

Glaciers change over the last century, Caucasus Mountains, Georgia, observed by the old topographical maps, Landsat and ASTER satellite imagery

L. G. Tielidze

Department of Geomorphology, Vakhushti Bagrationi Institute of Geography, Ivane Javakishvili Tbilisi State University, 6 Tamarashvili st. Tbilisi 0177, Georgia

Correspondence to: L. G. Tielidze (levan.tielidze@tsu.ge)

Abstract

The study of glaciers in the Caucasus began in the first quarter of the 18th century. The first data on glaciers can be found in the works of great Georgian scientist Vakhushti Bagrationi. After almost hundred years the foreign scientists began to describe the glaciers of Georgia. Information about the glaciers of Georgia can be found in the works of W. Abich, D. Freshfield, G. Radde, N. Dinik, I. Rashevskiy, A. Reinhardt etc. The first statistical information about the glaciers of Georgia are found in the catalog of the Caucasus glaciers compiled by K. Podozerskiy in 1911. Then, in 1960s the large-scale (1 : 25 000, 1 : 50 000) topographic maps were published, which were compiled in 1955–1960 on the basis of the airphotos. On the basis of the mentioned maps R. Gobejishvili gave quite detailed statistical information about the glaciers of Georgia. Then in 1975 the results of glaciers inventory of the former USSR was published, where the statistical information about the glaciers of Georgia was obtained on the basis of the almost same time (1955-1957) aerial images. Thus, complete statistical information on the glaciers of Georgia has not been published for about last half century. Data obtained by us by processing of the aerial images of Landsat and ASTER is the latest material, which is the best tool for identification of the change in the number and area of the glaciers of Georgia during the last one century. Our research has found that the area of the glaciers of Georgia has been reduced from 613.3 ± 36.78 to 555.9 ± 11.1 km² in the years of 1911–1960, while their number was increased from 515 ± 46 to 786 ± 39 . As for the years of 1960–2014, in this period both the area and number of the glaciers were reduced respectively from 555.9 ± 11.1 km² to 355.8 km² and from 786 ± 39 to 637.

1 Introduction

The current global warming has already lasted for longer than 150 years. In the middle of the 19th century, the Little Ice Age had come to its end and everywhere mountain glaciers began to decrease (Solomina, 2000). Since the end of the 1950s until the middle of the 1970s, the glaciers were in a quasi-stationary state in most of the mountain areas in Eurasia (Dyurgerov, 2005). Now, the glaciers degrade in all mountain areas of Eurasia. This is reflected in the fact that small glaciers disappear, the termini retreat, the area and volume of glaciers decrease, their surfaces are covered with

47 moraines and large spaces of dead ice are being formed. Compound glaciers are
48 broken into simpler components. Estimations of these changes were published in a
49 number of papers; however, the general picture of the modern Eurasian glaciers to the
50 present moment is not complete. Permanent, regular and detailed observations of the
51 glacier behaviors are necessary to be performed in different regions (Barry, 2006;
52 Khromova et al., 2014). Among them Caucasus, where the glaciers are an important
53 source of water for agricultural production in Georgia, and runoff in large glacially-fed
54 rivers (Kodori, Enguri, Rioni, Tskhenistskali, Nenskra) supplies several hydroelectric
55 power stations. Caucasian glaciers also play a role in water levels in the Caspian Sea,
56 the largest endoreic body of water on Earth. Since the mid-1970s, lake levels have rise
57 ~ 2 m, with major socio-economic impacts (Arpe et al., 2000) on bordering coastal
58 nations. Future trends in glacier change are thus a topic of considerable interest to the
59 region.

60 Most studies of the Caucasus have focused on glaciers draining the northern slopes of
61 the range in Russia (e.g., Shahgedanova and others, 2005; Stokes and others, 2006;
62 Shahgedanova and others, 2014) with fewer published works about glaciers on the south-
63 facing slopes of the Caucasus. This article presents the percentage and quantitative
64 changes in the number and area of the glaciers of Georgian Caucasus in the years of
65 1911–1960–2014, according to the individual river basins. The air temperature course
66 of the Georgia's middle and high mountain weather stations has been studied. The
67 river basins have been revealed, where there are the highest indices of the reduction in
68 area and number of the glaciers and the reasons have been explained.

69
70

71 **2 Study area**

72

73 One region where mountain glaciers exist in Eurasia is the Caucasus Mountains,
74 running west-northwest to east-southeast between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea
75 and separating southwestern Russia from Georgia (Volodicheva, 2002). The current
76 number of glaciers is ~ 2000, with a total area of ~ 1100 km² and volume ~ 68 km³
77 (Radici et al., 2014). According to the morphological and morphometric characteristics
78 the Greater Caucasus can be divided into three parts within Georgia – Western
79 Caucasus, Central Caucasus and Eastern Caucasus (Maruashvili, 1971; Gobejishvili,
80 1995; Tielidze, 2014) (Fig. 1).

81 *Western Caucasus* region includes the part, which is located to the west of the Dalari
82 Pass. It has a sublatitudinal direction in Georgia. The relief of its southern slope is
83 characterized by complex orographic structure. The main watershed range is the highest
84 morphological unit here. The Greater Caucasus branch-ranges: Gagra, Bzipi, Chkhalt'a
85 (Abkhazeti) and Kodori, located in echelon, are also sharply distinguished
86 morphologically and morphometrically (Geomorphology of Georgia, 1973).

87 *Central Caucasus* sector is the highest hypsometrically; it is characterized by a
88 complex geological structure and is very interesting by glacial-geomorphological point of
89 view because in the Pleistocene (Gobejishvili et al., 2011) and even today the main
90 center of glaciation is located in the Central Caucasus. Its western boundary coincides
91 with the Dalari pass and runs along the Enguri and Kodori Rivers' watershed (Kharikhra
92 range), while its east boundary coincides with the Jvari Pass and then runs along the
93 bottom of the river gorges of Tergi-Bidara-Mtiuleti's Aragvi (Maruashvili, 1971). In terms

94 of the glaciers distribution, the several orographic units can be distinguished in the
95 Central Caucasus: Svaneti, Samegrelo, Letchkhumi, Shoda-Kedela and Java ranges.

96 To *Eastern Caucasus* belongs the part of the Greater Caucasus range, which is
97 located to the east of the Georgian Military Road (Jvari Pass). Both the southern and
98 northern slopes of the Caucasus range get within the Georgia's boundaries. Eastern
99 Caucasus is quite high hypsometrically: heights of its peaks – Kuro, Komito, Shani,
100 Amgha, Tebulosmta and others exceed 4000 m. Though, because of the relatively dry
101 climate and morphological features of the relief, the contemporary glaciers are more
102 weakly represented in the Eastern Caucasus than in the hypsometrically lower Western
103 Caucasus.

104 Caucasian thermal regime is mainly determined by its geographical location, solar
105 radiation, subsurface feature, atmospheric circulation and relief. Therefore, the air
106 temperature is characterized by high contrast (Tielidze, 2014).

107 In the territory of Georgia January is considered the coldest month, but in the high
108 mountain regions (2700–2800 m) February is considered the coldest month. Stable
109 frosty periods at a height of 2000–3000 m last from November to May, and above
110 3000 m – from early October through June (from October to July). The average January
111 temperature is -6 and -8°C at a height of 2000 m and the temperature of the coldest
112 month is -14 and -16°C at a height of 3600 m (Gobejishvili, 1995; Tielidze, 2014).

113 The average monthly temperature of the warmest month – August varies from $+14$
114 to $+17^{\circ}\text{C}$ at about 1500 m of altitude; and at the heights of 2800 and 3600 m it is
115 respectively $+7.6$ and $+3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Gobejishvili, 1995; Tielidze, 2014). Average multiannual air
116 temperature ranges from $+5.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Mestia, 1906–2013) to -5.7°C (Kazbegi, 1907–2009).

119 **3 Data sources and methods**

121 **3.1 Old topographical maps**

122
123 The Glacier Inventory by K. I. Podozerskiy (PGI) is the first information about
124 glacier numbers and areas in the Caucasus. This inventory, based on the ordnance
125 survey in 1887–1910, was published in 1911 in Russia (Khromova et al., 2014). detailed
126 analysis of the data showed that there are some defects in the shape of the glaciers of
127 that time; particularly the inaccessible firn valleys of the valley glaciers are depicted
128 incorrectly. Naturally, this fact will cause a slight error in the identification of precise areas
129 of the glaciers of that time, but in reality there exist no other data about the mentioned
130 period and these maps are the most reliable source for us (Tielidze et al., 2015a).

131 The old topographic maps were replaced with the new ones in 1960, when during the
132 period of the former Soviet Union the 1 : 25 000 and 1 : 50 000 – scale maps were
133 published with the depiction of quite precise contours of the glaciers of the Caucasus. R.
134 Gobejishvili gave us new statistical information about the glaciers of Georgia
135 (Gobejishvili, 1989; Tielidze et al., 2015a). These maps were compiled in 1955–1960 on
136 the basis of the aerial images.

137 The Next inventory of the Caucasus glaciers is the result of a manual evaluation of
138 various glacier parameters from the original aerial photographs and topographic maps

139 (The Catalog of Glaciers of the USSR, Vol. 8–9 1975) (Khromova et al., 2014), where
140 the statistical information on glaciers of Georgia was obtained based on the same
141 time (1955-1957) satellite images. There are some mistakes made in the mentioned
142 catalog regarding data of number and area of the glaciers in some of the river basins
143 (particular – Bzipi, Kelasuri, Khobistskali, Liakhvi, Aragvi and Tergi River basins), where
144 the temporary snow spots and snow areas are considered as glaciers and therefore
145 the number and area of the glaciers are incorrect. Given that this fact will cause a
146 some error in the identification of precise areas of the glaciers of that time, we did not
147 use mentioned catalog data in our research.

148 As we had the information of the last century only in printed form and not
149 electronically. After maps scanning, we used standard transformation parameters (for
150 both period maps 1911, 1960) to re-project the maps in Universal Transverse Mercator
151 (UTM), zone 38-North on the WGS84 ellipsoid, to facilitate comparison with modern
152 datasets (ArcGis 10.2.1 software).

153
154

155 **3.2 Landsat and ASTER imagery and glacier area mapping**

156

157 Many of the world's glaciers are in remote areas, meaning that land-based methods
158 of measuring their changes are expensive and labour-intensive. Remote-sensing
159 technologies have offered a solution to this problem (Kaab, 2002). Landsat L8 OLI/TIRS
160 (Operational Land Imager and Thermal Infrared Sensor), with 30 m horizontal
161 resolution available since February 2013, and Advanced Spaceborne Thermal
162 Emission and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) imagery with 15 m resolution available
163 since January 2000, is a convenient tool for determine to glaciers area and number
164 change. All above mentioned together with the old topographical maps allow us to
165 identify the change in the number and area of the glaciers in the last century by a
166 minimum error. All images (Landsat and ASTER) were acquired at the very end of the
167 ablation season when glacier tongues were free of seasonal snow under cloud-free
168 conditions and were suited for glacier mapping (Fig. 1), where the glacier margins
169 were obscured by shadows from rocks and glacier cirque walls (Khromova et al.,
170 2014). Landsat images were supplied by the US Geological Survey's Earth Resources
171 Observation and Science (EROS) Center and downloaded using the EarthExplorer
172 tool (<http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>). The images were orthorectified prior to distribution
173 using the GTOPO30 elevation dataset. ASTER images were supplied by the National
174 Aeronautic and Space Administration's (NASA) Earth Observing System Data and
175 Information System (EOSDIS) and downloaded using the Reverb/ECHO tool
176 (<http://reverb.echo.nasa.gov/>).

177 To promote mapping the glacier boundaries, we produced a color-composite scene
178 for each acquisition date, using bands, for Landsat images – 7 (short-wave infrared), 5
179 (near infrared) and 3 (green); for ASTER images – 3N (Normal visible near-infrared) and
180 2 (visible near-infrared).

181
182
183
184
185

3.3 Glacier delineation error and analysis

We co-registered the images to one another using the 28 August 2014 Landsat image as a master; registration uncertainties are 1 pixel (30.0 m). For more accuracy, each glacier boundary was manually digitized. We calculated the total surface for each glacier (for individual river basin) according to Paul et al., (2009). The size of the smallest glacier mapped was 0.01 km².

Offsets between the images and the archival maps are also at the 1 pixel level based on an analysis of common features identifiable in each dataset. It should be noted that the topographic maps of 1960 are drawn by as much precision, that the delineation error for 1960 glaciers extents are just 3 %. As for the data of 1911, there are some gaps made, mostly in the firns of the Enguri and Rioni glaciers. In this case of the glaciers of that time the delineation error are 17 %.

Manual digitizing by an experienced analyst is usually more accurate than automated methods for glaciers with the debris cover (Raup and others, 2007), which is a major source of error in glacier mapping (Bhambri et al., 2011; Bolch et al., 2008), but in the Caucasus, supra-glacial debris cover has a smaller extent than in many glacierized regions, especially Asia (Stokes et al., 2007; Shahgedanova et al., 2014). For the precise determination of debris cover we have used our record data also. We have conducted field works almost in every glaciated areas during 2004-2014 and glaciers which are mostly covered by debris cover (Khalde, Lekhziri, Chalaati, Shkhara, Devdoraki, Zopkhito, Ushba et al.) were surveyed by GPS. which helped us to obtain even more accurate result.

3.4 Climatic data

In parallel with the dynamics of the glaciers it is important for us to identify the course of the air temperatures in the high mountain regions of Georgia during the almost same period. For this we used the middle and high mountain meteorological station of the Georgia. Their average monthly and mean annual air temperature records were used to characterize climatic variations in the Enguri (Mestia meteorological station data of 1906–2013, middle mountain –1441 m a.s.l.), Rioni (Mamisoni meteorological station data of 1907–1995, high mountain –2854 m a.s.l.) and Tergi (Jvari Pass meteorological station data of 1907–2009, high mountain 2395 m a.s.l. and Kazbegi meteorological station data of 1907–2009, high mountain –3653 m a.s.l.) River basins, on the southern and northern slope the Greater Caucasus (Fig. 1).

4 Results

4.1 Area and number change

Our research has found, that the area of the glaciers in Georgia was reduced by 9.3±6.0 % in 1911–1960, while their number was increased by 52.6±9.0 %. During this period, the increase in the number of the glaciers in parallel to the reduction in their

232 area was caused by the fact that in the early 20th century total area of all of the
233 compound-valley glaciers exceeded 200 km² (Tielidze, 2014). As a result of degradation
234 of the mentioned glaciers the relatively small size simple valley type of glaciers occurred,
235 as well as even smaller size cirque type of glaciers. Accordingly, the division of the
236 glaciers caused the increase in the number of glaciers in the mentioned period.

237 As for the years of 1960–2014, in this period both the number and area of the glaciers
238 were reduced respectively by 19.0±5.0 and 36.0±2.0 %. Such a sharp reduction in the
239 number of glaciers is caused by the fact that in Georgia for the 60–70s of the 20th
240 century the most of the glaciers were small cirque type of glaciers, which have
241 disappeared completely in the last half century (Tielidze, 2014). Change of
242 glaciers according to separate parts of the Caucasus range and river basins are following.

243 244 245 **4.1.1 Western Caucasus**

246
247 The Bzipi River gorge is the westernmost basin of the territory of Georgia, where the
248 contemporary glaciers are represented (Tielidze, 2014). Except of Bzipi, the glaciers
249 are represented in the basins of the rivers of Kelasuri and Kodori within the Western
250 Caucasus. By the data of 1911 (K. Podozerskiy) there were 10 glaciers in the Bzipi
251 basin with the area of 4.0 km². By the data of topographic maps of 1960 (R. Gobe-
252 jishvili) there were 18 glaciers with the area of 7.2 km². According to the Landsat images
253 of 2014 the number of the glaciers is 18, while the area 4.0 km² (Table 1). The Bzipi
254 River basin is characterized by the cirque glaciers of small size of about 0.5 km².

255 K. Podozerskiy does not provide any kind of information about the Kelasuri River
256 basin. By the data of 1960 there was only one glacier with the area of 0.7 km² in this
257 basin. According to the data of 2014 the number of the glaciers is 1, while the area 0.1
258 km² (Table 1).

259 The major center of the contemporary glaciation on the southern slope of the West-
260 ern Caucasus is located in the Kodori River basin, which extends from the Marukhi
261 pass up to the Dalari pass. The height of the peaks located there exceeds 3800–
262 4000 m. According to the data of 1911 there were 118 glaciers in the Kodori River
263 basin with the area of 73.2 km². By the data of 1960 there were 160 glaciers with the
264 area of 64.5 km². According to the data of 2014 there are 145 glaciers in this basin with
265 the total area of 40.1 km² (Table 1).

266 In total, the glaciers area decreased by 33.0 km² (42.7 %) in the Western Caucasus
267 during the last one century, while their number increased by 36 (28.1 %) in the same
268 period (Figs. 2 and 3).

269 270 271 **4.1.2 Central Caucasus**

272
273 The Central Caucasus section is distinguished by the highest relief in the territory
274 of Georgia, the height of the peaks located there exceeds 4500–5000 m. There are the
275 river basins within the Central Caucasus such as the Enguri, Khobistskali, Rioni, Liakhvi
276 and Aragvi.

277 Enguri River basin is the largest in Georgia according to the number and area of the
278 contemporary glaciers. It exceeds all other basins taken together. Here can be found

279 the largest glaciers of Georgia such as Lekhziri (23.3 km², by Landsat images 2014),
280 southern and northern Tsaneri (12.6/11.5 km², by Landsat images 2014) and others
281 (Tielidze, 2014). In 1911 there were 174 glaciers in the Enguri River basin with the total
282 area of 333.0 km²; according to the data of 1960 there were 299 glaciers with the area
283 of 320.5 km², and by the data of 2014 there are 269 glaciers in this basin with the total
284 area of 223.4 km² (Table 1).

285 No information is available about the glaciers of the Khobistskali River basin in the
286 catalog of K. Podozerskiy. And there were 16 glaciers by the data of 1960 with the total
287 area of 0.9 km². According to the data of 2014 there are 9 glaciers in this basin with
288 the area of 0.5 km² (Table 1).

289 Another important center of the contemporary glaciation in Georgia is the Rioni River
290 basin. The heights of the peaks located there exceed 4000 m. On the southern slope of
291 the Caucasus the Rioni River basin is only behind the Enguri and Kodori River basins
292 according to the number of the contemporary glaciers, and according to the area – it
293 is only behind the Enguri River basin. According to the data of 1911 there were 85
294 glaciers in the Rioni River basin with the area of 78.1 km². According to the data of 1960
295 the number of the glaciers was 112 with the total area of 75.1 km². And by the data of
296 2014 there are 97 glaciers with the total area of 46.7 km² (Table 1). The largest glacier
297 in the Rioni River basin is Kirtisho with the area of 4.4 km².

298 By relatively low hypsometrical location is distinguished the Liakhvi River basin,
299 which is located to the east of the Rioni River basin. According to the data of 1911
300 there were 12 glaciers in the basin with the area of 5.1 km². There were 16 glaciers in
301 the Liakhvi River basin with the total area of 4.0 km² according to the data of 1960. And
302 according to the data of 2014 there are 10 glaciers in the Liakhvi River basin with the
303 total area of 1.9 km² (Table 1).

304 The easternmost basin of the Central Caucasus, where the contemporary glaciers
305 are presented, is the Aragvi River basin. According to the data of 1911 there were 3
306 glaciers with the total area of 2.2 km². According to the data of 1960 the area of all
307 glaciers was 0.9 km². And by the data of 2014 the only one glacier (Abudelauri) is
308 remained in the basin with the area of 0.3 km² (Table 1).

309 In total, the glaciers area decreased by 145.7 km² (34.8 %) in the Central Caucasus
310 during the last one century, while their number increased by 112 (40.9 %) in the same
311 period (Figs. 2 and 3).

312

313

314 **4.1.3 Eastern Caucasus**

315

316 In Georgia the Eastern Caucasus is represented both by southern and northern
317 slopes. The basins of the rivers such as Tergi, Asa, Arghuni and Pirikita Alazani are
318 located there. All of the river basins are distributed on the northern slopes of the
319 Caucasus.

320 The Tergi River basin is a main glaciation center of the Eastern Caucasus. Some of
321 the peaks' heights exceed 5000 m here (Mkinvartsveri/Kazbegi 5033 m). According to
322 the number of glaciers the Tergi River basin is in the fourth place after Enguri, Kodori
323 and Rioni and its share is 9.1 % in the total number of the glaciers of Georgia. It is also in
324 the fourth place by the area after Enguri, Rioni and Kodori, and its share in the total area
325 of the glaciers of Georgia is 10.0 %. By the data of 1911 there were 63 glaciers in the

326 Tergi River basin with the total area of 89.1 km². By the data of 1960 there were 99
327 glaciers with the total area of 67.2 km². And according to the data of 2014 there are 58
328 glaciers with the total area of 35.6 km² (Table 1).

329 The Asa River basin is located on the northern slope of the Greater Caucasus. Its
330 name is Arkhotistskali in the territory of Georgia. Heights of some of the peaks in this
331 region exceed 3700 m. By the data of 1911 there were 17 glaciers in the Asa River
332 basin with the total area of 4.1 km². By the data of 1960 there were 9 glaciers in this
333 basin with the total area of 2.6 km². And according to the data of 2014 there are 3
334 glaciers with a total area of 0.6 km² (Table 1).

335 The Arghuni River basin is located on the northern slope of the Greater Caucasus
336 and it has the meridional direction. Although the hypsometric benchmarks of the relief
337 are quite high, the contemporary glaciation is presented in small scales, and the
338 glaciers are characterized by the small sizes. By the data of 1911 there were 10 glaciers
339 in the Arghuni River basin with a total area of 5.4 km². By the data of 1960 there were
340 17 glaciers with the total area of 2.7 km². And according to the data of 2014 there are
341 only 6 glaciers with the total area of 0.5 km² (Table 1).

342 Pirikita Alazani River basin is located on the northern slope of the Greater
343 Caucasus and is of latitudinal direction. Here the individual peaks' height is over
344 3800–4000 m. According to the data of 1911 there were 23 glaciers there with the total
345 area of 19.1 km². By the data of 1960 the glaciers were reduced in size and though the
346 number of glaciers was increased up to 36, their area was reduced to 7.7 km². And
347 according to the data of 2014 there are 20 glaciers in this basin with the total area of 2.4
348 km² (Table 1).

349 In total, the glaciers area decreased by 78.7 km² (66.8 %) in the Eastern Caucasus
350 during the last one century, while their number decreased as well by 26 (23.0 %) in the
351 same period. As we can see, as opposed to the Western and Central Caucasus the
352 reduction in the total number of the glaciers are observed along with the reduction in
353 their area in the Eastern Caucasus (Figs. 2 and 3).

354

355

356 **4.2 Climatic variability**

357

358 As for meteorological data, as we said, we also use the weather data in order to
359 identify better the dynamics of the glaciers. Kazbegi high mountain weather station
360 located in the Tergi River basin on the Mkinvartsveri (Kazbegi) massif (Fig. 1), much
361 higher above sea level (3653 m) compared to the other weather stations in the
362 Caucasus region, where the observation on air temperature starts from 1896. Exactly,
363 the course of the mean annual air temperatures of the mentioned weather station is
364 characterized by a sharply positive trend in the years of 1907–2009 (Fig. 4). Mean
365 multiannual temperature of Kazbagi of the years of 1907–1960 is –5.8°C and for the
366 years of 1961–2009 – –5.6°C. Accordingly, after the year of 1960 in Kazbegi
367 meteorological station temperature increase by +0.2°C is observed (Table 2). The same
368 is proven by the separate mean monthly temperature data, when for the cases of all
369 twelve months the higher temperatures are recorded in the years of 1961–2009 than in
370 the years of 1907–1960 (Fig. 5).

371 We selected the Jvari Pass meteorological station as the second representative
372 station for the Tergi River basin, which is located to the south from the Kazbegi massif
373 (on the Great Caucasus Watershed Range), approximately in 20 km from it, at an
374 elevation of 2395 m a.s.l. (Fig. 1). The course of the mean annual air temperatures of
375 the mentioned weather station is characterized by a sharply positive trend in the years
376 of 1907–2009 (Fig. 4). Mean multiannual temperature of Jvari Pass of the years of
377 1907–1960 is -0.1°C and for the years of 1961–2009 – $+0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$. Accordingly, after the
378 year of 1960 in Jvari Pass meteorological station temperature increase by $+0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ is
379 observed (Table 2), which is the highest index in comparison with the rest of the stations.
380 Almost the same is proven by the separate mean monthly temperature data, when in
381 case of ten months out of twelve (except August and December) the higher temperatures
382 are recorded in the years of 1961–2009 than in the years of 1907–1960 (Fig. 6).

383 Except of the dynamics of the glaciers in the Rioni River basin, it is also important
384 to determine the air temperatures course within the almost same period. In this region
385 the most favorable is the Mamisoni weather station located at a height of 2854 m in the
386 Mamisoni pass (Fig. 1). We processed the air temperature data of 1907–1995 (Fig. 4).
387 Figure shows that the mean annual air temperature trend in the years of 1907–1970 in
388 Mamisoni is distinguished with the positive trend; but then seems that in the years of
389 1970–1988 the air temperature decreases, and the trend is again positive in the years
390 of 1988–1995. In total, in Mamisoni, for the years of 1907–1960 and 1961–1995 taken
391 separately, in both cases the mean annual air temperature amounts -2.2°C and unlike
392 Kazbegi and Jvari Pass stations the mean annual air temperature increase is not
393 observed after 1960 (Table 2). As for the mean monthly temperatures, in this case the
394 March–August (6 months) temperatures of the years of 1961–1995 are relatively low
395 than the data for the same months of the years of 1907–1960, while the September–
396 February (the remaining 6 months) temperatures are relatively high (Fig. 7).

397 In order to identify the course of the air temperatures in the Enguri River basin,
398 we processed the Mestia weather station data of the years of 1906–2013. The mentioned
399 weather stations are located in Mestia, at a height of 1441 m a.s.l. (Fig. 1). The trend
400 here is also clearly positive (Fig. 4). Mean multiannual temperature of Mestia of the
401 years of 1906–1960 is $+5.9^{\circ}\text{C}$; and for the years of 1961–2013 $+6.0^{\circ}\text{C}$. Accordingly,
402 after the year of 1960, in Mestia meteorological station temperature increase by $+0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$
403 is observed (Table 2). As for the mean monthly temperatures, in this case the
404 temperatures of May–June, August–September and November separately of the years of
405 1961–2013, are relatively low than the data of the same months of the years of
406 1906–1960 and the data of December–April (five months) and separate data of October
407 are relatively high. As for the July mean monthly temperature, it is unchanged during
408 the both periods (Fig. 8).

409 To know the significance of air temperature trends we used Mann Kendall test analysis.
410 Software used performing the statistical Mann-Kendall test is Addinsoft's XLSTAT 2015.
411 According to them positive trend of mean annual temperature was detected as for whole
412 observed period (1907-2009), as for separate ones (1907-1960, 1961-2009) for Kazbegi
413 and Jvari pass weather stations. There was not trend for Mamisoni pass and for Mestia
414 weather station positive trend is observed only for period 1961-2013.

415

416

417

418 **5 Discussion**

419

420 Our results are consistent with other studies of glacier changes in the Caucasus
421 Mountains (e.g., Shahgedanova and others, 2014), although most previous studies have
422 focused on the north-facing slope (Russian side). According to the Shahgedanova and
423 others (2014), the Caucasus glaciers (In total, 478 glaciers) lost 4.7 ± 2.1 % of their total
424 area between 2000 and 2010/2012. The greatest loss was observed on the southern
425 slope of the Caucasus Range, where glaciers lost 5.6 ± 2.5 %. One consequence of this
426 result is that Georgian glaciers are at higher risk of disappearance than north-facing
427 glaciers in Russia.

428 According to our survey, over the past century, the largest reduction in the
429 percentage of the area of the glaciers is observed in the *Eastern Caucasus*, in
430 particular, in the Tergi River basin, where the area of the glaciers was reduced by 60.1
431 % in the years of 1911–2014. In parallel with the reduction of the glaciers the Jvari Pass
432 and Kazbegi meteorological stations mean annual air temperature for years 1961–2009
433 was accordingly 0.3 and 0.2°C higher than the 1907–1960, that certainly is one of the
434 accelerating factors of melting the glaciers. Also, melting of the glaciers in the Eastern
435 Caucasus by such rate is stipulated not only by the climate conditions, but by the
436 morphological peculiarities of the relief as well. The relief of some of the river basins is
437 built by Jurassic sedimentary rocks, which suffer heavy denudation. That is why the
438 Pleistocene glaciation forms, where the snow is well-kept and collected, and therefore, is
439 one of the important conditions for the existence of glaciers, are poorly preserved there
440 (Gobejishvili et al., 2011; Tielidze, 2014).

441 As it was mentioned above, the main glaciation center on the *Central Caucasus* is the
442 Enguri and Rioni River basins. According to the materials available to us, the area of the
443 glaciers in the Rioni River basin was reduced by only 3.8 % in the years of 1911–1960,
444 while the area of the glaciers in the Enguri River basin was reduced only by 3.7 %. In
445 our opinion, the mentioned data is not true, because, as it was mentioned above,
446 certain glaciers in the Rioni and Enguri basins are difficult to access for the plane table
447 surveying; therefore, the first topographical survey of the Caucasus was conducted,
448 the firm contours of the mentioned glaciers were incorrectly depicted, and some small
449 glaciers were completely omitted. The catalog of 1911 by K. Podozerskiy, which is
450 compiled based on the mentioned maps, is distinguished by the certain defects. As in
451 the same period of 1911–1960 in the Rioni and Enguri basins the number of the glaciers
452 considerably increased, namely: in the Rioni basin more than 27 glaciers, in the Enguri
453 basin more than 125 glaciers, it is natural that the number of the glaciers would not have
454 been increased so sharply due to such a low rate of the reduction in the area of the
455 glaciers. As for the period of 1960–2014, the areas of the glaciers in the Rioni and Enguri
456 basins were decreased quite greatly, respectively by 37.8 and 32.8 %.

457 As for the *Western Caucasus* it should be noted that the Bzipi and Kelasuri River
458 basin are the only two in Georgia, where the number of the glaciers has not been
459 changed since 1960 (Table 1), one of the conditioning factors of which is a fact that in
460 winter period falls more solid precipitation in the Western Caucasus (Abkhazeti sector)

461 than in the Central and Eastern Caucasus (Kordzakhia, 1967; Gobejishvili, 1995), which
462 is one of the necessary conditions for feeding and maintaining the glaciers.

465 **6 Conclusions**

466
467 As a result of our research we concluded, that the area of the glaciers of Georgia has
468 been reduced from 613.3 ± 36.78 to 555.9 ± 11.1 km² in the years of 1911–1960, while
469 their number was increased from 515 ± 46 to 786 ± 39 . In the mentioned years the number
470 of the glaciers has been increased in almost all of the river basins (with the exception of
471 the Asa River basin), which was caused by the division of the large size of glaciers
472 during their degradation.

473 In 1960–2014 the area of the glaciers has been reduced from from 555.9 ± 11.1 km² to
474 355.8 km² and their number was reduced from 786 ± 39 to 637 (Fig. 9). In 1960–2014 the
475 simultaneous reduction in the number and area of the glaciers is caused due to the
476 fact that for the years of 1960–1970 in Georgia dominated the small size of glaciers of
477 cirque type, which have completely disappeared during the last half century. In total, the
478 area of the glaciers of Georgia reduced by 42.0 % in the years of 1911–2014, while
479 their number increased by 23.7 %.

480 As a result of the research it was identified that in the end of the 19th century and
481 early 20th century, the largest glacier of Georgia was Tviberi (Fig. 10a). According to
482 the topographical map of 1887 the glacier area was 49.0 km² and its tongue was
483 ended at a height of 2030 m above sea level. Before 1960, the Kvitoldi glacier was
484 separated from the Tviberi glacier's left side, which became an independent glacier
485 (Fig. 10b2). In the topographical map of 1960 the area of the Tviberi was 24.7 km²
486 and the glacier tongue was ended at the height of 2140 m a.s.l. (Fig. 10b1). In the
487 Landsat image of 2014 can be well seen the Tviberi degradation after 1960, when the
488 relatively small size simple valley type of glaciers and even smaller cirque type of
489 glaciers were occurred (Tielidze et al., 2015b) (Fig. 10c). Tviberi glacier degradation is
490 well seen in the images of 1884–2011 (Fig. 10d, e).

491 Finally, by the data of 2014 the largest glacier of Georgia is Lekhziri glacier, which is
492 a compound-valley type and its area is 23.3 km². The second largest glacier is the
493 southern Tsaneri with the area of 12.6 km². And the third place occupies the northern
494 Tsaneri with the area of 11.5 km².

495
496 *Acknowledgements.* We are grateful to the Shota Rustaveli Georgian National Science
497 Foundation for the financing our research.

500 **References**

- 501
502 Arpe, K., Bengtsson, L., Golitsyn, G., Mokhov, I., Semenov, V., and Sporyshev, P.:
503 Connection between Caspian sea level variability and ENSO, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 27,
504 2693–2696, 2000. Barry, R. G.: The status of research on glaciers and global glacier
505 recession: a review, *Prog. Phys. Geog.*, 30, 285–306, 2006.

506 Bhabri, R., Bolch, T., Chaujar, R. K., and Kulshreshtha S. C.: Glacier changes in the
507 Garhwal Himalaya, India, from 1968 to 2006 based on remote sensing, *J. Glaciol.*, 57,
508 543–556, 2011.

509 Bolch, T., Buchroithner, M. F., Pieczonka, T., and Kunert, A.: Planimetric and volumetric
510 glacier changes in the Khumbu Himalaya 1962–2005 using Corona and ASTER data,
511 *J. Glaciol.*, 54, 562–600, 2008.

512 Catalog of Glaciers of the USSR: Katalog Lednitov USSR, vol. 8–9, Gidrometeoizdat,
513 Leningrad, 1975 (in Russian).

514 Dyrgerov, M. B.: Glacier mass balance and regime data of measurements and analysis,
515 Institute of Arctic Alpine Research (University of Colorado, Boulder) Occasional Paper
516 No. 55, 268 pp., 2002.

517 Javakhishvili, A. (Ed.): Geomorphology of Georgia, Publ. “Metsniereba”, Tbilisi, 1973 (in
518 Russian).

519 Gobejishvili, R. G.: Glaciers of Georgia, Monograph. Publ. “Metsniereba”, Tbilisi, 1989 (in
520 Russian).

521 Gobejishvili, R. G.: Present day glaciers of georgia and evolution of glaciation in the
522 mountains of eurasia in late pleistocene and holocene, Thesis for a Doctor’s Degree,
523 Tbilisi, 320 pp., 1995 (in Georgian).

524 Gobejishvili, R., Lomidze, N., and Tielidze, L.: Late Pleistocene (Wurmian) glaciations of
525 the Caucasus, in: Quaternary Glaciations: Extent and Chronology, edited by: Ehlers, J.,
526 Gibbard, P. L., and Hughes, P. D., Elsevier, Amsterdam, 141–147, doi:10.1016/B978-
527 0-444-53447-7.00012-X, 2011.

528 Kaab, A.: Monitoring high-mountain terrain deformation from repeated air- and
529 spaceborne optical data: examples using digital aerial imagery and ASTER data, *ISPRS*
530 *J. Photogramm.*, 57, 39–52, 2002.

531 Khromova, T., Nosenko, G., Kutuzov, S., Muravievand, A., and Chernova, L.:
532 Glacier area changes in Northern Eurasia, *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 9, 015003,
533 doi:10.1088/1748-9326/9/1/015003, 2014.

534 Kordzakhia, R.: Enguri and Tskhenistskhali river basins climate features within the
535 Svaneti, *Acts of Georgian Geographical Society*, Vol. IX–X, Tbilisi, 110–125, 1967 (in
536 Georgian).

537 Maruashvili, L.: Physical Geography of Georgia, Monograph. Publ. “Metsniereba”, Tbilisi,
538 1971 (in Georgian).

539 Paul, F. R., Barry, R. G., Cogley, J. G., Frey, H., Haeberli, W., Ohmura, A., Ommanney, C.
540 S. L., Raup, B., Rivera, A., and Zemp, M.: Recommendations for the compilation of
541 glacier inventory data from digital sources, *Ann. Glaciol.*, 50, 119–126, 2009.

542 Podozerskiy, K. I.: Ledniki Kavkazskogo Khrebt (Glaciers of the Caucasus Range):
543 Zapiski Kavkazskogo otdela Russkogo Geograficheskogo Obshchestva, Publ. Zap.
544 KORGGO., Tiflis, 29, 1, 200 pp., 1911 (in Russian).

545 Radici V., Bliss, A., Beedlow, A. C., Hock, R., Miles, E., and Cogley, J. G.: Regional
546 and global projections of twenty-first century glacier mass changes in response to climate
547 scenar- ios from global climate models, *Clim. Dynam.*, 42, 37–58, doi:10.1007/s00382-
548 013-1719-7, 2014.

549 Raup, B., A. Kaab, J. Kargel, M. P. Bishop, G. S. Hamilton, E. Lee, F. Rau, F. Paul, D.
550 Soltesz, S. J. Singh Kalsa, M. Beedle & C. Helm.: Remote Sensing and GIS technology
551 in the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) Project. *Computers and*
552 *Geoscience*, 33, 104-125, 2007.

553 Shahgedanova, M., Stokes, C. R., Gurney, S. D. and Popovnin V.: Interactions between
554 mass balance, atmospheric circulation, and recent climate change on the Djankuat
555 Glacier, Caucasus Mountains, Russia. *Journal Of Geophysical Research*, Vol. 110,
556 D04108, doi:10.1029/2004JD005213, 2005.

557 Shahgedanova, M., Nosenko, G., Kutuzov, S., Rototaeva, O., and Khromova, T.:
558 Deglaciation of the Caucasus Mountains, Russia/Georgia, in the 21st century observed
559 with ASTER satellite imagery and aerial photography, *The Cryosphere*, 8, 2367–2379,
560 doi:10.5194/tc-8-2367-2014, 2014.

561 Solomina, O. N.: Retreat of mountain glaciers of northern Eurasia since the Little Ice Age
562 maximum, *Ann. Glaciol.*, 31, 26–30, 2000.

563 Stokes, C. R., Gurney, S. D., Popovnin, V. and Shahgedanova M.: Late-20th-century
564 changes in glacier extent in the Caucasus Mountains, Russia/Georgia *Journal of*
565 *Glaciology*, Vol. 52 No. 176, 99-109, 2006.

566 Stokes, C. R., Popovnin, V. V., Aleynikov, A., and Shahgedanova, M.: Recent glacier
567 retreat in the Caucasus Mountains, Russia, and associated changes in supraglacial
568 debris cover and supra/proglacial lake development, *Ann. Glaciol.*, 46, 196–203, 2007.

569 Tielidze, L. G.: *Glaciers of Georgia*, Monograph. Publ. “Color”, 254 pp., Tbilisi, 2014 (in
570 Georgian).

571 Tielidze, L. G., Lomidze, N., and Asanidze, L.: Glaciers retreat and climate change effect
572 during the last one century in the Mestiachala River Basin, Caucasus Mountains,
573 Georgia, *Earth Sci.*, 4, 72–79, doi:10.11648/j.earth.20150402.12, 2015a.

574 Tielidze, L. G., Kumladze, R., and Asanidze, L.: Glaciers reduction and climate change
575 impact over the last one century in the Mulkhura River Basin, Caucasus Mountains,
576 Georgia, *Int. J. Geosci.*, 6, 465–472, doi:10.4236/ijg.2015.65036, 2015b.

577 Volodicheva, N.: The Caucasus. In Shahgedanova, M., ed. *The physical geography of*
578 *Northern Eurasia*. Oxford, Oxford University Press, 350-376, 2002.

579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596

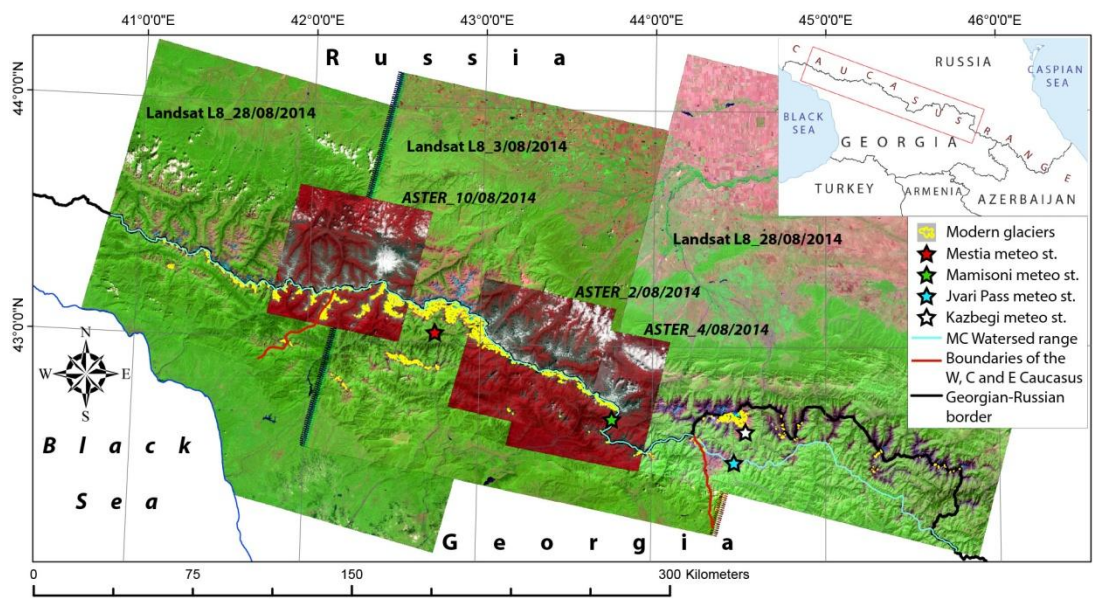
597 **Table 1.** The change in the area and number of the glaciers of Georgia in 1911–1960–
 598 2014 according to the individual river basins.
 599

Basin Name	K. Podozerskiy, 1911		R. Gobejishvili, by the maps of 1960		Landsat and Aster Imagery, 2014	
	Number	Area, km ²	Number	Area, km ²	Number	Area, km ²
Bzipi	10	4.0	18	7.2	18	4.0
Kelasuri			1	0.7	1	0.1
Kodori	118	73.2	160	64.5	145	40.1
Enguri	174	333.0	299	320.5	269	223.4
Khobisckali			16	0.9	9	0.5
Rioni	85	78.1	112	75.1	97	46.7
Liakhvi	12	5.1	16	4.0	10	1.8
Aragvi	3	2.2	3	0.8	1	0.3
Tergi	63	89.1	99	67.2	58	35.6
Asa	17	4.1	9	2.6	3	0.6
Arghuni	10	5.4	17	2.7	6	0.4
Pirikita Alazani	23	19.1	36	9.7	20	2.4
Total	515	613.3	786	555.9	637	355.8

600
 601
 602
 603
 604
 605
 606
 607

Table 2. Mean annual temperatures of Georgia's medium and high mountain meteorological stations.

Mestia		Mamisoni		Jvari Pass		Kazbegi	
Years	Mean annual °C	Years	Mean annual °C	Years	Mean annual °C	Years	Mean annual °C
1906-1960	+5.9	1907-1960	-2.2	1907-1960	-0.1	1907-1960	-5.8
1961-2013	+6.0	1961-1995	-2.2	1961-2009	+0.2	1961-2009	-5.6
Temperature increase +0.1		Temperature increase 0.0		Temperature increase +0.3		Temperature increase +0.2	



608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619

Figure 1. Georgian Caucasus glacier outlines (in yellow) derived from Landsat and ASTER imagery, and Georgia’s mountain meteorological stations location.

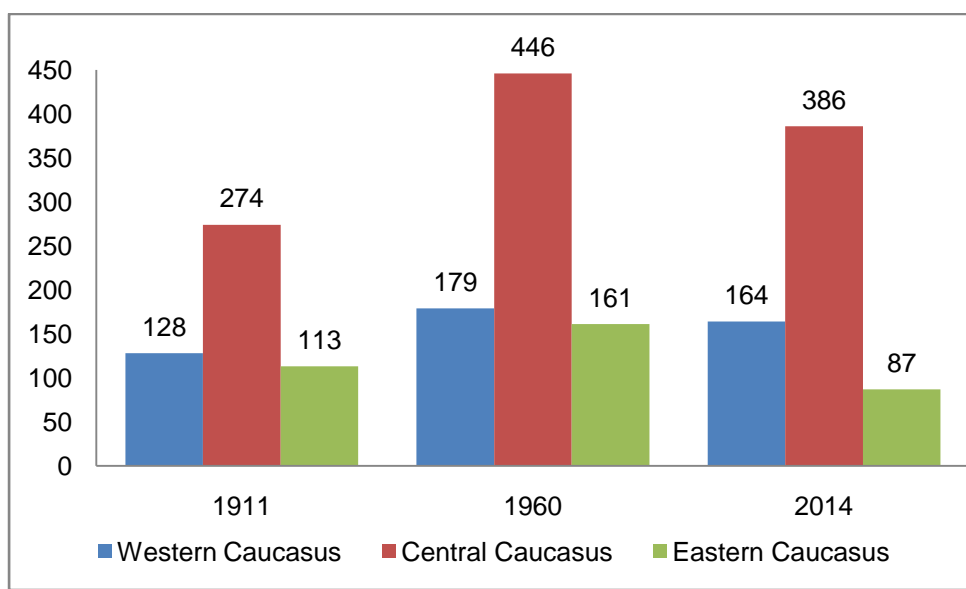


Figure 2. The change in the number of the Western, Central and Eastern Caucasus glaciers in 1911–1960–2014.

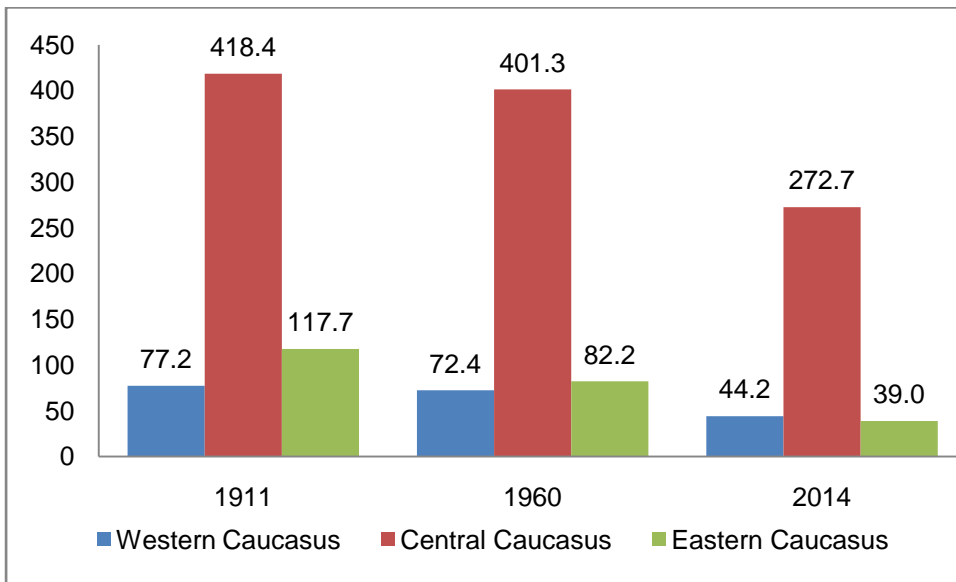


Figure 3. The change in the area (km²) of the Western, Central and Eastern Caucasus glaciers in 1911–1960–2014.

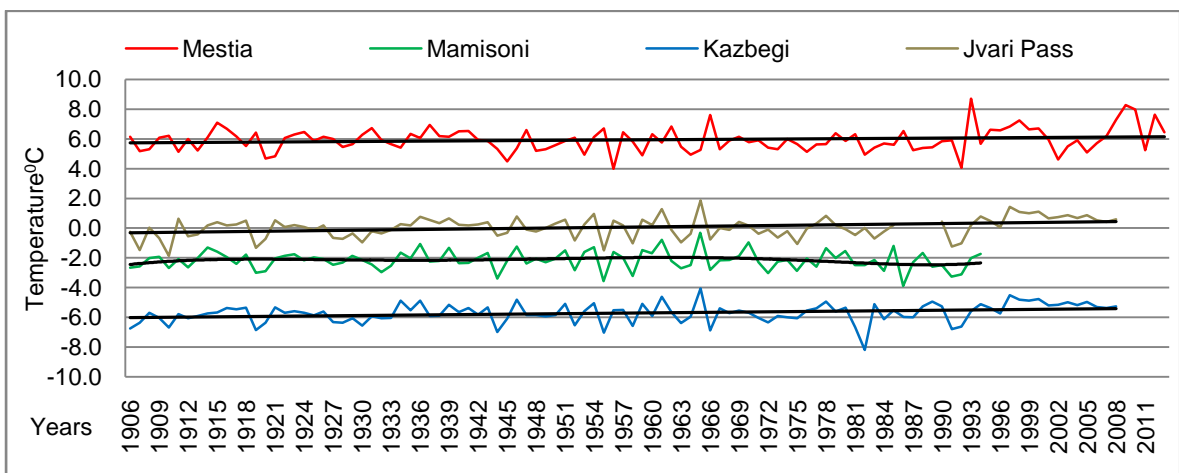


Figure 4. The course of the mean annual air temperatures in the Mestia, Mamisoni, Jvari Pass and Kazbegi meteorological stations over the last one century.

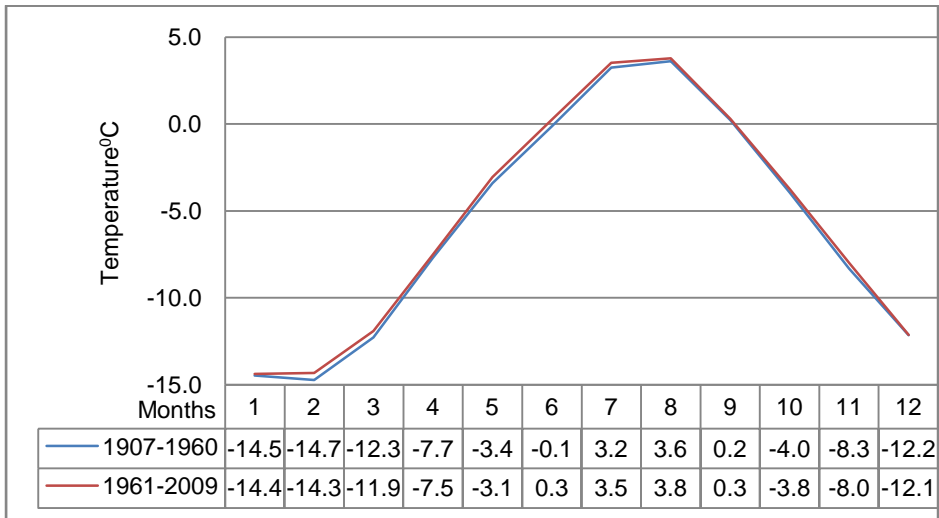


Figure 5. Mean monthly air temperature course of the Kazbegi meteorological station in the years of 1907–1960 and 1961–2009.

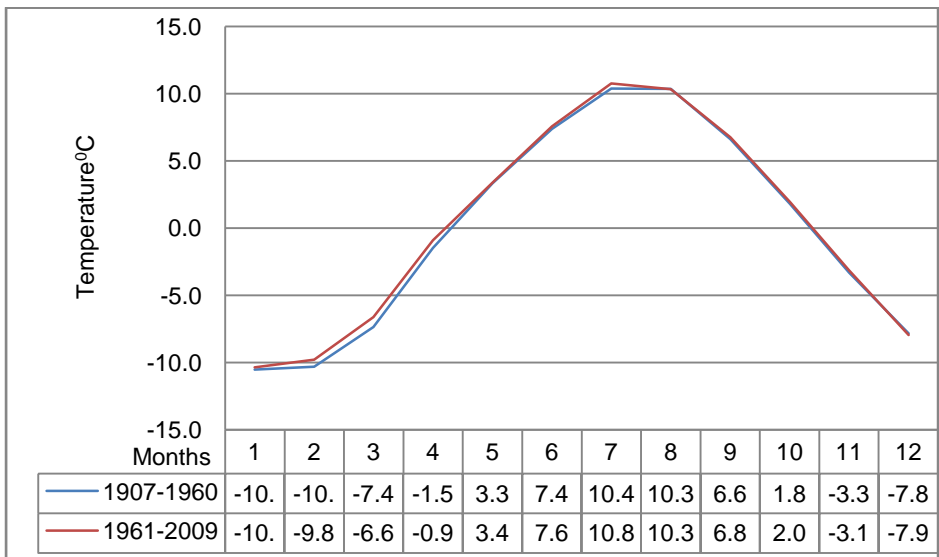


Figure 6. Mean monthly air temperature course of the Jvari Pass meteorological station in the years of 1907–1960 and 1961–2009.

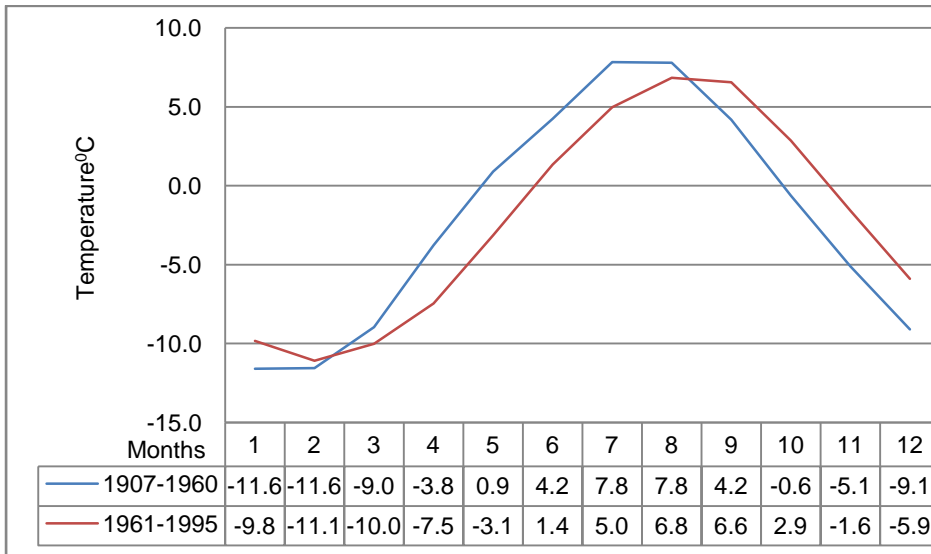


Figure 7. Mean monthly air temperature course of the Mamisoni meteorological station in the years of 1907–1960 and 1961–1995.

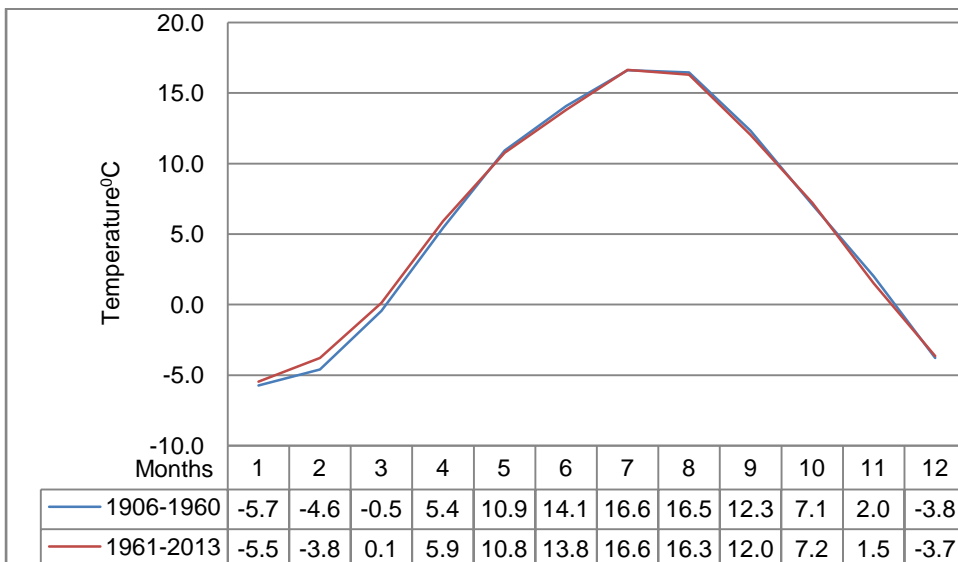


Figure 8. Mean monthly air temperature course of the Mestia meteorological station in the years of 1906–1960 and 1961–2013.

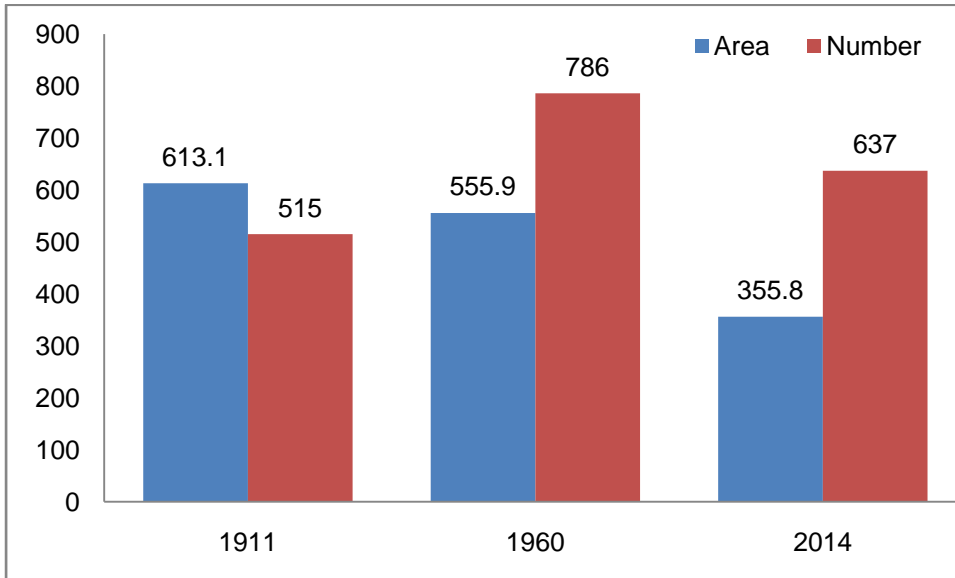


Figure 9. The change in the area (km²) and number of the glaciers of Georgia in 1911–1960–2014.

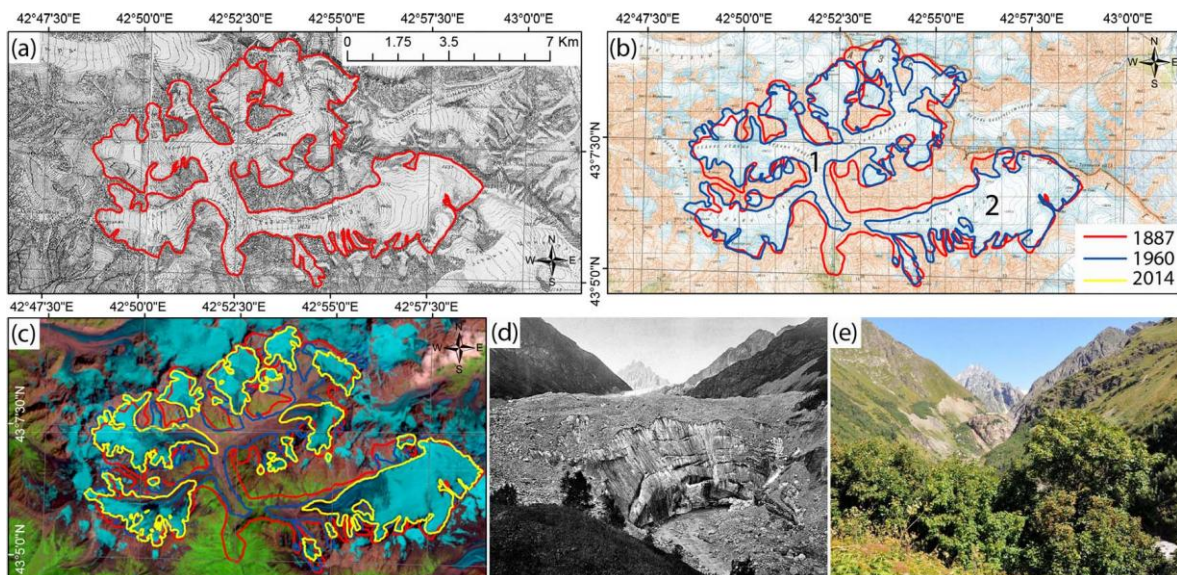


Figure 10. (a) Tivberi glacier, topographical map of 1887; (b) topographical map of 1960; (b1) Tivberi glacier; (b2) Kvitlodi glacier; (c) Landsat L8 imagery; (d) photo of 1884 (M. V. Dechy); (e) photo of 2011 (L. G. Tielidze).