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ABSTRACT

36 The molecular structure and stability of species formed by silver in aqueous saline solutions typical 37 of hydrothermal settings were quantified using in situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) 38 measurements, quantum-chemical modeling of near-edge absorption spectra (XANES) and extended fine 39 structure spectra (EXAFS), and first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD). Results show that in nitratebearing acidic solutions to at least 200°C, silver speciation is dominated by the hydrated Ag⁺ cation 40 surrounded by 4 to 6 water molecules in its nearest coordination shell with mean Ag-O distances of 41 42 ~2.32±0.02 Å. In NaCl-bearing acidic aqueous solutions of total Cl concentration from 0.7 to 5.9 mol/kg 43 H₂O (m) at temperatures from 200 to 450°C and pressures to 750 bar, the dominant species are the dichloride complex AgCl₂⁻ with Ag-Cl distances of 2.40±0.02 Å and Cl-Ag-Cl angle of 160±10°, and the 44 tri-chloride complex AgCl₃²⁻ of a triangular structure and mean Ag-Cl distances of 2.55±0.05 Å. With 45 46 increasing temperature, the contribution of the tri-chloride species decreases from ~50% of total dissolved 47 Ag in the most concentrated solution (5.9m Cl) at 200°C to less than 10-20% at supercritical temperatures for all investigated solutions, so that $AgCl_2^{-}$ becomes by far the dominant Ag-bearing species at 48 49 conditions typical of hydrothermal-magmatic fluids. Both di- and tri-chloride species exhibit outer-sphere 50 interactions with the solvent as shown by the detection, using FPMD modeling, of H₂O, Cl⁻, and Na⁺ at 51 distances of 3 to 4 Å from the silver atom. The species fractions derived from XAS and FPMD analyses, and total AgCl_(s) solubilities, measured in situ in this work from the absorption edge height of XAS 52 53 spectra, are in accord with thermodynamic predictions using the stability constants of $AgCl_2^{-1}$ and $AgCl_3^{-2}$ 54 from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) and Zotov et al. (1995), respectively, which are based on extensive 55 previous AgCl(s) solubility measurements. These data are thus recommended for chemical equilibrium 56 calculations in mineral-fluid systems above 200°C. In contrast, our data disagree with SUPCRT-based datasets for Ag-Cl species, which predict large fractions of high-order chloride species, AgCl32- and 57 AgCl₄³⁻ in high-temperature saline fluids. Comparisons of the structural and stability data of Ag-Cl 58 59 species derived in this study with those of their Au and Cu analogs suggest that molecular-level 60 differences amongst the chloride complexes such as geometry, dipole moment, distances, and resulting 61 outer-sphere interactions with the solvent may account, at least partly, for the observed partitioning of Au, 62 Ag and Cu in vapor-brine and fluid-melt systems. In hydrothermal environments dominated by fluid-rock 63 interactions, the contrasting affinity of these metals for sulfur ligands and the differences both in 64 chemistry and stability of their main solid phases (Ag sulfides, Cu-Fe sulfides, and native Au) largely 65 control the concentration and distribution of these metals in their economic deposits.

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1. INTRODUCTION

69 There is a growing need for better understanding the silver behavior in hydrothermal systems 70 hosting a major part of Ag resources on Earth. Despite the low abundance of silver in the continental crust 71 (~50 ppb, Rudnick and Gao, 2003), this trace element is enriched in hydrothermal fluids, with 72 concentrations up to ~100 ppm in brines as show fluid-inclusion analyses (e.g., Heinrich et al., 1999; 73 Ulrich et al., 1999; Audétat et al., 2000; Borisova et al., 2012). Although silver usually follows its 74 geochemical analogs, copper and gold, Ag/Cu and Ag/Au ratios in magmatic-hydrothermal deposits vary 75 over 3-4 orders of magnitude. For example, typical Ag/Au mass ratios in porphyry deposits and epithermal adularia-quartz and alunite-quartz deposits, ~1÷1000, are significantly higher than those of 76 77 Carlin-type, skarn, and orogenic gold deposits, ~0.001÷1 (e.g., Sillitoe and Hedenquist, 2003; Pal'yanova, 78 2008). Silver also fractionates from gold and copper in vapor-brine systems of magmatic-hydrothermal 79 settings, where Ag partitions preferentially into the saline solution, whereas Au and Cu often enrich the 80 aqueous low-density vapor, as inferred from natural fluid inclusion data and laboratory experiments 81 (Pokrovski et al., 2005a, 2008a; Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 2012; references therein). Knowledge of the 82 chemical speciation of silver in geological fluids over the range of magmatic-hydrothermal conditions is 83 the primary requisite for modeling Ag transfers in natural vapor-fluid-melt systems, identifying favorable 84 conditions of Ag-bearing minerals formation, and interpreting Ag tenors in different types of deposits. 85 The present contribution is aimed to provide new data on the stoichiometry and structure of aqueous 86 complexes that carry silver in hydrothermal fluids.

Among the three major natural ligands, hydroxide, sulfide, and chloride that transport base and precious metals in saline liquids and vapors, the Cl⁻ ion is believed to be the principal carrier of Ag, similarly to other base metals (Fe, Zn, Pb), as demonstrated by numerous experimental studies of Agbearing mineral solubilities and vapor-liquid and fluid-melt partitioning (e.g., Wood et al., 1987; Zotov et al., 1995; Wood and Samson, 1998; Pokrovski et al., 2005a, 2008a,b; Simon et al., 2008; references therein). The other two ligands, H_2S/HS^- and H_2O/OH^- , may contribute to Ag solubility only in fluids

characterized by low temperatures and salinities, alkaline pH and/or elevated sulfide contents (e.g.,
Webster, 1986; Stefánsson and Seward, 2003; references therein). The effect of less common ligands such
as ammonia (e.g., Wood and Samson, 1998), selenide (Akinfiev et al., 2008), bromide and iodide
(Gammons and Yu, 1997), which may form strong chemical bonds with the Ag⁺ ion, is expected to be
weak in typical hydrothermal fluids with low concentrations of these components compared to the far
more abundant chloride.

99 There is thus little doubt that chloride complexes play the major role in the hydrothermal and 100 magmatic transport of Ag; however, they have been a subject of rather limited experimental work 101 concerning the exact stoichiometry and thermodynamic stability of these important species. Two major 102 sources of data on Ag-Cl aqueous species are those of Seward (1976) and Zotov et al. (1995, references 103 therein) who carried out systematic measurements of native silver (Ag) and chlorargirite (AgCl) solubility 104 over wide temperature (T), pressure (P) (to 450°C and 1.5 kbar) and Cl concentration (to 7 m NaCl and/or 105 KCl) ranges. Their data indicate that the dichloride $AgCl_2^-$ is likely to be the dominant species to at least 2m Cl; the mono-chloride complex $AgCl^{0}$ is significant only in dilute solutions (< 0.01m Cl); higher-order 106 chloride complexes (AgCl₃²⁻) form only in concentrated Cl brines at moderate temperatures. The large 107 stability of AgCl₂⁻ was confirmed by subsequent solubility work conducted in narrower T-P-composition 108 109 windows (e.g., Gammons and Williams-Jones, 1995; Akinfiev and Zotov, 1999). Because the 110 thermodynamic properties of the crystalline silver chloride, AgCl_(s), and aqueous AgCl₂⁻ were believed to be well constrained at $T < 300^{\circ}C$ from those works, they were used indirectly to derive the formation 111 constants of aqueous HCl⁰ and chloride complexes of a number of metals like Zn, Ca, Mn, Pt, Pd, Nd by 112 113 measuring changes in AgCl(s) solubility in the presence of the metal cation in moderately-saline solutions 114 (Ruaya and Seward, 1986, 1987; Williams-Jones and Seward, 1989; Gammons, 1995; Gammons and 115 Seward, 1996; Gammons et al., 1996; Tagirov et al., 1997).

However, large discrepancies exist on both stability and stoichiometry of Ag-Cl complexes at
 elevated salt concentrations (> 2m) typical of natural magmatic-hydrothermal fluids. In particular, tri- and

118 tetra-chloride complexes, which are known for silver at ambient temperatures (Martell et al., 2004,) and 119 for many other metals (Fe, Pb, Zn, Cd) both at ambient and hydrothermal conditions (e.g., Wood and 120 Samson, 1998; Martell et al., 2004; Testemale et al., 2009; Bazarkina et al., 2010; references therein), 121 were insufficiently explored for Ag above 100-200°C. Based on the available solubility studies cited 122 above and ambient-temperature data on [AgCl₁₋₄] complexes from abundant chemical literature (Martell 123 et al., 2004, NIST Critical database 8.0; refs therein), Sverjensky et al. (1997) and Akinfiev and Zotov 124 (2001) have generated two independent datasets of thermodynamic properties of Ag-Cl complexes using 125 the revised Helgeson-Kirkham-Flowers (HKF) model (Tanger and Helgeson, 1988). These datasets are 126 now integrated in computer codes and largely used by geochemists; however, they appear surprisingly 127 inconsistent as shown in Fig. 1. Calculations using these two datasets reveal large differences at T > 128 300°C and $m_{Cl} > 1.5m$ in the Ag chloride species distribution dominated either by AgCl₂⁻ (Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001) or AgCl₄³⁻ (Sverjensky et al., 1997). This leads to large discrepancies when predicting Ag-129 130 bearing minerals solubility in saline fluids at elevated T, attaining a factor of 10 to 100 in dissolved Ag 131 concentration above 400°C over the acidity and sulfur fugacity ranges typical of natural fluids (Fig. 2). 132 These discrepancies may also affect the thermodynamic data for other metal chloride complexes derived 133 from solubility measurements of AgCl(s) (see above). In addition to the chloride number (also commonly 134 referred to as ligation number), knowledge of species geometry and hydration structure (i.e., presence of 135 water molecules in the Ag coordination shell) is also required to interpret Ag partitioning in brine-vapor 136 systems (Pokrovski et al., 2005a, 2008a). Molecular structures of Ag species are necessary to make sound 137 physical-chemical comparisons with its analogues, Au and Cu, which also form chloride complexes in 138 hydrothermal fluids.

In situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) provides a direct way to resolve the discrepancies of the Ag-Cl species stoichiometry and to access their structures and hydration numbers. In contrast to its analogs Au and Cu whose major chloride and sulfide complexes in high T-P aqueous solution have recently been investigated using XAS (Fulton et al., 2000; Brugger et al., 2007, Berry et al., 2009;

143 Pokrovski et al., 2009a,b; Etschmann et al., 2010), the only data available for Ag at T above ambient is a XAS study of Ag⁺ hydration to 300°C and saturated vapor pressure (P_{sat}) are those of Seward et al. 144 (1996). This cation is however unlikely to play a major role in typical chloride-bearing fluids (see above). 145 146 Recent improvements in the design of high T-P optical cells for synchrotron (e.g., Testemale et al., 2005) 147 allow now in situ XAS measurements on dissolved metals to supercritical conditions, avoiding the 148 difficulties of classical hydrothermal-reactor techniques related to bulk solubility determination (e.g., 149 artifacts related to sampling or quenching, Pokrovski et al., 2008b) and its interpretation in terms of 150 dissolved species (e.g., choice of speciation models based on bulk solubility, Pokrovski et al., 2006). In 151 addition, a far more rigorous analysis of XAS data is now possible owing to the progress in quantum-152 chemistry and molecular dynamics modeling allowing robust constraints on electronic structures, species 153 geometries, hydration shells, and solute-solvent interactions (e.g., Ferlat et al., 2002; Dang et al., 2006; 154 D'Angelo et al., 2008; Sherman, 2010).

In this work, we performed in situ XAS measurements (including near-edge structure spectra or XANES, and extended fine structure or EXAFS spectra) on silver chloride aqueous solutions in a wide salinity range (0.7-5.9m Cl) at 200-450°C and 600-800 bar. The data were processed using classical EXAFS analyses, quantum-chemical simulations of XANES, and first-principles molecular dynamics modeling of Ag-Cl-H₂O interactions in aqueous solution. Results provide new speciation and structural data on Ag chloride complexes responsible for the transport of this metal by geological fluids, and allow a better interpretation of the behavior of Ag and associated metals (Au and Cu) in hydrothermal settings.

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2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

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5 2.1. Experimental design and X-ray absorption spectra acquisition

166 XAS measurements were performed on one nitrate $AgNO_3$ -HNO_3 and three chloride AgCl-NaCl-HCl 167 aqueous solutions, prepared from analytical grade reagents and deionized water. Solution compositions are reported 168 in Table 1 in molality units (m = number of moles of each solute per kg of water). Hydrogen peroxide (0.05-0.10 m 169 H_2O_2) was also added in each solution to prevent precipitation of native silver that may happen at elevated 170 temperature (e.g., Seward, 1973). A weighed amount of silver chloride, which is weakly soluble at ambient 171 temperature (< 0.001m), was pressed in pellets and loaded in the experimental cell. Total dissolved silver 172 concentration in solution was measured from the absorption edge height in transmission mode (Pokrovski et al., 2005b, 2009a; Table 1). The solubility of AgCl_(s) increases with temperature (e.g., Seward, 1976), and the 173 174 acquisition was started > 200° C when dissolved Ag concentrations are high enough (> 0.01 m) to allow low-noise 175 EXAFS spectra to be obtained in transmission mode (see below). At moderate T (200-300°C), dissolved Ag 176 concentrations attain a steady state value within 10 min. after the temperature reach and remain stable for at least 177 several hours, indicating that equilibrium with AgCl(s) is likely to be reached. The rapid equilibrium reach is in 178 agreement with previous batch-reactor solubility studies (Seward, 1976; Zotov et al., 1995). However, at T > 300°C 179 and high salinities with large excess of solid phase, Ag dissolved concentrations decreased systematically and 180 $AgCl_{(s)}$ precipitation occurred on the colder optical windows of the cell at the X-ray beam passage. This was 181 manifested by noisy spectra clearly showing the contribution of the solid whose spectrum is very different from 182 those of solutions. In the experiments reported in this study, this was carefully avoided by using smaller amounts of 183 AgCl_(s), corresponding to under-saturated solutions at $T > 300^{\circ}$ C. In this case, spectra from solutions show no 184 detectable contribution of AgCl_(s). Thus, AgCl(s) solubility could only be accurately measured at 200°C for all Cl 185 concentrations and at 300°C for the lowest m_{Cl} concentration (0.7m, Table 1). Although minor losses of Ag from 186 solution owing to AgCl_(s) precipitation in the colder zones of the cell, close to the pistons which are out of the 187 sample space probed by X-rays, were still observed for some experiments above 300°C (Table 1), it did not affect 188 the XAS spectra from solution, demonstrating that no precipitation of $AgCl_{(s)}$ occurs at the beam passage.

189 XAS spectra from Ag aqueous solutions were collected at the Ag K-edge (~25.5 keV) over the energy 190 range 25.2-26.7 keV on BM29 bending-magnet beamline (Filipponi et al., 2000) at the European Synchrotron 191 Radiation Facility (ESRF, Grenoble, France). The storage ring was operated at 6 GeV with a ~200 mA current. The 192 beam energy was selected using a Si (311) double-crystal monochromator detuned by 30% to eliminate higher-193 order harmonics. Energy was calibrated using a silver metal foil and setting the maximum of its main-edge 194 spectrum derivative at 25.514 keV. Spectra were recorded in transmission mode using ion chambers filled with Ar 195 gas. Multiple XAS scans were performed on each T-P-composition point, with an acquisition time of ~40 min/scan. 196 Experiments were conducted using a high T-P cell developed at the Institute Néel (Grenoble) and recently

described in detail elsewhere (Pokrovski et al., 2005b, 2006, 2009a; Testemale et al., 2005). Both solution and solid were placed in the internal cell that consists of a vertical 1-mm thick glassy-carbon tube and two coaxial sapphire pistons, which delimit the sample space and move in the tube in response to T-P changes. The cell is heated by electrical resistances and placed in a stainless-steel vessel pressurized with helium gas and equipped with beryllium windows for X-ray passage. Temperature in the sample space was controlled within $\pm 5^{\circ}$ C by thermocouples attached to the glassy-carbon tube. Pressure was monitored by manometers at the cell exit and the end of pressure line; pressure differences between them do not exceed a few bars.

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205 **2.2. X-ray absorption spectra analysis**

206 EXAFS data analysis was performed with the HORAE and IFEFFIT programs (Ravel and Newville, 2005) 207 and following the recommendations of the International XAFS Society (Sayers, 2000). Details about the reduction 208 procedure can be found elsewhere for similar metals (Pokrovski et al., 2006, 2009a,b). Briefly, energies were recalculated into k-space (Å⁻¹) with E_0 (i.e., the energy at which k is zero) chosen as the maximum of the first 209 210 derivative of the main-edge spectrum. Spectra were normalized to the absorption edge height, background removed, weighted by k^n , where n = 1, 2 and 3, and Fourier transformed (FT) over the k range 3.0-11.6 Å⁻¹ for chloride and 211 3.0-10.0 Å⁻¹ for nitrate aqueous samples. The shorter k-range for nitrate solutions is dictated by i) the low amplitude 212 of the Ag-O EXAFS signal at high k-values comparable to the spectral noise, and ii) the presence of multielectron 213 excitations $KM_{4,5}$ and $KM_{2,3}$ that appear in the chi(k) data at 10.3 and 12.7 Å⁻¹ (Fulton et al., 2009). In contrast, the 214 215 EXAFS spectrum of the Ag-Cl contribution dominant in Cl-bearing solutions has a higher signal-to-noise ratio above 10 Å⁻¹ and thus is much less affected by the multielectron transitions. This was checked by EXAFS fits of 216 larger k-ranges (up to 13.5 Å⁻¹) for some low-noise spectra; they yielded no changes within errors in the derived 217 218 structural parameters. Fits were performed in R-space on both real and imaginary parts of the FT contributions to 219 obtain the identity of neighbor atoms, Ag-neighbor distance (R), coordination number (N), and Debye-Waller factor 220 (σ^2) for each scattering path (Table 1). A single nonstructural parameter Δe was varied to account for the difference 221 between the experimental absorption-edge energy and its estimate made by FEFF. To diminish correlations between N and σ^2 , and better account for light (O) versus heavy (Cl) neighbors and multiple scattering paths, fits 222 223 were performed simultaneously with k-weighting of 1, 2 and 3. The fitted values of structural parameters were 224 identical within errors, with comparable fit qualities at each k-weighting. This is an additional demonstration of

225 both the validity of the chosen structural models and the accuracy of the EXAFS background removal procedure 226 (Ravel and Newville, 2005; Kelly et al., 2008). Theoretical backscattering amplitude and phase-shift functions for 227 Ag-O and Ag-Cl single and multiple scattering paths were computed by the FEFF6 ab-initio code (Zabinsky et al., 228 1995) using AgNO₃ and AgCl crystal structures (Gibbons and Trotter, 1971; Hull and Keen, 1999). The amplitude reduction factor (S_0^2) was set at 0.75±0.05 as found by fitting the spectra of crystalline Ag₂O, AgNO₃, AgCl, and 229 230 Ag₂S solids. The effect of inharmonic disorder was accounted using the cumulant expansion method with third- and 231 fourth-order cumulants (c3 and c4). Multiple scattering (MS) events within the Ag first coordination shell were 232 tested using the FEFF code, assuming tetrahedral, trigonal pyramidal, and linear geometries around Ag as found in 233 the model compounds.

234 In addition to classical EXAFS analyses, XANES spectra of different Ag-Cl-H₂O molecular clusters were modeled ab-initio based on the experimental EXAFS-derived Ag-Cl and Ag-O distances and geometries found 235 236 from molecular dynamics (see below) using the FDMNES computer code (Joly, 2001). Details about this approach for aqueous species can be found elsewhere (e.g., Testemale et al., 2004; Pokrovski et al., 2009a, Bazarkina et al., 237 238 2010). Very briefly, calculations of theoretical XANES spectra of different cluster's symmetry and geometry were 239 performed using the Finite Difference Method (FDM) with an energy resolution of < 0.1 eV (note that in case of 240 low symmetry, the muffin-tin approximation is not sufficient in the near-edge energy range; Joly, 2001). The 241 obtained spectra, which display almost all possible electronic transitions, are further convoluted with a Lorentzian 242 function with a full width of 6.75 eV (Gamma_hole key in the FDMNES input file) to account for the core-hole 243 lifetime at the Ag K-edge, and a Gaussian function to account for the experimental resolution assumed to be equal 244 to the intrinsic resolution of the (311) monochromator (1.1 eV). The value of energy of the Fermi level (E_{fermi}) was 245 fixed to -3.0 eV based on the examination of the density of states (DOS) of the different electronic levels. Changing 246 the values of E_{fermi} from -6 to 0 eV produces only minor effects on the calculated XANES spectra.

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248 **2.3.** First-principles molecular dynamics simulations

Three different compositions in the model Ag-NaCl-H₂O system were simulated, each consisting of 128 water molecules, 1 Ag⁺, 1 Na⁺, and 2, 3 or 4 Cl⁻ ions. These numbers of Cl⁻ ions correspond to apparent Cl molalities (m_{Cl}) of 0.9, 1.3, and 1.7, respectively, but because of the low Cl/Ag ratios in our systems (from 2 to 4), the concentration of free Cl⁻ not complexed with Ag is much smaller. This should be kept in mind when comparing

the FPMD results with XAS data from experimental Ag-Na-Cl solutions, where total Cl/Ag ratios are much higher (from 20 to 100, Table 1). The model with 4 Cl⁻ ions was examined at near-ambient (50°C, 1 bar) and supercritical (380°C, 600 bar) conditions. The models with 2 and 3 Cl⁻ ions were simulated at supercritical conditions only.

The stability of Cl⁻-bearing complexes was simulated by inserting pre-formed $AgCl_n^{(n-1)-}$ clusters with n = 2256 257 to 4. For n = 4, the initial geometric configuration is a tethahedral complex with Ag-Cl bonds of 2.35 Å and Cl-Ag-258 Cl angles of 109.5°. For n = 3 and n = 2, the initial configurations were derived from the latter one by removing 259 chlorine atoms. To accelerate the equilibration of the surrounding water molecules, classical molecular dynamics simulations using empirical force-fields were ran for typically 1 ns while keeping fixed the geometry of the AgCl_n⁽ⁿ⁻ 260 ¹⁾⁻ complexes. Cubic periodic boundary conditions were employed. The box sizes were adjusted to reach a pressure 261 262 value close to the target pressures in the empirical force-field simulations (1 bar at 50°C and 600 bar at 380°C), 263 while being guided by the equation of state of the NaCl-H₂O system (Anderko and Pitzer, 1993; Bakker, 2003). The resulting cubic box sizes are 15.7 Å and 17.8 Å for the system with 4 Cl⁻ at near-ambient and supercritical 264 conditions, respectively, and 18.0 Å and 17.7 Å for the systems with 2 and 3 Cl⁻, respectively. The final 265 266 configurations obtained at the end of the classical runs were then used as starting configurations for FPMD 267 simulations.

268 The FPMD simulations were carried out within the Density Functional Theory (DFT) framework and 269 the Born-Oppenheimer method using the freely available program package QUICKSTEP/CP2K (VandeVondele et 270 al., 2005a). QUICKSTEP uses a hybrid Gaussian plane-wave (GPW) method (Lippert et al. 1997). A triple-zeta 271 valence doubly polarized (TZV2P) basis set was chosen for oxygen, hydrogen, and chlorine (VandeVondele et al. 272 2005b), whereas the double-zeta valence plus polarization (DZVP) basis set optimized for molecules 273 (VandeVondele et al., 2007) was employed for silver. Core electrons were replaced by the Goedecker-Teter-Hutter 274 (GTH) norm-conserving pseudo-potentials (Goedecker et al., 1996; Hartwigsen et al., 1998; Krack, 2005). A 275 neutralizing background charge was implicitly added for all charged systems. The cutoff for the electronic density 276 was set to a high converged value, 600 Ry, with smoothing for the exchange-correlation contribution 277 (VandeVondele et al., 2005a). The gradient-corrected exchange-correlation functional BLYP (Becke, 1998; Lee et 278 al., 1998) was used in the DFT calculations. This functional is known to provide accurate structural results, e.g. 279 inter-atomic distances are over-estimated by only 1-2% (Sprik et al., 1996). Van der Waals interactions were taken 280 into account using the scheme of Grimme (2006). Constant temperature conditions were imposed by a NoséHoover thermostat chain (Nosé 1984a,b). The time step for the MD simulations was 0.5 fs. The simulations were
run for 100 ps at 50°C and for 50 ps at 380°C.

283 MD-EXAFS spectra were calculated from the FPMD trajectories using the FEFF code (Zabinsky et al., 1995) and the methodology detailed in Ferlat et al. (2005). Spherical clusters of a radius of 8 Å centered at the 284 285 silver atom were extracted every 5 fs, providing a total of 20,000 clusters at 50°C and 10,000 clusters at 380°C. An 286 individual EXAFS signal for each cluster was generated including all the contributions from multiple-scattering paths up to 6 legs. In these calculations, the amplitude reduction factor (S_0^2) was set to 0.75 as obtained 287 288 experimentally, leaving a single parameter Δe to match the experimental and calculated energy mesh. The scattering potentials were calculated in the muffun-tin approximation, and it has been checked that use of the ab-289 290 initio self-consistent field scheme led to almost identical results.

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3. RESULTS

3.1. Analysis of EXAFS spectra

3.1.1. Nitrate solutions

EXAFS spectra of a Cl-free silver nitrate solution (exp #1, 0.21m AgNO₃-0.10m HNO₃-0.10m 295 296 H_2O_2), in which the hydrated Ag⁺ cation is dominant, could only be acquired to 200°C, because of the 297 rapid loss of dissolved Ag from solution above that temperature due to the precipitation of native silver, 298 likely caused by the reducing environment of the glassy-carbon cell and/or beam-induced effects common 299 for redox-sensitive metals (e.g., Pokrovski et al., 2009a). The spectra collected at 30, 100, and 200°C (Fig. 300 3), display a single contribution from the first-shell oxygen neighbors without any clearly detectable 301 outer-shell signal or multiple scattering paths. The spectra show both reduction in chi(k) and FT 302 magnitudes and shift to shorter Ag-O distances with increasing temperature (Fig. 3). This is confirmed by quantitative EXAFS modeling yielding Ag-O average distances from 2.34 to 2.30 Å and number of 303 304 oxygen neighbors from ~6 to ~4.5 when T increases from 30 to 200°C, whereas DW factors of the Ag-O shell remain constant within errors (Table 1). Neither significant anharmonic effects as approximated by 305

the third- and fourth-order cumulants ($c_3 < 3 \times 10^{-4}$, $c_4 < 5 \times 10^{-5}$), nor presence of two different Ag-O distances were detected within the spectral resolution.

308 The absolute values of R and DW parameters derived in this study are identical within errors to 309 those reported by Seward et al. (1996) using EXAFS spectroscopy for similar nitrate solutions from 20 to 310 300°C at saturated vapor pressure (P_{sat}). Our Ag-O distances at near-ambient temperature, R₀=2.34±0.02 Å, compare favorably with previous ambient-temperature studies of the aqua Ag⁺ ion by EXAFS 311 (Yamaguchi et al., 1984a), X-ray and neutron diffraction (Yamagushi et al., 1984b; Sandstrom et al., 312 313 1985; Skipper and Neilson, 1989), and large angle X-ray scattering (LAXS, Persson and Nilsson, 2006). 314 Most of these studies report Ag-O coordination numbers around four at ambient conditions, which is consistent with the tetrahedral $Ag(H_2O)_4^+$ cation, also suggested from UV spectroscopy (Texter et al., 315 316 1983) and theoretical DFT quantum chemistry and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (e.g., Martinez 317 et al., 1997; Feller et al., 1999; Bernasconi et al., 2004). However, other MD simulations (e.g., Armunanto 318 et al., 2003; Fulton et al., 2009) and recent analyses of Ag L- and K-edge EXAFS spectra of silver perchlorate and nitrate solutions (Fulton et al., 2009) are less categorical about the tetrahedral Ag⁺ 319 geometry, rather suggesting a five- or six-coordinated Ag⁺ in aqueous solution. Although our EXAFS-320 321 derived coordination numbers are closer to these values (~5-6 O atoms, Table 1), they exhibit significant errors (± 1.5 atoms at least). We believe that the issue of the Ag⁺-H₂O coordination cannot be resolved on 322 323 the solely base of EXAFS data, but it will require independent information from XANES spectra, which 324 are more sensitive to the cluster geometry and symmetry, as will be shown in section 3.2. Molecular dynamics simulations of Ag⁺ in Cl-free aqueous solution will be presented in a subsequent paper. 325

326

327 3.1.2. Chloride solutions

EXAFS spectra and their Fourier transform magnitudes of the three studied Ag chloride solutions of 0.7, 2.6 and 5.9m total Cl are plotted in Fig. 3a,b. They are different both in phase and amplitude from those of the Ag-O environment in nitrate solution, suggesting the predominance of heavier

331 backscatterrers, presumably Cl. Qualitative continuous Cauchy wavelet transforms analyses (CCWT, Munoz et al., 2003) demonstrate that the EXAFS is dominated by the Ag nearest shell composed of Cl 332 333 atoms without any detectable presence of other types of atoms like O (electronic annex EA-1). No outer-334 shell neighbors or multiple scattering signals are detectable within the spectral resolution (Fig. 3b, EA1-335 1). In particular, all analyzed spectra show no detectable contribution from AgCl_(s) that might precipitate at the beam passage (see section 2.1). The spectra from solution are devoid of all features typical of the 336 337 AgCl solid (strong Ag-Ag contributions in EXAFS, particular shape and magnitude of XANES, and large 338 N and R values, see below). The EXAFS spectra of chloride solutions reveal weak but clearly identifiable 339 variations in both phase and amplitude for the same Cl concentration with T change, and amongst 340 different Cl solutions at a given T, suggesting that the Ag-Cl atomic environment depends on both T and 341 m_{Cl}.

342 This is confirmed by quantitative EXAFS fits (Table 1, electronic annex EA-2), which show that 343 average Ag-Cl distances for concentrated chloride solutions systematically decrease over a range of ~0.05-0.07 Å with increasing T (e.g., from 2.49 Å at 200°C to 2.42 Å at 450°C for the 5.9m Cl solution; 344 345 Fig. 4A). At the same T, the Ag-Cl distance increases slightly with increasing Cl concentration (e.g., from 2.38 to 2.44 Å at 400°C/600 bar, when m_{Cl} increases from 0.7 to 5.9m; Fig. 4A). The trend in average 346 number of Cl atoms around Ag (N_{Cl}) is less clear, showing values of 2.0 \pm 0.2 atoms at T > 300°C in the 347 348 whole m_{Cl} range (Fig. 4B). At lower T, N_{Cl} values are somewhat higher, attaining ~2.5 for the most 349 concentrated solution (5.9m Cl at 200°C). Note however, that the precise evolution of N_{Cl} with T and 350 salinity may be hidden inside the high intrinsic uncertainties associated with this EXAFS parameter. The DW factors of the Ag-Cl shell (σ^2) do not show significant T trends for any investigated solution, but are 351 352 systematically higher on average at higher m_{Cl} (e.g., differences attain a factor of 2 between the most dilute and most concentrated solution, despite similar N_{Cl}, see Table 1). In addition to the three major 353 354 structural parameters above, significant anharmonic disorder in Ag-Cl distances was detected as 355 expressed by the c₃ cumulant (Table 1). Despite large intrinsic uncertainties associated with this



362 To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first measurement of the molecular structure of 363 aqueous silver chloride complexes. Our derived Ag-Cl coordination numbers ($N_{Cl} = 1.8 \div 2.5$) and interatomic distances ($R_{Cl} = 2.37 \div 2.49$ Å) are significantly smaller than those in crystalline ($N_{Cl} = 6$, $R_{Cl} \sim 2.8$ 364 Å at 25°C) and molten (N_{Cl} = 3÷4, R_{Cl} ~ 2.6 Å at 500÷800°C) silver chloride (e.g., Inui et al., 1991; 365 366 Kawakita et al., 2007). In most inorganic and organic compounds with O/N/Cl/P/S ligands, Ag(I) exhibits a distorted tetrahedral coordination with Ag-Cl distances of 2.5÷2.7 Å (ICSD database, 2010), which are 367 368 at least 0.1-0.2 Å longer than those of this study. The shorter distances found in solution are in agreement 369 with lower Ag coordination numbers and the absence of first-shell water molecules in aqueous Ag 370 chloride complexes compared to most Ag-bearing solids. Our Ag-Cl distances are in agreement with 371 those predicted by DFT modeling of di- and tri-coordinated Ag-Cl-H₂O clusters (Godinho et al., 2005). 372 The structural parameters derived in our study imply the likely predominance of di-chloride complexes in 373 aqueous solution with some fraction, at low T, of complexes having higher Cl numbers. It is, however, 374 important to note that despite the close Cl coordination numbers found for all solutions at > 300°C, Ag-Cl 375 distances and DW factors increase systematically with increasing Cl content. This may suggest the 376 simultaneous presence of different [AgCl₂] geometries and/or the presence, in concentrated saline solutions, of outer Cl⁻ and Na⁺ ions that affect first-shell distances and disorder but are beyond direct 377 detection by EXAFS. Principal component analyses (PCA, Malinowski, 1991); Rossberg et al., 2003) of 378 379 the investigated EXAFS spectra of Cl solutions indicate two factors necessary to describe the 380 experimental dataset. Although this might further support the presence of two kinds of species in the

experimental solutions, PCA on T- and m_{Cl}-series of EXAFS spectra for aqueous complexes may be biased by i) the smoothness of changes in metal-ligand distance and ligation number with Cl content, which leads to the lack of contrast and consequent underestimation of the number of species (e.g., Bazarkina et al., 2010), and ii) changes in metal-ligand distance and disorder with T for the same species, which may overestimate the number of species. Following these limitations of EXAFS and PCA, independent approaches are necessary to better constrain the species stoichiometry and geometry, as shown in the next sections by analyses of XANES spectra and molecular dynamics modeling.

388

389 **3.2. Quantum-chemical modeling of XANES spectra**

390 Normalized XANES spectra of selected nitrate and chloride solutions are plotted in Fig. 5a. The 391 nitrate samples are characterized by slightly higher absorption edge energies (by ~1 eV, defined as the maximum of 1st derivative of the spectrum) and more pronounced white-line amplitudes (feature A in Fig. 392 393 5a) at ~25,525 eV (~1.1×absorption step) than the chloride samples (~0.9×absorption jump). Temperature 394 changes in the nitrate spectra are manifested by a slight decrease of the white-line amplitude, likely 395 reflecting the decrease in the Ag-O coordination number as found from the EXAFS analyses above, and 396 also confirmed by XANES modeling below. XANES spectra of chloride solutions have weakly 397 pronounced white-line amplitudes typical for di-coordinated Cu(I) and Au(I) chloride and sulfide 398 complexes (e.g., Brugger et al., 2007; Pokrovski et al., 2009a,b; Etschmann et al., 2010). The second 399 after-edge resonance at ~25,545±3 eV of chloride spectra (feature B in Fig. 5a) is in opposite phase with 400 that of nitrate spectra, in agreement with the change of Ag-O to Ag-Cl environment in saline solutions. 401 Spectra of chloride solutions exhibit small but systematic shifts of the white line low-energy side by 1-2 402 eV towards higher energy with increasing T and decreasing m_{Cl}, which results in narrowing of the whiteline width, as exemplified by spectra of 0.7m Cl at 450°C and 5.9m Cl at 200°C in Fig. 5a. All other 403 spectra at intermediate m_{Cl} and T fit in between these two 'end members'. Neither the spectra of nitrate 404 405 nor chloride samples resemble those of $AgNO_{3(s)}$ and $AgCl_{(s)}$ reference compounds having, respectively, a

distorted AgO₇ (Gibbons and Trotter, 1971) and a regular octahedral AgCl₆ (Hull and Keen, 1999)
geometry. This suggests a different coordination environment of Ag in aqueous solution.

408 In the absence of adequate references for aqueous samples, the interpretation of their XANES 409 spectra is greatly helped by quantum-chemical modeling. Theoretical XANES spectra of [AgO_mCl_n] 410 clusters of different geometry (from linear to octahedral, with variable degree of distortion) and 411 stoichiometry $(0 \le (m, n) \le 6)$ were calculated using the FDMNES program (Joly, 2001) and the 412 experimental Ag-O and Ag-Cl distances from EXAFS and/or FPMD calculations (section 3.3). Variations 413 in these distances within 0.1 Å as found by EXAFS (section 3.1, Fig. 4) yield only minor changes in the 414 width and amplitude of calculated XANES features, without altering significantly the shapes and energy 415 positions of the main resonances. The effect of H atoms (as water molecules or free protons) and outersphere Na/Cl atoms (with Ag-Na and Ag-Cl distances > 3 Å) on the calculated spectra was found to be 416 417 too weak to affect their major features and was thus neglected. Note that the low sensitivity of calculated 418 XANES spectra to all these parameters is due to the poor intrinsic resolution imposed by the large core-419 hole life time of the electron at Ag K-edge (~7 eV), so that only major changes of geometry and ligand 420 identity in the Ag nearest shell could be unambiguously identified.

421 Calculated XANES spectra of representative types of Ag-O-Cl clusters are shown in Fig. 5b. Three 422 main features are apparent in this figure. a) The white line (feature A) around 25,525 eV is higher in 423 energy (by 1-2 eV) and amplitude (10-30%) for Ag-O clusters compared with Ag-Cl clusters of same 424 stoichiometries. Its amplitude generally grows from linear or angular AgCl₂ and AgO₂ to tetrahedral-like 425 AgO₄ and AgCl₄ clusters. Octahedral-like AgO₆ and AgCl₆ clusters have spectral shapes different from 426 their tetrahedral counterparts, with white lines of narrower width and smaller amplitude. b) The second 427 resonance (feature B) at ~25540 eV in [AgCl₂₋₄] clusters is in opposite phase with that of their [AgO₂₋₄] 428 analogs. Features A and B are very similar to those observed in the experimental spectra of nitrate and 429 chloride solutions (Fig. 5a). c) A shoulder (feature C) appears at ~25533 eV for mixed AgO/Cl clusters, 430 reflecting the presence of both types of atoms around Ag. This feature is not observed in our experimental

Cl solutions; this corroborates the absence of O atoms in the first coordination shell of Ag as deduced from EXAFS analyses (section 3.1) and wavelet transforms (EA-1). The similarity of experimental spectra of Cl solutions with those calculated for low Cl number clusters (Fig. 5a, b) suggests that Ag speciation in our saline solutions is likely to be dominated by di- and tri-chloride species, which is also in line with the EXAFS-derived average Cl numbers (Table 1).

436 Experimental spectra of silver nitrate and chloride solids and silver nitrate solution are compared 437 with FDMNES calculated spectra for selected clusters of different geometries in Fig. EA3. Note a 438 similarity between measured and calculated XANES for AgCl_(s) and AgNO_{3(s)} compounds (Fig. EA3-1); 439 this further supports the validity of the modeling. Experimental XANES spectra of Ag nitrate solutions 440 are closest to those predicted for tetrahedral-like AgO₄ clusters (Fig. EA3-1), in good agreement with 441 most available literature data (see section 3.1) and our molecular dynamics modeling (which will be reported in a future contribution), suggesting the tetrahedral-like hydrated $Ag(H_2O)_4^+$. Moderate 442 443 distortions in Ag-O distances (~0.1 Å) and symmetry of $Ag(H_2O)_4^+$ from a regular tetrahedron as 444 identified by this and some previous studies could not however be confirmed unambiguously by XANES 445 modeling owing to the insufficient spectral resolution at the Ag K-edge.

446 Experimental spectra of the two most contrasting chloride solutions (0.7m Cl at 450°C and 5.9m Cl 447 at 200°C) are compared with those of representative Ag-Cl clusters in Fig. 6. XANES spectra from the 448 low-concentrated chloride solution (0.7m Cl) at 400 and 450°C resemble most closely those of the 449 $[AgCl_2]$ cluster with ClAgCl angles around 150-160° (Fig. 6a). A linear AgCl₂ geometry (\angle ClAgCl = 450 180°) yields white-line shapes somewhat steeper and sharper than the experimental spectrum. 451 Furthermore, a linear geometry of the Cl-Ag-Cl bonds would produce significant multiple scattering (MS) 452 contributions in EXAFS spectra, as indicated by FEFF calculations of this study and observed for the 453 quasi-linear di-chloride complexes $Cu(I)Cl_2^-$ ($\angle ClCuCl \geq 160^{\circ}C$, Brugger et al., 2007) and linear 454 Au(I)Cl₂ (Pokrovski et al., 2009b). Our EXAFS spectra do not show such MS features (Fig. 3b), implying a bend geometry, in better agreement with the XANES results. Angles ClAgCl $\leq 120^{\circ}$ of the 455

[AgCl₂] cluster yield too flat white-line resonances to be compatible with experimental spectra (Fig. 6a). The experimental spectrum of the most concentrated Cl solution at the lowest T (5.9m Cl, 200°C) has a shape between those predicted for a [AgCl₂] cluster with a ClAgCl angle of 150° and a trigonal pyramidal or plane [AgCl₃] cluster with \angle ClAgCl between 120 and 100° (Fig. 6b). A better geometry resolution within a given Ag:Cl stoichiometry is not achievable from our XANES spectra at the Ag K-edge. In contrast, tetra-coordinated [AgCl₄] clusters yield spectra with narrower and more intense white lines, yielding less satisfactory match of the experimental spectra.

This analysis indicates that moderately concentrated solutions are likely to be dominated by the dichloride complex, $AgCl_2^-$, in agreement with the EXAFS-derived Cl numbers of 2, whereas the most concentrated solutions at low-T contain a mixture of di and tri-coordinated Ag-Cl complexes, which is also consistent with the EXAFS-derived Cl numbers of ~2.5 for experiment #5 of 5.9m Cl at 200°C (Table 1). All other solutions at intermediate T and/or m_{Cl} fall in between these XANES shapes. A deeper insight into the species geometry and solvation environment is provided by molecular dynamics as discussed below.

470

471 **3.3. First-principles molecular dynamics simulations**

The FPMD simulations starting from initial cluster geometries (see section 2.3) were ran for times long enough to visualize the cluster reorganization, i.e. exchange of H_2O molecules and Cl atoms in the nearest Ag environment. Analyses of MD trajectories (e.g., Fig. EA4-1) allow different silver-chlorine complexes to be identified, depending on T and m_{Cl}. The stable complexes found are shown in Fig. 7. Radial and angular distribution functions for these complexes were extracted from subsets of the FPMD trajectories (e.g., Fig. 8 for AgCl₂⁻).

478 At the near-ambient temperature (50°C), several different species persist along our 100 ps 479 trajectory: $AgCl_4^{3-}$, $AgCl_3(H_2O)^{2-}$, $AgCl_3^{2-}$, and $AgCl_2^{-}$ (see Fig. EA4-3). In all these complexes, the 480 chlorine atoms form a well-defined first coordination shell around Ag, well separated from the subsequent

water hydration shells (e.g., Fig. 8a). The closest shell of water molecules is found at ~3.5 Å from the 481 482 silver atom at all temperatures; more distant hydration shells cannot be clearly distinguished (Fig. 8a), 483 reflecting the looseness of such long Ag-H₂O bonds and dynamic nature of solute-solvent interactions. Outer shell water molecules at distances above 3 Å from the metal atom were also reported using MD 484 485 simulations for Cu di-chloride (Sherman, 2007) and Au hydrogensulfide (Liu et al., 2011) complexes. All along the simulation, the Na⁺ ion is found far away, i.e. at least 6 Å, from the silver atom (Fig. EA4-3). 486 The AgCl₄³⁻ complex is a highly distorted tetrahedron with two Cl atoms at an average Ag-Cl distance of 487 2.44 Å, and the two other Cl atoms being at a much larger distance from Ag (3.48 Å). The species 488 $AgCl_3(H_2O)^{2-}$ (resembling $AgCl_4^{3-}$ in which one of the remote Cl is replaced by a water molecule) appears 489 to be an intermediate complex between the "anhydrous" AgCl₄³⁻ and AgCl₂. Anhydrous AgCl₃²⁻ is a 490 trigonal planar complex with a Ag-Cl average distance of 2.60 Å and Cl-Ag-Cl angles of 118°. Finally, 491 492 AgCl₂⁻ is a slightly bend complex with an average R_{Ag-Cl} of 2.43 Å and a Cl-Ag-Cl angle of 168°. Note, 493 however, the significant scatter in the Cl-Ag-Cl angular distribution, attaining $\pm 10^{\circ}$ at 1σ confidence level 494 (Fig. 8b). The slightly different from linear Cl-Ag-Cl angles in the di-chloride complex revealed by MD 495 are in better agreement with the EXAFS and XANES modeling above. Similar angles (~160°) were found 496 for AgCl₂⁻ by Liu et al. (2012) in their MD study. Deviations by 10-20° from a linear geometry were 497 detected by XANES spectra modeling of the Cu(I)Cl₂ species in saline solutions similar to those of the 498 study (Brugger et al., 2007).

Note that our optimizations of the $AgCl_2^-$ cluster in vacuum (i.e., without water molecules) revealed a linear Cl-Ag-Cl angle (179±1°) both at 0 and 300 K. This finding is also in line with static DFT quantum-chemistry calculations both in vacuum or using polarized continuum models for $AuCl_2^-$ (Pokrovski et al., 2009b) and $CuCl_2^-$ (Zajacz et al., 2011) that predict linear geometries (180±2°) for these species. However, optimizations of the full system (AgCl₂⁻ with water molecules) systematically show a non-linear (168°) geometry of AgCl₂⁻, even at 0 K, clearly demonstrating that this is a result of interactions of the AgCl₂⁻ cluster with surrounding water molecules. The angular structure of $AgCl_2^-$ revealed by MD simulations yields a non-zero dipole moment (~1.87 debye) for this species, as calculated from maximally localized Wannier orbitals (Marzari et al., 2012) for 30 snapshots extracted from the trajectory. This dipole value, comparable to that of an isolated water molecule (Silvestrelli and Parrinello, 1999) may be responsible for the stronger interactions of $AgCl_2^-$ than its Cu and Au analogs with surrounding water molecules. However, quantitative assessment of the strength of solute-water interactions for Cu, Ag, and Au would require more systematic comparative studies of these metals using similar modeling approaches.

As the temperature increases from 50 to 380°C, the average RAg-Cl in AgCl2 increases from 2.43 to 513 2.45 Å, while the Cl-Ag-Cl average angle decreases from 168 to 159°. For all the trajectories obtained at 514 380°C, $AgCl_2^{-1}$ is found to be the most stable species. Simulations using either $AgCl_3^{-2-1}$ or $AgCl_4^{-3-1}$ as 515 starting clusters showed their rapid (in less than 1 ps) dissociation to AgCl₂ plus one or two hydrated 516 517 chlorine atoms. For the least concentrated Cl solution, the neutral AgCl(H₂O) complex was also found as 518 an intermediate species with a typical life-time of 15 ps for a total simulation time of 50 ps (Fig. EA4-2). In contrast with the absence of Na⁺ ions at distances shorter than 6 Å at 50°C (see above), Na⁺ was 519 detected in the vicinity of $AgCl(H_2O)^0$, at distances between 3 and 4 Å from Ag (Fig. EA4-3). 520

In summary, the AgCl₂⁻ complex is found at all conditions explored here, confirming the large 521 stability of this species. This conclusion is in agreement with the recent theoretical MD study of Liu et al. 522 (2012). However, in contrast to their study, we found persistence of the $AgCl_3^{2-}$ or $AgCl_4^{3-}$ complexes at 523 moderate chlorine concentrations and low temperatures, in agreement with the present experimental XAS 524 results. The stability of the $AgCl_4^{3-}$ complex is likely to have been overlooked by Liu et al. (2012) 525 526 probably because of the smaller system size (48 water molecules) used in their study. It should be kept in 527 mind that because of the finite duration of any FPMD simulation, an exhaustive determination of all possible species cannot be guaranteed. Quantifying the relative fractions of each species directly from the 528 529 trajectories is beyond the reach of modern ab-initio MD simulations. Nonetheless, our simulations help to

test independently the stability of some selected species and to calculate their MD-EXAFS spectra, which
may directly be compared with experimental data.

Typical MD-EXAFS spectra were generated for the complexes identified above using their 532 corresponding subsets of trajectories. Fig. 9 compares the calculated MD-EXAFS spectrum of AgCl₂⁻ at 533 380°C with the experimental spectrum at close conditions (exp#6, 400°C/750 bar, $m_{Cl} = 0.70$). The slight 534 frequency shift between the two spectra visible in this figure is due to the known overestimation of the 535 536 Ag-Cl nearest distances by typically 0.03 Å by FPMD calculations using the BLYP functional, as 537 mentioned above (section 2.3). Except for this small difference, the very good agreement in shape, phase, 538 and amplitude of the EXAFS signals between theory and experiment is both a robust validation of the 539 numerical FPMD model and a confirmation of the predominance of AgCl₂ at these temperature and 540 chlorine concentration.

The MD-EXAFS spectra shown in Fig. 10a illustrate the effect of temperature for $AgCl_2$. It can be 541 542 seen that changes in the signal frequency between 50 and 380°C are very small, implying a weak effect of 543 temperature on EXAFS spectra, which is mainly a result of slight variations in the Ag-Cl coordination shell (Fig. 8a). By contrast, more marked phase shifts are visible at a given temperature between the 544 spectra of $AgCl_2^{-1}$ and $AgCl_4^{-3-}$ on one hand, and $AgCl_3^{-2-}$ on the other (Fig. 10b). The phase shift of the 545 $AgCl_3^{2-}$ spectrum to lower frequencies is due to longer Ag-Cl average distances in this complex (2.60 Å) 546 compared to those in $AgCl_2^{-}$ (2.43 Å) and the two shortest distances in $AgCl_4^{3-}$ (2.47 Å). Note that the two 547 longest Ag-Cl distances in the latter species (3.48 Å) have negligible contribution to EXAFS. The MD 548 549 calculated phase shifts are in excellent agreement with experimental EXAFS spectra (Fig. 3) suggesting a growing contribution of AgCl₃²⁻ with decreasing T and increasing m_{Cl}. In addition, the MD calculated Ag-550 Cl distances for the dichloride $AgCl_{2}^{-}$ (2.38 Å, when corrected to the typical shift of 2% of the R value, 551 see section 2.3) are identical to those derived from EXAFS fits of the 0.7m Cl solution, confirming again 552 553 the predominance of this species at elevated temperatures and moderate salt contents.

555

4. DISCUSSION

556

557 **4.1. Structure and stability of Ag-Cl complexes in saline solutions**

558 The complementary EXAFS, XANES, and FPMD analyses reported in this study put new 559 important constraints on the stoichiometry and stability of silver chloride complexes at elevated 560 temperatures. The number of Cl atoms derived from EXAFS, the shape of XANES spectra, and molecular 561 dynamics simulations, all converge to the predominance of dichloride complexes with minor 562 contributions of tri-chloride and/or tetra-chloride, at least between 300 and 450°C and chloride concentrations below 3m. The fractions of these higher-order chloride species in the total dissolved 563 564 amount of Ag for each T-P-m_{Cl} point of our study may be independently estimated either from the 565 experimental mean Ag-Cl coordination numbers or from Ag-Cl distances derived from EXAFS fits and 566 coupled with the data on each individual species coordination number and distance from FPMD modeling 567 (Table 2). In these calculations, we adopted Ag-Cl distances of 2.38 ± 0.01 and 2.60 ± 0.05 Å for AgCl₂⁻ and $AgCl_3^{2-}$, respectively. Note that the percentage of the $AgCl_4^{3-}$ species cannot be evaluated using this 568 approach because only the two nearest Cl atoms at ~ 2.4 Å in this species are unambiguously detected by 569 EXAFS, whereas the two other Cl atoms at longer distances (~3.4 Å, Fig. 7) give negligible EXAFS 570 signal. Consequently, the tetra-chloride species is almost identical in its EXAFS pattern to the di-chloride 571 complex (e.g., Fig. 10). It can be seen in Table 2 that the fractions of $AgCl_3^{2-}$ in the total dissolved Ag 572 573 derived from the N and R values are in agreement with one another within errors and do not exceed 20-574 30% in all experiments at T > 300°C. At 200 and 300°C, these fractions are somewhat higher for most 575 concentrated salt solutions, up to ~50%, but the associated uncertainties do not allow more precise 576 estimations.

577 These EXAFS-derived fractions of $AgCl_3^{2-}$ may also be compared with those calculated using 578 thermodynamic properties of silver cation and its four chloride complexes reported in the literature. Note 579 that according to all data sources, Ag^+ , $AgCl^0$, and $AgOH^0$ fractions are less than 0.1% under our

experimental conditions, and thus dissolved silver is shared between $AgCl_2^{-1}$ and $AgCl_3^{2-1} \pm AgCl_4^{3-1}$ (e.g., 580 581 Fig. 1). Our tri-chloride species fractions are in marked disagreement with the speciation scheme of Sverjensky et al. (1997) that yields too large percentages of higher-order chloride species, AgCl₃²⁻ and 582 AgCl₄³⁻, which are inconsistent with the EXAFS and FPMD results (Table 2). Similarly, the fractions of 583 AgCl₃²⁻ derived from the EXAFS parameters are systematically smaller at 200°C and 300°C in 2.6 and 584 5.9m Cl than those calculated using Seward's (1976) stability constants (40-70% AgCl₃²⁻, Table 2). In 585 586 contrast, the EXAFS-derived fractions are similar within errors in the whole temperature range to those 587 calculated using the data for $AgCl_2^{-}$ from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) and for $AgCl_3^{-}$ from Zotov et al. (1995). The above comparison thus suggests that $AgCl_2$ is likely to be the dominant species in the 588 investigated T and m_{Cl} range, together with some contribution of $AgCl_3^{2-}$ whose fraction diminishes 589 590 rapidly with increasing temperature and decreasing salinity.

591 Solubilities of AgCl_(s) measured in situ from the absorption edge height of spectra at 200 and 300°C 592 in this study (Table 1) provide an independent confirmation of these conclusions. It can be seen in Fig. 11 593 that the XAS-measured solubilities (Table 1) at 0.7 and 2.6m Cl are close to those predicted using the thermodynamic properties of AgCl₂⁻ from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) or Zotov et al. (1995) and assuming 594 595 that it is the major species formed. Other data for $AgCl_2^{-1}$ (not shown, Seward et al., 1976; Sverjensky et 596 al., 1997) yield comparable (within errors) solubility values at such low-to-moderate Cl concentrations. 597 At higher Cl (5.9m), the XAS solubilities are 2-3 times higher than those predictions, implying a contribution from higher-order Cl species. However, inclusion of $AgCl_3^{2-}$ from Seward (1976) or $AgCl_3^{2-}$ 598 plus AgCl₄³⁻ from Sverjensky et al. (1997) yields AgCl_(s) solubilities at least 2 times higher than the XAS-599 600 measured values in the whole m_{Cl} range (Fig. 11). Thus, the stability of tri- and tetra-chloride complexes is likely to be overestimated at T \leq 300°C in those studies. At T \geq 300°C, the large stability of AgCl₃²⁻ and 601 AgCl₄³⁻ predicted using Sverjensky et al.'s (1997) data is also incompatible with i) the EXAFS-derived Cl 602 603 numbers of ~2.0±0.2 (Table 1), ii) the instability of [AgCl₃] and [AgCl₄] clusters revealed by molecular 604 dynamics at 380°C (section 3.3), and iii) AgCl(s) solubility measured in situ in the 0.7m Cl solution at

 300° C (0.049m, Table 1, versus 0.11-0.15m according to Sverjensky's or Seward's data). In contrast, our solubilities in the whole range of m_{Cl} at 200°C (Fig. 7) and in 0.7m Cl solutions at 300°C (Table 1) are in agreement, within better than 30% of the value, with thermodynamic predictions using AgCl₂⁻ and AgCl₃²⁻ properties from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) and Zotov et al. (1995), respectively.

609 The fraction of the tetra-chloride species, detected by FPMD simulations at 50°C and 1.7m Cl, can 610 be estimated neither from XAS data because of its spectral pattern very similar to that of $AgCl_2^-$ (see 611 above), nor from published AgCl(s) solubility measurements because of the absence of reported stability constants for $AgCl_4^{3-}$ above 100°C in solutions of < 3m Cl (e.g., Seward et al., 1973). Nonetheless, two 612 general criteria may be used to reject AgCl₄³⁻ from the Ag speciation scheme at elevated temperatures and 613 614 concentrated Cl solutions: a) the long Ag-Cl distances, 3.5 Å, for two of the four Cl atoms as found by 615 FPMD at 50°C, are unlikely to persist at higher temperatures even in highly concentrated salt solutions 616 because of the growing thermal disorder; b) the large negative charge of -3 of this complex will not be favored by the decreasing dielectric constant of the solution when T rises. Thus, AgCl₄³⁻ is not stable and 617 618 structurally defined enough to be considered as an individual silver complex at temperatures above 50-100°C. It may rather be regarded as AgCl₂⁻ exhibiting outer-sphere interactions with free Cl⁻ and/or Na⁺ 619 ions in saline solutions. Note that the presence of Na⁺ in the outer coordination sphere of Ag ($R_{Ag-Na} > -3$ 620 Å) is unlikely to be seen by XAS because of high thermal/structural disorder and loose Ag-Na bonds in 621 622 such outer-sphere complexes, but it is detected by the MD-XAS calculations at $m_{Cl} < 2m$ (see above). Thus, despite their relatively simple nearest-shell stoichiometry and geometry, the major silver 623 complexes, $AgCl_2^{-}$ and $AgCl_3^{-2}$, are expected to exhibit significant interactions with the solvent and 624 electrolyte in aqueous solution. This may account, at least partly, for the differences in the behavior of 625 626 silver versus accompanying metals in hydrothermal fluids (section 4.3).

627 The discussion above allows for the following conclusions: 1) The majority of thermodynamic 628 datasets for the dichloride species, $AgCl_2^-$ (Seward, 1973; Zotov et al., 1995; Sverjensky et al., 1997; 629 Tagirov et al., 1997; Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001) are in fair agreement with one another as well as with the

630 dominant stoichiometry [Ag:Cl₂] inferred in this study at elevated T and low-to-moderate Cl contents. 2) The fraction of the tri-chloride species is likely to decrease fast with increasing T and decreasing salinity, 631 in agreement with previous solubility data (Seward, 1976; Zotov et al., 1995). 3) The stability constants of 632 AgCl₃²⁻ and AgCl₄³⁻ reported in the SUPCRT (Sverjensky et al., 1997) and other related databases (e.g., 633 634 LLNL, Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999), which are all based on extrapolations from limited low-T data, are likely to be overestimated and should not be used above 100-200°C. 4) Based on the results of our study, 635 636 we recommend the use of the stability constants of $AgCl_3^-$ from Zotov et al. (1995), to at least 300°C, and AgCl₂⁻ from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001), at least in the T range 200-450°C. This dataset shows the best 637 agreement with the XANES and EXAFS spectra and FPMD simulations of this work and AgCl(s) 638 639 solubility of this and previous studies.

640

641 **4.2. Comparison with other metals**

642 The first experimental data for silver chloride complexes at hydrothermal conditions obtained in this 643 study allow comparisons with Ag analogs, Cu and Au, and other metals common in geological fluids. The 644 three metals, Cu, Ag, and Au, are monovalent in hydrothermal fluids and form predominantly singlecharged di-chloride complexes at T above 250-300°C (e.g., Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001; Brugger et al., 645 2007; Pokrovski et al., 2008a, 2009b; this study). The formation of higher-order chloride species for Cu^I 646 and Ag^I, AgCl₃²⁻ (this study) and CuCl₃²⁻ (Brugger et al., 2007), is limited to low and moderate 647 temperatures (< 200-250°C) and high salt contents, and no tri- or tetra-chloride species have so far been 648 reported for monovalent Au^I (Pokrovski et al., 2009b). SUPCRT-derived databases (e.g., Sverjensky et 649 al., 1997; Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999) that use extrapolations from low-T data are likely to overestimate 650 651 the amount of higher-order Cl complexes both for Cu (Brugger et al., 2007) and Ag (this study). The stability constants of the corresponding mono-, di- and tri-chloride complexes of Cu and Ag reported in 652 653 recent studies (Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001; Brugger et al., 2007; as well as Sverjensky et al., 1997 for

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mono- and di-chloride species) are similar within the data scatter, implying a similar affinity of both 655 metals for the chloride ligand in aqueous solution over a wide T-range.

656 However, despite the large similarities in stoichiometry (amongst Cu, Ag, Au) and stability 657 (between Cu and Ag) of chloride complexes, this study revealed some differences in the molecular structure of AgCl₂⁻ compared to CuCl₂⁻ and AuCl₂⁻. The angular shape (\angle Cl-Ag-Cl ~160°) and large Ag-658 Cl distances ($R_{AgCl} \sim 2.38$ Å) of the Ag complex contrast with the quasi-linear geometry and much shorter 659 metal-Cl distances in its Au and Cu analogs, (∠Cl-Cu-Cl ~170-180°, R_{CuCl} ~2.12-2.15 Å, Fulton et al., 660 2000; Brugger et al., 2007; ∠Cl-Au-Cl ~180°, R_{AuCl} ~2.27 Å, Pokrovski et al., 2009b). The shortening of 661 662 metal-chloride distances from Ag to Au may be partly explained by relativistic contraction of the Au⁺ radius (Pyykkö, 1988). We are not aware of the existence of solid compounds in which Ag is two-663 664 coordinate by chlorides in a linear geometry; the available data show that Ag-Cl coordination geometries 665 range from 3 to 6-coordinate. More generally, in contrast with Cu and Au, Ag rarely form two-666 coordinated complexes with other ligands in solids, preferring distorted penta-, tetra- or tri-coordinated 667 geometries (ICSD, 2010). This tendency is also seen in aqueous solution, with the tetra-coordinated $Ag(H_2O)_4^+$ (this study) compared with the linear $Cu(H_2O)_2^+$ (Fulton et al., 2000). The higher Ag 668 669 coordination than that of Cu and Au results in a pronounced maximum for the metal-oxygen distances in the row of the hydrated cations Cu⁺-Ag⁺-Au⁺ (R_{Cu-H2O} ~1.9 Å, Fulton et al., 2000; R_{Ag-H2O} ~2.3 Å, Seward 670 et al., 1996, this study; R_{Au-H2O} ~2.0 Å, Feller et al., 1999). The tendency of Ag to form higher 671 672 coordinated and less compact complexes than Cu and Au is also expressed in the angular shape and large Ag-Cl distances in $AgCl_2^-$ offering a less screened environment for Ag^+ and favoring outer-sphere 673 interactions with ions and solvent molecules in the fluid, compared to the more compact linear CuCl₂⁻ and 674 675 $AuCl_2$. These structural differences may partly be responsible for the fractionation of Ag vs Cu and Au in brine-vapor-melt systems (section 5.1 below). 676

677 The molecular environment of metals such as Zn, Cd, Co, and Fe in saline hydrothermal solutions appears to be different. Although all these divalent metals are also transported as chloride complexes in 678

the great majority of crustal fluids (Wood and Samson, 1998; Yardley, 2005; Pokrovski et al., 2008a; 679 680 Bazarkina et al., 2010), they form octahedral or tetrahedral entities containing both chloride and water in 681 the first coordination sphere of the metal cation, as shown by UV-visible and XAS measurements (Susak 682 and Crerar, 1985; Bazarkina et al., 2010; references therein). The octahedral-to-tetrahedral transition in 683 the metal coordination takes place with increasing both the temperature and the number of Cl ligands in the dominant complex, so that low-order chloride species are octahedral (e.g., $Zn(H_2O)_5Cl^+$, $Fe(H_2O)_5Cl^+$, 684 $Cd(H_2O)_5Cl^+$) and high-order tetrahedral (e.g., $ZnCl_4^{2-}$, $FeCl_4^{2-}$, $CdCl_3H_2O^-$). This may be explained 685 qualitatively by partial charge constraints on the Cl and H₂O ligands when increasing the number of Cl 686 atoms in the complex (Jolivet et al., 1994), and by the growth of thermal disorder with T favoring more 687 688 compact (and thus less coordinate) species of lower entropy (Brimhall and Crerar, 1987). However, the 689 major discrepancies in this picture concern the di-chloride complexes of these metals, in particular Zn and 690 Fe, which were believed to be dominant in high T geological fluids of low dielectric constant that favors 691 the stability of uncharged and weakly charged species (e.g., Brimhall and Crerar, 1987). First, it remains 692 unclear whether such di-chloride complexes are tetrahedral or octahedral (i.e., the only difference is by 693 two water molecules in the first shell of the metal) and whether they may exist in both coordinations. 694 Second, there exist large discrepancies between mineral solubility data, which systematically indicate the dominant formation of di-chloride complexes in moderate-to-high saline fluids ($m_{Cl} > 0.1m$) at T > 250-695 696 300°C for both zinc and iron(II) (Ruaya and Seward, 1986; Bourcier and Barnes, 1987; Cygan et al., 697 1994; Fein et al., 1992; Ohmoto et al., 1994; Yardley, 2005), and recent XAS measurements in Fe and Zn chloride solutions, which report the predominance of double-charged tetra-chloride complexes, FeCl₄²⁻ 698 and ZnCl₄²⁻, at similar conditions (e.g., Mayanovic et al., 1999; Testemale et al., 2009). Resolving these 699 700 discrepancies requires combined studies using new molecular modeling approaches (e.g., MD and 701 XANES modeling) and in situ spectroscopy, potentiometry, and solubility techniques. The impact of 702 these discrepancies on the interpretation of metal transport and deposition by geological fluids remains to 703 be understood.

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5. IMPLICATIONS FOR Cu-Ag-Au FRACTIONATION IN HYDROTHERMAL PROCESSES

707 **5.1. Structural control: vapor-brine and fluid-melt partitioning**

708 The results of this study, together with the recent published work on Au and Cu aqueous speciation 709 and solubility, help to appreciate the impact of structural differences among dissolved metal species on 710 the behavior of Ag, Cu, and Au in natural hydrothermal-magmatic systems. These differences primarily 711 affect the partitioning of the metals between brine, melt, and vapor phases. The angular structure of the 712 Ag di-chloride complex, yielding a non-zero dipole moment likely favoring stronger interactions with 713 outer sphere Na, Cl, and H₂O as compared to its Cu and Au analogs, may account for the elevated affinity 714 of Ag for the hydrothermal brine phase. It explains the stronger partitioning of Ag than Cu or Au in favor 715 of the brine in vapor-brine and melt-brine systems as observed in natural fluid inclusions from 716 hydrothermal-magmatic deposits and laboratory experiments. For example vapor/brine and melt/brine 717 partition coefficients of Ag (K = C_{vapor}/C_{brine} , or C_{melt}/C_{brine} , where C is Ag concentration in the corresponding phase) in water-salt sulfur-free laboratory systems at hydrothermal-magmatic conditions 718 719 are up a factor of 10 lower than those of Cu (Pokrovski et al., 2005a; Simon et al., 2006, 2008). Natural 720 data from coexisting low-to-moderate salinity fluid (< 1-3 m_{Cl}) and silicate melt inclusions from granitic 721 systems display similar differences (K_{fluid/melt} ~1-10 and ~10-1,000 for Ag and Cu, respectively, Zajacz et 722 al., 2008), which confirms the weaker Ag versus Cu affinity for the low saline fluid phase. By contrast, 723 Ag and Cu partitioning is similar between highly saline fluid and silicate melt inferred from the same type 724 of inclusions (K_{fluid/melt} ~10-50 for both Ag and Cu). In addition, K_{fluid/melt} values of Ag systematically 725 increase in favor of the fluid with increasing chloride content, whereas those of Cu show no clear correlation with m_{Cl} (Zajacz et al., 2008). Similar elevated Ag partition coefficients between 30 wt% salt 726 727 brine and silicate melt (K_{fluid/melt} ~ 50), comparable to those for Zn and Pb, were recently reported in 728 granitic pegmatites (Borisova et al., 2012).

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730 **5.2.** Chemical speciation control: chloride versus sulfide

731 The differences in metal partitioning are further accentuated by the presence of reduced sulfur that 732 further increases Cu (and Au) volatility compared with Ag. For example, vapor/brine partitioning 733 coefficients (K_{vapor/brine}) of metals in S-rich (up to 1-2 wt% H₂S+SO₂ in the vapor phase) porphyry systems 734 (e.g., Seo et al., 2009; Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 2013; references therein) and laboratory experiments (Pokrovski et al., 2008a) increase in the order Fe \approx Zn < Ag < Cu < Au, attaining values of ~50 in favor 735 736 of the vapor phase for Au due to the formation of volatile complexes with sulfur (H₂S and/or SO₂). The lowest volatility of base metals (typical Kvapor/brine for Fe and Zn ~ 0.001-0.1, Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 737 738 2012) is a direct consequence of i) their weak affinity for reduced sulfur ligands (Wood and Samson, 739 1998) and ii) the large stability of their hydrated chloride complexes in the high-salinity aqueous solution 740 (section 4.2). Both elevated absolute copper concentrations in some natural vapor-like inclusions from 741 porphyry deposits (~1000 ppm) and the corresponding K_{vapor/brine} values above 1 should now be regarded 742 as post-entrapment modifications due to preferential diffusion of Cu from the external fluid into the S-rich 743 inclusion as suggested by recent experiments (Lerchbaumer and Audetat, 2012), whereas Au and Ag are 744 unlikely to be affected by this phenomenon. Thus, the majority of experimental studies show Cu vapor-745 brine partition coefficients to be between those of Ag and Au (see Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 2013 for a 746 recent review). The highest volatility of Au in the order above is consistent with the far larger stability of its known sulfide complexes compared to other metals and, in particular, the formation of neutral and 747 weakly polar species with hydrogen sulfide (e.g., Au(H₂S)HS⁰, Pokrovski et al., 2009a), which are 748 749 expected to be stable in the vapor phase of low density and dielectric constant. In contrast, the higher volatility of Cu than Ag in such S-rich systems is not consistent with the very similar stabilities and 750 stoichiometries of their chloride and sulfide complexes in dense aqueous solution (see section 4.2). It may 751 752 thus be hypothesized that structural differences exist between Ag and Cu species in both the low-density 753 H₂S-rich vapor and saline liquid phase, which are fundamentally related to the tendency of Ag to form

134 larger and higher-coordinated complexes than Cu. Thus, the contrasting affinity for chloride versus 135 sulfide ligands of Ag, Au, and base metals, together with structural differences amongst complexes of the 136 same ligand type, account for the volatility trends. These trends may explain the enrichment by Au and 137 partly Cu, compared to Ag and base metals, of certain types of epithermal ore deposits regarded as being 138 formed by ascending magmatic vapor (e.g., high sulfidation Cu-Au, Heinrich et al., 1999; Carlin-type Au 139 deposits, Muntean et al., 2011; refs therein).

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761 **5.3. Solid-phase control: mineral solubility**

762 If the structure and stability of dissolved metal complexes are the primary factors controlling the 763 metal fractionation in fluid/melt and vapor/brine systems, in the presence of solid phases, another 764 fundamental factor affecting the metal behavior during the formation of hydrothermal deposits is the 765 identity and stability of the major metal-bearing minerals themselves. They are, respectively, chalcopyrite 766 (CuFeS₂), argentite/acanthite (Ag₂S), and native gold (Au) for Cu, Ag, and Au in the great majority of 767 deposits. Although Ag also forms complex sulfosalts with As, Sb and Cu, their solubility trends can be 768 reasonably approximated by the Ag₂S component. In low-temperature deposits, silver and gold may also 769 form alloys with Au contents as low as 40%, but this has a minor affect on Au solubility trends by 770 lowering Au activity in the solid and solution by only a factor of 2 to 3, which is insignificant compared 771 to the variations of several orders of magnitude in Au concentrations in natural hydrothermal fluids 772 (Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 2012). Thus CuFeS₂, Ag₂S, and Au may be used as model compounds for 773 identifying the major trends in the behavior of these metals during fluid-rock interactions. Below we 774 briefly summarize the main differences in the solubility patterns of these metals in hydrothermal systems.

775

776

following:

The solubility controlling reactions for these metals in the majority of hydrothermal contexts are the

777	$AgCl_2^{-} + 0.5 H_2S = 0.5 Ag_2S(s) + H^+ + 2Cl^-$	(1)
770		(0_{-})

//8	$Au(HS)_2 + 0.5H_2 + H = Au(s) + H_2S$, in near-neutral and alkaline fluids	(2a)
779	$AuHS^{0} + 0.5H_{2} = Au(s) + H_{2}S$, in acidic fluids	(2b)

	780	$Au(HS)H_2S^0 + 0.5H_2 = Au(s) + 2H_2S$, in acidic S-rich fluids and possibly vapors	(2c)
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781
$$\operatorname{AuCl}_2 + 0.5H_2 = \operatorname{Au}(s) + H^+ + 2\operatorname{Cl}_{, above 500^{\circ}C}$$
 in acidic saline fluids (2d)

782
$$\operatorname{CuCl}_2^- + \operatorname{FeCl}_2^0 + 2\operatorname{H}_2S = \operatorname{CuFeS}_2(s) + 3\operatorname{H}^+ + 0.5\operatorname{H}_2 + 4\operatorname{Cl}^-$$
 (3a)

783 $CuCl_2^- + FeS_2(s) + 0.5H_2 = CuFeS_2(s) + H^+ + 2Cl^-$ (3b)

784 The differences in the major aqueous species and solid phases among these metals yield fundamentally 785 different solubility trends versus pH, H₂S and salinity for Ag and Cu on one side and Au on the other. Fig. 786 12 shows the solubility of all three minerals as a function of pH, H₂S and Cl in a typical hydrothermal 787 fluid at 400°C and 0.5 kbar (i.e., conditions in the middle of the T-P range of their deposits formation), and as a function of temperature at 0.3-1.0 kbar, calculated using the stability constants available for these 788 reactions from sources indicated in the figure caption. It can be seen that at a given T-P, the factors 789 790 leading to the deposition of Au vs Ag and Cu are opposite. Gold precipitation requires: a) removing 791 reduced sulfur from the fluid (e.g., via reaction with Fe-rich rocks, fluid boiling); b) acidifying the near-792 neutral fluid (e.g., SO₂ disproportionation into sulfuric acid and H₂S, common in porphyry systems); c) 793 reducing the fluid (e.g., reaction with organic-rich sediments). In contrast, both Ag and Cu precipitation 794 requires: a) removing chloride (e.g., dilution with meteoric waters), b) neutralizing the fluid (e.g., reaction 795 with carbonate rocks, which is typical of skarns), c) oxidizing the fluid (e.g., mixing with meteoric waters, 796 reaction with ferric-iron sediments). Note that addition of reduced sulfur into the system (e.g., via 797 disproportionation of SO₂ into sulfide and sulfate in a cooling magmatic fluid or reaction with S-rich 798 sedimentary rocks) decreases the solubility of silver in contrast to Au (Fig. 12d), but has no effect on the 799 solubility of the CuFeS₂-FeS₂ assemblage (H₂S is not involved in reaction 3b). In addition, some of the 800 factors listed above may operate in an opposite way (e.g., dilution with meteoric oxidizing waters will 801 lower both Cl and H₂S concentrations, which have an opposite effect on the solubility of Ag and Cu-802 bearing sulfides, see reactions 1 and 3a,b), so that the final result on the mineral solubility will be an 803 interplay between all these factors in a given natural case. The only common effect on all three elements 804 is temperature whose decrease leads to a drop in solubility but of different amplitude depending of the 805 metal (Fig. 12a).

806 The major differences in Au vs Ag solubility apparent in Fig. 12 account, at least partly, for the 807 Au/Ag ratios found in different types of deposits. For example, elevated Au/Ag ratios (typically 1-100) 808 and high Au fineness (i.e., Au fraction in Ag-Ag alloys) generally occur in Au-Te, Cu-Au epithermal, 809 skarn and gold orogenic deposits characterized by neutral-to-alkaline low-to-moderately saline fluids 810 (e.g., Morrison et al., 1991; Pal'yanova, 2008) having a high capacity to concentrate and transport gold 811 (Fig. 12b). Carlin-type Au and some Cu-Au high-sulfidation deposits are also characterized by elevated 812 Au/Ag ratios consistent with their likely formation by S-rich magmatic vapor phases carrying 813 preferentially Au as sulfide complexes (Pokrovski et al., 2008a; Muntean et al., 2011; references therein). 814 Lower Au/Ag ratios (~0.001-10) are typical for epithermal alunite and adularia Au-Ag deposits (Sillitoe 815 and Hedenquist, 2003; Pal'yanova, 2008; references therein) formed by acidic fluids of elevated salinity 816 (10-20 wt% NaCl) favorable for Ag solubility (see Fig. 12b,c).

817 Although it is more difficult to place Cu in this picture of solubility control because of its much 818 greater abundance than Ag and Au in most types of fluids, some qualitative trends in Cu vs Ag and Au 819 fractionation may still be identified in certain types of ore deposits. For example, despite large variations of Cu/Au ratios in porphyry-style Cu-Au-Mo deposits (from 10^3 to 10^6), they roughly increase with depth 820 821 (Murakami et al., 2010). This was qualitatively interpreted by the more efficient precipitation of 822 chalcopyrite than gold from an ascending cooling magmatic fluid carrying Cu in the form of chloride 823 complexes, whereas Au remained in the fluid as soluble sulfide species (Murakami et al., 2010). Fig. 12a 824 shows CuFeS₂, Ag₂S and Au solubility in a 10wt% salt fluid as a function of temperature at pressure 825 progressively decreasing from 1000 bar at 550°C to 300 bar below 300°C under redox and acidity 826 conditions buffered by silicate and Fe sulfide and oxide mineral assemblages typical of porphyry-style 827 deposits (e.g., Sillitoe, 2010; references therein). It can be seen that the slope of the CuFeS₂ solubility curve is indeed significantly steeper than that of Au in the T range 300-500°C, in which major ore 828 829 deposition occurs in porphyry deposits. This temperature dependence of solubility, coupled with the 1,000 830 times higher amount of Cu compared to that of Au in the fluid, leads to massive Cu precipitation with

831 temperature drop. The solubility of Ag₂S at such conditions is comparable with that of CuFeS₂, with concentrations of 100's ppm Ag (Fig. 12). This is, however, typically 10 to 50 times higher than typical 832 833 abundances of Ag in natural moderate-salinity fluids and melts as inferred from inclusions (Kouzmanov 834 and Pokrovski, 2012; references therein). Most of saline high-T fluids are thus under-saturated with 835 respect of Ag-bearing solid phases. This explains the rarity of hydrothermal silver minerals at T > 300-836 350°C, and the fact that most silver resources are found in low-temperature epithermal deposits formed below 300°C. This distinguishes Ag from Au and Cu that form hydrothermal deposits in a wide T range 837 838 from ~600 down to 150°C, and is thus a direct consequence of the solubility of their major minerals.

As a conclusion, the structure and stoichiometry of chloride complexes of Ag and accompanying metals should be taken into account when interpreting metal fractionations in fluid-vapor and fluid-melt systems. It seems to exert a lesser effect, however, on the metal behavior in mineral-fluid systems where differences in the nature of the ligand in the dominant dissolved complexes (chloride for Ag, chloride and possibly sulfide for Cu, and sulfide for Au), coupled with differences in the chemistry and solubility of their principal minerals (sulfides for Cu and Ag, native metal for Au), largely control the metal transport by crustal fluids and vapors and their precipitation as hydrothermal ores.

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6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This report is the first measurement, to the best of our knowledge, that uses in situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy to determine the stability and structure of Ag(I) chloride-bearing complexes in aqueous fluids pertinent to hydrothermal-magmatic systems. The combination of XANES and EXAFS spectra analyses, molecular dynamics modeling of structures of Ag-Cl aqueous complexes, and in situ solubility measurements of our study with thermodynamic analysis of published datasets provide new constraints on the identity, structure, and stability of major Ag-Cl species operating in natural hydrothermal fluids. The following major conclusions have been reached.

1) The silver di- and tri-chloride complexes, $AgCl_2^{-1}$ and $AgCl_3^{-2}$, are the major species forming in 855 moderate-temperature (200-300°C) aqueous solutions in a wide range of salinity (to at least 6m Cl. 856 857 corresponding to ~26 wt% NaCl equivalent). These species have an angular and triangular geometry, respectively, with mean Ag-Cl distances of ~2.40 (AgCl₂) and 2.55 Å (AgCl₃²⁻). The non-linear geometry 858 of AgCl₂⁻ revealed by MD and XANES modeling (angle Cl-Ag-Cl ~ 160°) is due to interactions with 859 860 surrounding water molecules and increasing dynamic disorder with temperature in aqueous solution. The 861 fraction of the tri-chloride species decreases with increasing temperature and decreasing chloride 862 concentration, so that AgCl₂ becomes by far the major Ag-transporting complex at elevated temperatures (> 350°C) in typical magmatic-hydrothermal fluids. Both species exhibit long-range interactions with the 863 864 surrounding water molecules and salt ions as revealed by MD simulations. The tetra-chloride complex, $AgCl_4^{3-}$, suggested in previous work at low-temperatures (< 150°C), may be regarded as $AgCl_2^{-}$ exhibiting 865 outer-sphere electrostatic interactions with two from four Cl⁻ ligands at distances > 3 Å. The coordination 866 environment of Ag in its dominant species in solution appears to be different from that of most Ag-867 868 bearing solids, in which Ag has distorted coordination geometries with 3 to 6 Cl/O atoms, and from Clfree acidic solutions, in which the Ag⁺ cation forms a distorted hydration sphere with 4 to 6 H₂O 869 870 molecules.

871 2) The species fractions derived from XAS and MD analyses, together with XAS-measured AgCl(s) 872 solubility, are in excellent agreement with thermodynamic predictions using the stability constants of AgCl₂⁻ and AgCl₃²⁻ from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) and Zotov et al. (1995), respectively, that are based 873 874 on extensive AgCl(s) solubility experiments. Our data also qualitatively agree with the pioneering 875 AgCl(s) solubility measurements of Seward (1976). In contrast, our results disagree with SUPCRT-based 876 datasets for Ag-Cl species (e.g., Sverjensky et al., 1997; Parkhurst and Angelo, 1999) derived by 877 extrapolation from low-temperature data, which predict large fractions of the high-order chloride species, AgCl₃²⁻ and AgCl₄³⁻, in high-temperature fluids. Thus, we recommend the thermodynamic set of Zotov's 878

group for chemical equilibrium calculations in Ag-bearing mineral-fluid systems above 200°C. A full set
of revised HKF parameters for silver chloride complexes will be presented in a future contribution.

3) Silver chloride complexes found in this work have longer Ag-Cl distances and stronger outersphere interactions with the solvent and electrolytes than their Au and Cu counterparts. This may explain the preferential partitioning of Ag into brine in brine-vapor and brine-melt magmatic-hydrothermal systems compared with Cu and Au, as observed in natural melt and fluid inclusions and laboratory experiments.

4) However, details of molecular structure of Ag, Cu, and Au complexes (geometry, inter-atomic distances and solute-solvent interactions) matter much less in sulfur-rich hydrothermal environments and most fluid-mineral systems where the contrasting affinity of these metals for sulfur ligands (with Au forming far more stable complexes than Ag and Cu with reduced sulfur), coupled with the different stability of their main solid phases (Ag sulfides, Cu-Fe sulfides, and native Au), largely controls the transport and distribution of these metals by geological fluids and Ag/Au/Cu ratios in economic deposits.

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Table 1. Silver dissolved concentrations derived from the absorption edge step ^(a), and Ag(I) local structure derived from EXAFS spectra at Ag K-edge ^(b) of nitrate and chloride aqueous solutions investigated in this study.

N,

atoms

atom

R, Å

 σ^2 , Å²

 $c_{3}, Å^{3}$

 \mathcal{R} -

factor

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	T, °C	P, bar	$m_{A\sigma}$,	
		,	mol/kg H ₂ O	
	# 1: 0m	total Cl,	0.21m AgNO ₃ -0.1	0n
	30	600	0.21±0.01	
	100	600	0.21 ± 0.02	

# 1: 0m total Cl, 0.21m AgNO ₃ -0.10m HNO ₃ -0.10m H ₂ O ₂								
30	600	0.21±0.01	0	6.0	2.34	0.020	< 0.0003	0.003
100	600	0.21±0.02	0	5.5	2.32	0.020	< 0.0003	0.006
200	630	0.21±0.02	0	4.8	2.30	0.020	< 0.0003	0.010
			error	±1.5	±0.02	±0.005	±0.0003	
# 6: 0.7	0m total	Cl, 0.17m AgCl-0.4	l2m NaCl	-0.11m H	Cl-0.06m H ₂	$_{2}O_{2}$		
200	600	0.0074 ± 0.0005	Cl	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
300	600	0.049 ± 0.003	Cl	1.8	2.38	0.005	0.0007	0.011
400	750	0.14÷0.12	Cl	1.9	2.38	0.007	0.0005	0.010
450	750	0.11÷0.08	Cl	1.9	2.37	0.007	0.0005	0.008
# 2-4: 2	.6m total	l Cl, 0.18m AgCl-2.	34m NaC	l-0.12m H	[Cl-0.06m H	I_2O_2		
200	600	0.047±0.003	Cl	2.1	2.47	0.009	0.0012	0.008
300	630	0.20÷0.15	Cl	1.9	2.43	0.009	0.0009	0.009
400	600	0.15÷0.13	Cl	1.9	2.40	0.008	0.0005	0.007
# 5: 5.9	m total (Cl, 0.30m AgCl-5.51	lm NaCl-(0.14m HC	l-0.07m H ₂ 0	\mathbf{D}_2		
200	600	0.16 ± 0.02	Cl	2.5	2.49	0.012	0.0008	0.015
300	620	0.33±0.03	Cl	2.1	2.47	0.011	0.0012	0.009
400	630	0.29±0.03	Cl	1.9	2.44	0.010	0.0010	0.009
450	640	0.28±0.03	Cl	1.8	2.42	0.010	0.0007	0.010
			error	±0.2	±0.01	±0.003	±0.0004	

1159

1160 (a) Dissolved Ag concentrations were determined from the amplitude of the absorption edge height of transmission spectra 1161 (Δμ) based on the classical X-ray absorption relation (see for details Pokrovski et al., 2005a, 2006, 2009a,b; Testemale et al., 1162 2005): $C_{Ag} = \Delta \mu / (\Delta \sigma_{Ag} \times M_{Ag} \times l \times d_{fluid})$, where C_{Ag} is Ag aqueous concentration (mol kg⁻¹ of fluid), $\Delta \sigma_{Ag}$ is the 1163 change of the total absorption cross-section of Ag over its K-edge (45.865 cm² g⁻¹), 1 is the optical path length inside the cell (0.40 cm) which remains constant through the experiment, M_{Ag} is Ag atomic weight (0.1079 kg mol⁻¹), and d_{fluid} is the 1164 1165 density of the aqueous solution (g cm⁻³) at given T and P, estimated using the densities of NaCl-H₂O fluids (Bakker, 2003), 1166 and assuming that $AgCl/HCl/H_2O_2$ solutes in water yield the same contribution to the fluid density as the equivalent weight 1167 concentration of NaCl. Uncertainties on Ag concentration stem from those of the determination of $\Delta \mu$, 1 and d_{fluid} (see 1168 Pokrovski et al., 2005a, 2009a for details), and minor losses from solution due to AgCl_(s) precipitation. Values of m_{Ag} in italic show significant change with time owing to precipitation of AgCl in the cell colder zones; they were not considered in the 1169 1170 solubility analyses.

(b) R = Ag-O/Cl mean distance, N = Ag coordination number, σ^2 = squared Debye-Waller factor (relative to σ^2 = 0 1171 1172 adopted in the calculation of reference amplitude and phase functions by FEFF); $c_3 =$ third-order cumulant accounting for 1173 weak anharmonicity in the distance distribution; \mathcal{R} -factor defines goodness of the total fit in R-space, which is a fractional 1174 misfit between the data and model: $\mathcal{R}=\Sigma(\text{data-model})^2/\Sigma \text{data}^2$. For all samples the fitted R-ranges are 1.1-2.8 Å (not corrected for phase shift), and k-ranges are 2.5-10.0 Å⁻¹ and 3.0-11.8 Å⁻¹ for nitrate and chloride solutions, respectively 1175 (except exp #6 at 300°C, which was recorded to 8 Å⁻¹). The value of Δe , which is a non-structural parameter accounting for 1176 1177 phase shift between experimental spectrum and FEFF calculation, is 3.5±0.5 eV for all spectra. The number of variables in 1178 the fit (N_{var} = 4 to 5) was always lower than the number of independent points ($N_{ind} \sim 8$) as defined in IFEFFIT (Newville, 1179 2001). nd = not determined because of too weak EXAFS signal. 1180

Table 2. Fraction of high-order silver chloride complexes $(AgCl_3^{2-} \pm AgCl_4^{3-})$ in the total dissolved silver in the investigated aqueous solutions as inferred from the number of Cl neighbors and Ag-Cl interatomic distances (Table 1), and its comparison with thermodynamic predictions using available stability constants for Ag chloride species.

1186

m _{Cl}	T°C	% [AgCl ₃]	% [AgCl ₃]	% AgCl ₃ ²⁻	$% \text{AgCl}_{3}^{2-}$	% AgCl ₃ ²⁻
mol/kg		from N _{Cl} ^(a)	from $R_{Cl}^{(b)}$	Zot95 ^(c)	$+ \text{AgCl}_4^{3-}$	Sew76 ^(e)
H_2O					Sve97 ^(d)	
0.7	300	< 20	< 10	12	13	7
0.7	400	< 20	< 10	< 5	16	na
0.7	450	< 20	< 10	< 1	48	na
2.6	200	< 30	41	44	55	56
2.6	300	< 20	23	15	62	38
2.6	400	< 20	9	6	94	na
5.9	200	50	50	65	80	73
5.9	300	< 20	41	29	86	60
5.9	400	< 20	27	16	99	na
5.9	450	< 20	18	< 10	> 99	na
error		± 20	±15	± 10	±7	+5

1187

(a) From average N_{Cl} value ±0.2 Cl atoms (experimental EXAFS, this study, Table 1)

1189(b) From average R_{Cl} value ±0.01 Å (Table 1) and adopting Ag-Cl distances of 2.38±0.01 Å (experimental EXAFS, this1190study) and 2.60±0.05 Å (FPMD calculations, this study) for AgCl2 and AgCl32, respectively.1191(c) Using the HKF parameters of Ag⁺, AgCl⁰ and AgCl2 from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001), which yield identical stability

1191 (c) Using the HKF parameters of Ag^+ , $AgCl^0$ and $AgCl_2^-$ from Akinfiev and Zotov (2001), which yield identical stability 1192 constants for these species as older works of the same group (Zotov et al., 1995; Tagirov et al., 1997), and using the 1193 stability constants of $AgCl_3^{2-}$ reported in Zotov et al. (1995) to 350°C at P_{sat}. Because AgCl solubility data (Zotov et al., 1194 1995; Tagirov et al, 1997) indicate a negligible effect of pressure on the solubility at T to at least 350°C and P to 500-1000 bar, the $AgCl_3^{2-}$ stability constants at P_{sat} were assumed to be the same at our experimental pressure of ~600 bar. 1196 See Pokrovski et al. (2009a) for details on thermodynamic data for other fluid constituents and activity coefficient 1197 models.

(d) Sverjensky et al. (1997) using the HKF parameters for [AgCl₁₋₄] complexes.

(e) Seward (1976) reported stability constants of $AgCl_3^{2^-}$ to 200°C at P_{sat} . We extrapolated according to his data the equilibrium constant of the pseudo-isocoulombic reaction $AgCl_2^- + Cl^- = AgCl_3^{2^-}$ versus 1/T(K) to 300°C and assumed that this constant is independent of pressure to at least 600 bars.

1202 na = not applicable because requires too far extrapolations on temperature. 1203

Table 3. Thermodynamic properties of silver chloride complexes from the literature, recommended on the basis of XAS analyses, FPMD simulations, and in-situ XAS measured AgCl(s) solubility of this study.

Species	Thermodynamic data	References
$Ag^{+(d)}$	$G^{(a)} = 18427 \text{ cal/mol}, S^{(b)} = 17.54 \text{ cal/(mol K)}, HKF model$	Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001
	coefficients: $a_1 \times 10 = 1.7285$ cal/(mol bar), $a_2 \times 10^{-2} = -3.5608$	
	cal/mol, $a_3 = 7.1496$ cal K/(mol bar), $a4 \times 10^{-4} = -2.6318$ cal K/mol,	
	$c_1 = 18.8783 \text{ cal/(mol K)}, c_2 \times 10^{-4} = -4.4327 \text{ cal K/mol}, \omega \times 10^{-5} =$	
	0.2160 cal/mol	
$AgCl^{0}(aq)^{(d)}$	G = -17399 cal/mol, $S = 32.067$ cal/(mol K), HKF model	Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001
	coefficients: $a_1 \times 10 = 4.2750$ cal/(mol bar), $a_2 \times 10^{-2} = 3.7555$ cal/mol,	
	$a_3 = 4.2739$ cal K/(mol bar), $a4 \times 10^{-4} = -2.9343$ cal K/mol, $c_1 =$	
	$3.0441 \text{ cal/(mol K)}, c_2 \times 10^{-4} = -4.1199 \text{ cal K/mol}, \omega \times 10^{-5} = 0.00$	
	cal/mol	
AgCl ₂	G = -51350 cal/mol, $S = 49.78$ cal/(mol K), HKF model	Akinfiev and Zotov, 2001
-	coefficients: $a_1 \times 10 = 7.1327$ cal/(mol bar), $a_2 \times 10^{-2} = 9.8065$ cal/mol,	
	$a_3 = 1.8947$ cal K/(mol bar), $a4 \times 10^{-4} = -3.1844$ cal K/mol, $c_1 =$	
	4.8953 cal/(mol K), $c_2 \times 10^{-4} = -6.7789$ cal K/mol, $\omega \times 10^{-5} = 0.6667$	
	cal/mol	
AgCl ₃ ²⁻	Reaction $AgCl(s) + 2Cl^{-} = AgCl_{3}^{2-}$	Zotov et al., 1995
-	\log_{10} K = -2230.4/T(K) + 4.391 – 0.00528 T(K) (P _{sat} , 293-648 K) ^(c)	
Chlorargirite,	$G = -26247 \text{ cal/mol}, S = 22.99 \text{ cal/(mol K)}, V = 25.727 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol},$	Robie and Hemingway,
AgCl(s)	Heat capacity coefficients (cal units): $14.331 + 1.821 \times 10^{-3}$ T(K) –	1995
	$2.431 \times 10^{5} / T(K)^{2} (298-728 \text{ K})$	

 ^(a) G = standard molal Gibbs free energy of formation from the elements at 25°C, 1 bar ^(b) S = standard molal entropy at 25°C, 1 bar ^(c) Assumed to be valid to 1000 bar (see footnote of Table 2)

^(d) These species are included for consistency, but are minor in saline fluids compared to the di- and tri-chloride.

1219

Figure captions

Fig. 1. Distribution of Ag-chloride species in an acidic aqueous solution as a function of NaCl concentration at 400°C and 800 bar, calculated using the thermodynamic properties of silver chloride complexes reported by (a) Sverjensky et al. (1997; SUPCRT 2007, http://geopig.asu.edu/index.html#) and (b) Akinfiev and Zotov (2001), both based on regressions of available experimental data within the framework of the revised HKF model. Thermodynamic data for other fluid constituents and activity coefficient models are detailed in Pokrovski et al. (2009a). Note significant differences in the Ag species distribution at NaCl concentration above 0.5m according to these two main databases largely used by geochemists.

1227 Fig. 2. Solubility of argentite (Ag₂S, cubic) in a model aqueous fluid of 1.5m NaCl + 0.5m KCl (~25 wt% NaCl 1228 equivalent) as a function of temperature at 1000 bar in equilibrium with the Pyrite-Pyrrhotite-Magnetite sulfur 1229 fugacity buffer and Muscovite(±Andalusite)-Kfeldspar-Quartz acidity buffer, according to the two major 1230 thermodynamic datasets for chloride complexes, Sverjensky al. Ag et (1997; SUPCRT 1231 http://geopig.asu.edu/index.html#) and Akinfiev and Zotov (2001). Thermodynamic data for other fluid 1232 constituents and activity coefficient models are detailed in Pokrovski et al. (2009a). Differences in Ag₂S solubility 1233 attain a factor of 10 to 50 between 400 and 600°C. The inflexion of both solubility curves above 500°C is due to 1234 the muscovite breakdown to andalusite, which leads to pH increase in the fluid at these conditions.

Fig. 3. (a) Normalized k^2 -weighted EXAFS spectra of studied Ag nitrate and chloride solutions at 600-750 bars and indicated temperatures (in °C), and (b) their corresponding Fourier Transform (FT) magnitudes (not corrected for phase shift). Vertical dashed line in (a) is drawn to indicate the phase shift between O and Cl backscattering atoms in nitrate and chloride solutions and temperature changes in Ag-Cl distances in chloride solutions. Vertical dashed lines in (b) indicate approximate positions of O and Cl atoms in the first coordination shell of Ag (see Table 1 for phase-corrected distances).

Fig. 4. Average Ag-Cl distances (a) and number of Cl atoms (b) in the first silver coordination shell derived from
EXAFS analyses of chloride aqueous solutions as a function of temperature.

Fig. 5. (a) Normalized XANES spectra at Ag K-edge of selected nitrate and chloride aqueous solutions and solid reference compounds. (b) XANES spectra of representative AgO/Cl clusters of different stoichiometry and geometry, calculated using the FDMNES code (Joly, 2001). Vertical lines on both panels indicate the major spectral features discussed in section 3.2.

Fig. 6. Comparison of calculated XANES spectra for the representative Ag-Cl clusters of different geometry and degree of distortion with key experimental spectra: (a) AgCl₂ clusters (R_{Ag-Cl} = 2.35 Å) with different Cl-Ag-Cl angles (in degrees in the figure legend) versus the experimental spectrum of the most dilute Cl solution at 450°C (exp6_0.70m Cl); (b) AgCl₃ (R_{Ag-Cl} = 2.55 Å) and AgCl₄ clusters (R_{AgCl} mean ~ 2.50 Å, ΔR in the figure legend indicates the difference between two pairs of Ag-Cl distances in the distorted tetrahedral-like cluster).

- **Fig.7.** Structures of stable Ag-Cl-O species identified by FPMD simulations with Ag-Cl interatomic distances (in Å) and Cl-Ag-Cl angles (in degrees): (a) $AgCl(H_2O)$, (b) $AgCl_2^-$, (c) $AgCl_3^{2-}$, d) $AgCl_3(H_2O)^{2-}$, and e) $AgCl_4^{3-}$.
- Fig. 8. Local environment of the $AgCl_2^-$ species derived from FPMD simulations at 50°C, 1 bar and 380°C, 600 bar (with Cl:Ag ratio = 2 in the system). (a) Ag-Cl and Ag-O radial distribution functions, and (b) Cl-Ag-Cl angular distributions. The amplitude of the Ag-Cl radial distribution functions in (a) is divided by 60 to allow comparison with that of Ag-O.
- **Fig. 9.** Comparison of the MD-EXAFS spectrum of the $AgCl_2^-$ species at 380°C, 600 bar with the experimental spectrum obtained from 0.7m Cl solution at 400°C, 750 bar (exp#6). The MD calculated spectrum was scaled by 0.75 in amplitude (experimental amplitude reduction factor) and shifted along the k axis (non-structural Δe value in EXAFS, see text) for better comparison.
- 1262Fig. 10. MD-EXAFS spectra of (a) $AgCl_2^{-1}$ at 50°C/1 bar and 380°C/600 bar, and (b) $AgCl_2^{-1}$, $AgCl_3^{-2}$, and $AgCl_4^{-3}$ 1263at 50°C/1 bar. The $AgCl_3(H_2O)^{2^-}$ spectrum (not shown) is close to that of $AgCl_4^{-3^-}$. Note the strong similarity of the1264spectra of $AgCl_2^{-1}$ and $AgCl_4^{-3^-}$ (see text).
- **Fig. 11.** Solubility of AgCl(s) at 200°C and 600 bars measured in situ from the absorption edge height of transmission spectra in this study (symbols) and its comparison with values calculated using available thermodynamic data for Ag chloride complexes. The uncertainties of XAS measurements are comparable with the symbol size. Aki01 – Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) for AgCl⁰ and AgCl₂⁻; Zot95 – Zotov et al. (1995) for AgCl₃²⁻; Sew76 – Seward (1976) for [AgCl₁₋₃] complexes; Sve97 – Sverjensky et al. (1997) for [AgCl₁₋₄] complexes.
- 1270 Fig. 12. Solubility of argentite, native gold, and chalcopyrite (a) as a function of temperature in a model aqueous 1271 solution of 10 wt% NaCl equivalent at pH 5 in equilibrium with the pyrite-magnetite-hematite oxygen and sulfur 1272 fugacity buffer at pressures progressively decreasing from 1500 bar at 450-550°C to 200 bar below 250°C; b) as a 1273 function of pH at 400°C, 500 bar, 10 wt% NaCl, in equilibrium with pyrite-magnetite-hematite; c) as a function of salinity at 400°C, 500 bar, pH 5, in equilibrium with pyrite-magnetite-hematite; d) as a function of H₂S 1274 1275 concentration at 400°C, 500 bar, 10 wt% NaCl, pH 5, and oxygen fugacity of the magnetite-hematite buffer. 1276 Calculations were performed using the HCh computer code (Shvarov, 2008). Thermodynamic properties of the 1277 minerals are taken from SUPCRT (Johnson et al., 1992), those of major fluid constituents and activity coefficient 1278 models are detailed in Pokrovski et al. (2009a,b). Stability constants of Ag, Cu, and Au aqueous chloride and sulfide complexes are from Zotov et al. (1995) for AgCl₃²⁻, Akinfiev and Zotov (2001) for AgCl₂⁻ and CuCl₂⁻, 1279 Akinfiev et al. (2008) for AgHS, Ag(HS)₂, CuHS, Cu(HS)₂, AuHS, and Au(HS)₂, and Pokrovski et al. (2009a) 1280 1281 for AuHS(H₂S). These thermodynamic datasets are in good agreement with the major experimental data sources. 1282 The dominant aqueous species for each metal are indicated.

























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