#### **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



# Estimation of the recession rate of Gangotri glacier, Garhwal Himalaya (India) through kinematic GPS survey and satellite data

Harish Bisht<sup>1</sup> · Bahadur Singh Kotlia<sup>1</sup> · Kireet Kumar<sup>2</sup> · Lalit Mohan Joshi<sup>1</sup> · Saurabh Kumar Sah<sup>2</sup> · Manmohan Kukreti<sup>1</sup>

Received: 15 June 2019 / Accepted: 18 June 2020 / Published online: 28 June 2020 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2020

## Abstract

Snout monitoring of the Gangotri glacier (Uttarakhand, India) during the ablation season (May to September) in years 2005 and 2015 by using rapid static and kinematic GPS survey reveals that the retreating rate has been comparatively more declined than shown by the earlier studies. Our study is based on the individual measurement by the remote sensing, added by the ground observations by using Differential global positioning system (DGPS) to determine the precise recession rate of the glacier at sub-centimeter level of accuracy. The GPS dataset show that the total average retreat along the snout has been  $102.57 \pm 0.05$  m from 2005 to 2015 with an average rate as  $10.26 \pm 0.05$  m/yr. Additionally, the shift in snout position was also measured through multi-temporal satellite data from 1989 to 2016. The results indicate that the Gangotri glacier snout has retreated by  $585.62 \pm 38.30$  m during this period with an average retreat of  $26.75 \pm 4.36$  m/yr from 1989 to 1999,  $21.58 \pm 3.77$  m/yr from 1999 to 2009 and  $14.60 \pm 4.81$  m/yr from 2009 to 2016. Such a decline in retreat is further confirmed by the satellite data set. A close examination of meltwater discharge and retreating rate ( $r^2 = 0.95$ ) show that both parameters are strongly correlated. Therefore, we suggest that a consistent decrease in meltwater discharge from 1999 to 2015 is in agreement with decreasing trend of retreating rate during the recent years. To determine the possible causes of decreased retreating rate, a relationship between debris thickness and melt rate was also established by ablation stakes. Further, we infer that the declining trend in the glacier retreat is not only controlled by prevailing weather conditions (rainfall and air temperature) but is also governed by increased debris cover on the glacier surface which prevents the ice to melt.

Keywords Gangotri glacier · GPS survey · Retreating rate · Debris cover · Glacier snout

Bahadur Singh Kotlia bahadur.kotlia@gmail.com

> Harish Bisht harishbisht890@gmail.com

Kireet Kumar kireet@gbpihed.nic.in

Lalit Mohan Joshi joshilalit81@gmail.com

Saurabh Kumar Sah saurabhsah289@gmail.com

Manmohan Kukreti manmohankukreti12@gmail.com

- <sup>1</sup> Centre of Advanced Study in Geology, Kumaun University, Nainital 263002, Uttarakhand, India
- <sup>2</sup> G. B. Pant National Institute of Himalayan Environment and Sustainable Development Kosi-Katarmal, Almora 263643, Uttarakhand, India

# Introduction

The Himalaya contains a number of glaciers, which are mostly valley type, covering an area of about 33,000 km<sup>2</sup> (Bahuguna 2003). Himalayan glaciers have always been an issue of debate in perspective of global warming and majority of these are dying due to global warming and climate change (Negi et al. 2012). During the 20th century, a persistent retreat of glaciers along the Himalayan arc has been reported (Vohra 1981) and this process still continues. When mass gain in the receiving zone leads to a significant advance of the terminus, the calving flux is amplified (Kochtitzky et al. 2019). Most of the Himalayan glaciers are partially or fully covered with debris, hence are divided into two categories, clean-ice type (C type) and debris covered ice type (D type) (Shroder et al. 2000). In the cold mountainous environment, debris covered glacier is the main agent of sediment transport (Kirkbride 1995). The debris above the glacier surface is generally deposited from the rock fall in the adjacent valley walls and erosion of lateral moraines and avalanches (Benn et al. 2012). Usually, the debris cover is important for determining ice melt rate as well as glacier mass balance (Zhang et al. 2011). Thin debris covered glaciers respond faster to the climatic changes than thick debris covered glaciers (Scherler et al. 2011). Since the glaciers are very sensitive to the climate change, a regular glacier monitoring is required to understand the role of climate change in the glacier dynamics. Apart from climatic conditions, the glacier dynamics also depends on glacier characteristics. Recent studies on Himalayan glaciers point to wide-ranging variability in the retreating rate and mass balance (Dobhal et al. 2013). This is mainly due to morpho-geometrical changes, behavior of winter and summer monsoons and incoherent climatic changes in the Himalayan region (Dumka et al. 2013). As the change in snout position varies from year to year, it is important to regularly monitor the glacier snout to estimate the impact of local factors on glacial retreat.

Hydrological investigations of mountain glaciers are equally important as they are the major source of fresh water for the community living in the downstream region (Bisht et al. 2018). Variability in rainfall, air temperature pattern and solar insolation mainly influence the meltwater discharge, which is one of the major controlling factors of the glacier melt (Young 1981; Bisht et al. 2017). The Himalayan rivers receive significant runoff from snow and glacier melts (Singh et al. 2008), therefore, the meltwater discharge measurements are significant to assess the melting rate of the glaciers (Srivastava et al. 2012).

Past positions of the glacier snout can also be reconstructed using satellite imageries and examination of the terminal moraines (Kaser et al. 2003). The remote sensing method can provide useful information in monitoring the glacier tongue position, length area, equilibrium line altitude (ELA) and volume (Negi et al. 2012). This technique is a bird eye view of the whole glacial body through which one can effortlessly determine the area, retreating trend and delineate the glacial catchment boundaries (Bhambri et al. 2011). For the last few decades, the method has been widely used to estimate ice extent, terminus position, volume and surface elevation of glaciers by using various multi-spectral and multi-temporal data and has a capability to recognize past retreating trends (Negi et al. 2012). However, this approach also faces inadequacy because even the Cartosat, 2.5 m resolution has uncertainty of 10 m (Bhambri et al. 2011). The ground based method is another way to estimate the glacial retreat in which the GPS survey method (static and kinematic surveys) and geomorphological evidences are used to determine the glacier retreat (Kaser et al. 2003).

In the present study, we have selected the Gangotri glacier (Fig. 1) as it has initiated widespread discussions because of

its more dynamic nature and varying rate of retreat. Several studies have been conducted on this glacier to estimate the recession rate using remote sensing data (Srivastava 2004; Tangri 2004; Thayyen 2008; Bhambri et al. 2011) as well as geomorphological evidences (Naithani et al. 2001; Singh et al. 2017), whereas, a few studies have been based on the GPS survey (Kumar et al. 2008). However, the aim of our study is to understand the dynamic nature (retreating rate) of Gangotri glacier using DGPS and the relationship between meltwater discharge and rate of glacier retreat. In addition, the emphasis is given on the impact of debris cover in terminus retreat of the Gangotri glacier.

# Study area

Gangotri glacier (30°43'10" to 30°55'50" N, 79°4'55" to 79°17'18" E) is situated in the Uttarkashi district of Uttarakhand (Fig. 1). Geologically, the area lies above the Main Central Thrust (MCT), a key structure in the Indian Himalaya as basal contact between the Greater Himalayan sequence and the underlying Lesser Himalayan sequence) (Metcalfe 1993; Bisht et al. 2020). The regional climate is mainly influenced by the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) as well as Indian Winter Monsoon (IWM) (Dimri et al. 2016; Kotlia et al. 2018) and the microclimate is affected by both the altitude and valley aspects (Naithani et al. 2001). At present, the glacier comprises mainly two inactive glacier tributaries (Raktavarna and Chaturangi) and four active tributary glaciers (Kirti, Swachhand, Maiandi and Ghanohlm). The Gangotri glacier is NW flowing valley type glacier, about 30.2 km long and 0.5 to 2.5 km wide (Kaul 1999). The longitudinal U shaped valley occupies 39.18 km<sup>3</sup> of ice volume with 258.56 km<sup>2</sup> glaciated area (Naithani et al. 2001). Evidence of neotectonic activity (e.g., deep gorges, triangular fault facets and tectonic depressions) observed in this region are mainly responsible for modification of the present landform. The occurrence and distribution of various landforms including snout positions of the tributary glaciers appear to be controlled by the neotectonic activity and partially by the glacial movement (Bali et al. 2003). The depositional features (e.g., lateral and terminal moraines, talus cones and dead ice mounds) and erosional features (e.g., gorges, truncated spurs, glacier striations, cirques, glacial horns, glacial lakes etc.) are characteristics of the glacier landforms and are well exposed all along the glacier valley. Throughout the glacier surface, transverse and longitudinal crevasses are formed mainly due to unequal surface velocity of the glacier at marginal and central parts, ranging in length from 4-10 m and 1-2 m in width. Besides this, the glacier abrades the valley walls, depositing highly unsorted, angular and unconsolidated sediments on and along its sides.

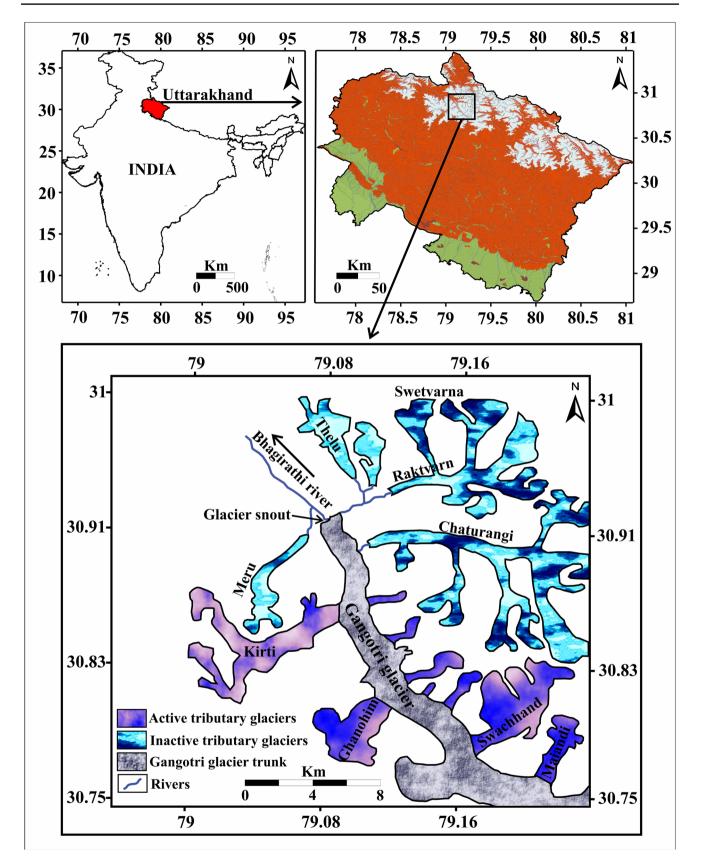


Fig. 1 Location map of the study area, showing Gangotri glacier system with its tributary glaciers

## Materials and methods

## **DGPS survey for retreat measurements**

The snout of the Gangotri glacier was monitored using Differential Global Positioning System (DGPS) survey with high level of accuracy for annual retrieval rate of the glacier. The survey was carried out all along the snout in year 2005 (May) and 2015 (June) by using a pair of Leica SR520 GPS receivers and AT502 antenna in rapid static and kinematic modes in which one antenna, attached with receiver was mounted on a solid bedrock with 1 mm hole located off the glacier (Fig. 2a), and another receiver was used as a rover (Fig. 2b) which takes observation at an interval of 5 s, lasting for 5 min to obtain precise position of coordinates with accuracy of sub-centimeter. We started the reference station 24 h before the kinematic survey for instrument calibration and to get a precise location of the reference point. The roving antenna was fixed to the top of an iron rod, attached to the backpack, nearly 2 m above the ground level (Fig. 2b). The survey was carried out along the closest possible tracks, 1–4 m distance from the glacier snout to avoid mishap from ice, rock and debris fall. The GPS derived raw data were processed by using Leica SKI-PRO 3.0 software and position coordinates were presented in form of the WGS 84 coordinate system. The position quality was also calculated, defined as Root Mean Square (RMS) error of standard deviations of X and Y coordinates (Kumar et al. 2008). The accuracy of results is also affected by large Geometric Dilution of Precession (GDOP), which may introduce a large error in the GPS derived positions. To minimize this error, all GPS observations having GDOP > 6 were not considered in the final analysis.

#### Area velocity method for discharge measurements

Area velocity method (Eq. 1) was used to calculate channel discharge as a product of water flow velocity (ms<sup>-1</sup>) and the channel cross sectional area (m<sup>2</sup>) in years 2005 and 2015. A suitable gauging site was selected ~1.6 km downstream (30°56'15" N and 79°3'53" E) from present position of the Gangotri glacier snout. The channel cross section area was measured by standard survey technique using ruler and a tape measure (Fig. 2c). Here, a transect across the stream at 50 cm interval was taken as the height from bed to the water surface. The channel flow velocity was measured by wooden floats over a stream flow length. Since channelized water flow velocity decreases exponentially towards the bed and banks of channel, the correction factor (k = 0.8) was applied to obtain mean channel

velocity (Hubbard and Glassar 2005). Variation in water level was recorded 6–8 times at a regular interval to draw a rating curve for daily discharge measurement by using following formula (Hubbard and Glassar 2005).

$$Q = k(A \times V) \tag{1}$$

Where Q is discharge, k is correction factor (0.8), A is channel cross sectional area and V is surface velocity of the channel.

#### Measurements of debris thickness for glacier melt

The study was conducted during the ablation season (May to September) in 2015 to determine the surface melt rate and varying thickness of debris cover. The ablation measurements were undertaken with the glaciological stake network method (Østrem and Brugman 1991). To measure the ablation and debris thickness, 10 ablation stakes were emplaced up to 2 m depth into the glacier surface by ice drill machine (AR 502, Fig. 2d). The ablation stakes were labeled as 1-10 from one valley side to other side near the tongue and were divided into two categories, e.g., thin debris covered stakes ( $\leq$  5 cm) and thick debris covered stakes (5–55 cm). The height of the ablation stakes from the glacier surface (Fig. 2e) was taken at an interval of one month during the entire ablation period of 5 months (May to September) to determine monthly melting of the glacier surface. The snout of the glacier was also photographed at the same place with high resolution camera in 2005 and 2015 (Fig. 3) to compare observed changes in its position and shape.

#### **Remote sensing method for retreat measurements**

Average annual retreating rate of Gangotri glacier snout was also computed from 1989 to 2016 through remote sensing method. To achieve past positions and retreating rate of glacier tongue, multi-temporal satellite imageries (Landsat Sentinel 2016, IRS LISS III 2009, Landsat ETM + PAN 1999 and Landsat TM 1989) (https://earthexplorer.usgs. gov/; https://bhuvan.nrsc.gov.in/) were processed and georectified using Arc GIS (ver. 10.2) and ERDAS imagine (ver. 14) software. A comprehensive set of multi-spectral and multi-temporal satellite data were acquired in cloudless condition (see Table 1). The registration error was calculated by registering the images 1989 (Landsat TM), 1999 (Landsat ETM + PAN) and 2009 (LISS III) to base image 2016 (Landsat Sentinel), which were 0.6 pixel or 6 m, 0.4 pixel or 4 m and 0.5 pixel or 5 m, respectively. To assess positional accuracy of results, the uncertainty was calculated by using the formula, as proposed by Hall et al. (2003).



Fig. 2 a Reference antenna mounted on solid bedrock, b GPS survey along the snout of Gangotri glacier, c measurements of cross section area across the Bhagirathi stream draining from Gangotri glacier, d

photograph showing drilling on the glacier surface through ice drill (AR502),  $\mathbf{e}$  measurement of stake height to determine the debris thickness on the glacier surface

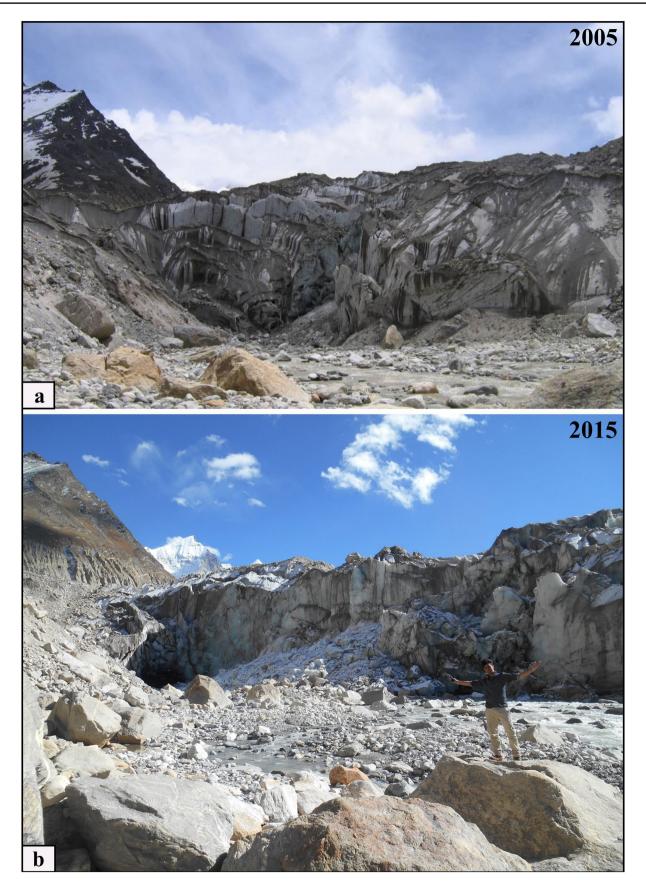


Fig. 3 Photographs showing change in the position of glacier snout from 2005 (a) to 2015 (b)

 Table 1
 Comprehensive details of multi-spectral and multi-temporal satellite data from 1989 to 2016

Satellite/sensor	Date of acquisi- tion	Spatial resolution (m)	Spectral resolution
Landsat TM	15/11/1989	30	G=0.52-0.60 μm R=0.63-0.69 μm NIR=0.76- 0.90 μm
Landsat ETM + Pan	15/10/1999	15	G=0.52-0.60 μm R=0.63-0.69 μm NIR=0.76- 0.90 μm
Liss III	23/10/2009	23.5	G=0.52-0.59 μm R=0.62-0.68 μm NIR=0.77- 0.86 μm
Sentinel	09/10/2016	10	G=0.56 μm R=0.66 μm NIR=0.84 μm

$$e = \sqrt{(a1)^2 + (a2)^2} + E_{\rm reg}$$
(2)

where all is spatial resolution of image 1; a2 is spatial resolution of image 2 (base image) and  $E_{reg}$  is registration error of the image.

Therefore, the uncertainty for 1989 Landsat TM data can be estimated as follows;

$$e = \sqrt{(30)^2 + (10)^2 + 6} = 37.62 \,\mathrm{m}$$

Similarly, the uncertainty was found as 22.03 m for Landsat ETM + PAN and 30.54 m for LISS III.

## **Results and discussion**

## Variation in retreating rate of the glacier

Monitoring changes in the snout terminus provides useful information for understanding the impact of various factors on glacial retreat (Kaser et al. 2003). Kinematic GPS survey along the glacier snout is an effective method for monitoring changes in the position of glacier terminus (Karpilo 2009). Comparison of mapped terminus positions of glacier tongue over different time periods provides a record of change in glacier length and area by processing the data, derived from the DGPS. Detailed analysis through the kinematic GPS survey indicates that the recession was maximum in frontal part of the glacier towards the northern side  $(129.57 \pm 0.09 \text{ m})$ and minimum towards the southern side  $(88.56 \pm 0.06 \text{ m})$ (see Fig. 4). This may be attributed to melting of the ice through tributary glacier meltwater (e.g., Raktavarna) at

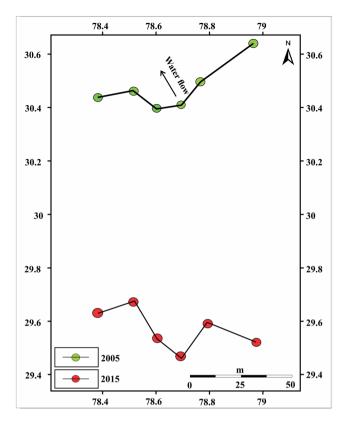


Fig. 4 Retreating trend and total displacement of Gangotri glacier snout from 2005 to 2015 as obtained from DGPS derived coordinates

northern side of the snout. A similar retreating trend has also been reported by previous workers on the Gangotri and its tributary glacier (e.g., Chaturangi) (Kumar et al. 2008; Bisht et al. 2019). Based on the DGPS studies at different locations along the snout, we infer that the glacier was retreated by  $102.57 \pm 0.05$  m from 2005 to 2015 (Table 2), and estimate that the frontal part of the glacier has been retreating at an average rate of 10.26 m/yr after 2005. Previous studies have revealed that the terminus area of glacier was reduced by 0.58 km<sup>2</sup> (~0.01 km<sup>2</sup>/yr) between 1935 and 1996 (Srivastava 2004). The preceding observations on the recession of the glacier show varying rates in the last century (see Table 3). The wide variability in terminus retreat rate and mass balance of different glaciers in the Himalayan region are mainly due to topography and climate of the region (Dobhal et al. 2013). Venkatesh et al. (2012) and Pudelko et al. (2018) also suggested that the reduction in glacier extent vary with time depending on the dynamics of ice movement (controlled by length and slope of the glacier), size and type of the glacier. In the Gangotri glacier, a higher recession rate (38 m/yr) was recorded during 1975–1976 (Puri 1984), while the lower rate (10.16 m/yr) was observed during 1935-1956 (Jangpangi 1958). The Sonapani glacier in the Himachal Himalaya also show variable retreat rate during different time intervals from 1906 to 2016 (Majeed et al. 2020). Such variations Table 2Position coordinatesof GPS derived snout points in2005 and 2015 for comparativestudy of average retreat rate ofthe glacier

Year/points	X (North) (m)	Y (East) (m)	Position quality (cm)	Change in N (dX) (m)	Change in E (dY) (m)	Resultant change in position (m)
2005-1	1038066.32	5380262.49	5.3	- 34.86	84.03	$90.97 \pm 0.05$
2015-1	1038031.46	5380346.52	0.94			
2005-2	1038054.9	5380266.2	6	- 38.72	80.59	$89.41 \pm 0.06$
2015-2	1038016.18	5380346.79	0.91			
2005-3	1038049.1	5380274.67	5.8	- 39.55	88.3	$96.75 \pm 0.05$
2015-3	1038009.55	5380362.97	1.23			
2005-4	1038055.6	5380279.14	1.4	- 54.65	91.9	$106.92 \pm 0.01$
2015-4	1038000.95	5380371.04	0.81			
2005-5	1038060.8	5380282.54	1.4	- 68.66	75.19	$101.82 \pm 0.07$
2015-5	1037992.14	5380357.73	7.24			
2005-6	1038072.3	5380289.3	9.1	- 103.43	78.05	$129.57 \pm 0.09$
2015-6	1037968.87	5380367.35	4.05			
Mean				- 56.64	83.01	$102.57 \pm 0.05$

 
 Table 3
 Recession rate in the Gangotri glacier as estimated by present study and earlier workers

Period Annual snout retreat (m)		References	
1935–1956	10.16	Jangpangi (1958)	
1956–1971	27.33	Vohra (1971)	
1971–1974	27.34	Puri and Singh (1974)	
1974–1975	35.00	Puri (1984)	
1975–1976	38.00	Puri (1984)	
1976–1977	30.00	Puri (1984)	
1977-1990	28.08	Puri (1991)	
1990–1996	28.33	Sangewar (1997)	
2004-2005	12.10	Kumar et al. (2008)	
2005-2015	10.26	Present study	

may correspond to changes in the climatic conditions and behavior of winter and summer monsoons (Thayyen and Gergan 2010; Dumka et al. 2013). In addition, the fluctuation in retreating rate through different time periods may also be due to low response time of large glaciers to the climate variability (Kulkarni 2007).

The results obtained from long term satellite imageries were used to determine the temporal changes in the snout position and retreating trend of the glacier from 1989 to 2016 (Fig. 5). The glacier retreat, computed during three different periods, viz., 1989–1999, 1999–2009 and 2009–2016 was observed as  $267.56 \pm 43.59$  m,  $215.84 \pm 37.66$  m and  $102.22 \pm 33.65$  m respectively with a total recession of  $585.62 \pm 38.30$  m (Table 4). Reconstruction of the past snout position and cumulative retreating trend clearly shows that the recession rate of the glacier was higher ( $26.75 \pm 4.36$  m/ yr) during 1989–1999, and subsequently, consistently decreased during 1999–2009 ( $21.58 \pm 3.77$  m/yr) as well as from 2009 to 2016 ( $14.60 \pm 4.81 \text{ m/yr}$ ) (Table 4). The snout retreat, measured by satellite data from 2009 to 2016, is more or less similar to the results derived by the DGPS during 2005-2015, indicating that the recession rate of Gangotri has been slowed down during the recent years. Bhattacharya et al. (2016) also reported decreased retreat rate during the recent years, compared to other debris covered glaciers in the Himalayan region. The Pindari glacier in Kumaun Himalaya also shows decreased recession from 1966 to 2007 (Bali et al. 2009). The satellite and ground based study carried out by Ali et al. (2019) also proves that the retreat rate of Pindari glacier has slowed down since 2010. Similarly, the Milam glacier has retreated at a rate of 9.54 m/yr after 2004 (Dumka et al. 2013), significantly slower than 30.32 m/yr from 1966 to 1997 (Shukla and Siddiqui (2001). Similarly, the Satopanth glacier which provides water to the Ganga basin, has receded at a rate of 22.86 m/yr before 2005 but slowed down to 6.5 m/yr in next years (Nainwal et al. 2008). Most evidently, a 70 km long Siachin glacier, too, has been in a steady state for the last several decades, with almost no retreat (Sinha and Shah 2008). Considering all this, we believe that the recession rate of many glaciers has slowed down in different parts of the Himalayan region.

## Relationship between meltwater discharge and glacier melt

The hourly data were used to obtain mean daily variation in meltwater discharge during the ablation season in year 2005 and 2015 (Fig. 6). The hydrograph pattern clearly shows an increasing trend of the meltwater discharge beginning from June, subsequently attains highest value around July and then gets decreased. In early part of the ablation season, the limb

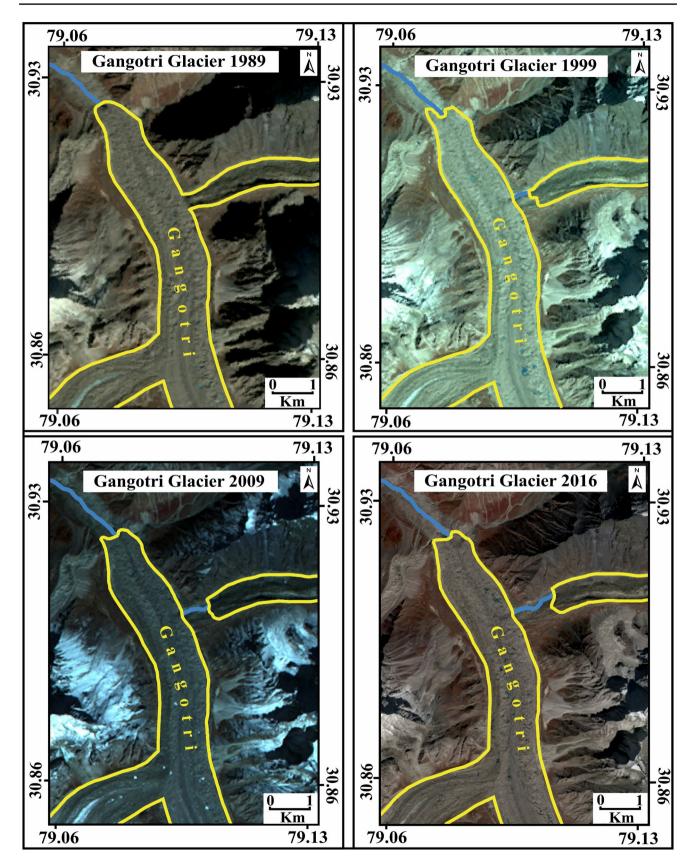


Fig. 5 Satellite images of Gangotri glacier with change in the position of the snout in 1989 (a), 1999 (b), 2009 (c) and 2016 (d)

**Table 4** Retreating rate of Gangotri glacier from 1989 to 2016 as estimated from remote sensing technique by using satellite data

Time duration (years)	Total recession (m)	Retreating rate (m/yr)	
1989–1999	$267.56 \pm 43.59$	$26.75 \pm 4.36$	
1999–2009	$215.84 \pm 37.66$	$21.58 \pm 3.77$	
2009–2016	$102.22 \pm 33.65$	$14.60 \pm 4.81$	
Total	$585.62 \pm 38.30$		

of the hydrograph is almost flat (Fig. 6) showing no significant changes during early part of the ablation season because of less melting due to weak solar insolation (e.g., Singh et al. 2006). The discrepancy in the hydrographs in both the years may perhaps correspond to variation in precipitation pattern and extreme events such as Glacial Lake Outburst Flood (GLOF). The total meltwater discharge volume draining from the Gangotri glacier was calculated for entire ablation periods of 2005 and 2015 (Table 5). To establish a relationship between meltwater discharge and retreat rate, we have compared the discharge values and retreating rate with previous studies (Kumar et al. 2002, 2008; Tangri et al. 2004). The average meltwater discharge and retreating rate in 1999  $(565.87 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ and } 25 \text{ m/yr})$  (Kumar et al. 2002; Tangri et al. 2004), 2000 (479.32  $\times$  10<sup>6</sup> m<sup>3</sup> and 17.15 m/yr) (Kumar et al. 2002, 2008), 2005 ( $423.47 \times 10^6$  m<sup>3</sup> and 12.10 m/yr) (Kumar et al. 2008) and 2015  $(354.42 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ and } 10.26 \text{ m}/$ yr) show positive correlation  $(r^2 = 0.95)$  (Table 6). Thus we suggest that a consistent decrease in meltwater discharge during 1999, 2000, 2005 and 2015 is in agreement with decreasing trend of retreating rate during recent years.

Environmental Earth Sciences (2020) 79:329

Table 5The meltwaterdischarge volume draining fromGangotri glacier during entireablation season in year 2005	Month	Meltwater discharge volume $(\times 10^6 \text{ m}^3)$	
and 2015		2005	2015
	May	_	17.92
	June	73.46	36.16
	July	145.32	120.98
	August	147.74	138.69
	September	56.95	40.67
	Total	423.47	354.42

## Impact of debris thickness variation in glacier melt

Due to vertical thinning, recession and movement of the glacier, enormous sediment load has been deposited on its surface from the valley walls. Also, along the margins of active tributary glacier (connected with the main trunk), the valley sides are scrapped and rock blocks are broken off into the ice and are carried away. This leads to undercutting of the valley sides and pave the ground for sliding, slumping and debris avalanching, bringing large quantity of rock-waste on top of the main glacier trunk. Some inactive tributary glaciers (detached from the main trunk), lying above the main glacier are also responsible for sediment transport on the glacier surface by meltwater streams. The physical weathering of rocks through frost-wedging is another phenomenon, responsible for deposition of the rocks on the glacier surface. To determine the influence of debris cover on surface melting of the glacier, 10 ablation stakes were emplaced on the glacier surface near snout. The results reveal that melting for

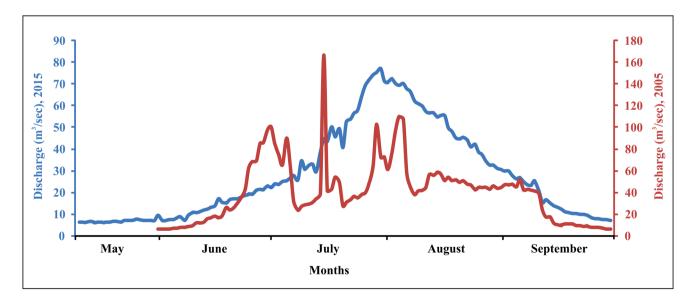


Fig. 6 Hydrograph showing daily mean meltwater discharge draining from Gangotri glacier during the ablation period (2005 and 2015)

<b>Table 6</b> Retreating rate ofGangotri glacier and totaldischarge volume duringablation season of four different	Year	Discharge volume $(\times 10^6 \text{ m}^3)$	Retreating rate (m/yr)	References
	1999	565.87	25	Kumar et al. (2002); Tangri et al. (2004)
years	2000	479.32	17.15	Kumar et al. (2002); Kumar et al. (2008)
	2005	423.47	12.10	Kumar et al. (2008); Present study
	2015	354.42	10.26	Present study

thick debris cover (55 cm) was minimum as 11.9 cm/month and maximum for thin debris cover (1 cm) as 20 cm/month (Fig. 7a), thus, the melting appears decreased significantly with increased debris thickness. Further, a strong correlation ( $R^2 = 0.96$ ) was observed between debris thickness and surface melting of the glacier (Fig. 7b), indicating that both the parameters are inversely correlated with each other. A similar pattern between surface melting and debris thickness has been observed in the nearby Chorabari and Dokriani glaciers (Dobhal et al. 2013; Pratap et al. 2015). Dobhal et al. (2013) proposed that the Chorabari glacier has slower retreat compared to other non debris covered glacier, indicating that the influence of debris cover is mainly responsible for terminus retreat of the glacier. Xiang et al. (2018) further suggested that the debris covered glaciers shrink with lower rate than the debris free glaciers in the Central Himalaya. We suggest that high debris cover near tongue is a major factor for reduced recession of the Gangotri glacier. There are several debris covered glaciers, retreating at a relatively slower rate, such as Shankulpa (6.8 m/yr), Dunagiri (3.0 m/ vr) and Bhagirathi Kharak (1.5 m/vr) (Swaroop et al. 2001; Raina and Srivastava 2008; Nainwal et al. 2008).

The retreating rate of the Chaturangi glacier (tributary glacier of Gangotri) was measured as  $22.85 \pm 0.05$  m/yr during 2015–2016 (Bisht et al. 2019) and this indicates that the glaciers, although stretching out in the same valley do not respond homogeneously with change in prevailing weather conditions and the retreat also depends on the glacier characteristics and topography of the glacier valley (Singh et al. 2017). The geomorphological evidence (e.g., terminal and lateral moraines) in the study also supports the retreat and shrinking of glacier in the recent past. Therefore, repeated photography of snout is useful tool to document changes in the glacier terminus position (Karpilo 2009). To estimate change in the position of glacier snout, photographs of snout were taken (in year 2005 and 2015) and there seems a considerable change in the height and position of the snout (Fig. 3).

# Conclusion

We conclude that the retreating rate of Gangotri glacier has been comparatively more declined than shown by the previous studies. Our results also prove that the consistent decrease in meltwater discharge during recent years is positively correlated with decreased retreating rate of the glacier snout. Therefore, we conclude that a consistent decrease in meltwater discharge from 1999 to 2015 is in favor of decreasing trend of retreating rate during recent years. In addition, we believe that the high load of debris cover and isolated boulders on the surface of the glacier with passage of time is one of the major factors for reduction in retreating rate of the glacier, as high sediment load prevents the solar insolation that protects the ice to melt. It also has been documented in other glaciers of the Himalayan region (e.g., Swaroop et al. 2001; Raina and Srivastava 2008; Nainwal et al. 2008).

Most of the glacial activities were observed near the tongue and upper reaches and palaeo-glacial marks and other geomorphic evidences indicate the existence of glacier up to several km downstream from the present position of snout. Nevertheless, the retreating rate of Gangotri snout measured by satellite data from 2009 to 2016 is more or less similar with the result derived from the DGPS from 2005 to 2015, which also suggests that the rate of retreat has been slowed down during recent years.

Although the tough terrain and logistic problems hamper detailed glaciological studies on the Gangotri glacier, yet the extensive field surveys seem necessary as they provide more accurate results than the satellite imageries. This is because the rock debris, covering the glacier makes it more difficult to measure through satellite research. It is also felt that all the tributary glacier snouts of Gangotri glacier system may be studied to assess the retreat pattern of the whole Gangotri glacier system.

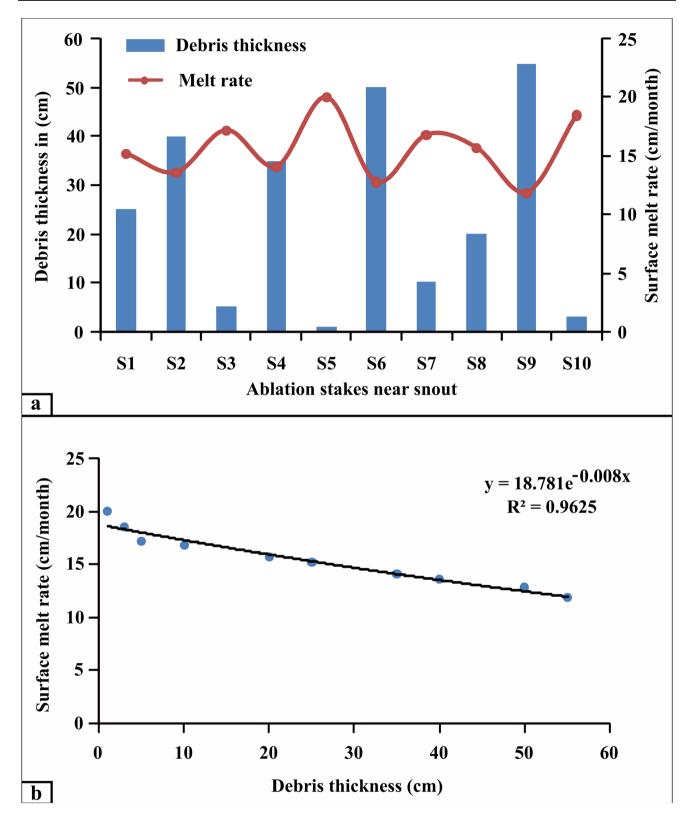


Fig. 7 a Relationship between debris thickness and average surface melt rate of the glacier near snout during ablation season (May to September) in 2015, b exponential relationship between debris thickness and average monthly surface melting of the glacier

Acknowledgements The research was mostly funded by the Department of Science and Technology, Govt. of India, New Delhi (Grant No. SR/DGH/58/2013). We thank the Director, G.B. Pant National Institute of Himalayan Environment and Sustainable Development, Kosi-Katarmal, Almora for providing facilities to carry out this work. We are also thankful to Naveen Chandra Joshi, Jagdish Chandra Pandey, Nikesh Pandey, Pankaj Kandpal and Mohit Tewari for their assistance.

# References

- Ali SN, Singh R, Pandey P (2019) Estimation of the frontal retreat rate of the Pindari glacier, Central Himalaya using remote sensing technique. Earth Sci India 12(3):146–157. https://doi. org/10.31870/ESI.12.3.2019.11
- Bahuguna IM (2003) Satellite stereo data analysis in snow and glaciated region. Training document: Course on remote sensing for glaciological studies. Manali, India, SAC/RESA/MWRG/ ESHD/TR/13/2003, pp 85–99
- Bali R, Agarwal KK, Ali SN, Rastogi SK, Krishna K (2009) Monitoring recessional pattern of Central Himalayan Glaciers: some optimistic observations. Proc Ind Sci Cong 96:79–80
- Bali R, Awasthi DD, Sharma AK, Tewari NK (2003) Neotectonic control of the geomorphological evolution of Gangotri glacier valley. Garhwal Himalaya Gond Res 6(4):829–838. https://doi. org/10.1016/S1342-937X(05)71028-5
- Benn DI, Bolch T, Hands K et al (2012) Response of debris-covered glaciers in the Mount Everest region to recent warming, and implications for outburst flood hazards. Earth Sci Rev 114(1– 2):156–174. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2012.03.008
- Bhambri R, Bolch T, Chaujar RK (2011) Frontal recession of Gangotri glacier, Garhwal Himalaya, from 1965 to 2006, measured through high resolution data. Curr Sci 102(3):489–494
- Bhattacharya A, Bolch T, Mukherjee K, Pieczonka T, Kropacek J, Buchroithner MF (2016) Overall recession and mass budget of Gangotri glacier, Garhwal Himalayas, from 1965 to 2015 using remote sensing data. Jour Glaciol 62(236):1115–1133. https:// doi.org/10.1017/jog.2016.96
- Bisht H, Arya PC, Kumar K (2018) Hydro-chemical analysis and ionic flux of meltwater runoff from Khangri Glacier, West Kameng, Arunachal Himalaya. India Environ Ear Sci 77:598. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-018-7779-6
- Bisht H, Kotlia BS, Kumar K, Arya PC, Sah SK, Kukreti M, Chand P (2020) Estimation of suspended sediment concentration and meltwater discharge draining from the Chaturangi glacier Garhwal Himalaya. Arab J Geosci 13:248. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12517-020-5204-4
- Bisht H, Rani M, Kumar K, Sah S, Arya PC (2019) Retreating rate of Chaturangi glacier, Garhwal Himalaya, India derived from kinematic GPS survey and satellite data. Curr Sci 116:304–311. https://doi.org/10.18520/cs/v116/i2/304-311
- Bisht H, Sah S, Kumar K, Arya PC, Tewari M (2017) Quantification of variability in discharge and suspended sediment concentration of meltwater of Gangotri glacier, Garhwal Himalaya. ENVIS Bull Him Ecol 25:10–16
- Dimri AP, Yasunari T, Kotlia BS, Mohanty UC, Sikka DR (2016) Indian winter monsoon; present and past. Earth Sci Rev 163:297–322
- Dobhal DP, Mehta M, Srivastava D (2013) Influence of debris cover on terminus retreat and mass changes of Chorabari Glacier, Garhwal region, central Himalaya. India J Glaciol 59(217):961– 971. https://doi.org/10.3189/2013/JoG12J180
- Dumka RK, Kotlia BS, Miral MS, Joshi LM, Kumar K, Sharma AK (2013) First GPS derived recession rate in Milam glacier, higher central Himalaya, India. Intern J Eng Sci 2:58–63

- Hall DK, Bahr KJ, Shoener W, Bindschadler RA, Chien JYL (2003) Consideration of the errors inherent in mapping historical glacier positions in Austria from the ground and space. Rem Sen Environ 86:566–577. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034 -4257(03)00134-2
- Hubbard B, Glassar N (2005) Field techniques in glaciology and glacial geomorphology. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, England
- Jangpangi BS (1958) Report on the survey and glaciological study of the Gangotri glacier, Tehri Garhwal District: Glacier No. 3, Arwa Valley: Satopanth and Bhagirath Kharak Glaciers, Garhwal District, Uttar Pradesh. Mem Geol Surv India, p 18
- Karpilo RD (2009) Glacier monitoring techniques. In: Young R, Norby L (eds) Geological monitoring. Geol Soc Amer, Boulder, pp 141–162
- Kaser G, Fountain A, Jansson P (2003) A manual for monitoring the mass balance of mountain glaciers. UNESCO Paris 59:107 (IHP-VI Technical Documents in Hydrology)
- Kaul MK (1999) Inventory of Himalayan Glaciers. Geol Surv India 34:136–137
- Kirkbride M (1995) Ice flow vectors on the debris-mantled Tasman Glacier 1957–1986. Geografiska Ann Ser A Physl Geogr 77(3):147–157. https://doi.org/10.1080/04353676
- Kochtitzky W, Winski D, McConnell E et al (2019) The impact of climate on surging at Donjek glacier, Yukon, Canada. Cryosphere 72:1–31. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-2019-72
- Kotlia BS, Singh AK, Joshi LM, Bisht K (2018) Precipitation variability over Northwest Himalaya from ~4.0 to 1.9 ka BP with likely impact on civilization in the foreland areas. J Asian Earth Sci 162:148–159
- Kulkarni AV, Bahuguna IM, Rathore BP et al (2007) Glacial retreat in Himalaya using Indian Remote Sensing satellite data. Curr Sci 92(1):69–74
- Kumar K, Dumka RK, Miral MS, Satyal GS, Pant M (2008) Estimation of retreat rate of Gangotri glacier using rapid static and kinematic GPS survey. Curr Sci 94(2):258–262
- Kumar K, Miral MS, Joshi V, Panda YS (2002) Discharge and suspended sediment in the meltwater of Gangotri Glacier, Garhwal Himalaya. India Hydrol Sci J 47(4):611–619. https://doi. org/10.1080/02626660209492963
- Majeed Z, Mukhtar MA, Mir RA, Kumar P, Krishna K (2020) Sonapani glacier recession over a century from 1906–2016, Chandra basin, Himachal Himalaya. J Geol Soc India 95:36–44. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s12594-020-1384-5
- Metcalfe RP (1993) Pressure, temperature and time constraints on metamorphism across the MCT zone of High Himalaya slab in the Garhwal Himalaya. In: Treloar RJ, Searle MP (eds) Himalaya Tectonics. Geol Soc, London, pp 495–509
- Nainwal HC, Negi BDS, Chaudhary M, Sajwan KS, Gaurav A (2008) Temporal Changes in rate of recession: evidence from Satopanth and Bhagirath Kharak Glacier, Uttarakhand, using total station Survey. Curr Sci 94(5):653–660
- Naithani AK, Nainwal HC, Sati KK, Prasad CP (2001) Geomorphological evidences of retreat of Gangotri glacier and its characteristics. Curr Sci 80:87–94
- Negi HS, Thakur NK, Ganju A (2012) Monitoring of Gangotri glacier using remote sensing and ground observations. J Earth Sys Sci 121(4):855–866. https://doi.org/10.1007/s1204 0-012-0199-1
- Østrem G, Brugman M (1991) Glacier mass-balance measurements: a manual for field and office work. National Hydrology Research Institute, Environment Canada, Saskatoon, Sask, (NHRI Science Report 4), Water Resources and Electricity Board, Oslo, p 224
- Pratap B, Dobhal DP, Mehta M, Bhambri R (2015) Influence of debris cover and altitude on glacier surface melting: a case study on Dokriani Glacier, central Himalaya. India Ann Glaciol 56(70):9– 16. https://doi.org/10.3189/2015/AoG70A971

- Pudełko R, Angiel PJ, Potocki M, Jedrejek A, Kozak M (2018) Fluctuation of glacial retreat rates in the Eastern part of Warszawa icefield, King George Island, Antarctica, 1979–2018. Remote Sens 10(892):2–25. https://doi.org/10.3390/rs10060892
- Puri VMK, Singh (1974) Report on Gangotri Glacier. Report to Geological Survey of India (Unpublished)
- Puri VMK (1984) Gangotri Glacier-report on the Interdepartmental Expedition-1975. (Progress Report) Rep. Geological Survey of India (Unpublished)
- Puri VMK, Shukla SP (1991) Tongue fluctuations studies on Gangotri glacier, Uttarkashi district, Uttar Pradesh. Geol Surv India, Sp Publ No 21(2):289–291
- Raina VK, Srivastava D (2008) Glacier Atlas of India. Geological Society of India, Bangalore
- Sangewar CV (1997) Report on glacier front fluctuation in parts of H.P. and U.P. Geological survey of India (Unpublished)
- Scherler D, Bookhagen B, Strecker MR (2011) Spatially variable response of Himalayan glaciers to climate change affected by debris cover. Nat Geosci 4(3):156–159. https://doi.org/10.1038/ ngeo1068
- Shroder JF, Bishop MP, Copland L, Sloan VF (2000) Debris covered glaciers and rock glaciers in the Nanga Parbat Himalaya, Pakistan. Geogr Annal Ser A Phys Geogr 82(1):17–31. https://doi.org/10.1 111/j.0435-3676.2000.00108.x
- Shukla P, Siddiqui MA (2001) Recession of the snout in front of Milam glacier, Goriganga valley, Pithoragarh district, Uttar Pradesh. Geol Sur Ind Spec Pub 53:71–75
- Singh DS, Tangri AK, Kumar D, Dubey CA, Bali R (2017) Pattern of retreat and related morphological zones of Gangotri glacier, Garhwal Himalaya India. Quat Int 144:172–181. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.quaint.2016.07.025
- Singh P, Haritashya UK, Kumar N (2008) Modelling and estimation of different components of stream flow for Gangotri glacier basin Himalayas. Hydrol Sci J 53(2):309–322. https://doi.org/10.1623/ hysj.53.2.309
- Singh P, Haritashya UK, Kumar N, Singh Y (2006) Hydrological characteristics of the Gangotri Glacier, central Himalayas, India. J Hydrol 327:55–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.11.060
- Sinha LK, Shah A (2008) Temporal analysis of Siachen Glacier: a remote sensing perspective. In: Nat. Sem. Glacial Geomorphology and Paleoglaciation in Himalaya, pp 43–44
- Srivastava D (2004) Recession of Gangotri glacier. Geol Surv India 80:21–32

- Srivastava D, Kumar A, Verma A, Swaroop S (2012) Characterization of suspended sediment in meltwater from glaciers of Garhwal Himalaya. Hydrol Proc 28(3):969–979. https://doi.org/10.1002/ hyp.9631
- Swaroop S, Oberoi K, Srivastava D, Gautam CK (2001) Recent fluctuations in snout front of Dunagiri and Chaurabari glaciers, Dhauliganga and Mandakini Alaknanda basins, Chamoli district, Uttar Pradesh. In proceedings of the Symposium on Snow, Ice and Glaciers- a Himalayan perspective, 9–11 March 1999, Lucknow. India. Geol Surv India 53:77–81
- Tangri AK, Chandra R, Yadav SKS (2004) Temporal monitoring of the snout, equilibrium line and Ablation zone of Gangotri Glacier through remote sensing and GIS techniques-an attempt at deciphering the climatic variability. Geol Surv India 80:145–153
- Thayyen RJ (2008) Lower recession rate of Gangotri glacier during 1971–2004. Curr Sci 95:9–10
- Thayyen RJ, Gergan JT (2010) Role of glaciers in watershed hydrology: a preliminary study of a Himalayan catchment. Cryosphere 4:115–128. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-4-115-2010
- Venkatesh TN, Kulkarni AV, Srinivasan J (2012) Relative effect of slope and equilibrium line altitude on the retreat of Himalayan glaciers. Cryosphere 6:301–311. https://doi.org/10.5194/ tc-6-301-2012
- Vohra CP (1971) Report of the training-cum-study expedition to the Gangotri glacier. INCH, CSIR, New Delhi
- Vohra CP (1981) The Himalayas: aspects of change. In: Moddie AD (ed) Lall JS. Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp 138–151
- Xiang Y, Yao T, Gao Y, Zhang G, Wang W, Tian L (2018) Retreat rates of debris-covered and debris-free glaciers in the Koshi River Basin, central Himalayas, from 1975 to 2010. Environ Earth Sci 77:285–298. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-018-7457-8
- Young GJ (1981) The mass balance of Peyto glacier, Alberta, Canada, 1965 to 1978. Arc Alp Res 13:307–318. https://doi. org/10.1080/00040851.1981.12004251
- Zhang G, Xie H, Kang S, Yi D, Ackley SF (2011) Monitoring lake level changes on the Tibetan Plateau using ICESat altimetry data (2003–2009). Rem Sens Environt 115(7):1733–1742. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.rse.2011.03.005

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.