Response to Reviewer

Manuscript: Brief Communication: The Khurdopin glacier surge revisited – extreme flow velocities and formation of a dammed lake in 2017

Reviewer: V. Round

We greatly appreciate the concerns raised by the Reviewer and respond to each of them below. We have extended the discussion related to the processes and possible explanations and now provide greater detail in the discussion. We agree that we could expand even more on some details, but wanted to keep this study focused on this particular event and within the “Brief Communication” format.

Original comments by the reviewer are in bold, followed by our response. Note that the page and line number are always given twice, once for the document with markups which is provided at the end of the Response, and once to the revised manuscript without markups, which will be provided later.

P1, L12: ‘during a glacier surge in of’ remove ‘in’
Thanks for pointing this out, it is now amended.

P1, L14: Does the ‘fastest rates globally’ refers to peak rates for surging glaciers or to glaciers in general? The use of ‘m/a’ in ‘5000m/a’ could suggest that rate to be an average rate over a year. Using “m/d” may avoid this confusion.
This does indeed refer to surging glaciers, as there are other examples with similar or higher velocities such as the Lowell Glacier (Bevington and Copland, 2014) and the Variegated Glacier (Kamb et al., 1985), however these extreme values (65 m d⁻¹) were measured just during a 2h rather than a daily interval.
We think that switching between units could be confusing and makes these values less easily comparable to other reported values in the region which are generally given in m a⁻¹. By referring to the month of May specifically it should be clear that this only refers to this period. However we refer to the importance of frequent image availability to derive such high velocities now on P6L7 / P4L39ff.

P1, L15-16: This sentence could do with some reworking. Firstly it isn’t clear if the four year build up in velocity occurred over the whole glacier or just part of it. Also the term ‘upper tongue’ probably has little meaning to the reader at this stage.
We have reworded this part to increase clarity.

P1, L19: The ‘however’ at the beginning of the sentence implies contradiction of the hypothesis in the sentence before. Does the crevassing and disappearance of supra glacial ponds contradict the thermal switch mechanism, or reduce certainty in your hypothesis? I think these observations indicate a factor which amplifies the surge regardless of the initiation mechanism.
Thanks for pointing this out. We have amended this accordingly.

**P1, L27:** I suggest a slight rewording of the two general driving mechanisms, because the ‘build-up of ice mass during the quiescence phase’ applies to both mechanisms.

Thanks for pointing this out. We have adapted this accordingly to make it applicable to both.

**P2, Section 2:** There could be a few more details in the methods section here instead of only in the supplement. I would like to see at least an indication of the temporal resolution/number of images from Landsat and Planet (this is also missing from the supplement). Perhaps also spatial resolution (what is meant by ‘high resolution’) and/or indication of error margins.

We have now provided all details for the images used in the Supplementary as well as error ranges for the DEMs and how they were derived. Since the space for a Brief Communication paper is limited we do not want to go to great lengths in the methods section, as the approaches used are quite straightforward and well documented in the literature.

**P2, L16:** SRTM should be mentioned here too as it was also used for investigating mass changes.

The reviewer is right, this was an omission and we have added it in P2L26 / P2L19 of the revised manuscript.

**P2, L23:** Is this information about the source of the debris/medial moraine included because it is important to the glacier velocity?

The reviewer is right, this information – although interesting from a glacier flow point of view and the erosion potential of surge-type glaciers – is not so relevant to this specific study. We have therefore omitted it in the revised manuscript.

**P2-3, Section 3:** I tended to get lost reading this section with its rather long chronological description of the three surges. One could present the results by describing the various phases of the three surges simultaneously. This could cut out some repetition and make similarities more apparent. Displaying this information about the temporal evolution of velocity as a figure would also allow the text here to be shortened and provide a very valuable summary and overview of the surges. Velocity over time could be shown for both the lower and upper parts of the tongue, as these show different behavior, or better still for the whole length of the tongue.

We agree that this is a bit convoluted and have decided to specifically focus on the latest surge and leave the analysis of earlier surges to the already published work. We only refer to the similarities in behavior and we have included all velocity profiles of the surge in figure 1 and all velocity data in table S1 in the supplementary material, which should visualize the surge development in a more concise way.

**P2-3, Section 3:** Is the difference in peak velocities between the different surges, e.g. 2000m/a in 1999 and 5000m/a in 2017, a real result or could it be an artefact of the temporal averaging period, where shorter periods are more likely to capture faster peak velocities?

Indeed it is quite likely that it’s the more frequent availability of satellite images that makes it possible to only see these high peak velocities now. As the reviewer suggested above, this potential of Planet imagery should be further emphasized in the manuscript and we have discussed this in the Discussion at P6L7 / P4L39ff.
P3, L3: The advance of the ‘surge front’ is not clear to me. Quincey et al. (2011) show a very distinctive surge front at Kunyang Glacier but not for the 1999 surge of Khurdopin Glacier. Citing the surge front observed by Quincey et al. (2011) implies a similar acceleration pattern to the Kunyang surge. Perhaps the term ‘surge front’ is a bit subjective in this case. This is where a visual representation of the temporal changes, with more than three times steps, would be really useful.

Thanks for pointing this out. We agree that “front” may have been used too subjectively and we have rephrased it. As the reviewer suggested we have now added all velocity data from the surge to figure 1 which shows the development of the surge and also that the front advances slightly but that the peak of velocity actually remains nearly in the same position. The data therefore support earlier observations of Khurdopin without a clearly identifiable surge front (Quincey and Luckman, 2014).

P3, L9: The comment about not being able to discern length change is repeated in Section 4. I would expand upon it here and remove from section 4, or just remove it here.

Thank you for pointing this out, this is indeed redundant. As it fits better in section 4, we have removed it here.

P3, Section 4: DEM differences between 2000 and 2008 were calculated for Khurdopin glacier also by Gardelle et al. (2012), I think this paper is definitely worth consulting as they also focus on Khurdopin glacier for getting ablation rates. (Gardelle et al. 2012, Slight mass gain of Karakoram glaciers in the early twenty-first century, Nature Geoscience Letters, DOI: 10.1038/NGEO1450).

Thanks for pointing this out. We agree that this is important in this context and have added it in P4L10 / P3L22.

P3, L22: Was the mass change over the whole glacier assessed between 2000 and 2011, or just 2011 and 2016? Is there enough confidence in the results to give us a number for these periods?

The DEM differencing is for the period between 2011 and 2017, hence the total change in elevation is simply inferred. We have therefore adapted this and defined the possible range from dH = 50 m if we assume the tongue to have had a net mass change of zero in the build up phase to dH = 80 m if we assume that the net mass loss was equal to the quiescent phase.

P3, L26-27: This sentence makes is seem like there have been considerable damages in recent decades, but Iturrizaga (2005) shows most damages in the early 1900s. Is there another source showing more recent damages, or is it possible that the floods have become less severe or the settlements less vulnerable?

The reviewer is right that the more serious damages reported by (Iturrizaga, 2005; Hewitt and Liu, 2010) were reported before the 1960s. We have therefore removed this part and mentioned the level of damage in P4L35 / P3L39. It is difficult to say whether damages in recent decades have increased or decreased. While people may be less vulnerable today or better adapted to possible floods, infrastructure has also increased and people are more used to the fact that there is a road to the main Hunza valley. Indeed during the flood that occurred in 2017, one main bridge was destroyed and the road connecting the valley to the outside world blocked for a week (http://pamirtimes.net/2017/08/01/shimshal-river-flood-bridge-destroyed-road-damaged-cultivable-land-affected-at-several-places/). Unfortunately
both discharge stations installed were destroyed during the flood, making peak flood measurements impossible.

**P3, L29:** The lake outbursts at Kyagar glacier discussed by Haemmig et al. (2014) were extremely rapid, jökulhlaup type events, not gradual as mentioned here.

Thanks and we have adapted the text accordingly in P4L37ff / P3L31ff. We have also added some comments on lake drainage, resulting from the actual drainage of the lake.

**P3, Section 5:** The potential lake volumes might have more meaning for hazard assessment than the surface area. I imagine this could be quite easily calculated given the DEM of the lake basin.

Thank you for the suggestion, we have now made volume estimates and discussed this in the paper.

To explain how the volume was derived we added a line in the Methods on P2L27 / P5L5 and we describe this in the supplementary material in section 3.

**P3, L36:** I assume the 15 meter height increase at the fringe represents the upper bound on potential lake depth. Is there any indication that this height will increase or decrease in the next couple of years and what factors might affect the likelihood of the lake reaching these various levels? Additionally, the 80 meter increase at the centre doesn't seem relevant for the lake.

We have improved the explanation and adapted the Text as well as the projected lake areas. 15 m are the approximate cliff height which presumably can act as the dam for potential future lakes. While water may pond beyond that on the tongue itself whether and how this could happen we do not know and we have therefore removed it. We now just use the former lake from 2000 as well as the ice wall as an indicator of possible future extents.

**P3, L37:** Do you mean the potentially large influx of subglacial sediments is into the potential lake basin? What effect would this have on the lake - decrease the potential volume of the lake?

The possible sources include the subglacial erosion of Khurdopin but also the sediment carried in from the Vjerab river. This would indeed decrease the potential volume of the lake. We have mentioned this now in P5L9 / P4L6.

**P4, L2:** Two surge periods is probably not sufficient to confirm ‘a constant return period' especially over longer timescales, unless there are earlier indications of similar return period.

The earlier surges – if we can take the main floods from upper Shimshal as a proxy - happened in 1979, 1960, 1944, 1923, 1901 or 1904 and possibly 1882 which corresponds to return periods of 22 (19), 19 (22), 21, 16, 19, 20 and 18 years from the end of the 19th century until today (Hewitt and Liu, 2010). We have added this reference to support the claim made.

**P4, L5:** The observation of very different behaviour of the lower and upper parts of the tongue, separated by a steep part of bedrock at 12km, is interesting and has been observed on other surging glaciers (Quincey et al. 2014, Round et al. 2017). Possible questions to discuss here are whether there is something about the lower part of the tongue that leads it to experience such extreme changes in behaviour, or what the
significance of the steep section at 12km may be, or the significance of the avalanche mass deposits?

There is no data available on avalanche accumulation and we believe it would likely not be enough mass to argue for a considerable influence on a surge. However we now follow the discussion described in (Quincey and Luckman, 2014; Round et al., 2017), which emphasizes the role of local topography into surge behavior.

P4, L12-13: Couldn’t the increased pressure and ‘tipping point’ reached at the end of the quiescence also initiate the surge through collapse of the subglacial drainage system or failure of subglacial till? Is it possible to distinguish between these processes with the available data, or is there some other indication leading to the conclusion of a switch from cold to temperate basal conditions?

We have referred to both mechanisms, but with the data available we are not able to separate them. However, we have made an estimate of deformation contributing to the observed velocities, which shows that that during the surge it must be primarily the basal motion that dominates flow, exemplified by the low values for ice deformation (P5L27 / P4L22ff). During quiescence in the lower part the switch from cold to temperate could have a more sizeable contribution.

P4, L12-13: Do you mean this switch from cold to temperate based applies to the upper part of the tongue with the gradual acceleration, or lower part of the tongue with the sudden surge acceleration? Is it feasible that the velocities during the assumed cold based phase be purely due to ice deformation?

We have considerably revised this section and in particular have pointed out that the thermal switch hypothesis likely pertains to the steeper section and below only.

P4, L14: Quincey and Luckman (2014) suggested both the ‘thermal switch’ or ‘subglacial drainage’ as possible controls and didn’t seem to have enough evidence to conclude one way or the other.

The reviewer is right that their findings were pointing not to one or the other specifically. We rephrased this and avoided the suggestions that the thermal switch is the dominating driver.

P4, L20: Did the velocity results show a parabolic velocity profile across the tongue during the quiescence? This wasn’t mentioned in section 3 but would be interesting.

Indeed a parabolic profile was observed during quiescence and this is now mentioned in the text at P5L40 / P4L30.

P4, L21: The peak velocities of this surge are really incredibly high, as is the magnitude of the acceleration! A mention some of the feedback processes which could allow such extreme basal sliding velocities could be informative. Do you think subglacial till deformation plays much of a role?

We have now added a rough quantification of ice deformation following (Round et al., 2017), which shows that while it may episodically important, basal flow is likely to be the main driver. These feedback processes are indeed an interesting topic to be investigated in regard to this extreme acceleration, but so far we have no access to any kind of data (or modelling like (Damsgaard et al., 2015) to support such claims. We have however added a suggestion for future investigation in this regard in P5L3 / P4L34.
I'm not sure how the increased resolution and overpass frequency of the Planet satellite data have led to better understanding of the surge. Is it the ability to resolve the peak velocity over shorter time frame or observation of more temporal fluctuations or spatial patterns (e.g. transverse variation) in velocity? If so then this should be discussed somewhere.

The main advantage of these satellite images is the high overpass frequency which improves the temporal resolution. This we have now emphasized by showing all velocity profiles for the surge itself in Figure 1 and have additionally discussed this advantage in Section 4.

Figures 1 and 2: The right hand panels show the inferred glacier bed elevation, however it would make sense to also show the observed glacier surface elevation. Showing the surface elevation from the 2011 and 2017 DEMs would provide an additional visualization of the mass redistribution, and if shading or dashed lines are used the readability of the plot shouldn't be affected.

We have made this change accordingly.

Figures 1 and 2: The maps should be in some way georeferenced. We have tried to add a grid to the maps, but since we use a rotated north inclusion of the grid makes things unclear. We believe that the glacier coordinates we now provide in the text and the use of the RGI outline provide sufficient georeferencing for the reader.

Figure 3: Very nice to have some photos from the ground, but maybe indicate the date (month)

Thank you for the suggestion, we have added the date.

Figure 3, L3: The traced ‘centreline’ would more appropriately be referred to as ‘former centreline’ or ‘former medial moraine’

Thank you for the suggestion, we have changed it accordingly.

Figure 3, L8: I would say the tongue below the dashed green line “showed no change during the surge” rather than “remained stable”.

Thank you for the suggestion, we have changed it accordingly.

Supplement Table S1: How many images were used from each Satellite? It would be interesting to have this information about the potential temporal resolution of the data.

We have now provided this information in Table S1 in the Supplementary Material.

Supplement Table S1 (DEM data): This table should be labelled Table S2.

Thanks for pointing this out, we have changed it.

Supplement Table S2: The SRTM from 2000 should also be shown here as it was also used for the surface elevation analysis.

Thanks, we have added this.
References


Response to Reviewer

Manuscript: Brief Communication: The Khurdopin glacier surge revisited – extreme flow velocities and formation of a dammed lake in 2017

Reviewer: D. Quincey

We greatly appreciate the concerns raised by the Reviewer and respond to each of them below. Original comments by the reviewer are in bold, followed by our response. Note that the page and line number are always given twice, once for the document with markups which is provided at the end of the Response, and once to the revised manuscript without markups, which will be provided later.

The key take-home message is currently a bit hidden. It seems to me that the new findings are: 1. that the surge return period appears to be of the order of 20 years (whilst acknowledging that n=2); 2. that surge velocities may be even faster than previously realised – implications for erosion and sediment transport; 3. that there may be a topographic control on this particular surge (but this needs much greater discussion – see following point); 4. that the ice-marginal lake is posing a hazard to local communities.

If the abstract and the conclusions could be modified to give the key message much greater prominence the manuscript would have greater impact. 2. The relevance of the steep bed topography at 12-km needs some further discussion/explanation. Is the suggestion that it provides a control on surge dynamics? Or even that it is responsible for the spatial imbalance in flow? Presumably it doesn’t provide a bottleneck to flow (I imagine the opposite if anything)? Is the modelled ice particularly thin above the step and potentially frozen? Some consideration of the possibilities would be a welcome addition. 3. There appear to be many more velocity datasets discussed in the text than presented in the figures. Is there a reason for not showing all of the velocity data? It would really help with visualising the evolution of the surge to have them all (or at least more than the current three) available. 4. The discussion of whether the surge is thermally or hydrologically triggered lacks real evidence so I would suggest toning it down or even removing it. It is likely that both thermal and hydrological processes will be at play as you infer in your own discussion. 5. There needs to be some uncertainty analysis of the dh/dt data. How well coregistered were the DEMs? Showing off-glacier areas of dh/dt data (and velocity data) would help here, as would the distribution of those values. This extra analysis would be a good addition to the Supplementary, with uncertainty shading added to the figures and an error range added to the values stated in the main text.

We would like to thank the reviewer for these suggestions and our response is found below.

We have adapted the abstract and especially the discussion and we have toned down the discussion on the switch hypothesis. We also extended this analysis of the steep topography section at km-12 and this reveals that ice deformation as well as hydrology may be important drivers. By now showing all velocity data of all time steps during the surge, we show the added value of these new satellite products, also for broader applications. We have also added a quantification of the DEM errors and we show this in figure S1 in the supplementary material.
Minor comments:

P1 12: ‘during a surge of the Khurdopin Glacier in 2017.’ (also elsewhere, glacier should be Glacier where you are referring to it by name).

Thanks for pointing this out. We have amended it throughout the manuscript.

P1 15-16: I'm not sure there is evidence for a surge front in the data you show here?

Thanks for pointing this out and as reviewer 2 has pointed out, the definition of front may have been used too subjectively here. Compared to other surges in the region and as you pointed out in (Quincey and Luckman, 2014), perhaps Khurdopin can be classified as not having a surge front. We have removed the reference to a front in the text.

P1 19-20: do you show these surface observations? It's difficult for the reader to believe the extra lubrication suggestion without seeing evidence.

In the Brief Communication format we are limited in terms of space and we have refrained from showing additional images. We agree however that this is an essential aspect and should be visualized. We have therefore included a 2-panel plot showing this distinct change in surface features in Fig 3.

P1 26: this is maybe misleading: : : has an increase in frequency been reported? Or just an increase in number? And is that not because we have better and better data? Without repeat datasets (like those presented here) we can’t say for sure whether frequency is increasing or not.

We have based our statement mainly on the observation in these two papers, where especially (Copland et al., 2011) argues that “Given that our ability to detect surging using satellite imagery has remained essentially constant since the 1970s, we must therefore consider whether there have been changes in forcing over time.”. We agree however that this cannot be fully ascertained from the data we have and have therefore amended our text accordingly in P1L30 / P1L26. For Khurdopin specifically no increase in frequency can be found. If we can take the main floods from upper Shimshal as a proxy (1979, 1960, 1944, 1923, 1901 or 1904 and possibly 1882), this corresponds to return periods of 22 (19), 19 (22), 21, 16, 19, 20 and 18 years from the end of the 19th century until today (Hewitt and Liu, 2010).

P1. 34-35: what do you mean by ‘understanding regional glacier behaviour’? Is ‘in order to advance knowledge of basal processes, non-steady flow more generally, and erosion and sediment transport in the region’ perhaps a better justification?

We agree that our explanation is too generic and we have replaced it including the suggestions made in P2L1 / P1L36.

P2 3: name the glacier here, and also specify in the next sentence that it’s the Khurdopin lake (not Kyagar) that has previously caused destruction.

Thanks for the comment, we have adapted the text at P2L10 / P2L7.

P2 8: maybe ‘recent’ is better than ‘novel’ here? Novel implies something a bit different about it.

Thanks for pointing this out, we have changed this as suggested.
P2 9: do you actually quantify the mass transfer somewhere? I don’t see it.

We have now provided an estimate of the volume flux based on the height changes in P4L16 / P3L26. As we do not have full glacier coverage with the DEMs (with the areas above the tongue being especially erroneous) and there is uncertainty in the DEMs, we cannot close the mass balance. It is therefore not possible to quantify the total volume/mass flux.

P2 16: was the ASTER DEM derived by USGS? Or by the authors? In either case, some further information is required about its expected vertical accuracy and how well it performs against the TDX DEM.

The ASTER DEM was generated through the AMES pipeline (Shean et al., 2016) and we have now specified this in P2L27 / P2L19 and additionally added a discussion of vertical accuracy and our applied corrections in the Supplementary Material.

P2 22: can you add the value (of mass loss) here?

We have added a value of volume change in P4L16 / P3L26.

P2 23: is it subglacially sourced for sure? I’ve always imagined it to be plucked from the spur where the two main tributaries meet.

This may indeed also be the case. As Reviewer 1 suggested however this information is not strictly essential for this paper so we have removed the whole sentence.

P2 26-27: is there a reason why you don’t show these finer resolution velocity data?

We have initially omitted showing these data for reasons of space in the Figures. However, also in accordance with Reviewer 1, and to further underline the value of the new Planet data we now show all velocity profiles during the surge in Figure 1 and provide all profile data in TableS3 in the Supplementary Material.

P2 31: maybe reword to ‘does not always allow the onset, peak and termination of the surge to be accurately identified, the data suggest that’?

We have changed this as suggested.

P2 32: not sure ‘build-up’ needs italics (here or at line 38)?

This is indeed not necessary and we have amended it.

P2 32-40 change to past tense here (‘were below... and quickly rose...increased in1998... and peaked in spring 1999... phase lasted untill... glacier had reached... was characterised by... velocities had reached...had further accelerated’)

Thanks for taking time for these comments, we have changed to past tense accordingly.

P3 7: I’m not sure Figure 3 really supports this statement

To support this statement we have now adapted Figure 3 to show the ponds before and crevasses after the surge.
P3 9 and 14: if the lowermost 1 km of the glacier is not impacted by the surge is the length change not zero? What is meant by length change here (if not position of the terminus)?

In Section 4 we refer to the changing part as “active tongue”, which is the part of the tongue above the green line in Figure 3. Like on neighbouring Yazghil Glacier, Khurdopin has developed an ice-cored moraine at the terminus that downwastes but does not change position anymore since many years. As such it does not seem to be dynamically connected to the actual tongue anymore. We have clarified this in the text.

P3 20-21: this is a long section between the commas – consider moving ‘at rates comparable to those of the quiescent phase’ before the first comma

Also based on comments by Reviewer 1 we have revised and shortened this sentence.

P3 32-38: it should be a short step to calculate the volumes from the DEM data – these values would be a valuable inclusion here.

We have now added an estimate of ice volume gain in P4L16 / P3L26.

P4 21: not quite true. The recent Hispar paper (doi:10.3390/rs9090888) by Paul et al. show comparable velocities

Thanks for pointing this out, since this publication was published after our submission we have not included it. We have now referred to it accordingly in P6L5 / P4L37.

P4 25-27: as far as I can tell the Planet imagery did not contribute to the data you present here other than the overview in Figure 3.

Also following the main comment from the reviewer we have now made sure to emphasize the value of the Planet data for this study throughout this Section and in the Discussion. Additionally, we show all velocities derived from Planet pairs in figure 1 and in the Supplementary Material.

Figure 1: some co-ordinates either here or in the text would help readers not familiar with the glacier to locate it.

We now refer to figure 3 in figure 1 for a location and have provided coordinates in P2L4 / P2L1

Figure 3: I’m not sure the wiggles are best described as ‘centrelines’? Are they not the contorted medial moraines that have shifted position?

Thanks for the suggestion, we have changed this.

Supplementary: can you provide the image tile names in each case?

We have now expanded table S1 in the Supplementary Material and provide details for each separate scene.

Supplementary: Table S1 should be S2 in second case (and should SRTM be included here?).

We have amended this.
Supplementary: the animation is excellent. Should it not be referred to somewhere in the text (or it may go largely un-noticed)?

We refer to this now in figure 1.

References


Brief Communication: The Khurdopin glacier surge revisited – extreme flow velocities and formation of a damned lake in 2017

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Abstract. Glacier surges occur regularly in the Karakoram but the driving mechanisms, their frequency and its relation to a changing climate remain unclear. In this study, we use digital elevation models and Landsat imagery in combination with high-resolution imagery from the Planet satellite constellation to quantify surface elevation changes and flow velocities during a glacier surge of the Khurdopin Glacier in 2017. Results reveal that an accumulation of ice mass above a clearly defined steep section of the glacier tongue since the last surge in 1999 eventually leads to a rapid surge in May 2017 peaking with velocities above 5000 m a⁻¹, which is among the fastest rates globally for a mountain glacier. The time series of Landsat imagery reveals that velocities on the lower tongue increase steadily during a four-year buildup phase prior to the actual surge and that the surge front advances towards the terminus after slowly to then rapidly peak has passed on the upper tongue. The surge and decrease again within a few months, which confirms earlier observations with a higher frequency of available velocity data. The surge return period between the reported surges remains relatively constant at 18 (1999 to 2017) and 20 (1979 to 1999) years respectively. It is hypothesized that the surge is initated as a result of increased pressure melting caused by ice accumulation, i.e. the thermal switch hypothesis. However, surface resulting in extremely high basal flow velocities, which may be further amplified by englacial hydrological processes. Surface observations show increased crevassing and disappearance of supra-glacial ponds, which could have led to increased lubrication of the glacier bed. Finally, we observe that the surging glacier blocks the river in the valley and causes a lake to form, which may grow in subsequent years and could pose threats to downstream settlements and infrastructure in case of a sudden breach.

1 Introduction

Surging glaciers are not evenly distributed around the world’s glaciated regions, but occur regularly under certain conditions (Sevestre and Benn, 2015). In the Karakoram, surges have been documented frequently since the end of the 19th century at numerous locations. In recent decades an increase in frequently observed surges has been reported (Copland et al., 2011; Hewitt, 1969, 2007), however this has not been confirmed over larger areas and time periods and it could also be an artefact stemming from the increasing temporal availability of satellite imagery. Two general mechanisms driving surges are proposed: (a) a build-up of ice mass during the quiescent phase in the reservoir zone of the glacier causing increased basal shear stress resulting in till deformation at the glacier bed referred to as the thermal switch hypothesis (Clarke et al., 1984; Quincey et al., 2011)), and (b) a collapse of hydraulic channels causing a switch from efficient surface and englacial drainage to sudden lubrication of the glacier bed referred to as the hydrological switch hypothesis (Kamb, 1987).

Studies report surges in the region being controlled by both the first (Quincey et al., 2011) as well as the second mechanism (Mayer et al., 2011).

The Karakoram glaciers have received considerable scientific attention because of the anomalous regional mass balance (Kääb et al., 2015) and the large number of surging glaciers (Paul, 2015). Surging activity needs to be better understood in
Surges on Khurdopin glacier, located in the Shimshal valley in Northern Pakistan, have been documented to occur since the late 1800s and the most recent surges have occurred in 1979 and 1999 (Copland et al., 2011; Quincey et al., 2011; Quincey and Luckman, 2014; Rankl et al., 2014). These surges were characterized by a gradual increase of velocities before the peak of the surge (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). During the surge events, the lower tongue is pushed further into the valley and has blocked the Vierjab River on several occasions, resulting in an ice-dammed lake. In the region, a similar process has been observed and well documented for Kyagar Glacier (Round et al., 2017). Sudden drainage of this lake, the Khurdopin Lake has caused destruction to downstream villages before, which led to the development of an early warning system with bonfires along the slopes of the entire Shimshal valley (Itririzaga, 2005). So far these surges were solely described by investigating velocity data from distinct surface features of the glacier, using both coarse resolution satellite data, and field observations. Results show that the surge velocities can be up to two orders of magnitude faster than during the quiescent phase, however lack of cloud free imagery has made it difficult to accurately characterize the most recent surge (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). In this study, we put these earlier findings into further context by investigating a new surge event in 2017 using recent satellite imagery. First we quantify surge velocities using automated feature tracking. We then quantify mass transport during quiescent and surge phases based on multi-temporal digital elevation model (DEM) analysis and we assess the potential hazard of lake formation using high-resolution optical satellite imagery. Finally, we discuss potential trigger mechanisms that may lead to the onset of the Khurdopin surge.

2 Data and Methods

To derive spatial velocities we use cross-correlation feature tracking using the COSI-Corr software (Leprince et al., 2007) on selected Landsat imagery between 1992 and 2017, (30 m), and on Planet high-resolution imagery (3 m) between 2016 and 2017 (Planet Team, 2017) (Supplemental Table S1). Mass changes were computed using a TanDEM-X digital elevation model (DEM) from 2011 and a DEM generated from ASTER imagery from May 2017. Using the GlabTop Model Volume changes were computed using the SRTM from 2000, a TanDEM-X DEM from 2011 and a DEM generated from ASTER imagery from May 2017. TheASTER DEM was generated using the open source Ames Stereo Pipeline software (Shean et al., 2016). We compared the DEMs in stable off-glacier terrain and corrected the products accordingly (see Supplementary Material). Using the GlabTop2 model (Frey et al., 2014) and the SRTM, we computed ice thickness for the glacier and inferred the bed topography by deducting it from the SRTM DEM. Details on the specific COSI-Corr settings as well as the imagery used are provided in the supplementary material. The potential lake volume was calculated by intersecting the visually-derived lake perimeter with the TanDEM-X DEM.

3 Velocities during surge events

Khurdopin glacier is approximately 41 km in length, 1.5 km in width and has an elevation range between 3300 m above sea level (a.s.l.) in the Shimshal valley to 7760 m a.s.l. at the peak of Kanjut Sar. It is heavily debris covered on the lower 10 km of the tongue and distinct meandering debris bands typical for surge type glaciers are present up to 20 km from the terminus. While the western debris band seems to originate from the flanks of Kanjut Sar, the medial moraine is sub-glacially sourced. To investigate velocities on Khurdopin, we separated the tongue into 25 bins, each spaced at 1 km equidistance along the centreline (Figure 1), and calculated the mean velocity within the bin. Using high-resolution imagery from the Planet satellites with sub-weekly overpasses (Planet Team, 2017), we were able to characterize the surge event and the surface dynamics on the lower tongue and near the glacier terminus.
The surge of Khurdopin observed in 2017 confirms a recurring cycle typical for surging glaciers, ~20 years in this case (1979, 1999, 2017). Mean average surface velocities on the main tongue of Khurdopin (25 km in length) during a quiescent phase are below 5 m a⁻¹, with a small peak at 15 m a⁻¹ around 12 km along the tongue, which, with observations of floods possibly caused by lake drainage after a surge in 1901 or 1904, 1923, 1944, 1960 (Hewitt and Liu, 2010) and observed surges in 1979, 1999 and 2017. Mean average surface velocities on the 25 km long main tongue of Khurdopin during a quiescent phase are below 5 m a⁻¹, with a small peak of 15 m a⁻¹ at around 12 km along the tongue. The peak corresponds to a markedly steeper section of the profile (Figure 1). While lack of cloud-free imagery or poor image quality does not always allow accurate identification of the onset, peak and termination of the surge, the data suggest that a gradual increase of surface velocities over multiple years led to surge peaks with velocities up to 4000 m a⁻¹ in 1979 and 1999 (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). The most recent quiescent phase lasted from 2000 until at least 2011. By 2013 the glacier had reached surface velocities above 100 m a⁻¹ beyond the steep section (km-12), but still smaller than 10 m a⁻¹ in the lower 5 km. The build-up phase between the quiescent phase and the actual surge peak between 2015 and 2016 was characterised by increasing surface velocities in the tongue’s upper reach (Figure 1 and Table S3 in the Supplementary Material). Between early 2017 and beginning of June velocities increased up to 5200 m a⁻¹ and dropped again to below 200 m a⁻¹ in most parts by September. While this extreme acceleration and deceleration happened within less than 9 months, the velocity peak along the longitudinal profile remained relatively stable (Figure 1). The increased velocity and associated ice volume redistribution resulted in increased strain rates, evidenced by crevasses appearing at the glacier surface since early May with a marked increase in size and number since mid-June (Figure 3d). Note that the first 1 km of the tongue has remained completely unchanged during the surge as in recent decades, and melt water ponds on the surface indicate it to be likely an ice cored moraine by now (notably the area below the green line in Figure 3). Free imagery or poor image quality does not always permit to accurately date onset, peak and stop of a surge, the data suggests that a gradual increase of surface velocities between 1975 and 1979 led to a surge in July 1979. Surface velocities in the build-up phase are below 100 m a⁻¹ until the year of the surge and quickly rise during a three month period prior to the peak velocity of 4000 m a⁻¹. The gradual build-up and then relatively short surge peak support earlier findings based on less frequently available data (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). Visual analysis of the second surge shows that surface velocities increase in 1988 after a quiescent phase and peak in spring 1989 reaching beyond 2000 m a⁻¹, which is slightly later and faster than what is reported by Quincey and Luckman (2014). The subsequent quiescent phase lasted until at least 2011. By 2013 the glacier has reached surface velocities above 100 m a⁻¹ beyond the steep section (km-17), but still smaller than 10 m a⁻¹ in the lower 5 km. The build-up phase between the quiescent phase and the actual surge peak is characterised by increasing surface velocities in the tongue’s upper reach (Figure 1). By the end of 2016, surface velocities have reached 400 m a⁻¹ around km-12 and nearly 20 m a⁻¹ between km-2 and km-1 and by April the glacier has further accelerated to velocities of more than 1000 m a⁻¹ between km-7 and km-20. The peak velocity of the most recent surge was reached between the last days of May and the 3rd of June 2017, with highest mean observed velocity just above 5000 m a⁻¹ around km-10. Velocities near the terminus, between km-2 and km-4, were still below 300 m a⁻¹ at that point. By the end of June the glacier slowed down to less than 3000 m a⁻¹ between km-5 and km-15 but accelerated to >1500 m a⁻¹ just above the terminus. This advance of the surge front with a simultaneous decrease of velocities further up-glacier corresponds to observations on other surge type glaciers in the region (Quincey et al., 2011). The increased velocity and associated ice mass redistribution result in increased strain rates, evidenced by crevasses appearing at the glacier surface since early May with a marked increase in size and number since mid-June (Figure 3d). While the available Landsat images were equally able to pick up the high velocities, it was only possible to characterize the actual surge development in such detail with the high-frequency Planet imagery, which additionally increases the chances for cloud-free imagery. Note that the first 1 km of the tongue has remained completely unchanged during the surge as in recent decades, and melt water ponds on the surface indicate it to be likely an ice cored moraine by now (notably the area below the green line in Figure 3). This makes it difficult to discern actual length changes due to the surge.
4 Mass loss changes during surge events

Apart from increased velocities, surges logically also result in large amounts of displaced ice mass. In many cases this results in a rapid extension of the position of the glacier’s snout. However, in the case of Khurdopin the terminus does not advance and has not done so during at least the recent surges, since it has turned into a stable moraine. This makes detection of actual length changes of the active tongue visually difficult (Figure 1). Using three DEMs (SRTM in 2000, TanDEM-X in 2011 and ASTER in 2017; Supplementary Table S2) the elevation change rate fractions for the quiescent phase after the last surge to the build-up and surge phases are quantified (Figure 2). The transition from positive to negative elevation change during the quiescent phase is clearly notable and coincides with the steep section of bedrock around km-12 (Figure 2, panel a). This distinction is again visible exactly at the same spot in the reverse case, an observation made earlier by (Gardelle et al., 2012), who identified this distinct behaviour for other glaciers in the region as well. This distinction is again visible exactly at the same location for the surge, when elevation change is positive in the lower reach where mass is accumulating. During the surge in May 2017 the glacier surface between km-3 and 12 has likely gained height by approximately 50 to 80 m, considering depending on whether we assume the mean change between 2011 and 2017 and accounting for net volume loss during the fact that elevation changes—build-up phase—between 2011 and 2016 were likely negative due to melt, at rates comparable to those of be zero or equal to the volume loss during the quiescent phase, between 2000 and 2011. Based on the elevation changes we find a net volume gain between 2011 and 2017 of 520 - 10^3 m^3 (+/-117 - 10^3 m^3 based on the DEM accuracy) between the steep section and the part of the terminus where no more surface change is visible. Averaged over the entire glacier we estimate that the overall mass loss is slightly negative, (see surface elevation change in Figure 2), similar to what is reported by Bolch et al. (2017).

5 Hydrology and Hazards

The tongue of the Khurdopin glacier reaches across the main valley floor. As a consequence this glacier has blocked the local Vjerab river multiple times in recent decades, which has repeatedly caused considerable damages to settlements downstream (Iturrizaga, 2005). The blockage is caused by the tongue pushing towards the opposite headwall of the main valley (Figure 3). Most of the reported lake drainages were however not catastrophic and happened gradually as the river water slowly eroded the glacier ice similar to other regional glacier lakes (Haeussermann et al., 2014). From historic Landsat imagery it is obvious that a lake formed during the melt season in two consecutive years after the surge in 1999, likely because the added mass required considerable time to be eroded. In late April 2017, the lake formed at exactly the same location, growing quickly from 0.02 km^2 at the beginning of May to 0.06 km^2 one month later and more than 0.1 km^2 on the 28^th of June, reaching a lake depth of ca 2 m. Ice floes on the water surface indicate ice calving from the advancing tongue and could pose an additional threat as they could block a drainage channel temporarily and create a sudden spill upon disintegration. Projected extents based on the DEM analysis correspond well to what was observed in 2000, when the lake was 0.7 km^2 (Figure 3). Considering the height of the advanced glacier tongue – between 15 m at the fringe and up to 80 m at the centre – and a potentially large influx of sediments from Vjerab and Khurdopin subglacial drainage systems, we show potential lake extents that could reach up to 1 km^3 possibly during the melt season of 2018 or 2019.

The tongue of the Khurdopin Glacier reaches across the main valley floor. As a consequence the glacier has blocked the local Vjerab river multiple times in the last century. The blockage is caused by the tongue that pushes towards the opposite headwall of the main valley (Figure 3). Most of the reported lake drainages were not catastrophic and they have rarely caused damages downstream beyond eroded fields and damaged bridges (Hewitt and Liu, 2010; Iturriza, 2005). From historic Landsat imagery it is obvious that a lake formed during the melt season in two consecutive years after the surge in 1999, likely because the added mass required considerable time to be eroded. In late April 2017, the lake formed at exactly the same location, growing quickly from 72000 m^3 at the beginning of May to 1 - 10^3 m^3 one month later and peaking at 2 - 10^3 m^3 on the 28^th of June. The lake finally drained starting around the 21^st of July and had disappeared by 5^th of August. As
a consequence the river washed away the road at multiple locations, destroyed at least one main bridge and eroded local agricultural land, making the valley inaccessible for a week. Ice floes on the water surface indicate ice calving from the advancing tongue and could pose an additional threat as they could block a drainage channel temporarily and create a sudden spill upon disintegration. Projected extents based on the DEM analysis correspond well to what was observed in 2000, when the lake was 0.7 km² or a corresponding 7.5 \times 10^6 m³ (Figure 3). Considering the height of the advanced glacier tongue – between 15 m at the fringe and up to 80 m on the surging tongue – and the fact that in 2000 the lake reached lake levels ca. 10 m higher than in 2017, we show potential lake extents that could reach beyond 1 km² or 10 \times 10^6 m³, possibly during the melt season of 2018 or 2019. Repeat floods in the one or two years after a possible surge event have been reported multiple times in the recent century as well (Hewitt and Liu, 2010). The volumes calculated could be decreased by sediments visibly deposited either by the surging glacier or the dammed Vjélab River.

6 Discussion and Conclusion

The data collected and analysed support earlier studies on Khurdopin in the observation of a relatively constant return period of a glacier surge of 20 years since the end of the 19th century, irrespective of a changing climate and surges of nearby glaciers (Quincey et al., 2011; Quincey and Luckman, 2014; Hewitt and Liu, 2010; Quincey et al., 2011; Quincey and Luckman, 2014). Using distributed velocity and elevation change data we furthermore show that a division point exists at 12 km up-glacier that separates two distinct reaches of the tongue: (a) the upper reach where velocities gradually increase during the build-up phase and mass continuously accumulates during the 19 years of quiescence between surges, and (b) the lower reach where velocities peak during the surge and the ice mass previously accumulated in the upper reach is relocated within only a number of weeks. This line likely coincides with a steep bedrock section and is located just below a tributary that possibly supplies a lot of additional mass via avalanche deposits. The surge of 2017 showed a similar four-year build-up time as the surge in 1979 over which the glacier surface in the upper reach increased by approximately 3 m a⁻¹ and decreased by up to 7 m a⁻¹ in the lower reach. This period is defined by constantly increasing velocities in the upper reaches. In combination with a gradual accumulation of mass during quiescence the actual surge starts rapidly when a tipping point is reached, as the increased pressure causes basal conditions to switch from cold to temperate. It is difficult to ascertain which are the main drivers for the regular surges on Khurdopin Glacier (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). In combination with a gradual accumulation of mass on the upper tongue during quiescence and a resulting steepening surface gradient the actual surge starts rapidly when a tipping point is reached. Ice deformation \( u_z \) (Greve and Blatter, 2009; Round et al., 2017), even when assuming a relatively small ice thickness between 150 m and 250 m, provides a velocity of 4 to 34 m a⁻¹ for the 4° steep surface gradient. This is in the same order of magnitude as the measured velocities during quiescence. This points to the thermal switch hypothesis (Clarke et al., 1984) being at play, as suggested earlier for this glacier (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). However, the sudden absence of supraglacial ponds on the terminus during the surge and the formation of a supraglacial pond in May 2000 after the last surge exactly at the location of the clear line of change around km 12, could also point at a disturbed englacial network playing a role in the surge. As velocities increase rapidly from 2015 onwards, the contribution of deformations becomes less important and basal motion amplified by subglacial drainage plays a dominant role. The sudden absence of supraglacial ponds on the terminus during the surge (Figure 3) and the formation of a supraglacial pond in May 2000 after the last surge exactly at the location of the clear line of change around km 12, could also point at a disturbed englacial network playing a role (Kamb, 1987; Mayer et al., 2011). At least the last two surges occurred at the beginning of the melt season, which could further catalyse the surge if melt water reaches the ice-bedrock interface. Basal sliding is most likely the dominant flow process as the cross profiles of surface velocity indicate plug flow, characterized by flat rather than parabolic velocity profiles as was observed during the quiescent phase (Kamb et al., 1985). The surface velocities observed during the peak surge in May 2017 on Khurdopin glaciers are as previously suggested the surge on Khurdopin is hence likely a combination of the thermal and hydrological switch (Quincey and Luckman, 2014).
similar to Kyagar Glacier (Round et al., 2017). Future field observations should focus on finding possible evidence for these processes and possible feedback processes, especially related to the deformation of water-saturated granular base material that could explain these extreme acceleration rates and peak velocities (Damsgaard et al., 2015). The surface velocities observed during the peak surge in May 2017 on Khurdopin Glacier are, together with the recently observed surge on the neighboring Hispar Glacier (Paul et al., 2017), the fastest so far reported for the region. In their magnitude and rapid acceleration and deceleration they are comparable to similar bursts at the closely investigated Variegated Glacier (Kamb et al., 1985), where observations with even higher temporal resolution were available. We can show that newly available satellite imagery with multiple cloud-free sub-weekly image pairs makes the characterization of such a rapid surge cycle possible and confirms high peak velocities that are easily missed by less frequently available Landsat imagery. As a consequence of the surge a lake has formed in the proglacial valley, similar to earlier surges. We quantified its evolution and potential future expansion as it is very likely that the lake will reappear during melt seasons in the following two years until the accumulated mass has sufficiently eroded for the water to drain freely. Exploiting the potential of only recently available high-resolution imagery with frequent overpasses, as employed in this study, could lead to a better understanding of such surges as it provides the potential for more accurate velocity data (Altena and Kaab, 2017). Additionally, it would also enable faster assessment of risk potentials and subsequent warning of affected communities.

7 Author Contributions
JFS, PDAK and WWI designed the study, JFS and PDAK carried out the data analysis, JFS wrote the manuscript. SGJ pointed out the occurrence of the surge and provided contacts to the local authorities. PDAK, SGJ and WWI reviewed the manuscript.

8 Acknowledgements
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References
Frey, H., Machguth, H., Hass, M., Hugger, C., Bajracharya, S., Bolch, T., Kulkarni, A., Linsbauer, A., Salzmann, N. and


Figure 1: Velocities measured from cross correlating Landsat 7 and 8 imagery of one year of the quiescent phase (a; 17th of October 2010 – 18th of September 2011), the last year of the build-up (b; 28th of August 2015 – 10th of May 2016) and the surge peak in May 2017 (c; 13th to 29th of May, 2017). Panel (d) shows mean values of the bins compared against bed elevation, and all available velocity pairs for 2017, between December 2016 (dark red) and September (yellow). Note the difference in scales for the different phases. An animation of the images used to derive the velocities can be found in the Supplementary Material.
Figure 2: Elevation change rates during the quiescent phase (a), and during the build-up and surge phase (b). Mean values per bin are shown in panel (c). Note that the change due to the surge specifically (occurring only in a few months in 2017) is much larger than what is shown, as the difference between the 2011 and 2017 DEM includes at least 4 years of mass loss on the lower, and mass gain at the upper part of the tongue.
Figure 3: Evidence from the surge event visible at the tongue. The left main panel is based on a Planet image from the 28th of June 2017 (Planet Team, 2017). The medial moraines, the lake extent in 2017, the original river bed and moraine crest are also mapped from Planet imagery. The lake extent in 2000 is mapped from the panchromatic band of Landsat 7. The projected lake extents and depths are computed based on the SRTM-DEM. The yellow rectangles show areas of heavy crevassing TanDEM-X. Arrows at (a) and (b) denote angle of view for images on the right. Panel (a) shows an overview of the front of the tongue and panel (b) shows the front of the advance. Note the fine dark sediments often associated with a surge event. The
tongue below the dashed green line remained stable showed no change during the surge. Panels (c) and (d) show the tongue surface before and after the surge. (Photos: Waheed Anwar, May 2017)
Supplementary Material to Brief Communication: The Khurdopin surge revisited – extreme surge velocities and formation of a dammed lake in 2017

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1 Data

Table S1: LANDSAT/Planet Data for Velocity Datasets and Animation. All scenes within the years given in the last column were acquired and visually pre-selected for cloud cover, snow cover and image quality over the glacier outline. The numbers in the first column refer to the actual pairing to derive velocities in Table S3.

<table>
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<th>COSI-Corr pair (Table S3)</th>
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<th>Resolution</th>
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Table S3: Velocity values [m a⁻¹] from all data products for the period between 2000 and 2017. Rows are km along the glacier tongue starting at the terminus. Columns are time steps and associated satellite products as described in Table S1. Color code corresponds to quiescence (green), build up (yellow) and surge (red).
2 Model Settings and Uncertainties

2.1 Velocities

COSI-Corr is sensitive to chosen initial window sizes as well as window steps (Leprince et al., 2007). In this study we work with different satellite products in respect to resolution and band quality – from the 30 m bands of the initial LANDSAT MSS Satellite to the 3 m optical product of Planet – which made different setups necessary. For the 30 m bands of Landsat MSS and Landsat-5 we used an initial window (W) of 128 pixels, a final window (F) of 16 pixels and a step size of 2 pixels (d) –(W128-F16-d2). For Landsat-7 and Landsat-8 as well as Planet imagery we used a W128-F16-d4 setting while for surge events, when displacement is substantial or imagery is far apart in time, a W256-F16-d8 is used. We used the Non-Local Means Filter of COSI-Corr (Ayoub et al., 2009) to smooth the gridded data. Velocities measured on stable off-glacier terrain were used to assess the validity of the on-glacier data. The Landsat-MSS off-glacier velocities are in the same range as on-glacier velocities, which makes the COSI-Corr approach not suitable for this data. Off-glacier displacement based on Landsat-5 data was between 2 – 5 m a\(^{-1}\), and this is sufficiently accurate to investigate the build-up and surge phase where velocities are generally one order of magnitude higher. Landsat-7 and 8 as well as Planet data used in the analysis from 2013 onwards generally show off-glacier displacements of 2 - 3 m a\(^{-1}\) for imagery multiple days to weeks apart, which corresponds to the likely error identified by (Luckman et al., 2007). To make sure that noise, resulting from errors in the co-registration process, is not included in the data analysis, we discard all pixel values with a signal-to-noise ratio smaller than 0.75, following (Kraaijenbrink et al., 2016). As large displacements during a surge are picked up as noise by the algorithm in many cases, this constraint had to be loosened for surge peaks. In these cases patches on the surface that showed erratic behaviour (no uniform direction, large variability in velocities on a small area) were discarded visually.

3 2.2 DEMs

We compare the offset between the respective DEMs in relatively flat valley areas where all 3 DEM products are available (Figure S1a). Both TanDEM-X and the ASTER DEM are of less quality in steep terrain, however the 90\(^{th}\) percentile of slope values on the investigated glacier surface is 10\(^{°}\), below which the quality is generally acceptable. We therefore exclude all values from the test areas with a slope above 10\(^{°}\). This results in a median offset between the TanDEM-X and the SRTM in the test areas of -24.8 m (\(\sigma = 8.5\) m, Figure S1b), which is caused by the different geoids of the datasets, WGS84 and EGM96 respectively. Between the ASTER and the TanDEM-X an offset of -12.4 m (\(\sigma = 2.3\) m) is found and used for correction on the ASTER (Figure S1c).
3 Lake Volume Calculation

The volume of the lake was calculated by (1) deriving lake perimeters from the orthophotos, (2) draping them over the TanDEM-X digital elevation model, (3) taking the lake level as the 90th percentile of all elevation values (as the polygon of the perimeter does not have a continuous value due to the inaccuracies of the DEM), and (4) deriving the difference between this plane and the DEM (Figure S2). The lake volumes fit well with the exponential function derived by (Cook and Quincey, 2015) for lower volumes. As (Cook and Quincey, 2015) describe for ice-dammed lakes (Fig.4 therein), the curve steepens, i.e. volume increases faster than area, for larger areas, which is true for this lake as well. However for much greater extents (as observed in 2000) the relation does not hold anymore as areas increase faster due to the lake flooding a very shallow alluvial fan at the confluence of the Vijerab and the Khurdopin valley (see green and red markers in Figure S2b).
Figure S2: (a) Lake areas derived from orthophotos and associated lake levels. (b) Relating lake area to lake volume. The black dots are values from 2017, the green marker is the lake in May 2000 and the red markers are projected areas and volumes with possible increase in lake level height 10 m above the value measured in 2000. The solid line is a relation for Volume-Area scaling found by (Cook and Quincey, 2015) which fits well for the observations in 2017, but overestimates for larger lake areas.

4 Supplementary Animation of all Landsat Scenes

Making use of all available Landsat imagery, we compiled an animation over all scenes with suitable image quality (SupplementaryMaterial.zip). The images were not enhanced but rather comprise the raw GEOtiff rasters used for the analysis of velocity data were used for the analysis.

References


NASA LP DAAC: ASTER L1a Land Processes Distributed Active Archive Center (LP DAAC), [online] Available from:
Brief Communication: The Khurudopin glacier surge revisited – extreme flow velocities and formation of a dammed lake in 2017

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Abstract. Glacier surges occur regularly in the Karakoram but the driving mechanisms, their frequency and its relation to a changing climate remain unclear. In this study, we use digital elevation models and Landsat imagery in combination with high-resolution imagery from the Planet satellite constellation to quantify surface elevation changes and flow velocities during a glacier surge initiated by the Khurudopin glacier in 2017. Results reveal an accumulation of ice volume above a clearly defined steep section of the glacier tongue since the last surge in 1999 eventually leads to a rapid surge in May 2017 peaking with velocities above 5000 m a⁻¹, which is among the fastest rates globally for a mountain glacier. The time series of Landsat imagery reveals that velocities increase steadily during a fourth-year build-up phase prior to the actual surge, and that the surge front advances towards the terminus after roughly passing on the upper tongue. The surge peak is observed 10-13 months after the upper tongue passes on the lower tongue. The increase in velocity may be further amplified by englacial hydrological processes. Surface observations show increased crevassing and disapperance of supra-glacial ponds, which could have led to increased lubrication of the glacier bed. Finally, we observe that the surging glacier blocks the river in the valley and causes a lake to form, which may grow in subsequent years and could pose threats to downstream settlements and infrastructure in case of a sudden breach.

1 Introduction

Surging glaciers are not evenly distributed around the world’s glaciated regions, but occur regularly under certain conditions (Sevestre and Benn, 2015). In the Karakoram, surges have been documented frequently since the end of the 19th century at numerous locations. In recent decades an increase in frequently observed surges has been reported (Copland et al., 2011; Hewitt, 1969, 2007), however this has not been confirmed over larger areas and time periods and it could also be an artefact stemming from the increasing temporal availability of satellite imagery. Two general mechanisms driving surges are proposed: (a) a build-up of ice volume during the quiescent phase in the reservoir zone of the glacier causing increased basal shear stress resulting in till deformation at the glacier bed referred to as the thermal switch hypothesis (Clarke et al., 1984; Quincey et al., 2011)), and (b) a collapse of hydraulic channels causing a switch from efficient surface and englacial drainage to sudden lubrication of the glacier bed referred to as the hydrological switch hypothesis (Kamb et al., 1987). Studies report surges in the region being controlled by both the first (Quincey et al., 2011) as well as the second mechanism (Mayer et al., 2011).

The Karakoram glaciers have received considerable scientific attention because of the anomalous regional mass balance (Kääb et al., 2015) and the large number of surging glaciers (Paul, 2015). Surging activity needs to be better understood in
Surges on Khurdopin glacier, located in the Shimshal valley in Northern Pakistan, have been documented to occur since the late 1800s and the most recent surges have occurred in 1979 and 1999 (Copland et al., 2011; Quincey et al., 2011; Quincey and Luckman, 2014; Rankl et al., 2014). These surges were characterized by a gradual increase of velocities before the peak of the surge (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). During the surge events, the lower tongue is pushed further into the valley and has blocked the Vijerab River on several occasions, resulting in an ice dammed lake. In the region, a similar to another process has been observed and well documented for Kyagar Glacier (Round et al., 2017; Round et al., 2017). Sudden drainage of the lake, the Khurdopin Lake, has caused destruction to downstream villages before, which led to the development of an early warning system with bonfires along the slopes of the entire Shimshal valley (Iturrizaga, 2005). So far these surges were solely described by investigating velocity data from distinct surface features of the glacier, using both coarse resolution satellite data, and field observations. Results show that the surge velocities can be up to two orders of magnitude faster than during the quiescent phase, however lack of cloud free imagery has made it difficult to accurately characterize the most recent surge (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). In this study, we put these earlier findings into further context by investigating a new surge event in 2017 using most recent satellite imagery. First we quantify surge velocities using automated feature tracking. We then quantify mass transport during quiescent and surge phases based on multi-temporal digital elevation model (DEM) analysis and we assess the potential hazard of lake formation using high-resolution optical satellite imagery. Finally, we discuss potential trigger mechanisms that may lead to the onset of the Khurdopin surge.

2 Data and Methods

To derive spatial velocities we use cross-correlation feature tracking using the COSI-Corr software (Leprince et al., 2007) on selected Landsat imagery between 2017 (30 m) and on Planet high-resolution imagery (3 m) between 2016 and 2017 (Planet Team, 2017) (Supplemental Table S1). Mass changes were computed using a TanDEM-X digital elevation model (DEM) from 2011 and a DEM generated from ASTER imagery from May 2017. Using the GlabTop Model, volume changes were computed using the SRTM from 2000, a TanDEM-X DEM from 2011 and a DEM generated from ASTER imagery from May 2017. The ASTER DEM was generated using the open source Ames Stereo Pipeline software (Shean et al., 2016). We compared the DEMs in stable off-glacier terrain and corrected the products accordingly (see Supplementary Material). Using the GlabTop2 model (Frey et al., 2014) and the SRTM, we computed ice thickness for the glacier and inferred the bed topography by deducting it from the SRTM DEM. Details on the specific COSI-Corr settings as well as the imagery used are provided in the supplementary material. The potential lake volume was calculated by intersecting the visually-derived lake perimeter with the TanDEM-X DEM.

3 Velocities during surge events

Khurdopin glacier is approximately 41 km in length, 1.5 km in width and has an elevation range between 3300 m above sea level (a.s.l.) in the Shimshal valley to 7760 m a.s.l. at the peak of Kanjut Sar. It is heavily debris covered on the lower 10 km of the tongue and distinct meandering debris bands typical for surge type glaciers are present up to 20 km from the terminus. While the western debris band seems to originate from the flanks of Kanjut Sar, the medial moraine is sub-glacially sourced. To investigate velocities on Khurdopin, we separated the tongue into 25 bins, each spaced at 1 km equidistance along the centreline (Figure 1), and calculated the mean velocity within the bin. Using high-resolution imagery from the Planet satellites with sub-weekly overpasses (Planet Team, 2017), we were able to characterize the surge event and the surface dynamics on the lower tongue and near the glacier terminus.
The surge of Khurdopin observed in 2017 confirms a recurring cycle typical for surging glaciers, ~20 years in this case (1979, 1999, 2017). Mean average surface velocities on the main tongue of Khurdopin (25 km in length) during a quiescent phase are below 5 m a⁻¹, with a small peak at 15 m a⁻¹ around 12 km along the tongue, which, with observations of floods possibly caused by lake drainage after a surge in 1901 or 1904, 1923, 1944, 1960 (Hewitt and Liu, 2010) and observed surges in 1979, 1999 and 2017. Mean average surface velocities on the 25 km long main tongue of Khurdopin during a quiescent phase are below 5 m a⁻¹, with a small peak of 15 m a⁻¹ at around 12 km along the tongue. The peak corresponds to a markedly steeper section of the profile (Figure 1). While lack of cloud-free imagery or poor image quality does not always allow accurate identification of the onset, peak and termination of the surge, the data suggest that a gradual increase of surface velocities over multiple years led to surge peaks with velocities up to 4000 m a⁻¹ in 1979 and 1999 (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). The most recent quiescent phase lasted from 2000 until at least 2011. By 2013 the glacier had reached surface velocities above 100 m a⁻¹ beyond the steep section (km-12), but still smaller than 10 m a⁻¹ in the lower 5 km. The build-up phase between the quiescent phase and the actual surge peak between 2015 and 2016 was characterised by increasing surface velocities in the tongue’s upper reach (Figure 1 and Table S3 in the Supplementary Material). Between early 2017 and beginning of June velocities increased up to 5200 m a⁻¹ and dropped again to below 200 m a⁻¹ in most parts by September. While this extreme acceleration and deceleration happened within less than 9 months, the velocity peak along the longitudinal profile remained relatively stable (Figure 1). The increased velocity and associated ice volume redistribution resulted in increased strain rates, evidenced by crevasses appearing at the glacier surface since early May with a marked increase in size and number since mid-June (Figure 3d). Note that the first 1 km of the tongue has remained completely unchanged during the surge as in recent decades, and melt water ponds on the surface indicate it is likely an ice cored moraine by now (notably the area below the green line in Figure 3). Free imagery or poor image quality does not allow to accurately date onset, peak and stop of a surge, the data suggests that a gradual increase of surface velocities between 1975 and 1979 led to a surge in July 1979. Surface velocities in the build-up phase are below 100 m a⁻¹ until the year of the surge and quickly rise during a three-month period prior to the peak velocity of 4000 m a⁻¹. The gradual build-up and then relatively short surge peak support earlier findings based on less frequently available data (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). Visual analysis of the second surge shows that surface velocities increase in 1999 after a quiescent phase and peak in spring 1999 reaching beyond 2000 m a⁻¹, which is slightly later and faster than what is reported by Quincey and Luckman (2011). The subsequent quiescent phase lasts until at least 2011. By 2013 the glacier has reached surface velocities above 100 m a⁻¹ beyond the steep section (km-17), but still smaller than 10 m a⁻¹ in the lower 5 km. The build-up phase between the quiescent phase and the actual surge peak is characterized by increasing surface velocities in the tongue’s upper reach (Figure 1). By the end of 2016, surface velocities have reached 400 m a⁻¹ around km-12 and nearly 20 m a⁻¹ between km-2 and km-1 and by April the glacier has further accelerated to velocities of more than 1000 m a⁻¹ between km-7 and km-20. The peak velocity of the most recent surge was reached between the last days of May and the 3rd of June 2017, with highest mean observed velocity just above 5000 m a⁻¹ around km-10. Velocities near the terminus, between km-2 and km-1, were still below 300 m a⁻¹ at that point. By the end of June the glacier slowed down to less than 3000 m a⁻¹ between km 5 and km 15 but accelerated to > 1500 m a⁻¹ just above the terminus. This advance of the surge front with a simultaneous decrease of velocities further up glacier corresponds to observations on other surge type glaciers in the region (Quincey et al., 2011). The increased velocity and associated ice mass redistribution result in increased strain rates, evidenced by crevasses appearing at the glacier surface since early May with a marked increase in size and number since mid-June (Figure 3d). While the available Landsat images were equally able to pick up the high velocities, it was only possible to characterize the actual surge development in such detail with the high-frequency Planet imagery, which additionally increases the chances for cloud-free imagery. Note that the first 1 km of the tongue has remained completely unchanged during the surge as in recent decades, and melt water ponds on the surface indicate it is likely an ice cored moraine by now (notably the area below the green line in Figure 3). This makes it difficult to discern actual length changes due to the surge.
4 Mass*Ice volume* changes during surge events

Apart from increased velocities, surges logically also result in large amounts of displaced ice massvolume. In many cases this results in a rapid extension of the position of the glacier’s snout. However, local the case of Khurdopin the termend does not advance and has not done so during at least the recent surges, since it has turned into a stable moraine. This makes detection of actual length changes of the active tongue visually difficult (Figure 1). Using three DEMs (SRTM in 2000, TanDEM-X in 2011 and ASTER in 2017; Supplementary Table S2) the elevation change rates from rates for the quiescent phase after the last surge to the build-up and surge phase are quantified (Figure 2). The transition from positive to negative elevation change during the quiescent phase is clearly notable and coincides with the steep section of bedrock around km-12 (Figure 2, panel a). This distinction is again visible exactly at the same spot in the reverse case, an observation made earlier by (Gardelle et al., 2012), who identified this distinct behaviour for other glaciers in the region as well. This distinction is again visible exactly at the same location for the surge, when elevation change is positive in the lower reach where mass is accumulating. During the surge in May 2017 the glacier surface between km-3 and 12 has likely gained height by approximately 50 to 80 m, considering depending on whether we assume the mean change between 2011 and 2017 and accounting for net volume loss between 2011 and 2016 were likely negative due to melt, at rates comparable to those of be zero or equal to the volume loss during the quiescent phase, between 2000 and 2011. Based on the elevation changes we find a net volume gain between 2011 and 2017 of 520 \( \cdot \) \( 10^6 \) m\(^3\) (\( +\) 17 - \( 10^6 \) m\(^3\) based on the DEM accuracy) between the steep section and the part of the terminus where no more surface change is visible. Averaged over the entire glacier we estimate that the overall massvolume loss is slightly negative, see surface elevation chance in Figure 2b, similar to what is reported by Bolch et al., (2017).

5 Hydrology and Hazards

The tongue of the Khurdopin glacier reaches across the main valley floor. As a consequence this glacier has blocked the local Vijerab river multiple times in recent decades, which has repeatedly caused considerable damages to settlements downstream (Iturrizaga, 2005). The blocking is caused as the tongue pushes towards the opposite headwall of the main valley (Figure 3). Most of the reported lake drainages were however not catastrophic and happened gradually as the river water slowly eroded the glacier ice similar to other regional glacier lakes (Haeummg et al., 2014). From historic Landsat imagery it is obvious that a lake formed during the melt season in two consecutive years after the surge in 1999, likely because the added mass required considerable time to be eroded. In late April 2017, the lake formed at exactly the same location, growing quickly from 0.02 km\(^2\) at the beginning of May to 0.06 km\(^2\) one month later and more than 0.1 km\(^2\) on the 28\(^{th}\) of June, reaching a lake depth of ca 2 m. Ice floe on the water surface indicate ice calving from the advancing tongue and could pose an additional threat as they could block a drainage channel temporarily and create a sudden spill upon disintegration. Projected extents based on the DEM analysis correspond well to what was observed in 2000, when the lake was 0.7 km\(^2\) (Figure 3). Considering the height of the advanced glacier tongue – between 15 m at the fringe and up to 80 m at the centre – and a potentially large influx of sediments from Vijerab and Khurdopin subglacial drainage systems, we show potential lake extents that could reach up to 1 km\(^2\) possibly during the melt season of 2018 or 2019.

The tongue of the Khurdopin Glacier reaches across the main valley floor. As a consequence the glacier has blocked the local Vijerab river multiple times in the last century. The blocking is caused by the tongue that pushes towards the opposite headwall of the main valley (Figure 3). Most of the reported lake drainages were not catastrophic and they have rarely caused damages downstream beyond eroded fields and damaged bridges (Hewitt and Liu, 2010; Iturrizaga, 2005). From historic Landsat imagery it is obvious that a lake formed during the melt season in two consecutive years after the surge in 1999, likely because the added mass required considerable time to be eroded. In late April 2017, the lake formed at exactly the same location, growing quickly from 72000 m\(^3\) at the beginning of May to 1 - 10\(^6\) m\(^3\) one month later and peaking at 2 - 10\(^6\) m\(^3\) on the 28\(^{th}\) of June. The lake finally drained starting around the 21\(^{st}\) of July and had disappeared by 5\(^{th}\) of August. As
a consequence the river washed away the road at multiple locations, destroyed at least one main bridge and eroded local agricultural land, making the valley inaccessible for a week. Ice floes on the water surface indicate ice calving from the advancing tongue and could pose an additional threat as they could block a drainage channel temporarily and create a sudden spill upon disintegration. Projected extents based on the DEM analysis correspond well to what was observed in 2000, when the lake was 0.7 km² or a corresponding 7.5 - 10^6 m² (Figure 3). Considering the height of the advanced glacier tongue – between 15 m at the fringe and up to 80 m on the surging tongue – and the fact that in 2000 the lake reached lake levels ca. 10 m higher than in 2017, we show potential lake extents that could reach beyond 1 km² or 10 - 10^6 m², possibly during the melt season of 2018 or 2019. Repeat floods in the one or two years after a possible surge event have been reported multiple times in the recent century as well (Hewitt and Liu, 2010). The volumes calculated could be decreased by sediments visibly deposited either by the surging glacier or the dammed Vijerab River.

6 Discussion and Conclusion

The data collected and analysed support earlier studies on Khurdopin in the observation of a relatively constant return period of a glacier surge of 20 years since the end of the 19th century, irrespective of a changing climate and surges of nearby glaciers (Quincey et al., 2011; Quincey and Luckman, 2014). Using distributed velocity and elevation change data we furthermore show that a division point exists at 12 km up-glacier that separates two distinct reaches of the tongue: (a) the upper reach where velocities gradually increase during the build-up phase and mass continuously accumulates during the 19 years of quiescence between surges, and (b) the lower reach where velocities peak during the surge and the ice mass previously accumulated in the upper reach is relocated within only a number of weeks. This line likely coincides with a steep bedrock section and is located just below a tributary that possibly supplies a lot of additional mass via avalanche deposits. The surge of 2017 showed a similar four-year build-up time as the surge in 1979 over which the glacier surface in the upper reach increased by approximately 3 m a⁻¹ and decreased by up to 7 m a⁻¹ in the lower reach. This period is defined by constantly increasing velocities in the upper reaches. In combination with a gradual accumulation of mass during quiescence the actual surge starts rapidly when a tipping point is reached, as the increased pressure causes basal conditions to switch from cold to temperate. It is difficult to ascertain which are the main drivers for the regular surges on Khurdopin Glacier (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). In combination with a gradual accumulation of mass on the upper tongue during quiescence and a resulting steepening surface gradient the actual surge starts rapidly when a tipping point is reached. Ice deformation Uₑ (Greve and Blatter, 2009; Round et al., 2017), even when assuming a relatively small ice thickness between 150 m and 250 m, provides a velocity of 4 to 34 m a⁻¹ for the 4° steep surface gradient. This is in the same order of magnitude as the measured velocities during quiescence. This points to the thermal switch hypothesis (Clarke et al., 1984) being at play, as suggested earlier for this glacier (Quincey and Luckman, 2014). However, the sudden absence of supraglacial ponds on the terminus during the surge and the formation of a supraglacial pond in May 2000 after the last surge exactly at the location of the clear line of change around km-12, could also point at a disturbed englacial network playing a role in the surge. As velocities increase rapidly from 2015 onwards, the contribution of deformations becomes less important and basal motion amplified by subglacial drainage plays a dominant role. The sudden absence of supraglacial ponds on the terminus during the surge (Figure 3) and the formation of a supraglacial pond in May 2000 after the last surge exactly at the location of the clear line of change around km-12, could also point at a disturbed englacial network playing a role (Kamb, 1987; Mayer et al., 2011). At least the last two surges occurred at the beginning of the melt season, which could further catalyse the surge if melt water reaches the ice-bedrock interface. Basal sliding is most likely the dominant flow process as the cross profiles of surface velocity indicate plug flow, characterized by flat rather than parabolic velocity profiles as was observed during the quiescent phase (Kamb et al., 1985). The surface velocities observed during the peak surge in May 2017 on Khurdopin glacier are as previously suggested the surge on Khurdopin is hence likely a combination of the thermal and hydrological switch (Quincey and Luckman, 2014).
similar to Kyagar Glacier (Round et al., 2017). Future field observations should focus on finding possible evidence for these processes and possible feedback processes, especially related to the deformation of water-saturated granular base material that could explain these extreme acceleration rates and peak velocities (Damsgaard et al., 2015). The surface velocities observed during the peak surge in May 2017 on Khurdopin Glacier are, together with the recently observed surge on the neighbouring Hispar Glacier (Paul et al., 2017), the fastest so far reported for the region. In their magnitude and rapid acceleration and deceleration they are comparable to similar bursts at the closely investigated Variegated Glacier (Kamb et al., 1985), where observations with even higher temporal resolution were available. We can show that newly available satellite imagery with multiple cloud-free sub-weekly image pairs makes the characterization of such a rapid surge cycle possible and confirms high peak velocities that are easily missed by less frequently available Landsat imagery. As a consequence of the surge a lake has formed in the proglacial valley, similar to earlier surges. We quantified its evolution and potential future expansion as it is very likely that the lake will reappear during melt seasons in the following two years until the accumulated mass has sufficiently eroded for the water to drain freely. Exploiting the potential of only recently available high-resolution imagery with frequent overpasses, as employed in this study, could lead to a better understanding of such surges as it provides the potential for more accurate velocity data (Altena and Kaab, 2017). Additionally, it would also enable faster assessment of risk potentials and subsequent warning of affected communities.

7 Author Contributions
JFS, PDAK and WWI designed the study, JFS and PDAK carried out the data analysis, JFS wrote the manuscript. SGJ pointed out the occurrence of the surge and provided contacts to the local authorities. PDAK, SGJ and WWI reviewed the manuscript.

8 Acknowledgements
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Figure 1: Velocities measured from cross correlating Landsat 7 and 8 imagery of one year of the quiescent phase (a; 17th of October 2010 – 18th of September 2011), the last year of the build-up (b; 28th of August 2015 – 10th of May 2016) and the surge peak in May 2017 (c; 13th to 29th of May, 2017). Panel (d) shows mean values of the bins compared against bed elevation, and all available velocity pairs for 2017, between December 2016 (dark red) and September (yellow). Note the difference in scales for the different phases. An animation of the images used to derive the velocities can be found in the Supplementary Material.
Figure 2: Elevation change rates during the quiescent phase (a), and during the build-up and surge phase (b). Mean values per bin are shown in panel (c). Note that the change due to the surge specifically (occurring only in a few months in 2017) is much larger than what is shown, as the difference between the 2011 and 2017 DEM includes at least 4 years of mass loss on the lower, and mass gain at the upper part of the tongue.
Figure 3: Evidence from the surge event visible at the tongue. The landmass panel is based on a Planet image from the 28th of June 2017 (Planet Team, 2017). The medial moraines, the lake extent in 2017, the original river bed and moraine crest are also mapped from Planet imagery. The lake extent in 2000 is mapped from the panchromatic band of Landsat-7. The projected lake extents and depths are computed based on the SRTM-DEM. The yellow rectangles show areas of heavy crevassing TanDEM-X. Arrows at (a) and (b) denote angle of view for images on the right. Panel (a) shows an overview of the front of the tongue and panel (b) shows the front of the advance. Note the fine dark sediments often associated with a surge event. The
tongue below the dashed green line remained stable showed no change during the surge. Panels (c) and (d) show the tongue surface before and after the surge. (Photos: Waheed Anwar, May 2017)
Supplementary Material to Brief Communication: The Khurdopin surge revisited – extreme surge velocities and formation of a dammed lake in 2017

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1 Data

Table S1: LANDSAT/Planet Data for Velocity Datasets and Animation. All scenes within the years given in the last column were acquired and visually pre-selected for cloud cover, snow cover and image quality over the glacier outline. The numbers in the first column refer to the actual pairing to derive velocities in Table S3.

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Table S1-S2: DEM Data

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<td>3</td>
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Table S3: Velocity values [m a⁻¹] from all data products for the period between 2000 and 2017. Rows are km along the glacier tongue starting at the terminus. Columns are time steps and associated satellite products as described in Table S1. Color code corresponds to quiescence (green), build up (yellow) and surge (red).
2 Model Settings and Uncertainties

2.1 Velocities

COSI-Corr is sensitive to chosen initial window sizes as well as window steps (Leprince et al., 2007). In this study we work with different satellite products in respect to resolution and band quality – from the 30 m bands of the initial LANDSAT MSS Satellite to the 3 m optical product of Planet – which made different setups necessary. For the 30 m bands of Landsat MSS and Landsat-5 we used an initial window (W) of 128 pixels, a final window (F) of 16 pixels and a step size of 2 pixels (d) –(W128-F16-d2). For Landsat-7 and Landsat-8 as well as Planet imagery we used a W128-F16-d4 setting while for surge events, when displacement is substantial or imagery is far apart in time, a W256-F16-d8 is used. We used the Non-Local Means Filter of COSI-Corr (Ayoub et al., 2009) to smooth the gridded data. Velocities measured on stable off-glacier terrain were used to assess the validity of the on-glacier data. The Landsat-MSS off-glacier velocities are in the same range as on-glacier velocities, which makes the COSI-Corr approach not suitable for this data. Off-glacier displacement based on Landsat-5 data was between 2 – 5 m a\(^{-1}\), and this is sufficiently accurate to investigate the build-up and surge phase where velocities are generally one order of magnitude higher. Landsat-7 and 8 as well as Planet data used in the analysis from 2013 onwards generally show off-glacier displacements of 2 - 3 m a\(^{-1}\) for imagery multiple days to weeks apart, which corresponds to the likely error identified by (Luckman et al., 2007). To make sure that noise, resulting from errors in the co-registration process, is not included in the data analysis, we discard all pixel values with a signal-to-noise ratio smaller than 0.75, following (Kraaijenbrink et al., 2016). As large displacements during a surge are picked up as noise by the algorithm in many cases, this constraint had to be loosened for surge peaks. In these cases patches on the surface that showed erratic behaviour (no uniform direction, large variability in velocities on a small area) were discarded visually.

3 2.2 DEMs

We compare the offset between the respective DEMs in relatively flat valley areas where all 3 DEM products are available (Figure S1a). Both TanDEM-X and the ASTER DEM are of less quality in steep terrain, however the 90\(^{th}\) percentile of slope values on the investigated glacier surface is 10\(^{\circ}\), below which the quality is generally acceptable. We therefore exclude all values from the test areas with a slope above 10\(^{\circ}\). This results in a median offset between the TanDEM-X and the SRTM in the test areas of -24.8 m (\(\sigma = 8.5\) m, Figure S1b), which is caused by the different geoids of the datasets, WGS84 and EGM96 respectively. Between the ASTER and the TanDEM-X an offset of -12.4 m (\(\sigma = 2.3\) m) is found and used for correction on the ASTER (Figure S1c).
Figure S1: (a) Flat stable areas chosen in the catchment used for comparison of the DEM. Blue shaded areas are glacier tongues. (b) Difference between TanDEM-X and adjusted SRTM. (c) Difference between corrected ASTER and TanDEM-X.

3 Lake Volume Calculation

The volume of the lake was calculated by (1) deriving lake perimeters from the orthophotos, (2) draping them over the TanDEM-X digital elevation model, (3) taking the lake level as the 90th percentile of all elevation values (as the polygon of the perimeter does not have a continuous value due to the inaccuracies of the DEM), and (4) deriving the difference between this plane and the DEM (Figure S2). The lake volumes fit well with the exponential function derived by (Cook and Quincey, 2015) for lower volumes. As (Cook and Quincey, 2015) describe for ice-dammed lakes (Fig.4 therein), the curve steepens, i.e. volume increases faster than area, for larger areas, which is true for this lake as well. However for much greater extents (as observed in 2000) the relation does not hold anymore as areas increase faster due to the lake flooding a very shallow alluvial fan at the confluence of the Vijerab and the Khurdopin valley (see green and red markers in Figure S2b).
Figure S2: (a) Lake areas derived from orthophotos and associated lake levels. (b) Relating lake area to lake volume. The black dots are values from 2017, the green marker is the lake in May 2000 and the red markers are projected areas and volumes with possible increase in lake level height 10 m above the value measured in 2000. The solid line is a relation for Volume-Area scaling found by (Cook and Quincey, 2015) which fits well for the observations in 2017, but overestimates for larger lake areas.

4 Supplementary Animation of all Landsat Scenes

Making use of all available Landsat imagery, we compiled an animation over all scenes with suitable image quality (SupplementaryMaterial.zip). The images were not enhanced but rather comprise the raw GEOtiff rasters used for the analysis of velocity data were used analysis.

References


NASA LP DAAC: ASTER L1a Land Processes Distributed Active Archive Center (LP DAAC), [online] Available from: