



# 1 Strong acceleration of glacier area loss in the Greater 2 Caucasus over the past two decades

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## 12 **Abstract**

13 An updated glacier inventory is important for understanding glacier behavior given the accelerating  
14 glacier retreat observed around the world. Here, we present data from new glacier inventory at two time  
15 periods (2000, 2020) covering the entire Greater Caucasus (Georgia, Russia, and Azerbaijan). Satellite  
16 imagery (Landsat, Sentinel, SPOT) was used to conduct a remote-sensing survey of glacier change. The  
17 30 m resolution Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer Global Digital  
18 Elevation Model (ASTER GDEM; 17 November 2011) was used to determine aspect, slope and  
19 elevations, for all glaciers. Glacier margins were mapped manually and reveal that in 2000 the mountain  
20 range contained 2186 glaciers with a total glacier surface area of  $1381.5 \pm 58.2 \text{ km}^2$ . By 2020, glacier  
21 surface area had decreased to  $1060.9 \pm 33.6 \text{ km}^2$ . Of the 2223 glaciers, fourteen have an area  $>10 \text{ km}^2$   
22 resulting the  $221.9 \text{ km}^2$  or 20.9% of total glacier area in 2020. The Bezingi Glacier with an area of  
23  $39.4 \pm 0.9 \text{ km}^2$  was the largest glacier mapped in 2020 database. Our result represents a  $23.2 \pm 3.8\%$   
24 ( $320.6 \pm 45.9 \text{ km}^2$ ) or  $-1.16\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$  reduction in total glacier surface area over the last twenty years in the  
25 Greater Caucasus. Glaciers between  $1.0 \text{ km}^2$  and  $5.0 \text{ km}^2$  account for  $478.1 \text{ km}^2$  or 34.6% in total area in  
26 2000, while it account for  $354.0 \text{ km}^2$  or 33.4% in total area in 2020. The rates of area shrinkage and mean  
27 elevation vary between the northern and southern and between the western, central, and eastern Greater  
28 Caucasus. Area shrinkage is significantly stronger in the eastern Greater Caucasus ( $-1.82\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), where  
29 most glaciers are very small. The observed increased summer temperatures and decreased winter  
30 precipitation along with increased Saharan dust deposition might be responsible for the predominantly  
31 negative mass balances of two glaciers with long-term measurements. Both glacier inventories are  
32 available from the Global Land Ice Measurements from Space (GLIMS) database and can be used for  
33 future studies.

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



## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Glaciers are retreating and losing mass in most regions of the world, largely in response to the ongoing  
38 atmospheric warming (Hock et al., 2019; Zemp et al., 2019; Hugonnet et al., 2021). This knowledge can  
39 only be obtained when a baseline dataset (a glacier inventory) is available to calculate glacier-specific  
40 information. Complete and accurate glacier inventories also provide the information required for various  
41 hydrological and climate modelling applications (Vaughan et al., 2013) as well as change assessment.  
42 Accordingly, a frequent update of glacier inventories is required to reduce uncertainties in subsequent  
43 calculations (Paul et al., 2020). Updated glacier inventories are also critical to outline environmental  
44 policies for glacier protection and monitoring programs, as well as for developing mitigation and  
45 adaptation strategies in response to the impact of climate changes on future glacier development  
46 (Johansen et al., 2018).

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

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

66 In this study we present two new glacier inventories (from 2000 and 2020) for the Greater Caucasus  
67 region derived from multi-temporal optical satellite images (Landsat, Sentinel-2, SPOT 6/7) in  
68 combination with digital elevation models (DEMs) along with the observed changes. We also compare  
69 the new inventories with those already available from public databases such as GLIMS and highlight the  
70 related improvements.

## 71 **2. Study area**

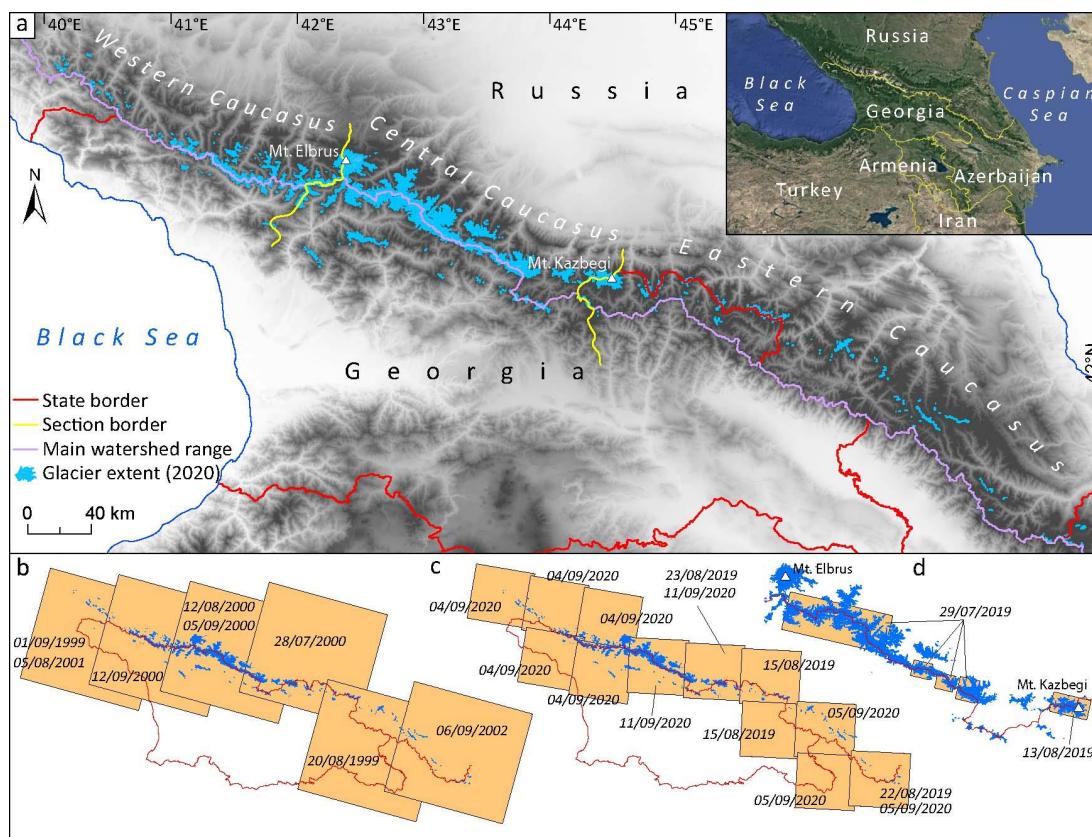
### 72 **2.1 General characteristics**

73 The Greater Caucasus mountain range is situated between the Black and Caspian seas and stretching for  
74 about 1300 km from west–northwest to east–southeast. Its width is ranging from 30 to 180 km the  
75 average elevation for its western, central, and eastern sectors is 3200, 4100 and 3700 m, respectively with



76 the highest point being Mt. Elbrus (5642 m). The highest central sector is situated between Mt. Elbrus  
77 and Mt. Kazbegi (5047 m) with at least five other peaks exceeding 5000 m a.s.l. (Figure 1). Almost 70%  
78 of the Caucasus glaciers are situated in the central section. About 13.4% of the surface area of 659  
79 glaciers was covered by debris in 2014 (Tielidze et al., 2020b).

80 The Greater Caucasus is in the path of the Mediterranean and Atlantic cyclones, which carry moisture  
81 from the west and southwest. The maximum amount of precipitation falls in the southern slope of the  
82 western region with annual precipitation of about 3200 mm. This amount declines to 2000 mm in the  
83 central section and to 1000 mm in the eastern part (Volodicheva, 2002). The mean annual temperatures at  
84 the southern slopes are usually 1–2 °C higher than those in the north (Tielidze and Wheate, 2018). At the  
85 mean elevation of glaciers (around 3400 m a.s.l.) they are around –5.0 °C (Kutuzov et al., 2016; Tielidze,  
86 2016). The average regional lapse rate has a maximum in summer (–5.2 °C per km) and a minimum in  
87 winter (–2.3 °C per km) (Kozachek et al., 2017).



88

89 **Figure 1.** (a) The extent of modern glaciers in the Greater Caucasus. (b) Landsat 5 TM and Landsat 7 ETM+  
90 satellite scenes from 1999–2002. (c) Sentinel-2 satellite scenes from 2019–2020. (d) SPOT 6-7 satellite scenes from  
91 2019. The insert map in the upper right shows the location of the Caucasus region (© Google Earth).



## 92 2.2 Previous studies

93 The Caucasus is one of the most studied glacierized regions in the world. The first information about  
94 glaciers date back to the 18th and 19th centuries (Kotlyakov et al., 2015; Tielidze, 2016). The first  
95 inventory of the Caucasus glaciers was published at the beginning of the 20th century (Podozerskiy,  
96 1911). This was the result of the compilation of a topographic map, which was carried out by military  
97 topographers from 1881 to 1910 (1329 glaciers, with a total area of 1967.4 km<sup>2</sup>). Based on the same maps  
98 and in situ measurement Reinhardt (1916) determined a summer snowline elevation at ~ 3100 m a.s.l. in  
99 Georgian Caucasus.

100 The second inventory of the Caucasus glaciers was initiated within the framework of the International  
101 Hydrological Decade (1965-1975) (Catalog of Glaciers of the USSR, 1967-1978; Vinogadov et al.,  
102 1978). This inventory was created based on aerial photographs from 1955-1960, topographic maps from  
103 1960s, and data from field observations. The inventory does not contain digital outlines of glaciers but  
104 includes only tables with glacier parameters (2002 glaciers, with a total area of 1421.78 km<sup>2</sup>). Based on  
105 the same aerial imagery and topographic maps the elevation of summer snowline increased from about  
106 2600 m a.s.l. (western section) to 3600 m a.s.l. (eastern section). On the Elbrus Massif the snowline  
107 reached at 3800 m a.s.l. (World Atlas of Snow and Ice Resources, 1977). At the same time, the snowline  
108 for the Georgian Caucasus was measured at ~3270 m a.s.l., with the highest values (~3470 m a.s.l.) in  
109 the eastern Georgian Caucasus (Gobejishvili, 1995; Tielidze, 2017).

110 The state of the Caucasus glaciers was determined within the framework of the Global Land Ice  
111 Measurements from Space (GLIMS) project using the ASTER and Landsat (1999-2004) satellite images  
112 (Khromova et al., 2016). The number and area of glaciers was calculated only for 21 river basins (out of  
113 53) and an incomplete but first digital database was created for the southern and northern slopes of the  
114 Greater Caucasus (1706 glaciers, with a total area of 1174.52 km<sup>2</sup>). This database was later also used for  
115 version 6 of the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI6) that incorporated nominal glaciers (circles covering  
116 an area equivalent to glacier size) in the eastern and western Caucasus sections (Tielidze and Wheate,  
117 2020) from the World Glacier Inventory – Extended Format (WGI-XF; Cogley, 2009).

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

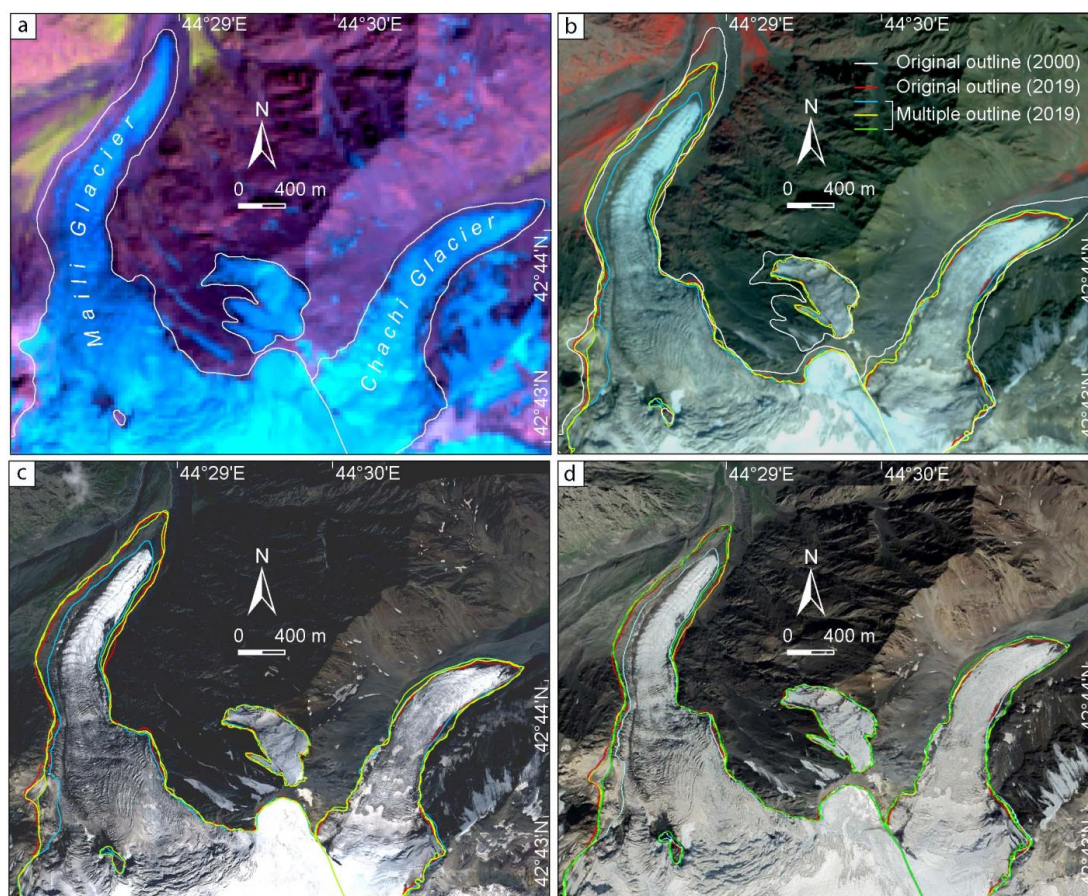
122 The year 2000 inventory presented here was compiled following the demand for creating glacier outlines  
123 closer to the year 2000 and improving the quality of existing datasets in the widely used RGIv6 for a next  
124 version of the RGI. It could be created as satellite images with the required quality were available from  
125 Landsat 5 and 7. The year 2020 inventory was created to also test the improved quality of the 10 m  
126 resolution Sentinel-2 data and compare results against even higher resolution data from SPOT6/7 and  
127 Google Earth.

## 128 3. Data sources

129 We processed eight Landsat 5 Thematic Mapper (TM) and Landsat 7 Enhanced Thematic Mapper Plus  
130 (ETM+) scenes from 1999-2002 along with nine Sentinel-2 and five SPOT 6/7 scenes from 2019-2020 to  
131 cover the entire study region in both periods (Figure 1, Table S1). In addition, high-resolution QuickBird



132 images (2019) superimposed upon the SRTM3 topography (Raup et al., 2014) were used through to the  
133 Google Earth. All the Landsat and Sentinel scenes were downloaded from EarthExplorer  
134 (<http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov>) (last access: November 2020), while the orthorectified high-resolution  
135 (spatial resolution 1.5 m) SPOT scenes were received from Azercosmos (<https://azercosmos.az/>). The  
136 Sentinel scenes served as a basis for glacier mapping, while the Google Earth and SPOT scenes were  
137 used for correction of glacier outlines and comparison of manually mapped glacier margins to those of  
138 Sentinel scenes from the same year (Figure 2) (see also Section 4.1). All images were acquired at the end  
139 of the ablation season, ranging from 28 July to 12 September, when glaciers were mostly free of seasonal  
140 snow under cloud-free conditions. In the case of local clouds, shadow or snow cover, a few additional  
141 scenes from the same period were used to correctly digitize glacier outlines.



142  
143 **Figure 2.** (a) Three glaciers shown on the Landsat scene (28.07.2000.), which were later selected for multiple  
144 digitizing. An example of multiple digitizing based on the imagery from same year - (b) Sentinel 23/08/2019, (c)  
145 SPOT 13/08/2019, (d) Google Earth 14/09/2019 (© Google Earth).

146 We used false-colour composites for each Landsat acquisition date, combining the shortwave infrared  
147 (SWIR), near infrared (NIR), and red bands as RGB. The panchromatic band (15 m resolution) from  
148 Landsat 7 ETM+ was also used for better identification of glacier extents. For Sentinel-2, the colour



149 composites were created from 10 m resolution visible and near-infrared band composites, resulting in  
150 much higher quality outlines than those derived from the Landsat scenes. The 20 m resolution SWIR  
151 band (11) was bilinearly resampled to 10 m resolution to obtain glacier outlines at this resolution  
152 automatically (e.g. Paul et al., 2020).

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

## 156 4. Methods

### 157 4.1 Glacier mapping

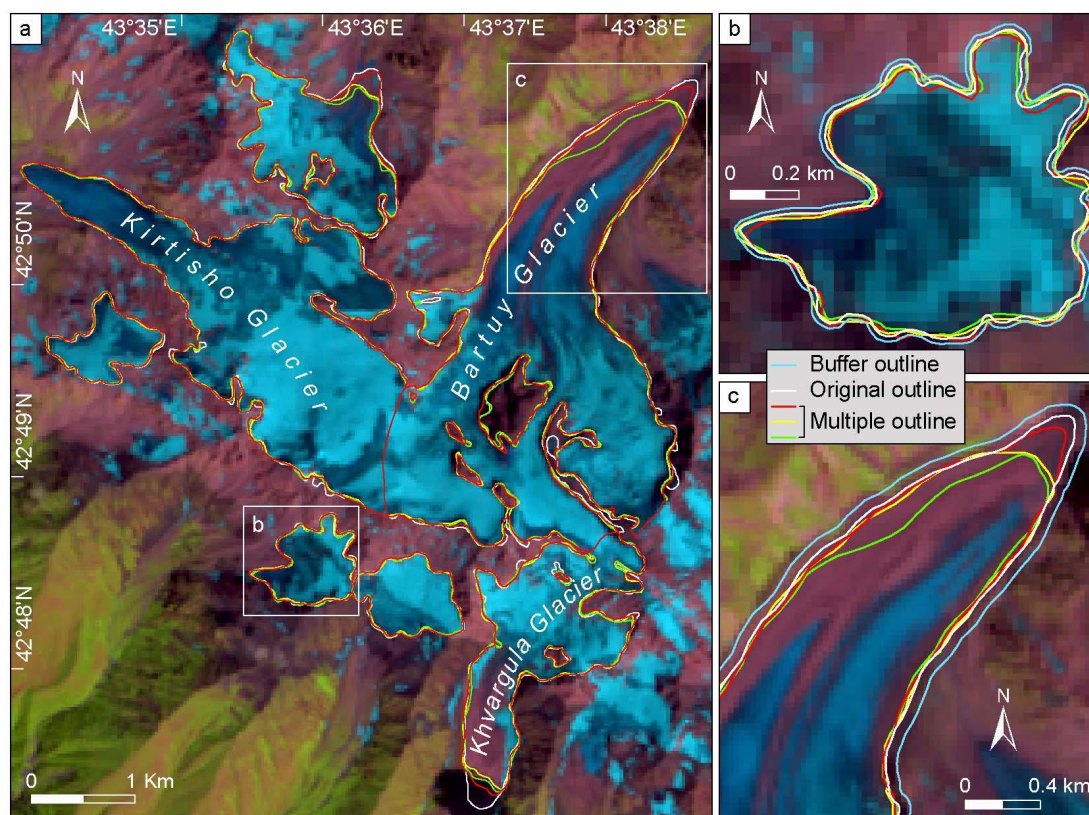
158 Glacier boundaries have been manually delineated from our study area. This mapping method is well  
159 adopted for the Caucasus region (e.g. Shahgedanova et al., 2014; Tielidze, 2016; Tielidze and Wheate,  
160 2018) despite some advantages of automated mapping method of clean ice (Paul et al., 2013). This  
161 decision was made due to the significant amount of debris-covered glaciers in this region (Tielidze et al.,  
162 2020b) as well as deep shadows where automated mapping often fails and manual corrections are  
163 required (Paul et al., 2013). Moreover, seasonal snow off glaciers was present in several scenes and  
164 instead of removing them after an automated classification they were just not digitized. We acknowledge  
165 that identification of such non-glacier snow patches was sometimes difficult and is a highly subjective  
166 process. As a guide, we excluded snow only features and those with a complex perimeter. This was  
167 facilitated by local experience and having the outlines of the previous glacier inventory (Tielidze and  
168 Wheate, 2018). The size of the smallest glacier included was finally restricted to 0.01 km<sup>2</sup>. Glacier length  
169 was measured from changes of a centre line (Paul and Svoboda, 2009).

170 Estimation of the glacier mapping uncertainty is necessary to assess the significance of derived glacier  
171 changes and avoid misinterpretation of mapping. For this purpose, first we tested multiple digitization as  
172 a supplementary tool for uncertainty assessment of glacier margin identification (Paul et al., 2013). A  
173 sub-sample of three glaciers from high-resolution SPOT image with areas of 0.3–6.3 km<sup>2</sup> were re-  
174 digitized by three different operators. The selected glaciers included Maili (42°43'21"N, 44°28'36"E),  
175 Chachi (42°43'14"N, 44°30'20"E) and G044493E42730N (GLIMS ID) (42°43'41"N, 44°29'40"E). All  
176 contours obtained from the SPOT image (13/08/2019), along with original (basic) contours obtained from  
177 the Sentinel image (23/08/2019), were then exported to Google Earth (14/09/2019) for comparison and  
178 visual inspection (Figure 2b-d). The uncertainty for two debris-free glaciers (Chachi and  
179 G044493E42730N) based on normalized standard deviation (NSD – delineations by multiple  
180 digitalization divided by the mean glacier area for all outlines) was small at 1.8% while the one debris-  
181 covered glacier (Maili) showed much higher error at 5.1%. The average uncertainty between the two  
182 datasets was calculated as 3.5%. A similar approach was used for glaciers ranging from 0.4 to 6.1 km<sup>2</sup>  
183 from the Landsat imagery. The selected glaciers included Kirtisho (42°49'52"N, 43°35'37"E), Bartuy  
184 (42°49'54"N, 43°37'33"E), Khvargula (42°48'12"N, 43°37'29"E) and four relatively small neighbor  
185 glaciers. The mapping uncertainty for debris-free glaciers was 2.1%, while it was 6.7% for debris-  
186 covered glaciers and 4.4% for all glaciers of this sample (Figure 3).

187 We used the buffer method as a further tool of uncertainty estimation for the entire Greater Caucasus.  
188 Buffer drawn around the glacier outlines using ArcGIS 10.6.1 Software, as suggested by Granshaw and



189 Fountain (2006). For the images of 2020 we used a buffer equal to the resolution of the Sentinel scenes  
190 (10 m) and a half pixel size buffer (15 m) for the glacier contours derived from Landsat images 2000. The  
191 selected buffer size for Landsat scenes is based on a recent study from Caucasus region (Tielidze et al.,  
192 2020b) while the Sentinel buffer was selected based on a study from European Alps (Paul et al., 2020).  
193 We assume that the larger buffer should be used for debris-covered parts of the glaciers, due to their  
194 higher uncertainty (Tielidze et al., 2020b). Although, we did not enforce this here, as the related  
195 calculations are computationally difficult and challenging (Mölg et al., 2018), and would still not reflect  
196 the real problem in debris identification (cf. Paul et al., 2020). Instead, we used buffer with a size of two-  
197 pixel for debris-covered glaciers (e.g. Frey et al., 2012) resulting an upper-bound value of the uncertainty  
198 (Paul et al., 2020) (Figure 3). Overall, the mapping uncertainty of the total glacier area were calculated as  
199  $\pm 33.6 \text{ km}^2$  or ( $\pm 3.2\%$ ) for Sentinel data from 2020, which is comparable with our uncertainty estimate  
200 based on the multiple digitization method ( $\pm 3.5\%$ ). For Landsat data from 2000 the buffer uncertainty  
201 was calculated as  $\pm 58.2 \text{ km}^2$  or ( $\pm 4.3\%$ ), again comparable with the multiple digitization method for  
202 Landsat imagery ( $\pm 4.4\%$ ). It was explored that the larger glacier outlines had relatively small uncertainty  
203 than the small glaciers.



204

205 **Figure 3.** (a) Selected glaciers for Multiple digitizing based on Landsat 5 TM scene (12/08/2000). (b) Manually  
206 mapped debris-free glacier outline with half-pixel (15 m) of buffer interval. (c) Manually mapped debris-covered  
207 glacier outline with two-pixel (60 m) of buffer interval (light blue).



208 Other potential uncertainties were related to the interpretation and manual digitization of the glacier  
 209 margins (e.g. seasonal snow, topographic shadows, and supraglacial debris). To reduce the effect of this  
 210 uncertainty, local knowledge and outlines from previous glacier inventory (Tielidze and Wheate, 2014)  
 211 were used as a delineation reference source.

## 212 4.2 Terminus measurement

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

## 221 5. Results

### 222 5.1 Glacier Inventory 2000

223 Based on Landsat data from 2000 we have identified and mapped 2186 glaciers larger than 0.01 km<sup>2</sup> with  
 224 a total area of 1381.5±58.2 km<sup>2</sup> from 53 river basins in the Greater Caucasus (Table S2). From this,  
 225 931.6±37.7 km<sup>2</sup> or 67.4% of the total glacier area was found in Russia, 446.6±19.9 km<sup>2</sup> or 32.3% in  
 226 Georgia, and 3.4±0.3 km<sup>2</sup> or 0.3% in Azerbaijan (Table 1). The mean glacier size for entire mountain  
 227 region was 0.63 km<sup>2</sup> and the glacier size class 1.0-5.0 km<sup>2</sup> dominated with a total area of 478.1 km<sup>2</sup>  
 228 (Figure 4a), which is 34.6% of the total by area. The glacier size class 0.1-0.5 km<sup>2</sup> was on the first place  
 229 for the counting by number (837 glaciers) in 2000 (Table 2, Figure 4b). The pattern of size classes was  
 230 different in the western Greater Caucasus compared to those in the central and eastern parts. The mean  
 231 elevation of the glaciers was ranging from 3300 m a.s.l. (southern slope) to 3480 m a.s.l. (northern slope),  
 232 with an average of 3430 m a.s.l. (Figure 5). The number distribution by aspect showed that the glaciers  
 233 were predominantly oriented towards north-west (538 glaciers) while according to the area, the majority  
 234 of the glaciers oriented north-east (330.4 km<sup>2</sup>) (Figure 6).

235 **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 <sup>2</sup>	Count	Area km <sup>2</sup>	(%)	(% yr <sup>-1</sup> )
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
<b>Total</b>	<b>2186</b>	<b>1381.5±58.2</b>	<b>2223</b>	<b>1060.9±33.6</b>	<b>23.2</b>	<b>1.16</b>

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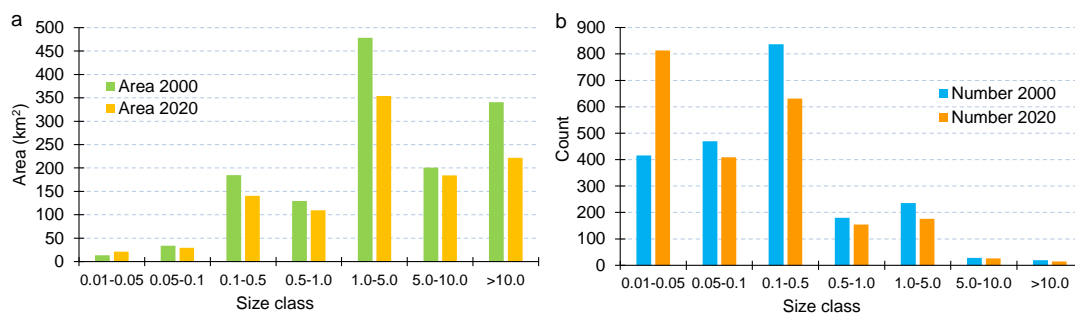




240 **Table 2.** Cumulative glacier area and count change for seven size classes in the Greater Caucasus by slopes and  
 241 sections in 2000-2020. Bold italic numbers indicate the initial size class of glaciers in 2020 to fairly determine the  
 242 decrease in area per size class between 2000 and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

Size class (km <sup>2</sup> )	Western					Central					Eastern				
	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count			Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count			Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count		
	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	
0.01-0.05	5.4	<b>1.9</b>	9.2	173	354	6.3	<b>2.9</b>	9.9	185	379	2.0	<b>0.5</b>	2.2	58	81
0.05-0.1	11.8	<b>5.8</b>	10.4	163	148	15.0	<b>7.4</b>	14.3	211	198	6.9	<b>1.5</b>	4.7	96	63
0.1-0.5	64.0	<b>38.0</b>	51.5	292	226	85.3	<b>49.8</b>	69.6	373	318	35.7	<b>15.2</b>	19.4	173	87
0.5-1.0	55.0	<b>39.9</b>	40.9	75	59	59.4	<b>40.6</b>	60.7	83	85	14.9	<b>8.9</b>	7.8	22	10
1.0-5.0	116.8	<b>89.7</b>	81.0	60	43	318.4	<b>248.5</b>	248.0	151	118	42.9	<b>32.8</b>	25.0	25	15
5.0-10.0	26.0	<b>23.0</b>	5.1	4	1	152.2	<b>133.2</b>	158.4	21	22	22.6	<b>20.8</b>	20.4	3	3
>10.0	0.0	<b>0.0</b>	0.0	0	0	340.9	<b>300.0</b>	221.9	19	14	0.0	<b>0.0</b>	0.0	0	0
Total	279.0	<b>198.1</b>	198.1	767	831	977.5	<b>782.8</b>	782.8	1043	1134	125.0	<b>79.5</b>	79.5	377	259
Size class (km <sup>2</sup> )	Northern					Southern					Entire Caucasus				
	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count			Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count			Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		Count		
	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	2000	2020	
0.01-0.05	9.0	<b>3.6</b>	13.6	282	541	4.7	<b>1.6</b>	7.7	134	262	13.7	<b>5.3</b>	21.3	416	813
0.05-0.1	22.7	<b>9.1</b>	18.8	315	262	11.0	<b>4.7</b>	10.7	155	147	33.7	<b>13.7</b>	29.5	470	409
0.1-0.5	125.4	<b>70.2</b>	98.9	568	439	59.5	<b>31.9</b>	41.7	269	192	184.9	<b>102.1</b>	140.6	837	631
0.5-1.0	86.1	<b>58.7</b>	73.6	121	104	43.2	<b>30.3</b>	35.9	59	50	129.3	<b>88.9</b>	109.5	180	154
1.0-5.0	345.4	<b>266.6</b>	246.0	170	128	132.7	<b>104.9</b>	108.0	66	48	478.1	<b>371.5</b>	354.0	236	176
5.0-10.0	159.9	<b>142.4</b>	128.6	22	19	41.0	<b>35.3</b>	55.6	6	7	200.9	<b>177.6</b>	184.2	28	26
>10.0	238.1	<b>211.3</b>	182.1	12	11	102.8	<b>90.6</b>	39.8	7	3	340.9	<b>302.0</b>	221.9	19	14
Total	986.6	<b>761.6</b>	761.6	1490	1504	394.9	<b>299.4</b>	299.4	696	709	1381.5	<b>1061.0</b>	1061.0	2186	2223

244

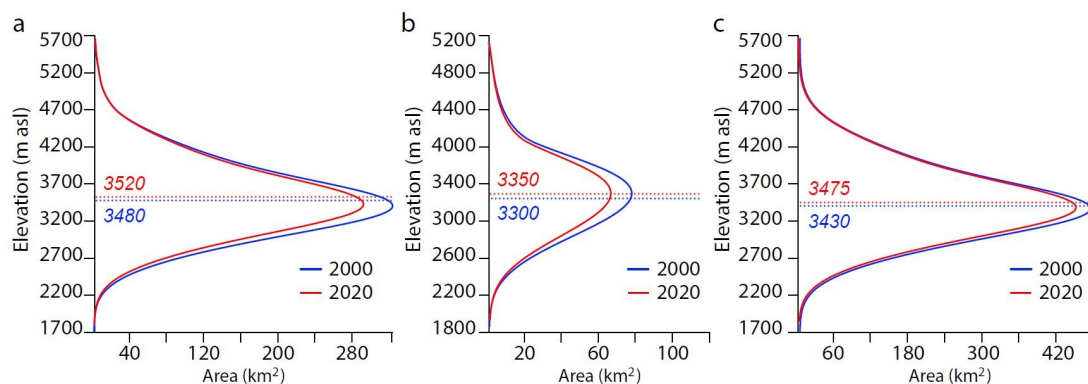


245

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

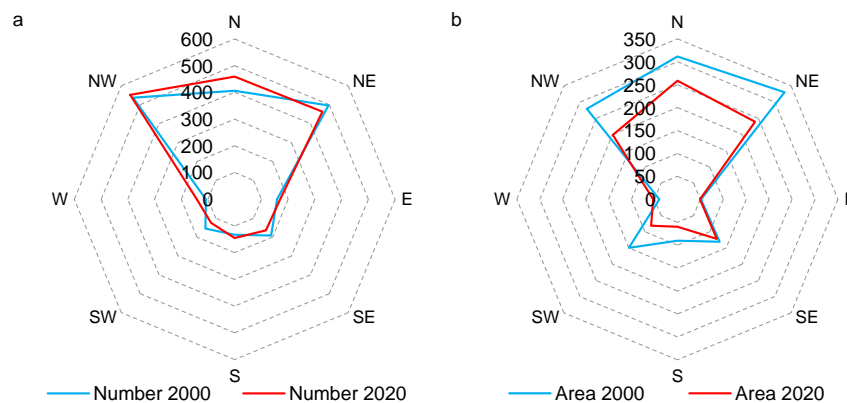
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249



250

251 **Figure 5.** The histogram of glacier area distribution along with mean elevation (dotted line) in 2000 and 2020 for  
 252 (a) the northern, (b) the southern, and (c) the entire Greater Caucasus.



253

254 **Figure 6.** Proportion of glacier aspect by (a) count and (b) area ( $\text{km}^2$ ) in 2000-2020.

255 The total area of 20 glaciers from Elbrus Massif was mapped as  $121.5 \pm 2.2 \text{ km}^2$  in 2000 (Figure S1). The  
 256 three largest glaciers mapped from the Greater Caucasus based on Landsat imagery (2000) are Bezingi –  
 257  $39.4 \pm 0.9 \text{ km}^2$  ( $43^\circ 2' 47'' \text{N}$   $43^\circ 4' 0'' \text{E}$ ), Dykhsu –  $33.6 \pm 0.9 \text{ km}^2$  ( $42^\circ 59' 5'' \text{N}$   $43^\circ 10' 46'' \text{E}$ ) (Russia), and  
 258 Lekhziri  $32.8 \pm 0.9 \text{ km}^2$  ( $43^\circ 9' 26'' \text{N}$   $42^\circ 45' 54'' \text{E}$ ) (Georgia).

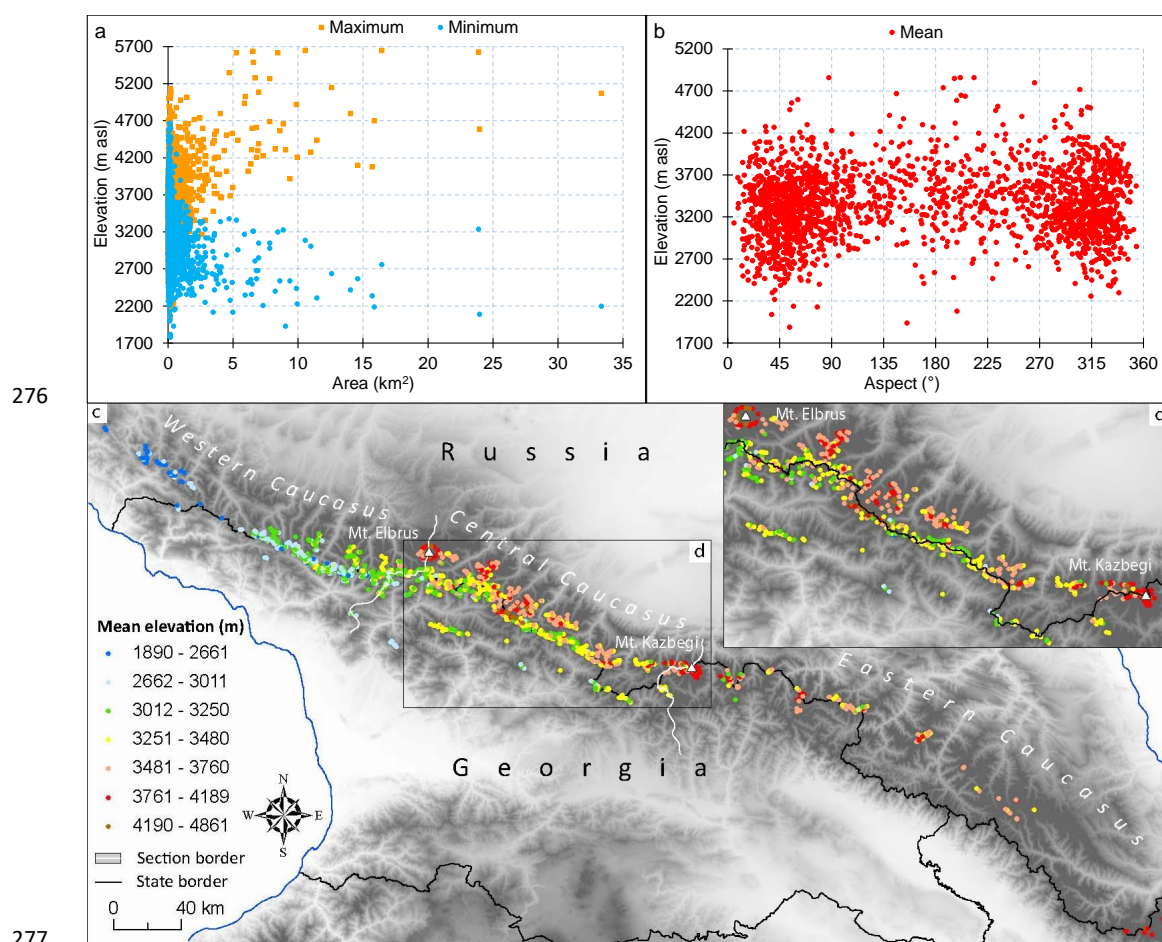
## 259 5.2 Glacier Inventory 2020

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

265 The mean elevation of the glaciers was ranging from 3350 m a.s.l. (southern slope) to 3520 m a.s.l.  
 266 (northern slope), with an average of 3475 m a.s.l. (Figure 5). Most of the glacier number (1476) and area  
 267 ( $697 \text{ km}^2$ ) in 2020 belongs to north-facing glaciers (mean aspects N, NW, and NE), while relative area  
 268 and number of E and W exposed glaciers are very small (Figure 6).



269 The glacier termini are located around an average minimum elevation of 3159 m a.s.l while the average  
270 maximum elevation is 3561 m a.s.l. Consequently, large valley glaciers have lower termini, while smaller  
271 glaciers have higher snout positions. All other topographic parameters (e.g. maximum, minimum, and  
272 mean elevations) depend on morphological type, aspect, and size class of the individual glaciers. Figure  
273 7a-b shows the glacier area distribution according to the maximum and minimum elevation and glacier  
274 aspect vs. mean elevation, while the colour-coded map at Figure 7c shows spatial distribution of mean  
275 elevation for glaciers larger than 0.1 km<sup>2</sup> in 2020.



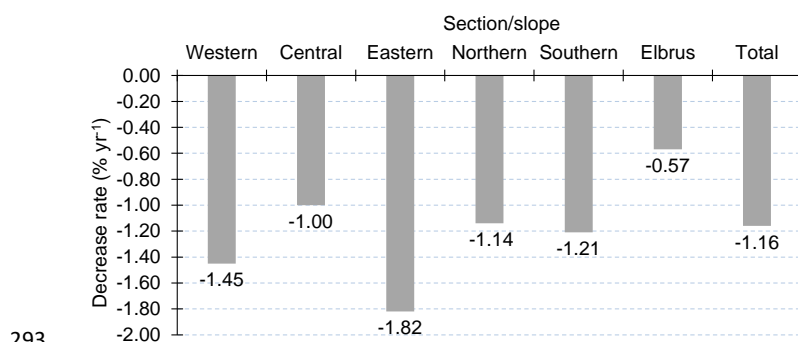
276  
277  
278 **Figure 7.** (a) Glacier area vs. maximum and minimum elevation in 2020. (b) Glacier aspect vs. mean elevation in  
279 2020. (c) Spatial distribution of mean elevation (colour-coded) for all glaciers in the Greater Caucasus larger than  
280 0.1 km<sup>2</sup> in 2020. (d) Close view of the central part of the Greater Caucasus.

281 In 2020, the Elbrus massif has a total glacier area of 107.7±1.6 km<sup>2</sup> (Figure S1). The three glaciers  
282 Bezingi (34.8±0.8 km<sup>2</sup>), Karaugom (23.6±0.3 km<sup>2</sup>), and Dzhikiugankez (19.4±0.2 km<sup>2</sup>) are now the  
283 largest glaciers of the Greater Caucasus and are all located in Russia. Overall, there are fourteen glaciers  
284 >10 km<sup>2</sup> in the Greater Caucasus with total area of 221.9 km<sup>2</sup>. Three glaciers are situated in Georgia and  
285 eleven in Russia.



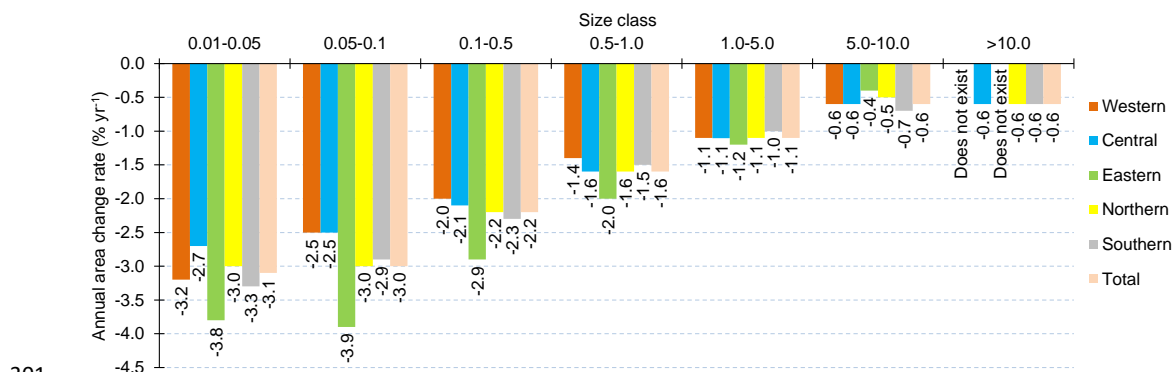
286 **5.3 Glacier change in 2000-2020**

287 Results from our study on glacier area change indicate a significant decrease of the glaciers in the Greater  
 288 Caucasus between 2000 and 2020 (Figure 8). The total ice area loss between these two periods was  
 289  $320.6 \pm 45.9 \text{ km}^2$  or  $23.2 \pm 3.8 \%$  ( $-1.16 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). The eastern part experienced the highest absolute decrease  
 290 of  $-1.82\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , while the Elbrus Massif experienced the lowest rate of  $-0.57\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . Compared to other  
 291 sub-regions, the western region had also somewhat higher change rates ( $-1.45\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). The Elbrus Massif  
 292 has the largest glacier mean area, changing from  $6.07 \text{ km}^2$  in 2000 to  $3.98 \text{ km}^2$  in 2020.



294 **Figure 8.** Greater Caucasus glacier area decrease by sections and slopes in 2000-2020.

295 The smallest size classes of glaciers ( $0.01$  to  $0.1 \text{ km}^2$ ) experienced the highest area loss rates across all  
 296 regions with maximum rates in the eastern Greater Caucasus (Table 2, Figure 9). The  $0.1$ - $0.5 \text{ km}^2$  size  
 297 class also experienced high area loss rates (up to  $-2.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in the eastern part). For the larger size classes  
 298 ( $> 1.0 \text{ km}^2$ ) the loss rates are smaller and more similar. The difference in the loss rate between northern  
 299 and southern slopes is not significant. Overall and similar to most other regions in the world, the  
 300 observed relative area loss rates decrease towards larger glaciers.

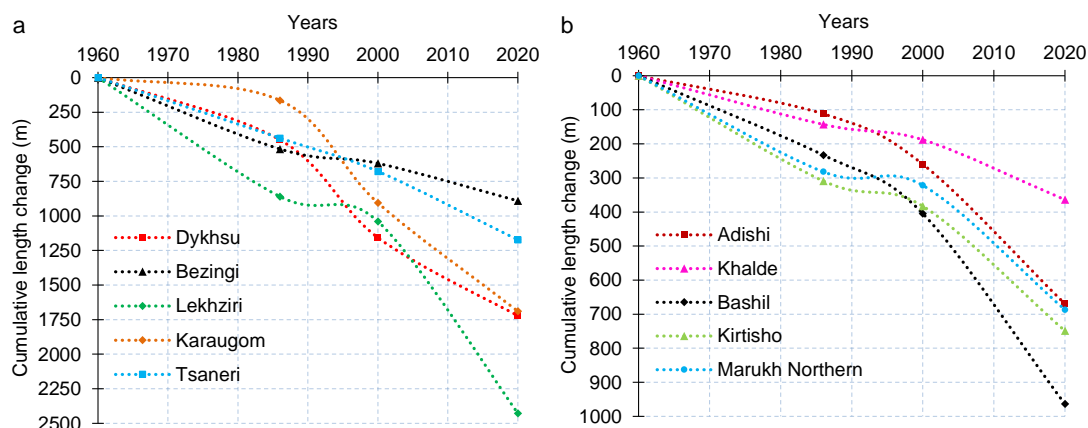


302 **Figure 9.** Averaged annual area change rate ( $\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) from 2000 to 2020 for the seven glacier size classes in all  
 303 sections and slopes of the Greater Caucasus.

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



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



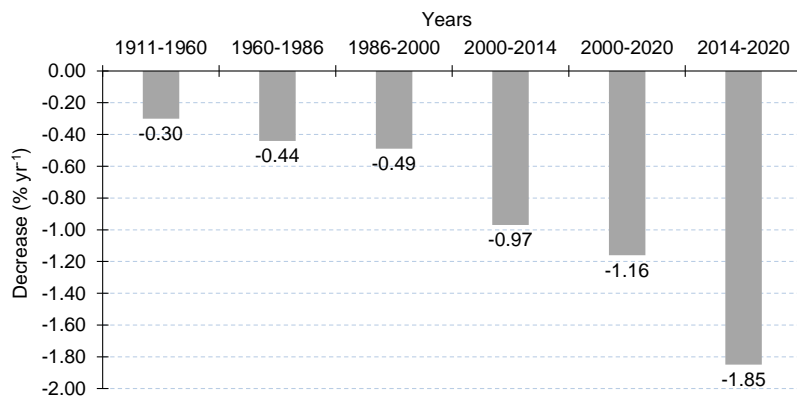
311

312 **Figure 10.** Comparison of cumulative curves of terminus changes in 1960-2020: (a) for glaciers with size class  
 313 (>10 km<sup>2</sup>); (b) for glaciers with size class (5-10 km<sup>2</sup> and 1-5 km<sup>2</sup>). In both panels the dotted lines only connect the  
 314 four measurement points.

## 315 6. Discussion

### 316 6.1 Comparison with previous investigations

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



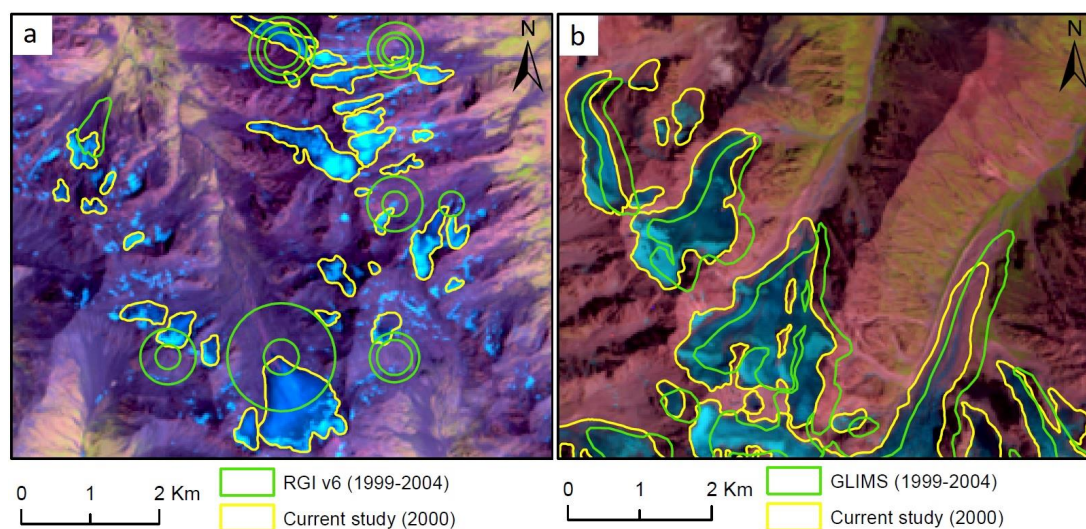
323

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



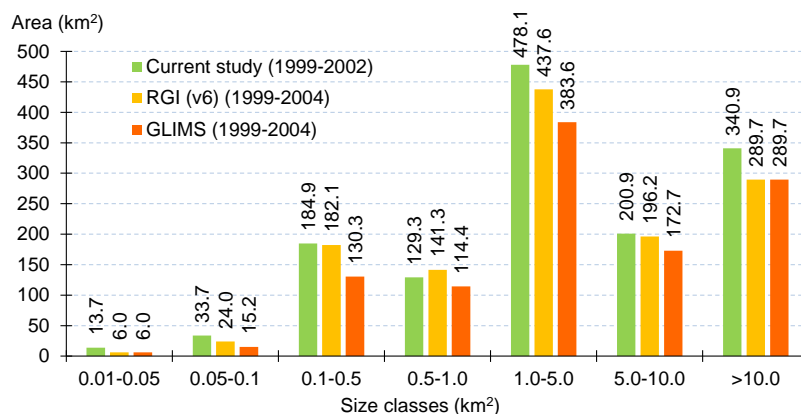
325 The observed glacier shrinkage in the Greater Caucasus from 2000 to 2020 ( $-1.16\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) is similar as in  
326 the European Alps where Paul et al. (2020) reported a  $-15\%$  (or  $-1.3\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) area reduction between 2003  
327 and 2015/16. Direct comparisons with other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

331 In comparison to existing glacier inventories we found regionally large discrepancies that have now been  
332 corrected. The outlines included in the RGI v6 and GLIMS (2000) database were mostly created based on  
333 Landsat and ASTER imagery from 1999-2004 (Pfeffer et al., 2014; Khromova et al., 2009; Khromova et  
334 al., 2016). By detailed visual inspection, we found partly large differences between RGI v6, GLIMS  
335 (2000) outlines and our database that was compiled using Landsat imagery from 2000. The RGI v6  
336 contains nominal glaciers (circles) in the eastern and western Greater Caucasus, as well as the side ranges  
337 in the central Greater Caucasus that were replaced by real glacier outlines in our study (Figure 12a). The  
338 GLIMS outlines also involve a horizontal geolocation shift (Figure 12b), which appears to be associated  
339 with a shift in the ASTER images used (Tielidze and Wheate, 2018).



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

346 The RGI v6 contains 1638 glacier outlines with a total area of  $1276.9 \text{ km}^2$ . This is 548 glaciers less and  
347  $\sim 105 \text{ km}^2$  ( $\sim 7.5\%$ ) less glacier area than mapped for this inventory. The largest differences were found  
348 for glaciers in the size class  $1\text{-}5 \text{ km}^2$  (Figure 13). The GLIMS database for the Caucasus region contains  
349 an even smaller number and area of glaciers than in the RGI (v6). In particular GLIMS does not contain  
350 the majority of glacier outlines from the eastern Greater Caucasus, resulting in 891 glaciers less and  $\sim 270$   
351  $\text{km}^2$  ( $\sim 19.5\%$ ) less glacier area than in our new database.



352

353 **Figure 13.** Comparison of cumulative glacier areas sorted for seven size classes for the RGI (v6), GLIMS, and  
354 current glacier inventory from 2000.

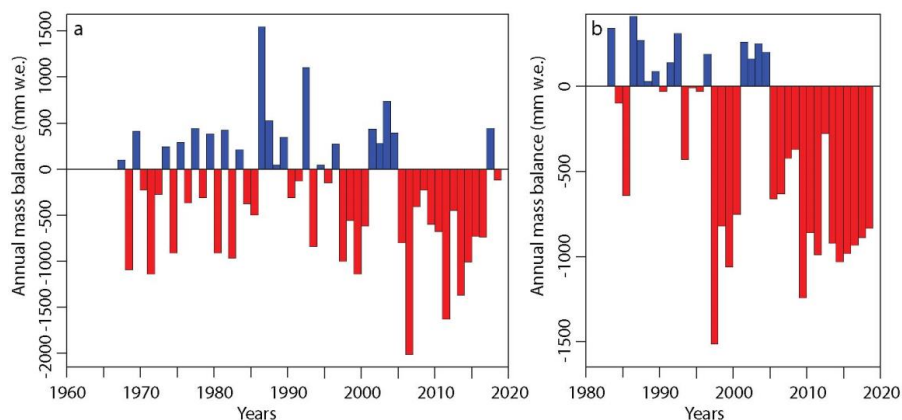
## 355 6.2 Uncertainties

356 The accuracy of the mapping was assessed by a comparison of glaciers derived from multiple digitization  
357 by different operators and using the buffer method. The resulting average uncertainty was less than ~5%  
358 of the mapped area, confirming the uncertainty estimate for the entire Greater Caucasus based on the  
359 buffer method (~4%). The major sources of uncertainty include the correct interpretation of debris cover,  
360 seasonal snow and shadows, which all can impede accurate glacier mapping. Using imagery from a  
361 different date and local knowledge, the debris cover and shadow error have been partly resolved for some  
362 glaciers; while incorrect identification of seasonal snow generally affects small glaciers more than larger  
363 ones, where possibly included snow fields do not make up a large percentage of the total area.

## 364 6.3 Climatic and mass balance trends

365 Temperature data from Terskol meteorological station (northern Greater Caucasus - 43°15'29"N  
366 42°30'51"E) indicate annual air temperature increase by ~1°C (from 11.5°C to 12.5°C) during the  
367 summer period (June, July, August) in 2000-2019 in contrast of a negative trend in October-May  
368 precipitation at the same time (from ~720 mm to ~650 mm) (Rototaeva et al., 2019). Increased summer  
369 temperature was also observed at the Mestia meteorological station (southern Greater Caucasus -  
370 43°2'56"N 42°44'17"E) between 2000 and 2014 (Tielidze et al., 2020c). Furthermore, the extension of  
371 ablation season over the last two decades was confirmed by instrumental measurement both from  
372 northern (Garabashi Glacier) and southern (Zopkhito and Chalaati glaciers) Greater Caucasus (Rototaeva  
373 et al., 2019; Tielidze et al., 2020c).

374 The increased temperatures are also reflected in mass balance observations of two WGMS reference  
375 glaciers in the Caucasus region such as Djakuat (43°11'48"N 42°45'28"E) and Garabashi (43°18'15"N  
376 42°28'5"E). They both show strong negative mass balances between 2005 and 2019 (Kutuzov et al.,  
377 2019; Rets, et al., 2019; WGMS), resulting in a much higher ice loss in this time period than accumulated  
378 before 2005 (Figure 14). Furthermore, assessment of glaciers mass changes in the Caucasus region using  
379 the geodetic method over the period 2000-2019 (Hugonnet et al., 2021) showed a three-fold increase in  
380 the rate of glacier mass loss.



381

382 **Figure 14.** Changes of mass balance of (a) Djankuat and (b) Garabashi glaciers in 1967-2019 and 1983-2019  
383 respectively (WGMS).

384 It might be possible that the increase in incoming short-wave solar radiation in the high Caucasus  
385 mountains observed since the 1980s ( $10 \text{ W/m}^2$  over 10 years) has played a significant role in the  
386 accelerated mass loss of glaciers in recent years. It has been proposed that this trend is associated with a  
387 weakening of the processes of formation of high and low clouds, which is due to an increase in the  
388 frequency of anticyclones in the warm season (Toropov et al., 2019). Moreover, a decrease in the albedo  
389 of the glacier surfaces due to an increase in the concentration of mineral particles can be another possible  
390 reason of amplified glacier mass loss. Two different pollution events (5/05/2009 and 23/03/2018) are  
391 especially noteworthy, when an extreme amount of dust from the Sahara was deposited on the Caucasus  
392 glaciers, which sharply changed the albedo and accelerated melting in the accumulation areas. Due to  
393 additional factors involved for area changes (response times, ice thickness distribution), we do not relate  
394 here the observed more negative mass balances with the increased area loss over the same time period.  
395 However, in particular for the thin ice near the glacier terminus we cannot exclude that the strong recent  
396 mass loss also contributed to the increased area loss.

## 397 7. Conclusions

398 We have presented the new Caucasus Glacier Inventory derived from manual delineation of glacier  
399 outlines based on medium (Landsat, Sentinel) and high resolution (SPOT) satellite imagery acquired  
400 around 2000 and 2020. Within the entire Greater Caucasus, the total glacierized area mapped for 2000  
401 and 2020 is  $1381.5 \pm 58.2 \text{ km}^2$  and  $1060.9 \pm 33.6 \text{ km}^2$ , respectively, resulting in  $23.2 \pm 3.8 \%$   
402 ( $320.6 \pm 45.9 \text{ km}^2$ ) or  $-1.16 \text{ \% yr}^{-1}$  reduction in total glacier area over the last twenty years. Glaciers  $< 0.5$   
403  $\text{km}^2$  contributed nearly 35% to the total area loss but covered only 17% of the total area (in 2000).

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





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

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

417

#### 418 **Information about the Supplement**

419 The new Caucasus Glacier Inventory includes: Table S1. Satellite images and digital elevation models  
420 used in this study. Table S2. The Greater Caucasus glacier number and area change in 2000–2020 by  
421 individual river basins. Table S3. Characteristics of glaciers used for measuring length change. Figure S1.  
422 and Animation map (gif file) - Glacier area changes for Elbrus Massif in 2000-2020.

423

#### 424 **Author contributions**

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

429

#### 430 **Competing interests**

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

432

#### 433 **Acknowledgements**

434 We thank Eldaniz Aliyev and Azercosmos for providing the SPOT satellite images used in this study.

435

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