The Arctic Mid-Ocean Ridge (AMOR) represents one of the most slow-spreading ridge systems on Earth. Previous attempts to locate hydrothermal vent fields and unravel the nature of venting, as well as the provenance of vent fauna at this northern and insular termination of the global ridge system, have been unsuccessful. Here, we report the first discovery of a black smoker vent field at the AMOR. The field is located on the crest of an axial volcanic ridge (AVR) and is associated with an unusually large hydrothermal deposit, which documents that extensive venting and long-lived hydrothermal systems exist at ultraslow-spreading ridges, despite their strongly reduced volcanic activity. The vent field hosts a distinct vent fauna that differs from the fauna to the south along the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The novel vent fauna seems to have developed by local specialization and by migration of fauna from cold seeps and the Pacific.

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The discovery of the Trans-Atlantic Geotraverse (TAG) hydrothermal field on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge in 1985 demonstrated that hydrothermal activity is not only restricted to ridges spreading at fast rates, but also occurs along parts of the global ridge system that are spreading at a slow rate (20–55 mm per year). At spreading rates below 20 mm per year, volcanic activity decreases to a level where the crust becomes thinner than normal and may even disappear—resulting in the upper mantle becoming exposed at the seafloor. The magmatic heat budget at these ultraslow-spreading ridges is one order of magnitude below that at fast-spreading ridges, and the extent that hydrothermal activity could be sustained at such ridges has been questioned. However, oceanographic surveys along parts of the South-west Indian Ridge and the Gakkel Ridge have shown that venting is more common than expected. Further advances in our understanding of venting at ultraslow-spreading rates have been awaiting the discovery of specific venting sites and the sampling of fluids being released there.

Chemooautotrophic primary production at submarine hot springs supports endemic vent fauna. The fauna at Pacific vent sites is distinct from that at Atlantic sites, and the discovery of a vent field at the East Indian Ridge revealed a mixed Atlantic and Pacific provenance. This has been proposed to support the hypothesis of an along-ridge migration using active vent sites as stepping stones. In the Atlantic, Iceland forms a barrier for northward along-ridge migration. Until now, four vent sites have been studied in the north of Iceland, but these are all dominated by local bathyal species. However, these vent sites are located at the southern part of the AMOR, which is influenced by the Icelandtide hot spot, and therefore they are unusually shallow. As local bathyal species are known to replace vent endemic fauna at shallow water depths, exploration of the deeper parts of the AMOR to the north was necessary to obtain conclusive information about the nature of vent fauna within the isolated Arctic Ocean.

Here, we report the discovery of a black smoker vent field located at the AMOR. The field is associated with a large hydrothermal deposit and it hosts distinct fauna, which differs from that of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.

**Results**

**Geology of the Loki’s Castle vent field.** In July 2008, we discovered a deep vent field ‘Loki’s Castle’ on the AMOR at 73°30’N and 8°E (Fig. 1), and revisited it in 2009 and 2010 for additional sampling. The vent field is located where the Moho Ridge passes into the Knipovich Ridge through a sharp northward bend in the direction of the spreading axis. The venting occurs near the summit of an AVR that is around 30 km long, and the vent field is here associated with a 50–100-m deep rift that runs along the crest of the volcano (Fig. 2). The field is composed of four active black smoker chimneys, up to 13 m tall, at the top of a mound of hydrothermal sulphide deposits. Ventsing of 310–320 °C black smoker fluids occurs at two sites that are around 150 m apart. These venting areas seem to be located above two north-east-striking, semi-parallel normal faults that define the north-western margin of the rift. Two 20–30 m high sulphide mounds have developed around the venting areas. The mounds are each 150–200 m across at the base where they coalesce into a large composite mound. This is comparable in size to the TAG-mound, which is one of the largest hydrothermal mounds known to date in the deep ocean. The main sulphide assemblage in chimneys consists of sphalerite, pyrite and pyrrhotite, with minor amounts of chalcopyrite. Some sulphide-poor samples are mostly composed of anhydrite, gypsum and talc. A gravity core taken from the mound sampled more Cu-rich hydrothermal deposits 0.5 m subsurface, indicating that higher temperature venting had occurred in the past. An area with low-temperature venting was located at the eastern flank of the mound. There, a dense field of small (< 1 m) chimneys composed primarily of barite is associated with bacterial mats and a rich vent fauna. Clear, shimmering ~20 °C fluids are locally seen to emanate from this low-temperature field.

**Vent fluid compositions.** The Loki’s Castle high-temperature vent fluids (Table 1) have high volatile concentrations (CO$_2$ = 26.0, CH$_4$ = 15.5, H$_2$ = 5.5; all in mmol kg$^{-1}$). The CH$_4$ values are among the highest reported from a volcanic-hosted field. The high CH$_4$ and H$_2$ values could indicate interaction with ultramafic rocks. However, the ultramafic systems studied to date exhibit higher concentrations of H$_2$ (up to 15–16 mmol kg$^{-1}$) and lower CH$_4$/H$_2$ ratios. The Loki’s Castle fluids are further characterized by a pH of 5.5, end-member (EM) hydrogen sulphide (H$_2$S) content up to 4.7 mmol kg$^{-1}$ and very high ammonium (NH$_4$) concentrations (6.1 mmol kg$^{-1}$). The high CH$_4$ values together with the elevated NH$_4$ concentrations point to a sedimentary influence. Significant sediment accumulations are not present at the volcanic ridge hosting the field, but the distal parts of a sedimentary fan are present 5 km to the south-east (Fig. 2). Sediments at depth below the volcano seem to be the most likely source of the anomalous volatile contents.

**Vent fauna.** Loki’s Castle harbours a rich, locally adapted and specialized, deep-water vent fauna. Dense fields of siboglinid tube worms (Sclerolinum contortum) on the sulphide mound (Fig. 3a,b) are among the organisms that dominate in terms of abundance and biomass. These are normally found on cold seeps and are common at the nearby Haakon Mosby Mud Volcano and the Nyegga cold seeps. Molecular markers support the morphological identification, and the hot vent and cold seep individuals differ by < 1% in the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I gene sequences (the Folmer fragment). A recent molecular analysis of S. contortum from the Håkon Mosby Mud Volcano yielded only evidence for sulphur-oxidizing symbionts.

A putative new species of amphipod, which requires further verification, within the Melitidae group is a characteristic member of this community (Fig. 3c,d). These amphipods are found in crevices on the chimneys and in the tube worm fields. They have two main pop.

**Figure 1 | Location of the Loki’s Castle Vent field.** A polar projection map showing the Arctic Mid-Ocean Ridge north of Iceland and the location of the Loki’s Castle vent field (red dot). The map also shows the locations of the vent fields within the Atlantic and the Pacific ocean hosting vent endemic fauna belonging to different biogeographic provinces: white, Mid-Atlantic Ridge; yellow, Azores; orange, Western Pacific; green, North-East Pacific (biogeographic provinces from ref. 11).
The reason for this is unclear, but tapping of deeper heat sources at ridges spreading at a much faster rate than mid-ocean ridges has recently been recognized. The Loki’s Castle field shows that long-lived conduits may also form directly at the AVRs, probably as a result of the slow plate divergence and the reduced volcanic activity at ultra-slow-spreading rates.

Vent fields are less frequent at ultra-slow-spreading ridges than at ridges spreading at faster rates. This is related to the magmatic heat being strongly reduced as a result of the slower spreading rates and thinner crust. However, relative to the magmatic heat available, the frequency of hydrothermal vent sites seems to be 2–3 times higher at ultra-slow-spreading ridges than at ridges spreading at faster rates. The sheer size of the mound at Loki’s Castle documents extensive venting and shows that ultra-slow-spreading ridges may host unusually large hydrothermal deposits despite their reduced magmatic heat budget. The longevity of vent fields depends on the size of the heat source and the stability of the conduit. The importance of long-lived detachment faults for hydrothermal activity at slow-spreading ridges has recently been recognized. The Loki’s Castle field shows that long-lived conduits may also form directly at the AVRs, probably as a result of the slow plate divergence and the reduced volcanic activity at ultra-slow-spreading rates.

Discussion

The sheer size of the mound at Loki’s Castle documents extensive venting and shows that ultra-slow-spreading ridges may host unusually large hydrothermal deposits despite their reduced magmatic heat budget. The longevity of vent fields depends on the size of the heat source and the stability of the conduit. The importance of long-lived detachment faults for hydrothermal activity at slow-spreading ridges has recently been recognized. The Loki’s Castle field shows that long-lived conduits may also form directly at the AVRs, probably as a result of the slow plate divergence and the reduced volcanic activity at ultra-slow-spreading rates.

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The fluid compositions indicate that the rock-water reactions occur around 2 km below the seafloor (Fig. 4b). This is comparable to the depth of the reaction zones at ridges spreading at a much faster rate. The crustal thickness is estimated to be 4±0.5 km at the central Mohns Ridge (Fig. 4c). This is 2–3 km less than the average thickness of oceanic crust. Therefore, the depth of the reaction zone

Table 1 | EM compositions of hydrothermal fluids.

|          | João 2008 | João 2009 | João 2010 | Menorah 2008 | Menorah 2009 | Menorah 2010 | Camel 2008 | Camel 2009 | Camel 2010 | Sleepy 2009 |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| pH       | 5.52      | 6.06      | 5.60      | 5.52         | 5.66         | 5.57         | 5.50       | 5.77       | 5.62       | 5.90        |
| EM NH$_4$ (mmol kg$^{-1}$) | —         | 5.17      | 5.63      | —            | 4.77         | 4.68         | —          | 5.77       | 6.13       | 4.52        |
| EM H$_2$S (mmol kg$^{-1}$) | 4.71      | 3.35      | 4.60      | 4.60         | 2.62         | 3.28         | 4.48       | 3.17       | 4.32       | 3.24        |
| EM Na (mmol kg$^{-1}$)     | 383       | 395       | 391       | 388          | 404          | 296          | 356        | 392        | 355        | 404         |
| EM K (mmol kg$^{-1}$)      | 34.9      | 34.8      | 33.0      | 34.8         | 36.8         | 24.9         | 35.1       | 34.4       | 32.7       | 36.3        |
| EM Ca (mmol kg$^{-1}$)     | 25.9      | 48.7      | 26.7      | 26.0         | 29.4         | 20.2         | 25.6       | 30.6       | 26.3       | 27.7        |
| EM Si (mmol kg$^{-1}$)     | 14.63     | 15.11     | 14.63     | 14.95        | 15.85        | 11.29        | 14.91      | 15.57      | 14.27      | 16.25       |
| EM Cl (mmol kg$^{-1}$)     | 502       | 477       | 519       | 500          | 475          | 350          | 496        | 478        | 589        | 475         |
| EM CO$_2$ (mmol kg$^{-1}$) | 22.28     | 26.01     | —         | 25.15        | 25.08        | —            | 21.52      | 25.41      | —          | 25.82       |
| EM H$_2$O (mmol kg$^{-1}$) | 4.76      | 4.81      | —         | 4.99         | 4.69         | —            | 4.90       | 4.82       | —          | 5.50        |
| EM CH$_4$ (mmol kg$^{-1}$) | 13.68     | 12.60     | —         | 13.30        | 12.52        | —            | 15.12      | 13.45      | —          | 15.55       |

Hydrothermal fluids collected from four different chimneys in 2008, 2009 and 2010. The chimneys were João, Menorah, Camel and Sleepy. EM hydrothermal fluid compositions have been calculated assuming no Mg in the hydrothermal fluids and 52 mmol per kg Mg in the seawater.
is comparable to fast-spreading ridges; however, the fraction of crust cooled convectively by hydrothermal circulation is two times that of vent fields at ridges with normal crustal thickness.

The chemosynthetic primary production at Loki's Castle supports a vent fauna that is different from that found further south in the Atlantic, where shrimps, large bivalves and crabs are abundant. This lack of typical Atlantic vent fauna indicates either an unfavourable environment or migrational barriers. The ambient water temperature at this Arctic site (~0.7°C) represents one obvious environmental difference. Iceland defines a land barrier for along-axis dispersal of fauna, and a southerly flow of deep water from the Arctic represents an additional barrier for deep-water migration northwards. The Arctic Ocean is relatively isolated from the rest of the world's oceans and a high degree of endemism in the deep-water fauna is well documented. This endemism clearly extends to the hot-vent environment.

The presence of siboglinid tube worms at Loki's Castle documents interactions between the hot vents and cold-seeps. Several factors may favour such interactions in the Arctic: (1) the general proximity of the ridge system to the continental margins; (2) the unusually high methane concentrations in vent fluids, as documented at Loki's Castle, resulting from interaction between hydrothermal fluids and glacialmarine sedimentary deposits; and (3) reduced or arrested methane release from the continental shelf during periods of glaciations—rendering the hot vents as safe havens for chemosynthetic organisms during Arctic glaciations.

Some species found at Loki's Castle are closely related to species known from vent sites in the Northern Pacific (for example, the polychaetes Nicomache sp. and Amphipamysa sp.). Seawater enters the Arctic Ocean either as the North-Atlantic current that bring warm surface water into the Arctic from the south, or as a flow of colder water through the Bering Strait from the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1). The Bering Strait first opened at 4.8–5.5 Ma, and the abrupt appearance of North-Pacific molluscs in the North Atlantic occurred at 3.6 Ma. Our present data therefore indicate that the fauna composition is a result of locally adapted species and of migration from cold seep environments in combination with recent migration of vent fauna into the Arctic Ocean from the Pacific Ocean.

The discovery of this Arctic vent field provides new opportunities to advance our understanding of the migration of vent fauna and interactions between different chemosynthetic deep-sea environments. The new Arctic vent field also provides the first insight into hydrothermal systems at ultraslow-spreading ridges, which make up 20% of the global ridge system.

Methods

Bathymetry. Bathymetry was acquired by R/V G.O. Sars using a Kongsberg Simrad EM300 multibeam echo sounder system. The data processing was done with Kongsberg Simrad Neptune software, the data were gridded to 30 m cell sizes and were displayed using the Fledermaus software package.

Water column analyses. Potential venting areas were selected based on the bathymetry, and the water column above these areas were searched for signs of venting using a Seabird conductivity/temperature/depth profiler that was equipped with 98% similarity to an uncultured methylococcaceae known as a sulphur oxidizer in the bivalve Anodontia fragilis, and sequences with 98% similarity to an uncultured Methyllococccaceae known as a methanotrophic ectosymbiont on the vent crab Shinkaia crosnieri. Small gastropods (P. griegi) populating a chimney wall, with an individual shown as an inset picture (~3 mm across).

Figure 3 | Characteristic invertebrates at the Loki's Castle vent field. (a) Siboglinid tubeworms (S. contortum) associated with low-temperature diffuse venting at the flank of the hydrothermal mound. White microbial mats and small barite chimneys in the back. (b) Close-up of the siboglinid tube worms in front of white microbial mats. Note the dense populations of small gastropods (P. griegi and Steneo sp.) on the tubes. The scale bar is 5 cm. (c) Amphipods (Melitidae sp. nov.) on a chimney wall. (d) Close-up of a ~1.5 cm juvenile Melitid amphipod. (e) Scanning electron microscopic image of chemosynthetic gill symbionts from the Melitid amphipod (the scale bar is 3 μm). Based on 16S rDNA clone libraries, the two most abundant sequences are affiliated with a gamma proteobacterium, known as a sulphur oxidizer in the bivalve Anodontia fragilis, and sequences with 98% similarity to an uncultured Methyllococccaceae known as a methanotrophic ectosymbiont on the vent crab Shinkaia crosnieri. (f) Small gastropods (P. griegi) populating a chimney wall, with an individual shown as an inset picture (~3 mm across).

Figure 4 | Depth of reaction zone and lithospheric structure. (a) Along-axis profile of the central and eastern part of the Mohns Ridge showing the variations in water depth. The profile shows the 30-km-long and 800-m-high AVR hosting the Loki's Castle vent field and the distribution of similar AVRs to the south-west along the ridge. The lines marked b and c show the locations of the along-axis profiles shown in b and c. (b, c) Profile of the water depth along the AVR hosting Loki's Castle, and the subsurface depth of the reaction zone, as estimated by EM vent fluid composition using a Si–Cl geothermobarometer. The estimated depth of the reaction zone corresponds to the seismic layer 2–3 transition as seen further west at the Mohns Ridge. The depth of the reaction zone combined with the crustal thickness suggests that as much as 50% of the crust is convectively cooled by hydrothermal circulation. (c) Seismic structure across two of the AVRs shown in a (marked c) that document the unusually thin ocean crust (~4 km) and the boundary between the different oceanic layers within the crust (data from ref. 28).
with a particle sensor (C Star transmissometer), and an Eh-sensor that was kindly provided by Koichi Nakamura (Geol. Surv. of Japan, Agency of Ind. Sci. and Technol.). Plume samples for methane and hydrogen were analysed by a headspace technique, in which 100 ml of sample and 40 ml of helium were combined in a 140 ml syringe. The sample was vigorously shaken and allowed to equilibrate until the sample reached room temperature. The analysis was done by gas chromatography using a pulsed discharge detector for hydrogen and a flame ionization detector for methane.

**Remotely operated vehicle (ROV) operations and sampling.** The vent field was located and sampled using a Bathysaurus XL remotely operated vehicle (ROV) provided by Argus Remote Systems. Video was acquired using a high-definition camera, from which the still photos were captured. Fluid samples were collected using 250 and 1,000 ml titanium syringe samplers. Fluids for gas analyses were collected in pre-evacuated titanium gas tight samplers. The vent fauna was sampled by a suction sampler and with a hydraulically operated box sampler.

**High-temperature vent fluid analyses.** H$_2$S and NH$_3$ as well as pH were measured onboard. The subsamples analysed for H$_2$S were drawn in a vial and fixed immediately with reagents for the photometric methylene blue method. H$_2$S analyses were done using the photometric indophenol method. Chloride was analysed onshore by ion chromatography, and magnesium and silica were quantified by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry. On recovery, the gas tight samplers were connected to a shipboard vacuum line and the gases were extracted, dried and sealed in break-seal glass tubes. Several cuts of each sample were taken and CO$_2$, CH$_4$, and H$_2$ contents were analysed in shore-based laboratories. The Mg contents of the different samples provided information on the relative amount of hydrothermal fluid and seawater in the samples taken. The Mg value of the sample was then used to calculate the vent fluid composition (called EM vent fluid composition), shown in Table 1.

**DNA and stable isotope analyses.** The C, N and S isotope compositions of vent fauna taxa were analysed at Institute for Energy Technology (IFE), Norway. Approximately 1 mg of material was used for the C and N analyses and 2 mg for the S analyses. The isotopic measurements were done with a Nu Instruments Horizon, quartz isotope ratio mass spectrometer, and the results were corrected against internationa

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investigators. R.B.P. has been responsible for the acquisition of bathymetry and ROV operations; H.T.R. for taxonomy and fauna analyses; I.H.T., T.B. and K.F. for vent fluid analyses; M.D.L. and G.L.F.G. for gas sampling and analyses; F.J.A.S.B. and R.F. for sulphide sampling and analyses; and S.L.J. for quality check of DNA data. R.B.P. wrote the bulk of the text with contributions from H.T.R., I.H.T., M.D.L., F.J.A.S.B. and G.L.F.G.

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