30	Abstract. Water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) in the cryosphere has important
31	impact on the biogeochemistry cycling and snow/ice surface energy balance through
32	changes in the surface albedo. This work reports on chemical characterization of WSOC
33	in 28 representative snowpack samples collected across regional area of northern
34	Xinjiang, northwestern China. We employed multi-modal analytical chemistry
35	techniques to investigate both bulk and molecular-level composition of WSOC and its
36	optical properties, informing the follow-up radiative forcing (RF) modeling estimates.
37	Based on the geographic differences and proximity of emission sources, the snowpack
38	collection sites were grouped as urban/industrial (U), rural/remote (R), and soil-
39	influenced (S) sites, for which average WSOC total mass loadings were measured as
40	1968±953 ng g ⁻¹ (U), 885±328 ng g ⁻¹ (R), and 2082±1438 ng g ⁻¹ (S), respectively. The
41	S sites showed the higher mass absorption coefficients at 365 nm (MAC_{365}) of
42	0.94 \pm 0.31 m ² g ⁻¹ compared to those of U and R sites (0.39 \pm 0.11 m ² g ⁻¹ and 0.38 \pm 0.12
43	$m^2g^{\text{-1}}$, respectively). Bulk composition of WSOC in the snowpack samples and its basic
44	source apportionment was inferred from the Excitation-Emission Matrices and the
45	Parallel Factor analysis featuring relative contributions of two humic-like (HULIS-1
46	and HULIS-2) and one protein-like (PRLIS) components with ratios specific to each of
47	the S, U, and R sites. Additionally, a sample from site 120 showed unique pollutant
48	concentrations and spectroscopic features remarkably different from all other U, R, and
49	S samples. Molecular-level characterization of WSOC using high-resolution mass
50	spectrometry (HRMS) provided further insights into chemical differences among four
51	types of samples (U, R, S, and 120). Specifically, much more reduced S-containing

52	species with high degree of unsaturation and aromaticity were uniquely identified in U
53	samples, suggesting an anthropogenic source. Aliphatic/proteins-like species showed
54	highest contribution in R samples, indicating their biogenic origin. The WSOC
55	components from S samples showed high oxygenation and saturation levels. A few of
56	unique CHON and CHONS compounds with high unsaturation degree and molecular
57	weight were detected in the 120 sample, which might be anthraquinone derivatives from
58	plant debris. Modeling of the WSOC-induced RF values showed warming effects of
59	0.04 to 0.59 W m ⁻² among different groups of sites, which contribute up to 16% of that
60	caused by BC, demonstrating the important influences of WSOC on the snow energy
61	budget.
~~	

63 **1 Introduction**

As the largest component of the terrestrial cryosphere (Brutel-Vuilmet et al., 2013), 64 snow covers up to 40% of Earth's land seasonally (Hall et al., 1995). Snowfall is a 65 crucial fresh water, nutrient, and carbon source for land ecosystems (Jones, 66 1999; Mladenov et al., 2012), especially for barren regions such as the northwestern 67 China (Xu et al., 2010). Chemical deposits in the snowpack are highly photochemically 68 and biologically active, which in turn influence biogeochemical cycles and the 69 atmospheric environment (Grannas et al., 2007;Liu et al., 2009). With respect to the 70 71 climate effects, snow/ice surface has the highest albedo, which makes it the highest light reflecting surface on Earth and a key factor influencing the Earth's radiative 72 balance. The deposition of light-absorbing particles (LAP), primarily black carbon 73 74 (BC), organic carbon (OC), mineral dust (MD), and microbes, on snow reduces the snow albedo significantly and increases the absorption of solar radiation (Hadley and 75 Kirchstetter, 2012; Skiles et al., 2018). Consequently, deposits of LAP accelerate snow 76 77 melting (Hansen and Nazarenko, 2004) and affect the snow photochemistry (Zatko et al., 2013), further influencing the regional and global climate (Bond et al., 2013; Flanner 78 et al., 2007; Jacobson, 2004). The albedo reduction and radiative forcing (RF) due to the 79 BC and MD deposits in snow has been a subject of many field studies (Doherty et al., 80 2010;Huang et al., 2011;Pu et al., 2017;Shi et al., 2020;Wang et al., 2013, 2017b;Zhang 81 et al., 2018b), remote sensing estimates (Painter et al., 2010; Pu et al., 2019), and climate 82 model simulations (He et al., 2014; Qian et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014). Darkening of 83 snow by biological organisms, like snow algae common in high-altitude and high-84

latitude snowpack, has also been investigated (Cook et al., 2017a, b;Ganey et al.,
2017;Lutz et al., 2014). However, yet little is known about the chemical compositions,
optical properties, and radiative effects of OC compounds in snow, which result from
both deposition of organic aerosol from natural and anthropogenic sources as well as
deposits of the wind-blown soil organic matter (Pu et al., 2017;Wang et al., 2013).

Water-soluble OC (WSOC) contributes to a large portion (10-80%) of organic 90 aerosol (Kirillova et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018a) and it is also widely distributed in 91 the cryosphere. The polar ice sheets and mountain glaciers store large amount of organic 92 carbon, which provide approximately 1.04±0.18 TgC yr⁻¹ of WSOC exported into 93 proglacial aquatic environments (Hood et al., 2015), with a substantial part of it is 94 highly bioavailable (Singer et al., 2012;Zhou et al., 2019c). WSOC components that 95 96 absorb solar radiation at ultraviolet to visible (UV-Vis) wavelengths are collectively termed as "brown carbon (BrC)" (Andreae and Gelencser, 2006), and have become the 97 subject of many aerosol studies (Laskin et al., 2015). The optical properties of WSOC 98 99 in snow started to receive attention because its important role in initiating snow photochemistry (McNeill et al., 2012). Anastasio and Robles (2007) first quantified the 100 101 light absorption of water-soluble chromophores in Arctic and Antarctic snow samples. They found that ~50% of absorption for wavelength greater than 280 nm was attributed 102 to organic chromophores. Subsequently, Beine et al. (2011) determined the light 103 absorption of humic-like substances (HULIS) in snow at Barrow, Alaska. They found 104 that HULIS account for nearly half of the total absorption by dissolved chromophores 105 within the photochemically active wavelength region (300 to 450 nm), concluding that 106

HULIS is a major light absorber in Barrow snow and that the HULIS-mediated 107 photochemistry is probably important for the regional environment. Several recent 108 109 works have reported the radiative absorption of snow WSOC. Yan et al. (2016) estimated amount of the solar radiation absorbed by WSOC from snow collected in 110 northern Tibetan Plateau (TP), which was 10% relative to that absorbed by BC, 111 indicating a non-negligible role of WSOC in accelerating snow and ice melting. Similar 112 results were also reported for WSOC extracted from other high-mountain areas (Niu et 113 al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). However, chemical characterization and optical properties 114 115 of the light-absorbing WSOC (aka BrC) in cryosphere is still an emerging topic. To date, no field study evaluated yet the composition-specific influence of WSOC on the snow 116 albedo reduction. 117

The fluorescence excitation-emission matrix (EEM) analysis is a sensitive, rapid, 118 and non-destructive optical spectroscopy method (Birdwell and Valsaraj, 2010) that has 119 been used to investigate the bulk composition and attribute potential sources of 120 chromophoric WSOC in aquatic ecosystems (Jaffé et al., 2014) and more recently in 121 aerosols (Chen et al., 2016b, 2020;Fu et al., 2015;Mladenov et al., 2011;Wu et al., 122 2019b). Based on parallel factor (PARAFAC) analysis, contributions from main 123 fluorescent components such as different fractions of HULIS and protein-like 124 substances (PRLIS) can be quantitatively evaluated (Stedmon and Bro, 2008), 125 indicating plausible sources of WSOC in aquatic (Murphy et al., 2008) and atmospheric 126 samples (Wu et al., 2021). The chemical interpretations of PARAFAC-derived 127 components are relatively well characterized for aquatic WSOC, but it may not be 128

simply applied to WSOC in snow because their sources and geochemical processes are
highly different (Wu et al., 2021).

131 High resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) interfaced with soft electrospray ionization (ESI) can help to decipher complexity of WSOC, providing explicit 132 133 description of its individual molecular components (Qi et al., 2020). Thousands of individual organic species with unambiguously identified elemental composition can 134 be detected at once by ESI-HRMS due to its high mass resolving power, mass accuracy, 135 and dynamic range (Nizkorodov et al., 2011; Noziere et al., 2015). Combined with a 136 137 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) separation stage and photodiode array (PDA) detector, the integrated HPLC-PDA-HRMS platform enables separation 138 of WSOC components into fractions with characteristic retention times, UV-vis spectra, 139 140 and elemental composition. Correlative analysis of these multi-modal data sets facilitates comprehensive characterization of chromophores present in complex 141 environmental mixtures (Laskin et al., 2015;Lin et al., 2016, 2018;Wang et al., 2020a). 142 143 Presently, HRMS studies of WSOC exist in the cryosphere are still limited to the snow/ice in polar regions (Antony et al., 2014, 2017;Bhatia et al., 2010) and mountain 144 glaciers in the Alps (Singer et al., 2012) and on the TP (Feng et al., 2016; Spencer et al., 145 2014;Zhou et al., 2019a) that with perennial snowpack. For the regions mentioned 146 above, WSOC in snow/ice samples is dominated by proteins- or lipids-like compounds 147 from autochthonous microbial activity with high bioavailability. Whereas, snow in 148 northwestern China is seasonal, the snowpack persists for 3-6 months annually, and its 149 composition is substantially influenced by local soil dust and deposited aerosols from 150

both natural and anthropogenic sources (Pu et al., 2017). Therefore, the chemical 151 compositions and optical properties of WSOC from this area snowpack is likely 152 153 different from those reported for the remote regions with more persistent snow coverage. In this study, seasonal snow samples were collected across the northern Xinjiang 154 region of China, in January 2018. We investigate the optical and molecular 155 characteristics of WSOC using a range of analytical techniques, including UV-Vis 156 absorption spectrophotometry, EEM, and HPLC-ESI-HRMS. Furthermore, based on 157 the measured optical properties and concentrations of snow impurities, as well as the 158 159 physical properties of snow at each site, we calculate for the first time extent of RF attributed to WSOC in snow. 160

161

162 2 Methods

163 **2.1 Sample collection**

28 surface and 8 subsurface snow samples were collected from 28 sites in Xinjiang, 164 northwestern China during a road trip in January 2018. The area map and sampling 165 locations are shown in Fig. 1a. The sampling sites were numbered in chronological 166 order and with numbering scheme adopted from our previous campaigns (Pu et al., 167 2017; Wang et al., 2013, 2017b; Ye et al., 2012). The sampling sites were classified into 168 four groups based on their geographical location and proximity to urban areas (Table 169 S1): urban/industrial (U) sites (no. 106-118, and 131), rural/remote (R) sites (no. 119, 170 121-125, and 127-130), soil-influenced (S) sites (no.104, 105, and 126), and site 120. 171 The U sites were located north of Tianshan Mountains, near major cities in Xinjiang 172

area. These sites were more likely influenced by local anthropogenic emissions (Pu et 173 al., 2017). The rest of the sites were assigned to R group, most of them were from desert 174 175 area or barren grasslands located at least ~50-100 km from major cities; hence, they were mostly influenced by natural sources. The S sites are a subgroup of the R group, 176 they correspond to specific locations where the snowpack was visibly patchy and 177 shallow, so local soil could be blown into snow by strong winds. For the S samples, the 178 coarse mineral particles of yellow/brown color were clearly seen on the filters following 179 snow water filtration (Fig. S1), consistent with the expected high loadings of soils at 180 these sites. Out of R group, a sample from site 120 was considered separately because 181 it showed composition and optical characteristics inconsistent with all other samples. 182 For instance, it had very low BC concentration but highest WSOC concentration among 183 184 all the samples; hence, it is discussed separately.



Figure 1. (a) Sampling locations and site numbers with photographs for typical land use types of sampling sites. (b) Spatial distribution of WSOC concentrations in snow. Sampling sites are divided into four groups indicated by different colors. The bubble sizes are proportional to the WSOC concentrations. (d) Variations of BC and WSOC concentrations among four groups of sites. The boxes denote the 25th and 75th quantiles, and the horizontal lines represent the medians, the averages are shown as dots; the whiskers denote the maximum and minimum data within 1.5 times the interquartile range, and the data points out of this range are marked with crosses (+).

Details of the sampling procedures can be found elsewhere (Wang et al., 2013) and they are briefly described here. The snow sampling sites were selected at least 20 km from cities and villages and at least 1 km upwind of the approach road or railway, such that the influence from single-point very local sources were minimized and the samples

would rather reflect conditions of large regional areas. The snow samples were 199 collected in sterile plastic bags (Whirl-Pak, Nasco, WI, USA) using clean, stainless 200 201 steel utensils and by scooping $\sim 3 \text{ L}$ of snow on top 5 cm at each site, resulting in ~ 600 mL volume of melted snow water. For several sites with snowpack deeper than 10 cm, 202 subsurface snow (~5-10 cm) was also collected. Snow depths, snow density, and snow 203 temperature were also measured for each sampled snow layer (Shi et al., 2020). All 204 collected samples were then stored in a freezer (< -20 °C) until further processing. 28 205 surface samples were analyzed by the following analytical techniques. 206

207

208 2.2 Chemical species analysis

The snow samples were melted under room temperature and immediately filtered by Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) syringe filters with pore size of 0.22 µm (Thermo Fisher, Inc.) to remove insoluble solids. Obtained filtrates were then used for the measurements of concentrations of soluble inorganic ions, mass loadings of WSOC, acquisition of bulk UV-Vis absorption and EEM spectra, and molecular characterization using HPLC-ESI-HRMS platform.

The major inorganic ions (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) were measured by an ion chromatography system (Dionex 600, Thermo Scientific, MA, USA) using an IonPac AS22 column for anions and an IonPac CS12A column for cations. The detection limits for all inorganic ions are greater than 0.05 mg L⁻¹. The concentrations of WSOC were analyzed by a total organic carbon analyzer (Aurora 1030W, OI Analytical, TX, USA). Each measurement was done in triplicate, the average concentrations of four groups of samples and the values for each sample after
blank subtraction are presented in Tables S2 and S3, respectively. The detection limit
and relative standard deviation of measurements were 2 ppb and 1%, respectively.

The BC concentrations in snow were measured by a custom-developed two-sphere integration (TSI) spectrophotometer (Wang et al., 2020b), and have been reported by Shi et al. (2020). The distribution of BC concentrations in snow samples is also shown in Fig. S2.

228

229 2.3 UV-Vis absorption and fluorescence EEM spectroscopic measurements

The UV-Vis absorption and fluorescence EEM spectra were recorded simultaneously by an Aqualog spectrofluorometer (Horiba Scientific, NJ, USA) in a 1 cm quartz cuvette. The excitation wavelengths for EEM were 240 to 600 nm in intervals of 5 nm and were the same for UV-Vis spectrum acquisition. The fluorescence emission range was 250 to 825 nm in 5 nm intervals with an integration time of 0.5 s. An ultrapure water (18.2 M Ω cm, Milli-Q purification system, Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) was used for blank measurement, subtracted from all sample spectra.

The absorbance at 600 nm was subtracted from the whole spectrum to correct the scattering effects and baseline shifts of the instrument (Chen et al., 2019). The BrC mass absorption coefficients (*MAC*; m^2 g⁻¹) related to WSOC contributions were calculated by:

241
$$MAC_{Brc}(\lambda) = \frac{\ln(10) \cdot A(\lambda)}{C_{WSOC} \cdot L}$$
 (1)

242 Where λ is the wavelength, A is the base-10 absorbance measured by the

spectrophotometer, C_{WSOC} (mg L⁻¹) is the concentration of WSOC, *L* is the cuvette path length (0.01 m). To characterize the wavelength dependence of MAC_{BrC} , absorption Ångström exponents (*AAE*) were determined by a power-law regression (Kirchstetter et al., 2004):

247
$$MAC(\lambda) = k \cdot \lambda^{-AAE}$$
, (2)

where *k* is a constant related to WSOC concentrations. To exclude absorption due to inorganic chromophores (e.g., nitrate), the *AAE* values were derived from the power law fits limited to the range of 330- 400 nm ($AAE_{330-400}$) (Yan et al., 2016).

251 Processing of the EEM data followed the protocols described elsewhere (Zhou et al., 2019b). Briefly, the raw EEM data sets were first background subtracted to remove 252 the water Raman scatter peaks, then the inner filter effect was corrected (Kothawala et 253 254 al., 2013). The fluorescence intensities were normalized to water Raman unit (RU) (Lawaetz and Stedmon, 2009). The processed EEM data was analyzed by the 255 PARAFAC model in the manner similar to our previous report (Zhou et al., 2019b). In 256 257 this study, the PARAFAC modeling was conducted using drEEM toolbox (version 0.2.0, http://models.life.ku.dk/drEEM) (Murphy et al., 2013). According to the analysis of 258 residual errors of 2- to 7- component models and split half analysis, a 3-component 259 model was selected. Only 2- and 3-component models have passed the split-half 260 analysis with the "S4C6T3" split scheme (Fig. S3) (Murphy et al., 2013). Moreover, 261 the sum of residual error decreased significantly when the number of components 262 263 increased from 2 to 3 (Fig. S4). The spectra of derived fluorescent components appeared consistent with those commonly found in other studies (Table S4). 264

2.4 HPLC-ESI-HRMS Molecular Analysis and data processing

The WSOC extracts were desalted and concentrated through solid phase extraction 266 (SPE) method using DSC18 cartridges (Supelco, Millipore Sigma, PA, USA). The 267 cartridges were conditioned and equilibrated by one-column volume (~3 mL) of 268 acetonitrile (ACN, Optima, LC-MS grade, Fisher Scientific Inc.) and one-column 269 volume of water (Optima, LC-MS grade, Fisher Scientific Inc.), respectively. To 270 increase the efficiency of SPE, the sample was acidified to $pH \approx 2$ using HCl (Lin et al., 271 2010), and 3 mL of acidified sample flowed through the cartridge at a low flow rate of 272 273 1-2 drops per second. Salts and other unretained compounds (e.g., small molecular acids and carbohydrates) were first washed out by one-column volume of water, and 274 the analyte retained on the cartridge was then eluted by two-column volumes of ACN. 275 276 The efficiency of SPE was evaluated by measuring the UV-Vis absorption before and after elution and ensured the good recovery of analytes (Text S1). The ACN eluents 277 were concentrated to 150 µL under a gentle stream of pure N₂, and then diluted by 278 279 adding 150 µL of ultrapure water. Finally, the reconstituted extracts were further concentrated to 200 µL prior to HPLC analysis. 280

The obtained extracts were analyzed using a Vanquish HPLC system coupled to a Q Exactive HF-X Orbitrap HRMS with an IonMAX ESI source (all from Thermo Scientific Inc.). The HPLC separation was performed on a Phenomenex Luna C18 revised-phase column (2 mm × 150 mm, 5 μ m particles, 100 Å pores). A gradient elution was performed at a flow rate of 200 μ L/min by an A + B binary mobile phase system: (A) water with 0.05% v/v formic acid and (B) acetonitrile with 0.05% v/v

287	formic acid (Optima, LC-MS grade, Fisher Scientific Inc.). The elution protocol was
288	0-3 min hold at 90% A, 3-90 min linear gradient to 0% A, 90-100 min hold at 0% A,
289	and then 100–130 min hold at 90% A to recondition the column for the next sample.
290	The column temperature was maintained at 25 $^{\circ}$ C and the sample injection volume was
291	25 μ L. The UV-vis absorption of eluted chromophores was recorded by a PDA detector
292	over the wavelength range of 200 to 680 nm. Correlation analysis between PDA and
293	MS peaks and relative absorption of different chromophore fractions will be discussed
294	in an upcoming paper. For ESI-HRMS analysis, the following settings were used: 45
295	units of sheath gas, 10 units of auxiliary gas, 2 units of sweep gas, a spray voltage of
296	3.5 kV, a capillary temperature of 250 $^{\circ}$ C, and a sweep cone was used. The mass spectra
297	were acquired at a mass range of 80–1,200 Da at mass resolving power of $\Delta m/m =$
298	240,000 at m/z 200. Mass calibration was performed using commercial calibration
299	solutions (PI-88323 and PI-88324, Thermo Scientific) for ESI(+/-) modes.
300	The raw experimental data files were acquired by Xcalibur software (Thermo
301	Scientific Inc.). The HPLC-ESI-HRMS data sets were preliminary processed using an
302	open source software toolbox, MZmine 2 (http://mzmine.github.io/), to perform peak
303	deconvolution and chromatogram construction (Myers et al., 2017; Pluskal et al., 2010).
304	The background subtraction and formula assignment were performed using customized
305	Microsoft Excel macros (Roach et al., 2011). The formulas were assigned based on
306	first- and second-order Kendrick mass defects and a MIDAS formula calculator
307	(http://magnet.fsu.edu/~midas/). $[M + H]^+$, $[M + Na]^+$, and $[M - H]^-$ ions were assumed
308	to identify products detected in ESI+ and ESI- modes, respectively. Besides, adduct

The molecular formulas were assigned using the following constraints: $1 \le C \le 50, 1 \le C \le C \le 50, 1 \le C \le 50, 1$ 310 $H \le 100$, $N \le 5$, $O \le 50$, $S \le 1$, and $Na \le 1$ (ESI+ only) and mass tolerance of <3.0 ppm. 311 Furthermore, to eliminate the formulas not likely to be observed in nature, the elemental 312 ratio limits of $0.3 \le H/C \le 3.0$, $0.0 \le O/C \le 3.0$, $0.0 \le N/C \le 1.3$, $0.0 \le S/C \le 0.8$ (Lin 313 et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2018) were applied. The double-bond equivalent (DBE) values 314 of the neutral assigned species C_cH_hO_oN_nS_s were calculated using the equation: 315 $DBE = c - \frac{h}{2} + \frac{n}{2} + 1$ 316 (3) 317 The aromaticity index (AI) is a conservative criterion for the unequivocal identification of aromatic and condensed aromatic structures in natural organic matter calculated as 318

ions were also identified and removed using a homemade MATLAB script (Text S2).

319 (Koch and Dittmar, 2006, 2016):

309

320
$$AI = \frac{1+c-o-s-0.5(h+n)}{c-o-n-s},$$
 (4)

AI > 0.5 and $AI \ge 0.67$ are unambiguous minimum thresholds for the presence of aromatic and condensed aromatic structures in a molecule, respectively. If either the numerator or denominator in Eq. (4) equals to 0, then AI is assigned with 0 value.

The intensity (I^*) weighted molecular weight (MW_w) and other characteristic molecular parameters of H/C (H/C_w), O/C (O/C_w), DBE (DBE_w), DBE/C (DBE/C_w), and AI (AI_w) were calculated using Eq. (5):

327
$$X_w = \frac{\sum (I_i^* \cdot X_i)}{\sum I_i^*},$$
 (5)

328 where X_w represents any of the weighted parameters introduced above; I^*_i , and X_i are 329 the corresponding intensity and the molecular parameter values calculated for each 330 assigned species *i*, respectively.

2.5 Snow Albedo Modeling and Radiative Forcing Calculations

The spectral snow albedo was calculated by the Snow, Ice, and Aerosol Radiative 332 333 (SNICAR) model (Flanner et al., 2007), which accounts for the radiative transfer in the snowpack based on the theory from Wiscombe and Warren (1980) and the two-stream, 334 335 multilayer radiative approximation (Toon et al., 1989). The input parameters required for the SNICAR model are snow depth, snow density, effective snow grain size, solar 336 zenith angle, and impurity concentrations. Snow depth and density were measured in 337 the field. The effective snow grain size was retrieved from the spectral albedo measured 338 339 in the field, and detailed information can be found in our previous study (Shi et al., 2020). The solar zenith angle was calculated using the site location and sampling date 340 for each site. The input values of parameters for the SNICAR model, which are those 341 342 for surface snow, are summarized in Table S5. For simplicity, a homogenous snowpack assumption was applied for both snow physical properties and pollutants concentrations. 343 To evaluate influence of BrC attributed to WSOC on the snow albedo, optical 344 345 properties of BrC material such as single scattering albedo (SSA), asymmetry factor (g), and mass extinction coefficient (MEC) are needed as inputs for simulation. These 346 parameters were calculated by Mie theory, approximating WSOC as an ensemble of 347 small BrC particles distributed evenly in the snowpack. The input variables required 348 for Mie calculation are complex refractive index (RI = n - ik) and particle size parameter 349 $(x = \pi d/\lambda)$. The diameter of individual particles (d), density (ρ), and the real part (n) of 350 *RI* of WSOC were assumed to be 150 nm, 1.2 g cm^{-3} , and 1.55 (constant in the UV-Vis 351 range), respectively (Chen and Bond, 2010;Lu et al., 2015b). The imaginary part (k) of 352

353 *RI* was calculated as (Sun et al., 2007):

354
$$k(\lambda) = \frac{MAC \cdot \rho \cdot \lambda}{4\pi}$$
 (6)

Then, SSA, g, and extinction cross-section (Q_{ext}) were derived from Mie code (https://omlc.org/software/mie/), and the obtained values were then used to calculate *MEC* as (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016):

358
$$MEC = \frac{\pi d^2/4 \cdot Q_{ext}}{\pi d^3/6 \cdot \rho}.$$
 (7)

The spectral albedo (α_{λ}) was calculated for the scenarios of pure snow and BC/BrCcontaminated snow. After that, the broadband albedo (α) of each scenario needs to be determined to calculate the broadband albedo reduction $(\Delta \alpha)$ and *RF* due to different types of impurities. α was derived by integration of α_{λ} over the wavelength range of 300 to 1500 nm weighted by the incoming solar irradiance $S(\lambda)$.

364
$$\alpha = \frac{\int_{300}^{1500} \alpha_{\lambda} S(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{300}^{1500} S(\lambda) d\lambda}.$$
 (8).

The incoming solar irradiance were simulated by Coupled Ocean-Atmosphere Radiative Transfer (COART) model (<u>https://cloudsgate2.larc.nasa.gov/jin/coart.html</u>) (Jin et al., 2006) for each site under clear sky assumption, therefore the calculated *RF* can be considered as upper limits.

369 The *RF* resulted from either BC or BrC in snow ($RF_{BC,BrC}$) were calculated by 370 multiplying the downward shortwave solar radiation flux at surface by $\Delta \alpha_{BC,BrC}$ (Painter 371 et al., 2013):

372 $RF_{BC,BrC} = E \cdot \Delta \alpha_{BC,BrC},$ (9)

373 $\Delta \alpha_{BC,BrC} = (\alpha_{pure \, snow} - \alpha_{BC,BrC}), \qquad (10)$

374 where E is the average-daily downward shortwave solar radiation flux acquired from

375 NASA's Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) product "CERES 376 SYN1deg" (https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/products.php?product=SYN1deg). $\alpha_{pure\ snow}$ and 377 $\alpha_{BC,BrC}$ are the broadband albedo of pure snow and BC or BrC contaminated snow, 378 respectively.

379

380 **3 Results and Discussions**

381 **3.1 Characteristics of chemical species**

Figure 1b shows mass concentrations of WSOC measured in the snow samples, 382 illustrating their broad range from 478 to 7069 ng g^{-1} with an average of 1775±1424 ng 383 g^{-1} (arithmetic mean ± 1 standard deviation, and same below). The U and the S sites 384 showed higher concentrations with averages of 1968±953 ng g⁻¹ and 2082±1438 ng g⁻¹ 385 ¹, respectively, while the value of R sites (885 ± 328 ng g⁻¹) was approximately a factor 386 of two lower (Table S2). Of note, the WSOC concentrations in U and S samples 387 reported here are significantly higher than those found in the snow and ice from polar 388 regions ($\sim 40 - 500 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$) (Fellman et al., 2015;Hagler et al., 2007a, b;Hood et al., 389 2015), glaciers on the European Alps ($\sim 100 - 300 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$) (Legrand et al., 2013;Singer 390 et al., 2012), and the remote TP region ($\sim 150 - 700 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$) (Yan et al., 2016). However, 391 our reported WSOC mass concentrations are in the same range as those in the fresh 392 snow samples collected from Laohugou (LHG) glacier, northern TP (2000 – 2610 ng g⁻ 393 ¹) (Feng et al., 2018). It has been reported that glaciers and ice sheets from polar or 394 alpine regions store a large amount of WSOC and discharge it to their downstream 395 terrestrial ecosystems (Hood et al., 2009, 2015; Singer et al., 2012). Comparable or even 396

higher concentrations of WSOC in our samples indicate that the seasonal snow in
Northern Xinjiang is also an important organic carbon source for the terrestrial
ecosystems during spring meltdown.

As shown in Fig. 1c, the U sites were also associated with the highest BC 400 concentrations among all four groups (mean: 707 ± 651 ng g⁻¹). Furthermore, the mass 401 contributions of sulfate ions at U sites (Table S2, mean: 33%±7%), which is a 402 commonly-used marker for fossil fuel burning (Pu et al., 2017), were approximately 403 twice as high as those from the other sites. All these results indicate strong influence 404 405 from anthropogenic pollution sources, explaining high WSOC loadings at U sites. For the S sites, HULIS from local soil may dominate the WSOC composition. For example, 406 snow at site 104 was patchy and thin (Fig. 1a, grassland), the local black soil can be 407 408 lifted by winds and then redeposited and mixed with snow. The assumption of soil contributions agrees with observed high mass contribution of calcium ions in S samples 409 (mean: 50%±4%, see Table S2). Although WSOC concentrations in R samples were 410 relatively low (885±328 ng g⁻¹), they were still higher than most of the values from 411 high-altitude or high-latitude regions of previous studies ($\sim 40 - 700$ ng g⁻¹ as mentioned 412 in the last paragraph). It might be explained by two reasons: (1) more intensive 413 anthropogenic emissions in the northern Xinjiang region; (2) there was little snowfall 414 during 2018 campaign; therefore, WSOC had been potentially accumulated on the snow 415 surface by sublimation and dry deposition (Doherty et al., 2010). The sample from site 416 120 is discussed separately as it exhibited the highest WSOC concentration (7069 ng g⁻ 417 ¹) and almost the lowest BC concentration (44 ng g^{-1}) out of all samples analyzed in 418

this work. The potential sources of WSOC from site 120 sample will be discussed insection 3.3.

421

422 **3.2 Bulk light-absorbing and fluorescence properties**

423 The average MAC_{BrC} spectra of WSOC from different groups of samples are shown in Fig. 2a. The average MAC_{BrC} at 365 nm (MAC_{365}) of S samples (0.94±0.31 m² g⁻¹) 424 was significantly higher than those of U (0.39 \pm 0.11 m² g⁻¹) and R (0.38 \pm 0.12 m² g⁻¹) 425 samples, respectively (Table S2). The information on MAC_{BrC} related to WSOC in snow 426 427 and ice is yet very scarce in literature. The MAC_{365} values of U and R samples are comparable with the results reported for continental snow collected across Alaska 428 $(0.37\pm0.32 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ (Zhang et al., 2020), but slightly lower than those of snow WSOC 429 from Chinese Altai Mountains, which shows a wide range from $\sim 0.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for 430 accumulation season to $\sim 1.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for ablation season with an average of 0.45±0.35 431 m² g⁻¹ (Zhang et al., 2019), and HULIS extracted from Arctic snow (~0.5 m² g⁻¹) (Voisin 432 433 et al., 2012). The snow/ice samples from LHG glacier on the TP (Yan et al., 2016) presented a higher average MAC_{365} (1.3 – 1.4 m² g⁻¹) than the S samples; they also 434 indicated large contribution of dust-derived organics. The relative lower values of 435 MAC_{365} measured for U samples might be explained by photobleaching of WSOC 436 during aging on the snow surface (Yan et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2019). Due to the 437 stronger wavelength dependence of WSOC from U samples (AAE330-400: 6.0±0.8 vs. 438 5.4±0.7 for U and R sites, respectively), their MAC values at shorter wavelength of 300 439 nm were higher compared to those of R samples. For example, the averages of MAC_{300} 440

441	were 1.32 ± 0.24 m ² g ⁻¹ and 1.02 ± 0.21 m ² g ⁻¹ for U and R samples, respectively (Table
442	S2). The $AAE_{330-400}$ of our samples were in the range of 4.3 to 12.3 (mean: 6.0±1.5),
443	and S sites had a higher average of 6.4 ± 0.3 than those corresponding to U and R samples
444	The highest $AAE_{330-400} = 12.3$ was found for WSOC from site 120 sample, and its UV-
445	Vis spectrum also exhibited an unusual spectral shape with a well-defined spectral
446	feature observed between 300 and 350 nm. Similar feature was reported in: (1)
447	cryoconite samples collected from TP glaciers (Feng et al., 2016), which may be
448	attributed to mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) produced by microorganisms (e.g.
449	fungi, bacteria, and algae) (Elliott et al., 2015;Shick and Dunlap, 2002); (2) Plant-
450	derived (e.g., corn, hairy vetch, or alfalfa) water extractable organic matter containing
451	phenolic carboxylic compounds (He et al., 2009).



Figure 2. (a) The average *MAC* spectrum of BrC attributed to WSOC in each group (solid lines, denoted by different colors), the shaded areas represent one-time standard deviations. (b) Plot of the optical-based BrC classification scheme (Saleh, 2020) in the $log_{10}(MAC_{405}) - AAE_{330-400}$ space. The shaded areas represent very weakly absorbing BrC (VW-BrC), weakly absorbing BrC (W-BrC), moderately absorbing BrC (M-BrC), and strongly absorbing BrC (S-BrC). BC is also shown for reference (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006). Grey marks indicate the data from literatures for snow/ice

459	samples from Chinese Altai Mountains (a Zhang et al., 2019), Alaska (b Zhang et al., 2020), Arctic
460	(° Voisin et al., 2012, AAE is calculated for 300-400 nm), LHG glacier on the TP (^d Yan et al., 2016).
461	Error bars denote the standard deviations of AAE or MAC values.

Figure 2b shows MAC and AAE₃₃₀₋₄₀₀ values measured for BrC attributed to WSOC 463 from our samples in the context of an optical-based classification of BrC presented 464 recently by Saleh (2020). The optical properties characterizing the BrC classes are 465 expected to be associated with their corresponding physicochemical properties (i.e., 466 467 molecular sizes, volatility, and solubility). Most of our samples and HULIS in Arctic snow (Voisin et al., 2012) fall into the region of weakly absorbing BrC (W-BrC). The 468 WSOC in snow/ice from Alaska, Chinese Altai Mountains, and LHG glaciers were 469 470 assigned to moderately absorbing BrC (M-BrC) but with broader ranges, likely indicating higher molecular variability. These results provide a useful dataset of snow 471 BrC light-absorbing properties which may inform climate models. 472

Three fluorescent components (i.e., C1, C2, and C3) were identified by PARAFAC 473 analysis (Fig. 3a). The peak positions of each component are summarized in Table S4. 474 C1 (HULIS-1) is a type of terrestrial-derived humic fluorophore with long emission 475 wavelengths, commonly reported for samples of terrestrial aquatic systems and highly-476 oxygenated organic aerosols (Chen et al., 2016a;Stedmon et al., 2003). C2 (HULIS-2) 477 is usually recognized as HULIS from marine sources (Coble, 1996) or phytoplankton 478 degradation in fresh water (Zhang et al., 2010), and it was also detected in 479 anthropogenic wastewater (Stedmon and Markager, 2005) or industrial-sourced aerosol 480

(Chen et al., 2020). C3 is a class of PRLIS (tyrosine-like) widely found in terrestrial organics (Wu et al., 2020;Zhang et al., 2010;Zhao et al., 2016) related to labile organic matter produced from microbial processes (Coble et al., 1998). Of note, the fluorophores detected in our samples show the similar peak positions compared to the previous reports for aerosol or aquatic environments, but they do not necessarily have the same sources due to large differences of the physicochemical and geochemical processes (Chen et al., 2016b;Duarte et al., 2007).



Figure 3. (a) The fingerprints of three fluorescent components identified by PARAFAC analysis. (b)
Relative contributions of three components to total fluorescence at each site. HULIS-1, HULIS-2,
and PRLIS are represented in yellow, red, and blue, respectively. The size of each pie is proportional
to the total fluorescence intensity at each site. (c) The average contributions of three components in
different groups of samples.

494	As shown in Figs. 3b and 3c, the relative intensities of three fluorescent
495	components were highly variable among different groups of samples, suggesting
496	systematic substantial differences in their chemical compositions. HULIS-1 dominates
497	in the S samples, where it accounts for ~49% of the total fluorescence (Table S2). In
498	addition, the relative intensities of HULIS-1 are positively correlated with the mass
499	fractions of calcium ion (r=0.73, p<0.01, Table S6). These results suggest terrestrial
500	origin (soil dust) of HULIS-1, which is consistent with previous studies of water
501	systems and aerosols (Chen et al., 2016a, 2020;Stedmon et al., 2003). A strongly
502	negative correlation between the contributions of HULIS-1 and nitrate mass fractions
503	is found as well (r=-0.68, p<0.01), reflecting the potential important role of HULIS in
504	snow nitrate photochemistry (Handley et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2018). For instance,
505	Yang et al. (2018) found that HONO formation is significantly enhanced, in the
506	presence of humic acid, from nitrate photolysis. HULIS-2 dominates U samples with
507	an average contribution of \sim 46%. Given the significantly positive correlation between
508	the contributions of HULIS-2 and mass fractions of sulfate ion (r=0.51, p<0.01), the
509	primary relevance of anthropogenic emissions for HULIS-2 is confirmed. The R
510	samples show significant contribution of PRLIS fluorophore (mean: 48%±6%),
511	indicating an important role of microbial processes in the composition of WSOC in
512	these samples. This observation is in line with previous studies showing that snow is
513	not only an active photochemical site, but also a biogeochemical reactor in the nitrogen
514	cycling (Amoroso et al., 2010). Amoroso et al. (2010) found that nitrate and nitrite ions
515	in snow collected from Ny-Ålesund, Norway, were most likely from microbial

oxidation of ammonium ions. Therefore, the significant correlation (r=0.78, p<0.01) 516 between relative intensities of PRILS and nitrate mass fractions might be interpreted 517 by: (1) low anthropogenic emissions and local soil dust import (Less contributions of 518 sulfate and calcium ions) and (2) potential metabolic production of nitrate/nitrite in 519 520 snow at R sites. Further research is needed to investigate this hypothesis in more detail. Of interest, EEM from site 120 sample cannot be modeled well by PARAFAC (Fig. S5) 521 because of the uncommon spectroscopic feature with emission and excitation 522 wavelengths of 315 nm and 452 nm, respectively. This feature is possibly attributed to: 523 524 (1) NADH (Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide) -like compounds, which is an indicator for the metabolism of organisms (Pöhlker et al., 2012) or (2) plant-derived water 525 extractable organic matter (Hunt and Ohno, 2007), e.g., corn. This result suggests strong 526 527 influence from either microbial activity or plant-sourced organics in snow at site 120, which is also consistent with the UV-Vis spectrum shape. 528

529

530 **3.3 Molecular-level insights into composition of WSOC from snow samples**

531 **3.3**

3.3.1 General HRMS characteristics

Numbers of assigned species ranged from 561 to 1487 and from 339 to 1568 for ESI+ and ESI- modes, respectively, suggesting high variations of molecular components of WSOC in the snow samples from northern Xinjiang. The assigned peaks accounted for majority (49% – 68%) of all detected MS peaks. Due to the different ionization mechanisms between positive and negative ESI (Lin et al., 2012), only small amounts of compounds were detected in both modes, accounting for approximately 15%

538	of total assignments at each representative site (Fig. S6). The assigned formulas were
539	classified into eight categories, i.e., CHO, CHON, CHOS, CHONS, CH, CHS, CHN,
540	CHS. CHONS referred to formulas containing carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen and
541	sulfur elements, and other categories were defined analogously. The U samples had the
542	highest number of assigned compounds among four groups of sites in both ESI+ and
543	ESI- with averages of 1113±203 and 871±287, respectively (Tables 1 and 2), whereas
544	the number of assigned species from S samples were lowest (mean: 727±146 and
545	438±84 for ESI+ and ESI- modes, respectively), reflecting high molecular complexity
546	of U samples. The numbers of assigned formulas in this study are comparable with the
547	assignments reported for urban aerosol samples (~800-1800) (Lin et al., 2012;Wang et
548	al., 2017a) and WSOC of LHG glacier from the TP region (~700-1900) (Feng et al.,
549	2016, 2018), but they are lower than those of WSOC from Antarctica (~1400-2600)
550	and Greenland ice sheets (~1200-4400) (Antony et al., 2014;Bhatia et al., 2010).
551	

Table 1. Averages (Arithmetic Mean \pm Standard Deviation) of molecular characteristics in major formula categories detected in ESI+ mode for each group of sites. 552

Numbers and percentages of formulas, intensity weighted MWw, H/Cw, O/Cw, DBEw, DBE/Cw, Alw are given. 553

		All+	CH+	CHO+	CHON+	CHOS+	CHONS+	CHS+
	Number of formulas	1113 ± 203	48 ± 6	460 ± 68	249 ± 61	121 ± 33	135 ± 45	43 ± 15
	Percent of formulas (%)		4 ± 1	42 ± 5	22 ± 1	11 ± 2	12±2	4 ± 1
	Molecular weight (Da)	231 ± 9	146 ± 5	207 ± 21	211 ± 15	329 ± 18	294 ± 18	257 ± 13
n	H/C_w	1.51 ± 0.05	1.31 ± 0.04	1.72 ± 0.10	1.73 ± 0.14	1.12 ± 0.09	1.70 ± 0.08	1.11 ± 0.02
Urban/Industrial $f_n = 14$)	O/C_w	0.19 ± 0.04	0	$0.28 {\pm} 0.05$	0.23 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.04	0
(±1 — II)	DBE_w	$5.08 {\pm} 0.60$	4.6 ± 0.47	3.03 ± 0.66	$3.68 {\pm} 0.68$	10.13 ± 0.70	4.10 ± 0.44	8.67 ± 0.63
	DBE/C_w	$0.34 {\pm} 0.03$	0.44 ± 0.02	$0.24 {\pm} 0.04$	$0.34 {\pm} 0.07$	0.49 ± 0.05	0.35 ± 0.04	0.51 ± 0.01
	AI_w	0.25 ± 0.04	0.44 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.09	0.42 ± 0.07	0.15 ± 0.04	0.48 ± 0.01
	Number of formulas	942±166	45 ± 11	533 ± 81	245 ± 51	25 ± 15	53 ± 13	7±3
	Percent of formulas (%)		5 ± 1	57±2	26 ± 2	3 ± 2	6 ± 1	0.7 ± 0.2
	Molecular weight (Da)	229 ± 10	134 ± 11	239 ± 12	214 ± 17	351 ± 21	260 ± 20	237 ± 30
R D1	H/C_w	1.69 ± 0.04	1.26 ± 0.08	1.75 ± 0.04	1.69 ± 0.10	1.51 ± 0.04	1.74 ± 0.08	1.17 ± 0.12
Kemote/Kural $(n = 10)$	O/C_w	0.34 ± 0.01	0	0.39 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.02	$0.10 {\pm} 0.05$	0.26 ± 0.02	0
	DBE_w	3.16 ± 0.21	4.53 ± 0.31	2.80 ± 0.16	4.11 ± 0.48	6.25 ± 0.51	3.92 ± 0.62	7.49 ± 1.64
	DBE/C_w	0.26 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.02	0.35 ± 0.05	0.30 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.03	0.49 ± 0.06
	AI_w	0.12 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.03	$0.18 {\pm} 0.06$	$0.19 {\pm} 0.03$	0.15 ± 0.04	0.45 ± 0.07
	Number of formulas	727±146	27 ± 11	407 ± 106	186 ± 39	34 ± 21	33±4	7±6
	Percent of formulas (%)		4 ± 1	56 ± 4	26 ± 0.3	5±3	5 ± 1	1 ± 1
i	Molecular weight (Da)	218 ± 15	138 ± 3	215 ± 30	188 ± 14	330 ± 11	290 ± 20	220 ± 32
S	H/C_w	1.73 ± 0.05	1.33 ± 0.02	1.84 ± 0.08	1.75 ± 0.06	1.35 ± 0.17	1.73 ± 0.06	0.92 ± 0.13
(n = 3)	O/C_w	0.33 ± 0.04	0	0.40 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.29 ± 0.05	0
	DBE_{w}	3.11 ± 0.45	4.29 ± 0.13	2.21 ± 0.53	$3.31 {\pm} 0.06$	7.60 ± 1.56	4.23 ± 0.18	8.63 ± 0.34
	DBE/C_w	0.25 ± 0.03	0.44 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.03	0.32 ± 0.03	0.38 ± 0.09	0.36 ± 0.02	0.61 ± 0.07
	AI_w	$0.14 {\pm} 0.05$	0.44 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.09	0.13 ± 0.03	0.58 ± 0.07
Site 120	Number of formulas	987	51	578	238	10	65	4

· ·	Percent of formulas (%)		r		14	-	-	
	Molecular weight (Da)	234	145	245	212	338	246	250
	H/C_w	1.69	1.29	1.72	1.80	1.54	1.95	1.14
	O/C_w	0.32	0	0.37	0.26	0.06	0.29	0
	DBE_w	3.36	4.67	3.14	3.54	5.87	2.99	8.05
	DBE/C_w	0.26	0.45	0.23	0.30	0.28	0.32	0.50
	AI_w	0.11	0.45	0.07	0.12	0.20	0.07	0.46

Numbers and percentages of formulas, intensity weighted MW_w, H/C_w, O/C_w, DBE_w, DBE/C_w, AI_w are given.

		All-	CHO-	CHON-	CHOS-	CHONS-
	Number of formulas	871±287	404 ± 112	194 ± 79	156 ± 48	82±49
	Percent of formulas (%)		47 ± 4	22±2	18 ± 2	9 ± 3
	Molecular weight (Da)	223 ± 17	229 ± 19	183 ± 18	238 ± 17	252±24
U 1	H/C_w	1.48 ± 0.09	1.57 ± 0.06	1.00 ± 0.14	$1.68 {\pm} 0.08$	1.55 ± 0.15
Urban/Industrial (n = 14)	O/C_w	0.35 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.05	0.45 ± 0.04	0.56 ± 0.05	0.60 ± 0.06
	DBE_w	4.14 ± 0.26	3.87 ± 0.31	5.59 ± 0.51	3.13 ± 0.42	4.55 ± 0.55
	DBE/C_w	0.38 ± 0.06	0.30 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.08	0.29 ± 0.04	0.46 ± 0.08
	AI_w	0.19 ± 0.07	0.12 ± 0.04	$0.54 {\pm} 0.09$	0.05 ± 0.02	0.14 ± 0.06
	Number of formulas	537±92	266±35	107 ± 21	100 ± 29	34 ± 16
	Percent of formulas (%)		$50{\pm}4$	20 ± 2	18 ± 2	6 ± 2
	Molecular weight (Da)	215±21	216 ± 28	180 ± 12	241 ± 22	241±27
X	H/C_w	1.44 ± 0.07	1.54 ± 0.10	1.03 ± 0.16	1.76 ± 0.10	1.52 ± 0.13
f(n = 10)	O/C_w	0.39 ± 0.06	0.37 ± 0.07	0.42 ± 0.04	$0.58{\pm}0.08$	0.65 ± 0.07
	DBE_w	4.09 ± 0.31	3.70 ± 0.65	5.43 ± 0.69	2.68 ± 0.86	4.30 ± 0.79
	DBE/C_w	0.42 ± 0.05	0.33 ± 0.05	0.72 ± 0.10	0.25 ± 0.06	0.49 ± 0.07
	AI_w	0.26 ± 0.05	0.13 ± 0.05	0.60 ± 0.14	0.04 ± 0.04	0.16 ± 0.06
S	Number of formulas	438±84	245±53	85 ± 18	6449	22±6
Soil-influenced	Percent of formulas (%)		56 ± 2	19 ± 1	16 ± 2	5 ± 1

(n = 3)	Molecular weight (Da)	206 ± 3	195 ± 11	212 ± 27	249 ± 15	228 ± 11
	H/C_w	1.53 ± 0.01	1.53 ± 0.01	1.48 ± 0.23	1.47 ± 0.22	1.76 ± 0.2
	O/C_w	0.41 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.03	0.36 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.04	0.67 ± 0.03
	DBE_w	3.65 ± 0.07	$3.40 {\pm} 0.31$	4.43 ± 1.51	4.51 ± 1.29	3.51 ± 0.32
	DBE/C_w	0.36 ± 0.01	0.35 ± 0.00	0.43 ± 0.11	0.37 ± 0.12	0.38 ± 0.09
	AI_w	0.13 ± 0.01	$0.12 {\pm} 0.00$	0.22 ± 0.10	0.09 ± 0.05	0.13 ± 0.05
	Number of formulas	645	392	114	88	36
	Percent of formulas (%)		61	18	14	9
	Molecular weight (Da)	280	286	212	271	396
Site 120	H/C_w	1.41	1.46	0.99	1.51	1.15
(n = 1)	O/C_w	0.34	0.32	0.48	0.50	0.44
	DBE_w	5.63	5.44	6.40	5.19	11.97
	DBE/C_w	0.38	0.34	0.71	0.35	0.59
	AI_w	0.14	0.09	0.53	0.13	0.26

The mass spectra plots constructed from individual samples showing integrated 559 composition of U, R, S, and site 120 samples along with the corresponding number 560 contributions from different formula categories are shown in Fig. 4. Overall, the 561 assigned formulas were mainly in the mass range of 100 to 450 Da for both ESI+ and 562 ESI-, while there were more compounds with masses lower than 100 in the ESI+ mode. 563 The relative intensities of MS features contributed by compounds in different mass 564 565 ranges extract more information from the mass spectra, as shown in Fig. 5. In ESImode, the ion intensity was most abundant in the mass range of 200 to 250 Da for U 566 567 samples, 250 to 300 Da for R and site 120 samples, and 150 to 200 Da for S samples, indicating different chemical constituents for samples from different groups. The 568 variations in terms of relative intensities for CHO- compounds were like those of all 569 species detected in ESI-. For CHON-, formulas with mass of 150 to 200 Da were 570 abundant in S samples, while other groups were dominant by formulas in the range of 571 100 to 150 Da. Sample from site 120 showed higher fractions of formulas with masses 572 larger than 300 Da, especially for CHONS- compounds. The distributions of all 573 detected compounds showed higher contributions from mass range of 300 to 350 Da in 574 ESI+ compared to ESI-. Although detection of CH compounds in ESI is uncommon, 575 some of them appear detectable in the ESI+ mode, most were associated with aromatic 576 species smaller than 150 Da (DBE≥4). Furthermore, the CHONS+ species showed 577 higher masses than CHONS-, except for the sample from site 120. 578



580

CHO CH CHON CHN+CHNS CHOS CHONS CHS Unassigned

Figure 4. The reconstructed mass spectra of representative samples for four groups of sites: (a) site 114, (b) site 123, (c) site 104, (d) site 120. The data measured by ESI+/– are plotted as positive/negative intensities, respectively. The pie charts show the number contributions from different formula categories indicated by different colors, and the sizes of pie charts are proportional to the total numbers of assigned formulas detected in each sample by ESI+/–. The percentages present the ratios of assigned formula to total MS peaks. Unassigned peaks were converted into neutral mass by assuming that they were protonated in ESI+ and deprotonated in ESI–.



Figure 5. The distributions for relative intensities of compounds in different mass ranges in (a) ESI–
and (b) ESI+. The numbers on the top of bars indicate the number of assigned peaks in different
formula categories of each sample.

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In ESI+ mode, CHO+ and CHON+ were the main components in all samples, 593 accounting for 35% to 61% and 20% to 28% of total formulas, respectively (Table 1). 594 595 The U samples showed the lowest CHO+ abundance (mean: 42%±5%) while the sample from site 120 had the highest value (59%). The fractions of CHON+ species in 596 our samples were significantly lower than those of the aged firn/ice samples from the 597 TP (~40%) (Feng et al., 2016, 2018, 2020; Spencer et al., 2014) which is mainly 598 attributed to less microbial activities in our samples; but were comparable with those 599 600 of fresh snow (Feng et al., 2018, 2020) in which the major source of WSOC is aerosol

wet/dry deposition. These results indicate that WSOC from the snowpack in northern 601 Xinjiang was more likely from atmospheric aerosol depositions rather than from 602 autochthonous sources. There were much higher contributions of S-containing 603 compounds in the U samples, e.g., CHOS+ (11%), CHONS+ (12%), and CHS+ (4%), 604 which were less abundant in other samples. These species showed low oxidation level 605 (mean O/C_w : 0.07 for CHOS+), high unsaturation degree and aromaticity (mean *DBE*_w: 606 607 10.1 and 8.7; mean AI_w: 0.42 and 0.48 for CHOS+ and CHS+, respectively), suggesting that they might be reduced S-containing species with aromatic structures from 608 609 incomplete fossil fuel combustion (Mead et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017a).

The abundance of CHO- was highest in ESI- with a range of 41% to 61%. The U 610 samples and the site 120 sample showed the lowest (mean: $47\%\pm4\%$) and highest (61%) 611 fractions of CHO-, respectively. The CHON- and CHOS- compounds account for 612 roughly equal contributions with ranges of 16% to 27% and 14% to 22%, respectively. 613 The detected CHOS compounds were more abundant in ESI- than those in ESI+. 614 Furthermore, CHOS- compounds show much higher oxidation level and lower 615 unsaturation degrees than CHOS+ (mean O/C_{W} : 0.55 and 0.08; mean DBE: 8.3 and 3.2 616 for CHOS- and CHOS+, respectively). These results are consistent with previous 617 ambient aerosol characterization studies (Lin et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017a, 2018), but 618 the S-containing species were not abundantly detected in the glacier samples (Feng et 619 al., 2016;Spencer et al., 2014), indicating stronger influence from anthropogenic 620 aerosols to WSOC in Xinjiang seasonal snow than those from remote areas. 621

The bulk molecular characteristics of compounds detected in ESI+ and ESI– are summarized in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The MW_w of all compounds detected in ESI+ mode was 231±9 Da, 229±10 Da, 218±15 Da, and 234 Da for U, R, S, and site 120 samples, respectively. These values are comparable with the MW_w of urban aerosols

(~225 to 265 Da) (Lin et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2018), but significantly lower than those 626 of glacier samples (~360 Da to 420 Da) (Feng et al., 2018, 2020), suggesting different 627 628 compositions between WSOC in seasonal snow of our study and from the literature reported glacier samples. DBE is used to infer the unsaturation degree of individual 629 species (McLafferty et al., 1993) and AI is a more direct metric of their aromaticity 630 (Koch and Dittmar, 2006, 2016). The U samples showed higher DBE_w and AI_w values 631 632 than the other groups of samples mainly due to high fractions of S-containing compounds in ESI+ mode (Table 1). As for ESI- mode, the MW_w of the site 120 sample 633 634 was higher than the other samples (280 Da vs. \sim 200 – 220 Da). Of note, the average MW_w of CHO– and CHONS– compounds in the site 120 sample were 286 Da and 396 635 Da, respectively, which were approximately 70 Da and 150 Da higher than those from 636 the other groups of samples. Accordingly, the DBE_w of all formulas detected in the site 637 120 sample was the highest (5.8), the values for CHO- and CHONS- were 5.4 and 12.0, 638 respectively, which were approximately 1.5 and 3 times higher than in the other samples. 639 These results indicate very unusual sources of WSOC in the site 120 sample. 640 Additionally, the molecular characteristics of formulas detected in ESI- and ESI+ are 641 different, e.g., higher average DBE_w and AI_w values of R samples for ESI– data (Tables 642 1 and 2). This results from the differences of ionization mechanisms between positive 643 and negative modes. ESI+ is sensitive to protonatable compounds with basic functional 644 groups, while acidic species are easily deprotonated and detected in ESI- mode (Cech 645 and Enke, 2001). Therefore, using both positive and negative ESI modes provide a more 646 complete molecular characterization of WSOC. 647

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- 649
- 650

651 **3.3.2 Chemical species in snow WSOC**

The Van Krevelen (VK) diagram is a frequently used graphical method, which plots 652 the H/C ratios against the O/C ratios in molecular formulas, to qualitatively determine 653 the major chemical species in complex organic mixtures and to explore their potential 654 reaction pathways (Kim et al., 2003). The VK diagrams of four representative samples 655 detected in ESI+ and ESI- modes are shown in Fig. 6. The VK space in this study was 656 657 separated into seven regions according to previous studies (Feng et al., 2016;Ohno et al., 2010): (1) lipids-like (O/C = 0-0.3, H/C = 1.5-2.0), (2) aliphatic/proteins-like (O/C658 659 = 0.3-0.67, H/C = 1.5-2.2), (3) carbohydrates-like (O/C=0.67-1.2; H/C=1.5-2.4), (4) unsaturated hydrocarbons (O/C = 0-0.1, H/C = 0.7-1.5), (5) lignins/carboxylic-rich 660 alicyclic molecules (CRAMs)-like (O/C = 0.1-0.67, H/C = 0.7-1.5), (6) tannins-like 661 (O/C = 0.67 - 1.2, H/C = 0.5 - 1.5), and (7) condensed aromatics (O/C = 0 - 0.67, H/C = 0.67, H/C662 0.2–0.7). In ESI+, the U samples showed the lowest O/C ratios (mean: 0.19±0.04) and 663 H/C ratios (mean: 1.51±0.05) among four groups (Table 1), which indicate low 664 oxygenation and high unsaturation degree of WSOC from U samples, likely suggesting 665 their primary emission sources (Kroll et al., 2011). Consequently, the unsaturated 666 hydrocarbons were most abundant among seven classes of species (mean: 39±15%, 667 Table 3), most of which were CHOS+ compounds (Fig. S7), then followed by 668 lignins/CRAMs-like species (mean: 25±11%). These results, again, supports our 669 670 assumption that anthropogenic pollution is a major source of snow organics in the U region. The R samples exhibited the highest fraction of aliphatic/proteins-like species 671 among four groups (mean: 57%±4%,). This type of species is widely distributed in 672 673 natural dissolved organic matter detected in terrestrial water systems (Lu et al., 2015a), glaciers and polar ice sheets (Antony et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2016), aerosols (Ning et 674 al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019a; Xie et al., 2020), and cloud water (Bianco et al., 2018). The 675

aliphatic/proteins-like species is commonly regarded as a marker of biological-related 676 sources, such as in-situ microbial activities (Antony et al., 2017) and primary 677 bioaerosols (e.g., plant debris, fungal spores, and pollen) (Xie et al., 2020). The high 678 contribution of aliphatic/proteins-like species in R samples is consistent with the results 679 of our EEM-PARAFAC analysis, which showed that PRLIS fluorophore is the most 680 abundant. The U samples and the site 120 sample showed high contributions of 681 682 lignins/CRAMs-like species, but their sources might be different. The lignins/CRAMslike species are commonly attributed to terrestrial-sourced, vascular plant-derived 683 684 material (Antony et al., 2014), biomolecules with similar structures to sterols and hopanoids (Hertkorn et al., 2006), or secondary organic aerosols from biomass burning 685 (Xie et al., 2020). These compounds in U samples were more likely from combustion 686 of biomass materials, but those in the site 120 sample might be from biogenetic sources. 687 In addition, the S samples showed higher contributions of unsaturated hydrocarbons 688 (mean: 19%±14%) than the R samples and the site 120 sample (mean: 11%±2% and 689 10%, respectively). This result is mainly due to the CHOS+ compounds detected in the 690 site 104 sample from R group (Fig. 6g), indicating some influence by anthropogenic 691 pollution at this site. 692

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Figure 6. Van Krevelen diagrams of representative sample for each subgroup in (a-d) ESI– and (eh) ESI+. The boxes indicate the different classes of chemical species. Different formula categories are color coded. Dots, crosses, and triangles represent non-aromatic (AI \leq 0.5), aromatic (0.5<AI<0.67), and condensed aromatic compounds (AI \geq 0.67) (Koch and Dittmar, 2006), respectively. The sizes of the symbols are proportional to the intensities.

%Condensed aromatics	3 ± 3	1 ± 0.4	5±5	3 ± 3	6±1	2 ± 0.1	1	2
%Tannins-like	0	3 ± 1	0.1	3 ± 1	0.1	3 ± 2	0.1	0.8
%Lignins/ CRAMs-like	25 ± 11	56 ± 12	14 ± 3	50 ± 16	14 ± 5	39 ± 5	22	75
%Unsaturated hydrocarbons	39 ± 15	1 ± 0.4	11±2	2 ± 2	19 ± 14	1 ± 0.1	10	2
%Carbohydrates- like	0.2 ± 0.1	4 ± 1	0.7 ± 0.2	5 ± 1	0.5 ± 0.1	5 ± 1	0.4	2
%Aliphatic/ protein-like	15 ± 12	24 ± 7	57 ± 4	27±8	47±22	41 ± 1	52	13
%Lipids-like	18 ± 9	11 ± 13	12 ± 4	10 ± 7	15±2	9 ± 5	14	9
	ESI+	ESI-	ESI+	ESI-	ESI+	ESI-	ESI+	ESI-
	U IIrhan/Industrial	(n = 14)	R Rural/Remote	(n = 10)	S Soil-influenced	(n = 3)	Site 120	(n = 1)

Table 3. The relative abundance of different classes of molecular species in each group of sites.

706 The relative abundances of seven chemical species to four major formula categories are shown in Fig. S7. Aliphatic/proteins-like species dominated the CHO+ compounds 707 in the R and the site 120 samples, while lignins/CRAMs-like species were most 708 abundant in the U sample. The contribution of condensed aromatics to CHO+ in the S 709 sample was high, which might be from soil-derived humic acids (DiDonato et al., 710 2016; Ikeya et al., 2015). Lipids-like species were highly enriched in CHON+, except 711 712 for the U samples, in which significantly higher contributions from condensed aromatics were observed. The condensed aromatics have typical AI values > 0.67 and 713 714 low O/C ratios which might be indicative of nitrated polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (niro-PAHs) (Bandowe and Meusel, 2017) or N-heterocyclic aromatics (Bandowe et al., 715 2016) from combustion sources. The CHOS+ compounds have mostly unsaturated 716 717 hydrocarbons characteristics in representative U and S samples as discussed above but were rarely detected in the R and site 120 samples. The CHONS+ did not show distinct 718 variations among investigated samples, but higher fraction of aliphatic/proteins-like 719 720 species in the S sample was observed.

As for ESI-, the O/C (mean: 0.41±0.02) and H/C (mean: 1.53±0.01) ratios were 721 highest for species identified in the S samples, reflecting their higher oxygenation and 722 saturation levels. These values are similar to those of soil water extracted organic matter 723 (Ohno et al., 2010). This future is consistent with the results of EEM-PARAFAC, which 724 showed that highly-oxygenated HULIS-1 dominates in S samples. Lignins/CRAMs-725 like species detected in ESI- dominated the VK space rather than aliphatic/proteins-like 726 compounds detected in ESI+. The relative contributions of seven chemical classes did 727 728 not change much between U and R samples (Table 3). In S samples, lower fraction of lignins/CRAMs-like species was found. Compared to the water extracted organic 729 matter from pure soil sample (Ohno et al., 2010), our S samples showed similar 730

percentage of lignins/CRAMs-like species (39% vs. 44%). An extremely high 731 contribution of lignins/CRAMs-like species (75%) was observed for the site 120 sample, 732 strongly suggesting influence from biogenetic materials. As for the relative abundances 733 in major formula categories, CHO- and CHON- were dominated by lignins/CRAMs-734 like species, except CHON- of the S sample, which exhibited highest fraction of 735 aliphatic/proteins-like species. This highest CHON- fraction mainly resulted from a 736 737 single compound with disproportionally high ion abundance, i.e., C₉H₁₇O₃N, which might be tentatively assigned as amino acid and led to a high fraction of 738 739 aliphatic/proteins-like compounds in S samples (mean: 41%±1%). Amino acids are widely distributed in soil and are important organic nitrogen sources of soil 740 microorganisms and plants (Geisseler et al., 2010). Moreover, biomass burning is also 741 a significant source of atmospheric amino acids (Laskin et al., 2009;Lin et al., 2012). 742 Therefore, either deposition of blowing soil or biomass burning aerosols may be 743 responsible for the appearance of this high-abundance amino acid species in the S 744 745 sample. As for CHOS- and CHONS-, lignins/CRAMs-like and carbohydrates-like species accounted for large portions of their total intensity. Only a few CHONS-746 compounds are apportioned as lignins/CRAMs-like species for the S sample, they are 747 attributed mostly to carbohydrates-like species than anything else. One interesting note 748 is that the contribution of condensed aromatics in the site 120 sample is highest among 749 all samples. Specifically, there are some unique CHONS- compounds within the region 750 of condensed aromatics, e.g., C₂₉H₁₄O₄N₂S (DBE=24, AI=0.77) and C₂₆H₁₄O₅N₂S 751 (DBE=21, AI=0.72), which have high MW>400 Da. They may contain structure of 752 753 anthraquinones, which are widely distributed in nature plants (Duval et al., 2016).

To further illustrate the differences of chemical compositions and structures among
four groups of the investigated samples, plots of DBE versus C+N atomic number are

756	shown in Fig. 7. The numbers of unique formulas in the U sample were highest both in
757	ESI+ and ESI- with values of 578 and 618 (Fig. S8), respectively, which accounted for
758	44% and 54% of total assigned species in each of the modes. These values were lowest
759	for the R sample, with only 17% (145) and 11% (51) in ESI+ and ESI-, respectively.
760	These results reflect very high chemical complexity of WSOC from U samples. The
761	DBE plots of Fig. 7 are shown along with the reference lines depicting DBE values
762	characteristic of (a) linear polyenes (C_xH_{x+2} , DBE = 0.5 × C) (Cain et al., 2014); (b)
763	cata-condensed PAHs (DBE = $0.75 \times C - 0.5$) (Siegmann and Sattler, 2000); (c)
764	fullerene-like hydrocarbons (DBE = $0.9 \times C$) (Lobodin et al., 2012). Because efficient
765	absorption of visible light by organic molecules requires conjugated group of bonds
766	extended across a significant part of the molecule, the compounds with the DBE/C
767	greater than that of linear polyenes might be potential chromophores (Lin et al., 2018).
768	The DBE values of CHON and CHONS compounds shift 1-5 units to the right as the
769	sum-total number of carbon and nitrogen atoms are accounted for. In ESI-, 266
770	formulas of the U sample were in the "BrC domain" region, which was much higher
771	than the other samples (26, 106, and 115 for the R, S, and site 120 sample, respectively).
772	Most of them are CHON-, CHOS- and CHONS- compounds, accounting for 74% of
773	the total formulas assigned in the U sample. Their C numbers and DBE values were
774	mainly in the ranges of 4-16 and 4-10, respectively. For the S and site 120 samples,
775	CHO- and CHON- were abundant in the "BrC domain" region (70% and 62% for the
776	S and site 120 samples, respectively). The frequency distributions of C numbers and
777	DBE were similar between the U and S samples, but WSOC components in the S
778	samples showed higher O/C ratios for CHO– compounds (Fig. S9), again consistent
779	with the soil organic matter (Ohno et al., 2010). However, the observations are quite
780	different for the site 120 sample, where C numbers and DBE values gathered in broader

ranges of 11-26 and 10-20, respectively, with higher medians. In addition, a few of the 781 CHON- and CHONS- compounds with DBE higher than 17 were detected. These 782 CHONS- formulas have been identified as plant-related organics as discussed above. 783 Similarly, the highly unsaturated CHON- compounds, e.g., C₂₅H₁₃O₈N (DBE=20, 784 AI=0.69), C₂₆H₁₅O₈N (DBE=20, AI=0.65), and C₂₆H₁₅O₉N (DBE=20, AI=0.63), 785 showed high MW>400 Da, and they may also be tentatively assigned as anthraquinone 786 787 derivatives. All these unique compounds suggested that the biogenic organics from plants are major sources of WSOC from the site 120 sample. In ESI+, the numbers of 788 789 formulas within "BrC domain" were 216, 43, 103, and 64 for the U, R, S, and site 120 samples, respectively. These potential BrC species were largely attributed to CHO+ and 790 CHON+ compounds (54%-75%), whereas the S-containing compounds (34%) were 791 substantial in the U sample. 792



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Figure 7. DBE vs. C+N number for unique molecules in representative samples from different groups. (a-d) ESI– and (e-h) ESI+. The reference lines indicate linear polyenes (C_xH_{x+2} , DBE = 0.5 × C), cata-condensed PAHs (DBE = $0.75 \times C - 0.5$), and fullerene-like hydrocarbons (DBE = $0.9 \times$ C). Markers in the shaded area are potential BrC chromophores. The green boxes denote the highintensity compounds. Four major formula categories are shown in different colors and sizes to avoid overlapping.

3.4 The radiative forcing by BrC attributed to WSOC in the snowpack

Inherent to the complexity of WSOC material and variability of its BrC optical 801 properties, quantitative estimates of its RF in snowpack remain insufficiently studied. 802 Yan et al. (2016) calculated the BrC-induced RF at LHG glacier from the TP region, 803 which was 0.43 W m⁻² and accounted for 10% of RF due to BC. Most recently, Beres 804 et al. (2020) described the spectral albedo and RF after artificial deposition of BrC 805 806 aerosol proxies from peat burning onto ambient snow surface. They showed that the instantaneous RF efficiency due to total deposited aerosol was 1.23 W m^{-2} per ppm of 807 808 the deposited mass. However, in the real world, BrC concentrations may not be that high as in the proxy experiments. Also, daily averaged values of RF are more important 809 for the climate research. Here we contribute to this line of work by calculating the 810 averaged-daily RF due to BC and BrC ($RF_{BC, BrC}$) deposits in snow based on the bulk 811 characterization measurements over the samples of our study. 812

Figure 8 shows the snow spectral albedo (α_{λ}) simulated for four different scenarios, 813 comparing albedo changes of the snowpack containing levels of BC and WSOC 814 measured in the samples. Because most of the snowpack was shallow during the 815 campaign, the albedo of pure snow was influenced by the effects of dark ground surface 816 (albedo assumed to be 0.2) underlaying at the snow depth specific to each of the sites, 817 as shown in Fig. 8. The average values of $\Delta \alpha$ and RF due to BC and BrC at different 818 819 spectral ranges are summarized in Table 4. As expected, BC have strong broadband impact on the snow albedo and corresponding RF effects. Specifically, U and S samples 820 with high BC mass loadings (mean: 707 and 440 ng g⁻¹, respectively) show albedo 821 reduction (Δa_{BC}) by 0.034 and 0.037 over broad 300-1500 nm wavelength range, 822 respectively, and the corresponding RF_{BC} estimates are as high as 3.5 W m⁻². In addition, 823 S and site 120 samples with higher WSOC concentrations (mean: 2082 and 7069 ng g⁻ 824

825	¹ , respectively) show lower broadband albedo reduction ($\Delta \alpha_{BrC}$) of ~0.006 and the
826	corresponding RF_{BrC} of ~0.6 W m ⁻² . Notably, because of the low BC and high WSOC
827	mass loadings in the site 120 sample, its RF_{BrC} estimate is approximately 2 times higher
828	than RF_{BC} . For the other samples (U, R, and S), the RF_{BrC} is still significant with the
829	average ratios of RF_{BrC}/RF_{BC} being at the level of 0.07-0.16. These results indicated that
830	BrC have profound impact on the reduction of the snow albedo in Northern Xinjiang.
831	As shown in Fig. 9, due to the stronger wavelength dependence of BrC absorption, the
832	spectral albedo reduction by BrC increased sharply at shorter wavelengths (300-400
833	nm), where $\Delta \alpha_{BrC}$ can be as large as 29-65% of the $\Delta \alpha_{BC}$ (Table 4). Unlike graphitic-like
834	components of BC, water-soluble part of BrC can trigger photochemical reactions in
835	snow forming reactive oxygen species (Fede and Grannas, 2015;Grannas et al., 2014),
836	catalyzing reaction chemistry and accelerating its kinetics at snow/ice-air interface
837	(Grannas et al., 2014;Hullar et al., 2020). Overall, these results emphasize important
838	role of WSOC and its BrC components on tempering solar radiation balance and
839	modulating environmental chemistry of organics and their air-snow partitioning
840	pertinent to mid-latitude seasonal snowpack.

Table 4. Simulated broadband albedo reduction due to BC and BrC within different wavelength ranges and the ratios between those of BrC and BC. The BC- and BrC-842

843 induced average-daily radiative forcing is also shown.

			Broadband	l albedo reduction			Radiativ	e forcing
		300-400 nm			300-1500 nm		BC	BrC
	BC	BrC	BrC/BC	BC	BrC	BrC/BC	(W m ⁻²)	$(W m^{-2})$
U Industrial/Urban (n = 14)	0.059 ± 0.056	0.015 ± 0.013	0.29 ± 0.19	0.034 ± 0.034	0.002 ± 0.002	0.07 ± 0.06	3.38 ± 3.54	0.21 ± 0.21
R Remote/Rural (n = 10)	0.010 ± 0.006	0.003 ± 0.001	0.39±0.16	0.005 ± 0.003	0.0004 ± 0.0002	0.09 ± 0.05	0.53 ± 0.34	0.04 ± 0.03
Soil-influenced $(n = 3)$	0.069 ± 0.001	0.044 ± 0.025	0.65 ± 0.37	0.037 ± 0.002	0.006 ± 0.003	0.16 ± 0.08	3.49 ± 0.26	0.55 ± 0.28
Site 120 $(n = 1)$	0.005	0.066	12.02	0.003	0.006	2.16	0.27	0.59

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Figure 8. Simulated snow spectral albedo under different contamination scenarios for representative
samples from different groups. The blue, grey, yellow, and red lines exhibit the spectral albedos of
pure snow, BC- or BrC-contaminated snow, and snow polluted by both BC and BrC, respectively.
The input parameters of each site for SNICAR model are also shown.



Figure 9. The albedo reduction spectra for representative samples from different groups. The grey and yellow lines show the albedo reductions due to BC or BrC, respectively. The red lines show the ratios of albedo reductions by BrC to those by BC. The $\Delta \alpha_{BC,BrC}$ and $RF_{BC,BrC}$ of each site are also shown.

857 4 Conclusions

The concentrations, optical properties, and molecular compositions of WSOC in seasonal snow collected from 28 sampling sites in Northern Xinjiang, northwestern China, were measured by multiple analytical techniques. The average concentrations of

WSOC were 1968±953 ng g⁻¹, 885±328 ng g⁻¹, 2082±1438 ng g⁻¹, and 7069 ng g⁻¹ for 861 U, R, S, and site 120 samples, respectively, reflecting large variability of WSOC mass 862 loadings among different groups of sites. These values were generally higher than those 863 reported previously for samples from high-altitude or high-latitude regions. Site 120 864 sample showed the highest MAC_{365} (0.95 m² g⁻¹) along with an unusual shape of 865 absorption spectrum, followed by samples from S (0.94±0.31 m² g⁻¹), U (0.39±0.11 m² 866 g⁻¹), and R (0.38±0.12 m² g⁻¹) sites. BrC components of our samples showed either 867 comparable or somewhat lower light-absorbing properties compared to previous reports 868 869 of polar or glacier snow, and were identified as W-BrC according to the optical-based classification (Saleh, 2020). 870

The differences in bulk chemical composition among four groups of samples were 871 elucidated by EEM spectroscopy assisted with PARAFAC analysis. Terrestrial-sourced 872 HULIS-1 factor accounted for 49% of the total fluorescence in S samples, indicating 873 the significant contributions from soil organic material. HULIS-2 factor dominated the 874 fluorescence intensity of U samples (46%). The anthropogenic sources of HULIS-2 875 were inferred from significantly positive correlation with sulfate ions indicative 876 combustion related sources. PRLIS factor was abundant in R samples (48%), reflecting 877 a potential source of labile WSOC from microbial activities. The EEM map of site 120 878 showed a unique peak never found in any other samples, which might be from plant 879 880 organics.

HPLC-ESI-HRMS provided further information of molecular composition and sources of WSOC. Total, 561 to 1487 and 339 to 1568 formulas were assigned in ESI+ and ESI- mass spectra, respectively. The mass distributions with respect to relative intensity were highly variable among representative samples of different groups in both ESI+ and ESI- modes, indicating different composition for each of the samples. CHO+

and CHON+ were the major components detected in ESI+ mode for all samples. 886 CHOS+ compounds were highly enriched in U samples. These species had low 887 888 oxidation degree, high unsaturation level and aromaticity, suggesting S-containing aromatic organics presumably related to heavy fossil fuels. In the ESI- detection mode, 889 CHO- compounds were still dominated, but contribution from CHOS- was much 890 higher, showing roughly equal abundance with CHON-. Through analysis of the VK 891 892 diagrams, the major chemical species in snow WSOC were determined qualitatively. The unsaturated hydrocarbons were the most abundant species in U samples, most of 893 894 them were CHOS+ from anthropogenic emissions. The R samples showed the highest contribution from aliphatic/proteins-like species, which is consistent with the results 895 from EEM-PARAFAC analysis. The S samples showed high oxygenation and 896 saturation degrees, and indicated the similar values of O/C and H/C ratios and 897 percentage of lignins/CRAMs-like species compared to the soil organic matter (Ohno 898 et al., 2010). An extremely high contribution of lignins/CRAMs-like species were found 899 at the site 120 sample, suggesting the biogenetic sources of WSOC. Furthermore, a few 900 unique CHON- and CHONS- compounds with DBE higher than 17 and MW larger 901 than 400 Da were found at site 120. The most possible candidates for them were species 902 with anthraquinone structures. Therefore, the special spectroscopic features of BrC 903 from the site 120 sample was attributed to biogenic organics from plants. 904

The *RF* due to BrC in snow was reported, for the first time, based on the field data and model simulations. In general, the RF_{BrC} were at the levels of 0.04 to 0.59 W m⁻² among different groups of sites and contributed to 7% to 16% of RF_{BC} . Therefore, we demonstrated the important influences of WSOC on the snow energy budget and potentially on triggering snow photochemistry. This study presents a comprehensively chemical characterization of WSOC and its BrC properties in collected seasonal snow

- 911 samples from Northern Xinjiang, northwestern China, which helps to better understand
- 912 their characteristics, sources, and climate effects.

Data availability. Requests for all data in this study and any questions regarding the 915 data can be directed to Alexander Laskin (alaskin@purdue.edu) or Xin Wang 916 (wxin@lzu.edu.cn).

Author contributions. YZ, CW, AH, XN, and HW designed and conducted the lab
experiments. YZ processed the data with assist of CW and AH and wrote the paper. XW,
YZ, XN, JC, TS, WP, and HW designed and conducted the field campaign, collected
the snow samples, and discussed the results. AL and XW supervised this study. All coauthors commented on the paper and improved it.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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