| 1  | Distinct basin-scale-distributions of aluminum, manganese, cobalt, and lead in the North   |
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| 2  | Pacific Ocean  |
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| 15 | Abstract   |
| 16 | Aluminum (Al), manganese (Mn), cobalt (Co), and lead (Pb) are key trace elements   |
| 17 | in seawater and thus significant in chemical oceanography research. However, although all of                                     |
| 18 | these elements are highly scavenged in the ocean, only a few studies focus on the  |
| 19 | intercomparison of their distributions. Here, we report the basin-scale and full-depth sectional                                 |
| 20 | distributions of these elements observed during three GEOTRACES Japan cruises in the   |
| 21 | North Pacific. We confirmed that a surface maximum of the dissolved (d) species is not a   |
| 22 | common feature for the four elements and that the d species have the lowest concentrations in                                    |
| 23 | the Pacific Deep Water (PDW) as compared to other oceans. The elements showed different  |
| 24 | speciations and distributions. The fraction of labile particulate (lp) species was calculated as                                 |
| 25 | the difference between the total dissolvable (td) species and d species. The lpM/tdM ratio,                                      |
| 26 | where M refers to an element, is highest for Al, at $0.66 \pm 0.31$ (average $\pm$ sd, $n = 489$ ), and                          |
| 27 | lowest for Pb, at 0.02 $\pm$ 0.08 ( $n = 575$ ). Further, the distribution of each element is uniquely                           |
| 20 |  |
| 28 | related to ocean circulation. The tdAl concentration is high in the Equatorial Under Current                                     |

30 (LCDW). Manganese is supplied from reductive sources such as sediments on the continental 31 shelves around the northern boundary. Cobalt is concentrated in the North Pacific 32 Intermediate Water (NPIW) and in the Equatorial Pacific Intermediate Water (EqPIW) owing 33 to the combined effects of supply from the continental shelves, biogeochemical cycling, and 34 scavenging. Lead shows a subsurface maximum centered at ~35°N and ~200 m depth, 35 implying an association with the formation of the Subtropical Mode Water (SMW) and the 36 Central Mode Water (CMW). Although the subsurface Pb maximum in the Atlantic has 37 diminished over the last three decades owing to the ban on leaded gasoline use, it has been 38 sustained in the North Pacific through the growth of other anthropogenic sources in Asia and 39 Russia. We propose that the enrichment factor of dM, defined as EF(dM) =40 (dM/dAl)<sub>seawater</sub>/(M/Al)<sub>upper crust</sub>, where (M/Al)<sub>upper crust</sub> is the molar ratio in upper crustal abundance, can be a good parameter for the sources. The median is  $1.3 \times 10^2$  (n = 436) for 41 EF(dMn), 3.2 × 10<sup>2</sup> (n = 430) for EF(dCo), and 1.2 × 10<sup>3</sup> (n = 413) for EF(dPb). The 42 43 EF(dPb) found in this study is on the same order of magnitude as the EF values for aerosols 44 found in the literature, suggesting that the deposition of aerosols is a major source for dPb. 45 Because EF(dMn) and EF(dCo) are ten to hundred times higher than the EF for aerosols, 46 sources other than the aerosol deposition are more significant contributors to the 47 concentrations of Mn and Co.

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49 Keywords: GEOTRACES; Trace metals; Ocean sections; Scavenging; Biogeochemical
50 cycling; Anthropogenic pollution

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## 53 1. INTRODUCTION

Elements in seawater have been divided into conservative, nutrient (or recycled), and scavenged groups based on their dissolved (d) concentration–depth profiles (Bruland and Lohan, 2003; Chester, 2000). Scavenged group elements are adsorbed on particles and removed from the ocean with a short residence time of  $\sim 10^2 - 10^3$  years, resulting in high concentrations near the sources. In a broad sense, aluminum (Al), manganese (Mn), cobalt 59 (Co), and lead (Pb) are classified as the scavenged elements.

60 Aluminum is supplied to the ocean surface via the deposition of atmospheric dust 61 (Hydes, 1979; Maring and Duce, 1987). The surface dAl concentration in the Pacific is as low 62 as a tenth of that in the tropical and subtropical North Atlantic, because the Pacific receives 63 less dust per unit area (Bruland et al., 1994; Measures et al., 2005; Measures and Vink, 2000; 64 Orians and Bruland, 1986). Another important transporter of Al is currents, particularly in the 65 equatorial Pacific (Kaupp et al., 2011; Slemons et al., 2012). Dissolved and particulate Al are 66 transported eastward by the Equatorial Under Current (EUC) from the northeastern coastal 67 margins of New Guinea and New Ireland (Kaupp et al., 2011; Slemons et al., 2012). Supply 68 of Al by tropical and subtropical currents is also observed in the Indian Ocean (Vu and Sohrin, 69 2013). Other examples would be dAl in Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) (Kramer et al., 70 2004) and in North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) (Middag et al., 2015). Dissolved Al is 71 removed from the water column by passive adsorption onto particles or active uptake (e.g. 72 diatoms) (Mackenzie et al., 1978; Moran and Moore, 1988). Gehlen et al. (2002) reported 73 direct evidence for the structural association of Al and silicon (Si) in biogenic silica. The 74 vertical profiles of dAl in the ocean often exhibit a mid-depth minimum and increasing 75 concentrations towards the sediment-water interface, which is caused by the advection of 76 Al-rich deep water or by the diffusion of Al from sediment pore water (Bruland et al., 1994; 77 Orians and Bruland, 1985, 1986; Zheng et al., 2017). Suspended particulate Al (pAl) in 78 seawater decreases with distance from the North American continent and increases closer to 79 the bottom due to the resuspension of sediments (Orians and Bruland, 1986). As a result of 80 scavenging, the deep-water dAl concentration in the North Pacific is ~40-fold lower than that 81 in the North Atlantic (Orians and Bruland, 1986). Recent GEOTRACES studies have 82 revealed wide variations in the concentration of dAl and pAl in both the intra- and inter-basin 83 scales in the Atlantic Ocean (Barrett et al., 2015; Measures et al., 2015; Middag et al., 2015), 84 the Southern Ocean (Middag et al., 2011b), and the Mediterranean Sea (Rolison et al., 2015).

The dMn commonly has a maximum concentration at the surface and in the oxygen minimum layer, where  $O_2$  falls below 100 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (Boyle et al., 2005; Bruland et al., 1994; Fujishima et al., 2001; Klinkhammer and Bender, 1980; Landing and Bruland, 1980; Martin

88 and Knauer, 1980; Zheng et al., 2017). Manganese maxima also occur in hydrothermal 89 plumes in deep water (Boyle et al., 2005; Coale et al., 1991; Klinkhammer, 1980) and in 90 bottom water at the continental margins (Biller and Bruland, 2013; Chase et al., 2005; 91 Minakawa et al., 1998; Slemons et al., 2012). These dMn maxima are related to reductions of 92 Mn(IV) or Mn(III) to soluble Mn(II). Manganese(IV) is reduced via photoreduction in surface 93 water (Sunda and Huntsman, 1988), by microorganisms in sediments (Froelich et al., 1979), 94 and by seawater-basalt interaction during hydrothermal circulation (Von Damm and Bischoff, 95 1987). Horizontal sections off of North America indicate that Mn is actively remobilized from 96 anoxic sediments on the continental shelves and slopes, diffused into the overlying seawater, 97 and transported by lateral advection (Jones and Murray, 1985; Martin and Knauer, 1984; 98 Martin et al., 1985). Oxidation of Mn(II) is microbially catalyzed, resulting in fast scavenging 99 from a water column (Cowen et al., 1990; Mandernack et al., 1995; Moffett and Ho, 1996). Recent GEOTRACES investigations revealed sectional distributions of Mn in the Atlantic 100 101 Ocean (Noble et al., 2012; van Hulten et al., 2017), in the Southern Ocean (Middag et al., 102 2011a), and in the Indian Ocean (Vu and Sohrin, 2013).

103 The profile of dCo was first observed off central California, showing a surface 104 maximum and a strong correlation with dMn (Knauer et al., 1982). Subsequent observations revealed a subsurface dCo maximum at 50-700 m depths (Ezoe et al., 2004; Fujishima et al., 105 106 2001; Noble et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2017). Cobalt is microbially co-oxidized with Mn 107 (Moffett and Ho, 1996), concentrated in manganese oxides, and released into water through 108 manganese reduction (Biller and Bruland, 2013). Recent studies have indicated the correlation between dCo and phosphate in the upper water column, concluding that dCo is affected by 109 110 both nutrient cycling and scavenging onto manganese oxides (Hawco et al., 2018; Noble et al., 111 2008; Saito et al., 2017). The latter process concentrates Co in pelagic sediments, manganese 112 nodules, and manganese crusts, resulting in a small d inventory in deep waters.

113 Nozaki et al. (1976) reported that radioactive <sup>210</sup>Pb ( $t_{1/2} = 22.3$  y) in the Pacific 114 surface water has a maximum concentration at ~35°N and 170°E. They explained <sup>210</sup>Pb 115 distribution by dust deposition from the atmosphere and scavenging in the water column, 116 estimating the residence time of Pb in surface water to be 1.7 years in the North Pacific

subtropical gyre. Then, Nozaki et al. (1997) evaluated the residence time of <sup>210</sup>Pb in the 117 118 Pacific Deep Water (PDW) to be > 200 years in the central gyre and 50–100 years at the 119 margins. For stable Pb, Schaule and Patterson (1981) studied the concentration of total 120 dissolvable Pb (tdPb) in seawater between Hawaii and California, revealing the first reliable 121 vertical profile of stable Pb in 1976. Lead is supplied to the North Pacific mainly via the atmosphere at a rate of  $\sim 50$  ng cm<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, which exceeds the prehistoric output flux of 122 123 authigenic Pb recorded in pelagic sediments by ~170 times (Flegal and Patterson, 1983). Both the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>208</sup>Pb ratios in seawater fitted between the isotopic ratios of 124 125 Australian and North American leads (Flegal et al., 1984). Boyle et al. (2005) reported a tdPb 126 profile at the Hawaii Ocean Time-series (HOT)-A Long-Term Oligotrophic Habitat 127 Assessment (ALOHA) station (22.75°N, 158°W) in 1999 and found an insignificant change 128 in the subsurface maximum concentration from that in 1976. They attributed the remaining Pb 129 in the Pacific water to Asian emissions by high-temperature processes such as coal burning, 130 although leaded gasoline had been abolished in the United States, Canada, and Japan. They 131 also observed a time-series in the mixed layer near the Hawaii Air-Sea Logging Experiment 132 (HALE)-ALOHA mooring site and reported the presence of an annual cycle in the Pb 133 concentration in which it is ~20% higher in the winter months owing to the downward mixing of the winter mixed layer. Wu et al. (2010) reported that the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio in the North 134 135 Pacific abyssal water is substantially lower than the pre-industrial value, suggesting that 136 anthropogenic Pb has invaded and become the predominant Pb source there. Recently, 137 comprehensive data on Pb isotopes in seawater have been reported from the western North 138 Pacific (Gallon et al., 2011; Zurbrick et al., 2017). It was concluded that only three 139 countries—China, Russia, and Japan—have aerosol Pb isotope composition similar to that of 140 seawater and these occupy about 74% of the industrial input to the western North Pacific. The 141 latest data on the distribution of Pb in seawater were obtained from the Philippine Sea (Chien 142 et al., 2017), near the Juan de Fuca Ridge (Zheng et al., 2017), and from the eastern equatorial 143 Pacific (Pinedo-González et al., 2018). Sectional distributions of Pb have been reported in the Atlantic Ocean (Bridgestock et al., 2018; Bridgestock et al., 2016; Noble et al., 2015; Rigaud 144 145 et al., 2015; Rusiecka et al., 2018; Zurbrick et al., 2018) and the Indian Ocean (Echegoyen et 146 al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015; Vu and Sohrin, 2013).

147 These results suggest that Al, Mn, Co, and Pb are strongly controlled by scavenging. 148 However, each element has specific effects such as supply from reductive sources for Mn and 149 Co, nutrient cycling for Co, and anthropogenic contamination for Pb. Simultaneous 150 observation of these elements will serve to understand these specific effects. Studies 151 conducting such observations are, however, limited, owing to challenges to analysis (Zheng et 152 al., 2017). Here, we report the basin-scale and full-depth sectional distributions of Al, Mn, Co, 153 and Pb in the North Pacific for the first time. We observed the distributions of both td and d 154 species of these elements using a multielement analytical method (Minami et al., 2015) 155 without ultraviolet (UV) irradiation during three GEOTRACES Japan cruises. The difference 156 between td and d concentrations is defined as the labile particulate (lp) concentration. The lp 157 species are liberated from particulate phases during sample storage at pH ~2 with added HCl 158 and at room temperature for more than one year. On the basis of the comprehensive dataset, 159 we systematically discuss the biogeochemical cycling of the scavenged elements in the North 160 Pacific.

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163 2. METHODS

164 2.1. Hydrographic background of the study site

165 This study was conducted on the following cruises of R/V Hakuho Maru: KH-05-2 166 from August to September 2005, KH-11-7 in July 2011, and KH-12-4 from August to 167 September 2012 (Fig. 1). The map and a number of figures in this paper were prepared using 168 the Ocean Data View software (Schlitzer, 2018). The KH-05-2 cruise was a reconnaissance 169 study by GEOTRACES Japan. KH-11-7 and KH-12-4 were formal studies by GEOTRACES 170 Japan, occupying GEOTRACES sections GP18 (165°E) and GP02 (47°N), respectively. 171 Figure 2 shows the full-depth sectional distributions of salinity, O<sub>2</sub>, silicate, phosphate, and 172 tdM along 160°W longitude. The data from 165°E and 47°N are shown in Supplementary 173 Figs. 1 and 2, respectively. Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4 show the sectional distributions of 174 salinity, potential temperature, O<sub>2</sub>, silicate, and phosphate at depths of 0-1000 m along 175 160°W and 165°E, respectively.

In the tropical Pacific, three major zonal surface currents exist (Fig. 1): the westward-flowing South Equatorial Current (SEC) between about 20°S and 3°N (ST01–03), the narrow eastward-flowing North Equatorial Counter Current (NECC) centered at about 5°N (ST04, 05), and the westward-flowing North Equatorial Current (NEC) between about 8°N and 20°N (ST06, 07) (Wyrtki and Kilonsky, 1984). The EUC is fed by the saline New Guinea Coastal Under Current and flows eastward just below the SEC within a pycnocline at about 200 m depth at ST03 (Supplementary Fig. 3a).

183 The westward-flowing NEC forms the southern side of the anticyclonic North 184 Pacific subtropical gyre (Fig. 1), splitting into northward and southward boundary currents 185 known as the Kuroshio and Mindanao Currents, respectively. The Kuroshio turns to follow 186 the south coast of Japan and flows eastward at about 35°N to become the Kuroshio Extension 187 (KE), which forms the northern side of the subtropical gyre (Fig. 1). The KE region is 188 between about 30°N and 40°N (TR07-09), where surface water is characterized by high 189 salinity > 34.3 and high temperature  $> 15^{\circ}$ C. Water masses beneath the surface water include 190 the Subtropical Mode Water (STMW) and the Central Mode Water (CMW) with potential 191 density anomaly ( $\sigma_{\theta}$ ) values of 25.2–25.8 and 26.0–26.4, respectively (Yasuda, 2003) 192 (Supplementary Fig. 4a). The formation region of the STMW is located at 32-35°N, 193 140-180°E, and the formation region of CMW is located at 36-43°N, 150°E-160°W. The 194 region between the Kuroshio and the Oyashio is referred to as the Transition Region (TR11, 195 ST11, 12; Fig. 1). The broad eastward flow of this region, known as the North Pacific Current 196 (NPC), includes both the northern side of the subtropical gyre and the southern side of the 197 cyclonic subarctic gyre. At the eastern boundary, the NPC feeds into the southward-flowing 198 California Current (BD17–18) and the northward-flowing Alaska Current.

199 The western boundary current for the North Pacific subpolar gyre is the 200 Oyashio/East Kamchatka Current (EKC; Fig. 1). The Oyashio separates from the western 201 boundary at about 42°N and flows northeastward as the Oyashio Extension (OE), where 202 surface water is characterized by salinity of 32.7–33.8 and temperature of 0.9–11.1°C (TR13). 203 The subsurface water is the Okhotsk Sea Mode Water (OSMW), at 26.6–27.0  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , which originates in the Sea of Okhotsk and flows out to the Pacific through the Kuril Straits (Yasuda,
1997). The OSMW is observed at a depth of about 200 m at TR16/BD07 (Supplementary Fig.
4a). A number of northern stations in this study (TR15, 16, BD07–16, ST13) are located
within the subpolar gyre (Fig. 1). The northern side of the gyre is the westward-flowing
Alaskan Stream (AS; ST14).

209 The North Pacific Intermediate Water (NPIW) and the Antarctic Intermediate Water 210 (AAIW) are well-known intermediate water masses in the Pacific Ocean (Talley et al., 2011). 211 Recently, a third main water type at intermediate depths was proposed: the Equatorial Pacific 212 Intermediate Water (EqPIW) (Bostock et al., 2010). The NPIW, which is characterized by a salinity minimum of 33.8, low O<sub>2</sub> at 50–150 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, and low density of 26.4–27.2  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , 213 214 averaging 26.8  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , originates from the OSMW (Yasuda, 1997). The NPIW spreads over the 215 subtropical gyre at a depth range of 400-800 m, bounded by the subarctic front to the north at 216 ~40°N (ST11) and a steep potential vorticity gradient to the south at 15–20°N (ST07; Fig. 2a 217 and Supplementary Fig. 3a). The AAIW is a distinct water mass with high O<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 200–250 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, salinity minima of 34.3–34.5, and a temperature range of 3.5–10°C, 218 219 resulting in an average density of 27.1  $\sigma_{\theta}$ . The AAIW forms below the subantarctic front and 220 is then subducted along an isopycnal surface at depths of 600-1300 m. The EqPIW is 221 characterized by low  $O_2$  on the 26.8–27.2  $\sigma_{\theta}$  isopycnals (ST01–06; Fig. 2a and 222 Supplementary Fig. 3a). The geochemistry of the EqPIW suggests that it is composed 223 primarily of a combination of AAIW and upwelled PDW (Bostock et al., 2010).

224 In the deep ocean, the Lower and Upper Circumpolar Deep Waters (LCDW and 225 UCDW, respectively) are transported to the North Pacific from the Antarctic Circumpolar 226 Current (Fig. 2c). The LCDW is characterized by a temperature range of 1–2°C, salinity of 227 34.7, density of 27.8  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , and the salinity maximum (Talley et al., 2011). The UCDW is 228 characterized by a temperature of 2.5°C, salinity of 34.6, density of 27.6  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , and the O<sub>2</sub> 229 minimum. The LCDW enters the Central Pacific Basin through the Samoan Passage, 230 proceeds farther north, and reaches the Northeast Pacific Basin (Kawabe and Fujio, 2010) (Fig. 4a). The major branch flows anticyclonically along the Japan, Kuril-Kamchatka, and 231 232 Aleutian Trenches. The LCDW finally upwells and is transformed into the PDW, which is internally formed entirely in the Pacific from the upwelling and diffusion of the LCDW. The
PDW has physical properties similar to those of the UCDW but is enriched with nutrients. It
shifts southward in the upper deep layer and is modified by mixing with the UCDW around
the Hawaiian Islands (Fig. 2c).

237

238 2.2. Sampling and analysis

239 Seawater samples were collected during the three GEOTRACES Japan cruises 240 (KH-05-2, KH-11-7, and KH-12-4) using a clean sampling system (Sohrin and Bruland, 241 2011). The system was based on a Carousel Water Sampler Frame (SBE-32, Sea-Bird 242 Scientific, USA) that was finished with epoxy paint and equipped with conductivity, 243 temperature, and depth (CTD) sensors (SBE-9-plus, Sea-Bird) and Niskin-X bottles (General 244 Oceanics, USA). The insides of the Niskin bottles were coated with Teflon and were cleaned with 1% detergent, 0.1 mol kg<sup>-1</sup> hydrochloric acid, and deionized water prepared with a 245 246 Milli-Q system (MQW; Merck Millipore, Germany) at the beginning of the cruises. The clean 247 sampling system was deployed using a titanium-armored cable. Seawater temperature was 248 measured with the CTD sensor. Salinity reported in this paper was determined using a bench 249 salinometer that was standardized on the basis of the IAPSO standard seawater; the O<sub>2</sub> 250 content was measured using the Winkler method; and nutrient concentrations were 251 determined by spectrophotometry using an automated analyzer onboard the vessel. These 252 measurements were in accordance with the protocols for JGOFS (Knap et al., 1996). Nutrient 253 data were checked using seawater reference nutrient material (KANSO, Japan).

254 During KH-05-2, seawater was transferred from the sampler to precleaned Nalgene 255 low-density polyethylene (LDPE) bottles (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) on deck using a 256 silicon tube and filling bell to avoid contamination by airborne particles. The samples were 257 immediately transferred into a cleanroom laboratory (class 100) on the vessel. A portion of 258 the seawater for dissolved metal (dM) species was passed through a polycarbonate Nuclepore 259 filter with a pore size of 0.2 µm and a diameter of 47 mm (Whatman, UK) using a closed filtration system. The filter was precleaned with mixtures of HCl-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and HCl-HNO<sub>3</sub>-HF 260 261 (Nakatsuka et al., 2007). The filtered seawater was acidified to pH 2.2 with ultrapure HCl (Tamapure AA-10, Tama Chemicals, Japan). The portion of the seawater for total dissolvable
 metal (tdM) species analysis was acidified without filtration. These samples were stored at
 ambient temperature for ~10 years before analysis.

265 During KH-11-7 and KH-12-4, the Niskin bottles were carried into a clean bubble 266 upon retrieval of the CTD sampling system, and the seawater samples were transferred from 267 the Niskin bottles to precleaned LDPE bottles. During KH-11-7, filtration was conducted 268 using a Nuclepore filter in a manner similar to that used during KH-05-2. During KH-12-4, 269 filtration was conducted using an AcroPak capsule filter with a pore size of 0.2 µm (Pall, 270 USA), which was directly attached to the Niskin bottle. The seawater samples for both d and 271 td species analyses were immediately acidified in a manner similar to that used during 272 KH-05-2 and were stored at ambient temperature for at least one year before analysis.

273 An off-line automated solid-phase extraction system (SPE-100, Hiranuma Sangyo, Japan) equipped with a column of Nobias Chelate-PA1 resin (Hitachi High Technologies, 274 275 Japan) was used for the preconcentration of Al, Mn, iron (Fe), Co, nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), 276 zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd), and Pb from the seawater (Minami et al., 2015). The seawater 277 samples were adjusted to pH  $6.00 \pm 0.05$  just before preconcentration by adding 278 HAcO-NH<sub>4</sub>AcO buffer solution prepared from ultrapure HAcO and NH<sub>3</sub> (TAMAPURE AA-10 or Optima Acids, Thermo Fisher Scientific). When preconcentrating the tdM species, 279 280 unfiltered samples were first passed through a Millex syringe filter with a pore size of 0.45 281 µm (Merck Millipore, Germany) and then introduced into the SPE-100. The nine metals were eluted with 1.0 mol kg<sup>-1</sup> HNO<sub>3</sub> (Optima Acids) and determined with a high-resolution 282 283 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (HR-ICP-MS, Element 2, Thermo Fisher 284 Scientific) using a calibration curve.

It has been reported that UV irradiation prior to preconcentration is necessary for analysis of total dCo (Biller and Bruland, 2012; Milne et al., 2010; Saito and Moffett, 2001). The UV irradiation is adopted in the Sampling and Sample-handling Protocols for the GEOTRACES Cruises. However, we refrained from using UV irradiation to minimize contamination of the nine metals and to avoid unknown effects of UV irradiation on the determination of the nine metals. So far, we have done two runs of experiment to investigate 291 the effect of UV irradiation on the determination of the nine metals. A portion of the surface 292 seawater sample collected from the North Pacific was taken in a PFA jar with a quartz window and exposed to a 20 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> lamp for 2–24 h. We found that the concentration of 293 294 Al and Fe sometimes decreased due to unknown effects of UV irradiation. Recently, Wuttig et 295 al. (2019) studied the effect of UV irradiation and suggested that it should not be performed 296 on samples in which multiple elements are to be determined in order to avoid unnecessary 297 container leaching or contamination. Thus, it should be noted that our Co data are operational 298 results.

299 We evaluated the procedure blanks by using MQW as a sample. The MQW was 300 initially acidified with HCl and then adjusted to pH 6.00 for preconcentration, which is a 301 process similar to that used for seawater samples. We detected contamination during the 302 filtration using a Nuclepore filter for KH-05-2 and KH-11-7. To eliminate this effect, a 303 filtration method similar to that used for seawater was applied to MQW for evaluation of the 304 procedure blanks for dM. We defined the detection limits for tdM and dM as three times the 305 standard deviation (sd) of the procedure blank. The lpM concentrations were obtained by 306 taking the difference between tdM and dM. Because the relative standard deviation (rsd) was 307 ~5% for both tdM and dM, the detection limit of lpM was defined by using the following equation considering the propagation of uncertainty:  $2 \times \sqrt{2} \times 0.05 \times C_{ave}$ , where  $C_{ave}$ 308 309 represents the average concentration of each dM in this study. The procedure blanks and 310 detection limits are summarized in Supplementary Table 1. We measured the certified 311 reference materials for the trace metals, CASS-5 and NASS-6 (National Research Council 312 Canada), and GEOTRACES open-ocean reference samples SAFe-D2, GS, and GD at an early 313 point in the study (Minami et al., 2015). We participated in the intercalibration campaign of 314 new reference materials of CASS-6 and NASS-7, contributing to the establishment of 315 certified values at a late point in the study (Yang et al., 2018). Recently, we measured new 316 GEOTRACES reference samples, GSP and GSC1. All of these data ensured the accuracy of 317 the trace metal data collected in this study (Supplementary Table 2). A part of our data (dMn 318 and dPb from GP02 and GP18) has been accepted for the GEOTRACES Intermediate Data 319 Product 2017 (Schlitzer et al., 2018). The data on Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cd will be reported in 320 forthcoming papers.

321 322 323 3. RESULTS

324 The seawater data are summarized in Supplementary Table 3. At stations ST01 and 02 of KH-05-2 and TR 07, 11, 13, and 15 of KH-11-7, the vertical profiles of dAl showed 325 abnormal maxima higher than 1 nmol  $kg^{-1}$  at intermediate depths, suggesting that 326 327 contamination from the filtration system occurred at the beginning of each cruise. The dPb 328 data at TR07 were also questionable due to the contamination. Some samples showed 329 abnormally high values of both tdM and dM concentrations, particularly for Pb, suggesting 330 that contamination occurred during sampling. These questionable data have been removed 331 from the discussion. The summary of the seawater data is presented in Table 1. Figure 2 and 332 Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2 show the full-depth sectional distributions of salinity, O<sub>2</sub>, silicate, 333 phosphate, and tdM along 160°W, 165°E (GEOTRACES section GP18), and 47°N (GP02), 334 respectively. Figure 3 and Supplementary Figs. 5 and 6 show sectional distributions of dM 335 and lpM for depths of 0–1000 m. The local distributions around the Juan de Fuca Ridge have 336 been reported in a previous paper (Zheng et al., 2017).

337

338 3.1. Aluminum

The tdAl concentration was as low as about 1 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> at 40–50°N, at 0–4000 m 339 depth in the 160°W section (Fig. 2e). It steeply increased up to 60 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> above 50°N due 340 341 to supply from the continental shelf and slop. In the southern deep waters at > 4000 m depths, 342 an elevated tdAl concentration was observed with a high O<sub>2</sub> concentration, suggesting that it 343 was supplied by the LCDW flowing northward from the Southern Ocean. High tdAl concentrations in deep waters were also found to the north of 40°N, where the LCDW flows 344 eastward (Fig. 4). In the upper section, dAl maxima near 8 nmol  $kg^{-1}$  were located at a depth 345 346 of 200 m at the equator, and at the surface at 15–20°N (Fig. 3a). They correspond to the EUC 347 and NEC, respectively. In contrast, the supply from the northern boundary was dominated by 348 lpAl (Fig. 3e).

In the sections along 165°E and 47°N, tdAl was also high below the depth of 4400 m (Supplementary Figs. 1e and 2e). The tdAl species was dominated by lpAl near the Kamchatka Peninsula (Figs. 7a and b), the Aleutian Islands (Fig. 6a and Supplementary Fig. 7a), and the Juan de Fuca Ridge (Zheng et al., 2017).

Figures 4a and 4b show the horizontal distribution of tdAl and dAl, respectively, at a depth of 4500 m where the LCDW flows. Our data are not enough to cover the whole area of the North Pacific. However, it is apparent that the tdAl concentration tends to be high along the main path of LPDW. Some local sources are found near the Hawaiian Islands, off of the Kamchatka Peninsula, and off of the Aleutian Islands. In contrast, the dAl distribution shows a zonal characteristic. The dAl concentration decreases with latitude, suggesting that there are no strong local sources at high latitudes.

360

361 3.2. Manganese

The tdMn concentration was uniformly low at 0.2–0.3 nmol  $kg^{-1}$  in deep waters 362 along 160°W, with an increase of up to 1 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in the LCDW (Fig. 2f). High tdMn values 363 of up to 12 nmol  $kg^{-1}$  occurred near the continental shelf of the Aleutian Islands. In the upper 364 section, surface maxima of dMn were found in surface water where the SEC and NEC flow 365 (Fig. 3b). Dissolved Mn was as high as 8 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in surface water at the northernmost 366 367 station ST14 in the AS, and spreaded downwards along an isopycnic surface of about 27.0  $\sigma_{\theta}$ . 368 In contrast, a significant lpMn maximum was observed only in surface water at ST14 (Fig. 369 3f).

Elevated tdMn and dMn concentrations also occurred in surface waters to the north of 45°N along 165°E (Supplementary Figs. 1f and 5a) and at the western and eastern ends along 47°N (Supplementary Figs. 2f and 6b), suggesting sources on the continental shelves. In addition, high tdMn and dMn concentrations occurred in bottom water at TR16 near the Kamchatka Peninsula (Supplementary Figs. 1f and 2f) and at middle depths of 1780–3700 m around the Juan de Fuca Ridge (Zheng et al., 2017). In deep waters, tdMn was dominated by lpMn and showed a similar distribution with tdAl (Supplementary Figs. 1f and 2f).

377

378 3.3. Cobalt

The concentrations of tdCo and dCo were remarkably high, up to 220 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in the AS, similar to tdMn and dMn (Figs. 2g and 3c). Cobalt spreaded much more widely than Mn in a zone of 26.5–27.0  $\sigma_{\theta}$ , where the NPIW and the EqPIW existed. In the upper section, dCo was depleted in surface water from 10°S to 40°N in contrast with dMn, suggesting uptake by phytoplankton (Fig. 3c). The lpCo concentration showed some surface maxima along 160°W and abrupt increase at the northern boundary (Fig. 3g).

The concentrations of tdCo and dCo were as high as 90 pmol  $kg^{-1}$  in shallow water 385 386 along the Kamchatka Peninsula and extended along a zone of 26.5–27.0  $\sigma_{\theta}$  (Supplementary 387 Figs. 1g and 5b). Along 47°N, tdCo and dCo showed maxima in surface water at the western 388 and eastern ends, similar to tdMn and dMn (Supplementary Figs. 2g and 6c); however, tdCo 389 and dCo were distributed more uniformly at intermediate depths. The lpCo concentration 390 showed bottom maxima similar to those of lpAl in the three sections, while the maximum lpCo concentration was less than 20 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>. A high concentration of lpCo was also 391 392 observed in the bottom water around the Juan de Fuca Ridge, although an increase in dCo was 393 not observed (Zheng et al., 2017).

Figure 5a shows the horizontal distribution of tdCo along the isopycnal surface of 26.8  $\sigma_{0}$ . It appears that tdCo has sources on continental shelves and spreads up to the equatorial Pacific. A similar figure for tdMn indicates the same continental shelf sources for tdMn as tdCo. However, the spreading of tdMn is unclear south of 40°N.

398

399 3.4. Lead

400 The tdPb concentration was uniformly low at  $< 24 \text{ pmol kg}^{-1}$  below the depth of 401 2000 m along 160°W (Fig. 2h). This is similar to that for tdCo. However, tdPb had a unique 402 subsurface maximum between 15°N and 50°N at 160°W. The tdPb species were dominated 403 by dPb, and the maxima of dPb, as high as 80 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, occurred in surface water, the 404 STMW, and the CMW (Fig. 3d).

The maxima of tdPb and dPb in surface and subsurface water were also apparent south of 42°N at 165°E, which is located above the maxima of tdCo and dCo along the NPIW

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407 (Supplementary Figs. 1h and 5c). The maxima of tdPb and dPb were weaker in the section
408 along 47°N (Supplementary Figs. 2h and 6d). Labile particulate Pb was usually undetectable,
409 while it was detected in patches in surface water and in a hydrothermal plume near the Juan
410 de Fuca Ridge (Zheng et al., 2017).

Figure 5b shows the horizontal distribution of the maximum tdPb concentration through the water column. The maximum tdPb concentration usually occurs at subsurface. The tdPb maximum decreases and the corresponding  $\sigma_{\theta}$  increases from west to east: for example, the tdPb maximum is 89.7 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> at 25.31  $\sigma_0$ , TR7 (165°E), 81.6 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> at 25.97  $\sigma_0$ , ST10 (160°W), and 76.9 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> at 26.26  $\sigma_0$ , BD17 (132.7°W).

Table 2 summarizes the metal concentrations in each water mass in the North Pacific Ocean. It is apparent that each metal concentration is uniquely related with the water masses.

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421 4. DISCUSSION

422 4.1. Comparison at crossover stations and with previously published data

423 In the GEOTRACES program, a crossover station is a location where the track of 424 one cruise overlaps with that of another cruise, although the research vessels do not have to be 425 at the same location simultaneously (http://www.geotraces.org). Concentrations of dM in the 426 deep ocean are not expected to change significantly on the time scale between cruises; thus, 427 comparing results from crossover stations provides a measure of internal consistency. There 428 are no strict crossover stations between cruises KH-05-2 and KH-12-4. However, stations 429 ST13 and 14 of KH-05-2 are located at about 100 km and 300 km from BD15 of KH-12-4 430 (160°W, 50.8°N), respectively. Thus, we can use the vertical profiles at these stations for 431 intracomparison. Figure 6 and Supplementary Fig. 7 show the vertical profiles of tdM and dM, 432 respectively, at these stations. For Mn and Co, the vertical profiles of tdM and dM were 433 mostly consistent between stations ST13 and BD15. Both tdM and dM showed good linearity 434 with a slope close to unity (Supplementary Fig. 8). These results indicate that no significant 435 changes occurred in the vertical profiles and that the analytical data of KH-05-2 and KH-12-4

436 are consistent for Mn and Co. At ST14, significantly higher concentrations of Mn and Co 437 were observed. ST14 is located about 80 km off the shelf break and above the Aleutian 438 Trench. The high concentrations of Mn and Co in the surface water are supplied by the AS 439 from reductive sources in continental shelf sediments. In deep water of 500-4000 m, Mn and 440 Co are supplied from the continental slope by resuspension of sediments. The distance effect 441 on concentration was most apparent for tdAl (Fig. 6a). A large amount of Al, mostly in lpAl, 442 is supplied from the continental shelf and slope to ST14. Although most of the Al is removed 443 from the water column between ST14 and BD15 by boundary scavenging, the tdAl 444 concentration is still higher at BD15 than at ST13. In contrast, the distance effect was minor 445 for dAl (Supplementary Fig. 7a). A distinct trend was observed for Pb. In deep water, 446 insignificant differences were noted among the three stations in tdPb and dPb concentrations 447 (Fig. 6d and Supplementary Fig. 7d). The concentrations in the surface water increased from 448 the north station to the south station, suggesting that lithogenic and reductive sources have a 449 negligible effect on Pb. In addition, no distance effect was noted on the Pb concentrations in 450 the subsurface maximum at 100-200 m depths. Rather, the subsurface Pb concentrations are dependent on time, decreasing by about 13 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> from 2005 to 2012. 451

452 For KH-11-7 and KH-12-4, stations TR16 and BD07 are occupied at the same 453 position (160°E, 47°N) as a crossover station. Figure 7 and Supplementary Fig. 9 show the 454 vertical profiles of tdM and dM at these stations. Supplementary Fig. 10 shows the 455 relationship of metal concentrations between TR16 and BD07. For Mn, Co, and Pb, the 456 vertical profiles were consistent between the two stations except that the Mn concentrations in 457 the bottom water were higher in 2012 than in 2011. In contrast, both tdAl and dAl were 458 higher in 2011 than in 2012. The same trend was observed for tdFe, which will be reported in 459 the forthcoming paper. We propose a hypothesis that these temporal changes were caused by 460 the earthquake and tsunami. Stations TR16 and BD07 are located about 280 km southeast of 461 the Kuril-Kamchatka Trench, where the Pacific Plate is subducting under the North American 462 Plate and seismic activity is high. The lower maps in Fig. 7 show the distribution of 463 earthquakes with magnitude > 5 that occurred for five months prior to the sampling dates 464 during 2011 and 2012 (data taken from https://earthquake.usgs.gov/). No significant 465 difference is noted in the seismic activity around the Kuril-Kamchatka Trench between the 466 two periods. A clear difference is the March 11, 2011, earthquake off the Pacific coast of 467 Tohoku, Japan, magnitude 9.1, that occurred at 38.297°N, 142.373°E and its aftershocks. The resulting tsunami inundated a total area of 561 km<sup>2</sup> in Japan (data from Geospatial 468 469 Information Authority in Japan: http://www.gsi.go.jp/common/000059939.pdf). The tsunami 470 generated turbidity currents, one of which was observed with bottom sensors (Arai et al., 471 2013). Thirty-six days after the earthquake, observation on the continental slope below the 472 hypocenter revealed increases in the light transmission anomaly and in the Mn concentrations of up to 15–24 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in the bottom water at depths of 3500–5700 m (Kawagucci et al., 473 474 2012). Four months after the earthquake, observations in the Japan Trench revealed nepheloid layers extending  $\sim$ 30–50 m above the sea bed and <sup>134</sup>Ce from the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear 475 476 disaster on the sediment surface (Oguri et al., 2013). Because the distance between the 477 seismic center and TR16 is about 1730 km, the effect might have reached TR16 prior to 478 sampling. The high Mn concentrations in 2012 can be explained by a supply from a temporal 479 reductive source that developed on the bottom sediments where a large amount of organic 480 detritus was transported by the tsunami and the following processes. The detailed explanation 481 of the transportation mechanism is a challenge for future research. Increased marine sediment 482 suspension and fluxes following an earthquake have also been observed at other locations 483 (Thunell et al., 1999).

484 We also compared our data with the literature and found general consistency for 485 each metal; an example is shown in Supplementary Fig. 11. On the basis of these results, we 486 deduced the following four conclusions. First, the preservation period of the samples had no 487 significant effects on the data. Both unfiltered and filtered seawater samples were acidified to 488 pH 2.2 with HCl and were stored at room temperature from one to ten years prior to analyses. 489 No effect of the storage period was found for either tdM and dM at all crossover stations. In 490 addition, a number of samples were analyzed in duplicate without significant changes, 491 depending on the storage period. Thus, we can conclude that both the unfiltered and filtered 492 seawater samples at pH 2.2 are stable for the determination of the trace metals from one to ten 493 years.

494 Second, although we did not apply UV irradiation prior to the preconcentration, our 495 data on tdCo and dCo are highly reproducible. It has been proposed that UV irradiation prior 496 to preconcentration is necessary to determine the total dCo (Biller and Bruland, 2012; Milne 497 et al., 2010; Saito and Moffett, 2001). Actually, it appears that our dCo concentrations were 498 significantly lower than those for samples collected near the Hawaii Islands, which were 499 subjected to UV irradiation (Supplementary Fig. 11a) (Noble et al., 2008). We applied UV 500 irradiation to a mixed sample of North Pacific surface water and found an increase in dCo 501 concentration by ~20%. The analytical data for the reference seawater samples also show 502 similar results (Supplementary Table 2). Thus, it should be noted that our Co data are 503 operational and may be lower than those with UV irradiation. Some studies reported that the 504 difference between UV irradiated and non-UV irradiated values varies throughout a water 505 column (Noble et al., 2017; Shelley et al., 2010). However, both the tdCo and dCo are 506 reproducible and show systematic trends as described below. The difference caused by UV 507 irradiation will not qualitatively affect the major points of our discussion, such as those on the 508 basis of the enrichment factor (section 4.4) and the Co/Mn ratio (section 4.5). In addition, the 509 non-labile Co that can be detected after UV irradiation has not been identified yet. It is 510 probable that future comparison between Co data with and without UV will contribute to the 511 characterization of non-labile Co. Therefore, we think our Co data will be informative for the 512 community of chemical oceanography research.

513 Third, it appears that no significant change occurred in the subsurface Pb maximum 514 from 1977 to the present time in the North Pacific. As an example, the vertical profiles of 515 tdPb in 20°N-35°N, 145°W-160°W from 1976 to 2005 are compared in Supplementary Fig. 516 11b. Because the tdPb concentration depends on the location, it is not easy to extract the 517 temporal change from these data. However, we can say the subsurface tdPb maximum has been maintained at 63-82 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> for 30 years in this area. This is an important 518 519 characteristic in the North Pacific Ocean. In contrast, a substantial decrease in the subsurface Pb maximum has been observed in the North Atlantic. A decrease of ~150 pmol kg<sup>-1</sup> during 520 521 1979–2011 was found near Bermuda, which is attributed to the phase-out of leaded gasoline 522 in the United States and in Europe (Lee et al., 2011). The decline in the Pb concentration in the Atlantic has also been found along the transect GEOTRACES GA-01 (Zurbrick et al., 2018). In the North Pacific, it has been reported that the decreasing supply from gasoline has been canceled out by the growing supply from coal combustion, metal smelting, and municipal solid waste incineration mainly from China, Russia, and Japan (Zurbrick et al., 2017). The same trend has been shown for ice core data (Gross et al., 2012).

Finally, our data suggest that crossover stations near the continental shelves, such as TR16 and BD07, are not ideal for intercomparison of scavenged trace metals. These metals are affected by temporal and spatial variations in the ocean boundary environment. Therefore, for unambiguous intercomparison, a crossover station should be located far from the continental shelves and the offshore side of the boundary scavenging zone.

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# 534 4.2. Labile particulate and dissolved fractions

The lpM concentration is operationally defined as the difference in concentrations 535 536 between tdM and dM. Data of particulate concentrations are scarce in the North Pacific. In 537 this study, we compared our dM and lpM data from ST09 (30.007°N, 159.996°W) with the 538 dM and particulate M (pM) data from the Vertex IV site (28°N, 155°W) (Bruland et al., 1994). 539 The authors collected particulate samples on a Nuclepore filter with a pore size of 0.3 µm, 540 and analyzed them for the trace metal content of both the 25% acetic acid leachate and the 541 residual refractory fraction that was treated with HCl-HNO<sub>3</sub>-HF. Figure 8b shows the results 542 of pAl, which were mostly in the refractory fraction. Our lpAl concentration at ST09 was 543 similar to or higher than the total pAl concentration at Vertex IV. Because ST09 is located 544 about 800 km from the Hawaiian Seamount Chain, it is possible that the total pAl concentration is elevated compared with Vertex IV. This is consistent with the dAl 545 546 concentration at depths of 2000–3000 m is higher at ST09 than that at Vertex IV (Fig. 8a). 547 Thus, we can expect that lpAl represents a major fraction of total pAl. Supplementary Fig. 12 548 shows the results for dMn and pMn. Although some of the lpMn concentration at ST09 was 549 less than the detection limit, the general trend was similar between lpMn at ST09 and total 550 pMn at Vertex IV, suggesting that lpMn is a good measure of total pMn. The same results 551 were also observed for Fe, which is reported in the forthcoming paper. No data from the

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literature are available for comparison of pCo and pPb in this area. Around the Juan de Fuca Ridge, we found that the lpFe/lpAl, lpMn/lpAl, lpCo/lpAl, and lpPb/lpAl ratios in the bottom water are close to the ratios of total concentrations in the bottom sediments (Zheng et al., 2017). On the basis of these results, we suggest that lpM represents a major fraction of total pM. We think lpM includes metals desorbed or released from aluminosilicates, metal oxides, and the degradation of phytoplankton and bacteria.

558 Supplementary Fig. 13 shows histograms of the lpM/tdM ratio for each metal in the 559 North Pacific Ocean. It is apparent that the four metals are classified in the scavenged group 560 but have very different speciations among d and p species. The lpAl/tdAl ratio is  $0.66 \pm 0.31$ 561 (average  $\pm$  sd, n = 489), the lpMn/tdMn ratio is  $0.24 \pm 0.24$  (n = 628), the lpCo/tdCo ratio is 562  $0.12 \pm 0.18$  (n = 620), and the lpPb/tdPb ratio is  $0.02 \pm 0.08$  (n = 575). Because Al is the 563 major element in the upper crust, a large amount of lpAl is supplied from the lithosphere to 564 the ocean. Another major factor controlling the lpM/tdM ratio should be adsorption in the 565 ocean. The adsorption is explained by the surface complexation model (Li, 1981). Inorganic 566 minerals such as aluminosilicates and iron hydroxides have surface hydroxide groups that 567 form surface complexes with metal ions. The stability of the surface complex has a linear 568 relationship with the first hydrolysis constant for the metal ion. Because Al forms a trivalent 569 cation in seawater, it has the highest hydrolysis constant, resulting in the highest lpM/tdM 570 ratio. Although the hydrolysis constant of Pb(II) is higher than that of Mn(II) and Co(II) (Li, 571 1981), Mn(II) is most readily oxidized to Mn(III) or Mn(IV) (Mandernack et al., 1995; 572 Moffett and Ho, 1996), resulting in a higher lpM/tdM ratio. Moreover, it is likely that Co(II) 573 is more readily oxidized to Co(III) than Pb(II) is oxidized to Pb(IV), because Co(II) is 574 co-oxidized with Mn(II) via a common microbially catalyzed pathway (Moffett and Ho, 575 1996).

576 The vertical distributions of the lpM/tdM ratio are also distinct among the 577 scavenged elements (Fig. 9). The lpAl/tdAl ratio is uniformly high at high latitudes. The ratio 578 is lower at low latitudes, especially in surface water, probably due to supply of dAl via 579 surface and subsurface currents from lands in the tropical zone where intense weathering 580 occurs. The lpMn/tdMn ratio shows a generally increasing trend with depth, without a significant change with the latitude. This probably reflects the effects of oxidative scavenging throughout the water column. The lpCo/tdCo ratio shows a trend that is generally increasing in deep water, similar to the lpMn/tdMn ratio, while the former is significantly lower than the latter. In addition, high values of the lpCo/tdCo ratio occur in surface water at lower latitudes due to the uptake of dCo by phytoplankton.

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# 587 4.3. Lithogenic effects presented by Al

Our data show that tdAl is a good tracer of LCDW in the North Pacific (Fig. 2e, 588 589 Supplementary Figs. 1e and 2e, and Fig. 4a). In Fig. 10, the tdAl concentration is plotted on 590 the temperature–salinity diagram. The graph indicates that waters with  $\sigma_{\theta} > 27.8$  are enriched 591 with tdAl. In particular, tdAl is useful because tracking LCDW in the northern North Pacific 592 is not easy when using conventional oceanographic parameters. Total dissolvable Al is not 593 only supplied by the LCDW from the South Pacific but also added locally by resuspension of 594 sediments in the North Pacific. The relative contributions from transport via LCDW and from 595 resuspension are unclear at present and would be a challenge in future study. In contrast, dAl 596 decreases when the LCDW flows from south to north in the North Pacific (Fig. 4b). 597 Supplementary Fig. 14 shows that the dAl concentration decreases with latitude at depths 598 greater than 4500 m, where the LCDW flows. The LCDW is the only origin of deep water 599 dAl in the North Pacific; no other water supplies dAl to the depths. When the LCDW flows in 600 the North Pacific, dAl is gradually adsorbed onto particles. In addition, lpAl is added to the 601 LCDW by resuspension of bottom sediments during the track, although the supply of dAl 602 from the bottom sediments is negligible. Overall, the dAl concentration in deep waters decreases from about 4 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> around the equator to about 1 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> around 50°N. It 603 604 takes about 100 years for the LCDW to travel from the equator to 50°N (Matsumoto, 2007); the apparent decreasing rate of dAl is 0.03 nmol  $kg^{-1} y^{-1}$  in deep waters in the North Pacific 605 606 Ocean.

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608 4.4. Enrichment factor

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Here, we use stoichiometry to characterize sources for each element. The

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enrichment factor (*EF*) of dM in seawater over the upper crust is defined in accordance with the *EF* of M in aerosols in the literature (Rahn, 1976) as follows:

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$$EF(dM) = (dM/dAl)_{seawater}/(M/Al)_{upper crust}$$

613 The (M/Al)<sub>upper crust</sub> is calculated in moles using concentrations published in a review (Rudnick and Gao, 2005) as the following:  $4.7 \times 10^{-3}$  for Mn,  $9.7 \times 10^{-5}$  for Co, and  $2.7 \times 10^{-5}$ 614  $10^{-5}$  for Pb. Figure 11 shows box plots of *EF*(dM). The median is  $1.3 \times 10^2$  (*n* = 436) for 615 EF(dMn),  $3.2 \times 10^2$  (n = 430) for EF(dCo), and  $1.2 \times 10^3$  (n = 413) for EF(dPb). The median 616 617 of EF(dPb) is on the same order as that of EF for aerosols in the literature (Rahn, 1976), 618 suggesting that aerosols are a major source of dPb. For Mn and Co, the EF for aerosols is 619 usually 1–10. Thus, EF(dMn) and EF(dCo) are ten to hundred times higher than the EF for 620 aerosols. This would be partly due to the differences in solubility of the metals in aerosols. As 621 an example, Baker et al. (2006) reported that the solubility of Mn is several to ten times 622 higher than that of Al. Another important cause would be that sources other than aerosols are 623 more significant contributors to Mn and Co. Sectional distributions of EF(dM) and EF(lpM)624 along 160°W and 47°N are given in Supplementary Figs. 15 and 16, respectively. These 625 figures show that the other sources of dMn and dCo are restricted to shallow depths near the 626 northern boundaries of the North Pacific.

627 Figure 2 shows the sectional distributions of dM and lpM in the upper ocean along 628 160°W. It is clear that each element has different sources and is uniquely related to the ocean 629 circulation. The dAl concentration is high in the EUC and NEC. The transport of Al by the 630 EUC from New Guinea and New Ireland has been reported in the literature (Kaupp et al., 631 2011; Slemons et al., 2012). The source of dAl in the NEC should be the Hawaiian Islands. 632 The elevated dAl concertation near the Hawaiian Islands has been reported in the literature 633 (Measures et al., 2005). In contrast, the dAl concentration is low in northern currents, such as 634 the AS. Similarly, high dAl concentrations in tropical currents have been found in the Indian 635 Ocean (Vu and Sohrin, 2013). These results are ascribed to supply of dAl via surface and 636 subsurface currents from lands in the tropical zone where intense weathering occurs. The dMn 637 concentration is high in the AS, suggesting the source is manganese reduction in sediments on 638 the continental shelf. Substantially high dMn concentrations have been observed over the 639 Bering Sea shelf (Cid et al., 2011). A surface maximum of dMn occurs between 7°N and 640 26°N, suggesting the effect of photoreduction (Sunda and Huntsman, 1988). The dCo 641 concentration is high in the AS, suggesting the same reductive source with dMn. These results 642 are also consistent with the observation in the Bering Sea (Cid et al., 2011). A remarkable 643 feature of dCo is that it expands through the NPIW and EqPIW over the North Pacific. The 644 subsurface maximum of dPb occurs between 20°N and 45°N, corresponding with the STMW 645 and CMW in the subtropical gyre. Supplementary Figs. 5 and 6 shows the sectional distributions of dM in the upper ocean along 165°E and 47°N, respectively. These 646 647 distributions also indicate that dMn and dCo are derived from the same sources on the 648 continental shelves, which do not contribute significantly to dPb.

Figure 5 shows distinct horizontal distributions of tdCo and tdPb over the North Pacific. For tdCo, the concentration on an isopycnal plane of 26.8  $\sigma_{\theta}$  is presented. It is clear that tdCo originated from the northern shelves and spread southward. For tdPb, the highest subsurface concentration maximum is presented because the  $\sigma_{\theta}$  value for the tdPb maximum significantly increases from west to east. The highest tdPb occurs in the subtropical gyre and decreases from west to east. This horizontal distribution of tdPb is consistent with that of radioactive <sup>210</sup>Pb in the surface water (Nozaki et al., 1976).

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### 657 4.5. Redox and biogeochemical control on Co

658 As discussed above, Co and Mn have a common source in the continental shelf 659 sediments. In hydrothermal plumes around the Juan de Fuca Ridge, the concentration of Mn 660 increases remarkably and that of Co does not. This is because the flux of Mn from 661 hydrothermal vents is considerably higher than that of Co (Seyfried Jr et al., 2003). In 662 addition, the solubility product is much lower for CoS than MnS (Chemical et al., 1964), 663 although the solubility of Co increases with increasing chloride concentration (Seyfried Jr et 664 al., 2003). Thus, Co is not transported far by hydrothermal plumes. Supplementary Fig. 17a 665 shows the relationship between dCo and dMn in water columns above the depth of 666 hydrothermal plumes ( $\sigma_{\theta} < 27.64$ ). The following overall linear relationship is present:

dCo (pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) = 19.7 dMn (nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) + 17.2 (r = 0.656, p < 0.0001, n = 386)

This slope is nearly consistent with the ratio of Co/Mn =  $2.1 \times 10^{-2}$  for average mole concentrations in the upper crust (Rudnick and Gao, 2005). These results imply that the ultimate source of Mn and Co in the North Pacific Ocean has a Co/Mn ratio similar to that in the upper crust. However, most data in the graph are along another line with a higher slope, which means that dCo and dMn are substantially fractionated in the North Pacific.

673 Figure 12 shows that the dCo/dMn ratio varies from zero to 0.174 in the North 674 Pacific. Although both Mn and Co are taken up by phytoplankton as micronutrients, the 675 concentration factor of Co in phytoplankton is much higher than that of Mn (Morel et al., 676 2003). As a result, the effects of biogeochemical cycles are apparent only in the distribution 677 of Co in the ocean. The dCo concentration is low in the surface water except at stations near 678 continental shelves (Fig. 3c and Supplementary Figs. 5b and 6c). This is ascribed to the 679 uptake of Co by phytoplankton. Supplementary Fig. 17b shows the general relationship of 680 dCo against phosphate in water columns above the depth of the NPIW ( $\sigma_{\theta} < 26.5$ ):

dCo (pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) = 36.4 PO<sub>4</sub> (µmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) + 6.4 (r = 0.692, p < 0.0001, n = 176) 681 682 These results are mostly consistent with the data on total dCo in the literature (Hawco et al., 683 2018; Noble et al., 2008; Saito et al., 2017), which suggest that dCo is taken up by 684 phytoplankton and is remineralized from settled particles concurrently with phosphate. The 685 dCo/phosphate ratio tends to be higher at higher latitudes. Particularly high ratios were found 686 in the surface water at ST14 in the AS. Biogeochemical effects are also apparent in the 687 vertical distribution of the dCo/dMn ratio (Fig. 12). The ratio becomes lower in surface water 688 according to the selective uptake and removal of dCo by phytoplankton and increases with 689 depth above the NPIW with  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26.8$ , through remineralization. Another cause for the high 690 dCo/dMn ratio in waters with  $\sigma_{\theta} > 26$  should be the microbial oxidation of dMn, which is 691 7-10 times faster than that of dCo (Moffett and Ho, 1996), resulting in the selective 692 transformation from dMn to lpMn. Below the NPIW, no clear relationship is apparent 693 between the dCo and phosphate, and the dCo/dMn ratio decreases. Because the concentrations 694 of O<sub>2</sub> and biogenic particulate organic matter decrease below the NPIW, scavenging becomes 695 predominant over remineralization for the distribution of dCo.

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### 697 4.6. Anthropogenic control on Pb

698 In this paper, we report the basin-scale distribution of stable Pb in the North Pacific 699 for the first time. The subsurface maximum centered at ~26  $\sigma_{\theta}$  is a basin-scale characteristic. 700 The maximum concentration tends to decrease from west to east. In addition, EF(dPb) is as 701 high as *EF* for aerosols. These results further support the anthropogenic control on Pb in the 702 North Pacific, which has been discussed in previous research (Boyle et al., 2005; Zurbrick et 703 al., 2017). To summarize, anthropogenic Pb originating from China, Japan, and Russia is 704 carried to the North Pacific as aerosols by westerlies centered at ~35°N, deposited on the sea 705 surface, and dissolved in the mixed layer during formation of the STMW and CMW. 706 Although dPb is quickly scavenged from the surface water by biogenic particles, it has a 707 longer residence time in subsurface water and spreads over the North Pacific by current 708 systems of subtropical and subarctic gyres. This mechanism is not as important for Al, Mn, 709 and Co because these metals are less enriched in industrial aerosols. For example, the 710 enrichment factor of Pb was 10-100 times higher than that of Mn and Co in atmospheric 711 deposition samples collected around Japan (Okubo et al., 2013).

712 In deep water ( $\sigma_{\theta} > 26.7$ ), a linear relationship between dPb and dCo is observed 713 (Fig. 13):

dPb (pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) = 1.06 dCo (pmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) - 3.1 (r = 0.868, p < 0.0001, n = 374) 714 715 which suggests the concurrent effect of scavenging. Because there are no significant sources 716 for both metals in deep waters, a common property emerges for the scavenged elements. The 717 dPb/dCo ratio tends to be higher at higher latitudes. This probably reflects the dependency of 718 atmospheric aerosol deposition flux on the latitude. In shallow waters, no significant 719 relationship is observed between dPb and dCo, which reflects different sources for these 720 metals. Clearly, anthropogenic Pb sources contribute to high concentrations mostly in warm 721 surface waters of the temperate zone (Fig. 3d and Supplementary Fig. 5c).

Interestingly, radiocesium emitted from the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant
(37°25′N, 141°02′E) in March 2011 presently shows a distribution similar to that of Pb in the
North Pacific (Aoyama et al., 2018; Kumamoto et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2017). As an
example, Kumamoto et al. (2014) measured d radiocesium at stations along 149°E in winter

726 2012 (Supplementary Fig. 18). In particular, they found a subsurface radiocesium maximum 727 at a depth of ~300 m around 32°N, which is a characteristic similar to the subsurface 728 maximum of Pb. They concluded that atmosphere-deposited radiocesium south of the KE had 729 been transported not only eastward along with surface currents but also southward owing to 730 the formation/subduction of the STMW within about 10 months after the accident. Smith et al. 731 (2017) reported that the Fukushima-derived radiocesium plume was first observed in June 732 2012 at the westernmost station on Line P, which is an oceanographic sampling line 733 extending 1500 km westward of British Columbia, Canada. The plume spread over the 734 Canadian continental shelf during 2013 and 2014. It is likely that anthropogenic contaminants 735 in aerosols are entrained in the same distribution mechanism as that for Pb. Although Cs is a 736 conservative element in oceanography, the Fukushima-derived radiocesium followed Pb in 737 the manner of its distribution mechanism and spread over the North Pacific, at least during the 738 first several years after the accident.

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#### 741 5. CONCLUSIONS

742 We observed basin-scale and full-depth sectional distributions of Al, Mn, Co, and 743 Pb in the North Pacific using a multi-elemental determination method and without using UV 744 irradiation. This study revealed that the speciation of the dM and pM fractions differs 745 significantly among the four metals. Analysis based on stoichiometry revealed that Mn, Co, 746 and Pb are dominated by different sources than those of Al and that each element is a unique 747 tracer for distinct currents and water masses. However, despite the apparent differences, these 748 elements should be grouped as scavenged elements. The four metals are affected by 749 scavenging throughout the ocean, although the relative intensity of the other processes 750 controls the distribution of each metal. As an example, Co and Pb show a strong correlation in 751 the deep waters of the North Pacific, where no significant sources occur for these metals, and 752 scavenging is the predominant process. In contrast, the differences between Co and Mn in terms of the oxidation rate, the enrichment by phytoplankton, and the effect of hydrothermal 753 754 plumes cause substantial fractionations of dCo and dMn in the North Pacific.

We propose *EF*(dM) as a potential parameter to systematically explain inter-basin variations in the distribution of dM. Dissolved Al occurs in a wider concentration range in the world's oceans than the other metals. Because dAl concentration is normally low in the North Pacific, *EF* is high for dMn, dCo, and dPb, resulting in the unique distribution of each metal. Since dAl concentration is substantially higher in the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea, features common with dAl may emerge for dMn, dCo, and dPb.

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- 776 Figure Captions
- Fig. 1. A map showing the locations of the data collected in this study. The white lines showsurface currents and the dashed line shows the subsurface current.
- 779
- Fig. 2. Full-depth sectional distribution of salinity, O<sub>2</sub>, silicate, phosphate, and tdM along
  160°W. EqPIW: Equatorial Pacific Intermediate Water; NPIW: North Pacific Intermediate
  Water; UCDW: Upper Circumpolar Deep Water; LCDW: Lower Circumpolar Deep Water;
  PDW: Pacific Deep Water; AS: Alaskan Stream; STMW: Subtropical Mode Water.
- 784

Fig. 3. Sectional distributions of dM and lpM at depths of 0–1000 m along 160°W. EUC:
Equatorial Under Current; NEC: North Equatorial Current; AS: Alaskan Stream; EqPIW:
Equatorial Pacific Intermediate Water; NPIW: North Pacific Intermediate Water; STMW:
Subtropical Mode Water; CMW: Central Mode Water.

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Fig. 4. The distributions of tdAl and dAl at a depth of 4500 m. The red line shows the major flows of the LCDW, which were taken from the literature (Kawabe and Fujio, 2010). A number in a circle shows the volume transport of the current in Sv ( $10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The number  $4^+$  ( $4^-$ ) means a little more (less) than 4 Sv. A circle with a center point shows upwelling from this layer; its transport volume is shown by an accompanying number.

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Fig. 5. (a) The horizontal distribution of tdCo on the isopycnal plane of 26.8  $\sigma_{\theta}$ . (b) The horizontal distribution of the maximum tdPb in the water column, which occurs in the subsurface water.

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Fig. 6. Vertical profiles of tdM at ST13 (red circles), BD15 (blue squares), and ST14 (cyandiamonds).

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Fig. 7. (a) and (b): The vertical profiles of tdAl and dAl at TR16 (red circles) and BD07 (blue
squares). The distribution of earthquakes (magnitude > 5) around the Kuril–Kamchatka

| 805 | Trench from February 28 to July 28, 2011 (c), and from March 28 to August 28, 2012 (d). A     |
|-----|---|
| 806 | black circle represents a seismic center and the diameter of such a circle represents the     |
| 807 | relative magnitudes of the earthquakes. The data were taken from https://earthquake.usgs.gov. |
| 808 |   |

Fig. 8. Vertical profiles of dAl and particulate Al (pAl). Red triangles represent dAl and lpAl
at ST09 (30.007°N, 159.996°W). Black marks represent data at the Vertex IV site (28°N,
155°W) (Bruland et al., 1994). (b) Open circles, squares, and diamonds represent acetic acid
leachable pAl, refractory pAl, and total pAl, respectively.

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Fig. 9. Vertical distribution of the lpM/tdM ratio in the North Pacific. The colors of the dots
represent the latitudes.

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Fig. 10. Potential temperature–salinity diagram. The colors of the dots represent the tdAlconcentrations.

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Fig. 11. Box plots of *EF*(dM) for Mn, Co, and Pb. The middle line of the box represents the median; the top and bottom lines of the box represent the upper and lower quartiles, respectively; and circles represent potential outliers.

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Fig. 12. The tdCo/tdMn ratio against the potential density anomaly in the North Pacific. The colors of the dots represent the latitudes. The black line shows the average Co/Mn mole ratio of  $2.1 \times 10^{-2}$  in the upper crust (Rudnick and Gao, 2005).

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Fig. 13. The relationship between dPb and dCo in deep waters ( $\sigma_{\theta} > 26.7$ ). The red line represents the regression line, the equation for which is presented in the text. The colors of the dots represent the latitudes.

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Table 1Statistical summary of seawater data.

| Floment      | Fraction |       |     |      | n                          | Minimum    | Maximum     | Median |  |
|--------------|----------|-------|-----|------|----------------------------|------------|-------------|--------|--|
| Liement      | Fraction | Total | >DL | < DL | Questionable and discarded | Willinnunn | Wiaxillulli |        |  |
|              | td       | 638   | 610 | 21   | 7                          | < 0.1      | 59.6        | 2.16   |  |
| Al (nmol/kg) | d        | 638   | 438 | 76   | 124                        | < 0.1      | 8.63        | 0.46   |  |
|              | lp       | 638   | 436 | 75   | 127                        | < 0.2      | 56.7        | 1.13   |  |
|              | td       | 638   | 633 | 0    | 5                          | 0.17       | 12.3        | 0.74   |  |
| Mn (nmol/kg) | d        | 638   | 633 | 0    | 5                          | 0.08       | 8.38        | 0.52   |  |
|              | lp       | 638   | 429 | 199  | 10                         | < 0.1      | 5.65        | 0.12   |  |
|              | td       | 638   | 631 | 0    | 7                          | 4.5        | 221         | 24.1   |  |
| Co (pmol/kg) | d        | 638   | 623 | 3    | 12                         | < 0.4      | 179         | 20.2   |  |
|              | lp       | 638   | 288 | 332  | 18                         | < 4        | 44.2        | < 4    |  |
|              | td       | 638   | 628 | 0    | 10                         | 3.4        | 89.7        | 28.5   |  |
| Pb (pmol/kg) | d        | 638   | 579 | 0    | 59                         | 2.0        | 85.0        | 28.6   |  |
|              | lp       | 638   | 30  | 545  | 63                         | < 4        | 14.1        | < 4    |  |

Table 2 Summary of water mass data.

| XX7   | Potent    |         | tential                         | D.C  | Al [nmol/kg] |            |           | Mn [nmol/kg] |           |            | Co [pmol/kg] |       |        | Pb [pmol/kg] |       |       |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------------------------|--|--------------|------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|------------|--------------|-------|--------|--------------|-------|-------|
| water mass  | Salinity  | e [°C]  | $\sigma_{\theta} [kg/m^{*}]$    | g/m <sup>-</sup> ] Reference                   | td           | d          | lp        | td           | d         | lp         | td           | d     | lp     | td           | d     | lp    |
| Subtropical Mode Water<br>(STMW)                    |           |         | 25.2-25.8                       | Yasuda 2003                                    | 0.12-1.3     | < 0.1–1.3  | < 0.2–1.0 | 0.54-1.2     | 0.45-0.79 | < 0.1–0.11 | 15-31        | 8–25  | < 4–13 | 64–78        | 62-83 | < 4   |
| Central Mode Water<br>(CMW)                         |           |         | 26.0-26.7                       | Yasuda 2003                                    | 0.54-4.9     | < 0.1–1.6  | 0.21-1.3  | 0.27-1.1     | 0.19-0.95 | < 0.1–0.35 | 28-43        | 26–39 | < 4–10 | 52-80        | 56-83 | < 4   |
| Okhotsk Sea Mode<br>Water (OSMW)                    | 33.5-33.6 | 1–2     | 26.6-27                         | Yasuda 1997                                    | 1.6-6.0      | 0.21-0.53  | 1.4–5.5   | 1.2-2.0      | 0.51-1.7  | 0.27-0.91  | 48–75        | 50-72 | < 4–7  | 31-52        | 30–51 | < 4   |
| North Pacific<br>Intermediate Water<br>(NPIW)       | 33.8–34.1 |         | 26.4–27.2,<br>averaging<br>26.8 | Dickson et al.<br>2000, Bostock<br>et al. 2010 | 1.0-6.8      | 0.18–1.1   | 0.63-6.1  | 0.32-1.1     | 0.22-0.74 | < 0.1–0.37 | 34–47        | 30–43 | < 4–9  | 44–71        | 41–63 | < 4-6 |
| Equatorial Pacific<br>Intermediate Water<br>(EqPIW) | 34.5-34.6 |         | 27.3                            | Bostock et al.<br>2010                         | 1.1–2.5      | 0.87-1.9   | < 0.2–1.6 | 0.32-0.43    | 0.22-0.36 | < 0.1–0.14 | 32–39        | 30–38 | < 4    | 12–25        | 12–28 | < 4   |
| Upper Circumpolar<br>Deep Water (UCDW)              | 34.6      | 2.5     | 27.6                            | Talley et al.<br>2012                          | 1.2-3.0      | 0.73-1.6   | < 0.2–1.2 | 0.22-0.38    | 0.17-0.23 | < 0.1–0.16 | 21-30        | 17–29 | < 4    | 7–12         | 9–14  | < 4   |
| Pacific Deep Water<br>(PDW)                         | 34.7      | 1.1-1.2 | 27.7                            | Talley et al.<br>2011                          | 0.88-4.5     | < 0.1–0.86 | 0.63-3.7  | 0.19-0.82    | 0.13-0.66 | < 0.1–0.33 | 14–26        | 13–23 | < 4–6  | 9–31         | 6–32  | < 4–6 |
| Lower Circumpolar<br>Deep Water (LCDW)              | 34.7      | 1–2     | 27.8                            | Talley et al.<br>2013                          | 1.5-40       | 0.36-4.1   | 0.60–37   | 0.16-5.7     | 0.08-1.3  | < 0.1–4.4  | 12-32        | 8–20  | < 4–20 | 3-16         | 3–16  | < 4–6 |























Figure 11



Figure 12



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