



1 **Controls on the relatively slow thinning rate of a debris-covered glacier in the Karakoram over**
2 **the past 20 years: evidence from mass and energy budget modelling of Batura Glacier**

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16 Abstract:

17 The influence of supraglacial debris cover on glacier dynamics in the Karakoram is noteworthy. However,
18 understanding of how debris cover affects the seasonal and long-term variations in glacier mass balance through
19 alterations in the glacier's energy budget is incomplete. The present study applied an energy-mass balance model
20 coupling heat conduction within debris layers on debris-covered Batura Glacier in Hunza valley, to demonstrate the
21 influence of debris cover on glacial surface energy and mass exchanges during 2000-2020. The mass balance of
22 Batura Glacier is estimated to be -0.262 ± 0.561 m w.e. yr⁻¹, with debris cover reduced 45% of the negative mass
23 balance. Due to the presence of debris cover, a significant portion of incoming energy is utilized for heating debris,
24 leading to a large energy emission to atmosphere via thermal radiation and turbulent sensible heat. This, in turn,
25 reducing the melt latent heat at the glacier surface. We found that the mass balance exhibits a pronounced arch-
26 shaped structure along the elevation gradient, which primarily attributes to the distribution of debris thickness and
27 the impact of debris cover on the energy budget within various elevation zones. Through a comprehensive analysis
28 of the energy transfer within each debris layer, we have demonstrated that the primary impact of debris cover lies
29 in its ability to modify the energy flux reaching the surface of the glacier. Thicker debris cover results in a smaller
30 temperature contrast between debris layers and the ice-contact zone, consequently reducing heat conduction. Over
31 the past two decades, Batura Glacier has maintained a relatively small negative mass balance, owing to the protective
32 effect of debris cover. The glacier exhibits a tendency towards a smaller negative mass balance, with diminishing
33 dominance of ablation in areas with thin debris cover and debris-free parts of the ablation area.



34 1 Introduction

35 Karakoram Glaciers have maintained a relative stable status under atmospheric warming compared with other
36 High Mountain Asia (HMA) glaciers over past 30 years (Zemp et al., 2019; Nie et al., 2021; Gardelle et al., 2012),
37 a phenomenon which has been referred to as the “Karakoram Anomaly” (Hewitt, 2005). However, due to the
38 influence of topographical and supraglacial features, the rate of glacier change across this region exhibits a distinct
39 spatial heterogeneity. Notably, supraglacial debris plays a key role in mass change on many covered glaciers in the
40 Karakoram. Over the past three decades, a discernible expansion of supraglacial debris has been observed
41 throughout the Karakoram region (Xie et al., 2023), achieving a notable coverage of 21% in select areas such as the
42 Hunza river basin (Xie et al., 2020). Ever since Hewitt (2005) identified the inhibitory effect of supraglacial debris
43 on melt, particularly below 3500m, as a possible explanation for the “Karakoram Anomaly”, mapping the changes
44 in the extent and mass changes of debris-covered glaciers has been the focus of several recent studies (e.g., Mölg et
45 al. (2018), Azam et al. (2018), Xie et al. (2020)). Limited research has been devoted to comprehensively exploring
46 the intricate dynamics of mass and heat exchange within the debris in the Karakoram, however.

47 Supraglacial debris up to a few centimeters thickness generally increases melt due to lowered albedo and
48 increased heat absorption at the surface (Collier et al., 2014), while thicker debris cover can suppress melt rate
49 through insulation (östrem, 1959; Nicholson and Benn, 2006; Bisset et al., 2020). These contrasting effects have
50 been demonstrated by many recent studies (Gardelle et al., 2012; Nuimura et al., 2017; Basnett et al., 2013; Fujita
51 and Sakai, 2014). The reduction of ablation associated with increasing debris thickness down glacier can lead to an
52 inverted mass-balance elevation profile on the debris-covered ablation zone, which has profound implications on
53 the evolution of a glacier under a warming climate (Banerjee, 2017). Some field studies have also identified diverse
54 effects on melt rates of debris cover with different thickness in Karakoram, one particular finding showed that thin
55 debris cover, e.g. 0.5 cm in thickness, does not accelerate ice melting in this region (Muhammad et al., 2020).
56 However, some remote sensing based research proposed while thick debris typically inhibits the melt rate, the
57 overall ablation on a glacier covered in debris can still exhibit a relatively significant magnitude (Kääb et al., 2012).
58 These findings imply that understanding of the process and feedback mechanisms governing ablation of debris-
59 covered glaciers in this region is still incomplete. Therefore, it is important to quantify not only the amplitude of
60 melt under time-variable debris cover but also its role in “Karakoram Anomaly” by assessing the thermal properties
61 of debris layers of different thickness.

62 Field glaciological and meteorological observations on glaciers in the Karakoram are limited by logistical and



63 political constraints (Mayer et al., 2014; Mihalcea et al., 2008). Consequently, a significant knowledge gap exists
64 for debris thickness and its thermal properties as well as the complex coupling of meteorology with heat exchange
65 over glaciers and in debris layers. A limited number of previous melt process investigations under debris layers,
66 e.g., Juen et al. (2014), Evatt et al. (2015), Muhammad et al. (2020), supported by remote sensing observations and
67 climate reanalysis data, have enabled physically-based numerical modeling to provide insight into thermal dynamics
68 within supraglacial debris. For example, Huo et al. (2021) provided new insights into the relationships between
69 ablation dynamics, surface morphology and debris transport, while Collier et al. (2015) developed understanding of
70 how debris cover affects the atmosphere–glacier feedback processes during the melt season. However, despite these
71 advancements, certain aspects remain insufficiently addressed. Specifically, the seasonal variations and long-term
72 changes in melt patterns, along with the manner in which debris cover exerts its influence on such variations, have
73 not been comprehensively studied. Understanding these dynamics is essential not only for establishing the physical
74 basis of the “Karakoram Anomaly” but also for quantifying the extent to which debris cover contributes to this
75 phenomenon. In this study, we applied an energy-mass balance model coupling heat conduction within debris layers
76 on Batura Glacier in Hunza valley, Karakoram to demonstrate the influence of debris cover on glacial melt. We aim
77 to: (1) reconstruct the long-term mass balance history of the Batura Glacier, a representative debris-covered glacier
78 in the region; and (2) numerically estimate the distributed ice melt rate under the spatially-heterogeneous
79 supraglacial debris of the Batura Glacier. By enhancing our understanding of glacier mass balance behavior and its
80 relationship to debris cover energy budgets in the Karakoram an over the last two decades, this research adds
81 significantly to existing knowledge in this field.

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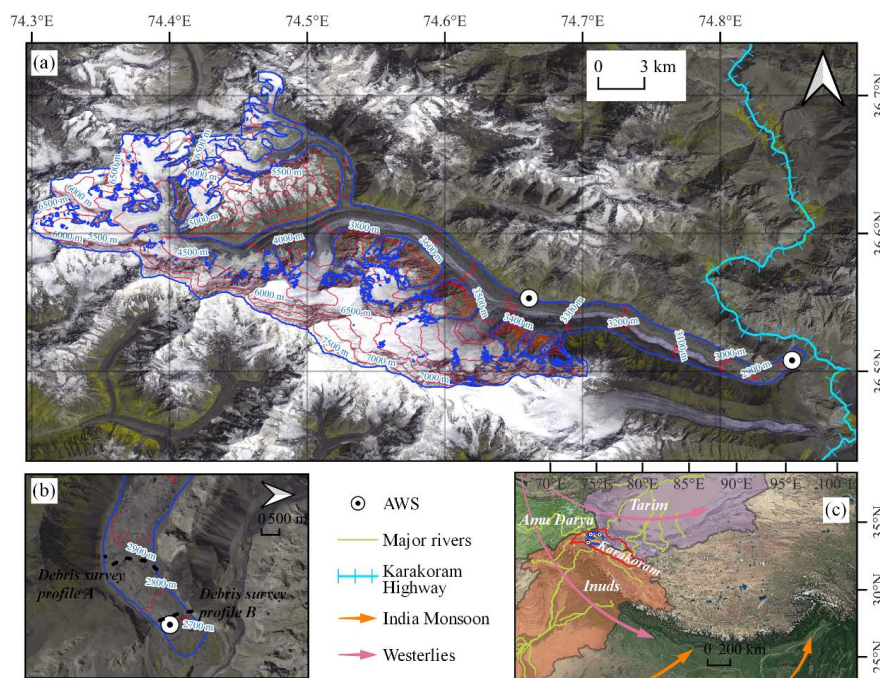
83 2 Study site

84 The Batura Glacier, located in northwest Karakoram, stands as one of the most prodigious valley-type glaciers
85 in the lower latitudes, extending over a length of more than 50 km and encompassing an expansive area exceeding
86 310 km² (Xie et al., 2023) (Figure 1). Approximately 24% (~76 km²) of the glacier's area is covered with debris
87 (Xie et al., 2023), while its thickness in the part below 3000 m a.s.l. surpasses 50 cm (Gao et al., 2020). Influenced
88 by the prevailing Westerlies, the Batura Glacier receives abundant snowfall (exceeding 1000 mm w.e. at altitudes
89 above 5000 meters) in the high-altitude region (Lanzhou Institute of Glaciology and Geocryology, 1980). The
90 glacier is characterized by a relatively lower average air temperature compared to observed glaciers in Tianshan and
91 Himalayas, particularly near the snowline, where frigid temperatures endure throughout the year, averaging



92 approximately -5°C annually. The glacier displays a rapid flow velocity, with a maximum rate reaching up to 517.5
93 m yr^{-1} , facilitated by a high rate of mass turnover, and undergoes frequent periods of advance and retreat, while
94 remaining devoid of any surging events (Bhambri et al., 2017).

95 Since the comprehensive investigation on Batura Glacier conducted by Lanzhou Institute of Glaciology and
96 Geocryology during 1974-1975, there has been a scarcity of systematic observations and studies on this glacier.
97 Contemporary investigations of Batura Glacier primarily utilize remote sensing observations, focusing on the
98 glacier dynamics and long-term mass balance, e.g. Rankl and Braun (2016), Wu et al. (2021). There is a challenge
99 in understanding glacier ablation, associated secondary hazards, and the contribution of glacier runoff to river
100 replenishment.



101
102 Figure 1 Study area. (a) Topographical conditions of Batura Glacier. (b) Measurement profiles of debris thickness.
103 (c) Geographic location of Batura Glacier, with the red line marked the Karakoram, the blue line indicating the
104 Hunza valley, and Batura situated within the Hunza valley. The three weather stations labeled are Khunjerab,
105 Ziarat, and Naltar.

106 3 Data and methods

107 3.1 Data



108 3.1.1 Observations

109 An automatic weather station (AWS 1, 74.661° E, 36.550° N, 3390 m) was set up at Batura Glacier on 23
110 September 2013 by the Northwest Institute of Eco-Environment and Resources, Chinese Academy of Sciences
111 (Figure 1a) and has been in continuous operation since. the location of which is shown in Figure 1. Variables
112 observed at the station are maximum/minimum wind speed and direction, maximum/minimum air temperature,
113 relative humidity, atmospheric pressure, upward and downward long- and shortwave radiation and precipitation,
114 recorded at daily. In this study, we use data from AWS1 in the period 23 September 2013 to 9 May 2018 for the bias
115 correction of HAR v2 (High Asia Refined) reanalysis data(Wang et al., 2020) (see section 3.1.2) and for the accuracy
116 assessment of the energy-mass balance simulations. A second AWS (AWS 2, 74.851° E, 36.506° N, 2664 m) was
117 set up in August 2019 by Yunnan University on a debris-covered part of the tongue of Batura Glacier. Meteorological
118 variables measured consistent with AWS 1 but without precipitation. We use data from AWS 2 between 1 September
119 2019 to 25 November 2020 in this study to assess the accuracy of parameters for energy balance in the debris-
120 covered area. We additionally used daily maximum/minimum temperatures and precipitation from stations at
121 Khunjerab, Ziarat, and Naltar in the Hunza Valley covering a period from January 1, 1999 to December 31, 2008 to
122 assess the accuracy of HAR in the Hunza basin.

123 A cross-section of debris thickness data at the terminus of the Batura Glacier (2014) was surveyed by Comsats
124 University Islamabad of Pakistan. Additionally, we collected measurements of debris thickness at six sample points
125 near AWS 2 during in 2019. These data were primarily utilized to validate the simulated surface debris thickness
126 results obtained in this study, based on the methodology proposed by Rounce et al. (2021).

127

128 3.1.2 Reanalysis data

129 The HAR reanalysis data is a product derived from the dynamical downscaling process using the WRF model.
130 The first version of this product was driven by Final operational global analysis (FNL) reanalysis data, while the
131 second version utilized ERA5-atmospheric (0.25°) data (Wang et al., 2020). Compared to the first version, the
132 second version expanded the simulation range and extended the data time and will continue to receive updates (see
133 Wang et al. (2020)). In the production of the meteorological variables, the dynamic assimilation of downscaled
134 results was achieved using satellite products and ground observations such as wind speed, wind direction,
135 temperature, and potential height. This process significantly improved the accuracy and credibility of the
136 downscaling simulation. Notably, the HAR product has shown great potential in reflecting regional water vapor



137 transport processes (Curio et al., 2015) as well as spatial heterogeneity and seasonal variations in precipitation and
138 temperature (Venter et al., 2020).

139 The meteorological variables in HAR v2 selected to meet the requirements of the energy balance simulation
140 include precipitation, air temperature at 2 m, wind speed (U and V at 10 m), atmospheric pressure, specific humidity,
141 downward shortwave radiation, and cloud cover. The 10 m wind speed was converted to 2 m using an empirical
142 formula provided by Allen et al. (1998), while specific humidity was converted to relative humidity using the
143 formula given by Bolton (1980) utilizing 2 m air temperature and atmospheric pressure.

144 Temperature was calibrated at the basin scale using a deviation function, which resulted in a range of $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$
145 between HAR temperature and station temperature, with a correlation coefficient of 0.98. Details regarding
146 precipitation calibration can be found in section 3.2. Due to the lack of observations for other variables, no further
147 processing was conducted in this study.

148 3.1.3 Other data

149 The geodetic mass balance for Batura Glacier generated by Brun et al. (2017), Wu et al. (2020), Shean et al.
150 (2020), Hugonnet et al. (2021) were utilized to validate the energy and mass balance simulation results. These mass
151 balance data were derived from DEM differences with some assumptions such as glacier density, etc. Except for
152 Hugonnet et al. (2021) five-year mass balance (2000-2020), the other data only show the long-term mass balance
153 status after 2000. Time ranges for all mass balance data can be found in Figure. S2. The DEM with a resolution of
154 30 meters from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) was used to generate required terrain factors, while
155 the glacier boundary was defined using the most recent result published by Xie et al. (2023).

156 3.2 Methods

157 3.2.1 The physically-based energy-mass balance (EMB) model

158 The EMB model for snow and ice is a distributed model that combines surface energy processes with a
159 subsurface evolution scheme of snow/ice (COSIPY v1.3) which was developed by Sauter et al. (2020). Details of
160 the model relating to applied parametrizations, physical principles and technical infrastructure have been described
161 in Huintjes et al. (2015) and Sauter et al. (2020). In common with previous energy balance models, the surface
162 energy budget is defined as the sum of the net radiation, turbulent heat fluxes (including sensible heat flux q_{sh} and
163 latent heat flux q_{ln}), conductive heat flux (q_g), sensible heat flux of rain (q_{rr}) and melt energy (q_{me}) (Eq.1). The
164 net radiation is the sum of the net shortwave radiation calculated from incoming short radiation (q_{swin}) and surface
165 albedo (α), incoming longwave radiation (q_{lwin}) and outgoing longwave radiation (q_{lwin}). To link the surface



166 energy balance to subsurface thermal conduction, the surface temperature (T_s) is defined as an upper Neumann
167 boundary condition. The penetrating energy scheme is based on Bintanja and Van (1995).

$$168 \quad q_{me} = q_{sw_{in}}(1 - \alpha) + q_{lw_{in}} + q_{lw_{out}} + q_{sh} + q_{lh} + q_{rr} + q_g \quad (1)$$

169 The glacier melt is solved using q_{me} and penetrating energy, while the sublimation is solved using q_{lh} .
170 Combined with the snowfall and refreezing of meltwater (or rain), the total mass balance of glacier can be calculated
171 (Eq2). The sum of subsurface melt (m_{sub}) triggered by penetrating energy and the refreezing of meltwater (or rain)
172 (refreeze), defined as internal mass balance. The internal ablation occurs when temperature at a specific layer reach
173 the melting temperature (T_m). Internal meltwater, in combine with infiltrated surface meltwater, can be stored in the
174 snow layers. Once a layer gets saturated, meltwater will drain into the next layer until the liquid water content within
175 all layers is less than a defined ratio or the meltwater runs off when it reaches the lowest model layer. In this process,
176 a part of meltwater refreezes when temperature at a layer less than T_m . Details for resolving mass and energy
177 budgets can be found in Sauter et al. (2020).

$$178 \quad mb = \left(\frac{q_{me}}{L_m} + \frac{q_{lh}}{L_v} + \text{snowfall} \right) + (m_{sub} + \text{refreeze}) \quad (2)$$

179 where L_m is the latent heat of ice melt and L_v is the latent heat of sublimation or condensation.

180 The debris energy balance is calculated according to the model of Reid and Brock (2010), and the reader is
181 referred to their paper for a detailed description of the model. The sum of energy fluxes at the surface is essentially
182 the same as Eq. 1, but because debris does not melt the debris surface temperature T_s is assumed to change such that
183 these fluxes sum to zero:

$$184 \quad q_{sw_{in}}(1 - \alpha) + q_{lw_{in}}(T_s) + q_{lw_{out}}(T_s) + q_{sh}(T_s) + q_{lh}(T_s) + q_{rr}(T_s) + q_g(T_s) = 0 \quad (3)$$

185 The circularity in solving for T_s is resolved using a numerical Newton-Raphson method (Eq. 4). Conduction
186 through the debris is then calculated using a Crank-Nicholson scheme with intermediate temperature layers for a
187 set depth, and boundary conditions determined by the newly calculated T_s and the temperature of the debris-ice
188 interface, which is assumed to stay at zero (Eq. 5). The ablation rate is determined from the conductive heat flux to
189 the first ice layer, found using the temperature gradient between the lowest debris layer and the ice (Eq. 6). The
190 detailed solution processes for Eq. 4~6 can be found in Figure 2 and supplementary materials in Reid and Brock
191 (2010).

$$192 \quad T_s(n + 1) = T_s(n) - \frac{fun(T_s(n))}{fun'(T_s(n))} \quad (4)$$

193 where, $T_s(n)$ and $fun(T_s(n))$ refer to the temperature and the total energy flux at nth debris layer. The
194 termination condition for this solution is set as $T_s(n + 1) - T_s(n) < 0.01$.



195
$$Q_G = -k_d \left(\frac{dT_s}{dz} \right) \approx k_d \frac{T_s(N-1) - T_m}{h} \quad (5)$$

196
$$Melt_{deb} = \frac{Q_G}{\rho_i L_f} \quad (6)$$

197 where, h represents the thickness of each layer, n represents the number of debris layers, and k_d is the
198 thermal conductivity of supraglacial debris. $Melt_{deb}$ refers to ablation under debris.

199

200 3.2.2 Model setup and input data

201 In this study, HAR v2 data were used to drive the model to simulate the energy and mass balance of the Batura
202 Glacier from 2000 to 2020. The inputs were precipitation rate, air temperature, incoming shortwave radiation, cloud
203 cover, air pressure, wind speed, and relative humidity. The simulation was conducted at a spatial resolution of 300m
204 and a temporal step of 1 day. The primary meteorological drivers, such as precipitation and temperature, were
205 calibrated using data from meteorological stations. We employed statistical methods to downscale all meteorological
206 inputs to a resolution of 300m (for more details, please refer to the supplementary methods). The simulation grid
207 was constrained using the glacier boundaries from Xie et al. (2023), and no dynamic adjustments of the glacier were
208 considered.

209 We utilized the data from Rounce et al. (2021) based on an inversed energy balance modeling procedure as
210 debris thickness input. We validated the simulated debris thickness using observed data, which showed an average
211 deviation of 6 cm. However, it should be noted that the Rounce et al. (2021) results significantly underestimated the
212 debris thickness at certain locations near the terminus of the glacier. For instance, at AWS2, the observed debris
213 thickness was approximately 1.13 m, whereas the inverted thickness was only 0.47 m.

214

215 3.2.3 Parameters calibration/ validation

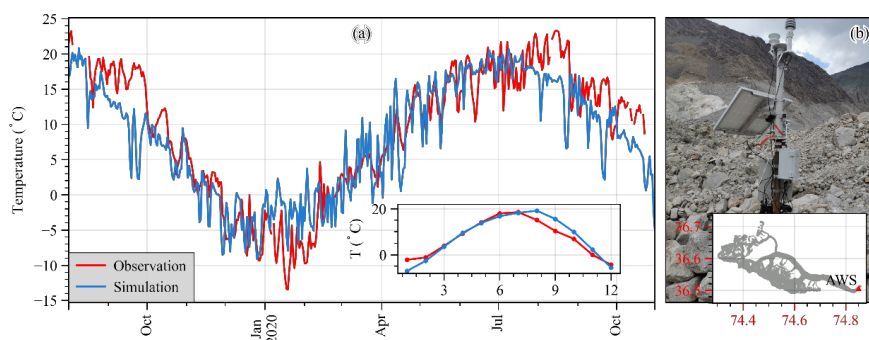
216 In this study, we use the value ranges for most parameters which have been acquired from empirical equations,
217 large extent observations, and physical processes simulation in previous studies e.g., Reid and Brock (2010), Mölg
218 et al. (2012), Hoffman et al. (2016), Zhu et al. (2020), and Sauter et al. (2020). Given the possible parameter ranges,
219 we have made great effort to obtain the optimal parameter combination. We first determined the values for these
220 physical parameters based on a site-based simulation (AWS1) on Batura Glacier and validated them by identifying
221 the observed outgoing longwave radiation and albedo with the minimum RMSE. The final RMSE between
222 simulations and observations on albedo and outgoing longwave radiation are 0.09 and 18.93 W/m², respectively,
223 and there is a high degree of correlation between observations and simulations on annual variations, with correlation



224 coefficients (cc) of 0.83 for albedo and 0.86 for outgoing longwave radiation (Figure S1). Second, we validated the
225 model parameters at for Batura Glacier using geodetic mass balance. The geodetic mass balance agrees well with
226 the simulated mass balance, with an average bias of 0.27 m w.e. at the AWS1 site during different periods (see
227 Figure S2). Particularly, there is a strong agreement between the results from Hugonnet et al. (2021) and our
228 simulations in terms of the trend observed from 2000 to 2020 (Figure S2). This indicates that the parameters used
229 in our study can reliably and accurately estimate the mass and energy budget.

230 A point simulation at AWS2 was conducted to calibrate and validate the parameters required to simulate energy
231 balance in debris layers. Following Giese et al. (2020), we ascertained the parameters by evaluating the agreement
232 between the simulated surface temperature and the temperature recorded by AWS 2. Figure 2 depicts the
233 comparative analysis of the observed station temperature and the simulated temperature, revealing a commendable
234 consistency between the two over time, exhibiting a correlation coefficient of 0.87. Although there is a tendency to
235 underestimate the temperature in late summer and autumn, and overestimate temperature in late winter. The
236 correlation of observed and simulated temperature for the annual cycle is 0.96, while the RMSE during the
237 simulation period is 0.86 °C. These findings indicate the favorable applicability of the parameterization scheme and
238 parameter values employed for the simulation.

239 Based on the final parameters determined, the simulated mass balance for the entire glacier is estimated to be
240 $-0.23 \text{ m w.e.yr}^{-1}$ (2000-2016). It closely aligns with the geodetic mass balances derived from remote sensing (-0.18
241 m w.e.yr^{-1} , spanning the years 2000-2016, Brun et al. (2017), $-0.39 \text{ m w.e.yr}^{-1}$, covering the years 2000-2009, Bolch
242 et al. (2017), and $-0.24 \text{ m w.e.yr}^{-1}$, covering the years 2000-2014, Wu et al. (2020)). This further corroborates the
243 reliability of the simulation. The final parameters can be found in Table S1 and S2.



244
245 **Figure 2** (a) Observed and simulated 2 m air temperature at AWS 2. (b) Photograph and location of AWS2 on
246 Batura Glacier.



247

248 4 Results and discussions

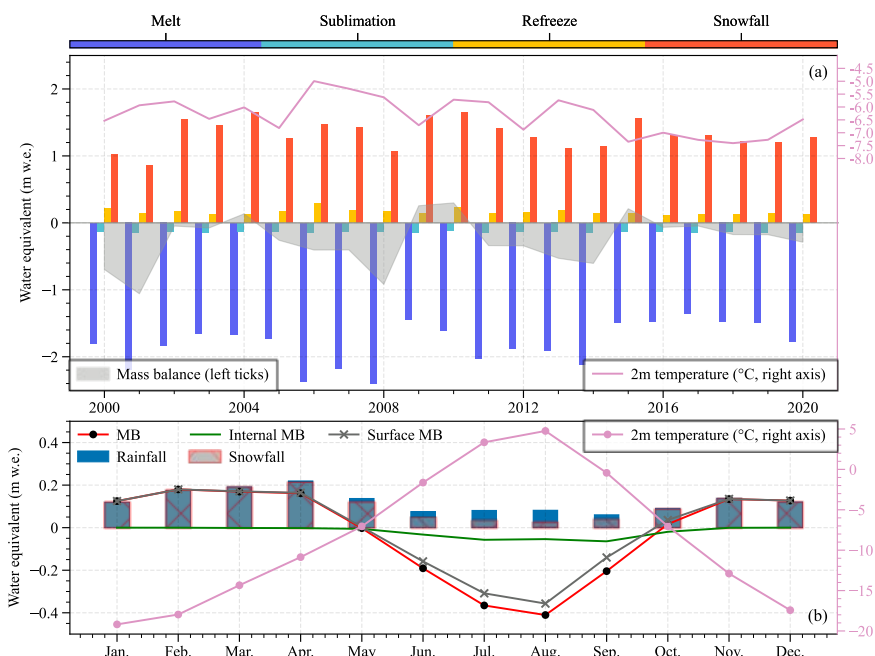
249 4.1 Glacier climatic-mass-balance dynamics and corresponding energy budgets

250 4.1.1 Mass balance history

251 The results from the energy balance model show that the average mass balance of the Batura Glacier during
252 the studied period was -0.262 ± 0.561 m w.e. yr^{-1} (Table 1). The glacier experienced its highest positive mass balance
253 in 2010 (0.32 m w.e. yr^{-1}) and its greatest negative mass balance in 2001 (-1.19 m w.e. yr^{-1}). Snowfall was the
254 primary source of glacier mass gain, accounting for 89% of the total mass gain. Refreezing mitigated the internal
255 melting caused by radiation penetration and contributed to 11% of the mass accumulation. Glacier melting
256 constituted 92% of the mass loss, while sublimation/evaporation, which exhibited minimal interannual variability,
257 contributed only 8% to the mass loss.

258 The model simulations show a decline in glacier ablation after 2008, accompanied by a decrease in the absolute
259 magnitude of the mass budget over the study period (Figure 3a). Independent measurements of thinning rates at
260 the glacier terminus measured by ground radar, declined from 4.58 m yr^{-1} between 1974-2000 to 0.59 m yr^{-1} after
261 2000 (Gao et al., 2020), implying a similar reducing trend in surface melt rate. This observation further strengthens
262 the alignment with our research results.

263 As shown in Figure 3b, the variations in internal mass balance and surface mass balance are generally
264 consistent throughout the year, both showing a negative mass balance from June to September. During this period,
265 there was a high shortwave radiation and, consequently, a great amount of snow/ice penetrating radiation occurred.
266 This increased ablation resulted from penetration radiation, coupled with relatively high temperature, reducing the
267 rate of refreezing, and thus causing a negative internal mass balance. The mass budgets in May and October were
268 transitional between accumulation and ablation periods.



269

270 Figure 3 Interannual (upper panel) and mean annual (lower panel) characteristics of the mass components on
 271 Batura Glacier over the 2000-2020 study period.

272

Table 1 Mean values of the mass balance components of Batura glacier from 2000 to 2020.

	Snow				
	Mass balance	accumulation	Refreezing	Surface melt	Sublimation
Values (m w.e. yr ⁻¹)	-0.262±0.561	1.325±0.174	0.162±0.125	1.613±0.394	0.136±0.005
Proportion of mass gain (loss) (%)	—	89	11	(92)	(8)

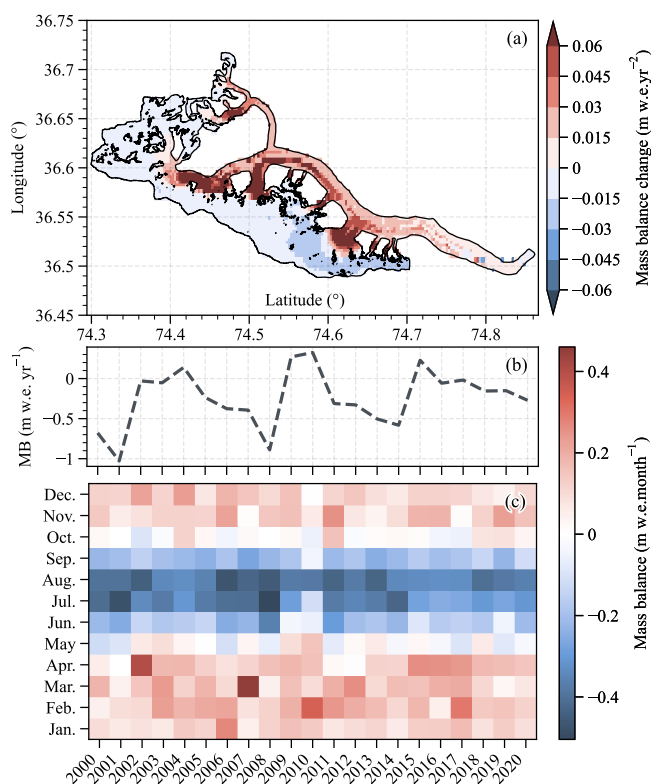
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274 Over the study period, the glacier demonstrated a positive rate of annual mass balance change of 0.023 m w.e.
 275 yr⁻², indicating the glacier's mass balance was becoming less negative and approaching equilibrium between 2000-
 276 2020 (Figure 4 a and b). Particularly noteworthy is the trend of decreasing mass loss across the ablation zone, which
 277 is particularly pronounced in the higher areas of the tongue and tributary glaciers where debris cover is thin or absent



278 (Refer to debris cover Figure S3b), which indicates a reduction in melt (Figure 4a). In contrast, the juncture where
279 debris cover and bare ice meet experienced an increase in the glacier mass balance, suggesting a rise in negative
280 mass balance (negative or balanced in average mass budget during the study period, Figure S3a). Given the rate of
281 mass balance change over time (reduction of melt) is highest in these areas, the mass changes in these areas probably
282 have a large impact on the trend of decreasing negative mass balance.

283 Across the entire accumulation zone, a slight decrease in mass gain over the 2000-2020 period was observed,
284 with a more pronounced reduction in mass gain observed on the southern flank of the accumulation area, likely
285 linked to diminished winter snowfall. From a mass budget perspective, the glacier's mass balance appears to be
286 approaching equilibrium, likely due to reduced melting during the months of June and July (Figure 4c). For instance,
287 in years characterized by a positive mass balance, such as 2010, the duration of mass accumulation in spring
288 extended, accompanied by minimal mass loss during June and July. The glacier's mass balance generally followed
289 a cyclic pattern spanning roughly five-seven years. However, post-2016, a consistent decline in the glacier's mass
290 balance is evident, possibly indicating a phase of reduced snow accumulation (Figure 4c) gain.





292 **Figure 4** Spatial distribution of the annual mass balance change rate over the 2000-2020 period (a). Time series of
293 modeled annual (b) and monthly (c) mass balance from 2000-2020.

294 4.1.2 Energy budgets

295 During 2000-2021, the surface net radiation of the Batura Glacier accounted for the largest proportion of energy
296 heat flux (46%), followed by sensible heat flux (23%), latent heat flux (18%), and conduction heat flux (17%),
297 which made roughly equal contributions.

298 As presented in Table 2, the net shortwave radiation accounted for 85% of the total energy influx (77 W/m^2),
299 while sensible heat constituted 15% (14 W/m^2). Regarding energy expenditure components, net longwave radiation
300 contributed to 57% (52 W/m^2), melt heat to 20% (18 W/m^2), latent heat to 12% (11 W/m^2), and conductive heat to
301 11% (10 W/m^2). In terms of the energy components that contribute to glacial mass loss, sublimation latent heat
302 accounted for approximately 38%, while the energy directly responsible for snow/ice melting constituted 62%. For
303 the Batura Glacier, roughly 32% (29 W/m^2 out of 91 W/m^2) of the energy influx was consumed by glacier mass loss,
304 a proportion similar to that of Muztag Ata No.15 Glacier, which was situated in the Westerly influenced area (30%,
305 26 W/m^2 out of 89 W/m^2) (Zhu et al., 2017). However, it is worth noting that the melting heat of the Batura Glacier
306 was significantly higher than that of Muztag Ata No.15 Glacier ($\sim 2 \text{ W/m}^2$), possibly due to disparities in surface
307 debris cover.

308 During the period of accumulation, a notable proportion of 73% of the energy influx of the Batura Glacier was
309 expended through net longwave radiation, with 15% of the energy utilized for snow/ice sublimation, leaving the
310 remaining portion dedicated to thermal conduction within the debris cover or snow layer. In contrast, throughout
311 the ablation season, the entirety of the energy influx was derived mostly from net shortwave radiation, specifically
312 amounting to 133 W/m^2 . The thermal conduction exhibited by the Batura Glacier diverged significantly from debris-
313 free glaciers, such as the Guliya ice cap (Li et al., 2019). In the Batura Glacier, a considerable portion of the energy
314 influx at lower elevations was absorbed by the debris cover, resulting in higher surface temperatures compared to
315 the lower layers, thus yielding negative thermal conduction. Conversely, in the accumulation area, the primary
316 source of energy was dedicated to heating the snow layer. It became evident that during the ablation season, the
317 debris cover assumed a more prominent role, ultimately leading to an overall negative thermal conduction. Among
318 the various components of energy contributing to the glacier mass loss during the ablation period, a significant
319 portion of 69% was attributed to melt heat (33 W/m^2), while the remaining 31% was assigned to sublimation latent
320 heat (15 W/m^2).



321

322

Table 2 The energy budget on Batura Glacier. All units are W/m^2 .

Periods	lw_{in}	lw_{out}	sw_{in}	sw_{out}	Net lw	Net sw	Net radiation		sh		lh		g		me
							—	%	—	%	—	%	—	%	
Annual average	212	-264	249	-172	-52	77	25	42	14	23	-11	18	-10	17	18
Ablation (6-9)	231	-293	345	-212	-62	133	71	65	-7	6	-15	14	-16	15	33
Accumula tion (10-5)	202	-249	187	-153	-48	34	-12	19	32	52	-10	16	-8	13	0

323

324 4.2 Comparations on energy and mass budgets at altitude zones

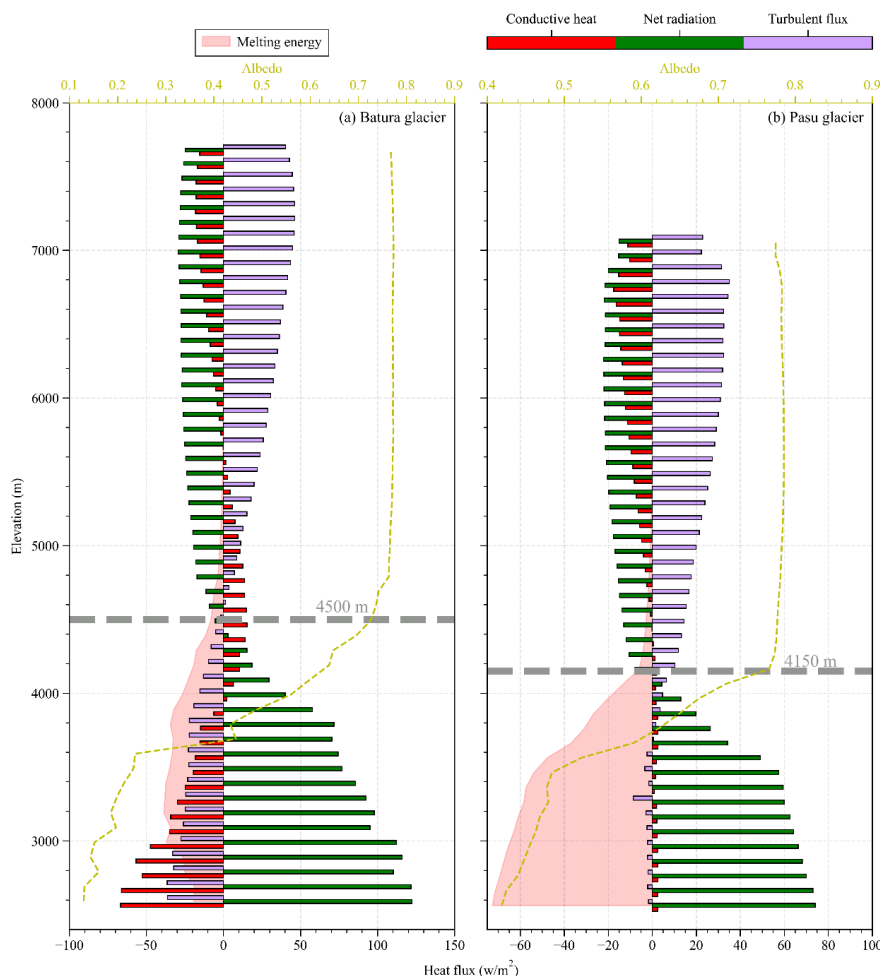
325 A significant heterogeneity of mass balance was observed in the Batura Glacier. The mass gain in the glacier
 326 accumulation zone can reach up to almost 2 m w.e., whereas terminus melting exceeded 4 m w.e. between 3000-
 327 3800 m. Mass balance exhibited distinct altitudinal dependence, whereby the most substantial melting was observed
 328 not at the glacier tongue but rather in the range between 3000 and 3400 m (Fig S4a). To elucidate the variations in
 329 mass balance across different elevation zones of glaciers, a comparative study was conducted between the Pasu
 330 Glacier and the Batura Glacier. The debris-free Pasu glacier is situated adjacent to the Batura Glacier and
 331 experiences similar climatic conditions. Consequently, simulations were conducted on the Pasu Glacier using
 332 identical parameters.

333 The equilibrium line altitude (ELA) of the Batura Glacier (4500 m) was significantly higher than that of the
 334 Pasu glacier (4150 m). Below the ELA, both glaciers exhibit gentle overall slopes, leading to higher receipt of solar
 335 shortwave radiation. As shown in Figure 4, the net radiation of the Batura Glacier was significantly larger than that
 336 of the Pasu glacier, primarily attributable to surface albedo disparity. The Pasu Glacier's surface primarily comprises
 337 firm or ice, whereas the Batura Glacier is largely covered with fragmented rocks. Evidently, the sensible heat of melt
 338 for the Batura Glacier is less than that of the Pasu Glacier, chiefly due to heat conduction between debris layers,
 339 which absorb a substantial amount of energy. Overall, the Batura Glacier demonstrated a "bow-shaped" melt energy



340 pattern from its terminus to the ELA, in sharp contrast to the "slope-increasing" pattern exhibited by the Pasu Glacier.
341 This elevation-linked energy distribution pattern also affects the glaciers' melt characteristics (Figure S4).

342 Within the regions spanning from the ELA to the zones of maximum snow accumulation (Batura: 4500-5400
343 m, Pasu: 4150-5400 m), glacier mass accumulated rapidly due to significantly heightened snowfall (Figure S4).
344 Turbulent heat exchange intensifies within this altitude range, with latent heat of melting approaching zero. Limited
345 melting resulted in mass accumulation within the snowpack through refreezing (Figure 5). At altitudes exceeding
346 5200 m, net radiation, turbulent exchange, and conductive heat flux did not demonstrate significant variation. Net
347 radiation was dominated by longwave radiation, and the snow's surface temperature surpassed the air temperature.
348 The glacier functioned as an energy source, transferring energy to the atmosphere to sustain energy balance,
349 transferring energy to the atmosphere to maintain energy balance. While the maximum snowfall on the Batura
350 Glacier was similar to that on the Pasu Glacier, the accumulating area was larger. For instance, in the region above
351 7000 m, up to 1 m w.e. of snowfall was observed on the Batura Glacier (Figures S4). Dominated by snowfall and
352 with limited melting, the surface albedo predominantly reflected fresh snow. Changes in precipitation not only
353 induced net radiation variations due to snow albedo feedback but also triggered outgoing longwave radiation and
354 sensible heat variations through alterations in surface temperature. This trait aligned with some of the other glaciers
355 in this area, as well as some glaciers in the West Kunlun and Pamir (Li et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2017; Bonekamp et
356 al., 2019). However, the Batura Glacier exhibited more negative mass balance compared to these glaciers including
357 the Pasu glacier. Thus, we inferred that the dominant factor shaping the Batura Glacier's mass balance tendency was
358 the impact of low-elevation debris cover on melt latent heat.



359

360 **Figure 5** Characteristics of altitude gradient of primary energy components for (a) Batura Glacier and (b) Pasu
361 glacier.

362

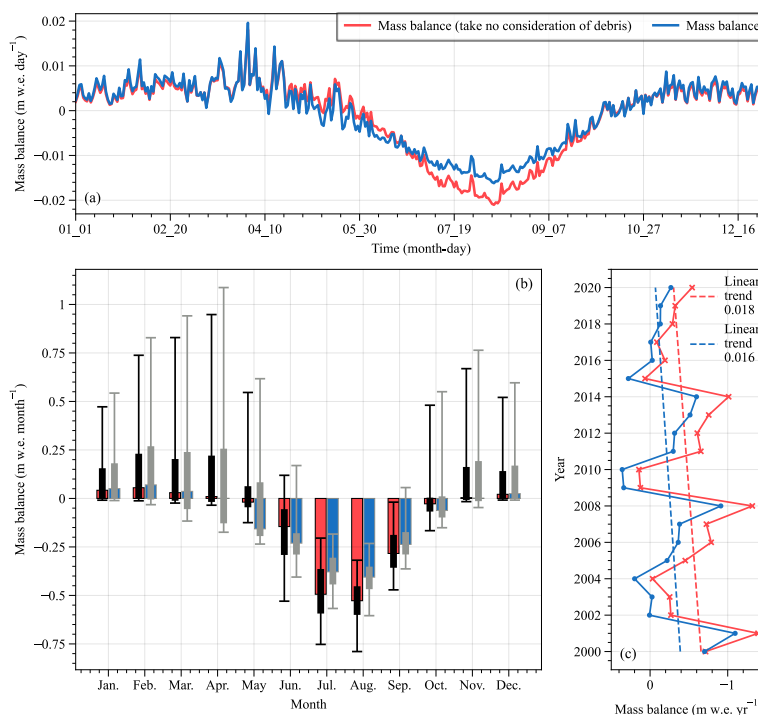
363 4.3 Impact of debris cover on glacier mass balance

364 To assess the influence of debris on mass balance, we conducted simulations that compared scenarios with and
365 without supraglacial debris on the Batura Glacier. Our findings revealed that the presence of supraglacial debris led
366 to a notable 45% reduction in the negative mass balance of the Batura Glacier. Specifically, without the presence of
367 debris, the mass balance exhibited a value of $-0.48 \text{ m w.e. yr}^{-1}$, while with the inclusion of debris, this value
368 decreased to $-0.26 \text{ m w.e. yr}^{-1}$.



369 Regardless of the time scale, whether on a daily or monthly basis, the impact of supraglacial debris on the
370 Batura Glacier manifested most prominently during the ablation season, as depicted in Figure 6a and 6b. On an
371 interannual scale, supraglacial debris had a significant impact on mass balance of the Batura Glacier; however, it
372 did not induce alterations in its overall fluctuations or trends (Figure 6c). This was mainly because the simulation
373 process did not include the influence of supraglacial debris evolution on mass balance.

374 The debris had a significant protective effect, effectively mitigating glacier ablation. This effect was most
375 pronounced in August, a period characterized by elevated air temperatures. During May and June an extensive snow
376 cover blanketed the Batura Glacier. When supraglacial debris is included in energy balance processes, the snow
377 layer absorbed a greater amount of heat from the atmosphere through thermal conduction, thereby leading to
378 accelerated melting. As the snow progressively melted and the debris became exposed, the surface albedo
379 experienced a rapid decline spanning from July to October. This transition resulted in the debris absorbing a greater
380 portion of incoming shortwave radiation, much of which is returned to the atmosphere as emitted longwave radiation
381 of sensible heat, consequently yielding a reduction in the melting energy affecting the glacier (Figure 6b). Statistical
382 analysis revealed that when supraglacial debris was not considered, the average net radiation decreased by 14 W/m^2 .
383 The most substantial reduction was observed in May, with a reduction of approximately 20 W/m^2 .



384



385 **Figure 6** The difference between modeled mass balance with (blue lines and bars) and without debris cover (red
386 lines and bars): (a) daily mass balance; (b) monthly mass balance; and (c) annual mass balance trend.

387 4.4 The energy controls of sub-debris melt

388 We conducted additional investigations to understand the mechanisms through which supraglacial debris
389 absorbs and releases energy and consequently mitigates ablation. In the case of the Batura Glacier, the presence of
390 supraglacial debris has the potential to diminish the glacier's albedo, thereby fostering an augmented receipt of net
391 shortwave radiation. Notwithstanding the observed augmentation in net radiation, but an attenuation in melt was
392 recorded. To investigate the impact of debris on energy-driven melting, this study conducted a statistical analysis of
393 the energy balance for scenarios with and without debris coverage in the specific area characterized by the presence
394 of debris (Figure 7). The results illuminated that while the presence of debris did amplify the net radiation income,
395 the available energy for melting is reduced by longwave radiation emission, sensible heat, and thermal conduction
396 within the debris (an average decrease of 25 W/m^2).

397 During the ablation season (June to September), when accounting for the presence of debris, the glacier's
398 energy income, represented by net shortwave radiation, witnessed an augmentation of 61 W/m^2 . Meanwhile, the
399 energy output increased by 116 W/m^2 , comprising net longwave radiation (50 W/m^2), sensible heat (42 W/m^2), and
400 conductive heat (24 W/m^2). Consequently, this led to a reduction of 45 W/m^2 in latent heat of melt (sublimation heat
401 of the debris layer, which was not considered when deducting the 11 W/m^2 for sublimation heat without debris cover)
402 (Figure 7). In light of these observations, it can be concluded that the influence of debris cover on glacier melt is
403 twofold. Firstly, it perturbs the turbulent heat exchange processes on the glacier surface. Secondly, it alters the heat
404 flux reaching the glacier through thermal conduction. The former aspect primarily emanates from the heating of the
405 debris layer due to shortwave radiation, causing the debris temperature to surpass the atmospheric temperature.
406 Consequently, the glacier transfers heat to the atmosphere, effectively acting as an energy source. This finding aligns
407 with earlier research results, as exemplified by Steiner et al. (2018) and Nicholson and Stiperski (2020). Regarding
408 the second aspect, we conducted an analysis that considered the thermal conduction occurring within both the debris
409 and ice layer, as well as the energy equilibrium within each layer. When the net radiation was conducted within the
410 debris layers (the radiation penetration of the debris was neglected), it could be consumed to heat the debris, thereby
411 satisfying the energy balance within and between the debris layers.

412 The process of heat conduction within the debris was clearly illustrated in our study through an analysis of
413 temperature changes within debris of varying thicknesses (Figure 8). During the ablation season, for thinner debris



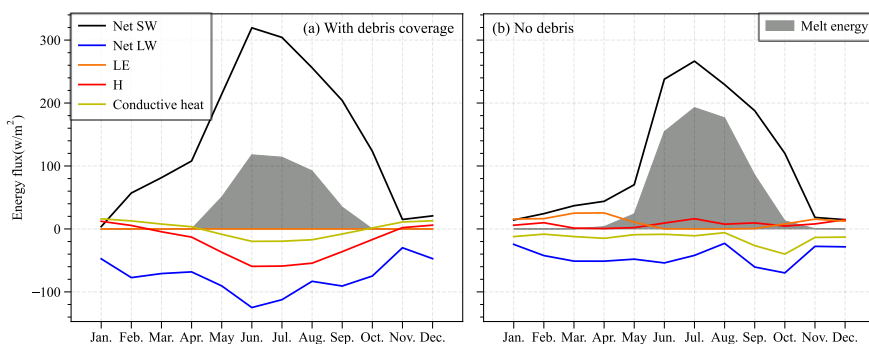
414 (Figure 8b, P1), achieving a stable ice surface at absolute zero necessitates a temperature difference of 2.5°C within
415 the uppermost 0.015 m (comprising 3 layers), with an average temperature decrease of 1.7°C per 0.01 m increment.
416 Conversely, in the case of thicker debris (Figure 8f), with a depth of 0.2 m (20 layers), the temperature alteration
417 amounts to 8°C, accompanied by a vertical temperature gradient of 0.4°C per 0.01 m. The variations in temperature
418 are indicative of the attributes associated with sensible heat and conduction heat. Consequently, with respect to the
419 upper layers, thin debris is more likely to conduct a greater amount of heat. At the interface between glaciers and
420 supraglacial debris, the temperature change at P1 (0.035-0.045 m) was 2.5 °C with a vertical gradient of
421 2.5 °C/0.01m. At P5 (0.42-0.55 m), the vertical gradient of temperature was 0.61 °C/0.01m. This indicates that in
422 areas covered by thin supraglacial debris, more energy was transferred from the debris to the glacier, resulting in a
423 greater amount of latent heat being released by the glacier.

424 When the thickness of the debris is comparable, the vertical temperature gradient within the debris exhibits a
425 corresponding similarity (P2, P4), except for slight deviations primarily observed at the surface. These variations
426 are primarily attributed to discrepancies in both air temperature and surface temperature of the debris between the
427 two points. Throughout the accumulation period, net shortwave radiation remained limited, leading to low
428 temperatures and causing the debris temperature to either match or drop below freezing point. As a result, the rate
429 of heat conduction process decelerated, thereby mitigating the influence of the debris on glacier melting.

430 To quantify the relationship between the thickness (x) of the debris layer and the vertical temperature gradient
431 (y), we computed the average temperature gradient for individual pixels within the debris-covered area during the
432 ablation period and conducted regression analysis (Figure 8g). According to Eq. 7, an increase in debris layer
433 thickness corresponds to a reduction in the vertical temperature gradient. Combined with Eq. 4 & 5, the heat
434 conduction to the interface between the debris layer and the glacier will also decrease, leading to diminished
435 availability of latent heat that contributes to glacier melting. As the thickness of the debris layer approaches minimal
436 values, the heat originating from a temperature difference of approximately 20°C is used for melting. This
437 fundamentally quantifies the impact of debris cover thickness on melt and further explains the differences in mass
438 balance shown in Figure S3.

439
$$y = -15.35\ln(x) + 36.5(1 - x) \quad (7)$$

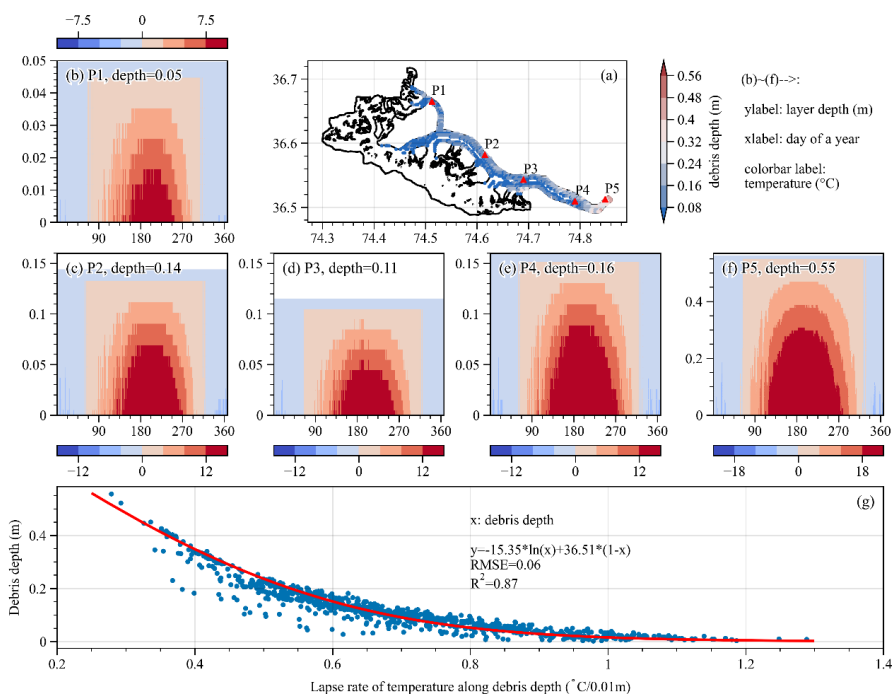
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Figure 7 Annual cycles of energy budget (a) with and (b) without debris coverage on Batura Glacier.



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5 Conclusions and outlook

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This study presented a comprehensive investigation into the relationships between supraglacial debris cover, energy fluxes, and mass balance dynamics on the Batura Glacier in the Karakoram. Through analysis and modeling,



451 we propose that the primary factor influencing the comparatively low negative mass balance of the Batura Glacier
452 is the substantial inhibitory impact exerted by the surface debris on the process of ablation. Furthermore, the glacier's
453 mass budget has shown a decreasing trend in magnitude between 2000 and 2020, primarily due to a reduction in
454 ablation, especially in areas with thin debris cover and debris-free parts of the ablation area, which outweighs the
455 relatively smaller reduction in snowfall accumulation. More detailed findings and viewpoints of the study are
456 concluded as follows.

- 457 (1) The Batura Glacier exhibits substantial spatial heterogeneity in mass balance distribution along its
458 elevation gradient. Altitudinal dependence was influenced by the presence of debris cover, resulting in the
459 most intense melting occurring between 3000 and 3400 m, with a reversal of the ablation gradient below
460 3000 m due to the greater insulation by thicker debris on the lower portion of the glacier.
- 461 (2) Our simulations revealed that supraglacial debris cover exerted a notable influence on glacier mass balance.
462 Including debris cover in the energy balance model led to a 45% reduction in the overall mass balance of
463 the Batura Glacier. This reduction was particularly prominent during the ablation season, highlighting the
464 significance of debris cover in mitigating glacier ablation.
- 465 (3) The role of debris cover in altering energy exchange was multifaceted. Debris cover enhances net radiation
466 income by reducing albedo but also promotes thermal conduction, which warms the debris and leads to a
467 higher rate of energy transfer to the atmosphere through longwave emission and sensible heat, thereby
468 moderating latent heat of melting. This intricate interplay modified the glacier's response to energy budgets,
469 ultimately affecting its mass balance.
- 470 (4) Our investigation into the effects of debris thickness on temperature gradients within the debris layer
471 reveals a fundamental connection between debris thickness and its influence on melt processes. Thicker
472 debris layers engender reduced temperature gradients, leading to diminished latent heat available for
473 glacier melting.

474 This study significantly advances our understanding of energy and mass interaction on debris-covered glaciers
475 in the Karakoram. However, further work is needed to improve our understanding of glacier anomalies in this region.
476 First, future work should consider the evolution of supraglacial debris thickness, as changes in this thickness have
477 a significant impact on the energy reaching the glacier surface. Second, glacier dynamics should be considered in
478 the simulations, and more remote sensing products such as glacier flow velocity should be added to constrain the
479 different processes of the model. Finally, this paper has pointed out that the mass balance of Batura Glacier is



480 becoming less negative, which is an interesting phenomenon linking with the "Karakoram anomaly" and should be
481 further discussed and investigation.

482

483 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

484

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