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Biomass-derived provenance dominates glacial surface organic carbon in the western Himalaya

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24 Abstract

The origin, transport pathways, and spatial variability of total organic carbon (OC)on the western 25 Himalayan glaciers is poorly understood compared to that of black carbon (BC) and dust, but it 26 is critically important to evaluate the climatic role of OC in the region. Applying the distribution 27 of OC activation energy, ¹⁴C activity and radiogenic isotopes of ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and 28 206 Pb/ 204 Pb in glacial debris and atmospheric particulate matter (PM₁₀ size fraction) we 29 demonstrate that $98.3 \pm 1.6\%$ and $1.7 \pm 1.6\%$ of the OC in western Himalayan glaciers are derived 30 from biomass and petrogenic sources, respectively. The $\delta^{13}C$ and N/C composition shows that 31 the biomass is a complex mixture of C3 vegetation and autochthonous photo-autotrophic inputs 32 modified by heterotrophic microbial activity. The dataset reveals that the studied western 33 Himalayan glacier has negligible contributions from fossil fuel derived particles, which contrasts 34 to the central and eastern Himalayan glaciers that have significant contributions from fossil fuel 35 sources. We show that this spatial variability of OC sources relates to regional differences in air-36 mass transport pathways and precipitation regimes over the Himalaya. Moreover, our 37 observation suggests that biomass-derived carbon could be the only primary driver of carbon-38 induced glacier melting in the western Himalaya. 39

41 **1. Introduction**

Worldwide glaciers are losing mass at an average rate of 0.48± 0.20 meter water-42 equivalent per year (m w.e. yr^{-1})¹, with the rate of Himalavan glacier mass wastage nearly 43 doubling $(-0.43 \pm 0.14 \text{ m w.e.yr}^{-1})$ in recent years.² This accelerated mass loss is considered to 44 be primarily related to the well-established long-term increase of the Earth's near surface 45 temperature and anthropogenic climate change.^{3,4} In addition to this warming, the reduction of 46 surface ice albedo by ice surface deposits of dark colored impurities constitutes an additional 47 control of glacier melting rate.^{5–7} Impurities that darken the ice surface and directly increase the 48 heat absorption and thus enhance ice melting comprise dust, BC (black carbon, e.g., soot), and 49 other forms of OC not derived from combustion.^{8–11} In this study, OC refers to the total organic 50 carbon that comprises the entire pool of organic carbon including both organic and elemental 51 carbon. Further, we classify the OC as OC_{ff} (fossil fuel) and OC_{bio} (biomass) referring to OC 52 derived from either fossil fuel or biomass sources, such as biomass burning derived particles, 53 atmospheric organic matters, and glacial microbes.⁵ 54

The contribution to glacier surface darkening by particle matter and its attendant impact 55 on glacial melt across high Asian mountain glaciers is variable. For example, the main 56 contributor to glacier surface warming in Eastern Himalaya and Central Asia is BC, while 57 mineral dust is a dominant factor in the western Himalaya.¹² As a result, previous studies have 58 mainly focused on BC and dust, owing to their greater heat absorption capacities.¹³⁻¹⁶ 59 60 Heretofore, limited research on total OC has led to substantial uncertainties and incomplete knowledge of the impact of OC in the Himalaya and Tibetan Plateau.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Thus, given the almost 61 20% albedo reduction related to OC for glaciers in Asia¹², a thorough assessment of the origin, 62 63 transport pathways, and spatial distribution of OC is paramount to reduce the uncertainties in

estimating the impact of carbon on the rate of glacial melting of Himalayan glaciers. In addition 64 to the albedo effect of light absorbing impurities, carbonaceous aerosols also warm up the air 65 mass over glaciers, and support microbial life²², both of which further contributes to enhanced 66 rates of glacier melting. It is also noteworthy that algal or microbial communities on the glacier 67 surface act as a sink for carbon and other impurities, and may yield a greater positive feedback 68 on glacier melting when compared to OC_{ff} .²³. As such, constraints on the composition of OC will 69 help better quantify the future impact of increasing anthropogenic emission surrounding 70 Himalayan glaciers (Figure S1), and its attendant controls on the hydrological regimes of glacier-71 72 sourced large river systems such as the Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra. The findings will also aid in quantifying the contribution of Himalayan glaciers melt to eustatic sea-level rise¹, 73 currently estimated to raise sea level by 0.52 cm by the end of 21st century.²⁴ 74

In contrast to model-based approaches²⁶⁻²⁸, recent radiocarbon measurements on BC 75 particles deposited on glaciers and in aerosols revealed a much higher (~50%) fossil fuel 76 contribution across the Himalayan-Tibetan Plateau.²⁵ These radiocarbon measurements were 77 however restricted to the central and eastern Himalayan region, which falls under the strong 78 influence of the Indian Summer Monsoon. Further, the eastern and western areas of the 79 Himalayan region have different climatology, hydrology, meteorology, as well as glacier 80 behavior and dynamics.²⁹⁻³¹ The large geographical spread (~2500 km) of the Himalaya over 81 different climate regimes makes it very difficult to extend the findings of one climate regime to 82 83 the other. Moreover, in-situ OC measurements of glacier and snow samples in the western Himalaya including Hindu-Kush and Karakoram region are not available, despite the fact that the 84 western region holds >70% of the total ice mass of the Himalaya.³² With one-sixth of the world's 85 86 population dependent on the Himalayan glacier meltwater and the increase in anthropogenic

emissions in the Indian subcontinent (Figure S1), understanding the origin and transport pathways of OC on the western Himalayan glaciers and its impact on glacier melting rate is an issue of global significance.

To understand the origin, transport pathways and spatial variability of OC on the western 90 Himalayan glaciers, this study focuses on the source area and origin of dust and OC on the 91 ablation zone (>4500 m a.s.l.) of the Chhota Shigri Glacier (CSG, 32.2° N, 77.5° E) in the 92 Lahaul-Spiti valley of the western Himalaya, India (Figure 1). Cryoconite and supra-glacial 93 moraine sediments from the CSG surface were investigated to characterize the origin of 94 95 carbonaceous particles. Cryoconites are small water filled depressions containing a dark colored mixture of dust, OC, BC, and microbes collected over several years. Further, to constrain the 96 source end-members, atmospheric particulate matter (PM_{10}) were collected in Harsil (31.1° N; 97 78.7° E; 2634 m a.s.l.) and Kanpur (26.1° N; 80.2° E). The Harsil site is located in a high altitude 98 remote Himalayan forested area that records a history of major forest fires (Figure S3). Harsil is 99 >125 km from major urban settlements and industrial activities, thus the collected aerosol at 100 Harsil serves as the best proxy for the OC_{bio} and pristine Himalayan end-member. To obtain the 101 best estimate of OC_{ff} aerosol, a sample was collected from ~5 Km north of a coal-fired thermal 102 103 power plant (Panki Thermal Power Plant) and a kilometer west of a National Highway (NH91) in Kanpur -one of the largest industrialized centers in the Indo-Gangetic plain (Figure 1). 104 Analysis of samples followed a multi-disciplinary approach, coupling organic and inorganic 105 geochemical tracers including Ramped Pyrolysis Oxidation (RPO), ¹⁴C activity, δ^{13} C, 106 ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, TOC, N, and heavy metal concentrations with Hybrid Single 107 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory Model (HYSPLIT) air mass trajectory modeling was 108 109 used to determine OC origin and transport pathways identification.

110 2. Materials and Methods

111 **2.1 Sampling details**

Cryoconite debris was collected from 20 sites in the ablation zone (4515 - 4928 m a.s.l.) of 112 the CSG during July, 2017. In addition to cryoconite, 5 moraine debris samples were also 113 collected. The samples were first dried on a hot plate at ~70 °C to remove the moisture content. 114 Moraine debris samples were sieved to get bulk (DB <3 mm) and particulate (<63 μ m: DF) 115 fraction for geochemical analysis. Bulk cryoconite and moraine debris samples (DB and DF) 116 were ground to a homogeneous powder (20µm size) in an agate mil for further chemical analysis. 117 Atmospheric particulate matter (PM₁₀ size fraction) sampling in Kanpur and Harsil were carried 118 out using high-volume (1000 L/min) atmospheric aerosol samplers (Envirotech PM10 sampler, 119 model APM 460 DXNL). In Kanpur and Harsil, PM₁₀ sampler was operated for 24 (on January 120 1, 2016) and 48 hours (April 12 to April 14, 2016), respectively. Detailed sampling protocol 121 description is outlined in Nizam and Sen, 2018.33 122

123 **2.2** Ramped Pyrolysis Oxidation (RPO), ¹⁴C ages, bulk δ^{13} C, N and C analysis

The RPO analysis was carried out at the National Ocean Sciences Accelerator Mass 124 125 Spectrometer facility (NOSAMS, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution). The RPO instrument involves continuous sample heating, with the CO₂ evolved being trapped for dual C-isotope 126 analysis. Importantly, RPO analyzes 100% of the OC in the sample, irrespective of the nature of 127 the OC. Two cryoconite (C9 and C14), one moraine (DF6), and two aerosol samples were 128 selected for RPO analysis. The instrumental makeup and analytical protocol adopted for RPO 129 analysis has been described in detail in previous studies.^{34,35} Briefly, 30–70 mg powder sample 130 aliquots were loaded into a pre-combusted (at 850 °C for 5 hours) quartz reactor, heated at a 5 °C 131 min⁻¹ ramp rate in a two-stage oven. This incremental heating leads to the release of CO₂, which 132 133 was cryogenically purified, trapped and flame sealed into a glass tube containing nuggets of Ag

 $(\sim 10 \text{ mg})$ and CuO ($\sim 100 \text{ mg}$). The CO₂ concentration in the carrier gas (in parts per million by volume, ppm CO₂) is continuously measured at a resolution of 1 second by an infrared gas analyzer. CO₂ collected at user-defined temperature intervals is referred to as RPO fractions. Each RPO fraction collected is graphitized with the radiocarbon abundance determined via Accelerated Mass Spectrometry at NOSAMS and reported as fraction modern (F_m). Meanwhile, a 10% split of each RPO fraction was used for stable isotopes (δ^{13} C) analysis using a dual-inlet Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS).

The δ^{13} C values are expressed in part per mill (‰) notation relative to Vienna Pee Dee 141 Belemnite (VPDB). The F_m and $\delta^{13}C$ ratios of the RPO fractions are reported in Table 1. In 142 addition, bulk δ^{13} C, total organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (N) were also measured in all of the 143 cryoconite and selected moraine samples using IRMS at Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution 144 (Table S1). The bulk δ^{13} C value calculated as the mass weighted average of all RPO fractions 145 showed good agreement with the measured bulk δ^{13} C value, with the exception of moraine 146 sample DF6. The mismatch appears to be driven by the high δ^{13} C value of the first RPO fraction 147 collected for this sample. We inferred this enriched stable isotope composition is related to some 148 technical error during IRMS analysis. The results for all of the RPO (and IRMS) analyses were 149 blank and kinetic isotope fractionation corrected.³⁶ Corrected data was used to calculate the 150 activation energy distribution using the rampedpyrox python package³⁷, which has been 151 described in detail in previous studies.³⁵ Radiocarbon age (in ¹⁴C yr BP) was calculated using 152 153 corrected Fm values and the Libby half-life as: age = $-8033 \ln (F_m)$.

154 **2.3 Lead isotope analysis**

Ten cryoconite and two moraine samples (DF) were selected for Pb isotopes analysis.
The Pb isotopic data was obtained from the Radiogenic Isotope Facility from the Department of

Earth and Atmospheric Sciences at the University of Alberta. Approximately 4-12 mg of sample 157 powder (depending on lead abundance), was dissolved in ultrapure HF/HNO₃ at 100°C for 2 158 days. Sample solutions were then evaporated under ULPA-filtered air and converted to chlorides 159 using 6N HCl, then bromides using 2N HBr. The Pb was purified by standard anion exchange 160 chromatography using HBr and HCl as eluents under ULPA-filtered conditions. The isotopic 161 162 composition of Pb then measured by Nu Plasma MC-ICPMS in static analysis mode. The measured Pb isotope ratios were corrected for instrumental mass bias using the agreed value for 163 ²⁰³Tl/²⁰⁵Tl ratio measured simultaneously with each Pb analysis.³⁸ Overall reproducibility of any 164 Pb isotope measurement is based on >6 years of analyses of SRM981 Pb isotope standard. At the 165 first uncertainty level, the reproducibility of the SRM981 measured isotopic ratios are: 166 $^{206}Pb/^{204}Pb = 0.016\%$; $^{207}Pb/^{204}Pb = 0.018\%$; $^{208}Pb/^{204}Pb = 0.018\%$. The most widely accepted 167 values for this Pb isotope standard are those determined by double-spiked TIMS analysis in 168 previous study³⁹, which are: ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 16.936$; ${}^{207}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 15.489$; ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 36.701$. 169 The absolute values of Pb isotope ratios for SRM981 determined during the course of the 170 analyses report here are: ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 16.936$; ${}^{207}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 15.488$; ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{204}Pb = 36.690$. The 171 Pb isotope ratios are reported in Table 2. 172

173 **2.4 Heavy metal analysis**

Heavy metal concentration analyses were performed in Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur on a Quadrupole Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Q-ICP-MS) system. Briefly, approximately 25 mg of sample powder was digested using a mixture of HF (3 parts) and HNO₃ (1 part) for. Six procedural blanks, Reference Material SBC-1 (Shale) from US Geological Survey (USGS) were also digested following the same procedures. The final concentrations were blank corrected using the average procedural blank

concentrations and matrix effect was corrected by In normalization (Table S1). Average blank corrections were less than 1% for most of the elements. The measured Sc, V, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn and Pb concentration of SBC-1 were 20 ± 1 , 205 ± 3 , 101 ± 2 , 81 ± 1 , 30 ± 0.2 , 191 ± 2 and 33 ± 1 (1 SD, n = 6), respectively, which is in close agreement with the USGS certified values of 20 ± 0.2 , $220\pm$ 1.4, 109 ± 1 , 83 ± 0.8 , 31 ± 0.6 , 186 ± 2 and 35 ± 0.3 , respectively.

185 **2.5 Air Mass Back Trajectory Analysis**

Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory Model (HYSPLIT) modeling 186 was used to compute the air parcel back trajectories for every hour for five different sites that 187 188 includes Leh, ChhotaShigri, Thorong, Qiangyong, and Yulong sites for the year 2016 (Figure 1). The archived meteorological analysis from National Centers for Environmental Prediction 189 (NCEP) Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) model was used to estimate the trajectories. 190 Annual as well as seasonal trajectory analysis was carried out to elucidate the major source 191 regions of air mass reaching the Himalaya (Figure 1 and Figure S2). A total of 24x365 or 8760 192 trajectory pairs were simulated for each of the sites. A density map was created at a resolution of 193 $0.25^{\circ} \ge 0.25^{\circ}$ resolution to obtain fraction of total trajectories passing through each of the grid 194 cell. This provided an indication of the percentage or probability of influence of each grid point 195 196 to the air mass reaching the receptor site. Two contour intervals of 0.1 and 0.5 that represented 10 and 50% trajectories passing through any grid was created for each site. 197

198 **3. Results and Discussion**

The distribution of OC activation energy (Ea), δ^{13} C, and 14 C content (expressed as fraction modern, Fm) for cryoconite, moraine sediments (particulate fraction) and PM₁₀ were compared to fingerprint the sources of OC (Figure 2). Activation energy is a proxy for OC reactivity, and each OC pool has a distinct Ea distribution reflecting its overall bonding

environment (e.g. molecular composition, association with mineral surfaces).³⁵ Using Ea, δ^{13} C and ¹⁴C ages, it is thus possible to fingerprint the sources of OC. For example, biomass-derived OC have lower Ea (<150 kJ mol⁻¹), high Fm (~1.0), and modern ages, whereas fossil-derived OC possess higher Ea (>150 kJ mol⁻¹) and Fm = 0.⁴⁰ Among the fossil sources, OC derived from Himalayan petrogenic sources (OC_{petro}) has a much higher Ea (≥200 kJ mol⁻¹) than fossil fuel derived OC (OC_{ff}< 200 kJ mol⁻¹).^{40,41}

The PM₁₀ collected at Harsil and Kanpur has distinct Ea distributions and ¹⁴C 209 compositions (Table 1, Figure 2). The Ea distributions of Harsil and Kanpur PM₁₀ OC show a 210 predominant peak at ca. 135 and 165 kJ mol⁻¹, respectively. The Harsil PM₁₀ OC is also 211 characterized by young ¹⁴C ages (RPO Fm values >0.94; bulk Fm = 0.99). A predominant Ea 212 peak at ca. 135 kJ mol⁻¹ and young ¹⁴C ages of Harsil PM₁₀ OC clearly corresponds to OC_{bio}.⁴⁰ It 213 is possible that some of the particles could contain soil organic carbon (SOC). However, SOC is 214 expected to be pre-aged, as observed in mineral soils globally and suspended sediments of 215 Himalayan sourced rivers.^{42,43} Further, dust contributions from arid areas (e.g., Thar Desert) 216 would similarly be expected to carry an old ¹⁴C signature owing to conditions promoting organic 217 matter preservation. Our data is not consistent with SOC inputs as it shows a flat, near-modern 218 ¹⁴C ages across the Ea spectrum. In contrast, Kanpur PM₁₀ OC is characterized by lower Fm 219 values (0.4<Fm<0.8; bulk Fm = 0.64) and corresponding older ¹⁴C ages. A predominant Ea peak 220 at ca. 165 kJ mol⁻¹ and older ¹⁴C ages of Kanpur PM₁₀ OC reveal significant contributions from a 221 222 fossil fuel source. The lower Ea peak in Kanpur PM₁₀ OC (ca. 135 kJ mol⁻¹) also points towards some OC_{bio} contribution. A simple binary mixing calculation revealed that the Kanpur PM₁₀ OC 223 is composed of ca. 36% OC_{ff} and 64% OC_{bio}. The PM10 RPO data further suggest that OC_{bio} and 224

OCff have overlapping Ea distributions, although OCff is more heavily concentrated at higher Ea
 values.

OC in cryoconite and moraine sediment have similar Ea distributions with peak reactivity 227 between ca. 125 kJ mol⁻¹ and 150 kJ mol⁻¹. The low Ea and high Fm values, and modern ¹⁴C ages 228 support that OC in these RPO fractions is derived from recently fixed OC sources (OC_{bio}, Fm~1, 229 230 modern age) such as biomass burning, autochthonous photoautotrophic biomass and heterotrophic microorganisms. Overall, the Ea and ¹⁴C signature of cryoconite and moraine 231 sediments are similar to Harsil PM₁₀, confirming an overwhelmingly dominant OC_{bio} input to 232 both cryoconite and moraine sediments. A small portion of cryoconite and moraine OC is 233 characterized by high Ea (>180 kJ mol⁻¹) and low Fm values (older ¹⁴C ages). The presence of 234 aged OC exclusively at high Ea values however precludes OC_{ff} as a source, because Kanpur 235 PM_{10} RPO data show that OC_{ff} is distributed over the entire Ea spectrum. Instead, we argue that 236 the high Ea RPO fractions contain a mixture of biomass and petrogenic (rock-derived, OC_{petro}) 237 OC. Indeed, OC_{petro} has been shown to be characterized by high Ea (i.e. >200 kJ mol⁻¹) and Fm 238 values equal to 0.40 A mass balance approach assuming a binary mixing of 14C dead OC and 239 biomass-derived OC with a ¹⁴C age equal to that of Harsil PM₁₀, shows that $1.7\pm 1.6\%$ of OC in 240 241 cryoconite and moraine sediment is derived from ¹⁴C-dead sources. This proportion translates into a C concentration of $0.02\pm 0.02\%$. Such a low concentration of ¹⁴C-dead OC is consistent 242 with the expected OC_{petro} concentration in the high-grade crystalline rocks of the CSG catchment 243 and Himalayan rocks in general.⁴⁴ It is also lower than the average OC content of bulk moraine 244 samples $(0.064 \pm 0.020\%)$, which, based on bulk geochemical characterization are dominated by 245 OC_{petro}. We conclude that cryoconite and moraine sediment have negligible OC_{ff} and contain a 246 247 mixture of OC_{bio} (98.3± 1.6%) and minor OC_{petro} inputs (1.7± 1.6%).

Additionally, we used stable carbon isotopes (δ^{13} C) to further establish the source of 248 OC_{bio} in the cryoconite and moraine sediment. The majority of the cryoconite samples have a 249 distinct $\delta^{13}C$ composition with respect to surrounding moraine sediments, as well as to 250 cryoconite samples from Greenland and the Arctic.^{45,46} The δ^{13} C in cryoconite samples ranges 251 between -24.9 to -18.2‰ (average -21.8 \pm 1.7‰, n=20, 1s.d.), which is higher than for moraine 252 sediments (-22.5 to -26.7‰, average -24.2 \pm 1.3‰, n=10, 1s.d.). In general, carbonaceous aerosol 253 derived from burnt C3 type biomass sources in the Indian subcontinent should have a δ^{13} C value 254 of ca. -26⁴⁷, which can exhibit a maximum fractionation up to 0.5⁶⁶ due to burning emission 255 effect.⁴⁸ Burning induced ¹³C fractionation of C3 type vegetation is therefore insufficient to 256 explain the observed $\delta^{13}C$ enrichment in cryoconite. Therefore, it can be postulated that 257 cryoconite draws some of its enriched δ^{13} C signature from additional sources or processes. 258

The δ^{13} C enrichment in cryoconite samples can be best explained by contributions from 259 photo-autotrophic and heterotrophic micro-organisms in supraglacial cryoconite that produces 260 enrichment of N and δ^{13} C values.^{22,46} Biomass humification processes could also produce 261 enriched $\delta^{13}C$ values, but the RPO-¹⁴C data are incompatible with significant SOC inputs. The 262 N/C vs δ^{13} C plot (Figure 3A) suggests that cryoconite samples are composed of a mixture of 13 C 263 depleted and N-poor organic matter that could correspond to a primary C3-derived OC, with ¹³C 264 enriched and N-rich organic matter that reflects microbial communities growing in the snow/ice 265 environment. According to the RPO data, the ¹³C-rich, N-rich component is also enriched in ¹⁴C 266 267 (i.e. it has been fixed recently) and relatively labile, further suggesting it corresponds to microbial biomass and/or algae. However, finer apportionment of the different sources of 268 269 biospheric OC in cryoconite samples would require compound-specific biomarker data. To 270 summarize, our data suggest that the OC in cryoconite and moraine sediments is a complex

mixture of C3 type biomass and autochthonous photo-autotrophic inputs modified by heterotrophic microbial activity. An overall biomass source signature is also supported by heavy metal ratios (Zn/Pb vs Cu/Pb; Figure 3B), assuming that the metal ratios retained the source signature during transportation and transformation changes.

In addition to carbon systematics and heavy metal concentrations, ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and 275 ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb were used as additional independent tracer to identify the residues of fossil fuel 276 signature on the CSG. The radiogenic Pb isotopes (Table 2), as well as heavy metal enrichment 277 (these are) factor (Figure S4) also support the absence of a fossil fuel signature in cryoconite and 278 moraine sediment from the CSG. Moreover, the ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb overlap with that of the 279 Himalayan crust (Figure 4). The highly linear correlation between ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb 280 further implies that these elements are sourced from two dominant endmembers. Mixing 281 calculations using Pb isotope systematically show a negligible anthropogenic contribution (<1%, 282 Figure 4). The triple lead isotope data (²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb versus ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁶Pb) also supports the absence 283 of anthropogenic pollutant contribution in the studied glacier site (Figure S5). Our results differ 284 from previous findings that the Himalayan glaciers in general receive significant long-range 285 transported dust from Africa, Middle East, and Thar desert, as well as from the Indo-Gangetic 286 plain, India.49,50 287

The OC activation energy distribution, ¹⁴C, δ^{13} C, ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, TOC, N, and heavy metal concentrations, therefore, suggest that the studied western Himalayan glaciers have negligible contribution from OC derived from fossil fuel combustion sources. The difference between our findings and a previous study reporting ~50% fossil fuel sourced carbon contribution in central and eastern Himalayan glaciers²⁵ can be explained by air mass transport pathways and rainfall intensity. A HYSPLIT air mass trajectory modeling results reveal that the

eastern and central Himalayan glaciers that have received up to half of the BC from fossil fuel
sources draw a significant fraction of their air mass from the heavily polluted Indo-Gangetic
Plains (IGP) (Figure 1). In contrast, annual and seasonal (Figure 1 and Figure S2) air mass back
trajectory modeling at the study site shows that the western Himalayan regions receive limited
air-mass transport from the polluted IGP and less rainfall when compared to central and eastern
Himalaya, confirming the limited transport of ambient anthropogenic pollutants from the IGP.

The estimated glacial mass loss rates between 2000-2016 in western, central, and eastern 300 Himalaya are similar (-0.40, -0.35, -0.53 m w.e yr⁻¹, respectively).⁵¹ Glacial mass loss rate 301 reported for the CSG (-0.56 m w.e.yr⁻¹ between 2002 and 2014)⁵² is slightly higher than regional 302 averages. Since glacial mass loss is similar across the Himalaya and CSG is essentially free of 303 OC_{ff}, our observation suggests that OC_{bio} would be the primary driver of carbon-induced glacier 304 melting in the western Himalaya. Direct aerosol measurements studies over the western and 305 northwestern Himalaya hill stations also supports a predominant burnt carbon biomass 306 source.^{53,54} Given that it is well known that OC_{ff} particles are more readily transported over long-307 distances compared to OC_{bio}⁵⁵, and thus, if OC_{bio} were transported from geographically distant 308 sources, OC_{ff} particles were expected to be similar or higher in concentration compared to OC_{bio} 309 in western Himalayan glaciers. The near absence of OC_{ff} and prevalence of local air mass 310 circulation therefore indicate that carbonaceous particles in western Himalaya are only derived 311 312 from locally burnt biomass sources. Thus, given that OC emissions are projected to be 21-28 Tg by 2050⁵⁶, leading to new climate policies to curb global carbon emissions in urban centers, 313 considering the impact of local carbonaceous aerosols on glacier mass loss in the western 314 315 Himalaya is necessary to model the change in the glacial mass of western Himalayan glaciers.

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327

328 Contributions

I.S.S. conceived the study. S.N. and M.F.A did the field work. S.N. performed laboratory
measurements. S.N., I.S.S., V.V. and S.K.P. developed the air mass back trajectory models. S.N.,
I.S.S., V.G., V.V., A.K.A., A.K.S. and D.S. analysed the data. R.A.C. and M.B. contributed to
radiogenic isotope analysis and discussions. S.N. and I.S.S. wrote the paper with input from all
authors.

334 Supplementary Materials:

335 Figures S1-S5 and Table S1

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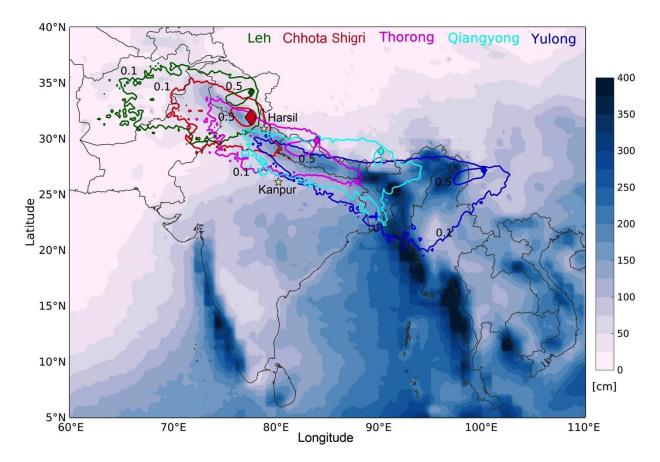


Figure 1. Climatological rainfall (TRMM 3B42 v7) with overlain trajectory density plot 635 for few glaciers in the Himalayan-Tibetan Plateau region. The line contours represent the 636 fractional number of trajectories passing through a particular grid of spatial-resolution (0.25° x 637 0.25°). For clarity, only two contours (of values 0.5 and 0.1) are shown for each receptor site. 638 Here, 168-h HYSPLIT back trajectory starting from each of the five-receptor site for every hour 639 (24x365) of the year 2016 were used. Thorong, Qiangyong, and Yulong sites have ~50% fossil 640 fuel derived carbon.²⁵ Stars represent the aerosol sampling location and highlighted large 641 polygon is our glacier-sampling site. The figure shows that there is a marked difference between 642 the rainfall amounts between the western and eastern Himalayan glacier sites with eastern 643 Himalaya obtaining higher rainfall. The 0.5 and 0.1 contour intervals show that the western 644 Himalayan glacier sites are mostly influenced by air mass from western parts of the Himalaya, 645 whereas central and eastern Himalayan glaciers are impacted by air mass from the Indo-Gangetic 646 Plains (IGP) which is characterized by high level of anthropogenic activities (Figure 647 S1). Seasonal trajectory density plots further show that wind trajectory origin is near similar 648 irrespective of the seasons with most trajectories originating over a small region around the 649 650 studied glacier (Figure S2).

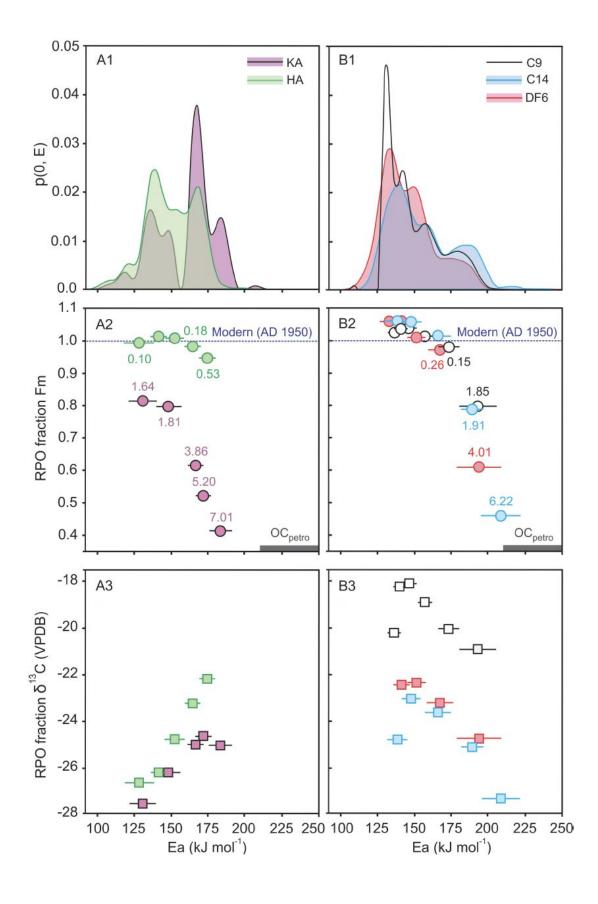


Figure 2. Apportionment of OC sources from RPO analysis. OC activation energy (Ea) 653 distributions (p (0, E) of (A1) aerosol (Kanpur Aerosol: KA, Harsil Aerosol: HA) and (B1) 654 glacier samples (cryoconite: C9 and C14, moraine fine fraction: DF6). Radiocarbon (Fm in 655 fraction) composition of each RPO fraction of the samples with associated radiocarbon age (in 656 cal kyr BP) and stable carbon (δ^{13} C in ‰) are plotted in middle (A2 and B2) and lower panel 657 (A3 and B3) respectively. Peak reactivity at ca. 165 kJ mol-¹ and associated low Fm value and 658 old ¹⁴C ages highlights OC_{ff} contributions in KA. Low OC thermal recalcitrance (peak <150 kJ 659 mol⁻¹) and associated high Fm values and modern ages comparable to OC_{bio} and HA reflects 660 recently fixed sources. OC in glacier samples contain small contributions of high Ea material 661 reflecting binary mixing between a dilute petrogenic end member and a more concentrated 662 biomass/biospheric end member. Dashed line in both the middle panel represents modern 663 radiocarbon age. 664

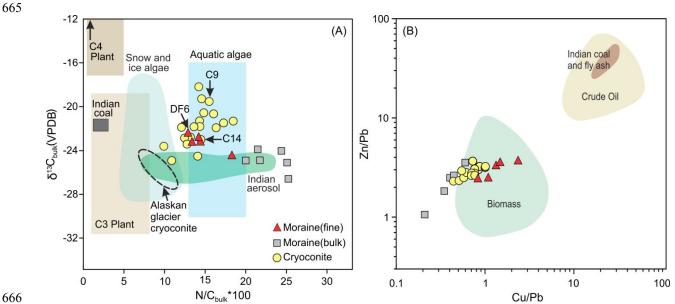




Figure 3.OC source inference from stable C isotopes, N/C and heavy metal ratios. (A) Bulk 668 OC, elemental (N/C) and isotopic (δ^{13} C) mixing diagram showing the composition of cryoconite 669 and moraine samples compared to that of tentative endmembers. Nitrogen and ¹³C enrichment in 670 cryoconite compared to bulk moraine suggests mixing between ¹³C-poor, N-poor OM 671 characteristic of biomass and ¹³C-rich, N-rich OM typical of algae/microbes dwelling on glacier 672 surface. Linear mixing trend between fine and bulk moraine suggests mixing between petrogenic 673 and biospheric input. Literature references: C3 plant, C4 plant and aquatic algae⁵⁷, snow and ice 674 algae^{22,58,59}, Indian aerosol.⁴⁷ (B) Heavy metal ratios in glacier samples compared to biomass, 675 Indian coal, flyash⁶⁰ and crude oil.⁶¹ 676

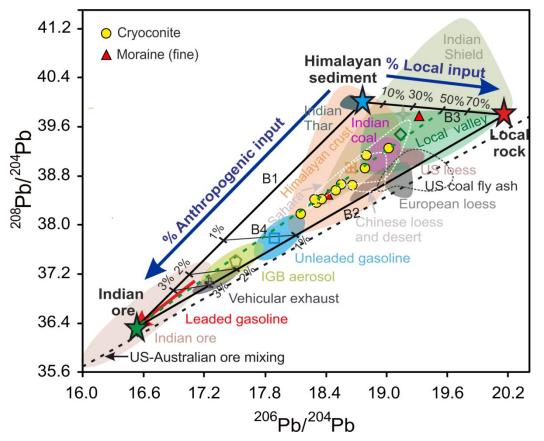


Figure 4. Mixing arrays in ²⁰⁶Pb²⁰⁴Pb versus ²⁰⁸Pb²⁰⁴ isotopic space. The yellow circles and 678 red triangles are new data points; literature data is shown with colored fields and open symbols 679 within the field denotes their average composition. Thick black, dashed green and black lines are 680 2-component mixing lines. The color-filled stars are end-member composition used in mixing 681 calculations. The curves B1 and B2 defines mixing of Indian ore with Himalayan sediment (HS) 682 and local crust (LC), respectively, while B3 represents mixing between LC and HS composition. 683 Curves B4 is a mixing line between Indian ore with a sediment mixture comprising of 50% HS 684 and 50% LC. We selected HS ($^{206}Pb/^{204}Pb = 18.81$, $^{208}Pb/^{204}Pb = 39.99$, Pb = 26.7 ppm)⁶² and 685 LC $(^{206}Pb^{204}Pb = 20.15, ^{208}Pb^{204}Pb = 39.79, Pb = 33 \text{ ppm})^{63}$ as a natural source end member. As 686 an anthropogenic source end member representative, Indian ore $(^{206}Pb/^{204}Pb = 16.42, ^{208}Pb/^{204}Pb$ 687 = 37.27, Pb = 4000 ppm)^{64,65} was chosen with the view that Pb used in various anthropogenic 688 activities are mined from these ore inherit its source signature. Literature references for other 689 regional source end-members are: Indian shield⁶⁶, Indian coal⁶⁷, US coal fly ash⁶⁸, IGB aerosol^{69–} 690 72, Sahara^{73,74}, European loess⁷⁵, Chinese loess and desert^{76–78}, Thar⁷⁶, US loess⁷⁸, unleaded 691 gasoline^{81,82} gasoline⁷⁹. vehicular exhaust⁸⁰. leaded and US-Australian ore.83 692

Sample-RPO	T(°C)		m _F	Ea (1 σ)	Fm (2 σ)	δ ¹³ C	¹⁴ C age
fraction	min	max	μg C	(kJ mol ⁻¹)	(fraction modern)	(‰)	(calyr BP)
C9-F1	150	300	100.3	138 ± 6	1.0191 ± 0.0020	-20.57	>Modern
C9-F2	300	326	106.6	140 ± 4	1.0408 ± 0.0021	-18.37	>Modern
C9-F3	326	361	112.1	146 ± 7	1.0399 ± 0.0020	-18.07	>Modern
C9-F4	361	412	102.5	157 ± 8	1.0126 ± 0.0026	-18.77	>Modern
C9-F5	412	480	90.3	171 ± 9	0.9822 ± 0.0019	-20.03	145±15
C9-F6	480	794	88.0	191 ± 13	0.7947 ± 0.0021	-21.00	1850±20
C14-F1	150	318	136.4	136 ± 7	1.0563 ± 0.0021	-24.93	>Modern
C14-F2	318	375	135.0	148 ± 6	1.0529 ± 0.0021	-22.99	>Modern
C14-F3	375	465	135.0	165 ± 9	1.0137 ± 0.0023	-23.58	>Modern
C14-F4	465	560	100.0	188 ± 8	0.788 ± 0.0018	-25.1	1910±20
C14-F5	560	850	36.8	208 ± 14	0.4609 ± 0.0039	-27.17	6220±70
DF6-F1	150	298	108.0	132 ± 8	1.0461 ± 0.0022	-10.76	>Modern
DF6-F2	298	336	100.1	142 ± 6	1.0485 ± 0.0025	-22.43	>Modern
DF6-F3	336	387	109.0	153 ± 8	1.0063 ± 0.0023	-22.28	>Modern
DF6-F4	387	483	100.6	168 ± 10	0.9688 ± 0.0020	-23.17	255±15
DF6-F5	483	784	57.6	193 ± 15	0.6068 ± 0.0020	-24.71	4010±30
KA-F1	125	306	104.1	130 ± 11	0.8155 ± 0.0019	-27.66	1640±20
KA-F2	306	377	100.3	147 ± 10	0.7982 ± 0.0018	-26.17	1810±20
KA-F3	377	425	103.1	166 ± 6	0.6182 ± 0.0018	-25.11	3860±25
KA-F4	425	462	102.0	171 ± 6	0.5237 ± 0.0022	-24.60	5200±35
KA-F5	462	655	101.4	183 ± 8	0.4179 ± 0.0017	-24.91	7010±30
HA-F1	125	293	53.6	127 ± 11	0.9884 ± 0.0030	-26.83	95±25
HA-F2	293	335	51.9	142 ± 6	1.0096 ± 0.0036	-26.23	>Modern
HA-F3	335	385	52.8	152 ± 7	1.0029 ± 0.0033	-24.78	>Modern
HA-F4	385	439	52.1	165 ± 6	0.9775 ± 0.0033	-23.23	180±25
HA-F5	439	605	34.0	175 ± 7	0.9364 ± 0.0039	-22.13	530±35

Table 1. RPO analysis results for cryoconite (C9 and C14), moraine (DF6) and aerosol samples

694 (KA: Kanpur Aerosol, HA: Harsil Aerosol).

 m_F : Mass of carbon (as CO_2) contained in RPO fraction F

Sample id	²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	2SE	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	2SE	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	2SE	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	2SE
C1	38.91787	0.00546	15.70946	0.00182	18.78705	0.00159	0.83616	0.00003
C3	39.13549	0.00684	15.73477	0.00250	18.80094	0.00244	0.83691	0.00004
C5	39.23825	0.00680	15.74825	0.00218	19.02939	0.00224	0.82757	0.00005
С9	38.67497	0.00868	15.67102	0.00286	18.65789	0.00250	0.83991	0.00005
C11	38.67167	0.00520	15.68224	0.00166	18.55690	0.00178	0.84508	0.00003
C13	38.58314	0.00728	15.68314	0.00250	18.50767	0.00242	0.84740	0.00004
C14	38.38955	0.00552	15.65890	0.00204	18.32318	0.00202	0.85456	0.00003
C17	38.40762	0.00426	15.66683	0.00146	18.35741	0.00139	0.85343	0.00003
C18	38.40409	0.00630	15.65812	0.00242	18.30283	0.00202	0.85551	0.00004
C19	38.21132	0.00476	15.63569	0.00164	18.15303	0.00163	0.86133	0.00003
DF6	38.42784	0.00562	15.68993	0.00208	18.40597	0.00196	0.85239	0.00005
DF12	39.74669	0.00720	15.76498	0.00246	19.32824	0.00226	0.81567	0.00003

696 **Table 2.** Radiogenic lead isotope composition of selected cryoconite (Cx) and moraine (DF) samples.

Note: Total Pb concentration in blank = 0.2 ± 0.16 ppb (1 S.D., n=4), Reproducibility uncertainty level = 1σ



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