Effects of topographic and meteorological parameters

on the surface area loss of ice aprons in the Mont-Blanc massif (European Alps)

Suvrat Kaushik [1,2], Ludovic Ravanel[1,3], Florence Magnin[1], Yajing Yan[2], Emmanuel Trouve[2], Diego Cusicanqui[4]

[1] EDYTEM, Univ. Savoie Mont-Blanc, Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, 73000 Chambéry, France

[2] LISTIC, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, Polytech, F-74944 Annecy-le-Vieux, France

[3] Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo, Sem Sælands vei 1, 0371 Oslo, Norway

[4] IGE, Univ. Grenoble Alpes - CNRS, F-38000 Grenoble, France

Correspondence: Suvrat Kaushik (suvrat.kaushik@univ-smb.fr)

Abstract

Ice aprons (IAs) are part of the critical components of the Alpine cryosphere. As a result of the changing climate over the past few decades, deglaciation has resulted in a surface decrease of IAs, which has not yet been documented, except for a few specific examples. In this study, we quantify the effects of climate change on IAs since the mid-20th century in the Mont-Blanc massif (western European Alps). We then evaluate the role of meteorological parameters and the local topography in the behaviour of IAs. We precisely mapped the surface areas of 200 IAs using high-resolution aerial and satellite photographs from 1952, 2001, 2012 and 2019. From the latter inventory, the surface area of the present individual IAs ranges from 0.001 to 0.04 km^2. IAs have lost their surface area over the past 70 years, with an alarming increase since the early 2000s. The total area, from 7.93 km^2 in 1952, was reduced to 5.91 km^2 in 2001 (-25.5 %) before collapsing to 4.21 km^2 in 2019 (-47 % since 1952). We performed a regression analysis using temperature and precipitation proxies to understand better the effects of meteorological parameters on IA surface area variations. We found a strong correlation between both proxies and the relative area loss of IAs, indicating the significant influence of the changing climate on the evolution of IAs. We also evaluated the

role of the local topographic factors in the IAs area loss. At a regional scale, factors like direct solar radiation and elevation have an important influence on the behaviour of IAs, while others like curvature, slope, and size of the IAs seem to be rather important on a local scale.

Key words: Ice aprons, surface area loss, topographic factors, meteorological parameters, Mont Blanc massif.

1 Introduction

The predicted shift in climate dynamics over the next decades will undoubtedly have severe consequences on the high mountain environments, primarily on glacier extent (Rafiq and Mishra, 2016; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2017; IPCC, 2021), permafrost (Magnin et al., 2017) and ice and snow cover (Rastner et al., 2019; Guillet and Ravanel, 2020). The effects of climate change on glaciers constitute a remarkably well-discussed topic in the scientific community (Yalcin, 2019).

Meteorological parameters (mainly temperature and precipitation) are the main driving forces responsible for these changes (Scherler et al., 2011; Bolch et al., 2012; Davies et al., 2012). Shifting temperature and precipitation trends leads to the advance or retreat of glaciers both in volume and surface area (Liu et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2019). On a regional and global scale, many authors have studied the impacts of climate warming on glacier retreats and, consequently, on the hydrology of the mountain environments (*e.g.*, Baraer et al. (2012); Sorg et al. (2014); Frans et al. (2016); Coppola et al. (2018)).

However, as observed by Furbish and Andrews (1984), Oerlemans et al. (1998), Hoelzle et al. (2003) and Salerno et al. (2017), glaciers present in the same climate regime can respond to climate change in different ways. The local climate variations can partly explain these variable responses. However, many of these variations result from different morphometric (size, shape, length) and topographic (altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, terrain ruggedness) characteristics.

Several studies have been devoted to understanding the linkage between topographic factors and the response of glacier/ice bodies (*e.g.,* Davies et al., 2012; De Angelis, 2014; Salerno et al., 2017).

World Glacier Monitoring Service (WGMS) monitors glacier changes in all the major mountain regions of the world. However, most mapping and monitoring studies on a global scale focus on massive glaciers since they are generally assessable and easier to monitor compared to other ice features (Liu et al., 2013).

Studies are rare for small glaciers or ice bodies, which generally show a more pronounced response to climate change (Oerlemans and Reichert, 2000; Triglav-Čekada and Gabrovec, 2013; Fischer et al., 2015). This has led to a critical gap in our understanding of their behaviour and mass balance estimates. As part of this trend, ice aprons (IAs), sometimes also referred to as 'rock faces partially covered with ice' (Gruber and Haeberli, 2007; Hasler et al., 2011), have also received poor attention from the scientific community.

These small ice accumulations on steep rock slopes are commonly found in all significant glacierized basins worldwide. However, a concrete and well-summarized definition for IAs is still missing from the literature. Previously, many authors like Benn and Evans (2010), Singh et al. (2011) and Cogley et al. (2011) tried to define IAs, but the most precise definition for IAs up to now can be found in Guillet and Ravanel (2020) for the Mont-Blanc massif (MBM; European Alps). These authors defined IAs as "very small (typically smaller than 0.1 km^2 in extent) ice bodies of irregular outline, lying on slopes >40°, regardless of whether they are thick enough to deform under their weight". The small spatial extent of the IAs makes them very difficult to map and monitor. Also, they are typically present in extremely challenging topographies on isolated steep slopes. Cogley et al. (2011) specified that IAs are "lying above the head of a glacial bergschrund which separates the flowing glacier ice from the stagnant ice, or a rock headwall".

Because of their presence on steep slopes, IAs are essential natural elements for the practice of mountaineering, especially in famous destinations like MBM (Barker, 1982). IAs are passing points for many classic mountaineering routes (Mourey et al., 2019). Hence, the loss of IAs is a severe threat to the iconic practice of mountaineering, inscribed in 2019 by UNESCO on the Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity. IAs on steep rock walls also carry the critical role of covering steep rock slopes and preventing them from direct exposure to direct solar radiation, thus partly preventing the warming of the underlying permafrost. In addition, a recent study by Guillet et al. (2021) showed that the ice present at the base of the Triangle du Tacul IA could be older than 3 ka, making IAs a potential important glacial heritage.

90   Guillet and Ravanel (2020) showed that IAs in the MBM have lost mass since the Little Ice Age

91   (LIA). Based on six different IAs, their study also showed an acceleration in the shrinkage since

92   the 1990s. They linked the loss of IA area with meteorological parameters, mainly air temperature

93   and precipitation. It was thus the first documented evidence that IAs have been losing ice volume

94   due to the changing climate. However, since this study was local and based on only a few IAs, the

95   authors could not consider other factors, such as the local topography critical for small glacier

96   bodies (Hock, 2003; Laha et al., 2017).

97   Thus, to overcome these limitations, we propose a global analysis to ascertain the relationship of

98   the area loss of IAs with the meteorological parameters, mainly air temperature and precipitation,

99   using a more comprehensive database (c. 200 IAs) covering the whole MBM. The large inventory

100 of IAs has been surveyed thanks to high-resolution aerial and satellite images from 1952, 2001,

101 2012 and 2019. Further, based on our inventory, we also evaluate the impacts of the

102 topographic/geometric controls on the area changes of IAs. For this, we consider the size of IA,

103 elevation/altitude, slope, curvature, Topographic Ruggedness Index (TRI), direct solar radiation

104 and permafrost conditions (classified together as topographic factors) based on past studies on

105 similar themes (*e.g.*, Oerlemans et al., 1998; Warren, 2008; DeBeer and Sharp, 2009; Jiskoot et

106 al., 2009; Davies et al., 2012; Salerno et al., 2017).

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108

109 **2 Study area and the impacts of climate change in the region**

110

111 The Mont-Blanc massif (Fig. 1) is located in the north-western (external) Alps between France,

112 Switzerland, and Italy. It covers $c.$550 km^2 and displays some of the highest peaks in the European

113 Alps; a dozen peaks have elevations greater than 4000 m a.s.l. MBM thus shows a significant

114 variation in the elevation range throughout the massif; the lowest point of the massif is at 1050 m

115 a.s.l. (Chamonix) and the highest, the top of Mont Blanc at 4808 m a.s.l.

116 Because of its high elevation, the MBM is also the most glacierized massif in the French Alps

117 (Gardent et al., 2014). There are about 100 glaciers often bordered by steep rock walls, including

118 12 glaciers larger than 5 km^2. The steep and irregular terrain facilitates the development of many

119 unique ice bodies like cold-based hanging glaciers or IAs. Figure 2 shows two examples of the

120 locations of the IAs on the steep N faces from the study region.

121 As a result of an asymmetry of the massif, 6 of the largest glaciers are located on its NW French
122 side, where slopes are gentler than the Italian side and glaciers are well fed by the westerly winds
123 while melting is reduced by the protection of the shaded North faces. The SE Italian side is
124 characterized by smaller glaciers and generally steeper slopes bounded by very high sub-vertical
125 rock walls. This asymmetry is also evidenced by the difference in the meteorological conditions
126 observed on the two sides of the massif. For example, the Mean Annual Air Temperature (MAAT)
127 recorded in Chamonix (at 1044 m a.s.l.) is +7.2°C while that in Courmayeur (1223 m a.s.l.) is +
128 10.4°C (Deline et al., 2012). Comparing the annual MAAT values from 1934 to today shows that
129 MAAT increased by > 2.1°C in Chamonix (*MétéoFrance* data). Moreover, the increase in MAAT
130 from 1970 to 2009 was almost four times faster than from 1934 to 1970 (Mourey et al., 2019). Not
131 only at lower elevations, but the MAAT also increased by 1.4°C at elevations exceeding 4000 m
132 a.s.l. between 1990 and 2014 (Gilbert and Vincent, 2013). The MBM has experienced nine
133 summers characterized by heatwaves (where maximum temperatures for at least three consecutive
134 days exceed a heatwave temperature threshold defined for the region) since 1990 (1994, 2003,
135 2006, 2009, 2015, 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020), with the one as recent as 2018 being the second
136 (after 2003) hottest. The average annual precipitation recorded for Chamonix is 1,288 mm, and
137 854 mm for Courmayeur (Vincent, 2002). The precipitation rates in the MBM have remained
138 relatively constant since the end of the LIA, but there is a noticeable decrease in the number of
139 snowfall days relative to the total precipitation days below 2700 m a.s.l. (Serquet et al., 2011).
140 Global warming has led to a general retreat trend of the MBM glaciers since the end of the LIA
141 despite small re-advances culminating in 1890, the 1920s and the 1980s (Bauder et al., 2007). The
142 recorded loss of glacier surface area was 24 % of the total area from the end of the LIA to 2008
143 (Gardent et al., 2014). The reported loss of ice thickness is also noteworthy. For example, the loss
144 of ice thickness at the front of the "Mer de Glace" glacier (1650 m a.s.l.) from 1986 to 2021 is 145
145 m; the Argentière glacier (1900 m a.s.l.) has lost 80 m in thickness from 1994 to 2013 (Bauder et
146 al., 2007). At 3550 m a.s.l., the surface of the Géant glacier also lowered by 20 m between 1992
147 and 2012 (Ravanel et al., 2013). The glacier retreat and shrinkage concur with the Equilibrium
148 Line Altitude (ELA) that rose by 170 m between 1984 and 2010 in the western Alps (Rabatel et
149 al., 2013). As a result of the loss of ice volume, the density of open crevasses has considerably
150 increased, along with an increase in bare ice areas. In some instances, ice volume loss leads to
151 instability of steep slopes, and serac falls from the front of warm and cold glaciers are more

152 frequent (Fischer et al., 2006). This latter process can be typical during the warmest periods of the

153 year (Deline et al., 2012). Warming trends also intensify moraine erosion, leading to— increased

154 rockfalls and landslides (Deline et al., 2015; Ravanel et al., 2018). Degradation/warming is another

155 critical concern for permafrost (*e.g.*, Haeberli and Gruber, 2009).

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157

158 **3 Data description**

159

160 This section describes all the datasets obtained from diverse sources used in this study (Table. 1).

161

162 **3.1 Digital Elevation Model**

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164 Since one of our study's main aims was to perform a joint analysis of the behaviour of small ice

165 bodies and the local topography, it was paramount to have a robust high resolution and accurate

166 Digital Elevation Model (DEM) for the study region. To avoid the uncertainties that most global

167 DEMs are plagued with and to overcome the problem of different DEM origins on the French and

168 Italian sides of the MBM, we built our own DEM. As part of the CNES *Kalideos Alps* project,

169 stereoscopic sub-meter resolution optical images from the Pleiades constellation were acquired.

170 Using the pair of stereo panchromatic images (25/08/2019), a 4 m resolution DEM was computed

171 using the Ames Stereo Pipeline (ASP), an open-source processing chain developed by Shean et al.

172 (2016). The parameters used for the processing were kept the same as those of Marti et al. (2016).

173 The second part of the processing involved accurately co-registering the newly built DEM with an

174 existing reference DEM of high precision and accuracy. For this purpose, we used the automatic

175 DEM co-registration methodology given by Nuth and Kääb (2011). As a 'reference', we used a 2

176 m LiDAR DEM for the area around the Argentière glacier (8 * 2.5 km spatial extent) (Fig. 3a)

177 built by the *Institut des Géosciences de l'Environnement* (IGE) to co-register the 'source' 4 m

178 Pleaides DEM (Fig. 3b) generated in the previous step. A precisely co-registered, high-resolution,

179 robust 4 m DEM was obtained at the end of the processing steps. More detailed information about

180 the processing parameters for DEM generation and co-registration can be found in Kaushik et al.,

181 2021. We used this DEM to compute topographic parameters like slope, aspect, curvature,

182 elevation, TRI, mean annual rock surface temperature (MARST) and direct solar radiation.

3.2 Optical aerial and satellite images

This study relies on high-resolution aerial and satellite images (Table 1). Working with data from different sources allowed us to tap into the wealth of data for comparison. Spanning over seven decades and covering the entire MBM, ortho-images for 1952, 2001 (0.5 m resolution) and 2015 (0.2 m resolution) were downloaded from *Géoportail* IGN (French *Institut national de l'information géographique et forestière*), while the panchromatic and XS images from SPOT 6 and Pleiades at 2.2 m and 0.5 m respectively were downloaded from the *Kalideos Alps* website. Considering the small dimensions of the ice bodies, we could only work with high-resolution optical images covering the entire MBM. We were thus limited by only one set of excellent quality images for 1952 and 2001, as very high-resolution images for this study period were unavailable from any other source. Hence our mapping exercise relied only on the ortho-images for these two time periods. For 2012 and 2019, we had data from multiple sources (Pleiades, SPOT and ortho-images) to deal with the problems associated with the lack of coverage, cloud cover, illumination, shadow, and seasonal snow cover that made visual interpretation difficult. We used a combination of Pleiades and SPOT 6 XS images for mapping the IAs boundaries, with validation of results conducted with the help of the ortho-images. To avoid overestimating the extent of IAs, we utilized images acquired at the end of the summer period (late August or early September). Considering that our optical images came from many sources, it was necessary to accurately co-register all images. We used the automatic 'image to image' co-registration tool in ENVI 5.6. The process included locating and matching several feature points called tie points in a 'reference' image and a 'warped' image selected for co-registration. Here, we used the Pleiades panchromatic image of 2019 as a reference, and all the warped images were accordingly co-registered. Both coarse and fine co-registration procedures were performed, and the co-registration process was stopped when the RMSE values achieved were less than half the pixel resolution of the warped image based on the recommendations of Han and Oh (2018). A more detailed description of the co-registration process was discussed in Kaushik et al. (2021).

3.3 Meteorological data

Proxies to define accumulation and ablation phases were built to explore the correlated variations in the surface area of IAs with the changing climate. A similar study for 6 IAs was performed by Guillet and Ravanel (2020); we aim to test the validity of their results with a more extensive database (*c.*200 IAs) in the entire MBM. Since the IAs are spread across different elevation ranges, we tested the results using the SAFRAN reanalysis product (Vernay et al., 2019) that produces gridded temperature, precipitation, wind speed, and other datasets of meteorological variables at an hourly time step. This data was available as NetCDF files from 1958 for all the French massifs, at every 300 m elevation belts, at 0, 20, 40° slopes, and for all eight aspects (N, NE, E, SE, S, SW, W, NW). Our study is based on two different meteorological datasets described in the sub-sections below to compare the differences.

3.3.1 Meteorological datasets used by Guillet and Ravanel, 2020

The first part of our analysis follows a similar methodology followed by Guillet and Ravanel (2020) in their analysis. Like their study, we used homogenized weather records from the Col du Grand Saint Bernard (GSB), located close to the MBM at 2469 m a.s.l. provided by MeteoSwiss and the Aiguille du Midi (AdM) cable car station (3810 m a.s.l.). GSB represents a similar climatological regime as the MBM, and the weather records were available for an extended period starting from the 1860s. Such long-term weather records were unavailable from any weather station in the MBM. Since all IAs are located at elevations above the elevation of the GSB weather station, it was necessary to transform the weather records to an elevation closer to the average elevation range of the IAs. For this reason, it was necessary to transform the data from the GSB station using the weather records from the AdM weather station (data available since 2007). Guillet and Ravanel (2020) found a strong correlation between the monthly averaged AdM and GSB temperature records and were able to transform the GSB temperatures using a linear model:

$$T_{AdM} = \alpha T_{GSBi} + \beta + r_i, \tag{1}$$

where $\alpha = 0.87$ (slope) , $\beta = -7.7^o$ C (intercept) and r (residuals) with zero mean.

No transformation for the precipitation values was performed as this relation is tough to establish and not always linear (Smith, 2008). Hence, the original GSB precipitation values were used for the analysis. Using these weather records, Guillet and Ravanel (2020) found a robust correlation between ablation and accumulation proxies and the surface area change of 6 IAs. We used the same datasets to test for similar potential relationships for *c.* 200 IAs, and the results are shown in Sect. 5.3.

3.3.2 Meteorological datasets used in this study for comparison

Since the previous study involved a small number of IAs, the disparity arising from elevation differences of IAs (in turn, the temperature and precipitation coming from weather stations at a fixed elevation) could have been minimized or not well represented. We decided to use the SAFRAN reanalysis product and checked for similar potential relationships of climate variables with the surface area change of IAs. The first problem we encountered was that the SAFRAN data starts from 1958, while our first images date from 1952. Therefore, for comparison, it was essential to interpolate the missing data for the six years before 1958 (Fig. 4). Like the previous methodology, we looked for a linear relationship between the SAFRAN temperature data (at 2400 m a.s.l. elevation belt) and the GSB temperature data. We again found a strong correlation between the two datasets (Fig. 5) which helped us transform the data using:

$$T_{SAFRAN2400} = \alpha\ T_{GSB\ i} + \beta + r_i, \qquad\qquad (2)$$

where $\alpha = 1.01$ (slope) , $\beta = -1.35^\circ$ C (intercept) and r (residuals) with zero mean.

For the SAFRAN data estimated (2400 m a.s.l.) from 1952, we extrapolated the data for all elevation bands. We used a standard gradient of -0.53° C/100 m increase of elevation based on the observations of Magnin et al. (2015) for the MBM.

As previously stated, a similar relationship for precipitation was tough to establish. Hence, for the analysis, we used the SAFRAN precipitation data from 1958 and extrapolated the precipitation values from the GSB weather station to all elevation bands of SAFRAN data before 1958 (six years up to 1952). However, taking a cue from the previous study of Guillet and Ravanel (2020), we expect this impact to be insignificant when considering the results over seven decades.

4 Methods

4.1 Mapping the surface area of IAs from high-resolution satellite images

IAs boundaries were manually delineated/digitized by the first author of this paper to maintain data consistency in a GIS environment for 1952, 2001, 2012 2019. The problem of seasonal snow, which can lead to an overestimation of surface areas, was avoided using images at the end of the ablation period. The differentiation of IAs from other snow/ice bodies relies on the slope angle (we only consider ice bodies on slopes $> 40^\circ$ to be IAs) and whether they are thick enough to deform under their own weight and show movement, like in the case of hanging glaciers. The slope mask to remove areas with slopes $< 40^\circ$ was built in ArcGIS 10.6 using the Pleaides DEM.

Figure 6 shows the variations in the surface areas of IAs over the study period. It also highlights the importance of high-resolution images because of the small dimensions of our study ice bodies. However, this data is not always available in the best quality for the past periods as we could only very accurately map 200 IAs (out of the total 423 IAs reported in Kaushik et al., 2021) for all the periods. These 200 IAs were selected carefully after a detailed visual inspection after considering issues related to shadow and illumination. Since a point-based correlation analysis (with meteorological and topographic parameters) requires very high accuracy and precision of mapping, any significant uncertainty would have resulted in a major bias in our correlation estimates. To avoid this, we utilize only 200 of the best mapped IAs for the correlation analysis. However, for the estimation of the total area of IAs in 1952, 2001, 2012 and 2019, as described in Sect. 5.2, we use the complete database of 423 IAs with the assumption that overall, for the entire database, the uncertainty in the mapping ($\pm$ of the surface area) cancels out eventually and becomes insignificant.

4.2 Generation of topo-climatic parameters

The relative area loss of IAs for three time periods, *i.e.* 1952 to 2001, 2001 to 2012 and 2012 to 2019, is analyzed with all topographic factors. The area loss is expressed as a relative percentage of the area lost between the first observation and the next. Authors like Salerno et al. (2017) have also used absolute values, but for our study, this would not give a fair estimation for the analysis

306 as it generates a bias based on the size of IAs. The factors we considered for our analysis are

307 elevation, slope, aspect, curvature, TRI, direct solar radiation (all estimated in ArcGIS 10.6),

308 MARST, and size of the IAs. The topographic parameters are generated using the 4 m Pleaides

309 DEM described in Sect. 3.1.

310

311 **Direct solar radiation:**

312 Direct solar radiation (DSR) measures the potential total insolation across a landscape or at a

313 specific location. On a local scale, components such as topographic shading, slope, and aspect

314 control the radiation distribution (Olson and Rupper, 2019). For estimating the DSR, the viewshed

315 algorithm was run based on a uniform sky and a fixed atmospheric transmissivity value of 1. Sabo

316 et al. (2016) showed the application of these algorithms in areas of rough topography. The total

317 DSR (DSR$_{tot}$) for a given location is calculated as the sum of the DSR (Dir$_{\theta,\alpha}$) from all the sun

318 sectors (calculated for every sun position at 30 minutes intervals throughout the day and month for

319 a year):

320 $$DSR_{tot} = \sum DSR_{\theta,\alpha} \tag{3}$$

321

322 The direct solar radiation (Dir$_{\theta,\alpha}$) with a centroid at zenith angle (θ) and azimuth angle (α) is

323 calculated using the following equation:

324

325 $$DSR_{\theta,\alpha} = S_{Const} * (\beta^{m(\theta)}) * SunDur_{\theta,\alpha} * SunGap_{\theta,\alpha} * \cos(AngIn_{\theta,\alpha}), \tag{4}$$

326

327 where S$_{Const}$ is the solar constant with a value of 1367 W/m^2, β is the transmissivity of the

328 atmosphere (averaged over all wavelengths) for the shortest path (in the direction of the zenith),

329 m(θ) is the relative optical path length, measured as a proportion relative to the zenith path length,

330 SunDur$_{\theta,\alpha}$ is the time duration represented by the sky sector, SunGap$_{\theta,\alpha}$ is the gap fraction for the

331 sun map sector and AngIn$_{\theta,\alpha}$ is the angle of incidence between the centroid of the sky sector and

332 the axis normal to the surface.

333 The final map of DSR is the sum of values calculated at an hourly time step for every pixel, as per

334 the resolution of the DEM used. The values of solar radiation are given in W/m^2. Higher values

335 for solar radiation indicate higher insolation, while lower values suggest low insolation. We prefer

336   DSR over the aspect for our analysis to avoid bias due to local shading on sun-exposed faces,

337   considering the slope angle associated with the aspect.

338

Elevation:

339

340   Elevation strongly influences the meteorological conditions within the same region, significantly

341   altering the precipitation, temperature, and wind regime even at a local scale. Generally, higher

342   elevations receive more precipitation and experience lower temperatures and higher wind speeds.

343   Hence regions at higher elevations, especially above the ELA, should favour more accumulation

344   than ablation. However, wind-driven snow at higher elevations does not readily accumulate on

345   steep slopes. Some IAs may take advantage of the leeward conditions at lower elevations and

346   sustain for more extended periods. Similar results for large glaciers have previously been reported

347   by Bhambri et al. (2011) or Pandey and Venkataraman (2013).

348

Mean slope:

349

350   Slope angle strongly influences ice velocities of glaciers, mass flux, and the hydrology of the

351   mountain environments. Its influence on avalanche transport of snow over the glacier surface has

352   been discussed previously (*e.g.*, Oerlemans, 1989; Hoelzle et al., 2003; DeBeer and Sharp, 2009).

353   Numerous studies have also reported that slope is the single most crucial terrain parameter that

354   controls glacier responses to climate change (Furbish and Andrews, 1984; Oerlemans et al., 1998;

355   Jiskoot et al., 2009; Scherler et al., 2011). In mountainous regions, the terrain slope strongly

356   influences snow accumulation. On steep slopes, accumulation in the temperature range of -5 - 0°

357   C can accumulate on steep slopes. Slope likewise plays a key role when calculating other terrain

358   parameters and indices.

359

Mean annual rock surface temperature:

360

361   MARST estimates the average annual temperature of the rock surface governed mainly by the

362   incoming shortwave solar radiation (PISR) and the mean annual air temperature (MAAT). The

363   method for estimating MARST is described by Boeckli et al. (2012) and Magnin et al. (2019). The

364   estimation is based on a multiple linear regression model with the form:

365

(5)

$$Y = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta i X^i + \varepsilon,$$

366

367

368   where Y is the value for MARST, α is the intercept term, $\theta i X^i$ represents the model's k variables

369   (PISR and MAAT) and their respective coefficients, and ε residual error term distributed equally

370   with the mean equal to 0 and the variance $\sigma^2 > 0$. For predicting the values of MARST in steep

371   slopes, we use the equation:

372

373                 $MARST_{(pred)} = \alpha + PISR * b + MAAT * c,$ (6)

374

375   where α is the $MARST_{pred}$ value when PISR and MAAT are equal to 0, and b and c are the

376   respective coefficients of PISR and MAAT at measured RST positions. These coefficients were

377   calibrated by Boeckli et al. (2012) (rock model 2) for the entire European Alps using a set of 53

378   MARST measurement points. The MAAT of the 1961-1990 period was used to calculate MARST,

379   representing a steady state.

380   The values for MARST are calculated in °C and, for our study region, range from -12 to 10°C.

381   MARST is also an important criterion to check for the very likely presence of permafrost below

382   the IAs, which likely allows the formation and existence of IAs.

383

384   **Topographic Ruggedness Index:**

385   The topographic Ruggedness Index (TRI) measures the ruggedness of the landscape. TRI was

386   calculated based on the methodology proposed by Sappington et al. (2007). It is calculated as a 3-

387   dimensional dispersion of vectors (x, y, z components) normal to the grid cells considering the

388   slope and aspect of the cell. The magnitude of the resultant vector in a standardized form (vector

389   strength divided by the number of cells in the neighbourhood) measures the ruggedness of the

390   landscape. Higher values of TRI thus suggest a more rugged and sporadic terrain, which could

391   block the downward movement of the snow and subsequently lead to the formation of a weak

392   layer, destabilizing the snowpack and leading to small avalanches resulting in mass wasting

393   (Schweizer, 2003). Since IA surfaces are smooth, the TRI values calculated at the surface of the

394   IA are always low. Hence, we consider the TRI values by taking a buffer of 20 m around the IA

395 boundary delineated for the first observation (1952). The mean TRI value from this buffer is
396 considered for our analysis.

397

398

399 **Curvature:**

400 Curvature, estimated as a second derivative of the surface, defines the shape of the slope. Curvature
401 is considered an essential factor because it can define snow accumulation or ablation rates for a
402 surface. Generally, two types of curvature profiles are known, plan and profile. For our analysis,
403 we only used the profile curvature as it defines the shape of the slope in the steepest direction.
404 From a theoretical point of view, erosion processes prevail in convex (negative values) profile
405 curvature locations, while deposition is predominant in concave (positive values) profile curvature
406 locations. The curvature values define how strongly the slope is convex (lower negative values) or
407 concave (higher positive values). That is why curvatures can be considered essential in the
408 accumulation and ablation rates of a glacier or ice body. Like TRI, the IAs tend to show flat
409 curvature profiles if we consider their surface. Hence, we estimate the curvature values around the
410 same buffer as the TRI and use this for further analysis.

411

412

413 **4.3 Proxies for ablation and accumulation**

414

415 To eventually correlate changes in surface area of IAs with the changing climate, we use the
416 temperature and precipitation data from the transformed GSB weather records and SAFRAN
417 reanalysis product (see Sect. 3.3) to build proxies for accumulation and ablation. The proxy for
418 ablation was built by estimating the annual sum of positive degree-days (PDD) computed from the
419 normal probability distribution centered around the mean monthly temperature. Estimation of the
420 PDD is based on the empirical relation, which states that the melting rate is proportional to the
421 surface-air temperature excess above 0°C. Several methods for estimating PDD have been
422 proposed by Braithwaite and Olesen (1989), Braithwaite (1995), and Hock (2003). However, the
423 method proposed by Calov and Greve (2005) also accounts for stochastic variations in temperature
424 during the computation of PDD. The formula for the estimation of the PDD using this method is
425 given by:

426

$$\text{PDD} = \int_0^A dt \left[\frac{T_{ac}^2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{T_{ac}}{2\sigma^2}\right) + \frac{T_{ac}}{2} \, erfc\left(-\frac{T_{ac}}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \right] \qquad (7)$$

428

T_{ac} is the annual temperature cycle (monthly mean temperatures estimated in $^\circ$C for the entire year), σ is the standard deviation of the temperature from the annual cycle, A = 1 year, and *erfc* is the conventional error function built-in in all programming languages.

After computing the PDD, we calculate the cumulative PDD (CPDD) by taking the sum of all the annual PDD values for each observation period (*i.e.* 1952-2001, 2001-2012 and 2012-2019). This value of CPDD is then used as a proxy for ablation (Braithwaite and Olesen, 1989; Vincent and Vallon, 1997).

The calculation of the proxy for accumulation is more tricky because we only consider the yearly sum of precipitation occurring at a temperature between -5 and 0°C, as only snowfall within this temperature range is believed to accumulate/adhere to steep slopes (Kuroiwa et al., 1967; Guillet and Ravanel, 2020; Eidevåg et al., 2022). The temperature-dependent indicator function can be written in the following form:

441

$$\chi_i(T, (t)) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if} -5^\circ\text{C} \leq T(t) \leq 0^\circ\text{C} \\ \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad (8)$$

445

4.4 Surface area model

447

Using the proxy for ablation and accumulation, Guillet and Ravanel (2020) proposed a surface area model to estimate the differences in the surface areas of IAs between different time steps due to the time-integrated changes in meteorological parameters. The main goal is to look for a potential linear relationship between climate variables and the changes in surface areas of IAs, using a multivariate regression model. The equation for the model can be written as:

453

$$S_m(t) = S(t_0) - \int_{t_0}^t (\alpha 1 \, CPDD(t) - \chi_i(T(t))\alpha 2 \, A(t)) dt + \beta + \varepsilon(t) \qquad (9)$$

455

456 where $S_m(t)$ corresponds to the modelled surface area at time t; similarly, CPDD(t) and A(t)

457 represent the proxies for ablation and accumulation; S(t = 0) is the first available measurement; α1

458 and α2 are the coefficients of linear regression, β is the intercept, and ε the residual. χ(T, t) accounts

459 for precipitation occurring in the [-5°C, 0°C] temperature range and is given by the temperature-

460 dependent indicator function given in equation (8). The area of IAs at each time step was calculated

461 using the surface area model (with the temperature and precipitation proxies), and we hereafter

462 refer to this area as modelled area. The measured area is the surface area we delineated using high-

463 resolution optical images.

464

465

466 **4.5 Uncertainty estimations**

467

468 Since this study uses data from different sources and periods, uncertainties of different origins

469 might have been introduced to delineate the IA boundaries. A good estimation of these

470 uncertainties is thus crucial to have a fair estimation of the significance of the results (Racoviteanu

471 et al., 2008; Shukla and Qadir, 2016; Garg et al., 2017). Some sources of uncertainty in this study

472 could arise from (1) errors inherent to the aerial images and satellite-derived datasets, (2) errors

473 resulting from inaccurate co-registration of data from various sources, (3) errors produced while

474 generating the high-resolution DEM from stereo images, and (4) conceptual errors linked with

475 defining the boundaries of IAs in all images. Quantifying the errors inherent in processing all

476 datasets used is challenging, and this is out of the scope of this paper. A detailed accuracy

477 assessment of the DEM generation and co-registration process is provided in Sect. 5.1 and 3.1,

478 respectively. Quantifying errors resulting from the manual delineation of IA boundary is also

479 challenging, but we have previous guidelines from Paul et al. (2017) for the quality and consistency

480 assessment of manual delineations.

481 One way to assess the area uncertainty is to perform multiple digitizations of the same surface and

482 calculate the mean area deviation (MAD), taking the first digitization as a reference (Meier et al.,

483 2018). Considering this, the first author performed three digitizations for 50 IAs on images from

484 1952, 2001, 2012 and 2019, considering different challenges associated with aerial and satellite

485 images like shadow and illumination. MAD provides a percentage estimate of how the final area

486 calculated varies across multiple digitizations for each polygon. MAD values are affected by the

487 size of the polygon manually digitized. Previously, authors like Paul et al. (2013), Fischer et al.

488 (2014) and Pfeffer et al. (2014) have reported an increase in the uncertainty of manual digitizations

489 with a decrease in the size of the polygons. With this in mind, we also digitized IAs of different

490 sizes ranging from 0.001 km^2 to 0.01 km^2.

491

492

493

494 **5 Results**

495

496 **5.1 Accuracy of the DEM**

497

498 Figure 7a shows the stable surfaces (after eliminating glacier boundaries, trees, and forests) we

499 used for our co-registration process, and Figure 7b displays the difference in elevation between the

500 reference DEM and the source DEM before co-registration. Figure 7c presents the results after the

501 co-registration process considering all the surfaces (stable and non-stable), and Figure. 7d shows

502 the difference considering only the stable areas after masking out non-stable areas using the glacier

503 boundaries provided by the RGI. The source DEM was translated using the corresponding shift

504 values x = -5.03 m, y= 6.00 m, and z = 3.22 m

505 The distribution of errors can be visualized by a histogram of the sampled errors, where the number

506 of errors (frequency) within certain predefined intervals is plotted (Höhle and Höhle, 2009). Figure

507 8 shows the histogram of the errors Δh (elevation difference between the reference and source

508 DEM) in meters for the stable areas. The accuracy estimates before and after the co-registration

509 are shown by the normalized median absolute deviation (nmad) and the median value calculated

510 together. As can be seen, the nmad and median values before the co-registration process for stable

511 areas were 5.16 and -5.06, respectively. After the co-registration process, the value dropped to

512 1.98 for the nmad and -0.14 for the median value. This suggests a good correlation between the

513 high-resolution LiDAR DEM used as a reference and the Pleaides DEM we built.

514

515

516

517

5.2 Total area loss of ice aprons in the Mont-Blanc massif over seven decades

The total area of IAs mapped in 1952 was 7.932 km^2. It dropped to 5.915 km^2 in 2001. The surface area dropped to 4.919 km^2 in 2012 and then to 4.21 km^2 in 2019 (Fig. 9). This implies that from 1952 to 2019, IAs have lost ~47 % of their original area in 67 years. It corresponds to an average surface area loss of 0.78 km^2 per decade. However, the percentage area loss from 1952 to 2001 was ~25 % compared to ~29 % relative area loss from 2001 to 2019. This is an alarming rate: IAs have lost more relative area during the 18 recent years (with an average area loss of 1.15 %/ year) compared to the 50 years before 2001 (0.5 %/ year average area loss).

Figure 10 shows the MAD values for 50 IAs in 1952, 2001, 2012 and 2019. We did not observe an increase in MAD values with decreasing size of the IAs, mainly because the number of samples we used is comparatively less than that in the previous studies. Overall, the mean MAD observed for all years was ± 6.4 %. The MAD for the IAs digitized on the orthophotos from 1952 was ± 6.68 %, while for 2001, it was ± 7.2 %. The MAD for 2012 and 2019 was ± 6.32 % and ± 5.50 %, respectively.

5.3 Influence of changing climate on the area loss

Figure 11 shows the trend of PDD increase over the years in the MBM. All elevations, except 4800 m a.s.l., show an increasing trend of PDD values from 1952 to 2019. Specifically, for the year 1952, since we have only one year for the longer-term analysis, it is interesting to look in detail at the climatic conditions prevailing in the region around this period. Looking at the GSB records, the average temperature in the region during the past ten years before 1952 was -0.987 °C, with average summer temperatures (July, August and September) being 6.783 °C. 1947 was particularly hot, with the annual average temperature recorded at -0.275 °C and average summer temperatures at 8.266 °C. The next thirty years after 1952 were more favourable, with average annual temepratures recorded at -1.523 °C and average summer temperatures being 5.256 °C (GSB data provided as supplementary material 1). Since 1952 was coming at the back of considerably warmer years, a significant reduction in their surface area can be expected during this period. Looking at the weather records, the conditions after 1952 for the next thirty years were more favourable.

Figure 14a presents the correlation between the ratio of the mean measured surface area at time t, $S(t)$, to the initial area, $S(t_0)$, with the ratio of the mean modelled surface area using the GSB transformed data to the initial area for 2001 and 1952. We consider the ratio of $S(t)/S(t_0)$ as an indicator to estimate the area loss between the two time periods. A high ratio value (*i.e.* value close to 1) in the present context indicates that the relative surface area loss of IAs between the two periods is comparatively less than that of IAs whose ratio is closer to 0. A value larger than 1 indicates an increase in the surface area over time.

From the results, we do not see a strong correlation ($r = 0.73$) between the modelled area (from GSB transformed climate data) and the measured area for the 200 IAs spread across the MBM (Fig. 14 a). However, the correlation improves significantly ($r = 0.86$) when we use the SAFRAN data based on different elevations and remodel the surface area for each IA (Fig. 14 b). This can be seen from the values of R^2, Pearson's r, RMSE and the p-value estimates from the T-test achieved from both datasets (Table 2). The best-fitting line presents a slope of 1.0 and an intercept of 0.0.

Both figures show that IAs at lower elevations (blue to green colour and small tick size) generally show lower ratios values than IAs at higher elevations (yellowish colours and bigger tick size). This implies that the elevation of the IAs potentially plays a crucial role in their response to the changing climate. Overall, the surface area of IAs decreased throughout the massif from 1952 to

579 2001 except for 4 IAs, which showed an increase in surface area. These 4 IAs are: 2 IAs on the N

580 and NW face of Rochers Rouges Inferieurs (~4350 m a.s.l. and 4050 m a.s.l.) near the Grand

581 Plateau, 1 IA on the NE face of Col de la Brenva (~4160 m a.s.l.) and 1 IA on the S face of Col du

582 Bionnassay (~4050 m a.s.l.). As observed, all these IAs are located at elevations higher than 4000

583 m a.s.l. As an exception, it can be expected that a few IAs could show an increase in the surface

584 area. However, this increase is not dramatic (~10 % increase). The results, however, reaffirm the

585 proficiency of the proposed surface area model in predicting new IA states from the accumulation

586 and ablation proxies. Similar results were observed for the other two time periods, *i.e.* 2001-2012

587 and 2012-2019, as seen in Table 2.

588

589

590 **5.4 Influence of the local topography and other factors on the area loss of IAs**

591

592 Each parameter, as described in Sect. 4.2 was individually regressed with the relative area loss of

593 IAs for the three periods, and their influence was assessed by the coefficient of determination (R^2)

594 and Pearson's r-value.

595 A joint analysis of the surface area lost by the IAs and the direct solar radiation reveals a strong

596 correlation between the values of DSR and the relative surface area loss of IAs for all the three-

597 time periods (1952-2001, 2001-2012 and 2012-2019) (Fig. 15a; Table 3). However, this is the first

598 evidence of the potential negative impact of solar radiation on small ice bodies like IAs. Previous

599 analysis of Guillet and Ravanel, 2020 with the climate variables indicated a potential relationship

600 between the elevation and the surface area loss of IAs. This is somewhat statistically significant

601 from the regression analysis, as we found a negative correlation between the surface area loss and

602 the mean elevation of the IAs (Fig. 15b; Table 3). A further comparison of the IAs (200 IAs)

603 distribution with elevation and aspect shows that most IAs (~ 77 % of the total number) exist at

604 elevations above 3200 m a.s.l. Further, most IAs (~ 56.5 %) exist in the northern aspects (N, NW,

605 NE), while the E and W aspects are the least favoured (supplementary material 2). In addition, we

606 found a moderate positive correlation between the average MARST values and the surface area

607 loss of IAs. The correlation observed was not very significant compared to the previous two

608 factors. It indicates that the effect of rock surface temperatures on the area loss of IAs is not strong

609 on a regional scale. (Fig. 15c; Table 3). However, this relationship needs to be examined in a more

site-specific and localized area to understand better its impact on the surface area loss of IAs. We also observed that the correlation was higher for a more extensive observation period (1952-2001) than for shorter periods. This could suggest that the influence of rock surface temperatures potentially becomes more prominent with a more extensive observation period.

A similar analysis of IA area loss with the TRI showed a weak positive correlation (Fig. 15d; Table 3). An increase in TRI values (*i.e.* increase in terrain ruggedness) may result in more ice area loss on a site-specific scale, but this relationship is hard to observe globally. Like the results from the analysis with MARST, the strongest correlation was again observed for the largest study period. Further, like the TRI, we also found a weak correlation between the terrain slope and curvature with the surface area loss of IAs. We must note that our criteria for selecting IAs already limit us to areas with slope angles steeper than 40° (Fig.15e; Table 3). Hence it was difficult to observe any significant impact of terrain slope on the rate of area loss of IAs. Similarly, terrain curvature seems to have the most negligible impact (Fig. 15f; Table 3). As cited in Sect. 4.2. previous studies may have shown that terrain curvatures could play an essential role in the erosion and accumulation dynamics on steep slopes, but this is not the case for IAs in the MBM. We performed the last comparison between the relative surface area loss of IAs with their initial area. Our results were similar to the one Lopez et al. (2010) reported, as we did not find any correlation between the two quantities (Fig. 15g; Table 3).

6. Discussion:

6.1 Area loss of ice aprons and the role of the changing climate

As observed from the results in Sect. 5.2, IAs have been losing surface area at an alarming rate. This rate of surface area loss is disconcerting because, compared to the glaciers in the MBM, the IAs are losing their area at a higher rate (~24 % for glaciers from the end of LIA till 2008, according to Gardent et al., 2014, while IAs have lost ~47% surface area in the last 70 years). The small size of IAs makes them more vulnerable to global warming than large glaciers. An increase in average annual temperatures and a decrease in precipitation rates puts the existing IAs at risk of losing their mass entirely before the end of this century. In addition, considering that the effects of local

641   topography are also more pronounced in the case of IAs than for large glaciers, continuous

642   monitoring of these critical ice bodies has become imperative. Results discussed in Sect. 5.3

643   indicated the strong influence of temperature and precipitation on the surface area changes of IAs.

644   The results raise further questions regarding the sensitivity of the IAs to extreme weather events,

645   like the heatwaves experienced in the study region. Unfortunately, our sampling rate does not

646   allow us to quantify the effects of individual extreme weather events. Nevertheless, there is a

647   strong argument in favour that these events, especially in the past two decades, cause the IAs to

648   lose mass more rapidly than in the previous decades. Further, the heatwaves occurring during

649   winter and midsummer, when the IA surfaces are free of snow, will have the worst adverse effect.

650   As suggested by Meehl and Tebaldi, (2004), with an increase in the intensity and frequency of

651   extreme events in the coming decades, understanding the effects of climate variables on the

652   sensitivity of IAs is even more critical.

653   Further, several authors have previously also accounted for the variations in solar radiation in

654   mass-balance modelling studies (Huss et al., 2009; Thibert et al., 2018). Our results showed a

655   strong correlation of DSR with area change, making this argument stronger. However, since the

656   focus was to show the impact of climate variables separately, we preferred a temperature-index

657   model as the first approach. However, we expect solar radiation to play a significant role in the

658   sensitivity of ice aprons, and future studies on ice apron evolutions in the 21st century should

659   address this question.

660

661

662   **6.2. Area loss of ice aprons and the role of topographic parameters**

663

664   Since ice/glacier bodies within the same climate regime can also respond to climate change

665   differently, the last part of the analysis (Sect. 5.4) was dedicated to understanding the linkages of

666   local topographic factors to the surface area loss of IAs. As reported previously by Salerno et al.,

667   2017 some local topographic factors influence the response of IAs to climate change more

668   significantly than the others. A first analysis showed that IAs that receive more solar radiation

669   from the sun throughout the year lose their surface area faster than those that receive less DSR.

670   Similar results for other regions in mountain environments have also been reported previously by

671   Oerlemans and Klok (2002); Mölg (2004); Johnson and Rupper (2020). Incoming solar radiation

672   is an essential component of all surface energy and mass balance models. But the significance of

673   DSR on the surface area loss of small ice bodies like IAs is reported for the first time in our study.

674   Further, the correlation between elevation and surface area loss of IAs was the second most

675   significant of all topographic factors. IAs located at lower elevations are potentially subject to

676   more intense degradation and lose their surface area faster than those at higher elevations. On a

677   more local scale, other topographic factors could also play a critical role in the surface area

678   variations of IAs. However, elevation seems to be a dominant causative factor on a regional scale.

679   Elevation strongly influences meteorological conditions (temperature, precipitation, and wind

680   speeds) and permafrost; this likely strongly influences the durability of IAs in the context of

681   changing climate. Hantel et al. (2012) suggested that the median summer snowline for the Alps to

682   be at 3083 ± 121 m a.s.l. (1961 – 2010), while Rabatel et al. (2013) documented the regional ELA

683   at 3035 ± 120 m a.s.l. (1984 – 2010). Rabatel et al., 2013 further described the rising of the ELA

684   to 3250 ± 135 m a.s.l. during the 2003 heatwave. Subsequent heatwaves of 2006, 2015 and 2019

685   would have likely resulted in similar scenarios (Hoy et al., 2017). Since ~77 % of the total IAs

686   reported in this study exist at elevations above 3200 m a.s.l., the rising of the ELA in future climate

687   scenarios risks more IAs towards faster degradation and disappearance. An example of this is the

688   case of the IA on the north face of Aiguille des Grands Charmoz (3445 m a.s.l.), which completely

689   disappeared during the 2017 summer heatwave (Guillet and Ravanel, 2020).

690   In addition, on a local scale, some correlation between the rock surface temperatures and the area

691   loss of IAs was observed from the analysis. Guillet et al. (2021) suggested that IAs are cold ice

692   bodies that exist predominantly on permafrost-affected rock walls. They further reported

693   temperatures <0°C at the base of the ice core taken from the IA on the north face of Triangle du

694   Tacul (3970 m a.s.l.). Heating from rock surfaces is predominantly the cause of permafrost

695   degradation, which further affects mountain slope stability leading to an increased rock mass

696   wasting (Magnin et al., 2017). Cold surfaces demonstrate more ice cohesion with the underlying

697   surfaces, while a rise in surface temperatures decreases basal cohesion, increasing the sliding

698   process and leading to more ice flow (Deline et al., 2015). Thus, it is likely that underlying

699   permafrost conditions aid the sustainability of IAs in the long term, and an increase in rock surface

700   temperatures around IAs could result in IAs losing mass more rapidly.

701   Kaushik et al. (2021) further showed that most IAs exist in extremely rugged terrains: 51 % of the

702   total IAs mapped exist in the TRI's high and very high ruggedness class, while only 8 % exist in

703 the low ruggedness. Thus, comparing the terrain ruggedness to the area loss of IAs makes sense
704 since the topography around the snow/ice bodies can critically influence their stability (Deline et
705 al., 2015). Increasing terrain ruggedness is associated with slope instability and further ice volume
706 loss. However, for our study, this relation was not very pronounced, showing that the topography's
707 ruggedness does not substantially affect the area loss of IAs.

708 Previous analysis by Kaushik et al., 2021 also showed that most IAs in the MBM (83 %) lie at
709 mean slopes between 40° and 65°. Increasing slope steepness limits accumulation, while
710 avalanches further scour away snow from the surface of the IA, thus exposing the ice directly to
711 the sun and wind (Vionnet et al., 2012). However, the differences in slope angles of the IAs were
712 not a dominant factor affecting the rates of area loss. A plausible explanation for this could be that
713 since we limit the slope criteria to >40° and most IAs lie in the range of 40 to 65° slope, the effect
714 of terrain slope is not as well pronounced as it would be between low (< 15°) and extreme slopes
715 (>65°). Similar results were observed by Li et al. (2011), as they observed very slight variations
716 in area loss for small glaciers with differences in slope. They suggested other local topographic
717 factors could mitigate the effects of slope in case of small ice/snow bodies.

718 Similarly, terrain curvature also has a negligible effect on the surface area loss of IAs. As suggested
719 by Alkhasawneh et al., 2013; Yanuarsyah and Khairiah, 2017, convex profile curvature favours
720 the erosion processes, while in locations with concave curvature, the deposition process can be
721 predominant. Over time, the terrain curvature can be a dominant factor in the dynamics of
722 glacier/ice bodies, but this relation was not established for our study.

723 At last, a comparison of the rate of surface area loss of IAs with the original size of the IAs was
724 performed, and we observed no correlation between the two factors. Although previous studies by
725 Paul et al. (2004), Jiskoot et al. (2009), and Garg et al. (2017) have shown the correlation between
726 the size of the ice/glacier bodies with the area loss, this is not evident in our case. Unlike previous
727 studies, which considered different glaciers ranging in size from less than a km^2 to several hundred
728 km^2, IAs are small ice bodies (0.0005 km^2 to 0.1 km^2). Hence, it is plausible that the effect of IA
729 size on area loss rate is not pronounced in our case. Similar results were shown by Lopez et al.
730 (2010), who analyzed 72 glaciers in South America, and reported no correlation between the
731 glacier length and the area loss of glaciers.

732 Another critical factor to consider, along with the impact of topography, is the role of avalanches
733 in the erosion and deposition processes on the IA surface. Analysis of the ice core from the N- face

734   of Triangle du Tacul showed that IAs are almost immobile cold ice bodies (Guillet et al., 2021).

735   Hence IAs do not directly participate in feeding the larger glacier systems below them. However,

736   the avalanches triggered above can bring fresh snow/debris and lead to erosion or deposition on

737   the IA surface. We expect this factor to also play a role in the area change dynamics of the IA,

738   which we have not considered a part of this study. Although this impact on the scale of an IA is

739   tough to determine, future studies should focus on ascertaining this impact at least on a local site-

740   specific scale.

741

742   **7. Conclusions**

743

744   This study makes the first attempt to understand the dynamics of IAs concerning the changing

745   climate and topographic factors at a regional scale. IAs are very small ice features but highly

746   critical components of the mountain cryosphere. Because of the difficulties associated with their

747   monitoring and relative unimportance to mountain hydrology, no studies solely based on their

748   evolution on a regional scale have been performed before. This paper presented an analysis of 200

749   IAs spread throughout the MBM and existing in different topographic settings to understand their

750   dynamics in the context of climate warming. For this purpose, we accurately mapped the IAs on

751   very high-resolution aerial and satellite images available for 1952, 2001, 2012 and 2019. Using

752   our extensive database of IAs, we compared the total area variation of IAs for three periods.

753   Further, we also attempted to establish a relationship between the surface area lost by IAs with

754   meteorological parameters (*i.e.* temperature and precipitation) and their associated topographic

755   parameters.

756

757   Some important outcomes from the study are:

758   • Over the study period 1952-2019, IAs have lost their surface area at a very alarming rate.

759   The total area of IAs in MBM was 7.93 km^2 in 1952, which dropped to 5.91 km^2 in 2001,

760   to 4.91 km^2 in 2012, and at last to 4.21 km^2 in 2019 (~ 47% drop in total surface area in

761   less than three-quarters of a century).

762   • The observed rate of relative area loss in the last 18 years (~29 %) is more than the overall

763   area loss during the 48 previous years (1952-2001; ~ 26 %).

- Results from the analysis of IAs surface area loss and meteorological parameters conclusively proved the strong impact of meteorological parameters (i.e. temperature and precipitation) on the behaviour of small ice bodies like IAs.

- Further analysis of IAs surface area loss with different topographic parameters showed a strong correlation of IAs surface area loss with the DSR and elevation. Other factors like MARST, TRI, and mean terrain slope could also play an important role locally, but their effect is not significant regionally. Other factors like terrain curvature and the size of the IAs were not found to significantly impact the IA's surface area loss.

Looking at the melting rate of IAs and the future predictions of global climate change, it is evident that these small and critical ice bodies are most vulnerable to adverse impacts. It is hard to imagine any of the IAs surviving the next few decades with increasing temperatures at the present and future melting rates. The loss of IAs will thus be the loss of crucial glacial heritages and playgrounds for the iconic practice of mountaineering. Hopefully, this study forms a basis to encourage further studies on IAs.

Author contributions: SK designed the study and drafted the paper, which all co-authors revised. LR and FM helped in data interpretation and analysis. YY and ET proofread the manuscript and provided valuable inputs for improving the overall quality of the paper. DC processed and provided the DEM used for the study.

Data availability: The ice apron inventory will be made available on demand.

Competing Interests: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Tables:

Data type	Source	Resolution (m/time)	Acquisition time/period
Optical	Orthoimages IGN	0.2	July 2015
	Pleiades 1A PAN	0.5	25/08/2019, 19/08/2012
	Sentinel 2	10	12/09/2019
	SPOT 6	2.2	14/09/2019
	Pleiades 1A XS	2	19/08/2012
	Orthoimages IGN	0.5	July 2001
	Orthoimages IGN	0.5	1952
Meteorological	Col du Grand-Saint Bernard weather station (2469 m a.s.l.)	daily	1952 - 2019
	Aiguille du Midi weather station (3840 m a.s.l.)	daily	2007-2018
	SAFRAN reanalysis	daily	1958 - 2019

Table 1: Datasets used for the study.

Time period	Slope	Intercept	R^2	Pearson's r	RMSE (km^2)	p value
1952 - 2001	0.79	0.12	0.53	0.73	0.010	< 0.001
2001 - 2012	0.70	0.26	0.56	0.75	0.102	< 0.001
2012 - 2019	0.89	0.04	0.63	0.80	0.097	< 0.001

(a)

Time period	Slope	Intercept	R^2	Pearson's r	RMSE (km^2)	p value
1952 - 2001	1.01	-0.04	0.73	0.86	0.075	< 0.001
2001 - 2012	0.74	0.22	0.67	0.82	0.086	< 0.001

2012 - 2019	1.37	-0.39	0.83	0.91	0.071	< 0.001

(b)

Table 2: Linear regression parameters and correlation metrics for each period (a) using GSB transformed data and (b) using the SAFRAN reanalysis product.

Variable	Time-period	R^2	Pearson's r
Direct Solar Radiation	1952 - 2001	0.64	0.79
	2001 - 2012	0.67	0.81
	2012 - 2019	0.51	0.72
Elevation	1952 – 2001	0.61	-0.78
	2001 - 2012	0.57	-0.75
	2012 - 2019	0.51	-0.71
MARST	1952 - 2001	0.40	0.63
	2001 - 2012	0.34	0.58
	2012 - 2019	0.27	0.52
TRI	1952 - 2001	0.37	0.60
	2001 - 2012	0.30	0.55
	2012 - 2019	0.32	0.57
Slope	1952 - 2001	0.29	0.54
	2001 - 2012	0.25	0.50
	2012 - 2019	0.21	0.46
Curvature	1952 - 2001	0.06	-0.26
	2001 - 2012	0.03	-0.18
	2012 - 2019	0.06	-0.24
Size of IA	1952 - 2001	0.04	-0.22
	2001 - 2012	0.06	-0.26
	2012 - 2019	0.04	-0.22

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1095 ___Table 3: Linear regression parameters and correlation metrics for each studied parameter.

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1097 **Figures:**

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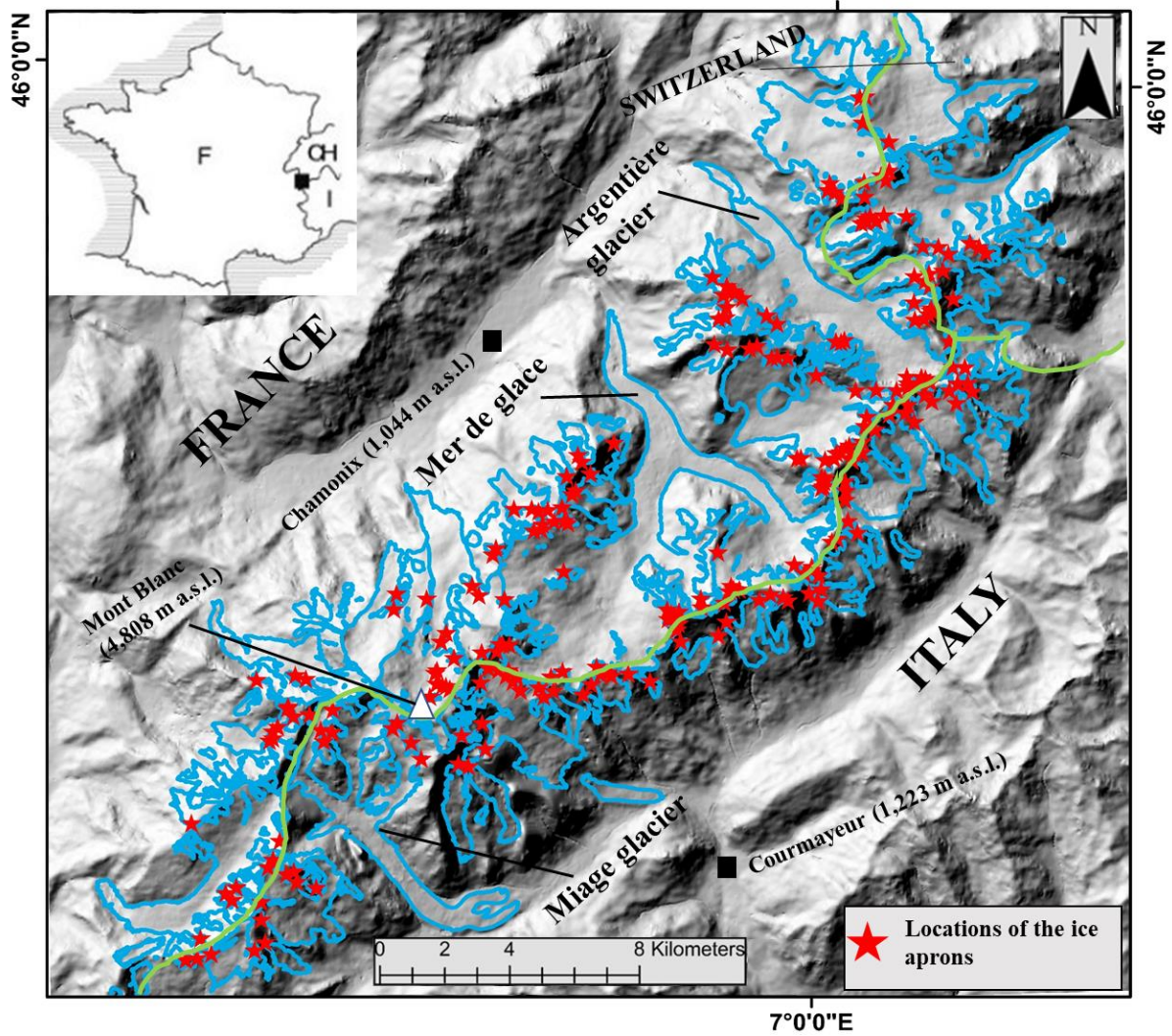
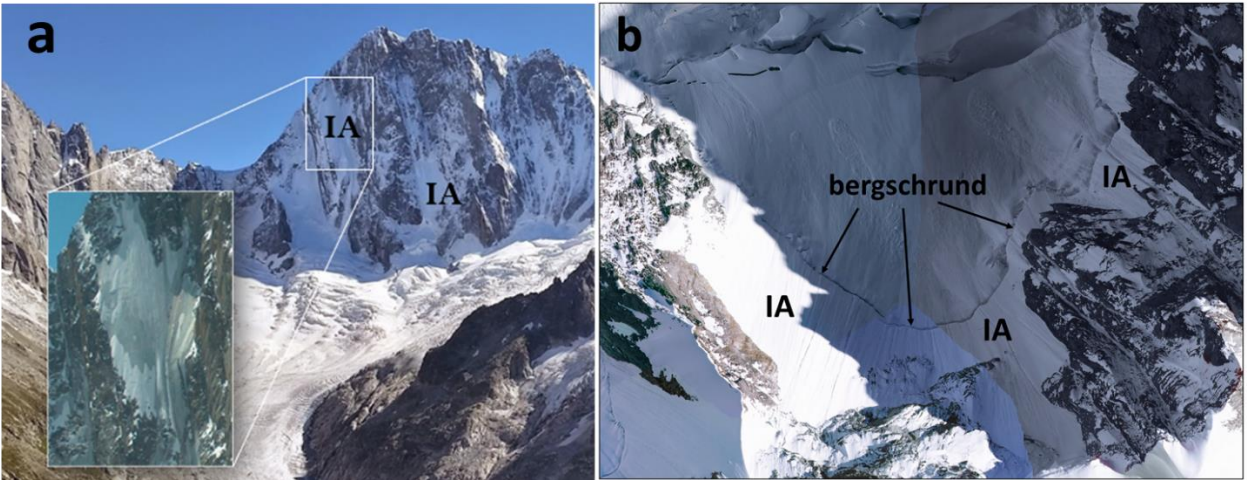

1099 Figure 1: The Mont-Blanc massif (Western European Alps). 200 IAs (red stars) were digitized
1100 accurately on high-resolution images. The glacier outlines (in blue) comes from Gardent et al.,
1101 2014.

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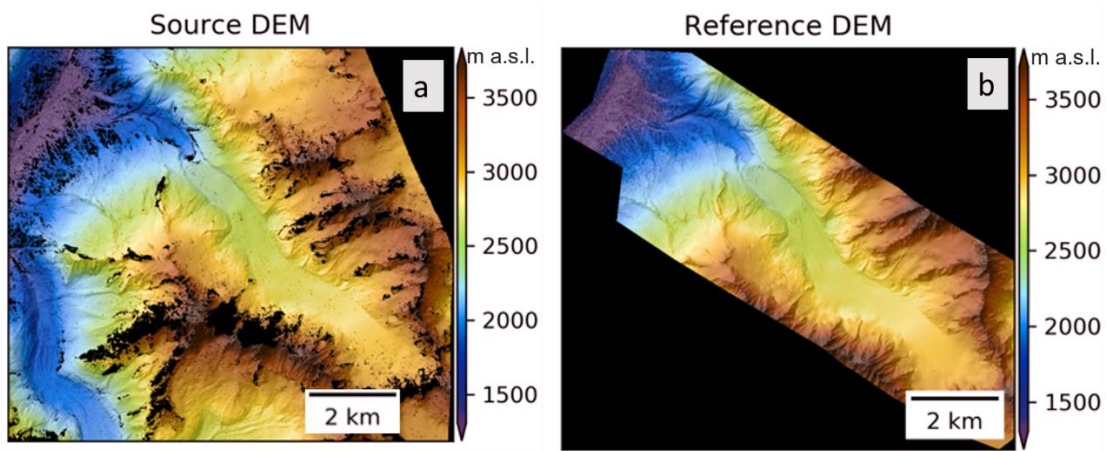
Figure 3: (a) The reference LiDAR DEM of the Argentière glacier used for co-registration, (b) the source Pleiades DEM used for further analysis.

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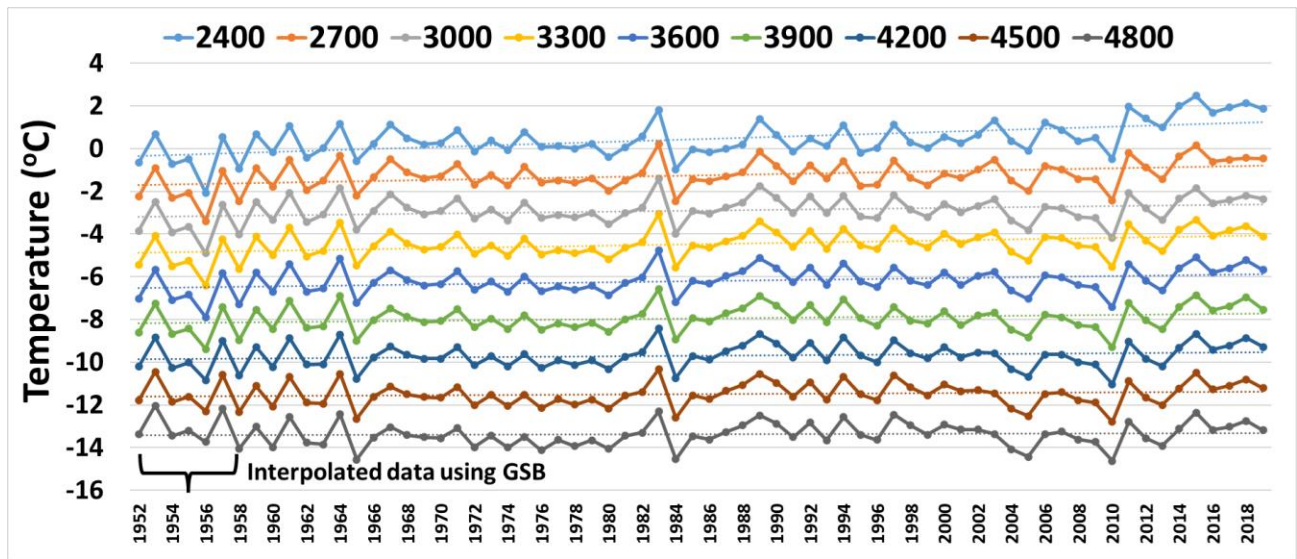
Figure 4: SAFRAN reanalysis product temperature time-series from 1952-2019 for different
elevations in the MBM. The figure shows the variation of the mean annual temperatures for the
entire study period.

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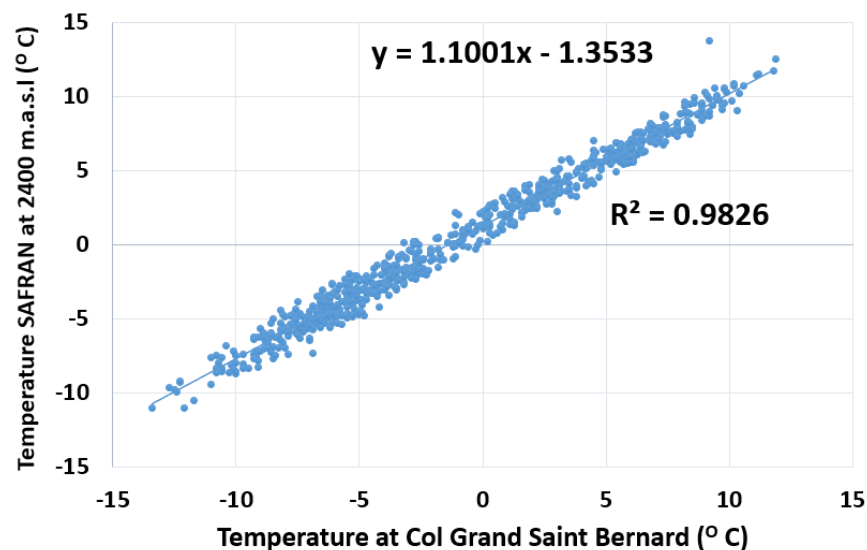
Figure 5: Correlation between the monthly averaged temperature measurements at the Col du
Grand Saint Bernard (GSB) and the SAFRAN reanalysis data at 2400 m a.s.l.

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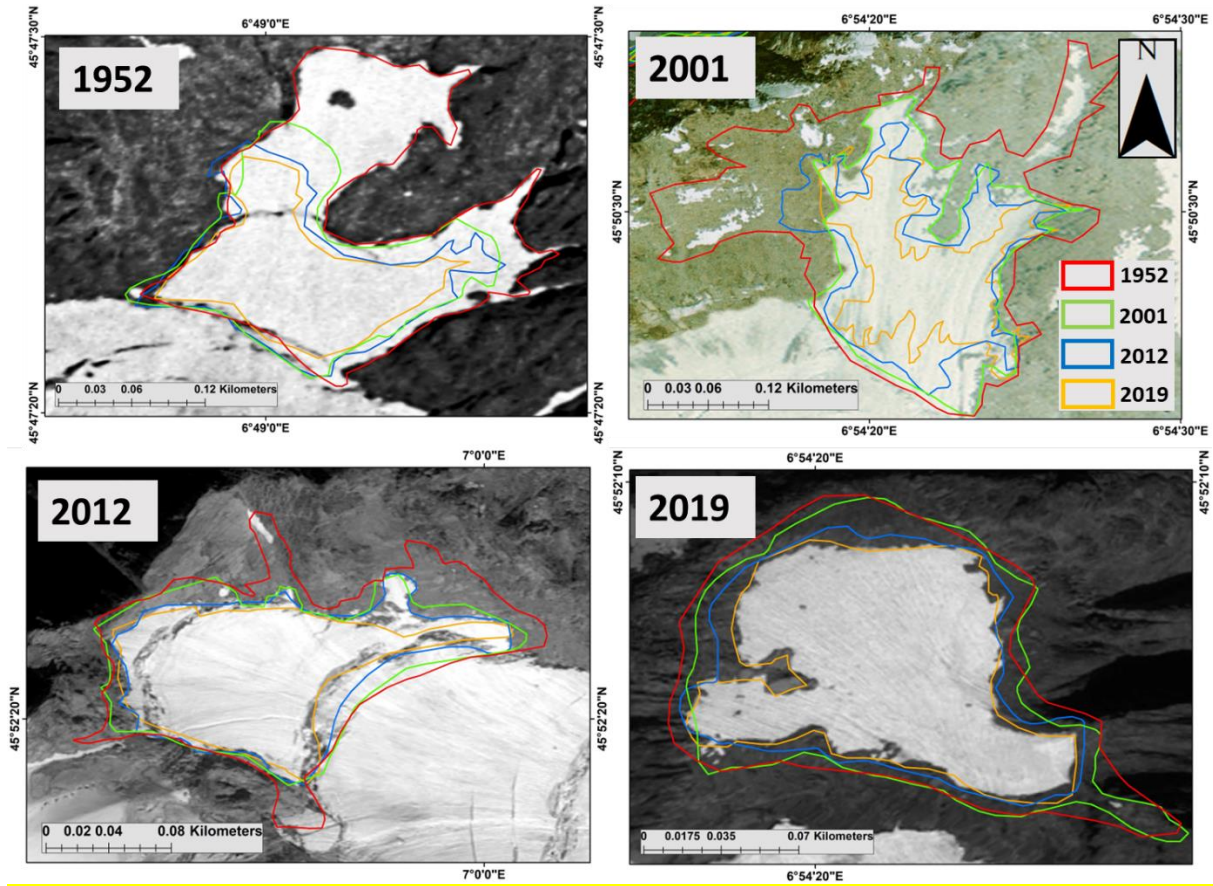
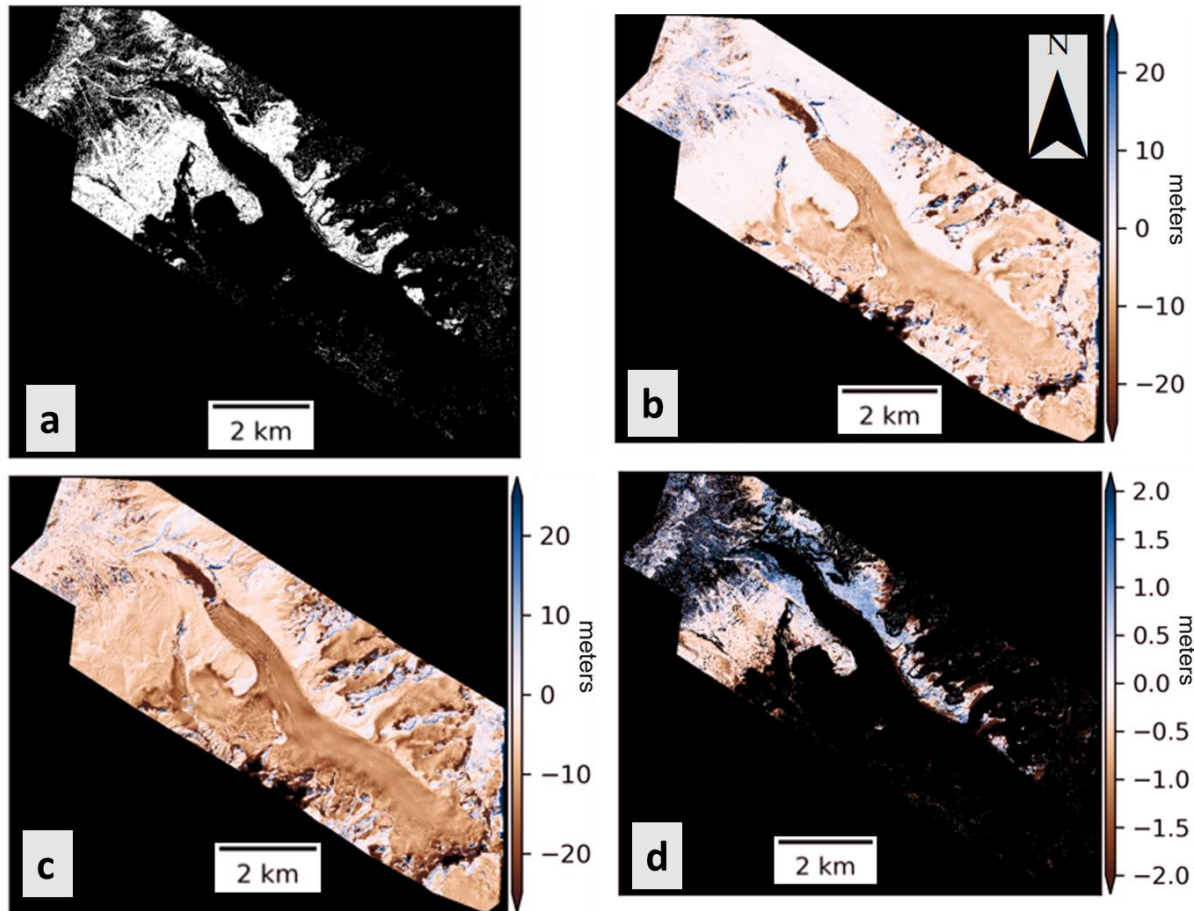


Figure 6: IAs extent delineated on high-resolution images: (a) orthophotos 1952, (b) orthophotos 2001, (c) Pleaides panchromatic 2012, (d) Pleaides panchromatic 2019. The different colour polygons represent the surface area for each date.

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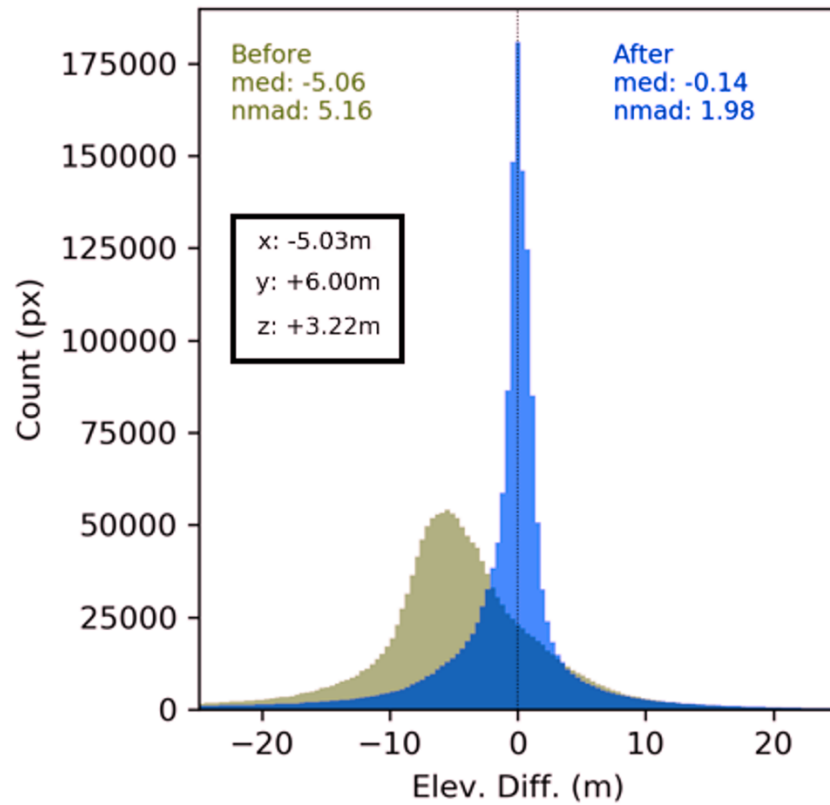
1136 Figure 8: DEM Error (elevation difference between the reference and source DEM) distribution
1137 for stable areas

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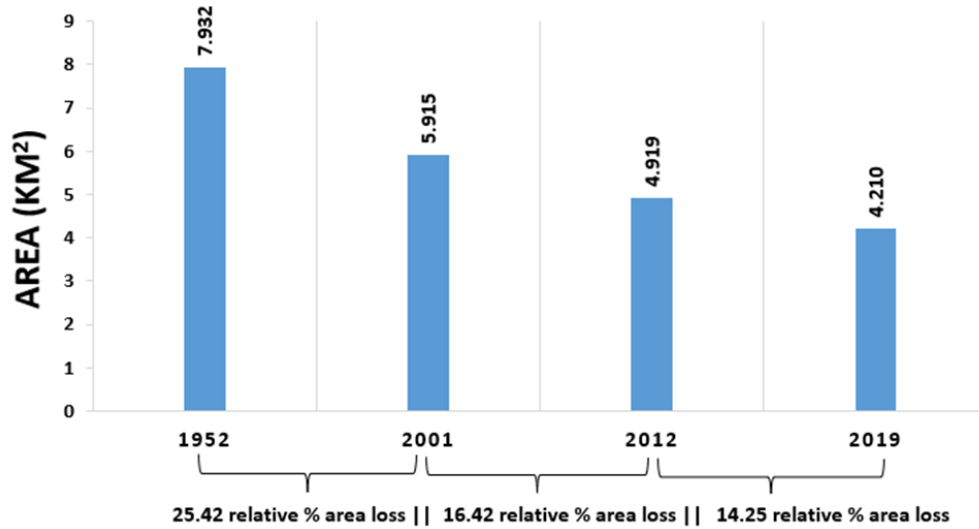
1141 -Figure 9: A comparison of the total surface area of all IAs (423 IAs) in the MBM over 67 years.

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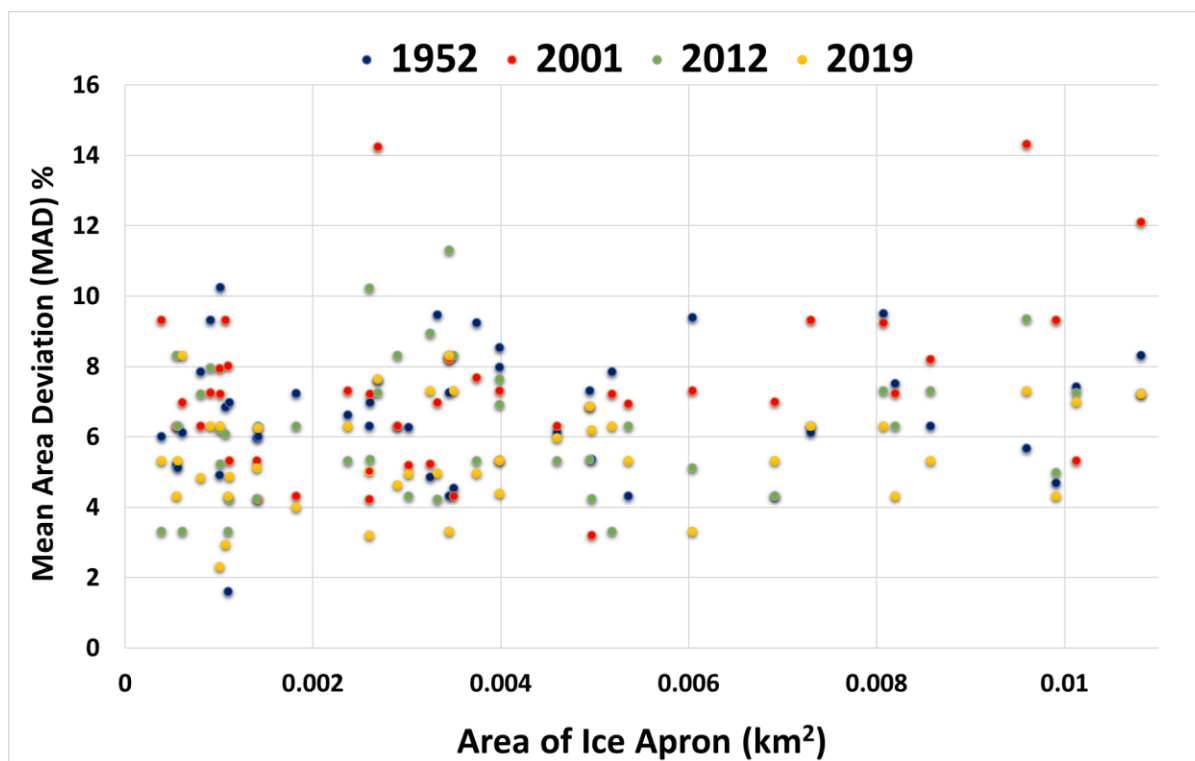
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1144 Figure 10: The distribution of MAD values based on multiple digitizations of the IAs area for all
1145 periods.

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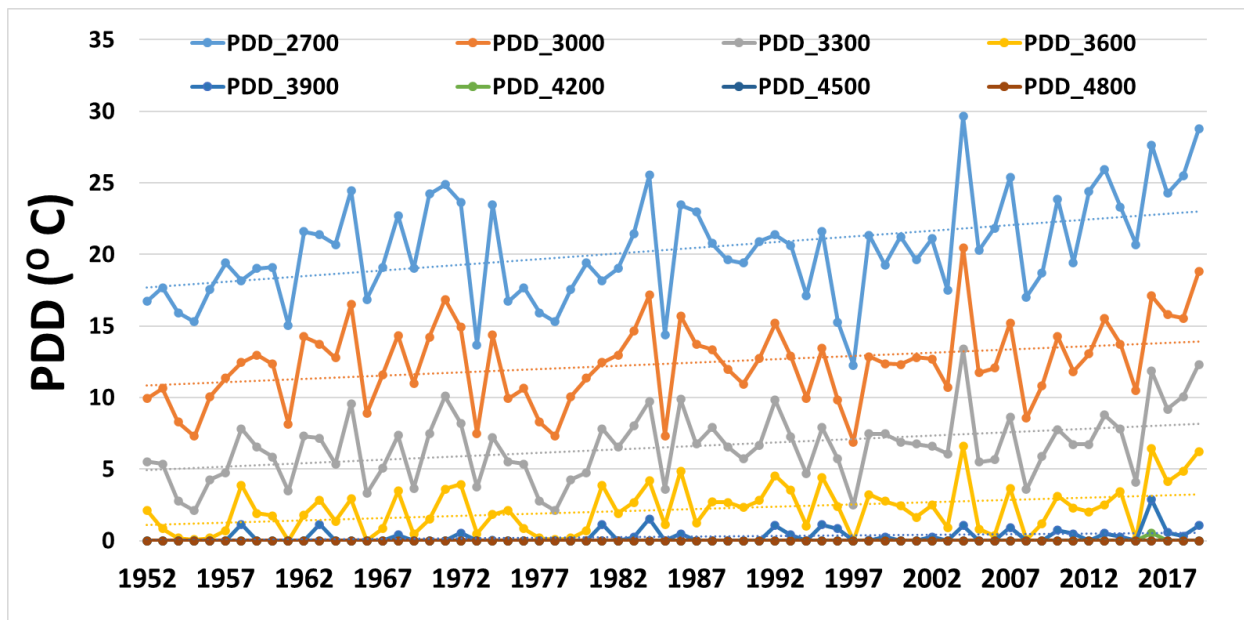
1153 Figure 11: The variation of annual PDD values estimated based on monthly mean temperatures
1154 at different elevations in the MBM from 1952 to 2019.

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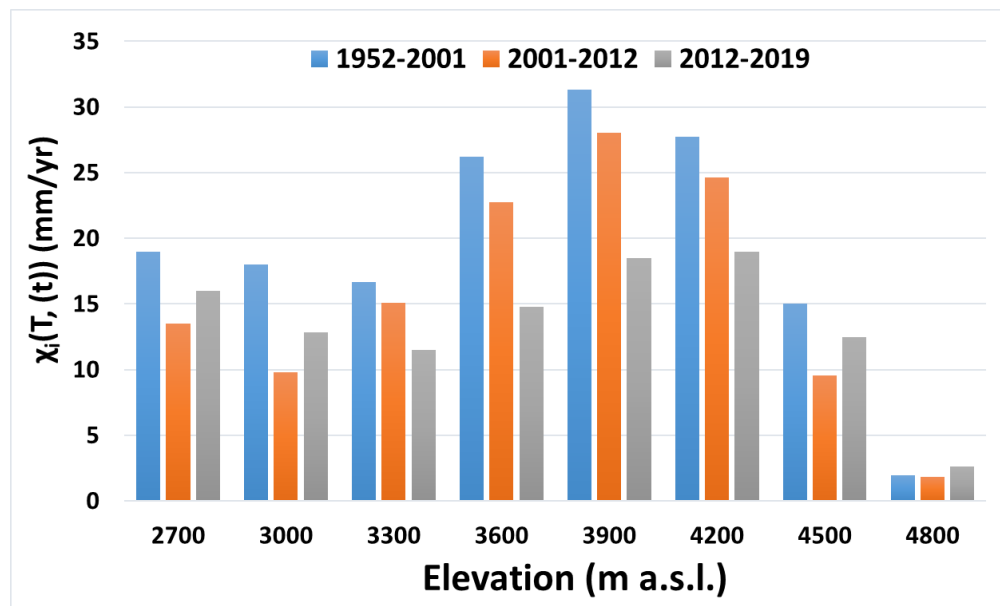
1157 Figure 12: Variation of the average accumulation rates on steep slopes at different elevations for
1158 each period of observation

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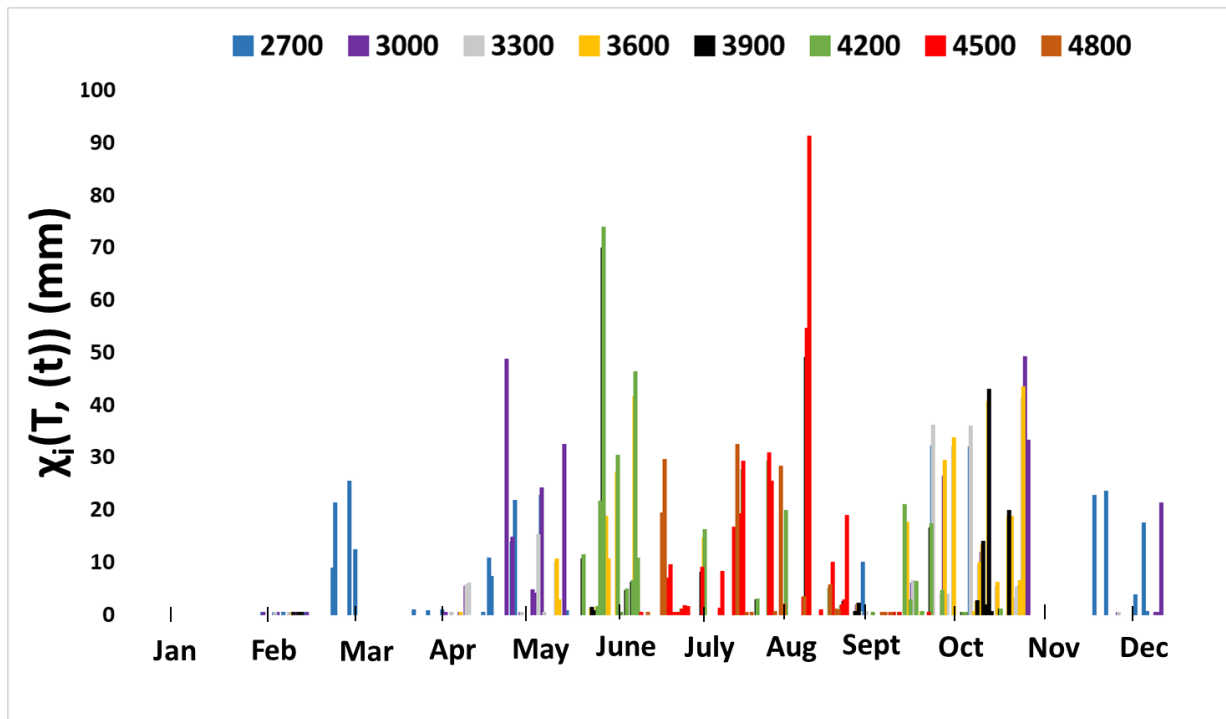
1160 Figure 13: Accumulation (steep slopes) trends for the year 2019 at different elevations

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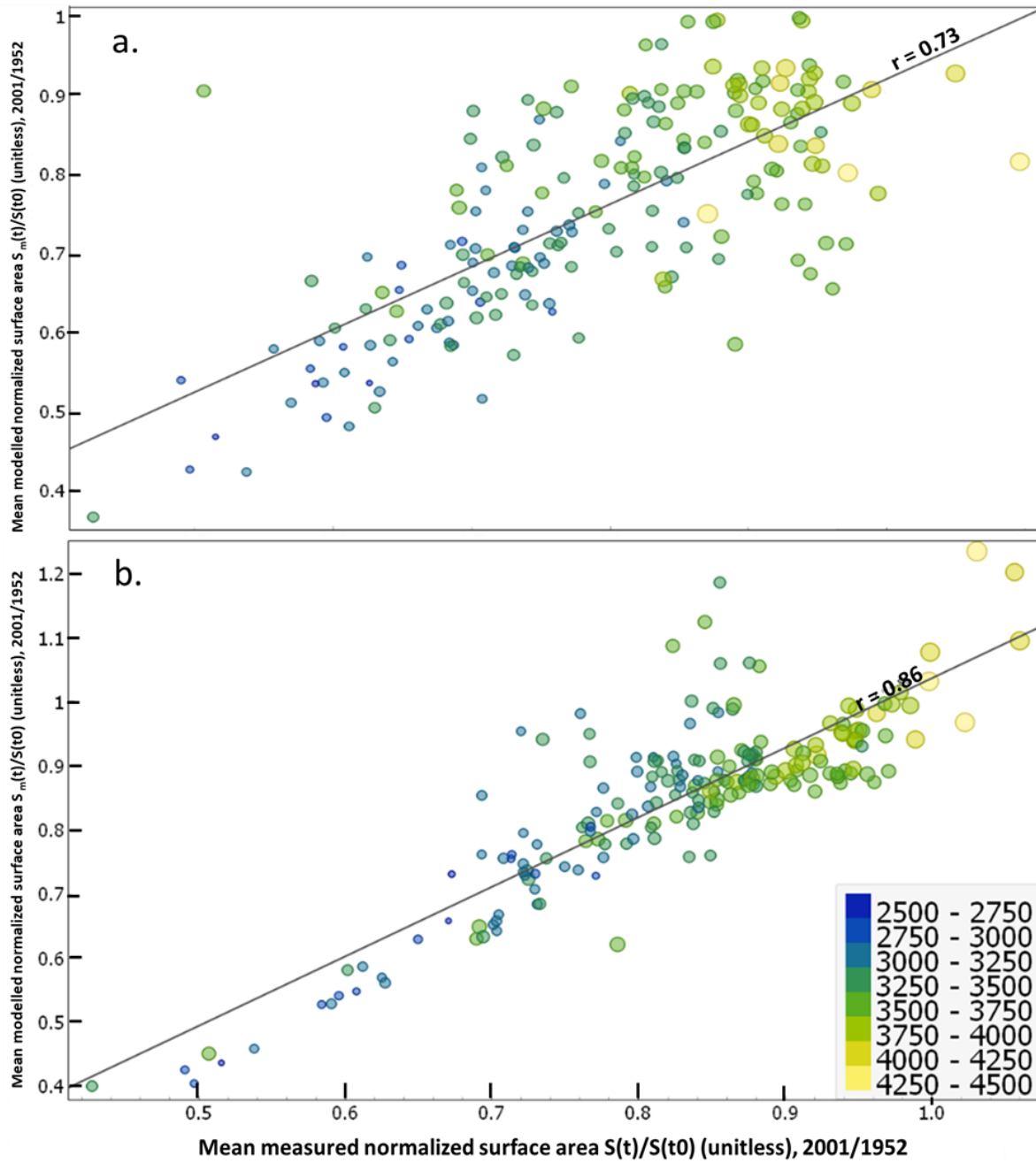
1164 Figure 14: Correlation between the mean normalized measured and modelled surface areas (a)
1165 with GSB data transformed to AdM data and (b) with SAFRAN reanalysis data at time t. The
1166 colour and size of the ticks represent the mean elevation of the IA.

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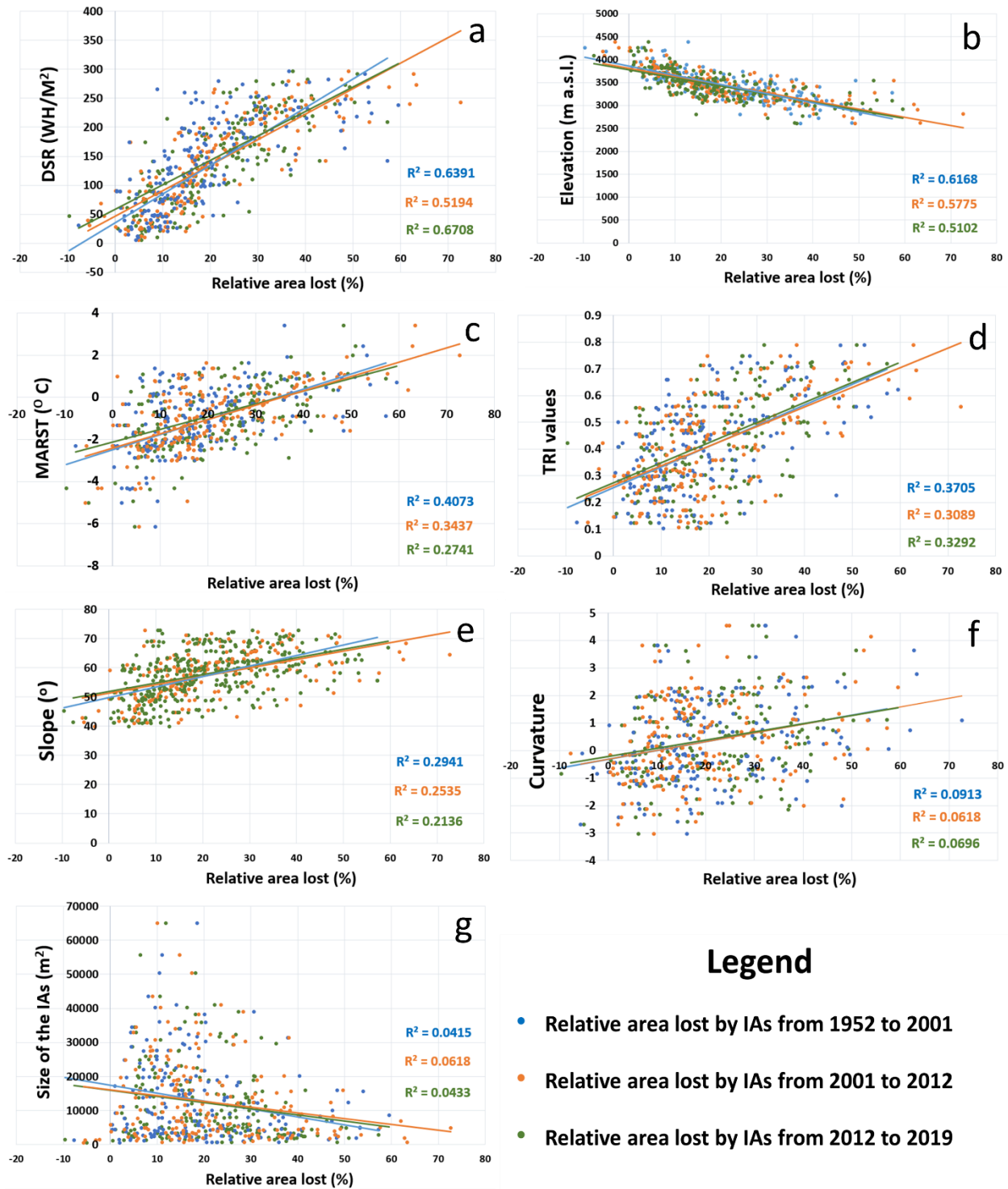
Figure 15: Scatter plots showing relationships between topographic factors and the area loss of IAs from 1952 to 2019. a) Direct solar radiation, b) elevation, c) MARST, d) TRI, e) slope, f) curvature and g) size of the IAs.

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Supplementary material:
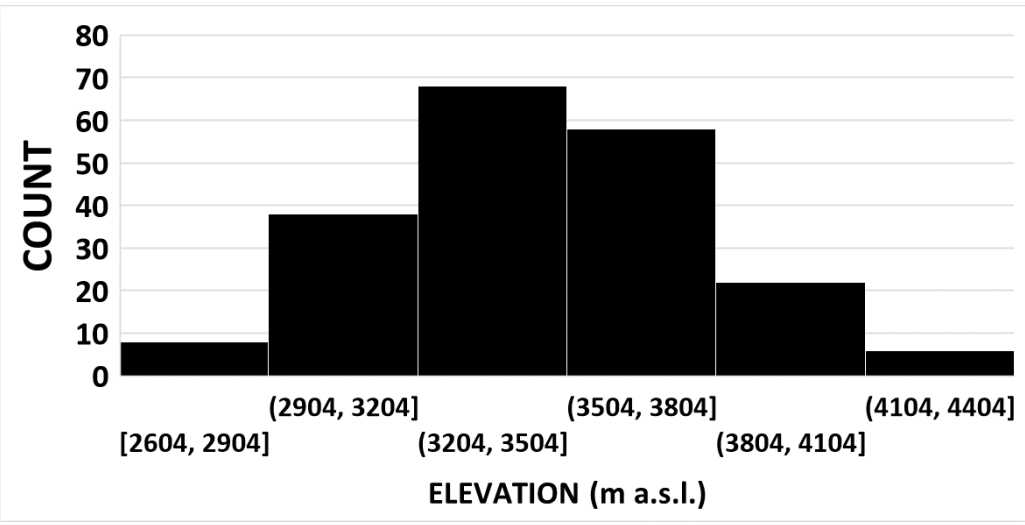
Figure 2 a: Distribution of ice aprons with elevation
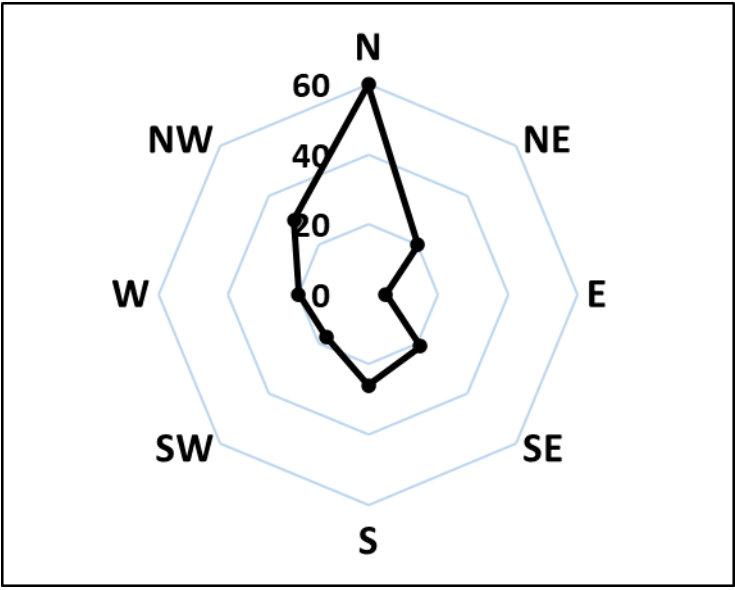
Figure 2 b: Distribution of ice aprons with the aspect