

1 **First evidence of microplastic contamination in the supraglacial debris of**  
2 **an Alpine glacier**

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4 Roberto Ambrosini<sup>1\*</sup>, Roberto Sergio Azzoni<sup>1</sup>, Francesca Pittino<sup>2</sup>, Guglielmina Diolaiuti<sup>1</sup>, Andrea  
5 Franzetti<sup>2</sup>, Marco Parolini<sup>1</sup>

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7 <sup>1</sup> Department of Environmental Science and Policy, University of Milan, Via Celoria 26, I-20131 Milano, Italy.

8 <sup>2</sup> Department of Earth and Environmental Science, University of Milano-Bicocca, Piazza della Scienza 1, I-  
9 20134 Milano, Italy.

10

11 **Abstract**

12 Contamination by plastic debris has been documented in most regions of the world, but their  
13 occurrence in high mountain areas has not been investigated to date. Here we present the first  
14 report of the occurrence and amount of microplastic in any terrestrial glacier environment. In the  
15 supraglacial debris of the Forni Glacier (Italian Alps), we observed the occurrence of (mean  $\pm$   
16 standard error)  $74.4 \pm 28.3$  items  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  of sediment (dry weight). This amount is within the range of  
17 variability of microplastic contamination observed in marine and coastal sediments in Europe. Most  
18 plastic items were made by polyesters, followed by polyamide, polyethylene and polypropylene.  
19 We estimated that the whole ablation area of Forni Glacier should host 131-162 million plastic  
20 items. Microplastic can be released directly into high elevation areas by human activities in the  
21 mountain or be transported by wind to high altitude. The amount of microplastic on Forni Glacier  
22 may be due to the gathering of debris coming from the large accumulation area towards the  
23 relatively smaller ablation area of the glacier, as a consequence of its flow and melting.

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25 **Keywords:** Alpine glacier; microplastics; mountain areas; supraglacial debris

26

27 **Capsule**

28 We present the first evidence of the occurrence of microplastic contamination on an Alpine glacier.

29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Accumulation of plastic polymer (hereafter plastic) items is one of the most ubiquitous and long-  
32 lasting changes to the earth surface that human activities have produced since mass production of

33 plastic commenced in the 1950s (Barnes et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 2004). Concerns have been  
34 raised in recent years on the potential impacts of plastic on ecosystems. Plastic is indeed persistent,  
35 accumulates in the environments, can enter the trophic chain, and its impacts on ecosystems have  
36 already been demonstrated (Barnes et al., 2009; Cole et al., 2011; Wright et al., 2013). In recent  
37 years, particular attention has been focused on microplastics, plastic items smaller than 5 mm that  
38 can be specifically produced to be used in diverse personal care products and in different industrial  
39 applications (i.e., primary microplastics), or can be generated by the break-down of macroplastics  
40 (secondary microplastics) (Eerkes-medrano et al., 2015). Surveys on marine and freshwater  
41 ecosystems have been established to monitor the temporal trends in the amount of plastic items.  
42 Oceanic campaigns have estimated the amount of macro- and microplastics afloat in the sea  
43 (Eriksen et al., 2014), and the amount transported to sea by rivers from terrestrial ecosystems.  
44 Moreover, recent studies have demonstrated that microplastics can be transported to virtually any  
45 part of the globe, also in the so-called remote areas. Indeed, plastic fragments have been found in  
46 deep sea, Southern Oceans, Arctic and Antarctica (Hamid et al., 2018), as well as in sub-alpine lake  
47 sediments (Imhof et al., 2013), in pelagic water and shoreline debris from high-mountain lakes (Free  
48 et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016), and floodplain soils in Alpine valleys (Scheurer and Bigalke, 2018).  
49 In addition, recent evidence of atmospheric microplastic deposition in a remote, pristine mountain  
50 area of the French Pyrenees suggests that microplastics can reach and affect remote, sparsely  
51 inhabited areas far from emission source through atmospheric transport (Allen et al., 2019).  
52 However, to the best of our knowledge, no published study have documented the occurrence and  
53 the amount of plastic items on glaciers so far.

54 Glaciers are accumulation sites for aerially transported debris and pollutants as glacier ice form  
55 through the transformation of accumulated snowfalls, which are particularly efficient in scavenging  
56 contaminants, including small debris, from the atmosphere (e.g., Lovett and Kinsman, 1990; Lei and

57 Wania, 2004). Temperate glaciers then flow down valley, and the ablation area of valley glaciers  
58 thus concentrates the debris and the contaminants collected over the much vaster accumulation  
59 area of the glacier (Nakawo et al., 1986). For this reason, supraglacial debris is particularly rich in  
60 air-transported pollutants (Cook et al., 2016; Pittino et al., 2018), including radionuclides (Baccolo  
61 et al., 2017; Łokas et al., 2016). We thus hypothesized that similar processes may act also for  
62 microplastics, and we present here the first evidence of the occurrence and the first estimate of the  
63 amount of microplastic in the supraglacial debris of a large valley glacier in the Italian Alps.

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## 65 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 66 *2.1 Study Area*

67 This study was carried out on the ablation tongue of Forni Glacier, one of the widest Italian glaciers,  
68 with a total surface area of 11.34 km<sup>2</sup> and an ablation area of 0.59 km<sup>2</sup> (Azzoni et al., 2018). This  
69 glacier is located in the Ortles-Cevedale group (Stelvio National Park, Central Italian Alps), not far  
70 (~90 km) from a high-urbanized area as the Po Plain and it is very popular with mountaineers and  
71 hikers due to the presence of numerous path and alpine route.

### 72 *2.2 Sample collection*

73 On 20 and 24 July 2018, we collected two cryoconite samples and four samples of sparse  
74 supraglacial debris from the surface of the ablation area of Forni Glacier (Table S1). Cryoconite is a  
75 thin supraglacial debris of mostly aeolian origin that, when heated by solar radiation, can melt the  
76 undelaying ice forming small ponds. These 'cryoconite holes' are considered the most biologically  
77 active environments on glaciers (Cook et al., 2016). Sparse debris is a debris similar to cryoconite,  
78 occurring in glacier surface, but not forming ponds.

79 To avoid contamination, samples were collected in glass jars with a gardening metal shovel or a  
80 metal laboratory spoon. Jars and sampling tools were accurately cleaned with acetone before  
81 sampling. We also took care to avoid contamination by plastic fibres released by the clothes and  
82 shoes of the operator that collected samples by wearing a 100% cotton surgical gown and 100%  
83 wooden clogs (Fig. S1). Only the operator entered the area where we collected samples, while the  
84 other members of the team remained > 10 m apart for avoiding sample contamination.

## 85 *2.2 Microplastic floating and identification*

86 Extraction of microplastic items from supraglacial and cryoconite debris samples was performed  
87 according to the method first developed by Thompspon and co-authors (Thompson et al., 2004), and  
88 adapted by Klein and co-authors (Klein et al., 2015) to river sediments. All the glassware and  
89 stainless forceps used during extraction procedure was previously washed with ultrapure filtered  
90 water to avoid potential laboratory contamination. The extraction was performed under a laminar-  
91 flow hood. The synthetic polymers were separated from glacial sediments by density separation  
92 using a saturated sodium chloride solution (density =  $1.2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ;  $365 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ). About 50 g of sediments  
93 (dry weight; range 50.87 - 53.52 g; see Table S1) were mixed with 300 mL of the NaCl solution,  
94 previously filtered on glass fibre filters ( $\emptyset = 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ , Whatman GF/A 47 mm, GE Healthcare Europe  
95 GmbH), and stirred for 15 min. The sediment particles were allowed to settle overnight. Then, the  
96 solution containing the floating particles was transferred by using a 50 mL glass volumetric pipette  
97 to a glass separation flask, where it was filtered on glass fibre filters by using a water-jet pump. The  
98 saturated NaCl solution was continuously added to the separation flask. At the end of the filtration  
99 process, the flask was rinsed three times with 20 mL of ultrapure filtered water to recover potential  
100 plastic particles adherent to the glass flask. Natural, organic debris was removed by filters through  
101 an overnight treatment with a hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) solution (15%). The excess of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  solution  
102 was then rinsed twice with ultrapure filtered water, vacuum-filtrated through glass fibre filters,

103 rinsed again, and dried under a laminar-flow hood for 48 h. During all steps of sample preparation,  
104 glassware and filtration flask were covered with tinfoil to prevent contamination by plastic items. A  
105 blank sample was performed before and after the extraction from supraglacial sediment and  
106 cryoconite samples to check for any laboratory contamination. Saturated salt solution (300 mL) was  
107 stirred for 15 min, settled overnight and then filtered on glass fibre filters as described above. Filters  
108 were then digested with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (15%) overnight and, after rinsing with ultrapure filtered water, dried  
109 under a laminar-flow hood for 48 h. All the glassware used for filtration was accurately rinsed with  
110 ultrapure filtered water between samples. All the obtained filters were examined under a binocular  
111 microscope (Leica DM750; 20x – 40x of magnitude) and plastic items were classified by their shape  
112 into fragments or fibres. The size of plastic items observed on the filters was measured with the  
113 image processing package Fiji freeware software (Schindelin et al., 2012). Visual examination of all  
114 the particles was carefully performed to exclude natural debris (e.g. insect exuviae) and/or mineral  
115 components. These residual materials were removed with stainless steel forceps. All the plastic  
116 items collected on filters were chemically characterized using the Fourier Transform Infrared  
117 Microscope System ( $\mu$ FTIR; Survey IR Microspectroscopy Accessory coupled with Nicolet iS5 FTIR  
118 Spectrometer, Thermo Fisher Scientific; detection limit  $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$ ) to confirm their plastic nature and  
119 to identify polymer typologies. Analysis was performed in attenuated total reflection (ATR) mode  
120 operating on single reflection mode in the range of 600 and 3,800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and with 16 scans per  
121 analysis.

### 122 *2.3 Estimate of the amount of fine debris*

123 The quantification of supraglacial debris was performed using image classification technique from  
124 high-resolution airborne orthophotos (pixel size 0.5 m  $\times$  0.5 m) of the glacier surface. Classification  
125 of surface characteristics and properties of glaciers from remote-sensed data is a common activity  
126 in glaciology (e.g. Paul et al., 2004). The area covered by scattered and sparse debris was estimated

127 with a maximum likelihood classification in ESRI ArcMap software (ESRI, Redlands, California)  
128 excluding areas covered by moraines (Azzoni et al., 2018) (Fig. 1). This procedure is a supervised  
129 classification method of the spectral signature of high-resolution images of the glacier (ESRI, 2011).  
130 First, the user manually classifies a sample of pixels as bare ice or debris based on his or her  
131 experience and *a priori* knowledge of the Forni Glacier. Then the software calculates statistics from  
132 the spectral signature of these pixels and creates a parametric signature for bare ice and one for  
133 debris. Finally, it classifies each pixel in the image as bare ice or debris based on these spectral  
134 statistics (ESRI, 2011). For increasing the reliability of the classification, both the manual  
135 classification of pixels and the following automatic characterization of the whole image were  
136 repeated ten times and the minimum and maximum value of the extent of the area covered by  
137 debris were considered. The total volume of debris was then calculated assuming a mean debris  
138 thickness of 0.5 cm (R.S. Azzoni, unpublished data) and its total weight was finally calculated using  
139 debris density values (from 1600 kg m<sup>-3</sup> to 2000 kg m<sup>-3</sup>) obtained following Ponce (1989) on the basis  
140 of supraglacial debris size distribution (Azzoni et al., 2016).

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### 142 **3. Results and discussion**

143 We found 2-7 plastic fragments per sample that correspond to  $74.4 \pm 28.3$  SE items kg<sup>-1</sup> of sediment  
144 (dry weight) on average, with no difference between cryoconite ( $70.5 \pm 32.9$  SE items kg<sup>-1</sup>) and  
145 sparse supraglacial debris ( $78.3 \pm 30.2$  items kg<sup>-1</sup>) (see Supporting Information; Table S1). No plastic  
146 item was found in blank samples. Fibres represented 65.2% and fragments 34.8% of items in all  
147 samples pooled. Both microplastic fragments and fibres were of diverse colour (Fig. 1). Overall, most  
148 plastic items were made from polyesters, followed by polyamide, polyethylene and polypropylene  
149 (Fig. 1). Unfortunately, 39% of plastic items could not be characterized because their size was below  
150 the limit of detectability ( $\sim 100$   $\mu$ m) of the FTIR we used (see Methods and Table S1).

151 By using image processing (see Methods), we estimated that the ablation area of the Forni Glacier  
152 covered by cryoconite and sparse debris was 0.21-0.23 km<sup>2</sup>. Cryoconite and sparse debris weighed  
153 1,640-2,307 tons. According to the amount of plastic items we found in our samples, the ablation  
154 area of the glacier should therefore include 131-162 million of microplastics, corresponding to 570-  
155 801 million items km<sup>-2</sup>.

156 This is the first report published on a scientific journal of microplastic contamination in any  
157 terrestrial glacier environment. The amount of microplastics we detected is within the range of  
158 variability of contamination observed in marine and coastal sediments in Europe (Hamid et al., 2018)  
159 and similar to those detected in lakeshore sediments from four lakes located in a region with very  
160 low population density and lacking of industrial and agricultural activities within the Siling Co basin  
161 in northern Tibet, where a microplastic abundance up to  $563 \pm 1,219$  million items km<sup>-2</sup> was  
162 observed (Zhang et al., 2016). Microplastic contamination on Forni was also intermediate between  
163 that measured in soils from mountain floodplains in different parts of Switzerland, where up to 593  
164 items kg<sup>-1</sup> were found (Scheurer and Bigalke, 2018). and that observed in the pelagic water of Lake  
165 Hovsgol, a large, remote mountain lake in Mongolia, where an average microplastic density of  
166 20,264 items km<sup>-2</sup> was found (Free et al., 2014). Clearly, comparisons among levels of microplastic  
167 contaminations from very different environmental matrices should be taken very cautiously.  
168 However, these results suggest that microplastic contamination on Forni Glacier is within the range  
169 of contamination observed in the few remote mountain areas investigated worldwide to date.

170 Plastic can reach high elevation areas from several paths. Human activities in the mountain  
171 environment produce large amount of garbage, which sometimes can hardly be transported down  
172 valley. Most alpinist equipment, for instance, is made of plastic polymers, and can be abandoned  
173 on mountains in emergency or deliberately. For instance, in 1990, the “Free K2” expedition  
174 recovered about 2 tons of garbage from the second highest mountain of the planet, most of which



175 were plastic (Ardito and Mountain Wilderness, 1995). Forni Glacier is visited each year by hundreds  
176 of tourists whose clothes and equipment may release plastic fibres and items. The presence of  
177 polyesters and polyamide fibres in glacier debris seems consistent with this hypothesis. Equipment  
178 used during scientific surveys conducted on Forni Glacier can also have determined plastic fibres  
179 release (R.S. Azzoni, personal information). However, Forni Glacier is also close to densely inhabited  
180 areas like the Po plain in northern Italy, which can contribute to the amount of plastic fragments  
181 observed. Indeed, small plastic items can be transported by wind to high altitude, where they can  
182 be deposited by both wet and dry deposition (Allen et al., 2019; Dris et al., 2016). Indeed, a recent  
183 study by Allen and co-authors (2019) performed in a pristine mountain catchment of French  
184 Pyrenees, confirmed that fibres up to  $\sim 750 \mu\text{m}$  long and fragments  $\leq 300 \mu\text{m}$  can be transported by  
185 air and deposited in remote areas up to 95 km from potential sources (Allen et al., 2019). This  
186 distance is similar to that between Forni Glacier and the densely inhabited Po Plain, which is  $\sim 90$  km  
187 from the glacier. Atmospheric transport of plastic items might therefore contribute to the amount  
188 microplastic we found on Forni Glacier. Unfortunately, the relative amount of plastic items that  
189 reaches the Forni Glacier from local or remote sources could not be assessed with the data available  
190 for the present study and should be further investigated.

#### 191 **4. Conclusion**

192 Our findings of microplastic contamination on glaciers, albeit not unexpected, demonstrated that  
193 also this contaminant can reach remote, high mountain areas. When trapped in the sediment,  
194 microplastics can persist on glaciers for an unknown amount of time and there is therefore the  
195 potential for long-term persistence of microplastic on glaciers, which may have already accumulated  
196 an unknown amount of plastic since the 1950s, when plastic have started to be released in the  
197 environment. These particles might be potentially released by glaciers, entering melting waters and  
198 contributing to freshwater contamination and, ultimately, also to marine contamination. The

199 current amount of contamination and the fate of microplastics in glaciers should therefore be  
200 carefully evaluated by further studies beside this very preliminary investigation.

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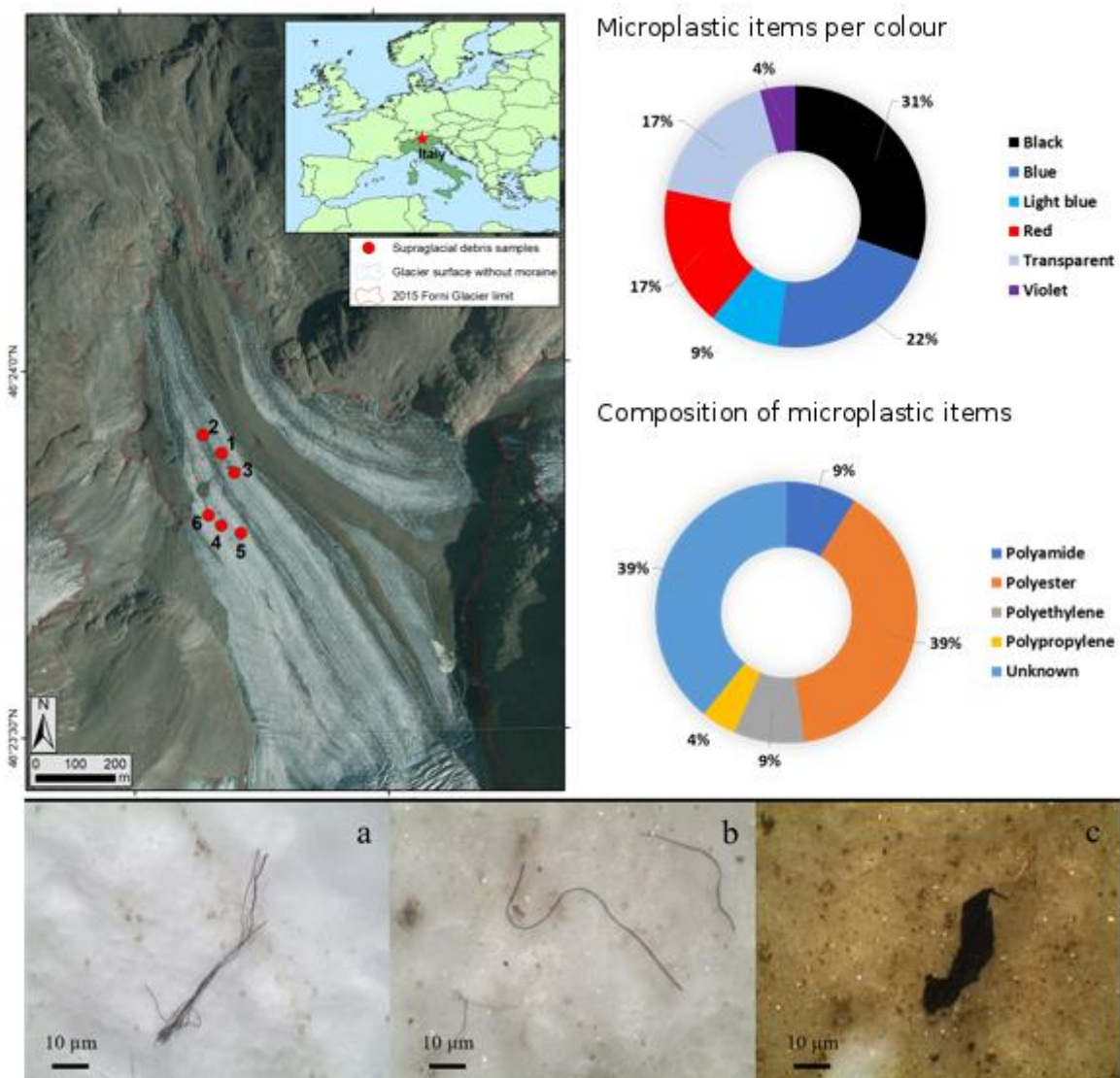
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279 Figure 1. Study area and microplastic composition. Top-left panel: the ablation area of the Forni  
 280 glacier with sample collection sites (red dots) and its geographical location within Europe. The blue  
 281 shaded area indicates the part of the glacier tongue covered by scattered and sparse debris. Top-  
 282 right panel: proportion of plastic items per colour (upper diagram) and per polymer composition  
 283 (lower diagram). Bottom line: polyester fibres (a and b) and an unknown fragment (c).

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