

CLIMATE CHANGE AND LANDSCAPE EVOLUTION IN UPPER BEAS BASIN, HIMACHAL PRADESH

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award
of the degree of

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

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CERTIFICATE

I, Ishwar Singh, certify that the dissertation entitled "**CLIMATE CHANGE AND LANDSCAPE EVOLUTION IN UPPER BEAS BASIN, HIMACHAL PRADESH**" for the degree of **MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY** is my bonafide work and may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Landscapes are that expressions of earth's surface which are composed of an assemblage of subjectively defined components. Each element of the landscape that can be observed in its entirety and has consistence of form (or regular change of form) is defined as a landform. Landform can be constructional such as fault scraps, volcanic cone, glacial moraine, coral reefs and river deltas. Due to peculiar intensity of weathering and erosion most of the landforms are destructional or erosional in their nature. The landscape can be expressed as an assemblage of residual landforms. Each landform is transformed in term by the process of erosion. Landforms should not be viewed as an assemblage of slope, ridges, and mountain peaks, but also of erosional valleys, gullies, and hollows, between which stand the residual hills and mountains.

Since the formation of Davis's trinity of structure, processes and time (stage) the genesis of landform has became the focus of the geomorphologist's attention. Each landform can be visualized as a conversion of rock mass that has specific physical and chemical property, imperfections and geometrically disposed discontinuities i.e. bedding plane, joints, faults etc. All these minero logic, lithologic and deformation factor are collected in geomorphic concept of structure. The most important factor among the trinity of Davis is the process. Therefore, each and every thing that initiates the process must be observed carefully. The famous glacial and interglacial phases have been the period of intensive variation. On account of the interaction of surface process with glacial structure does not completely explain the landforms unless we include the length of time during which the process has been operating. Relatively few landforms show purely constructional evolution, while

some geomorphic processes, such as landslide or earthquakes are nearly instantaneous. Most geomorphic processes act much more slowly than anticipated.

Geomorphic processes also vary in intensity from one region to another, depending on the climate, vegetation and altitude above the oceans. The vital feature of geomorphic processes is that, like all chemical and physical process under the same set of environmental condition, they have acted in the past and will act in the future as they do now. Hutton's great principle of the uniformity of process, which is often called "Uniformitarianism" is a key stone of scientific investigation presently being carried out.

In the theoretical analysis of landscape evolution the time is a fundamental axiom. Time is typically measured in thousand and million of years in geomorphic evolution of landform. Traditionally, geomorphologist speaks of relative time and compares the development of landscape only in terms of relative stages of erosional evolution. The basis for this principle was that some landscapes are weak or easily eroded terrains, having strong degradational process at work, and evolve rapidly. While other landscape, forming on resistance rock, experience weak process and change very slowly. Little value was placed on specifying the rate of development of landscape in terms of actual time. Table 1.1

	Model 1	Model 2
Altitude of Valley Floors		
	Static Equilibrium Steady time (1 day)	Static Equilibrium Steady time (1 day)
	Steady-State Equilibrium Graded Time (100 – 1000 years)	Steady-State Equilibrium Graded Time (100 – 1000 years)
	Dynamic Equilibrium Cyclic Time (1,000,000 years)	Dynamic Metastable Equilibrium Cyclic Time (1,000,000 years)
	Progressive Change Cyclic Time (10,000,000 years)	Progressive Change Cyclic Time. (10,000,000 years)

Table 1.1. Models of landscape evolution. Model 1: Equilibrium components of Davis model of progressive erosion. Model 2: Equilibrium components of model based on episodic erosion (after Schumm)

Adapted from Bloom (2000).

Climate change which includes extreme weather phenomenon poses a serious threat. Change in climate condition will have profound and possible harmful impact on life on the earth. In this context, climate change in mountainous area occupies a special place. Mountains present fragile ecosystem, which are globally very important. Mountains are considered as the water-tower of the earth. These are repositories of biological diversity, destination of recreation, tourism and area of cultural heritage. Mountain influence climate and related environmental features as a result of four basic factor namely altitude, continentality, latitude, and topography. Mountain present different climate types with in a small areal extent, primarily because of its varying height and topography.

The terrain characteristics of the basin is a function of exogenic and endogenic geomorphic processes. Exogenic processes are climatogenic, these are function of the precipitation amount, atmospheric pressure, wind cloud cover etc. Frost action in cold moist climates results in physical weathering of rocks. In humid tropics, however, high temperature and plentiful supply of moisture lead to chemical weathering. Both chemical and physical weatherings are important agents of rock decay in the seasonally humid area of the basin. Ruggedness of terrain leads to local climatic variations, which determine the intensity of operation of various geomorphic processes. Beside the physical properties of parent rock and the waste mantle ,as well as the nature of vegetal cover and runoff characteristics also affect the type and character of landforms. Decomposed rock mantel, when charged with moisture, particularly in area of soluble rock, leads to frequent landslides

Climatic change over different time space and scale whether due to natural forcing or anthropogenic causes can be identified. The fluctuation from day to day or hour to hour can be studied with constant monitoring with modern gadgets..

Climatic changes have been noticed in different geological records with large fluctuation in global or regional climate over the past two million years (Quaternary). These fluctuations have been between ice ages which are periods of relatively large ice cover, extensive alpine glaciers, ice sheets and inter glacials with substantially high temperature. Temperatures were substantially lower in ice ages than in the inter glacial.

Short-term temperature fluctuation over land area differ considerably. Large-scale data show that the globe is warming at the rate of 0.5°C over the past 100 years. This temperature increase is common to both hemispheres. Science 1976 global temperature have increased rapidly with the 1980 being warmest year on record (WMO 1994).

Direct and indirect evidence of past climate change in mountain area of world suggests substantial changes over the last one hundred years or so. This is indicated most strikingly by glacier recisions. Recent model of global climate changes have stressed on significance of late Cenozoic tectonic upliftment of the Himalayas and Tibetan plateau. However there is a disagreement between uplift and climate, particularly with respect to forcing mechanisms timing of uplift and the timing and nature of environmental change (Owen, 1996).

For the optimal use of resources, specially land and water, there is a need for information from and about physical environment to meet the immediate need of

present and growing demand of future generations, and therefore to ensure the conservation of natural environment. The study of a watershed or a basin is directly associated with the management of natural resources in terms of land, water and vegetation in the changing environment.

Drainage basin is the basic natural unit for studying changes in landscape and climatic because of its direct control on water yield, runoff volume, fluctuating quantum of sediment load and biological components. From this an assessment of contemporary processes can be made easily.

The Upper Beas Basin has its own relevance in the landscape evolution and geomorphological studies because of its ability to influence downstream environs. The formation of landscape in the Himalayan region involves a number of different process domains at a number of time scale, to reflect changing environmental conditions . Many of these landforms reflect former prevailing climatic conditions and thus emphasizes the importance of climate as a major forcing mechanism of landforms genesis.

REVIEW of LITERATURE

Literature available reveals that extensive studies have been conducted on the global climate change and its impact on the overall environment. But very few studies are related directly to climate conditions and impact of climate variability on the mountain environments, especially in the Upper Beas Basin. Some of the works relevant to the present work are discussed below.

Critchfield (1983) has dealt in detail about the various concepts in climatology but has not done any areas specific study. Lal (1991) discussed various theories of climate

change like astronomical theory, Co₂ theory etc. He gives a brief historical account of climate change. The causes of variability in climate conditions on earth have also been discussed.

Several relevant studies have been conducted with specific focus on the effect of climate change in mountain areas. Bary (1994) has made an overall review of the past and potential future changes in the movement of glaciers in the two hemispheres. Price and Haslett (1995) made a review of the different kinds of works done in the context of mountain ecosystem and climate change. They have also given an outline of the various approaches which can be adopted, for such areas. But the effects of climate change on mountain eco-systems have not been dealt with in detail. According to Anderson and Westterstad (1992), there are technological, economic and policy solutions that may be used to limit emission of greenhouse gases, and, therefore, likely rates of climate change can be reduced. Bary (1986) states that for mountain climates and the likely implications of climate change in mountain regions one should note that these climates are characterized by marked diurnal and seasonal cycles with high variability at all spatial scales. The temporal and spatial variability is further increased by the diverse relief, aspect and slope. Folland et al. (1990) pointed out that the lack of data in mountainous regions will impede the progress of scientific projects on global climate. Inadequate knowledge of the interaction between atmosphere and the earth's other systems, particularly with regard to the roles of clouds and vegetation influencing the earth's tradition balance and of oceans in absorbing heat has been pointed out by Cusbach and Cess (1990) and Gates et al. (1992). Broecker (1987) considered the possibility of sudden changes in climate change as a result of global warming. Ketz (1988) suggests that considerable re-conceptualization of the design use of Global Climate Models (GCMs) is required for

many eco-systems where the extreme values are important. Giorgi (1990) analyzes the problems of GCM vis a vis the great variability of mountain climate over both space and time. He points out that computer models will remain only as exploratory tools for the time being. Smith (1979) has rightly said that meteorological research tended to focus on the upstream and downstream influences of barriers to flow and on orographic effects on weather systems rather than on conditions in the mountain environment. Brookfield and Allen (1989) have analyzed the frost occurrence and agro-climatic variability in New Guinea H highlands. Halpin (1994) has tried to predict the impact of variations in climatic conditions, through a conceptual model of the potential movement of species in different climate ranges along altitudinal gradients. In the Himalayan context, some notable contribution in the field of environment, resources and eco-development have been made by Shah (1986.) Sustainable development of any region, particularly mountainous region, may be achieved only through optimum use of available natural resources such as stream water; forests and soil.

The extreme events arising out of both natural and man-made causes are a major threat to the livelihood of the local community. Damage, loss of life, injury and disruption and economic activities caused by natural hazards such as landslides, snow avalanches, floods and debris flows have stimulated research into causes, and consequences characteristics, location and frequency of different phenomena. Debris flow and flash floods have created serious hazards in mountain environments like the Himalayas, Japan, Canada and Switzerland as observed by Caine and Mood (1982), Vuichard (1986) and Fort (1987). Ardner et al. (1992) analyzed the development of road network and tourism in the Southern ranges of the Himalayas where maintenance of traffic flow is a constant battle against debris flow and debris torrent blockage

during the monsoons. Schuster (1978) has done a detailed study on mass wasting and forest ecology of a post glacial re-entrant valley and on landslides analysis and its control. Crozier (1984) has provided a landmark contribution in the field of slope instability, landslides, their causes and consequences.

Smith (1977) has highlighted the impact of the various types of climatic extreme events occurring in different parts of the world and the preventive measures to be adopted. Heathcote (1985) has given in brief the analysis of extreme events in terms of first order impacts and second order impacts.

Singh (1998) has highlighted in his paper the relation between extreme events resulting from unplanned and haphazard anthropogenic activities taking place in the Upper Beas Basin area.

Pirazizy, (1996) in his book 'Environmental Geography and Natural Hazards' has explained the physical structure, bio-physical system, hazards and risks and erosion of Kulu, Chamba and Simla district of Himachal Pradesh. This is a pioneering work in hazard assessment. Pandey (2002) in his work on the Upper Beas Basin, titled 'Geo-Environmental Hazards in Himalayas: Assessment and Mapping of the Upper Bias Basin'. Geo-environmental hazards and risks by geologically occurring physical processes in the environment, posing risks to people and causing calamities in the area. Poverty, population growth and environmental degradation are the main causes of natural disasters. The hazards have varying degree of intensity and severity. Any natural hazard becomes a disaster when it comes in contact with vulnerable social settings of large human population. Many natural hazards are not so natural but are triggered and indeed aggravated by man-made environmental degradation. Pandey(2002) lays great stress on hazards but he himself did not undertake a detailed

study of lithology, rock structure, geology or hydrology of the region. He has used the weather data of only a single year, that of 1996. The source of this data is SASE, Manali. He describes the climatic condition and the nature of rainfall in the region. Dhar and Narayanan (1963) explained the nature of rainfall in the Upper Beas Basin. In their article, ‘A Brief Study of Rainfall and Flood-Producing Rainstorms in the Beas Catchment’, published in the Indian Journal of Meteorology and Geo-Physics, discuss the behaviour of the monsoon and western disturbances quite thoroughly. Eastern part of the catchment receives relatively sparse monsoonal rainfall than the western part. Being situated in the interior of the Himalayan ranges, the eastern part does not get as much rain as the western part because of topographic configuration. Thakur (2003) in his article ‘Manu aur Himachal ka Mahnu’ in *Vipasha*, correlates the mythic flood, mentioned in the Pauranic texts, in this region and highlights the formation of large lake around Bhunter.

Wadia (1981) and Krishnan (1956) presented a summary of structure, geology and tectonics of Himalayas. The manual of geology of India and Burma by Pascoe (1959) also contain some information about the region. Paterson (1939), provided a first comprehensive interpretation of the evolution of the western Himalayas in recent geological period.

The vegetation of different parts of western Himalayas has been treated by Sexena and Srivastava(1973), Puri and Maini (1957), and particularly for Himachal Pradesh by Raizada and Sexena (1978). The first modern quaternary study, on the Himalaya was undertaken by Porter (1970) in the Swat Kohistan. On the basis of mapping drift of glacial sediments he recognized evidence of Pleistocene glacial advances in the northern part of the Swat river drainage basin. Owen et. al. (1992) re-examined

Porter's chronology , using thermo luminescence dating technique. On the basis of landforms and thick accumulation of glacial, glacio-fluvial, mass-movement, aeolian and lacustrine sediments, glacial chronologies has been produced for the Karakoram mountain (Derbyshire et. al 1984), Swat Kohistan (Porter , 1970, Owen et al 1992), Nanga Parbat, Lahul (Owen et al 1995,96,97,2001) and Garhwal (Sharma . and Owen 1996)Himalayas . There have at least three major glaciations, which became progressively less extensive in dimension with time. The Upper Beas Basin has been identified to have undergone at least one major phase of glaciation which was followed by inter- glacial debris flows.

In addition to above literature other relevant references have been cited where necessary.

SELECTION OF THE STUDY AREA

The Beas river is very important as a water resources in Himachal Pradesh and neighboring states. It irrigates thousands of hectares of land in its periphery. This river is important both for horticulture and agriculture in Kullu Valley. Its paleoterraces are very important for the economy of Himachal Pradesh in the form of agriculture orchards.The Beas Valley contains various places of importance like Kullu, Naggar and Manali. Finally this valley is strategically very important because it provide a link to Ladakh. Besides the social and historical factors, the earth surface processes are very active and the region abounds treasure landforms.

Study area as a drainage basin:

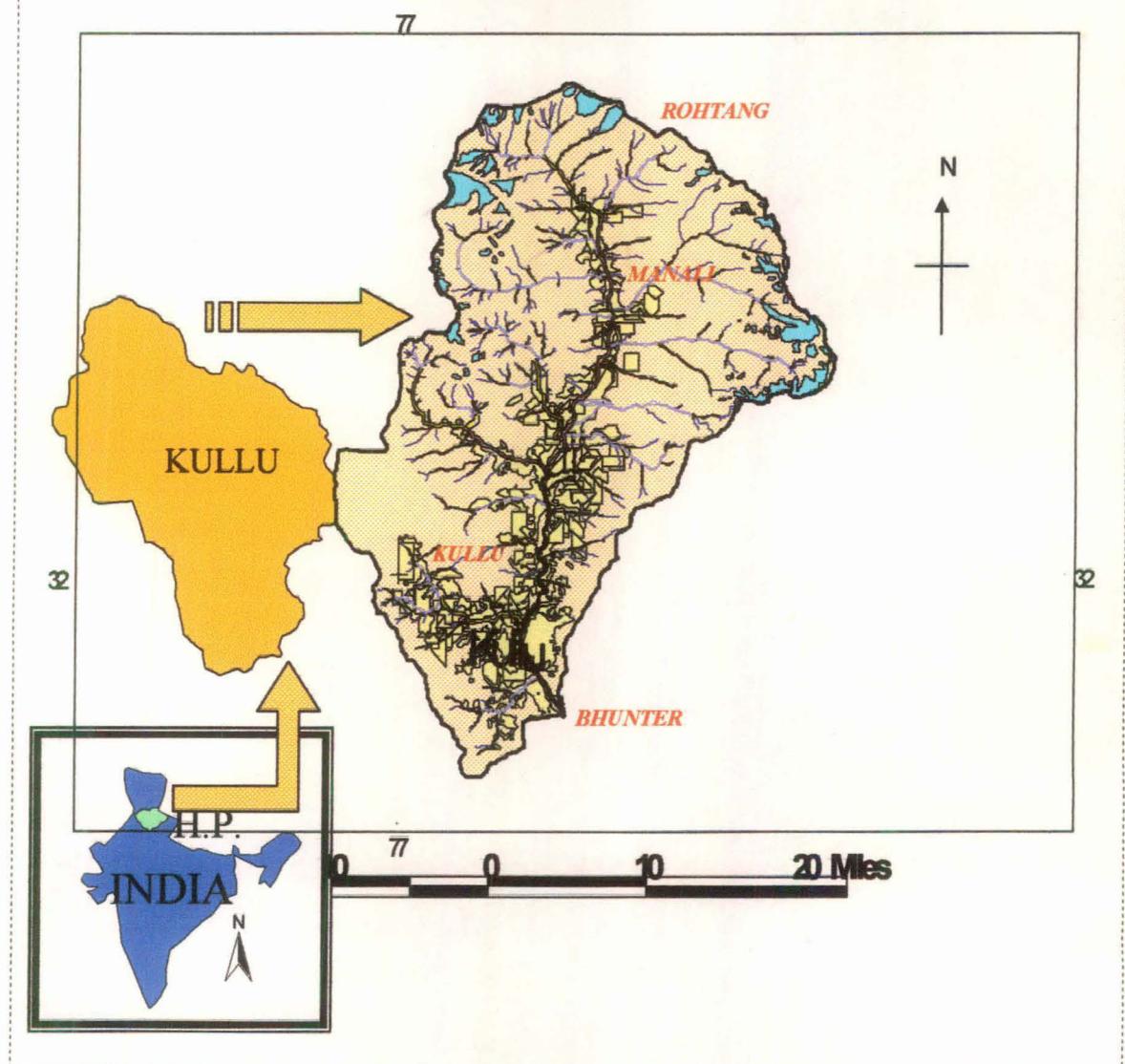
For a number of reasons, drainage basin is the fundamental unit of geomorphological investigation. It is a well-defined area, clearly separated from each other by drainage divide, within which surface or near surface flows of water and associated movements of sediments and solutes is contained. Since, it is the transfer of material that causes change in the elevation and form of the landforms over a period of time, a drainage basin constitutes the natural unit for the analysis of fluvial and other processes. Drainage basin as a unit of study in geomorphology is very famous since the days of Horton (1945). Another important property of drainage basin is its hierarchical nature. Each tributary in a drainage system has its own basin area contributing runoff, and so, large basin consists of many smaller ones. These features of drainage basins make it an important unit for analysis in geomorphology. Following the work of Horton and Strahler, many of its important properties can be expressed quantitatively, in a way, which allows one basin to be compared with other in terms of modification processes.

LOCATION

The Upper Beas Basin is situated in between $31^{\circ}50'N$ to $32^{\circ} 42' N$ and $76^{\circ}56'E$ to $77^{\circ}39' E$ in Kullu district of Himachal Pradesh, India (Figure 1.1). The area is covered by toposheets Nos. 52 H/3, 52H/4, 52H/7, 52H/8, 53E/1, and 53A/13. Moreover, US Military Survey Map No. NI 43-16 on the scale of 1:250,000 is also used. Its catchment area is approximately 1681.54 sq. km. The general elevation of the Upper Beas Basin ranges from 1120 m at Bhunter to 5345 m at Beas Kund. The basin is demarcated by the Pir Panjal range in the north, whereas Bhunter makes the southern boundary. The water divide with the tributary of Beas- Parvati demarcates the boundary in the east, and on the west by Ravi river basin. Therefore, the study area remains the upper region of Beas river from Beas Kund to Bhunter, roughly 65 km. in length and 45 km in width.

Figure 1.1

LOCATION MAP UPPER BEAS BASIN



PHYSIOGRAPHY:

The Beas (vadic Arjikiya, Sanskrit Vipasa) rises from the Pir Panjal at Rohtang Pass (13050 ft) of the western Himalayas and river flows southward after origin. In the north and north western part of the basin is bounded by highest ranges with heights in excess of 4500 meters; i.e. Beas Kunde Ri Dhar (5345m), Hanuman Tibba (5932m), Goh Kincha (5085m) Shid Dhar (5209m), and Inder Kila (4941m), which divides the watershed of the Beas river and the Chandra river. In the eastern side, Gohru Peak rises above 4600m. Major passes in the basin are Rothang Pass (3998m), Taintu Ka Jot (4996m), Hamta Jot (4268m), Thanod Pass (4880m) and Haishin Jot (4942m).

The water resources of the region include rivers, streams, nala,springs and glaciers. The major tributaries of Beas river include Solang Nala, Sarai Nala, Rawla Gohru Nala, Halindi Nala, Manalsu Nala, Sanjoin Nal, Phojal Nal, Sarbari Khad, and Chhaki Nala etc. Among the glaciers Dhundha (4200m), Rawla (4500m) and Ghoru and Chandar (4800m) are important.

The relief (Figure 1.2) shows the general elevation of the basin ranging between 1500 m in the valley side and 4800 m and above in the upper catchment areas. The Pir Panjal range which is also the head water of river Beas, contains the treasure of geomorphic, tectonic, climatic and vegetation records. The increasing altitude presents a spectacular zonation of vegetation type, geomorphic processes and associated landforms. The basin is very significant in the terms of tectonic and climatic change. The Chandrabhaga to the north of the Pir Panjal flows in a east-west direction where glaciers and drainage of Beas on the south has straight southern course.

Figure: 1.2

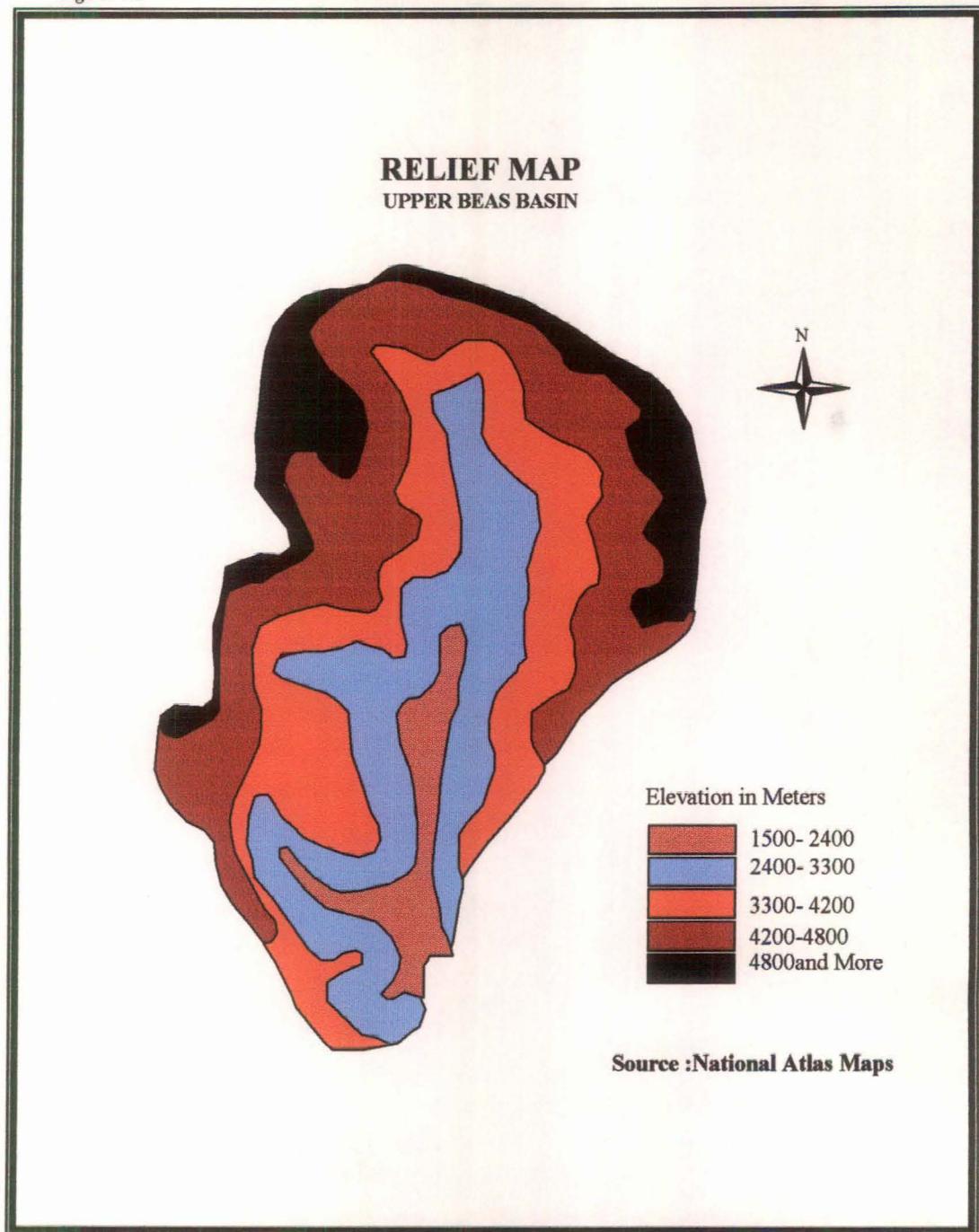




Plate 1: High up erratics are common in the Upper Beas Basin. These border the highest terraces evolved out of lateral moraines almost 120 m higher than present valley floor.



Plate 2: A typical cirque (arrow) glacier with icefall in the Beas Kund area. Note the avalanche cones and impressive lateral moraines.

GEOLOGY:

In the study of any region, geology is an important factor because of endogenic nature of rocks. Various types of parental rocks behave differently in various climates and during the process of land formation.

Geological structure of the region is mainly comprised of Middle Proterozoic Granite Group . It is the most complicated geological region of the northern mountains. Most of the area is composed of granite and other crystalline rocks of unfossiliferous sediments. Therefore, in the geology of Upper Beas Basin , the underlying rocks are generally gneiss, schists, shales and quartzite. Granite rock is rare, but is generally found in bounds with gneiss, schists and shales. The rocks of Kullu formation particularly have been categorized into four members, namely: Green-bed Member, Schist Member, Carbonaceous Member and Granite/Gneiss and Schist Member. These members show, the activity of high metamorphism .The rocks exposed in the Upper Beas Basin belong to Pre Cambrian meta- sedimentary group (Ravinshankar and Dua, 1978).

SOILS:

The soils of the region are the result of climatic factors and geomorphic processes, aided by geo-lithology. On the whole, the soils are young and thin. Recently formed soils having shallow black, brown and alluvial characteristics are mainly found in the basin. Major soil groups found in the basin are Udolf, Udolf-Ochrepts, Ochrepts, and Glacial as given by ICAR. The organic matter content is also high . Available nitrogen varies from medium to high, whereas potash is medium . The soil reaction is acidic in nature . The soils between the heights of 2000-3000 m are shallower in depth as compared to the lower altitudinal soils (Pandey, 2002). Soils

of valley and basin with medium texture and thick hydromoranic surface characteristics contribute comparatively less to the silt yield of the catchment. These soils are rich in organic matter and have well developed crumb structure that renders them less erosive both because of their characteristics in parts and partially by the density of vegetation (Pirazizy, 1992, Pandey, 2002).

GLACIER AND DRAINAGE

In its upper reaches the Beas has a north to south transverse flow through the Himalayan ranges. Till Marhi, below the Rohtang pass, Beas is a small stream, which is gradually feed by snowmelt . Manali onwards the path of river Beas become wide and gentle in gradient. The streams of the Beas basin show concurrent flow characteristics. Most of the streams are ice and snowfed and are a perennial source of freshwater for the local people . The major streams and glaciers are the Beas Kund Nala, Sarai Nala, Rawla Gohru Nala, Halindi Nala, Manalsu Nala, Sanjoin Nal, Phojal Nal, Sarbari Khad, and Chhaki Nal etc. Among the glaciers Dhundha (4200m), Rawla (4500m) and Ghoru and Chandar (4800m) are important.

Glacier are small in area but enough for perennial flow of water in the Beas River. Drainage is dendritic because the basin has a very steep valley sides in small area. With it, river basin receives rain fall both in summer as well as in winter seasons. This shows that the region has the high erosion possibilities, which can become a hazard with human intervention. The primary water sources for the Beas river are winter and spring snow melt, summer monsoon rainfall and glacial melt.

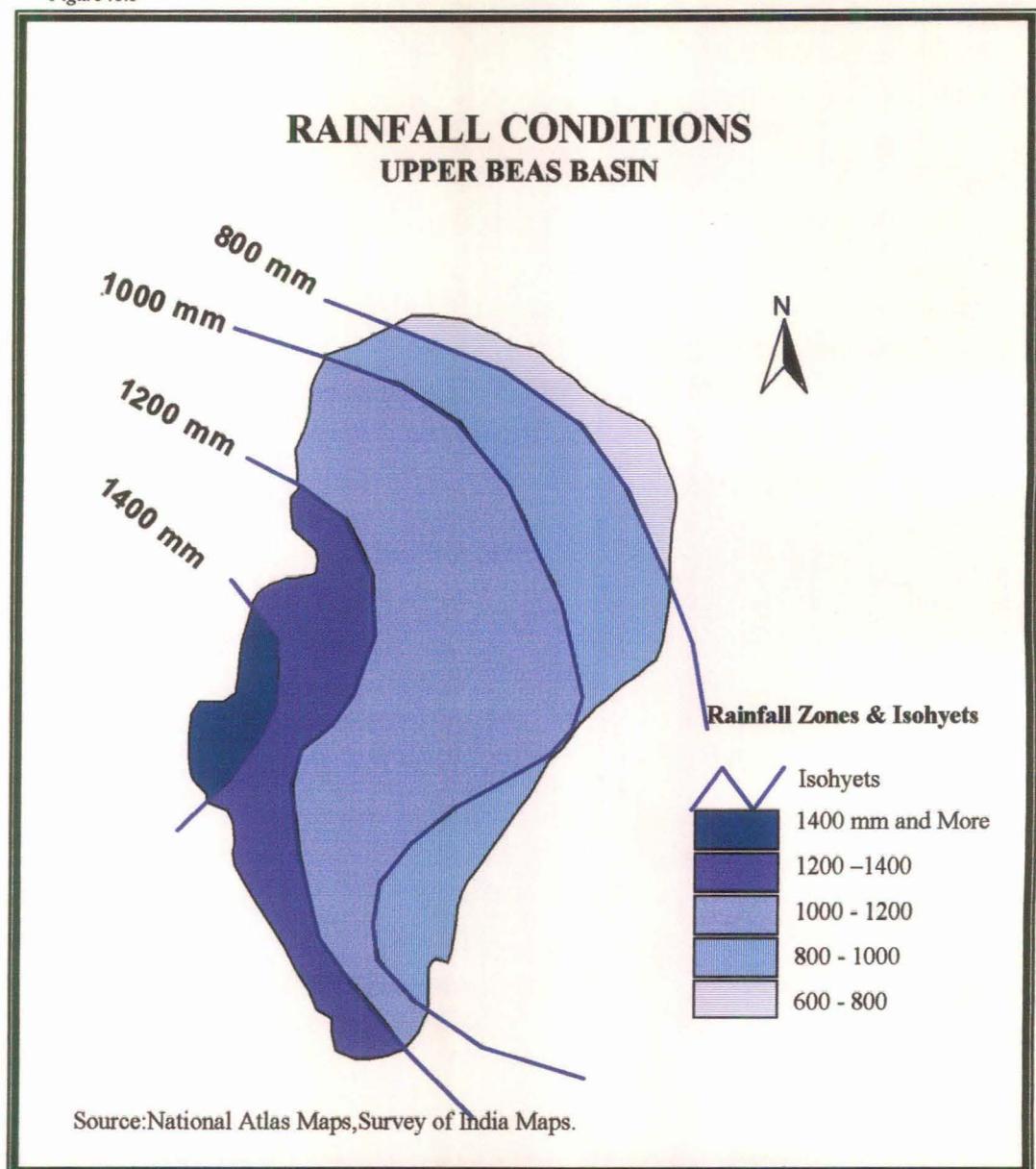
CLIMATE

Upper Beas Basin lies in a temperate zone. The variation in altitude from one end of the basin to the other is quite high. Hence, differences in temperature are marked. The climate of the low altitude area of the basin near the southern boundary is somewhat similar to the adjoining plain of Punjab, except for a milder summer season. From north to south of the basin, three distinct climatic zones have been identified on the basis of variation in relief. There is an alpine type climate near Rothang Pass which is devoid of any vegetation. Below Rohtang pass, is a zone of sub-alpine climate and further south is temperate zone. There are large annual variations in temperature with the maximum temperature in June and lowest temperature recorded in January.

The average relative humidity generally increases from the outer to the inner parts of the basin. Maximum relative humidity is recorded in July and August with the lowest in June. There is a general decrease in pressure gradient from north to south. The rainfall is during the month of July and August related to monsoons. The Upper Beas Basin also receives rainfall from the western disturbances in the winter during Nov- March. There is a general decrease in rainfall with altitudes and from west to north, and north-east (Figure 1.3). Precipitation is in the form of both rain and snowfall, with snowfall being more predominant in the upper part of the basin.

Generally the area of the Pir Panjal and Dhauladhar has been included in Mountain group of climate by Thornthwaite, Koeppen and also by R. L. Singh. The high altitudes of more than 2000m from mean sea level (MSL) as well as extra tropical latitudes 32° N shows a climate of temperate characteristics.

Figure :1.3



NATURAL VEGETATION

Due to a very high variation in elevation, river basin contains deciduous forest in lower part to alpine vegetation in higher part of basin. The Alpine scrub forests are found above the limit of tree growth. Herbaceous flora is fairly rich and medicinal herbs such as Aconite, Dhoop and Karru occur in the basin. The moist Deodar forest are the most valuable timber forest of the basin. The mixed coniferous forest includes pure Spruce, pure Silver fir, Silver fir spruce and Spruce-Deodar formation. These occur above Deodar and Kail zone between 2000 m to 3000 m a.m.s.l. The moist temperate deciduous forest occurs between 2000-3000 m in moist depressions often along the Nalas. Chestnut, Walnut, Maple, Oak and Poplar are main species in quartzite rocks.

Devdar and Karsu are found mainly on the south facing slopes over most of these altitudinal range, while fir and spruce are particularly associated with north facing slopes. Forests also help in the holding of the soil on the steep slope and thereby preventing not only soil erosion but also other catastrophic events. There is an overall reduction in the forest cover and the main causes of it can be attributed to over grazing, failure of continuous afforestation and retarded regeneration measure, poor choice and handling of planting stock (Duffield, 1977). Climate, as an important component has been treated separately in the succeeding chapter.

DISS
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LAND USE PATTERN



TH11033

The basin extends over the valleys and high elevations. Cultivation is possible in small terraces of holding in the high hills and basins. Cultivation is mainly done in the low lying areas on fluvial terraces and alluvial fans. The cultivated area is found in pockets scattered in the basin. Kullu and Manali are located in the basin as major

towns. Of the total area the Upper Beas basin 67.17 km^2 area is under glaciers and 184.55 km^2 and 562.53 km^2 under agriculture and forest respectively (Figures 1.4, 1.5, 1.6).

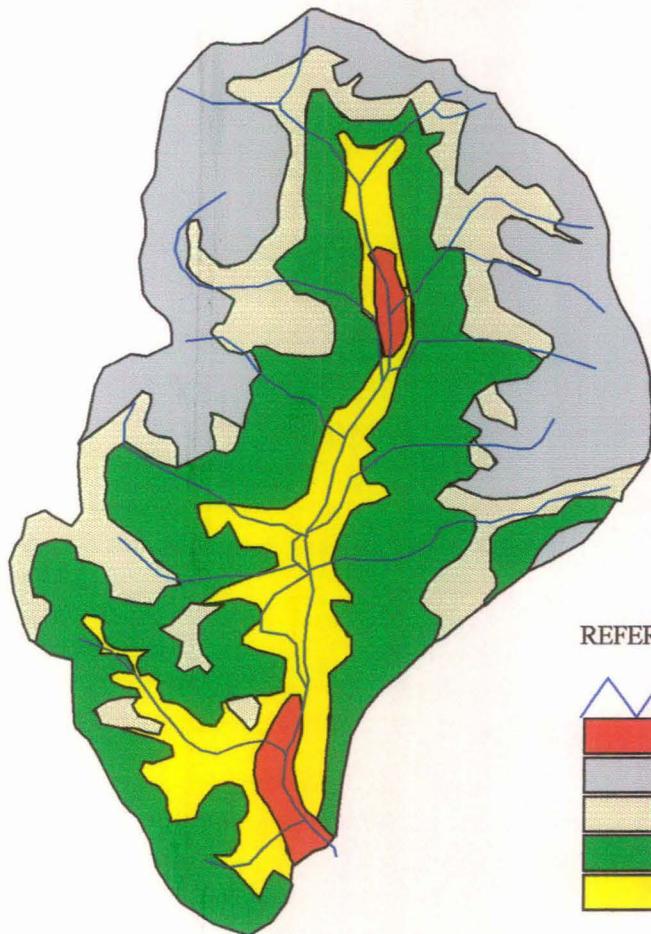
OBJECTIVES:

The main objective of the study is to examine geographic activity in the Upper Beas Basin. This study will ultimately lead to better understanding of present scenario and explain the relationship between past climatic processes and present landforms. The Huttonian theory of "Present as key to the past" is the basis for this investigation. This understanding, in turn, provides an insight into the impact of climate change on the physical landscape, vegetation and human activity which depend on them. Understanding is necessary of how catchments morphometrics and sediment yield in drainage basin evolves in response to changing climate. Glaciers are sensitive indicator of climate change, both in short term and for long term. Therefore, glacial landforms have been investigated here as an indicator of climate change.

- A. To find out the previous glacial extent by examination of the moraine condition and terrace number with their height and width.
- B. To analyse morphometry on the basis of toposheet for the better geomorphic understanding of the basin.
- C. To analyse sediment from selected site to distinguish landforms and processes.
- D. To find out present and past glacial extent through ELA (Equilibrium Line Altitude) of glaciers.

Figure 1.4

GENERAL LAND USE AND CROPPING PATTERN UPPER BEAS BASIN



REFERENCES

	River
	Urban Settlements
	Waste Lands
	Scrub and Grassland
	Forest
	Cultivated Land

MAJOR CROPS: Wheat- Maize

Source: Satellite Imagery, Remote Sensing Cell H.P.

MINOR CROPS :Small-Millets& Rice

Figure :1.5

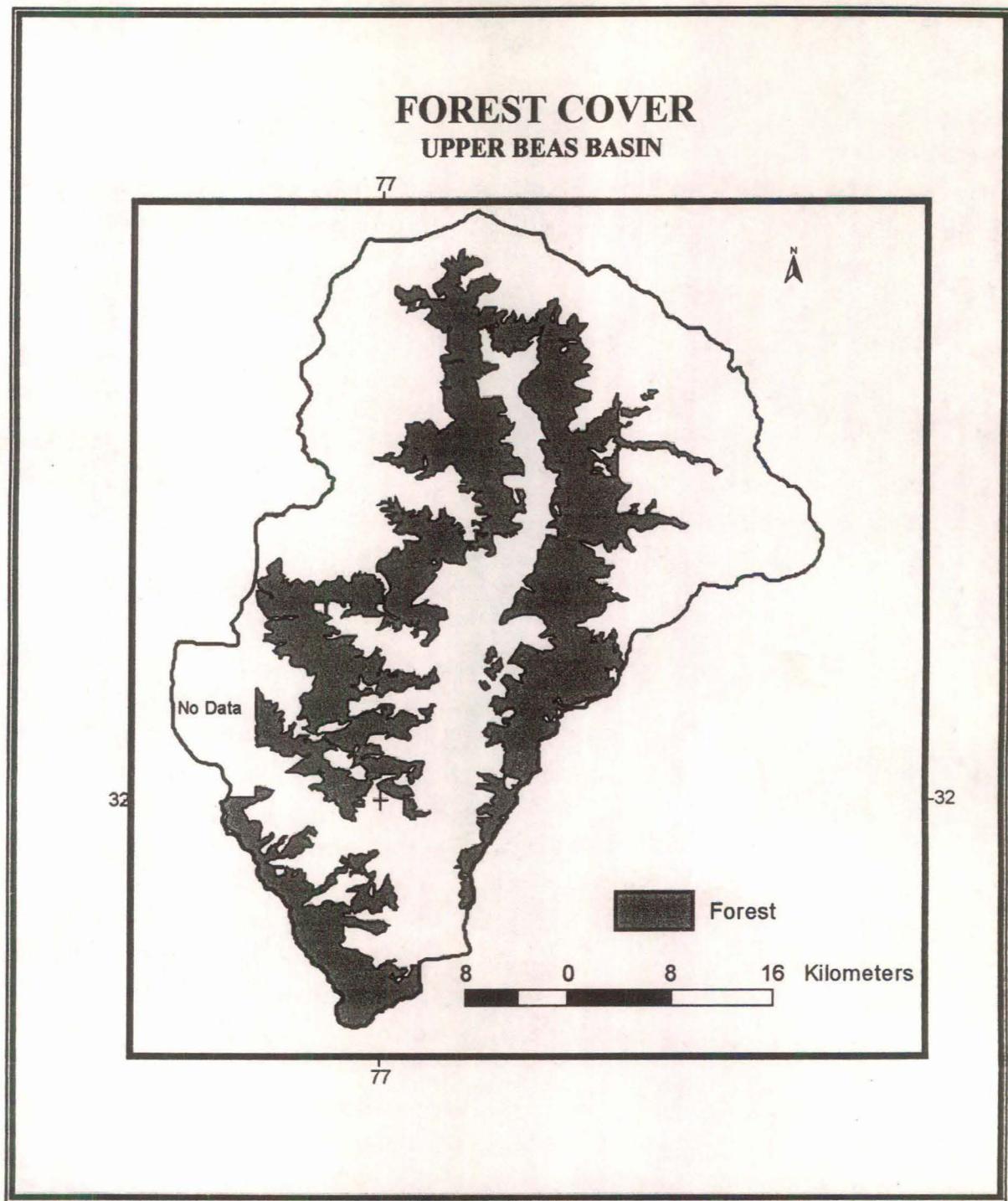
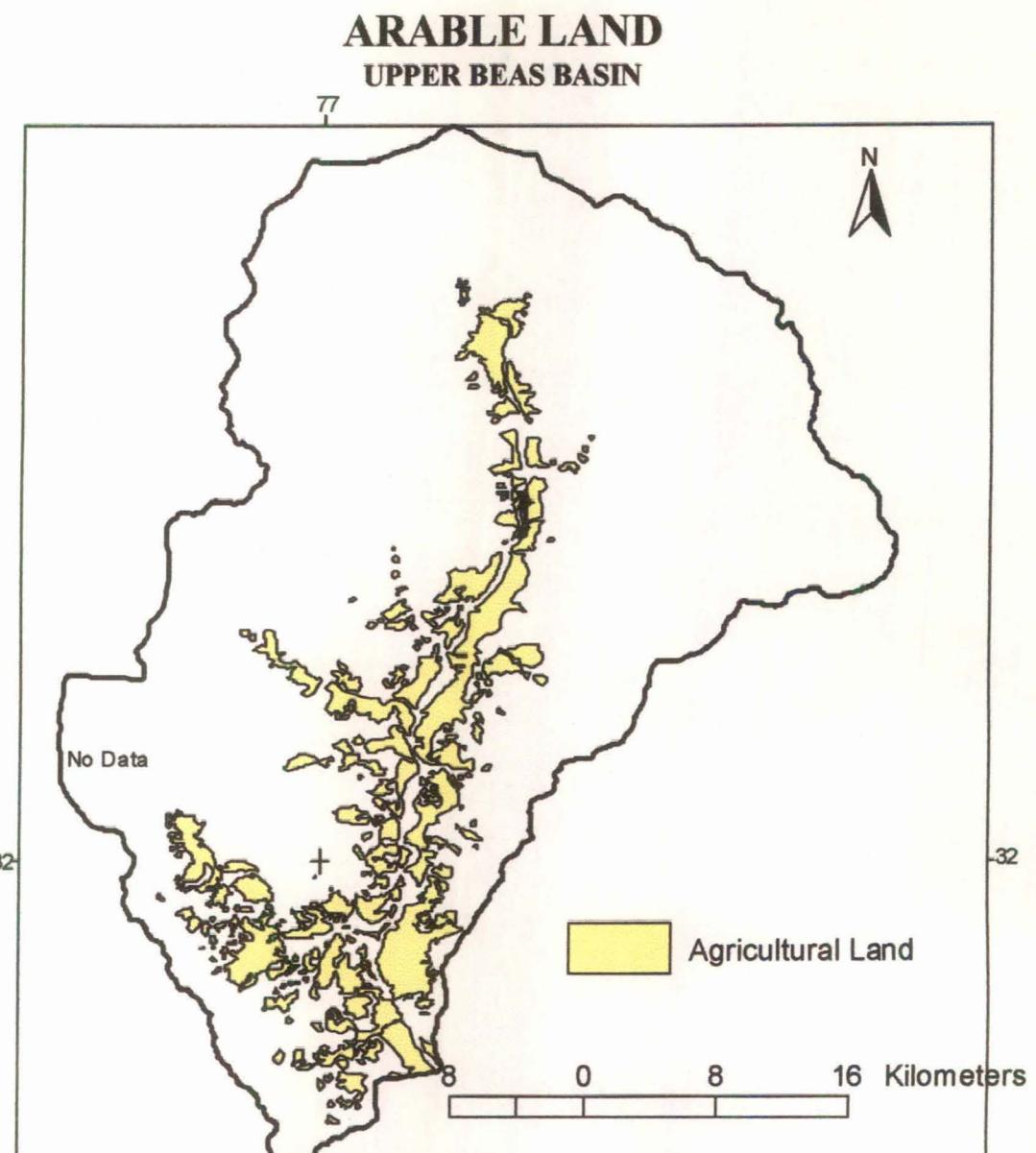


Figure 1·6



E. To identify main processes in operation and their relative roles in landscape evolution.

DATA BASE

A contiguous and detailed study of landscape and climate change is particularly not feasible without reliable data source. Hence several sources of information have been selected and acquired for the purpose of landscape evolution and climate change in the Upper Beas Basin. Survey of India Toposheets on 1:50,000 serves as the best map for field survey of area and the same has been fully utilized. A total seven toposheets, either fully or partially, ~~is covered by~~ the basin. Their number has been given in the section on location of the catchment earlier. Another major source of the data for the study is satellite imagery. FCC of three bands on the scale of 1:250,000 is produced with the standard colour, obtained from NRSA, Hyderabad.

Besides these, soil samples have been collected for particle size analysis. Other sporting database for amount and pattern of daily rainfall analysis is also acquired from four meteorological stations of Dhundi, Solang, Manali and Bhuntar all maintained by SASE, IMD for the period of 1989 to 2002, for Dhundi Solang and Bhang from SASE, and 1968 to 1992 for Manali and Bhunter from IMD, respectively, to carry out the seasonal and annual rainfall and temperature analysis for the region. For the ground truth, 3-week field work was carried out once during the study period to make the output more accurate. For this purpose, different part of the basin from Ropang to Bhuntar from north to south; and Dhundi in the northwest have been traversed for the collection of soil sample, plant succession and boulder frequency etc. Terrestrial photographs of glacial extent and river terraces have been added where necessary. All these data, both primary and secondary, are properly analysed and



Plate 3: Three sets of terraces have been formed on the highest terrace of the Beas by its tributary. Note the levee and size of sediments.

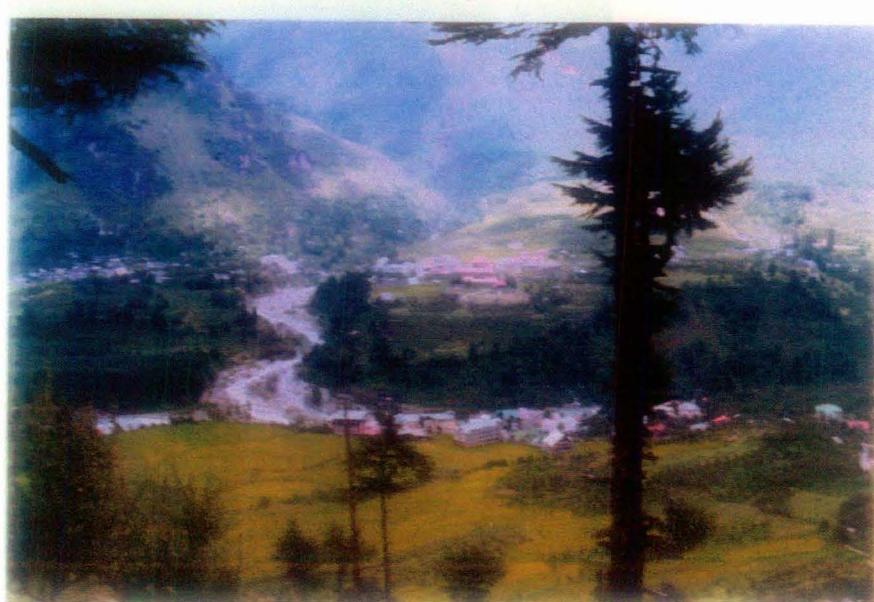


Plate 4: The bird-eye view of terraces of the Beas, its forest and agriculture/horticulture. The incision and fan formation by tributary streams in the Beas Valley are spectacular.

utilized to achieve the objective of the study of landscape evolution and climatic change in the Upper Beas Basin.

ORGANISATION OF MATERIAL

Present chapter is to build up objectives and introduce to the area of investigation. Chapter two describes the methods and techniques used in the study. This chapter is divided into three major parts, part one is based on the field survey methods, second part is on the morphometry methods, last deals with geologic history of landforms. Chapter three is devoted to morphometric analysis of the basin. Morphometric variables which have great significance in the landscape development have been analyzed in detail. The morphometric analysis done are relative relief, drainage density, dissection index, stream frequency, bifurcation ratio, etc. Thematic maps are prepared for each element in a GIS environment. The fourth examines the present and the past climatic behaviour ,and their resultant landscape. The final and last chapter is based on conclusion, summary and main contribution of the study undertaken.

LIMITATIONS

The Upper Beas Basin lies in the northern boundary of India. Due to the strategic reason detailed maps and other information are not available. In the western part of the Basin 72.52 sq. km area is incorporated from US military map on 1:250000 on a smaller scale. Due to this, some valuable information about drainage, vegetation, slope etc have been lost. A short field investigation carried out was not enough for a detailed collection of samples and mapping.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

A basin is the basic manageable geo-hydrologic unit in which rainfall occurring on the highest point of the area (ridgeline) drains at a common point (Tripathi and Singh, 1993, and Narayana et. al., 1997). For the purpose of the study the entire exercise has been divided into three distinct phases of enquiry namely;

-Pre-field Methods

-Field Methods and

-Post field Method.

Pre-field Methods

In this stage collection and consultation of available maps such as topographical sheets, satellite imagery, geological maps, soil maps, thematic maps etc. have been undertaken. To understand preliminary existing situation of the area under study, available literature and statistical information both published and unpublished have been used where necessary.

Various parameters like geomorphology, hydrology, climate, soil, vegetation, landuse etc. from the secondary source are analysed and interpreted for better understanding of the physical characteristics of the basin. Base map has been prepared with the help of available existing topographic and thematic maps.

A field inventory is also prepared for the collection of data for slope, vegetation, and moisture condition in the unconsolidated rocks and regoliths.

Field Methods

After preparing the base map and consulting the literature, the systematic methods followed are as under;

Field Mapping

Detailed and accurate mapping is difficult due to lack of large scale topographical maps and aerial photographs. The area was mapped using simple Plane Table techniques. Bearings were measured with a Silva inclinometer compass (Type 15T) and spot heights determined using a Thommen (TX 22) altimeter. In addition, Garmin Global Positioning system (GPS) has also been used for cross checking and accuracy. These were calibrated with bench marks and changes in atmospheric conditions where accounted for using a leap-frog method of survey. Slope gradients were determined using a Suunto (KB14/360B) hand-held inclinometer. Photographs were also used to help record field relationships similar to methods used by Owen (1988) and Sharma (1996).

Relative Dating Methods

There are numerous dating methods, which are being used in geomorphology. These methods can be grouped in two different ways. The first classification can be on the basis of whether a dating method provides an absolute date or just determines a relative chronology. The second classification is on the

basis of the type of material used for dating purpose. It includes radiometric or radio-isotopic, chemical and biological methods. Absolute dating methods are those methods, which provide the age of the sample in number of years e.g. 20Ka BP or 6 Ma BP. The zero or the datum year is taken as 1950 AD.

The relative age comparisons are valid only when the landforms, from where samples have been collected, have the same geology, hydrology, climate and topography. The study focused primarily on the Beas Kund area, where the morainic deposits are found. The site is located on the bank of Solang Nala, at the height of 2500 m to 2900 m approximately. These moraine crusts, displaying the highest apparent density of erratic, boulders and cobbles were studied. This study has analysed the samples, taken from river and morainic terraces near Solang Nala. As discussed earlier, relative dating gives a general picture of relative age of differences. It does not require much sophisticated methods and instruments such as ^{14}C dating and Uranium dating.

A number of relative dating methods have been used for the reconstruction of past climate and their resultant landforms in the upper Beas Basin (Dhundhi to Solang village). These are as follows;

- Boulder frequency
- Bolder Varnish
- Sound Rebound
- Pits depth
- Plant succession

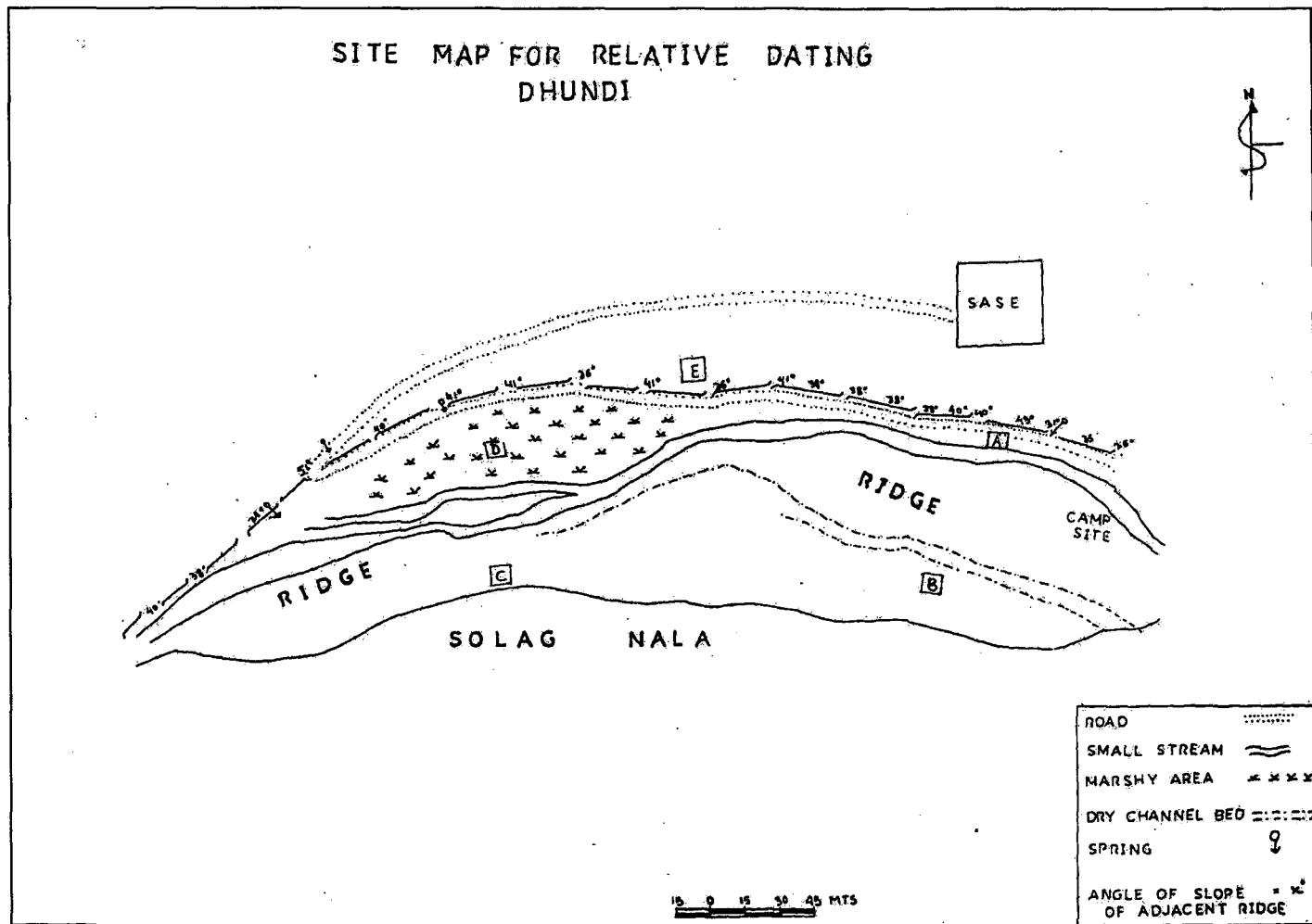
These methods were adopted only for Solang Nala and Dhundi because of suitability of site as given in figure 2.1.

These dating methods do not give absolute ages of samples rather they provide the relative order of antiquity i.e. it provides ages in terms of ‘older than’ or ‘younger than’. The relative antiquity of materials can be established where superimposition exists which means that sediments which are at higher level are younger than those lying beneath them in most of the cases.

Methods used to define and differentiate the complex assemblage of landforms in the field included. Plants and lichens determine relative ages of river terraces, and terminal moraines etc. of the Upper Beas Basin. These analyses include the number of vascular plant species, the percentage plant cover (Briks (1980), Wardle (1980), Matthews (1978), and Matthews and Whittaker (1987) and the number of lichen species and their diameter (Ealkin and Ellis (1980), Procter (1983), Caseldine (1985), and Radbett (1992). The percentage plant cover and the number of species were recorded in transect of 10 m x 3 m which were aligned in a north west – south east direction along the Solang Nala of the basin.

Biological Methods, these dating methods use the size of an individual plant species as an index of the age of the substrate on which it is growing. These methods include lichenometry and dendrochronology. These methods have a limitation that they have a short age range, limited only to Holocene used in the field.

Figure: 2.1



The Solang Nala and Dhundi was the only region where climatic conditions were unfavourable for growth of lichen and vascular plant. Therefore, in this region relative dating techniques included boulder frequency, ratio of fresh to weathered boulders, and boulder relief. These were measured in transect of 10 m x 10 m using techniques of Perrott and Goudies (1984), Burkbank and Cheng (1991), Burke and Birkeland (1979), Corroll (1974) and Peck et. al (1990).

Sample Collection

Samples were collected from the field for laboratory analysis to understand the process involved and relative ages of this basin evolution. They include quartzite rocks for optically stimulated luminescence dating, sediments for particle size and shape analysis.

Post Field Methods

Laboratory analysis

The samples collected in the field were processed according to the set procedure for respective analysis, in order to evaluate definite criteria for each process and therefore resultant landforms. Major laboratory analyses are as follows;

Particle size analysis

Sediment samples were air-dried at room temperature for three weeks and the grain size distribution (ranging between 45 μ m-2mm) was determined by dry sieving using Lee's (1991) method. The dry analysis data has to provide a full range of grain size distribution between 2 mm and 45 μ m. The distribution has

been plotted on semi-log arithmetic graphs for a visual representation of size classes..

Sediment Sieving or Particle size analysis

Attempts have been made for over half a century to use the particle size distribution by classifying sediments as a mean of establishing environment in which they were deposited. The processes of physical, chemical and biological weathering have two main effects on particle size distribution. First, they break down particles, reducing the overall size of materials and modifying the distribution of sizes. Second, they may redistribute particles with a sequence, either sorting particles or homogenizing the overall particle by size distribution.

The chemically weathered material contained significant amount of clay and silt, while the physically weathered material contained no material finer than $30\mu\text{m}$. To possess a wider range of particle size than most other sediments, they are, therefore, normally very or extremely poorly sorted. Slope deposits, debris flows and alluvial fan deposits may all possess similar distribution. The decrease in particle size of tills has little or nothing to do with the progressive combination or abrasion of the glacial load with increasing distance of transport. The reduction in till particle size may reflect the presence of resistant igneous and metamorphic lithology in mountainous source areas and much less obdurate sedimentary rock type in the marginal zones.

Many approaches come through time for particle size distribution. In this work the method developed by Udden in 1898 and expanded by Wentworth in 1922 and latter modified by Krumbein (1976) is used. In this method scale for

particle is a ratio scale in which grade boundaries differ by a factor of two. One grade coarser is twice the size of its predecessor and one grade finer is half the size.

The samples for present analysis have been collected from field and processed by the following steps. Their location and place name is given in the Table (2.1).

First sample were dried at room temperature in air. These dried samples were shorted by electric sieving machine for 15-20 minuets after that sediments were weighted care fully for each sieve. Thus the data obtained for particle size analysis is given in appendix I.

These data has been plotted using logarithmic graph paper. For that phi ϕ values for each grain diameter have been used. The larger the phi number, the finer the particle and vice versa.

Equilibrium Line Altitude (ELA)

The equilibrium line altitude is the line on glacier surface, separating the accumulation area (the area where a glacier gains in mass) from the ablation area where a net loss of mass occurs. In order to find out equilibrium line altitude (ELA) for major glaciers in the Upper Beas Basin, three different methods have been used. These methods are as :

Area weighted mean (AWM) Sisson, (1974). In many methods of ELA determination this method has been considered as the best. For calculating the ELA, these following steps have been taken.

Sample No	Position	Place/Discription
1	32°21' 247'' N 77° 07' 501'' E	Highest lateral moraine at side ridge.
2	32°21' 049'' N 77° 05' 438'' E	Cirque glacier lateral moraine outside.
3	32°21' 307'' N 77° 07' 956'' E	River terrace, Dhundi.
4	32°21' 313'' N 77° 07' 857'' E	Dhundi large terrace (near water spring).
5	32°21' 261'' N 77° 07' 351'' E	River bend near Gujar hat (Dhundi).
6	32°21' 149'' N 77° 07' 766'' E	Terrace facing river
7	32°19' 591'' N 77° 09' 029'' E	Lower roadside.
8	32°21' 272'' N 77° 07' 509'' E	River side east terrace (Dhundi).
9	32° 20' 510'' N 77° 08'396'' E	River bank (Solang Nala)
10	32°18' 886'' N 77° 09' 307'' E	Solang village side road.

Table 2.1

Sits	Relative Dating Methods												Mean Height in cm of Plant Species							
	Boulder Size and Frequency				Boulder Varnish			Sound Rebound				Pits in Rocks				Vh	H	M	L	VI
	Big	Mid	Sml	Total	Da	Li	Total	B	D	T	Total	H	M	L	N	Vh	H	M	L	VI
A	2	12	28	42	8	6	14	4	9	2	15	6	5	2	0	0	1	7	3	4
B	1	8	68	77	4	9	13	8	2	3	13	5	6	2	0	0	1	9	4	3
C	12	31	88	131	46	68	114	27	66	23	116	72	30	10	0	0	1	5	9	4
D	0	5	30	35	12	14	26	3	14	10	27	8	12	0	5	0	2	1	6	5
E	5	38	10	53	15	31	46	15	27	7	49	18	28	2	0	2	1	5	2	3

Boulder Frequency:

Big

Medium

Small

Pits in Rocks:

H = high

M = medium

L = low

N = no

Sound Varnish:

Da = Dark

Li = light

Mean Height of Plant Species (in cm.)

Vh = very high >100

H = high 20 - 100

M = medium 10 - 20

L = low 5 - 10

VL = very low <5

Sound Rebound:

B = Break

D = dhok

T = tng

$$\Sigma \quad A_i H_i$$

$$i = 0$$

$$X = \frac{\sum A_i H_i}{n}$$

$$\Sigma \quad A_i$$

$$i = 0$$

Where X = Equilibrium line Altitude in meters;

A_i = the area of the glacier surface at contour interval i in km,²

H_i = the altitude of the mid point contour interval i; and n +1 = the number of contour interval.

The second method is the calculation of accumulation area ratio (AAR) for the glacier, which is the ratio between the accumulation area and the total area of the glacier. It has been found that the AAR for present day glacier in a steady state commonly lies between 0.4 to 0.6 (Porter 1970). But generally 0.5 is taken as the standard value for the calculation of ELA. In other words we divide the glacier in to two equal parts, mid-point is taken as an ELA.

Toe- Headwall Area Ratio (THAR) Meirding, (1982) devised a very simple method, called ELA can be calculated by following simple formula.

$$ELA = H + T / 2$$

Where, H = Head wall of the glacier (in meters) and T = Toe or lowest point of the glacier snout.

The shape of the former glacials can be traced by joining those points or area where clear ice-marginal evidence (e.g. terminal or lateral moraines, valley side –

limits or down valley terminal hummocky moraine is preserved). When the glacier outline has been determined, ice-surface contours can be estimated by analogy with typical contour patterns on present day glaciers. Ice surface contours are commonly perpendicular to valley walls near the middle altitude of a valley glacier, and they become progressively more convex toward the glacier terminus and more concave towards valley head wall. On the basis of contours it is possible to infer the volume of ice within the former glacier, and also to calculate the altitude of the equilibrium line.

Geographical distribution of the glacial landforms constitute a major source of evidence in the reconstructions of former ice sheets and glacials. By combining geomorphological data like drumlins, moraines, glacial erratic etc. reconstruction becomes easier and analytical. Many scholars in Britain and other parts have used these indicators. Glacier modelling exercises have also been carried out in order to assess the rate at which ice sheets develop (Andrews and Mahiffey 1976). These glaciological reconstructions are a major recent development and have profound implication for many aspects of glacial studies. This may also help in explaining many of the observed morphological characteristics of glacial landscape.

The areal extent of glaciers and their ELAs are established from topographical sheets by survey of India for the Upper Beas Basin. For the purpose of ELAs calculation Sissons' (1974) area weighted mean method, Meierding's (1982) toe headwall altitude ratio (THAR) and Accumulation Area Ratio methods are taken into account.

Morphometric Analysis

Morphometry deals with the measurement and analysis of landform characteristics. Quantitative analysis of watershed is necessary for various drainage and land configuration characteristics, which need to be parameterised. Morphometric analysis based on Survey of India topographical sheets on 1:50000 are carried out for the morphological attributes like, the absolute relief, relative relief, slope, dissection index, ruggedness index, drainage frequency, drainage density, drainage texture, stream ordering, etc. Thematic maps for all these parameters have been prepared in a GIS environment.

a) Absolute Relief

Absolute relief gives the elevation of any area above the sea level in exact figure. It is useful in delineating the terrain morphology, including the existence of erosion surfaces. For the present study analysis of absolute relief has been made by dividing the contour map of the Upper Beas Basin into a square grid with unit area of 1 km^2 and noting the maximum height of each square with the help of contours and spot height, where available.

b) Relative Relief

Relative relief represents the difference in elevation between the highest and the lowest points falling in a unit area. The concept of relative relief was first introduced by Portsch in 1911. Nevertheless, the first scientific study of it was

presented by Smith in 1935. There has been frequent application of the concept of relative relief since the time of Smith and its impact on landforms and general land use has been widely recognized. The relative relief of the Upper Beas Basin has been obtained by first dividing its contour map into a network of squares with unit area of 1 km^2 and then noting the difference between the maximum and minimum elevation for each unit.

c) Dissection Index

The dissection index, which is the ratio between relative relief and absolute relief gives a better understanding of the landscape Nir (1957) states that as a criterion of relief energy, the concept of relative altitude is not entirely satisfactory. He suggested that necessity of describing the relief in terms of the ratio between the two variables (absolute relief and relative relief). It can be obtained by the following methodology:

$$\text{Dissection index (D.I.)} = \text{Relative relief} / \text{Absolute Relief.}$$

The value of dissection index varies from 0 (complete absence of dissection) to 1 (vertical cliff). Thus it is the index of the degree to which dissection has advanced. In other words, it expresses the relationship between the vertical distances to relative relief i.e. the dynamic potential state of the area.

d) Drainage Frequency

The Drainage Frequency is defined as the total number of stream segments per unit area. In general, the occurrence of stream segments depends on

the nature and the structure of rocks, vegetation cover, nature and amount of rainfall, and infiltration capacity of the soil. It is an index of various stages in landscape evolution. The drainage frequency has been obtained by the following formula for the present analysis:

$$\text{Drainage Frequency (D.F.)} = \Sigma N / A$$

Where, ΣN is the total number of stream segments.

A is the areal unit which is 1 Km^2 in this study.

e) Drainage Density

Drainage Density is defined as the total length of stream segments per unit area. It is a function of the intensity of run-off, erosion proportionality factor, relief, density of absolute viscosity of the fluid and its acceleration due to gravity. Analysis of drainage density was first introduced by Horton in 1932.

Drainage Density is calculated as:

$$\text{Drainage Density (D.D.)} = \Sigma L / A$$

Where, ΣL is the total stream length.

A is the areal unit.

f) Drainage Pattern

Drainage Pattern refers to the particular plan or design, which the stream courses collectively form. The design of the pattern is usually influenced by factors like initial slope, inequalities in rock hardness, structural control and the recent geologic and geomorphic history of drainage basin. It is of great help in

the interpretation of geomorphic features. Drainage Pattern according to Thornbury (1969) provides a more practical approach to an understanding of structural and lithological control in landform evolution.

g) Stream Order

The first step in basin morphometry is designation of stream orders, following a system introduced in USA by Horton in 1945 and later slightly modified by Strahler (1952). Scheidegger (1965), Woldenberg (1966) and Shreve (1967) have put forward somewhat different stream ordering systems. According to Strahler (1964), the first order streams are those which have no tributaries. When two first order streams meet a second order stream is formed. Two second order segments or channels join to form a channel segment of third order. Similarly, when two third order channels join they give rise to a fourth order channel and so on. Thus, the trunk stream, through which all discharges of water and sediments pass is the segment of the highest order.

h) Stream Numbers

The number of stream segments in each order is known as ‘stream number’. Horton’s *law of stream numbers* states that the number of stream segments of each order form an inverse geometric series with the order number.

i) Stream Length

The total stream length of various orders of the Upper Beas Basin has been calculated with the help of G.I.S. by geo-referencing the topographical

maps. Horton has stated that the total lengths of stream segments of each of the successive orders in a basin tend closely to approximate a direct geometric series in which the first term is the total length of the streams of the first order.

j) Bifurcation Ratio

The ratio between the total numbers of streams of one order to that of the next higher order in a drainage basin is known as the ‘bifurcation ratio’. It shows the degree of integration prevailing between streams of various orders in a drainage basin. This can be analysed on the Horton’s *law* which states that the number of streams of different orders in a given drainage basin tend closely to approximate an inverse geometric series in which the first term is unity and the ratio is bifurcation ratio. This Bifurcation Ratio is calculated by using the following formula:

$$\text{Bifurcation Ratio (Rb)} = \text{Nu} / (\text{Nu} + 1)$$

Where, Nu is the number of segments of a given order

Nu + 1 is the number of segments of the next higher order

The value of bifurcation ratio ranges from 2 to 5. High value of the ratio indicates lower degree of drainage integration and vice versa. The ratio is generally influenced by variations in the physiographic, lithologic, and climatic conditions prevailing in individual basin. Thus, basin with similar rock group composition

and tectonic history, uniform climatic condition and in similar stage of development are characterized by more or less similar values of bifurcation ratio.

k) Ruggedness Index

The ruggedness index is a measure of surface unevenness under a lithological basement complex. The technique expresses different degrees of surface resistance or submission top either manual or mechanical land use operations. It is a derivative of long-standing interaction between the available sharpness of the local relief and the amplitude of available drainage density. Moreover, other environmental parameters such as slope, precipitation, weathering, soil texture, natural vegetation etc. are partially responsible for ruggedness of a surface. Chorley (1972) devised the method of ruggedness index (number) for measuring the extent of dissection by taking in to account both relief and drainage. The method of ruggedness index is calculated as:

Ruggedness Index =relative relief and drainage density/1000(constant).

GIS As a Tool

The integrated approach of Geographical Information System (GIS) and Remote Sensing (RS) is now being recognised universally as unique, highly effective and extremely versatile technology for evaluation, management and monitoring of natural resources. It is a computer setup that makes it possible to

view and analyse data in the form of digital maps. GIS technology is used in monitoring the changes in vegetation cover, erosion in land surface, and formation of new geomorphic landforms over a time period .Its utilization extends from risk assessment for calamities, natural resources and infrastructure development to various geological studies. In the present study GIS is used for the analysis of basin morphometry. Various types of geologic, thematic and topographic maps have been used in GIS environment. Remote sensing data from NRSA, Hyderabad is also used as GIS input for recent information.

Limitations

There are certain limitations to the study. Some of them are like the samples collected for Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) dating technique could not be carried out due to non-availability of adequate facility. Non-availability of toposheet No. 52D/16 posed problems in the quantification of morphometric parameters. Area and length of first and second order streams could not be calculated while preparing maps in ArcView GIS.

CHAPTER III

BASIN MORPHOMETRY

Drainage basin being a fundamental geomorphic unit of study represents the area drained by its streams and its tributary. Therefore, fluvial processes may be understood in terms of law of drainage composition. The work done by Horton(1945) is termed as the Quantitative Geomorphology provides a systematic approach for analysis of a complex landscape of any size and origin. The analysis is based on the principle that a landscape can be resolved into its form elements, attributes and morphological laws governing the phenomena ,further quantified and formulated.

A handful of work on quantitative analysis of drainage basins have been done in India and abroad and a good correlation is established between the morphometric and the hydrologic character of and watershed [Singh and Gosh (1973), Singh Sharma (1979)]. These studies are found to be of great value for integrated development and planning of drainage basin. The use of geographical information system and remote sensing has made the task more speedy and reliable.

The purpose of the present study is to describe the geomorphic characteristics/parameters of the Upper Beas Basin up to Bhunter in terms of a few selected linear, areal and relief property of the basin. The linear aspect of

drainage basin in this study are stream ordering, bifurcation ratio, stream number, and stream length. The areal aspect likewise includes drainage density, drainage texture and law of basin area. In the relief aspect of the basin, average relief, relative relief, dissection index, and ruggedness index are included.

Drainage Characteristics

Drainage network analysis has been used not only for the purpose of identifying characteristics of network structure, but also as a basis for demonstrating the effect of environmental control on the fluvial system, for suggesting how network might evolve, and for indicating how basin output variables such stream discharge is related to network. Exercise has been carried out to associate the relationship of drainage network and other morphometric character with environment and their resultant landforms. For the purpose map digitized and the drainage line of the basin on map for the study area were ordered based on Strahler's system of stream number ordering (1957) upon digitization. Different morphometric parameters of the Upper Beas Basin up are briefly discussed as below;

Basin Size, Stream Number, Order and Length

The purpose of stream ordering is to provide estimates of stream flows, provided data are available for correlation over a stable time. The present study shows that the Upper Beas Basin up to Bhuntar is a seventh order basin (Fig.3.1).

Figure 3.1(a)

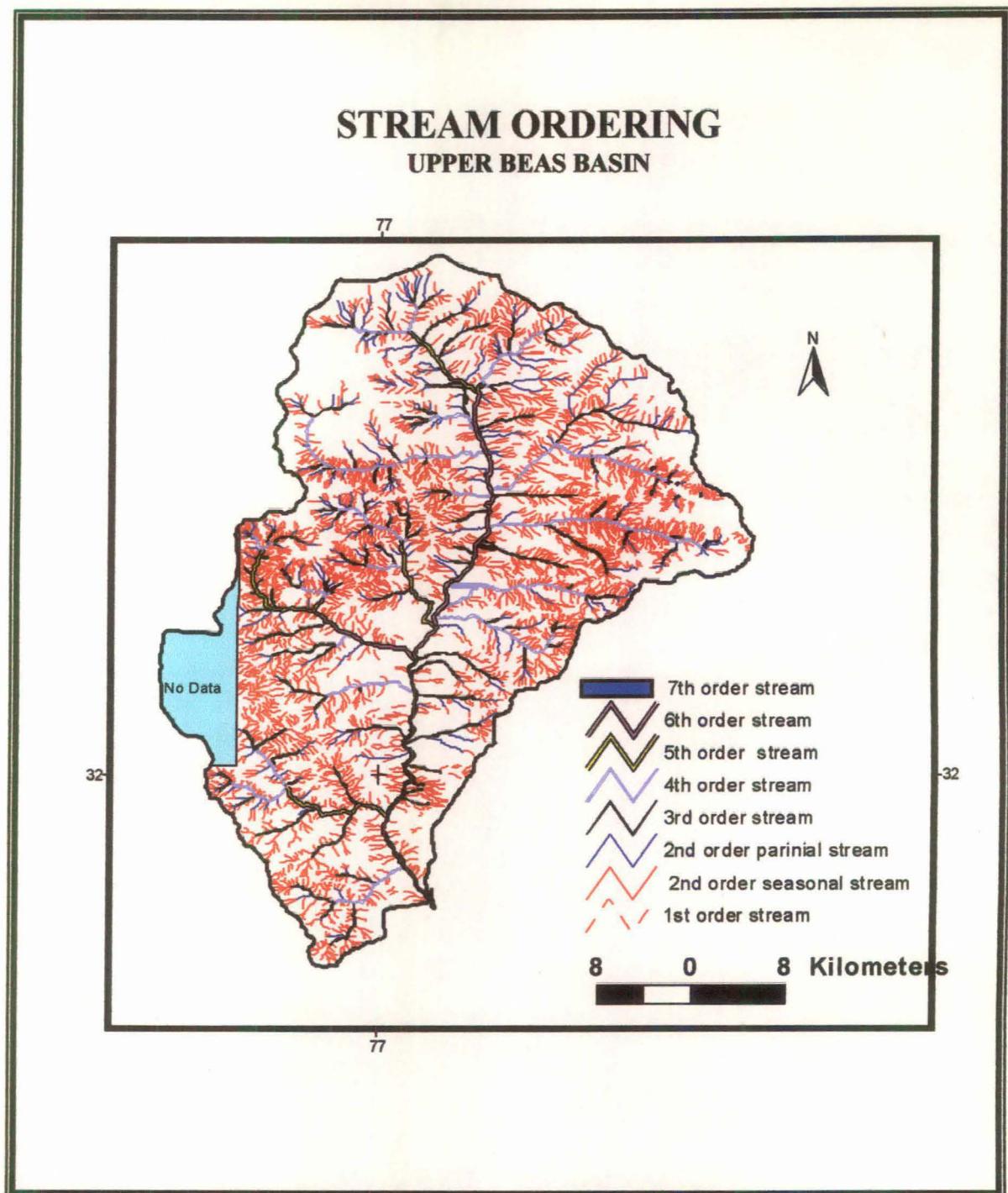
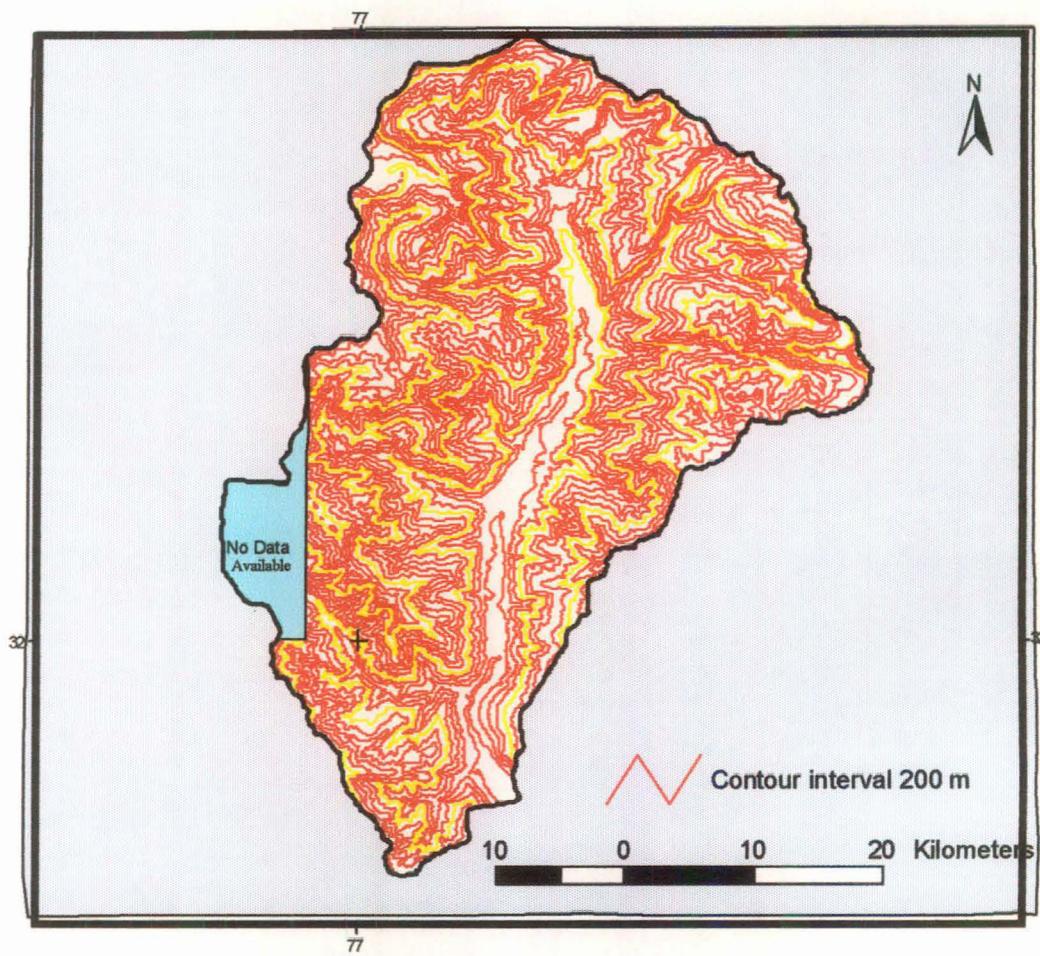


Figure 3.1(b)

CONTOUR MAP
UPPER BEAS BASIN



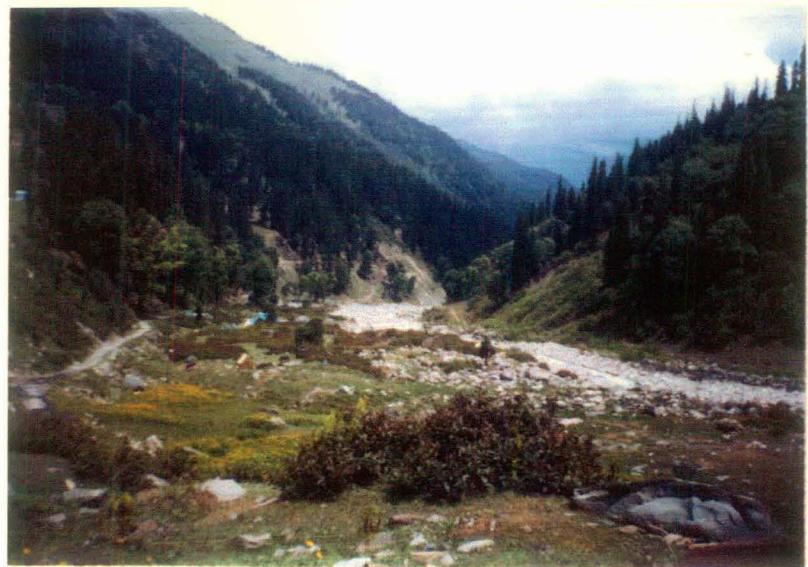


Plate 5: Recent floodplain of the Solang Nullah at Dhundi. Terrace in the foreground contains three sets of lateral moraine ridges in a recessional design. Erratic in the right foreground for scale.



Plate 6: Highest of the Pir Panjal range in the background with extensive erratic landscape in the foreground. Note the angular and sub-angular form of these erratics.

Mean length of channel segment of successive higher order of a drainage network form geometric series. This law of stream length holds true for drainage basin of all sizes, irrespective of their physiographic and climatic environments. The cumulative and mean stream length of different orders are presented in the Table 3.1.

The computed total stream length value is 511.33 km. Number of first order stream was found to be maximum at 3216. This indicates that the first order stream contribute maximum to the overall drainage and hydrologic behaviour of the watershed. The plot of logarithm of stream length along ordinate and stream order along abscissa for the watershed gave a straight-line fit and plot on a semi-logarithmic paper (Number of stream on the logarithm scale and the order on the linear scale) is also nearly a straight line .

To establish the relationship between stream order and the cumulative stream length data were plotted against the stream order and a straight line was obtained . . . The straight line fit included that the ratio between length and order was constant throughout the successive order of the watershed and suggested that geometrical similarity was preserved in the watershed of increasing order, which proves Horton's law of stream length. When the size of drainage basin (mean basin area) is plotted with increasing stream order it provides an increasing linear relation  and Basin of Third Order Streams Fig.3.3,

Figure 3·3

BASINS OF THIRD ORDER STREAMS UPPER BEAS BASIN

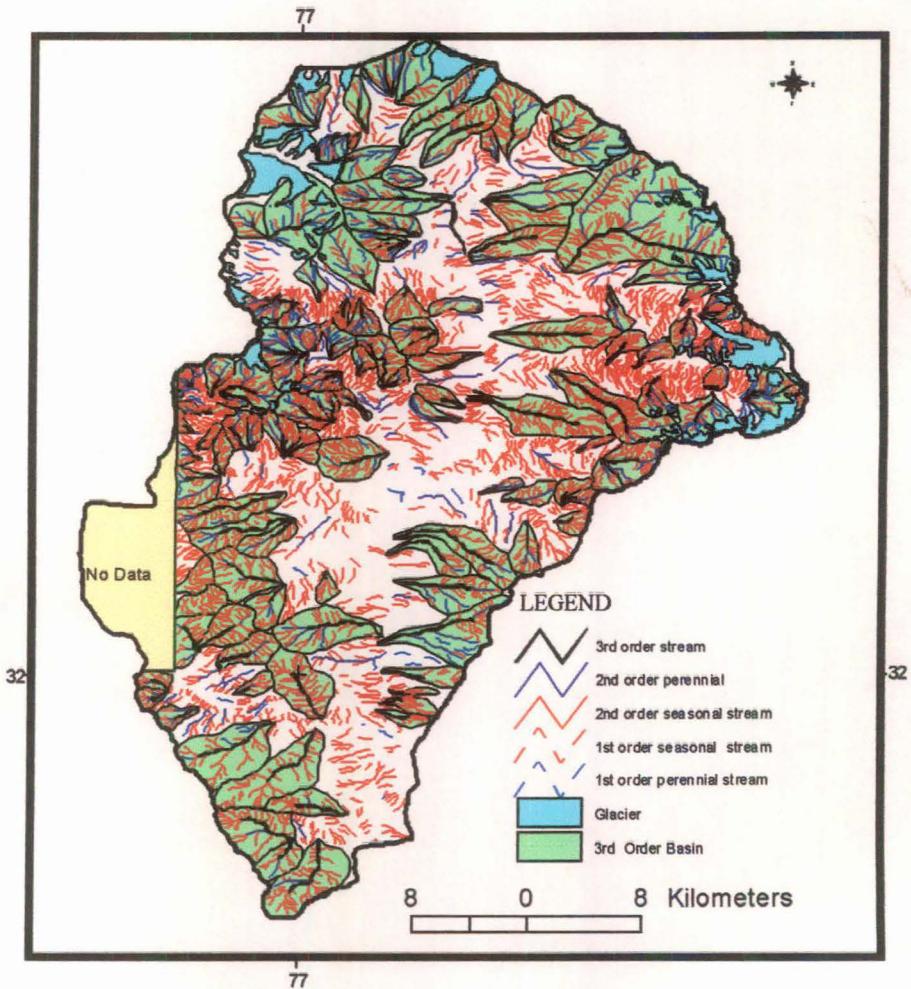


Figure 3.3(a)

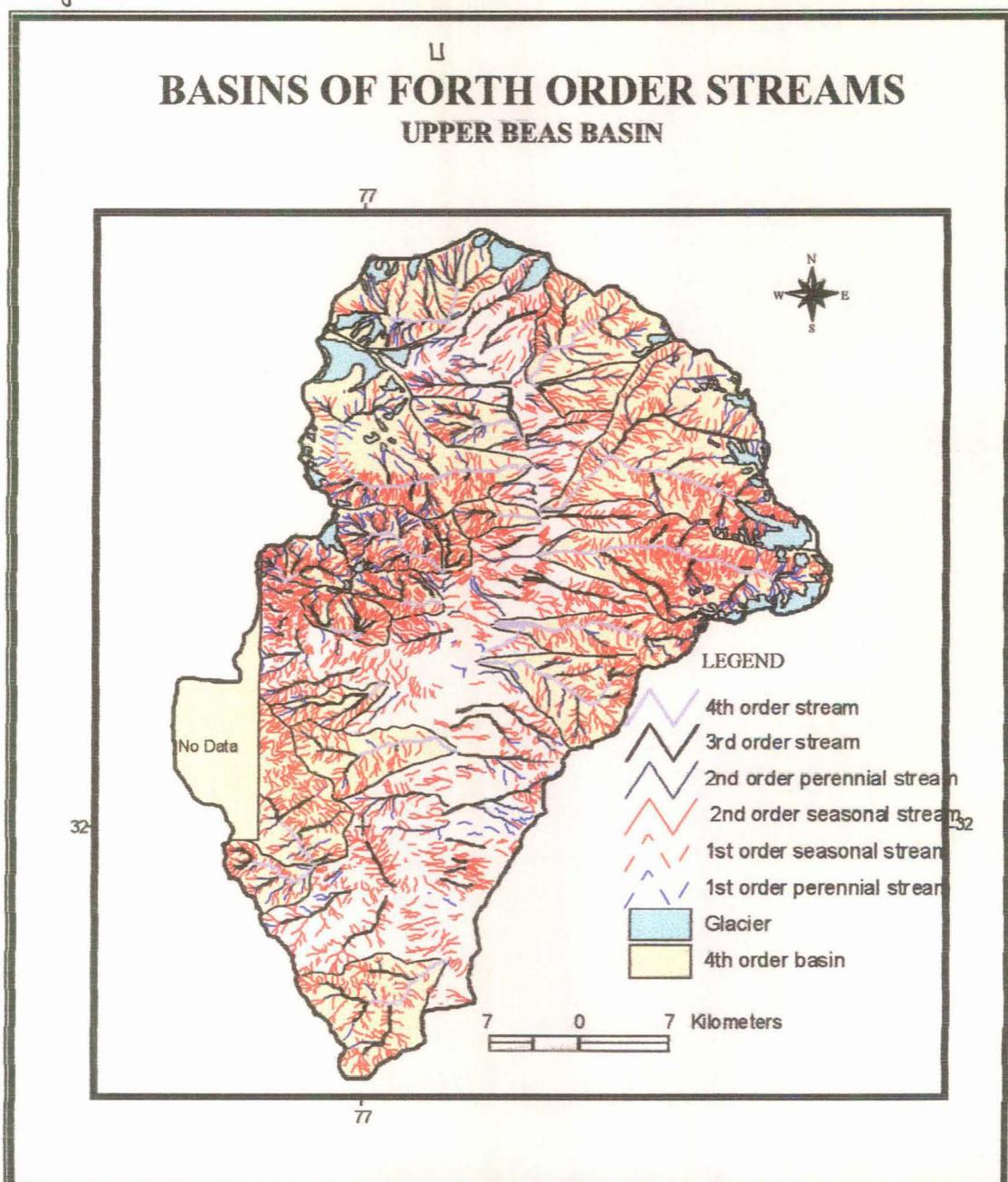
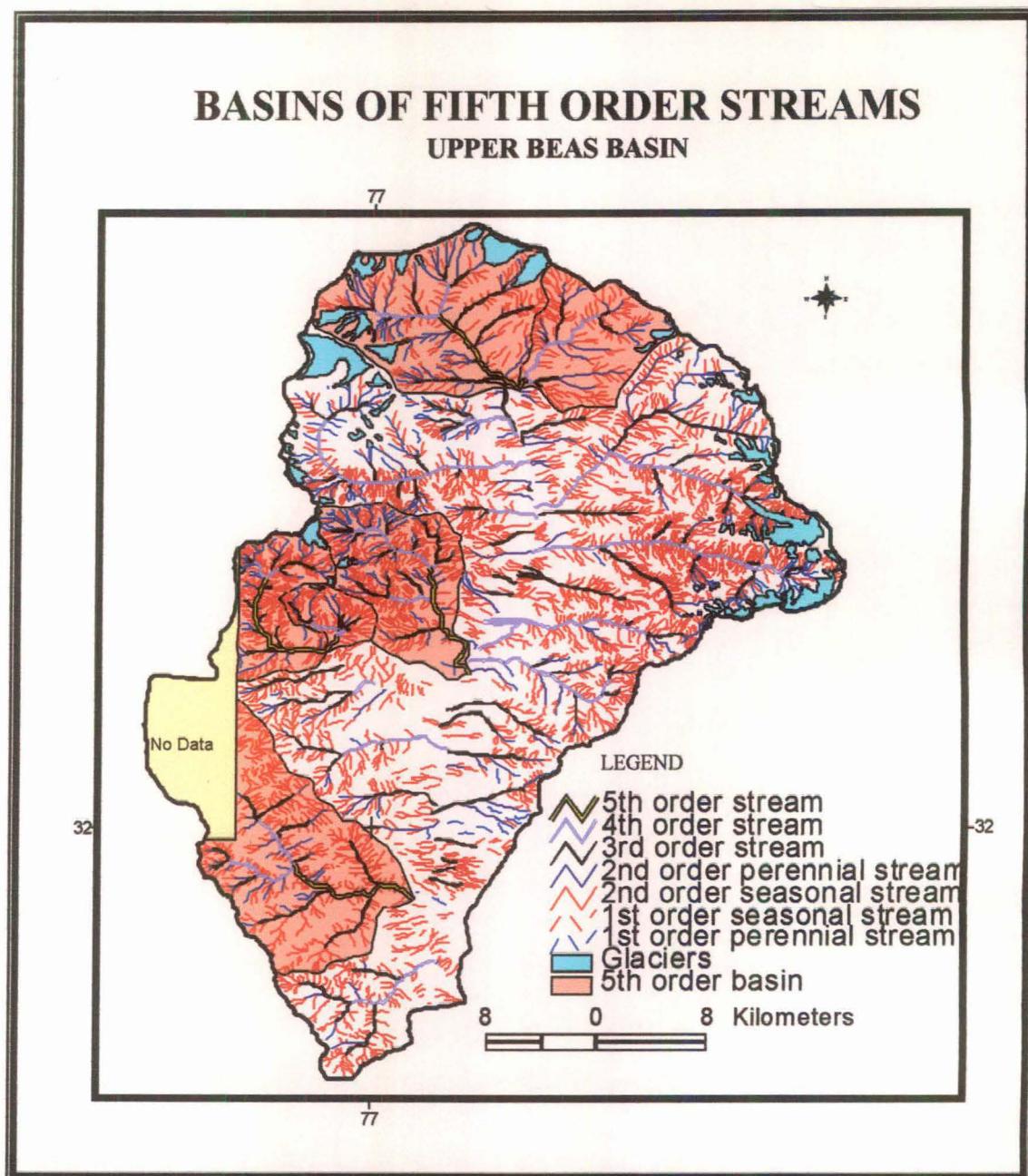


Figure : 3.3(b)



STREAM LENGTH OF DIFFERENT ORDER			
Stream order	No of streams	Length of streams	Area
First	3216	-	-
Second	674	-	-
Third	136	261.70	860.19
Fourth	23	149.10	1046.75
Fifth	06	38.35	627.23
Sixth	02	36.55	1154.25
Seventh	01	25.63	1681.54
Total	4058	511.33	1681.54

Table 3.1

Basin of Fourth Order Stream Fig.3.3*a*, Basin of Fifth Order Fig.3.3*b*, and Basin of Sixth and Seventh Order.

The law of drainage basin composition as given by Horton (1945) is as follows;

1. There will be more first order streams than all other streams combined.
2. Stream length increases with increasing stream order.
3. Size of drainage area increases with increasing stream order.
4. Average gradient decreases with increasing stream order.
5. River discharge increases with increasing stream order.

In this exercise all the above said laws of the basin composition except the size of basin area increases with increasing stream order has been proved. The above mentioned third law is not proved because the Upper Beas River is flowing in a valley of high mountainous terrain and the number of fourth order streams directly merges with main river (Sixth or Seventh order streams). Thus we did not get the fifth order streams, and therefore the area under fifth order is less than the fourth order basin.

Bifurcation Ratio

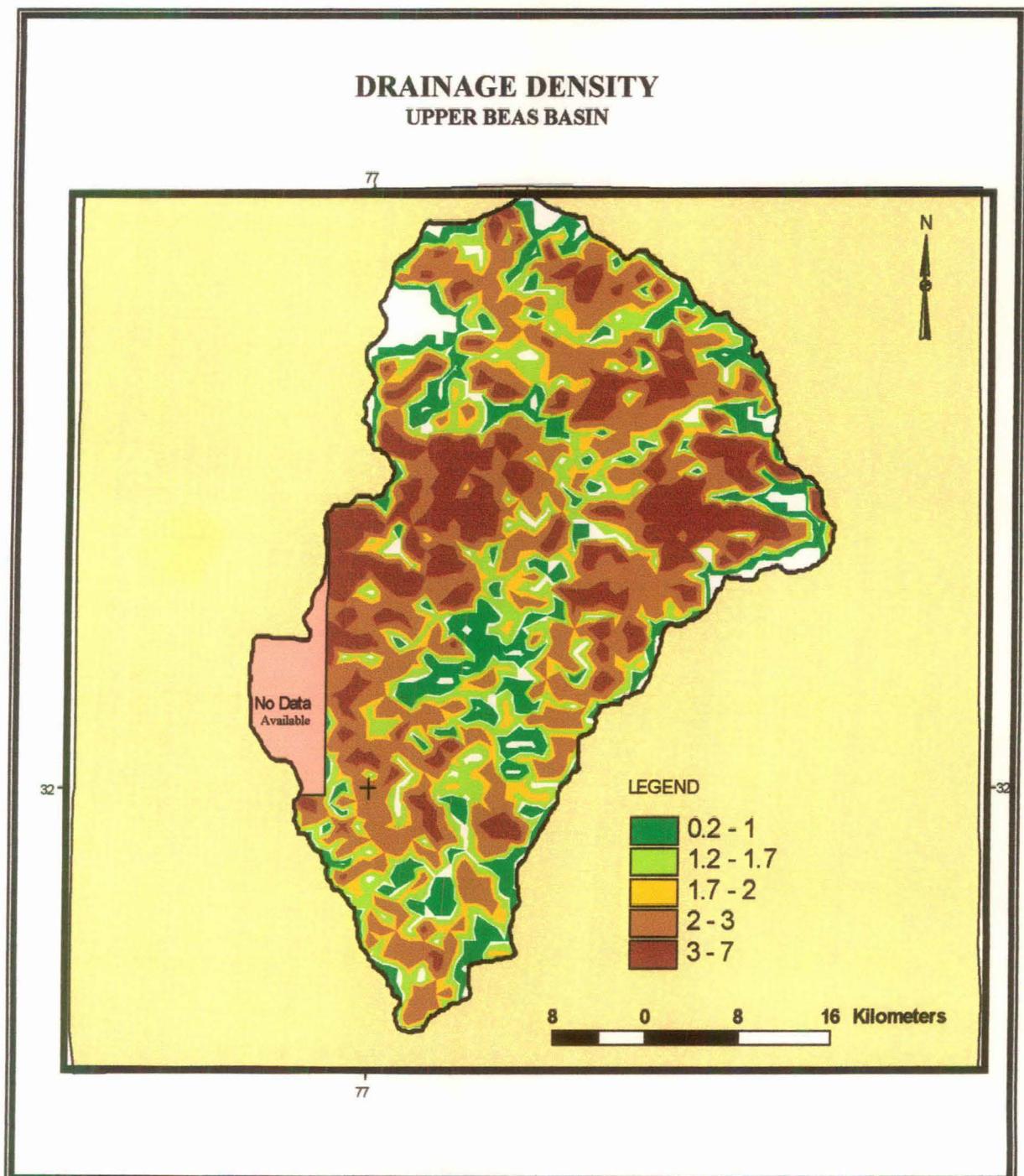
The number of streams of various orders in the drainage basin is counted. Number decrease in a regular way with increasing order of streams forming geometrical series. The other aspect of bifurcation ratio expresses the ratio between the number of segments of any given order to the number of segments of the next higher order. The past studies suggest that the values of bifurcation ratio

generally range from 2 to 5. The overall bifurcation ratio of the Upper Beas Basin is 4.07, which indicate an intermediate flood discharge. It also indicates greater number of first order channels, and streams flow on rocks of uniform resistance to erosion. The medium value of the basin also suggests that the basin has suffered less structural disturbance and the drainage has not been distorted (Strahler 1969). The bifurcation value is also an indicator of shape. The medium value indicate extended circular shape of the basin (Table 3.2)

Drainage Density

The drainage density is defined as the length of stream segment within a basin to the basin area. It is a dimension inverse of length. It is generally influenced by several factors like geology, climate, permeability of soil or rock etc (Morisawa, 1968). In the present study average drainage density of the basin is computed as 0.31 km./km^2 . Figure 3.4 shows the drainage density of the Upper Beas Basin ranging between 0.2 and 7 km./km^2 . which is grouped into five categories of very high (3-7), high(2-3), moderate(1.7-2), low(1-1.7) and very low(0.2-1). The lowest class of drainage density has very significant coverage of 377 km^2 which is 25.7 per cent of total catchment (Table 3.3). The area under this category is scattered throughout the basin but major portion lies on the margin and central part of the basin. The second class covers an area of 12.5 per cent. Maximum area of the basin is covered under $2-3 \text{ km./km}^2$ which amounts to 389 km^2 and covers a percentage of 26.6 of the total area in the Upper Beas Basin.

Figure:3.4



BIFURCATION RATIO OF UPPER BEAS BASIN		
Stream order	No of streams	Bifurcation ratio (N/N+1)
First	3216	4.77
Second	674	4.95
Third	136	5.91
Fourth	23	3.83
Fifth	06	3
Sixth	02	2
Seventh	01	-
Total	4058	24.46
Average bifurcation ratio		4.07

Table 3.2

Drainage Density of Upper Basin					
S.No	Class	Drainage Density	Frequency of grid	Percentage Area	Cumulative Percentage
1	Very High	3.00-7.00	215	16.4	16.4
2	High	2.00-3.00	349	26.6	43
3	Moderate	1.70-2.00	245	18.7	61.7
4	Low	1.20-1.70	164	12.5	74.3
5	Very Low	0.20-1.20	337	25.7	100
Total			1310	100	

Table 3.3

The area under this class lies in north-eastern and north-western part of the basin.

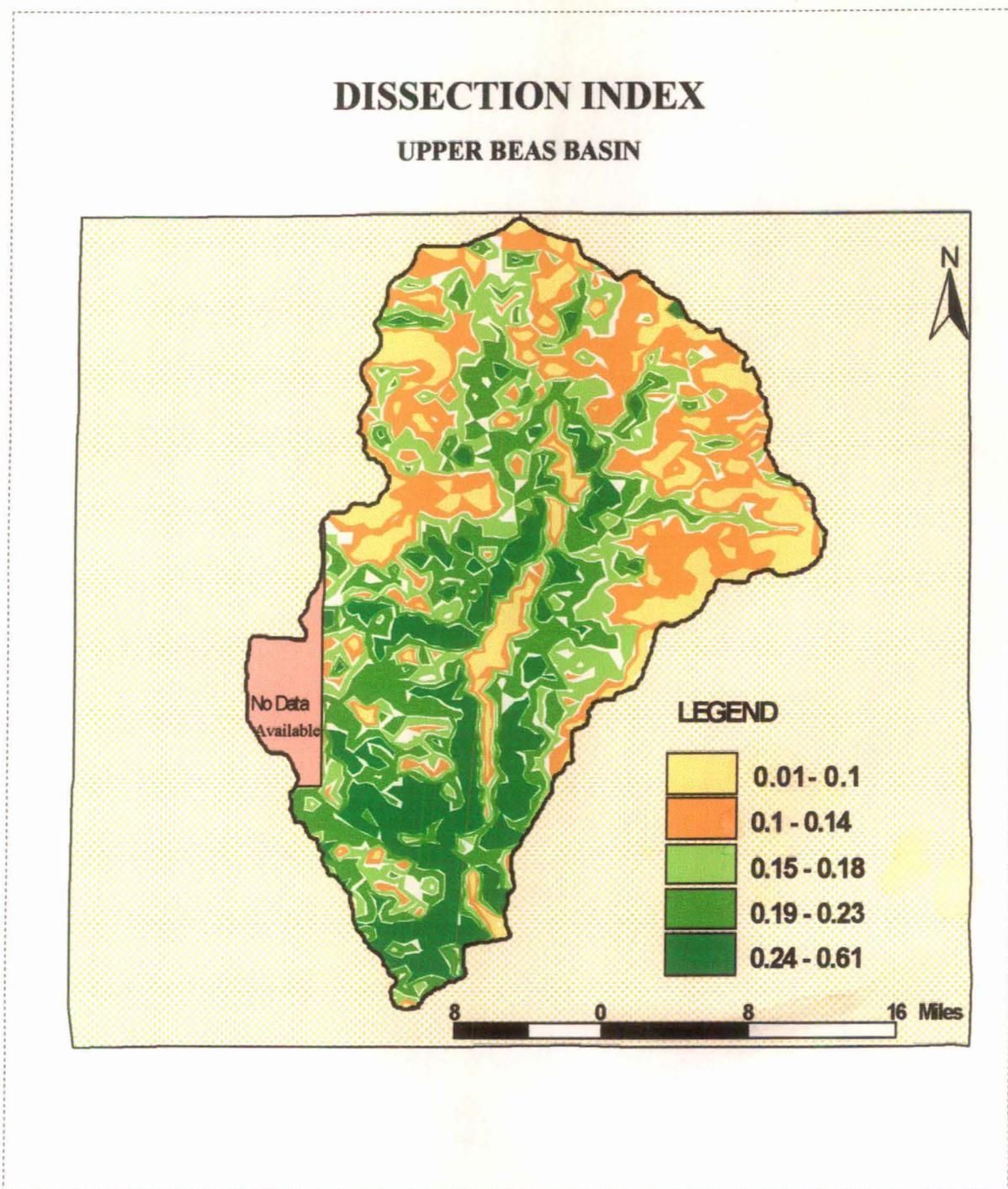
Dissection Index

From the geomorphological viewpoint, consideration of dissection index is very important in understanding the terrain characteristics of an area. It indicates the stages of evolution of the landforms. Dissection index is the ratio of two variables i.e, relative relief and absolute relief, within a well-defined unit area. The index of dissection indicates the intensity of effectiveness of relief. It is helpful in understanding the nature of relief better than either absolute relief or relative relief due to its manifold expositions of complex surface expressions. It is also helpful for classification and investigation of terrain unit. On the basis of dissection index, the study area has been divided into five major categories ranging between 0.01 and 0.61(Fig. 3.g, Table 3.4). Dissection index in the Upper Beas Basin is high to very high in the lower part of the basin.

Ruggedness Index

Ruggedness index is a measure of surface unevenness under a given lithological basement complex. It is a derivative of longstanding interaction between the available sharpness of the local relief and the amplitude of available drainage density. Physical environmental parameters such as slope, precipitation, weathering, soil texture, natural vegetation, etc. are partially responsible for the ruggedness of a surface (Patnaik, 1993). Chorley (1972) derived the method of ruggedness index for measuring the extent of dissection by taking into account

Figure:3.5



DISSECTION INDEX OF UPPER BEAS BASIN					
S.No	Class	Dissection index	Frequency of grid	Percentage Area	Cumulative Percentage
1	Very Low	0.01-0.10	297	20.5	20.5
2	Low	0.10-0.14	274	18.9	39.4
3	Moderate	0.15-0.18	290	20.0	59.5
4	High	0.19-0.23	321	22.2	81.6
5	Very High	0.24-0.61	266	18.4	100
Total			1448	100	

Table 3.4

both relief and drainage. Based on the ruggedness index the study area has been divided into five categories to assess the nature and magnitude of ruggedness for practical purpose (Fig. 3.6, Table 3.5).

Stream Frequency

Stream frequency refers to the number of stream segments per unit area. Like drainage density stream frequency also depend upon the physical characteristics of the catchments and its climatic conditions Table 3.6.a gives the stream frequency in the Upper Beas Basin, which varies from 1 – 33. Zero value for stream frequency and area under glacier has not been considered in the study. The values of stream frequency are categorized in five groups as given in figure 3.7.

Drainage Texture

Drainage texture is the indicator of spacing of stream in a unit area. It refers to the relative spacing of total number of stream segments of a given length per unit area and represents various regional scales of texture fineness. The varying grades of drainage texture do not refer to steepness of slope, amount relief or stage in the geomorphic cycle. One may find a coarse drainage texture in regions of low or high relief, in region of gentle or steep slope or in young or old topography. The values of drainage texture are presented and depicted in Table 3.6.b and Figure 3.8.

Figure :3.6

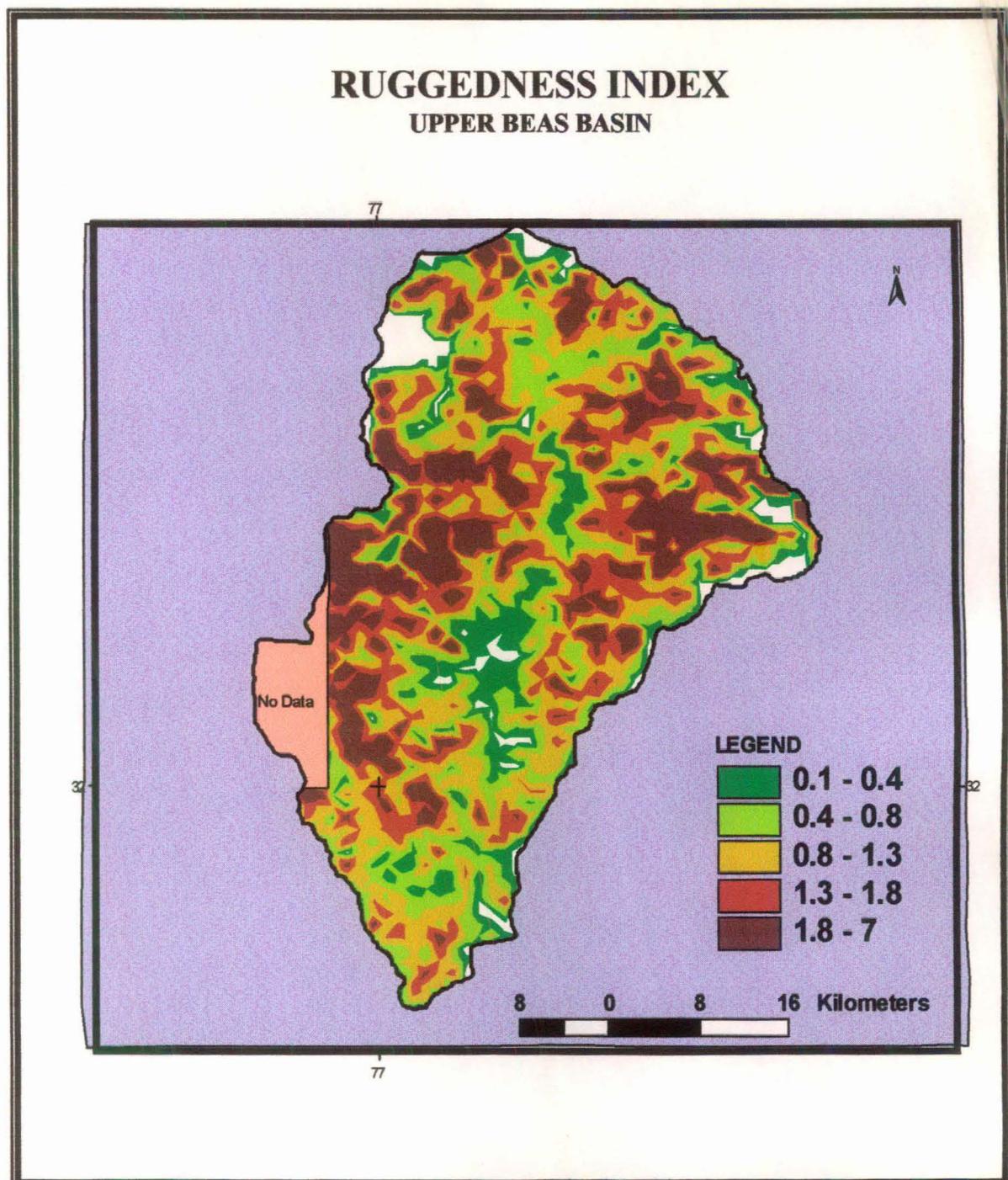


Figure 3.7

STREAM FREQUENCY UPPER BEAS BASIN

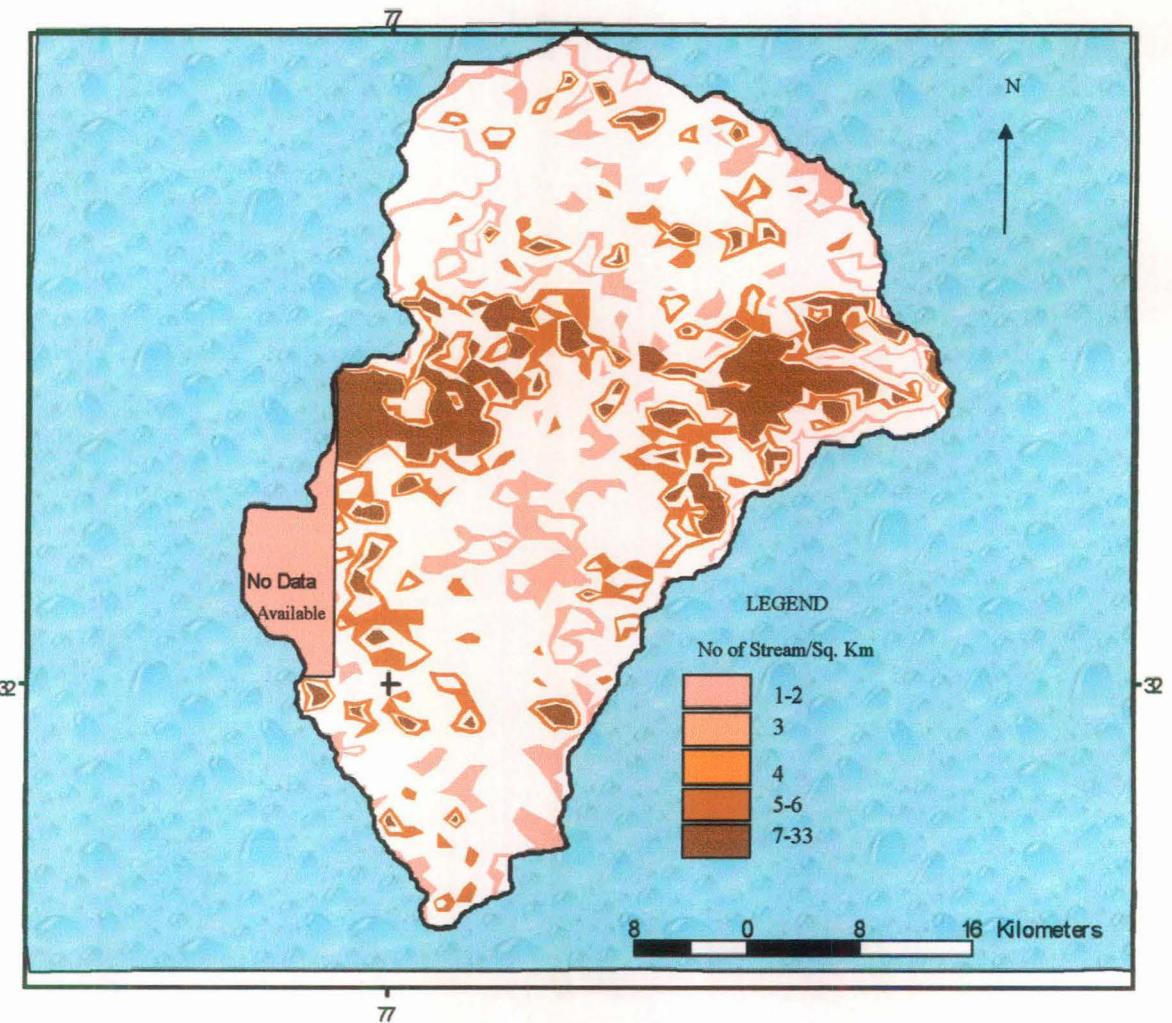


Figure 3.8

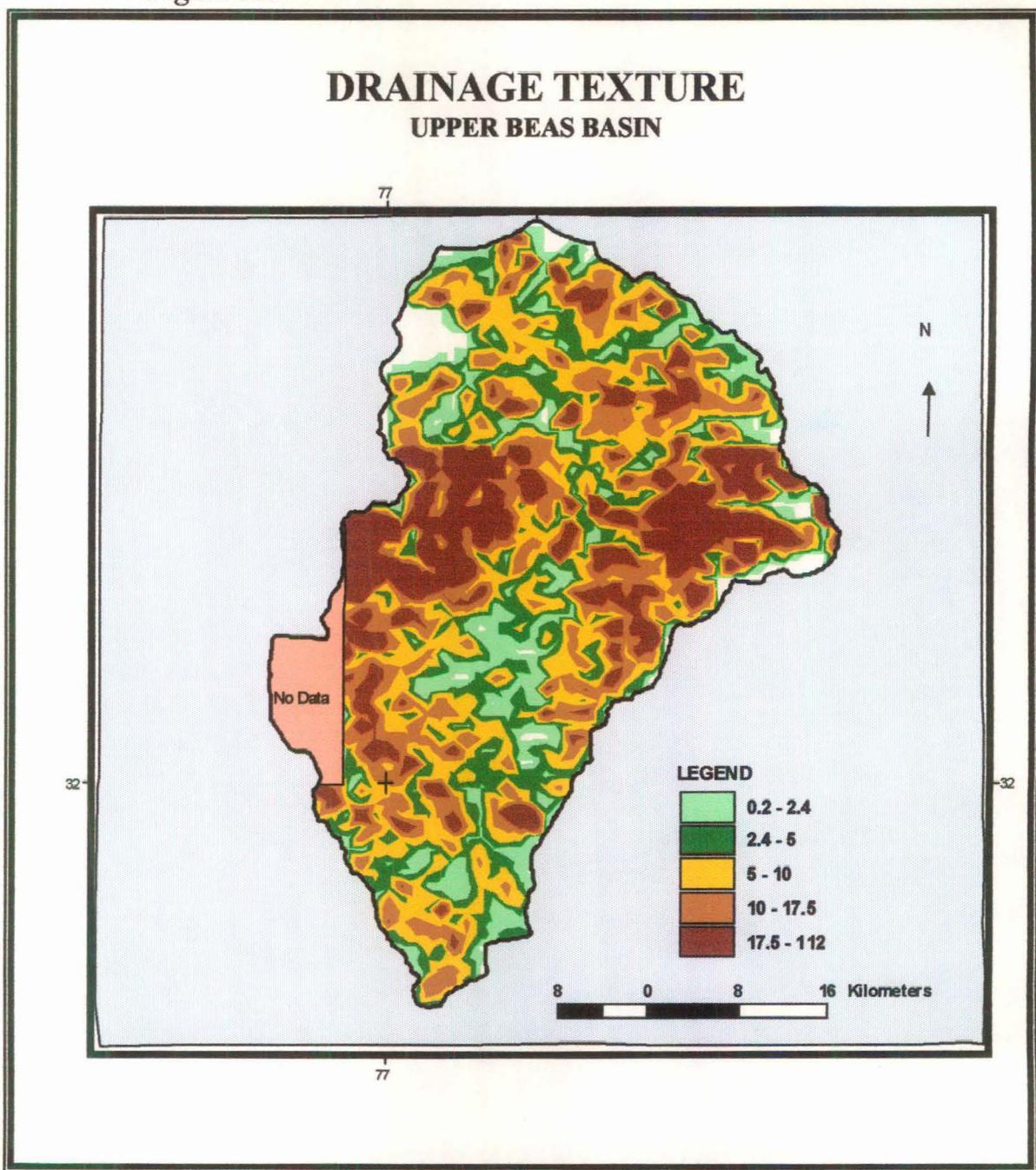


Table 3.5

RUGGEDNESS INDEX

S.No	Class	Ruggedness Index Classes	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	0.1 – 0.4	244	18.7	18.7
2	Low	0.4 – 0.8	265	20.3	39.1
3	Moderate	0.8 – 1.3	288	22.1	61.2
4	High	1.3 – 1.8	237	18.2	79.4
5	Very High	1.8 – 7.0	269	20.6	100.0
Total			1303	100.0	

Table 3.6(a)
STREAM FREQUENCY

S.No	Class	Stream Frequency Classes	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	1 - 2	330	25.2	25.2
2	Low	3	243	18.5	43.7
3	Moderate	4	216	16.5	60.2
4	High	5 – 6	292	22.3	82.5
5	Very High	7 – 33	229	17.5	100.0
Total			1310	100.0	

Table 3.6(b)
DRAINAGE TEXTURE

S.No.	Class	Drainage Texture Classes	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	0.2 – 2.4	253	19.3	19.3
2	Low	2.4 – 5.0	232	17.7	37.1
3	Moderate	5.0 – 10.0	306	23.4	60.4
4	High	10.0 – 17.5	236	18.0	78.5
5	Very High	17.5 – 112.0	282	21.5	100.0
Total			1309	100.0	

Table 3.6(c)
SLOPE

Slope Code	Class	Slope Classes	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	51.52 – 83.52	306	20.2	20.2
2	Low	83.52 – 84.66	272	17.9	38.1
3	Moderate	84.66 – 85.34	336	22.1	60.2
4	High	85.34 – 85.96	314	20.7	80.9
5	Very High	85.96 – 88.65	290	19.1	100.0
Total			1518	100.0	

Average Slope

Regional slope characteristics are controlled by both endogenetic and exogenetic factors. The initial slope of a catchment is generally deformed by climatic conditions of a region through a series of activities of erosion and denudation. Average slope of the Upper Beas Basin has been calculated with the help of Wentworth (1930) method of slope analysis with the metric scale notation. Each terrain unit has both characteristics and limiting angles depending on the particular conditions of rock or climate.

Slope classification transforms the continuous variable of slope within certain discrete classes with conformity of the ground. The study area is in a high slope zone starting from approximately from 51^0 to 88^0 . A general description of the average slope analysis is given in Figure 3.9~~b~~ and Table 3.6.c. The maximum slope of an area as per grid arrangement is approximately near the margin of water divide .

Relative Relief

Relative relief is an important aspect of terrain analysis. From a relative relief map we may assume the nature of topography whether it is plain, plateau or hilly. It is also termed as relative energy, local relief or amplitude of relief. As cross association with slope, the relative relief is more expressive and useful in

Figure 3.9(a)

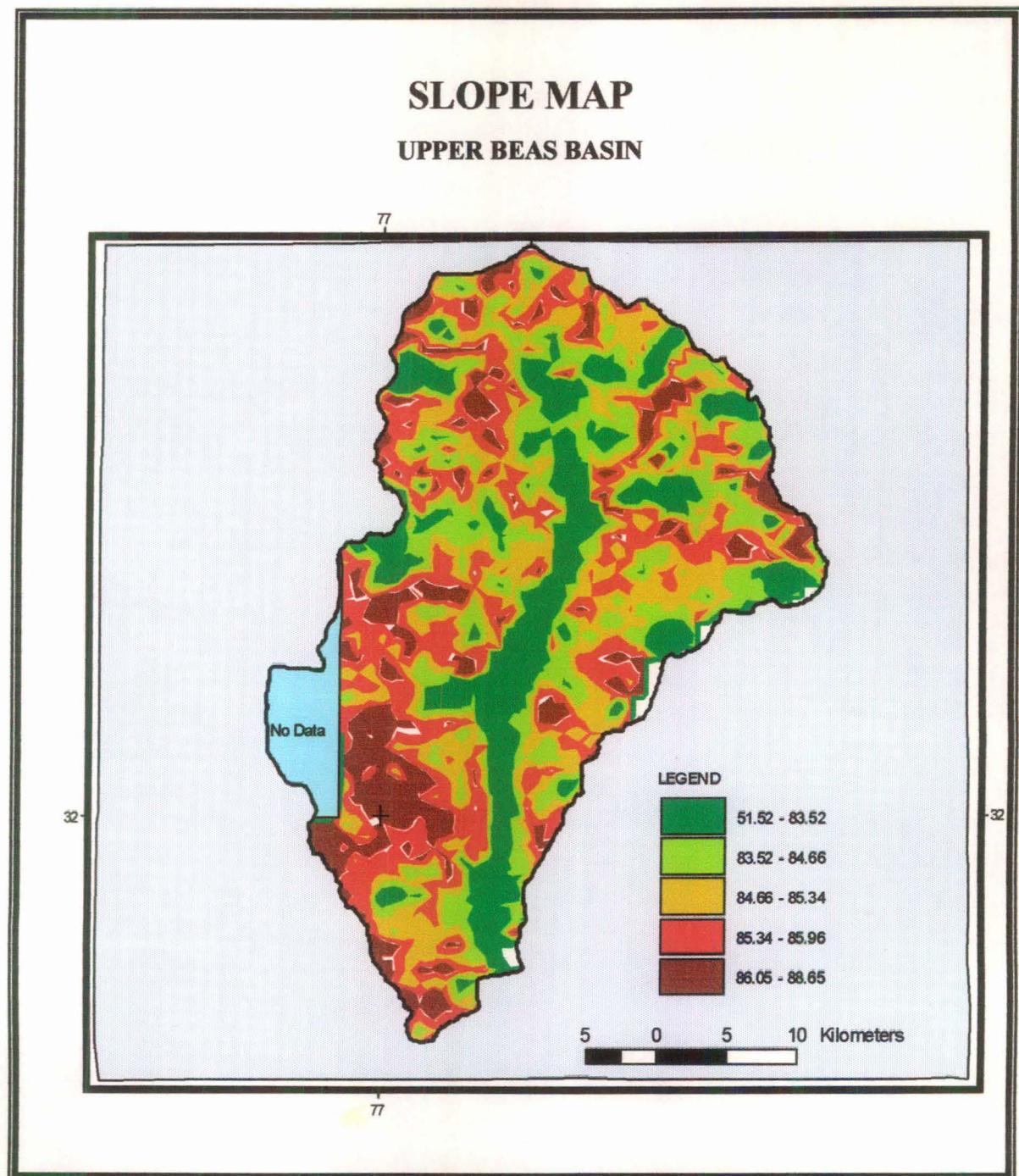


Figure : 3.9 (b)

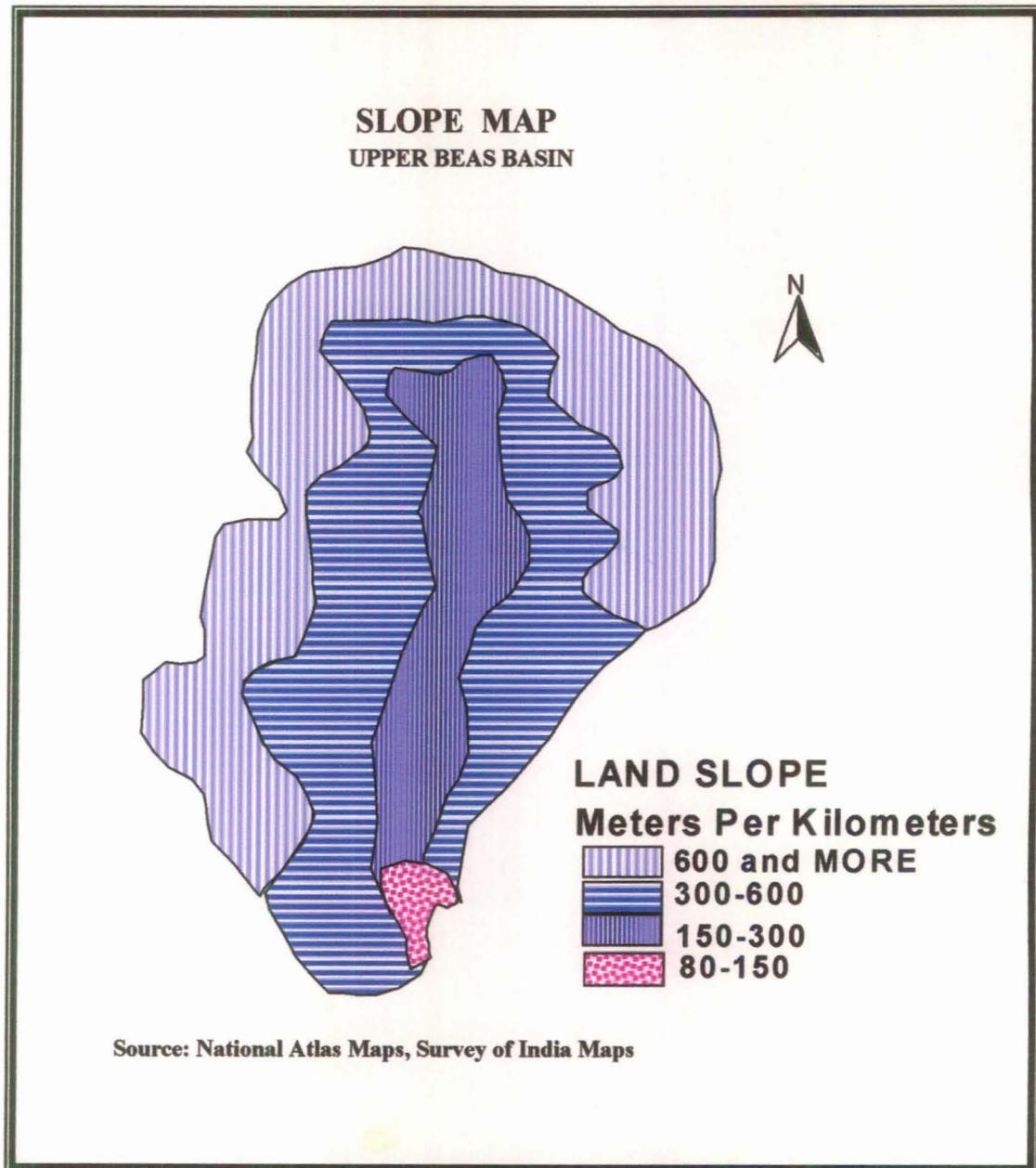


Table 3.7(a)
RELATIVE RELIEF

S.No	Class	Relative Relief Classes	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	20 – 380	269	18.6	18.6
2	Low	380 – 480	318	22.0	40.5
3	Moderate	480 – 580	223	15.4	55.9
4	High	580 – 700	334	23.1	79.0
5	Very High	700 -1440	304	21.0	100.0
Total			1448	100.0	

Table 3.7(b)

ABSOLUTE RELIEF

S.No	Class	Absolute Relief Classes	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Very Low	1120 – 2440	288	19.9	19.9
2	Low	2440 – 3080	292	20.1	40.0
3	Moderate	3080 – 3760	293	20.2	60.2
4	High	3760 – 4440	289	19.9	80.1
5	Very High	4440 – 5680	288	19.9	100.0
Total			1450	100.0	

Figure 3.10

RELATIVE RELIEF
UPPER BEAS BASIN

77



No Data Available

Legend (elevation in meters)	
20 - 380	
380 - 480	
480 - 580	
580 - 700	
700 - 1440	

77

20

0

20 Kilometers

-32

32

understanding classes of natural phenomena, including relief dissection and surface ruggedness (Patnaik, 1993).

The relative relief map (Fig. 3.10) shows that there are abrupt changes in relative relief of the study area. Five major categories of relative relief have been identified in present context for analytical interpretation as given in table 3.7.a. This illustrates that the study region covers maximum area (23%) under high relative relief.

Absolute Relief

Absolute relief gives the elevation of any area above the sea level. It is quite helpful in the determination of morphology and existence of erosional surfaces. The absolute relief of the Upper Beas Basin varies between 1120 m - 5680 m. The distribution and extent of absolute relief has been presented in table 3.7.b and Figure 3.11.

Digital Terrain Model (DTM)

Morphometric analysis given above shows that the Upper Beas Basin produces peak and extended flow of runoff . In order to get detail about the watershed behaviour terrain analysis is a prerequisite. To generate precise physiographic analysis, flow direction and stream network Digital Terrain Model(DTM) is required. It is a representation of relief over space in raster format. Both the contours and spot heights are used with the existing drainage line to generate the DTM of the Upper Beas Basin (Fig. 3.12). DTM is the first step of

Figure: 3.11

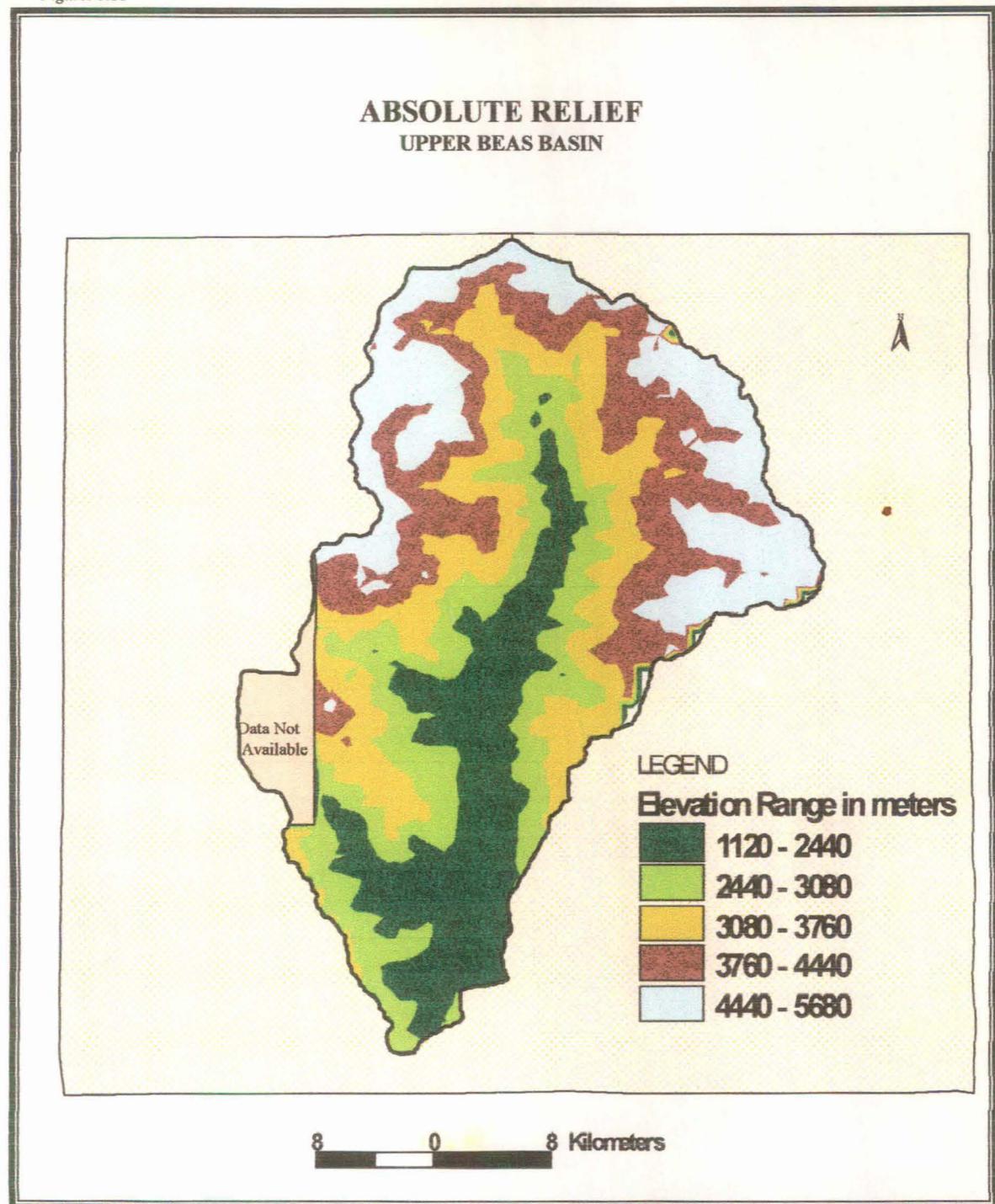
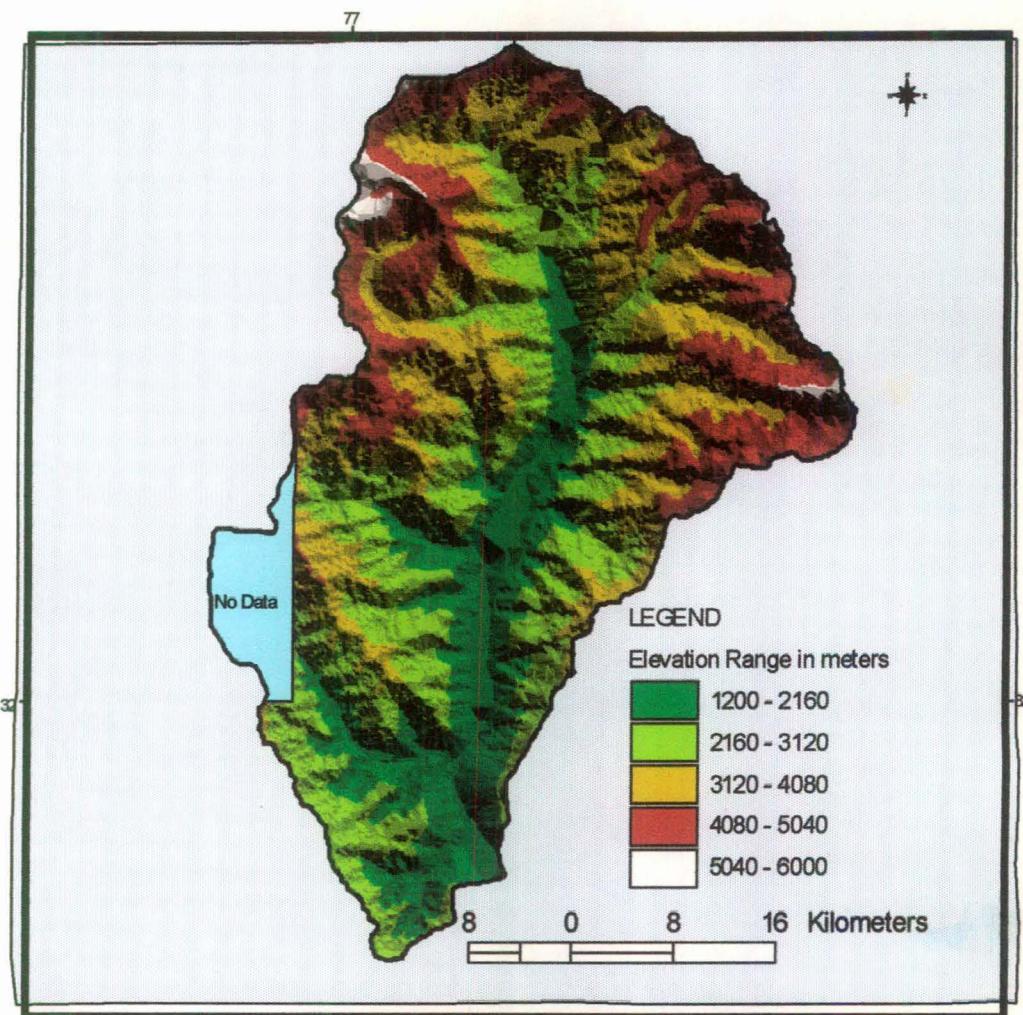


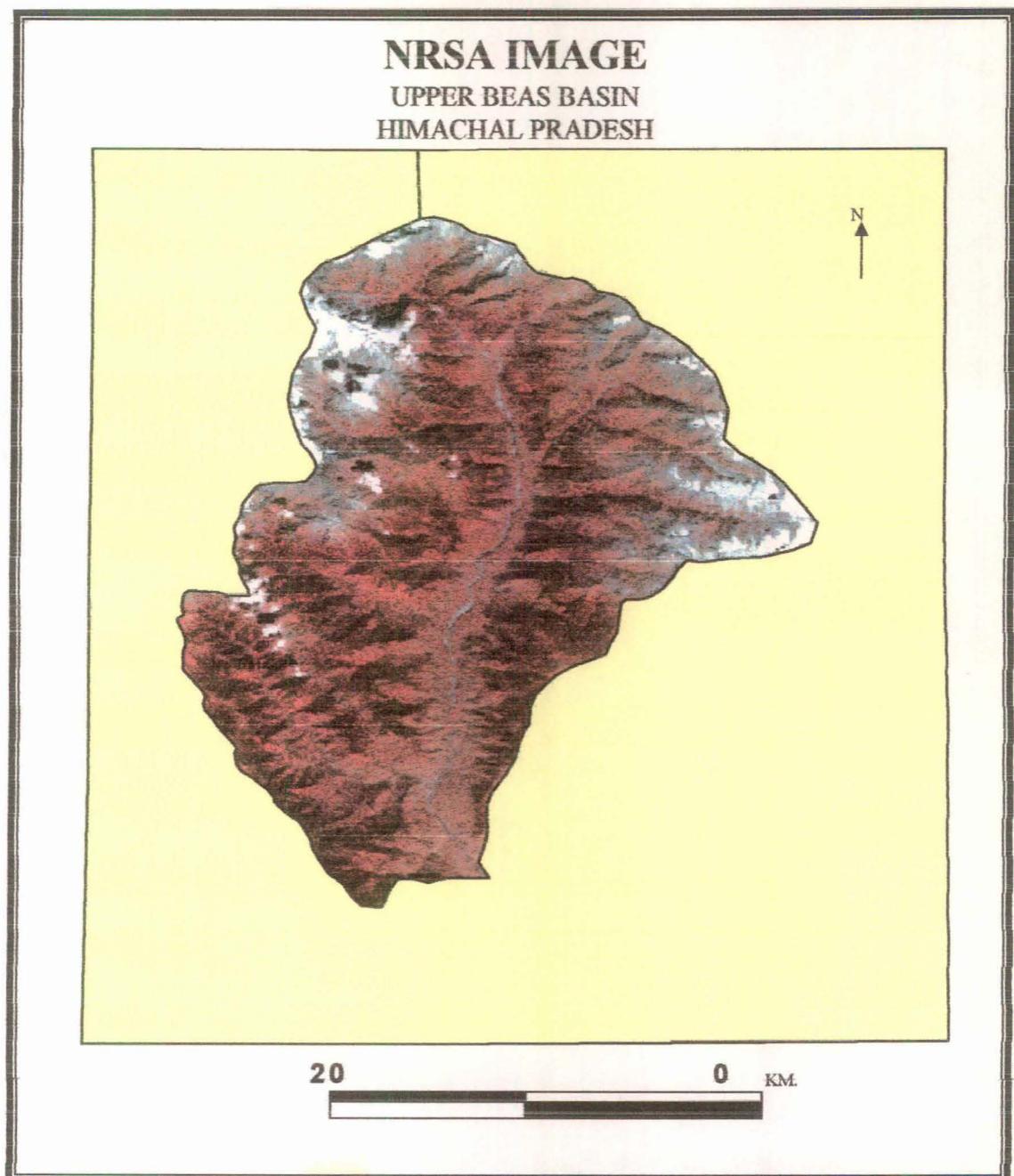
Figure 3.12

**DIGITAL TERRAIN MODEL
UPPER BEAS BASIN**



deriving the hydrologic information about the surface of the watershed. DTM can provide information about rainfall estimates, runoff analysis and erosional processes of a basin. The DTM shows that there are peaks in the north-western as well as in north-eastern parts of the basin. The rest of the basin is represented by more regular physiographic patterns. The terrain pattern is very nicely matched with the drainage characteristics of the basin and National Remote Sensing Agency (NRSA) image (Fig. 3.15).

Figure 3.16



CHAPTER 4

CLIMATIC CHANGE AND LANDFORMS

The Himalayas have evolved through a series of land forming processes, operating over a long geological time; the outcome of these processes is the present environment. There are now definite indications of permanent and near permanent changes in the climate in several parts of Himalayas, tending towards desert conditions, advancing and retreating glaciers, dried up springs, erratic precipitation, rising temperatures and higher temperature regime. The tropical glaciers are considered repositories of environmental change indicators.

The formation of landforms in the Himalayas requires addressing a number of different process domains at a number of time scales to represent changing environmental conditions. Many of these landforms reflect former climatic conditions and emphasize the importance of climate as a major forcing mechanism on landform genesis in geomorphology. Despite these important issues little research has been undertaken on the nature of climate change and landform evolution within the high mountains of the Himalayas due to various reasons.

The Himalayan region, endowed with a staggering geomorphological diversity, offers an exceptionally rich field for the study of glacial, glacio-fluvial, slope and fluvial landscapes. Therefore, active glaciers and associated landscapes provide an ideal laboratory for the investigation of fluvial, glacial, and slope processes and their resultant landforms.

Glacial landforms

The advance and retreat of body of ice generates the glacial process, which creates erosional and depositional features in a geomorphic landscape. Glacial features, both erosional and depositional are present almost everywhere in the high Himalayas, confined to the steep slope and in the present broad river valleys

The depositional features are created directly by the advance and retreat of glaciers. These landforms, therefore, provide much of the information regarding the history of the Pleistocene glacier fluctuations, and thus the environmental episode in which these usually evolve. The advance produces distinctive depositional features, which epitomize the changing times of landform formation. The retreat of the glaciers produces distinctive interwoven morainic features linked with the sub-stages of glacier retreat. The volume of deposition is closely correlated with the intensity of weathering and erosion in a glacial environment. The major glacial landforms in different environmental conditions in the Himalayas are-

Moraine

The distribution of moraines reveals a close relationship between the landform orientation and ice flow direction. This, in turn, may be used as a yardstick to look into environmental change, locally and regionally. The different types of moraines can be attributed as under:



Plate 7: Heap of sediments of all sizes near Beas Kund. Note the exposed lateral moraine of recent age in the top right background.

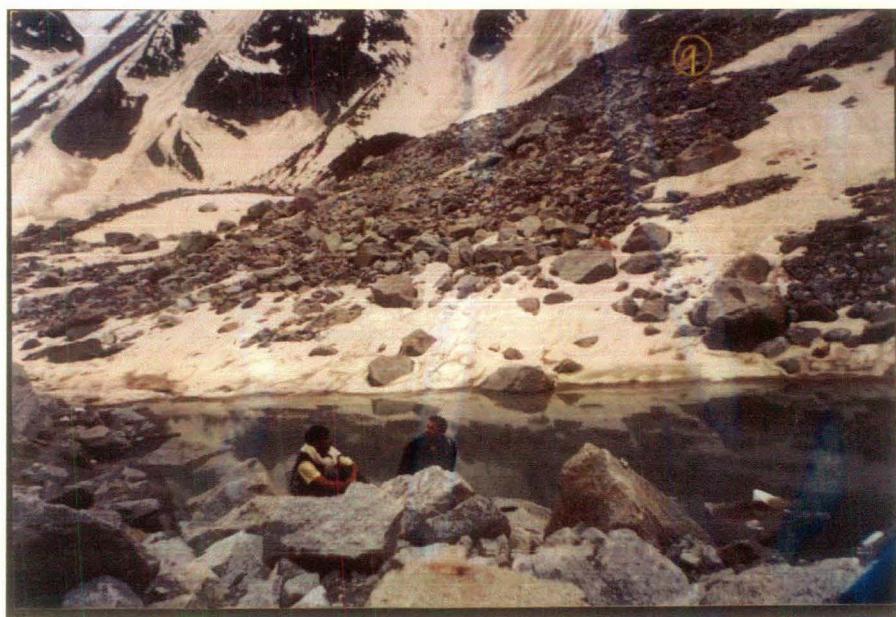


Plate 8: Proglacial lake at Beas Kund. Note the talus fan and avalanche snow accumulated in the left background.

Lateral moraines

This type of moraines form through the accumulation of valley side material on either side of the glacier. Examples of lateral moraines formed through sub glacial processes can be rare, because the slope processes in a dynamic environment such as in the Himalayas rapidly modify these.

Owen and Derbyshire (1989) recognized two main types of lateral moraines, which are dependent on supra-glacial debris formation. Lateral moraine aggradations may result from fluctuation in the position of the ice front.

Sharma (1996) identified that well developed lateral moraines are present 50-120 m above the present glacier surfaces in a terrace form. The older lateral moraine landforms complexes have been found to resemble fluvial terraces in the upper parts of the Garhwal Himalayas.

In the Upper Beas basin lateral moraines form both sharp- crested and terrace forms down to Palchan near the confluence of the Beas and Solang nallah.

End or terminal moraines

The end moraines are one of the important geomorphic features formed by the movement of the glacier snout. The form and size are mainly related to the ice movement, the rate of surface ablation and volume of sediments contained in the ice. In the western Himalayas the majority of the end moraines are partly destroyed by the river, through widening of its flood plains and fluctuations in snout positions and melt water volume. End moraines are present at various site in the upper Beas Basin. These are Palchan, Solang ki slopes, Dhundi, Bakearthal and Beas kund. Push moraines are composed of large boulders, embedded in sand

and silt matrix. Push moraines though few in numbers are prominent at Beas kund. These indicate minor fluctuations in the snout position.

Ablation valleys

Ablation valleys are prominent landforms that exist in two different forms. Ablation valleys are highly variable in character depending on ice marginal processes, with lateral moraines and kame terrace development being important component (Owen, 1988; Owen and Derbyshire, 1989; Hewitt, 1989). Hewitt (1988) suggests that the formation of ablation valleys is dependent to varying degrees upon slope, snowmelt, lacustrine debris flow and glacial processes.

Sharma, (1996) identified two types of ablation valleys in the N.W. Garhwal Himalayas based on their size and form. He describes that ablation valleys are formed by sedimentation involving glacial, mass movement, periglacial and paraglacial processes. A single lateral moraine forms the first type. These are fairly long and narrow with associated lacustrine deposited within the valley. The second type is produced when the lateral moraines of two glaciers converge, forming relatively large ablation valley lakes. Both these types are found in the upper region, above Solang village.

Cirque

The cirques are universal in occurrence in the glaciated mountain regions and the most recurrent worldwide feature in the glaciated landscapes. These are confined to the areas of the present or former glaciations. On the basis of cirque level two to three Pleistocene advances of the Himalayan glaciers have been



Plate 9: A typical landform in the Upper Beas Basin near Beas Kund. Note the pile of sediment accumulation in the middle related to bulldozing effect of glacier. Chutes in the background are impressive.

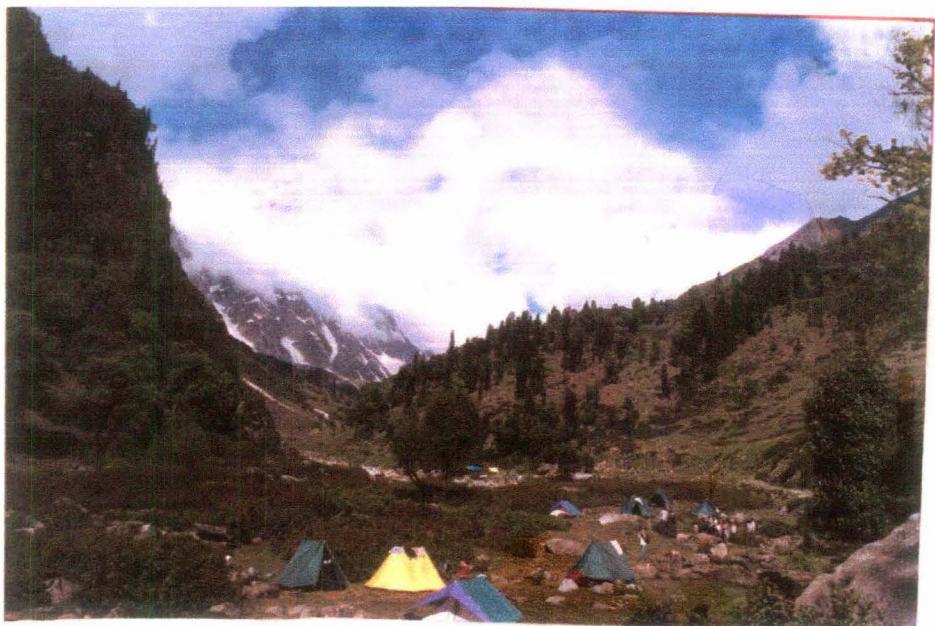


Plate 10: Open pine and oak forest mixed with hedges at Dhundi. Aspect has a great control on density and tree-line altitude.

proposed (Krenek and Bhawan, 1945; Vohra, 1981; Ahmed and Mayewaski, 1981).

Cirques that still have snow and ice filled have developed at different levels in different parts of the Himalayas. The highest cirque level is recorded from Sikkim and the lowest from the Kashmir valley.

Cirques in the upper Beas basin are at 4200-4800 m above sea level. Both paleo and present active cirques of small dimension are abundant.

Fluvial Landforms

River terraces

Terraces are flat or gently inclined land surfaces produced by fluvial action. They have been classified into erosional and depositional ones on the basis of their genesis. Lot of work has been conducted on the terraces of Himalayan Rivers and it has been reported that they comprise of five to seven levels (Khan and Srivastava, 1981; Vohra, 1970).

The high level terraces have been identified in the Kashmir Himalayas. The terraces in the river valleys in the lesser Himalayas are more common. Downstream of Manali to the gorge point south of Bajoura, the Beas river has eroded 5 levels of fluvial terrace. Each of these terraces are 5-30 m high above the flood plain.

The environmental relationship of the landforms can be established looking at their morphogenetic characteristics, extent, shape and locations. The varied phases of glaciations due to cold climate conditions in the Pleistocene might have evolved the deep and broad valleys in the Himalayas. Subsequent

warming up of climate seems to have resulted in the evolution of incision of valley through increased melt waters from the glaciers. This increase in the volume of the river discharge in turn may have been responsible for the formation of paired terraces that exists 10s of meters high and kilometers long from the present day river course; although the role of uplift in their evolution can not be ruled out. This also might have affected the rate of denudation. The continued retreat of glaciers position in response to warming up of climate has given rise to sediment fans in the higher Himalayas where paraglacial processes dominate present day landscape.

Alluvial fans

These are depositional landforms whose surface forms a segment of a cone that radiated down slope from the point where the stream leaves the surface area normally 2° - 5° in gradient with apex and toe. They vary greatly in size from less than 10 m in length to more than 20 km, and many large fans are thicker than 300m. The debris that makes up the fan decreases in size but is frequently coarse, and much of it has been transported by mudflow activity. Deposition is caused by decrease in depth and velocity where stream flow spreads out on a fan and by infiltration of water into permeable superficial deposited. There is every possibility that alluvial fan development started after the formation of river terraces. Their toe-head truncation and incision is the evidence of its time of evolutionary initiation.



Plate 11: Modification of lateral moraine terrace by slope and paraglacial process at Bakarthatch. A palaeo-cirque is visible in the centre background.



Plate 12: Interlocking spurs of sediment origin. Trees in the centre background indicate the upper tree-line in this region.

Alluvial fans are widespread throughout the arid, mountainous and periglacial areas, but are especially notable in particular tectonic environment, where there is a marked contrast between mountain front and depositional areas.

During July 1993 intense monsoonal rainstorms occurred along the southern slopes of the Pir Panjal, causing extensive flooding in the Upper Beas basin. The floods resulted in major channel changes, large-scale erosion and deposition and serious damage to roads and property. Major landforms of fluvial and glaciofluvial deposition include large braided plains and alluvial fans. Large braided plains in low- gradient valley bottoms, which tend to develop where moraines or debris cones or where valley have been over deepened by glacial erosion blocks drainage along with slope failures. Large alluvial fans are best developed throughout the upper Beas basin with gradients ranging between 2° - 10° (Figure 4.1). These comprise three main units formed by major debris flow and fluvial sedimentation. These fans reflect high rates of sedimentation from glacier-fed rivers or streams laden with paraglacial debris. There is a gradation between alluvial fans and fans dominated by debris flow activity. The sediment sections commonly expose interbedded sands, gravels, diamictons and boulder layers. Fan surfaces are frequently terraced, reflecting repeated episodes of aggradations and incision. Some of the largest fans in the Upper Beas basin form rich agricultural land such as those between Prini and Naggar.

There are evidences of slight mass-movement activity in the Upper Beas basin. The dominant mass movement processes are debris flow, rock fall and snow avalanching, slumping, rotational failure, catastrophic flow slides and soil

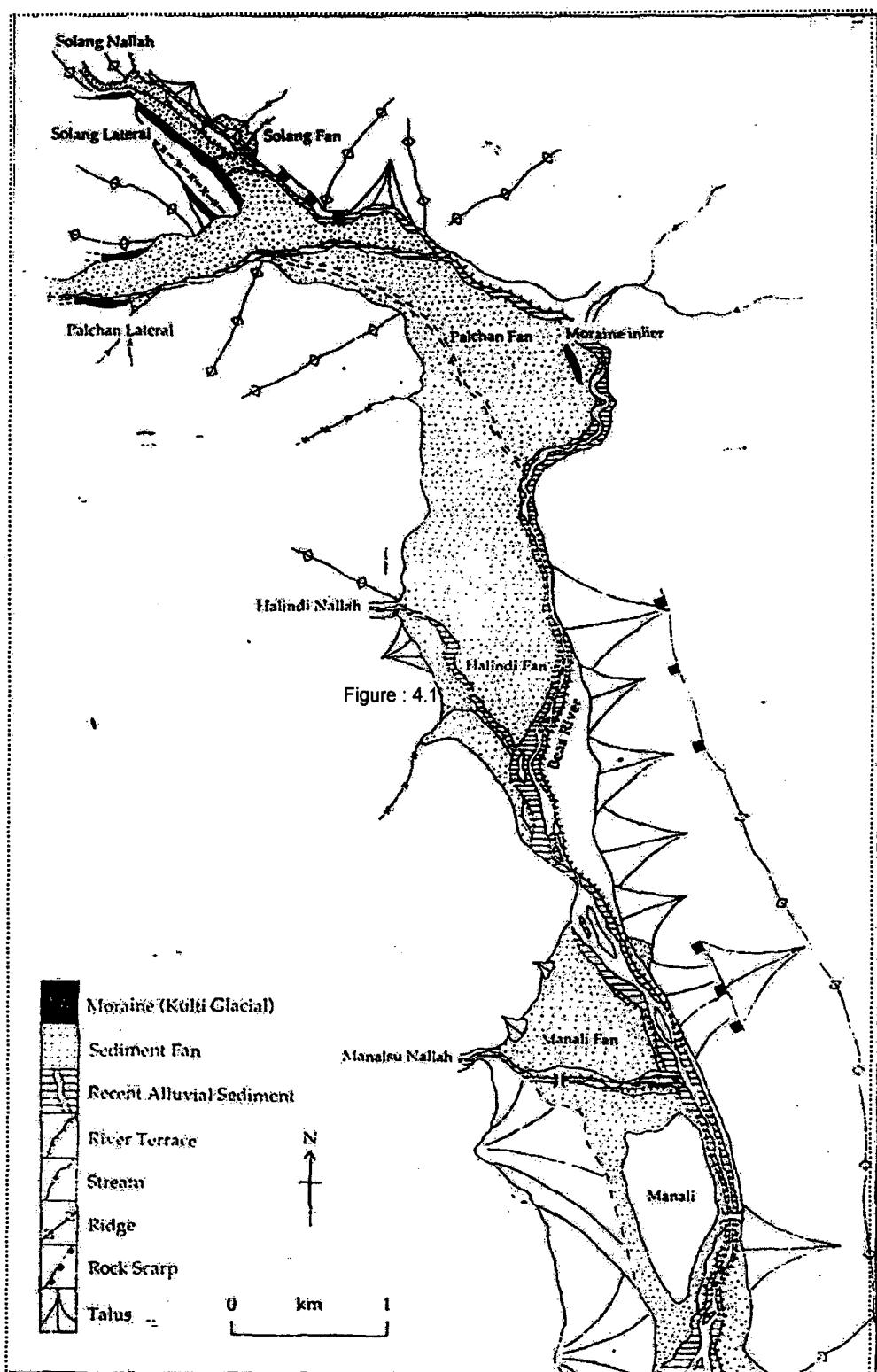


Figure : 4.1 Moraine and Sediment Fan in Upper Beas Basin (Adapted from Owen et. al, 1996).



Plate 13: A view of anthropogenic development in an area which is dynamic in earth-surface processes.



Plate 14: The highway construction and related slope failures are common. Tourism and supply to Ladakh on NH 21 brings in uncontrollable traffic in to fragile Himalayas.

creep. The distribution of particular failure types reflects the nature of the parent materials and local topography. For example, debris flows are frequent where moderate to steep slopes are underlain by

Unconsolidated sediment, mudstones or other weak bedrock, particularly where gullies focus the flow of ephemeral streams or snowmelt. Debris transport by snow avalanches is concentrated below shallow concavities in long and steep slopes. High magnitude slope failures are locally impressive, but are fairly uncommon. Many slopes in the region have been modified by combinations of mass movement processes. Some debris mantled slopes record a complex history of development, including several episodes of stability and reactivation.

The widespread distribution of alluvial fans in the Upper Beas basin is notable and suggests that mass movement is probably intensified due to deglaciation and large areas of unconsolidated debris are exposed on steep slopes. Episodes of landscape change were probably sporadic and very rapid soon after deglaciation. The role of fluvial/ glaciofluvial sedimentation during paraglacial modifications has still to be fully assessed but, clearly, the erosion of moraines and the resedimentation of sediments on outwash plains in association with moraines and alluvial fans is dramatic. The thick and extensive fans in the Upper Beas basin, which are the result of postglacial sedimentation, dominated by debris flow and glacio-fluvial processes (Figure 4.1.)

Palaeoclimatic Changes

Palaeoclimatic changes refer to all climatic changes occurring before and during the historical period. Since there was no direct instrumental measurement of

climate in the distant past, and without surviving eyewitness accounts, climatologists must make use of indirect ‘proxy’ evidence to establish a chronology of climate changes. About six or seven ice ages can be identified at roughly 100000 years intervals, with warm interglacial in between a continental scene and unidentified number in the Himalayas.

Relative Dating Methods

Boulder Frequency

Boulder frequency was done in a transect area of $10 \times 3 \text{ m}^2$. Boulder frequency is high close to stream and which further decreases away from stream Table (24). For site A number of large boulder is very low and the number of small boulder is high. The presences of small boulder indicate weathering effect and its resultant size. The site C has the highest number of small boulders. This shows that it is newer than the site A.

In **Bolder Varnish** colour of rocks has been analysed. The darker colour indicates that they are of older age and lighter colour boulder indicates that they are of latter age (Newer). Site A and D are relatively old than B and E.

In **Sound Rebound** sound has been classified in three categories 1. Break or Dhom, 2. Dhak 3. Tong or Tang. Thus old weather rock when hit by hammer will either breaks or give the sound of very faded Dhom and the newer rocks give Tang sound and total repletion or rebound. with increasing distance from the river, rocks show older age on the terraces of similar lithology.



Plate 15: Nature of slope and valley width with unconsolidated sediments in the Upper Beas Basin. Note the change in river channel within a small distance.



Plate 16: The man-made structure such as the one in the left foreground have increased the sites with potential slope failures.

In **Pits depth** the number and depth of pits is observed on the rock surface indicating the degree of weathering effect on the rocks. More the depth and number of pits in rocks more will be the age and Vice versa.

In **Plant Succession** Number of plants species and their density is affected by soil formation and topographic configuration. Therefore, more the density of plants and number of species older is the age and vice versa. In the Upper Beas basin area closer to the river show less number of species as well as density.

Equilibrium Line Altitude (ELA)

ELA for East Chander glacier by AWM is 4554 meters, THAR 4560 and AAR 4700 meters. Mean of these ELAs is 4604. By landform and contour lines a former ELA of this glacier is calculated using AWM method and the value is 4458.42 meters, and 100 meter below the present ELA. This indicates the rate of glacier retreat in the recent past (Fig 4.9). The Glacial features both erosional and depositional are present almost everywhere in the high Himalayas, confined to the steep slope or in the now broad river valleys. Most reliable ELA value for glacier at Patalsu is 4420 m because this is proved by two methods, i.e. AWM and AAR. The value far Hanuman Tibba glacier is 4890 meter and for Dhundha glacier is 4078 meter.

Particle Size Analysis

Shape processes in the basin have been evaluated using detailed inventory (appendix II) prepared during fieldwork. The shear steep nature of slopes with no or little vegetation close to the valley bottom have been found to be susceptible to

Figure 4.2 (a)

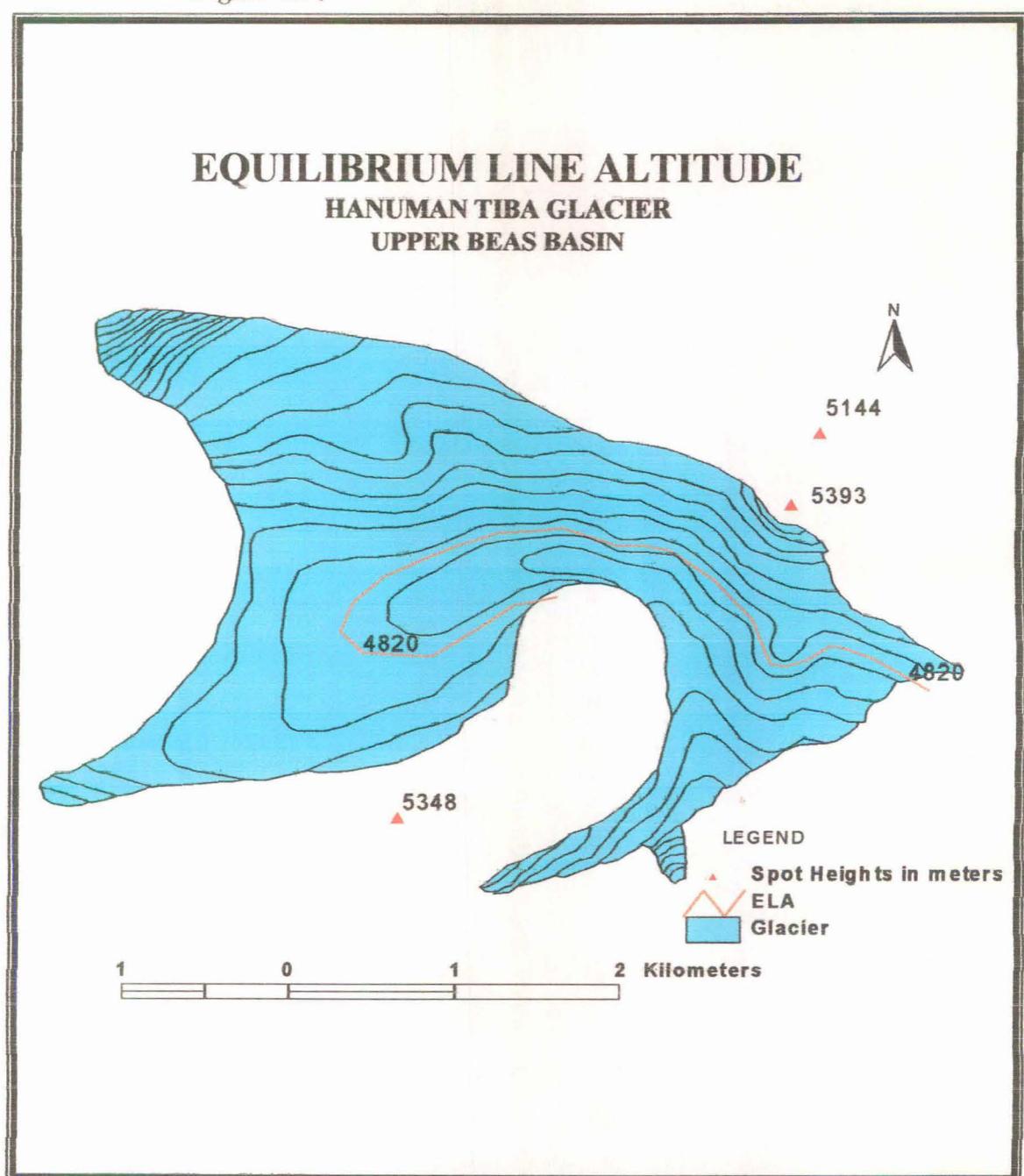


Figure 4.2b

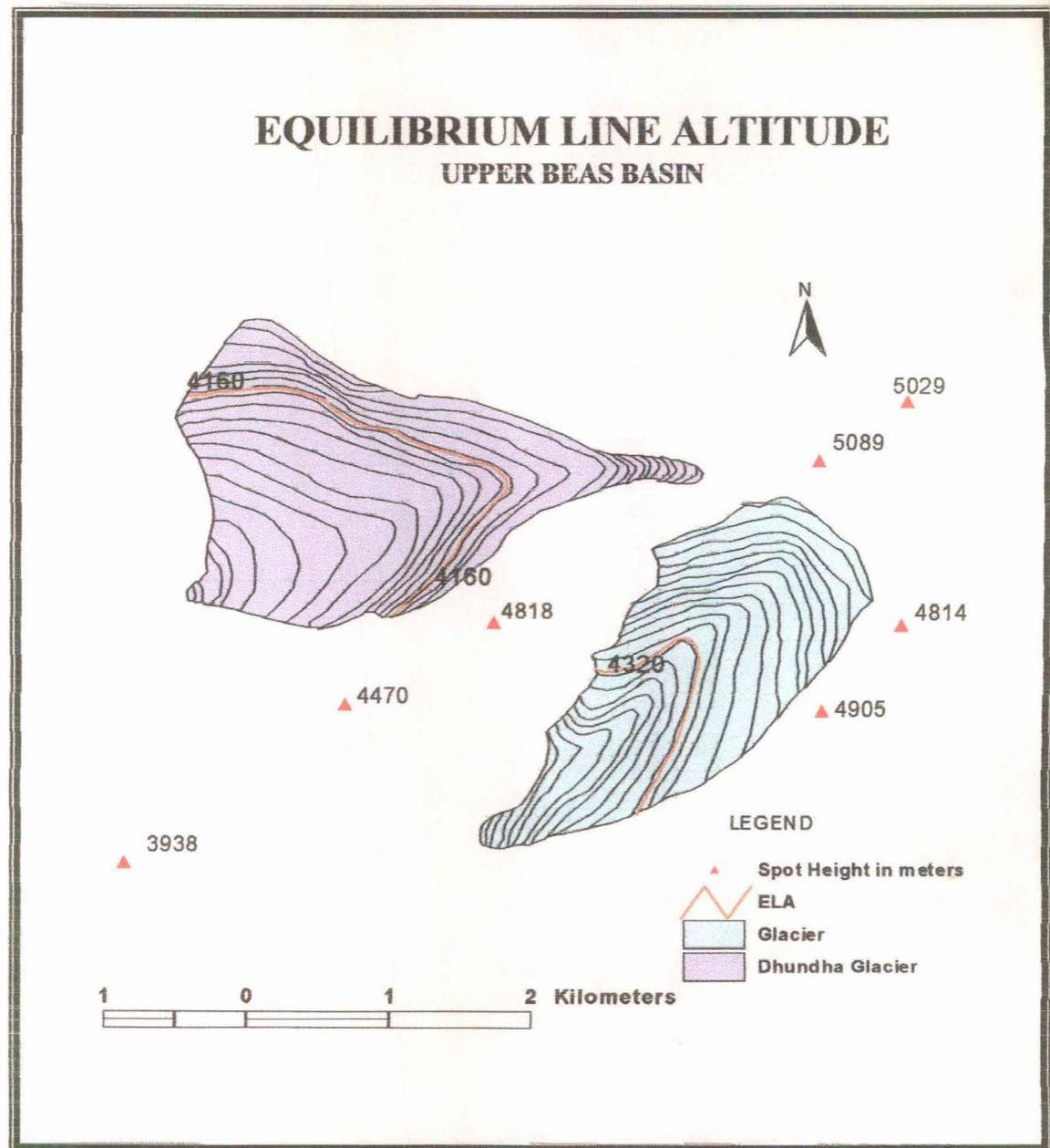




Plate 17 : The villages on the river bank such as Solang are potentially at risk due to river under-cutting and incision. Note the fissures in the middle between the fields.

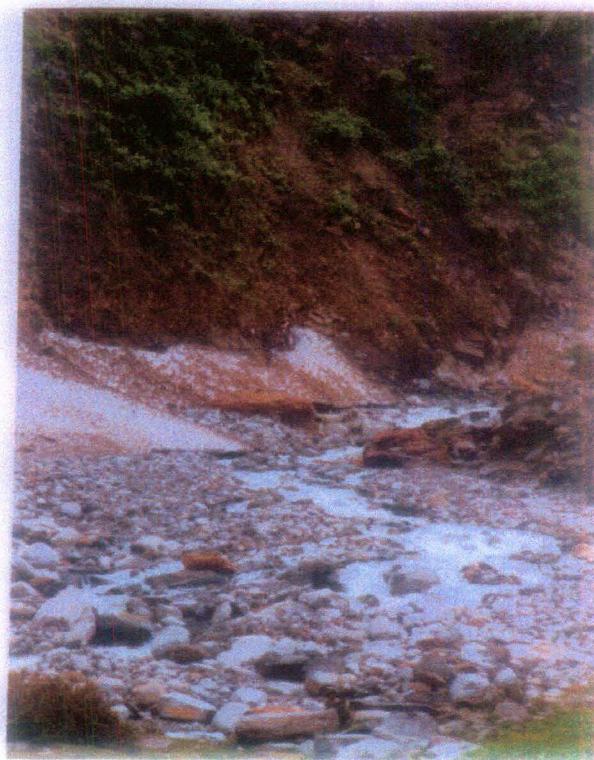


Plate 18: Polycyclic nature of processes at work in the Upper Beas Basin.

major slope failures. The nature of regolith also is equally responsible in such cases where open spaces and poor texture lead to such events. Shah and Mazar (1998) suggest that river terraces with thick sediments are also prone to failures where anthropogenic activity is intense.



Plate 19: Road excavation exposing the glaciogenic sediments in the Upper Beas Basin. Note that huge pine trees have grown on these deposits.

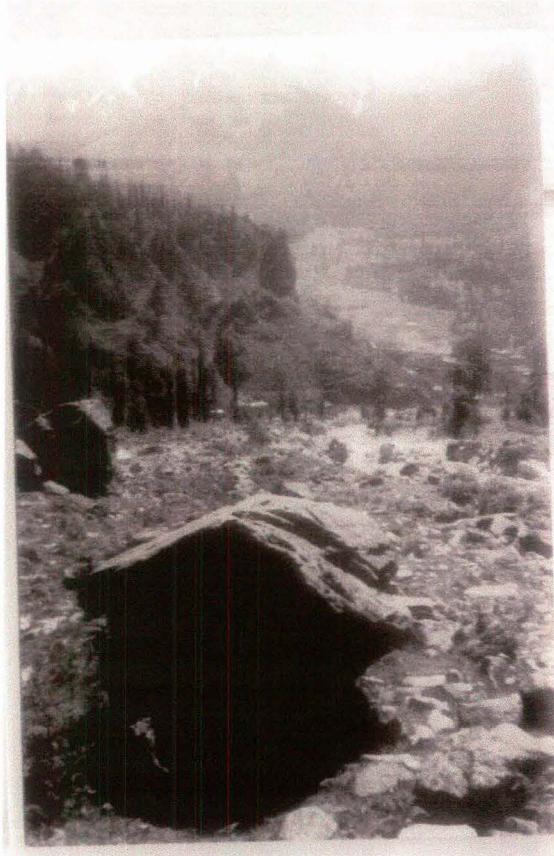


Plate 20: Erratics and boulder such as these have been displaced, reworked and reoriented by the debris flows near Solang.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The conclusion resulting from present investigation provides a scope for the understanding of the climate change and landscape evolution in the Upper Beas Basin. The evolution is the result of dynamic interactions between progressive upliftment produced by tectonics and isostatically induced by denudational unloading, climate change and the dynamics of geomorphological processes. This study has laid to the identification of important geomorphological agents and the relative role of earth surface processes in shaping the landscape.

The interaction between tectonic, climate and geomorphological process has resulted in the evolution of landform in the Upper Beas Basin. Tectonic activity and various phases of glaciations have played a vital role in denudation and shaping of these landforms. Various altitudinal processes have a strong control on the form and extent of landforms in the study area. Extensive sediments are stored in the form of river terraces, alluvial fans, moraines, debris flows etc. These sediments may be mobilized or transported out of the basin due to climatic fluctuation.

Present day landforms in the basin are dominated by extensive debris flow and glacio-fluvial processes. Snow avalanching is another important process in the higher altitudes in sediment transfer and resedimentation in the basin. Recent extensive floods and their frequency have totally changed the landscape formation along the river channel in the study area.

ELA reconstructions in the Upper Beas Basin clearly indicate the control of topography, as glacier retreat does not vary considerably over a short temporal scale. The ELA values of various glaciers by different methods show substantial variation in snout position.

The fluvial regimes of the basin are dominated by glacial and snow melt water dynamics, which provide large daily and seasonal variation in discharge. The general assumption of very high sediment load in the Himalayan river system is valid for the Upper Beas Basin also. Sediment transfer is an episodic process associated with seasonal cycle, high magnitude monsoon storms events and the dynamics of highly active hill slope process. Estimates of the magnitude of fluvial processes are extremely difficult for large river basin to be quantified in absolute terms.

Analysis of sediments is important in identifying process involved in the evolution of particular landform. This should be extensively and judiciously used in all geomorphological enquiries. The fragile mountain landscape of the basin makes it vulnerable to varied geomorphic hazards. The episodic snow avalanching, landslides, debris and mudflow, subsidence, fissures, rock fall, slope instability, cloud burst and soil erosion are the common geomorphological hazards. These hazards are the outcome of changing biophysical environment and great socio-economic interaction in the basin.

Recent research has shown that the Himalayan uplift has a profound effect on global climate and atmospheric circulation. This uplift was important in stimulating the climatic changes over the Himalayan territory. Rapid uplift of the Pir Panjal produced by tectonic isostacy has reduced the moisture supply to the northern slopes of the Pir Panjal leading to a strong climatic gradient. On the southern slope of the Pir Panjal deep weathering and fluvial processes dominate. Most slopes show major modification by mass movement, Landforms within the Upper Beas Basin constitute great thickness of sediments. A substantial amount of this sediment has been transported out of the mountains via the Beas River. Therefore, present landforms probably have a relatively short life, therefore, a temporary storage. Due to the paucity of dating facilities available locally, it is difficult to obtain any absolute rate of change and landscape modification in this basin. Absence of organic material in glacigenic sediments it is difficult to have time constraint. Paraglacial processes, following in reshaping the landscape soon after the major glaciation played and still plays a strong role. This has resulted in large mass movement and slope modification both surficial sediment and bedrock. For further studies, dynamics of contemporary processes need to be addressed in more detail, in order to characterize their variability and comparison with paleo landform in order to estimate the rates of landscape change within the Upper Beas Basin.

The altitudinal organization of landform has produced a distinctive landform association which is important for understanding landscape evolution

and changes through time, and for hazard assessment. Most of the landforms of the Upper Beas Basin are polygenetic in evolution.

The process of floods in the Upper Beas Basin is episodic in occurrence, and is responsible for abrupt changes in landscape. However, processes like mass movement and glacio-fluvial may be important in landscape evolution. A change in climate, and associated rapid retreat in glaciers has exposed the Upper Beas Basin for potential geomorphic hazard like soil erosion, debris flows, mudflows, mass wasting, rock fall, etc.

The evolution of landscape in the Upper Beas Basin is a result of interaction between tectonism, climate and earth surfaces. An understanding of the interacting surface and environmental processes as presented in fig. 5.1 may help in assessing the relative significance of each in landscape evolution, and the hazard mitigation; therefore for a safer human habitat.

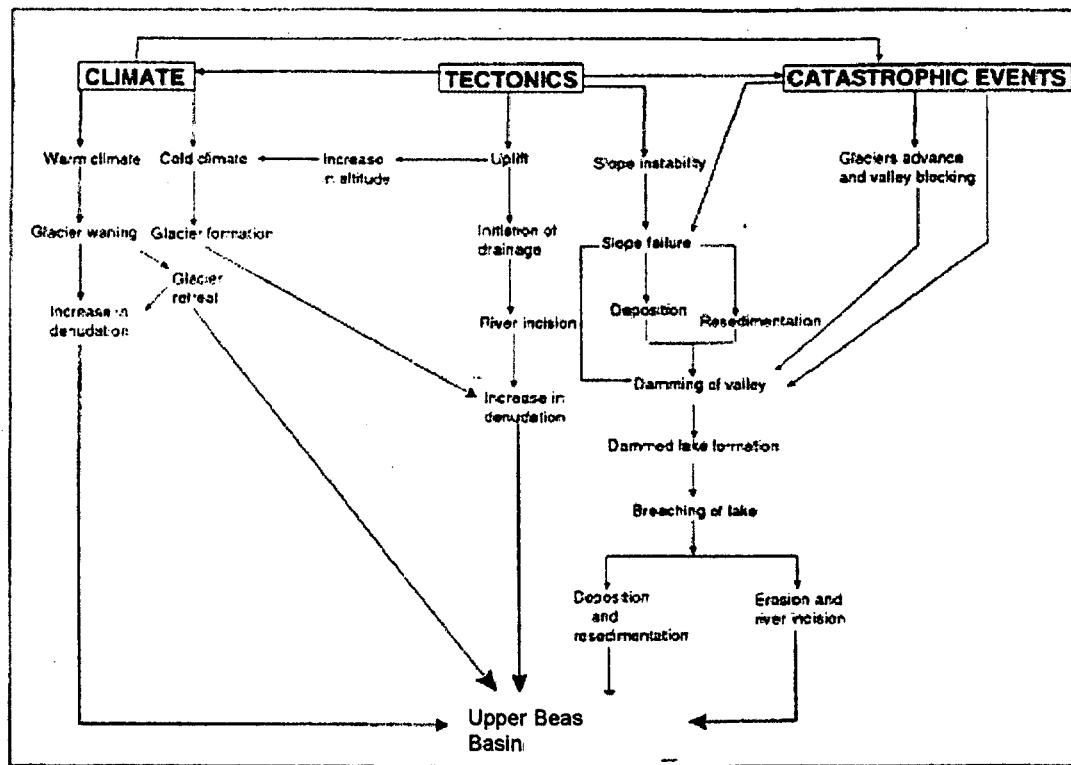


Figure 5.1

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Appendix 1
Morphometry Table

1475	2120	1560	5	2	50	560	5	2120	0.26	2.00	1.1	86.36	10.0
1476	2000	1520	5	3	48	480	5	2000	0.24	2.50	1.2	86.21	12.5
1477	2000	1400	5	4	55	600	5	2000	0.30	3.50	2.1	86.69	17.5
1478	2000	1360	4	3	44	640	4	2000	0.32	2.50	1.6	85.87	10.0
1479	2200	1440	4	1	42	760	4	2200	0.35	1.00	0.8	85.67	4.0
1480	2200	1400	3	1	46	800	3	2200	0.36	0.50	0.4	86.05	1.5
1481	1640	1120	2	2	28	520	2	1640	0.32	2.00	1.0	83.52	4.0
1482	1200	1120	2	2	6	80	2	1200	0.07	2.00	0.2	62.08	4.0
1483	1200	1120	2	2	6	80	2	1200	0.07	1.50	0.1	62.08	3.0
1484	3120	2200	0	0	67	920	0	3120	0.29	0.00	0.0	87.28	0.0
1485	2840	2080	2	1	40	760	2	2840	0.27	0.50	0.4	85.45	1.0
1486	2600	2160	1	1	35	440	1	2600	0.17	1.00	0.4	84.81	1.0
1487	2160	1680	4	2	39	480	4	2160	0.22	2.00	1.0	85.34	8.0
1488	2140	1640	3	1	34	500	3	2140	0.23	1.00	0.5	84.66	3.0
1489	2000	1480	6	4	38	520	6	2000	0.26	3.50	1.8	85.22	21.0
1490	2000	1600	3	2	26	400	3	2000	0.20	2.00	0.8	83.03	6.0
1491	2440	2000	0	0	27	440	0	2440	0.18	0.00	0.0	83.28	0.0
1492	2400	1680	0	0	29	720	0	2400	0.30	0.00	0.0	83.74	0.0
1493	2880	2640	0	0	51	240	0	2880	0.08	0.00	0.0	86.43	0.0
1494	2880	2040	2	1	50	840	2	2880	0.29	1.00	0.8	86.36	2.0
1495	2600	1920	3	2	44	680	3	2600	0.26	1.50	1.0	85.87	4.5
1496	2600	1920	4	1	57	680	4	2600	0.26	1.00	0.7	86.81	4.0
1497	2120	1480	4	2	43	640	4	2120	0.30	2.00	1.3	85.77	8.0
1498	2160	1640	2	2	28	520	2	2160	0.24	1.50	0.8	83.52	3.0
1499	2520	2040	1	1	34	480	1	2520	0.19	0.50	0.2	84.66	0.5
1500	2840	2240	1	1	64	600	1	2840	0.21	0.50	0.3	87.16	0.5
1501	2680	2200	2	2	46	480	2	2680	0.18	1.50	0.7	86.05	3.0
1502	2440	1760	4	3	59	680	4	2440	0.28	3.00	2.0	86.91	12.0
1503	2160	1640	6	2	50	520	6	2160	0.24	2.00	1.0	86.36	12.0
1504	2400	1760	3	3	39	640	3	2400	0.27	2.50	1.6	85.34	7.5
1505	2600	2160	0	0	34	440	0	2600	0.17	0.00	0.0	84.66	0.0
1506	2840	2280	1	1	51	560	1	2840	0.20	0.50	0.3	86.43	0.5
1507	2680	2040	7	3	40	640	7	2680	0.24	2.50	1.6	85.45	17.5
1508	2160	1840	5	3	47	320	5	2160	0.15	3.00	1.0	86.13	15.0
1509	2240	1800	5	3	39	440	5	2240	0.20	2.50	1.1	85.34	12.5
1510	2480	2040	2	1	40	440	2	2480	0.18	1.00	0.4	85.45	2.0
1511	2520	1800	0	0	61	720	0	2520	0.29	0.00	0.0	87.02	0.0
1512	2800	2400	1	1	50	400	1	2800	0.14	0.50	0.2	86.36	0.5
1513	2560	2160	4	3	29	400	4	2560	0.16	3.00	1.2	83.74	12.0
1514	2800	2260	4	2	38	540	4	2800	0.19	2.00	1.1	85.22	8.0
1515	2400	1800	0	0	39	600	0	2400	0.25	0.00	0.0	85.34	0.0
1516	2720	2200	0	0	43	520	0	2720	0.19	0.00	0.0	85.77	0.0
1517	2600	2520	1	1	43	80	1	2600	0.03	0.50	0.0	85.77	0.5
1518	2640	2200	1	1	49	440	1	2640	0.17	0.50	0.2	86.29	0.5

Appendix II

15

S.No.	GPS Reading	Bedrock lithology	Bedrock Structure	Regolith Type	Regolith Thickness	Vegetation Type	Vegetation Cover in Percentage	Stream Type	Stream Density	Fissures
1	E-77° 09' 016" N-32° 19' 790" A-2536 m	Obscure	Obscure	Fragmented	1.5 m	Bushes Grasses	70-75	Nil	Nil	Nil
2	E-77° 08' 889" N-32° 19' 737" A-2713 m	Obscure Schist Phyllite	Obscured	Fragmented dry	2.3 m	Deciduous oak walnut and grasses	100	Perennial Sub surface	1	Nil
3	E-77° 09' 053" N-32° 19' 751" A-2532 m	Obscure	Obscure	Glacial type	1 m	Bushes and grasses	20	Nil	Nil	Nil
4	E-77° 08' 937" N-32° 19' 946" A-2540 m	Phyllite	Obscure & Dipping Toward river	Fine and small size sediments	2 m	Bushes and grasses	20	Nil	Nil	T - scars creaks L- 1 m W - 5cm D - 15 cm
5	E-77° 08' 907" N-32° 19' 917" A-2543 m	Phyllite Schist and shale	Fragmented	Fragmented	2 m	Willow and bushes	20	Nil	Nil	T- shallow fissures L-20cm W - 2cm D - 10cm
6	E-77° 09' 113" N-32° 19' 589" A-2514 m	Shale & Phyllite	Fine soil over large fragmented rock	Fine soil over large fragmented rock	2 m	Poplar trees And bushes	65	Nil	Nil	Nil
7	E-77° 09' 162" N-32° 19' 460" A-2515 m	Shale	Dipping towards river	Fragmented	2 m	Bushes and grasses Poplar & pine	95	Rill	Nil	Nil

8	E-77°09'072 N-32°19'663 A-2515 m	Phyllite	Dipping towards river	Glacial	1.2 m	Bushes and grasses	30-40	Dry Channel	Nil	T- shallow fissures L-50 cm W - 2.5cm D - 20cm
9	E-77°09'159 N-32°19'438 A-2521 m	Obscure	Nil	Medium and large size boulder	2.5 m	Grass Poplar & pine	75	Nil	Nil	Nil
10	E-77°09'208 N-32°19'378 A-2485 m	Obscure	Nil	Glacial & fluvial	2 m	Bushes and grasses Poplar & pine	85	Narrow perennial surface stream	Nil	Nil
11	E-77°09'280 N-32°19'280 A-2482 m	Phyllite	Dipping towards river	Glacial & fluvial	Obscure	Bushes and grasses & trees	90	Dry Channel	Nil	Obscure

Source: Field survey done by the author himself.

Abbreviation used:-V- volume, W – width, L – length, H – height, T – type, D – depth, R – river, S – settlement, H/T- Highway & track, m – metre, cm – centimetre.

Appendix III

Sl.No.	Contour Interval	Dhunda Glacier			
		Mid point (Hi)	Area sq. km (Ai)	cumulative	Ai*Hi
1	4760-4720	4740	0.01	0.01	47.40
2	4720-4680	4700	0.01	0.02	47.00
3	4680-4640	4660	0.01	0.03	46.60
4	4640-4600	4620	0.01	0.04	46.20
5	4600-4560	4580	0.01	0.05	45.80
6	4560-4520	4540	0.01	0.06	45.40
7	4520-4480	4500	0.01	0.07	45.00
8	4480-4440	4460	0.01	0.08	44.60
9	4440-4400	4420	0.10	0.18	442.00
10	4400-4360	4380	0.08	0.26	350.40
11	4360-4320	4340	0.31	0.57	1345.40
12	4320-4280	4300	0.43	1	1849.00
13	4280-4240	4260	0.31	1.31	1320.60
14	4240-4200	4220	0.30	1.61	1266.00
15	4200-4160	4180	0.22	1.83	919.60
16	4160-4120	4140	0.26	2.09	1076.40
17	4120-4080	4100	0.30	2.39	1230.00
18	4080-4040	4060	0.35	2.47	1421.00
19	4040-4000	4020	0.41	3.15	1648.20
20	4000-3960	3980	0.38	3.53	1512.40
21	3960-3920	3940	0.37	3.9	1457.80
22	3920-3880	3900	0.32	4.22	1248.00
23	3880-3840	3860	0.25	4.5	965.00
24	3840--3800	3820	0.13	4.63	496.60
25	3800-3760	3780	0.04	4.67	151.20
26	3760-3720	3740	0.04	4.71	149.60
27	3720-3680	3700	0.01	2.72	37.00
28	3680-3640	3660	0.01	4.73	36.60
			4.73		19290.80
		ELA AWM	4078.393235		
		ELA AAR	2.365	4120-4080	
		ELA THAR	4200		

Glacier Near Rohtang					
Sl.No.	Contour Interval	Mid point (Hi)	Area sq. km (Ai)	cumulative	Ai*Hi
1	4840-4800	4820	0.02	0.02	96.40
2	4800-4760	4780	0.15	0.17	717.00
3	4760-4720	4740	0.21	0.38	995.40
4	4720-4680	4700	0.1	0.48	470.00
5	4680-4640	4660	0.15	0.63	699.00
6	4640-4600	4620	0.17	0.8	785.40
7	4600-4560	4580	0.15	0.95	687.00
8	4560-4520	4540	0.22	1.17	998.80
9	4520-4480	4500	0.22	1.39	990.00
10	4480-4440	4460	0.29	1.68	1293.40
11	4440-4400	4420	0.3	1.98	1326.00
12	4400-4360	4380	0.2	2.18	876.00
13	4360-4320	4340	0.22	2.4	954.80
14	4320-4280	4300	0.22	2.62	946.00
15	4280-4240	4260	0.2	2.82	852.00
16	4240-4200	4220	0.17	2.99	717.40
17	4200-4160	4180	0.13	3.12	543.40
18	4160-4120	4140	0.14	3.26	579.60
19	4120-4080	4100	0.15	3.41	615.00
20	4080-4040	4060	0.08	3.49	324.80
21	4040-4000	4020	0.05	3.54	201.00
22	4000-3960	3980	0.02	3.56	79.60
23	3960-3920	3940	0.01	3.57	39.40
24	3920-3880	3900	0.01	3.58	39.00
			3.58		15826.40
		ELA AWM	4420.782123		
		ELA AAR	1.79	4440-4400	
		ELA THAR	4360		

Hnuman Tibba Glacier					
Sl.No.	Contour Interval	Mid point (Hi)	Area sq. km (Ai)	cumulative	Ai*Hi
1	5640-5600	5620	0.01	0.01	56.20
2	5600-5560	5580	0.02	0.03	111.60
3	5560-5520	5540	0.02	0.05	110.80
4	5520-5480	5500	0.02	0.07	110.00
5	5480-5440	5460	0.03	0.1	163.80
6	5440-5400	5420	0.03	0.13	162.60
7	5400-5360	5380	0.04	0.17	215.20
8	5360-5320	5340	0.05	0.22	267.00
9	5320-5280	5300	0.03	0.25	159.00
10	5280-5240	5260	0.04	0.29	210.40
11	5240-5200	5220	0.04	0.33	208.80
12	5200-5160	5180	0.07	0.4	362.60
13	5160-5120	5140	0.04	0.44	205.60
14	5120-5080	5100	0.49	0.93	2499.00
15	5080-5040	5060	0.53	1.46	2681.80
16	5040-5000	5020	0.66	2.12	3313.20
17	5000-4960	4980	0.54	2.66	2689.20
18	4960-4920	4940	0.51	3.17	2519.40
19	4920-4880	4900	1.01	4.18	4949.00
20	4880-4840	4860	1.76	5.94	8553.60
21	4840-4800	4820	0.59	6.53	2843.80
22	4800-4760	4780	0.05	6.58	239.00
23	4760-4720	4740	0.73	7.31	3460.20
24	4720-4680	4700	0.5	7.81	2350.00
25	4680-4640	4660	0.27	8.08	1258.20
26	4640-4600	4620	0.32	8.4	1478.40
27	4600-4560	4580	0.17	8.57	778.60
28	4560-4520	4540	0.07	8.64	317.80
29	4520-4480	4500	0.01	8.65	45.00
30	4480-4440	4460	0.01	8.66	44.60
31	4440-4400	4420	0.01	8.67	44.20
32	4400-4360	4380	0.01	8.68	43.80
33	4360-4320	4340	0.01	8.69	43.40
			8.69		42495.80
			ELA AWM	4890.196	
			ELA AAR	4.345	4880-4840
			ELA THAR	4980	

Jobri Glacier (Eastern Cander)					
Sl.No.	Contour Interval	Mid point (Hi)	Area sq. km (Ai)	cumulative	Ai*Hi
1	5400-5360	5380	0.02	0.02	107.60
2	5360-5320	5340	0.03	0.05	160.20
3	5320-5280	5300	0.03	0.08	159.00
4	5280-5240	5260	0.03	0.11	157.80
5	5240-5200	5220	0.08	0.19	417.60
6	5200-5160	5180	0.09	0.28	466.20
7	5160-5120	5140	0.14	0.42	719.60
8	5120-5080	5100	0.15	0.57	765.00
9	5080-5040	5060	0.19	0.76	961.40
10	5040-5000	5020	0.22	0.98	1104.40
11	5000-4960	4980	0.30	1.28	1494.00
12	4960-4920	4940	0.64	1.92	3161.60
13	4920-4880	4900	0.68	2.60	3332.00
14	4880-4840	4860	0.61	3.21	2964.60
15	4840-4800	4820	0.44	3.65	2120.80
16	4800-4760	4780	0.42	4.07	2007.60
17	4760-4720	4740	0.26	4.33	1232.40
18	4720-4680	4700	0.22	4.55	1034.00
19	4680-4640	4660	0.22	4.77	1025.20
20	4640-4600	4620	0.23	5.00	1062.60
21	4600-4560	4580	0.21	5.21	961.80
22	4560-4520	4540	0.24	5.45	1089.60
23	4520-4480	4500	0.11	5.56	495.00
24	4480-4440	4460	0.19	5.75	847.40
25	4440-4400	4420	0.21	5.96	928.20
26	4400-4360	4380	0.13	6.09	569.40
27	4360-4320	4340	0.11	6.20	477.40
28	4320-4280	4300	0.02	6.22	86.00
29	4280-4240	4260	0.09	6.31	383.40
30	4240-4200	4220	0.03	6.34	126.60
31	4200-4160	4180	0.09	6.43	376.20
32	4160-4120	4140	0.13	6.56	538.20
33	4120-4080	4100	0.12	6.68	492.00
34	4080-4040	4060	0.27	6.95	1096.20
35	4040-4000	4020	0.26	7.21	1045.20
36	4000-3960	3980	0.39	7.60	1552.20
37	3960-3920	3940	0.26	7.86	1024.40
38	3920-3880	3900	0.33	8.19	1287.00
39	3880-3840	3860	0.22	8.41	849.20
40	3840-3800	3820	0.18	8.59	687.60
41	3800-3760	3780	0.19	8.78	718.20
42	3760-3720	3740	0.12	8.90	448.80
			8.90		40533.60
		ELA AWM	4554.337		
		ELA AAR	4.45	4720-4680	
	Advance	ELA THAR	4560		
	3720-3680	3700	0.04		148.0
	3680-3640	3660	0.26		951.6
	3640-3600	3620	0.25		905.0
	3600-3560	3580	0.21		751.8
	3560-3520	3540	0.21		743.4
	3520-3480	3500	0.03		105.0
			9.90		44138.4
		ELA AWM	4458.424		

