

Significant role of physical transport in the marine carbon monoxide (CO) cycle — Observations in the East Sea (Sea of Japan), the Western North Pacific, and the Bering Sea in summer

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Abstract. The carbon monoxide (CO) in the marine boundary layer and in the surface waters and water column were measured along the ~~Northwestern~~^{western} limb of the North Pacific ~~limb~~ from Korean Peninsula to Alaska, U.S.A. in summer 2012. The 10 observation allows us to estimate the CO budgets in the surface mixed layer of the three distinct regimes, the East Sea ([Sea of Japan](#)) ([ES](#)), the Northwest Pacific ([NP](#)), and the Bering Sea ([BS](#)). Microbial consumption rates were ~~33(±22)~~^{30(±8)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, ~~23(±11)~~^{24(±5)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, and ~~77(±32)~~^{63(±19)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, and CO [photochemical](#) production rates were ~~70(±49)~~^{56(±15)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, ~~20(±11)~~^{27(±3)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, and ~~19(±7)~~^{26(±2)} $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ in ES, NP and BS, respectively, both of which are the dominant components of the CO budget in the ocean. The other two known components, air-sea gas exchange and downward 15 mixing remain negligible (less than ~~23~~ $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) in all regimes. While the CO budget in the surface mixed layer of NP is in balance, the CO production surpassed the consumption in ES and vice versa in BS. The significant imbalances in the CO budget in ES and BS requires external physical transport such as lateral advection, subduction, or ventilation. Indeed, the first order increase of the CO column burden to the extent that the imbalance in the CO budget increases points to the significant play of the physical transport in the CO cycles. Our observation, for the first time, points to the potential importance of physical transport in the marine 20 CO cycle.

1 Introduction

Carbon monoxide (CO) plays a key role in the budget for the hydroxyl (OH) radical in the atmosphere (Weinstock and Niki, 1972; Levy, 1971), which indirectly contributes to global climate change as a considerable range of greenhouse gases, including methane (CH₄), are oxidized by the OH radical in the atmosphere (Daniel and Solomon, 1998). The ocean has long been recognized as a source of atmospheric CO, albeit with large uncertainties in its source strength (1–190 Tg CO yr⁻¹) (Conte et al., 2019; Erickson III, 1989; Bates et al., 2012; Conrad et al., 1982; Rhee, 2000; Stubbins et al., 2006; Zafiriou et al., 2003; Daniel and Solomon, 1998). The ocean has long been recognized as a source of atmospheric CO, albeit with large uncertainties in its source strength (1–190 Tg CO yr⁻¹) (Conte et al., 2019; Erickson III, 1989; Bates et al., 1995; Conrad et al., 1982; Stubbins et al., 2006a; Zafiriou et al., 2003; Park and Rhee, 2016), which requires further investigation and understanding of the CO cycle in the ocean.

In the euphotic zone of the ocean, CO is produced by abiotic photochemical reaction of chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM). Annual global CO photoproduction in the ocean is estimated to be in the range of 10–400 Tg CO (Mopper and Kieber, 2000; Zafiriou et al., 2003; Kitidis et al., 2006; Fichot and Benner, 2011; Erickson III, 1989; Conrad et al., 1982), with a large span of uncertainty that could be attributed to the heterogeneous distribution of CDOM in the world ocean. As the second largest inorganic carbon product after CO₂ in photochemical conversion of the dissolved organic carbon, CO itself draws considerable attention as a key proxy to evaluate the photoproduction of CO₂ and bio-labile organic carbon (Mopper and Kieber, 2000; Miller et al., 2002; Armbrust, 2009). Thus, CO is a noteworthy component with regard to both the oceanic carbon cycle and global climate change.

CO in the water column is removed by microbial consumption, air-sea gas exchange, and vertical dilution, with microbial consumption being the dominant sink under normal turbulent conditions at the ocean's surface. Microbial consumption rates of CO range from 0.003 to 1.11 h⁻¹ depending on locality and season. In the ocean's euphotic zone, CO undergoes production through abiotic photochemical reaction of chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) and particulate organic matter (Xie and Zafiriou, 2009). The annual global CO photoproduction in the ocean spans an estimated range of 10 to 400 Tg CO (Mopper and Kieber, 2000; Zafiriou et al., 2003; Erickson III, 1989; Conrad et al., 1982; Fichot and Miller, 2010; Stubbins et al., 2006b). This wide range of estimations is largely attributed to the uneven distribution of CDOM throughout the world oceans. CO, as the second most substantial inorganic carbon product after CO₂ in photochemical conversion of dissolved organic carbon, garners significant attention. It serves as a pivotal proxy for assessing the photoproduction of CO₂ and bio-labile organic carbon (Conrad and Seiler, 1980; Conrad et al., 1982; Johnson and Bates, 1996; Jones, 1991; Jones and Amador, 2012; Ohta, 1997; Xie et al., 2005; Zafiriou et al., 2003) (Mopper and Kieber, 2000; Miller et al., 2002). As mentioned above, dissolved CO in the surface ocean is generally supersaturated with respect to the atmospheric CO concentration (Seiler, 1974) leading to sea-to-air emission (Conrad and Seiler, 1980). Physical mixing within the surface mixed layer ends up diluting the CO concentration in water column when it is deeper than the light penetration depth, beyond which photoproduction is no longer possible (Gnanadesikan, 1996; Kettle, 2005).

Estimating the ocean source strength remains challenging due to the large uncertainties in the budget of marine CO. Although recent modelling studies have attempted to estimate the CO flux from the ocean surface at the global scale (Conte et al., 2019), these estimates are limited by the large uncertainties in the budget and may be biased in shallow continental shelf regions. Despite the

efforts of introducing a new production pathway, namely dark production, in order to rationalize the discrepancy between modelled and observed oceanic CO source strength (Xie et al., 2005; Li et al., 2015; Kettle, 2005), the occurrence of the dark production at global scale is still under debate. Thus, CO holds a prominent position within the context of both the oceanic carbon cycle and the broader realm of global climate change.

In contrast, CO within the ocean's water column experiences removal mechanisms that include microbial consumption, air-sea gas exchange, and vertical dilution. Under normal turbulent conditions at the ocean's surface, microbial consumption emerges as the dominant sink for CO. The rate constants governing microbial consumption of CO exhibit considerable variability, ranging from 0.003 to 1.11 hr⁻¹ depending on factors such as location and season (Conrad and Seiler, 1980; Conrad et al., 1982; Johnson and Bates, 1996; Jones, 1991; Ohta, 1997; Xie et al., 2005; Zafiriou et al., 2003; Jones and Amador, 1993). Notably, dissolved CO in the surface ocean tends to be supersaturated with respect to the atmospheric CO concentrations (Seiler and Junge, 1970) resulting in emission from the sea to the air (Conrad and Seiler, 1980). However, the influence of physical mixing within the surface mixed layer becomes apparent when the mixed layer depth exceeds the depth of light penetration depth, rendering photoproduction no longer dominant driver (Gnanadesikan, 1996; Kettle, 1994).

Efforts to estimate the oceanic source strength of CO encounter significant challenges due to the substantial uncertainties inherent in the marine CO budget. Recent modelling endeavors have aimed at estimating the global-scale CO flux from the ocean surface (Conte et al., 2019). However, these estimations grapple with formidable uncertainties, especially in regions characterized by shallow continental shelves. Additionally, attempts have been made to address these challenges by introducing a new production pathway known as dark production (Zafiriou et al., 2005; Kettle, 2005b; Zhang et al., 2008). Identifying the missing components in the CO budget is essential for predicting the dynamic feedback between oceanic CO level and global climate change with greater confidence.

, which seeks to reconcile the discrepancies between modeled and observed oceanic CO source strength. Nevertheless, the widespread occurrence of dark production at a global scale remains a subject of ongoing debate (Zafiriou et al., 2008). The identification of missing components within the CO budget holds paramount importance, as it can significantly enhance our predictive capabilities, allowing for a better understanding of the dynamic interplay between oceanic CO levels and the broader context of global climate change.

To better understand the CO dynamics in distinct marine environments, we conducted a comprehensive study of the CO distribution of CO in the water column and the overlying air, the microbial consumption rate, and the CDOM absorbance. In this study, we reported a CO budget estimated from these observations and onboard experiments, and compared them with the column burden of CO to examine the controlling factors on the affecting CO distribution of CO in the water column. To our knowledge, while there have been limited observations of dissolved CO in this is the first systematic study of CO budget in the region of (Lamontagne, 1979; Nakagawa et al., 2004), our research represents the first comprehensive observational study of CO

distribution and the associated source and sink processes within the extensive region encompassing the western limb of the North Pacific.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Expedition

90 The SHIPborne Pole-to-Pole Observations (SHIPPO) expedition was carried out onboard R/V Araon from Incheon, Korea, to Nome in Alaska, U.S.A., over two weeks in 2012 (Figure 1). The cruise track covered the coast surrounding the Korean Peninsula and three ocean provinces: The East Sea (Sea of Japan) (ES), the western limb of the North Pacific (NP), and the Bering Sea (BS). For this study, we focused on the oceanic properties relevant to the marine CO cycle in ES, NP, and BS, and thus excluded the coastal regions around Korean Peninsular and near Nome, Alaska, in defining the ocean province (see Figure 2). Along the cruise
95 track, we occupied two hydrographic stations in ES—one on the northern fringe of the Ulleung Basin between the islands of Ulleungdo and Dokdo Islands and the other on Yamato Rise—six stations in NP spreading from the east of the Tsugaru strait to the western Aleutian Islands, and three stations in BS—one at the Bering slope, another in the inner shelf, and the other nearby the port in Nome. We excluded station 12 from the BS province, as it is too close to the coast to represent the oceanographic properties of the Bering Sea. The expedition covers characteristic marginal seas, ES and BS, and open ocean of NP.

100 2.2 Underway CO measurements

A commercially available instrument RGA-3 (Reduced Gas Analyzer-3; Trace Analytical Inc.) was used to analyze CO with an automated analytical system (Rhee, 2000)was used to analyze CO with an automated analytical system (Rhee, 2000). The analytical system was calibrated with commercially available calibration gases (49.09±1.16 ppb, 102.0±0.7 ppb, and 912.8±4.7 ppb) during the SHIPPO campaign. The dry mole fractions assigned to these calibration gases were adjusted based on traceable standard gases from NOAA/ESRL/GMD (NOAA-GMD/WMO 2004 scale). For measuring high CO concentrations (>1 ppm), the highest concentration of calibration gas was adjusted using Swiss Empa standard gases (personal communications, 2012). To cover a wide range of CO concentrations between the air and surface seawater, two different sizes of sample loops (0.5 mL and 2 mL) were installed on the 10-port VICI valve. This setup allows us to confidently measure CO concentrations of up to ~2 ppm in unknown samples since the concentrations of the standard gases range from ~20 ppb to ~1800 ppb. Beyond this range of unknown samples, we anticipate an increase in analytical uncertainty. The uncertainties (1 σ) associated with the standard gases are estimated to be between 0.5 ppb and 1.1 ppb, following the NOAA-GMD/WMO 2004 scale (see Figure S1). The detection limit of the system was determined to be 6 ppb (= 3 σ of blank signals) based on the blank runs applied during discrete sample analysis. To correct for detector signal drift, calibration runs were performed every 40 minutes during sample analyses.

The ambient air at 29 m above sea level was withdrawn through ~100 m long polyethylene inner-coated aluminium tubing
115 (DEKABON) by a pump (KNF, N026ATE) for atmospheric CO analysis. No contamination from the media has been attested—(Park

and Rhee, 2015). To ensure the reliability of the atmospheric measurements and minimize the potential influence of ship exhaust, we relied on the data reduction previously conducted by Park and Rhee (2015). We selected a specific time window for data quality control based on the criteria they established (refer to Figure S2 in Park and Rhee (2015)). In brief, the atmospheric CO data were excluded if the relative wind speed (in relation to the ship's speed) was less than 2 knots to prevent potential contamination from stack emissions resulting from local turbulence. Data with a standard deviation exceeding 1 ppb for one minute were also excluded. Furthermore, data collected with a relative wind direction between 180° and 270°, corresponding to the ship's stack location relative to the air inlet, underwent rigorous screening.

Seawater inlet was mounted on the sea chest locating ~7 m below the sea surface. Seawater was pumped into a typical shower-type Weiss equilibrator in which dissolved CO in the seawater was dynamically equilibrated with the CO in the headspace, which was then delivered to the analyzer. The equilibrator was made of opaque polytetrafluoroethylene (TeflonTM) and seated in the laboratory. Seawater was continually showered through the headspace at ~30 L min⁻¹, resulting in the equilibration time of 40 minutes for CO (Rhee, 2000). The ambient air and the headspace air in the equilibrator were sampled every 45 minutes. To keep the analyzing system from being wet, a water trap (SicapentTM) was mounted in front of the automated CO analyzing system. No alteration of CO concentration due to mounting the water trap was detected.

130 2.3 Dissolved CO concentrations in discrete samples

Dissolved CO concentrations in the discrete samples of each hydrographic station were determined by static equilibrium technique (Rhee, 2000). Seawaters were subsampled in glass jars from the Niskin samplers fired at given depth. Known amount (50 mL) of ultra-pure N₂ gas (99.9999%) was collected using a gas-tight syringe after passing through Schuetze reagent which oxidize CO to CO₂ effectively. (Bremminkmeijer, 1993; Pathirana et al., 2015). This CO-free N₂ was injected into the glass jars to make headspace.

135 After being shaken vigorously, the glass jars were placed in a thermostat at 20°C for about 1 hour to reach the equilibrium between the headspace and the seawater of dissolved CO. Then, the air in the headspace was analyzed by using the same analytical system as that was used for underway measurements with manual injection. Dissolved CO concentration, C_w (nmol kg⁻¹), was determined by applying the following equation based on the conservation of the dissolved CO concentration in the seawater sample collected in the jar by the following equation (Rhee et al., 2007, 2009).

$$C_w = \frac{x_{CO} \times (P - P_w)}{\rho_w RT} \times \left(\beta \times \frac{T}{273.15} + \frac{V_h}{V_w} \right) \quad (1)$$

140 where x_{CO} represents the dry mole fraction of dissolved CO, P the ambient pressure, P_w saturated water vapour pressure, ρ_w the density of seawater at a given temperature, R gas constant, T absolute temperature at the sampling time of dissolved gas, β Bunsen solubility coefficient, V_h volume of the headspace, and V_w volume of the seawater.

145 where x_{CO} represents the dry mole fraction of dissolved CO (nmol mol⁻¹), P the ambient pressure (atm), P_w saturated water vapour pressure (atm), ρ_w the density of seawater at a given temperature (kg L⁻¹), R gas constant (0.08205601 L atm mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), T absolute temperature at the sampling time of dissolved gas (K), V_h volume of the headspace (mL), and V_w volume of the seawater (mL). β

denotes the Bunsen coefficient of CO solubility which is defined as the volume of CO gas, reduced to STP (0°C 1 atm) contained in a unit volume of water at the temperature of the measurement when the partial pressure of the CO is 1 atm (Wiesenburg and Guinasso, 1979). We calculate β using the Equation (1) in Wiesenburg and Guinasso (1979). The conversion of β to the temperature at which dissolved CO is measured is referred to as the Ostwald coefficient solubility, denoted as L ($= \beta \times T/273.15$), as indicated within the bracket in Equation (1).

2.4 Determination of microbial oxidation rate constant

Dark incubation experiments were conducted ~~onboard~~ at selected stations to determine the microbial oxidation rate ~~coefficient~~ constant of CO (k_{CO}) in unfiltered seawater samples collected in the surface mixed layer. ~~Four~~ At the selected stations (marked with red circles in Figure 1), ~~four~~ aliquots of seawater were subsampled ~~into~~ glass jars from a Niskin bottle ~~at each station (red circles in Figure 1). The~~. To prevent light exposure during sampling, the glass jars were ~~wrapped~~ covered with colored cellulose film ~~to block light during sampling and were stored. These jars were then placed~~ in an aquarium where ~~the~~ surface seawater was ~~continually~~ continuously supplied to maintain ~~the same~~ temperature ~~as identical to~~ that in the surface mixed layer. Dissolved Upon collection, one of these sample bottles underwent immediate analysis to measure dissolved CO concentration. Subsequently, the remaining three samples were analyzed at distinct time intervals following the initial sampling. Before analysis, we introduced ultra-pure N₂ gas into each sample bottle to create a headspace, following the same procedure outlined in Section 2.3. After allowing the samples to equilibrate, we extracted the headspace sample for analysis.

As CO depletion follows quasi-first-order reaction kinetics at ambient CO concentrations in the glass jars were measured at regular intervals, and an exponential decay fitting function was applied to determine k_{CO} at the given stations (Johnson and Bates, 1996; Jones and Amador, 1993), we fitted the data with the best-fit lines using the following equation:

$$\ln\left(\frac{[CO]_t}{[CO]_0}\right) = -k_{CO} \times t \quad (2)$$

where t represents time (hr) and k_{CO} is the microbial oxidation rate constant for the reaction (hr⁻¹), and $[CO]_t$ and $[CO]_0$ denote the CO concentrations at time t and the beginning of the incubation experiment, respectively.

2.5 CDOM analysis

Approximately 200 mL of seawater was subsampled in an amber glass container from Niskin bottle at selected stations (lime circles in Figure 1). The seawater sample was filtered through 0.45 μ m filter paper (Advantec). Absorption spectra of the filtrate were obtained using a spectrophotometer (Agilent Cary-100) by scanning wavelength from 350 to 800 nm. Milli-Q water was used as a reference blank. Baseline offset was corrected by subtracting the average apparent absorbance from 600 to 700 nm from each spectrum (Green and Blough, 1994).

CDOM absorbance obtained from the instruments onboard was converted to absorption coefficient (α_c m^{-1}) by Beer-Lambert law. Previous studies demonstrated the exponential decay of α_c with increase of wavelength in the region of ultraviolet and visible light,

which can be represented by a_c at a reference wavelength, λ_0 , and spectral slope, S (Bricaud et al., 1981)(nm⁻¹) (Bricaud et al., 1981). These two characteristic parameters can be determined by fitting to the following exponential form,

$$a_c(\lambda) = a_c(\lambda_0) * e^{-S(\lambda-\lambda_0)} \quad (23)$$

We chose the reference wavelength of 412 nm which is often used in the remote sensing community as a representative of CDOM absorption in the ocean. $a_c(412)$ by CDOM was proven to be a typical linear relation with the CDOM absorption at other wavelength (Mannino et al., 2014). In addition, this wavelength is often chosen to correct the absorption by CDOM to derive Chl-*a* in remote sensing (e.g., Carder et al., 1999) or to compare the spectral slopes in the CDOM absorption obtained in various regions (e.g., Twardowski et al., 2004).

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2.6 Ancillary measurements

Wind speed was measured by an anemometer (R.M. Young Co. Model 05106-8M) installed on the foremast at 29 m above sea level. It was corrected for ship speed and direction to obtain true wind speed (Smith et al., 1999)(Smith et al., 1999) and then converted to the neutral wind speed at 10 m above sea level of standard height using the bulk air-sea flux algorithm COARE 3.6 (Edson et al., 2013; Fairall et al., 2003). Solar irradiation was measured with an Eppley Precision Spectral Pyranometer (model PSP) integrating radiation over 285–2800 nm. The surface Chl-*a* concentration was measured by a fluorometer (Turner Designs 10-AU) supplying the surface seawater continuously. The values were adjusted to the Chl-*a* concentration determined by a Trilogy 195 Laboratory Fluorometer (Turner Designs) according to the standard procedure described by Parsons et al. (1984)Parsons et al. (1984). Sea surface temperature (SST) and salinity (SSS) ~~was~~^{were} logged using both a thermosalinograph (SBE-45, Seabird) mounted in the laboratory and a pair of thermometers (SBE-38) mounted on the seawater inlet of the sea chest.

2.7 Calculation of the CO budget terms

Assuming that lateral advection of CO is negligible, dissolved CO concentration ([CO])¹; nM in the mixed layer, h_z (m), was determined by the sum of the rates of photochemical production (J), air-sea gas exchange (F), vertical diffusion (V) across bottom of the mixed layer, and microbial oxidation (M):

$$h_z \frac{d[\text{CO}]}{dt} = J + M + F + V \quad (34)$$

Hence, the unit for J , M , F , and V is $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$. We assume dark production (Zhang et al., 2008)(Zhang et al., 2008) or other unknown processes including production from particulate carbon and emission by phytoplankton (DuarteXie and Regaudie De-

205 [Gioux Zafiriou, 2009](#); [Kowalezuk Gros et al., 2010](#); [Zafiriou et al., 2008](#)[2009](#)) to be negligible in the CO budget. We calculated daily budget terms of CO in the surface mixed layer at the stations based on our observed data. Here we defined one day as sum of half a day before and after the time of CTD cast (gray strip in Figure 2). The CO budget terms were integrated over the mixed layer at the given station. (see Figure S3c-d as an example). Mixed layer depth (MLD) was determined at the shallowest depth below reference depth of 10 m at which the density difference exceeds the density at the reference depth due to temperature difference of 0.2°C ([De Boyer Montégut, 2004](#))[\(De Boyer Montégut, 2004\)](#).

210 **2.7.1 Photochemical production (J)**

The photochemical production rate (J) was determined by product of irradiance (I_0), the amount of CDOM (a_c), and apparent quantum yield (ϕ_{CO}) of CDOM, an indicator of the CO production efficiency. Since CDOM is not a chemical compound but rather a moiety of material defined by mechanical criterion, ϕ_{CO} varies depending on a variety of [environmental](#) conditions. J can be mathematically described as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} J &= \int_{z=0}^{z=\infty} \int_{\lambda_{min}}^{\lambda_{max}} I_0(\lambda, 0^-) e^{-k_d(\lambda)z} \times a_c(\lambda, z) \times \phi_{CO}(\lambda, z) d\lambda dz J \\ &= \int_{z=0}^{z=\infty} \int_{\lambda_{min}}^{\lambda_{max}} I_0(\lambda, 0^-) e^{-k_d(\lambda)z} \times a_c(\lambda, z) \times \phi_{CO}(\lambda) d\lambda dz \end{aligned} \quad (45)$$

215 , where $I_0(\lambda, 0^-)$ indicates monochromatic solar irradiance just beneath the air-sea interface, $k_d(\lambda, z)$ diffuse attenuation coefficient, $\phi_{CO}(\lambda, z)$ apparent quantum yield of CO. Parentheses in Equation 4 indicates(5) indicate function of variables, *i.e.*, λ wavelength and z water depth.

We measured irradiance in the short-wavelength range onboard, but not individual monochromatic wavelengths. Thus, a model calculation by Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible radiation (TUV) model ([www2.acm.ucar.edu](#)) was employed to resolve the 220 irradiance of monochromatic wavelength between 290 nm and [700800](#) nm. The total irradiance from TUV was normalized to the observed irradiance to estimate the irradiance on the sea surface. To obtain $I_0(\lambda, 0^-)$, sea surface albedo was calculated following [Sikorski and Zika \(2012\)](#)[, Sikorski and Zika \(2012\)](#). To apply for the equations, direct and diffuse spectral incident irradiance was obtained by the Bird model ([Bird and Hulstrom, 1981](#))[\(Bird and Hulstrom, 1981\)](#):

$$f_{abs} = f_{dir}[(1.03 - A_{dir})(1 - f_{ice}) + f_{ice}] + f_{dif}[(1.03 - A_{dif})(1 - f_{ice}) + f_{ice}] \quad (56)$$

$$A = 1 - f_{abs} \quad (57)$$

225 , where f and A represent fraction and [Albedo](#)[albedo](#), and subscripts, abs , dir , and dif , indicate absorption of sunlight and direct and diffuse spectral incident irradiance, respectively. Then, we obtained the normalized irradiance as follows:

$$I(\lambda, 0^-) = I(\lambda, 0^+) \times (1 - A) \quad (78)$$

$$I_0(\lambda, 0^-) = I(\lambda, 0^-) \frac{I_{obs}}{I(\lambda, 0^+)} \quad (89)$$

, where $I(\lambda, 0^+)$ indicates the irradiance calculated by TUV model, $I(\lambda, 0^-)I_0(\lambda, 0^-)$ and $I_0(\lambda, 0^-)I(\lambda, 0^-)$ represent irradiance beneath the air-sea interface with and without normalization using the observed irradiance, I_{obs} .

Diffuse attenuation coefficient, $k_d(\lambda)$, was determined by following the algorithm in Sikorski and Zika (2012). It takes into accounts not only absorption and scattering coefficients of seawater and particles including phytoplankton, but also reflectance of direct and diffuse spectral radiation in the water column.

Not measuring apparent quantum yield (ϕ_{CO}), we applied two parameterization determined by Zafiriou et al. (2003) and Stubbins et al. (2011) in order to determine photochemical production rate (J). The former is derived from the measurement in the surface seawater of the open ocean in the Pacific and the latter from the composite of estuarine and the Atlantic observation. In general Stubbins et al. (2011) parameterization results in approximately twice as much as that using Zafiriou et al. (2003) as the former basically relies on the terrestrial CDOM.

Diffuse attenuation coefficient, $k_d(\lambda, z)$, was determined by following the algorithm in Sikorski and Zika (2012). It takes into accounts not only absorption and scattering coefficients of seawater and particles including phytoplankton, but also the reflectance of direct and diffuse spectral radiation in the water column (See Text S1 and Figures S2&3 for details). Not measuring the apparent quantum yield (ϕ_{CO}), we applied two parameterization determined by Zafiriou et al. (2003) in order to determine the photochemical production rate (J).

2.7.2 Microbial oxidation (M)

Microbial oxidation rate (M) was determined by using first-order reaction kinetics of a involving the product of dissolved CO concentration and (C_w). k_{CO} determined at the given station as follows, and h :

$$M = k_{CO} \times C_w \times h \quad (910)$$

In case where an incubation experiment was not being conducted, the mean value of k_{CO} determined in was derived either within the given specific geographic province was adopted or by averaging the values at the transition stations crossing the boundary of the provinces.

2.7.3 Air-sea flux (F)

Based on the underway observations of CO in the surface seawater (C_w) and in the overlying air (C_a), we calculated the air-sea CO flux (F) as follows using the following equation:

$$F = k_w \times (C_w - LC_a) \quad (4011)$$

, where k_w and L represent gas transfer velocity and the Ostwald coefficient of solubility (Wiesenburg and Guinasso, 2002), respectively. k_w is a function of wind speed and the Schmidt number (Sc). We employed three different parameterizations of k_w ;

(Wanninkhof, 2012) (W92), (Nightingale et al., 2000) (N00), and Wanninkhof (2014) (W14) parameterizations (Table 1). Ho et al. (2011) compiled the entire dual tracer experiments to precisely parameterize gas transfer velocity and concluded their parameterization is virtually same as Nightingale et al. (2000) within the uncertainties. Wanninkhof (2012) parameterization has been used widely and it may hint the potential maximum contribution of air-sea flux to the CO budget.

As all the parameterizations are based on Sc of 600 (Nightingale et al., 2000) or 660 (Wanninkhof, 2012) which is for CO_2 at 20°C in fresh water or in seawater, we normalized Sc to that for CO at the *in situ* temperature and salinity:

, where k_w and L represents gas transfer velocity ($m s^{-1}$) and the Ostwald coefficient of solubility, respectively. k_w is a function of wind speed and the Schmidt number (Sc). L was calculated using the definition described in Section 2.3.

We employed three different parameterizations of k_w ; Wanninkhof (1992) (W92), Nightingale et al. (2000) (N00), and Wanninkhof (2014) (W14) parameterizations (Table 1). Ho et al. (2011) compiled the entire dual tracer experiments to accurately parameterize gas transfer velocity and found their parameterization to be virtually identical to that of Nightingale et al. (2000) within the associated uncertainties. The Wanninkhof (1992) parameterization, widely used, may indicate the potential maximum contribution of air-sea flux to the CO budget.

Since all these parameterizations are originally based on Sc of 600 (Nightingale et al., 2000) or 660 (Wanninkhof, 1992) which are for CO_2 at 20°C in fresh water or in seawater, we normalized Sc to account for CO at the *in situ* temperature and salinity:

$$k_w = k(Sc_{CO}/Sc)^{-1/2} \quad (4412)$$

, where k is the parameterization of CO_2 gas transfer velocity, Sc_{CO} ($m s^{-1}$), and Sc_{CO} represents the Schmidt number for CO. We derived a parameterization of Sc_{CO} as a function of both temperature and salinity *sineas* its parameterization in literature (e.g., Zafiriou et al. (2008)) considers temperature only (Text S1 in supporting information see Text S2 and Figures S4-5 for details).

2.7.4 Vertical diffusion (V)

The vertical diffusion rate (V) was determined calculated as the product of vertical eddy diffusivity (K_z ; $m^2 s^{-1}$) and the vertical gradient of CO at the bottom of the mixed layer. K_z was derived obtained from a one-dimensional General Ocean Turbulence Model (GOTM) that was forced by ECMWF reanalysis data (ERA5) and relaxed toward observed temperature and salinity vertical profiles at each station (Kwon et al., 2021).

2.8 Statistical analysis

For statistical calculations, we utilized Microsoft Excel, Python, or IDL (Interactive Data Language, NV5 Geospatial) depending on the specific requirements. For instance, when estimating linear and exponential curve fitting to explore the relationships between parameters, we employed Python programming. The determination of k_{CO} values and error ranges, as well as the CO budget calculations, were carried out using the IDL program.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Oceanographic settings of the provinces

3.1.1 The East Sea (Sea of Japan) (ES)

The Tsushima Warm Current (TWC) dominates the upper water column ~~of~~ in the southern part of ES, carrying eddies along ~~the~~ its main current ~~and~~ as it flows out through Tsugaru Strait (Kim and Yoon, 1996; Isobe, 2002). ~~In spite of~~ Despite originating from the Kuroshio Current ~~carrying, which transports~~ salt and heat from the western part of the Equator ~~branching and branches~~ in the southwestern part of Japanese archipelago, ~~its~~ the physical properties ~~are slightly modified of~~ TWC undergo slight modifications in the East China Sea ~~by~~ due to mixing with fresh water flowing from Yangtze River (Morimoto et al., 2009; Isobe, 2002).

~~Highest~~ The highest SST of 22.4°C and SSS of 34 were registered in ES ~~among the values observed along the cruise track, showing~~ indicating the dominant influence of TWC on the surface waters (Figure 2f). The southern part of ES often ~~develops-experiences~~ ~~the development of~~ warm eddies due to ~~the~~ meandering of TWC horizontally (Isoda and Saitoh, 1993), which could be revealed (Isoda and Saitoh, 1993), characterized by high salinity and warm water in the Ulleung Basin near Station 1 and Yamato Rise around Station 2. On the other hand, the North Korea Cold Current flows southwards from near Vladivostok along the east coast of the Korean peninsula, ~~while~~ ~~hand on July 15, it~~ was detected ~~on July 15~~ with 1°C lower temperature 1°C lower (22.5°C) and ~~salinity~~ 2–3 units lower ~~salinity~~ (< 32) than TWC. ~~Approaching~~ As TWC approaches the Tsugaru Strait in ES, ~~there is~~ a slight decreasing tendency in SST from ~22°C to ~20°C and ~~an~~ increasing tendency in SSS from 33.5 to 33.8 ~~were recorded~~. This is due likely to higher latitude of the Tsugaru Strait than the inlet of TWC, the Korea Strait, and ~~to~~ the branching and meandering of TWC in ES. Upon entering the mouth of the Tsugaru Strait, SST ~~fell~~ dropped by 4°C from ~21.5 ~~in spite of~~ °C, despite nearly constant or slight decrease in SSS by ~0.5, pointing to the sudden change in the water mass crossing the strait ~~due~~, likely ~~to the influence~~ ~~of~~ influenced by the Oyashio currents from the North Pacific (Yasuda, 2003) (Yasuda, 2003).

~~Because of the oligotrophic characteristics of the TWC (Kwak et al., 2013), Chl-a concentration in the surface along the ship track were lower than 0.5 mg m⁻³ except for the coastal area near the Korean peninsula (Figure 1). MLDs at the stations 1 and 2 were nearly 12 m (Table 1).~~

~~Due to the oligotrophic characteristics of the TWC (Kwak et al., 2013), Chl-a concentration in the surface along the ship track were lower than 0.5 mg m⁻³ except for the coastal area near the Korean peninsula (Figure 2g). MLDs at the stations 1 and 2 were nearly 11 m (Table 1).~~

3.1.2 The North Pacific (NP)

The NP province is governed by the Western Subarctic Gyre (WSAG), which is operated by both its western boundary currents and the Subarctic Current. ~~the, The~~ The former is composed of the East Kamchatka and the Oyashio Currents, flowing off ~~southward along~~ the Kamchatka Peninsula, Kuril Islands, and Hokkaido southward (Yasuda, 1997) (Yasuda, 1997), ~~and~~ while the latter returns to the northeast ~~merging and merges~~ into the Kuroshio Extension (Kawai, 1972) (Kawai, 1972). The Subarctic Current is bounded by and mixes with the Kuroshio Extension, forming the Subarctic Front ~~south to southward into~~ WSAG. This front extends from the

Kuroshio-Oyashio ~~Confluence~~confluence region off ~~the~~the Hokkaido, where the Kuroshio Extension and the Oyashio ~~current are~~mixing~~Current~~ intermingle.

315 ~~Leaving~~Upon leaving the Tsugaru Strait, SST remained ~~almost~~nearly constant at ~~16~~— ~~17~~[°]C, while SSS fluctuated between 32.5 and 33.5_s, indicating ~~the~~ mixing of the weak Oyashio Current and the strong Kuroshio Extension ~~in the~~ offshore of ~~the~~the Hokkaido, where the Kuroshio-Oyashio confluence region is located, and the Subarctic Current forms along the Subarctic Front (Yasuda, 1997)(Yasuda, 1997). This Subarctic Front covers Stations 3 and 4 until 154.6[°]E_s, in front of Kuril islands, where ~~the~~ SST and SSS suddenly ~~decreased~~decreased by 6[°]C from 16.5[°]C and by 1 unit from 33.6, respectively, indicating entry into the WSAG (Yasuda, 1997)(Yasuda, 1997) (FigureFigures 1 and 2). In the WSAG, SST and SSS remained almost constant at 9[°]C and 32.8, respectively. Approaching Station 8, SST and SSS slightly increased by \sim 1[°]C and 0.2 units, respectively, alluding ~~the~~ crossing of a warm core ring. As WSAG crosses the Aleutian islands (Kuroda et al., 2021)(Kuroda et al., 2021), we extended the NP province to Station 9. WSAG is known as ~~a~~ high-nutrient low-chlorophyll (HNLC) region where primary production is ~~thought~~believed to be limited by the availability of dissolved iron (Fujiki et al., 2014)(Fujiki et al., 2014). This is reflected in the higher variability (0.2 mg m⁻³) and 325 mean value of *Chl-a* concentration (0.9 mg m⁻³) in NP compared to the marginal seas, ES and BS (Figure ~~4~~2g and Table 1). The MLD at NP stations ranges from ~~11~~— ~~14~~10 to ~~12~~11 m, except for Stations 5 and 9 where MLDs were ~~20~~18 m and ~~22~~21 m, respectively. Excluding these two stations, the mean MLD is similar to that in ES, but it would deepen to 14.5 m if including both stations are 330 included.

3.1.3 The Bering Sea (BS)

330 The Bering Sea is a marginal sea separated from the North Pacific by ~~the~~ Commander and Aleutian Islands. ~~In spite of~~ Despite this geographical separation, ~~the influence of~~ WSAG extends into the Bering Basin ~~mainly~~ primarily through Kamchatka and Nier Straits. ~~It~~ circulates cyclonically along the Bowers Ridge and Shirshov Ridge, ~~and return~~eventually returning to the North Pacific ~~through~~via the Kamchatka Strait ~~flowing~~, carried by the Kamchatka Current (Stabeno et al., 1999). ~~Thus~~(Stabeno et al., 1999). ~~Therefore~~, we extended the North Pacific province ~~over~~to include Station 9 (Figure 2).

335 Upon crossing ~~the~~longitude 176.4[°]E on July 25, ~~we observed a slight increase in~~ salinity ~~increased slightly~~, and ~~the~~ dissolved CO concentration suddenly soared, ~~suspecting~~suggesting ~~the~~ influence of other water masses. Indeed, the Alaskan Stream flows ~~westward~~westward from the Alaska Gyre, entering the Bering Basin through the Nier Strait and various Aleutian Passes, ~~most~~particularly Amchitka Pass. It then ~~veered~~veers cyclonically along the Bering slope toward the Kamchatka Peninsula, forming the Kamchatka Current (Stabeno and Reed, 1994)(Stabeno and Reed, 1994). ~~Upon~~After leaving Station 10, salinity fell from 32.64₆ 340 to 29.9 in just 8 hours, indicating the ~~entrance of~~encounter with different water masses.

The inner shelf of BS is dominated by the Alaska Coastal Current, which deliverers fresh ~~and~~low-nutrient water to BS ~~mainly~~, primarily through Unimak pass, ~~eventually reaching~~and ultimately reaches the Beaufort Sea in the Arctic though the Bering Strait (Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2006; Ladd and Stabeno, 2009). ~~Large~~The significant variation ~~of~~in SSS observed ~~in~~on the inner shelf of BS ~~suggest~~indicates a heterogeneous spatial distribution and relatively short residence time of the Alaska ~~current~~Current before 345 entering the Bering Strait. At Station 12, located near the Bering Strait, SST and SSS ~~were stark different~~significantly differed from

those observed on the inner shelf. Salinity reached the value values observed in the outer shelf, but the exceptionally low temperature was so low at ~, around 1°C suspecting, suggests the influence of water mass originating from the Gulf of Anadyr.

Chl-a concentration in the surface waters of BS was lower than that in NP, but similar to that in ES, with a mean value of 0.7 mg m⁻³. However, it significantly increased to over 8 mg m⁻³ near the Alaska coast at Station 12, likely due to the inflow of nutrients
350 from the Gulf of Anadyr. The MLD at the station in the Bering Basin was 4916 m, while it shoals to ~4211 m at the stations in the continental shelf.

355 **Table 1. Summary of the observed parameters in the different provinces. Data are presented as the average and standard deviation (1 σ), with the number of measurements or samples indicated in parentheses.**

Properties (units)	East Sea/Sea of Japan	North Pacific	Bering Sea
Air temperature (°C)	20.5 ± 1.3 (N = 85)	12.0 ± 2.8 (N = 140)	7.7 ± 0.5 (N = 91)
Air pressure (hPa)	1008.5 ± 3.9 (N = 85)	1006.4 ± 4.4 (N = 140)	1004.5 ± 4.2 (N = 91)
Relative humidity (%)	84 ± 8 (N = 85)	92 ± 3 (N = 140)	92 ± 4 (N = 91)
U _{10N} ^a (m s ⁻²)	6 ± 4 (N = 4791)	9 ± 2 (N = 10151)	8 ± 2 (N = 4663)
Irradiance (MJ m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	27.0 ± 0.4 (N = 283)	11.8 ± 3.4 (N = 1024)	8.9 ± 4.6 (N = 428)
SST ^b (°C)	21.3 ± 1.9 (N = 4755)	11.8 ± 3.0 (N = 10152)	8.3 ± 0.3 (N = 4662)
SSS ^b (psu)	32.8 ± 1.2 (N = 4755)	32.9 ± 0.3 (N = 10152)	31.9 ± 1.0 (N = 4662)
<i>Chl-a</i> (mg m ⁻³)	0.7 ± 0.4 (N = 4752)	0.9 ± 0.3 (N = 10152)	0.7 ± 0.4 (N = 4663)
MLD ^b (m)	11.4 ± 0.15 (N = 2)	13.97 ± 4.7 (N = 6)	16.5 ± 0.5 (12.7 ± 3.7 (N = 2))
<i>a_c</i> (412) ^c (m ⁻¹)	0.21 (N = 1)	0.16 ± 0.16 (N = 6)	0.17 (N = 1)
<i>k_{CO}</i> ^c (d ⁻¹ hr ⁻¹)	0.27 ± 0.08 (N = 2)	0.13 ± 0.82 (N = 4)	0.36 ± 0.73 (N = 2)
[CO] _{sea} (nM)	0.5 ± 0.4 (N = 80)	0.6 ± 0.4 (N = 140)	1.6 ± 1.3 (N = 91)
CO _{air} (nmol mol ⁻¹)	141 ± 38 (N = 85)	112 ± 29 (N = 99)	102 ± 10 (N = 74)
SA ^b	3.1 ± 2.7 (N = 80)	5.0 ± 4.4 (N = 99)	14.3 ± 13.8 (N = 74)
Air-sea CO flux W92 ^d (μmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	0.8 ± 0.9 (N = 80)	2.2 ± 3.0 (N = 99)	6.1 ± 6.7 (N = 74)
N00 ^e	0.7 ± 0.8 (N = 80)	1.7 ± 2.3 (N = 99)	4.8 ± 5.3 (N = 74)

W14 ^f	0.6 ± 0.8 (N = 80)	1.7 ± 2.4 (N = 99)	5.0 ± 5.4 (N = 74)
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^a Neutral wind speed at 10 m high.

^b SST, SSS, MLD, and SA stand for sea surface temperature, sea surface salinity, mixed layer depth, and saturation anomaly, respectively.

^c a_c (412) and k_{CO} designate absorption coefficient of CDOM at the wavelength of 412 nm and microbial oxidation constant, respectively.

^{d,e,f} Gas transfer velocity parameterizations by Wanninkhof (2012), ^{d,e,f} Gas transfer velocity parameterizations by Wanninkhof (1992), Nightingale et al. (2000), and Wanninkhof (2014), respectively.

, and Wanninkhof (2014), respectively.

365 3.2 Atmospheric situations

Air temperature and pressure, and daily insolation generally ~~decreased~~decrease with increasing latitude (Table 1). Following SST, air temperature was as high as 25°C in the Ulleung Basin of ES and gradually decreased ~~down~~to 16°C until R/V *Araon* passed the Tsugaru Strait. Upon leaving the strait, the air temperature dropped by 7°C and then continued to decrease slowly to 10°C in front of Nome. Air pressure was high in ES (1008 hPa) and low in NP (1006 hPa) and BS (1005 hPa). This pressure gradient along the ship track is ~~visible~~reflected in the insolation, with cloudy or overcast conditions in NP and BS, and sunny in ES, where the irradiance was ~~greater~~more than twice that in NP and BS (Figure 2c). Wind speed ~~was~~showed an opposite ~~to the~~to trend ~~of~~to air pressure and insolation, with the mean U_{10N} in ES was 6.2 m s⁻¹, approximately 2/3 of that in NP and BS.

370 3.3 CO in the surface mixed layer and overlying air

During the expedition, ~~atmospheric CO concentration was~~we measured mole fraction of CO in the atmosphere using two different analytical systems. An automated analysis system measured surface CO at the marine boundary layer and the CO mole fractions in the surface mixed layer; while of the ocean and the overlying air. Additionally, we used an Off-Axis Integrated Cavity Output Spectroscopy (Off-Axis ICOS: N₂O/CO analyzer; Los Gatos Research, USA) ~~was used~~ to observe highly resolved variability ~~of~~in CO ~~in~~within the surface marine boundary layer (Park and Rhee, 2015)(Park and Rhee, 2015). ~~Difference~~The mean absolute difference in atmospheric CO mole fractions between the two analytical techniques was only ~~5.8 (±6.1)~~3.2 nmol mol⁻¹ for this campaign, ~~indicating that~~demonstrating our measurements were ~~reliable~~. We ~~further~~in reasonable agreement (see Figure S1 in Park and Rhee (2015)). Furthermore, we confirmed the consistency of our measurements ~~were comparable to the~~with values obtained at the stations run by NOAA/ESRL global network stations (<https://gml.noaa.gov/>) located ~~nearby~~near our cruise track or within the same latitudinal zone within a 3- to 5-day time window to our onboard observations (Figure 2a). Atmospheric CO mole fractions (CO_{air}) ~~varied by about~~displayed significant variability, with approximately a 30% ~~with respect~~variation relative to the mean value of 118 nmol mol⁻¹, revealing a large. This variability is associated with various sources, including anthropogenic emissions in the Northern hemisphere (Park and Rhee, 2015). This is further supported by Hemisphere, particularly in the Chinese mainland and Korean Peninsula as discussed in Park and Rhee (2015). Additionally, the decreasing trend ~~of~~in provincial mean values ~~as the~~

appears to be influenced by factors such as distance from the anthropogenic source area increases areas and, in the northern sections, contributions from wildfires in East Siberia.

390 Diurnal The diurnal variation of the dissolved CO concentration concentrations ([CO]) in surface waters shows exhibits a marked fluctuation following solar irradiance, indicating that photochemical CO production is the main driver (Conrad et al., 1982; Ohta, 1997; Zafiriou et al., 2008). However, this typical diurnal oscillation disappears in the area around the Aleutian archipelago, due probably to overcast conditions along the cruise track (Figure 2c), and in the Bering Sea with decreasing solar irradiance. Except for July 25 and 26, daily minimum values range from 0.04 nmol kg⁻¹ to 0.63 nmol kg⁻¹, and maximum values range from 395 0.47 nmol kg⁻¹ to 2.09 nmol kg⁻¹, respectively. Along the cruise track, the minimum and maximum dissolved [CO] were 0.04 nmol kg⁻¹ and 4.6 nmol kg⁻¹, respectively, varying over 100% with respect to an average of 0.8 (±0.9) nmol kg⁻¹. The maximum value appeared near the central Bering Sea on July 25. Our mean value is slightly lower than the values observed in other areas due probably to lower productivity evidenced by low Chl *a* concentration along the cruise track and to the overcast conditions (Figure 2e and g) in the central Bering Sea on July 25.

400 Our mean value is slightly lower than or comparable to the Pacific mean value, 1.0 nmol kg⁻¹ (Bates et al., 1995), the mean observed in the Sargasso Sea, 1.1±0.5 nmol kg⁻¹ (Zafiriou et al., 2008), and the mean at the tropical south Pacific station, approximately 1 nmol kg⁻¹ (Johnson and Bates, 1996). It is important to note that our study area, along with the mentioned regions, all falls under the category of Case 1 waters, where the Chl-*a* concentration can serve as a proxy for CDOM production, as discussed in Steinberg et al. (2004). Therefore, the combination of low productivity and overcast conditions can partially explain our lower mean CO 405 concentration (Figures 2c&g).

3.4 Spectral CDOM absorbance

The optical properties of CDOM can be characterized by its absorption coefficient at a reference wavelength, λ_0 (= 412 nm), denoted by $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$, and its slope (S) defined in Eq. (2) (Bricaud et al., 1981). α_c as $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$, and its slope (S) as defined in Equation (3) (Bricaud et al., 1981). $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$ reflects the CDOM content in the seawater, while S indicates either the source of CDOM or its 410 degradation process. The spectral profile of $\alpha_c(\lambda)$ in surface seawater decreases exponentially with increasing wavelength (Figure 3a). Fitting the raw data into Eq. (2) (Equation (3)) reveals that the $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$ ranged from 0.031 m⁻¹ (Station 9) to 0.26 m⁻¹ (Station 4). In Figure 3b shows that, logarithmic values of $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$ are inversely correlated with S over the 350–600 nm wavelength range. This inverse relationship is consistent with the observations in the Atlantic Ocean (Kittidas et al., 2006), implying similarities in the 415 biogeochemical properties of CDOM between the Atlantic and Pacific open oceans. Nonetheless, the values of $\alpha_c(\lambda_0)$ and S obtained in this study are relatively high and low, respectively, compared to those in the Atlantic, possibly due to the influence of CDOM sources in the marginal seas adjacent to the Pacific Ocean and relatively short photo-bleaching processes occurring in the open ocean (Brzezinski et al., 2003; Vodacek et al., 1997).

The values of $\alpha_c(\lambda)$ at the measured wavelengths showed clear separation into two groups: marginal sea group in ES (Station 1) and BS (Station 11), and open-sea group in NP (Stations 5–9). Even though Although Stations 3 and 4 belong to the NP province,

420 the spectra of $\alpha_e a_c(\lambda)$ at these stations are quite different from those observed at Stations 5 to 9, ~~but~~. Instead, they are similar to those in ES and BS. This suggests that the composition of CDOM at Stations 3 and 4 should be influenced by the continental sources (e.g., Vodacek et al. (1997)) by means of the Kuroshio Current flowing northward along the Japanese east coast and of the Oyashio Current which meanders in the Okhotsk Sea. As mentioned earlier, the surface waters at Stations 3 and 4 are located in the Kuroshio-Oyashio ~~Confluence Zone~~ confluence zone as their mean SST ($=15.5 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$) and SSS ($=33.0 \pm 0.4$) were higher than those for 425 Stations 5–9 by 6.1°C and 0.25, respectively (Figure 22f). The $\alpha_e a_c(\lambda)$ spectra are consistent with this physical setting of Stations 3 and 4 (Yamashita et al., 2010; Takao et al., 2014).

3.5 Microbial ~~oxidation~~ CO consumption rate ~~coefficient~~ constants

Figure 4a–c shows the results from the dark incubation experiments carried out onboard. Despite our careful experiments, we do not observe a reduction in dissolved [CO] over time due to microbial oxidation, as would be expected. This could be attributed to 430 various factors, such as an inadequate blank correction, the existence of a threshold [CO] for consumption (Xie et al., 2005), or the possibility of dark production of CO (Li et al., 2015) (Zhang et al., 2008). Nonetheless, we applied a first-order decay function to extract the main trend of CO oxidation, despite the considerable errors caused by the scattered data.

The k_{CO} in the surface mixed layer ~~varied exhibited significant variability, ranging~~ from 0.001 hr^{-1} to 0.46465 hr^{-1} , with an average of $0.22 \pm 0.4513 \text{ hr}^{-1}$ (Figure 4d). ~~Minimum~~ The minimum and maximum k_{CO} ~~values~~ were ~~observed obtained~~ at Station 9 in NP and 435 at Station 11 in BS, respectively. ~~The mean~~ Mean k_{CO} values in ES, NP, and BS ~~are were determined at~~ $0.27 \pm 0.0705 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, $0.47 \pm 0.13 \pm 0.3515 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, and $0.36 \pm 0.6439 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, respectively. The decrease ~~of~~ in the mean k_{CO} values from the marginal seas to the open oceans ~~is consistent aligns~~ with ~~the finding of~~ previous ~~studies~~ findings compiled by ~~by~~ Xie et al. (2005), ~~suggesting that high Chl-indicating~~ a ~~or~~ active primary productivity can serve as an indicator of the activity of CO-oxidizing microbes. Furthermore, decreasing trend in k_{CO} from bay to offshore areas. Xie et al. (2005) speculated that the high k_{CO} ~~observed~~ in the 440 Beaufort Sea in their study might ~~reflect the fact that be due to~~ the Arctic Ocean ~~receives large receiving substantial~~ inputs of terrestrial organic carbon ~~favoring, which promote~~ the growth of microbial communities. ~~In fact, it was found the~~ Indeed, considerable fluvial input of organic carbon ~~has been observed~~ over the Bering Sea near the Arctic Ocean (Walvoord and Striegl, 2007; Mathis et al., 2005). ~~If~~ This could partially explain the higher k_{CO} in the Bering Sea ~~than incomparable to~~ the East Sea, despite both being ~~the~~ marginal seas. Nonetheless, as Figure 4d shows, the mean k_{CO} values in the marginal seas (ES and BS) and at Station 445 4 in NP are larger than the values measured in NP, alluding a division of microbial activities between terrestrial and open ocean influences. As indicated by the absorption spectrum of the CDOM, the MLD water masses at Station 4 should be affected by the terrestrial input.

3.6 CO budget in the mixed layer

3.6.1 Photochemical production (J)

450 The photochemical production rate would ~~have declined~~~~typically decrease~~ with increasing latitude if it ~~simply depended~~~~were solely dependent~~ on the daily integrated insolation (Table 1 and Figure 5). However, ~~the~~ provincial mean J value in ES was approximately ~~3.5 times~~~~twice~~ larger than that in NP and BS, ~~while there~~. ~~There~~ was little difference between NP and BS ~~due, despite the lower insolation in BS. This anomaly can be attributed~~ to the high CDOM content of CDOM in BS (Table 21 and Figure 3a). The ~~high~~~~elevated~~ J value in ES ~~is due~~~~can be attributed~~ to a ~~synergistic~~~~the combined~~ effect of both high insolation and ~~high~~~~a significant~~ CDOM ~~content~~~~presence~~ in the surface seawater. At Stations 3 and 4, the reduced insolation was ~~slightly~~ ~~offset~~~~somewhat compensated for~~ by the high CDOM content (Figure 3a), resulting in a ~~J value~~ similar ~~J value~~ to that at the other stations in NP. The photochemical production rates of $69 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in ES is comparable to those reported in oligotrophic regions, e.g., 68 and $52 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in Spring and August, respectively, at BATS (Zafiriou et al., 2008), and 56 and $83 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ at Southern Pacific Gyre (SPG) and the Pacific equatorial upwelling (PEU) zone, respectively (Johnson and Bates, 1996). On the other hand, the J values in NP and BS ($\sim 20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) are lower due to declining insolation with latitude and lower CDOM content in NP, as mentioned above (Table 1).
455 The photochemical production rates of 56 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in ES is comparable to those reported in oligotrophic regions, e.g., 68 and $52 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in Spring and August, respectively, at BATS (Zafiriou et al., 2008), and 56 and $83 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ at Southern Pacific Gyre (SPG) and the Pacific equatorial upwelling (PEU) zone, respectively (Johnson and Bates, 1996). On the other hand, the J values in NP and BS ($\sim 30 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) are lower due to declining insolation with latitude and lower CDOM content in NP, as mentioned above (Table 1 and Figure 3a).
460

Table 2. Daily mean CO budget ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) in the mixed layer of the given provinces ~~based on the observations at the hydrographic stations. Uncertainties indicate standard errors ($= 1\sigma/\sqrt{n}$)~~.

Province	Photochemical production (J)	Microbial oxidation (M)	Air-sea flux (F)	Vertical diffusion (V)
East Sea/Sea of Japan	69 ± 49 56 ± 15	33 ± 22 30 ± 8	0.34 ± 0.1	0.43 ± 0.44
North Pacific	20 ± 11 27 ± 3	22 ± 11 24 ± 5	2.0 ± 1.7 0.3	0.57 ± 0.4
Bering Sea	49 ± 7 26 ± 2	77 ± 32 63 ± 19	$32.7 \pm$ $3.91.7$	$40.3 \pm 0.2 \pm 1.4$

3.6.2 Microbial oxidation (M)

The microbial oxidation rates were ~~highest~~higher in the marginal seas of ES and BS, which is ~~mostly~~ attributed to the high k_{CO} , ~~as in those two provinces, despite~~ the ~~relatively low~~ mean dissolved [CO] in the ~~provinces were similar~~ (TableES (Tables 1 and 2). Station 10 had the highest microbial oxidation rate of ~~10099~~ $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, while Station 9 showed the lowest value of ~~0.48~~ $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. This result is due to the high k_{CO} and exceptionally high surface [CO] near Station 10 (Figure 2b). By leaving aside Station 9, the M values range an order of magnitude with the second lowest value of ~~16.8~~14.4 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ at Station ~~46~~, and it does not show any dependence on latitude. Compared to microbial oxidation rates obtained at BATS, SPG, and PEU that ranged from 22 to $45 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Zafiriou et al., 2008; Johnson and Bates, 1996), the high mean value in BS can be attributed to the distinct microbial community structure or biomass of CO-oxidizing species.

480 3.6.3 Air-sea flux (F)

The air-sea CO flux depends on both the [CO] difference between the surface seawater and the overlying air and by gas transfer velocity, mainly driven by wind speed (see Eq. (10)Equation (11)). The former is sometimes transformed to saturation anomaly ($SA = \frac{c_w}{c_a} - 1$; Figure 2b) which directly indicates whether the ocean is a source or sink for atmospheric CO. Throughout the campaign, most of the dissolved CO remained supersaturated, spanning over two orders of magnitude in SA, e.g. -0.6 to 51 , resulting in outgassing of CO from the ocean to the atmosphere. Mean SA in provinces increase with latitude due to increase of dissolved [CO] and in part to decrease of atmospheric CO concentration (Table 1).

~~The daily mean air-sea CO fluxes ranged from 0.1 to $20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, resulting in an average of $2.04 \pm 3.76 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ over the cruise track (Table 1). The mean F values of the provinces are, however, quite different, with the lowest value in ES ($0.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) and the highest in BS ($3.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). In NP, the air-sea flux ($2.0 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) is comparable to those observed in the open ocean: 2.2 ± 1.5 and $2.7 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the North and South Atlantic, respectively (Park and Rhee, 2016); $2.93 \pm 2.11 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the oligotrophic Atlantic Ocean (Zafiriou et al., 2008); $2.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the oligotrophic equatorial Pacific Ocean (Johnson and Bates, 1996); $1.94 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in NP between 30 – 45°N in Summer (Bates et al., 1995). On the other hand, both marginal seas, ES and BS show stark different in air-sea flux; that in ES is even lower than in NP due to higher atmospheric CO concentration and weaker wind speed in ES. However, in BS dissolved [CO] was the highest among the three provinces and wind was strong. Even the air-sea fluxes observed near the Bering continental slope on July 25 were orders of magnitude higher than any other expedition period. Such a high outgassing rate has been reported in the productive regions, e.g. $22.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in central Pacific (Johnson and Bates, 1996); 4.6 – $9.6 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in Mauritanian upwelling (Kitidis et al., 2011), and $5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the northern California upwelling. The air-sea CO flux densities ranged from -0.5 to $19 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Figure 2e), resulting in an average of $2.0(\pm 3.6) \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ over the cruise track. The mean F values of the provinces are, however, quite different, with the lowest value in ES ($0.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) and the highest in BS ($2.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). In NP, the air-sea flux ($1.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) is comparable to those observed in the open ocean: $2.2(\pm 1.5)$ and $2.7(\pm 1.9) \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the North~~

and South Atlantic, respectively (Park and Rhee, 2016): $2.93(\pm 2.11) \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the oligotrophic Atlantic Ocean (Zafiriou et al., 2008); $2.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the oligotrophic equatorial Pacific Ocean (Johnson and Bates, 1996), $1.94 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in NP between $30 - 45^\circ\text{N}$ in Summer (Bates et al., 1995). On the other hand, both marginal seas, ES and BS show stark different in air-sea flux; that in ES is even lower than in NP due to higher atmospheric CO concentration and weaker wind speed in ES. However, in BS dissolved [CO] was the highest among the three provinces and wind was strong. Even the air-sea fluxes observed near the Bering continental slope on July 25 were orders of magnitude higher than any other expedition period. Such a high outgassing rate has been reported in the productive regions, e.g. $22.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in central Pacific (Johnson and Bates, 1996), $4.6 - 9.6 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in Mauritanian upwelling (ConteKtidis et al., 2019; Fiehet and Benner, 2011; Armbrust, 2009; Bates et al., 2012).

, and $5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the northern California upwelling (Day and Faloona, 2009). Compared to the microbial oxidation (M), the outgassing by air-sea gas exchange plays a minor role as a sink; their fractions in the sink strength are merely from $0.91.3\%$ in ES to 86.4% in NP (Table 2).

3.6.4 Vertical diffusion (V)

The vertical diffusion rate, V , relies on the eddy diffusivity and the gradient of dissolved CO concentration at the bottom of the mixed layer. DailyMost of the daily mean eddy diffusivities varied from $9.3 \times 10^8 \times 10^{-5}$ (Station 11) to $4.0 \times 10^3 \times 37 \times 10^{-5}$ (Station 6) $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$, increasing with latitude due to lesser stratification of the water column in theywhile notably high latitudes values were estimated at Stations 2 ($74 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$) and 10 ($120 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$). The vertical diffusion rate of dissolved CO at the bottom of the mixed layer was $0.626 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ on average, with the exception at Station 2 where V acted as a source of $0.51 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Figure 5). The V term accounts for approximately 2534% of the gas exchange rate and only 2% of the photochemical production of CO on average, demonstrating that the vertical diffusion is negligible for the marine CO cycle, as noted by Zafiriou et al. (2008).

3.6.5 CO budget

According to a simple budget calculation by Eq (3Equation 4), we estimated the CO budget in the surface mixed layer at each station (Figure 5). The CO budget was balanced in the open ocean, NP, but not in the marginal seas, ES and BS, although. However, it is important to note that the large uncertainties in the budget terms leave room for potential balance. The CO cycle in ES was dominated by photochemical production, which was approximately twice as large as the entire sink strengths, while strong microbial oxidation in BS resulted in a net sink in the mixed layer of $\sim 60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$, which is approximately three times twice larger than the photochemical production. Although the uncertainties in budget terms in ES and BS are fairly large, their mean values suggest that the CO cycles in ES and BS require external CO transport in the water column to stay in steady state during the observation period.

3.7 COVertical distribution and column burden of CO

In general, [CO] exponentially decreases with depth in water column due to limited penetration of short-wavelength radiation that effectively stimulates the CO production (Conrad et al., 1982; Johnson and Bates, 1996; Kettle, 2005; Zafiriou et al., 2008).

This typical depth-profile pattern was observed at the stations in NP, while the vertical [CO] profiles at stations in BS showed very low concentrations in MLD (~0.6 nM). In ES, [CO] remained around 1 nM even at the aphotic deep water without any vertical gradients (Figure 6a–c). Excluding Stations 1 and 2, the minimum and maximum CO concentrations in MLD were $0.80 \pm (\pm 0.19)$ nmol kg⁻¹ (Station 10) and $3.32 \pm (\pm 0.23)$ nmol kg⁻¹ (Station 3), respectively, and the mean value was 1.83 nmol kg⁻¹. At depths deeper than 200 m, the CO concentrations converge toward the value less than the detection limit (<0.21 nmol kg⁻¹).

Surface CO concentrations at some of stations in ES and NP appear to differ from the values observed underway (see Figure 2b). This discrepancy can be attributed to the significant horizontal and vertical variabilities of CO concentrations driven by the rapid photochemical production and microbial oxidation evidenced by the strong diurnal cycle and the exponential decrease with depth (e.g., Zafiriou et al. (2008)). This diurnal variation is more pronounced at lower latitude than at higher latitudes (Figure 2b). The column burden of CO latitudinal attenuation of the diurnal amplitude trend is evident in the degree to which dissolved CO concentrations exponentially decrease with depth (see Figures 6a–c).

We assessed the impact of this vertical gradient of the CO to the difference in CO concentration between underway and discrete measurements (Figure S6). Given the coarse resolution of the CO profiles, we first applied curve fitting to the profile and estimated the vertical gradient of dissolved CO at the depth at which the seawater was calculated at each station by continuously supplied for the underway observation of surface CO concentrations. As illustrated in Figure S6, a greater vertical gradient at the depth of the seawater inlet to the underway system corresponds to a larger difference in CO concentrations between the underway observation and discrete measurement. In addition to the vertical gradient, horizontal variability likely plays a role in the difference of the CO concentrations between the two methods, as evidenced at Stations 8 and 9 (Figure 2b).

Another factor to consider when comparing surface CO concentrations using the two methods is that continuous observation in underway system can mitigate the presence of high or low spikes in dissolved CO concentrations due to the long equilibration time associated with sparingly soluble gases, such as CO (Johnson, 1999). Considering these spatial variabilities in CO concentrations and the dynamic equilibration occurring in the underway system, it is possible to obtain different CO concentrations using the two sampling methods for measuring dissolved CO.

By integrating the observed vertical profile of CO over 200 m depth, we computed the column burden of CO at each station (CB₂₀₀; Figure 6b6a–d). The mean CB₂₀₀ values were $483 \pm 183.7 \pm 51.14$ $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in ES, 66.0 ± 27.1 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in NP, and 13.2 ± 1.2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in BS, drastically decreasing with latitude, contrary to the gradual slight increase of the surface CO concentration ([CO]_{sea}) due likely to the decrease of insolation with increasing latitude. Our CB₂₀₀ values in NP and BS are roughly similar to the values reported in oligotrophic areas. The CB₂₀₀ from the Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study (BATS) station was $95 \pm 1\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in March and $39 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in August (Zafiriou et al., 2008) and the CB₂₀₀ within the Southern Pacific Gyre (SPG) was $51 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in April (Johnson and Bates, 1996). In contrast, the large CB₂₀₀ value in ES is of the same order of magnitude as the column burden of CO in the productive Pacific Equatorial Upwelling (PEU) zone in December ($283 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$; Johnson and Bates (1996)).

We also calculated the column burden of CO within the MLD (CB_{MLD}; Figure 6e) at each station to examine whether the CO dynamics in MLD can be representative of that in the whole water column accounting for the predominant photochemical production

of the CO in the surface mixed layer (Johnson and Bates, 1996), but rather homogeneous microbial oxidation in the water column (Kettle, 2005a; Gnanadesikan, 1996). Contrary to CB_{200} , the CB_{MLD} does not exhibit any consistent trend among the provinces.

3.8 Different trends between CB_{200} and CB_{MLD}

570 In this study, we calculated the CO budget within the MLD, the difference between the biogeochemical source and sink terms of CO, as well as the absolute total column burden of CO in the water column, based on observations of various parameters. Several key points can be summarized as follows: Firstly, we found that the biogeochemical production and removal of CO are nearly balanced only in the NP, whereas in the BS, the sink term significantly outweighs the source term, resulting in an imbalance in the CO budget. Secondly, despite the CO budget values in NP and BS being close to or below zero, there are no distinct differences in 575 CB_{MLD} between the provinces, and no apparent relationship between CB_{MLD} and the CO budget in the mixed layer, as shown in Figure 7a ($R^2=0.02$). Thirdly, when considering the integrated CO down to a depth of 200 (CB_{200}), we observed a significant correlation, indicating an increasing trend in the order of BS, NP, and ES ($R^2=0.25$; Figure 7b). This finding may seem 580 counterintuitive as the relative magnitude of the column burden should not change with the integration depth below MLD. This is based on the assumption that vertical turbulence diffusion has a minimal impact on the CO cycle (see Table 2), and photochemical CO production predominantly occurs in the euphotic zone within MLD. To interpret these results, we cautiously propose the importance of the three-dimensional physical supply processes of CO based on the observed vertical distribution of the CO.

3.9 Implications for potential missing processes

585 In ES, the upper 30-m MLD of the water column accounted for ~8% of the CB_{200} on average, reflecting. This distribution reflects a relatively even distribution uniform concentration of CO regardless of depth. In contrast, in the NP and BS, the upper 30 m in NP and BS MLD accounted for ~47% and ~73% of the CB_{200} , respectively, indicating a more concentrated distributions within the upper surface layer.

590 The high CB_{200} -unique vertical distribution of CO in ES stations, characterized by minimal variation with depth, is clearly evident in Figure 5. While the highest concentrations are observed within the surface MLD, CO levels remain relatively high even at depths below, where concentrations should ideally fall below the detection limit. The relatively uniform distribution of high CO concentrations at the ES stations can be attributed to the active photochemical production driven by the high CDOM absorbance and insolation (Table 1). On the other hand, in NP, the production rate was approximately balanced with sink terms and the CB_{200} showed intermediate values (Figures 5 and 6). Despite the extremely low J value, the CB_{200} at Station 9 was similar to that of the other stations in NP due to the low microbial oxidation rate (M). In BS where the removal rate was fairly high relative to the production rate, the CB_{200} was lowest, but did not reach to zero. We did not observe a significant correlation between the column burden integrated within the surface MLD (CB_{MLD}) and the CO budget based on Eq 2; however, we found the meaningful relationship between the CB_{200} and the CO budget subduction of surface water with elevated CO levels, as shown in Figure 7.

4 Discussion

Although it is commonly assumed that the column burden is governed by biogeochemical budget, the CB_{MLD} values for the three provinces do not show any clear differences, and there is no relationship between CB_{MLD} and the CO budget in the mixed layer (figure 7a). In contrast, CB_{200} is much higher than CB_{MLD} in ES, while CB_{200} is not much different from CB_{MLD} in BS. This results in a relatively clear relationship between the CO budget and CB_{200} (Figure 7b), which is counterintuitive since the relative magnitude of column burden should not change depending on the integration depth below MLD as the vertical turbulence diffusion is not a significant factor in the CO cycle (see Table 2).

Figure 7 provides insight into why high CB_{200} in ES may be due to the supply of CO from the sea surface by subduction, while CO in BS could be supplied by surface lateral fluxes from hotspots of CO production. Given that 1) neither significant penetration of irradiance to depth deeper than 100 meters, nor is there vigorous vertical mixing capable of overwhelming microbial oxidation are found observed in the ES province ES and 2) the fairly high ratio of source to sink strengths in the mixed layer (Figure 5) was not reflected in CB_{MLD} , but in CB_{200} , the vertically little varied distribution of high CO at the ES stations could be attributed to the subduction of high CO surface water (see Figures S3c&d). We hypothesize that the subduction of surface water is driven by warm core eddies, such as the Ulleung Warm Eddy (UWE), which is derived from the warm core of its subsurface structure (Kim and Yoon, 1999) and originates from the East Korean Warm Current, a northward branch of the Tsushima Warm Current (Shin et al., 2005). Under the right convergent conditions that forms warm core eddies, warmer (and high CO) surface waters can converge and be down-welled to the depth deeper than 100 m depth (Shin et al., 2005). Given that several studies (Isoda and Saitoh, 1993; Capotondi et al., 2019; Ichiye and Takano, 1988) describe the eddies with the core temperature and salinity of 5–10°C and 34.1–34.3 near 200 m depth, Station 1 appears to be located at the edge of a warm core eddy (Figure S3 Figures S8a&b). This unique feature of a dynamic eddying flow field that subducts surface water with high concentrations of organic carbon and dissolved oxygen has also been observed in North Atlantic Ocean (Omand et al., 2015).

The behavior of CO in the BS province of BS appears to be influenced by lateral transports, as opposed to unlike ES, where subduction of high-CO surface water might be responsible. In this area, [CO] remained above ~0.5 nM in the upper layers (Figure 6c) although the total sink strengths were much higher than source strength. Moreover, a significant peak in surface [CO] was observed around Station 10 (Figure 2b) despite the small column burden of BS. These observations imply that the CO inventory in the water column cannot be fully explained only by the biogeochemical processes with Eulerian approach. Station 10 is located at the eastern boundary of the Aleutian Basin where the bottom depth is drastically altered (Figure 1). The Bering Slope Current (BSC; Kinder et al. (1975) Figures 1&2f). The Bering Slope Current (BSC; Kinder et al. (1975)) flows northwestwards along the slope passing through this station. At around 54°N, 167°W where the BSC starts, the Alaska Current (AC), which has high concentration of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) originated from Alaska coastal runoff, mixes with BSC (Chen et al., 2009). According to D'sa et al. (2014), the DOC concentrations is (Chen et al., 2009). According to D'sa et al. (2014), the DOC concentrations are twice as high as the surrounding waters at this point. Given that the mean velocity of BSC is about 34 km d^{-1} (Ladd and Stabeno, 2009), this water of high photoproduction (Ladd and Stabeno, 2009), this water of high photochemical CO

630 production from replete organic carbon may potentially influence the area of Station 10. The sudden decrease of SSS right after passing through Station 10 also implies potential freshwater contribution. Similarly, the column burden at Station 11 is comparable to other stations despite the higher sink strengths than the source strength, which can be explained by the lateral flux of high CO surface waters from the coastal region. Station 12, located near Station 11, is in the coastal area of Alaska (Figure 1) can be defined as an independent station not belonging to any provinces defined in this study. [Aagaard et al. \(2012\)](#)[Aagaard et al. \(2012\)](#) reported 635 considerable horizontal shears and large lateral transports near Station 12 in the Bering Strait. The strong horizontal velocities and shallowness of the water columns can lead to interaction between surface-forced and bottom-forced boundaries. We found that the water column of Station 12 is relatively well-mixed, as indicated by the CTD profiles of this station ([Figure S3](#)[Figures S8j-l](#)). While CB_{MLD} of Station 12 shows a low value (Figure 7a), the column burden over the total water column (~40 m) of the station shows a 640 high value comparable with the values of ES stations: ([Figure 7b](#)). Therefore, the high CO coastal water near Station 12 can be considered a source for high column burden relative to the low production rate of Station 11.

The previous studies suggested that horizontal advection and lateral stirring across a front can drive much of the sub-mesoscale heterogeneity in $p\text{CO}_2$ ([Mahadevan et al., 2004](#))[\(Mahadevan et al., 2004\)](#). Other recent studies have also shown that lateral transport can explain the observed distribution of methane (CH_4) and dimethyl sulfide (DMS) in high latitude regions (Asher et al., 2011; Pohlman et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2017). Zafiriou et al. (2008) and [Conte et al. \(2021\)](#) and [Conte et al. \(2019\)](#) have also mentioned a 645 potential influence of horizontal processes of different water masses on CO profiles in low latitude oligotrophic region. GivenBased on these studies, the horizontal transport could be one of explanations for help explain the missing discrepancies in the observed CO budget observed in this study.

In the province NP, thea typical exponential featurepattern of vertical gradientgradients in dissolved [CO] appearedwellinwas observed at all stations (Figure 6b). StrongA pronounced decrease in [CO] occurred inwas evidentwithin the surface mixed layer, 650 indicating the photochemical degradation of CDOM following the penetration depth of short-wavelength radiation. Duetothe broadspatialcoverageofthisprovince,however,thereseemstobedifferentphysicalinfluencesatlocalscales.ParticularlyHowever,duetotheextensivespatialcoverageofthisprovince,thereappeartobevaryinglocal-scalephysicalinfluences.Inparticular,Stations3and4exhibitedarelativelysteepdeclineinCOconcentrationbetweentheMLDandthelayersbelowcomparedtootherstations.Inthesetwostations,thelowerlayersshowedslightlylowerCOconcentrations.Incontrast,atotherstations,thedeclineinCOconcentrationwaslesspronounced,andtheconcentrationsbelowtheMLDwererelativelyhigher.AsshowninFigureS7e,Stations3and4hadalargerdifferenceinseawatertemperaturebetweentheMLDandthelowerlayers,resultinginagreaterdensitycontrast.Thissuggeststhatthesestationsexperiencedlessinfluencefromdiffusionbelowthemixedlayer.

Additionally, the warm-core eddy signal was found at Station 8 like at Station 1 given that the CO concentrations at depth are also high at the station. The slight increase of SST and SSS when passing through Station 8 (Figure 2f) imply the influence of warm-660 core eddy. Moreover, two large eddies formed at both sides of Station 8 in Figure 1 also suggests the strong potential of the influences of those eddies. This is evidenced by the largest value of CB₂₀₀ at Station 8 among the stations in NP due to high dissolved [CO] in the water column, again pointing to the significant contribution of the lateral transport by subduction processes as well.

54 Summary and conclusions

Along the cruise track from the East Sea to the Bering Sea passing through the western limb of the North Pacific in summer 2012, 665 we measured the concentration of CO and the relevant parameters in water columns for the first time. -We divided the cruise track into three provinces, the East Sea (ES), the North Pacific (NP), and the Bering Sea (BS) and compared the CO cycles measured along the hydrographic stations. Photochemical production and microbial oxidation were the key drivers governing the CO budgets over the provinces while air-sea gas exchange and vertical transport play minor roles. The CO budgets were not balanced in the marginal seas, ES and BS, while ~~that in~~ the open ocean (NP) ~~was in balance, elucidating exhibited a balanced budget. This highlights~~ 670 the significant contribution of physical transport, both in the marginal seas and ~~probably potentially~~ even in the open ocean in a local scale. The imbalance of CO budget was further investigated by calculating the CO column burden. The CB₂₀₀ was the highest in the East Sea due likely to subduction of high CO water into the intermediate depth as well as high production rate in the upper layers. The lowest CB₂₀₀ in the Bering Sea stemmed from weak insolation and vigorous microbial oxidation. Despite greater removal than production, our observations suggests that lateral transports of high CO surface water supply CO in the surface layer in this 675 area. The North Pacific, where production and oxidation rates were approximately in balance, showed the intermediate CB₂₀₀ value. ~~Depending on In~~ the ~~geographical locations in NP, signature the influence of influences by the~~ fluvial input or ~~the~~ strong vertical mixing ~~were found was observed at different geographical locations.~~ Our study suggests that the physical transport play a significant role in distributing CO in water columns, even in the open ocean, which should be considered in global ocean CO modelling.

Conflict of Interest

680 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

YS conducted measurements of CO concentration and the oxidation rate constant during the research cruise and wrote the initial draft of the manuscript. TS developed the overall observational plan, designed the observation systems required for underway and 685 discrete CO concentration measurements, and wrote the manuscript together with YS. HC provides CDOM data and HW helped interpret physical oceanography, provided crucial insights, and conducted physical modelling experiments to support our hypotheses. All authors participated in the manuscript's revision process and have approved the final submitted version.

Data availability

All the datasets used in this paper are available at kpdc.kopri.re.kr.

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