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% Web Ecology (we)
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\begin{document}

\title{Unlocking archival maps of the Hornsund fjord area for monitoring glaciers of the Sørkapp Land peninsula, Svalbard}

%\title{Unlocking archival maps of the Hornsund fjord area for monitoring glaciers of the Sørkapp Land peninsula, Spitsbergen}

%\title{The potential of archival maps of the Hornsund fjord area for monitoring glaciers of the Sørkapp Land peninsula, Spitsbergen} trzeba pomyslec jak zmienic tytul zeby opisywal dane jesli ma pojsc do ESSD,

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%% The [] brackets identify the author with the corresponding affiliation. 1, 2, 3, etc. should be inserted.

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`\runningtitle{Unlocking archival maps of the Hornsund fjord...}`

`\runningauthor{Dudek and Pęćlicki}`

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`\firstpage{1}`

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\begin{abstract}

Archival maps are an invaluable source of information on the state of glaciers in polar zones and are very often basic research ~~material~~data for analysing changes in their geometry. However, basing a ~~reliable-comparative-quantitative~~ analysis on them requires they be standardised and precisely matched against modern-day cartographic materials. This can be achieved effectively using techniques and tools from the field of Geographic Information Systems (GIS).

The research objective was to accurately register archival topographic maps of the area surrounding the Hornsund fjord (southern Spitsbergen) published by the Polish Academy of Sciences, and to evaluate their potential for use in studying changes in the geometry of glaciers in the north-western part of the Sørkapp Land peninsula in in the periods: 1961--~~90~~1990, 1990--2010 and 1961--2010.

Comparing

The area occupied by investigated glaciers of north-western Sørkapp Land decreased in the years 1961-2010 by 45.6 km², i.e. by slightly over 16%. The rate of glacier area change varied over time and amounted to 0.85 km²/yr in the period 1961-1990 ~~data, glacier surfaces lowered and sped up to~~ 1.05 km²/yr after 1990. This process was accompanied by glacier surface lowering by about ~~80-85~~90-100 m for the largest land-terminating glaciers ~~of~~on the peninsula, and by up to more than ~~90~~120 m for tidewater glaciers (above the line marking their 1984 extents).

The dataset is now available from the Zenodo web portal: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4573130>
~~\citep{Dudek2021}~~ \end{abstract}

\end{abstract}

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\introduction %% \introduction[modified heading if necessary]

Climate warming and the accompanying progressive disappearance of ice is now more dynamic in Svalbard than at any time in history anywhere in the European Arctic — and changes are occurring more dynamically in the European Arctic than anywhere else in the world.

The Svalbard archipelago is among the regions that has experienced the fastest climate warming recorded in the Arctic after the Little Ice Age (LIA). Since the beginning of the last century, the average annual temperatures in this area have increased by 2.6 °C per century, which is more than two times higher than the average for other areas of the globe \citep{Nordli2014}. In addition, a

rapid acceleration of the pace of this process has been observed since the late 1990s \citep{Isaksen2016}.

The current intensification of climate change translates into evolution and dynamics of glacier systems resulting in their negative mass balance and frontal recession \citep{Nuth2010, Morris2020, Schuler2020}. Changes in the geometry of glaciers constitute a visible and easily measured parameter that, apart from being a reliable indicator of their condition, is a proxy for changes in the natural environment \citep{Knight2006}.

The glaciers of Svalbard have received less attention in past research than have those in continental Europe \citep{WGMS2020}. This is because of their inaccessibility, the harsh climatic conditions and the long polar night, which limit the possibilities for direct measurement. Logistic and economic aspects play a hugecrucial role in the selection of research areas, so data collection for documenting glacier changes (including field measurements) focuses mainly on the more accessible western coasts of the Spitsbergen island \citep{Hagen1990}. The use of traditional research methods, e.g. in situ stake mass balance measurements, is costly and time-consuming, even if the research programme is reduced to a minimum, so changes in the geometry of Svalbard glaciers are often inferred from satellite data and aerial photographs \citep{Jacob2012, Nuth2013, MartinMoreno2017}.

The use of remote-sensing imaging data has a number of advantages in glacier research, the most important of which are that the data do not require a large team in the field and can be used to quickly generate precise results. These factsfactors have certainly contributed to remote-sensing methods having been used in glaciology since almost the very inception of this scientific field glaciological research \citep{Finsterwalder1954, Stocker2019}.

In the initial period of polar research based on remote-sensing methods, ground-based photogrammetry techniques were mainly used. In Svalbard, terrestrial photogrammetric methods were first used in 1898 as part of topographic work carried out by a Swedish expedition led by A.G. Nathorst \citep{Nathorst1909}. Later, these techniques were successfully used on several research expeditions organised, among others, by the prince of Monaco in 1906 and 1907 \citep{Isachsen191214}, and on numerous Norwegian expeditions in 1909–26 \citep{Hoel1929}.

The aim and scientific fruit of the first photogrammetric works on Svalbard were, above all, topographic maps of poorly known areas, which were also valuable material for the study of glacier extents. Polish achievements in this field include a series of photogrammetric images and triangulation measurements made in 1934 as part of the first Polish research expedition to the as-yet-unexplored Torell Land (southern Spitsbergen), which yielded the first accurate map of this area at a scale of 1:50,000 \citep{Zagrajski1936}.

The construction of the Polish Polar Station on Isbjørnhamna Bay in 1957 allowed scientific teams to operate in southern Spitsbergen. In the station's first years, a Polish research team led by C. Lipert conducted terrestrial photogrammetric measurements, resulting in the production of detailed maps of glaciers in the vicinity of the Hornsund fjord \citep{Kosiba1960, Lipert1962}. Additionally, topographic sketches of the Antoniabreen and Penckbreen glaciers were made during an expedition to the vicinity of the Van Keulen fjord in the same period \citep{Marcinkiewicz1961} in the same period.

Changes in the extents of glaciers around the station were also documented in the early 1970s, when summer expeditions of the University of Wrocław were held there \citep{Zyszkowski1982} were held there, and, after activity resumed in 1978, on numerous expeditions made mainly by the University of Silesia and the Institute of Geophysics of the Polish Academy of Sciences (\emph{Instytut Geofizyki, Polska Akademia Nauk}, hereinafter referred to as IGF PAN) \citep{Kolondra2000}. Terrestrial photogrammetric methods are still used today in glaciological studies of this area, and the longest series of measurements has covered the Werenskioldbreen, Torellbreen and Hansbreen glaciers \citep{Kolondra2002}.

Compared to other areas of Svalbard, the photogrammetric research on the Sørkapp Land peninsula and the number of related cartographic works published are very modest. The area most often chosen for cartographic studies has been the north of the peninsula (which is relatively accessible from the Hornsund fjord), including primarily the vicinity of the Gåsbreen glacier area \citep{DeGeer1923, Pillewizer1939, Jania1979, Jania1982, Kolondra1979, Kolondra1980, Schoner1996, Schoner1997, Ziaja2016} and glaciers flowing into the fjord \citep{Heintz1953, Blaszczyk2013}.

Terrestrial photogrammetric methods provide reliable and, precise and repeatable results, but, However, they can only be used for spatially small-scale studies, usually covering one glacier or its foreland \citep{Kolondra2005}. For glaciological studies with extensive studies spatial coverage, data obtained from the aerial ceiling are much more competitive: providing information from large and hard-to-reach areas, which is of great importance in polar conditions. Therefore, aerial photogrammetry progressed alongside ground measurement techniques on Svalbard.

Professional photogrammetric overflights by the Norwegian Polar Institute (NPI) covered all or almost all of the Sørkapp Land peninsula (Table~\ref{Tab1}). The first, in 1936, resulted in a series of oblique photos that were used to create a 1:100,000 topographic map covering the entire Svalbard archipelago -\citep{Luncke1936, NPI1986}. Another map by the Norwegian Polar Institute was published only in the first decade of the 21st century2007, and was based on 1:50,000 vertical photos from 1990, this time as colour prints \citep{NPI1996NPI2007}.

~~\begin{table}[t]~~

~~\caption{Photogrammetric overflights of the Sørkapp Land.}~~

```
\label{Tab1}
```

```
\begin{tabular}{lc}
```

```
\topline
```

```
Year & Area of Sørkapp Land covered \\ \middleline
```

```
1936 & Entire Peninsula \\ % tu jest Peninsula, potem peninsula
```

```
1948 & Western and southern coasts \\
```

```
1960 & Western part of the peninsula \\
```

```
\multirow{2}{2em}{1961} & Almost entire peninsula except \\
```

```
& its non-glaciated western part \\
```

```
1970 & Isthmus and eastern coast \\
```

```
1971 & Eastern coast \\
```

```
1990 & Almost entire peninsula except one strip in the north east \\
```

```
2010 & Entire peninsula \\
```

```
\bottomline
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\end{tabular}
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\end{table}
```

For the study of glacier evolution and glacial landforms on the Sørkapp Land peninsula, the series of photos taken in 1961 is of great importance because, for the first time in the history of this area, it uniformly covered all its glaciers along with their marginal zones. No other set of data of the same spatial extent was created until ~~49 years later~~, the year 2010 (Fig.~\ref{Fig1}).

```
\begin{table}[t]
```

```
\caption{Norwegian Polar Institute photogrammetric campaigns carried out over the Sørkapp Land peninsula.}
```

```
\label{Tab1}
```

```
\begin{tabular}{lcc}
```

```
\topline
```

```
Year & Area of Sørkapp Land covered & References \\ \middleline
```

```
\multirow{1}{2em}{1936} & Entire peninsula & \cite{Blaszczyk2013}, \cite{Dowdeswell1995},
```

```
\cite{Hagen1993}, \\&&\cite{Heintz1953}, \cite{Jania1988a,Jania1988b}, \cite{Jiskoot2000},
```

```
\cite{Konig2014}, \\&& \cite{Lefauconnier1991}, \cite{Luncke1936},
```

```
\cite{MartinMoreno2017}, \\&&\cite{Noormets2020}, \cite{NPI1948, NPI1986, NPI2014},
```

```
\cite{Nuth2007, Nuth2013}, \\&&\cite{Palli2003}, \cite{Sharov2006} \cite{SharovOsokin2006},
```


[\cite{Sund2009},\&\& \cite{Szafranec2018, Szafranec2020}, \&\&\cite{Ziaja2001, Ziaja2004, Ziaja2007, Ziaja2009, Ziaja2015},\&\&](#)

1948 & Western and southern coasts & --\&\&

[\multirow{1}{2em}{1960} & Western part of the peninsula & \cite{Blaszczyk2013}, \cite{Hagen1993}, \cite{Jania1987, Jania1988a, Jania1988b}, \&\& \cite{Schoner1996, Schoner1997}, \cite{Ziaja2004},\&\&](#)

[\multirow{1}{2em}{1961} & Almost entire peninsula except the NW & \cite{Barna1987}, \cite{Grabiec2017}, \cite{Jania1987, Jania1988a, Jania1988b},\&\& \cite{JaniaSzczypek1987}, \cite{Klysz1982}, \cite{Lefauconnier1991}, \&\& \cite{Noormets2020}, \cite{Ostaficzuk1982},\cite{Schuler2020},\&\& \cite{vanPelt2019, vanPelt2021}, \cite{Ziaja2004, Ziaja2007, Ziaja2016},\&\&](#)

[1970 & Isthmus and eastern coast & \cite{Dowdeswell1995}, \cite{Lefauconnier1991}, \cite{Noormets2020}, \&\& \cite{Nuth2013}, \cite{NPI2014}, \cite{Schuler2020}, \cite{vanPelt2019, vanPelt2021}, \&\&\cite{Ziaja2004}\&\&](#)

[1971 & Eastern coast & \cite{Dowdeswell1995}, \cite{Lefauconnier1991}, \&\& \cite{Ziaja2004, Ziaja2007, Ziaja2009}\&\&](#)

[1990 & Almost entire peninsula except the NE & \cite{Blaszczyk2013}, \cite{Furst2018}, \cite{Jiskoot2000}, \cite{Konig2014}, \&\&\cite{Noel2020}, \cite{NPI2014}, \cite{Nuth2007, Nuth2010, Nuth2013}, \&\&\cite{Schoner1996, Schoner1997}, \cite{Schuler2020}, \cite{Sund2009}, \&\&\cite{Szafranec2020}, \cite{vanPelt2019, vanPelt2021}, \cite{Ziaja2004} \&\& \cite{Ziaja2007, Ziaja2016, Ziaja2011, Ziaja2015},\&\&](#)

[1995 & Central part of the peninsula & \cite{NPI2014}\&\&](#)

[2010 & Entire peninsula & \cite{Farnsworth2016}, \cite{Furst2018}, \cite{NPI2014}, \cite{Ziaja2016},\&\&](#)

[\bottomline](#)

[\end{tabular}](#)

[\end{table}](#)

[\begin{figure}\[t\]](#)

[\includegraphics\[width=12.3cm\]{Fig01.png}](#)

[\caption{Norwegian Polar Institute photogrammetric campaigns carried out over the Spørkapp Land peninsula.}](#)

[\label{Fig1}](#)

[\end{figure}](#)

[%\cite{Karczewski1984} - mapa geomorfologiczna,](#)

[%\cite{Lindner1985}-geomorgologia glacialna a nie lodowce](#)

— sformatowano: Polski

Norwegian photos from two photogrammetric campaigns in 1960 and 1961 have served as the source material for many cartographic and glaciological works \cite[e.g.]{{Klysz1982, Ostaficzuk1982, Jania1987, Jania1988, Schoner1996, James2012, Blaszczyk2013, Malecki2013}. Of the available cartographic studies valid for 1960/61, the 1:25,000 topographic map of the Hornsund fjord area has the greatest spatial coverage- (1600 km²). The series of sheets published in 1987 was in part the result of the ~~Institute of Geophysics of the Polish Academy of Sciences~~ (IGF PAN) programme of expeditions to Spitsbergen in the years 1979–84 with the support of officers of Poland’s military cartographic institute (\emph{Wojskowe Zakłady Kartograficzne}) in conducting desk research and field work. Field survey reference photogrammetric measurements were made during the 6th expedition of the Polish Academy of Sciences in 1984. The present study ~~attempts~~ aims to assess its accuracy and its potential for use in research on changes in the geometry of glaciers ~~in~~ on the ~~west of~~ ~~the~~ north-western Sørkapp Land peninsula.

\section{Study Area}

The Svalbard archipelago is surrounded by the Greenland Sea to the west, the Barents Sea to the east, and the Arctic Ocean to the north. The temperature of the bordering water masses influences its climate, which is milder than that of other areas at similar latitudes and, at the same time, more sensitive to changes related to the passage of atmospheric fronts (Hagen et al. 1993, Eckerstorfer and Christiansen 2011). The East Spitsbergen Current transports cold, Artic Waters along the eastern shores of the archipelago, while the West Spitsbergen Current, a branch of the Gulf Stream, brings warm Atlantic waters to the western shores. The resulting strong climate gradients cause a pronounced latitudinal and longitudinal variability in the ice cover of Svalbard, with the central part of Spitsbergen being largely ice-free due to low precipitation and the eastern shores being more glaciated than the western. Many of the Svalbard glaciers have surged in the recent past \citep{Wes} or are currently undergoing an active surge phase \citep{sund?}, with a substantial, short-term increase in the ice flow velocity.

The Sørkapp Land is the ~~southern~~southernmost peninsula of Spitsbergen, the largest island of the Svalbard archipelago (Fig.~\ref{Fig1Fig2}a and b). It is separated from the rest of ~~the island by~~ Spitsbergen by the Hornsund Fjord and a narrow glaciated isthmus- of Hornbreen-Hambergreen \citep{Ziaja2015}. There is ongoing speculation whether Sørkapp Land will form a separate island when the ice in the isthmus is gone \citep{Palli2003, Grabiec2017}. Compared to the rest of Svalbard, Hornsund and Sørkapp Land have a mild and humid climate \cite{}. In recent decades, a pronounced rise in winter air temperature and summer precipitation sums have been observed at the Polish Polar Station Hornsund \citep{OsuchiWawrzyniak}. %%przydalyby sie tu jeszcze jakies liczby.

— sformatowano: Polski

\begin{figure}[t]

\includegraphics[width=8.5cm]{Fig0112.3cm}{Fig02.png}

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\caption{Study area location on the background of: (a) the Svalbard archipelago, (b) the Sørkapp Land peninsula, and (c) its north-western part.}

\label{Fig2}

\end{figure}

\label{Fig1}

\end{figure}

The north-western Sørkapp Land region extends between the open Greenland Sea and Hornsund Fjord (Fig.~\ref{Fig1:Fig2}c). It ~~contains as many as 14~~^{hosts 20} land-terminating glaciers, ~~as well as 8~~^{tidewater glaciers, and} several rock glaciers, and numerous glacierets and perennial snow patches ~~crowded between the Körberbreen and Petersbreen tidewater glaciers to the north and Bungebreen to the south.~~ The largest land-based glaciers in the ~~analysed~~^{analyzed} area are: Gåsbreen, which is surrounded by the highest mountain massifs of southern Spitsbergen and fed by the Bastionbreen and Garwoodbreen tributary glaciers, both of which rest on the slopes of the Hornsundtind massif; and Bungebreen, which extends meridionally between the high ~~Hestsjøflya~~^{Hestskanka} massif to the north and the Tørrflya coastal lowland to the south. The two largest glacial systems in western Sørkapp Land are surrounded by smaller valley and cirque glaciers. East of Samarinvågen Bay, there are also several smaller land-based glaciers that constitute former tributaries of larger glaciers flowing into the Hornsund fjord.

Of the 16 glaciers flowing into the Hornsund Fjord, ~~four~~⁸ are located in the study area. These glaciers have a northern exposure and their snouts move northwards. Some of them originate on glaciated mountain passes in the interior of the peninsula where they share their accumulation zones with other glaciers. Samarinbreen, which flows into Samarinvågen, one of the bays in the Hornsund Fjord, is the largest tidewater glacier in the region. It flows from the

Fig20.png

Figure 20. Differences in elevation in non-glaciated areas between the final 1961 DEM generated based on IGF PAN maps published in

1987 (rectification of maps based on elevation points) and the 1990 DEM generated by NPI (2014)

In the last step, this model was corrected by subtracting the obtained mean difference from it. The results of comparisons of

the final 1961 model against the 2010 reference model are presented in Figure 20.

4.4 1961–1990–2010 changes in glacier geometries

The measure for examining the extent and pattern of glacier retreat in the years 1961–1990–2010 was changes in their surface

area, the rate of frontal recession and – where data allowed (i.e. for land-based glaciers) – changes in thickness. This analysis

covered 28 glaciers that lay within the analysed sheets of the 1961 map. After initial classification into two glacier types

(land-terminating and tidewater), the changes in their geometry were calculated.

In the study period, most of the glaciers on the mainland of north-western Sørkapp Land were in recession, as reflected in a

decrease in total area of nearly 7.2% – from 74.8 km² in 1961 to about 69.4 km² in 2010. The average rate of change in surface

area of the region's land-based glaciers was 0.19 km², i.e. about 0.2% of glaciated area per year (Table 2).³²⁰

The pace of surface recession on western Sørkapp Land during the study period 1961–90 varied between individual land-

based glaciers. In terms of surface area and ice mass loss, recession was greatest for the largest glaciers in the region: Gåsbreen

and Bungebreen. For these glaciers, the changes are most pronounced in the lower parts of their snouts (Table 5, Fig. 15 and

16 a-b).

Of the largest glaciers in the region, though in retreat, the snout of the westernmost glacier (Gåsbreen) was in 1961 still piled

up on the eastern slopes of the Wurmbrandegga–Saviçtoppen ridge to an elevation of 150 m a.s.l. This significant mountain

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Table 2. Differences in area of land-terminating glaciers in north-western Sørkapp Land, 1961–1990–2010.

Glacier

Area Area change Area change rate

(km²) (km²) (%) (km²/yr) (%)

1961 1990 2010 1961–1990 1990–2010 1961–2010 1961–1990 1990–2010 1961–2010

Arkfjellbreen 0.78 0.73 0.67 -0.05 (-6.4) -0.06 (-8.2) -0.11 (-14.1) -0.002 (-0.2) -0.003 (-0.4) -0.002 (-0.3)

Bautabreen 0.84 0.78 0.61 -0.06 (-7.1) -0.17 (-21.8) -0.23 (-27.4) -0.002 (-0.3) -0.009 (-1.1) -0.005 (-0.6)

Bungebreen 49.61 46.63 43.56 -2.98 (-6.0) -3.07 (-6.6) -6.05 (-12.2) -0.103 (-0.2) -0.15 (-0.3) -0.123 (-0.3)

Gåsbreen 13.99 12.34 11.38 -1.65 (-11.8) -0.96 (-7.8) -2.61 (-18.7) -0.06 (-0.4) -0.05 (-0.4) -0.05 (-0.4)

Goësbreen 1.19 0.94 0.28 -0.25 (-21.0) -0.7 (-70.2) -0.9 (-76.5) -0.009 (-0.7) -0.3 (-3.5) -0.02 (-1.6)

Gråkallbreen 0.16 0.14 0.03 -0.02 (-12.5) -0.11 (-78.6) -0.13 (-81.3) -0.001 (-0.4) -0.005 (-3.9) -0.003 (-1.7)

Mehestbreen 3.08 3.04 3.01 -0.04 (-1.3) -0.03 (-1.0) -0.07 (-2.3) -0.001 (0.0) -0.002 (-0.1) -0.001 (0.0)

Mikaelbreen 3.73 3.72 3.35 -0.01 (-0.3) -0.37 (-9.9) -0.38 (-10.2) 0.000 (0.0) -0.019 (-0.5) -0.008 (-0.2)

Nigerbreen 0.29 0.26 0.25 -0.03 (-10.3) -0.01 (-3.8) -0.04 (-13.8) -0.001 (-0.4) -0.001 (-0.2) -0.001 (-0.3)

Nordfallbreen 0.83 0.80 0.76 -0.03 (-3.6) -0.04 (-5.0) -0.07 (-8.4) -0.001 (-0.1) -0.002 (-0.3) -0.001 (-0.2)

Påskefiella glacier 1.15 1.08 1.05 -0.07 (-6.1) -0.03 (-2.8) -0.1 (-8.7) -0.002 (-0.2) -0.002 (-0.1) -0.002 (-0.2)

Plogbreen 0.76 0.64 0.60 -0.12 (-15.8) -0.04 (-6.3) -0.16 (-21.1) -0.004 (-0.5) -0.002 (-0.3) -0.003 (-0.4)

Portbreen 0.56 0.51 0.34 -0.05 -8.93 -0.17 -33.33 -0.22 -39.3 -0.002 -0.3 -0.009 -1.7 -0.004 -0.8

Reischachbreen 0.35 0.31 0.25 -0.04 -11.43 -0.06 -19.35 -0.1 -28.6 -0.001 -0.4 -0.003 -1.0 -0.002 -0.6

Signybreen 3.33 2.45 1.94 -0.88 -26.43 -0.51 -20.82 -1.39 -41.7 -0.030 -0.9 -0.026 -1.0 -0.028 -0.9

Silesiabreen 0.24 0.22 0.20 -0.02 -8.33 -0.02 -9.09 -0.04 -16.7 -0.001 -0.3 -0.001 -0.5 -0.001 -0.3

Smaleggbreen 1.94 1.42 1.08 -0.52 -26.80 -0.34 -23.94 -0.86 -44.3 -0.018 -0.9 -0.017 -1.2 -0.018 -0.9

Sokolovbreen 0.96 0.92 0.85 -0.04 -4.17 -0.07 -7.61 -0.11 -11.5 -0.001 -0.1 -0.004 -0.4 -0.002 -0.2

Svalisbreen tributary 1.68 1.37 0.96 -0.31 -18.45 -0.41 -29.93 -0.72 -42.9 -0.011 -0.6 -0.021 -1.5 -0.015 -0.9

Wiederbreen 2.03 1.87 1.73 -0.16 -7.88 -0.14 -7.49 -0.3 -14.8 -0.006 -0.3 -0.007 -0.4 -0.006 -0.3

Total 87.5 80.2 72.9 -7.3 (8.4) -7.3 (9.1) 14.6 (16.7)

barrier had conditioned glacier transgression in the Little Ice Age (LIA), resulting mainly in the lowest part of the glacier

thickening and expanding (Ziaja et al., 2016). Therefore, both just after the end of the LIA and in 1961–90, the Gåsbreen's

recession manifested primarily as a narrowing and thinning of the lowest parts of the glacier. In the years 1961–90, the glacier's

area decreased by 1.65 km², mainly due to the narrowing of the lower parts of the glacier, while the frontal retreat was relatively

small, amounting to about 320 m (11 m/year). Meanwhile, its frontal part was significantly lowered, by up to 83 m at the line of

its 1990 extent. Outside the frontal and lateral parts, the lowering of the glacier surface became gradually less intense upwards,

while thickening was observed in the accumulation zone.

Similar patterns of change in geometry (expressed as thickness increasing in the accumulation zone and decreasing in the

ablation zone, combined with a clear retreat of the terminus) were observed for the Bungebreen glacier. In the period 1961–90,335

Figure 21. Glacier elevation change in north western Sørkapp Land, 1961–1990-2010.

the glacier area decreased by 2.9 km², and the frontal retreat was over 1,300 m (46 m/year). The changes in the extent of the glacier were accompanied by a severe lowering of the surface of lower parts of the snout, of up to 85 m at the line of its 1990 extent. Against this background, however, the area of medial moraine stood out, as it played a protective role and attenuated the surface lowering. Here and there, upper parts of the glacier were built up in this period. Because Bungebreen is a compound valley glacier, supplied by several firn fields, this building-up was not uniform throughout the accumulation zone. An increase in glacier thickness of up to 20 m was recorded primarily in parts with a favourable topographic setting, i.e. where ablation is limited by a northern exposure or by being shaded by the steep slopes of the Gråkallen, Kalksteinstupa and Stupryggen massifs. There was also an approximately 10 m increase in thickness in the ice flowing northwards from the Kvitgubben and Lysentoppen massifs. By contrast, zero or slightly negative values were recorded on the upper southerly-exposed parts of ice-filled passes on Hestskankfallet and Vasil'evskaret, although there was also a small area of increased thickness here (Fig. 16 b).

In the years 1961–90, a very large percentage of area loss, too, was observed in the western and low-lying small-valley Gråkallbreen, Goësbreen and Portbreen glaciers. This process was accompanied by significant thinning, often along the longitudinal profile, and totalling from 20 m in the upper parts to 35–40 m at their termini. The decrease in thickness was very clearly marked in these glaciers, especially in the central and lower parts, which in the case of the Portbreen glacier, for example, led to the ice cover partially disappearing and fragmenting into smaller ice lobes separated by a rock step (Fig. 15 and 16c-d).

Against the backdrop of the glaciers that have undergone significant changes over the analysed decades (seen mainly in a significant loss of ice mass), two glaciers stand out for having undergone relatively little change in geometry. These are the Nordfallbreen and Mehestbreen glaciers. Between 1961 and 1990, the area of Nordfallbreen decreased by only 0.03 km², i.e. 3.6%, which is among the lowest values in the entire region (Table 2). The extent of the glacier went practically unchanged in 1961–90. However, the slight changes in surface area and extent were accompanied by a thinning. This was less than in other glaciers in the region, and ranged from 20–30 m in the ablation zone to 8–13 m in the accumulation zone (Fig. 15 and 16 e). Even smaller changes in geometry were recorded for the Mehestbreen. Over the entire study period, its area decreased by only 0.05 km² (i.e. 1.6%) and the glacier terminus receded by only 120 m in 1961–90 (Table 2).

Analysis of the elevation differences in the glacier's longitudinal profile reveal that the thinning in the years 1961–90 was greatest in the lower parts of the ablation zone, at 10–20 m, while the accumulation zone actually increased in thickness by about 10–15 m (Fig. 15 and 16 f).

In the north of the area, which is dominated by glaciers flowing into the Hornsund Fjord, the disappearance of the ice cover was mainly the result of icebergs calving off. The surface area of the four analysed calving glaciers fell from 16.3 km² in 1961 to 15.5 km² in 1990, constituting a 4.7% decrease (Table ??). The average rate of recession of the calving glaciers in 1961–90 was 0.2% per year. For the region's largest glaciers, which flow directly into the Hornsund fjord (i.e. Körberbreen and Petersbreen), the areal decrease was 0.1% per year, while for the smaller glaciers calving into Samarinvågen Bay it was faster, ranging from 0.3% per year in Kvasseggbreen to 0.5% in Eggbreen (Table ??).

The changes in surface area were accompanied by changes in ice thickness. In their ablation zones, which are subject to greater insolation, thickness decreased and a general frontal retreat was noted. This differed in size and pace for individual glaciers.

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Table 3. Differences in area of tidewater glaciers in north western Sørkapp Land, 1961–1990-2010.

Glacier

Area Area change Area change rate

km²(km²) (\%) (km²/yr) (\%)

1961 1990 2010 1961–1990 1990–2010 1961–2010 1961–1990 1990–2010 1961–2010

Körberbreen 10.79 10.54 9.99 -0.25 -2.32 -0.55 -5.22 -0.80 -7.41 -0.01 -0.08 -0.03 -0.26 -0.01 0.00

Petersbreen 2.31 2.24 2.12 -0.07 -3.03 -0.12 -5.36 -0.19 -8.23 0.00 -0.10 -0.01 -0.27 0.00 0.00

Kvasseggbreen 0.89 0.80 0.77 -0.09 -10.11 -0.03 -3.75 -0.12 -13.48 0.00 -0.35 0.00 -0.19 0.00 -0.01

Eggbreen 2.29 1.94 1.91 -0.35 -15.28 -0.03 -1.55 -0.38 -16.59 -0.01 -0.53 0.00 -0.08 -0.01 -0.01

Samarinbreen 86.25 82.93 78.46 -3.32 -3.85 -4.47 -5.39 -7.79 -9.03 -0.11 -0.13 -0.22 -0.27 -0.13 0.00

Chomjakovbreen 15.33 14.50 13.98 -0.83 -5.41 -0.52 -3.59 -1.35 -8.81 -0.03 -0.19 -0.03 -0.18 -0.02 0.00

Mendeleevbreen 45.15 38.48 34.98 -6.67 -14.77 -3.50 -9.10 -10.17 -22.52 -0.23 -0.51 -0.18 -0.45 -0.17 -0.01

Svalisbreen 46.99 41.41 34.45 -5.58 -11.87 -6.96 -16.81 -12.54 -26.69 -0.19 -0.41 -0.35 -0.84 -0.21 -0.01

Total 210.00 192.84 176.66 -17.16 -8.17 -16.18 -8.39 -33.34 -15.88 -0.59 -0.28 -0.81 -0.42 -0.57 -0.01

glaciers (Fig. 15. Table ??). In the case of the Körberbreen and Petersbreen glaciers, the maximum lowering of the frontal

parts (between the 1984 and 1990 extents) did not exceed 65 m. Further eastwards, however, in the former tributaries of the

Samarinbreen, this lowering was much greater, reaching 70 m for the Kvasseggbreen snout, and up to as much as 100 m in parts

of the Eggbreen. In the higher parts of the studied glaciers, there was a clear building up of firn fields in this period (Fig. 15).

5 Discussion375

The use of archival cartographic data is one of the key ways to quantify mainly climate-change-related changes in the

cryosphere (Surazakov et al., 2006; Weber et al., 2020). On a global scale, such data on the topography of glaciers from

the 1960s are relatively scarce – they are mainly based on a few photogrammetric surveys and resultant topographic maps

(Tielidze, 2016; Andreassen et al., 2020) and reanalysis of declassified spy satellite images (Bhambri et al., 2011). In the Spits-

bergen region, 1930s surveys are a key reference point for the observed changes in area and volume (Nuth et al., 2007). Modern380

methods now allow for better and more precise use of these photos and the creation of more accurate elevation models (Mertes

et al., 2017; Midgley and Tonkin, 2017).

The accuracy of simulations prognosing changes in glacier volumes based on dynamics models depends largely on that

those models have been initialised correctly (Oerlemans, 1997; Collao-Barrios et al., 2018). Glaciers differ in response time to

changes in mass balance, and this requires that data on the geometry of glaciers should go back as far as possible – preferably to385

a state of equilibrium with climatic conditions (Zekollari and Huybrechts, 2015). If this is not possible, these models can prop-

erly be calibrated and verified using later data; nevertheless, the further back the data goes the better, and the more accurately

future changes can be predicted. Thus, any glacier topography data from the 1960s is extremely valuable (Andreassen et al.,

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2020). There is little data available for the Svalbard region in this period, highlighting the importance of the results presented

here.390

The disappearance of ice in western Sørkapp Land in 1961–90 was the result of various processes. It was caused by both

surface melting of ice and the breaking-off of icebergs during calving. Both processes had a significant impact on the overall

mass loss from the glaciers on Sørkapp Land. It is estimated that they are responsible for 79% and 21%, respectively, of overall

mass loss from glaciers across Svalbard (Błaszczuk et al., 2009).

Important factors influencing ablation of glaciers flowing into Hornsund Fjord in the western part of the Sørkapp Land395

peninsula are the northern and eastern exposures of their accumulation zones and the significant shading of their surfaces by

high mountain ranges. For this reason, the winter snow cover here lasts longer and is thicker, and the ablation is weaker relative

to neighbouring glaciers with western exposures (Jania, 1987). The greater accumulation and some reduction in glacier ablation

also result from their accumulation zones reaching over 700 m a.s.l. and being surrounded by the steep slopes of massifs that

supply them with additional snow (Jania, 1987).400

The interplay of all these factors can be seen to have clearly increased the thickness of firn and ice in the highest and middle

parts of the glaciers flowing into the Hornsund fjord over the years 1961–90 (Fig. 15). At the same time, the changes in position

of the thickened parts of the Körberbreen and Petersbreen glaciers are noteworthy, as shown by studies of changes in the range

and speed of Körberbreen in shorter time intervals (Pillewizer, 1939; Jania, 1987; Ziaja and Dudek, 2011; Błaszczuk et al.,

2013). This suggests, in line with the supposition of Jania (1987), regular short-term displacement of the kinematic waves of 405

ice that are characteristic of surging (especially in relation to the Körberbreen glacier). The research period adopted here (on

the order of several decades) is too long to properly detect and illustrate this phenomenon, but other studies for this area provide

evidence supporting the thesis.

On land, glacial systems evolved at variable paces, which can be associated with variable topoclimatic and local conditions

in western Sørkapp Land. Recession was fastest in the region's western- and southernmost glaciers, where air masses from the 410

Greenland Sea and the warm West Spitsbergen current are in effect (Ziaja et al., 2016). Aside from clear frontal retreat, there

was also a significant decrease in thickness in their longitudinal profiles (Fig. 16). In the small, westward, low-lying valley

glaciers this was especially pronounced, especially in the middle and lower parts of the snouts, where smaller patches of dead

ice emerged in places.

Although glacial recession was the predominant phenomenon in the land-based glaciers on western Sørkapp Land, the 415

warming effect was in some places mitigated by the terrain and the significant elevation of the mountain massifs from which

some of the glaciers originate. Being favourably located either at a significant elevation or in the shadow of high mountains

stabilised the situation somewhat for some glaciers here, because their maintenance or local increase of mass was favoured by

both an orographic increase in snowfall and additional supply from avalanches. This applies, for example, to Nordfallbreen,

which is shaded from the south, and small glaciers originating on the slopes of the Hornsundtind and Kvassegga groups of 420

mountains.

Nordafallbreen is adjacent to Nordfallet (824 m a.s.l.) to the south, which shades it against the sun while also providing it

additional supply by avalanches. Mehestbreen is similarly fed, being bordered to the east by the Mehesten (1,383 m a.s.l.) and

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Hestskanka (997 m a.s.l.) massifs, and by Hoven hill (869 m a.s.l.) to the north. Their influence is seen in the spatial distribution

of positive values on the maps of glacier altitude changes, more of which lie closer to the glacier's eastern edge. An additional 425

factor limiting ablation on the Mehestbreen is its significant elevation, which puts a large part of the glacier's surface above the

mass balance equilibrium line.

There are few studies that the results of this study of the peninsula's surface glaciation recession can be compared against.

In the older literature, such analyses were carried out for individual glaciers (Jania, 1987; Schöner and Schöner, 1997) or at

the regional scale at best (?). However, the observed trends in changes in Sørkapp Land glacier elevations in 1961–90 are 430

comparable to other areas of Spitsbergen, although the number of studies of similar temporal coverage is limited (Nuth et al.,

2010; Małecki, 2013; Błaszczyk et al., 2013).

6 Conclusions

Correctly assessing the utility of the series of maps issued by the Institute of Geophysics of the Polish Academy of Sciences is

very important in order to precisely determine changes in glacier geometries in western Sørkapp Land. Although the IGF PAN435

field campaign was conducted in the early 1980s, the maps published after the expedition were based on elevation data taken

from aerial photos from 1961, upon which only glacier extents were updated (with a change in colour of contours). Crucially,

contour lines were not updated in this 1984 edition, and continued to represent the greater elevations of 1961.

In response to this, the map coordinates on the 1961 map have now been corrected, so that it can be used for comparative

analyses of changes in glacier surface elevations over the years 1961–90. This is especially true of the glaciers that are entirely

land-based, for which data relating to their entire surface area is now corrected and complete.

However, the value of data on tidewater glaciers for various types of comparisons is limited to their upper parts (above

the line of their 1984 extents). This is because updating their extents in 1984 required that contour lines between the extents

designated for 1961 and 1984 be deleted and that the elevation of this surface be zeroed on the map, i.e. brought to sea

level. Therefore, when analysing the IGF PAN sheets, it is impossible to determine the exact height of the ice cliffs of the

Körberbreen, Petersbreen, Kvaseggbreen and Eggbreen tidewater glaciers in 1961.

Accordingly, this study finds that, in the years 1961–90, the maximum lowering of surface was about 80–85 m in the largest

land-terminating glaciers on the peninsula, and over 90 m in tidewater glaciers (above the line marking their 1984 extents).

Glaciated areas aside, the surface-corrected IGF PAN maps can also be used to analyse landscape dynamics, including

changes going on in marginal zones.

7 Data availability

All data is available at Zenodo service (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4573130>) (Dudek and P. etlicki, 2021). Data format:

ESRI shapefile and GeoTIFF. The datasets contain vector layers (topographic and glacier outlines) and Digital Elevation

Model (DEM) covering north western part of Sørkapp Land peninsula, Svalbard, for the year 1961. The first shape file

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glacier_1961_northwestern_Sorkapland.shp contains the glacier areas manually delineated from vertical aerial photos cap-455

tured during the historical photogrammetric overflight commissioned by the Norwegian Polar Institute on August 24 and 25,

1961. The shape file contour_1961_10m_northwestern_Sorkapland.shp contains contour lines with intervals of 10 m based

on digitized historical maps edited in 1987 by Institute of Geophysics of Polish Academy of Sciences and registered using

cartographic grid and elevation points. Shape file peak_1961_northwestern_Sorkapland.shp contains elevation points – topo-

graphic and triangulation – used in the process of vector data registration. Shape file rock_1961_northwestern_Sorkapland.shp460

delineates areas very steep presented on the source maps as a rock cliff symbols. This file also indicates areas where highest el-

evation errors in the generated Digital Elevation Model are plausible. All shape files were produced in the UTM projection sys-

tem (northern hemisphere, zone 33) based on ETRS89 ellipsoid (datum D ETRS 1989). The raster file dem_1961_20m_northwestern_Sorkapland.tif

contains Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with 5 m resolution generated from corrected contour lines.

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Mefonna Ice Plateau, where it connects with the Olsokbreen glacial system that flows into the Greenland Sea. To the east, it is adjacent to the glaciers feeding the Vasil'evbreen glacier basin, and to the west to the wide accumulation zone of the Bungebreen glacier. Samarinbreen constitutes a compound glacier basin fed by numerous tributary glaciers: Westjøkulen and Stuptindbren, flowing westward from the slopes of Westernebba, Hjelmen, and Stuptinden; as well as flowing eastwards tributaries: Jekselbreen, Søre Kneikbreen, Nordre Kneikbreen, Jakobstigen situated in depressions between the Toverudfjellet, and Horsundtind massifs.

Further east of Samarinbreen are the Mendeleevbreen and Svalisbreen that flow into Brepollen Bay. Both glaciers have a broad connection to the adjacent basin of Vasil'evbreen. Mendeleevbreen flows from the Austjøkulen ice plateau, and it receives additional supply from the Fredfonna ice plateau and the Grobreen. The neighboring Svalisbreen occupies depression with an atypical, sinusoidal course. The main accumulation zone of the glacier is situated on the Svanhildpasset.

In the depression between the Páskefjella and Smalegga massifs, there is the fourth largest glacier in the region - Chomjakovbreen, which fills a separate valley and does not connect with other glaciers. It calves with a not very wide cliff to the small Svoelbukta bay. It is fed by small but very numerous tributary glaciers located in cirques on the slopes of the surrounding mountain massifs. The longest tributary that feeds it is Dmitrievbreen.

In addition to the vast compound glacier basins, a number of smaller valley glaciers also flow into the Hornsund Fjord. These include the Körberbreen glaciers with the Čebyševbreen tributary, as well as the Petersbreen, Kvasseggbreen and Eggbreen glaciers, which are to the west of the Samarinbreen Glacier, where they fill deep valleys. ~~These glaciers have a northern exposure and their snouts move northwards.~~

They are distinguished from other ~~outflowoutlet~~ glaciers by their significant vertical range and associated steeper surface, which is due to the fact that their basin boundaries run along the highest mountain ranges of southern Spitsbergen: Čebyševfjellet (914~m~a.s.l.), Wesletinden (928~m~a.s.l.), Hornsundtind (1,429~m~a.s.l.) and Kvassegga (1,004~m~a.s.l.) \citep{Jania1987}. Körberbreen and Petersbreen lie in separate longitudinal mountain valleys whose depth and direction are determined by the geological structure of the substrate, which relates to the course of faults. The two small glaciers Kvasseggbreen and Eggbreen, which run adjacent to them to the east, run latitudinally and flow into Samarinvågen Bay. They formerly served as the tributary glaciers to Samarinbreen, but as its snout has receded they ~~have~~ split from it and today constitute separate calving glaciers.

\section{Source Material}

The basis for the spatial analyzes consisted primarily of data presenting topographic surface (topographic maps and DEMs), supplemented with imagery (aerial photos and satellite images). A specification of these datasets is provided below.

`\subsection{1961-Data-Maps}`

~~The~~ `\subsubsection{IGF PAN topographic map series}`

The IGF PAN topographic map series, made in a Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) projection (northern hemisphere, zone 33) based on a European Datum 1950 (ED50) ellipsoid, consisted of ten sheets. This study assessed ~~three~~seven of those sheets that represented glaciers with adjacent marginal zones in the territory of western Sørkapp Land. ~~These were the following sheets: - peninsula (No. 3 - Hornbreen, No. 5 – Hornsund, No. 6 - Brepollen, No. 8 – Gåsbreen, no. 9 - Samarinbreen, and No. 10 – Bungbreen~~ Fig. ~~2~~ Fig. ~~2~~ Fig. ~~3~~ Fig. ~~3~~).

`\begin{figure}[t]`

`\begin{figure}[t]`

`\includegraphics[width=7.8cm]{Fig02.jpg12.3cm}{Fig03.png}`

`\caption{Three sheets of theIGF PAN topographic map series published in 1987, showing the glaciers of western Sørkapp Land \citep{Barna1987}-}. Example visualisations of the extents of tidewater glaciers on IGF PAN maps published in 1987: (a) Kvasseggbreen (Sheet 5 – Hornsund); (b) Eggbreen (Sheet 8 – Gåsbreen). }`

`\label{Fig3}`

`\end{figure}`

`\label{Fig2}`

`\end{figure}`

The topographic map sheets ~~used~~ presented the ~~general image of the area's surface~~: relief; permanent and periodic watercourses; water bodies; wetlands; glaciers; triangulation and topographic points; vegetation types (tundra); marine coasts (skerries); and names of geographical features. (Fig. ~~2~~ Fig. ~~3~~). The relief is presented using contour lines with contour intervals of 5~m for the relatively flat coastal plains and 10 m for steeper areas. Areas too steep to be mapped using contour lines in the assumed scale were presented as rock cliff symbols. The extents of land-terminating glaciers are marked as a change in contour line colour from orange (land) to blue, (glacier), but lines were not drawn to mark the maximum extent of glacial snouts. Two extents are marked for tidewater glaciers (the Petersbreen, Kvasseggbreen ~~and~~ Eggbreen ~~tidewater glaciers~~, Smarinbreen, Chomjakovbreen, Mendeleevbreen, and Svalisbreen). The first – a dotted line on the

surface of the Hornsund Fjord – showed the position of their termini in 1961. The second extent, represented as ice cliffs, was the 1984 update of their boundaries (Fig.~\ref{Fig3}); [a and b](#).

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig03.png}
\caption{Example visualisations of the extents of tidewater glaciers on IGF PAN maps published in 1987: (a) Kvasseggbreen (Sheet 5 – Hornsund); (b) Eggbreen (Sheet 8 – Gåsreen).}
\label{Fig3}
\end{figure}
```

When converting individual sheets to digital form to elaborate results (especially on changes in glacier thickness) it was important to take into account the maps' specificity that resulted from the somewhat non-standard means by which they were created. Initial photogrammetric sketches of individual sheets were made [in desk research](#) using the 1961 Norwegian aerial photos from before the expeditions to Spitsbergen of the early 1980s (including the expedition to Sørkapp Land in the summer of 1984 – verbal communication: W. Ziája). The cartographic material thus prepared constituted a base that, according to the information provided in the map description, was “partially checked and supplemented in the field”.

Information on the [extent degree](#) to which the documentation of the extent and elevation of [western Sørkapp Land glaciers](#) was “completed in the field” was key in assessing this series' potential for use in analysing the changes in glacier thicknesses in the period 1961–~~99~~[1990-2010](#). In the context of this analysis, the most important question was whether the contour lines marking the elevation of the glaciers represent the year 1961 (which would result from the use of aerial photographs from that period) or 1984 (which would result from the contour lines having been updated using field measurements made more than two decades after the photogrammetric overflight). The question was answered by comparative analyses of the series of IGF PAN maps and other cartographic studies of the area presenting the state of glaciers in the early 1960s.

One such study was a report from an expedition by Austrian scientists Monika and Wolfgang Schöner, who in 1991 made accurate [ground-based groundbased](#) photogrammetric measurements on the forefield of the Gåsreen glacier. These studies [were based on photos from NPI's photogrammetric overflight over the west of Sørkapp Land in the summer of 1960 \(Table~\ref{Tab1}\)](#) and resulted in a publication that included a map showing the hypsometric variation of the Gåsreen and [a hillshade view](#) that was valid for 1960 ([based on photos from the Norwegian Polar Institute's photogrammetric overflight over the west of Sørkapp Land in the summer of 1960 – Table~\ref{Tab1}](#)) \citep{Schoner1996}. [Another](#) helpful publication for comparisons of the elevations of Körberbreen and Petersbreen was an article by \citep{Jania1987} that included

hypsothetic profiles of both these glaciers valid for 1960. Another important cartographic study was a 1:10,000 map of the forefield and lower part of the Bungebreen glacier snout by Warsaw geologists based on aerial photographs from 1961 \citep{Ostaficzuk1982, Dzierzek1991}.

The comparison of the 1987 series of maps against all the aforementioned studies led to the unequivocal conclusion that the contours contained therein represent the year 1961 (and thus were not corrected based on field research), while their updating (by “in-field supplementation”) to reflect the 1984 state of affairs related only to glacier extents, as reflected in the change in contour colours.

Therefore, \subsubsection{NPI map}

The topographic map of Sørkapp Land at the changes scale of 1:100,000 based on infrared aerial images from 1990 was developed by NPI and released in analogue form in 2007. The map presented the extent general image of the area: relief, permanent watercourses, lakes, glaciers in, and elevation points. Since the years 1961–90 presented coverage of the peninsula by image data in the year 1990 was incomplete (Fig.~\ref{Fig1}), therefore in this article first dataset, the gap in the north-eastern part of the peninsula was filled by the data from 1961 (Fig.~\ref{Fig4}). In 2014, NPI launched a geo-portal (data.npolar.no) enabling spatial data viewing, downloading, and processing. The first online map of the Sørkapp Land peninsula (C13) was available in shapefile format. In the study, the vector layers presenting glaciers and elevation points were used.

\begin{figure}[t]

\includegraphics[width=12.3cm]{Fig04.png}

\caption{Topographic map of the southern Spitsbergen published in 2007 and released online by \cite{NPI2014}.}

\label{Fig4}

\end{figure}

analysed using the original \subsection{Imagery}

The image data, comprised mainly of aerial photos from the Norwegian Polar Institute, which captured during the photogrammetric overflights commissioned by the NPI, were used for delineation of glaciers' extents as well as visual inspection of the reference DEMs. Their specification is provided below (Fig.~\ref{Fig5}).

subjected to photointerpretation. They comprised five The data for 1961 included fourteen scans of vertical aerial photos from the historical photogrammetric overflight campaign over the Sørkapp Land area on August 24 and 25, 1961, (Fig.~\ref{Fig5)a). Black-and-white pictures at a scale of 1:50,000, subjected to photointerpretation, were made captured from a ceiling of about 8,000 m using a Wild RC camera with a focal length of 153.45 mm \citep{Jania1987}.

A basis for the delineation of glaciers' boundaries in 1990 by the NPI consisted of infrared aerial photos at a scale of 1: 50000 registered by the RC-10 camera with a focal length of 152 mm. Two stripes for the north-eastern part of the peninsula were missing in the set (Fig.~\ref{Fig1}), thus in this study the outlines of 4 glaciers (Svalisbreen, Sigybreen, Grobreen, and Mikaelbreen) were delineated based on the image acquired on August 20, 1990, by the Landsat 5 Thematic Mapper (TM) sensor (Fig.~\ref{Fig5}b).

The last photogrammetric campaign carried out by the NPI in 2010, covered the entire peninsula (Fig.~\ref{Fig1}). Photos with a resolution of 0.4 m were captured on August 17 from a ceiling of about 7350 m a.s.l. by the multispectral digital camera UltraCam Xp with a focal length of 100.5 mm. For glaciers' delineation in 2010 in this study, we used orthoimage released in 2020 by the NPI (Fig.~\ref{Fig5}c).

\begin{figure}[t]

\includegraphics[width=16.6cm]{Fig05.png}

\caption{Image data covering Sorkapp Land used in this study: (a) aerial photographs from 1961 taken on August 24 and 25,1961; (b) Landsat TM5 image captured on August 20,1990; (c) orthophoto created by the \cite{NPI2014} from digital photos captured on August 26, 2010.}

\label{Fig5}

\end{figure}

\subsection{1990 Data DEMs}

The reference A baseline elevation dataset used for the analysis of map accuracy and changes in glacier extents and thicknesses was 1990 data from the Norwegian Polar Institute. This study used a vector layer with glacier outlines (\emph{S100\sbree_f.shp}) and a 20 m resolution consisted of Digital Elevation Model Models (DEM) based on infrared aerial elaborated by the \cite{NPI2014}. This study employed 5-m-resolution DEM generated from digital images captured in 2010 and two DEMs with 20-m-resolution based on archival aerial photographs acquired by the NPI in 1990 and 1961 (Fig.~\ref{Fig6}). DEMs were generated using photogrammetric methods based on stereopairs correlation. The elevation vertical accuracy of the model is DEMs given by the NPI was 2–5 meters in non-glaciated glacial areas and slightly less for glacier surfaces \citep{NPI2014}. The model representing the year 2010, defined by the author as the most accurate, was chosen as a reference dataset throughout the study, and older models were resampled to 5-m resolution that enabled further compilation with other spatial data.

\begin{figure}[t]

\includegraphics[width=16.6cm]{Fig06.png}

\caption{DEMs covering Sørkapp Land generated from aerial photographs by the \cite{NPI2014}}

`\label{Fig6}`

`\end{figure}`

`\section{Methods of source}`

`%\begin{figure}[t]`

`%\includegraphics[width=16.6cm]{Fig07.png}`

`%\caption{Work flow}`

`%\label{Fig7}`

`%\end{figure}`

`%\subsection{Evaluation of NPI data accuracy}`

Since the model representing the year 2010 was defined by the author as the most accurate it was chosen as a reference dataset throughout the study. The model from 1990 was validated for horizontal shift against the reference dataset using procedure developed by \cite{Nuth2011} that proposed analytical solution of a 3-dimensional shift vector between two DEMs, by relating the elevation differences to the elevation derivatives of slope and aspect. The correction process was done iteratively until the magnitude of the shift vector approached zero. This method was applied for a terrain considered as stable, that did not experienced changes in geometry over time, and when the values of the shift vector were solved, a correction was applied to whole DEM. Before correction of the DEM from 2010 versus the DEM from 1990 the magnitude of the shift was about ... m in ... direction. Applying shift function permitted to diminish this value to ... m (after third iteration) as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 9. The mean elevation bias between compared data (z shift component) before correction was less than ... m. Correction for this component were done after running each of iteration.

`\subsection{Source data processing and evaluation of output data accuracy}`

The maps on which the glacier elevation analysis was based in 1961 in the westnorthwest of Sørkapp Land were processed in several stages-steps using both ESRI ArcGIS and Matlab software (Fig.~\ref{Fig7}). The analogue maps were first scanned and converted to `\emph{TIF}` format, then defined in the UTM projection, based on a European Datum 1950 (ED50) ellipsoid, in which the background maps had been developed. Subsequently, the coordinate system was converted and the UTM projection was adopted into the ETRS~89 reference system. This allowed for cartographic compilation and integration with other data used for the spatial analyses.

```
\begin{figure}[t]
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```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig07.png}
```

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-In this form, they\caption{Work flow for processing IGF PAN map sheets.}
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\label{Fig7}
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\end{figure}
```

Georeferenced maps were used to generate contour lines and vector layers showing the hydrographic network (rivers and lakes) as well as peaks and other elevation points. For this purpose, R2V software (Raster to Vector) was used, using the semi-raster cleanup and automatic vectorisation function ~~\citep{Teng2008}~~-vectorization functions available in the Arc Scan extension were used. This tool proved very useful for converting a raster ~~mapmaps~~ to vector format, as it allowed for significantly quicker ~~digitisation~~ digitization of contour lines (for western Sørkapp Land, with its very diversified relief, they were very densely packed – every 5 or 10~m – in the altitude range from 0 up to 1,430~m~a.s.l.), while maintaining. In the next step, control over the quality of the final result was carried out, and generated features were manually edited and merged.

The older version of R2V used for this study did not allow data to be saved in ~~\emph{shapefile}~~ format, nor georeferencing, so vector layers were first saved in ~~\emph{dxf}~~ format and then converted to ~~\emph{shapefile}~~ in ESRI ArcGIS 10.0. The resultant GIS layers needed to be assigned a coordinate system. Because it had not been possible to do this earlier on the base raster map (and thus for vector layers based on it), the cartographic grid lines were additionally digitised in places where meridians and parallels intersected (nodes) while the contour lines were being vectorised in R2V. This meant that, after conversion to ~~\emph{shapefile}~~ format, the intersections of the digitised lines could be used as the reference points needed in the georeferencing process. Thematic layers were first defined in the UTM projection (northern hemisphere, zone 33), based on a European Datum 1950 (ED50) ellipsoid, in which the background maps had been developed. Then, the coordinate system was converted and the UTM projection (northern hemisphere, zone 33) was adopted into the WGS~84 reference system. This allowed for cartographic compilation and integration with other data used for the spatial analyses later in this work.

Georeferenced GIS layers – contours, peaks, and topographic points – were supplemented with information about the elevation in the attribute table, and then, together with ~~the~~ river and lake layers, were used to generate a relief model that was saved as a Triangulated Irregular Network (TIN). In the next step, this model was transformed into a regular GRID (~~using the TIN to raster tool~~) at a spatial resolution of 205~m.

```
\subsection{Verification of source data accuracy}
```

The final step was to verify the relative accuracy of the obtained model ~~with the working name~~ ~~\emph{DEM IGF 1961}~~. This was done by checking the extent to which it fitted existing reliable altitude data for areas not subject to large natural changes over time (in practice, this was the majority of non-glaciated areas). The most reliable source of data for comparisons was the ~~1990~~2010

DEM generated by NPI using photogrammetric methods based on aerial photos and field-measured control points: [\citep{NPI2014}](#). The easiest way to verify the differences between the two models was to subtract one from the other ([using the `\emph{Spatial Analyst tools/Math/Minus module}`](#)), [\citep{Nuth2011}](#). The obtained DEM of Difference (DoD) is shown in [Fig.~\ref{Fig4Fig8}](#).

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\begin{figure}[t]
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```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig0416.6cm}{Fig08.png}
```

```
\caption{Elevation differences between the 1961 DEM generated from IGF PAN maps issued in 1987 (map rectification based on the nodes of the cartographic grid) and the 19902010 DEM generated by \cite{NPI2014}.}
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```
\label{Fig8}
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\end{figure}
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```
\label{Fig4}
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\end{figure}
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The result of the comparison was not satisfactory. [There](#)[In the western part of the DoD there](#) were large negative values on slopes with an eastern exposure, alongside large positive values on western slopes, indicating that the two models were offset horizontally in relation to each other [\citep{Nuth2011}](#).

In view of this result, it was attempted to estimate the position errors of the IGF PAN vector layers and then to correct them. The analysis was performed for each of the [three](#) sheets separately. [Work began with the correction of sheet 8 – Gåsbeen, which covers the largest area of the peninsula \(Fig.~\ref{Fig5}\)](#).

In the first stage, the [location](#)[locations](#) of the elevation points [was](#)[were](#) assessed. The [Gåsbeen map sheet contained as many as 195](#), while the map of the same area released by NPI in 2007 showed about 50 elevation points. The [two](#)[six](#) maps shared 50189 points, representing the same places, of which 4627 were triangulation points ([Fig.~\ref{Fig9}](#) - [Fig ~\ref{Fig5Fig15}](#)). The remaining elevation points were mostly peaks, but a few indicated geographical features in the field. For the purposes of this study, both types of points were assigned to a common category of objects called “topographic points”. In addition [7](#)[several](#) topographic points (including one point showing the position of building Camp Erna) were added in order to match both datasets. The differences in their position in relation to each other are presented in [Tables~\ref{Tab2}](#) and [\ref{Tab2a}](#): [Supplement Table](#).

From the IGF PAN map series two sheets (No. 8 - Gåsbreen and No. 9 - Samarinbreen) covered the interior of the study area, adjacent further two (No. 6 - Brepollen, 10 - Bungebreen) showed less land, and remaining two (No. 3 - Hornbreen, No. 5 - Hornsund) were on the peripheries of the study area. Below is the description of each used map sheet in ascending order.

The map sheet No. 3 - Hornbreen, covering the northernmost part of the study area adjacent to the glaciated isthmus, was overlapping with the data for 2010 only to a small extent, Fig.~\ref{Fig9} shows southern part of the map that was useful in this study and the 3 points on which the sheet registration was based.

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig05Fig09.png}
\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet 8 – Gåsbreen3 – Hornbreen.}
\label{Fig9}
\end{figure}
```

Similarly for the next IGF PAN map sheet (No. 5 – Hornsund), showing the north-western peripheries of the study area, only the southern part was used. The map sheet contained 21 elevation points which constituted basis for registration. Fig.~\ref{Fig10} shows their position and distribution.

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig10.png}
\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet 5 – Hornsund.}
\label{Fig10}
\end{figure}
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\label{Fig5}
\end{figure}
```

The map sheet No. 6 - Brepollen showed areas further east with Brepollen bay and the fronts of three large tidewater glaciers. On this sheet 26 points were used to match NPI dataset. Due to the difficult accessibility of this area only one of them constituted triangulation point Fig.~\ref{Fig11}.

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig11.png}
\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet No. 6 – Brepollen.}
```

`\label{Fig11}`

`\end{figure}`

The No. 8 - Gåsbreen map sheet, which covers the largest area of the peninsula, contained 195 elevation points, while the map of the same area released by NPI in 2007 showed about 50 elevation points.

`\begin{figure}[t]`

`\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig12.png}`

`\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet 8 – Gåsbreen.}`

`\label{Fig12}`

`\end{figure}`

Comparing the location of individual points, it can be concluded that the 1961 Gåsbreen map sheet was shifted south-eastwards relative to the ~~1990~~2010 NPI ~~map data~~. The peaks of the mountain massifs around Hornsundtind were reproduced the most accurately. Moving westwards from Hornsundtind, the distance between the topographic points on both maps increased, which led to the assumption that this was not a simple shift between maps, but rather that the problem is a distortion resulting from, among other things, coordinates on the mapping grid being marked incorrectly. The possibility of this problem was already indicated in the description of the IGF PAN map sheets, which explained that the UTM geographic coordinates obtained from NPI that it used differ from the geographic coordinates obtained from astronomical measurements `\cite{Barna1987}`.

The next map sheet 09 - Samarinbreen showed the adjacent areas to the east – a large tidewater glacier Samarinbreen and accumulation zones of Mendelejevnbreen and Svalisbreen. The glaciers were separated by very steep mountain ranges with numerous peaks. The map sheet included... elevation points which could be used for registration distributed relatively evenly. All of the points on the map sheet were in the category of topographic points (Fig.~\ref{Fig13}).

`\begin{figure}[t]`

`\begin{table*}[t]`

`\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig13.png}`

`\caption{Coordinates of triangulation points used to register sheet 8 – Gåsbreen.}`

`\label{Tab2}`

`%\footnotesize`

—%{\scriptsizeTriangulation and

~~\begin{tabular}{lcccccccc}~~

\tophline

\multirow{2}{2em}{Name} & \multirow{2}{2em}{Type} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{08 Gåsbeen. IGF PAN
(m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{013 Sørkapp. NPI (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{Difference (m)} \\ \

& x & y & z & x & y & z & \$\Delta x\$ & \$\Delta y\$ & \$\Delta z\$ \\ \

\middleline

Søre Kneikbreen N& triangulation& 531398.1& 8532055.9& 654.4& 531373.2& 8532064.3& 654.0&—
24.9& 8.5& -0.4\\ \

Søre Kneikbreen S& triangulation& 531254.1& 8531766.0& 631.0& 531227.9& 8531773.9& 629.0&—
26.1& 7.9& -2.0\\ \

Ždanovfjellet W& triangulation& 530296.6& 8530442.0& 839.7& 530253.2& 8530447.4& 840.0&—
43.4& 5.4& -0.3\\ \

Ždanovfjellet E& triangulation& 531276.9& 8530342.5& 764.0& 531243.2& 8530364.0& 764.0&—
33.7& -21.6& 0.0\\ \

Hornsundtind& triangulation& 528847.1& 8538095.6& 1431.0& 528824.5& 8538106.1& 1431&—
22.7& -10.5& 0.0\\ \

Hestskanka S& triangulation& 528643.8& 8532864.8& 860.0& 528613.8& 8532859.5& 860&—30.0&—
5.4& 0.0\\ \

Flakfjellet E& triangulation& 527083.7& 8535012.2& 712.6& 527056.9& 8535036.2& 713&—26.8&—
24.0& 0.4\\ \

Čebyševfjellet& triangulation& 524286.1& 8539523.6& 907.4& 524218.6& 8539559.9& 907.0&—
67.6& 36.3& -0.4\\ \

Robitzhfjellet& triangulation& 524416.4& 8534203.5& 630.6& 524358.6& 8534230.5& 633.0&—
57.8& 27.0& 2.4\\ \

Gråkallen N& triangulation& 523973.6& 8531281.6& 716.3& 523919.1& 8531286.8& 716.0&—54.5&—
5.1& -0.3\\ \

Brevassfjellet& triangulation& 523371.8& 8533622.1& 585.0& 523324.3& 8533646.8& 585.0&—
47.5& 24.7& 0.0\\ \

Gavrilovfjellet& triangulation& 521461.3& 8531534.1& 598.2& 521400.3& 8531553.1& 598.0&—
61.0& 19.0& -0.2\\ \

Kovalevskajafjellet S& triangulation& 521274.3& 8533620.7& 640.0& 521218.5& 8533645.4& 640&—
55.8& 24.7& 0.0\\ \

Savičtoppen E& triangulation& 520798.4& 8535577.5& 493.7& 520750.8& 8535599.9& 494.0&—
47.5& 22.3& -0.3\\ \

Wurmbrandegga 1& triangulation& 519763.8& 8539690.1& 391.8& 519704.0& 8539683.0& 392.0&—
59.9& 7.1& 0.2\\ \

```
Lidfjellet& triangulation& 519317.0& 8531618.0& 531.0& 519254.9& 8531628.5& 531.0& -62.1& 10.5& 0.0\\
```

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\end{tabular}
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\end{table*}
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```
\begin{table*}[t]
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```
\caption{Coordinates of topographic points used to register on sheet 8 – Gåsbeen9 – Samarinbreen.}
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\label{Fig13}
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\end{figure}
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\label{Tab2a}
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%\footnotesize
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\topline
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\multirow{2}{2em}{Name} & \multirow{2}{2em}{Type} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{08 Gåsbeen. IGF PAN  
(m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{013 Sørkapp. NPI (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{Difference (m)} \\
```

```
& x & y & z & x & y & z &  $\Delta x$  &  $\Delta y$  &  $\Delta z$  \\
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\middleline
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```
vestre Ždanovfjellet& topographic& 529536.2& 8530335.8& 559& 529502.6& 8530351.0& 561& -33.6& 15.2& 2.0\\
```

```
Hestskanka N& topographic& 528559.2& 8533404.8& 993.0& 528531.3& 8533405.8& 997.0& -27.9& 1.0& 4.0\\
```

```
Flakfjellet W& topographic& 526238.7& 8535325.9& 613.0& 526196.9& 8535344.5& 613.0& -41.8& 18.6& 0.0\\
```

```
Gråkallen S& topographic& 524136.1& 8530680.5& 650.0& 524081.5& 8530681.6& 650.0& -54.7& 1.1& 0.0\\
```

```
Kovalevskajafjellet N& topographic& 521051.0& 8534156.0& 624.5& 520995.0& 8534182.0& 623.0& -56.0& 25.9& 1.5\\
```

```
Savičtoppen& topographic& 519411.7& 8535934.0& 468.0& 519359.9& 8535955.4& 464.0& -51.8& 21.5& -4.0\\
```

~~Wurmbrandegga 2& topographic& 519776.1& 8539580.8& 415.0& 519704.8& 8539612.5& 414.0& 71.3& 31.8& 1.0\|~~

~~Wurmbrandegga 3& topographic& 519991.1& 8538834.2& 378.0& 519926.4& 8538885.8& 378.0& 64.7& 51.6& 0.0\|~~

~~Wurmbrandegga 4& topographic& 520107.6& 8537967.5& 364.0& 520046.5& 8537994.3& 361.0& 61.2& 26.8& 3.0\|~~

~~Wurmbrandegga 5& topographic& 520212.6& 8537356.7& 410.5& 520158.7& 8537372.1& 407.0& 54.0& 15.3& 3.5\|~~

~~Wurmbrandegga 6& topographic& 520428.9& 8536571.1& 417.0& 520364.1& 8536607.9& 421.0& 64.8& 36.8& 4.0\|~~

~~Liddalen N& topographic& 520034.4& 8531447.3& 247.0& 519968.6& 8531468.1& 247.0& 65.8& 20.8& 0.0\|~~

~~Liddalen S& topographic& 520435.1& 8530489.9& 162.0& 520368.8& 8530518.6& 162.0& 66.3& 28.7& 0.0\|~~

~~Kneikfjellet& topographic& 531735.2& 8533224.8& 708.0& 531714.2& 8533227.2& 708.0& 21.0& 2.4& 0.0\|~~

~~Austryggen W& topographic& 529549.3& 8536519.7& 1028.0& 529514.3& 8536529.2& 1021.0& 35.0& 9.5& 7.0\|~~

~~Austryggen E& topographic& 530060.6& 8536331.3& 955.0& 530031.2& 8536345.9& 957.0& 29.4& 14.6& 2.0\|~~

~~Søraksla& topographic& 529422.0& 8534916.9& 1025.0& 529400.6& 8534926.4& 1028.0& 21.4& 9.5& 3.0\|~~

~~Camp Erna& topographic& 516150.2& 8530052.9& 10.0& 516062.4& 8530068.8& 10.0& 87.8& 15.9& 0.0\|~~

~~Lisbetdalen& topographic& 517023.1& 8536608.8& 129.5& 516977.0& 8536631.1& 131.0& 46.1& 22.3& 0.0\|~~

~~Sergeevfjellet N& topographic& 516786.3& 8533514.9& 405.5& 516719.8& 8533533.7& 412.0& 66.6& 18.8& 6.5\|~~

~~Søre Sergeevfjellet& topographic& 517421.7& 8532819.1& 437.0& 517346.6& 8532845.8& 433.0& 75.1& 26.8& 4.0\|~~

~~Skiferpasset N& topographic& 519741.9& 8534487.9& 440.5& 519688.1& 8534510.8& 438.0& 53.7& 22.9& 2.5\|~~

~~Skiferpasset S& topographic& 521691.5& 8532763.6& 499.0& 521630.8& 8532787.7& 501.0& 60.7& 24.2& 2.0\|~~

~~Wiederbreen& topographic& 524390.1& 8529810.5& 715.5& 524337.8& 8529830.9& 715.5& 52.3& 20.4& 0.0\|~~

~~Midifjellet W& topographic& 523829.9& 8535829.4& 406.5& 523790.6& 8535852.7& 407.0& 39.2& 23.3& 0.5\|~~

~~Midifjellet & topographic& 524927.1& 8535621.6& 633.0& 524872.4& 8535636.4& 639.0& 54.8& 14.8& 6.0\\~~

~~Svartsata & topographic& 525008.7& 8532920.0& 522.0& 524954.8& 8532939.1& 525.0& 53.9& 19.0& 3.0\\~~

~~Nordfallet & topographic& 525062.9& 8538147.8& 823.0& 525012.9& 8538171.2& 824.0& 50.0& 23.4& 1.0\\~~

~~Silesiafjellet & topographic& 525693.5& 8537356.0& 668.0& 525656.1& 8537379.7& 669.7& 37.5& 23.6& 1.7\\~~

~~Hoven & topographic& 527701.5& 8535162.3& 858.0& 527654.1& 8535172.5& 869.0& 47.4& 10.2& 11.0\\~~

~~Baranowskipasset & topographic& 526981.0& 8538147.5& 603.0& 526939.9& 8538164.8& 600.0& 41.1& 17.4& 3.0\\~~

~~Körberbreen & topographic& 527629.4& 8539562.5& 458.5& 527606.5& 8539582.4& 459.0& 23.0& 19.9& 0.5\\~~

~~Vestetinden & topographic& 527469.1& 8538583.7& 920.5& 527431.8& 8538595.1& 928.0& 37.3& 11.3& 7.5\\~~

~~Bastionen & topographic& 527662.3& 8537477.6& 800.5& 527626.5& 8537487.9& 799.0& 35.9& 10.4& 1.5\\~~

~~Fjellevorgangen & topographic& 529052.7& 8538921.5& 911.0& 529030.3& 8538944.0& 910.0& 22.4& 22.5& 1.0\\~~

~~Conwaykammen & topographic& 528552.9& 8537446.0& 1185.0& 528537.8& 8537442.0& 1185.0& 15.1& 4.0& 0.0\\~~

~~Søre Mehesten & topographic& 528715.5& 8535637.0& 1378.0& 528697.7& 8535668.0& 1383.0& 17.8& 31.0& 5.0\\~~

~~Tindegga & topographic& 530710.9& 8538934.6& 255.0& 530685.9& 8538940.4& 255.0& 25.0& 5.8& 0.0\\~~

~~Austryggnuten & topographic& 530828.7& 8536027.9& 582.0& 530804.5& 8536030.1& 570.0& 24.2& 2.3& 12.0\\~~

~~Mehestnuten & topographic& 529714.2& 8535673.6& 813.0& 529694.8& 8535682.6& 816.0& 19.4& 8.9& 3.0\\~~

~~Kvitknotten & topographic& 529877.2& 8532666.4& 681.0& 529849.8& 8532672.1& 691.0& 27.3& 5.7& 10.0\\~~

~~Kneikfjellet & topographic& 531735.2& 8533224.8& 708.0& 531714.2& 8533227.2& 708.0& 21.0& 2.4& 0.0\\~~

~~\\bottomhline~~

~~\\end{tabular}~~

~~\\end{table*}~~

```

\begin{table*}[t]
\caption{Coordinates of all points used to register sheet 10 – Bungebreen.}
\label{Tab3}
\begin{tabular}{lccccccc}
\topline
\multirow{2}{2em}{Name} & \multirow{2}{2em}{Type} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{10 Bungebreen, IGF  
PAN (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{013 Sørkapp, NPI (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{Difference (m)} \\
& & x & y & z &  $\Delta x$  &  $\Delta y$  &  $\Delta z$  \\
\midline
Rafenodden & topographic & 517252.2 & 8529448.2 & 17.5 & 517252.2 & 8529448.2 & 17.5 & -50.1 & 22.1 & -0.5 \\
Slaklidalen & topographic & 521470.8 & 8529281.6 & 110.0 & 521470.8 & 8529281.6 & 110.0 & -53.2 & 50.9 & 0.0 \\
Vokterpiken & topographic & 523387.3 & 8523632.1 & 34.0 & 523387.3 & 8523632.1 & 34.0 & -27.3 & 23.7 & -2.3 \\
Wiederfjellet 1 & triangulation & 524388.1 & 8529220.8 & 740.0 & 524388.1 & 8529220.8 & 740.0 & -54.5 & 51.5 & 0.0 \\
Wiederfjellet 2 & triangulation & 524417.5 & 8528859.6 & 754.0 & 524417.5 & 8528859.6 & 754.0 & -63.2 & 40.0 & 0.0 \\
Wiederfjellet 3 & topographic & 524673.8 & 8527848.7 & 655.0 & 524673.8 & 8527848.7 & 655.0 & -53.2 & 50.8 & 0.0 \\
Kvartsittrabben N & topographic & 524603.8 & 8524133.5 & 124.0 & 524603.8 & 8524133.5 & 124.0 & -46.2 & 5.7 & -0.2 \\
Kvartsittrabben S & topographic & 524563.0 & 8522934.4 & 63.0 & 524563.0 & 8522934.4 & 63.0 & -55.9 & 65.7 & -0.3 \\
Stuppryggen 1 & topographic & 525838.3 & 8527582.1 & 636.0 & 525838.3 & 8527582.1 & 636.0 & -40.3 & 18.2 & -1.0 \\
Stuppryggen 2 & topographic & 525960.1 & 8527151.5 & 597.0 & 525960.1 & 8527151.5 & 597.0 & -36.6 & 42.5 & 0.0 \\
Stuppryggen 3 & topographic & 525144.6 & 8526341.8 & 475.0 & 525144.6 & 8526341.8 & 475.0 & -36.2 & 34.7 & -0.5 \\
Stuppryggen 4 & topographic & 525240.8 & 8525479.6 & 333.0 & 525240.8 & 8525479.6 & 333.0 & -41.8 & 39.2 & 0.0 \\
Kvitgubben 1 & topographic & 531025.3 & 8527768.3 & 724.0 & 531025.3 & 8527768.3 & 724.0 & -30.2 & 31.3 & 6.7

```

~~Kvitgubben 2& triangulation& 530518.6& 8527020.5& 865.8& 530518.6& 8527020.5& 865.8& 33.0& 32.1& 0.2\\~~

~~Kvitgubben 3& topographic& 530075.6& 8526247.2& 628.0& 530075.6& 8526247.2& 628.0& 24.2& 24.0& 0.0\\~~

~~Arkfjellet 1& topographic& 531178.1& 8525895.1& 794.0& 531178.1& 8525895.1& 794.0& 29.4& 41.0& 5.0\\~~

~~Arkfjellet 2& topographic& 530756.9& 8525435.9& 737.0& 530756.9& 8525435.9& 737.0& 32.7& 20.3& 0.0\\~~

~~Arkfjellet 3& topographic& 530350.8& 8525316.4& 653.0& 530350.8& 8525316.4& 653.0& 28.0& 25.7& 0.0\\~~

~~Sokolovfjellet N& topographic& 531369.6& 8524531.5& 645.0& 531369.6& 8524531.5& 645.0& 30.7& 26.2& 6.7\\~~

~~Sokolovfjellet S& topographic& 531361.1& 8523377.6& 724.0& 531361.1& 8523377.6& 724.0& 29.8& 22.9& 2.0\\~~

~~Plognatten& topographic& 529159.0& 8522935.6& 388.0& 529159.0& 8522935.6& 388.0& 30.6& 28.1& 4.6\\~~

~~Plogjernet& topographic& 530198.6& 8522623.7& 674.0& 530198.6& 8522623.7& 674.0& 32.4& 22.7& 1.9\\~~

~~Plogfjellet& topographic& 531141.8& 8522614.1& 705.0& 531141.8& 8522614.1& 705.0& 33.3& 33.1& 5.7\\~~

~~Plogen& topographic& 530229.9& 8521300.3& 696.0& 530229.9& 8521300.3& 696.0& 33.6& 8.3& 0.4\\~~

~~\bottomhline~~

~~\end{tabular}~~

~~\end{table*}~~

The ~~second~~last corrected sheet of the 1961 map – ~~No. 10~~ Bungebreen – showed much less land, and hence fewer elevation points, ~~because much of it was covered by the Greenland Sea~~ (Fig.~\ref{Fig6Fig14}). A preliminary assessment of map quality determined a shift in the topographic points layer relative to the contour lines, which most likely occurred while the map was being prepared for printing. In order to solve this problem, before registering the sheet under development, the two digitised layers were matched against each other such that the elevation points fell within contours delineating summits (Fig.~\ref{Fig7Fig15}).

~~\begin{figure}[t]~~


```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig14.png}
```

```
\begin{figure}[t]
```

```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig06.png}
```

```
\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet 10 – Bungebreen.}
```

```
\label{Fig14}
```

```
\end{figure}
```

```
\label{Fig6}
```

```
\end{figure}
```

```
\begin{figure}[t]
```

```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig07.png}
```

```
\begin{figure}[t]
```

```
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig15.png}
```

```
\caption{Examples of shifts in elevation points used to register the Bungebreen sheet: (a) Arkfjellet N, (b) Plogfjellet, (c) Stupprygen N, (d) Vokterpiken. Red triangles show new point locations.}
```

```
\label{Fig7Fig15}
```

```
\end{figure}
```

In addition to the small number of elevation points and their shifting relative to contour lines, the planned map registration was further hampered by the uneven distribution of elevation points within the sheet. Most of the points were located at the peaks of mountain massifs in northern and eastern parts of the map, while points in the coastal zone in the west were missing. The corresponding [fragment portion](#) of the map issued by the NPI for 1990 contained one topographic point at the base of Cape Rafenodden at an altitude of 17~m~a.s.l. To match the 1961 and 1990 data, one point was added to the Bungebreen sheet, within a small elevation delimited by a contour at 17.5~m a.s.l (Fig.~\ref{Fig6Fig14}). In the next step, the vector layer of topographic points for 1961 was made more dense by adding a few [points](#) at the peaks of four massifs. These were points within contours delineating summits of Arkfjellet, Plogen, Wiederfjellet, and Stupprygen. [Table~\ref{Tab3}Supplement table](#) shows the coordinates of all points on which the registration of sheet 10 – Bungebreen was based.

For the next IGF PAN map sheet (No. 5 — Hornsund), only the southern part representing the north-western part of the Sørkapp Land peninsula was used (Fig.~\ref{Fig8}). Table~\ref{Tab4} lists the points on which the sheet registration was based.

```

\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig08.png}
\caption{Triangulation and topographic points on sheet 5 — Hornsund.}
\label{Fig8}
\end{figure}

```

```

\begin{table*}[t]
\caption{Coordinates of points used to register sheet 5 — Hornsund.}
\label{Tab4}

```

```

\begin{tabular}{ccccccc}
\topline
\multirow{2}{2em}{Name} & \multirow{2}{2em}{Type} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{05 Hornsund. IGF PAN (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{013 Sørkapp. NPI (m)} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{Difference (m)} \\
& & x & y & z & x & y & z &  $\Delta x$  &  $\Delta y$  &  $\Delta z$  \\
\midleline
Hoferpynten & topographic & 519164.7 & 8541050.8 & 15.2 & 519135.7 & 8541046.0 & 15.2 & 29.1 & 4.8 & 0.0 \\
Hansenodden & topographic & 519711.0 & 8540790.9 & 37.6 & 519672.8 & 8540800.3 & 37.5 & 38.2 & 9.4 & 0.1 \\
Konstantinovka & triangulation & 522284.6 & 8540065.2 & 3.8 & 522244.1 & 8540084.2 & 14.0 & 40.5 & 19.0 & 10.2 \\
Čebysev fjellet C1 & topographic & 524520.2 & 8540115.0 & 919.9 & 524476.8 & 8540131.6 & 920.0 & 43.4 & 16.5 & 0.1 \\
Čebysev fjellet C2 & triangulation & 524669.7 & 8541313.7 & 755.7 & 524680.1 & 8541290.6 & 756.0 & 10.5 & 23.1 & 0.3 \\
Čebysev fjellet N & triangulation & 525043.5 & 8542311.0 & 677.5 & 525007.0 & 8542312.3 & 678.0 & 36.6 & 1.3 & 0.5

```

Dotten	& topographic	& 526460.6	& 8541162.3	& 398.0	&
		526421.4	8541149.9	395.4	39.2
				12.4	2.6\
Reischachtoppen C	& topographic	& 527596.0	& 8542933.4	&	
		450.0	527575.2	8542913.0	452.2
				20.8	20.4
					2.2\
Reischachtoppen N	& triangulation	& 527662.3	& 8543109.1	&	
		439.1	527637.1	8543091.1	439.0
				25.2	18.1
					0.1\
Reischachtoppen S	& topographic	& 527920.5	& 8542097.3	&	
		524.0	527897.2	8542066.9	524.9
				-23.3	30.4
					0.9\
Kvasseggå	& topographic	& 528670.8	& 8539817.7	& 998.0	
		528632.3	8539807.8	1003.5	38.5
				9.9	5.5\
Fjellnuten W	& topographic	& 529289.9	& 8540059.3	& 723.0	
		529246.4	8540039.6	729.0	-43.5
				-19.7	6.0\
Traunkammen N	& topographic	& 529527.8	& 8542867.9	&	
		441.0	529512.3	8542822.4	443.6
				15.5	45.5
					2.6\
Traunkammen C	& triangulation	& 529610.0	& 8542325.8	&	
		462.0	529589.5	8542290.0	464.4
				-20.5	35.8
					2.4\
Traunkammen S	& topographic	& 529745.5	& 8541198.4	&	
		684.0	529719.9	8541160.2	691.7
				25.6	38.2
					7.7\
Fjellnuten E	& topographic	& 529681.2	& 8540024.3	& 661.0	
		529629.8	8540008.6	668.1	51.4
				15.8	7.1\
					bottomline

\end{tabular}

\end{table*}

\subsection{Fitting data from 1961 and [1990-2010](#)}

In order to align the 1961 vector layers with the [1990-2010](#) data, they were merged and registered (\emph{Spatial Adjustment} function/\emph{Rubbersheet} conversion), this time based on

triangulation and topographic points ([Tables~\ref{Tab2}~\ref{Tab4}](#)), [Supplement table](#)). The vector data thus processed was then used to generate a DEM with a resolution of 205~m, which was compared against the [1990/2010](#) NPI model.

A preliminary visual analysis of the obtained DoD ([Fig~\ref{Fig9Fig16}](#)) led us to conclude that a significant improvement had been achieved in terms of the models' spatial fit. This was also indicated by a visual assessment of the comparative courses and positions of the 1961 and 1990 contours ([Fig.~\ref{Fig10Fig17}](#)~[\ref{Fig12Fig19}](#)). Considering the limited possibility of accurately determining the elevation points on which the data registration for 1961 was based, the result of comparing both vector layers and both elevation models was considered satisfactory.

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.16.3cm]{Fig09Fig16.png}
\caption{Differences in altitude in non-glaciated areas between the 1961 DEM (data rectification based on elevation points), and the 1990 DEM generated by \cite{NPI2014}.}
\label{Fig9Fig16}
\end{figure}
```

```
\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig17.png}
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig10.png}
\caption{Course of contour lines in the western part of sheet 8 – Gåsbreen: georeference based on: (a) grid nodes; and (b) elevation points.}
\label{Fig17}
\end{figure}
```

```
Fig10}
\end{figure}
```

```
\begin{figure}[t]
```

```

\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig11Fig18.png}
\caption{Course of contour lines in non-glaciated areas in the western part of sheet 10 –
Bungebreen: georeference based on: (a, c) nodes of the cartographic grid and (b, d) elevation points.}
\label{Fig11Fig18}
\end{figure}

```

```

\begin{figure}[t]
\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig12Fig19.png}
\caption{Course of contour lines in non-glaciated areas in the southern part of sheet 5 – Hornsund:
georeference based on: (a) nodes of the cartographic grid; and (b) elevation points.}
\label{Fig12Fig19}
\end{figure}

```

```

\subsection{Final elevation model for 1961}

```

After correcting all vector data that were based on the IGF PAN map sheets and the digital elevation model processed from them, the end product and its adjustment to the remaining reference elevation data were then assessed for accuracy. To this end, the final 1961 IGF PAN elevation model was subtracted from the [19902010](#) NPI model, and elevation differences between them in non-glaciated areas were analysed in individual slope classes.

In order to assess the usefulness of the DEM in studying changes in glacier thickness, it can be assumed that its vertical accuracy for non-glacial areas with a slope of less than 20° will also apply to the surface of most glaciers, because their slope usually falls into this class. The analysis below will therefore focus on such areas. Apart from the surface of steep slopes, the evaluation also excludes non-glaciated areas that cannot be considered stable because the differences in elevation between the two models may result from ~~natural~~ processes going on in the natural environment, e.g. melting of dead ice in marginal zones of glaciers, or the accumulation or erosion activity of proglacial streams in their forefields. Areas of steep or very steep slopes presented on the IGF PAN maps as a rock signature could also not be verified, ~~for obvious reasons~~.

After ~~taking into account~~ ~~considering~~ the aforementioned criteria, the ~~fragment~~ ~~part~~ of the IGF PAN model selected for vertical error analysis covered ~~76.988.1~~ km², which constituted ~~4237.3~~ % of non-glaciated areas (~~483.2236.3~~ km²) and ~~2614~~ % of the entire land area (~~299.6632.3~~ km²) analysed within this model. For comparison, the area covered by glaciers was ~~416.4396.0~~ km² (~~38.862.6~~ % of the analysed land area), and the area of steep and very steep slopes was ~~69.4139.8~~ km² (~~23.222.1~~ %).

The verification of the vertical error of the 1961 model began with classifying slopes by gradient. To this end, a slope map was first made (~~`\emph{Spatial Analyst Tool / Surface / Slope} module`~~) and then reclassified (~~`\emph{3D Analyst Tool / Raster reclass / Reclassify} module`~~) to distinguish two slope classes for the area: 0–20° and >20°. Next, the reclassified raster was transformed to a vector layer (~~`\emph{Conversion Tools / From Raster / Raster to Polygon} module`~~), from which polygons of the second slope class (steep and very steep slopes) were removed, as were glacier surfaces (extent from 1961), marginal zones, extra-marginal sandurs, glacial river beds, lakes and seas. The resulting mask was used to select areas of elevation differences between the years 1961 and ~~1990~~2010 from the raster, and these areas were those to be assessed in terms of vertical accuracy (~~`\emph{Data Management Tools / Raster / Raster Processing / Clip} module`~~). The mean elevation difference between the compared models was ~~–3.55~~–2.28~m, with a standard deviation of ~~2.963~~1.18~m, indicating that the 1961 model is higher (~~Fig.~\ref{Fig13}~~).

~~`\begin{figure}[t]`~~

~~`\`~~

~~`%(Fig.~\ref{Fig13})`~~

~~`%\begin{figure}[t]`~~

~~`%\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig13.pdf}Fig21.png`~~

~~`%\caption{Histograms of elevation differences for stable non-glaciated areas with slopes of less than 20° between the 1961 and 1990 digital elevation models before and after corrections.}`~~

~~`\label{Fig13}`~~

~~`\end{figure}`~~

~~In the last step, this model was corrected by subtracting the obtained mean difference from it.~~

~~`%\label{Fig21}`~~

~~`%\end{figure}`~~

~~In the last step, this model was corrected by subtracting the obtained mean difference from it.~~ The results of comparisons of the final 1961 model against the ~~1990~~2010 reference model are presented in Figure~\ref{Fig14}Fig20).

~~`\begin{figure}[t]`~~

~~`\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig14.png}`~~

~~`\begin{figure}[t]`~~

~~`\includegraphics[width=16.3cm]{Fig20.png}`~~

\caption{Differences in elevation in non-glaciated areas between the final 1961 DEM generated based on IGF PAN maps published in 1987 (rectification of maps based on elevation points) and the ~~1990~~2010 DEM generated by \cite{NPI2014}}

\label{Fig14}

\end{figure}

\label{Fig20}

\end{figure}

\subsection{1961–~~90~~1990–2010 changes in glacier geometries}

The measure for examining the ~~size~~extent and pattern of glacier ~~recession~~retreat in the years 1961–~~90~~1990–2010 was changes in their surface ~~area, the rate of frontal recession and – where data allowed (i.e. area, the rate of frontal recession and – where data allowed (i.e.~~ for land-based glaciers) – changes in thickness. ~~The research~~This analysis covered ~~1828~~ glaciers that lay ~~entirely~~ within the analysed sheets of the 1961 map. After initial classification into two glacier types (land-terminating and tidewater), the changes in their geometry were calculated.

In the study period, most of the glaciers on the mainland of ~~north~~-western Sørkapp Land were in recession, as reflected in a decrease in total area of nearly 7.2\% – from 74.8~km² in 1961 to about 69.4~km² in ~~1990~~2010. The average rate of change in surface area of the region's land-based glaciers was 0.19~km², i.e. about 0.2\% of glaciated area per year (Table \ref{Tab5}).

\begin{table*}[t]

\caption{Differences in area of land-terminating glaciers in ~~north~~-western Sørkapp Land, 1961–~~90~~1990–2010.}

\label{Tab5}

\begin{tabular}{lccccccccc}

\topline

\multirow{3}{2em}{Glacier} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area change} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area change rate} \\ & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²/yr)} \\ & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²/yr)}

&&1961 & 1990 & 2010 & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & (km²) & (\%) & (km²/yr) & (\%) & 3}{c}{1961–
1990} & {1990–2010} & {1961–2010} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(m)} & (m) & (m/yr) \\

& 1961 & 1990 & \multicolumn{2}{c}{1961–90} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{1961–90} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{1961–_1990–&}
& {1990–2010} & {1961–90 & 1961–902010} \\ \\\ \middleline

~~Arkfjellbreen & 0.78 & 0.73 & 0.67 & -0.05 & -6.4 & -0.06 (-8.2) & -0.11 (-14.1) & -0.002 & -0.2 & 2035 & 1890 & -145 & -5.0 (-0.2) & -0.003 (-0.4) & -0.002 (-0.3) \\~~

~~Bautabreen & 0.84 & 0.78 & 0.61 & -0.06 (-7.1) & -0.17 (-21.8) & -0.23 (-27.4) & -0.002 (-0.3) & -0.009 (-1.1) & -0.005 (-0.6) \\~~

~~Bungebreen & 49.61 & 46.71 & -2.90 & -5.9 & -0.100 & -0.2 & 12385 & 11040 & -1345 & -46.463 & 43.56 & -2.98 (-6.0) & -3.07 (-6.6) & -6.05 (-12.2) & -0.103 (-0.2) & -0.15 (-0.3) & -0.123 (-0.3) \\~~

~~Gåsbreen & 13.99 & 12.34 & 11.38 & -1.65 & -11.8 & -0.05796 (-7.8) & -2.61 (-18.7) & -0.06 (-0.4) & 7620 & 7302 & -318 & -11.0 & -0.05 (-0.4) & -0.05 (-0.4) \\~~

~~Goësbreen & 1.19 & 0.94 & 0.28 & -0.25 & -21.0 & -0.7 (-70.2) & -0.9 (-76.5) & -0.009 & -0.7 & 2990 & 2740 & -250 & -8 (-0.7) & -0.3 (-3.5) & -0.02 (-1.6) \\~~

~~Gråkallbreen & 0.16 & 0.14 & -0.03 & -0.02 & -12.5 & -0.11 (-78.6) & -0.13 (-81.3) & -0.001 & -0.4 & 930 & 930 & 0 & 0.0 & -0.005 (-3.9) & -0.003 (-1.7) \\~~

~~Mehestbreen & 3.0908 & 3.04 & 3.01 & -0.05 & -0.4 (-1.63) & -0.03 (-1.0) & -0.07 (-2.3) & -0.001 (0.0) & -0.002 & -0.1 & 4590 & 4470 & -120 & -4 (-0.1) & -0.001 (0.0) \\~~

~~Mikaelbreen & 3.73 & 3.72 & 3.35 & -0.01 (-0.3) & -0.37 (-9.9) & -0.38 (-10.2) & 0.000 (0.0) & -0.019 (-0.5) & -0.008 (-0.2) \\~~

~~Nigerbreen & 0.29 & 0.26 & -0.03 & -10.3 & -0.001 & -0.4 & 1080 & 1060 & -20 & -0.7 & 0.25 & -0.03 (-10.3) & -0.01 (-3.8) & -0.04 (-13.8) & -0.001 (-0.4) & -0.001 (-0.2) & -0.001 (-0.3) \\~~

~~Nordfallbreen & 0.83 & 0.80 & -0.03 & -3.676 & -0.00103 (-3.6) & -0.1 & -2640 & -2640 & -0.4 (-5.0) & -0.0 & 0.07 (-8.4) & -0.001 (-0.1) & -0.002 (-0.3) & -0.001 (-0.2) \\~~

~~Påskefjella glacier & 1.15 & 1.08 & 1.05 & -0.07 (-6.1) & -0.03 (-2.8) & -0.1 (-8.7) & -0.002 (-0.2) & -0.002 (-0.1) & -0.002 (-0.2) \\~~

~~Plogbreen & 0.76 & 0.64 & 0.60 & -0.12 & -15.8 & -0.04 (-6.3) & -0.16 (-21.1) & -0.004 & -0.5 & 2045 & 1730 & -315 & -10.9 & -0.5 & -0.002 (-0.3) & -0.003 (-0.4) \\~~

~~Portbreen & 0.56 & 0.51 & 0.34 & -0.05 & -8.9 & -93 & -0.17 -33.33 & -0.22 -39.3 & -0.002 & -0.3 & 1870 & 1800 & -70 & -2.4 & -0.3 & -0.009 -1.7 & -0.004 -0.8 \\~~

~~Reischachbreen & 0.35 & 0.31 & 0.25 & -0.04 & -11.4 & -43 & -0.06 -19.35 & -0.1 -28.6 & -0.001 & -0.4 & 1390 & 1295 & -95 & -3.3 & -0.4 & -0.003 -1.0 & -0.002 -0.6 \\~~

~~Signybreen & 3.33 & 2.45 & 1.94 & -0.88 -26.43 & -0.51 -20.82 & -1.39 -41.7 & -0.030 -0.9 & -0.026 -1.0 & -0.028 -0.9 \\~~

~~Silesiabreen & 0.24 & 0.22 & 0.20 & -0.02 & -8.3 & -33 & -0.02 -9.09 & -0.04 -16.7 & -0.001 & -0.3 & -0.001 -0.5 & -0.001 -0.3 & 1160 & 1160 & 0 & 0.0 \\~~

~~Smaleggbreen & 1.94 & 1.42 & 1.08 & -0.52 -26.80 & -0.34 -23.94 & -0.86 -44.3 & -0.018 -0.9 & -0.017 -1.2 & -0.018 -0.9 \\~~


```

Sokolobreen 0.96 0.92 0.85 -0.04 -4.2 -17 -0.07 -
7.61 -0.11 -11.5 -0.001 -0.1 -2860 -2745 -115 - -0.004 -0.4 -0
.002 -0.2\\

Svalisbreen tributary 1.68 1.37 0.96 -0.31 -18.45 -0.41 -29.93 -0.72
-42.9 -0.011 -0.6 -0.021 -1.5 -0.015 -0.9\\

Wiederbreen 2.03 1.87 1.73 -0.16 -7.9 -88 -0.14 -
7.49 -0.3 -14.8 -0.006 -0.3 -3270 -3125 -145 -5 -0.007 -0.4 -0.006
-0.3

\\middleline
Total 74.8 69.4 -5.41 -7.2 -0.187 -0.287.5 80.2 72.9 -7.3 (8.4) -7.3 (9.1) 14.6
(16.7) \\bottomline

\\end{tabular}
\\end{table*}

\\end{tabular}
\\end{table*}

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\\begin{figure}[t]
\\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig156.5cm}{Fig21.png}
\\caption{Glacier elevation change in north western Sørkapp Land, 1961–901990-2010.}
\\label{Fig15Fig21}
\\end{figure}

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The pace of surface recession on western Sørkapp Land ~~in~~during the study period 1961–90 varied between individual land-based glaciers. In terms of surface area and ice mass loss, recession was ~~most intense~~greatest for the largest glaciers in the region: Gåsbreen and Bungebreen. ~~in~~For these glaciers, the changes are most pronounced in the lower parts of their snouts (Table 52, Fig. ~~~~~ref{Fig15} and ~ref{Fig16}~a-b-Fig21).

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\\%\\begin{figure}[t]
\\%\\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{Fig16Fig24.pdf}
\\%\\caption{Changes in elevation (along the centre line) of selected glaciers in western Sørkapp Land based on 1961 and 1990 DEMs: (a) Gåsbreen, (b) Bungebreen, (c) Goësbreen, (d) Portbreen, (e) Nordfallbreen, (f) Mehestbreen.}

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\%label{Fig16Fig24}

\%end{figure}

Of the largest glaciers in the region, though in retreat, the snout of the westernmost glacier (Gåsbreen) was in 1961 still piled up on the eastern slopes of the Wurmbrandegga–Savičtoppen ridge to an elevation of 150 m a.s.l. This significant mountain barrier had conditioned glacier transgression in the Little Ice Age (LIA), resulting mainly in the lowest part of the glacier thickening and expanding (Ziaja2016). Therefore, both just after the end of the LIA and in 1961–90, the Gåsbreen's recession manifested primarily as a narrowing and thinning of the lowest parts of the glacier. In the years 1961–90, the glacier's area decreased by 1.65 km², mainly due to the narrowing of the lower parts of the glacier, while the frontal retreat was relatively small, amounting to about 320 m (11 m/year). Meanwhile, its frontal part was significantly lowered, by up to 83 m at the line of its 1990 extent. Outside the frontal and lateral parts, the lowering of the glacier surface became gradually less intense upwards, while thickening was observed in the accumulation zone.

Similar patterns of change in geometry (expressed as thickness increasing in the accumulation zone and decreasing in the ablation zone, combined with a clear retreat of the terminus) were observed for the Bungebreen glacier. In the period 1961–90, the glacier area ~~shrank~~decreased by 2.9 km², and the frontal retreat ~~amounted to~~was over 1,300 m (46 m/year). The changes in the extent of the glacier were accompanied by a severe lowering of the surface of lower parts of the snout, of up to 85 m at the line of its 1990 extent. Against this background, however, the area of medial moraine stood out, as it played a protective role and attenuated the surface lowering. Here and there, upper parts of the glacier were built up in this period. Because Bungebreen is a compound valley glacier, supplied by several firn fields, this building-up was not uniform throughout the accumulation zone. An increase in glacier thickness of up to 20 m was recorded primarily in parts with a favourable topographic ~~situation~~setting, i.e. where ablation is limited by a northern exposure or by being shaded by the steep slopes of the Gråkallen, Kalksteinstupa and Stupryggen massifs. There was also an approximately 10 m increase in thickness in the ice flowing northwards from the Kvitgubben and Lysentoppen massifs. By contrast, zero or slightly negative values were recorded on the upper southerly-exposed parts of ice-filled passes on Hestskankfallet and Vasil'evskaret, although there was also a small area of increased thickness here (Fig. ~~Fig16~~Fig21~b).

~~In the years 1961–90, a very large percentage of area loss, too, was observed in the western and low-lying small-valley Gråkallbreen, Goësbreen and Portbreen glaciers.~~ In the years 1961–90, a very large percentage of area loss, too, was observed in the western and low-lying small-valley Gråkallbreen, Goësbreen and Portbreen glaciers. This process was accompanied by significant thinning, often along the longitudinal profile, and totalling from 20 m in the upper parts to 35–40 m ~~at~~at their termini. The decrease in thickness was very clearly marked in these glaciers, especially in the central and lower parts, which in the case of the Portbreen glacier, for example, led to the ice cover partially disappearing and fragmenting into smaller ice lobes separated by a rock step (Fig. ~~Fig15~~Fig15) and ~~Fig16~~Fig16c-d).Fig21).

Against the backdrop of the glaciers that have undergone significant changes over the analysed decades (seen mainly in a significant loss of ice mass), two glaciers stand out for having undergone relatively little change in geometry. These are the Nordfallbreen and Mehestbreen glaciers. Between 1961 and 1990, the area of Nordfallbreen decreased by only 0.03 km², i.e. 3.6\%—\%, which is among the lowest values in the entire region (Table~\ref{Tab5Tab2}). The extent of the glacier went practically unchanged in 1961–90. However, the slight changes in surface area and extent were accompanied by a thinning. However, thisThis was less than in other glaciers in the region, and ranged from 20–30 m in the ablation zone to 8–13 m in the accumulation zone (Fig. \ref{Fig15} and \ref{Fig16}~e; Fig21). Even smaller changes in geometry were recorded for the Mehestbreen. Over the entire study period, its area decreased by only 0.05 km² (i.e. 1.6\%) and the glacier terminus receded by only 120 m in 1961–90 (Table~\ref{Tab5}). Analysis of the elevation differences in the glacier's longitudinal profile reveal that the thinning in the years 1961–90 was greatest in the lower parts of the ablation zone, at 10–20 m, while the accumulation zone actually increased in thickness by about 10–15 m (Fig.~\ref{Fig15} and \ref{Fig16}~f).

In the north of the area, which is dominated by glaciers flowing into the Hornsund Fjord, the disappearance of the ice cover was mainly the result of icebergs calving off. The surface area of the four analysed calving glaciers fell from 16.3~km² in 1961 to 15.5~km² in 1990, constituting a 4.7\% shrinkage decrease (Table~\ref{Tab6}). The average rate of recession of the calving glaciers in 1961–90 was 0.2\% per year, though this did vary between glaciers. In For the region's largest glaciers, which flow directly into the Hornsund fjord (i.e. Körberbreen and Petersbreen), the shrinkageareal decrease was 0.1\% per year, while for the smaller glaciers leadingcalving into Samarinvågen Bay it was faster, ranging from 0.3\% per year in Kvasseggbreen to 0.5\% in Eggbreen (Table~\ref{Tab6}).

\begin{table*}[t]

\caption{Differences in area of land-terminatingtidewater glaciers in northwestern Sørkapp Land, 1961–901990-2010.}

\label{Tab3}

\label{Tab6}

\begin{tabular}{lcccccccc}

\topline

\multirow{3}{2em}{Glacier} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area change} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Area change rate} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Length} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Change in length} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Length change rate}

& \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(km²/yr)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(m)} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{(m/yr)}

&1961 & 1990 & 2010 \multicolumn{23}{c}{1961-90} & \multicolumn{2}{c}{1990} & {1990-2010} & {1961-90} & 2010 \multicolumn{3}{c}{1961-1990-} & {1990-2010} & {1961-90 & 1961-902010} \\ \midrule

Eggbreen & 2.29 & 1.94 & -0.35 & -15.2 & -0.012 & -0.5 & 2670 & 2230 & -440 & -15.2 \\

Körberbreen & 10.79 & 10.54 & 9.99 & -0.25 &

-2.3 & -2.32 & -0.55 & -5.22 & -0.80 & -7.41 & -0.01 & -0.009 & -0.88 & -0.1 & 5870 & 5710 & -160 & -5.5 \\

Kvasseggbreen & 0.89 & 0.3 & -0.26 & -0.80 & -0.09 & -10.1 & -0.003 & -0.3 & 2105 & 1945 & -160 & -5.501 & 0.00 \\

Petersbreen & 2.31 & 2.24 & 2.12 & -0.07 & -2.9 & -3.03 & -0.12 & -5.36 & -0.19 & -8.23 & 0.002 & -0.01 & -0.1 & 3075 & 2930 & -145 & -5.10 & -0 \\ \midrule 0.1 & -0.27 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\

Kvasseggbreen & 0.89 & 0.80 & 0.77 & -0.09 & -10.11 & -0.03 & -3.75 & -0.12 & -13.48 & 0.00 & -0.35 & 0.00 & -0.19 & 0.00 & -0.01

\\

Eggbreen & 2.29 & 1.94 & 1.91 & -0.35 & -15.28 & -0.03 & -1.55 & -0.38 & -16.59 & -0.01 & -0.53 & 0.00 & -0.08 & -0.01 & -0.01

\\

Samarinbreen & 86.25 & 82.93 & 78.46 & -3.32 & -3.85 & -4.47 & -5.39 & -7.79 & -9.03 & -0.11 & -0.13 & -0.22 & -0.27 & -0.13 & 0.00 \\

Chomjakobreen & 15.33 & 14.50 & 13.98 & -0.83 & -5.41 & -0.52 & -3.59 & -1.35 & -8.81 & -0.03 & -0.19 & -0.03 & -0.18 & -0.02 & 0.00 \\

Mendeleevbreen & 45.15 & 38.48 & 34.98 & -6.67 & -14.77 & -3.50 & -9.10 & -10.17 & -22.52 & -0.23 & -0.51 & -0.18 & -0.45 & -0.17 & -0.01 \\

Svalisbreen & 46.99 & 41.41 & 34.45 & -5.58 & -11.87 & -6.96 & -16.81 & -12.54 & 26.69 & -0.19 & -0.41 & -0.35 & -0.84 & -0.21 & -0.01 \\

\midrule

Total & 16.28 & 15.52 & -0.76 & -4.67 & -0.026 & -0.22 & 10.00 & 192.84 & 176.66 & -17.16 & -8.17 & -16.18 & -8.39 & -33.34 & -15.88 & -0.59 & -0.28 & -0.81 & -0.42 & -0.57 & -0.01

\\ \bottomline

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The changes in surface area were accompanied by changes in ice thickness. In their ablation zones, which are subject to greater insolation, ~~thickness decreased and a general frontal retreat was noted. This differed in size and pace for~~ ~~thickness decreased and a general frontal retreat was noted. This differed in size and pace for~~ thickness decreased and a general frontal retreat was noted. This differed in size and pace for individual glaciers (Fig.~\ref{Fig15}, Table~\ref{Tab6}). In the case of the Körberbreen and Petersbreen glaciers, the maximum lowering of the frontal parts (between the 1984 and 1990 extents) did not exceed 65 m. Further eastwards, however, in the former tributaries of the Samarinbreen, this lowering was much greater, reaching 70 m for the Kvasseggbreen snout, and up to as much as 100 m in parts of the Eggbreen. In the higher parts of the studied glaciers, there was a clear building up of firn fields in this period (Fig.~\ref{Fig15Fig21}).

\section{Discussion}

The use of archival cartographic data is one of the key ways to quantify mainly climate-change-related changes in the cryosphere \citep{Surazakov2006, Weber2020}. On a global scale, such data on the topography of glaciers from the 1960s are relatively scarce – they are mainly based on a few photogrammetric ~~overflightssurveys~~ and resultant topographic maps \citep{Tielidze2016, Andreassen2020} and reanalysis of declassified spy satellite images \citep{Bhambri2011}. In the Spitsbergen region, 1930s ~~overflightssurveys~~ are a key reference point for the observed changes in area and volume \citep{Nuth2007}. Modern methods now allow for better and more precise use of these photos and the creation of more accurate elevation models \citep{Mertes2017, Midgley2017}.

The accuracy of simulations prognosing changes in glacier volumes based on dynamics models depends largely on ~~thethat~~ those models ~~havinghave~~ been initialised correctly \citep{Oerlemans1997, Collao2018}. Glaciers differ in response time to changes in mass balance, and this requires that data on the geometry of glaciers should go back as far as possible – preferably to a state of equilibrium with climatic conditions \citep{Zekollari2015}. If this is not possible, these models can properly be calibrated and verified using later data; nevertheless, the further back the data goes the better, and the more accurately future changes can be predicted. Thus, any glacier topography data from the 1960s is extremely valuable \citep{Andreassen2020}. There is little data available for the Svalbard region in this period, highlighting the importance of the results presented here.

The disappearance of ice in western Sørkapp Land in 1961–90 was the result of various processes. It was caused by both surface melting of ice and the breaking-off of icebergs during calving. Both processes had a significant impact on the overall mass loss from the glaciers ~~efon~~ Sørkapp Land. It is estimated that they are responsible for 79% and 21%, respectively, of overall mass loss from glaciers across Svalbard \citep{Błaszczuk2009}.

Important factors influencing ablation of glaciers flowing into Hornsund Fjord in the western part of the Sørkapp Land peninsula are the northern and eastern exposures of their accumulation zones and the significant shading of their surfaces by high mountain ranges. For this reason, the winter snow cover here lasts longer and is thicker, and the ablation is weaker relative to neighbouring glaciers

with western exposures \citep{Jania1987}. The greater accumulation and some reduction in glacier ablation also result from their accumulation zones ~~extending upwards to~~reaching over 700 m a.s.l. and being surrounded by the steep slopes of massifs that supply them with additional snow \citep{Jania1987}.

The interplay of all these factors can be seen to have clearly increased the thickness of firn and ice in the highest and middle parts of the glaciers flowing into the Hornsund fjord over the years 1961–90 (Fig.~\ref{Fig15}). At the same time, the changes in position of the thickened parts of the Körberbreen and Petersbreen glaciers are noteworthy, as shown by studies of changes in the range and speed of Körberbreen in shorter time intervals \citep{Pillewizer1939, Jania1987, Ziaja2011, Blaszczyk2013}. This suggests, in line with the supposition of \cite{Jania1987}, regular short-term displacement of the kinematic waves of ice that are characteristic of surging (especially in relation to the Körberbreen glacier). The research period adopted here (on the order of several decades) is too long to properly detect and illustrate this phenomenon, but other studies for this area provide evidence supporting the thesis.

On land, glacial systems evolved at ~~very~~ variable paces, which can be associated with variable topoclimatic and local conditions in western Sørkapp Land. Recession was fastest in the region's western- and southernmost glaciers, where air masses from the Greenland Sea and the warm West Spitsbergen current are in effect \citep{Ziaja2016}. Aside from clear frontal retreat, there was also a significant decrease in thickness in their longitudinal profiles (Fig.~\ref{Fig16}). In the small, westward, low-lying valley glaciers this was especially pronounced, especially in the middle and lower parts of the snouts, where smaller patches of dead ice emerged in places.

Although glacial recession was the predominant phenomenon in the land-based glaciers ~~of~~on western Sørkapp Land, the warming effect was in some places mitigated by the terrain and the significant elevation of the mountain massifs from which some of the glaciers originate. Being favourably located either at a significant elevation or in the shadow of high mountains stabilised the situation somewhat for some glaciers here, because their maintenance or local increase of mass was favoured by both an orographic increase in snowfall and additional supply from avalanches. This applies, for example, to Nordfallbreen, which is shaded from the south, and small glaciers originating on the slopes of the Hornsundtind and Kvassegga groups of mountains.

~~Nordfallbreen~~Nordfallbreen is adjacent to ~~the high hill~~ Nordfallet (824~m~a.s.l.) to the south, which ~~on the one hand~~ shades it against the sun while also providing it additional supply by ~~avalanche~~avalanches. Mehestbreen is similarly fed, being bordered to the east by the Mehesten (1,383~m~a.s.l.) and Hestskanka (997~m~a.s.l.) massifs, and by Hoven hill (869~m~a.s.l.) to the north. Their influence is seen in the spatial distribution of positive values on the maps of glacier altitude changes, more of which lie closer to the glacier's eastern edge. An additional factor limiting ablation on the Mehestbreen is its significant elevation, which puts a large part of the glacier's surface above the mass balance equilibrium line.

There are few studies that the results of this study of the peninsula's surface glaciation recession can be compared against. In the older literature, such analyses were carried out for individual glaciers \citep{Jania1987, Schonert1997} or at the regional scale at best \citep{Jania1988}. However, the observed trends in changes in Sørkapp Land glacier elevations in 1961–90 are comparable to other areas of Spitsbergen, although the number of studies of similar temporal coverage is limited \citep{Nuth2010, Malecki2013, Blaszczyk2013}.

\conclusions %% \conclusions[modified heading if necessary]

Correctly assessing the utility of the series of maps issued by the Institute of Geophysics of the Polish Academy of Sciences is very important in order to precisely determine changes in glacier geometries in western Sørkapp Land. ~~Ignorance of the principles on which they were compiled may lead to conclusions drawn as to the glacier recession rate being erroneous and, consequently, recession being overestimated for the years 1984–90, as the apparent status in 1984 would be contrary to reality. Specifically, the misapprehension lies in the fact that, although~~ Although the IGF PAN field campaign was conducted in the early 1980s, the maps published after the expedition were based on elevation data taken from aerial photos from 1961, upon which only glacier extents were updated (with a change in colour of contours). Crucially, contour lines were not updated in this 1984 edition, and continued to represent the greater elevations of 1961.

In response to this, the map coordinates on the 1961 map have now been corrected, so that it can be used for comparative analyses of changes in glacier surface elevations over the years 1961–90. This is especially true of the glaciers that are entirely land-based, for which data relating to their entire surface area is now corrected and complete.

However, the value of data on tidewater glaciers for various types of comparisons is limited to their upper parts (above the line of their 1984 extents). This is because updating their extents in 1984 required that contour lines between the extents designated for 1961 and 1984 be deleted and that the elevation of this surface be zeroed on the map, i.e. brought to sea level. Therefore, when analysing the IGF PAN sheets, it is impossible to determine the exact height of the ice cliffs of the Körberbreen, Petersbreen, Kvaseggbreen and Eggbreen tidewater glaciers in 1961.

Accordingly, this study finds that, in the years 1961–90, the maximum lowering of surface was about 80–85~m in the largest land-terminating glaciers ~~ofon~~ the peninsula, and over 90~m in tidewater glaciers (above the line marking their 1984 extents).

~~Glaciated areas aside, the surface-corrected IGF PAN maps can also be used to analyse landscape dynamics, including~~ Glaciated areas aside, the surface-corrected IGF PAN maps can also be used to analyse landscape dynamics, including changes going on in marginal zones. ~~The only exception is the areas of very steep slopes that are marked with the rock signature on the source maps.~~

%% The following commands are for the statements about the availability of data sets and/or software code corresponding to the manuscript.

%% It is strongly recommended to make use of these sections in case data sets and/or software code have been part of your research the article is based on.

%\codeavailability{TEXT} %% use this section when having only software code available

\dataavailability{All data is available at Zenodo service (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.45731304573129>) \citep{Dudek2021}. Data format: ESRI shapefile and GeoTIFF. The datasets contain vector layers (topographic and glacier outlines) and Digital Elevation Model (DEM) covering north western part of Sørkapp Land peninsula, Svalbard, for the year 1961. The first shape file \emph{glacier_1961_westernnorthwestern_Sorkapland.shp} contains the glacier areas manually delineated from vertical aerial photos captured during the historical photogrammetric overflight commissioned by the Norwegian Polar Institute on August 24 and 25, 1961. The shape file \emph{contour_1961_10m_westernnorthwestern_Sorkapland.shp} contains contour lines with intervals of 10~m based on digitized historical maps edited in 1987 by Institute of Geophysics of Polish Academy of Sciences and registered using cartographic grid and elevation points. Shape file \emph{peak_1961_westernnorthwestern_Sorkapland.shp} contains elevation points – topographic and triangulation – used in the process of vector data registration. Shape file \emph{rock_1961_westernnorthwestern_Sorkapland.shp} delineates areas very steep presented on the source maps as a rock cliff symbols. This file also indicates areas- where highest elevation errors in the generated Digital Elevation Model are plausible. All shape files were produced in the UTM projection system (northern hemisphere, zone 33) based on ~~WGS84~~ETRS89 ellipsoid (datum D\ ~~WGS\ 1984~~ETRS\ 1989). The raster file \emph{dem_1961_20m_western5m_northwestern_Sorkapland.tif} contains Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with 205~m resolution generated from corrected contour lines.) %% use this section when having only data sets available

%\codedataavailability{TEXT} %% use this section when having data sets and software code available

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`%\appendix`

`%\section{} %% Appendix A`

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`\authorcontribution{JD conceived the study, processed and analysed the data, drafted the manuscript. MP contributed to the discussion, review and editing of the manuscript.} %% this section is mandatory`

`\competinginterests{No competing interests are present} %% this section is mandatory even if you declare that no competing interests are present`

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%% \citet{jones90}| & Jones et al. (1990)

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%% FIGURES

%% When figures and tables are placed at the end of the MS (article in one-column style), please add
\clearpage

%% between bibliography and first table and/or figure as well as between each table and/or figure.

%% ONE-COLUMN FIGURES

%%f

%%\begin{figure}[t]

%%\includegraphics[width=8.3cm]{FILE NAME}

%%\caption{TEXT}

%%\end{figure}

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%%% TWO-COLUMN FIGURES


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%  
%%f  
%\begin{figure*}[t]  
%\includegraphics[width=12cm]{FILE NAME}  
%\caption{TEXT}  
%\end{figure*}  
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%  
%%% TABLES  
%%%  
%%% The different columns must be seperated with a & command and should  
%%% end with \\ to identify the column brake.  
%  
%%% ONE-COLUMN TABLE  
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%\begin{table}[t]  
%\caption{TEXT}  
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%\end{tabular}  
%\belowtable{} % Table Footnotes  
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%
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%%% given by the IUPAC Green Book (IUPAC: Quantities, Units and Symbols in Physical Chemistry,
%%% 2nd Edn., Blackwell Science, available at:
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%%%

%%% Physical quantities/variables are typeset in italic font (t for time, T for Temperature)

%%% Indices which are not defined are typeset in italic font (x, y, z, a, b, c)

%%% Items/objects which are defined are typeset in roman font (Car A, Car B)

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tot, net, ice)

%%% Abbreviations from 2 letters are typeset in roman font (RH, LAI)

%%% Vectors are identified in bold italic font using `\vec{x}`

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%%% Multiplication signs are typeset using the LaTeX commands `\times` (for vector products, grids,
and exponential notations) or `\cdot`

%%% The character `*` should not be applied as multiplication sign

%

%

%%% EQUATIONS

%

%%% Single-row equation

%

`%\begin{equation}`

%

`%\end{equation}`

%

%%% Multiline equation

%

`%\begin{align}`

`%& 3 + 5 = 8\\`

`%& 3 + 5 = 8\\`

`%& 3 + 5 = 8`

`%\end{align}`

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%  
%  
%%% MATRICES  
%  
%\begin{matrix}  
%x & y & z \\  
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%\end{matrix}  
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%%% ALGORITHM  
%  
%\begin{algorithm}  
%\caption{...}  
%\label{a1}  
%\begin{algorithmic}  
%...  
%\end{algorithmic}  
%\end{algorithm}  
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%  
%%% CHEMICAL FORMULAS AND REACTIONS  
%  
%%% For formulas embedded in the text, please use \chem{}  
%  
%%% The reaction environment creates labels including the letter R, i.e. (R1), (R2), etc.  
%  
%\begin{reaction}  
%%% \rightarrow should be used for normal (one-way) chemical reactions  
%%% \rightleftharpoons should be used for equilibria
```

%%% \leftrightarrow should be used for resonance structures

%\end{reaction}

%

%

%%% PHYSICAL UNITS

%%%

%%% Please use \unit{} and apply the exponential notation

\end{document}