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Ag isotope and volatile trace element systematics in galena samples from the Iberian Peninsula and the quest for silver sources of Roman coinage Jean Milot^{1*}, Janne Blichert-Toft¹, Mariano Ayarzagüena Sanz², Chloé Malod-Dognin¹, Philippe Télouk¹ and Francis Albarède¹

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12 Abstract

13 Silver played a major role in the progressive monetization of antique Mediterranean. Here, we combine Pb and Ag isotopes with volatile trace elements (Bi, Sb, As) to assess whether, 14 15 during the Roman occupation of Iberia, galena constituted a significant source of silver. We find that Pb and Ag isotopic compositions of 47 samples of galena from eight different Iberian 16 mining provinces, many of them exploited during Roman times, are uncorrelated which 17 18 indicates that their respective isotopic variabilities depend on different petrogenetic processes. Moreover, the range of Ag isotopic abundances is ~6 times wider than that displayed 19 worldwide by silver coins in general and Roman silver coins in particular. Although galena 20 21 from the Betics provide the best fit for Pb isotopes with Roman coins, their fit with Ag isotopic compositions is at best sporadic. We suggest that, together with Sb, Bi, and As, silver 22 is primarily derived from fluids boiled off from differentiated mantle-derived magmas. These 23 24 fluids in turn reacted with pre-existing galena, acting as a silver trap. Lead sulfides with ϵ^{109} Ag ~0 and unusually rich in Ag, Sb, Bi, and As were the most probable sources of ancient 25 silver, whereas samples with ε^{109} Ag departing significantly from ~0 reflect low-temperature 26 isotopic fractionation processes in the upper crust. 27

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29 **1. Introduction**

Considered a luxury commodity, silver has been massively used for coinage from the 7th 30 century BC onwards. It took monetized silver, which first appeared in the Aegean and 31 Anatolian regions, centuries to reach the Occidental Mediterranean. Argentiferous galena 32 (PbS) is considered by some as the main source of silver during ancient times (e.g. Domergue, 33 2008, 1990) with silver having been extracted from PbS by smelting and subsequent 34 cupellation in the presence of metallic lead (e.g. Pernicka et al., 1998; Tylecote, 1992). Others 35 36 suggest alternative Ag-rich minerals such as plumbojarosite, tetrahedrite, or chlorargyrite (e.g. Anguilano et al., 2010). In general, whichever the sources of silver for Roman coinage, they 37 have since been used up and whatever is left is so dispersed that it is difficult to assess 38 whether they ever constituted major sources of bullion or were barren PbS. 39

In contrast to the relative abundances of radiogenic Pb isotopes, which vary with time and the 40 relative proportions of U, Th, and Pb in the ore source, Ag, Cu, and Zn isotopic abundances 41 vary with the nature of fluids and mineral phases contributing to the ore, redox conditions, 42 43 and the temperature of ore formation. Isotopic variations are related to mass-dependent fractionation and are typically in the range of a fraction of a percent per atomic mass unit for 44 Cu and Zn and one per mil for Ag. Silver isotopic variations are most conveniently reported in 45 epsilon units (ϵ^{109} Ag; the deviation per 10,000 of a given sample relative to the NIST 978a Ag 46 standard). For the entire body of antique coinage analyzed so far, this range is strikingly 47 48 narrow within only $\pm 1 \epsilon$ unit (Albarède et al., 2020, 2016; Desaulty et al., 2011; Desaulty and 49 Albarede, 2013). Since Ag, Cu, and Zn isotopic variations are controlled by thermodynamics rather than geology, they are of marginal interest for provenance studies and rather track ore 50 genesis processes (Arribas et al., 2020). 51

A trademark of Ag isotopes particularly relevant to archeology is the contrast between the 52 narrow range of ε^{109} Ag (<2 ε units) in silver coins of different origins and age of minting 53 (Ancient Greece and Rome; Medieval Europe; colonial South and Central Americas) 54 (Desaulty et al., 2011; Fujii and Albarède, 2018) and the 12 ε unit range measured in Ag and 55 Ag-bearing base metal (Pb, Zn, Cu) ores (Arribas et al., 2020). Iberia was the major source of 56 silver for the Carthaginian and Roman worlds up until the 2nd century AD and Pb isotope data 57 on potential silver ores are extremely well documented (see García de Madinabeitia et al., 58 59 2021 and references therein). We therefore measured Ag isotopes and trace element abundances on the galena sample suite documented for Pb isotopes by Milot et al. (2021a) to 60

61 identify which of these Iberian Pb ores may have actually been mined for use of their silver in62 minting Roman *denarii*.

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2. Potential Iberian sources of Roman lead and silver

Geological information on the galena samples analyzed here is summarized in Milot et al. 65 (2021a) and further details can be found in the IBERLID database (García de Madinabeitia et 66 al., 2021). Briefly, most deposits of economic importance are located in the southern part of 67 the Iberian Peninsula (see Supplementary Material). Lead-zinc-rich deposits occur 68 particularly in the Betic Cordillera (southeast Iberia), the Sierra Morena (south-central Iberia), 69 which belongs to the Central Iberian Zone (CIZ), and the Ossa Morena Zone (OMZ, 70 southwest of the Sierra Morena). The South Portuguese Zone (SPZ) counts many world-class 71 giant and supergiant volcanogenic massive sulfide (VMS) deposits all belonging to the 72 Iberian Pyrite Belt that covers the southwest corner of the Iberian Peninsula. Although less 73 74 common, notable deposits occur in the northern part of the Iberian Peninsula, such as in the Catalonian Coastal Ranges, the Northern Iberian Massif, the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, the 75 76 Cantabrian Zone, and the West Asturian Leonese Zone (Fig. 1). These mining regions exhibit archeological evidence of ancient exploitation from the Bronze Age to the Roman period. 77

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3. Materials and methods

The Ag isotopic compositions and Ag, Sb, Bi, As, Pb, and Cu concentrations of 47 Iberian 80 galena samples are listed in Table SM1. Table SM2 lists the Pb isotopic compositions for 81 these same samples and samples from the literature. Samples were grouped into eleven 82 distinct regions (Fig. 1), which correspond to the different tectonostratigraphic units that form 83 the Iberian Peninsula (e.g. Vergés et al., 2019). For better readability, the Central Iberian 84 Zone to which the metallogenic province of the Sierra Morena belongs was divided into two 85 distinct mining areas, those of the Linares-La Carolina and Alcudia Valley-Los Pedroches 86 87 districts.

The Pb and Ag isotopic compositions of Roman silver coins discussed below are from the literature (Albarède et al., 2020, 2016; Desaulty et al., 2011; Westner et al., 2020). The type and age of these coins are reported in Table SM3 and date mainly from the 3rd and 2nd 91 centuries BC, with a few exceptions dating to the early 1st century BC. We established two
92 groups corresponding to coins minted before and after the Roman 211 BC monetary reform.

The analytical protocols for Ag separation and isotopic measurement are described in Milot et
al. (2021b), while the protocols used for measuring the concentrations of Ag, Sb, Bi, As, Pb,
and Cu are given in the Supplementary Material.

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97 **4. Results**

The Ag isotope compositions of the present galena samples span a range of more than 10 98 ϵ^{109} Ag units (-8.05 to +2.27), consistent with the findings of Arribas et al. (2020), and vary 99 broadly within each region with significant overlap between regions. In stark contrast, $\epsilon^{109}Ag$ 100 of Roman silver coins fall within a narrow range (-1.05 to +0.37) except for a single outlier 101 with heavier ϵ^{109} Ag of 1.32±0.08. No noticeable differences in Ag isotopic composition are 102 observed between Roman coins minted before and after the 211 BC monetary reform or for 103 three Carthaginian coins. Iberian galena samples match only sporadically the Ag isotopic 104 compositions of Roman coins: among the 47 samples analyzed, only six galena ores fall 105 106 within the range of the coins (one from the Eastern Betics, one from the Linares-La Carolina district, two from the Alcudia Valley-Los Pedroches district, one from the Ossa Morena Zone, 107 108 and one from the South Portuguese Zone).

109 The extent of Ag isotopic variability displayed by galena samples from the Iberian Peninsula 110 is of the same order as the -4 to +4 ε^{109} Ag range exhibited by hypogene native silver (Arribas 111 et al., 2020; Mathur et al., 2018) but tends to be overall more negative (Fig. 2). ε^{109} Ag < -4 is 112 common in Iberian galena samples, whereas they are rare in other primary or oxidized silver 113 minerals.

114 With a few exceptions, the log-log (Ag+Cu)/Pb vs Sb/Pb diagram shows a positive correlation 115 between these trace elements (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, both Sb vs ε^{109} Ag (Fig. 3b) and Ag vs 116 ε^{109} Ag (Fig. 3c) show that samples with the highest Sb and Ag contents (>4000 and >3000 117 ppm, respectively) have ε^{109} Ag values centered around about -1.5, only slightly lighter than 118 the ε^{109} Ag range for silver coins.

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120 **5. Discussion**

Only few studies so far have investigated the mechanisms of Ag isotope fractionation (Arribas 121 et al., 2020; Fujii and Albarede, 2018; Mathur et al., 2018). Sulfides and sulfosalts play a 122 major role in reduced environments. Pb_2S_2 (galena) can form solid solutions with AgBiS₂ 123 (matildite), AgSbS₂ (miargyrite), and AgAsS₂ (proustite) (Hackbarth and Petersen, 1984; 124 Renock and Becker, 2011) and a strong correlation between Ag and Sb+Bi contents is 125 commonly observed in argentiferous galena (George et al., 2015). These mutually soluble 126 127 molecules can exsolve from galena upon cooling (Chutas et al., 2008) or, alternatively, upon metamorphic reheating and melting, and recrystallize as interstitial minerals observable in 128 thin sections (Voudouris et al., 2008). Other minerals may contain large concentrations of 129 silver, notably chlorides (chlorargyrite). Under low-temperature, oxidized conditions, jarosite 130 $(KFe_3(SO_4)_2(OH)_6)$ and native Ag are important silver-bearing minerals. Arribas et al. (2020) 131 proposed that the oxidation of primary Ag-sulfides under supergene weathering conditions 132 preferentially releases isotopically heavy Ag, which in turn reprecipitates beneath the water 133 134 table as secondary Ag phases of equally heavy Ag isotopic composition.

As far as silver sources are concerned, the two most crucial questions to emerge from thepresent work are:

- Which of the samples analyzed here may have been active sources of monetized
 Roman silver?
- 2. Why is the worldwide range of ε¹⁰⁹Ag (-1 to +1; Fujii and Albarede, 2018), including
 Ancient Greece and Rome, Medieval Europe, and colonial South and Central
 Americas, so narrow in coins compared to the range of ε¹⁰⁹Ag in potential Ag ores
 which is nearly two orders of magnitude wider (Arribas et al., 2020; this work)?

143 The answer to the first question is that, overall, only very few Iberian galena ores fit the Ag 144 isotope compositions of Roman silver coins. Because the sources of Iberian Pb and Ag used 145 in the coinage process may have been disconnected, Pb isotopes unfortunately are of little use 146 to help identify potential silver sources with precision. Answering the second question is more 147 complicated because of two factors: (i) Ag–O bonds tend to concentrate the heavy isotope 148 ¹⁰⁹Ag with respect to Ag–S and Ag–Cl bonds; (ii) increasing temperature tends to reduce 149 isotope fractionation with $1/T^2$, where *T* is the absolute temperature.

150 The narrow range of ε^{109} Ag in Roman coins indicates that their silver source was primarily 151 extracted at high temperatures, presumably from the mantle (Fujii and Albarede, 2018). High

temperature will suppress any isotopic fractionation between magmas and crystallizing 152 minerals. The similar ranges of ε^{109} Ag in minted silver extracted by smelting (Greece, Rome) 153 and the patio method (colonial Latin America; Desaulty et al., 2011) do not support the idea 154 that the high temperatures of smelting reduced the range of ϵ^{109} Ag. Petrologic evidence, 155 however, is inconsistent with Ag-rich sulfides, such as argentiferous galena and sulfosalts, 156 crystallizing at magmatic temperatures. Fluid inclusion studies (e.g. Arribas et al., 1995; 157 Voudouris et al., 2008) point to crystallization and exsolution of Ag(Bi,Sb,As)S₂ minerals 158 from galena solid solutions at temperatures of 150-400°C. For tetrahedrite, Hackbarth and 159 160 Petersen (1984) used strongly curved Cu, Ag, As, and Sb trajectories to suggest that these elements are enriched by fractional crystallization from hydrothermal solutions. These 161 162 trajectories can, however, be alternatively interpreted as mixing relationships between Agpoor galena and an Ag(Sb,As)S₂ end-member: the Cu+Ag/As+Sb ratios used in Hackbarth 163 164 and Petersen's (1984) study being highly variable along the trajectories, mixing such endmembers results, by definition, in hyperbolae with very strong curvature. 165

166 Given the extreme volatility of Ag, As, and Sb, mixing can therefore be used as a model to interpret the Ag isotope compositions in galena: interaction between Ag-poor sulfides, such as 167 galena and sulfosalts, and Ag-Bi-Sb-As-rich fluids boiled off from magmas is expected to be 168 particularly efficient at assimilating Ag from percolating fluids. Chutas et al.'s (2008) data on 169 mineral stability in the system PbS-AgSbS₂ (their Fig. 7) shows that above 200°C, galena 170 behaves as a 'silver sponge' with respect to Sb-rich fluids. George et al.'s (2015) strong 171 172 correlations (their Table 3) between Ag and Bi in galena makes the extrapolation of this suggestion to Sb- and As-rich fluids relatively straightforward. Argentiferous galena would 173 form in the relatively broad temperature range of PbS stability (150-450°C) upon Ag+Sb 174 175 uptake from Ag-Sb-Bi-As-rich magmatic and hydrothermal fluids by pre-existing Pb ore deposits. Silver-rich galena could form from either an early phase of the same mineralization 176 177 event or, alternatively, multi-stage mineralization. Modern magmatic environments with fluids enriched in Ag, As, Sb, and Bi, which can be used as analogs for silver ores, are known, 178 179 notably from the PACMANUS hydrothermal field situated on Pual Ridge next to Papua New 180 Guinea, and exsolved from felsic volcanic rocks (Binns, 2006; Wohlgemuth-Ueberwasser et 181 al., 2015).

With few exceptions, the Ag and Sb contents of our samples are positively correlated (Fig. 3) (r=0.81), which argues for silver enrichment of galena by coupled substitution of 2 Pb²⁺ by Cu/Ag⁺ and As/Bi/Sb³⁺ leading to the formation of a solid solution between Pb₂S₂ and

AgSbS₂ from which each phase may subsequently exsolve upon cooling (Chutas et al., 2008; 185 George et al., 2015; Renock and Becker, 2011) (Fig. 4). Moreover, samples with the highest 186 Ag contents, which may have been of economic interest to Roman smelters, have a narrow 187 range of ε^{109} Ag centered at about -1.5 ε^{109} Ag, which is included in the range of ore-forming 188 fluid compositions determined by Arribas et al. (2020) but slightly lighter than that of silver 189 coins. The lighter ε^{109} Ag values of Ag-rich galena may be explained by leaching of 190 preexisting fractionated Ag-rich deposits by Bi-Sb-As-rich hydrothermal fluids boiled off 191 from mantle-derived magma. Silver isotopic fractionation during partial exsolution of Ag 192 sulfides or sulfosalts from galena solid solutions may also be an explanation. Even slightly 193 fractionated from the mantle value of ε^{109} Ag~0, the Ag isotopic composition of Ag-rich 194 galena is likely to get averaged out in silver bullion during smelting. The Betics, where 195 Neogene magmatism took place (e.g. Arribas and Tosdal, 1994), is a plausible source of such 196 197 Ag-enriched ores as attested to by archeological evidence (Baron et al., 2017; Domergue, 2008, 1990). Similarly, in other provinces, hydrothermal fluids of magmatic origin most 198 199 likely are responsible for the Ag enrichment of lead ores, which may have been important 200 sources of silver for ancient miners. Since the Pb isotope compositions of the silver coins 201 considered here range between those of two lead sources from the Eastern Betics (Fig. SM1), 202 we suggest that Pb ore deposits from this province mostly were exploited for Pb in general and cupellation in particular. 203

In contrast, silver from Ag-poor samples is isotopically fractionated relative to a given reference value which, pending proper isotopic documentation, could be that of the mantle or the crust and hence rather reflects supergene Ag fractionation processes in upper crustal environments. Their ε^{109} Ag values differ markedly from those of Roman silver coins.

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218 **7. References cited**

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Map of the Iberian mining provinces and galena samples analyzed in this study.
Circles: samples from this study (Table SM1); triangles: samples from the literature (Table
SM2).

Figure 2. ε^{109} Ag of silver coins (Table SM3) and Iberian galena samples (Table SM1). Dotted lines delimit the range of Ag isotopic variation of silver coins, with the exception of one outlier.

Figure 3. (a) (Ag+Cu)/Pb vs Sb/Pb of Iberian galena samples in atomic concentration. The red line corresponds to a linear regression with a slope of 1. Note the logarithmic scale. (b) Sb vs ϵ^{109} Ag and (c) Ag vs ϵ^{109} Ag of Iberian galena samples. Dotted lines delimit the range of Ag isotopic variation of silver coins, with the exception of one outlier. The elemental concentrations are reported in Table SM1.

- Figure 4. Solubility relationships in the PbS-AgSbS₂ system (after Chutas et al., 2008). gn =
- 321 galena; gn_{ss} = galena solid solution; fre = freieslebenite; mia = miargyrite. Silver sulfo-
- antimonides are remarkably soluble in galena over a large range of temperatures. Galena
- deposits represent an efficient trap for Ag-Sb rich fluids.

Figure 1







