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# Sediments of Lake Vens (SW European Alps, France) record large-magnitude earthquake events

Jade Petersen · Bruno Wilhelm · Marie Revel · Yann Rolland ·  
Christian Crouzet · Fabien Arnaud · Elodie Brisset ·  
Eric Chaumillon · Olivier Magand

**Abstract** We studied sediment cores from Lake Vens (2,327 m asl), in the Tinée Valley of the SW Alps, to test the paleoseismic archive potential of the lake sediments in this particularly earthquake-sensitive area. The historical earthquake catalogue shows that moderate to strong earthquakes, with intensities of IX–X, have impacted the Southern Alps during the last millennium. Sedimentological (X-ray images, grain size distribution) and geochemical (major elements and organic matter) analyses show that Lake Vens sediments consist of a terrigenous, silty material (minerals and organic matter) sourced from the watershed and diatom frustules. A combination of

X-ray images, grain-size distribution, major elements and magnetic properties shows the presence of six homogenite-type deposits interbedded in the sedimentary background. These sedimentological features are ascribed to sediment reworking and grain sorting caused by earthquake-generated seiches. The presence of microfaults that cross-cut the sediment supports the hypothesis of seismic deposits in this system. A preliminary sediment chronology is provided by  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  measurement and AMS  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages. According to the chronology, the most recent homogenite events are attributable to damaging historic earthquakes in AD 1887 (Ligure) and 1564 (Roquebillière). Hence, the Lake Vens sediment recorded large-magnitude

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earthquakes in the region and permits a preliminary estimate of recurrence time for such events of  $\sim 400$  years.

**Keywords** Homogenites · Paleo-earthquakes · Lake sediments · High altitude · SW European Alps

## Introduction

For several decades, lacustrine sediments have been recognized as recorders of earthquakes in seismically active areas (Seilacher 1969; Beck et al. 1996; Chapron et al. 1999; Alfaro et al. 1999; Rodriguez-Pascua et al. 2000; Arnaud et al. 2002; Strasser et al. 2006; Wilhelm et al. 2013). Establishment of a detailed chronology of earthquakes in seismically active areas is a critical objective to estimate the recurrence time of high-magnitude events. Earthquakes can be recorded in lacustrine sediments by different types of deposits, such as debris flows (Arnaud et al. 2002; Nomade et al. 2005; Strasser et al. 2006), turbidites (Shiki et al. 2000; Strasser et al. 2006), homogenites (Chapron et al. 1999; Beck 2009) or deformation structures like liquefaction structures or microfaults (Beck et al. 1996; Monecke et al. 2004). Whatever the form, formation and preservation of earthquake records in lacustrine sediments depends on several factors (Sims 1973, 1975): (1) the nature of the sediment, mainly its water content and grain size (Plaziat and Ahmamous 1998; Jewell and Ettensohn 2004; Monecke et al. 2004), (2) distance from the epicenter (Ambraseys 1988; Obermeier 1996; Strasser et al. 2006) and (3) earthquake magnitude (Rodriguez-Pascua et al. 2000).

This paper presents results from a multi-proxy study of sediment cores from Lake Vens, located in an area subject to ongoing seismic activity, in the southwestern Alps. The active Jausiers-Tinée fault is about 2 km NW of the lake, which is characterized by a swarm of microseismicity (Jenatton et al. 2007) and Quaternary tectonic offsets of geomorphology (Sanchez et al. 2010a, 2010b; Darnault et al. 2012). The main objective of this study was to test if historically documented macro-seismic events were recorded by the Lake Vens sediments. If Lake Vens sediment proves to record earthquakes, it will be a useful tool for

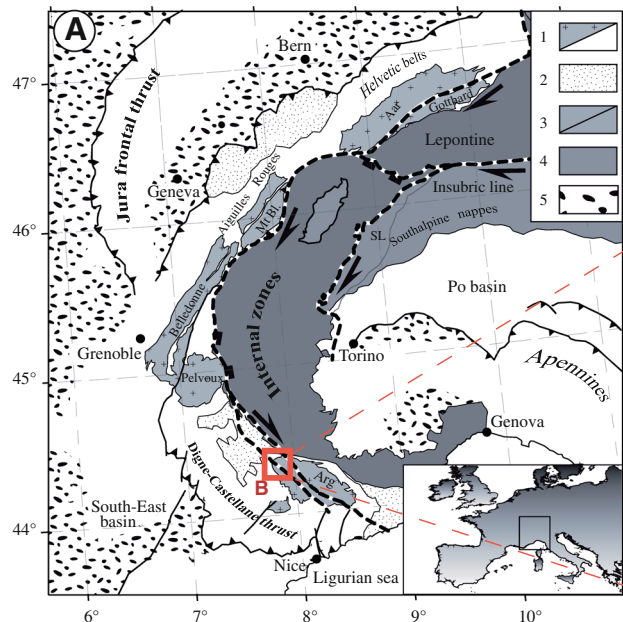
paleoseismic documentation of major earthquake recurrence during the Holocene.

## Regional seismic hazard and vulnerability

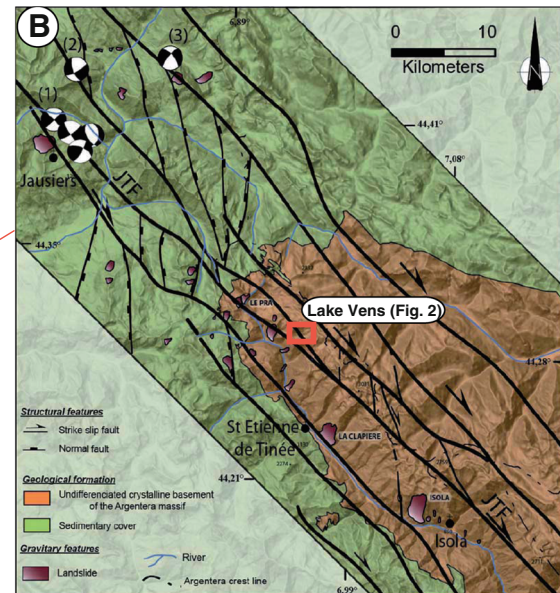
The Alpes Maritimes is one of the most seismically active regions in the southwestern Alps, characterized by historical  $M_w > 6$  and ongoing  $M_w < 4$  earthquakes (Courboulès et al. 2003). The most damaging known event was the AD 1564 Roquebillière earthquake, with an estimated maximum epicentre MSK intensity of IX–X (Boschi et al. 1997; Lambert and Levret 1996; Laurenti 1998). Such strong earthquakes are considered to have recurrence intervals of hundreds to thousands of years (GEMEP 2005). These seismogenic hazards produce high risk because of the dense urbanization of the Mediterranean coast. Previous mapping studies and monitoring of seismic activity over 30 years identified many active faults (Courboulès et al. 2003; Sanchez et al. 2010a, 2010b; Larroque et al. 2011; Bauve et al. 2012). Vulnerability analysis, mainly for the city of Nice and its surroundings, has been undertaken in recent years, and is already acknowledged by several organizations such as the BRGM (Bureau des Recherches Géologiques et Minières), the IRSN (Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire) and the CETE (Centre d'Études Techniques de l'Équipement) for risk assessment. Monitoring of seismic activity, however, does not enable the estimation of recurrence time for large seismic events, which may be  $>1$  ka. Hence, the historic earthquake record is not long enough to determine the frequency of large-magnitude events. Therefore, geological archives such as lake sediments must be investigated to produce reliable seismic-hazard and related risk assessments.

## Lake Vens geological context

Lake Vens ( $44^{\circ}18'40N$ ,  $6^{\circ}55'56E$ , 2,327 m asl) is located in the Argentera-Mercantour massif along the Tinée Valley (Alpes Maritimes, France), in the southwestern Alps (Fig. 1a). This high-altitude massif is composed mainly of Hercynian crystalline rocks (granite and gneiss), affected by strong localized deformations in narrow fault corridors. This deformation is linked to the formation of the Alpine chain (Sanchez et al. 2011a, 2010b) and it is currently

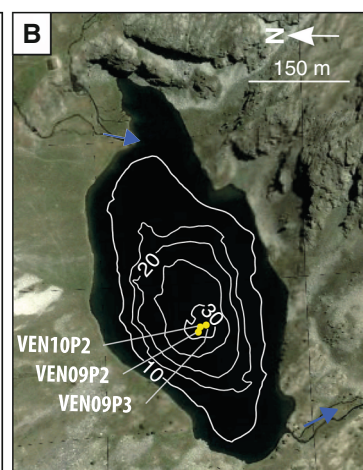
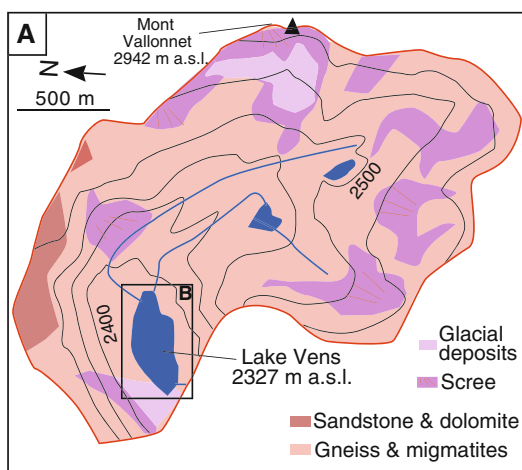


**Fig. 1 a** Schematic geological map of the western Alps, with location of the study area (**b** enlarged on the left). External Alps comprise: (1) Hercynian crystalline basement (crosses) and its autochthonous Mesozoic sedimentary cover (white); (2) The transported klippe of Helminthoid Upper Cretaceous flysch and Internal Briançonnais and Penninic units. Internal Alps comprise: (3) Briançonnais and Piemontais zones, which are made of variably metamorphosed rocks from the continental European margin and the Alpine Tethys oceanic domain; (4) the Austro-Alpine units comprising the Dent Blanche klippe and the



Apulian margin. (5) Molasse sediments deposited during the Oligocene to Pliocene lie in the periphery of the Alps. **b** Simplified structural map of the northwest part of the Argentera-Mercantour massif (after Sanchez et al. 2010a, b, 2011a, b). The red frame shows the location of Lake Vens, the map of which is displayed in Fig. 2. Focal mechanisms highlight (1) the seismic swarm of the 2003–2004 Jausiers Seismic crisis, (2) earthquake of 26 February 2012 (Mw: 4.7) and (3) earthquake of 1959 (Mw: 5.5)

**Fig. 2 a** Geological and geomorphological characteristics of the Lake Vens catchment (2,300 m asl) **b** Bathymetric map of the lake and location of the VEN09P3, VEN09P2 and VEN10P2 cores



minor presence of sedimentary rocks (sandstone and dolomite) (Fig. 2a). Because of the high elevation, the catchment is covered by sparse grassy vegetation, and by snow from November to May. During this period, the lake's surface is frozen and, hence, sediment input occurs mainly during summer and early autumn. At this high elevation and given the Mediterranean climate, spring, summer and autumn floods control lake-watershed hydrology, a consequence of snow-melt and abundant rainfall. Two tributaries drain the catchment area and enter the east side of the lake (Fig. 2b). The lake is 270 m wide, 600 m long, has an area of 0.1 km<sup>2</sup> and is composed of two main sedimentary sub-basins. The smaller sub-basin is located in the eastern part of the lake in front of the delta and corresponds to a platform at 15 m maximum depth. The main sub-basin is located at the centre of the lake and has a maximum depth of 32 m.

## Materials and methods

### Coring

In 2009 and 2010, we used a gravity corer to retrieve three sediment cores (VEN09P3, VEN09P2 and VEN10P2), 168, 152 and 51 cm long, respectively. Cores were collected from the deepest sub-basin (Fig. 2b).

### Sedimentology and geochemistry

Scopix X-ray spectrometry, coupled to an image intensifier and a 16-bit CCD camera (Bordeaux University), was used to study the sedimentary structure of VEN09P3. Variables such as lithology, grain size, water content, porosity and compaction control the X-ray response (Migeon et al. 1999). Major elements were semi-quantitatively determined at 1-mm resolution by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectrometry using an Avaatech XRF Core Scanner at Bordeaux University. Grain size of VEN09P3 was measured with a Coulter LS200 laser-diffraction particle analyzer at the Geoazur Laboratory (Nice, Sophia Antipolis University), using a 5-mm sampling step. Organic geochemistry was determined at a sampling step of 5 cm, using a Rock-Eval pyrolyser (Orléans University). Hydrogen Index (HI) and Oxygen Index (OI) were calculated from the assessment of

the Total Organic Content (TOC) and its temperature peak during pyrolysis (S2 and S3), following Meyers and Lallier-Vergès (1999) and Disnar et al. (2003). HI represents the quantity of hydrocarbon products rejected during the pyrolysis, whereas OI is linked to oxygen quantity.

### Magnetic properties

To identify homogenite-type deposits that might be related to paleo-earthquakes, measures of several magnetic variables were made following the method of Campos et al. (2013). Seventy-eight cubic sub-samples (edge = 2.1 cm) and a U-channel (1.5 m long) were collected from core VEN09P2 to measure anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility and remanent magnetization. All magnetic measurements were carried out in the CEREGE Laboratory of Magnetism (Aix-Marseille University). The AGICO MFK1-FA Kappabridge (spinning method) was used for measurements of anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility. To identify magnetism-carrying particles and possible impact on anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility, laboratory Isothermal and Anhysteretic Remanent Magnetizations (IRM and ARM, respectively) were imparted and then demagnetized using alternative field (AF) (Campos et al. 2013). Remanent magnetizations were measured after each AF step using a superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) pass-through magnetometer (2G 760R), located in a shielded room.

### Chronology

The uppermost 21 cm of the VEN09P3 sediment core were sampled following a regular 1-cm sampling step for radionuclide measurements. Activity of <sup>210</sup>Pb was measured by gamma spectrometry at the Laboratory of Glaciology and Geophysics of the Environment (LGGE), following the initial procedure described by Gaggeler et al. (1976). The <sup>210</sup>Pb was used to determine sedimentation rate over the last century. Excess <sup>210</sup>Pb at each depth was calculated as the difference between total <sup>210</sup>Pb and <sup>226</sup>Ra activity. We then applied the Constant Flux/Constant Sedimentation (CFCSS) model to the excess <sup>210</sup>Pb distribution to calculate dates and sedimentation rates (Goldberg 1963).

Five samples of undifferentiated terrestrial vegetal remains were selected for AMS <sup>14</sup>C analysis at the



**Table 1** VEN09P3 and VEN10P2 core radiocarbon chronology

Code lab	Core	Core depth (cm)	Composite depth (cm) for VEN09P3	Material	Age 14C AMS conv. BP	Date error	Cal. years BP ( $\pm 2$ sigmas)
<i>SacA22282</i>	<i>VEN09P3</i>	38	31	<i>Vegetal remains undiff.</i>	470	30	495–540
Poz34153	VEN09P3	93	72.5	Vegetal remains undiff.	1,155	30	980–1,171
SacA22284	VEN09P3	153	111.5	Vegetal remains undiff.	2,470	30	2,365–2,711
<i>SacA31217</i>	<i>VEN10P2</i>	37	25.5	<i>Coleopter remains</i>	355	45	313–497
SacA28193	VEN10P2	42	27.5	Vegetal remains undiff.	300	30	297–459

Radiocarbon dating was performed at the Laboratoire de Mesure du Carbone 14-Saclay by the national facility LM14C in the framework of INSU ARTEMIS call-for-proposal and Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory. The composite depth was calculated by removing the six H layers, which correspond to instantaneous deposits. See text for explanations on the nature of samples and the calibration procedures. Rejected dates are indicated in *italics*

French national facility LMC14 (UMS 2572) at Saclay and Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory (Table 1).  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages were calibrated using the Intcal09 calibration curve (Reimer et al. 2009; Table 1) and an age model was generated using the R-code package “clam” (Blauw 2010).

## Results

### Sedimentological and geochemical features of Lake Vens sediments

Sediment facies were defined using both macroscopic visual observation and X-ray images (Fig. 3). The sediment is composed of irregular, mm-scale laminae, in which eight to ten homogenous deposits are interbedded (grey patterns in Fig. 3). Among them, two homogenous deposits are highlighted by bright X-ray images at 40–55 and 120–130 cm depth in VEN09P3. Brighter colour indicates less dense sediments (Migeon et al. 1999) for these two layers designated D1 and D2, respectively. By contrast, six homogenous deposits appear opaque, and hence denser, in the X-ray images at depths of 11–13, 32–38, 81–84, 86–95, 104–110 and 141–153 cm. They are designated H1, H2, H3, H4, H5 and H6, respectively. Two additional deposits appear opaque at depths of 7–8 and 17–18 cm. They are, however, too thin to allow identification of the homogenous characteristic of the thicker H layers. X-ray images also revealed four microfaults ( $>1$  cm) between 78 and 118 cm depth. The grain-size distribution curve indicates two dominant modes, at 40 and 150  $\mu\text{m}$ . Based on observations of smear slides, the 40- $\mu\text{m}$

mode corresponds mainly to mineral fragments such as quartz, mica and feldspar, and the detrital fraction weathered from the basement gneiss in the catchment and delivered to the lake by river inflow. The abundant 150- $\mu\text{m}$  fraction is composed mainly of centric diatom frustules (single diatom diameter around 150  $\mu\text{m}$ , colony length to 2 mm). This mode is particularly well represented in the D layers, in which diatoms were notably abundant in smear slides. Furthermore, H layers show specific grain-size features, particularly in the thickest layers (H2, H4, H5 and H6), with (1) a coarse base ( $Q_{50} > 60 \mu\text{m}$ ) of  $<1$  cm (red curves in the frequency distribution curve, Fig. 3) because of a dominant sandy mineral fraction, (2) a main layer characterized by homogenous grain size and (3) a fine, whitish clay cap on the top of the homogenous layer of  $<1$  cm (blue curves in the frequency distribution curve, Fig. 3).

The plot of Si/K versus Ca/K (Fig. 4) displays a negative correlation, suggesting that the sediment of Lake Vens is mainly made up of biogenic silica, in particular diatom frustules, and river-borne lithogenic material. Si/K is thus an appropriate geochemical proxy to highlight variability in diatom abundance throughout the core (Fig. 5). The Si/K ratio is  $< 1$  throughout the entire core, except in the D1 and D2 layers (Fig. 5). This pattern is in agreement with the increase in observable diatoms (Fig. 4). In contrast, Ca/K is unrelated to any biogenic fraction, because neither ostracods nor limestone fragments, as revealed by negative HCl tests, are observed in smear slides. Enrichment in Ca is ascribed to the terrigenous fraction, constituted by plagioclase feldspar, whereas K is present in two micas, biotite and muscovite. Consequently, mm-scale Ca/K variability could be



◀ **Fig. 3** Sedimentological features (X-ray images and grain size) of the VEN09P3 core, foliation parameter of the VEN09P2 core and stratigraphic correlation between the VEN09P3, VEN09P2 and VEN10P2 (photo before and after oxidation) cores. For the frequency curve of the VEN09P3 grain size, the *blue lines* emphasize the top of the H layers (fine mode) and the *red lines* emphasize the bottom (coarse mode). Homogenous deposits are called H and D. Enlargement of the microfaults is shown in *red*.  $^{14}\text{C}$ -date depths from the VEN09P3 and VEN10P2 cores are indicated by *white stars*

related to grain-size distribution resulting from changes in transport energy (Wilhelm et al. 2012a). The most striking geochemical feature is the almost constant Ca/K ratio observed in the H layers (Fig. 5). Increases in sulphur and TOC are documented in the two D layers (5 % TOC in D1 and 7 % TOC in D2). In contrast, sulphur and TOC (<2 %) contents are low in the six H layers. In the HI versus OI diagram (Fig. 6), samples are distributed between type II (algal) and type III (vascular plant) organic matter as defined by Espitalie et al. (1985) in Meyers and Lallier-Vergès (1999). Hence, the D layers appear to be enriched in autochthonous organic matter, whereas the organic-poor H layers appear to contain mainly allochthonous organic matter.

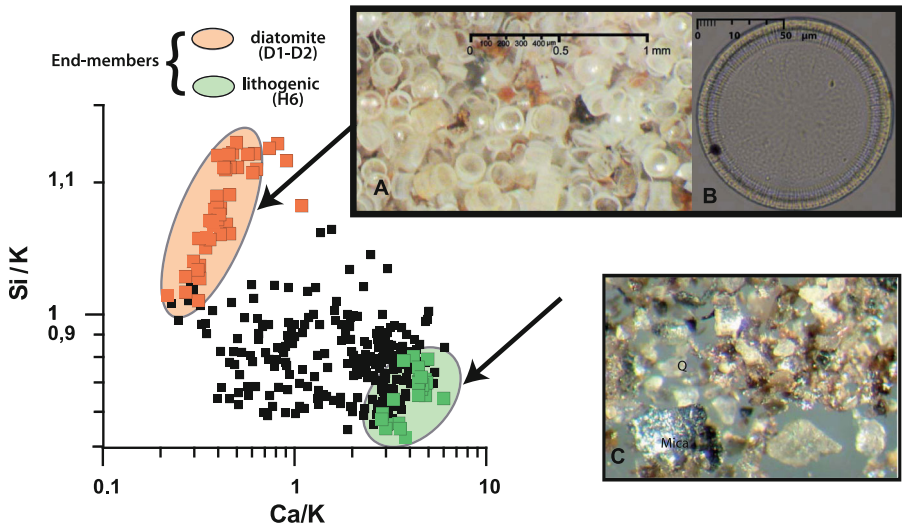
### Magnetic properties

The minimum axes of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility are well grouped and present an average

inclination of  $73.1^\circ \pm 5.8^\circ$ . The clustering of the minimum axis, close to the vertical, implies good preservation of primary sedimentary structures. Only a few samples in the uppermost part of the core deviate from this average, probably because of their high water content, which makes good preservation of structures during the coring and/or sub-sampling processes very difficult. As a result, samples from the uppermost part of the core were not considered in this study.

Laboratory remanent magnetization analyses show a very constant mean destructive field of  $36 \pm 3$  and  $34 \pm 2$  mT for ARM and IRM, respectively. It implies that magnetic mineralogy is constant and dominated by magnetite. Variations in the intensity of ARM and IRM are probably a consequence of small changes in the amount of magnetite in the sediment. No clear relation between variation of magnetization parameters and the foliation parameter of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (F) was observed. Therefore, the shape of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility ellipsoid is probably caused by the orientation of clay minerals.

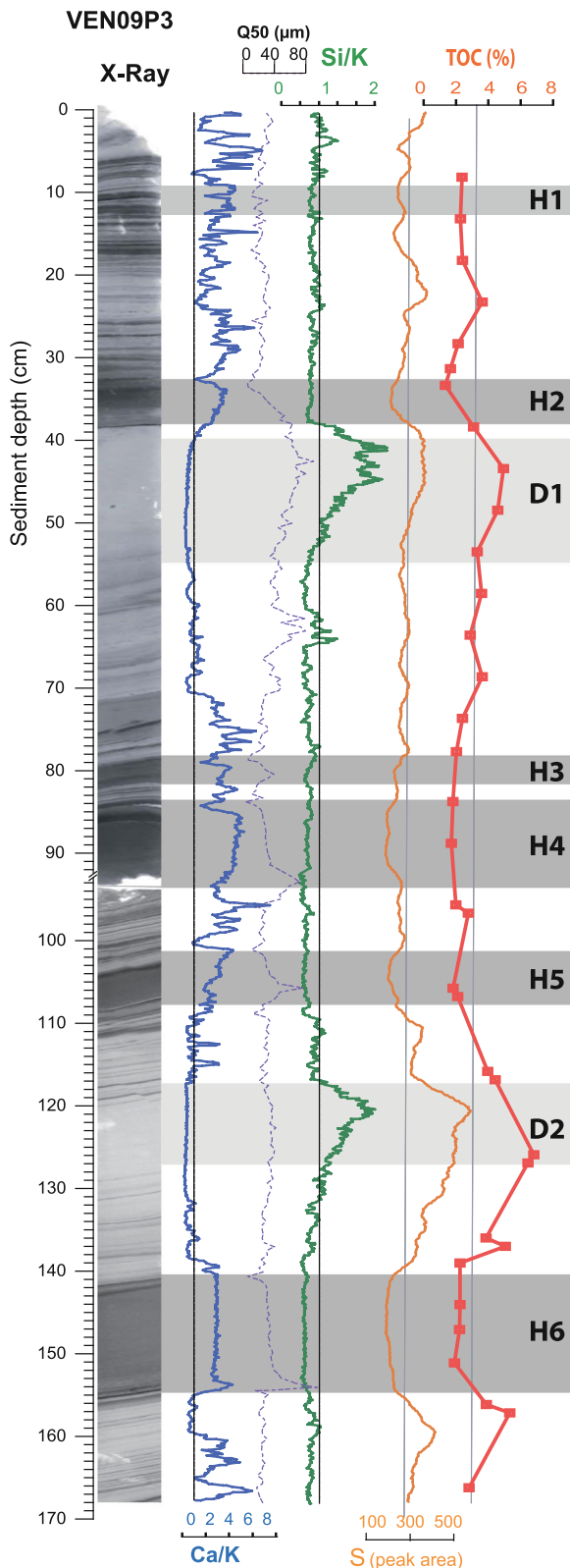
In the studied section, the lineation parameter of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility is relatively low and constant ( $1.009 \pm 0.007$ ), whereas the F parameter shows low values ( $1.014 \pm 0.009$ ), except in the H layers, where values are  $>1.02$  (Fig. 3). Large variations and anomalously high F values with respect



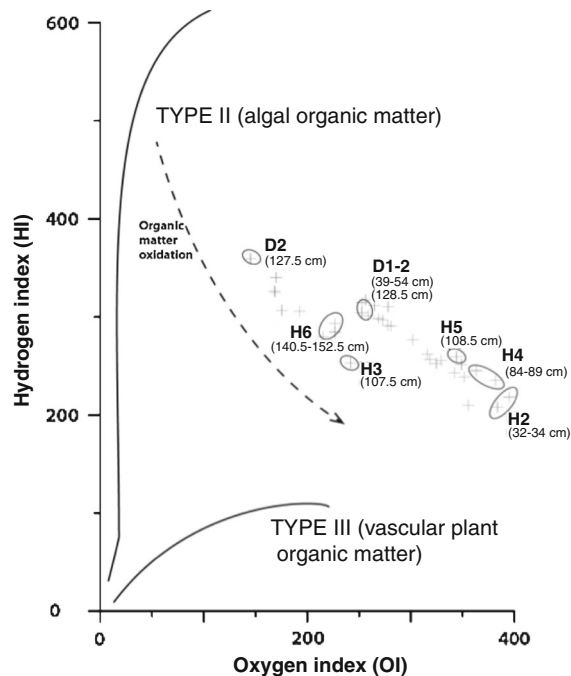
**Fig. 4** Si/K versus Ca/K ratios. Data scatter reflects mixing of two end-members in various proportions: (1) authigenic source (diatoms) and (2) detrital input from eroded crystalline

basement in the watershed. **a** View of diatomite in the sediment. **b** Single diatom. **C**. Smear slide at 91 cm depth, showing the lithogenic fraction (mica and quartz)





◀ **Fig. 5** Geochemical features of the VEN09P3 core: X-ray images, Ca/K ratios, grain size (Q50), Si/K ratios, S content and organic matter (TOC) content versus depth (cm), indicating the main sedimentary facies (D and H layers)

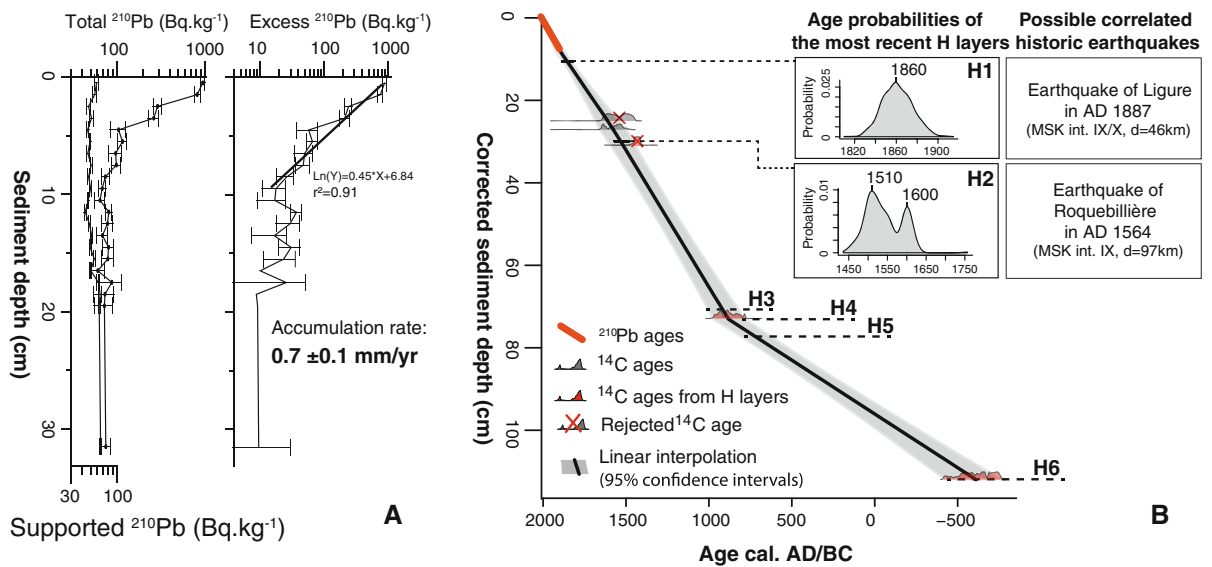


**Fig. 6** Hydrogen Index versus Oxygen Index diagram for core VEN09P3 sediments. Samples from the H and D layers are circled. Organic matter type II and III patterns are indicated

to compaction have been highlighted previously by several authors and interpreted as being a consequence of oscillations in the mass of water during the slow decantation of re-suspended material (Beck 2009; Campos et al. 2013).

### Chronology

The excess  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  profile for core VEN09P3 shows a regular decrease from  $887 \pm 57 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  at the top of core to  $26 \pm 8 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  at 8.5 cm depth, with mean uncertainty of about 21 % (Fig. 7a). Below 8.5 cm, uncertainties are in the range of the measured values; these deeper samples were thus not considered for the application of the CFCS model. The CFCS model (Goldberg 1963) yielded an estimated linear sedimentation rate of  $0.7 \pm 0.1 \text{ mm/year}$ .



**Fig. 7** a Total, supported, and excess  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  versus sediment depth in core VEN09P3. b Age-depth relationship for core VEN09P3 and age probabilities for the H1 and H2 layers. Note that  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages from the H layers are considered to be maximum ages (see text for details)

We combined  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ -based ages with the five  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages (Table 1) to construct an age-depth model for the entire VEN09P3 core (Fig. 7b). H layers are all associated with short-duration sedimentation processes and are thus considered instantaneous deposits. Hence, we excluded these deposits to construct a “corrected” depth before age-depth modeling (Arnaud et al. 2002; Wilhelm et al. 2012a). The resulting age-depth model reveals that the VEN09P3 core covers the last three millennia and provides maximum calibrated age probabilities of AD 1860 for H1, AD 1510 and 1600 for H2, AD 912 for H3, AD 890 for H4, AD 729 for H5 and BC 593 for H6 (Fig. 7b). It is, however, noteworthy that three of the five  $^{14}\text{C}$  samples came from H layers. Because the H layers appear to result from the reworking of older sediments, these  $^{14}\text{C}$  samples may have yielded “too-old” ages. Hence, ages on samples from H3, H4, H5 and H6 are considered maximum ages.

## Discussion

Triggering processes for the three sedimentary facies

Lake Vens sediment is composed of autochthonous (silica) and allochthonous material. Along the 168-cm

core length, three facies are clearly distinguishable: (1) laminae, (2) grey homogenous deposits designated ‘H’ layers and (3) dark sediment layers designated ‘D’ layers. The laminated intervals vary between high Si/K ratios, which correspond to the Si-rich diatom end-member of the D layers, and high Ca/K ratios, which correspond to the Ca-rich lithogenic end-member of the H layers. Organic matter is distributed around the limit between type II and III (Fig. 6), representing a mixture of material from algae and higher plants. The mm-scale, dark-brown laminations are considered the “sedimentary background,” resulting from regular detrital input during snow melt and/or intense rainfall events and biological processes within the lake.

The D layers possess large amounts of diatoms, but little lithogenic material, according to smear slide observations and the geochemical ratios (Figs. 4 and 5). Grains are well sorted, with two dominant modes ascribed to diatom tests ( $\sim 150$   $\mu\text{m}$  for individual diatoms and  $>400$   $\mu\text{m}$  for the colony) and a small, discrete mode ascribed to the detrital silt (40  $\mu\text{m}$ ). These layers also appear to be enriched in sulphur (Fig. 5) and organic matter that is dominated by algal material (Fig. 6). High sulphur concentrations could be related to authigenic pyrite formation under anoxic conditions, a consequence of increased algal productivity (Thomson et al. 2006). Concurrent increases in diatoms and algal organic matter suggest an increase

in autochthonous productivity during these two periods of deposition, linked to favourable growth conditions (water temperature, nutrient inputs) and/or reduced detrital inputs linked to decreases in the frequency and intensity of flood events and snow melts.

The H layers are dominated by erosion products from the crystalline basement, as revealed by smear slides and geochemical ratios (Figs. 4 and 5). Organic matter content is low and closer to the type III (Fig. 6), attributed to vascular plants (De Beaulieu and Jorda 1977). This is consistent with sediment dominated by the lithogenic fraction. Thus, presence of terrestrial organic matter and predominance of the lithogenic fraction in the H layers suggest their material comes predominantly from the catchment. Processes that could lead to H layer formation include erosion and transport of detrital material by a flood event or gravity reworking. With respect to floods, variations in grain size indicate two evolutionary stages, including an increase followed by a decrease in grain size, reflecting variations in stream inflow velocity during the flood event (Mulder et al. 2001; Ito et al. 2010). In some cases, the inversely graded base can be eroded during the flood event and flood deposits are thus only made up of a coarse base capped by a regular graded layer (Arnaud et al. 2002; Wilhelm et al. 2012b). Sediment features of the H layers with a well-developed homogenous layer do not appear to be associated with flood processes.

Among sediment facies associated with gravity processes, a similar type has been described as a class of lacustrine turbidites called “homogenites” or “seiche deposits” in marine (Kastens and Cita 1981; Cita and Rimoldi 1997; Rebesco et al. 2000; Çağatay et al. 2012) and lacustrine environments (Siegenthaler et al. 1987; Chapron et al. 1999; Schnellmann et al. 2005; Beck 2009). According to these authors, homogenites result indirectly from strong earthquakes. The earthquake is considered to be the factor that triggers sediment failure, evolving into mass transport or slumps, which in turn form hyperpycnal (turbidity) currents with bed-load and suspended-load (Beck 2009). The bed-load sediment would produce the sandy basal part of the H layer, whereas the suspended load would result in the main part of the H layer, characterized by homogenous grain size and composition of sediments as well as high foliation. This homogenization of the suspended-load sediment

would result from oscillatory movement of the whole lake-water mass, i.e. a seiche, induced by the seismic shock. Interpretation of the H layers as earthquake-triggered deposits is also supported by the presence of microfaults, which suggest brittle deformation related to co-seismic displacements (Monecke et al. 2004). The four microfaults clearly identified by X-ray analysis are in the middle portion of the sediment core, where coring deformation is expected to be minimal. Consequently, we hypothesize that the H layers and the microfault deformation features are related to strong historic earthquake shocks, in agreement with similar microfault deformation described by Monecke et al. (2004) for laminated lake sediments of central Switzerland.

### Comparison between historic earthquakes and homogenite ages

Over the past 600 years, regional earthquakes have been inventoried and are listed in databases from the BRGM (Boschi et al. 1997). In Fig. 8, the main historic seismic events are reported, with distance between Lake Vens and the earthquake epicentre and epicentre intensity. The dashed line, which represents the seismic sensitivity line, is based on previous studies of high-altitude lake sediment sequences (Nomade et al. 2005; Wilhelm et al. 2012a). This line enables identification of historic earthquakes with the potential to trigger sediment gravity reworking. Over the last 600 years, two major earthquakes in the southern Alps are highlighted. The most damaging event was the AD 1564 Roquebillière earthquake, with an estimated MSK intensity of IX–X at the epicentre (Boschi et al. 1997; Lambert and Levret 1996; Laurenti 1998). The other major event occurred in AD 1887, with an estimated epicentre MSK intensity of X along the Ligurian coastline. The two most recent H layers were dated to AD  $1860 \pm 30$  for H1 and AD  $1545 \pm 30$  for H2, the latter with maximum age probabilities at AD 1510 and 1600. The ages of these two H layers are well constrained by  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{14}\text{C}$  dates. Good agreement between dates of the historic earthquakes and the sediment H layers suggests the H1 layer was triggered by the major 1887 Ligure earthquake and H2 was a consequence of the major 1564 Roquebillière earthquake. Historical data (compiled in [www.azurseisme.com](http://www.azurseisme.com)) for the AD 1887 earthquake refer to two violent events of similar intensities over a



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