Outline of Research Project on Glacial Lake Outburst Floods in the Bhutan Himalayas

Koji FUJITA1*, Kouichi NISHIMURA1, Jiro KOMORI1,2, Shuji IWATA3, Jinro UKITA4, Takeo TADONO5 and Toru KOIKE6

1Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University, Furo-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya 464-8601, Japan
2Department of Modern Life, Teikyo Heisei University, Toshima-ku, Tokyo 170-8445, Japan
3College of Tourism, Rikkyo University, Nita-shi, Saitama 352-8558, Japan
4Faculty of Science, Niigata University, Nishi-ku, Niigata 950-2181, Japan
5Earth Observation Research Center, Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8505, Japan
6Earth System Science Co., Ltd., Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-0022, Japan
*e-mail: cozy@nagoya-u.jp

Abstract

Glacial Lake Outburst Floods (GLOFs) are a major hazard of concern to mountain communities in the Himalayas. In 2009 we started a three-year research project, in which we have conducted evaluation of GLOF risk using satellite data, in-situ surveys, and breach and flood simulations, and have produced a hazard map of possible floods. We have primarily focused on the Mangde-Chhu basin, for which the GLOF hazard level has been believed to be high but information regarding mitigation has been lacking. In this article, we describe the structure and strategy of the research project, and major results obtained to date.

Key words: bathymetry survey, Bhutan Himalaya, glacial lake outburst flood, hazard map, technology transfer

1. Introduction

A glacial lake outburst flood (GLOF) occurs when a body of water that is contained by a glacier or terminal moraine is released. In Himalayan countries such as Bhutan and Nepal, hazards from GLOFs are an urgent environmental and economical issue. Since the 1960s, a number of GLOFs have been recorded concurrent with shrinkage of glaciers and expansion of glacial lakes over the region. These observations have led to the notion that recent global warming may have resulted in an increasing amount of GLOF risk. However, many glacial lakes started to expand prior to the 1970s when the global average surface temperature began to increase most significantly. There is no clear indication that the rates at which glacial lakes are expanding have recently accelerated (Fujita et al., 2009). Studies suggest a positive feedback between the enlargement of glacial lakes and the increasing amount of calving through melting and uplifting from buoyant effects (Röhl, 2008; Sakai et al., 2009). This feedback process would provide a potential explanation for the expansion of glacial lakes within the context of natural variability. At present, a firm link has yet to be established between global warming and GLOF events. Our knowledge on GLOFs, including detailed geological and hydrological processes, is not sufficient to provide a comprehensive understanding of GLOF mechanisms (Yamada, 1998; Richardson & Reynolds, 2000).

Nonetheless, a great amount of effort has been put into assessing GLOF risk for potentially dangerous glacial lakes in this region. The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) in Kathmandu, Nepal, reported that a total of 44 lakes in Nepal and Bhutan pose a danger of outbursts (Mool et al., 2001a, 2001b). Although these efforts are well-spent, uncertainties remain as to what criteria we should choose for objectively evaluating GLOF risk. It is of our opinion that this question can be best answered through a comprehensive assessment of topography around potentially dangerous lakes with digital elevation data obtained from both satellites and field observations. Here the analysis period must be extended as far back as possible to gain a maximum amount of information on the lakes’ history. The analysis area must also be extended to a larger area, assuring the validity of the study results.

An equally if not more urgent task is to find ways to prevent and adapt to the hazards of GLOFs. This can be accomplished by first constructing a hazard map. Here we need to consider the downstream topography of river channels and debris flows. Each lake or river basin must be evaluated on an individual basis. This calls for satellite
data as it is the only possible means to acquire topographic and geographical information on a large number of lakes. The aim here must be towards gaining necessary information for objectively constructing hazard maps, optimizing warning systems, and performing drainage work in a cost-effective manner.

Punakha in Bhutan was inundated by a GLOF in 1994 which was triggered by an outburst from the Lugge Glacial Lake in the Lunana region, which is located 100 km upstream (Tashi, 1994). This event solidified cooperation in glacier and GLOF research between Bhutan and Japan. Responding in part to a request by the Bhutanese government in 1998, a team composed of researchers from Nagoya University, Tokyo Metropolitan University and the Bhutanese Department of Geology and Mines (DGM) made an initial assessment of GLOF risk using field observations (Ageta et al., 2000; Iwata et al., 2002; Yamada et al., 2004). This work sets a precedent for studying GLOFs from both academic and social points of view, leading to continuous cooperation between the DGM and Japanese researchers over the years.

This present project aims essentially to elevate the level of cooperation between the Bhutanese and Japanese in GLOF research to yet another level and was started in 2009 as one of the “Science and Technology Research Partnership for Sustainable Development (SATREPS)” programs supported by Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST) and Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). The plan is comprehensive, covering all three aspects of GLOF research, namely process studies, risk assessment, and prevention/adaptation. Therefore, one significant aspect of this research is that it provides a comprehensive package to Bhutanese society rather than just to its research community. In the same vein, the significance of this joint research lies in the fact that it works towards developing sustainable systems for GLOF adaptation and prevention through technology transfer. These two aspects guarantee high merits to Bhutanese society and meet standards for successful international research collaboration. In this paper, we give an outline of the GLOF project and achievements at this stage.

2. Structure and strategy of the research project

The ultimate goal of this research is to assess objectively GLOF risk in Bhutan and attempt to implement adaptation and prevention measures to curb both existing and future GLOF-related risks. Toward this goal the following steps are being taken. The project consists of three research groups: a process-group, satellite-group and assessment-group, and one counterpart in Bhutan (Department of Geology and Mines, DGM). The structure and strategy of the project is shown schematically in Fig. 1.

2.1 Reselection and risk assessment of dangerous glacial lakes

Over 40 glacial lakes in Nepal and Bhutan have been listed for their potential risk (Mool et al., 2001a, 2001b). Although many indices have been proposed to evaluate GLOF risk so far (Bolch et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2008), we think that the collapse of a damming moraine is essential to the release an effective amount of lake water, even after considering other triggers. On the basis of recently gained knowledge on a link between the topography of lakes and surrounding areas (Fujita et al., 2008, 2009), we propose a relative angle looking down from the lake surface as a single parameter for identifying the potential risk of a given glacial lake. The schematic figure in Fig. 2 explains the concept of the relative lookdown evaluation.

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**Fig. 1** Structure and strategy of the project for study on glacial lake outburst floods in the Bhutan Himalayas.
This idea is similar to the width-height ratio of the damming moraine, which has been proposed by Clague and Evans (2000). We simplify the dam-related parameters into one because it is difficult to determine the boundaries of damming moraines on remotely sensed images. Using this criterion, we chose pilot sites for our field survey. Our detailed analysis using ASTER data is now ready for publication.

2.2 Field surveys of high-risk glacial lakes

We conducted field surveys of glacial lakes in the Mangde-Chhu basin (Fig. 3), a previously unsurveyed river basin in the middle part of Bhutan, in which a pilot study pointed to GLOF potentials from seven glacial lakes (lakes with orange boundaries in Fig. 3, three potentially dangerous glacial lakes are also shown in the Lunana region) (Mool et al., 2001b). We set our focus on the residual strength of the damming moraine and other factors leading to outbreaks, as displayed schematically in Fig. 4. We utilized different technologies developed in different disciplines such as river engineering, geotechnical and geophysical exploration, using two-dimensional resistivity profiling and a micro-tremor array method to investigate the internal structure of moraines. The survey included sounding and drawing of bathymetric maps. To conduct field surveys in the Zanam region, one of the headwater regions in the Mangde-Chhu basin (Fig. 3), we spent the first year checking local accessibility and transportation and conducting preliminary field surveys of moraine structure, hydrology and glacier dynamics at pilot sites. In the second year, we conducted intensive surveys throughout the Mangde-Chhu basin. In the third year (the last year of the project), we made additional surveys not only in the Mangde-Chhu basin but also in the Lunana region to obtain data on changes in glaciers and glacial lakes since the previous surveys in 2004 (Fujita et al., 2008).

2.3 Hazard map of the Mangde-Chhu River

Numerical simulations to assess GLOF-associated risk for the Mangde-Chhu basin have been conducted (Koike & Takenaka, 2012). The breach model used in these simulations calculated bed erosion and horizontal widening of the outlet channel in the damming moraine by considering processes of sediment transportation and slope stability. Propagation of floods was calculated using a one-dimensional flood model, and then the highest water level was calculated using a two-dimensional flood model with high-resolution DEMs (digital elevation models). Rising water levels, valley topography and landslide risk on the river bank caused by flooding were taken into account. The simulation outputs were flood arrival times and the highest water level around targets requiring protection (habitats or infrastructures), from which a flood hazard map of the Mangde-Chhu basin was constructed.
2.4 Understanding of glacial lake evolution

The above-described plans aim at directly assessing and adopting GLOF risk for existing glacial lakes. In the future it will also be essential to estimate possible impacts from global warming on the formation and expansion of glacial lakes. At present there is no established theory to explain the mechanism of glacial lake evolution, whereas Sakai et al. (2009) have proposed a positive feedback process with respect to glacial lake expansion by numerical simulation. Field surveys on the heat budget of glacial lakes, glacier dynamics, ice thickness of glaciers, meteorological conditions and other parameters are needed to elucidate the underlying physics of glacial lake formation and expansion. In the first year, an automatic weather station (AWS) was set beside Lake Zanam F (AWS in Fig. 3) to obtain meteorological data. These data provide important meteorological information from the high Himalayas where observational data have been scarce. Besides the dynamic approach, we also examined topographical features of glaciers in different states with respect to glacial lakes: having a developed glacial lake, a developing glacial lake, and without a glacial lake. We used topographical maps for the Nepal Himalayas and our surveyed data from 2004 for the Bhutan Himalayas.

3. Major Results Obtained by Fall 2011

3.1 Results from remote sensing analysis

In order to update and improve the glacial lake inventory for the Bhutan Himalayas, we used a new set of satellite data from the sensors on board the Advanced Land Observing Satellite (ALOS, ‘Daichi’ in Japanese). With their high spatial resolution and their efficacy in making DEMs, ALOS-based satellite data are particularly desirable for investigating glacial lakes. The accuracy and methodology for delineating glacial lakes are confirmed with field survey data (Ukita et al., 2011). A preliminary inventory was released in February 2011. An outline of the remote sensing analysis is described by Tadono et al. (2012) in this issue. We intend to complete the inventory covering the Bhutan Himalayas, including the Tibetan side, within this project.

3.2 Results from field observations

We have conducted three field trips to the Mangde-Chhu basin since the project was launched. We conducted bathymetric surveys for nine glacial lakes in the basin (Lakes Zanam A, B, C, D, F and G, an unnamed one, and Lake Metatshota in Fig. 3). Five other lakes in the Lunana and Gangju La regions were also surveyed. Figure 5 shows our bathymetry of Lake Zanam C, which was identified as a potentially dangerous lake in our preliminary analysis (Fig. 6), whereas it had not been selected as a potentially dangerous glacial lake (PDGL) in the previous ICIMOD report (Mool et al., 2001b). Our analysis using ASTER data was unable to estimate how the shoreline would change if the lake water were drained; the bathymetry, which was obtainable only by an
in-situ survey, was our primary information to evaluate the flood water volume if a GLOF occurred. The measurement revealed that the flood water volume would be constrained by the shallow water depth on the downstream side and suggested that Lake Zanam C was fairly safe.

We performed geophysical explorations as well to confirm the structure of the damming moraine because the existence of ice within the moraine dam can significantly alter the strength of the dam (Hambrey et al., 2008). The detailed results are shown by Ohashi et al. (2012) in this issue.

In addition to the GLOF issue, changes in glaciers are matter of debate in the Himalayan region (Cogley et al., 2010). In particular, observational evidence is scarce in the Bhutan Himalayas. We updated terminus positions and volume changes in small glaciers along the research route (SG in Fig. 3), which had been surveyed at the end of the 20th century (Naito et al., 2006). All of the surveyed glaciers showed obvious retreat and shrinkage. The details are described by Naito et al. (2012) in this issue.

3.3 Formation conditions of Himalayan glacial lakes

Besides the field observational data, the analysis of which will take time, we worked on topographic maps and remote sensing data to depict which parameters have determined the formation of glacial lakes. Sakai and Fujita (2010) clarified that the formation conditions of a glacial lake could be clearly expressed in terms of the inclination of the glacier surface and the amount of surface lowering on the debris-covered area of the glacier since the Little Ice Age (LIA) in the Nepal and Bhutan Himalayas (Fig. 7). The figure shows that debris-covered glaciers with a growing or developed glacial lake (longitudinal length > 1 km) have gentler inclinations and larger surface lowering from the LIA than do glaciers without glacial lakes. This relationship can be explained by the contribution of calving of the terminus by ablation at supraglacial ponds and by glacier ice dynamics. The formation of a terminal glacial lake results in reduced compression in the lower part of the glacier, as the glacier ice at the terminus receives no pressure from adjacent ice or the terminal moraine. This reduced compression results, in turn, in reduced emergence velocity (weak uplifting of the glacier surface), leading to further lowering of the glacier surface. Hence, glacial lake formation involves a positive feedback to the lowering of the glacier surface, meaning that glacial lakes form in association with relatively large amounts of surface lowering. Furthermore, glacial lakes contribute to the disintegration of the glacier terminus and acceleration of the rate of lowering of the glacier surface. An overview with respect to glacial lake formation is given by Sakai (2012) in this issue.

3.4 A flood event from the Tshojo Glacier in 2009

On 29 April 2009, an unusual water discharge occurred from the Lunana region. The source of the discharge was the Tshojo Glacier, 15 km in length and 20 km² in area. This typical debris-covered glacier is one of the biggest glaciers in the Bhutan Himalayas. Local citizens, who had experienced the 1994 GLOF, were thrown into a commotion by this event, though there was no damage. However this disturbance was the first such experience after the 1994 GLOF. A discharge meter in the Pho Chhu suggested the flood water volume to be more than 0.5 million m³.

We carried out field surveys after the event in 2009.
and 2010 and found deeply eroded channels on the glacier and the fan shaped deposit in front of the outlet. These characteristic features suggest that flood water with a large amount of debris was transported from upstream through subglacial and/or englacial channels (Fig. 8). In addition an analysis of multi-temporal remote sensing images revealed the abrupt disappearance of a supraglacial lake located 5.5 km upstream from the outlet. Yamanokuchi et al. (2011) estimated the total volume of the flood at 1.5 million m$^3$ based on ALOS PRISM DSMs, which were taken before and after the flood event. This volume is three times more than the estimate from the downstream river gauge (0.5 million m$^3$). This is equivalent to a water level lowering of 12.5 m. We simply estimated, on the other hand, that the water level lowering of the lake would have been 4.3 m from the lake dimensions (0.118 km$^2$) and flood volume (0.5 million m$^3$). Despite the remaining discrepancy with respect to volume, we can conclude that this vanished lake was a source of this small GLOF event. More details on this event are described in Komori et al. (2012) in this issue.

3.5 Flood simulation and hazard map

The actual GLOF impact on the residential areas downstream of the Mangde Chhu River basin was simulated by a numerical analysis with bathymetric profiles, ALOS-based DEM and hydraulic aspects. We assessed breach potentials of several glacial lakes in the basin, including PDGLs nominated by ICIMOD (Mool et al., 2001b) by using the same soil parameters of the reproduced breach scenario of the Lugge Glacial Lake moraine dam in the Lunana region, which burst in 1994. Due to the wide crest and gentle slope of the moraine dams, consequently, sediment transportation hardly accelerates in the condition of normal inflow, and the breach potential is comparatively lower than that of the Lugge Glacial Lake.

Lake Metatshota is the largest glacial lake in the Mangde Chhu River basin and is surrounded by an undulating moraine. Although the breach potential of the damming moraine is comparatively low as mentioned above, we further simulated how the flood wave would propagate along the river in the case of an outburst. The total flood volume and breach peak discharge of Lake Metatshota are estimated to be 18 million m$^3$ and 2,750 m$^3$s$^{-1}$ respectively, when the moraine dam drastically starts to breach with an inflow to the lake exceeding 50 m$^3$s$^{-1}$. Assuming this probable large-scale scenario, in which an outburst releases the lake water immediately, the flood wave from Lake Metatshota would arrive at Bji zam village, 62 km downstream of the lake, within three hours. The flood would rise to a peak discharge of 2,000 m$^3$s$^{-1}$ in a moment. Under this condition, the lower terrace plain of the village would be affected and the National Highway across the river would possibly be damaged (Fig. 9). The detailed results are described by Koike and Takenaka (2012) in this issue.

3.6 Landslide mapping

Detection of landslide slopes is essential for hazard assessment of GLOFs because the occurrence of GLOFs may reactivate potential landslides through river bank erosion. We delineated landslide distribution in the Mangde Chhu River basin through interpretation of satellite images and field surveys. We topographically classified the detected landslides into two types; deep-seated gravitational deformation (DSGD) and slides. Mountain slopes in this area are widely occupied by old landslides, some of which are over several km in width. Deep-seated landslides located at undercut slopes along the river may be reactivated by GLOFs and make slopes unstable. Details are described by Higaki and Sato (2012) in this issue.

![Fig. 9 Simulated flood depth at Bji zam Village in the Mangde Chhu River basin. The village is located 62 km downstream from Lake Metatshota (Koike & Takenaka, 2012).](image-url)
3.7 Technology transfer

We are assisting our Bhutanese counterparts in enhancing their ability to cope with GLOF-related issues. Within three years several ‘on the job training’ sessions (OJTs) both in the field and indoors were carried out (Table 1). These activities are approximated at eighty man-months as of the end of October 2011. In addition, several training sessions in Japan with field excursions and attendance of scientific conferences were conducted for nine Bhutanese counterparts (Table 1).

One of the most important OJTs was field observations and related logistics through our field surveys. Bhutanese counterparts already have good experience with respect to mountain fields so they could immediately acquire the techniques; for example how to conduct bathymetric surveys, glacier surveys, geophysical explorations on damming moraines and meteorological observations. Although it is important to learn how to analyze the data obtained, this is an ongoing effort in the project. Further instructions on how to prepare and analyze satellite remote sensing data were given and in fact a few Bhutanese counterparts took charge of delineating glacial lakes in the specified basin (Tadono et al., 2012).

Training sessions on flood simulation and hazard mapping are also planned within this project period. Exchange of information with respect to project progress was performed through joint coordination committees and science workshops, which were held in March of 2009 and 2010.

4. Conclusions

The potential risks from Himalayan glacial lakes have to be evaluated in an appropriate manner because feasible allocation of finite financial and human resources is crucial to dealing with the GLOF hazard issue. In this article we gave an outline of our interdisciplinary project for GLOFs in the Bhutan Himalayas. We established an up-to-date glacial lake inventory in the Bhutan Himalayas based on ALOS data (Ukita et al., 2011). We also re-evaluated PDGLs in the region based on the inventory. Bathymetric surveys, geophysical explorations and meteorological observations were conducted in the Zanam region, at the headwaters of the Mange-Chhu River basin, to evaluate the potential risk of GLOFs and the possible amount of flood water discharge in the case

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Table 1 Technology transfer in the project (as of the end of October 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training in Bhutan</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Trainee No.</th>
<th>Trainer</th>
<th>Period</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Land and lake surveys</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Electric resistivity surveys</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ESS</td>
<td>5 weeks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Mangde Chhu basin</td>
<td>Landslide surveys</td>
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<td>Assessment Group</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Active fault surveys</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Electric resistivity surveys</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5 weeks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Satellite data analyses</td>
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<td>Satellite Group</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Flood analyses with GIS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>ESS</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Soil testing in geotech laboratory</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>ESS</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Mr. Umemura, Nihon Univ.</td>
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<td>ESS</td>
<td>1 day</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>Tsukuba</td>
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</table>

of a GLOF. Based on these field data, we performed flood simulations and then constructed a hazard map along the river, in which the danger of landslides along the river was taken into account to evaluate the vulnerability of neighboring slopes.

On the basis of predictions on future glacial lake evolution (Sakai & Fujita, 2010), a glacial lake monitoring system using satellite data from all-weather synthetic aperture radar such as ALOS-PALSAR, TerraSAR-X and ALOS-2 (Suzuki et al., 2011) would be helpful to Himalayan countries. In the context of GLOF prevention, such a system can be used to single out lakes that need preventive work. This also provides valuable information for future watershed disaster management planning and land development downstream. In terms of prevention, lakes in early stages (smaller lakes) are relatively easier to deal with cost-effectively, because their potential flood volumes are less than those of well developed large lakes, even if artificial expansion of the outlet triggers an outburst.

For prevention, the most effective method is to lower the water level of lakes by draining. This, however, is expensive and thus impractical, as the potentially dangerous lakes in the Himalayan countries are typically located in remote and high altitude areas. It would be highly desirable to build early-warning systems for taking GLOF countermeasures, which could alert residents in the downstream regions.

Although our project is being conducted only in the Bhutan Himalayas due to institutional constraints, we believe that the course of our approach to this issue is adaptable to other Himalayan countries. The success of this project might be confirmed when GLOF assessments in other basins are performed by Bhutanese researchers.

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Koji FUJITA

Koji FUJITA is an Associate Professor at the Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University. He received his PhD (in Science) from Nagoya University. He has undertaken various field work in Nepal, Tibet, Bhutan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, as well as overwintering at Dome Fuji Station, which is inland in east Antarctica. His research has focused on fluctuations of Himalayan glaciers, ice-core based paleoclimate reconstruction in the Asian highlands, and stable water isotopes in Antarctica.

Kouichi NISHIMURA

Kouichi NISHIMURA is a Professor at the Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University. He earned his Doctor of Science degree from Hokkaido University. He is interested in various aspects of snow and ice studies: for example, snow avalanche release mechanisms and dynamics, blowing snow over the Antarctic ice sheet as well as around fences along roads, and glacier lake outburst floods (GLOFs) in Nepal and Bhutan.

Jiro KOMORI

Jiro KOMORI is a JICA expert on technical/research cooperation in Bhutan, and holds an appointment as a Contract Assistant Professor at the Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University. As a JICA expert, he has been dispatched to the newly established Division of Glaciology at the Department of Geology and Mines, Royal Government of Bhutan since 2009. Originally he worked for four years as an engineer at a geological consulting company and subsequently for four years at Nihon University as a laboratory assistant until 2000. He obtained his PhD in paleoenvironmental studies from the Graduate School of Tokyo Metropolitan University in 2005. As a graduate student, he also started to study subjects such as disaster prevention related to recent environmental change. His first field survey of glaciers and glacial lakes was in the Bhutan Himalayas in 2002. This brought an opportunity for precious experience and many encounters in Bhutan to not only for himself but also his family. He currently has a keen interest and is seeking ways to disseminate the results of this research and educate the younger generation regarding the issues of environmental change and loss of interest in the natural sciences.

Shuji IWATA

Shuji IWATA was born in Kobe, Japan in 1946 and is a Professor Emeritus of Geography at the College of Tourism, Rikkyo University. He received his Ph.D. (in Science) from Tokyo Metropolitan University. He has investigated glacial geomorphology and mountain geology in the Himalayas, Tibetan Plateau, Tienshan and Pamir, as well as Japan’s high mountains. He has also worked on glacial landforms in the Sør Rondane Mountains of East Antarctica, and Iceland. His research has focused on GLOFs in the Bhutan Himalayas since 1998.
Jinro Ukita

Jinro UKITA has been a Professor of the Faculty of Science at Niigata University, Niigata Pref., Japan since 2007. He received two M.S. degrees, one in Oceanography from the University of British Columbia and the other Atmospheric Sciences from the University of Washington, U.S., and his Ph.D. from Hokkaido University, Hokkaido Pref., Japan in 1998. From 1995 to 1996 he served as a lecturer at the University of Tokyo, and then joined the National Space Development Agency of Japan (NASDA, the former JAXA), where he served as a research scientist and developed a Japan-US joint science program for the International Arctic Research Center (IARC) in Fairbanks, Alaska, U.S. as a sub-leader. In 2000 he moved to the U.S. to join the cryosphere programme at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center where he researched sea-ice. Between 1998 and 2004 he was an affiliated research scientist at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory of Columbia University, U.S.

Takeo Tadono

Takeo TADONO is an Associate Senior Researcher at the Earth Observation Research Center (EORC), Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA), Tsukuba, Ibaraki Pref., Japan, and is in charge of calibrating and validating optical instruments on the Advanced Land Observing Satellite (ALOS) and ALOS follow-on missions. He received his B.E. degree in 1993, M.E. degree in 1995, and Ph.D. in 1998 in Civil Engineering from Nagaoka University of Technology, Niigata Pref., Japan. His research interests are calibration and validation of high-resolution optical instruments and the development of algorithms for retrieving geophysical and hydrological parameters from remote sensing data.

Toru Koike

Toru KOIKE is a Deputy General Manager of the Environmental & Disaster Management Department at Earth System Science Co., Ltd. He has been working in the field of disaster management, including geological and river engineering under Official Development Assistance funding from the Japanese government. During 2000-2002, he lived in Bhutan and worked for the Department of Geology & Mines. Currently he is working in disaster related projects in Thailand, Vietnam, Bhutan, Bolivia and Caribbean countries.

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