



¹ Brief Communication: Recent estimates of glacier mass loss for

2 western North America from laser altimetry

3	Brian Menounos ^{1,2*} , Alex Gardner ³ , Caitlyn Forentine ⁴ , Andrew Fountain ⁵
4	
5	¹ University of Northern British Columbia, Geography Earth and Environmental Sciences, Prince George BC, V2N 4Z9,
6	Canada
7	² Hakai Institute, Campbell River, BC, Canada
8	³ Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91109, USA
9	⁴ United States Geological Survey Northern Rocky Mountain Science Center, Bozeman, MT, USA
10	⁵ Portland State University, Department of Geology, Portland, OR, 97201, USA
11	
12	*Corresponding author: menounos@unbc.ca
13	
14	Correspondence to: Brian Menounos (menounos@unbc.ca)
15	Abstract. Glaciers in Western North American outside of Alaska are often overlooked in global studies, because their potential
16	to contribute to changes in sea level is small. Nonetheless, these glaciers represent important sources of freshwater, especially
17	during times of drought. Differencing recent ICESat-2 data from a digital elevation model derived from a combination of
18	synthetic aperture radar data (TerraSAR-X/TanDEM-X), we find that over the period 2013-2021, glaciers in western North
19	America lost mass at a rate of -12.3 ± 3.5 Gt yr ⁻¹ . This rate is comparable to the rate of mass loss (-11.7 ± 1.0 Gt yr ⁻¹) for the
20	period 2018-2022 calculated through trend analysis using ICESat-2 and Global Ecosystems Dynamics Investigation (GEDI)

21 data.

22 1 Introduction

Western North American glaciers outside of Alaska cover 14,384 km² of mountainous terrain (Pfeffer et al. 2014). Although the global sea level equivalent of these glaciers is only 2.6 ± 0.7 mm (Farinotti et al., 2019), these glaciers provide important thermal buffering capacity during late summer or during times of drought (Moore et al., 2009). Early attempts to define regional estimates of glacier mass change suffered from sparse, in-situ glaciological observations, non-uniform distribution of geodetic measurements, and uncertainties in gravimetric assessments due to changes in seasonal water storage (Jacob et al., 2012;





28 Gardner et al., 2013; Zemp et al., 2019). Two recent studies combined publicly-available geodetic datasets and statistical 29 methods to yield mass change estimates with much less spatial bias and lower overall uncertainties (Menounos et al., 2019; 30 Hugonnet et al., 2021). Both of these studies rely on DEMs generated from NASA's Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission 31 and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) sensor aboard the Terra satellite. Unfortunately, Terra's orbit is degrading and will reach 32 its end of life within the next 3-4 years. Additional datasets are thus required to quantify glacier mass loss in mountain 33 environments where glacier loss is accelerating (Hugonnet et al., 2021), but recent studies leveraging laser altimetry in global 34 glacier assessments have excluded glaciers in western North America (Jakob and Gourmelen, 2023). Here we provide new 35 estimates of recent glacier mass loss based on laser altimetry data for the western United States and Canada which is Region 36 02 of the Randolph Glacier Inventory (Pfeffer et al., 2014).

2 Data and methods

38 2.1 Altimetric data (ICESat-2 and GEDI)

Altimetric data include observations made by NASA's Advanced Topographic Laser Altimeter System (ATLAS), which is a 532 nm photon-counting laser system aboard the ICESat-2 satellite that operates between 88° N/S (Markus et al., 2017, (Markus et al., 2017, Smith et al., 2021). We use version 5 of the ATL06 (land-ice surface heights) dataset that includes laser shots from 13 October 2018 to 12 October, 2022. We also used Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation (GEDI) laser data (Liu et al., 2021, Dubayah et al. 2021) acquired between 1 January, 2018 and 1 January, 2022 (GEDI02_A release 2). GEDI is a 1064 nm, full-waveform laser that, because of its operation aboard the International Space Station, operates between 51.6° N/S.

46 **2.2 Digital elevation model**

The mass change estimate for approximately the last decade (2013 to 2020), herein referred to as the decadal estimate, uses the global, 30 m Copernicus DEM elevation data derived from the TanDEM-X Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) mission (Rizzoli et al., 2017) and made publicly available as the Glo30 product, herein referred to as COP-30 (European Space Agency, 2023). Acquisition of the data used in COP-30 DEM occurred between 2010 and early 2015 and coverage represented about five individual SAR tiles in our study region. Because no gridded acquisition date exist for COP-30, we use an acquisition date of 2013, which coincides with the midpoint for the majority of DEM acquisitions (Rizzoli et al., 2017). As described below, we use the ambiguity of DEM acquisition dates as one source of uncertainty in our mass change estimate.

54

55 For each subregion, we reprojected the COP-30 into the local UTM zone. The COP-30 vertical datum is EGM96 which we 56 converted to match the vertical datum of ICESat-2 (WGS84). ICESat-2 data for a given acquisition date were clipped to a





region of interest and the closest elevation of the COP-30 was extracted for a given laser shot. Elevation of both COP-30 and ICESat-2 were retained, as was the derived elevation change [m], rates of elevation change [m yr⁻¹]. Other original attributes present with the ICESat-2 data (e.g. track number, effective laser shot radius, slope) were retained to maintain metadata continuity. Elevation change values that exceeded -20 or 20 m yr⁻¹ were excluded from subsequent analysis as it was assumed that these signals exceed the range of what is physically attributable to glacier processes.

62

For the decadal estimate of mass change, each glacier polygon (RGI-6.0) within the study region was buffered by 1 km and 63 64 then masked from the original glacier polygon, to capture areas adjacent to glaciers that we considered to be areas of stable 65 terrain. Due to the buffer, we expect results to be robust to glacier polygon updates. Note that the recently released RGI-7.0 66 has no changes from RGI-6.0 in our study area. Inspection of elevation change over stable terrain for all ICESat-2 laser shots (2.24×10^6) reveals a positive bias for almost every subregion, typically on the order of 0.1-0.5 m yr⁻¹ (ICESat-2 minus COP-67 30); this bias, however, did not substantially vary with elevation for a given region. Visual inspection of elevation change maps 68 69 and review of acquisition dates of ICESat-2 data suggests this positive bias arises by laser shots over snow-covered terrain 70 (Enderlin et al., 2022). We therefore limit our analysis to the ablation season when the positive bias associated with snow-71 covered terrain is minimized. Confirmation of the source of this bias is revealed when the analysis of rates of elevation change 72 is limited to ICESat-2 laser shots acquired between 1 August and 1 October. For these late summer laser shots, we respectively 73 observe a mean bias and uncertainty (± 1 sigma) over stable terrain of 0.038 and 1.53 m yr⁻¹.

74 2.3 Recent rate of elevation change from ICESat-2 and GEDI

75 For the period 2018-2022, herein referred to as the recent period, we first create altimetry anomalies by differencing ICESat-76 2 and GEDI laser shots to the COP-30 DEM. A least squares regression that includes an offset, trend and seasonal sinusoidal 77 terms is fit to anomalies within a 250 m radius search window. The y-intercept of the regression is set to the year 2020. We 78 exclude any ICESat-2 or GEDI laser shots if they deviate more than 250 m from the COP-30 DEM, or if they deviate by more 79 than 150 m from the median anomaly within the 250 m search radius. The search radius and median anomaly threshold were 80 selected to omit elevation change signals that were not physically realistic. Regression fits were excluded from further analysis if: (i) there were fewer than five data points for given search window; (ii) the temporal span of observations is less than three 81 82 years; (iii) the root mean squared error (RMSE) of the fit residuals exceed 5.0 m yr⁻¹ and (iv); the seasonal amplitude of the least squares fit exceeds 10 m yr⁻¹. This did not disrupt the representation of glacier hypsometry, i.e. results were well 83 84 distributed across glacierized elevations in the study region. We use the trend obtained from the regression to the 250 m radius 85 to represent elevation change.

86

87 2.4 Mass change uncertainty





Uncertainty in mass change originates from errors in rates of elevation change and volume-to-mass conversion factor. We use 850 kg m⁻³ and its associated uncertainty term (± 60 kg m⁻³) for mass conversion (Huss, 2013). We generate bootstrapped errors 90 in total volume change using a Monte Carlo method (Chernick et al. 2011). We first temporally randomize the laser altimetric 91 data, randomly choose the acquisition date of the COP-30 DEM (2012, 2013, 2014) and sample 5% of the data with 92 replacement 10,000 times. Total volume change over glacierized terrain is calculated for each synthetic dataset by multiplying 93 the rate of elevation change by the area of glaciers within a given elevation bin (100 m bins). We then take 5% and 95% 94 modelled volume change as our uncertainty.

95

97

99

96 Error in mass change is then calculated from:

98
$$\sqrt{(dV_{\sigma} \cdot \rho)^2 + (\rho_{\sigma} \cdot dV)^2}$$
(1)

Where dV_{σ} is the uncertainty of volume change generated from the Monte Carlo method, ρ is material density (850 kg m⁻³), ρ_{σ} is uncertainty of density (60 kg m⁻³) and dV is the change in volume.

02 **3.0 Results**

03 To minimize the impact of the seasonal snow signal, we limit our analysis of mass change using ICESat-2 and COP-30 04 elevation changes to ICESat-2 data acquired during the latter half of the ablation season (1 August - 1 October). Glaciers throughout the western United States and Canada thinned both during the decadal and recent period with prominent thinning 05 06 within the Southern Coast Mountains, a region that contains nearly one half of the total ice cover of the study region (Fig. 1. For the period 2013-2021 (median date of ICESat-2 data is 26 August, 2020), we estimate a rate of mass change of -12.3 ± 3.5 07 08 Gt yr⁻¹ (Fig. 1). This measurement agrees within the rate of mass change $[-12.3 \pm 4.6 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}]$ reported for the period 2009– 09 2018 (Menounos et al., 2019) and the estimate $[-12.3 \pm 3.0 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}]$ for the period 2015-2019 based primarily on ASTER data 10 (Hugonnet et al., 2021). Comparable estimates of mass loss exist for western North America for the period 1961-2016 [-12 \pm 6 Gt yr⁻¹] and for the period 2002-2009 [-14 ± 3 Gt yr⁻¹] respectively from Zemp et al., (2019) and Gardner et al., (2013). 11 12 Figure 2 shows results using only ICESat-2 and GEDI laser shots and rates of elevation change determined through least 13 squares fitting (i.e. the recent period), glaciers lost -11.7 ± 1.0 Gt yr⁻¹ of mass for the period 2018-2022 (Fig. 2). Mass change 14 rates per subregions (Fig. 1) are summarized elsewhere (SM Table 1). The effect of small sample size is evident in the larger 15 uncertainty of elevation change at highest and lowest elevations, but the contribution of this error to total mass change is small

16 since little total glacierized area exists at these elevations.





17 **4.0 Discussion and Conclusion**

Our geodetic balance obtained from laser altimetry using least squares fitting provides the most recent mass change update for 18 19 western North America, a region excluded in a recent global assessment of glacier mass loss using laser altimetry from CryoSat-2 data (Jakob and Gourmelen, 2023). While our trend analysis provides a robust estimate of recent glacier mass 20 21 change, insufficient sampling precludes our assessment of mass loss for regions where laser altimetry data are sparse. This 22 sparseness is especially pronounced in regions north of GEDI data coverage (51.6° N) and regions characterised by small 23 glaciers (Fig. 2). Our decadal estimates of glacier mass loss provide more insight into sub-regional patterns of glacier mass 24 loss, but insight is offset by the additional uncertainty of radar penetration at highest elevation and the ambiguity of the 25 acquisition data for the COP-30 DEM. Others report penetration of the Tandem-X radar signal into high elevation firn and 26 snow surfaces (Abdullahi et al., 2019). The potential of this penetration bias to greatly affect our results is limited since it is 27 spatially limited to elevation zones that typically represent < 1-2% of the total areas within a given region, based on the 28 elevation distribution of glaciers in the western United States and Canada and assumptions of the associated distribution of 29 firn and/or snow.







30

Figure 1: Elevation change [m yr⁻¹] for western North American glaciers. Data aggregated to points with 50 km spacing. Left panel: Elevation change [m yr⁻¹] determined from ICESat-2 and COP-30 data (2022 - 2013); Right Panel: Elevation change [m yr⁻¹] from trend analysis over period 2022-2018 from ICESat-2 (Smith et al. 2021) and GEDI laser altimetric (Dubayah et al. 2021) data. Numbers refer to glacierized regions of Western North America (RGI region 02, Pfeffer et al. 2014). The regions include: (1) Central Coast (1,692 km²); (2) Southern Coast (7,181 km²); (3) Vancouver Island (15 km²); (4) Northern Interior (572 km²); (5) Southern Interior (1,959 km²); (6) Nahanni (657 km²); (7) Northern Rocky Mountains (415 km²); (8) Central Rocky Mountains (422 km²); (9) Southern Rocky Mountains (1,350 km²).

- 38 39 The regional pattern of elevation change obtained for the recent period shows areas of neutral or slight elevation gain (e.g.
- 40 regions 1 and 5) that are not apparent in the map of decadal elevation change (Fig. 1). The most parsimonious explanation for
- 41 these differences is the influence of spatially variable snow accumulation in these regions, though we cannot rule out the
- 42 possibility of changing balance between ice dynamics and mass balance to explain the observed elevation changes. In addition,
- 43 the decadal pattern largely accords with the notable zonal difference in elevation change observed by Menounos et al., (2019).
- 44 A key finding of Hugonnet et al., (2021) was the notable accelerated mass loss in western North America during the period





- 45 2015-2019 relative to the start of the 21st century. Our recent and decadal estimates of glacier mass loss using independent 46 datasets confirms the magnitude of recent mass change for a comparably recent period (2018 to 2022), corroborating the 47 finding of accelerated mass loss from this previous study.
- 48
- 49
- 50



51

52

Figure 2: Left Panel: Rates of elevation change [m yr⁻¹] versus elevation for the period 2013-2021. Only laser shots from 1 August-1 October (n=347,630) used in analysis. Light grey shading denotes uncertainty (5-95%) of elevation change. Black line and green dots respectively indicate percent area of RGI ice and percentage of ICESat-2 laser shots within a given elevation bin. Right Panel: Rates of elevation change [m yr⁻¹] versus elevation for the period 2018-2022 from ICESat-2 and GEDI laser shots from least-squares trend analysis (n=66,201). Light grey shading denotes uncertainty (5-95%) of elevation change. Black line and green dots respectively indicate percent area of RGI ice and percentage of ICESat-2 (Smith et al. 2021) laser shots within a given elevation bin.

7





70 Code/Data availability

- 71 Data reported in this paper is available upon request.
- 72

73 Author Contribution

Menounos proposed the study, completed the Copdem30 and ICESat-2 analysis and wrote the initial draft of the contribution and Gardner completed the ICESat-2 and GEDI analysis. All authors provided input, and commented on drafts of the

- 76 manuscript.
- 77

78 Acknowledgements

79 The authors acknowledge constructive input from Rainey Aberle and Albin Wells which improved the quality and clarity of this manuscript.

80 Any use of trade, firm, or product names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government. This

81 study was supported by the National Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, the Tula Foundation, and the Canada Research

82 Chairs Program.

83 References

Abdullahi, S., Wessel, B., Huber, M., Wendleder, A., Roth, A., and Kuenzer, C.: Estimating Penetration-Related
 X-Band InSAR Elevation Bias: A Study over the Greenland Ice Sheet, Remote Sensing, 11, 2903, 2019.

Chernick, M.R., González-Manteiga, W., Crujeiras, R.M., Barrios, E.B. (2011). Bootstrap Methods. In: Lovric,
 M. (eds) International Encyclopedia of Statistical Science. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

88 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-04898-2_150

89 Dubayah, R., M. Hofton, J. Blair, J. Armston, H. Tang, S. Luthcke. GEDI L2A Elevation and Height Metrics

- 90 Data Global Footprint Level V002. 2021, distributed by NASA EOSDIS Land Processes DAAC,
- 91 https://doi.org/10.5067/GEDI/GEDI02_A.002. Accessed 2023-04-01.

Enderlin, E. M., Elkin, C. M., Gendreau, M., Marshall, H. P., O'Neel, S., McNeil, C., Florentine, C., and Sass,
 L.: Uncertainty of ICESat-2 ATL06- and ATL08-derived snow depths for glacierized and vegetated mountain

94 regions, Remote Sens. Environ., 283, 113307, 2022.

95 European Space Agency, 2023. Copernicus DEM – Global and European Digital Elevation Models.

96 https://doi.org/10.5270/ESA-c5d3d65.

Farinotti, D., Huss, M., Fürst, J. J., Landmann, J., Machguth, H., Maussion, F., and Pandit, A.: A consensus
estimate for the ice thickness distribution of all glaciers on Earth, Nat. Geosci., 12, 168–173, 2019.

99 Gardner, A. S., Moholdt, G., Cogley, J. G., Wouters, B., Arendt, A. A., Wahr, J., Berthier, E., Hock, R., Pfeffer,

- W. T., Kaser, G., Ligtenberg, S. R. M., Bolch, T., Sharp, M. J., Hagen, J. O., van den Broeke, M. R., and Paul, F.:
- A reconciled estimate of glacier contributions to sea level rise: 2003 to 2009, Science, 340, 852–857, 2013.





- :02 Hugonnet, R., McNabb, R., Berthier, E., Menounos, B., Nuth, C., Girod, L., Farinotti, D., Huss, M., Dussaillant, I., Brun, F., and Kääb, A.: Accelerated global glacier mass loss in the early twenty-first century, Nature, 592, :03 :04 726–731, 2021.
- Huss, M.: Density assumptions for converting geodetic glacier volume change to mass change, The Cryosphere, :05 7, 877–887, 2013. :06
- :07 Jacob, T., Wahr, J., Pfeffer, W. T., and Swenson, S.: Recent contributions of glaciers and ice caps to sea level rise, Nature, 482, 514–518, 2012. :08
- :09 Jakob, L. and Gourmelen, N.: Glacier mass loss between 2010 and 2020 dominated by atmospheric forcing, 10 Geophys. Res. Lett., 50, https://doi.org/10.1029/2023gl102954, 2023.
- 11 Liu, A., Cheng, X., and Chen, Z.: Performance evaluation of GEDI and ICESat-2 laser altimeter data for terrain and canopy height retrievals, Remote Sens. Environ., 264, 112571, 2021. :12
- :13 Markus, T., Neumann, T., Martino, A., Abdalati, W., Brunt, K., Csatho, B., Farrell, S., Fricker, H., Gardner, A.,
- 14 Harding, D., Jasinski, M., Kwok, R., Magruder, L., Lubin, D., Luthcke, S., Morison, J., Nelson, R.,
- :15 Neuenschwander, A., Palm, S., Popescu, S., Shum, C. K., Schutz, B. E., Smith, B., Yang, Y., and Zwally, J.: The
- Ice, Cloud, and land Elevation Satellite-2 (ICESat-2): Science requirements, concept, and implementation, :16
- :17 Remote Sens. Environ., 190, 260-273, 2017.
- 18 Menounos, B., Hugonnet, R., Shean, D., Gardner, A., Howat, I., Berthier, E., Pelto, B., Tennant, C., Shea, J.,
- :19 Noh, M.-J., Brun, F., and Dehecq, A.: Heterogeneous Changes in Western North American Glaciers Linked to
- 20 Decadal Variability in Zonal Wind Strength, Geophys. Res. Lett., 46, 200–209, 2019.
- 21 Moore, R. D., Fleming, S. W., Menounos, B., Wheate, R., Fountain, A., Stahl, K., Holm, K., and Jakob, M.: Glacier change in western North America: influences on hydrology, geomorphic hazards and water quality, 22 Hydrol. Process., 23, 42–61, 2009. 23
- 24 Pfeffer, W. T., Arendt, A. A., Bliss, A., Bolch, T., Cogley, J. G., Gardner, A. S., Hagen, J.-O., Hock, R., Kaser, G., Kienholz, C., and Others: The Randolph Glacier Inventory: a globally complete inventory of glaciers, J. 25 Glaciol., 60, 537–552, 2014. 26
- 27 Rizzoli, P., Martone, M., Gonzalez, C., Wecklich, C., Borla Tridon, D., Bräutigam, B., Bachmann, M., Schulze, D., Fritz, T., Huber, M., Wessel, B., Krieger, G., Zink, M., and Moreira, A.: Generation and performance 28
- 29 assessment of the global TanDEM-X digital elevation model, ISPRS J. Photogramm. Remote Sens., 132, 119-:30 139, 2017.
- 31 Smith, B., S. Adusumilli, B. M. Csathó, D. Felikson, H. A. Fricker, A. Gardner, N. Holschuh, J. Lee, J. Nilsson, F. S. Paolo, M. R. Siegfried, T. Sutterley, and the ICESat-2 Science Team. (2021). ATLAS/ICESat-2 L3A Land :32 :33 Ice Height, Version 5 [Data Set]. Boulder, Colorado USA. NASA National Snow and Ice Data Center Distributed 34 Active Archive Center, https://doi.org/10.5067/ATLAS/ATL06.005. Date Accessed 10-16-2023.
- :35 Zemp, M., Huss, M., Thibert, E., Eckert, N., McNabb, R., Huber, J., Barandun, M., Machguth, H., Nussbaumer,
- S. U., Gärtner-Roer, I., Thomson, L., Paul, F., Maussion, F., Kutuzov, S., and Cogley, J. G.: Global glacier mass 36 changes and their contributions to sea-level rise from 1961 to 2016, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1071-0,
- :37





- .38 2019.
- :39