

Mechanisms driving the dispersal of hydrothermal iron from the northern Mid Atlantic Ridge

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Abstract

The dispersal of dissolved iron (DFe) from hydrothermal vents is poorly constrained. Combining field observations and a hierarchy of models, we show that the dispersal of DFe from the Trans-Atlantic-Geotraverse vent site occurs predominantly in the colloidal phase and is controlled by multiple physical processes. Enhanced mixing near the seafloor and transport through fracture zones at fine-scales interacts with the wider ocean circulation to drive predominant westward DFe dispersal away from the Mid-Atlantic ridge at the 100km scale. In contrast, diapycnal mixing predominantly drives northward DFe transport within the ridge axial valley. The observed DFe dispersal is not reproduced by the coarse resolution ocean models typically used to assess ocean iron cycling due to their omission of local topography and mixing. Unless biogeochemical models include high-resolution nested grids, they will inaccurately represent DFe dispersal from axial valley ridge systems, which make up half of the global ocean ridge crest.

1 **Mechanisms driving the dispersal of hydrothermal iron from the northern Mid**
2 **Atlantic Ridge**

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20 scales interacts with the wider ocean circulation to drive predominant westward DFe
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22 mixing predominantly drives northward DFe transport within the ridge axial valley.
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24 models typically used to assess ocean iron cycling due to their omission of local
25 topography and mixing. Unless biogeochemical models include high-resolution
26 nested grids, they will inaccurately represent DFe dispersal from axial valley ridge
27 systems, which make up half of the global ocean ridge crest.
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29 149/150wds
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31 **Plain Language Summary**
32

33 Hydrothermal venting along mid ocean ridges supplies large quantities of the trace
34 metal iron to the ocean. Once it mixed with oxygenated seawater, precipitation leads
35 to iron being lost from the dissolved phase to generate seafloor metal deposits.
36 However, a small fraction of iron supplied escapes precipitation and remains in the
37 dissolved phase. The processes that control the retention and ocean transport of
38 hydrothermal dissolved iron is important as it has a disproportionate influence on the
39 global carbon cycle. In this work we examined the processes driving the dispersal of
40 dissolved iron from a major site of hydrothermal venting on the northern mid Atlantic
41 ridge. We found that the complex topography of the mid Atlantic ridge was crucial in
42 steering the escape of dissolved iron in the colloidal size range out of the immediate
43 mid ocean ridge system. This raises challenges for the large scale ocean models
44 used to represent the global ocean iron cycle as they are typically not parameterised
45 at high enough spatial resolution. The use of multiple grids, with higher resolution
46 nests, may offer a solution to the challenge of representing the interactions of tracer
47 dispersal with complex topography.
48

49 **Key points:**
50

- 51 1. Iron is dispersed from TAG predominantly northward within the axial valley and
52 westward off axis, dominated by the colloidal size fraction
53 2. A combination of fine-scale processes are necessary to explain the dispersal both
54 within and outside the axial valley
55 3. Coarse resolution models are impaired in their ability to constrain the broader
56 influence of iron supplied from axial valley ridge systems
57
58

59 **1. Introduction**

60
61 Dissolved iron (DFe) supply from hydrothermal vents has emerged as an important
62 component of the ocean iron cycle [Tagliabue et al., 2017]. Moreover, as
63 hydrothermally sourced iron is ventilated in the iron-limited Southern Ocean, there is
64 an important link to the ocean carbon cycle [Resing et al., 2015; Tagliabue et al.,
65 2010; Tagliabue and Resing, 2016]. Consequently, there is a need to include
66 hydrothermal DFe supply in ocean biogeochemical models to accurately represent
67 the supply and cycling of this key micronutrient. Elevated iron signals have been
68 observed in plumes above most mid ocean ridge systems [Baker et al., 2002; Gamo
69 et al., 1996; Hahn et al., 2015; Massoth et al., 1994; Rudnicki and Elderfield, 1993].
70 More recently, as part of the GEOTRACES programme, iron has been shown to
71 persist as DFe above and beyond the global ridge crest system [Hatta et al., 2015;
72 Klunder et al., 2011; Nishioka et al., 2013; Resing et al., 2015; Tagliabue et al.,
73 2022]. Crucial in this growing role for hydrothermalism in shaping basin scale
74 distributions is the question of how DFe is transported away from hydrothermal vent
75 sites at the >100km scale [Tagliabue and Resing, 2016].
76

77 DFe (<0.2 μm) is an operational definition that encompasses a complex array of
78 chemical species. In particular, contributions of biogenic and non-biogenic phases
79 will play an important role in the colloidal size fraction (>0.02 μm , but <0.2 μm)
80 [Tagliabue et al., 2017]. This is particularly true in hydrothermal settings, where large
81 fluxes of reduced soluble forms of iron interact with oxygenated seawater to drive
82 rapid changes in physico-chemical speciation [Field and Sherrell, 2000; Rudnicki and
83 Elderfield, 1993]. In the deep ocean, colloidal and soluble forms of DFe have been
84 observed to exist in a 1:1 ratio, but closer to iron sources or in the upper ocean the
85 colloidal contribution can fluctuate notably [Bergquist et al., 2007; Fitzsimmons and
86 Boyle, 2014; Kunde et al., 2019; Nishioka et al., 2001]. Colloidal iron is typically
87 made up of iron (oxy)hydroxide phases and small lithogenic particles, as well as
88 biomolecules and small bacteria or viruses that interact with organics [Lough et al.,
89 2019; Tagliabue et al., 2017].
90

91 The global mid ocean ridge crest displays variable spreading rates and associated
92 topographic settings, with potential implications for DFe supply and transport. Inert
93 passive tracers of hydrothermal inputs, like mantle helium-3 (^3He), are elevated in
94 basins with fast spreading ridges, like the Pacific, and depressed where ridge
95 spreading rates are lower, like the Atlantic [Jenkins et al., 2019]. This is important as
96 although hydrothermal dFe inputs are parameterised in global models with constant
97 DFe: ^3He ratios following Tagliabue et al. [2010], hydrothermal DFe anomalies are
98 higher than would be expected along the slow spreading mid Atlantic ridge based on
99 ^3He values (e.g. [Hatta et al., 2015; Saito et al., 2013]). Adding further complexity is
100 the fact that the slow spreading ridges like the mid-Atlantic ridge are typified by large

101 axial valleys with topographic relief varying by kilometres across relatively small
102 spatial scales. It is not known how resolving these scales of variability affects the
103 transport of DFe into the wider basin and the implications for coarse resolution ocean
104 biogeochemical models that are typically used to test hypothesis about hydrothermal
105 DFe supply and cycling [Roshan *et al.*, 2020; Somes *et al.*, 2021; Tagliabue *et al.*,
106 2022].

107

108 Here we present new observations of DFe and colloidal Fe from the trans Atlantic
109 geotraverse (TAG) hydrothermal site northern mid-Atlantic ridge as part of the UK
110 GEOTRACES GA13 section. Our data document transport of DFe northwards within
111 the axial valley and westward off axis into the wider basin at a range of spatial
112 scales. Using a suite of model experiments at a range of resolutions, we diagnose
113 the candidate physical processes that drive this behaviour and demonstrate that they
114 are absent in coarse resolution models. This raises important questions about
115 whether coarse resolution models are appropriate tools to explore iron cycle
116 pathways associated with DFe supply from slow spreading ridge systems.

117

118 **2. Methods**

119

120 The UK GEOTRACES GA13 voyage sailed between Southampton and Guadeloupe
121 in 2017/8 and as part of the sampling a detailed process study was conducted
122 around the TAG hydrothermal vent system. A number of stations were sampled
123 north and south of TAG within the axial valley, as well as east and west off axis into
124 the Atlantic basin (Figure 1, Supplementary Figure 1). Station spacing ranged from
125 10-30km close to TAG and up to 100-200km for the farthest stations.

126

127 All sampling protocols followed those established by the GEOTRACES program
128 [Cutter *et al.*, 2010]. Water samples were collected using Teflon coated Niskin-X
129 bottles (Ocean Test Equipment) on a kevlar coated conducting wire. Water samples
130 were filtered (0.2 μm , Sartorius) into acid clean low-density polyethylene bottles for
131 DFe. A separate aliquot seawater was filtered through 0.02 μm filters (Anotop,
132 Whatman) for soluble Fe (SFe) (Ussher *et al.*, 2010). All filtration was done in a class
133 100 clean laboratory on board the ship. Samples were acidified onboard to 0.024 M
134 (UpA HCl, Romil). Samples were analysed for Fe concentrations using flow injection
135 chemiluminescence and inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. In both
136 cases GEOTRACES reference materials (D2, GSC, GSP) were analysed and there
137 was a maximum difference of 0.14 nM between measured and consensus values
138 (Measured GSC 2.04 ± 0.03 nM, consensus GSC 2.18 ± 0.08 nM). For further
139 details see [Lough *et al.*, 2022].

140

141 Two Lagrangian dispersion experiments were carried out using the 3D velocity
142 field of the GIGATL3 simulation. GIGATL3 is a regional simulation of the
143 ocean physical state in the Atlantic Ocean based on the primitive-equation
144 CROCO model, developed using the Regional Oceanic Modeling System
145 [Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2005]. The GIGATL3 simulation has a nominal
146 horizontal resolution of 3 km and features 100 terrain-following vertical levels, with
147 stretching near the surface and seafloor (supplementary figure 2). The
148 GIGATL3 bathymetry is taken from the global 30 arc second SRTM30plus data set
149 [Becker *et al.*, 2009]. The initial state and lateral boundary conditions for velocity, sea
150 surface height, temperature, and salinity are supplied by the Simple Ocean Data

151 Assimilation data set [Carton and Giese, 2008]. Atmospheric forcing was supplied at
152 hourly resolution by the Climate Forecast System Reanalysis [Saha et al., 2010].
153 Tidal forcing derived from TPXO7 is included. The 3D velocity field is saved hourly
154 and linearly interpolated in space and time to perform two Lagrangian experiments
155 using the Pyticles software [Gula et al., 2014]. We used these two experiments to
156 improve the robustness of the dispersion patterns and diagnostics are calculated
157 using all particles across both experiments. The two experiments are strictly
158 identical in terms of the particle seeding set up and integration time, only differing by
159 starting point. The first experiment starts on 2008-08-29 whereas the second starts
160 on 2010-06-05. Each experiment consists of releasing 25 particles every 6 h at the
161 TAG vent site plume depth for 8 months. Diagnostics on particle spreading were
162 performed for particles with ages between 10 and 180 days. As particles are
163 continuously released, approximately 22000, 14000 or 5800 particles have an overall
164 lifespan of 10, 90 or 180 days, respectively, for each experiment.

165
166 Modelling experiments are also conducted using a global scale ocean general
167 circulation model. We conducted passive release experiments using two
168 configurations of the Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) model.
169 The first was the standard global configuration using the ORCA2 configuration at a
170 horizontal resolution of $2^\circ \times \cos(\text{latitude})$ curvilinear grid, with an enhancement to
171 0.5° around the equator and 31 irregularly spaced vertical levels. This *NEMO-*
172 *ORCA2* configuration is typical of those models coupled to biogeochemical models
173 to address questions regarding biogeochemical cycling (e.g. Tagliabue et al., 2022).
174 We applied the default settings and boundary conditions of the reference
175 configuration *ORCA2_ICE_PISCES* [NEMO-Consortium, 2019]. *NEMO-ORCA2* is
176 forced with CORE-II normal year atmospheric forcing, with the NCAR bulk formulae
177 [Large and Yeager, 2008]. After the initial spin-up, we conducted an idealised
178 passive tracer release. The passive tracer concentration is continuously set to one at
179 the deepest grid cell closest to the TAG site. The passive tracer fluxes at the surface,
180 at the lateral boundaries and at the bottom are set to zero and the surface passive
181 tracer concentration is restored to zero. The model is run for another 30 years (year
182 130 to 160) and the tracer spread is monitored. This scenario is repeated with a
183 *NEMO-AGRIF* configuration with the addition of two nested regions, covering the
184 TAG site, via adaptive mesh refinement package [Debreu et al., 2008]. Two level,
185 two-way nesting is used: the first level covers a region in the subtropical North
186 Atlantic (dashed rectangle in supplementary figure 3) with refinement ratio of 4 in
187 both latitude and longitude (to give a horizontal resolution of $1/2^\circ$). The second level
188 of nesting is applied over a region with the TAG site in the centre, with further
189 refinement ratio of 4 (solid line rectangle in supplementary figure 3) reaching a
190 horizontal resolution of $1/8^\circ$ or 12.48km. The passive tracer is released only in this
191 high-resolution region. The model bathymetry of the two nested regions is
192 constructed from the 5 arc minute resolution global bathymetry from ETOPO5. The
193 initial conditions and the surface forcing functions of the nested regions in *NEMO-*
194 *AGRIF* are interpolated from *NEMO-ORCA2* fields using the NEMO nesting tools.

195 196 **3. Results**

197 198 **3.1 Dispersion of DFe from the TAG hydrothermal vent field**

199

200 The TAG site is a well-studied hydrothermal vent system, sited within the mid-
201 Atlantic ridge axial valley (Figure 1). As part of the GA03 GEOTRACES section, DFe
202 measurements were taken at TAG, but the station spacing for full-depth profiles
203 exceeded 500km [Hatta *et al.*, 2015]. Within the axial valley DFe is predominantly
204 dispersed northwards in the colloidal phase. The hydrothermal DFe anomaly of
205 around 80 nM we observed at TAG matches that observed during the GA03 voyage
206 [Hatta *et al.*, 2015] and persists at 3-4 nM at the stations 19 and 30km north (Figure
207 1). In contrast, DFe drops below concentrations of 2 nM for the station 30km south,
208 indicating greater dilution and/or removal from the dissolved phase (Figure 1). At
209 TAG, the highest concentrations of DFe are associated with very low soluble Fe
210 fraction (<10%), indicating the dominance of colloidal Fe. At the depths of the
211 greatest hydrothermal DFe signals, the soluble dFe fraction within the axial valley
212 also remains low (<25%) within 30km of TAG, again indicating dominance of Fe
213 colloids in the hydrothermal DFe signal throughout the valley.

214

215 There is a contrasting DFe signal east and west from TAG off axis from the mid-
216 Atlantic ridge. At the largest spatial scales, strong hydrothermal DFe anomalies
217 persist 140-250km west of TAG (stations 28 and 29), but are absent at stations 140-
218 250km to the east (stations 33 and 32). A marked dFe anomaly between 2,200-
219 3,400m (centered on 3000m) of 2.64nM 140km from TAG (station 29) declines to a
220 more localised anomaly of 0.95nM 250km west of TAG (station 28). Both of these
221 DFe signals are above the concentrations observed at this depth and latitude at the
222 eastern stations. Notably, the elevated DFe concentrations 140-250km west of TAG
223 remain associated with low soluble DFe fractions, indicating the importance of Fe
224 colloids. Consistent with the absence of hydrothermal DFe input or transport, the
225 soluble iron fraction 140-250km to the east is closer to the 50% typically observed in
226 the deep ocean [Kunde *et al.*, 2019].

227

228 **3.2 Processes shaping the dispersion from TAG over different space and time** 229 **scales**

230

231 The particle release experiments conducted with the high-resolution particle tracking
232 model reveal the role of different processes shaping dispersion from TAG over
233 different space and timescales (Figure 2). We particularly note three stages of
234 physical dispersal.

235

236 *10-30 days:* In the immediate period following their release, particles preferentially
237 spread within the axial valley in a northeast-southwest direction, largely under
238 topographic control (Figure 2ab). The impact of topography is illustrated by the
239 topostrophy parameter, τ [Holloway, 2008], which is elevated and positive within the
240 valley and much reduced off axis (Supplementary Figure 4). That τ is >0 indicates a
241 cyclonic circulation within the axial valley basins, consistent with observed and
242 modelled circulations within the MAR valley [Lahaye *et al.*, 2019]. The topography of
243 the mid Atlantic ridge axial valley also allows particles to rapidly escape the axial
244 valley along isopycnal surfaces to the southwest via fracture zones within only a few
245 days (Figure 2a).

246

247 *60-90 days:* Particles that escape the valley spread isotropically along density
248 surfaces (Figures 2c,d). The topographic control is now very weak on average as
249 topographic slopes are weaker and particles are now well above the seafloor

250 (Supplementary Figure 4). Consequently, particles spread mostly along isopycnals
251 due to the lesser influence of diapycnal mixing processes that were occurring on and
252 within the axial valley system.

253

254 *120-180 days*: After 4-6 months, particles preferentially spread westward outside the
255 axial valley (Figure 2ef) due to the combination of the large-scale mean sub-tropical
256 gyre circulation and the planetary beta effect that constrains mesoscale vortices to
257 travel westward [Killworth, 1983; Nof, 1981]. By this stage, transport within the axial
258 valley also demonstrates a predominantly northward signal as particles fill the
259 northern axial valley basin within the mid-Atlantic ridge north of TAG. Notably,
260 dispersal westward off axis into the wider Atlantic Ocean basin and northward within
261 the axial valley matches the observed DFe concentration anomalies closely (Figure
262 1), as well as understanding from prior work [Thurnherr et al., 2002; Vic et al., 2018;
263 Yearsley et al., 2020].

264

265 **3.3 The importance of bottom topography in representing hydrothermal Fe** 266 **supply in global ocean models**

267

268 The set of simulations conducted with two NEMO allow us to explore how the
269 dispersion of hydrothermal tracers from TAG are represented by coarse resolution
270 *NEMO-ORCA2* global models and with the *NEMO-AGRIF* configuration. The *NEMO-*
271 *AGRIF* configuration has a $1/8^\circ$ (or 12.48km) resolution regional nested grid around
272 TAG (supplementary figure 3), but the vertical resolution of *NEMO-AGRIF* and
273 *NEMO-ORCA2* are around three-fold lower than the particle tracking model. This set
274 of model configurations were designed to link the very high-resolution regional
275 modelling with the types of models used for larger scale biogeochemical modelling
276 that tend to have horizontal resolutions of between $1-5^\circ$ [Roshan et al., 2020; Somes
277 et al., 2021; Tagliabue et al., 2022].

278

279 In general, the *NEMO-AGRIF* model shows very similar dispersal patterns to the
280 high-resolution particle model, with strong signals remaining localised within the axial
281 valley and spreading preferentially north within the axial valley and westward off-axis
282 (Figure 3). In contrast, the *NEMO-ORCA2* configuration typically used for
283 assessments of iron biogeochemistry show two major deficiencies, relative to the
284 nested *NEMO-AGRIF* and high-resolution particle models (Figure 2), as well as the
285 observations (Figure 1). First, high concentrations of tracer do not remain trapped in
286 the ridge system. Second, large scale dispersal operates equally away from the
287 ridge both east and west, rather than predominantly to the west. These deficiencies
288 in the zonal dispersal can be illustrated by a section taken along 26N, with the
289 *NEMO-AGRIF* nested model displaying dispersal was (i) more restricted and (ii)
290 predominantly westward as compared to the coarse resolution *NEMO-ORCA2*
291 model. Notably, both *NEMO-ORCA2* and *NEMO-AGRIF* share the same number
292 and arrangement of vertical levels, highlighting the importance of the horizontal
293 resolution in improving the agreement with both high-resolution particle tracking
294 models and inferences regarding dispersal gleaned from direct observations of DFe.
295 To compare the model configurations more directly against observations we merged
296 the GA13 data from this study with DFe observations from the GA03 GEOTRACES
297 section that followed the same cruise track, which displays a similar westward
298 propagation off axis from TAG (Figure 3e).

299

300 4. Discussion

301

302 4.1 Processes driving the dispersal of iron from the mid-Atlantic ridge

303

304 Dispersal of DFe from TAG is controlled by a combination of local mixing across
305 density surfaces and the specific geometry of the mid Atlantic ridge. Using our
306 particle tracking simulations, we tracked the cumulative changes in density during
307 the particle lifetimes to identify the importance of across isopycnal mixing in
308 explaining whether DFe dispersal west of TAG (Figure 3e) is over or around
309 topography. Enhanced mixing is associated with small scale internal tides and
310 mesoscale currents interacting with topographic features, such as mid ocean ridges
311 [Vic *et al.*, 2019]. The average cumulative change in density across all particles
312 highlights strong transfer to lighter density surfaces on the ridge crest and within the
313 axial valley (Figure 4a). Small average changes outside the axial valley are
314 associated with large variability (Figure 4b). Focussing on an example site outside
315 the valley, we can see that while average cumulative density changes are close to
316 zero, 64% of all particles experience lightening (Figure 4c, Supplementary Figure 5),
317 leading to around 200m elevation in absolute depth (Figure 4d). Within the valley,
318 the change in cumulative density is much more striking (Figure 4c), with changes in
319 absolute elevation of closer to 100m (Figure 4d). The larger changes in absolute
320 depth, despite smaller changes in cumulative density outside the valley are
321 associated with slumping and heaving of isopycnal layers. Overall, the significant
322 population of particles outside the valley without strong cumulative density changes
323 demonstrates the transfer of particles through fracture zones and highlights the role
324 of local geometry of the mid Atlantic ridge system (see Sec 3.2 and 3.3,
325 Supplementary Figure 5). Within the valley, across density mixing associated with
326 topography is much more important.

327

328 By examining the lifetime of particles reaching the local particle maxima at any given
329 location, we can quantify timescales of dispersion across the two Lagrangian
330 experiments (Figure 4e). Dispersion from TAG takes at least 100 days to reach
331 140km west of TAG (station 29) or exceeds 150 days to reach station 28 at 250km
332 from TAG (Figure 4). Since most hydrothermal iron is associated with maxima in
333 colloidal Fe, this indicates relatively strong stability of colloidal iron phases during
334 transport (for at least 6 months). We note that these estimates should be seen as
335 minimum estimates for transport to the different locations. If we integrated the
336 particle model longer, we would potentially also observe the arrival of older particles
337 and find evidence for longer term stability of colloidal iron. The extended lifetime of
338 colloidal iron may be driven by slower oxidation of colloidal iron [Gartman and
339 Luther, 2014] or its association with organic phases [Fitzsimmons *et al.*, 2017].

340

341 4.2 Using model-observation studies to quantify iron cycle mechanisms

342

343 Combining global ocean biogeochemical modelling experiments with GEOTRACES
344 datasets have played a key role in identifying significant processes shaping the
345 ocean iron cycle and their wider impacts. However, their results may be
346 compromised when the model resolution is insufficient for the system of interest. Our
347 results show that only model experiments at the 10s of km horizontal resolution can
348 accurately represent the dispersal of DFe from the TAG site on the mid-Atlantic
349 ridge, far exceeding the typical resolution of global ocean biogeochemical models

350 (100-500km). This is due to the complex topography of the axial valley setting of the
351 TAG site that is not resolved in global ocean biogeochemical models. Where ridge
352 topography is less variable, for instance at faster ridge spreading sites, e.g. the East
353 Pacific Rise, coarser resolutions may be sufficient [Resing *et al.*, 2015]. Our results
354 suggest that new solutions, accounting for high-resolution sub grids, are required to
355 properly represent DFe dispersal at scales exceeding 100km from the axial valley
356 settings that make up around half of the mid ocean ridge crest. Improved vertical
357 resolution may also be important, but this was not assessed directly in this study as
358 both NEMO model configurations had the same number and arrangement of vertical
359 levels.

360
361 The role of representing DFe input and wider transport around local topography in
362 coarse resolution models may be more generically relevant. For instance, continental
363 shelves can also be associated with complex topographic geometry and coarse
364 resolution models may face similar challenges in properly representing the dispersal
365 of tracers supplied, such as DFe. For instance, in the North Pacific, the DFe inputs
366 from sediment resuspension disperses from the sea of Okhotsk into the wider North
367 Pacific basin via North Pacific Intermediate Water (NPIW) [Nishioka *et al.*, 2021;
368 Nishioka *et al.*, 2020]. An important component of this dispersal is the strong
369 topographically induced diapycnal mixing that occurs over the Kuril straits [Yagi and
370 Yasuda, 2012], transporting DFe onto the NPIW isopycnals to then spread
371 throughout the North Pacific basin [Nishioka *et al.*, 2020]. Tidal mixing along the
372 shelf break may also be an important component of DFe supply in the southern
373 Bering Sea [Tanaka *et al.*, 2012], as well as seamounts [Lavelle *et al.*, 2004].
374 Therefore, it is important to consider any biases in the DFe dispersal from both
375 hydrothermal and sediment inputs that may arise from insufficient resolution in
376 process-based models.

377 378 **5. Conclusions**

379
380 Using a novel sampling strategy at a scale of 10s and 100s of km around the TAG
381 vent site, we document the predominant transport pathways of hydrothermal DFe.
382 Our observations indicated DFe was transported northward within the axial valley
383 and westward off axis in the colloidal size fraction. Dispersal within the valley arose
384 due to the diapycnal mixing that resulted from topographic interaction. Transport off
385 axis resulted from both diapycnal mixing and the fine scales of axial valley geometry,
386 especially fracture zones. The dispersal patterns of DFe were reproduced with a
387 high-resolution particle tracking model and a global model with a nested ~10km
388 horizontal grid, but not with a global ocean configuration. This raises challenges for
389 correctly representing DFe supply and the associated biogeochemical impacts from
390 axial valley hydrothermal vent systems, as well as other supply mechanisms around
391 local topographical features.

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394
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410

411 **Data availability statement:**

412

413 CROCO ocean model is available at <https://www.croco-ocean.org>. Information about
414 the GIGATL6 simulation can be found at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4948523>

415

416 The Lagrangian software Pyticles is available
417 at <https://github.com/Mesharou/Pyticles> and has been archived on Zenodo
418 at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4973786>.

419

420 The data from the GA13 transect is available (to view and download) as part of the
421 GEOTRACES intermediate data product 2021 which can be accessed online via
422 <https://www.geotraces.org/geotraces-intermediate-data-product-2021/>

423

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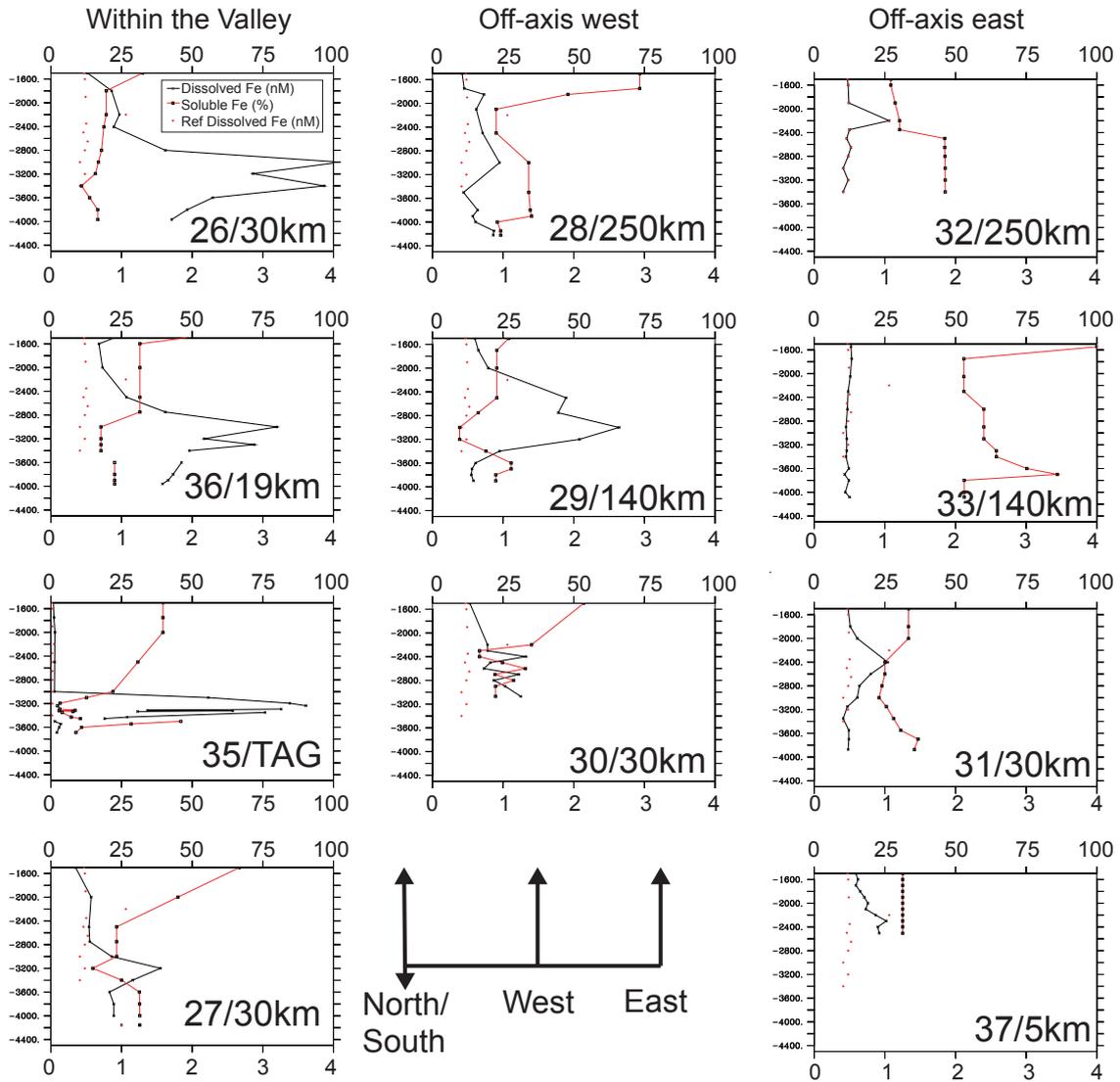
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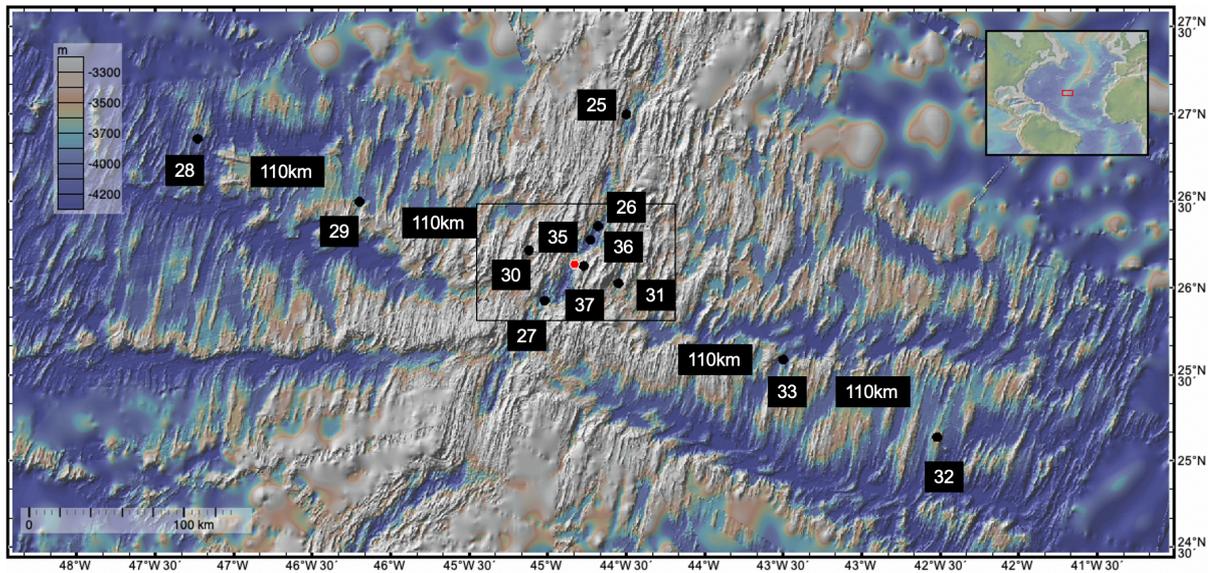
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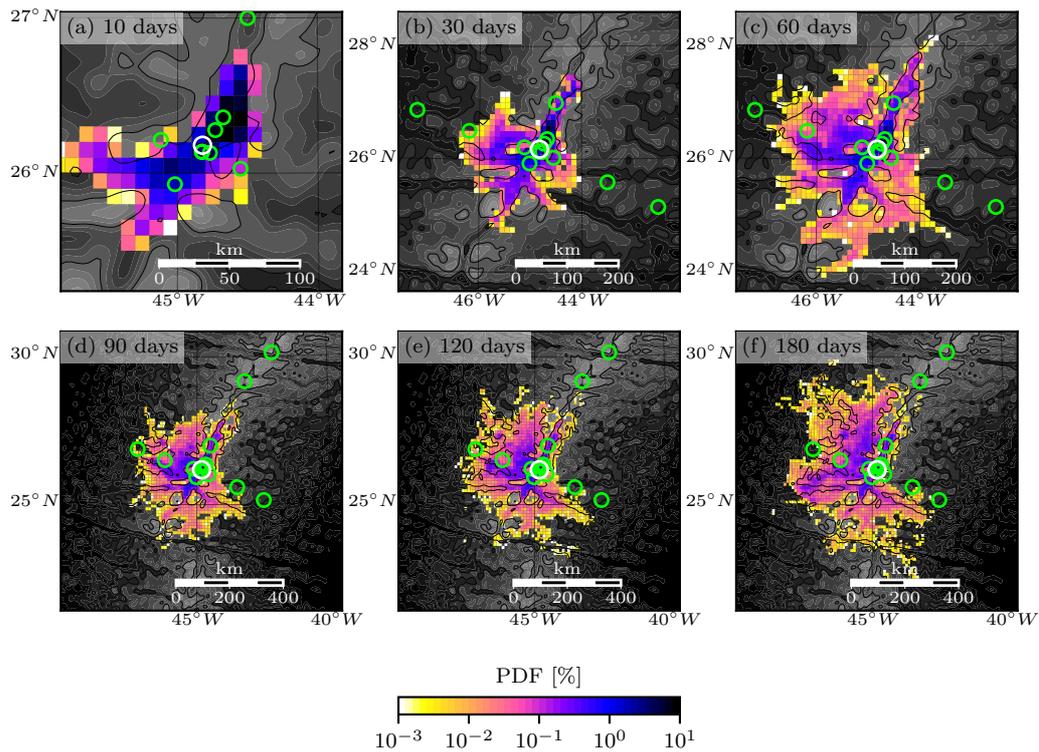


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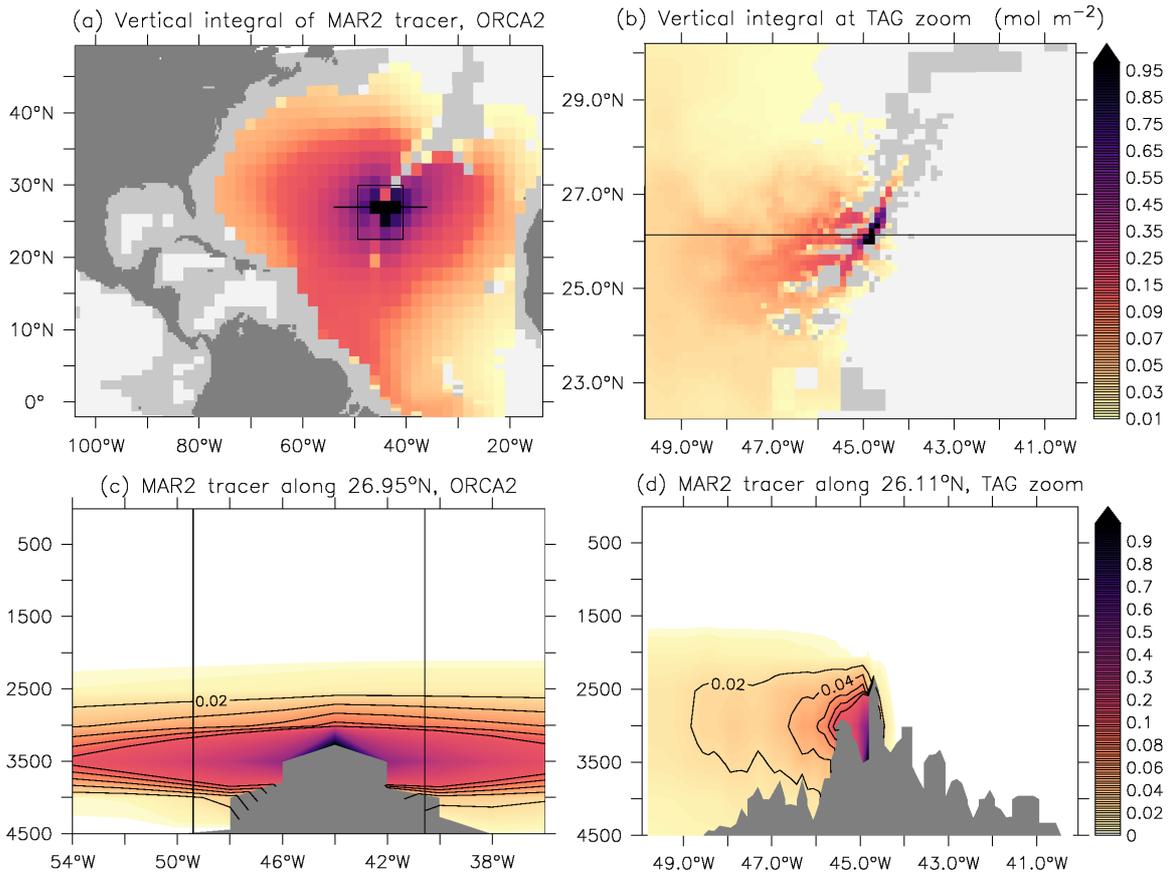
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595 Figure 1. Vertical profiles of dissolved Fe (nM, black line, bottom x-axis), percentage
596 of dFe present as soluble Fe (% , red line, top x-axis) and the iron profile from a
597 reference station (station 32, red dots, nM) for the range of stations within and outside
598 the axial valley. The left-hand column shows stations within the valley, the central
599 column shows stations from the west and the rightmost column shows stations to the
600 east. Consult the map and supplementary figure 1 for more information on the
601 stations and their spacing. Distances noted on each panel are the km from TAG.
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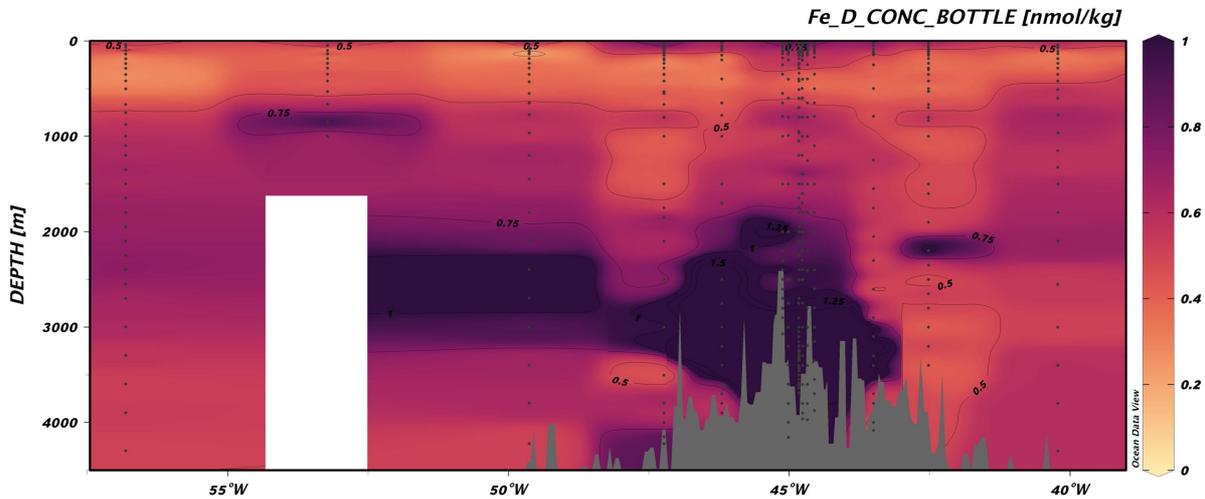


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Figure 2. Probability density function of particle presence after (a) 10, (b) 30, (c) 60, (d) 90, (e) 120 and (f) 180 days of dispersion from TAG (white circle). Individual positions are binned onto a 0.1-degree resolution grid. Green circles are the Fridge stations.



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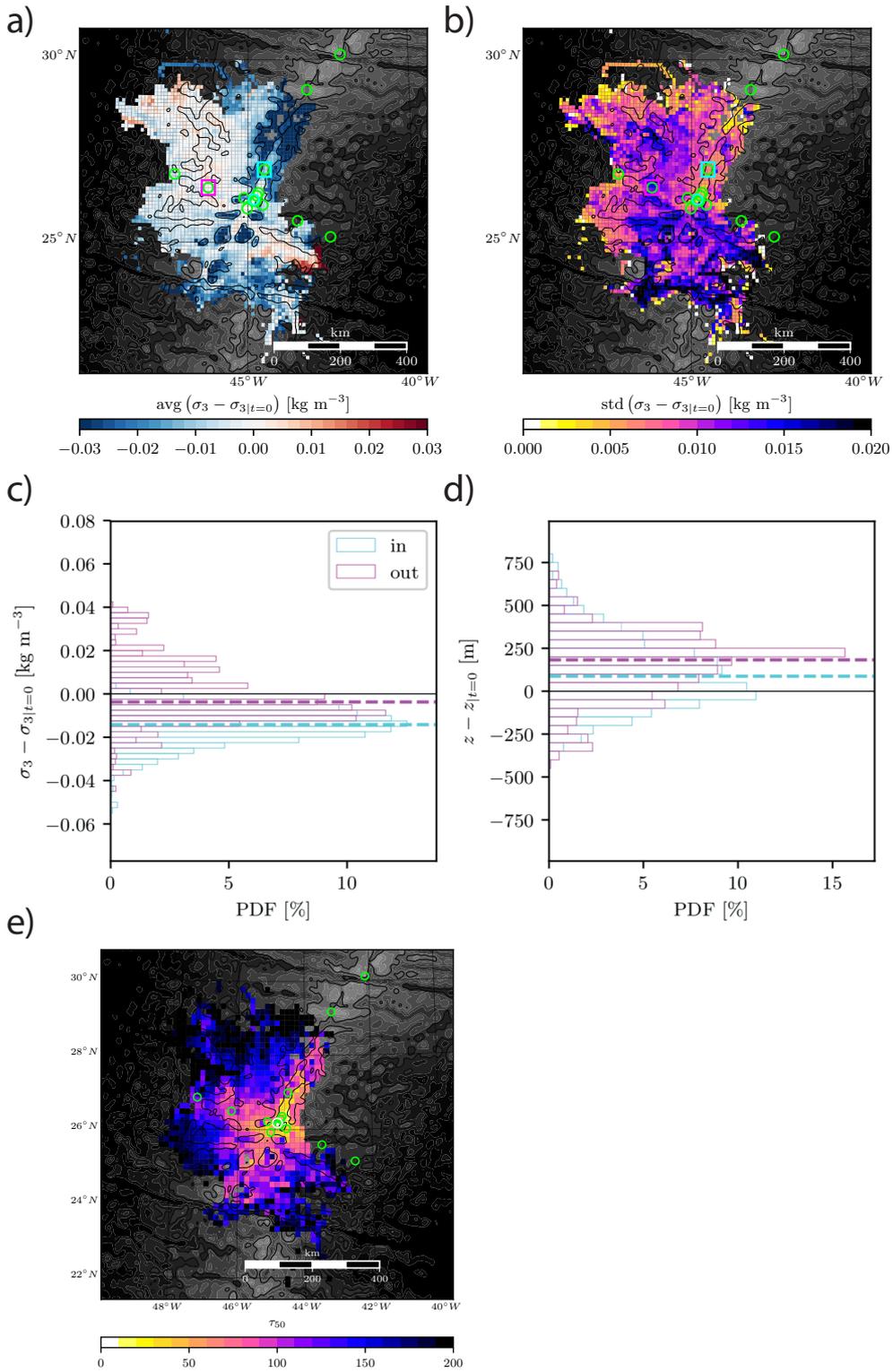
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Figure 3. Vertically integrated tracer concentrations from an idealised tracer released from TAG in two model configurations: (a) the coarse global ORCA2 configuration and (b) a nested high-resolution AGRIF configuration. Panels (c) and (d) represent the tracer concentrations along a zonal section for the ORCA and AGRIF configurations, respectively. Panel (e) displays the merged GEOTRACES DFe concentration data (nmol/kg) from the GA03 and GA13 voyages that crossed the same region.

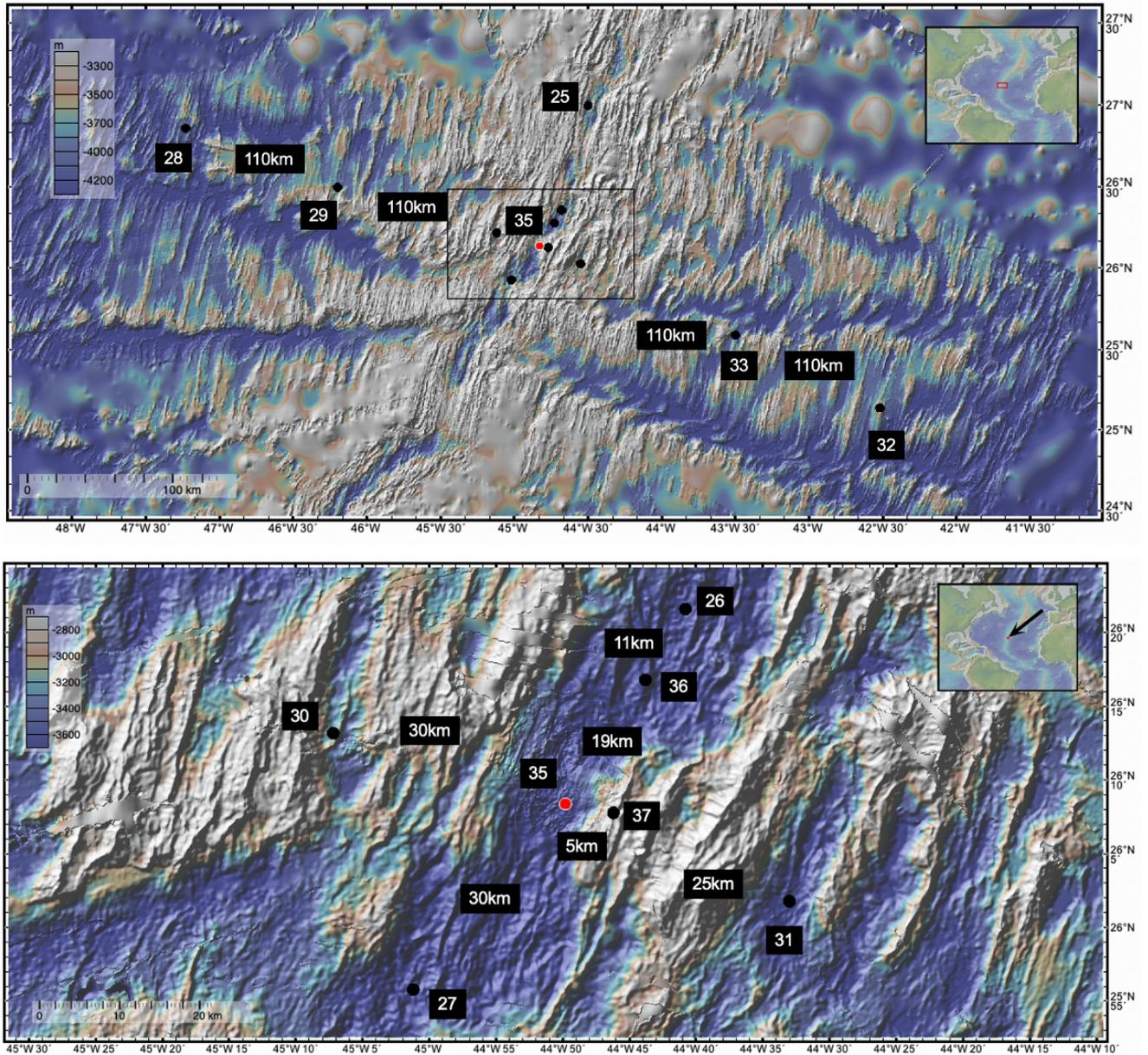


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Figure 4. a) mean and b) standard deviation of the cumulative density change relative to initial density. Panels c) and d) represent histograms of density and absolute depth for particles inside and outside the valley (see squares on map on

629 panel a). e) Median ages (in days) of particles at the depth of maximum particle
630 density after 6 months of model simulation
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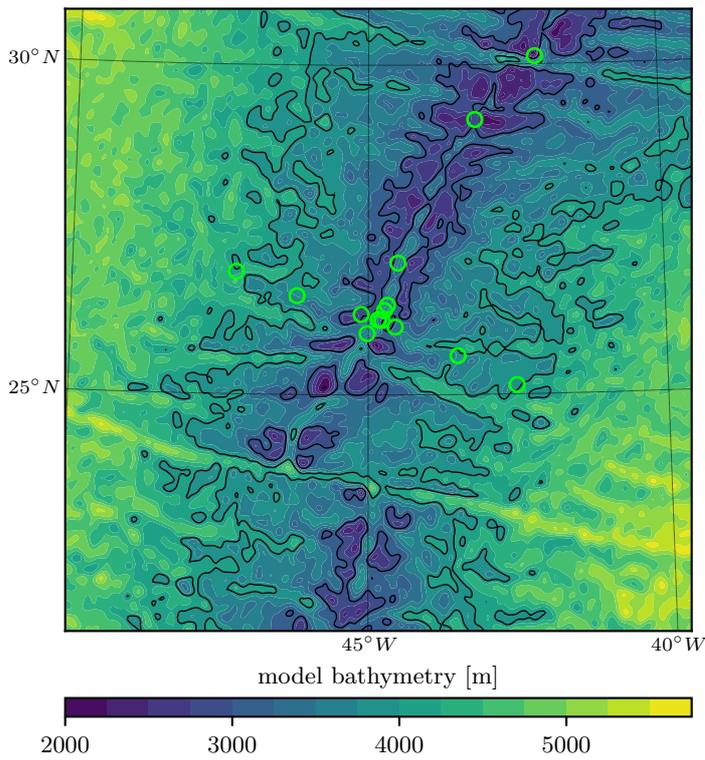
633 Supplementary Figures
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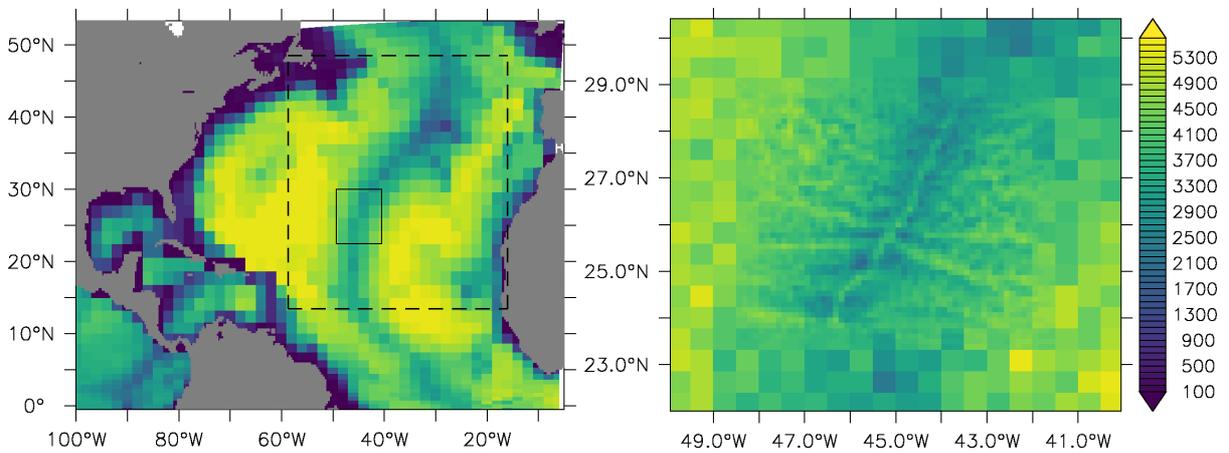
Supp Fig 1. JC156 Cruise stations. Red circle marks TAG at station 35 and labels represent the spacing between stations. The closest station spacing is between 5-30km close to TAG and extends to 110km further off axis. Upper panel shows the full domain around the TAG site and the lower panel zooms in on stations immediately adjacent to TAG enclosed by the black square.

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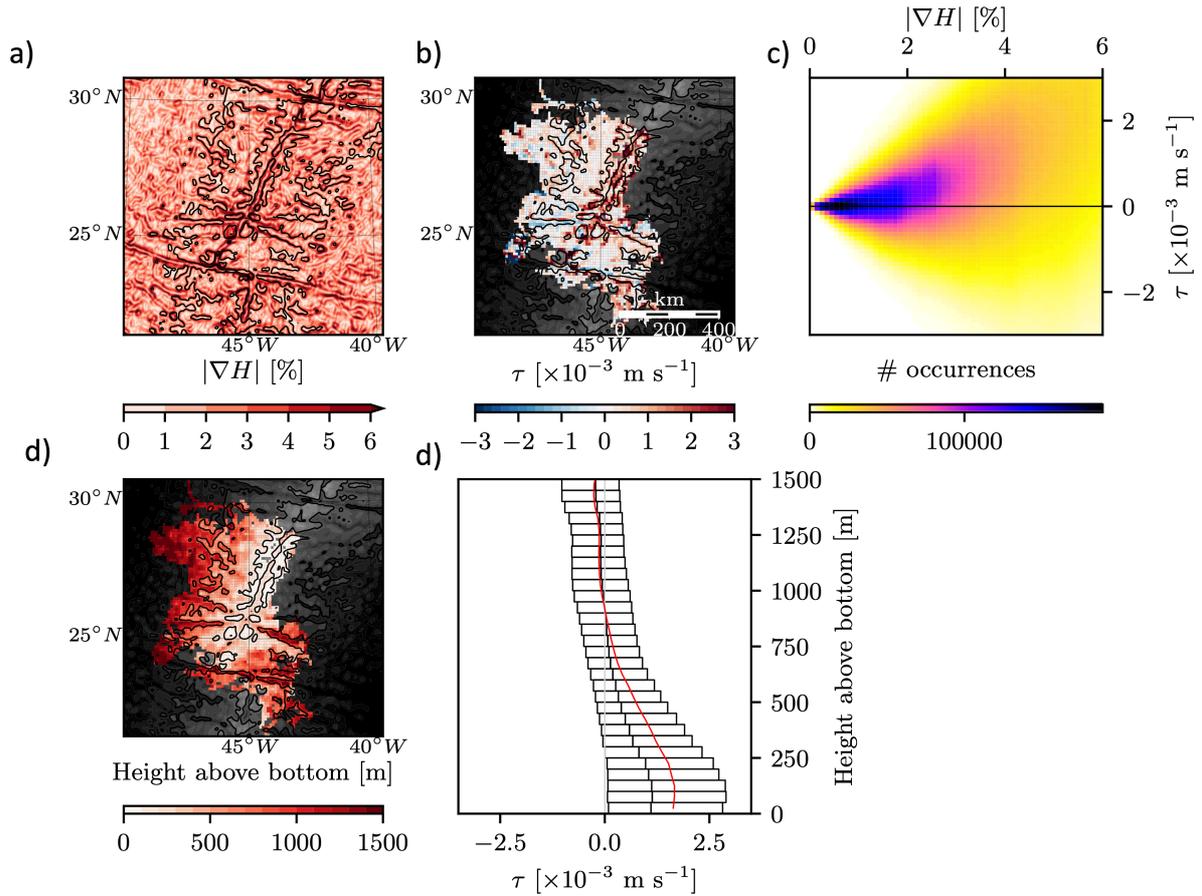
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Supp Fig 2. Bathymetry in the GIGATL3 model with the GA13 sampling locations as green circles.



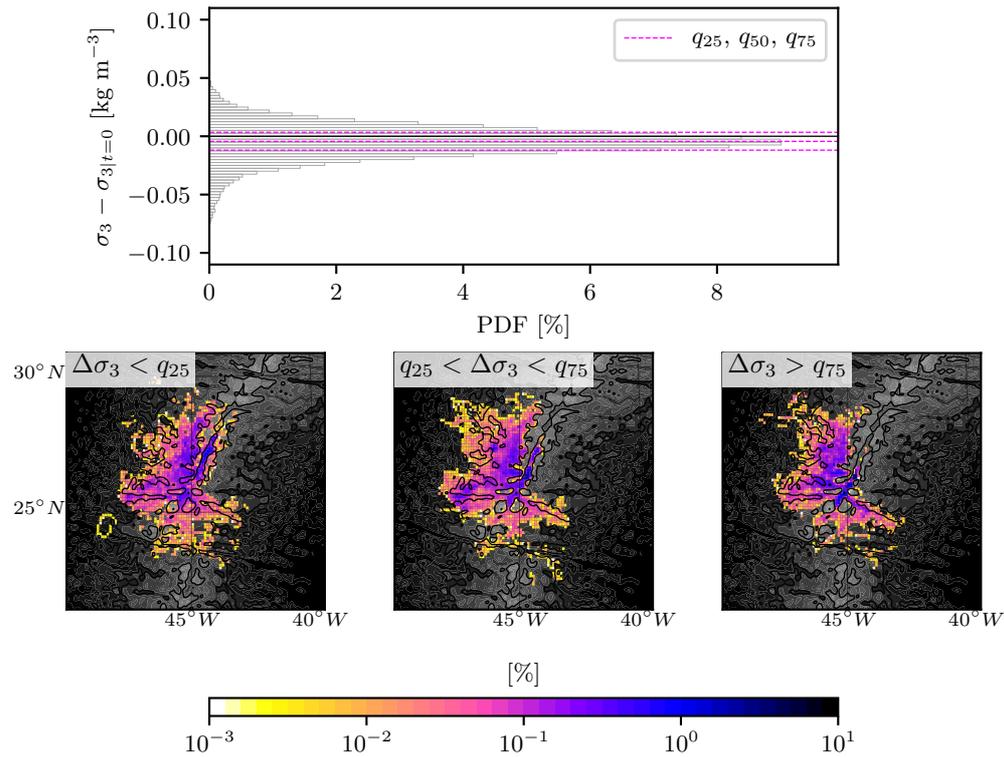
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Supp Fig 3. Bathymetry in the ORCA2 and the AGRIF nested model configuration. The AGRIF nesting is at 0.5x0.5 degrees (dashed box) and at 1/8 x1/8 degrees (black box)



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Supp Fig 4. Diagnostics related to topostrophy. (a) slope of bathymetry ($\text{grad}(H)$) (b) topostrophy (τ) computed along particle trajectories and bin-averaged (c) Histogram of τ vs $\text{grad}(H)$ (d) Bin-averaged height above bottom of particles and (e) quartiles and mean of in height-above-bottom coordinates.



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Supp Fig 5. (Top) histogram of density change and (bottom) histogram of position discriminated on density change for all particles. Lower panels show maps of the different distributions according to the density change quartile: (Left, lower quartile) the 25% of particles that have lightened the most, (middle, middle quartile) 50% of the particles that have shown the least change in density (i.e. in the middle of the histogram) and (right, upper quartile) the 25% of the particles that have become most dense.

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