

The Rivers

Wikipedia Sourced Information Pack
for Delta Electronics (Thailand) Group's
Major Operations Sites



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“**The Rivers: Wikipedia Sourced Information Pack** for Delta Thailand Group’s Major Operations Sites” is information about the rivers near Delta’s major operation sites. This information is presented without any right of ownership. All the information in this booklet is from Wikipedia, the world’s largest free online encyclopedia, to be used as reference for the Delta Group’s sustainable development study and performance improvement on natural resource management tracking.

In this booklet, readers will learn the size of nearby water sources, national or international protection status, biodiversity values (such as species diversity and endemism, and public highlighted number of protected species), and value of the water source to your local communities and indigenous people. Finally, this resource of consolidated data should help to raise awareness of water and natural resources conservation specific to each area.

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Delta Electronics (Thailand) Public Company Limited

Location: Samutprakan, THAILAND

Bangpoo Industrial Estate

Inclusion in Ramsar Convention: No

WRI Baseline water stress level: 1-2/5

Flood Occurrence : 4/5 Drought severity: 2/5 Access to water : 2/5

Projected change in water stress (Change From baseline to 2020 business as usual) 1.2X

Chao Phraya River

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

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"*Chao Phraya*" *redirects here. For the noble title, see [Thai royal and noble titles](#).*

| Chao Phraya | |
|--|---|
|  |  |
| Origin of the Chao Phraya River in Nakhon Sawan | Map of the Chao Phraya River drainage basin |
| Native name | แม่น้ำเจ้าพระยา |
| Location | |
| Country | Thailand |
| City | Bangkok |
| Physical characteristics | |
| Source | Confluence of Ping River and Nan River |
| - location | Pak Nam Pho , Nakhon Sawan Province |
| - elevation | 25 m (82 ft) |
| <u>Mouth</u> | |
| - location | Gulf of Thailand , Samut Prakan Province |
| - elevation | 0 m (0 ft) |

| | |
|-----------------------|---|
| Length | 372 km (231 mi) |
| Basin size | 160,400 km ² (61,900 sq mi) |
| Discharge | |
| - location | <u>Nakhon Sawan</u> |
| - average | 718 m ³ /s (25,400 cu ft/s) |
| - maximum | 5,960 m ³ /s (210,000 cu ft/s) |
| Basin features | |
| Tributaries | |
| - left | <u>Pa Sak River</u> |
| - right | <u>Sakae Krang River</u> |

The **Chao Phraya** (/ˌtʃaʊˈpreɪˈjɑː/ *CHOW prə-YAH*; Thai: แม่น้ำเจ้าพระยา RTGS: *Maenam Chao Phraya*, pronounced [mɛːnáːm tɕâːw pʰráʔjaː] (listen) or [tɕâːw pʰrajaː]^[*]) is the major river in Thailand,^[2] with its low alluvial plain forming the centre of the country. It flows through Bangkok and then into the Gulf of Thailand.

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Etymology[edit]

On many old European maps, the river is named the *Menam* or *Mae Nam* (Thai: แม่น้ำ), which is simply the Thai word for "river". James McCarthy, F.R.G.S., who served as Director-General of the Siamese Government Surveys prior to establishment of the Royal Survey Department, wrote in his account, "*Me Nam* is a generic term, *me*signifying "mother" and *Nam* "water," and the epithet Chao P'ia signifies that it is the chief river in the kingdom of Siam."^[2]

H. Warington Smyth, who served as Director of the Department of Mines in Siam from 1891 to 1896,^[3] refers to it in his book first published in 1898 as "the Me Nam Chao Phraya".^[4]

In the English-language media in Thailand, the name Chao Phraya River is often translated as *river of kings*.^[5]



Chao Phraya River, Bangkok

Geography[[edit](#)]

The Chao Phraya begins at the confluence of the Ping and Nan rivers at Nakhon Sawan (also called Pak Nam Pho) in Nakhon Sawan Province. After this it flows south for 372 kilometres (231 mi) from the central plains to Bangkok and the Gulf of Thailand. In Chai Nat, the river then splits into the main course and the Tha Chin River, which then flows parallel to the main river and exits in the Gulf of Thailand about 35 kilometres (22 mi) west of Bangkok in Samut Sakhon. In the low alluvial plain which begins below the Chainat Dam, there are many small canals (*khlong*) which split off from the main river. The *khlongs* are used for the irrigation of the region's rice paddies.

The rough coordinates of the river are 13 N, 100 E. This area has a wet monsoon climate, with over 1,400 millimetres (55 in) of rainfall per year. Temperatures range from 24 to 33 °C (75 to 91 °F) in Bangkok.

River engineering[[edit](#)]



The original course of the river and its shortcut canals

The lower Chao Phraya underwent several man-made modifications during the Ayutthaya period. Several shortcut canals were constructed to bypass large loops in the river, shortening the trip from the capital city to the sea. The course of the river has since changed to follow many of these canals.

- In 1538, Thailand's first river engineering of a 3 km (2 mi) long canal was dug at the order of King Chairachathirat. It was called "khlong lat", today known as Khlong

Bangkok Noi. It shortened the route by 13–14 km for ships from the Gulf of Siam to the then-capital city, Ayutthaya.^[6]

- In 1542, a two kilometer-long canal, "khlong lat Bangkok", was completed. Today it's called Khlong Bangkok Yai. It is said to have shortened the river route by 14 km (9 mi).^[6]
- In 1608, a seven kilometer-long "Khlong Bang Phrao" canal was completed and has shortened the Chao Phraya's original route by 18 km (11 mi).^[6]
- In 1636, the "khlong lat mueang Nonthaburi" was completed.^[6]
- In 1722, the two kilometre long "khlong lat Kret Noi" shortened the Chao Phraya by 7 km (4 mi). This route was from the island of Ko Kret.^[6]

River settlements^[edit]

Cities along the Chao Phraya include, from north to south, Nakhon Sawan Province, Uthai Thani Province, Chai Nat Province, Sing Buri Province, Ang Thong Province, Ayutthaya Province, Pathum Thani Province, Nonthaburi Province, Bangkok, and Samut Prakan Province. These cities are among the most historically significant and densely populated settlements of Thailand due to their access to the waterway.

Transportation^[edit]

See also: *List of crossings of the Chao Phraya River*, *Chao Phraya Express Boat*, *Bangkok Boat Express Lines*, and *Sathon-Klong Toei Express Boat*



Chao Phraya River



Chao Phraya River Food Vendor



Chao Phraya River Food Vendor

Major bridges cross the Chao Phraya in Bangkok: the Rama VI railroad bridge; Phra Pin-khao near the Grand Palace; Rama VIII, a single tower asymmetrical cable-stayed bridge; Rama IX, a semi-symmetric cable-stayed bridge; and Mega Bridge, on the Industrial Ring Road.

In Bangkok, the Chao Phraya is a major transportation artery for a network of river buses, cross-river ferries, and water taxis ("longtails"). More than 15 boat lines operate on the rivers and canals of the city, including commuter lines.

Tributaries^[edit]

Main article: Tributaries of the Chao Phraya River

The principal tributaries of the Chao Phraya River are the Pa Sak River, the Sakae Krang River, the Nan River (along with its principal confluent the Yom River), the Ping River (with its principal confluent, the Wang River), and the Tha Chin River.^{[7][8][9]} Each of these tributaries (and the Chao Phraya itself) is augmented by minor tributaries referred to as *khwae*. All of the tributaries, including the

lesser khwae, form an extensive tree-like pattern, with branches flowing through nearly every province in central and northern Thailand.^[7] None of the tributaries of the Chao Phraya extend beyond the nation's borders.^[10] The Nan and the Yom River flow nearly parallel from Phitsanulok to Chumsaeng in the north of Nakhon Sawan Province. The Wang River enters the Ping River near Sam Ngao district in Tak Province.

Chao Phraya watershed^[edit]



China House on the Chao Phraya River

The expanse of the Chao Phraya River and its tributaries, i.e., the Chao Phraya river system, together with the land upon which falling rain drains into these bodies of water, form the Chao Phraya watershed.^[11]

The Chao Phraya watershed is the largest watershed in Thailand, covering approximately 35 percent of the nation's land, and draining an area of 157,924 square kilometres (60,975 sq mi).^[12]

The watershed is divided into the following basins:

- Pa Sak Basin
- Sakae Krang Basin
- Greater Nan Basin (composed of the Nan Basin and the Yom Basin, and usually divided as such in drainage analyses)
- Greater Ping Basin (composed of the Ping Basin and the Wang Basin, and usually divided as such in drainage analyses)
- Tha Chin Basin (the basin of the Chao Phraya's most significant tributaries)
- Finally the Chao Phraya Basin itself is defined as the portion of the Chao Phraya watershed drained by the Chao Phraya River itself, and not by its major tributaries or distributaries. As such, the Chao Phraya Basin drains 20,126 square kilometres (7,771 sq mi) of land.^[12]

To the west, the central plain of Thailand is drained by the Mae Klong and the east by the Bang Pakong River. They are not part of the Chao Praya system.



Iconsiam on Chao Phraya River bank

The landscape of the river basins is a very wide, flat, well-watered plain continuously refreshed with soil and sediment brought down by the rivers. The lower central plain from the delta north to Ang Thong Province is a flat, low area with an average of two metres above sea level. Further north and into the plains of the Ping and the Nan the elevation is over 20 m. Then the mountains that are the natural boundary of the Chao Praya watershed form a divide, which has, to some degree, historically isolated Thailand from other Southeast Asian civilisations. In northern Thailand the divide roughly corresponds to a long section of the political border of the country today. Southern portions of the divide's boundary correspond less to the nation's political border, because isolation in this area was prevented by the ease of transportation along the lowlands surrounding the Gulf of Thailand, allowing a unified Thai civilisation to extend beyond the watershed without issue. The slightly higher northern plains have been farmed for centuries and saw a major change from the 13th century during the Sukhothai Kingdom in the 13th and 14th centuries and the Ayutthaya Kingdom that succeeded it when rice growing intensified with the introduction of floating rice, a much faster-growing strain of rice from Bengal. The southern swamps meanwhile changed radically from the 18th century when King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke moved the capital of Siam to Bangkok, and a process of canalisation and cultivation began, especially as Thailand began to export rice from 1855.

Delta[edit]

The Tha Chin River is the major distributary of the Chao Phraya River. The expanse of the Chao Phraya and Tha Chin Rivers and their distributaries, starting at the point at which the distributaries diverge, together with the land amid the triangle formed by the outermost and innermost distributary, form the Chao Phraya delta. The many distributaries of the Chao Phraya delta are interconnected by canals that serve both for irrigation and for transportation.

Ecology[edit]



Wat Arun, viewed from Chao Phraya River

The lowland areas of the Chao Phraya watershed in central Thailand have been designated as the Chao Phraya freshwater swamp forests, a tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forest ecoregion,^[13] an area about 400 km (249 mi) north to south and 180 km (112 mi) wide.

The original swamp forests have almost entirely been removed as the plain has been converted to rice paddies, other agriculture, and urban areas like Bangkok. Much of the wildlife that once inhabited these plains has disappeared, including a large number of fish in the river systems, birds such as vultures, the Oriental darter (*Anhinga melanogaster*), white-eyed river martin (*Pseudochelidon sirintarae*), the sarus crane (*Grus antigone*)^[14] and animals such as tigers, Asian elephants, Javan rhinoceroses, and the much-hunted Schomburgk's deer.^[15] Today we can only guess at the original habitat and wildlife by comparing it with neighbouring countries. It is believed that the area would have consisted of freshwater swamps inland and salty mangroves on the coast and the river estuaries. The swamp would have been covered in Phragmites marsh grasses. Today there is a small area of this remaining in Khao Sam Roi Yot National Park, a relic of the original landscape.

As so much has been cleared or altered the potential for creating large protected areas to preserve original habitat no longer exists. However much wildlife does remain in the rice fields and steps may be taken to preserve these as urban and industrial development on the plains is ongoing and the Industrial Estate Authority of Thailand has very little control or planning over this. Particular threats come from the conversion of rice paddies to large-scale production of prawns by pumping in seawater, and the use of pesticides to eliminate the introduced snail, Pomacea canaliculata, which damages rice plants.

There are populations of threatened birds, including colonies of breeding water birds such as the world's largest populations of the near-threatened Asian openbill (*Anastomus oscitans*), and other birds such as the wintering black kite (*Milvus migrans*). Endemic mammals that remain are the limestone rat (*Niviventer hinpoon*), Neill's long-tailed giant rat (*Leopoldamys neilli*), and the near-endemic Thailand roundleaf bat (*Hipposideros halophyllus*).

The Chao Phraya basin is home to about half a dozen endemic dragonflies and damsel flies. The conservation status of most of these is unclear (they are rated as data deficient by the IUCN), but Cryptophaea saukra is critically endangered and Caliphaea angka is endangered.^[16]

There are few areas of wetland protected as national parks, but these are mostly very small.

Fish[edit]



The giant barb is one of worlds largest freshwater fish weighing up to 300 kg (660 lb),^[17] but the natural population has been extirpated from Chao Phraya.^[18]

The Chao Phraya basin is home to around 280 species of fish, including about 30 endemics.^[19] By far the most diverse family is Cyprinidae with 108 species.^[19] The mainstream of the Chao Phraya River has about 190 native fish species.^[16] In general, the aquatic fauna of Chao Phraya and Mae Klong show clear similarities, and they are sometimes combined in a single ecoregion with 328 fish species.^[16] Despite their similarities, there are also differences between the aquatic fauna of Chao Phraya and Mae Klong; the latter (but not the former) is home to a few taxa otherwise only known in major Burmese rivers: the Irrawaddy, Salween, and Tenasserim.^[16] The aquatic fauna in Chao Phraya–Mae Klong also show clear similarities with that of the middle Mekong (the lower Mekong fauna more closely resembles that of the eastern Malay Peninsula).^[16] It is believed that the upper Mekong was connected to Chao Phraya (rather than present-day lower Mekong) until the Quaternary, which explains the similarities in their river faunas. This included the Nan River basin, a tributary of the Chao Phraya, which is home to a number of taxa (for example, Ambastaia nigrolineata and Sectoria) otherwise only known from Mekong.^[16] Of the fish species known from the Chao Phraya–Mae Klong, only about 50 are absent from the Mekong.^[16]



The only remaining wild population of the red-tailed black shark is restricted to an area of less than 10 km² (4 sq mi).^[20]

There has been extensive habitat destruction (pollution, dams, and drainage for irrigation) in the Chao Phraya basin and overfishing also presents a problem.^{[16][21][22][23]} Within mainland Southeast Asia, the only freshwater region with similar high levels of threat is the lower Mekong.^[16] It has been estimated that only around 30 native fish species still are able to reproduce in the mainstream of the Chao Phraya River.^[16]

The catfish Platytrapius siamensis is endemic to Chao Phraya and Bang Pakong, but has not been recorded since the 1970s and is considered extinct.^[24] Recent records of the near-endemic cyprinid Balantiocheilos ambusticauda are also lacking and it is possibly extinct.^{[16][25]} Three of the largest freshwater fish in the world are native to the river, but these are all seriously threatened: the critically endangered giant barb (wild populations have been extirpated from Chao Phraya, but remain elsewhere),^[16] critically endangered giant pangasius,^[26] and endangered giant freshwater stingray.^[27] The critically endangered red-tailed black shark, a small colourful cyprinid that is endemic to Chao Phraya, is commonly seen in the aquarium trade where it is bred in large numbers, but the only remaining wild population is at a single location that covers less than 10 km² (4 sq mi).^[20] The endangered dwarf loach, another species bred in large numbers for the aquarium trade, has been extirpated from most of its range in Chao Phraya.^[28] The critically endangered Siamese tigerfish has been entirely extirpated from Chao Phraya and Mae Klong, but small populations remain in the Mekong basin.^[29]



Basa fish from the Chao Phraya and Mekong is an important food fish, and it is also farmed.^[30]

Many other species that either are prominent in the aquarium trade or important food fish are native to the Chao Phraya basin, such as the climbing perch, blue panchax, Asian bumblebee catfish, giant snakehead, striped snakehead, walking catfish, banded loach, several *Yasuhikotakia* loaches, tinfoil barb, Siamese algae eater, silver barb, pearl danio, rainbow shark, Hampala barb, black sharkminnow, *Leptobarbus rubripinna*, long pectoral-fin minnow, bonylip barb, Jullien's golden carp, blackline rasbora, scissortail rasbora, *Tor tambroides*, finescale tigerfish, marble goby, Chinese algae eater, giant featherback, clown featherback, giant gourami, several *Trichopodus* gouramis, iridescent shark, several *Pangasius*, *Belodontichthys truncatus*, several *Phalacrotonotus* sheatfish, several *Wallago* catfish, largescale archerfish, smallscale archerfish, and wrestling halfbeak.^[31]

Pollution^[edit]

The Thai Pollution Control Department (PCD) reports that the water quality of major rivers flowing into the upper Gulf of Thailand has seriously deteriorated in the past decade. The department found the lower Chao Phraya contains bacteria and nutrient pollution from phosphates, phosphorus, and nitrogen. Nutrient pollution causes algae to grow faster than ecosystems can handle, harming water quality, food resources for aquatic animals, and marine habitats. It also decreases the oxygen that fish need to survive. PCD rated water quality at the mouth of Chao Phraya at Bangkok's Bang Khun Thian District as "very poor", worse than in 2014.^{[32]:56} PCD findings indicated large amounts of wastewater were discharged into the river from households, industry, and agriculture.^[33]

See also^[edit]

- River Systems of Thailand

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Further reading[edit]

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Delta Electronics India Pvt. Ltd

Location: Rudrapur, Uttarpradesh, INDIA

SIDCUL Industrial Park

Inclusion in Ramsar Convention: YES

WRI related index:

Flood Occurrence : 4/5 Drought severity: 5/5 Access to water : 2/5

Projected change in water stress (Change From baseline to 2020 business as usual) 1.2X

Ganges

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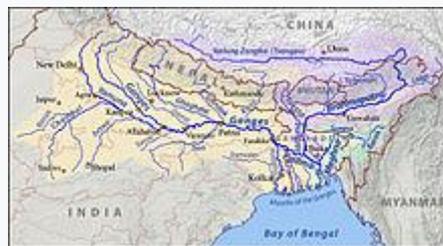
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For other uses, see [Ganges \(disambiguation\)](#).

Ganga



The Ganga in [Varanasi](#)



Map of the combined drainage basins of the Ganges (orange), Brahmaputra (violet), and Meghna (green)

Native name *Ganga*

Location

Country [India](#), [Bangladesh](#) (as [Padma](#))

Cities [Rishikesh](#), [Haridwar](#), [Farrukhabad](#), [Kannauj](#), [Bithoor](#), [Kanpur](#), [Jaimau](#), [Prayagraj](#), [Varanasi](#), [Buxar](#), [Panna](#), [Bhagalpur](#), [Farakka](#), [Murshidabad](#), [Plassey](#), [Nabadwip](#), [Kolkata](#), [Rajshahi](#), [Chandpur](#), [Baranagar](#)

Physical characteristics

Source [Gangotri Glacier](#), [Satopanth Glacier](#), Khatling Glacier, and waters from melted snow from such peaks as [Nanda Devi](#), [Trisul](#), [Kedarnath](#), [Nanda Kot](#), and [Kamet](#).

- location [Uttarakhand, India](#)

- coordinates  [30°59'N 78°55'E](#)

- elevation 3,892 m (12,769 ft)

Mouth

- location Bifurcation at [Giria](#) into the [Padma](#) and [Hooghly](#) rivers

Length 2,525 km (1,569 mi)^[1]

Basin size 1,080,000 km² (420,000 sq mi)^[3]

Discharge

- location [Farakka Barrage](#)^[2]

- average 16,648 m³/s (587,900 cu ft/s)

- minimum 2,000 m³/s (71,000 cu ft/s)

- maximum 70,000 m³/s (2,500,000 cu ft/s)

Discharge

- location [Bay of Bengal](#)^[2]

- average 38,129 m³/s (1,346,500 cu ft/s)

Basin features

Tributaries

- left [Ramganga](#), [Garra](#), [Gomti](#), [Ghaghara](#), [Gandak](#), [Burhi Gandak](#), [Koshi](#), [Mahananda](#)

- right [Yamuna](#), [Tamsa](#), [Son](#), [Punpun](#), [Kiul](#), [Karamnasa](#), [Chandan](#)

Coordinates:  [25.30°N 83.01°E](#)

Part of a series on

Hinduism



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- [History](#)

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- [Glossary of Hinduism terms](#)
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The **Ganges** (/ˈɡændʒiːz/ *GAN-jeez*), or **Ganga** (Hindustani: [ˈgəŋɡaː]), is a trans-boundary river of Asia which flows through India and Bangladesh. The 2,525 km (1,569 mi) river rises in the western Himalayas in the Indian state of Uttarakhand, and flows south and east through the Gangetic Plain of India and Bangladesh, eventually emptying into the Bay of Bengal.

The Ganges is a lifeline to millions who live along its course.^[4] It is a most sacred river to Hindus,^[5] and worshiped as the goddess *Ganga* in Hinduism.^[6] It has been important historically: many former provincial or imperial capitals (such as Patliputra,^[7] Kannauj,^[7] Kara, Kashi, Allahabad, Murshidabad, Munger, Baharampur, Kampilya and Kolkata) have been located on its banks.

The Ganges is threatened by pollution, not only to humans, but also to animals, among which are more than 140 fish species, 90 amphibian species, reptiles such as the gharial, and mammals such as the Ganges river dolphin, the last-mentioned two included in the IUCN's critically endangered list.^[8] The levels of fecal coliform bacteria from human waste in the river near Varanasi are more than a hundred times the Indian government's official limit.^[8] The Ganga Action Plan, an environmental initiative to clean up the river, is considered a failure,^{[a][b][9]} which is variously attributed to corruption, a lack of will in the government, poor technical expertise^[c] and environmental planning,^[d] and a lack of support from religious authorities.^[e]



Course[edit]



Bhagirathi River at Gangotri.



Devprayag, confluence of Alaknanda (right) and Bhagirathi (left) some rivers, beginning of the Ganges proper.



The Himalayan headwaters of the Ganges River in the Garhwal region of Uttarakhand, India. The headstreams and rivers are labelled in italics; the heights of the mountains, lakes, and towns are displayed in parentheses in metres.

The main stream of Ganga begins at the confluence of the Bhagirathi and Alaknanda rivers in the town of Devprayag in the Garhwal division of the Indian state of Uttarakhand. The Bhagirathi is considered to be the source in Hindu culture and mythology, although the Alaknanda is longer, and, therefore, hydrologically the source stream.^{[10][11]} The headwaters of the Alakananda are formed by snowmelt from peaks such as Nanda Devi, Trisul, and Kamet. The Bhagirathi rises at the foot of Gangotri Glacier, at Gomukh, at an elevation of 3,892 m (12,769 ft), being mythologically referred to as, residing in the matted locks of Shiva,

symbolically Tapovan, being a meadow of ethereal beauty at the feet of Mount Shivaling, just 5 km (3.1 mi) away.^{[12][13]}

Although many small streams comprise the headwaters of Ganga, the six longest and their five confluences are considered sacred. The six headstreams are the Alaknanda, Dhauliganga, Nandakini, Pindar, Mandakini, and Bhagirathi rivers. The five confluences, known as the Panch Prayag, are all along the Alaknanda. They are, in downstream order, Vishnuprayag, where the Dhauliganga joins the Alaknanda; Nandprayag, where the Nandakini joins; Karnaprayag, where the Pindar joins, Rudraprayag, where the Mandakini joins; and finally, Devprayag, where the Bhagirathi joins the Alaknanda to form The Ganges.^[10]

After flowing 250 km (155.343 mi)^[13] through its narrow Himalayan valley, Ganga emerges from the mountains at Rishikesh, then debouches onto the Gangetic Plain at the pilgrimage town of Haridwar.^[10] At Haridwar, a dam diverts some of its waters into the Ganga Canal, which irrigates the Doab region of Uttar Pradesh, whereas the river, whose course has been roughly southwest until this point, now begins to flow southeast through the plains of northern India.

The Ganga follows an 800 km (500 mi) arching course passing through the cities of Kannauj, Farukhabad, and Kanpur. Along the way it is joined by the Ramganga, which contributes an average annual flow of about 500 m³/s (18,000 cu ft/s).^[14] Ganga joins the river Yamuna at the Triveni Sangam at Prayagraj, a holy confluence in Hinduism. At their confluence the Yamuna is larger than the Ganga, contributing about 2,950 m³/s (104,000 cu ft/s),^[14] or about 58.5% of the combined flow.^[15]

Now flowing east, the river meets the Tamsa River (also called *Tons*), which flows north from the Kaimur Range and contributes an average flow of about 190 m³/s (6,700 cu ft/s). After the Tamsa the Gomti River joins, flowing south from the Himalayas. The Gomti contributes an average annual flow of about 234 m³/s (8,300 cu ft/s). Then the Ghaghara River (Karnali River), also flowing south from the Himalayas of Nepal, joins. The Ghaghara (Karnali), with its average annual flow of about 2,990 m³/s (106,000 cu ft/s), is the largest tributary of the Ganges. After the Ghaghara (Karnali) confluence the Ganga is joined from the south by the Son River, contributing about 1,000 m³/s (35,000 cu ft/s). The Gandaki River, then the Kosi River, join from the north flowing from Nepal, contributing about 1,654 m³/s (58,400 cu ft/s) and 2,166 m³/s (76,500 cu ft/s), respectively. The Kosi is the third largest tributary of the Ganga, after the Ghaghara (Karnali) and Yamuna.^[14] The Kosi merges into the Ganga near Kursela in Bihar.

Along the way between Allahabad and Malda, West Bengal, the Ganga passes the towns of Chunar, Mirzapur, Varanasi, Ghazipur, Patna, Hajipur, Chapra, Bhagalpur, Ballia, Buxar, Simaria, Sultanganj, and Saidpur. At Bhagalpur, the river begins to flow south-southeast and at Pakur, it begins its attrition with the branching away of its first tributary, the Bhāgirathi-Hooghly, which goes on to become the Hooghly River. Just before the border with Bangladesh the Farakka Barrage controls the flow of Ganga, diverting some of the water into a feeder canal linked to the Hooghly for the purpose of keeping it relatively silt-free. The Hooghly River is formed by the confluence of the Bhagirathi River and Jalangi River at Nabadwip, and Hooghly has a number of tributaries of its own. The largest is the Damodar River, which is 541 km (336 mi) long, with a drainage basin of 25,820 km² (9,970 sq mi).^[16] The Hooghly River empties into the Bay of Bengal near Sagar Island.^[17] Between Malda and the Bay of Bengal, the Hooghly river passes the towns and cities of Murshidabad, Nabadwip, Kolkata and Howrah.

After entering Bangladesh, the main branch of Ganga is known as the Padma. The Padma is joined by the Jamuna River, the largest distributary of the Brahmaputra. Further downstream, the Padma joins the Meghna River, the second largest distributary of the Brahmaputra, and takes on the Meghna's name as it enters the Meghna Estuary, which empties into the Bay of Bengal. Here it forms the 1,430 by 3,000 km (890 by 1,860 mi) Bengal Fan, the world's largest submarine fan,^[18] which alone accounts for 10–20% of the global burial of organic carbon.^[19]

The Ganga Delta, formed mainly by the large, sediment-laden flows of the Ganga and Brahmaputra rivers, is the world's largest delta, at about 59,000 km² (23,000 sq mi).^[20] It stretches 322 km (200 mi) along the Bay of Bengal.^[21]

Only the Amazon and Congo rivers have a greater average discharge than the combined flow of the Ganga, the Brahmaputra, and the Surma-Meghna river system.^[21] In full flood only the Amazon is larger.^[22]

Geology[edit]

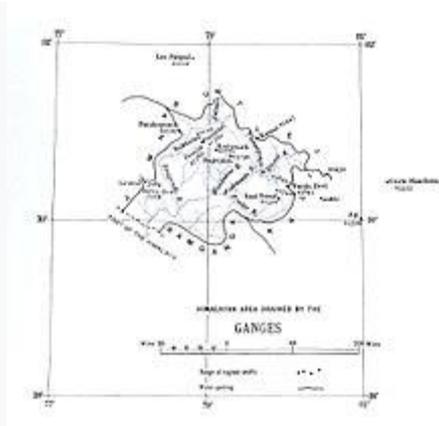
The Indian subcontinent lies atop the Indian tectonic plate, a minor plate within the Indo-Australian Plate.^[23] Its defining geological processes commenced seventy-five million years ago, when, as a part of the southern supercontinent Gondwana, it began a northeastwards drift—lasting fifty million years—across the then unformed Indian Ocean.^[23] The subcontinent's subsequent collision with the Eurasian Plate and subduction under it, gave rise to the Himalayas, the planet's highest mountain ranges.^[23] In the former seabed immediately south of the emerging Himalayas, plate movement created a vast trough, which, having gradually been filled with sediment borne by the Indus and its tributaries and the Ganges and its tributaries,^[24] now forms the Indo-Gangetic Plain.^[25]

The Indo-Gangetic Plain is geologically known as a foredeep or foreland basin.^[26]

Hydrology[edit]



A 1908 map showing the course of the Ganges and its tributaries.



Catchment region of the Ganges

Major left-bank tributaries include Gomti River, Ghaghara River, Gandaki river, and Kosi river; major right-bank tributaries include Yamuna river, Son river, Punpun and Damodar. The hydrology of the Ganges River is very complicated, especially in the Ganges Delta region. One result is different ways to determine the river's length, its discharge, and the size of its drainage basin.



The river Ganges at Kolkata, with Howrah Bridge in the background



Lower Ganges in Lakshmipur, Bangladesh

The name *Ganga* is used for the river between the confluence of the Bhagirathi and Alaknanda rivers, in the Himalayas, and the India-Bangladesh border, near the Farakka Barrage and the first bifurcation of the river. The length of the Ganges is frequently said to be slightly over 2,500 km (1,600 mi) long, about 2,505 km (1,557 mi),^[27] to 2,525 km (1,569 mi),^{[28][15]} or perhaps 2,550 km (1,580 mi).^[29] In these cases the river's source is usually assumed to be the source of the Bhagirathi River, Gangotri Glacier at Gomukh, and its mouth being the mouth of the Meghna River on the Bay of Bengal.^{[28][15][27][29]} Sometimes the source of the Ganges is considered to be at Haridwar, where its Himalayan headwater streams debouch onto the Gangetic Plain.^[30]

In some cases, the length of the Ganges is given for its Hooghly River distributary, which is longer than its main outlet via the Meghna River, resulting in a total length of about 2,620 km (1,630 mi), from the source of

the Bhagirathi,^[20] or 2,135 km (1,327 mi), from Haridwar to the Hooghly's mouth.^[31] In other cases the length is said to be about 2,240 km (1,390 mi), from the source of the Bhagirathi to the Bangladesh border, where its name changes to *Padma*.^[32]

For similar reasons, sources differ over the size of the river's drainage basin. The basin covers parts of four countries, India, Nepal, China, and Bangladesh; eleven Indian states, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and the Union Territory of Delhi.^[33] The Ganges basin, including the delta but not the Brahmaputra or Meghna basins, is about 1,080,000 km²(420,000 sq mi), of which 861,000 km² (332,000 sq mi) are in India (about 80%), 140,000 km²(54,000 sq mi) in Nepal (13%), 46,000 km² (18,000 sq mi) in Bangladesh (4%), and 33,000 km²(13,000 sq mi) in China (3%).^[34] Sometimes the Ganges and Brahmaputra–Meghna drainage basins are combined for a total of about 1,600,000 km² (620,000 sq mi),^[22] or 1,621,000 km² (626,000 sq mi).^[21] The combined Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna basin (abbreviated GBM or GMB) drainage basin is spread across Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, and China.^[35]

The Ganges basin ranges from the Himalaya and the Transhimalaya in the north, to the northern slopes of the Vindhya range in the south, from the eastern slopes of the Aravalli in the west to the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Sunderbans delta in the east. A significant portion of the discharge from the Ganges comes from the Himalayan mountain system. Within the Himalaya, the Ganges basin spreads almost 1,200 km from the Yamuna-Satluj divide along the Simla ridge forming the boundary with the Indus basin in the west to the Singalila Ridge along the Nepal-Sikkim border forming the boundary with the Brahmaputra basin in the east. This section of the Himalaya contains 9 of the 14 highest peaks in the world over 8,000m in height, including Mount Everest which is the high point of the Ganges basin.^[36] The other peaks over 8,000m in the basin are Kangchenjunga,^[37] Lhotse,^[38] Makalu,^[39] Cho Oyu,^[40] Dhaulagiri,^[41] Manaslu,^[42] Annapurna^[43] and Shishapangma.^[44] The Himalayan portion of the basin includes the south-eastern portion of the state of Himachal Pradesh, the entire state of Uttarakhand, the entire country of Nepal and the extreme north-western portion of the state of West Bengal.^[citation needed]

The discharge of the Ganges also differs by source. Frequently, discharge is described for the mouth of the Meghna River, thus combining the Ganges with the Brahmaputra and Meghna. This results in a total average annual discharge of about 38,000 m³/s (1,300,000 cu ft/s),^[21] or 42,470 m³/s (1,500,000 cu ft/s).^[20] In other cases the average annual discharges of the Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Meghna are given separately, at about 16,650 m³/s (588,000 cu ft/s) for the Ganges, about 19,820 m³/s (700,000 cu ft/s) for the Brahmaputra, and about 5,100 m³/s (180,000 cu ft/s) for the Meghna.^[28]



Hardinge Bridge, Bangladesh, crosses the Ganges-Padma River. It is one of the key sites for measuring streamflow and discharge on the lower Ganges.

The maximum peak discharge of the Ganges, as recorded at Hardinge Bridge in Bangladesh, exceeded 70,000 m³/s (2,500,000 cu ft/s).^[45] The minimum recorded at the same place was about 180 m³/s (6,400 cu ft/s), in 1997.^[46]

The hydrologic cycle in the Ganges basin is governed by the Southwest Monsoon. About 84% of the total rainfall occurs in the monsoon from June to September. Consequently, streamflow in the Ganges is highly seasonal. The average dry season to monsoon discharge ratio is about 1:6, as measured at Hardinge Bridge. This strong seasonal variation underlies many problems of land and water resource development in the region.^[32] The seasonality of flow is so acute it can cause both drought and floods. Bangladesh, in particular, frequently experiences drought during the dry season and regularly suffers extreme floods during the monsoon.^[46]

In the Ganges Delta many large rivers come together, both merging and bifurcating in a complicated network of channels. The two largest rivers, the Ganges and Brahmaputra, both split into distributary channels, the largest of which merge with other large rivers before themselves joining. This current channel pattern was not always the case. Over time the rivers in Ganges Delta have changed course, sometimes altering the network of channels in significant ways.

Before the late 12th century the Bhagirathi-Hooghly distributary was the main channel of the Ganges and the Padma was only a minor spill-channel. The main flow of the river reached the sea not via the modern Hooghly River but rather by the Adi Ganga. Between the 12th and 16th centuries the Bhagirathi-Hooghly and Padma channels were more or less equally significant. After the 16th century the Padma grew to become the main channel of the Ganges.^[17] It is thought that the Bhagirathi-Hooghly became increasingly choked with silt, causing the main flow of the Ganges to shift to the southeast and the Padma River. By the end of the 18th century the Padma had become the main distributary of the Ganges.^[20] One result of this shift to the Padma was that the Ganges joined the Meghna and Brahmaputra rivers before emptying into the Bay of Bengal, together instead of separately. The present confluence of the Ganges and Meghna formed about 150 years ago.^[47]

Also near the end of the 18th century, the course of the lower Brahmaputra changed dramatically, altering its relationship with the Ganges. In 1787 there was a great flood on the Teesta River, which at the time was a tributary of the Ganges-Padma River. The flood of 1787 caused the Teesta to undergo a sudden change course (an avulsion), shifting east to join the Brahmaputra and causing the Brahmaputra to shift its course south, cutting a new channel. This new main channel of the Brahmaputra is called the Jamuna River. It flows south to join the Ganges-Padma. Since ancient times the main flow of the Brahmaputra was more easterly, passing by the city of Mymensingh and joining the Meghna River. Today this channel is a small distributary but retains the name Brahmaputra, sometimes Old Brahmaputra.^[48] The site of the old Brahmaputra-Meghna confluence, in the locality of Langalbandh, is still considered sacred by Hindus. Near the confluence is a major early historic site called Wari-Bateshwar.^[17]

History[edit]



The birth of Ganga

The Late Harappan period, about 1900–1300 BCE, saw the spread of Harappan settlement eastward from the Indus River basin to the Ganges-Yamuna doab, although none crossed the Ganges to settle its eastern bank. The disintegration of the Harappan civilisation, in the early 2nd millennium BC, marks the point when the centre of Indian civilisation shifted from the Indus basin to the Ganges basin.^[49] There may be links between the Late Harappan settlement of the Ganges basin and the archaeological culture known as "Cemetery H", the Indo-Aryan people, and the Vedic period.

This river is the longest in India.^[50] During the early Vedic Age of the Rigveda, the Indus and the Sarasvati River were the major sacred rivers, not the Ganges. But the later three Vedas gave much more importance to the Ganges.^[1] The Gangetic Plain became the centre of successive powerful states, from the Maurya Empire to the Mughal Empire.^{[10][51]}

The first European traveller to mention the Ganges was Megasthenes (ca. 350–290 BCE). He did so several times in his work Indica: "India, again, possesses many rivers both large and navigable, which, having their sources in the mountains which stretch along the northern frontier, traverse the level country, and not a few of these, after uniting with each other, fall into the river called the Ganges. Now this river, which at its source is 30 stadia broad, flows from north to south, and empties its waters into the ocean forming the eastern boundary of the Gangaridai, a nation which possesses a vast force of the largest-sized elephants." (Diodorus II.37)^[52] In the rainy season of 1809, the lower channel of the Bhagirathi, leading to Kolkata, had been entirely shut; but in the following year it opened again, and was nearly of the same size with the upper channel; both however suffered a considerable diminution, owing probably to the new communication opened below the Jalanggi on the upper channel.^[citation needed]

In 1951 a water sharing dispute^[53] arose between India and East Pakistan (now Bangladesh), after India declared its intention to build the Farakka Barrage. The original purpose of the barrage, which was completed in 1975, was to divert up to 1,100 m³/s (39,000 cu ft/s) of water from the Ganges to the Bhagirathi-Hooghly distributary in order to restore navigability at the Port of Kolkata. It was assumed that during the worst dry season the Ganges flow would be around 1,400 to 1,600 m³/s (49,000 to 57,000 cu ft/s), thus leaving 280 to 420 m³/s (9,900 to 14,800 cu ft/s) for the then East Pakistan.^[53] East Pakistan objected and a protracted dispute ensued. In 1996 a 30-year treaty was signed with

Bangladesh. The terms of the agreement are complicated, but in essence they state that if the Ganges flow at Farakka was less than 2,000 m³/s (71,000 cu ft/s) then India and Bangladesh would each receive 50% of the water, with each receiving at least 1,000 m³/s (35,000 cu ft/s) for alternating ten-day periods. However, within a year the flow at Farakka fell to levels far below the historic average, making it impossible to implement the guaranteed sharing of water. In March 1997, flow of the Ganges in Bangladesh dropped to its lowest ever, 180 m³/s (6,400 cu ft/s). Dry season flows returned to normal levels in the years following, but efforts were made to address the problem. One plan is for another barrage to be built in Bangladesh at Pangsha, west of Dhaka. This barrage would help Bangladesh better utilise its share of the waters of the Ganges.^[61]

Religious and cultural significance^[edit]

Greco-Roman Mythology^[edit]

In Greco-Roman mythology Ganges was a river god. His daughter Limaee was the Naiad of a lake in India. She had a son named Athis.^[54]

Embodiment of sacredness^[edit]

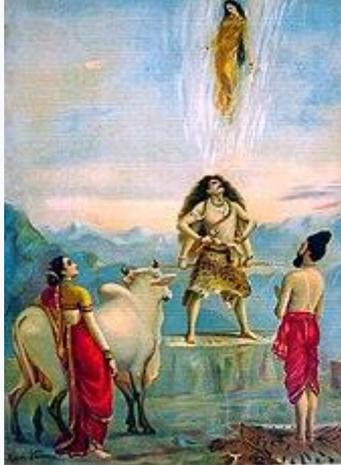


Chromolithograph, "Indian woman floating lamps on the Ganges," by William Simpson, 1867.

The Ganges is a sacred river to Hindus along every fragment of its length. All along its course, Hindus bathe in its waters,^[55] paying homage to their ancestors and to their gods by cupping the water in their hands, lifting it and letting it fall back into the river; they offer flowers and rose petals and float shallow clay dishes filled with oil and lit with wicks (diyas).^[55] On the journey back home from the Ganges, they carry small quantities of river water with them for use in rituals (Ganga jal, literally water of the Ganges).^[56]

The Ganges is the embodiment of all sacred waters in Hindu mythology.^[57] Local rivers are said to be *like* the Ganges, and are sometimes called the local Ganges.^[57] The Kaveri river of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu in Southern India is called the Ganges of the South; the Godavari, is the Ganges that was led by the sage Gautama to flow through Central India.^[57] The Ganges is invoked whenever water is used in Hindu ritual, and is therefore present in all sacred waters.^[57] In spite of this, nothing is more stirring for a Hindu than a dip in the actual river, which is thought to remit sins, especially at one of the famous tirthas such as Gangotri, Haridwar, Prayag, or Varanasi.^[57] The symbolic and religious importance of the Ganges is one of the few things that Hindu India, even its skeptics, are agreed upon.^[58] Jawaharlal Nehru, a religious iconoclast himself, asked for a handful of his ashes to be thrown into the Ganges.^[58] "The Ganga," he wrote in his will, "is the river of India, beloved of her people, round which are intertwined her racial memories, her hopes and fears, her songs of triumph, her victories and her defeats. She has been a symbol of India's age-long culture and civilization, ever-changing, ever-flowing, and yet ever the same Ganga."^[58]

Avatarana Descent of Ganga[edit]



Descent of Ganga – painting by [Raja Ravi Varma](#)

In late May or early June every year, Hindus celebrate the *karunasiri* and rise of the Ganges from earth to heaven.^[59] The day of the celebration, *Ganga Dashahara*, the *dashami* (tenth day) of the waxing moon of the Hindu calendar month Jyestha, brings throngs of bathers to the banks of the river.^[59] A dip in the Ganges on this day is said to rid the bather of ten sins (dasha = Sanskrit "ten"; hara = to destroy) or alternatively, ten lifetimes of sins.^[59] Those who cannot journey to the river, however, can achieve the same results by bathing in any nearby body of water, which, for the true believer, in the Hindu tradition, takes on all the attributes of the Ganges.^[59]

The *karunasiri* is an old theme in Hinduism with a number of different versions of the story.^[59] In the Vedic version, Indra, the Lord of Svarga (Heaven) slays the celestial serpent, Vritra, releasing the celestial liquid, the soma, or the nectar of the gods which then plunges to the earth and waters it with sustenance.^[59]

In the Vaishnava version of the myth, the heavenly waters are now a river called *Vishnupadi* (*padi*: Skt. "from the foot").^[59] As Lord Vishnu completes his celebrated three strides—of earth, sky, and heaven—Vishnu as Vamana stubs his toe on the vault of heaven, punches open a hole, and releases the *Vishnupadi*, which until now had been circling around the cosmic egg within.^[60] Flowing out of the vault, she plummets down to Indra's heaven, where she is received by Dhruva, the once steadfast worshipper of Vishnu, now fixed in the sky as the polestar.^[60] Next, she streams across the sky forming the Milky Way and arrives on the moon.^[60] She then flows down earthwards to Brahma's realm, a divine lotus atop Mount Meru, whose petals form the earthly continents.^[60] There, the divine waters break up, with one stream, the Alaknanda, flowing down one petal into Bharatvarsha (India) as the Ganges.^[60]

It is Shiva, however, among the major deities of the Hindu pantheon, who appears in the most widely known version of the *avatarana* story.^[61] Told and retold in the Ramayana, the Mahabharata and several Puranas, the story begins with a sage, Kapila, whose intense meditation has been disturbed by the sixty thousand sons of King Sagara. Livid at being disturbed, Kapila sears them with his angry gaze, reduces them to ashes, and dispatches them to the netherworld. Only the waters of the Ganges, then in heaven, can bring the dead sons their salvation. A descendant of these sons, King Bhagiratha, anxious

to restore his ancestors, undertakes rigorous penance and is eventually granted the prize of Ganga's descent from heaven. However, since her turbulent force would also shatter the earth, Bhagiratha persuades Shiva in his abode on Mount Kailash to receive Ganga in the coils of his tangled hair and break her fall. Ganga descends, is tamed in Shiva's locks, and arrives in the Himalayas. She is then led by the waiting Bhagiratha down into the plains at Haridwar, across the plains first to the confluence with the Yamuna at Prayag and then to Varanasi, and eventually to Ganga Sagar, where she meets the ocean, sinks to the netherworld, and saves the sons of Sagara.^[61] In honour of Bhagirath's pivotal role in the *avatarana*, the source stream of the Ganges in the Himalayas is named Bhagirathi, (Sanskrit, "of Bhagiratha").^[61]

Redemption of the Dead^[edit]



Preparations for cremations on the banks of the Ganges in Varanasi, 1903. The dead are being bathed, wrapped in cloth and covered with wood. The photograph has caption, "Who dies in the waters of the Ganges obtains heaven."

Since Ganga had descended from heaven to earth, she is also the vehicle of *ascent*, from earth to heaven.^[62] As the *Triloka-patha-gamini*, (Skt. *triloka*= "three worlds", *patha* = "road", *gamini* = "one who travels") of the Hindu tradition, she flows in heaven, earth, and the netherworld, and, consequently, is a "tirtha," or crossing point of all beings, the living as well as the dead.^[62] It is for this reason that the story of the *avatarana* is told at Shraddha ceremonies for the deceased in Hinduism, and Ganges water is used in Vedic rituals after death.^[62] Among all hymns devoted to the Ganges, there are none more popular than the ones expressing the worshipers wish to breathe his last surrounded by her waters.^[62] The *Gangashtakam* expresses this longing fervently:^[62]

O Mother! ... Necklace adorning the worlds!
Banner rising to heaven!
I ask that I may leave of this body on your banks,
Drinking your water, rolling in your waves,
Remembering your name, bestowing my gaze upon you.^[63]

No place along her banks is more longed for at the moment of death by Hindus than Varanasi, the Great Cremation Ground, or Mahashmshana.^[62] Those who are lucky enough to die in Varanasi, are cremated on the banks of the Ganges, and are granted instant salvation.^[64] If the death has occurred elsewhere, salvation

can be achieved by immersing the ashes in the Ganges.^[64] If the ashes have been immersed in another body of water, a relative can still gain salvation for the deceased by journeying to the Ganges, if possible during the lunar "fortnight of the ancestors" in the Hindu calendar month of Ashwin (September or October), and performing the *Shraddha* rites.^[64]

Hindus also perform *pinda pradana*, a rite for the dead, in which balls of rice and sesame seed are offered to the Ganges while the names of the deceased relatives are recited.^[65] Every sesame seed in every ball thus offered, according to one story, assures a thousand years of heavenly salvation for the each relative.^[65] Indeed, the Ganges is so important in the rituals after death that the *Mahabharata*, in one of its popular *ślokas*, says, "If only (one) bone of a (deceased) person should touch the water of the Ganges, that person shall dwell honoured in heaven."^[66] As if to illustrate this truism, the *Kashi Khanda* (Varanasi Chapter) of the Skanda Purana recounts the remarkable story of *Vahika*, a profligate and unrepentant sinner, who is killed by a tiger in the forest. His soul arrives before Yama, the Lord of Death, to be judged for the hereafter. Having no compensating virtue, Vahika's soul is at once dispatched to hell. While this is happening, his body on earth, however, is being picked at by vultures, one of whom flies away with a foot bone. Another bird comes after the vulture, and in fighting him off, the vulture accidentally drops the bone into the Ganges below. Blessed by this happenstance, Vahika, on his way to hell, is rescued by a celestial chariot which takes him instead to heaven.^[67]

The Purifying Ganges^[edit]



Devotees taking holy bath during festival of *Ganga Dashahara* at Har Ki Pauri, Haridwar

Hindus consider the waters of the Ganges to be both pure and purifying.^[68] Nothing reclaims order from disorder more than the waters of the Ganges.^[69] Moving water, as in a river, is considered purifying in Hindu culture because it is thought to both absorb impurities and take them away.^[69] The swiftly moving Ganges, especially in its upper reaches, where a bather has to grasp an anchored chain in order to not be carried away, is considered especially purifying.^[69] What the Ganges removes, however, is not necessarily physical dirt, but symbolic dirt; it wipes away the sins of the bather, not just of the present, but of a lifetime.^[69]

A popular paeon to the Ganges is the *Ganga Lahiri* composed by a seventeenth century poet Jagannatha who, legend has it, was turned out of his Hindu Brahmin caste for carrying on an affair with a Muslim woman. Having attempted futilely to be rehabilitated within the Hindu fold, the poet finally appeals to Ganga, the hope of the hopeless, and the comforter of last resort. Along with his beloved, Jagannatha sits at the top of the flight of steps leading to the water at the famous *Panchganga Ghat* in Varanasi. As he recites each verse of the poem, the water of the Ganges rises up one step, until in the end it envelops the lovers and carry them away.^[69] "I come to you as a child to his mother," begins the *Ganga Lahiri*.^[70]

I come as an orphan to you, moist with love.
I come without refuge to you, giver of sacred rest.
I come a fallen man to you, uplifter of all.
I come undone by disease to you, the perfect physician.
I come, my heart dry with thirst, to you, ocean of sweet wine.
Do with me whatever you will.^[70]

Consort, Shakti, and Mother^[edit]

Ganga is a consort to all three major male deities of Hinduism.^[71] As Brahma's partner she always travels with him in the form of water in his kamandalu (water-pot).^[71] She is also Vishnu's consort.^[71] Not only does she emanate from his foot as *Vishnupadi* in the *avatara* story, but is also, with Sarasvati and Lakshmi, one of his co-wives.^[71] In one popular story, envious of being outdone by each other, the co-wives begin to quarrel. While Lakshmi attempts to mediate the quarrel, Ganga and Sarasvati, heap misfortune on each other. They curse each other to become rivers, and to carry within them, by washing, the sins of their human worshippers. Soon their husband, Vishnu, arrives and decides to calm the situation by separating the goddesses. He orders Sarasvati to become the wife of Brahma, Ganga to become the wife of Shiva, and Lakshmi, as the blameless conciliator, to remain as his own wife. Ganga and Sarasvati, however, are so distraught at this dispensation, and wail so loudly, that Vishnu is forced to take back his words. Consequently, in their lives as rivers they are still thought to be with him.^[72]

Shiva, as *Gangadhara*, bearing the Descent of the Ganges, as the goddess Parvati, the sage Bhagiratha, and the bull Nandi look on (circa 1740).

It is Shiva's relationship with Ganga, that is the best-known in Ganges mythology.^[73] Her descent, the *avatara* is not a one time event, but a continuously occurring one in which she is forever falling from heaven into his locks and being forever tamed.^[73] Shiva, is depicted in Hindu iconography as *Gangadhara*, the "Bearer of the Ganges", with Ganga, shown as spout of water, rising from his hair.^[73] The Shiva-Ganga relationship is both perpetual and intimate.^[73] Shiva is sometimes called *Uma-Ganga-Patiswara* ("Husband and Lord of Uma (Parvati) and Ganga"), and Ganga often arouses the jealousy of Shiva's better-known consort Parvati.^[73]

Ganga is the *shakti* or the moving, restless, rolling energy in the form of which the otherwise recluse and unapproachable Shiva appears on earth.^[71] As water, this moving energy can be felt, tasted, and absorbed.^[71] The war-god Skanda addresses the sage Agastya in the *Kashi Khand* of the *Skanda Purana* in these words:^[71]

One should not be amazed ... that this Ganges is really Power, for is she not the Supreme Shakti of the Eternal Shiva, taken in the form of water?

This Ganges, filled with the sweet wine of compassion, was sent out for the salvation of the world by Shiva, the Lord of the Lords.

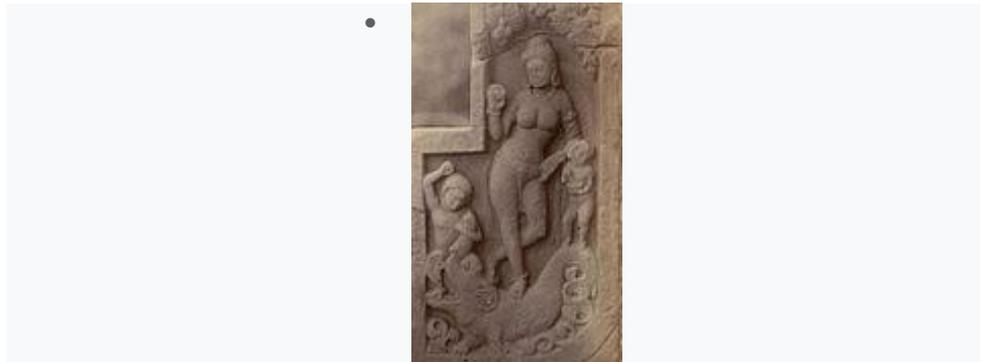
Good people should not think this Triple-Pathed River to be like the thousand other earthly rivers, filled with water.^[71]

The Ganges is also the mother, the *Ganga Mata* (*mata*="mother") of Hindu worship and culture, accepting all and forgiving all.^[70] Unlike other goddesses, she has no destructive or fearsome aspect, destructive though

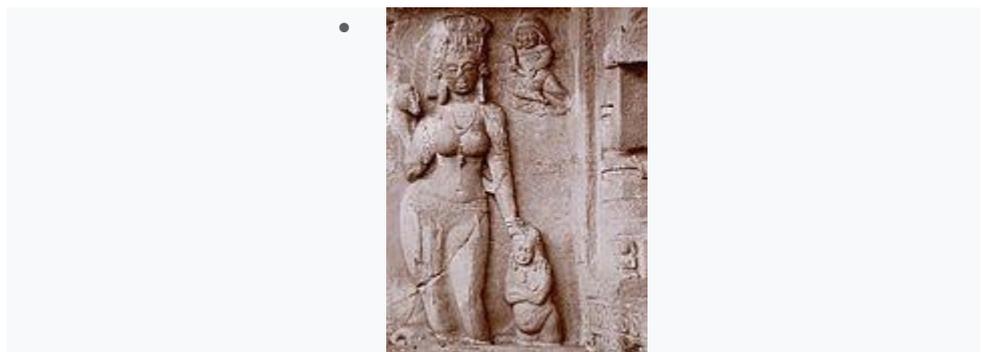
she might be as a river in nature.^[70] She is also a mother to other gods.^[74] She accepts Shiva's incandescent seed from the fire-god Agni, which is too hot for this world, and cools it in her waters.^[74] This union produces Skanda, or Kartikeya, the god of war.^[74] In the *Mahabharata*, she is the wife of Shantanu, and the mother of heroic warrior-patriarch, Bhishma.^[74] When Bhishma is mortally wounded in battle, Ganga comes out of the water in human form and weeps uncontrollably over his body.^[74]

The Ganges is the distilled lifeblood of the Hindu tradition, of its divinities, holy books, and enlightenment.^[71] As such, her worship does not require the usual rites of invocation (*avahana*) at the beginning and dismissal (*visarjana*) at the end, required in the worship of other gods.^[71] Her divinity is immediate and everlasting.^[71]

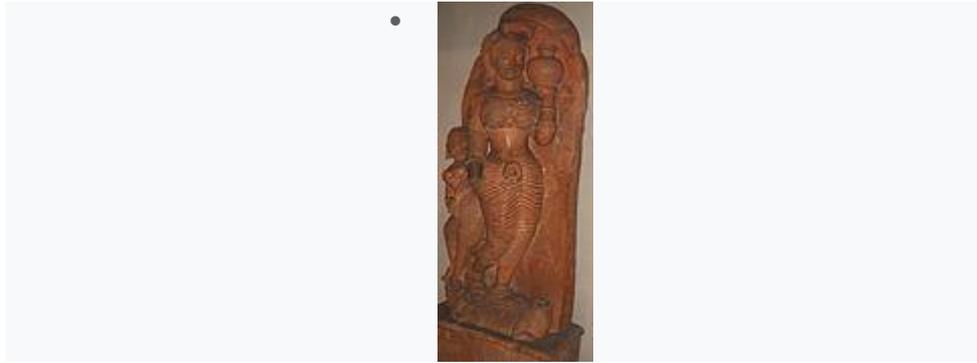
Ganges in classical Indian iconography^[edit]



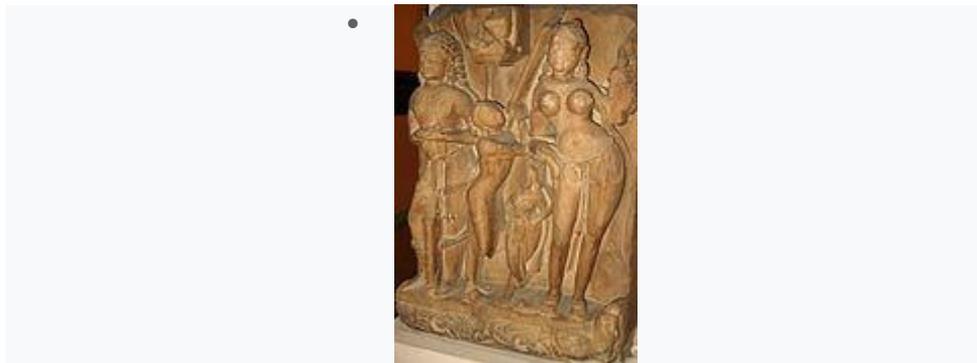
Photograph (1875) of goddess Ganga (Gupta Period, 5th or 6th century CE) from Besnagar, Madhya Pradesh, now in Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Goddess Ganga with left hand resting on a dwarf attendant's head from the Rameshwar Temple, Ellora Caves, Maharashtra. Date of Sculpture, 6th century



The goddess Ganga stands on her mount, the *makara*, with a *kumbha*, a full pot of water, in her hand, while an attendant holds a parasol over her. Terracotta, Ahichatra, Uttar Pradesh, Gupta, 5th century, now in National Museum, New Delhi



The goddess Ganga (right) in tribhanga pose with retinue. Pratihara, 10th century, now in National Museum, New Delhi

Early in ancient Indian culture, the river Ganges was associated with fecundity, its redeeming waters and its rich silt providing sustenance to all who lived along its banks.^[75] A counterpoise to the dazzling heat of the Indian summer, the Ganges came to be imbued with magical qualities and to be revered in anthropomorphic form.^[76] By the 5th century CE, an elaborate mythology surrounded the Ganges, now a goddess in her own right, and a symbol for all rivers of India.^[77] Hindu temples all over India had statues and reliefs of the goddess carved at their entrances, symbolically washing the sins of arriving worshippers and guarding the gods within.^[78] As protector of the sanctum sanctorum, the goddess soon came to be depicted with several characteristic accessories: the *makara* (a crocodile-like undersea monster, often shown with an elephant-like trunk), the *kumbha* (an overfull vase), various overhead parasol-like coverings, and a gradually increasing retinue of humans.^[79]

Central to the goddess's visual identification is the *makara*, which is also her *vahana*, or mount. An ancient symbol in India, it pre-dates all appearances of the goddess Ganga in art.^[79] The *makara* has a dual symbolism. On the one hand, it represents the life-affirming waters and plants of its environment; on the other, it represents fear, both fear of the unknown it elicits by lurking in those waters and real fear it instils by appearing in sight.^[79] The earliest extant unambiguous pairing of the *makara* with Ganga is at Udayagiri Caves in Central India (circa 400 CE). Here, in Cave V, flanking the main figure of Vishnu

shown in his boar incarnation, two river goddesses, Ganga and Yamuna appear atop their respective mounts, *makara* and *kurma* (a turtle or tortoise).^[79]

The *makara* is often accompanied by a *gana*, a small boy or child, near its mouth, as, for example, shown in the Gupta period relief from Besnagar, Central India, in the left-most frame above.^[80] The *gana* represents both posterity and development (*udbhava*).^[80] The pairing of the fearsome, life-destroying *makara* with the youthful, life-affirming *gana* speaks to two aspects of the Ganges herself. Although she has provided sustenance to millions, she has also brought hardship, injury, and death by causing major floods along her banks.^[81] The goddess Ganga is also accompanied by a dwarf attendant, who carries a cosmetic bag, and on whom she sometimes leans, as if for support.^[78] (See, for example, frames 1, 2, and 4 above.)

The *purna kumbha* or full pot of water is the second most discernible element of the Ganga iconography.^[82] Appearing first also in the relief in Udayagiri Caves (5th century), it gradually appeared more frequently as the theme of the goddess matured.^[82] By the seventh century it had become an established feature, as seen, for example, the Dashavatara temple, Deogarh, Uttar Pradesh (seventh century), the Trimurti temple, Badoli, Chittorgarh, Rajasthan, and at the Lakshmaneshwar temple, Kharod, Bilaspur, Chhattisgarh,^[82] (ninth or tenth century), and seen very clearly in frame 3 above and less clearly in the remaining frames. Worshipped even today, the full pot is emblematic of the formless Brahman, as well as of woman, of the womb, and of birth.^[83] Furthermore, The river goddesses Ganga and Saraswati were both born from Brahma's pot, containing the celestial waters.^[83]

In her earliest depictions at temple entrances, the goddess Ganga appeared standing beneath the overhanging branch of a tree, as seen as well in the Udayagiri caves.^[84] However, soon the tree cover had evolved into a *chatra* or parasol held by an attendant, for example, in the seventh-century Dasavatara temple at Deogarh.^[84] (The parasol can be clearly seen in frame 3 above; its stem can be seen in frame 4, but the rest has broken off.) The cover undergoes another transformation in the temple at Kharod, Bilaspur (ninth or tenth century), where the parasol is lotus-shaped,^[84] and yet another at the Trimurti temple at Badoli where the parasol has been replaced entirely by a lotus.^[84]

As the iconography evolved, sculptors in the central India especially were producing animated scenes of the goddess, replete with an entourage and suggestive of a queen en route to a river to bathe.^[85] A relief similar to the depiction in frame 4 above, is described in Pal 1997, p. 43 as follows:

A typical relief of about the ninth century that once stood at the entrance of a temple, the river goddess Ganga is shown as a voluptuously endowed lady with a retinue. Following the iconographic prescription, she stands gracefully on her composite *makara* mount and holds a water pot. The dwarf attendant carries her cosmetic bag, and a ... female holds the stem of a giant lotus leaf that serves as her mistress's parasol. The fourth figure is a male guardian. Often in such reliefs the *makara*'s tail is extended with great flourish into a scrolling design symbolizing both vegetation and water.^[78]

Kumbh Mela[\[edit\]](#)



A procession of Akharas marching over a makeshift bridge over the Ganges River. Kumbh Mela at Allahabad, 2001.

Main article: Kumbh Mela

Kumbh Mela is a mass Hindu pilgrimage in which Hindus gather at the Ganges River. The normal Kumbh Mela is celebrated every 3 years, the *Ardh* (half) Kumbh is celebrated every six years at Haridwar and Prayag,^[86] the *Purna* (complete) Kumbh takes place every twelve years^[87] at four places (Prayag (Allahabad), Haridwar, Ujjain, and Nashik). The *Maha* (great) Kumbh Mela which comes after 12 'Purna Kumbh Melas', or 144 years, is held at Prayag (Allahabad).^[87]

The major event of the festival is ritual bathing at the banks of the river. Other activities include religious discussions, devotional singing, mass feeding of holy men and women and the poor, and religious assemblies where doctrines are debated and standardized. Kumbh Mela is the most sacred of all the pilgrimages.^{[88][89]} Thousands of holy men and women attend, and the auspiciousness of the festival is in part attributable to this. The sadhus are seen clad in saffron sheets with ashes and powder dabbed on their skin per the requirements of ancient traditions. Some, called naga sanyasis, may not wear any clothes.^[90]

Irrigation^[edit]

The Ganges and its all tributaries, especially the Yamuna, have been used for irrigation since ancient times.^[91] Dams and canals were common in gangetic plain by fourth century BCE.^[92] The Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna basin has a huge hydroelectric potential, on the order of 200,000 to 250,000 megawatts, nearly half of which could be easily harnessed. As of 1999, India tapped about 12% of the hydroelectric potential of the Ganges and just 1% of the vast potential of the Brahmaputra.^[93]

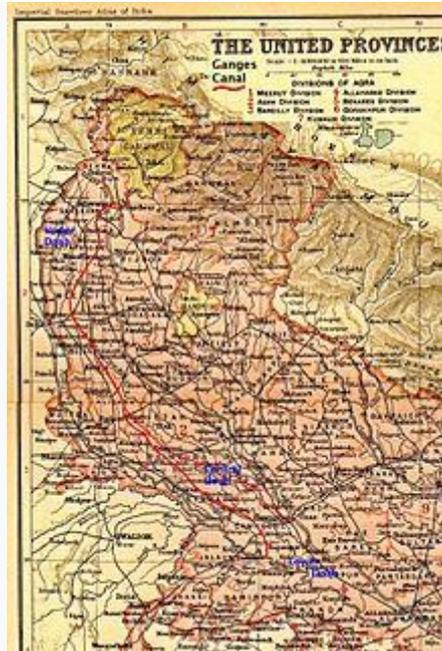
Canals^[edit]



Head works of the Ganges canal in Haridwar (1860). photograph by Samuel Bourne.

Megasthenes, a Greek ethnographer who visited India during third century BCE when Mauryans ruled India described the existence of canals in the gangetic plain. Kautilya (also known as Chanakya), an advisor to Chandragupta Maurya, the founder of Maurya Empire, included the destruction of dams and

levees as a strategy during war.^[92] Firuz Shah Tughlaq had many canals built, the longest of which, 240 km (150 mi), was built in 1356 on the Yamuna River. Now known as the Western Yamuna Canal, it has fallen into disrepair and been restored several times. The Mughal emperor Shah Jahan built an irrigation canal on the Yamuna River in the early 17th century. It fell into disuse until 1830, when it was reopened as the Eastern Yamuna Canal, under British control. The reopened canal became a model for the Upper Ganges Canal and all following canal projects.^[91]



The Ganges Canal highlighted in red stretching between its headworks off the Ganges River in Haridwar and its confluences with the Jumna River in Etawah and with the Ganges in Cawnpore (now Kanpur).

The first British canal in India—with no Indian antecedents—was the Ganges Canal built between 1842 and 1854.^[94] Contemplated first by Col. John Russell Colvin in 1836, it did not at first elicit much enthusiasm from its eventual architect Sir Proby Thomas Cautley, who balked at idea of cutting a canal through extensive low-lying land in order to reach the drier upland destination. However, after the Agra famine of 1837–38, during which the East India Company's administration spent Rs. 2,300,000 on famine relief, the idea of a canal became more attractive to the Company's budget-conscious Court of Directors. In 1839, the Governor General of India, Lord Auckland, with the Court's assent, granted funds to Cautley for a full survey of the swath of land that underlay and fringed the projected course of the canal. The Court of Directors, moreover, considerably enlarged the scope of the projected canal, which, in consequence of the severity and geographical extent of the famine, they now deemed to be the entire Doab region.^[95]

The enthusiasm, however, proved to be short lived. Auckland's successor as Governor General, Lord Ellenborough, appeared less receptive to large-scale public works, and for the duration of his tenure, withheld major funds for the project. Only in 1844, when a new Governor-General, Lord Hardinge, was appointed, did official enthusiasm and funds return to the Ganges canal project. Although the intervening impasse had seemingly affected Cautley's health and required him to return to Britain in 1845 for recuperation, his European sojourn gave him an opportunity to study contemporary hydraulic works in

the United Kingdom and Italy. By the time of his return to India even more supportive men were at the helm, both in the North-Western Provinces, with James Thomason as Lt. Governor, and in British India with Lord Dalhousie as Governor-General. Canal construction, under Cautley's supervision, now went into full swing. A 560 km (350 mi) long canal, with another 480 km (300 mi) of branch lines, eventually stretched between the headworks in Haridwar, splitting into two branches below Aligarh, and its two confluences with the Yamuna (Jumna in map) mainstem in Etawah and the Ganges in Kanpur (Cawnpore in map). The Ganges Canal, which required a total capital outlay of £2.15 million, was officially opened in 1854 by Lord Dalhousie.^[96] According to historian Ian Stone:

It was the largest canal ever attempted in the world, five times greater in its length than all the main irrigation lines of Lombardy and Egypt put together, and longer by a third than even the largest USA navigation canal, the Pennsylvania Canal.

Dams and barrages[\[edit\]](#)

A major barrage at Farakka was opened on 21 April 1975,^[97] It is located close to the point where the main flow of the river enters Bangladesh, and the tributary Hooghly (also known as Bhagirathi) continues in West Bengal past Kolkata. This barrage, which feeds the Hooghly branch of the river by a 42 km (26 mi) long feeder canal, and its water flow management has been a long-lingering source of dispute with Bangladesh.^[98] Indo-Bangladesh Ganges Water Treaty signed in December 1996 addressed some of the water sharing issues between India and Bangladesh.^[97] There is Lav Khush Barrage across the river Ganges in Kanpur.

Tehri Dam was constructed on Bhagirathi River, tributary of the Ganges. It is located 1.5 km downstream of Ganesh Prayag, the place where Bhilangana meets Bhagirathi. Bhagirathi is called Ganges after Devprayag.^[99] Construction of the dam in an earthquake prone area^[100] was controversial.^[101]

Bansagar Dam was built on the Son River, a tributary of the Ganges for both irrigation and hydroelectric power generation.^[102] Ganges flood waters along with Brahmaputra waters can be supplied to most of its right side basin area along with central and south India by constructing a coastal reservoir to store water on the Bay of Bengal sea area.

Economy[\[edit\]](#)



A girl selling plastic containers for carrying Ganges water, Haridwar.

The Ganges Basin with its fertile soil is instrumental to the agricultural economies of India and Bangladesh. The Ganges and its tributaries provide a perennial source of irrigation to a large area. Chief crops cultivated in the area include rice, sugarcane, lentils, oil seeds, potatoes, and wheat. Along the banks of the river, the presence of swamps and lakes provides a rich growing area for crops such as legumes, chillies, mustard, sesame, sugarcane, and jute. There are also many fishing opportunities along the river, though it remains highly polluted. Also the major industrial towns of Unnao and Kanpur, situated on the banks of the river with the predominance of tanning industries add to the pollution.^[103] Kanpur is the largest city on the Ganges.

Tourism[\[edit\]](#)

Tourism is another related activity. Three towns holy to Hinduism—Haridwar, Prayag (Allahabad), and Varanasi—attract thousands of pilgrims to its waters to take a dip in the Ganges, which is believed to cleanse oneself of sins and help attain salvation. The rapids of the Ganges also are popular for river rafting, attracting adventure seekers in the summer months. Also, several cities such as Kanpur, Kolkata and Patna have developed riverfront walkways along the banks to attract tourists.^{[104][105][106][107]}

Ecology and environment[\[edit\]](#)



Ganges from Space

Human development, mostly agriculture, has replaced nearly all of the original natural vegetation of the Ganges basin. More than 95% of the upper Gangetic Plain has been degraded or converted to agriculture or urban areas. Only one large block of relatively intact habitat remains, running along the Himalayan foothills and including Rajaji National Park, Jim Corbett National Park, and Dudhwa National Park.^[108] As recently as the 16th and 17th centuries the upper Gangetic Plain harboured impressive populations of wild Asian elephants (*Elephas maximus*), Bengal tigers (*Panthera t. tigris*), Indian rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros unicornis*), gaurs (*Bos gaurus*), barasinghas (*Rucervus duvaucelii*), sloth bears (*Melursus ursinus*) and Indian lions (*Panthera leo persica*).^[108] In the 21st century there are few large wild animals, mostly deer, wild boars, wildcats, and small numbers of Indian wolves, golden jackals, and red and Bengal foxes. Bengal tigers survive only in the Sundarbans area of the Ganges Delta.^[10] The Sundarbans freshwater swamp ecoregion, however, is nearly extinct.^[109] Threatened mammals in the

upper Gangetic Plain include the tiger, elephant, sloth bear, and four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*).^[108]



Lesser florican(*Sypheotides indicus*)

Many types of birds are found throughout the basin, such as myna, *Psittacula* parakeets, crows, kites, partridges, and fowls. Ducks and snipes migrate across the Himalayas during the winter, attracted in large numbers to wetland areas.^[10] There are no endemic birds in the upper Gangetic Plain. The great Indian bustard (*Ardeotis nigriceps*) and lesser florican (*Sypheotides indicus*) are considered globally threatened.^[108]

The natural forest of the upper Gangetic Plain has been so thoroughly eliminated it is difficult to assign a natural vegetation type with certainty. There are a few small patches of forest left, and they suggest that much of the upper plains may have supported a tropical moist deciduous forest with sal (*Shorea robusta*) as a climax species.^[108]

A similar situation is found in the lower Gangetic Plain, which includes the lower Brahmaputra River. The lower plains contain more open forests, which tend to be dominated by *Bombax ceiba* in association with *Albizia procera*, *Duabanga grandiflora*, and *Sterculia vilosa*. There are early seral forest communities that would eventually become dominated by the climax species sal (*Shorea robusta*), if forest succession was allowed to proceed. In most places forests fail to reach climax conditions due to human causes.^[110] The forests of the lower Gangetic Plain, despite thousands of years of human settlement, remained largely intact until the early 20th century. Today only about 3% of the ecoregion is under natural forest and only one large block, south of Varanasi, remains. There are over forty protected areas in the ecoregion, but over half of these are less than 100 square kilometres (39 sq mi).^[110] The fauna of the lower Gangetic Plain is similar to the upper plains, with the addition of a number of other species such as the smooth-coated otter (*Lutrogale perspicillata*) and the large Indian civet (*Viverra zibetha*).^[110]

Fish[edit]



The catla (*Catla catla*) is one of the Indian carp species that support major fisheries in the Ganges

It has been estimated that about 350 fish species live in the entire Ganges drainage, including several endemics.^[111] In a major 2007–2009 study of fish in the Ganges basin (including the river itself and its tributaries, but excluding the Brahmaputra and Meghna basins), a total of 143 fish species were recorded, including 10 non-native introduced species.^[112] The most diverse orders are Cypriniformes (barbs and allies), Siluriformes (catfish) and Perciformes (perciform fish), each comprising about 50%, 23% and 14% of the total fish species in the drainage.^[112]

There are distinct differences between the different sections of the river basin, but Cyprinidae is the most diverse throughout. In the upper section (roughly equalling the basin parts in Uttarakhand) more than 50 species have been recorded and Cyprinidae alone accounts for almost 80% those, followed by Balitoridae (about 15.6%) and Sisoridae (about 12.2%).^[112] Sections of the Ganges basin at altitudes above 2,400–3,000 m (7,900–9,800 ft) above sea level are generally without fish. Typical genera approaching this altitude are Schizothorax, Tor, Barilius, Nemacheilus and Glyptothorax.^[112] About 100 species have been recorded from the middle section of the basin (roughly equalling the sections in Uttar Pradesh and parts of Bihar) and more than 55% of these are in family Cyprinidae, followed by Schilbeidae (about 10.6%) and Clupeidae (about 8.6%).^[112] The lower section (roughly equalling the basin in parts of Bihar and West Bengal) includes major floodplains and is home to almost 100 species. About 46% of these are in the family Cyprinidae, followed by Schilbeidae (about 11.4%) and Bagridae (about 9%).^[112]

The Ganges basin supports major fisheries, but these have declined in recent decades. In the Allahabad region in the middle section of the basin, catches of carp fell from 424.91 metric tons in 1961–1968 to 38.58 metric tons in 2001–2006, and catches of catfish fell from 201.35 metric tons in 1961–1968 to 40.56 metric tons in 2001–2006.^[112] In the Patna region in the lower section of the basin, catches of carp fell from 383.2 metric tons to 118, and catfish from 373.8 metric tons to 194.48.^[112] Some of the fish commonly caught in fisheries include catla (*Catla catla*), golden mahseer (*Tor putitora*), tor mahseer (*Tor tor*), rohu (*Labeo rohita*), walking catfish (*Clarias batrachus*), pangas catfish (*Pangasius pangasius*), goonch catfish (*Bagarius*), snakeheads (*Channa*), bronze featherback (*Notopterus notopterus*) and milkfish (*Chanos chanos*).^{[10][112]}

The Ganges basin is home to about 30 fish species that are listed as threatened with the primary issues being overfishing (sometimes illegal), pollution, water abstraction, siltation and invasive species.^[112] Among the threatened species is the critically endangered Ganges shark (*Glyphis gangeticus*).^[113] Several fish species migrate between different sections of the river, but these movements may be prevented by the building of dams.^[112]

Crocodylians and turtles[edit]



The threatened gharial (*Gavialis gangeticus*) is a large fish-eating crocodylian that is harmless to humans^[114]

The main sections of the Ganges River are home to the gharial (*Gavialis gangeticus*) and mugger crocodile (*Crocodylus palustris*), and the delta is home to the saltwater crocodile (*C. porosus*). Among the numerous aquatic and semi-aquatic turtles in the Ganges basin are the northern river terrapin (*Batagur baska*; only in the lowermost section of the basin), three-striped roofed turtle (*B. dhongoka*), red-crowned roofed turtle (*B. kachuga*), black pond turtle (*Geoclemys hamiltonii*), Brahminy river turtle (*Hardella thurjii*), Indian black turtle (*Melanochelys trijuga*), Indian eyed turtle (*Morenia petersi*), brown roofed turtle (*Pangshura smithii*), Indian roofed turtle (*Pangshura tecta*), Indian tent turtle (*Pangshura tentoria*), Indian flapshell turtle (*Lissemys punctata*), Indian narrow-headed softshell turtle (*Chitra indica*), Indian softshell turtle (*Nilssonina gangetica*), Indian peacock softshell turtle (*N. hurum*) and Cantor's giant softshell turtle (*Pelochelys cantorii*; only in the lowermost section of Ganges basin).^[115] Most of these are seriously threatened.^[115]

Ganges river dolphin[edit]



The Gangetic dolphin in a sketch by Whympner and P. Smit, 1894.

The river's most famed faunal member is the freshwater Ganges river dolphin (*Platanista gangetica gangetica*),^[108] which has been declared India's national aquatic animal.^[116]

This dolphin used to exist in large schools near to urban centres in both the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, but is now seriously threatened by pollution and dam construction. Their numbers have now dwindled to a quarter of their numbers of fifteen years before, and they have become extinct in the Ganges' main tributaries.^[6] A recent survey by the World Wildlife Fund found only 3,000 left in the water catchment of both river systems.^[117]

The Ganges river dolphin is one of only five true freshwater dolphins in the world. The other four are the baiji (*Lipotes vexillifer*) of the Yangtze River in China, now likely extinct; the Indus river dolphin of the Indus River in Pakistan; the Amazon river dolphin of the Amazon River in South America; and the Araguaian river dolphin (not considered a separate species until 2014^[118]) of the Araguaia–

Tocantins basin in Brazil. There are several marine dolphins whose ranges include some freshwater habitats, but these five are the only dolphins who live only in freshwater rivers and lakes.^[110]

Effects of climate change^[edit]

The Tibetan Plateau contains the world's third-largest store of ice. Qin Dahe, the former head of the China Meteorological Administration, said that the recent fast pace of melting and warmer temperatures will be good for agriculture and tourism in the short term; but issued a strong warning:

Temperatures are rising four times faster than elsewhere in China, and the Tibetan glaciers are retreating at a higher speed than in any other part of the world.... In the short term, this will cause lakes to expand and bring floods and mudflows... In the long run, the glaciers are vital lifelines for Asian rivers, including the Indus and the Ganges. Once they vanish, water supplies in those regions will be in peril.^[119]

In 2007, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), in its Fourth Report, stated that the Himalayan glaciers which feed the river, were at risk of melting by 2035.^[120] The IPCC has now withdrawn that prediction, as the original source admitted that it was speculative and the cited source was not a peer reviewed finding.^[h] In its statement, the IPCC stands by its general findings relating to the Himalayan glaciers being at risk from global warming (with consequent risks to water flow into the Gangetic basin). Many studies have suggested that the climate change will affect the water resources in the Ganges river basin including increased summer (monsoon) flow, and peak runoff could result in an increased risk of flooding.^[121]

Pollution and environmental concerns^[edit]

Main article: Pollution of the Ganges



People bathing and washing clothes in the Ganges in Varanasi.

The Ganges suffers from extreme pollution levels^[122], caused by the 400 million people who live close to the river.^{[123][124]} Sewage from many cities along the river's course, industrial waste and religious offerings wrapped in non-degradable plastics add large amounts of pollutants to the river as it flows through densely populated areas.^{[9][125][126]} The problem is exacerbated by the fact that many poorer people rely on the river on a daily basis for bathing, washing, and cooking.^[125] The World Bank estimates that the health costs of water pollution in India equal three percent of India's GDP.^[i] It has also been suggested that eighty percent of all illnesses in India and one-third of deaths can be attributed to water-borne diseases.^[e]

Varanasi, a city of one million people that many pilgrims visit to take a "holy dip" in the Ganges, releases around 200 million litres of untreated human sewage into the river each day, leading to large concentrations of faecal coliform bacteria.^[125] According to official standards, water safe for bathing should not contain more than 500 faecal coliforms per 100ml, yet upstream of Varanasi's ghats the river water already contains 120 times as much, 60,000 faecal coliform bacteria per 100 ml.^{[127][128]}

After the cremation of the deceased at Varanasi's ghats the bones and ashes are thrown into the Ganges. However, in the past thousands of uncremated bodies were thrown into the Ganges during cholera epidemics, spreading the disease. Even today, holy men, pregnant women, people with leprosy/chicken pox, people who have been bitten by snakes, people who have committed suicide, the poor, and children under 5 are not cremated at the ghats but are left to float free, in order to decompose in the waters. In addition, those who cannot afford the large amount of wood needed to incinerate the entire body, leave behind a lot of half burned body parts.^{[129][130]}

After passing through Varanasi, and receiving 32 streams of raw sewage from the city, the concentration of fecal coliforms in the river's waters rises from 60,000 to 1.5 million,^{[127][128]} with observed peak values of 100 million per 100 ml.^[125] Drinking and bathing in its waters therefore carries a high risk of infection.^[125]

Between 1985 and 2000, Rs. 10 billion, around US\$226 million, or less than 4 cents per person per year,^[131] were spent on the Ganga Action Plan,^[9] an environmental initiative that was "the largest single attempt to clean up a polluted river anywhere in the world."^[d] The Ganga Action Plan has been described variously as a "failure",^{[132][133]} a "major failure".^{[a][b][1]}

According to one study,^[132]

The Ganga Action Plan, which was taken on priority and with much enthusiasm, was delayed for two years. The expenditure was almost doubled. But the result was not very appreciable. Much expenditure was done over the political propaganda. The concerning governments and the related agencies were not very prompt to make it a success. The public of the areas was not taken into consideration. The releasing of urban and industrial wastes in the river was not controlled fully. The flowing of dirty water through drains and sewers were not adequately diverted. The continuing customs of burning dead bodies, throwing carcasses, washing of dirty clothes by washermen, and immersion of idols and cattle wallowing were not checked. Very little provision of public latrines was made and the open defecation of lakhs of people continued along the riverside. All these made the Action Plan a failure.

The failure of the Ganga Action Plan, has also been variously attributed to "environmental planning without proper understanding of the human–environment interactions,"^[d] Indian "traditions and beliefs,"^[1] "corruption and a lack of technical knowledge"^[c] and "lack of support from religious authorities."^[e]

In December 2009 the World Bank agreed to loan India US\$1 billion over the next five years to help save the river.^[133] According to 2010 Planning Commission estimates, an investment of almost Rs. 70 billion (Rs. 70 billion, approximately US\$1.5 billion) is needed to clean up the river.^[9]

In November 2008, the Ganges, alone among India's rivers, was declared a "National River", facilitating the formation of a National Ganga River Basin Authority that would have greater powers to plan, implement and monitor measures aimed at protecting the river.^[134]

In July 2014, the Government of India announced an integrated Ganges-development project titled *Namami Ganga* and allocated ₹2,037 crore for this purpose.^[135]

In March 2017 the High Court of Uttarakhand declared the Ganges River a legal "person", in a move that according to one newspaper, "could help in efforts to clean the pollution-choked rivers."^[136] As of 6 April 2017, the ruling has been commented on in Indian newspapers to be hard to enforce,^[137] that experts do not anticipate immediate benefits,^[137] that the ruling is "hardly game changing,"^[138] that experts believe "any follow-up action is unlikely,"^[139] and that the "judgment is deficient to the extent it acted without hearing others (in states outside Uttarakhand) who have stakes in the matter."^[140]

The incidence of water-borne and enteric diseases—such as gastrointestinal disease, cholera, dysentery, hepatitis A and typhoid—among people who use the river's waters for bathing, washing dishes and brushing teeth is high, at an estimated 66% per year.^[125]

Recent studies by Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) say that the river is so full of killer pollutants that those living along its banks in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Bengal are more prone to cancer than anywhere else in the country. Conducted by the National Cancer Registry Programme under the ICMR, the study throws up shocking findings indicating that the river is thick with heavy metals and lethal chemicals that cause cancer. According to Deputy Director General of NCRP A. Nandkumar, the incidence of cancer was highest in the country in areas drained by the Ganges and stated that the problem would be studied deeply and with the findings presented in a report to the health ministry.^[141]

Apart from that, many NGOs have come forward to rejuvenate river Ganga. Vikrant Tongad, an Environmental specialist from SAFE Green filed a petition against Simbhaoli Sugar Mill (Hapur UP) to NGT. NGT slapped a fine of Rs. 5 crore to Sugar Mill also, a fine of 25 Lakhs to Gopaljee Dairy for discharging untreated effluents into the Simbhaoli drain.^[142]

Water shortages[\[edit\]](#)

Along with ever-increasing pollution, water shortages are getting noticeably worse. Some sections of the river are already completely dry. Around Varanasi, the river once had an average depth of 60 metres (200 ft), but in some places, it is now only 10 metres (33 ft).^[143]

To cope with its chronic water shortages, India employs electric groundwater pumps, diesel-powered tankers, and coal-fed power plants. If the country increasingly relies on these energy-intensive short-term fixes, the whole planet's climate will bear the consequences. India is under enormous pressure to develop its economic potential while also protecting its environment—something few, if any, countries have accomplished. What India does with its water will be a test of whether that combination is possible.^[144]

Mining[\[edit\]](#)

Illegal mining in the Ganges river bed for stones and sand for construction work has long been a problem in Haridwar district, Uttarakhand, where it touches the plains for the first time. This is despite the fact that quarrying has been banned in Kumbh Mela area zone covering 140 km² area in Haridwar.^[145]

See also[edit]

- Environmental personhood
 - Fair river sharing
 - Ganga Pushkaram
 - Gangaputra Brahmin
 - Ganges in Hinduism
 - List of rivers by discharge
 - List of rivers by length
 - List of rivers of India
 - National Waterway 1
 - Swachh Ganga (Clean Ganga) Campaign
 - Ganga Talao
 - River bank erosion along the Ganges in Malda and Murshidabad districts
1. [^] Jump up to:^a [‡] Haberman (2006)

"The Ganga Action Plan, commonly known as GAP, was launched dramatically in the holy city of Banares (Varanasi) on 14 June 1985, by Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi, who promised, 'We shall see that the waters of the Ganga become clean once again.' The stated task was 'to improve water quality, permit safe bathing all along the 2,525 kilometers from the Ganges's origin in the Himalayas to the Bay of Bengal, and make the water potable at important pilgrim and urban centres on its banks.' The project was designed to tackle pollution from twenty-five cities and towns along its banks in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal by intercepting, diverting, and treating their effluents. With the GAP's Phase II, three important tributaries—Damodar, Gomati, and Yamuna—were added to the plan. Although some improvements have been made to the quality of the Ganges's water, many people claim that the GAP has been a major failure. The environmental lawyer M. C. Mehta, for example, filed public interest litigation against project, claiming 'GAP has collapsed.'"

 2. [^] Jump up to:^a [‡] Gardner (2003)

"The Ganges, also known as the Ganga, is one of the world's major rivers, running for more than 2,500 kilometres from the Himalayas to the Bay of Bengal. It is also one of the most polluted, primarily from sewage, but also from animal carcasses, human corpses, and soap and other pollutants from bathers. Indeed, scientists measure fecal coliform levels at thousands of times what is permissible and levels of oxygen in the water are similarly unhealthy. Renewal efforts have centred primarily on the government-sponsored Ganga Action Plan (GAP), started in 1985 with the goal of cleaning up the river by 1993. Several western-style sewage treatment plants were built along the river, but they were poorly designed, poorly maintained and prone to shut down during the region's frequent power outages. The GAP has been a colossal failure, and many argue that the river is more polluted now than it was in 1985." (pa.166)

 3. [^] Jump up to:^a [‡] Sheth (2008)

"But the Indian government, as a whole, appears typically ineffective. Its ability to address itself to a national problem like environmental degradation is typified by the 20-year, \$100 million Ganga Action Plan, whose purpose was to clean up the Ganges River. Leading Indian environmentalists call the plan a complete failure, due to the same problems that have always beset the government: poor planning, corruption, and a lack of technical knowledge. The river, they say, is more polluted than ever." (pp. 67–68)

 4. [^] Jump up to:^a [‡] [‡] Singh & Singh (2007)

"In February 1985, the Ministry of Environment and Forest, Government of India launched the Ganga Action Plan, an environmental project to improve the river water quality. It was the largest single attempt to clean up a polluted river anywhere in the world and has not achieved any success in terms of preventing pollution load and improvement in water quality of the river. Failure of the Ganga Action Plan may be directly linked with the environmental planning without proper understanding of the human–environment interactions. The bibliography of selected environmental research studies on the Ganga River is, therefore, an essentially first step for preserving and maintaining the Ganga River ecosystem in future."

5. [^] [Jump up to: # # # Puttick \(2008\)](#)
 "Sacred ritual is only one source of pollution. The main source of contamination is organic waste—sewage, trash, food, and human and animal remains. Around a billion litres of untreated raw sewage are dumped into the Ganges each day, along with massive amounts of agricultural chemicals (including DDT), industrial pollutants, and toxic chemical waste from the booming industries along the river. The level of pollution is now 10,000 percent higher than the government standard for safe river bathing (let alone drinking). One result of this situation is an increase in waterborne diseases, including cholera, hepatitis, typhoid, and amoebic dysentery. An estimated 80 percent of all health problems and one-third of deaths in India are attributable to waterborne illnesses." (p. 247)
 "There have been various projects to clean up the Ganges and other rivers, led by the Indian government's Ganga Action Plan launched in 1985 by Rajiv Gandhi, grandson of Jawaharlal Nehru. Its relative failure has been blamed on mismanagement, corruption, and technological mistakes, but also on lack of support from religious authorities. This may well be partly because the Brahmin priests are so invested in the idea of the Ganges' purity and afraid that any admission of its pollution will undermine the central role of the water in ritual, as well as their own authority. There are many temples along the river, conducting a brisk trade in ceremonies, including funerals, and sometimes also the sale of bottled Ganga jal. The more traditional Hindu priests still believe that blessing Ganga jal purifies it, although they are now a very small minority in view of the scale of the problem." (p. 248)
 "Wildlife is also under threat, particularly the river dolphins. They were one of the world's first protected species, given special status under the reign of Emperor Ashoka in the 3rd century BC. They're now a critically endangered species, although protected once again by the Indian government (and internationally under the CITES convention). Their numbers have shrunk by 75 per cent over the last 15 years, and they have become extinct in the main tributaries, mainly because of pollution and habitat degradation." (p. 275)
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6. [^] [Thapar \(1971\)](#)
 "The stabilising of what were to be the Arya-lands and the mlecha-lands took some time. In the *R̥g Veda* the geographical focus was the *sapta-sindhu* (the Indus valley and the Punjab) with Sarasvatī as the sacred river, but within a few centuries *ārya-varta* is located in the Gaṅgā-Yamūnā Doāb with the Ganga becoming the sacred river." (p. 415)
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7. [^] [Salman & Uprety \(2002\)](#), pp. 172, 178–87, 387–91) Treaty Between the Government of the Republic of India and the Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh on Sharing of the Ganga/Ganges Waters at Farakka.
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8. [^] The IPCC report is based on a non-peer reviewed work by the World Wildlife Federation. They, in turn, drew their information from an interview conducted by *New Scientist* with Dr. Hasnain, an Indian glaciologist, who admitted that the view was speculative. See: "[Sifting climate facts from speculation](#)". 13 January 2010. and "[Pachauri calls Indian govt. report on melting Himalayan glaciers as 'voodoo science'](#)". *Thaindian News*. 9 January 2010. On the IPCC statement withdrawing the finding, see: "[IPCC statement on the melting of Himalayan glaciers](#)" (PDF). IPCC – Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 20 January 2010.
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9. [^] [Jump up to: # # Bharati \(2006\)](#)
 "The World Bank estimates the health costs of water pollution in India to be equivalent to three per cent of the country's gross domestic product. With Indian rivers being severely polluted, interlinking them may actually increase these costs. Also, with the widely recognised failure of the Ganga Action Plan, there is a danger that contaminants from the Gangetic basin might enter other basins and destroy their natural cleansing processes. The new areas that will be river-fed after the introduction of the scheme may experience crop failures or routing due to alien compounds carried into their streams from the polluted Gangetic basin streams." (p. 26)
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10. [^] [Caso & Wolf \(2010\)](#)
 "Chronology: 1985 *India launches Phase I of the Ganga Action Plan to restore the Ganges River; most deem it a failure by the early 1990s." (p. 320)
-
11. [^] [Dudgeon \(2005\)](#)
 "To reduce the water pollution in one of Asia's major rivers, the Indian Government initiated the Ganga Action Plan in 1985. The objective of this centrally funded scheme was to treat the effluent from all the major towns along the Ganges and reduce pollution in the river by at least 75%. The Ganga Action Plan built upon the existing, but weakly enforced, 1974 Water Prevention and Control Act. A government audit of the Ganga Action Plan in 2000 reported limited success in meeting effluent targets. Development plans for sewage treatment facilities were submitted by only 73% of the cities along the Ganges, and only 54% of these were judged acceptable by the authorities. Not all the cities reported how much effluent was being treated, and many continued to discharge raw sewage into the river. Test audits of installed capacity indicated poor performance, and there were long delays in constructing planned treatment facilities. After 15 yr. of implementation, the audit estimated that the Ganga Action Plan had achieved only 14% of the anticipated sewage treatment capacity. The environmental impact of this failure has been exacerbated by the removal of large quantities of irrigation water from the Ganges which offset any gains from effluent reductions."
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12. [^] [Tiwari \(2008\)](#)
 "Many social traditions and customs are not only helping in environmental degradation but are causing obstruction

to environmental management and planning. The failure of the Ganga Action Plan to clean the sacred river is partly associated to our traditions and beliefs. The disposal of dead bodies, the immersion of idols and public bathing are the part of Hindu customs and rituals which are based on the notion that the sacred river leads to the path of salvation and under no circumstances its water can become impure. Burning of dead bodies through wood, bursting of crackers during Diwali, putting thousands of tonnes of fuel wood under fire during Holi, immersion of Durga and Ganesh idols into rivers and seas etc. are part of Hindu customs and are detrimental to the environment. These and many other rituals need rethinking and modification in the light of contemporary situations." (p. 92)

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Delta Electronics (Slovakia), S.R.O

Location: Samutprakan, THAILAND

Dubnica nad Vahom Industrial Estate

Inclusion in Ramsar Convention: No

WRI Baseline water stress level: 1-2/5

Flood Occurrence : 4/5 Drought severity: 2/5 Access to water : 2/5

Projected change in water stress (Change From baseline to 2020 business as usual): Near Normal

Elbe

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See also: *[Elbe \(disambiguation\)](#)*

Not to be confused with the island of [Elba](#).

Elbe

Czech: Labe, German: Elbe, Low German: Ilvor Elv



The Elbe (Labe) near Děčín, Czech Republic



The Elbe drainage basin

Location

| | |
|----------------|---|
| Country | <u>Czech Republic</u> , <u>Germany</u> |
| Region | <u>Hradec Králové</u> , <u>Pardubice</u> , <u>Central Bohemia</u> , <u>Ústí nad Labem</u> , <u>Saxony</u> , <u>Saxony-Anhalt</u> , <u>Brandenburg</u> , <u>Lower Saxony</u> , <u>Mecklenburg-Vorpommern</u> , <u>Hamburg</u> , <u>Schleswig-Holstein</u> |
| Cities | <u>Hradec Králové</u> , <u>Pardubice</u> , <u>Ústí nad Labem</u> , <u>Děčín</u> , <u>Dresden</u> , <u>Meißen</u> , <u>Wittenberg</u> , <u>Dessau</u> , <u>Magdeburg</u> , <u>Hamburg</u> , <u>Stade</u> , <u>Cuxhaven</u> |

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Course[[edit](#)]

In the Czech Republic[[edit](#)]

The Elbe rises at an elevation of about 1,400 metres (4,593 ft) in the Krkonoše (also known as *Giant Mountains* or in German as *Riesengebirge*) on the northwest borders of the Czech Republic near Labská bouda. Of the numerous small streams whose waters compose the infant river, the most important is the Bílé Labe, or White Elbe. After plunging down the 60 metres (197 ft) of the Labský vodopád, or Elbe Falls, the latter stream unites with the steeply torrential Malé Labe, and thereafter the united stream of the Elbe pursues a southerly course, emerging from the mountain glens at Jaroměř, where it receives Úpa and Metuje.

Here the Elbe enters the vast vale named Polabí (meaning "land along the Elbe"), and continues on southwards through Hradec Králové (where Orlice flows in) and then to Pardubice, where it turns sharply to the west. At Kolín some 43 kilometres (27 mi) further on, it bends gradually towards the north-west. At the village of Káraný, a little above Brandýs nad Labem, it picks up the Jizera.

At Mělník its stream is more than doubled in volume by the Vltava, or Moldau, a major river which winds northwards through Bohemia. Upstream from the confluence the Vltava is in fact much longer (434 kilometres (270 mi) against 294 kilometres (183 mi) of the Elbe so far), and has a greater discharge and a larger drainage basin. Nonetheless, for historical reasons the river retains the name Elbe, also because at the confluence point it is the Elbe that flows through the main, wider valley while the Vltava flows into the valley to meet the Elbe at almost a right angle, and thus appears to be the tributary river.

Some distance lower down, at Litoměřice, the waters of the Elbe are tinted by the reddish Ohře (Eger). Thus augmented, and swollen into a stream 140 metres (459 ft) wide, the Elbe carves a path through the basaltic mass of the České Středohoří, churning its way through a picturesque, deep, narrow and curved rocky gorge.

In Germany[[edit](#)]

Shortly after crossing the Czech-German frontier, and passing through the sandstone defiles of the Elbe Sandstone Mountains, the stream assumes a north-westerly direction, which on the whole it preserves right to the North Sea.

The river rolls through Dresden and finally, beyond Meißen, enters on its long journey across the North German Plain passing along the former western border of East Germany, touching Torgau, Wittenberg, Dessau, Magdeburg, Wittenberge, and Hamburg on the way, and taking on the waters of the Mulde and Saale from the west, and those of the Schwarze Elster, Havel and Elde from the east. In its northern section both banks of the Elbe are characterised by flat, very fertile marshlands (Elbe Marshes), former flood plains of the Elbe now diked.

At Magdeburg there is a viaduct, the Magdeburg Water Bridge, that carries a canal and its shipping traffic over the Elbe and its banks, allowing shipping traffic to pass under it unhindered.



The Middle Elbe in the North German Plain near the village of Gorleben. In this section, the river had been part of the Iron Curtain between West and East Germany during the Cold War. For that reason, the river banks even today look relatively natural and undeveloped.

From the sluice of Geesthacht (at kilometre 586) on downstream the Elbe is subject to the tides, the tidal Elbe section is called the Low Elbe (Untereibe). Soon the Elbe reaches Hamburg. Within the city-state the Untereibe has a number of branch streams, such as Dove Elbe, Gose Elbe, Köhlbrand, Northern Elbe(Norderelbe), Reiherstieg, Southern Elbe (Süderelbe). Some of which have been disconnected for vessels from the main stream by dikes. In 1390 the Gose Elbe (literally in English: shallow Elbe) was separated from the main stream by a dike connecting the two then-islands of Kirchwerder and Neuengamme. The Dove Elbe (literally in English: deaf Elbe) was diked off in 1437/38 at Gammer Ort. These hydraulic engineering works were carried out to protect marshlands from inundation, and to improve the water supply of the Port of Hamburg. After the heavy inundation by the North Sea flood of 1962 the western section of the Southern Elbe was separated, becoming the Old Southern Elbe, while the waters of the eastern Southern Elbe now merge into the Köhlbrand, which is bridged by the Köhlbrandbrücke, the last bridge over the Elbe before the North Sea.

The Northern Elbe passes the Elbe Philharmonic Hall and is then crossed under by the old Elbe Tunnel (Alter Elbtunnel), both in Hamburg's city centre. A bit more downstream the Low Elbe's two main anabranes Northern Elbe and the Köhlbrand reunite south of Altona-Altstadt, a locality of Hamburg. Right after both anabranes reunited the Low Elbe is passed under by the New Elbe Tunnel

(Neuer Elbtunnel), the last structural road link crossing the river before the North Sea. At the bay Mühlenberger Loch in Hamburg at kilometre 634, the Northern Elbe and the Southern Elbe (here now the cut-off meander Old Southern Elbe) used to reunite, which is why the bay is seen as the starting point of the Lower Elbe (Niederelbe). Leaving the city-state the Lower Elbe then passes between Holstein and the Elbe-Weser Triangle with Stade until it flows into the North Sea at Cuxhaven. Near its mouth it passes the entrance to the Kiel Canal at Brunsbüttele before it debouches into the North Sea.



View of the Elbe in Saxon Switzerland, an area in Germany.

Towns and cities^[edit]



The Elbe passing Dresden.



Elbe near Wittenberg



The Port of Hamburg on the Elbe

| Key | |
|-----------------------|------------|
| Town | Population |
| <u>Hradec Králové</u> | 92,808 |
| <u>Pardubice</u> | 89,693 |
| <u>Kolín</u> | 30,946 |
| <u>Káraný</u> | 769 |

| Key | |
|---|------------|
| Town | Population |
| <u>Brandýs nad Labem-Stará Boleslav</u> | 18,134 |
| <u>Mělník</u> | 19,201 |
| <u>Litoměřice</u> | 24,101 |
| <u>Ústí nad Labem</u> | 93,409 |
| <u>Děčín</u> | 49,833 |
| <u>Dresden</u> | 543,825 |
| <u>Meissen</u> | 27,936 |
| <u>Torgau</u> | 20,047 |
| <u>Wittenberg</u> | 46,475 |
| <u>Dessau</u> | 77,394 |
| <u>Magdeburg</u> | 235,723 |
| <u>Wittenberge</u> | 17,206 |
| <u>Hamburg</u> | 1,787,408 |
| <u>Stade</u> | 46,378 |
| <u>Cuxhaven</u> | 48,264 |

Navigation^[edit]

The Elbe has been navigable by commercial vessels since 1842, and provides important trade links as far inland as Prague. The river is linked by canals (Elbe Lateral Canal, Elbe-Havel Canal, Mittellandkanal) to the industrial areas of Germany and to Berlin. The Elbe-Lübeck Canal links the Elbe to the Baltic Sea, as does the Kiel Canal, whose western entrance is near the mouth of the Elbe. The Elbe-Weser Shipping Channel connects the Elbe with the Weser.

By the Treaty of Versailles the navigation on the Elbe became subject to the International Commission of the Elbe, seated in Dresden.^[6] The statute of the Commission was signed in Dresden on February 22, 1922.^[6] Following articles 363 and 364 of the Treaty of Versailles, Czechoslovakia was entitled to lease its own harbour bassin, Moldauhafen in Hamburg. The contract of lease with Germany, and supervised by the United Kingdom, was signed on February 14, 1929 ending in 2028. Since 1993 the Czech Republic holds the former Czechoslovak legal position.

Before Germany was reunited, waterway transport in Western Germany was hindered by the fact that inland navigation to Hamburg had to pass through the German Democratic Republic. The Elbe-Seitenkanal (Elbe Lateral Canal) was built between the West German section of the Mittellandkanal and the Lower Elbe to restore this connection. When the two nations were reunited, works were begun to improve and restore the original links: the Magdeburg Water Bridge now allows large barges to cross the Elbe without having to enter the river. The often low water levels of the Elbe no longer hinder navigation to Berlin.^[7]

Islands[[edit](#)]



Cuxhaven



The mouth of the Elbe with the island of [Trischen](#) in the [North Sea](#)

Headwaters[[edit](#)]

- [Hořejší](#) – in [Kolín](#)
- [Kmočův](#) – in [Kolín](#)

Upper reaches[[edit](#)]

- [Pillnitzer Elbinsel](#) – in [Dresden](#)'s southern quarter of [Pillnitz](#) in the [Dresden Basin](#)
- [Gauernitzer Elbinsel](#) – east of [Gauernitz](#) in the Dresden Basin between Dresden and [Meißen](#)

Middle Elbe[[edit](#)]

- [Rotehorninsel](#) – in [Magdeburg](#)
- [Steinkopfsinsel](#) – in [Magdeburg](#)

Between Northern and Southern Elbe (Norderelbe/Süderelbe)[[edit](#)]

- [Wilhelmsburg](#), including the islands [Veddel](#), [Georgswerder](#), [Kleiner Grasbrook](#), [Steinwerder](#), [Peute](#) and several more – in [Hamburg](#)'s borough of [Mitte](#) (centre)
- [Kaltehofe](#) (also "Kalte Hofe") – in [Hamburg](#)'s borough of [Mitte](#)
- [Finkenwerder](#) – in [Hamburg](#)'s borough of [Mitte](#)

Lower Elbe[[edit](#)]

- [Schweinesand](#) – south of [Blankenese](#) ([Hamburg](#))
- [Neßsand](#) – south of [Tinsdal](#)
- [Hahnöfersand](#) – north of [Jork](#)
- [Hanskalbsand](#) – south of [Schulau](#)
- [Lühesand](#) – east of [Stade](#)
- [Bisterhorster Sand](#) – west of [Wedel](#)
- [Pagensand](#) – west of [Seestermühe](#)
- [Schwarztonnensand](#) – east of [Drochtersen](#)
- [Rhinplate](#) – west of [Glückstadt](#)

Outer Elbe (estuary)[[edit](#)]

- [Neuwerk](#) – an [exclave](#) – in [Hamburg](#)'s borough of [Mitte](#)
- [Scharhörn](#) – an [exclave](#) [Hamburg](#)'s borough of [Mitte](#)

- [Nigehörn](#) – an exclave Hamburg's borough of Mitte

Former islands^[edit]

- [Medemsand](#)

Ferries^[edit]



The Dolní Žleb Ferry



The Wörlitz Coswig Ferry



The Zollenspieker Ferry

The Elbe is crossed by many ferries, both passenger and car carrying. In downstream order, these include:^[8]

- [Dolní Žleb Ferry](#), at [Dolní Žleb](#) in the [Děčín District](#)
- [Rathen Ferry](#), at [Rathen](#)
- [Pillnitz Kleinzschachwitz Ferry](#), in the eastern suburbs of [Dresden](#)
- [Laubegast Niederpoyritz Ferry](#), in Dresden
- [Johannstadt Neustadt Ferry](#), in Dresden
- [Belgern Ottersitz Ferry](#), between [Belgern](#) and [Ottersitz](#)
- [Dommitzsch Prettin Ferry](#), between [Dommitzsch](#) and [Prettin](#)
- [Mauken Pretzsch Ferry](#), between [Mauken](#) and [Pretzsch](#)
- [Wartenburg Elster Ferry](#), between [Wartenburg](#) and [Elster](#)
- [Wörlitz Coswig Ferry](#), between [Wörlitz](#) and [Coswig](#)
- [Steutz Aken Ferry](#), between [Steutz](#) and [Aken](#)
- [Tochheim Ferry](#), between [Tochheim](#) and [Alt Tochheim](#) near [Breitenhagen](#)
- [Ronney Barby Ferry](#), between [Barby](#) and [Walternienburg](#)

- [Westerhüsen Ferry](#), at [Westerhüsen](#) near [Magdeburg](#)
- [Schartau Rogätz Ferry](#), between [Schartau](#) and [Rogätz](#)
- [Ferchland Grieben Ferry](#), between [Ferchland](#) and [Grieben](#)
- [Sandau Büttnershof Ferry](#), between [Sandau](#) and [Büttnershof](#)
- [Räbel Havelberg Ferry](#), between [Räbel](#) and [Havelberg](#)
- [Lenzen Pevestorf Ferry](#), between [Lenzen](#) and [Pevestorf](#)
- [Darchau Ferry](#), between [Darchau](#) and [Neu Darchau](#)
- [Bleckede Ferry](#), between [Bleckede](#) and [Neu Bleckede](#)
- [Zollenspieker Ferry](#), between [Kirchwerder](#) and [Winsen \(Luhe\)](#) to the east of [Hamburg](#)
- Ferries in the [port of Hamburg](#), operated by [HADAG](#)^[9]
- [Wischhafen Glückstadt Ferry](#), between [Wischhafen](#) and [Glückstadt](#) to the west of [Hamburg](#)

Many of these ferries are traditional [reaction ferries](#), a type of [cable ferry](#) that uses the current flow of the river to provide propulsion.

Etymology[[edit](#)]



Albis or *Albia* are old medieval names for the river Elbe

First attested in Latin as *Albis*, the name *Elbe* means "river" or "river-bed" and is nothing more than the [High German](#) version of a word (*albiz*) found elsewhere in Germanic; cf. [Old Norse](#) river name *Elfr*, [Swedish](#) *älv* "river", [Norwegian](#) *elv* "river", [Old English](#) river name *elf*, and [Middle Low German](#) *e/ve* "river-bed".^[10]

History[[edit](#)]

The Elbe was recorded by [Ptolemy](#) as *Albis* ([Germanic](#) for "river") in [Germania](#) Magna with its source in the *Asciburgis* mountains (*Krkonoše*, *Riesengebirge* or Giant Mountains), where the Germanic [Vandalii](#) lived.



The Elbe near Festung Königstein in Germany

The Elbe has long been an important delineator of European geography. The Romans knew the river as the *Albis*; however, they only attempted once to move the Eastern border of their empire forward from the Rhine to the Elbe, and this attempt failed in the Battle of the Teutoburg Forest in 9 AD, after which they never seriously tried again. In the Middle Ages it formed the eastern limit of the Empire of Charlemagne. The river's navigable sections were also essential to the success of the Hanseatic League and much trade was carried on its waters.

Since the early 6th century the areas east of the rivers Elbe and Saale (which had been depopulated since the 4th century) were populated by Slavic tribes called the Polabian Slavs. From the 10th century onward, these lands were conquered by the Ottonian Dynasty and slowly Germanized, including during the Wendish Crusade of 1147.

The Elbe delineated the western parts of Germany from the eastern so-called East Elbia, where soccage and serfdom were more strict and prevailed longer, than westwards of the river, and where feudal lords held bigger estates than in the west. Thus incumbents of huge land-holdings became characterised as East Elbian Junkers. The Northern German area north of the Lower Elbe used to be called North Albingia in the Middle Ages. When the four Lutheran church bodies there united in 1977 they chose the name North Elbian Evangelical Lutheran Church. Other, administrative units were named after the river Elbe, such as the Westphalian Elbe département (1807–1813) and the *Lower Elbe département* (1810), and the French département Bouches-de-l'Elbe (1811–1814).

In 1945, as World War II was drawing to a close, Nazi Germany was caught between the armies of the western Allies advancing from the west and the Soviet Union advancing from the east. On 25 April 1945, these two forces linked up near Torgau, on the Elbe. The event was marked as Elbe Day. After the war, the Elbe formed part of the border between East Germany and West Germany.

During the 1970s, the Soviet Union stated that Adolf Hitler's ashes had been scattered in the Elbe following disinterment from their original burial site.^{[11][12]}

See also^[edit]

- [2002 European floods](#)
- [2006 European floods](#)
- [2013 European floods](#)
- [Saxon Elbeland](#), the region of the Upper Elbe in Germany
- [List of waterbodies in Saxony-Anhalt](#)

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Thank you to all the contributors and stakeholders
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