IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON SNOWMELT RUNOFF:
A CASE STUDY OF TAMAKOSHI BASIN IN NEPAL

Raja Bhai Shilpakar**, Narendra Man Shakya ** and Akira Hiratsuka ***
Graduate exchange student in Osaka Sangyo University from
Institute of Engineering, Tribhuvan University, Nepal**
Department of Civil Engineering, Institute of Engineering,
Tribhuvan University, Nepal**
Department of Civil Engineering, Osaka Sangyo University,
Osaka, Japan***

ABSTRACT: The Himalayas and glaciers are huge storage and very important source of fresh water. On the other hand, they are one of the most sensitive indicators of climate change as they grow and shrink in quick response to changing air temperature. Surface temperature of the earth is rising globally, which is the major indicator of global climate change. The global climate change has already greatly affected the world in many folds. The Himalayan ice and glaciers are gradually melting due to global temperature rise resulting to significant shrinkage in snow-covered area, retreating of glaciers at rate of tens of meters per year and formation of glacier lakes. These changes are greatly affecting runoff patterns and increasing the risks of Glacier Lake Outburst Flood (GLOF). Himalayan snow and glaciers are sources of many rivers in the regions and Tamakoshi River is one of them. This research aims to assess impact of the climate change on snowmelt runoff in Tamakoshi basin. It is located at above than 1960m altitude and more than 60% area lies above 4000m. For simplicity, the Positive Degree Day (PDD) (temperature index) is used for snow and glacier melt estimation. Geographical Information System (GIS) is used for automatic delineation of watersheds from Digital Elevation Model (DEM) and ERDAS Imagine software is used to delineate the snow and glacier covered area of rugged and inaccessible terrain from processing of satellite images. Runoff pattern is analyzed using conceptual precipitation and snowmelt runoff modeling (SRM) tools in different climatic conditions (i.e. temperature). The results highlight considerable contribution of snowmelt and glaciers to runoff, and significant impact of climate change on snowmelt runoff.

Key words: Impact, Climate change, Himalayas, Nepal, Geographic Information System (GIS), Digital Elevation Model (DEM), Positive Degree Day (PDD), Snow Melt Runoff (SRM)

1. INTRODUCTION

The Himalayas have the largest concentration of glaciers outside the polar region and thus it is also known as Third Pole of the earth. Glaciers of the Hindu Kush Himalayas (HKH) are nature\'s renewable storehouse of fresh water from which one sixth of the world population benefit just when it is most needed during the hot season before the start of monsoon. The cryosphere (consisting of snow, ice and frozen ground) on land stores about 75% of the world\'s freshwater. The Himalayan range alone has a total area of 35,110 sq.km. of glaciers and ice cover with total ice reserves of 3735 cu.km which is equivalent to 3250 cu.km fresh water (Qin, 2002 and IPCC, 2008) and it provides the 86 million cubic meter of water annually (Rao et al., 2007). The Himalayas, the water tower of the world is the source of nine giant river systems of Asia: the Indus, Ganges, Brahmaputra, Irrawaddy, Salween, Mekong, Yangtze, Yellow, and Trim, and are the water lifeline for 500 million inhabitants of the region, or about 10% of the total regional human population (IPCC, 2007). While in Nepal, there are 3,252 glaciers that cover 5,323 sq.km in area with estimated ice reserve of 481 cu.km and the Koshi River Basin alone comprises 779 glaciers with an area of 1,409.84 sq.km and has an estimated ice reserve of 152.06 cu.km (Mool et al., 2001). The contribution of snow and glacial melt to the major rivers in the region ranges from less than 5% to more than 45% of the average flow (Jianchu et al., 2008). It has been estimated that some 225 billion cu.km of surface water flows through Nepalese territory annually, which amounts to about 118,200 m\(^3\)/sq.km. This is about four times the world average. The available surface runoff flows through more than 6,000 rivers and rivulets, totaling about 45,000 km in length, having hydropower potential of 83,000 MW (Shrestha, 1966) and eventually drains to the Ganges River in India through several river systems. Although about 14% of the catchments area of the Ganges lies in Nepal, the

* Corresponding author: 3-1-8-102 Nakagaito, Daito City, 574-0013 Osaka, Japan,
Tel. 072-875-3001-ext3728, Fax: 072−875-5044, E-mail: rajyoti2042@hotmail.com
The estimated linear trend in global surface temperature from 1906 to 2005 is a warming of 0.74°C with a more rapid warming trend over the past 50 years (IPCC, 2008). The average surface temperature of the earth has increased between 0.3°C and 0.6°C over the past hundred years and the increase in global temperature is predicted to continue rising during the 21st century. On the Indian subcontinent, temperatures are predicted to increase between 3.5 and 5.5°C by 2100 (IPCC, 2001a) and an even greater increase is predicted for the Tibetan Plateau (Lal, 2002) and while in Nepal, the temperature rise is 0.6°C per decade (Shrestha et al., 1999).

Climate change is a major concern in the Himalayas because of potential impacts on economy, ecology, and environment of the Himalayas and areas downstream. They are the largest bodies of ice outside the polar caps and the glaciers are water source for above mentioned nine major populated river basins. Rapid shrinkage of these glaciers is likely to seriously threaten water availability in the region, particularly during lean flow seasons when melt water contribution is crucial to sustain the river flow which supports human activities and ecosystem services in these areas and downstream. The changing climatic parameters have doubled the adverse effects on the water resources of the Nepalese Himalayas- firstly, the liquid precipitation further accelerates the retreating of glacier. However, there is not any definitive trend/pattern of changing in the precipitation (IPCC, 2007), though there is changing climatic scenario like increase in monsoon precipitation as mentioned above.

Many attempts and study has been done on the subject of climate change and its impact. It is found most of them focused on the extreme event like flood, draughts etc. In context of impact of climate change in Nepalese Himalayas, the study focuses on the glacier melting, retreating and Glacial Lake Outburst Flood (GLOF), the climate change trend etc. Though few researches has been done on contribution of snow melt in stream flow, however, the previous works lack to investigate the impact of climate change to the snowmelt runoff both in the winter and summer flow in the context of Nepalese basin. This research is the study of Tamakoshi basin in view of the contribution of snow melt in stream flow and impact of climate change on water resource in view of contribution of snowmelt runoff in winter and summer season.
2. STUDY AREA

The study area is the Tamakoshi basin in Nepal. It is situated at about 90 km North East of Kathmandu, capital of Nepal and the watershed spreads over trance-border between Nepal and China with 80% catchment in Tibet, China (Figure 2.1). It is located in the southern of the central Hindu Kush Himalayan Range. Politically it lies at the Lamabagar VDC of Dolakha District of Nepal. It is the headwater side of the Tamakoshi River.  

This river has annual runoff of 60.95m³/s, which is about 3.7% of the runoff of the Koshi River. It is in central northern part of Nepal and is one of the river basins with good hydrology and a suitable topography for planning any type of hydropower schemes. It is one of seven tributary of Koshi river basin. It originates from the Tibetan Himalayas above 7000m elevation and flows south across the Himalaya before finally merging into the Sunkoshi river, yet another tributary of Koshi river system.

Fig 2.1 Location of Study Area: Upper Tamakoshi Basin

Geographically, the study area extends from lower left corner 86°04’E, 27°54’N to upper right corner 86°34’E, 28°19’N with centroid at 86°18’30”E, 28°06’00”N. The elevation of the study basin varies from about 1964 m at Gauging station, at Lamabagar to 7307 m amsl (average mean sea level) at Himalaya with mean hypo centric elevation 5076m. There are at least 7 high peaks with elevation greater than 6000m in this catchment. Among them, one of the major peaks in the Nepal is the Gauri Shankar Himal with elevation 7146m, which is the Time Meridian of Nepal. The total drainage area of the Upper Tamakoshi River up to Lamabager Gauging Station is about 1759 sq.km with 58% area above 5000m amsl.  

The principal tributary of Upper Tamakoshi River, known as Rongchar Chhu and Lapcha, both originate from Tibet and meet at Nepali territory forming this river. The length of the longest tributary, Rongchar Chhu is 56km with gradient of 9.5%. The topographical setting and availability of abundant water provide great potential (1107MW) for hydropower generation in the Nepali part of the Tamakoshi River. Therefore, several hydropower schemes either are under execution (456MW, UTKHEP), or planned (370MW) on this river. In conjunction to this high potentiality of the basin, there is also the risk of Glacier Lake Outburst Flood, GLOF. There are 404 glacier lakes, area of each of them more than 1,600 sq.m, amounting to total lake area of about 7.92sq.km (Nor consult AS, 2005). Most GLOF events risk in the Tamakoshi river basin may be of magnitude more serious and devastating than that of meteorological floods. Owing to large differences in the relief, the basin is characterized by diversified climatic patterns. It gains precipitation about 2450mm annually at Jiri. The precipitation is spatially distributed with increasing trends toward the high altitude (Seko, 1985). As the snowline is at about an elevation of about 4500m amsl, the precipitation occurs mostly as snow fall above that elevation. This basin alone receives the total precipitation of 2000mm in summer (from June to September). This is about 80% of annual precipitation and most of precipitation occurs in the form of snow.

3. DATA USED

Data used in this study are three types: topographic, hydro-meteorological and satellite images. The topographic data used is derived from the Digital Elevation Model DEM, of 90m by 90m spatial resolution. Since the study area is located in the Zone 45, the DEM of that Zone 45 was acquired in 2008 December, from the USGS (Jarvis et al, 2008). By spatial analysis of this DEM, in ArcGIS the basin is divided into the ten elevation bands at rate of 500m interval to derive the area elevation map and the hypo-centric elevation as shown in the Figure 3.1.  

Fig 3.1 Zonal Area Elevation
The hydrological data is daily runoff at the outlet of the basin, Lamabager gauging station at elevation 1965m amsl and it is operated by the Upper Tamakoshi Hydroelectric Project, UTKHEP, Nepal Electricity Authority, NEA. The discharge is measured three times a day, and then averaged for the daily discharge. The meteorological data are the daily precipitation at Jiri Station at elevation 2003m amsl and the daily maximum and minimum temperature data at Tsho Rolpa station at elevation 4580m. These both stations are operated by the Department of Hydrology and Meteorology, DHM, Nepal. The average temperature is calculated as simple arithmetic mean of the maximum and the minimum temperature. Based on the average monthly temperature at TshoRolpa and at Jiri, the average monthly temperature lapse rates are calculated and the average annual temperature lapse rate is found as 0.508 °C/100m in the basin. The temperature at the base station, Tsho Rolpa, is distributed to the hypocentric elevation on the basis of this lapse rate using the following equation 3.1:

\[ T_{j,n} = T_{n,base} - r(h_{j,n} - h_{n,base}) \]  

(3.1)

where \( T_{j,n} \) is the daily mean temperature (°C) on the \( n^{th} \) day in zone \( j \), \( T_{n,base} \) is the daily mean temperature (°C) on the \( n^{th} \) day at the base station, \( h_{j} \) is the zonal hypocentric mean elevation (m), \( h_{n,base} \) is the elevation of the base station (m) and \( r \) is the temperature lapse rate (°C/100m). Since the precipitation increased as elevation in the Himalayas, the precipitation data at the base station, Jiri are spatially distributed to the hypo centric elevation of each zone according to the equation 3.2 (Seko, 1987):

\[ P_{j,n} = P_{BH,n} \]  

For \( h_{j} < 4000\text{m} \)

\[ P_{j,n} = P_{BH,n} \left[ 1 + 0.0003(h_{j} - 4000) \right] \]  

For \( h_{j} > 5000\text{m} \)

(3.2)

Where, \( P_{j,n} \) is precipitation at hypocentric elevation \( h_{j} \) of the \( j^{th} \) zone, \( P_{BH} \) is the precipitation at base station in the \( n^{th} \) day. A preselected threshold temperature, \( T_{CRIT} \), determines whether this precipitation is rainfall and immediate. If precipitation is determined by \( T_{CRIT} \) to be new snow, it is kept on storage over the hither to snow free area until melting conditions occur.

The next data used for the snow cover delineation is the Satellite Image. Three types of images are used: i) Landsat 7 images with the spatial resolution of 30m by 30m, dated 14th Apr, 2003 and 8th Oct 2003, acquired in December 2008 from USGS website (http://glef.umiacs.umd.edu); ii) MODIS Terra Snow with spatial resolution of 500m by 500m dated 1st Jan, 1st Mar, 18th Apr, and 1st Dec in 2002 and 1st Jan, 1st Mar, 2nd Apr, 8th Oct, 1st Nov and 3rd Dec in 2003, acquired in December 2008 from USGS website (http://nsidc.org) via ftp access and iii) Scanned digital map of Glacier cover of Tamakoshi basin i.e. prepared by Reynolds using Spot 5 satellite image, dated 2nd Jan 2002 (Nor consult AS, 2005). The snow and glacier covered area are delineated from these satellite image using the ERDAS Imagine software (Figure 3.2). The zonal snow covered maps are generated using these snow cover area map in conjunction with the zonal area DEM map in ArcGIS. These zonal snow cover area are interpolated and extrapolated to each day of the year. For the accumulation period, simple algebraic interpolation is done. For the depletion period, the exponential interpolation is done (A. Emre et al., 2005). The derive snow depletion curve is shown in the Figure 3.3

**Fig 3.2** Classified Satellite Images of 2003

The Light color indicates Snow and Glacier

**Fig 3.3** Snow Depletion Curve
4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Models
Prediction of melting of snow and ice in a glacialized basin is very important to estimate basin discharge. In the Himalayan region, the main source of water is glacier melt water which is closely related to summer mass balance and snowmelt runoff from glacialized basins. For simulating snowmelt runoff, there exist numerous methodologies. These vary from the simple system model i.e. index methods to more physical based detailed energy balance approaches. Rana et al. (1996); Nakawa and Takahashi (1982); Kayastha et al. (1999); Oerlemans and Hoogendoorn (1989); Kuhn (1989); Braithwaite and Olesen (1990); Oerlemans (1993); Munro (1991) and Arnolds et al. (1996) used the mass and energy balance model for estimation of snowmelt from the Himalayan glaciers. The main draw back of this type of the detailed study is the complexities nature with numbers of data required which usually not easily available. For the remedy of this problem, Laumann and Reeh (1993); Hohnnesson et al. (1995); Braithwaite and Zhang (2000); Braithwaite and Olesen (1989); Hock (1999); Kayastha et al. (2000) and Kayastha et al. (2005) used the simple index method i.e. positive degree day approach to estimate the snowmelt. Similarly for the study of contribution of the snowmelt in stream flow and the impact of climate on it, various scholar use different method like temperature index method, mass balance method etc. Singh et al. (1997b); A. Emre et al. (2005); Singh et al. (2003); Singh and Jain (2003) used the simple PDD method and William et al. (1994) used restricted PDD method incorporating the radiation component. Angele et al. (2005) used the energy balance method to develop simple restricted PDD with incorporation of the effect of the wind on snow melting process. While Kumar et al. (2007); Singh et al. (1997) and Bryan et al. (2006) used the water balance method. In the context of study of impact of climate change, Sing et al. (2004) and Jordan (2005) used PDD method. Sing et al. (1997a) used UBC model for this purpose. Rango and Martinec (1997) and Rango and Martinec (1994) used the SRM model for assessment of the impact of climate change.

Among above mentioned different models, the temperature index model is simple and useful for this study basin. It is probably the best single index that stores most of climatic information and climate change pattern and it represents areal snow cover change along with its readily availability nature. The popularity of temperature index models also arises from the fact that they give melt estimates that are comparable to those determined from a detailed evaluation of various terms in the energy equation (Male and Gray, 1981).

4.2. Model Structure (SRM)
The model used in this research is positive degree-day index and used the SRM model (Martinec et al., 2008) for snowmelt estimation and runoff simulation. In this model, the study basin is divided into number of elevation zones at rate of 500m interval. The zonal area A, hypocentric elevation and snow covered area A_{SCA} are calculated for each zone. Based on the elevation of base station/s (where temperature and precipitation are measured), hypocentric elevation and snow covered area A_{SCA} are calculated for each zone. The form of precipitation is determined by considering the Critical Temperature T_{CR} for snowfall and the air temperature at each hypocentric elevation for each zone. The snowmelt (M_S in cm) is computed in each zone with the input of snow cover area, temperature and degree-day factor in each zone by temperature index method (equation 4.1).

\[ M_S = a \cdot (T - T_b) \] \hspace{1cm} (4.1)

Where, \( a \) is the degree-day factor (cm °C/day), \( T \) is the daily average and \( T_b \) the base temperature (°C) above which melting occurs. For cases in which \( T < T_b \), no melt is produced. Usually base temperature \( T_b \) is 0°C. The snowmelt and the rain will be now runoff of the zone and runoff from each zone are summed up and simulated which gives the simulated river flow discharge. The model SRM, used in this study, estimate the snowmelt and each day, the water produced from snowmelt and rainfall is computed, superimposed on the calculated recession flow and transformed into daily discharge from the basin (Martinec et al., 2008). After fine simulation with optimum parameter and best coefficient of determination (R^2>0.7) with least volume difference, this is taken as present climate runoff simulation. Now the climate change scenario i.e. in rising temperature (AT 1 to 3 °C) is given as input. The SRM is then, run for the climate change simulation with changed snow depletion calculated by itself.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Simulation
The Study basin has the total area of 1759 sq.km with altitude variation from 1964 to 7307 and
gradient of 9.5%. The area of zones above the 4500m elevation is 78% of total area with the average annual temperature less than 0°C and above 5000m is 58% and -2.5°C respectively (see Table 5.1). Similarly the average annual snow coverage are 40.1% in 2003 and 41.8% in 2002 with peak coverage of 58.9% & 64.3% and least coverage of 22.6% & 25.5% respectively (Table 5.2 & Figure 3.5).

Table 5.1 Zonal Characteristics Tamakoshi Basin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Hypocentric Elevation (m)</th>
<th>Area sq.km</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Average Temperature (°C) in 2003</th>
<th>Precipitation (cm) in 2003</th>
<th>Average Annual Snow Cover Area SCA (2003)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2316</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>2.1 281.8 283.9</td>
<td>0.01 0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2811</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>2.2 281.7 283.9</td>
<td>0.16 0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3285</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>10.6 273.3 283.9</td>
<td>0.22 0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>3785</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>16.7 267.2 283.9</td>
<td>1.70 1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>4289</td>
<td>190.0</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>35.5 273.1 308.6</td>
<td>20.33 10.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>4799</td>
<td>362.0</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>100.8 251.2 352.0</td>
<td>87.24 24.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>5265</td>
<td>691.5</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td>197.2 171.9 369.1</td>
<td>321.57 46.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>5636</td>
<td>273.7</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>-4.4</td>
<td>267.3 101.8 369.1</td>
<td>197.36 72.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>6177</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>-7.1</td>
<td>368.1 1.0 369.1</td>
<td>31.19 82.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>6707</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>-9.8</td>
<td>368.9 0.2 369.1</td>
<td>10.34 86.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total or Average</td>
<td>1759.0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1,369.4</td>
<td>1,903.2</td>
<td>3,272.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 Snow Coverage in the study basin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Area (sq.km)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Area (sq.km)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Jan-03</td>
<td>782.135</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Jan-02</td>
<td>448.0</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Mar-03</td>
<td>879.754</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Mar-02</td>
<td>1,131.6</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>2-Apr-03</td>
<td>1009.564</td>
<td>57.4%</td>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>18-Apr-02</td>
<td>1,092.0</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landsat7</td>
<td>14-Apr-03</td>
<td>1037.479</td>
<td>58.9%</td>
<td>Spot5</td>
<td>28-Nov-02</td>
<td>448.0</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>8-Oct-03</td>
<td>447.314</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Dec-02</td>
<td>557.4</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>1-Nov-03</td>
<td>725.121</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>517.4</td>
<td>30.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landsat7</td>
<td>8-Nov-03</td>
<td>397.532</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>348.5</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modis</td>
<td>3-Dec-03</td>
<td>362.781</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>384.7</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of 8 images</td>
<td>360.1*</td>
<td>40.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>384.7</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average of 5 images: 41.8%* # Average of no. of images only

The year 2003 is treated as the Calibration and the simulation year while the year 2002 as the validation year. The year 2003 is also the base year for the assessment of the impact of climate change i.e. warmer climate. The simulated hydrograph is shown in the Figures 5.1 & 5.2. The measured discharge is well simulated in the year 2003 with coefficient of determination $R^2$ 82% (Nash efficiency) and volume difference less than 0.1%. Few Stream flow peaks could not be generated in simulated runoff, which was possibly due to sudden release of stored water at some location in the glacier body, and such events are clearly identified because they are not supported by climatic condition (Singh et al., 2008). In the validation year 2002, there is good coefficient of determination ($R^2$) 84% and volume difference $\Delta V$ 14.8%. The peak discrepancy is due to reason as explained earlier. But considerable volume difference is due to the following reasons:

i) The precipitation is distributed in the basis of precipitation at Jiri which is located out-side the catchment at 2003 m amsl elevation.

ii) The measured discharge in the year 2002 (average annual discharge 78.10 m$^3$/s) is 18% more than in the year 2003 (average annual discharge 64.19 m$^3$/s) while the precipitation observed at Jiri is in reverse order. There is
13% less precipitation in the year 2002 (average annual precipitation 7.22 mm) than in year 2003 (average annual precipitation 8.29 mm). It indicates that there should either be more precipitation or some release of water from the glacier which could not be simulated by the SRM model. The measured hydrograph also indicates there should be some precipitation in the months Nov and Dec; however there is no any precipitation at all at the Jiri station in these months.

5.2. Contribution of Snowmelt in Stream Flow

The contribution of snowmelt in the stream flow is still considerable though there is high precipitation (6156 M m³) than the runoff (2036 M m³). There is 19% contribution by snowmelt in winter season and 7% in summer season altogether 8.2% in the annual stream flow runoff (Figures 5.3 & 5.4) in the year 2003. The low snowmelt in the July and August is because of the low temperature recorded during that period, which shows average monthly temperature is 0.67 and 3.56 °C respectively in these periods.

Similarly, in year 2002 the contribution of snowmelt in stream flow is 18% in the annual flow with 16% contribution in winter season and 19% contribution in summer season.

5.3. Impact of Climate Change

After the simulation has been done in the year 2003, this year is taken as the base year to investigate the impact of climate change (rising temperature) in the snow melt runoff. In climate change simulation in SRM, only the temperature is changed from the ΔT 1, 2 and 3 °C, because there is no definite trend of change in precipitation as described else where. The
impact of climate change (i.e. temperature) is increasing trend in stream flow with increased snow melt contribution approximately at rate of 3% in annual and 8% in winter flow per one degree centigrade temperature rise. This pattern is shown in the Table 5.3 and Figure 5.5. The main factor of such increase in snowmelt contribution is melting of snow and glacier in the basins. As shown in the Table 5.1 and explained in the simulation section, there is 58% area of the total watershed above 5000m amsl elevation where annual average temperature is less than equal to -2.5°C and the snow coverage is more than 46% average in year. As a result, though the temperature is raised up to 3°C, there will be enhanced melting in the melting period while balanced snow deposition in the accumulation period in the winter. That’s why the result of impact of climate change is as anticipative.

### Table 5.3 Impact of Climate Change in contribution of Snowmelt in Stream Flow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Season / Period</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>T+1 °C</th>
<th>T+2 °C</th>
<th>T+3 °C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Winter Season</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer Season</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From April to Dec, base year 2003

The study demonstrates that the impact of climate change (i.e. temperature) to stream flow is significant, which is in increasing trend resulting from snow melt contribution. Due to the snow melt contribution, stream flow increases approximately at rate of 8% in winter, 3% in summer and 3% in annual flow per one degree centigrade temperature rise.

The outputs of this study are important guidance for water resources managers to make and implement appropriate strategy for water resources management and hydropower development. It is also useful tool for adoptive planning i.e. more and efficient use of winter flow and mitigative and preventive measure for high flood and GLOF. However the results presented here are not the predictions, but rather the model simulations on the snowmelt. For further study and refinement of the research, it is worthfull to establish the meteorological station within the catchment itself, use the more precise and more numbers of satellite images (at least one per each month in depletion period) and apply the energy budget models.

### 7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study, part of Mater thesis, was supported by Japanese government (JASSO Scholarship) under the student exchange program between Tribhuvan University, Nepal and Osaka Sangyo University, Japan to the first author. The first author acknowledges the Nepal Electricity Authority (NEA) for sponsoring to pursue his master degree at Tribhuvan University.

### 8. REFERENCE


Arnold, N.S., I.C. Willis, M.J. Sharp, K.S. Richards


Liu, J. and Rasul, Goan, 2007. Climate the Himalayan Mountains and ICIMOD, Sustainable Mountain Development, ICIMOD.


The International Panel for Climate Change IPCC, 2007., IPCC Climate change 2007, Synthesis Report, A report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate change.

The International Panel for Climate Change IPCC, 2008., IPCC Technical Paper on Climate change and Water, Synthesis Report, A report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate change.
