

Detecting Land Use Land Cover Changes Induced by the Dynamics of River Indus, Pakistan, from 1972 -2022, Using Remote Sensing and GIS Techniques

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Introduction/Importance of the Study:

This study investigates the shifting patterns of the Indus River and its consequent impact on land use and land cover (LULC) over a 50-year period, from 1972 to 2022, using Geographic Information System (GIS) and Remote Sensing (RS) techniques. The research is crucial for understanding the dynamics of river behavior and its broader implications for flood management and land use planning.

Novelty Statement:

This research uniquely explores the complex relationship between river shifting and LULC changes, offering fresh perspectives on managing flood risks and optimizing land use. The study emphasizes the significant economic impact of chronic alluvial erosion caused by the river's rapid flow, which has perpetuated poverty among local residents and resulted in substantial annual national asset losses.

Materials and Methods:

The study utilized satellite imagery spanning from 1972 to 2022, applying GIS and remote sensing techniques to analyze the Indus River's sinuosity, channel migration, erosion, and accretion patterns, as well as LULC changes. Key methodologies included calculating the river's sinuosity index, assessing channel and bank migration, and employing the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) alongside maximum likelihood classification for precise LULC assessment.

Results and Discussion:

The long-term analysis revealed that river erosion significantly influenced land areas, leading to an expansion of settlement areas, a reduction in vegetation, and fluctuations in barren land, water bodies, and agricultural land. Built-up areas expanded markedly, indicating population growth within floodplains. Erosion and deposition processes notably impacted agricultural and settlement areas, contributing to socio-economic stress and triggering internal migration. Satellite images captured during the spring and dry seasons (March to May) indicated minimal stream flow due to reduced rainfall. The study identified critical management zones— Reaches A, B, C, H, I, and J—where erosion was most pronounced from 1972 to 2022. Minor embankment improvements are recommended for these reaches, as initial migration occurred on the right side in Reaches A, B, and C, shifted to the left from D to G, and affected both sides from H to J.

Concluding Remarks:

This research underscores the vital role of GIS and remote sensing in analyzing river dynamics and their effects on land use. The findings provide essential insights for informed decision-making in flood management and land use planning, ultimately contributing to better resource management and community resilience.

Keywords: Indus River Shifting, Land Use and Land Cover (LULC), Geographic Information System (GIS), Remote Sensing (RS), Erosion and Accretion Patterns, Flood Management, Socio-Economic Impact.

Introduction:

The Indus River, one of the largest rivers in the world, originates from Mount Kailas and flows through the Ladakh Himalaya. Its hydrological budget is primarily derived from melting glaciers, westerlies, and the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM), with most floods occurring during the ISM precipitation regime. Rivers are vital for both human societies and ecosystems, yet they can also cause significant damage during floods, leading to the loss of crops, property, and lives [1]. Before reaching the Indus Fan, fourteen major tributaries contribute to its discharge and sediment load [2]. The ecological equilibrium and hydromorphologic symmetry of the riverine environment are directly influenced by both natural and anthropogenic factors. The current research aims to analyze the hydromorphologic features—such as meanders, shape, and size—of the Indus River in Pakistan using remote sensing (RS) and Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques to evaluate temporal changes [3]. The Indus River, which is the main tributary of Pakistan, starts in the northern region and ends in the Arabian Sea. Downstream of Panjnad, near Mithankot, five major rivers from the east (Jehlum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and Sutlej) merge with the Indus River, collectively contributing sediment flux to the Arabian Sea [3].

Despite the dynamic nature of the Indus floodplain, which shows abundant traces of intense and continuous human activity, erosion and sedimentation processes typical of these changing floodplains have significantly impacted the preservation and interpretation of archaeological remains. These continuous transformations pose challenges for Remote Sensing (RS) applications in studying past landscape dynamics. Initially, RS was more effective in areas with long-term soil stability, such as the Middle East and northern Europe, where historical traces are often preserved within present-day landscapes [4]. However, in the expansive Indus region, RS has been extensively used to locate vanished rivers and explore their relationship with ancient and historical settlements. RS has supported geoarchaeological and archaeological surveys, particularly in the Yamuna–Sutlej interfluve in northwestern India and the arid region now occupied by the ephemeral Ghaggar-Hakra River, which has been a focus of historical and recent research [5]. The morphology of a river thalweg in a deltaic environment is continuously reshaped by the interaction between fluvial and marine hydrodynamic processes. Fluvial flow parameters, such as volume and flow velocity, contribute to the widening of the thalweg and the development of a braided pattern in the river course within a delta region [6].

Indus River Geography:

The Indus River, stretching over 1,800 miles, is a vital artery of the Indian subcontinent, holding a significance comparable to that of the Ganges. Flowing through semiarid regions, the river boasts an annual flow volume twice that of the Nile. For more than 4,000 years, the Indus has served as a natural boundary, a critical source of agricultural irrigation, and a cultural heartland. Originating in Tibet, the river flows northwest through Kashmir, skirting the southern edge of the Karakoram Mountains, before entering Pakistan, where it forms the Tarbela Reservoir. As it continues its journey, the Indus flows into the plains of Punjab and Sindh, where it broadens and splits into smaller channels before ultimately reaching the Arabian Sea. Passing by Hyderabad, the river concludes its course in a significant delta southeast of Karachi.

The Indus River's tributaries—including the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and Sutlej Rivers—are essential for supporting agriculture across the region. Over half of Pakistan's population resides along the Indus River valley, relying on its waters for irrigation, drinking water, and various other needs. Major cities such as Faisalabad, Lahore, Rawalpindi (Islamabad), and Peshawar are heavily dependent on the resources provided by the Indus [7]. Geological and geophysical studies indicate that the Indus River system was initiated shortly after the collision between the Indian and Eurasian Plates during the Middle Eocene. The geology of the Indus drainage basin has been profoundly influenced by this tectonic collision, which began around 50 million years ago and has since shaped the landscape of the region [8]. **Materials and Methods:**

Study Area:

The study focuses on the section of the Indus River that stretches from Sukkur to Laila, encompassing the region approximately bounded by the coordinates 25° 12' 05" N to 26° 45' 52" N latitude and 69° 24' 44" E to 68° 57' 32" E longitude. This area is represented on Pakistan's topographic sheet number 39 (Figure 1).

Data Collection:

Acquisition of Data: This study employs satellite imagery from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) for the years 1972, 1979, 1992, 2012, and 2022 to examine the Indus River's migration patterns, sinuosity, erosion, and accretion processes. A 30-kilometer buffer zone was established around the river's centerline to facilitate the development of detailed land use and land cover (LULC) maps. Comprehensive graphs and visualizations were generated to compare temporal data, thereby enhancing the clarity and robustness of the study's findings.

Figure 1: Study Area

Data Source:

To reconstruct channel movement and analyze land use and land cover (LULC) changes, this study integrates satellite imagery with Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques. Remote Sensing (RS) and GIS are employed to delineate river features, examine river dynamics, and assess their impact on land use. The study relies on secondary data, including satellite images and information from various online sources, to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the river's behavior and its influence on the surrounding landscape. **Methodology:**

The methodology for this study includes the following detailed steps:

Data Collection:

Landsat images were downloaded from the USGS Earth Explorer for various time periods: 1972, 1979, 1992, 2002, 2012, and 2022. Specifically, Landsat 1 images were utilized for 1972, Landsat 3 for 1979, Landsat 5 for 1992, Landsat 7 for both 2002 and 2012, and Landsat 9 for 2022.

Extraction of the Indus River:

After data collection, the primary objective was to extract the Indus River from the Landsat images to calculate channel migration, assess sinuosity, and analyze erosion and accretion over the years. The extraction process utilized the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI), calculated as (Green - NIR) / (Green + NIR), to differentiate water bodies from the surrounding land. ISO Cluster Unsupervised Classification, along with Arc Toolbox, was employed to isolate the river. This approach successfully extracted the Indus River, enabling detailed analysis of its dynamic changes over time.

Calculating Channel Migration and Sinuosity:

Figure 2: Sinuosity index evaluation system [9]

Stream sinuosity indexes are usually derived by dividing the length of a river reach as measured along the channel by the length of the same reach as measured along the valley [10]. To calculate river migration over time, the centerline for each year's river path was determined using the "Collapse Dual Line to Centreline" tool, with the 1972 centerline as the reference. Sinuosity, which reflects the ratio between the actual river length and the straight-line valley length, was assessed using this index. The entire stretch of the Indus River from Sukkur to Laila was divided into 10 reaches (Figure 3). For channel migration analysis, each reach was further subdivided into 8 segments (Figure 4), and migration was measured in meters.

Calculating Erosion and Accretion:

To assess erosion and accretion, the area of the river for each year was calculated using the "Calculate Geometry" function. The 1972 river served as the reference, and subsequent river shapes were intersected with the 1972 river using the intersect tool. Fields for unchanged area, erosion, and accretion were created in the attribute table. Erosion was determined by subtracting the unchanged area from the area of the previous year, while accretion was calculated by subtracting the unchanged area from the area of the next year.

Land Use Land Cover:

A 30 km buffer zone around the river was established, and the study area was extracted using the "Extract by Mask" tool. To facilitate sample selection, data from all years were displayed as true color composites. Supervised classification was then employed to categorize the land into six classes: Water Body, Built-up Area, Agricultural Land, Vegetation, Barren Land, and Uncultivated Land.

Land Use Land Cover Change:

Land-use and land-cover (LULC) change is a crucial component in contemporary strategies for monitoring environmental changes and managing natural resources [11]. Increasing anthropogenic activities are leading to significant alterations of the Earth's surface, which impact global systems [12]. The primary objective of this study is to detect LULC changes over the years using supervised image classification, with the 1972 LULC layer as a baseline. Raster images were converted to polygons and merged into single features using the Dissolve Tool. The area for each year 1979, 1992, 2002, and 2012 was calculated in square kilometers. Changes between years were identified using the Intersect tool, and fields for "Change" and "Area Change" were added to the attribute table. The "Change" field was calculated by comparing the class of the previous year with the class of the next year, highlighting features that transitioned from one class to another. The data was analyzed in Excel, and graphs were created to enhance the analysis. A comprehensive map layout was prepared to visualize the results effectively.

Figure 3: Reach Division of River Indus **Figure 4:** Cress Section site and Segments of river Indus

Figure 5: Methodology Adopted

Result:

Behavior Analyses of River Indus:

The analysis of the Indus River's shifting and impact assessment was conducted from 1972 to 2022, with 1972 serving as the baseline. This study examined various aspects, including river sinuosity, erosion and accretion, channel migration, riverbank shifting, and the dynamics of channel and meander belts using satellite images. The Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) was employed to reconstruct river boundaries. The river's centerline was digitized from 1972 to 2022 and overlaid to assess shifting characteristics along a 306 km stretch, divided into 10 reaches. The mid-channel and overall channel lengths were measured to calculate sinuosity, as described by [13].

$$
\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{L}_{\text{cmax}} / \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}
$$

Where Lcmax $=$ Length of midline (single channel); and LR $=$ overall length between two reaches. Erosion and accretion were detected using the difference between the left and right bank migration areas:

EoA = EA - DA

EoA denotes erosion or accretion, with EA representing the erosional area and DA the depositional area. For assessing the impact of river migration, corrected satellite images were utilized to extract a 30 km buffer from the main channel for the year 2022. Six land-use and land-cover (LULC) classes were identified from Landsat images: cultivated land, vegetation, water, barren land, uncultivated area, and built-up area, using the maximum likelihood supervised classification technique. Vegetation was predominantly located near settlement areas and exhibited specific alignment patterns [14].

River Sections:

The lengths of the channel centerlines were 306 km for 1972, 321 km for 1979, 336 km for 1992, 333 km for 2002, 315 km for 2012, and 336 km for 2022. Ten reaches were identified for each mid-channel measurement, except for the periods 1972-1979 and 1979- 1992, due to the unavailability of satellite images.

River Sinuosity:

Meandering is a natural geomorphic process resulting in the gradual migration of a river's course and the erosion of its banks [15]. Historical analysis of the River Indus's meander bends reveals a decrease in meandering tendencies over time. Sinuosity calculations show higher values in the initial reaches compared to the downstream reaches. In 1972, the maximum sinuosity was 1.9 at reach B, while the lowest was 1.1 at reach F, with an average of 1.5. By 1979, the maximum sinuosity increased to 2.1 at reaches D and G, with the lowest value remaining at 1.1 at reach I, and an average of 1.6. In 1992, the highest sinuosity was 2.7 at reach F, and the lowest was 0.9 at reach I, with an average of 1.7. By 2002, the highest sinuosity was 2.0 at reach F, and the lowest was 1.3 at reach I, with an average of 1.6. In 2012, the maximum sinuosity was 1.9 at reach B, and the minimum was 1.2 at reach C, averaging 1.5. In 2022, the highest sinuosity was 1.9 at reach E, and the lowest was 1.1 at reach B, with an average of 1.5 (Table 1). Higher sinuosity values indicate a greater rate of lateral migration, unstable lithology, and sediment deposition. The maximum sinuosity value of 2.7 was recorded at reach F in 1992, while the minimum value of 0.9 was at reach I in 1992. According to the sinuosity index, channels are classified as straight ($SI < 1.05$), sinuous ($SI < 1.05-1.5$), and meandering $(SI > 1.5)$. The River Indus, in the study area, can be classified as a meandering river.

Erosion and Accretion:

The analysis of erosion and accretion along the River Indus from 1972 to 2022 revealed notable variations. The highest erosion was observed between 1972 and 1979 on the left bank, totaling 378.7 km. In contrast, the most significant accretion occurred between 1979 and 1992 on the right bank, amounting to 153.9 km. Between 1992 and 2002, erosion was 176.5 km, while accretion reached 99.4 km. The period from 2002 to 2012 experienced the lowest levels of erosion (95.6 km) and accretion (115.6 km). From 2012 to 2022, erosion increased to 155.9 km, with the lowest accretion of 97.3 km observed on the right bank. These findings highlight the dynamic nature of river processes over the decades, significantly influencing the stability and morphology of the riverbanks (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Map showing erosion and accretion of River Indus 1972-2022 **Channel Migration (Centreline Migration):**

River shifting rates and directions have been identified numerically and are shown in Fig. 6a–e. To calculate the River Indus migration rate and direction, 1972 was used as the baseline. Each reach was divided into eight sections, totaling 80 sections. From 1972 to 1979, the maximum migration distance was 5798 m on the left bank of reach C, and the minimum was 4 m at reach G. In 1992, the maximum was 4982 m on the left bank of reach I, and the minimum was 74 m at reach E. In 2002, the maximum was 8865 m on the left bank of reach B, and the minimum was 11 m at reach F. By 2012, the maximum was 10636 m on the left bank of reach B, and the minimum was 11 m at reach C. In 2022, the maximum was 10890 m on the left bank of reach B, and the minimum was 4 m at reach C. Migration on the initial reaches A, B, and C was to the right side but shifted to the left from D to G. In the later reaches H to J, the river channel shifted both left and right. Overall, the maximum channel migration from 1972 to 2022 occurred in 2022 on reach B (10890 m), while the minimum was in 1992 and 2022 at reaches G and C (4 m) (Figure 7, and table 3).

Years			Previous Year Next Year Area Unchanged Area Erosion Accretion		
	Area (sq. km)	$sq.$ km $)$	$sq.$ km)		
1972 - 1979	485	230.3	106.3	378.7	124.0
1979 - 1992	230.3	205.2	51.3	179.0	153.9
1992 - 2002	205.2	128	28.6	176.5	99.4
$2002 - 2012$	128	148.1	32.5	95.6	115.6
$2012 - 2022$	1481	129.4	32.2	115.9	97.3
1972 - 2022	485	129.4	42.8	442.2	86.6

Table 2: Shows the values of erosion and accretion from 1972-2022

Figure 7: Showing the centerline migration of River Indus

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Table 3: Shows the values of channel migration at specific reaches from 1972- 2022, negative values are for the left lateral direction.

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River Bank Migration:

Between 2002 and 2022, reach B section 12 exhibited the highest right bank migration,
July 2024 | Special Issue Page | 722 The analysis of lateral direction and riverbank migration along the River Indus from 1972 to 2022 reveals diverse dynamics across different reaches. In the initial reaches, A and B, migration predominantly occurs on the right bank, while in the mid reaches, C to G, left bank migration is more prevalent. In the end reaches, H to J, migration is observed on both banks.

increasing from 10,275 m to 10,443 m. In contrast, the minimum migration was recorded from 2002 to 2012 at reach B section 14 (17 m) and from 2012 to 2022 at reach B section 9 (9 m). These findings suggest significant instability in the riverbanks, with varying migration patterns across different reaches. Overall, reaches A and B primarily experience right bank migration, reaches C to G show left bank migration, and the river exhibits a general leftward migration trend (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Map showing River Indus Banks Migration 1972-2022 **Table 4:** shows the values of banks migration at specific reaches from 1972- 2022, negative values are for the left lateral direction

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Channel Belt and Meander Belt:

Table 6 details the active channel width (or channel belt) of the Indus River from 1972 to 2022. Figure 8 illustrates the composite river section along with the numerical values for meander belt width. The channel belt represents the area occupied by the river channel in each specific year. The widest channel was 2,608 m at reach B section 15 in 1972, while the narrowest was 29 m at reach H section 62 in 2002. Channel widths have fluctuated over the years: in 1972, widths ranged from 2,308 m to 430 m; in 1979, from 1,926 m to 284 m; in 1992, from 1,254 m to 237 m; in 2002, from 1,185 m to 29 m; in 2012, from 917 m to 123 m; and in 2022, from 1,235 m to 111 m. The channel width was at its broadest in 1972 but has gradually diminished due to sedimentation and reduced water flow, leading to instability in the riverbank land-use patterns (Table 7). The meander belt, defined as the area occupied by the river's migration over a given time period, was generated by merging channel belt data from six different years (1972 to 2022). The maximum meander belt width was 7,550 m at reach 9,

while the minimum width was 1,001 m at reach 3. The average width of the meander belt is 4,272 m (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Meander belt trend on reaches **Table 5:** Showing channel belt values of River Indus

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S80 896 895 528 342 247 421 Land Use Land Cover and Land Use land Cover Change: Land Use Land Cover:

Land-use/land-cover (LULC) types within 30 km from the 1972 river centerline were analyzed for six selected years (Table 6). The results show an increase in built-up areas and a decrease in vegetation, while cultivated land, water bodies, and barren land fluctuated from 1972 to 2022. In 1972, agricultural land was at its maximum (4532 sq km), with minimum water bodies (407 sq km) and barren land (989 sq km). By 1979, water bodies were at their minimum (944 sq km), while built-up (3843 sq km) and uncultivated land (3797 sq km) were at their maximum. In 1992, uncultivated land peaked at 8580 sq km, with minimum water bodies (298 sq km) and barren land (518 sq km). In 2002, barren land was at its minimum (372 sq km), with maximum uncultivated (7098 sq km) and built-up areas (2833 sq km). By 2012, agricultural land reached its maximum (5862 sq km), with minimum water bodies (310 sq km) and barren land (538 sq km). In 2022, barren land was at its minimum (798 sq km), with maximum uncultivated (6090 sq km) and built-up areas (3787 sq km). These changes are illustrated in Figure 10 (a to d)

2012 2022 1972 1979 1992 2002 Area Area Area LULC Class	$%$ of
$%$ of $\%$ of Area $\%$ of Area $\%$ of $\%$ of Area (Sq km) (Sq km) (Sq) Area (Sqkm) Area (Sqkm) Area (Sqkm) Area Area km)	Area
Agricultural 4534 29.54 2579 16.65 2147 5862 39 2086 1254 14.61 8.43 Land	9
372 2.5 588 798 Barren Land 989 6.77 3.91 6.44 1049 518 3.53	5
Built-up 2457 2512 18.3 2833 3787 16 3843 24.8 19.03 1368 9.1 Area	24
Uncultivated 5126 58.3 33.4 3797 8580 7096 47.66 3204 21.31 6090 24.51 Land	29
3704 1834 11.95 3281 647 6.32 21.18 942 24.63 2084 Vegetation 4.4	13
Water 289 1.97 2391 2.06 1293 407 2.65 944 6.09 16.06 310	8

Table 6: LULC of Study area and its percentage from 1972 to 2022

Figure 10: LULC maps of study area from 1972 to 2022

Land-use/Land-Cover (LULC) Change Detection:

To assess the impact of river shifting, land-use classified images were used for change detection from 1972 to 2012. Table 7 and Figures 11a–d show the land-use/land-cover change results for the selected area. The dynamic nature of the river has significantly altered the landuse types of its floodplain area. In 1972, the area was covered by 29.54% agricultural land,

6.44% barren land, 16% built-up area, 33.4% uncultivated land, 11.95% vegetation, and 2.64% water. By 1979, these areas had changed to 16.65%, 6.77%, 24.80%, 24.51%, 21.18%, and 6.09%, respectively. In 1992, the areas changed to 14.61%, 3.53%, 8.3%, 58.3%, 4.40%, and 1.97%. In 2002, the areas changed to 8.43%, 2.50%, 19.03%, 47.66%, 6.32%, and 16.06%. By 2012, the areas were 39%, 3.91%, 9.10%, 21.31%, 24.63%, and 2.06%, respectively.

LULC Change Percentages (1972-1979):

The land-use change detection revealed that 9.54% of agricultural land remained unchanged, with the rest converting to barren land (0.23%), built-up area (4.57%), uncultivated land (6.49%) , vegetation (8.41%) , and water (0.64%) . For barren land, 3.55% remained unchanged, while the rest converted to agricultural land (0.06%), built-up area (1.08%), uncultivated land (0.77%), vegetation (0.24%), and water (0.58%). Of the built-up area, 7.75% remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (2.36%), barren land (1.08%) , uncultivated land (6.62%) , vegetation (2.96%) , and water (1.68%) . Uncultivated land saw 9.56% remain unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (3.36%), barren land (1.72%) , built-up area (7.69%) , vegetation (3.96%) , and water (1.3%) . Vegetation had 6.01% unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (1.43%), barren land (0.05%), built-up area (2.63%) , uncultivated land (1.23%) , and water (0.53%) . Finally, 1.12% of water remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (0.04%), barren land (0.08%), built-up area (0.85%), uncultivated land (0.14%), and vegetation (0.38%).

LULC Change Percentages (1972-1992):

The land-use change detection revealed that 4.72% of agricultural land remained unchanged, with the rest converting to barren land (0.06%), built-up area (1.45%), uncultivated land (22.34%) , vegetation (1.29%) , and water (0.30%) . For barren land, 2.67% remained unchanged, while the rest converted to agricultural land (0.30%) , built-up area (0.73%) , uncultivated land (1.93%) , vegetation (0.08%) , and water (0.16%) . Of the built-up area, 2.83% remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (2.88%), barren land (0.27%), uncultivated land (15.31%), vegetation (0.62%), and water (0.51%). Uncultivated land saw 18.71% remain unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (3.83%), barren land (0.43%), built-up area (2.51%), vegetation (0.58%), and water (0.40%). Vegetation had 1.64% unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (1.88%), barren land (0.04%), built-up area (2.25%), uncultivated land (6.29%), and water (0.26%). Finally, 0.36% of water remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (0.56%), barren land (0.01%), built-up area (0.25%), uncultivated land (1.26%), and vegetation (0.27%).

LULC Change Percentages (1972-2002):

The land-use change detection revealed that 3.40% of agricultural land remained unchanged, with the rest converting to barren land (0.001%) , built-up area (3.47%) , uncultivated land (19.37%), vegetation (3.58%), and water (0.23%). For barren land, 2.32% remained unchanged, while the rest converted to agricultural land (0.09%), built-up area (1.36%) , uncultivated land (2.09%) , vegetation (0.16%) , and water (0.06%) . Of the built-up area, 5.58% remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (2.01%), barren land (0.08%), uncultivated land (12.40%), vegetation (2%), and water (0.35%). Uncultivated land saw 15.57% remain unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (1.64%), barren land (0.05%), built-up area (6.25%), vegetation (3.85%), and water (0.29%). Vegetation had 0.29% unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (1.26%), barren land (0.001%) , built-up area (1.50%) , uncultivated land (8.19%) , and water (0.27%) . Finally, 0.29% of water remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (0.33%), barren land (0.0001%), built-up area (0.51%), uncultivated land (1.30%), and vegetation (0.25%). **LULC Change Percentages (1972-2012):**

The land-use change detection revealed that 12.64% of agricultural land remained unchanged, while the remainder was converted to barren land (0.21%), built-up areas (1.31%), uncultivated land (7.08%), vegetation (8.64%), and water (0.34%). For barren land, 2.67% remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (1.02%), built-up areas $(0.87%)$, uncultivated land $(0.93%)$, vegetation $(0.36%)$, and water $(0.14%)$. Of the built-up areas, 2.41% remained unchanged, with the remainder converted to agricultural land (9.01%) , barren land (0.28%) , uncultivated land (4.61%) , vegetation (5.78%) , and water (0.48%) . Uncultivated land saw 5.03% remain unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (10.38%), barren land (0.61%), built-up areas (3.34%), vegetation (6.22%), and water (0.47%). Vegetation had 2.72% unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (4.80%), barren

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land (0.09%), built-up areas (0.88%), uncultivated land (3.29%), and water (0.32%). Finally, 0.34% of water remained unchanged, with the rest converting to agricultural land (0.96%), barren land (0.01%), built-up areas (0.30%), uncultivated land (0.37%), and vegetation (0.64%). **Table 7:** Land-cover changing percent during 1979, 1992, 2002 and 2012 with respect to

Figure 11: Land-use/land-cover change detection map from **a** 1972 to 1979, **b** 1972 to 1992, **c** 1972 to 2002 and **d** 1972 to 2012

Effect of River Dynamics on Land Use:

Erosion and deposition have significantly impacted agricultural land along the River Indus, with erosion increasing from 1972 to 2022. Deposition, particularly in river and waterbody areas, indicates active channel migration. Higher deposition was observed in agricultural areas, followed by grasslands and wetlands, which have shown a decreasing trend over the same period. Built-up areas have expanded from 1972 to 2022, reflecting population growth in the floodplains. Erosion and deposition have also affected settlement areas, leading to socio-economic stress due to the loss of homes and livelihoods, resulting in internal migration. The dynamic behavior of the river has caused modifications in land use and land cover (LULC) types, with agricultural land, vegetation, and built-up areas being chronically affected by river shifting. Cultivation remains prominent in the region, particularly within a 30 km buffer around the river, due to both erosion and accretion.

Discussion:

The study of land use and land cover changes around the River Indus from 1972 to 2022 illustrates the extensive alterations in the landscape over time. Urbanization and agricultural expansion have significantly transformed the region. These changes have likely increased runoff and sediment load in the river, affecting its flow and shape. The river's meandering has decreased over the years; it was highly sinuous in 1972 but much straighter by 2022. This change may be attributed to increased sedimentation and human activities disrupting the river's natural flow. Erosion and sediment deposition patterns in the river have varied over time. Between 1972 and 1979, the river eroded the left bank most significantly. From 1979 to 1992, sedimentation on the right bank increased. By 2002, erosion rates had diminished, and sediment deposition patterns had shifted. These patterns reveal how the river's shape and sediment dynamics have evolved. Channel migration reached up to 10,890 meters in 2022 in some areas, with the river shifting both left and right across different sections. This movement reflects both natural processes and human activities. Overall, the study highlights how land use changes and human activities have impacted the River Indus, making it straighter and altering its erosion and sedimentation patterns. These findings underscore the need for effective land and water management strategies to mitigate the impacts on the river and surrounding areas.

Conclusions:

- GIS and remote sensing techniques have proven to be highly effective for analyzing river shifting and dynamics.
- Certain river reaches, specifically A, B, C, H, I , and J, are particularly critical, showing significant migration and impact.
- The river's migration patterns vary along different reaches, with an overall trend of the river banks shifting more towards the left.
- Analysis of river sinuosity and channel width indicates that the river has become narrower over time, mainly due to sedimentation and reduced water flow.

- The relationship between land use changes and river dynamics is complex, with land use alterations significantly affecting river behavior.
- Effective flood management policies are essential to address the impacts on floodplain dwellers and to manage river systems sustainably.

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