

Note: The paper is a peer-reviewed preprint submitted to the Journal of the Indian Society of Remote Sensing.

Review Article

Emerging Remote Sensing Tools for Comprehensive Cryosphere Assessment

Mukesh Gupta

Arctus Inc., Rimouski, Québec, Canada

Present Affiliation: EOExplore Scientific (OPC) Private Limited, Roorkee 247667, Uttarakhand, India

Email: guptm@yahoo.com; (ORCID: [0000-0002-8955-6931](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8955-6931))

Submitted to EarthArXiv: October 27, 2025

Abstract

This review synthesizes current remote sensing (RS) applications for monitoring Earth's cryosphere, encompassing ice sheets, glaciers, sea ice, snow cover, permafrost, and mountain ice features. It examines how satellite-based technologies, including radar interferometry, laser altimetry, passive microwave sensors, and optical imagery, have revolutionized cryospheric science by enabling consistent monitoring across vast, inaccessible regions. Recent advances have dramatically improved measurements of ice mass balance, thickness distribution, surface velocity, and melt dynamics. The integration of multiple sensor platforms with machine learning algorithms is enhancing prediction capabilities while reducing uncertainties. As climate change accelerates cryospheric transformations, RS provides critical data for understanding feedback mechanisms, improving climate models, and assessing impacts on global systems, human communities, and water resources.

Keywords: Glacier, Ice sheet, Permafrost, Sea ice, Snow

1. Introduction

The cryosphere, Earth's frozen realm encompassing glaciers, ice sheets, sea ice, snow cover, and permafrost, plays a critical role in our planet's climate system and water cycle. The cryosphere serves as Earth's largest freshwater reservoir, storing approximately 70% of the world's freshwater as snow and ice. Mountain snowpack acts as a natural water tower, providing a seasonal water supply to billions of people downstream. The Antarctic and Greenland ice sheets and other glaciers account for 10% of the global land area (IPCC, 2013). The Antarctic Ice Sheet is the largest, containing about 26.5 million km³ of ice (equivalent to ~58.3 m of global sea level), while the Greenland Ice Sheet contains approximately 2.85 million km³ (equivalent to ~7.4 m of sea level), covering 8.3% and 1.2% of Earth's land surface, respectively. Glaciers and ice caps have a sea level equivalent ice volume of 0.32 m, covering just 0.5% of the global land surface (Bamber et al., 2018). Permafrost accounts for about 24% of the land area, mainly distributed in Siberia,

Alaska, Northern Canada, and the Tibetan Plateau (Zhang et al., 1999). Snow covers up to 30.6% of the global land area, with seasonally frozen ground making up 33% of the same. Antarctic and Arctic sea ice extend across 5.2% and 3.9% of the global ocean surface, respectively (IPCC, 2013). The cryosphere serves as a sensitive indicator of climate change. Understanding and protecting different cryospheric systems at different temporal and spatial scales using various technologies is therefore crucial for sustainable human development and climate adaptation strategies.

Over recent decades, remote sensing (RS) technologies have revolutionized our ability to monitor, measure, and understand these frozen environments at unprecedented spatial and temporal scales. This transformation has become increasingly vital as climate change accelerates the metamorphosis of cryospheric regions worldwide. RS offers distinct advantages in cryosphere research where harsh conditions, remoteness, and vast geographic expanses have historically limited direct field observations (Hall and Martinec, 1985). Satellite-based platforms now provide continuous, synoptic coverage of polar and alpine regions that were previously inaccessible or prohibitively expensive to monitor. These technological capabilities have enabled scientists to track subtle changes in ice mass balance, snow depth, sea ice extent, and permafrost degradation with remarkable precision.

The methodological toolkit for cryospheric RS has expanded dramatically. Optical sensors capture surface reflectance and albedo changes, while Thermal Infrared (TIR) instruments detect temperature variations across icy surfaces. Microwave radiometry measures Snow Water Equivalent (SWE) and differentiates between dry and wet snow conditions. Perhaps most transformative has been the application of radar technologies, from Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) that penetrates cloud cover to monitor ice dynamics, to radar altimetry that precisely measures elevation changes of ice sheets and glaciers. The Indian Remote Sensing (IRS) Satellite-derived digital elevation model (DEM), such as CartoDEM and the Light Detection And Ranging (LiDAR) systems, both airborne and spaceborne, now generate high-resolution DEMs that quantify volumetric changes in glaciers and ice caps. Gravimetry missions like Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) and GRACE-FO have revolutionized our understanding of total ice mass loss from Greenland and Antarctica. Hyperspectral imaging enables detailed analysis of snow chemistry, impurities, and grain size characteristics critical for modeling snow metamorphosis.

These technological developments have arrived at a crucial moment. As global temperatures rise, the cryosphere is experiencing rapid transformation with profound implications for sea level rise, freshwater availability, ecosystem dynamics, and human communities. RS provides the essential observational foundation for predicting these changes and developing adaptive strategies. This review examines the state-of-the-art RS technologies currently applied to cryospheric research and evaluates their strengths and limitations.

2. Ice Sheet and Glacier Monitoring

2.1. Mass Balance Assessment

Ice sheet mass balance is a measure of the overall health of an ice sheet, reflecting the net gain or loss of ice over a specific period. This includes all glaciers that contribute to the ice sheet's mass (caused by changes in ice extent, ice shelves, ice streams, or snow depth). Satellite altimetry stands as a cornerstone technique for quantifying ice mass dynamics, useful for global climate models. ICESat-2, launched in 2018, employs the Advanced Topographic Laser Altimeter System (ATLAS) with its six-beam photon-counting LiDAR. This configuration achieves unprecedented

spatial resolution (~17 m footprint) and vertical precision (<3 cm), enabling the detection of subtle elevation changes in ice sheets. ICESat-2's dense repeat measurements have revealed accelerating thinning patterns in West Antarctica and complex seasonal variability in Greenland's peripheral glaciers (Rignot et al., 2019).

CryoSat-2, operational since 2010, utilizes radar altimetry through its SAR/Interferometric Radar Altimeter (SIRAL). Its interferometric capabilities allow measurement over steep terrain, complementing ICESat-2's observations. CryoSat-2 data show a total Antarctic ice loss of approximately 150 billion tons annually, with a notable acceleration in the Amundsen Sea sector (The IMBIE team, 2018). Integrated use of the Indian satellite RISAT-1 C-band imagery and CartoDEM is instrumental for geospatial mapping of ice sheets in the Antarctic environment (Thakur et al., 2017).

Mass balance assessments now integrate multiple satellite datasets (The IMBIE team, 2018). Gravimetry from GRACE and GRACE-FO provides direct mass change measurements, while optical satellites (Landsat, Sentinel-2) track changes in ice extent. Technische Universität Dresden, Germany, generates the Gravimetric Mass Balance (GMB) basin products for the Antarctic ice sheet as part of the European Space Agency (ESA) Antarctic Ice Sheet Climate Change Initiative (CCI). Multi-mission approaches have improved uncertainty quantification, reducing error margins by ~30% (Berthier et al., 2023). Emerging techniques include Artificial Intelligence (AI)-enhanced data fusion and automated feature tracking. Machine learning (ML) algorithms now reconcile discrepancies between radar and laser altimetry measurements, addressing penetration depth variations in radar signals. While AI and ML rely on large quantities of training data and their ability to recognize fine patterns, these techniques can suffer from false positives and require timely upgrades with new data. These advances have transformed our understanding of ice sheet contributions to sea level rise, highlighting the critical importance of continued satellite monitoring programs for climate research and adaptation planning.

2.2. Ice Velocity Mapping

Changes in ice velocity often reflect variations in ice sheet mass balance. A positive mass balance leads to increased ice velocity as the glacier thickens and gains mass, while a negative mass balance can slow down ice velocity as the glacier thins. Two primary methodologies of ice velocity mapping dominate current research: radar interferometry and optical feature tracking. InSAR leverages phase differences between successive SAR acquisitions to measure surface displacement with millimeter-level precision. The Sentinel-1 constellation, with its 6-day repeat cycle, enables near-continuous observation of rapid changes. Studies using Sentinel-1 data have documented unprecedented acceleration of Jakobshavn Glacier in Greenland, with velocities exceeding 12 km/year during peak flow events (Lemos et al., 2018).

Optical feature tracking has evolved through improved image correlation algorithms applied to satellite imagery from Landsat-8 and Sentinel-2. The technique tracks distinctive surface features between sequential images to derive displacement vectors. Innovations in ML-based feature detection have reduced velocity uncertainty to below 5 m/year in optimal conditions (Łucka, 2025). Integration of these methodologies shows complex ice sheet behavior. In Antarctica, the REMA/ITS_LIVE initiative has produced comprehensive velocity maps showing widespread acceleration of Pine Island and Thwaites glaciers, with flow increases of 25-30% since 2000, significantly contributing to sea level rise (Christie et al., 2023). Temporal analysis of these datasets has identified seasonal velocity variations corresponding to surface meltwater availability,

particularly in Greenland's ablation zone. High-resolution TerraSAR-X data have further illuminated the mechanical coupling between ice flow and subglacial hydrology.

Emerging research now focuses on coupling velocity observations with ice thickness measurements to quantify mass flux directly, establishing critical boundary conditions for ice sheet models predicting future sea level contributions. ESA's CCI facilitates annual ice velocity map products of the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets derived from Sentinel-1 data targeting the Ice Sheets Essential Climate Variable (ECV).

2.3. Calving Front Dynamics

Glacier calving front dynamics represent a critical interface between terrestrial ice and ocean systems, with implications for sea level rise. Advancements in RS have changed our understanding of these complex processes. High-resolution optical sensors aboard Sentinel-2 and Landsat-8/9 (15 m panchromatic) now enable regular monitoring of glacier termini with unprecedented temporal frequency. The Dove constellation, providing daily imagery at 3 m resolution, has further revolutionized calving event detection by capturing rapid terminus fluctuations previously unobservable with traditional satellite revisit times.

ML algorithms have significantly improved automated calving front delineation. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) trained on manually digitized fronts now achieve positional accuracy within 20-30 m, facilitating consistent long-term records across multiple glacial systems. These datasets show accelerating retreat rates exceeding 500 m/year for marine-terminating glaciers in Greenland and Antarctica (Cheng et al., 2021).

TIR sensors aboard Terra (MODIS) and Landsat have enabled the quantification of meltwater plume dynamics at calving fronts, demonstrating their role in undercutting and structural destabilization. Complementary SAR data from TerraSAR-X and Sentinel-1 provide all-weather monitoring capability, showing seasonal patterns of calving intensification. Time-lapse photography and drone-based photogrammetry now supplement satellite observations with meter-scale resolution, capturing detailed calving mechanisms including tensile failure, rotational collapse, and submarine melt-induced events. Integration of these multi-sensor datasets has dramatically improved ice-ocean interaction models, particularly in identifying the relative contributions of atmospheric forcing versus oceanic thermal erosion in driving calving rates, essential for projecting future glacier behavior under climate change scenarios.

2.4. Surface Melt Mapping

Passive microwave instruments remain foundational for melt detection, with sensors Special Sensor Microwave Imager/Sounder (SSMIS) and Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer-2 (AMSR-2) operating at frequencies (19 to 37 GHz) sensitive to liquid water presence. The dramatic increase in surface emissivity during melt events creates a distinctive microwave signature, enabling daily hemispheric mapping despite cloud cover. Algorithm refinements incorporating ML techniques have improved detection sensitivity, showing previously unrecognized short-duration melt events at high elevations in Greenland and East Antarctica.

MODIS TIR, Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS), and Landsat provide complementary surface temperature measurements at higher spatial resolutions (0.1 to 1 km). The latest Landsat-9 thermal data, with improved radiometric resolution, can detect subtle temperature gradients approaching the melting point. Integration of multiple thermal datasets has enabled the

creation of continuous 20-year temperature records. It shows amplified warming rates of 0.5 to 0.8°C per decade across peripheral ice sheet regions (Kanzow et al., 2025).

Advanced data fusion approaches now combine passive microwave, TIR, and active radar observations to characterize melt intensity, duration, and water retention. Sentinel-1 SAR data have proven particularly valuable for identifying subsurface melt layer formation and refreezing patterns through backscatter analysis. NASA's Operation IceBridge (2009-2019) and the Programme for Monitoring of the Greenland Ice Sheet (PROMICE) provide the most comprehensive field observation data on the cryosphere in the Arctic and Antarctic regions. These integrated datasets have documented unprecedented melt extent in recent years, with Greenland experiencing above-average melt seasons in seven of the past 10 years. The 2021 melt season registered pan-Arctic sea ice surface melt onset approximately two weeks earlier than the 1981-2010 average, highlighting cryospheric change with implications for albedo feedback mechanisms and freshwater input to ocean systems.

3. Sea Ice Characterization

3.1. Extent and Concentration

Satellite RS of sea ice extent and concentration has improved our understanding of polar climate dynamics. Passive microwave radiometers such as SSMIS, AMSR2, and AMSR-E provide the backbone of daily sea ice monitoring, offering continuous hemispheric coverage regardless of solar illumination or cloud conditions. These sensors detect microwave emissions at multiple frequencies (primarily 19 to 37 GHz), exploiting the substantial emissivity difference between sea ice and open water. The NASA Team 2 and ARTIST Sea Ice (ASI) algorithms remain predominant for deriving concentration products, with neural network-based approaches reducing retrieval errors near the ice edge and in areas of thin ice formation.

The resulting 44-year satellite record documents a dramatic Arctic sea ice decline, with the September minimum extent decreasing by approximately 13.1% per decade relative to the 1981-2010 average (Perovich et al., 2020). The 2023 minimum ranked second-lowest in the satellite era at 4.23 million km², significantly below the 6.2 million km² climatological average (NSIDC, 2023). Current projections suggest nearly ice-free Arctic summers, likely before 2050 (Jahn et al., 2024). Antarctic sea ice exhibits more complex behavior, with slightly increasing trends from 1979 to 2014, followed by an unprecedented rapid decline since 2016 (Parkinson, 2019). The February 2023 Antarctic minimum shattered previous records at 1.79 million km², approximately 30% below the previous historical minimum (Gorodetskaya et al., 2023).

New advances include enhanced resolution products from AMSR2 (3.125 km) and integration with SAR data from Sentinel-1, enabling improved characterization of ice edge dynamics and polynyas. ML techniques now facilitate automated sea ice classification into age categories, critical for assessing the transition from thicker multiyear to thinner first-year ice dominance in the Arctic basin. The Multidisciplinary drifting Observatory for the Study of Arctic Climate (MOSAiC) expedition, a one-year-long expedition into the Central Arctic (September 2019 - October 2020), acquired field data on an annual cycle of physical, biological, and chemical processes in the Arctic sea ice system. These datasets provide essential validation for climate models and highlight amplified polar warming rates.

3.2. Thickness Estimation

Sea ice thickness estimation has advanced manifold through multi-sensor RS approaches, providing crucial insights into polar ice volume dynamics and energy exchange processes. Radar altimeters remain foundational, with CryoSat-2's SIRAL instrument delivering unprecedented freeboard measurements at 92-day repeat cycles since 2010. Algorithm refinements have improved lead detection and retracking procedures, reducing thickness uncertainty to approximately ± 0.5 m for level ice (Kacimi and Kwok, 2024). The Sentinel-3 constellation now provides complementary SAR altimetry data with enhanced temporal resolution, enabling bi-weekly Arctic coverage.

Laser altimetry from ICESat-2 has transformed thickness estimation through its multi-beam LiDAR system. With 17 m footprints and 0.7 m along-track sampling, ICESat-2 captures detailed freeboard topography, including pressure ridges and leads with centimeter-level precision. The laser measures snow-air interfaces, complementing radar measurements of ice-snow boundaries.

Integration of passive microwave data from AMSR2 and Soil Moisture Ocean Salinity (SMOS) has enhanced snow depth estimation, a critical parameter for freeboard-to-thickness conversion. L-band radiometry from SMOS additionally provides independent thin ice thickness estimates up to 0.5 m through emission modeling (Kaleschke et al., 2012; Gupta et al., 2019). ESA's campaign SMOSice provides thin ice thickness field observations to validate satellite data. Data fusion approaches combining radar, laser, and passive microwave observations have reduced overall thickness uncertainties from $\sim 40\%$ to $\sim 20\text{--}25\%$ (Wang et al., 2020). ML techniques now address regional variability in snow density and ice-freeboard conversion factors. These multi-platform measurements bring out alarming trends: Arctic sea ice mean thickness has declined from 2.35 m in 1982 to 1.13 m in 2020, with multiyear ice volume decreasing approximately 2% annually (Wang et al., 2022). Volume calculations demonstrate increasing seasonal amplitude, with winter recovery insufficient to offset summer losses. Current Arctic datasets show 2023 winter maximum volumes 30% below 1980s averages (Kacimi and Kwok, 2024). Antarctic thickness estimation remains challenging but has improved through targeted CryoSat-2/ICESat-2 cross-calibration efforts, bringing out unexpectedly thin ice (~ 0.7 m mean) in key sectors (Kacimi and Kwok, 2024).

3.3. Ice Type Classification

Sea ice type classification provides critical insights into changing polar ice regimes. SAR has emerged as the preeminent technology for discriminating ice types due to its all-weather, day-night imaging capabilities and sensitivity to ice structural properties. C-band SAR systems aboard RISAT-1, Sentinel-1, and RADARSAT-2 effectively distinguish first-year from multiyear ice based on backscatter intensity differences resulting from distinct salinity profiles and air bubble distributions (Singha and Ressel, 2017). Multi-year ice typically exhibits 3 to 5 dB higher backscatter due to its desalinated structure and volume scattering characteristics (Onstott, 1992). Advances in dual-polarization and compact polarimetric modes have enhanced classification accuracy to approximately 85 to 90% under optimal conditions (Ainsworth et al., 2009).

CNN trained on extensive SAR datasets now automates ice-type mapping with unprecedented efficiency, integrating textural features with backscatter properties. These algorithms successfully identify transitional ice types, including second-year ice, a previously challenging intermediate category with implications for accurate age distribution assessment. Integration of SAR with complementary sensors has further refined classification. SMOS L-band

radiometry provides additional thin ice discrimination, while passive microwave radiometers contribute large-scale context through gradient ratio techniques sensitive to the ice age. The ICESat-2/CryoSat-2 altimetry synthesis adds thickness constraints that significantly improve classification confidence.

These multi-sensor classifications document profound Arctic transformation: multiyear ice coverage has declined from approximately 60% of winter Arctic ice in the 1980s to below 25% today (Comiso, 2012). The Beaufort Gyre and Transpolar Drift regions show a particularly accelerated transition to first-year ice dominance, with implications for navigability, ecosystem dynamics, and climate feedback. New classifications show that ice older than four years now comprises less than 5% of Arctic cover, compared to approximately 30% in 1985, fundamentally altering ice mechanical properties and melt resistance (Meier et al., 2021).

3.4. Sea Ice Dynamics

Sequential SAR observations have transformed sea ice dynamics monitoring. Sentinel-1's constellation now enables unprecedented tracking of ice motion vectors through feature tracking and phase-based interferometric techniques. High-resolution SAR from the RISAT series of satellites, RADARSAT-2, and TerraSAR-X (achieving 3 to 5 m resolution) captures detailed deformation processes including ridging, rafting, and lead formation. Cross-platform image correlation algorithms demonstrate improved displacement accuracy (± 0.1 to 0.3 pixels), which shows subtle kinematic patterns previously undetectable (Howell et al., 2022).

ML approaches have revolutionized automated lead detection, identifying these critical features with >90% accuracy (Chen et al., 2024). Lead dynamics analysis now shows increased fracturing frequency across the Arctic basin, with linear kinematic features appearing earlier each season. Motion products derived from sequential imagery show accelerating mean ice drift velocities, increasing approximately 15% per decade basin-wide since 2000 (Spren et al., 2011). The Beaufort Gyre circulation has intensified significantly, with clockwise rotation velocities approximately 25% faster than historical norms (Zhang et al., 2016). These observations validate predictions of strengthened ice-atmosphere momentum coupling in thinner ice regimes.

Integration of optical and thermal sensors complements SAR observations through visible feature tracking and thermal signature analysis of newly formed leads. Passive microwave radiometry provides complementary large-scale context at daily intervals. The emerging integration of SAR-derived dynamics with altimetry-derived thickness produces comprehensive rheological datasets essential for next-generation sea ice models, facilitating improved forecasting capabilities across daily to seasonal timescales.

4. Snow Cover Analysis

4.1. Snow Extent Mapping

Snow extent (on land and sea ice) mapping provides critical data for hydrological modeling, climate studies, and ecosystem monitoring (Pulliainen et al., 2020). Optical sensors remain foundational for high-resolution snow detection due to snow's distinctive reflectance properties in visible and near-infrared wavelengths. The IRS-P6 or Resourcesat-1 Advanced Wide Field Sensor (AWiFS) provides high radiometric resolution data suitable for snow cover analysis. The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument aboard Terra and Aqua satellites delivers daily global snow cover products at 500 m resolution through the Normalized Difference

Snow Index (NDSI), exploiting reflectance contrasts between visible (0.55 μm) and Shortwave Infrared (SWIR) (1.6 μm) bands. Algorithm refinements incorporating ML techniques have reduced misclassification in forest canopies by approximately 20%, addressing a persistent challenge in vegetated regions (Dobreva and Klein, 2011).

The Sentinel-2 constellation, with 20 m resolution and 5-day revisit capability, has revolutionized regional snow mapping. Its enhanced spectral and spatial resolution enables the detection of patchy snow distributions and precise snowline delineation in complex terrain. Integration of Landsat-8/9 observations provides complementary coverage with thermal data, facilitating snow/cloud discrimination. The analysis of these datasets shows dramatic trends: Northern Hemisphere Spring snow cover has declined approximately 13% per decade since 1979, with mountain regions experiencing disproportionate losses (Brown and Robinson, 2011; Notarnicola, 2022). Snow season duration has contracted by 5 to 10 days per decade across mid-latitudes, with earlier spring melt driving most changes (Pörtner et al., 2019).

Challenges persist in cloudy regions, though data fusion approaches combining optical observations with all-weather microwave data from AMSR2 and Sentinel-1 SAR increasingly mitigate coverage gaps. ML algorithms now generate daily gap-free products by intelligently merging multi-sensor observations with terrain parameters and meteorological data (Yatheendradas and Kumar, 2022; Törsleff, 2024).

4.2. Snow Water Equivalent

SWE retrieval (for both sea ice and land) via RS has advanced significantly through multi-frequency passive microwave approaches. The AMSR2 and SSMIS remain primary sensors, utilizing brightness temperature differences between 18 to 37 GHz channels to estimate snow depth based on volume scattering principles. Algorithm refinements address historical limitations in dense forests and deep/wet snowpacks. The AMSR2 SWE product now incorporates dynamic vegetation correction factors and improved grain size parameterization, reducing retrieval errors from $\pm 40\%$ to approximately $\pm 25\%$ in optimal conditions (Gan et al., 2021). ML approaches trained on extensive ground measurements have further enhanced retrieval accuracy, particularly in the Hindu Kush Himalayas (HKH), where traditional algorithms struggle with terrain complexity.

Integration of active microwave observations from Sentinel-1 C-band SAR has improved wet snow detection and layering characterization. The innovative SWE SAR and Radiometer (SWESARR) airborne instrument, combining active/passive L/Ku-band measurements, demonstrates a promising path forward for satellite SWE missions. Spatiotemporal pattern analysis of the 40+ year passive microwave record brings out concerning trends: Northern Hemisphere maximum SWE has declined approximately 4% per decade, with earlier peak accumulation timing by approximately 8 days since 1980 (Luo et al., 2021). Mountain snowpack exhibits particularly pronounced decreases, with the western United States experiencing 15 to 30% SWE reductions (Mote et al., 2018).

The NASA SnowEx campaign has systematically evaluated retrieval approaches across diverse snow conditions, identifying optimal sensor combinations for future dedicated SWE satellite missions. Current research emphasizes data assimilation (i.e., merging observations with model predictions using variational (3D-Var, 4D-Var), Kalman filter, and ensemble methods) techniques that optimally combine multi-sensor observations with physical snow models,

producing more robust operational SWE products for water resource management and flood forecasting applications.

4.3. Snowmelt Timing

RS provides crucial phenological markers for climate change assessment across inaccessible terrain. Multi-sensor approaches now deliver unprecedented temporal precision in characterizing this critical hydrological transition. In addition to snowmelt timing, satellite RS provides information on snow cover extent, snow albedo, and snow surface temperature, which are crucial inputs for snowmelt runoff models. Optical sensors from MODIS and VIIRS document surface reflectance evolution during snowmelt phases, with NDSI time series showing characteristic sigmoidal decay patterns during the transition from dry to wet snow to complete melt. Enhanced algorithms incorporating ML techniques now identify melt onset with ± 2 to 3-day precision, significantly improving upon earlier threshold-based approaches (El Jabiri et al., 2024).

Passive microwave sensors provide complementary, weather-independent detection capabilities by capturing the distinctive diurnal amplitude variations in brightness temperature that accompany initial liquid water presence in the snowpack. The cross-polarized gradient ratio algorithm applied to AMSR2 data identifies melt onset when diurnal differences exceed empirically derived thresholds, functioning effectively across diverse snow conditions. Time-series analysis of these datasets documents significant phenological shifts. Alpine regions show melt onset advancing by 2 to 5 days per decade since the 1980s (Pörtner et al., 2019), with high-Arctic regions experiencing even more pronounced changes of 6 to 8 days per decade (Stroeve et al., 2014). Melt duration has lengthened by approximately 15% across Northern Hemisphere snow-covered regions, with implications for regional albedo feedback mechanisms (Li and Fan, 2025).

Integration of Sentinel-1 SAR backscatter time-series has enhanced the detection of wet snow phases through the characteristic backscatter drop (3 to 5 dB) occurring with liquid water introduction. ML fusion of optical, passive microwave, and SAR observations now provides daily, gap-free melt status maps supporting improved streamflow forecasting and ecosystem modeling. These remotely sensed indicators serve as essential validation metrics for climate models, confirming accelerated cryospheric change across global snow-covered regions.

4.4. Avalanche Monitoring

Avalanche monitoring using high-resolution SAR technologies enables systematic detection across previously unobservable terrain. Sentinel-1's interferometric (InSAR) capabilities now enable semi-automated avalanche detection through coherence loss analysis between sequential acquisitions. ML classifiers achieve detection accuracy exceeding 85% by integrating multiple SAR parameters, including backscatter change, coherence, and textural features (Kneib et al., 2024). TerraSAR-X and COSMO-SkyMed provide complementary X-band observations at resolutions approaching 1 m, capturing smaller avalanche events previously undetectable.

Optical imagery from Sentinel-2 (10 m resolution) and commercial platforms like the Dove constellation (3 m) complements radar-based detection during clear conditions. Multi-temporal Red-Green-Blue (RGB) compositing effectively visualizes debris contrasts, while semi-automated classification approaches utilizing spectral and textural signatures have improved detection in challenging lighting conditions. Integration of remotely sensed avalanche inventories with DEMs has revolutionized hazard assessment. ML models now combine observed avalanche frequencies

with terrain parameters to generate high-resolution susceptibility maps. The European Alps' comprehensive inventory documents over 20,000 events annually, which shows increasing wet-snow avalanche frequency at mid-elevations consistent with warming trends (Mayer et al., 2024).

Emerging applications include Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) based photogrammetry and LiDAR for detailed post-event volume quantification and radar-based detection of precursor snowpack instability signatures. Near-real-time (NRT) detection systems now operationally support hazard management in critical transportation corridors, with latency reduced to under 6 hours in priority regions (Denissova et al., 2024).

5. Permafrost Studies

5.1. Active Layer Monitoring

Advances in RS have provided crucial insights into thaw dynamics in polar and high-altitude regions. InSAR has emerged as a particularly powerful tool due to its ability to detect millimeter-scale ground deformation associated with seasonal freeze-thaw cycles. For permafrost studies, the NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar (NISAR) measures heave and thaw in the near-surface active layer of permafrost. InSAR analysis of sequential radar acquisitions can quantify seasonal ground subsidence patterns, serving as a proxy for active layer thickness. Studies across Alaska, Canada, and Siberia demonstrate strong correlations between InSAR-detected subsidence and in situ measurements of thaw depth, validating this approach for regional-scale monitoring. Multi-temporal InSAR has revealed dramatic trends of increasing active layer thickness in many Arctic regions, aligning with climate warming observations. When combined with optical satellite data and DEMs, researchers have developed algorithms that account for vegetation interference and topographic factors that influence permafrost dynamics.

ML integration has further enhanced active layer prediction accuracy by incorporating additional variables like snow cover duration and soil moisture. These integrated approaches now enable year-round tracking of permafrost conditions across previously inaccessible terrain. Circumarctic Active Layer Monitoring (CALM) is one of the key long-term permafrost monitoring networks that conducts field campaigns across the Arctic to measure active layer thickness. As Arctic warming accelerates, these RS techniques provide essential data for climate models and infrastructure risk assessment in vulnerable regions, representing a critical advancement in permafrost science.

5.2. Thermokarst Landscape Mapping

Thermokarst landscapes are critical indicators of permafrost degradation in Arctic and subarctic regions. High-resolution optical imagery has become instrumental in identifying characteristic thermokarst features with unprecedented detail and coverage. Submeter-resolution satellite platforms like WorldView-3 and SkySat constellation now effectively capture thermokarst lakes, retrogressive thaw slumps, and thermal erosion gullies at various stages of development. When combined with multispectral data, researchers can classify these features based on both morphological characteristics and spectral signatures of disturbed vegetation and exposed soil.

Time-series analysis of optical imagery has shown alarming expansion rates of thermokarst features across Alaska, Canada, and Siberia, with some regions experiencing a 25 to 30% increase in thermokarst lake area over the past decade (Luo et al., 2022). ML algorithms trained on these datasets now achieve classification accuracies >85% for mapping complex thermokarst landscapes

(Zhang et al., 2024). Integration of LiDAR, ground-penetrating radar (GPR), and Structure-from-Motion (SfM) photogrammetry has further enhanced our ability to quantify volumetric changes in retrogressive thaw slumps, providing crucial data on carbon release potential. These combined approaches enable scientists to establish baseline conditions for long-term monitoring of permafrost degradation processes, essential for climate modeling and infrastructure planning in rapidly changing Arctic environments.

5.3. Ground Temperature Estimation

Innovations in TIR RS provide a crucial spatial context for understanding permafrost vulnerability. Modern satellite-based TIR sensors like TIRS-2 (Landsat-9) and ECOsystem Spaceborne Thermal Radiometer Experiment on Space Station (ECOSTRESS) now deliver thermal data at resolutions suitable for regional permafrost monitoring, capturing diurnal and seasonal temperature fluctuations.

Advanced modeling approaches integrate TIR observations with physical heat transfer principles. ML algorithms trained on in situ temperature measurements address challenges related to the thermal offset between surface and subsurface temperatures, achieving validation accuracies within $\pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ for multiple Arctic regions (Chance et al., 2024). Multi-source data fusion techniques combining TIR imagery with microwave-derived snow cover properties, vegetation indices, and soil moisture estimates have further enhanced model performance by accounting for insulating effects that influence the ground thermal regime. These integrative approaches now enable the reconstruction of annual temperature cycles even in areas with frequent cloud cover limitations.

Analysis of thermal RS products shows warming trends in permafrost temperatures across circumpolar regions, with some areas experiencing temperature increases exceeding 2°C over the past decade (Bykova, 2020). This spatial temperature monitoring provides essential boundary conditions for permafrost models and early warning indicators for infrastructure vulnerability in rapidly warming Arctic landscapes.

5.4. Methane Emission Detection

Developments in RS technology for the detection and monitoring of methane emissions from thawing permafrost regions have provided unprecedented insights into this critical climate feedback mechanism. Hyperspectral imaging systems now deployed on airborne and satellite platforms can identify methane absorption features in the SWIR spectrum at increasingly fine spatial resolutions. The PRecurso IperSpettrale della Missione Applicativa (PRISMA) and Environmental Monitoring and Analysis Program (EnMAP) hyperspectral satellite missions have demonstrated capabilities for detecting methane hotspots across Arctic landscapes by leveraging distinctive absorption features at 1.65 and 2.3 μm wavelengths. When combined with ML algorithms, these sensors can differentiate permafrost-related methane sources from anthropogenic emissions with classification accuracies $>80\%$ (Růžicka et al., 2023).

Drone-mounted compact hyperspectral systems have further enhanced detection sensitivity, allowing researchers to identify localized methane seeps associated with thermokarst lakes and thaw slumps. These datasets show temporal patterns, with some Arctic regions showing a 15 to 20% increase in methane emission intensity during summer thaw periods over the past five years (Ward et al., 2024). Integration of hyperspectral data with microwave observations has

improved methane detection under varied atmospheric conditions, addressing previous limitations of optical techniques. These combined approaches now provide crucial quantitative constraints for greenhouse gas inventories and climate models, highlighting the accelerating role of permafrost degradation in global methane budgets and emphasizing the urgent need for expanded monitoring networks across vulnerable high-latitude ecosystems.

6. Mountain Cryosphere Applications

6.1. Alpine Glacier Inventory

While ice sheet glaciers (also known as continental glaciers) contain the vast majority (over 99%) of Earth's glacial ice, mountain glaciers account for a small fraction of the total glacial ice volume. RS has enabled comprehensive monitoring of small mountain glaciers previously underrepresented in global datasets. To estimate long- and short-term glacier retreat, topographic maps and imageries of Linear Imaging Self Scanner (LISS)-III (23.5 m) and LISS-IV (5.8 m) sensors of IRS satellite series data are very useful (Kulkarni, 2010). High-resolution optical imagery from platforms like Sentinel-2 and commercial satellites (<1 m resolution) now allows precise delineation of glacier boundaries even for glaciers smaller than 0.1 km², which constitute a significant portion of alpine ice reserves. Semi-automated classification algorithms leveraging spectral indices (primarily NDSI and band ratios) combined with ML approaches have achieved classification accuracies exceeding 95% for clean ice, while successfully addressing challenges of debris-covered glacier mapping through integration of thermal and SAR data (He et al., 2024). These methodological improvements have facilitated the first complete inventories of smaller mountain ranges previously excluded from global assessments.

Analysis across major mountain regions shows alarming rates of glacier area loss, with some alpine regions experiencing a 20 to 30% reduction in glaciated area since 2000 (Tielidze et al., 2022). Updated inventories, in addition to the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI), incorporating these high-resolution datasets, have significantly refined global estimates of mountain glacier contribution to sea level rise, indicating previous underestimation by approximately 8 to 12% (Sakai, 2019).

Cloud-based processing platforms like Google Earth Engine have democratized glacier inventory creation, enabling rapid updates following significant glacier-altering events. NASA-funded High Mountain Asia (HMA) field campaign data collection includes data related to snow and ice in a region that stretches across five mountain ranges, including the HKH region. These enhanced inventories now provide essential validation data for climate models and critical baseline information for hydrological forecasting in glacier-fed watersheds, where water resource planning increasingly depends on an accurate understanding of remaining ice reserves.

6.2. Snow Line Altitude

Monitoring of snow line altitude (SLA) and equilibrium line altitude (ELA) on mountain glaciers provides crucial metrics for assessing glacier health and climate change impacts. Multi-temporal imagery from platforms like IRS-P6 (AWiFS), Sentinel-2, and Landsat-9 now enables systematic tracking of these parameters at unprecedented spatial and temporal resolutions across previously inaccessible mountain ranges. Advanced classification algorithms combining spectral indices, topographic corrections, and ML approaches have improved the accuracy of snow/ice boundary delineation, achieving classification accuracies >90% even in challenging shadowed terrain

(Prieur et al., 2022). An analysis leveraging these methodologies shows upward migration trends in ELA across most mountain regions, with some areas experiencing 10 to 15 m annual increases over the past decade (Tielidze et al., 2025).

As compared to glaciers on ice sheets, which are vast, covering entire landmasses, the mountain glaciers are smaller and confined to mountainous regions. The concept of mass balance applies to mountain glaciers, too; however, the method of its estimation may be different, which requires SLA/ELA monitoring. Cloud-based processing frameworks have facilitated the development of NRT SLA monitoring systems that track the seasonal evolution of the snowline throughout the ablation season. When integrated with DEMs, these approaches yield valuable mass balance proxies that correlate strongly with ground-based glaciological measurements in the mountain glacier regions. Regional analyses across major mountain ranges demonstrate that SLA/ELA variables serve as sensitive indicators of climate forcing, responding more rapidly to temperature anomalies than changes in glacier area or length. These RS-derived parameters now offer early warning indicators of hydrological regime shifts in glacier-fed watersheds, critical for water resource management in warming mountain environments.

6.3. Rock Glacier Monitoring

InSAR techniques have emerged as particularly powerful tools for quantifying rock glacier kinematics at high spatial and temporal resolutions across extensive mountain ranges. Multi-temporal InSAR analyses using data from Sentinel-1 and high-resolution X-band SAR systems now enable the detection of millimeter-scale glacier displacements. Studies across the European Alps, Andes, and the Himalayas demonstrate that rock glacier velocities have accelerated by 10 to 30% in many regions over the past decade, suggesting permafrost warming in response to climate change (Hu et al., 2025).

Advanced time-series InSAR techniques like Persistent Scatterer Interferometry (PSI) and Small Baseline Subset (SBAS) approaches have overcome previous limitations related to temporal decorrelation in mountainous terrain, enabling continuous monitoring even in challenging alpine environments. Integration of InSAR-derived velocity fields with thermal data and geomorphological mapping has established quantitative relationships between rock glacier rheology and ground thermal conditions.

ML algorithms now leverage these integrated datasets to classify rock glaciers by activity status with accuracies exceeding 85%, contributing to the first comprehensive global inventories of these features (Robson et al., 2020). These RS approaches provide crucial insights into mountain permafrost dynamics and associated natural hazards while establishing rock glaciers as valuable indicators of climate change impacts in high-mountain environments where direct permafrost measurements remain scarce.

6.4. Seasonal Snow Cover

Monitoring of seasonal snow cover in mountain regions is crucial for water resource management and climate change assessment. Platforms like Sentinel-2 and Terra (daily revisit) now enable comprehensive tracking of snow cover extent, duration, and melt patterns across complex terrain at high spatial and temporal resolutions. ML classification algorithms incorporating spectral indices (primarily NDSI), topographic corrections, and atmospheric compensation techniques have achieved snow detection accuracies exceeding 95% in most mountain environments

(Kesikoglu, 2025). When applied to time-series imagery, these approaches yield detailed Snow Cover Duration (SCD) metrics that show trends across many mountain ranges, with some regions experiencing 5 to 7-day reductions in SCD per decade (Almagioni et al., 2025).

Cloud-based NRT snow monitoring systems are capable of tracking accumulation and ablation dynamics throughout winter. Integration with DEMs enables snow line tracking at catchment scales, providing essential inputs for hydrological forecasting models in snow-dominated watersheds. The fusion of optical and passive microwave data has addressed limitations related to cloud cover and forest interference, enabling continuous monitoring under varied environmental conditions. With continued warming, these monitoring systems provide early warning of shifts in seasonal water availability that impact millions of downstream inhabitants.

6.5. Glacial Lakes

Glacial lake monitoring addresses urgent concerns about glacier dynamics and geohazard risks in mountain regions. Both proglacial and supraglacial lakes represent vital components of the mountain cryosphere, with profound implications for glacier health and catastrophic glacial lake outburst flood (GLOF) potential. Recent geodetic and RS studies have established comprehensive monitoring frameworks utilizing multi-temporal satellite imagery from Landsat, Sentinel-2, and high-resolution commercial platforms (Williamson et al., 2018). These approaches enable systematic detection of lake formation, expansion, and drainage patterns across previously inaccessible terrain.

Studies indicate proglacial lakes in high mountain regions are increasing dramatically, approximately 50% in numbers, 30% by area, and 40% by volume during recent decades (King et al., 2019; Furian et al., 2022). This expansion heightens GLOF vulnerability, with RS identifying over 15,000 glacial lakes globally requiring monitoring. The Himalayas exhibit particularly concerning trends (Kulkarni and Karyakarte, 2014), where integration of lake bathymetry from ICESat-2 and high-resolution DEMs reveals substantial volume increases (Qi et al., 2022).

Research demonstrates codependent relationships between proglacial lakes and accelerated ice mass loss in lake-terminating glaciers (Zhang et al., 2023). TIR observations document enhanced calving rates driven by lake-induced thermal undercutting, creating feedback mechanisms that compound overall glacier retreat. InSAR provides millimeter-scale surface deformation around unstable moraine dams, enabling early warning system development.

7. Conclusions and Outlook

RS has transformed cryospheric science by enabling comprehensive monitoring of ice sheets, sea ice, snow cover, permafrost, and mountain glaciers across unprecedented spatial and temporal scales. Combining optical imagery with SAR, LiDAR, and thermal sensors now enables the simultaneous capture of physical, thermal, and topographic properties of snow and ice features with unprecedented accuracy. Deep learning frameworks have improved parameter retrieval accuracy for critical variables like SWE and ice thickness. Big data generated by Earth observation platforms can be challenging to handle for meaningful utilization. Next-generation sensor integration will probably focus on edge computing solutions that facilitate real-time data fusion across platforms, providing crucial information for climate modeling and early warning systems in vulnerable cold regions.

Fine-resolution data are required for snow cover, mass balance, permafrost, and sea ice. UAV platforms can provide centimeter-resolution data that bridges the critical gap between field measurements and satellite observations. Validation of RS observations can be challenging in polar cryosphere research, e.g., sea ice/glacier motion. The integration of multi-sensor drone payloads with field-based measurements is establishing new methodological standards for validating satellite observations. In the future, swarming drone technologies promise synoptic high-resolution monitoring capabilities across broader spatial extents, potentially revolutionizing our understanding of fine-scale heterogeneity in the changing cryosphere.

Monitoring alpine and polar snow at high temporal frequency is still a limitation. Planned hyperspectral and SAR CubeSat constellations promise transformative capabilities for comprehensive cryosphere monitoring (from weekly to daily), potentially providing NRT alerts for hazardous events like GLOFs, melt runoff, and avalanches in remote mountain regions. As the cryosphere continues to respond dramatically to climate warming, the integration of multi-sensor platforms (e.g., NISAR), CubeSat constellations, and AI-driven analytics promises even greater insights. NISAR's dual-frequency (L- and S-band) SARs allow unprecedented precision in monitoring ice dynamics. Its 6-day revisit capability is crucial for capturing rapid changes in ice flow and seasonal variations. The Thermal infraRed Imaging Satellite for High-resolution Natural resource Assessment (TRISHNA) mission will enable high-resolution thermal monitoring of ice surfaces. The RISAT series of SAR satellites is effective for monitoring sea ice dynamics and extent and for tracking coastal ice conditions. Future research must focus on reducing uncertainties and enhancing prediction capabilities to address the cascading impacts of cryospheric change on global systems.

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Shailesh Nayak, Director, National Institute for Advanced Studies (NIAS), Bengaluru, India, for the encouragement to write this review article.

Conflict of Interest: The author has no conflict of interest to declare.

Funding: This work received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

References

1. Ainsworth, T.L., Kelly, J.P., and Lee, J.S., 2009. Classification comparisons between dual-pol, compact polarimetric, and quad-pol SAR imagery. *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing*, 64(5), pp.464-471.
2. Almagioni, C.D., Manara, V., Diolaiuti, G.A., Maugeri, M., Spezza, A. and Fugazza, D., 2025. Snow Cover Variability and Trends over Karakoram, Western Himalaya, and the Kunlun Mountains During the MODIS Era (2001–2024). *Remote Sensing*, 17(5), p.914.
3. Bamber, J.L., Westaway, R.M., Marzeion, B. and Wouters, B., 2018. The land ice contribution to sea level during the satellite era. *Environmental Research Letters*, 13(6), p.063008.
4. Berthier, E., Floricioiu, D., Gardner, A. S., Gourmelen, N., Jakob, L., Paul, F., Treichler, D., Wouters, B., Belart, J. M. C., Dehecq, A., Dussaillant, I., Hugonnet, R., Kaab, A. M., Krieger, L., Pálsson, F.,

- and Zemp, M.: Measuring Glacier Mass Changes from Space - A Review, Reports on Progress in Physics, doi: 10.1088/1361-6633/acaf8e, 2023.
5. Brown, R.D. and Robinson, D.A., 2011. Northern Hemisphere Spring snow cover variability and change over 1922–2010, including an assessment of uncertainty. *The Cryosphere*, 5(1), pp.219-229.
 6. Bykova, A., 2020. Permafrost Thaw in a Warming World: The Arctic Institute's Permafrost Series Fall-Winter 2020. Arctic Institute, 1.
 7. Chance, R., Ahajjam, A., Putkonen, J. and Pasch, T., 2024. Artificial intelligence for predicting Arctic permafrost and active layer temperatures along the Alaskan North Slope. *Earth Science Informatics*, pp.1-19.
 8. Chen, J., Mu, L., Jia, X., and Chen, X., 2024. The detection of Arctic sea ice linear kinematic features using LadderNet. *Ocean Modelling*, p.102400.
 9. Cheng, D., Hayes, W., Larour, E., Mohajerani, Y., Wood, M., Velicogna, I., and Rignot, E.: Calving Front Machine (CALFIN): glacial termini dataset and automated deep learning extraction method for Greenland, 1972–2019, *The Cryosphere*, 15, 1663–1675, <https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-15-1663-2021>, 2021.
 10. Christie, F.D., Steig, E.J., Goumelen, N., Tett, S.F. and Bingham, R.G., 2023. Inter-decadal climate variability induces differential ice response along Pacific-facing West Antarctica. *Nature Communications*, 14(1), p.93.
 11. Comiso, J.C., 2012. Large decadal decline of the Arctic multiyear ice cover. *Journal of Climate*, 25(4), pp.1176-1193.
 12. Denissova, N., Nurakynov, S., Petrova, O., Chepashev, D., Daumova, G., and Yelisseyeva, A., 2024. Remote sensing techniques for assessing snow avalanche formation factors and building hazard monitoring systems. *Atmosphere*, 15(11), p.1343.
 13. Dobreva, I.D. and Klein, A.G., 2011. Fractional snow cover mapping through artificial neural network analysis of MODIS surface reflectance. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 115(12), pp.3355-3366.
 14. El Jabiri, Y., Boudhar, A., Htitiou, A., Sproles, E.A., Bousbaa, M., Bouamri, H., and Chehbouni, A., 2024. A method for robust estimation of snow seasonality metrics from Landsat and Sentinel-2 time series data over Atlas Mountains scale using Google Earth Engine. *Geocarto International*, 39(1), p.2313001.
 15. Furian, W., Maussion, F., and Schneider, C., 2022. Projected 21st-century glacial lake evolution in High Mountain Asia. *Frontiers in Earth Science*, 10, p.821798.
 16. Gan, Y., Zhang, Y., Kongoli, C., Grassotti, C., Liu, Y., Lee, Y.K. and Seo, D.J., 2021. Evaluation and blending of ATMS and AMSR2 snow water equivalent retrievals over the conterminous United States. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 254, p.112280.
 17. Gorodetskaya, I.V., Durán-Alarcón, C., González-Herrero, S., Clem, K.R., Zou, X., Rowe, P., Rodriguez Imazio, P., Campos, D., Leroy-Dos Santos, C., Dutrievoz, N. and Wille, J.D., 2023. Record-high Antarctic Peninsula temperatures and surface melt in February 2022: a compound event with an intense atmospheric river. *npj climate and atmospheric science*, 6(1), p.202.
 18. Gupta, M., Gabarro, C., Turiel, A., Portabella, M., and Martinez, J., 2019. On the retrieval of sea-ice thickness using SMOS polarization differences. *Journal of Glaciology*, 65(251), pp.481-493.
 19. Hall, D.K. and Martinec, J., 1985. Remote sensing of ice and snow. Chapman and Hall Ltd., pp. 189.
 20. He, R., Shangguan, D., Zhao, Q., Zhang, S., Jin, Z., Qin, Y., and Chang, Y., 2024. Effective identification of debris-covered glaciers in Western China using multiple machine-learning algorithms. *Science of the Total Environment*, 955, p.176946.
 21. Howell, S. E. L., Brady, M., and Komarov, A. S.: Generating large-scale sea ice motion from Sentinel-1 and the RADARSAT Constellation Mission using the Environment and Climate Change Canada automated sea ice tracking system, *The Cryosphere*, 16, 1125–1139, <https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-16-1125-2022>, 2022.
 22. Hu, Y., Arenson, L.U., Barboux, C., Bodin, X., Cicoira, A., Delaloye, R., Gärtner-Roer, I., Kääb, A., Kellerer-Pirklbauer, A., Lambiel, C. and Liu, L., 2025. Rock glacier velocity: An essential climate variable quantity for permafrost. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 63(1), p.e2024RG000847.

23. IPCC, 2013. Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. In: Stocker D, Qin GK, Plattner M, et al. (eds). Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.
24. Jahn, A., Holland, M.M., and Kay, J.E., 2024. Projections of an ice-free Arctic Ocean. *Nature Reviews Earth & Environment*, 5(3), pp.164-176.
25. Kacimi, S. and Kwok, R., 2024. Two decades of Arctic sea ice thickness from satellite altimeters: Retrieval approaches and record of changes (2003–2023). *Remote Sensing*, 16(16), p.2983.
26. Kaleschke, L., Tian-Kunze, X., Maaß, N., Mäkynen, M. and Drusch, M., 2012. Sea ice thickness retrieval from SMOS brightness temperatures during the Arctic freeze-up period. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 39(5).
27. Kanzow, T., Humbert, A., Mölg, T., Scheinert, M., Braun, M., Burchard, H., Doglioni, F., Hochreuther, P., Horwath, M., Huhn, O. and Kappelsberger, M., 2025. The system of atmosphere, land, ice and ocean in the region near the 79N Glacier in northeast Greenland: synthesis and key findings from the Greenland Ice Sheet–Ocean Interaction (GROCE) experiment. *The Cryosphere*, 19(5), pp.1789-1824.
28. Kesikoglu, M.H., 2025. Enhancing Snow Detection through Deep Learning: Evaluating CNN Performance Against Machine Learning and Unsupervised Classification Methods. *Water Resources Management*, pp.1-19.
29. King, O., Bhattacharya, A., Bhambri, R. and Bolch, T., 2019. Glacial lakes exacerbate Himalayan glacier mass loss, *Sci. Rep.*, 9, 18145 [online]
30. Kneib, M., Dehecq, A., Brun, F., Karbou, F., Charrier, L., Leinss, S., Wagnon, P., and Maussion, F., 2024. Mapping and characterization of avalanches on mountain glaciers with Sentinel-1 satellite imagery. *The Cryosphere*, 18(6), pp.2809-2830.
31. Kulkarni, A.V., 2010. Monitoring Himalayan cryosphere using remote sensing techniques. *Journal of the Indian Institute of Science*, 90(4), pp.457-469.
32. Kulkarni, A.V. and Karyakarte, Y., 2014. Observed changes in Himalayan glaciers. *Current Science*, pp.237-244.
33. Lemos, A., Shepherd, A., McMillan, M., Hogg, A. E., Hatton, E., and Joughin, I.: Ice velocity of Jakobshavn Isbræ, Petermann Glacier, Nioghalvfjærdsfjorden, and Zachariæ Isstrøm, 2015–2017, from Sentinel 1-A/B SAR imagery, *The Cryosphere*, 12, 2087–2097, <https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-12-2087-2018>, 2018.
34. Li, X. and Fan, H., 2025. Characteristics of the spatiotemporal differences in snowmelt phenology in the Northern Hemisphere. *Journal of Hydrology: Regional Studies*, 59, p.102358.
35. Łucka, M., 2025. Investigation of machine learning algorithms to determine glacier displacements. *Remote Sensing Applications: Society and Environment*, p.101476.
36. Luo, J., Niu, F., Lin, Z., Liu, M., Yin, G. and Gao, Z., 2022. Abrupt increase in thermokarst lakes on the central Tibetan Plateau over the last 50 years. *Catena*, 217, p.106497.
37. Luo, J., Pulliainen, J., Takala, M., Lemmetyinen, J., Mortimer, C., Derksen, C., Mudryk, L., Moisander, M., Hiltunen, M., Smolander, T. and Ikonen, J., 2021. GlobSnow v3.0 Northern Hemisphere snow water equivalent dataset, *Sci. Data*, 8, 163.
38. Mayer, S., Hendrick, M., Michel, A., Richter, B., Schweizer, J., Wernli, H. and van Herwijnen, A., 2024. Impact of climate change on snow avalanche activity in the Swiss Alps. *The Cryosphere*, 18(11), pp.5495-5517.
39. Meier, W.N., D. Perovich, S. Farrell, C. Haas, S. Hendricks, A.A. Petty, M. Webster, D. Divine, S. Gerland, L. Kaleschke, and others. 2021. Sea ice. Pp. 34–40 in NOAA Arctic Report Card 2021. T.A. Moon, M.L. Druckenmiller, and R.L. Thoman, eds, <https://doi.org/10.25923/y2wd-fn85>.
40. Mote, P.W., Li, S., Lettenmaier, D.P., Xiao, M., and Engel, R., 2018. Dramatic declines in snowpack in the western US. *Npj Climate and Atmospheric Science*, 1(1), p.2.
41. Notarnicola, C., 2022. Overall negative trends for snow cover extent and duration in global mountain regions over 1982–2020. *Scientific Reports*, 12(1), p.13731.

42. NSIDC, 2023. Arctic sea ice minimum at the sixth lowest extent on record. <https://nsidc.org/sea-ice-today/analyses/arctic-sea-ice-minimum-sixth-lowest-extent-record>.
43. Onstott, R. G.: SAR and Scatterometer Signatures of Sea Ice, in: *Microwave Remote Sensing of Sea Ice*, Carsey, F.D. (Ed.), Geophys. Monogr. Ser., 73–104, <https://doi.org/10.1029/GM068p0073>, 1992.
44. Parkinson, C.L., 2019. A 40-y record reveals gradual Antarctic sea ice increases followed by decreases at rates far exceeding the rates seen in the Arctic. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(29), pp.14414-14423.
45. Perovich, D., Meier, W., Tschudi, M., Hendricks, S., Petty, A.A., Divine, D., Farrell, S., Gerland, S., Haas, C., Kaleschke, L., and Pavlova, O., 2020. Arctic report card 2020: Sea ice.
46. Pörtner, H.O., Roberts, D.C., Masson-Delmotte, V., Zhai, P., Tignor, M., Poloczanska, E. and Weyer, N.M., 2019. The ocean and cryosphere in a changing climate. IPCC special report on the ocean and cryosphere in a changing climate, 1155, pp.10-1017.
47. Prieur, C., Rabatel, A., Thomas, J.B., Farup, I. and Chanussot, J., 2022. Machine learning approaches to automatically detect glacier snow lines on multi-spectral satellite images. *Remote Sensing*, 14(16), p.3868.
48. Pulliainen, J., Luojus, K., Derksen, C., Mudryk, L., Lemmetyinen, J., Salminen, M., Ikonen, J., Takala, M., Cohen, J., Smolander, T. and Norberg, J., 2020. Patterns and trends of Northern Hemisphere snow mass from 1980 to 2018. *Nature*, 581(7808), pp.294-298.
49. Qi, M., Liu, S., Wu, K., Zhu, Y., Xie, F., Jin, H., Gao, Y., and Yao, X., 2022. Improving the accuracy of glacial lake volume estimation: A case study in the Poiqu basin, central Himalayas. *Journal of Hydrology*, 610, p.127973.
50. Rignot, E., Mouginot, J., Scheuchl, B., Van Den Broeke, M., Van Wessem, M.J. and Morlighem, M., 2019. Four decades of Antarctic Ice Sheet mass balance from 1979–2017. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(4), pp.1095-1103.
51. Růžicka, V., Mateo-Garcia, G., Gómez-Chova, L., Vaughan, A., Guanter, L. and Markham, A., 2023. Semantic segmentation of methane plumes with hyperspectral machine learning models. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), p.19999.
52. Robson, B.A., Bolch, T., MacDonell, S., Hölbling, D., Rastner, P. and Schaffer, N., 2020. Automated detection of rock glaciers using deep learning and object-based image analysis. *Remote sensing of environment*, 250, p.112033.
53. Sakai, A., 2019, December. Updated GAMDAM Glacier Inventory over High Mountain Asia. In AGU Fall Meeting Abstracts (Vol. 2019, pp. C22A-01).
54. Singha, S. and Ressel, R., 2017. Arctic sea ice characterization using RISAT-1 compact-pol SAR imagery and feature evaluation: A case study over Northeast Greenland. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing*, 10(8), pp.3504-3514.
55. Spreen, G., Kwok, R. and Menemenlis, D., 2011. Trends in Arctic sea ice drift and role of wind forcing: 1992–2009. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 38(19).
56. Stroeve, J.C., Markus, T., Boisvert, L., Miller, J., and Barrett, A., 2014. Changes in Arctic melt season and implications for sea ice loss. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41(4), pp.1216-1225.
57. Thakur, P.K., A. Dixit, A. Chouksey, S.P. Aggarwal, A.S. Kumar, 2017. Polar ice sheet and glacier studies–Indian efforts in last five years. *Proceedings of the Indian National Science Academy*, 83(2), 415-425. doi:10.16943/ptinsa/2017/48946.
58. The IMBIE team. Mass balance of the Antarctic Ice Sheet from 1992 to 2017. *Nature* 558, 219–222 (2018). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0179-y>
59. Tielidze, L.G., Mackintosh, A.N., Gavashelishvili, A., Gadrani, L., Nadaraia, A., and Elashvili, M., 2025. Post-Little Ice Age Equilibrium-Line Altitude and Temperature Changes in the Greater Caucasus Based on Small Glaciers. *Remote Sensing*, 17(9), p.1486.
60. Tielidze, L.G., Nosenko, G.A., Khromova, T.E. and Paul, F., 2022. Strong acceleration of glacier area loss in the Greater Caucasus between 2000 and 2020. *The Cryosphere*, 16(2), pp.489-504.
61. Törsleff, O., 2024. Gap-free snow cover mapping in Sweden using satellite observations. Master's Thesis, Uppsala University. pp. 64.

62. Wang, K., Lavergne, T., and Dinessen, F., 2020. Multi-sensor data merging of sea ice concentration and thickness. *Advances in Polar Science*, 31(1), pp.1-13.
63. Wang, X., Liu, Y., Key, J.R., and Dworak, R., 2022. A new perspective on four decades of changes in Arctic sea ice from satellite observations. *Remote Sensing*, 14(8), p.1846.
64. Ward, R.H., Sweeney, C., Miller, J.B., Goeckede, M., Laurila, T., Hatakka, J., Ivakov, V., Sasakawa, M., Machida, T., Morimoto, S., and Goto, D., 2024. Increasing methane emissions and widespread cold-season release from high-Arctic regions detected through atmospheric measurements. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 129(11), p. e2024JD040766.
65. Williamson, A.G., Banwell, A.F., Willis, I.C. and Arnold, N.S., 2018. Dual-satellite (Sentinel-2 and Landsat 8) remote sensing of supraglacial lakes in Greenland. *The Cryosphere*, 12(9), pp.3045-3065.
66. Yatheendradas, S. and Kumar, S., 2022. A Novel Machine Learning–Based Gap-Filling of Fine-Resolution Remotely Sensed Snow Cover Fraction Data by Combining Downscaling and Regression. *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, 23(5), pp.637-658.
67. Zhang, T., Barry, R.G., Knowles, K., Heginbottom, J.A. and Brown, J., 1999. Statistics and characteristics of permafrost and ground-ice distribution in the Northern Hemisphere. *Polar Geography*, 23(2), pp.132-154.
68. Zhang, G., Bolch, T., Yao, T., Rounce, D.R., Chen, W., Veh, G., King, O., Allen, S.K., Wang, M., and Wang, W., 2023. Underestimated mass loss from lake-terminating glaciers in the greater Himalaya. *Nature Geoscience*, 16(4), pp.333-338.
69. Zhang, K., Feng, M., Sui, Y., Xu, J., Yan, D., Hu, Z., Han, F., and Sthapit, E., 2024. Identifying thermokarst lakes using deep learning and high-resolution satellite images. *Science of Remote Sensing*, 10, p.100175.
70. Zhang, J., Steele, M., Runciman, K., Dewey, S., Morison, J., Lee, C., Rainville, L., Cole, S., Krishfield, R., Timmermans, M.L., and Toole, J., 2016. The Beaufort Gyre intensification and stabilization: A model-observation synthesis. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 121(11), pp.7933-7952.