Authors response to Editor, Dr. Chris R. Stokes

"Strong acceleration of glacier area loss in the Greater Caucasus over the past two decades"

by L. G. Tielidze, et al.
The Cryosphere Discuss.,
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Dear editor **Dr. Chris R. Stokes**,

We would like to once again thank you for your time and recommendation to publish subject to some very minor technical corrections.

Please see our response to your latest comment below and the final manuscript as a separate document.

All corrections and changes we did in the text are marked in green.

Also, please note that I have added my new Georgian affiliation on the first page, and this is the only correction I have made besides your comments. I hope this looks fine to you.

Levan Tielidze on behalf of all co-authors

Comments to the author:

Dear Levan,

Thank you for submitting your revised manuscript and I apologise for the delay in processing, due to the holiday period. I'm delighted to recommend publication subject to some very minor technical corrections that I spotted amongst the revisions, as follows:

Thank you for your decision.

Line 68: "such as THE Global Land Ice Measurements from Space...."

Done. P2 L69

Line 71 could be simplified to: "The year 2000 inventory was compiled following the demand for creating improved glacier outlines as close as possible to that year for version 7 of the RGI. It was created because satellite images with the required quality were..."

Done. P2 L72-74

Fig. 10 caption: "Data.... WERE taken from..."

Done. P13 L313

Line 370: place citation in parentheses

Done. P17 L381

Line 383: "in contrast TO a decreasing trend..."

Done. P17 L394

My own opinion is that Figure S2 is very useful and informative and could easily be dropped into the main manuscript, but I leave that decision entirely up to you.

Special thanks for this suggestion. We moved Figure S2 into the manuscript. Please see P15 Figure 12. L354-357

Strong acceleration of glacier area loss in the Greater Caucasus over the past two decades

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Abstract

An updated glacier inventory is important for understanding glacier behavior given the accelerating glacier retreat observed around the world. Here, we present data from new glacier inventory at two time periods (2000, 2020) covering the entire Greater Caucasus (Georgia, Russia, and Azerbaijan). Satellite imagery (Landsat, Sentinel, SPOT) was used to conduct a remote-sensing survey of glacier change. The 30 m resolution Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer Global Digital Elevation Model (ASTER GDEM; 17 November 2011) was used to determine aspect, slope and elevations, for all glaciers. Glacier margins were mapped manually and reveal that in 2000 the mountain range contained 2186 glaciers with a total glacier area of $1381.5\pm58.2\,km^2$. By 2020, the area had decreased to $1060.9\pm33.6\,km^2$ a reduction of $23.2\pm3.8\%$ ($320.6\pm45.9\,km^2$) or $-1.16\%\,yr^{-1}$ over the last twenty years in the Greater Caucasus. Of the 2223 glaciers, fourteen have an area $>10\,km^2$ resulting the $221.9\,km^2$ or 20.9% of total glacier area in 2020. The Bezingi Glacier with an area of $39.4\pm0.9\,km^2$ was the largest glacier mapped in 2020 database. Glaciers between $1.0\,km^2$ and $5.0\,km^2$ account for $478.1\,km^2$ or 34.6% in total area in 2000, while it account for $354.0\,km^2$ or 33.4% in total area in 2020. The rates of area shrinkage and mean elevation vary between the northern and southern and between the western, central, and eastern Greater Caucasus. Area shrinkage is significantly stronger in the eastern Greater Caucasus ($-1.82\%\,yr^{-1}$), where most glaciers are very small. The observed increased summer temperatures and decreased winter precipitation along with increased Saharan dust deposition might be responsible for the predominantly negative mass balances of Djankuat and Garabashi glaciers with long-term measurements. Both glacier inventories are available from the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) database and can be used for future studies.

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Keywords: Glacier inventory, Greater Caucasus, Area change, Glacier mapping

1. Introduction

Glaciers are retreating and losing mass in most regions of the world, largely in response to the ongoing atmospheric warming (Hock et al., 2019; Zemp et al., 2019; Hugonnet et al., 2021). This knowledge can only be obtained when a baseline dataset (a glacier inventory) is available to calculate glacier-specific information. Complete and accurate glacier inventories also provide the information required for various hydrological and climate modelling applications (Vaughan et al., 2013) as well as change assessment. Accordingly, a frequent update of glacier inventories is required to reduce uncertainties in subsequent calculations (Paul et al., 2020). Updated glacier inventories are also critical to outline environmental policies for glacier protection and monitoring programs, as well as for developing mitigation and adaptation strategies in response to the impact of climate changes on future glacier development (Pfeffer et al., 2014; Huss et al., 2017).

Glaciers are an important source of fresh water in countries of the Caucasus region and runoff in large glacier-fed rivers supplies several hydroelectric power stations. They are also important reservoirs of water for the population living downstream, often providing meltwater during seasonal droughts. Furthermore, glaciers play a significant role in the economy of the Caucasus countries as a major tourist attraction with thousands of visitors each year. Finally, they are the source or contribute to severe natural hazards in this region (complete detachment of ice and rock, glacier surging, glacier lake outburst floods) (Evans et al., 2009; Chernomorets et al., 2017; Tielidze et al., 2019), requiring a good understanding of related processes to reduce the impact of future events on human well being. Thus, the comprehensive study of the Caucasus glaciers is crucial for the scientific study of climate change impacts but also for societal applications or sustainable regional development.

Glaciers of the Greater Caucasus started decreasing from their Little Ice Age (LIA) maximum extent in the first half of 19th century (Solomina, 2016; Tielidze et al., 2020a), reaching the highest decrease rates (~0.5% yr^{-1}) over the past decades (Shahgedanova et al., 2014; Tielidze and Wheate, 2018). Assessment of glacier changes in this region is baseline data for glacier-specific calculations, such as mass balance, thickness, and future evolution. A continued decrease of Caucasus glaciers could also lead to considerable changes in glacier runoff, with implications for regional water resources. Therefore, continued glacier inventorying across this region is essential. This will also potentially reduce the uncertainties for further climatic and hydrological modeling in this region as consistent multi-temporal glacier outlines are a key input for calibration and/or validation of glacier evolution models.

In this study we present two new glacier inventories (from 2000 and 2020) for the Greater Caucasus region derived from multi-temporal optical satellite images (Landsat, Sentinel-2, SPOT 6/7) in combination with digital elevation models (DEMs) along with the observed changes. We also compare the new inventories with those already available from public databases such as the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) and version 6 of the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGIv6) and highlight the related improvements.

The year 2000 inventory was compiled following the demand for creating improved glacier outlines as close as possible to that year for version 7 of the RGI. It was created because satellite images with the required quality were available from Landsat 5 and 7. The year 2020 inventory was created to also test the improved quality of the 10 m resolution Sentinel-2 data and compare results against even higher resolution data from SPOT6/7 and Google Earth.

2. Study area

2.1 General characteristics

The Greater Caucasus mountain range is situated between the Black and Caspian seas and stretching for about 1300 km from west–northwest to east–southeast. Its width is ranging from 30 to 180 km the average elevation for its western, central, and eastern sectors is 3200, 4100 and 3700 m, respectively with the highest point being Mt. Elbrus (5642 m). The highest central sector is situated between Mt. Elbrus and Mt. Kazbegi (5047 m) with at least five other peaks exceeding 5000 m a.s.l. (Figure 1). Almost 70% of the Caucasus glaciers are situated in the central section. About 13.4% of the surface area of 659 glaciers was covered by debris in 2014 (Tielidze et al., 2020b).
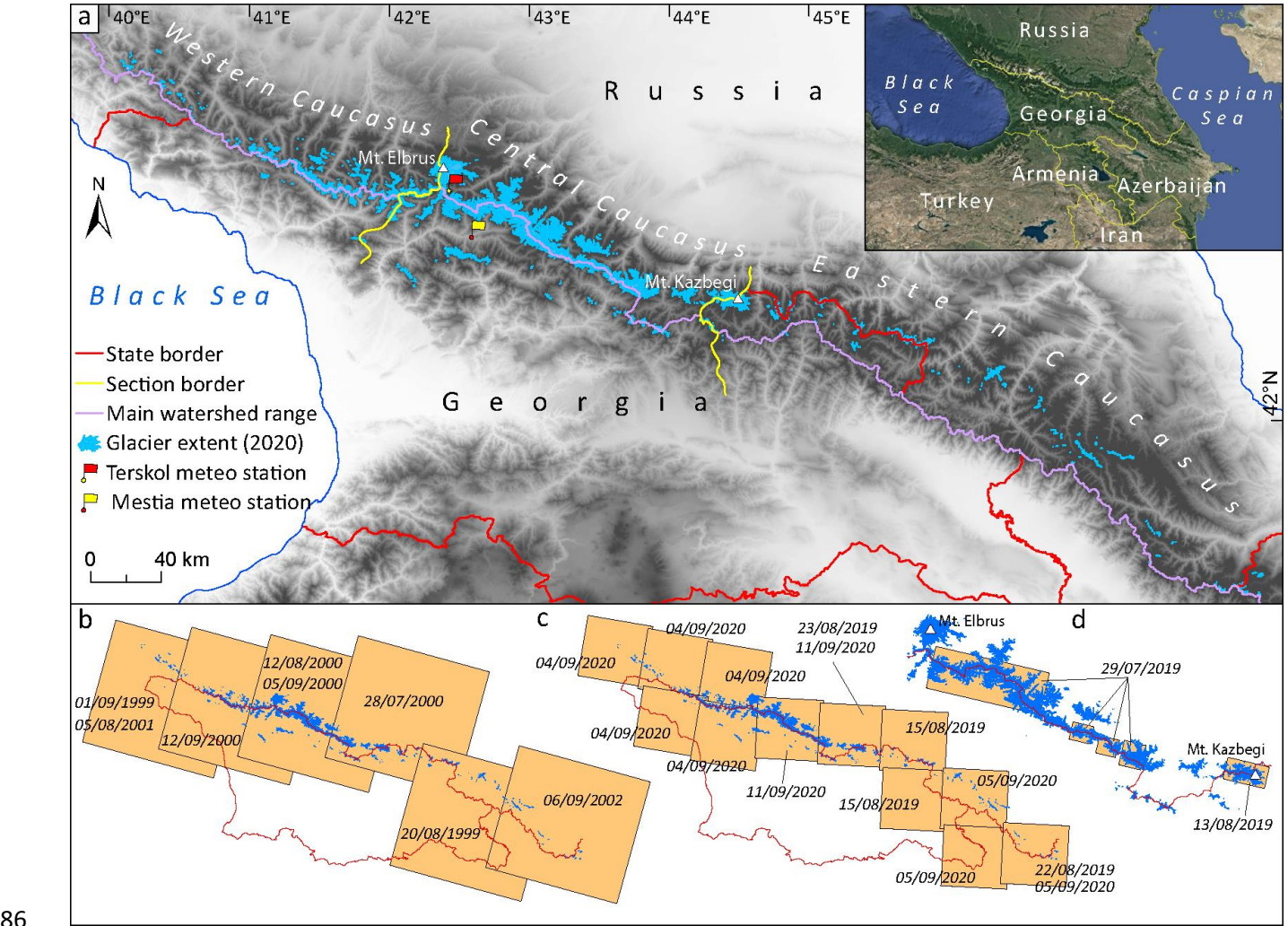
Figure 1*. (a) The extent of modern glaciers in the Greater Caucasus. (b) Landsat 5 TM and Landsat 7 ETM+ satellite scenes from 1999-2002. (c) Sentinel-2 satellite scenes from 2019-2020. (d) SPOT 6-7 satellite scenes from 2019. The insert map in the upper right shows the location of the Caucasus region (© Google Earth).*

The Greater Caucasus is in the path of the Mediterranean and Atlantic cyclones, which carry moisture from the west and southwest. The maximum amount of precipitation falls in the southern slope of the western region with annual precipitation of about 3200 mm. This amount declines to 2000 mm in the central section and to 1000 mm in the eastern part (Volodicheva, 2002). The mean annual temperatures at the southern slopes are usually 1–2 °C higher than those in the north (Tielidze and Wheate, 2018). At the

95 mean elevation of glaciers (around 3400 m a.s..l) they are around −5.0 °C (Kutuzov et al., 2016; Tielidze,
96 2016). The average regional lapse rate has a maximum in summer (−5.2 °C per km) and a minimum in
97 winter (−2.3 °C per km) (Kozachek et al., 2017).

98

99 **2.2 Previous studies**

100 The Caucasus is one of the most studied glacierized regions in the world. The first information about
101 glaciers date back to the 18th and 19th centuries (Kotlyakov et al., 2015; Tielidze, 2016). The first
102 inventory of the Caucasus glaciers was published at the beginning of the 20th century (Podozerskiy,
103 1911). This was the result of the compilation of a topographic map, which was carried out by military
104 topographers from 1881 to 1910 (1329 glaciers, with a total area of 1967.4 km^2). Based on the same maps
105 and in situ measurement Reinhardt (1916) determined a summer snowline elevation at ∼ 3100 m a.s.l. in
106 Georgian Caucasus.

107 The second inventory of the Caucasus glaciers was initiated within the framework of the International
108 Hydrological Decade (1965-1975) (Catalog of Glaciers of the USSR, 1967-1978; Vinogadov et al.,
109 1978). This inventory was created based on aerial photographs from 1955-1960, topographic maps from
110 1960s, and data from field observations. The inventory does not contain digital outlines of glaciers but
111 includes only tables with glacier parameters (2002 glaciers, with a total area of 1421.78 km^2). Based on
112 the same aerial imagery and topographic maps the elevation of summer snowline increased from about
113 2600 m a.s.l. (western section) to 3600 m a.s.l. (eastern section). On the Elbrus Massif the snowline
114 reached at 3800 m a.s.l. (World Atlas of Snow and Ice Resources, 1977). At the same time, the snowline
115 for the Georgian Caucasus was measured at ∼3270 m a.s.l., with the highest values (∼3470 m a.s.l.) in
116 the eastern Georgian Caucasus (Gobejishvili, 1995; Tielidze, 2017).

117 The state of the Caucasus glaciers was determined within the framework of the Global Land Ice
118 Measurements from Space (GLIMS) project using the ASTER and Landsat (1999-2004) satellite images
119 (Khromova et al., 2016). The number and area of glaciers was calculated only for 21 river basins (out of
120 53) and an incomplete but first digital database was created for the southern and northern slopes of the
121 Greater Caucasus (1706 glaciers, with a total area of 1174.52 km^2). This database was later also used for
122 version 6 of the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGIv6) that incorporated nominal glaciers (circles covering
123 an area equivalent to glacier size) in the eastern and western Caucasus sections (Tielidze and Wheate,
124 2018) from the World Glacier Inventory – Extended Format (WGI-XF; Cogley, 2009).

125 Recently, an updated and expanded glacier inventory covering the entire Greater Caucasus was compiled
126 by Tielidze and Wheate, (2018). The authors used large-scale topographic maps and satellite imagery
127 (Corona, Landsat 5, Landsat 8 and ASTER) to conduct a remote-sensing survey of glacier change at three
128 time periods (1960, 1986, 2014), with a total glacier area of 1193.2±54.0 km^2 in 2014.

129 **3. Data sources**

130 We processed eight Landsat 5 Thematic Mapper (TM) and Landsat 7 Enhanced Thematic Mapper Plus
131 (ETM+) scenes from 1999-2002 along with nine Sentinel-2 and five SPOT 6/7 scenes from 2019-2020 to
132 cover the entire study region in both periods (Figure 1, Table S1). In addition, high-resolution QuickBird
133 images (2019) superimposed upon the SRTM3 topography (Raup et al., 2014) were used through to the
134 Google Earth. All the Landsat and Sentinel scenes were downloaded from EarthExplorer

(http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov) (last access: November 2020), while the orthorectified high-resolution (spatial resolution 1.5 m) SPOT scenes were received from Azercosmos (https://azercosmos.az/). The Sentinel scenes served as a basis for glacier mapping, while the Google Earth and SPOT scenes were used for correction of glacier outlines and comparison of manually mapped glacier margins to those of Sentinel scenes from the same year (Figure 2) (see also Section 4.1). All images were acquired at the end of the ablation season, ranging from 28 July to 12 September, when glaciers were mostly free of seasonal snow under cloud-free conditions. In the case of local clouds, shadow or snow cover, a few additional scenes from the same period were used to correctly digitize glacier outlines.
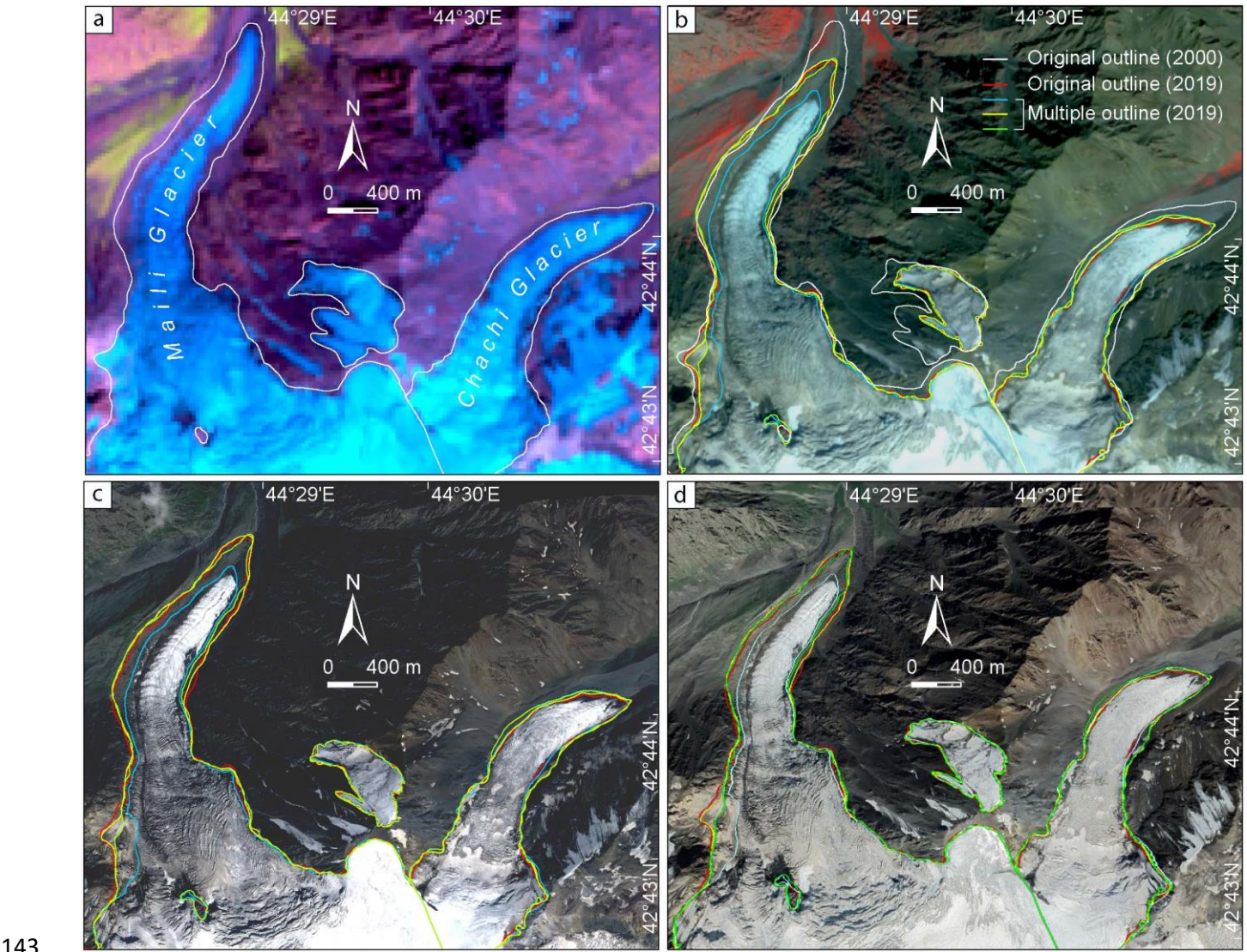
Figure 2. (a) Three glaciers shown on the Landsat scene (28.07.2000.), which were later selected for multiple digitizing. An example of multiple digitizing based on the imagery from same year - (b) Sentinel 23/08/2019, (c) SPOT 13/08/2019, (d) Google Earth 14/09/2019 (© Google Earth).

We used false-colour composites for each Landsat acquisition date, combining the shortwave infrared (SWIR), near infrared (NIR), and red bands as RGB. The panchromatic band (15 m resolution) from Landsat 7 ETM+ was also used for better identification of glacier extents. For Sentinel-2, the colour composites were created from 10 m resolution visible and near-infrared band composites, resulting in much higher quality outlines than those derived from the Landsat scenes. The 20 m resolution SWIR

band (11) was bilinearly resampled to 10 m resolution to obtain glacier outlines at this resolution automatically (e.g. Paul et al., 2020).

The ASTER Global Digital Elevation Model (GDEM, 17 November 2011) version 3 was used to determine topographic details such as aspect, slope, and elevation distribution of glaciers. The DEM was downloaded from NASA LP DAAC Collections (http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/).

4. Methods

4.1 Glacier mapping

Glacier boundaries have been manually delineated from our study area. This mapping method is well adopted for the Caucasus region (e.g. Shahgedanova et al., 2014; Tielidze, 2016; Tielidze and Wheate, 2018) despite some advantages of automated mapping method of clean ice (Paul et al., 2013). This decision was made due to the significant amount of debris-covered glaciers in this region (Tielidze et al., 2020b) as well as deep shadows where automated mapping often fails and manual corrections are required (Paul et al., 2013). Moreover, seasonal snow off glaciers was present in several scenes and instead of removing them after an automated classification they were just not digitized. We acknowledge that identification of such non-glacier snow patches was sometimes difficult and is a highly subjective process. As a guide, we excluded snow only features and those with a complex perimeter. This was facilitated by local experience and having the outlines of the previous glacier inventory (Tielidze and Wheate, 2018). The size of the smallest glacier included was finally restricted to 0.01 km^2. Glacier length was measured from changes of a centre line (Paul and Svoboda, 2009).

Estimation of the glacier mapping uncertainty is necessary to assess the significance of derived glacier changes and avoid misinterpretation of mapping. For this purpose, first we tested multiple digitization as a supplementary tool for uncertainty assessment of glacier margin identification (Paul et al., 2013). A sub-sample of three glaciers from high-resolution SPOT image with areas of 0.3–6.3 km^2 were re-digitized by three different operators. The selected glaciers included Maili (42°43'21"N, 44°28'36"E), Chachi (42°43'14"N, 44°30'20"E) and G044493E42730N (GLIMS ID) (42°43'41"N, 44°29'40"E). All outlines obtained from the SPOT image (13/08/2019), along with original (basic) outlines obtained from the Sentinel image (23/08/2019), were then exported to Google Earth (14/09/2019) for comparison and visual inspection (Figure 2b-d). The uncertainty for two debris-free glaciers (Chachi and G044493E42730N) based on normalized standard deviation (NSD – delineations by multiple digitalization divided by the mean glacier area for all outlines) was small at 1.8% while the one debris-covered glacier (Maili) shoved much higher error at 5.1%. The average uncertainty between the two datasets was calculated as 3.5%. A similar approach was used for glaciers ranging from 0.4 to 6.1 km^2 from the Landsat imagery. The selected glaciers included Kirtisho (42°49'52"N, 43°35'37"E), Bartuy (42°49'54"N, 43°37'33"E), Khvargula (42°48'12"N, 43°37'29"E) and four relatively small neighbor glaciers. The mapping uncertainty for debris-free glaciers was 2.1%, while it was 6.7% for debris-covered glaciers and 4.4% for all glaciers of this sample (Figure 3).

We used the buffer method as a further tool of uncertainty estimation for the entire Greater Caucasus. Buffer drawn around the glacier outlines using ArcGIS 10.6.1 Software, as suggested by Granshaw and Fountain (2006). For the images of 2020 we used a buffer equal to the resolution of the Sentinel scenes (10 m) and a half pixel size buffer (15 m) for the glacier outlines derived from Landsat images 2000. The

selected buffer size for Landsat scenes is based on a recent study from Caucasus region (Tielidze et al., 2020b) while the Sentinel buffer was selected based on a study from European Alps (Paul et al., 2020). We assume that the larger buffer should be used for debris-covered parts of the glaciers, due to their higher uncertainty (Tielidze et al., 2020b). Although, we did not enforce this here, as the related calculations are computationally difficult and challenging (Mölg et al., 2018), and would still not reflect the real problem in debris identification (cf. Paul et al., 2020). Instead, we used buffer with a size of two-pixel for debris-covered glaciers (e.g. Frey et al., 2012) resulting an upper-bound value of the uncertainty (Paul et al., 2020) (Figure 3). Overall, the mapping uncertainty of the total glacier area were calculated as ± 33.6 km^2 or ($\pm 3.2\%$) for Sentinel data from 2020, which is comparable with our uncertainty estimate based on the multiple digitization method ($\pm 3.5\%$). For Landsat data from 2000 the buffer uncertainty was calculated as ± 58.2 km^2 or ($\pm 4.3\%$), again comparable with the multiple digitization method for Landsat imagery ($\pm 4.4\%$). It was explored that the larger glacier outlines had relatively small uncertainty than the small glaciers.
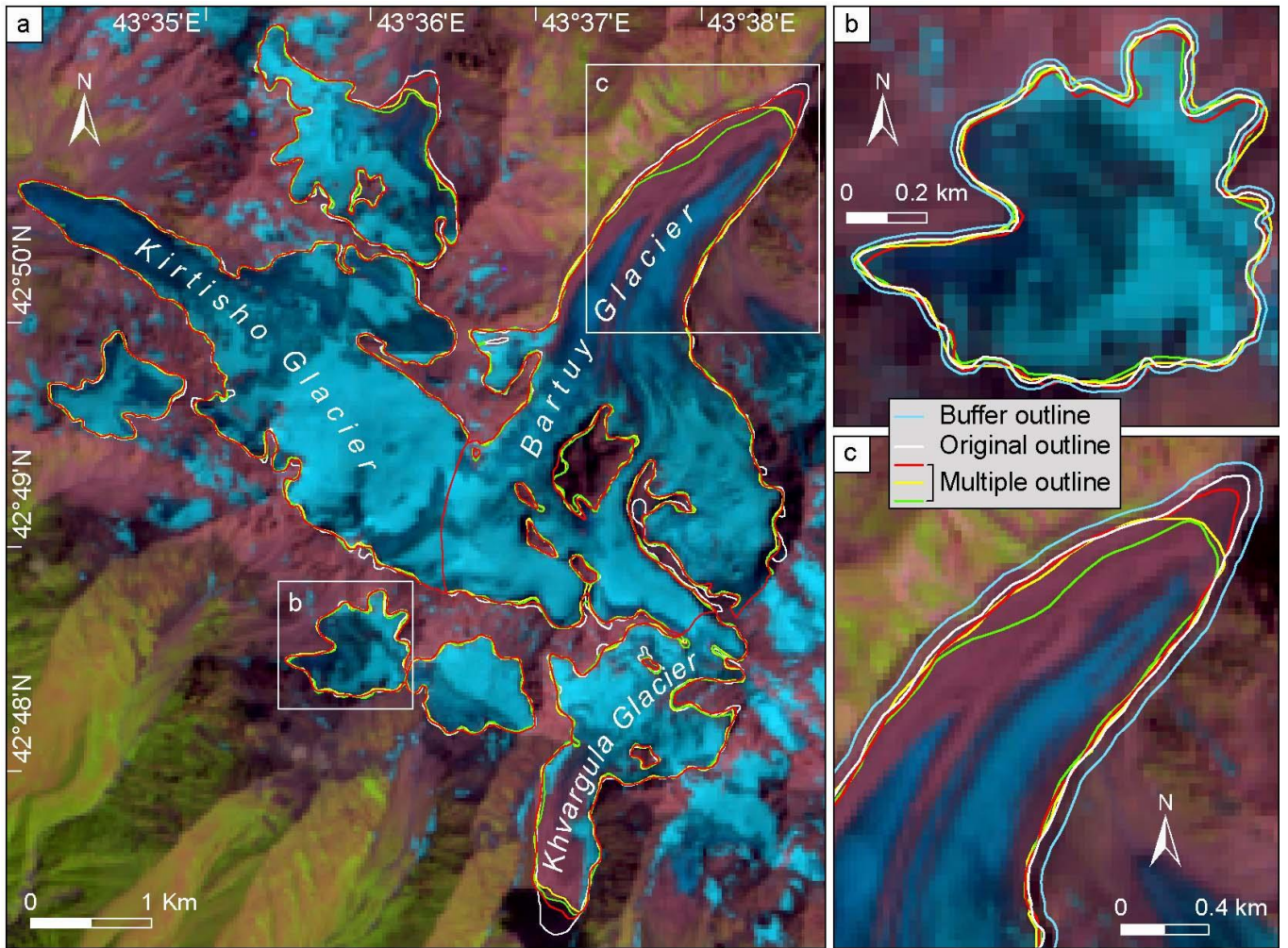
Figure 3. *(a) Selected glaciers for Multiple digitizing based on Landsat 5 TM scene (12/08/2000). (b) Manually mapped debris-free glacier outline with half-pixel (15 m) of buffer interval. (c) Manually mapped debris-covered glacier outline with two-pixel (60 m) of buffer interval (light blue).*

Other potential uncertainties were related to the interpretation and manual digitization of the glacier margins (e.g. seasonal snow, topographic shadows, and supraglacial debris). To reduce the effect of this

uncertainty, local knowledge and outlines from previous glacier inventory (Tielidze and Wheate, 2014) were used as a delineation reference source.

4.2 Terminus measurement

Changes in the glacier terminus are a delayed and filtered response to changes in climate and are thus widely used to demonstrate climate change impacts for a large public (Lea et al., 2014). Their interpretation in climatic terms is, however, challenging as glacier specific characteristics (e.g. response times) have to be considered (Oerlemans 2005). Front variation measurements were conducted by intersecting the glacier outlines for each date with the centre lines. Additionally, we measured the elevations of the point at the intersection to determine the change in elevation of the glacier fronts. Length change uncertainties for the related glaciers were calculated according to source image resolution following Hall et al. (2003).

5. Results

5.1 Glacier Inventory 2000

Based on Landsat data from 2000 we have identified and mapped 2186 glaciers larger than 0.01 km^2 with a total area of 1381.5±58.2 km^2 from 53 river basins in the Greater Caucasus (Table S2). From this, 931.6±37.7 km^2 or 67.4% of the total glacier area was found in Russia, 446.6±19.9 km^2 or 32.3% in Georgia, and 3.4±0.3 km^2 or 0.3% in Azerbaijan (Table 1). The mean glacier size for entire mountain region was 0.63 km^2 and the glacier size class 1.0-5.0 km^2 dominated with a total area of 478.1 km^2 (Figure 4a), which is 34.6% of the total by area. The glacier size class 0.1-0.5 km^2 was on the first place for the counting by number (837 glaciers) in 2000 (Table 2, Figure 4b). The pattern of size classes was different in the western Greater Caucasus compared to those in the central and eastern parts. The mean elevation of the glaciers was ranging from 3300 m a.s.l. (southern slope) to 3480 m a.s.l. (northern slope), with an average of 3430 m a.s.l. (Figure 5). The number distribution by aspect showed that the glaciers were predominantly oriented towards north-west (538 glaciers) while according to the area, the majority of the glaciers oriented north-east (330.4 km^2) (Figure 6).

Table 1. *The Greater Caucasus glacier count and area change in 2000–2020 by countries.*

Countries	Landsat 5-7, 1999-2002		Sentinel, 2019–2020		Area decrease 2000–2020	
	Count	Area km^2	Count	Area km^2	(%)	(% yr^{-1})
Russia	1358	931.6±37.7	1388	719.4±22.9	22.8	1.14
Georgia	804	446.6±19.9	821	340.8±11.2	23.7	1.19
Azerbaijan	24	3.4±0.3	14	0.8±0.04	76.5	3.83
Total	**2186**	**1381.5±58.2**	**2223**	**1060.9±33.6**	**23.2**	**1.16**

Table 2. *Cumulative glacier area and count change for seven size classes in the Greater Caucasus by slopes and sections in 2000-2020. Bold italic numbers indicate the initial size class of glaciers in 2020 to fairly determine the decrease in area per size class between 2000 and 2020, while the other numbers show the absolute glacier area and count in 2020 by same size classes (see also Figure 9).*

Size class (km²)	Western					Central					Eastern				
	Area (km²)			Count		Area (km²)			Count		Area (km²)			Count	
	2000	2020		2000	2020	2000	2020		2000	2020	2000	2020		2000	2020
0.01-0.05	5.4	*1.9*	9.2	173	354	6.3	*2.9*	9.9	185	379	2.0	*0.5*	2.2	58	81
0.05-0.1	11.8	*5.8*	10.4	163	148	15.0	*7.4*	14.3	211	198	6.9	*1.5*	4.7	96	63
0.1-0.5	64.0	*38.0*	51.5	292	226	85.3	*49.8*	69.6	373	318	35.7	*15.2*	19.4	173	87
0.5-1.0	55.0	*39.9*	40.9	75	59	59.4	*40.6*	60.7	83	85	14.9	*8.9*	7.8	22	10
1.0-5.0	116.8	*89.7*	81.0	60	43	318.4	*248.5*	248.0	151	118	42.9	*32.8*	25.0	25	15
5.0-10.0	26.0	*23.0*	5.1	4	1	152.2	*133.2*	158.4	21	22	22.6	*20.8*	20.4	3	3
>10.0	0.0	*0.0*	0.0	0	0	340.9	*300.0*	221.9	19	14	0.0	*0.0*	0.0	0	0
Total	279.0	*198.1*	198.1	767	831	977.5	*782.8*	782.8	1043	1134	125.0	*79.5*	79.5	377	259

Size class (km²)	Northern					Southern					Entire Caucasus				
	Area (km²)			Count		Area (km²)			Count		Area (km²)			Count	
	2000	2020		2000	2020	2000	2020		2000	2020	2000	2020		2000	2020
0.01-0.05	9.0	*3.6*	13.6	282	541	4.7	*1.6*	7.7	134	262	13.7	*5.3*	21.3	416	813
0.05-0.1	22.7	*9.1*	18.8	315	262	11.0	*4.7*	10.7	155	147	33.7	*13.7*	29.5	470	409
0.1-0.5	125.4	*70.2*	98.9	568	439	59.5	*31.9*	41.7	269	192	184.9	*102.1*	140.6	837	631
0.5-1.0	86.1	*58.7*	73.6	121	104	43.2	*30.3*	35.9	59	50	129.3	*88.9*	109.5	180	154
1.0-5.0	345.4	*266.6*	246.0	170	128	132.7	*104.9*	108.0	66	48	478.1	*371.5*	354.0	236	176
5.0-10.0	159.9	*142.4*	128.6	22	19	41.0	*35.3*	55.6	6	7	200.9	*177.6*	184.2	28	26
>10.0	238.1	*211.3*	182.1	12	11	102.8	*90.6*	39.8	7	3	340.9	*302.0*	221.9	19	14
Total	986.6	*761.6*	761.6	1490	1504	394.9	*299.4*	299.4	696	709	1381.5	*1061.0*	1061.0	2186	2223

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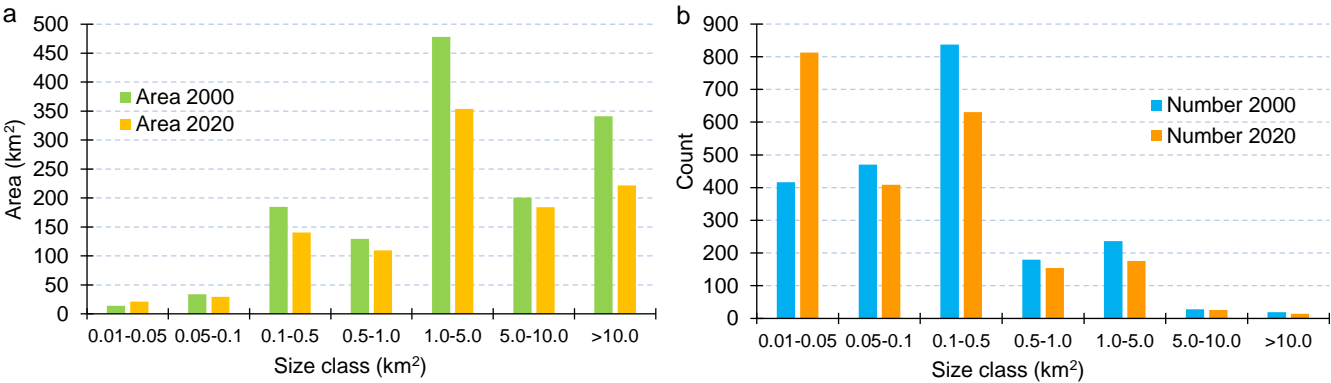
Figure 4. Relative frequency histograms for (a) glacier area and (b) count for the seven glacier size classes in the Greater Caucasus in 2000 and 2020.

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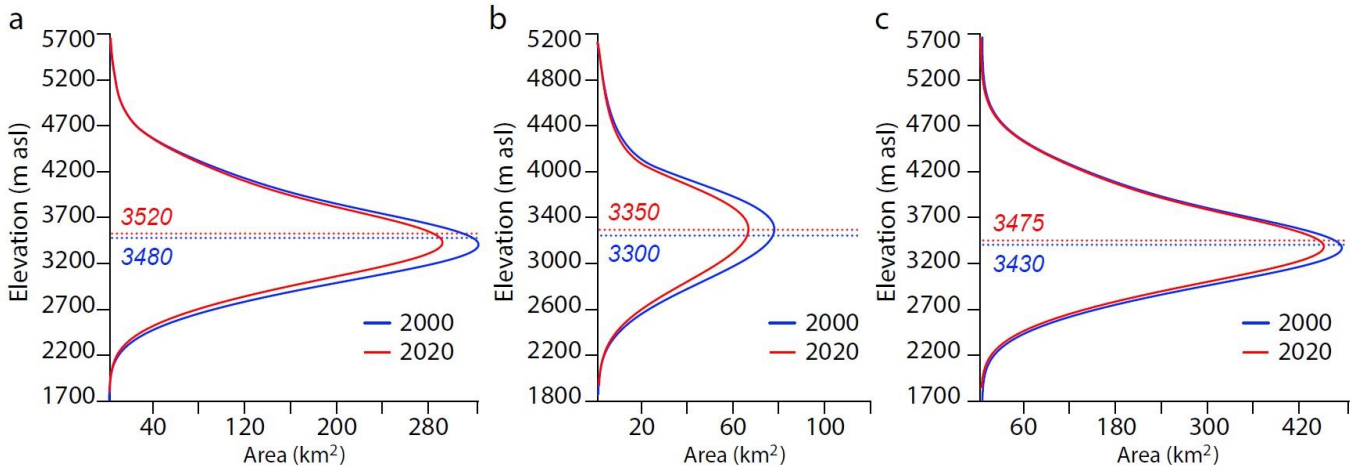
Figure 5. *The histogram of glacier area distribution along with mean elevation (dotted line) in 2000 and 2020 for (a) the northern, (b) the southern, and (c) the entire Greater Caucasus.*
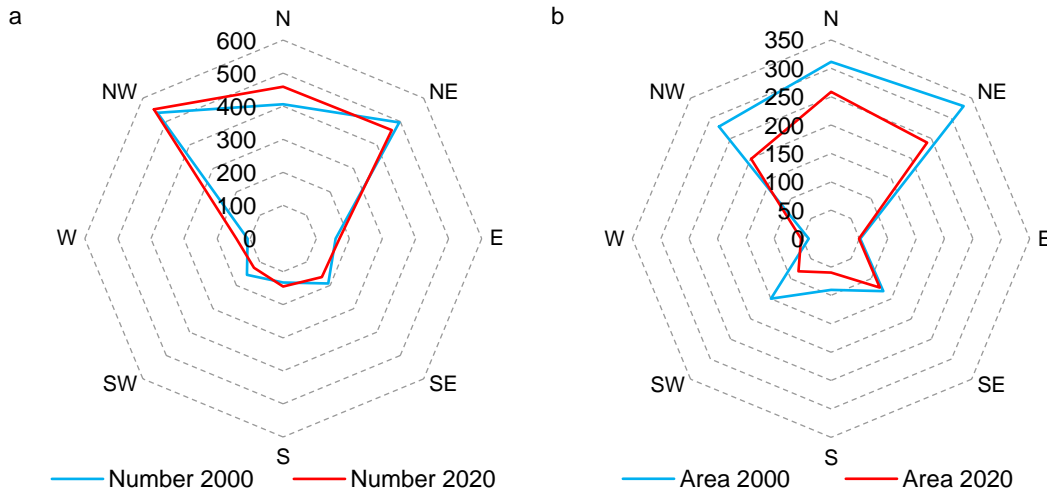
Figure 6. *Proportion of glacier aspect by (a) count and (b) area (km²) in 2000-2020.*

The total area of 20 glaciers from Elbrus Massif was mapped as 121.5±2.2 km² in 2000 (Figure S1). The three largest glaciers mapped from the Greater Caucasus based on Landsat imagery (2000) are Bezingi – 39.4±0.9 km² (43°2'47"N 43°4'0"E), Dykhsu – 33.6±0.9 km² (42°59'5"N 43°10'46"E) (Russia), and Lekhziri 32.8±0.9 km² (43°9'26"N 42°45'54"E) (Georgia).

5.2 Glacier Inventory 2020

Over the entire Greater Caucasus, the total glacier area mapped for 2020 is 1060.9±33.6 km² (2223 glaciers) (Table S2). From this, 719.4±22.9 km² (67.8%) of glacier area is found in Russia, 340.8±11.2 km² (32.1%) in Georgia, and 0.8±0.04 km² (0.1%) in Azerbaijan (Table 1). Very small glaciers (0.01-0.5) dominate in terms of total number (749 glaciers), but the vast majority of the glacier area belongs to medium or 1.0-5.0 km² (354.0 km²) and large or >10.0 km² glaciers (221.9 km²) (Table 2, Figure 4b).

The mean elevation of the glaciers was ranging from 3350 m a.s.l. (southern slope) to 3520 m a.s.l. (northern slope), with an average of 3475 m a.s.l. (Figure 5). Most of the glacier number (1476) and area (697 km²) in 2020 belongs to north-facing glaciers (mean aspects N, NW, and NE), while relative area and number of E and W exposed glaciers are very small (Figure 6).

The glacier termini are located around an average minimum elevation of 3159 m a.s.l while the average maximum elevation is 3561 m a.s.l. Consequently, large valley glaciers have lower termini, while smaller glaciers have higher snout positions. All other topographic parameters (e.g. maximum, minimum, and mean elevations) depend on morphological type, aspect, and size class of the individual glaciers. Figure 7a-b shows the glacier area distribution according to the maximum and minimum elevation and glacier aspect vs. mean elevation, while the colour-coded map at Figure 7c shows spatial distribution of mean elevation for glaciers larger than 0.1 km^2 in 2020.
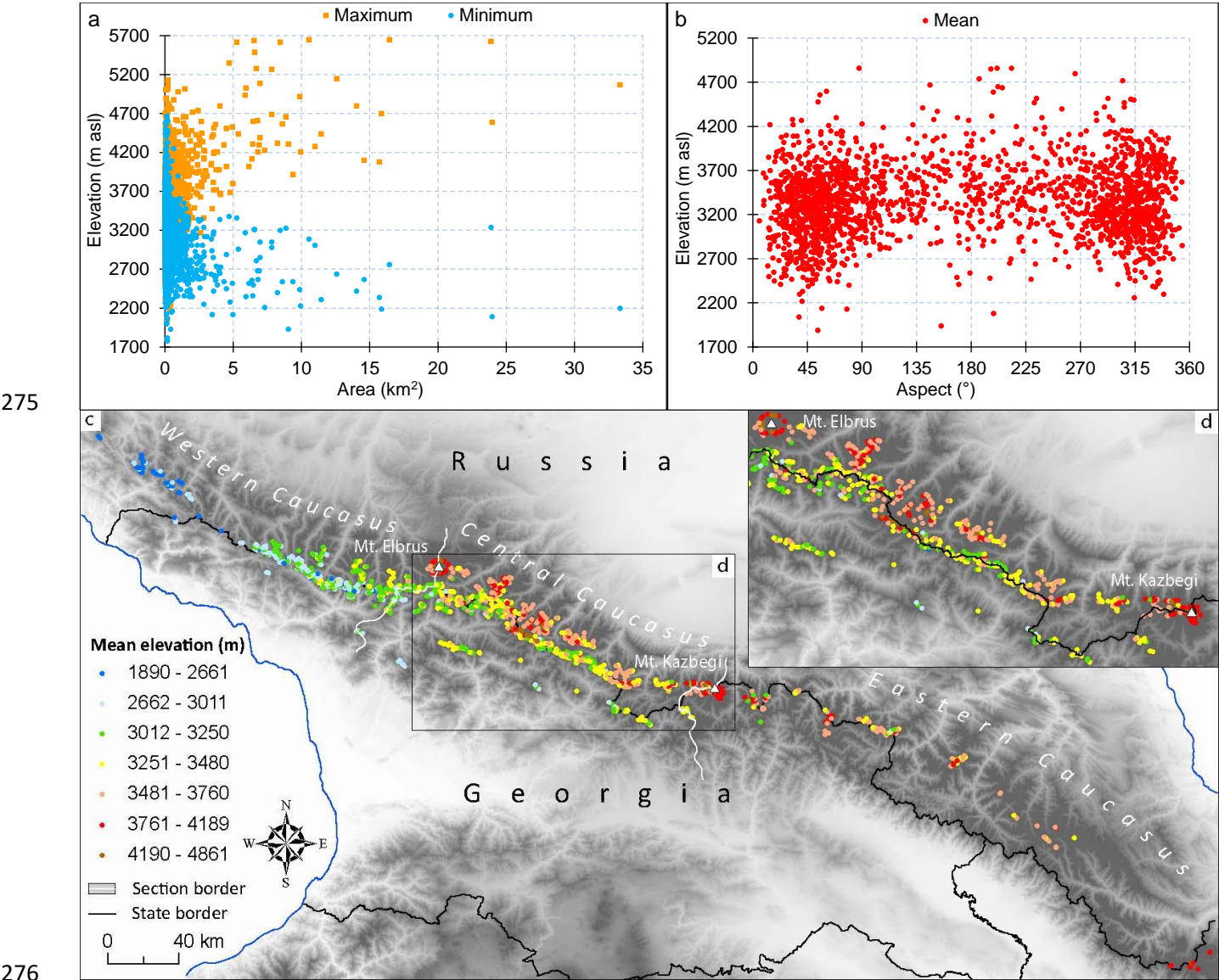
Figure 7. *(a) Glacier area vs. maximum and minimum elevation in 2020. (b) Glacier aspect vs. mean elevation in 2020. (c) Spatial distribution of mean elevation (colour-coded) for all glaciers in the Greater Caucasus larger than 0.1 km^2 in 2020. (d) Close view of the central part of the Greater Caucasus.*

In 2020, the Elbrus massif has a total glacier area of 107.7±1.6 km^2 (Figure S1). The three glaciers Bezingi (34.8±0.8 km^2), Karaugom (23.6±0.3 km^2), and Dzhikiugankez (19.4±0.2 km^2) are now the largest glaciers of the Greater Caucasus and are all located in Russia. Overall, there are fourteen glaciers >10 km^2 in the Greater Caucasus with total area of 221.9 km^2. Three glaciers are situated in Georgia and eleven in Russia.

5.3 Glacier change in 2000-2020

Results from our study on glacier area change indicate a significant decrease of the glaciers in the Greater Caucasus between 2000 and 2020 (Figure 8). The total ice area loss between these two periods was 320.6 ± 45.9 km^2 or 23.2 ± 3.8 % (-1.16 % yr^{-1}). The eastern part experienced the highest absolute decrease of -1.82% yr^{-1}, while the Elbrus Massif experienced the lowest rate of -0.57% yr^{-1}. Compared to other sub-regions, the western region had also somewhat higher change rates (-1.45% yr^{-1}). The Elbrus Massif has the largest glacier mean area, changing from 6.07 km^2 in 2000 to 3.98 km^2 in 2020.
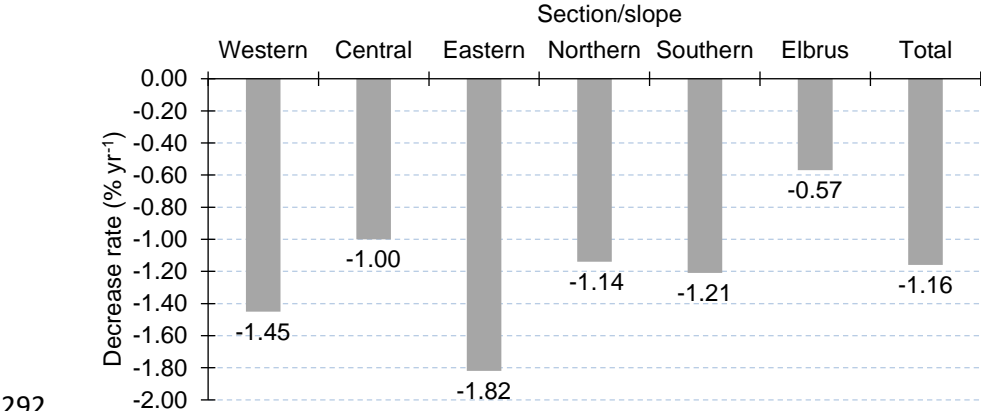
Figure 8*. Greater Caucasus glacier area decrease by sections and slopes in 2000-2020.*

The smallest size classes of glaciers (0.01 to 0.1 km^2) experienced the highest area loss rates across all regions with maximum rates in the eastern Greater Caucasus (Table 2, Figure 9). The 0.1-0.5 km^2 size class also experienced high area loss rates (up to -2.9% yr^{-1} in the eastern part). For the larger size classes (> 1.0 km^2) the loss rates are smaller and more similar. The difference in the loss rate between northern and southern slopes is not significant. Overall and similar to most other regions in the world, the observed relative area loss rates decrease towards larger glaciers.
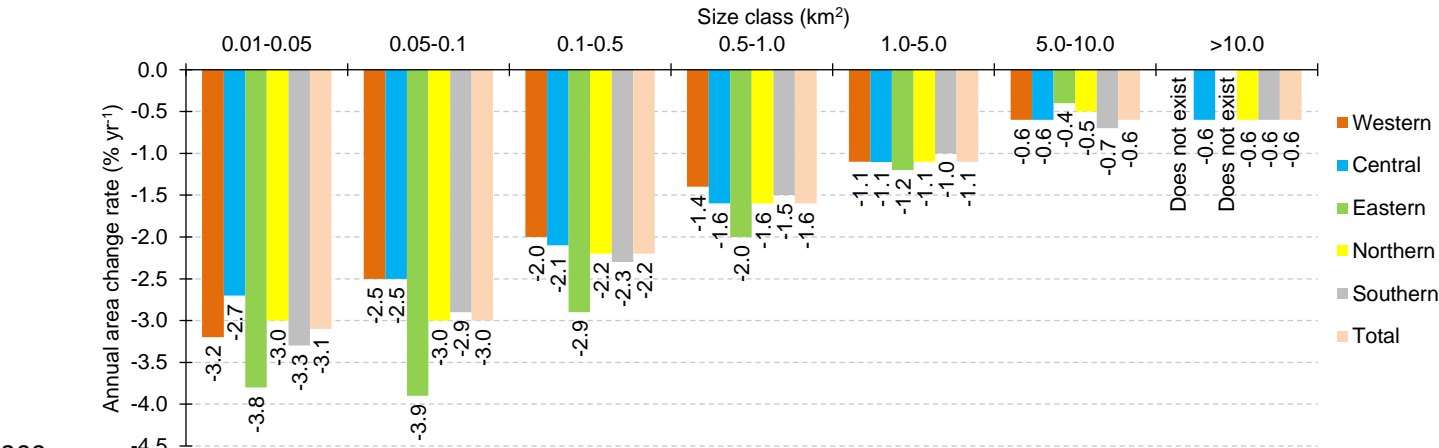
Figure 9*. Averaged annual area change rate (% yr^{-1}) from 2000 to 2020 for the seven glacier size classes in all sections and slopes of the Greater Caucasus.*

From sixteen selected glaciers (>1 km^2), the Lekhziri Glacier (43°9'26"N 42°45'54"E) experienced the highest absolute retreat (1395 m or 69.8 m yr^{-1}) between 2000 and 2020, when the annual retreat of Lekhziri Glacier was ~33 m in 1960-1986, and ~13 m in 1986-2000 (Figure 10a, Table S3). Relatively

306 small glaciers (1-5 km^2 and 5-10 km^2) also experienced higher terminus retreat over the last twenty years,
307 compared to previous time periods (Figure 10b, Table S3). The smallest retreat between 2000 and 2020
308 from the selected glaciers was observed for Dolra Glacier (43°10'10"N 42°31'29"E) with 178 m or 8.9 m
309 yr^{-1} (Table S3).

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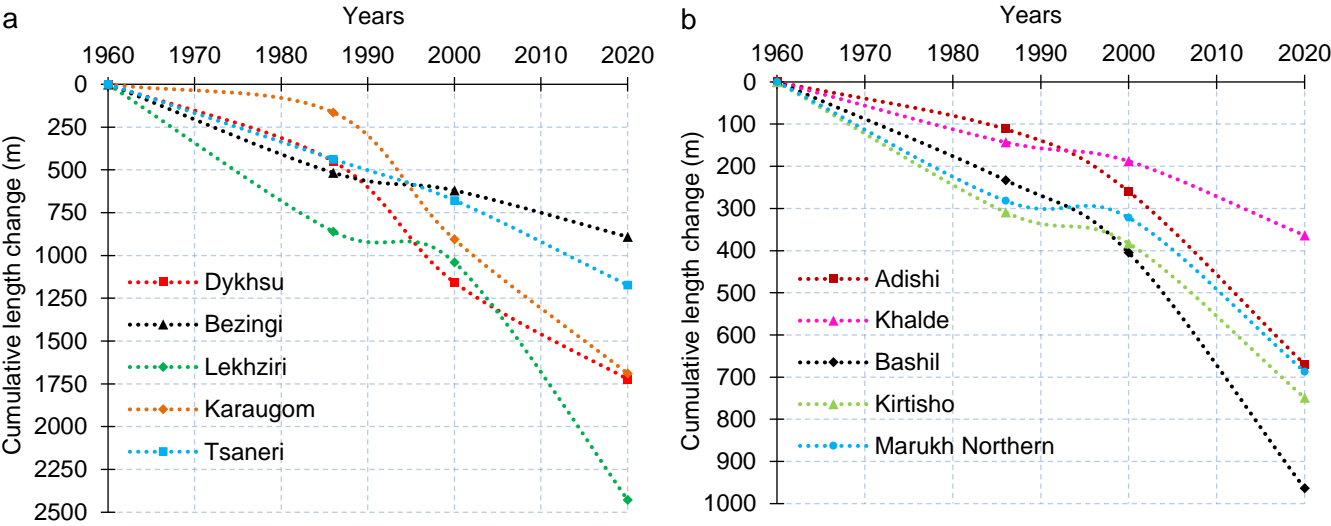
311 ***Figure 10***. *Comparison of cumulative curves of terminus changes in 1960-2020: (a) for glaciers with size class*
312 *(>10 km^2); (b) for glaciers with size class (5-10 km^2 and 1-5 km^2). In both panels the dotted lines only connect the*
313 *four measurement points. Data for 1960 and 1986 were taken from Tielidze and Wheate (2018).*

6. Discussion

6.1 Comparison with previous investigations

316 In comparison to previous studies, our analysis reveals that the overall decline in glacier extent between
317 2000 and 2020 in the Greater Caucasus is four times higher than it was between 1911 and 1960, three
318 times higher than it was between 1960 and 1986, and twice as high as it was from 1986 to 2000. An
319 unprecedentedly higher decline was observed over the last six years, between 2014 and 2020 (Table 3;
320 Figure 11, 12). Hence, our century-long comparison showed a clear decrease in glacier area in entire
321 region, which became much more pronounced over the last twenty years.

322 ***Table 3.*** *Glacier area and count changes in the Greater Caucasus according to different inventories from 1911 to*
323 *2020.*

Year	Area (km^2)	Count	Source
1911	1967.4	1329	Podozerskiy, 1911
1960	1674.9±70.4	2349	Tielidze and Wheate, 2018
1986	1482.1±64.4	2209	Tielidze and Wheate, 2018
2000	1381.5±58.2	2186	Current study
2014	1193.2±54.0	2020	Tielidze and Wheate, 2018
2020	1060.9±33.6	2223	Current study

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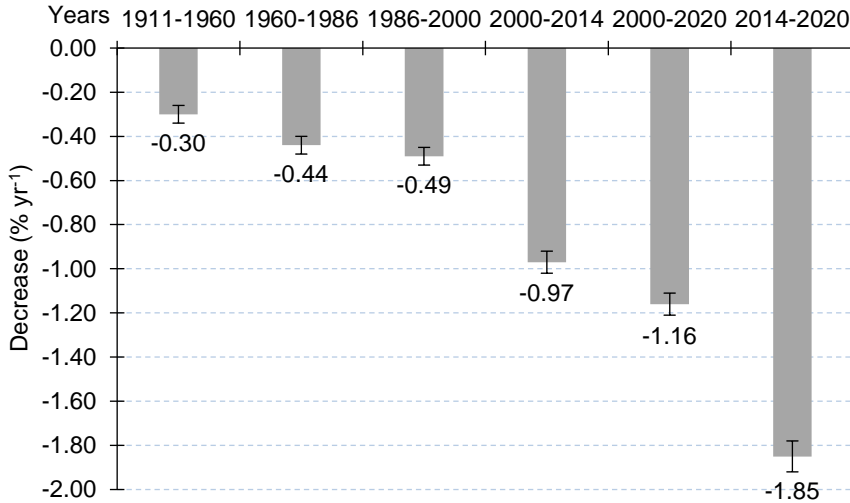
327 ***Figure 11****. Comparison of glacier area decrease rates in the Greater Caucasus for six different periods.*

328 The observed glacier shrinkage in the Greater Caucasus from 2000 to 2020 (-1.16% yr^{-1}) is similar as in
329 the European Alps where Paul et al. (2020) reported a -15% (or -1.3% yr^{-1}) area reduction between 2003
330 and 2015/16. Direct comparisons with other glacierized regions are difficult because they are subject to
331 different dynamics and size class distributions. Most of the related studies also cover different time
332 periods. However, annual area loss rates larger than -1% yr^{-1} over the past decades have been reported
333 for several regions in the world (e.g. Liu et al., 2020; Miles et al., 2021).

334 In comparison to existing glacier inventories we found regionally large discrepancies that have now been
335 corrected. The outlines included in the RGI v6 and GLIMS (2000) database were mostly created based on
336 Landsat and ASTER imagery from 1999-2004 (Pfeffer et al., 2014; Khromova et al., 2009; Khromova et
337 al., 2016). By detailed visual inspection, we found partly large differences between RGI v6, GLIMS
338 (2000) outlines and our database that was compiled using Landsat imagery from 2000. The RGI v6
339 contains nominal glaciers (circles) in the eastern and western Greater Caucasus, as well as the side ranges
340 in the central Greater Caucasus that were replaced by real glacier outlines in our study (Figure 13a). The
341 GLIMS outlines also involve a horizontal geolocation shift (Figure 13b), which appears to be associated
342 with a shift in the ASTER images used (Tielidze and Wheate, 2018).

343 The RGI v6 contains 1638 glacier outlines with a total area of 1276.9 km^2. This is 548 glaciers less and
344 ~105 km^2 (~7.5%) less glacier area than mapped for this inventory. The largest differences were found
345 for glaciers in the size class 1-5 km^2 (Figure 14). The GLIMS database for the Caucasus region contains
346 an even smaller number and area of glaciers than in the RGI (v6). In particular GLIMS does not contain
347 the majority of glacier outlines from the eastern Greater Caucasus, resulting in 891 glaciers less and ~270
348 km^2 (~19.5%) less glacier area than in our new database.

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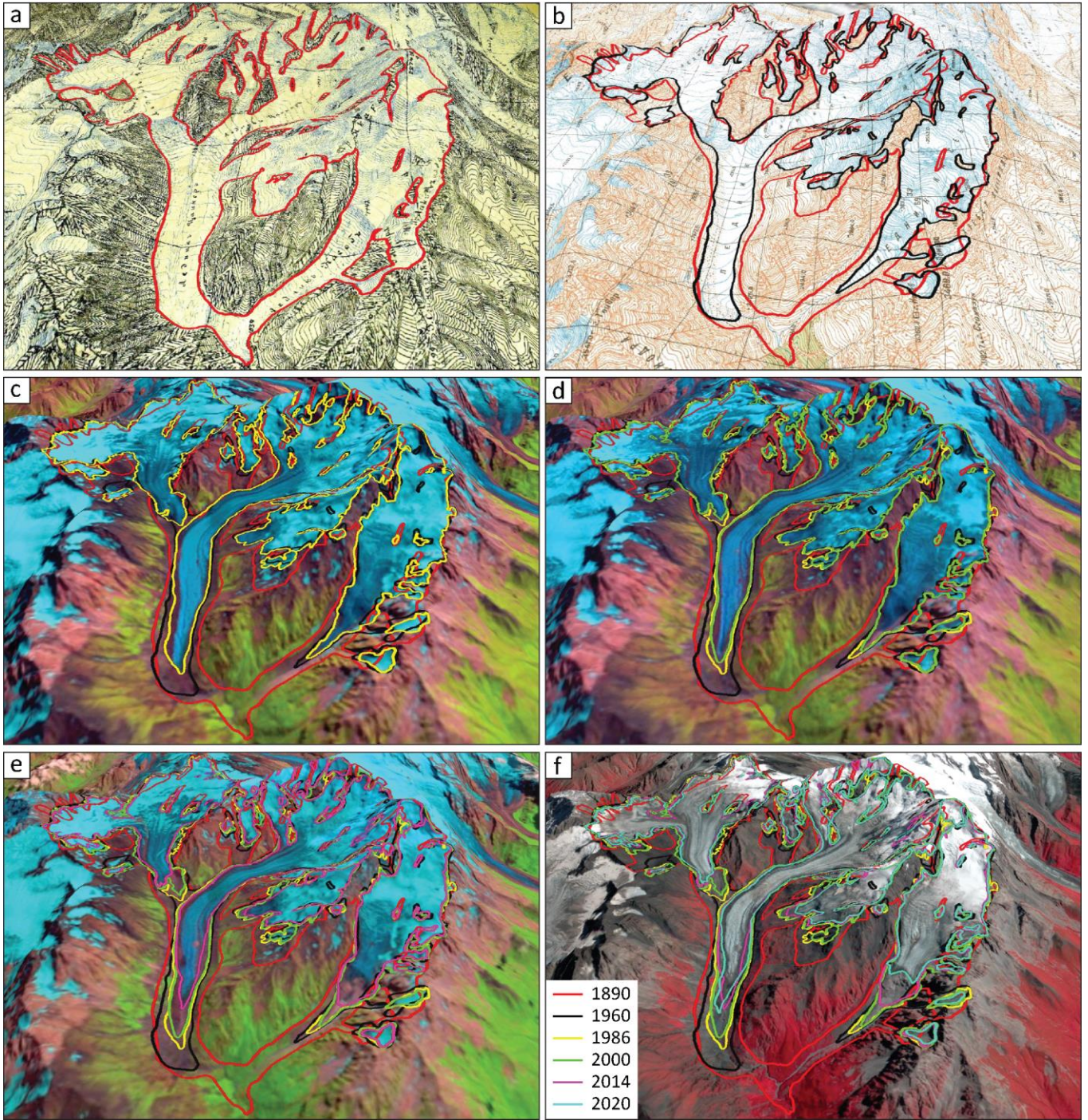
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354 *Figure 12*. An example of a century-long area changes of Tsaneri Glacier (43°3'25.68"N 42°59'1.92"E) in 1890
355 *(Topographical map – X14, 1:42 000) (a); 1960 (Topographical map – k_38_27, 1:50 000) (b); 1986 (Landsat 5*
356 *TM – 06/08/1986) (c); 2000 (Landsat 7 ETM+ - 05/09/2000) (d); 2014 (Landsat 8 OLI – 03/08/2014) (e); and*
357 *2020 (Sentinel 2B - 11/09/2020) (f). Outlines for 1890-2014 were taken from Tielidze (2016).*
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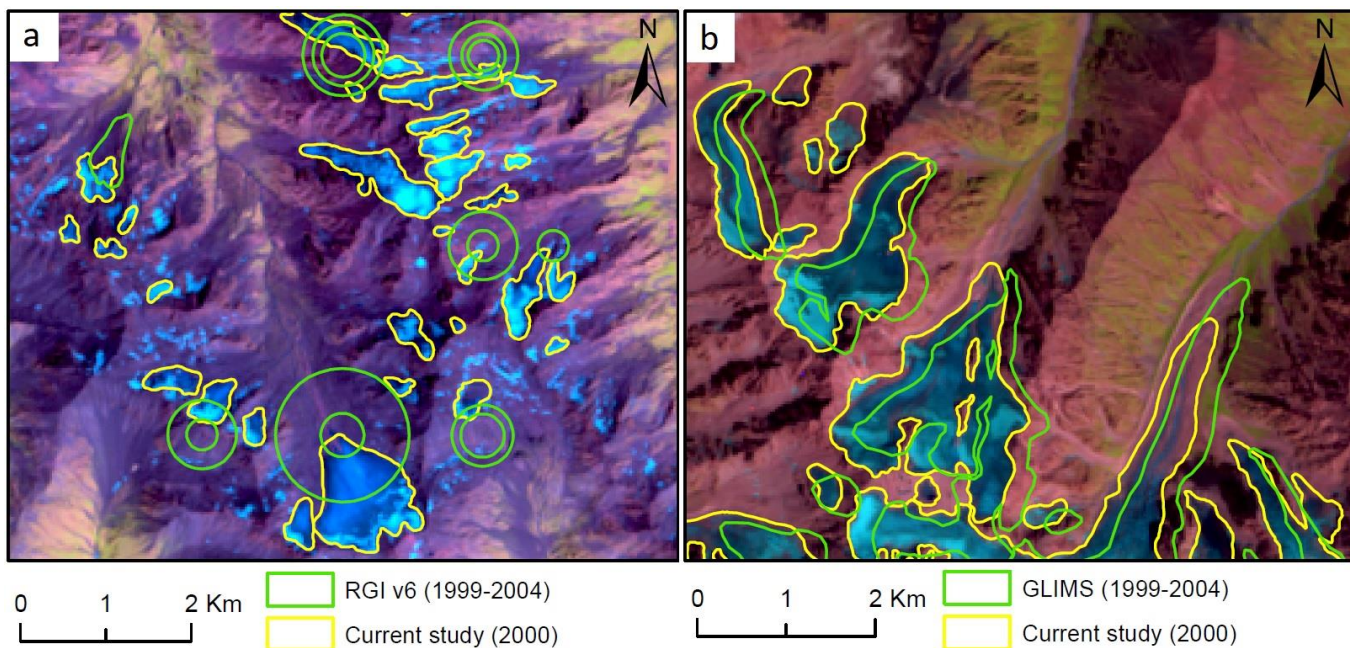


Figure 13. Comparison of glacier outlines from the RGI (v6) and GLIMS (in green) with the outlines from the new Caucasus Glacier Inventory (in yellow). (a) RGI nominal glaciers (circles) and glacier outlines derived during this study. The 28 July 2000 Landsat 7 image (Table S1) is used as the background. (b) The GLIMS outlines (an example of inconsistent registration) and glacier outlines derived during this study. The 12 August 2000 Landsat 5 image (Table S1) is used as the background.

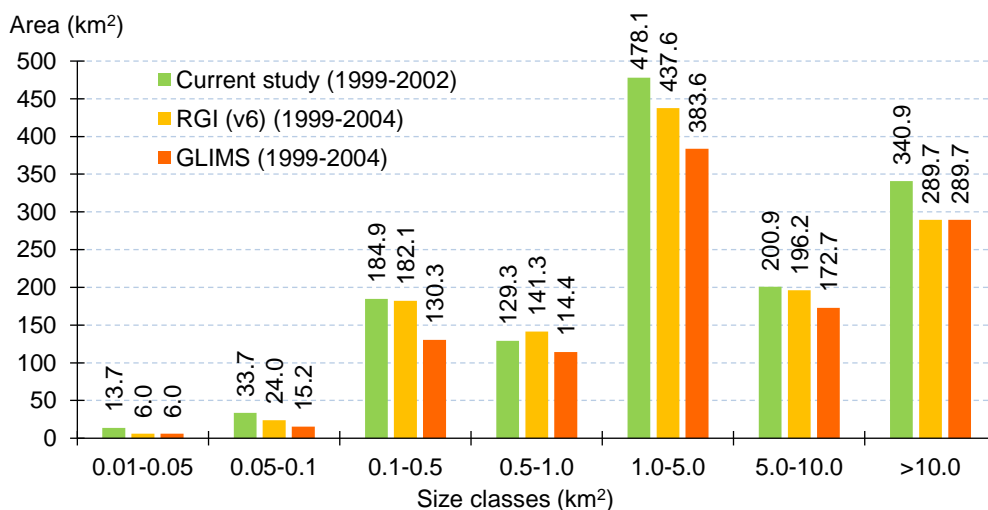



Figure 14. Comparison of cumulative glacier areas sorted for seven size classes for the RGI (v6), GLIMS, and current glacier inventory from 2000.

6.2 Uncertainties and limitations

The accuracy of the mapping was assessed by a comparison of glaciers derived from multiple digitization by different operators and using the buffer method. The resulting average uncertainty was less than ~5% of the mapped area, confirming the uncertainty estimate for the entire Greater Caucasus based on the buffer method (~4%). The major sources of uncertainty include the correct interpretation of debris cover,

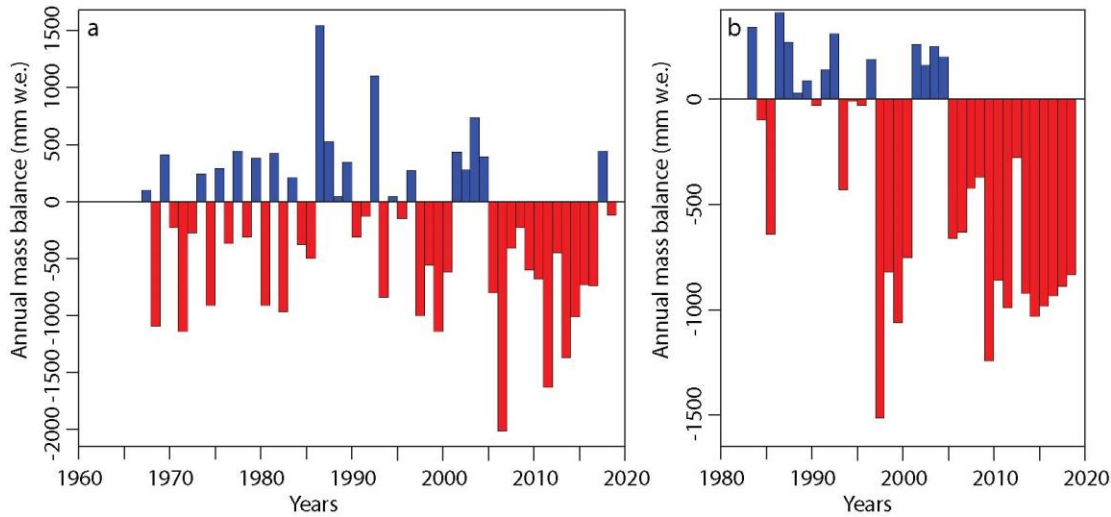
seasonal snow and shadows, which all can impede accurate glacier mapping. Using imagery from a different date and local knowledge, the debris cover and shadow error have been partly resolved for some glaciers; while incorrect identification of seasonal snow generally affects small glaciers more than larger ones, where possibly included snow fields do not make up a large percentage of the total area.

We have not analyzed here the temporal evolution of debris-covered glacier parts, as this is considerable extra effort and because we wanted to keep this study focused on the new inventories and the change assessment. However, we intend analyzing changes in debris cover in a separate study that might also consider recently developed methods (Holobâcă et al., 2021).

We used the ASTER GDEMv3 from around 2010 to derive topographic information for each glacier although it does neither fit to 2000 nor to 2020. The simple reasons for this decision are larger artifacts found in the SRTM DEM from 2000 and that a year 2020 DEM was not available for the study region. Accordingly, for shrinking and retreating glaciers mean and median elevations are underestimated for 2000 and – along with minimum elevation – overestimated for 2020. We assume that the related biases are within the uncertainty of the GDEM for most glaciers, but wanted to stress that they have to be considered when working with the data. Unfortunately, this caveat is common in most similar studies (e.g. Paul et al., 2020) as the repeat frequency of freely available DEMs is still small. The impact of the wrong DEM timing on mean slope and aspect should be negligible.

6.3 Climatic and mass balance trends

Temperature data from Terskol meteorological station (northern Greater Caucasus - 43°15'29"N 42°30'51"E) (Figure 1) indicate annual air temperature increase by ~1°C (from 11.5°C to 12.5°C) during the summer period (June, July, August) in 2000-2019 in contrast to a decreasing trend in October-May precipitation at the same time (from ~720 mm to ~650 mm) (Rototaeva et al., 2019). Increased summer temperature was also observed at the Mestia meteorological station (southern Greater Caucasus - 43°2'56"N 42°44'17"E) (Figure 1) between 2000 and 2014 (Tielidze et al., 2020c). Furthermore, the extension of ablation season over the last two decades was confirmed by instrumental measurement both from northern (Garabashi Glacier) and southern (Zopkhito and Chalaati glaciers) Greater Caucasus (Rototaeva et al., 2019; Tielidze et al., 2020c).

The increased temperatures are also reflected in mass balance observations of two WGMS reference glaciers in the Caucasus region such as Djakuat (43°11'48"N 42°45'28"E) and Garabashi (43°18'15"N 42°28'5"E). They both show strong negative mass balances between 2005 and 2019 (Kutuzov et al., 2019; Rets, et al., 2019; WGMS), resulting in a much higher ice loss in this time period than accumulated before 2005 (Figure 15). Furthermore, assessment of glaciers mass changes in the Caucasus region using the geodetic method over the period 2000-2019 (Hugonnet et al., 2021) showed a three-fold increase in the rate of glacier mass loss.

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409 ***Figure 15**. Changes of mass balance of (a) Djankuat and (b) Garabashi glaciers in 1967-2019 and 1983-2019*
410 *respectively (WGMS).*

411 It might be possible that the increase in incoming short-wave solar radiation in the high Caucasus
412 mountains observed since the 1980s (10 W/m^2 over 10 years) has played a significant role in the
413 accelerated mass loss of glaciers in recent years. It has been proposed that this trend is associated with a
414 weakening of the processes of formation of high and low clouds, which is due to an increase in the
415 frequency of anticyclones in the warm season (Toropov et al., 2019). Moreover, a decrease in the albedo
416 of the glacier surfaces due to an increase in the concentration of mineral particles can be another possible
417 reason of amplified glacier mass loss. Two different pollution events (5/05/2009 and 23/03/2018) are
418 especially noteworthy, when an extreme amount of dust from the Sahara was deposited on the Caucasus
419 glaciers, which sharply changed the albedo and accelerated melting in the accumulation areas (Kutuzov
420 et al., 2013; Dumont et al., 2020). Due to additional factors involved for area changes (response times,
421 ice thickness distribution), we do not relate here the observed more negative mass balances with the
422 increased area loss over the same time period. However, in particular for the thin ice near the glacier
423 terminus we cannot exclude that the strong recent mass loss also contributed to the increased area loss.

424 ## 7. Conclusions

425 We have presented the new Caucasus Glacier Inventory derived from manual delineation of glacier
426 outlines based on medium (Landsat, Sentinel) and high resolution (SPOT) satellite imagery acquired
427 around 2000 and 2020. Within the entire Greater Caucasus, the total glacierized area mapped for 2000
428 and 2020 is 1381.5±58.2 km^2 and 1060.9±33.6 km^2, respectively, resulting in 23.2±3.8 %
429 (320.6±45.9 km^2) or -1.16 % yr^{-1} reduction in total glacier area over the last twenty years. Glaciers <0.5
430 km^2 contributed nearly 35% to the total area loss but covered only 17% of the total area (in 2000).

431 Glaciers in the western Greater Caucasus have mostly a lower mean elevation compared to glaciers in the
432 central and eastern sections indicating decreasing precipitation amounts from west to east. The highest
433 area loss was observed in the eastern section which is likely related to the decreasing glacier size to the
434 east as relative area change rates increase towards smaller glaciers. The lowest decrease rate in the entire
435 region was observed on the Elbrus Massif that can be explained by the largest glacier area class
436 dominating and maybe also an elevation that is sufficiently high to accumulate solid precipitation.

437 A century-long comparison with glacier areas mapped in previous inventories reveal a strong increase in
438 area loss rates, nearly four times higher in 2000-2020 than it was between 1911 and 1960. Combined
439 with the recent dominance of strongly negative mass balances, it can be expected that the Caucasus
440 glaciers will continue to decline in the future also under current climatic conditions.

441 With these two new glacier inventories for the Greater Caucasus we have corrected errors in previously
442 available datasets and hope that they will improve our understanding of climate change impacts at a
443 regional scale and support related modeling studies by providing high-quality validation data.

444

Information about the Supplement

446 The new Caucasus Glacier Inventory includes: Table S1. Satellite images and digital elevation models
447 used in this study. Table S2. The Greater Caucasus glacier number and area change in 2000–2020 by
448 individual river basins. Table S3. Characteristics of glaciers used for measuring length change. Figure S1.
449 Glacier area changes for Elbrus Massif in 2000-2020.

450

Author contributions

452 LGT designed the conceptual framework for the study, mapped glacier outlines, and wrote the paper
453 based on input and feedback from all co-authors. GAN reviewed glacier outlines (2020) and contributed
454 to the discussion and data analysis. TEK contributed to the introduction, study area, and previous studies.
455 FP reviewed glacier outlines (2000) and contributed to data analysis and writing of the manuscript.

456

Competing interests

458 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

459

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471

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