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# GEOTHERMAL MAP OF SWITZERLAND (HEAT FLOW DENSITY)

Carte géothermique de la Suisse (flux de chaleur)

Geothermische Karte der Schweiz (Wärmestromdichte)

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## Preface

The Geothermal Map of Switzerland is no. 10 of a series of geophysical maps on the scale of 1:500000. These maps aim at the representation of the main geophysical parameters and have been prepared and produced by the Swiss Geophysical Commission. The geothermal conditions in the subsurface of Switzerland are represented in the form of a heat flow density map. The terrestrial heat flow density at the surface is closely related to the temperature field at depth.

The temperature distribution in the subsurface is, besides its scientific significance, of great importance for various fields of practical application:

- for the construction of underground facilities (e.g. for storage or transportation)
- for the development and use of groundwater resources
- for the exploration of hydrocarbons
- for the search and development of geothermal energy
- for the disposal of radioactive waste in geological formations.

The compilation of the Geothermal Map of Switzerland resulted from a joint effort of the Swiss Geophysical Commission and the Swiss Federal Commission for the Utilisation of Geothermal Energy and Underground Heat Storage. The latter Commission was especially responsible for a systematic collection, evaluation and compilation of subsurface temperature data in Switzerland.

Most heat flow density (HFD) determinations have been performed in objects available for measurements ("opportunity holes", tunnels or adits). In this regard, the cooperation of numerous constructing firms, oil exploration companies, consulting bureaus and various cantonal and communal authorities must be acknowledged.

The HFD map of Switzerland reflects the status of knowledge as at the end of 1983. A few new values that diverge from the trends shown on the map could the isoline pattern considerably.

The data set of the Swiss HFD map (with the geographical coordinates of the sites) is now incorporated in the International Heat Flow Density Data Catalogue (World Data Center).

The HFD data density in Switzerland is among the highest in the world. Nonetheless, many new heat flow density determinations, especially in the Alps, are needed to delineate more precisely the terrestrial heat flow pattern of Switzerland. Detailed geothermal mapping in the scale of 1:100000 is presently in progress in northern Switzerland; the Heat Flow Density Map of Switzerland will serve as its starting base

Thanks of financial support are due to the Swiss Federal Office of Education and Science, the Swiss Federal Office of Energy Economics, the Swiss National Science Foundation, the Swiss Academy of Natural Sciences, the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology and - last but not least - to the Swiss Federal Office of Topography for printing the first "Geothermal Map of Switzerland".

On behalf of the

Swiss Federal Commission for the Utilisation of Geothermal Energy and Underground Heat Storage

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## **Summary**

The geothermal conditions in the subsurface of Switzerland are represented in the form of a map of the terrestrial heat flow density on the scale of 1:500 000. The heat flow density (HFD, in mW/m<sup>2</sup>) is the amount of heat flowing per unit time and area through the earth's surface from its interior. The HFD is closely related through the rock thermal conductivity distribution to the subsurface temperature field. Reliable information about the subsurface temperature distribution is of growing importance today for a variety of tasks including the planning and construction of subsurface facilities for either storage or transportation, the development and use of groundwater resources, the disposal of radioactive waste in geological formations. the exploration of hydrocarbons, and the search for and development of, geothermal energy.

The representation of HFD by isolines requires a certain minimum data density. The necessary data base has become available only in the past few years in Switzerland, despite of several pioneering achievements in geothermics made in this country a long time ago, including the first reliable measurement of the geothermal gradient (De la Rue & Marcet 1834) and the first HFD determination in continental Europe (Stapff 1883). In 1979, only nine HFD values had been reported. In the early 1980's, however, concentrated efforts of both the Swiss Geophysical Commission and the Swiss Federal Commission for the Utilization of Geothermal Energy and Underground Heat Storage resulted in numerous new HFD determinations. Thus, a data base of more than 150 values was available for the construction of the Swiss HFD map.

The HFD has been calculated as the product of the geothermal gradient (dT/dz) and the rock thermal conductivity K. In doing so, steadystate, one-dimensional conductive heat transfer was assumed. Measurement sites were omitted if the gradient was disturbed by moving groundwater. Both K and dT/dz can vary with locality. K depends mainly on the rock type and on petrophysical properties such as porosity. Because in most cases, no drillcores were available from the holes in which temperature was measured, a conductivity catalogue of the main Swiss rock types was established on the basis of laboratory K measurements. More than 300 samples were used for this. For all HFD sites, the thermal conductivity profile was obtained using the catalogue and the lithological profile of the drillhole. The Bullard-plot technique was then used to calculate the HFD.

Before calculating the HFD, corrections were applied to the temperature data. In addition to corrections for thermal disturbances caused by drilling fluid circulating within the drillholes, several other corrections related to conditions at the earth's surface were performed. These included corrections for temperature fluctuations (seasonal or paleoclimatic), topographic relief, and geological processes such as uplift/erosion and subsidence/sedimentation. The influence of these corrections on the HFD pattern of Switzerland is demonstrated by a series of maps which accompany the text. For the HFD map at 1:500 000, only the topographic correction was applied according to common practice. The Swiss HFD map is, therefore, compatible with the HFD maps of other countries. Computer codes have been developed to perform all the necessary calculations.

The contouring of isolines at 10 mW/m<sup>2</sup> intervals was also done by computer. The geographical distribution of the data points used for contouring is highly uneven, being largely based on opportunity objects such as exploratory drillholes available for dT/dz determinations. Two-thirds of the HFD determinations have an uncertainty of < 10 mW/m<sup>2</sup>, one-fourth of 10 to  $30 \text{ mW/m}^2$ , and only a few percents of >  $30 \text{ mW/m}^2$ . The different data classes are indicated on the map. The mean HFD for Switzerland is 85 mW/m<sup>2</sup>. The isoline pattern is based on the state of knowledge as at the end of 1983. A few additional data points, with HFD values deviating from the displayed trends, could considerably change the course of the isolines. Areas in which the HFD may be disturbed by deep groundwater circulation are marked on the HFD map.

The surface HFD is a complex signal comprising long-wavelength, regional variations of deep (crustal and lithospheric) HFD, and superimposed shallower, shorter-wavelength local HFD variations. In Switzerland, the mean regional HFD decreases towards the south from the Jura to the Central Alps and increases again in the south of the Central Alps. The several superimposed local anomalies can be attributed to deep groundwater circulation systems.

Although the data base of the Geothermal Map of Switzerland is among the highest in Europe, periodic updating on the basis of new HFD determinations will be indispensable.

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- were deformed and metamorphosed during the Hercynian orogeny, and again during the Alpine event (partly also thrusted);
- the *Penninic*, lower and upper *Austroalpine units*, a complicated sequence of sedimentary, volcanic (ophiolites) and metamorphic (also basement-type) rocks of different age (Precambrian to Mesozoic), thrusted northwards during the Alpine orogeny. The degree of metamorphism in these units generally increases from north to south, where the units dip into a root zone;
- the Southern Alps, clearly separated from the rest of the Alps by the Insubric line, including the Ivrea Zone (ultrabasites and granulite facies metamorphic

rocks of possibly Hercynian lower crust/upper mantle origin). In the north, crystalline basement units show a considerably lower degree of metamorphism (greenschist/amphibolite facies) than immediately north of the Insubric line. Further to the south, Mesozoic and Paleozoic sediments and thick Permian volcanics lie on this old basement. The units are derived from the same facies belt as the Austroalpine nappes.

Directly adjacent to the Tonale line lies the Bergell granodiorite, an alpine granitoid.

The southernmost tip of Switzerland reaches into the Tertiary basin of the Po plain (Molasse of Como).

## 3. Data Base

The calculation of HFD requires a knowledge of both subsurface temperatures and the distribution of the rock thermal conductivity. Furthermore, in order to calculate the different temperature corrections, geological, hydrogeological, climatic and petrophysical information is also required (see chapter 4.).

#### 3.1 Subsurface temperature data

Numerous geothermal data are available in Switzerland, mainly from drillholes in the northern foreland or from tunnels and shafts in the Alps. The quality of these data vary considerably, necessitating the elimination of unreliable data before interpretation is possible.

The different categories of temperature data used for mapping are discussed in the following sections. A list of all measurement points considered for further interpretation is given in **Appendix 1**.

#### 3.1.1 Temperature Logs

With few exceptions, the temperature logs were measured by the Institute of Geophysics, ETH-Zurich, by means of a calibrated thermistor probe. All measurements were performed after sufficient equilibration time and hence represent the true formation temperatures.

This category includes the most reliable temperature data, because the borehole conditions at the time of measuring were known, and the measuring tool was carefully calibrated.

The shape of both temperature and differential temperature-depth profiles give information about the occurrence of water circulation in the vicinity of the borehole. An example is given in *Figure 1* (borehole Klingnau; at a depth of 210 to 240 m, a large cavity with considerable water losses was encountered during the drilling operation.

Where water movement is not parallel to the isotherms, heat transport due to convection is usually much more efficient than pure heat conduction. The identification of such convection zones is of primary interest in geothermal investigations.

Excluding the uppermost layers (Quarternary) and a few local disturbances the temperature-depth profiles in the Tertiary sediments of the Molasse basin are nearly linear. However, many local and regional temperature disturbances due to water or gas circulation can be detected within the Mesozoic sediments in the Molasse basin and along the Jura.

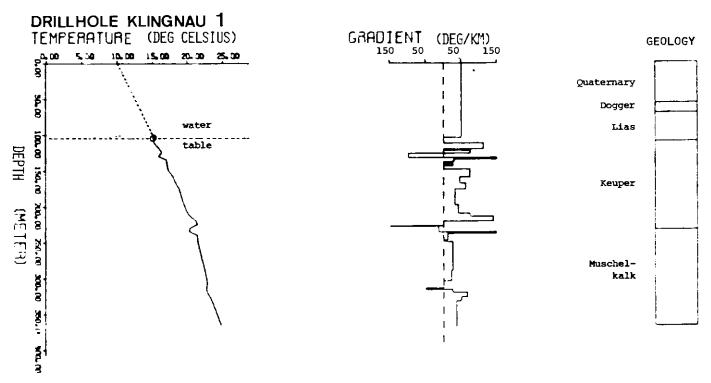


Figure 1: Example of a temperature log indicating water circulation in the vicinity of the drillhole.

#### 3.1.2 Individual temperature values

Many individual temperature values from drillholes, tunnels and shafts have been published or documented in internal reports. A few data from formation tests also are available. Compared to the temperature logs their quality is much less reliable, because instrumental (e.g. calibration), hydrogeological or other disturbances are unknown and often difficult to assess. Many doubtful measurements have been eliminated; nonetheless this category should be considered with caution.

Usually the general trend of the temperature-depth curves is non-linear due to variations in thermal conductivity with depth, water convection, and the thermal history of the subsurface.

Temperature estimates between the measured points therefore, should not be evaluated by linear interpolation. A reasonable estimate of temperatures within lacking sections can be found by the use of master-curves (STEGENA, 1976). These curves are constructed on the basis of the best measured data within the area and are supposed to be representative for the regional geothermal field. For a typical set of curves for Switzerland see SYNTHESE (1982). Such estimations should not be used for detailed calculations, because they do not take into account temperature gradient changes due to local conductivity variations or water movement.

#### 3.1.3 Bottom hole temperatures (BHT)

During borehole logging operations in deep boreholes, maximum thermometers are usually carried along with the different logging tools. The maximum temperature obtained is generally considered to be the "bottom hole temperature" (BHT), since in most cases, the temperature increases with depth. Because the measurements are usually performed a short time after the end of mud circulation in the borehole, these BHT values do not represent the true formation conditions. Rig time is too expensive, however, to perform BHT measurements after thermal equilibrium has been attained in the drillhole. Many BHT measurements were kindly made available by the Swiss petroleum industry.

A correction method for the disturbed BHT values was proposed by LACHENBRUCH & BREWER (1959). This method has been applied successfully in many cases, especially because the input parameters for the correction can usually be reconstructed from the drilling reports after completion of the holes.

The calculation of the correction requires several temperature observations (Tg) at the same depth at different times after the end of circulation (dt). Furthermore, the duration of the water or mud circulation at the bottom (tk) must be entered into the calculation. The equilibrium temperature of the formation (To) is obtained by plotting the Tg values versus log (tk/dt+1) and, as shown in *Figure 2*, by extrapolating the best-fit regression line towards the left hand side of the plot, corresponding to infinite equilibrium time (dt). The

corrected temperatures can be treated analogously to the individual values mentioned in chapter 3.1.2.

There are two important restrictions to the method:

- The measured temperatures do not plot along a straight line after short equilibrium times,
- using powerful drilling equipment, the mud temperature is often increased due to frictional effects. At shallow depths (≤ 500 m), the measured mud temperature is often higher than the formation temperature. Since the location of the maximum temperature measured in the borehole is no longer a function of the geothermal conditions, but of the drilling history, the quality of the corrected data is strongly affected.

In both cases more sophisticated correction methods are required for the evaluation of the true formation temperature.

Figure 3 shows a measured and a corrected temperature-depth plot for the TREYCOVAGNES I drillhole in Western Switzerland (KRUESI et al., 1978b; RYBACH & BODMER, 1980). The temperature correction shifts the measured temperatures towards a linear temperature-depth curve, which is typical for many sites along the Molasse basin. This linearity is the result of low radioactive heat production, small variations of thermal conductivity with depth, and the absence of water movements.

#### 3.1.4 Temperatures in tunnels and shafts

Numerous rock temperature measurements have been determined during the construction of tunnels and shafts in Switzerland. Most of these data appear in the literature or in reports. The quality of these data varies according to the measurement technique used. It is important that the data were obtained a short time after the tunneling operation, since air circulation during or after the construction can strongly affect the rock temperatures.

Most measurements were performed in 1 to 2 m deep, water-filled drillholes. Figure 4 illustrates the measured temperatures along the new Gotthard tunnel (RYBACH et al., 1982). The temperature distribution is strongly affected by the overlying topography, for which a correction must be applied (see chapter 4).

#### 3.2. Thermal conductivity

#### 3.2.1 Measuring Technique

The thermal conductivity measurements which use a transient method were carried out with a QTM<sup>R</sup> apparatus. With this instrument, a line heat source in a probe is pressed against a planar surface of the sample and is heated at a constant rate. The increase of temperature at the centre of this source, which amounts to about 10 to 20 °C, is measured by a thermocouple and allows the determination of the thermal conductivity of the sample. The accuracy of the thermal

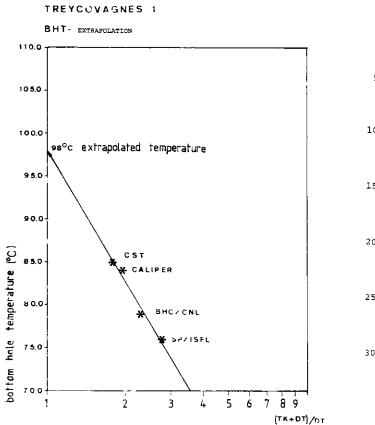


Figure 2: BHT-extrapolation (drillhole Treycovagnes I) from temperatures measured at different logging trips. Depth: 2395 m.

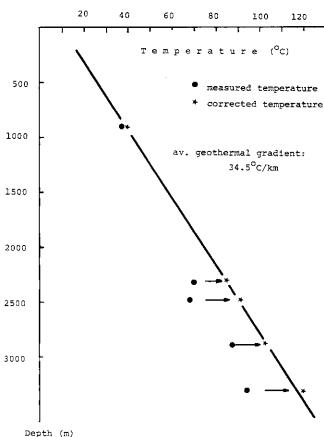


Figure 3: BHT corrections (drillhole Treycovagnes 1).

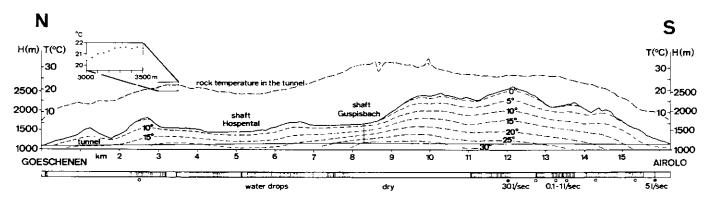


Figure 4: Temperatures along the Gotthard Road Tunnel. Measured rock temperatures (top), topographic profile with constructed isotherms and hydrologic conditions (bottom).

conductivity determination is approx.  $\pm$  5%, the reproducibility  $\pm$  2%. A thin foil covers the probe, avoiding penetration of water into the probe and enables the measurement of water saturated samples. The heating time is selected to be short enough to avoid thermal disturbances due to evaporation.

The thermal conductivity data obtained with this measuring technique originate from only a small rock-volume around the thermo-element. In order to avoid systematic errors due to the effect of inhomogeneities within the sample, the measurements have to be repeated at many different locations on the sample.

Both the measuring device and the technique are described in detail by SCHAERLI (1980).

For the determination of thermal anisotropy the measuring plane has to be cut perpendicularly to the layering or to the schistosity within the rock-sample. The thermal conductivity parallel to the layering ( $K_{\parallel}$ ) can be determined directly by positioning the line source perpendicularly to this direction. In conjunction with a second measurement holding the line source parallel to the layers ( $K_{gs}$ ), the component perpendicular to the layering ( $K_{\perp}$ ) can be determined as follows:

 $K \perp = Kgs^2/K_{\parallel}$  (see also GRUBBE *et al.*, 1983)

In case of horizontal layering, in general, the information concerning  $K_\perp$  is more important than  $K_\parallel,$  because it corresponds to the vertical component of thermal conductivity which determines the terrestrial heat flow. The anisotropy A is defined as the ratio  $K_\parallel/K_\parallel$ .

The reliability of the QTM results is now generally accepted (see e.g. SASS et al., 1983). Some intercomparison tests have been performed on Swiss samples covering the conductivity range in question by an absolute one-disk method. These measurements were performed by the Swiss Federal Institute of Material Testing (EMPA); a most satisfactory correspondence was found.

## 3.2.2 Rock sampling – results

In most drillholes selected for heat flow density determinations, no core samples were available for thermal conductivity measurements. For this reason, appropriate surface-rocks were sampled in order to obtain a representative conductivity profile across the geological sections found in the drillholes and also to establish a comprehensive thermal conductivity data catalogue of Swiss rocks (SCHAERLI, 1980; BODMER & SCHAERLI, 1980; SCHAERLI, 1983). Lateral E-W changes in lithology along the Alpine Foreland were partly taken into consideration by the construction of two schematic thermal conductivity profiles, one across the eastern part and one across the western part of the country.

Most samples encompassing the Mesozoic sediments were taken in drillholes or in outcrops along the Jura mountains, such that no information about possible N-S trends can be given. The thermal conductivity of the Tertiary sediments however, has been investigated in conjunction with the determination of other physical properties such as porosity, permeability, density etc. (SCHAERLI, 1980; SYNTHESE, 1982; BUECHI & BODMER, 1983). For this purpose, numerous drilling-cores and surface samples were collected in many locations, thus providing relatively accurate information about the spatial distribution of the physical rock properties. Reliable data on marls, claystones etc. are still missing.

Most samples used for thermal conductivity measurements were stored without protection, which would prevent the evaporation of the pore fluid. Therefore, these samples had to be resaturated prior to measuring. Except for rock-samples with very high porosity and permeability, it is recommended to evacuate the porevolume before the rock material is watered. Only in one case, in the drillhole KKWB 7904 in Beznau, Northern Switzerland, could the cores containing their natural moisture be measured. The continuous core-profile, having a length of 317 m and covering the Mesozoic sediments from Dogger down to the Triassic, was sealed and evacuated immediately after the coring and cutting procedure (BODMER, 1980).

The results of the thermal conductivity determinations are tabulated in *Appendix 2*. Each value listed represents an average calculated from 5 to 30 single measurements on the same sample. The number of measurements taken was dependent on the degree of homogeneity of the rock material investigated.

The conductivity distribution along a schematic stratigraphic profile across the northern foreland of Switzerland is illustrated in *Figure 5*.

In both representations of the results, the thermal conductivities and their standard deviations are given both parallel and perpendicular to the layering (schistosity), along with the anisotropy.

#### 3.2.3 Interpretation of the results

The thermal conductivity of a rock sample is strongly dependent on its porosity, on the shape of its pores and on the pore filling. In many cases these effects are even more important than the mineralogical composition of the sample.

A general dependency of thermal conductivity on the porosity was proposed by WALSH & DECKER (1966):

100 log 
$$K_g = \Phi \log K_p + (100 - \Phi) \log K_m$$
  
for  $\Phi > 1 \%$ 

with K<sub>g</sub>: measured thermal conductivity; K<sub>p</sub>: thermal conductivity of the pore fluid: (air at 20 °C: 0.0257 W/m, °K, water at 20 °C: 0.599 W/m, °K); K<sub>m</sub>:

thermal conductivity of the rock matrix;  $\Phi$ : porosity in percent.

The thermal conductivity of water is approximately twenty times larger than that for air. Due to this large difference, the thermal conductivity determined on water saturated samples is higher than measurements on dry samples, even at very small porosities (SCHAERLI & RYBACH, 1984). Figure 6 (top) illustrates the porosity effect on thermal conductivity on a rock with a matrix conductivity of 2.68 W/m, °K, the sample being water-saturated or dry. A comparison between theoretical and experimental data is shown (bottom): In most cases the measured values are in good agreement with the theory. Some experimental data on the diagram, however, are shifted to the left, indicating the occurrence of secondary porosity due to microfractures. These microfractures creating local inhomogeneities within the rock sample are better detected by the thermal conductivity measurement than by the porosity determination method (immersion technique); they are probably responsible for the systematic shift of the data.

The porosity dependence of the thermal conductivity is not negligible even at rock-porosities below one percent such as for crystalline rocks. Theoretical relations for low porosities were published by HASHIN & SHTRIKMANN (1962). According to the shape of the pores, one of the following formulae have to be selected (with  $\beta = K_p/K_m$ ):

Maximum effect (isolated pores):

$$K_g = K_m \left[ 1 - \frac{3\varPhi(1-\beta)}{2+\varPhi+\beta} \right]$$

Minimum effect (interconnected pores):

$$\mathbf{K}_{\rm g} \! = \! \mathbf{K}_{\rm m} \; \left[ \; 1 \; - \; \frac{ \boldsymbol{\varPhi}(1 + 2 \, \beta) \, (1 - \beta) }{ \boldsymbol{\varPhi}(1 - \beta) + 3 \, \beta} \; \right] \label{eq:Kg}$$

Numerous measurements on granite and gneiss samples with porosities between 0.4 and 1 percent showed dependencies according to the first formula (SCHAERLI & RYBACH, 1984).

Another relation which was investigated on core samples was the conductivity increase with depth as suggested by WERNER & FUCHS (1977), BALLING (1979) and others. This effect is primarily due to the rock compaction with increasing pressure and the alignment of clay minerals. The second effect is accompanied by an increase in anisotropy.

The general depth dependence after BALLING (1979) is estimated as follows:

K(z) = 1.69 + 0.00068 z (z being the depth in meters)

Only in very few cases could a depth dependence be observed. Generally this relationship is much more complex than described above, since the degree of compaction, which mainly creates the increase of thermal conductivity, depends strongly on the litho-

logy. A very important effect is the alignment of elongated and/or flat minerals such as clay minerals, increasing the anisotropy.

Very strong nonlinear depth dependence of the physical rock properties within the uppermost 200 m below the earth's surface were observed and interpreted by BUECHI & BODMER (1983). These effects were observed on seismic data gathered in numerous exploration drillholes in Switzerland. The reasons for these non-linearities are probably episodic, reversible, and rapid changes of the groundwater level due to uplift and/or glaciation.

Table 1 shows the depth dependence of the thermal conductivity which could be observed on core material. Many other samples did not show any change of their properties with depth. These results suggest that, unless more detailed information is gathered, the depth dependence of the thermal conductivity cannot be taken into account properly for heat flow density determinations in Switzerland.

**Table 1:** Depth dependence of the thermal conductivity

DRILLHOLE/ formation	depth dependence	RK	N	depth range
TSCHUGG: Kreide/Malm	$K_{\perp} = 0.0029 z + 1.1$	0.6	12	513–656 m
RUPPOLDSRIED: USM (Sandst.) – Malm	$K_{\perp} = 0.0010 \text{ z} + 1.6$	0.3	12	646-951 m
BEZNAU (7904): Opalinuston Gipskeuper	$K_{\perp} = -0.013 z + 2.0$ $K_{\perp} = 0.042 z - 2.5$	0.5 0.8	26 11	25- 64 m 134-211 m
Opalinuston- Sulfatzone	K = 0.0074 z + 2.0 K = 0.011 z + 1.2	0.6 0.7	91 91	25–317 m 25–317 m

Legend:

K., K.: thermal conductivity parallel and perpendicular to the

layering (W/m, \*K)
RK: correlation coefficient

N: number of measurements

z: depth (m)

# 3.2.4 Selection of the thermal conductivity data for heat flow density determinations

For only a few HFD sites was the vertical distribution of the thermal conductivity measured in conjunction with the temperature log. In most cases the conductivity information was extrapolated from other drillholes or from corresponding rock material sampled at the surface. Using the thermal conductivity catalogue given in *Appendix 2*, the thermal conductivities were averaged by formation and attributed to the geological sections covered by the temperature measurements. *Figure 5* contains information about the average conductivity across several geological sections. These values can also be used for the interpretation of drillhole sites where the geological profile is not known in detail.

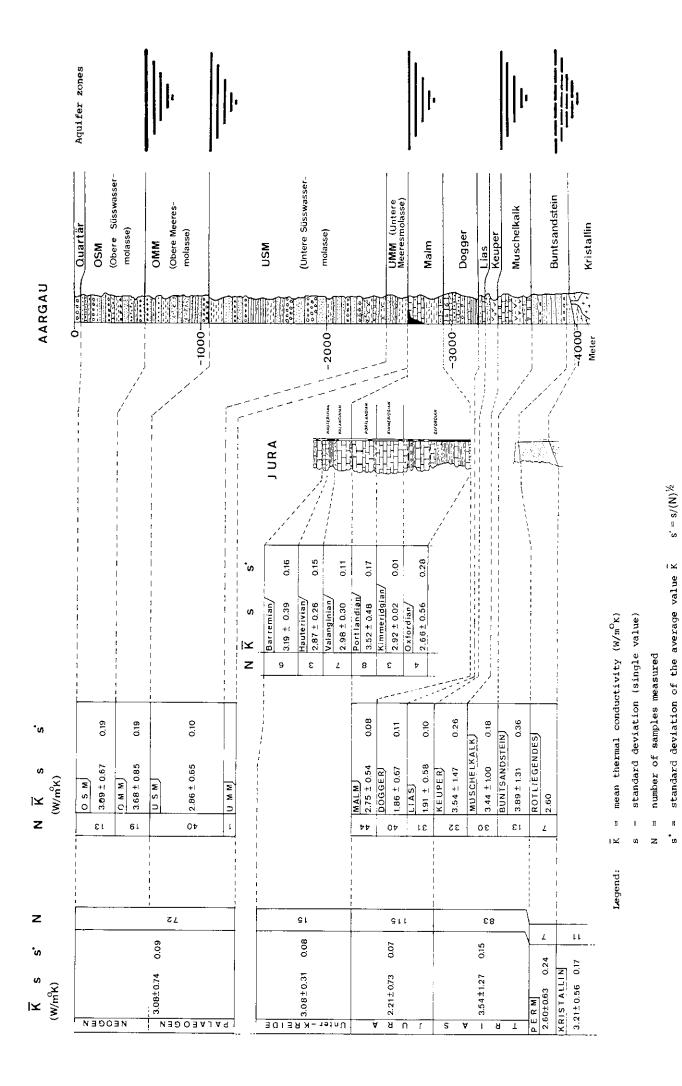


Figure 5: Thermal conductivity distribution along the stratigraphic column of the northern foreland in Switzerland.

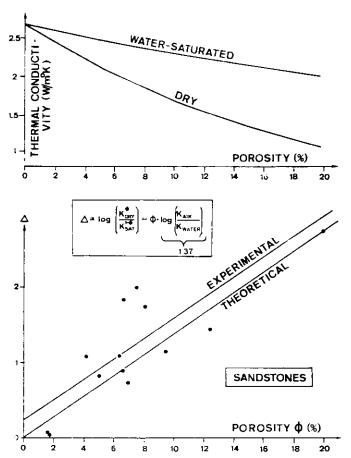


Figure 6: Effect of porosity on thermal conductivity of consolidated sediments. The dependency curves are significally different for dry and for water saturated samples.

The knowledge of the anisotropy permits the selection of the thermal conductivity component parallel to the heat flow. In most heat flow sites no exact information about the dip of the layering (i.e. from a dipmeter log) was available, such that horizontal layering had to be assumed. The error due to this assumption is negligible

in most areas in the Northern Foreland of Switzerland. In the Alps and in the Folded Jura, however, this assumption is not valid, and the dip, therefore, has to be estimated from direct measurements in the field or at least from general trends in geological maps.

## 4. Temperature corrections

Depending on the purpose of geothermal mapping, different temperature corrections have to be applied to the measured data prior to the HFD determination. The corrections are of special importance in cases where the geothermal information has to be extrapolated in horizontal or in vertical direction. The most common corrections are the ones eliminating the effects of topography, paleoclimatic variations, uplift/erosion and subsidence/sedimentation. The topographic correction is a static correction which should be applied in any case, the other corrections, however, are only required for special applications of geothermal data.

Many different correction procedures have been published in the last decades. The desire to apply the correction technique which is the most suitable to the given regional geothermal conditions is often in contradiction with the necessity of adapting the calculated values to the format of other countries in order to enable the construction of maps on a continental or on a worldwide scale.

First attempts to establish international standard procedures in geothermics have been made by the International Heat Flow Commission and by the Commission of the European Communities (HAENEL, RYBACH & STEGENA, in prep.; BALLING et al., 1981).

The different corrections to the geothermal gradient or to the temperature data are usually performed sequentially, correcting first for the most recent perturbation (BODMER & RYBACH, 1983). This procedure is inaccurate since the different disturbances, for which correction is necessary, took place during overlapping episodes; they should be treated simultaneously. A combined simultaneous calculation of the corrections is extremely arduous and the improvement of the results is in no relation compared to the increase of work and of computer time. Furthermore, it is generally impossible to obtain the requested base-parameters for detailed models.

The unknown proportion of conductive to convective heat transport represents a critical uncertainty in the correction of temperature data. Due to the lack of sufficient hydrogeological data, the convective heat flux can only be inaccurately estimated. In many cases the procedure is even inverted: the importance and the extent of water circulation systems is usually estimated by comparing the measured data after corrections (assuming pure conduction) with the expected temperature field. Large local anomalies in conjunction with pronounced variations in terrain-altitude suggest the occurrence of important convective processes. In an

attempt to account for the topographic, erosional and paleoclimatic effects on the temperature field, the corrections have been applied to the subsurface temperatures rather than to the geothermal gradients. The main reason for this lies in the HFD determination technique used (cf. chapter 5) which uses temperature values. To perform temperature corrections on the Swiss data, especially the topographic correction, the use of a computer is necessary. The different steps during the correction procedure were interconnected in order to achieve the final results under minimum effort. Digitisation of the topography was unnecessary because of the prior existence of a digitised topography for Switzerland ("RIMINI-array"). This array covers the terrain with a meshwidth of 250 m (ZUEST, 1977; BODMER et al., 1979).

A flow chart of the automatic correction procedure is illustrated in *Figures* 7 + 8. The first program (ASSEMB) reads all input-data related to the site under investigation, and especially the specifications of the corrections desired. The program itself then selects all parameters which were not specified in the input file

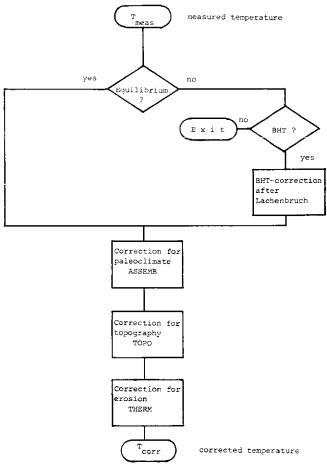


Figure 7: Flow chart for temperature corrections.

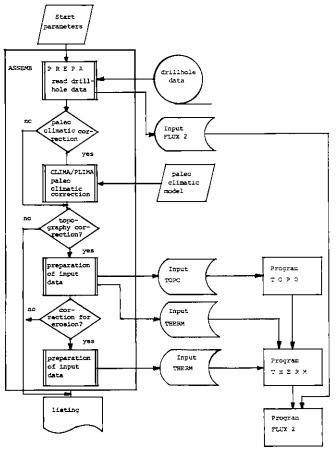


Figure 8: Flow chart for data processing with ASSEMB.

(= default values) and all parameters which are independent of the location of the heat flow site, i.e. the "geometric parameters" as defined in chapter 4.1.4 or by the paleoclimatic model of Switzerland (see chapter 4.3.3). Then ASSEMB assignes the data to the different correction programs or routines. These corrections are loaded automatically after completion of the initialisation routine.

The different correction procedures require the input of different data-files including the measured temperatures, the geological situation near the sites investigated, the corresponding distribution of the thermal conductivity etc. These data are stored on external files which are loaded automatically by the different programs or subroutines without special specification by the user, thus simplifying the data entry, especially for repeated interpretation for the same heat flow site.

The programs are designed for universal use with respect to the character of the heat flow site. Drillholes, tunnels, vertical or inclined shafts can be treated equally well, although the computation time can vary considerably according to the type selected, mainly due to the large size of the topography array required for horizontal data configurations (i.e. tunnels).

## 4.1 Topographic correction

#### 4.1.1 Introduction

The topographic correction takes into account the distortion of the subsurface temperatures due to a relief surface.

Most methods assume a constant temperature or a given temperature distribution at the earth's surface and a constant heat flow at a lower boundary of the model configuration. The distorted isotherms are corrected assuming an idealised planar earth's surface (reference plane). This reference plane intersects the actual topography at the location of the site investigated as illustrated in *Figure 9*. Some correction methods can also take into account changes in topography (i.e. due to folding) or changes of surface temperature (due to uplift) with time.

The topographic corrections in Switzerland were performed according to the method of BIRCH (1950). This method, which accounts for a 3 dimensional, time-dependent topography was chosen among many others, because it can treat the terrain with a maximum degree of precision at a sufficient radius around the site investigated, with minimum computer memory and calculation time requirement. Correction techniques using a stationary topography (i.e. JEFFREYS, 1938) or 2-dimensional calculations are not accurate in areas such as the Alps. On the other hand, experience with detailed 3-dimensional models, such as finite element and finite difference models, has shown unfavourable

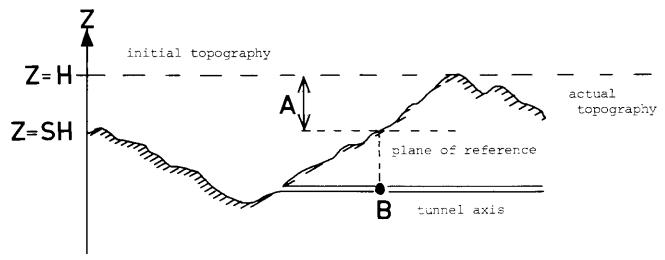


Figure 9: Definitions for topographic correction in a tunnel (TOPO and THERM).

results, since the simplifications required in order to reduce the computer memory will deteriorate the corrections.

The topographic correction  $dT_{TOPO}$  related to a reference plane (see *Figure 10*) is calculated as follows (BIRCH, 1950):

$$dT_{topo} = \frac{z}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} E(\beta) \frac{rdr}{R^3} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(r, \varphi, t) d\varphi$$

where x, y, z are the coordinates of the measurement point; r and  $\varphi$  are polar coordinates on the reference plane; t the time of evolution of topography; f (r,  $\varphi$ , t) the change of the time-dependent temperature on present topographic surface;

$$R = (r^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$$

 $E(\beta) = 2 \operatorname{erfc}(\beta) - 4i^2 \operatorname{erfc}(\beta)$ 

with  $\beta = R/(4xt)^{1/2}$ ;  $\chi$ : rock thermal diffusivity.

The numerical calculation of this formula is performed by the program TOPO. This program is a strongly modified version of the one described by ENGLAND (1976).

The reference plane, as illustrated in Figure 10, is divided into concentric rings within a maximum radius rmax. Each of these rings is subdivided into sectors with width  $rd\varphi$  (see Figure 10) where the function  $f(r, \varphi, t)$  is determined.

It is important to note here that the topographic correction does not account for denudation but only for the change of shape of the earth's surface, departing from an initially planar topography.

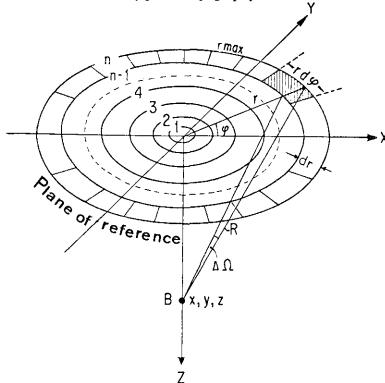


Figure 10: Geometric parameters for topographic correction.

## 4.1.2 Topography array "RIMINI"

The digitised topography of Switzerland ("RIMINI") was compiled by the Swiss Military Department. This file contains in sequential order 331 segments, each covering a sheet of the official 1:25 000 topographic map of Switzerland. Each segment is initialised by an identification header followed by the altitude data corresponding to a quadratic grid with a mesh width of 250 m. The data file contains the whole surface of the country plus small parts of the neighbouring countries.

The quality of RIMINI was tested prior to its application: Generally the error in altitude is less than 10 to 20 meters and the reliability of the file is thus acceptable for the topographic corrections. It should be noted, however, that major errors occur, especially in the Alps. Such errors have been detected in areas with very rugged topography, where the reading of the topographic map which was used for the digitisation became difficult. Furthermore, relative maxima in elevation (mountain peaks) are moved towards meshpoints in order to be fully covered by the grid. Many points outside the country were not digitised and therefore have the value zero.

The most negative feature of RIMINI, which may create significant errors in the temperature corrections, is that all areas which are covered by water are described by the altitude of the water surface, instead of by the effective topography at the bottom of the water.

#### 4.1.3 Program TOPO

As described previously, the program TOPO calculates the topographic correction of subsurface temperatures measured in drill-holes, shafts or tunnels. First the program reads the input parameters as described in chapter 4.1.4. Then the subroutine HEIGHT is called in order to collect and to reassemble the terrain data around the site (RIMINI). The subroutine SURCLE calculates the mean value  $\bar{f}$  for each ring. The value  $E(\beta)$  is calculated by FERFC and the integral across all rings (from r=0 to  $r=\infty$ ) is evaluated by DEPCOR. The area outside rmax is considered to have no relief and to have an altitude corresponding to the mean surface level within the topographic array defined. After the evaluation of the final correction for the temperature at one (tunnel) or several (drillhole) depths, TOPO prepares the output-files for the following processing step and the results are printed (see Figure 11).

#### 4.1.4 Selection of the input parameters

Two input data categories have to be defined and entered into TOPO: the "geometric parameters" (usually defined by ASSEMB) and the "geological parameters" which also contain the climatic information (usually defined by the user).

The geometric parameters are strictly related to the correction technique and should have no influence on the final results.

A detailed sensitivity analysis was carried out by BODMER et al. (1979) according to which the values described in **Table 2** were recommended for selecting the geometric parameters.

Table 2: Selection of the geometric parameters for program TOPO

Symbol	Description	Optimum value*
rmax	max. radius of the digitized topography	4 km (Northern Foreland) 6 km (Alps)
dг	ring spacing	125 m
rd $\varphi$	width of sector within the rings	250 m

<sup>\*</sup> in terms of accuracy and computer time

The geological and the climatic parameters have strong influence on the correction and, therefore, have to be selected carefully according to the conditions at the site investigated. This group of parameters includes the actual surface temperature, the atmospheric lapse rate, the initial geothermal gradient, the time of evolution of topography, and the average thermal diffusivity of the subsurface. The selection of these parameters was discussed more in detail by BODMER *et al.* (1979) and by BODMER (1982).

The climatic information, defined by the entry of the surface temperature and the atmospheric lapse rate (= free air gradient), can be evaluated from meteorological observations (i.e. ATLAS DER SCHWEIZ 1965). TOPO accounts for a differentiated entry of the free air gradients along N or S orientated slopes of the terrain.

The initial geothermal gradient Go which is assumed to be close to the corrected gradient is not known prior to a first evaluation of the terrain correction. In a first guess, it is assumed that the initial geothermal gradient is close to the value (Gm + Gf), where Gm represents the measured geothermal gradient, and Gf the atmospheric lapse rate. This assumption is correct in areas with small relief. Since the temperature correction is proportional to a (Go-Gf) (BIRCH, 1950), the gradient correction is also approximately proportional to this factor. A first run of TOPO using a guessed initial geothermal gradient Go in conjunction with the obtained resulting corrected gradient Gl allows the calculation of the proportionality-factor a:

$$a = (Gl - Gm)/(Go - Gf)$$
  
where  $Go - Gf < Gl$ 

The final value for Go is then calculated as follows:

$$Go_{final} = \frac{Gm}{(1 - a)} + Gf$$

In general, the determination of Go converges rapidly such that no more than two runs of TOPO are required in order to obtain the final temperature correction. Large differences between the value  $Go_{\text{final}}$  and the resulting corrected gradient  $(G_{\text{final}})$  indicate disturb-

ances due to nontopographic effects (i.e. water circulation, erosion...), or if the corrections are performed at shallow depths, that nonlinear effects are dominating (BLACKWELL & STEELE, 1980; BLACKWELL et al., 1980).

For the evaluation of corrections, the time of evolution of topography was assumed to be 2 Ma. This value was deduced considering the actual erosion rates along the valleys, compared to the mountain-peaks and taking into account the maximum elevation-differences between valleys and mountains in the Alps. Although this estimation is approximate, results of a sensitivity analysis by BODMER et al. (1979) show little influence of a possible uncertainty of the 2 Ma value on the total correction: As long as the time of evolution of topography exceeds I Ma, the resulting change of the correction due to the variation of this parameter is less than 5%. The thermal diffusivity determines the penetration depth and velocity of a thermal disturbance caused by changes of relief. For an anisotropic subsurface, the component of the thermal diffusivity in the vertical direction is selected, since the calculation of BIRCH (1950) does not account for the horizontal components of the heat transfer. For this reason, the anisotropy and the orientation of the schistosity or layering has to be entered into TOPO.

#### 4.2 Erosion correction

The topographic correction accounts only for the shape of the relief and its changes with time, but not for the removal of material. The erosional correction following CARSLAW & JAEGER (1959) and VON HERZEN & UYEDA (1963) is:

$$dT_{EROS} = Go\bar{A} + \left[ (z - \bar{A}) \exp(-\frac{\bar{A}z}{\chi t}) \operatorname{erfc}(\frac{z - \bar{A}}{2\sqrt{\chi t}}) - \right]$$

$$-(z+\bar{A}) \operatorname{erfc}(\frac{z+\bar{A}}{2\sqrt{\chi}t})$$
 [Go-Gf)/2

dT<sub>EROS</sub>: temperature correction for uplift and erosion (sedimentation)

z: depth of measurement point

 $\bar{A}$ : average hight of the initial surface above reference level (z = SH, see Fig. 9) before the

t: time since the onset of erosion Go: initial geothermal gradient

Gf: atmospheric lapse rate

χ: thermal diffusivity

The above equation can be used to correct for erosion, uplift and sedimentation based on the assumption that the erosion (or sedimentation) rate does not change in time. The uplift is taken into consideration by selecting appropriate values for the atmospheric lapse rate Gf: If a value for Gf is defined, the model assumes continuous erosion without uplift. If Gf is zero, a continuous uplift during the erosion is taken into account. The erosional correction is performed by the program THERM (cf. Figure 11). A special subroutine (SIMREG) calculates the surface temperatures and the geothermal gradient

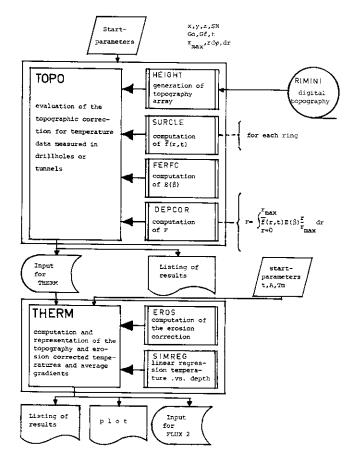


Figure 11: Flow chart for TOPO and THERM.

resulting from the uncorrected, the topographically corrected, the erosion corrected and the temperature values with all corrections applied. SIMREG does this by means of linear regression-lines through the temperature-depth-plots. In conjunction with the calculated correlation coefficients, these plots are useful for the evaluation of the quality and the effect of the corrections.

#### 4.2.1 Evaluation of the input data

A and t strongly influence the correction (BODMER et al., 1979). Since the effect of older erosional events penetrate deeper into the subsurface than very recent erosion, the erosional history for correction must be selected according to the depth of the point investigated.

A major simplification arises from the fact that the method used assumes a constant erosion rate. In reality, especially in the case of fluviatile or glacial erosion, the denudation most often acts in a differentiated manner in time and space (e.g. at the front of the glaciers): Maximum erosion rates are expected during and shortly after important uplift-episodes. In combination with increased erosion rates, however, many areas can be affected by major accumulations of detritic material.

Numerical models have been developed in order to calculate the erosional effects on subsurface temperatures in detail, and thus give more realistic temperature corrections (i.e. WERNER, 1981). In applying these models, however, a detailed knowledge of the erosional

history is required. Since this history is practically never known accurately enough, the application of such models is usually not justified.

In selecting the appropriate input parameters for the erosional correction, surface observations can be used for relatively recent events. Older erosional histories can be estimated using petrographic data (i.e. FREY et al., 1974; GRUENENFELDER & KOEPPEL, 1980). **Table 3** illustrates some typical values for  $\bar{A}$  and t in different parts of Switzerland.

In addition to the regional erosion, local conditions have to be taken into account (RELLSTAB, 1980, unpubl.). In the vicinity of large and deep valleys which were affected by glacial erosion, local erosion rates of 300 m within the last 30 000 years are possible (BODMER et al., 1979).

The impact of these "young" effects on the actual temperature field is comparable to the influence of the erosional events given in **Table 3**. Especially for tunnels, the input parameters for the erosion correction have to be evaluated with care. In addition to the regional erosion, which uniformly affects the temperature field, the isotherms near the valleys are mostly influenced by recent fluviatile or glacial erosion.

Similarly to the initial geothermal gradient in the topographic correction, Go has to be specified. This value can be calculated directly using the actual near-surface gradient:

$$Go = \frac{dT}{dz} \bigg|_{t=o,z=o} \cdot \frac{1}{2 - 4i^2 \operatorname{erfc}(p) + 4p^2}$$
with  $p = \overline{A}/2 \sqrt{\chi t}$ .

The assumption of an initially undisturbed geothermal gradient at the beginning of an erosional event is a rather inaccurate one since many different erosional and uplift events are known to have happened during the geological history of the Alps and their Foreland. Erosional temperature corrections in the Alps have a considerable effect on the resulting temperature and on the calculated heat flow density as shown for example in comparing *Figures 17–20*. This correction is inaccu-

**Table 3:** Regional erosional history in different areas of Switzerland

	A	t
Area	(Elevation of initial surface above actual terrain)	(Time elapsed since the beginning of the regional erosion)
Alps	10–20 km (RYBACH et al., 1977; WERNER et al., 1976)	Oligocene (30–40 mio y) TRUEMPY (1980)
	Western Switzerland: 2 km Eastern Switzerland: 0.5 km (PAVONI, 1976)	Pliocene (5 mio y) HANTKE (1978)
Jura	ca. 300 m (strong local variations)	Pliocene to Miocene

rate due to the lack of precise knowledge about the erosional history.

#### 4.3 Paleoclimatic correction

#### 4.3.1 Introduction

Temperature fluctuations at the earth's surface can penetrate to different depths, depending on the wavelength of the fluctuations. The daily temperature variations can be measured in the uppermost few tens of centimeters only; seasonal variations penetrate, depending on rock thermal parameters, to a few tens of meters. Paleoclimatic temperature changes can be approximated by a model consisting of a series of step changes. Of course, the selection of the present mean annual temperature as reference is somewhat arbitrary; its value, however, is certainly better known than any other temperature value at any time in the past.

The temperature effect at any depth z, caused by a single step change in surface temperature, can be found by solving the one-dimensional heat conduction equation  $\partial^2 T/\partial z^2 = (1/K)\partial T/\partial z$  with the step change  $\Delta T_t$ , at time t' as the boundary condition:

$$\triangle T(z, t) = \triangle T_t$$
, erf  $(z/\sqrt{4 \chi(t-t')})$ 

The paleoclimatic correction  $dT_{palci}$  for a sequence of climatic events in the past can be obtained by summation (BIRCH, 1948):

$$dT_{palcl} = Ts_i \left(1 - erf\left(z / \sqrt{4 \chi t_l}\right)\right) +$$

+ 
$$\sum_{i=2}^{n} Ts_{i} (erf(z/\sqrt{4xt_{i-1}}) - erf(z/\sqrt{4xt_{1}}))$$

where  $t_i$  denotes the onset (before present) of the i-th climatic period with its characteristic surface temperature  $Ts_i$ .

From this data base the following four alternatives can be defined (RELLSTAB, 1981):

type O: ice-free during all glaciation periods type R: ice-covered during the Riss period only type RM: glaciation during Riss und Würm

type A: ice-covered during all ice ages

#### 4.3.2 Calculation procedure

The calculation of dT<sub>palel</sub> is included in program ASSEMB (cf. *Figure 8*). For a given site the mean annual surface temperature is calculated for that locality from the data displayed in *Figure 12* by taking into account the elevation of the site and an appropriate value for the atmospheric lapse rate (generally 4.5 to 6.5 °C/km, according to location, exposition etc.). To the temperature value so calculated, 1.0 °C must be added to approximate the soil temperature (KAPPEL-MEYER & HAENEL, 1974, p. 93). If the standard climatic model applies to the site (i.e. for type 0), the subroutine CLIMA in program ASSEMB calculates the correction on the basis of the values given in **Table 4**.

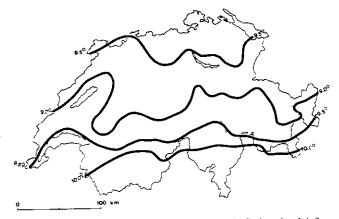


Figure 12: Mean annual surface temperature in Switzerland (after ATLAS DER SCHWEIZ 1965). Isolines indicate mean annual temperature in °C reduced to constant reference level (500 m a.s.l.).

For areas with occasional ice cover of known extent and duration, the standard model is modified according to the alternatives R, RM or A. If no data on glaciation are available, the program adjusts the climatic model by means of a special input parameter ICLIMA.

The values of thermal diffusivity and ice base temperature can be specified if local information is available. Otherwise the program calculates the paleoclimatic correction  $dT_{palci}$  with the default values  $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s and -1 °C, respectively.

Figures 13 and 14 show some specific examples.

### 4.3.3 Paleoclimatic models

Instrumental records on surface temperature changes in Europe are available only for the past 200–300 years. Although there is general agreement among climatic workers that the temperature changes between the different climatic periods are relatively rapid (for

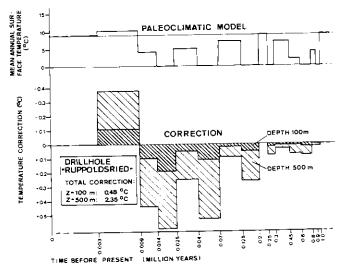


Figure 13: Paleoclimatic model and paleoclimatic temperature correction for the drillhole Ruppoldsried in western Switzerland.

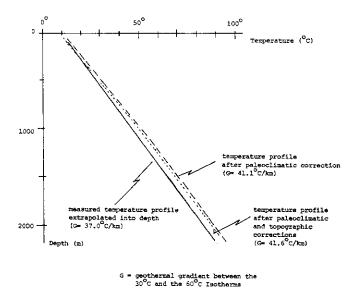


Figure 14: Topographic and paleoclimatic corrections in a drillhole.

Pleistocene transitions for the region of Zurich see PIKA, 1982), one can find different views in the literature with respect to the amplitude of paleoclimatic changes and their placing in space and time.

Nevertheless, there are numerous indicators which were used in an attempt to establish a paleoclimatic model for Switzerland (RELLSTAB, 1981, 1982) covering the following time periods:

#### (a) Historical time

- instrumental records
- chronicles, harvest reports, glacier movements

#### (b) Holocene and Quarternary

- dendrochronology
- ice and snow stratigraphy in polar ice
- biostratigraphy (pollen; micro- and macrofossils)
- 0<sup>18</sup>/0<sup>16</sup> isotope ratio (in dated sediments, ice and fossils)
- sedimentology
- geomorphology

The extensive literature surveyed to establish a paleoclimatic model includes LAMB (1977), FRAKES (1979), HANTKE (1978), SCHWARZBACH (1961), and OESCHGER et al. (1980). The model has been compared to other paleoclimatic models in Europe (VASSEUR, France; GRUBBE, FRG; BALLING, Denmark; data from ČERMÁK, 1982: Circular for Standardization).

The paleoclimatic model used to calculate the correction  $dT_{palel}$  is given in **Table 4** and in *Figure 13* (top).

The temperatures during the different climatic periods of the model relate to today's local mean annual surface temperature and show clearly the importance of glacial periods ("ice ages") which led to severe glaciations in large areas in Switzerland.

Parametric studies (RELLSTAB, 1981) led to an optimum number of 29 climatic periods. In general,

**Table 4:** Paleoclimatic model for Switzerland (RELLSTAB, 1981, 1982)

Step	Time range	(Years before present)	Relative temperature	Period of glaciation
1	0 –	50	0.0	
2	50 -	80	- 0.4	
3	80 -	170	- 0.8	
4	170 –	200	- 0.6	
5	200 -	230	- 0.7	
6	230 -	280	- 0.8	
7	280 -	400	- 0.1	
8	400 -	650	- 0.7	
9	650 –	850	+ 0.4	
10	850 -	1 000	- 0.3	
11	1 100 -	2 000	0.0	
12	2 000 -	3 200	- 0.5	
13	3 200 -	5 000	+ 0.5	
14	5 000 -	8 000	+ 1.5	
15	8 000 -	10 000	0.0	
16	10 000 -	14 000	- 6.0	
17	14 000 -	25 000	-13.0	Würm
18	25 000 -	40 000	- 4.0	
19	40 000 -	70 000	-11.0	Würm
20	70 000 –	125 000	- 2.0	
21	125 000 -	200 000	-13.0	Riss
22	200 000 -	250 000	- 2.00	
23	250 000 -	300 000	-13.0	Mindel
24	300 000 -	450 000	- 2.0	
25	450 000 -	600 000	- 7.0	
26	600 000 -	800 000	-10.0	Günz
27	800 000 -	900 000	- 5.0	
28	900 000 -	1 000 000	-10.0	Günz
29	1 000 000 -	$\infty$	0.0	

recent changes are known more accurately than earlier events. However, these studies revealed that climatic changes during the time period 0–10 000 a b.p. are significant only for correcting temperature measurements in shallow boreholes, the most important period being the time 10 000–100 000 a b.p., which therefore must be subdivided in a more sensitive way than the times before and after this period. Climatic changes older than 1 m.a. can be neglected for the model applied.

#### 4.3.4 The influence of ice cover

It is now widely accepted that in glaciated areas the ice cover supplied considerable thermal insulation against the (at times) low ice-age temperatures. For the present calculations a constant rock surface-temperature of -1 °C was assumed.

In calculating paleoclimatic corrections for a given drillhole site this must be taken into account by specifying the time intervals when "protecting" ice cover existed in that area and when it was ice-free. HANTKE (in TRUEMPY, 1980) designed a map showing the maximum areal extent of glaciation in Switzerland during the main ice ages. There is evidence that the extent of ice cover was roughly the same during the Riss and the Mindel periods and during the Günz and Würm periods.

## 5. Heat flow density determination

#### 5.1 Introduction

The heat production within the earth is largely due to radioactive decay of unstable isotopes, mainly U, Th and K. The elevated temperatures within the earth compared to the relatively low atmospheric temperatures give rise to a steady terrestrial heat flow which has a worldwide average value of 75 mW/m² at the earth's surface. The temperature increase with depth (geothermal gradient) on the continents is approximately 30 °C/km in the upper few kilometers of the earth's crust. The radioactive isotopes are mainly concentrated in the upper continental crust. Due to this, both the geothermal gradient and the terrestrial heat flow decrease continuously with depth.

The most significant heat transfer mechanisms in the subsurface are conduction and natural or forced convection. The convection within the upper crust is very often related to water circulation through rock pores or along fractures. In general, the hydrogeological conditions of the subsurface are not known well enough to calculate the convective heat transfer. Therefore it is most often estimated by modelling. The conductive heat transfer is determined by the thermal conductivity distribution within the subsurface (see chapter 3.2).

The conductive heat flow density q (HFD), defined as the heat flow per unit area  $(W/m^2)$ , is determined as follows:

$$q = K \nabla T \doteq K \frac{dT}{dz}$$

K: rock thermal conductivity (W/m°K)

 $\frac{dT}{dz}$ : geothermal gradient (°C/m)

This "FOURIER" formula can be derived from the heat transport equation under simplified conditions (e.g. one dimensional flow, stationary conditions etc.). The assumption of pure conduction is usually justified if the surface HFD is constant with depth and if no major lateral thermal conductivity variations occur.

Since in many cases the convective heat transfer is much more effective than the conductive one, the detection of water circulation systems is possible, because they create strong local (horizontal and/or vertical) variation of the temperature field and of the HFD, especially in and near discharge and recharge areas.

The terrestrial heat flow density cannot be measured

directly at a specific point. It has rather to be determined using a temperature profile over a relatively large distance, being preferably oriented parallel to the heat flow. The temperature gradient in conjunction with the rock thermal conductivity along the profile will provide a value for the average HFD across the section investigated. For the correction of inclined temperature profiles, the direction of the terrestrial heat flow is usually assumed to be vertical.

If important radioactive heat production changes occur within the measured profile, these effects have to be taken into consideration as well. As demonstrated in BODMER (1982), these heat sources can be neglected at most heat flow sites in Switzerland.

The numerical processing of the above mentioned formula for calculating the HFD can be performed in different ways (see RYBACH & BODMER, 1983). The choice of the most suitable technique is dependent on the temperature and thermal conductivity data, the sampling rate and the data quality.

For the HFD determinations in Switzerland, the "BUL-LARD PLOT" technique was selected as the most reliable and useful one (BULLARD, 1939). Each temperature value is plotted versus the thermal resistance between the earth's surface and the depth of the temperature measurement. The slope of the regression line is proportional to the HFD. This method provides good results, especially in deep holes where the data quality usually decreases with depth. Furthermore, this calculation method can be applied to all data categories.

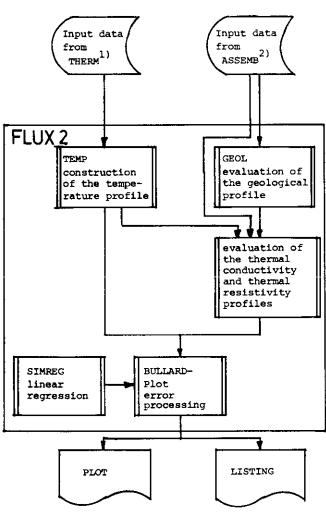
Experience in interpreting heat flow data in specific areas has shown that in many cases the changes in temperature gradient with depth are not only due to changes in thermal conductivity, but are the result of various effects like measurement errors, incomplete corrections, water circulation, thermal disequilibrium during the measurements etc. A statistical approach to evaluate the heat flow density, therefore, is considered to be much more realistic than conventional processing techniques. Furthermore, much useful information about the data quality can be derived from the regression technique, e.g. the correlation coefficient for the evaluation of the input data quality, the statistical error of the slope of the regression line, giving a measure of the quality of the heat flow density determination, or the results of regressions of higher order to analyse the curvature of the Bullard Plot in order to obtain information e.g. about possible water circulation.

## 5.2 Data processing

## 5.2.1 Heat flow density computations

The HFD calculations are performed by the program FLUX2 (*Figure 15*). This program is loaded automatically after the temperature corrections are calculated (see chapter 3 and *Figure 8*).

FLUX2 reads the corrected temperature delivered by program THERM2. Using the borehole data (subroutine GEOL and subroutine LEIT), a conductivity profile of the site investigated is constructed. In most cases no core material was available for thermal conductivity measurements. The conductivity profile, therefore, was estimated from the stratigraphic/lithologic profile of the hole and a thermal conductivity catalogue of Swiss rocks. Using this profile, the thermal resistance for the depth of each temperature measurement are calculated and the Bullard Plot is constructed (subroutine BULL). The HFD and the statistical error is calculated by the subroutine SIMREG. The final results are listed and a plot is drawn (see Figure 16).



1) Input data from THERM:

corrected temperatures, depths, coordinates

2) Input data from ASSEMB:

geology, depth
thermal conductivity,
depth

Figure 15. Flow chart for the heat flow density calculation.

BULLARD-PLØT **BEZNAU HEAT FLOW DENSITY** = 116 +/- 8 mW/m<sup>2</sup>

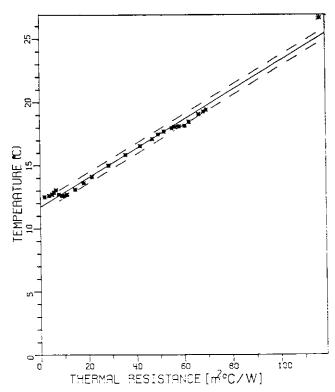


Figure 16. Bullard plot for drillhole Beznau.

## 5.2.2 Contouring of the isolines

The HFD determinations in Switzerland are unevenly distributed. Manual interpolations to determine the course of isolines would introduce bias of unknown extent since the interpreter is usually influenced by physiographic units, geologic boundaries etc. Therefore, automatic contouring by computer was applied on the basis of a contour interval of 10 mW/m² which corresponds to the general accuracy of the individual heat flow determinations.

Computer contouring is now standard practice in many kinds of geophysical mapping. Computer codes developed for the Gravity Maps of Switzerland (KLINGELE & OLIVIER, 1980) were adapted to heat flow density mapping. The construction of isolines is based on interpolation, within a circle with a radius of  $R_o$ , of the measured HFD values to points of a quadratic grid (spacing d), according to the method of LAPORTE (1962). A smoothing factor  $\eta$  was introduced, as was a threshold of elimination,  $\beta$ . For this procedure, all heat flow density data were equally weighted.

The data density is about one HFD value per 400 km<sup>2</sup> in the mapped area (regions with isolines on the Geothermal Map of Switzerland). Parametric studies revealed the following optimum values:  $R_o = 70$  km, d = 10 km,  $\eta = 0.1$  and  $\beta = 10$ %. The HFD values in the neighbouring regions of France and Germany are mainly from GABLE (1979), VASSEUR (1982) and HAENEL (1980).

## 5.3 Results

The HFD determinations were only carried out on data from drillholes, tunnels and shafts if the temperature measurements were reliable and if no major convective disturbances were detected. The HFD maps of *Figures 17 to 20* were constructed on the basis of about 100 observations on sites located in Switzerland and about 50 in neighbouring areas.

The input data base was further enlarged for the construction of the HFD map 1:500 000 by the results of numerous lake bottom measurements (FINCKH, 1981) and by the data from GABLE (1979), VASSEUR (1982) and HAENEL (1980).

In most cases the lake measurements show higher HFD values than the surrounding drillholes. In order to clarify these discrepancies, a 200 m deep drillhole was placed next to a lake measurement site in the lake of Zurich (drillhole "ZUBO 80", FINCKH & HSU 1984). The HFD determined in that hole (125 mW/m²) is in agreement with the results of the measurements in lake bottom sediments (118–125 mW/m²), proving that the two techniques provide comparable HFD values.

The difference of HFD between lakes and their surroundings can be interpreted as a result of water migration due to the deep V-shaped bedrock cross section and, in many cases, due to the location of the lakes along fracture zones.

Four different values of the HFD were calculated, including i) uncorrected temperatures, ii) temperatures corrected for the effect of topography, iii) temperatures corrected for topography and paleoclimate, and finally iv) temperatures corrected for topography, paleoclimate and erosion.

The four data categories are documented in isoline maps which demonstrate the influence of different corrections on the isoline pattern (Figures 17–20). The data base used for the construction of these preliminary maps differs slightly from map to map and significantly from the final HFD representation on the 1:500 000 scale. The data base is as follows: Figure 17:75 drill-holes; Figure 18:77 drillholes, 4 tunnels; Figure 19:79 drillholes, 36 lake determinations; Figure 20:53 drillholes; map 1:500 000: 109 drillholes, 38 lake determinations, 8 tunnels.

The comparison of these maps shows that they are predominantly affected by topography effects along the Alps. For the final representation of the HFD on a 1:500 000 scale (Geothermal Map of Switzerland), only the topographic correction was carried out according to common practice. By this means the Swiss HFD map is comparable to other European HFD maps.

The uncertainty of each HFD value was estimated from the scatter around the regression line which defines the heat flow density (see chapter 5.1). This statistical approach was chosen, because the uncertainty in HFD is dependent on unpredictable effects, such as water convection, local variations of thermal conductivity etc.

Figure 21 shows the error distribution of the heat flow density determinations. Considering that the estimated error of most determinations is less than 10 mW/m², the isoline spacing chosen was 10 mW/m². Furthermore, the figure shows that the data quality strongly depends on the temperature data category (see chapter 3.1) used. The continuous temperature measurements usually provide more reliable heat flow density data with uncertainty less than 10 mW/m², whereas the other data (BHT-values, single values, tunnel data) often are more uncertain. In some cases, the data quality was too poor for the accurate construction of a regression line (significance level 5%). These data are shown on the right hand side of the histogram.

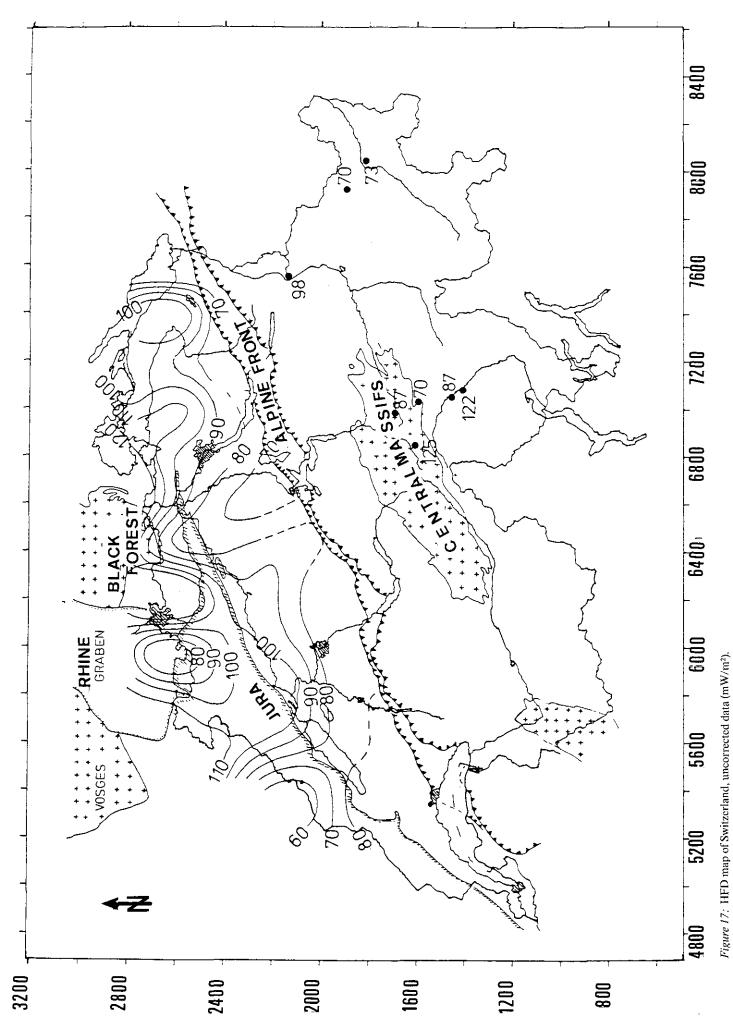
The errors of the data taken from the literature (VASSEUR, 1982; FINCKH, 1981; HAENEL, 1980 and GABLE, 1979) were not analysed and thus are not shown in *Figure 21*.

## 5.4 The Geothermal Map of Switzerland

The Geothermal Map of Switzerland 1:500 000 has been constructed on the basis of the complete data set given in *Appendix 3*. In order to make the map compatible with other European HFD maps, only the topographic correction has been applied to the data. The isolines of the Swiss HFD map cover the major part of the country. The remaining areas are located in the Eastern Alps (Grison) and in the southwestern edge of the country (Valais). As illustrated in *Figure 21*, most heat flow sites reach depths less than 500 m. Only a few boreholes – mostly hydrocarbon exploration boreholes – are deeper (maximum: 5.5 km).

The average HFD, corrected for the irregular distribution of the observation sites, is 83 mW/m<sup>2</sup> and shows a general decreasing trend from the Northern Foreland (av. value 88 mW/m<sup>2</sup>) to the Alps in the south (av. value 77 mW/m<sup>2</sup>). This trend is overlain by a couple of distinct positive and negative anomalies, especially along the Jura chain and the Alpine border. These anomalies are thought to result from forced water convection, because many of them coincide with the occurrence of thermal or subthermal water and with abnormal chemical compositions of many surface waters (isotopic evidence, geochemical reservoir temperatures). The two most pronounced anomalies are located in the area Baden – Zurzach – Schinznach, near the northern border of Switzerland, and in the area of St. Gallen in the east. Both anomalies have been analysed carefully (see NEFF, 1981; ANGEHRN & BODMER, 1982, 1984) and the interpretation of the HFD pattern is discussed in BODMER & RYBACH (1985).

Water seepage velocities (= Darcy velocities) of a few mm/year can already give rise to such anomalies. Zones in which a strong local variation of the geothermal conditions are expected due to water circulation are



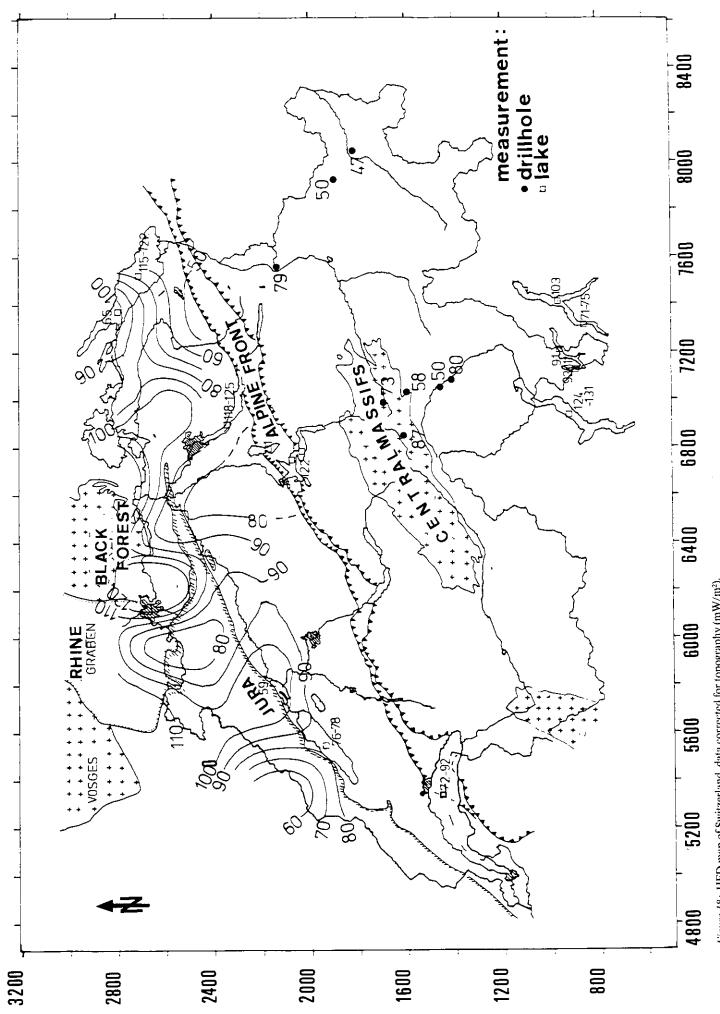
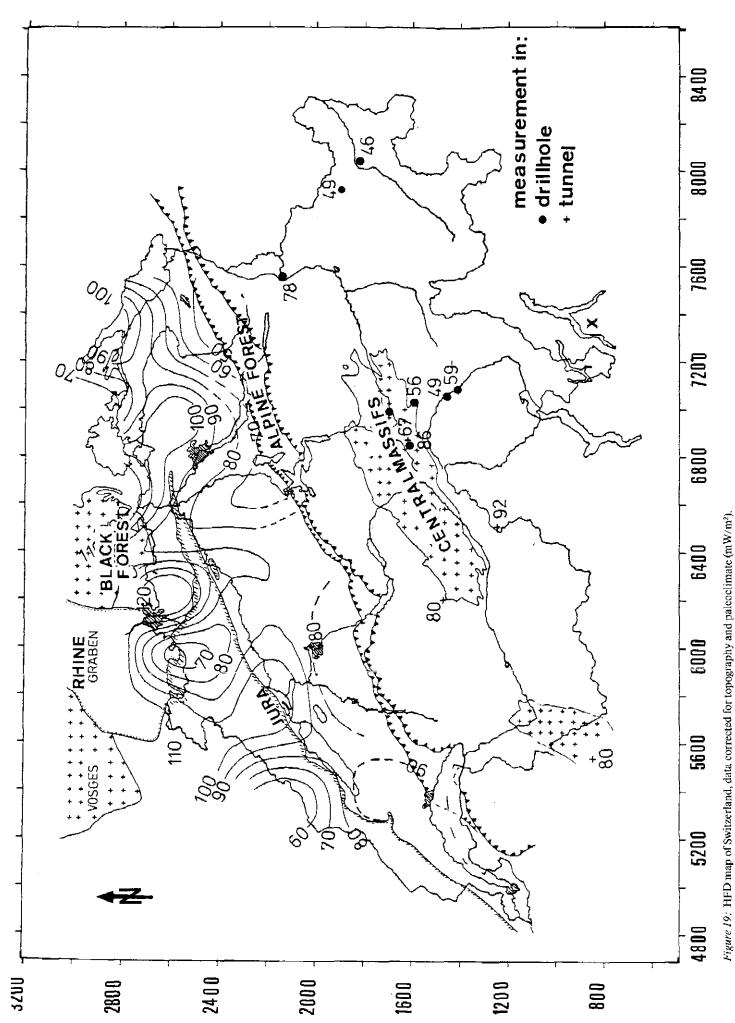


Figure 18: HFD map of Switzerland, data corrected for topography (mW/m²).



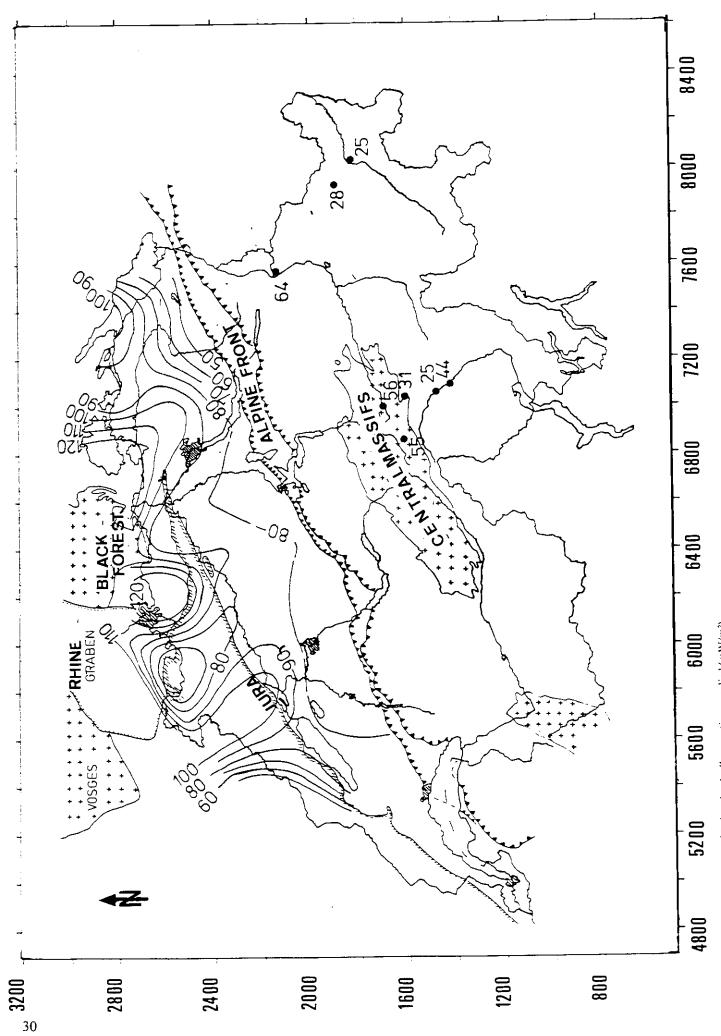
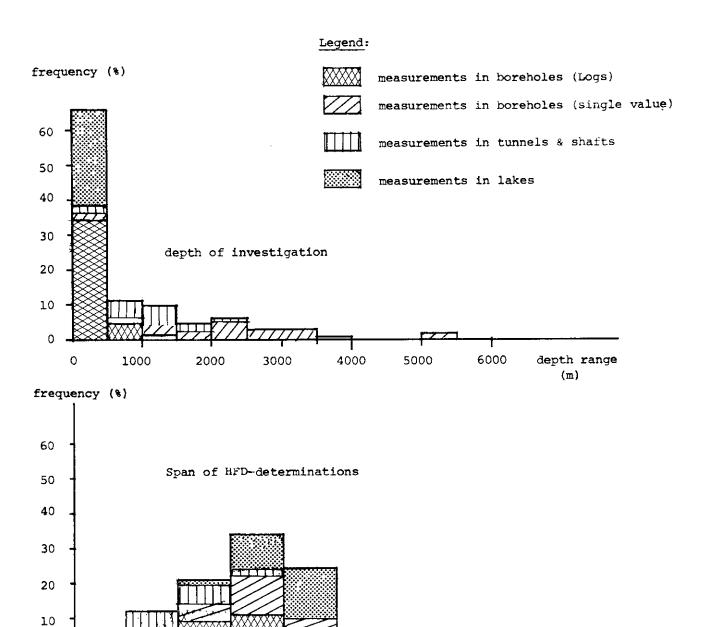
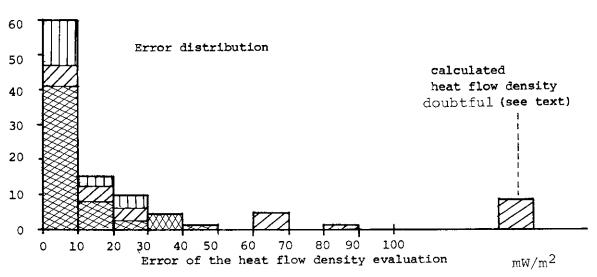


Figure 20: HFD map of Switzerland, all corrections applied (mW/m²).





150

100

50

0

0

frequency (%)

HFD

heat flow density

 $(mW/m^2)$ 

200

especially delineated on the HFD map. These areas are mainly located along the southeastern edge of the Folded Jura and along the Rhine and Rhône valleys in the Alps. In addition, several other circulation systems on a more local scale may exist, but could not been identified on the basis of the available geothermal information.

#### 5.5 Comparison with the results of other countries

HFD maps have been published for most countries in Europe. In order to enable a comparison of the different results or to construct general maps on the continental scale (ČERMÁK, 1979; HAENEL, 1980), it is essential that processing techniques are similar. It is, therefore, important to verify how well the results presented fit with the data from other countries or the international guidelines (see BALLING et al., 1981).

Tables 5 and 6 demonstrate the differences in the methodology of processing and the data density of the HFD maps in different European countries.

In most cases, different categories of temperature data were used and the results were combined. However, the corrections applied to these data do not generally agree. The most significant discrepancy lies in the application and calculation of the topography correction. It must be noted, however, that in many countries with low relief, the topographic and the erosional corrections are small and often negligible.

Major differences between the authors lie in the determination of the thermal conductivity. Many different measuring techniques have been used and many HFD values have been obtained, using estimates for the thermal conductivity. Since the measuring technique has to be adapted to the nature of the heat flow site (lake, borehole, tunnel), and since suitable rock samples are not always available (i.e. core material from drillholes), general standardisations are not useful.

**Table 6** compares the data density used for the construction of the European geothermal maps (see ČERMÁK, 1979). Except for the German Democratic Republic, the data density of Switzerland is much higher than in the other countries.

**Table 5:** Comparison of the methodology of HFD determination in different European countries

Country	Temperature D T L	Thermal conductivity NP TR DB	Correction TO PC ER D	References
Belgium	+			GRAULICH 1969 LEGRAND 1985
F. R. of Germany	+ + +	+ + +	+ +	BRAM 1979
Denmark	+	+ + +	- + - +	BALLING 1979
German D.R.	+	not specified		HURTIG & OELSNER 1979
France	+ - +	- + +	+ +	VASSEUR 1981
Great Britain	+ + -	+	+ +	BLOOMER et al. 1979
Italy	+ - +	+ - +	not systematic	LODDO & MONGELLI 1979
Holland	+			THIADENS 1968 SADEE 1975 v. ENGEN 1975 DALFSEN 1981
Austria	+ - +	+	not systematic	HAENEL & ZOTH 1973 BOLDIZSÁR 196
Switzerland	+	<del>- + -</del>	+ + + -	BODMER 1982
	- + -	- + -	+ +	RYBACH & FINCKH 1979 FINCKH 1981
2:-	+	+	+ + - +	ALBERT-B. 1979
Spain	+		+	
Czechoslovakia	+	- + +	+ +	ČERMÁK 1979
Hungary	+ + -	- + +	<del>-</del> - <del>-</del> +	HORVÁTH et al. 1979

Temperature measurements: D = drillholes T = tunnels and shafts L = lakes Thermal conductivity: NP = needle probe TR = transient method DB = "divided bar" method

Corrections applied: TO = topography PC = paleoclimate ER = erosion D = misc. (e.g. sedimentation)

**Table 6:** Data density and average HFD in different European countries

Country	surface (km²)	$Q^*$ mW/m²	number of values	data density per 10 <sup>4</sup> km <sup>2</sup>
Belgium .	30507	ca. 55	_	
F. R. of Germany	248454	67	175	1.6
Denmark	43042	61	36	8.4
German D. R.	108273	83	348	32.1
France	551603	99	133	2.4
Great Britain	244016	68	71	2.9
Italy	301218	69	62	2.1
Holland	36127	55	6	1.7
Austria	83849	72	51	6.1
Switzerland (total)	41488	83	104	25.1
Alps**)	23530	77	31(24)	13.2 (10.2)
Foreland	17758	88	73	41.1
Spain	504741	82	133	2.6
Czechoslovakia	127859	74	112	8.8
Hungary	93030	95	27	2.9
USSR (Europ. part)	5570000	52	761	0.1

<sup>\*</sup>Values taken from ČERMÁK (1979) (except for Switzerland)
\*\*Value for Alps + lake measurements in Southern Switzerland.
Values in brackets: Alps only

## 6. Conclusions

The average heat flow density in Switzerland amounts to about  $85 \text{ mW/m}^2$ , within a width of variation from  $40 \text{ mW/m}^2$  to  $160 \text{ mW/m}^2$ . The estimated error of the contoured isolines apart from areas with strong water circulation effects (which are shown on the map) is expected to be less than  $\pm 10 \text{ mW/m}^2$ .

The surface heat flow density pattern in Switzerland clearly displays a general trend: the heat flow density values decrease from north to south towards the Alps, reach a minimum there and increase again further south. Superimposed on this regional trend are several local anomalies, positive and negative, which can be attributed to thermal effects of deep groundwater circulation. Groundwater seepage velocities in the order of only a few mm/year can already cause anomalies of the observed strength.

The heat flow density map displays the actual state of knowledge of the regional geothermal conditions in Switzerland. Since the data base used is small compared to other geophysical maps, and since the quality of some data is poor, the introduction of new data may have considerable effects on the course of the isolines. This is especially the case in the Alps and the Jura with generally rather low data density and where major local disturbances of the geothermal conditions of the subsurface can be expected. It is, therefore, indispensable that the Geothermal Map of Switzerland is revised periodically on the basis of new data collected by or communicated to the authors of the present map. The data processing technique developed allows for rapid and efficient updating.

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Appendix 1: Drillhole objects, temperature data categories

Drillhole	Coordinates	Terrain elevation	Depth (m)	Geology at bottom hole		-		eratur ategor		L	
		(m.a. sea level)		noie	i	2	3	4	5	6	7
Allschwil 1	607980/267300	276	327	ma	×				×	u .	v
Allschwil 2	605960/265820	332 419	922 500	ma omm			×		×	×	×
Aqui, Zürich Badenweiler 3 (D)	682125/246569 617225/294325	425	505	r r	×		×		×		
Baitenhausen 1(D)	740300/286500	435	1500	ma						×	×
Balzers	757000/214000	480	620	dg ?				×			×
Belmont Buss (F)	456019/292267 608410/285980	127 225	170 1194	mm		×			×		
Bad Bellingen 3 (D) Berlingen	719685/280195	593	2311	r	×				×		
Besançon (F)	497061/233970	320	135	?				~		×	
KKW Beznau	659491/267242	326 455	322 653	mm kk				×			
Biaschina Birmo AG	709250/142050 660350/257675	368	160	mm				×			
Bizonnes (F)	442667/40613	474	1424	?							×
Boswil	664845/237415	648	1836	ma	×			×	×		
Brislach	609175/253465	412 190	180 1201	ma ?				^			×
Bresse 2 (F) Bresse S1 (F)	413155/126691 422953/98601	287	2603	?							×
Bresse S2 (F)	431699/83527	314	1072	?							×
Bresse 103 (F)	407962/121297	216	1632	?				×			^
Bronschhofen	719500/260160	540 680	40 60	osm osm				×	×		
Brunnadern Buggingen 1 (D)	728610/243300 613680/300650	222	830	ol						×	×
Buix	568780/258620	395	1053	?					×		×
Chapelle	547306/168360	764	1531	kr ?	×				×		
Chapéry (F)	491100/78000 706210/147380	600 700	4200 305	; kk	^				×		
Chiggiogna Curciat (F)	424966/148568	197	530	?							×
Courtion	572415/189420	599	3084	mm	×				×		
Densbüren	646455/255054	516	237 2702	mm				×		×	×
Dingelsdorf I (D)	727950/288300 773523/256360	450 414	2820	gg usm	×					×	
Dornbirn (A) Eclepens	533220/168380	527	2150	k		×			×		
Eglisau 2	680820/269865	380	423	ma	×				×		
Entlebuch	651250/202800	1080 792	5300 2065	pk ?		×			^		×
Essavilly (F) Essertines	495342/182123 539775/173490	661	2936	k				×			
Etrez (F)	426051/135567	001	1500	?							×
Ettenkirch 1 (D)	755800/286600	473	2161	ma 1-	×				×		×
Faucigny (F)	516550/108950	766 230	4950 2103	pk dg	^			×	^		
Feldkirch (F) Frenkendorf	587300/300900 621042/262365	308	300	mm				×			
Frick	644264/261903	346	297	mu						×	×
Furttal 709	ca.676000/256000	420	205	q				×			
Furttal 706	674350/255890	420 628	215 153	q osm				×			
Gossau Niederdorf Gossau Silthang	735200/252670 738860/253180	700	31	osm				×			
Grellingen	610570/254310	326	213	dg				×			
Gubrist	677310/252755	585	200	osm				×			
Guspisbach	686800/161050	1691	520	kk					×		
(Schacht) Habsburg 5556.19	655150/256780	360	43	mo				×			
Hard 2 (A)	768600/263170	400	271	q <sub>.</sub>					×	×	>
Hartheim (D)	614200/310190	204	1143 798	ol dg			×		×	^	
Heimersdorf (F)	583280/269090 613870/303370	392 216	1377	ol			^			×	>
Heitersheim (D) Herdern	710308/274597	528	2154	mu?		×			×		
Hirtzbach (F)	583250/272450	310	738	dg	×					×	
Hölzlisberg	757080/245780	570	194 300	dg kk				×			
Hospental Humilly l (F)	686800/164175 479200/105500	1364 667	905	kr	×		×				
Humilly 2 (F)	480500/108250	504	3040	ka		×					
Hünenberg 1	675522/224593	461	3288	ma	×				×		;
Jura 101 (F)	443880/133223	568	340 293	? r					×		•
Kaiseraugst WB5	622630/264726 644988/264509	300 353	70	mm					×		
Kaisten Klingnau I	661356/271397	443	398	mu				×			
Klingnau II	661510/271750	420	282	mц				×			
Klingnau III	661830/271950	440	271 2149	mu	×			х	×		
Knoeringue (F)	593470/268930 733250/284990	438 400	660	gg usm	^		×			×	
Konstanz (D) Kreuzlingen	733230/264990	538	2550	pk-gg	×				×		
Krozingen 3 (D)	618960/307710	225	610	mo				×	×		
Küsnacht	689296/241485	642	2693	ma da	×			×	×		
Laufen	603510/250350	363 1410	240 400	dg kk				×			
Lavin Leymen (F)	804000/182460 602840/261300	353	1155	dg				×			
Lindau	692815-255098	516	2377	gg	×				×		

Drillhole	Coordinates	Terrain elevation	Depth (m)	Geology at bottom hole		-	eratur ategor		a	
		(m.a. sea level)		HOIC	1 2	2 3	4	5	6	7
Linden	617704/188567	881	5448	k	×			×		
Bad Lostorf 3	637327/249242	549	584	mo				×		×
Malvallia	721870/142810	980	107	kk			×			
Martel Dernier	543730/203610	1025	300	kr			×			
Michelbach 101 (F)	575100/289950	348	1059	dg	×		×			
Moesrchwil	748180/258680	540	103	osm			×			
Mülligen BT2	659490/257200	355	74	mm			×			
Mumpf	636460/266270	282	207	r	×				×	
Neuwiller (F)	605800/263150	360	1063	dg	×					
Oberbueren	728740/257490	490	104	osm			×			
Oberdorf 92J1	623248/249274	506	125	mo			×			
Oberdorf 92J3	623720/249323	500	142	mm			×			
Oberhof Nord	642814/254407	550	62	mm			×			
Oberuzwil	728870/253400	640	40	osm			×			
Owingen (D)	729800/296700	523	1622	gg	×			×		
Pfaffnau 1	632708/231789	500	1843	gg	×			×		
Pfaffnau Süd I	634950/228120	616	1209	ma	×			×		
Pfullendorf 3 (D)	735520/312440	654	1345	gg?						×
Pratteln 41 J7	618837/264121	276	100	mm			×			
Pratteln 41J8	620736/264539	271	127	mm			×			
Ratanelle (F)	414862/154430	183	1113	?						×
Riburg	629210/267200	300	210	mu			×			
Romanens	564200/167400	945	4022	k			×			
Ronchamp (F)	536551/285300	, . <b>.</b>	310	?						×
Rueras	700250/169750	1400	260	kk			×			
Ruppoldsried	599450/215600	483	996	ma			×			
Salève 2 (F)	495500/099300	812	1984	?	×				×	
Santa Maria	704350/160700	1823	1187	kk			×			
Savigny I	546271/155312	839	2486	kr	×			×		
Schinznach		0.07								
5256.26	652470/256730	460	61	mo?			×			
Schinznach QN83	653900/255430	350	25	q			×			
Servion	549000/157900	765	1433	usm						
Sevelen 13	755360/221900	460	38	q			×			
Sevelen 14	754840/222010	450	41	q			×			
Singen (D)	703990/286630	435	685	ma				×		×
Sorens	571900/168600	1019	3165	ma	×					
Soultz (F)	584435/301660	250	1830	?						×
Staffelfelden (F)	585300/297450	256	1918	dg	×				×	
Steinenstadt (D)	609130/289915	225	491	dg	×					
St. Germain (F)	481525/69368	225	450	? "	• • •					×
Sundgau 201 (F)	589400/263100	448	582	dg	×				×	
Tiefenbrunnen/ZH	684200/245380	408	736	usm	•		×			
Thal Buechberg	759780/260260	470	55	omm			×			
Treycovagnes	536136/180273	474	3220	S	×		• • •	×		
Tschugg 1	572610/207910	463	704	ma	^		×			
Tuggen	714750/228760	408	1648	usm	×		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	×		
Vereina	793200/189250	1835	518	kk	^		×	• •		
Vevy (F)	463436/98617	522	918	?			,,			×
Wahlen	605670/249385	433	210	ma			×			•
Walzenhausen	760880/256340	780	57	usm			×			
Weinstetten (D)	611980/306320	207	2404	mm	×		^		×	
Yverdon (Belair)	540724/180554	529	185	ol	^		×		^	
Zienken 1 (D)		223	1762		U		^		×	
Zurzach 3	611220/299380			dg	×		J			
Zwingen	663742/271482	346 245	550 75	gg			×			
Zwillg¢ii	606905/253475	345	/3	ma			X			

#### Explanation of symbols

Temperature data category:

- uncorrected BHT
- 2. 3. 4. corrected BHT Test temperature
- Continuous temperature log

## Geology:

Quaternary Tertiary: "Upper Freshwater Molasse" Tertiary: "Upper Marine Molasse" osm ommOligecene Tertiary: "Lower Freshwater Molasse" ol usm e kr Eocene Cretaceous ma Malm dg Dogger Liassic

- several temperature data
- single temperature measurement
- 6. 7. unknown temperature measurement method

Muschelkalk mo: upper mm: middle mu: lower Buntsandstein Rotliegendes Permocarboniferous pk ka Carboniferous Crystalline basement Crystalline rocks in the Alps

KALK, BREKZ SST, GRUNL. KALK, SAND. KALK, MERG. LITHOLOGY SST, GROB KALK MGL SST MARBRE BATARD PORTLAND PORTLAND PORTLAND S(S) GEOLOGY USM NSN EWO **MMO** OMM **MWO EMO** OMM OMM M MWO OMM OMM MW0 OMM OMM MW0 OMM USM USM USM **MWO** OMM OMM 9.56 0.30 0.30 80.0 0.62 1.59 1.22 0.39 0.14 0.22 0.72 0.14 0.14 0.52 0.68 0.05 0.20 0.10 1.05 0.21 0.37 0.08 0.18 9.36 0.12 0.13 S(P) 0.41 1.17 0.91 0.89 1.00 .06 1.02 ANIS 1.05 09.0 1.22 1.19 1.09 0.64 2.36 3.85 3.09 5.19 2.88 3.82 3.19 3.93 2.90 3.29 4.01 5.17 3.19 4.00 3,13 3.20 3.04 2.45 4.38 3.49 3.22 4.49 2.63 K(S) .27 Thermal conductivities 2.58 3.16 3.64 3.78 2.96 2.89 3.10 3.91 3.38 4.19 3.94 2.96 4.21 4.59 2.99 3.40 3.21 4.74 3.33 K (P) 642.10 629.00 640.30 APPENDIX 2  $\sim$ TSCHUGG TSCHUGG TSCHUGG TSCHUGG B 1/11 BAECH GT 6 GT 8 GT 9 SAMPLE 19 20 G T 2 N 2 N 20 22222222

MGL, ROETL.

SST, FEIN

SST

USM USM USM USM USM USM

> 0.53 0.12

0.30

0.04

0.92 1.51 1.38 1.08

3.94 2.45 2.14

1/2 2/8 2/10

2/4 3/1

SST, GROB

MGL, ROETL.

SST

USM

0.42 0.31

0.06

98

2.99 3.15 4.52

3.03

4.06

70.0

70.0

. 14

2.69

. 01

LITHOLOGY	SST	SST	SST	KALK POROES	SUESSW.KALK		KALK	SST	SST	SST	SST	SST, GROB	SST	KALK, POROES	KALK	r. KALK, MASSIG				W KALK, OOIDE		KALK SANDIG	KALK, DICHT	KALK DICHT	KALK DICHT	CALC						H KALK			H KALK
) GEOLOGY	USM		6	NSN	NSM	NS₩	USM	NSN	NSM	USM	⊃	42 USM	_	9 URGON	URGONIAN	2	HAUTERIVIAN		თ	7 VALANGINIEN	VALANGINE	PURBECKIAN	1 PORTLAND	U PORTLAND	KIMMERIDGE	SEQUANIAN		_	S	18 WANGENERSCH	_	9	<u>~</u>		3 WANGENERSCH
S(S)			0.5								•	0.4	6.2	8.		0.0			•	0.1			0.1				0.0	0.08	•	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	9.1	.9
S(P)																			0.44	.0															
ANIS																			0.89	•															
K (S)	. 2	8	φ.	.7	.7	6.	• 2		. 2	2.92	ω.	.0	. 2	•		3,35	•	•	•	•	•	•	3.52	. 7	•	•	•	•	•	3.06	2.84	ω.	٠	φ,	6
K (P)																			2.58																
SAMPLE	GT 2	GT 3	4	27	7		~	L 2	8 2	6 Z	2 13	2 16	<b>Z</b> 22	~	URBL 28	BA 23	PJ 30	HA 24	PJ 24		m	P 21	POR 22		KI 33	SE 31	WE 58	WE 70	BA 67	WA 68	WA 69	WA 71	WA 72	WA 73	7

SAMPLE	K (P)	K (S)	ANIS	S(P)	S(S)	GE0L0G Y	LITHOL OGY
5.50	6	,			. 1	ro.	TON
8 25.40			S	<b>9.</b> 28	.47	OPALINUSTON	TON
B 28.80	S.	٤,	1.68	0.04	60.	OPALINUSTON	TON
28.90	m		_		.30	OPALINUSTON	TON
B 30.24	_	.2	-		.26	OPALINUSTON	TON
B 30.60	_	. 7	•		$\sim$	OPALINUSTON	TON
B 32	2.53	1.93	1.32	0.07	.15	OPALINUSTON	TON
32.85	_		•	•	Ŋ,	OPALINUSTON	TON
3 37.20	C	. 2		•	0.15	OPALINUSTON	TON
37.60	~	2		•	٦.	OPALINUSTON	TON
37.78	<b>(L)</b>		-	•	'n.	OPALINUSTON	TON
37.95	w.	ς.	•	•	۳.	PA	TON
3.10	•	.2	•		٦.	OPALINUSTON	TON
38.30	7	۷.		•		OPALINUSTON	TON
B 42.68	(7)	r.		•	7.	OPALINUSTON	TON
42.06	7	ω.		•	٤,	OPALINUSTON	TON
42.65	Ξ.	4		. 2	•	OPALINUSTON	TON
3.98		۲.		0.14	2	OPALINUSTON	TON
46.20	7	2	•		7	OPALINUSTON	TON
46.65		2		٦.	7	PALINUS	TON
49.80			2.17	6	0.12	PALI	TON
53.68		•	•	٦.	7	INUS	TON
56.95		~	•			$\vdash$	TON
62.00	٦.		2.36	0.16	Γ.	OPALINUSTON	TON
65.60		1.25	₩.	0.15	0.25	ALINUS	TON
3 64.12	. 2		6	. 2	•	OPALINUSTON	HON
66.25	6	-	6	Ţ	. 2	JURENSISSCH.	MERGEL, HART
KKWB 69.00 M	2.33	2.45	.95	9.17	0.41	SISSCH	KALK, MERGELIG
0 8 8	σ		7			POSIDONIENSCH.	KALKMERGEL
70.87	. 6	1.47	1.31		0.23	OSIDONIENSCH	MERGEL, TONIG
74.20	7	•	.5		.2	OSIDONI	MERGEL, BITUM.
74	2.73	2.91	6	~	4	OSIDONIENS	MERGEL, KALKIG
, ,	•	L		r	7		STIEDGEM WINA
KKWB 76.16 M	2.30	7.54	. 91	h 7 * U		OBLIQUACE.	STEPSHELL WINN
KKWB 77.50 M	2.14	1.61	1,33	9.19	0.39	OBTUSUSTONE	KALKMERGEL
7.70	٠.	r.		•	7.	4 NO 1 60 60 1 80	Mannaman

SAMPLE	K (P)	K (S)	ANIS	S (P)	S(S)	GEOLOGY	LITHOLOGY
KKWB 79.04 M KKWB 81.60 M KKWB 82.00 M KKWB 84.80 M KKWB 87.25 M	2.74 2.57 2.67 2.52 2.52	2.35 1.78 1.63 1.63	1.17 1.51 1.64 1.54	0.05 0.08 0.14 0.21 0.16	0.42 0.33 0.17 0.37	OBTUSUSTONE OBTUSUSTONE OBTUSUSTONE OBTUSUSTONE	KALKMERGEL MERGEL, SILT. MERGEL, SILT MERGEL, TONIG
KKWB 90.97 M KKWB 91.10 M	2.07	1.79	1.16	0.13	0.26	ARIETENKALK ARIETENKALK	KALK, HART KALK, HART
KKWB 95.45 M KKWB 96.10 M KKWB 97.47 M KKWB 97.90 M KKWB 98.10 M	2.37 2.26 2.39 2.27 2.28	1.15 1.21 1.23 1.10	2.05 1.87 1.94 2.07	0.14 0.07 0.17 0.20	0.38 0.21 0.21 0.18	INSEKTENMERGEL INSEKTENMERGEL INSEKTENMERGEL INSEKTENMERGEL	MERGEL, SILT. MERGEL, SILT. TON, SILT. TON, SILT.
KKWB 98.70 M KKWB 98.90 M KKWB 99.70 M KKWB100.70 M	2.05 2.31 2.39 2.29 2.29	2.14 2.14 2.14 2.29 2.29	.96 1.088 1.12 1.000	0.07 0.23 0.27 0.22	6.53 6.53 6.59 6.48	OB BUNTE MERGEL OB BUNTE MERGEL OB BUNTE MERGEL OB BUNTE MERGEL	MERGEL, DOLOM. MERGEL, DOLOM. MERGEL, DOLOM. MERGEL, DOLOM.
RUPP. 383.98 RUPP. 646.00 RUPP. 668.30 RUPP. 733.00 RUPP. 773.10 RUPP. 815.30 RUPP. 875.50 RUPP. 946.80	3.34 3.41 2.82 3.23 3.23 2.78 2.58	2.58 2.57 2.82 3.82 3.47 2.73 1.97 3.58	1.29 1.33 1.88 1.84 1.29 1.33 1.31	8.85 8.82 8.16 8.84 8.94	6.16 6.56 6.32 6.25 6.25 6.19	USM USM USM USM USM USM PORTLAND PORTLAND	SST TON SST SILT, MERG. SILT, MERG. SST SST KALK, TONH. KALK, TONH.
TSCHUGG 422.00 TSCHUGG 513.00 TSCHUGG 516.30 TSCHUGG 533.80 TSCHUGG 602.40 TSCHUGG 608.50	2.56 3.51 3.36 3.66	2.87 3.15 3.17 3.64 3.03 3.16	0.89 1.11 0.92 1.01 1.16	0.08 0.11 0.03	0.41 0.35 0.26 0.22 0.34	USM URGON (BLANC) URGON (JAUNE) VALANGIEN MARBRE BARARD	SST KALK, MERG. MGL, KALK. MGL, DRUSIG KALK, TONH.

SAMPLE	K (P)	K (S)	ANIS	S(P)	S(S)	GEOLOGY	LITHOLOGY
65		2.75			0.22	GEISSBERGSCH	KALK
9		•			•	GEISSBERGSCH	KALK
<b>4</b>		2.66			•	GEISSBERGSCH	KALK
59		2.66			0.10	EFFINGERSCH	MERGEL
60		2.07			.07	EFFINGERSCH	MERGEL
64		1.96			.05	EFFINGERSCH	MERGEL
_		2.51				EFFINGERSCH	OXF.MERGELK.
40		2.29				BIRMENSDSCH	Ę
37		2.55				CALLOVIAN	•
41		2.85				CALLOVIAN	ECHIN, BRECCIE
38		2.92				CALLOVIAN	ECHIN. KALK
36		2.77				O HAUPTROGENST.	OOLITH, KALK
51		2.84			.1	HAUPTROGENST	KALK, MASSIG
HR 52		3.03			•	HAUPTROGENST	MASSIGER KALK
53		2.95			9.10	HAUPTROGENSTEIN	KALK, MASSIG
54		2.76			•	HAUPTR.STEIN	KALK
35		2.42				U HAUPTROGENST.	OOLITH, KALK
39		2.86				BLANCHE	MERGELKALK
4.2		2.78				CALC.A ENTROQU.	KALK MASSIG
5.0		2.46			90.0	MURCHISONSCH	EISENH.KALK
		ς,				OPALINUSTON	MERGEL
٣		2.63				Ö	KALK
2		• 4				M LIAS	KALK
RHAE 10		2.41				×	SST ROT
_		3.29				OB BUNTE MERGEL	DOLOMIT FEIN
4	.05	5.81	0.70	0.23	0.55		KALK, MERG.
ហ		3.96				GANSINGERDOLO	DOLO
n		1.92				SCHILFSST	SST ROETL.
1 1 2	.85	2.74	1.04			SCHILFSANDSTEIN	SST
**		Ŋ.98				GIPSKEUPER	
7		4.03			0.40	GIPSKEUPER	2
15		3.58				TROCHITENKALK	KALK POROES
12		2.80				GIPSKEUPER	
12		4.14				GIPSKEUPER	
9		3.77				TRIGONODUSDOLO	DOLOMIT

SAMPLE	K(P)	K(S)	ANIS	S(P)	S(S)	S(S) GEOLOGY	LITHOLOGY
AN 16A		3.23				SULFATZONE	KALK POROES
AN 168		3.23				DOLOMITZONE	DOLOMIT
2	2.72					BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
۳ ع	2,52			٠,		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 5A	2,75			0.46		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 58	4.47			0.43		BUNTSANDSTEIN	KGL.
9	2.77			0.46		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
8	4.54			19.67		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 10	5.10			0.50		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 11	4.51			0.58		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 12	2,64			0.36		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 12A	4.23			0.79		BUNTSANDSTEIN	KGL.
M 14	6.63			0.27		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 15	5.82			0.65		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
M 17	3.04			0.10		BUNTSANDSTEIN	SST
QP 85	•	2.60	1.10	•	2	KRISTALLIN	QUARZPORPH.
HG 74A 608.50	3,99	3.90	1.02	0.64	0.46	KRISTALLIN	MONZOGRANIT
608.5		2.23			0	KRISTALLIN	KERSANTIT
NO 58B	3.64	3.62	1.00	0.14	0.42	KRISTALLIN	GRANODIORIT

# LEGEND

All thermal conductivities are in W/m,  $^{\text{O}}\text{K}$ 

K(S)

<sup>=</sup> thermal conductivity perpendicular to layering/schistosity thermal conductivity parallel to layering/schistosity H K(P)

anisotropy of thermal conductivity = K(P)/K(S)ANIS

<sup>=</sup> standard deviation of K(P)S(F)

<sup>=</sup> standard deviation of K(S)

APPENDIX 3
HEAT FLOW DENSITY (MILLIWATT/SQ. METER)

## CORRECTED FOR TOPOGRAPHY

SWISS	SITE	GEOGRAP	HIC							
COORDINATES		COORDIN	ATES	ZMIN	ZMAX	н	NT	чĸ	HFD	DHFD
607980. 267300.	ALLSCHWIL 1	47334N	7327£	O.	327.	230.	5	5	94.	68.
502134. 80113.	ANNECY	45520N	6107E	o.	٥.	٥.	3		111.	c.
505920. 72642.	ANNECY	45480N	6137E	Û.	0.	Đ.	O	0	68.	0.
638410. 285980.	BAD BELLINGEN	47435N	7331 E	ů.	1100.	230.	Z	17	135.	-1.
740300. 256500.	BAITENHAUSEN	47267N	9180E	٥.	1500.	ο.	4	3	105.	14.
662597. 227543.	BALDEGGERSEE	4711BN	8159E	Ō.	c.	0.	0	0	96.	0.
757000. 214000.	BALZERS	47035N	9303E	27	600		125	2	78.	3.
456019. 292267.	BELMONT BUSS (F)	47459N	5311E	50.	127	Ď.	ב		150.	a.
71 9685 280195	BERLINGEN 1	47397N	9019E		2312.	590.	3	16	91.	-1.
497061. 233970.	BESANÇON TH(F)	47149N	6047E	90.	135.	0.	ō	1	74.	Q.
659490. 267240.	BEZNAU	47332N	8138E	0.	30C.	330.	27		106.	7.
		46253N	8516E	o.	640.	460.	103	7	79	1.
709250. 142050.	BIASCHINA		71088	o.	Č.	٥.	Ü	ò	59	ć.
580389. 218291.	BIELERSEE	47069N 47281N	8144E	Ů.	79	370	22		155	13.
660350. 257700.	BIRMO AG				1424.	0.	ַ טַ	3	96	0.
442667. 40613.	BIZONNES (F)	45300N	5256E				Ö		116	õ.
749471. 273872.	BODENSEE	47359N	9256E	Q.	Ç.	j.	-		115.	o.
747019. 275662.	BODENSEE	47369N	9237 E	0.	0.	o.	õ			
743215. 277422.	BODENSEE	47379N	9207E	0.	Q.	Q.	J		122.	ç.
748441. 262726.	BODENSEE	47299N	9246E	Q.	. 3	0.	0		117.	0.
664850. 237420.	BOSWIL 1	47171N	8178E	0.	1836.	650.	1	5	70.	٥.
478941. 67567.	80 UR GET	45450N	5530E	o.	c.	0.	0	3	68.	e.
478960. 69419.	BOURGET	45460N	5530E	0.	0.	٥.	ũ	O		0.
614687. 299990.	BRD	47511N	7381E	٥.	c.	٥.	2	3		٥.
413155. 126691.	BRESSE 2 (F)	46160N	5009E	894.	1201.	Э.	Э	3		c.
422953. 98601.	BRESSE S1 (F)	4601 ON	5091E	0.	2603.	0.	0	3	96.	C+
431699. 83527.	BRESSE S2 (F)	45530N	5162E	Q.	1072.	0.	Ç	ō	113.	ō.
407962. 121297.	BRESSE 103 (F)	46130N	4573E	Ó.	1632.	٦.	3	2	108.	ο.
719500. 260160.	BRONSCHHOFEN TRUENGE		9015E	15.	40.	540.	26	5	97.	10.
728610. 243300.	BRUNNADERN	47197N	9084E	12.	56.	680.	45	1	34.	2.
56 49 20 . 25 8 7 6 0 .	BUIX	47288N	7015E	0	888	400.	24	12	109.	4.
547310. 168360.	CHAPELLE	46399N	6450E	ä.	1500.	765.	2	6		-1.
706210. 147380.	CHIGGIOGNA	46282N	8493E	o.	305.	700.	5.5	1		5.
		45550N	9080E	0.	Ġ.	0.	Ō	Ġ	_	o.
731436. 86312.	COMERSEE	45550N	9080E	o.	č.	š.	ũ	ō		ā.
731436. 86312.	COMERSEE			Ö.	õ.	Ö.	ว์		103	Ö.
741549. 97659.	COMERSEE	46310N	916JE			2.	3		100.	Ö.
424966. 148508.	COURCIAT DONG (F)	46280N	5096E		1530.		2	25		-1.
572415. 189420.	COURTION	46513N	7046E		3077.	, 50.		2		0
728200. 285900.	DINGELSDORF (BRD)	47427N	9033E		1046.	450.	2			
773523. 256300.	DORNBIRN (OE)	47261N	9444E		2820.	430.	5		115.	
533220. 168380.	ECLE PENS_	46398N	6347 E		2142.	530.	3	5		-1.
680830. 269880.	EGLISAU 2	47345N	8308E	٥,	423.	380.	2		102.	-1.
651250. 202800.	ENTL EBUCH	46585N	8367E	0.	5230.		6	5		23.
495342. 182123.	ESSAVILLY (F)	46470N	6041E	1823.	2065.	0.	Э	2		Ç.
539780. 173490.	ESSERTINES	46426N	6391 E	0.	3000.	660.	3 J		104.	4
426051, 135567.	ETREZ (F)	46210N	5107E		1500.	٥.	ن		102.	c.
750630. 280600.	ETTENKIRCH	47396N	9267E	٥.	3000.	470.	30	7		7.
516550. 117950.	FAUCIGNY	46125N	6214E	0.	С.	0.	ù	0	82.	0.
586943. 299801.	FELDKIRCH(F)	47510N	7159E	600.	1600.	0.	0	g	36.	0.
621040. 262370.	FRENKENDORF	47307N	7431E	O.	235.	310.	39	14	164.	8.
676830. 153740.	FURKA	46319N	8264E	0.	1460.	2950.	13	2	28.	7.
674350. 255890.	FURTTAL 706	47270N	8255E	0.	205.	420.	37	2	64.	3.
676000. 256000.	FURTTAL 709	47271N	8268E	ō.	175.	420.	34	2		2
852318 64232	GARDASEE		104776	0.		0.	0		117.	0.
853522. 67989.	GARDASEE		10417E	ō.	c.	ā.	ā		120.	O.
735200. 252670.	GOSSAU NIDERDORFER F		9138E	ă.	153.	630.	75		134.	13.
733860. 253180.	GOSSAU SILTHANG NI	47249N	9168E	21.	31.	700.	11		187.	34.
	GOTTHARD SEB 3	46331N	8360E	0.			22	2		4
689090. 156200.	SBB GOTTHARDTUNNEL 1		8356E	0.		1840.	21	2		10
688380. 164400.		46349N					13	2		Ê
686630. 159480.	GOTTHARD 2		8341E	J.			24	2		
686690. 159290.	GOTTHARD Z	46348N	8342E	0.				3		
687510. 166480.	GOTTHARDSTRASSENTUNN		8349E	٥.		1810.	20		109.	
693040. 246150.	GREIFENSEE	47216N	8432E	0.	Ç.	c.	0			0.
694120. 244941.	GREIFENSEE	47209N	8411E	0.		0.	0	Ç		0.
610570. 254310.	GRELLINGEN	47264N	7347E	12.		330.	43	7		
677310. 252780.	GUBRIST	4725 <u>3</u> N	8273E	Q.		590.	24		135.	₹.
686230. 161050.	GUSPISBACH	46357N	8339E	ō.		1690.	29	1		
655150. 256760.	HA8SBURG 5556.19	47276N	5102E	0.			22		184.	
768600. 2 <b>63170.</b>	HARD Z	47299N	9436E	193.		400.	3	2		
585700. 2690UQ.	HEIMERSDORF	47343N	7149E	0.		360.			110.	
710300. 274600.	HERDERN	47363N	8544E	0.		520.	5 0		104.	
757080. 245780.	HOELZLISBERG	47207N	9311E	20.	194.	570.		1		
675520. 224590.	HUENENBERG 1	47101N	8261E		3298.	460.	4	5		
49 21 35. 108075.	HUMILLY 2 (F)	46070N	6026E	1993.	2926.	0.			5 51.	
802230. 66044.	ISEOSEE		10022E	0.	٥.	Э.			120.	
802199. 67896.	ISEOSEE	45440N		0.		٥.	2	5	94.	С.
443880. 133223.	JURA 101 (F)	4620JN		õ.						C.
622500. 265100.	KAISERAUGST	47322N		o.		300.	4	16	69.	
661460. 271500.	KL INGNAU I	47355N		ā.			34	2.	1 118.	
661510. 271750.	KLINGNAU II	47356N		ä.					1 111,	
30.3.0. 2111344	nestande es		3,345	٠.	- / - •					-

APPENDIX 3 HEAT FLOW DENSITY (MILLIWATT/Sq. METER)

#### CORRECTED FOR TOPOGRAPHY

SWISS		SITE	GEOGRAP								
COORDIN	IATES		COORDIN		ZMIN	ZMAX	н	NT	NK	HFD	DHFD
661830. 2		KLINGNAU III	47358N	8157£	٥.	271.	44D.	15	1	148.	22.
593120. 2		KNOERINGUE	47342N	7208E		2152.	440.	5	15	74.	-1.
729200.2		KREUZLINGEN	47374N	9095E	0.	2547.	540.	3	16	98.	-1.
689296. 2		KUESNACHT	47191N	8372E	0.	2682.	0.	2	5	69.	-1.
804000 <u>.</u> 1			46458N		78.		1410.	28	1	46.	₹.
537072. 1		LEMAN	4627 DN	6372E	0.	0.	0.	0	0	86.	0.
533249. 1 525501 1		LEMAN	46270N	6342E	0.	٥.	٥.	0	9	79.	٥.
525591. 1 602051. 2		LENAN	46260N	6282E	0.		0.	0	0	92.	0.
692815. 2		LEYMEN(F) Lindau	47299N	7280E	150.	220.	٥.	9	3	70.	_ē.
617704. 1		_	47264N 46509N	8402E 7403E		2376.		5		109.	23.
637330 2		LOSTORF	47236N	7560E	0.	5437. 550.	890 <b>.</b> 550 <b>.</b>	7	11 26	70. 96.	20.
521800. 1		LOETSCHBERG	46252N	7433E	Ö.	1540.		65	1	62.	2.
	96298.	LAGO DI LUGANO	460U5N	9006E	a.	0.	0.	Ő	ė	91.	ō.
716256。	88778.	LAGO DI LUGANO	45565N	8563E	ō.	Ŏ.	ŏ.	Õ	ă	94.	Ö.
	87462.	LAGO DI LUGANO	45558N	8530E	ō.	ŏ.	ő.	Š		111.	õ.
112753.	90546.	LAGO DI LUGANO	45574N	8536E	ō.	ō.	ō.	ō	ā	93.	ō.
722785.	97246.	LAGO DI LUGANO	46010N	9015E	ō.	Ċ.	ō.	ŏ	ō	91.	ō.
	91152.	MAGGICRE	45580N	8383E	٥.	0.	Ö.	ō	ō	124.	ō.
	94897.	MAGGICRE	46000N	8403E	٥.	¢.	٥.	0	Ō	131.	0.
	42810.	MALVALLIA	46256N	9015E	0.	107.	980.	76	3	57.	10.
43730. 2			46589N	6419E	0.		1030.	1 4	1	60.	9.
	77662.	MONT BLANC	45510N	6533E	٥.	٥.	0.	0	0	83.	0.
48180. 2			47278N	9243E	a.	103.	54).	92		100.	₹.
59490. 2		BTZ MUELL IGEN	47278N	8137E	55.	71.	360.	8		179.	61.
58929. 1		NEUCHATELLERSEE	46570N	6540E	0.	0.	0.	5	0	76.	e.
553834. 1 728740. 2		NEUCHATELLERS EE	46539N	6500E	0.	0.		0	ž	78.	o.
728870. 2		OBERBUEREN SONNENTAL OBERUZWIŁ BICHWIŁ		9088E	0.	104.	490.	105	2	93.	9.
29300. 2		OWINGEN	47252N 47485N	9088E	0.	40.	640.	40	2	85.	13.
592830. 1		PALAGNEDRA 3	46157N	9103E 8386E		1622.	520.	3 17	5	103.	22.
592460. 1		PALAGNEDRA 1	46108N	8385E	0.		1270.	13	2	48.	21.
532710. 2		PEAFENAU	47142N	7522E		1814.	500	3	19	91.	-1.
735520. 3		PFULLENDORF (BRD)	47569N	9152E		1500.	650.	6		126.	14.
620740. 2		PRATTELN 41J8	47319N	7429E	ő.	125.	270.	23	9	81.	7
414862. 1		RATANELLE 101 (F)	46310N	5015E		1113.	5.	0		121.	Ċ.
529210. 2	67200.	RIBURG NR 2	47333N	7496E	Q.	210.	300.	168	12	74.	3.
94200.1	674JO.	ROMANENS	46395N	7218E		3820.	0.	3	10	86.	42
536551. 2	85300.	RONCHAMP(F)	47429N	6356E	100.	310.	ō.	Ö		108.	ō.
700250. 1		RUERAS	464C3N	8449E	75.	260.	1400.	19	1	72.	6.
59945U. 2		RUPPOLOSRIED	47055N	7259E	0.	934.	480.	44	7	93.	Ź,
	98617.	SALEVE (F)	46320N	6116E	0.	1984.	0.	0	0	58.	0.
	69368.		45463N	5549E	100.	450.	0.	0	Đ	46.	0.
704350. 1		STA. MARIA	46354N	8430E		1187.	1190.	23	1	56.	4.
	55310.	SAVIGNY 1	46328N	6443E		2319.	840.	3	6	86.	15.
53900. 2		SCHINZNACH QN 83	47269N	8092E	0.	25.	350.	18	2	91.	26.
52470. 2		SCHINZNACH 5256.26	47276N	8081E	0.	61.	460.	21	2	90.	15.
'54840. 2 '55360. 2	22010.	SEVELEN 14	47379N	9288E	31.	71.	450.	41	2		3,
51810. 1		SEVELEN 13 Simplon S	47078N 46157N	9292E	35.	73.	460.	38	4	46.	1.
50660. 1		SIMPLON N	46163N	8066E		1710.		50	4 2	48.	6.
03990. 2		SINGEN (BRD)	47434N	8058E		2120.		54	_	75.	6.
84435. 3		SOULTZ (F)	47519N	8495E 7138E	1824.	5000.	440.	13	5	64. 109.	5.
59780. 2		THAL BUECHBERG	47285N	9335E	10.	55.	3. 470.	46	2	62.	0.
84200. 2		TIEFENBRUNNEN	47212N	8332E	145.	722.	410.	36	5	97.	7. 3.
36140. 1		TREYCCVAGNES 1	46463N	6362E		3210.	470.	5	16	85.	27
72610. 2		TSCHUGG	47013N	7047E	ä.	491.	7,0.	27		105.	2
14750. 2		TUGGEN	47120N	8572E	o.	1300.	410.	6	17	102.	7.
94550. 1		VERBANG Z	46095N	8398E	o.	480.	910.	15	ź	28.	17
96870. 1		VERBANG 1	46089N	8416E	ö.		1280.	12	Ž	48.	11
93200. 1		VEREINA	46496N	9583E	ŏ.		1840.	26	1	49.	₹
63436.	98617.	VEVY	46015N	5405E	Ö.	918.	0.	- 0	ò	125.	Ō
75591. 2		VIERWALDSTAETTERSEE	47009N	826JE	ů.	0.	õ.	ŏ	_	122.	Ö,
79419. 2		VIERWALDSTAETTERSEE	46589N	8290E	ō.	č.	Ö.	ŏ	ŏ	120.	Ď.
81955. 2		VIERWALDSTAETTERSEE	4659DN	8310E	ō.	ö.	ŏ.	Ö	ŏ	109.	ō.
60880. 2		WALZENHAUSEN HERHOL	47263N	9343E	10.	57.	780.	48	ž	70.	5.
		ZUGERSEE	47059N	8300E	0.	o.	0.	ő	ō	115.	ó.
80599. Z											
80599. 2		ZUGERSEE	47059N	8300E	0.	0.	٥.	0	9	123.	U.
80599. Z 88063. Z	35585.	ZUGERSEE ZUERICHSEE	47059N	8362 E	0.	c.	0.	0		118.	
680599. 2 680599. 2 688063. 2 688063. 2 663970. 2	35585. 35585.								0		0. 0.

ZMIN: MINIMUM DEPTH FOR HFD EVALUATION (M)

ZMAX: MAXIMUM DEPTH FOR HFD EVALUATION (M)

H: ELEVATION OF SITE (M)

NT: NUMBER OF TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENTS

NK: NUMBER OF CONDUCTIVITY VALUES USED FOR HFD DETERMINATION

HFD: HEAT FLOW DENSITY (MILLIWATT/SQ.METER)

DHFD: UNCERTAINITY OF THE HFD DETERMINATION (MILLIWATT/SQ.METER)

-1: REGRESSION (BULLARD PLOT) NOT SIGNIFICANT LEGEND

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