

40 **Key words:**

41 Greenland; Little Ice Age; glacier; sea level; volume loss; proglacial

42

43 **Key points:**

44 • Acceleration of 23% in the annual rate of NE Greenland glacier volume losses since
45 LIA

46 • Reduction in glacier extent of $1570 \pm 314 \text{ km}^2$ since LIA

47 • ~ 7 % of mass loss from Greenland mountain glaciers and ice caps has come from NE
48 Greenland

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73 **Abstract**

74 Mountain glaciers at the periphery of the Greenland ice sheet are a crucial freshwater and
75 sediment source to the North Atlantic and strongly impact Arctic terrestrial, fjord and coastal
76 biogeochemical cycles. In this study we mapped the extent of 1848 mountain glaciers in NE
77 Greenland at the Little Ice Age (LIA). We determined area and volume changes for the time
78 periods LIA to 1980s and 1980s to 2014 and ELAs. There was at least $172.76 \pm 34.55 \text{ km}^3$
79 volume lost between 1910 and 1980s, i.e. a rate of $2.61 \pm 0.52 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Between 1980s and
80 2014 the volume lost was $90.55 \pm 18.11 \text{ km}^3$, i.e. a rate of $3.22 \pm 0.64 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, implying an
81 increase of $\sim 23 \%$ in the rate of ice volume loss. Overall, at least $\sim 7 \%$ of mass loss from
82 Greenland mountain glaciers and ice caps has come from the NE sector.

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84 **Plain Language Summary**

85 Mountain glaciers are especially important sources of freshwater and sediment to the Oceans.
86 They are known to be diminishing globally, but there is a lack of information on how present
87 rates of ice mass loss compare to those in the past. In this study we have for the first time
88 mapped the extent of mountain glaciers in NE Greenland at the Little Ice Age (LIA), which
89 was \sim year 1910, and we have determined the glacier area and volume changes from then to
90 the present day. Overall, we find an acceleration in the rate of ice volume loss towards the
91 present day of $\sim 23 \%$ but we note considerable differences in that rate between individual
92 glaciers. We suggest that the NE Greenland mountain glaciers contribute $\sim 7 \%$ of the entire
93 mass loss from Greenland as a whole. These findings are important because the resultant
94 meltwater and sediment efflux affects North Atlantic and Arctic Ocean circulation and the
95 associated conveyance of mineral, nutrient and carbon also strongly impacts terrestrial, fjord
96 and coastal flora and fauna.

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107 **1. Introduction**

108 Arctic and sub-arctic glaciers presently have a total coverage of > 410,000 km² and account
109 for ~ 60 % of all mountain glaciers and ice caps (GICs) globally (Randolph Glacier Index
110 (RGI) v5). Most (~ 88 %) of these GICs each have a surface area < 5 km² (Pfeffer et al. 2014)
111 and as a function of this small size have faster response times than ice sheets and so are
112 important indicators of climate change over decadal time scales (Dyurgerov and Meier 2000;
113 Dyurgerov 2003; Raper and Braithwaite 2006; Haeberli et al. 2007).

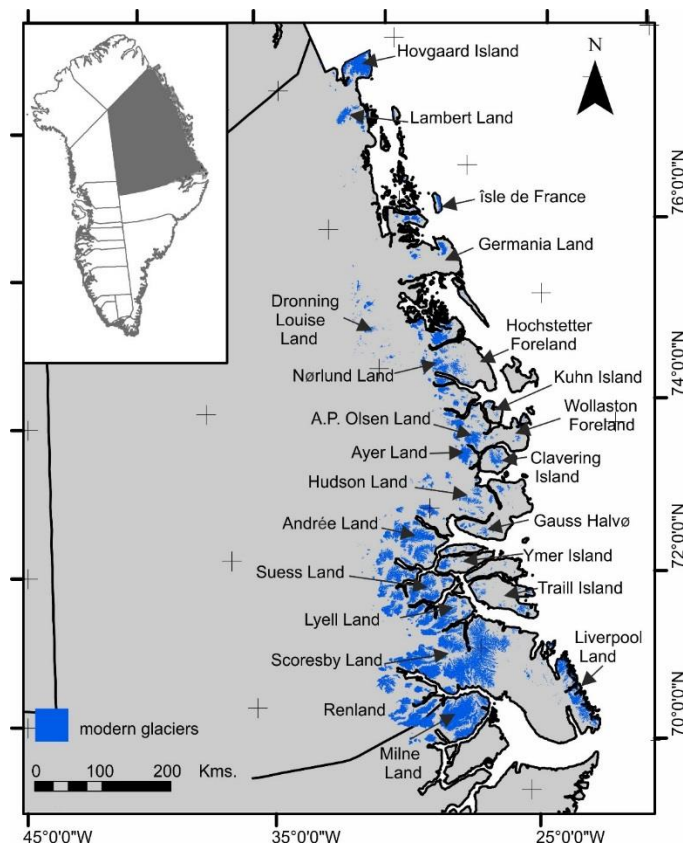
114
115 Globally, GIC contributions to sea-level rise over the last decades have been more significant
116 than contributions from the major ice sheets (Raper and Braithwaite 2006; Gardner et al.
117 2013; Bamber et al., 2018) and have accelerated recently (Chen et al., 2013), especially in the
118 Arctic (Bamber et al., 2018). This disproportionately large contribution of GICs to global sea-
119 level rise is expected to continue for many decades (Huss and Hock, 2015). It is therefore
120 crucially important to (i) not rely solely on glacier area statistics as relied on by inventories
121 such as the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI) within GLIMS <https://www.glims.org/> but also
122 [to incorporate glacier volume changes, and](#) (ii) place measurements of recent (satellite era)
123 GIC changes into a longer time scale perspective by reconstructing glacier geometry during
124 the Little Ice Age (LIA) (c.f. Glasser et al., 2011; Carrivick et al., 2012).

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126 **2. Study area and previous research**

127 Ice mass loss across Greenland has not been spatio-temporally uniform (e.g. Sasgen et al.,
128 2012). Whilst the North East (NE) Greenland region ([Fig. 1](#)) does not contribute a major
129 portion of the total mass loss from Greenland (Sasgen et al., 2012) it is a crucial freshwater
130 source (Bamber et al., 2012) and a substantial sediment source (Gordeev et al., 2006;
131 Overeem et al., 2017) to the North Atlantic and Arctic Ocean. This freshwater affects marine
132 water temperature, salinity and hence regional ocean circulation patterns (e.g. Gordeev et al.,
133 2006). The runoff of freshwater and sediment also provides nutrients and minerals to fjord
134 and coastal waters, impacting aquatic productivity and ecosystems (Anderson et al., 2017;
135 Sejr et al., 2017). It is therefore perhaps surprising that the NE Greenland region ([Fig. 1](#)) is
136 under-represented in the glaciological literature (Kelly and Lowell, 2009). The NE Greenland
137 region is interesting glaciologically because it encompasses both a large sector of the
138 Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS), > 5000 GICs and an extensive recently-deglaciated proglacial
139 zone. The GICs span a local latitudinal extent from 70° 30' N to 80° 30' N and range in size
140 from local ice caps and > 50 km² valley glaciers to smaller valley glaciers and cirque glaciers.

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Longer-term spatio-temporal patterns of the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) have been evaluated since the last interglacial 130,000 years ago by Vasskog et al. (2015) and since 1900 by Kjeldsen et al. (2015), respectively. However, studies on Late Pleistocene and Holocene fluctuations of Greenland's GICs have been spatially isolated (e.g. Kelly et al., 2008; Möller et al., 2010; Levy et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2017), often focussing on large marine-terminating or tidewater margins. Consequently research on mass changes in Greenland GICs (e.g. Weidick, 1968; Yde and Knudsen, 2007; Rinne et al., 2011; Bjørk et al., 2012; Yde et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2017; Marcer et al., 2017; von Albedyll et al., 2018) has been spatially disparate and temporally fragmented. The most spatially extensive work is by Bjørk et al. (2018) who provided a regional comparison of 334 GIC length changes in East and West Greenland and who showed pervasive glacier length reductions.



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Figure 1. Study area with modern glaciers mapped and major glaciated regions named.

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During the last glacial maximum (LGM) glaciers extended offshore from NE Greenland through present-day fjord mouths (Kelly and Lowell, 2009). Whilst the LGM ice coverage on

160 (inter-fjord) plateau lands is less well understood, major outlet glaciers are thought to have
161 retreated onto land relatively quickly and much of the present landscape became ice-free
162 around 11,000 BP (Hall et al., 2008) to 8000 BP (Christiansen and Humlum, 1993; Bennike
163 and Björck, 2002).

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165 The LIA ice advance in NE Greenland is marked by well-preserved moraine ridges that are
166 typically within 1 to 2 km of modern ice margins. These prominent moraines are associated
167 with erosional and depositional trimlines that often appear ‘fresh’ due to an obvious
168 vegetation contrast (Funder, 1990; Hall et al., 2008). These moraines have been generally
169 summarised to represent an ice advance of the mid-1800s and thus to the LIA (e.g. Ahlmann,
170 1941; Weidick, 1963, 1968), although these estimates are subject to high levels of uncertainty
171 associated with geochronological analyses. More recently and contrastingly, Kjeldsen et al.,
172 (2015) and Bjørk et al. (2018) describe the same regionally-widespread geomorphological
173 evidence and assign a date of 1910 to the LIA maximum in east Greenland.

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175 The aim of this study is therefore to present a quantitative spatio-temporal assessment of
176 glacier volume changes across the entire NE Greenland region. Specifically, we will compare
177 recent (decadal) rates of glacier changes with longer (centennial) rates of change by
178 reconstructing the 3D geometry of glaciers during the LIA.

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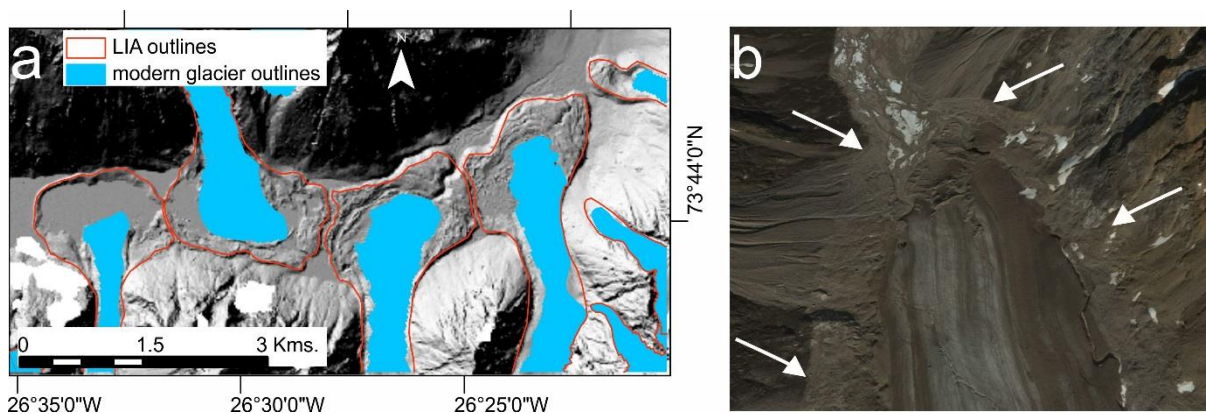
181 **3. Datasets and methods**

182 Modern glacier outlines for NE Greenland were derived from GLIMS. We checked these
183 glacier outlines with reference to Planet (mostly PlanetScope 3 m resolution from 2016
184 onwards) imagery <https://www.planet.com/explorer/>. Orthorectified panchromatic aerial
185 photographs and a 25 m resolution DEM that was derived from those photographs for the
186 years 1978 and 1987 were obtained for the northern and southern parts of our study area,
187 respectively, from Korsgaard et al. (2016).

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189 Identification of moraines attributed to the LIA was primarily facilitated by interpretation of
190 the 5 m resolution mosaic ArcticDEM, which was constructed from WorldView 1.5 m
191 resolution satellite images (Noh and Howat, 2015). The 2 m ArcticDEM strip files, 3 m
192 Planet imagery, published mapping (Funder, 1990; Kelly et al., 2008; Hall et al., 2008) and
193 observations made as part of our own field work were all used to mitigate ambiguous

194 evidence or obscured/missing parts of the ArcticDEM. Specifically, we edited the GLIMS
195 outlines to a new dataset that defined the outermost prominent frontal and lateral moraine
196 crests; i.e. what we interpret to be the maximum LIA glacier in each case. Lateral moraine
197 limits that had insufficient topographic expression to be detected on the hillshaded DEM (Fig.
198 2A) were often discernible on Planet imagery by a pronounced contrast in vegetation and
199 weathering (Fig. 2B). Using this approach, we were able to map the 2D LIA glacier extent of
200 1848 (representing 32 % of the total) glaciers in NE Greenland. Surge-type glaciers were
201 identified (cf. Evans and Rea, 1999, 2003; Lovell and Boston, 2017) and included in our
202 analysis in order to assess the full glacial response to climate change since the LIA, but we
203 also report our results without these eight glaciers included for clarity and so as to indicate
204 the impact of calculating volumetric changes in areas with surging glaciers. LIA glacier 3D
205 surfaces were produced by interpolation between points created from the vertices of the 2D
206 outlines, whereby these points had ArcticDEM values extracted/attributed to them. Full
207 details of our data sources and methods are given in the Supplementary Information (SI).
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209 **Figure 2. Examples of LIA outlines mapped onto crest of outermost prominent moraine**
210 **ridges on hillshaded DEM (a) and of depositional and erosional trimlines at**
211 **Skillegletscher, Clavering Island, here in perspective view of Planet image (b).**
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214 Spatially-distributed surface lowering was calculated for two time periods; one centennial
215 time period of the LIA to 1980s, for which we used the specific years 1910 to 1978/1987, and
216 one decadal time period of 1980s (specifically years 1978/1987) to 2014. The 1978/1987
217 years are defined for the northern and southern parts of our study area, respectively, and are
218 determined by the Korsgaard et al. (2016) data coverage. The LIA in E Greenland is assumed
219 herein as 1910 following the same decision by Bjørk et al. (2018), and noting that Khan et al.,
220 (2014) realised that the LIA in SW Greenland was before 1930 and that a Greenland-wide

221 average LIA was put forward by as 1900 by Kjeldsen et al. (2015). The year 2014 is ascribed
222 by the timing of images making up the ArcticDEM mosaic (SI).

223

224 For all spatially-distributed surface lowering calculations, we first automatically estimated
225 glacier-specific equilibrium line altitudes (ELA) using the tool developed by Pellitero et al.,
226 (2015). Specifically, we used the Area Altitude Balance Ratio (AABR) method with a
227 balance ratio of 2.24, as representative of high latitude glaciers (Rea, 2009; Pellitero et al.,
228 2015). The ablation area for each individual glacier was subsequently delineated in an
229 automated fashion using the outlines and the ELA. To check the sense of our computed
230 ELAs, we quantitatively compared the resultant glacier-specific ELAs to the maximum
231 elevation of lateral moraines (Fig. SI5 A). For ablation areas only, we differenced both the
232 modern day ice surface, and the 1980s ice surface from the LIA ice surface. Surface lowering
233 for both time periods was converted to a volume change estimate by summing the grid cell
234 elevation changes for each glacier zone and multiplying by cell size. Rates of change were
235 determined per glacier to account for the differing geographical distribution of the 1978 and
236 1987 DEMs.

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238 Our volume change estimates can only be considered as mass balance estimates if it is
239 assumed that glacier surfaces above the ELA are somewhat protected from warming air
240 temperatures (but not to changes in precipitation). Our volume change estimates should be
241 considered a minimum because (i) they depend on the preservation and identification of
242 geomorphological evidence of an LIA advance, (ii) they pertain only to glaciers where
243 GLIMS outlines exist and some empty cirques in NE Greenland may have held glaciers at the
244 LIA (Fig. SI5 D), (iii) our elevation change calculations only relate to glacier ablation areas,
245 (iv) a few ($< 1\%$) glacier ablation areas have gained mass since the LIA due to surging (see
246 Fig. SI 4).

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248 Errors in area and volume change estimates will result from DEM resolution, LIA
249 identification and digitising, 3D surface reconstruction and surface differencing, as described
250 in detail in the SI. Our area change estimates are subject to uncertainty depending on the
251 DEM (5 m) and optical image (1.5 m) resolution used for digitising, and researcher choice of
252 the most prominent outer moraine and of trimlines. In the vast majority of cases the
253 geomorphological evidence is distinct, whilst digitising errors at smaller glaciers will have
254 the largest relative effect in area measurement accuracy. At a typical mountain glacier in NE

255 Greenland of 2 km^2 digitizing errors of one pixel would typically produce an area of $\sim \pm 0.7$
256 % (depending on glacier shape). Critically, the computed rates of volume loss are most
257 subject to error in the choice of a single date to represent the timing of the LIA maximum in
258 NE Greenland. If glacier advance had occurred earlier, for example at 1850 (as opposed to
259 1910), then our rates of change between the LIA and 1980s would be lower by $\sim 50 \%$ (due
260 to twice the length of time period). Therefore our computed acceleration in rates of volume
261 loss during this period are also minimum estimates.

262

263 For the purposes of evaluating the relative importance of the NE Greenland GICs we
264 converted our volume changes into mass changes. For this calculation we used a density of
265 ice of 900 kg.m^3 (c.f. Huss, 2013). The mass of ice was converted to a sea level equivalent
266 (SLE) using an ocean area of $3.62 \times 10^8 \text{ km}^2$ (c.f. Hock et al., 2009).

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269 **4. Results**

270 The total glacier area lost between the LIA and the present day was at least $1570 \pm 314 \text{ km}^2$
271 from $\sim 23,000 \pm 4600 \text{ km}^2$ at the LIA. The maximum area loss of any glacier was 30.1 ± 1.5
272 km^2 and overall the mean area change for the 1848 glaciers was $0.83 \pm 0.05 \text{ km}^2$.

273 Normalising by area, the mean area change was 79.3% , i.e. a mean area loss of 21.7% , and
274 the interquartile range of 27.17% was defined by $Q1 = 67.85 \%$ and $Q3 = 95.02 \%$.

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276 There was at least $172.76 \pm 34.55 \text{ km}^3$ volume lost between 1910 and 1980s, i.e. a rate of
277 $2.61 \pm 0.52 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Between 1980s and 2014 the volume loss was at least 90.55 ± 18.11
278 km^3 , i.e. a rate of $3.22 \pm 0.64 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Therefore in recent decades there has been a marked
279 increase of $\sim 23 \%$ in the rate of ice volume lost when compared to the rate of change from
280 the LIA to the 1980s. If the eight surge-type glaciers are excluded from analysis then the
281 volume lost between 1980s and 2014 reduces by $7.41 \pm 1.48 \text{ km}^3$ i.e. by 8.1% and the
282 volume lost between 1910 and the 1980s reduces by $16.96 \pm 3.39 \text{ km}^3$ i.e. by 9.8% .

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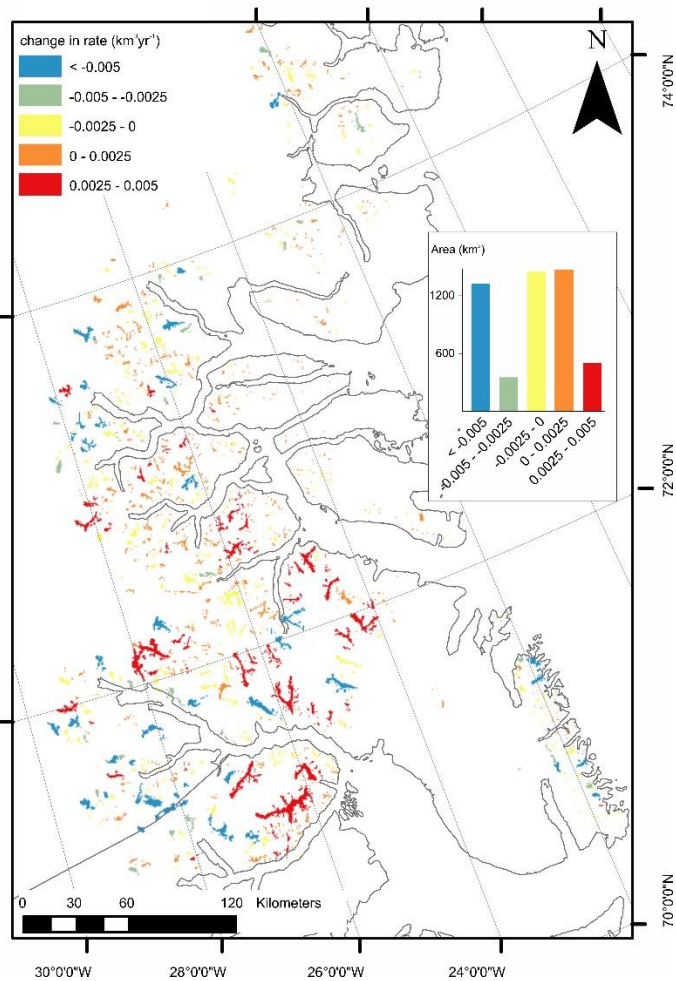
284 From the LIA to the 1980s we estimate $155.5 \pm 31.1 \text{ Gt}$ mass loss from NE Greenland GICs,
285 i.e. $2.0 \pm 0.4 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$. For the 1980s to 2014 we estimate $81.5 \pm 16.3 \text{ Gt}$ mass loss, i.e. $2.5 \pm$
286 0.5 Gt.yr^{-1} . We estimate $0.43 \pm 0.086 \text{ mm}$ total contribution to sea-level rise from NE
287 Greenland GICs between the LIA and the 1980s and $0.23 \pm 0.046 \text{ mm}$ contribution between
288 the 1980s and 2014.

289

290 During the LIA to 1980s 2.5% of the glaciers apparently had no change in volume and this
291 figure increased to 4 % during the period 1980s to 2014. Approximately 34 % of glaciers
292 experienced a decrease in the rate of volume loss between the 1980s and 2014 compared to
293 their rate between the LIA and the 1980s. One glacier had no change in rate, and 66 % of
294 glaciers apparently increased in their rate of volume loss. The maximum change in the rate of
295 volume loss for an individual glacier was at least $+0.034 \pm 0.0068 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and the greatest
296 reduction in the rate of volume loss was at least $-0.022 \pm 0.0044 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. There was a
297 positive correlation ($r^2 = 0.22$ for all glaciers, $r^2 = 0.63$ for the largest 50 glaciers) of the
298 change in rate of volume loss with initial (LIA) glacier area.

299

300 [Figure 3C](#) hints that larger glaciers had higher rates of volume loss, but this figure more
301 obviously illustrates that there was no spatial pattern to the changes in rates of volume loss
302 between the two time periods. We extracted centroid locations for each glacier and
303 statistically evaluated that there was no east-west trend and no north-south trend. We found
304 no association between rate of volume loss and glacier elevation, which is contrary to the
305 findings of Larsen et al. (2017). At the LIA 77 glaciers (4.5 %) were terminating into a fjord,
306 whereas with the modern (GLIMS) outlines only 58 (3 %) glaciers are tidewater-terminating.
307 There was no statistical difference in the rates of volume change of land-terminating and
308 tidewater-terminating glaciers.



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310 **Figure 3. Rate of change between the two time periods LIA to 1987 and 1987 to 2014.**
 311 **Inset shows total area of all glaciers within each category of change in rate.**
 312

313 **5. Discussion**

314 Our novel data on glacier 3D geometry during the LIA, analysed and combined with
 315 published estimates of glacier changes across Greenland, permit us to make the first
 316 assessments of the importance of the NE Greenland region in its contribution to total
 317 Greenland ice mass loss on both centennial and decadal time scales. Our most significant
 318 finding is that on a centennial-scale NE Greenland GICs contributed an amount equivalent to
 319 ~ 3.3% of total GrIS loss since the LIA to the 1980s, which Kjeldsen et al. (2015) estimated
 320 was $75.1 \pm 29.4 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$.

321

322 Recent (decadal-scale) changes to the GrIS and to the Greenland GICs have received rather
 323 more attention and thus we can make more comparisons of our findings with other published
 324 estimates. Thomas et al. (2006) estimated that total GrIS loss had more than doubled from 4
 325 to 50 Gt yr^{-1} between 1993/4 and 1998/9 to $57 \text{ to } 105 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$ between 1998/9 and 2004.

326 Bolch et al. (2013) reported that Greenland GICs contributed ~ 20 % of the total ice mass lost
327 from Greenland between 2003 and 2008. Kjeldsen et al. (2015) estimated that total GrIS loss
328 for 1983 to 2003 was $73.8 \pm 40.5 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$, and for 2003 to 2010 was $186.4 \pm 18.9 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$. Most
329 recently, and considering a longer total time period and several discrete sub time periods,
330 Bamber et al. (2018) have evidenced an acceleration in the rate of mass loss from the GrIS
331 from the late 1990s to $> 300 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$ post 2008 (450 Gt in 2012).

332

333 With these GrIS estimates in mind, our calculations of the NE Greenland glacier changes
334 indicate that they could have been contributing mass loss equivalent to $\sim 1/25^{\text{th}}$ of that of the
335 GrIS in the 1990s. However, into the 2000s that relative importance probably diminished to $<$
336 $1/1000^{\text{th}}$. For the NE Greenland region only, and for the GrIS and GICs combined, Sasgen et
337 al. (2012) reported 7 to 16 Gt.yr^{-1} loss for 2003 to 2009. Our (decadal mean) value of 2.5
338 Gt.yr^{-1} would suggest that GICs could account for ~ 15 to 35 % of this regional total. Bamber
339 et al. (2018; their Table 1) report Greenland GICs to have lost mass at $\sim 35 \text{ Gt.yr}^{-1}$ between
340 2003 and 2014 so our estimates suggest that a minimum of ~ 7 % of that was from NE
341 Greenland. Unfortunately, our results are virtually impossible to compare to those of Bjorck
342 et al. (2018) because they only sampled 195 and 139 glaciers in east and west Greenland,
343 respectively, and only considered changes in glacier length over different time periods to our
344 study.

345

346 The lack of a spatial pattern that we evidence in individual glacier changes (Fig. 3C) is
347 surprising. We had expected the spatial pattern of rates of volume change to reflect any
348 climatic gradients across the NE. We therefore computed glacier-specific ELAs and these are
349 $> 2000 \text{ m}$ in the west and $< 500 \text{ m}$ in the east (Fig. SI 5C). This spatial pattern is indicative of
350 a pronounced air temperature and precipitation gradient in NE Greenland between the GrIS
351 margin to the west and the Atlantic Ocean to the east. Our glacier-specific volume changes
352 have no west-east pattern, nor a north-south pattern as might be expected due to any
353 latitudinal air temperature gradient. Overall, our observed changes in ice volume loss do not
354 correspond to the spatial variations in ELA and thus do not correspond to a regional climatic
355 control.

356

357 It is therefore apparent that local controls are of paramount importance in relation to glacier
358 behaviour and evolution in NE Greenland. Furthermore, we note from a detailed study of the
359 DEMs and satellite images that the vast majority of glaciers in NE Greenland do not exhibit

360 many surface crevasses, foliation lines or other structural features. They support few
361 supraglacial channels and exist in an environment with positive degree days persisting for <
362 90 days per year (Mernild et al., 2007). We therefore suggest that most present-day NE
363 Greenland GICs are likely to be polythermal and perhaps some entirely cold-based, although
364 their thermal regime is likely to evolve as thinning progresses and reduces ice overburden
365 pressure and hence basal shear stress (Rippin et al. 2011). Indeed, the distal parts of these
366 glaciers moraines (at least in Skilledal, Clavering Island) contain sub-rounded and striated
367 boulders (Fig. SI 6), suggesting that subglacial sediment transport was pervasive and hence
368 temperate glacier bed conditions were widespread at the LIA. Thus it is suggested that GICs
369 in NE Greenland have generally cooled (in thermal regime) as they have thinned and slowed
370 and as climate has warmed since the LIA to the present day. The same glacier evolution was
371 found on James Ross Island, Antarctica by Carrivick et al. (2012).

372

373 Studies on Greenland GICs have realised this importance of local controls and specifically of
374 topography (Larsen et al., 2017) on glacier morphology and behaviour but it has never been
375 suggested on a regional scale. This spatio-temporal variability has implications for models
376 seeking to understand past, present and future glacier geometry changes and dynamics
377 because individual glaciers or a small sample of glaciers are not likely to be representative of
378 the region. These transitions in glacier behaviour have big implications not only for glacier
379 evolution but also for valley, fjord, coastal and marine systems (e.g. Sejr et al., 2017).

380 Therefore it is important that efforts to understand these transitions are made and to that end
381 our area and volume change data should be useful for a statistical approach to calibrate
382 glacier mass balance models that are driven by surface air temperature data (Marzeion et al.,
383 2015) and re-analysis products (Radic and Hock, 2010, Radić et al., 2014). Unfortunately,
384 there is a dearth of decadal-scale climate data available for NE Greenland (see citations in
385 Orsi et al., 2017). The single exception is the climate data from Zackenberg station (situated
386 at 74° 28' N, 20° 34' W) which experiences a semi-arid continental climate.

387

388 **6. Conclusions**

389 This study is the first to inventory recent decadal glacier changes across NE Greenland into a
390 longer (centennial) time-scale context. We quantify that the rate of GIC volume loss from the
391 LIA to the present day has accelerated > 124 %. For the first time we have also been able to
392 suggest that GICs in NE Greenland account for > 5 % and more likely ~ 25 % of the (NE

393 Greenland) regional total mass loss. Furthermore, we suggest that a minimum of ~ 7 % of the
394 entire mass loss from Greenland was from the GICs in the NE Greenland region.

395

396 Recognition of an acceleration in glacier volume loss is in agreement with the findings of
397 Chen et al. (2013) and Bamber et al. (2018) who have both reported recent (last decade)
398 acceleration in GIC mass loss, especially in the Arctic. Glacier mass loss in NE Greenland is
399 manifest in meltwater and that has great significance for the North Atlantic Ocean and Arctic
400 Ocean circulation as well as profound consequences for fjord and coastal primary production
401 and ecosystems. Glacier mass loss is also manifest in proglacial area expansion, which in this
402 study we show has been by $1570 \pm 314 \text{ km}^2$ since the LIA. These proglacial areas are rapidly-
403 adjusting parts of landscapes (Carrivick and Heckman, 2017) and as such they are hotspots of
404 sediment production and will dominate mineral and nutrient fluxes through fluvial and
405 aquatic domains.

406

407 Our results show that it would be impossible to derive a regional trend in glacier change by
408 simply analyzing individual glaciers in this region. Thus whilst glacier area changes of > 10
409 km^2 characterize the centennial-scale dynamics of some of the NE Greenland GICs and these
410 provide an important baseline against which modern ice sheet fluctuations may be compared,
411 future work to understand the processes driving those changes needs to link glacier 3D extent
412 with ice dynamics. To this end glacier dynamics at the LIA might be modelled by
413 reconstructing LIA ice thickness, by taking our reconstructed ice surface and combining it
414 with contemporary ice thickness (or glacier bed elevation) that could be most simply obtained
415 from a steady state model (e.g. GLABTOP: Linsbauer et al., 2012; VOLTA: James and
416 Carrivick, 2016; Carrivick et al., 2016). Other future work should seek to construct LIA
417 glacier outline inventory data for the south, west and north Greenland GICs and also for other
418 Arctic regions.

419

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425 her comments on a draft of this manuscript.

426

427 **Author contributions**

428 JLC devised and led the project including data analysis and manuscript writing. CB assisted
429 with the identification and digitising of LIA moraines. OK conducted the decadal-scale DEM
430 differencing. WJ conducted the ablation area definition. DQ and MS and MG helped with
431 project conceptualisation. JE led fieldwork in August 2017. All authors contributed to
432 discussions, literature research and to manuscript writing. All the data used are listed in the
433 references or available as Supplementary Information.

434

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