1	Brief Communication: An Ice-Debris Avalanche in the Nupchu Valley, Kanchenjunga Conservation				
2	Area, Eastern Nepal				
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20	Abstract Beginning in December 2020, a series of small-to-medium, torrent-like pulses commenced				
21	upon a historic debris cone located within the Nupchu valley, Kanchenjunga Conservation Area (KCA),				
22	Nepal. Sometime between 16 and 21 August 2022 a comparatively large ice-debris avalanche event				
23	occurred, covering an area of 0.6 km <sup>2</sup> with a total estimated volume of order 10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> . The area of the				
24	debris cone left by the August 2022 event increased the historic debris cone area by 0.2 km <sup>2</sup> (total				
25	area: 0.6 km <sup>2</sup> ). Although no human or livestock deaths occurred, the increase in torrent-like pulses of				
26	debris upon this historic debris cone since 2020 exemplifies a style of mass movement that may				
27	become increasingly common as air temperatures to rise in the region. Although the magnitude of				
28	this event was small compared to events like the 2021 Chamoli avalanche, the widespread distribution				
29	and frequency of comparable events presents a substantial, and potentially increasing, hazard across				
30	High Mountain Asia.				
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33	1 Introduction				
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35	Large magnitude but low frequency events in the high mountains can include a variety of familiar and				

36 poorly understood cryospheric processes, including glacial lake outburst floods (GLOFs) (Lamsal et al., 37 2014), snow/ice/rock avalanches (Shugar et al., 2021), landslide-induced avalanches and floods (Byers 38 et al., 2019), englacial conduit floods (Rounce et al., 2017), and others (see: Byers et al. 2022). Today, 39 enhanced communications and remote sensing technologies enable rapid identification and location 40 of such events, often within hours of their occurrence. Many, however, remain unreported because of 41 their remoteness, inaccessibility, poor communications, and/or absence of people (see: Byers et al., 42 2020). In this Brief Communication, we report on a large ice-debris avalanche that occurred sometime 43 between 16 and 21 August 2022 in the Kanchenjunga Conservation Area (KCA), eastern Nepal. The 44 event is noteworthy not only because of its probable linkages to climate change impacts in the region, 45 but also because local residents were unaware of its occurrence, as were the Government of Nepal 46 and climate change research entities in Kathmandu. Here we briefly document the event and describe 47 its present and future implications for local communities, scientists, and governments.



Figure 1. Kanchenjunga Conservation Area and location of the Nupchu ice-debris avalanche.

## 2 Setting

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54 The KCA is a 2,035 km<sup>2</sup> protected area established in 1997 by the Nepalese Department of National 55 Parks and Wildlife Conservation, with management responsibility handed over to local communities in 56 2006 (WWF Nepal 2018) (Figure 1). It is home to a range of ethnic groups of primarily Tibeto-Burman 57 origin that include Limbu, Rai, Tamang, Gurung, Magar, Chhetri, and Sherpa (Thapa, 2009). Livelihoods 58 were traditionally based upon agriculture, livestock raising, and trade with Tibet, but globalization, 59 outmigration, and new road construction over the past 15 years has rapidly changed the character of 60 both the social and environmental landscape. The South Asian monsoon dominates weather patterns, 61 with most rainfall falling between June and September (Kandel et al., 2019). 62

63 Based upon an analysis of 1962–2000 satellite imagery, valley and mountain glaciers in the KCA cover 64 approximately 488  $\pm$  29 km<sup>2</sup> and exhibit an overall negative glacier surface area loss of 0.5  $\pm$  0.2% yr<sup>-1</sup>

65 (Racoviteanu et al., 2015). Valley glaciers are largely debris-covered and have been receding since the 66 most recent maximum during the Little Ice Age. Hooker (1854), for example, wrote in 1849 of 67 observing glacial moraines that provided proof "... of glaciers having once descended to from 8,000 to

68 10,000 feet in every Sikkim and east Nepal valley..." (Hooker, 1854: 166). The British alpinist Freshfield

69 (1903: 236) writes of the "glacial shrinkage" he encountered in the Lhonak region in 1899, as well as

70 throughout both the Nepal and Sikkim sides of the Kanchenjunga massif. Although the Kanchenjunga

71 region received some of the earliest study, exploration, and mountaineering expeditions in Nepal by

72 outsiders (Thapa 2009), relatively little glacier and cryospheric hazards research has been conducted

73 to date. For example, until 2019 only one GLOF event was on record for the region (Watanabe et al., 74

1998; ICIMOD, 2011), although subsequent research revealed that at least seven others had occurred 75

since 1921 (Byers et al., 2020). The Nupchu valley, where the ice-debris avalanche of concern



77 lodges in the village of Kampuchen as of the fall of 2022 (Figure 1).

### 78 3 Methods 79

80 Field-based observations and assessments of Nupchu Pokhari (glacial lake), other nearby lakes, and

- 81 the ice-debris avalanche were conducted between 1-20 September 2022. Methods included GPS-
- 82 based route mapping, photography of avalanche features, oral testimony, and literature reviews. A
- 83 Nikon Forestry Pro Rangefinder was used to measure the depth of ice/debris deposits where the 84 Nupchu river had incised deposits down to the original streambed. Historic (declassified KH-9 Hexagon
- 85 satellite imagery; see: Maurer et al., 2019; Dehecg et al., 2020) and recent (Planet Dove and
- 86 SuperDove) satellite imagery revealed the sequence of avalanche/debris flow events between 1975
- 87 and 2023 (Figure 2). Numerical simulations of the avalanche were conducted using R.Avaflow version
- 88 3 (Mergili and Pudasaini, 2014–2023; Mergili et al., 2017), a state of the art software that has been 89 used globally to study ice/rock avalanches events (Zhang 2022). Numerical simulations were used to
- 90 provide upper limit volume estimation of the avalanche, which were constrained by field observations.
- 91 We used the parameters from Zhang et al. (2022) to produce a single-phase model scenario for three
- 92 different volumes: 1, 2.5, and 5 million m<sup>3</sup>. For calibration, we modified the internal friction angle of
- the mixture to match the extension of the debris left by event. For the terrain elevation, an ALOS 93
- 94 PALSAR Radiometric Terrain Corrected high-resolution 12.5 m DEM was used
- 95 (AP 13152 FBD F0540 RT1) (ASF DAAC, 2014).
- 96 For the terrain elevation, an ALOS PALSAR 12.5 m DEM was used (AP 13152 FBD F0540 RT1) (ASF 97 DAAC 2014).

#### 98 4 The Event

99 The investigation of the Nupchu valley was initiated by local concerns about Nupchu Pokhari

100 (27.790708° N, 87.934275° E) as being one of the most dangerous glacial lakes in terms of a potential

101 GLOF (Figure 1). Periodic, smaller floods from the upper Nupchu valley were reported, and assumed

102 locally to have originated in the Nupchu Pokhari, although no supporting evidence was available. Our

103 field reconnaissance results of Nupchu Pokhari on 12 September 2022, however, suggested that the

- 104 lake posed a moderate risk of flooding, largely based on the absence of overhanging ice and other
- 105 potential flood triggers. This assessment corroborates the findings of Rounce et al. (2017) which

106 concluded that the 0.129 km<sup>2</sup> Nupchu Pokhari presented only a moderate risk of flooding because of 107

- (a) no apparent growth between 2000 and 2015, (b) absence of avalanche pathways into the lake (i.e., 108 in line with the direction of the lake and its outflow), and (c) absence of landslide pathways entering
- 109 the lake.

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Formatted: Font: (Default) +Body (Calibri) Formatted: Font: (Default) +Body (Calibri) 110 The August 2022 ice/debris avalanche event was unexpected. Field staff had conducted a

- 111 reconnaissance of the valley below Nupchu Pokhari in early August 2022 to check out potential
- camping sites, at which time the upper valley was primarily pastureland. When the field team and A.C.
- 113 Byers returned in early September, the original path was blocked by massive ice-debris avalanche 114 material (27.774328° N, 87.941064° E) that had clearly occurred at some point in the interim (Figure
- 115 2). Our team and *dzopkio* (yak-cattle crossbreeds used as pack animals) were nevertheless able to
- 116 climb up and over the avalanche debris to the upper Nupchu valley, but at the time the source and
- 117 triggers related to the event remained unknown.

118 The original historic debris cone was found to have covered an area 0.402 km<sup>2</sup> that had been relatively 119 stable for at least 45 years, based upon the oldest satellite imagery available (i.e., 1975) (Dehecq et al., 120 2020) (Panel A, Figure 2). Time series satellite images revealed the periodic occurrence of surficial 121 debris flows upon this original deposition. That is, beginning in 2020, a series of small-to-medium, 122 torrent-like pulses commenced (Panel C through G, Figure 2), culminating in the relatively large event 123 that occurred sometime between 16 and 21 August 2022 (Panel H, Figure 2). The area of the debris 124 cone left by the August 2022 event increased the original area covered by 0.2 km<sup>2</sup> (total area: 0.6 125 km<sup>2</sup>). Of the three different volume estimates tested (1, 2.5, and 5 million m<sup>3</sup>) using R.Avaflow, an 126 avalanche volume of 1 x 10<sup>6</sup> m<sup>3</sup> most consistently matched the extent (red line) and depth of the new 127 debris cone deposited as determined by our field observations (Figure 3). 128

129 Our team was unable to locate the event on any seismographs, most likely related to the absence of 130 instrumentation in this part of the eastern Himalayas. Based upon direct field observations as well as 131 satellite imagery, the avalanche had clearly blocked and temporarily dammed the water from the 132 Nupchu Khola (river) at its onset, which was nevertheless able to cut down through the ice and 133 sediment deposited to form a steep canyon estimated at >10 m depth. The presence of shrubs (e.g., J. 134 indica) fully stripped of their bark was testimony to the high velocities of the flood- and meltwater 135 produced by frictional forces during the event, a phenomenon reported for other rockfall-induced 136 landslides in Nepal (Byers et al., 2019).

### 138 5 Discussion

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139 140 Interestingly, individuals in the community of Kampuchen, only 5 km downstream of the event, were 141 unaware of the avalanche. Yak herds had already returned from the high pastures to the village by 142 early August, the community was busy harvesting potatoes and preparing for the fall tourist season, 143 and no obvious changes in the Nupchu Khola had been observed (e.g., Kargel, 2014 for a description of 144 changes in the Seti Kosi prior to the catastrophic flooding of 5 May 2012). Thus, authorities in 145 Taplejung and Kathmandu were also unaware of the event as of September 2022, which is typical of 146 many large-scale cryospheric events in remote regions of the Himalayas (e.g., Byers et al., 2022). 147

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48	Still, the acceleration of torrent-like pulses of debris upon the historic debris cone since 2020 suggests
49	that these events may be linked to contemporary warming trends, similar to those that may have
50	triggered larger-scale mass wasting events elsewhere in the Himalaya (e.g., Shugar et al.,
51	2021; Kääb et al., 2021; Taylor et al., 2023). The frequency of such ice-debris flow events within the
52	KCA region, and more broadly across the Himalaya, is unknown. However, with projections of
53	continued warming in these regions (e.g., Lalande et al. 2021), a more systematic approach to
54	determining their historic frequency, as well as a better understanding of their triggers, is warranted.
55	After further evaluation, vulnerable villages, such as Kampuchen, may wish to consider the installation
56	of preventative floodwater diversion mechanisms, such as the rock-filled gabion walls currently

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# protecting tourist lodges in the Mt. Everest region (e.g., Rounce et al., 2017; Byers et al., 2022) using participatory processes as outlined in Watanabe et al. (2016).

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164 these regions (e.g., Lalande et al. 2021), a more systematic approach to determining their historic

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- 167noodwater diversion mechanisms, such as the fock med gabion wans currently protecting todast168lodges in the Mt. Everest region (e.g., Rounce et al. 2017; Byers et al. 2022) using participatory
- 169 processes as outlined in Watanabe et al. (2016).



171Figure 2. AtTime series of satellite images showing the periodic occurrence of surficial debris flows upon the172original deposition. These appear to have accelerated in both frequency in magnitude beginning several years173ago, leading up to the main event that occurred between 16 and 21 August 2022. Blue dashed outline in panel174H is the 1975 outline of the debris cone, while the dashed black circle identifies the failure zone. The175photograph at the bottom provides an oblique view of the ice/debris avalanche about three weeks after it

- 176 occurred (photograph by A. Byers). Panel H shows an image from early 2023, as imagery from immediately 177 after the ice-avalanche in mid-August 2022 were partially obscured by clouds (KH-9 imagery courtesy of USGS;
- 178 Planet Dove and SuperDove imagery courtesy of Planet Lab PBC).



### 5 Conclusion

187Beginning in 2020, a series of small-to-medium, torrent-like pulses commenced upon a historic debris188cone located approximately 2 km down valley from the lake, culminating in a relatively large189avalanche event that occurred sometime between 16 and 21 August 2022. The August 2022 event190deposited debris with an area of 0.6 km² and estimated volume in the order of 10<sup>6</sup> m³. No fatalities

191 from the event occurred because of the absence of humans and livestock in the vicinity when the

yellow line represents the extent of the historic debris cone).

192 event occurred. Likewise, no impoundment of the Nupchu Khola, and formation of a potentially 193 dangerous backwater lake, occurred as a result of debris blockage, although such scenarios happen 194 routinely in high mountain environments. 195 196 The improvement of remote area event reporting mechanisms, especially to authorities in the capital, 197 Kathmandu, could help with the development of hazard mitigation technologies and response. 198 Likewise, more systematic monitoring of cryospheric events by scientists, using remote sensing 199 platforms and hazard mapping tools, could help with the development of more effective early warning 200 systems for vulnerable communities, livestock, and adventure tourists. Ultimately, this could lead to a 201 minimization of losses and damage due to multi-hazard events. 202 203 Data availability. Declassified KH-9 Hexagon satellite imagery is available at 204 https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/. Planet Dove and SuperDove satellite imagery is available 205 at https://www.planet.com/explorer/. The ALOS PALSAR Radiometric Terrain Corrected high-res 206 DEM"AP 13152 FBD F0540 RT1" used for the R.Avaflow is available at 207 https://search.asf.alaska.edu/. 208 209 210 211 212 213 Data availability. Declassified KH-9 Hexagon satellite imagery is available at https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/. Planet Dove and SuperDove satellite imagery is available at https://www.planet.com/explorer/. The ALOS PALSAR DEM "AP 13152 FBD F0540 RT1" used for the R.Avaflow is available at https://asf.alaska.edu. 214 215 Author contributions. ACB conceived the study and wrote the original narrative, with contributions 216 from MS-V, DS, DM, MBC, and RA. MBC created Figure 1, DS and RA created Figure 2, and MS-V 217 created Figure 3. MS-V conducted the numerical simulations of avalanche volumes shown in Figure 3. 218 All authors revised and contributed to the final manuscript. 219 220 Competing Interests. The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing 221 interests. 222 223 Acknowledgements. The Fulbright Nepal Scholar Program is thanked for its support of A.C. Byers 224 during his six-month field study of contemporary impacts on alpine ecosystems in the Kanchenjunga 225 Conservation Area, eastern Nepal. The Department of National Parks and Wildlife Conservation, 226 Kanchenjunga Conservation Area, Department of Geography at Tribhuvan University are also thanked 227 for their interest in and support of the project. Support for M. Somos-Valenzuela during the 228 preparation of this paper was provided by the Chilean Science Council (ANID) through the Program of 229 International Cooperation (PII-180008). Support for D.H. Shugar was provided by the Natural Sciences 230 and Engineering Research Council of Canada (DG-2020-04207) and Alberta Innovates. Support for D. 231 McGrath was provided by NASA award 80NSSC20K1343. 232 233 234 235 236 237 238

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