Multitemporal glacier inventory revealing four decades of glacier changes in the Ladakh region

Mohd Soheb[1], Alagappan Ramanathan[1], Anshuman Bhardwaj[2], Millie Coleman[2,3], Brice R. Rea[2], Matteo Spagnolo[2], Shaktiman Singh[2], Lydia Sam[2]

[1] School of Environmental Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, India.

[2]School of Geosciences, University of Aberdeen, United Kingdom.

[3]School of Natural and Built Environment, Queen's University Belfast, United Kingdom.

Correspondence to: Mohd Soheb (sohaib.achaa@gmail.com)

Abstract. ~~Glacier inventories, and changes therein, play an important role in understanding glacier dynamics and water resources over larger regions. In this study, we present a Landsat-based multi-temporal inventory of glaciers in four Upper Indus sub-basins and three internal drainage basins in the Ladakh region for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019. The study records data on 2257 glaciers (>0.5 km²) covering ~7923 ±212 km² equivalent to ~30% of the glaciers and ~89% of the glacierised area within the region. Results show that the highest concentration of glaciers is found in the higher elevation zones, between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l, with most of them facing north. The area and length of nearly all the glaciers (~97%) have decreased over the past 42 years, by 6.9% and 12% respectively. However, heterogeneity in glacier change was observed across the basins. Glaciers in Shayok Basin experienced the least deglaciation (~3.9%), whereas Leh (~23%) and Tsokar Basin (~26%) experienced the greatest deglaciation over the 42 years (1977-2019). The major factors contributing to such differences were temperature, precipitation and size of the glaciers, with most changes occurring as a result of a drier winters and warmer summers. During the observation period, the region showed a statistically significant (at p<0.01) increasing trend in mean annual, JJAS and winter temperatures.~~

Multi-temporal inventories of glacierised regions provide an improved understanding of water resource availability. In this study, we present a Landsat-based multi-temporal inventory of glaciers in four Upper Indus sub-basins and three internal drainage basins in the Ladakh region for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019. The study records data on 2257 glaciers (of individual size >0.5 km^2) covering an area of ~7923 ±106 km^2 which is equivalent to ~30% of the total glacier population and ~89% of the total glacierised area of the region. Glacier area ranged between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2, while glacier length ranged between 0.4±0.02 and 73±0.54 km. Shayok Basin has the largest glacierised area and glacier population, while Tsokar has the least. Results show that the highest concentration of glaciers is found in the higher elevation zones, between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l, with most of the glaciers facing towards the NW-NE quadrant. The error assessment shows that the uncertainty, based on the buffer-based approach, ranges between 2.6 and 5.1% for glacier area, and 1.5 and 2.6% for glacier length with a mean uncertainty of 3.2 and 1.8%, respectively. This multitemporal inventory is in good agreement with previous studies undertaken in parts of the

Ladakh region. The new glacier database for the Ladakh region will be valuable for policy-making bodies, and future glaciological and hydrological studies. The data can be viewed and downloaded from *PANGAEA*, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994.

1. Introduction:

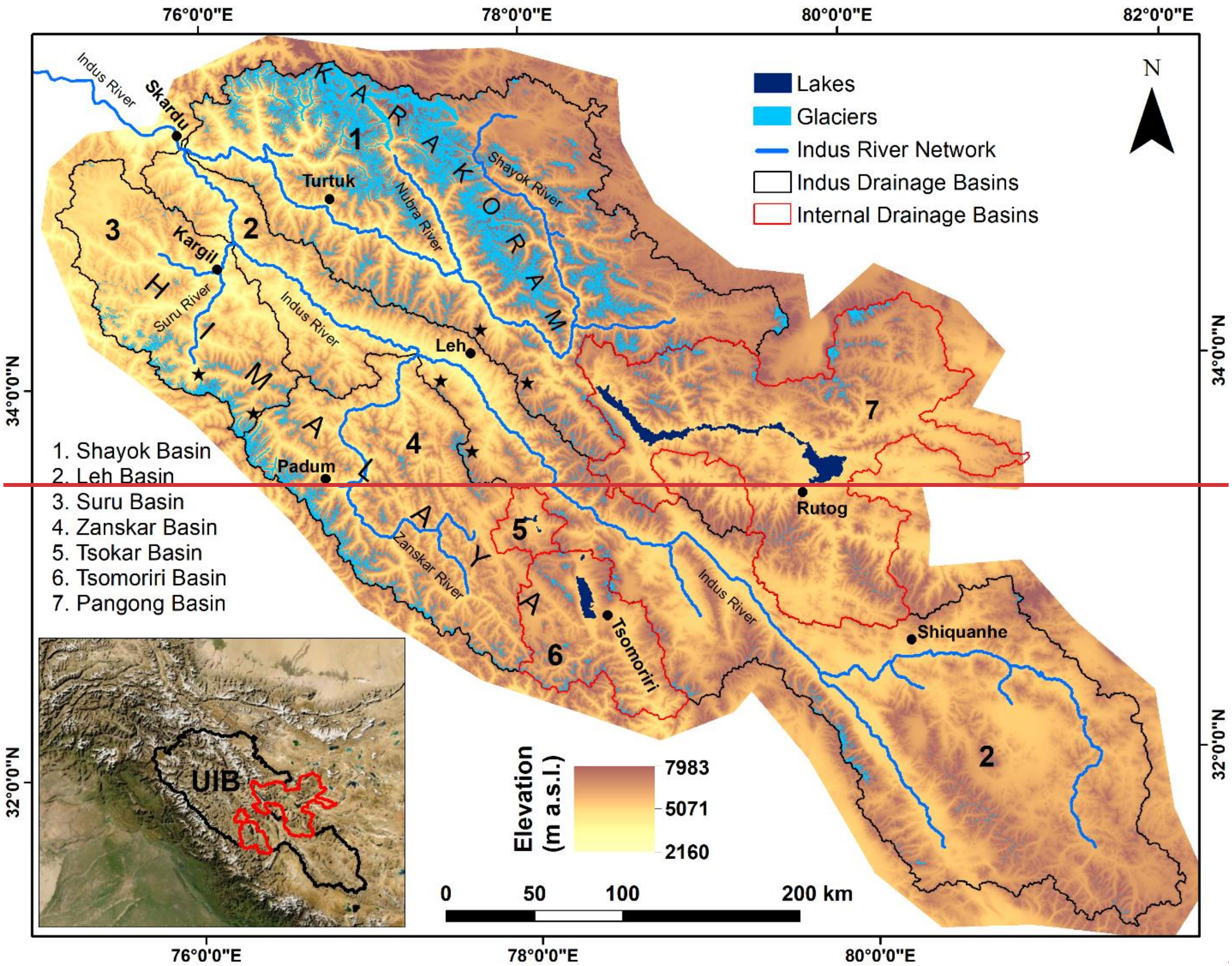
The Himalaya is the largest storehouse of snow and ice outside the Polar Regions. This large reserve of water plays a crucial role in the hydro-economy of the region (Bolch, 2019; Frey et al., 2014; Maurer et al., 2019; Pritchard, 2019). Any change to the Himalayan cryosphere would have a direct impact on the hydrology, further influencing the communities downstream whose livelihood and economy relies on, and are supported by, the major river systems e.g., the Brahmaputra, Ganges and Indus, among others. In high altitude arid regions like Ladakh, where the majority of glaciers are small and restricted to higher altitudes, meltwater serves as an important driver of the economy, especially in years with low winter precipitation when glacier melt becomes the major (or only) source of water (Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017). ~~Melt water from this region feeds millions of people including megacities like Delhi, Dhaka, Karachi, Kolkata and Lahore (Azam et al., 2021; Immerzeel et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2016).~~ Recent studies have reported that Himalayan glaciers are retreating at an alarming rate (Azam et al., 2021; Bolch, 2019; Kääb et al., 2015; Maurer et al., 2019; Pritchard, 2019; Shean et al., 2020, among others) with glaciers of the Western Himalayas showing less shrinkage than the glaciers of the central and eastern parts (Azam et al., 2021; Shukla et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2016). Glaciers in the nearby Karakoram region display long-term irregular behaviour with frequent glacier advances/surges and minimal shrinkage, which is yet to be fully understood (Azam et al., 2021; Bhambri et al., 2013; Bolch et al., 2012; Kulkarni, 2010; Liu et al., 2006; Minora et al., 2013; Negi et al., 2021). Glaciers of the Karakoram region experienced an increase in area post-2000, due to surge-type glaciers. In just the upper Shayok valley, as many as 18 glaciers, occupying more than one-third of the glacierised area, showed surge-type behaviour (Bhambri et al., 2011, 2013; Negi et al., 2021). However, not all regions have been analysed at the same level of spatio-temporal ~~and spatial~~ detail. In particular, our knowledge of glacier dynamics and their response to climate change is still incomplete in the cold-arid, high-altitude Ladakh region (~105,476 km^2) comprising both, the Himalayan and Karakoram ranges. Few studies have focused on the glaciers of this region (e.g. Bhambri et al., 2011, 2013; Chudley et al., 2017; Negi et al., 2021; Nüsser et al., 2012; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017; Shukla et al., 2020).

The advent of remote sensing technologies has permitted the mapping and measuring of various glacier attributes even in the absence of sufficient in-situ observations (Bhardwaj et al., 2015). Glacierised area estimations have often relied on global and regional glacier inventories such as the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI), Global Land Ice Measurements ~~Monitoring~~ from Space (GLIMS), Geological Survey of India (GSI) inventory and Space Application Centre India (SAC) inventory, among others (Chinese Glacier Inventory (CGI), Glacier Area Mapping for Discharge from the Asian Mountains (GAMDAM), International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)). However, given the large scale of these inventories, automated techniques are ~~often~~ employed in most of the cases, to map and calculate glacier extent, with differing levels of success. Additionally, varying quality of satellite imagery acquired from different time periods are sometimes necessitated in high mountain areas, such as Ladakh. Together, these two factors can lead to over- or under-estimation of glacier areas leading to erroneous information on temporal change. Moreover, there is no ~~available~~ multi-temporal glacier inventory available for the entire Ladakh region, which can inform us on the changes in the natural frozen water reserves which have put the water security of this entire cold-arid region under significant stress during recent years. The residents of Ladakh have witnessed a decrease in agricultural yields, the main driver of economic development of the region, due to a decrease in water resources (Barrett & Bosak, 2018). The water scarcity together with an increase in tourism footprint (four times more tourists (327,366) in 2018 than 2010, a number that is more than the entire population of Ladakh) has led to a shift in livelihood from agriculture to other commercial activities (Müller et al., 2020), though even the latter relies heavily on water resources. In order to cope with water scarcity, some people of Ladakh have developed new water management techniques, commonly known as 'ice reservoirs' or 'ice stupas', to supplement agricultural activities (Nüsser, et al., 2019a,b).

This study presents a new multi-temporal glacier inventory for the Union Territory of Ladakh, India, covering 42 years of change between 1977 and 2019. This new dataset and analyses of glacier distribution will help to improve understanding of the glacier dynamics and the impact of ongoing climate change on water resources in the Ladakh region, where glaciers are the only source of water in the dry season. The inventories are entirely based on Landsat images~~ries~~ acquired mostly during late-summer with additional quality control provided through high-resolution PlanetScope and Google Earth imagery. We further establish a comparision with the existing inventories and data available in the recent studies from the region. ~~We further assess the rate of change of glaciers in response to the regional climate trends and other factors, and establish a comparison with other inventories. This new dataset and analyses of glacier distribution and spatio-temporal change will improve understanding of glacier dynamics and the impact of ongoing climate change on water supplies in the Ladakh region, where water in the arid season is mostly supplied by glaciers.~~ The dataset produced in this study can be viewed and downloaded from:~~here:~~ *PANGAEA*, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994 (Soheb et al., 2022)

~~https://www.pangaea.de/tok/8b9a6e7275b32019eab155e11a461866706fabf3~~ ~~**(temporary link for the reviewers')**~~

2. Study Area:



~~Figure~~ 1~~1: Location map of the study area: the boundaries of studied Upper Indus Basin and internal drainage basins are outlined in black and red on the digital elevation model (DEM) and in the inset map. Inset map shows the study area with respect to the Himalayan and Karakoram region. Black dots and star represent the respective basins' major settlements and field investigated glaciers. ASTER Global DEM was used to produce the base map.~~

This study focuses on glaciers in the Upper Indus Basin (UIB) upstream of Skardu and three internal drainage/endorheic basins (IDBs) within Ladakh, namely Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong Basins. ~~This study focuses on glaciers in the Upper Indus Basin (Figure 1) upstream of Skardu (hereafter UIB) and three endorheic basins (or internal drainage basins, IDB hereafter) within the Ladakh region, namely Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong basins.~~ The geographic extent of the study area lies within a latitude of 31.1º to 35.6º N and a longitude of 75.1º to 81.8º E and covers a vast region of the Karakoram and Western Himalayan ranges. UIB has an area of ~105,476 km^2, of which ~8302 km^2 (8%) is glacierised by ~6300 glaciers spanning elevations between ~3400 m and ~7500 m a.s.l. (as per RGI 6.0). IDBs of Tsokar (1036 km^2), Tsomoriri (5462 km^2) and Pangong (21,206 km^2) house ~30, 345 and 812 glaciers, comprising a glacierised area of ~7 (0.6%), 185 (3.4%) and 437 (2.1%) km^2, respectively (as per RGI 6.0). The glaciers of IDBs are at a comparatively higher elevation, spanning from ~4800 to ~6800 m a.s.l. Meltwater from these glaciers drains into the lakes within each basin. Pangong Lake (a saline lake), situated at an elevation of ~4241 m a.s.l., is the largest with an area of ~703 km^2. Both Tsomoriri (freshwater lake at ~4522 m a.s.l.) and Tsokar (saline lake at ~4531 m a.s.l.) Lakes are designated Ramsar sites which occupy areas of ~140 and ~15 km^2, respectively. Since the majority of the investigated area (UIB and IDBs combined) falls within Ladakh, the combined area of UIB and IDBs will be referred to as "Ladakh region" hereafter.

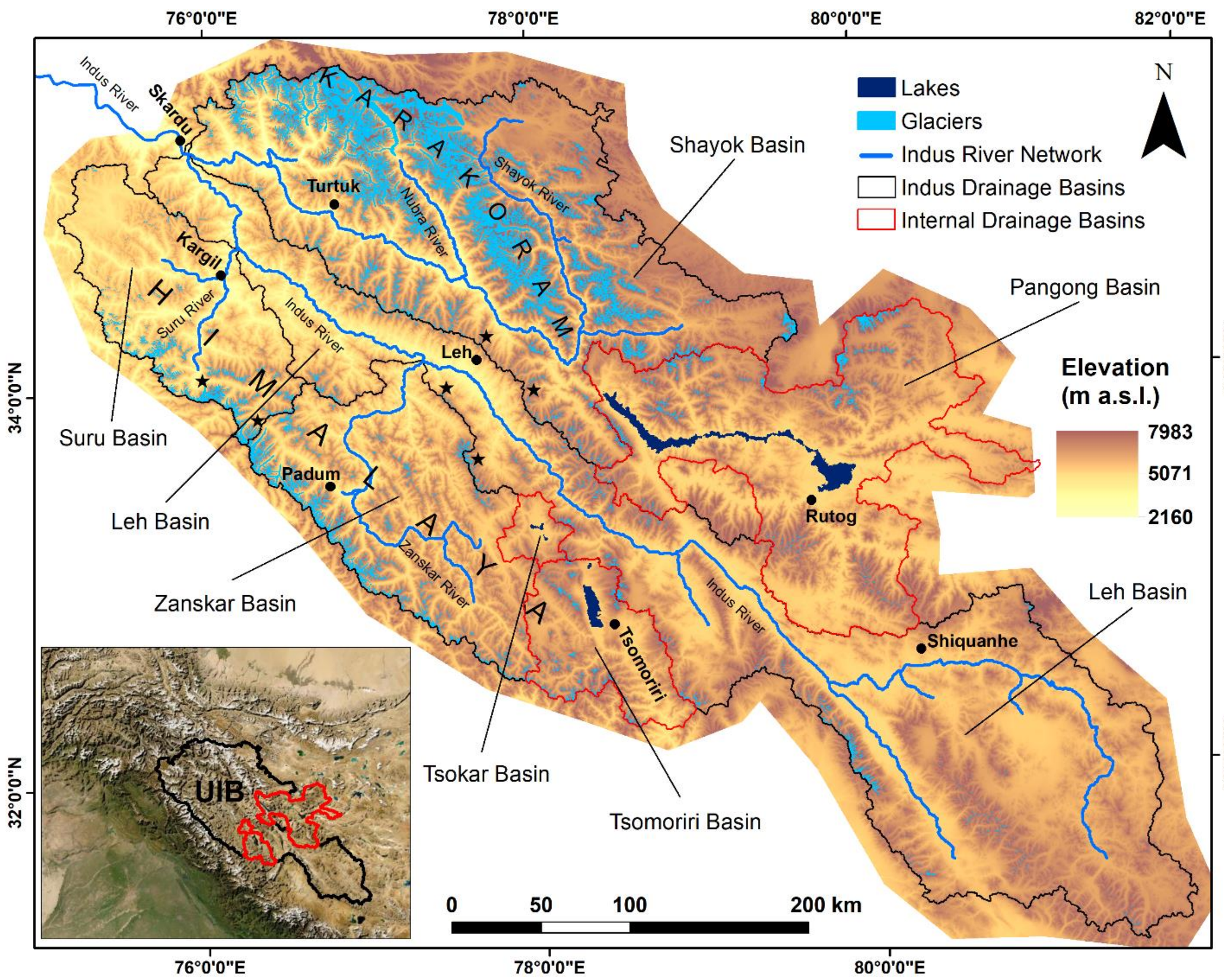


Figure 2~~1~~: Location map of the study area: the boundaries of studied Upper Indus Basin and internal drainage basins are outlined in black and red on the digital elevation model (DEM) and in the inset map. Inset map shows the study area with respect to the Himalayan and Karakoram region. Black dots and stars represent the respective basins' major settlements and field investigated glaciers. ASTER Global DEM was used to produce the base map.

Ladakh has a cold-arid climate due to the rain shadow and elevation effects of the Himalaya and Karakoram mountains (Schmidt & Nüsser, 2017). Mean annual air temperature and annual precipitation at Shiquanhe and Leh station range between ~~-~~20 to 10 ºC and 20 to 145~~1800~~ mm, respectively (Hersbach et al., 2020; Figure 2). This region is inhabited by ~700,000 people (as per Census of India 2011, Census of China 2019), most of which are directly, or indirectly, dependent on snow and glacier meltwater to support hydropower generation, irrigation and domestic needs.

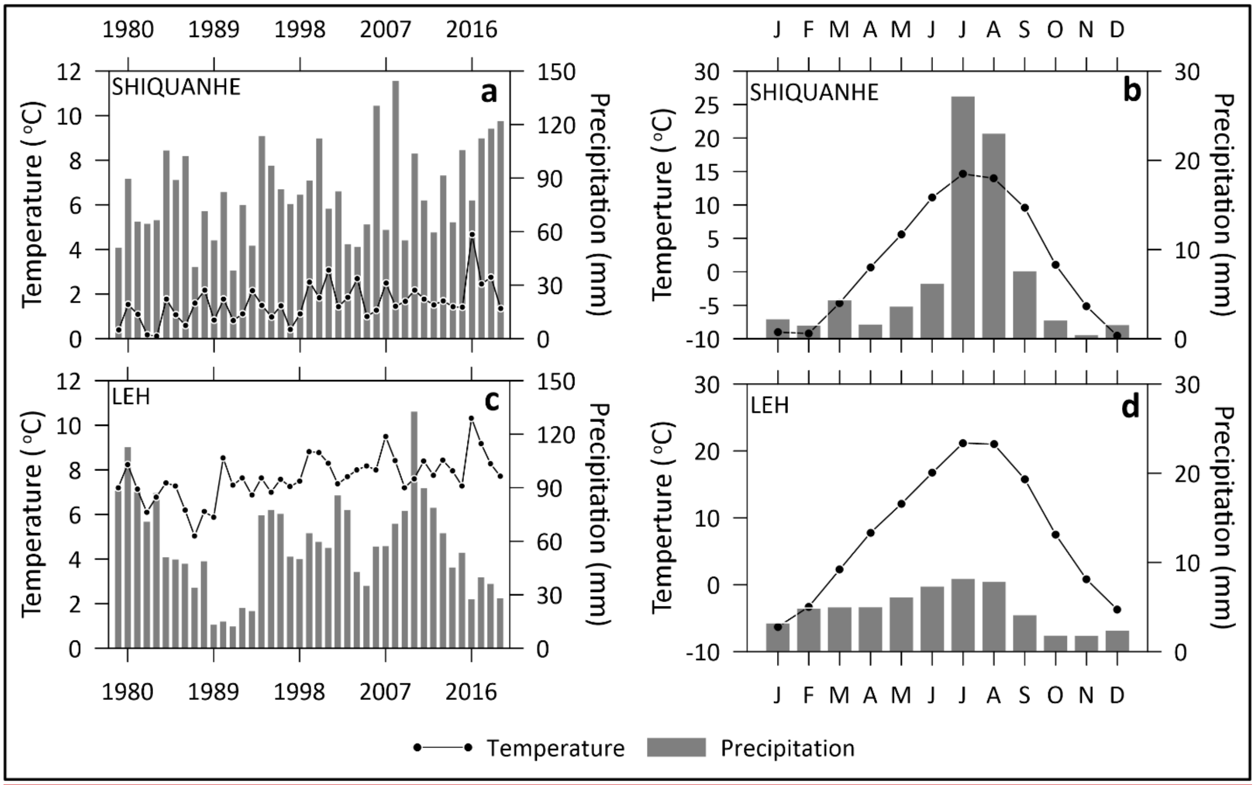


Figure 2: Mean annual (a, c) and monthly (b, d) temperature and precipitation at Shiquanhe and Leh stations.

3. Data and methods

3.1. Data

This study utilises multiple Landsat level-1 precision and terrain (L1TP) corrected scenes (63 scenes in total) from four different periods: 1977±5 (hereafter 1977), 1994±1 (hereafter 1994), 2009 and 2019±1 (hereafter 2019). ~~Scenes from the 1970s are majorly (14 out of 17) from the year 1972 to 1977, however due to higher cloud cover and less availability of imagery during the earlier Landsat period, three scenes from 1979 and 1980 were also included (Table S1).~~ Scenes from the 1970s are majorly (12 out of 17) from the year 1976 and 1977 however due to higher cloud cover and less availability of imagery during the earlier Landsat period, five scenes from 1972, 1979 and 1980 were also included to aid the digitization of glaciers (Table S1). Images from the late in the ablation season (July-October), having least snow and cloud cover (<30% overall, and not over the glacierised parts), were selected and used for glacier identification and boundary delineation. Advanced Space borne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer Global Digital Elevation Model (ASTER GDEM) scenes were also used for basin delineation and calculating slope, aspect and elevation metrics of the glaciers. Glacier digitisation, basin delineation and calculation of area were all performed in ArcGIS 10.4. Details of the imagery used in this study are presented in (Table 1 and Table S1).

~~Additionally, long-term hourly ERA5 single level reanalysis temperature and precipitation data (Hersbach et al., 2020; last accessed on 30 June 2020) have also been used to understand the regional climate and its evolution over the four-decade window of interest. ERA5 is a fifth generation ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather~~

~~Forecasts) reanalysis dataset for global climate, at a high resolution (0.25°) and it has been shown to perform well for the Ladakh region (Kanda et al., 2020). In-situ climate data from Leh (India, Indian Meteorological Department) and Shiquanhe (China, https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/) were also used to bias correct the reanalysis dataset. Available time-series datasets from the two stations (Leh and Shiquanhe) vary temporally. Leh station has around 27 years of data, due to gaps ranging from months to years (Soheb et al., 2020) whereas, the Shiquanhe station comprises 38 years of data for 1979 to 2019.~~

Table 1: Information on the satellite imagery used in this study (Detailed info. in Table S1).

Dataset	**Year of Acquisition**	**Spatial Resolution**	**No. of image used**	**Source**	**Purpose**
Landsat MSS	1977±5	60m	17	https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/	Glacier area mapping
Landsat TM	1994±1, 2009	30m	14, 18		
Landsat OLI	2019±1	15m	14		
ASTER GDEM	2000-2013	30m	17	https://earthdata.nasa.gov/	Topography and basin delineation

~~*Table 1: Information on the satellite imagery used in this study (Detailed info. in Table S1).*~~

~~**Dataset**~~	~~**Year of Acquisition**~~	~~**Spatial Resolution**~~	~~**Source**~~	~~**Purpose**~~
~~Landsat MSS~~	~~1977±5~~	~~60m~~	~~https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/~~	~~Glacier area mapping~~
~~Landsat TM~~	~~1994±1, 2009~~	~~30m~~		
~~Landsat OLI~~	~~2019±1~~	~~15m~~		
~~ASTER GDEM~~	~~2000-2013~~	~~30m~~	~~https://earthdata.nasa.gov/~~	~~Topography and basin delineation~~

3.2. Basin delineation

Basin delineation was carried using ASTER GDEM V003 and the Hydrology tool in ArcGIS. The input DEM was first analysed to fill-in all sinks with careful consideration of the potential for basin area over-estimation (Khan et al., 2014). UIB was delineated using a pour point advertently selected at the Indus River in Skardu as we aimed to assess all the tributary basins of the Ladakh region. The UIB obtained by this approach was further divided into second-order tributary basins, i.e., Shayok, Suru, Zanskar and Leh basins. A small portion of the leftover area from UIB, after second-order tributary basin delineation, was merged into the Leh basin in order to investigate the UIB upstream of

Skardu~~so that the entire UIB, upstream of Skardu, was investigated~~. Delineation of the three endorheic basins (IDBs) that lie partially or completely in the Ladakh region, i.e., Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong basins, was also carried out using the same method with the help of respective lakes as a pour point. The digitisation of the three lakes (Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong Lake) was carried out manually for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 using Landsat imagery.

3.3. Glacier mapping

Glaciers were mapped using a two-way approach, closely following the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) guidelines (Paul et al., 2009): 1) automatic mapping of the clean glacier and 2) manually correcting the glacier outlines and digitisation of debris cover. First, a band ratio approach between NIR (Near Infrared) and SWIR (Shortwave Infrared) (as suggested by Paul et al., 2002, 2015; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Bhardwaj et al 2015; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2017; Smith et al., 2015; Winsvold et al., 2014, 2016) with a threshold of 2.0 (NIR/SWIR > 2 = ice/snow) was used on 2019 Landsat OLI images to delineate the clean part of glaciers. A median filter of kernel size 3 x 3 was applied to remove the isolated and small pixels outside the glacier area. The NIR and SWIR band ratio approach is good at distinguishing glacier pixels from water features with similar spectral reflectance values (Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). This approach failed in areas with high snow/cloud cover, shadows, frozen channels/lakes and debris cover. The snow/cloud cover and frozen lakes/stream problem were addressed by selecting Landsat scenes from the ablation period (July-October) with the cloud cover < 30%. The issue with the snow-covered regions in accumulation zones, where the delineation was the most challenging, was resolved using the best available imagery of any time between 1977 and 2019 because glaciers are not expected to change their shape significantly in the higher accumulation zones. One of the major issues was the debris covered glaciers, which had to be manually digitised, with the support of high-resolution Google Earth and PlanetScope imagery from 2019 ±2. The result was then used as a basis for manual digitisation of debris covered glaciers in other years where high-resolution images are not available. In most cases, identification of the glacier terminus was made with certain contextual characteristics at the snout, e.g., the emergence of meltwater streams, proglacial lakes, ice walls, end moraines etc. (Figure S1).

The glacier outlines from 2019 were used as a starting point for the subsequent digitization of glacier areas of 2009, 1994 and 1977. Glacier length was measured using a semi-automatic approach, by employing the DEM to identify a central flow line for each mapped glacier (Ji et al., 2017; Le Bris & Paul, 2013). Further manual corrections were undertaken to account for the flow lines of glaciers that have multiple tributaries and multiple highest/lowest points. Furthermore, some mapping errors are still expected to be present in this inventory due to a possible misinterpretation of glacier features, and the quantification of such errors are difficult owing to the lack of reliable reference in-situ data in the Ladakh region. Such errors were minimized by keeping a fixed map-scale of 1:10000 in most cases, and undertaking ~~doing~~ a quality check on glacier outlines using high-resolution images. In case of MSS images and smaller glaciers, a map-scale of 1:25,000 was also used whenever required.

Other specific glacier attributes were also extracted including new glacier Ids, Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS)-Ids, Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI 6.0)-Ids, coordinates (latitude and longitude), elevation (maximum, mean and minimum), aspect (mean), slope (mean), area, ~~and~~ length (maximum), area uncertainty and length uncertainty.

3.4. Uncertainty

~~The uncertainties associated with the glacier outline mapping originate from the spatial resolution of the satellite images and the misleading effect of seasonal snow, shadow, debris and cloud cover. Due to the lack of ground truth data for glaciers in the Ladakh region uncertainty estimation was performed following Paul et al., (2017). We applied a buffer based assessment, with the buffer width set to one-pixel for debris and half-pixel for clean ice (Bolch et al., 2010; Granshaw & G. Fountain, 2006; Mölg et al., 2018; Tielidze & Wheate, 2018), given that the level 1TP Landsat images were corrected to sub-pixel geometric accuracy (Bhambri et al., 2013).~~

~~The associated uncertainty for smaller glaciers (<0.5 km²) amounts to ~15-30%, so all glaciers with an area of less than 0.5 km², which comprise ~70% and ~10% of the total glacier count and glacierised area, are not included in this study. For the remaining glaciers, the uncertainty ranged between ±2.7 and ±10.3% depending on the spatial resolution of the satellite imagery and the individual glacier size. The highest uncertainty was for the year 1977 due to the coarser spatial resolution of Landsat MSS data when applied to the smallest glaciers (0.5-1 km²). Overall, the uncertainty was found to be 6% (Table S2).~~

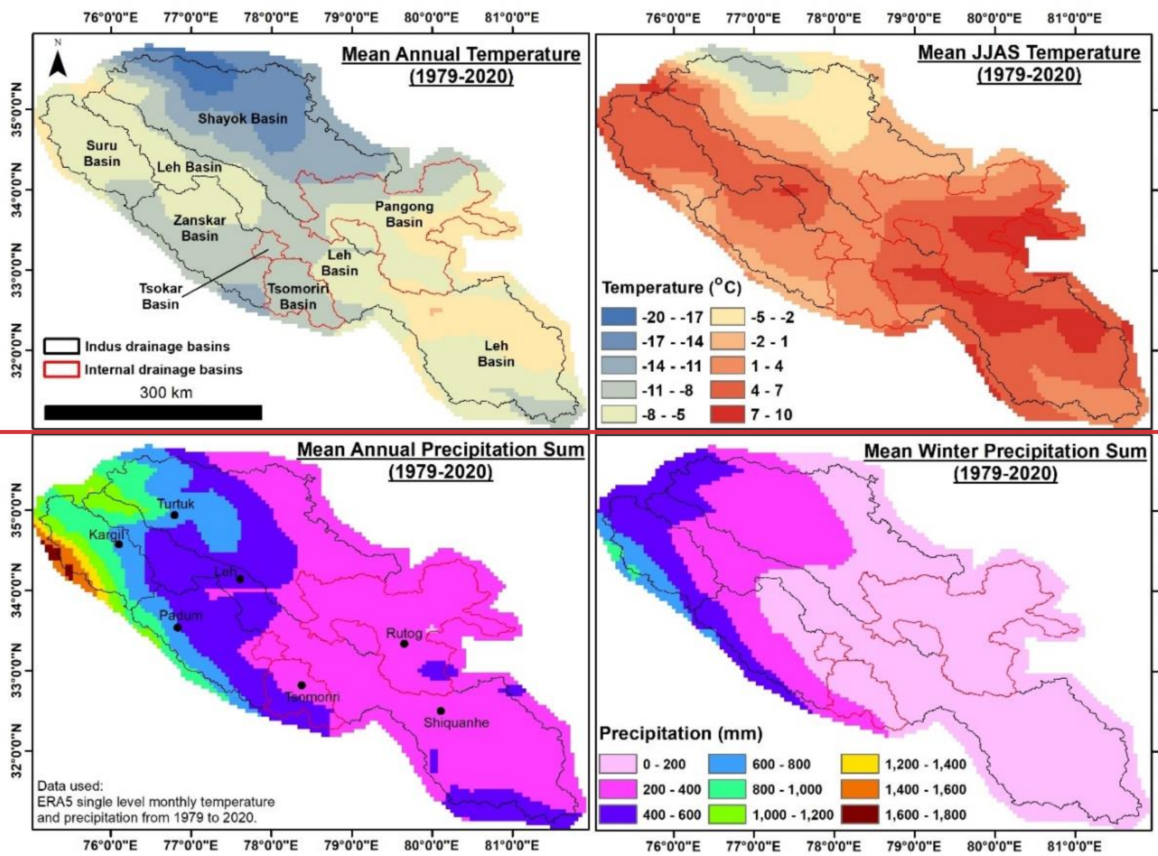
This study involves the use of satellite imagery to extract various glacier parameters. It is therefore subject to uncertainties which may arise mainly from four different sources: (1) the quality of the image (with potential issues due to seasonal snow, shadows and cloud cover), (2) sensor characteristics (spatial/spectral resolution), (3) interpretation of glacial features and methodology used, and (4) post-processing techniques (Le Bris & Paul, 2013; Paul et al., 2013, 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009, 2019). Error due to sources 1, 3, and 4 are generally minor and can be visually identified and corrected (section 3.3), but an exact quantification is difficult due to the lack of reference data available from the region (Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020). Type 4 errors are significant and have an impact on both glacier area and length estimation. Therefore, we applied a buffer-based assessment to glacier areas with the buffer width set to one-pixel for debris covered and a half-pixel for clean ice (Bolch et al., 2010; Granshaw & Fountain, 2006; Mölg et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020; Tielidze & Wheate, 2018), given that the level 1TP Landsat images were corrected to sub-pixel geometric accuracy (Bhambri et al., 2013). A buffer-based method provides the maximum and minimum estimates of uncertainty with respect to glacier size, where the values vary with size of the glacier and spatial resolution of the imagery used. Thus, it is more specific to the dataset and most recommended when there is no reliable reference data available (Paul et al., 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020). The same approach was also followed to estimate the uncertainties in lake areas with one-pixel as the buffer width.

The associated uncertainty for smaller glaciers (<0.5 km²) amounts to ~12-25%. Therefore, all the glaciers with an area of less than 0.5 km², which comprise ~70% and ~10% of the total glacier count and glacierised area respectively, are not included in this study. For the remaining glaciers, the uncertainty in glacier area ranged between ±2.1 and ±7.2% depending on the spatial resolution of the satellite imagery and the individual glacier size. The highest uncertainty was for the year 1977 due to the coarser spatial resolution of Landsat MSS data when applied to the smallest glaciers (0.5-1 km^2). For most of the glaciers, lengths are assumed to be accurate to ±1 pixel at the terminus (Le Bris & Paul, 2013). Therefore, a buffer of one-pixel was set to determine the uncertainty in glacier length. The length uncertainty ranged between ±1.5 and ±2.6% with maximum uncertainty observed for the smallest glacier category (0.5-1 km^2). The methods yielded an overall uncertainty of 4.2, 1.8 and 1.5% for glacier area, glacier length and lake area, respectively (Table S2).

Uncertainties related to other attributes (mean elevation, mean slope and mean aspect) of the inventory are difficult to estimate due to the use of the ASTER GDEM product in this study, which was developed using a collage of archived scenes acquired between 2000 and 2013. In addition, the local undulations and surface change over time will have only marginal effects on parameters (elevation, slope and aspect) that are averaged over the entire glacier as averaging compensates for most of the changes (Frey & Paul, 2012). However, for parameters like maximum and minimum elevations, where one cell is used and no averaging is applied, the uncertainty is ~ ±9m, as the vertical accuracy of ASTER GDEM is ±8.55m for glacierised areas of high Asia (Yao et al., 2020) and ±8.86m elsewhere (Mukherjee et al., 2013).

~~3.5. Climate data correction and analysis:~~

~~Kanda et al., 2020 evaluated the performance of seven gridded climate datasets (e.g., APHRODITE, CRU-TS, PGF, UDEL, ERAI etc.) against observed data from the 19 in-situ stations scattered across the Karakoram, Greater and Lower western Himalaya. It was found that ERA-Interim, with additional bias corrections, performed best. Since the ERA5 is the improved version of ERA-Interim (Hersbach et al., 2020), it was further bias corrected and used to understand the regional trends in temperature and precipitation, the first order driver of surface mass balance. Negi et al., 2021 used 12 in-situ meteorological stations from the Shayok region and found the mean summer, mean winter and mean annual temperature to be 3, -14 and -6.9 ºC, respectively, between 1985 and 2015. The ERA5 reanalysis data from the Shayok basin are in agreement with the in-situ temperatures.~~



~~*Figure 2: Distributive temperature (annual and JJAS) and precipitation (annual and winter) across the study area. Data used: ERA5 single level monthly temperature and precipitation from 1979 to 2020, https://climate.copernicus.eu/climate-reanalysis*~~

~~The linear scaling bias correction method (Ines & Hansen, 2006; Shrestha et al., 2017; Teutschbein & Seibert, 2013) was adopted for the corrections with the help of the available observed long-term Leh and Shiquanhe datasets. Only seven grids from the entire region were bias corrected because of the limited observed dataset. One grid cell containing a major village/town/city from each basin was chosen except for Tsokar and Leh basins. For the Leh basin two grid cells were chosen because of the available observed records from Leh and Shiquanhe stations, whereas no grid cell was chosen from the Tsokar basin due to its comparatively smaller area (Figure 1 and 2). The bias corrected data from seven grids were further analysed statistically to understand the significance and magnitude of annual and seasonal trends in temperature, precipitation and positive degree days (PDDs) using the Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope estimator (Sen, 1968), respectively. The change in temperature, precipitation and PDD was calculated following Shukla et al., 2020.~~

4. Results

4.1. ~~Glacier inventory of 2019~~General statistics

In total, 2257 glaciers (>0.5 km^2) were compiled in the current inventory (Table 2), with a total glacierised area of ~8511±430, 8173±215, 8096±214 and 7923 ±106 km^2 for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019, respectively. The glacierised area corresponds to ~6% of the Ladakh region with individual areas ranging between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2. Glacier length in the Ladakh region varies between 0.4±0.02 and 73±0.54 km with a mean length of 2.9±0.05 km. About 90% of the glaciers are shorter than 5km in length while only 6% of glaciers have a length of < 1km. Larger glaciers are mainly located in the Shayok and Zanskar Basins with the Siachen Glacier being the largest (862±16 km^2), longest (73±0.54 km) and covers the greatest elevation range of ~3616m (3702-7318m a.s.l.). The major lakes in each endorheic basins of Pangong, Tsokar and Tsomoriri occupy an area of 3, 2 and 2.5%, respectively. The lake areas for the year 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 were 610±14, 619±8, 669±8 and 705±8 km^2 for Pangong, 13.5±0.9, 17±0.7, 18.3±0.7 and 18.8±0.6 km^2 for Tsokar and 140±2.6, 141±1.3, 141±1.3 and 141±1.1 km^2, respectively.

4.2 Glacier distribution in the Ladakh region

Glacierised areas and population in the Ladakh region vary across basins. Shayok Basin has the largest distribution of glacierised area and population (74% and 56%), whereas the Tsokar Basin has the least (0.04% and 0.1%), respectively (Table 2). Based on size distribution, the glacier area category of 1-5km^2 comprises the highest area (28% of the total), while the category of 50-100km^2 occupies the least glacierised area (9%) of the region. Most glaciers (~90% of the total) in the Ladakh region have an area of <5km^2 but occupy only 37% of the total glacierised area. The population and area of glaciers in each area class are different in each basin but the proportion of glaciers, smaller than 5km^2, is greater than 87% in all basins. Glaciers larger than 100 km^2 (n=7, < 1% of the total) are only present in the Shayok Basin and occupy ~24 and 32% of the total glacierised area of Ladakh and Shayok Basin, respectively.

4.3. Glacier hypsometry, slope and aspect

Figure 3 (iii and iv) shows the glacier elevations and hypsometry with 100m elevation intervals of seven basins of the Ladakh region. The highest and lowest glacier elevation are 7740 and 3249m a.s.l., both in the Shayok Basin. Whereas mean elevation of the glacier ranges between 4345-6355m a.s.l. (Figure 3iii). Small glaciers mainly occupy the higher elevations above 5500, and vice versa. The majority (73%, 5810 km^2) of the glacierised area is distributed in the 5000-6000 m a.s.l. elevation range, while only 14% is located below 5000m, and 13% above 6000m a.s.l. (Figure 3iv). The mean slope of these glaciers ranges between 8 and 46º, and is found to decrease with increasing glacier area. Glaciers with an area greater than 100 km^2 (n- 7, <1% of the total) have the lowest mean slope of 13º whereas, higher mean slopes (23º) are found for smaller glaciers (43% of the total). Overall, the mean glacier slope is ~21º (Figure 3v). Around 74% (1665) of the glaciers face the northern quadrant (NW-NE) amounting to ~50% (3940 km^2) of the glacierised area. While 9, 5, 3, 3 and 4% of the glaciers face East, South-East, South, South-West and West which constitute 24, 6, 8, 6 and 6% of the glacierised area, respectively. However, the orientation and respective area coverage of glaciers vary within individual basins (Figure 3i, ii).

Table 2: Basin-wide glacier information of UIB and IDBs based on present study for the year 2019.

Basin	Basin	Total Area > 0.5 km^2	Area 0.5-1 km^2	Area 1-5 km^2	Area 5-10 km^2	Area 10-50 km^2	Area 50-100 km^2	Area > 100 km^2

	area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²	Count	Area km²
All	132180	2257	7923	980	694	1053	2206	124	853	84	1617	10	674	7	1879
Shayok	33579	1268 (56%)	5864 (74%)	495 (51%)	351 (51%)	609 (58%)	1304 (59%)	88 (71%)	621 (73%)	60 (71%)	1151 (71%)	8 (80%)	559 (83%)	7 (100%)	1879 (100%)
Leh	46579	247 (11%)	334 (4%)	147 (15%)	105 (16%)	95 (9%)	191 (9%)	4 (3%)	26 (3%)	1 (1%)	12 (1%)	0	0	0	0
Suru	10502	201 (9%)	498 (6%)	81 (8%)	59 (9%)	100 (9%)	212 (10%)	12 (10%)	69 (8%)	8 (10%)	159 (10%)	0	0	0	0
Zanskar	14817	256 (12%)	775 (10%)	116 (12%)	82 (12%)	111 (11%)	235 (11%)	15 (12%)	108 (13%)	12 (14%)	235 (15%)	2 (20%)	115 (17%)	0	0
Tsokar	1036	3 (0.1%)	3.5 (0.04%)	2 (0.2%)	1.5 (0.2%)	1 (0.1%)	2 (0.1%)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tsomoriri	5462	94 (4%)	135 (2%)	47 (5%)	22 (3%)	46 (4%)	95 (4%)	1 (1%)	7 (1%)	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pangong	21206	190 (8%)	315 (4%)	92 (9%)	63 (9%)	91 (9%)	168 (8%)	4 (3%)	22 (2%)	3 (4%)	60 (4%)	0	0	0	0

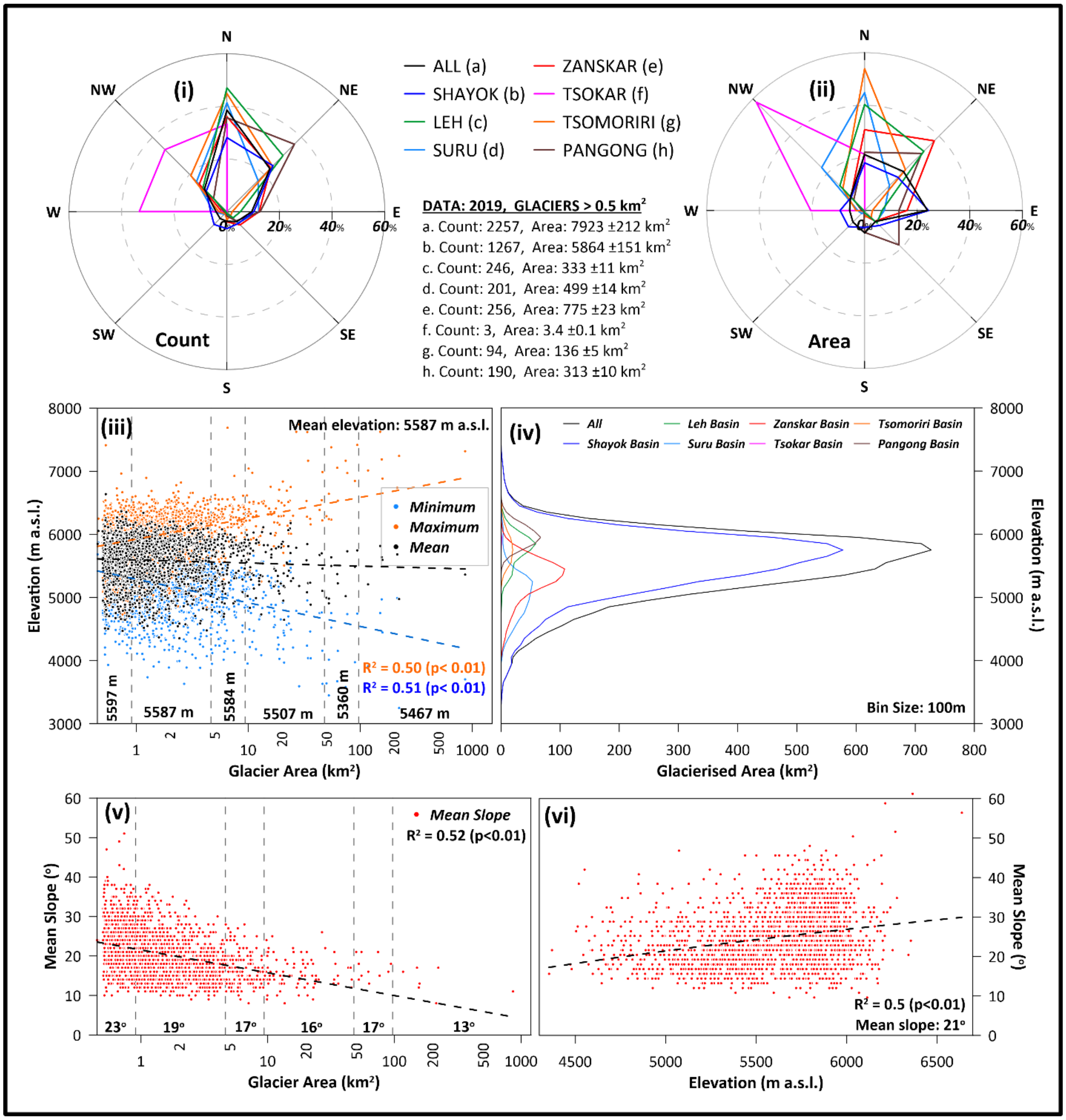
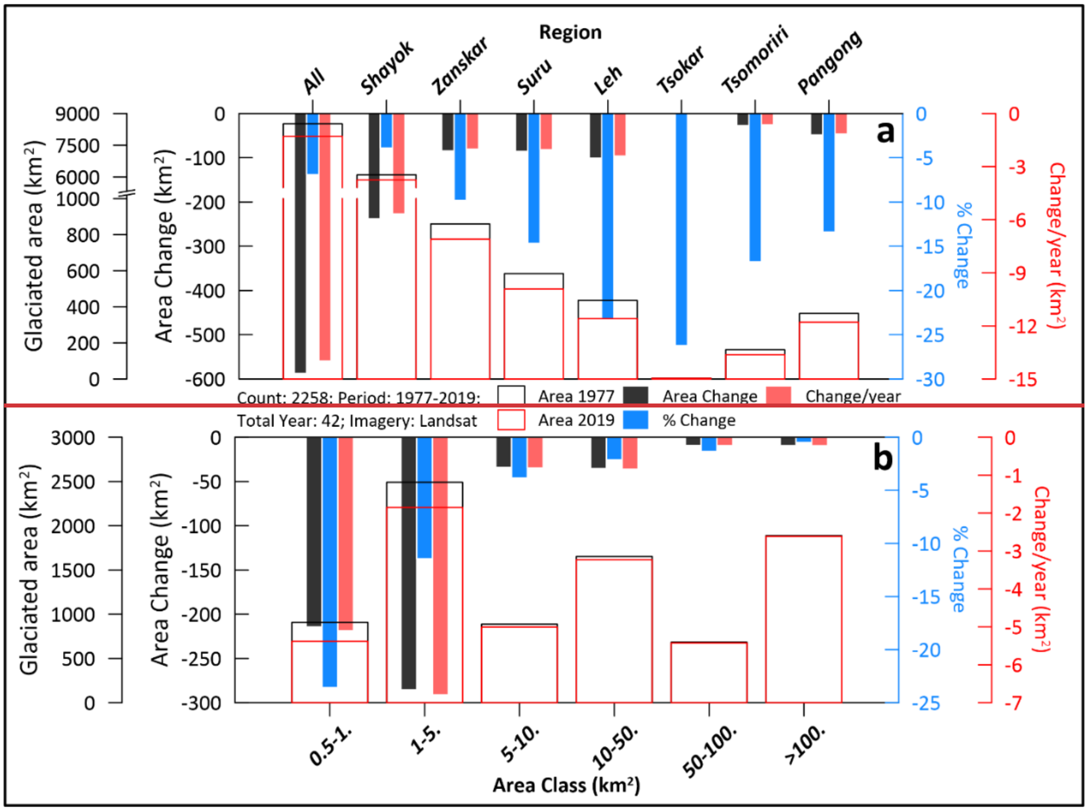


Figure 3: General statistics of the glaciers in UIB and IDBs: orientation of glaciers (i) and associated area distribution (ii), Maximum, minimum and mean elevation of glaciers (iii), hypsometry of glacierised area (iv) and slope against glacier area (v) and elevation (vi).

~~In 2019 the number of glaciers (>0.5 km²) is 2257 with an area totaling 7923 ±212 km². The glacierised area amounts to ~6% of the overall region with glacier areas and lengths ranging between 0.5 to 862 km² and 0.4 to 73 km, respectively. Shayok Basin and glacier category of 1-5 km² occupies the highest glacierised area, whereas Tsokar Basin and glacier category of >100 km² comprise the least glacierised areas. Around 74% (1665) of the glaciers face the northern quadrant (NW-N-NE) amounting to ~50% (3940 km²) of the glacierised area. However, the orientation and respective area coverage of glaciers varies within individual basins (Figure 3). Small glaciers were mainly found~~

~~to occupy the higher elevations above 5500 and vice versa. The mean elevation of the glaciers for the entire study was ~5587 m a.s.l. and the majority (73%, 5810 km^2) of the glacierised area is located between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l. (Figure 3). The mean slope of these glaciers ranged between 8 and 46°, and was found to decrease with increasing glacier area. Glaciers with area greater than 100 km^2 have comparatively the lowest mean slope of 13° whereas, higher mean slopes (23°) were found for smaller glaciers. Overall, the mean glacier slope was ~21° (Figure 3).~~

~~4.2. Total glacier change between 1977 and 2019~~



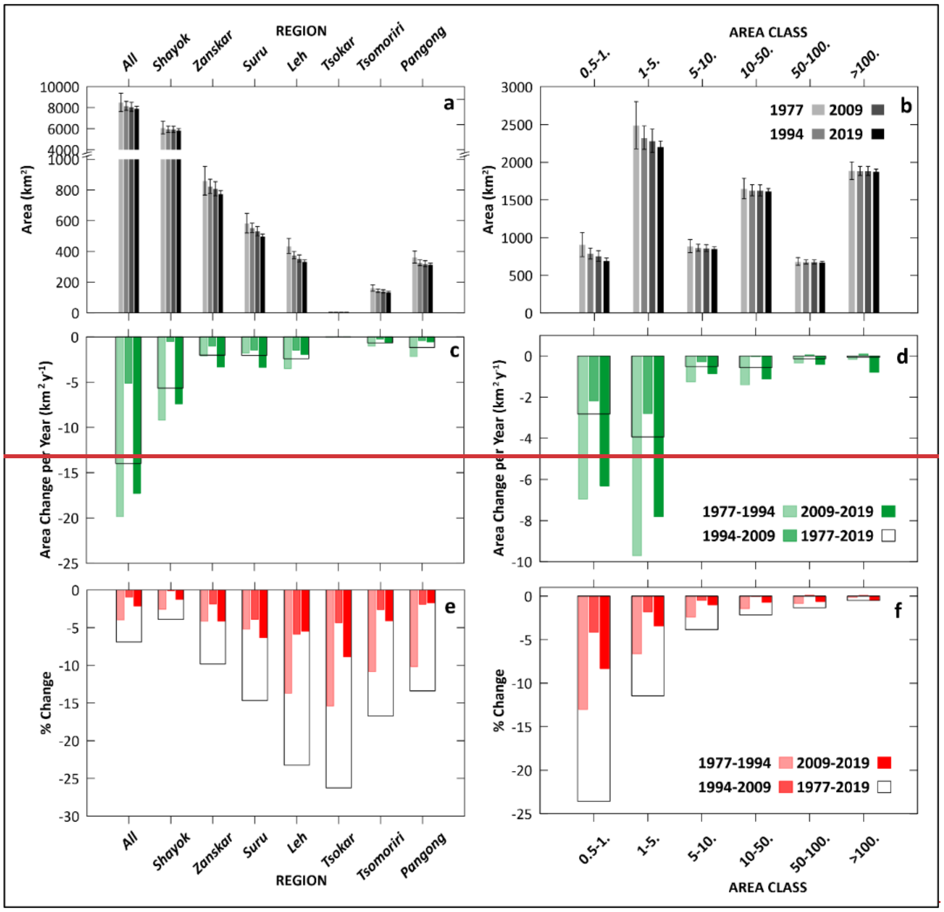
~~Figure 4: Total change in the glacierised area with respect to a) basin and b) area class in 42 years (1977-2019).~~

~~The total glacierised area reduced from 8511 ±861 km^2 in 1977 to 7923 ±212 km^2 in 2019, revealing an overall change of ~-588 km^2 (-6.9%) in 42 years with a mean change of ~-14 km^2 year^{-1} (-0.2% year^{-1}). The area change was found to be different for the individual UIB sub-basins and IDBs. Relative change in these basins ranged between -3.9 and -26%, with the least and greatest change found in Shayok and Tsokar basins, respectively (Figure 4). Glaciers in Shayok basin witnessed a change of ~-238 km^2 (~-5.7 km^2 year^{-1}) from 6102 ±595 km^2 in 1977 to 5864 ±151 km^2 in 2019. Whereas, glacierised area of Tsokar basin reduced from 4.6 ±0.5 km^2 (1977) to 3.4 ±0.1 km^2 (2019), exhibiting a change of ~-1.2 km^2 (~-0.03 km^2 year^{-1}). Glacierised area in other basins also witnessed change ranging between ~-10 and -16% over 42 years.~~

~~Deglaciation associated with different area classes ranged between -0.5 (>100 km^2) to -24% (0.5-1 km^2). Our results show that the highest relative change was mostly observed in the two smallest area classes of 0.5-1 and 1-5 km^2~~

~~whereas in larger area classes the change was found to be less than 4%. In the area category of 0.5-1 km^2, where the maximum change happened, glacierised area reduced from 909 ±161 km^2 (1977) to 694 ±34 km^2 (2019), exhibiting a change of ~-214 km^2 (-2.82 km^2 year^{-1}). The glaciers >100 km^2 witnessed a change of ~-10 km^2 (-0.22 km^2 year^{-1}) from 1977 (1888 ±115 km^2) to 2019 (1879 ±30 km^2).~~

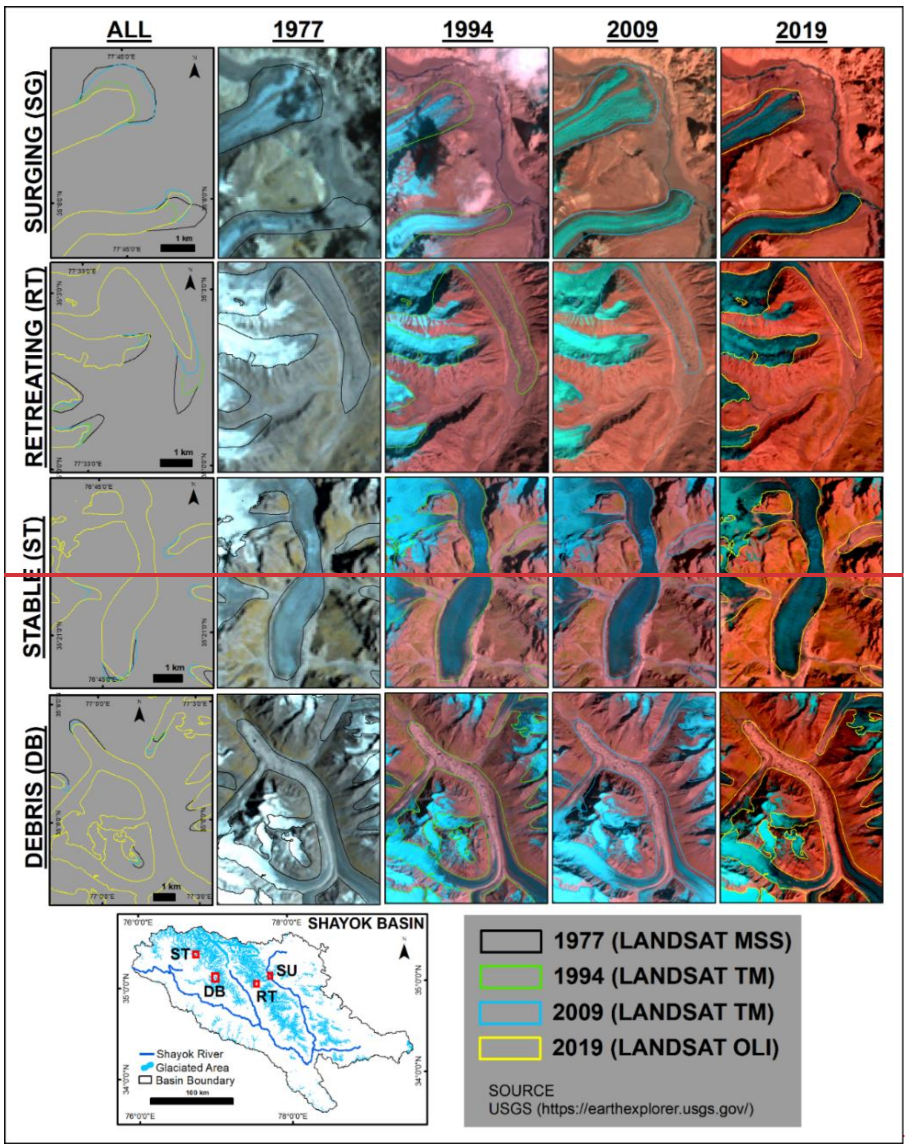
~~4.3. Periodical change in glacierised area between 1977 and 2019~~



~~*Figure 5: Periodical change in glacierised area: basin-wise (a, c, e) and area classes (b, d, f), between1977 and 2019.*~~

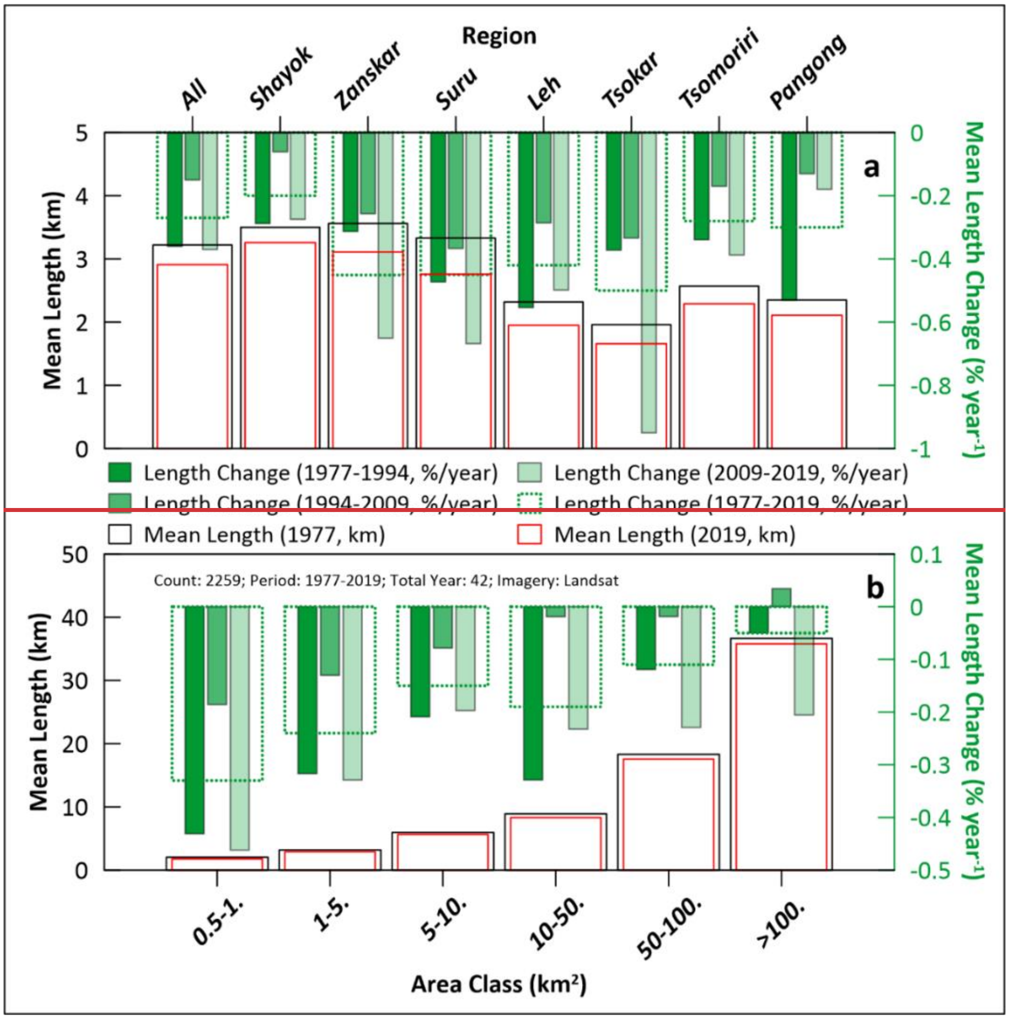
~~The results show that the deglaciation rate was variable across the measurement windows (1977-1994, 1994-2009 and 2009-2019). The highest rate of change was found during the first period (1977-1994; -20 km^2 year^{-1}; -0.23% year^{-1}) followed by the third (2009-2019; -17 km^2 year^{-1}; -0.21% year^{-1}) whereas the second period (1994-2009) witnessed the lowest rate of change at ~-5 km^2 year^{-1} (-0.06% year^{-1}). A similar pattern of changes was found in most of the UIB sub-basins and in the three IDBs. But for the Zanskar and Suru basins, the rate of change was found to be highest in the third period (2009-2019) with -3.34 (-0.41% year^{-1}) and -3.37 km^2 year^{-1} (-0.63% year^{-1}), respectively (Figure 5).~~

~~The maximum rate of change was found in the glaciers of 1-5 km^2, ~-10, -3 and -8 km^2 year^{-1}, equivalent to -0.77, -0.28 and -0.83% year^{-1} during 1977-1994, 1994-2009 and 2009-2019, respectively. The lowest rate of change was observed in the larger, >100 km^2, glaciers with a change of -0.2 (-0.01% year^{-1}), +0.1 (+0.01% year^{-1}) and -0.8 (-0.04% year^{-1}) km^2 year^{-1} during first, second and third periods. The period 1977-1994 witnessed the maximum deglaciation per year in all area classes except the two largest classes where maximum deglaciation happened during the third period (2009-2019). The lowest rate of change was observed during the second period (1994-2009) where the two largest area classes (50-100 and >100 km^2) experienced a positive mean change of +0.05 and +0.1 km^2 year^{-1} equivalent to ~+0.01 and +0.01% year^{-1}, respectively. Some examples from the Shayok Basin of different type of glacier change i.e., surging, retreating, stable and change in high debris covered glacier are presented in Figure 6.~~



~~Figure 6: Examples of different types of glacier change from the Shayok basin: surging type, retreating, stable and high debris covered glacier between1977 and 2019.~~

~~4.4. Glacier length change between 1977 and 2019.~~



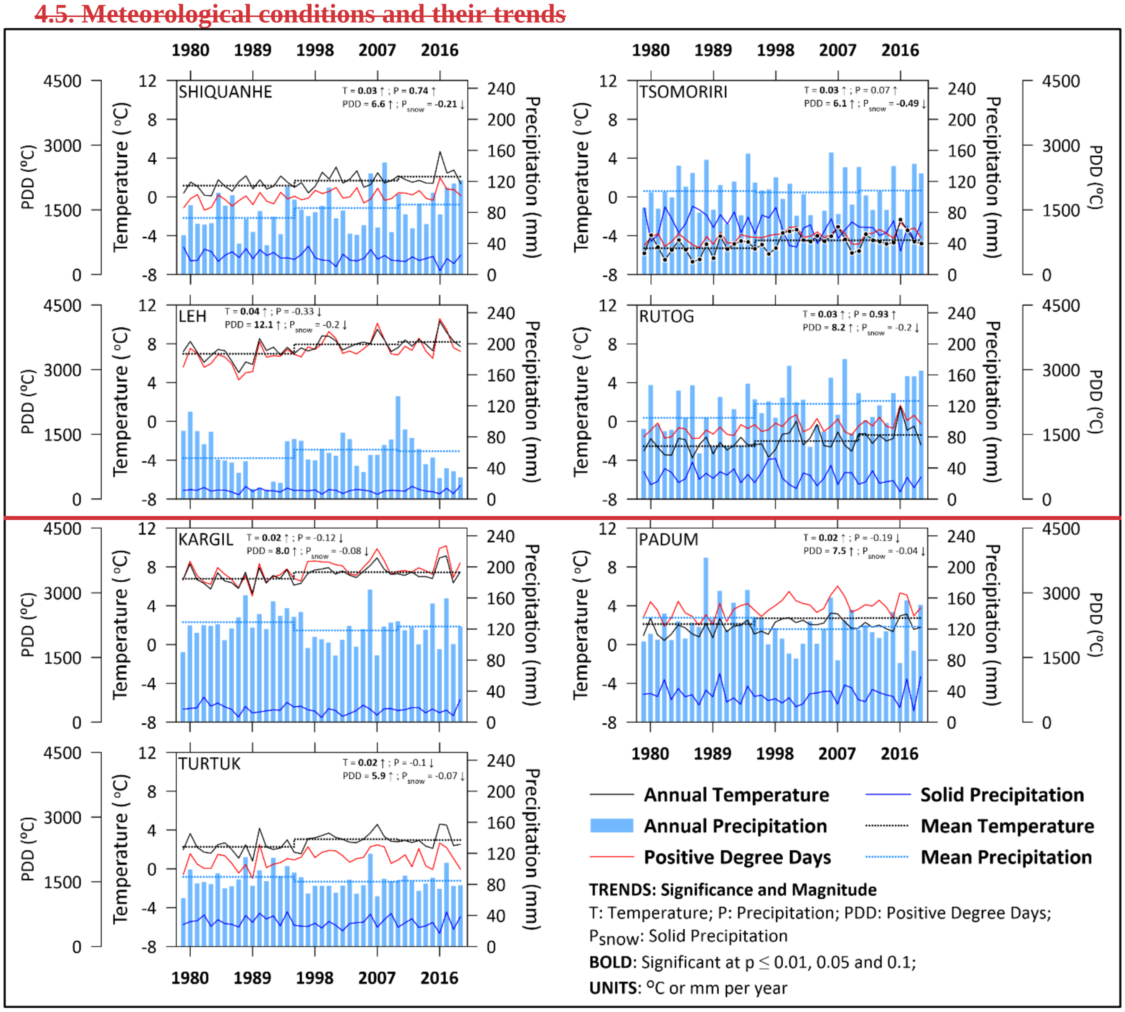
~~Figure 7: Temporal rate of change of glacier length in study area, basins and area classes.~~

~~Glacier lengths between 1977 and 2019 show a change ranging between +13 to -59% with the majority of retreat in the range of ~-5 to -30%. It was found that nearly all (97%) glaciers retreated over the measurement window with a mean retreat of ~-12% (-0.27% year^{-1}). Tsokar, Suru and Leh basin witnessed a comparatively higher rate of change ~-19, -19 and -18% equivalent to -0.5, -0.5 and -0.4 % year^{-1}, respectively. Whereas, change was relatively lower in Shayok (-8%), Zanskar (-15%), Tsomoriri (-12%), Pangong (-12%) and Shayok (-8%) from 1977 to 2019. For the area categories, the total length change ranges between -2.5 to -14% with the highest change found for the smallest area class (0.5-1 km^2) and vice versa.~~

~~The mean rate of change in glacier length was temporally variable, -0.4, -0.2 and -0.4% year^{-1} for 1977-1994, 1994-2009 and 2009-2019, respectively. The retreat rate for 1977-1994 was highest in Shayok, Leh and Pangong basins, and in the two area classes (5-10 and 10-50 km^2). Other basins and area classes witnessed the highest rate in length~~

~~change during the period 2009-2019. The rate was found to be lowest during 1994-2009 in all basins and area classes (Figure 7) and a positive change was also observed in the largest area class, >100 km², during 1994-2009 as a result of glacier surging.~~

~~4.5. Meteorological conditions and their trends~~



~~Figure 8: ERA5 bias-corrected annual temperature (mean) and precipitation (sum) of the seven grids of the study area. Mean temperature (dotted line) represent mean of the period and PDD is the sum of degrees above 0 °C per day of the year.~~

~~Meteorological conditions at the seven major settlements (Shiquanhe, Rutog, Leh, Turtuk, Tsomoriri, Padum and Kargil) are presented in Figure 8 and Figure S3. Figure S2 presents the correlation between observed and bias-corrected ERA5 reanalysis data. The result shows a strong correlation for temperature with $R^2 = 0.97$ ($p<0.01$) at both Leh and Shiquanhe. A weaker but significant correlation was found for the precipitation at Shiquanhe ($R^2 = 0.54$, $p< 0.01$) and Leh ($R^2 = 0.1$, $p < 0.01$). The mean annual temperature and total annual precipitation in the study area, during the 40-year period (1979-2019), ranged between -7 (Tsomoriri, 1986) to +10 °C (Leh, 2016) and 13 (Leh, 1991) to 213 mm (Padum, 1988), respectively. The results show Leh and Kargil were comparatively the warmest, with annual PDD sums exceeding 3000 °C while Tsomoriri was the coldest where the annual PDD sum never exceeds~~

~~1500 °C. Kargil, Padum, Tsomoriri and Rutog were wetter than other major settlements with Leh being driest (Figure 2 and 8). Solid precipitation, which mostly falls during winter months, was <80 mm in all the locations with highest found in Tsomoriri (40 to 80 mm). Leh, Kargil and Shiquanhe had the lowest (< 40 mm) annual solid precipitation (Figure 8).~~

~~Between 1979 and 2019 all locations showed a statistically significant increasing trend in mean annual, JJAS and winter air temperatures with Leh exhibiting the highest rate of increase in mean annual, JJAS and winter temperatures (Figure 8, Table S3). Padum had the lowest increase in temperature. Statistically significant trends in precipitation were observed only in Shiquanhe (annual, JJAS), Rutog (annual, JJAS) and Tsomoriri (winter). Shiquanhe and Rutog had positive trend in annual and JJAS precipitation and Tsomoriri had a negative trend in winter precipitation and Tsomoriri and Shiquanhe experienced a decrease in solid precipitation (Figure 8, Table S3). A statistically significant increasing trend in annual PDD sums was observed in all locations ranging between 5.9 and 12.1 ºC year^{-1}, (Figure 8, Table S3).~~

5. Discussion

5.1. ~~Description of t~~The produced dataset and limitations

The entire dataset of the multitemporal inventories of glaciers (>0.5 km^2) in Ladakh region for the year 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 is available at PANGAEA portal (https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994; Soheb et al., 2022). The dataset are provided in two different GIS-ready file formats, i.e., GeoPackages (*.gpkg) and Shapefiles (*.dbf, *.prj, *.sbn, *.sbx, *.shp, *.shx) to support a wider end users. GeoPackage is a relatively new and open-source file format which is now being widely used and supported, whereas Shapefile format is one of the most widely used proprietary but open file formats for vector datasets, supported by open-source GIS tools such as QGIS. The provided outlines of glaciers, basins and lakes are all referenced to the WGS 84 / UTM zone 43N datum. For each region, there is one file for basin outlines~~ and lake (if any) outlines~~, and four files for glacier and lake (if present) outlines ~~o~~for 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019. Each glacier outline file contains glacier Ids (~~Jawaharlal Nehru University and University of Aberdeen~~ new glacier Ids, Randolph Glacier Inventory 6.0 Ids, and Global Land Ice Measurements from Space initiative Ids), coordinates (latitude and longitude), elevation (maximum, mean and minimum), aspect (mean), slope (mean), area, ~~and~~ length (maximum), area uncertainty and length uncertainty. Whereas, the Lake Outline file contains coordinates, area, elevation and area uncertainty.

While using this dataset, it is important to understand the key limitations of such regional-scale glacier inventories. Some of the key user limitations of the produced dataset are: (1) Glaciers smaller than 0.5 km^2 (which comprise ~70% and ~10% of the total glacier population and glacierised area, respectively) were not included in this inventory due to the higher uncertainty (~15-30%) associated with these glacier outlines; (2) Inventories produced in this study are entirely based on the medium resolution Landsat imageries, in the same way as other global or regional-scale glacier inventories. Although the uncertainty associated with these inventories do not considerably impact regional-scale analyses, care should be taken while using this data for a small set of glaciers. It should also be noted that it is not feasible to produce multitemporal inventories regionally using high-resolution datasets due to scarce availability and high costs of such high-resolution datasets; (3) The inventories of 1977±5, 1994±1 and 2019±1 are produced using images with a range of acquisition dates due to the lack of data continuity within a particular year (more details in section 3.1); and (4) The time periods chosen in this study are based on the availability of datasets and sufficient temporal gaps among the datasets to allow multi-temporal glacio-hydrological analyses for a user.

5.2. Significance of the present inventory

The glacier inventory presented here has several improvements compared to the existing regional and global inventories. Firstly, it covers the glaciers (> 0.5 km^2; n = 2257; ~7923 ±212 km^2) for the entire Ladakh region with manual correction and quality control undertaken using freely available high-resolution images. The analyses were further extended to estimate the change and distribution of ice masses at sub-basin scale. Secondly, for all the glaciers a temporal rate of change has been calculated, which will aid hydrological and glaciological modelling aimed at understanding past and future evolution. Finally, the new inventory will aid both the scientific community studying the glaciers and water resources of the Ladakh region, and the administration of the Union Territory of Ladakh, Government of India in developing efficient mitigation and adaptation strategies by improving the projections of change on timescales relevant to policy makers.

~~5.2. Glacier and climate of the region~~

~~Overall, the majority (97%) of the glaciers in the Ladakh region retreated over the study period. The results, unsurprisingly, also show a considerable heterogeneity. The Shayok Basin glaciers experienced the least change while the Leh Basin deglacierised most. Some of the major factors contributing to such contrasting changes within this region include climate (temperature and precipitation), topography, elevation, orientation, and glacier size. Most documented changes appear to be occurring as a result of increasingly drier and warmer summers (lower precipitation due to a weakened Indian Summer Monsoon) and wetter winters (particularly snow due to Western Disturbances) (Farinotti et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2012). The moisture-laden ISM and WD (during summer and winter, respectively) deliver precipitation mostly on the major orographic barriers of the Greater Himalayan and the Karakoram ranges, but only limited precipitation bearing air masses reach the Ladakh region, specifically Leh and Tsokar basins resulting in a greater deglaciation. However, glaciers of Suru, Zanskar, Tsomoriri and Pangong basins, which are proximal to the major orographic barriers (Greater Himalayan and Karakoram ranges), showed comparatively moderate retreat.~~

~~The predominance of small glaciers in the Leh (97%), Tsokar (100%) and Tsomoriri (98%) basins is also a reason for the contrasting behavior in glacier change. The smaller glaciers displayed the greatest deglaciation as they are more sensitive to changes in surface mass balance (Yang et al., 2020). A small increase in ELA or SLA can turn these small glaciers entirely into ablation zone, thus negatively impacting their health. Results also show that smaller glaciers generally have steeper slopes thus experiencing a larger relative area loss than less steep glaciers.~~

5.3. Comparison of inventories in the Ladakh region

~~*Table 3: Basin and class wise comparison of the glacierised area between the present study and other inventories (RGI 6.0, ICIMOD and GAMDAM).*~~

~~**Region**~~	~~**Present Study**~~	~~**RGI 6.0**~~			~~**GAMDAM**~~			~~**ICIMOD**~~		
	~~Area~~	~~Area~~	~~Difference~~		~~Area~~	~~Difference~~		~~Area~~	~~Difference~~	
	~~km^2~~	~~km^2~~	~~km^2~~	~~%~~	~~km^2~~	~~km^2~~	~~%~~	~~km^2~~	~~km^2~~	~~%~~
~~**Shayok**~~	~~5938~~	~~6999~~	~~1061~~	~~15~~	~~6616~~	~~678~~	~~10~~	~~5456~~	~~-482~~	~~-9~~
~~**Zanskar**~~	~~808~~	~~880~~	~~72~~	~~8~~	~~932~~	~~124~~	~~13~~	~~819~~	~~11~~	~~1~~
~~**Suru**~~	~~532~~	~~525~~	~~-7~~	~~-1~~	~~564~~	~~32~~	~~6~~	~~506~~	~~-26~~	~~-5~~
~~**Leh**~~	~~354~~	~~342~~	~~-12~~	~~-3~~	~~356~~	~~2~~	~~1~~	~~322~~	~~-32~~	~~-10~~
~~**Tsokar**~~	~~4~~	~~4.4~~	~~1~~	~~15~~	~~4.3~~	~~1~~	~~13~~	~~4.1~~	~~0~~	~~9~~
~~**Tsomoriri**~~	~~141~~	~~142~~	~~1~~	~~1~~	~~143~~	~~2~~	~~2~~	~~116~~	~~-25~~	~~-21~~
~~**Pangong**~~	~~320~~	~~320~~	~~0~~	~~0~~	~~335~~	~~15~~	~~4~~	~~-~~	~~-~~	~~-~~
					~~**Area Class**~~					
~~**0.5-1**~~	~~758~~	~~774~~	~~16~~	~~2~~	~~803~~	~~45~~	~~6~~	~~662~~	~~-96~~	~~-7~~
~~**1-5.**~~	~~2284~~	~~2437~~	~~153~~	~~6~~	~~2385~~	~~101~~	~~4~~	~~1958~~	~~-326~~	~~-12~~
~~**5-10.**~~	~~862~~	~~961~~	~~99~~	~~10~~	~~925~~	~~63~~	~~7~~	~~766~~	~~-96~~	~~-10~~
~~**10-50.**~~	~~1628~~	~~1959~~	~~331~~	~~17~~	~~1824~~	~~196~~	~~11~~	~~1356~~	~~-272~~	~~-20~~
~~**50-100**~~	~~678~~	~~730~~	~~52~~	~~7~~	~~599~~	~~-79~~	~~-13~~	~~592~~	~~-86~~	~~-15~~
~~**>100**~~	~~1887~~	~~2351~~	~~464~~	~~20~~	~~2412~~	~~525~~	~~22~~	~~1887~~	~~0~~	~~0~~
~~**Total**~~	~~**8096**~~	~~**9212**~~	~~**1116**~~	~~**14**~~	~~**8950**~~	~~**854**~~	~~**11**~~	~~**7223**~~	~~**-533**~~	~~**-7**~~

Differences in estimates of the glacierised areas are meaningful as they can lead to an over or under estimation of the available water resources. Therefore, correctly estimating glacier change over time is necessary for understanding glacier dynamics, future response to climate forcing and the water resources they provide. Table 3 presents a comparison between the present inventory and the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI) 6.0 (Pfeffer et al., 2014), International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) inventory (Bajracharya et al., 2019; Williams, 2013) and Glacier Area Mapping for Discharge in Asian Mountains (GAMDAM) inventory (Guo et al., 2015; Sakai, 2019), for the Ladakh region. The comparison involves glacier outlines for 2009 from the present study and excludes glaciers smaller than 0.5 km^2 from regional inventories to achieve the closest match temporally and for glacier size categories. This should be taken as a first order comparison, given the fact that the uncertainties have been estimated with different approaches for the different inventories. Specifically the uncertainty estimated for the GAMDAM and ICIMOD inventories differs only slightly to the one applied here, given that they used a normalized standard deviation approach on the datasets produced by several operators on the same subset of glaciers (Bajracharya et al., 2011, 2019; Guo et al., 2015; Nuimura et al., 2015; Sakai, 2019). Whereas, in case of RGI 6.0 inventory, the uncertainty estimation approach differs significantly from the one presented here, because their errors were calculated on a collection of glaciers due to the vast quantity of data acquired from multiple sources and approaches used to produced them (Pfeffer et al., 2014). Figure 4~~9~~ presents a comparison of the only three inventories (present, RGI 6.0 and ICIMOD) on the five field-investigated glaciers of Ladakh region because RGI and GAMDAM inventory share the same outlines on these glaciers.

The comparison showed a higher glacierised area in RGI/GAMDAM inventories and lower in the ICIMOD inventory (Table 3) than the present inventory, with most of the differences contributed by the basins having the higher glacierised areas (Shayok and Zanskar) and from the larger glaciers (>10 km^2). Such inconsistencies among the inventories are a product of several factors, e.g. 1) absence of change in glaciers over time due to the use of imagery with a wide range of acquisition years (Figure 4~~9~~ a, c, d); 2) misinterpretation of the glacier terminus due to icing, debris, snow and cloud cover (Nagai et al., 2016), and 3) the methodology used. The smaller difference between the present and the ICIMOD inventory is mainly due to the adoption of a similar technique (i.e., a semi-automated approach) and the shorter time frame of the analysis that generated the ICIMOD inventory (i.e., 2002-2009).

Table 3: Basin and class wise comparison of the glacierised area between the present study and other inventories (RGI 6.0, ICIMOD and GAMDAM).

Region	**Present Study**	**RGI 6.0**			**GAMDAM**			**ICIMOD**		
	Area	Area	Difference		Area	Difference		Area	Difference	
	km^2	km^2	km^2	%	km^2	km^2	%	km^2	km^2	%
Shayok	5938	6999	1061	15	6616	678	10	5456	-482	-9
Zanskar	808	880	72	8	932	124	13	819	11	1
Suru	532	525	-7	-1	564	32	6	506	-26	-5
Leh	354	342	-12	-3	356	2	1	322	-32	-10
Tsokar	4	4.4	1	15	4.3	1	13	4.1	0	9
Tsomoriri	141	142	1	1	143	2	2	116	-25	-21
Pangong	320	320	0	0	335	15	4	-	-	-
					Area Class					
0.5-1	758	774	16	2	803	45	6	662	-96	-7
1-5.	2284	2437	153	6	2385	101	4	1958	-326	-12
5-10.	862	961	99	10	925	63	7	766	-96	-10
10-50.	1628	1959	331	17	1824	196	11	1356	-272	-20
50-100	678	730	52	7	599	-79	-13	592	-86	-15
≥100	1887	2351	464	20	2412	525	22	1887	0	0
Total	**8096**	**9212**	**1116**	**14**	**8950**	**854**	**11**	**7223**	**-533**	**-7**

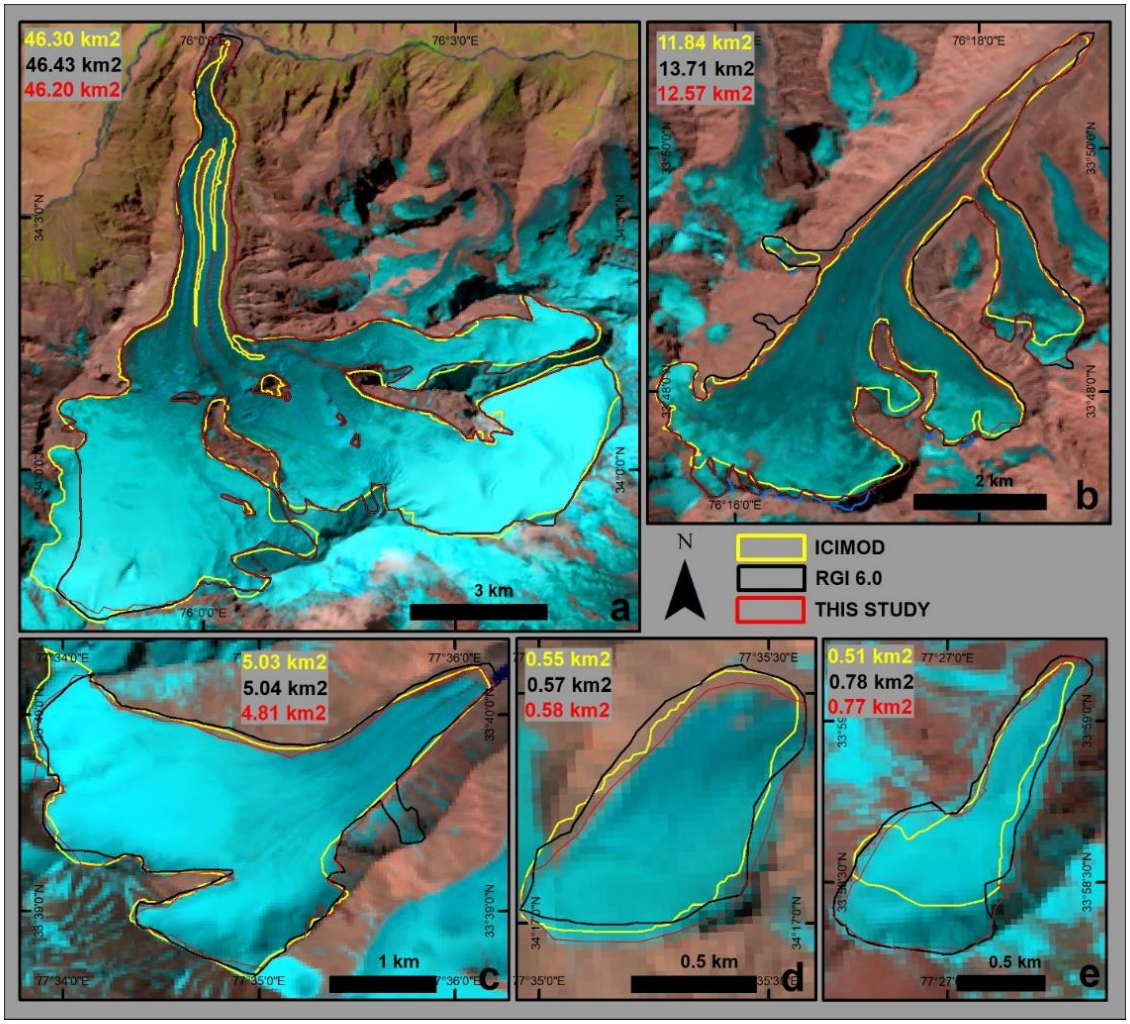


Figure 4~~9~~: Comparison of inventories on the field investigated glaciers of the study area: a) Parkachik glacier, Suru Basin; b) Pensila glacier, Suru Basin; c) Lato glacier, Leh Basin; d) Khardung glacier, Shayok Basin; e) Stok glacier, Leh Basin.

5.4. Comparison with recent studies

~~Table 4: Comparison of glacier change attributes between the present study and others recent studies.~~

~~Region~~	~~Study~~	~~Period~~	~~Total Glaciers~~	~~Glacier Size (km²)~~	~~Area Change (km²)~~	~~Area Change (%)~~	~~Area Change /year (%)~~
~~Shayok Basin~~	~~Present~~	~~1994-2009~~	~~1267~~	~~>0.5~~	~~-7.56~~	~~-0.12~~	~~-0.008~~
		~~1994-2019~~	~~1267~~	~~>0.5~~	~~-81.69~~	~~-1.4~~	~~-0.05~~
	~~Negi et al., 2021*~~	~~1991-2014~~	~~569~~	~~>1~~	~~-7.8~~	~~-0.91~~	~~-0.008~~
~~Leh Basin~~	~~Present~~	~~1977-2019~~	~~247~~	~~>0.5~~	~~-102~~	~~-23~~	~~-0.5~~
	~~Schmidt and Nüsser, 2017*~~	~~1969-2016~~	~~135~~	~~>0.03~~	~~-21.79~~	~~-19~~	~~-0.4~~
~~Suru Basin~~	~~Present~~	~~1977-2019~~	~~201~~	~~>0.5~~	~~-85.78~~	~~-14~~	~~-0.3~~
	~~Shukla et al., 2020*~~	~~1971-2017~~	~~240~~	~~>0.01~~	~~-32~~	~~-6~~	~~-0.2~~

*~~*Negi et al., 2021 basin area is comparatively small and within Indian territory only; *Schmidt and Nüsser, 2017 studied temporal changes in few selected glaciers; *Shukla et al., 2020 studied the Suru sub-basin only.~~*

The data from the recent spatio-temporal change studies from different sub-regions of Ladakh (Figure 5) are not in the public domain, except from Shukla et al., 2020. Hence, it is not possible to use these to validate our results. Therefore, our comparison mostly focuses on the rate of change for some of the individual glaciers (n=21, Figure 5) from the literature and the bulk properties of a set of glaciers in different regions (Table S3, Figure 6). Our results agree well with the studies conducted by others (Bhambri et al., 2013; Chudley et al., 2017; Garg et al., 2022; Garg et al., 2021; Negi et al., 2021; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017; Shukla et al., 2020) on individual glaciers of various sizes as well as on a set of glaciers, respectively (Figure 6, Table S3). However, the results differ significantly only on some glaciers and especially in a part of the Shayok Basin (e.g. Kumdan (D), Aktash (E) and Thusa glaciers(I)). In the Shayok Basin surge-type glaciers are common (Bhambri et al., 2013, 2017), the difference in analysis period between the present and other studies is the likely cause of the difference in glacier area statistics. Figure S2 presents the dynamics of the Kumdan and Aktash glaciers as an example of surge type glacier of this region.

No significant difference was observed in rate of change of glacierised areas between the present study and other studies in the Leh, Tsomoriri, Zaskar and Suru Basins. In contrast, the number of glaciers and glacierised area vary among these studies (present and others) but paint a similar picture of relatively lower retreat in the Shayok Basin (Bhambri et al., 2013; Negi et al., 2021), higher in Leh, Tsokar, Tsomoriri (Chudley et al., 2017; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017) and moderate in Zanskar and Suru Basins (Garg et al., 2022; Garg et al., 2022; Shukla et al., 2020).

~~For the glaciers of the Shayok Basin our results agree with Negi et al., 2021, showing similar retreat rates (Table 4) and lower summer, winter and annual temperatures reported over similar periods 1979-2019 (this study) versus 1985-2015 (Negi et al., 2021). The lower summer temperatures and higher precipitation provide one explanation for the area having the least change, apart from the 'Karakoram Anomaly', which is still not completely understood (Azam et al., 2018, 2021; Bhambri et al., 2013; Hewitt, 2005; Minora et al., 2016; Negi et al., 2021). Another contributing factor is likely due to higher proportion of surge-type glaciers which occupy a larger proportion of the glacierised area in the Karakoram (Bhambri et al., 2013, 2017). Greater retreat in the glaciers in the Leh Basin (higher than the western Himalayan average retreat rate of ~4 % year^{-1}, Shukla et al., 2020) appears to be driven by comparatively higher JJAS temperatures and lower winter precipitation (Figure 2, 8). Leh Basin is narrow and long (~700 km) with relatively high mean air temperature (both mean annual and JJAS) and low precipitation (total annual and winter precipitation) in the region, especially in the area (Figure 2) where majority (~80%) of the glaciers are located. Retreat rates for glaciers in the Leh basin from Chudley et al., 2017; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017 and this study are all in agreement (Table 4).~~

~~The relatively moderate retreat in the Suru and Zanskar Basins (Figure 4, 5, 7) is the result of a higher population of large glaciers and meteorological conditions, particularly higher JJAS temperature and higher winter precipitation (Figure 8) which appear to have somewhat cancelled each other out. Zanskar and Suru Basin results are also in line with the recent finding by Maurer et al., 2019 and Shukla et al., 2020 which observed that the average mass loss had doubled post-2000 i.e. this study: 1977-1994: -0.24, -0.31 % year^{-1} and 2009-2019: -0.41, -0.63 % year^{-1}.~~

~~Unsurprisingly, the smaller glaciers are of greatest concern in relation to the implications for water resource provision, given that they have shrunk the most over the past 42 years. Therefore, stress on water resources in the future is~~

~~expected to be greater, particularly around Leh Basin, where the majority of water resources derive from snow and small glaciers melt only. The Leh Basin, situated between the Himalaya and Karakoram Ranges, displays a behaviour more in line with the glaciers of Western Himalaya (Azam et al., 2018, 2021) and is significantly different from the adjacent basins to the north (Shayok and Pangong) and to the south (Suru, Zanskar and Tsomoriri). Such a difference is surprising yet understandable given the aridity and warmth of the climate in the valley (Figure 2, 8). This study supports the findings by Chudley et al., 2017 and Schmidt & Nüsser, 2017 that the Leh Basin marks the transition zone between the anomalous Karakoram, with its stable/surging glaciers, and the retreating Himalayan Range glaciers.~~

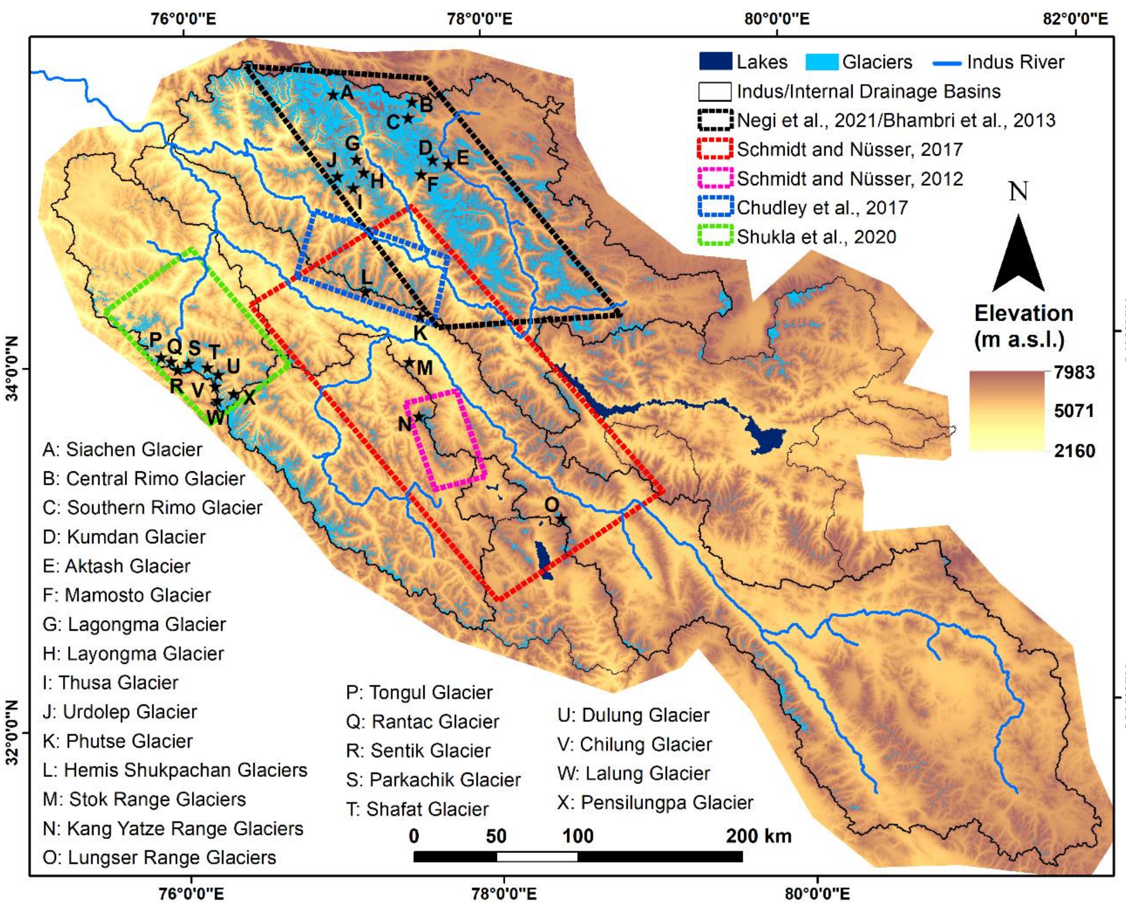


Figure 5: Presents the spatial extent of different studies undertaken in Ladakh region. Black stars represent the individual glaciers.

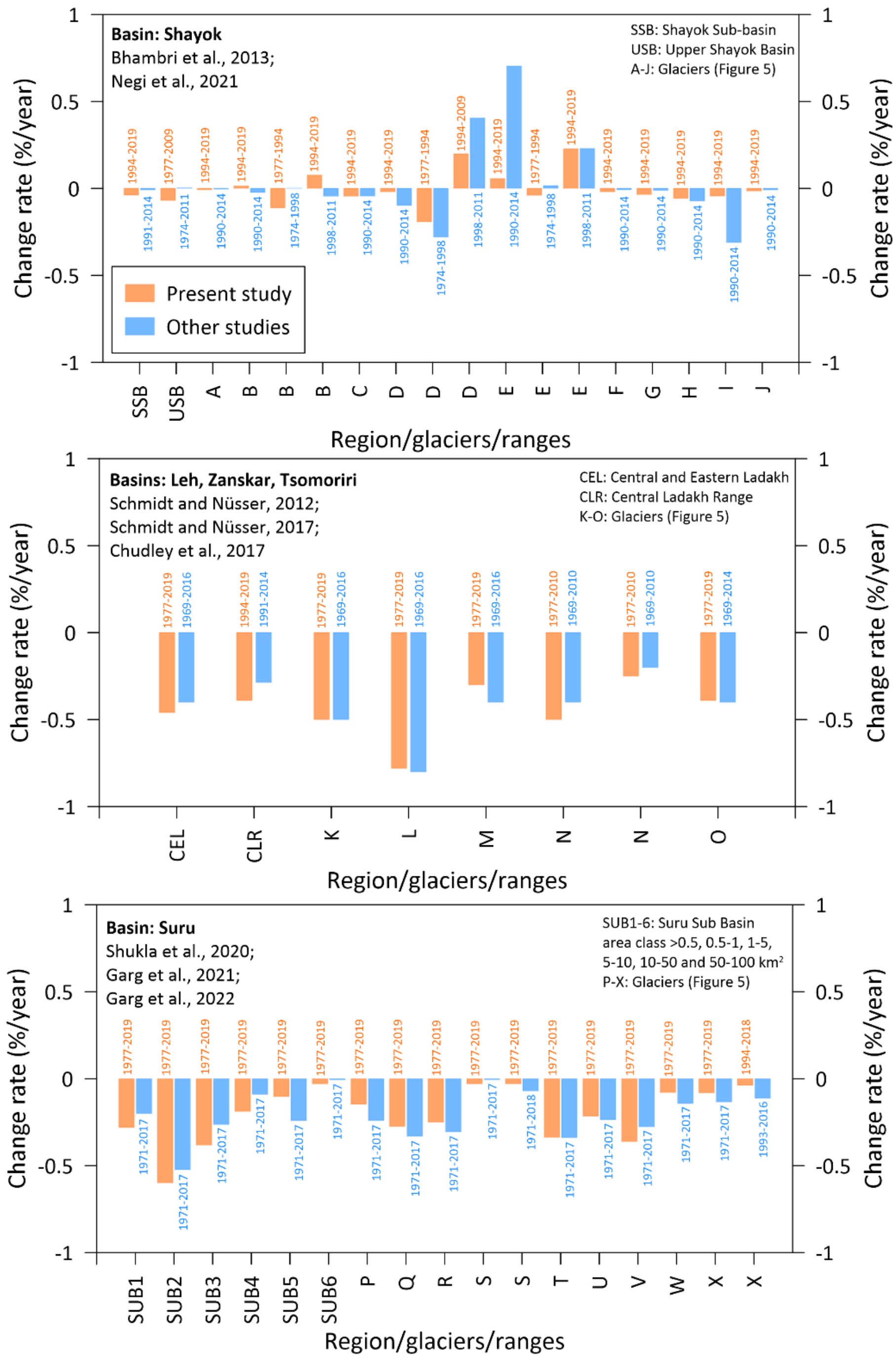


Figure 6: Comparison between the present study and other studies undertaken in different basins of Ladakh region over different time periods

6. Data availability

~~For review purposes the data can be accessed via: https://www.pangaea.de/tok/8b9a6e7275b32019eab155e11a461866706fabf3 (Soheb et al., 2022).~~

~~The dataset will be available for public after the completion of the review process.~~

The entire dataset of the Landsat based multitemporal inventory of glaciers, larger than 0.5 km^2, in Ladakh region for the year 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 will be available at: *PANGAEA*, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994 (Soheb et al., 2022).

7. Conclusions

We compiled a new glacier inventory of the Ladakh region for 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 based on 63 Landsat (MSS, TM and OLL) images, with least cloud/snow cover, acquired during the summer time (July-October). The inventory includes 2257 glaciers, larger than 0.5 km^2, covering an area of ~7923 ±106 km^2 which is ~14% and ~11% less than the RGI 6.0 and the GAMDAM, and 7% more than the ICIMOD inventories. The glacierised area accounts for ~6% of the Ladakh region with individual glacier areas ranging between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2. About 90% of the glacier population are smaller than 5km^2 but combined they occupy only 37% of the glacierised area. The seven largest glaciers, larger than 100 km^2, account for ~1879 km^2 or 24% of the total. The Shayok Basin and glacier area category 1-5km^2 hosts the highest number of glacier population and glacierised area; whereas, Tsokar Basin accounts for the least. More than 70% of the glaciers are in the north-facing quadrant (NW-NE) and are concentrated in the higher elevation zones, between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l. The error assessment shows that the uncertainty, based on a buffer-based approach, ranges between 2.6 and 5.1% for glacier area, and 1.5 and 2.6% for glacier length with a mean uncertainty of 3.2 and 1.8%, respectively. The uncertainty varies depending on the quality of the images and size of the glaciers. Our results also show a good agreement with other studies undertaken in parts of the Ladakh region for individual glaciers (n=21) and bulk properties of a set of glaciers.

The new multi-temporal inventory presented here will assist in planning the management of water resources, and for guiding scientific research focusing on glacier mass balance, hydrology and glacier change within the region. The detailed information and multi-temporal nature of this inventory will also aid in improving the existing global and regional glacier inventories especially in the cold-arid Ladakh region where the majority of the population is highly dependent on glacier-derived melt water resources for domestic, irrigation and hydropower generation needs.

~~We compiled new glacier inventories of the UIB and IDBs within the Ladakh region for 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 using Landsat images. The inventory includes 2257 glaciers, larger than 0.5 km^2, covering an area of ~7923 ±212 km^2, which is ~14% and ~11% less than the RGI 6.0 and the GAMDAM, and 7% more than the ICIMOD inventories. The glaciers range in area between 0.5 to 862 km^2, with most of them belonging to the smallest size category (0.5-1 km^2) which account for ~694 km^2. The seven largest glaciers >100 km^2 account for the second largest glacierised area of ~1879 km^2. Shayok Basin hosts the highest number of glaciers and glacierised area; whereas, Tsokar Basin has the least. More than 70% of the glaciers are north-facing (NW-N-NE) and concentrated in higher elevation zones between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l.~~

~~The study found that nearly all the glaciers (~97%) retreated and cumulatively lost a significant area of ~-588 km^2 (-6.9%) between 1977 and 2019. The retreat rates vary across the basins and glacier area categories. The relative area loss was highest in Leh, Tsokar and Tsomoriri Basins and for the small glacier categories. In the Shayok Basin and for the largest glaciers the relative area loss was lower. Smaller glaciers (0.5-1 and 1-5 km^2) have retreated most with~~

~~a change of ~24 and ~11% (1977-2019). In other area categories, the retreat was less than 4%, with minimum change (~0.5%) found in the largest glacier area class of > 100 km^2. All basins showed a reduction in glacierised area of >10% except Shayok Basin, where the change was just 3.9% due to more favourable climatic conditions and the presence of surge-type and stable glaciers. The length change of individual glaciers was between +13 and -59% with a mean change of -12% (-0.27% year^{-1}) over 42 years.~~

~~Meteorological records show a statistically significant increasing trend in mean annual temperature, with the highest rate of +0.04 ºC year^{-1}observed in Leh. The annual precipitation trend was statistically significant only for Shiquanhe (+0.74 mm year^{-1}) and Rutog (+0.93 mm year^{-1}). An increasing trend in JJAS and winter temperature was observed for all locations, while an increasing trend in JJAS precipitation was found in Shiquanhe and Rutog only. Leh was the warmest and driest basin, with annual PDDs and precipitation of >3000 ºC and <120 mm, respectively. A statistically significant positive trend in PDDs was observed for all the locations, and a decreasing trend in solid precipitation was found in Shiquanhe and Tsomoriri.~~

~~The new multi-temporal inventory presented here will assist in planning the management of water resources, and for guiding scientific research focusing on glacier mass balance, hydrology and glacier change within the region. The detailed information and multi-temporal nature of this inventory will also aid in improving the existing global and regional inventories especially in the cold-arid Ladakh region where the majority of the population is highly dependent on glacier-derived melt water resources for domestic, irrigation and hydropower generation needs.~~

Author contribution

MSo, AR, AB conceptualized and designed the study. MSo, AB and MC did the analysis. MSo wrote and AR, AB, MSp, BR, SS and LS edited the manuscript. All the authors have equally contributed to interpretation of the results.

Acknowledgements

The authors are thankful to the School of Environmental Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India, for the lab facilities and the United States Geological Survey for the Landsat and ASTER imageries. The authors also thank Planet Labs and Google for the high resolution PlanetScope and Google Earth imageries. We are also thankful to the Scottish Funding Council and the University Of Aberdeen, United Kingdom for financially supporting our work.

References

Azam, Mohd. F., Kargel, J. S., Shea, J. M., Nepal, S., Haritashya, U. K., Srivastava, S., Maussion, F., Qazi, N., Chevallier, P., Dimri, A. P., Kulkarni, A. V., Cogley, J. G., & Bahuguna, I. M. (2021).

Glaciohydrology of the Himalaya-Karakoram. *Science*, eabf3668. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abf3668

Bajracharya, S. R., Maharjan, S. B., & Shrestha, F. (2019). Glaciers in the Indus Basin. In *Indus River Basin* (pp. 123–144). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-812782-7.00006-0

Bajracharya, S. R., Shrestha, B. R., International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development, & Sweden (Eds.). (2011). *The status of glaciers in the Hindu Kush-Himalayan region*. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development.

Barrett, K., & Bosak, K. (2018). The Role of Place in Adapting to Climate Change: A Case Study from Ladakh, Western Himalayas. *Sustainability*, *10*(4), 898. https://doi.org/10.3390/su10040898

Bhambri, R., Bolch, T., Chaujar, R. K., & Kulshreshtha, S. C. (2011). Glacier changes in the Garhwal Himalaya, India, from 1968 to 2006 based on remote sensing. *Journal of Glaciology*, *57*(203), 543–556. https://doi.org/10.3189/002214311796905604

Bhambri, R., Bolch, T., Kawishwar, P., Dobhal, D. P., Srivastava, D., & Pratap, B. (2013). Heterogeneity in glacier response in the upper Shyok valley, northeast Karakoram. *The Cryosphere*, *7*(5), 1385–1398. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-7-1385-2013

Bhambri, R., Hewitt, K., Kawishwar, P., & Pratap, B. (2017). Surge-type and surge-modified glaciers in the Karakoram. *Scientific Reports*, *7*(1), 15391. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-15473-8

Bhardwaj, A., Joshi, P., Snehmani, Sam, L., Singh, M. K., Singh, S., & Kumar, R. (2015). Applicability of Landsat 8 data for characterizing glacier facies and supraglacial debris. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *38*, 51–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2014.12.011

Bolch, T. (2019). Past and Future Glacier Changes in the Indus River Basin. In *Indus River Basin* (pp. 85–97). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-812782-7.00004-7

Bolch, T., Kulkarni, A., Kaab, A., Huggel, C., Paul, F., Cogley, J. G., Frey, H., Kargel, J. S., Fujita, K., Scheel, M., Bajracharya, S., & Stoffel, M. (2012). The State and Fate of Himalayan Glaciers. *Science*, *336*(6079), 310–314. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1215828

Bolch, T., Menounos, B., & Wheate, R. (2010). Landsat-based inventory of glaciers in western Canada, 1985–2005. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, *114*(1), 127–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2009.08.015

Chudley, T. R., Miles, E. S., & Willis, I. C. (2017). Glacier characteristics and retreat between 1991 and 2014 in the Ladakh Range, Jammu and Kashmir. *Remote Sensing Letters*, *8*(6), 518–527. https://doi.org/10.1080/2150704X.2017.1295480

Census of India (2011), Jammu and Kashmir, Series 02- Part XII A-B, District Census Handbook, Leh and Kargil. India - Census of India 2011 - Jammu & Kashmir - Series 02 - Part XII A - District Census Handbook, Leh (censusindia.gov.in). Last assessed on 30 September 2021.

Frey, H., Machguth, H., Huss, M., Huggel, C., Bajracharya, S., Bolch, T., Kulkarni, A., Linsbauer, A., Salzmann, N., & Stoffel, M. (2014). Estimating the volume of glaciers in the Himalayan~~–~~ Karakoram region using different methods. *The Cryosphere*, *8*(6), 2313–2333. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-8-2313-2014

Frey, H., & Paul, F. (2012). On the suitability of the SRTM DEM and ASTER GDEM for the compilation of topographic parameters in glacier inventories. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *18*, 480–490. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2011.09.020

Garg, P. K., Garg, S., Yousuf, B., Shukla, A., Kumar, V., & Mehta, M. (2022). Stagnation of the Pensilungpa glacier, western Himalaya, India: Causes and implications. *Journal of Glaciology*, *68*(268), 221–235. https://doi.org/10.1017/jog.2021.84

Garg, S., Shukla, A., Garg, P. K., Yousuf, B., & Shukla, U. K. (2022). Surface evolution and dynamics of the Kangriz glacier, western Himalaya in past 50 years. *Cold Regions Science and Technology*, *196*, 103496. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coldregions.2022.103496

Granshaw, F. D., & G. Fountain, A. (2006). Glacier change (1958–1998) in the North Cascades National Park Complex, Washington, USA. *Journal of Glaciology*, *52*(177), 251–256. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756506781828782

Guo, W., Liu, S., Xu, J., Wu, L., Shangguan, D., Yao, X., Wei, J., Bao, W., Yu, P., Liu, Q., & Jiang, Z. (2015). The second Chinese glacier inventory: Data, methods and results. *Journal of Glaciology*, *61*(226), 357–372. https://doi.org/10.3189/2015JoG14J209

Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J., Nicolas, J., Peubey, C., Radu, R., Schepers, D., Simmons, A., Soci, C., Abdalla, S., Abellan, X., Balsamo, G., Bechtold, P., Biavati, G., Bidlot, J., Bonavita, M., … Thépaut, J. (2020). The ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, *146*(730), 1999–2049. https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3803

Ji, Q., Yang, T., He, Y., Qin, Y., Dong, J., & Hu, F. (2017). A simple method to extract glacier length based on Digital Elevation Model and glacier boundaries for simple basin type glacier. *Journal of Mountain Science*, *14*(9), 1776–1790. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11629-016-4243-5

Kääb, A., Treichler, D., Nuth, C., & Berthier, E. (2015). Brief Communication: Contending estimates of 2003–2008 glacier mass balance over the Pamir–Karakoram–Himalaya. *The Cryosphere*, *9*(2), 557–564. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-9-557-2015

Khan, A., Richards, K. S., Parker, G. T., McRobie, A., & Mukhopadhyay, B. (2014). How large is the Upper Indus Basin? The pitfalls of auto-delineation using DEMs. *Journal of Hydrology*, *509*, 442–453. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2013.11.028

Kulkarni, A. V. (2010). *Monitoring Himalayan cryosphere using remote sensing techniques*. *90*, 13.

Le Bris, R., & Paul, F. (2013). An automatic method to create flow lines for determination of glacier length: A pilot study with Alaskan glaciers. *Computers & Geosciences*, *52*, 234–245. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2012.10.014

Liu, S., Ding, Y., Shangguan, D., Zhang, Y., Li, J., Han, H., Wang, J., & Xie, C. (2006). Glacier retreat as a result of climate warming and increased precipitation in the Tarim river basin, northwest China. *Annals of Glaciology*, *43*, 91–96. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756406781812168

Maurer, J. M., Schaefer, J. M., Rupper, S., & Corley, A. (2019). Acceleration of ice loss across the Himalayas over the past 40 years. *Science Advances*, *5*(6), eaav7266. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aav7266

Minora, U., Bocchiola, D., D'Agata, C., Maragno, D., Mayer, C., Lambrecht, A., Mosconi, B., Vuillermoz, E., Senese, A., Compostella, C., Smiraglia, C., & Diolaiuti, G. (2013). *2001–2010 glacier changes in the Central Karakoram National Park: A contribution to evaluate the magnitude and rate of the "Karakoram anomaly"* [Preprint]. Glaciers. https://doi.org/10.5194/tcd-7-2891-2013

Mölg, N., Bolch, T., Rastner, P., Strozzi, T., & Paul, F. (2018). A consistent glacier inventory for Karakoram and Pamir derived from Landsat data: Distribution of debris cover and mapping challenges. *Earth System Science Data*, *10*(4), 1807–1827. https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-10-1807-2018

Mukherjee, S., Joshi, P. K., Mukherjee, S., Ghosh, A., Garg, R. D., & Mukhopadhyay, A. (2013). Evaluation of vertical accuracy of open source Digital Elevation Model (DEM). *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *21*, 205–217. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2012.09.004

Müller, J., Dame, J., & Nüsser, M. (2020). Urban Mountain Waterscapes: The Transformation of Hydro-Social Relations in the Trans-Himalayan Town Leh, Ladakh, India. *Water*, *12*(6), 1698. https://doi.org/10.3390/w12061698

National Bureau of Statistics. (2020). Communiqué of the seventh National Population Census. http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/. Accessed 30 September 2021.

Nagai, H., Fujita, K., Sakai, A., Nuimura, T., & Tadono, T. (2016). Comparison of multiple glacier inventories with a new inventory derived from high-resolution ALOS imagery in the Bhutan Himalaya. *The Cryosphere*, *10*(1), 65–85. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-10-65-2016

Negi, H. S., Kumar, A., Kanda, N., Thakur, N. K., & Singh, K. K. (2021). Status of glaciers and climate change of East Karakoram in early twenty-first century. *Science of The Total Environment*, *753*, 141914. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141914

Nuimura, T., Sakai, A., Taniguchi, K., Nagai, H., Lamsal, D., Tsutaki, S., Kozawa, A., Hoshina, Y., Takenaka, S., Omiya, S., Tsunematsu, K., Tshering, P., & Fujita, K. (2015). The GAMDAM glacier inventory: A quality-controlled inventory of Asian glaciers. *The Cryosphere*, *9*(3), 849–864. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-9-849-2015

Nüsser, M., Dame, J., Kraus, B., Baghel, R., & Schmidt, S. (2019). Socio-hydrology of "artificial glaciers" in Ladakh, India: Assessing adaptive strategies in a changing cryosphere. *Regional Environmental Change*, *19*(5), 1327–1337. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-018-1372-0

Nüsser, M., Dame, J., Parveen, S., Kraus, B., Baghel, R., & Schmidt, S. (2019). Cryosphere-Fed Irrigation Networks in the Northwestern Himalaya: Precarious Livelihoods and Adaptation Strategies Under the Impact of Climate Change. *Mountain Research and Development*, *39*(2). https://doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-18-00072.1

Nüsser, M., Schmidt, S., & Dame, J. (2012). Irrigation and Development in the Upper Indus Basin: Characteristics and Recent Changes of a Socio-hydrological System in Central Ladakh, India. *Mountain Research and Development*, *32*(1), 51–61. https://doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-11-00091.1

Paul, F., Barrand, N. E., Baumann, S., Berthier, E., Bolch, T., Casey, K., Frey, H., Joshi, S. P., Konovalov, V., Le Bris, R., Mölg, N., Nosenko, G., Nuth, C., Pope, A., Racoviteanu, A., Rastner, P., Raup, B., Scharrer, K., Steffen, S., & Winsvold, S. (2013). On the accuracy of glacier outlines derived from remote-sensing data. *Annals of Glaciology*, *54*(63), 171–182. https://doi.org/10.3189/2013AoG63A296

Paul, F., Barry, R. G., Cogley, J. G., Frey, H., Haeberli, W., Ohmura, A., Ommanney, C. S. L., Raup, B., Rivera, A., & Zemp, M. (2009). Recommendations for the compilation of glacier inventory data from digital sources. *Annals of Glaciology*, *50*(53), 119–126. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756410790595778

Paul, F., Bolch, T., Briggs, K., Kääb, A., McMillan, M., McNabb, R., Nagler, T., Nuth, C., Rastner, P., Strozzi, T., & Wuite, J. (2017). Error sources and guidelines for quality assessment of glacier area, elevation change, and velocity products derived from satellite data in the Glaciers_cci project. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, *203*, 256–275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.08.038

Pfeffer, W. T., Arendt, A. A., Bliss, A., Bolch, T., Cogley, J. G., Gardner, A. S., Hagen, J.-O., Hock, R., Kaser, G., Kienholz, C., Miles, E. S., Moholdt, G., Mölg, N., Paul, F., Radić, V., Rastner, P., Raup, B. H., Rich, J., Sharp, M. J., & The Randolph Consortium. (2014). The Randolph Glacier Inventory: A globally complete inventory of glaciers. *Journal of Glaciology*, *60*(221), 537–552. https://doi.org/10.3189/2014JoG13J176

Pritchard, H. D. (2019). Asia's shrinking glaciers protect large populations from drought stress. *Nature*, *569*(7758), 649–654. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1240-1

Racoviteanu, A. E., Paul, F., Raup, B., Khalsa, S. J. S., & Armstrong, R. (2009). Challenges and recommendations in mapping of glacier parameters from space: Results of the 2008 Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) workshop, Boulder, Colorado, USA. *Annals of Glaciology*, *50*(53), 53–69. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756410790595804

Racoviteanu, A. E., Rittger, K., & Armstrong, R. (2019). An Automated Approach for Estimating Snowline Altitudes in the Karakoram and Eastern Himalaya From Remote Sensing. *Frontiers in Earth Science*, *7*, 220. https://doi.org/10.3389/feart.2019.00220

Sakai, A. (2019). Brief communication: Updated GAMDAM glacier inventory over high-mountain Asia. *The Cryosphere*, *13*(7), 2043–2049. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-13-2043-2019

Schmidt, S., & Nüsser, M. (2012). Changes of High Altitude Glaciers from 1969 to 2010 in the Trans-Himalayan Kang Yatze Massif, Ladakh, Northwest India. *Arctic, Antarctic, and Alpine Research*, *44*(1), 107–121. https://doi.org/10.1657/1938-4246-44.1.107

Schmidt, S., & Nüsser, M. (2017). Changes of High Altitude Glaciers in the Trans-Himalaya of Ladakh over the Past Five Decades (1969–2016). *Geosciences*, *7*(2), 27. https://doi.org/10.3390/geosciences7020027

Shean, D. E., Bhushan, S., Montesano, P., Rounce, D. R., Arendt, A., & Osmanoglu, B. (2020). A Systematic, Regional Assessment of High Mountain Asia Glacier Mass Balance. *Frontiers in Earth Science*, *7*, 363. https://doi.org/10.3389/feart.2019.00363

Shukla, A., Garg, S., Mehta, M., Kumar, V., & Shukla, U. K. (2020). Temporal inventory of glaciers in the Suru sub-basin, western Himalaya: Impacts of regional climate variability. *Earth System Science Data*, *12*(2), 1245–1265. https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-1245-2020

Singh, S., Kumar, R., Bhardwaj, A., Sam, L., Shekhar, M., Singh, A., Kumar, R., & Gupta, A. (2016). Changing climate and glacio-hydrology in Indian Himalayan Region: A review. *WIREs Climate Change*, *7*(3), 393–410. https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.393

Tielidze, L. G., & Wheate, R. D. (2018). The Greater Caucasus Glacier Inventory (Russia, Georgia and Azerbaijan). *The Cryosphere*, *12*(1), 81–94. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-12-81-2018

Williams, M. W. (2013). The Status of Glaciers in the Hindu Kush–Himalayan Region. *Mountain Research and Development*, *33*(1), 114. https://doi.org/10.1659/mrd.mm113

Winsvold, S. H., Kaab, A., & Nuth, C. (2016). Regional Glacier Mapping Using Optical Satellite Data Time Series. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing*, *9*(8), 3698–3711. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2016.2527063

Yao, J., Chao-lu, Y., & Ping, F. (2020). Evaluation of the Accuracy of SRTM3 and ASTER GDEM in the Tibetan Plateau Mountain Ranges. *E3S Web of Conferences*, *206*, 01027. https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/202020601027

Zhang, M., Wang, X., Shi, C., & Yan, D. (2019). Automated Glacier Extraction Index by Optimization of Red/SWIR and NIR /SWIR Ratio Index for Glacier Mapping Using Landsat Imagery. *Water*, *11*(6), 1223. https://doi.org/10.3390/w11061223

Multitemporal glacier inventory revealing four decades of glacier changes in the Ladakh region

Mohd Soheb[1], Alagappan Ramanathan[1], Anshuman Bhardwaj[2], Millie Coleman[2,3], Brice R. Rea[2], Matteo Spagnolo[2], Shaktiman Singh[2], Lydia Sam[2]

[1] School of Environmental Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, India.

[2]School of Geosciences, University of Aberdeen, United Kingdom.

[3]School of Natural and Built Environment, Queen's University Belfast, United Kingdom.

Correspondence to: Mohd Soheb (sohaib.achaa@gmail.com)

Abstract. Multi-temporal inventories of glacierised regions provide an improved understanding of water resource availability. In this study, we present a Landsat-based multi-temporal inventory of glaciers in four Upper Indus sub-basins and three internal drainage basins in the Ladakh region for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019. The study records data on 2257 glaciers (of individual size >0.5 km^2) covering an area of ~7923 ±106 km^2 which is equivalent to ~30% of the total glacier population and ~89% of the total glacierised area of the region. Glacier area ranged between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2, while glacier length ranged between 0.4±0.02 and 73±0.54 km. Shayok Basin has the largest glacierised area and glacier population, while Tsokar has the least. Results show that the highest concentration of glaciers is found in the higher elevation zones, between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l, with most of the glaciers facing towards the NW-NE quadrant. The error assessment shows that the uncertainty, based on the buffer-based approach, ranges between 2.6 and 5.1% for glacier area, and 1.5 and 2.6% for glacier length with a mean uncertainty of 3.2 and 1.8%, respectively. This multitemporal inventory is in good agreement with previous studies undertaken in parts of the Ladakh region. The new glacier database for the Ladakh region will be valuable for policy-making bodies, and future glaciological and hydrological studies. The data can be viewed and downloaded from *PANGAEA,* https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994.

1. Introduction:

The Himalaya is the largest storehouse of snow and ice outside the Polar Regions. This large reserve of water plays a crucial role in the hydro-economy of the region (Bolch, 2019; Frey et al., 2014; Maurer et al., 2019; Pritchard, 2019). Any change to the Himalayan cryosphere would have a direct impact on the hydrology, further influencing the communities downstream whose livelihood and economy relies on, and are supported by, the major river systems e.g., the Brahmaputra, Ganges and Indus, among others. In high altitude arid regions like Ladakh, where the majority of glaciers are small and restricted to higher altitudes, meltwater serves as an important driver of the economy, especially in years with low winter precipitation when glacier melt becomes the major (or only) source of water (Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017). Recent studies have reported that Himalayan glaciers are retreating at an alarming rate (Azam et al., 2021; Bolch, 2019; Kääb et al., 2015; Maurer et al., 2019; Pritchard, 2019; Shean et al., 2020, among others) with glaciers of the Western Himalayas showing less shrinkage than the glaciers of the central and eastern parts (Azam et al., 2021; Shukla et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2016). Glaciers in the nearby Karakoram region display long-term irregular behaviour with frequent glacier advances/surges and minimal shrinkage, which is yet to be fully understood (Azam et al., 2021; Bhambri et al., 2013; Bolch et al., 2012; Kulkarni, 2010; Liu et al., 2006; Minora et al., 2013; Negi et al., 2021). Glaciers of the Karakoram region experienced an increase in area post-2000, due to surge-type glaciers. In just the upper Shayok valley, as many as 18 glaciers, occupying more than one-third of the glacierised area, showed surge-type behaviour (Bhambri et al., 2011, 2013; Negi et al., 2021). However, not all regions of Ladakh have been analysed at the same level of spatio-temporal detail. In particular, our knowledge of glacier dynamics and their response to climate change is still incomplete in the cold-arid, high-altitude Ladakh region (~105,476 km^2) comprising both, the Himalayan and Karakoram ranges. Few studies have focused on the glaciers of this region (e.g. Bhambri et al., 2011, 2013; Chudley et al., 2017; Negi et al., 2021; Nüsser et al., 2012; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017; Shukla et al., 2020).

The advent of remote sensing technologies has permitted the mapping and measuring of various glacier attributes even in the absence of sufficient in-situ observations (Bhardwaj et al., 2015). Glacierised area estimations have often relied on global and regional glacier inventories such as the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI), Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS), Geological Survey of India (GSI) inventory and Space Application Centre India (SAC) inventory, among others (Chinese Glacier Inventory (CGI), Glacier Area Mapping for Discharge from the Asian Mountains (GAMDAM), International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)). However, given the large scale of these inventories, automated techniques are employed, in most of the cases, to map and calculate glacier extent with differing levels of success. Additionally, the varying quality of satellite imagery acquired from different time periods are sometimes necessitated in high mountain areas, such as Ladakh. Together, these two factors can lead to over- or under-estimation of glacier areas leading to erroneous information on temporal change. Moreover, there is no multi-temporal glacier inventory available for the entire Ladakh region, which can inform us on the changes in the natural frozen water reserves which have put the water security of this entire cold-arid region under significant stress during recent years. The residents of Ladakh have witnessed a decrease in agricultural yields, the main driver of economic development of the region, due to a decrease in water resources (Barrett & Bosak, 2018). The water scarcity together with an increase in tourism footprint (four times more tourists (327,366) in 2018 than 2010, a number that is more than the entire population of Ladakh) has led to a shift in livelihood from agriculture to other commercial activities (Müller et al., 2020), though even the latter relies heavily on water resources. In order to cope with water scarcity, some people of Ladakh have developed new water management techniques, commonly known as 'ice reservoirs' or 'ice stupas', to supplement agricultural activities (Nüsser, et al., 2019a,b).

This study presents a new multi-temporal glacier inventory for the Union Territory of Ladakh, India, covering 42 years of change between 1977 and 2019. This new dataset and analyses of glacier distribution will help to improve understanding of the glacier dynamics and the impact of ongoing climate change on water resources in the Ladakh region, where glaciers are the only source of water in the dry season. The inventories are entirely based on Landsat images acquired mostly during late-summer with additional quality control provided through high-resolution PlanetScope and Google Earth imagery. We further establish a comparison with the existing inventories and data available in recent studies from the region. The dataset produced in this study can be viewed and downloaded from: *PANGAEA*, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994 (Soheb et al., 2022)

2. Study Area:

This study focuses on glaciers in the Upper Indus Basin (UIB) upstream of Skardu and three internal drainage/endorheic basins (IDBs) within Ladakh, namely Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong Basins. The geographic extent of the study area lies within a latitude of 31.1º to 35.6º N and a longitude of 75.1º to 81.8º E and covers a vast region of the Karakoram and Western Himalayan ranges. UIB has an area of ~105,476 km^2, of which ~8302 km^2 (8%) is glacierised by ~6300 glaciers spanning elevations between ~3400 m and ~7500 m a.s.l. (as per RGI 6.0). IDBs of Tsokar (1036 km^2), Tsomoriri (5462 km^2) and Pangong (21,206 km^2) house ~30, 345 and 812 glaciers, comprising a glacierised area of ~7 (0.6%), 185 (3.4%) and 437 (2.1%) km^2, respectively (as per RGI 6.0). The glaciers of IDBs are at a comparatively higher elevation, spanning from ~4800 to ~6800 m a.s.l. Meltwater from these glaciers drains into the lakes within each basin. Pangong Lake (a saline lake), situated at an elevation of ~4241 m a.s.l., is the largest with an area of ~703 km^2. Both Tsomoriri (freshwater lake at ~4522 m a.s.l.) and Tsokar (saline lake at ~4531 m a.s.l.) Lakes are designated Ramsar sites which occupy areas of ~140 and ~15 km^2, respectively. Since the majority of the investigated area (UIB and IDBs combined) falls within Ladakh, the combined area of UIB and IDBs will be referred to as "Ladakh region" hereafter.

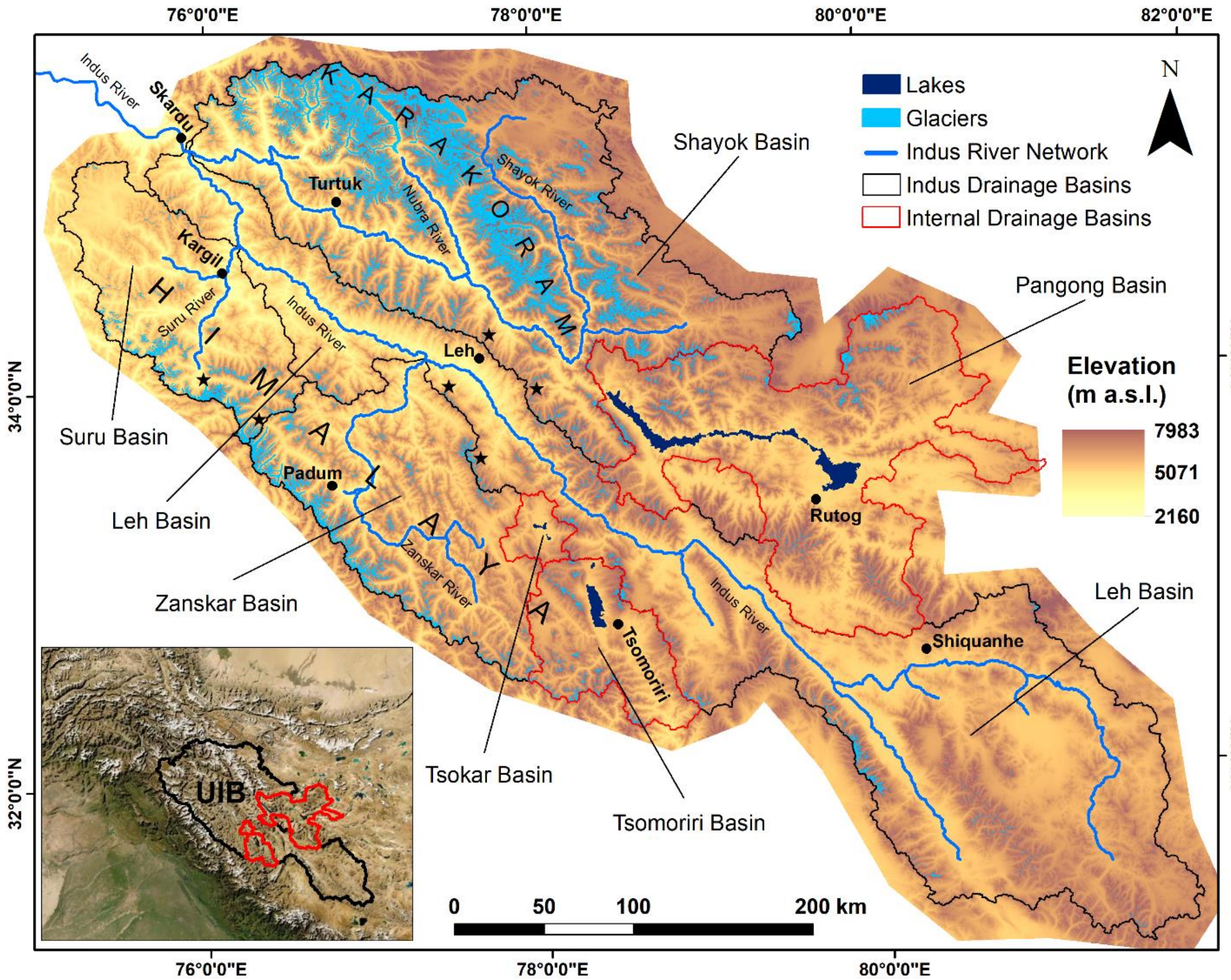


Figure 1: Location map of the study area: the boundaries of studied Upper Indus Basin and internal drainage basins are outlined in black and red on the digital elevation model (DEM) and in the inset map. Inset map shows the study area with respect to the Himalayan and Karakoram region. Black dots and stars represent the respective basins' major settlements and field investigated glaciers. ASTER Global DEM was used to produce the base map.

The Ladakh region has a cold-arid climate due to the rain shadow and elevation effects of the Himalaya and Karakoram mountains (Schmidt & Nüsser, 2017). Mean annual air temperature and annual precipitation range between 0 to 10 ºC and 20 to 145 mm, respectively (Hersbach et al., 2020; Figure 2). This region is inhabited by ~700,000 people (as per Census of India 2011, Census of China 2020), most of which are directly, or indirectly, dependent on snow and glacier meltwater to support hydropower generation, irrigation and domestic needs.

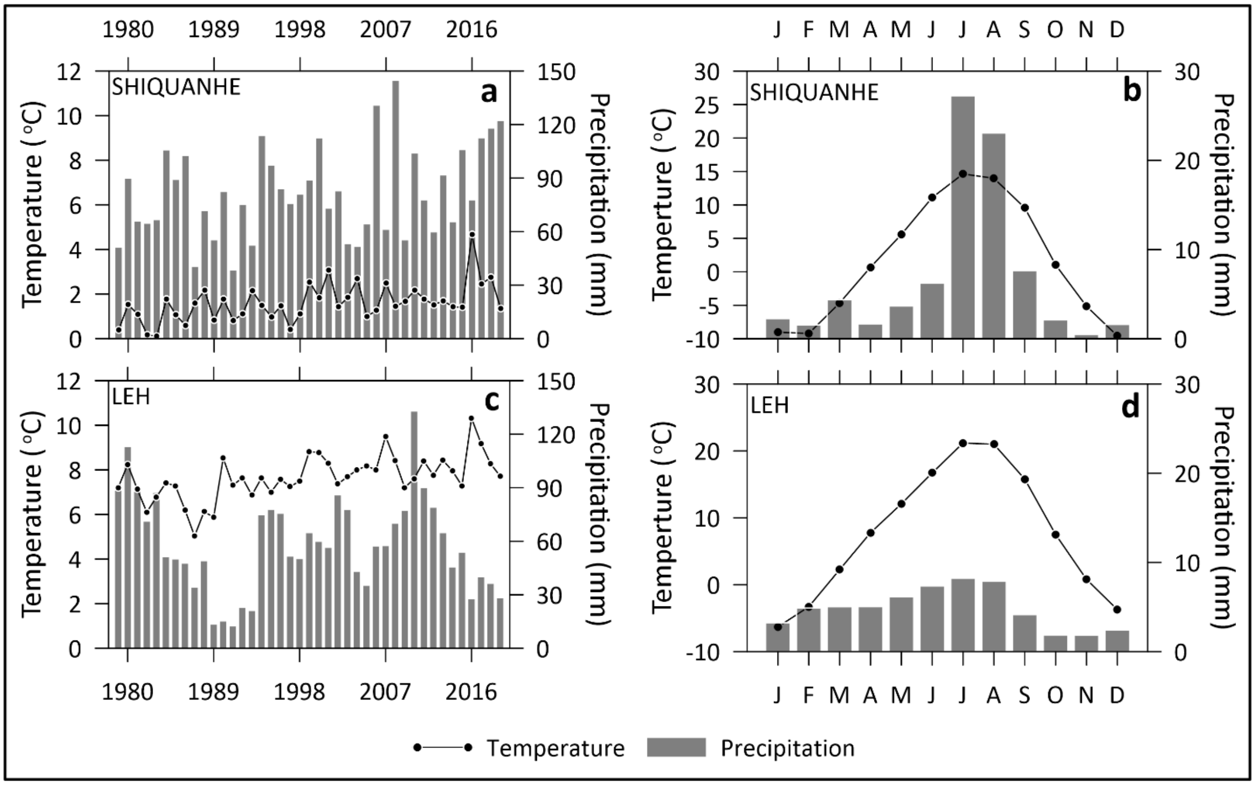


Figure 2: Mean annual (a, c) and monthly (b, d) temperature and precipitation at Shiquanhe and Leh stations.

3. Data and methods

3.1. Data

This study utilises multiple Landsat level-1 precision and terrain (L1TP) corrected scenes (63 scenes in total) from four different periods: 1977±5 (hereafter 1977), 1994±1 (hereafter 1994), 2009 and 2019±1 (hereafter 2019). Scenes from the 1970s are majorly (12 out of 17) from the year 1976 and 1977 however due to higher cloud cover and less availability of imagery during the earlier Landsat period, five scenes from 1972, 1979 and 1980 were also included to aid the digitization of glaciers (Table S1). Images from the late in the ablation season (July-October), having least snow and cloud cover (<30% overall, and not over the glacierised parts), were selected and used for glacier identification and boundary delineation. Advanced Space borne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer Global Digital Elevation Model (ASTER GDEM) scenes were also used for basin delineation and calculating slope, aspect and elevation metrics of the glaciers. Glacier digitisation, basin delineation and calculation of area were all performed in ArcGIS 10.4. Details of the imagery used in this study are presented in (Table 1 and Table S1).

Table 1: Information on the satellite imagery used in this study (Detailed info. in Table S1).

Dataset	Year of Acquisition	Spatial Resolution	No. of image used	Source	Purpose
Landsat MSS	1977±5	60m	17	https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/	Glacier area mapping
Landsat TM	1994±1, 2009	30m	14, 18		

Landsat OLI	2019±1	15m	14		
ASTER GDEM	2000-2013	30m	17	https://earthdata.nasa.gov/	Topography and basin delineation

3.2. Basin delineation

Basin delineation was carried using ASTER GDEM V003 and the Hydrology tool in ArcGIS. The input DEM was first analysed to fill-in all sinks with careful consideration of the potential for basin area over-estimation (Khan et al., 2014). UIB was delineated using a pour point selected at the Indus River in Skardu as we aimed to assess all the tributary basins of the Ladakh region. The UIB obtained by this approach was further divided into second-order tributary basins, i.e., Shayok, Suru, Zanskar and Leh Basins. A small portion of the leftover area from UIB after second-order tributary basin delineation was merged into the Leh Basin in order to investigate the UIB upstream of Skardu. Delineation of the three endorheic basins (IDBs) that lie partially or completely in the Ladakh region, i.e., Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong Basins, was also carried out using the same method with the help of respective lakes as a pour point. The digitisation of the three lakes (Tsokar, Tsomoriri and Pangong Lake) was carried out manually for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 using Landsat imagery.

3.3. Glacier mapping

Glaciers were mapped using a two-way approach, closely following the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) guidelines (Paul et al., 2009): 1) automatic mapping of the clean glacier and 2) manually correcting the glacier outlines and digitisation of debris cover. First, a band ratio approach between NIR (Near Infrared) and SWIR (Shortwave Infrared) (as suggested by Paul et al., 2002, 2015; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Bhardwaj et al 2015; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2017; Smith et al., 2015; Winsvold et al., 2014, 2016) with a threshold of 2.0 (NIR/SWIR > 2 = ice/snow) was used on 2019 Landsat OLI images to delineate the clean part of glaciers. A median filter of kernel size 3 x 3 was applied to remove the isolated and small pixels outside the glacier area. The NIR and SWIR band ratio approach is good at distinguishing glacier pixels from water features with similar spectral reflectance values (Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). This approach failed in areas with high snow/cloud cover, shadows, frozen channels/lakes and debris cover. The snow/cloud cover and frozen lakes/stream problem were addressed by selecting Landsat scenes from the ablation period (July-October) with the cloud cover < 30%. The issue with the snow-covered regions in accumulation zones, where the delineation was the most challenging, was resolved using the best available imagery of any time between 1977 and 2019 because glaciers are not expected to change their shape significantly in the higher accumulation zones. One of the major issues was the debris covered glaciers, which had to be manually digitised, with the support of high-resolution Google Earth and PlanetScope imagery from 2019 ±2. The result was then used as a basis for manual digitisation of debris covered glaciers in other years where high-resolution images are not available. In most cases, identification of the glacier terminus was made with certain contextual characteristics at the snout, e.g., the emergence of meltwater streams, proglacial lakes, ice walls, end moraines etc. (Figure S1).

The glacier outlines from 2019 were used as a starting point for the subsequent digitization of glacier areas in 2009, 1994 and 1977. Glacier length was measured using a semi-automatic approach, by employing the DEM to identify a central flow line for each mapped glacier (Ji et al., 2017; Le Bris & Paul, 2013). Further manual corrections were undertaken to account for the flow lines of glaciers that have multiple tributaries and multiple highest/lowest points. Furthermore, some mapping errors are still expected to be present in this inventory due to a possible misinterpretation of glacier features, and the quantification of such errors are difficult owing to the lack of reliable reference in-situ data in the Ladakh region. Such errors were minimized by keeping a fixed map-scale of 1:10,000 in most cases, and undertaking a quality check on glacier outlines using high-resolution images. In case of MSS images and smaller glaciers, a map-scale of 1:25,000 was also used whenever required.

Other specific glacier attributes were also extracted including new glacier Ids, Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS)-Ids, Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI 6.0)-Ids, coordinates (latitude and longitude), elevation (maximum, mean and minimum), aspect (mean), slope (mean), area, length (maximum), area uncertainty and length uncertainty.

3.4. Uncertainty

This study involves the use of satellite imagery to extract various glacier parameters. It is therefore subject to uncertainties which may arise mainly from four different sources: (1) the quality of the image (with potential issues due to seasonal snow, shadows and cloud cover), (2) sensor characteristics (spatial/spectral resolution), (3) interpretation of glacial features and methodology used, and (4) post-processing techniques (Le Bris & Paul, 2013; Paul et al., 2013, 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009, 2019). Error due to sources 1, 3, and 4 are generally minor and can be visually identified and corrected (section 3.3), but an exact quantification is difficult due to the lack of reference data available from the region (Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020). Type 4 errors are significant and have an impact on both glacier area and length estimation. Therefore, we applied a buffer-based assessment to glacier areas with the buffer width set to one-pixel for debris covered and a half-pixel for clean ice (Bolch et al., 2010; Granshaw & Fountain, 2006; Mölg et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020; Tielidze & Wheate, 2018), given that the level 1TP Landsat images were corrected to sub-pixel geometric accuracy (Bhambri et al., 2013). A buffer-based method provides the maximum and minimum estimates of uncertainty with respect to glacier size, where the values vary with size of the glacier and spatial resolution of the imagery used. Thus, it is more specific to the dataset and most recommended when there is no reliable reference data available (Paul et al., 2017; Racoviteanu et al., 2009; Shukla et al., 2020). The same approach was also followed to estimate the uncertainties in lake areas with one-pixel as the buffer width.

The associated uncertainty for smaller glaciers (<0.5 km^2) amounts to ~12-25%. Therefore, all the glaciers with an area of less than 0.5 km^2, which comprise ~70% and ~10% of the total glacier count and glacierised area respectively, are not included in this study. For the remaining glaciers, the uncertainty in glacier area ranged between ±2.1 and ±7.2% depending on the spatial resolution of the satellite imagery and the individual glacier size. The highest uncertainty was for the year 1977 due to the coarser spatial resolution of Landsat MSS data when applied to the smallest glaciers (0.5-1 km^2). For most of the glaciers, lengths are assumed to be accurate to ±1 pixel at the terminus (Le Bris & Paul, 2013). Therefore, a buffer of one-pixel was set to determine the uncertainty in glacier length. The length uncertainty ranged between ±1.5 and ±2.6% with maximum uncertainty observed for the smallest glacier category (0.5-1 km^2). The methods yielded an overall uncertainty of 4.2, 1.8 and 1.5% for glacier area, glacier length and lake area, respectively (Table S2).

Uncertainties related to other attributes (mean elevation, mean slope and mean aspect) of the inventory are difficult to estimate due to the use of the ASTER GDEM product in this study, which was developed using a collage of archived scenes acquired between 2000 and 2013. In addition, the local undulations and surface change over time will have only marginal effects on parameters (elevation, slope and aspect) that are averaged over the entire glacier as averaging compensates for most of the changes (Frey & Paul, 2012). However, for parameters like maximum and minimum elevations, where one cell is used and no averaging is applied, the uncertainty is ~ ±9m, as the vertical accuracy of ASTER GDEM is ±8.55m for glacierised areas of high Asia (Yao et al., 2020) and ±8.86m elsewhere (Mukherjee et al., 2013).

4. Results

4.1. General statistics

In total, 2257 glaciers (>0.5 km^2) were compiled in the current inventory (Table 2), with a total glacierised area of ~8511±430, 8173±215, 8096±214 and 7923 ±106 km^2 for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019, respectively. The glacierised area corresponds to ~6% of the Ladakh region with individual areas ranging between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2. Glacier length in the Ladakh region varies between 0.4±0.02 and 73±0.54 km with a mean length of 2.9±0.05 km. About 90% of the glaciers are shorter than 5km in length while only 6% of glaciers have a length of < 1km. Larger glaciers are mainly located in the Shayok and Zanskar Basins with the Siachen Glacier being the largest (862±16 km^2), longest (73±0.54 km) and covers the greatest elevation range of ~3616m (3702-7318m a.s.l.). The major lakes in each endorheic basins of Pangong, Tsokar and Tsomoriri occupy an area of 3, 2 and 2.5%, respectively. The lake areas for the year 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 were 610±14, 619±8, 669±8 and 705±8 km^2 for Pangong, 13.5±0.9, 17±0.7, 18.3±0.7 and 18.8±0.6 km^2 for Tsokar and 140±2.6, 141±1.3, 141±1.3 and 141±1.1 km^2, respectively.

4.2. Glacier distribution in the Ladakh region

Glacierised areas and population in the Ladakh region vary across basins. Shayok Basin has the largest distribution of glacierised area and population (74% and 56%), whereas the Tsokar Basin has the least (0.04% and 0.1%), respectively (Table 2). Based on size distribution, the glacier area category of 1-5km^2 comprises the highest area (28% of the total), while the category of 50-100km^2 occupies the least glacierised area (9%) of the region. Most glaciers (~90% of the total) in the Ladakh region have an area of <5km^2 but occupy only 37% of the total glacierised area. The population and area of glaciers in each area class are different in each basin but the proportion of glaciers, smaller than 5km^2, is greater than 87% in all basins. Glaciers larger than 100 km^2 (n=7, < 1% of the total) are only present in the Shayok Basin and occupy ~24 and 32% of the total glacierised area of Ladakh and Shayok Basin, respectively.

4.3. Glacier hypsometry, slope and aspect

Figure 3 (iii and iv) shows the glacier elevations and hypsometry with 100m elevation intervals of seven basins of the Ladakh region. The highest and lowest glacier elevation are 7740 and 3249m a.s.l., both in the Shayok Basin. Whereas mean elevation of the glacier ranges between 4345-6355m a.s.l. (Figure 3iii). Small glaciers mainly occupy the higher elevations above 5500, and vice versa. The majority (73%, 5810 km^2) of the glacierised area is distributed in the 5000-6000 m a.s.l. elevation range, while only 14% is located below 5000m, and 13% above 6000m a.s.l. (Figure 3iv). The mean slope of these glaciers ranges between 8 and 46º, and is found to decrease with increasing glacier area. Glaciers with an area greater than 100 km^2 (n- 7, <1% of the total) have the lowest mean slope of 13º whereas, higher mean slopes (23º) are found for smaller glaciers (43% of the total). Overall, the mean glacier slope is ~21º (Figure 3v). Around 74% (1665) of the glaciers face the northern quadrant (NW-NE) amounting to ~50% (3940 km^2) of the glacierised area. While 9, 5, 3, 3 and 4% of the glaciers face East, South-East, South, South-West and West which constitute 24, 6, 8, 6 and 6% of the glacierised area, respectively. However, the orientation and respective area coverage of glaciers vary within individual basins (Figure 3i, ii).

Table 2: Basin-wide glacier information of Ladakh region based on present study for the year 2019.

Basin	Basin area km^2	Total Area > 0.5 km^2		Area 0.5-1 km^2		Area 1-5 km^2		Area 5-10 km^2		Area 10-50 km^2		Area 50-100 km^2		Area > 100 km^2	
		Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2
All	132180	2257	7923	980	694	1053	2206	124	853	84	1617	10	674	7	1879
Shayok	33579	1268 (56%)	5864 (74%)	495 (51%)	351 (51%)	609 (58%)	1304 (59%)	88 (71%)	621 (73%)	60 (71%)	1151 (71%)	8 (80%)	559 (83%)	7 (100%)	1879 (100%)
Leh	46579	247 (11%)	334 (4%)	147 (15%)	105 (16%)	95 (9%)	191 (9%)	4 (3%)	26 (3%)	1 (1%)	12 (1%)	0	0	0	0
Suru	10502	201 (9%)	498 (6%)	81 (8%)	59 (9%)	100 (9%)	212 (10%)	12 (10%)	69 (8%)	8 (10%)	159 (10%)	0	0	0	0
Zanskar	14817	256 (12%)	775 (10%)	116 (12%)	82 (12%)	111 (11%)	235 (11%)	15 (12%)	108 (13%)	12 (14%)	235 (15%)	2 (20%)	115 (17%)	0	0
Tsokar	1036	3 (0.1%)	3.5 (0.04%)	2 (0.2%)	1.5 (0.2%)	1 (0.1%)	2 (0.1%)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tsomoriri	5462	94 (4%)	135 (2%)	47 (5%)	22 (3%)	46 (4%)	95 (4%)	1 (1%)	7 (1%)	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pangong	21206	190 (8%)	315 (4%)	92 (9%)	63 (9%)	91 (9%)	168 (8%)	4 (3%)	22 (2%)	3 (4%)	60 (4%)	0	0	0	0

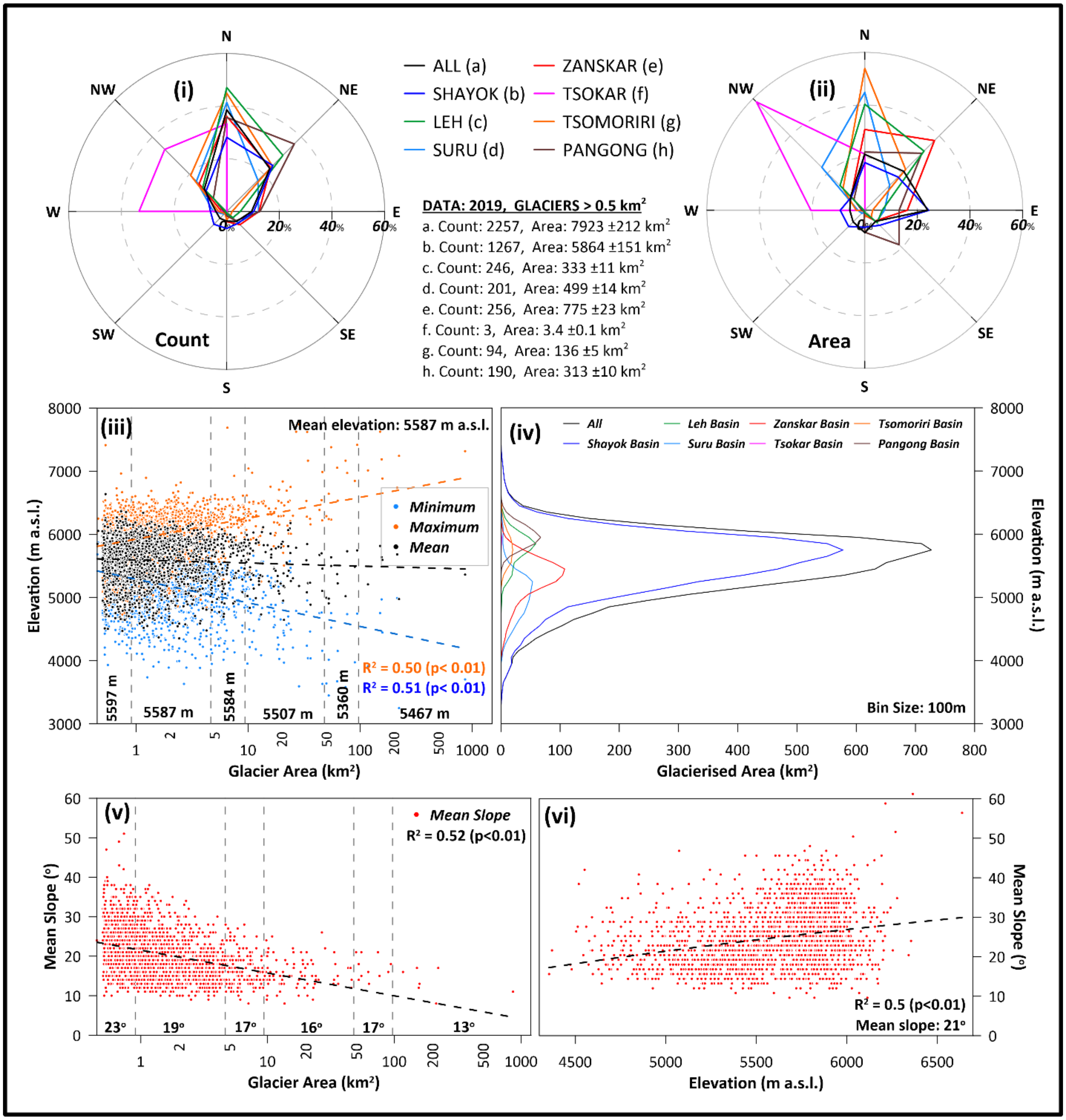


Figure 3: General statistics of the glaciers in the Ladakh region: orientation of glaciers (i) and associated area distribution (ii), Maximum, minimum and mean elevation of glaciers (iii), hypsometry of glacierised area (iv) and slope against glacier area (v) and elevation (vi).

5. Discussion

5.1. The produced dataset and limitations

The multitemporal inventory of glaciers (>0.5 km^2) in the Ladakh region for the years 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 is available at PANGAEA portal (https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994; Soheb et al., 2022). The dataset is provided in two different GIS-ready file formats, i.e., GeoPackages (*.gpkg) and Shapefiles (*.dbf, *.prj, *.sbn, *.sbx, *.shp, *.shx) to support a wider end users. GeoPackage is a relatively new and open-source file format which is now being widely used and supported, whereas Shapefile format is one of the most widely used proprietary but open file formats for vector datasets, supported by open-source GIS tools such as QGIS. The outlines of glaciers, basins and lakes are all referenced to the WGS 84 / UTM zone 43N datum. For each region, there is one file for basin outlines, and four files for glacier and lake (if present) outlines for 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019. Each glacier outline file contains glacier Ids (New glacier Ids, Randolph Glacier Inventory 6.0 Ids, and Global Land Ice Measurements from Space initiative Ids), coordinates (latitude and longitude), elevation (maximum, mean and minimum), aspect (mean), slope (mean), area, length (maximum), area uncertainty and length uncertainty. Whereas, the Lake Outline file contains coordinates, area, elevation and area uncertainty.

When using this dataset it is important to understand the key limitations of such regional-scale glacier inventories. Some of the key user limitations of the dataset are: (1) Glaciers smaller than 0.5 km^2 (which comprise ~70% and ~10% of the total glacier population and glacierised area, respectively) were not included in this inventory due to the higher uncertainty (~12-25%) associated with these glacier outlines; (2) Inventories produced in this study are entirely based on the medium resolution Landsat imagery, in the same way as other global or regional-scale glacier inventories. Although the uncertainty associated with these inventories do not considerably impact regional-scale analyses, care should be taken while using these data for a small subset of glaciers. It should also be noted that it is not feasible to produce multitemporal inventories regionally using high-resolution datasets due to the paucity and high costs of such high-resolution datasets; (3) The inventories of 1977±5, 1994±1 and 2019±1 are produced using images with a range of acquisition dates due to the lack of data continuity within a particular year (more details in section 3.1); and (4) The time periods chosen in this study are based on the availability of datasets and sufficient temporal gaps between the datasets to allow multitemporal glacio-hydrological analyses.

5.2. Significance of the present inventory

The glacier inventory presented here has several improvements compared to the existing regional and global inventories. Firstly, it covers the glaciers (> 0.5 km^2; n = 2257; ~7923 ±106 km^2) for the entire Ladakh region with manual correction and quality control undertaken using freely available high-resolution images. The analyses were further extended to estimate the distribution of ice masses at the sub-basin scale. Secondly, the temporal aspect of the glacierised area will aid hydrological and glaciological modelling aimed at understanding past and future system evolution. Finally, the new inventory will aid both the scientific community studying the glaciers and water resources of the Ladakh region, and the administration of the Union Territory of Ladakh, Government of India in developing efficient mitigation and adaptation strategies by improving the projections of change on timescales relevant to policy makers.

5.3. Comparison of inventories in the Ladakh region

Differences in estimates of the glacierised areas are meaningful as they can lead to an over or under estimation of the available water resources. Therefore, correctly estimating glacier area over time is necessary for understanding glacier dynamics, future response to climate forcing and the water resources they provide. Table 3 presents a comparison between the present inventory and the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI) 6.0 (Pfeffer et al., 2014), the International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) inventory (Bajracharya et al., 2011, 2019; Williams, 2013) and the Glacier Area Mapping for Discharge in Asian Mountains (GAMDAM) inventory (Guo et al., 2015; Nuimura et al., 2015; Sakai, 2019), for the Ladakh region. The comparison involves glacier outlines for 2009 from the present study and excludes glaciers smaller than 0.5 km^2 from regional inventories to achieve the closest match temporally and for glacier size categories. This should be taken as a first order comparison, given the fact that the uncertainties have been estimated with different approaches for the different inventories. Specifically the uncertainty estimated for the GAMDAM and ICIMOD inventories differs only slightly to the one applied here, given that they used a normalized standard deviation approach on the datasets produced by several operators on the same subset of glaciers (Bajracharya et al., 2011, 2019; Guo et al., 2015; Nuimura et al., 2015; Sakai, 2019). Whereas, in case of RGI 6.0 inventory, the uncertainty estimation approach differs significantly from the one presented here, because their errors were calculated on a collection of glaciers due to the vast quantity of data acquired from multiple sources and approaches used to produced them (Pfeffer et al., 2014). Figure 4 presents a comparison of the only three inventories (present, RGI 6.0 and ICIMOD) for the five field-investigated glaciers of Ladakh region because RGI and GAMDAM inventories share the same outlines for these glaciers.

The comparison showed a higher glacierised area in the RGI/GAMDAM inventories and lower in the ICIMOD inventory (Table 3) than the present inventory, with most of the differences contributed by the basins having the higher glacierised areas (Shayok and Zanskar) and from the larger glaciers (>10 km^2). Such inconsistencies among the inventories are a product of several factors, e.g. 1) absence of change in glaciers over time due to the use of imagery with a wide range of acquisition years (Figure 4 a, c, d); 2) misinterpretation of the glacier terminus due to icing, debris, snow and cloud cover (Nagai et al., 2016), and 3) the methodology used. The smaller difference between the present and the ICIMOD inventory is mainly due to the adoption of a similar technique (i.e., a semi-automated approach) and the shorter time frame of the analysis that generated the ICIMOD inventory (i.e., 2002-2009).

Table 3: Basin and class wise comparison of the glacierised area between the present study and other inventories (RGI 6.0, ICIMOD and GAMDAM).

Region	**Present Study**	**RGI 6.0**			**GAMDAM**			**ICIMOD**		
	Area	Area	Difference		Area	Difference		Area	Difference	
	km^2	km^2	km^2	%	km^2	km^2	%	km^2	km^2	%
Shayok	5938	6999	1061	15	6616	678	10	5456	-482	-9
Zanskar	808	880	72	8	932	124	13	819	11	1
Suru	532	525	-7	-1	564	32	6	506	-26	-5
Leh	354	342	-12	-3	356	2	1	322	-32	-10
Tsokar	4	4.4	1	15	4.3	1	13	4.1	0	9
Tsomoriri	141	142	1	1	143	2	2	116	-25	-21

Pangong	320	320	0	0	335	15	4	-	-	-
					Area Class					
0.5-1	758	774	16	2	803	45	6	662	-96	-7
1-5.	2284	2437	153	6	2385	101	4	1958	-326	-12
5-10.	862	961	99	10	925	63	7	766	-96	-10
10-50.	1628	1959	331	17	1824	196	11	1356	-272	-20
50-100	678	730	52	7	599	-79	-13	592	-86	-15
>100	1887	2351	464	20	2412	525	22	1887	0	0
Total	**8096**	**9212**	**1116**	**14**	**8950**	**854**	**11**	**7223**	**-533**	**-7**

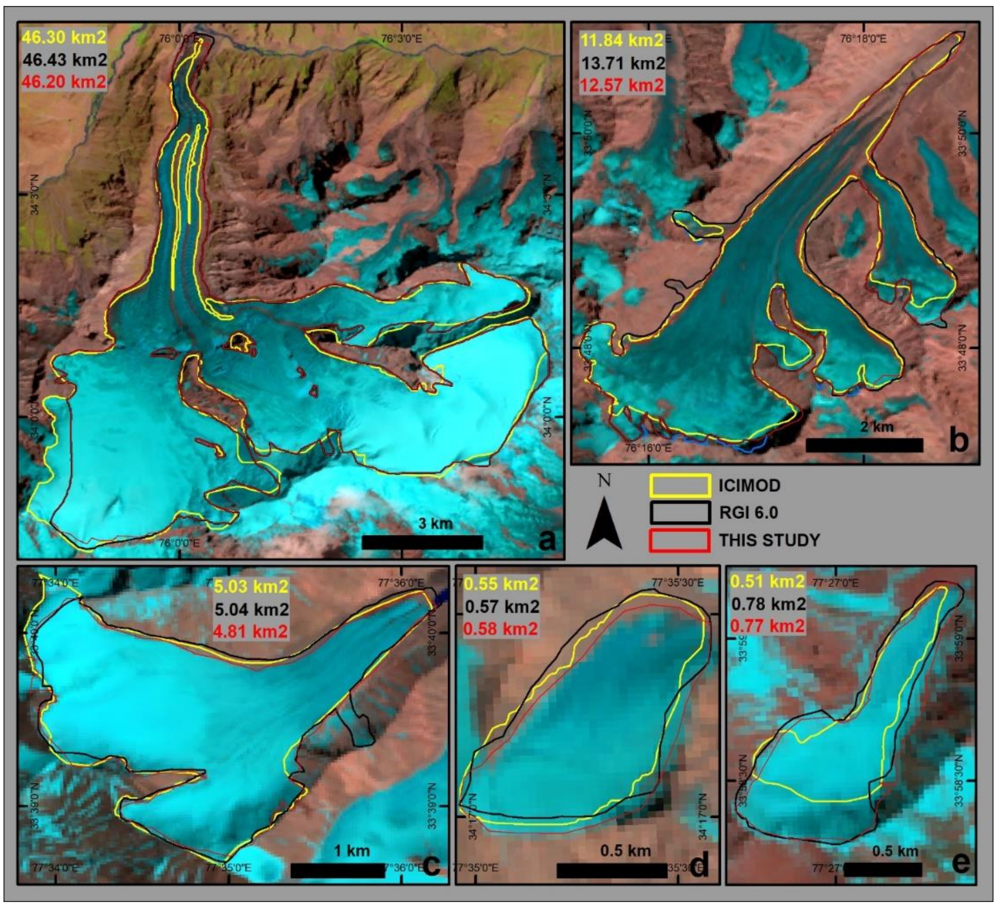


Figure 4: Comparison of inventories on the field investigated glaciers of the Ladakh region: a) Parkachik glacier, Suru Basin; b) Pensila glacier, Suru Basin; c) Lato glacier, Leh Basin; d) Khardung glacier, Shayok Basin; e) Stok glacier, Leh Basin.

5.4. Comparison with recent studies

The data from the recent spatio-temporal change studies from different sub-regions of Ladakh (Figure 5) are not in the public domain, except from Shukla et al., 2020. Hence, it is not possible to use these to validate our results.

Therefore, our comparison mostly focuses on the rate of change for some of the individual glaciers (n=21, Figure 5) from the literature and the bulk properties of a set of glaciers in different regions (Table S3, Figure 6). Our results agree well with the studies conducted by others (Bhambri et al., 2013; Chudley et al., 2017; Garg et al., 2022; Garg et al., 2021; Negi et al., 2021; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017; Shukla et al., 2020) on individual glaciers of various sizes as well as on a set of glaciers, respectively (Figure 6, Table S3). However, the results differ significantly only on some glaciers and especially in a part of the Shayok Basin (e.g. Kumdan (D), Aktash (E) and Thusa glaciers(I)). In the Shayok Basin surge-type glaciers are common (Bhambri et al., 2013, 2017), the difference in analysis period between the present and other studies is the likely cause of the difference in glacier area statistics. Figure S2 presents the dynamics of the Kumdan and Aktash glaciers as an example of surge type glacier of this region.

No significant difference was observed in rate of change of glacierised areas between the present study and other studies in the Leh, Tsomoriri, Zaskar and Suru Basins. In contrast, the number of glaciers and glacierised area vary among these studies (present and others) but paint a similar picture of relatively lower retreat in the Shayok Basin (Bhambri et al., 2013; Negi et al., 2021), higher in Leh, Tsokar, Tsomoriri (Chudley et al., 2017; Schmidt & Nüsser, 2012, 2017) and moderate in Zanskar and Suru Basins (Garg et al., 2022; Garg et al., 2022; Shukla et al., 2020).

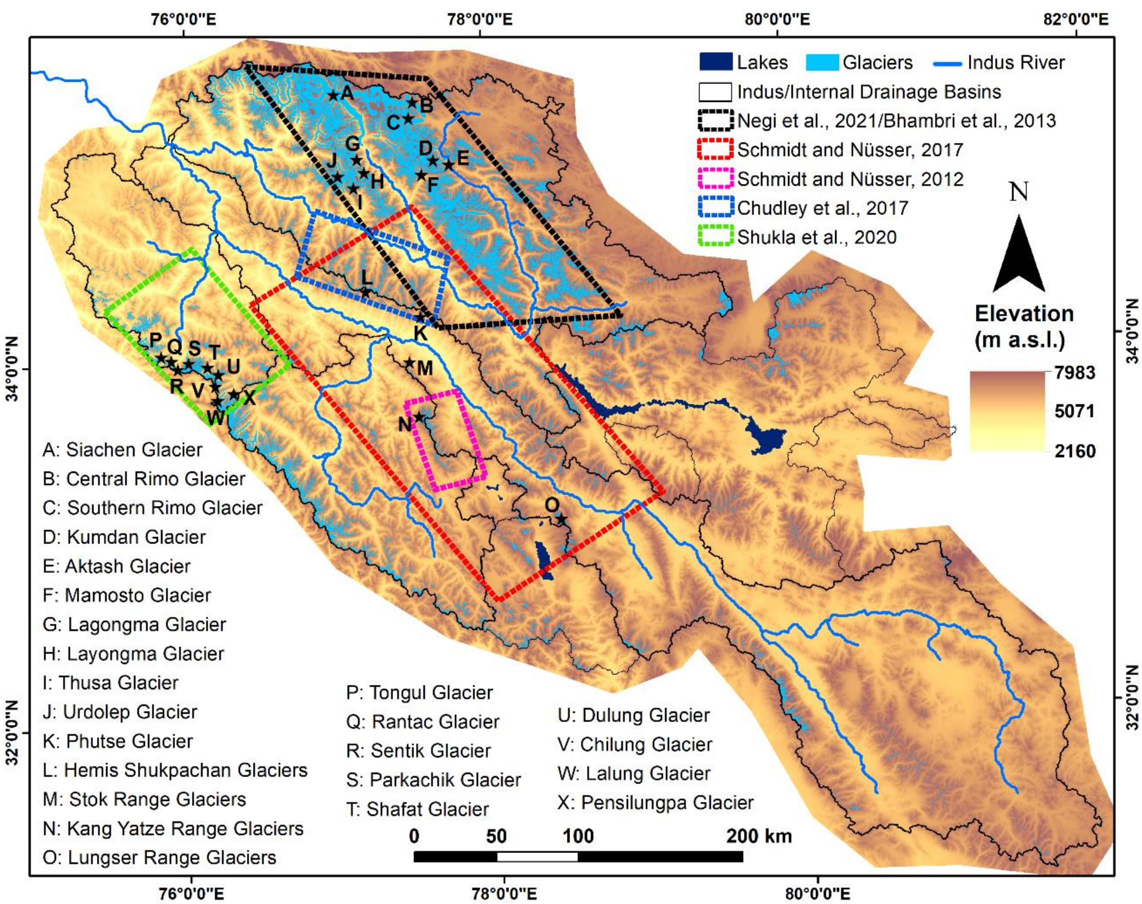


Figure 5: Presents the spatial extent of different studies undertaken in Ladakh region. Black stars represent the individual glaciers.

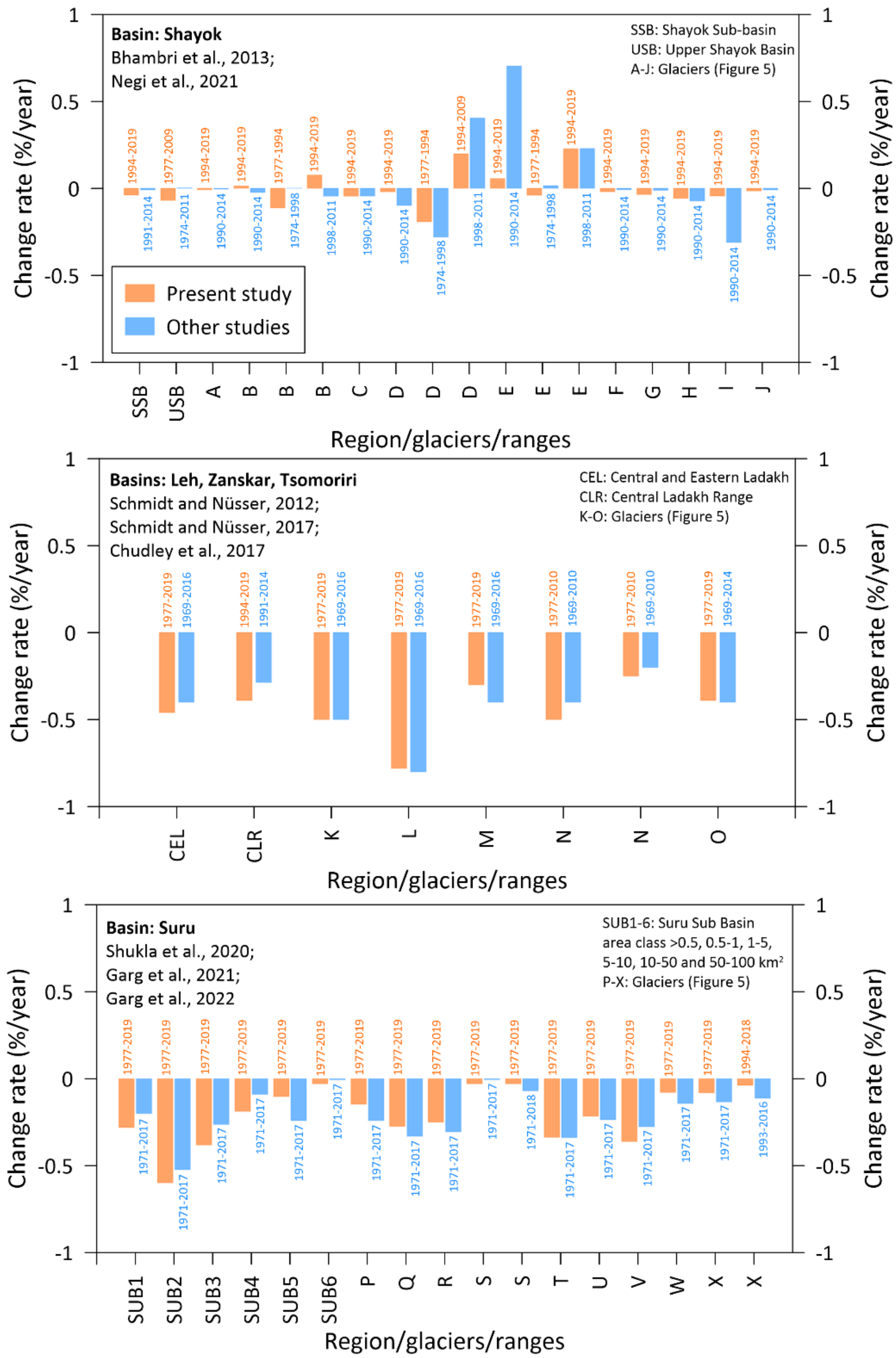


Figure 6: Comparison between the present study and other studies undertaken in different basins of Ladakh region over different time periods

6. Data availability

The entire dataset of the Landsat based multitemporal inventory of glaciers, larger than 0.5 km^2, in Ladakh region for the year 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 will be available at: *PANGAEA*, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.940994 (Soheb et al., 2022).

7. Conclusions

We compiled a new glacier inventory of the Ladakh region for 1977, 1994, 2009 and 2019 based on 63 Landsat (MSS, TM and OLL) images, with least cloud/snow cover, acquired during the summer time (July-October). The inventory includes 2257 glaciers, larger than 0.5 km^2, covering an area of ~7923 ±106 km^2 which is ~14% and ~11% less than the RGI 6.0 and the GAMDAM, and 7% more than the ICIMOD inventories. The glacierised area accounts for ~6% of the Ladakh region with individual glacier areas ranging between 0.5±0.02 and 862±16 km^2. About 90% of the glacier population are smaller than 5km^2 but combined they occupy only 37% of the glacierised area. The seven largest glaciers, larger than 100 km^2, account for ~1879 km^2 or 24% of the total. The Shayok Basin and glacier area category 1-5km^2 hosts the highest number of glacier population and glacierised area; whereas, Tsokar Basin accounts for the least. More than 70% of the glaciers are in the north-facing quadrant (NW-NE) and are concentrated in the higher elevation zones, between 5000 and 6000 m a.s.l. The error assessment shows that the uncertainty, based on a buffer-based approach, ranges between 2.6 and 5.1% for glacier area, and 1.5 and 2.6% for glacier length with a mean uncertainty of 3.2 and 1.8%, respectively. The uncertainty varies depending on the quality of the images and size of the glaciers. Our results also show a good agreement with other studies undertaken in parts of the Ladakh region for individual glaciers (n=21) and bulk properties of a set of glaciers.

The new multi-temporal inventory presented here will assist in planning the management of water resources, and for guiding scientific research focusing on glacier mass balance, hydrology and glacier change within the region. The detailed information and multi-temporal nature of this inventory will also aid in improving the existing global and regional glacier inventories especially in the cold-arid Ladakh region where the majority of the population is highly dependent on glacier-derived melt water resources for domestic, irrigation and hydropower generation needs.

Author contribution

MSo, AR, AB conceptualized and designed the study. MSo, AB and MC did the analysis. MSo wrote and AR, AB, MSp, BR, SS and LS edited the manuscript. All the authors have equally contributed to interpretation of the results.

Acknowledgements

The authors are thankful to the School of Environmental Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India, for the lab facilities and the United States Geological Survey for the Landsat and ASTER imageries. The authors also thank Planet Labs and Google for the high resolution PlanetScope and Google Earth imageries. We are also thankful to the Scottish Funding Council and the University Of Aberdeen, United Kingdom for financially supporting our work.

References

Azam, Mohd. F., Kargel, J. S., Shea, J. M., Nepal, S., Haritashya, U. K., Srivastava, S., Maussion, F., Qazi, N., Chevallier, P., Dimri, A. P., Kulkarni, A. V., Cogley, J. G., & Bahuguna, I. M. (2021). Glaciohydrology of the Himalaya-Karakoram. *Science*, eabf3668. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abf3668

Bajracharya, S. R., Maharjan, S. B., & Shrestha, F. (2019). Glaciers in the Indus Basin. In *Indus River Basin* (pp. 123–144). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-812782-7.00006-0

Bajracharya, S. R., Shrestha, B. R., International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development, & Sweden (Eds.). (2011). *The status of glaciers in the Hindu Kush-Himalayan region*. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development.

Barrett, K., & Bosak, K. (2018). The Role of Place in Adapting to Climate Change: A Case Study from Ladakh, Western Himalayas. *Sustainability*, *10*(4), 898. https://doi.org/10.3390/su10040898

Bhambri, R., Bolch, T., Chaujar, R. K., & Kulshreshtha, S. C. (2011). Glacier changes in the Garhwal Himalaya, India, from 1968 to 2006 based on remote sensing. *Journal of Glaciology*, *57*(203), 543–556. https://doi.org/10.3189/002214311796905604

Bhambri, R., Bolch, T., Kawishwar, P., Dobhal, D. P., Srivastava, D., & Pratap, B. (2013). Heterogeneity in glacier response in the upper Shyok valley, northeast Karakoram. *The Cryosphere*, *7*(5), 1385–1398. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-7-1385-2013

Bhambri, R., Hewitt, K., Kawishwar, P., & Pratap, B. (2017). Surge-type and surge-modified glaciers in the Karakoram. *Scientific Reports*, *7*(1), 15391. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-15473-8

Bhardwaj, A., Joshi, P., Snehmani, Sam, L., Singh, M. K., Singh, S., & Kumar, R. (2015). Applicability of Landsat 8 data for characterizing glacier facies and supraglacial debris. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *38*, 51–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2014.12.011

Bolch, T. (2019). Past and Future Glacier Changes in the Indus River Basin. In *Indus River Basin* (pp. 85–97). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-812782-7.00004-7

Bolch, T., Kulkarni, A., Kaab, A., Huggel, C., Paul, F., Cogley, J. G., Frey, H., Kargel, J. S., Fujita, K., Scheel, M., Bajracharya, S., & Stoffel, M. (2012). The State and Fate of Himalayan Glaciers. *Science*, *336*(6079), 310–314. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1215828

Bolch, T., Menounos, B., & Wheate, R. (2010). Landsat-based inventory of glaciers in western Canada, 1985–2005. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, *114*(1), 127–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2009.08.015

Chudley, T. R., Miles, E. S., & Willis, I. C. (2017). Glacier characteristics and retreat between 1991 and 2014 in the Ladakh Range, Jammu and Kashmir. *Remote Sensing Letters*, *8*(6), 518–527. https://doi.org/10.1080/2150704X.2017.1295480

Census of India (2011), Jammu and Kashmir, Series 02- Part XII A-B, District Census Handbook, Leh and Kargil. India - Census of India 2011 - Jammu & Kashmir - Series 02 - Part XII A - District Census Handbook, Leh (censusindia.gov.in). Last assessed on 30 September 2021.

Frey, H., Machguth, H., Huss, M., Huggel, C., Bajracharya, S., Bolch, T., Kulkarni, A., Linsbauer, A., Salzmann, N., and Stoffel, M.: Estimating the volume of glaciers in the Himalayan–Karakoram region using different methods, The Cryosphere, 8, 2313–2333, https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-8-2313-2014, 2014.

Frey, H., & Paul, F. (2012). On the suitability of the SRTM DEM and ASTER GDEM for the compilation of topographic parameters in glacier inventories. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *18*, 480–490. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2011.09.020

Garg, P. K., Garg, S., Yousuf, B., Shukla, A., Kumar, V., & Mehta, M. (2022). Stagnation of the Pensilungpa glacier, western Himalaya, India: Causes and implications. *Journal of Glaciology*, *68*(268), 221–235. https://doi.org/10.1017/jog.2021.84

Garg, S., Shukla, A., Garg, P. K., Yousuf, B., & Shukla, U. K. (2022). Surface evolution and dynamics of the Kangriz glacier, western Himalaya in past 50 years. *Cold Regions Science and Technology*, *196*, 103496. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coldregions.2022.103496

Granshaw, F. D., & G. Fountain, A. (2006). Glacier change (1958–1998) in the North Cascades National Park Complex, Washington, USA. *Journal of Glaciology*, *52*(177), 251–256. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756506781828782

Guo, W., Liu, S., Xu, J., Wu, L., Shangguan, D., Yao, X., Wei, J., Bao, W., Yu, P., Liu, Q., & Jiang, Z. (2015). The second Chinese glacier inventory: Data, methods and results. *Journal of Glaciology*, *61*(226), 357–372. https://doi.org/10.3189/2015JoG14J209

Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J., Nicolas, J., Peubey, C., Radu, R., Schepers, D., Simmons, A., Soci, C., Abdalla, S., Abellan, X., Balsamo, G., Bechtold, P., Biavati, G., Bidlot, J., Bonavita, M., … Thépaut, J. (2020). The ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, *146*(730), 1999–2049. https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3803

Ji, Q., Yang, T., He, Y., Qin, Y., Dong, J., & Hu, F. (2017). A simple method to extract glacier length based on Digital Elevation Model and glacier boundaries for simple basin type glacier. *Journal of Mountain Science*, *14*(9), 1776–1790. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11629-016-4243-5

Kääb, A., Treichler, D., Nuth, C., & Berthier, E. (2015). Brief Communication: Contending estimates of 2003–2008 glacier mass balance over the Pamir–Karakoram–Himalaya. *The Cryosphere*, *9*(2), 557–564. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-9-557-2015

Khan, A., Richards, K. S., Parker, G. T., McRobie, A., & Mukhopadhyay, B. (2014). How large is the Upper Indus Basin? The pitfalls of auto-delineation using DEMs. *Journal of Hydrology*, *509*, 442–453. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2013.11.028

Kulkarni, A. V. (2010). *Monitoring Himalayan cryosphere using remote sensing techniques*. *90*, 13.

Le Bris, R., & Paul, F. (2013). An automatic method to create flow lines for determination of glacier length: A pilot study with Alaskan glaciers. *Computers & Geosciences*, *52*, 234–245. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2012.10.014

Liu, S., Ding, Y., Shangguan, D., Zhang, Y., Li, J., Han, H., Wang, J., & Xie, C. (2006). Glacier retreat as a result of climate warming and increased precipitation in the Tarim river basin, northwest China. *Annals of Glaciology*, *43*, 91–96. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756406781812168

Maurer, J. M., Schaefer, J. M., Rupper, S., & Corley, A. (2019). Acceleration of ice loss across the Himalayas over the past 40 years. *Science Advances*, *5*(6), eaav7266. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aav7266

Minora, U., Bocchiola, D., D’Agata, C., Maragno, D., Mayer, C., Lambrecht, A., Mosconi, B., Vuillermoz, E., Senese, A., Compostella, C., Smiraglia, C., & Diolaiuti, G. (2013). *2001–2010 glacier changes in the Central Karakoram National Park: A contribution to evaluate the magnitude and rate of the "Karakoram anomaly"* [Preprint]. Glaciers. https://doi.org/10.5194/tcd-7-2891-2013

Mölg, N., Bolch, T., Rastner, P., Strozzi, T., & Paul, F. (2018). A consistent glacier inventory for Karakoram and Pamir derived from Landsat data: Distribution of debris cover and mapping challenges. *Earth System Science Data*, *10*(4), 1807–1827. https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-10-1807-2018

Mukherjee, S., Joshi, P. K., Mukherjee, S., Ghosh, A., Garg, R. D., & Mukhopadhyay, A. (2013). Evaluation of vertical accuracy of open source Digital Elevation Model (DEM). *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, *21*, 205–217. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2012.09.004

Müller, J., Dame, J., & Nüsser, M. (2020). Urban Mountain Waterscapes: The Transformation of Hydro-Social Relations in the Trans-Himalayan Town Leh, Ladakh, India. *Water*, *12*(6), 1698. https://doi.org/10.3390/w12061698

National Bureau of Statistics. (2020). Communiqué of the seventh National Population Census. http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/. Accessed 30 September 2021.

Nagai, H., Fujita, K., Sakai, A., Nuimura, T., & Tadono, T. (2016). Comparison of multiple glacier inventories with a new inventory derived from high-resolution ALOS imagery in the Bhutan Himalaya. *The Cryosphere*, *10*(1), 65–85. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-10-65-2016

Negi, H. S., Kumar, A., Kanda, N., Thakur, N. K., & Singh, K. K. (2021). Status of glaciers and climate change of East Karakoram in early twenty-first century. *Science of The Total Environment*, *753*, 141914. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141914

Nuimura, T., Sakai, A., Taniguchi, K., Nagai, H., Lamsal, D., Tsutaki, S., Kozawa, A., Hoshina, Y., Takenaka, S., Omiya, S., Tsunematsu, K., Tshering, P., & Fujita, K. (2015). The GAMDAM glacier inventory: A quality-controlled inventory of Asian glaciers. *The Cryosphere*, *9*(3), 849–864. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-9-849-2015

Nüsser, M., Dame, J., Kraus, B., Baghel, R., & Schmidt, S. (2019). Socio-hydrology of "artificial glaciers" in Ladakh, India: Assessing adaptive strategies in a changing cryosphere. *Regional Environmental Change*, *19*(5), 1327–1337. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-018-1372-0

Nüsser, M., Dame, J., Parveen, S., Kraus, B., Baghel, R., & Schmidt, S. (2019). Cryosphere-Fed Irrigation Networks in the Northwestern Himalaya: Precarious Livelihoods and Adaptation Strategies Under the Impact of Climate Change. *Mountain Research and Development*, *39*(2). https://doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-18-00072.1

Nüsser, M., Schmidt, S., & Dame, J. (2012). Irrigation and Development in the Upper Indus Basin: Characteristics and Recent Changes of a Socio-hydrological System in Central Ladakh, India. *Mountain Research and Development*, *32*(1), 51–61. https://doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-11-00091.1

Paul, F., Barrand, N. E., Baumann, S., Berthier, E., Bolch, T., Casey, K., Frey, H., Joshi, S. P., Konovalov, V., Le Bris, R., Mölg, N., Nosenko, G., Nuth, C., Pope, A., Racoviteanu, A., Rastner, P., Raup, B., Scharrer, K., Steffen, S., & Winsvold, S. (2013). On the accuracy of glacier outlines derived from remote-sensing data. *Annals of Glaciology*, *54*(63), 171–182. https://doi.org/10.3189/2013AoG63A296

Paul, F., Barry, R. G., Cogley, J. G., Frey, H., Haeberli, W., Ohmura, A., Ommanney, C. S. L., Raup, B., Rivera, A., & Zemp, M. (2009). Recommendations for the compilation of glacier inventory data from digital sources. *Annals of Glaciology*, *50*(53), 119–126. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756410790595778

Paul, F., Bolch, T., Briggs, K., Kääb, A., McMillan, M., McNabb, R., Nagler, T., Nuth, C., Rastner, P., Strozzi, T., & Wuite, J. (2017). Error sources and guidelines for quality assessment of glacier area, elevation change, and velocity products derived from satellite data in the Glaciers_cci project. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, *203*, 256–275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.08.038

Pfeffer, W. T., Arendt, A. A., Bliss, A., Bolch, T., Cogley, J. G., Gardner, A. S., Hagen, J.-O., Hock, R., Kaser, G., Kienholz, C., Miles, E. S., Moholdt, G., Mölg, N., Paul, F., Radić, V., Rastner, P., Raup, B. H., Rich, J., Sharp, M. J., & The Randolph Consortium. (2014). The Randolph Glacier Inventory: A globally complete inventory of glaciers. *Journal of Glaciology*, *60*(221), 537–552. https://doi.org/10.3189/2014JoG13J176

Pritchard, H. D. (2019). Asia's shrinking glaciers protect large populations from drought stress. *Nature*, *569*(7758), 649–654. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1240-1

Racoviteanu, A. E., Paul, F., Raup, B., Khalsa, S. J. S., & Armstrong, R. (2009). Challenges and recommendations in mapping of glacier parameters from space: Results of the 2008 Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) workshop, Boulder, Colorado, USA. *Annals of Glaciology*, *50*(53), 53–69. https://doi.org/10.3189/172756410790595804

Racoviteanu, A. E., Rittger, K., & Armstrong, R. (2019). An Automated Approach for Estimating Snowline Altitudes in the Karakoram and Eastern Himalaya From Remote Sensing. *Frontiers in Earth Science*, *7*, 220. https://doi.org/10.3389/feart.2019.00220

Sakai, A. (2019). Brief communication: Updated GAMDAM glacier inventory over high-mountain Asia. *The Cryosphere*, *13*(7), 2043–2049. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-13-2043-2019

Schmidt, S., & Nüsser, M. (2012). Changes of High Altitude Glaciers from 1969 to 2010 in the Trans-Himalayan Kang Yatze Massif, Ladakh, Northwest India. *Arctic, Antarctic, and Alpine Research*, *44*(1), 107–121. https://doi.org/10.1657/1938-4246-44.1.107

Schmidt, S., & Nüsser, M. (2017). Changes of High Altitude Glaciers in the Trans-Himalaya of Ladakh over the Past Five Decades (1969–2016). *Geosciences*, *7*(2), 27. https://doi.org/10.3390/geosciences7020027

Shean, D. E., Bhushan, S., Montesano, P., Rounce, D. R., Arendt, A., & Osmanoglu, B. (2020). A Systematic, Regional Assessment of High Mountain Asia Glacier Mass Balance. *Frontiers in Earth Science*, *7*, 363. https://doi.org/10.3389/feart.2019.00363

Shukla, A., Garg, S., Mehta, M., Kumar, V., & Shukla, U. K. (2020). Temporal inventory of glaciers in the Suru sub-basin, western Himalaya: Impacts of regional climate variability. *Earth System Science Data*, *12*(2), 1245–1265. https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-1245-2020

Singh, S., Kumar, R., Bhardwaj, A., Sam, L., Shekhar, M., Singh, A., Kumar, R., & Gupta, A. (2016). Changing climate and glacio-hydrology in Indian Himalayan Region: A review. *WIREs Climate Change*, *7*(3), 393–410. https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.393

Tielidze, L. G., & Wheate, R. D. (2018). The Greater Caucasus Glacier Inventory (Russia, Georgia and Azerbaijan). *The Cryosphere*, *12*(1), 81–94. https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-12-81-2018

Williams, M. W. (2013). The Status of Glaciers in the Hindu Kush–Himalayan Region. *Mountain Research and Development*, *33*(1), 114. https://doi.org/10.1659/mrd.mm113

Winsvold, S. H., Kaab, A., & Nuth, C. (2016). Regional Glacier Mapping Using Optical Satellite Data Time Series. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing*, *9*(8), 3698–3711. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2016.2527063

Yao, J., Chao-lu, Y., & Ping, F. (2020). Evaluation of the Accuracy of SRTM3 and ASTER GDEM in the Tibetan Plateau Mountain Ranges. *E3S Web of Conferences*, *206*, 01027. https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/202020601027

Zhang, M., Wang, X., Shi, C., & Yan, D. (2019). Automated Glacier Extraction Index by Optimization of Red/SWIR and NIR /SWIR Ratio Index for Glacier Mapping Using Landsat Imagery. *Water*, *11*(6), 1223. https://doi.org/10.3390/w11061223