1	RECENT ACCELERATED WASTAGE OF THE MONTE PERDIDO GLACIER	\	Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Times New Roman,
2	IN THE SPANISH PYRENEES DURING RECENT STATIONARY CLIMATIC		12 pto Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
3	CONDITIONS		
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Abstract

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This paper analyzes the evolution of the Monte Perdido Glacier, the third largest glacier of the Pyrenees, from 1981 to the present. We assessed the evolution of the glacier's surface area by use of aerial photographs from 1981, 1999, and 2006, and changes in ice volume by geodetic methods with digital elevation models (DEMs) generated from topographic maps (1981 and 1999), airborne LIDAR (2010) and terrestrial laser scanning (TLS, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014). We interpreted the changes in the glacier based on climate data from-a nearby meteorological stations. The results indicate an accelerated degradation of this glacier after 2000, with a rate of ice surface loss that was almost three-times greater from 2000 to 2006 than for earlier periods, and-a -doubling 43% higher of the 1.85 times faster rate of glacieriee volume loss from 1999 to 2010 (the ice depth decreased by 8.98±1.8 m, -0.72±0.14 m w.e. yr⁻¹) compared to 1981 to 1999 (the ice depth decreased 8.35±2.12 m, -0.39±0.1 m w.e. yr⁻¹). This loss of glacial ice has continued from 2011 to 2014 (the ice-glacier depth decreased by 1.932.1±0.4 m, -0.5864±0.36 m w.e. yr⁻¹). These data indicated that two consecutive markedly anomalous wet winters and cool summers (2012-13 and 2013-14) represented a deceleration in wastage compared to previous years, but still the overall mass balance were near zero, with significant losses of ice in some areas. These anomalous periods could not counteract the dramatic shrinkage that occurred during the dry and warm period of 2011-2012. despite of rather wet and cool conditions, in comparison with the 1983 20125 period, in two out of the three considered years.. Local climatic changes observed during the study period seems not be enough cannot to explain the acceleration in wastage rate of this glacier, because precipitation and air temperature has not exhibited generalized statistically significant trends during the studied periodlocal precipitation and snow accumulation increased slightly, and local air temperature during the ablation period did not significantly increase. The accelerated degradation of this glacier in recent years can be explained by the lack of equilibrium between the glacier and the current climatic conditions and probably other factors affecting the energy balance (i.e. increased albedo in spring) and feedback mechanisms (i.e. emitted advected heat offrom recent ice free bedrocks and debris covered areas). In particular, the average air temperature increased by at a minimum least of 0.9°C in this region since the end of the Little Ice Age (LIA) in the mid 1800s. Thus, this glacier shrinks dramatically during years with low accumulation or high air temperatures during the ablation season, but cannot recover during years with high accumulation or low air temperatures during the ablation season. The most recent TLS data support this interpretation. the two years 2012-13 and 2013-14 are actually years of decelerated or null wastage, compared to the average conditions of the previous years. These data indicated that two consecutive markedly anomalous wet winters and cool summers (2012 13 and 2013 14) represented a deceleration in wastage compared to previous years, but still led to near zero the overall mass balance were near zeroconditions, with significant losses of ice in some areas. These anomalous periods could not counteract the dramatic shrinkage that occurred during the dry and warm period of 2011-2012.

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1 Introduction

scanner (TLS), Pyrenees

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Most glaciers worldwide have undergone intense retreat since the end of the Little Ice

Age (LIA) in the mid 19th century, as indicated by measurements of ice surface area and

Keywords: Glacier shrinkage, climate evolution, geodetic methods, terrestrial laser

volume (Vincent et al., 2013; Marshall 2014; Marzeion et al., 2014 and 2015; Zemp et al., 2014). This trend has apparently accelerated in the last three decades (Serrano et al., 2011; Mernild et al., 2013; Carturan et al. 2013a; Gardent et al., 2014; López-Moreno et al., 2014). Thus, Marshall (2014) and Zemp et al. (2015) noted that loss of global glacier mass during the early 21st century exceeded that of any other decade studied. Several studies examined this phenomenon in Europe. In the French Alps, glacier shrinkage has accelerated since the 1960s, mainly in the 2000s (Gardent et al., 2014). In the Ötzal Alps (Austria), Abermann et al. (2009) calculated the loss of glacier area was 0.4% per year from 1969 to 1997 and 0.9% per year from 1997 to 2006. In the Central Italian Alps, Scotti et al. (2014) compared the period of 1860-1990 with 1990-2007 and reported an approximately 10-fold greater average annual decrease of glacier area during the more recent period. Carturan et al. (2013b) also reported reported that the rate of ice mass loss in the long-term monitored Careser Glacierstudied the Italian Alps and found that the average rate of ice mass loss (Italian Alps) during the period 19810- $2006\frac{10}{10}$ (-0.1.369 ± 0.12 m w.e. yr⁻¹) was about twice that for the period of 1933 to 1959 (-0.7XX \pm XX m w.e. yr⁻¹). Over the same period (1980-2010), Fischer et al. (2015) calculated a very similar rate of ice mass loss for the Swiss Alps (-0.65 m w.e. yr⁻¹) that clearly exceeds the values presented by Huss et al. (2010) for the 20th century (close to -0.25 m w.e. yr⁻¹). In the Sierra Nevada of southern Spain, the Veleta Glacier, which was reconstructed during the LIA, disappeared as a white glacier during the mid 20th century and became a glacier-derived rock glacier with a marked degradation during the last two decades (Gómez-Ortiz et al., 2014).

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The Pyrenees host some of the southern-most glaciers of Europe are in the Pyrenees, and they have also undergone significant deglaciation retreat. In 2005, these glaciers had an area of 495 hectares (González-Trueba et al., 2008) and in 2008 they had a totaln Con formato: Sin Resaltar

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area of 321 hectares (René, 2013). Since 1880, the different massifs have had variable reductions in area covered by ice, with a 59% reduction in the Vignemale Massif and an 84% reduction in the Posets-Llardana Massif (Gellatly et al., 1995; René, 2013). A total of 111 glaciers have disappeared in the Pyrenees from 1880 to 2005, and only 31 actual glaciers (with ice motion) remain. There has been a rapid glacial recession since the 1990s, and many of these glaciers face imminent extinction. Chueca et al. (2005 and 2008) reported that the rates of glacial shrinkage during the last two decades of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century were similar to those observed from 1860 to 1900, immediately after the end of the LIA. A similar conclusion has been reached by Marti et al. (2015) for the Ossue Glacier (French Pyrenees). Most studies agree that global warming is responsible for the observed glacier shrinkage and the recent acceleration of this shrinkage. The temperature increase has been particularly strong since the end of the LIA, and also since the 1970s in most mountain ranges of the world (Haeberli and Beniston, 1998; Beniston et al., 2003; Nogués-Bravo et al., 2008; Gardent et al., 2014). Global warming has increased the equilibrium line altitudes (ELAs) and reduced the accumulation ablation ratios (AARs) of glaciers, so that most glaciers are not in equilibrium with current climatic conditions (Mernild et al., 2013) and many of them cannot survive for much longer (Pelto, 2010). In the case of the Pyrenees, the annual air temperature has increased a minimum of at least 0.9°C since the end of the LIA (Dessens and Bücher, 1998; Feulliet and Mercier, 2012). More recently, Deaux et al., (2014) reported, showing an increase of 0.2°C decade⁻¹ between for the period between 1951 and 2010 (Deaux et al., 2014). This explains the ~255 m increase in the elevation of the ELA in the glaciers of the Maladeta Massif since the end of the LIA, which is currently close to 2950 m a.s.l. (Chueca et al., 2005). The decreased accumulation of snow, and the increase in air temperature during the ablation

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season are thought to be the principal causes of recent glacier decline in the southern 1 (Spanish) side of the Pyrenees (Chueca et al., 2005). 2 Glaciers are very good indicators of climate change due to their high sensitivity to 3 anomalies in precipitation and air temperature (Carrivick and Brewer, 2004, Fischer et 4 5 al., 2015). However, establishing a direct relationship between annual fluctuations of climate and the changes in area and mass of a particular glacier is difficult, because only 6 7 glaciers of medium or small size respond rapidly to changes in annual snowfall and snow/ice melt, whereas large glaciers respond much more slowly (Marshall, 2014). 8 Moreover, very small glaciers may develop and evolve for reasons unrelated to the 9 10 regional long-term monthly or seasonal climatic changes evolution, such as avalanches and snow accumulation due to wind (Chueca et al. 2004; Serrano et al., 2011; Carturan 11 12 et al., 2013c). Local topography also has a considerable effect on the development of ice 13 bodies, and can cause notable variations in the ELAs of different glaciers in the same region (Reinwarth and Escher-Vetter, 1999; Carrivick and Brewer, 2004; López-14 Moreno et al., 2006). Moreover, many studies of recent changes in glaciers examined 15 the evolution of the area of glaciated surfaces or glacier lengths. These, parameters that 16 17 respond to climate fluctuations, although this relationship is also explained affected by geometric adjustments (Haeberli, 1995; Carturan et al., 2013a). Thus, direct mass-18 balance estimations or geodetic methods that determine changes in ice volume provide 19 20 better information on the relationship between glacier changes and climatic changes of changes in glaciers with changes in climate (Chueca et al., 2007; Cogley, 2009; Fischer 21 et al., 2015). In the Pyrenees, there are very few estimations of ice volume losslost ice 22 23 volumes (Del Río et al., 2014; Sanjosé et al., 2014; Marti et al., 2015), although abundant research has examined recent changes of glaciated surface areas (Chueca et 24

al., 2005, López-Moreno et al. 2006; González-Trueba et al., 2008). Annual estimates of

René, 2013; Marti et al., 2015). Other studies in the Spanish Pyrenees compared digital elevation models (DEMs) derived from topographic maps offer 1981 and 1999 in the Maladeta Massif (Chueca et al., 2008) and the Monte Perdido Glacier (Julián and Chueca, 2007), and reported losses of -0.36 m w.e. yr⁻¹ and of -0.39 m w.e. yr⁻¹, respectively. This paper focuses in the recent evolution of the Monte Perdido Glacier, the third largest glacier in the Pyrenees. We document changes in the glacier surface area from 1981 to 2006 and provide updated information on volumetric changes by comparing DEMs derived from topographic maps of 19810 and 1999 (Julian and Chueca, 2007), a new DEM obtained in 2010 from Airborne LIDAR, and four successive Terrestrial Laser Scanning (TLS) runs-surveys that were performed during the autumns of 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014. We examined these data along within connection with data on precipitation, snow depth, and air temperature from the closest meteorological station. Identification of changes during recent years in this region is particularly important because in the 21st century snowfall accumulation has been higher and the temperatures slightly cooler than in the last decades of the 20th, associated to persistent positive conditions of the North Atlantic Oscillation index in the beginning of the 21st century (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010; Buisan et al., 2015). Thus, the most recent response of the remnant ice bodies to this short climatic anomaly-_is as yet unknown. Moreover, the availability of annual TLS data in recent years permits detailed examination of the relationship between changes in climate and glaciers.

glacier mass fluctuations based on glaciological method were only performed in the

Maladeta Glacier (Spanish Pyrenees) and the Ossoue Glacier (French Pyrenees), and

these indicated the mean glacierice depth loss of ice thickness was 14 m during the last

20 years in the Maladeta Glacier, and 22 m in the Ossoue Glacier (Arenillas et al., 2008;

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2 Study area and review of the previous research on the Monte Perdido glacier

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3 The Monte Perdido Glacier is located in the Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park

(OMPNP) in the Central Spanish Pyrenees (Figure 1). The ice masses are north-facing,

lie on structural flats beneath the main summit of the Monte Perdido Peak (3355 m),

and are surrounded by vertical cliffs of 500-800 m in height (García-Ruiz and Martí-

Bono, 2002). At the base of the cliffs, the Cinca River flows directly from the glacier

and the surrounding slopes, and has created a longitudinal west-east basin called the

Marboré Cirque (5.8 km²). 9

> Researchers have studied glaciers in the Marboré Cirque since the mid 19th century (Schrader, 1874), and many next studies examined the extent and made descriptions of the status of theand other characteristics of ice masses and the features of the moraines deposited during the LIA (Gómez de Llarena, 1936; Hernández-Pacheco and Vidal Box, 1946; Boyé, 1952). More recent studies have established the location of moraines to deduce the dynamics and extent of LIA glaciers (Nicolás, 1981 and 1986; Martínez de Pisón and Arenillas, 1988; García Ruiz and Martí Bono, 2002; Martín Moreno, 2004) and have analyzed environmental changes during the Holocene through the study of sediments in Marboré Lake (Oliva-Urcia et al., 2013) and by dating of Holocene morainic deposits (García-Ruiz et al., 2014).

> The map of Schrader (1874), numerous old photographs, and the location of the LIA moraines (García Ruiz and Martí Bono, 2002) indicate a unique glacier at the foot of the large north-facing wall of the Monte Perdido Massif (Monte Perdido, Cilindro and Marboré peaks) (Figure 1). The map of Schrader (1874) distinguishes the Cilindro-Marboré Glacier, with three small ice tongues that joined in the headwall, from the

was fed by snow and ice avalanches from the intermediate glacier, <u>but</u> dissapeared after the 1970s (Nicolas, 1986; García-Ruiz et al., 2014). The two remaining glacier bodies, which are currently unconnected, are <u>currently</u> referred <u>in this paper</u> as the upper and lower Monte Perdido Glaciers. The glacier beneath the Cilindro and Marboré peaks has transformed into three small and isolated ice patches (García-Ruiz et al., 2014). It is noteworthy that Hernández-Pacheco and Vidal Box (1946) previously estimated a maximum ice thickness of 52 m for the upper glacier and 73 m for the lower glacier. In 2008, 82% of the ice cover at the end of the LIA had already disappeared. The upper and lower ice bodies have mean elevations of 3110 m and 2885 m (Julián and Chueca, 2007). Despite the high elevation of the upper glacier, snow accumulation is limited due to the minimal avalanche activity <u>aboveover</u> the <u>ice_bodyglacier</u> and its marked steepness (≈40°).

There has not been a direct estimation of the current location of the ELA in the upper Cinca valley, but studies at the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st century placed it

at about 2800 m in the Gállego Valley, west of the OMPNP (López-Moreno, 2000), and

at about 2950 m in the Maladeta Massif, east of the OMPNP (Chueca et al., 2005). The

mean annual air temperature at the closest meteorological station (Góriz at 2250 m

a.s.l.) is 5.03°C, although this station is on the south-facing slope of the Monte Perdido

Massif. Assuming a lapse rate of 0.55°C to 0.65°C every 100 m, the annual 0°C

isotherm should be roughly at 2950 to 3150 m a.s.l., although it might be slightly lower

because the glacier is north-facing, and the annual temperature in Góriz might be

enhanced by the occurrence of föehn events.

Monte Perdido Glacier, which was divided into three stepped ice masses connected by

serac falls until the mid 20th century. The glacier that existed at the lowest elevation

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- 1 The climate in this region can be defined as high-mountain Mediterranean. Precipitation
- 2 as snow can fall on the glacier any time of year, but most snow accumulation is from
- 3 November to May, and most ablation is from June to September. Previous research
- 4 estimated the mean annual precipitation was about 2000 mm in Marboré Lake (Del
- 5 Valle, 1997), with most precipitation occurring during spring and autumn.

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3 Data and methods

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3.1. Comparison of DEMs

9 DEMs from different dates can be used to calculate changes in glacier ice volume. This 10 technique is well established for the study of glaciers in mountainous areas (Favey et

al., 2002), and we have previously applied it in several studies of the Pyrenees (Chueca

et al., 2004, 2007; Julián and Chueca, 2007). Thus, we used 3 DEMs to estimate the changes in ice volume in the Monte Perdido Glacier. Two DEMs (1981 and 1999) were

derived from topographic maps and one (2010) was from airborne LIDAR

measurements. All three DEMs have and cell size of 4 m², and they were used in the

context of a geographic information system (GIS) and unified working under a single

geodetic datum (European Datum ED50; UTM projection, zone 30).

18 The 1981 DEM was obtained from the cartography published by the Spanish *Instituto*

Geográfico Nacional (IGN) (Sheet 146-IV, Monte Perdido; Topographic National Map

Series, scale 1:25000). This map was published in 1997 and its cartographic restitution

21 was based on a photogrammetricy flight in September 1981. The 1999 DEM was also

derived from cartography published by the IGN (Sheet 146-IV, Monte Perdido;

23 Topographic National Map Series MTN25, scale 1:25000). It was published in 2006

and its cartographic restitution was based on a photogrammetricy flight in September

- 1 | 1999. The 2010 DEM was obtained from an airborne LIDAR flight (MDT05-LIDAR)
- 2 made by the IGN in late summer of 2010 in the context of the National Plan for Aerial
- 3 Orthophotography (NPAO).
- 4 The Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) for vertical accuracy calculated by the IGN for
- 5 their digital cartographic products at 1:25000 scale is \pm 1.5 m and \pm 0.2 m for their
- 6 LIDAR derived DEMs. The combined vertical RMSE for the 1981-1999 DEMs
- 7 comparison is < 2.5 m and < 2.0 m for the 1999-2010 comparison. In the latter case it
- 8 <u>must be noted that different geodetic methods (photogrammetrical and airborne LIDAR)</u>
- 9 were used in the comparison and that this could alter the combined data accuracy
- 10 (Rolstad and others, 2009). In any case, both combined vertical RMSE were considered
- 11 precise enough for our purposes as the ice-depth changes obtained in our analysis were
- 12 generally much higher than these values. The estimation of ice volume changes was
- 13 performed in ArcGIS comparing by cut and fill procedures pairs of glacier surface
- 14 DEMs (1981-1999 and 1999-2010).
- 15 The root mean squared error (RMSE) for vertical accuracy calculated by the IGN for
- 16 their digital cartographic products at the 1:25000 scale is \pm 1.5 m for the 1981 and 1999
- 17 DEMs, and ± 0.2 m for the LIDAR-derived DEM of 2010. The combined vertical
- 18 RMSE for comparison of the 1981 and 1999 DEMs is ± 2.12 m, and is less than ± 1.8 m
- 19 for comparison of the 1999 and 2010 DEMs. Vertical RMSE values were used to
- 20 estimate error bars to provided values of glacier changes in both analyzed periods.
- 21 These combined vertical RMSEs were considered precise enough for our purposes,
- 22 because changes in ice depth in our analyses were generally much greater than these
- 23 | values. The estimation of ice volume changes was performed in ArcGIS (ESRI, Inc.) by
- 24 the use of the tool "cut and fill" for comparing pairs of glacier surface DEMs (1981-
- 25 1999 and 1999 2010). The glacial perimeters associated with each DEM date were

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retrieved from aerial photographs (1981: Pirineos Sur Flight, September-1981, scale of 1:30000, black and white; 1999: Gobierno de Aragón Flight, September-1999, scale of 1:20000, color). There were no high quality flights for 2010, so 2006 aerial photographs were used (PNOA2006 Flight, August 2006, scale of 1:5000, color). The 1999 and 2006 photographs were already orthorectified, but we had to correct the geometry and georeference the aerial survey of 1981 by use of the georeferencing module of ArcGIS. The reference for the control points was from the orthophotos and DEM data from 1999. The horizontal RMSE accuracy of the set of control-points ranged from 2.1 to 4.7 m, and was considered sufficiently precise for our study. The maximum horizontal error value was used to calculate error bars to estimated glaciated areas and their temporal changes. A resampling procedure using cubic convolution was used to generate the final rectified images. The most recent estimates of the evolution of the glacier were from annual TLS surveys. LIDAR technology has developed rapidly in recent years, and terrestrial and airborne LIDAR have been used in diverse geomorphology studies, including monitoring changes in the volume of glaciers (Schwalbe et al. 2008, Carturan et al., 2013b). The device used in the present study is a long-range TLS (RIEGL LPM-321) that uses timeof-flight technology to measure the time between the emission and detection of a light pulse to produce a three-dimensional point cloud from real topography. The TLS used in this study employed light pulses at 905 nm (near-infrared), which is ideal for acquiring data from snow and ice cover (Prokop, 2008, Grünewald et al., 2010; Egli et al., 2011), a minimum angular step width of 0.0188°, a laser beam divergence of 0.0468°, and a maximum working distance of 6000 m. When TLS is used for long distances, various sources of error must be considered,

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namely the instability of the device and errors from georeferencing the point of clouds

(Reshetyuk, 2006). We used a frontal view of the glacier with minimal shadow zones in the glacier and a scanning distance of 1500 to 2500 m. We also used indirect registration, also called target-based registration (Revuelto et al., 2014), so that scans from different dates (September of 2011 to 2014) could be compared. Indirect registration uses fixed reference points (targets) that are located in the study area. Thus, 11 reflective targets of known shape and dimension are placed at the reference points at a distance from the scan station of 10 to 500 m. Using standard topographic methods, we obtained accurate global coordinates for the targets by use of a differential global positioning system (DGPS) with post-processing. The global coordinates were acquired in the UTM 30 coordinate system in the ETRS89 datum. The final precision for the global target coordinate was 0.05 m in planimetry and 0.1 m in altimetry. Invariant elements of the landscape surrounding the ice bodies (identifiable sections of rocks and cliffs) were used to assess measurement accuracy. Ninety percent of the reference points had elevation difference lower than 40 cm, and there was no apparent relationship between scanning distance and observed error. Such 40 cm of deviations was considered to add error bars to the calculated ice depth and mass loss rates. The conversion of mean ice elevation change to annual mass budget rates was done applying mean density of 900 kg m⁻³ (Chueca et al., 2007; Marti et al., 2015). The assumption of this value neglects the existence of a, considering that the firn, with a lower density. This is mostly true at the end of the study period, but probably in the early eighties this assumption is not completely true and firn areas existed (i.e. according to Figure 3A). Unfortunately, the the-lack of additional information forced us to take this generalization that may slightly underestimate the acceleration in ice loss rates during the last years (i.e. after 1999) compared to the 1981-1999 period, zone was nearly absent (Chueca et al., 2007; Marti et al., 2015).

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The Spanish Meteorological Office (AEMET) provided climatic data from the Góriz manual weather station, located at 2250 m a.s.l. on the southern slope of the Monte Perdido Massif. Given no changes in instrumentation and observation practices in the meteorological station since 1983, and the proximity of the meteorological station to the glacier (2.7 km) suggests that it accurately records the climate variability over the glacier. The climatic record consists of daily data of air temperature, precipitation, and snow depth. From these data, we derived annual series of maximum and minimum air temperatures for the main periods of snow accumulation (November-May) and ablation (June-September), precipitation during the accumulation season, and maximum snow depth in April (generally the time of maximum snowpack at this meteorological station). The lack of detailed meteorological or mass balance data over the glacier made necessary to define the accumulation and the ablation season in a subjective manner based on our experience. We are aware that May and October are transitional months between accumulation and ablation conditions depending of the especific annual conditions. However, we set these periods because is June and November when ablation and accumulation is generally evident over the surface of the glacier. The statistical significance of the linear climate trends was assessed by the non-parametric correlation coefficient of Mann-Kendall's tau-b (Kendall and Gibbons, 1990). Results obtained in Góriz were contrasted with three other In addition, we analyzed the trends of monthly series and for the accumulation and ablation periods during the available for three observatories (see Figure 1) with precipitation—data (Pineta, Aragnouet and Canfranc), and three for temperature (Mediano, Aragnouet and Canfranc) data for the period 1983 and 2013. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test

- 1 (Fay and Proschan, 2010) was used to detect statistically significant differences in the
- 2 medians of precipitation and temperature data—when the periods 19834–1999 and 2000-
- 3 2010 are compared.

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4. Results

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4.1. Climatic evolution and variability from 1983 to 2014

Figure 2 illustrates the high interannual variability of climate in the study areaGóriz station since 1983. The average maximum air temperatures in Góe zriz during the snow accumulation and ablation seasons had no significant trends, with Mann-Kendalltau-b values close to 0 (Figs 2a and 2b). The range between the highest and lowest average seasonal anomalies during the study period exceeded 3°C and 4°C during the accumulation and ablation periods, respectively for maximum and minimum temperatures. The average minimum air temperatures had very weak increases in both seasons, but these were <u>not only</u> statistically significant (p < 0.05) during the accumulation period (Figs. 2c and 2d). The interannual air temperature range was larger for the accumulation period (~5°C) than for the ablation period (~2.5°C). Table 1 shows that tThe evolution of temperature in Góriz is line with the observed in the three other meteorological stations (Mediano, Aragnouet and Canfranc), with no statistically significant trends for maximum or minimum temperature, for the accumulation norand ablation periods during the period 198323-2013. At monthly basis, the four analysed observatories only detected a statistically significant increase in May and June; and a statistically significant decrease in November and December for both, maximum and minimum temperature. The Mann-Whitney test did not revealed statistically significant differences in the medians of the series for the accumulation and ablation

periodsseasons in any observatory- when the periods 1983-1999 and 2000-2010 were 1 compared. 2 Precipitation in Góriz during the accumulation period also exhibited strong interannual 3 variability, with a range of ~ 600 mm to 1500 mm (Fig. 2e). The trend line had a slight 4 increase, but this was not statistically significant. Similarly, maximum snow 5 accumulation during April varied from less than 50 cm to 250 cm, and there was no 6 7 evident trend during the study period (Fig. 2f). Monthly trend analysis (Table 1) only found a significant increase of precipitation in Góriz during May, and relatively lowa 8 dominance of positivenear zero tau-b coefficients for the restmost of the yearsmonths. 9 10 Very similar results are found for the other three analyzed stations (Pineta, Aragnouet and Canfranc) with no statistically significant trends for the accumulation and ablation 11 periods. Only Aragnouet showed was found a statistically significant increase in 12 13 Aragnouet in May, and in-Pineta during in March. No statistically differences in the median of precipitation during the accumulation and ablation seasons of the 1983-1999 14 and 2000-2010 periods in any of the analyzsed meteorological stations. 15 Figure 2 also shows that the last three years, for which we have TLS measurements of 16 annual glacier evolution, had extremely variable conditions. Thus, mid-September 2011 17 to mid-September 2012 was one of the warmest recorded years (especially during the 18 19 ablation period, 96th and 74th percentiles for maximum and minimum temperature 20 respectively) and one of the driest recorded years with a rather dry accumulation period (close to the 25th27th percentile). The period of 2012 to 2013 had an accumulation 21 Con formato: Superíndice period that was more humid than average (59th percentile) and the coolest recorded 22 summer (1st and 18th percentiles for maximum and minimum temperatures 23 Con formato: Superíndice respectively), and the accumulation period of 2013 to 2014 was very wet (78th 24 Con formato: Superíndice

percentile) and mildaround average respectivelly, with air temperatures well-around or

- 1 <u>below the below</u> average (22th and 48th percentiles for maximum and minimum
- 2 <u>temperatures respectively</u>) during the ablation months.

4.2 Glacier evolution from 1981 to 2010

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- 4 Figure 3 shows two photographs of the glacier taken in late summer of 198<u>1</u>0 and 2011.
- 5 A simple visual assessment shows the fast degradation of the glacier during this 30 year
- 6 period. In 1981, the upper and lower glaciers were no longer united (they became
- 7 disconnected from 1973 to 1978), and they exhibited a concave convex surface and a
- 8 significant ice depth with noticeable seracs hanging from the edge of the cliffs. Both ice
- 9 bodies were heavily crevassed, with evidence of ice motion over the whole glacier. The
- 10 photograph of 2011 shows that the two ice bodies are further separated, as well as
- showing a dramatic reduction in ice thickness, manifested by the concave surface, the
- disappearance of almost all seracs, and the retreat of ice from the edges of the cliffs.
- 13 Crevasses are only evident in the eastern part of the lower glacier, indicating that the
- motion of the glacier has slowed or stopped in most of these two ice bodies. Moreover,
- there are rocky outcrops in the middle of the lower glacier and areas that are partially
- 16 covered by debris deposits from several crevasses or rock falls in the upper areas.
- 17 Table 24 shows the surface area of the ice in 1981, 1999, and 2006. From 1981 to 1999
- the glacier lost 4.5 ± 0.19 ha $(1.5\pm0.06$ ha in the upper glacier and 3.0 ± 0.13 in the lower
- 19 | glacier), corresponding to an overall rate of 0.25±0.01 ha yr⁻¹. From 1999 to 2006, the
- glacier lost 5.4 ± 0.24 ha $(2.0\pm0.09$ ha in the upper glacier and 3.4 ± 0.15 ha in the lower
- glacier), corresponding to an overall rate of 0.77 ± 0.23 ha yr⁻¹, more than three-times the
- 22 rate of the previous 18 years.
- 23 Comparison of the elevation of the glacier's surfaces derived from the DEMs (1981 to
- 24 | 1999 vs. 1999 to 2010) also indicates an acceleration of glacier wastage over time

(Figure 4). During the 1981-1999 period, the ice thickness decreased by an average of 6.20±2.12 m in the upper glacier and 8.79±2.12 m in the lower glacier (8.35±2.12 m overall); thus, the mean rate of ice-glacier thickness decay was 0.34±0.11 m and $0.48\pm0.11~m~yr^{-1}~(0.46\pm0.11~m~yr^{-1}~overall,~or~0.39\pm0.1~m~w.e.~yr^{-1}),~respectively.$ Moreover, the changes in glacier thickness had spatial heterogeneity. No sectors of either glacier had increased thicknesses, but some small areas of the lower glacier remained rather stationary, with declines in thickness less than 5 m. The largest losses of ice-glacier thickness were in the lower elevations and western regions of the upper and lower glaciers, with decreases that exceeded 25 m and 35 m respectively. During the 1999-2010 period, the loss of ice thickness was 7.95±1.8 m in the upper glacier and 9.13±1.8 m in the lower glacier (8.98±1.8 m overall); corresponding to rates of 0.72 ± 0.16 m and 0.81 ± 0.16 m yr⁻¹ (0.8±0.16 m yr⁻¹ overall, or 0.72±0.14 m w.e. yr⁻¹), respectively. The spatial pattern of ice losses resembled the pattern from 1981-1999, but areas of noticeable glacier losses are also found eastward. with tThe smallest decreases are found in the eastern and in the higher elevation parts of the lower glacier and the proximal area of the upper glacier, probably due to most effective shading of these areas, and the greatest decreases in the distal and central-eastern parts of both ice bodies.

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4.3. Evolution of Monte Perdido Glacier from 2011 to 2014 from TLS

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Figure 5 shows the differences in ice-glacier depth between consecutive annual scans

22 (September 2011-12, September 2012-13, and September 2013-14) and the total change

from 2011 to 2014. Figure 6 shows the frequency distribution of ice depth change

24 measured over the glacier for these periods.

Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Times New Roman The period of mid-September 2011 to mid-September 2012 was very dry during the accumulation period and very warm during the ablation period. These conditions led to dramatic declines of ice-glacier depth, with an average decrease of 2.128 1.94±0.4 m $(\underline{21.082592}\pm0.4 \text{ m})$ in the upper glacier and $\underline{2.1231.97}\pm0.4 \text{ m}$ in the lower glacier). Ice thinning affected almost the entire glacier (the aAccumulation Ablation Rarea ratio, AAR, was 3.5%), and was particularly intense in the western sectors of the upper and lower glaciers, where loses were more than 4 m. The few scattered points indicating depth increases in the middle of the lower glacier are likely to be from the motion of the existing crevasses. Conditions were very different from 2012 to 2013, with a rather wet accumulation period and very cool ablation period. These conditions led to changes that contrasted sharply with those of the previous year, in that large areas of the glacier had increased ice thickness. Most of these increases did not exceed 1-1.5 m, and most were in the highest elevation areas of both ice bodies. Nonetheless, during this year, large areas remained stable (AAR was 54%) and some areas even exhibited noticeable ice losses (more than 1.5-2 m in the upper and lower glaciers). Despite the excellent conditions for glacier development from 2012 to 2013, the average increase of glacier thickness was only 0.34±0.4 m (0.32±0.4 m in the upper glacier and 0.38±0.4 m in the lower glaciers). Very similar conditions occurred in 2013-2014, with very wet accumulation months and below average air temperature during the ablation period. Again, there were large areas with moderate increases in thickness (AAR was 41%, sometimes exceeding 3 m), although there were still areas with significant ice loss, with an average depth decrease of 0.07 ± 0.4 m (0.08 ± 0.4 m in the upper glacier and $0.070.08\pm0.41$ _-m in the lower glacier).

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The overall result of a very negative year (2011-2012) for glacier development followed by two years (2012-2013 and 2013-2014) of anomalous positive conditions led to a net average ice loss of -1.93672.1±0.4 m (0.5864±0.36 m w.e. yr⁻¹), with some regions experiencing losses greater than 6 m. Only the areas of the eastern part of the lower glacier that were at high elevations (around the rimaye) exhibited some elevation gain during this period (accumulation ablationarea ratio, AAR, for the three years was 16%), and this was typically less than 2 m. Interestingly, the areas with greatest and lowest ice losses during 1981-2010 were similar to those with the greatest and lowest ice losses during 2011-2014, indicating a consistent spatial pattern of glacier shrinkage over time.

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5. Discussion and conclusions

The results of this study indicate that the recent evolution of the Monte Perdido Glacier was similar to that of many other glaciers worldwide (Marshall, 2014, Vincent et al., 2013), especially those in Europe (Gardent et al., 2014; Abermann et al., 2009; Scotti et al., 2014; Marti et al., 2015) where glacier shrinkage began at the end of the LIA and has clearly accelerated after 2000. More specifically, the annual loss of area of the Monte Perdido Glacier was three-times greater from 2000 to 2006 compared to the 1981-1999 period; and the loss of ice thickness from 1999 to 2010 was double the rate observed from 1981 to 1999. Acceleration in glacier shrinkage has been also reported in the Ossoue Glacier (French Pyrenees), where mass balance decline during the period 2001-2013 (-1.45 m w.e. yr⁻¹), is 50% greater compared to the period 1983-2014- (-1 m w.e. yr⁻¹), (Marti et al., 2015), Climatic analyses suggest that the recent acceleration in the wastage of the Monte Perdido Glacier cannot be only explained by an intensification of climate warming or by the sharp decline of snow accumulation.

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Climate data (1983-2014) of a nearby meteorological station, and three other Pyrenean meteorological stations, suggests that most of the year temperature has not exhibited statistically significant trends. The Mann-Whitney test did not reveal statistical differences in temperature when the period 1983-1999 is compared to 1999-2010. Precipitation in the four analyzed stations during the accumulation period and maximum annual snow depth in Góriz were also stationary or slightly increased. The accelerated degradation of the Monte Perdido Glacier suggests that such tendency cannot be only cannot simply be explained by an intensification of climate warming or by the sharp decline of snow accumulation. Climate data (1983-2014) of a nearby meteorological station, and three other Pyrenean meteorological stations clearly refute this hypothesis, suggests that most of the year temperature has not exhibited statistically significant trends. The Mann-Whitney test did not reveal statistical differences in temperature when because air temperatures remained stationary during the ablation period (i.e. average maximum temperature was 13.4 and 13.6 °C for the periods 1983 1999 is compared toand 1999 2010, respectively), and pPrecipitation in the four analysed stations during the accumulation period and maximum annual snow depth accumulation during accumulation periodin Góriz were also stationary or slightly increased. (average precipitation was 1013 and 1028 mm; and average maximum annual snow depth in April was 104 and 131 cm for the periods 1983 1999 and 1999 2010 respectively). Previous studies of the Pyrenees and surrounding areas showed that air temperature has significantly warmed throughout the 20th century, especially after the relatively cold period from the 1960s to the mid-1970s (López-Moreno et al., 2008; El Kenawy et al., 2012; Deaux et al., 2014). At the same time, there was a regional significant decline of snow accumulation from mid-March to late-April/early-May from 1950 to 2000 in the Pyrenees (López-Moreno, 2005). These trends of decreasing precipitation and milder air

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temperatures during winter and early spring were related to changes in the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index during this period (López-Moreno et al., 2008). Most recent studies that used updated databases (including data of the 21st century) confirmed a shift in NAO evolution toward more negative evolution that affected to the most recent evolution of temperature and precipitation over the Pyrenees. Thus, no temporal trends of both variables are found near the Monte Perdido Peak, when the study period starts in the 1980s and the effect of the cold and wet period of the 1960s to 1970s is removed. Thus, Vicente-Serrano et al. (2010) found that the increased occurrence of very wet winters after the 2000s was associated with frequent strong negative NAO winters. In agreement, Buisan et al. (2015) indicated that for the period of 1980 to 2013 the overall number of snow days in the Pyrenees remained stationary and even slightly increased in some locations. In a most recent research, Buisan et al. (under review) has reported stationary behavior or slight increases in the available series of snow water equivalent series available for the period 1985-2015 in the central Spanish Pyrenees. Macias et al. (2014) also support the view that southern Europe and some other regions of the world have undergone clear moderations of the warming trends that were reported at the end of the 20th century. Nonetheless, it is necessary to bear in mind that the longest climatic records or dendroclimatological reconstructions for the Pyrenees still point out the period considered in this study (1980-2014) as a very strong positive anomaly of temperature and a dry period compared to the period spanning since the end of the LIA (Büngten et al., 2008; Deaux et al., 2014; Marti et al., 2015). However, mMore research is needed to fully assess the implications of it is interesting to note that the temperature increase detected in May and June has exhibited a statistically significant (p<0.05) increase in the four analyzed meteorological stations. This change could lead to less snow accumulation at the end of the accumulation season and a longer

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ablation period, and an early rise of albedo that may be affecting the mass and energy
balance of the glacier (Qu et al., 2014). -Another hypotesis that should be considered in
future research is to consider the effect of increasing slope of the glaciers, due to higher
thickness loss in the distal parts. Increasing slopes are expected to affect snow
accumulation on the glaciers and might constitute another feedback mechanism to
explain the recent evolution of the glacier.

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The mass loss rates presented in this study for the different periods (0.39±0.1 and 0.72±0.14 m w.e. yr⁻¹ for 1980-1999 and 1999-2010 periods respectively) are similar to the reported by Chueca et al., (2007) and Marti et al. (2015) for the Maladeta massif (0.36 m w.e. yr⁻¹ for the 1981-1999 period; and 0.7 m w.e. yr-1 for the 1991-2013). The most recent mass balance values obtained for the Monte Perdido Glacier are more similar to those reported for the Swiss Alps (Fischer et al., 2015), or the best preserved glaciers in some areas of the Italian Alps (Caturan et al., 2013 a); but much lower to the most retreating glaciers in the Alps (Carturan et al., 2013b) or the one reported in the Ossoue Glacier (French Pyrenees, -1.45 m w.e. yr-1 for the 1983-2014). The smaller rates in the Spanish side of the Pyrenees compared to the later may be explained by the location of the remnant ice bodies in Southern side of the range, confined in the most elevated and the best topographic locations (higher snow accumulation and radiation shilding) in their respective cirques (López-Moreno et al., 2006). Oppositely, the Ossue glacier still has maintained a considerable glacier tongue in an easting slope. In this context, the only explanation for the rapid degradation of the Monte Perdido Glacier after 1999 is that the progressive warming observed since the end of the LIA was responsible of a dramatic reduction in the accumulation area-ablation ratio (AAR), and most of this glacier is currently below the current ELA (at 3050 m a.s.l. during the period 2011-2014, Figure 5D). This leads to a clear imbalance that is very likely to be exacerbated by negative feedbacks, in that significant ice losses occur during unfavorable years and even during "normal" years (with little accumulation or warm ablation seasons). Because of this imbalance, the glacier cannot recover ice losses during periods with favorable conditions (high accumulation and/or little ablation in the frame of the 1983-2014 period). This hypothesis is strongly supported by our detailed TLS measurements from the last four years. In particular, these TLS data showed that two consecutive anomalously positive years (2012/13 and 2013/14), compared to a period with unfavourable conditions for the glaciers, did not allow recovery of the losses from a negative year (2011/12). Thus the average decrease of glacier depth during this three years period was 1.93672.1±0.4 m, roughly one-fourth of the loss from 1981 to 2000, and from 2000 to 2010. The accumulation area ratio for the 2011-2014 period was 16 %, and during a warm and dry year the loss of ice thickness almost affects the whole glacier (AAR<4%) affects indicate that there is not a persistent accumulation zone. Pelto (2010) observed that this is a symptom of a glacier that cannot survive, there can be years with accumulation, but if the many do not and the retained snowpack of good years is lost in bad years, then in fact no accumulation persists. Thus, the behavior observed for the Monte Perdido glacier during the studied period is very likely explained by very negative mass balance years that may be identified in Figure 2. Thus, years with very high temperatures occurred after 2000 (2003, 2005 and 2012), and in 2005 and 2012 they were also characterized by low winter precipitation. As mentioned before, also the feedbacks from decreased albedo and increasing slope of the glaciers, might must be playing a key role in the recent acceleration of the glacier wastage. Obviously, this indicates that the future of the Monte Perdido Glacier is seriously threatened, even under stationary climatic conditions. A ground-penetrating

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radar (GPR) survey of the lower glacier in 2010 reported a maximum ice depth close to

30 m in the westernmost part of the lower glacier (unpublished report), suggesting that 1 large areas of this glacier may even disappear within the next few years. This process 2 may be accelerated by negative feedbacks such as the recent rise of rocky outcrops in 3 the middle of the glacier and the thin cover of debris, both of which may accelerate 4 glacier ablation by decreasing the albedo and increasing the emissivity of long-wave 5 <u>radiation</u>. The highly consistent spatial pattern of ice losses in the last 30 years suggests 6 7 that the western-most part of this glacier will disappear first; the eastern-most part will 8 survive as a small residual ice mass because of greater snow accumulation during positive years and a lower rate of degradation. When the glacier is restricted to this 9 10 smaller area, it is likely that its rate of shrinkage will decrease, as observed for other Pyrenean glaciers (López-Moreno et al., 2006). 11 12 The future long-term monitoring of the Monte Perdido Glacier is likely to provide 13 important information on the year-to-year response of the mass balance of this glacier to a wide variety of climatic conditions, and will allow detailed analysis of the role of 14 positive and negative feedbacks in this much deteriorated glacier. Thus, study of this 15 glacier may serve as a model for studies of the evolution of glaciers in other regions of 16 17 the world that have similar characteristics now and in the future. 18 Con formato: Interlineado: Doble Acknowledgements 19 Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Times New Roman This study was funded by two research grants: "CGL2014-52599-P, Estudio del manto 20 Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Times New Roman 21 de nieve en la montaña española, y su respuesta a la variabilidad y cambio climatico" (Ministry of Economy and Competitivity), and "El glaciar de Monte Perdido: estudio 22

de su dinámica actual y procesos criosféricos asociados como indicadores de procesos

- 2 staff of the Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park during our field campaigns.

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Figure captions

1

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- 2 Figure 1. Monte Perdido study area and extent of ice cover at the end of the Little Ice
- Age (according to the map of Schrader [1874]) and in 2008. Red square marks the
- 4 scanning positions, numbered points indicate the position of the fixed targets used for
- 5 georeferencing and merging the different clouds of points.
- 6 Figure 2. Interannual fluctuations and overall trends (straight lines) of minimum and
- 7 maximum air temperatures during the accumulation and ablation periods, precipitation
- 8 during the accumulation period, and maximum snow depth during April based on data
- 9 from the Goriz meteorological station (1983 to 2014). Boxplots at the right of each
- panel show the interannual variability during the most recent 3 years (2011/12, 2012/13,
- and 2013/14) when terrestrial laser scanning measurements were available. Box: 25th
- and 75th percentiles, bars: 10th and 90th percentiles, dots: 5th and 95th percentiles,
- 13 black line: median, red line: average.
- Figure 3. Photographs of the Monte Perdido Glacier during the late summer of $198\underline{10}$
- 15 and 2011.
- 16 Figure 4. Changes in ice thickness glacier elevation in the upper and lower Monte
- 17 Perdido Glacier from 1981 to 1999 and from 1999 to 2010 based on comparison of
- 18 DEMs.
- 19 **Figure 5.** Changes in ice thickness glacier elevation based on terrestrial laser scanning
- 20 | from September of 2011 to 2012 (Fig. 5A), 2012 to 2013 (Fig 5B), 2013 to 2014 (Fig.
- 21 | 5C), and 2011 to 2014 (Fig. 5D).
- 22 **Figure 6.** Changes in ice thicknessglacier elevation over the whole glacier, lower
- 23 glacier, and upper glacier for the same 4 time periods examined in Figure 5. Box: 25th

and 75th percentiles, black line: median, red line: average, bars: 10th and 90th percentiles, dots: 5th and 95th percentiles.

Table 2. Tau-b values of the trends for the period 1983-2013 for temperature and precipitation in the analyzed stations. Asterisks indicate statistically significant trends (p<0.05). Bold numbers inform of statistically significant differences in the medians of the period 1982-1999 and 1999-2010 according to the Mann-Whitney test.

	<u>Aragnouet</u>		<u>Canfranc</u>			<u>Mediano</u>		<u>Pineta</u>	<u>Góriz</u>			
	<u>Tmx</u>	<u>Tmn</u>	<u>Precip</u>	<u>Tmx</u>	<u>Tmn</u>	<u>Precip</u>	<u>Tmx</u>	<u>Tmn</u>	<u>Precip</u>	<u>Tmx</u>	<u>Tmn</u>	<u>Precip</u>
<u>January</u>	<u>80.0</u>	0.02	0.04	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>-0.13</u>	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.07	0.11	0.02
<u>February</u>	0.04	0.06	0.02	<u>0.05</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.08</u>	0.03	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>.39*</u>	0.04	0.02	0.00
<u>March</u>	<u>0.11</u>	<u>0.11</u>	0.14	<u>0.03</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	0.26	<u>-0.02</u>	0.03	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.02</u>	0.06	0.20
<u>April</u>	0.28*	0.25	0.08	<u>0.24</u>	0.19	<u>-0.15</u>	0.02	0.12	0.02	<u>0.15</u>	0.21	<u>-0.17</u>
<u>May</u>	0.23	0.24	0.31*	<u>0.3*</u>	0.18	0.14	<u>-0.01</u>	0.04	<u>0.12</u>	0.34*	0.33*	0.27
<u>June</u>	0.28*	0.31*	0.14	<u>0.35*</u>	0.47*	0.04	0.09	<u>-0.05</u>	0.10	<u>.316*</u>	0.25*	<u>-0.05</u>
<u>July</u>	<u>-0.12</u>	0.06	0.13	<u>0.11</u>	0.15	0.16	<u>-0.07</u>	<u>-0.21</u>	<u>0.15</u>	<u>-0.07</u>	<u>-0.05</u>	<u>-0.11</u>
<u>August</u>	0.07	0.13	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	0.01	0.03	<u>-0.12</u>	<u>-0.25</u>	0.32	0.10	0.07	<u>-0.02</u>
<u>September</u>	<u>0.05</u>	0.05	0.02	<u>-0.06</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	0.10	<u>-0.18</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	0.10	<u>0.01</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	0.04
<u>October</u>	<u>0.08</u>	0.19	0.19	<u>0.06</u>	0.04	0.14	0.04	<u>-0.14</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>0.01</u>	0.04	0.11
<u>November</u>	<u>-0.06</u>	<u>-0.06</u>	0.18	<u>-0.18</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	0.10	<u>-0.08</u>	<u>-0.3*</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.11</u>	<u>-0.09</u>	0.00
<u>December</u>	<u>-0.15</u>	<u>-0.10</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>-0.37*</u>	<u>-0.42*</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>-0.25</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>0.13</u>	<u>-0.27*</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>-0.06</u>
Accumulation period	0.10	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.11	<u>0.01</u>	<u>-0.22</u>	-0.22	0.00	0.06	0.15	0.05
Ablation period	0.10	0.10		<u>0.17</u>	0.11		<u>-0.26</u>	<u>-0.26</u>		0.13	0.12	

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Table 21. Surface area (ha), loss of surface area (ha), and annual rate of surface area

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loss (ha yr⁻¹) of the Monte Perdido Glacier.

A	Surface Area			Loss of Su	ırface Area		Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
	1981	1999	2006	1981-1999	1999-2006	•	Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
							Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
	8.3 ± 0.3	6.8 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.2				
Upper glacier (ha)				1.5±0.06	2±0.09		Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
	6	9	1				Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
	40.1±1.	37.1±1.	33.7±1.				
Lower glacier (ha)				3±0.13	3.4±0.15	•	Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
	76	63	48				Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
	48.4±2.	43.9±1.	38.5±1.	4.5±0.19	5.4±0.24		
Entire glacier (ha)						•	Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
	12	93	69				Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
Entire glacier (ha						•	Con formato: Fuente: 12 pto
1.				0.25±0.01	0.77±0.23		Con formato: Interlineado: Doble
yr ⁻¹)							
						4	Con formato: Interlineado: Doble

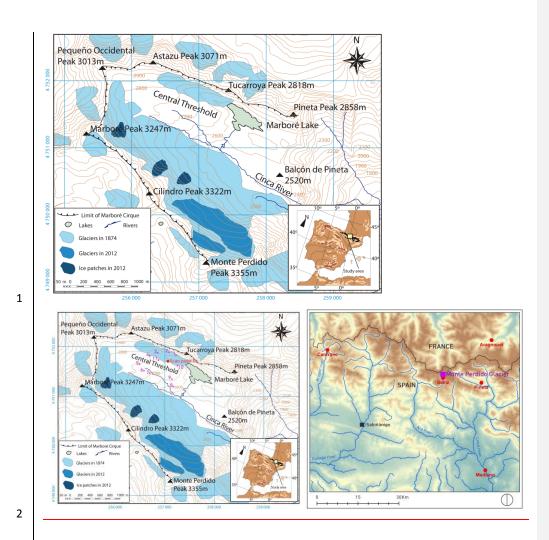


Figure 1.

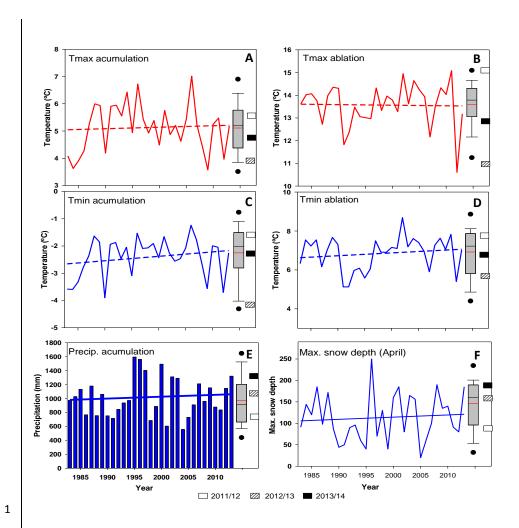


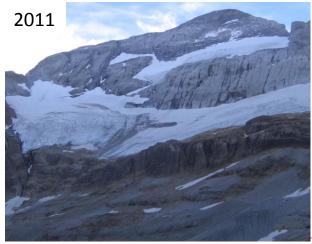
Figure 2.

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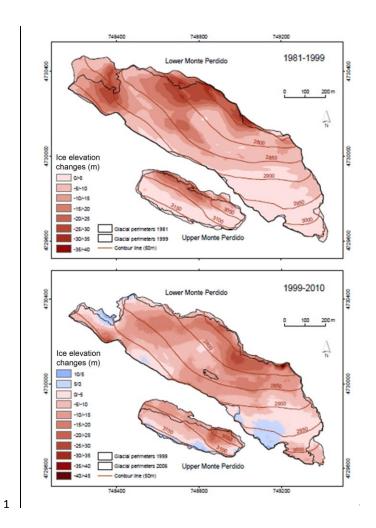








2 Figure 3.



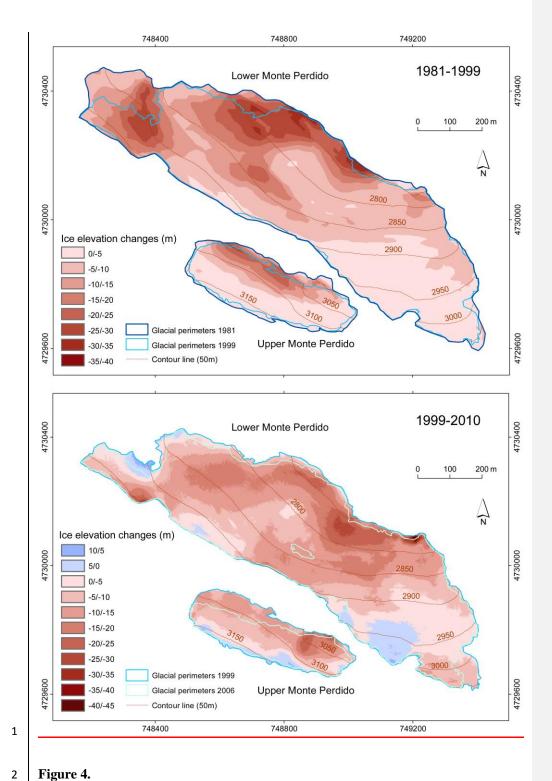
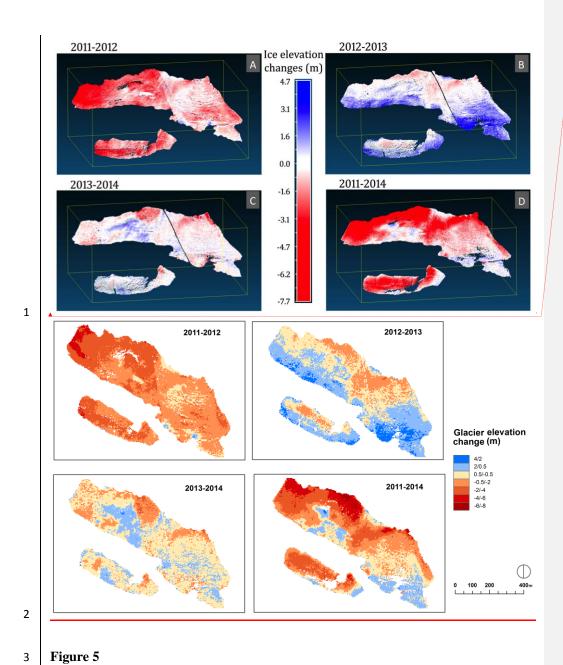


Figure 4.



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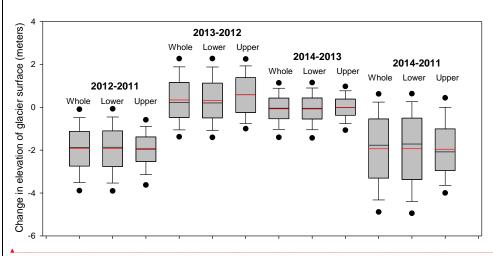


Figure 6

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