turn caused a zooplankton and fishing yield decline (Finger, 2006). In 1999, for instance, fishermen registered a sharp decline in the local whitefish (*Coregonus* sp.) (Wüest et al., 2007).

As a conclusion Lake Brienz, despite its alpine characterization and marginal location, it is not absent from the consequences human activities have in the surrounding area.

3 Materials and Methods

3.1 Fieldwork

Two separated field campaigns for the sampling of cores from Lake Brienz took place in July and November 2015. Another excursion to the field was done in July 2016 in order to retrieve the fine sediment fraction from the different tributaries of the lake. During fieldwork, seventeen cores between 30 cm and 1 m length were taken along a W-E transect of the lake using an ETH gravity corer with PVC tubes of ~6 cm diameter. The cores were then stored and further analysed at the laboratories of the Geology and Geography Institutes at the University of Bern. Specific core locations and the bathymetric map of Lake Brienz are shown in Fig 3.1 and Tables 3.1 – 3.2.

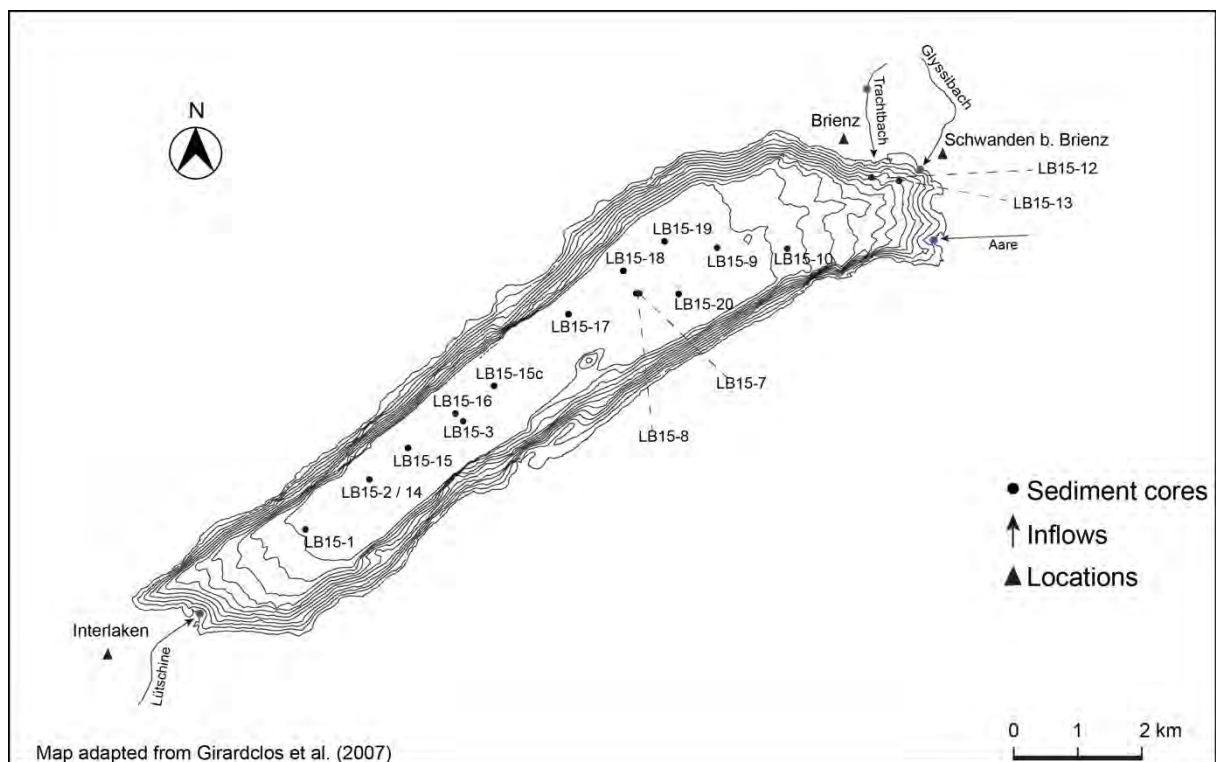


Fig. 3.1 Bathymetric map of Lake Brienz with sampling sites. Black dots represent sediment cores locations, blue dots represent fluvial sediments locations. Black triangles show the major settlements, while black arrows indicate the four inflows Aare, Lüttschine, Trachtbach and Glyssibach. Map adapted from Girardclos et al. (2007).

Table 3.1 Name, coordinates and length of the cores. Coordinates are in CH1903 format

Core Name	Coordinates (CH1903)	Core Length (cm)
LB15-1	636776,172504	77.5
LB15-2	637766,173272	30.1
LB15-3	639216,174191	81.9
LB15-7	641945,176147	36
LB15-8	641913,176134	40.6
LB15-9	643148,176848	73.5
LB15-10	644234,176827	44.1
LB15-12	645539,177934	29.2
LB15-13	645965,177882	64
LB15-14	637766,173272	72.1
LB15-15	638360,173750	67.9
LB15-15c	639696,174720	105.4
LB15-16	639097,174273	45.9
LB15-17	640852,175824	80.5
LB15-18	641696,176489	87.3
LB15-19	642326,176936	57.4
LB15-20	642548,176132	32.4

Table 3.2 Name and coordinates of the rivers from which fine fraction samples were retrieved

River	Coordinates
Aare	2646516, 1177009
Lütschine	2635199, 117191
Trachtbach	2645489,1179209
Glyssibach	2646318, 1178115

3.2 Core Opening and Description

The whole-round unopened cores were first scanned with a Multisensor Core Logger at the Geology Institute of the University of Bern. The procedure is described in section 3.4.3. Subsequently, the cores were opened, wrapped in protective plastic film and stored in a core fridge at a temperature of 4°C in order to avoid biological contamination and oxidation.

3.2.1 Multi-Sensor Core Logger (MSCL)

In order to collect preliminary information about the physical properties of Lake Brienz, full cores were measured with a Geotek Multi-Sensor Core Logger (MSCL-S) at the Institute of Geological Sciences of the University of Bern (Fig. 3.2). The automated multi-sensor core logger (MSCL) is a widely used technique for the analysis of lacustrine and marine sediments, offering a continuous, rapid, non-destructive and highly-resolved measurement of their physical properties (Rothwell & Rack, 2006; Schultheiss & Weaver, 1992).



Fig. 3.2 A Geotek Multi-Sensor Core Logger (Geotek, n.d)

The apparatus measures a wide range of parameters, such as p-wave velocity and attenuation, gamma density, magnetic susceptibility, and line-scan imaging. Other sensors can be added separately. Following, a short description of the parameters used for this project:

3.2.1.1 Gamma Density

In order to measure bulk density, a gamma-ray source (^{137}Cs beam) emits photons across the core, which are then detected on the opposite side. The result of the measurement, which is the degree of scattering or the attenuation of photons through the core, provides indications on the density of the material, as well as of porosity changes along the cores (Geotek, n.d)

3.2.1.2 P-wave Velocity

This parameter can also be an indicator of porosity, lithology and pore-fluid content (Schultheiss & Weaver, 1992). It is also useful for the identification of grain-size variation following variations in acoustic properties (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015).

3.2.1.3 Magnetic Susceptibility

Per definition, magnetic susceptibility is “*the degree of magnetization of a material in response to an applied magnetic field*” (Geotek, n.d), and mirrors the concentration of magnetite and magnetically susceptible minerals in the cores (Schultheiss & Weaver, 1992). In lake sediments, variations in magnetic susceptibility usually represent changes in the amount of allochthonous, inorganic material in the sediments (Thompson et al., 1975). This parameter is therefore used as an indicator for turbidites, as well as for correlation between cores (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015).

3.2.1.4 Linescan Imaging

In this project, all the un-opened cores were scanned, and the parameters described above were measured at a resolution of 0.5 cm along the entire length of the cores. Shortly after the opening of the sediment cores, the Geotek’s MSCL-S was used again in order to obtain a visual record of the split

sections through the *Linescan Imaging* sensor. The sensor provides 48-bit RGB images and profile data of the core-halves (Geotek, n.d). If the cores are scanned shorter after the opening, the images produced by the Geotek apparatus provide visual information about oxidation states of the core and help defining lithological units (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015). Data retrieved from MSCL scan are presented in the Annex (Tables A.1.1-A.1.6)

3.2.2 Core Description

Once opened, the cores were analysed and described in order to retrieve a catalogue of the different sediment types present in the lake and to distinguish between flood layers and background sedimentation. For this purpose, a sedimentological and lithological description was conducted on all the split cores, with a focus on two representative cores for the Aare (LB15-8) and the Lüttschine (LB15-14) signal.

The analysis was performed following the procedure defined by Schnurrenberger et al. (2003). A first step consisted of a macroscopic observation of the sediments. For this purpose, the following characteristics were taken into consideration:

- **SEDIMENT COLOUR AND TEXTURE:** sediment colour was described using a Munsell Colour Chart, while texture was determined rubbing small amounts of sediments between the fingers. Smear slides were also used in order to determine roundness and sorting of the sediment particles
- **SEDIMENTARY STRUCTURES:** differences in sedimentation throughout the cores were described in order to distinguish between event layers and the background sedimentation
- **LAMINATION AND THICKNESS:** thickness of the different bedding structures was visually observed and described, and laminations were identified along the cores
- **BEDDING PLANES:** the contacts separating different lithological units were determined in order to distinguish between erosive contact (caused by higher sedimentation processes) and constant deposition, which could help identify event layers
- **CORE DISTURBANCES:** finally, the cores were observed in order to determine the presence of disturbances caused by the coring process, such as deformation of beds and gas expansion

3.3 Flood Layer Correlation

In order to further proceed with targeted analyses on the 2005 event, a visual core correlation and flood layer identification was firstly carried out. The highly-resolved core images were arranged following the SE-NW transect of the lake, and the sediment description was used to visually compare and distinguish between event layers and background sedimentation. In order to identify the 2005 event, studies from Anselmetti et al. (2007) and Wirth et al. (2011) were used and the cores compared to the ones of the present study. This, combined with the previous core descriptions, allowed the author to being able to identify with a high degree of confidence the 2005 flood event on nine cores, which were then used for further analyses described in the following sections.

3.4 Micro X-ray Fluorescence (μ XRF)

3.4.1 Introduction to μ XRF

X-ray fluorescence (XRF) core scanning is a non destructive technique which, provides high-resolution records of the elemental (geochemical) composition of terrestrial, marine and lacustrine sediments (Jansen et al., 1998; Croudace et al., 2006). The technique of X-ray fluorescence spectrometry consists in the bombardment of the material with high-energy gamma rays. When gamma rays are absorbed by atoms, an electron is ejected from the inner shell (K shell), causing the atom to be in an excited state. The resulting vacancy is then filled by another electron falling from an outer shell. The energy difference between the outer and inner shells is then emitted in the form of secondary electromagnetic (fluorescent) radiation (Richter et al., 2006). Since the wavelengths of emitted X-rays are characteristics for each element, X-ray fluorescence can provide information on the elemental composition of sediments (Richter et al., 2006).

Modern scanners allow rapid and continuous measurement and analysis on split sediment cores, reporting variations in elemental and sediment properties throughout the core, and therefore providing information on textural and geochemical characteristics of the studied sediments (Croudace et al., 2006). For this reason, XRF core scanning has several applications, such as stratigraphic interpretations, investigation of terrigenous allocthonous input provenance and patterns and the identification of sedimentological events and their lithologies (Richter et al., 2006; Rothwell et al., 2006). In this project, the technique is in particular useful for the identification of turbidites along the core as it has been shown on previous studies (Richter et al., 2006; Moreno et al., 2008; Czymzik et al., 2013;). This technique is widely used for correlation studies of specific events, and can provide bases for further analyses on the studied samples (Croudace et al., 2006; Richter et al., 2006).

In this project, an ITRAX core scanner at the Institute of Geology of the University of Bern was used to perform the analysis (Fig. 3.3). The unique characteristic of this scanner is that it allows, through a micro-X-ray beam, a micro-XRF analysis at higher resolution (Croudace et al., 2006). With this apparatus, an optical camera system generates digital images of the sediment surface before the x-ray scan (similar to the line scan of the MSCL scanner described above). Depending on the chosen range of analysis, a Molybdenum (Mo), Rhodium (Rh) or Chromium (Cr) tube is used to generate X-rays, which focus on a 20 x 0.22 mm rectangular beam (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015). The ITRAX core scanner provides, for each scan, a RGB digital image, a highly-resolved micro-radiographic image (up to 200 micrometer spatial resolution) and a micro-X-ray elemental profile for the sediment core (Croudace, 2006; Kylander et al., 2011). The scan detects a wide range of elements, from Si to U (Rothwell et al., 2006). For each measurement point, which is given in number of counts, peak areas are calculated and their amplitude is given as proportional to the concentration (in ppm) of elements in the sediment (Croudace et al., 2006; Cuven et al., 2010). However, peak area can also be influenced by the sediment matrix, which implies that X-ray fluorescence analysis does not provide absolute concentration values for the studied elements. Therefore, geochemical data have to be considered as semi-quantitative results (Cuven et al., 2010).

Compared to conventional systems such as Wavelength dispersive X-Ray fluorescence (WD-XRF), the ITRAX core scanner provides a non-destructive, highly resolved and faster analysis of split sediment cores, and it is therefore a preferable and reliable procedure.



Fig. 3.3 An ITRAX XRF Core scanner (Cox Analytical System, n.d)

3.4.2 Procedure

In the present study, a 40 kV voltage and 20mA current molybdenum tube has been used for the analysis of the cores. A high-resolution scan has been performed on the 2005 event layers of nine cores, with a selected step size of 0.5 mm, and a count time of 20s for each step. Aside from the high-resolution procedure, a low-resolution scan (2.5 mm every 20 s) was performed on representative cores for the Aare and Lüttschine signal. For the Lüttschine signal, LB15-14 was scanned along its entire length. Concerning the Aare signal, a composite section from LB15-18 and LB15-8 was used in order to obtain a full-length scan.

The cores' surfaces were first cleaned with a glass slide in order to smooth the surface and avoid irregularities, and pieces of paper were used to cover air-induced holes in the core. A thin protective film (4 μm thickness) was then placed on the split cores' surfaces to protect the sensor from possible contamination. The machine provided concentrations for 48 elements.

Between the wide range of elements which were analysed by the ITRAX core scanner, a further selection of specific elements was applied. This was done in order to differentiate the different turbidites present in the core, and specifically the 2005 event layer, from the background sedimentation. A particular focus was also given to elements, which could be representative for the two catchments of the Aare and Lüttschine. A detailed research in the literature provided information about elemental proxies for turbidites and grain size, as well as for the Aare and Lüttschine signal. In Table 3.3, the chosen elements are listed.

Table 3.3 Elemental proxies for detrital layers, grain size changes, Aare and Lüttschine signal as retrieved from the literature.

Proxy	Elements	Reference
Detrital layers	Al, K, Rb, Mn, Si, Ti, Zr	Croudace et al., 2015 Cuven et al., 2010
Grain size changes	Sand, coarse fraction: Zr, Si Silt: Ti Clay (Fine fraction): Rb, K Zr/Rb, Zr/K	Croudace et al., 2015 Cuven et al., 2010
Aare signal	Phyllosilicates: Fe, Al, Ti, Mn, Fe Granites (crystalline): Zr Others: Rb,K K/Ti Rb/Sr	Schulte et al., 2015
Lüttschine signal	Alluminosilcates: Al, Si, Fe, Ca Phyllosilicates : Fe, Ti, K, Mg Ca/Rb	Schulte et al., 2009

All the different element profiles were plotted and studied, in order to retrieve representative elements and elemental ratios for the two catchment's fingerprints.

3.4.3 Statistical Analysis of XRF Dataset

3.4.3.1 Dataset Compilation

From the range of elements listed in section 3.4.2, two datasets were created for further data processing and statistical analysis. The first dataset contains the potential characteristic elements for Aare and Lüttschine signal, while the second dataset is characterized by elemental ratios representative for grain size, Aare and Lüttschine signal (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Dataset 1 and 2, containing representative elements for Aare, Lüttschine and grain size (1) as well as representative ratios (2)

Dataset 1	Dataset 2
Mg, Al, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Cu, Fe, Rb, Sr, Zr, Si	Zr/Rb, Zr/K, K/Ti, Ca/Ti, Ca/Rb, Rb/Sr

3.4.3.2 Data Visualization

Elemental profiles of the two datasets D1 and D2 were plotted for each core using R software with the aim of obtaining a visual representation of the most suitable elements characterizing the catchment's fingerprints.

3.4.3.3 Statistical Analysis of the Dataset

Exploratory analyses were carried out on the dataset D1 in order to reduce its dimensions and therefore to identify and assess characteristic elemental profiles for Aare and Lüttschine. The dataset was first

standardized in order to obtain a mean equal to 0 and a standard deviation of 1. A test for normality was performed on the dataset, which resulted to be non-linear. Following, a correlation analysis and a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) analysis on the standardized dataset was performed for all the 9 cores.

The aim of the correlation analysis was the identification of associations between the different variables and the assessment of the strength of their relation. For this analysis, a Spearman rank correlation was performed on the dataset. The choice of Spearman's method was determined by the non-linearity character of the dataset. Spearman's correlation is applicable to trace and major elements and it is measured on a rank scale (Rollinson, 2013). Correlation analysis allows to retrieve a correlation coefficient (r_s) between two variables (Rollinson, 2013). The correlation can be either positive or negative: a positive correlation indicates that high levels of a variable x is followed by high values of variable y, while a negative correlation indicates the opposite. The correlation coefficients vary between +1 and -1, representing the strength of the correlation between variable x and y, with higher (positive or negative) values indicating a higher relation. Values equal to zero indicates no correlation between variables. In this project, the correlation analysis was performed in order to retrieve groups of elements related to each other and representing therefore the lithological composition of the catchments.

The Principal Component Analysis was performed on the dataset D1 as exploratory analysis, with the aim of further reducing the dimensionality of the data, allowing to highlight the elements characterizing the catchments' fingerprints. Because PCA performs the analysis without assuming a structure in the dataset, it is usually performed on geochemical data in order to detect and differentiate between different geomorphic processes, as well as for sediment source identification (Rollinson, 2013; Rothwell & Croudace, 2015). The broken stick method was used in the analysis in order to identify the number of relevant principal components. The principal for each core were finally listed, as well as their loadings.

3.5 Smear Slides

3.5.1 Introduction to Smear Slides

Smear-slides analysis is an analytical tool often used in sedimentological studies as their observation provides information about sedimentary components and lithologies, facilitating the characterization of the major components of the sedimentary matrix within a basin and providing further information on past depositional environments, ecology and geochemistry (Rothwell, 1989; Myrbo, 2007). This type of analysis is often used to semi-quantitatively determine, for instance, the mineralogy, the grain-size distribution and the abundance of organic matter, providing not only information for core description, but also the basis for interpreting instrumental data generated from further or previous sedimentological analysis such as (micro-)XRF and grain size (Myrbo, 2007).

3.5.2 Procedure

To perform smear-slide analysis, the expected 2005 event was sub-sampled at 2.5 mm intervals for all the nine cores. For each sample, a very small quantity of sediment was sampled using a toothpick and put on a standard microscope glass slide. A drop of distilled water was then added to the sample, which was subsequently homogeneously smeared on the slide with the toothpick. The slide was then let to dry until the distilled water was completely evaporated. A drop of Norland 61 optical adhesive was then added in the middle of the smear slide, and a cover glass was placed on the adhesive. The samples were

then transferred under a UV-light for 2-3 minutes for hardening. Other samples were also taken from different lithotypes present along the cores.

Smear slides were analysed with an Olympus BX 41 microscope at the Institute of Geology. A cross-polarized filter was applied in order to better detect the crystal structure of the samples and to identify carbonates.

3.6 Grain Size Analysis

3.6.1 Introduction to Grain Size Analysis

Grain-size distribution (or particle-size distribution, PSD), representing the percentage of total dry weight of particles of a determined size fraction (Di Stefano et al., 2010) is an important physical property of sediment. It influences pore distribution, water conductivity, water retention, and other thermal and sorption properties of the sediment (Ryzak & Bieganski, 2011). In sedimentology, particle-size distribution is a property of great interest, often used in palaeoflood studies as proxy for such events, with coarse-grained layers representing higher discharge and sediment input (Sperazza et al., 2004; Cockburn & Lamoureux, 2008; Schillereff et al., 2014). The mean, median and the degree of sorting of particle size in event layers is also often used to distinguish between river floods, snow avalanches and mass-movement deposits (Arnaud et al., 2002; Czymzik et al., 2010; Vasskog et al., 2011).

In order to measure PSD, several sedimentation methods can be used. Traditional methods include sieve, pipette and hydrometer as most common ones, as well as electrozone sensing and X-ray absorption (Sperazza et al., 2004). However, these techniques have the disadvantage of being time consuming and imprecise, with reported errors going up to 40% for the sieve and pipette methods (Sperazza et al., 2004).

In this project, particle size was analysed with the laser diffraction method (LDM). This method has been increasingly implemented in the last few decades (Sperazza et al., 2004), and it is now recognized as a standard sedimentological analysis (Sperazza et al., 2004). Laser diffraction is a much more reliable, faster and precise technique than the classic methods (Ozer & Orhan, 2015). Moreover, LDM covers a wide range of grain sizes, determining PSD in the size range between 0.2 and 2000 micrometres (Ozer & Orhan, 2015). Finally, it requires small amount of samples (between 100-200 mg of material for the analysis, therefore being more suitable for a rapid and accurate analysis of large amounts of sediment samples (Bauselinck et al., 1998)). The laser diffraction method is based on the principle that particles of different sizes scatter light through different angles (Di Stefano et al., 2010), and the angle at which the light is scattered is inversely proportional to the particle size (Ryzak & Bieganski, 2011). Laser scattering systems emit a laser beam of known wavelength through the material, and measure the intensity and angular distribution of the diffracted light by the particles in suspension in the material (Sperazza et al., 2004; Ryzak & Bieganski, 2011). The scattering pattern read by the detectors represents the sum of the scattering pattern of all individual particles (Escubed Ltd, n.d). An important parameter, which has to be taken into consideration while using the laser diffraction method, is the obscuration. Per definition, the obscuration is "*the degree to which the light from the laser beam is obscured by the particles being measured*" (Ryzak & Bieganski, 2011), whose value is recommended to be between 10-20% (Ryzak & Bieganski, 2011). If the value is situated below 10% and above 20%,

no reliable results will be obtained because the number of particles in the sample would be too small or too large (and therefore the risk of a secondary refraction increases), respectively.

3.6.2 Procedure

In this project, a Malvern Mastersizer 2000 laser diffractor apparatus with Hydro Mu adapter from the Geography Institute of the University of Bern was used (Fig. 3.4). The machine uses two different sources of light, red and blue, with wavelengths of 633 and 466 nm, respectively (Sperazza et al., 2004; Di Stefano et al., 2010; Ryzak & Bieganowski, 2011) and it records the diffracted beam into 52 detectors (Sperazza et al., 2004).

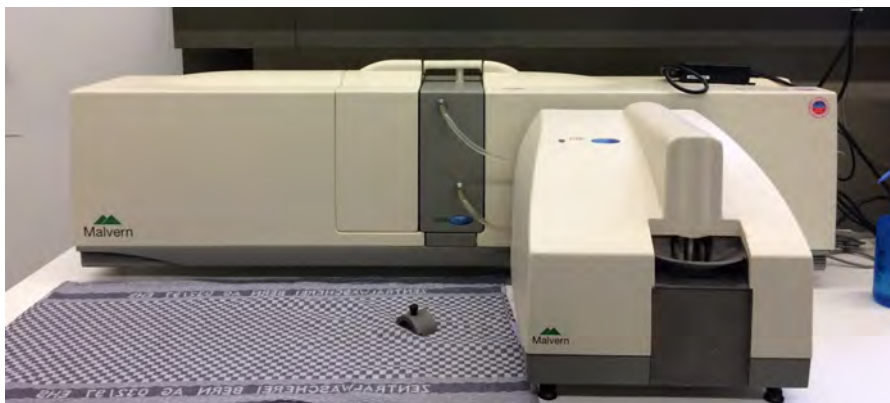


Fig. 3.4 Malvern Mastersizer, University of Bern (D. Motta, 2016)

Concerning the sampling, the 2005 layer in the 9 cores was sub-sampled at 2.5 mm intervals, resulting in a total of 90 samples. All the sub-samples were then freeze-dried for 25 hours at 0.053 mbar and -54°C. The dried sub-samples were then gently crushed, weighted and stored.

In order to determine particle-size distribution, sediment aggregates need to be dispersed: if insufficiently broken up aggregates disintegrate during the measurement, they most likely will change the properties of the sample (Ryzak & Bieganowski, 2011). In order to avoid aggregation and flocculation, which lead to instability and lack of data reproducibility, these natural aggregations have to be broken down before the measurement starts (Ryzak & Bieganowski, 2011). For this purpose, a chemical dispersion method was carried out, which consisted in the application of 500 ml of a dispersion solution on the samples. The dispersion solution is obtained adding 16.5 g of Sodium-hexametaphosphate (NaPO_3)₆ to 3.5 g of Sodium Carbonate (Na_2CO_3). The mixture is then filled up to 500 ml with milli-Q water. A magnetic steering-tool was used to homogenise the solution.

In order to assess the optimal sample amount readable from the laser diffractor, a test run was carried out on two samples. Because of the two different fingerprints of the two main inflows Aare and Lüttschine, the two samples of 400 mg each were taken from two different cores (LB20, LB14) representing the Aare and the Lüttschine signal, respectively. In order to get representative sub-samples for both clay and sand, for LB14 two samples were chosen, one at 13-13.25 cm (clay) and one at 15-15.25 cm (coarser sand). Because no grading is visible on the core representing the Aare signal, just one sample at 15-15.25 cm was chosen. Finally, the test suggested an optimal sample amount of 200 mg. All the samples were then weighted again and measured with the Malvern Mastersizer, with an obscuration level between 10 and 20%.

3.7 Total Inorganic Carbon Analysis

3.7.1 Introduction to Carbon Content Analysis

Carbon content analysis is a common procedure on soil samples. Lake sediments accumulate three different forms of carbon, such as elemental, organic and inorganic carbon (Schumacher, 2002). Those three forms of carbon differ in their sources, with elemental carbon forming as a result of incomplete combustion of organic matter (e.g. charcoal, graphite), organic carbon forming after decomposition of animals and plants (e.g. humus, leaves) and inorganic carbon deriving from geologic sources and mostly present in the sediments as carbonate (CaCO_3) and dolomite [$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$] (Schumacher, 2002).

Because of the dependency of inorganic carbon from geology, total inorganic carbon (TIC) is used in this project in order to differentiate the different sub-catchments surrounding Lake Brienz. Specifically, it is expected to measure higher TIC concentration in cores presenting a Lütshine signal (more carbonate bedrock in its catchment) than the ones presenting an Aare signal (more crystalline bedrock in the catchment). For this purpose, a Carlo-Erba NA 1500 at the Geology Institute of the University of Bern was used (Fig. 3.5). This instrument allows the determination of total carbon and total nitrogen from organic and inorganic samples such as soil, plant tissues and fertilizers, for example (Stanford, n.d).



Fig. 3.5 Carlo-Erba NA 1500 at the Institute of Geology, University of Bern (D. Motta, 2016)

The apparatus follows the method of flash combustion, which oxidises the chosen sample and subsequently converts it into a combustion product (gases). Tin cups containing the sediment samples are put in a combustion tube at 1000°C , filled with helium (He) as carrier gas and temporarily filled with O_2 . The melted tin reacts with the oxygen, resulting in the oxidation of all the substances contained in the sample and to the formation of combustion products such as CO_2 , SO_2 , H_2O , N_2 and NO_x . These combustion products are then transported to the Thermal Conductivity Detector by helium as carrier gas. Here, nitrogen oxides and oxygen are reduced, water is absorbed and N_2 and CO_2 are separated. In

the Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD), the concentration of N and C is derived (the TCD produces an electric signal, which is proportional to the concentration of N and C) (Stanford, n.d; Radboud University, n.d). Similar methods, such as Dumas and Kjeldahl, are similar and can therefore be used as well. However, the Elemental Analyser and its flash combustion give fast, reliable and reproducible results, with no production of dangerous waste (Stanford, n.d).

3.7.2 Procedure

3.7.2.1 Total Carbon, Total Nitrogen and Total Sulphur

For this analysis, two different sampling procedures were performed. Firstly, sub-samples from the 2005 turbidite were taken at 2.5 mm intervals. All the samples were frozen and then freeze-dried. Because of the need of homogeneous and uniform composition of the sediment samples, a second step consisted in their grinding until a dust-sized homogenised sample was obtained. The last step consisted in weighting each samples using a micro-balance in order to have around 4 mg of material per sample. All the weighted samples were then inserted into tin cups, folded and subsequently measured (Fig 3.6).

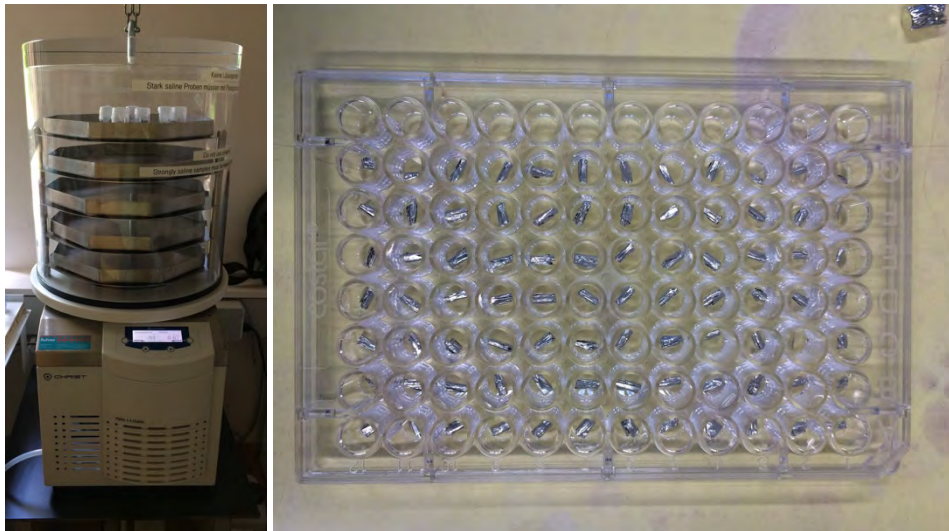


Fig. 3.6 Freeze-drier at the Institute of Geology at the University of Bern (left); Tin folded capsules containing sediment samples (right) (D. Motta, 2016)

In order to try determining the contribution of the different tributaries on the turbidite, samples containing the fine fraction transported from the four tributaries of interest were taken from the rivers (Aare, Lütschine and Glyssibach deltas and Trachtbach riverbed). This was with the aim of comparing the carbonate content of the different inflows with the signal measured in the turbidite. Because the samples contained a large range of grain sizes and not only the fine fraction, a sieving procedure was applied in order to separate pebbles ($> 2\text{mm}$ diameter), coarse sand ($> 600\ \mu\text{m}$), fine sand ($63\text{-}600\ \mu\text{m}$) and silt ($< 63\ \mu\text{m}$). Clay-size particles ($< 2\ \mu\text{m}$) were not present in the samples. All the samples containing the different fractions were dried overnight in an oven at the Limnology laboratories of the University of Bern, at a temperature of 60°C . The choice of the oven for the drying procedure was based on two criteria: firstly, the procedure was less time-consuming than the freeze-drying process, which requires the samples to freeze first and then be dried. Secondly, since the aim was to measure inorganic carbon, a delicate procedure such as freeze-drying – which does not compromise the organic matter present in the samples – was not needed. Finally, in order to obtain the representative particle composition of the different inflows, the silt and fine sand fractions were combined and ground. From

all the samples, 4 mg of material was then inserted into the tin cups, folded and measured. The output data are expressed as concentration (%).

3.7.2.2 Total Organic Carbon

In a second step, Total Organic Carbon (TOC) was measured. For this procedure, 4 mg of ground samples were inserted into silver capsules, and phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) was added in order to completely dissolve organic carbon. After the $CaCO_3$ was completely dissolved, the Ag capsules were then folded and inserted in tin capsules. The same procedure described above was then used to measure TOC on tin capsules. Also for TOC, the output data are expressed as concentration (%). In order to retrieve TIC concentration, the following calculation was applied:

$$TIC (\%) = TC (\%) - TOC (\%)$$

All the measurements for TC, TN, TS and TOC were executed by Julijana Krabnjec at the Geology Institute of the University of Bern.

3.8 Hydrological and Precipitation Analysis

Aside from the different sedimentological and mineralogical analyses presented in the previous sections, an analysis of discharge and precipitation during the 2005 event was also carried out in order to retrieve the temporal succession of the event.

3.8.1 Precipitation Analysis

Precipitation analysis was carried out based on a RHiresD grid-data product from MeteoSchweiz, containing daily precipitation totals from the rain-gauge network of Switzerland from 1961 to present. This dataset, provided by the Geography Institute of the University of Bern, was used for time-series analysis of precipitation in the catchment.

In principle, a second dataset containing hourly precipitation would have been used in order to have a more detailed overview of the amount of precipitation fell in the catchment during the event. However, such data only existed for 2005 for the area surrounding Interlaken. Measurement in Brienz only started in 2009.

A detailed time-series analysis of daily precipitation data was performed for the RHiresD dataset using the hydroTSM package of RStudio. With this package, monthly, yearly and seasonal values of precipitation were extracted. A time series analysis of monthly data was performed, and the trend and seasonal component was defined and isolated. Monthly values were also used to calculate the distribution of rain for all the time period going from 1961 to 2011. Monthly time series and boxplot were then created in order to get an overview of precipitation distribution and variation throughout the years. Annual precipitation values were plotted mainly for visual purposes. A seasonal analysis was then performed on the dataset, extracting the mean values and mean distribution for winter (DJF), spring (MAM), summer (JJA) and autumn (SON) in order to visualize the time evolution of the seasonal precipitation values.

3.8.2 Hydrological Analysis

A hydrological analysis was performed in order to assess the temporal succession of the discharges and peak discharge during the event. For Aare and Lütschine river, two separated datasets were used. The first dataset contains daily discharge from 01-01-1974 to 20-11-2015, which was measured at the gauging-stations of Aare Brienzwiler and Lütschine Gsteig. A general analysis of daily, monthly and annual discharge was performed on this dataset. A second dataset from the same gauging stations contained 10-min discharge measurements, and was used for the analysis of temporal succession of Aare and Lütschine discharge. Both datasets were provided from MeteoSchweiz.

While Aare and Lütschine discharge is continuously measured from the two gauging stations, continuous observations for Trachtbach and Glyssibach discharge do not exist. For this reason, a discharge and precipitation model for the catchments of the latter torrents was provided from the Hydrology Group of the University of Bern (Ole Rössler). As a result, hourly precipitation and discharge data were retrieved for the two streams, and were used to determine the temporal succession of their peak discharges. Data are presented in the Annex (Tables A.1.1 and A.1.2).

A similar analysis as for precipitation data was performed on discharge data from Aare and Lütschine. Through the hydroTSM package, daily discharge data were aggregated into monthly, annual and seasonal data in order to have an overview of water-flow characteristics and variations throughout different time periods. Monthly distribution of discharge for the entire time period (01-01-1990 to 31-12-2015) was calculated, and annual, seasonal discharge time series were plotted for visual purposes. Boxplots of monthly and seasonal discharge were plotted in order to visualize the distribution variation in different seasons.

The dataset containing 10-min discharge measurements was plotted for 20-24th of August for both Aare and Lütschine, in order to retrieve the temporal succession of the two inflows during the event. The same plots were created for the hourly discharge of Trachtbach and Glyssibach. Following, hydrographs for the 20-24th of August time period were created with the aim of assessing the runoff response to the extreme precipitation event.

4 Results

4.1 Sediment Description

Figure 4.1 presents the sediment description for Cores LB15-14 (Fig. 4.1a) and LB15-18 (Fig. 4.1b), which are considered representative cores for Lüttschine and Aare input, respectively. The choice of the two cores was determined by their lengths and therefore by their ability of representing the two catchment's sedimentary signals. Along the cores, five lithotypes (from I to V) were distinguished and differentiated between each other.

Regular Background Sedimentation (Lithotype I)

LITHOTYPE I defines fine-grained background sedimentation. The normal background sedimentation within the core is characterized by a succession of light bluish grey (HUE GLEY 2 7/10B) laminations of silty clastic material and dark bluish grey (HUE GLEY 2 4/10B) laminations of allochthonous detrital origin. Thickness of laminations is on a millimetre to sub-millimetre scale for both cores.

Event Layers (Lithotypes II-V)

Event layers differentiate from background sedimentation from colour, grain size and thickness of layers.

LITHOTYPE II defines deposits of 2 to 5 mm thick, which present a faint normal grading. Grain size is mainly represented by silt and fine sand. The source of these thin layers can be related to small flood deposits coming from the smaller, lateral torrents. Colours differ depending on the detrital layer, varying from greyish brown (HUE 2.5Y 4/2, especially LB15-14) to very dark greyish brown (HUE 2.5Y 3/2, especially LB15-18), to dark grey (HUE 2.5Y 4/1), to very dark-grey layers (HUE 2.5Y 3/1). This lithotype is interpreted to represent turbidite deposits reflecting small-to-medium flood events.

LITHOTYPE III represents thick graded deposits of more than 5 mm. While for LB15-14 the maximum thickness lies around 3-4 cm, LB15-18 counts a maximum thickness of 10 cm (related to the 1996 turbidite, Girardclos et al., 2007). These deposits are also characterized by a coarser grain size, from silt to medium sand. Such deposits present a much more visible grading, which can be either normally or inversely graded depending on the deposit. The sedimentological process behind these deposits is related to turbidity currents caused by either increased discharge of the main tributaries (major floods, **LITHOTYPE IIIA**) or by mass-movements within the lake (**LITHOTYPE IIIB**) (T. Mulder et al., 2001). For Lithotype IIIA, LB15-14 and LB15-18 present differences in colour. While most of the graded deposits for LB15-18 are characterized by a greyish brown- dark greyish brown colour (HUE 2.5Y 5/2-4/2), LB15-14 also contains very dark grey layers (HUE GLEY 1 3/N). Lithotype IIIB is mainly characteristic for the mass-movement induced turbidite of 1996 (Girardclos et al., 2007), which is characterized by a coarser base and an overlying fining-up sequence with a thick rather homogeneous central part capped by a thin clay layer. Such a sequence is composed by coarse grey sand at the bottom (HUE GLEY 1 5/N), which fines up into a light grey silt (HUE GLEY 1 7/N) and finally to a white clay top (HUE GLEY 1 8/N).

LITHOTYPE IV represents thick and ungraded deposits, which are characterized by medium to coarse very dark-grey sand (HUE GLEY 1 3/N). This lithotype is characteristic only for one layer within the LB15-14 and it is interpreted to be deposited by a Lüttschine flood.

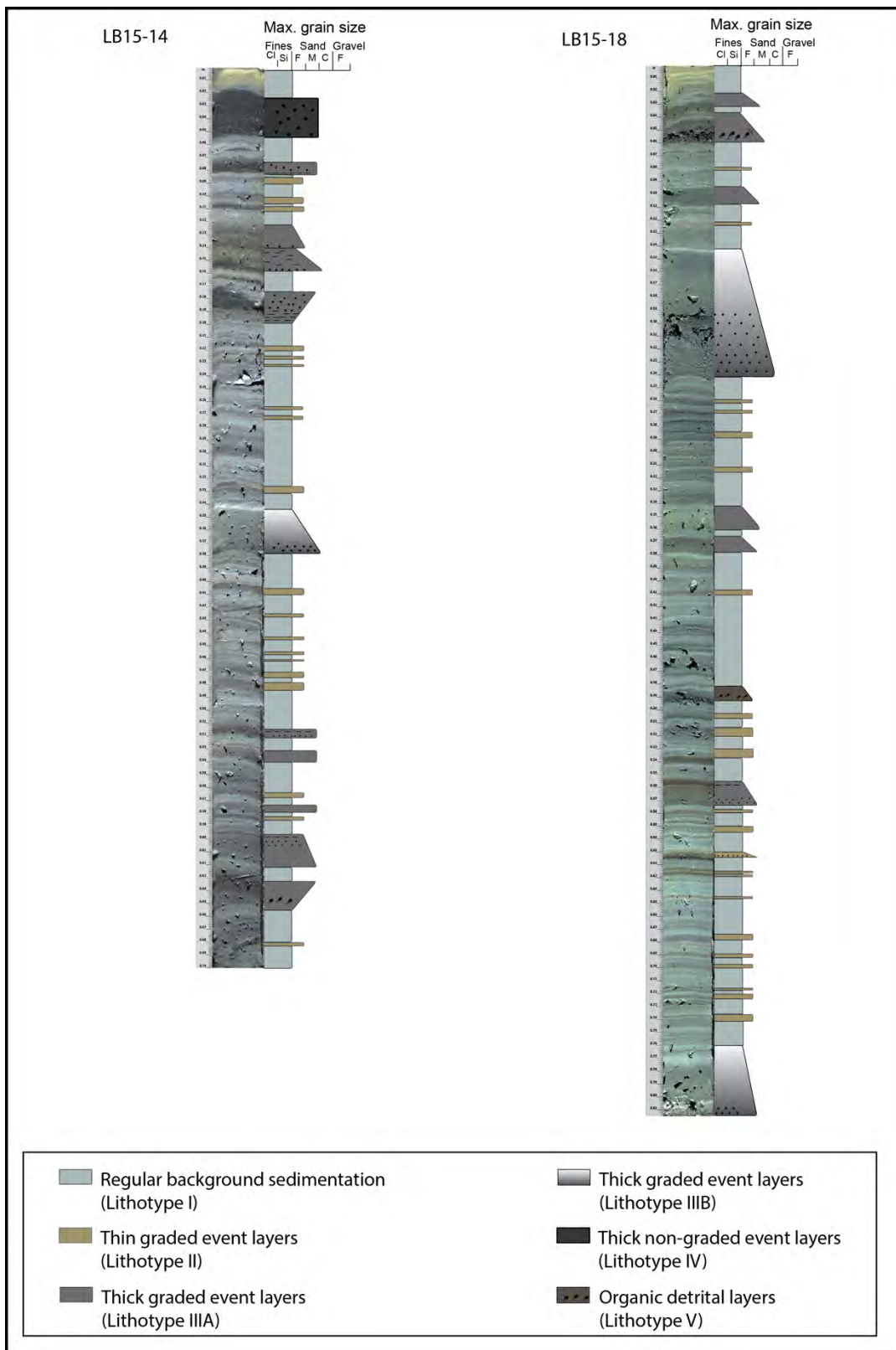


Fig. 4.1 Description of the representative cores for Lüttschine (LB15-14, left) and Aare (LB15-18, right). Note that the difference in colour in figure 4.1 is only due to a different setting of the RGB camera, and not by a difference between the cores.

LITHOTYPE V is related to terrestrial organic detrital layers, which are composed of remains of leaves and other organic matter and therefore characterized by a very dark greyish brown colour (HUE 2.5Y 3/2) and a variable thickness (from 5 mm to 1 cm). Such layers, only found in LB15-18 and partly in LB15-19, are expected to be organic detrital layers. As the Aare and Lütschine have a long flow path, stemming from glacial outflows, it is highly likely that any organic material found in the sediments of the Lake originates from flood events and debris-flows surrounding the catchment. This issue will be addressed in the discussion section.

Especially for Lithotypes IIIA and IIIB, event layers can be characterized by erosive bases. While LB15-18 is characterized by a less disturbed laminated succession compared to LB15-14, erosive bases can be found at the bottom of 1996 turbidite (see also Girardclos et al., 2007), as well as of 2005 detrital layer.

4.2 Core Correlation and 2005 Flood Layer Identification

4.2.1 Core Correlation

A core correlation was retrieved using all the seventeen cores from the lake, with the aim of identifying the August 2005 flood event along the WE transect of the basin. Visual observation of colour and lithology was performed, as well as a comparison with core images from the same basin in the study of Girardclos et al. (2007) and Anselmetti et al. (2007), who previously conducted sedimentological studies on Lake Brienz. Such methodology allowed the author to identify, with a strong level of certainty, the 2005 layer in nine cores along the basin.

An attempt of identifying the 2005 layer was also performed on all cores showing clear layering through bulk density and magnetic susceptibility (MS) profiles (Fig. 4.2). Therefore, the cores located in the central area of the basin (LB15-15c, LB15-16, LB15-17) were also included in the analysis, in order to attempt to identify changes in profiles on the top layers and retrieve a signal from the 2005 event. For all the profiles, the MS profiles show only little variations throughout the cores, while Bulk Density mainly follows grain size changes. However, the profiles do not highlight all the visible event layers present in the cores. Concerning the central cores, which comprise major coring-induced disturbance, bulk density shows only an increase for LB15-17 at around 5 cm depth, while the other two central cores do not show a similar variation. Such profiles therefore were not suitable for the identification of the single 2005 layer.

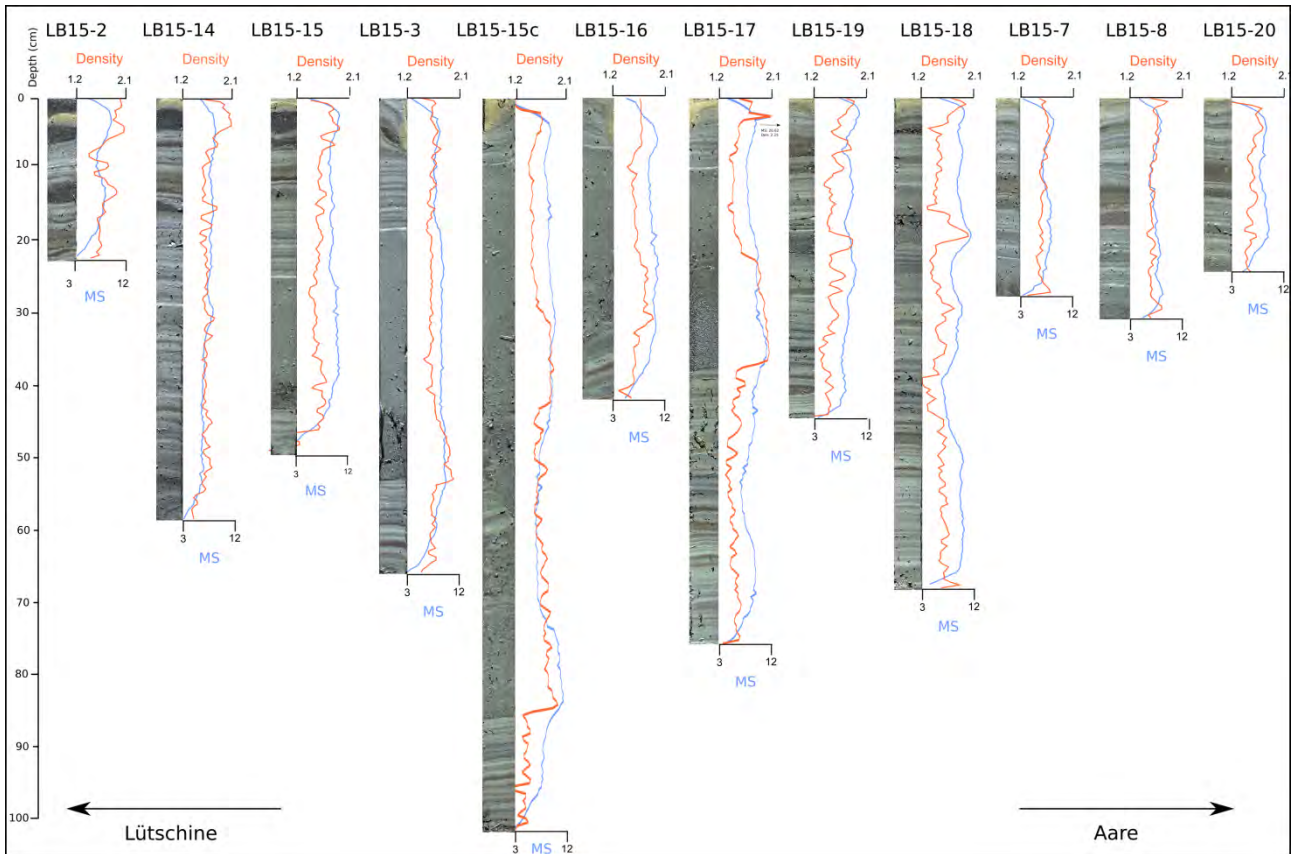


Fig. 4.2 Bulk density (g/cc) and Magnetic susceptibility ($SI \times 10^{-5}$) profiles for the 12 cores presenting a visible layering

Figure 4.3 shows the retrieved core correlation along the basin. The cores are aligned following the WE transect, with the Lütschine inflow on the left and the Aare inflow on the right. As presented before, only nine cores out of seventeen show the 2005 layer: LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15, LB15-3, LB15-7, LB15-8, LB15-18, LB15-19 and LB15-20. In pink, the 2005 layer is shown, while in blue the 1996 delta collapse is highlighted.

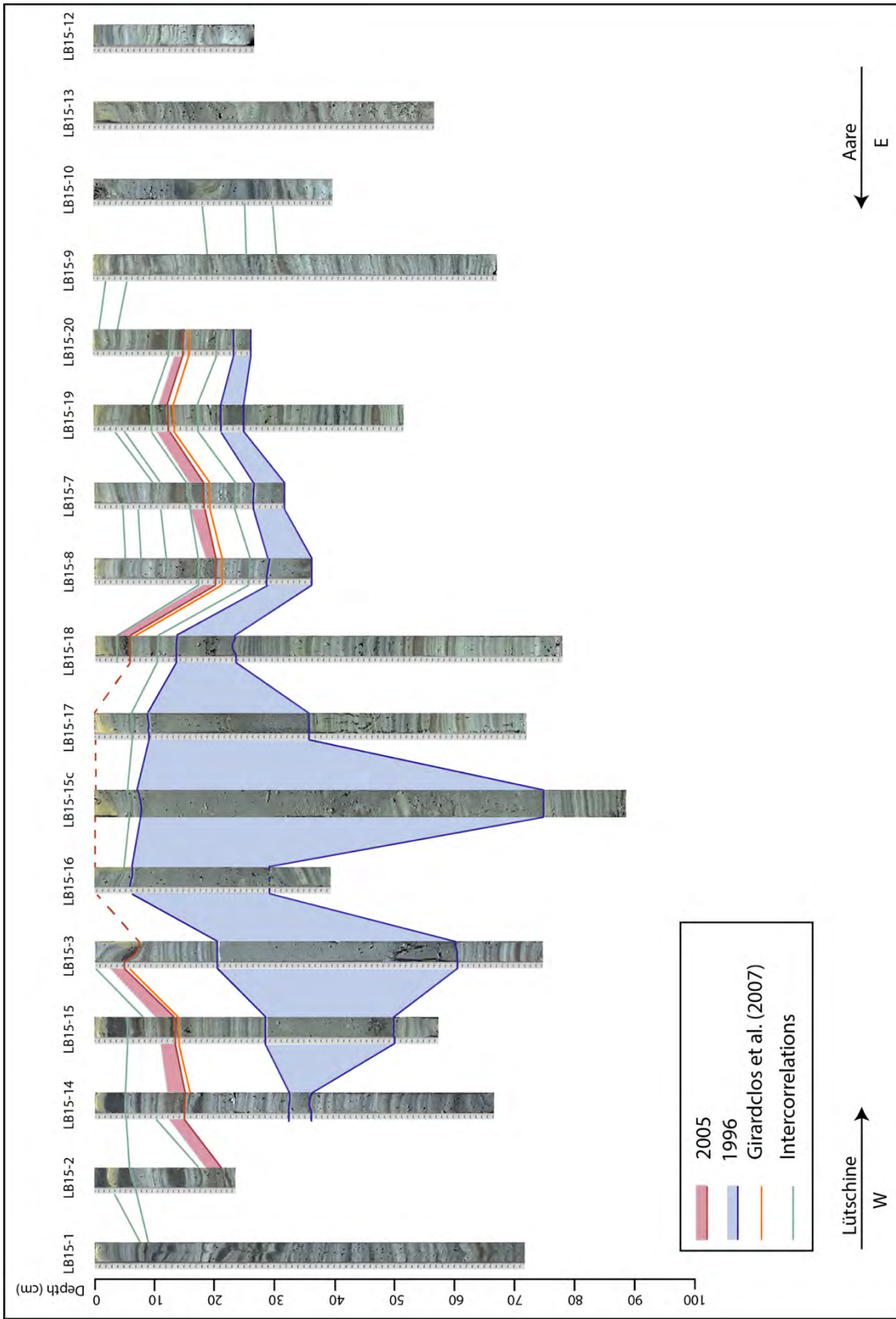


Fig. 4.3 Core correlation on Lake Brienz. Blue shading represents the mass-movement induced turbidite from 1996 (Girardclos et al, 2007). The red shading indicated the layer associated to the 2005 flood event. Note that a respective layer could not be recovered in the central part of the lake (see discussion section for possible explanations)

As it can be observed, cores LB15-1, LB15-16, LB15c, LB15-17, LB15-9, LB15-10, LB15-12 and LB15-13 did not show the 2005 layer. It is expected that the cores located closer to the inflows of both Aare and Lütchine present a dynamic depositional system (channels in front of delta, high potential of erosion and patchy sedimentation, thus causing disturbed layering), which does not allow a clear identification of the 2005 layer. In contrast, the cores located in the centre present a different problematic. When compared to the cores retrieved from the previous studies of Anselmetti et al. (2007) and Girardclos et al. (2007), LB15-15c, LB15-16 and LB15-17 present around 10 years of missing layers.

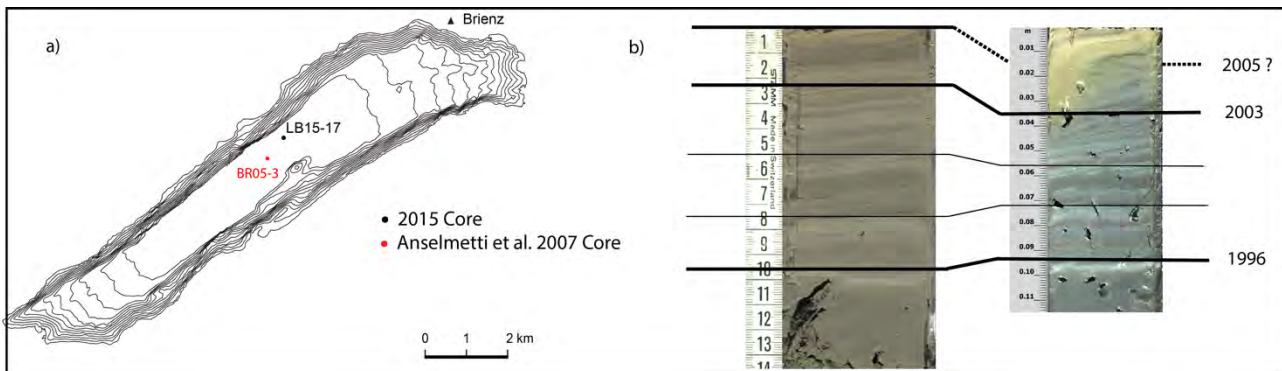


Fig. 4.4 Correlation between central cores from Anselmetti et al. (2007, Core BR05-3 taken in early 2005 prior to the event) and LB15-17

Figure 4.4 shows the correlation between the cores retrieved from Anselmetti et al. in 2005 (before the August flood event) and one of the central cores retrieved in 2015 for this project. Fig. 4.4 (a) illustrates the location of the two cores. In Figure 4.4 (b), the correlation between the two cores is presented, with BR05-3 core on the left and the 2015 core on the right. As it can be observed, the two successions show a very similar layering, both correlating the 1996 and 2003 layers. As it can be observed, the top core taken by Anselmetti et al. (left) ends with 2005 layer, however not including the flood-induced turbidite which will be deposited few months later. The core retrieved for this study, despite a time span of 11 years, does not show the flood-induced turbidite of August 2005 either, therefore missing around 10 years of sedimentation. As shown in Figure 4.2, the same pattern can be observed for the other two central cores LB15-15c and LB15-16. As a consequence, the cores from the actual depocentre in the central part of the lakes could for some reasons (see discussion section) do not contain the 2005 event layer, so that the presented data focuses on the zones towards both major deltas, where coring clearly recovered the targeted layer.

4.2.2 August 2005 Layer Identification

Despite the 2005 layer present in the nine cores is interpreted to be the consequence of the same event, sedimentological differences are related to different locations within the lake. Figure 4.5 shows, through three representative cores, such differences.

Fig. 4.5 (a) shows the 2005 layer of core LB15-14, which is representative for the cores closer to the Lütchine input and therefore located on the Western side of the lake. This particular pattern of the 2005 layer can be observed in cores LB15-2, LB15-3, LB15-14 and LB15-15. A coarser, darker base is overlaid by two visually different layers, which present slightly different colours. Figure 4.5 (b) is more representative for cores LB15-18 and LB15-19 and in general of the Aare signal, however from more a central location. Such turbidites present a different layering, with a layer composed of organic matter containing plant macrofossils and diatoms and an overlying detrital layer. Fig 4.5c shows LB15-8 2005

layer, which is representative for the cores closer to the Aare inflow, such as LB15-7 and LB15-20. These layers show a more homogeneous signal, with no overlying layer but only a single graded turbidite.

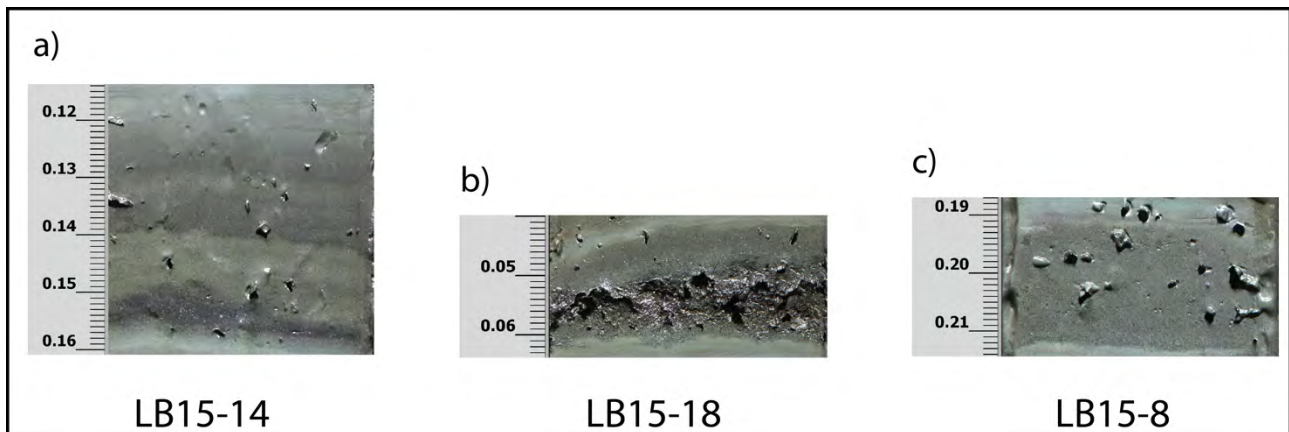


Fig. 4.5 Sedimentological differences in 2005 layer within cores

Finally, Figure 4.5 (c) shows LB15-8 2005 layer, and is representative for the cores closer to the Aare inflow,

In general, all the 2005 layers present a thickness varying from 1.5 cm thick for the cores closer to the Aare to 3.5 cm thick for the cores closer to Lüttschine. As the 2005 layers from the central part of the lake could not be recovered, no thickness information is available for the theoretical depot centre.

4.3 Geochemical Signatures

4.3.1 Elemental Profiles

4.3.1.1 Long Cores

As presented in the methodology section, elemental profiles were plotted in order to first identify a proxy for turbidites in Lake Brienz. Secondly, a more detailed analysis was performed in order to establish and isolate elements indicative for Aare (and its rather crystalline catchment) and Lüttschine (with a more sedimentary input) signal. In order to identify flood layers, zirconium (Zr) was chosen to be the most representative in the identification of turbidite along whole cores. This element is usually associated with heavy and high resistant minerals (Croudace et al., 2006; Kylander et al., 2011), and in the literature is often found to be related to both detrital input and changes in grain size (I.W. Croudace et al., 2006; Kylander et al., 2011; L. Schulte, Peña, et al., 2015).. Fig. 4.6 shows the three cores which have been fully analysed with ITRAX: LB15-14 (entirely), LB15-18 (from 14 cm to the end) and LB15-8 (0-31 cm). The relative Zr measurements are presented in the Annex (Tables A.2.1-A.2.3).

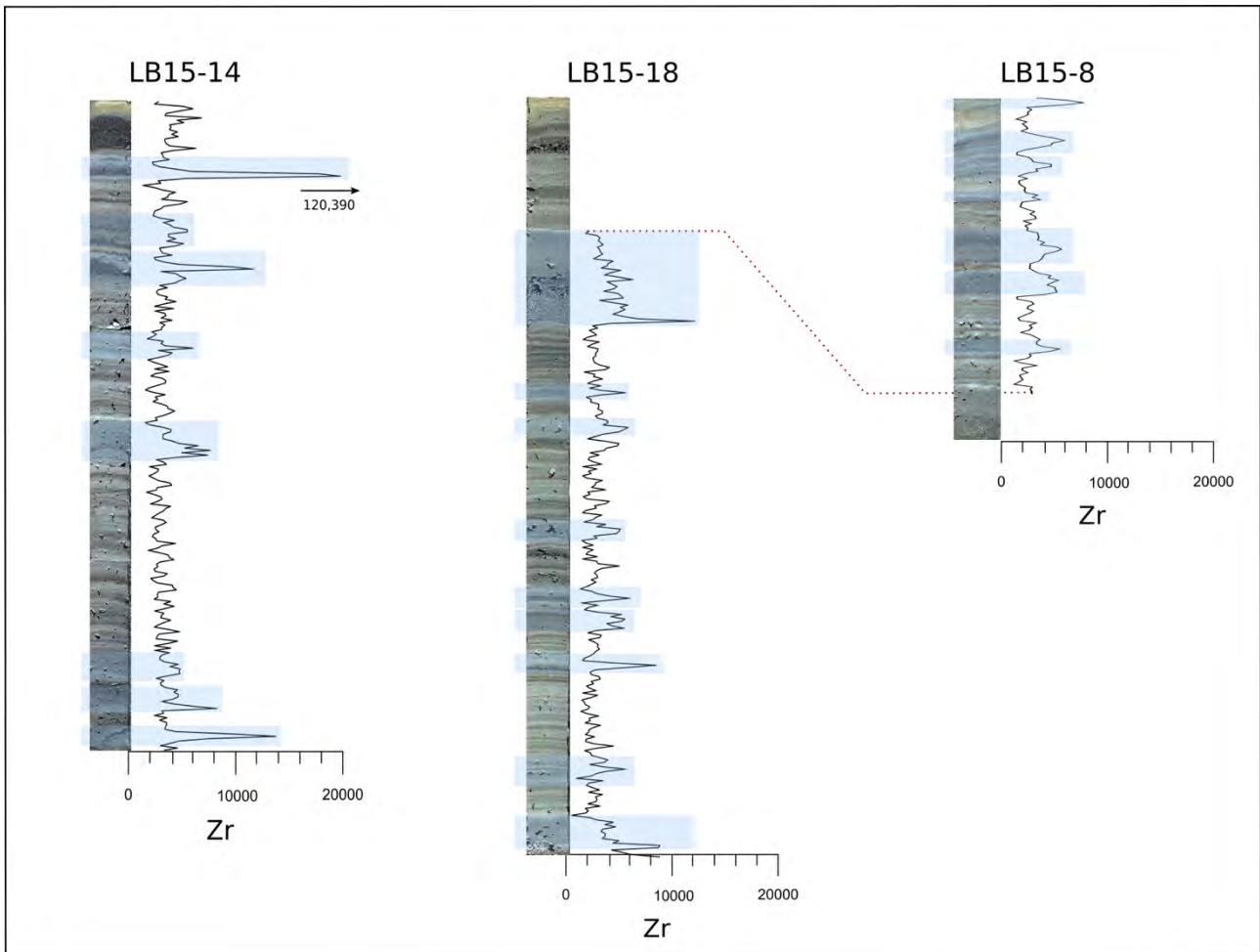


Fig. 4.6 Zirconium (Zr) profiles for Lütschine (LB15-14) and Aare (LB15-8, LB15-18) signal. Blue rectangles show flood layers along the cores and the related Zr profile changes. The red dotted line marks the correlation between the two composite sections (upper section: LB15-8; lower section: LB15-18)

As visible in Fig. 4.6, Zr profile accurately follows changes in grain size (blue rectangles). Increases in the elemental profile correspond in fact to what has been previously characterized as event layers. In particular, peaks in Zr are related to the coarser particles within the event layers. For this reason, Zr has been chosen as proxy for event layers and coarser grain size, which is in line with previous studies both on Lake Brienz (Schulte et al., 2015) as well as in other regions (examples can be found in Croudace et al., 2015).

4.3.1.2 2005-Layer Elemental Profiles

Focusing on the individual 2005 layers, elemental and elemental ratios profiles were plotted for cores LB15-14 (Lütschine), LB15-8 and LB15-15 (Aare). In the following Fig. 4.7 and Fig. 4.8, the elemental and ratios profiles for LB15-14 (Lütschine) are shown. The relative data are presented in the Annex (Tables A.2.4-A.2.12)

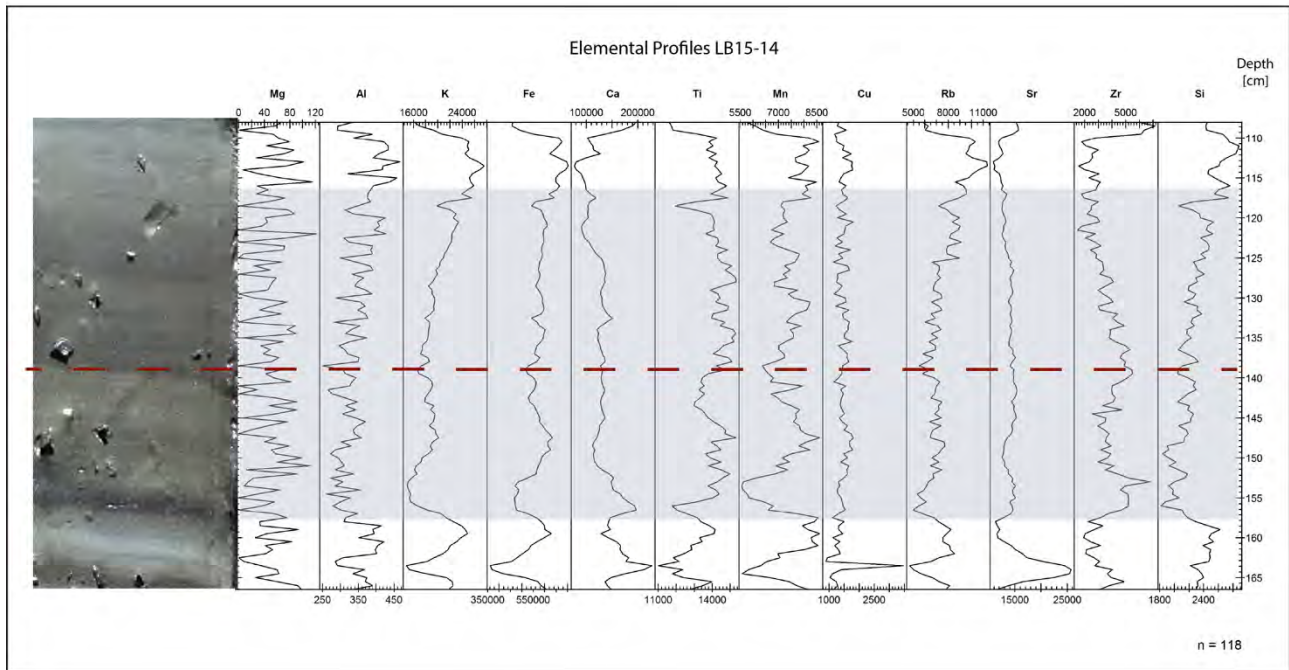


Fig. 4.7 Elemental profiles for the 2005 layer in LB15-14. In grey, the limits and location of the flood layer. The red dotted line highlights the visual difference within the layer

The 2005 layer, highlighted by the grey rectangle, is located between 117 and 159.75 mm. At 140 mm depth, a change in the profile can be seen for almost every element presented in Fig. 4.7, and corresponds to the visual difference in sedimentation within the 2005 layer (red dotted line). Such change in sedimentation at 140 mm shows a visible coarsening and darkening of the sediment, which could be indicative for another layering overlying the first one. From now on, the layer between 117-140 mm and 140-159.75 mm will be addressed as sub-layer A and B, respectively. The profiles of Mg, Al and Cu are too noisy and do not show a representative pattern. The most interesting elemental profiles are K, Ca, Ti, Rb and Zr, which present variations along the 2005 layer.

K, which is usually enriched in fine-grained fraction such as in clay, micas and feldspar (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015), shows an increase in counts through the sub-layer A. Ca, representative for carbonate input and enriched in allochthonous material (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015), is the second most present element (after Fe). Despite a more constant profile, it still shows higher counts in the sub-layer B. A peak of Ca is also found at around 132 mm depth. Ti also shows an interesting pattern: enriched in coarse silt and sand and usually associated to quartz (Kylander et al., 2011), it presents higher counts in the sub-layer A. Rb, enriched in clay minerals (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015), is characterized by a similar behaviour, with a clear increase throughout the entire sub-layer A, while in B the profile is more constant. Zr, usually related to coarser grain size (Cuven et al., 2010), follows the visual grading visible on the core image, with higher counts of Zr at the base of each sub-layer, both followed by a decrease. Finally, the Si profile is characterized by a constant upcore increase along the sub-layer B, which gets more pronounced along the sub-layer A.

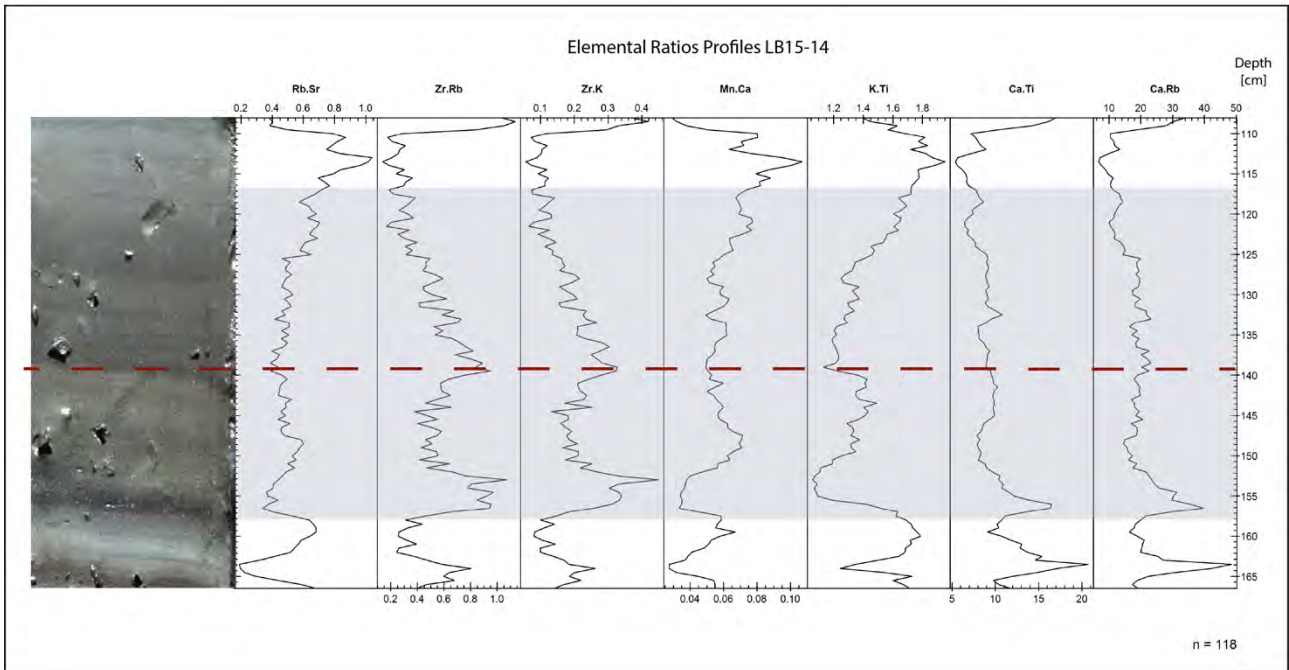


Fig. 4.8 Ratio profiles for the 2005 layer in LB15-14. In grey, the limits and location of the flood layer. The red dotted line highlights the visual difference within the layer

In Fig. 4.8, elemental ratios chosen for the analysis are shown: Zr/Rb and Zr/K nicely follow the pattern previously described for Zr, with increasing values related to the bottom of both sub-layers followed by an upcore decrease. Ca/Rb, chosen to be the representative ratios to identify Aare (Rb) and Lüttschine (Ca) signals, shows higher ratio in the sub-layer B, with a subsequent upcore decrease in sub-layer A.

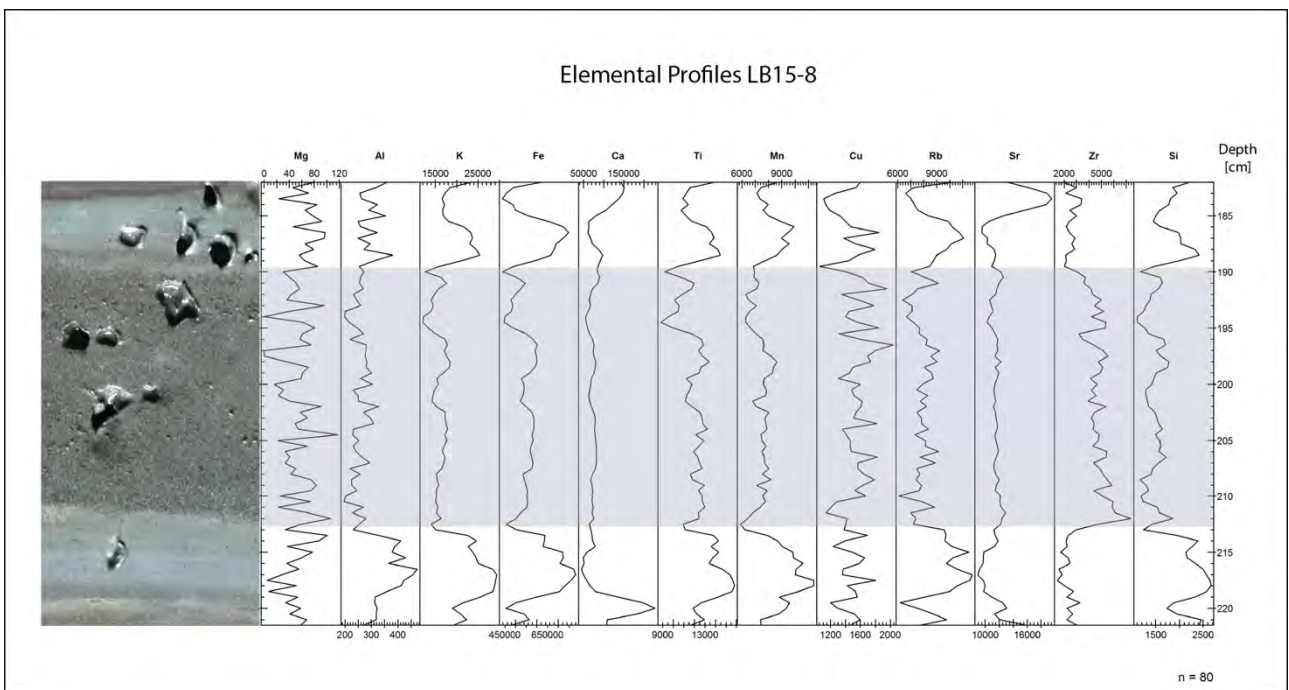


Fig. 4.9 Elemental profiles for the 2005 layer in LB15-8. In grey, the limits and location of the flood layer

Fig. 4.9 shows the elemental profiles of the core LB15-8, representative for Aare signal. The turbidite, which consists in the layer between 190 and 212.5 mm, shows a very different pattern than the previous core, with no changes within the layer shown in the visual image nor in the elemental profiles. All the elemental profiles are in fact stable and continuous, with little or no change throughout the turbidite. In this core, K does not increase through the layer, and Ca presents a much lower concentration than for the previous core. Rb is characterized, on the other hand, by higher concentrations. The Zr profile is shows a higher concentration at the bottom of the 2005 layer, followed by an upcore decrease.

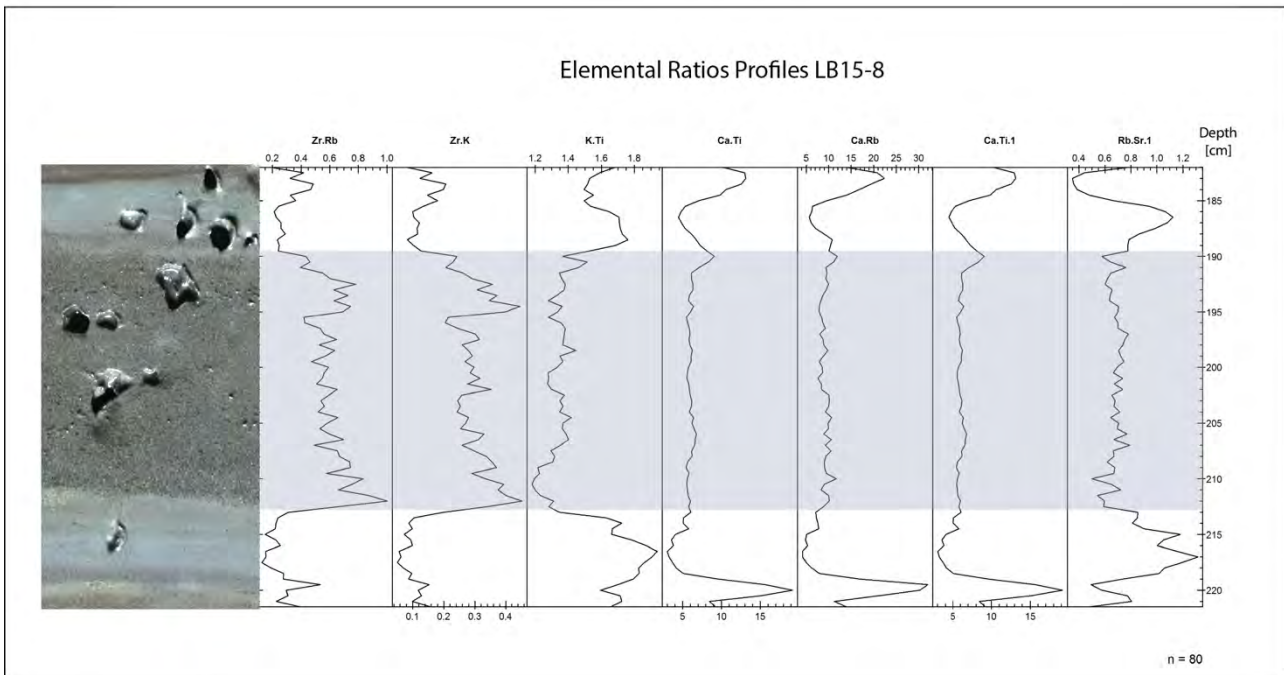


Fig. 4.10 Ratio profiles for the 2005 layer in LB15-8. In grey, the limits and location of the flood layer

Figure 4.10 shows the elemental ratios for LB15-8. No trend is visually detectable for Ca/Ti, Ca/Rb and Rb/Sr. However, Ca/Ti and Ca/Rb presents a lower ratios compared to LB15-14, which implies higher concentration of Ti and Rb in the turbidite than Ca. Zr/Rb and Zr/K show, instead, a much more variable profile, with higher ratios at the bottom followed by a slight decrease towards the top of the turbidite. At 195 mm, further increases in Zr/Rb and Zr/K ratios are visible, which may imply an increase in grain size at that depth.

Finally, Fig. 4.11 shows the elemental profiles for LB15-15. The turbidite lies between 114 and 141 mm, with a visible change in sedimentation at around 120 mm. Also in this case, the layer between 114-120 mm will be addressed as sub-layer A and the layer between 120 and 141 mm as sub-layer B. Despite the large similarity to LB15-14, both for elemental and ratio profiles, the most interesting feature characterizing LB15-15 is related to the elements Ca and Rb. Ca counts are not only much lower than for LB15-14, but also present a strong decrease from sub-layer B to sub-layer A. The increase in Rb counts – already shown in LB15-14 – in sub-layer A is in fact much more pronounced than for the previous core. Because of its similarity with LB15-14, ratios profiles are not shown here, and can be found in the Annex (Fig. A.2.1).

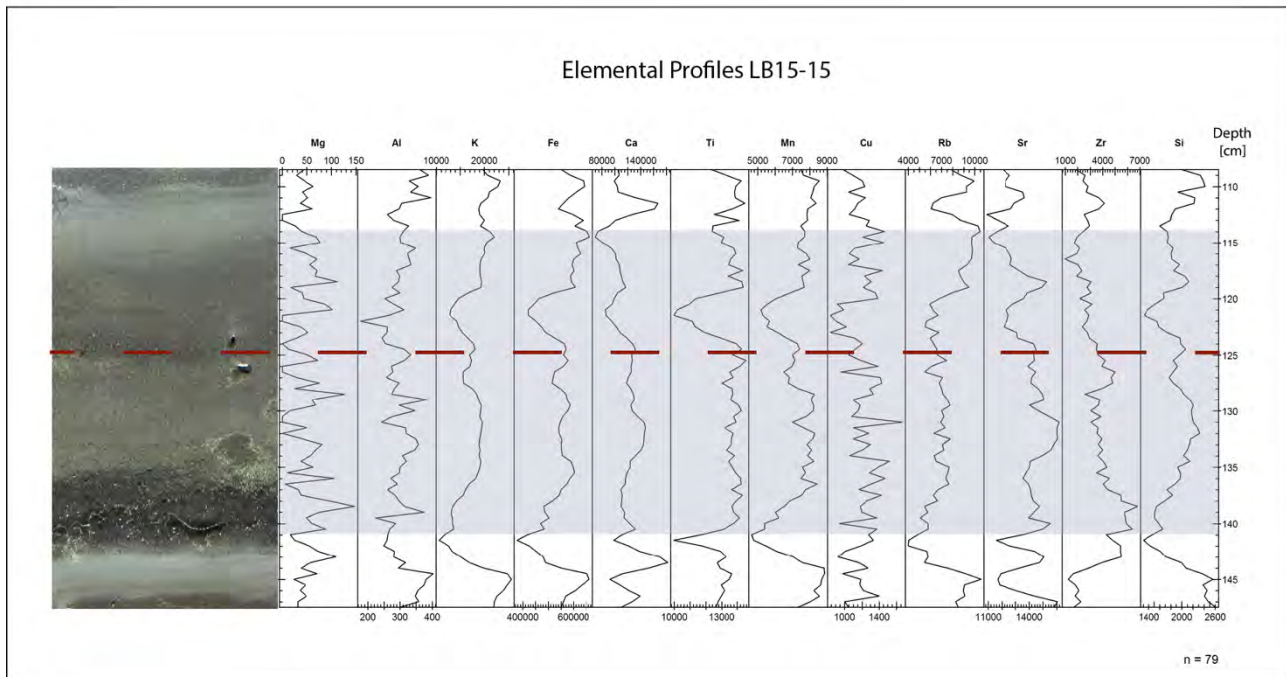


Fig. 4.11 Elemental profiles for the 2005 layer in LB15-14. In grey, the limits and location of the layer. The red dotted line highlights the visual difference within the flood layer

4.3.2 Elemental Correlation and Principal Component Analysis

The relationship between different elements was investigated through two types of statistical analysis, such as Spearman's correlation and Principal Component Analysis. This was done in order to retrieve the elemental fingerprints significant for the two catchment of Aare and Lütshine and therefore to identify the source of sediments in the different cores.

4.3.2.1 Correlation

In the following tables, the correlation between standardized variables (elemental profiles) is shown for LB15-14 and LB15-8. The lower section of the matrix presents the correlation, while the upper section (in italic) shows the level of significance. In bold, the strong positive significant correlations are shown.

Table 4.1 Spearman's correlation matrix for LB15-14. The lower left-hand corner shows the correlation coefficients, with highest correlations in bold, while the upper right-hand corner (italic) shows the levels of significance (P). A value of $P < 0.05$ is considered as significant

	Fe	Mg	Al	K	Ca	Ti	Mn	Cu	Rb	Sr	Zr	Si
Fe	1	<i>0.2654</i>	<i>0.0001</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0029</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.007</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
Mg	0.12	1	<i>0.8136</i>	<i>0.0365</i>	<i>0.7682</i>	<i>0.4317</i>	<i>0.8169</i>	<i>0.6404</i>	<i>0.0143</i>	<i>0.908</i>	<i>0.5322</i>	<i>0</i>
Al	0.41	0.18	1	<i>0.1059</i>	<i>0.1183</i>	<i>0.0052</i>	<i>0.6074</i>	<i>0.0002</i>	<i>0.0362</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
K	0.67	0.03	0.55	1	<i>0.0017</i>	<i>0.7831</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.5494</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
Ca	-0.63	-0.23	-0.18	-0.34	1	<i>0.2417</i>	<i>0.2461</i>	<i>0.0133</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.1527</i>
Ti	0.32	-0.03	0.17	-0.03	-0.13	1	<i>0.6425</i>	<i>0.0085</i>	<i>0.7947</i>	<i>0.6185</i>	<i>0.9989</i>	<i>0.2438</i>
Mn	0.62	0.09	0.3	0.54	-0.13	0.05	1	<i>0.1137</i>	<i>0.0029</i>	<i>0.0063</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0113</i>
Cu	0.29	0.03	-0.06	-0.07	-0.27	0.29	0.17	1	<i>0.8368</i>	<i>0.3346</i>	<i>0.7794</i>	<i>0.2506</i>
Rb	0.65	0.05	0.4	0.68	-0.56	0.03	0.32	-0.02	1	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
Sr	-0.65	-0.27	-0.23	-0.5	0.46	-0.06	-0.3	-0.11	-0.53	1	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0103</i>
Zr	-0.69	-0.01	-0.42	-0.82	0.46	0	-0.5	0.03	-0.73	0.56	1	<i>0</i>
Si	0.45	-0.07	0.63	0.79	-0.16	0.13	0.28	-0.13	0.62	-0.28	-0.62	1

As it can be observed, the following elements correlate with each other:

- Fe, K, Mn, Rb present a strong, positive correlation between each other. They also present a positive but weaker correlation with Al and Si. Ti, Cu and Mg are weakly correlated. All those elements are negatively significantly correlated with Ca, Sr and Zr
- Ca, Sr, Zr correlate positively with each other and are negatively correlated with all the other elements

Table 4.2 Spearman's correlation matrix for LB15-8. The lower left-hand corner shows the correlation coefficients, with highest correlations in bold, while the upper right-hand corner (italic) shows the levels of significance (P). A value of $P < 0.05$ is considered as significant

	Fe	Mg	Al	K	Ca	Ti	Mn	Cu	Rb	Sr	Zr	Si
Fe	1	<i>0.8396</i>	<i>0.0156</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0001</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.2772</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0378</i>	<i>0.432</i>	<i>0</i>
Mg	0.03	1	<i>0.9832</i>	<i>0.712</i>	<i>0.7693</i>	<i>0.7105</i>	<i>0.7905</i>	<i>0.6703</i>	<i>0.5437</i>	<i>0.6437</i>	<i>0.7266</i>	<i>0.9601</i>
Al	0.38	0	1	<i>0.0083</i>	<i>0.0115</i>	<i>0.1441</i>	<i>0.0548</i>	<i>0.1236</i>	<i>0.0016</i>	<i>0.3049</i>	<i>0.5573</i>	<i>0.0048</i>
K	0.88	0.06	0.41	1	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.2033</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.0022</i>	<i>0.872</i>	<i>0</i>
Ca	0.56	-0.05	0.39	0.72	1	<i>0.0004</i>	<i>0.0097</i>	<i>0.6997</i>	<i>0.0021</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0.3659</i>	<i>0</i>
Ti	0.91	0.06	0.23	0.84	0.53	1	<i>0</i>	<i>0.2328</i>	<i>0.0019</i>	<i>0.0093</i>	<i>0.3869</i>	<i>0</i>
Mn	0.72	0.04	0.3	0.65	0.4	0.69	1	<i>0.6311</i>	<i>0.005</i>	<i>0.0595</i>	<i>0.418</i>	<i>0.0021</i>
Cu	0.17	0.07	0.24	0.2	0.06	0.19	0.08	1	<i>0.4617</i>	<i>0.3441</i>	<i>0.0531</i>	<i>0.2941</i>
Rb	0.57	-0.1	0.48	0.62	0.47	0.47	0.43	0.12	1	<i>0.0079</i>	<i>0.9914</i>	<i>0</i>
Sr	0.33	-0.07	0.16	0.47	0.59	0.4	0.3	0.15	0.41	1	<i>0.1676</i>	<i>0.0051</i>
Zr	0.13	0.06	-0.09	0.03	-0.14	0.14	0.13	0.3	0	-0.22	1	<i>0.4633</i>
Si	0.73	-0.01	0.43	0.89	0.73	0.64	0.47	0.17	0.68	0.43	-0.12	1

The correlation between standardized variables in LB15-7 shows the following results:

- Fe, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Rb and Si present a strong, positive significant correlation with each other.
- Ca shows a positive significant correlation with Ti, Sr, Rb and Si, Ti. However, it does not show a positive significant correlation with Zr
- Sr and Zr do not show a significantly correlation between each other. However, Sr correlates with Si

As it can be observed, there is a visible difference in correlation between the two cores, with Ca correlating only with Sr and Zr for LB15-14, while in LB15-8 it correlates with elements such as Ti, Si and Fe, as well with Rb.

4.3.2.2 Principal Component Analysis

A PCA was applied to the two representative cores LB15-14 and LB15-8. LB15-15 was also chosen for this analysis: the core was retrieved near to the Lütshine core LB15-14 and presents a similar sub-layering structure. However, it is located more towards the centre of the lake, and was therefore chosen in order to try identifying contributions from both the Aare and Lütshine during the event.

Dataset 1, containing Fe, Mg, Al, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Cu, Rb, Sr, Zr and Si was used for the analysis. The resulting PCs were 12, with eigenvalues > 1 for the first three PCs. The number of PC retained for further analysis was determined using the broken-stick method.

In order to interpret biplots, some characteristics must be retained:

- The angle between vectors and the axis (representing a PC) is indicative of the importance of the contribution from the variable to the axis dimension (PC)

- The angle between two vectors pointing away from the origin (0,0) indicates the strength of correlation between the two variables. A small angle, characterized by two vectors pointing in the same direction, is indicative of high correlation. An angle of about 180° indicates a negative correlation, while 90° angle corresponds to no correlation
- Points (here expressed as depth) which are close to each other indicate that such observations are similar

In the following biplots, vectors represent elements and the points are substituted with depths, in order to see at which depth a specific elemental signal is stronger.

Fig. 4.12 shows the biplot for the PCA of LB15-14, as well as the resulting loadings. PC1 accounts for 45% of the variance, while PC2 accounts for 13%. Following the broken stick method (Annex, Fig. A.2.2), only the first PC was retained as representative.

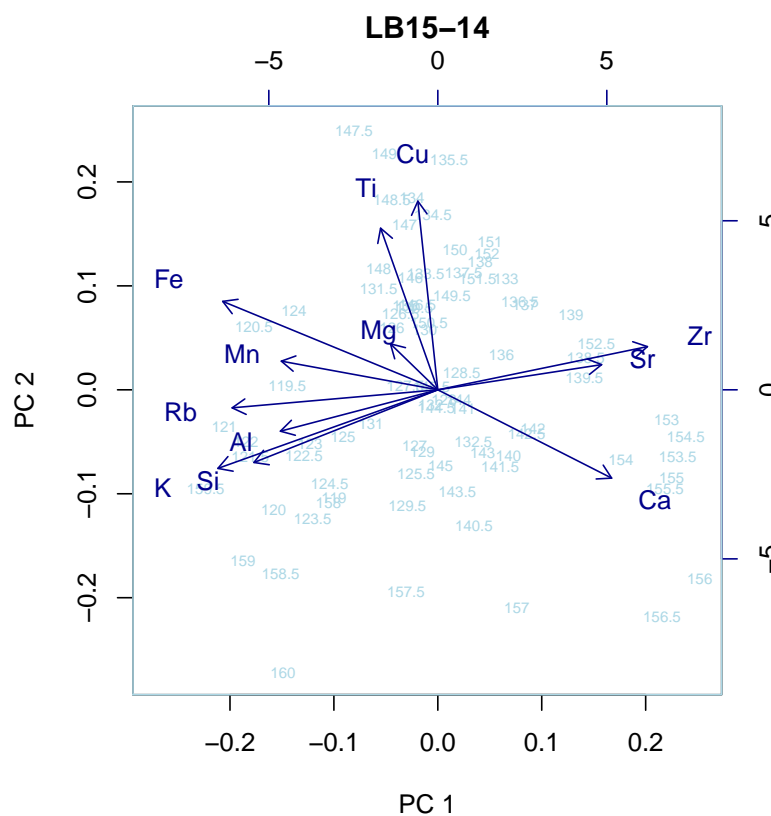


Fig. 4.12 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 showing elemental distribution along the 2005 layer of core LB15-14

As it can be observed in the biplot, Ca, Sr and Zr are characteristics for PC1, with Sr and Zr strongly correlating with each other and presenting an important contribution to PC1. The relationship between Ca and Sr, both enriched in carbonates, is clearly visible from the plot, and a strong relationship with grain size is presented by Zr. PC2, instead, is mostly explained by the elements Fe, Ti and Cu, which highly correlate with each other. Another visible strong correlation is characterized by Al, K, Si, and Rb, which is indicative of a similar composition. From the biplot, it can also be observed that Ca and Fe are negatively correlated, with an angle of 180° between each other. Table 4.3 shows the correlation between PC1 and the initial variables:

Table 4.3 Correlation between the initial standardized variables and PC1 for LB15-14. In bold, the highest positive correlations are highlighted.

	PC1
Fe	-0.87
Mg	-0.19
Al	-0.64
K	-0.89
Ca	0.71
Ti	-0.23
Mn	-0.63
Cu	-0.08
Rb	-0.84
Sr	0.66
Zr	0.85
Si	-0.75

Figure 4.12 shows the biplot for PC1 and PC2 for LB15-15. Using the broken stick method (Annex, Fig. A.2.3), the two first PCs were retained as both representatives. PC1 alone counts for 40% of the variance, while PC2 for 26%.

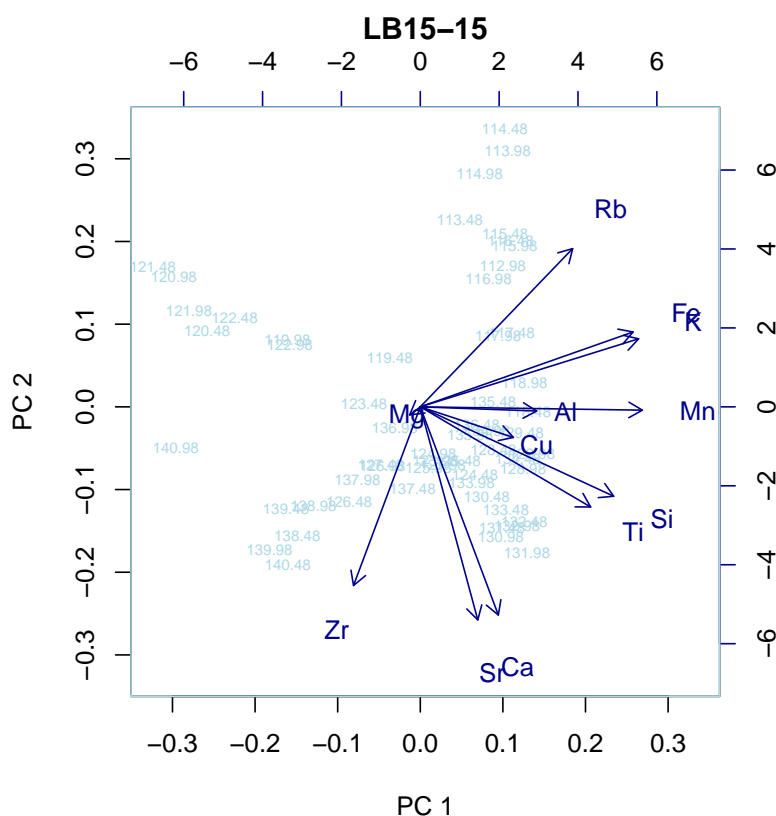


Fig. 4.12 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 showing elemental distribution along the 2005 layer of core LB15-15

PC1 contains high loadings of Fe, K, Ti, Mn and Si, and also Al. These elements are typically related to phyllosilicates. Second PC axis (PC2) is positively correlated to Rb, and negatively correlated to Zr. As it can be observed from the biplot, Sr and Ca are very strictly correlated, following the relationship seen in the previous plots. Ti and Si, as well with Cu, correlate between each other, as well as Fe and K and Al and Mn. Sr and Ca are not correlated with Fe and K, as it can be observed from the 90° angles in the plot. Zr and Rb are negatively correlated, with an angle almost reaching 180°.

In Table 4.4 the correlation between variables and the two principal components is shown. As it can be observed, the pattern characteristic for LB15-15 is different from LB15-14, despite their closeness. PC1 presents strong correlation with Fe, K, Ti, Mn, Rb and Si, while PC2 presents a high correlation only with Rb.

Table 4.4 Correlation between the initial standardized variables and PC1 for LB15-15. In bold, the highest positive correlations are highlighted

	PC1	PC2
Fe	0.9	0.31
Mg	-0.04	-0.03
Al	0.49	-0.01
K	0.92	0.28
Ca	0.33	-0.88
Ti	0.72	-0.42
Mn	0.94	-0.01
Cu	0.39	-0.12
Rb	0.64	0.66
Sr	0.24	-0.9
Zr	-0.28	-0.75
Si	0.81	-0.37

Despite their spatial closeness between the two cores, the results for LB15-15 quite differ from the ones for LB15-14.

Because both of the cores present two different sub-layers (Fig. 4.13), a second PCA was run on both the sub-layers for each core. While the biplots can be found in the Annex (Figures A.2.4-A.2.7), Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 show the correlation between the scores for PC1 and PC2 and the initial standardized variables. Table 4.5 shows the results for LB15-14, while Table 4.6 shows the results for LB15-15.

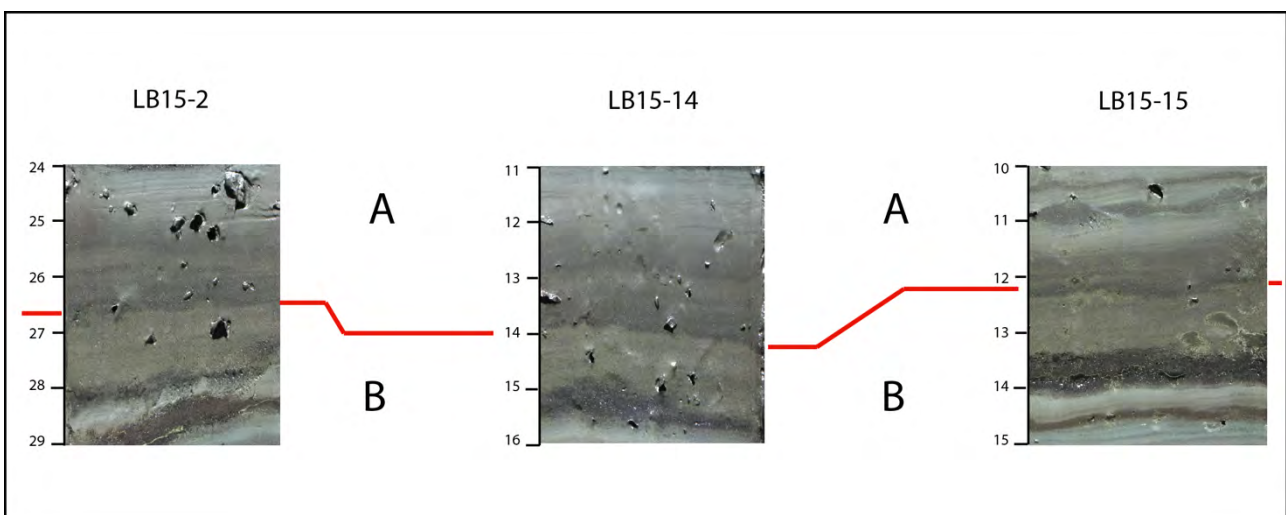


Fig. 4.13 Cores proximal to Lütschine inflows presenting two different sedimentary sequences overlaying each other. The top sequence (above red line) is indicated as sub-layer A, while the bottom sequence (under red line) is indicated as sub-layer B

Table 4.5 Correlation for sub-layer A (left) and sub-layer B (right) between the initial standardized variables and PC1 of LB15-14. In bold, the highest positive correlations are highlighted

LB14	SUB LAYER A		SUB LAYER B		
	PC1	PC2		PC1	PC2
Fe	-0.77	0.48	Fe	-0.97	0.05
Mg	-0.11	0.07	Mg	-0.27	0.32
Al	-0.5	0.36	Al	-0.26	-0.307
K	-0.96	-0.05	K	-0.82	-0.47
Ca	0.82	0.37	Ca	0.88	-0.06
Ti	0.36	0.56	Ti	-0.21	0.43
Mn	-0.09	0.8	Mn	-0.94	-0.16
Cu	0.04	0.26	Cu	-0.67	0.44
Rb	-0.9	-0.02	Rb	-0.72	-0.13
Sr	0.85	0.31	Sr	0.47	-0.83
Zr	0.89	-0.05	Zr	0.8	0.11
Si	-0.83	0.18	Si	-0.19	-0.86

Table 4.6 Correlation for sub-layer A (left) and sub-layer B (right) between the initial standardized variables and PC1 of LB15-15. In bold, the highest positive correlations are highlighted

LB15-15	SUB LAYER A		SUB LAYER B		
	PC1	PC2		PC1	PC2
Fe	-0.96	0.11	Fe	0.84	0.46
Mg	-0.27	0.146	Mg	-0.23	-0.07
Al	-0.6	0.51	Al	0.37	-0.42
K	-0.96	0.13	K	0.97	0.03
Ca	-0.46	-0.79	Ca	0.6	-0.6
Ti	-0.96	-0.15	Ti	0.36	0.52
Mn	-0.98	0.003	Mn	0.88	0.22
Cu	-0.64	-0.02	Cu	-0.02	0.48
Rb	-0.89	0.29	Rb	0.8	0.21
Sr	-0.38	-0.8	Sr	0.42	-0.77
Zr	0.48	-0.66	Zr	-0.81	-0.03
Si	-0.86	-0.38	Si	0.95	-0.13

As it can be observed from Tables 4.5 and 4.6, the correlation between layers highly differ between the two cores. In LB15-14, sub-layer A, PC1 accounts for 48% of the variance, and it is characterized by high correlation between Ca, Sr and Zr, with relatively high correlation for Ti. PC2, accounting for 14% of the variance, presents high positive correlation for Ti and Mn, and relatively high correlation for Fe, Al and Sr. Sub-layer B (bottom) presents a similar pattern, with high correlation in PC1 (44% variance) for Ca, Zr and Sr and in PC2 (19%) relatively high correlation with Cu, Ti and Mg. A difference between the composition of the two layers is visible, however not so clear.

Interestingly, LB15-15 does not follow the same pattern. For sub-layer A (top), PC1 explains 56% of the variance, while PC2 explains 19%. In PC1, the only positive correlation is with Zr, while the other elements present a negative correlation. PC2, however, presents positive correlations with Rb, Al, Mg and Fe, with negative strong correlation for Ca, Sr and Zr. In sub-layer B (bottom), PC1 accounts for 47% of the variance and PC2 for 16%. Strong positive correlation in PC1 are visible for Fe, K, Mn, Rb, Sr and Si, as well as with Ca and Sr. PC2, instead, presents high positive correlation with Cu, Ti, and Fe, and to a minor extent for Rb and Mn.

Finally, Fig. 4.14 shows the biplot of PC1 and PC2 for LB15-8. However, following the broken stick method (Annex, Fig. A.2.8), only PC1 can be retained as representative.

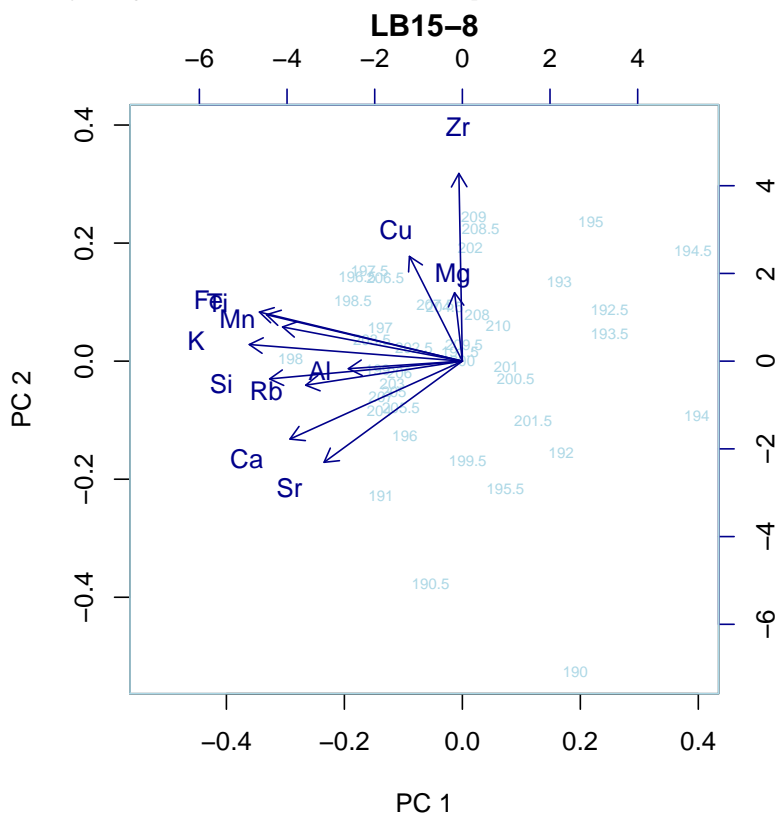


Fig. 4.14 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 showing elemental distribution along the 2005 layer of core LB15-8

PC1 accounts for 48% of the variance. As it can be observed from the plot, the elements characterizing PC1 are Fe, K, Ca, Ti, Mn and Si, with slight weaker loadings for Sr and Rb. However, those loadings are negative.

Table 4.7 Correlation between the initial standardized variables and PC1 for LB15-8

	PC1
Fe	-0.91
Mg	-0.03
Al	-0.51
K	-0.96
Ca	-0.77
Ti	-0.88
Mn	-0.81
Cu	-0.23
Rb	-0.7
Sr	-0.62
Zr	-0.01
Si	-0.86

As it can be observed from Table 4.7, the elements which correlate the most with PC1 are Fe, K, Ti, Mn, Al, Ca, Sr and Si. This pattern very much differs with that of LB15-14 or LB15-15.

4.4 Differences in Carbonate Content from Smear-slide Analysis

Smear-slide analysis was performed in order to retrieve a visual image of the differences in carbonate content and grain size between the various 2005 layers. A cross-polarized filter was applied to better visualize the characteristic mineral content of the sediment (Fig. 4.13 from a to j). The two layers containing large amounts of organic matter were also analysed without a cross-polarized filter in order to identify organic matter components (Fig. 4.15 k, l).

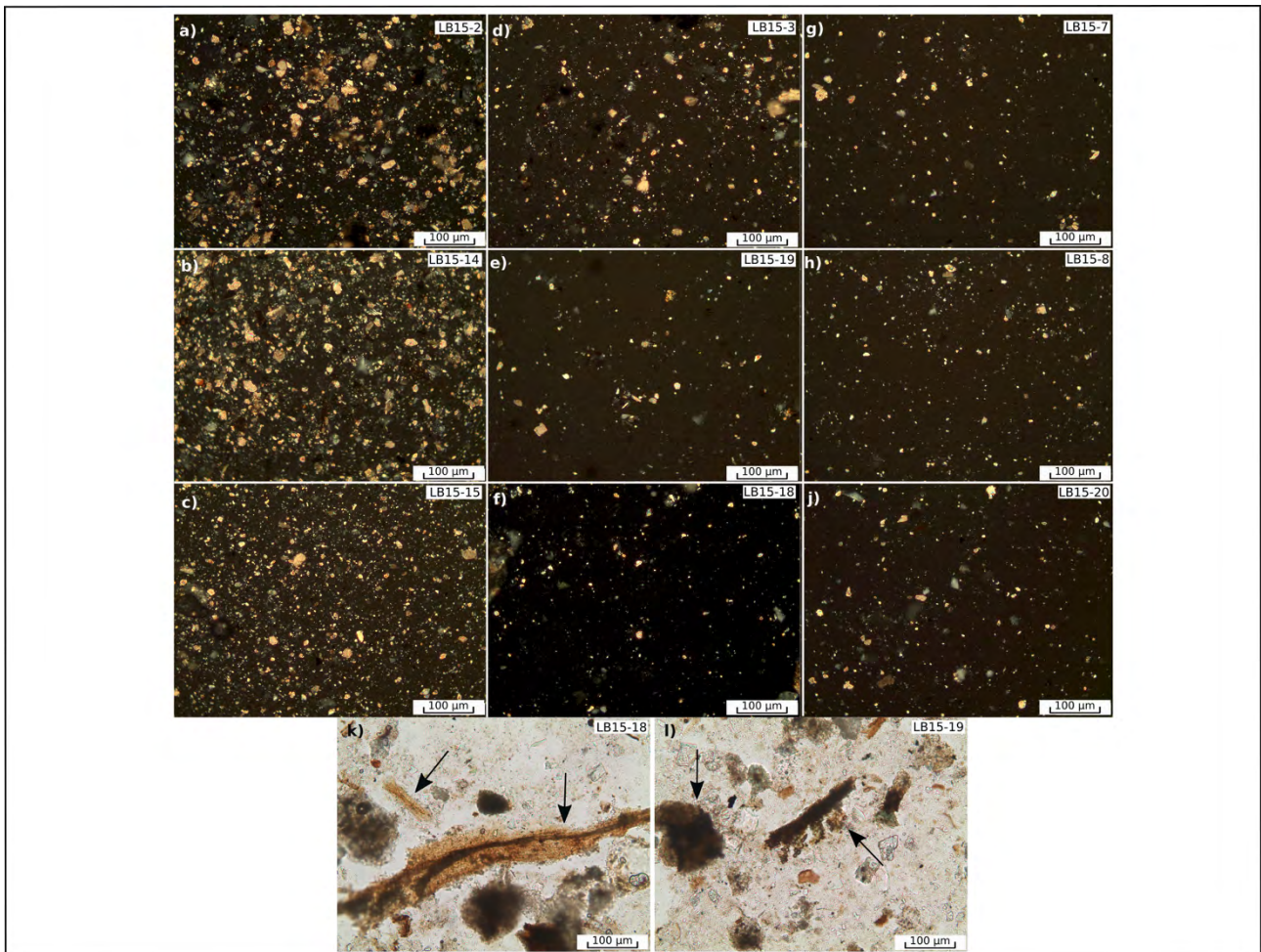


Fig. 4.15 Smear Slides for the 2005 layers in all cores (from a) to l)). Fig. 4.13 (a) to Fig. 4.13 (b) shows smear slides with a cross-polarized filter. Fig. 4.13 (k) and (l) show smear slides without a cross-polarized filter for the visualization of organic matter. Black arrows indicate plant macrofossils

As it can be observed from Fig. 4.15, the cores closer to Lütischine (a, b, c) are characterized by a much higher content in carbonates than the rest of the cores. The estimated percentage of carbonates for a, b and c is ~25-30%, with a mean grain size of ~20-30 μm . Fig. 4.15d represents core LB15-3, which still has a Lütischine signal but is located further away from the inflow: the percentage of carbonates is smaller (~20%) and mean grain size is ~20 μm . The cores closer to the Aare inflow (e to j) are characterized on the opposite by a lower content in carbonates varying around 10-20%. Mean grain size for such cores is on the order of 15-20 μm . LB15-18 (Fig. 4.15 k) and LB15-19 (Fig. 4.15 j) present the two non cross-polarized images. Both of the layers clearly show high detrital organic material and little carbonate content, with abundant plant macrofossils on the order of several hundreds of micrometres size causing a large organic matter content.

4.5 Grain Size

Grain-size analysis was performed on the 2005 layers in order to detect changes in sedimentation as well as differences between Aare and Lütischine signal. Grain size data in the 2005 layers of all the nine cores are presented in the Annex (Table A.2.13-A.2.14).

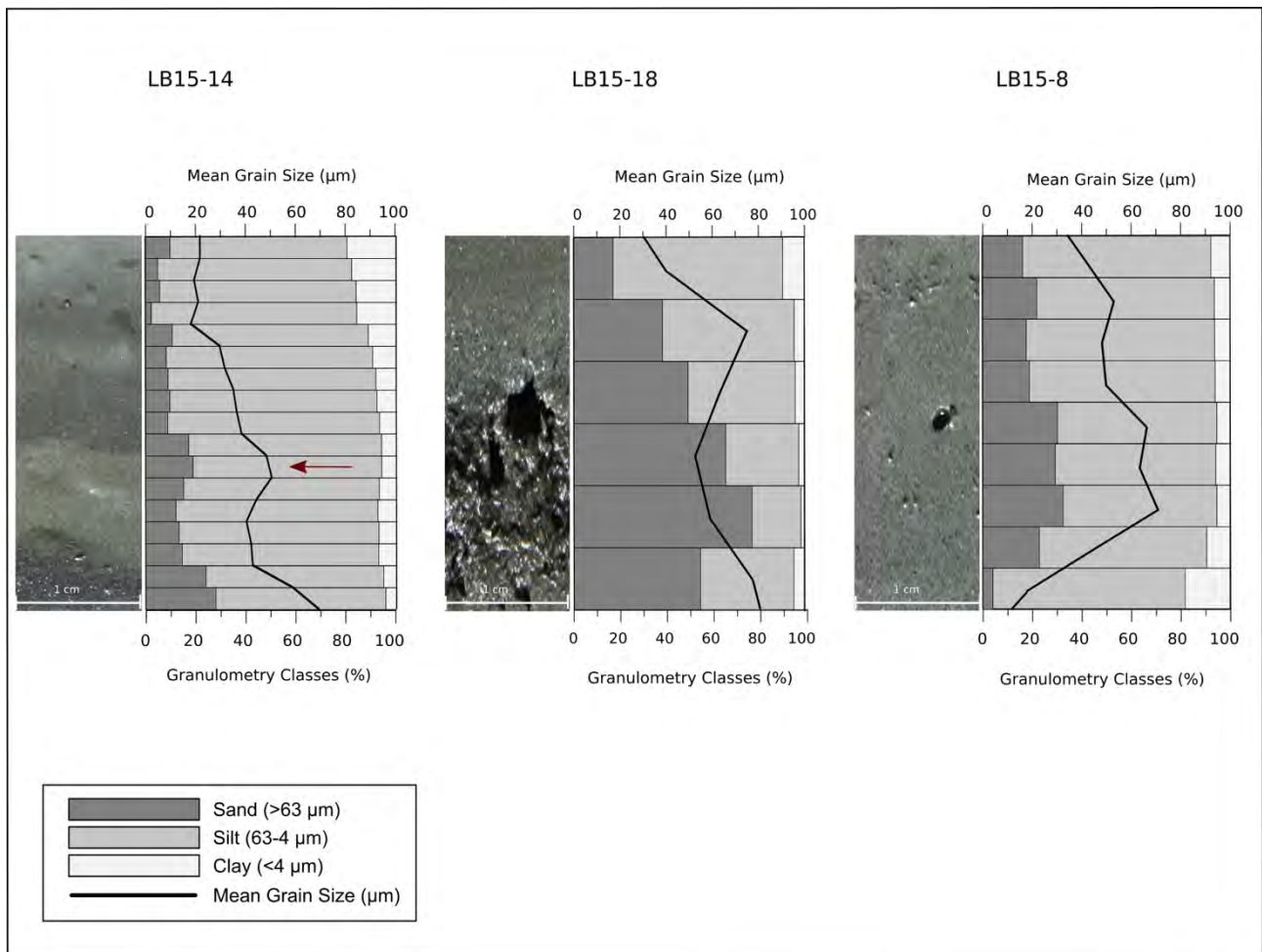


Fig. 4.16 Grain size profiles for Lütischine (LB15-14) and Aare (LB15-8) representative cores. LB15-18, also representative for Aare signal, has been chosen for grain size analysis because of the organic matter layer characteristic of the 2005 layer. Both granulometry classes (clay, silt, sand) percentages and mean grain size (microns) are presented. Each rectangle corresponds to 2.5 mm vertical core interval

Figure 4.16 shows grain-size measurements for the two most representative cores of the Lütischine (a) and Aare (b,c) signals. Fig. 4.16 (b) shows the core, which is characterized by an organic matter layer. In the figure, mean grain size has been plotted together with the different granulometry classes characterizing the lithological composition of the sediments. LB15-14 presents two separate fining-up sections, with an increase in sand at the base and in the middle of the flood layer (red arrow, corresponding to 140 mm depth). Both of the sub-layers (upper and lower) are followed by a fining-up sequence of silt-sized grains, which represent the major component of the flood layer. From 140 mm to the top of the layer, a more gradual grain-size change can be observed in respect to the lower section. This fining-up sequence starts with an increase in sand, followed by silt-sized grains and terminating with a light-grey clay top. The clay top is characteristic of fine-grained fallout deriving from the final decrease in discharge (Gilli et al., 2003).

LB15-8 presents a different pattern. Visually, the 2005 layer is more homogeneous than that of LB15-14. The section presents a fining-up gradual layering of grain size, however the differences from bottom to top are less remarkable as in LB15-14. However, the layer is characterized by generally coarser material compared to the Lütischine core, a difference, which is also shown by the mean grain size plot for both the 2005 layers.

Interestingly, LB15-18 shows a particular grain-size sequence. Sand-sized particles characterize the major component of the bottom part of the layer. Following, a fining-up sequence shows an increase in silt-sized particles towards the top, with a slight decrease in clay as well. However, the pattern followed by mean grain size is different, showing an upcore increase in grain size from the top of the organic matter layer.

4.4 TOC and TIC Content

In order to distinguish between the signals of the dominant-carbonate Lüttschine and the dominant-crystalline Aare, a carbon content analysis was performed on the 2005 layer of all the cores. In addition, two representative flood layers from Aare (LB15-10) and Lüttschine (LB15-1) were analysed, as well as four samples taken directly from the inflows of Aare, Lüttschine, Trachtbach and Glyssibach. TOC and TIC values were retrieved, and from those values the percentage of organic matter (OM) and carbonate calculated (see Methods). From the analysis performed on single samples, the following results can be observed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Organic matter and carbonate percentages derived from TOC and TIC measurement for the four tributaries

	Organic Matter (%)	Carbonate (%)
Aare		
• Exemplary turbidite	0.62 %	1.83%
• Inflow	0.65 %	2.34 %
Lüttschine		
• Exemplary turbidite	0.94%	21.84%
• Inflow	0.96%	26.69%
Trachtbach	1.30 %	62.08 %
Glyssibach	0.83%	61.81%

As organic matter in the sampled fluvial sediment is barely a function of the catchment but rather of the depositional environment of the sediment and its preservation potential, we discuss here only the carbonate content. As it can be observed, values for carbonate content in Aare sediments are very low compared to the other inflows. The Lüttschine sediments are characterized by high carbonate contents of over 20%. The highest values are present, however, in the samples taken from two mountain torrents, composed by more than 60% of carbonates.

In Fig. 4.17 the profiles of OM (blue) and calcite (red) for the 2005 layers in the cores are shown. Following the W-E transect of the lake (from right to left), a visible decrease in carbonate can be observed. Organic carbon follows a more stable pattern, with much more similar values along the entire transect, except for LB15-18 and LB15-19. The cores containing the highest percentages of calcite can be found in the first four cores from the left (West; Fig. 4.17 a to d), characterized by a strong Lüttschine contribution. The percentage of carbonate in those cores is around 20-25% while the percentage of organic matter is around 2-3%. On the opposite, the lowest concentration of carbonate occurs in the cores containing a strong Aare signal (Fig. 4.17 e to i). Interestingly, LB15-18 and LB15-19 contain extremely high values of organic matter. If compared to the images, such peaks in organic matter (as well as carbonate, despite to a minor extent) correspond to the organic layers visible within the 2005 layer with a upcore decrease in both organic matter and carbonate overlying the organic layer. Data relative to all the layers can be found in the Annex (Table A.2.15).

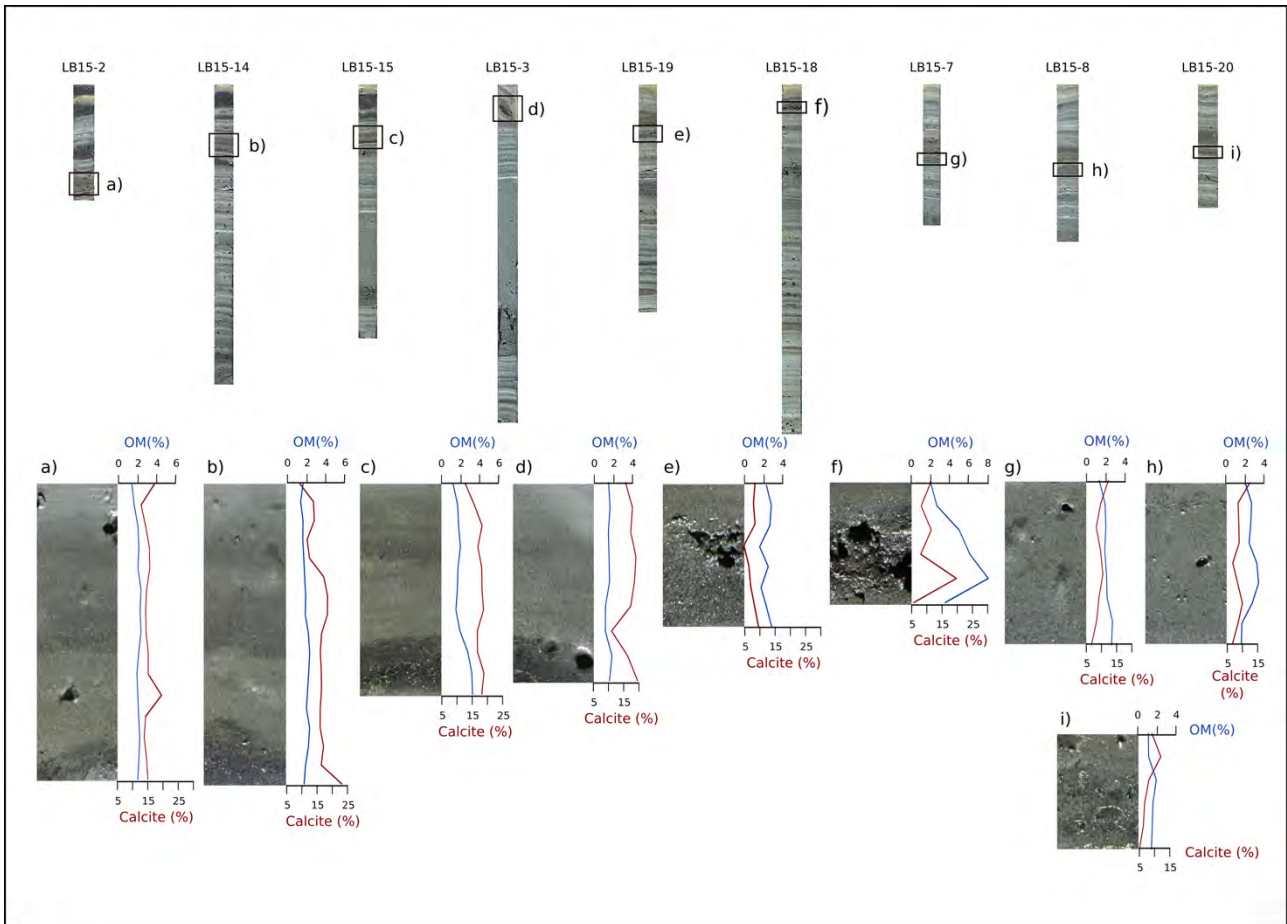


Fig. 4.17 Carbonate (red) and Organic matter (blue) profiles for the 2005 event layer

In general, the difference between Aare and Lütshine cores is remarkable, with twice the percentage of carbonate contained in the Lütshine-dominated layers. Concerning the Lütshine, the carbonate values retrieved along the 2005 layers are in line with the ones measured in fluvial sediments (Table 4.8). Carbonate values for Aare cores are higher than those of fluvial sediment (Table 4.8), and organic matter values are higher in all the cores compared to the fluvial sediments, reflecting the higher potential for organic matter preservation in lake sediments. Despite the sub-layering in the cores LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15 visible from the scans, no clear increasing or decreasing pattern can be observed in the distribution of carbonate and organic matter along the flood layer.

4.5 Event Succession

Concerning the temporal succession of discharge during the event, Fig. 4.18 shows the runoff evolution for all the four tributaries taken into consideration: Aare, Lütshine, Trachtbach and Glyssibach. Because Trachtbach and Glyssibach catchments present similar characteristics (mountain torrents, small catchments) runoff and precipitation have been modelled considering the same runoff coefficient for both rivers. For this reason, both the curves are very similar.

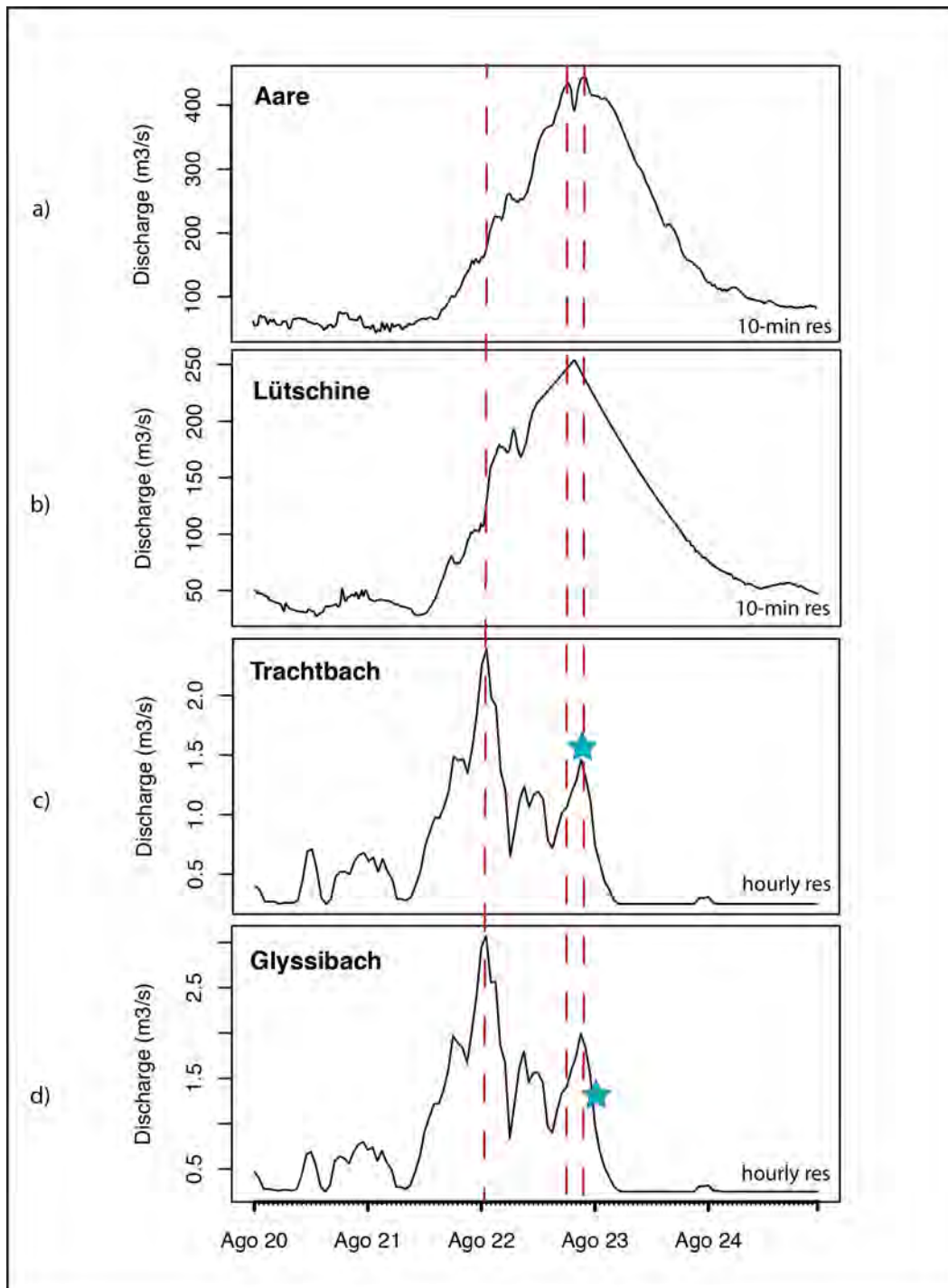


Fig. 4.18 Temporal discharge succession (in m^3/s) for Aare and Lutschine (a, b; 10-min time interval) and Trachtbach and Glyssibach (c, d; hourly time interval) during the 20-24th of August 2005. Red dotted lines highlight the major peak discharges, and blue stars indicates the two debris flows from Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents

The plots present 10-min observations of Aare and Lutschine runoff (a, b) from the 20-24th August as well as hourly modelled data for Trachtbach and Glyssibach (c, d). The different time resolution is caused by the fact that modelling 10-min data for Trachtbach and Glyssibach would have resulted in a higher error uncertainty, while Aare and Lutschine 10-min data are accurate measurements.

The Aare runoff evolution (Fig. 4.16a) starts with increasing discharge on August 21st, at 01:00h. A strong increase in discharge followed the start, leading to an evolution from $65 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ at 13:00h to $260 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ at 06:30h of August, the 22nd. Following, a continuous increase in discharge occurred, with two

different runoff peaks registered at around 19:00h and 23:00 on the 22nd. Discharges reached 434 m³/s and 444 m³/s, respectively, with the latter representing the highest peak discharge throughout the entire flood event. After these peaks, in fact, runoff sharply decreased, coming back to normal values by the end of August the 23rd.

Runoff evolution of Lüttschine followed the one from the Aare, however it differs in some characteristics (Fig. 4.16 b). The initiation of the increasing discharge, for instance, was recorded at 11:00 h, several hours later than the initiation of Aare river. Lüttschine was characterized by a single runoff peak of 254 m³/s, at 20:00 h on the 22nd. After this peak, a decrease in discharge was observed, and the flow came back to normality on 24th of August.

Concerning Trachtbach and Glyssibach runoffs (Fig. 4.16 c, d), both plots differ very slightly from each other concerning timing, while they differ in terms of discharge volume. Glyssibach, in fact, is characterized by a higher discharge than that of Trachtbach. For both rivers, the start of increasing runoff is modelled to have occurred on the 21st, between 07:00-08:00h. After the initiation of higher discharge, a first peak was reached on the 22nd, at 01:00h. While Glyssibach's runoff reached 3.07 m³/s, Trachtbach's peak amounted to 2.39 m³/s. After these runoff peaks, both river's experienced a sharp and fast decrease in discharge, followed by a second peak on the 22nd at 12:00h, with 1.56 and 1.13 m³/s discharge for Glyssibach and Trachtbach, respectively. A final, third peak was registered later in the evening, at 21:00 pm, with 1.99 and 1.46 m³/s for Glyssibach and Trachtbach, respectively. As presented in Section 1.7.2.1, it was at this time that witnesses reported that in Trachtbach channel a low viscosity debris flow entered Brienz and overflow the channel (Müller, 2007). Following those peaks, a sharp decrease in discharge is observed in the plot, coming back to normal baseflow (0.25 m³/s) in the morning of 23rd of August, at 06:00 for both rivers. It was during this decrease in discharge, at 02:00 of the 23rd, that a very rapid debris flow was reported to come from the Glyssibach river and hit Brienz, leading to 2 casualties.

In order to summarize the temporal succession during the flood event Figure 4.19 presents a timeline with the different timings of initiation and peak runoff of each river.

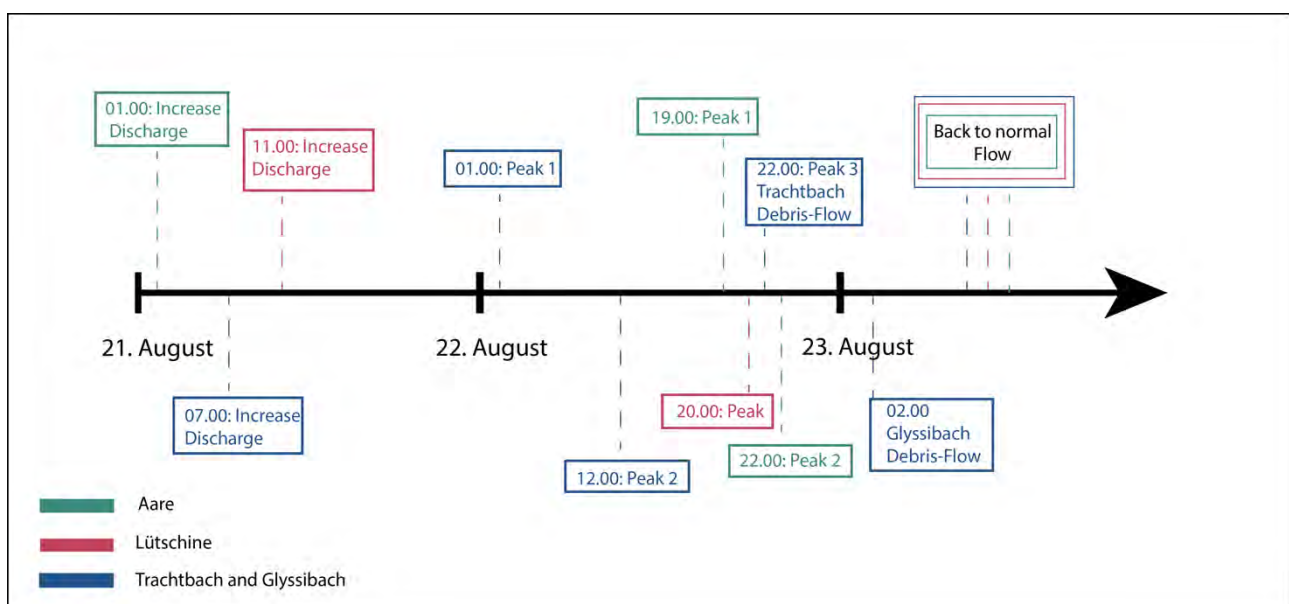


Fig. 4.19 Timeline of the 2005 August event from the 21st to the 23rd of August. Green characterizes Aare succession, while in red Lüttschine discharge succession is presented. Because of their similar discharge pattern, Trachtbach and Glyssibach are both represented with the blue colour

5 Discussion

5.1 Flood Layers and Sedimentary Features in Lake Brienz

The analyses and observations performed on the numerous sediment cores from Lake Brienz allowed the differentiation and distinction between flood layers and background sedimentation within the entire sedimentary sequence of the lake. For lakes characterized by a steep watershed, a flat central basin and a few dominant inflows, transport of sediments during a flood event should provide allochthonous sedimentation, therefore leaving a visible signature in the sediment record (Schillereff et al., 2014). This has been shown by previous flood reconstructions located in different regions and under different conditions by Vasskog et al. (2011), Kämpf et al. (2012), Wilhelm et al. (2012) and Wirth et al., (2013). Dominated by clastic material, background sedimentation for Lake Brienz is characterized by an alternation of light and dark grey laminations on a millimetre and sub-millimetre scale. Such laminations are interbedded with event layers, which were visually distinguished based mainly on their thickness, by a visual difference in colour and finally by changes in grain size.

5.1.1 Identification of Flood Layers in the Sedimentary Record

Following the initial differentiation, flood layers were distinguished from mass-movement layers (such as the 1996 delta collapse presented in Girardclos et al., 2007) based on their depositional characteristics. In general, flood layers were identified based on the lack of a thick, homogenous central unit ('homogenite'), which is typical for mass-movement induced turbidites (Sturm & Matter, 1978), and their graded sedimentary structure (both normal and inverse), which usually mirrors waxing and waning phases of riverine discharge. A first distinction between turbidites from Aare, Lütschine and lateral torrents was based on the layer thickness. Thin (on a millimetre scale) graded event layers in the deep basin were interpreted to be the result of increased discharge from the lateral torrents, while thicker (centimetre to decimetre scale) layers were interpreted to be generated by Aare and Lütschine floods. A further distinction between Aare and Lütschine floods was based on colour, with turbidites from Lütschine characterized by a darker colour compared to Aare turbidites. Some of the Lütschine flood layers do not, however, present a visual grading. It is therefore expected that such detrital layers correspond to very rapid and short-lived discharges, while graded turbidites may be characteristics for more long-lasting events.

Not all the retrieved cores were suitable for the distinction of flood layers and the specific identification of the 2005 flood layer. The cores located in the basin plain were characterized by a clear sedimentary sequence, with a clear distinguishable succession of lamination and event layers. However, the cores located in proximity of the Aare and Lütschine deltas, as well as to the inflows of Trachtbach and Glyssibach, present a more disturbed layering, which impeded an intercorrelation between all the cores. As presented in the paper from Sturm and Matter (1978), Aare and Lütschine deltaic areas are characterized by dynamic channel, gullies and levees. For this reason, cores retrieved from deltaic areas may present a disturbed layering because of the disturbed topography. As presented from the British Society for Geomorphology (Frew, 2012), coring near the shores and on steep slopes should be avoided in order to not retrieve cores presenting disturbed layering because of sediment re-suspension. This could explain the disturbed cores retrieved in proximity of the Trachtbach and Glyssibach inflows.

5.1.2 Physical properties: Magnetic susceptibility and Bulk Density

Magnetic susceptibility and bulk density were measured for all the cores in order to identify flood layers based on their expected higher density and magnetic properties (Gilli et al., 2013). Magnetic susceptibility (MS), which reflects deposits rich in Fe-minerals, is usually higher for detrital input and coarser grain size (Chapron et al., 2005; Wolfe et al., 2006), while high bulk density should respond to coarser particles at the base of turbidites (Gilli et al., 2003; Gilli et al., 2013). Previous studies (i.e. Foster et al., 2003; Osleger et al., 2009; Gilli et al., 2013) showed that MS profiles are suited to highlight detrital input and therefore suitable for the identification of flood events. However, MS values (expressed as 10^{-5} SI) measured in Lake Brienz present relatively low values (ranging from 3 to 12 10^{-5} SI) and show only faint variations. An explanation for such behaviour could be related to the lithology and geology of the Lake Brienz catchment, which is mainly characterized by sedimentary and carbonate rocks (e.g. limestones, schists, marls) in the Lüttschine catchment and by crystalline and intrusive rocks (e.g. granite, gneiss, quartz, diorite) in the Aare catchment. As reported from Dearing (1999) and Lascu (2009), carbonate and sedimentary rocks are characterized as diamagnetic, presenting weak or even negative magnetism. Crystalline and intrusive rocks are instead characterized as paramagnetic, and present a relatively low magnetism (Dearing, 1999; Lascu, 2009). This could be in line with the observations along the cores, for which cores proximal to the Aare present higher magnetic susceptibility values compared to the cores proximal to the Lüttschine inflow.

Bulk density variations, instead, precisely follow changes in grain size, which is in line with what Gilli et al. (2013) presented. Similar results have been described by Simonneau et al. (2013) in a study aiming at identifying flood layers in an Alpine lake presenting a similar geology to Lake Brienz. Therefore, bulk density profiles support the initial visual differentiation between background sedimentation and flood layers.

5.1.3 Elemental Proxy for Grain Size

Together with bulk density, zirconium (Zr) elemental profiles on long cores were used as main proxy for grain-size changes and therefore for the identification of turbidites along the cores. Zr is usually associated with heavy and high resistant minerals (Croudace et al., 2006; Kylander et al., 2011), and in the literature is found to be related to both detrital input and changes in grain size (Croudace et al., 2006; Kylander et al., 2011). Concerning grain size, this element is usually enriched in coarse silt and sand (Kylander et al., 2011), and therefore high values of Zr reflect coarser grains, which is the case for Lake Brienz cores. The same relationship was found to be true in a previous study on the Aare floodplain in the Brienz area by Schulte et al. (2015), which used Zr as a proxy for grain size as well as a tracer for sediment supply. As presented from Kylander et al. (2011), zirconium is often associated with quartz, which is found in the uppermost area of the Aare catchment in the crystalline rocks (e.g. amphibolite, granite). Quartz is also found in sedimentary rocks in association with limestone, both present in Aare and Lüttschine catchments (Johnsson, 1993; Schulte et al., 2009, 2015).

5.2 Identification of the August 2005 Flood Layer

The 2005-layer was first identified and isolated based on visual observations on the new cores and comparison with a core taken immediately prior to the event in a previous study from Anselmetti et al. (2007) (Core BR05-3). Layers corresponding to the 2005 flood event in the retrieved cores were identified and located also based on the thickness of the sediment. Theoretically, thickness of flood layers is largely dependent on the magnitude of the event, which determines the carrying capacity and

the duration of the discharge (Schillereff et al., 2014). Bøe et al. (2006) also linked thickness to an increase in grain size and a better sorting of the particles, which follows an increase in stream power that would be in line with the results for Lake Brienz. Grain-size analysis performed on the turbidite showed a poor sorting of particles indicating that the 2005 turbidite was a hyperconcentrated flow, as presented by Marren (2002). Hyperconcentrated flows are poorly sorted and characterized by coarse grain size (Webb et al., 1989). The identified 2005-layers are characterized by thicknesses varying between 1.5 cm (for cores proximal to Aare) and 3.5 cm (for cores proximal to Lütschine). Despite single cores being characterized by event layers of even higher thicknesses, the 2005 layer is the only detrital event presenting similar thickness along the entire transect of the lake. Thicker events are only characteristics for the area in proximity of one of the major tributaries (Aare or Lütschine). The only consistently thicker event layer in the sediment record is the 1996 megaturbidite layer, which is visible in almost all the cores retrieved. However, this event layer was triggered by a sudden collapse of the Aare delta, and not by a flood event (Girardclos et al., 2007).

In some studies, layer thickness (and therefore the amount of transported sediments) has been related to the amplitude of the flood event (Lamoureux, 2000; Lamb et al., 2010; Schiefer et al., 2011). Based on this relationship, a rough estimate of the amount of material transported could be derived from the similar layer thickness along the different cores, as will be discussed later on. However, it is important to also consider the availability of sediments within the catchment: flood events with the same magnitude may lead to different sediment thicknesses due to more or less availability of sediments (Schillereff et al., 2014). This could be an explanation of why, for instance, other turbidites present in the core are thicker when compared to the 2005 flood event, despite the latter represent the highest magnitude and discharge of the last 80 years (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007).

The difference in thickness between the Aare and Lütschine cores could also be explained by the role played by the hydropower basins upstream from the Aare catchment. As shown by Anselmetti et al. (2007) and Finger (2006), the upstream reservoirs retain a large volume of suspended sediments, which are trapped in the basin. Moreover, the upstream dams contributed to a reduction of the Aare discharge during the flood event in 2005 by almost 20% (Bezzola & Hegg, 2007). This may be a reason why 2005 layers in Aare cores present thinner sections compared to ones of Lütschine.

5.3 Identification and Differentiation of the Catchments Fingerprints and Riverine Contribution

5.3.1 Grain Size

Grain-size analysis was performed on the 2005 layer with the aim of identifying the influences of Aare and Lütschine rivers along the cores. Another aim was to determine whether the hypothesized 2005 layers correspond to a turbidite, following the relationship between variations in grain size and depositional processes presented by the studies of Vasskog et al. (2011) and Czymzik et al. (2013), in which they related graded layers as being a consequence of hyperpycnal flows deriving from flood events. As reported by Schillereff et al. (2014), lake sediments characterized by a major clastic composition should mirror an increase in river discharge through an upcore increase in grain size. Positive correlations between coarser grain size and higher discharge (related to flood events) have been found, for instance, in the studies from Campbell (1998) and Lenzi & Marchi (2000). Since sedimentation in Brienz is mainly controlled by Aare and Lütschine inflows (Sturm & Matter, 1978), the 2005 layers were interpreted to be related to an increase in discharge from the two main tributaries.

The results from particle-size analysis showed, in general, a major composition in coarse to fine silt, which follows previous results from Sturm (1976) and Sturm & Matter (1978). Moreover, a normal, fining-up sequence from coarser to finer grains (coarse silt-sand to fine silt) was characteristic for all the layers along the WE transect. Such normal grading is interpreted to be reflecting the evolution of discharge under the flood event, with coarser grains at the base mirroring peak discharge and a fining-up sequence following decrease in discharge power. Peak discharge for large flood events often results in a hyperpycnal plume travelling as underflow, depositing coarsest particles at the base of the turbidite. The decrease in discharge following the peak runoff is usually characterized by a lower carrying capacity (lower sediment load) and therefore by less and smaller suspended particles. Such water mass may therefore enter the lake as inter- or overflow, depending on the thermal stratification of the lake, and deposit the finer particles above the initial coarse base. Larger grain size can therefore also be related to a rapid current velocity of the river. Such behaviour has been observed in other studies, for instance from Arnaud et al. (2002), Cockburn & Lamoureux, (2008), Giguet-Covex et al. (2012) and Simonneau et al. (2013).

The 2005 layers do not present, however, the same depositional mechanism for all the cores. The cores located proximal to the Aare inflow are characterized by a visually more homogeneous layer, also presenting smaller variations in grain size. However, despite not being visually detectable, grain-size analysis showed a fining up sequence characterized by a higher input of sand rather than silt or clay. The cores presenting this type of deposition are LB15-7, LB15-8, LB15-20, and have been interpreted as containing an Aare signal. LB15-18 and LB15-19 presented an interesting result. The two 2005-layers are characterized by organic material (as described in section 4.4) over- and underlain by what it was interpreted to be the turbidic flow coming Aare. The results of grain-size analysis showed that the organic matter layer is largely composed by sand-sized particles (up to 80%), which decreases at the contact with the overlying turbidite. While the percentage of sand-sized particles decreases, mean grain size increases up to 80 microns, which is consistent with what is found in the Aare turbidite of the representative core LB15-8. Therefore, the layers over- and underlying the organic matter section present in LB15-18 and LB15-19 were interpreted to be part of the Aare turbidite. The organic detrital layer will be discussed in section 5.3.3.

The cores proximal to Lüttschine inflow (LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15, LB15-3) present a different depositional sequence. The 2005 layers for those cores are characterized by two visually overlying fining-up sequences of much finer particles compared to Aare cores. First, coarser grain size is characteristic for the base of the layer. Such a coarser and darker layer is then overlain by a decrease in grain size, which is in line with the expected waning behaviour of a flood-derived discharge. However, in the middle of the layer a coarsening of particles is visible, followed by another fining-up sequence. A first hypothesis suggested that this sub-layering was due to an superposition of turbiditic flows, with the basal sub-layer (B) corresponding to Lüttschine discharge and the upper sub-layer (A) corresponding to Aare discharge. Previous studies on the lake by Sturm and Matter (1978) showed in fact that Aare turbidites are likely to travel along the lake towards the Lüttschine inflow, while the opposite has not yet been observed. As it will be presented in the next few sections, however, this hypothesis is no longer supported.

5.3.2 Geochemical Signature

A geochemical analysis was performed through XRF analysis on the 2005-layers, as well as on chosen representative long cores. The aim was to identify representative elements characteristic for Aare and Lüttschine signatures, which in turn are determined by their catchments' geology. The final scope of this

analysis was to discern the source of each 2005 layer and sub-layers within the set of cores, between Aare and Lütshine input and therefore determine the extent of the turbidic plumes of the tributaries during the event.

While on long cores Zr was mostly used (Fig. 4.6), on 2005-layers the ratios Zr/Rb were used as proxy for grain size, perfectly following the sedimentological grading present in the cores. Despite Zr/K was first used as hypothetical proxy for grain size, Zr/Rb represented a more sensitive signal, following the different grain size signatures much more precisely. This combination of elements as proxy for grain size was also used in previous studies from Norway (Vasskog et al., 2011) as well as in the Aare floodplain (Schulte et al., 2015). Because Rb, a heavy mineral resistant to weathering (Vasskog et al., 2011), is usually associated with clay fraction and Zr in coarse silt and sand, higher values of Zr/Rb correspond to coarser particles, which is in line with the findings from the two previously mentioned papers from Vasskog et al. (2011) and Schulte et al. (2015). Rb profiles also showed a decrease in signal for the 2005-layer: a similar pattern was also recorded in the study from Vasskog et al (2011) at Lake Oldevatnet, Norway. The lake, mainly composed by siliciclastic material transported through glacial outwash, presented in fact higher concentrations of Rb in background sedimentation and lower values within the different event layers. Rb associated with Sr (Rb/Sr) was in fact used to detect darker event deposits (largely composed by chemically-weathered material) from the Rb-rich, light-coloured background sedimentation. The same pattern was observed in Lake Brienz, looking at elemental profiles. While the association of Ca/Ti was presented by Schulte et al (2015) as representative for grain-size changes, the signal was not as strong as it was with the Zr/Rb couplet.

Concerning the individual elemental profiles, K, Ca, Ti, Rb and Zr present the most interesting profiles with the strongest signals. Such strong signals can be explained for Ti, Rb, K and Zr with their high resistance to weathering and conservative nature during transport (Kylander et al., 2011; Rothwell & Croudace, 2015; Vasskog et al., 2011). Ca is present in the lake in both as allochthonous and autochthonous origin (Sturm, 1976). However, since Ca is usually enriched in allochthonous material (Rothwell & Croudace, 2015), a strong signal was characteristic for the 2005-layer along the entire set of cores. The cores proximal to Lütshine, however, present a much higher content in Ca compared to the cores proximal to Aare. Such pattern is consistent with the lithology of the Lütshine catchment, mainly composed by sedimentary and carbonate rocks (Schulte et al., 2009).

The relationship between elements was explored through Spearman's Correlation and Principal Component Analysis (PCA), with the aim of identifying groups and associations of elements, which could be related to the lithological composition of the Aare and Lütshine catchment. The core proximal to Lütshine (LB15-14) presents a strong, positive correlation between Ca, Sr and Zr. Sr, associated with both carbonate and siliciclastic rocks (Kylander et al., 2011; Schulte et al., 2015,) is interpreted here as both a carbonate and grain-size signal. Sr can be easily mobilized through weathering (Salminen et al., 2005) and was also found to correlate with Zr in association with sand fraction (Schulte et al. (2015). Such results can be confirmed from the PCA of LB145-14 (Lütshine core), in which the biplot shown in Fig. 4.12 clearly shows a strong relationship between Sr and Zr. Therefore, the correlation between Ca, Sr and Zr is here interpreted to be both a signal of the lithological composition of Lütshine catchment as well as for variations in grain size. Another strong and positive correlation, which was found in the Lütshine cores, was that between Fe, K, Mn and Rb and to a minor extent with Al and Si. Si, Al and Fe were previously interpreted as being related to an aluminosilicate and limestone composition of the bedrock of Lütshine catchment (Schulte et al. (2009). Fe, Ti and K were interpreted in the same study as phyllosilicate minerals indicative for the crystalline rocks (such as biotite and chlorite) coming from the uppermost part of the catchment, whereas phyllosilicates were found to be related to grain size, and

most specifically with silt-sized grains, while coarser grain size were associated with limestones. Rubidium (Rb) is usually related to mica and clay minerals, and it has been shown to be a valuable proxy for both detrital input and grain size at Lake Les Echets, France (Kylander et al., 2011). Because Rb is a substitute for K and often found in granitic and metamorphic rocks (Salminen et al., 2005), it was expected for this project to be representative for Aare signal. Such correlations were interpreted to reflect the two main sedimentary sources of the Lüttschine catchment, such as carbonate (Ca) and siliciclastic (phyllosilicates and aluminosilicates), which is in line with the results from Schulte et al. (2009).

Elemental composition of the core proximal to Aare (LB15-8) presented a different signal, with strong positive correlation between Fe, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Rb and Si. Ca also presented a weak correlation with Sr, however, no correlation with Zr was found. Such results were in line with a previous study on the Aare floodplain (Schulte et al. (2015), relating Fe, Ti, Rb, K, Al and Mn to phyllosilicate group deriving from the metamorphic rocks characteristics for the Aare catchment. This study also presented a relationship between such phyllosilicate group with silt-sized grains, as for the Lüttschine core. Finally, the 2005-turbidite of LB15-15 presents a high composition in phyllosilicates, which, however, could be related to both Aare and Lüttschine catchments.

In general, geochemical analysis highlighted the lithological composition of the two catchments, with Lüttschine mainly controlled by carbonate and siliciclastic sediments, and Aare mainly characterized by elements from the siliciclastic group. For both LB15-14 and LB15-8, the geochemical analysis provided insights on two main controlling factors, such as lithology (and therefore provenance of the sediments) and grain-size signal. In fact, a strong relation between the geochemical composition of the sediments and grain size was present for both Aare (LB15-8) and Lüttschine (LB15-14) cores. Such relation can be explained by the susceptibility of different elements and their associated minerals to erosion and weathering processes, and can be reflected in the sediments, as presented by Bloemsmas et al. (2012). Other studies relating geochemistry to grain-size are, for instance, those of Cuven et al., (2010), Kylander et al. (2011) and Moreno et al. (2011).

This double-relationship may explain the large variability of LB15-15, the core which was hypothesized to have recorded a double signal from both Lüttschine (sub-layer B, at the base of the 2005 layer) and Aare (sub-layer A, overlying B). Such hypothesis was supported by the elemental profile, showing a decrease in Ca and an increase in Rb in the overlying sub-layer A. However, as a strong relationship between grain size and geochemistry of the catchment was found, the increase in Rb is expected to be related not to an Aare plume but more to an increase in fine-sized material, as the grading characteristic of flood layers suggests. This statement is supported by PCA performed on the two sub-divided layers, which did not show a significant change in composition. A possible explanation for the lack of significant results could be related to the used small dataset, contrasting with the main usage of a PCA, which is a reduction of dataset. Moreover, despite the Aare and Lüttschine catchment are characterized by different compositions, with a major crystalline composition for Aare and a major sedimentary and carbonate composition for Lüttschine, they both show a common phyllosilicate signal - as highlighted by the PCA - which could lead to misinterpretation and difficulty in differencing the geochemical signatures of the two catchments. Following the results and interpretation, the main element chosen to distinguish Aare and Lüttschine input with a large degree of certainty is Calcium.

5.3.3 Carbonate Content

Because of the major importance of carbonate within the lake and for the Lütschine catchment composition, smear slides and carbon content analysis were performed on the 2005-layers. The aim was to differentiate between the Aare and Lütschine input based on their mineralogical composition and detrital (inorganic) carbon content. Lakes dominated by detrital clastic material such as Brienz are expected to contain primarily siliciclastics and reworked carbonates (Einsele, 2000). Detrital carbonate generates from weathering and inwash of carbonate rocks in the catchment and it is transported in the lake via streams and rivers (Smol et al., 2004). Because of the lithological composition of its catchment, Lütschine contribution of detrital carbonate was therefore expected to be reflected in the sediments, leading to an increase in inorganic carbon in the 2005-layers characterized by its signal.

In general, both analyses showed a higher carbonate content for Lütschine compared to Aare cores, which follows the results previously presented by Sturm (1976). Smear-slide analysis (Fig. 4.13) exhibits a much higher content in inorganic carbon in the cores proximal to the Lütschine inflow. Fig. 4.15 showing the distribution of organic and inorganic carbon content within the 2005-layers confirmed what previously observed through smear slide analysis. Lütschine cores (LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15 and LB15-3, following the WE transect) are characterized by a higher content in inorganic carbon, expressed as percentage of carbonate (including calcite, aragonite and dolomite). While the samples analysed from the Lütschine cores contain in average 26% of carbonate, Aare cores (LB15-20, LB15-8, LB15-7, LB15-18 and LB15-19) contain only 2.3%. Previous studies already indicated that carbonate concentration in the cores influenced by Lütschine contribution was at the time 3 times higher than what was found in cores related to Aare input (33 and 10% for Lütschine and Aare, respectively (Matter & Sturm, 1982). Such results are in line with the large difference measured in this study (Fig. 4.15).

Concerning the Lütschine cores, however, the initial hypothesis of the presence of two overlaying sub-layers (Section 4.3.2.2) contrasts with the carbonate content results. Initially, it was hypothesized that carbonate content would have supported the double-layering from Lütschine (bottom) and Aare (top) by showing differences in carbonate profiles for the two sub-layers. However, no clear pattern could be detected: there is no substantial increase or decrease in carbonate content along the layers. For this reason, the initial hypothesis can no longer be supported. A possible explanation for such depositional pattern may be that such sedimentary succession for Lütschine 2005 layers reflect the shape of the hydrograph. As shown in Fig. 4.16, before the peak discharge in the late night of August 22nd, a very rapid increase in runoff was recorded in the early hours of August 21st. It may be that such sharp increase in discharge was able to deliver sufficient sediment to generate an underflow (hyperpycnal flow) and depositing the first, coarse base. Based on this evidence, it is likely that sediment deposition followed two pulses resulting from the dual peaks (Fig. 4.16). As presented in section 1.7.2, large parts of the mobilized sediments during the 2005 event from the Lütschine catchment accumulated in the floodplain, and only in minor part entered the lake. It may therefore be that peak discharge does not mirror the highest sediment load during the event.

For the two lateral torrents, the very high concentration in carbonate for Trachtbach and Glyssibach shown in Table 4.6 (around 60% for both) is also in line with the previously mentioned study of Sturm (1976), in which it is presented that the lateral streams surrounding Brienz presented very high carbonate contents (up to 80%). The same study also showed that while the carbonate input from most of the lateral torrents is not detectable in the sediment record, high carbonate concentration in the stream torrents close to the village Brienz is recorded in the sediment proximal to the shores (Sturm, 1976). Such strong differences in carbonate content between Aare and the two lateral torrents are used

in this study in order to identify the material transported from Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents during the event. Interestingly, in LB15-18 and LB15-19 2005, layers with a different sedimentary structure compared to other Aare and Lüttschine cores occur. Both sections were in fact characterized by a layer with remains of plant macrofossil and pollens, as shown by smear-slide analysis (Fig. 4.13) 'sandwiched' in layers presenting similar characteristics of Aare signal in terms of colour, grain size and carbonate content. These high-carbonate layers also contained much higher organic matter when compared to the observed values of Lüttschine and Aare sediments (up to 20% of organic in LB15-18). This lithological signature, only occurring in those two eastern cores, is interpreted as being representative for detrital layers coming from the Trachtbach and Glyssibach debris flows. As Kämpf et al. (2012) presented in their study, detrital layers characterized by sand-sized particles and organic plant macrofossils may be indicative for "*short-range transport of littoral sediments from the steep lateral slopes, probably driven by local debris flows*". As presented in the previous sections, plant macrofossils have been found only in those two layers, and therefore the concluding hypothesis states that the two event layers are the result of the high-energy debris-flows of Glyssibach, and maybe of Trachtbach as well. As presented by Müller & Loew (2009), it was reported by eye witnesses that the debris flows of Trachtbach and Glyssibach were "high viscosity" masses caused by the liquefaction of precedent landslides in the catchments. Such masses can be defined as (hyper-)concentrated density flows (Mulder & Alexander (2001)). Subaerial concentrated density flows can occur during flash floods in mountainous catchments characterized by highly erosive areas, and are usually related to convective rainstorms (McArdell et al., 2007). When such density flows enter a lake their deposit is characterized by little or no grading, "*because suspension fall-out is relatively unimportant*" (Mulder & Alexander, 2001). Moreover, they can be strongly erosional. This is supported by the study from Müller & Loew (2009), in which it is presented that Trachtbach and Glyssibach debris-flows caused strong channel erosion in the range of 4-6 m deep. This erosive character is maintained even underwater (basal erosion) and allows the flow to continue moving for long-distances (Mulder & Alexander, 2001). This issue will be discussed in more details in the following section.

In general, despite Lüttschine contains a high carbonate content compared to Aare, the difference with the two lateral torrents (characterized by a very high carbonate content) is very large. Such difference may be due to the fact that both Aare and Lüttschine rivers originate from glaciers in the upper area of both catchments, and travel downstream for several kilometres before reaching the lake. Throughout the long path, carbonate particles contained in the water-mass may be more susceptible to dissolve and thus not reach the lake. Trachtbach and Glyssibach catchments' lithology is instead mainly characterized by carbonate and sedimentary rocks such as limestones and partly marls (Swisstopo). Because the upper reaches above the two catchments are marked by strong erosion (Müller, 2007), weathered carbonate can be easily transported downslope and into the watershed network of the area. However, the travel path of the lateral torrents from the source to the lake is much shorter and rapid compared to the Aare and Lüttschine path, leading to a more direct transport of the weathered carbonate in the lake, without deposition or dissolution. Finally, the area surrounding the two mountain torrents is forested, which could imply a higher input of organic matter in the watershed, also matching the lithological signature.

5.4 Missing Layers

Three cores retrieved from the centre of the lake do not include a clear 2005 event layer, moreover, their layering is disturbed and several attempts at these central locations did not result in successful recovery of undisturbed long cores.

A first explanation for this absence could rely on erosive processes, as previously mentioned for LB15-18 and LB15-19. Firstly, it can be hypothesized that the rapid debris flows of Trachtbach and Glyssibach triggered in August 2005 presented a highly erosive power and lead to a massive erosion of the sediments when entered the lake. High-magnitude floods, which lead to hyperpycnal flows may cause basal erosion due to the high density, speed and volume of the turbidity flow (Mulder et al. (2003). A similar hypothesis was formulated by Czymzik et al. (2013), who explained missing layers along the cores as caused by erosive processes during flood events. Others studies presenting basal erosion due to hyperpycnal flows, for example, are those of Simonneau et al. (2013) at Lake Ledro (IT) and of Thorndycraft et al. (1998) at Petit Lac d'Annecy (FR). However, the presented explanation is more a speculative hypothesis rather than a conclusive statement. Missing layers have been detected in other studies aiming at reconstructing palaeofloods in lakes, such as in Lamoureux (2000), Gilli et al. (2003), Czymzik et al. (2010) and Schiefer et al. (2011). Nonetheless, for most of the studies explanations for missing layers (which can be not deposited, not detected or not preserved) are rarely conclusive and often remain unproved.

However, erosive processes do not explain the disturbed layering that is characteristic for all central cores. Alternatively, the difficulties in recovering the cores in several attempts (not a challenge in pre-2005 campaigns in the deep Lake Brienz basin from the study of Anselmetti et al., (2007) might indicate the presence of a very coarse layer that is prone to slip out of the liner upon ascending while coring. The disturbed layering with partly vertical layering, the presence of the oxidized lake floor, and general disturbed layering might point towards chaotic and coarse lithologies that are not preserved through the non-piston type of coring. This lack of sediment information would represent a major drawback to fully understand the signatures and layers of the 2005 event in Lake Brienz and further analysis will be required to fully pinpoint the sedimentation processes in the middle of the lake (see Outlook).

5.5 Event Succession

The 2005 flood event was characterized by a succession of processes occurred in different parts of Lake Brienz catchment. From the 20th of August, high precipitation was recorded in the catchment, with a peak in rainfall during the 22nd of August reaching up to 98 mm of rain. In total, between the 20th and the 22nd of August, Brienz experienced 207 mm of precipitation. During the 21st of August, the inflows were characterized by a strong increase in discharge, which for all inflows was registered in the morning. However, peak discharges differ between the ones of Aare and Lütschine and the ones of Trachtbach and Glyssibach.

While the two major inflows (Aare, Lütschine) were characterized by a major peak discharge in the evening of the 22nd of August, the two torrents present a different discharge evolution with three separate peaks. However, the major peak in discharge (at 01.00h of 22nd of August, Fig. 4.18) does not correspond with the debris flow events, which hit Brienz and Schwanden b. Brienz in the night between the 22nd and 23rd of August and which likely brought the maximum of particle load. As presented in the reports about Trachtbach and Glyssibach events Zimmermann (2006 a, b), the third peak at 21-22 pm corresponds to the observation of the viscous debris flow along the Trachtbach channel in Brienz. However, it does not correspond to the destructive debris flow of Glyssibach, which hit Schwanden b. Brienz between 02.15-02.30 of the 23rd of August, despite the landslide is thought to have been initiated right before midnight. Such delay in timing between the landslide and the actual destructive debris flow may be explained the high sediment transport observed from 22pm onwards in the channel: as reported from eye witnesses, the increased sediment load accumulated on bridges and protective dams along the channel, as well as along the channel itself. Moreover, the lake was characterized by a higher water level,

which contributed to blocking the sediments along the channel from the bottom (Zimmermann, 2006b). When the landslide initiated, the moving mass transformed in a debris flow and travelled over the previously transported and blocked mass along the channel, outflowing the channel and destroying the village.

The modelled peak discharges (on the basis of precipitation time series) for Trachtbach and Glyssibach do not correspond to the estimated discharge as reported from Zimmermann (2006 a, b), both in timing and volume. Modelled discharges are characterized by a peak in the evening of the 21nd and they range from 2.5 m³/s for Trachtbach to 3 m³/s for Glyssibach, while in the night of the 22nd discharges reach a maximum of 1.5 m³/s (T) and 2m³/s (G). However, the report on the Trachtbach and Glyssibach events stated that the discharge peaks from the two torrents were recorded on the night of the 22nd of August, and not on the 21st as presented from the model (Fig. 4.18). Moreover, in the report, peak discharges of Trachtbach and Glyssibach were estimated to range from 120 to 160 m³/s, respectively (Zimmermann, 2006), which is not in accordance with what showed in Fig. 4.18 (1.5 m³/s for Trachtbach and 2 m³/s for Glyssibach). A possible explanation for such a lag could be the difficulty of modelling such small and mountainous catchments with a wide range of parameters, such as rheological properties of the area, elevation, slope angle, etc. (Arattano & Franzi, 2004; Hall et al., 2014). Firstly, the heterogeneity of the terrain is problematic for discharge modelling. Secondly, under a high and intense precipitation event, mountain streams can rapidly transform into torrential rivers, which far exceed the expected discharge, especially if soils were already saturated from previous precipitation (Zillgens et al., 2005), as it is the case for the 2005 flood event. Moreover, the involved geomorphic processes characterizing the events, such as landslide and debris flows, are not taken into account in the model: modelled discharge for Trachtbach and Glyssibach is only based on precipitation and runoff coefficient for small and reactive mountain catchments (0.7). This could also be an explanation why a first major peak is observed not on the night of the 22nd, as for Aare and Lütschine, but on the night of the 21st, following the increase in precipitation observed in the area. Zillgens et al. (2005) reported spatio-temporal patterns of runoff generation in Alpine regions indicating that catchment's response to a precipitation event is very fast (hours). They discern between two types of runoff response depending on the type of rainfall. Short, intense precipitation events during a dry period can in fact cause a rapid runoff response characterized by a single direct peak (Fig. 5.1A, unimodal), while long-lasting precipitation events can cause a bimodal peak discharge, with an initial, direct peak response followed by a delayed peak in discharge (Fig. 5.1B, bimodal). The delayed peak, which is also function of the initial precipitation volume, can be characterized by an event (e.g. flood, debris flow) caused by additional rain following the initial precipitation volume.

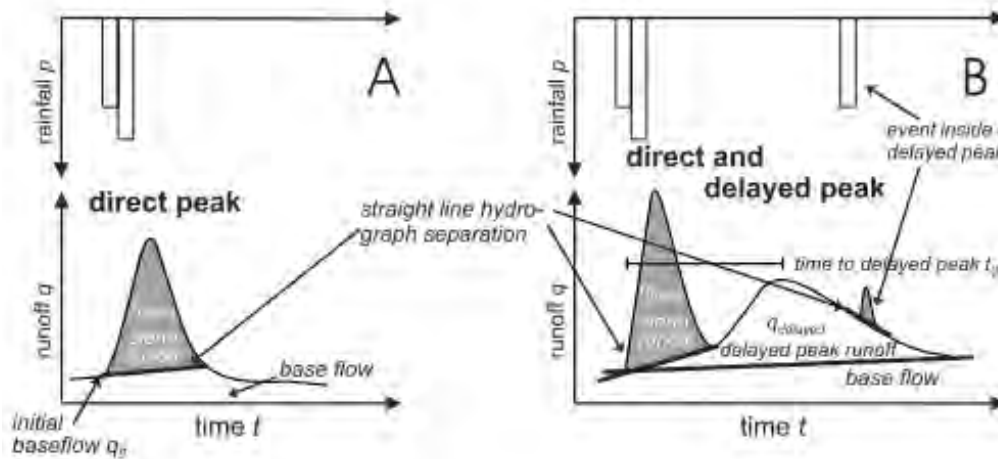


Fig. 5.1 Representation of hydrographs for unimodal (A) and bimodal (B) peak discharge, as presented by Zillgens et al. (2005)

Onda et al. (2001) also observed such bimodal behaviour with a delayed peak on one of the studied mountain torrents in Japan. They concluded that delayed peaks generally occur in watersheds which are characterized by a thick colluvium: the delayed peak is therefore related to the time water needs to flow into the bedrock cavities. In general, the modelled discharge of the two mountain torrents thus relates well to these previous studies as they follow the bimodal peak discharge shown in Fig. 5.1. Such bimodal distribution is characterized by an initial rapid response to rainfall followed by one (or even two) major peak runoff, and it is in line with the observations for the two mountain torrents.

In general, Trachtbach and Glyssibach were characterized by a rapid response to precipitation, with a second, major peak discharge starting and terminating rapidly. On the contrary, Aare and Lütshine discharge was much less abrupt, and once the peak was reached, the decrease towards a normal-state runoff took much longer than for the two mountain torrents.

5.6 Flow Paths and Sediment Volumes

To summarize, Fig. 5.2 presents the contribution of the different inflows to the sedimentary records of the August 2005 flood event (Fig. 5.2a), as well as the geographical extent of their contribution (Fig. 5.2b). In general, the cores recording a Lütshine signal (based on colour, grain size, geochemical and carbonate-content analysis) comprise LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15 and LB15-3 and have been highlighted in red. On the other hand, the cores recording the Aare signal are represented by LB15-20, LB15-7, LB15-8 as well as LB15-18 and LB15-19. LB15-19 and LB15-18 also partly recorded the incoming flow from Glyssibach and Trachtbach - in green - that was deposited above and below an Aare layer (for LB15-19) and below (for LB15-18). It is expected that the bottom Aare layer shown for LB15-19 was also present in LB15-18 but has been eroded by the turbidity flow. Because of their very similar catchment (and therefore very similar signal), it was not possible to distinguish whether the organic detrital layer was deposited from one or both creeks. For this reason, the expected flow was presented in Fig. 5.2b as a result of both Trachtbach and Glyssibach torrents. Despite this, it can be hypothesized that the Aare turbidite extended towards the central and deepest basin (Anselmetti et al., 2007), however, the missing cores/layers in the depocentre do not allow further investigations. For this reason, Fig. 5.2 strictly relates to the signal observed in the 9 cores presenting the 2005 layer.

The exact volume of sediment transported and deposited during the event is not yet known. A few studies on single inflows related to the event have proposed estimations based on observations, however, no final statements or exact volumes transported have been found in the literature. For the Aare river, Bezzola & Hegg (2007) estimated that the total transported material during the event was ~350'000 m³. However, an estimation on the amount of material, which actually reached the lake, has not been reported. For the Lütschine river, a report from the Tiefbauamt des Kantons Bern (2007) analysed the transported load during the event, indicating that in the area of Bönigen (Lütschine-Gsteig) 25'000 m³ of material was deposited, while erosion in the area amounts to 20'000 m³. According this publication, an estimated volume of 20'000 m³ of material was transported in the lake.

The studies on Trachtbach and Glyssibach focused on the debris-flow events (Zimmermann, 2006a, 2006b). The studies do not provide information on the material transported into the lake, and mainly focus on the amount of detached material in the area above the villages of Brienz and Schwanden bei Brienz. For Trachtbach, the estimated initially mobilized material is estimated to be ~60'000 m³, of which 10'000 m³ are expected to have entered the lake under present conditions (Zimmermann, 2006a; Müller, 2007). Studies on the Glyssibach event assessed an initial mobilized volume of about 80'000 m³, of which 50'000 m³ was transported in the channel and developed into a 70'000 m³ debris flow reaching the village of Schwanden bei Brienz (Zimmermann, 2006b; Müller, 2007). However, no further estimations on the amount of material transported in the lake could be found.

In general, it was not possible to retrieve an estimation of the sediment load transported in the lake during the event from the literature. All the reports mainly focus on damage and on future perspectives concerning mitigation and adaptation strategies of expected events in the future. The estimations for Trachtbach and Glyssibach, moreover, only focus on the debris flows of the 22-23rd of August, and not on the entire length of the event, therefore likely underestimating the mobilized material. For this reason, an empirical estimation of the volume of deposited sediments has been calculated for this project, based on the mean sediment thickness of the 2005 layer and a simplified basin morphology of Lake Brienz. Table 5.1 shows the thickness values used for the calculation of mean thickness, while Table 5.2 shows the values used for the calculation of total deposited volume.

Table 5.1 Thickness and total mean thickness of the 9 cores presenting the 2005 layer

Core	Thickness [cm]
LB15-2	3.7
LB15-14	3.6
LB15-15	2.7
LB15-3	2.5
LB15-18	2.6
LB15-19	1.9
LB15-8	2.1
LB15-7	2
LB15-20	1.4
Total	2.5 cm (0.025 m)

Table 5.2 Calculation of total deposited volume during the 2005 event in Lake Brienz

Mean thickness	0.025 m
Basin length	14'000 m
Basin width	3'000 m
Total	$0.025 \times 14'000 \times 3'000 = \mathbf{1'050'000 \text{ m}^3}$

The mean thickness was calculated based on the thickness of each visible 2005 layer, while basin length and width was retrieved from the literature (Sturm & Matter, 1978). As shown in Table 5.2, the estimated volume of sediment deposited on the lake basin during the 2005 event is ~1 Mio m³. However, the calculation is only based on the amount of sediments observed from the 9 cores showing the 2005 layer and must therefore be taken as a rough estimation rather than a conclusive statement. The calculation is based on two main assumptions:

- Thickness in the depocentre (missing layers) is similar to the one calculated based on the 9 cores. As shown from Anselmetti et al. (2007), however, the central basin (missing layers) is characterized by higher deposition in respect to the other areas of the lake
- The calculation is based on a largely simplified basin morphology, defined only by the length of the lake (14 km) and the maximum width of 3 km as reported from Sturm & Matter (1978). Therefore, the basin area calculated in Table 5.2 (14 x 3 km) is only a rough estimate and does not take into account slope gradients or morphological features of the basin

Following these assumptions, the real volume of deposited material may be larger than what was estimated here depending on real basin morphology and accumulation of sediments in the depocentre. Therefore, the result as proposed in Table 5.2 needs to be considered biased. However, this estimation may give an idea on the intense transport of material during the 2005 flood event, which lead to ~ 1 Mio m³ of material deposition in the lake basin.

A further estimation of the volume of sediments transported by the individual inflows was calculated based on the theoretical area and thickness presented in Fig. 5.2. The basin area taken into consideration was retrieved based on the distribution of sediment cores presenting a specific riverine signal, and calculated on Swisstopo. Mean sediment thickness for each individual inflow was estimated based on the values presented in Table 5.1. For Trachtbach and Glyssibach signal, LB15-18 presents 1 cm of detrital organic material, while LB15-19 0.5 cm. Mean thickness for the two lateral torrents is therefore considered to be 0.75 cm.

Table 5.3 Transported sediment volume calculation for individual inflows

Inflow	Area [km ²]	Mean Thickness (cm)	Tot Volume [m ³]
Aare	8	2	160'000
Lütschine	5.5	3.12	171'600
Trachtbach & Glyssibach	2.3	0.75	17'250

As shown in Table 5.3, the estimated volume of sediments transported from the Aare river is about 160'000 m³, while for Trachtbach is around 170'000 m³. Trachtbach and Glyssibach sediment volume contribution as estimated to be around 17'000 m³. For the two lateral torrents, it was not possible to discern between individual contributions and therefore the value is representative for both of them

together. Because the area taken into account for the calculation was only based on the location of cores presenting individual signals from the inflows, it is likely that the deposited sediments extend over a much broader area, therefore the real volume for each river contribution may be higher than the value presented in Table 5.3. This could explain the large difference between the total mass volume calculated in Table 5.2 and the individual contributions presented in Table 5.3 which, if summed, would lead to a total sediment volume of around 350'000 m³, a much lower volume compared to the first total estimated. Moreover, the depocentre of the lake was not considered in the calculations because of the missing layers, therefore the calculation of individual contributions only shows a very minimal volume.

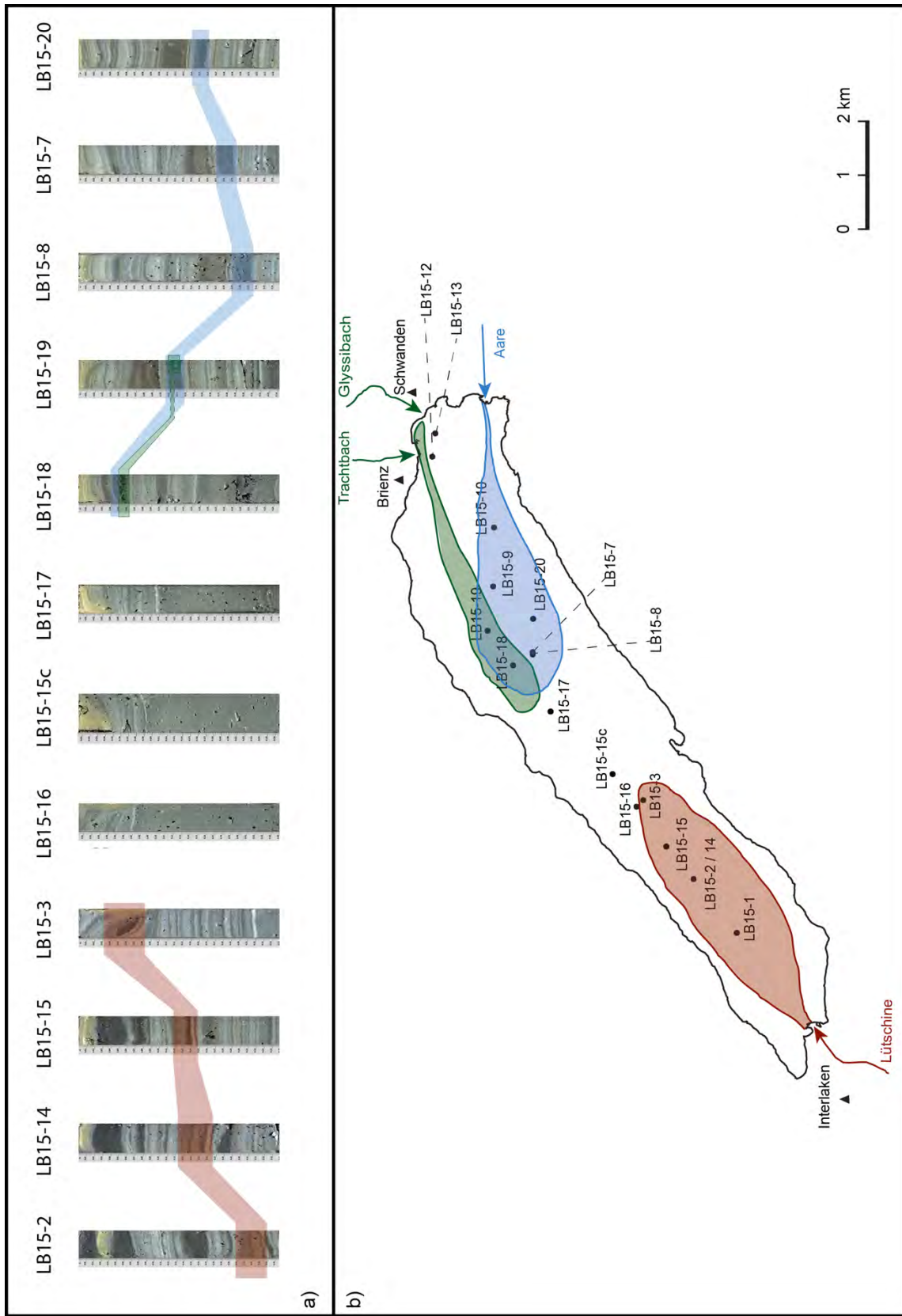


Fig. 5.2 Sketch representing the contribution (a) and extent (b) of the different inflows during the August 2005 flood event. Cores and extension of Lüttschine signal is shown in red, Aare in blue and Trachtbach and Glyssibach in green

6 Conclusions and Outlook

6.1 Conclusions

Based on a number of sedimentological, physical and geochemical analysis, the sediment cores of Lake Brienz allowed to analyse and reconstruct the depositional processes in context of the August 2005 flood event. As a conclusion, the initial research questions will be addressed.

6.1.1 Distinction of Individual Flood Layers in the Sediment Record

Can we distinguish the individual flood layers from the respective inflows?

A visual observation, combined with an analysis of the physical properties of the sediments, grain size and elemental profiles allowed the distinction of numerous flood layers within the sediment record. In the clastic sediments of Lake Brienz, event layers deriving from allochthonous input of material are characterized by thicker, darker and coarser laminations, and can therefore be distinguished from the background normal sedimentation. Thick (centimetre to decimetre) dark layers represent both flood-related and one mass-movement induced detrital layer, which are distinguished based on their sedimentary structure. The only mass-movement induced turbidite layer derives from the Aare delta collapse in 1996 producing an up to 50 cm thickness in the cores retrieved for this study (90 cm in the study of Girardclos et al., 2007). Flood-triggered event layers are instead characterized by a few (up to 3-4 cm) thickness, and can visually be assigned to Lüttschine or Aare based on the darker and lighter colour, respectively. The sedimentary record of Lake Brienz contains also thin (on a millimetre to a centimetre scale) event layers, darker and coarser than the background sedimentation. Such layers are interpreted to be deriving from an increase in discharge of lateral torrents around Lake Brienz.

6.1.2 Distinction of the August 2005 Flood Event in the Sediment Record

Can we distinguish the 2005 event layer in the sediment record?

The August 2005 flood event was identified in the sediment cores based on visual observation of thickness, sedimentological features and a correlations and comparisons with previous cores retrieved on the lake. Further grain-size analysis showed that all the event layers present the characteristics of a turbidite, with a coarser base followed by a fining-up sequence of particles size. Such layers have been interpreted to be the result of a massive flood event, mirroring waxing and waning of discharge. However, the 2005 turbidite was not identified in all the retrieved cores. While the cores in proximity of the shores and of the Aare and Lüttschine delta present a disturbed sedimentary sequence, three cores retrieved from the centre of the lake do not contain the 2005 turbidite. Those missing layers can be interpreted in two different ways. First, such missing layers can be hypothesized to be the result of a massive basal erosion caused by the two debris flows initiated in the Trachtbach and Glyssibach catchments, which partly destroyed Brienz and Schwanden b. Brienz during the event. Alternatively, a very coarse and thick 2005 flood layer in the central depocentre could inhibit successful core recovery, as coarse irregular material might easily slip out of the core tube upon ascending through the water column.

6.1.3 Catchment Fingerprints and Extent of the Riverine Contributions

Can we distinguish the extent of the contribution of the different catchments during the 2005 event as recorded in the sediments of Lake Brienz?

The different catchment's fingerprints have been highlighted through a visual difference in colour, as well as geochemical, grain-size and carbon-content analysis. The Aare turbidite is characterized by lighter, coarser material composed by phyllosilicates and only very low carbonate content deriving from the metamorphic and crystalline rocks composing the majority of the catchment. The Lütchine can be identified based on a darker colour, finer particles (except for some recent event layers presenting very dark and coarser grains) and a carbonate (high) and siliciclastic (low) signal deriving from the lithological composition of the catchment (mainly sedimentary and carbonate rocks).

The 2005 layers of the two lateral torrents were identified in two cores based on the very high contribution of carbonate, which is higher than for both the two major inflows. The catchment lithology of Trachtbach and Glyssibach is almost purely composed by sedimentary rocks such as limestones and marls. The erosive processes characteristics for the upper area of the catchments contribute to the weathering and transport of detrital carbonates in the stream network. During the event, the two debris flows transported large amount of material in the lake, therefore leaving a clear signal through their high content in carbonate. Moreover, detrital organic material was also a major component of these detrital layers: the debris flows, initiated in a forested area, transported downhill large amount of organic material (e.g. woods, leaves) which became deposited in the layer.

6.1.4 Sediment Transport During the Event

How much sediment was transported to the lake from the different catchments?

Because the cores located in the depocentre were missing the August 2005 event layer, an accurate calculation of the amount of sediment transported from the different tributaries was not possible. An empirical estimation accounts for 1 Mio m³ of material deposited in the lake. However, the calculation is based on a simplified morphology of the basin and a mean thickness observed along the retrieved cores. From a simplified calculation, it was estimated that Aare contribution is of 160'000 m³, that of Lütchine 171'6000 m³ and that of Trachtbach and Glyssibach 17'250 m³. However, this is rather a minimum volume calculation, and the transported volume from individual inflows is expected to be higher. Moreover, the depocentre of the lake provides no data for this calculation, but represents the area that usually records the highest amount of sediments during an event, therefore the deposited volume is expected to be larger.

6.1.5 Temporal Succession of the August 2005 Flood Event

What was the temporal succession of extreme runoffs and can that be reconstructed using the set of sediment cores?

The temporal succession of the 2005 flood event in Brienz was reconstructed based on discharge measurements and the event layers in the cores. We propose the following succession:

1. Aare discharge started to increase in the early morning of 21st of August (01.00h).
2. Trachtbach and Glyssibach rapidly responded to precipitation and their discharge started increasing in the morning of the 21st of August (07.00h).

3. Lütschine river recorded an increase in discharge around 11.00 of 21st of August.
4. In the early morning of the 22nd of August (00.00-01.00h) Trachtbach and Glyssibach recorded a first peak in discharge. The modelled peak, however, did not correspond to the highest discharge from the catchments. At the same time, a very rapid increase in Lütschine is expected to have lead to a hyperpycnal flow, which caused the first dark and coarse basal layer in the Lütschine cores.
5. In the evening of the 22nd of August (19.00h and 22.00h) the Aare registered two similar peak discharges. The hyperpycnal Aare flow probably entered the lake at this time.
6. Lütschine peaked in discharge three hours after Aare (20.00h of 22nd of August). It is expected that such discharge contained lower amount of suspended particles, and was recorded in the sedimentary record as an overlying layer on top of the previously deposited one with a similar fining-up sequence.
7. Around 22.00h-23.00h of the 22nd of August, a debris flow from Trachtbach hit Brienz. Around 02.15h of the 23rd of August, another debris flow from Glyssibach hit and partly destroyed the village of Schwanden b. Brienz. The debris flows from the two mountain torrents entered the lake and are expected to have travelled towards the centre, possibly eroding the first deposited Aare sediments. A very rapid decrease in discharge followed the debris flows, and the flows came back to normality in the early hours of the 23rd of August.
8. After the debris flows, Aare and Lütschine recorded a still high -but decreasing- discharge until mid- 23rd of August. The continuous discharge from Aare lead to another sediment layer which overlaid the debris flow layer previously deposited.

6.2 Outlook

The results presented in this thesis provided an insight on the extreme flood event of August 2005 in Switzerland from the sediments of Lake Brienz. The lake proved to be a reliable archive recording the succession of the events and the contribution of the different catchments. The destructive power of the event is highlighted by the very large amount of material transported into the lake, as well as through the erosive character of the two debris flows. However, to fully understand the processes behind the 2005 flood, multibeam bathymetric measurements should be performed in the lake in order to retrieve a precise bathymetric map and morphological profiles of the basin. Such analyses would allow to understand netter the subaquatic flow paths of the various inflows. Moreover, a new reflection seismic survey imaging the lateral distribution and thickness of the 2005 flood layer (if thickness is above seismic resolution of 10 cm in the centre, where data yet is missing) would explain the missing layers in the depocentre, as well as would provide more information on the volume of sediments transported in the lake.

Flood events such the August 2005 flood in Lake Brienz highlight the importance of better understanding triggers and processes behind natural hazards in mountainous area, especially under a changing climate. Changes in climatic patterns such as changes in air temperature and precipitation, as well as the increase in extreme meteorological events expected for the future (as predicted from the IPCC report) would lead to substantial changes in the hydrological cycle as it is, in this example, discharge and related flood events. Because climate change is happening, it is therefore extremely important to being able to understand not only streamflow trends per se, but also integrate their behaviour in a much broader perspective, taking into consideration all the different actors and processes influencing discharge in the Alpine area. As introduced at the beginning of this project, the role the Swiss Alps have on transport and distribution of water, as well as for human settlements, is of extreme importance for both the Swiss population and the surrounding regions. Following, changes in

the hydrological cycle and in the magnitude and frequency of flood events may lead to a substantial increase in danger for the natural habitat and for anthropogenic activities. Therefore, more detailed and comprehensive studies on Alpine regions and their relationship with changes in climate should be performed in order to better understand the complexity of the sub-Alpine and Alpine areas and the relative relationship with shifts in natural climate. Another factor which should be addressed in further studies is the influence between global large scale circulation and processes such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and the hydrological regime of the Alps. The alpine area is in fact located in a transition region between different climatic zones, and it is influenced by the Mediterranean, Atlantic regime and continental regime (NAO). It is therefore important to understand the effect that changes in these different climatological regimes will have on the future hydrology of the Alps.

To conclude, the present study provides valuable information how extreme flood events during the Holocene get recorded in the lake sediment record. The 2005 flood is the result of an extreme precipitation event, which has not been proved to be caused by a change in the climate system, but it was rather the result of natural climate variability in a mountainous region such as Switzerland. Calibrating the lacustrine flood layer with the observed and measured processes of the event allows a more comprehensive understanding of Holocene natural climate variability using the longer Lake Brienz sedimentary record. The extreme event discussed in this thesis can be used as a textbook case to interpret climatic conditions of other similar events that were created by heavy precipitation. Moreover, the 2005 event can be used as an example for the potential modelling of future extreme events, a phenomenon which is projected to increase towards the end of the century.

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Appendix

Table A.1.2 Magnetic Susceptibility ($SI \times 10^{-5}$) and Bulk Density (g/cc) for LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15, LB15-3 and LB15-15c. From 40.5 to 79 cm depth

Depth	LB15-14		LB15-15		LB15-3		LB15-15c	
	Density	MS	Density	MS	Density	MS	Density	MS
40.5	1.5817	6.7459	1.5263	10.2534	1.6497	8.863	1.8968	10.2992
41	1.5559	6.7359	1.5905	10.0178	1.6058	8.7429	1.8998	10.1187
41.5	1.578	6.547	1.5445	9.9175	1.6157	8.7429	1.8955	10.2623
42	1.5947	6.6241	1.548	10.2899	1.6044	8.8848	1.8649	10.2472
42.5	1.6156	6.5021	1.5217	10.2184	1.5946	8.8805	1.8861	10.1336
43	1.6003	6.4252	1.4666	10.2648	1.5703	8.9556	1.7915	10.0769
43.5	1.5225	6.7359	1.5767	10.4067	1.4916	8.8936	1.6555	9.8292
44	1.6021	6.7592	1.6395	10.3156	1.5417	8.8394	1.6636	9.8197
44.5	1.6088	6.6469	1.6256	10.4326	1.6306	8.8251	1.6137	9.605
45	1.5779	6.6437	1.616	10.1736	1.6368	9.1666	1.5735	9.7961
45.5	1.5765	6.6502	1.6099	10.529	1.6298	8.7069	1.557	9.2277
46	1.534	6.7725	1.6311	10.2199	1.6174	8.8251	1.6273	9.5477
46.5	1.544	6.5181	1.6726	10.4728	1.6157	8.799	1.7517	9.1519
47	1.5893	6.2833	1.6953	10.1637	1.6326	8.647	1.6832	8.824
47.5	1.5941	6.407	1.7138	10.0326	1.6347	8.6567	1.695	8.6334
48	1.5977	6.407	1.5236	9.6016	1.6292	8.7817	1.6594	8.4803
48.5	1.565	6.3219	1.4638	9.4006	1.5393	8.8264	1.5816	8.155
49	1.5771	6.3219	1.6412	9.279	1.601	8.7601	1.5842	7.9653
49.5	1.5532	6.3882	1.6333	9.3581	1.6797	8.8004	1.5562	7.8173
50	1.5631	6.3851	1.6354	9.1752	1.6771	8.6311	1.5804	7.6754
50.5	1.5933	6.2529	1.6867	9.1886	1.6694	8.8805	1.5661	7.6754
51	1.5393	6.0546	1.7001	8.6954	1.6761	8.4885	1.6511	7.8038
51.5	1.5394	6.2404	1.6617	8.8218	1.6851	8.9256	1.7679	7.653
52	1.6223	6.1868	1.556	8.8919	1.6827	8.7215	1.8237	7.8566
52.5	1.5904	6.1028	1.5491	8.4513	1.6915	8.7129	1.7881	7.8
53	1.6089	6.4167	1.6425	8.128	1.7021	8.8986	1.6962	7.2235
53.5	1.6711	6.2252	1.6656	7.8879	1.7074	8.961	1.6412	7.4741
54	1.6979	6.5987	1.614	7.7377	1.7745	9.2187	1.6406	7.3423
54.5	1.632	6.4668	1.5599	7.2769	1.7664	9.2668	1.6187	8.2823
55	1.6147	6.4668	1.5996	6.7837	1.7836	9.4344	1.6069	7.5453
55.5	1.567	6.4637	1.5737	6.1985	1.8125	9.439	1.6388	7.6113
56	1.5224	6.2758	1.1939	5.531	1.8425	9.2537	1.607	7.3697
56.5	1.5772	6.401	0.8927	4.5671	1.877	9.634	1.628	7.6151
57	1.5808	6.21	1.0516	4.0018	1.872	9.1916	1.5738	7.1775
57.5	1.6065	6.2758	1.2469	3.588	1.8816	9.439	1.5735	7.181
58	1.6633	6.2131	1.2528	2.8708	1.9168	9.2582	1.564	6.8069
58.5	1.5578	6.0909	1.1014	2.7736	1.9311	9.3107	1.6128	6.9991
59	1.5448	6.4104	0.7288	2.3748	1.933	9.4344	1.72	7.1149
59.5	1.5903	6.0315	0.6266	1.8137	1.9364	9.2396	1.6708	6.9228
60	1.6602	6.3416	0.9225	1.2394	1.9016	9.2532	1.6161	7.1845
60.5	1.6596	6.21	0.9928	0.7728	1.9072	9.4868	1.5976	7.0756
61	1.6616	6.4668			1.8352	9.3107	1.5939	7.2553
61.5	1.6946	6.5826			1.8891	9.3244	1.6239	7.1358
62	1.6109	6.4637			1.9511	9.2623	1.6834	7.0696
62.5	1.5578	5.8408			1.9554	9.4622	1.7362	6.9466
63	1.5999	6.1567			1.9575	9.4622	1.7074	7.2021
63.5	1.5599	6.1537			1.997	9.5909	1.7192	7.3783
64	1.5215	6.3261			1.891	9.5909	1.7889	7.1986
64.5	1.5472	5.8934			1.702	9.4668	1.8213	7.2553
65	1.5903	5.8793			1.7082	9.3519	1.7751	7.3747
65.5	1.5502	5.8427			1.6839	8.9742	1.7531	7.1149
66	1.4278	5.4834			1.6368	8.9875	1.7067	7.1681
66.5	1.3831	5.3138			1.658	8.7257	1.6871	7.4191
67	1.4432	4.8966			1.6564	8.5888	1.7133	7.2965
67.5	1.4489	4.8788			1.6305	8.543	1.7777	7.2965
68	1.3816	4.4852			1.6134	8.1643	1.8427	7.4814
68.5	1.3519	3.9473			1.6158	7.9746	1.8399	7.3374
69	1.3846	3.1782			1.6324	8.0202	1.8373	7.3902
69.5	1.4613	2.5917			1.625	7.9707	1.7372	7.3316
70	1.1684	1.7003			1.6959	7.6629	1.6973	7.3338
70.5					1.6691	7.7796	1.6872	7.6437
71					1.6327	8.087	1.6864	7.8221
71.5					1.6877	8.0162	1.7787	7.8353
72					1.6471	7.9106	1.8833	8.132
72.5					1.6019	7.7643	1.8602	8.4419
73					1.5981	7.538	1.8134	8.9439
73.5					1.6159	6.9778	1.7796	9.1931
74					1.6117	6.7401	1.7555	9.2404
74.5					1.6522	6.657	1.7561	10.6101
75					1.687	6.5114	1.7899	10.803
75.5					1.5717	6.2726	1.7489	10.9961
76					1.5799	6.018	1.7653	11.2347
76.5					1.7006	5.7773	1.8718	11.4994
77					1.6986	5.4012	1.9054	11.328
77.5					1.6065	5.1328	1.8127	11.328
78					1.5525	4.6345	1.7992	11.7101
78.5					1.4797	3.643	1.8509	11.6893
79					1.4501	3.0283	1.8304	11.6893

Table A.1.3 Magnetic Susceptibility ($SI \times 10^{-5}$) and Bulk Density (g/cc) for LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15, LB15-3 and LB15-15c. From 79.5 to 102.5 cm depth.

Depth	LB15-15c	
	Density	MS
79.5	1.801	11.306
80	1.767	11.807
80.5	1.825	11.918
81	1.844	11.795
81.5	1.842	12.013
82	1.846	12.119
82.5	1.829	12.086
83	1.912	12.173
83.5	1.928	12.442
84	1.930	12.253
84.5	1.997	12.449
85	2.024	11.896
85.5	1.922	11.641
86	1.526	11.082
86.5	1.336	10.509
87	1.393	10.008
87.5	1.427	9.639
88	1.422	9.388
88.5	1.481	9.133
89	1.486	9.049
89.5	1.333	8.931
90	1.355	8.742
90.5	1.442	8.493
91	1.426	8.423
91.5	1.411	8.352
92	1.360	8.615
92.5	1.365	8.668
93	1.443	8.350
93.5	1.486	8.095
94	1.388	8.336
94.5	1.325	8.442
95	1.416	8.198
95.5	1.491	8.402
96	1.473	8.111
96.5	1.115	8.149
97	1.150	7.559
97.5	1.396	7.448
98	1.397	6.893
98.5	1.346	6.236
99	1.387	5.850
99.5	1.399	5.607
100	1.305	5.121
100.5	1.237	4.895
101	1.404	4.414
101.5	1.447	3.967
102	1.221	3.264
102.5	0.827	2.481

Table A.1.5 Magnetic Susceptibility ($SI \times 10^{-5}$) and Bulk Density (g/cc) for LB15-16, LB15-17, LB15-18, LB15-19 and LB15-8. From 40.5 to 81.15 cm depth

Depth	LB15-17		LB15-18		LB15-19		
	Density	MS	Density	MS	Density	MS	
40.5	1.5346	9.6251	1.5192	8.4677	1.4399	8.3242	
41	1.6045	9.3809	1.6093	8.7788	1.3864	7.9226	
41.5	1.5907	9.7662	1.5994	8.8283	1.294	8.1152	
42	1.4668	9.2721	1.5761	8.8326	1.3189	7.9925	
42.5	1.4576	9.4696	1.5697	8.5709	1.385	7.9925	
43	1.5013	9.4113	1.4819	8.3312	1.3562	7.6642	
43.5	1.439	10.4169	1.3892	8.195	1.3228	7.9925	
44	1.4901	9.4682	1.4131	7.9377	1.3538	7.6717	
44.5	1.5699	9.7387	1.413	7.7853	1.3469	7.8566	
45	1.6198	9.7908	1.3839	7.4679	1.3876	7.9636	
45.5	1.626	9.885	1.4504	7.2492	1.4784	7.9071	
46	1.5907	9.6911	1.4837	7.1148	1.4991	8.3401	
46.5	1.5477	9.5729	1.1529	6.6033	1.4451	8.0413	
47	1.4659	9.3791	0.5785	6.208	1.4011	8.3524	
47.5	1.3686	9.3791	0.7068	6.0273	1.473	8.3927	
48	1.359	9.2426	1.2369	6.1027	1.5412	8.2355	
48.5	1.3531	8.6762	1.3358	6.2354	1.4829	8.5565	
49	1.4685	8.7423	1.2739	6.4132	1.4026	8.0849	
49.5	1.5544	8.6153	1.3428	6.3592	1.4311	7.8747	
50	1.4678	8.6771	1.4251	6.6098	1.4578	7.5699	
50.5	1.3342	8.3442	1.347	6.6538	1.4796	7.6275	
51	1.3338	8.4749	1.283	6.5432	1.4953	7.5251	
51.5	1.4364	7.5965	1.293	6.7206	1.4554	6.6907	
52	1.3689	8.0914	1.2954	6.7367	1.4615	5.8816	
52.5	1.3201	7.4705	1.3906	6.857	1.4453	5.0704	
53	1.3778	7.5269	1.4719	6.9807	0.9602	3.7118	
53.5	1.4113	6.9718	1.5593	6.8772			
54	1.3822	7.3938	1.5573	7.3124			
54.5	1.4369	7.1989	1.5658	7.2945			
55	1.362	7.1425	1.5212	7.3088			
55.5	1.3716	7.2646	1.4597	7.4957			
56	1.4126	7.4248	1.5325	7.751			
56.5	1.4552	7.4378	1.612	7.9455			
57	1.443	7.4378	1.5679	8.2563			
57.5	1.5094	7.4197	1.5422	8.497			
58	1.4856	7.8534	1.5986	8.6735			
58.5	1.4078	7.7955	1.5504	9.1205			
59	1.4099	7.9342	1.4965	9.2441			
59.5	1.462	7.9959	1.4617	9.4868			
60	1.4589	8.2313	1.5078	9.6198			
60.5	1.5392	8.5525	1.5366	9.6151			
61	1.5665	8.9315	1.5691	9.8004			
61.5	1.5091	9.0875	1.4744	9.5346			
62	1.4733	9.4667	1.5343	9.473			
62.5	1.3984	9.5272	1.4877	9.2743			
63	1.4971	9.7736	1.4836	9.199			
63.5	1.5304	9.7641	1.5295	9.2035			
64	1.4331	9.7367	1.5889	9.3745			
64.5	1.4188	9.8627	1.5829	9.5682			
65	1.4047	9.8129	1.4931	9.3791			
65.5	1.4307	9.9592	1.4839	9.3269			
66	1.508	10.0153	1.5623	9.2698			
66.5	1.5749	9.9592	1.6071	9.1327			
67	1.5217	9.8979	1.5967	9.2215			
67.5	1.5068	9.9446	1.6275	9.2879			
68	1.5521	9.6955	1.5248	9.3449			
68.5	1.5025	9.5687	1.5011	9.2652			
69	1.563	10.1841	1.5311	9.3312			
69.5	1.5473	9.0888	1.5183	9.6532			
70	1.585	9.5495	1.5516	9.5346			
70.5	1.6209	9.3413	1.5752	9.7812			
71	1.6124	9.0053	1.5964	9.5299			
71.5	1.5873	8.9259	1.6177	9.6438			
72	1.5209	8.4418	1.6301	9.8477			
72.5	1.4955	7.569	1.6575	9.9189			
73	1.4891	7.5279	1.6194	9.6579			
73.5	1.5286	7.2448	1.5227	9.7244			
74	1.5175	6.8005	1.5264	9.5253			
74.5	1.5486	6.3738	1.6184	9.6674			
75	1.5976	6.0032	1.5609	9.5916			
75.5	1.575	5.2614	1.5064	9.6391			
76	1.2659	4.1428	1.5069	9.6014			
76.5			1.5111	9.4222			
77			1.4827	9.4881			
77.5			1.5372	9.3608			
78			1.6435	9.2205			
78.5			1.6026	9.2361			
79			1.5565	9.0147			
79.5			1.5719	8.5851			
80			1.5631	7.3693			
80.5			1.6656	6.4016			
81			1.833	5.3149			
81.5			1.5171	4.0713			

Table A.1.6 Magnetic Susceptibility ($SI \times 10^{-5}$) and Bulk Density (g/cc) for LB15-7 and LB15-8. From 0 to 40 cm depth

Depth	LB15-7		LB15-20	
	Density	MS	Density	MS
0	1.5314	3.4873	1.034	2.1301
0.5	1.6353	4.5013	1.1811	3.3492
1	1.5714	5.7302	1.5275	5.1824
1.5	1.5876	6.5959	1.6947	6.2588
2	1.6259	7.3535	1.6425	7.2235
2.5	1.6339	7.9265	1.5932	7.7772
3	1.668	8.171	1.6275	8.3158
3.5	1.6756	8.7273	1.6457	8.5159
4	1.6699	8.683	1.6725	8.5859
4.5	1.6871	8.6703	1.7187	8.7603
5	1.6773	8.4304	1.7007	8.7039
5.5	1.6503	8.3067	1.627	8.5723
6	1.6901	8.171	1.5665	8.2999
6.5	1.7129	7.8062	1.5523	8.3564
7	1.7003	7.6749	1.5704	8.312
7.5	1.6678	7.3539	1.6049	8.1758
8	1.634	7.5476	1.5415	8.254
8.5	1.6036	7.2374	1.5325	8.1192
9	1.6187	7.2233	1.4748	8.6059
9.5	1.6609	7.0472	1.4574	7.9831
10	1.6638	6.9304	1.4852	7.7302
10.5	1.5736	6.8066	1.5246	7.6039
11	1.5585	6.9168	1.5502	7.5965
11.5	1.5725	6.8503	1.5372	7.7848
12	1.5343	6.9799	1.5571	7.7151
12.5	1.5356	6.9067	1.5858	7.578
13	1.5513	6.8503	1.5536	7.7696
13.5	1.5668	6.9073	1.502	8.0138
14	1.598	7.2138	1.5017	8.0914
14.5	1.6431	7.2767	1.5254	8.0178
15	1.6624	7.2933	1.6086	8.5118
15.5	1.5946	7.5402	1.631	8.6339
16	1.5732	7.6637	1.6186	8.5775
16.5	1.552	7.5897	1.5969	8.4869
17	1.5537	8.0396	1.5534	8.443
17.5	1.5764	8.1219	1.4703	8.7654
18	1.5838	8.3108	1.4467	8.756
18.5	1.5746	8.1243	1.463	8.8218
19	1.5776	8.3271	1.5039	8.9439
19.5	1.5669	8.087	1.5463	8.8876
20	1.5524	8.2071	1.5468	9.0799
20.5	1.522	7.5773	1.4326	9.1976
21	1.518	7.8961	1.4114	9.1541
21.5	1.5412	8.1029	1.5944	8.8347
22	1.5631	8.2273	1.6103	9.0494
22.5	1.5889	8.083	1.5042	8.5034
23	1.5399	8.3312	1.525	8.2677
23.5	1.5785	8.1323	1.4936	7.9334
24	1.5974	8.3271	1.4384	7.3603
24.5	1.5668	8.0162	1.4172	6.7976
25	1.5372	7.9261	1.4489	6.5443
25.5	1.5856	7.9356	1.4636	6.3557
26	1.5308	7.6449	1.4289	6.0654
26.5	1.474	7.5365	1.451	5.909
27	1.4953	7.3819	1.4635	5.5406
27.5	1.4947	7.2747	1.5099	4.8481
28	1.5323	7.318		
28.5	1.5467	7.5614		
29	1.5175	6.8656		
29.5	1.5151	6.9832		
30	1.5659	6.9322		
30.5	1.5705	6.8654		
31	1.6014	6.5891		
31.5	1.6524	5.4112		
32	1.6969	5.274		
32.5	1.7168	4.448		
33	1.3293	3.4588		
33.5				
34				
34.5				
35				
35.5				
36				
36.5				
37				
37.5				
38				
38.5				
39				
39.5				
40				

Annex 2: Results

Table A.2.1 Zirconium (Zr) profile for LB15-14

LB15-14		LB15-14		LB15-14		LB15-14	
Depth	Zr	Depth	Zr	Depth	Zr	Depth	Zr
19.33	2699	199.33	11673	379.33	3133	559.33	3202
21.83	2329	201.83	2950	381.83	3123	561.83	4193
24.33	5058	204.33	4389	384.33	4048	564.33	3342
26.83	5969	206.83	4720	386.83	4608	566.83	2345
29.33	4656	209.33	5323	389.33	6478	569.33	3209
31.83	3443	211.83	4665	391.83	5184	571.83	2980
34.33	3324	214.33	4268	394.33	7636	574.33	2923
36.83	6796	216.83	2798	396.83	4902	576.83	3867
39.33	4487	219.33	3557	399.33	7398	579.33	3260
41.83	5103	221.83	2653	401.83	4478	581.83	2699
44.33	3765	224.33	2518	404.33	2499	584.33	2306
46.83	3907	226.83	2691	406.83	3200	586.83	3606
49.33	3736	229.33	3563	409.33	3463	589.33	4718
51.83	4495	231.83	3338	411.83	1850	591.83	2752
54.33	3965	234.33	4357	414.33	2709	594.33	2564
56.83	4578	236.83	3208	416.83	2630	596.83	2490
59.33	3317	239.33	2333	419.33	2281	599.33	4533
61.83	3317	241.83	4135	421.83	1787	601.83	3633
64.33	3436	244.33	2368	424.33	2251	604.33	2333
66.83	3779	246.83	3287	426.83	2705	606.83	3872
69.33	6237	249.33	3427	429.33	3794	609.33	2339
71.83	4018	251.83	2957	431.83	3953	611.83	3757
74.33	2969	254.33	3984	434.33	2557	614.33	3050
76.83	3102	256.83	2839	436.83	2511	616.83	2821
79.33	3156	259.33	3313	439.33	1565	619.33	2839
81.83	3745	261.83	3004	441.83	2310	621.83	3297
84.33	2129	264.33	2986	444.33	2936	624.33	4566
86.83	2212	266.83	2065	446.83	3041	626.83	3806
89.33	2794	269.33	2501	449.33	2544	629.33	4767
91.83	4338	271.83	2176	451.83	1925	631.83	4647
94.33	5895	274.33	1630	454.33	3862	634.33	4748
96.83	18000	276.83	3158	456.83	3369	636.83	3549
99.33	20000	279.33	2950	459.33	3187	639.33	2505
101.83	5325	281.83	3345	461.83	2757	641.83	3237
104.33	2679	284.33	6005	464.33	2412	644.33	2891
106.83	2915	286.83	2692	466.83	2052	646.83	2970
109.33	1201	289.33	3996	469.33	3161	649.33	3397
111.83	2339	291.83	3642	471.83	3436	651.83	4519
114.33	3101	294.33	2752	474.33	2959	654.33	4175
116.83	4324	296.83	1694	476.83	2392	656.83	4593
119.33	3646	299.33	2216	479.33	2447	659.33	4569
121.83	3595	301.83	2927	481.83	2756	661.83	4079
124.33	2982	304.33	3572	484.33	2254	664.33	3012
126.83	5439	306.83	2353	486.83	2106	666.83	4089
129.33	4781	309.33	3705	489.33	2460	669.33	5895
131.83	3203	311.83	2399	491.83	2556	671.83	8234
134.33	2934	314.33	1985	494.33	4307	674.33	3027
136.83	2345	316.83	3063	496.83	3043	676.83	3182
139.33	2270	319.33	3400	499.33	2636	679.33	2322
141.83	2192	321.83	3351	501.83	1718	681.83	3507
144.33	2784	324.33	2612	504.33	2755	684.33	2798
146.83	4215	326.83	1885	506.83	3638	686.83	3468
149.33	3181	329.33	1455	509.33	3721	689.33	3483
151.83	3800	331.83	2197	511.83	4160	691.83	3351
154.33	4115	334.33	3330	514.33	2849	694.33	3319
156.83	5412	336.83	2397	516.83	2505	696.83	4405
159.33	5452	339.33	2631	519.33	2651	699.33	9890
161.83	3646	341.83	2185	521.83	2266	701.83	13853
164.33	3648	344.33	2947	524.33	2394	704.33	7476
166.83	4340	346.83	3550	526.83	3543	706.83	4633
169.33	3493	349.33	3609	529.33	3220	709.33	3846
171.83	5067	351.83	4249	531.83	1958	711.83	2895
174.33	4317	354.33	3780	534.33	2224	714.33	4525
176.83	2805	356.83	3130	536.83	2585	716.83	3245
179.33	2928	359.33	2389	539.33	4023		
181.83	3047	361.83	2598	541.83	4096		
184.33	3997	364.33	1444	544.33	4402		
186.83	2279	366.83	1880	546.83	2700		
189.33	2434	369.33	3096	549.33	2587		
191.83	3232	371.83	3891	551.83	2653		
194.33	4686	374.33	3851	554.33	2288		
196.83	9653	376.83	3132	556.83	3863		

Table A.2.5 Elements of Dataset 1 for LB15-14

LB15-14												
Elemental Profiles												
Depth (mm)	Fe	Mg	Al	K	Ca	Ti	Mn	Cu	Rb	Sr	Zr	Si
147	620917	0	339	19699	123106	14722	8055	1734	6528	14268	3796	2190
147.5	633933	59	358	20167	120671	15318	8609	1801	6484	13568	3573	2140
148	613170	40	302	19164	114663	13937	8103	1673	7661	13109	3522	2132
148.5	614409	79	330	18773	112395	14242	7800	1688	7726	12855	3930	1904
149	627149	51	286	19112	116325	14488	8247	1788	7419	12903	3175	1927
149.5	601191	58	272	18415	113725	13642	7489	1495	7166	12782	3905	1844
150	585016	99	294	17434	114902	13896	7148	1606	6626	12503	3681	1926
150.5	581562	60	303	17278	116620	14485	7430	1386	7226	13053	2990	2021
151	571799	112	311	16458	121608	13785	6887	1655	6484	12973	4162	1935
151.5	565958	12	285	16171	130368	14510	7356	1598	7479	13711	3522	2063
152	562467	92	337	16589	144916	14980	6849	1614	6703	13712	4436	2179
152.5	525264	23	273	15672	153379	14569	6109	1501	6777	14578	5214	2141
153	485395	15	307	15126	148420	14281	5635	1315	6328	14442	6798	2005
153.5	470539	8	284	15015	150032	13758	5565	1351	6164	15103	4990	1923
154	486523	64	354	15213	152695	14215	5612	1269	5914	14589	4607	1988
154.5	481210	29	261	15562	146482	14376	5785	1302	5323	14640	5170	1976
155	467991	0	327	15336	170782	14034	5841	1406	5629	15075	5207	2067
155.5	469975	56	300	15584	182096	13147	6430	1438	6125	14049	5189	1873
156	471395	37	279	16720	194229	11774	6803	1471	5450	14439	5203	1823
156.5	477501	0	302	18288	197068	12048	6591	1535	4971	14616	4682	2107
157	523482	55	347	20499	170957	12564	7695	1327	5763	14261	3749	2128
157.5	562125	75	315	21319	146800	13163	8550	1116	6774	12831	3166	2179
158	585796	33	310	22547	143581	13368	8412	1496	7179	11272	2246	2293
158.5	599277	34	415	23855	141372	13847	7939	1324	7736	11635	3356	2461
159	601091	94	391	24539	147310	14161	8142	1317	8253	12120	2720	2625
159.5	629929	44	395	24865	128175	14109	8606	1458	7877	11559	2054	2504
160	597756	26	352	23794	142742	13308	8280	1131	7556	11747	1925	2470
160.5	566036	84	422	23057	158839	13436	8328	1365	7562	12920	2434	2536
161	540790	41	405	22070	166685	12811	8548	1184	8111	14255	3177	2391
161.5	528695	53	398	21679	166033	12874	8014	1313	8200	15088	2138	2496
162	503522	42	401	20867	170374	12427	6972	1375	8546	16439	2092	2478
162.5	478846	0	306	19395	182523	11840	7057	945	7198	17343	2697	2488
163	455150	8	285	18238	177238	12147	6541	895	6544	20377	3096	2470
163.5	362019	35	292	14844	227991	11004	6307	3469	4690	24572	2736	2220
164	370326	60	366	15378	211966	12362	5834	1403	5021	25746	4025	2324
164.5	419618	63	334	18152	175305	11785	5569	1114	5687	25467	3650	2373
165	514766	26	373	21418	148385	12387	6655	1033	6636	22440	3958	2397
165.5	569867	60	369	22370	136729	13989	7420	1244	7245	16522	4916	2313
166	583678	93	390	22510	140647	13481	7729	1278	8129	13807	3793	2320
166.5	608566	98	336	21783	149161	12736	8166	1172	7820	11541	3102	2297

Table A.2.6 Elements of Dataset 2 for LB15-14

LB15-14								
Elemental Ratios								
Depth (mm)	Ti/Ca	Rb/Sr	Zr/Rb	Zr/K	Mn/Ca	K/Ti	Ca/Ti	Ca/Rb
108	0.059	0.381	1.032	0.371	0.029	1.393	17.004	33.959
108.5	0.062	0.404	1.136	0.420	0.032	1.450	16.111	30.087
109	0.070	0.385	1.051	0.330	0.038	1.629	14.299	27.938
109.5	0.097	0.502	0.839	0.295	0.051	1.565	10.283	18.663
110	0.139	0.789	0.286	0.117	0.080	1.682	7.178	10.419
110.5	0.130	0.870	0.175	0.072	0.080	1.815	7.720	10.346
111	0.125	0.819	0.212	0.084	0.071	1.769	8.021	11.439
111.5	0.120	0.782	0.310	0.120	0.072	1.836	8.349	11.739
112	0.112	0.749	0.268	0.104	0.063	1.719	8.948	13.364
112.5	0.138	0.834	0.257	0.102	0.076	1.824	7.245	9.955
113	0.177	1.042	0.208	0.088	0.095	1.866	5.649	7.124
113.5	0.185	1.016	0.138	0.057	0.107	1.951	5.410	6.755
114	0.179	0.962	0.191	0.075	0.100	1.879	5.602	7.564
114.5	0.161	0.840	0.303	0.119	0.087	1.769	6.205	8.912
115	0.152	0.795	0.239	0.093	0.079	1.773	6.577	9.584
115.5	0.148	0.696	0.365	0.123	0.088	1.773	6.741	11.241
116	0.150	0.734	0.316	0.113	0.081	1.751	6.684	10.627
116.5	0.145	0.769	0.295	0.113	0.082	1.726	6.911	10.428
117	0.129	0.715	0.186	0.074	0.073	1.719	7.752	11.278
117.5	0.125	0.676	0.220	0.077	0.070	1.719	7.987	13.308
118	0.123	0.624	0.384	0.141	0.067	1.637	8.151	13.527
118.5	0.116	0.573	0.349	0.127	0.069	1.665	8.646	14.295
119	0.126	0.633	0.314	0.113	0.070	1.690	7.925	13.079
119.5	0.136	0.651	0.264	0.095	0.070	1.654	7.334	12.321
120	0.135	0.683	0.328	0.131	0.069	1.602	7.424	11.638
120.5	0.147	0.628	0.370	0.132	0.077	1.655	6.803	11.516
121	0.155	0.704	0.205	0.080	0.077	1.641	6.451	10.036
121.5	0.154	0.689	0.166	0.065	0.074	1.606	6.483	10.355
122	0.145	0.659	0.339	0.125	0.077	1.636	6.887	11.369
122.5	0.148	0.640	0.254	0.092	0.071	1.562	6.747	11.884
123	0.136	0.691	0.302	0.124	0.063	1.549	7.337	11.523
123.5	0.130	0.609	0.399	0.146	0.064	1.535	7.699	13.697
124	0.130	0.595	0.307	0.112	0.065	1.450	7.675	14.502
124.5	0.120	0.579	0.363	0.136	0.066	1.474	8.341	15.057
125	0.111	0.652	0.315	0.136	0.060	1.462	8.979	14.289
125.5	0.109	0.463	0.498	0.163	0.058	1.404	9.158	19.958
126	0.112	0.516	0.463	0.165	0.054	1.345	8.954	18.686
126.5	0.108	0.489	0.468	0.172	0.055	1.338	9.226	18.740
127	0.109	0.487	0.441	0.157	0.052	1.324	9.144	19.477
127.5	0.113	0.525	0.532	0.200	0.054	1.276	8.865	18.459
128	0.112	0.488	0.593	0.215	0.050	1.250	8.919	19.656
128.5	0.110	0.475	0.520	0.191	0.052	1.268	9.102	19.529
129	0.108	0.460	0.445	0.157	0.060	1.373	9.276	19.187
129.5	0.113	0.505	0.451	0.174	0.058	1.330	8.881	17.277
130	0.111	0.533	0.511	0.196	0.058	1.350	9.044	17.472
130.5	0.109	0.480	0.621	0.210	0.063	1.374	9.191	19.836
131	0.113	0.507	0.413	0.155	0.062	1.295	8.847	18.221
131.5	0.109	0.522	0.418	0.161	0.060	1.306	9.168	18.222
132	0.099	0.463	0.676	0.235	0.054	1.340	10.055	21.600
132.5	0.093	0.482	0.585	0.226	0.049	1.280	10.796	21.833
133	0.105	0.417	0.728	0.235	0.052	1.270	9.518	23.244
133.5	0.112	0.507	0.700	0.266	0.061	1.292	8.957	18.221
134	0.125	0.511	0.526	0.209	0.062	1.220	7.987	16.449
134.5	0.124	0.461	0.592	0.210	0.061	1.205	8.064	18.828
135	0.123	0.508	0.533	0.206	0.062	1.219	8.108	17.191
135.5	0.123	0.458	0.666	0.233	0.059	1.192	8.115	19.483
136	0.115	0.499	0.720	0.285	0.055	1.194	8.665	18.348
136.5	0.112	0.472	0.766	0.303	0.055	1.214	8.922	18.562
137	0.107	0.399	0.818	0.277	0.055	1.222	9.344	22.591
137.5	0.110	0.446	0.683	0.250	0.053	1.234	9.105	20.137
138	0.111	0.429	0.800	0.267	0.050	1.235	9.047	21.932
138.5	0.111	0.389	0.889	0.282	0.050	1.216	8.973	23.235
139	0.112	0.439	0.840	0.326	0.049	1.135	8.920	20.235
139.5	0.106	0.393	0.949	0.324	0.051	1.225	9.459	22.583
140	0.104	0.460	0.758	0.280	0.053	1.364	9.571	19.017
140.5	0.103	0.497	0.635	0.243	0.051	1.425	9.738	17.845
141	0.102	0.463	0.574	0.210	0.060	1.412	9.778	18.879
141.5	0.097	0.449	0.576	0.211	0.055	1.422	10.276	19.724
142	0.102	0.449	0.586	0.219	0.050	1.354	9.836	19.465
142.5	0.103	0.438	0.649	0.236	0.054	1.348	9.712	19.811
143	0.102	0.523	0.546	0.228	0.056	1.373	9.775	17.022
143.5	0.101	0.484	0.462	0.172	0.058	1.491	9.920	17.923

Table A.2.7 Elements of Dataset 2 for LB15-14

LB15-14								
Elemental Ratios								
Depth (mm)	Ti/Ca	Rb/Sr	Zr/Rb	Zr/K	Mn/Ca	K/Ti	Ca/Ti	Ca/Rb
144	0.103	0.490	0.659	0.252	0.060	1.402	9.726	18.090
144.5	0.102	0.456	0.375	0.132	0.057	1.434	9.825	19.446
145	0.101	0.486	0.476	0.181	0.056	1.411	9.905	18.422
145.5	0.107	0.436	0.552	0.182	0.058	1.370	9.331	20.648
146	0.115	0.513	0.402	0.160	0.062	1.288	8.692	17.013
146.5	0.117	0.460	0.514	0.176	0.063	1.329	8.519	18.757
147	0.120	0.458	0.581	0.193	0.065	1.338	8.362	18.858
147.5	0.127	0.478	0.551	0.177	0.071	1.317	7.878	18.611
148	0.122	0.584	0.460	0.184	0.071	1.375	8.227	14.967
148.5	0.127	0.601	0.509	0.209	0.069	1.318	7.892	14.548
149	0.125	0.575	0.428	0.166	0.071	1.319	8.029	15.679
149.5	0.120	0.561	0.545	0.212	0.066	1.350	8.336	15.870
150	0.121	0.530	0.556	0.211	0.062	1.255	8.269	17.341
150.5	0.124	0.554	0.414	0.173	0.064	1.193	8.051	16.139
151	0.113	0.500	0.642	0.253	0.057	1.194	8.822	18.755
151.5	0.111	0.545	0.471	0.218	0.056	1.114	8.985	17.431
152	0.103	0.489	0.662	0.267	0.047	1.107	9.674	21.620
152.5	0.095	0.465	0.769	0.333	0.040	1.076	10.528	22.632
153	0.096	0.438	1.074	0.449	0.038	1.059	10.393	23.454
153.5	0.092	0.408	0.810	0.332	0.037	1.091	10.905	24.340
154	0.093	0.405	0.779	0.303	0.037	1.070	10.742	25.819
154.5	0.086	0.364	0.971	0.332	0.035	1.082	11.581	31.276
155	0.082	0.373	0.925	0.340	0.034	1.093	12.169	30.340
155.5	0.072	0.436	0.847	0.333	0.035	1.185	13.851	29.730
156	0.061	0.377	0.955	0.311	0.035	1.420	16.496	35.638
156.5	0.061	0.340	0.942	0.256	0.033	1.518	16.357	39.644
157	0.073	0.404	0.651	0.183	0.045	1.632	13.607	29.665
157.5	0.090	0.528	0.467	0.149	0.058	1.620	11.152	21.671
158	0.093	0.637	0.313	0.100	0.059	1.687	10.741	20.000
158.5	0.098	0.665	0.434	0.141	0.056	1.723	10.210	18.275
159	0.096	0.681	0.330	0.111	0.055	1.733	10.403	17.849
159.5	0.110	0.681	0.261	0.083	0.067	1.762	9.085	16.272
160	0.093	0.643	0.255	0.081	0.058	1.788	10.726	18.891
160.5	0.085	0.585	0.322	0.106	0.052	1.716	11.822	21.005
161	0.077	0.569	0.392	0.144	0.051	1.723	13.011	20.550
161.5	0.078	0.543	0.261	0.099	0.048	1.684	12.897	20.248
162	0.073	0.520	0.245	0.100	0.041	1.679	13.710	19.936
162.5	0.065	0.415	0.375	0.139	0.039	1.638	15.416	25.357
163	0.069	0.321	0.473	0.170	0.037	1.501	14.591	27.084
163.5	0.048	0.191	0.583	0.184	0.028	1.349	20.719	48.612
164	0.058	0.195	0.802	0.262	0.028	1.244	17.147	42.216
164.5	0.067	0.223	0.642	0.201	0.032	1.540	14.875	30.826
165	0.083	0.296	0.596	0.185	0.045	1.729	11.979	22.361
165.5	0.102	0.439	0.679	0.220	0.054	1.599	9.774	18.872
166	0.096	0.589	0.467	0.169	0.055	1.670	10.433	17.302
166.5	0.085	0.678	0.397	0.142	0.055	1.710	11.712	19.074

Table A.2.9 Elements of Dataset 2 for LB15-8

LB15-8								
Elemental Ratios								
Depth (mm)	Rb/Sr	Zr/Rb	Zr/K	K/Ti	Ca/Ti	Ca/Rb	Ca/Ti	Rb/Sr
182	0.793	0.182	0.079	1.685	10.136	13.793	10.136	0.793
182.5	0.445	0.417	0.163	1.588	12.963	20.840	12.963	0.445
183	0.351	0.322	0.124	1.527	13.133	22.314	13.133	0.351
183.5	0.360	0.486	0.207	1.515	12.564	19.488	12.564	0.360
184	0.387	0.466	0.198	1.493	10.634	16.776	10.634	0.387
184.5	0.481	0.326	0.147	1.550	9.819	13.988	9.819	0.481
185	0.667	0.361	0.180	1.495	7.093	9.524	7.093	0.667
185.5	0.944	0.245	0.134	1.533	5.338	6.361	5.338	0.944
186	1.065	0.213	0.100	1.647	4.793	6.191	4.793	1.065
186.5	1.124	0.227	0.105	1.706	4.465	5.686	4.465	1.124
187	1.080	0.260	0.122	1.707	4.842	6.048	4.842	1.080
187.5	0.988	0.261	0.115	1.714	5.300	7.041	5.300	0.988
188	0.865	0.293	0.116	1.725	6.119	8.929	6.119	0.865
188.5	0.784	0.236	0.084	1.760	6.736	10.802	6.736	0.784
189	0.775	0.248	0.103	1.685	7.272	10.400	7.272	0.775
189.5	0.775	0.242	0.128	1.524	8.137	10.068	8.137	0.775
190	0.577	0.431	0.242	1.365	9.093	11.864	9.093	0.577
190.5	0.641	0.463	0.230	1.511	8.336	11.099	8.336	0.641
191	0.763	0.395	0.206	1.464	7.108	9.321	7.108	0.763
191.5	0.645	0.553	0.263	1.347	6.133	9.587	6.133	0.645
192	0.619	0.604	0.291	1.360	6.128	9.343	6.128	0.619
192.5	0.601	0.782	0.357	1.382	6.308	10.010	6.308	0.601
193	0.656	0.627	0.307	1.375	6.315	9.380	6.315	0.656
193.5	0.639	0.728	0.372	1.329	5.867	8.651	5.867	0.639
194	0.635	0.629	0.345	1.278	5.749	8.195	5.749	0.635
194.5	0.703	0.748	0.447	1.362	6.405	7.868	6.405	0.703
195	0.701	0.692	0.399	1.336	6.019	7.817	6.019	0.701
195.5	0.673	0.420	0.214	1.280	5.501	8.429	5.501	0.673
196	0.701	0.426	0.205	1.355	5.645	8.673	5.645	0.701
196.5	0.700	0.535	0.245	1.382	5.865	9.251	5.865	0.700
197	0.781	0.560	0.302	1.377	5.941	8.006	5.941	0.781
197.5	0.752	0.647	0.315	1.371	5.836	8.754	5.836	0.752
198	0.738	0.527	0.259	1.368	5.946	8.842	5.946	0.738
198.5	0.704	0.635	0.279	1.446	6.242	9.814	6.242	0.704
199	0.722	0.569	0.292	1.350	6.108	8.828	6.108	0.722
199.5	0.746	0.473	0.269	1.367	6.099	7.858	6.099	0.746
200	0.694	0.592	0.298	1.333	5.741	8.560	5.741	0.694
200.5	0.665	0.562	0.284	1.279	5.579	8.637	5.579	0.665
201	0.736	0.549	0.316	1.280	5.565	7.549	5.565	0.736
201.5	0.671	0.509	0.276	1.274	5.782	8.356	5.782	0.671
202	0.738	0.653	0.352	1.299	5.861	8.371	5.861	0.738
202.5	0.653	0.595	0.257	1.377	5.972	10.020	5.972	0.653
203	0.677	0.539	0.244	1.350	6.174	10.087	6.174	0.677
203.5	0.669	0.564	0.253	1.368	6.121	9.972	6.121	0.669
204	0.715	0.518	0.242	1.348	5.849	9.275	5.849	0.715
204.5	0.644	0.659	0.280	1.417	6.387	10.618	6.387	0.644
205	0.705	0.584	0.270	1.367	6.224	9.870	6.224	0.705
205.5	0.694	0.531	0.254	1.363	6.470	9.913	6.470	0.694
206	0.769	0.598	0.329	1.387	6.780	8.867	6.780	0.769
206.5	0.668	0.697	0.312	1.402	6.639	10.579	6.639	0.668
207	0.790	0.491	0.258	1.354	6.546	9.186	6.546	0.790
207.5	0.663	0.655	0.296	1.294	6.152	10.512	6.152	0.663
208	0.670	0.669	0.336	1.318	6.192	9.339	6.192	0.670
208.5	0.617	0.741	0.356	1.305	5.625	8.979	5.625	0.617
209	0.676	0.744	0.370	1.216	5.458	9.038	5.458	0.676
209.5	0.669	0.575	0.290	1.225	5.827	9.434	5.827	0.669
210	0.501	0.833	0.333	1.195	5.600	11.706	5.600	0.501

Table A.2.10 Ratios of Dataset 2 for LB15-8

LB15-8								
Elemental Ratios								
Depth (mm)	Rb/Sr	Zr/Rb	Zr/K	K/Ti	Ca/Ti	Ca/Rb	Ca/Ti	Rb/Sr
210.5	0.648	0.757	0.393	1.180	5.512	8.982	5.512	0.648
211	0.722	0.661	0.375	1.198	5.621	8.279	5.621	0.722
211.5	0.545	0.873	0.401	1.232	5.665	10.014	5.665	0.545
212	0.597	1.002	0.453	1.310	6.000	10.124	6.000	0.597
212.5	0.589	0.661	0.339	1.282	5.797	8.813	5.797	0.589
213	0.853	0.313	0.199	1.346	6.063	7.078	6.063	0.853
213.5	0.851	0.241	0.104	1.630	5.095	7.248	5.095	0.851
214	0.812	0.225	0.088	1.722	5.060	7.533	5.060	0.812
214.5	0.899	0.222	0.100	1.666	5.788	7.741	5.788	0.899
215	1.179	0.150	0.073	1.663	4.082	5.066	4.082	1.179
215.5	1.053	0.226	0.094	1.784	3.558	4.779	3.558	1.053
216	1.003	0.257	0.100	1.870	3.812	5.251	3.812	1.003
216.5	1.154	0.153	0.057	1.937	3.024	4.188	3.024	1.154
217	1.315	0.156	0.062	1.907	3.235	4.239	3.235	1.315
217.5	1.192	0.128	0.051	1.860	3.702	5.004	3.702	1.192
218	1.061	0.191	0.070	1.825	4.134	6.177	4.134	1.061
218.5	1.019	0.279	0.098	1.829	5.047	7.882	5.047	1.019
219	0.736	0.277	0.088	1.793	9.607	16.939	9.607	0.736
219.5	0.495	0.535	0.154	1.700	15.649	32.021	15.649	0.495
220	0.575	0.297	0.118	1.595	19.163	30.270	19.163	0.575
220.5	0.773	0.309	0.129	1.714	15.041	21.009	15.041	0.773
221	0.805	0.228	0.100	1.722	8.432	11.220	8.432	0.805
221.5	0.489	0.391	0.157	1.656	9.244	13.868	9.244	0.489

Fig. A.2.1 Elemental ratios profile of LB15-15

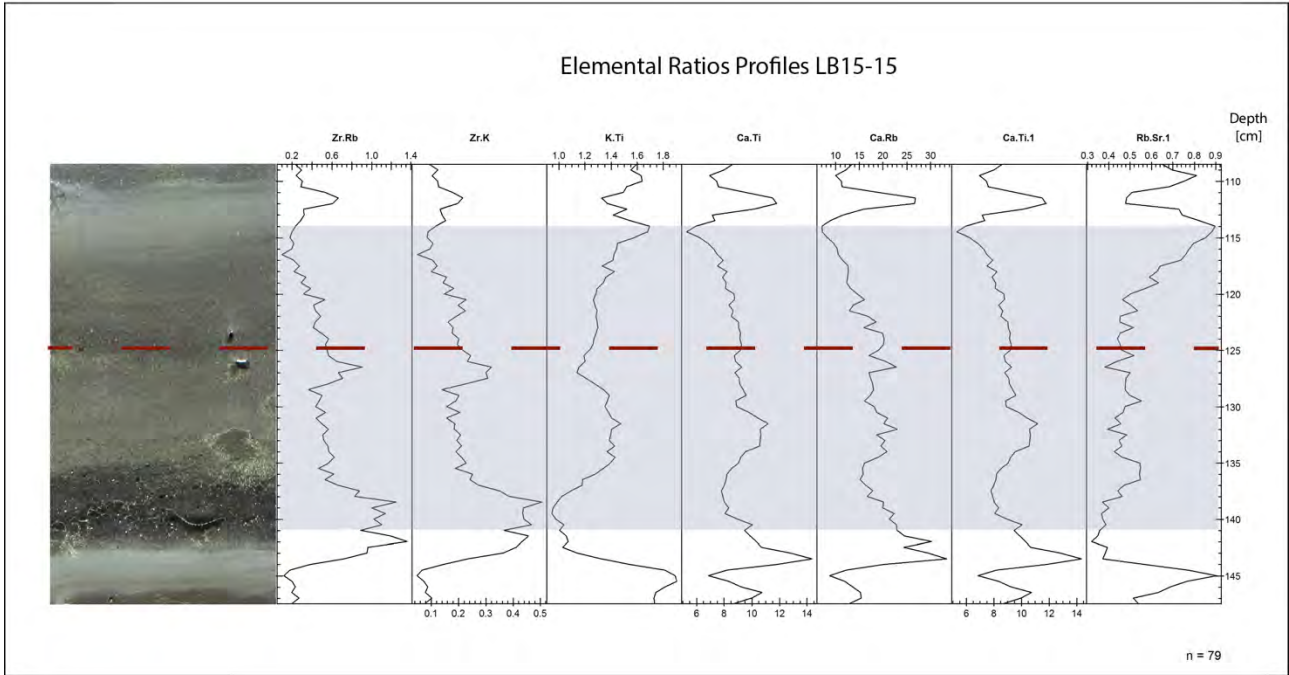


Fig. A.2.2 Broken-stick plot for LB15-14

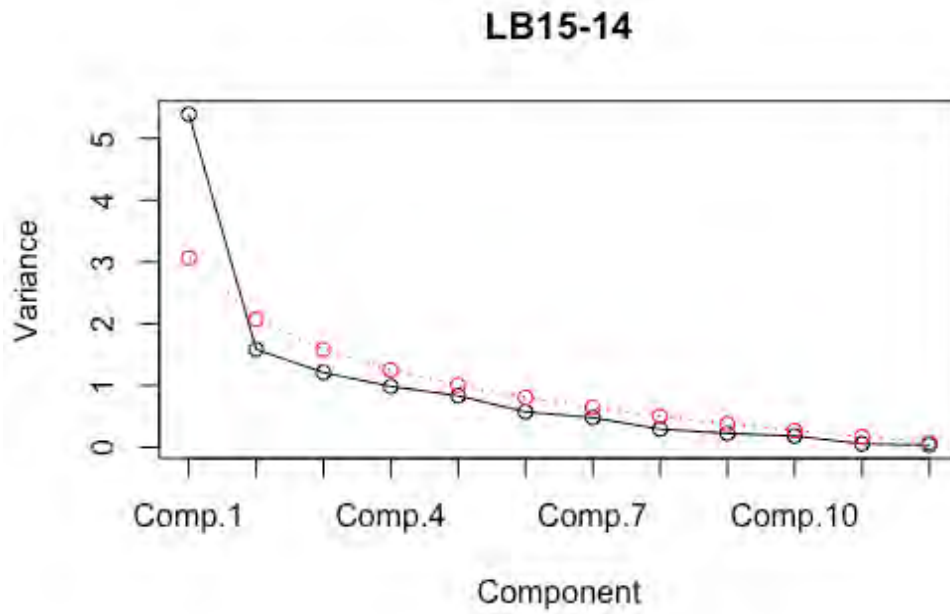


Fig. A.2.3 Broken-stick plot for LB15-15

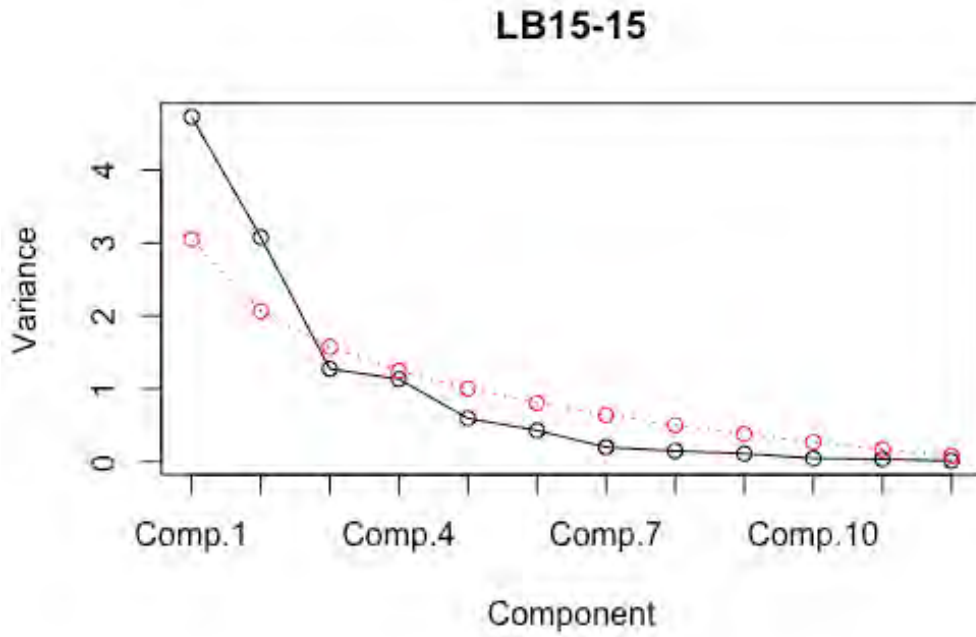


Fig. A.2.4 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 for LB15-14, sub-layer A

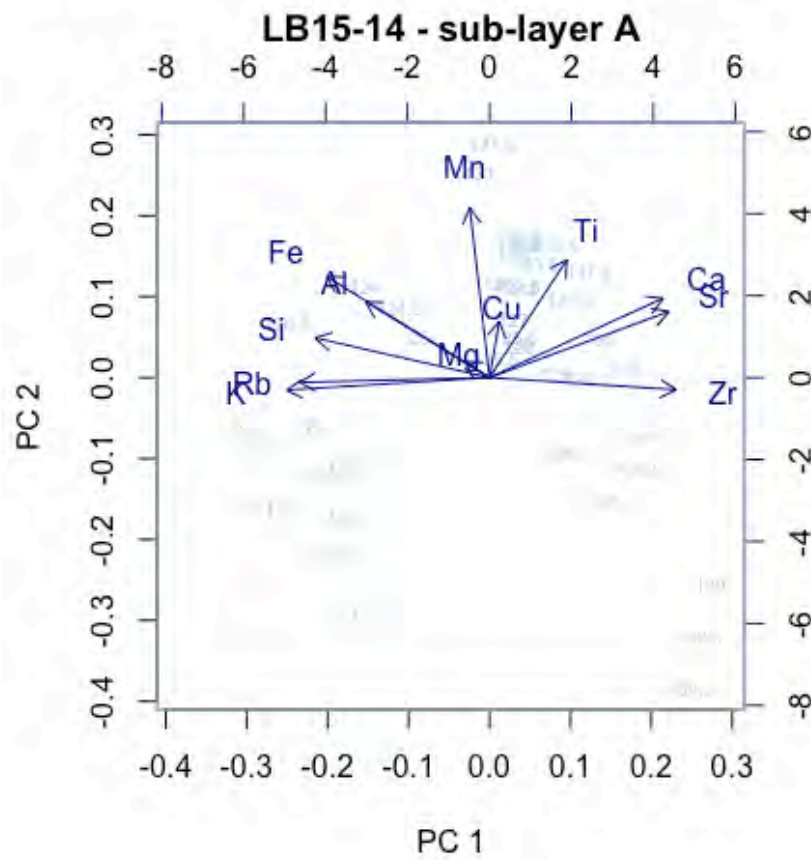


Fig. A.2.5 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 for LB15-14, sub-layer B

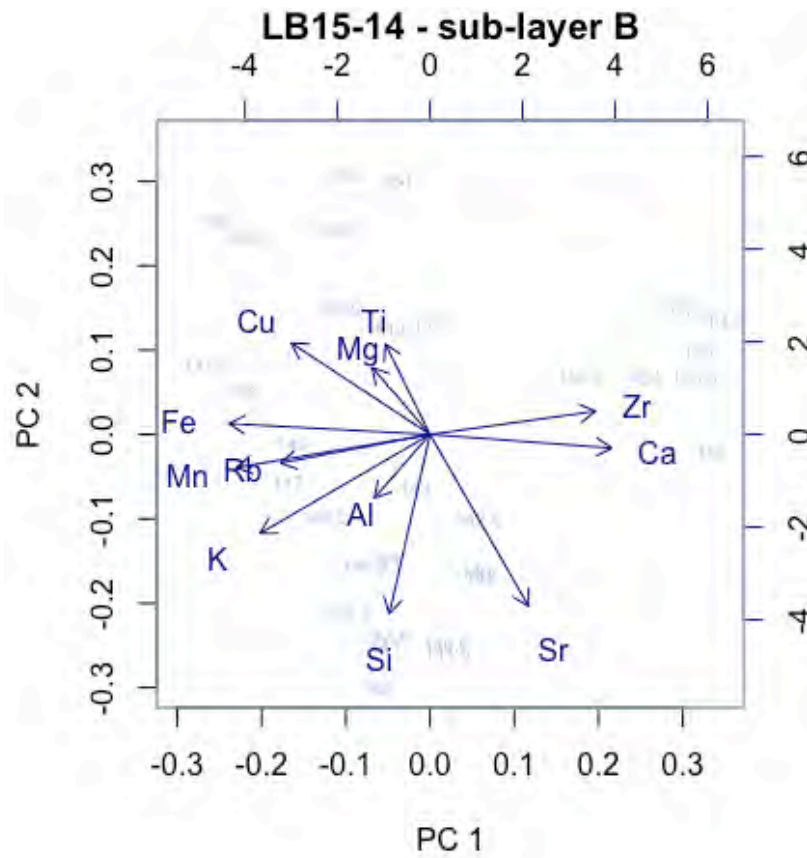


Fig. A.2.6 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 for LB15-15, sub-layer A

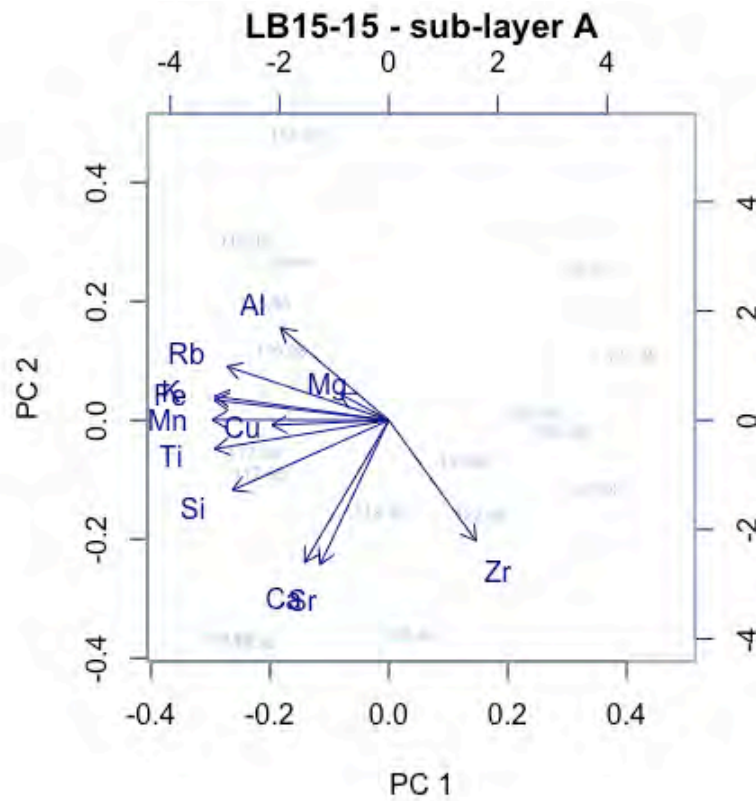


Fig. A.2.7 Biplot of PC1 and PC2 for LB15-15, sub-layer B

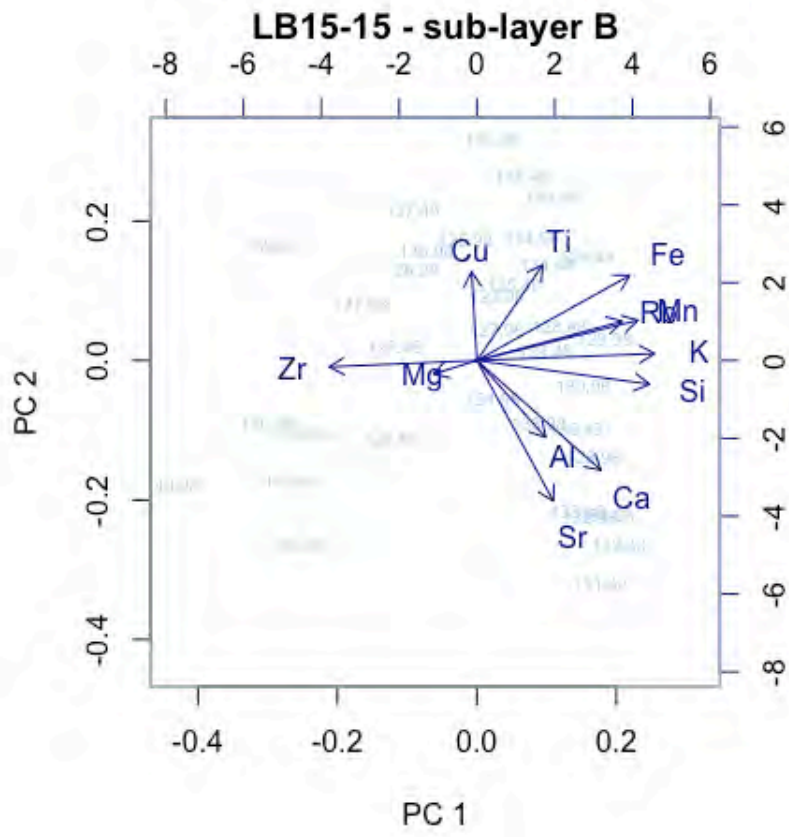


Fig. A.2.8 Broken-stick plot for LB15-8

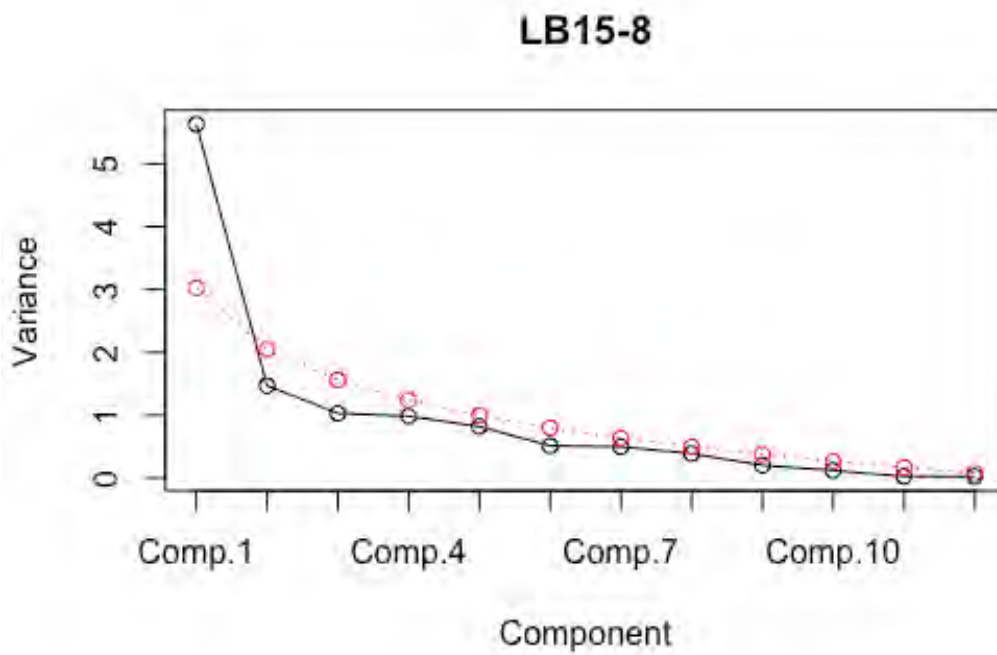


Table A.2.13 Grain size granulometric classes (clay, silt and sand) and mean grain size (microns) for LB15-2, LB15-14, LB15-15, LB15-3 and LB15-18

	Depth	Clay (0.02µm-2µm)	Silt (2.00µm-63µm)	Sand (63µm-2000µm)	Mean Grain Size
LB15-2	21	15.316	79.891	4.793	20.70
	21.25	12.611	84.781	2.608	21.70
	21.5	8.997	85.618	5.385	29.76
	21.75	7.582	84.988	7.429	34.83
	22	7.612	85.365	7.023	34.56
	22.25	7.692	84.863	7.445	34.78
	22.5	6.733	82.905	10.362	35.40
	22.75	5.627	76.425	17.948	49.19
	23	5.96	76.301	17.739	48.63
	23.25	6.491	79.617	13.892	59.56
	23.5	6.798	82.453	10.749	44.65
	23.75	6.537	80.991	12.472	40.32
	24	6.646	81.017	12.337	42.76
	24.25	7.571	80.347	12.082	43.31
24.5	8.102	78.16	13.738	59.34	
LB15-14	11.75	19.712	70.466	9.822	21.93
	12	17.88	77.379	4.741	19.56
	12.25	16.105	78.262	5.633	21.22
	12.5	15.868	81.915	2.216	18.25
	12.75	11.149	78.057	10.794	29.81
	13	9.414	82.244	8.342	31.82
	13.25	8.104	82.809	9.086	35.35
	13.5	7.664	82.422	9.914	36.64
	13.75	6.634	83.55	9.817	38.61
	14	5.825	76.587	17.589	48.56
	14.25	5.802	74.791	19.407	50.73
	14.5	6.806	77.67	15.524	44.60
	14.75	7.357	80.175	12.469	40.60
	15	6.864	79.44	13.696	42.46
15.25	6.979	78.079	14.942	43.15	
15.5	5.014	70.182	24.805	59.03	
15.75	4.126	66.926	28.948	69.63	
LB15-15	11.5	15.9	81.591	2.509	19.62
	11.75	10.03	84.976	4.994	28.06
	12	6.938	80.679	12.383	39.61
	12.25	6.634	82.495	10.87	39.95
	12.5	6.714	79.369	13.917	43.24
	12.75	7.306	81.732	10.961	39.80
	13	7.396	84.647	7.956	36.98
	13.25	6.141	77.434	16.425	46.71
	13.5	4.451	66.02	29.529	68.50
	13.75	2.801	56.294	40.904	95.82
	14	3.314	56.387	40.299	92.41
LB15-3	2.75	11.404	82.202	6.394	28.71
	3	8.705	83.374	7.922	33.88
	3.25	8.312	83.476	8.212	34.61
	3.5	7.603	82.562	9.835	37.41
	3.75	6.005	77.766	16.229	47.80
	4	5.509	75.681	18.81	54.15
	4.25	5.588	76.574	17.838	52.62
	4.5	3.697	60.309	35.994	79.15
4.75	2.047	56.403	41.55	98.54	
LB15-18	4.75	9.333	73.747	16.92	39.35
	5	4.241	57.334	38.425	74.73
	5.25	3.747	46.712	49.542	62.56
	5.5	2.269	31.786	65.945	52.18
	5.75	1.234	21.405	77.361	58.72
6	4.284	40.724	54.992	77.43	

Table A.2.14 Grain size granulometric classes (silt, clay and sand) and mean grain size (microns) for LB15-19, LB15-7, LB15-8 and LB15-20

	Depth	Clay (0.02µm-2µm)	Silt (2.00µm-63µm)	Sand (63µm-2000µm)	Mean Grain Size
LB15-19	10.75	5.567	67.735	26.699	58.95
	11	4.469	62.002	33.529	65.94
	11.25	3.495	47.718	48.787	62.78
	11.5	1.236	30.061	68.703	115.3
	11.75	1.078	28.568	70.354	151.7
	12	1.194	28.218	70.588	156.3
	12.25	10.915	66.227	22.858	37.42
	12.5	14.134	75.034	10.832	26.02
LB15-7	17.25	12.632	80.945	6.423	25.63
	17.5	6.436	75.425	18.139	48.25
	17.75	6.275	76.147	17.578	48.48
	18	5.885	74.349	19.765	51.26
	18.25	6.102	71.159	22.74	55.16
	18.5	5.285	65.222	29.493	66.11
	18.75	5.599	65.438	28.963	65.61
	19	4.715	55.618	39.667	86.58
LB15-8	19.25	7.623	76.291	16.086	41.88
	19.5	6.298	71.824	21.878	53.28
	19.75	6.195	76.283	17.522	48.65
	20	5.964	75.21	18.826	50.31
	20.25	5.27	64.474	30.256	66.54
	20.5	5.703	64.958	29.339	63.93
	20.75	5.232	62.193	32.574	71.06
	21	9.354	67.788	22.858	43.59
	21.25	18.062	77.826	4.113	18.30
LB15-20	14.5	10.786	80.22	8.993	29.67
	14.75	5.259	69.378	25.363	58.62
	15	4.511	62.598	32.891	69.36
	15.25	2.055	42.017	55.928	120.6
	15.5	2.125	40.573	57.302	118.6

Table A.2.15 Organic Matter and Calcite percentages for the 2005 layer in all the 9 cores

	Depth (cm)	TOC	TIC	OM (%)	Calcite (%)
LB15-2	21	0.716	2.806	1.217	23.374
	21.25	0.903	1.861	1.536	15.505
	21.5	1.212	2.178	2.060	18.147
	21.75	1.290	2.436	2.193	20.291
	22	1.216	2.469	2.068	20.566
	22.25	1.469	2.246	2.498	18.708
	22.5	1.389	2.176	2.362	18.122
	22.75	1.472	2.208	2.502	18.394
	23	1.274	2.357	2.165	19.636
	23.25	1.131	2.358	1.923	19.641
	23.5	1.206	3.289	2.050	27.399
	23.75	1.275	2.175	2.167	18.115
	24	1.368	2.079	2.326	17.322
	24.25	1.295	2.244	2.201	18.693
24.5	1.204	2.338	2.047	19.473	
LB15-14	11.75	1.144	1.231	1.945	10.257
	12	0.984	1.833	1.672	15.268
	12.25	1.142	1.870	1.941	15.573
	12.5	1.125	1.566	1.913	13.043
	12.75	1.190	1.666	2.024	13.874
	13	1.249	2.268	2.123	18.892
	13.25	1.317	2.427	2.239	20.217
	13.5	1.288	2.422	2.189	20.176
	13.75	1.494	2.176	2.540	18.123
	14	1.579	2.122	2.684	17.678
	14.25	1.522	2.164	2.587	18.023
	14.5	1.443	2.173	2.453	18.101
	14.75	1.368	2.118	2.325	17.642
	15	1.575	2.112	2.677	17.593
15.25	1.502	2.256	2.554	18.793	
15.5	1.308	2.161	2.224	18.005	
15.75	1.212	3.024	2.061	25.190	
LB15-15	11.5	0.924	1.716	1.571	14.293
	11.75	1.232	2.102	2.094	17.514
	12	1.298	2.442	2.207	20.345
	12.25	1.420	2.261	2.414	18.834
	12.5	1.258	2.427	2.138	20.220
	12.75	1.217	2.436	2.069	20.289
	13	1.119	2.501	1.902	20.836
	13.25	1.388	2.239	2.360	18.647
	13.5	1.919	2.246	3.263	18.705
	13.75	2.190	2.520	3.723	20.989
14	2.234	2.431	3.797	20.247	
LB15-3	2.75	1.098	1.970	1.867	16.412
	3	1.189	2.246	2.022	18.705
	3.25	1.085	2.179	1.844	18.149
	3.5	1.128	2.384	1.917	19.860
	3.75	1.159	2.327	1.970	19.380
	4	0.905	2.177	1.538	18.132
	4.25	0.896	1.418	1.523	11.808
4.5	1.310	2.056	2.226	17.126	
4.75	1.156	2.448	1.965	20.390	
LB15-18	4.75	1.426	1.533	2.424	12.767
	5	1.856	1.123	3.155	9.354
	5.25	3.299	1.540	5.608	12.831
	5.5	3.988	1.105	6.780	9.202
	5.75	5.181	2.578	8.808	21.473
6	2.379	0.815	4.044	6.785	

	Depth (cm)	TOC	TIC	OM (%)	Calcite (%)
LB15-19	10.75	1.208	1.5631976	2.053	13.021
	11	1.435	1.4103255	2.439	11.748
	11.25	1.244	1.4324642	2.115	11.932
	11.5	0.464	0.7559038	0.788	6.297
	11.75	0.932	0.956351	1.585	7.966
	12	0.355	0.9911123	0.603	8.256
	12.25	0.628	1.1454309	1.067	9.541
12.5	0.873	1.2930888	1.483	10.771	
LB15-7	17.25	1.069	1.655	1.818	13.789
	17.5	1.456	1.322	2.475	11.015
	17.75	1.512	1.134	2.570	9.449
	18	1.435	1.321	2.440	11.003
	18.25	1.555	1.421	2.643	11.833
	18.5	1.595	1.248	2.711	10.398
	18.75	1.958	1.149	3.329	9.569
19	1.900	0.925	3.230	7.708	
LB15-8	19.25	1.322	1.643	2.247	13.682
	19.5	1.756	1.136	2.985	9.467
	19.75	1.703	1.167	2.895	9.720
	20	1.589	1.182	2.701	9.843
	20.25	2.112	0.907	3.590	7.555
	20.5	2.233	1.116	3.797	9.293
	20.75	1.799	1.325	3.059	11.040
21	1.097	1.134	1.865	9.449	
21.25	1.064	0.900	1.809	7.499	
LB15-20	14.25	0.839	1.286	1.427	10.716
	14.5	0.853	1.662	1.450	13.848
	14.75	1.363	1.158	2.318	9.646
	15	1.137	0.975	1.934	8.123
	15.25	1.094	0.919	1.860	7.659
15.5	1.039	0.752	1.767	6.265	

Declaration of Consent

On the basis of Art. 28 Para. 2 RSL 05

Last, first name: Motta, Danae

Matriculation number: 11-417-706

Programme: Master in Climate Science

Bachelor

Master

Dissertation

Thesis title: Signature of the 2005 Flood Event in the Sediments of Lake Brienz:
Implications for Flood Reconstructions

Thesis supervisor: Prof. Flavio Anselmetti

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text. In accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work. I am well aware of the fact that, on the basis of Article 36 Paragraph 1 Letter o of the University Law of 5 September 1996, the Senate is entitled to deny the title awarded on the basis of this work if proven otherwise. I grant inspection of my thesis.

.....
Place, date

.....
Signature