

1 **Trace elements transport in western Siberia rivers**  
2 **across a permafrost gradient**

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5 **O.S. Pokrovsky<sup>1\*</sup>, R.M. Manasypov<sup>2,3</sup>, S. Loiko<sup>2</sup>, I.A. Krickov<sup>2</sup>,**

6 **S.G. Kopysov<sup>2,4</sup>, L.G. Kolesnichenko<sup>2</sup>, S.N. Vorobyev<sup>2</sup>, S.N. Kirpotin<sup>2</sup>**

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8 <sup>1</sup> GET UMR 5563 CNRS University of Toulouse (France), 14 Avenue Edouard Belin, 31400  
9 Toulouse, France, [oleg@get.obs-mip.fr](mailto:oleg@get.obs-mip.fr)

10 <sup>2</sup> BIO-GEO-CLIM Laboratory, Tomsk State University, Lenina av., 36, Tomsk, Russia

11 <sup>3</sup> Institute of Ecological Problem of the North, 23 Nab Severnoi Dviny, Arkhangelsk, Russia

12 <sup>4</sup> Institute of Monitoring of Climatic and Ecological Systems, SB RAS, Tomsk, Russia  
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16  
17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Towards a better understanding of trace element transport in permafrost-affected Earth  
19 surface environments, we sampled ~60 large and small rivers (< 100 to ≤ 150,000 km<sup>2</sup> watershed  
20 area) of Western Siberia Lowland (WSL) during spring flood and summer and winter base-flow  
21 across a 1500 km latitudinal gradient covering continuous, discontinuous, sporadic and permafrost-  
22 free zones. Analysis of ~40 major and trace elements in dissolved (< 0.45 μm) fraction allowed  
23 establishing main environmental factors controlling the transport of metals and trace elements in  
24 rivers of this environmentally important region. No statistically significant effect of the basin size on  
25 most TE concentration was evidenced. Three category of trace elements were distinguished  
26 according to their concentration – latitude pattern: (i) increasing northward in spring and winter (Fe,  
27 Al, Ga (only winter), Ti (only winter), REEs, Pb, Zr, Hf, Th (only winter)), linked to leaching from  
28 peat and/or redox processes and transport in the form of Fe-rich colloids, (ii) decreasing northward  
29 during all seasons (Sr, Mo, U, As, Sb) marking the underground water influence of river feeding and  
30 (iii) elements without distinct trend from S to N whose variations within each latitude range were  
31 higher than the difference between latitudinal ranges (B, Li, Ti (except summer), Cr, V, Mn, Zn, Cd,

32 Cs, Hf, Th). In addition to these general features, specific, northward increase during spring period  
33 was mostly pronounced for Fe, Mn, Co, Zn and Ba and may stem from a combination of enhanced  
34 leaching from the topsoil and vegetation and bottom waters of the lakes (spring overturn). A spring  
35 time northward decrease was observed for Ni, Cu, Zr, Rb. The southward increase in summer was  
36 strongly visible for Fe, Ni, Ba, Rb and V, probably due to peat/moss release (Ni, Ba, Rb) or  
37 groundwater feeding (Fe, V).

38 The Principal Component Analysis demonstrated two main factors potentially controlling the  
39 ensemble of TE concentration variation. The first factor, responsible for 16-20% of overall variation,  
40 included trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates, Cr, V, and DOC and presumably reflected the  
41 presence of organo-mineral colloids, being positively affected by the proportion of forest on the  
42 watershed. The 2<sup>nd</sup> factor (8-14% variation) was linked to the latitude of the watershed and acted on  
43 elements affected by the groundwater feeding (DIC, Sr, Mo, As, Sb, U), whose concentration  
44 decreased significantly northward during all seasons, with the increase of the proportion of lakes and  
45 bogs on the watershed.

46 Overall, the rank of environmental factors on TE concentration in western Siberian rivers was  
47 latitude (3 permafrost zones) > season > watershed size. The effect of the latitude was minimal in  
48 spring for most TE but highly visible for Sr, Mo, Sb and U. The main factors controlling the shift of  
49 river feeding from surface and subsurface flow to deep underground flow in the permafrost-bearing  
50 zone were the depth of the active (unfrozen) seasonal layer and its position in organic or mineral  
51 horizons of the soil profile. In the permafrost-free zone, the relative role of carbonate mineral-  
52 bearing base rock feeding versus bog water feeding determined the pattern of trace element  
53 concentration and fluxes in rivers of various size as a function of season.

54 Comparison of obtained TE fluxes in WSL rivers with those of other subarctic rivers  
55 demonstrated reasonable agreement for most trace elements; the lithology of base rocks was the  
56 major factor controlling the magnitude of TE fluxes. The climate change in western Siberia and  
57 permafrost boundary migration will affect essentially the elements controlled by underground water  
58 feeding (DIC, alkaline-earth elements (Ca, Sr), oxyanions (Mo, Sb, As) and U). The thickening of

59 the active layer may increase the export of trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates in the form of  
60 organo-ferric colloids. Plant litter-originated divalent metals present as organic complexes may be  
61 retained via adsorption on mineral horizon. However, due to various counterbalanced processes  
62 controlling element source and sinks in plants – peat – mineral soil – river systems, the overall  
63 impact of the permafrost thaw on TE export from the land to the ocean may be smaller than that  
64 foreseen by merely active layer thickening and permafrost boundary shift.

65

## 66 **1. Introduction**

67 Transport of trace element (TE) by rivers is the main factor controlling biogeochemical  
68 cycles of essential micronutrients, geochemical traces and contaminants at the Earth surface.  
69 Whereas the majority of large rivers are systematically (Cooper et al., 2008; McClelland et al., 2015)  
70 or occasionally (Gordeev et al., 1996; Seyler et al., 2003; Pokrovsky et al., 2010) monitored for some  
71 TE concentration and fluxes, this is not the case for smaller rivers, unless these rivers are affected by  
72 anthropogenic activity or local pollution. Because **in the permafrost zone** the size of the watershed  
73 determines the degree of groundwater feeding, river specific discharge and water residence time (i.e.,  
74 **Nikitin and Zemtsov, 1986; Novikov et al., 2009**), the effect of the river size on TE transport  
75 becomes an issue of high academic and practical importance. **This may become especially relevant**  
76 for testing various models of chemical weathering and element migration in the Critical Zone **of the**  
77 **Arctic and sub-arctic** (i.e., Beaulieu et al., 2012). However, straightforward comparison of element  
78 concentrations and fluxes in watersheds of various sizes is possible only in pristine regions of  
79 homogeneous runoff and landscape types (equatorial forest, tundra, or boreal biome of the  
80 platforms), where the seasonal aspect is often hard to resolve due to the difficulty of year-round  
81 access to the river or the lack of hydrological background.

82 In this regard, orographically flat, **lithologically** homogeneous, peat-covered western Siberia  
83 Lowland (WSL) offers a unique chance of testing various aspects of riverine element transport on  
84 relatively pristine territory with reasonably good knowledge of hydrology and runoff across a very  
85 large gradient of climate and vegetation. A very important aspect of western Siberian rivers is the

86 dominance of peat soils, producing high concentration of Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM) of  
87 allochthonous (humic and fulvic) character. In the presence of dissolved organics, many typically  
88 insoluble, low mobile elements, notably trivalent and tetravalent hydrolyzates and some divalent  
89 metals, become highly labile being present as organic or organo-mineral colloids, i.e., entities  
90 between 1 kDa (~ 1 nm) and 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  (Stolpe et al., 2013; Porcelli et al., 1997). This colloidal form  
91 of migration greatly enhances the fluxes of TE from the soil to the river and finally, to the ocean. As  
92 a result, even small rivers of this region may turn out to be very important vectors of TE fluxes.

93 At present, the interest to aqueous geochemistry of major and trace element in permafrost-  
94 affected regions is rising due to high vulnerability of these regions to the climate change and the  
95 possibility of release of solutes previously stored in frozen soils and ice (see Anticibor et al., 2014;  
96 MacMillan., 2015; Vonk et al., 2015). This is particularly true for WSL exhibiting (i) highly unstable  
97 permafrost, mostly sporadic and discontinuous, and (ii) high stock of frozen organic matter (peat  
98 horizons), potentially containing elevated concentrations of many metals (Cu, Zn, Ni, Pb, Cd, Ba)  
99 accumulated in peat. In this regard, WSL allows studying the mobilization of organic-bound metals  
100 from frozen soil to the river across more than 1500 km gradient of permafrost coverage (absent,  
101 sporadic, isolated, discontinuous and continuous), vegetation (southern and middle taiga to tundra)  
102 and climate (0 to  $-9^{\circ}\text{C}$  MAAT) while remaining within relatively homogeneous nature of underlining  
103 lithology (sands and clays), soils (peat and podzols) and runoff (200 to 300  $\text{mm y}^{-1}$ ). Note that, in  
104 contrast to extensive studies of TE in rivers and streams of boreal regions of Scandinavia (Ingri et al.,  
105 2000, 2005; Wallstedt et al., 2010; Huser et al., 2011, 2012; Oni et al., 2013; Tarvainen et al., 1997;  
106 Lidman et al., 2011, 2012, 2014; Temnerud et al., 2013), Alaska (Rember and Trefry, 2004), Canada  
107 (Wadleigh et al., 1985; Gaillardet et al., 2003; Millot et al., 2003); Central Siberia (Pokrovsky et al.,  
108 2006; Bagard et al., 2011, 2013) and European Russia (Pokrovsky et al., 2002, 2010; Vasyukova et  
109 al., 2010), even punctual measurements of TE in western Siberia rivers (Ob, Nadym, Taz and Pur  
110 basin) with the exceptions of the Ob and Irtush river (Moran and Woods, 1997; Alexeeva et al., 2001;  
111 Gordeev et al., 2004) are lacking. Moreover, similar to other Siberian rivers (Pokrovsky et al., 2006;  
112 Huh and Edmond, 1999; Huh et al., 1998; Dessert et al., 2012) seasonally-resolved measurements of

113 trace elements in WSL rivers are absent. At the same time, monthly monitoring of large Arctic rivers  
114 at the terminal gauging stations (Holmes et al., 2000, 2012, 2013) provide neither sufficient number  
115 of TE measurements nor the information on smaller tributaries located within various climate and  
116 permafrost context.

117 Therefore, the general objective of this study was first assessment of TE concentration and  
118 fluxes across significant gradient of permafrost in the WSL. Specific tasks were the following: (i)  
119 quantifying the effect of the watershed area (or river discharge) on TE concentration; (ii) assessing  
120 the difference of element concentration during main hydrological seasons (spring flood, summer and  
121 winter baseflow); (iii) revealing annual TE fluxes in rivers as a function of watershed latitude, and  
122 (iv) evaluating the degree of flux modification under climate warming scenario and northward  
123 migration of the permafrost boundary.

124 As a working hypothesis, and following the concepts developed for major elements transport  
125 in WSL rivers (Frey et al., 2007a, b; Frey and Smith, 2005; Pokrovsky et al., 2015) we expect that  
126 northward decrease of riverine fluxes and concentrations of elements is due to decrease of the  
127 groundwater feeding from water-rock interaction below soil active layer. At the same time, the  
128 elements bound to organic colloids can be preferentially mobilized from surface (organic-rich)  
129 horizons in permafrost-affected regions compared to permafrost-free regions. The increase of TE  
130 fluxes in the permafrost zone may be linked to limited downward migration of TE-DOM complexes  
131 and their low retention on frozen mineral horizon in the northern part of WSL, as it is reported for  
132 DOC (Kawahigashi et al., 2004; Pokrovsky et al., 2015). From the other hand, the high thickness of  
133 unfrozen mineral horizon in the south may enhance TE mobilization from the soil to the river.  
134 Therefore, one expects three distinct families of TE in terms of latitudinal pattern of their  
135 concentration and fluxes: *i*) increasing northward, *ii*) decreasing northward and *iii*) indifferent to the  
136 latitude. This study is aimed at verifying the existence of these patterns and characterizing possible  
137 mechanisms of element mobilization using rigorous statistics for a large number of rivers sampled  
138 during main hydrological periods.

139

## 140 2. Study site and Methods

### 141 2.1. Physico-Geographical setting

142 Western Siberia Lowland (WSL) includes the watersheds of rivers Ob, Pur, Nadym, Taz and  
143 left tributaries of the Yenisei River draining Pliocene sands and clays. These sedimentary deposits  
144 are covered by thick (1 to 3 m) peat and enclose boreal taiga, forest-tundra and tundra biomes. The  
145 thickness of Quaternary clays, sands, and silts ranges from several meters to 200-250 m. The  
146 Paleogene and Neogene deposits are rarely exposed on the earth surface and represented by sands,  
147 alevrolites and clays. In the southern part of WSL, the carbonate concretions and shells are present  
148 within the claystone and siltstones (Geological Composition, 1958). The mean annual temperature  
149 (MAT) ranges from  $-0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the south (Tomskaya region) to  $-9.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the north (Yamburg) with  
150 annual precipitation of  $400\pm 30$  (s.d.) mm over 1500 km latitudinal gradient. The river runoff  
151 gradually increases northward, from  $190\pm 30$  (s.d.)  $\text{mm y}^{-1}$  in the permafrost-free Tomskaya region to  
152  $300\pm 20$  (s.d.)  $\text{mm y}^{-1}$  in the discontinuous to continuous permafrost zone (Nikitin and Zemtsov,  
153 1986). Further physico-geographical description, hydrology, lithology and soils can be found in  
154 Botch et al. (1995); Smith et al. (2004); Frey and Smith (2007); Beilman et al. (2009) and more  
155 recent studies of Shirokova et al. (2013), Manasypov et al. (2014, 2015), and Stepanova et al. (2015).  
156 A map of studied region together with main permafrost provenances, bedrock lithology, active  
157 (seasonally unfrozen) layer depth, and river runoff in WSP is given in **Fig. 1**. More detailed river  
158 description and localization of watersheds are presented in Pokrovsky et al. (2015).

159 The mean multi-annual monthly discharges of WSL rivers are available from systematic  
160 surveys of Russian Hydrological Survey (Hydrological Yearbooks of RHS), generalized in Nikitin  
161 and Zemtsov (1986) and also compiled in R-ActicNET database ([www.r-arcticnet.sr.unh.edu](http://www.r-arcticnet.sr.unh.edu)). In  
162 this study, due to limited number of observation over the year, the river discharge for each river was  
163 averaged for each 3 seasons of sampling (May to June, July to September, and October to April). In  
164 addition, systematic hydrological study of State Hydrological Institute in 1973-1992 in the northern  
165 part of western Siberia allowed reliable evaluation of small and medium rivers discharges (Novikov

166 et al., 2009). Details of small WSL rivers discharge calculation are presented in previous publication  
167 (Pokrovsky et al., 2015).

168 The proportion of bogs, lakes and forest coverage of the river watersheds was numerically  
169 assessed via digitalizing GIS-based landscape maps of western Siberia (1:200,000 scale). For large  
170 and medium rivers having gauging stations of RHS, the information on the watershed coverage was  
171 collected from Zhil and Alushkinskaya (1972). The evaluation of the degree of permafrost  
172 distribution on river watersheds was possible thanks to available geocryological maps of western  
173 Siberia (1:500,000, see Ershov, 1989).

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## 176 *2.2. Sampling and analyses*

177 We sampled 70 rivers in early June 2013 and 2014 (spring flood), 67 rivers in August 2013  
178 and 2014 (summer baseflow), 13 rivers in October 2013 (autumn) and 55 rivers in February 2014  
179 (winter baseflow), see Table S1. The sampling points were located some 100-200 m upstream the  
180 river where it was crossing the regional road. The traffic on WSL roads is quite low and thus the  
181 pollution from the road is expected to be minimal. Several tests were made during summer baseflow  
182 on the same rivers sampled at different distances from the road bridge. Regardless of the size of the  
183 river, from few to 10,000 km<sup>2</sup> watershed, this test did not yield any statistically significant difference  
184 ( $p > 0.05$ ) in the concentration of all TE. The watershed area of sampled rivers ranged from 2 to  
185 150,000 km<sup>2</sup>, excluding Ob in its medium course zone. The waters were collected from the middle of  
186 the stream for small rivers or at 0.5 m depth 1-2 m offshore on the large rivers using vinyl gloves and  
187 pre-washed polypropylene (PP) jars. Collected waters were immediately filtered in cleaned 30-mL  
188 PP Nalgene® flacons through single-use pre-washed filter units Minisart (Sartorius, acetate cellulose  
189 filter) having a diameter of 33 mm and a pore size of 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ . The first 20 to 50 mL of filtrate was  
190 discarded. Filtered solutions for trace analyses were acidified ( $\text{pH} \sim 2$ ) with ultrapure double-distilled  
191  $\text{HNO}_3$  and stored in the refrigerator. The preparation of bottles for sample storage was performed in  
192 a clean bench room (ISO A 10,000). Blanks of MilliQ water were processed in the field in parallel to

193 samples in order to control the level of pollution induced by sampling and filtration. For most trace  
194 elements except Zn, these blanks were less than 10% of the element concentration in the sample. For  
195 several rivers in winter, the Zn blanks were 30 to 50% of their sample concentration and these data  
196 were not used in the discussion. Analyses of DOC, pH, major cations and anions and their  
197 uncertainties are described in details in previous publication (Pokrovsky et al., 2015). Note that in  
198 February, all rivers north of 66°N, in the continuous permafrost zone, except the largest Khadutte  
199 watershed (4933 km<sup>2</sup>) were completely frozen: under 1.5-2 m ice thick, no water was found within  
200 20 cm of the solid mineral ground under the ice.

201 Trace elements were determined with an ICP-MS Agilent ce 7500 with In and Re as internal  
202 standards and 3 various external standards, placed each 10 samples in a series of river water. The  
203 SLRS-5 (Riverine Water Reference Material for Trace Metals certified by the National Research  
204 Council of Canada) was measured each 20 samples to check the accuracy and reproducibility of the  
205 analysis (Yeghicheyan et al., 2013). The typical agreement with certified values was better than 10%  
206 except for some elements (Ga, Y, W, Th) that yielded 20% to 30% agreement. However, the  
207 analytical uncertainty on these element analyses was at least 20%, so the agreement was considered  
208 as acceptable. We also applied drift correction using in-house EPOND standard or highly diluted  
209 BCR-482 digested lichen. Further details of TE analysis in boreal organic-rich surface waters,  
210 uncertainties and detection limits are presented in previous publications of our group (Pokrovsky et  
211 al., 2010, 2013; Shirokova et al., 2013; Manasyrov et al., 2014, 2015).

212

### 213 *2.3. Statistical treatment of the data and element speciation in the river water*

214 The concentration of carbon and major elements in rivers were treated using the least squares  
215 method, Pearson correlation and one-way ANOVA (SigmaPlot version 11.0/Systat Software, Inc).  
216 Regressions and power functions were used to examine the relationships between TE concentration  
217 and the watershed area, latitude, and seasons. Trace element concentration in rivers of (1) three main  
218 permafrost zones (continuous, discontinuous and permafrost-free regions), (2) 6 latitudinal classes of  
219 the watershed (56-58, 58-60, 60-62, 62-64, 64-66 and 66-68°N), (3) during three main seasons and



220 (4) 4 watershed size classes (< 100, 100-1000, 1000-10000, and > 10,000 km<sup>2</sup>) were processed using  
221 non-parametric H-criterion Kruskal-Wallis test. This test is suitable for evaluation of difference of  
222 each TE among several samplings simultaneously. It is considered statistically significant at  $p <$   
223 0.05. However, we found that a  $p$  level of < 0.0001 corresponding to  $H > 30$  indicated more  
224 significant differences and thus it was also used in assessing the relative effect of season, latitude and  
225 the watershed size.

226 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to compute and interpret the spatial structures  
227 of TE in rivers using the STATISTICA package (<http://www.statsoft.com>). This treatment was used  
228 both for the full set of sampled rivers for all seasons simultaneously and for each season individually.  
229 Here, we considered the average latitude of the watershed and its watershed area, pH, and all major  
230 and trace element concentration as numerical variables.

231 Metal speciation and complexation with DOM in the river water was modeled using visual  
232 Minteq code (version 3.1, Gustafsson, 2014). For vMinteq calculation, season-averaged major and  
233 trace concentration of permafrost-free, discontinuous and continuous permafrost zone were used.

234

### 235 **3. Results**

#### 236 *3.1. Pearson correlation coefficient and PCA results*

237 Full dataset of TE concentration in sampled rivers is available from the corresponding author  
238 upon request. Pearson correlation coefficients of TE with organic and inorganic carbon, Fe and Al  
239 are listed in **Table S2** of the Supplement. For these correlations, dissolved organic and inorganic  
240 carbon (DOC and DIC, respectively), Fe and Al were chosen as main tracers of TE mobilization  
241 from surface and underground reservoirs and TE colloidal carriers in Siberian rivers and lakes,  
242 whose presence may limit the transport of heavy metals and hydrolysates in the form of high  
243 molecular weight organic and organo-mineral colloids, see Pokrovsky et al., 2006, 2012). From the  
244 other hand, DIC is most efficient tracer of ground-water feeding of rivers and it reflects the water-  
245 rock interaction in the basement. It can be seen from **Table S2** that during open-water period (spring,  
246 summer and autumn), the DOC is statistically significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) correlated with Be (0.63-0.80)

247 Al (0.59-0.72), Ti (0.56-0.70), V (0.71-0.82), Cr (0.63-0.87), Ni (0.71-0.88), Cu (0.66), Ga (0.66), Zr  
248 (0.85-0.86), Nb (0.53-0.76), REEs (0.6-0.8 in summer and autumn), Hf (0.62-0.80), Th (0.79-0.88)  
249 with the highest correlations always observed during summer. Several elements (Li, B, As, Sr, Mo,  
250 Sb, U) were more significantly correlated with DIC rather than DOC. In winter, only Sr (0.82) and U  
251 (0.80) were linked to DIC and none of TE was strongly ( $R > 0.60$ ) correlated with DOC.

252 All insoluble, low-mobile trace elements were highly correlated with Al. This was mostly  
253 pronounced during summer ( $0.8 \leq R \leq 0.98$ ) for Be, Ti, Cr, Co, Ga, Zr, Cd, REEs and Th. The  
254 correlation of these elements with Al was also significant ( $R > 0.55$  at  $p < 0.05$ ) in spring and  
255 autumn. The correlation of TE with Fe was not statistically significant during all seasons except  
256 winter, when Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Ga, As and Zr were correlated ( $R > 0.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) with Fe, although the  
257 correlation coefficient of Ti, V, Cr and Zr was higher with Al than with Fe.

258 These preliminary links between trace elements carriers (DOC, Fe, Al) or proxies (DIC) were  
259 further examined using PCA (Fig. 2). Two factors, F1 and F2 were found to be capable explaining  
260 21.5 and 11.4% of variability of TE in all sampled rivers during all seasons. Noteworthy that the  
261 watershed area was not linked to these factors (-0.01 for F1 and 0.38 for F2). The first factor, marked  
262 by DOC and  $UV_{280\text{ nm}}$ , was mostly visible for Be (0.86), Al (0.79), Ti (0.66), Zr (0.81), Nb (0.77),  
263 REEs (0.96-0.98), Hf (0.88) and Th (0.88). The second factor was clearly linked to the negative  
264 latitude of the watershed and was mostly pronounced for variation of specific conductivity (0.93),  
265 Mg (0.92), Ca (0.90), K (0.84), pH (0.82), DIC (0.90), Li (0.85), V (0.76), As (0.81), Sr (0.89), Mo  
266 (0.69), Sb (0.70), W (0.59) and U (0.68). This factor was also linked to the decrease of the proportion  
267 of bogs and lakes on the watershed: the water surfaces and wetlands decreased the input of element  
268 to the rivers whereas the forest increased the element input. Very similar structure of factors has been  
269 revealed when treating each season individually. The first factor was mostly pronounced in spring  
270 (16.8 and 8.6% of variability for F1 and F2, respectively) whereas in summer the difference in the  
271 relative role of F1 and F2 decreased (15.8 and 10.3 %, respectively). Simultaneous treatment of all  
272 data on river water chemistry during open water seasons (spring, summer and autumn) yielded very  
273 similar factorial structure with the F1 (16.1%) acting on DOC, UV, Al, Ga, Ti, V, Cr, Zr, REEs, Hf

274 and Th and F2 (9.2%) negatively linked to latitude and the proportion of lakes and bogs on the  
275 watershed and positively to pH, DIC, Na, Mg, K, Ca, B, As, Rb, Sr, Sb, Cs and U (Fig. 2a). Overall,  
276 one may notice high stability of general F1 x F2 structure during different seasons, although the  
277 effect of landscape units was much less visible during the winter and the latitude impacted the low-  
278 soluble elements  $TE^{3+}$ ,  $TE^{4+}$  hydrolysates (Fig. 2b).

279 The other possible factors (not shown) contribute less than 5% to overall variation of TE  
280 concentration and potentially reflect aerosol uptake by terrestrial ground vegetation (B, Zn, Ba),  
281 proximity to the sea, as detected by sea salts and alkali and alkaline-earth elements (Na, Cl, Cs, Sr),  
282 and watershed area and river discharge, also linked to the groundwater feeding ( $SO_4$ , Sb, U). Note  
283 however that a straightforward discrimination of lakes, bogs and forest versus permafrost effects on  
284 element concentration in WSL rivers was not possible, because the proportion of lakes and bogs is  
285 much higher in the tundra and forest-tundra zone relative to the permafrost-free middle taiga zone.

286 In the results presentation below, we will focus on few distinct groups of similar elements  
287 according to their chemical properties (i.e., alkalis, alkaline-earths, divalent metals, tri- and  
288 tetravalent hydrolysates, oxyanions and neutral molecules), following the similarity of element  
289 behavior in surface waters of western Siberia (e.g., Manasypov et al., 2014, 2015; Vorobyev et al.,  
290 2015). Special attention will be given to Fe and Al, the major colloidal carriers whose concentration  
291 and transport essentially control the migration of all other trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates in  
292 surface waters of western Siberia (Pokrovsky et al., 2011, 2013; Shirokova et al., 2013). Besides, we  
293 analyzed in details the behavior of Sr, Mo and U because these elements are most affected by the  
294 permafrost abundance, or the latitudinal position of the watershed, the central question of this study.

295

### 296 3.2. TE concentration dependence on the average latitude of the watershed

297 Concentration of TE as a function of the watershed latitude is shown in Figs 3-11 and S1 to  
298 S12 in the Supplement for three main hydrological season. The variability of TE within each  
299 latitudinal range was the highest for small-size catchments (< 100 km<sup>2</sup>). Considering all watershed  
300 sizes, several group of elements can be distinguished according to their basic physico-chemical

301 properties and affinities to DOM. Trivalent hydrolysates such as Al, Ga, Y, REEs demonstrate no  
302 link between concentration and latitude in spring and summer and **a much higher**, a factor of 10 to  
303 100, increase northward during winter (**Fig. 4 and Fig. S1**). Fe and tetravalent hydrolysates Ti, Zr  
304 and Th also demonstrated significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) northward increase in winter, the lack of visible  
305 latitudinal trend in spring and a decrease of concentration northward in summer (**Fig. 3** for Fe and  
306 **Fig. S2** for Ti as an example, respectively). The divalent metals (Mn, Zn, Co, Ni, Cu, Cd and Pb)  
307 yielded high variability of element concentration for the same latitudinal range, without distinct  
308 latitudinal trend in summer and winter (Mn, Ni, Co, Cu, Zn, Pb, Cd), an increase northward of  
309 concentration in spring (Mn, Co, Zn), and a decrease in spring (Ni, Cu). This is illustrated for Mn,  
310 Cu, Zn and Pb in Figs. 5-8 and for Ni, Co, and Cd in Figs. S3-S5. Cr showed significant northward  
311 decrease in spring and increase in winter, without distinct latitudinal trend in summer (Fig. S6).

312 A number of elements exhibited very strong latitudinal trends regardless of the season and the  
313 watershed size. These are Sr (**Fig. 9**), Mo (**Fig. 10**) and U (**Fig. 11**). In a lesser degree, seasonally-  
314 persistent trend of northward concentration decrease is observed for B (summer and winter only, **Fig.**  
315 **S7**), As (**Fig. S8**) and Sb (not shown). Significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) decrease of Li and Rb concentration in  
316 spring and V concentration in spring and summer was also visible for all watershed sizes (not  
317 shown). In contrast to Sr, Ba concentration increased northward in spring while **greatly** decreased  
318 during summer (**Fig. S9**).

319 Statistical treatment of these trends is described in the next section.

320

### 321 *3.3. Statistical treatment of trace element concentration in WSL rivers*

322 All sampled watershed were separated into four main classes of area:  $< 100 \text{ km}^2$ , 100 to 1000  
323  $\text{km}^2$ , 1000 to 10,000  $\text{km}^2$  and  $> 10,000 \text{ km}^2$ . Six latitude ranges were considered during 3 main  
324 hydrological seasons (56 to 58°N, 58 to 60°N, 60 to 62°N, 62 to 64°N, 64 to 66°N and 66 to 68°N).  
325 The significance of TE concentrations variation of each watershed size as a function of each  
326 latitudinal class was tested separately for each season and for the full period of observation.

327

### 328 3.3.1. Effect of the watershed size and season

329 Based on  $H$  criterion of Kruskal-Wallis, the differences between watershed of different sizes  
330 were found quite low. In spring, only Ti, Ni, Cu, Ga, Zr, REEs, Pb, Th and U yielded slight effect ( $H$   
331  $< 10-15$  and  $p > 0.001$ ) of the size whereas concentration of all other elements were statistically  
332 insensitive to the watershed area. In summer, weak effect ( $H \sim 10$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ) was seen for Al, V, Ni,  
333 Cu, Rb, Mo and U with only Mn and Co showing some link to the size of the river ( $H = 18.5$ ,  $p =$   
334  $0.0003$ ;  $H = 16.4$ ,  $p = 0.0009$ , respectively). In winter, only Al showed significant effect of latitude  
335 ( $H = 21.8$ ,  $p = 0.0001$ ) whereas Ti, V, Cr, Fe, Sr, Zr, Ba, REEs and Pb yielded weak effect ( $H < 15$ ,  $p$   
336  $< 0.0001$ ). Finally, considering all seasons together, only U yielded significant impact of the  
337 watershed size ( $H = 30.2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) whereas all other elements had  $H < 20$  at  $p > 0.001$ .

338 The seasonal effects were tested for all river size and latitudes simultaneously. Generally, the  
339 seasonal variations were more significantly pronounced than those of the watershed size. Considering  
340 all river sizes across the full latitudinal profile, the effect of seasons was highly pronounced ( $H > 25$ ,  
341  $p < 0.0001$ ) for Al, Ti, Mn, Fe, Co, Ga, Rb, As, Sr, Mo, Cd, Cs, Ba, HREEs, Hf, W, U). It was less  
342 important although statistically significant ( $8 < H < 30$ ,  $p \geq 0.0001$ ) for Li, B, V, Ni, Cu, Zn, Sb,  
343 LREEs, Pb and Th) and not visible for other elements.

344

### 345 3.3.2 Three permafrost regions and latitudinal trends

346 An assessment of the permafrost effect on TE concentration in river water is possible via  
347 distinguishing three categories of permafrost distribution in the WSL: permafrost-free,  
348 discontinuous and continuous permafrost zones. For these plots, we consider all seasons and river  
349 watershed sizes simultaneously. In terms of global permafrost influence, only Li, Sr, Mo and U  
350 depicted significant, 2 to 3 orders of magnitude decrease of concentrations northward (Fig. S10),  
351 consistent with statistical treatments (see below). Fe, Al and other trivalent hydrolyses  
352 demonstrated more than an order of magnitude increase in concentration in discontinuous and  
353 continuous permafrost zone relative to southern, permafrost-free zones (Fig. S11). This increase was

354 most likely linked to significant rise in  $TE^{3+}$  concentration in winter in northern watersheds (see  
355 sections 3.2).

356 Considering all seasons simultaneously, for 3 permafrost zones, statistical Kruskal-Wallis test  
357 yielded significant impact of permafrost ( $40 < H < 110$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) for Li, B, Ni, Cu, As, Rb, Sr,  
358 Mo, Sb, Hf, W and U. In a much lesser degree ( $8 < H < 30$ , but typically from 10 to 15 at  $p < 0.01$ )  
359 the permafrost impacted Ti, V, Fe, Cs, Ba, and all REEs. All other elements including divalent metal  
360 micronutrients (Zn, Mn, Co) and pollutants (Cd, Pb) exhibited non-significant differences between  
361 different permafrost zones as illustrated in Fig. S12.

362 The Kruskal-Wallis test of 6 latitudinal classes in spring yielded highly pronounced effect ( $H$   
363  $> 30$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) of latitude on Li, V, Cr, Ni, Cu, As, Rb, Sr, Zr, Mo, Sb and U. During this period,  
364 the latitude effect was less visible ( $10 < H < 30$ ,  $0.001 < p < 0.05$ ) for Mn, Fe, Co, Zr, Nb, Cs, REEs,  
365 Hf, W, Pb and Th. In winter, 6 latitudinal classes were highly pronounced ( $H > 30$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) for  
366 Ca, DIC, Sr and U and less visible ( $10 < H \leq 20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) for B, Al, Ti, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ga, As, Rb,  
367 Mo, Sb, Ba, REEs, Pb. In summer, the latitudinal classes were distinct ( $H > 30$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) for B,  
368 Cu, As, Rb, Sr, Mo, Ba, and U, and less pronounced ( $10 < H < 30$ ,  $0.001 < p < 0.05$ ) for Be, Ti, V,  
369 Cr, Fe, Ni, Zr, Cs, REE, Pb, Hf, W.

370 Considering all season together, six latitudinal classes were strongly pronounced ( $H > 30$ ,  $p \leq$   
371  $0.0001$ ) for DIC, DOC, major cations and anions, Li, Be, B, V, Fe, Ni, Cu, As, Rb, Sr, Mo, Sb, Ba,  
372 Cs, Hf, W and U. The impact of the latitude was significant ( $11 < H \leq 25$ ,  $0.0001 < p < 0.05$ ) for Co,  
373 Zr, Nb, REEs, Pb and Th, and not significant for Al, Mn, Zn, Ga and Cd. In accord with the trends  
374 shown in Figs. 9-11, the latitude effect is most strongly pronounced for Sr, Mo, and U ( $H = 122$ , 110,  
375 and 123).

376

#### 377 *3.4. Trace element fluxes in western Siberia rivers across the latitudinal gradient*

378 Trace element fluxes were computed based on mean multi-annual monthly average discharge  
379 of sampled rivers and measured concentrations during three main hydrological seasons (spring flood,

380 summer and winter baseflow including October), normalized to the watershed area at the point of  
381 river sampling. Considering high variability of concentrations among individual rivers at each  
382 latitudinal size range during a given season, the typical uncertainties of the average of several rivers  
383 in each latitudinal class (56-58, 58-60, 60-62, 62-64, 64-66 and 66-68°N) are between 20 and 30%.  
384 Note that TE flux calculation may be biased by insufficient number of observations over the year,  
385 namely during long winter baseflow, and one single measurement during hydrologically important  
386 spring flood period. As such, the overall uncertainty of the annual fluxes of TE in each latitudinal  
387 range ranged between  $\pm 20$  and  $\pm 50\%$  of the mean value. This uncertainty was calculated as the sum  
388 of uncertainties of each season. The uncertainty of each season flux was proportional to the  
389 contribution of this season to the annual flux. We consider this as reasonable evaluation given large  
390 variations of chemical composition of small rivers over the year. Besides, significant number of  
391 rivers in each latitudinal class, integrating all sizes of the watersheds including small, previously not  
392 studied streams ( $< 1000 \text{ km}^2$ ), greatly enforces the validity of our flux calculations.

393 Taking into account the abovementioned uncertainties, the majority of trace elements did not  
394 demonstrate statistically significant (at  $p < 0.05$ ) latitudinal trend of export fluxes which was the case  
395 for some typical hydrolysates (Al, Ti, La, Zr, Th), oxyanions (B, As, Sb), and metals (Cr, Mn, Co,  
396 Ba, Rb, Cu, Pb). At the same time, many elements (V, Cr, Mn, Cu, Co, Ni, As, Zr, REEs, Th)  
397 demonstrated elevated flux in the northernmost latitudinal range, without clear trend in rivers south  
398 of 66°N. This single latitude range was not considered significant as it marked the elevated  
399 concentration of elements in only one river in winter and 4 rivers in summer and thus could be biased  
400 by the low number of sampled rivers. Because all rivers north of 66°N except the largest Khadutte  
401 ( $67.41^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $4933 \text{ km}^2$ ) were completely frozen, the river fluxes in winter in this latitudinal range can  
402 be considered as zero. Neglecting winter-time fluxes in the latitudinal range 66-68°N removed  
403 anomalously high annual values for Cr, Mn, Fe, Cu, Zn, Co, As, Rb, Zr, REEs, Cd and Th rendering  
404 the northernmost fluxes of continuous permafrost zone for these elements similar to those of  
405 permafrost-free and discontinuous permafrost regions without statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) trend  
406 across the 1500-km latitudinal transect. Fe, Zn, and Cd demonstrated clear increase ( $p < 0.05$ ) of

407 fluxes northward (Fig. S13). This increase was more significant (at  $p < 0.05$ ) than the individual  
408 uncertainties in each latitudinal range.

409 The TE annual fluxes in WSL rivers can be averaged over full latitudinal range and listed in  
410 Table 1. A few elements (Sr, Mo, U) yielded distinct decrease of annual fluxes northward, with some  
411 re-increase in continuous permafrost zone, persistent even after removal of anomalously high winter-  
412 time concentrations of r. Khadutte (Table 1, Fig. S14). For these elements, no definite value of WSL  
413 river flux could be recommended.

414

415

### 416 *3.5. Trace element speciation in western Siberia rivers*

417 Element speciation in dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) phase calculated using Stockholm Humic Model  
418 (vMinteq) is illustrated as stack diagram in Fig. 12. This calculation was performed based on  
419 seasonal-averaged concentrations of major and trace elements in three distinct geographical zones of  
420 WSL: permafrost-free, discontinuous and continuous permafrost. Trivalent hydrolyzates including  
421 Fe,  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  were present as  $> 90\%$  organic complexes, regardless of the type of permafrost  
422 abundance. Alkaline-earth metals and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  were essentially in the form of free ions having  $< 15\%$  of  
423 organic complexes. Transition metals exhibited variable proportion of organic complexes (from 20 to  
424 60%), without any trend related to the type of permafrost abundance. Considering all divalent metals,  
425 the following order of organic complexation was observed:  $\text{Co} < \text{Cd} \sim \text{Zn} < \text{Ni} \ll \text{Pb} < \text{Cu}$ .  
426 Uranium exhibited most contrasting speciation between permafrost-free, DIC-rich rivers (from 10 to  
427 70% of organic complexes) and permafrost-bearing zones ( $> 90\%$ ). This contrast was linked to  
428 elevated concentrations of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  ions in southern rivers, where inorganic U(VI)-carbonate species  
429 were prevailing.

430

431

432



## 433 **4. Discussion**

### 434 *4.1. General features of TE migration across the permafrost gradient and trace elements*

#### 435 *correlations with DOC, DIC, Fe and Al and Principal Component Analysis*

436 From general knowledge of environmental control on trace element fluxes in rivers of the  
437 Russian and Siberian subarctic (Pokrovsky and Schott, 2002; Pokrovsky et al., 2006; 2012) and other  
438 boreal and subarctic regions (Huh et al., 1998; Millot et al., 2003; Rember and Trefry, 2004; Huser et  
439 al., 2011), the element concentration evolution over the latitudinal profile of variable permafrost  
440 coverage and vegetation at otherwise similar bedrock lithology and physico-geographical settings  
441 will be governed by several counter-balanced processes. A decrease of mobile element (alkali and  
442 alkaline-earths, oxyanions) concentration northward in the WSL regardless of the season and the  
443 river size may be due to (1) decrease of chemical weathering intensity with the temperature (Oliva et  
444 al., 2003; Beaulieu et al., 2012); (2) decrease of the thickness of the active (unfrozen) soil layer  
445 (Beilman et al., 2009); and (3) decrease of the degree of groundwater feeding (Frey et al., 2007b).  
446 These factors will mostly act on elements whose transport is not limited by dissolved organic matter.  
447 The river size is expected to act essentially on the 3<sup>rd</sup> factor, via decreasing the degree of river  
448 feeding by underground taliks with the decrease of the watershed area: it is fairly well known that the  
449 larger the river, the stronger the impact of underground input, notably in the permafrost zone of  
450 western Siberia (Fotiev, 1989, 1991).

451 The factors capable to enhance element concentration and export flux in northern  
452 (permafrost-bearing) rivers relative to southern (permafrost-free) rivers are those controlling the  
453 export of DOM and related metal complexes: (1) the increase of DOC and related element leaching  
454 from plant litter and topsoil (Pokrovsky et al., 2012; Giesler et al., 2006; Fraysse et al., 2010) during  
455 more pronounced massive freshet event or summer high flow (Michel and Vaneverdingen, 1994;  
456 McClelland et al., 2006; White et al., 2007); (2) enhanced mobility of low soluble TE in more acidic  
457 solutions of the spring acid pulse (well established in other permafrost-free boreal regions, Buffam et  
458 al., 2007), which is pronounced only in permafrost-affected rivers of western Siberia (Pokrovsky et

459 al., 2015); and (3) the decrease of DOM-metal complexes retaining(adsorption) on mineral soil  
460 horizon because clay horizon is typically frozen in the north (Kawahigashi et al., 2004). These  
461 enhancing factors will be tightly linked to the nature of colloidal carriers of TE (organic, organo-  
462 ferric or organo-aluminium species) and the efficiency of metal leaching from the organic topsoil and  
463 plant litter. A comprehensive database of rivers of various size across the full gradient of permafrost  
464 investigated during main hydrological seasons in this study allows testing the abovementioned  
465 environmental factors.

466 The DOC and Fe are not correlated in rivers ( $R < 0.40$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ) and this is consistent with  
467 decoupling of Fe and DOC during size separation procedure as two independent colloidal pools,  
468 already demonstrated for European boreal rivers (Lyvén et al., 2003; Neubauer et al., 2013;  
469 Vasyukova et al., 2010) and other Siberian rivers and WSL thermokarst lakes (Pokrovsky et al.,  
470 2006; Pokrovsky et al., 2011). The highest correlation coefficients between DOC and divalent metals  
471 and hydrolysates observed in summer may indicate on the importance of DOM in these elements  
472 mobilization from vegetation pool or from soil mineral horizons. The latter pool is poorly  
473 pronounced in spring. Significant correlation of Al with insoluble low mobile elements such as Be,  
474 Ti, Cr, Ga, Zr, Cd, REEs, Hf and Th was mostly pronounced during open-water period. A likely  
475 cause of this coupled transport is concomitant release of these elements from soil peat or mineral  
476 horizon. Most likely, organo-Al colloids, also highly abundant in western Siberia thermokarst lakes  
477 (Pokrovsky et al., 2011) act as carriers of insoluble hydrolyzates from the organic or mineral (clay)  
478 soil constituents to the river. A decoupling of total dissolved Fe concentration from these correlations  
479 during all seasons is due to Fe vulnerability to redox processes. As a result, although organo-ferric  
480 colloids may still be important carriers of TE, significant fraction of dissolved Fe in Fe-rich streams,  
481 especially in winter, can be in Fe(II) form. Reductive dissolution of Fe and Mn oxy(hydr)oxides in  
482 temperate soils is known to provoke the release of Ba, Cd, Cu, Co, Cr, Ni and V (Abgottspon et al.,  
483 2015; Hindersmann and Mansfeldt, 2014; Weber et al., 2009). Additional source of some low mobile  
484 metals can be underground water influx, reflected in 1-2 orders of magnitude higher Fe and Mn

485 concentrations in winter (Figs. 3C and 5C) and in statistically significant correlation coefficient with  
486 Fe of Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Ga, As, and Zr (Table S2, section 3.1)

487 The PCA results clearly demonstrated two main factors controlling element distribution in  
488 rivers during all seasons, across the latitudinal gradient: F1 is presumably linked to organic and  
489 organo-mineral colloids, acting on insoluble, low mobile element hydrolysates (Be, Al, Ti, Zr, Nb,  
490 REEs, Hf, Th) and associated to the presence of forest on the watershed and F2 being directly linked  
491 to the negative latitude which controls specific conductivity, DIC, Ca, Mg, K, Li, V, As, Rb, Sr, Mo,  
492 Sb, W and U whose concentrations greatly decrease northward during all seasons (see Fig. 2a and b).  
493 This factor increases its importance with the decrease of the proportion of lakes and bogs on the  
494 watershed because wetlands are known to limit element export in the boreal zone (Lidman et al.,  
495 2011, 2014).

496 The lack of watershed area and discharge effect on F1× F2 structure revealed during PCA  
497 treatment suggests that the watershed size does not control element concentration in rivers across the  
498 latitudinal gradient during various seasons (see results of Kruskal Wallis test in section 3.3.1). An  
499 important result is the persistence of F1 x F2 factorial structure with relatively similar eigenvalues  
500 over all four hydrological seasons, including winter baseflow. This suggests the dominance of two  
501 main processes controlling element mobilization from the soil to the river: organo-colloidal DOC-  
502 rich surface flow and deep underground or subsurface feeding by DIC-rich, DOC-poor waters, as  
503 also evidenced in during analyses of major cations (Ca, Mg) of the WSL rivers (Pokrovsky et al.,  
504 2015).

505 Despite significant latitudinal and geographical coverage of western Siberia rivers, the PCA  
506 analysis does not allow explain the observed variability of solute composition in western Siberia due  
507 to its highly homogeneous environmental context (Pokrovsky et al., 2015), unlike that of the  
508 Mackenzie River drainage basin (Reeder et al., 1972). In the latter, however, contrasting lithological  
509 and physico-geographical factors (carbonate, gypsum, clays, halite deposits, hot springs) create  
510 distinct component structure. Another reason of relatively low efficiency of PCA to explain TE  
511 concentration variability (only 33%) is that a fair number of TE, such as divalent metals (Mn, Zn, Bi,

512 Co, Cu, Cd, Pb) are linked neither to latitude (groundwater feeding) nor to Al/Fe-rich organic  
513 colloids. As a result, not all the variables respond to the observed PCA F1 x F2 structure.

514

515 *4.2. Effect of latitude on TE concentration and export from the soil profile and groundwater*  
516 *to the river*

517 The decrease of concentration of elements originated from water-rock interaction whose  
518 transport is not limited by the availability of DOM (Ca, Mg, DIC, Li, B, V, Cr, Sr, Rb, As, Sb, Mo,  
519 U) is expected to be directly related to the concentration of these elements in underground waters  
520 contacting basement rocks. In winter, when the contribution of the groundwater relative to the  
521 surface runoff is maximal (i.e., Walvoord et al., 2012; Walvoord and Striegl, 2007), one can expect  
522 most significant effect of the latitude on these element concentration in rivers. In addition, in the  
523 permafrost-bearing zone during winter baseflow, significant difference in element concentration in  
524 winter between small rivers (not affected or weakly affected by taliks) and large rivers (essentially  
525 fed by taliks) should occur. In contrast, in spring, when the majority of the soil column is frozen, the  
526 export from the watershed is dominated by surface flux over the frozen organic horizon and thus the  
527 difference in groundwater-related element concentration between small and large rivers or between  
528 north and south should be minimal. Similar to results for major river components such as DIC, Ca,  
529 and Mg (see Pokrovsky et al., 2015), these hypotheses are not supported by TE concentration trend  
530 observed in rivers (Figs. 9-11, S7 and S8) and Sect. 3.2. The groundwater feeding of WSL rivers  
531 ranges significantly from the southern permafrost-free zone (56 to 58°N) where it varies between 30  
532 and 80% (Frey et al., 2007b) to 20-30% in the discontinuous and sporadic/isolated part of WSL and  
533 decreases down to 3-6% in the northern, continuous permafrost zone (Novikov et al., 2009). This  
534 decrease of groundwater feeding is capable to partially explain an order of magnitude decrease of Sr,  
535 Mo and U across the studied gradient (Figs. 9-11 and S10). However, the latitudinal trend of soluble  
536 TE (Sr, Mo, As, Sb, and U) concentration achieves 2 orders of magnitude and persists regardless of  
537 the seasons and the watershed size thus implying more than one single source of soluble elements in  
538 the rivers.

539 We hypothesize, therefore, that, in addition to deep underground feeding, there is element  
540 leaching from the main constituents of the soil profile – peat and mineral horizons. This leaching  
541 essentially controls the gradual decrease of soluble element concentration in rivers northward, visible  
542 during all seasons. The capacity of soil substrate to release TE to the river can be evaluated based on  
543 available elemental composition of WSL peat (Stepanova et al., 2014). At present, this is the only  
544 source of information on TE concentration in moss cover, peat and mineral horizons of WSL soils  
545 over more than 1500 km latitudinal transect similar to that investigated in the present work. Among  
546 50 major and trace element analyzed in main soil reservoirs of the WSL, only several TE  
547 demonstrated statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) latitudinal concentration trend. For example, an  
548 order of magnitude decrease of Sr, Mo, and U northward in peat and mosses of the WSL between 55  
549 and 66°N (Fig. S15) may reflect the latitudinal evolution of the geographic background across the  
550 WSL. Tentatively, it corresponds to a decrease of the content of carbonate concretions in the clayey  
551 horizons. The latter is detectable in all four main compartments feeding the river: (1) soluble  
552 products of rock weathering in the underground reservoirs; (2) deep soil/subsurface fluids interacting  
553 with mineral part of the soil profile; (3) interstitial soil solutions of the peat horizons, and 4) plant  
554 litter/moss layer leachates transported to the river via surface runoff in the permafrost free zone and  
555 suprapermafrost flow in the permafrost-bearing zone.

556 Additional factor of enhanced Sr, Mo and U mobility in the southern rivers relative to  
557 northern rivers is the difference of the pH regime between permafrost-free and permafrost-bearing  
558 zones of WSL. The pH values of 7 to 7.5 in the southern rivers observed both in winter and spring  
559 are indicative of carbonate/silicate rock weathering in the underground reservoirs. The spring acid  
560 pulse, reported for other permafrost-free boreal regions (Buffam et al., 2007), is not pronounced in  
561 the south of WSL but becomes clearly visible in the permafrost-affected, northern regions where the  
562 spring-time pH decreases to  $5.5 \pm 0.5$  (Pokrovsky et al., 2015). A decreased mobility of Mo and other  
563 oxyanions in more acidic solutions may be directly linked to their adsorption on mineral and organic  
564 surfaces, whereas enhanced U concentrations in DIC-rich, circum-neutral solutions may be due to  
565 strong carbonate and hydroxycarbonate complexes replacing organic colloids (Fig. 12) as it is also

566 known for European subarctic rivers (Porcelli et al., 1997; Pokrovsky et al., 2010). Finally, high  
567 sensitivity of Sr to the latitudinal trend is likely to reflect its co-mobilization together with Ca and  
568 DIC from both surface and subsurface sources.

569 Winter-time increase of Fe concentration in permafrost-affected rivers relative to permafrost-  
570 free region (Fig. 3c) may reflect enhanced Fe(II) mobilization from anoxic underground reservoirs  
571 and Fe oxy(hydr)oxide dissolution in river sediments. This input is visible mostly during winter,  
572 when thick ice cover created partially anoxic conditions suitable for Fe(II) maintenance in solution.  
573 These conditions were most pronounced in northern, permafrost-affected regions, where the ice  
574 thickness was higher and some rivers even froze solid in February. At the same time, the lack of Mn  
575 increase northward in winter (Fig. 5c) suggests relatively weak control of solely anoxic conditions on  
576 metal transport. Alternatively, these anoxic conditions suitable for enhanced Mn mobilization remain  
577 similar across the latitudinal profile, as Mn concentration remains quasi-constant and systematically,  
578 1 to 2 order of magnitude higher in all rivers in winter relative to spring and summer (Fig. 5). Note  
579 that enhanced Mn transport during winter period linked to its redox – driven mobilization from lake  
580 and river sediments is fairly well established for small Scandinavian rivers (Pontér et al., 1990,  
581 1992). Concerning trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates, we hypothesize mobilization of  $TE^{3+}$ ,  $TE^{4+}$   
582 by Fe(III) colloids in the riverwater. These colloids are produced in the hyporheic zone of the river,  
583 fed by taliks from underground reservoirs. Very strong association of these elements with Fe(III)  
584 colloids stabilized by DOM is fairly well established in WSL thermokarst lakes and small rivers of  
585 the discontinuous permafrost zone (Pokrovsky et al., 2011; Shirokova et al., 2013).

586 A re-increase of element concentration in rivers north of 66°N; especially visible for B, V,  
587 Ni, Rb, Sr, Mo, As, U during summer time (Figs 9b, 10b, 11b, S3, S7 and S8) does not have a  
588 straightforward explanation. Two possible hypotheses can be suggested: (i) the influence of marine  
589 sediments underlying frozen peat in the 50-100 km vicinity of the shoreline (see section 4.3 below  
590 for surface profile); (ii) elevated flux of TE leaching from the moss and lichen leaching during  
591 summer time. Indeed, the ground vegetation may be enriched in seawater aerosols transported from  
592 unfrozen coastal waters in the form of rain and fog. An increase of B, Sr, Mo, Rb, U and also Na,

593 Mg, K, Ca of marine origin in large thermokarst lakes north of 68°N relative to discontinuous  
594 permafrost zone was reported for the northern part of the WSL (Manasypov et al., 2014).

595 Despite contrasting hydrochemistry of WSL rivers in permafrost-free, discontinuous and  
596 continuous permafrost regions in terms of pH and DOC concentration (Frey and Smith, 2005;  
597 Pokrovsky et al., 2015), the percentage of organic complexes of TE remained quite similar among all  
598 three permafrost zones. Among metals available in the vMinteq database, Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, and Mn  
599 are complexed to DOM at 5 to 15%; Co, Cd and Zn are complexed from 20 to 40%, Ni is complexed  
600 at 55-60%, and Al, Pb, Cu, Fe(III), La, Ce and other REEs are bound to DOM by 90 to 98% (Fig.  
601 12). Only U(VI) exhibited contrasting speciation between permafrost-free and permafrost-bearing  
602 zones. From 10 to 70% of U is present as organic complexes in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> - rich, circum-neutral  
603 solutions of southern rivers but U(VI) remained >90% DOM-complexed in acidic, DIC-poor  
604 northern rivers.

605 The annual TE fluxes of WSL rivers averaged over full latitudinal profile (Table 1) can be  
606 compared with available data of TE fluxes in other subarctic rivers. Such a comparison is suitable for  
607 the Severnaya Dvina River, the largest European subarctic river whose watershed lay on the same  
608 latitudinal range (58-64°N) as most WSL rivers but in the permafrost-free zone (Pokrovsky et al.,  
609 2010). The ratio of annual element fluxes in the Severnaya Dvina River measured in 2007-2009 to  
610 mean fluxes of the WSL rivers is plotted in Fig. S16. Given the uncertainties on the flux evaluation  
611 in each region ranging between ±30 and ±50%, the agreement within a factor of 1.5 to 2 is within the  
612 uncertainty. The elevated flux of Sr and U in the Severnaya Dvina River relative to the WSL rivers is  
613 due to the dominance of carbonate rocks whereas the elevated fluxes of lithogenic elements (Zr, Th,  
614 REEs, Al, Ti) are due to silicate rock (granites and their moraine) on the watershed of Severnaya  
615 Dvina (see Pokrovsky et al. (2010) for lithological description). The reasons for more than an order  
616 of magnitude higher fluxes of Ni, Cu, and Cd in the Severnaya Dvina River relative to the WSL  
617 rivers are multiple and may include (i) the presence of sedimentary sulfides in the former; (ii)  
618 enhanced uptake of these metals by peat mosses in the WSL and finally (iii) anthropogenic local  
619 pollution by these metals in the Severnaya Dvina River.

620 *4.3. Mechanisms of TE mobilization from the soil to the river*

621 Together with a comprehensive database on concentration, colloidal status and fluxes of trace  
622 elements in the Kalix River (i.e., Ingri et al., 2000, 2005; Andersson et al., 2001; Dahlgvist et al.,  
623 2005), the Kryckland watershed (Björkvald et al., 2008; Laudon et al., 2013), Alaskan rivers (Sugai  
624 and Burrell, 1984; Rember and Trefry, 2004), the present study contributes to our understanding of  
625 the nature and magnitude of element transport in boreal rivers. The main peculiarities of WSL  
626 territory is the presence of permafrost on almost half of its territory. This permafrost likely acts as a  
627 very strong barrier between surface organic and underlying mineral soil horizon thus regulating the  
628 degree of mineral vs. peat leaching depending on latitude and season as it is known for other  
629 subarctic environments (Bagard et al., 2011, 2013; Keller et al., 2007, 2010).

630 A tentative cartoon of WSL soil profiles in the permafrost-free, discontinuous and continuous  
631 permafrost zone presenting TE mobilization pathways from the soil to the river is illustrated in Fig.  
632 13. The main difference of WSL permafrost-bearing regions from other, Scandinavian, Alaskan, and  
633 Central Siberian soils is location of active (seasonally unfrozen) layer within the organic rather than  
634 mineral horizon. As a result, unlike that of the non-peatland permafrost environments (i.e., Keller et  
635 al., 2007; Barker et al., 2014), element mobilization to the river over full duration of open-water  
636 season occurs essentially from the organic horizon.

637 We hypothesize 3 main sources of TE in rivers from the soil profile shown in Fig. 13a: (I)  
638 surface flow (water travelling on the top surface and leaching TE from plant litter and moss/lichen  
639 cover); (II) interstitial soil water of the peat horizons (up to 3 m thick), travelling to the river via less  
640 permeable clay interface and (III) subsurface water, interacted with mineral (sand, clays) horizons.  
641 Supplementary to these three main surface water source is (IV) deep underground water feeding the  
642 river during baseflow then the hydraulic pressure of surface waters in the river bed is low (Nikitin  
643 and Zemtsov, 1986; Anisimova, 1981; Roux et al., 2015). In the permafrost-free region, all four TE  
644 input fluxes are operating during the year. Note that in this zone, the frozen peat prevents infiltration  
645 only during spring melt (Laudon et al., 2007). In the permafrost-bearing regions, the third, shallow  
646 subsurface flux from mineral horizons, is absent during all seasons and the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> pathways are



647 realized via suprapermafrost flow (Fig. 13 b and c). The soil column is frozen below organic peat  
648 layer and the downward penetrating surface fluids transport DOM and DOM-TE complexes leached  
649 from upper soil horizons and litter layer, without DOM sorption onto underlying minerals. This  
650 mechanism is evidenced for DOC transport in WSL rivers (Frey and Smith, 2005; Pokrovsky et al.,  
651 2015) and the Yenisey basin (Kawahigashi et al., 2004). It is consistent with frozen peat context of  
652 most western Siberia peat soil profiles.

653 Indeed, given 1 to 3 m thickness of the peat even in the northern part of the WSL  
654 (Vasil'evskaya et al., 1986; Kremenetsky et al., 2003) and the typical active layer thickness of 50±30  
655 cm (Tyrtikov, 1973; Khrenov, 2011; Novikov et al., 2009), in the region of permafrost development,  
656 downward migrating peat soil interstitial solutions will not likely contact the underlying mineral  
657 horizon. The consequences of this reduced pathway are double. From the one hand, organic  
658 complexes of TE will not adsorb on clay minerals during DOM-TE migration from the litter horizons  
659 through the soil column and further to the river along the permafrost impermeable layer. As a result,  
660 the concentration and fluxes of TE controlled by leaching from moss and lichen cover and topsoil  
661 horizons and often originated from atmospheric depositions (Mn, Zn, Co, Ni, Cu, Pb, Cd) will not  
662 significantly decrease in the permafrost region relative to the permafrost-free zones. Given rather  
663 uniform distribution of divalent metals in moss and peat of the WSL latitudinal transect (Stepanova  
664 et al., 2015), this produces low variation of metal fluxes from 56 to 66°N (Table 1).

665 From the other hand, the lack of fluid contact with mineral layer may impede Fe and other  
666 insoluble elements to be leached from silicate minerals. The lack of mineral dissolution brings about  
667 a decrease of element concentration northward during active (summer) period, as it is seen for Fe  
668 (Fig. 3 b), Ti (Fig. S2 b) and Zr (not shown). Elements correlated with Al (see section 3.1) are less  
669 affected by watershed latitude possibly because dissolved Al is stabilized by organic complexes,  
670 equally abundant during top soil / litter leaching in the south and in the north. Here, the  
671 coprecipitation step is less pronounced than that for Fe; rather, concomitant mobilization of Al-DOM  
672 and TE-DOM complexes may explain positive correlation between mainly insoluble, low mobile  
673  $TE^{3+}$ ,  $TE^{4+}$  and Al (Table S2).

674 Concurrent to element mobilization from the soil to the river, a retention of nutrients  
675 (Behrendt and Opitz, 2000) or metal pollutants (Vink et al., 1999) in river systems may occur. The  
676 degree to which the concepts developed by these authors for western European rivers can be applied  
677 to TE transport in low productive, pristine and half-a-year frozen WSL rivers is uncertain. At quite  
678 low annual runoff of the WSL rivers, significant retention of dissolved Fe, Mn, Al by oxyhydroxides  
679 and Si by coastal grass and diatoms in the river may occur. However, given that the size of the river  
680 (and thus, water residence time in the channel) have insignificant effect on concentration of these and  
681 other TE (see section 3.3.1), we argue on negligible impact of TE retention on element transport in  
682 WSL rivers.

683

#### 684 *4.4. Evolution of TE concentration and fluxes in western Siberia rivers under climate change* 685 *scenario.*

686 There are four main sources of TE in the river – surface flow, shallow and deep subsurface  
687 flux and underground water input (Fig. 13). In response to permafrost thaw and active layer depth  
688 thickening, the relative role of organic soil vs. mineral subsoil fluxes may change. Specifically, the  
689 switch of river feeding from essentially peat (No II) to peat + mineral (No III+II, see Fig. 13) horizon  
690 may increase the export of elements whose concentration is much higher in mineral compared to peat  
691 horizons. These are Fe, Al, all trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates, Ba, V and Cr. At the same time,  
692 the surface flux of Mn, Zn, Co, Ni, Cu, Cd, Pb, and in a lesser degree, Ba and Rb, essentially  
693 controlled by litter and moss leaching which is mostly pronounced during spring flood, will remain  
694 unaffected. In addition to the change of element source induced by active layer migration, the shift of  
695 the permafrost boundary to the north will expose more amount of organic peat to infiltrating waters.  
696 This will further attenuate the increase of the export flux for TE whose concentration in the peat  
697 decreases northward (B, Sr, Mo, U). As a result, the subsoil and shallow groundwater influx of  
698 highly soluble B, Li, Sr, Mo, As, Sb, W and U may remain unchanged as the concentrations of these  
699 elements in soil mineral horizons progressively decrease northward (see examples in Fig. S15),  
700 consistent with the trend in the river water concentration.

701 Under climate change scenario, the thickening of the active layer will increase the delivery of  
702 insoluble hydrolysates (in the form of organic complexes and organo-ferric colloids) while possibly  
703 decreasing the input of divalent metal micronutrients. The downward migrating organic complexes  
704 of the latter may be retained on mineral surfaces and in within the clay interlayers (Kaiser et al.,  
705 2007; Oosterwoud et al., 2010; Mergelov and Targulian, 2011; Gentsch et al., 2015), similar to that  
706 of DOC (Kawahigashi et al., 2004; Pokrovsky et al., 2015). Note however that the lack of TE  
707 analyses in the permanently frozen peat below the active layer in the northern region of WSL does  
708 not allow to foresee the consequences of permafrost thaw on TE leaching from previously frozen  
709 peat horizons.

710 Most elements did not yield any statistically significant dependence of annual export fluxes  
711 on the latitude. Very few elements demonstrated systematic and significant (more than a factor of 2)  
712 latitudinal trend of fluxes: Fe, Zn and Cd showed a northward increase and Sr, Mo and U showed a  
713 northward decrease. Therefore, the shift of the permafrost boundary northward may decrease the  
714 annual fluxes of Fe and some divalent metals originated from topsoil and mineral horizons while  
715 increasing the annual riverine export of Sr, Mo and U.

716 The change of the hydrological regime in the WSL (Karlsson et al., 2015), in particular the  
717 increase of the winter baseflow (Yang et al., 2004; Ye et al., 2009; Serreze et al., 2000) due to the  
718 increase of the groundwater feeding (Frey et al., 2007a,b) is likely to increase the export of Fe during  
719 winter period. Transport of TE, linked to Fe during winter baseflow (Al, Ga, REEs, V, Zr, Th) whose  
720 concentration increases northward, may also increase; however, the low share of winter flux in the  
721 annual transport for these elements will not allow significant (i.e., > 50%) annual flux modification.  
722 In contrast, export of Mn, depicting an order of magnitude higher concentration in winter compared  
723 to other seasons, may turn out to be significantly, by a factor of 2 to 3, affected by the rise of winter  
724 flow, equally in the northern and southern regions of the WSL.

725 The last and most uncertain factor capable modifying TE fluxes in WSL rivers is the increase  
726 of the vegetation productivity reported for Arctic river basins (Sturm et al., 2001, Tape et al., 2006;  
727 Kirdyanov et al., 2012). From the one hand, this should rise the short-term release of micronutrients

728 from plant litter, notably during spring flood (Zn, Mn, Co, Ba). A spring-time increase of these  
729 element concentration northward illustrates the importance of organic matter leaching in the topsoil  
730 horizon and transport to the river via suprapermafrost flow. From the other hand, the increase of the  
731 plant biomass stock will lead to transient uptake of micronutrients from organic soil horizons and  
732 their storage in the aboveground vegetation. As a result, overall modification of TE fluxes in  
733 discontinuous/continuous permafrost zone may be smaller than those projected by simple latitudinal  
734 shift.

735

## 736 CONCLUSIONS

737 Seasonal analysis of dissolved ( $< 0.45 \mu\text{m}$ ) trace elements in ~60 rivers of Western Siberia  
738 Lowland sampled over 1500 km gradient of permafrost, climate and vegetation during three main  
739 hydrological seasons, demonstrated rather low sensitivity of element concentration and fluxes to the  
740 size of the watershed. The season also played a secondary role in determining element concentration  
741 pattern and variations among the rivers. The PCA analyses revealed two main factors contributing to  
742 the observed variability of elements in rivers and persisting during all sampled seasons. The first is  
743 the DOM controlling  $\text{TE}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{TE}^{4+}$  migration in the form of organic and organo-mineral colloids. This  
744 factor can be linked to the proportion of forest on the watershed. The second is the latitude of the  
745 watershed translated to the effect of underground water-rock interaction and river feeding via  
746 groundwater influx or taliks. This factor was most visible for labile soluble elements such as Li, B,  
747 Ca, Mg, DIC, Sr, Mo, As, Sb, W and U. **The effect of this factor decreased with the increase of lakes**  
748 **and bogs proportion on the watershed.** Overall, the major environmental parameters controlling trace  
749 elements concentration in western Siberian rivers can be ranked as following: watershed size  $<$   
750 seasons  $<$  latitude. Mn was an exception demonstrating an order of magnitude increase in rivers  
751 during winter regardless of the latitude, which was presumably linked to the change of redox  
752 conditions. Insoluble elements however (Fe, Al, and other trivalent hydrolysates) demonstrated  
753 significant, up to an order of magnitude, increase of concentration northward during winter, which

754 was probably linked to their DOM-promoted leaching (Al) from silicate minerals followed by  
755 organo-mineral colloid formation.

756         Within the soil – bedrock profile, the four main reservoirs supplying trace elements to the  
757 river are the following: (I) plant litter, soil  $O_e$  horizons, moss and lichen cover, releasing metal  
758 micronutrients (Mn, Zn, Cu, Co, Ni, Ba, Rb) and atmospherically-deposited toxicants (Cd, Pb)  
759 mostly in the form of organic complexes via surface flow, especially visible during spring flood; soil  
760 horizon leaching including both (II) peat organic layer and (III) underlying mineral (clay) layer,  
761 providing Fe, Al,  $TE^{3+}$ ,  $TE^{4+}$ , V, Cr, mostly as organic complexes and organo-ferric colloids; and  
762 finally (IV) underground water reservoirs bearing the signature of water-rock interaction at depth,  
763 mostly visible during winter baseflow and connected to the river through taliks (in the permafrost-  
764 bearing region) and supplying Li, B, Sr, Mo, V, As, Sb, W, U. Significant, > a factor of 10, decrease  
765 of Sr, Mo and U concentration northward, detectable during all seasons, stems from the decrease of  
766 these element concentration in both peat and underlying mineral horizons as well as the decrease of  
767 the underground feeding along the 1500-km latitudinal profile of WSL. Under climate warming  
768 scenarios, comprising active layer thickening and permafrost boundary shift northward, the surface  
769 (I) and underground (IV) contributions to the river are unlikely to be modified. From the other hand,  
770 the change of the relative degree of the peat (II) and mineral (III) soil leaching to the river may cause  
771 the decrease of divalent metal organic complexes and increase of organo-ferric colloids of  $TE^{3+}$ ,  
772  $TE^{4+}$  delivery to the river via suprapermafrost flow and hyporheic influx.

773

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775

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780

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784 treatment; S. Loiko provided conceptual scheme of element mobilization from the soil to the river;  
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786 S.G. Kopysov provided hydrological information and water and element flux calculation, analysis  
787 and interpretation. All authors participated in field expeditions. Each co-author have seen and  
788 approved the final paper and contributed to writing the manuscript.

789

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1123 Table 1. Latitude-averaged (56-67°N) export fluxes ( $\pm 2$  s.d.) of TE by rivers of the WSL.

Element	Flux, kg/km <sup>2</sup> /y	Flux, kg/km <sup>2</sup> /y*
B	4.3±1.9	4.1±1.8
Al	8.5±2.2	8.1±2.3
Ti	0.20±0.06	0.19±0.06
V	0.12±0.07	0.12±0.05
Cr	0.083±0.022	0.077±0.014
Mn	49.2±30.0	33.8±8.7
Fe	211±124	165±84
Cu	0.12±0.07	0.108±0.046
Zn	4.2±2.6	3.2±1.7
Co	0.17±0.24	0.074±0.029
Ni	0.26±0.17	0.23±0.10
Rb	0.14±0.06	0.12±0.05
Sr**	26-3.6**	14.0±9.8
Zr	0.033±0.014	0.030±0.009
Mo**	0.034-0.0025**	0.012±0.012
Cd	0.0028±0.0012	0.0023±0.0009
Sb	0.0067±0.0017	0.0062±0.0014
As	0.19±0.12	0.173±0.097
Ba	10.2±5.2	9.2±5.6
La	0.025±0.014	0.020±0.004
Ce	0.055±0.031	0.044±0.008
Nd	0.029±0.017	0.024±0.006
Pb	0.033±0.012	0.032±0.014
Th	0.0036±0.0014	0.0031±0.0009
U**	0.017-0.0011**	0.0057±0.0062

\* 56-66°N, neglecting r. Khadutte in winter,

\*\* average value cannot be recommended

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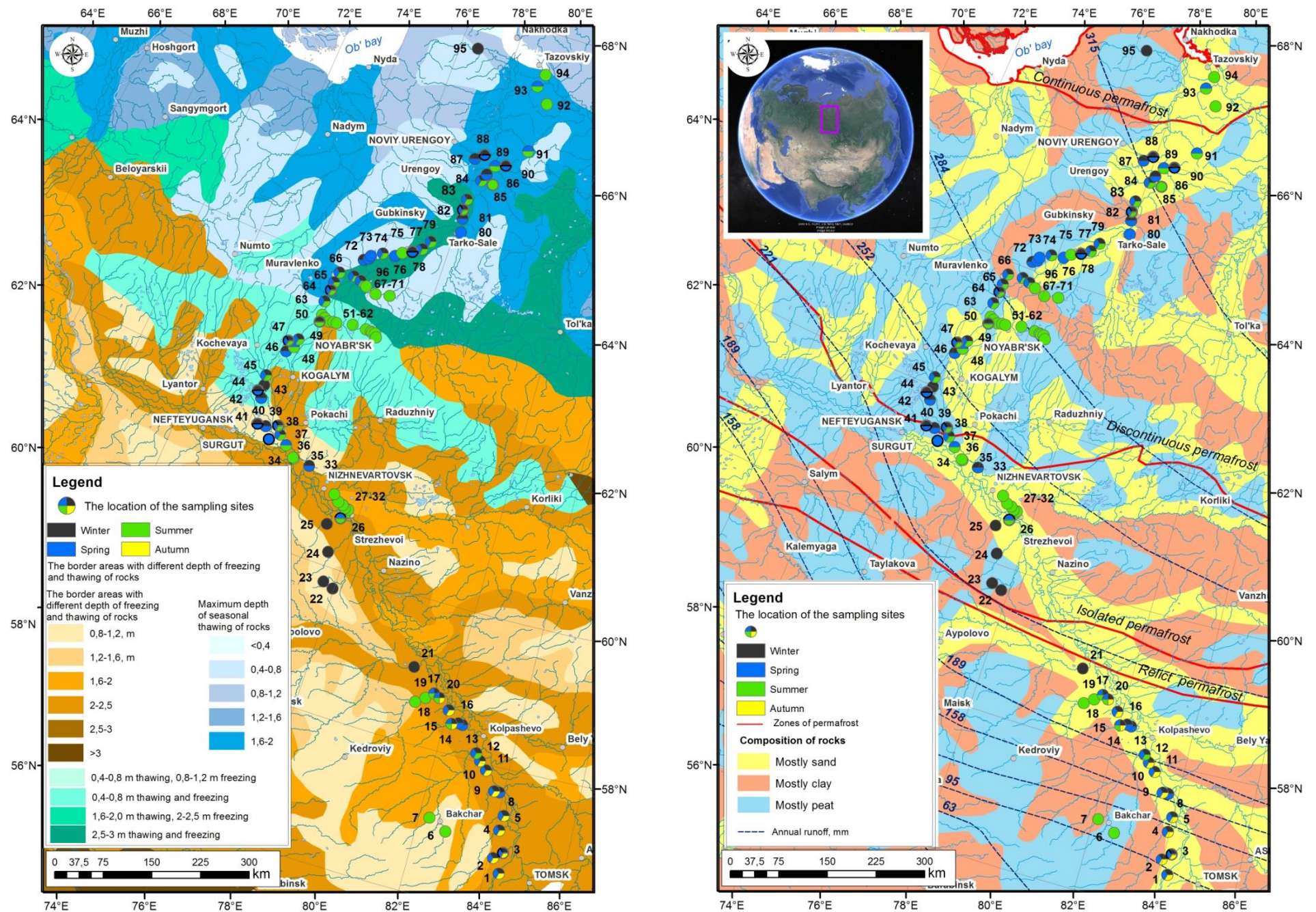
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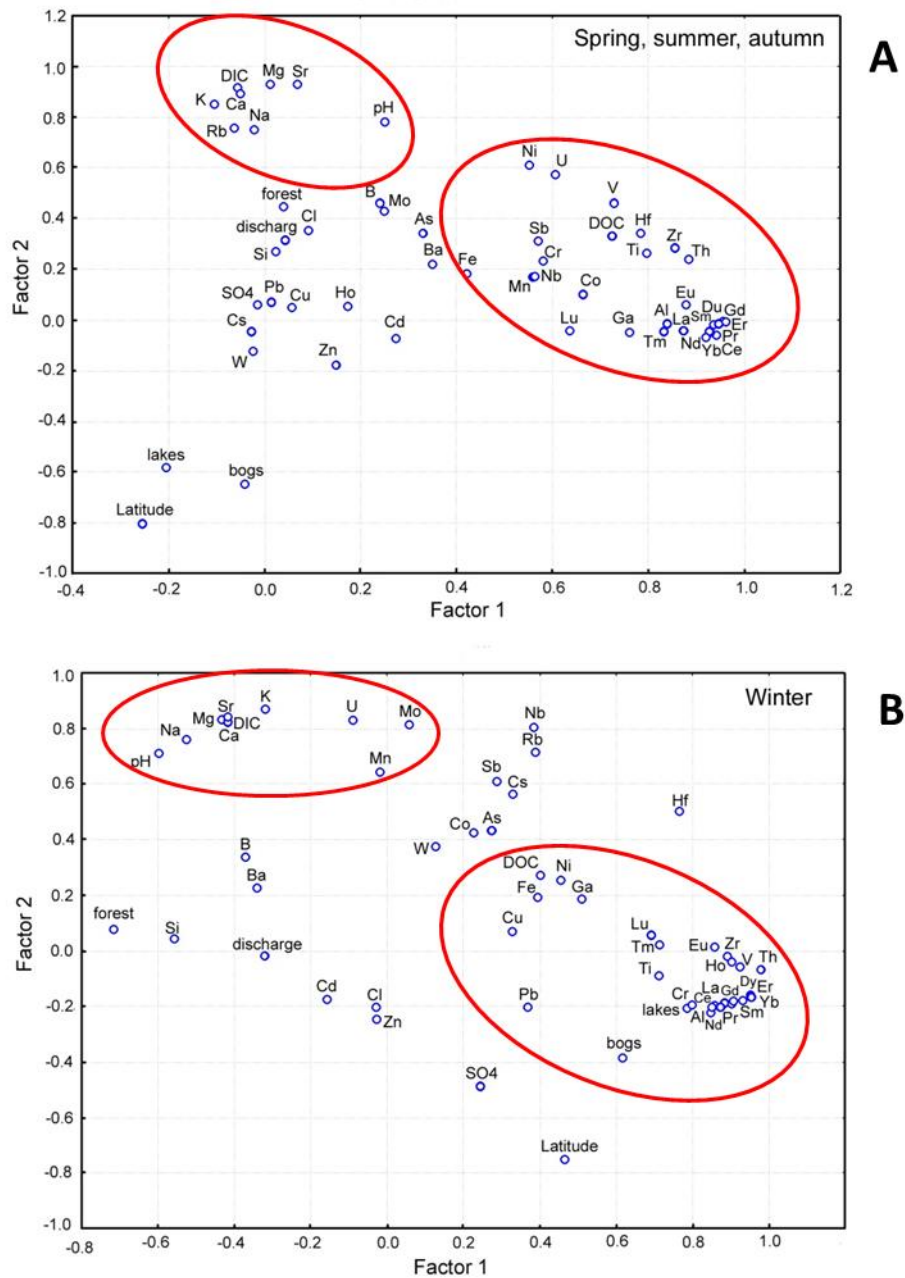
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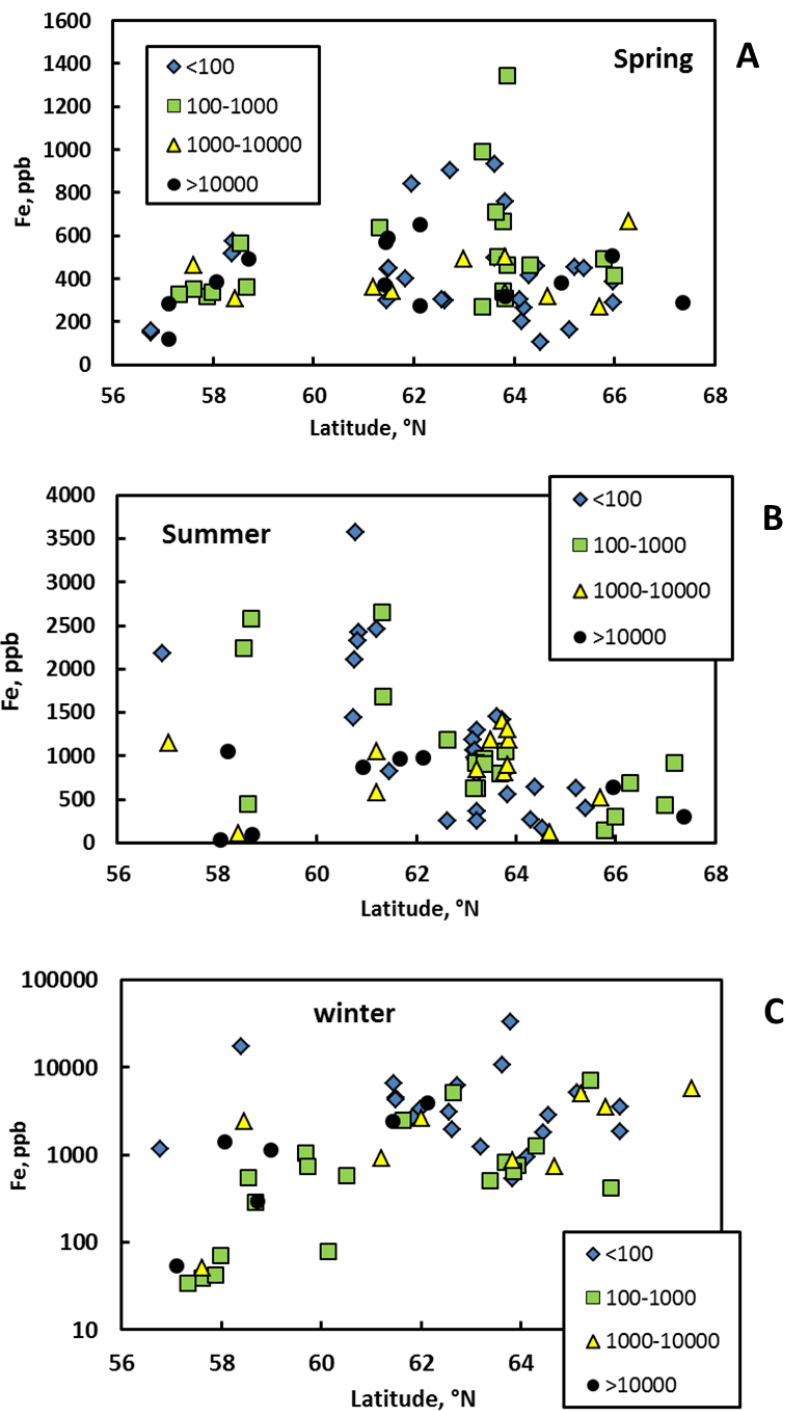




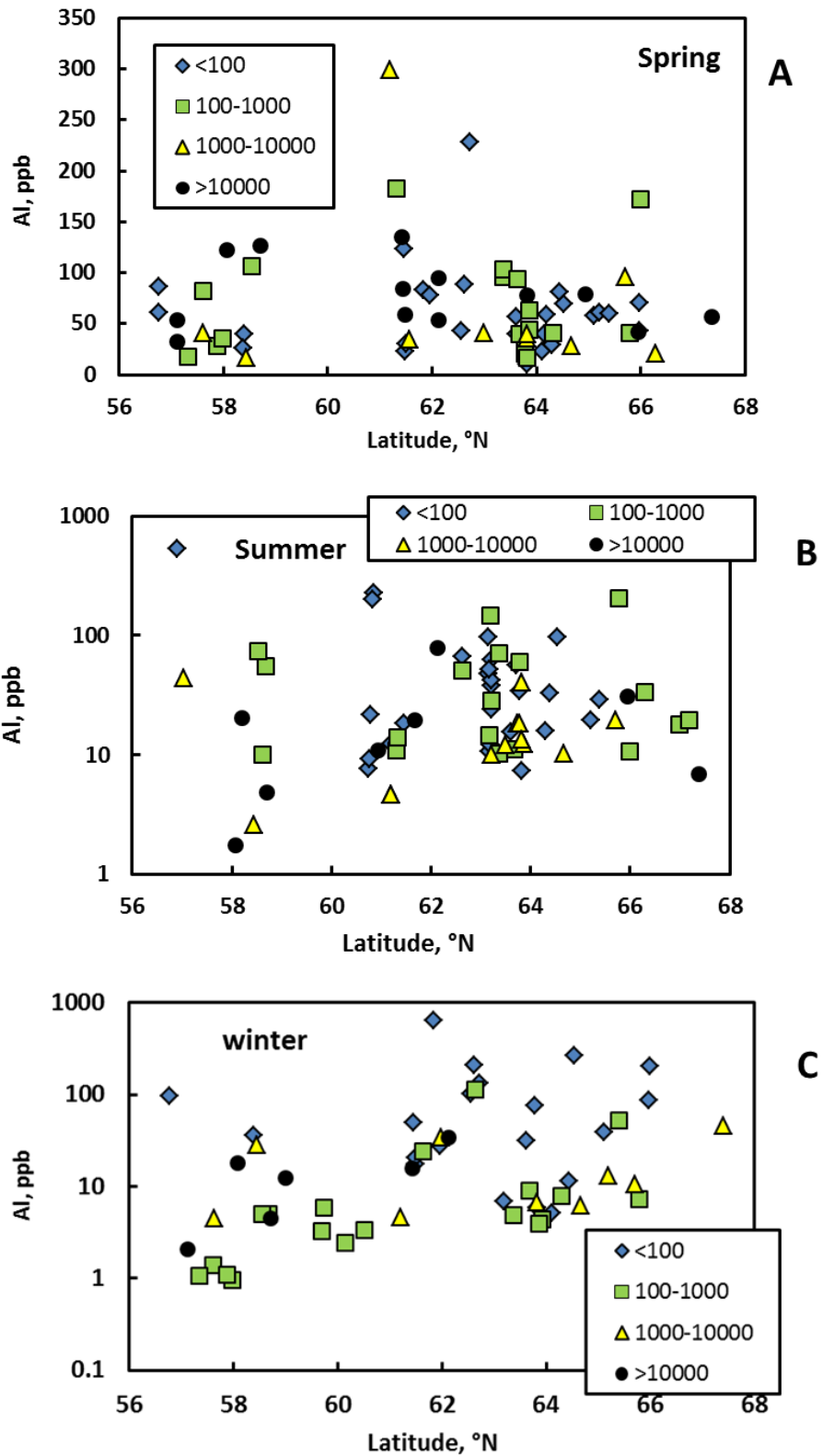
**Figure 1.** Scheme of sampled rivers in the Western Siberia Lowland (WSL) together with lithological information and thawing soil depth.



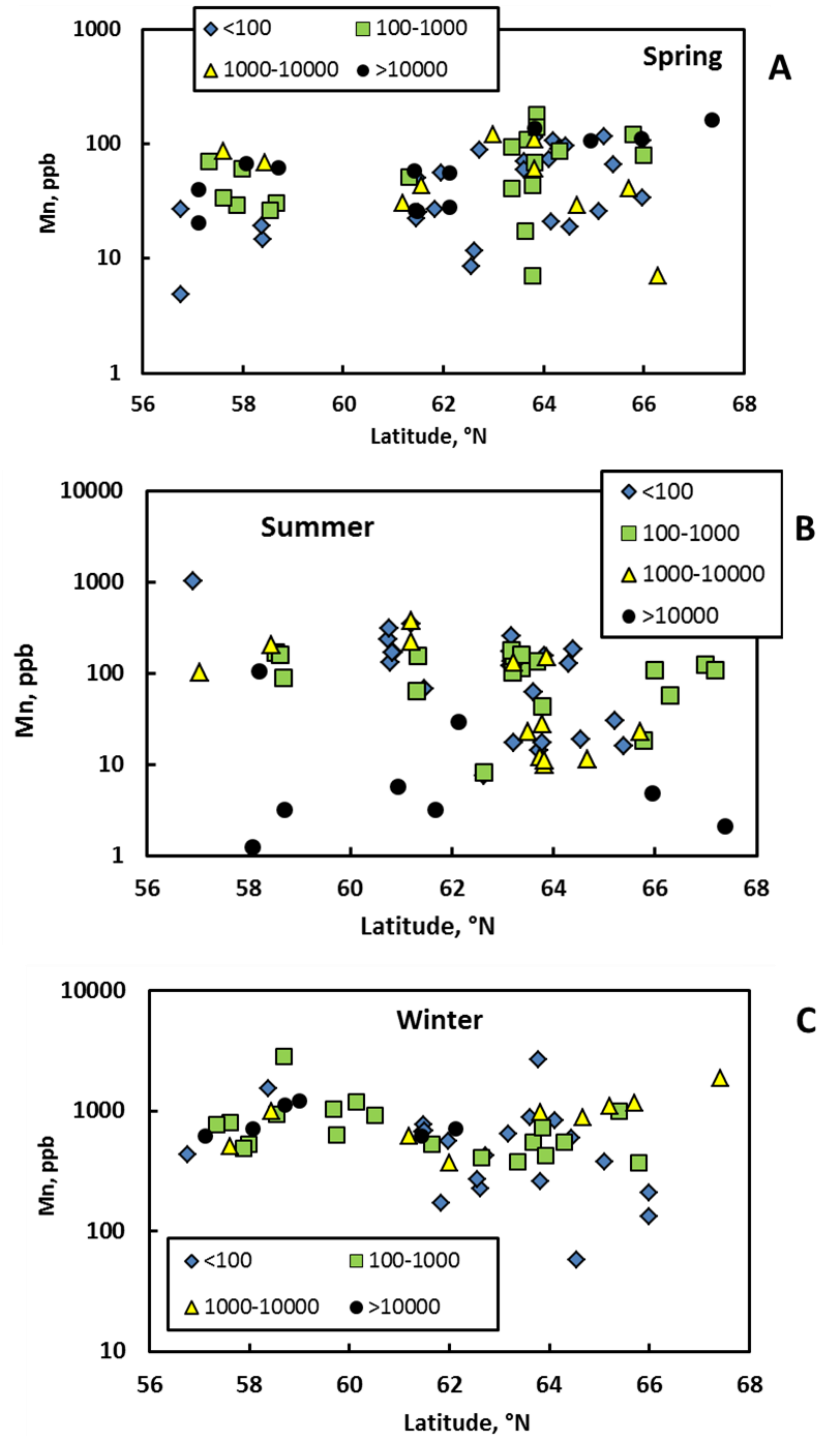
**Fig. 2.** PCA analysis of ~50 variables in ~ 60 rivers sampled during open-water period (A) and in winter (B). The first factor (21% Var.) comprises DOC and insoluble trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates. The second factor (18% Var.) is latitude which is inversely correlated with soluble major and trace elements, alkali and alkaline earth metals, oxyanions and U whose concentration decreases with increasing latitude. This factor is linked to the proportion of bogs and lakes on the watershed: bogs and lakes decrease the input of elements to the rivers, whereas the forest increased the element export. The impact of bogs, forest and lakes is mostly visible during open-water season but the impact of latitude is strongly pronounced in winter.



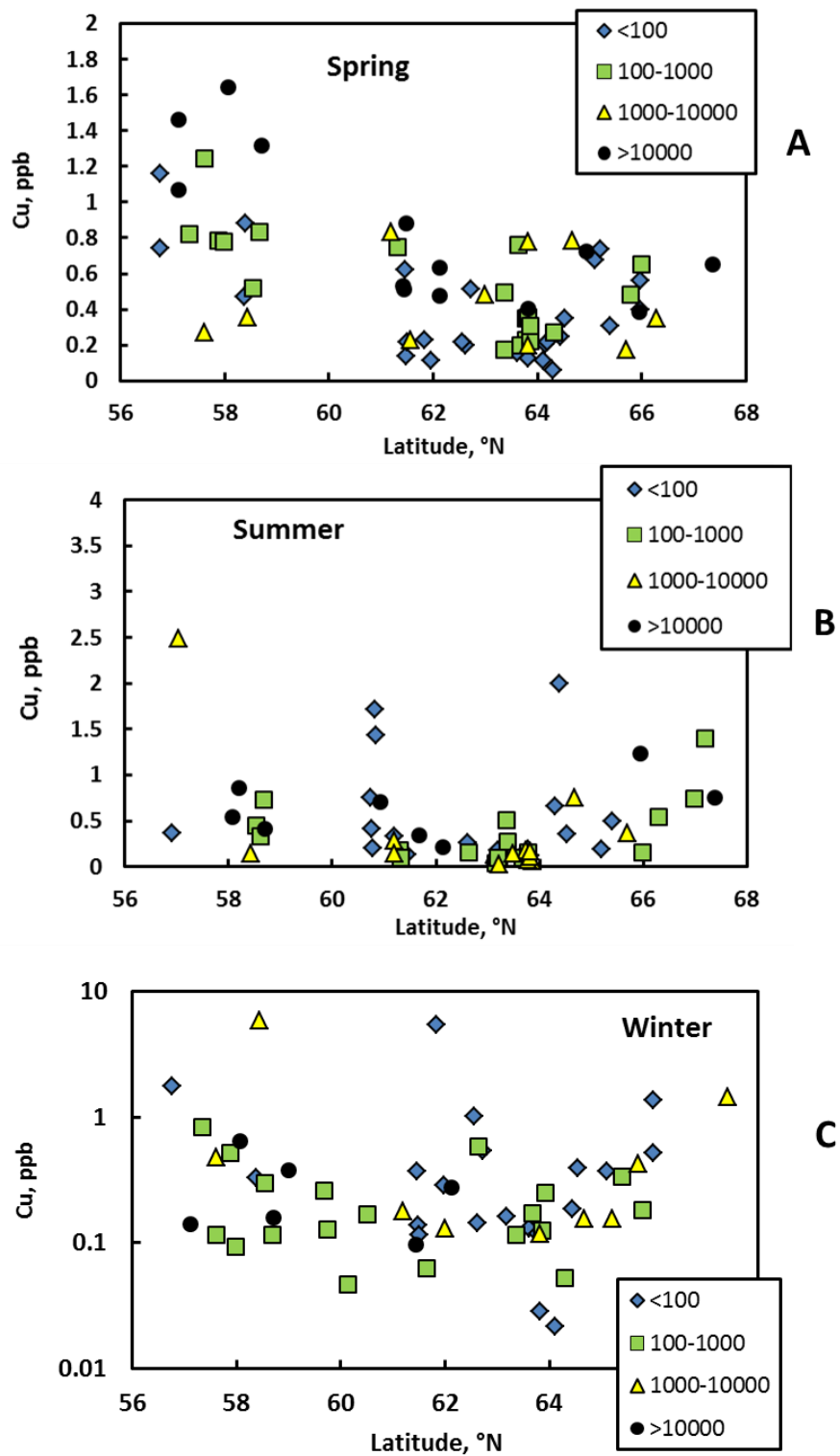
**Fig. 3.** Variation of river water dissolved Fe with the increase of the latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C). The variability among different watershed size is smaller than that between the seasons and within the latitude gradient. Diamonds, squares, triangles and circles represent watershed of size < 100 km<sup>2</sup>, 100 to 1000 km<sup>2</sup>, 1000 to 10,000 km<sup>2</sup>, and > 10,000 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively.



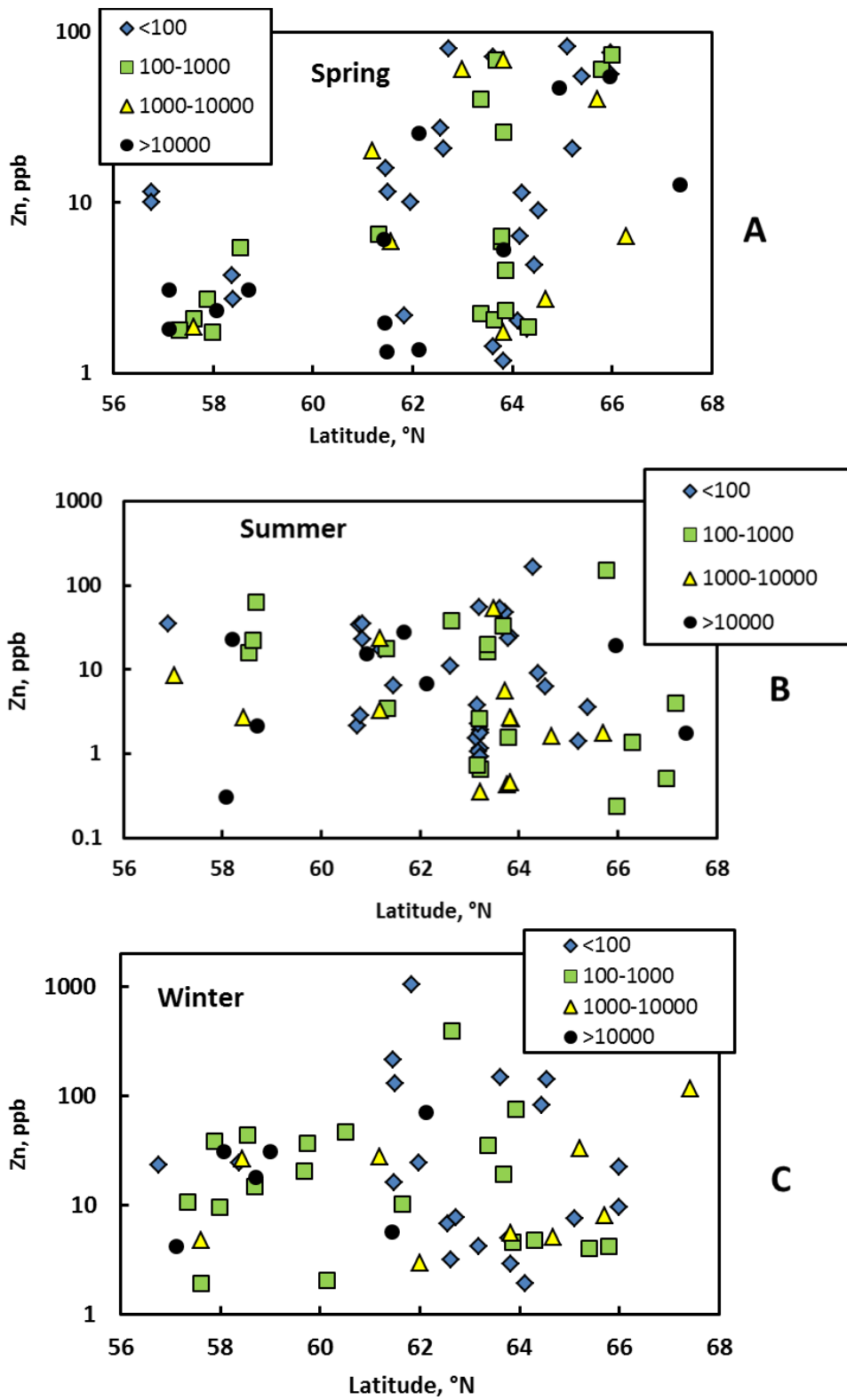
**Fig. 4.** Variation of Al concentration on the latitude during spring (A) and summer (B) and an increase of Al concentration northward in winter (C). The latitudinal trend in winter is significant at  $p < 0.05$ . Considering all seasons together, the differences between different watershed sizes are not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ). The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2.



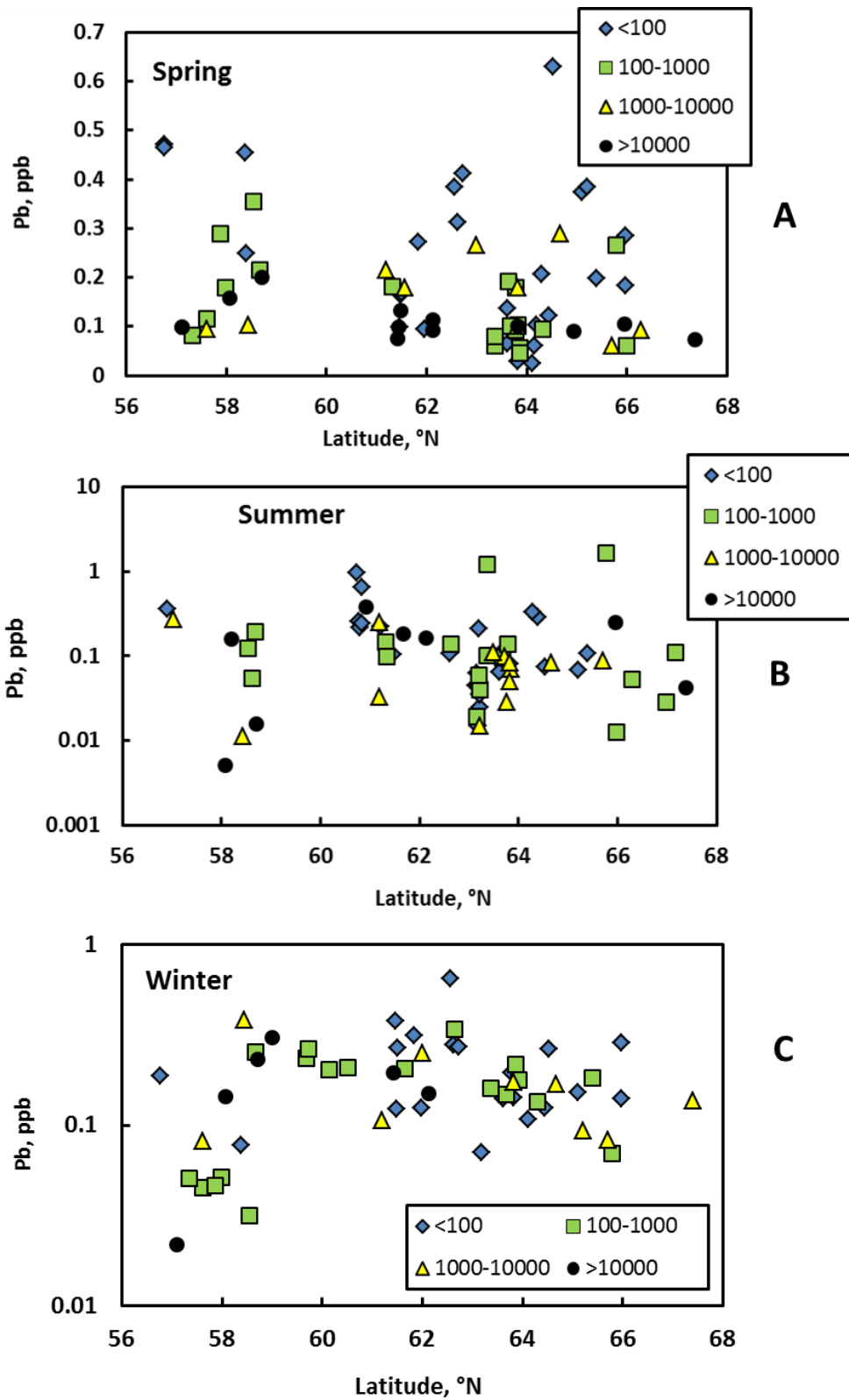
**Fig. 5.** The variation of Mn concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2. Note a factor of 10 higher Mn concentrations in winter compared to spring and summer, presumably linked to Mn reduction in anoxic waters. The latitudinal trends and the differences between different watershed size are not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 6.** The variation of Cu concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2.

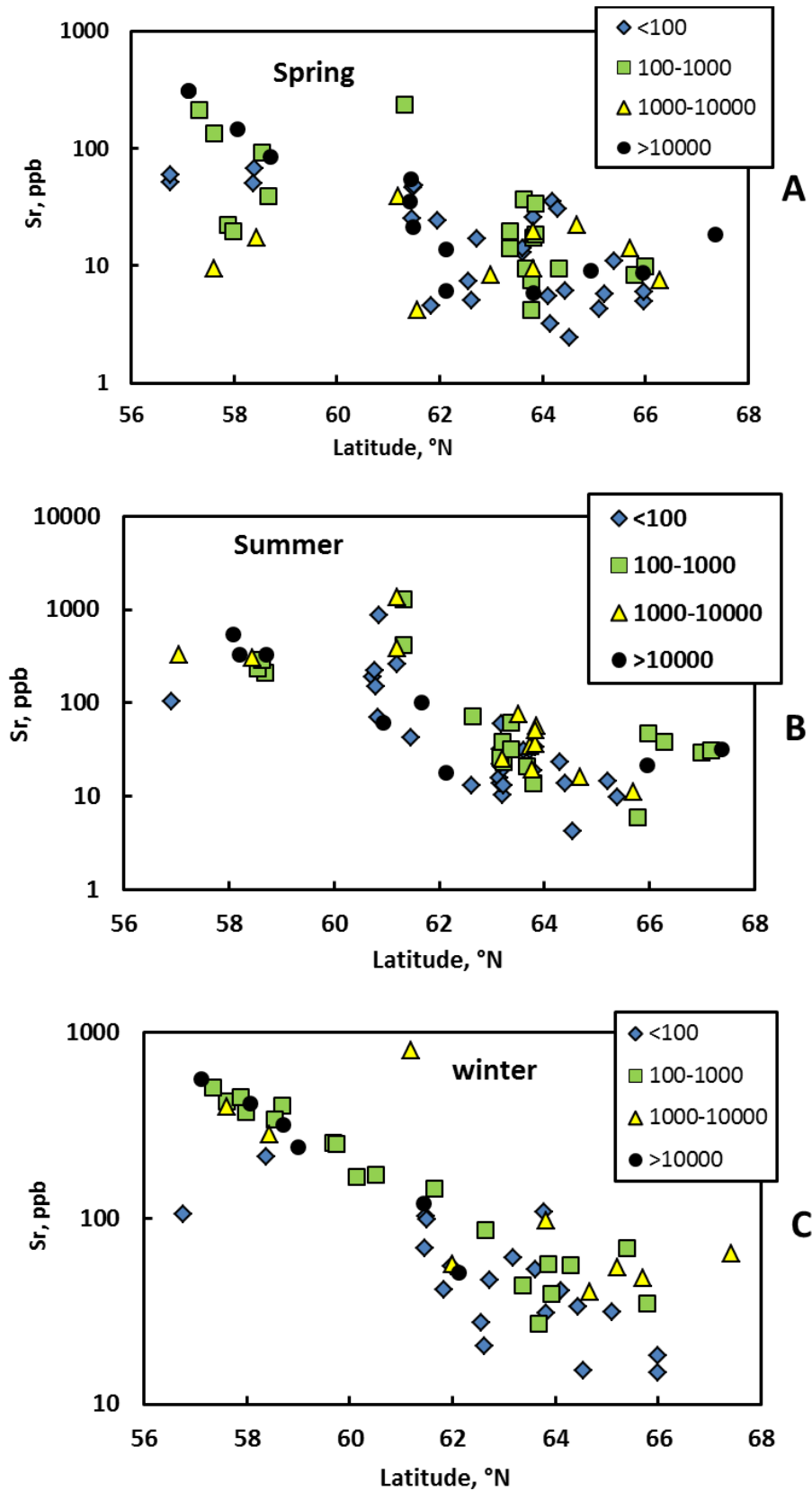


**Fig. 7.** The variation of Zn concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2.

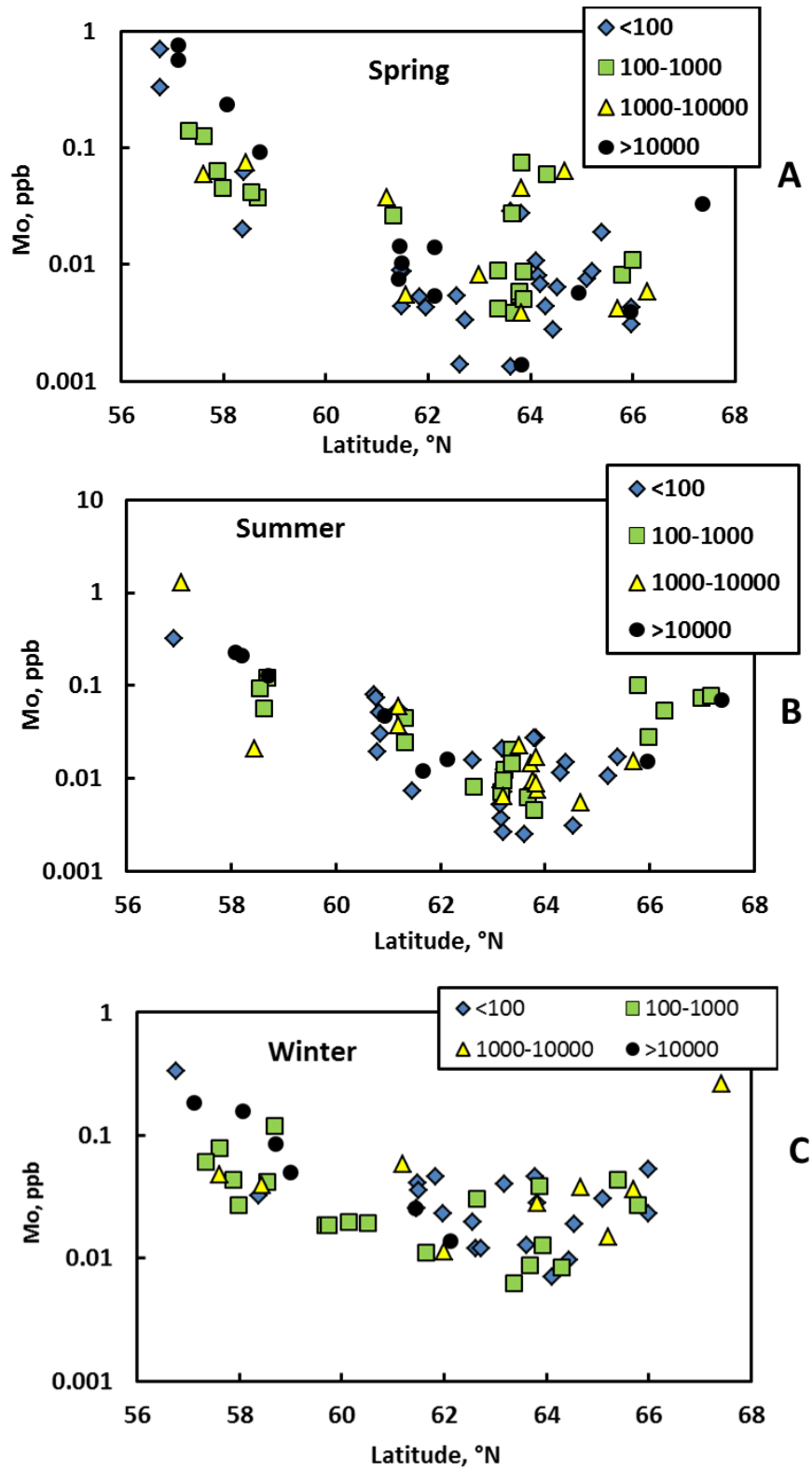


**Fig. 8.** The variation of Pb concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2.

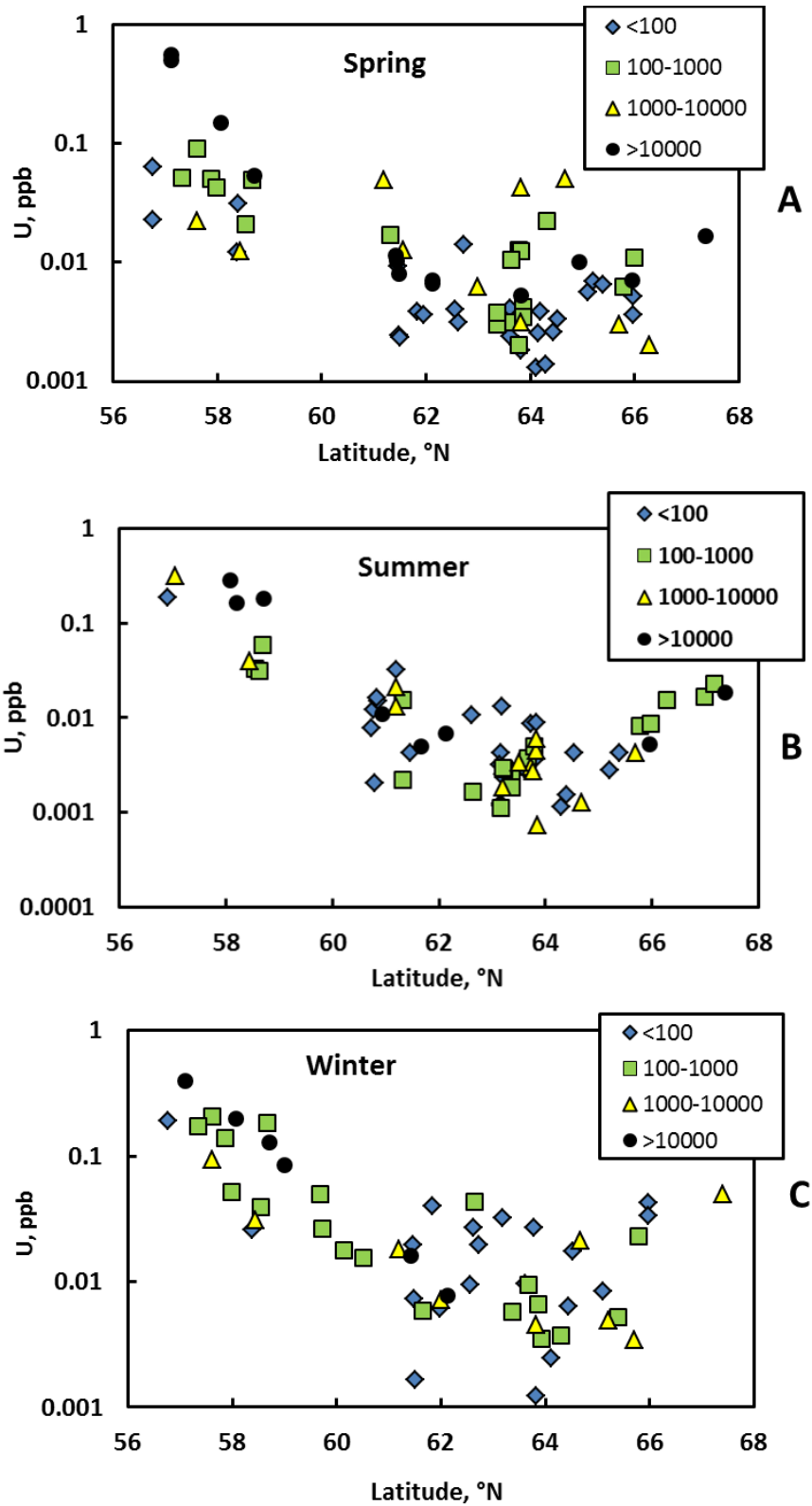




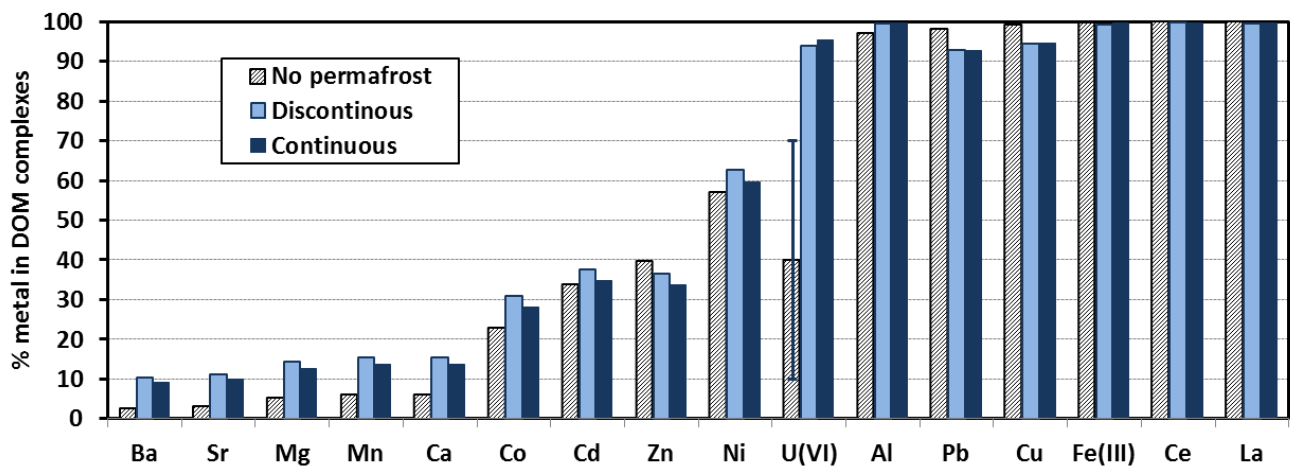
**Fig. 9.** The variation of Sr concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2. Clear groundwater effect consists in gradual decrease of concentration northwards, most visible during winter baseflow.



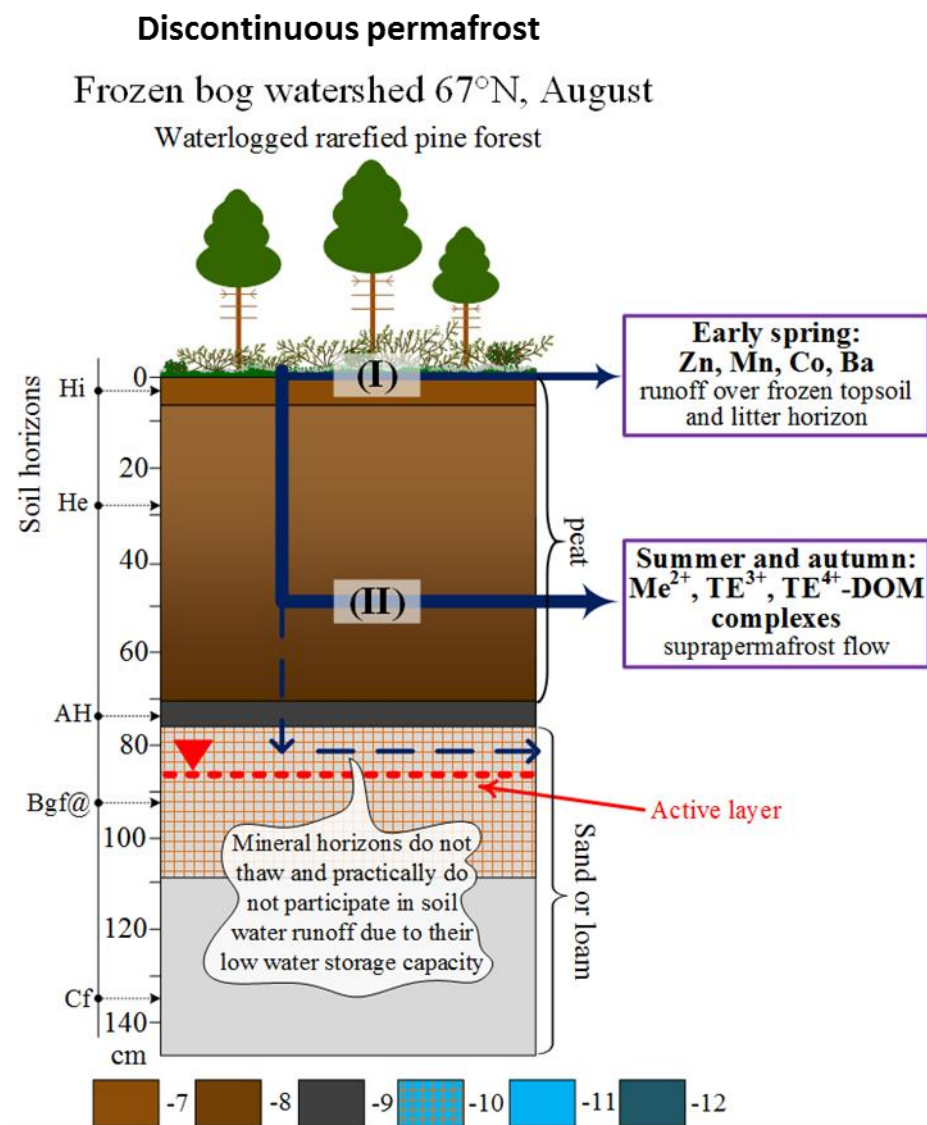
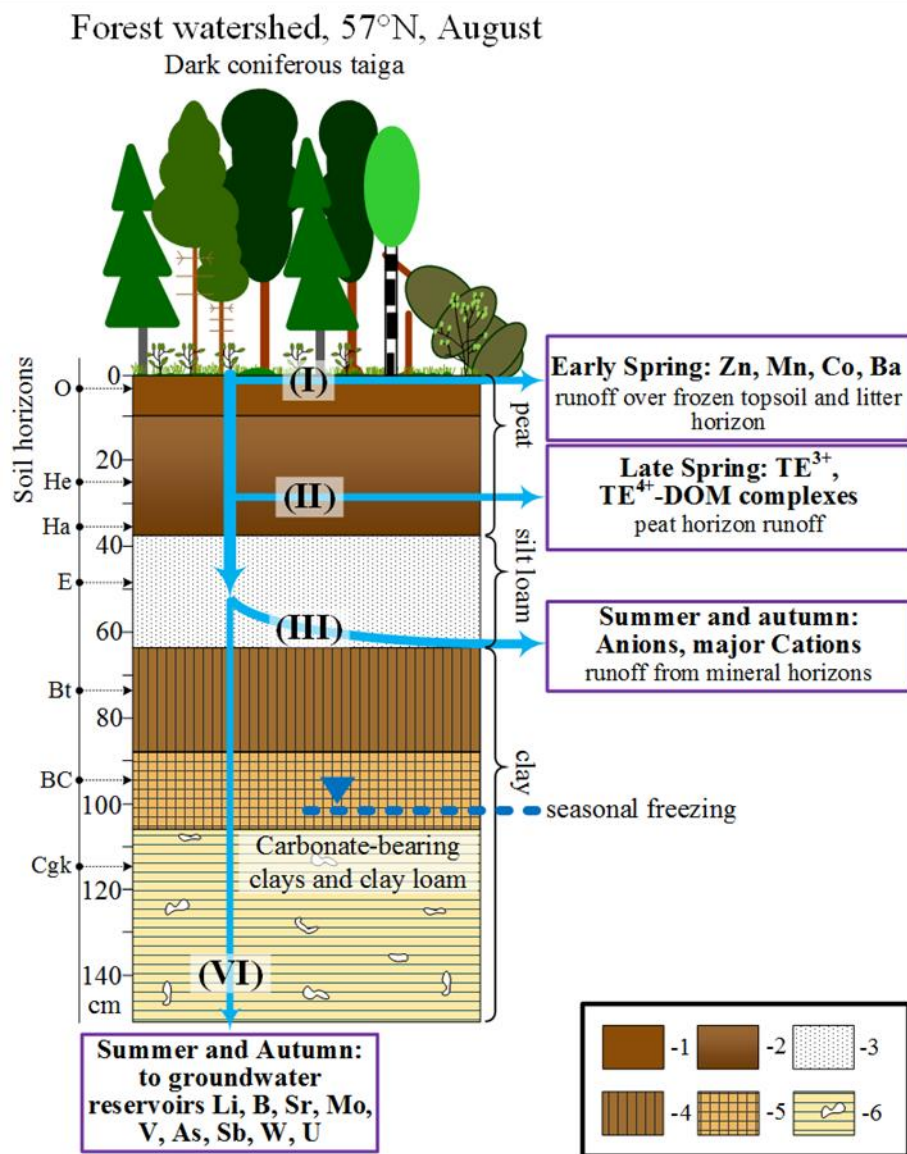
**Fig. 10.** The variation of Mo concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2. Clear groundwater effect consists in gradual decrease of concentration northwards, most visible during winter baseflow.



**Fig. 11.** The variation of U concentration with latitude during spring (A), summer (B) and winter (C) for watershed of different size. The symbols are the same as in Fig. 2. Clear groundwater effect consists in gradual decrease of concentration northwards, isible during all seasons.

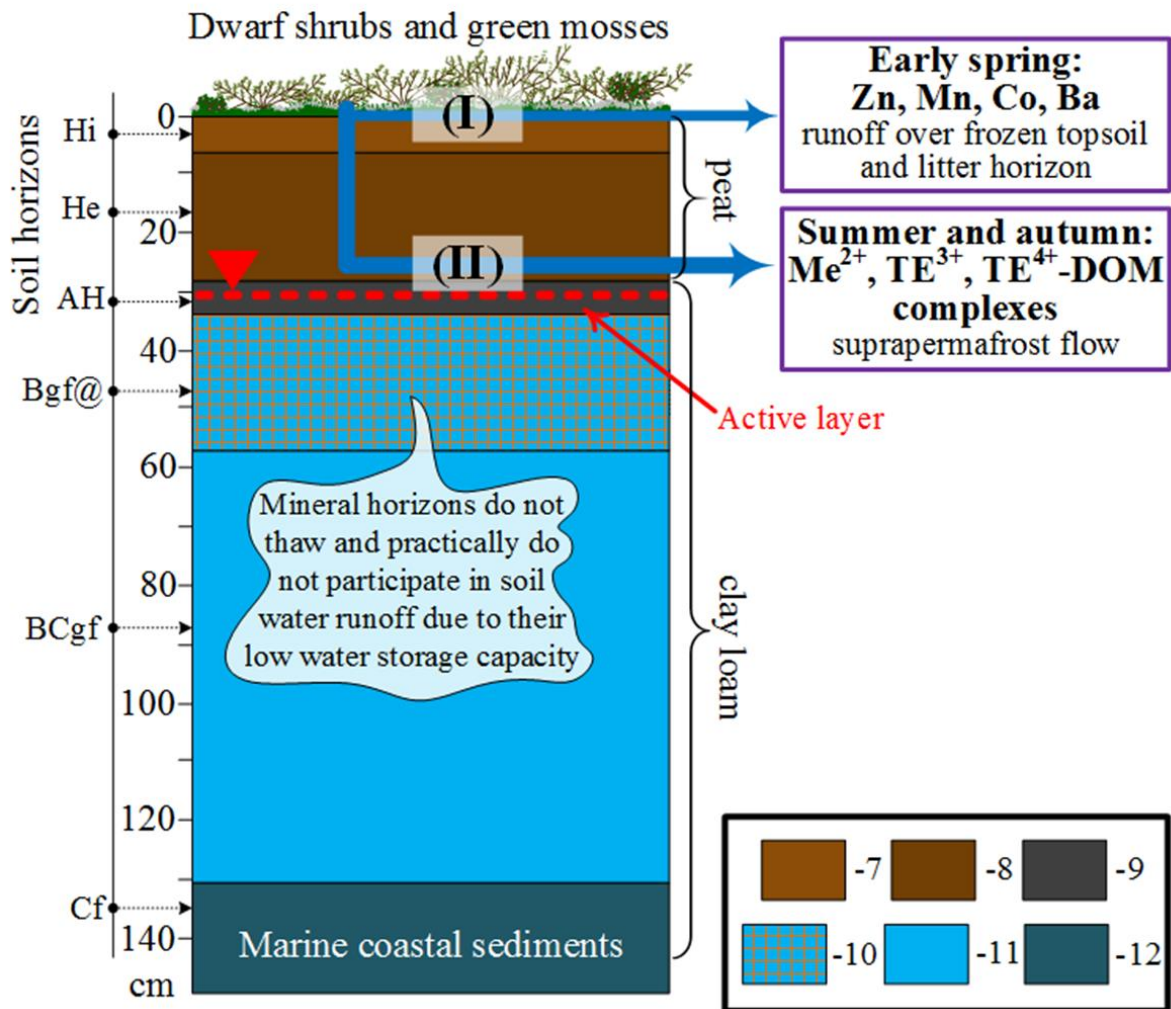


**Fig. 12.** Percentage of organic complexes in western Siberian rivers (< 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  fraction) calculated using Stockholm Humic Model (vMinteq, version 3.1, Gustafsson, 2014). The values of major and trace elements measured in 66 rivers in permafrost-free zone, 110 rivers in discontinuous permafrost and 39 rivers in continuous permafrost zone averaged over all seasons were used.



**Fig. 13.** Scheme of TE pathways within the soil profile and to the river, (A, Left): in forest watershed of the south, permafrost-free zone (57°N) and (B, Right), discontinuous permafrost forest-tundra zone. Soil horizons (FAO, 2006): 1, O (Mor, forest litter); 2, Medium-decomposed peat (He) transforming into strongly decomposed peat (Ha) in the bottom layer; 3, Mollic humic horizon (A); 4, ABg surface horizons with stagnic properties; 5, Bg middle stagnic horizon; 6, Cgk carbonate-bearing clays and clay loam.

## Frozen bog watershed 67°N, August **Continuous permafrost**



**Fig. 13, continued. (C):** TE pathways in frozen bog peatlands of continuous permafrost (67°N). Soil horizons (FAO, 2006): 7, weakly decomposed peat (Hi); 8, partially decomposed peat (He); 9, humic horizons (AH); 10, cryoturbated frozen stagnic horizon (Bgf@); 11, frozen stagnic horizon (BCgf); 12 sedimentary deposits (Cf).

In the south, Me<sup>2+</sup>-DOM complexes is retained by clay and deep in the soil profile, by clay loam with carbonates. In the north, the active layer depth does not exceed the overall thickness of the peat and thus the leachate of ground vegetation and peat layer do not meet mineral horizons during their transit to the river.