



1 **Impact of snow deposition on major and trace element**  
2 **concentrations and fluxes in surface waters of Western Siberian**  
3 **Lowland**

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5 Vladimir P. Shevchenko<sup>1</sup>, Oleg S. Pokrovsky<sup>2</sup>, Sergey N. Vorobyev<sup>3</sup>, Ivan V. Krickov<sup>3</sup>, Rinat M.  
6 Manasypov<sup>3,4</sup>, Nadezhda V. Politova<sup>1</sup>, Sergey G. Kopysov<sup>3</sup>, Olga M. Dara<sup>1</sup>, Yves Auda<sup>2</sup>, Liudmila S.  
7 Shirokova<sup>2,4</sup>, Larisa G. Kolesnichenko<sup>3</sup>, Valery A. Zemtsov<sup>3</sup>, Sergey N. Kirpotin<sup>3</sup>

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9 <sup>1</sup>Shirshov Institute of Oceanology RAS, 36 Nakhimovsky Pr., Moscow, Russia

10 <sup>2</sup>Geosciences Environment Toulouse, UMR 5563 CNRS, University of Toulouse, 14 Avenue Edouard Belin 31400,  
11 Toulouse, France

12 <sup>3</sup>BIO-GEO-CLIM Laboratory, Tomsk State University, 36 Lenina, Tomsk, Russia

13 <sup>4</sup>Institute of Ecological Problems of the North, 23 Nab Severnoi Dviny, RAS, Arkhangelsk, Russia

14 *Correspondence to:* Oleg S. Pokrovsky (oleg@get.obs-mip.fr)

15 **Abstract.** Towards a better understanding of chemical composition of snow and its impact on surface water  
16 hydrochemistry in poorly studied Western Siberia Lowland (WSL), dissolved (melted snow) and particulate (> 0.45  
17 µm) fractions of snow were sampled in February 2014 across a 1700-km latitudinal gradient (c.a. 56.5 to 68°N) in  
18 essentially pristine regions. Concentration of dissolved Fe, Co, Cu, As, La, increased by a factor of 2 to 5 north of 63°N.  
19 The pH, Ca, Mg, Sr, Mo and U dissolved concentration in snow water increased with the increase in concentration of  
20 particulate fraction (PF), which was also correlated with the increase in calcite and dolomite proportion in the mineral  
21 fraction, suggesting an enrichment of meltwater by these elements during dissolution of carbonate minerals. The  
22 concentrations of Al, Fe, Pb, La and other insoluble elements in < 0.45 µm-filtered snow water decreased with the  
23 increase in PF. Principal Component Analyses revealed F1xF2 structure of major and trace element concentration in  
24 both dissolved and particulate fractions, with 2 factors not linked to the latitude. Sr, Mo, Sb, U, and, partially, Cu and  
25 Zn were most sensitive to the latitude of the sampling. The main sources of mineral components in PF are desert and  
26 semi-desert regions of central Asia.

27 Comparison of major and trace elements in dissolved fraction of snow with lakes and rivers of western Siberia  
28 across the full latitude profile revealed significant atmospheric input of a number of trace elements. The snow water  
29 concentration of DIC, Cl, SO<sub>4</sub>, Mg, Ca, Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Mo, Cd, Sb, Cs, W, Pb and U exceeded or were comparable  
30 with spring-time concentration in thermokarst lakes of the region. The spring-time river fluxes (May-June, representing  
31 the snow melt period) of DIC, Cl, SO<sub>4</sub>, Na, Mg, Ca, Rb, Cs, metals (Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb), metalloids (As, Sb),  
32 Mo and U in the discontinuous to continuous permafrost zone (64–68°N) can be fully explained by melting of  
33 accumulated snow. Therefore, the present study demonstrates significant and previously underestimated atmospheric  
34 input of many major and trace elements to their riverine fluxes during spring flood. The impact of snow deposition  
35 strongly increased northward, in discontinuous and continuous permafrost zones of frozen peat bogs, which is consistent  
36 with the decrease of the impact of rock lithology on river chemical composition in the permafrost zone of WSL,  
37 relative to the permafrost-free regions.



## 38 1 Introduction

39 The snow cover exhibits a number a properties making it unique natural archive and indicator of the ecosystem status  
40 (Baltrėnaitė et al., 2014; Bokhorst et al., 2016; Boyarkina et al., 1993; Callaghan et al., 2011; Caritat et al., 1998, 2005;  
41 Garbarino et al., 2002; Guéguen et al., 2016; Kashulina et al., 2014; Lisitzin, 2002; Niu et al., 2016; Ross and Granat,  
42 1986; Singh et al., 2011; Siudek et al., 2015; Van de Velde et al., 1999; Vasilenko et al., 1985; Walker et al., 2003). The  
43 snow washes out insoluble aerosols particles from the atmosphere as well as soluble compounds, including various  
44 pollutants (Telmer et al., 2004; Barrie, 1986; Tranter et al., 1986, 1987). Unlike rain, the snow remains at the soil surface  
45 and thus records all atmospheric input during the glacial period of the year. In boreal and subarctic regions, both dissolved  
46 and particulate fraction of snow water reflect the chemistry of winter atmosphere, when the land is covered by snow and  
47 the water surfaces are covered by ice. During winter, the input of mineral compounds from adjacent regions is minimal and  
48 the main factor controlling chemical composition of snow is long-range, hundreds and thousands km, atmospheric transfer  
49 (Franzén et al., 1994; Huang et al., 2015; Shevchenko, 2003, Shevchenko et al., 2000, 2010; Welch et al., 1991; Zdanowicz  
50 et al., 1998, 2006; Zhang et al., 2015).

51 Numerous studies of particulate fraction of snow have been conducted in different regions including western Siberia  
52 (Boyarkina et al., 1993; Ermolov et al., 2014; Golokhvast, 2014; Golokhvast et al., 2013; Kashulina et al., 2014; Makarov,  
53 2014; Moskovchenko and Babushkin, 2012; Mullen et al., 1972; Salo et al., 2016; Shevchenko et al., 2002, 2010, 2016;  
54 Talovskaya et al., 2014; Topchaya et al., 2012; Walker, 2005; Xu et al., 2016). The dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$  or  $< 0.22 \mu\text{m}$ )  
55 fraction of snow was traditionally studied in European subarctic (Caritat et al., 1998; Chekushin et al., 1998; Kashulina et  
56 al., 2014; Reimann et al., 1999; Reinosdotter and Viklander, 2005) but the data on trace elements in snow water collected  
57 in boreal, arctic and subarctic regions are limited. In contrast to numerous studies of trace element geochemistry of the  
58 snow cover of high altitude zones of Asia and northern China (Dong et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Wang  
59 et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013), glaciers of Greenland (Barbante et al., 2003; Boutron et al., 2011; Candelone et al., 1996)  
60 and Alaskan and Canadian High Arctic (Douglas and Sturm, 2004; Garbarino et al., 2002; Krachler et al., 2005; Snyder-  
61 Conn et al., 1997), the trace element geochemistry of dissolved and particulate fraction of Siberian snow remains at the  
62 beginning of exploration. This is especially true for large and geographically homogeneous territories of western Siberia,  
63 presenting relatively similar level of snow deposition during winter seasons (i.e., from 100 mm of water in the south to  
64 140–150 mm of water in the north) without any pronounced influence of large industrial centers, mountain regions and  
65 marine aerosols over the territory close to 1.5 million  $\text{km}^2$  (Resources, 1972, 1973; Boyarkina et al., 2013).

66 The originality of the present study consists in *i*) sampling of substantial (~1700 km) latitudinal transect in relatively  
67 pristine zones comprising forest, forest tundra and tundra within the permafrost-free, discontinuous and continuous  
68 permafrost regions; *ii*) assessment of both dissolved and particulate forms of major and trace elements in snow samples.  
69 Given the scarcity of available measurements of snow chemical and particulate composition in Western Siberia, we aimed  
70 at addressing the following specific issues: (1) characterizing the effect of the latitude on major and trace element  
71 concentration in dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) and particulate ( $> 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) fractions of snow; (2) testing the link between  
72 dissolved and particulate fractions of elements and the impact of particles mineralogy on snow chemical composition; (3)  
73 comparing dissolved concentrations of major and trace elements in snow to those in lakes and rivers across the latitudinal  
74 gradient of WSL and assessing the share of snow deposition on seasonal and annual export of dissolved elements by  
75 western Siberian rivers. Via addressing quantitatively the abovementioned issues using unified methodology in  
76 unprecedentedly large geographical coverage (56 to 68°N) of orographically flat low populated terrain, we anticipate to  
77 enhance our knowledge of the winter atmospheric deposition in western Siberia, in the absence of direct influence of



78 marine aerosols and large industrial centers and to foresee possible evolution of chemical composition of continental  
79 waters subjected to change of atmospheric precipitation regime due to ongoing climate change.

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## 81 2. Study site, materials and methods

### 82 2.1. Geographic settings

83 Western Siberia Lowland, located between the Ural mountains and the Yenisei River, extends over 2000 km  
84 from south to north and presents highly homogeneous, from physico-geographical point of view, taiga, forest-tundra  
85 and tundra landscapes comprising bogs and mires in the permafrost-free zone and thermokarst lakes developed on flat  
86 peat bogs (palsa) in the permafrost-bearing zone. Detailed physico-geographical description, hydrology, lithology and  
87 soils can be found in earlier works (Botch et al., 1995; Smith et al., 2004; Frey and Smith, 2007; Beilman et al., 2009)  
88 and in our recent geochemical studies (Manasypov et al., 2014; Stepanova et al., 2015; Pokrovsky et al., 2015, 2016).  
89 Because of its exceptionally flat orographic context, extensive vegetation cover and relative remoteness from the Arctic  
90 Coast (except the north of the Gyda and the Yamal peninsulas), the atmospheric precipitates in winter are likely to bear  
91 the signature of remote desert and semi-desert regions of Central Asia. The anthropogenic impact is not strongly  
92 pronounced because of *i*) low population density (average 6 people/km<sup>2</sup> but only 0.5–2 people/km<sup>2</sup> in the northern half  
93 of WSL) and *ii*) moderate local pollution from the gas burning in oil wells mostly in permafrost-free zone, south of the  
94 Surgut town. The part of WSL north of 64°N contains essentially gas exploration facilities, which minimally impact the  
95 environment. Taken together, latitudinal profile of the WSL presents a unique opportunity to study the chemistry of  
96 atmospheric deposits within highly homogeneous physico-geographical context and relatively low local anthropogenic  
97 impact.

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### 99 2.2. Snow sampling

100 The snow of the WSL was sampled along the latitudinal transect S→N, from the vicinity of the Tomsk city (zone  
101 of southern taiga) to the eastern coast of the Ob estuary (tundra zone) from 19.02.2014 to 5.03.2014 (Fig. 1). The possible  
102 sources of snow deposition and the pathways of aerosols transport to the WSL were reconstructed by analyzing  
103 meteorological maps and by calculating back trajectories of air transport to the observation points using NOAA's  
104 HYSPLIT model (Draxler and Rolf, 2003). In order to assess a snapshot of snow deposition across 1700-km latitudinal  
105 profile and collect the freshest snow that was subjected to minimal transformation, we chosen to sample only the upper  
106 layer of the snow cover. This technique, in contrast to traditional sampling of full snow column allows adequate  
107 representation of the upper fresh snow layer that had minimal transformation at the soil, and frequently used in remote  
108 regions (Kang et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2013). A previous study of isotope composition of collected snow proved its fresh  
109 character, not subjected to any metamorphism (Vasil'chuk et al., 2016).

110 Upper 0–5 cm of snow was sampled in 39 locations (Fig. 1). All sampled points were located far than 500 m  
111 from the winter road. Sampling was performed using metal-free technique, in protected environment, using pre-cleaned  
112 plastic shovel and vinyl single-used gloves. Approximately 30 L of snow was collected into single-used polyethylene  
113 bags. These polyethylene bags were thoroughly washed with 1 M HCl and abundant MilliQ water in the clean room  
114 class A 10,000. In the laboratory, the snow was melted at ambient temperature, and filtered through pre-weighted



115 acetate cellulose filters (Millipore, 47 mm diameter) of 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  poresize. The storage of unfiltered snow water samples  
116 was less than 1 h at 4°C.

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### 118 **2.3. Particle analyses**

119 The sizes and morphology of particles on filters and elemental composition of individual particles were studied  
120 using scanning electron microscope VEGA 3 SEM (Tescan) with microprobe attachment INCA Energy (Oxford  
121 Instruments). The mineralogical composition of particulate fraction on selected filters was studied by X-ray powder  
122 diffractometric method on the D8 ADVANCE (Bruker AXS) X-ray diffractometer equipped with the LYNXEYE linear  
123 detector. The method of mineralogical composition characterization on filters is described elsewhere (Lisitzin et al.,  
124 2015). The uncertainty of the relative proportion of mineral composition was 1–2% and the detection limit was 1%.

125 Freshly melted snow water was filtered through pre-weighted 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  acetate cellulose (Millipore) filters, placed  
126 in the Petri dishes, dried at 60°C in an oven and fully digested using microwave acid attack which comprised 6.5 mL  
127 concentrated  $\text{HNO}_3$ , 3.5 mL concentrated HCl and 0.5 mL concentrated HF.  $\text{HNO}_3$  and HCl were bi-distilled in the clean  
128 room and HF was commercial ultra-pure quality (Fluka). The filters were reacted 30 min in ultrasonic bath prior full  
129 digestion using Mars 5 microwave digestion system (CEM, France). For this, 10 samples of filters, 1 certified 2711a  
130 Montana II Soil standard and 1 blank filter sample were loaded into Teflon reactors subjected to treating at 150°C during  
131 20 min. After completing the digestion, the content of reactors was transferred to 30 mL Savilex vials and evaporated at  
132 70°C. The residue was dissolved in 10 mL of 10%  $\text{HNO}_3$  and diluted by 2%  $\text{HNO}_3$  prior to the analyses. For the analysis of  
133 snow particles on filters, the blanks (digestion of initial filters) were a factor of 10 to 100 lower than the filters containing  
134 particles after 0.5-1.0 L of snow water filtration. The concentration of major and trace elements (TE) in filter digestion  
135 products was measured using an ICP-MS Agilent 7500 ce with  $\sim 3$   $\mu\text{g/L}$  of indium and rhenium as internal standards.  
136 Necessary corrections for oxide and hydroxide ion interferences were made for REEs and metals (Ariés et al., 2000). Based  
137 on replicate analyses of in-house standards and certified materials, the uncertainty for TE measurement ranged from 5 % at  
138 0.1–100  $\mu\text{g/L}$  to 10 % at 0.001–0.01  $\mu\text{g/L}$ . Analyses of low concentrations of Hf, Ge, Cs, Ga, and W (e.g., on the order of  
139 0.001  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , comparable with detection limits) was possible with a minimal estimated uncertainty of 20%. More details  
140 about the whole procedure are available in Stepanova et al. (2014) and Pokrovsky et al. (2016).

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### 144 **2.4. Melted snow analyses**

145 The pH and specific conductivity were measured on unfiltered snow water samples using Hanna portable  
146 instruments. The dissolved ( $< 0.45$   $\mu\text{m}$ ) fraction of snow water was obtained via filtration using a polycarbonate  
147 Nalgene vacuum filter unit, and a PVC-made Mityvac hand vacuum pump. Blanks of MilliQ water were also placed in  
148 polyethylene bags for the same time as melting snow ( $\leq 1$  h at 4°C) and processed via filtration similar to snow samples.  
149 The filtrates were divided into two parts; one was acidified with double distilled  $\text{HNO}_3$  acid and stored in pre-cleaned  
150 HDPE vials for ICP MS analysis, the second part was stored in HDPE bottles without acidification, for dissolved  
151 organic and inorganic carbon analysis (DOC and DIC), respectively, and anion analysis by liquid chromatography.

152 The major anion concentrations ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) in the  $< 0.45$   $\mu\text{m}$  fraction were measured using ion chromatography  
153 (HPLC, Dionex ICS 2000i), with an uncertainty of 2%, estimated from the replicate analyses of PERADE and RAIN  
154 international certified materials. The DOC and DIC in this fraction were analyzed using a Carbon Total Analyzer  
155 (Shimadzu TOC-VSCN) with an uncertainty of 5% and a detection limit of 0.1 and 0.05 mg/L, respectively.



156 Filtered snow water samples were analyzed with an Element XR ICP MS allowing for much better precision of  
157 the analyses of highly diluted samples and avoiding many interferences of Agilent 7500 ce. The details of Element XR ICP  
158 MS analysis in our laboratory are presented elsewhere (Pokrovsky et al., 2014). The international geostandards SLRS-5  
159 (Riverine Water References Material for Trace Metals certified by the National Research Council of Canada) was used to  
160 assess the validity and reproducibility of the analyses. For all major and most trace elements, the concentrations in the  
161 blanks were below or comparable with analytical detection limits ( $\leq 0.1$  ng/L for Cd, Ba, Y, Zr, REEs, Hf, Pb, Th, U; 1  
162 ng/L for Ga, Ge, Rb, Sr, Sb;  $\sim 10$  ng/L for Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As). These values were at least 5 times lower  
163 than the average concentration of trace elements in snow samples. Most TE presented in this work exhibited  $\leq 15\%$ -  
164 agreement between the certified or recommended values and our measurements. The TE for which certified or  
165 recommended data were available were considered only for the cases where we obtained good analytical reproducibility  
166 (i.e., the relative standard deviation based on our standard measurements was  $\leq 10\%$ ).

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#### 169 **2.5. River fluxes and snow storage**

170 The mass balance calculation of the degree of snow melt influence on element fluxes in WSL rivers were  
171 performed taken into account *i*) the water stock in snow (in mm snow water accumulated during winter), fairly well  
172 known for Western Siberia (Karnatzevitch and Khruschev, 2014; Resources, 1972, 1973; Zakharova et al., 2011) and *ii*)  
173 the spring-time river runoff (in mm during May and June) calculated based on hydrological parameters. For water stock  
174 calculation, we used the available mean multi-annual daily and monthly discharges of WSL rivers across the latitudinal  
175 profile (Resources, 1972 and 1972 and recently compiled in the database R-AcricNET ([www.r-arcticnet.sr.unh.edu](http://www.r-arcticnet.sr.unh.edu))).  
176 Detailed description of WSL territory coverage by Russian Hydrological Survey (RHS) gauging stations and the  
177 methods that were used to calculate the discharge during May-June are described elsewhere (Pokrovsky et al., 2015).  
178 The most recent thorough hydrological measurements on small and medium size rivers of permafrost – affected part of  
179 WSL (Novikov et al., 2009) were used together with RHS database were used to calculate the spring flood fluxes of  
180 individual rivers and snow water stock for three latitudinal zones, 56-60°N, 60-64° and 64-68°N. Given that a  
181 comparison between elementary snow stock and river runoff cannot be performed for individual river watersheds, since  
182 no snow water chemical data are available with necessary spatial resolution, we compared the winter snow stock with  
183 riverine spring flood fluxes of major and trace element for three latitudinal zones. For this, both spring flood fluxes of  
184 individual rivers and snow water stock were averaged for each latitudinal zone.

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#### 187 **2.6. Statistical methods**

188 Statistical analysis of the average, median and geometric mean values and the link between element concentration  
189 in suspended and dissolved fraction as well as comparison of different sampling sets (snow water and snow particles)  
190 included ANOVA, H-criterion of the Kruskal–Wallis and Mann–Whitney U tests. These tests allowed evaluating the  
191 difference between two sets of data separately for each TE following the approaches developed for lakes and rivers of  
192 western Siberia (Manasyypov et al., 2014, 2015; Pokrovsky et al., 2015, 2016). The multiple regressions was performed for  
193 quantifying the relationship between dissolved and particulate concentration of TE and the latitudinal trends of  
194 concentrations and enrichment factors. More thorough statistical treatment of both log-transformed and non-transformed  
195 major and TE concentration in dissolved and particulate fraction of snow samples in each location included a normed PCA  
196 analysis using the ADE-4 R package (Thioulouse et al., 1997) using the methods for scores and variables (De la Cruz and



197 Holmes, 2011). The data structure visualization was performed by presenting inertia ellipses regrouping the latitude and the  
198 proximity to industrial centers (Chessel et al., 2004).

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### 3. Results

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#### 3.1. Soluble fraction of the snow water

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#### 3.2. Possible impact of snow deposition on major and TE in lakes and rivers.

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##### 3.2.1. Snow water in comparison to lake and river water

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Chemical composition of dissolved snow water fraction can be compared with typical concentrations of major and trace elements in thermokarst (thaw) lakes of western Siberia measured in 2013-2014. These lakes are shallow (0.5-1.5 m depth) water bodies representing the largest reservoir of surface waters in western Siberia. They are widely distributed north of 62°N where they may occupy 30 to 80% of the watershed area (Pokrovsky et al., 2014). The average concentration of major and TE in thermokarst lakes of various size across significant latitudinal gradient taken from Manasypov et al. (2014) can be compared with those in snow water collected in this study. Because the size of thermokarst lakes of WSL ranges from few m<sup>2</sup> to several km<sup>2</sup>, 4 representative ranges of lake diameters are used for this comparison (0-10, 11-100, 101-500 and > 500 m). For this plot, only summer-period concentrations can be used as no



239 spring-time lake concentrations across the latitudinal gradient are available. Concentrations of low-soluble elements in  
240 lakes are well above their concentrations in snow (**Fig. S2, A, B** for Al and Fe). At the same time, many trace elements  
241 exhibited snow-water concentrations that were comparable or significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than the concentrations in  
242 lakes. Examples of Zn, Cu, Cd, Pb, Sb and Mo are given in **Fig. 5**. The excess of snow water concentrations over  
243 summer lake concentration did not follow any particular latitudinal pattern.

244 Because the main source of water in shallow lakes of WSL in spring is melted snow (Manasypov et al., 2015),  
245 we could compare the mean concentrations of snow water with spring-period lake water concentration for one particular  
246 region of discontinuous permafrost zone (town of Nojabrsk, Khanymey site) for which high-resolution seasonal  
247 observations on lakes of various size are available. For two classes of lake size ( $< 0.5 \text{ km}^2$  and  $> 0.5 \text{ km}^2$ ), the following  
248 three groups of elements could be distinguished. The concentrations of dissolved Na, Mn, Zn, As, Rb and Sr in snow  
249 water are similar (within a factor of 2) to lake water concentrations. Concentrations of DIC, Cl,  $\text{SO}_4$ , Mg, Ca, Cr, Co,  
250 Ni, Cu, Mo, Cd, Sb, Cs, W, Pb and U in snow are close or higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than those in lakes. And finally,  
251 concentrations of DOC, Al, Si, K, Ti, V, Fe, Ga, Zr, Ba, and REEs in snow water are significantly lower than the lakes'  
252 concentrations.

253 The concentrations of elements in snow water could be also compared with river water concentrations measured  
254 during spring flood 2014 across the full latitudinal profile, since such data for rivers of different size are available for  
255 the whole territory of WSL (Pokrovsky et al., 2015, 2016). Examples of elements whose concentrations in snow water  
256 are higher or comparable with those in rivers during spring flood are illustrated in **Fig. S3**. Generally, the effect of snow  
257 melt is mostly pronounced north of  $64^\circ\text{N}$ . During this period, when the rivers are essentially fed by melted snow, the  
258 atmospheric deposition exhibited comparable or higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) concentrations of  $\text{SO}_4$ , Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo, Cd,  
259 Sb, Cs, W and Pb than those in rivers. The concentrations of all other elements in WSL rivers cannot be explained by  
260 solely snow water concentration.

### 261 3.2.2. Comparison of river fluxes in spring and snow water stock

262 Considering the mass balance calculation of snow melt influence on element fluxes in WSL rivers, the ratios of  
263 river fluxes in May-June to snow stock are presented in the form of histograms (**Fig. S4 of Supplement**). These ratios  
264 systematically decrease with the increase in the latitude which corresponds to the change of southern taiga to forest  
265 tundra and tundra landscapes. In the southern, permafrost-free zone, Zn, Cd, W, Pb, Cs and Sb fluxes in rivers can be  
266 provided essentially by snow melt. The riverine fluxes of DIC, Cl,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , Na, Mg, Ca, Sr, Rb, Cs, Zn, Cu, Cr, Ni, Cu,  
267 Pb, As, Sb, Mo, W and U are strongly (i.e.,  $\geq 50\%$  at  $p < 0.05$ ) affected by snow melt in the discontinuous and  
268 continuous permafrost zones, north of  $60\text{-}62^\circ\text{N}$ .

269 According to the evolution of the ratio [river flux] / [snow stock] with the latitude, three groups of elements can  
270 be distinguished: (i) elements that steadily decrease this ratio suggesting an increase in the impact of snowmelt  
271 northward: DOC,  $\text{SO}_4$ , Al, Ti, V, Cr, Rb, Sr, Cd, Sb, Cs, La, Ce, W, Pb; (ii) elements for which this ratio decreases  
272 abruptly to  $62 \pm 2^\circ\text{N}$  and then remains constant further northward: DIC, Na, Mg, Si, K, Ca, Ni, Cu, As, Mo and U; (iii)  
273 elements exhibiting non-systematic variation of the ratio with latitude but having strong ( $> 50\%$ ) impact of snowmelt  
274 on river fluxes (Cl, Co, Zn, Ga) and (iv) elements having negligible ( $< 10\%$ ) impact of snowmelt on river fluxes (Mn,  
275 Fe, Zr and Ba). A summarizing histogram of elements whose riverine fluxes in spring are most affected by snow  
276 deposition is given in **Fig. 6**. Overall, the impact of snow melt on river export fluxes in spring strongly increases  
277 northward for DIC, Cl,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , Na, Mg, Ca, Pb, Sb, Cr, Cu, Ni, As, Mo, Rb, U.

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### 281 3.3. Particles concentration and TE in particulate fraction of snow

282 Concentration of particulate fraction (PF) of snow and its elementary composition are at the location given in the  
 283 “Data availability” section. The mineralogical composition of selected snow samples is given in **Table S1** of the  
 284 Supplement. The dominant minerals are quartz (37%), albite (13%), K-feldspar (13%), phlogopite (10%), chrysotile  
 285 (8%), illite (7%), and chlorite (5%). The concentration of dolomite and calcite ranges from 1 to 48 and 1 to 19%,  
 286 respectively. Although mineral components dominated the composition of particulate fraction, the PF also contained  
 287 organic fibers, diatom frustules, pollens and particles produced during fuel burning (fly ash and black carbon). Detailed  
 288 morphological description of snow particles based on scanning electron microscope analysis is given elsewhere  
 289 (Shevchenko et al., 2015). The concentration of particles in snow water ranged from 0.4 to 67 mg/L. The highest values  
 290 are encountered in the vicinity of the Tomsk city (No SF 1) and around towns of Surgut (No SF 54, 14), Nojabrsk (SF  
 291 36, SF 38) and Gubkinsky (SF 33). Although the proportion of fly ash and black carbon in these samples is significant  
 292 and higher than in the rest of samples as follows from SEM observation, the mineral particles (1-25  $\mu\text{m}$  size) still  
 293 dominate. Note that high content of fly ash and fuel burning spheres is not linked ( $p > 0.05$ ) to high particulate and  
 294 dissolved elements. The lowest concentrations of particles ( $< 5\text{-}10$  mg/L) are recorded north of  $65^\circ\text{N}$  (the region of gas  
 295 industry) and between  $58$  and  $61^\circ\text{N}$  (winter road along the Ob River with very low population density).

296 The PCA treatment of elementary composition of particulate fraction demonstrated the F1 x F2 structure (**Fig.**  
 297 **S5 A** of the Supplement). Here, two groups can be distinguished: highly mobile elements (Na, Ca, V, Ni, Mg, Mn) and  
 298 low mobile elements (REE, Zr, Pb, Cd, Ga, P). In order to assess the degree of element fractionation in snow particles,  
 299 Al-normalized TE enrichment factor (EF) with respect to the average upper part of continental earth crust (Rudnick and  
 300 Gao, 2003) was calculated according to:

$$EF = \frac{[TE]/[Al]_{sample}}{[TE]/[Al]_{crust}}$$

301 The enrichment coefficient ranged from  $\sim 1\text{-}5$  (Si, Ga, REEs, Fe) to  $> 100$  (Mo, W, As, Sb, Ni, Cu, Pb, Mg, Ca,  
 302 Na) as illustrated in **Fig. 7**. The highest enrichment ( $EF \geq 1000$ ) is observed of Sb, Zn and Cd. The variation of the  
 303 enrichment factor as a function of latitude is shown for elements most enriched in particulate fraction in **Fig. S6 of**  
 304 **Supplement**. For Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, Fe, Mn, Co, Ni, K, Rb, Cs, V, Cr, As, Cd, W the EF exhibits a maximum around  $63\text{-}$   
 305  $64.5^\circ\text{N}$ . This maximum coincides with the maximum of particulate fraction concentration (not shown).

306 The majority of chemical elements are present in particulate rather than dissolved form in snow meltwater  
 307 samples. This is illustrated by a histogram of the ratios averaged over full latitudinal profile (**Fig. 8**). Although the  
 308 variations of this ratio for different snow water samples across the WSL achieve  $\pm 1$  order of magnitude, the average  
 309 values shown in this figure illustrate the importance of particulate deposition of Al, Fe, Ga, REEs, Cr, V, Ti, Zr, Mo and  
 310 W. For other elements, particulate and dissolved inputs in the form of snow are within the same order of magnitude.  
 311 Some soluble elements such as Na, Cd, Ca, Sr, Ba, K, As and Zn exhibit the dominance of dissolved transport in snow.

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## 315 4. Discussion

### 316 4.1. Particulate versus dissolved transport of major and trace elements by snow

317 In accord with general knowledge of the aerosol chemistry of the Arctic (Barrie, 1986; Barrie and Barrie, 1990;  
 318 Laing et al., 2014, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2013; Pacyna and Ottar, 1989; Shevchenko et al., 2003; Weinbruch et al., 2012),  
 319 the principal component structure of chemical composition of dissolved snow fraction implies the combination of  
 320 lithogenic source (dust and soil particles dissolution, providing low-mobile, insoluble elements such as Al, Fe, Cr, Zr,  
 321 REEs) and marine aerosols (soluble forms, providing high concentration of mobile elements such as Ca, Mg, Na, Mo,



322 Ni). The latter may also originate from aeolian transport of carbonate-rich soils. The biogenic component may include  
323 Mn, Zn, K, Rb, DOC, Si whereas the anthropogenic pollution originates from coal combustion (Sb, Co) and heating  
324 systems, gas flaring at the gas oil production site as well as non-ferrous metal-smelter industry (Sb, Zn, Vinogradova et  
325 al., 1993) and ground transportation (Pb, Cu, Zn, Cr, Ni, As, Rossini Oliva and Fernández Espinosa, 2007; Sutherland et  
326 al., 2000).

327 The soluble highly mobile elements such as alkali and especially alkaline-earth elements, Sb, Mo, W and U  
328 demonstrated an increase in their dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) concentration with the increase in the total particulate fraction  
329 (**Fig. 4 B**). We interpret this increase in concentration, also correlated with  $\text{pH}_{\text{snow water}}$  increase (**Fig. 4 A**), as a result of  
330 element leaching from soluble minerals such as calcite and dolomite. There is a positive ( $R^2 = 0.53$ ,  $p < 0.05$ )  
331 correlation between % of calcite in the particulate fraction of snow and Ca concentration in snow meltwater (not  
332 shown). Therefore, we hypothesize that simultaneous mobilization of carbonate minerals and soluble elements from the  
333 soil and rocks to the atmosphere occurs in southern, carbonate-rock bearing provinces where the winter aerosols are  
334 generated. The generation of insoluble elements such as trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates in dissolved fraction of  
335 snow occurs independently of snow enrichment in solid particles. Indeed, the decrease, and not increase in insoluble  
336 elements dissolved concentration with the increase in particle concentration (**Fig. 4 C, D**) suggests that these elements  
337 are not desorbed or leached from mineral particles, either within the lieu of aerosol formation or during snow melting  
338 and filtration in the laboratory.

339 The majority of measured elements are transported in particulate rather than dissolved fraction in the snow water  
340 (**Fig. 8**). This is in general agreement with the results of other studies of snow deposition in Scandinavia and Kola  
341 Peninsula (Reimann et al., 1996), north-eastern European Russia (Walker et al., 2003) and on drifting ice in the northern  
342 Barents Sea (Gordeev and Lisitzin, 2005). An interesting particularity of dissolved fraction of snow in WSL is the  
343 increase in soluble fraction of Fe, Cu and LREEs north of  $63^\circ\text{N}$  (**Fig. 2**). An increase in concentration of Fe, La, Ce,  
344 northward has been also reported for rivers of the WSL sampled during this period of the year (Pokrovsky et al., 2016,  
345 see also **Fig. S7 of Supplement**). We do not have a straightforward explanation for such a coincidence. Mobilization of  
346 Fe-rich colloids, occurring in rivers of the northern part of WSL, is not expected to occur in the atmospheric aerosols,  
347 since the DOC level in the latter is very low ( $0.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg/L}$ ) and insufficient to stabilize dissolved Fe(III); besides, the  
348 water surfaces of the north of WSL (thaw ponds and thermokarst lakes rich in dissolved Fe) are fully frozen in February  
349 and thus cannot generate aerosols. Given that there is no enrichment in particular fraction of Fe and REE in snow  
350 collected north of  $63^\circ\text{N}$  (not shown), leaching of Fe from snow particles to the soluble fraction of snow in the north of  
351 WSL is also unlikely.

352 The enrichment of snow particulate fraction relative to the earth crust as shown by Al-normalized enrichment  
353 coefficient (**Figs. 7, S6**) can be understood via taking into account particle concentrations in snow and their microscopic  
354 observations (this study and Shevchenko et al., 2015, respectively). We suggest that enrichment of PF in clays supply  
355 most trace elements. The atmospheric particles are capable exerting significant impact on soils and ground vegetation  
356 (Kabata-Pendias and Pendias, 1984; Rasmussen, 1998; Steinnes and Friedland, 2006). In the case of WSL, the  
357 elementary composition of snow particulate fraction was compared with three main reservoirs of elements within the  
358 soil column, sampled over significant latitudinal profile, from  $55^\circ\text{N}$  to  $68^\circ\text{N}$  (Stepanova et al., 2015). These reservoirs  
359 are averaged over full latitudinal range and include *i*) mineral fraction from the bottom of the peat column; *ii*) depth-  
360 averaged peat column composition, and *iii*) *Sphagnum* mosses), collected in ombrotrophic bogs, which receive their  
361 constituents essentially from the atmosphere (e.g., Santelman and Gorham, 1988). The elementary ratios of snow  
362 particles to that in mineral soil, peat and moss of the WSL are illustrated in **Fig. 9 A, B, and C**, respectively. Given  
363 significant uncertainties on the latitude-averaged values of element concentration in snow particles, mineral, peat and



364 moss of soil column, the deviation of the ratios from unity is significant if it exceeds a factor of 2 to 3. Compared to  
365 mineral soil of WSL, the snow particles are strongly ( $\geq 10\times$ ) enriched in Sb, Zn, Ni and Cd and in a lesser degree ( $\geq 5\times$ )  
366 in Mg, Ca, Pb, Mo, and As (**Fig. 9 A**). Note that western Siberian soils, developed on sand and clay (silt) deposits  
367 (Vasil'evskaya et al., 1986), are quite poor in Ca and Mg, especially in the permafrost-bearing zone north of 62°N. The  
368 enrichment of snow particles relative to peat is observed for all elements, being particularly high ( $> 50\times$ ) for Ni, Cr, Pb,  
369 Cu, Zn, Mg, Na and Sb (**Fig. 9 B**). Only P, Ge and Cd, exhibiting high affinity to peat (Shotyk et al., 1990, 1992), are  
370 not significantly ( $p > 0.05$ ) higher in snow particles compared to the peat column. Finally, the mosses are most depleted  
371 by all elements relative to snow PF with only biogenic elements (P, K, Rb, Mn and Cd) known to be concentrated in  
372 bryophytes being non-significantly higher in snow particles relative to mosses (**Fig. 9 C**). The particularity of the  
373 northern part of western Siberia lowland is that the active (seasonally unfrozen) soil layer is located within the organic  
374 (moss+peat) rather than mineral horizon; the latter is represented by poorly reactive sands and clays (Baulin et al., 1967;  
375 Baulin, 1985; Tyrtikov, 1973, 1979). As a result, the surface waters drain essentially organic part of the column which  
376 is very poor in lithogenic elements (Pokrovsky et al., 2015, 2016). The supply of mineral particles from the snow  
377 therefore may significantly enrich the rivers and lakes in dissolved alkaline earths, metal micronutrients, phosphorus  
378 and other elements given high reactivity of incoming silicate and carbonate grains in acidic ( $\text{pH} < 3-4$ ), organic-rich ( $10$   
379  $< \text{DOC} < 50 \text{ mg/L}$ ) surface waters of Western Siberia. The degree to which such a supply can lead to overestimation of  
380 the calculated chemical weathering export fluxes of cations in the permafrost zone is not possible to quantify.  
381 Therefore, in view of the importance of atmospheric input of solid particles for mineral-poor, peat bogs of western  
382 Siberia, seasonal, year-round measurements of particulate atmospheric deposition in this region are necessary.

383

#### 384 **4.2. Effect of industrial centers and local pollution versus long-term transfer on the amount and chemical** 385 **composition of particulate fraction**

386 Regional background concentrations of dissolved metals in snow of Quebec, Canada are reported to be 1.1, 1.7,  
387 and 1.6  $\text{mg/L}_{\text{meltwater}}$  for Cu, Pb, and Zn, respectively (Telmer et al., 2004). The values for Cu and Pb are comparable  
388 with average snow water concentration across WSL (0.83 and 0.68, respectively) but the concentration of Zn in WSL  
389 snow is significantly higher ( $10.1 \pm 5.0 \mu\text{g/L}$ , excluding 3 contaminated samples near the Tomsk city). Background  
390 concentrations of dissolved Cu, Pb, and Zn in snow of Alaskan Arctic are much lower (0.08, 0.09 and 1.2, respectively,  
391 Snyder-Conn et al., 1997). In snow from background areas of north-eastern European Russia concentrations of  
392 dissolved Cu are near at the same level as in snow from WSL, concentrations of dissolved Pb and Zn are 2 times lower  
393 (Walker et al., 2003). Concentrations of dissolved Cu and Zn in snow of NW Finland are few times lower than in snow  
394 of WSL; concentrations of dissolved Pb are at the same level (Caritat et al., 1998).

395 Significant enrichment in Ni is known for the aerosols of the Arctic Ocean (Shevchenko et al., 2003) may be  
396 linked both to Ni transport from Norilsk and Kola smelters but also with Ni fractionation at the sea surface (Duce et al.,  
397 1976). Ni concentration in snow water of the northern part of WSL significantly exceeds that in the thermokarst lakes.  
398 The winter snow stock of dissolved Ni is several times higher than the river export of this element during spring flood  
399 in the permafrost-bearing zone of the WSL, north of 60°N, and Ni concentration in snow particles exceeds up to 2  
400 orders of magnitude its concentration in moss and peat of the territory.

401 The winter-time deposition of dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) metals on the surface of northern part of the WSL can be  
402 calculated taking into account the mean multi-annual volume of accumulated snow during 8 winter months (in mm of  
403 snow water) and the average concentration of elements in February snow collected north of 64°N. The monthly  
404 depositions of selected metals ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) on the north of the WSL in the form of snow are equal to 2.8, 12, 15,  
405 210 and 0.9 for As, Ni, Pb, Zn, and Cd which is significantly higher than the values for winter deposition of insoluble



406 aerosols into the Russian Arctic (0.22, 0.74, 2.7, 1.3 and 0.056, respectively, Shevchenko et al., 2003). Only V exhibited  
407 similar values of Arctic aerosol and snow deposition (0.71 and 0.96  $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$  month, respectively).

408 The main source of mineral particles in the southern part of latitudinal profile (56–58°N) may be soils of steppe  
409 and forest-steppe regions south of WSL, where the land is cultivated and the snow cover is relatively thin. The aeolian  
410 transport of soil particles under these conditions may be efficient even in winter (Evseeva et al., 2003). The main source  
411 of ash particles in southern part of the profile is the industry and transport of the city of Tomsk. There are numerous  
412 studies of snow cover contamination by particles in the vicinity of Tomsk (Boyarkina et al., 1993; Yazikov et al., 2000;  
413 Talovskaya et al., 2014). The concentration of particles in snow collected from 58°N to 61°N ranged between 0.85 and  
414 5.72 mg/L which is comparable or slightly higher than the values reported for Arctic snow cover (Darby et al., 1974;  
415 Mullen et al., 1972; Nürnberg et al., 1994; Shevchenko et al., 2002, 2010). It is important that in this zone of low PF  
416 concentration, combustion spheres, fly ash and black carbon of few  $\mu\text{m}$  diameters were dominating. This can explain  
417 relatively low concentration of all TE at low PF concentration, as carbon compounds likely contain very low proportion  
418 of trace metals. The most important sources of fly ash and black carbon are known to be gas flaring in oil and gas  
419 industry, land transport, heating plants, residential combustion, forest fires (mainly in summer), industrial plants (Bond  
420 et al., 2004; Moskovchenko and Babushkin, 2012; Quinn et al., 2008; Stohl et al., 2013). Chemical pollution of  
421 atmosphere during gas flaring associated with gas and oil industry is an important factor of anthropogenic impact on  
422 atmospheric deposition in western Siberia (Raputa, 2013; Yashchenko et al., 2014). The black carbon produced during  
423 gas burning is detected not only in western Siberia but in the Russian sector of the Arctic Ocean in high latitudes (Stohl  
424 et al., 2013).

425 In the zone 62–64.5°N, where some impact of oil industry is possible, the concentration of insoluble particles in  
426 snow were above 10 mg/L, achieving the value of 66.6 mg/L in sample SF36. Backward trajectories to this site using  
427 Draxler and Rolf (2003) approach show that last few days before sampling air masses arrived from south-western  
428 direction. Accordingly, the particulate fraction in these samples contained mostly mineral particles 1–25  $\mu\text{m}$  size with  
429 some fly ash (burning spheres), black carbon. It is possible that mineral particles are supplied here via long-range  
430 transport from forest-steppe, steppe and semi-desert regions south and south-west from the study site. Indeed, during  
431 winter snow coverage period, the dominant winds in this zone have S, SW and W directions (Moskovchenko and  
432 Babushkin, 2012). The events of mineral dust transport over large distances are well known in the boreal zone (Lisitzin,  
433 1978, 2011; Shevchenko et al., 2010).

434 Further north of studied latitudinal profile, from 65 to 68°N, the concentration of snow particles ranged from 0.8  
435 to 9.2 mg/L. These values are within the background in the Arctic and subarctic (Darby et al., 1974; Mullen et al., 1972;  
436 Nürnberg et al., 1994; Shevchenko et al., 2002). The particulate fraction was represented by mineral debris of 1 to 15  
437  $\mu\text{m}$  in size, with frequent but not significant presence of spherical ash particles, biogenic strains and porous carbon  
438 particles. Because the main source of mineral particles is long-range transport from southern desert and steppe regions,  
439 moving to the north decrease the influence of these provinces. Note here that rather “southern” point SF9 received the  
440 air masses mostly from snow-covered regions as follows from backward trajectories calculations.

441

#### 442 **4.3 Impact of dissolved fraction of atmospheric input on lakes and rivers TE composition.**

443 Quantitative comparison of element input to the land surface with winter snow and element export from the  
444 watershed of WSL rivers provided the assessment of minimal atmospheric contribution to riverine fluxes. For this  
445 comparison, we ignored: *i*) prior melt history of the snow cover, because the freshly fallen snow could be subjected to  
446 minimal transformation; *ii*) the efficiency of snow sample to capture the total chemical load transferred from the



447 atmosphere into the snow pack, because only the snow water is postulated to contribute to the riverine flux; and *iii*) to  
448 what extent the snowmelt interacts with the topsoil and vegetation litter through which the melt flows into the river.

449 A comparison of snow stock/river water fluxes demonstrates the increase in the influence of atmospheric  
450 deposition northward (**Figs. 6 and S4 of Supplement**), whereas the chemical composition of the dissolved fraction of  
451 snow, although subjected to significant variation, does not exhibit any systematic trend with the latitude as follows from  
452 the PCA (section 3.1). The reason for this difference may be relatively low fluxes and concentrations in rivers of the  
453 northern, permafrost-affected territory of the WSL compared to the southern, permafrost-free zone (Pokrovsky et al.,  
454 2015, 2016). As a result, the impact of atmospheric deposition on the riverine transport is more pronounced in the  
455 permafrost zone than in the permafrost-free zone. We expect this effect to be quite general for flat bog tundra areas of  
456 northern Eurasia, including, in addition to northern part of western Siberia (~400,000 km<sup>2</sup>) studied in this work, the  
457 Yamal and Gyda Peninsula (122,000 and 160,000 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively), the North-Siberian Lowland (~700,000 km<sup>2</sup>), the  
458 Kolyma Lowland (170,000 km<sup>2</sup>), and the Yana-Indigirka Lowland (180,000km<sup>2</sup>) with overall territory close to 1.7  
459 million km<sup>2</sup>. The impact of snow deposition on river elementary fluxes should be much lower in permafrost-bearing  
460 mountainous terrain such as Central and Eastern Siberia, the Alaskan slopes, north of Scandinavian shield and Canadian  
461 High Arctic. In those territories, two processes may decrease the contribution of snow deposition to river fluxes: 1) the  
462 impact of local mineral dust for aerosols generation may be well pronounced and 2) the chemical weathering occurs  
463 within the mineral seasonally unfrozen layer producing higher fluxes of inorganic components.

464 In contrast, in the lowlands of Northern Eurasia, the rivers drain essentially organic layer (peat bog) terrain, thus  
465 mineral feeding of rivers is really low. As it is demonstrated in section 3.2.2 of this study, low chemical (cationic)  
466 weathering in the north of the WSL during spring suggests that TDS<sub>c</sub> and DIC fluxes in May-June in this and other  
467 similar regions are essentially controlled by snowmelt, rather than by weathering. It follows that during the spring  
468 period, the intensity of chemical weathering in these latitudes can be a factor of 2 (major cations) to 5 (TE) lower than  
469 that deduced from riverine fluxes. However, given that the shares of spring flood period (May-June) in the annual  
470 export fluxes are only 5 to 10% for major cations and 10 to 20% for TE (Pokrovsky et al., 2015, 2016), the overall  
471 impact of atmospheric deposits on element export fluxes will be strongly pronounced (i.e., ≥ 50% of total measured  
472 river flux value) only for elements which have the ratio of the spring-time river export to snow stock less than 0.2, i.e.,  
473 SO<sub>4</sub>, Cu, Mo, Cd, Sb, Cs, W and Pb.

474

### 475 **Conclusions**

476 The chemical composition of surface layer of snow cover was studied across a 1700-km latitudinal gradient in  
477 western Siberia Lowland. The particulate fraction ranged from 0.4 to 66 mg/L<sub>meltwater</sub> and increased in the regions of  
478 enhanced dust deposition from southern steppe and desert provenances, in the proximity of industrial centers and due to  
479 fly ash production from gas burning of the oil exploration sites. The lowest concentrations of PF were measured in the  
480 NW part of Tomskaya region and north of 66°N (< 10 mg/L, comparable with background values in the Arctic snow).  
481 A PCA treatment of the elementary composition of snow water dissolved fraction demonstrated a F1 x F2 structure with  
482 the first factor controlling the insoluble, low-mobile lithogenic elements and the 2<sup>nd</sup> factor acting on alkaline-earth  
483 metals, biogenic elements and anions. None of the factors was linked to the latitude.

484 There was an increase in concentration of soluble elements in snow water (Ca, Mg, Sr, Mn, Co) and pH with the  
485 increase in mineral (calcite, dolomite) fraction. The concentration of insoluble elements (trivalent and tetravalent  
486 hydrolysates, Cr, Pb, Cd, Cu) in snow water did not change or decreased in response to the increase in PF. The  
487 elementary composition of PF demonstrated its significant enrichment in most elements relative to mineral soil horizon,



488 peat and moss composition averaged across full latitudinal profile (~1700 km) of WSL. As such, solid atmospheric  
489 aerosols may be important factor of insoluble element delivery to the soil surface.

490 The impact of the snowmelt on chemical composition of western Siberian thermokarst lakes may be very high.  
491 This will be further accentuated by reported increase in the proportion of meltwater that does not reach the main rivers  
492 but stored by the wetlands (i.e., from 20-30% in early 1990s to 50-60% in the mid-2000s, Zakharova et al., 2011). The  
493 concentrations of Na, Mn, Zn, As, Rb and Sr in winter aerosols are similar (within a factor of 2) to lake water  
494 concentrations during spring period. Concentrations of DIC, Cl, SO<sub>4</sub>, Mg, Ca, Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Mo, Cd, Sb, Cs, W, Pb  
495 and U in filtered snow water are close or higher than those in lakes. In the southern, permafrost-free zone, only Zn, Cd,  
496 W, Pb, Cs and Sb fluxes in rivers during May-June period can be supplied essentially by dissolved fraction of the snow  
497 melt. However, the impact of snow melt on river export fluxes in spring strongly increases northward for DIC, Cl, SO<sub>4</sub>,  
498 Na, Mg, Ca, Cd, Pb, Sb, Cr, Cu, Ni, As, Mo, Rb, U. In the permafrost zone, ≥ 50% of riverine fluxes of these elements  
499 during spring flood can be provided by the snowmelt. The reason for such high sensitivity of WSL surface reservoirs to  
500 atmospheric deposition is feeding of surface waters by essentially organic (moss, peat) soil profiles where very thin  
501 layer of sand and clay horizons are subjected to seasonal thaw. With further increase of winter precipitation in western  
502 Siberia (i.e., Bulygina et al., 2009), the impact of snowmelt on element transport to the Arctic Ocean by rivers may  
503 increase thus enriching the surface waters in many elements such as Cd, Pb, Sb, Cr, Cu, Ni, As, Mo, Rb, U. The snow  
504 deposition of mineral particles on the moss cover developed over the frozen peat in the north of WSL will be mostly  
505 pronounced for Sb, Zn, Ni and Cd and in a lesser degree for Mg, Ca, Pb, Mo, and As, since these elements are  
506 impoverished in mineral horizons of the WSL. However, quantifying the degree of these changes require a year-round  
507 monitoring of liquid and solid atmospheric deposits across the WSL territory. We foresee a possibility to apply the mass  
508 balance calculations of atmospheric input to the land surface of other Siberian lowlands of peat bog and thermokarst  
509 lake zones, with an overall territory close to 1.7 million km<sup>2</sup>.

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#### 515 **Data availability**

516 Full data set of major and trace element concentration in snow water (< 0.45 μm) and snow particles sampled  
517 across the latitudinal profile of Western Siberia Lowland is available at the Research Gate,  
518 <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309666956>; DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.12156.54408.

519

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832 **Table 1.** Minimal, maximal, median and geometric mean concentration of dissolved ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  snow water), n=35, and particulate  
 833 ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  particles), n=34 snow components. The data for upper continental crust (UPC) are from (Rudnick and Gao, 2003). N.A.  
 834 stands for non analyzed.

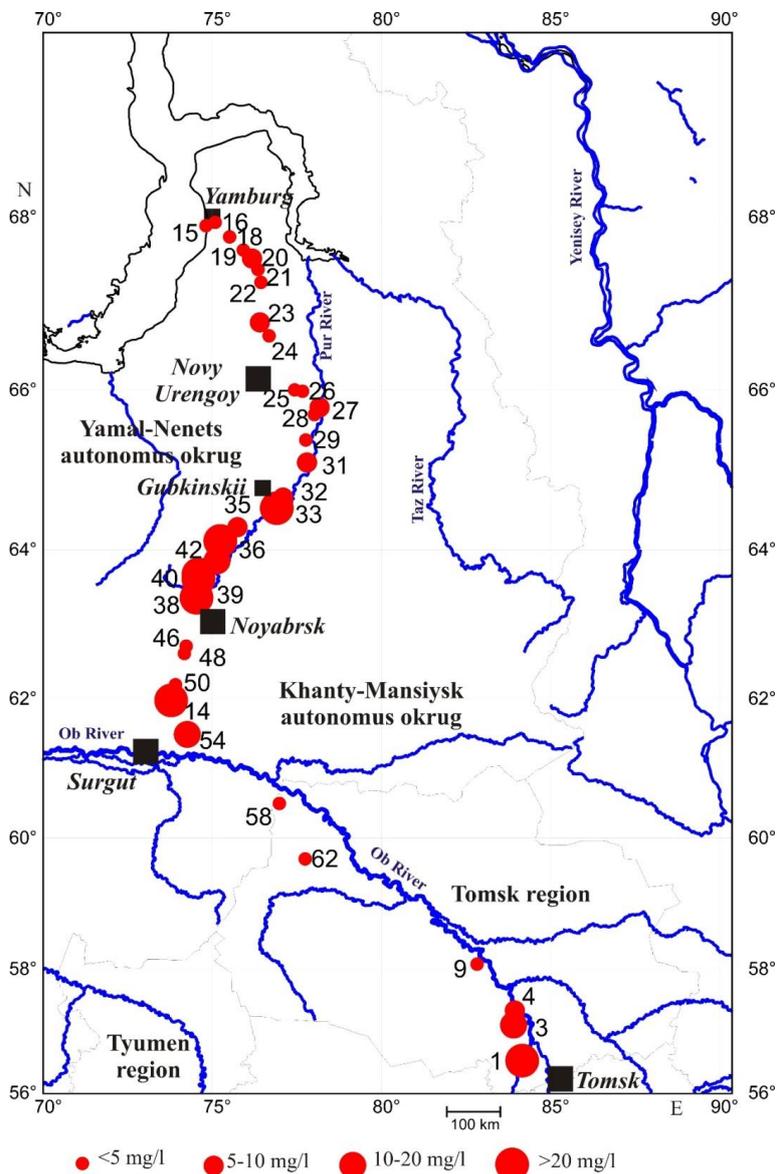
Element	Dissolved				Particulate				UPC
	Min	Max	Median	Geometric mean	Min	Max	Median	Geometric mean	
pH	4.38	8.73	5.11	5.44	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
SC, $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$	9	35	15.5	16.3	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
DIC, mg/L	0.26	2.12	0.37	0.47	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
DOC, mg/L	0.46	1.87	0.84	0.85	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Cl, mg/L	0.07	2.94	0.51	0.48	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
SO <sub>4</sub> , mg/L	0.41	2.01	0.71	0.72	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Li	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	2.6	32.2	10.8	10.7	24
Be	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.12	2.11	0.59	0.59	2.1
Na	47	1982	295	303	1452	39156	6717	7314	24200
Mg	19	862	114	114	3492	156712	19089	21411	14900
Al	1.6	35.2	15.5	12.3	6444	138267	31079	31565	81500
P	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	70	1928	481	503	660
Si	3.5	180	64.6	33.2	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
K	39.2	120	55.5	63.0	1682	38395	5895	6023	23200
Ca	57	2266	267	296	3944	159272	17331	17775	25600
Ti	0.001	0.338	0.032	0.018	194	5762	674	689	3800
V	0.007	0.221	0.051	0.049	23.8	322	67.4	69.7	97
Cr	0.027	0.340	0.111	0.117	43.8	841	138	156	92
Mn	0.62	9.54	3.06	2.99	180	1242	400	404	780
Fe	1.8	62.2	14.6	12.0	7206	41255	15873	16488	39100
Co	0.006	0.418	0.097	0.094	5.9	60.7	19.4	18.6	17.3
Ni	0.04	5.66	0.36	0.36	28.1	1067	149	145	47
Cu	0.16	2.51	0.57	0.63	13.1	273	63.4	75.1	28
Zn	1.7	31.0	8.3	8.3	70.7	3832	202	255	67
Ga	0.0001	0.0185	0.0023	0.0014	1.8	26.7	8.32	7.73	17.5
Ge	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.36	3.18	0.88	0.91	1.4
As	0.02	0.46	0.19	0.15	3.8	67.2	16.1	16.0	4.8
Rb	0.033	0.262	0.066	0.075	6.1	124	24.1	23.4	84
Sr	0.26	10.2	1.04	1.23	26.2	580	117	115	320
Y	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	1.52	40.2	7.1	7.5	21
Zr	0.0001	0.0403	0.0024	0.0015	7.7	383	36.8	38.5	193
Nb	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.80	25.5	3.54	3.72	12
Mo	0.0001	0.059	0.010	0.005	0.55	10.4	2.12	2.24	1.1
Cd	0.015	0.180	0.047	0.046	0.11	3.37	0.71	0.71	0.09



<b>Sn</b>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	1.13	29.3	7.76	7.36	2.1
<b>Sb</b>	0.009	0.132	0.036	0.038	1.67	27.2	5.96	6.15	0.4
<b>Cs</b>	0.0015	0.0105	0.0034	0.0036	0.32	4.78	1.35	1.24	4.9
<b>Ba</b>	0.74	13.6	3.35	3.32	88	1664	374	391	628
<b>La</b>	0.001	0.049	0.012	0.011	2.0	60.2	10.3	10.8	31
<b>Ce</b>	0.003	0.095	0.022	0.019	4.05	128	19.0	20.6	63
<b>Pr</b>	0.0001	0.0084	0.0022	0.0019	0.50	15.5	2.30	2.35	7.1
<b>Nd</b>	0.0013	0.0275	0.0085	0.0067	1.86	58.6	8.32	8.70	27
<b>Sm</b>	0.0001	0.0072	0.0020	0.0016	0.39	11.8	1.78	1.79	4.7
<b>Eu</b>	0.00010	0.00253	0.00096	0.00083	0.11	2.56	0.45	0.47	1.0
<b>Gd</b>	0.0004	0.0082	0.0022	0.0022	0.40	10.3	1.71	1.77	4.0
<b>Dy</b>	0.00002	0.0041	0.0016	0.0008	0.32	7.83	1.35	1.42	3.9
<b>Ho</b>	0.00006	0.00123	0.00061	0.00054	0.06	1.51	0.26	0.27	0.83
<b>Er</b>	0.0002	0.0029	0.0010	0.0010	0.18	4.71	0.77	0.80	2.3
<b>Tm</b>	0.00002	0.00088	0.00011	0.00009	0.03	0.72	0.11	0.11	0.3
<b>Yb</b>	0.00000	0.00289	0.00089	0.00049	0.16	4.91	0.73	0.73	1.96
<b>Lu</b>	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.024	0.76	0.11	0.11	0.31
<b>Hf</b>	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.25	13.2	1.10	1.18	5.3
<b>Ta</b>	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.18	4.35	0.62	0.62	0.9
<b>W</b>	0.002	0.108	0.020	0.017	2.0	102	35.9	28.8	1.9
<b>Tl</b>	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.04	0.73	0.23	0.23	0.90
<b>Pb</b>	0.02	3.67	0.51	0.38	13.2	703	71.9	67.9	17
<b>Th</b>	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.43	17.1	2.22	2.33	10.5
<b>U</b>	0.0007	0.0063	0.0031	0.0028	0.19	4.69	0.92	0.93	2.7

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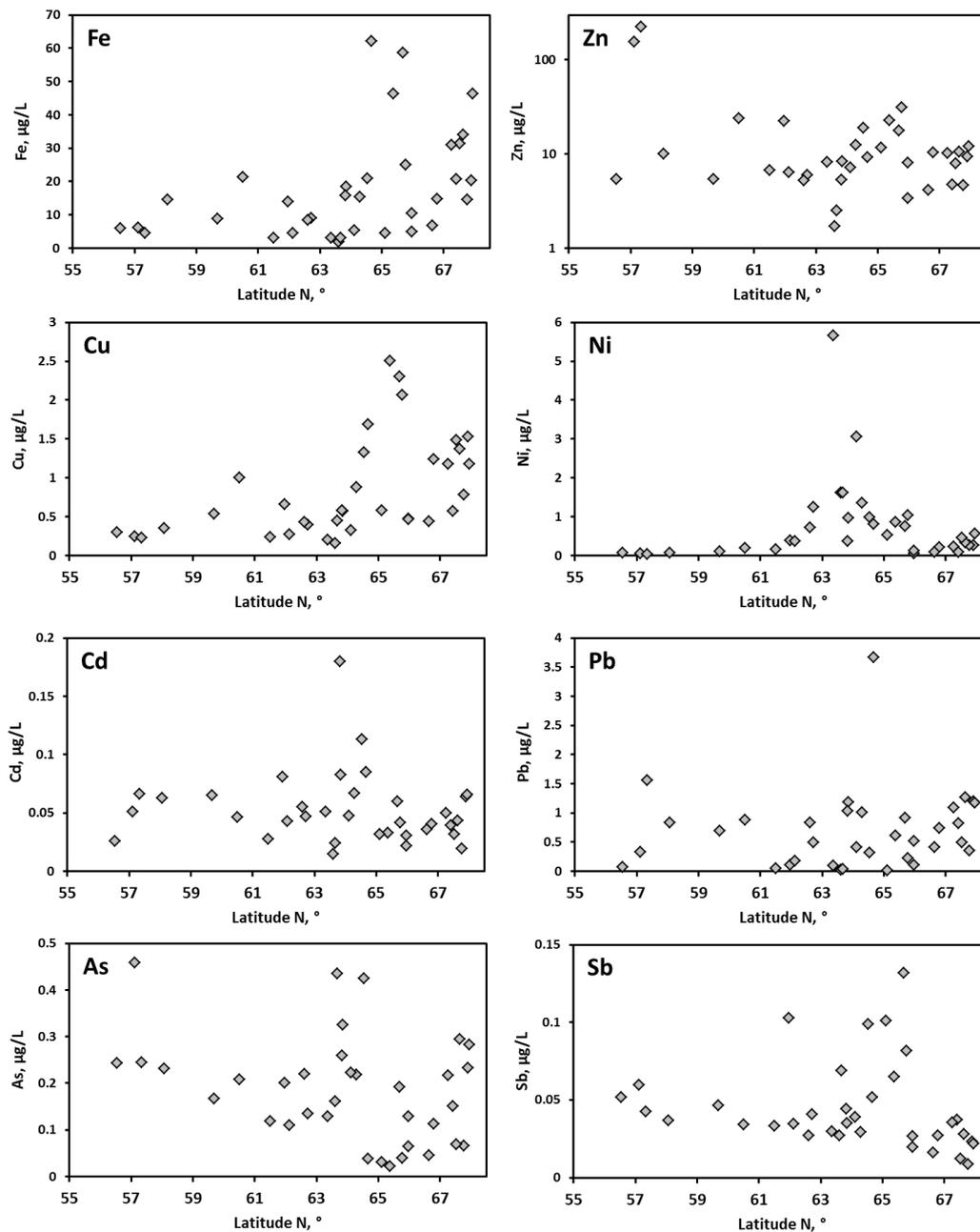


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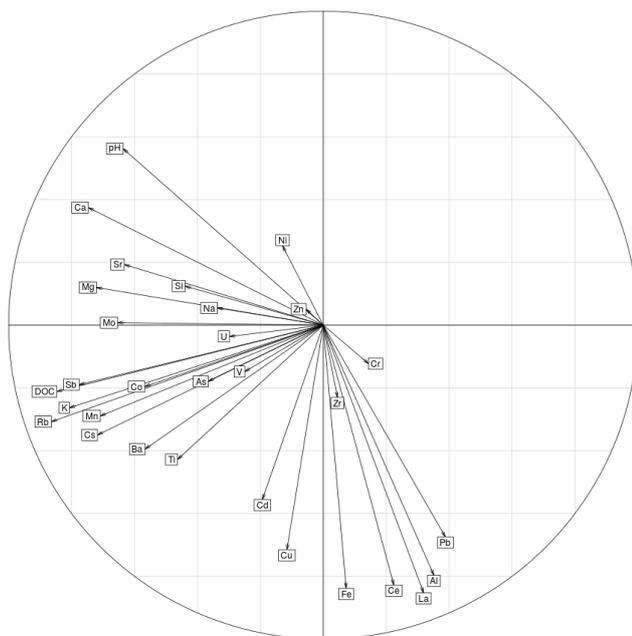
839 **Figure 1.** Map of the study site. The size of the sampling points reflects the concentration of particulate fraction  
840 (mg/L<sub>snow water</sub>)

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**Fig. 2.** Examples of dissolved (< 0.45 µm) metal concentrations in snow water as a function of latitude.



849 dissolved part

850 **Figure 3.** PCA Factorial map F1x2 of variables (elements) for the dissolved fraction.

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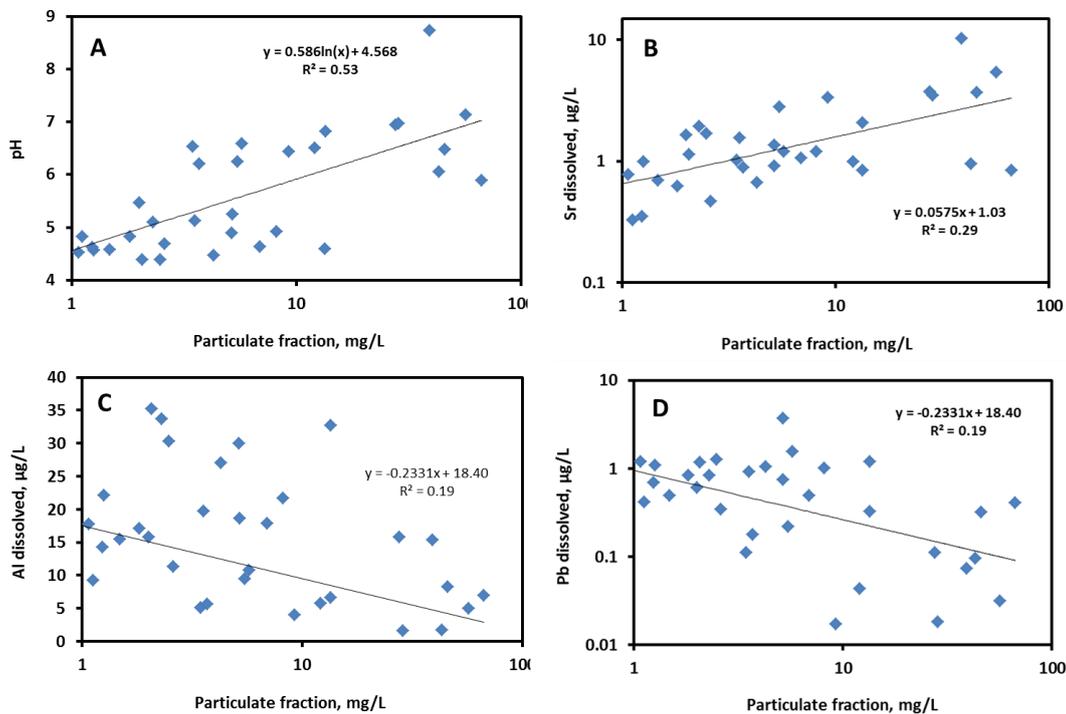
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864 **Figure 4.** pH value (A) and Sr (B), Al (C) and Pb (D) concentration in dissolved fraction of snow as a function of  
865 concentration of particles. Note log X scale for Sr and Pb.

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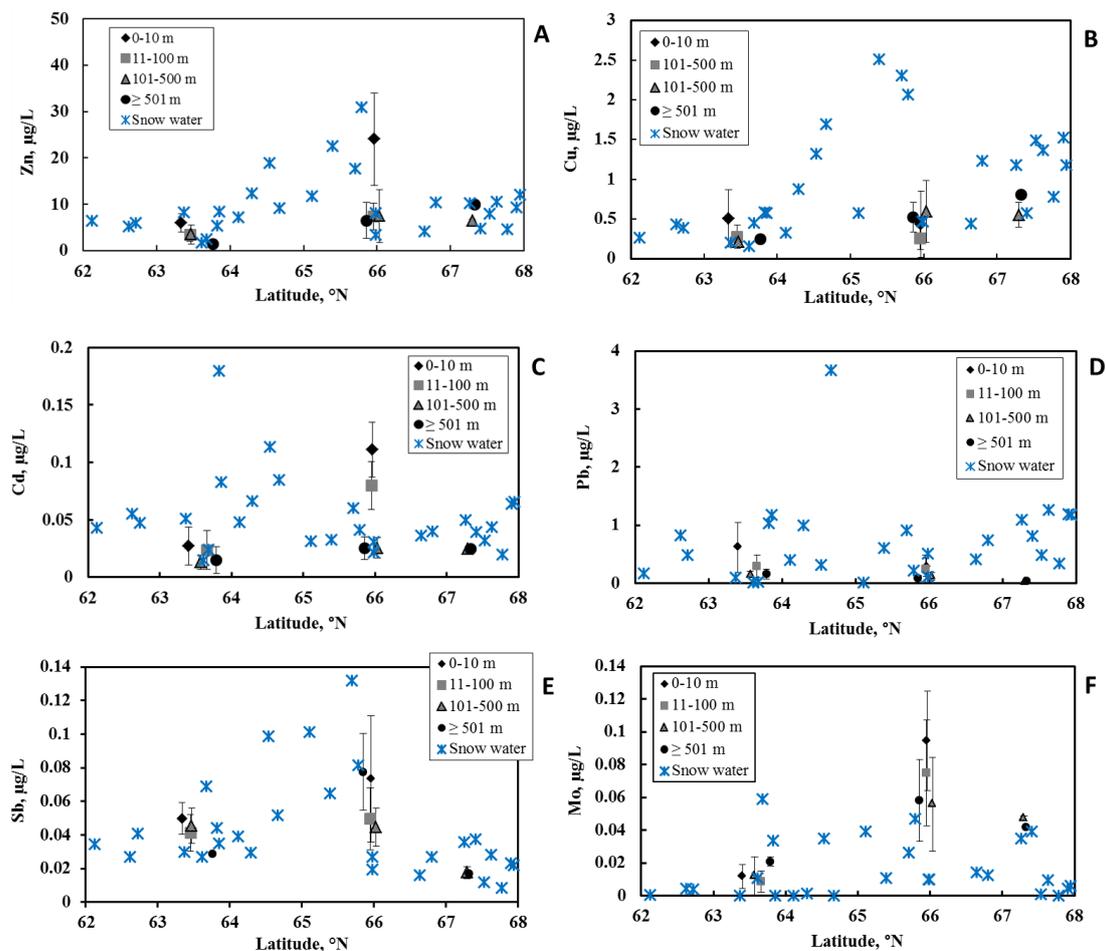
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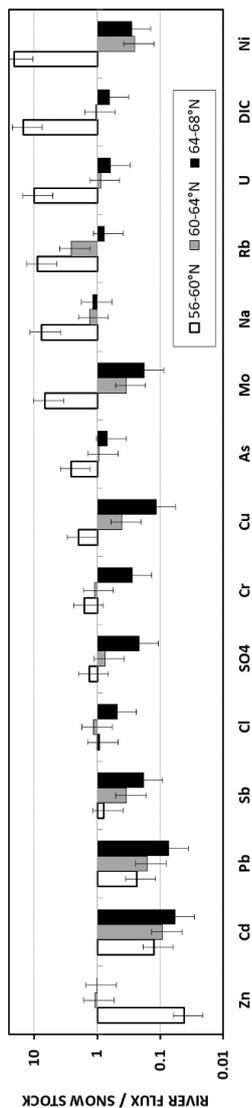
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882 **Figure 5.** Snow water soluble ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) concentration of Zn (A), Cu (B), Cd (C), Pb (D), Sb (E) and Mo (F) (blue  
 883 asterisk) compared with average concentrations in thermokarst lakes of different size in western Siberia (black symbols)  
 884 along the latitudinal gradient. Diamonds, squares, triangles and circles represent the lakes of four diameters: 0-10,  
 885 100 to 500, and  $> 500$  m, respectively. The error bars represent the 2 s.d. of mean concentration for at least 10  
 886 lakes.

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**Figure 6.** The ratio of the river water flux to that of the snow stock for elements that are most affected by atmospheric aerosols depositions. The flux ratio was calculated taking into account the snow volume (in mm of water) and river runoff (in mm during May and June).

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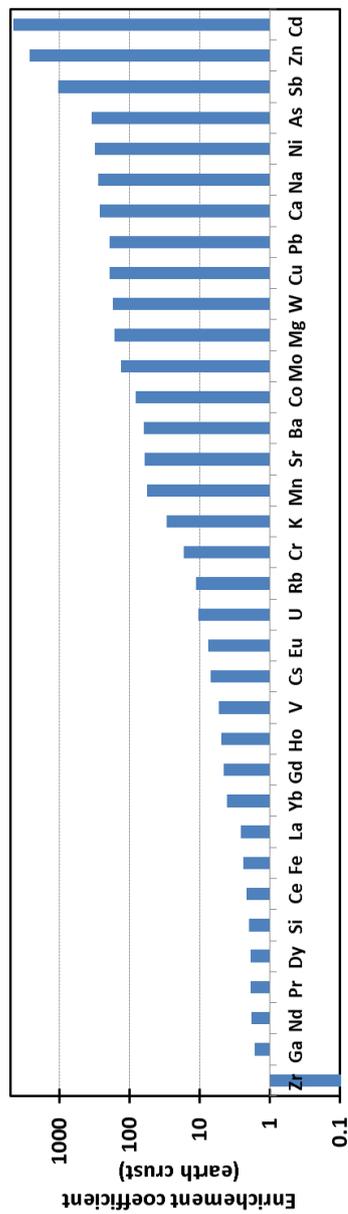
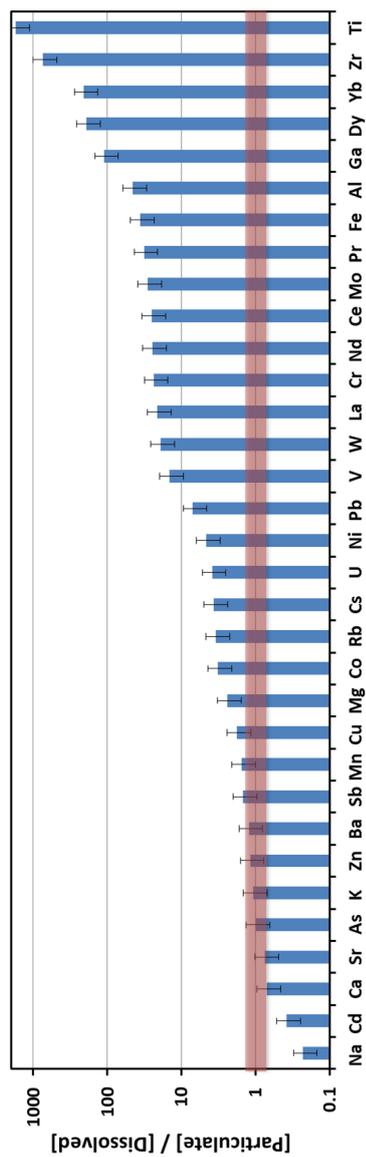


Figure 7. The latitude-averaged Al-normalized enrichment coefficient of snow particles with respect to the earth crust.

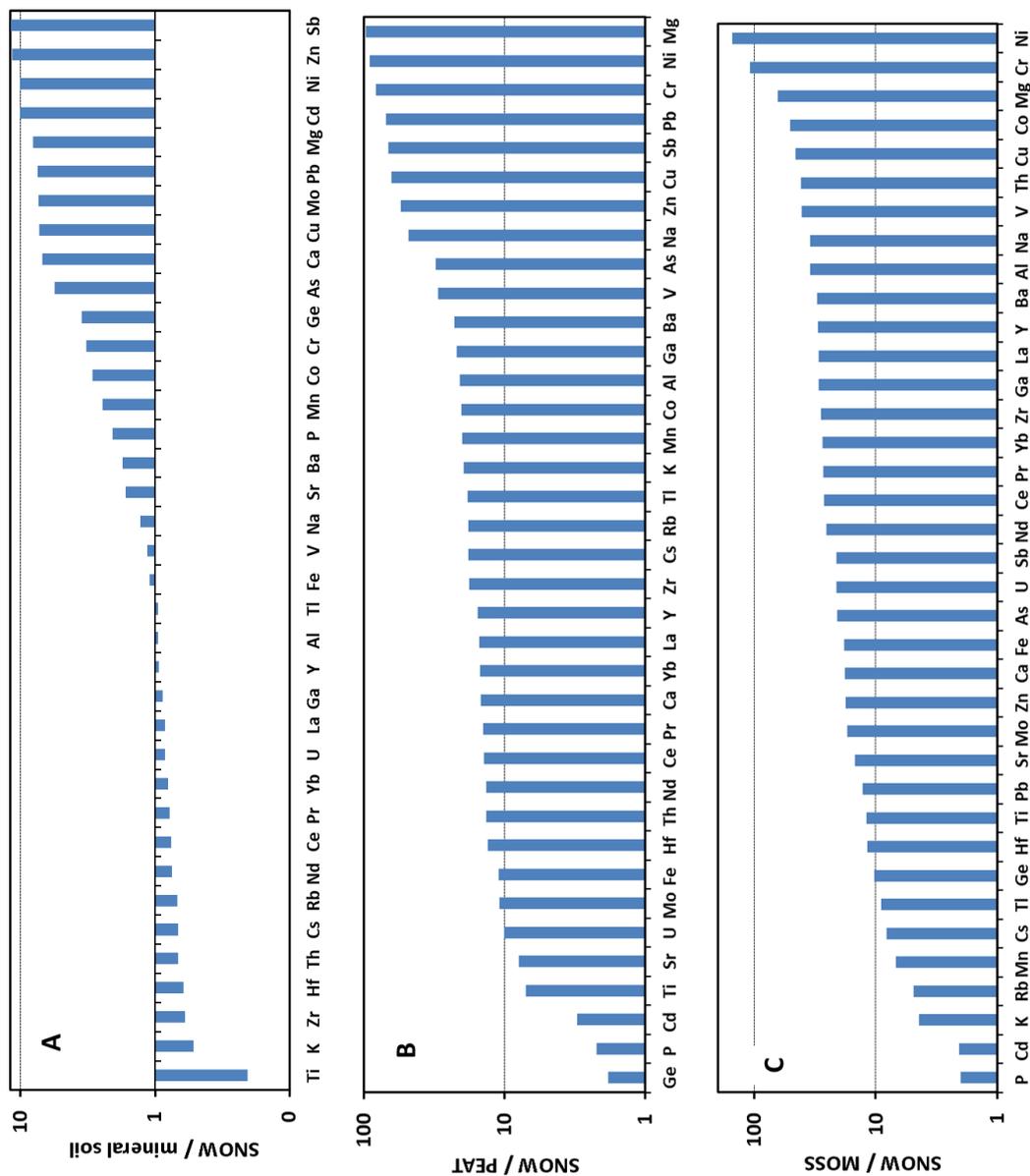


**Figure 8.** The average values (56 to 68°N) of the ratio of particulate to dissolved element concentration in snow water of western Siberia. Bold red line indicates statistically non-significant deviation from 1.

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**Figure 9.** The ratios of the average concentrations of elements in snow particles (neglecting sample SF22) to those in mineral soil (A), peat (B) and mosses (C) of WSL. The peat, moss, and underlying mineral horizons data are averaged over the latitude of 55 to 68°N as described in Stepanova et al (2015). Note normal Y scale for mineral soil (A) and log Y scale for peat and moss (B, C).