

monitoring system is developed and will be applied to a representative selection of forty glaciers. A recently developed mass balance model is applied that produces daily balances for each glacier at each altitude interval using routine precipitation and temperature observations collected at one or two weather stations in the region. The PTAA model (precipitation-temperature-area-altitude) has been tested for glaciers in Alaska, Washington, Austria and Nepal. Comparison of measured annual balances with those produced by the model yields R^2 values for linear regressions that range from 0.20 to 0.67. The main advantages of this model are that it is inexpensive to apply, it produces daily and annual mass balances (for the net, ablation and accumulation components) and its approximate accuracy is known. In addition, the balance as a function of elevation is calculated for each component. It resembles a degree-day model only in its weather data requirements but does not require manual balances for calibration.

2 Mass balance measurements (background)

Conventional methods for measuring mass balance have been well developed since the pioneering work of Swedish glaciologists (Williams et al., 2012; Holmlund and Jansson, 1999; Ahlmann, 1953). The original field manuals for making mass balance measurements on a glacier (Ostrem and Stanley, 1966), were updated by Ostrem and Brugman (1991). Early work by Hoinkes and others measuring the mass balance of glaciers in the Austrian Alps laid the foundation for manual measurement techniques (Hoinkes, 1955). Recent advancements in reporting and documenting glacier fluctuations have been made by the World Glacier Monitoring Service (2011), based on research by Haberli (2007, 2011) and Zemp (2009). Recent analyses of mass balance measurements have been made for the 1945–2003 period by Dyurgerov et al. (2005). Satellite photogrammetry and airborne lidar permits differencing between digital-elevation models (DEMs) to calculate mass balance from volume changes between mappings (the geodetic balance method) (Bauder et al., 2006; Haakensen, 1986). The mass balance of the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets is of great concern because continuous

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negative balances will result in a rise in global sea level (Rignot and Thomas, 2002). Negative glacier balances and the disappearance of glaciers also create problems for millions of people who rely on glaciers to store water during wet periods and release it when the weather is hot and dry.

3 The PTAA mass balance model

3.1 Model description

The PTAA model (Precipitation-Temperature-Area-Altitude) is dependent on the climate history that is embedded in the glacier's surface configuration (its area-altitude distribution) and relies on the internal consistency of mass balance variables, for example the relationship between snowline elevation and glacier balance. Detailed explanations of the model and how it functions are provided in Tangborn (1997, 1999, 2013), and Tangborn and Rana, (2000).

In the PTAA model, snow and ice ablation is calculated at each elevation interval from the observed daily mean temperature and the diurnal temperature range, based on the temperature lapse rate that is also calculated from temperature observations. Snow accumulation is calculated at each elevation interval from observed precipitation at a regional weather station, times a multiplier that is determined from the observed temperature and the lapse rate. If temperature is less than 0 °C, precipitation occurs as snow; if the temperature is greater than 0 °C it occurs as rain. (See simulation model structure in Tangborn, 1999.)

Each calculated value of precipitation and temperature is multiplied by the fraction of total glacier area at each elevation interval (the sum of all fractions = 1.0). The area-altitude distribution of a glacier is a critical aspect of the PTAA model that controls how weather observations are converted to accumulation, ablation and mass balance.

3.2 Model calibration

Coefficients that convert precipitation and temperature observations to snow accumulation and snow and ice ablation are calculated by minimizing the calibration error that is produced by regressing multiple combinations of simulated balance parameters. Figure 1 shows the mean annual balance for the 1951–2012 period for each iteration of the simplex optimizing system, which is a numeric method for solving problems in linear programming (Nelder and Mead, 1965). Figure 2 shows the relationship between mean annual balance and calibration error.

3.3 Monte Carlo similarity

The PTAA model resembles Monte Carlo simulation in that it uses repeated random sampling of calculated coefficients to optimize numerical results. Output from the model are daily snow accumulation (B_c) and ablation (B_a) for each altitude interval, which is converted to mass balance by $B_n = B_c - B_a$. The daily balance is calculated by summing the balance at each area-altitude interval times the fraction of the total glacier area at that altitude. The calculated coefficients are derived from the area-altitude values for each interval but are subject to uncertainties when observed precipitation and temperature are converted to accumulation and ablation. As many as 300 iterations of the simplex (a linear programming technique for solving numerical problems) calculating the daily balance at each altitude interval for 60 years are required to calibrate one glacier. The line plot in Fig. 1 demonstrates the calibration process.

The PTAA model was initially developed and tested for South Cascade Glacier in Washington State (Tangborn, 1999).

3.4 Model applications

The PTAA model has been applied to calculate the mass balance for eight glaciers in Alaska, Washington, Austria and Nepal. Calculated annual balances are compared

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with measured balances for approximately 60 years for each of five glaciers (see www.ptaagmb.com). Linear regressions of model vs. measured annual balances yields R^2 values of 0.20 to 0.70 (Table 1). Application of the model to Bering Glacier in Alaska demonstrated a close agreement with ice volume loss for the 1972–2003 period measured with the geodetic method (Tangborn, 2013). The first application of the model was for the rapidly retreating Columbia Glacier in Alaska (Tangborn, 1997). However, manual balance field measurements of Columbia Glacier have not been made, making comparison of model and measured balances impossible. Determining the mass balance and runoff of the partially debris-covered Langtang Glacier in Nepal demonstrates an application of this model to a glacier in the Himalayan Range (Tangborn and Rana, 2000). Simulated ablation for the Langtang Glacier agrees with manual ablation measurements on the nearby Lirung Glacier at the same altitude and on the same day.

Application to the glaciers in the Wrangell Range in Alaska revealed a significant correlation ($r = +0.78$ for a 60 year period) between annual ablation of these glaciers and global temperatures observed at 7000 weather stations in the Northern Hemisphere. These results indicate that glaciers are more sensitive to the global climate than are individual temperature stations, which do not show similar correlations (Tangborn, 2012). The physical relationship between glacier ablation and global temperatures suggests that glaciers can be used to anticipate future climate changes. Annual anomalies of both glacier ablation and global temperatures are shown in Fig. 3.

Balances determined for the Hintereisferner, Vernagtferner and Kesselwandferner in the Austrian Alps for the 1942–2012 period are based on weather observations collected at Innsbruck, Austria, which is approximately 100 km from these glaciers. The relationship between glacier balance and the recent climate change has been developed for these glaciers (Weber et al., 2014).

Comparison of annual balances calculated with the PTAA model and balances determined with a geodetic method for Wrangell Range glaciers show poor agreement for both the 1957–2000 and 2000–2007 periods (Das et al., 2014). The model balances are an order of magnitude more negative than the geodetic balances for both periods.

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Table 1. Comparisons of measured vs. PTAA annual balance (R^2). (Period 1965–2012 used for Alaska glaciers; period 1953–2011 used for Austria glaciers.)

Glacier name	NET	ABL	ACC
Gulkana	0.51	0.58	0.01
Wolverine	0.57	0.18	0.44
Lemon Creek	0.20	n/a	n/a
Hintereisferner	0.47	n/a	n/a
Kesselwandferner	0.37	n/a	n/a
Vernagtferner	0.67	0.54	0.25

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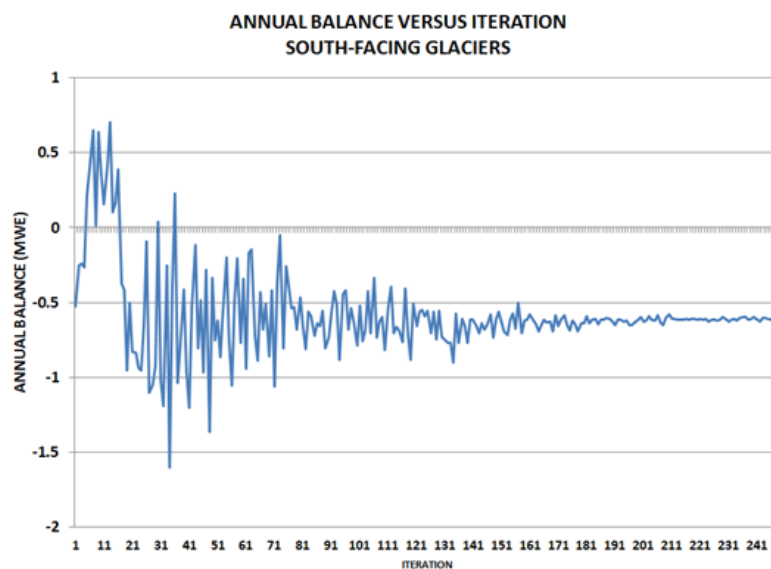


Figure 1. Mean annual balance for the 1951–2012 period for south-facing glaciers of the Wrangell Range, Alaska vs. iteration number. The first fifteen balances are calculated from pre-set coefficients, the remaining 250 are determined by the simplex by minimizing the calibration error.

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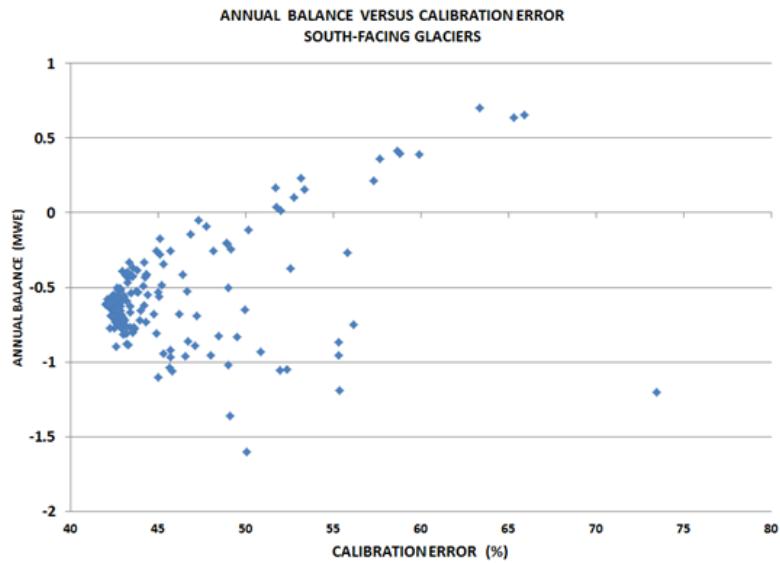


Figure 2. Mean annual balance of the south-facing glaciers of the Wrangell Range vs. calibration error. The calibration error is a minimum (about 43%) when the mean annual balance is approximately -0.6 m w.e.

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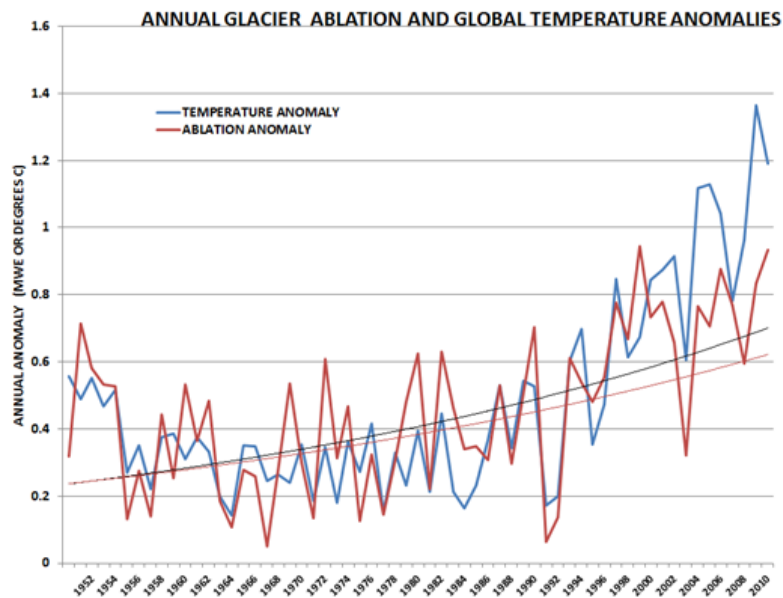


Figure 3. Annual ablation anomalies for the Wrangell Range glaciers and annual temperature anomalies derived from 7000 weather stations in the Northern Hemisphere. The R^2 for a regression fit of these variables is 0.61 (see Fig. 2). The similar patterns of each variable and fitted trend lines suggest that both global temperatures and glacier ablation are controlled by a common forcing mechanism, which likely is the rising concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide but a direct cause is unknown.

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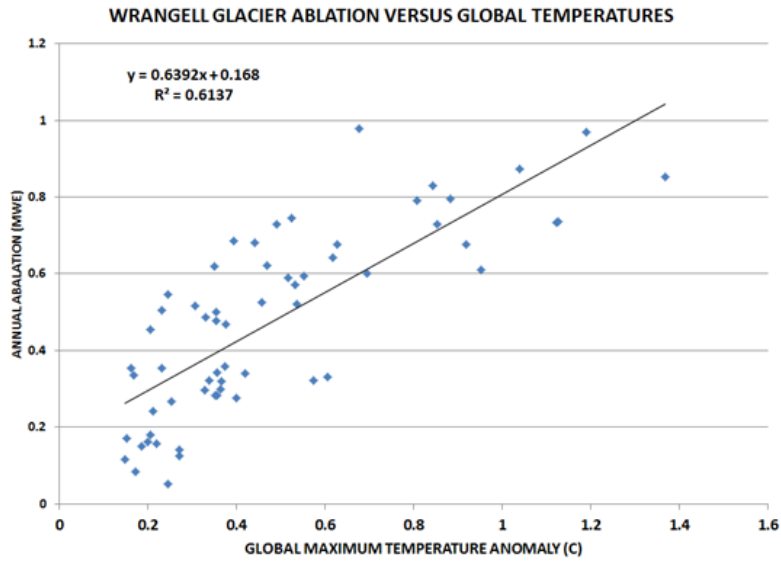


Figure 4. Annual ablation of Wrangell Range glaciers in Alaska vs. global maximum temperature anomalies (the same data as shown in Fig. 3). Glacier ablation is dependent on global temperature anomalies by: $DA = 0.6(DT) + 0.17$, where DA = ablation anomaly, DT = temperature anomaly. The correlation coefficient is +0.78.