

1  **BIOGENESIS OF THE NEOPROTEROZOIC KREMYDILITE MANGANESE ORES**  
2  **FROM URUCUM (BRAZIL) – A NEW MANGANESE ORE TYPE.**  
3

4 **Running title: Biogenesis of a Neoproterozoic manganese ore**  
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30 **Significance statement**

31  
32 The Neoproterozoic Urucum manganese deposit (Brazil) is a ~600 Mt microbially-mediated  
33 sedimentary Mn ore. Proto-ore formation via sedimentation and diagenesis occurred under  
34 suboxic-oxic and semi-neutral pH conditions in the Ediacaran ocean, wherein microbial Mn(II)  
35 oxidation ensued from the fine-grained accumulation of Mn oxides and organic matter. Oxic  
36 conditions that facilitated enzymatic Mn oxidation and overwhelmed microbial Fe oxidation  
37 appears as a sharp contact between manganese and iron beds. The Urucum deposit arose from a  
38 complex suite of diagenetic processes, including decomposition and mineralization of microbially-  
39 derived organic matter involving extracellular polymeric substances. *Kremydilite* – a new type of  
40 diagenetic concentric Mn mineral structure – formed by randomly activated heterotrophic cell  
41 colonies that generated pores in the microbialite sediment after burial, coincident with lithification.

42  
43 **Highlights**

- 44 1. Urucum Mn deposit formed in an Ediacaran marginal basin with more than 600 Mt of ore  
45 formed from manganiferous microbialite.
- 46 2. *Kremydilite* is diagenetic structure that comprises a new type of Mn ore.
- 47 3. Microbial mediation occurred during Mn ore sedimentation and diagenesis.
- 48 4. Cellular and extracellular polymeric substances from Fe and Mn bacteria and cyanobacteria  
49 were mineralized.

51 **Abstract**

52 The Urucum district in Mato Grosso do Sul (Brazil), hosts the youngest and largest sedimentary  
53 Mn ore of Neoproterozoic age; units Mn-1, Mn-2, and Mn-3 are found in jaspilites and ironstones,  
54 and represent approximately 600 Mt of extractable rock with 27–44% Mn and 12–30% Fe. High-  
55 resolution optical- and cathodoluminescence microscopy, as well as Raman and FTIR  
56 spectroscopy show that the lower Mn-1 is ferruginous, while the upper Mn-1 consists mainly of  
57 30–75 vol.% braunite, < 0.5% aegirine, 3–15% quartz, 5–10% feldspar, and 1–5% clay minerals,  
58 including apatite, chlorite, and organic matter. Here, we model the control of this ore mineralogy  
59 by homogeneous oxidation and microbial processes. Layers Mn-2 and Mn-3 contain *kremydilite*,  
60 as a characteristic ore structure, with 77–95 vol.% cryptomelane, 0–23% hollandite, 9–19 %  
61 braunite, 7–21% hematite, and 0–5% pores filled with clay minerals and organic matter. These are  
62 present within a micro-nodule matrix composed of cryptomelane and hematite in varying  
63 proportions. The first syngenetic products of microbial enzymatic oxidation were, on the Fe side,  
64 ferrihydrite and lepidocrocite, and on the Mn side, vernadite, todorokite, birnessite, and manganite.  
65 These formed under obligatory oxic (Mn) and suboxic (Fe) conditions and close to neutral pH. We  
66 describe the genesis of Urucum via complex diagenetic processes, which include the  
67 decomposition and mineralization of cellular- and extracellular-polymeric substances from Fe and  
68 Mn bacteria and cyanobacteria. The kremydilite forms in successive stages of oxidation of organic  
69 matter mediated by microbes, which generate pores and produce methane and CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> bubbles.  
70 They are a unique type of diagenetic structure formed by heterotrophic cell colonies randomly  
71 activated in the microbialite milieu following burial in suboxic neutral/alkaline conditions, side-  
72 by-side with the lithification and stabilization of the mineral assemblages. **(294 words)**

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76 **Keywords:**  
77 (1) Urucum Ediacaran manganese deposit; (2) kremydilite; (3) microbialite; (4) enzymatic  
78 oxidation, cell and extracellular polymeric substance mineralization.

80 **1. INTRODUCTION**

81  
82 The Urucum mining district occupies an area of approximately 800 km<sup>2</sup> and is located in the  
83 Pantanal swamps region of west-central Brazil. Three layers of massive manganese oxides, named  
84 Mn-1, Mn-2, and Mn-3, occur interbedded with massive jasper, banded iron formations (BIFs),  
85 and massive iron formations (IF) that comprise the Santa Cruz Formation of the Neoproterozoic  
86 Jacadigo Group (Urban et al. 1992; Frei et al. 2017; Fig. 1 and SI 1-Fig). It was estimated that the  
87 Urucum district originally contained more than 600 Mt of rock with the manganese content  
88 between 27–44 wt.% and iron content between 12–30 wt.% (Urban et al. 1992).

89 **Fig. 1 HERE**

90 The stratigraphic sequence of the Urucum region was first defined by Dorr (1945) and Almeida  
91 (1946), who also conducted the first systematic studies on the origin of iron and manganese  
92 deposits in the region. Urban et al. (1992) mapped the entire mining region, and since that time,  
93 the regional geological map has been minimally updated. Following the work of Urban et al.  
94 (1992), the most relevant changes to our understanding of the regional geology arose from the  
95 work of Freitas et al. (2011), who detailed the Jacadigo Group lithologies and defined their  
96 sedimentation environments. Biondi and Lopez (2017) identified faults that acted as conduits for  
97 hydrothermal fluids which altered the rocks of the Jacadigo Group basement, and exhaled fluids  
98 with iron and other elements at the base of the sedimentary sequence of the Urucum basin. They  
99 also correlated the Mn-1, Mn-2, and Mn-3 layers with those recognized at different Urucum sites.  
100 Various and mutually-exclusive proposed genetic models for the Jacadigo Group iron and  
101 manganese rocks have been a topic of discussion and debate since their discovery. These models  
102 can be summarized as follows: (a) marine genesis with sediments of continental origin (Dorr  
103 1945); (b) marine genesis with sediments of marine origin (Almeida 1946; Putzer, 1958; Haralyi  
104 and Walde, 1986); (c) volcanogenic marine genesis (Walde 1981; Walde et al. 1981; Leonardos  
105 and Walde 1982; O'Connor and Walde 1985); (d) formation in a glacio-marine sedimentary

106 environment followed by supergene enrichment (Schneider 1984; Schreck 1984; Leeuwen and  
107 Graf 1987; Graf et al. 1994; Costa et al. 2005); (e) sedimentary genesis in a flooded graben with a  
108 contribution of hydrothermal leaching from hidden mafic rocks (Haralyi and Walde 1986; Walde  
109 1988; Trompette et al. 1998); (f) SEDEX, or sedimentary exhalation (Dardenne 1998); and (g)  
110 sedimentary genesis in an oceanic environment with a deep-sea hydrothermal contribution (Klein  
111 and Ladeira 2004). Recently, Angerer et al. (2016) proposed a biologically-mediated origin in a  
112 glacio-marine environment for the carbonate BIFs of the Santa Cruz Mine region located on the  
113 southeastern part of the Santa Cruz plateau. In a recent comprehensive study, Biondi and Lopez  
114 (2017) (a) recognized the biogenic mediation during the genesis of manganese ore; (b) described  
115 in detail mineral structures termed by them *kremydilites* and argued that they may represent  
116 fossilized microbial colonies from organisms that mediated the formation of the manganese layers;  
117 and (c) modified the region's stratigraphy based on the fossil assemblages, showing that the  
118 Urucum iron-manganese rocks correlate to the carbonate rocks of the Bocaina Formation, of the  
119 Corumbá Group, previously considered post-depositional to those of the Jacadigo Group.

120 The Ediacaran Period of formation is proposed by the authors based on the presence of the  
121 *Corumbella Veneri* fossil, found amidst the ironstones separating Mn-2 from Mn-3 (Figs 2B and  
122 Figs 4B to D, Biondi and Lopez 2017). This fossil has always been considered Ediacaran, which  
123 establishes a wider interest concerning the Urucum Mn deposit.

124 Here, we explore the origin of kremydilites described in Biondi and Lopez (2017) and  
125 present a model that explains the processes of sedimentation and diagenesis that facilitated the  
126 origin of these structures and the manganese layers. Recent works have provided a geological  
127 setting diagram, mineralogy (low magnification optical microscopy, X-ray diffraction, SEM-EDS-  
128 based), and chemistry datasets based on bulk samples and in situ (SEM-EDS) data (e.g. Frei et al.  
129 2017), but microbial mediation as a plausible mechanism for the genesis of these rocks is still  
130 under debate (Biondi and Lopez 2017). We expand the results of these previous studies with more  
131 detailed optical microscopy (OM), cathodoluminescence microscopy (CL), Raman- and Fourier-  
132 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) to document the micro-mineralogy, presence, and  
133 distribution of embedded organic matter. The goal here is to explore the role of microorganisms

134 in the process of manganese ore genesis from Urucum, and to understand the diagenesis, structures,  
135 and process of formation of kremydilites.

136

## 137 **2. GEOLOGICAL AND GEOCHRONOLOGICAL BACKGROUND**

138 The Santa Cruz Formation is mainly composed of jaspilitic BIFs, (massive) iron formations  
139 (IFs), massive banded jasper, and ferruginous arkosic silt and sandstones. The greatest thickness  
140 of the Santa Cruz Formation, 396 m, is documented in drill hole (DH) 44-28, made at the Vetorial  
141 Mine, and bookended by a 40 m section at the northern end of the Rabicho plateau (Fig. 2). The  
142 massive manganese layers, Mn-1, Mn-2, and Mn-3, occur in the lower half of this formation and  
143 are interlayered with BIFs and massive jasper.

144 The Jacadigo and Corumbá Groups are considered coeval (Biondi and Lopez 2017) and of  
145 Ediacaran age, based on the presence of stromatolites below Mn-1 (Jacadigo Group) and  
146 *Corumbella* fossils in the rocks of the Bocaina and Santa Cruz Formations (respectively, Corumbá  
147 and Jacadigo Groups). The age of this fossil in the ironstones of the Santa Cruz Formations  
148 (Jacadigo Group) and limestones of the Tamengo Formation (Corumbá Group) was estimated at  
149 ca. 550 Ma (Germs 1972; Grant 1990; Grotzinger et al. 1990; Hofmann and Mountjoy 2001;  
150 Bengtson 2002). The proposed age of this horizon was 555–542 Ma by ichnofossils, identified by  
151 Parry et al. (2017), in the Bocaina Formation. These ages are consistent with U-Pb geochronology  
152 of detrital zircons from a volcanic ash layer intercalated with carbonate rocks of the Tamengo  
153 Formation, at 543±3 Ma (Babinski et al. 2008), and the  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  age of 587±7 Ma for  
154 cryptomelane in the Mn-1 to Mn-3 layers (Piacentini et al. 2013; Frei et al. 2017 and references  
155 therein).

156 Dating braunite from the Mn-1 layer, Piacentini et al. (2013) interpreted the 547±3 to 513±4  
157 Ma ( $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ) age as a minimum age, arguing that the Ar/Ar thermo-chronological system was  
158 rejuvenated by tectonic warming, which was considered a consequence of the metamorphism  
159 underwent by the Jacadigo Group rocks. Also using the  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  method, they dated 513±3 Ma  
160 some crystals of muscovite collected from the arkoses that are interlayered with the BIFs, which  
161 was also considered metamorphic. According to Piacentini et al. (2013), these ages are “possibly

162 *related to disruption between the Amazon Craton and the Apa River cratonic fragment and they*  
163 *do not reflect the time of Jacadigo Group deposition”, which would be greater than 590 Ma, and*  
164 *concluded that Jacadigo’s rocks would have at least  $587 \pm 7$  Ma.*

165 To reconstruct the paleogeography of the sedimentary basin, Mn-2 and Mn-3 were leveled  
166 and used as stratigraphic markers. This procedure makes it possible to outline the geometrical  
167 differences between the Mn-layers. This reconstruction shows that stratigraphy observed within  
168 the Urucum plateaux always includes Mn-1, and that this stratum lines the basin floor wherever  
169 the Jacadigo Group is described (e.g., Urban et al. 1992; Biondi and Lopez 2017) (Fig. 2). Yet,  
170 unlike Mn-1, both the Mn-2 and Mn-3 layers occur only in the interpreted depocenter of the basin,  
171 in the region of Urucum, Santa Cruz and southeast of the Morro Grande plateaux (Fig. 1). In the  
172 interior of each plateau, mining of the manganese layers reveals that Mn-2 and Mn-3 are flat and  
173 parallel to one another, whereas the Mn-1 unit follows the contours of the basin floor. By  
174 positioning Mn-2 and Mn-3 in their respective stratigraphic horizons it is now possible to  
175 reconstruct Urucum marginal basin floor (Fig. 2).

176 The origin of the sediments of Urucum has been detailed elsewhere (Walde 1981; Walde  
177 et al. 1981; Leonardos and Walde 1982; O'Connor and Walde 1985, Haralyi and Walde 1986;  
178 Walde 1988; Trompette et al. 1998, Dardenne 1998, Klein and Ladeira 2004, Angerer et al. 2016;  
179 Biondi and Lopez 2017), and we provided a brief synopsis, here. The Santa Cruz Formation formed  
180 as an in-fill of an ancient graben with iron and manganese-rich sediments overlying fluvial deposits  
181 from the Urucum Formation, while limestones from the Bocaina and Tamengo Formations were  
182 deposited in the shallow marginal regions (Biondi and Lopez 2017; Fig. 2). As has been proposed  
183 for some Phanerozoic Mn ores (e.g. Polgári et al. 2012ab, 2016b), the most probable sources of  
184 the Mn and Fe was hydrothermal exhalations in a submarine environment. The Mn and Fe fluids  
185 were transported to the sedimentary basin via basement faults (SI 1-2-Figs) that became activated



186 each time the graben widened. During inundations attributed to sedimentation of the Mn-1, Mn-2,  
187 and Mn-3 units, Mn and Fe discharged on basin floor mixed with Mn and Fe brought in by water  
188 from the open ocean as well as with that originating from the exhalates located outside the Urucum  
189 basin.

190 **Fig. 2.**

191 A transition between the Urucum and Santa Cruz formations through the Mn-1 horizon  
192 exists in all mines from the area (Urban et al. 1992). Furthermore, Biondi and Lopez (2017)  
193 showed that there are typically two or more layers of Mn-1 manganese ore with meter- to  
194 decimeter-scale thicknesses, locally interlayered with jaspillite-rich clasts. We now describe these  
195 relationships in more detail.

196 The lower Mn-1 ore layer is relatively siliceous and composed mainly of braunite,  
197 cryptomelane cement and Mn–Fe-rich carbonate, whereas the Upper Mn-1 layer is a fine-grained,  
198 massive, clastic layer of manganese oxides with undulating parallel lamination and numerous  
199 decimeter-scale oblate structures, characterized by a massive core and silty clay and arkose wrap  
200 dubbed amygdalites (Fig. 3C). The ore layer is bounded by sharp planar contacts typically overlain  
201 by conglomerate consisting of angular granite pebbles in an arkosic matrix. Layers Mn-2 and Mn-3  
202 contain mostly massive manganese ore with lamination. They are composed mainly of  
203 cryptocrystalline manganese oxides and hydroxides, commonly containing kremydilites (Figs. 3D-  
204 E and 4) with minor amygdalites (Biondi and Lopez 2017). In Mn-2 and Mn-3, what have been  
205 interpreted as the remains of microbial colonies form oblate, 5–15-cm sized concentric kremydilite  
206 structures, within the fine-grained and biomass-rich basin floor shale as well as intergranular,  
207 oblate gas structures (Figs. 4A, C, F, and H). The main features of the ore beds, including their  
208 mineralogical and selective element compositions are summarized in Table 1.

209 **Fig. 3**

210 **Fig. 4.**

211 **Table 1.**

212           The textures of the Mn-2 and Mn-3 layers express as 1–10 millimeter-sized spherical, often  
213 zoned manganese oxide micro-nodules that coalesce to form the massive ores. These probably  
214 involved the aforementioned kremydilite structures made solely of manganese and minor iron  
215 oxides. All observed Mn-2 and Mn-3 outcrops have kremydilites, although they do not constitute  
216 all of the ore mass from these layers. As previously described, kremydilites occur between the ore  
217 bands (Figs. 4A–J), which are massive or banded (and/or laminated), and are distributed in the  
218 layers in an apparently homogeneous manner. It is difficult to estimate the volume occupied by  
219 kremydilites owing to the fact that they are complicated to see in discontinuous outcrops. For those  
220 observed on the mining fronts, it is likely that they occupy more than about 50% of the ore layer  
221 by volume.

## 222 **2.1. Forms and type of kremydilites**

223           Kremydilites occur only between the laminations of the massive ore in the Mn-2 and Mn-  
224 3 layers, and are absent in banded- or massive ironstones. They are always contoured by the fine  
225 laminated ore with micronodular, microbialite micro-texture, in which the diameters of micro-  
226 nodules range from 0.2–0.8 mm (Fig. 4; SI 5-Fig, zones 1, 2, 3; and zones 20 to 24). Microbialite  
227 and micro-nodule rich layers are in turn contoured by wavy microbialite layers apparently  
228 composed by the amalgamation of nodules smaller than 10  $\mu\text{m}$ . Its forms are oblate, centimeter-  
229 to-decimeter scale (Fig. 3) and concentrically zoned. Structures of what we interpret to be the  
230 different growth development stages also appear to occur together (Figs. 4 and 5), and each stage  
231 of growth is marked by the presence of pores, which delineate coarse concentric, sometimes  
232 incomplete envelopes (Fig. 4). Kremydilites on the other hand are porous structures absent of  
233 micro-nodules. They occur in varied forms as shown in Figures 4A to H.

234 **Fig. 5.**

235           The simplest kremydilite form consists of a bubble-filled nucleus (Fig. 4A), followed by  
236 those with a nucleus having diffuse borders (Figs. 4C). Other forms include a nucleus with one  
237 (Fig. 4E) or two (Fig.4G) diffuse concentric laminae (or shells). The more complex kremdyrites,  
238 with a nucleus and many concentric shells delineated by millimeter to submillimeter pores,  
239 crosscut with lighter, massive, and metallic zones (Figs. 4I). In general, the various kremydilite  
240 forms contain many oblate structures (Figs. 4A, E, and G). These are less than 20 mm across  
241 distributed along the layer containing the kremydilite, and inside and/or near them. Mesoscopic  
242 inspections of sawn samples (Fig. 4K) as well as thin and polished sections, show that each layer  
243 contains disseminated pores. The quantity of pores increases toward the margin of the shell, and  
244 each lamina is surrounded and delimited by areas with high pore density (Biondi and Lopez 2017).

245           The pores are often lined by shiny acicular microcrystals of cryptomelane and/or contain  
246 organic matter (Biondi and Lopez 2017). Although kremydilites do not contain micro-nodules,  
247 and are instead inside the micronodular bands and contoured by microbialite layers, the outermost  
248 zones of kremydilite appear to have a composition similar to that of amalgamated micro-nodules.  
249 In these zones, the presence of ring-like structures of carbonate microcrystals are common (SI 5-  
250 Fig, zone 16 - detail image, Biondi and Lopez, 2017). The zones closer to the nucleus (zones 9,  
251 10, and 11) contain mixed anhedral minerals with metallic luster, but with larger dimensions than  
252 the anterior zones. The nucleus of the kremydilites (zones 12 and 13) are microgranular and  
253 heterogeneous.

254

### 255 **3. SAMPLES**

256           Representative samples and the methods applied (number of photos and spectra) are  
257 summarized in Table 2 and Fig. 3–4. Localities of the sample collection are shown in Fig. 2.

258           The samples of Mn-1 are (Fig. 3, SI 3-Fig): COR-4B, a clast-bearing massive ironstone;  
259 COR-6, a massive manganese ore; COR-7, a very fine-grained clast-bearing ore with braunite and  
260 carbonate; COR-10, a sandy, detritic ore with braunite, quartz, and feldspar; COR-31, an arkosic  
261 sandstone with hematite matrix; and COR-32, an amygdalite with cryptomelane massive nucleus  
262 surrounded by arkosic sandstone with hematite matrix.

263           Samples of Mn-2 and Mn-3 are: COR-81, a sample of massive manganese ore; COR-78-  
264 F3 (Fig. 4F), a nucleus of porous kremydilite with diffuse boundaries, surrounded by two zones  
265 also with diffuse boundaries; COR-78-D1 (Fig. 4C), a kremydilite with a diffuse core enveloped  
266 by two shells, also with diffuse boundaries; COR-75-B5 (Fig. 4E), a porous kremydilite nucleus;  
267 COR-75-2 and COR-48 (Fig. 4J), complex kremydilites with porous core surrounded by many  
268 concentric, porous shells; and COR-36-A1 (Fig. 4G), a kremydilite with a nucleus and at least two  
269 shells (hereafter the samples are cited without COR).

270 **Table 2.**

271

## 272 **4. METHODS**

273           Thin section and polished section mineralogy was described and quantified using a ZEISS  
274 Axio Imager A2m microscope (Federal University of Paraná State, Polytechnic Center, Geology  
275 Department, Curitiba, Brazil).

276           Petrographic structural-textural studies by optical rock microscopy (OM) were also made  
277 on 12 thin sections in transmitted and reflected light (NIKON ECLIPSE 600 rock microscope,  
278 Institute for Geology and Geochemistry, Research Centre for Astronomy and Earth Sciences,  
279 Hungarian Academy of Sciences - IGGR RCAES HAS, Budapest, Hungary).

280           Cathodoluminescence (CL) petrography was carried out on 7 thin sections using a  
281 Reliotron cold cathode cathodoluminescence apparatus mounted on a BX-43 Olympus

282 polarization microscope (Szeged University, Hungary). The accelerating voltage was 7–7.7 keV  
283 during the analysis. Cathodoluminescence spectra were recorded by using an Ocean Optics  
284 USB2000+VIS-NIR spectrometer. Spectrometer specifications are a wavelength range of 350–  
285 1000 nm and 1.5-nm (FWHM) optical resolution.

286 Mineralogical analyses were performed on three bulk samples using a Rigaku Miniflex-600  
287 X-ray diffractometer (XRD), with carbon monochromator and Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation, at 40 kV and 15  
288 mA (IGGR RCAES HAS, Budapest, Hungary). Mineral composition was determined on randomly  
289 oriented powdered samples. The diffraction patterns were processed using Siroquant V4 software,  
290 and the modal contents determined by the Rietveld method.

291 *In situ* FTIR microspectrometry used for micro-mineralogy and organic material  
292 identification on nine thin sections to determine the mineralogy and characterize the organic  
293 material, as well as clarify the concentric structures (415 spectra, IGGR RCAES HAS, Budapest,  
294 Hungary), using a Bruker FTIR VERTEX 70 equipped with a Bruker HYPERION 2000  
295 microscope with a 20x ATR objective and MCT-A detector. During attenuated total reflectance  
296 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR) analysis, the samples were contacted with a Ge  
297 crystal (0.5- $\mu$ m) tip with 1 N pressure. The measurement was conducted for 32 s in the 600–4000  
298 cm<sup>-1</sup> range with 4-cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution. Opus 5.5 software was used to evaluate the data. The equipment  
299 inappropriate for most of Mn-oxide determinations because those peaks fall in the < 600 cm<sup>-1</sup> range  
300 (not equipped with that detector). Contamination by epoxy glue and glass was corrected for.

301 High-resolution *in situ* micro-Raman spectroscopy was used for micro-mineralogy and CM  
302 identification and distribution on 9 thin sections (1 polished section) (Szeged University,  
303 Hungary). A Thermo Scientific DXR Raman Microscope was used, with a 532-nm (green) diode  
304 pumped solid-state (DPSS) Nd-YAG laser, using 1.5-mW laser power and 50x objective lens in  
305 confocal mode (confocal aperture 25  $\mu$ m slit). The acquisition time was 1 min, and the spectral

306 resolution was  $\sim 2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for each measurement. The distance between each point was  $10 \mu\text{m}$ , and  
307 the measurement time was 10 min. A composite image of thin sections of Raman microscopy  
308 measurements and a series of Raman spectra acquired along the vertical sections are provided in  
309 the thin section photomicrographs (arrow points to measurement direction). Diagrams are  
310 organized in terms of peak height versus analytical spot number for each of the phases along the  
311 Raman-scanned section. Intensities were normalized to the highest peak for each spectrum.

312 Raman measurements were taken on 9 samples (4B, 7, 10, 31, 36-A, 75-2, 75-B5, 48-D1,  
313 81). In the case of the homogeneous-like cases 400-500 and in the case of 75-2, 800 spectra were  
314 taken along the line shown on section photos (4B, 7, 10, 31). These are systematic investigations  
315 along the line profile. Spectra were obtained every  $10 \mu\text{m}$ , providing a high-resolution sensitive  
316 study. In samples 75-B5, 78-D1, and 81, the measurements were taken across whole thin sections.  
317 The spectra were elaborated in two ways:

318 (1) Diagrams were organized in terms of peak height versus analytical spot number of each of the  
319 phases along the Raman scanned section (main minerals and organic matter in general). (2) A  
320 detailed determination of all spectra were also made. These results are summarized in tables (Excel  
321 files, numbers 1, 2, and 3 indicate the intensity—1-weak, 2-moderate, 3-strong—reference data on  
322 detection), in which the mineral composition can be followed from point to point, as well as the  
323 type of organic matter. (Supporting Information)

324 Aside from the profile analyses, descriptions of the mineral phase transitions were also  
325 constructed for clarification of aegirine (5 photos, 4 mineral spectra, and 1 profile), braunite (3  
326 photos, 10 point analyses, and 1 profile across mineral transitional zones), cryptomelane (18  
327 photos, 54 point analyses, and 2 profiles across spheres), and the composition of the oblate  
328 structures (28 photos, 93 point analyses, and 1 profile).

329 The following Raman bands were used for normalization: rhodochrosite:  $\sim 1086\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  
330 dolomite:  $\sim 1093\text{-}96\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , apatite:  $\sim 965\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , quartz:  $\sim 463\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; todorokite  $633\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; manjiorite  
331  $641\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; ramsdellite:  $650\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; cryptomelane:  $183\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $580\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; hollandite:  $585\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ;  
332 birnessite:  $656\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; ferrihydrite:  $707$  and  $1045\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; goethite:  $297$  and  $385\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; celadonite:  $545$   
333  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; barite:  $446$  and  $985\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; johannite:  $785\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; aegirine:  $970\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; jacobsite:  $620\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ;  
334 hausmannite:  $661\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; braunite:  $210, 510, 685\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; and carbonaceous matter:  $\sim 1605\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The  
335 identification of minerals was made with the RRUFF Database (Database of Raman –  
336 spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, and chemistry of minerals: <http://rruff.info/>). Contamination by  
337 epoxy glue was taken into consideration. Along with the profile analyses, a detailed determination  
338 of all peaks was also made.

339 Comparing the two *in situ* methods, the AT-FTIR, which did not considerably modify the  
340 mineral phases while using the lowest exciting energy, was used to investigate the upper  $1\text{-}2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$   
341 of the samples. This is the also best method to determine organic matter (Polgári and Gyollai,  
342 2019; Polgári et al., 2019). On the contrary, Raman spectroscopy, using higher excitation energy,  
343 often caused the transformation of metastable minerals to more stable phases. This method yielded  
344 information from the upper  $3\text{-}4\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  depth of the sample surfaces and was the best method for  
345 identifying Mn oxides and hydroxides. The Raman comparative spectra database is more extensive  
346 than the AT-FTIR database.

347

## 348 **5. RESULTS**

### 349 **5.1. Optical (OM) and cathodoluminescence (CL) rock microscopy**

#### 350 **5.1.1. Optical rock microscopy**

351 Thin sections represent mineralized biomats based on structural observations, which are  
352 eminently visible on smaller magnification photos ( $40\times$ ) (Fig. 6, SI 6-, 7-Figs). In all thin sections,

353 adequately high-resolution optical rock microscopy (1000x) supports a series of mineralized  
354 biomat microstructures, mineralized microbially produced textures (MMPT) as main constituents  
355 (Fig. 6, SI 8-Fig). This microbial microtexture is a basic feature of all the samples, in transmitted  
356 as well as reflective light. Well-preserved and mineralized remains of diverse filaments with pearl  
357 necklace-like, vermiform inner signatures, and coccoid-like forms embedded in the Mn ore beds  
358 are seen, and the whole samples appear densely woven. The minerals are very fine-grained (0.5-1  
359  $\mu\text{m}$ ) except Mn-1, where clastic contribution occurs. The diameter of the mineralized filaments is  
360 around 0.5–1  $\mu\text{m}$ , with variable length (Fig. 6).

361 **Fig. 6.**

362 Samples 4B, 7, 10, 31, 32 (all from Mn-1) include debris-like components of variable size  
363 (20–200  $\mu\text{m}$ ). In sample 4B, it seems that the darker gray mineral grains transform to lighter phase  
364 (SI 8-Fig). The debris grains are mainly quartz with few fragments of jasper and hydrothermally  
365 altered feldspar.

366 **5.1.2. Cathodoluminescence microscopy**

367 Cathodoluminescence revealed that a part of the debris-like grains (clastic components) is  
368 probably composed of real clasts showing the bright, characteristic CL of the mineral (e.g., quartz-  
369 blue, feldspar-yellowish) (Fig. 7AB, SI 9-Fig). Some other grains with sizes of some tens of  $\mu\text{m}$   
370 resemble clasts but do not show luminescence. These non-luminescent grains are most probably  
371 secondary minerals formed via diagenesis (Marshall 1998; Hassouta et al. 1999).

372 Bright blue luminescence is characteristic of kaolinite group-dickite (supported by Raman  
373 spectroscopy; Götze et al. 2002), which occurred frequently in our samples (samples 4B, 7, 10, 31,  
374 Fig. 7A, B, G, H). The numerous small or larger bright yellow minerals are apatite grains, which  
375 often have a lighter margin. These apatites occur along the ore lenses, minerals, and laminae in a  
376 woven-like fine-grained biomat-type matrix which mark the borders as accompanying a series of



377 minerals that occurred frequently (Fig. 7, SI 9-Fig) (samples 4B, 7, 10). The fine-grained  
378 rhodochrosite (mixed carbonate) show dull reddish (orange) luminescence (Fig. 7A, B) (samples  
379 4B, 7, 10). Samples 75-2, 75-B5, and 78-D1 are non-luminescent.

380 **Fig. 7.**

## 381 **5.2. FTIR spectroscopy**

382 Measurements were performed in two ways: (i) randomly, in seven sections (6, 7, 10, 31,  
383 32, 36-A1, 78-F3) and (ii) along profiles, in kremydilite sample 48B (Fig. 4K) and in oblate  
384 structure (36-A2) (Fig. 4H).

### 385 **5.2.1. Local area analyses**

386 Mineral phases and types of organic matter for (i) are summarized in Table 3 and SI 10-  
387 Table, according to the measuring area and frequency.

388 **Table 3.**

389 In summary, Fe-oxide-hydroxides (ferrihydrite, lepidocrocite, hematite) are common in all  
390 the Mn ore beds, Fe-silicates (aegirine) are common in the Mn-1 ore bed, and Fe-sulphide (pyrite)  
391 rarely occurs. Variable Mn oxides and hydroxides (todorokite, ramsdellite, pyrolusite,  
392 cryptomelane), and oxide-silicates (braunite, serandite) are the main Mn ore minerals. Besides Fe  
393 and Mn ore minerals, feldspar, chlorite, celadonite, kaolinite group-dickite, apatite, and quartz are  
394 moderate or minor mineral components. Variable types of organic matter occur in all samples.

### 395 **5.2.2. Analyses of kremydilite**

396 Three profile analyses in kremydilite sample 48B were made (Fig. 4K and Fig. 8). Two  
397 profiles crossed the concentric shells of the kremydilite structure on opposite sides (A and C), and  
398 one profile crossed the inner part (B).

399 All concentric shells and the parts intersected between these shells are heterogenous and  
400 very fine-grained. Considering that minerals represent the remnants of primary Mn and Fe

401 minerals, each measuring point in the concentric shells and intersected parts resulted in a mixture  
402 of minerals, with often poorly crystallized phases.

403 **Fig. 8.**

404 All shells and the inner part are heterogeneous and very fine-grained. Each measuring point  
405 resulted in a mixture of minerals, with often poorly crystallized phases like ferrihydrite. The shells  
406 —observed visually—often have the same mineralogy (cryptomelane, hollandite, hematite,  
407 rhodochrosite, and pores). The mineralogy of the two sides of the structure are asymmetric (Fig.  
408 8D). *Profile A* (Fig. 8B), from the margin toward the inner part, contain rhodochrosite-goethite,  
409 manjiorite-todorokite, minor ferrihydrite-cryptomelane (6 shells), and in the vicinity of the inner  
410 part, cryptomelane-ferrihydrite. *Profile C*, from the margin toward the inner part, contain braunite-  
411 rhodochrosite, braunite-goethite-rhodochrosite (3 shells), braunite-cryptomelane-rhodochrosite,  
412 braunite-rhodochrosite, braunite, cryptomelane-ferrihydrite-rhodochrosite (2 shells),  
413 cryptomelane-ferrihydrite (2 shells), and cryptomelane-braunite, and in the vicinity of the inner  
414 part, cryptomelane-ferrihydrite. *Profile B*, representing the inner part from the shells to the center,  
415 contain cryptomelane-ferrihydrite, ramsdellite-rhodochrosite, birnessite-rhodochrosite (2 zones),  
416 cryptomelane-quartz-rhodochrosite, cryptomelane-birnessite-dolomite, cryptomelane-quartz-  
417 rhodochrosite, ferrihydrite-cryptomelane-dolomite-quartz, and cryptomelane-quartz-dolomite.  
418 Varying amounts of pores, with or without organic matter, are characteristic in all layers and in  
419 the central parts (Fig. 4).

420 In summary, mineralogical assemblages contain concentric zones (or “shells”) of poorly  
421 crystallized, preserved Mn (birnessite, todorokite) and Fe minerals (ferrihydrite), and mainly more  
422 stable cryptomelane, hollandite, braunite, hematite, goethite, and rhodochrosite. *Profile C* mineral  
423 components are more stable. More stable minerals represent greater degree of crystallinity.

424 **5.2.3. Analyses of oblate (bubble-like) structures**

425           Based on OM of sample 36-A1, the outer and inner matrix and also the dark spots of the  
426 oblate structures appear very similar, with only the reflective color differing slightly (SI 11-Fig).  
427 FTIR analyses resulted in a similar mineralogy and variable organic matter composition, as the  
428 sample is very fine-grained and heterogeneous (Fig. 9). The peaks of most of the minerals show  
429 broad bands and low intensities, which are characteristic of disordered, poorly crystallized quartz,  
430 carbonates, and feldspar.

431 **Fig. 9.**

432           Out of the oblate structures, the ore contains a matrix, micro-nodules, and dark spots. The  
433 micro-nodules and the matrix consist of cryptomelane, ferrihydrite, minor goethite, rhodochrosite,  
434 and variable organic matter. The analyzed dark spot in the outer part consists of pores,  
435 cryptomelane, ferrihydrite, minor goethite, rhodochrosite, and organic matter.

436           There are no micro-nodules inside the oblate structure. The light part of the matrix inside  
437 the oblate structure contains cryptomelane, ferrihydrite, quartz, minor dolomite, and organic  
438 matter. The dark part comprises dolomite, ferrihydrite, cryptomelane, and organic matter. Inside,  
439 the dark spot consists of ramsdellite, quartz, minor dolomite, and organic matter (SI 11-Table).

440           The oblate, rim structure, separating the outer and inner parts, consists of two phases: (1)  
441 the fine-grained rim built up of ferrihydrite, minor goethite, and organic matter; and (2) the coarse-  
442 grained phase, which is a mixture of cryptomelane, disordered quartz, rhodochrosite, dolomite,  
443 traces of braunite, and variable organic matter. Comparing the outer and inner parts, differences in  
444 mineralogy are reflected in the type of carbonate (rhodochrosite outside and dolomite inside), the  
445 Mn oxides of the dark spots (cryptomelane outside and ramsdellite ( $\gamma$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>) inside), and the  
446 occurrence of quartz in the inner part and rim, and feldspar in the outer part. On the outside of the  
447 oblate structure, the rock contains pores and the typical (micronodule-bearing) microtexture of

448 Mn-2 and 3, whereas inside, the micro-noduliferous textures do not exist, and pores are partially  
449 filled by hollandite.

### 450 **5.3. Raman spectroscopy**

451 Nearly 11,000 spectra were taken for micro-mineralogical and organic matter composition  
452 determinations as well as for the distribution of minerals according to the thin section profiles.  
453 Representative analyzed profiles are shown in Fig. 10 and SI 12-Fig. The mineral distribution was  
454 evaluated visually based on a series of Raman profiles at the 10- $\mu\text{m}$  scale (Fig. 10, SI 12-Fig). The  
455 determined minerals, including FTIR data, are summarized in Table 4. Variable Mn oxides and  
456 hydroxides, Mn oxides-silicates, Mn carbonates, variable Fe oxides hydroxides, Fe silicates, Fe  
457 sulfide, ore minerals, apatite, feldspar (albite and orthoclase), mica (muscovite, chlorite,  
458 celadonite), kaolinite-dickite, barite, carbonates (strontianite, dolomite, ankerite), and quartz occur  
459 in the Mn ore beds. Variable organic material is also an important constituent. Based on low  
460 intensity and broad peaks, the minerals are poorly crystallized and cryptocrystalline. The  
461 representative samples contain a mixture of poorly crystallized mineral phases and organic matter.

#### 462 **Table 4.**

463

#### 464 **5.3.1. Mineral distribution in profiles by Raman spectroscopy**

465 A distribution of minerals is evident in all samples, alternating micro-laminae (a few tens  
466 of  $\mu\text{m}$  thick) along with the kremydilite inner part (Fig. 10, SI 12-Fig). This alternating micro-  
467 lamination refer to mineralized microbial cycles in the sediment pile. The documented distribution  
468 of minerals in the Mn ore beds is the following:

#### 469 *Mn-1 from Figueirinha Mine*

470 - Sample 4B - Hematite (rarely aegirine)/rarely quartz alternation, starting with Mn  
471 (braunite) alternation and random apatite, and K-feldspar.

- 472 - Sample 7 - Aegirine/braunite cycles with randomly occurring apatite, mica, and K-feldspar.  
473 - Sample 10 - Aegirine-hematite/quartz alternation (Fe cycles) and Mn cycles superposed  
474 (braunite, serandite, hausmannite) occur with randomly occurring apatite, barite, feldspar  
475 (albite, K-feldspar), and strontianite.

476 *Mn-1 from São Domingos Mine*

- 477 - Sample 31 - Hematite (rarely kaolinite/dickite)/quartz alternation (Fe cycles), and Mn  
478 cycles superposed (braunite, manjiorite, jacobsite, todorokite, romanèchite).

479 *Mn-2 from Urucum Mine*

- 480 - Sample 75-2 - Only Mn minerals occur, but jacobsite and hollandite contain Fe. Jacobsite  
481 alternate with cryptomelane, ramsdellite, and hollandite. Ramsdellite is the most oxic  
482 phase. In the zone of kremydilite, the micro-lamination turns into random mineral  
483 distribution. Accessory minerals are: romanèchite (psilomelane), manganite, todorokite,  
484 pyrite, and pyrolusite.

- 485 - Sample 75-B5 - Goethite is frequent only in this sample. Representative Mn cycles are  
486 composed of cryptomelane, hollandite, and occasionally, braunite. Micro-lamination is  
487 disordered, and in those zones, random mineral distribution occurs, but locally micro-  
488 lamination is well visible. Accessory minerals are: jacobsite, manganite, ramsdellite,  
489 todorokite, hausmannite, romanèchite, pyrolusite, ferrihydrite, apatite, and mica.

- 490 - Sample 78-D1 - Hematite (Fe cycle) alternate with Mn oxide cycles (cryptomelane-  
491 hollandite) forming double microbial ore forming lamination. Cryptomelane and hollandite  
492 occur together. Hematite and braunite also occur together, but braunite occurs separately,  
493 too. Braunite binds to hematite. Locally, pyrolusite, birnessite, romanèchite, jacobsite,

494 manganese, ramsdellite, hausmannite, serandite, ferrihydrite, goethite, mica, and apatite  
495 occur.

496 *Mn-3 from MCR Mine*

497 - Sample 81 - Hematite alternates with Mn oxide (cryptomelane-hollandite). Accessory  
498 minerals are: todorokite, ramsdellite, jacobsonite, rancieite, pyrolusite, birnessite, braunite,  
499 ferrihydrite, magnetite, and mica.

500 **Fig. 10.**

### 501 **5.3.2. Mineral phase transitions by Raman spectroscopy**

502 Microscale mineral phase transitions offer very important information on syngenetic and  
503 diagenetic formation processes. Mineral compositions of Urucum samples also provide  
504 information on this aspect, which explains the focus on specific mineral transitions.

#### 505 **5.3.2.1. Aegirine**

506 Aegirine is common in Mn-1, occurring as an alternating mineral with braunite. A detailed  
507 study on the phase transition was made for sample 4B (Fig. 11). The microtexture of aegirine  
508 resembles a vermiform network that intrudes into the quartz. The quartz occurs in the undulating  
509 hematite network as a gel-like segregated silica. Aegirine is present at the contact of quartz, and  
510 riebeckite seems to consume aegirine. This relationship shows that aegirine and riebeckite  
511 consume quartz. At the contact of segregated quartz, hollandite/vernadite and apatite occur.  
512 Braunite binds to hematite in the vicinity of quartz.

513

514 **Fig. 11.**

#### 515 **5.3.2.2. Braunite**

516 Braunite also consumes segregated quartz similarly to aegirine, in a vermiform habit, and  
517 is in close contact with the hematite network (Fig. 12) (sample 4B). Segregated quartz also contains  
518 K-feldspar. Hematite occurs as small clusters and contains an undulating network as mineralized  
519 biomats.

520 **Fig. 12.**

521 **5.3.2.3. Cryptomelane**

522 All the spectra taken in the micro-nodules (cell colonies) and matrix material show  
523 dominant vernadite/hollandite-type Mn-oxides-hydroxide composition and a greater or less  
524 amount of cryptomelane and variable organic matter (sample 75-2). The minerals are in a  
525 cryptocrystalline mixture with variable amounts. The textural differences do not correspond to  
526 significant mineralogical differences (Fig. 13, SI 13-Fig). The central part of the micro-nodules  
527 consists of hollandite/vernadite and organic matter, around which cryptomelane, pyrolusite and  
528 ramsdellite occur.

529 **Fig. 13.**

530 **5.3.3. Oblate structures**

531 Detailed Raman measurements were elaborated on a representative oblate structure, used  
532 to compare the mineral composition and distribution inside the oblate structure, in its vicinity, and  
533 in the rim (sample 36-A1, Fig. 14, SI 14-Fig).

534 The dark spots in the outer matrix are mainly pores, except dark porous inner rims with  
535 variable thicknesses, which are composed of a hollandite-type Mn oxide phase (dominant phase),  
536 cryptomelane, and goethite. The matrix among the dark spots is built up by hollandite,  
537 cryptomelane, and goethite.

538 The non-porous rim of the oblate structure mainly consists of hollandite and cryptomelane  
539 in variable amounts. Rarely fine-grained clusters of goethite occur among the hollandite-  
540 cryptomelane flakes.

541 In comparing the mineral phases and distribution in the outer, inner, and rim areas of the  
542 measured oblate structure, we find that they are similar. The matrix of the inner part of the oblate  
543 structure is composed of very fine-grained goethite (ferrihydrite) and small particles of Mn oxides

544 (hollandite and cryptomelane in variable amounts); however, hollandite is dominant in the dark  
545 spots. The mineral composition of the matrix and dark spots show a unified distribution, as any  
546 difference or significant trend in the matrix or in the dark spots was not detected.

547 **Fig. 14.**

#### 548 **5.3.4. Organic matter**

549 The organic matter of Mn-1 ores from Figueirinha (samples 4B, 7, and 10) and São  
550 Domingos (sample 31) area are dominated by two bands near 1320 and 1610  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which are D  
551 and G bands of hydrogenated amorphous carbon (Chen et al. 2007). This ore bed contains also  
552 traces of aromatic hydrocarbons (825  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), and skeletal stretching of C=C and C=O molecules.  
553 Bands of aliphatic hydrocarbons occur at 1000–1280  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (Okolo et al. 2015) (samples 4B, 7, 10,  
554 31), 1300–1390  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  represents  $\text{CH}_3$  (Jehlička et al. 2009), and 1487  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  refer to  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$   
555 vibrational mode (Jehlička et al. 2009) (samples 7, 10). The band at 1518  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  refers to the C=C  
556 stretching in polyenes (sample 31), while 1620–1820  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  show the C=O vibration of oils (Orange  
557 et al. 1996) (sample 4B).

558 The organic matter of ores of Mn-2 (Urucum West Mines) (samples 75-2, 78-D1, and 75-  
559 B5), contain bands of aliphatic hydrocarbons (1104  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ),  $\text{CH}_3$ , and the D and G band of  
560 hydrogenated amorphous carbon based on bands near 1320 and 1610  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The sample 75-2  
561 contains only the D and G band of amorphous hydrocarbon, whereas sample 75-B5 contains the  
562 aromatic hydrocarbon (825  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) bands of  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  vibration (1386, 1469  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), and C=O  
563 vibration of oils (1750–1800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). The sample 78-D1 has bands D and G of hydrogenated  
564 amorphous carbon and traces of  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  vibrational mode of aliphatic hydrocarbon (1345, 1362  
565  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). The sample of the Mn-3 ore bed (MCR Mine, sample 81) contains mostly hydrogenated  
566 amorphous carbon (D and G bands at 1317 and 1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and traces of aliphatic (1000–1200



567  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1469 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and aromatic hydrocarbons ( $825 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Only 60 of 1903 spectra contains organic  
568 material.

569

## 570 **6. DISCUSSION**

### 571 **6.1. Sedimentation age and environments**

572 The presence of long chain oil type in manganese layers with kretydilite indicates that  
573 temperatures were hardly larger than  $90^\circ\text{C}$ , which eliminates the possibility that the Jacadigo  
574 Group' rocks have been metamorphosed. This find makes it likely that the  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  age of the  
575 Mn-1 layer is effectively  $547 \pm 3$  to  $513 \pm 4$  Ma, the ages of braunite and muscovite determined  
576 by Piacentini et al. (2013). This age seems to be reinforced by that determined by Babinsky et al.  
577 (2008), which dated detrital zircons (U – Pb SHRIMP) from a volcanic ash layer intercalated with  
578 carbonate rocks of the Tamengo Formation at  $543 \pm 3$  Ma.

579 Corumbella and stromatolite occurrences and field information published by Biondi and  
580 Lopez (2017) indicate that the Santa Cruz Formation (BIFs) and the manganese layers sedimented  
581 at the same time or after the Bocaina Formation; and that the ages of these rocks are about 550  
582 Ma. The age of this fossil in the ironstones of the Santa Cruz Formations (Jacadigo Group) and  
583 limestones of the Tamengo Formation (Corumbá Group) was estimated at ca. 550 Ma (Germs  
584 1972; Grant 1990; Grotzinger et al. 1990; Hofmann and Mountjoy 2001; Bengtson 2002). Also,  
585 the proposed age of this horizon was 555–542 Ma by ichnofossils, identified by Parry et al. (2017),  
586 in the Bocaina Formation.

587 There is no diagnostic evidence that sedimentation occurred during some glacial period or  
588 during some glaciation, as initially proposed by Urban et al. (1992). The only arguments of these  
589 authors were: (a) the presence of the granite blocks they interpreted as dropstones, without even  
590 observing whether any of these blocks have faceted, friction-sectioned sides, and/or have striated  
591 faces, as is typical of dropstones. These characteristics were never observed in the Urucum  
592 (Trompette et al., 1998; Freitas et al., 2011; Biondi and Lopez, 2017). (b) To consider the Santa  
593 Cruz Formation, with at least 400 m thick BIFs, as similar to the Rapitan Formation, with less than  
594 10 m thick BIFs (Young, 1976). As the Rapitan Formation would be Ediacaran and of glacial  
595 origin (Young, 1976), Urban et al. (1992) inferred that the Santa Cruz would have the same origin;

596 and most subsequent authors adopted this idea. However, keeping in mind that this hypothesis is  
597 traditionally defended by many authors (e.g. Angerer et al., 2016), it should be discussed.

598 The last glacier related to snowball earth, and the sedimentation of Rapitan-denominated  
599 BIFs, was the Marinoan glaciation, which began at about 650 Ma and ended at about 635 Ma.  
600 Considering all the information presented above, the Urucum's BIFs, ironstones and manganese  
601 layers sedimented about 550 Ma ago, 85 Ma after the end of the Marinoan and the snowball  
602 glaciations. The Gaskiers glaciation, which existed for 340,000 years (579.9 to 579.6 Ma), has  
603 occurred about 29 Ma before the end of the Jacadigo Group sedimentation, and could hardly  
604 influence its sedimentation. It remains, therefore, to relate the formation of the Jacadigo Group  
605 with Baykonurian glaciation (547 to 545.5 Ma), so far recognized only in Asia and Africa  
606 (Chumakov, 2009; and Chumakov, 2011; Germs and Gaucher, 2012). We therefore propose to  
607 consider the possibility that the sedimentation of the BIFs and manganese layers of the Santa Cruz  
608 Formation occurred during the Baykonurian glaciation, which would explain the existence of what  
609 is interpreted by Urban et al. (1992), among other authors, as dropstones.

610 We hold the view that Mn-1 was most likely formed during the first inundation of the  
611 ancient graben by the fluvial, oxidative sediments that gave rise to the Urucum Formation. Unit  
612 Mn-1 contains predominantly silty and sandy, ferruginous clastic rocks, cemented by microbially  
613 mediated Fe minerals (e.g., aegirine), and Mn-oxide and silicate (braunite, serandite, and  
614 hollandite). The areas of Figueirinha and São Domingos mines have a larger concentration of  
615 manganese in Mn-1, which are contained in clast-bearing massive ores. The upper Mn-1 layers in  
616 the Figueirinha and São Domingos mines, which include amygdalites, were probably deposited in  
617 the basin depocenter, where the amygdalites formed from hydrodynamic flux. Layers Mn-2 and  
618 Mn-3 formed in "offshore" (= greater depth) environments during periods of tectonic quiescence,  
619 when fine, clastic quartz fragments and other detrital sedimentation ceased.

## 620 **6.2. Mineralogical interpretations**

621 Microtextural evidence in all the studied samples appears as dense features, and the mineral  
622 types and embedded variable organic matter raise the microbially-mediated formation of the ore  
623 beds, which we argue occur as microbialites (MMPT). Two microbial ore forming systems are  
624 proposed as dual systems, characterized by Fe- and Mn-oxidizing metabolic processes (Fe-  
625 oxidizing bacteria (FeOB) and Mn-oxidizing bacteria (MnOB)).

626 Several studies on the genesis and preservation of oil and natural gas have shown that long  
627 chain hydrocarbons are decomposed at temperatures above 90°C (Chilingar et al. 2005, p.138-  
628 142). Preservation in Mn-2 and Mn-3 of aromatic and aliphatic hydrocarbons, C=C stretching in  
629 polyenes, C=O vibration of oils, among others, indicates that temperatures during diagenesis were  
630 low (<90°C) and that syngenetic as well as diagenetic minerals were preserved, as identified by  
631 the Raman and FTIR analyses. Along with hydrocarbons, these analyses identified minerals such  
632 as birnessite and ferrhydrite, which we consider remnants of the original sedimentation, (i.e. they  
633 were not entirely destroyed during diagenesis). Remnants of syngenetic and diagenetic minerals  
634 interpreted as complex systems give a plausible series of processes and environmental formation  
635 conditions during sedimentation and diagenesis (Table 4, Fig. 15, SI 15-Table). The frequency of  
636 the minerals is different: the main minerals, such as cryptomelane, hollandite, hematite, and  
637 braunite, form the ore beds, but the moderate and minor minerals have also genetic importance.  
638 The Mn layers are the result of complex diagenetic processes and formation of diagenetic minerals,  
639 which include the components of the decomposition of cells and extracellular polymeric substance  
640 material (Fe and Mn bacteria, cyanobacteria, and other types; see Ewers 1983; Wignall 1994;  
641 Konhauser 1998; Villalobos et al. 2003; Dupraz and Visscher 2005; Dupraz et al 2009; Chan et al.  
642 2011; Gyollai et al. 2017).

643 Some syngenetic poorly crystallized minerals were preserved, and that serves as a starting  
644 point. For a clear understanding, a short review on the most important mineral assemblages and  
645 primary minerals is needed. Many types of minerals occur, and these can be grouped as follows.

#### 646 **6.2.1. Remnants of syngenetic minerals – Syngenetic Fe- and Mn-rich biomat** 647 **formation**

648 Remnant syngenetic minerals are reported as microbially mediated minerals forming under  
649 obligatory oxic (Mn) and suboxic (Fe) conditions, with neutral and semi-neutral pH. The

650 microbially mediated Mn and Fe oxidation have different oxygen demand, and the diagenetic  
651 zones represent different oxygen conditions. The nomination “suboxic” has a double meaning  
652 which can cause discrepancies. To avoid misunderstanding, definitions are listed in Table 5. In  
653 general,  $Eh > 0$  represent oxic conditions, but the concentration of oxygen can be different, as  
654 shown in Table 5 and Fig. 15, and the microbially mediated processes occur at a given oxygen  
655 content. Diagenetic zonation also separates the oxic, suboxic, and anoxic zones, and the oxidizing  
656 agent is  $O_2$  in the oxic zone,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $MnO_2$ , and  $Fe_2O_3$  in the suboxic zone, and  $SO_4^{2-}$  in the anoxic  
657 zone (Berner 1980; Coleman 1985; Wignall 1994; Polgári et al. 2012ab).

658 **Table 5.**

659 Ferrihydrite and lepidocrocite on the Fe side, and vernadite, todorokite, birnessite, and  
660 manganite on the Mn side, are regarded as syngenetic minerals (Ehrlich 2002). Accordingly, it is  
661 obvious that ore formation started with microbial Fe oxidation. That is why interpretation starts  
662 with a description of the Fe system.

663 **Syngenetic Fe system**

664 Understanding the biochemistry of the biomat formation is a key factor in determining the  
665 type of Fe-rich biomat that may have been involved in the formation of the Urucum Mn layers,  
666 and to define the environmental conditions. There are various types of microbial metabolisms that  
667 can oxidize  $Fe^{2+}$  in nature, which occur under varying states of oxygen-deficient conditions. Three  
668 types of Fe-rich biomats are considered for the Urucum; all are neutrophilic and consistent with  
669 basin conditions (Fig. 15): (1) Microbial neutrophilic, micro-aerobic Fe(II) oxidizing bacteria (pH  
670  $\sim 8$ ;  $Eh +0.3$  V) (Hallbeck and Pedersen 1990; Ehrenreich and Widdel 1994; Konhauser 1998;  
671 Ehrlich 2002) supported by mineral assemblage (ferrihydrite, goethite, hematite, celadonite); (2)  
672 Nitrate-reducing Fe(II) oxidizers in suboxic/anaerobic conditions (lack of filaments; Straub et al.  
673 1996); and (3) Photoferrotroph metabolism in anoxic/anaerobic light-demanding conditions,

674 which is not plausible based on mineral assemblage, which support suboxic-oxic conditions. The  
675 fourth (4) type, strongly acidic, oxic metabolism is also not plausible in the Urucum basin, and  
676 does not fit with the mineral assemblage. However, a further process we have to consider, is the  
677 non-Fe-oxidizing microbes later overgrown by Fe oxides via microbial processes (Konhauser  
678 1998). This cannot be excluded, but the homogenous Fe-precipitation on filamentous forms do not  
679 support this scenario as a principal process.

680         The rhythmic developmental stages via microbial mediation is basic. Free-living Fe(II)  
681 oxidizing bacteria exist in the lag and log phases (Novick 1955; Zwietering et al. 1990), and stalk  
682 formation (Fe-rich biomat-mineralization) occurs during the stationary (abbrev.: stat) phase under  
683 optimal conditions (pH > 6, aerobic, cell number >  $6 \times 10^5$  mL<sup>-1</sup>, low organic C content, 1–3 week  
684 whole microbial population growth period; e.g., *Gallionella*-like freshwater types and  
685 *Mariprofundus*-like marine types) (Hallbeck and Pedersen 1990; Chan et al. 2011; Polgári et al.  
686 2012a).

687         Organic biomarkers were not directly associated with Fe-rich biomat structures. Raman  
688 and FTIR data show organic matter in the biomat lacework but is not diagnostic as to its type.  
689 Based on these data, the diagenesis developed more in rocks represented by sample 75-2, where  
690 only amorphous carbon remained in traces, and other type of organic material was consumed.  
691 Preservation of organic material was best in sample 75-B5, in which organic material occurs in  
692 180 of 2447 spectra, and more complex organic material, like oils and aromatic hydrocarbons,  
693 were detected. Sample 78-D1 (SI 3-Fig) is more altered, because only traces of complex organic  
694 material were preserved, and organic material—mostly D and G bands—occur in only 60 of 3456  
695 spectra. Biomarkers cannot be isolated because of multiphase microbial activity and extensive  
696 diagenetic overprinting.

697         **Fig. 15.**

698 **Syngenetic Mn system**

699 Mn-oxide formation in Mn-1 ore bed can be explained by the oxide surface catalysis model  
700 advocated by Morgan (2005). Metal-oxide surfaces are able to accelerate Mn(II) oxidation by  
701 redox reactions (e.g., hematite, goethite, lepidocrocite, and manganese dioxide; Wilson 1980; Sung  
702 and Morgan 1981; Davies and Morgan 1989). Raman spectroscopy detected vernadite as poorly  
703 crystallized mineral phase in the vicinity of hematite biomat lacework (Fig. 11).

704 In the case of Mn-2 and Mn-3, during the development of the Mn-oxide proto-ore, the first  
705 product of microbial enzymatic Mn(II) oxidation probably was a bio-oxide (e.g., vernadite,  
706 todorokite, birnessite), similar to the experimental studies of Villalobos et al. (2003); Bargar et al.  
707 (2005); and Bodeř et al. (2007). This enzymatic Mn oxidation can be referred to as Cycle I. The  
708 demand of microbial (enzymatic) Mn(II) oxidation is obligatory oxic conditions ( $> 2$  mL/L  
709 dissolved oxygen). This bio-oxide is an X-ray amorphous oxide similar to  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> (vernadite,  
710 todorokite, birnessite; all detected by Raman), which is thought to be a disordered  
711 thermodynamically unstable 7-Å-vernadite (hexagonal phyllomanganate) containing Mn(IV)  
712 vacancy defects, with very small particle sizes ( $< 20$  nm lateral dimensions), and having only two  
713 or three MnO<sub>2</sub> layers stacked along the c-axis (Villalobos et al. 2003). A decrease in the dissolved  
714 Mn(II) appears to act as a reductant for the biogenic oxide and control the stability of secondary  
715 abiotic reaction products (Mn<sup>2+</sup> components in minerals of Urucum support this process). Cation  
716 binding, like Mg, supports phyllomanganate transformation to stable tectomanganate (Bodeř et al.  
717 2007). Experimental studies showed that extracellular polymers from bacteria catalyze the  
718 adsorption of Mg on the surface of the cells (Mandernack et al. 1995). Thus, the bacterial cells not  
719 only directly oxidize Mn(II) to Mn(IV), but also, in the early stages of oxidation, influence the  
720 cation composition of the Mn-oxide mineral being produced. Mineralogical changes similar to  
721 these are likely to be commonplace in natural settings where bacterial oxidation of Mn(II) occurs

722 and may liberate sorbed metal ions or alter the rates of Mn-oxide surface processes, such as the  
723 degradation of organic molecules. It is noteworthy that microbes may exploit such mineral  
724 transformation reactions to indirectly control chemical conditions in the vicinity of the cell  
725 (Mandernack et al. 1995).

726 A series of detailed mineralogy and micro-textures are shown in Fig. 13 (sample 75-2 from  
727 Mn-2 ore bed). The studied part is representative for syngenetic microbial Mn oxidation. The  
728 distribution of vernadite/hollandite and very early diagenetic cryptomelane and nsutite show  
729 micro-nodules with mineralized microbial colonies with embedded organic matter, which appear  
730 to support this scenario. Recent results also comport with the study of Piacentini et al. (2013) who,  
731 based on petrographic evidence, reported that cryptomelane may not be the primary Mn mineral  
732 precipitated in the Neoproterozoic ocean floor.

### 733 **6.2.2. Diagenetic minerals**

#### 734 **Diagenetic Fe system**

735 According to the diagenesis of Fe-rich biomats, the microbes produce poorly ordered  
736 ferrihydrite (lepidocrocite) as a primary mineral, which transforms to more ordered minerals, such  
737 as goethite or hematite (reduced form as magnetite), within a few months or years via dissolution-  
738 dehydration processes, as mentioned before (Konhauser 1998; Schwertmann and Cornell 2007;  
739 Gyollai et al. 2015). The main Fe oxide mineral in the filaments of our samples is hematite, but  
740 Raman analyses indicate that goethite also occurs (sample 75-B5, SI 12-Fig). In Mn-1, aegirine,  
741 and in Mn-2, rare jacobsonite can represent mineralized Fe-biomats. In other rare occurrences, pyrite  
742 also occurs reflecting that locally anoxic conditions existed but did not become dominant. The  
743 fossilized Fe-rich biomats were rapidly and extensively encrusted by minerals, such as dolomite  
744 and silica, similar to what has been reported by Baele et al. (2008). Amorphous silica segregation

745 is derived by either the destruction of organic complexes or the transformation of ferrihydrite  
746 (Baele et al. 2008).

747 Aegirine, occurring in cyclic microlaminae alternating with braunite in Mn-1, is the  
748 diagenetic mineral form of FeOB (Fig. 10). Aegirine forms via early diagenesis from the  
749 syngenetic Fe-oxi-hydroxides (ferrihydrite) and segregated silica, and represents a more stable  
750 mineral phase. Aegirine micro-laminae represent the Fe-oxidizing microbial cycles, and braunite  
751 represents the Mn cycle in silicified and stable form, also reported by Johnson et al. (2016). This  
752 aegirine-braunite microbialite represents oxic/suboxic conditions (Listova, 1961). High-resolution  
753 Raman investigations show that aegirine consumes segregated silica from hematitic biomat toward  
754 the segregated silica via the transitional mineral riebeckite (Fig. 11). Riebeckite is also a common  
755 constituent in BIF with aegirine reported by Savko (2006), who proposed metamorphic formation,  
756 which does not fit with our observations. In Mn-1, aegirine forms a woven network (Fig. 11), the  
757 hematitic proforma of biomat with the segregated silica. At the contact between hematite and silica,  
758 apatite, vernadite/hollandite, and braunite occur. Similar to aegirine, braunite also consumes the  
759 segregated silica. Our results fail to fit with the hydrothermal origin of aegirine proposed for  
760 Paleoproterozoic Hotazel iron-formation, South Africa (Tsikos and Moore 2005); the cyclic  
761 occurrence, worm-like consuming behavior, and also the mineral assemblage contradicts with that  
762 scenario. Comparison with other natural aegirine occurrences, however, such as authigenic  
763 aegirine in the lacustrine Green River Formation of Wyoming, U.S.A. (Fortey and Michie 1978),  
764 shows a close similarity. In short, the reported authigenic formation of aegirine fits well with our  
765 results, but the source of Na instead of volcanic activity was more probably the decomposition of  
766 cell and extracellular polymeric substance organic material.

767 As the depth of the basin is not known, fragments of slightly lithified and re-sedimented  
768 and cemented biomats occur, a shallow marine condition cannot be excluded. In such



769 environments, evaporitic alkaline sodium-rich conditions cannot be ruled out and indeed, are  
770 preferred for aegirine formation. The high silica concentration favors aegirine formation instead  
771 of clay minerals (Decarreau et al. 2004, 2008), which only sporadically occur in the samples  
772 studied here (celadonite, chamosite).

773 Celadonite, a dominant mineral phase in the Mesozoic Úrkút Mn-deposit (Polgári et al.  
774 2012b; 2016ab), is an Fe-mica reflecting suboxic neutral conditions. It is rare in Urucum  
775 presumably because of high silica content.

776 Chamosite formation is favored by seawater solutions at low temperatures with a relatively  
777 reduced pH, a low amount of SiO<sub>2</sub>, high content of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>3+</sup>, and a relatively high amount of  
778 Al and Mg. Aluminum may be donated to the system by organic matter as reported by Maliva et  
779 al. (1999) who showed that the aluminum content is greatly increased by complexation with  
780 organic acids. Low silica concentration in solution is the most important condition for low-  
781 temperature synthesis of clay minerals, as high silica concentration in solution inhibits their  
782 formation (Harder 1976).

### 783 **Diagenetic Mn system**

784 In diagenesis, the stabilization of the syngenetic Mn oxide hydroxides proceeded and pure  
785 forms, such as pyrolusite, ramsdellite, nsutite, hausmannite, manganite, and variable-cation-bound  
786 forms (e.g., Na, K, Ca, Mg, Ba, Fe) such as cryptomelane, jacobsonite, romanèchite, and manjiorite  
787 grew (Giovanoli 1980; Mandernack et al. 1995; Villalobos et al. 2003; Bargar et al. 2005; Bodei  
788 et al. 2007; Johnson et al. 2016). Of note, as described by Polgári et al. (2012b), Maynard (2014),  
789 and Johnson et al. (2016), rhodochrosite can result from the sporadic activity of heterotrophic  
790 microbes during the early stages of diagenesis. Rhodochrosite is, however, only frequent in the  
791 only fully analyzed kremydilite sample shown in Fig. 8. Otherwise, these poorly mineralized  
792 cryptocrystalline mineral phases mix in a variable amount in the microlaminae as a manifestation

793 of mineralized Mn cycles. Similarly, pyrolusite, ramsdellite, and romanèchite indicate Mn  
794 precipitation via diagenesis from low-temperature pore fluids as reported by Rajabzadeh et al.  
795 (2017).

### 796 **6.3. Combined diagenesis of the two ore-forming microbial systems and other** 797 **microbial forms**

798 Harder (1978) noted that "...the silica content of sedimentary iron ores is found in quartz  
799 and different iron-containing clay minerals. Chamosite, greenalite, cronstedtite, nontronite,  
800 glauconite, and thuringite are common minerals in sedimentary iron ores. In general, all these  
801 minerals are extremely fine-grained." We find that the formation of Mn-1 manganese ore in  
802 Urucum influenced and changed this general protocol, despite the observation of quartz, local Fe  
803 mica, and Fe clay. Highly alkaline pore water conditions in diagenesis (accompanied by elevated  
804 Na content) caused aegirine precipitation instead of smectite (Decarreau et al. 2004, 2008). Low  
805 silica content and Si/Fe ratio lead to chamosite formation under reduced pH and Eh conditions.  
806 The high silica content probably influenced silica uptake of variable Mn oxide-hydroxide minerals.  
807 Through stabilization caused by diagenetic processes, the Mn oxide hydroxide bound not only Fe<sup>2+</sup>  
808 and Fe<sup>3+</sup> (e.g., jacobsonite, hollandite minerals), but also silica (braunite, serandite), to form a highly  
809 variable content of oxide-silicate mixed minerals. These are characterized by highly variable  
810 composition. Texturally, mineral habits are strongly modulated (and perhaps templated) by  
811 extracellular polymeric substances that form a network of pore spaces.

812 Braunite alternates with aegirine in Mn-1 and also occurs in Mn-2 representing the  
813 mineralized Mn cycle (Fig. 10). The principal reasons for this viewpoint is that the system acts as  
814 a diagenetic cycle owing to the fact that in Mn-1 an active oxide surface catalyst is likely  
815 responsible for the mineral assemblage, as opposed to enzymatic Mn oxidation. The interpretation  
816 is that braunite formation is due to combined diagenesis, as the segregated silica needed for

817 braunite is typical of Fe system diagenesis. The most likely formation of braunite is sedimentary  
818 or early diagenetic via biogeochemically mediated processes, as proposed by Serdyuchenko (1980)  
819 and Johnson et al. (2016). These studies report scenarios that are broadly similar to our Urucum  
820 samples. Micro-textural evidence (Fig. 11–12) clearly shows the formation of braunite in the  
821 vicinity of hematite biomat, vernadite/hollandite, and apatite, via the consumption of segregated  
822 silica. While syngenetic mineralization took place under oxic neutrophilic conditions, slightly  
823 alkaline and oxic conditions were also reported for braunite formation (pH 9.5–9.9; Eh +0.43 V;  
824 Listova 1961); this comports well with our scenario.

825 Serandite, as an oxide-silicate mineral, also belong to this process (empirical composition  
826 of hollandite also can contain Si). The relationship between serandite and braunite is documented  
827 by our Raman profiles (Fig. 10). Jacobsite can be interpreted as the transitional form between Mn  
828 and Fe oxides.

#### 829 **6.4. Diagenesis of other minerals**

830 After cell death and decomposition, as well as breakdown of extracellular polymeric  
831 substance, ions that were previously bound on their surfaces release Ca, Mg, Na, K, P, S, Si, Co,  
832 Zn, Ba, Sr, and rare earth elements. These are bioactive elements in accordance with Takahashi et  
833 al. (2007), Heim (2010), Meyer et al. (2012), Gyollai et al. (2017), and Yu et al. (2019). Formation  
834 of  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{SiO}_4^{4-}$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  anions commences and a complex transforming mineralization  
835 begins to take place, which (depending on local geochemical conditions) can result in clay mineral  
836 formation, mixed carbonates, feldspar, silica, and apatite. These poorly crystallized minerals can  
837 transform into more stable minerals over time (Konhauser 1998; Dupraz and Visscher 2005). The  
838 various geochemical features of Mn ores are modulated by such syngenetic and diagenetic  
839 processes. These include increased Co content compared with crustal abundance, a characteristic  
840 for Urucum ores as well as the Úrkút locality (Polgári et al. 2012b; Biondi and Lopez 2017).

841 Reaction of FeOB with Co proceeds easily, and MnOB can also oxidize Cobalt (Moffett 1990).  
842 The liberalization of the cell surface-bound elements provides sources of elements e.g., in the case  
843 of K in the formation of hollandite or Si in the case of braunite and other elements (Piacentini et  
844 al. 2013).

845 Abundant quartz is common in Mn-1, which in part is attributable to the contribution of  
846 detrital debris, but also represents the dominant segregated reactive silica phase (Cole and Shaw  
847 1983; Fisk et al. 2006). In laboratory experiments, FeOB requires protection against concentration  
848 and other types of stress, and silica is used for protection by microbes (Młoszewska et al 2018).  
849 The amorphous silica can easily transform into more stable minerals, such as quartz (Herdianita et  
850 al. 2000).

851 In unit Mn-1, a part of the segregated silica is stabilized as quartz, but the formation of  
852 aegirine and braunite also consumed considerable amounts. Through combined diagenesis in Mn-2  
853 and Mn-3, braunite and serandite formed, which consumed (and thus, reduced) the segregated  
854 silica content.

855 Feldspar and kaolinite/dickite also formed, and rarely, cancrinite occurs. Kaolinite minerals  
856 can form under acidic condition (pH 2-7) and within a wide temperature range. In our Urucum  
857 samples, only kaolinite and dickite were detected in this class of minerals. Kaolinite can form at  
858 low temperatures 25 °C (Dekoninck et al. 2018). Dickite typically forms under low pH conditions.  
859 that forms in the temperature range between 120 and 280 °C (Eberl and Hower 1975; Inoue 1995),  
860 and its presence is not supported by our results, which favor low-temperature conditions. On the  
861 other hand, the reported important role of organic matter in the formation of dickite fits with our  
862 results (Maliva et al. 1999). Similar to the Al demand of chamosite mentioned above, the mobility  
863 of aluminum is enhanced by complexation with organic acids. In such systems, aluminum is

864 released and hence available for clay-mineral precipitation when the organo-aluminum complexes  
865 are destabilized (Maliva et al. 1999).

866 Cancrinite is a mixed silicate-carbonate-sulfate transitional mineral, which only  
867 sporadically occurs in Urucum, but nevertheless reflects the variability of diagenetic conditions.  
868 Apatite can precipitate at pH of 7–8 and occurs in micrometer-sized crystals in the silica-rich part  
869 of BIFs. Similar apatite occurrences were noted in our samples, based on Raman and CL analyses.  
870 Muscovite (hydromuscovite) is common in the studied samples and was most likely formed by the  
871 diagenesis of cyanobacteria filaments in Fe-rich microbialites by the leaching of biofilm alkali  
872 elements (Na, K, Al, Mg) (Ewers 1983; Gyollai et al. 2015, 2017).

873 Among carbonates, the occurrence of dolomite (ankerite) in Mn-1 can be considerable, and  
874 strontianite is present but scarce. Barite, gypsum, and johannite belong to the sulfates that form  
875 from marine sulfate and/or organic constituents. Barite, a mineral precipitating under typical oxic  
876 conditions ( $E_h > +0.2$ ) at low temperature, is considered here as oxygen supply indicator, because  
877 barite occurring with hematite indicates conditions that are more oxic than occurring without  
878 hematite (Hanor 2000).

879 Considering the mineral assemblage, it is clear that the initially high segregated silica  
880 content did not support clay formation via early diagenesis, and silica-consuming minerals are  
881 numerous, which finally resulted in a decrease in silica content, which did not support quartz  
882 formation. In Mn-1, the quartz content is considerable compared with Mn-2 and Mn-3, which can  
883 be interpreted by the lower amount of Mn oxyhydroxides in Mn-1. Some quartz is probably of  
884 clastic origin as well as feldspar and mica, but authigenic formation of these minerals is also  
885 common in microbially mediated diagenetic processes, and non-luminescent minerals belong to  
886 this group (Marshall 1998; Hassouta et al. 1999) (Fig. 7).

887           The Mn-2 and Mn-3 beds represent real enzymatic Mn(II) oxidation with extremely high  
888 amounts of Mn oxides and hydroxides, which overwhelm microbial Fe oxidation.

889           Most of the minerals detected here have well characterized formation conditions, as  
890 summarized in Table 4. Based on mineralogy, proto-ore sedimentation and diagenesis occurred  
891 under suboxic-obligatory to oxic and semi-neutral to alkaline conditions.

### 892           **6.5. Formation of kremydilites and oblate structures**

893           Kremydilites occur in varied forms shown in Figures 4A, C, E, G, I and K, which probably  
894 correspond to different stages of development or growth. The presence of oblate structures and  
895 pores inside and outside the kremydilites indicate that they and the sediments in which they formed  
896 were a highly soft, porous, and permeable aqueous mud, within which pore fluids and gases could  
897 form and migrate out (Figs. 4A-B, E-F, G-H and Fig. 16). Gas bubbles are common accompanying  
898 phases of microbial mediation, which are trapped after burial, which is also characteristic of our  
899 Urucum samples (Figs. 4A-B, E-F, and G-H). Different stages of the formation of a kremydilite,  
900 including oblate structures, are shown in Fig. 4. The beginning of the microbial activity inside the  
901 aqueous mud deposited in the marginal basin floor, composed mainly of birnessite, ferrihydrite,  
902 organic matter, and Mn and Fe oxides (Fig. 8). Organic matter becomes oxidized (Fig. 4)  
903 generating CO<sub>2</sub> and/or CH<sub>4</sub> and/or H<sub>2</sub>, which forms intergranular bubbles (Figs. 4A-B, E-F, and  
904 G-H) that migrate towards the surface (Fig. 16B). After the first oxidation stage of organic matter,  
905 a cluster of pores remains, constituting the nucleus zone of the kremydilite structures (Fig. 4A-B  
906 and C-D). The reactivation of microbial oxidation of organic matter generates the first concentric  
907 layer of pores (= shell) around the previously formed nucleus (Fig. 4E-F). The repetition of this  
908 process can generate multiple concentric layers of pores (shells) (Fig. 4G-H), and evolve to form  
909 a complex kremydilite (Fig 4 I-J) with many layers, marked by the accumulation of pores  
910 concentrically organized around the nucleus, as in the kremydilite sample 48 (Figs. 4K and 8A-

911 B). The reactivation process of microbial oxidation can cease at any time, forming kretydilites  
912 with one or two concentric layers around the nucleus or repeating at different times, forming  
913 complex structures with multiple concentric layers (Figs. 4I-J and K). The oblate structures, now  
914 preserved in the Urucum ores, did not reach the basin floor and were preserved during diagenesis.  
915 The cryptomelane needle mesh structure, the prismatic cryptomelane crystallites, and the micro-  
916 nodules were microbialites or organominerals (Dupraz et al. 2009), and the cylindrical holes are  
917 likely tube escape structures through which gas bubbles migrated from the zone of microbial  
918 activity (organic matter oxidation).

919         The mineralogy of the kretydilite from sample 48 (Fig. 8C-E) seems to reflect the changes  
920 caused by the diagenesis of the original sediment while it was buried (Fig. 16), as defined by  
921 Raiswell (1987). Burial initiated the diagenesis and ore formation (Figs. 8C-D and 16B)  
922 simultaneously with successive cycles of heterotrophic microbial activity, which formed the  
923 kretydilite concentric layers of cryptomelane, birnessite, ferrihydrite, rhodochrosite crystallized  
924 in the nucleus zone, braunite, rhodochrosite, cryptomelane crystallized in the bottom part, and  
925 ferrihydrite and cryptomelane in the upper part (Figs. 8C-D, and Fig. 16B). The complete oxidation  
926 of the layer and of all the kretydilites contained therein, forming the massive Mn-2 and 3 ore  
927 type, is a process that began during early diagenesis and was extended after lithification through  
928 microbial mediation. The origin of the oblate form of kretydilites, with concentric layers around  
929 a nucleus, is a consequence only of the oxidation of the organic matter (biomass) during diagenesis  
930 and the subsequent formation of pores. This process is independent of the chemical and/or mineral  
931 composition of the original sediment (but Mn reduction occurs). The original and present chemical  
932 and mineral composition of kretydilites arises from: (a) the abundant sedimentation of Mn  
933 oxyhydroxides via enzymatic oxidation and, to a lesser extent, of Fe oxyhydroxides and (b) the  
934 changes caused by diagenesis, which transforms the sediment into different minerals, as

935 manganese (Fe-)-rich biomass becomes manganese-rich sediment, then Mn(Fe)-rich sedimentary  
936 rock. This is the origin of an economical Mn ore deposit. The absence of iron kremydilites in the  
937 jaspilites, similar to the Mn ore beds, shows that the formation of kremydilites was a unique  
938 process that only occurred in the Mn-rich sediments, forming a new type of manganese ore.

939 **Fig. 16.**

940 It was previously proposed that kremydilite formed by photoferrotroph microbial processes  
941 (photosynthetic) under anoxic conditions (Biondi and Lopez 2017), which is not in accordance  
942 with the interpretation of recent results on the mineral assemblage. Our new interpretation is that  
943 these formed in suboxic-oxic conditions and slightly alkaline pH. To reach a plausible  
944 interpretation, as a first step, it is important to determine the formation processes of kremydilite.  
945 The mineral assemblage of the studied sample supports an early diagenetic origin, rather than  
946 syngensis (Fig. 8). The kremydilite structure resembles both nodules and concretions; thus, to  
947 compare these structures, definitions are necessary. Nodules and concretions are very similar, and  
948 sometimes, these terms are used interchangeably. However, while concretions incorporate material  
949 of the host sediment, nodules contain solely authigenic phases (Raiswell and Fisher 2000; Jackson  
950 2005; Baumann et al. 2016; and references therein). In our case, there are only authigenic minerals  
951 based on mineral assemblage in kremydilite and in oblate structures. Consequently, based on  
952 definition, these cannot be concretions but instead are most probably better termed nodules. The  
953 definition of a nodule is also contradictory in our case, however, as in sedimentology and geology  
954 terminology a nodule is usually defined as a small, irregularly rounded knot, mass, or lump of a  
955 mineral or mineral aggregate that typically has a contrasting composition from the enclosing  
956 sediment or sedimentary rock (Jackson 2005). This is not the case in Urucum. In general, the  
957 objects we dub “nodules” lack any internal structure except for the preserved remnants of original  
958 bedding or fossils, which is also not the case here, as kremydilite is a concentric structure



959 (structured pore system forming “pore shells” without cement infilling, which is also a difference).  
960 A further aspect is mineralogy, which differs from the typical ones occurring in nodules and  
961 concretions including most commonly calcite, siderite, chert, apatite (phosphorite), anhydrite, and  
962 pyrite. In Urucum, kremydilite occurs as high-quality Mn oxide ore.

963 Hence, based on the above definitions and features, kremydilite could be considered as a  
964 unique concretion-like structure, which lacks the background sediment, and the accumulated  
965 sediment is the result of successive phases of oxidation of organic matter (Fig. 4) during diagenesis  
966 (Fig. 8). Authigenic mineral formation occurs during syngensis and early diagenesis. In this sense,  
967 kremydilite, the most characteristic structure in Mn-2 and Mn-3 ore beds, can be interpreted as a  
968 unique type of syngenetic and diagenetic structure and represent a unique type of ore (also taking  
969 into consideration Maynard (2010) and Kuleshov (2011), on ore types). This interpretation is  
970 further in accordance with the main features of kremydilites, like variable-preserved porous  
971 content, signs of gas production and migration, concentric structures, and the multiple stages of  
972 development. Then again, differences, such as lack of cementation and incorporation of material  
973 of the host sediment, are consequential. All things considered, this is a rare ore-type, as reported  
974 by Biondi and Lopez (2017).

975 Yet, how did these kremydilite structures form *en masse*? The interpretation that we favor  
976 is that heterotrophic cell colonies randomly activated in the microbialite sediment after burial in  
977 suboxic neutral/alkaline conditions, side-by-side with lithification and stabilization of minerals  
978 (Mn reduction (MnR) and reactive organic matter decomposition via heterotrophic microbial  
979 mediation can be referred to as Cycle II). Rhodochrosite is a common (dominant) component in  
980 the kremydilite structure in the core zone and also in the shells, from the core to the margin (Fig.  
981 8). The process probably continues only along the poorly crystallized reactive vernadite and  
982 todorokite. Cryptomelane and braunite are more stable. They do not take part in the process, nor

983 does ferrihydrite, as the system does not reach the Fe reduction zone (FeR) because of the high  
984 Mn concentration and relatively low organic matter content.

985         Why is Urucum (Neoproterozoic, Brazil) concretionary and not laminated like in Úrkút  
986 (Mesozoic, Hungary)? Much less organic matter was buried, and this fact did not lead to the  
987 formation of a horizontally continuous MnR zone realizing rhodochrosite laminae. Instead, local  
988 heterotrophic cell colony centers caused the formation of kremydilite in the biomat system,  
989 overprinting the syngenetic lamination, causing a nodular, concretionary appearance. The  
990 kremydilites are most probably diagenetic and not syngenetic, as rhodochrosite is diagenetic, as  
991 referred to in Polgári et al. (2012b), Maynard (2014), and Johnson et al. (2016).

992         Both FTIR and RAMAN analyses show that substances inside and outside the oblate  
993 structures evolved in different ways. This is exemplified by the presence of pores in each  
994 kremydilite shell, the absence of pores inside the bubbles, and the absence of micro-nodules inside  
995 the oblate structures. At the contact zone of the “more” oxic outer part and “suboxic” inner part,  
996 spherical enrichment of cryptomelane occurred, forming a dense margin (rim). The micro-texture  
997 of this rim (and also the outer and inner part) is microbial and contain “diffusional channels” (SI  
998 11-Fig).

## 999 **6.6. Basin development**

1000         As mentioned, unit Mn-1 follows the basin floor relief, while Mn-2 and Mn-3 occur as  
1001 horizontal beds in the ironstone. This can be viewed as a special series produced by syngenetic  
1002 processes via authigenic mineral accumulation, summarized according to chronology of  
1003 syngenetic and diagenetic processes in Fig. 17. The ore formation commenced with flooding on  
1004 porous fluvial sediments, and the ore forming fluids ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ) infiltrated and microbially  
1005 colonized the pores in a woven form, and around the clastic particles in the sediment to the depth  
1006 where diffusion was active (supported by microbially mediated micro-texture, which is

1007 syngenetic). Initially, biomass, composed of Mn and Fe hydroxides, organic matter, manganooan  
1008 and ferroan carbonate and amorphous silica, deposited on the basin floor. In the extracellular  
1009 polymeric substance network, diagenetic minerals along with clastic material dominated (based on  
1010 CL). The ore formation started with enzymatic Fe oxidation, as the Raman profiles of Mn-1  
1011 samples prove, resulting in a well-developed biomat system. This offered oxide surface catalysis  
1012 for Mn oxidation, which was not enzymatic during Mn-1 because the level of oxygen supply did  
1013 not reach the obligatory oxic level (Morgan 2005). The dynamic processes affected the top zone  
1014 of sediments up to the diffusion depth, which moved upward in time, forming the Mn-1 ore bed.

1015         The effect of fluvial contribution decreased via marine flooding, and the clastic  
1016 contribution ceased gradually, offering excellent calm conditions for undisturbed Fe- and Mn-  
1017 biomat formation, resulting in fine cyclic mineral lamination (mineralized biomats, microbialite)  
1018 (Fig. 10, SI 12-Fig). The FeOB continued forming ironstone (Biondi and Lopez 2017), under  
1019 suboxic conditions, in which oxygen supply was not favorable for MnOB.

1020         Enzymatic Mn oxidation starting as chemical nutrients ( $Mn^{2+}$ ) were in the system, and the  
1021 Mn-2 and later Mn-3 layers suddenly occurred in the Fe sediments. This made conditions more  
1022 oxic and obligatory oxic. The sudden change is caused simply by the turning of oxygen supply  
1023 from suboxic (dissolved oxygen-DO 0.2-2.0 mL/L) to obligatory oxic (DO > 2.0 mL/L) conditions,  
1024 which is the *criterion* of enzymatic Mn(II) oxidation. In the background of formation of Mn-2 and  
1025 Mn-3, the microbial Fe oxidation continued, as supported by the well detectable micro-lamination  
1026 (cyclicality) of microminerals. The sharp contact in the field representing that horizon where Fe is  
1027 forced back to local suboxic parts. The  $Fe^{2+}$  ascending fluid does not reach the obligatory oxic  
1028 zone as a dominant contribution, because microbes oxidize it in the suboxic zone (Fig. 15). The  
1029 Raman profiles clearly show that the Fe biomat system existed via all Mn ore beds, but with  
1030 different intensity. Fe and Mn occurred together in an intimate form similar to Úrkút (Polgári et

1031 al. 2012b). A similar sharp boundary (contact zone) occurs between gray (black) shale and Mn  
1032 carbonate ore in Úrkút, which is also the result of change in the oxygen supply becoming  
1033 obligatory oxic. This was a sensitive redox system for enzymatic Mn oxidation (Polgári et al.  
1034 2016a).

1035 Summarizing the ore formation, Fig. 17 shows our model for the process that generated the  
1036 massive manganese ore with kremydilites, found in the Mn-2 and Mn-3 layers of Urucum. After  
1037 the formation of the ferrihydrite, birnessite, organic matter, and rhodochrosite mud-like biomass  
1038 (Fig. 17A), the microbial reduction generates micro-nodules with the minerals of the original  
1039 sediment in the nucleus involved by ferrihydrite (Fig. 17B), then by rhodochrosite and braunite.  
1040 Late diagenetic and post-diagenetic oxidation generates Mn-2 and Mn-3 ore layers, composed of  
1041 massive and/or zoned, concentric, spherical nodules, and/or zoned nodules with an eye shape (Fig.  
1042 17C). The formation of kremydilites begins simultaneously or immediately after the formation of  
1043 micro-nodules, in places where a cluster of microbes begins to oxidize organic matter, generating  
1044 pores and producing methane, CO<sub>2</sub>, and/or H<sub>2</sub> bubbles. This activity forms a small structure with  
1045 a homogeneous and porous nucleus bound by a porous layer, which may involve the nucleus totally  
1046 or partially, formed at the edge of the zone of microbial activity. The resumption of microbial  
1047 activity around the same nucleus will cause greater oxidation where a greater amount of non-  
1048 oxidized organic matter is available, generally near and on the outside of the last formed layer.

1049 **Fig. 17.**

1050 Late and post-diagenetic processes cause complete oxidation of the micro-nodules and  
1051 kremydilites (Fig. 17D). Raman analyses of spherical nodules of sample 75-B2 show that central  
1052 parts of micro-nodules were transformed to hollandite/vernadite and organic matter, around which  
1053 cryptomelane and nsutite (pyrolusite and ramsdellite) crystallize (Fig. 17F). The minerals of the  
1054 kremydilites are entirely oxidized during post-diagenetic conditions and transformed mainly into

1055 cryptomelane, hollandite, braunite, with little organic matter, hematite and goethite, generating the  
1056 massive manganese ore of the Urucum and Mn-2 and Mn-3 layers (Fig. 17G). From time to time,  
1057 coarse detrital influx disturbed the calm formation of microbial mats, resulting in turbiditic  
1058 accumulation. It has been proposed that these turbidites were caused by earthquakes from rifting  
1059 activity (Biondi and Lopez 2017). The most probable source of ore was hydrothermal, exhalative  
1060 in submarine environment (Biondi and Lopez 2017 and references therein).

1061

## 1062 **7. CONCLUSIONS**

1063 High-resolution Raman and AT-FTIR spectroscopy used on Mn ore samples of Mn-1, Mn-2, and  
1064 Mn-3 ore beds in the ca. 550 Ma Urucum deposit yields information used to construct a self-  
1065 consistent model for the formation of these ores. This approach was used to document numerous  
1066 metastable, poorly crystallized mineral phases and organic matter that represent the remnants of  
1067 primary microbially mediated Mn and Fe minerals.

1068 1. Based on mineralogy, the proto-ore sedimentation and the diagenesis of the Urucum Mn  
1069 ore deposit occurred under suboxic-obligatory oxic and semi-neutral to alkaline conditions, where  
1070 microbial  $Mn^{2+}$  enzymatic oxidation (with reactive organic matter) resulted in fine-grained  
1071 accumulation of Mn oxides (Cycle I).

1072 2. The sharp contact between the manganese and iron layers represents that horizon, where  
1073 the obligatory oxic conditions facilitated the start of enzymatic Mn oxidation (Mn engine), which  
1074 overwhelmed microbial Fe oxidation. The Fe biomat system existed via all Mn ore beds, but with  
1075 different intensity. Fe and Mn occurred together in an intimate form.

1076 3. Heterotrophic microbially mediated Mn reduction (Cycle II) developed only locally  
1077 embedded in the form of oxide kremydilite structure, which represents a unique, new ore type.  
1078 Among the kremydilite structures, regular double-microbial mineralogical cycles formed with

1079 alternating mineralized Fe- and Mn-oxidizing bacterial activity (microbialite). Detailed study  
1080 raised that kremydilite and oblate structures formed on the effect of heterotrophic cell colonies,  
1081 whose activity overprinted the original lamination. The Mn reduction resulted in rhodochrosite  
1082 (Cycle II) a characteristic constituent in these structures. The reason that rhodochrosite formation  
1083 did not become dominant in the form of laminae is the smaller amount of organic matter  
1084 accumulation, which allowed for Mn reduction via diagenesis only in random centers, resulting in  
1085 diagenetic kremydilite. That is why oxic-suboxic mineral stabilization and diagenetic mineral  
1086 formation became dominant.

1087           4. Mn-1 follows the basin floor relief, whereas Mn-2 and Mn-3 occur as horizontal beds in  
1088 the ironstone pile. The ore formation started with flooding on porous fluvial sediments, and the  
1089 ore forming fluids ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ) infiltrated and microbially colonized the pores in a woven form,  
1090 and around the clastic particles on chemical ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ) nutrients, in the sediment to the depth  
1091 where diffusion was active. In the extracellular polymeric substance network, diagenetic minerals  
1092 along with clastic material became dominant.

1093           5. The Fe-oxidizing bacteria continued forming ironstone, under suboxic conditions, in  
1094 which oxygen supply was not favorable for Mn-oxidizing bacteria.

1095           6. From time to time, coarse detrital influx disturbed the calm biomat formation, resulting  
1096 in clast accumulation, which interrupted the fine microbial lamination. These turbidites may have  
1097 been caused by earthquakes (due to rifting activity).

1098

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1408

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1415 handling by Wilson Teixeira and Eric Tohver are appreciated.

1416

## 1417 **FIGURE CAPTION**

1418

1419 Fig. 1. (A) Map showing the positions of manganese layers Mn-1 to Mn-3 and the mines of the  
1420 central Urucum region (modified after Urban et al. 1992, Biondi and Lopez 2017) and, (B)  
1421 S – S' regional geological section. The thicknesses of layers Mn-1 to Mn-3 are exaggerated  
1422 by a factor of approximately ten. UTM coordinates referenced to Datum WGS 84.

1423 Fig. 2. Stratigraphic columns made in the region of manganese and iron mines of Urucum, and  
1424 sample locations. Note that the Mn-1 layer is not flat, and its shape is adapted to the basin  
1425 floor while Mn-2 and Mn-3 are plane-parallel (modified after Urban et al. 1992, Biondi  
1426 and Lopez 2017).

1427 Fig. 3. Representative samples of Mn-1 (A-C), Mn-2, and Mn-3 (D-F). (A) Sample of silt, massive  
1428 Mn-1 (fragments of quartz, altered feldspar, apatite, chert). (B) Clast-bearing, massive-,  
1429 arkosean-, Fe-rich sample from Lower Mn-1. (C) Oblate amygdalite-bearing massive, fine-  
1430 grained manganese ore, with arkosean Fe-rich bands. (D-F) Kremydilite in its most  
1431 developed form after diagenesis, sawed according to orthogonal planes, showing its oblate  
1432 form. (D) Kremydilite sawn according to orthogonal planes, showing its oblate form. (E)  
1433 The concentric organization of the several layers that constitute complex kremydilite, each  
1434 concentric layer with limits marked by pores. (F) Schematic drawing of a cut kremydilite,  
1435 illustrating its shape and its interior. For more representative samples see SI-3-Fig.

- 1436 Fig. 4. Different stages of development or growth of kremydilites. The text in the figure explains  
 1437 each stage. Bubbles: oblate structures. (A-I): photos of polished surfaces, (K)  
 1438 photomicrograph.
- 1439 Fig. 5. Photomicrographs (reflected light) of the micro-nodules that constitute the massive parts of  
 1440 the Mn-2 and Mn-3 ore beds. (A-B) The larger nodules, less than 0.8 mm (3A) at present  
 1441 are formed mainly by cryptomelane and hollandite, and the matrix is hematite (Biondi and  
 1442 Lopez 2017). (C-D) Most micro-nodules are zoned, with a dark, porous nucleus. A, C, D  
 1443 photos are photomicrographs made by optical rock microscope, reflective mode, (B) is  
 1444 back scattered electron image by EPMA.
- 1445 Fig. 6. Micro-textural features of samples (photomicrographs). Mineralized microbial  
 1446 biosignatures. (A) biomat (arrow, sample 36-A); (B) elastic particles (arrow, reflected light  
 1447 1 N, sample 4B); (C) mineralized microbial biosignatures (arrows, reflected light 1 N,  
 1448 sample 75-2, rectangle shows enlarged area); (D) mineralized microbial biosignatures  
 1449 (arrows, reflected light 1 N, sample 75-2, enlarged area on C); (E) mineralized microbial  
 1450 biosignatures (arrows, 1N, transmitted light, sample 7); (F) mineralized microbial  
 1451 biosignatures (arrows, reflected light 1 N, sample 10); (G, H) mineralized microbial  
 1452 biosignatures (arrows, 1N, transmitted light, samples 32 and 36-A1). On (G) putative  
 1453 cyanobacteria are shown by arrow (based on similarity published by Gyollai et al., 2015  
 1454 on Namibian Neoproterozoic sample).
- 1455 Fig. 7. Mineralogy observed under cathodoluminescence microscopy. (A, B) Typical CL image of  
 1456 Mn-1 samples. Bright blue luminescence is characteristic of kaolinite group-dickite  
 1457 (supported by Raman spectroscopy, Götze et al. 2002); bright yellow minerals are apatite  
 1458 grains; the fine-grained rhodochrosite (mixed carbonate) show dull reddish (orange)  
 1459 luminescence color. (C, E, G) transmitted light photos by 1N, crossed N, and CL images  
 1460 of the same area of sample 7. (D, F, H) transmitted light photos by 1N, crossed N, and CL  
 1461 images of the same area of sample 10. Circles show the clastic-like but non-luminescent  
 1462 mineral grains.
- 1463 Fig. 8. Results of the FTIR analyses of the kremydilite sample 48-B and interpretation of the  
 1464 results. (A-B) Image of sample (A), its concentric shells (layers) and location of the  
 1465 analyzed points (B). (C) Simplified proposed syngenetic minerals that build up each layer.  
 1466 (D) Interpretation of early diagenetic minerals detected by FTIR. Abbrev.: fehy-

1467 ferrihydrite; Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-Mn oxide and hydroxide; manji-manjiorite; todor-todorokite; cryp-  
1468 cryptomelane; birn-birnessite; qz-quartz; rhod-rhodochrosite; Mndol-Mn-bearing  
1469 dolomite; brau-braunite; goeth-goethite; spherical micro-nodules border: fluffy  
1470 micronoduliferous host material.

1471 Fig. 9. Representative part of oblate structure, sample 36-A (A-B) and mineral distribution  
1472 (FTIR)(C). (A-B) Microtexture of a part of oblate structure, OM, reflective mode (1 and  
1473 xN), arrows show mineralized microbial signatures and diffusion channels. Abbrev: Ferri-  
1474 ferrihydrite; Goe-goethite; Rhod-rhodochrosite; Cryp-cryptomelane; C org-organic matter;  
1475 Q-quartz; Dol-dolomite; Brau-braunite; Ramsd-ramsdellite; Mx-matrix material; inhom-  
1476 inhomogenous, italic-the component is poorly crystallized, minor.

1477 Fig. 10. Raman profiles. Representative alternating (cyclic) mineral micro-lamination in sample 7  
1478 (Mn-1) (for detailed section see SI 12-Fig).

1479 Fig. 11. Distribution of minerals in sample 4B (A-B) by Raman spectroscopy. Aegirine, riebeckite,  
1480 braunite, quartz, hematite, apatite, hollandite/vernadite identified by Raman (A-B). Mineral  
1481 abbreviations are after Whitney and Evans (2010) except bra = braunite, ver = vernadite,  
1482 hol = hollandite.

1483 Fig. 12. Distribution of minerals in sample 4B (A-B) by Raman spectroscopy. Braunite, hematite,  
1484 apatite, quartz, and K-feldspar were identified by Raman (A-B). Mineral abbreviations are  
1485 after Whitney and Evans (2010); except bra = braunite.

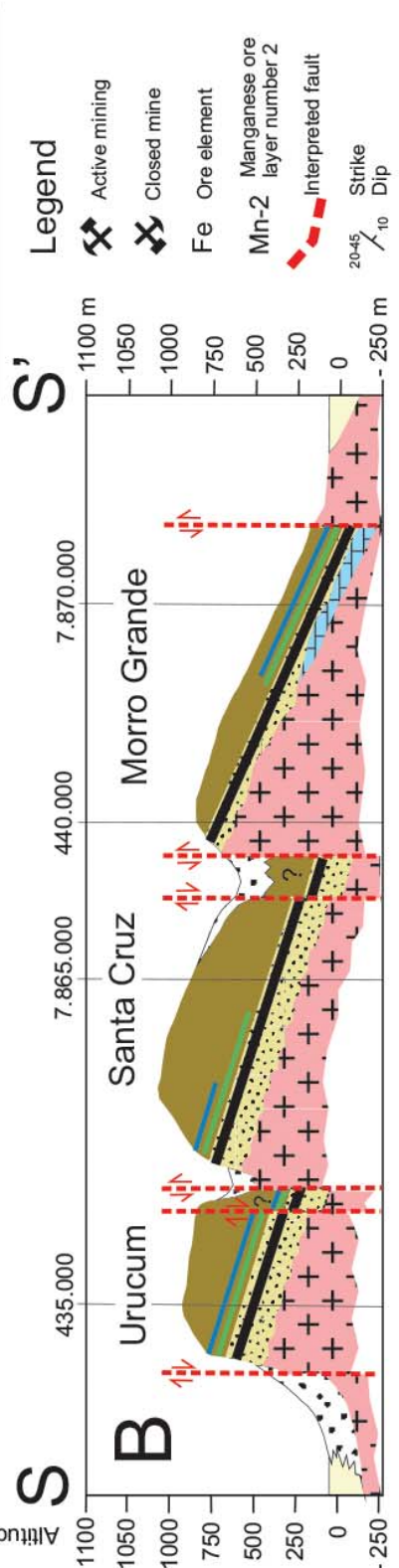
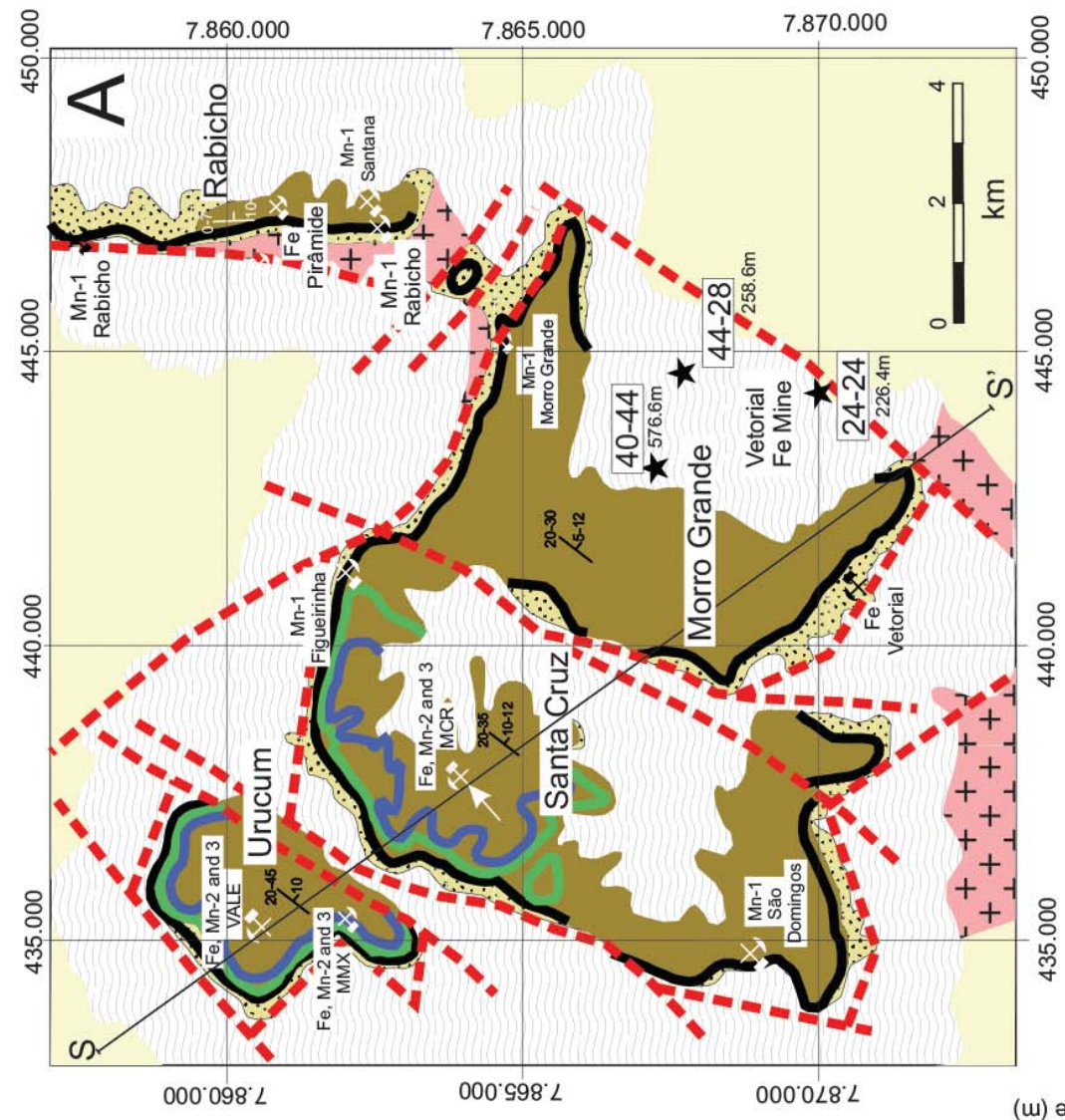
1486 Fig. 13. Distribution of minerals in sample 75-2 by Raman spectroscopy. Cryptomelane,  
1487 hollandite/vernadite and nsutite (pyrolusite+ramsdellite) were identified in a micronodule,  
1488 as shown in Fig. 5C-D.

1489 Fig. 14. Composite map from the investigated oblate structure sample 36-A by Raman  
1490 spectroscopy—measured areas are indicated on the picture (those places which are detailed  
1491 in SI 14-Fig are in yellow color). Abbrev.: M-matrix area, 001 line-rim area.

1492 Fig. 15. Physico-chemical vs bacterial Fe and Mn oxidation (modified after Garrels and  
1493 MacKenzie 1971; Maynard 1983). Eh in Volt. Concerning NR, FeR, MnR, and SR see  
1494 Table 5 and note that “suboxic” zone is used for these diagenetic zones in the sense of an  
1495 oxidant agent. Sharp-turning contact between Fe and Mn mineralization as transformation  
1496 to obligatory oxic conditions is estimated at Eh = 0.4 V (DO > 2mL/L).

1497 Fig. 16. Kremydilite formation environment on the floor of the Urucum basin. (A) General  
1498 environment schematically showing the formation of a layer such as Mn-2 or Mn-3. (B)  
1499 Detail of "mud" or silica-clayey biomass sedimented on the basin floor (left side), showing  
1500 the evolutionary stages that occur from sedimentation to late diagenesis (right side).  
1501 Fig. 17. Cartoon showing the processes of formation of the micro-nodules, oblate structures,  
1502 kremydilites, and the massive manganese ore of the Mn-2 and Mn-3 layers of Urucum.  
1503 Abbrev.: CM-organic matter. Read text for details.  
1504

Lithostratigraphy	
Pleistocene	Alluvium Sand, silt and clays
PANTANAL FORMATION	Colluvium Sand and BIF boulders. Weathered BIF boulders are or were mined at all mines
	Neoproterozoic/Cambrian
SANTA CRUZ FORMATION (60-470 m thickness)	Banded iron formations (BIF), grain ironstones, ferruginous sandstones, arkoses and conglomerates. Mn-2 (0-3.5 m) and Mn-3 (0-1.8 m thickness) ones are massive
URUCUM - BOCAINA FORMATION (0-110 m thick)	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-right: 5px;">Mn-3 30-40 m</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-right: 5px;">Mn-2 60-80 m</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-right: 5px;">Mn-1</div> <div style="margin-left: 10px;">Corumbella</div> </div> Sandstones, siltstones and conglomerates with iron and manganese cement at the upper half. Dolomite marbles and carbonate sedimentary breccias



- Legend**
- Active mining
  - Closed mine
  - Fe Ore element
  - Mn-2 Manganese ore layer number 2
  - Interpreted fault
  - Strike
  - Dip

Figure 1.

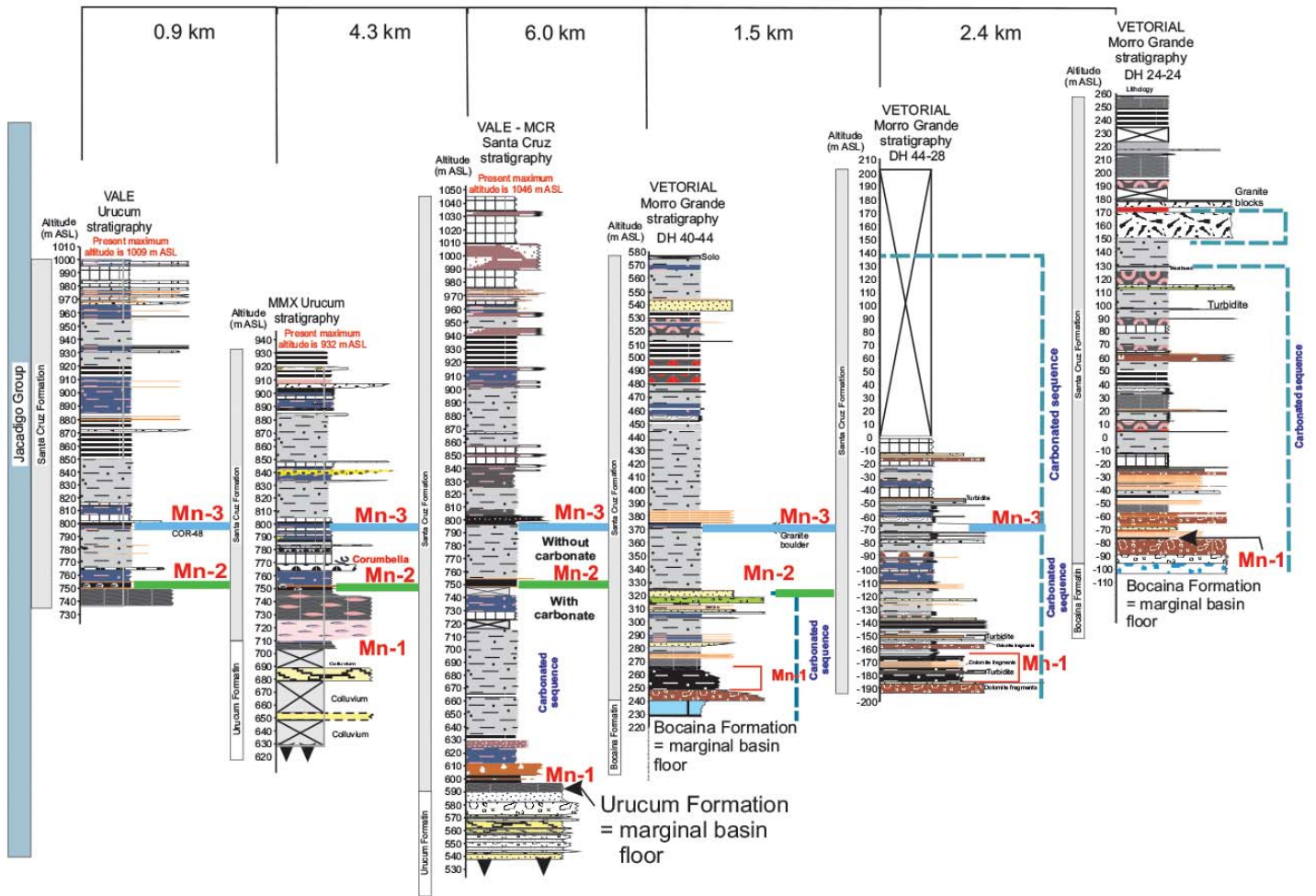


Figure 2.

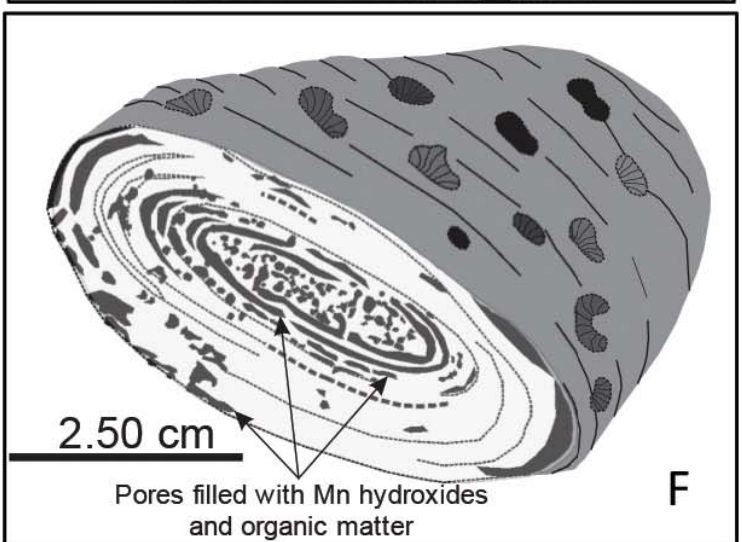
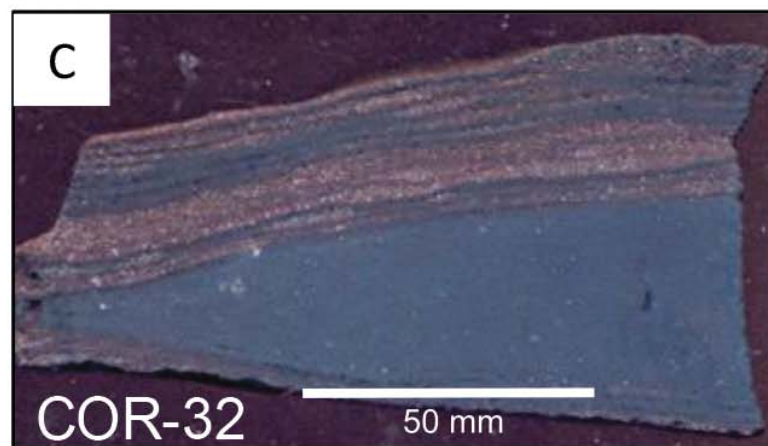
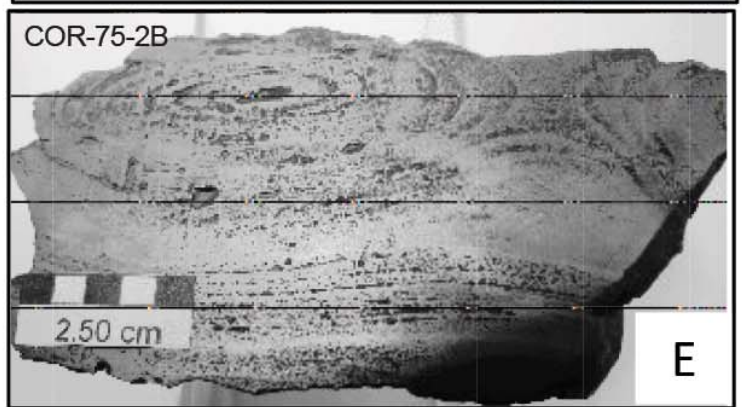
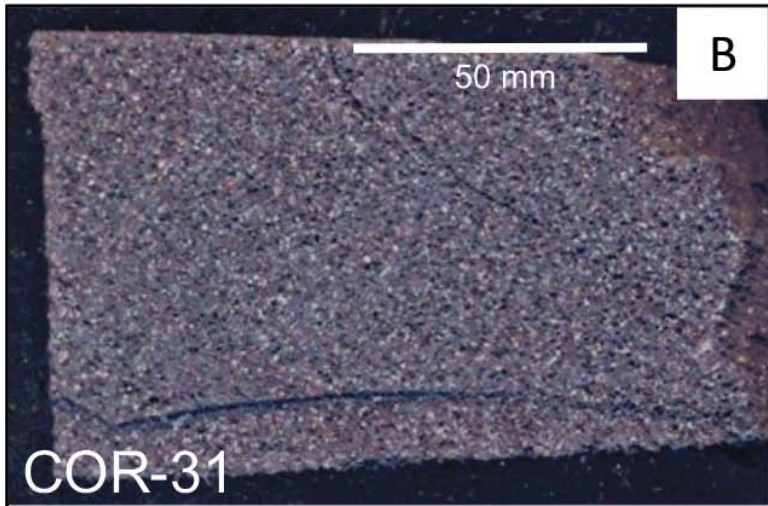


Figure 3.

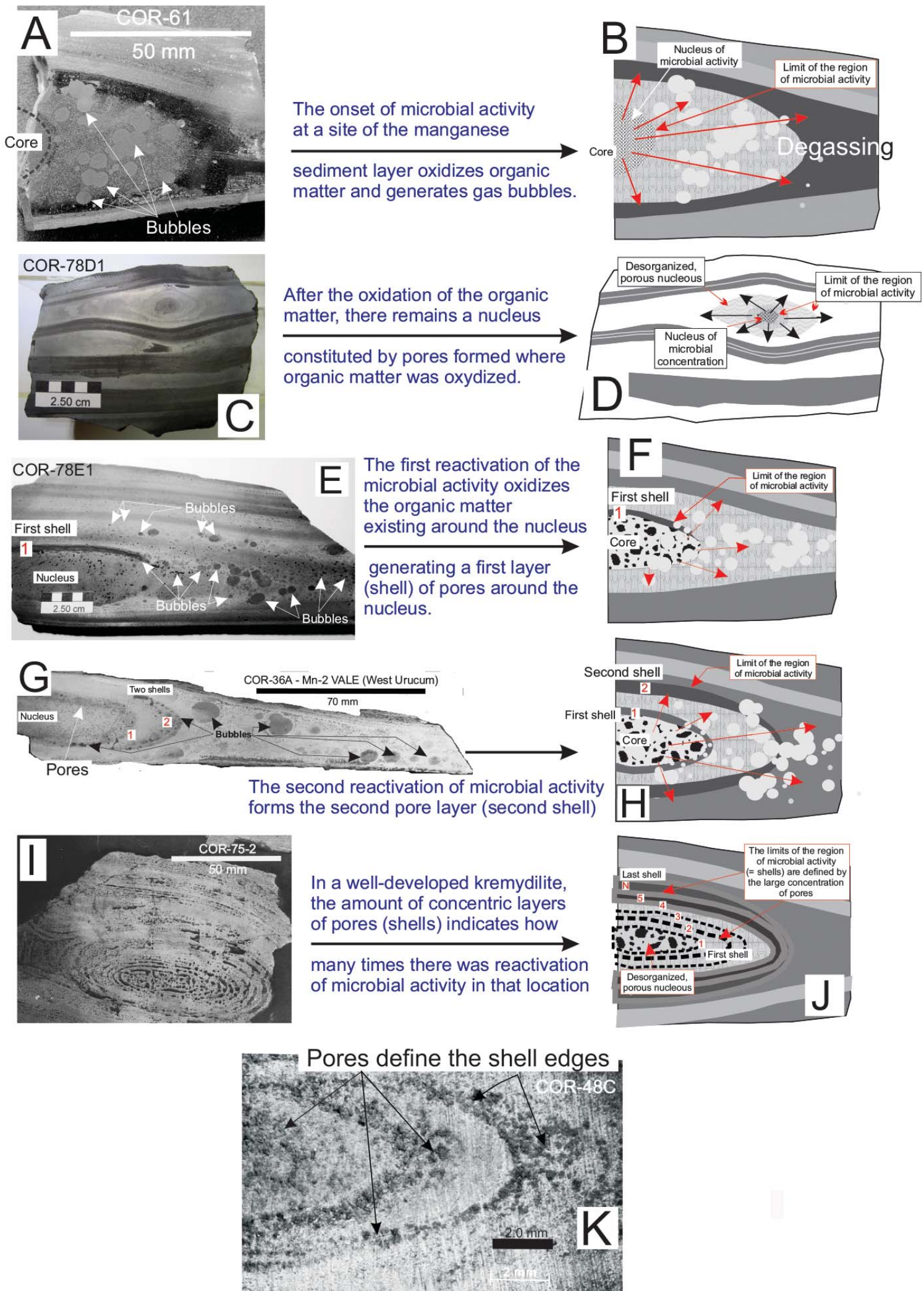


Figure 4.



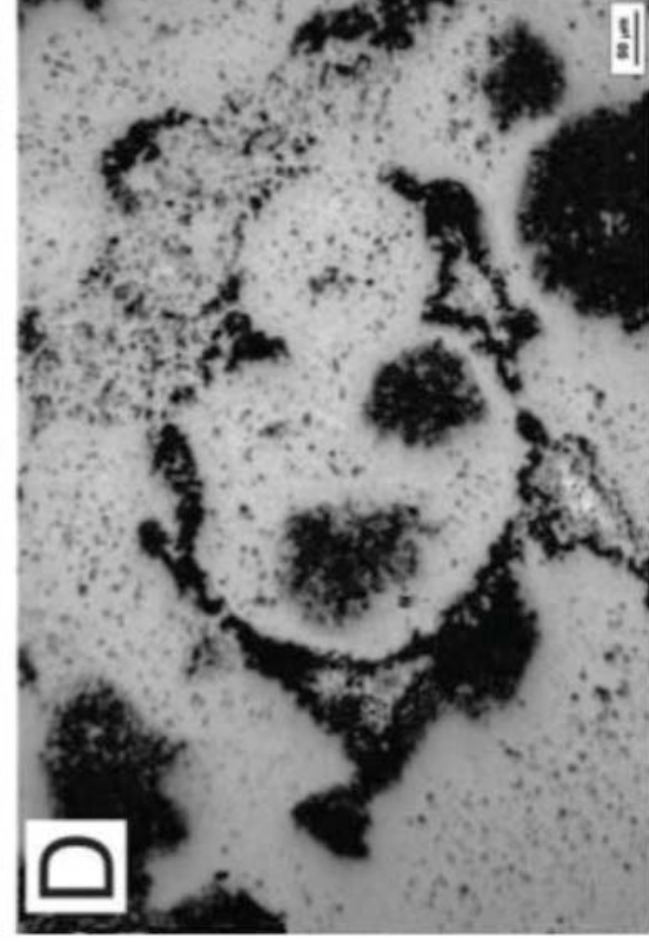
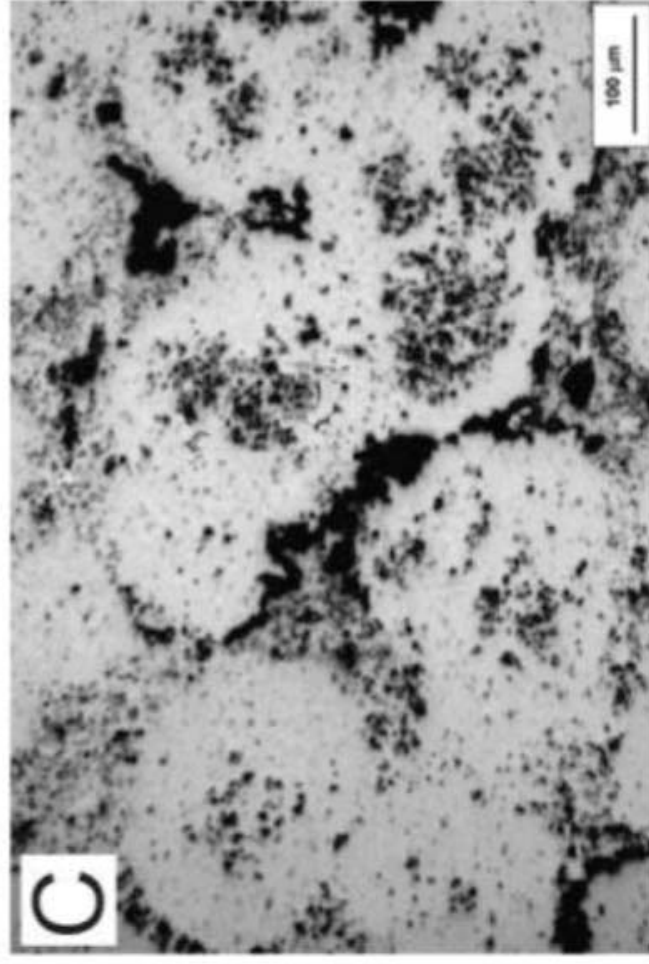
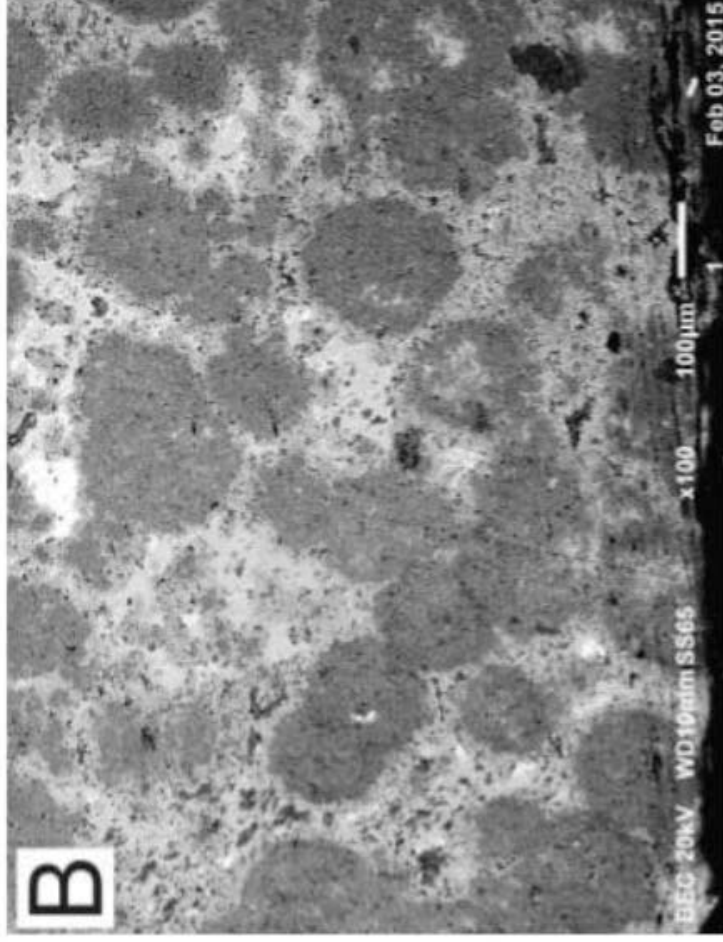
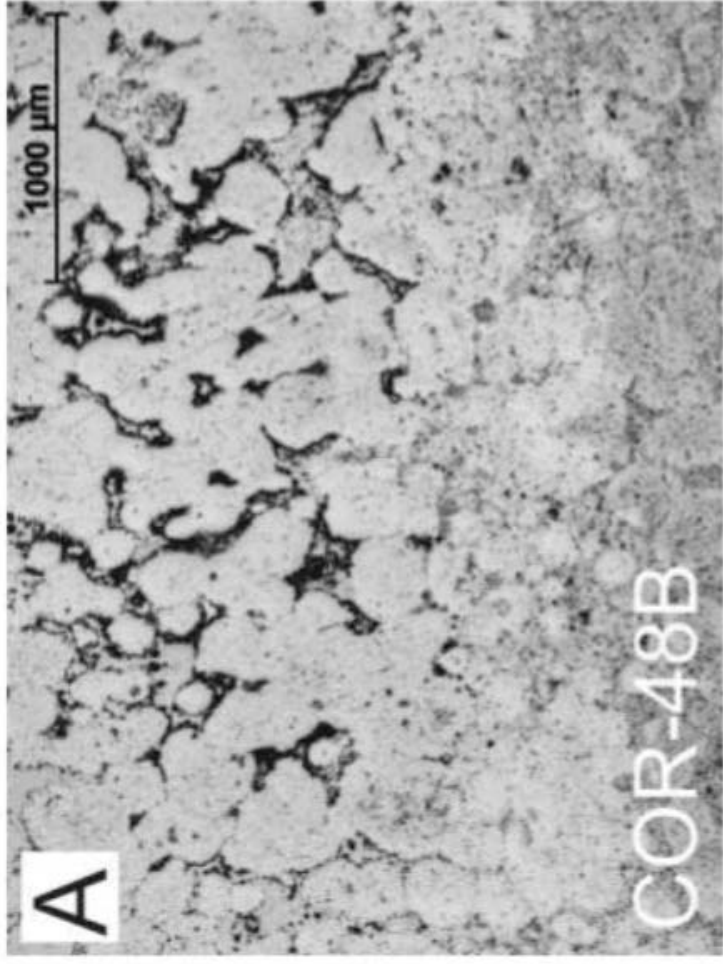


Figure 5.

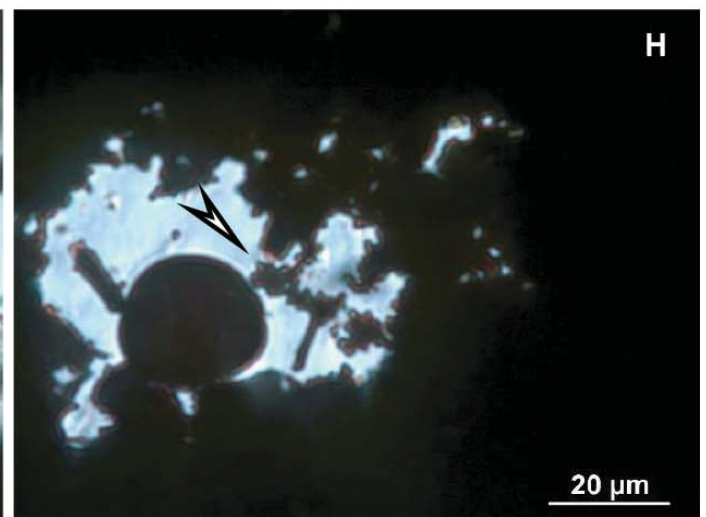
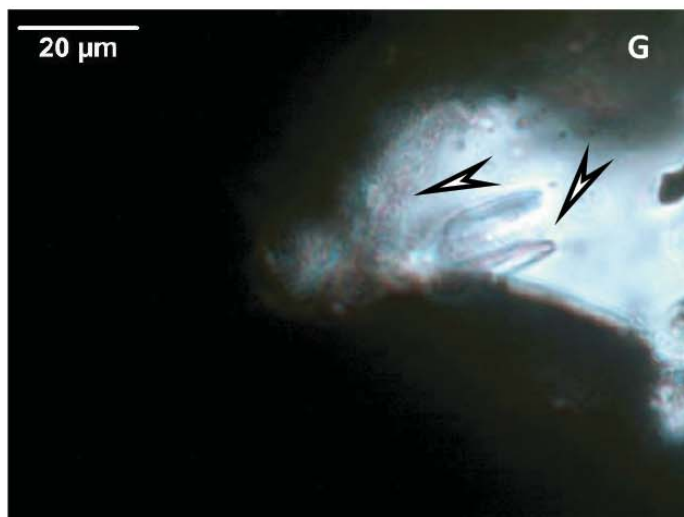
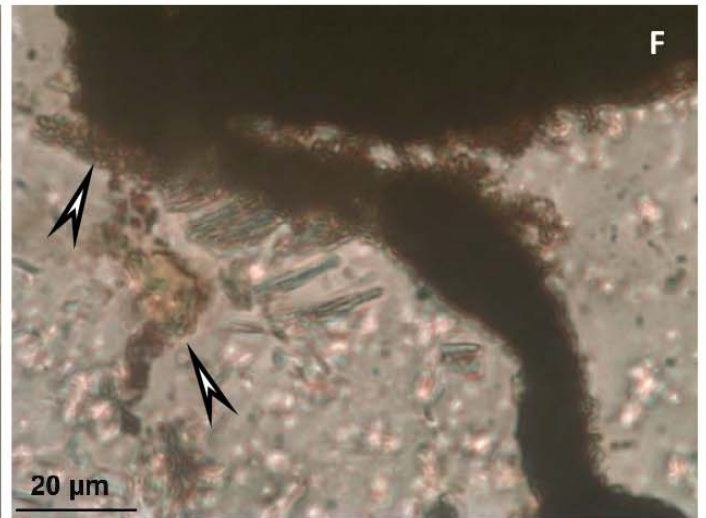
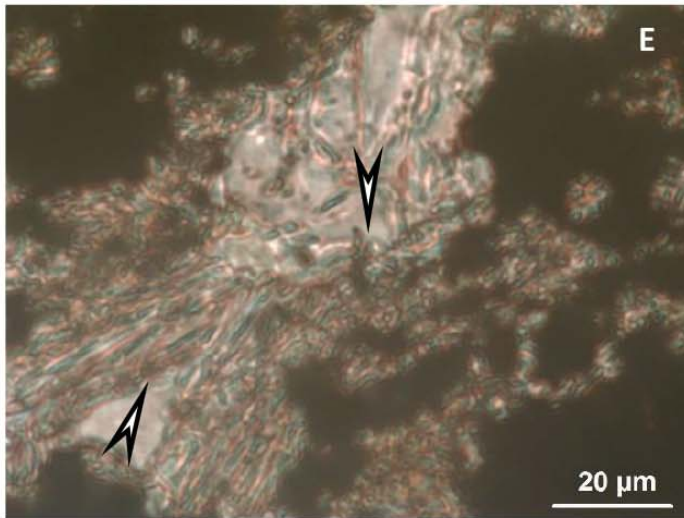
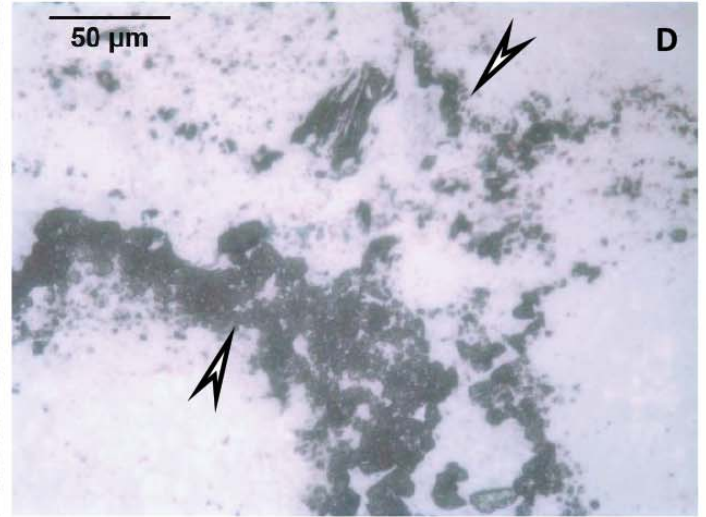
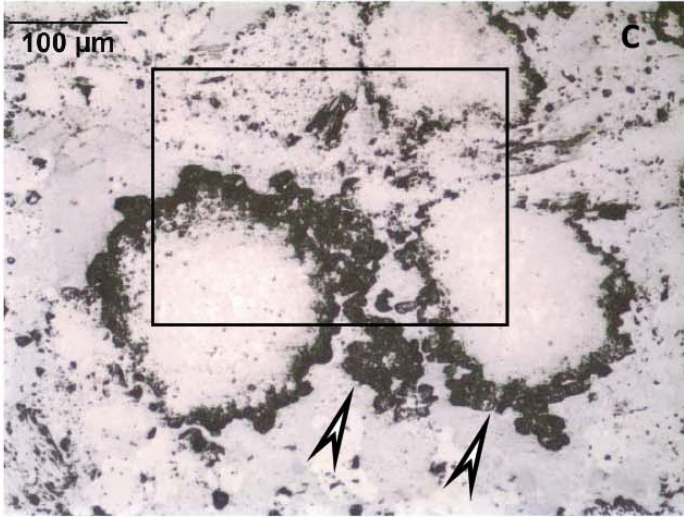
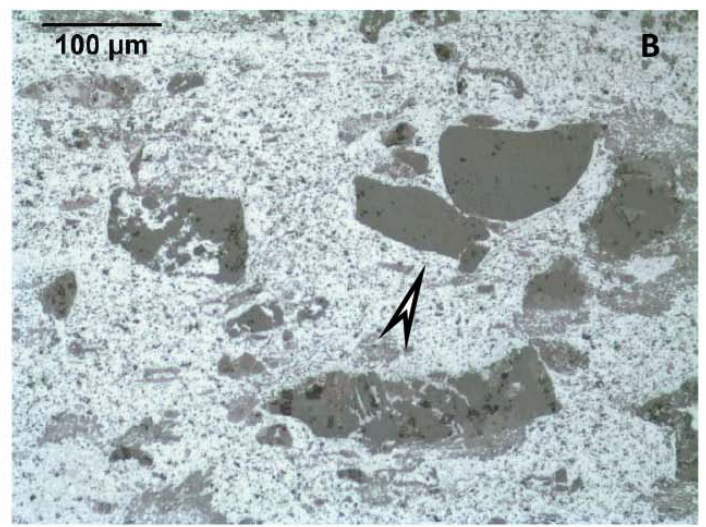
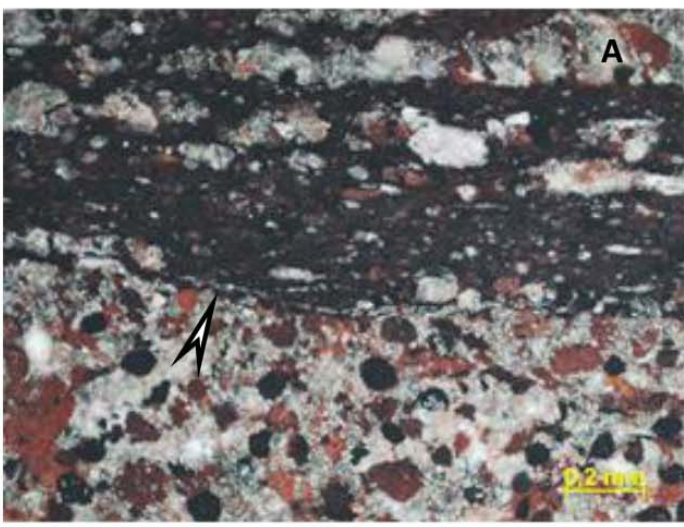


Figure 6.

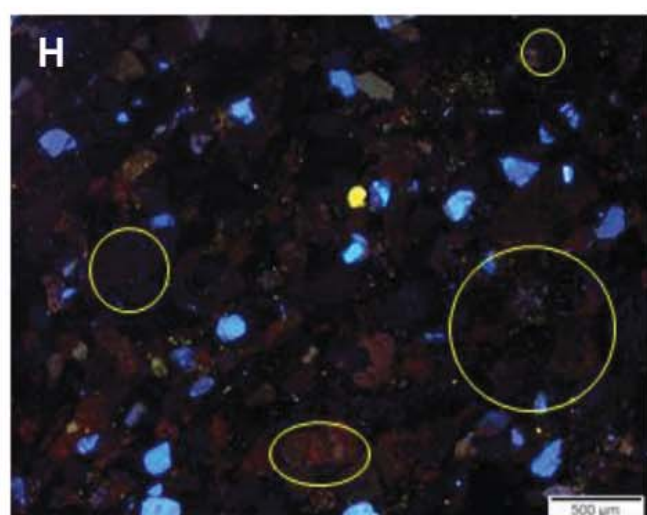
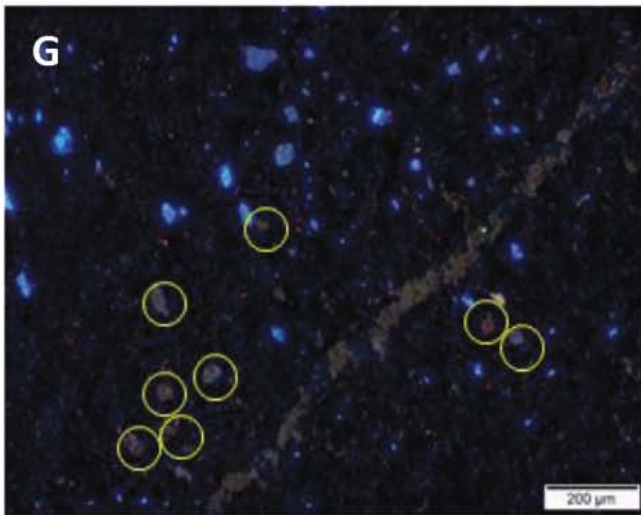
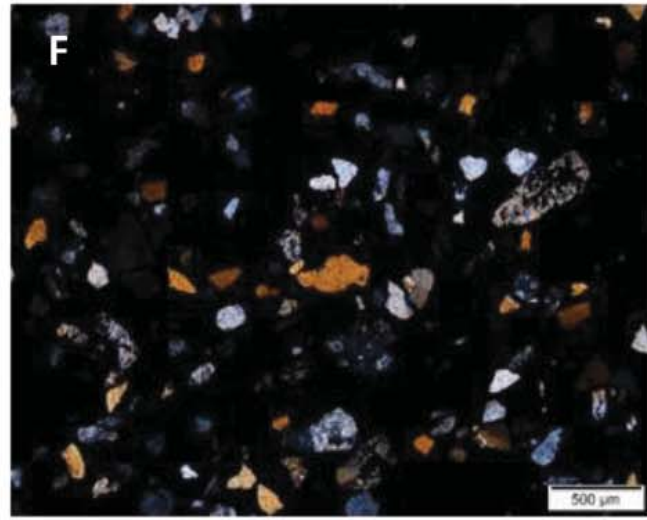
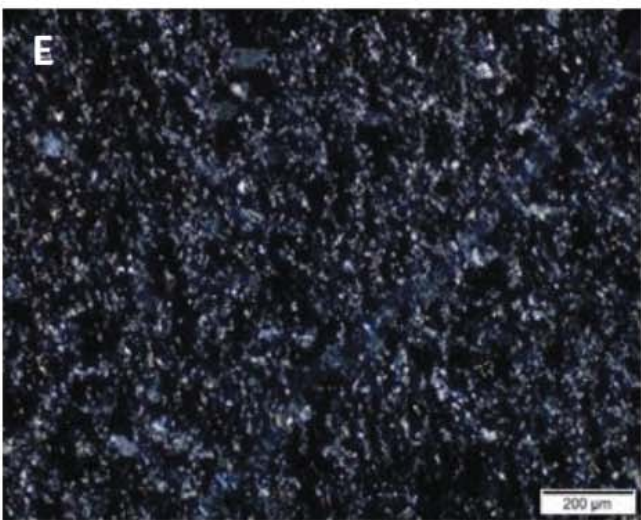
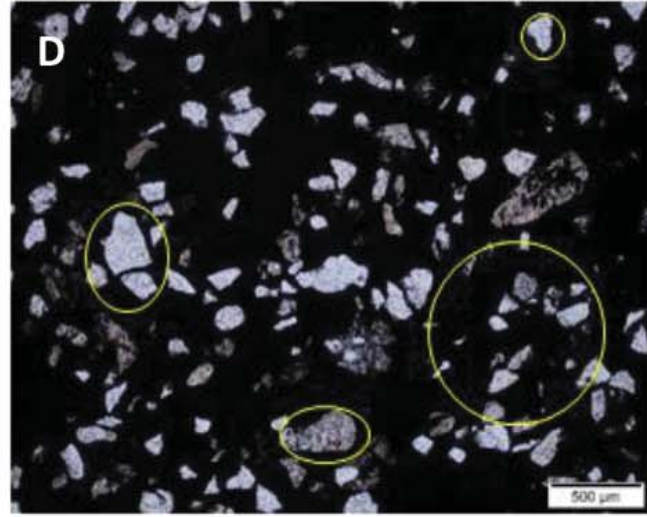
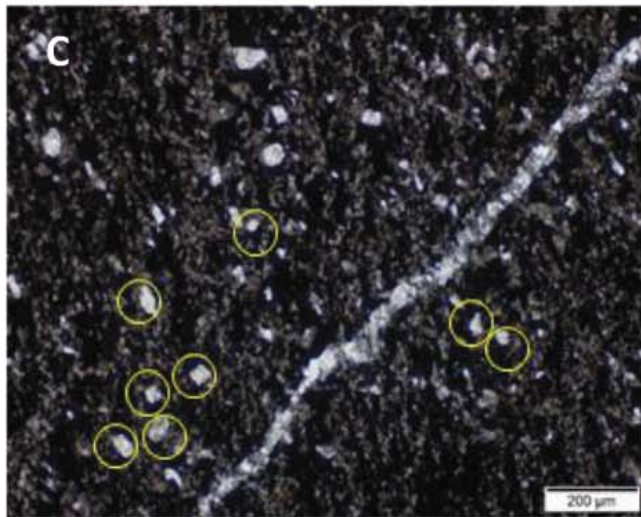
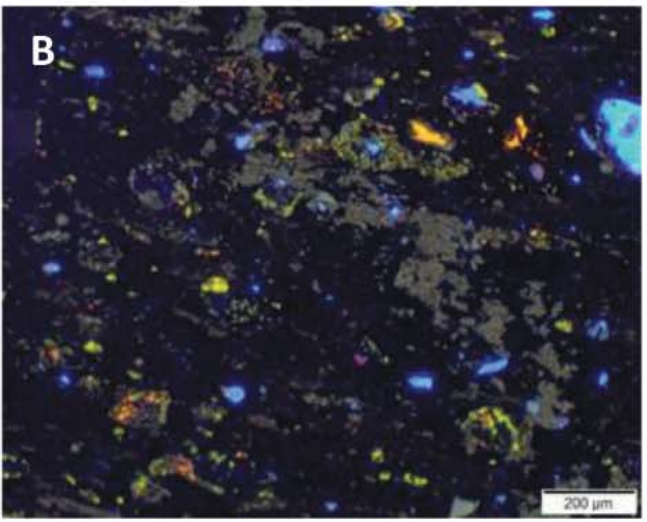
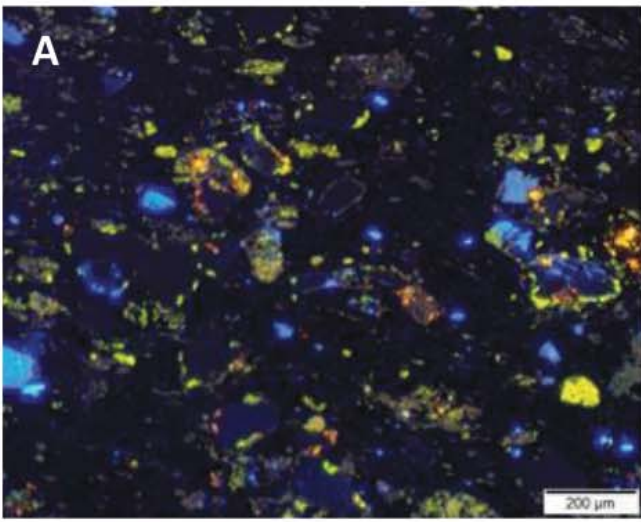


Figure 7.

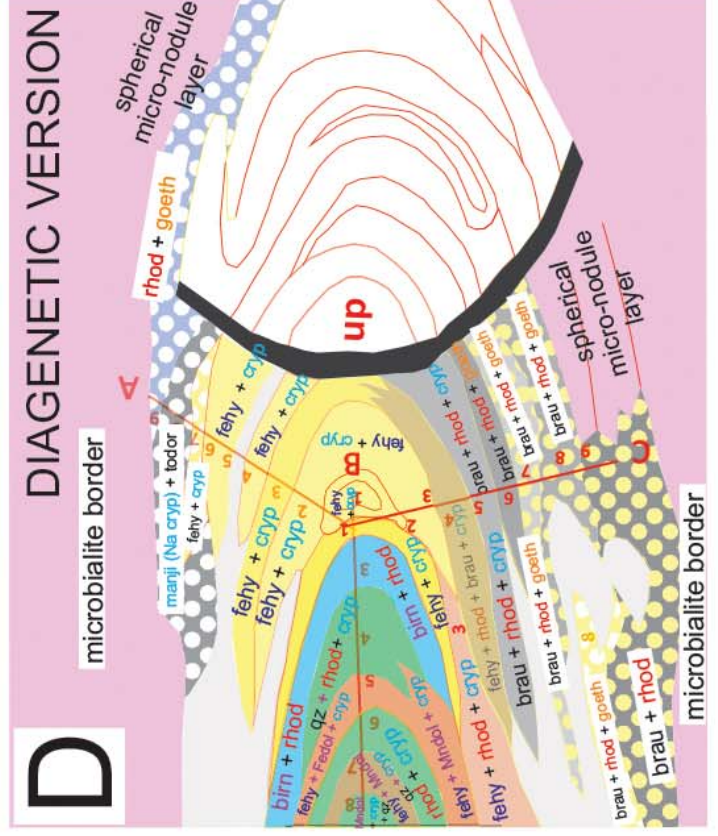
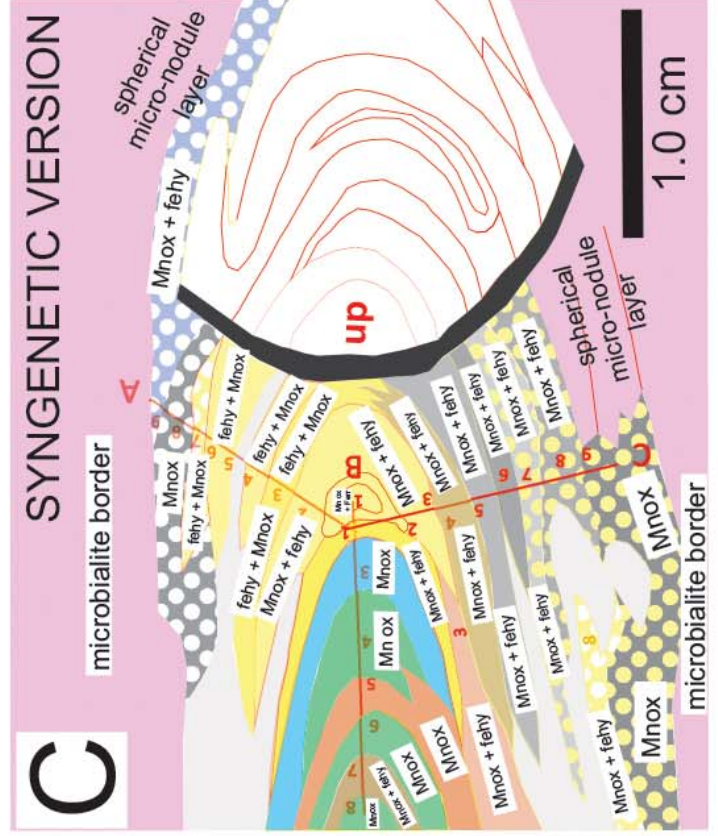
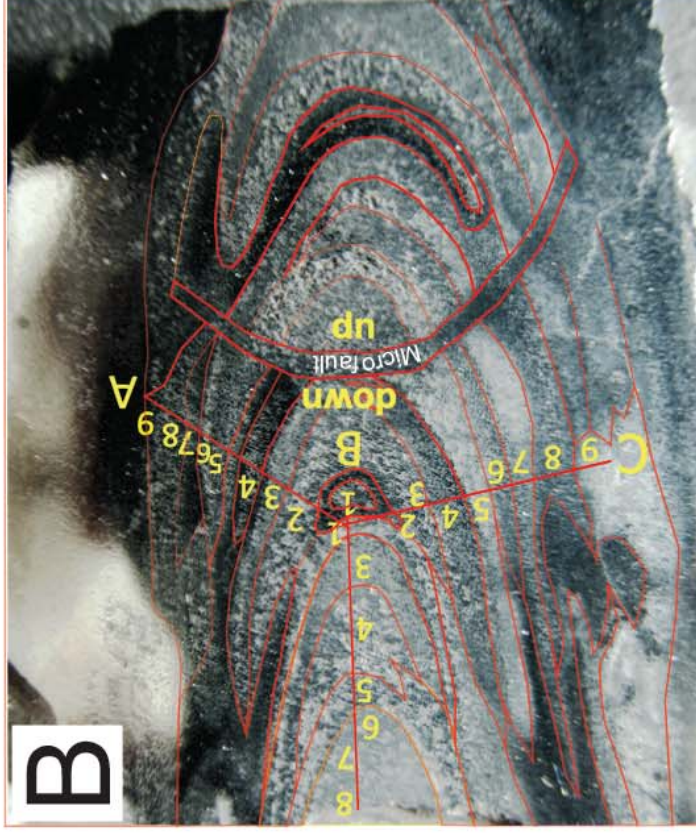
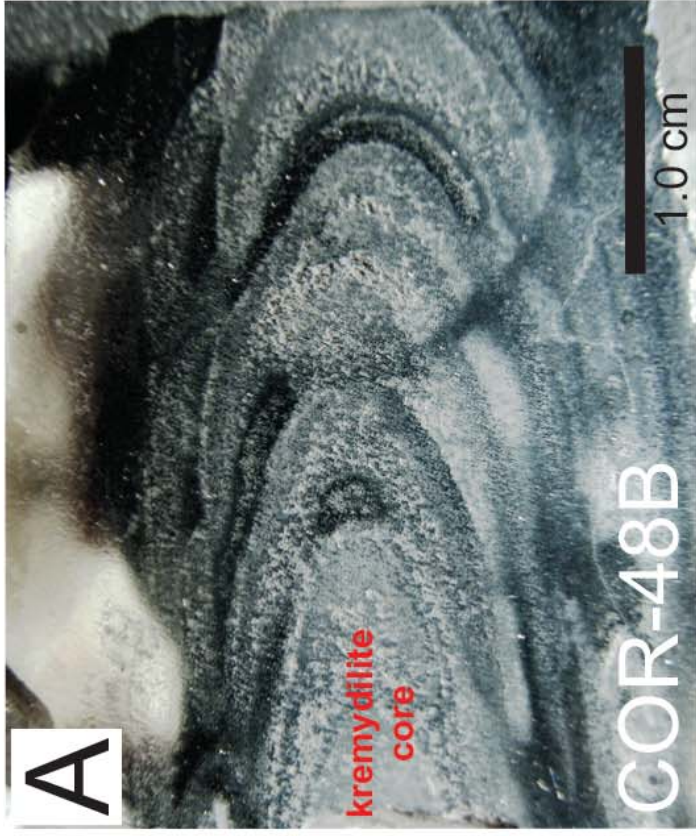
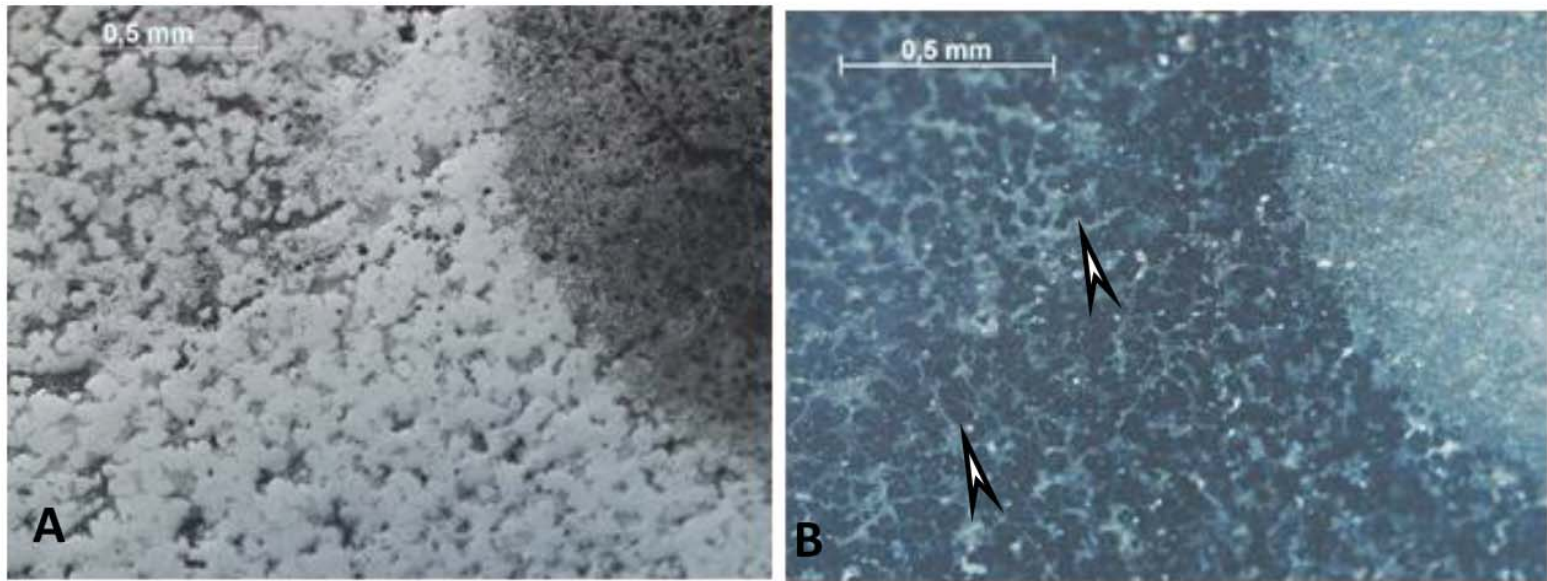


Figure 8.



C

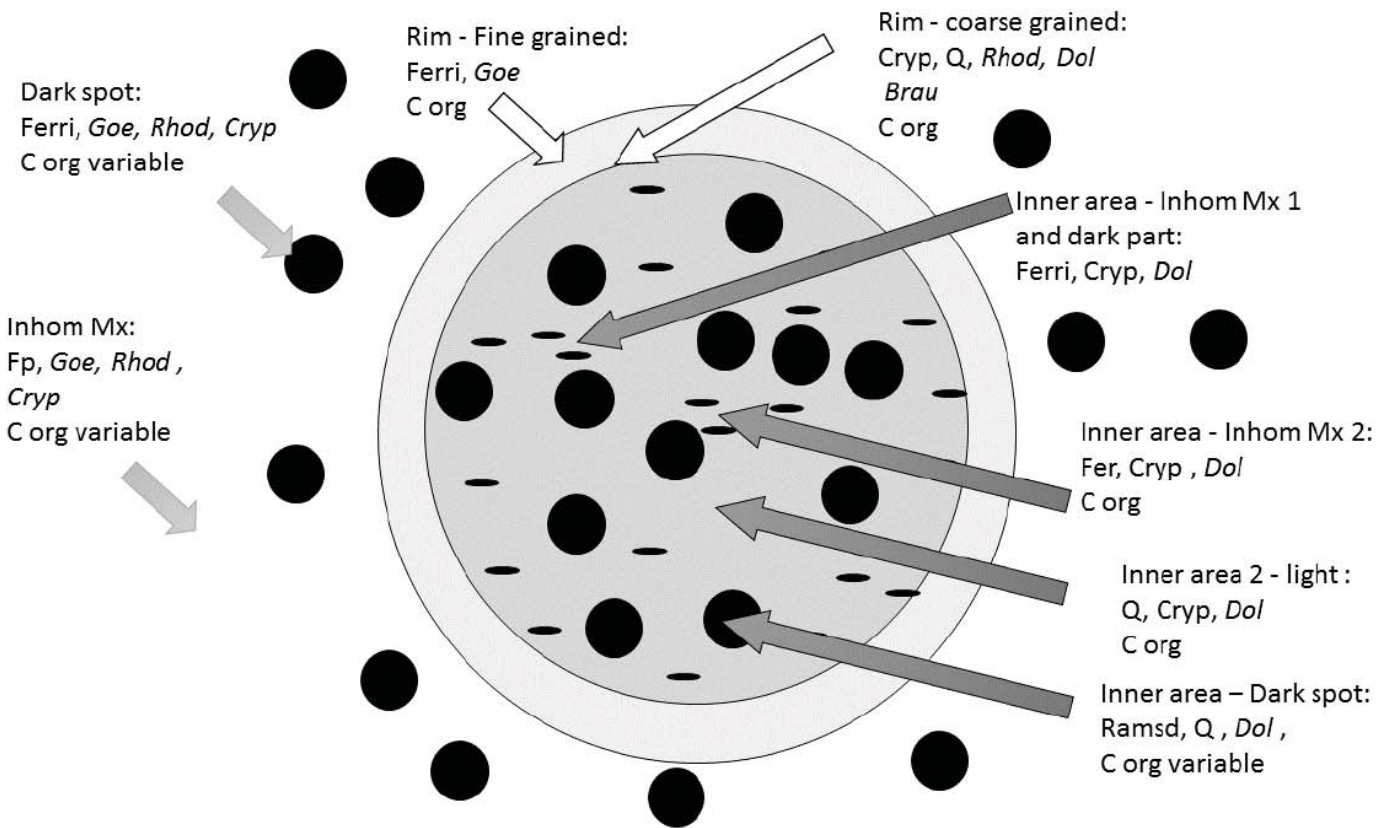


Figure 9.

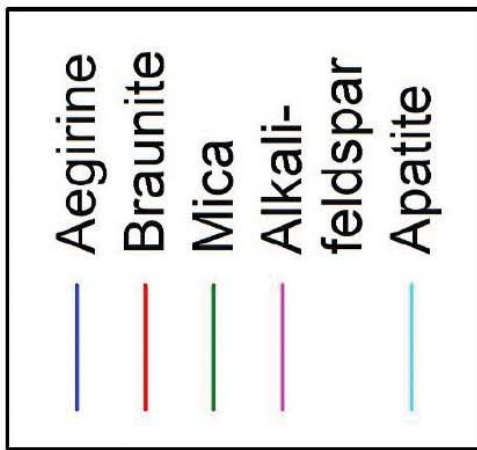
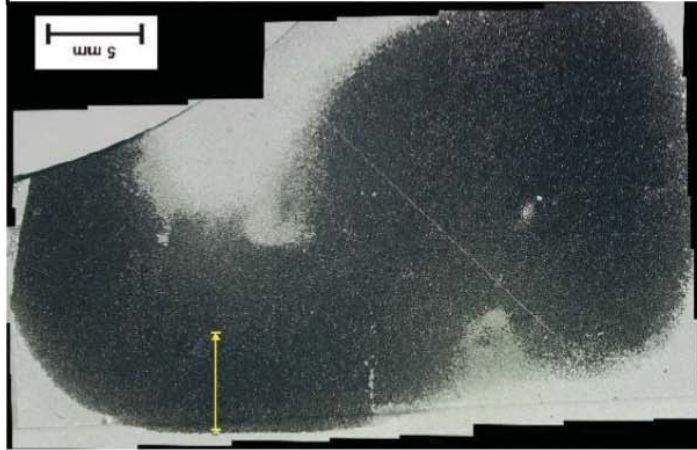
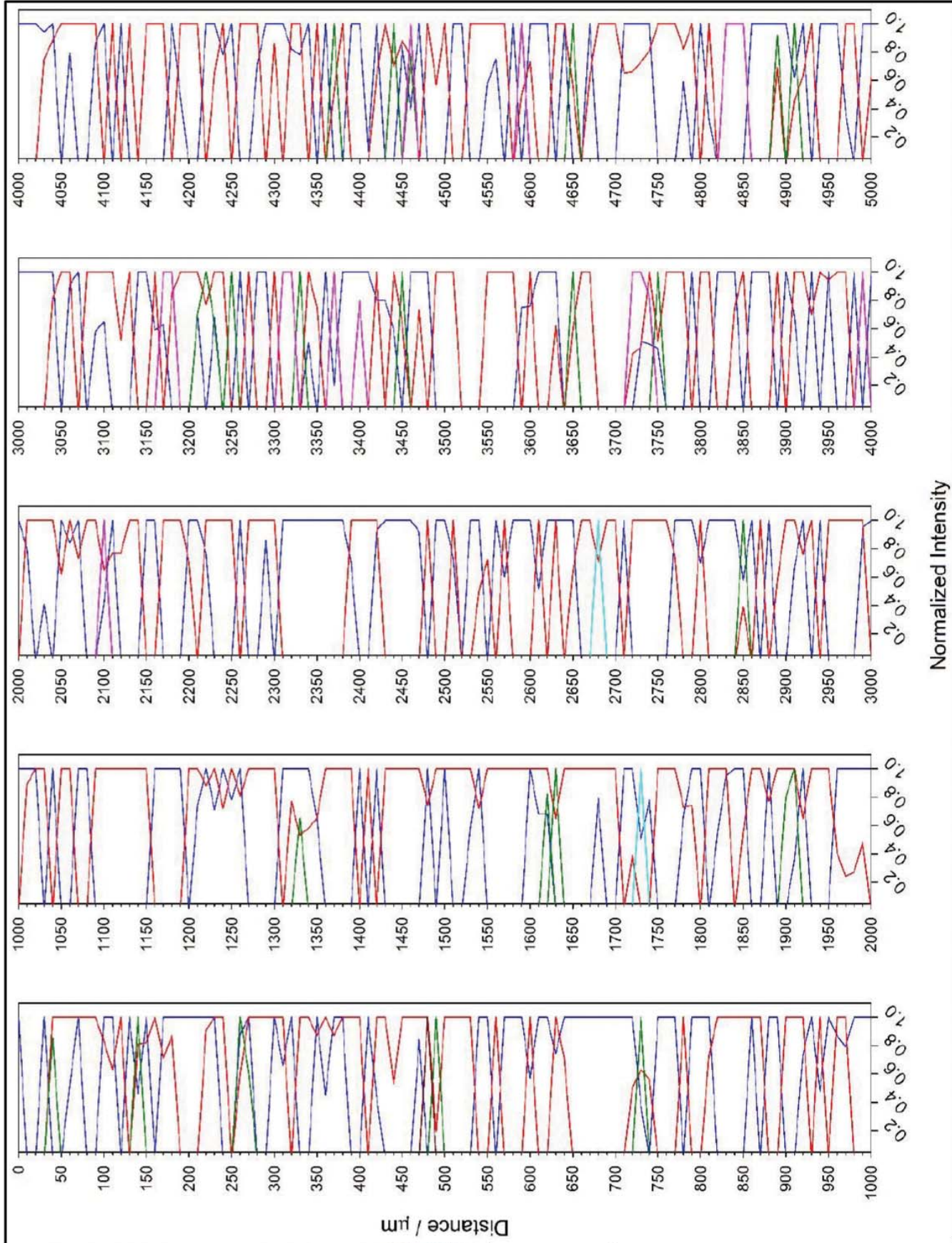
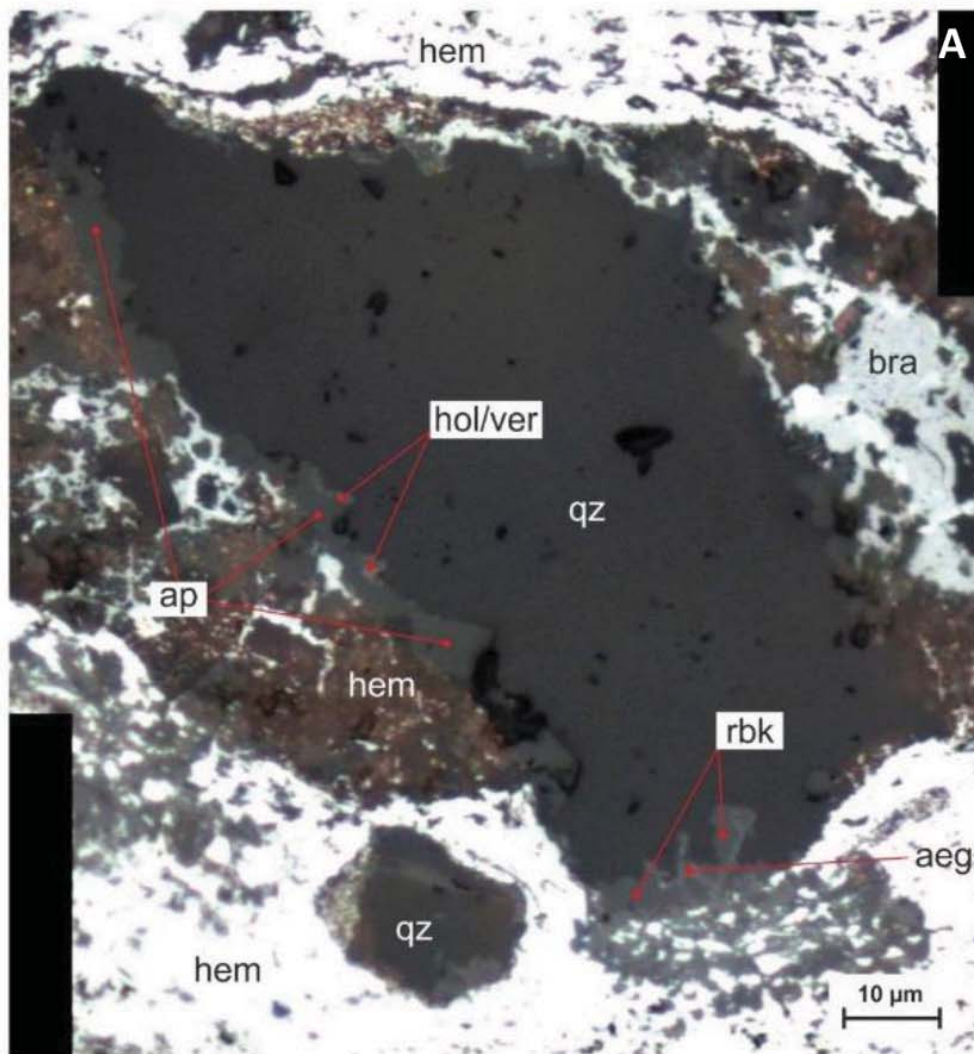
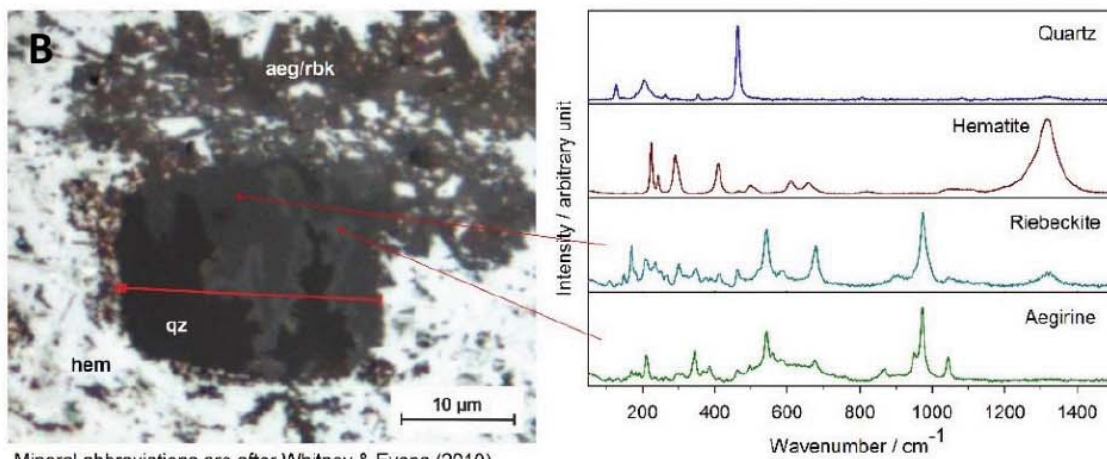


Figure 10.



Mineral abbreviations are after Whitney & Evans (2010), except ver: vernadite; hol: hollandite  
bra: braunite



Mineral abbreviations are after Whitney & Evans (2010)

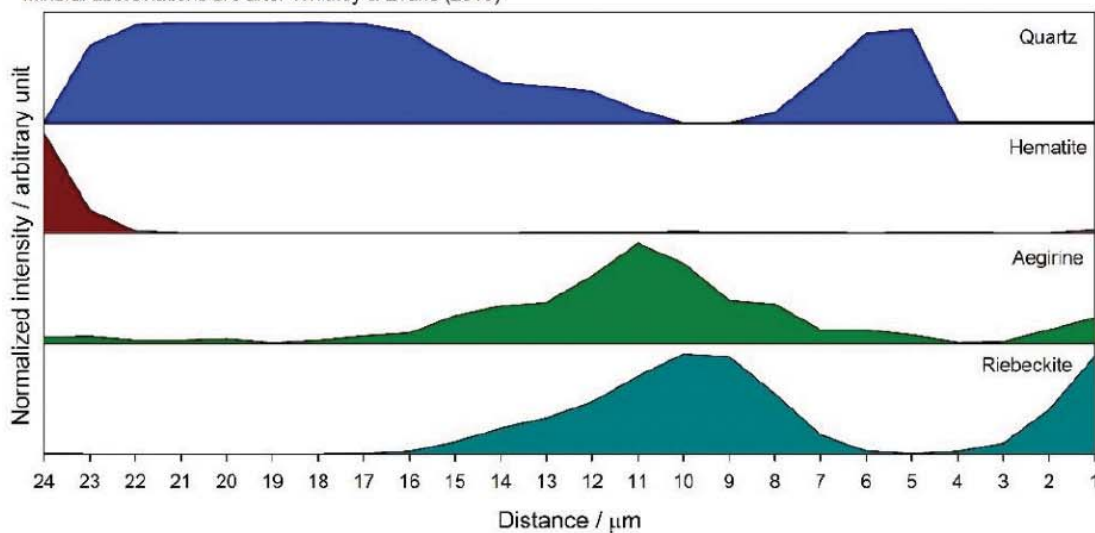


Figure 11.

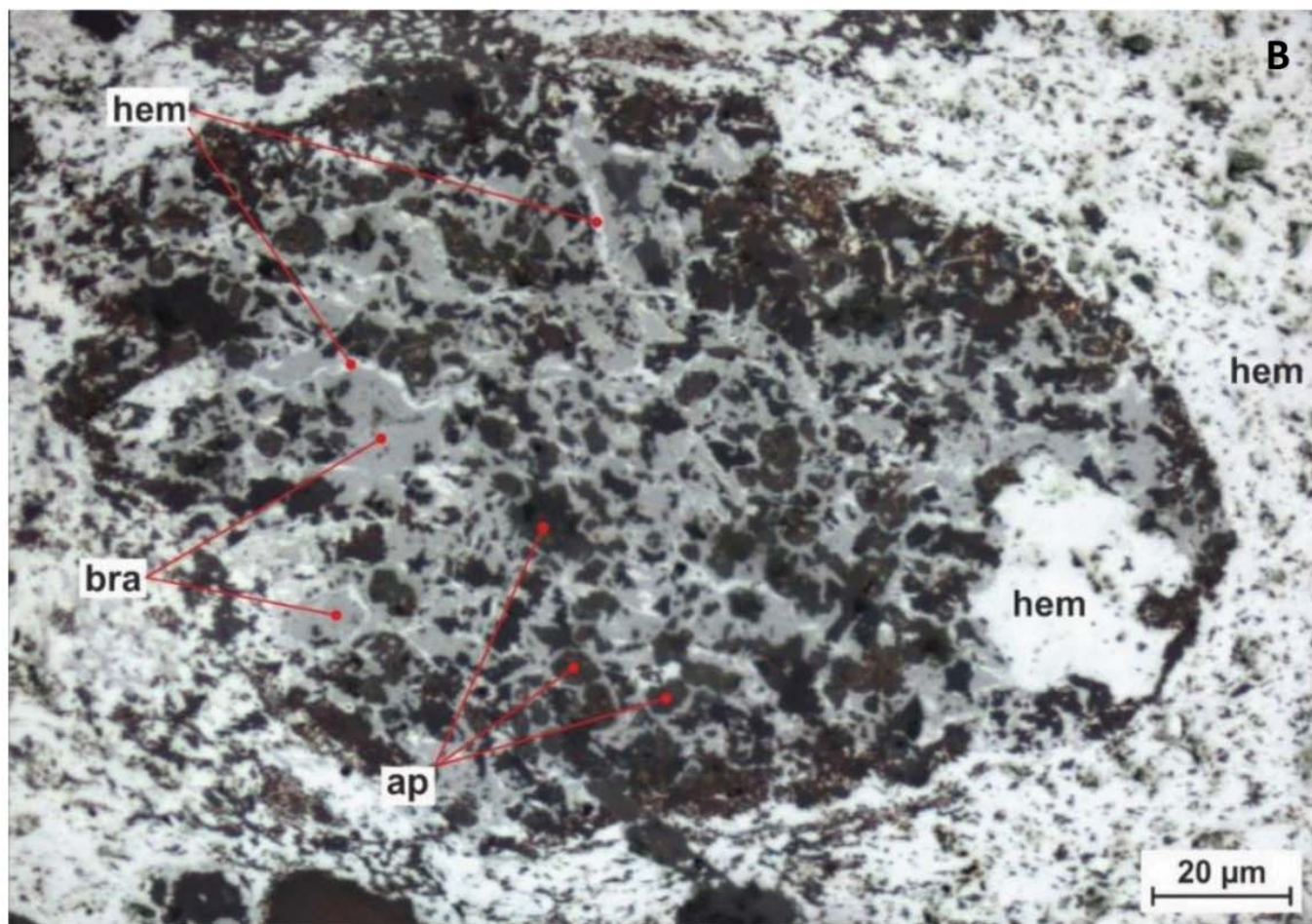
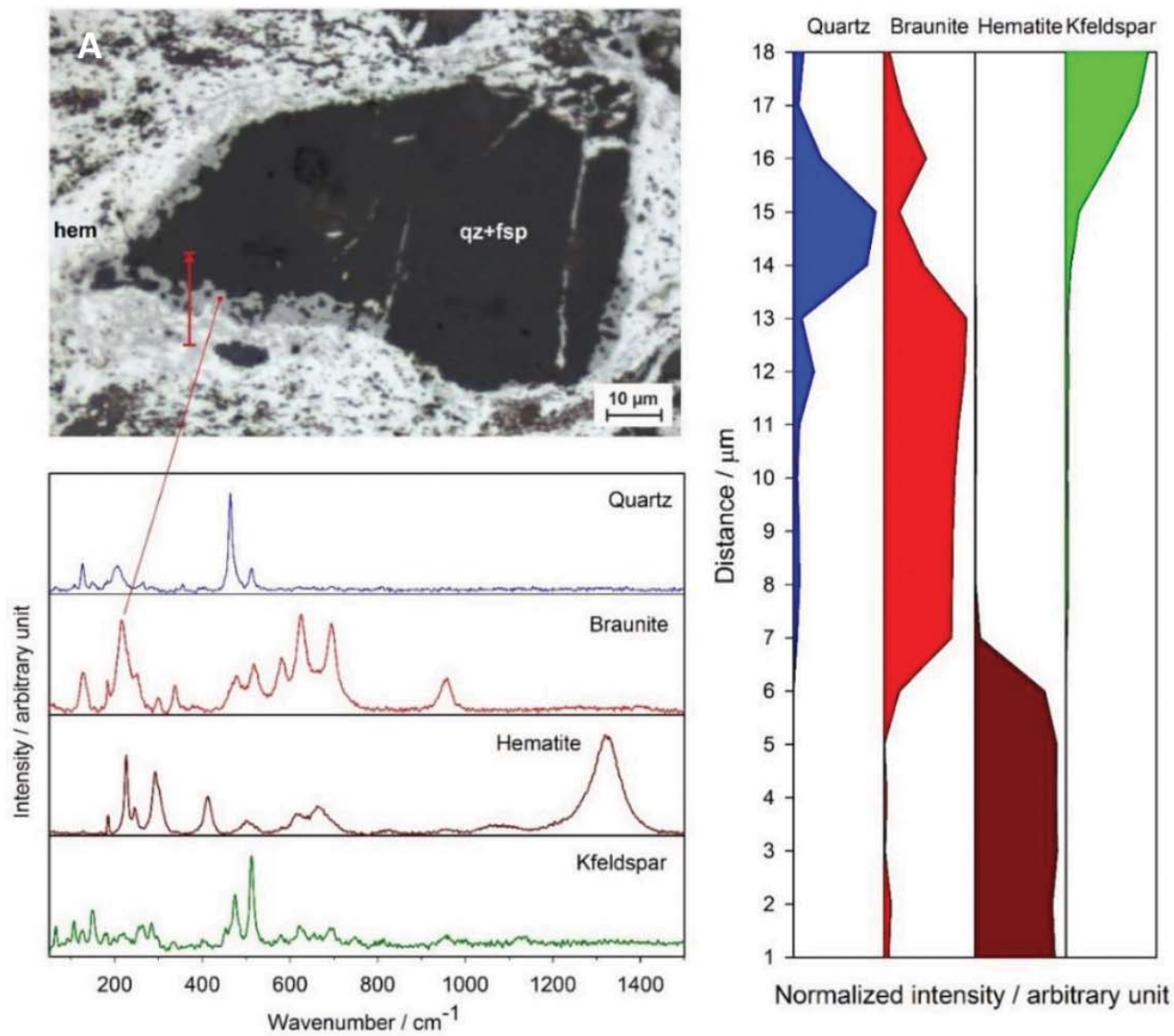


Figure 12.



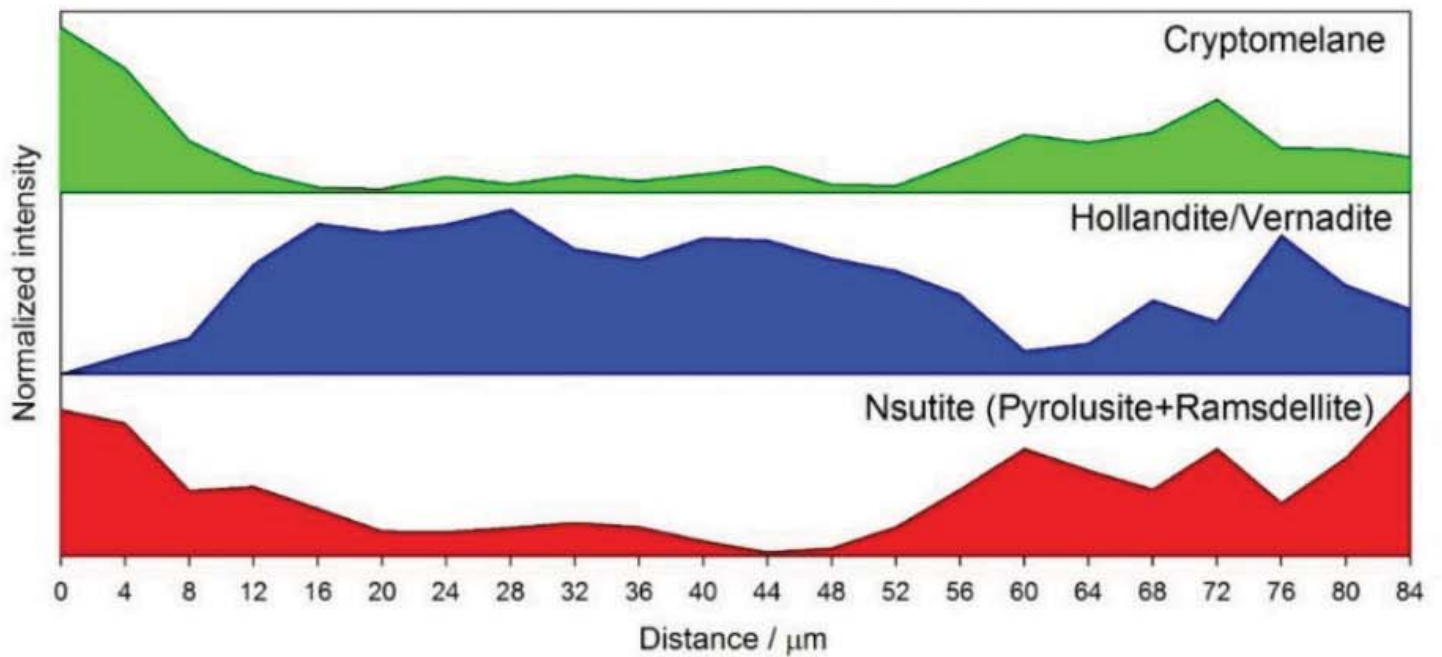
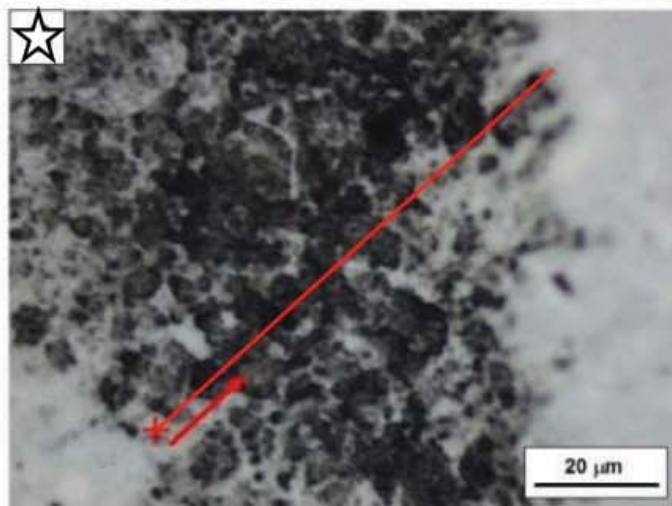
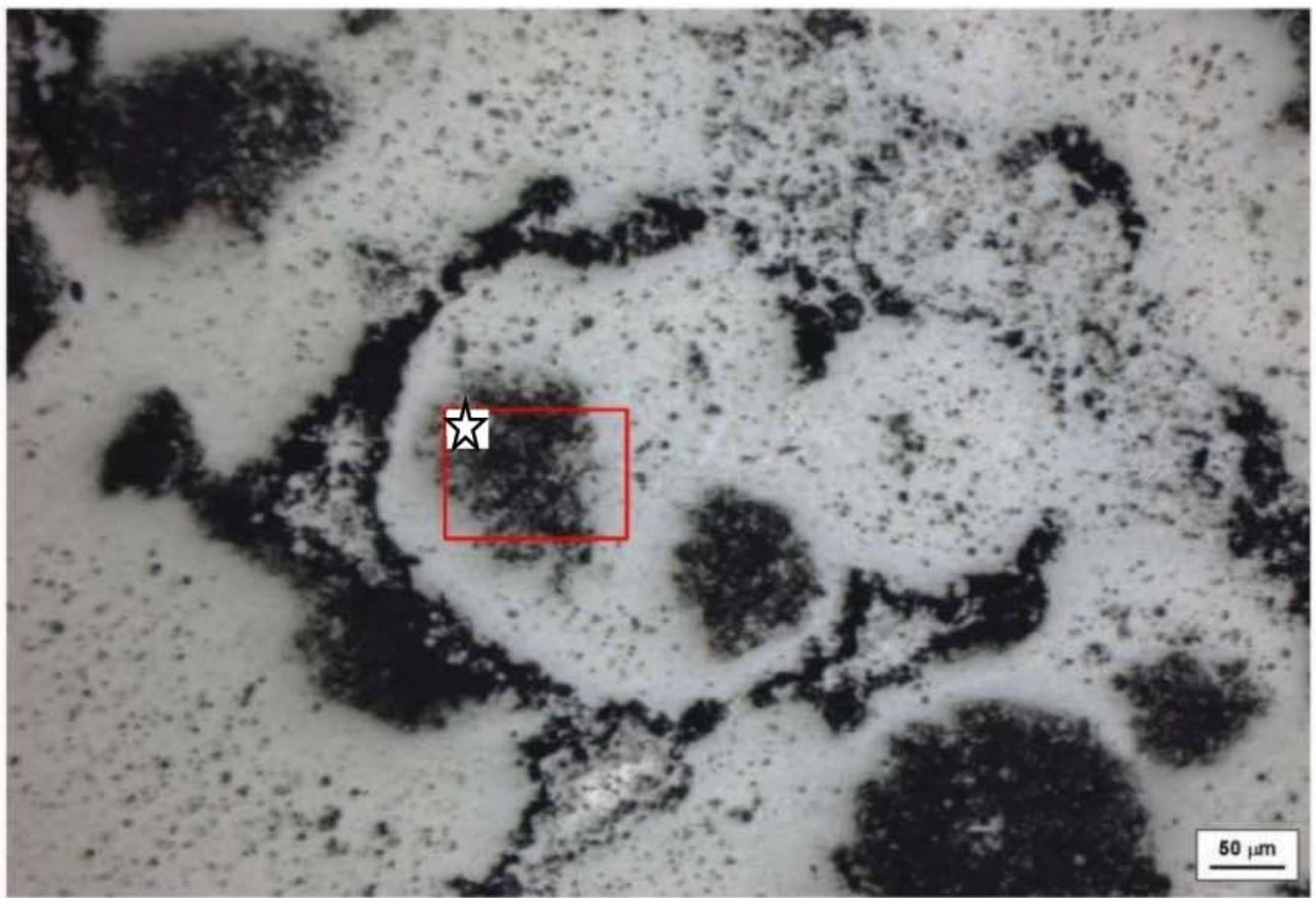


Figure 13.

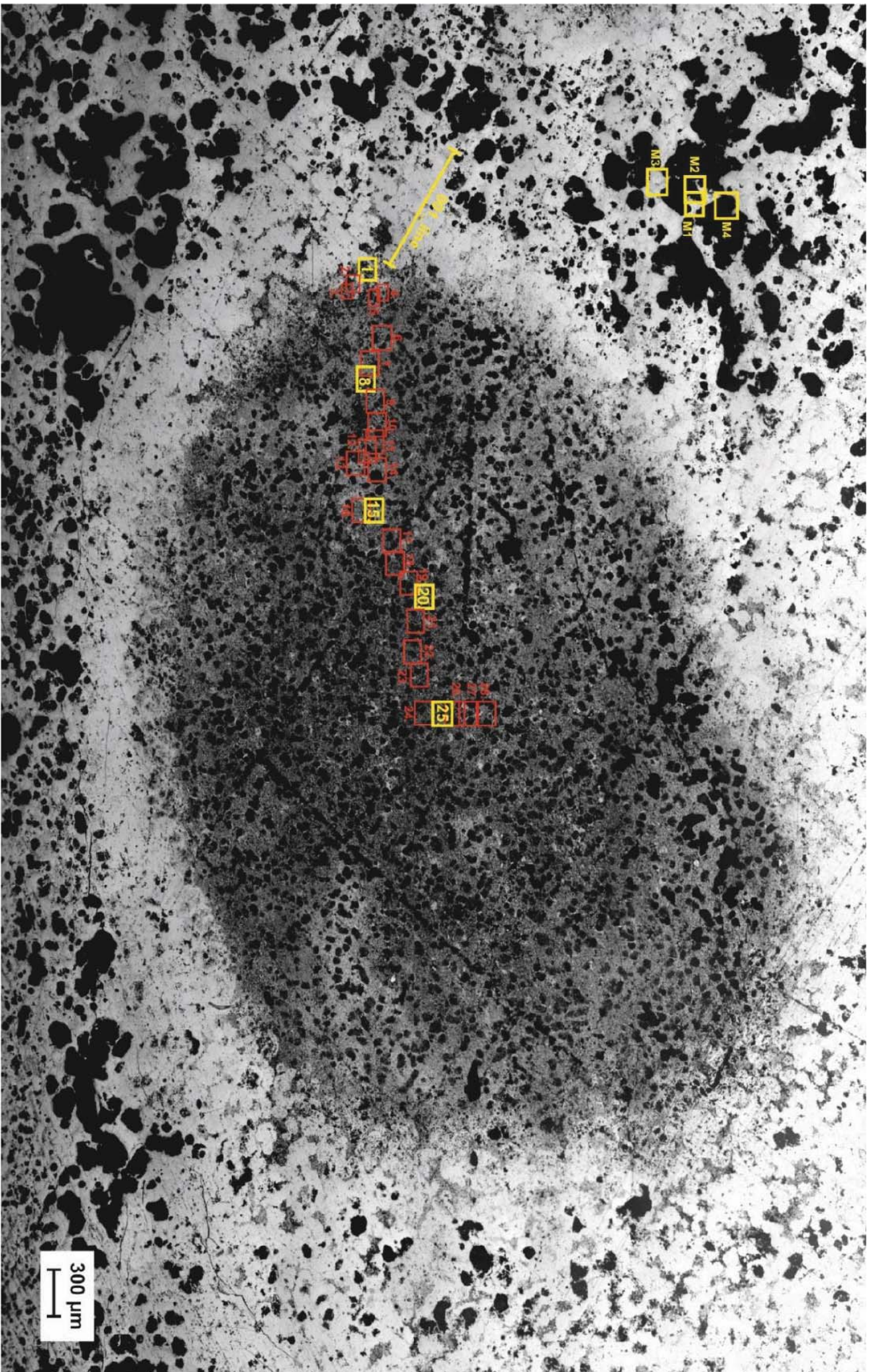


Figure 14.

# Physico-chemical vs. bacterial Fe and Mn oxidation

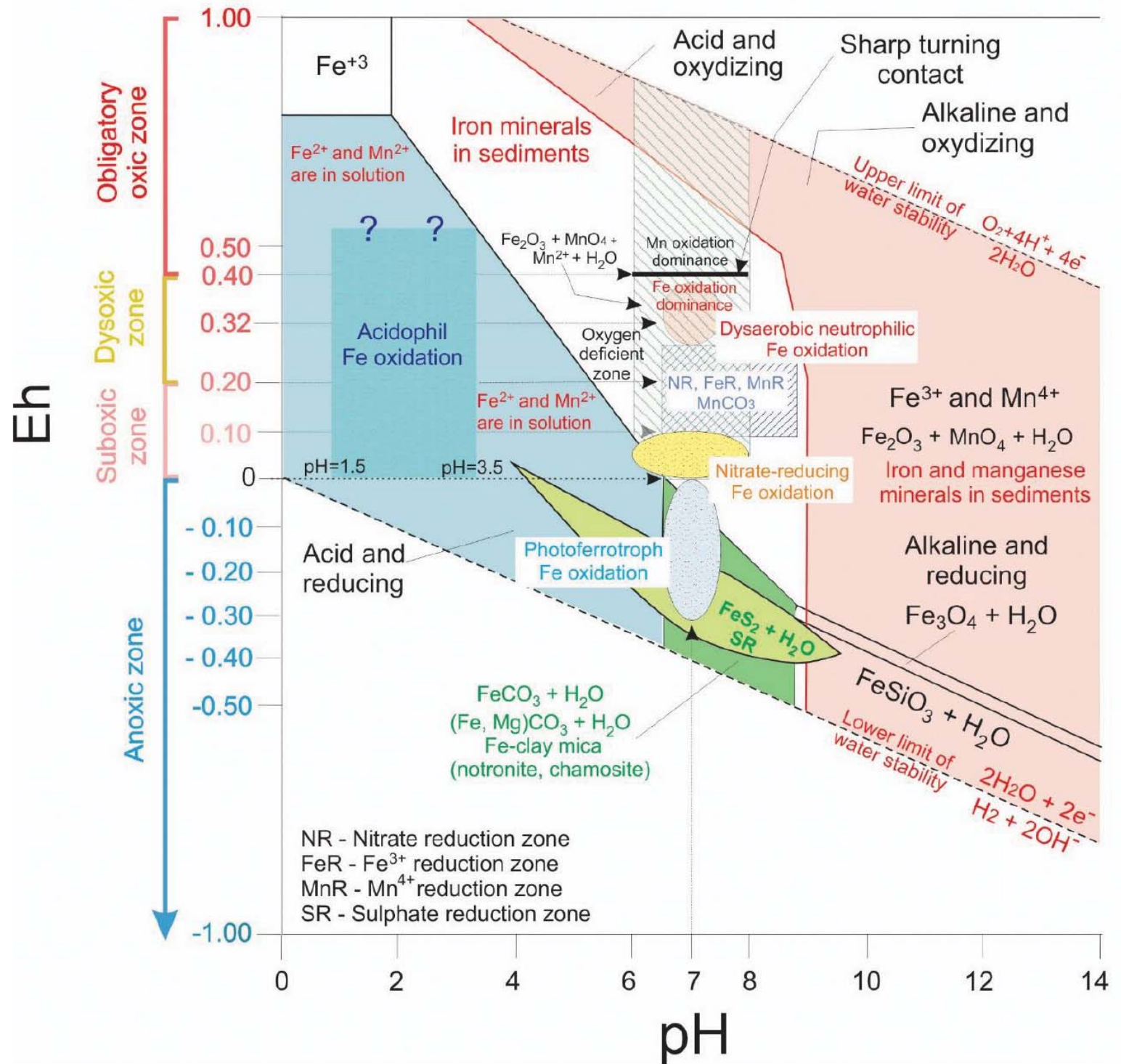
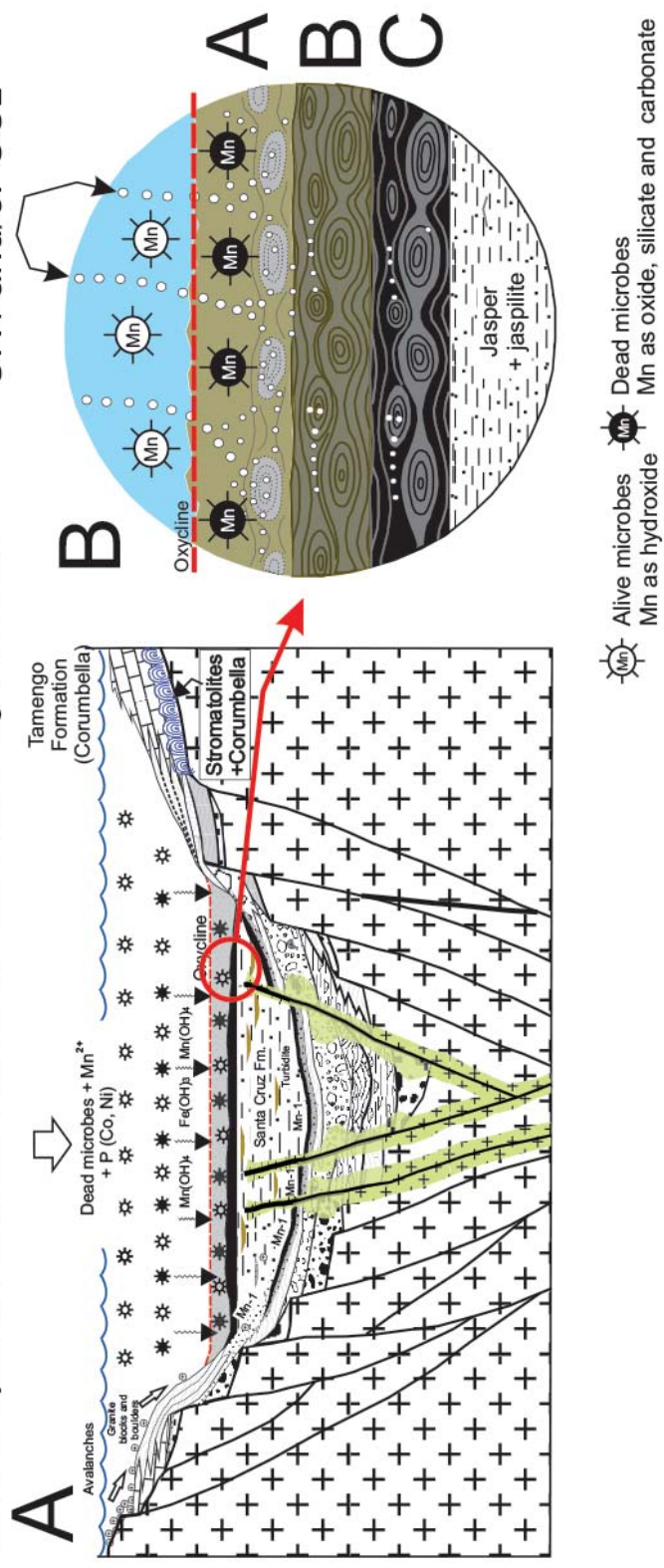


Figure 15.

### Mn-2 sedimentation (= Mn-3)

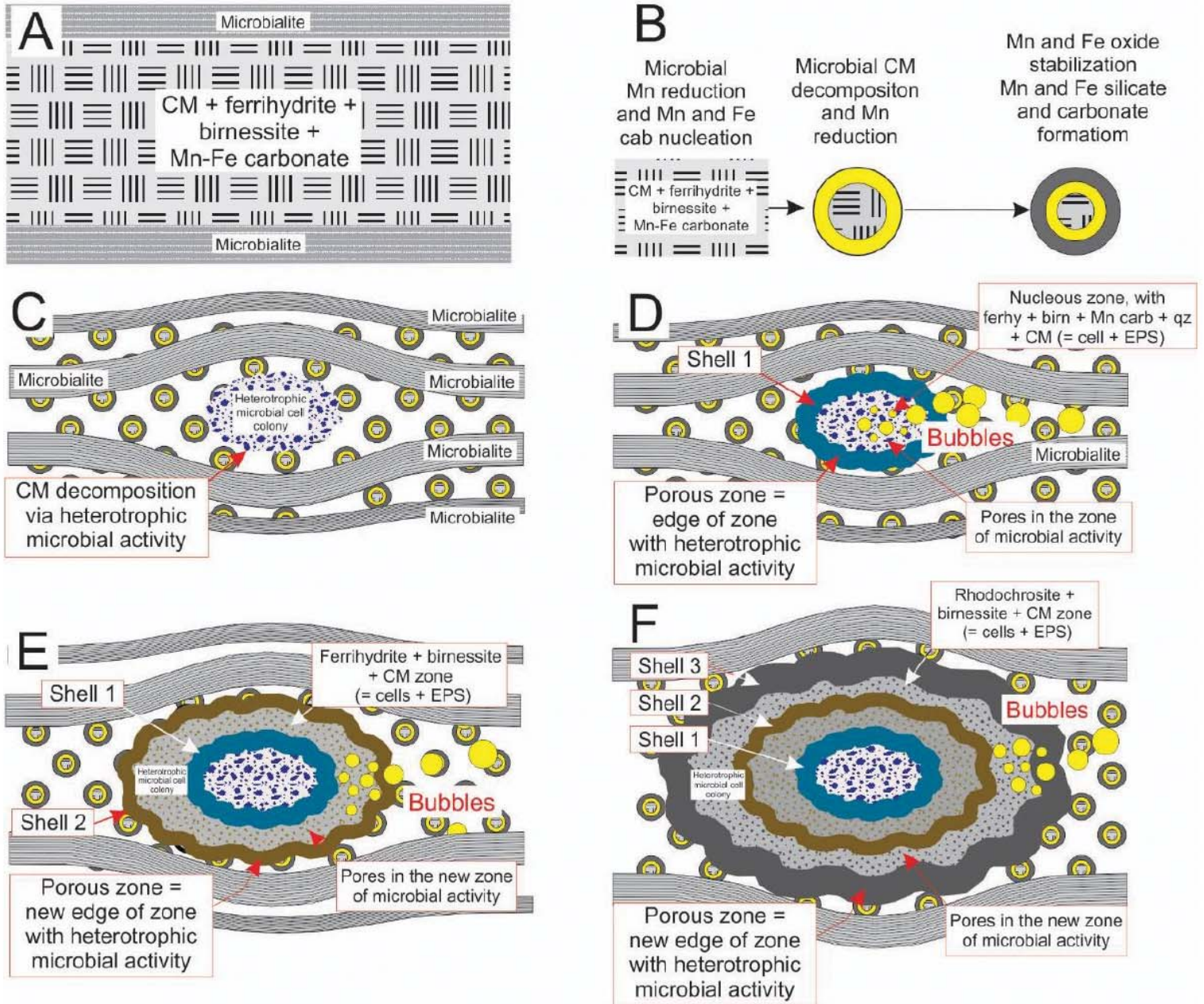
Inundation and microbially-mediated sedimentation of manganese and iron hydroxides on the basin floor under oxidizing conditions.



Zone	Sediment zones	Diagenetic product	Kremydlite growth
A	<b>Biomass sedimentation</b> Aqueous biomass mud with dead microbes. Mn reduction and carbonate nucleation	Microbial oxidation of buried organic matter under suboxic conditions	Birnesite and ferrihydrite nucleation, CM decay and formation of CH <sub>4</sub> and/or CO <sub>2</sub> bubbles
B	<b>Biomass early diagenesis</b> Biomass with Mn and Fe hydroxides + manganese carbonate	Birnesite, ferrihydrite, manganese carbonate	Nucleous, ferrihydrite and braunite + rhodochrosite zones formation, CH <sub>4</sub> + CO <sub>2</sub> bubbles
C	<b>Biomass late diagenesis</b> = <b>Ore formation</b> Mn and Fe oxidation and carbonate precipitation	Transformation to cryptomelane, braunite and minor rhodochrosite	Transformation to cryptomelane, braunite and minor rhodochrosite

Figure 16.

# Sedimentation and early diagenesis



# Late and post-diagenesis

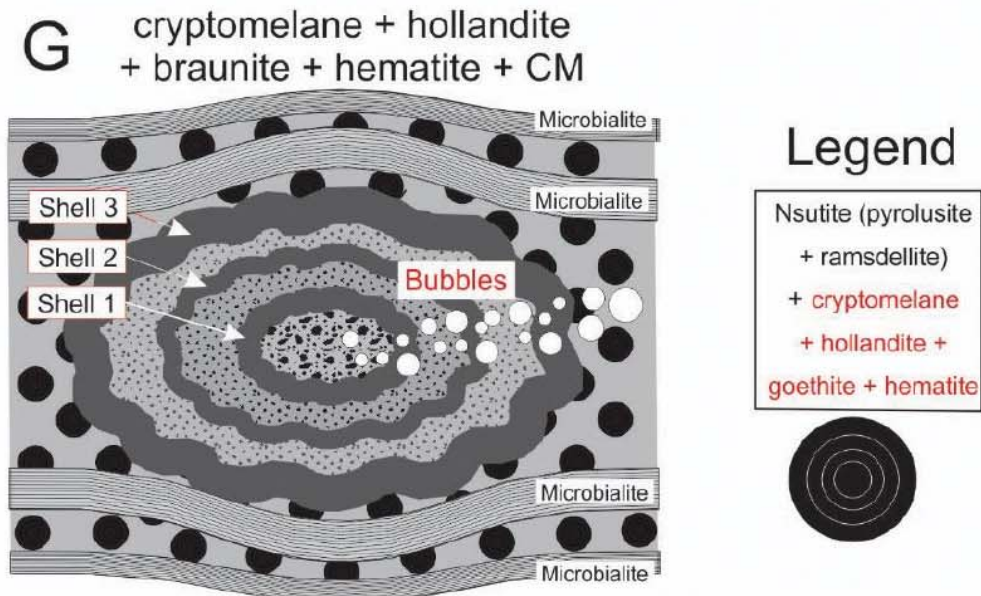


Figure 17.

Table 1. Main features, mineralogical and selective element composition of ore beds (12 samples)(Biondi and Lopez 2017)

Ore bed	Mn-1	Mn-2-3
<b>Main features</b>	Sandy (fragments of quartz, altered feldspar, apatite, chert), laminated, amygdalite-bearing	Kremydilite
<b>Mineralogy</b>	<p><b>Figueirinha-Upper Mn-1</b>            30-75 v% braunite            &lt;0.5 vol% aegirine            3-15 vol% quartz            5-15 vol% feldspar            1-5 vol% clay minerals, apatite, chlorite            locally 10-30 vol% Fe-dolomite or siderite, Mn-dolomite</p> <p><b>São Domingos-Upper Mn-1</b>            (laminated, amygdalite-bearing)            40-75 vol% cryptomelane-hollandite            10-30 vol% quartz            10-15 vol% hematite, apatite, clay minerals  <i>Composition of amygdalite cores</i>            60-90 vol% cryptomelane (hollandite?)            0-10 vol% quartz            5-15 vol% hematite, clay minerals</p> <p><b>Santa Cruz-Mn-1</b>            arkozic sandstone cemented by hollandite (cryptomelane, pyrolusite), quartz, feldspar, hematite  <i>Composition of ferruginous sandstone</i>            30-40 vol% hematite            60-70 vol% quartz            1-5 vol% clay minerals</p>	77-98 vol% cryptomelane 0-23 vol% hollandite 9-19 vol% braunite 7-21 vol% hematite 0-5 vol% clay minerals and CM
<b>Average chemical composition of selective elements (wt. %)</b>		
<b>Mn</b>	Mn-1 contains a Lower and an Upper part, whose compositions vary locally, which is the reason why it is not possible to determine the average chemical composition of this unit.	50.06 (SD-2.73%)
<b>Fe</b>		8.58 (SD-2.59%)
<b>K</b>		1.82 (SD-0.75%)
<b>Ba</b>		0.29 (SD-0.30%)
<b>LOI</b>		10.80 (SD-0.88%)
Samples COR-16P, 16M, 17, 36A, 42, 43, 48L, 48P, 61L, 61P, 75 and 78 published in Biondi and Lopez (2017)		

**Table 2. Samples and used methods**

Sample ID	Layer	Locality (Fig. 1)	TS*	OM	CL	FTIR	Raman	XRD
COR-81	Mn-3	MCR-VALE mine, Sta Cruz Plateau	x	x(34)			x(1,903)	
COR-78-F3	Mn-2	Urucum-VALE mine, Urucum W plateau	x	x(65)		x(60)		
COR-78-D1	Mn-2	Urucum-VALE mine, Urucum W plateau	x	x(59)	x(11)		x(3,456)	
COR-75-B5	Mn-2	Urucum-VALE mine, Urucum W plateau	x	x(63)	x(6)		x(2,449)	
COR-75-2	Mn-2	Urucum-VALE mine, Urucum W plateau	x	x(56)	x(9)		x(1,209)	
COR-48B	Mn-2		x			x(178)		
COR-36-A1-A2	Mn-2	MMX mine, Urucum E plateau	x	x(56)		x(50)		
COR-10	Mn-1	Figueirinha mine, Sta Cruz N plateau	x	x(95)	x(23)	x(14)	x(504)	x
COR-7	Mn-1	Figueirinha mine, Sta Cruz N plateau	x	x(38)	x(27)	x(12)	x(504)	x
COR-6	Mn-1	Figueirinha mine, Sta Cruz N plateau	x	x(46)		x(37)		
COR-4B	Mn-1	Figueirinha mine, Sta Cruz N plateau	x	x(43)	x(10)		x(400)	
COR-32	Mn-1	Sao Domingos mine, Sta Cruz SW plateau	x	x(79)		x(32)		
COR-31	Mn-1	Sao Domingos mine, Sta Cruz SW plateau	x	x(56)	x(27)	x(32)	x(504)	x
<b>Total 14 samples (photos, spectra)</b>				<b>690</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>415</b>	<b>10,997</b>	<b>3</b>

Abbrev.: TS-thin section; OM-optical rock microscopy; CL-cathodoluminescence microscopy; FTIR-ATR-infrared spectroscopy; Raman-Raman spectroscopy; XRD-X-ray powder diffraction  
gray background: samples from Mn-2 and 3 beds (Fig. 3-4 and SI 3-Fig)  
number of analyses in brackets.

**Table 3. Mineral composition**

Samples → Minerals ↓	COR-6	COR-7	COR-10	COR-31	COR-32	COR-36A1	COR-78F3
<b>Mn minerals</b>							
todorokite	*						
ramsdellite	*						
cryptomelane	*				*	*	*
pyrolusite					*		
romanéchite						*	
serandite	*						
braunite	*		*				
<b>Fe minerals</b>							
ferrihydrate	*			*	*	*	*
lepidocrocite		*					
hematite				*	*		*
aegirine	*						
pyrite				*			
<b>Other minerals</b>							
apatite		*		*	*		
feldspar (albite, anortite)		*	*		*		
chlorite	*		*				
quartz				*	*		
kaolinite/dickite				*			
celadonite				*			
<b>Organic matter</b>	*	*	*	*	*	*	*



**Table 4: Mineral assemblage in Mn ore beds and typical minerals indicative of Eh-pH ranges in Urucum based on environmental mineralogy**

Minerals/Processes Mn mineral assemblage	Chemical formula	Mn-1	Mn-2	Mn-3	Eh ox- subox	acidic anox	pH neutral- slightly alkaline	alkaline	Microbiologically mediated
<i>Oxides and hydroxide</i>									
Pyrolusite	Mn <sup>4+</sup> O <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Ramsdellite	Mn <sup>4+</sup> O <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Nsutite	(Mn <sup>4+</sup> Mn <sup>2+</sup> )O(OH) <sub>2</sub>							*	
Hausmannite	Mn <sup>3+</sup> O <sub>4</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Cryptomelane	KMn <sup>4+</sup> <sub>6</sub> Mn <sup>2+</sup> <sub>2</sub> O <sub>16</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Jacobsite	Mn <sup>2+</sup> <sub>6</sub> Fe <sup>2+</sup> <sub>0.3</sub> Mg <sub>0.1</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> <sub>1.5</sub> Mn <sup>3+</sup> <sub>0.5</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Manganite	Mn <sup>3+</sup> OOH	*	*	*	*				
Vernadite δMnO <sub>2</sub> (wad)	(Mn <sup>4+</sup> Fe <sup>3+</sup> CaNa)(OOH) <sub>2</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O	*	*	*	*				*
Todorokite	Na <sub>0.2</sub> Ca <sub>0.05</sub> K <sub>0.02</sub> Mn <sup>4+</sup> <sub>4</sub> Mn <sup>3+</sup> <sub>2</sub> O <sub>12</sub> ·3(H <sub>2</sub> O)	*	*	*	*		*		*
Birnessite	Na <sub>0.7</sub> Ca <sub>0.3</sub> Mn <sup>3+</sup> <sub>4</sub> Mn <sup>4+</sup> <sub>7</sub> O <sub>14</sub> ·2.8H <sub>2</sub> O	*	*	*	*		*		*
Romanèchite	[(Ba,H <sub>2</sub> O,Mn <sub>5</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ,Ba)(Mn <sup>4+</sup> ,Mn <sup>3+</sup> )O <sub>10</sub> ·1.4H <sub>2</sub> O]	*	*	*	*				
(psilomelane)	Ba(Mn <sup>4+</sup> ,Mn <sup>2+</sup> ) <sub>8</sub> O <sub>16</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Hollandite*	Na(Mn <sup>4+</sup> ,Mn <sup>3+</sup> ) <sub>8</sub> O <sub>16</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Manjiroite	Na(Mn <sup>4+</sup> ,Mn <sup>3+</sup> ) <sub>10</sub> O <sub>16</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Manganite	Mn <sup>3+</sup> OOH	*	*	*	*				*
<i>Carbonates</i>									
Rhodochrosite	MnCO <sub>3</sub>	*					*		*
<i>Oxides-silicates</i>									
Serandite	NaMn <sup>2+</sup> <sub>1.5</sub> Ca <sub>0.5</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> (OH)	*	*	*	*			*	*
Braunite	Mn <sup>2+</sup> Mn <sup>3+</sup> <sub>6</sub> SiO <sub>12</sub>	*	*	*	*			*	*
<b>Fe mineral assemblage</b>									
<i>Oxides and hydroxides</i>									
Ferrihydrite	FeOOH	*	*	*	*		*		*
Lepidocrocite	Fe <sup>3+</sup> O(OH)	*	*	*	*		*		*
Hematite	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Goethite	FeOOH	*	*	*	*				
Magnetite	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	*	*	*	*				
<i>Sulfides</i>									
Pyrite	FeS <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*				*
<i>Silicates</i>									
Aegirine	Ca <sub>0.75</sub> Na <sub>0.25</sub> Mg <sub>0.5</sub> Fe <sup>2+</sup> <sub>0.25</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> <sub>0.25</sub> (Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )	*	*	*	*			*	
Riebeckite	Na <sub>2</sub> (Fe <sup>2+</sup> <sub>3</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> <sub>2</sub> )Si <sub>8</sub> O <sub>22</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Celadonite	KMg <sub>0.8</sub> Fe <sup>2+</sup> <sub>0.2</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> <sub>0.97</sub> Al <sub>0.1</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*		*		*
Chlorite	Mg <sub>3.72</sub> Fe <sup>2+</sup> <sub>1.25</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>8</sub>	*	*	*	*				
Chamosite	(Fe <sup>2+</sup> Mg) <sub>5</sub> Al(AISi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> )(OH) <sub>8</sub>	*	*	*	*				
<b>Others</b>									
<i>Oxides - hydroxides</i>									
Quartz	SiO <sub>2</sub>	*					*		*
<i>Carbonates</i>									
Dolomite	CaMg(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*		*		*
Strontianite	Sr(CO <sub>3</sub> )	*	*	*	*		*		*
Ankerite	Ca(Fe <sup>2+</sup> ,Mg)(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	*	*	*	*		*		*

<i>Silicates</i>					
Orthoclase	KAlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	*			*
Albite	NaAlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	*			*
Kaolinite/dickite	Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>	*	?		*
Muscovite	KAl <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>1,8</sub> F <sub>0,2</sub>	*	*		*
<i>Silicate-carbonate-sulphate</i>					
Cancrinite	(NaCa...)(Al <sub>6</sub> Si <sub>6</sub> O <sub>24</sub> )(CO <sub>3</sub> , SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	*			
<i>Phosphates</i>					
Apatite	[(Ca <sub>10</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>6</sub> (OH, F, Cl) <sub>2</sub> ]	*	*	*	*
<i>Sulphates</i>					
Barite	Ba(SO <sub>4</sub> )	*	*		*
Gypsum (anhydrite)	CaSO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	*			
Johannite	Cu(UO <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> ·8H <sub>2</sub> O	*	*		*
<i>Organic material</i>					
		*	*	*	*

Mineral assemblage is based on Raman and FTIR spectroscopy analyses  
 Eh-pH ranges and microbially mediated mineralogy is based on: Listova (1961); Harder (1976, 1978); Trudinger & Swaine eds. (1979); Berner (1980); Giovanoli (1980); Sung & Morgan (1981); Cole & Shaw (1983); Ewers (1983); Maynard (1983); Coleman (1985); Skinner (1993); Ehrenreich & Widdel (1994); Wignall (1994); Mandernack et al. (1995); Straub et al. (1996); Banfield & Nealson (1997); Konhauser (1998); Herdianita et al. (2000); Ehrlich (2002); Bazylinski & Frankel (2003); Villalobos et al. (2003); Bargar et al. (2005); Dupraz & Visscher (2005); Morgan (2005); Bodei et al. (2007); Schwertmann & Cornell (2007); Dupraz et al. (2009); Chan et al. (2011); Polgári, et al. (2012ab, 2013, 2016); Biagioli et al. (2014); Johnson et al. (2016); Gyollai et al. (2017); Mloszewska et al. (2018)  
 \* *Hollandite (empirical) Ba<sub>0.8</sub>Pb<sub>0.2</sub>Na<sub>0.1</sub>Mn<sup>4+</sup><sub>6.1</sub>Fe<sup>3+</sup><sub>1.3</sub>Mn<sup>2+</sup><sub>0.5</sub>Al<sub>0.2</sub>Si<sub>6.1</sub>O<sub>16</sub>*



**Table 5. Environmental oxygen levels**

<b>Environmental oxygen levels</b>	<b>Eh (V)</b>	<b>Dissolved oxygen (DO)</b>	<b>FeOB demand*</b>	<b>MnOB demand</b>
obligatory oxic	0.4<Eh<1.0	DO > 2 mL/L		x
dysoxic	0.2-0.4	DO 0.2–2.0 mL/L	≈ 0.3	
suboxic	0-0.2	DO 0–0.2 mL/L		
anoxic	<0			

\*: FeOB demand is around the dysoxic-suboxic zone, and suboxic is the generally used as simplified form; abbrev: FeOB-Fe oxidizing bacteria; MnOB-Mn oxidizing bacteria (Berner 1980; Coleman 1985; Wignall 1994)

## **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare no competing financial interests on this research. The research in this manuscript has not been previously published nor is under consideration elsewhere. All authors have approved submission of this manuscript to *Precambrian Research*.

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

### BIOGENESIS OF THE NEOPROTEROZOIC KREMYDILITE MANGANESE ORES FROM URUCUM (BRAZIL) – A NEW MANGANESE ORE TYPE

**Running title: Biogenesis of a Neoproterozoic manganese ore**

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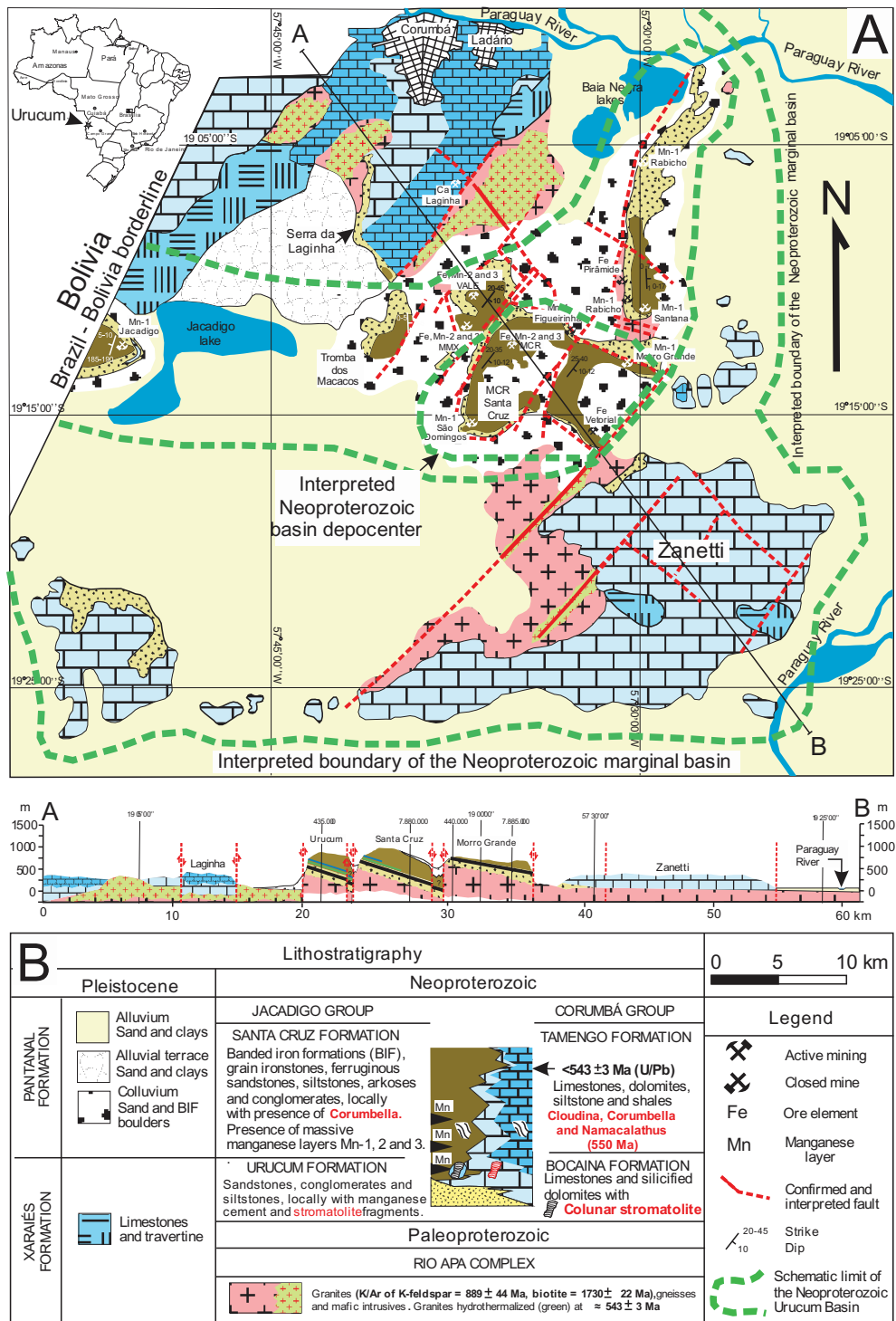
*+ The first two authors have contributed equally to this work*

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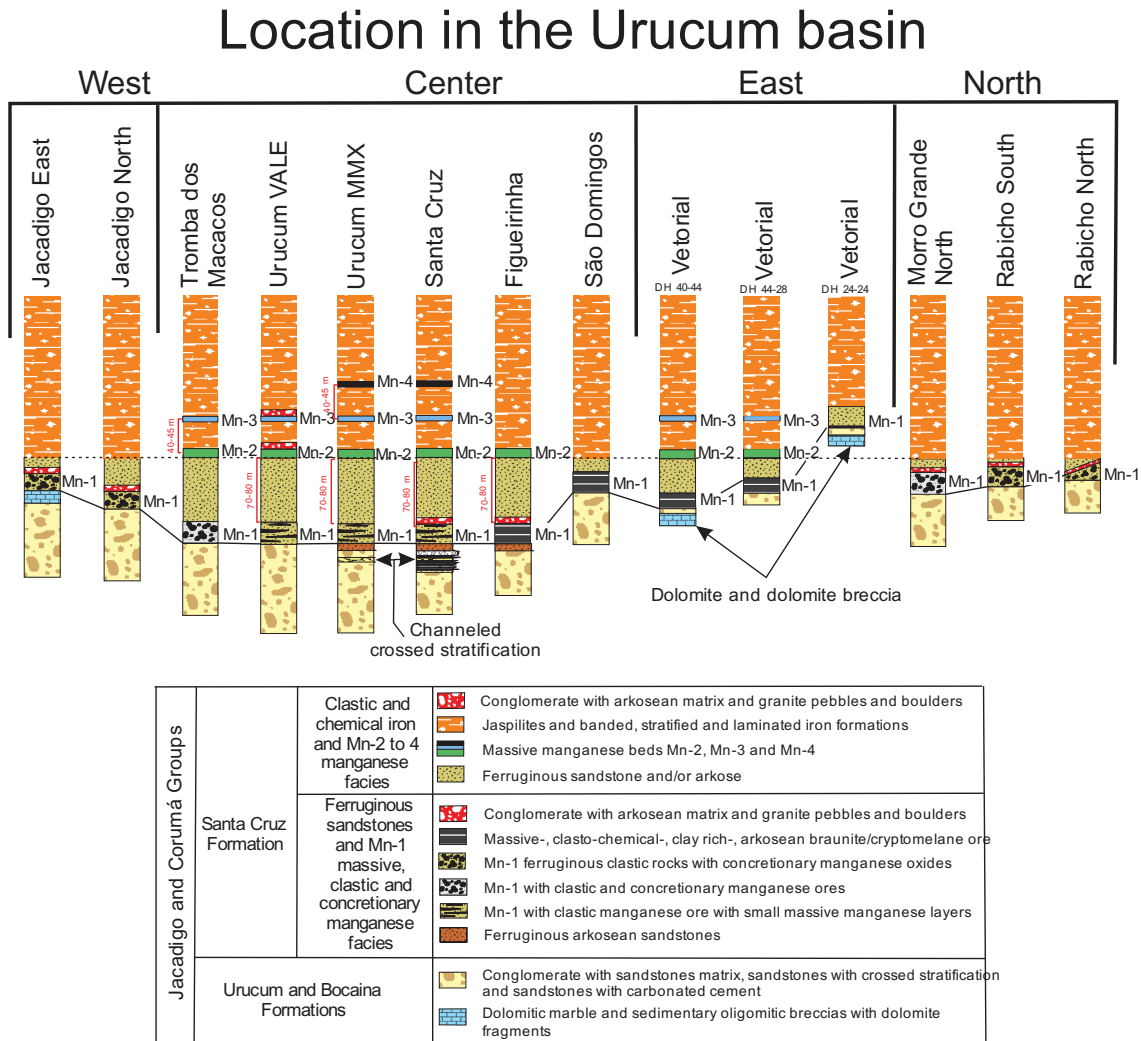
SI 1-Fig. Map and geological section of Urucum



SI 1-Fig. (A) Geological map (modified after Urban et al. 1992) and geological cross-section. Lines with an interpretation of the probable relative depth of the depocenter of the Urucum marginal basin, and the regional distribution of hydrothermalized granites were added to the map. (B) Lithostratigraphy of the Urucum mining region (modified after Biondi and Lopez 2017).

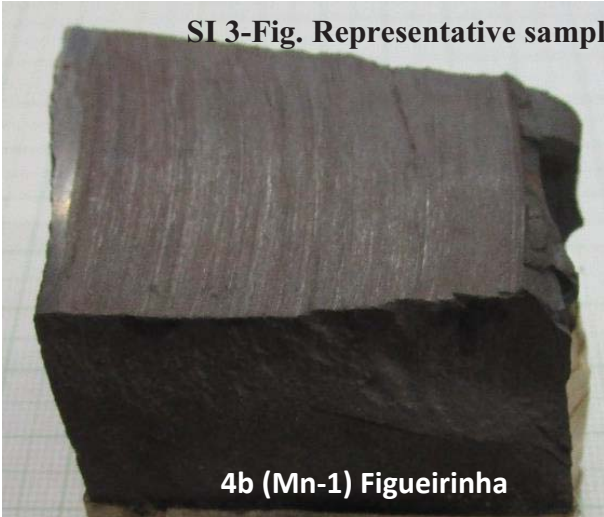


SI 2-Fig. Stratigraphic columns of the Jacadigo Group

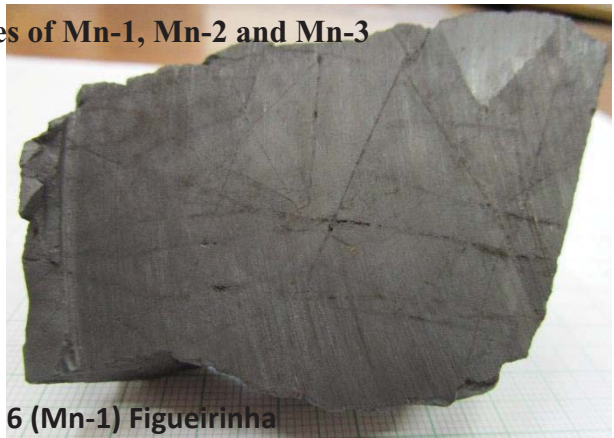


Stratigraphic columns of the Jacadigo Group, arranged from west to east passing through the basin depocenter. The stratigraphic columns of the Morro Grande Norte and Rabicho plateaus, located to the north of the basin, were positioned in the right part of the figure (modified after Urban et al. 1992, Biondi and Lopez 2017). The column elevations are normalized to the stratigraphic position of layer Mn-2 or, where this layer is absent, to the IF base.

SI 3-Fig. Representative samples of Mn-1, Mn-2 and Mn-3



4b (Mn-1) Figueirinha



6 (Mn-1) Figueirinha



7 (Mn-1) Figueirinha



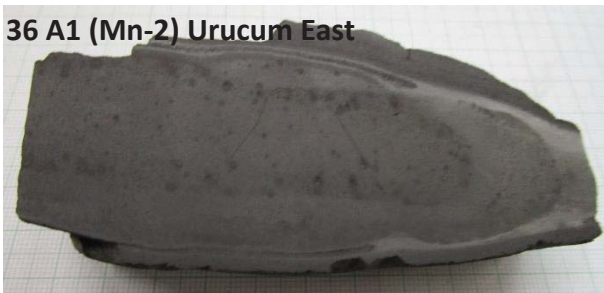
10 (Mn-1)  
Figueirinha



32 (Mn-1) Sao Domingos



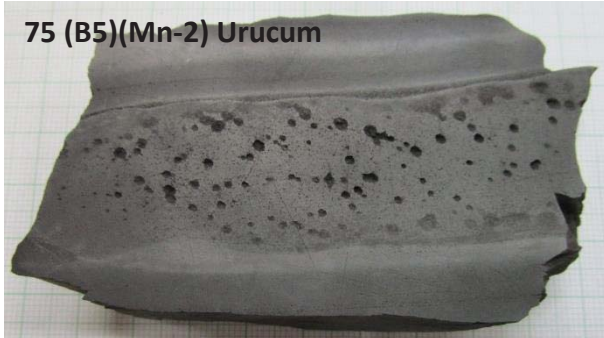
31 (Mn-1)  
São Domingos



36 A1 (Mn-2) Urucum East



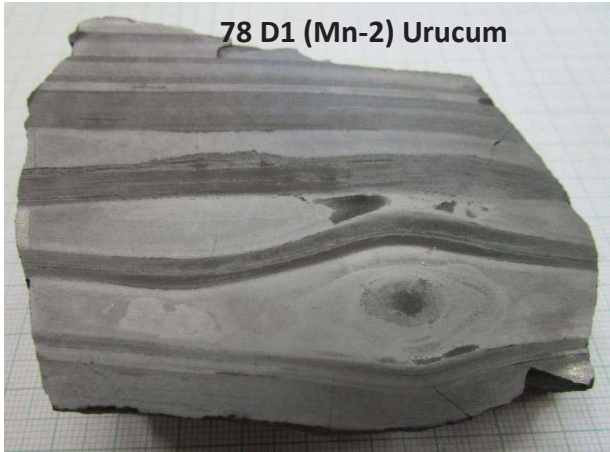
75-2 (Mn-2) Urucum West



75 (B5)(Mn-2) Urucum



78 F3 (Mn-2) Urucum

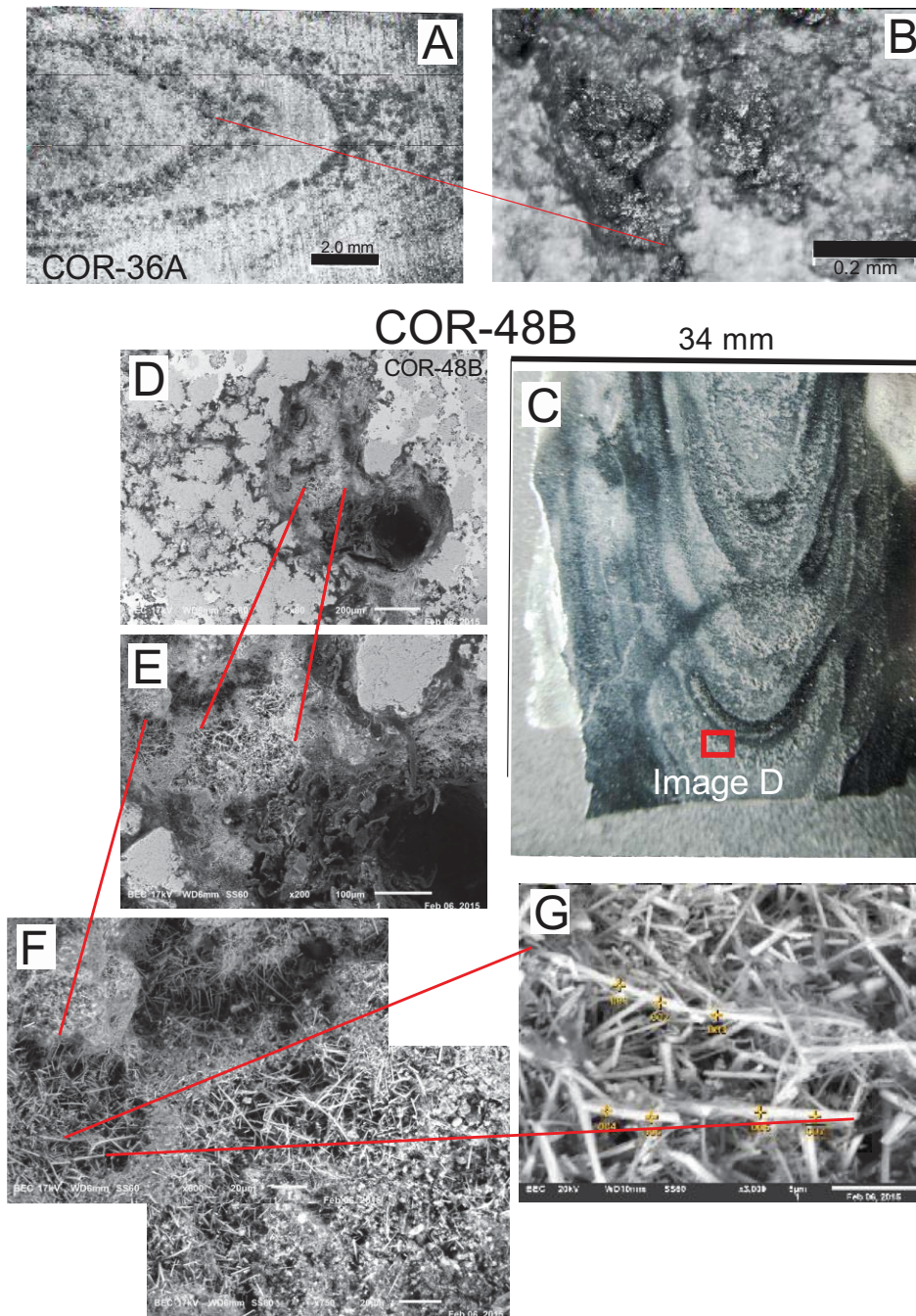


Cut samples

For details see Fig. 1-3 and Table 2.

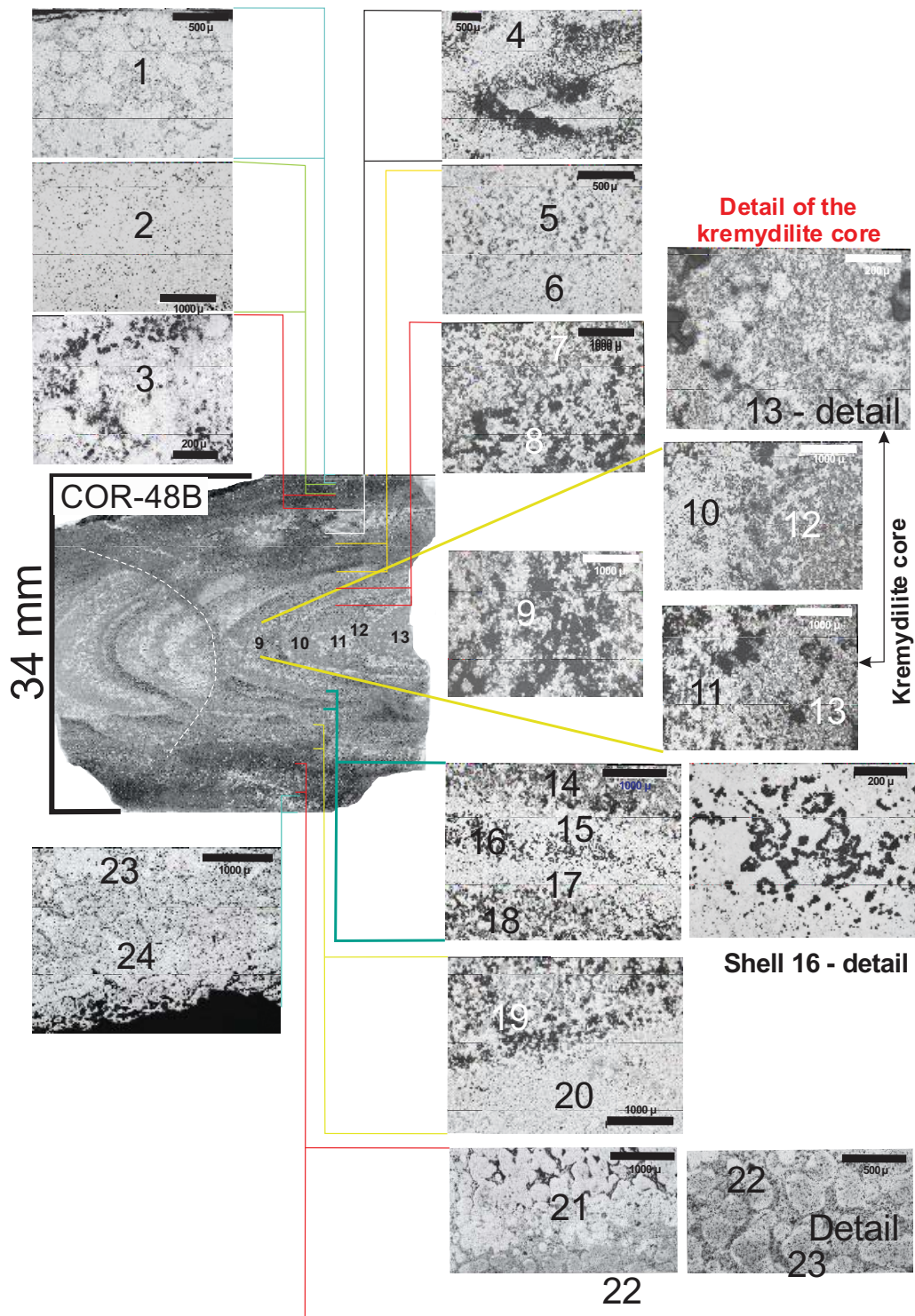
Scale: 1 cm

### SI 4-Fig. Pores and micro-channels in kremydilites



Pores and micro-channels in kremydilites. (A) A set of pores that delineate the micro-layers that surround the nucleus. (B) Pores covered by acicular microcrystals of cryptomelane. (C-G) Micro-channels enveloped by acicular microcrystals of cryptomelane (image C = polished section; images D to G obtained with SEM - Scanning Electron Microscopy)(Biondi and Lopez 2017)

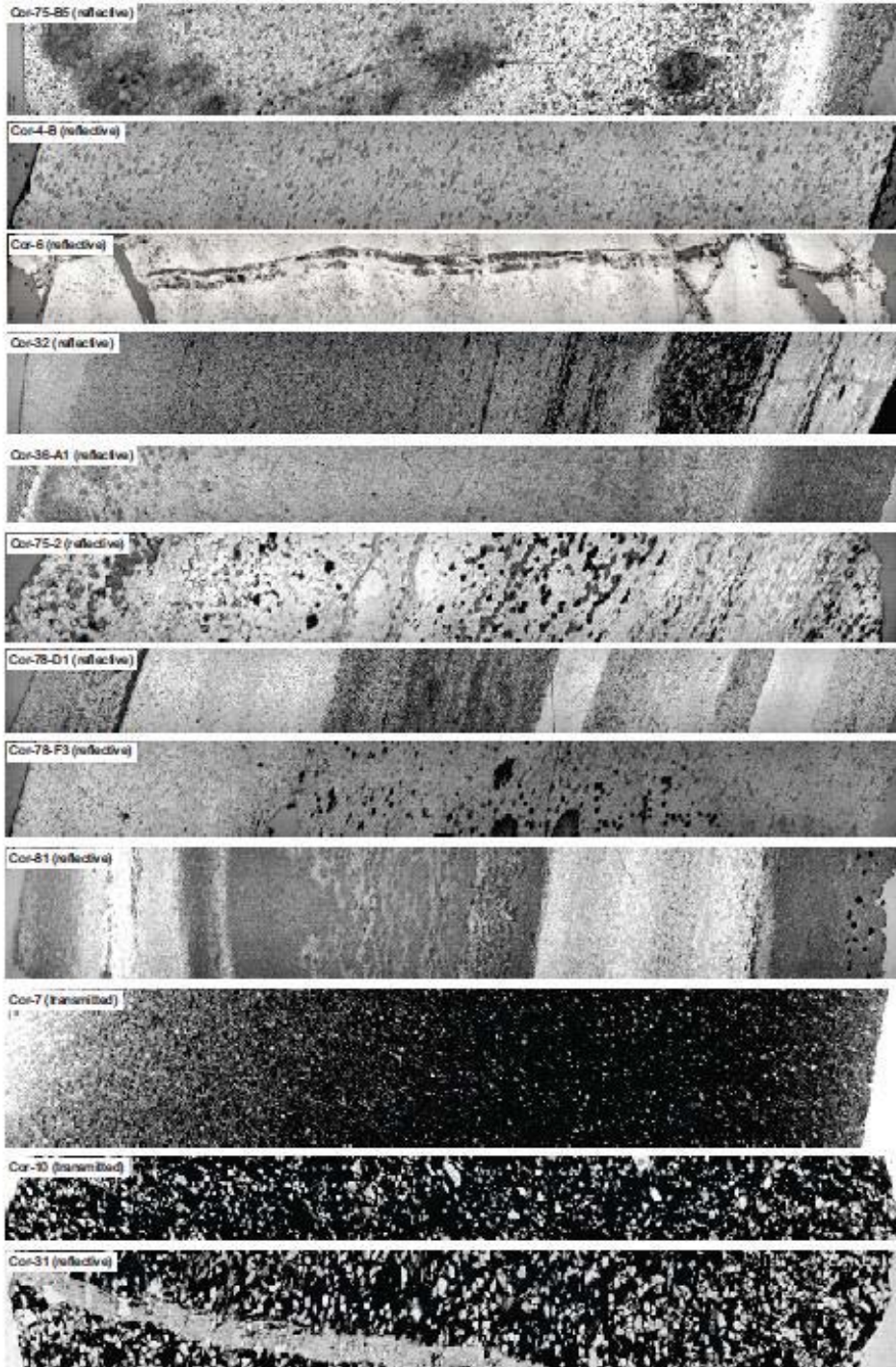
SI 5-Fig. Structure of kremydilite



Polished section of the sample 48B showing the bands or sheets of Mn-3 layer in between kremydilite formed (zones 1, 2, 3, and 20 up to 24). Surrounding the core are the most distant concentric micro-layers, shells (shells 4, 5, 6 and 14 to 18) and the nearest ones (shells 9, 10 and 11). Shells 12 and 13 are in the core of the structure. See text for details (Biondi and Lopez 2017).

The curved and undulating layers (bands) in which kremydilite formed are composed of flakes whose diameters ranged from 0.8 to 0.2 mm (SI 5-Fig, zones 1, 2, 3; and zones 20 to 24), apparently composed by the amalgamation of flakes, micronodules smaller than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 4K). The outermost zones (shells) of kremydilite (SI 5-Fig, shells 4, 5, 6, and 14 to 18) consist of anhedral and irregularly shaped minerals, looking like amalgamated flakes. In these shells the presence of ring-like structures, composed of dark carbonate microcrystals are common (SI 5-Fig, shell 16 - detail image). The shells closer to the nucleus (9, 10 and 11) are also composed of mixed anhedral, metallic minerals, but with larger dimensions than the anterior shells. The nucleus of the kremydilites (zones 12 and 13) are microgranular and with homogeneous appearances.

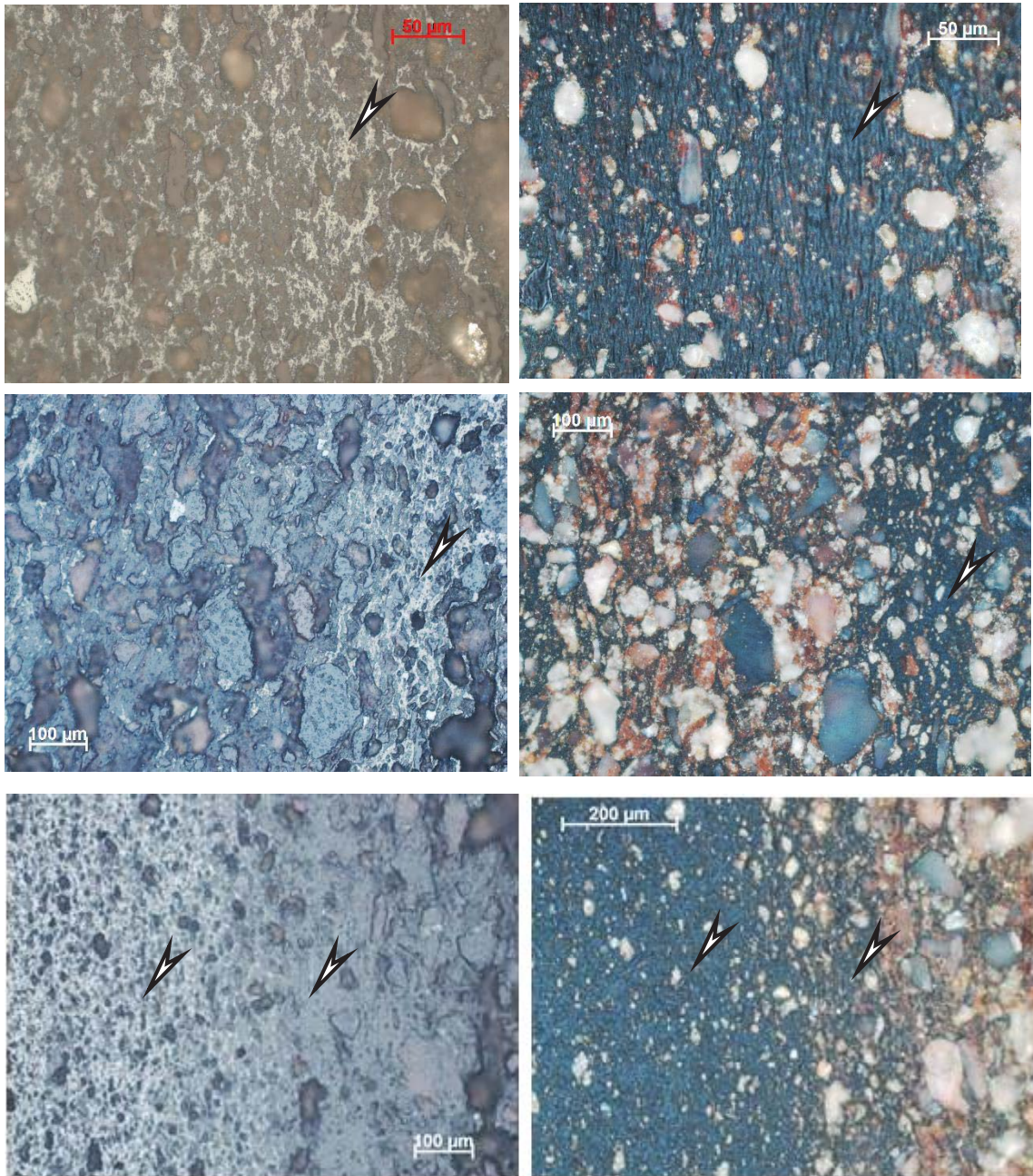
SI 6-Fig. Panorama images of the analyzed samples



SI 7-Fig. Biomat structures of representative samples (arrows)

Optical rock microscopy, reflected light, 1 Nicol (left side) and crossed Nicols (right side)

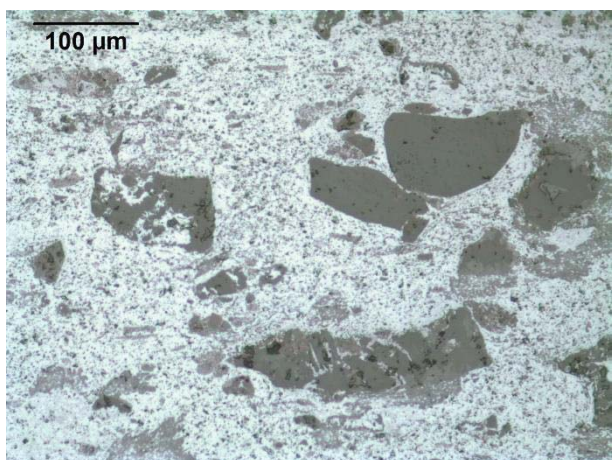
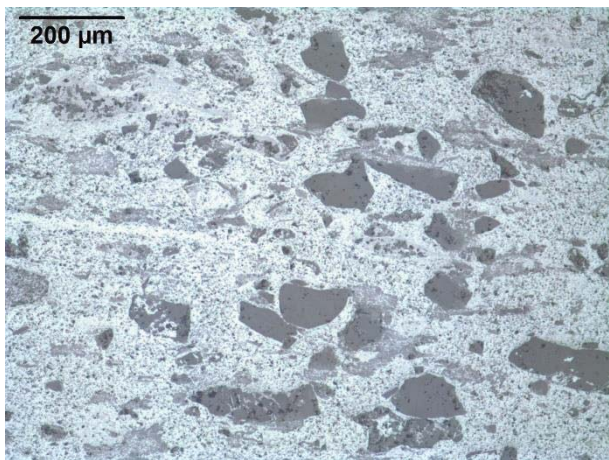
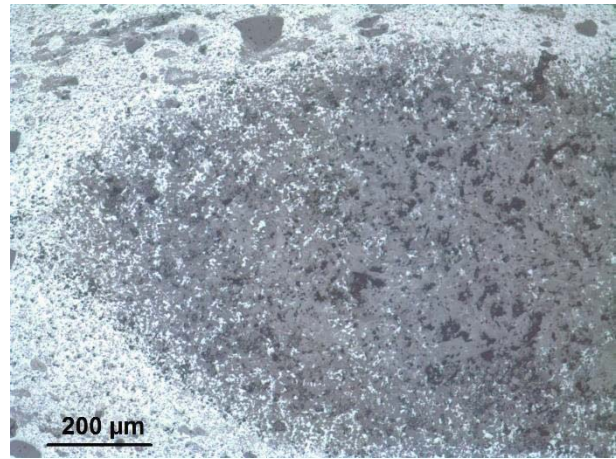
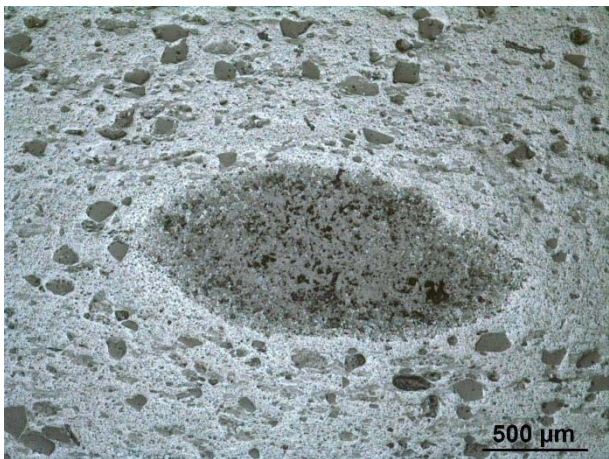
Sample 32



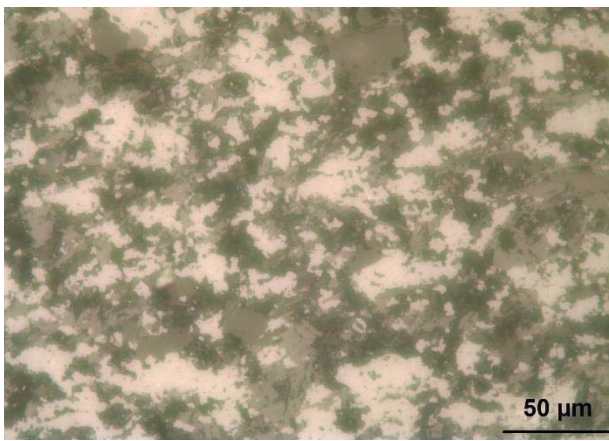
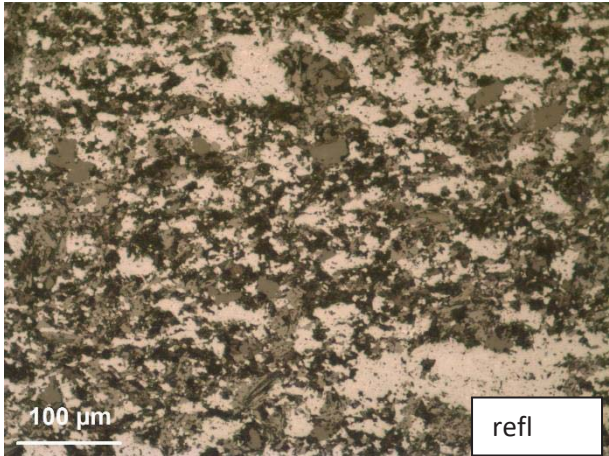
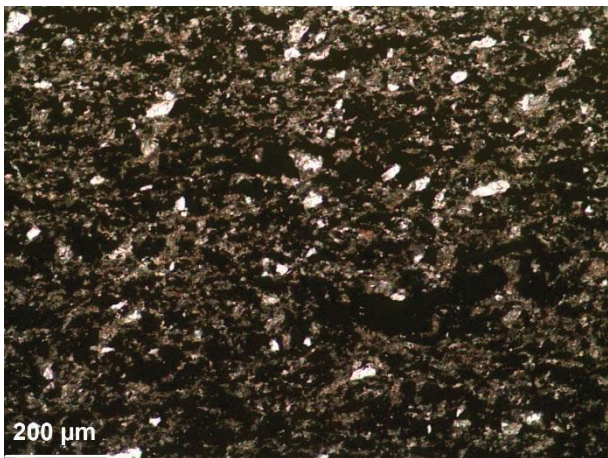
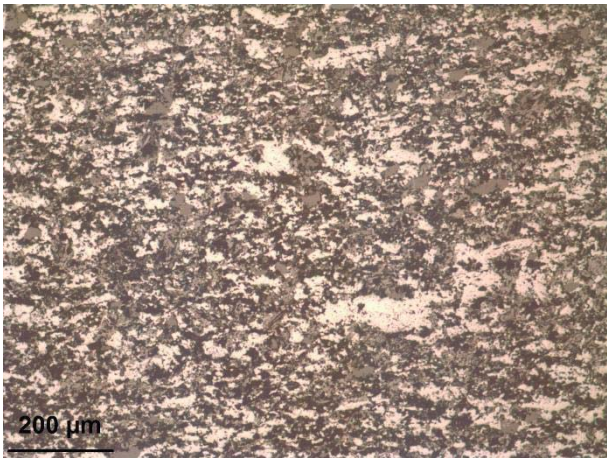
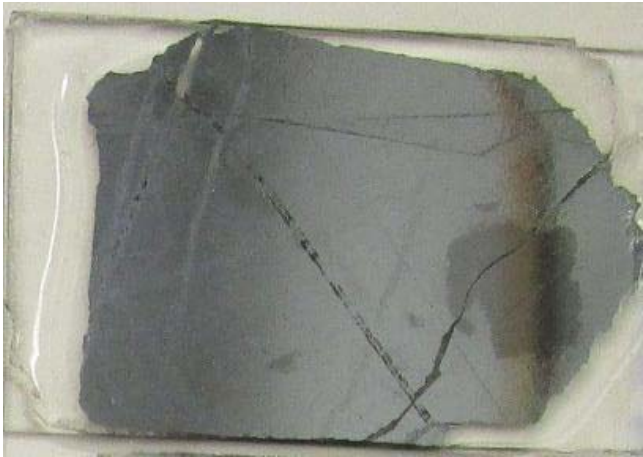


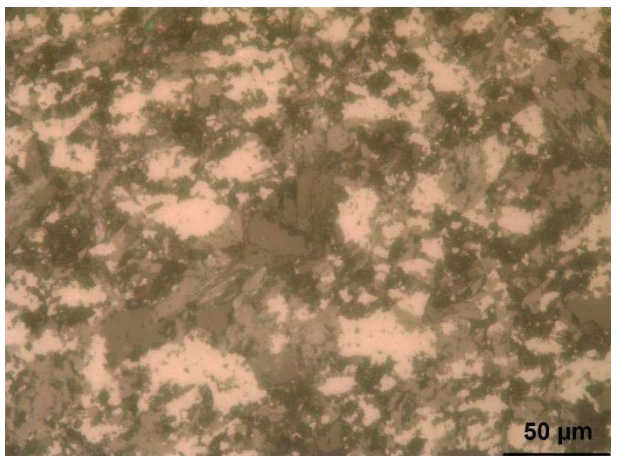
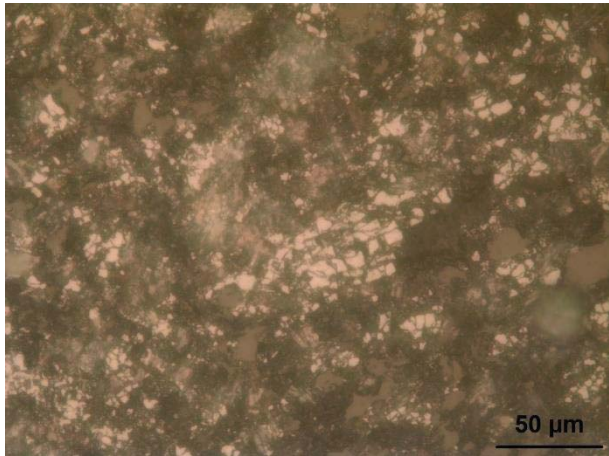
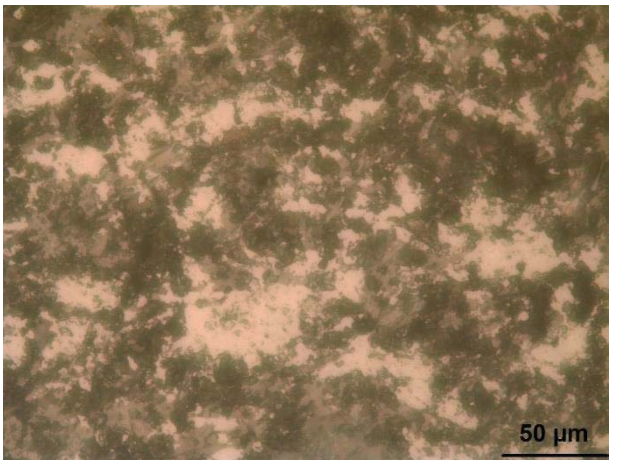
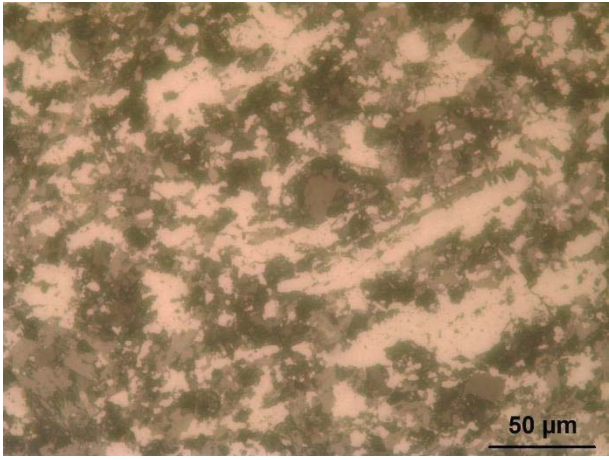
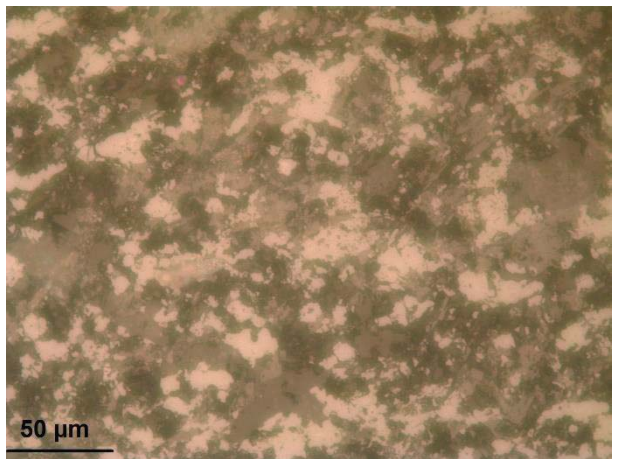
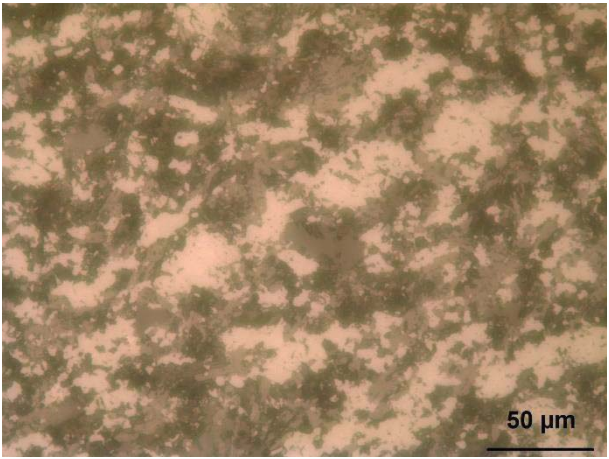
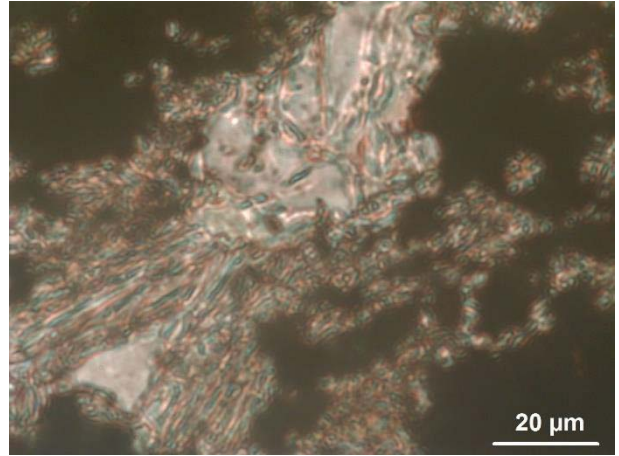
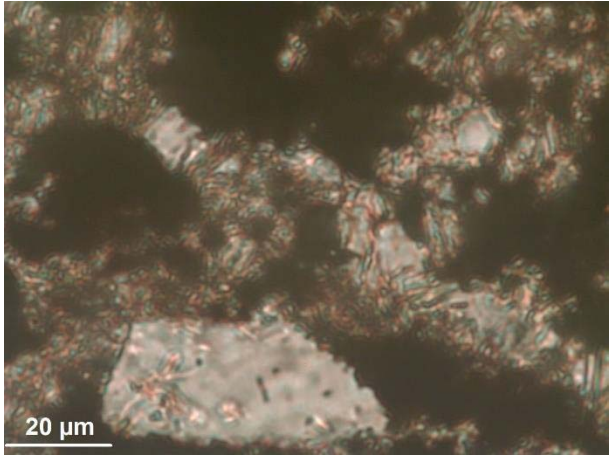
SI 8-Fig. Microtexture of samples by optical rock microscopy

Sample 4B

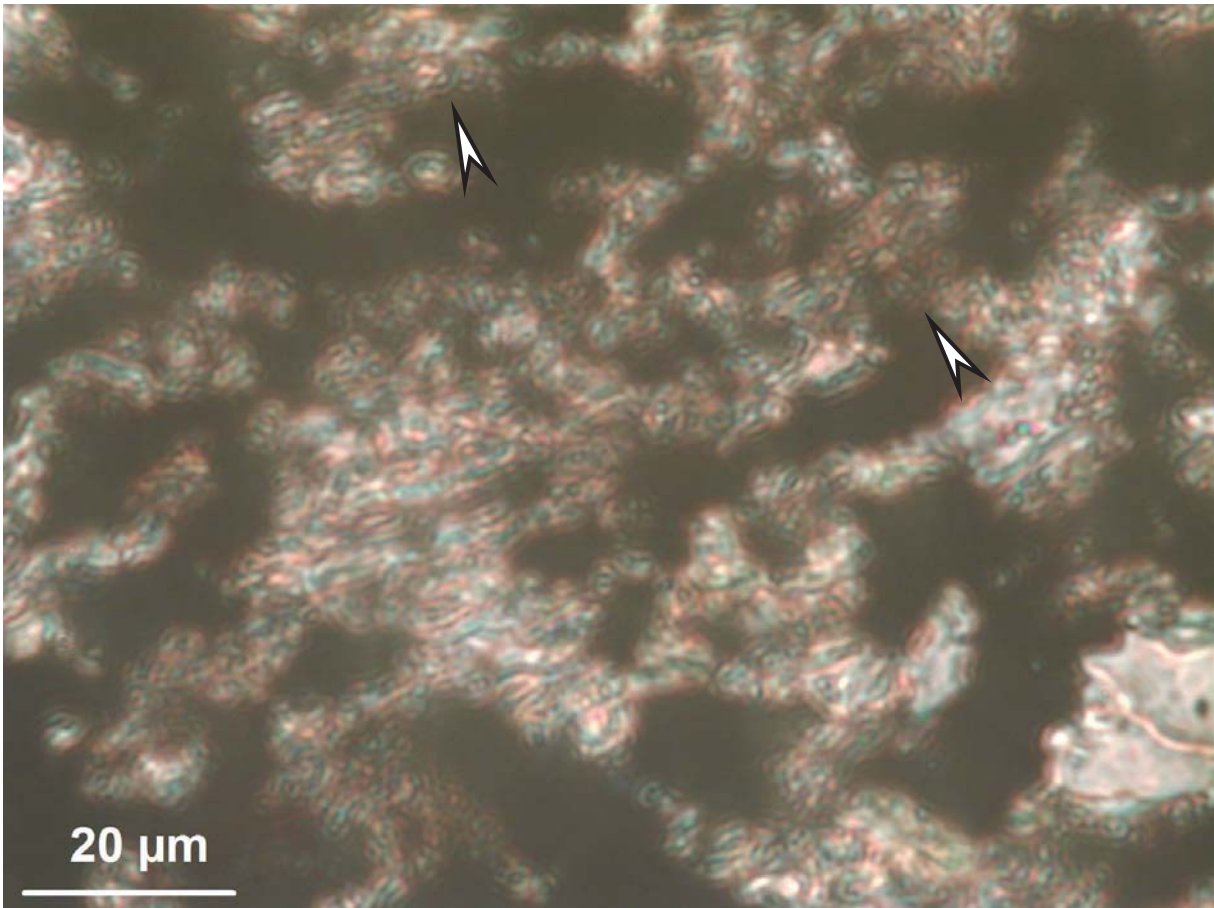
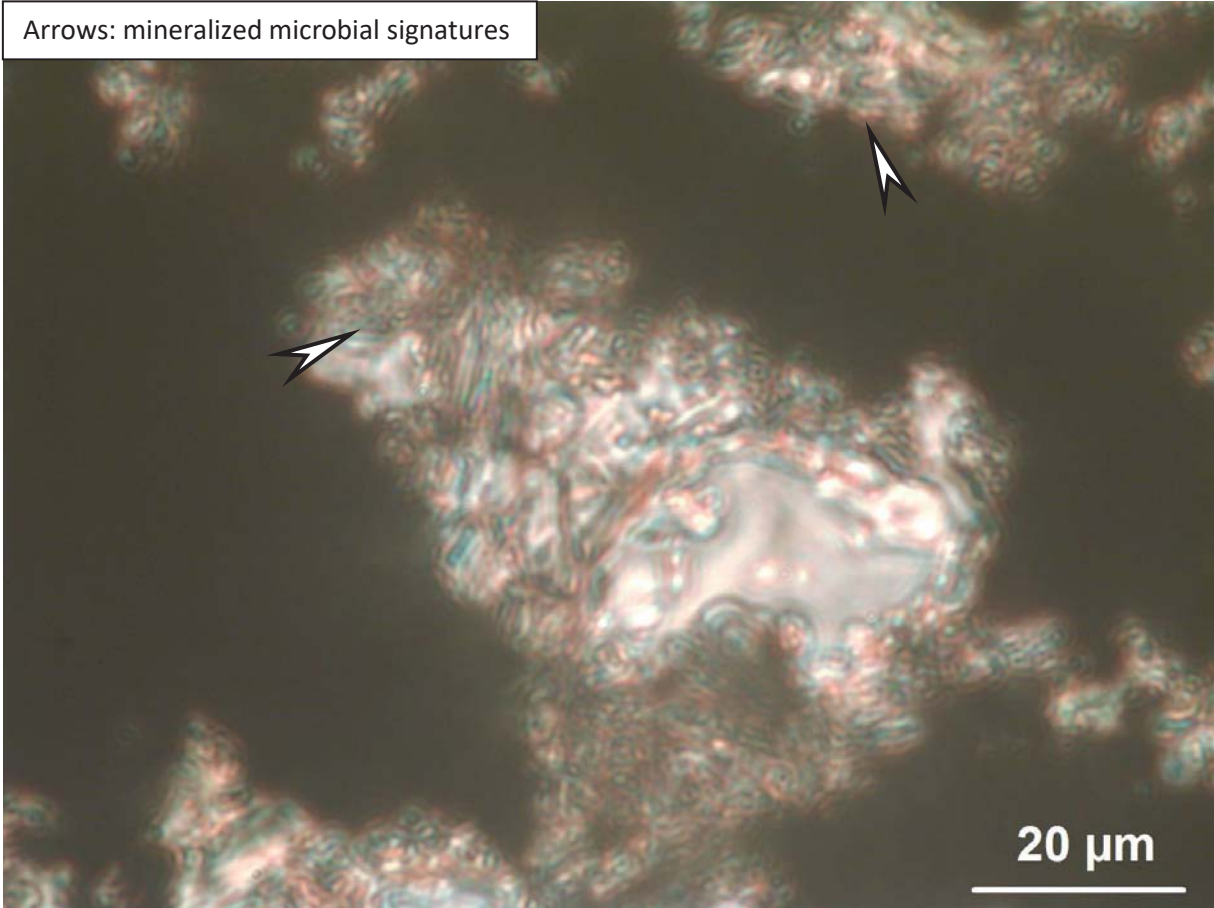


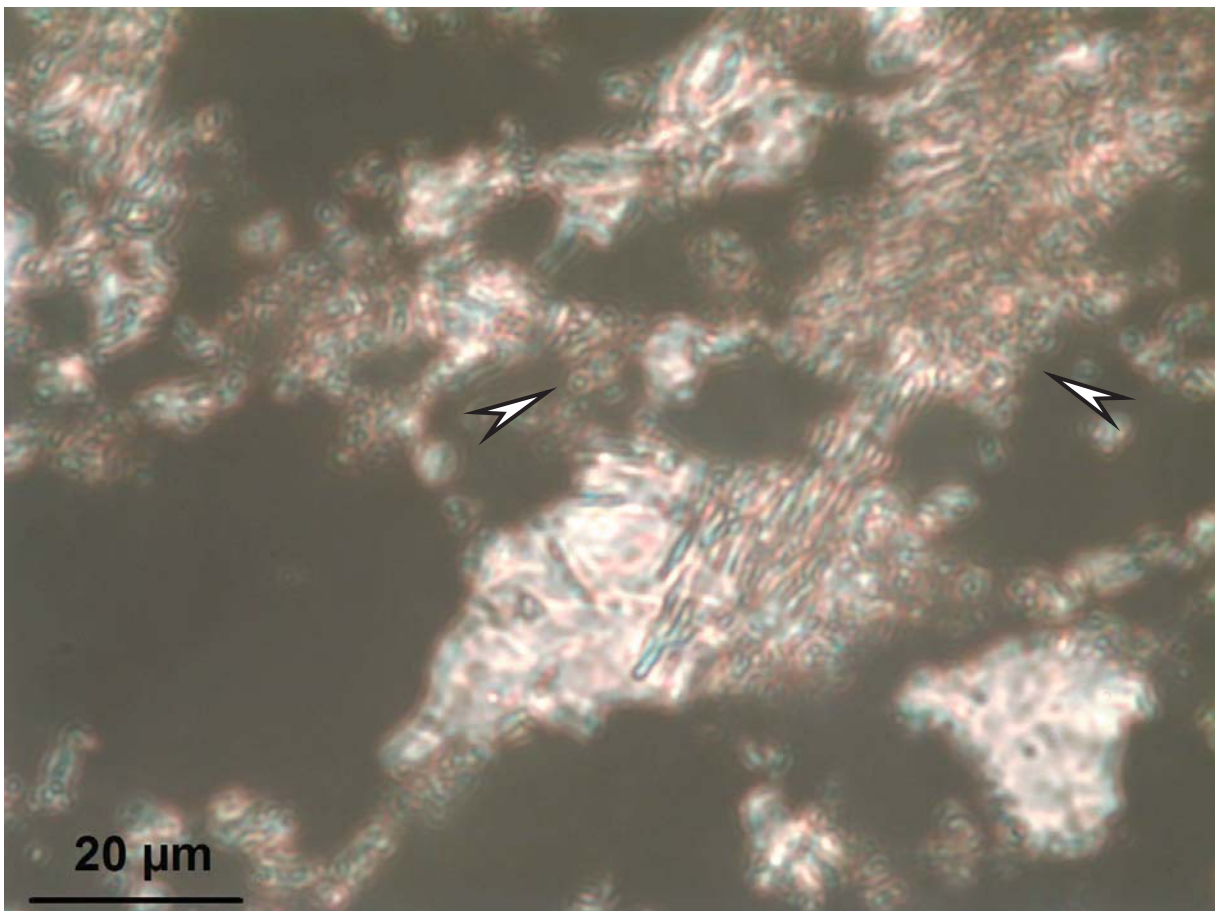
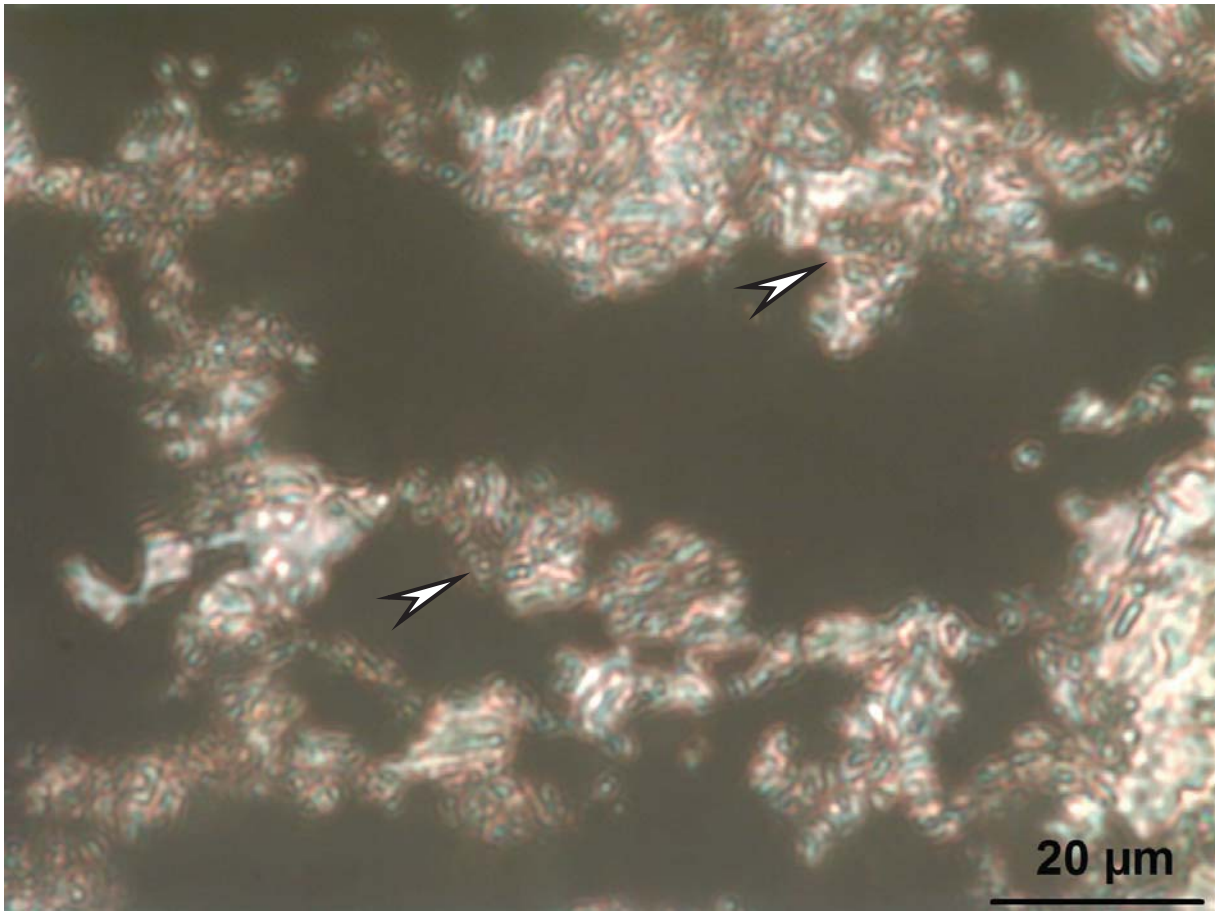
Sample 7

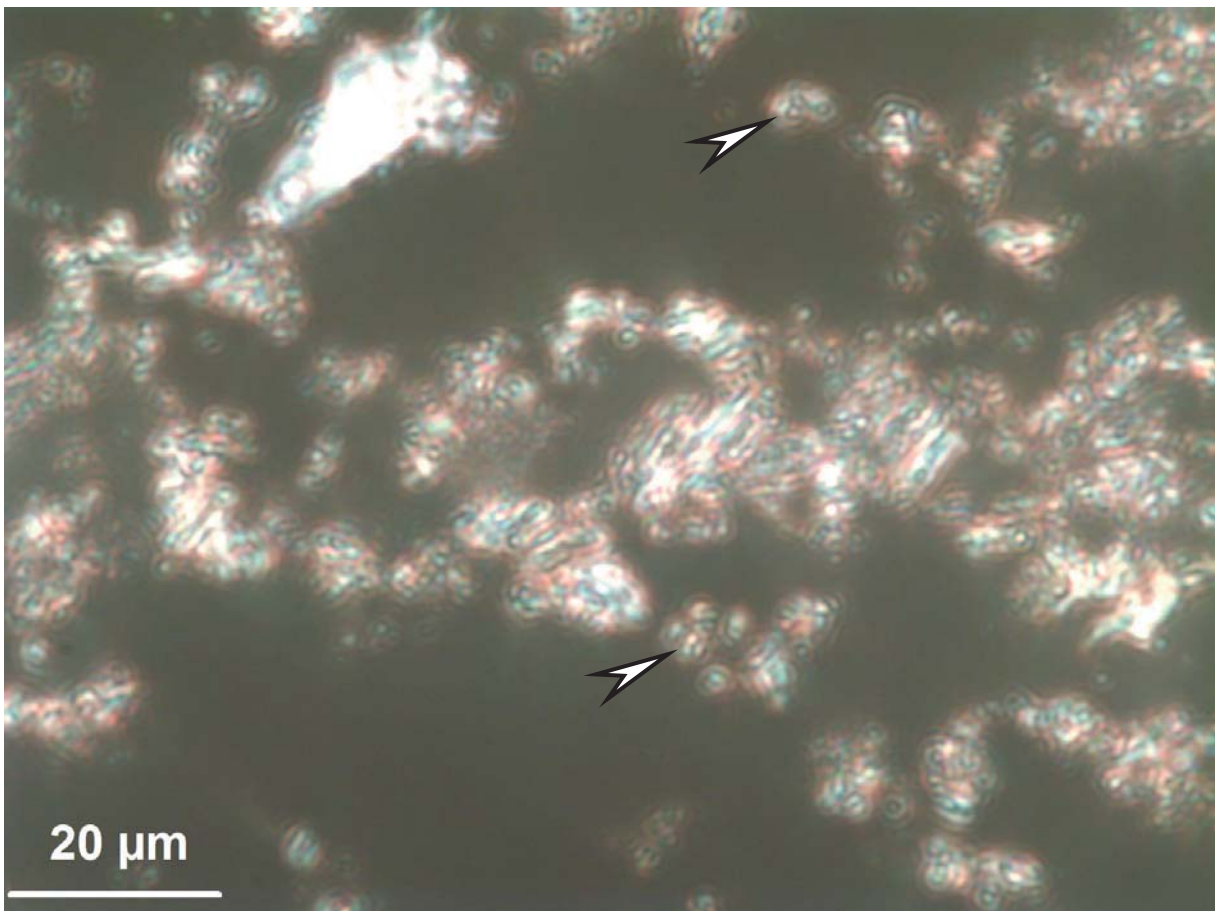
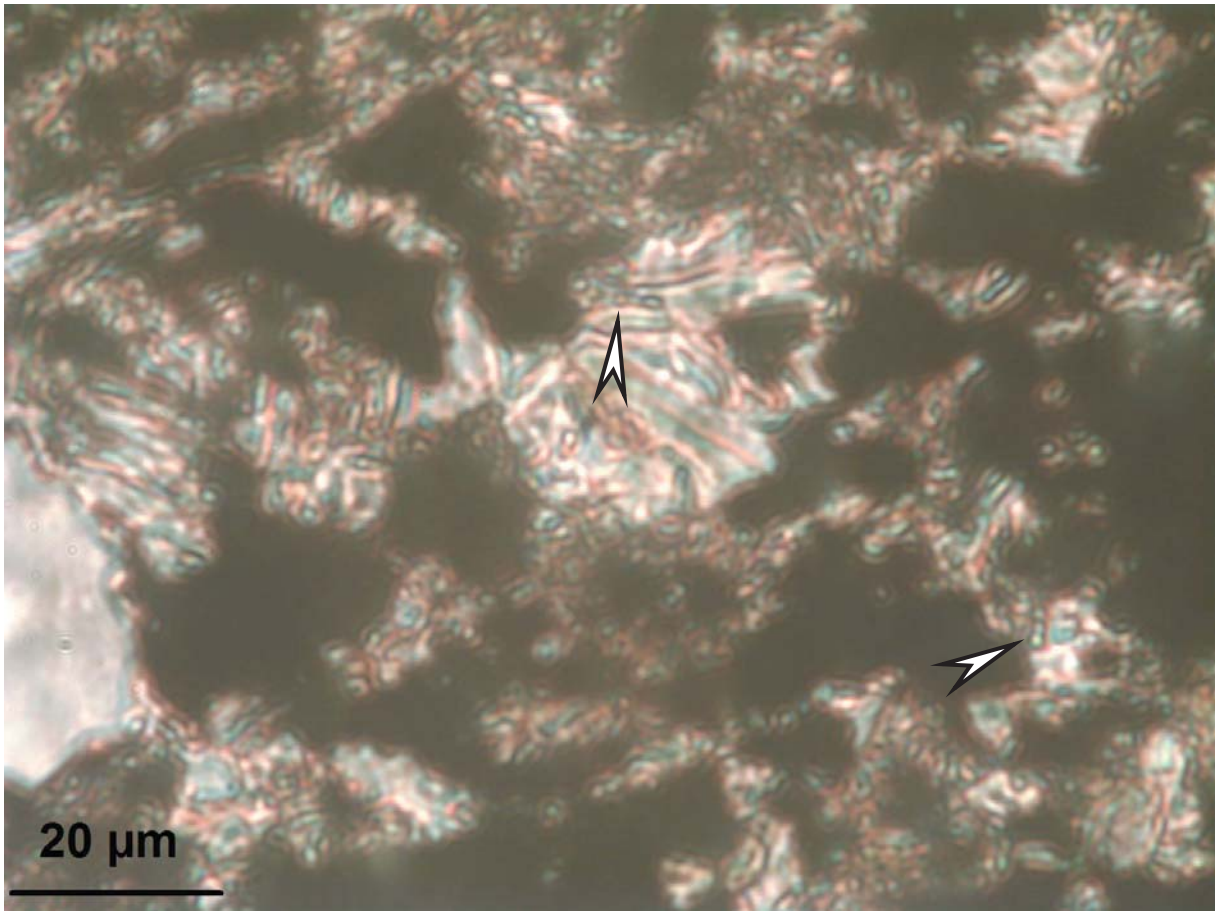


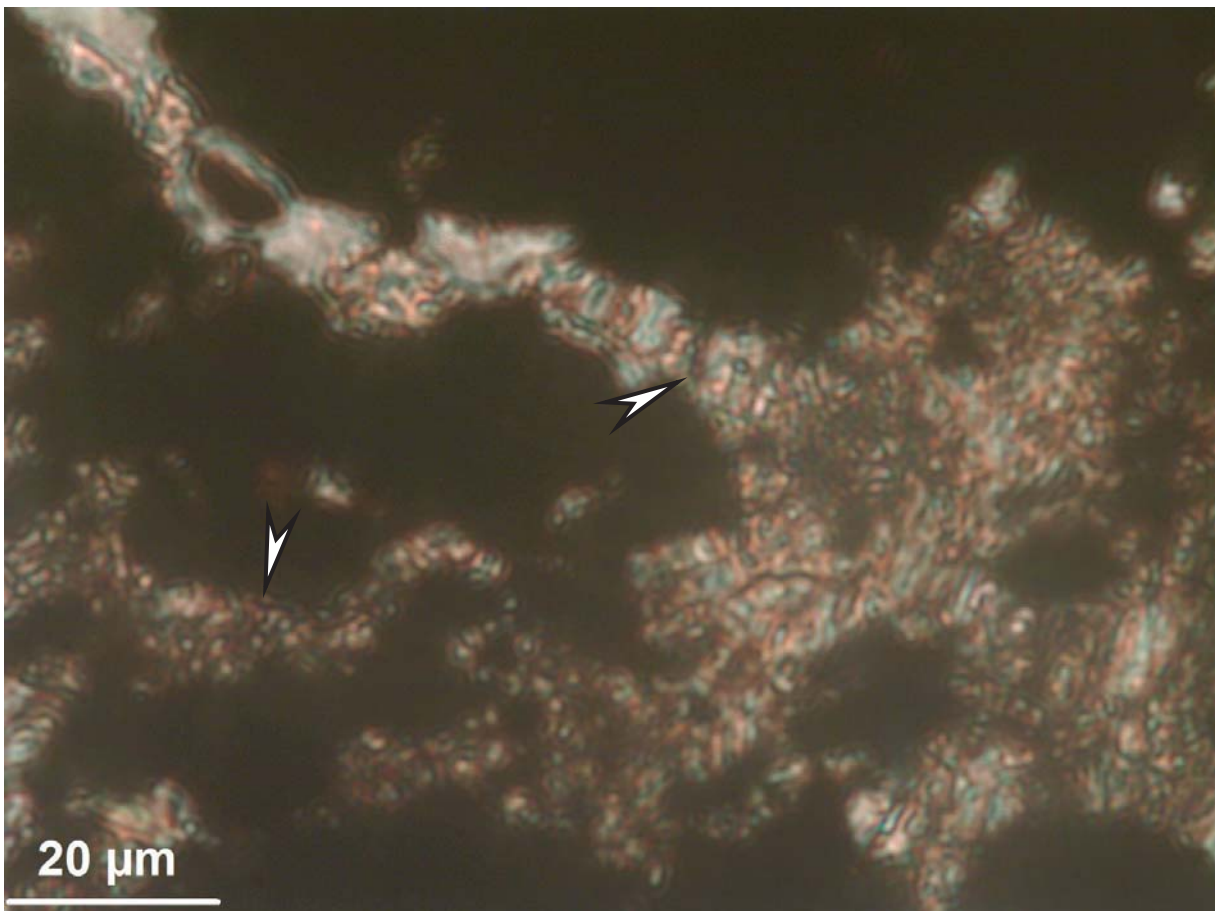
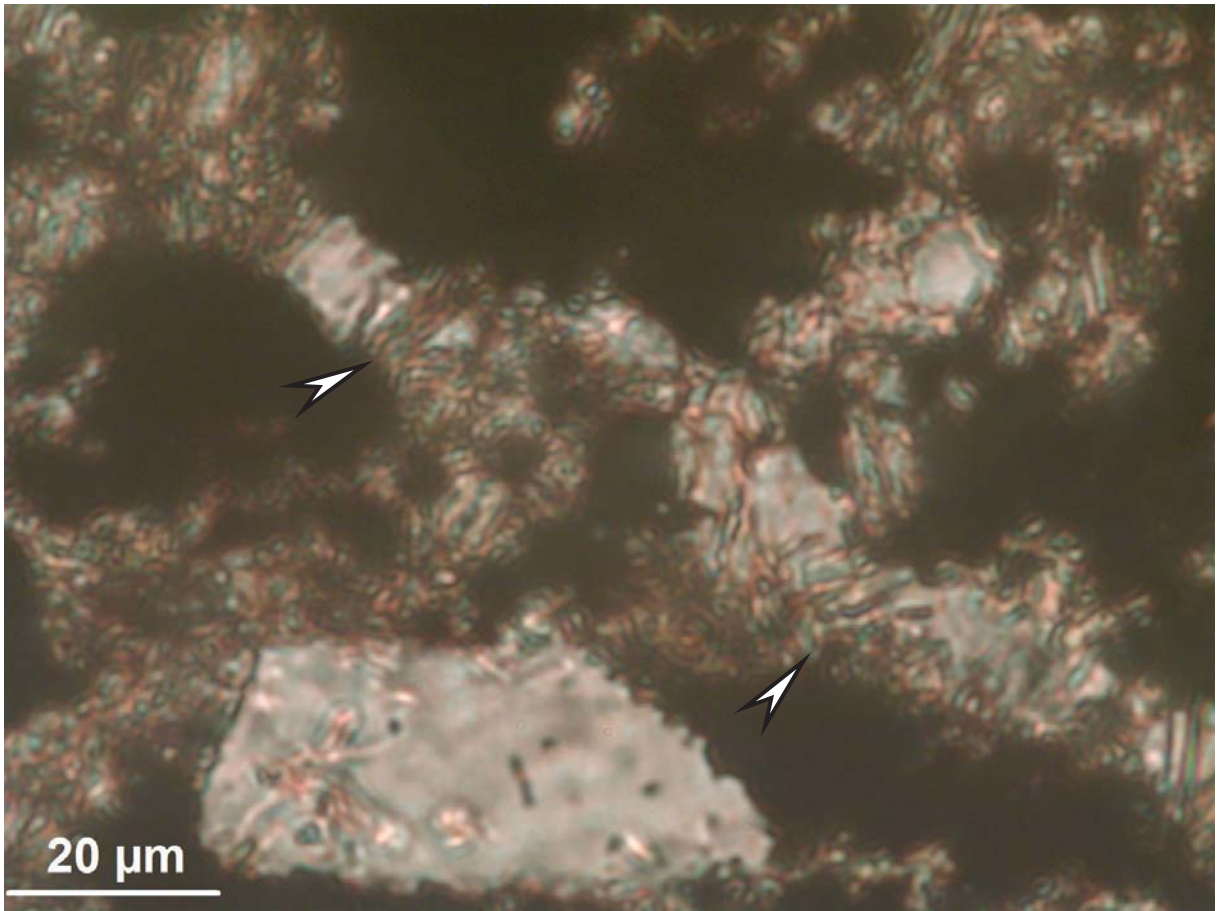


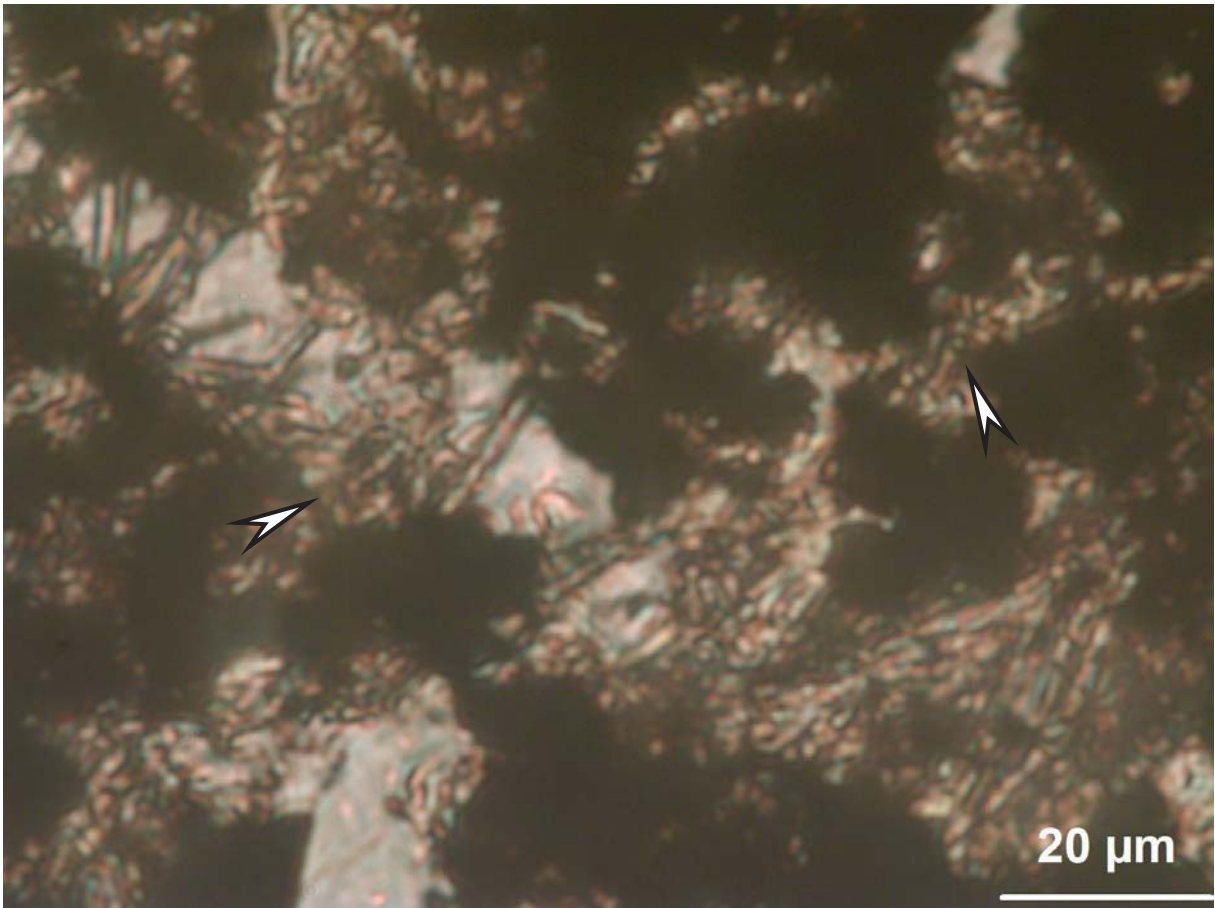
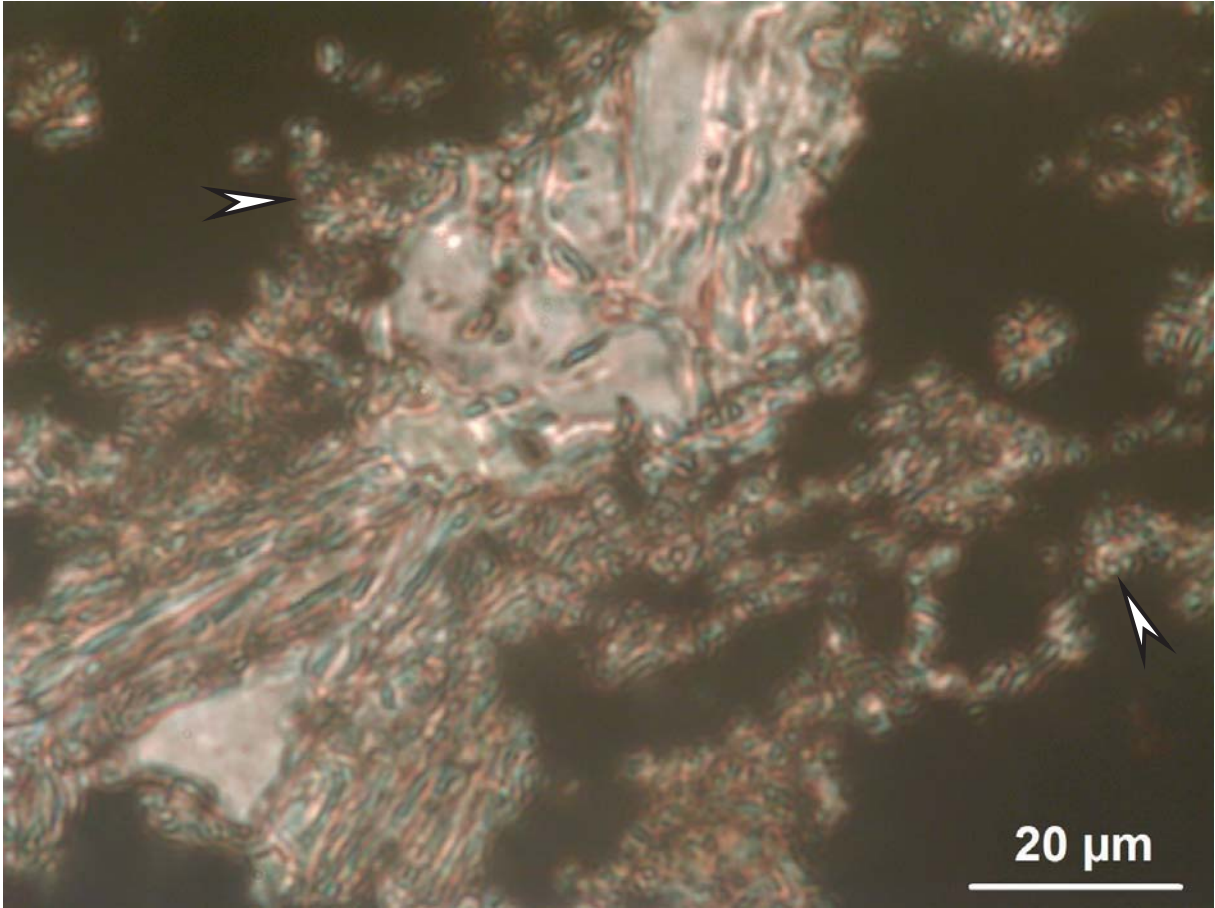
Arrows: mineralized microbial signatures





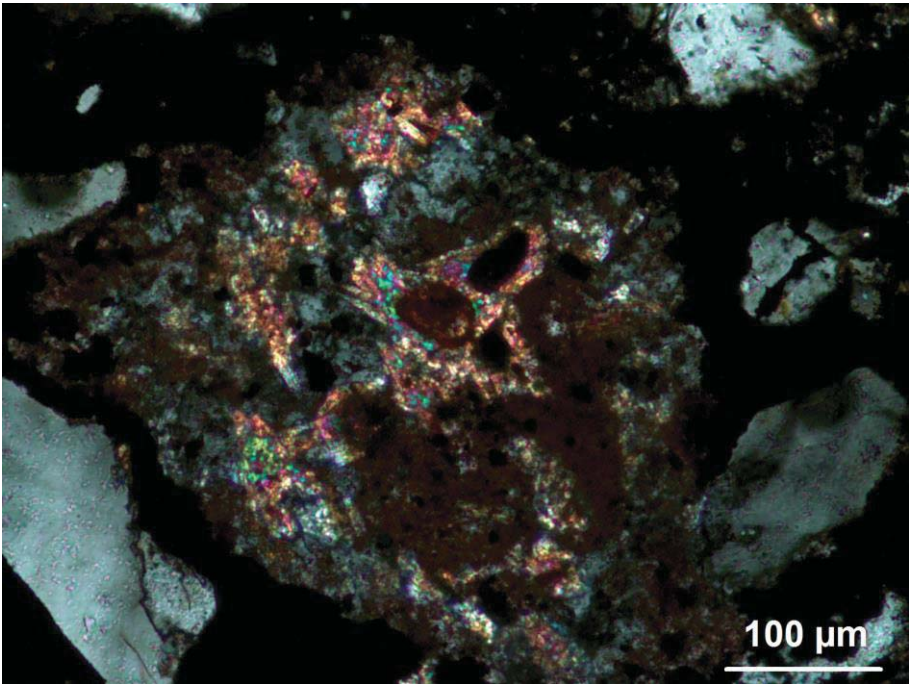
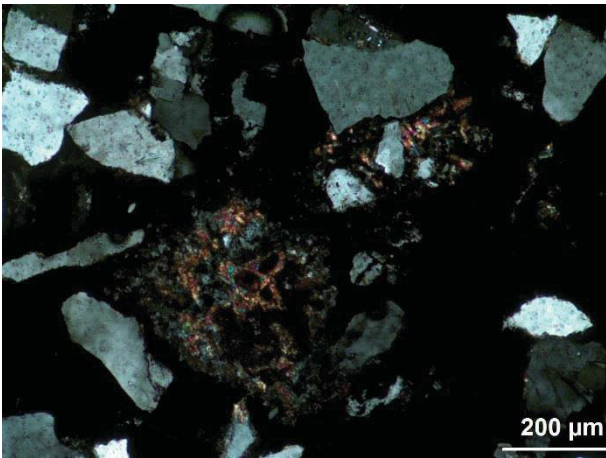
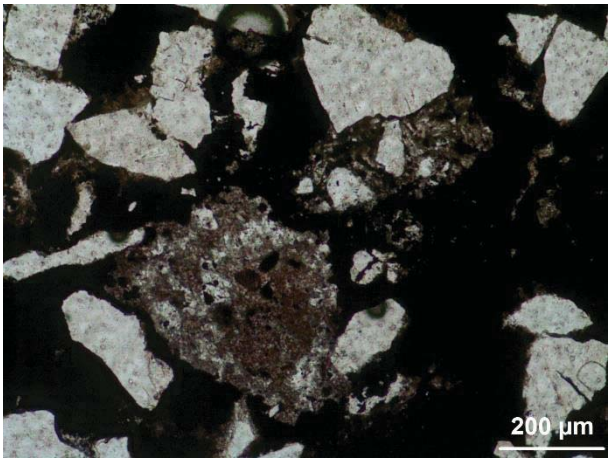


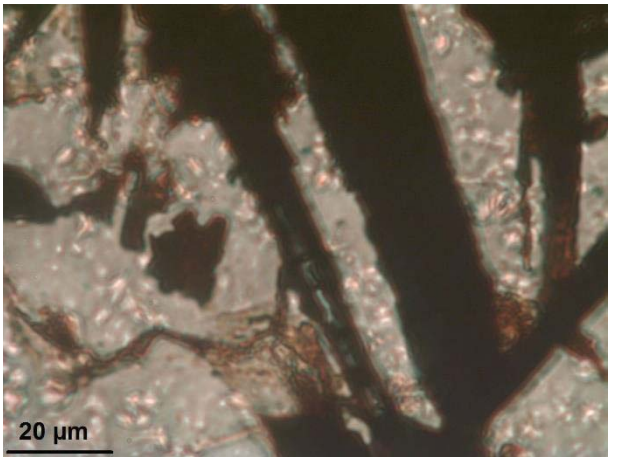
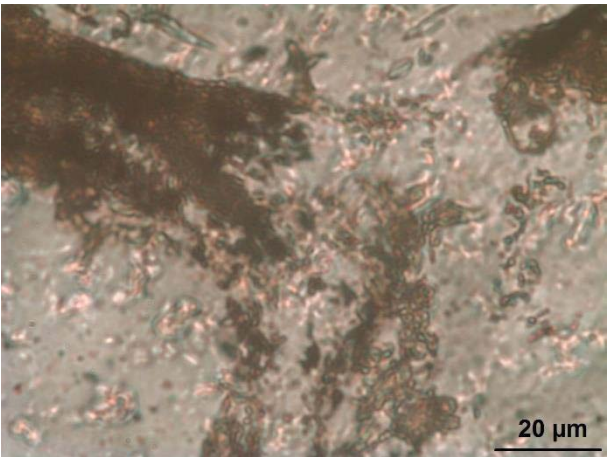
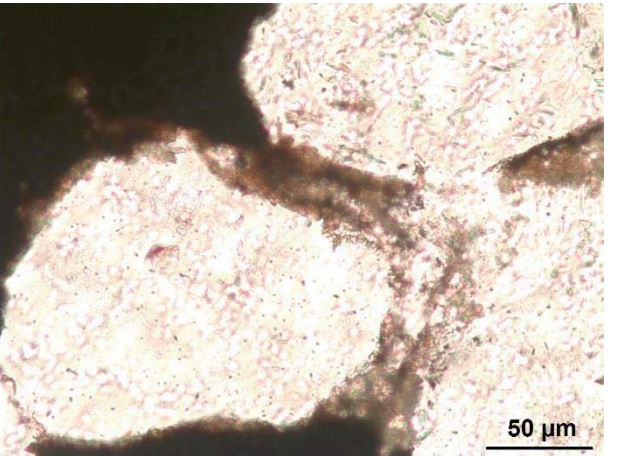
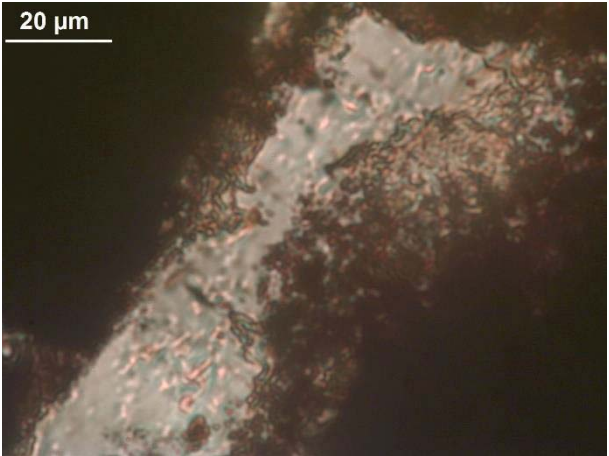
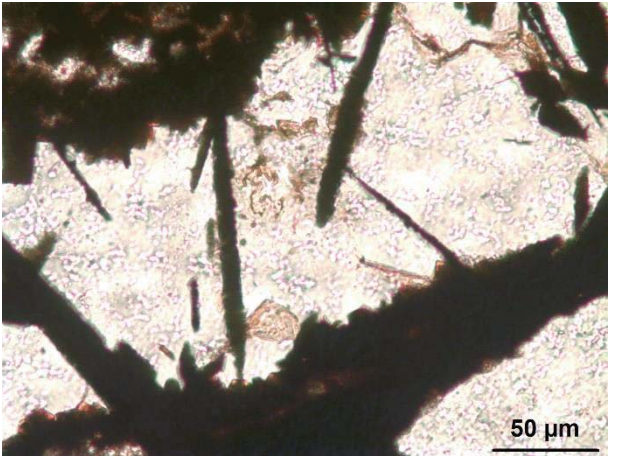
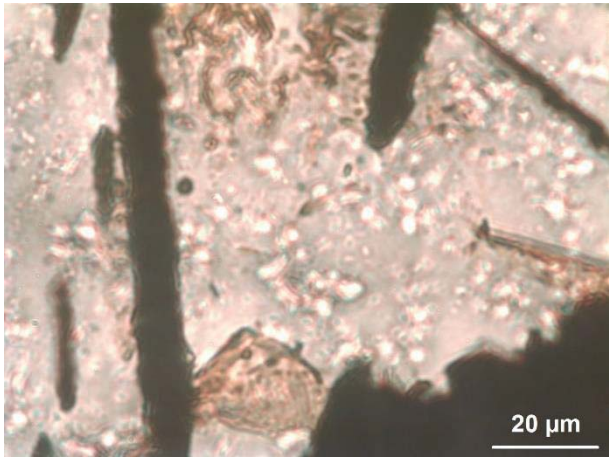
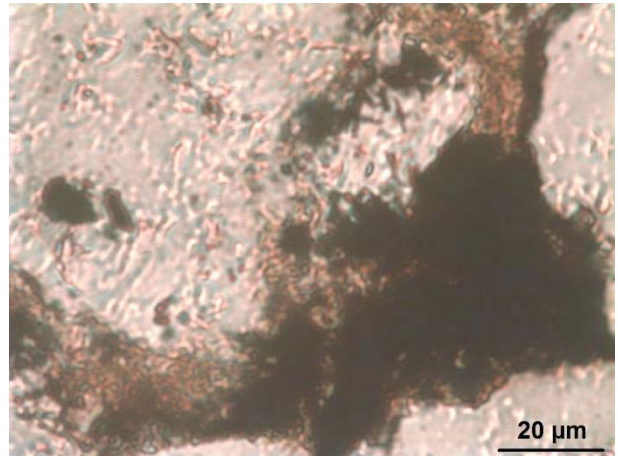


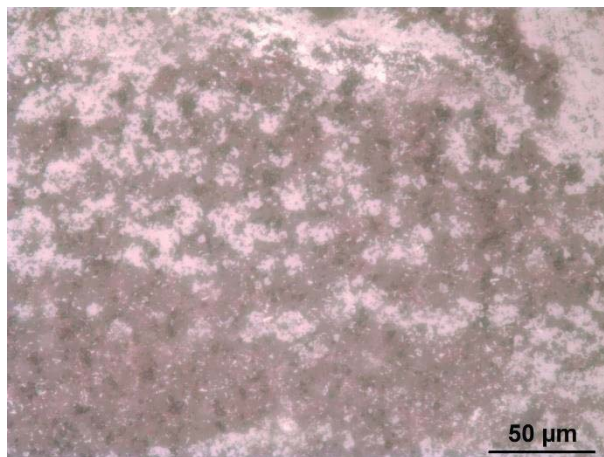
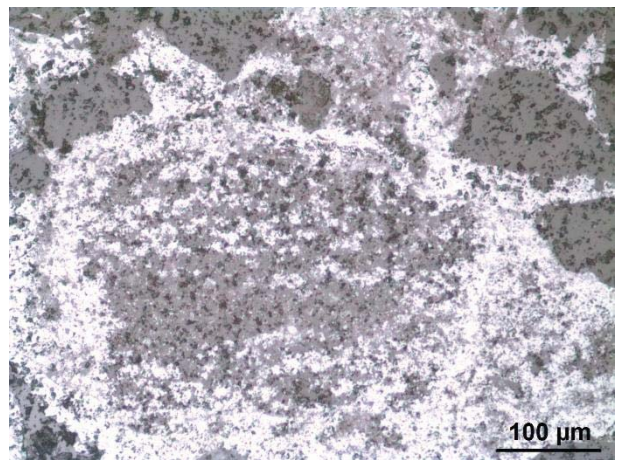
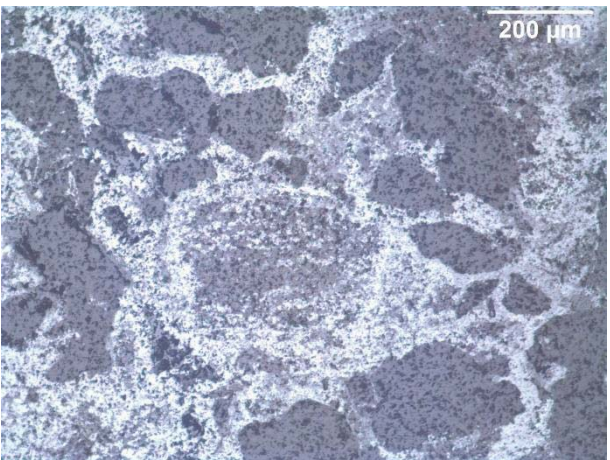
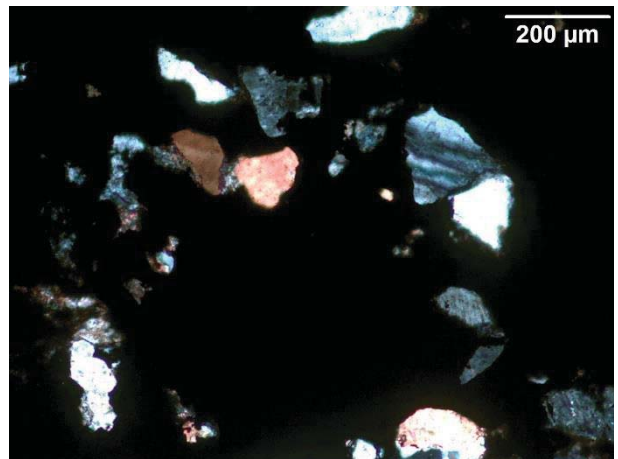
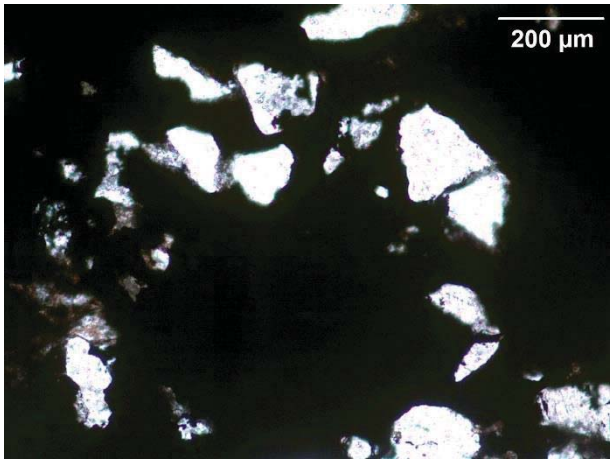
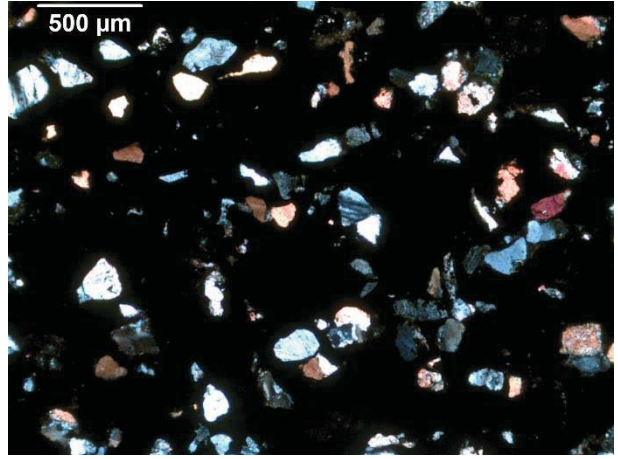
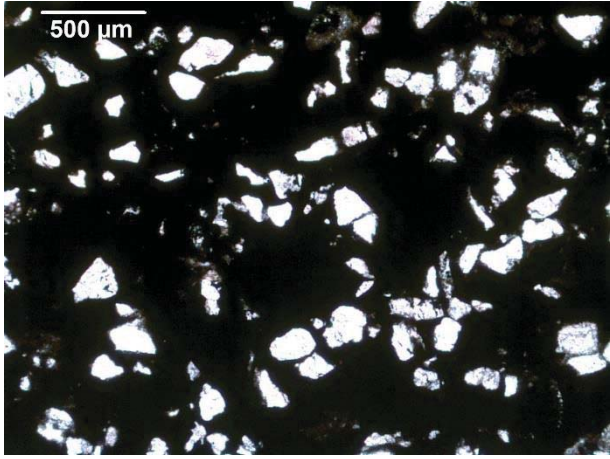


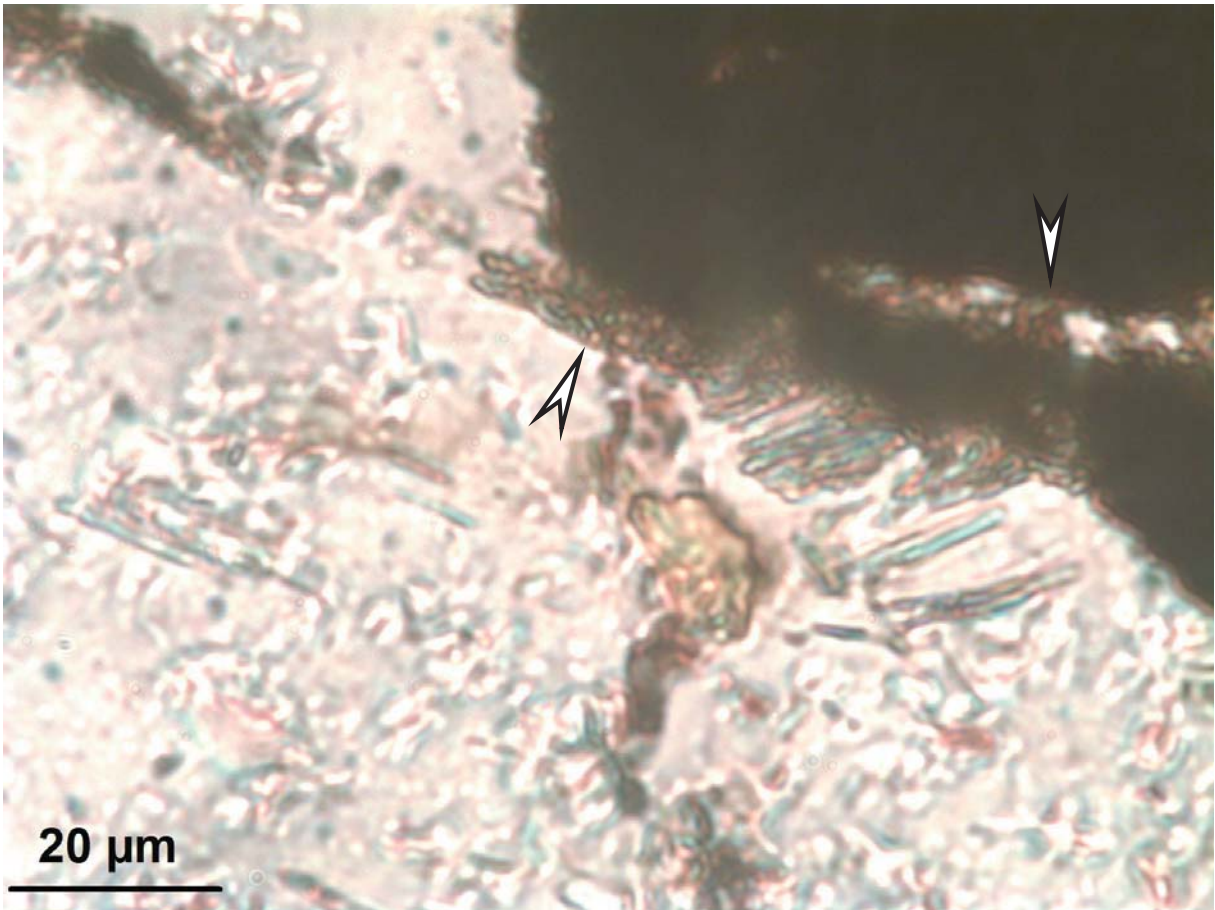
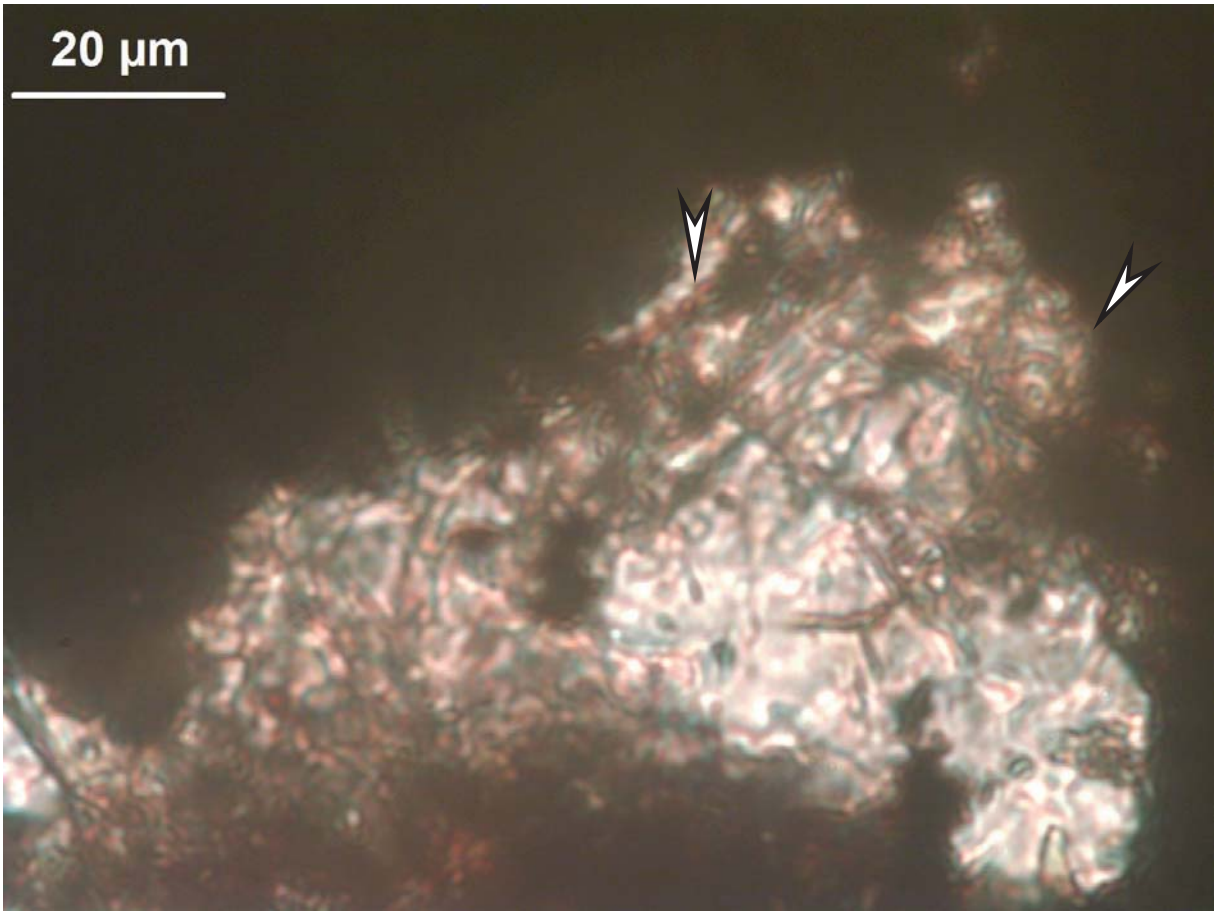


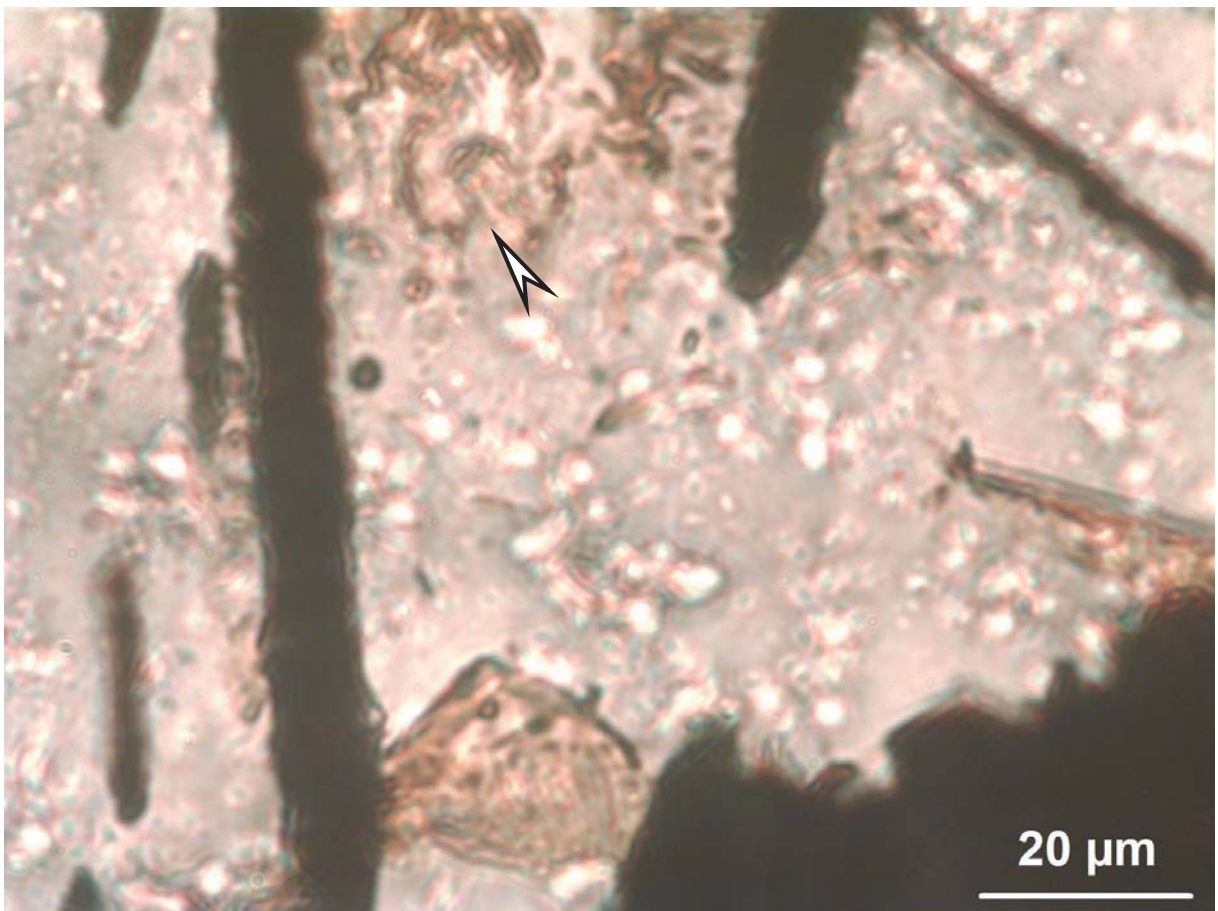
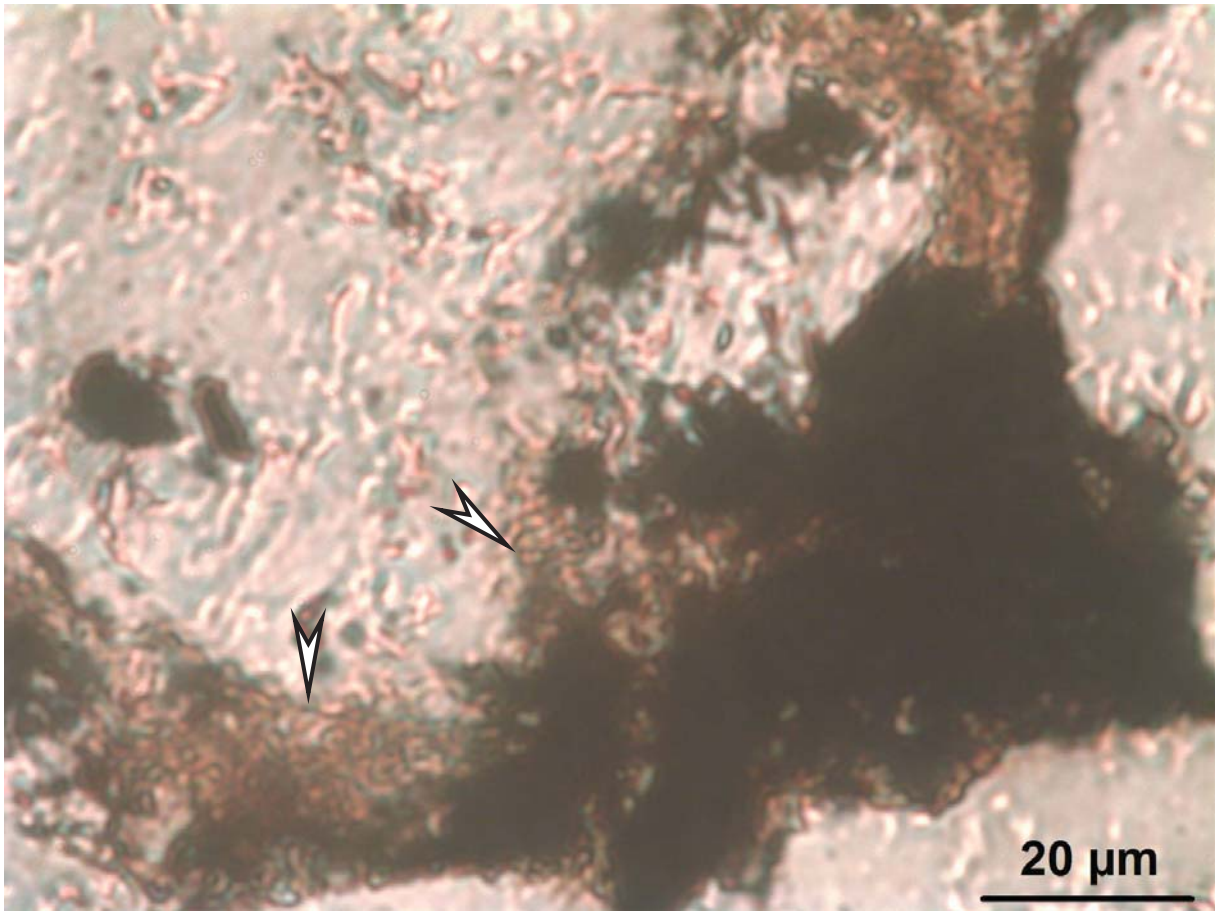
Sample 10

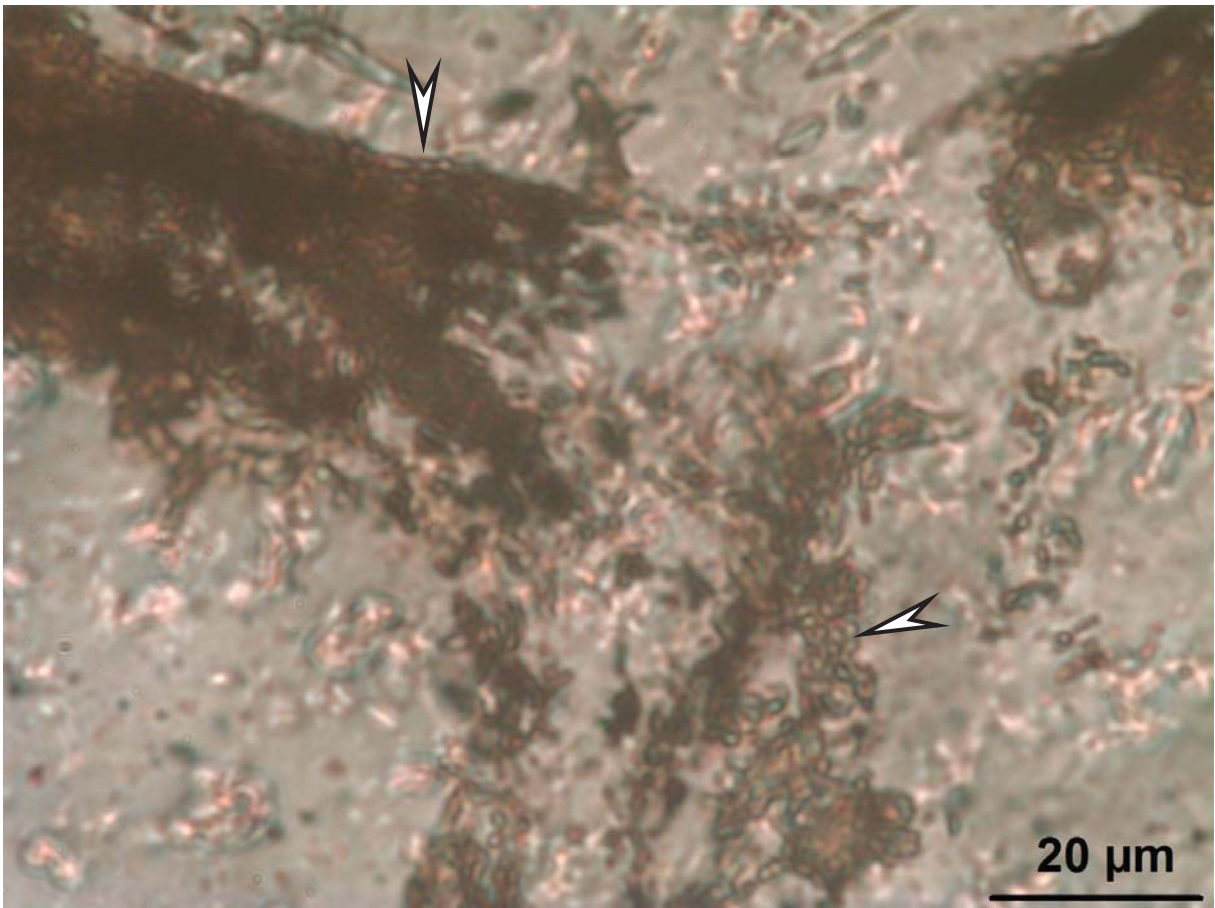
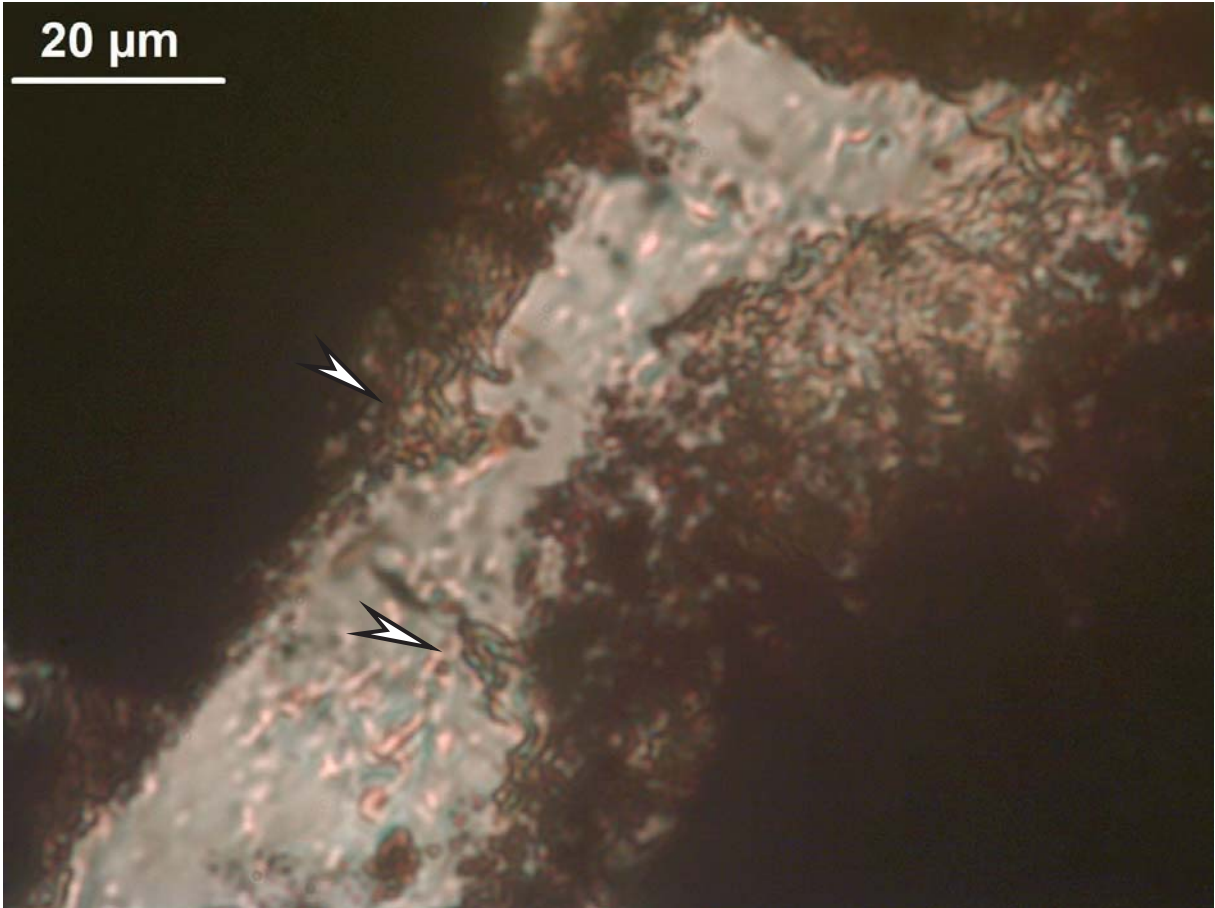


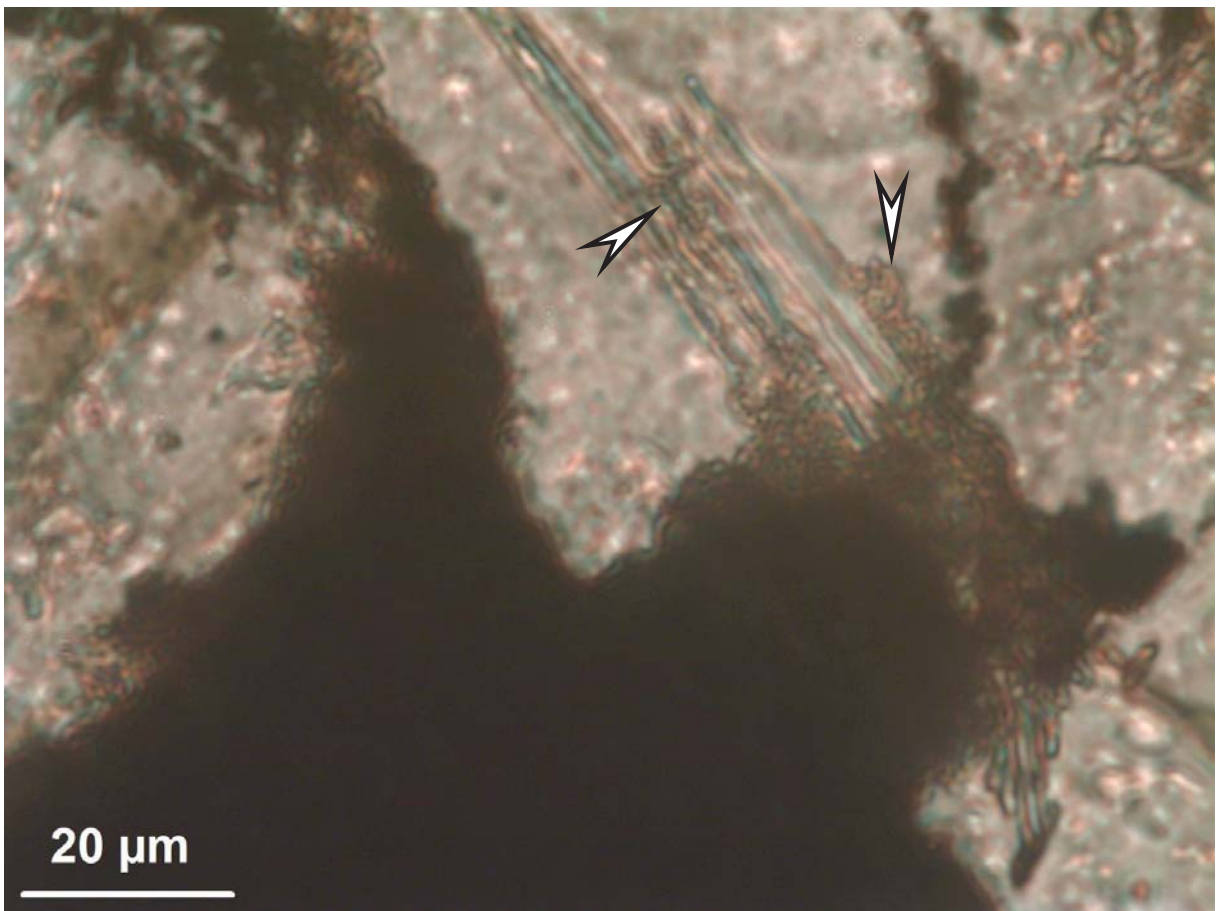
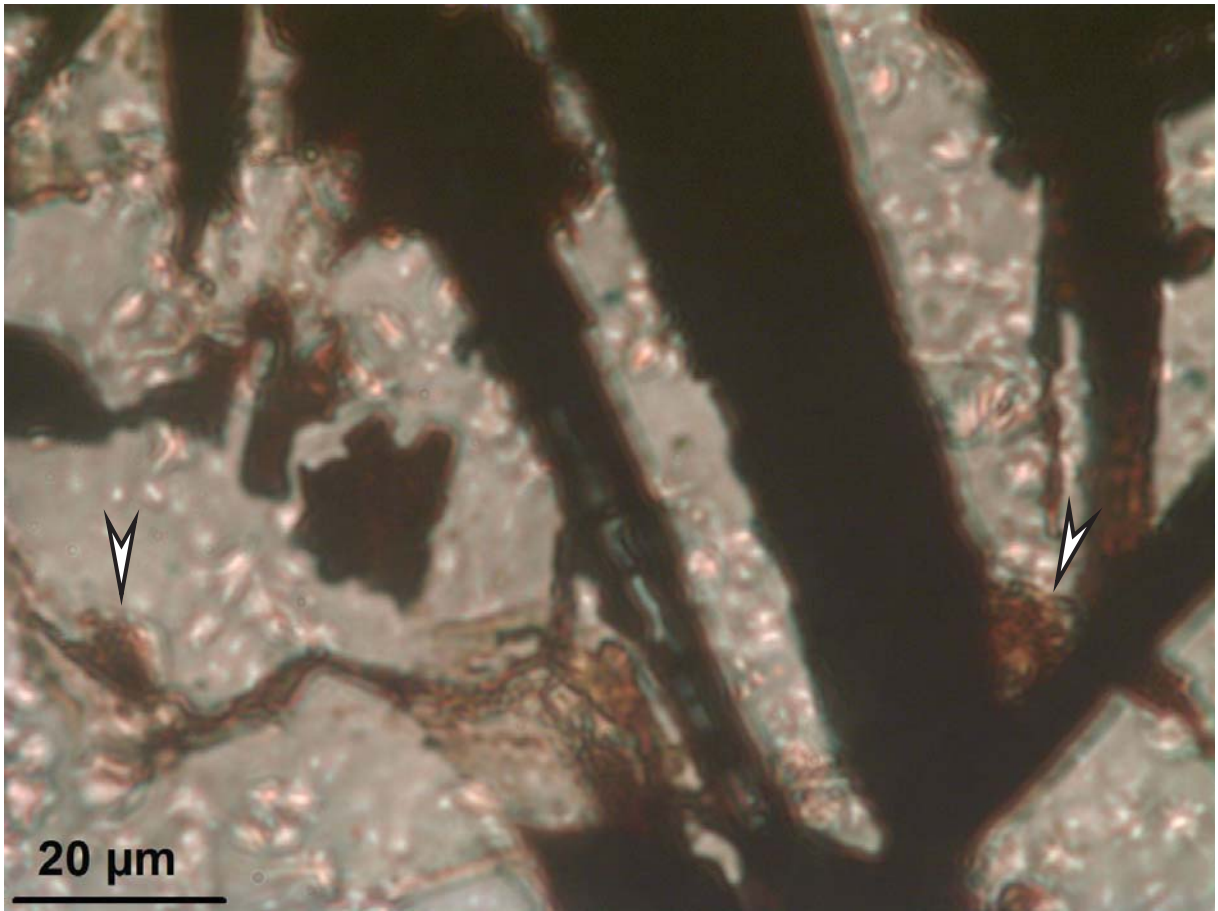


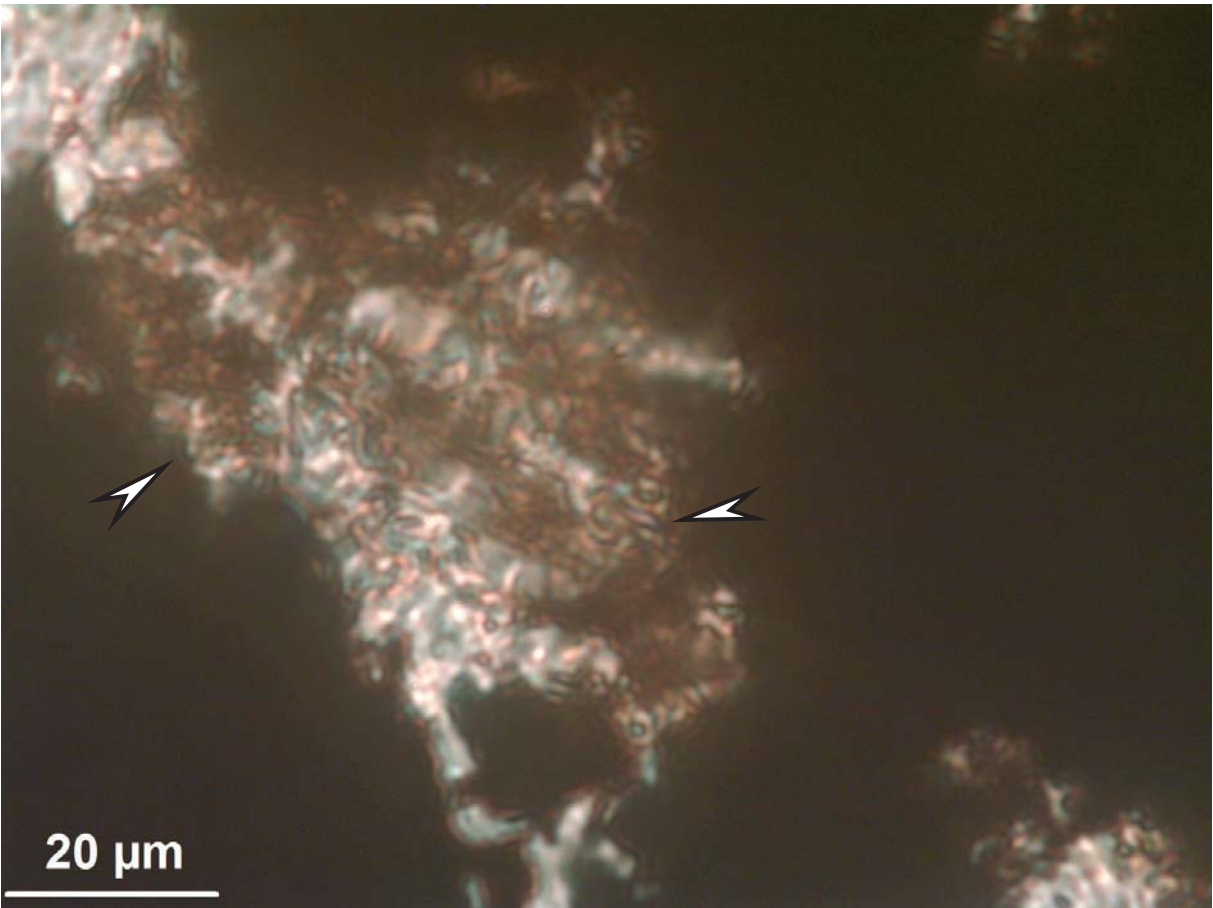
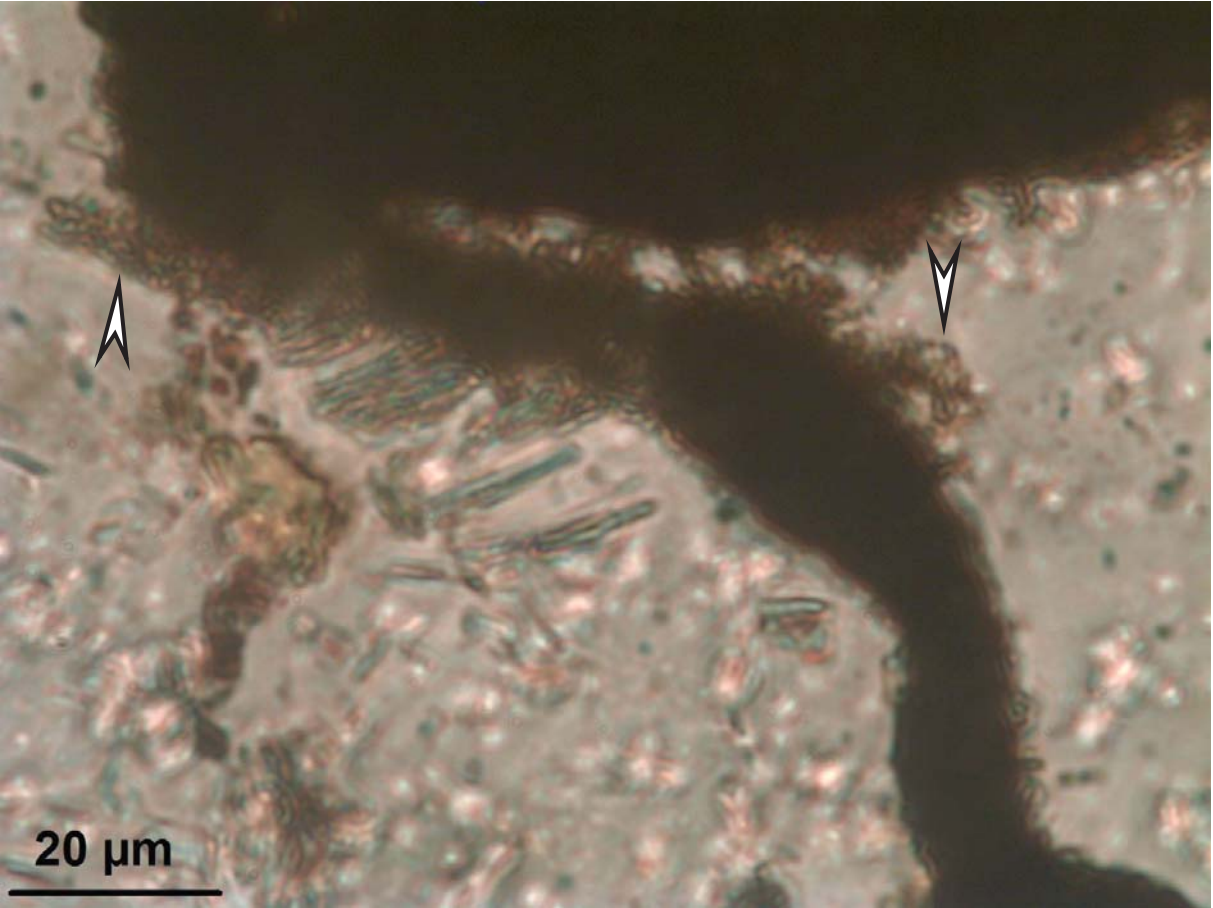










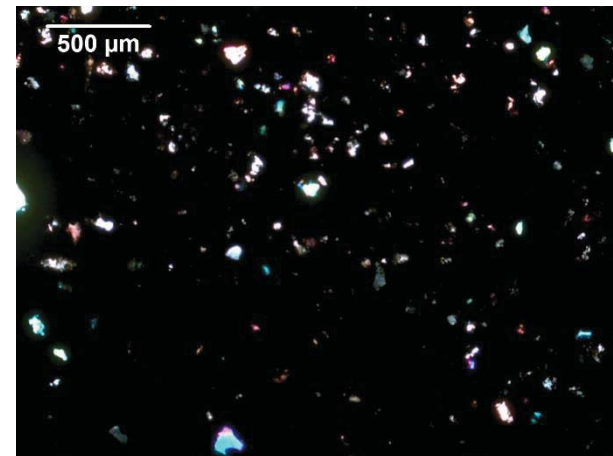
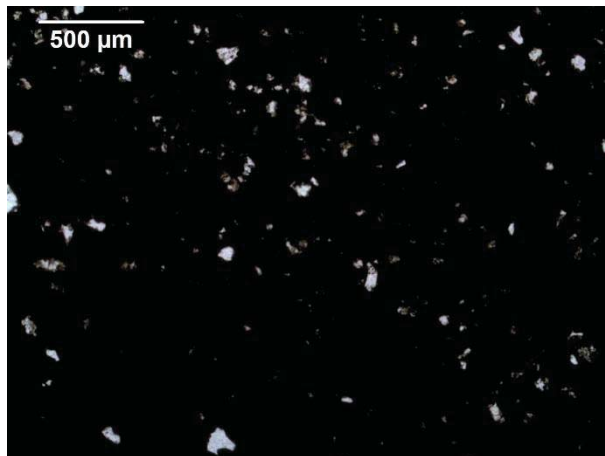
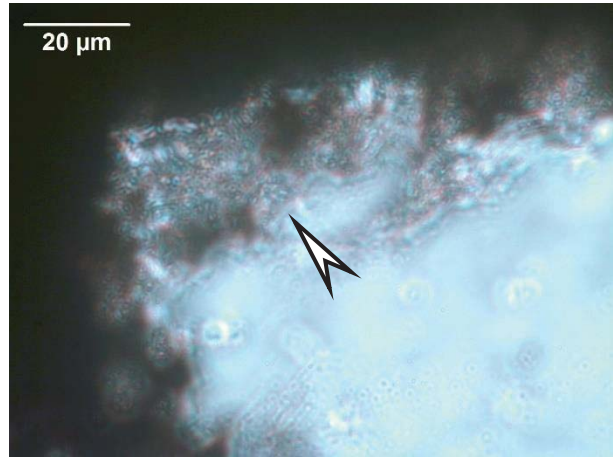
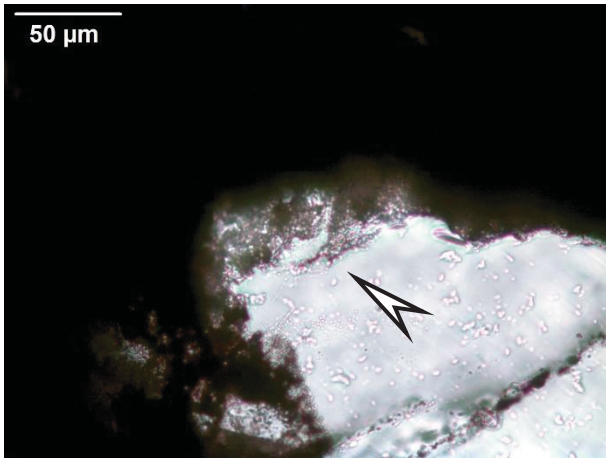
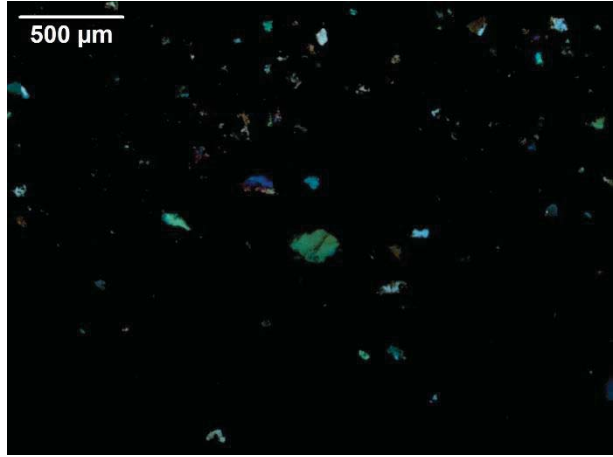
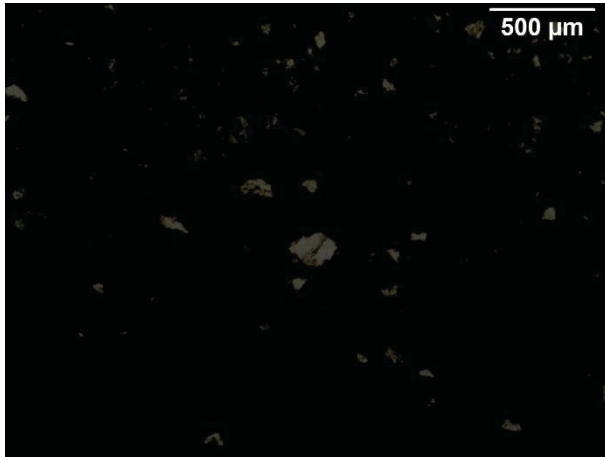


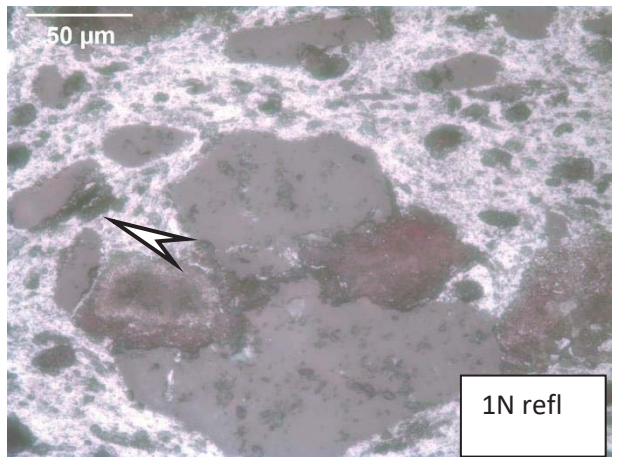
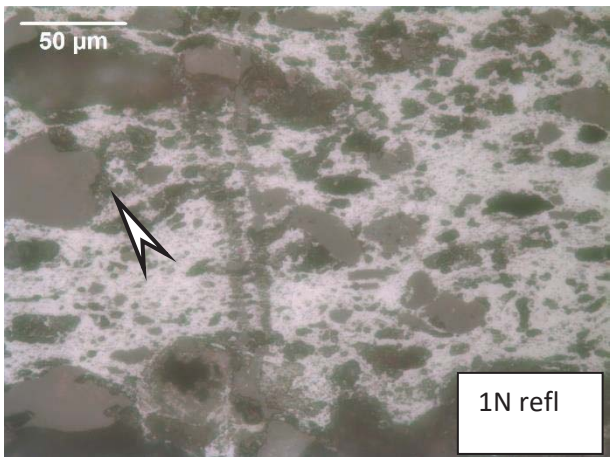
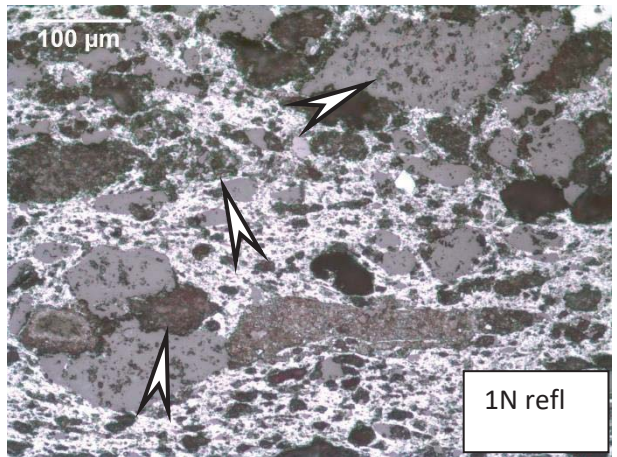
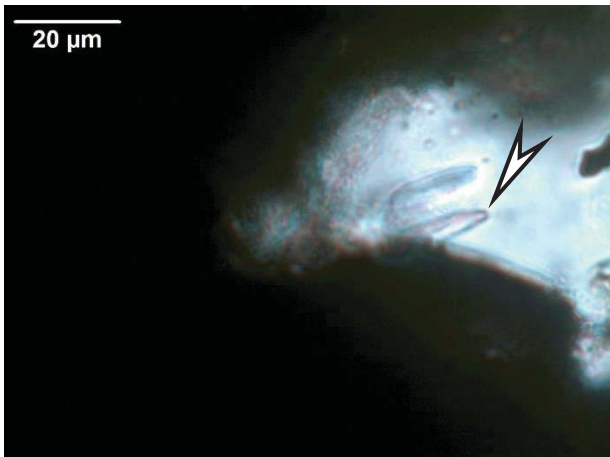
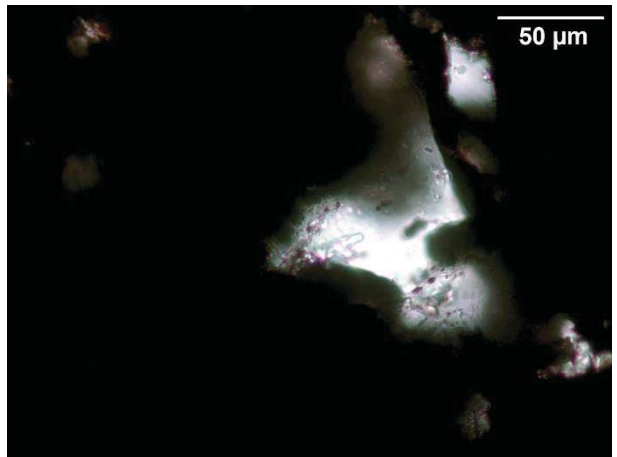
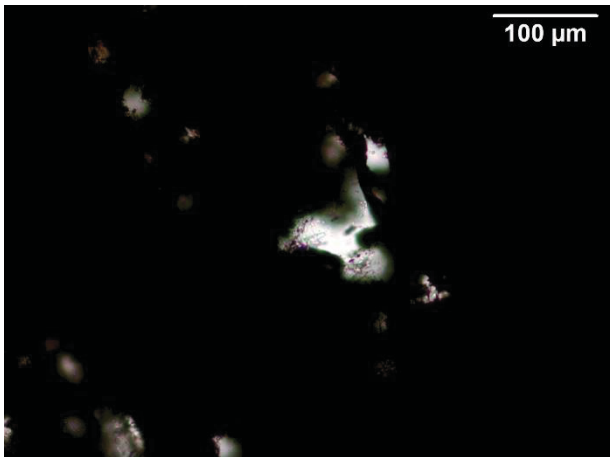
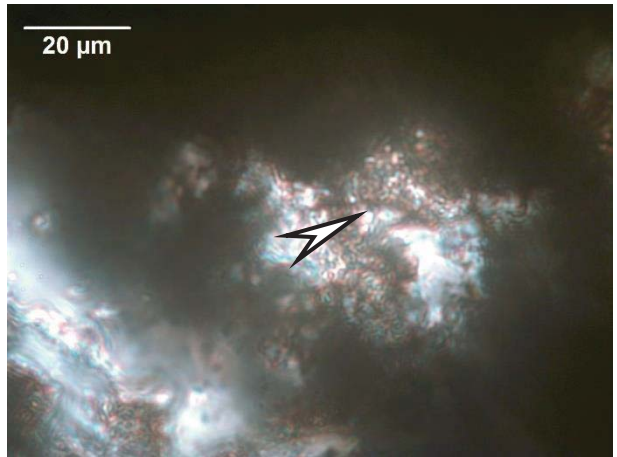
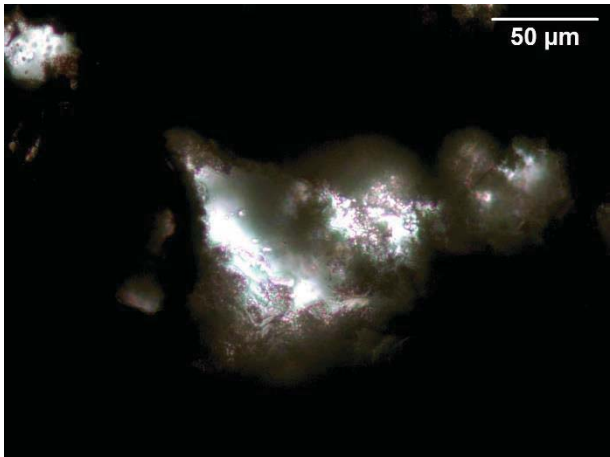


### Sample-32

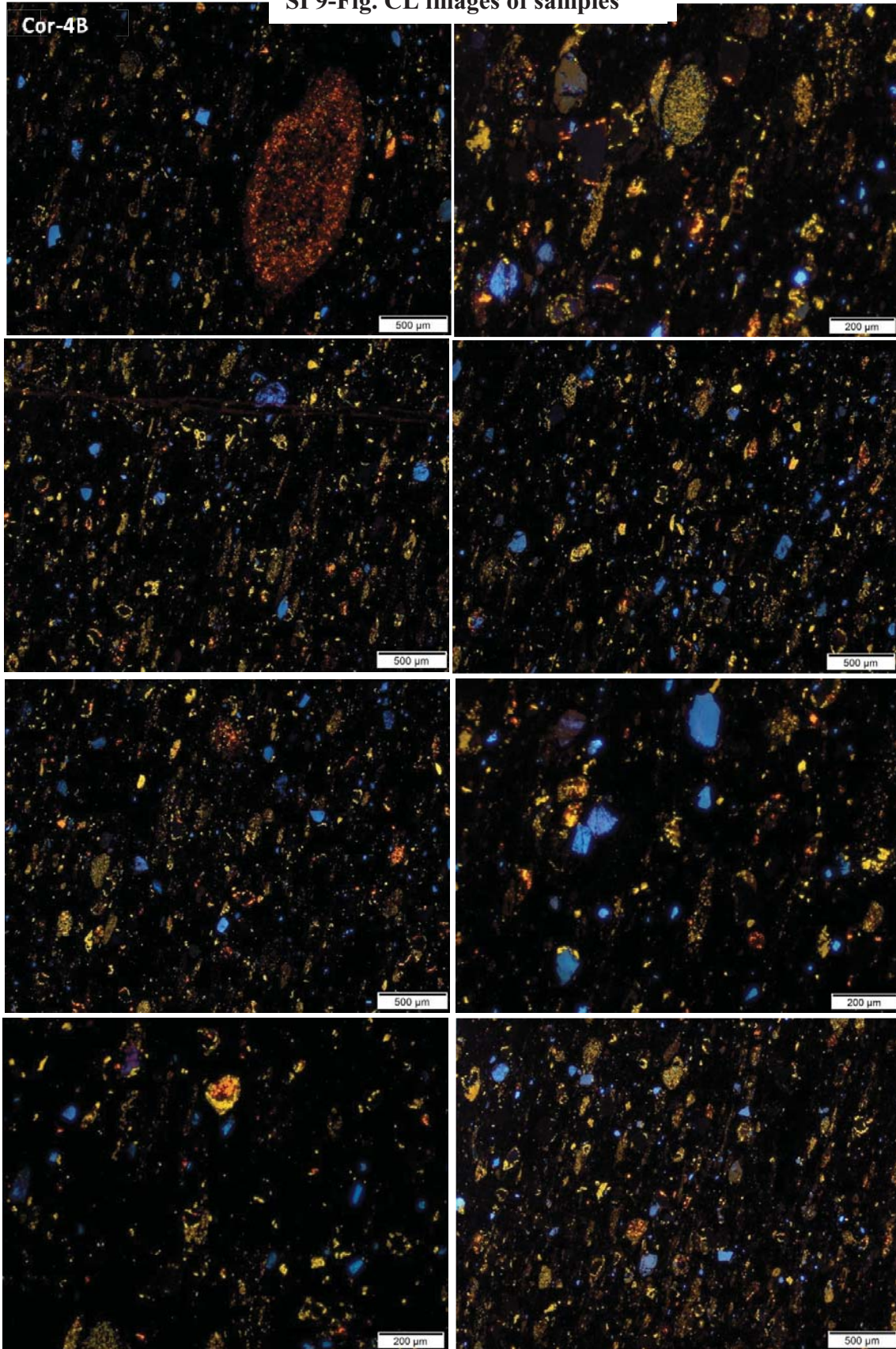


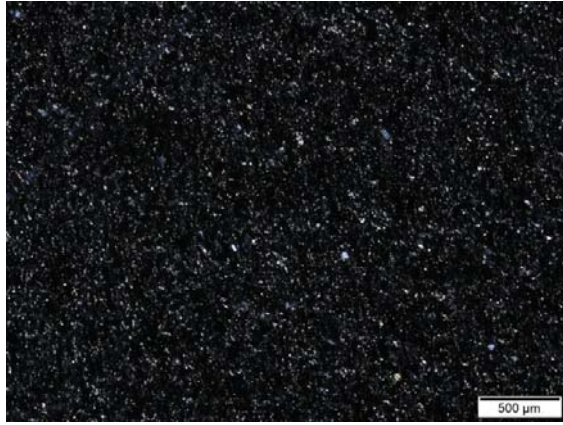
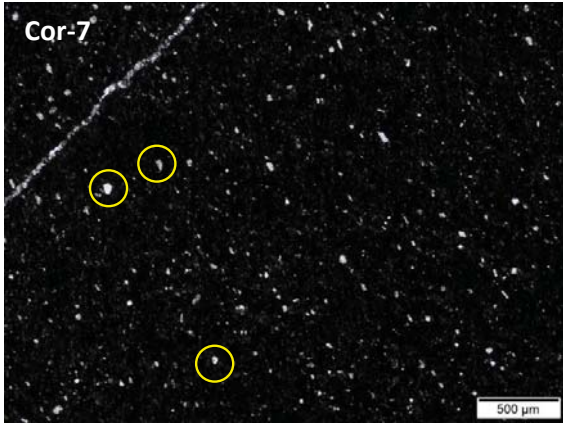
The sample is opaque, but at some places we can look into the material, and microbial signatures are well visible. The reflective photos also show dense microbial mediation. Also, cyanobacteria-like forms are visible. The opaque part is a very dense microbially mineralized material.



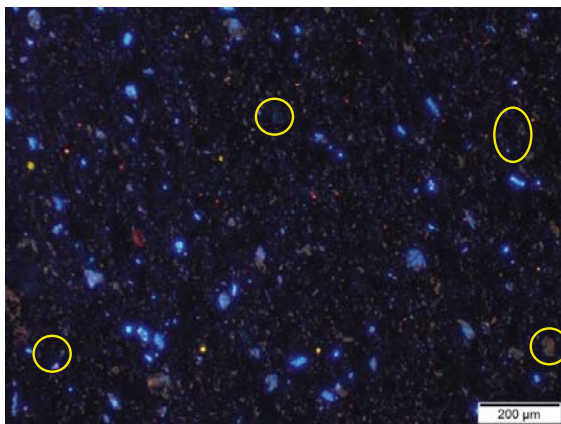
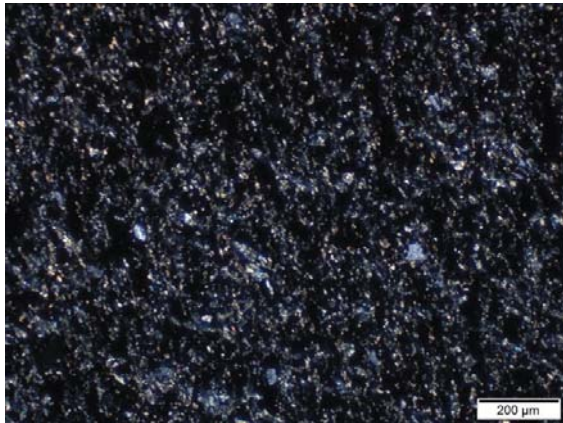
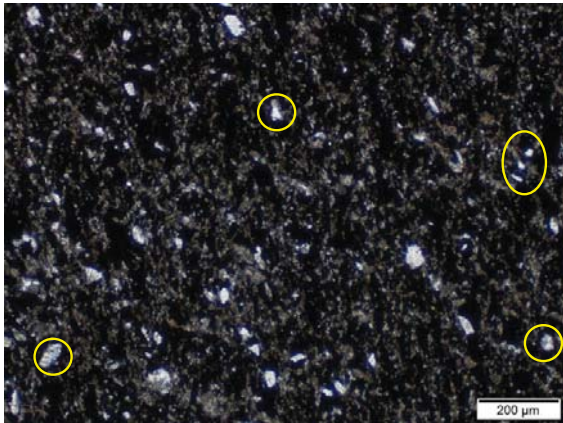
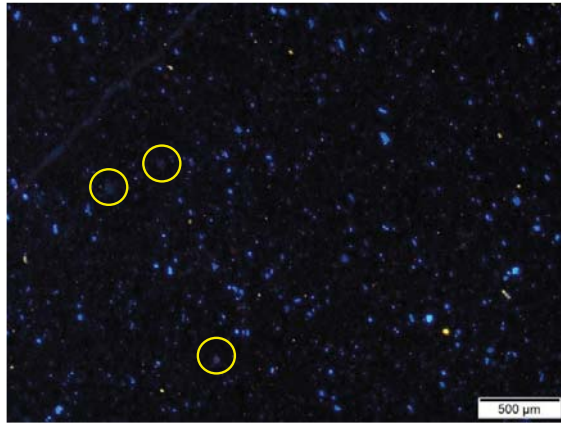


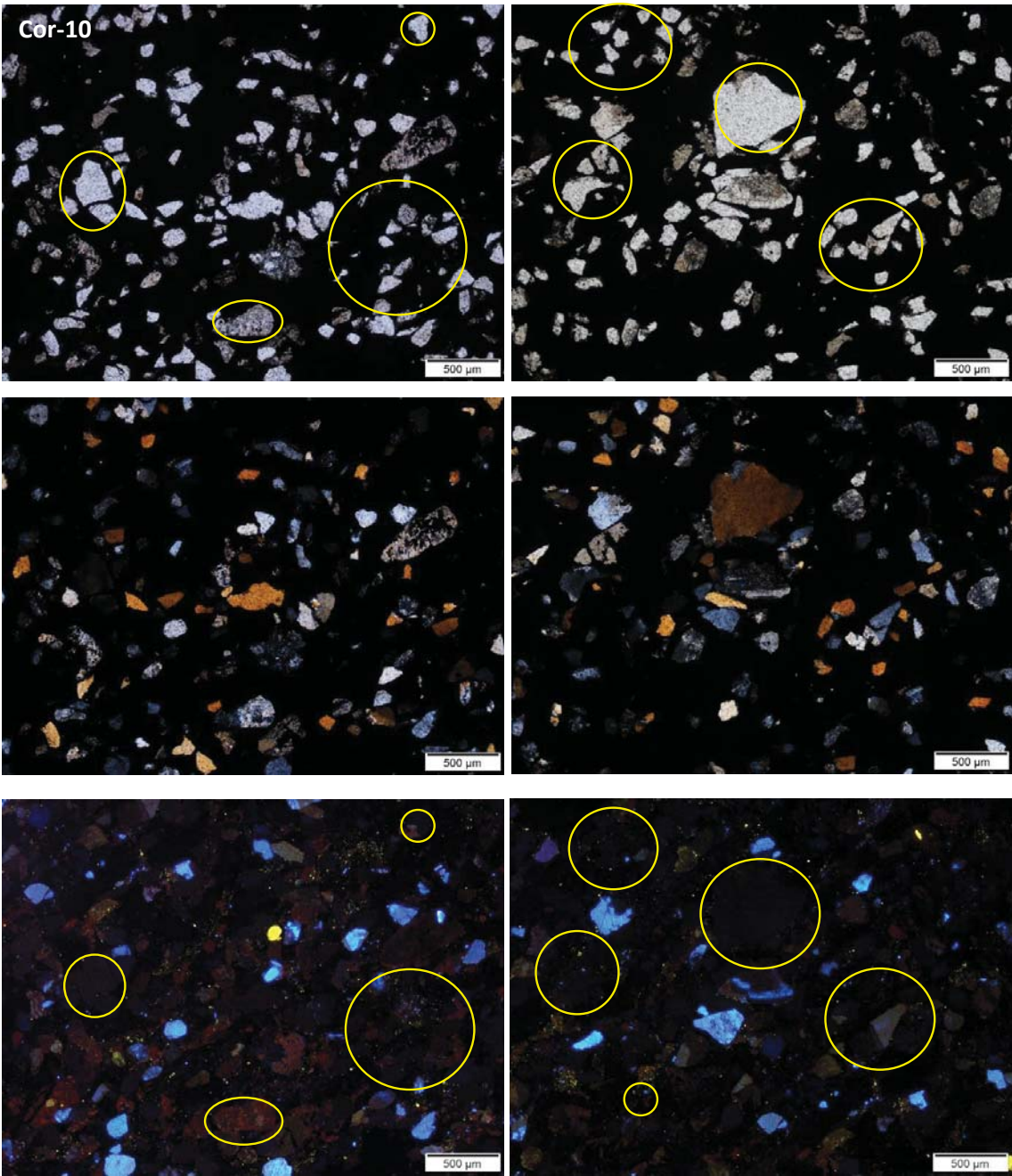
SI 9-Fig. CL images of samples

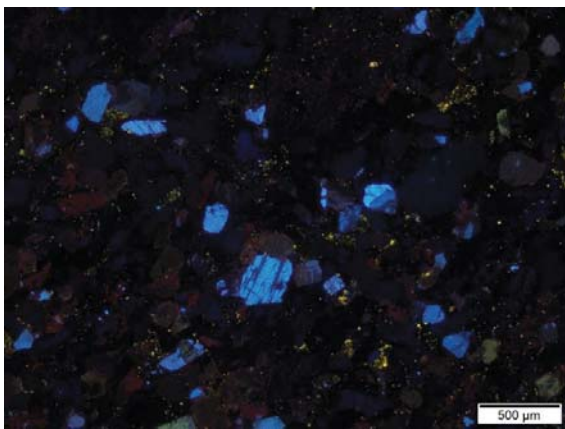
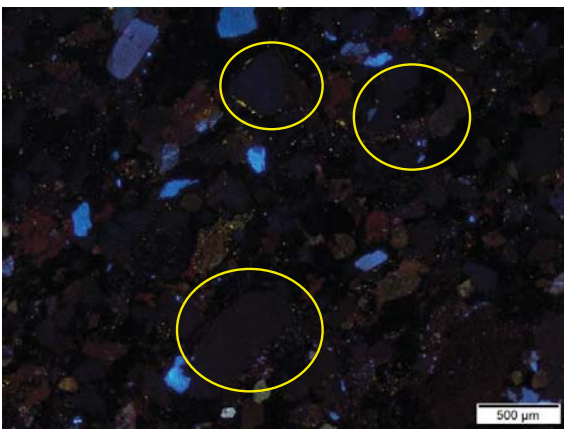
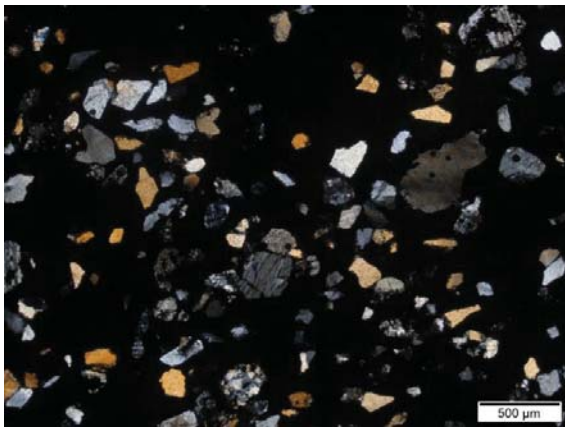
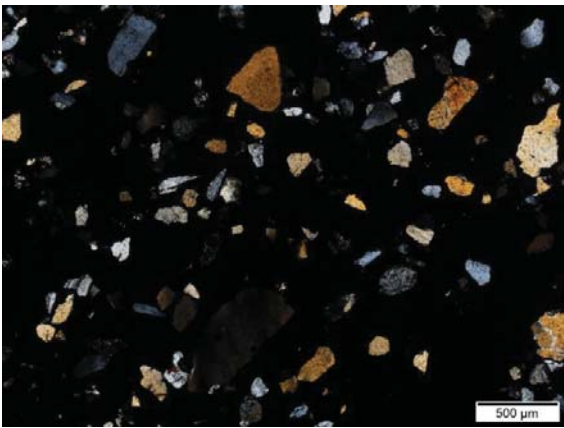
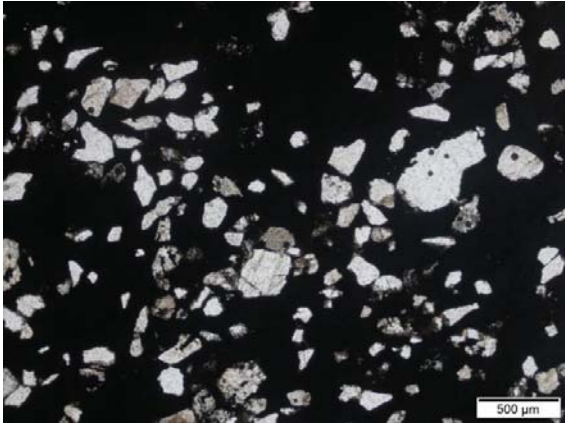
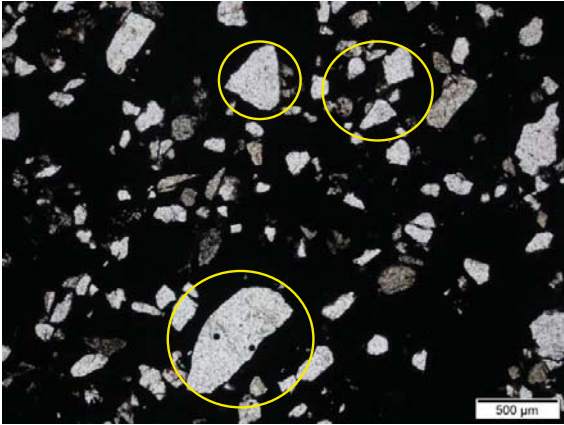


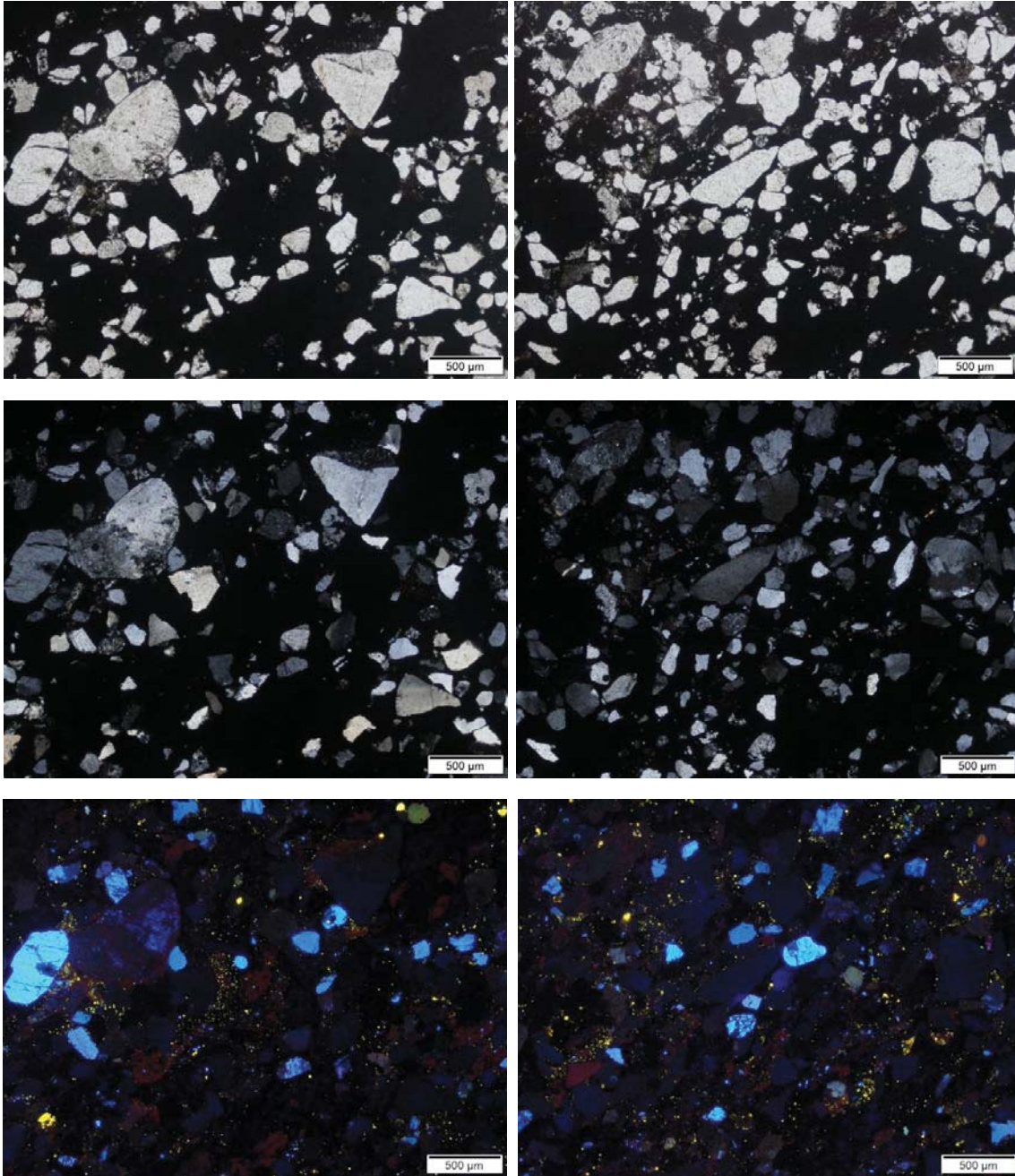


dull: non lumin.  
yellow: apatite  
blue: „dickite”  
orange: carbonate









yellow (apatite) grains follow biomat texture  
most of the grains looking like debris clasts are non luminescent.

**SI 10-Table.**

**Table A: FTIR measurement of samples (6, 7, 10)**

Mineral phase	Ref	Wavelength [cm <sup>-1</sup> ]	6										7			10								
			measuring area																					
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		1	2	3	1	2	3						
Total No. of spectra→			4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	7	2	1	4	4	2	4	6
aegirine	1	630, 856, 928			1																			
albite	2	798, 950, 1000																						
orthoclase	2	700, 987, 1107sh																						
apatite	3	790, 1012, 1093																						
celadonite	4	675, 800, 953s, 973s, 1074, 1113, 3641																						
kaolinite	5	641, 684, 750, 789, 912, 935, 1004, 1028, 1114, 3619, 3650, 3691																						
dickite	1	742, 794, 906, 1003, 1027, 1115																						
chlorite	6	978, 3400	2																					
ferrihydrate	7	692, 878, 3400				4																		
lepidocrocite	7	734, 1019																						
ramsdellite	8	740, 880, 3420																						
romanèchite	8	600s, 680																						
serandite	1	912, 987													4									
todorokite	8	630, 760												4										
cryptomelane	8	600, 760																						
pyrolusite	8	600, 720sh																						
braunite	1	699, 940																						
quartz	2	701, 776, 1059																						
hematite	7	600, 1019																						
pyrite	1	662, 818																						
Organic compounds																								



<b>v C=C/C-O</b>	9	1070-1240		4						5			1	1	4	4	6
<b>vs CO</b>	9	1360-1450	4	4										1	4		6
<b>d CH2</b>	9	1454-1482	4	4										1	4	4	6
<b>C-N, CH deformation</b>	9	1526		4	4	4	4	4	4					1	4		6
<b>C-N N-H amide II</b>	9	1540-1550	4	4													
<b>C=C asym. Stretch</b>	9	1598															
<b>amide I C=O, C-N, N_H</b>	9	1632-1652		4	4	4	4	4	4								
<b>v as COOH</b>	9	1720-29														4	
<b>C-O</b>	9	1799															
<b>CO</b>	9	2343	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	7	4	4	6
<b>CO</b>	9	2365	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	7	4	4	6
<b>C-H sym. Stretch CH2</b>	9	2853													4	4	6
<b>C-H asym. Stretch CH2</b>	9	2926													4	4	6
<b>CH2 /C=C</b>	9	3130											5	7	4	4	6
<b>OH</b>	5	3230-3700	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	7	4	4	6

References are marked by numbers, details in reference list. The number of spectra for minerals and organic materials in measuring area is added in columns.





C-N, CH deformation	9	1526	5	5	1	3	3	1	1	1										4	8	8	8	8
C-N N-H amide II	9	1540-1550																		4	8	8	8	8
C=C asym. Stretch	9	1598						1																
amide I C=O, C-N, N-H	9	1632-1652																		4	8	8	8	8
ν as COOH	9	1720-29																		4	8	8	8	8
C-O	9	1799																						
CO	9	2343	5	6	4	6	6	5	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8
CO	9	2365	5	6	4	6	6	5	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8
C-H sym. Stretch CH2	9	2853	5	6				5																
C-H asym. Stretch CH2	9	2926	5	6				5	1															
CH2 /C=C	9	3130																						8
OH	5	3230-3700																						8

References are marked by numbers, details in reference list. The number of spectra for minerals and organic materials in measuring area is added in columns.

SI 10-Table - Table C: Summa of detected mineral phases, organic matter and measuring areas in studied samples

Mineral phase	Reference	Sample ID		6	7	10	31	32	36-A1	78-F3
		Summa measuring areas	Total No. of spectra→							
		Wavelength [cm <sup>-1</sup> ]								
aegirine	1	630, 856, 928	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
albite	2	798, 950, 1000	0	3	8	0	0	20	0	0
orthoclase	2	700, 987, 1107sh	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0
apatite	3	790, 1012, 1093	0	6	0	11	1	0	0	0
celadonite	4	675, 800, 953s, 973s, 1074, 1113, 3641	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
kaolinite	5	641, 684, 750, 789, 912, 935, 1004, 1028, 1114, 3619, 3650, 3691	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
dickite	1	742, 794, 906, 1003, 1027, 1115	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
chlorite	6	978, 3400	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
ferrihydrate	7	692, 878, 3400	4	0	0	5	3	3	9	36
lepidocrocite	7	734, 1019	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
ramsdellite	8	740, 880, 3420	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
romanèchite	8	600s, 680	0	0	0	4	0	0	4	0
serandite	1	912, 987	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
todorokite	8	630, 760	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
cryptomelane	8	600, 760	10	0	0	0	0	4	12	51
pyrolusite	8	600, 720sh	12	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
braunite	1	699, 940	14	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
quartz	2	701, 776, 1059	0	0	0	2	12	0	0	0

hematite	7	600, 1019	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	26
pyrite	1	662, 818	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Organic compounds			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
v C=C/C-O	9	1070-1240	9	2	14	14	20	1	1	0	0	0	28
vs CO	9	1360-1450	8	1	10	10	8	1	1	0	0	0	28
d CH2	9	1454-1482	8	1	14	14	18	1	1	0	0	0	28
C-N, CH deformation	9	1526	20	1	10	10	18	1	1	0	0	0	28
C-N N-H amide II	9	1540-1550	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
C=C asym. Stretch	9	1598	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
amide I C=O, C-N, N_H	9	1632-1652	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
v as COOH	9	1720-29	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
C-O	9	1799	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CO	9	2343	37	12	14	14	32	32	32	20	20	52	52
CO	9	2365	37	12	14	14	32	32	32	20	20	52	52
C-H sym. Stretch CH2	9	2853	0	0	14	14	16	0	0	0	0	0	0
C-H asym. Stretch CH2	9	2926	0	0	14	14	16	1	1	0	0	0	0
CH2/C=C	9	3130	0	12	14	14	27	1	1	4	4	8	8
OH	5	3230-3700	32	12	14	14	27	4	4	4	4	8	8

References are marked by numbers, details in reference list. The number of spectra for minerals and organic materials in measuring area is added in columns.

## References:

[1] RRUFF Database

- [2] Müller, C. M., Pejčić, B., Esteban, L., Delle Piane, C., Raven, M. & Mizaikoff, B. (2014). Infrared attenuated total reflectance spectroscopy: an innovative strategy for analyzing mineral components in energy relevant systems. *Scientific reports*, 4, 6764.
- [3] Beasley, M. M., Bartelink, E. J., Taylor, L. & Miller, R. M. (2014). Comparison of transmission FTIR, ATR, and DRIFT spectra: implications for assessment of bone bioapatite diagenesis. *Journal of Archaeological Science*, 46, 16-22.
- [4] Moretto, L. M., Orsega, E. F. & Mazzocchin, G. A. (2011). Spectroscopic methods for the analysis of celadonite and glauconite in Roman green wall paintings. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*, 12(4), 384-391.
- [5] Madejova, J. & Komadel, P. (2001). Baseline studies of the clay minerals society source clays: infrared methods. *Clays and clay minerals*, 49(5), 410-432.
- [6] Udvardi, B., Kovács, I.J., Kónya, P., Földvári, M., Fűri, J., Budai, F., Falus, G., Fancsik, T., Szabó, C., Szalai, Z. and Mihály, J. 2014. Application of attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy in the mineralogical study of a landslide area, Hungary. *Sedimentary Geology*, 313, pp.1-14.
- [7] Glotch, T. D. & Rossman, G. R. (2009). Mid-infrared reflectance spectra and optical constants of six iron oxide/oxyhydroxide phases. *Icarus*, 204(2), 663-671.
- [8] Potter, R. M. & Rossman, G. R. (1979). The tetravalent manganese oxides: identification, hydration, and structural relationships by infrared spectroscopy. *American Mineralogist*, 64, 1199-1218.
- [9] Parikh, S. J. & Chorover, J. (2006). ATR-FTIR spectroscopy reveals bond formation during bacterial adhesion to iron oxide. *Langmuir*, 22(20), 8492-8500.

## **SI 11-Fig. Interpretation of mineral composition and distribution of spherical (bubble-like) structure of sample 36-A based on FTIR**

### **Outer area**

This area is inhomogeneous, consist of dark spots and bright inhomogenous area.

### **Matrix**

This inhomogenic matrix area was investigated in „outer area 1” This part is mixed by goethite, feldspar, disordered rhodochrosite, traces of cryptomelane. The organic material contains immaturated hydrocarbons - CH-CCN bonds of amid I-amid II ( $1520-1660\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

### **Dark spots**

This parts contain ferrihydrite (with traces of goethite), disordered rhodochrosite, traces of cryptomelane, organic material and maturated, long-chain hydrocarbon (bands  $2900-3100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), and ketons ( $\text{C}=\text{O}$ )

### **Rim area**

This is inhomogenous, composed of a fine-grained area, and coarser crystallized area.

The coarser area is mixture of cryptomelane and broad bands of disordered quartz, rhodochrosite and dolomite, and traces of braunite. The dolomite has  $\text{CO}_3$  vibration at  $1425\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the rhodochrosite has near  $1390\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This area contains variable organic material, which contain long chain hydrocarbons ( $\text{CH}_2$  symmetric and asymmetric stretching modes  $2853-3130\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), and C-O vibration of ketons ( $2343-2365\text{ cm}^{-1}$ )

The fine-grained porous part is composed of ferrihydrite, traces of goethite. This area contain bands of C-O vibration of ketons at  $2343$  and  $2365\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

### **Inner area**

It was measured by 3 FTIR area (inner area 1-3).

### **Matrix**

The inhomogeneous matrix, which composed of porous, laminated parts, which was measured by lighter part, darker part, and average inhomogeneous part:

The lighter part (area2) is mixture of cryptomelane, quartz, and dolomite, and organic material with  $\text{CH}_2$  bonds ( $1452-1482\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and ketons ( $\text{C}=\text{O}$ ).

Inhomogenous matrix (area1) dark parts contains dolomite, ferrihydrite, cryptomelane.

Porous inhomogenous matrix (area2) is also mixed material, which contain cyptomelane, ferrihydrite, dolomite (traces) and organic material with  $\text{CH}_2$  bonds ( $1452-1482\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and ketons ( $\text{C}=\text{O}$ ).

### **Dark spot**

The inner area 3 focused on dark spots, which are composed of mixture of ramsdellite, quartz and dolomite, and contains organic material of long-chain hydrocarbons ( $2900-3100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), ketons, and CN-CH bonds of PAHs.



### 36-A FTIR vibrations

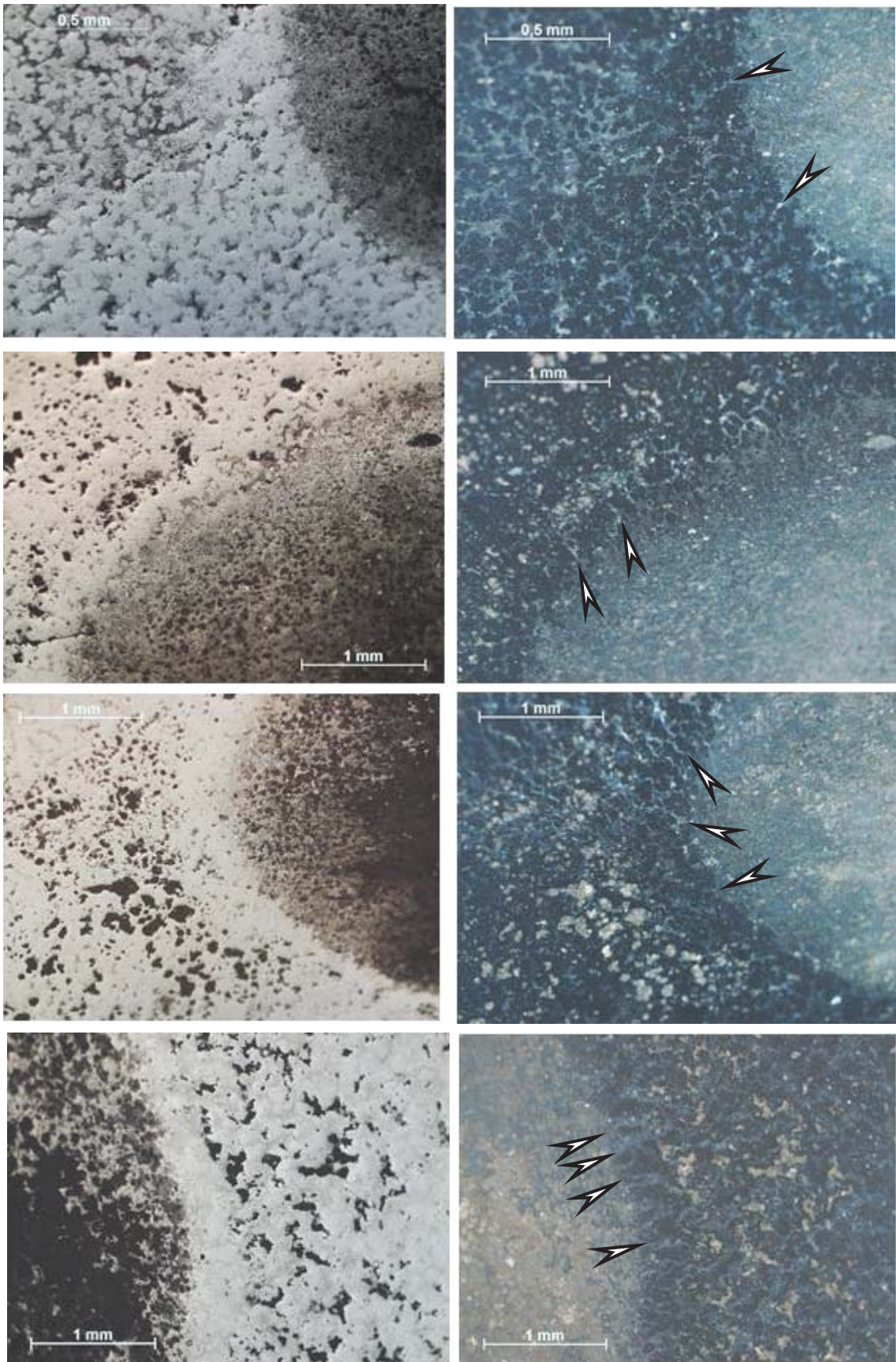
		Part of spherical structure	Outer area		Rim		Inner area				
		Component	Matrix	Dark spot			Matrix				Dark spot
		Measuring area	1	2	1		1		2		3
		Texture	inhom. mx	dark	fine-grained	coarse	inhom. 1	darkparts	inhom. 2	lightpart	dark
		Total No. of spectra→	5	5	2	2	2	3	4	1	5
Mineral phase	Ref	Wavelength [cm <sup>-1</sup> ]									
dol	1	720, 888, 1425,				(1)	2	3	(1)	1	5
rhod	1	729, 860, 1394	5	5		(2)					
goe		798, 910, 3400	5	(5)	(2 trace)						
ferri	7	692, 878, 3400		5	2		2	3	4		
ramsdellite	8	740, 880, 3420									5
feldspar (albite)	2	798, 950, 1000	5								
cryptom	8	600, 760	(5)	(5)	2		2	3	4	1	
braunite	1	699, 940				(2)					
quartz	2	701, 776, 1059					2			1	5
<b>Organic compounds</b>											
vs CO	9	1360-1450	5								
d CH2	9	1454-1482	5						4	1	
C-N, CH deformation	9	1526	5	5							5
C-N N-H amide II	9	1540-1550	5	5							5
amide I C=O, C-N, N_H	9	1632-1652	5	5							5
CO	9	2343			2	2			4	1	5
CO	9	2365			2	2			4	1	5
C-H sym. Stretch CH2	9	2853	5	5		2					5
C-H asym. Stretch CH2	9	2926	5	5		2					5
CH2 /C=C	9	3130	5	5		2					
OH	5	3230-3700	5	5							

**Summary table of mineral phases** (References see in SI 10-Table).

Outer area		Rim		Inner area				
inhom. matrix	dark spot	coarse	fine-grained	inhom. matrix1	inhom. matrix2	dark part	light part	dark spot
goe	ferri	cryptom	ferri	ferri	ferri	ferri	cryptom	ramsdellite
feldsp	goe	quartz	goe	cryptom	cryptom	cryptom	quartz	quartz
rhod	rhod	rhod		dol	dol	dol	dol	dol
cryptom	cryptom	brau						

Abbrev: goe-goethite, ferri-ferrihydrite, feldsp-feldspar, rhod-rhodochrosite, cryptom-cryptomelane, dol-dolomite, brau-braunite

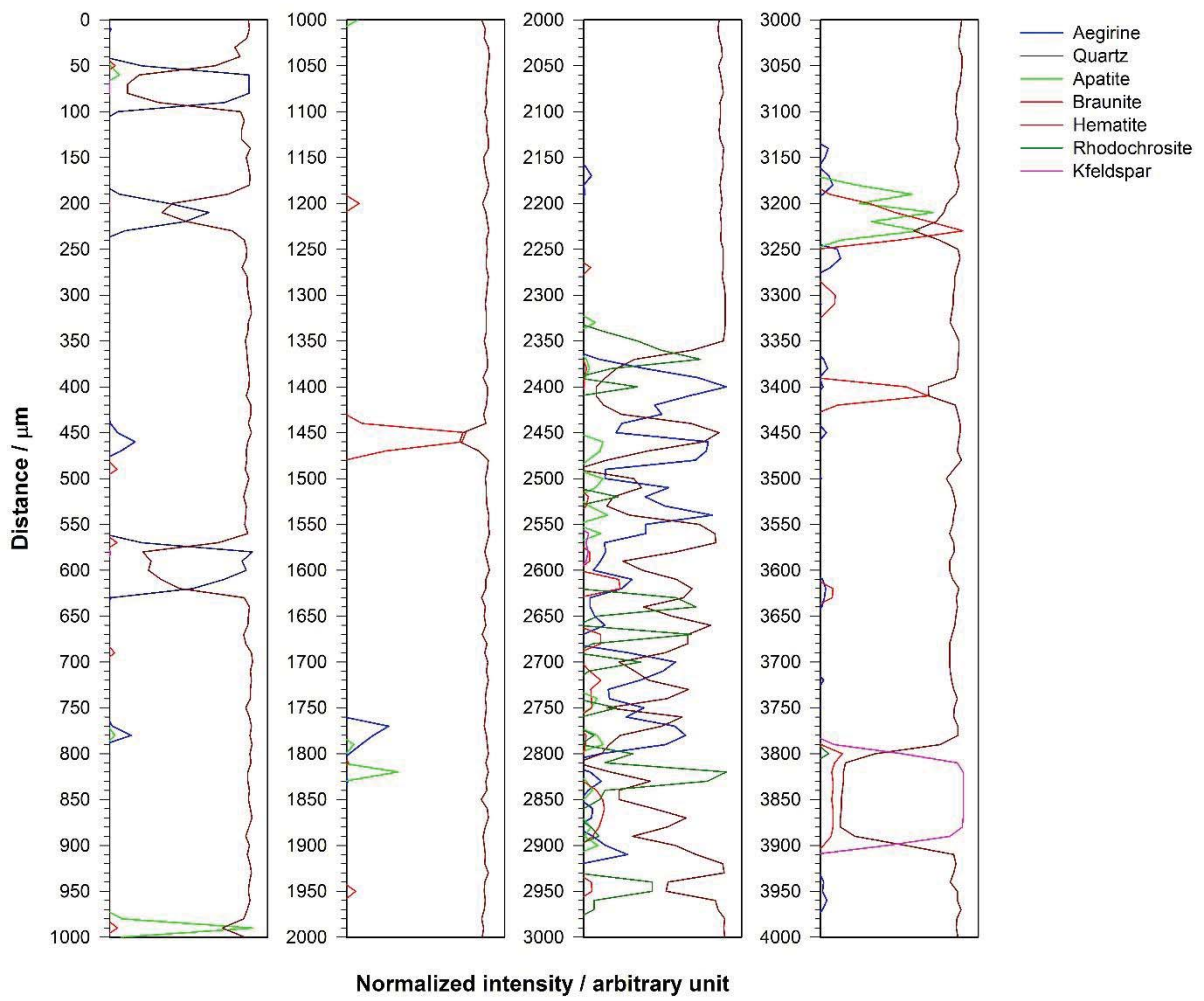
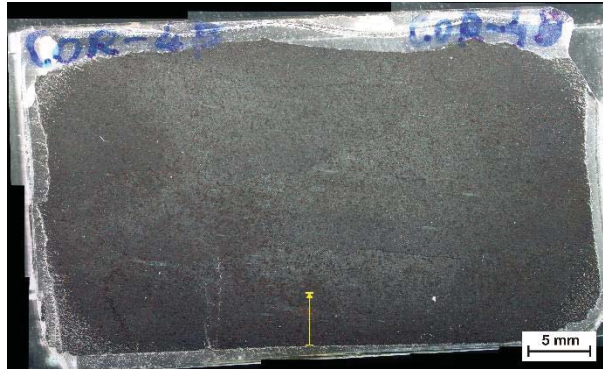
36-A – Microtexture of spherical (bubble-like) structure, OM, reflective mode, arrows show mineralized microbial signatures and diffusion channels.



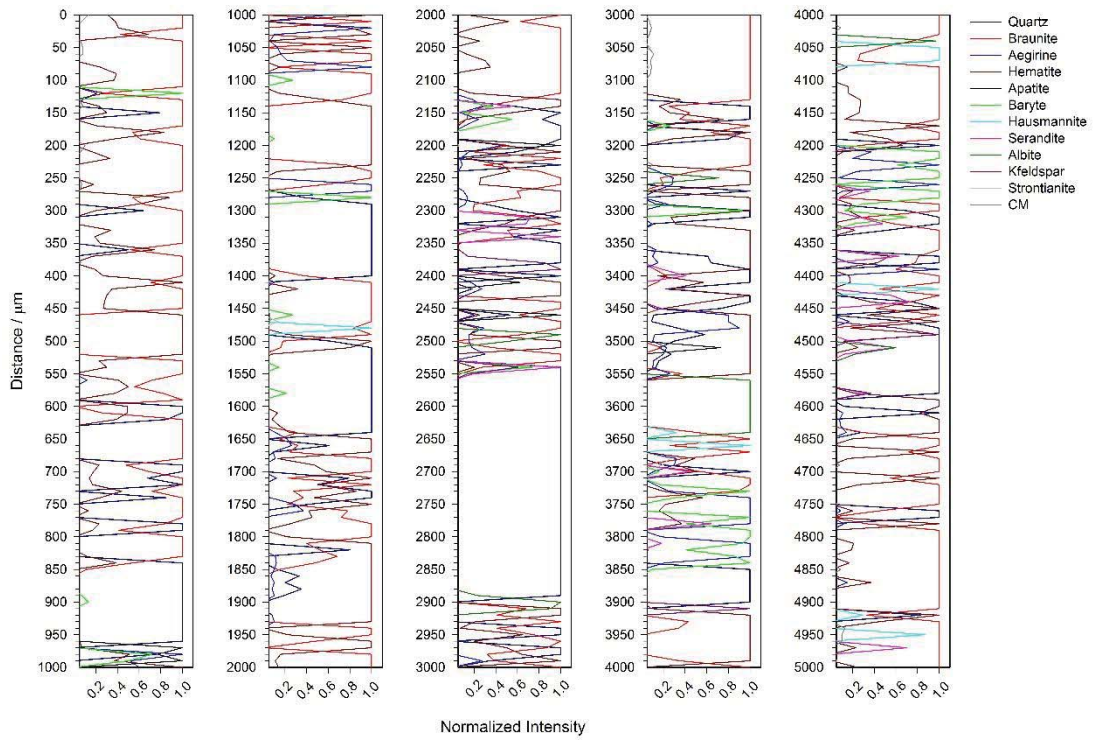
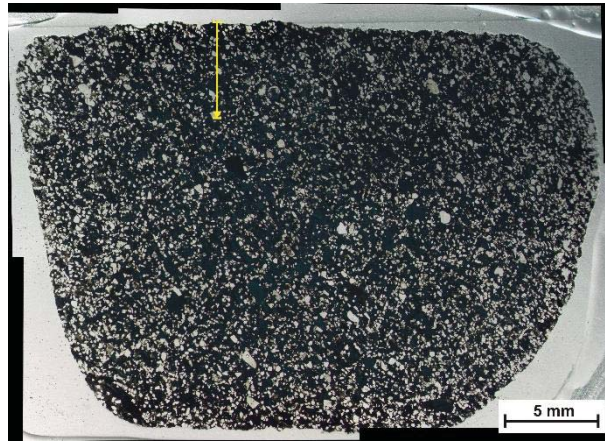
### SI 12-Fig. Mineral distribution in profiles by Raman spectroscopy

Abbrev: Plg+Kfs-plagioclase+F-feldspar; CM-carbonaceous material (organic matter)

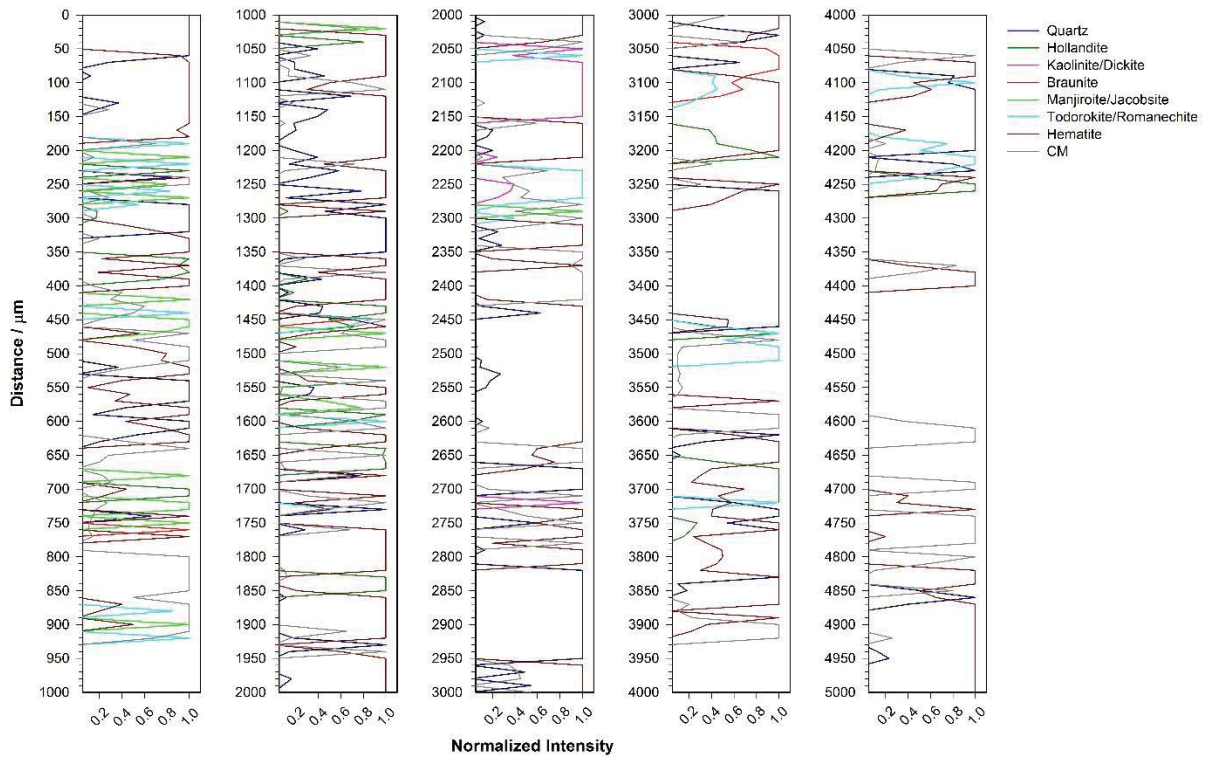
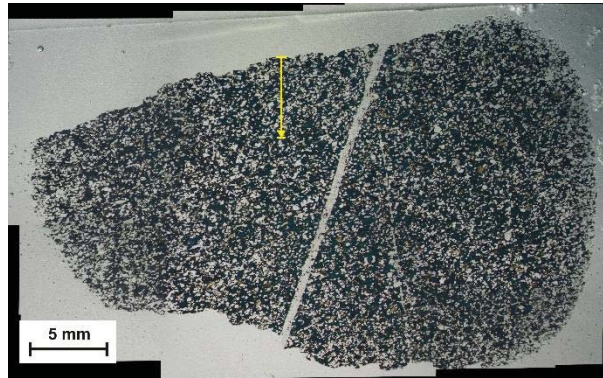
4B (Mn-1)



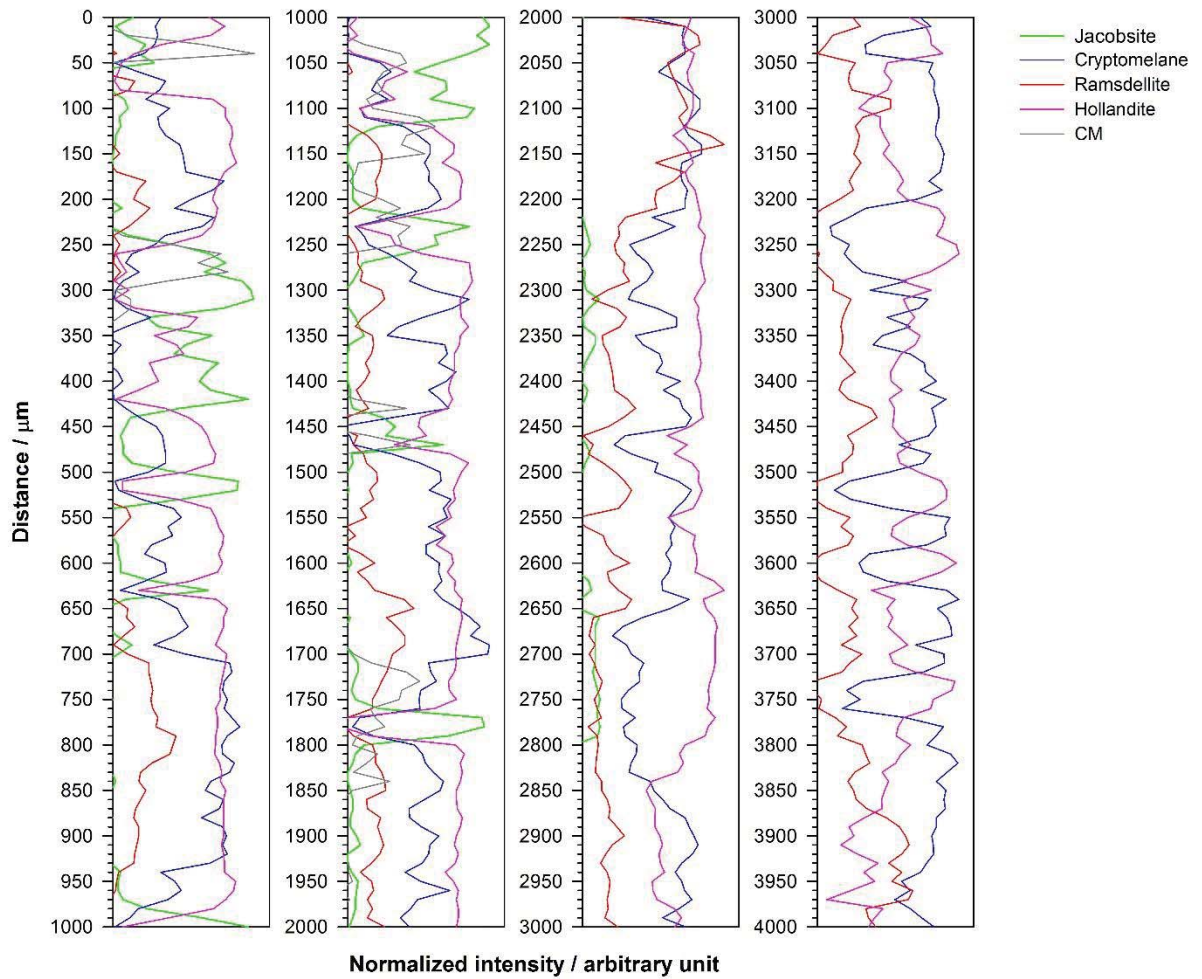
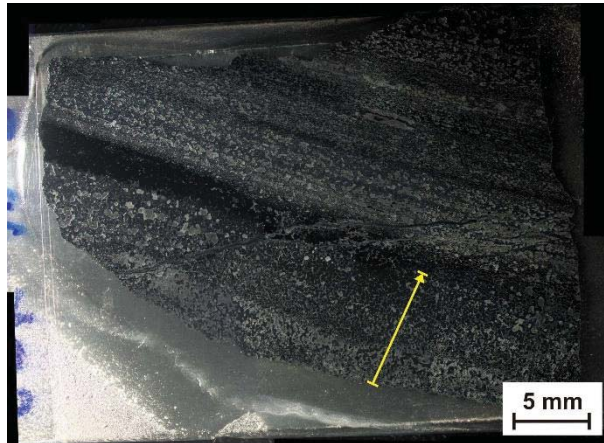
# 10 (Mn-1)

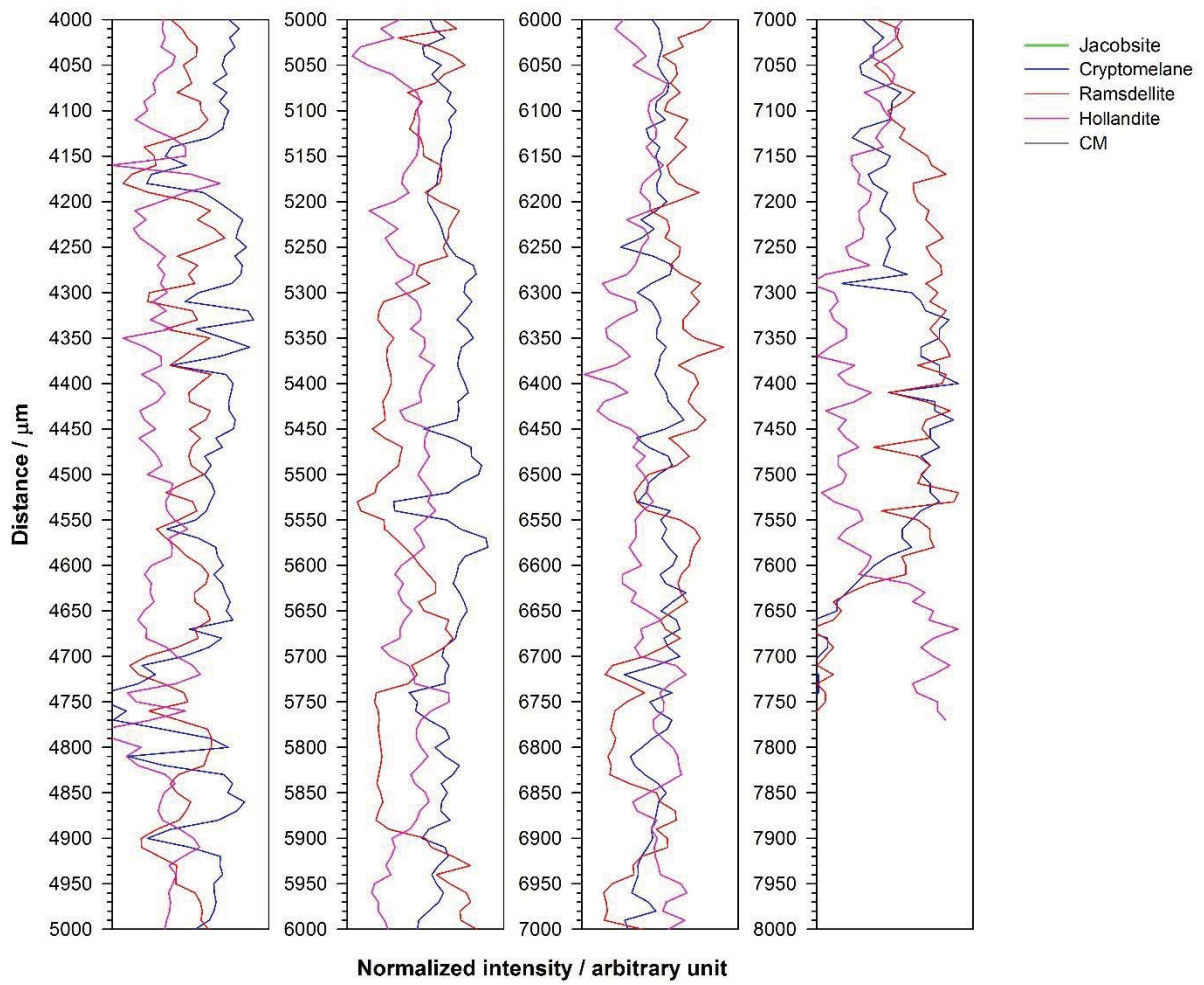


# 31 (Mn-1)

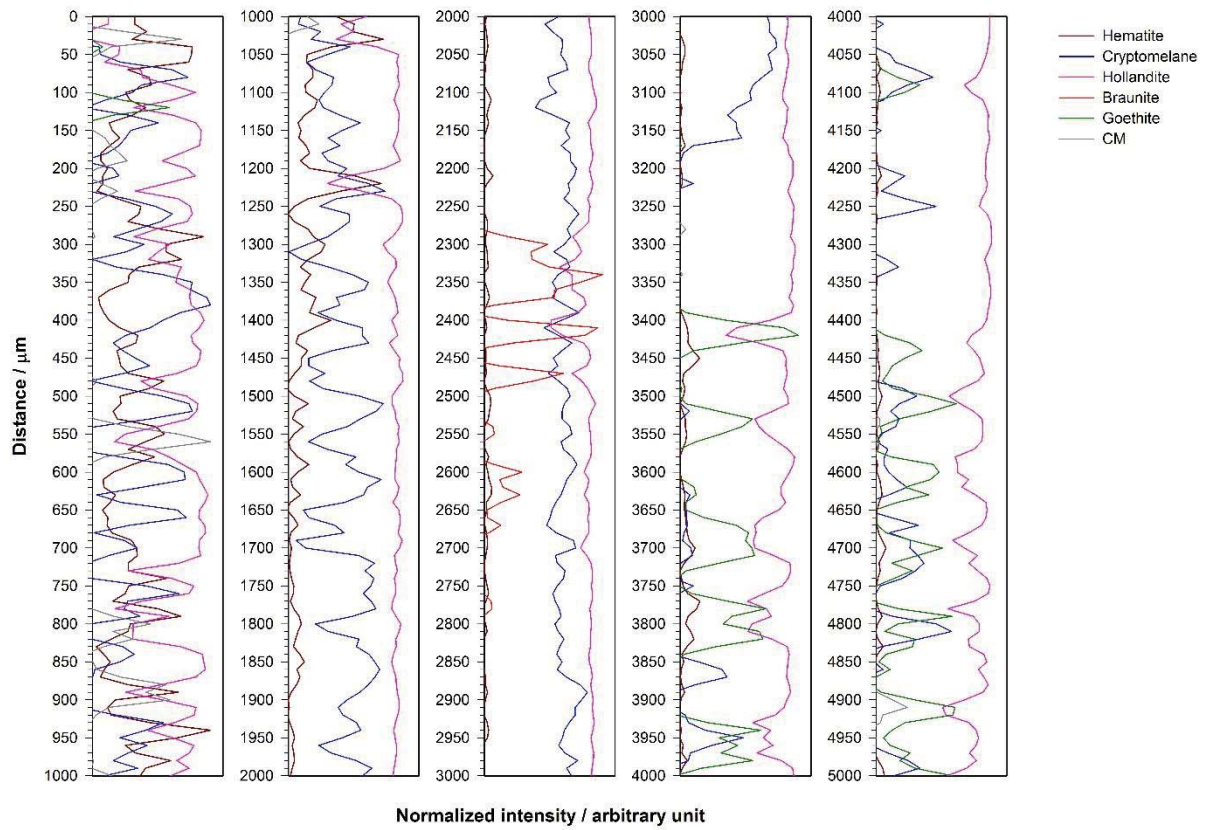
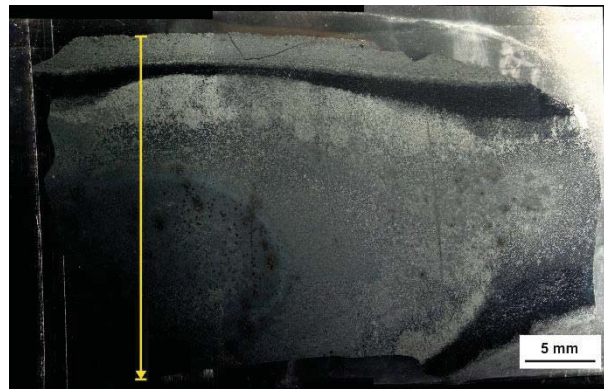


75-2 (Mn-2)

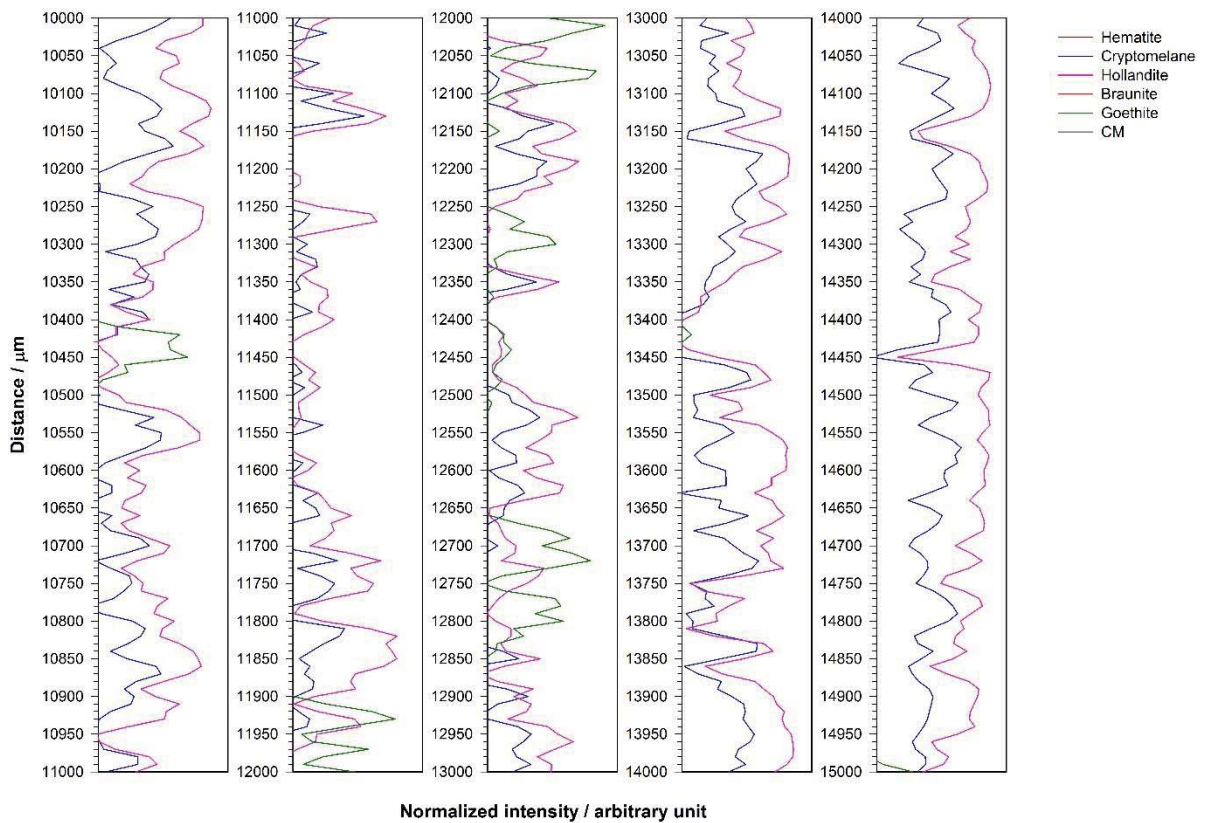
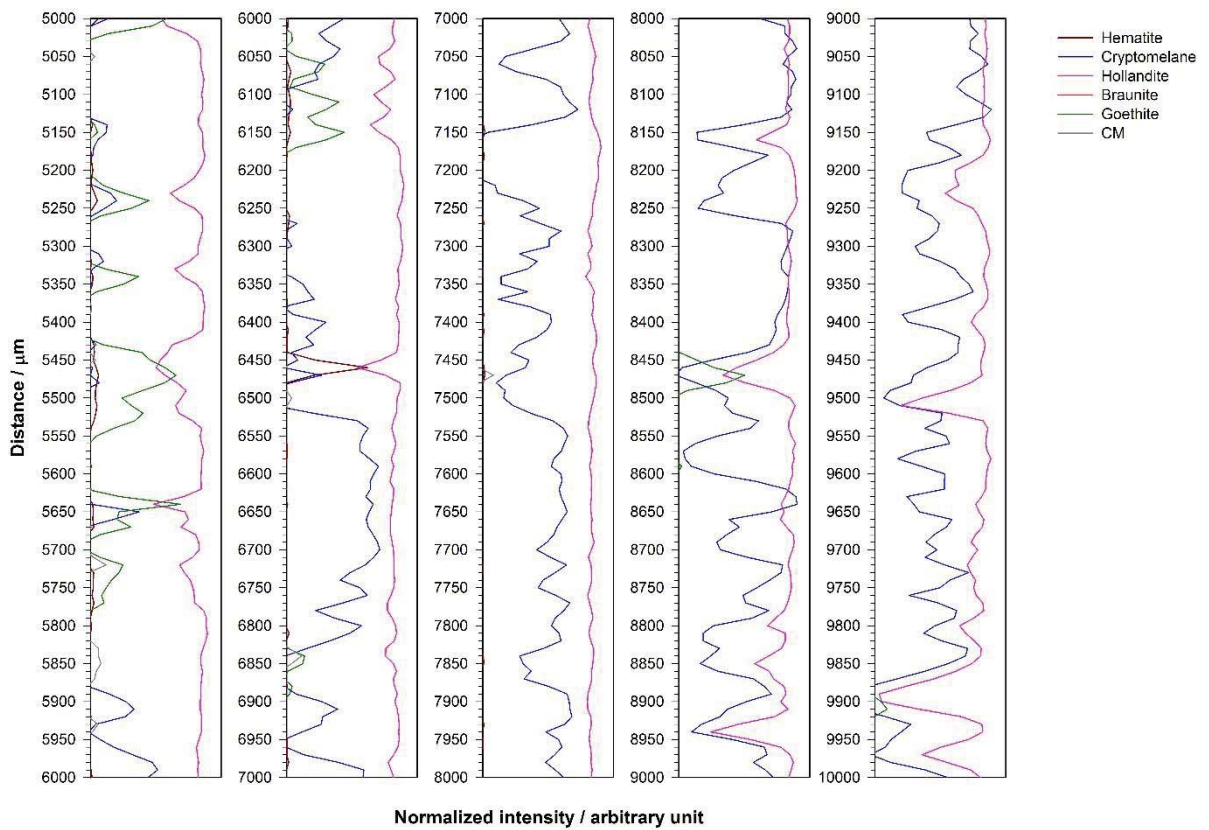


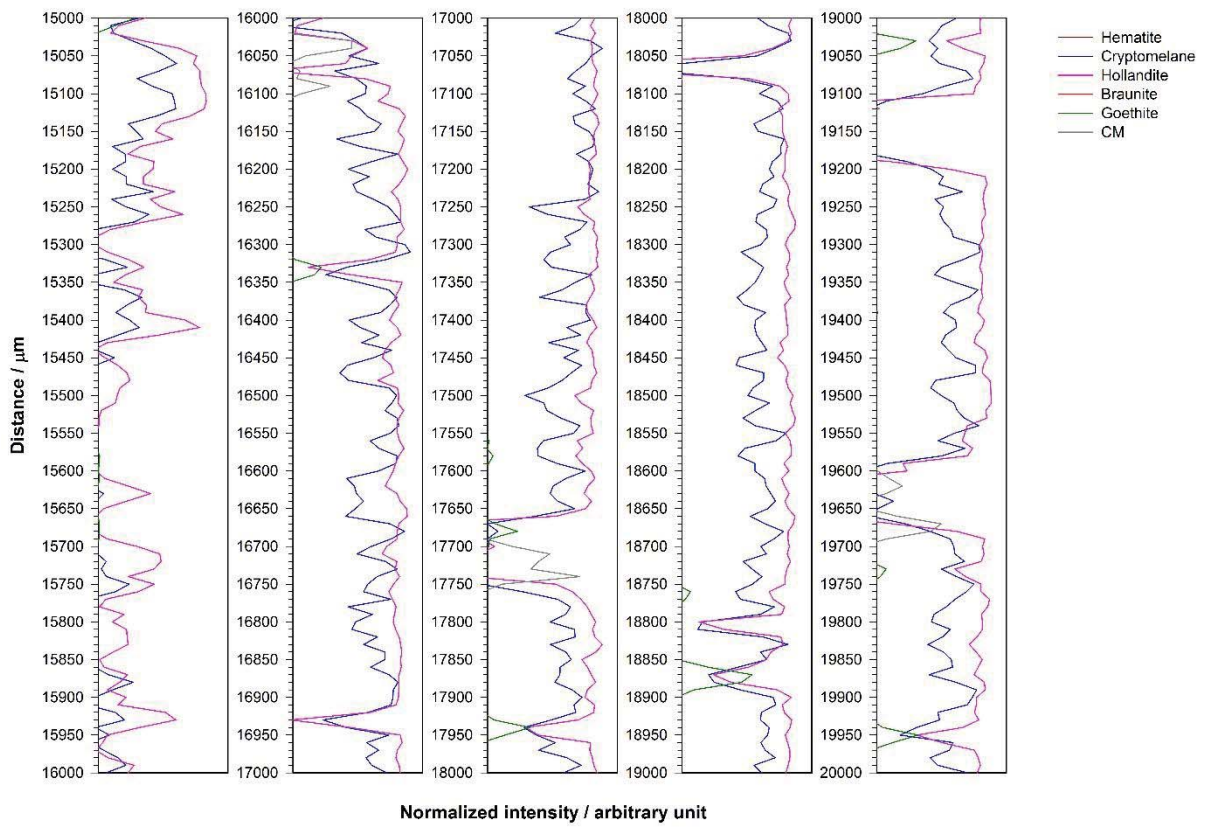


# 75-B5 (Mn-2)

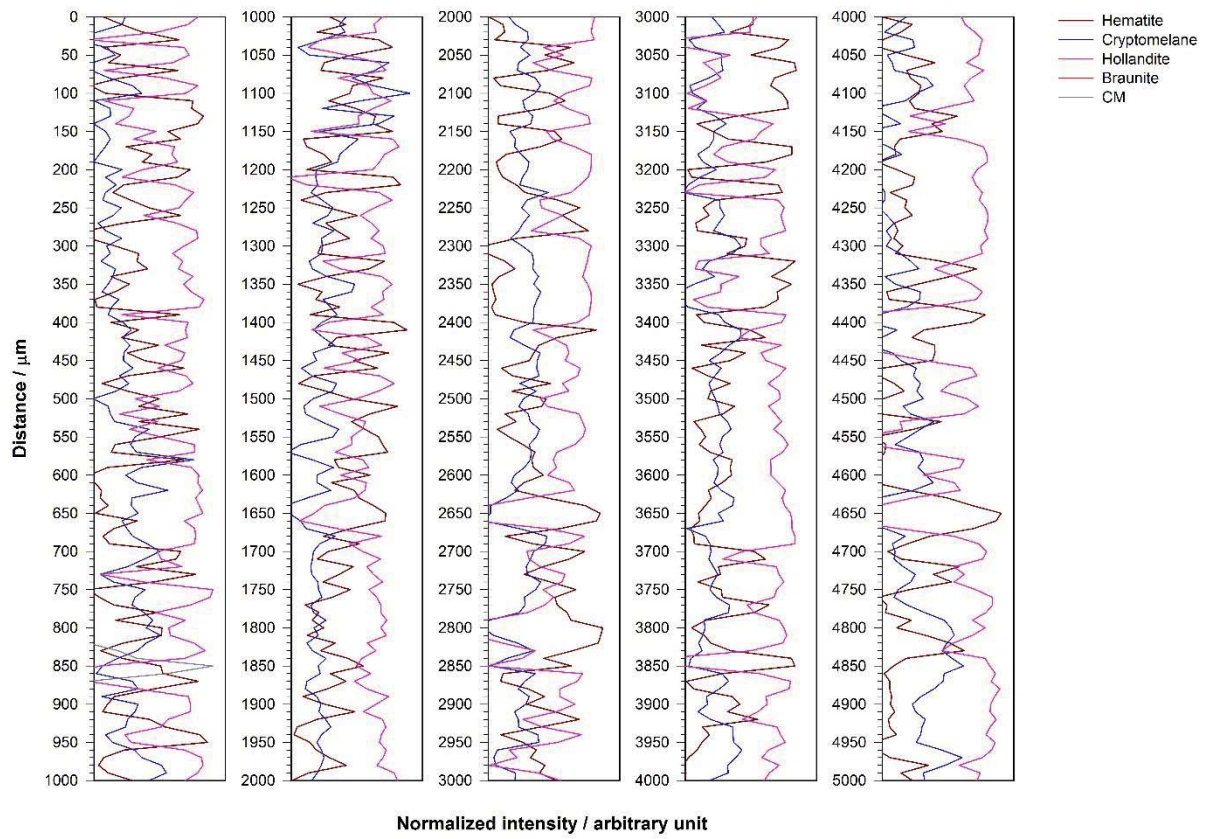


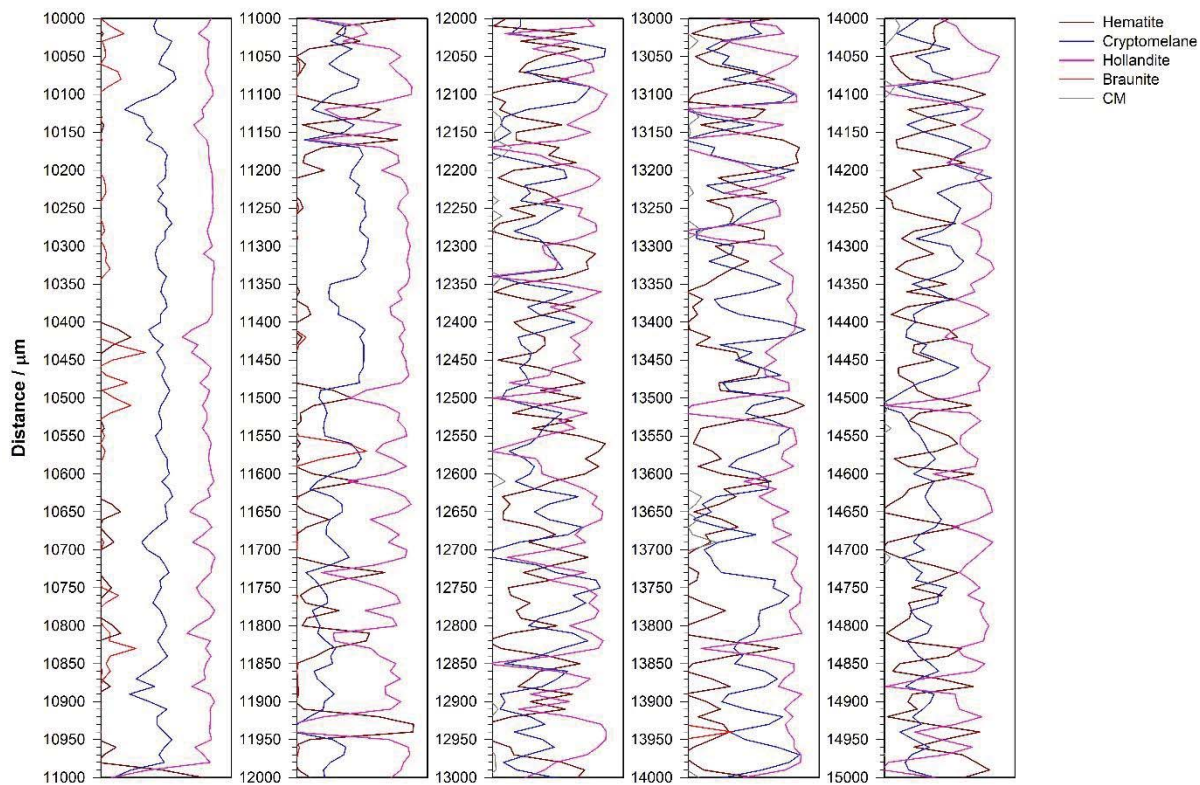
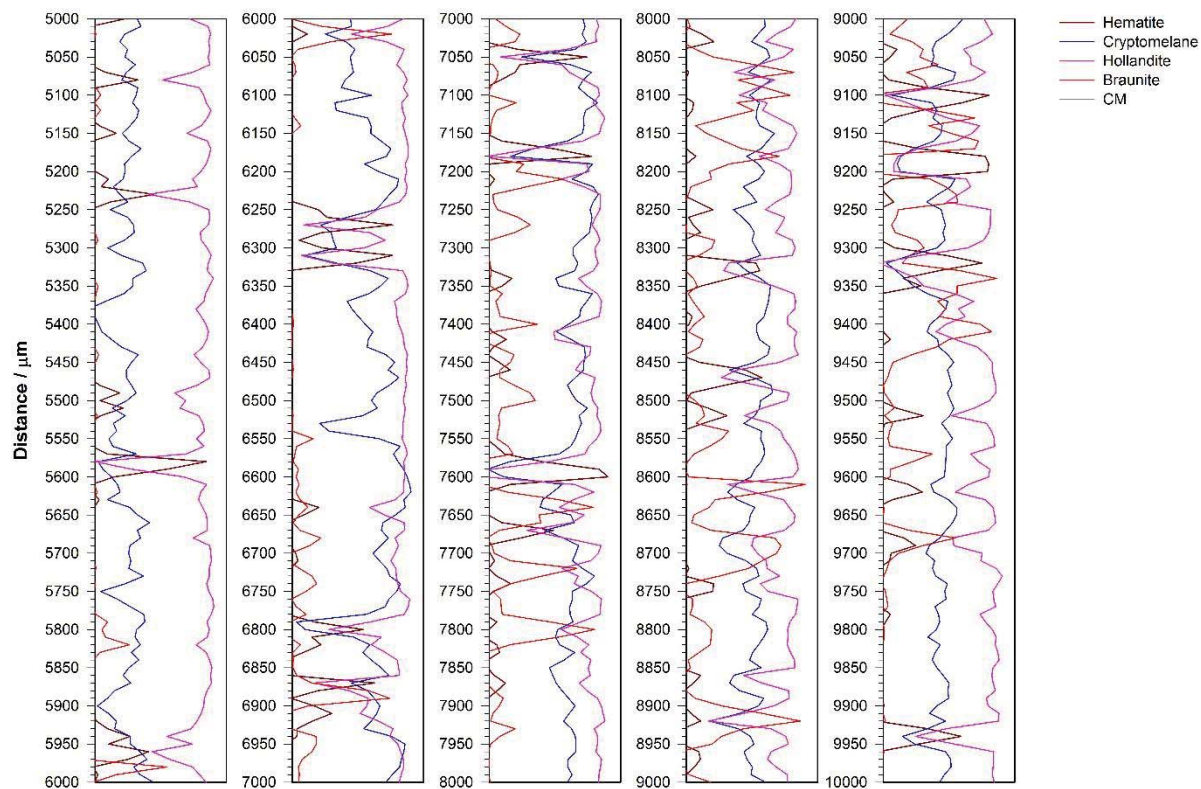




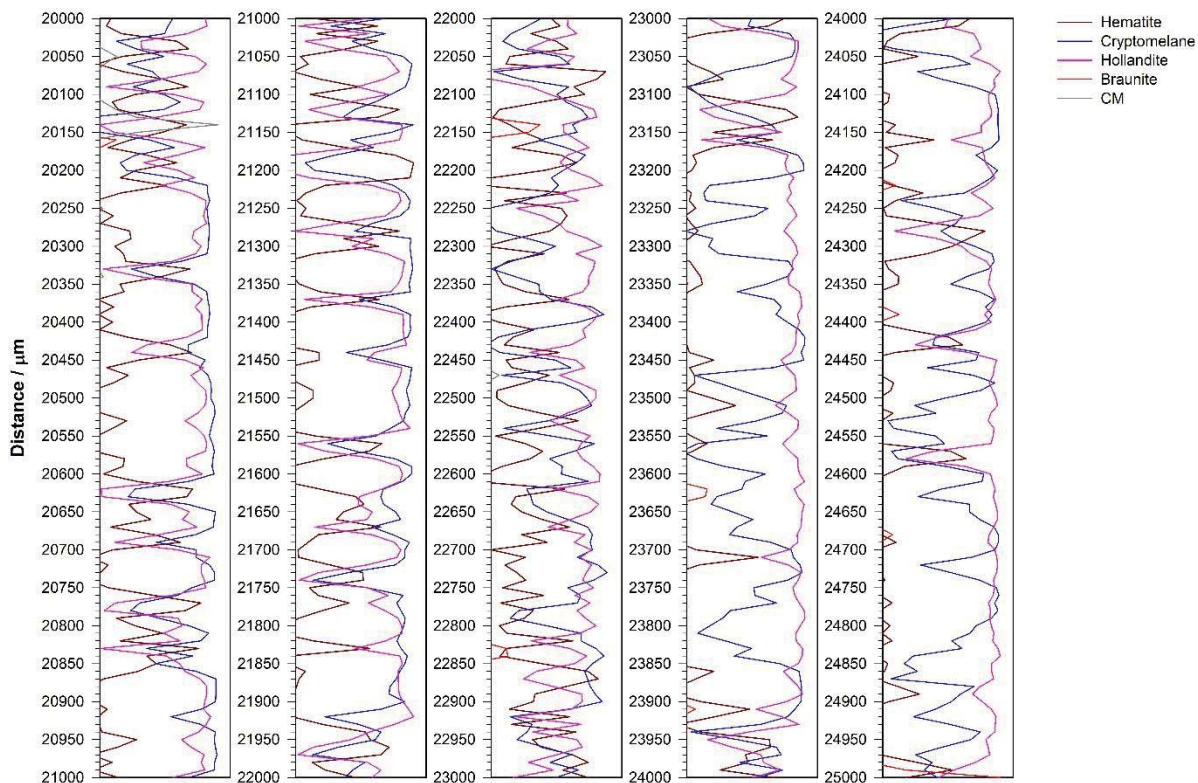
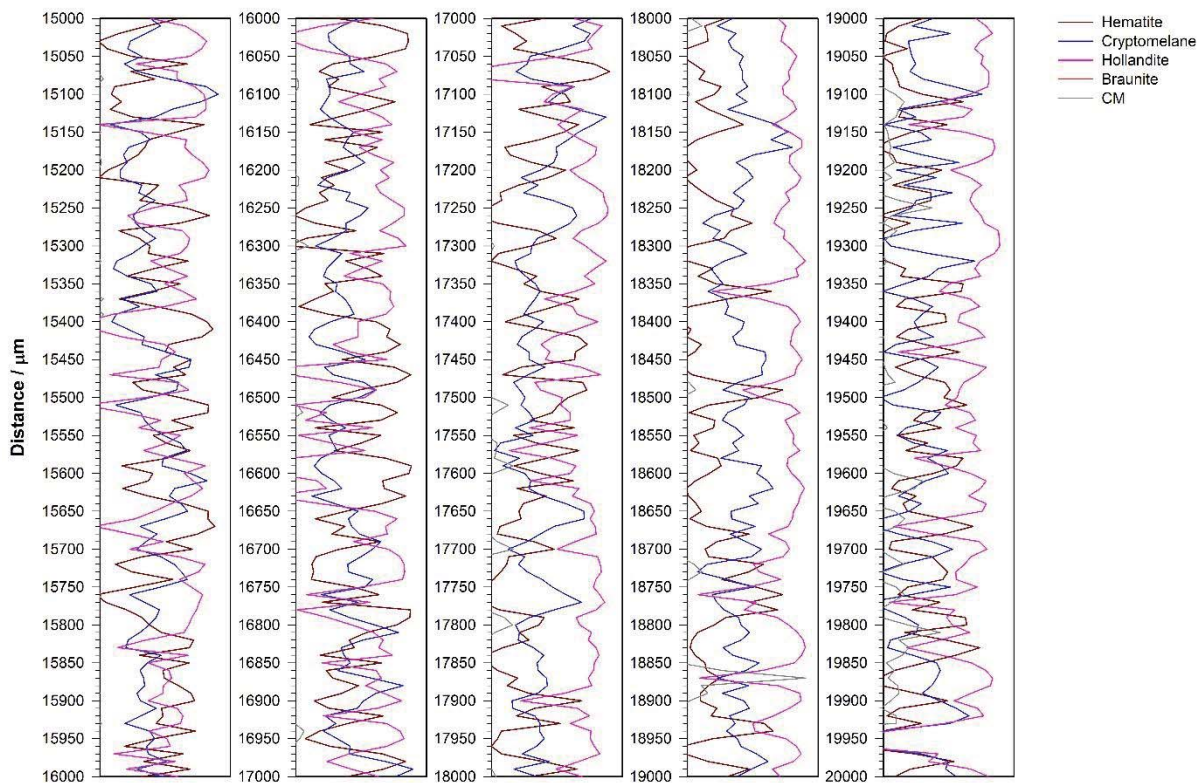


# 78-D1 (Mn-2)

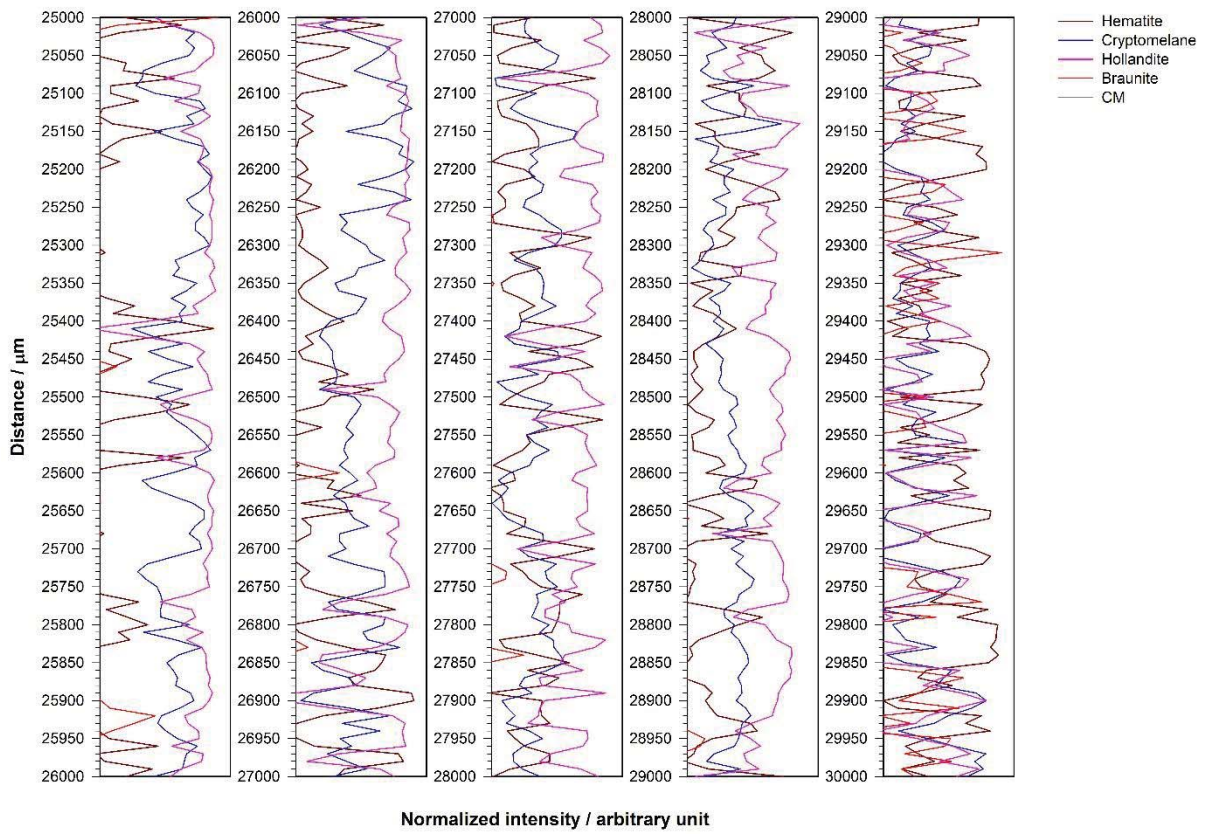




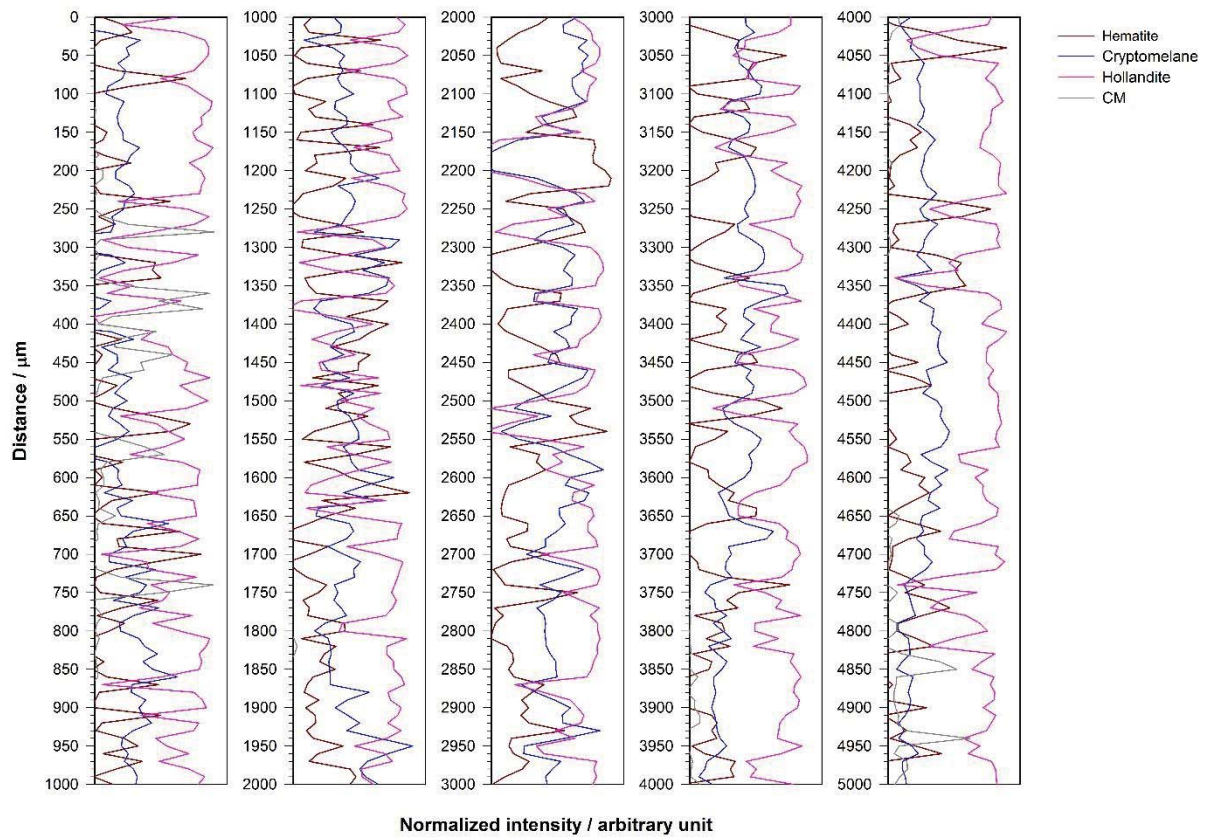
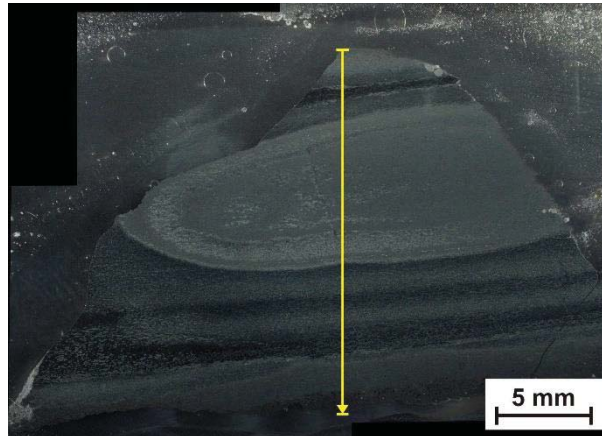
Normalized intensity / arbitrary unit

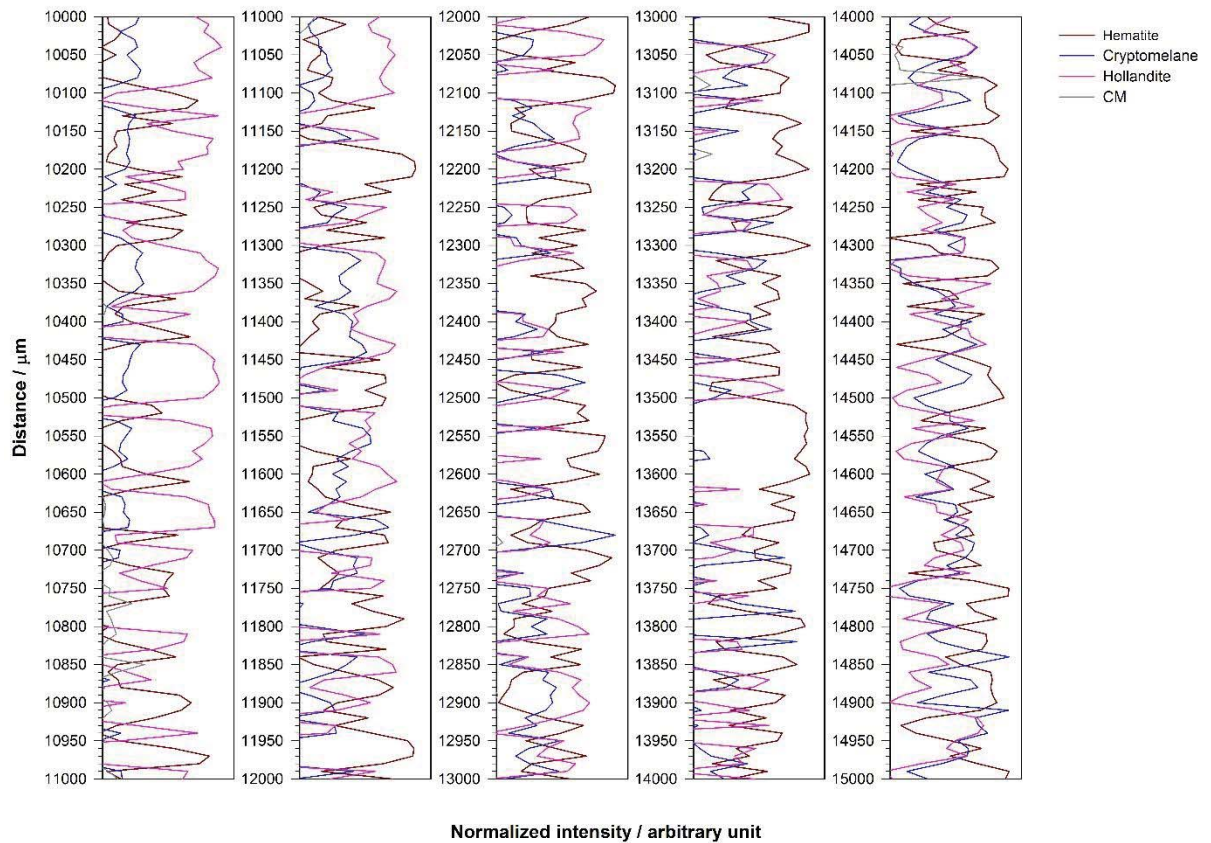
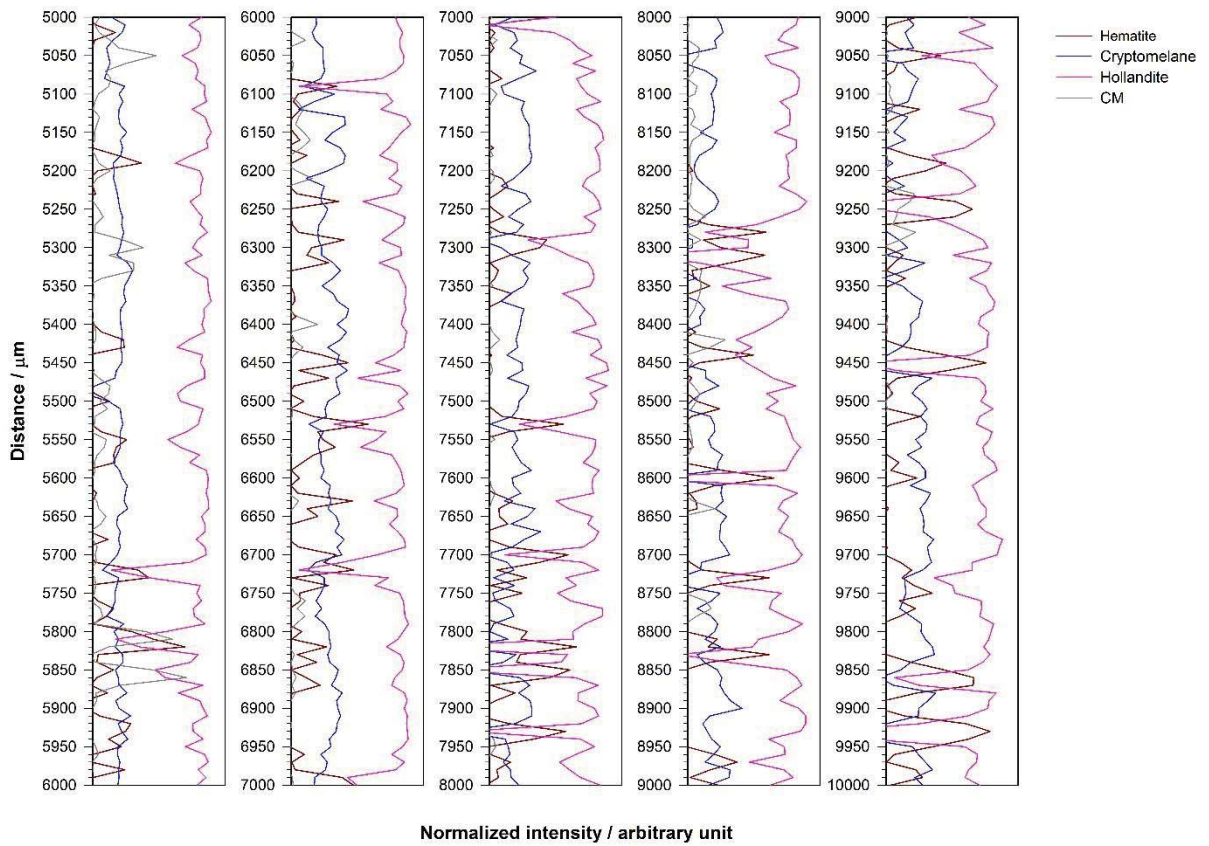


Normalized intensity / arbitrary unit

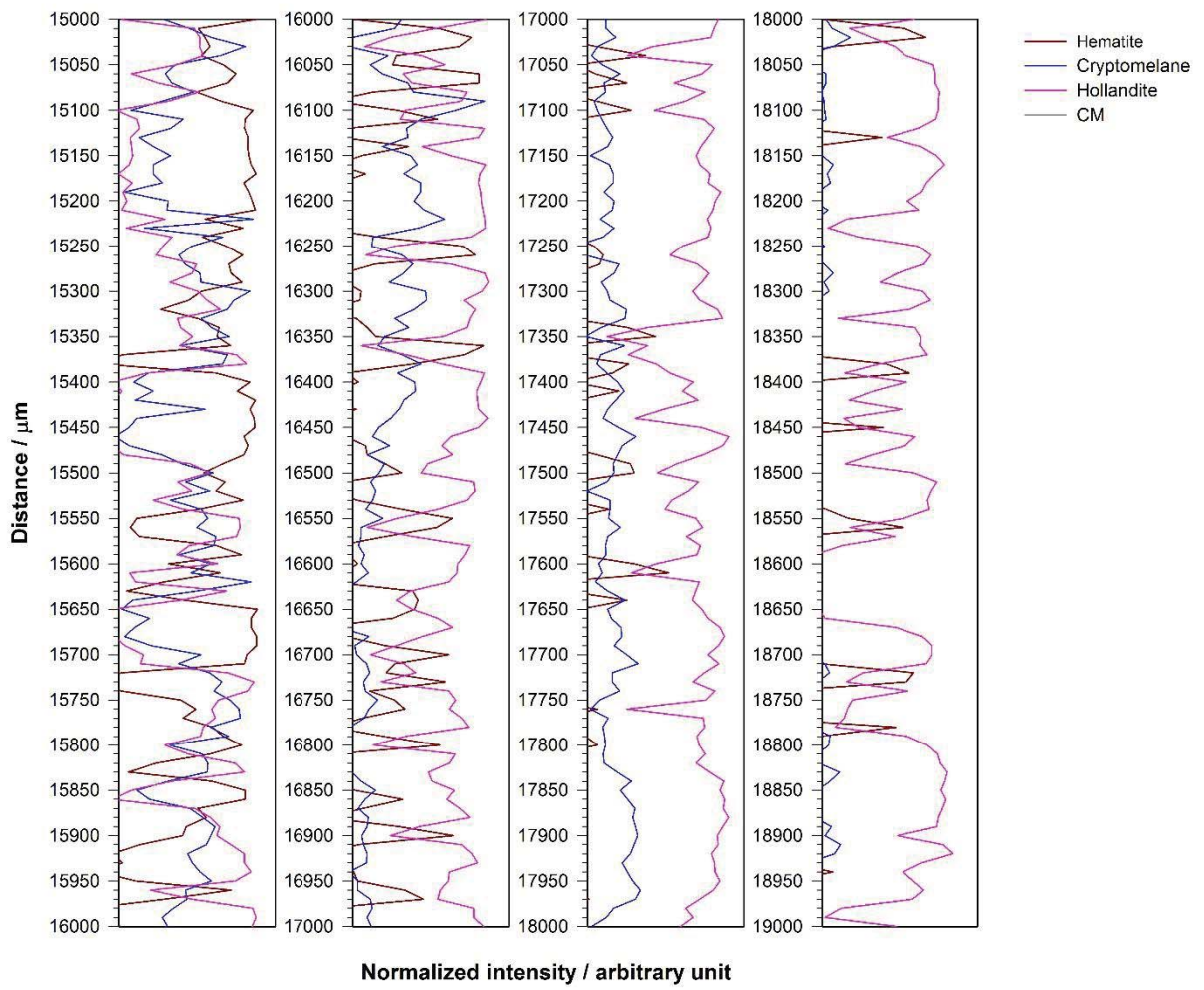


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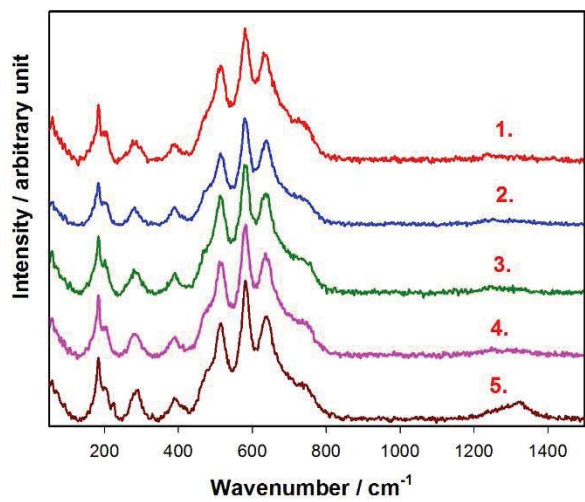
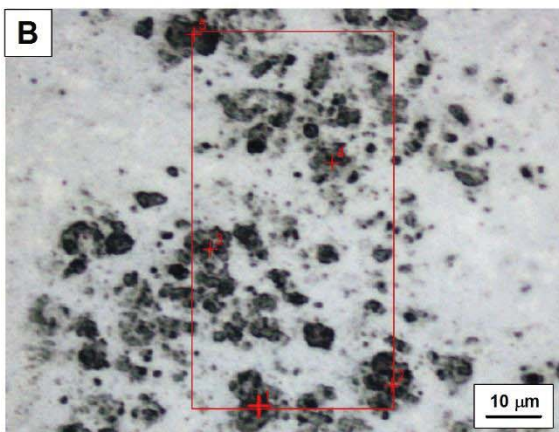
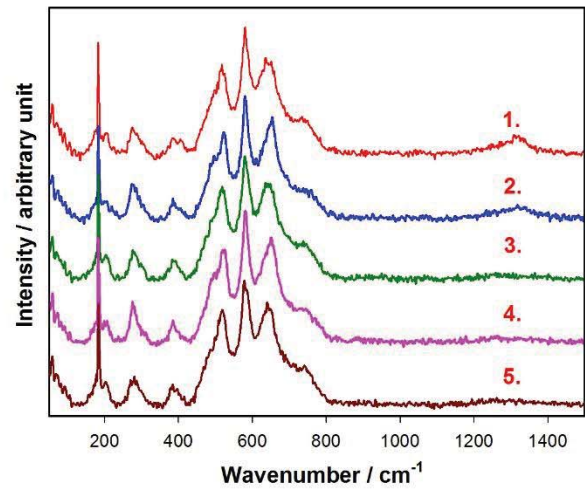
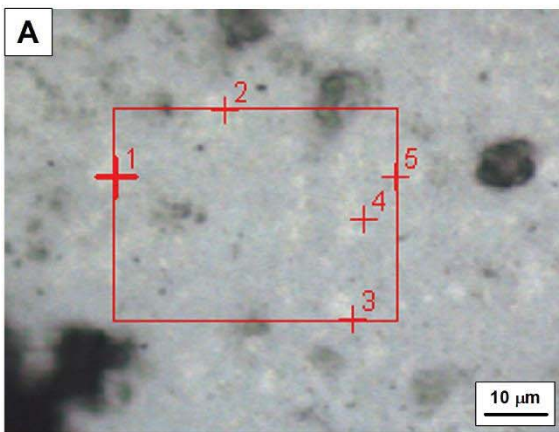
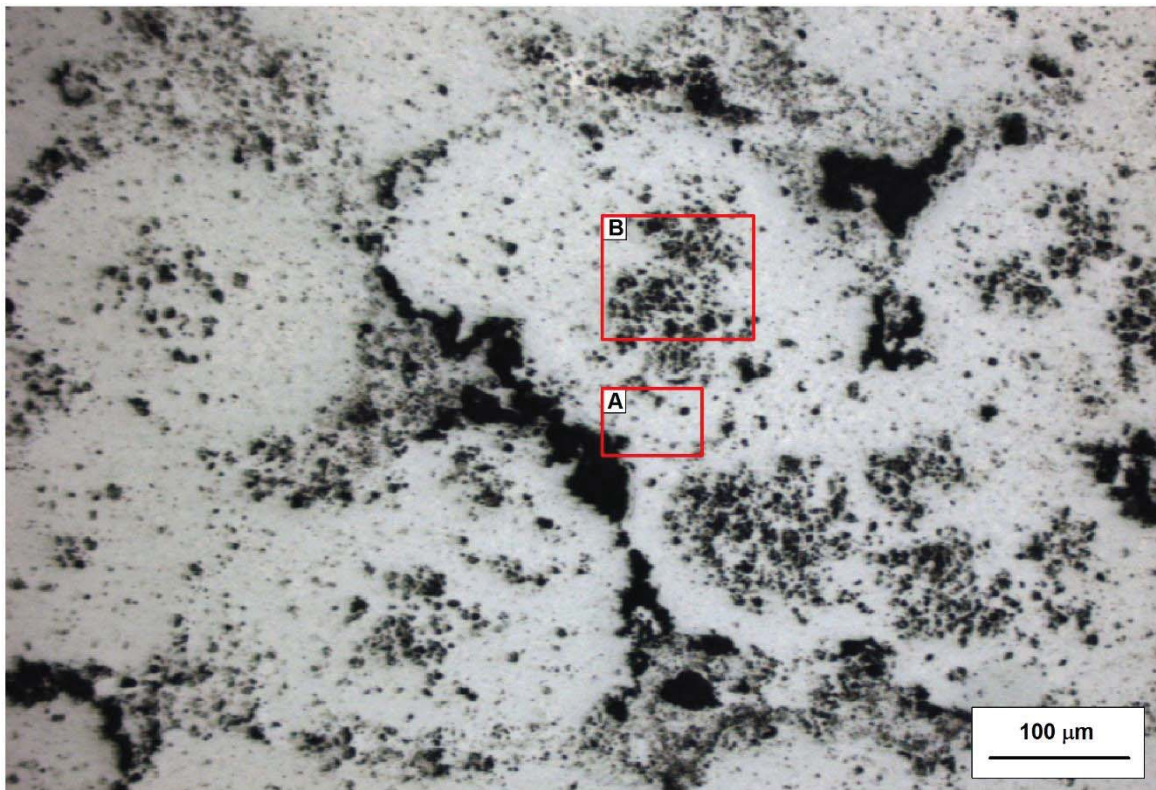


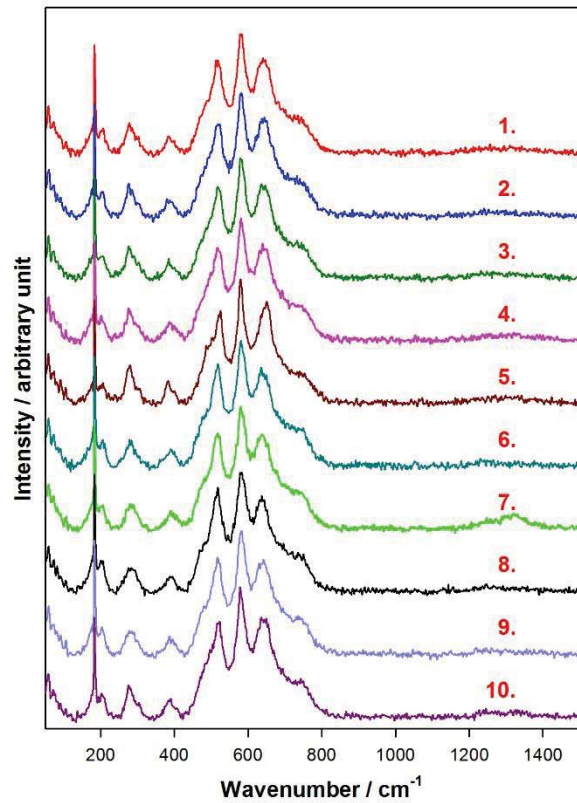
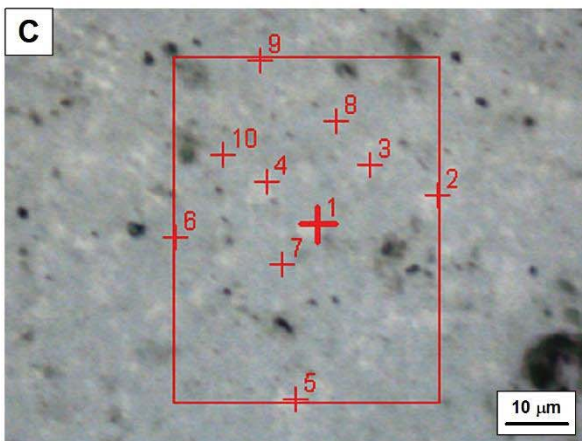
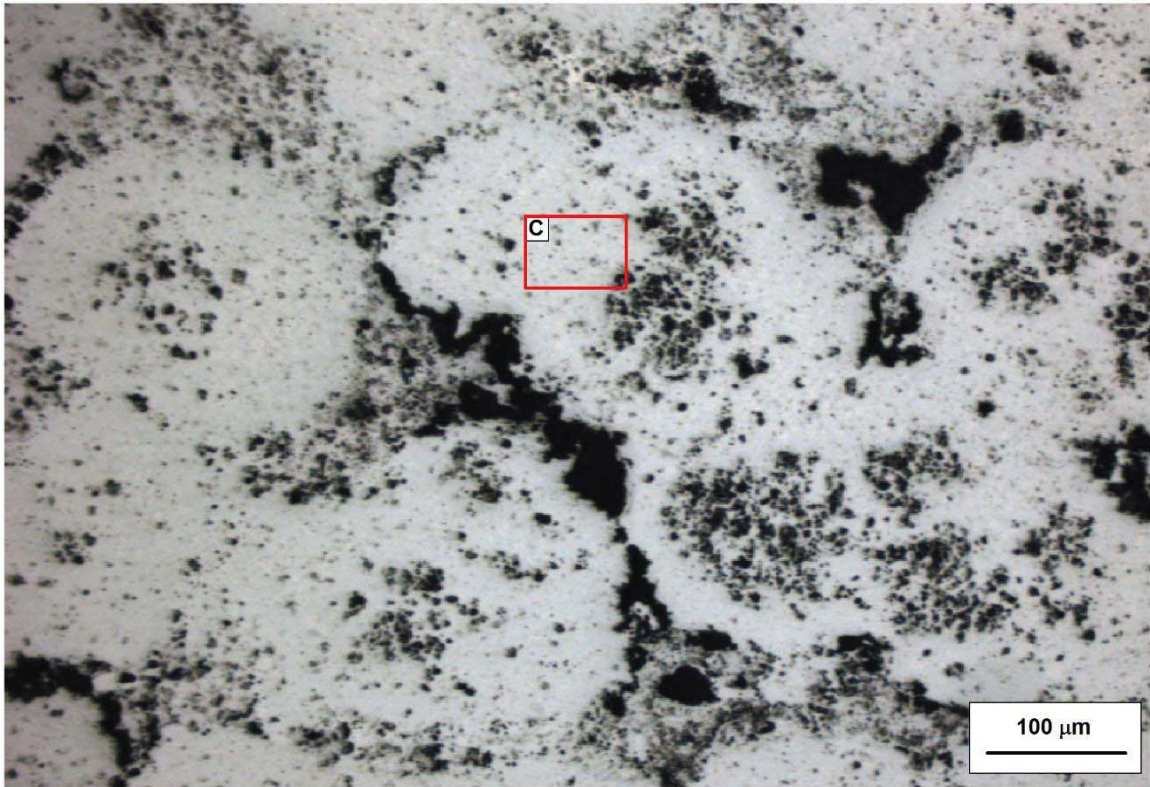


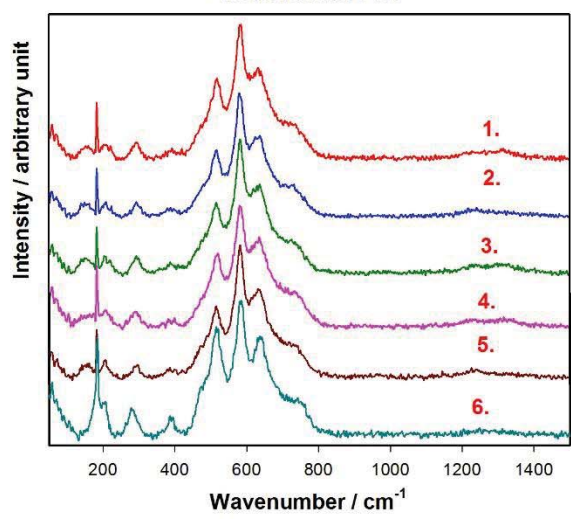
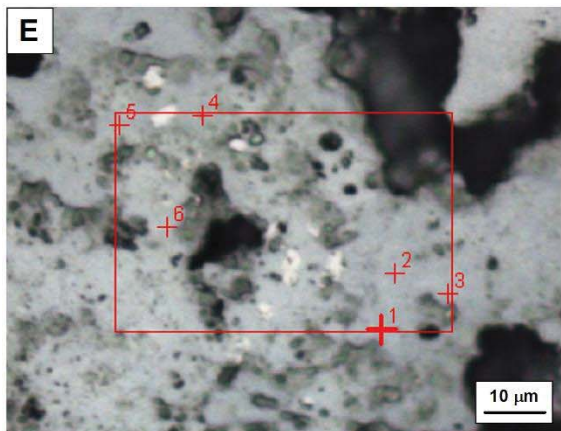
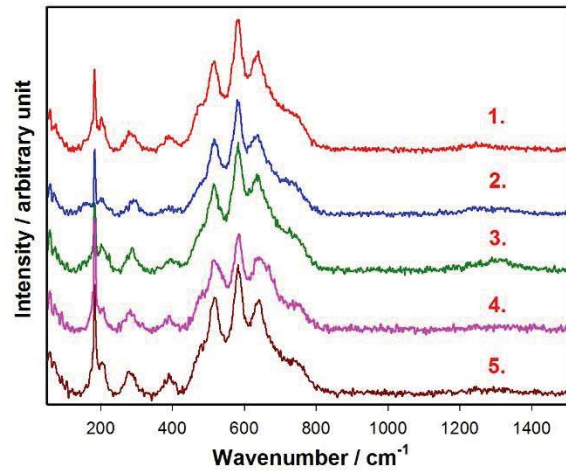
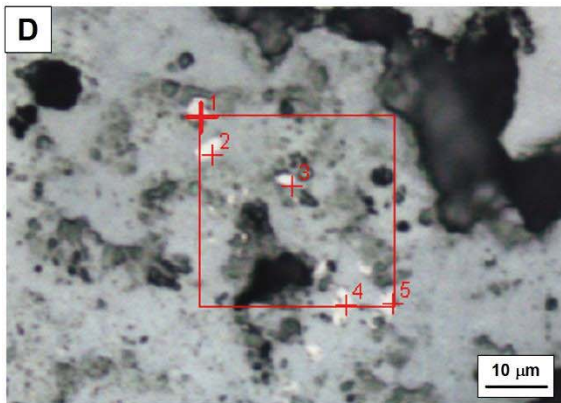
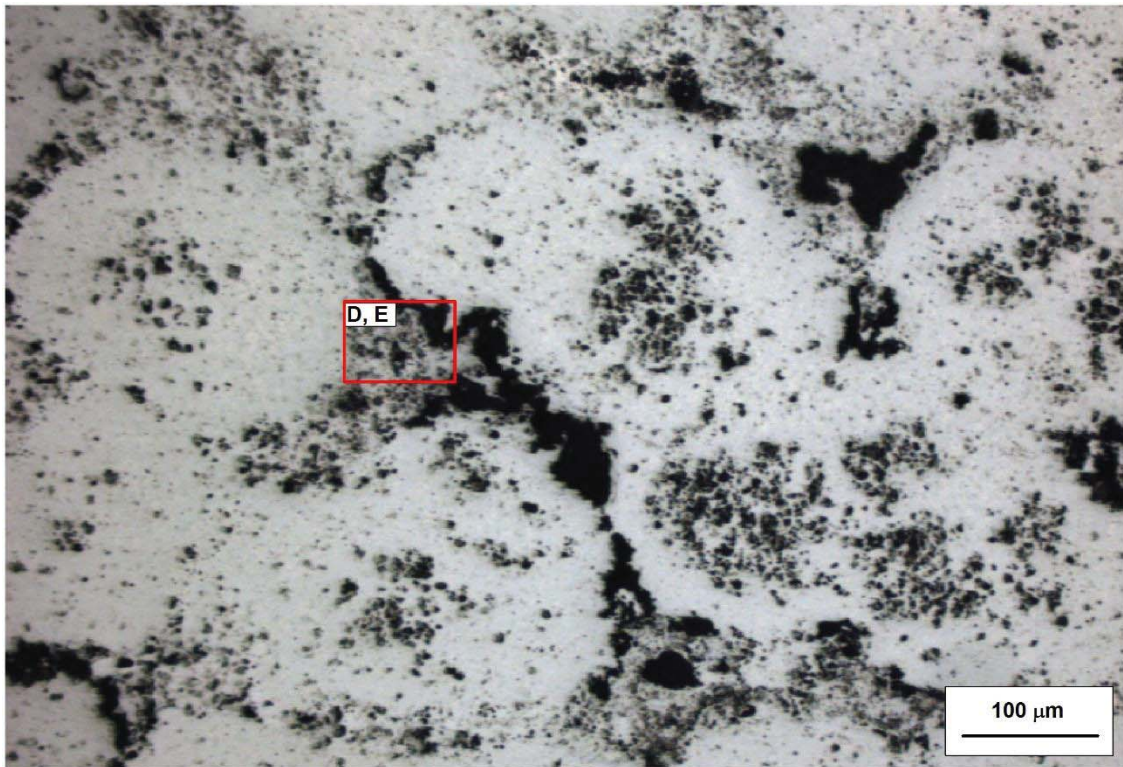


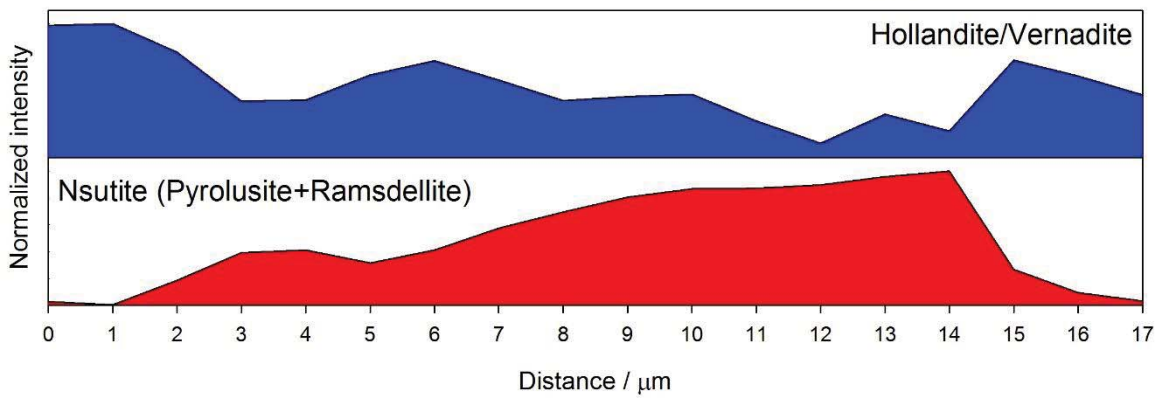
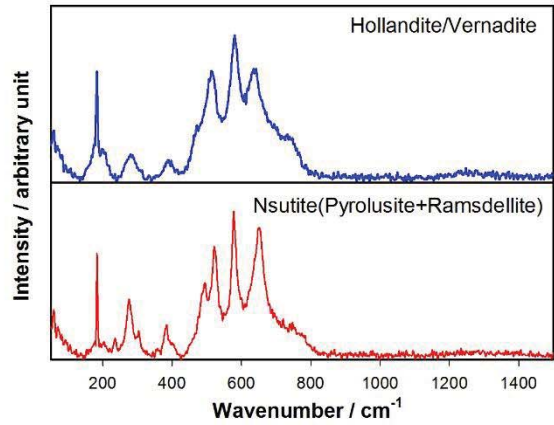
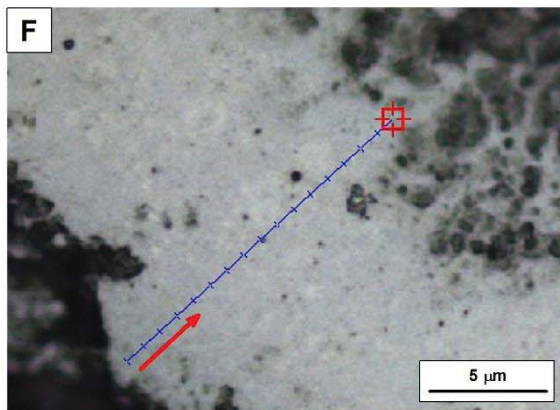
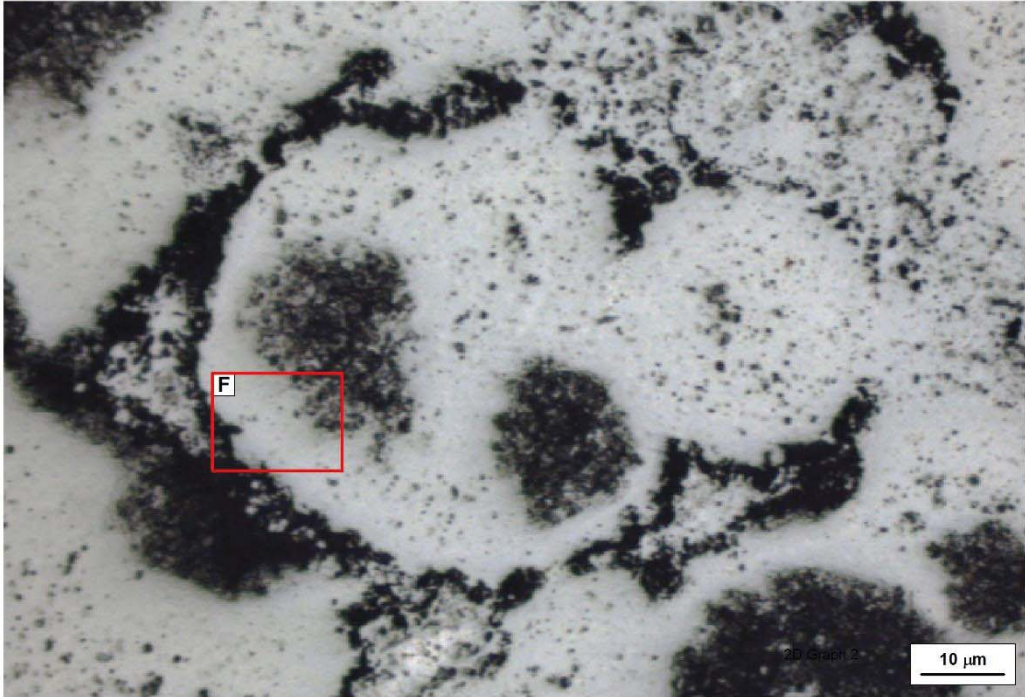


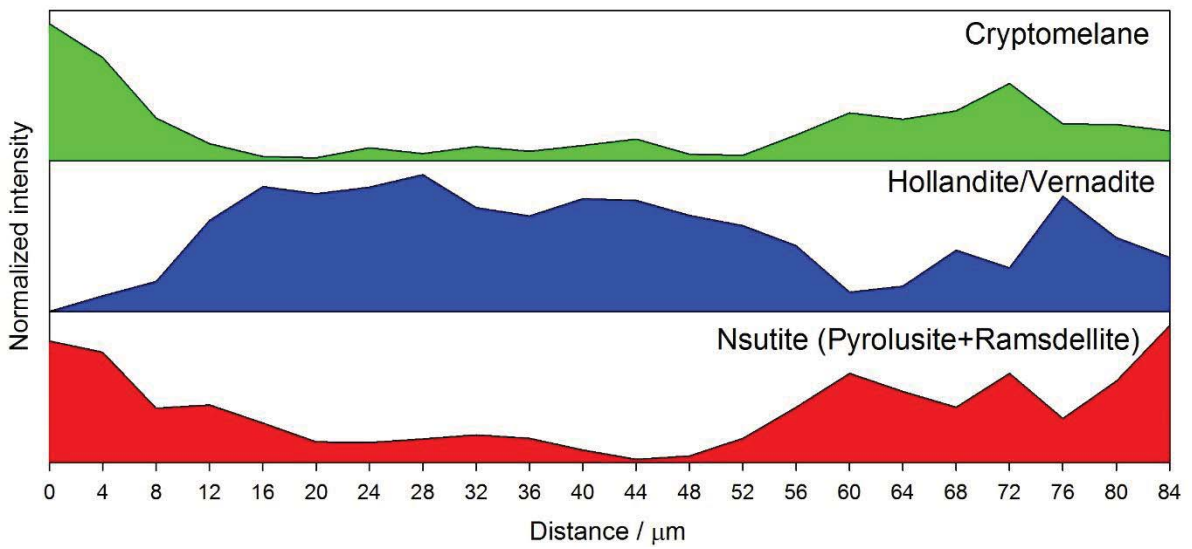
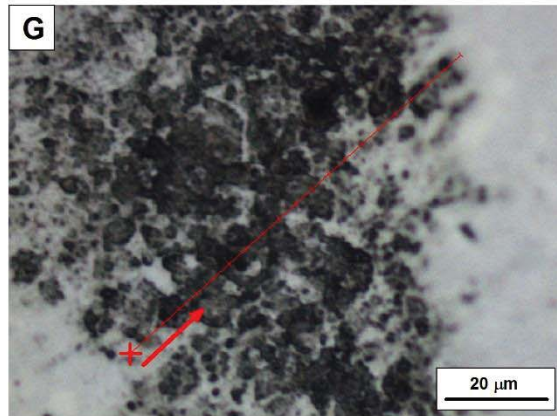
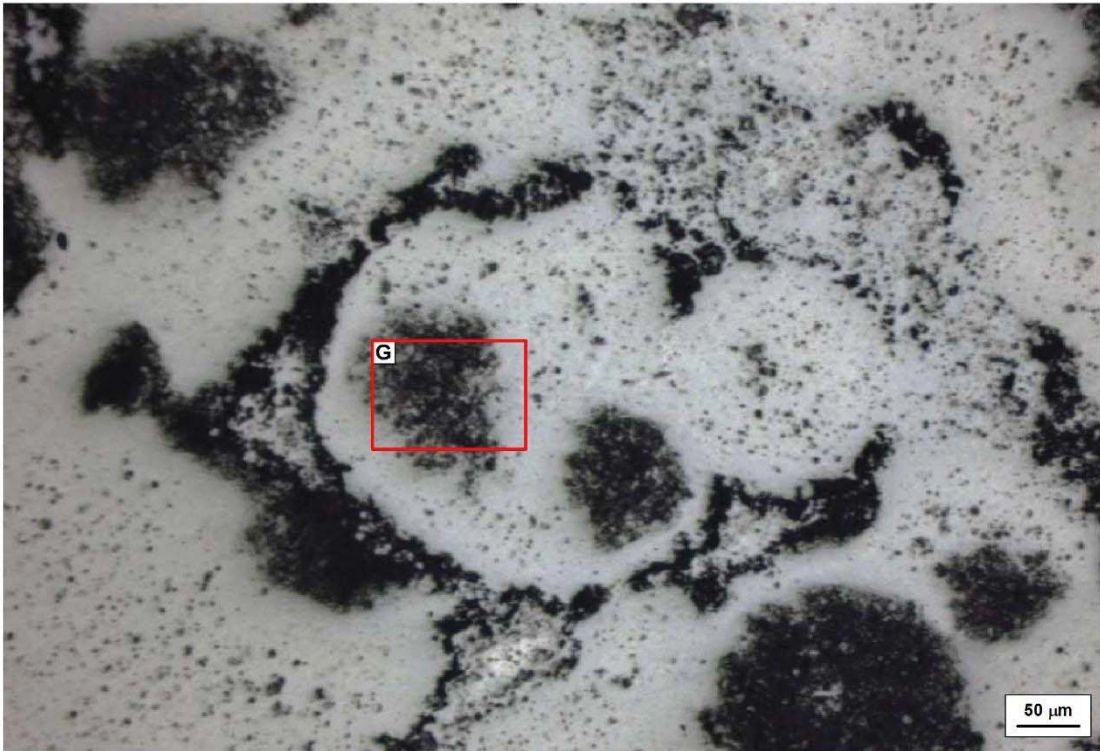
SI 13-Fig. Mineralogical distribution by Raman spectroscopy (sample 75-2)

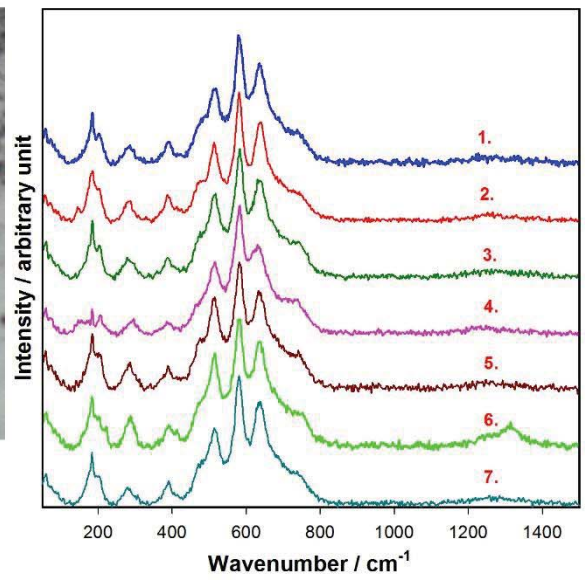
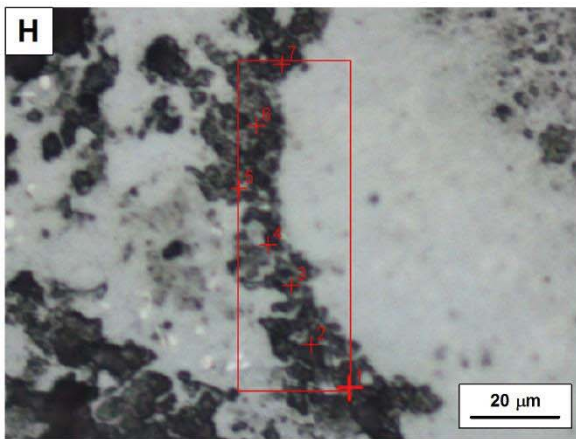
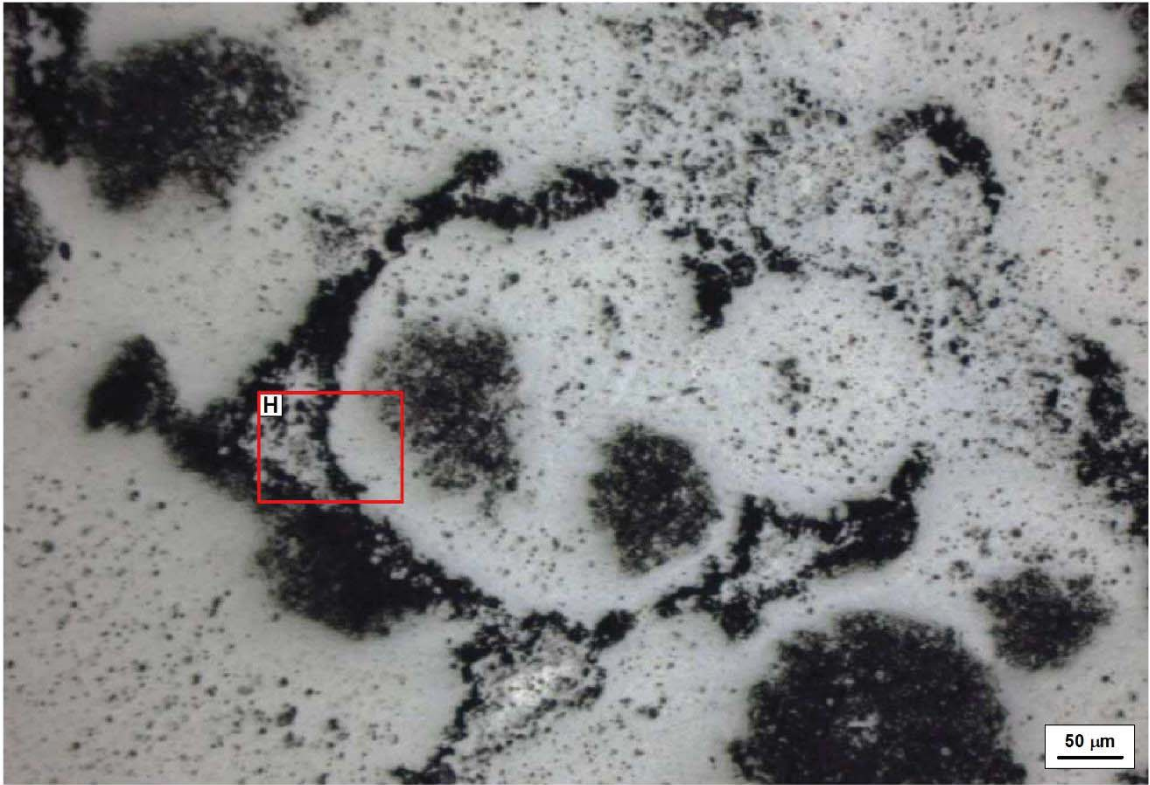


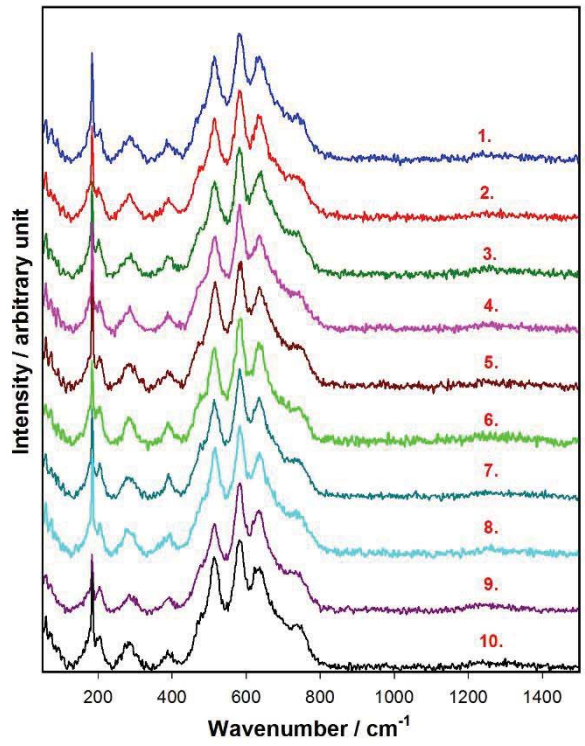
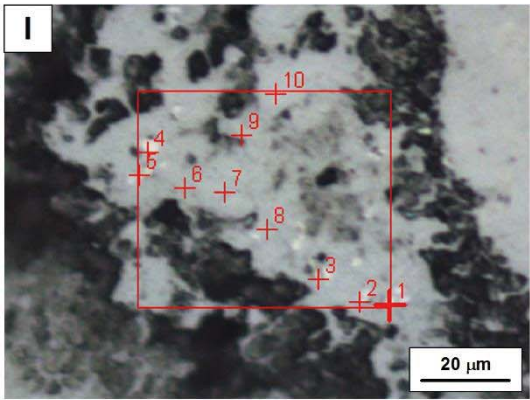
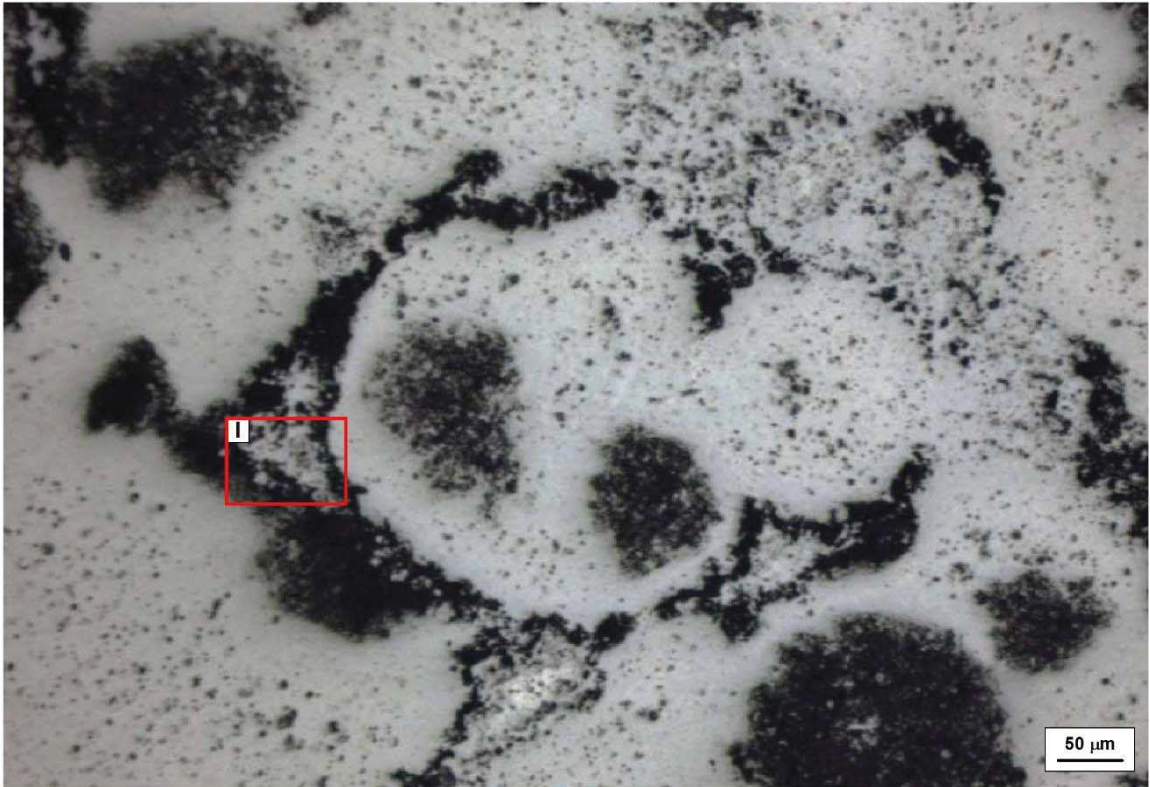




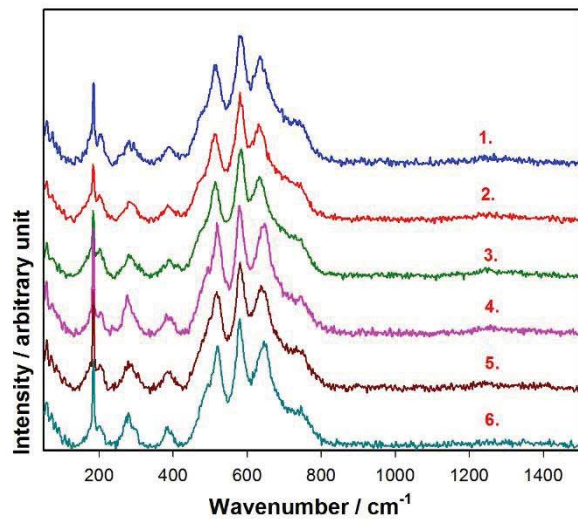
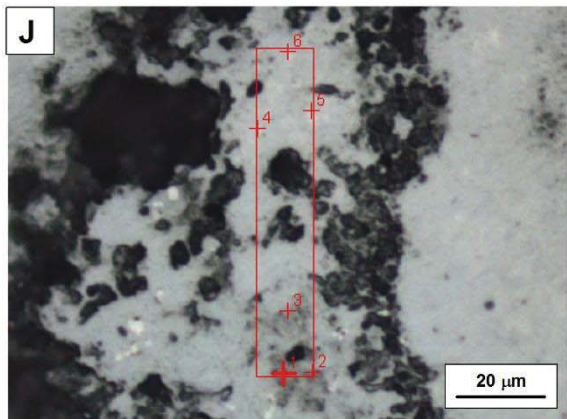
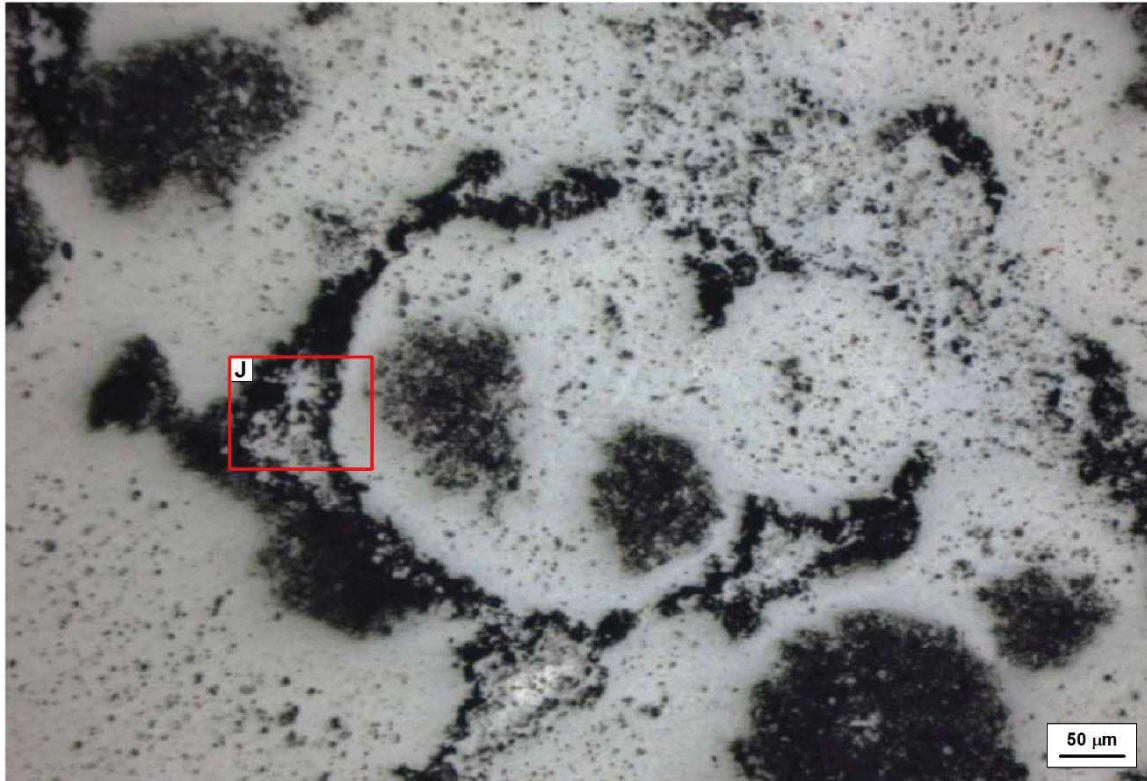












All the spectra taken in the fluffy parts, micronodules (cell colonies) and matrix material show dominant vernadite/hollandite-type Mn-oxides-hydroxides composition and more or less amount of cryptomelane and variable organic matter. The textural differences do not show significant mineralogical differences. The fluffy, micronodules are cell colonies (clusters), the central part consists of hollandite/vernadite (G) and organic matter, around which cryptomelane and nsutite (pyrolusite + ramsdellite) occur.

## SI 14-Fig. Mineral phases and distribution in spherical (bubble-like) structures measured by Raman spectroscopy

### 1. Outer part

The “**dark spots**” in the matrix (M2 and M4 on Fig. 1) are mainly empty except dark porous inner rim with various thickness, which consist of hollandite type Mn oxide phase (dominant phase), cryptomelane and goethite (Fig. 2-5). The **matrix** among the “dark spots” (M1 and M3 on Fig. 1) is built up also by hollandite, cryptomelane and goethite (Fig. 2-5). The occurrence and distribution of the three minerals are consistent in the matrix material any trend in their distribution was not observable.

### 2. Rim

The non-porous rim of the spherical structure „bubble-like structure” (001 line on Fig. 1) mainly consists of hollandite and cryptomelane in variable amounts (Fig. 6). Rarely among the hollandite-cryptomelane flakes fine-grained clusters of goethite occur (Fig. 6). The distribution of the mentioned phases are indicative of gradually drop of peak intensity related to hollandite and cryptomelane phases in the direction from the spherical structure ("bubble-like structure") to the matrix (Fig. 6).

### 3. Inner part

The **matrix** of the inner part of the spherical (bubble-like) structure is composed of very fine grained goethite (ferrihydrite) and little particles of Mn oxides (hollandite, cryptomelane in variable amounts), however hollandite is the dominant in the **dark spots** (Fig. 7-11). The mineral composition of the matrix and the dark spots show a unified distribution, any difference or significant trend in the matrix or in the dark spots was not detected.

**Representative sample areas where Raman spectra were acquired** (the other measured areas have similar mineral composition and distribution).

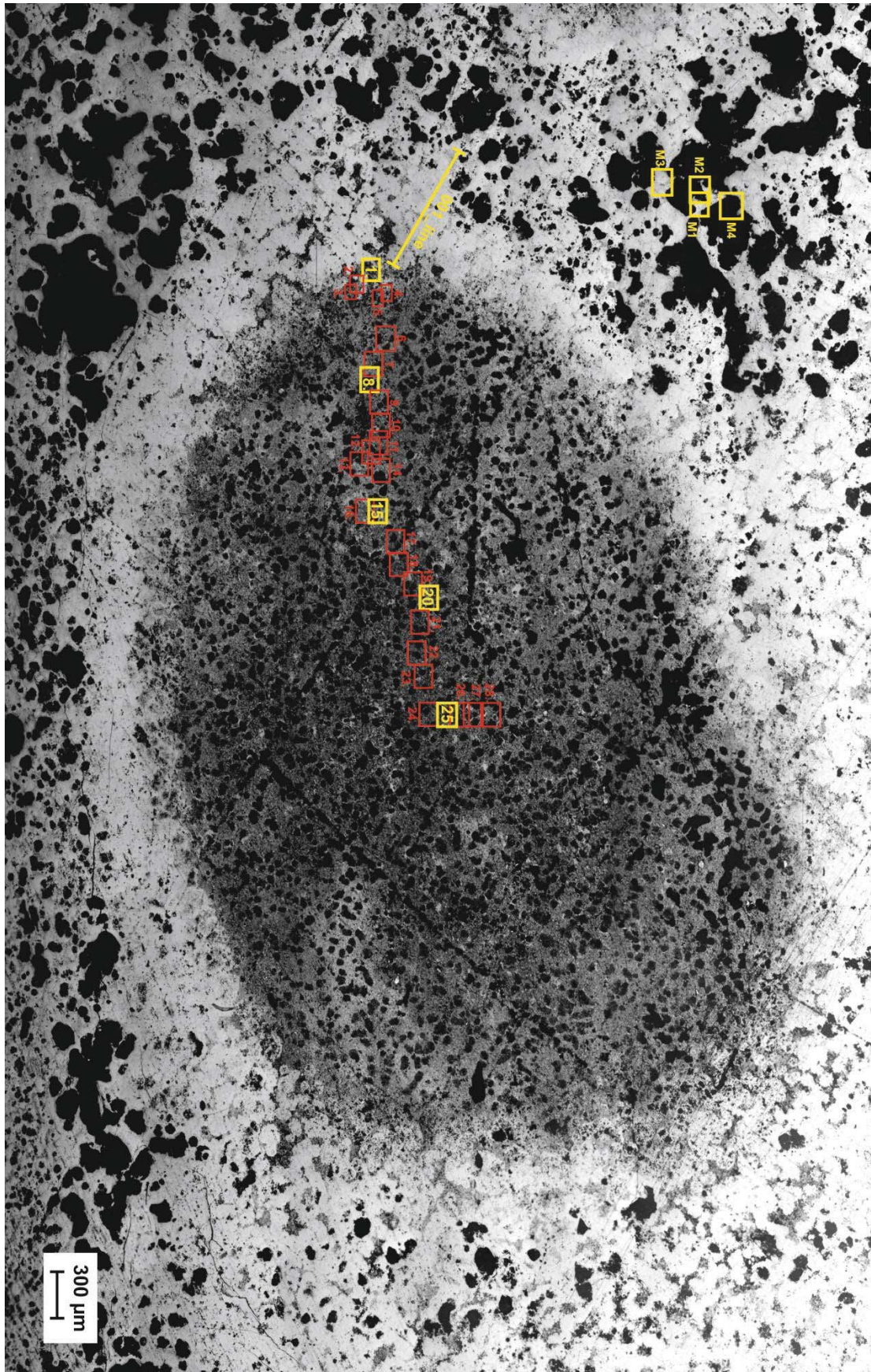


Figure 1.: Composite map from the investigated spherical (bubble-like) structure - measured areas are indicated on the picture (those places are detailed in this short report are in yellow color)

### Outer part

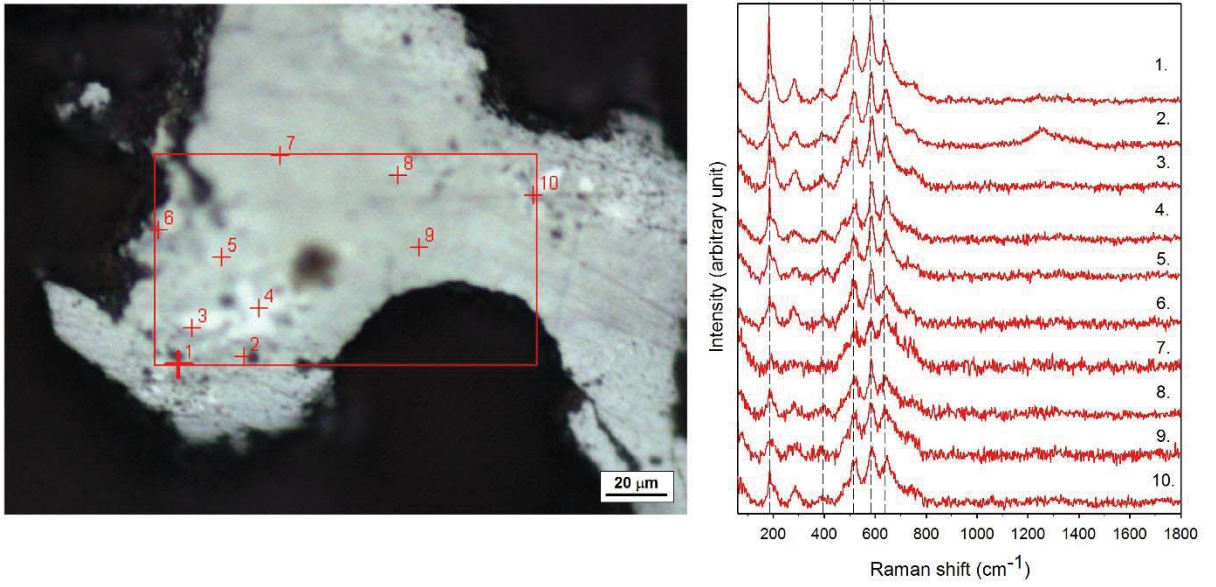


Figure 2.: Measuring points and Raman spectra from place indicated by M1 on Fig. 1.

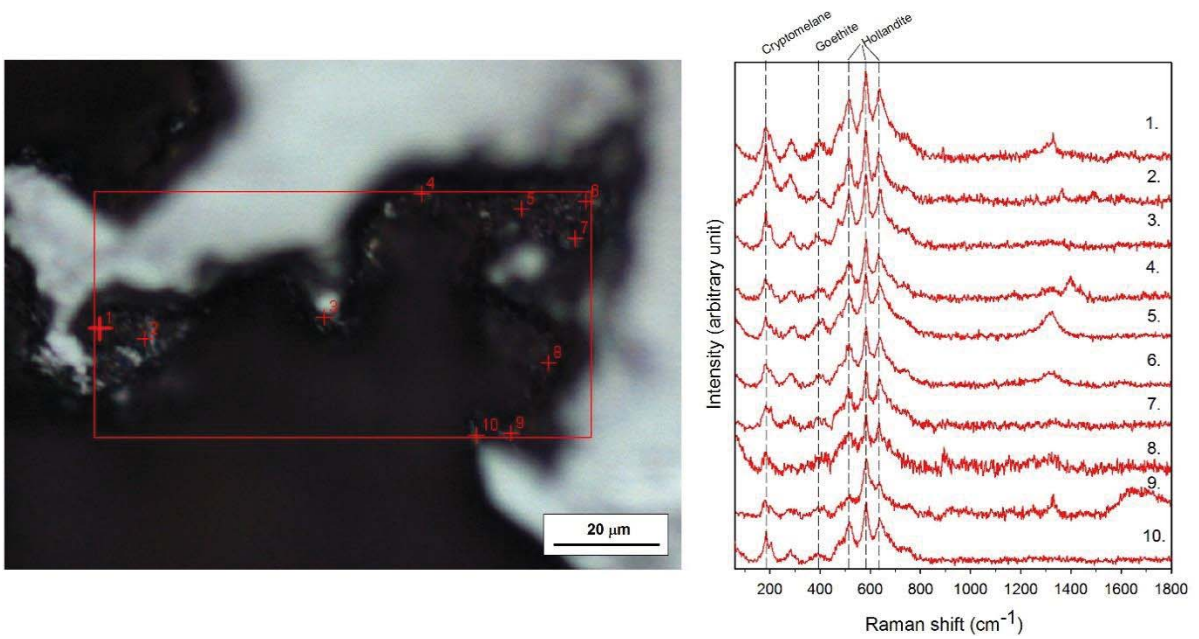


Figure 3.: Measuring points and Raman spectra from place indicated by M2 on Fig. 1.

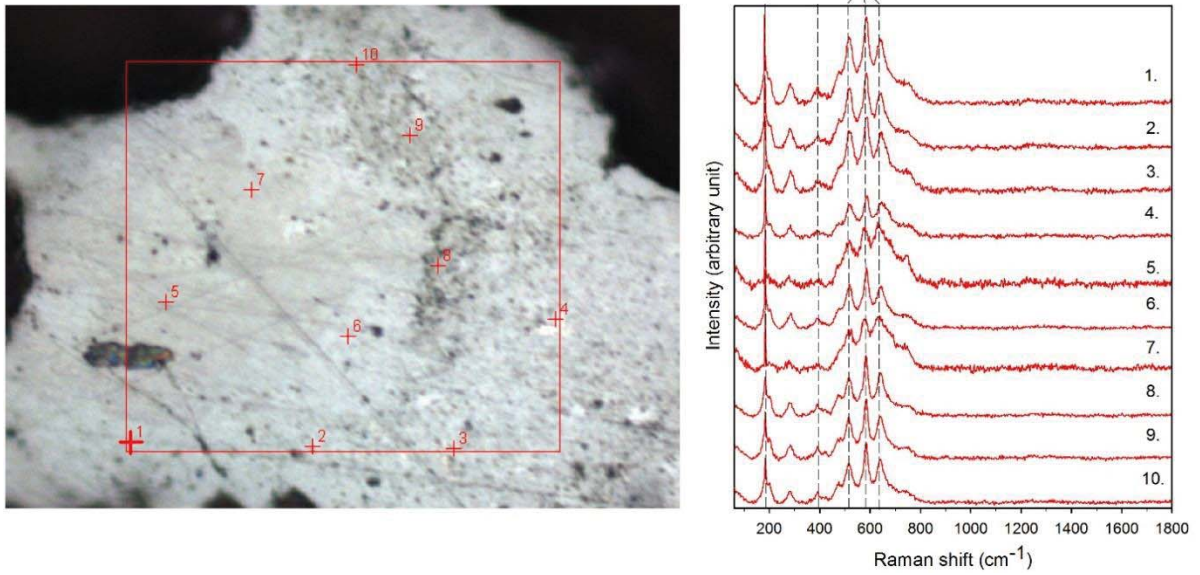


Figure 4.: Measuring points and Raman spectra from place indicated by M3 on Fig. 1.

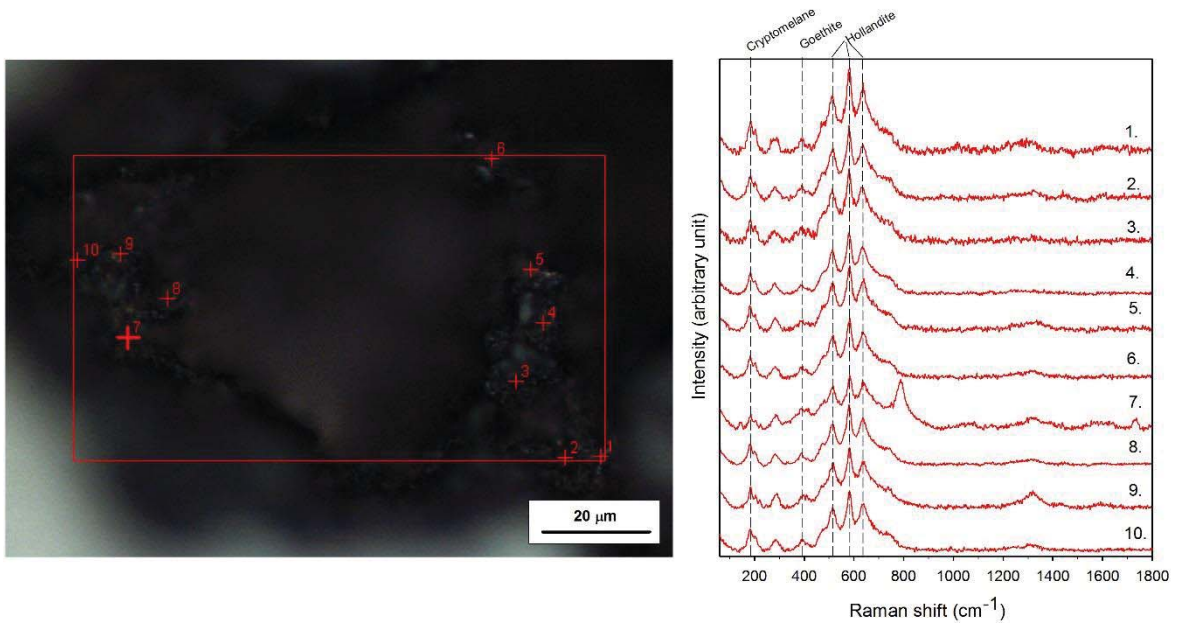


Figure 5.: Measuring points and Raman spectra from place indicated by M4 on Fig. 1.

Peak at  $800\text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be  $\text{UO}_2$  or janhaugite  $(\text{Na},\text{Ca})_3(\text{Mn}^{2+},\text{Fe}^{2+})_3(\text{Ti},\text{Zr},\text{Nb})_2(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)_2\text{O}_2(\text{OH},\text{F})_2$

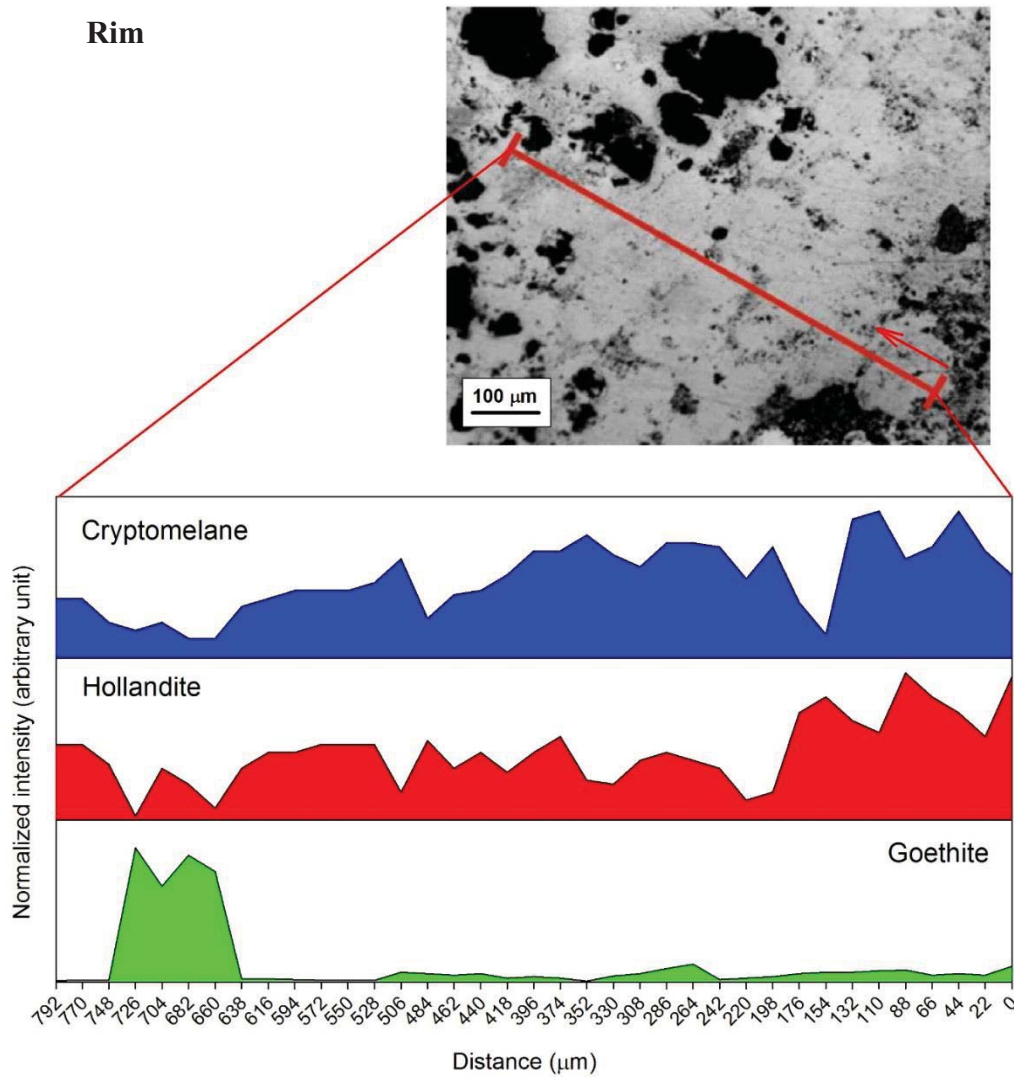


Figure 6.: 001-line map (indicated by yellow line marked with 001\_line caption on the image).

## Inner part

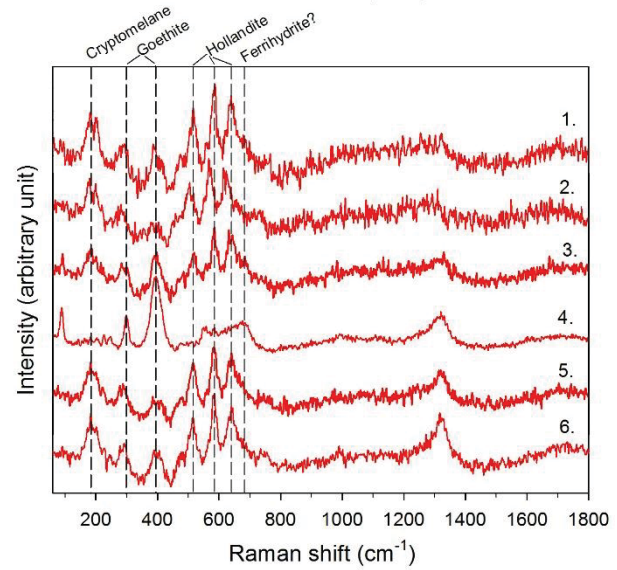
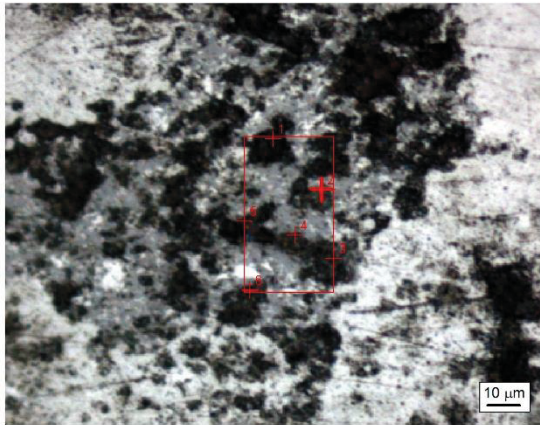
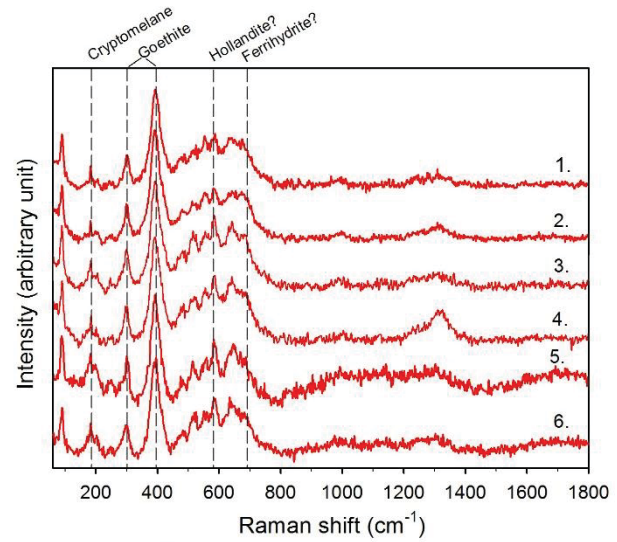
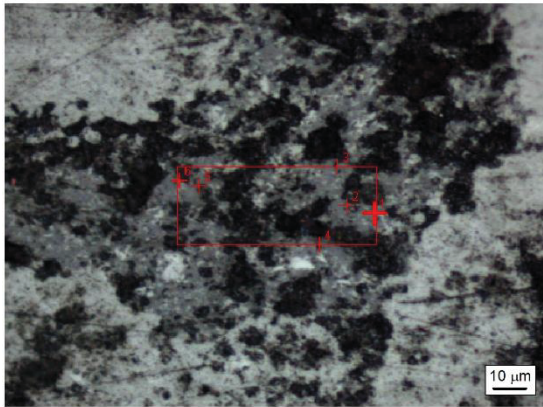


Figure 7.: Map indicated on the composite picture by yellow box marked by number 1.

The leftmost part of the spherical (bubble-like) structure consists of goethite (ferrihydrate) and little particles of Mn oxides (hollandite, cryptomelane in various amount), however hollandite is the dominant in the dark spots.

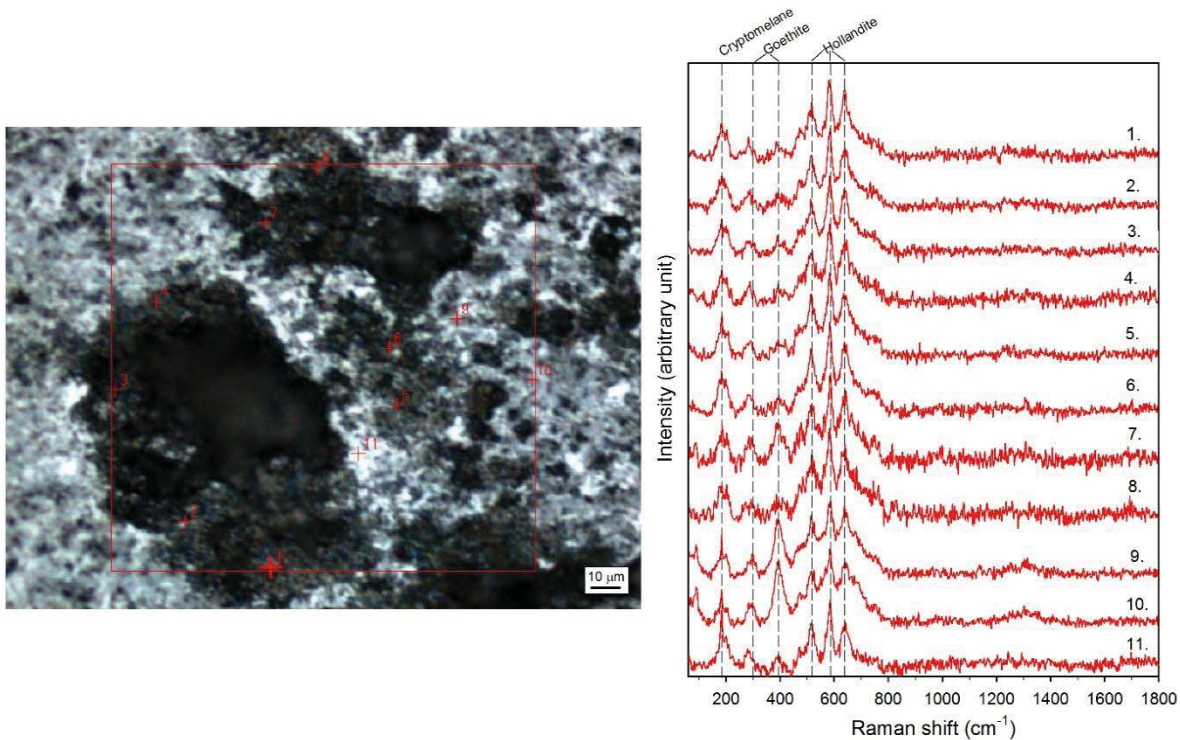


Figure 8.: Map indicated on the composite picture by yellow box marked by number 8. The dark spots have porous hollandite (cryptomelane, goethite) rims indicated on (Fig. 8. 1-4, 7, 8) while in the matrix among dark spots the Mn oxide has higher cryptomelane content (Fig 8. 5, 6, 9-11).

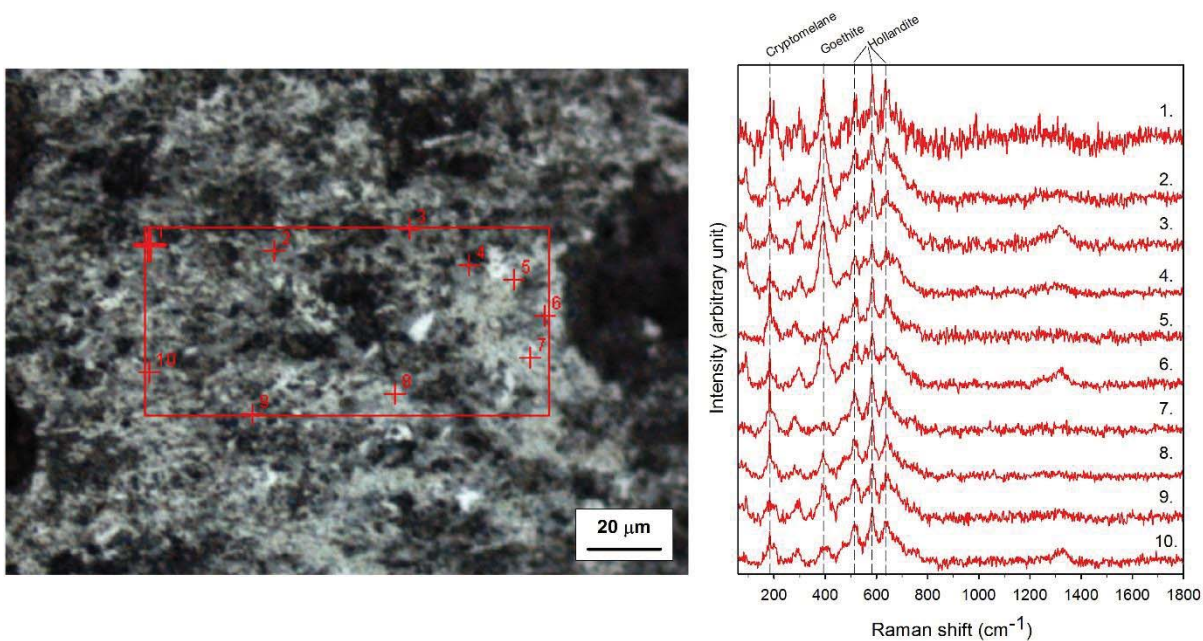


Figure 9.: Map indicated on the composite picture by yellow box marked by number 15.



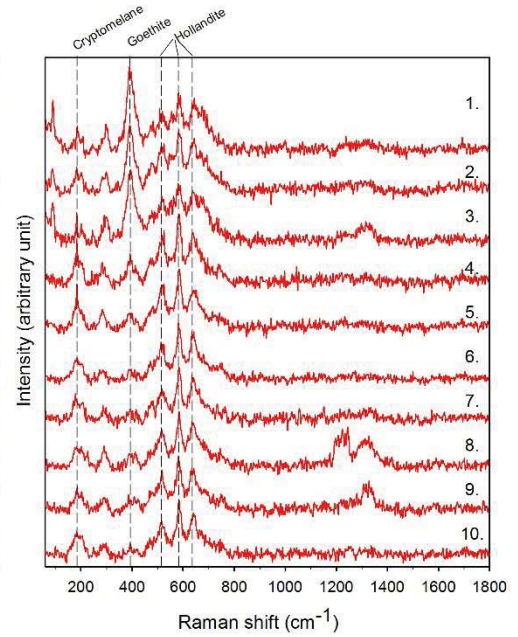
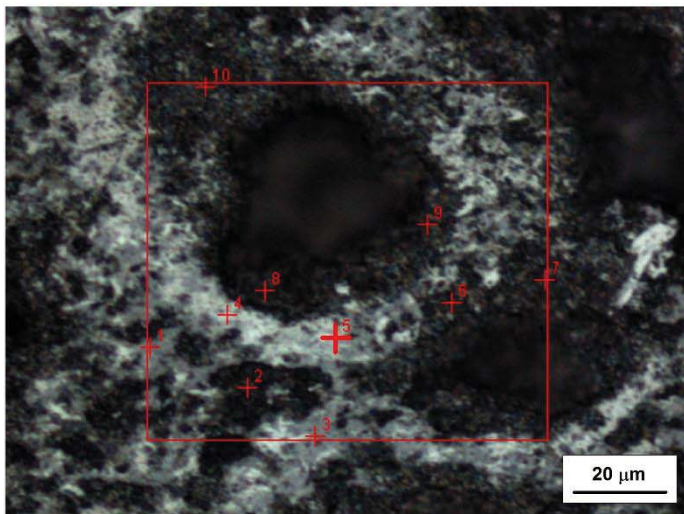


Figure 10.: Map indicated on the composite picture by yellow box marked by number 20.

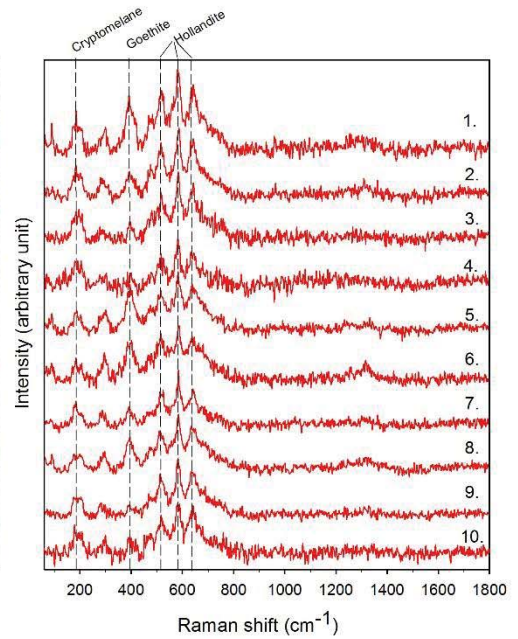
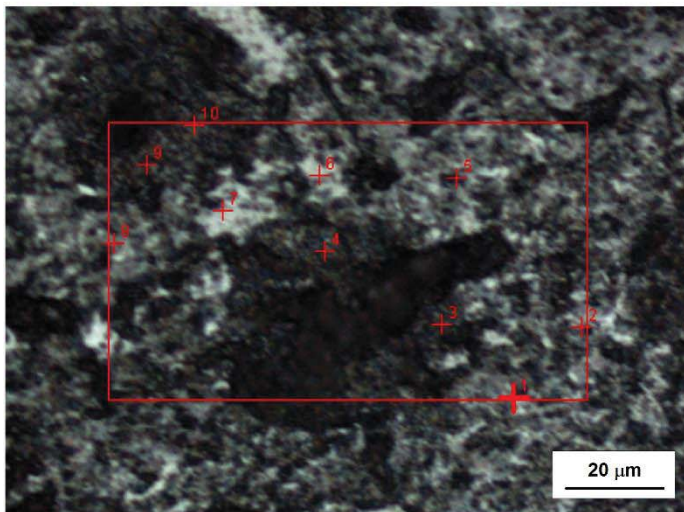


Figure 11.: Map indicated on the composite picture by yellow box marked by number 25.

Comparing the mineral phases and distribution in the outer, inner and rim area of the measured spherical (bubble-like) structure, they are similar.

SI 15-Table A. Summary of formation of Mn-1 ore bed according to structural hierarchy

Mn oxide ore in Fe oxide system			
Fe and Mn in (Mn-1) from the aspect of Fe	Accumulation of sediment	Interpretation	Origin of rock
Sediment/rock	Sediment composition: Ferrhydrite+silica, lepidocrocite+silica, initial Mn-oxide-hydroxide referring to start of enzymatic microbial Mn oxidation ( $\delta\text{MnO}_2$ , manganite-MnOOH, todorokite, birmessite), organic matter +land derived debris? or syngenetic „clast-like“ particles (quartz, feldspar, mica, apatite, carbonate, volcanic debris)	<b>Primary formation conditions - palaeoenvironment</b> Low T aquatic system, normal marine salinity, neutrophylic (6-8), suboxic (Eh: +0.3 V) conditions, with dissolved oxygen through dysoxic (DO 0.2-2.0 mL/L), to suboxic (DO 0-0.2 mL/L) conditions. Occasionally reached obligatory oxic conditions (Eh: +0.4-+1.0 V), aerobic system with dissolved oxygen, DO > 2 mL/L Fe-oxide-hydroxide, Mn-oxide-hydroxide, $C_{org}$ , rare debris <b>microbial - Step 1. (chemolithoautotrophic cycle I.)</b>	Mn oxide-silicate ore embedded in Fe oxide-silica (jasper), Mn-1 bed
Texture	Fine grained, filamentous microbial forms, coccoid forms double microbial lamination of ore forming microbes (Fe, Mn)	<b>Evidences</b> filamentous with an inner pearl-necklace-like texture; micromorphology, type of FeOB metabolism; giving a few tens of $\mu\text{m}$ -scale lamination, MIMPSS*, series of Fe-rich biomats, and Mn-lamination	Double lamination (a few tens of $\mu\text{m}$ -scale Fe and Mn minerals) + preserved microbial biomat texture, fine grained ( <b>aegirine*</b> occurs in biolaminite as the <b>probable diagenetic Fe biomat</b> ) amygdalites (as diagenetic formations)
Matrix main complex mineralogy (also accompanying minerals are important) authigenic minerals	Mn-oxide-hydroxide ( $\delta\text{MnO}_2$ , manganite-MnOOH, todorokite, birmessite, clay minerals, among them celadonite (Fe-mica), $C_{org}$ , rare debris (K-feldspar, quartz, mica, apatite, carbonate, volcanic debris, etc.)		<b>Mn minerals:</b> <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i> Vermadite $(\text{Mn}^{4+}\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{CaNa})(\text{OH})_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$ Todorokite $\text{Na}_{0.2}\text{Ca}_{0.05}\text{K}_{0.02}\text{Mn}^{4+}_4\text{Mn}^{3+}_2\text{O}_{12} \cdot 3(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ Birmessit $\text{Na}_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{Mn}^{3+}_3\text{Mn}^{4+}_3\text{O}_{14} \cdot 2.8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ Manganite $\text{Mn}^{3+}\text{OOH}$  <i>Main Mn ore mineral phase (oxide-silicate)(diagenetic)</i> Braunite $(\text{Mn}^{2+}\text{Mn}^{3+}_6\text{SiO}_4)$ Serandite $\text{NaMn}^{2+}_{1.5}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8(\text{OH})$ hollandite $\text{Ba}_{0.8}\text{Pb}_{0.2}\text{Na}_{0.1}\text{Mn}^{4+}_{6.1}\text{Fe}^{3+}_{1.3}\text{Mn}^{2+}_{0.5}\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_{10}\text{O}_{16}$  <i>Further diagenetic products</i> Pyrolusite $(\text{Mn}^{4+}\text{O}_2)$ Ramsdellite $(\text{Mn}^{4+}\text{O}_2)$ Hausmannite $\text{Mn}^{3+}_3\text{O}_4$ Cryptomelane $(\text{KMn}^{4+}_6\text{Mn}^{2+}_2\text{O}_{16})$ Manjiroite $\text{Na}(\text{Mn}^{4+}_7\text{Mn}^{3+}_3)\text{O}_{16}$
			<b>Interpretation</b> <b>Burial + early diagenesis (lithification)</b> <b>Stabilization of minerals in oxic-suboxic conditions</b>  Cell + EPS material bind: $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , $\text{Na}^+$ , $\text{K}^+$ , P, S <sup>2-</sup> , Si, Co, Zn, Ba, REE (bioessential elements...) liberalization on decay $(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) ( $\text{SiO}_4^{4-}$ ) ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) (OH) etc...taking part in diagenetic mineralization  <b>FeOB system stabilization via diagenesis</b>  <b>hematite and goethite forms accompanied by silica segregation (cyanobacteria also bind silica-stress and radiation prevention)</b> <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i> Ferrhydrite, lepidocrocite occur Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →aegirine (no CL) <b>aegirine</b> also feldspars (albite, orthoclase) Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →celadonite mica, clay <b>segregated silica also forms quartz (jasper, jaspilite-nanopignments of Fe oxide)</b>  Transitional minerals between Fe and Mn phases: hollandite, jacobsite  <b>MnOB system stabilization via diagenesis influenced by the segregated silica braunite, serandite, hollandite</b> (The occurrence of braunite as main phase refer to Mn oxidation on Fe oxide active surface catalyses, which refer to only suboxic conditions under Mn-1 formation, with

		<p>Roman�chite (psilomelane)  <math>[(Ba, H_2O, Mn_5O_{10}, Ba)(Mn^{4+}, Mn^{3+})O_{10}, 1.4H_2O]</math></p> <p>Can be interpreted as transitional form between Mn and Fe oxide  Jacobsite <math>Mn^{2+}_0.6Fe^{3+}_0.3Mg_0.1Fe^{3+}_{1.5}Mn^{3+}_0.5O_4</math></p> <p><b>Carbonates</b>  Ca-rhodochrosite (<math>MnCO_3</math>) (<math>Mn^{4+} \rightarrow Mn^{2+}</math>)  <math>CH_2O + 8H^+ + 4MnO_2 \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + CO_2 + 11H_2O</math>  <math>Mn^{2+} + CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow MnCO_3 + 2H^+</math>  (early diagenetic sporadic heterotroph microbial mineralization)</p> <p><b>Other minerals:</b>  Orthoclase <math>KAlSi_3O_8</math>  Albite <math>NaAlSi_3O_8</math>  Muscovite <math>KAl_3Si_3O_{10}(OH)_{1.8}F_{0.2}</math>  Chlorite <math>Mg_{3.75}Fe^{2+}_{1.25}Si_3Al_2O_{10}(OH)_8</math>  Chamosite (Fe-mica –chlorite type)  Kaolinite/dickite <math>Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4</math>  Cancrinite  <math>(NaCa_{\rightarrow 8}Al_6Si_6O_{24})(CO_3, SO_4)_2 \cdot 2H_2O</math>  Quartz (<math>SiO_2</math>)  Apatite <math>[(Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(OH, F, Cl)_2]</math>  Barite <math>Ba(SO_4)</math>  Dolomite <math>CaMg(CO_3)_2</math>  Strontianite <math>Sr(CO_3)</math>  Johannite <math>Cu(UO_2)_2(SO_4)_2(OH)_2 \cdot 8H_2O</math>  Organic material</p>	<p>obligatory oxic intervals, when enzymatic Mn oxidation started.)</p> <p><i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i>  todorokite, birnessite, manganite</p> <p><b>Stable Mn oxide-hydroxides referring the start of initial enzymatic Mn oxidation, which composition is influenced by the liberalized cations:</b>  pyrolusite, ramsdellite, cryptomelane, manjiroite, roman�chite (psilomelane), hausmannite</p> <p>Ca-rhodochrosite (early diagenetic sporadic heterotroph microbial mineralization)</p> <p><b>Others:</b>  apatite (Ca-phosphate)  carbonates (dolomite, ankerite, strontianite)  cancrinite (silicate, carbonate, sulfate)  sulfate (baryte)– refer to less oxic conditions (together with hematite)</p> <p>+ remnants of variable organic matter</p> <p>Pyrite <math>FeS_2</math> (pyritized biomats in sulfate reduction zone - diagenetic)</p> <p>Oxic (Eh: +0.4–+1.0 V), aerobic system with dissolved oxygen, DO &gt; 2 mL/L) suboxic metabolism (Eh: 0–+0.2 V; with dissolved oxygen through dysoxic (DO 0.2–2.0 mL/L), to suboxic (DO 0–0.2 mL/L) conditions.  pH: 6–8 – neutral, slightly alkaline</p>
<p>Micro-mineralogy (authigenic minerals)  chosen Fe minerals</p>	<p>Fe-bearing minerals:  Ferrhydrite - lepidocrocite in microbial texture (+silica)  <b>Authigenic mineralization</b></p>	<p><b>Fe-bearing minerals:</b>  <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i>  Ferrhydrite (FeOOH)  Lepidocrocite <math>Fe^{3+}O(OH)</math></p> <p><b>Main Fe ore mineral phase (diagenetic)</b>  Hematite (<math>Fe_2O_3</math>)  Goethite <math>FeOOH</math></p>	<p><b>Evidences</b>  <b>Mineral assemblage</b>  <b>Fine lamination (a few tens of <math>\mu m</math>-scale) of variable diagenetic fine grained mineral couples (diagenesis of Fe and Mn microbial system) and other variable products of diagenesis (local Eh-pH and other conditions (concentrations, etc.) determine quality of forming minerals)</b></p>



SI 15-Table B. Summary of formation of Mn-2-3 ore beds according to structural hierarchy

Mn oxide ore in Fe oxide system			
Fe and Mn in (Mn-2-3) from the aspect of Fe	Accumulation of sediment	Interpretation	Origin of rock
Sediment/rock	Sediment composition: Ferrihydrite+silica, lepidocrocite+silica, initial Mn-oxide-hydroxide referring to start of enzymatic microbial Mn oxidation ( $\delta\text{MnO}_2$ , manganite-MnOOH, todorokite, birmessite), organic matter +land derived debris? or syngenetic „clast-like” particles (quartz, feldspar, mica, apatite, carbonate, volcanic debris)	<b>Primary formation conditions - paleoenvironment</b> Low T aquatic system, normal marine salinity, neutrophilic (6-8), suboxic (Eh: +0.3 V) conditions, with dissolved oxygen through dysoxic (DO 0.2–2.0 mL/L), to suboxic (DO 0–0.2 mL/L) conditions. Occasionally reached obligatory oxic conditions (Eh: +0.4–+1.0 V), aerobic system with dissolved oxygen, DO > 2 mL/L) Fe-oxide-hydroxide, Mn-oxide-hydroxide, $C_{org}$ , rare debris <b>microbial - Step 1. (chemolithoautotrophic cycle I.)</b>	Mn oxide-silicate ore embedded in Fe oxide-silica (jasper), Mn-I bed
Texture	Fine grained, filamentous microbial forms, coccoid forms double microbial lamination of ore forming microbes (Fe, Mn)	<b>Evidences</b> filamentous with an inner pearl-necklace-like texture; micromorphology, type of FeOB metabolism; giving a few tens of $\mu\text{m}$ -scale lamination, MIMPSS*, series of Fe-rich biomats, and Mn-lamination	Double lamination (a few tens of $\mu\text{m}$ -scale Fe and Mn minerals) + preserved microbial biomat texture, fine grained ( <b>aeigrine* occurs in biolaminite as the probable diagenetic Fe biomat</b> ) anhydralites (as diagenetic formations)
Matrix main complex mineralogy (also accompanying minerals are important) authigenic minerals	Mn-oxide-hydroxide ( $\delta\text{MnO}_2$ , manganite-MnOOH, todorokite, birmessite, clay minerals, among them celadonite (Fe-mica), $C_{org}$ , rare debris (K-feldspar, quartz, mica, apatite, carbonate, volcanic debris, etc.)		<b>Mn minerals:</b> <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i> Ferrihydrite, lepidocrocite occur Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →aeigrine (no CL) <b>aeigrine</b> also feldspars (albite, orthoclase) Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →celadonite mica, clay <b>segregated silica also forms quartz (jasper, jaspilite-nanopigments of Fe oxide)</b>  <i>Main Mn ore mineral phase (oxide-silicate)(diagenetic)</i> <b>Braunite</b> ( $\text{Mn}^{2+}\text{Mn}^{3+}_6\text{SiO}_{12}$ ) Serandite $\text{NaMn}^{2+}_{1.5}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{Si}_3\text{O}_8(\text{OH})$ hollandite $\text{Ba}_{0.8}\text{Pb}_{0.2}\text{Na}_{0.1}\text{Mn}^{4+}_6[\text{Fe}^{1+}_{1.3}\text{Mn}^{2+}_{0.5}\text{Al}_{1.2}\text{Si}_{11}\text{O}_{16}]$  <i>Further diagenetic products</i> Pyrolusite ( $\text{Mn}^{4+}\text{O}_2$ ) Ramsdellite ( $\text{Mn}^{4+}\text{O}_2$ ) Hausmannite $\text{Mn}^{3+}_3\text{O}_4$
			<b>Interpretation</b> <b>Burial + early diagenesis (lithification)</b> <b>Stabilization of minerals in oxic-suboxic conditions</b>  Cell + EPS material bind: $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , $\text{Na}^+$ , $\text{K}^+$ , P, S <sup>2-</sup> , Si, Co, Zn, Ba, REE (bioessential elements...) liberalization on decay ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) ( $\text{PO}_4^{2-}$ ) ( $\text{SiO}_4^{4-}$ ) ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) etc....taking part in diagenetic mineralization  <b>FeOB system stabilization via diagenesis</b>  <b>hematite and goethite forms accompanied by silica segregation (cyanobacteria also bind silica-stress and radiation prevention)</b> <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i> Ferrihydrite, lepidocrocite occur Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →aeigrine (no CL) <b>aeigrine</b> also feldspars (albite, orthoclase) Fe oxide-hydroxide + silica →celadonite mica, clay <b>segregated silica also forms quartz (jasper, jaspilite-nanopigments of Fe oxide)</b>  Transitional minerals between Fe and Mn phases: hollandite, jacobsite  <b>MnOB system stabilization via diagenesis influenced by the segregated silica braunite, serandite, hollandite</b> (The occurrence of braunite as main phase refer to Mn oxidation on Fe oxide active

				<p>Cryptomelane (<math>KMn^{4+}_6Mn^{2+}_2O_{16}</math>)  Manjiroite <math>Na(Mn^{4+}_7Mn^{3+})O_{16}</math>  Romanéchite (psilomelane)  <math>[(Ba,H_2O,Mn_5O_{10},Ba(Mn^{4+},Mn^{3+})O_{10},1.4H_2O)]</math></p> <p><i>Can be interpreted as transitional form between Mn and Fe oxide</i>  Jacobssite <math>Mn^{2+}_{0.6}Fe^{3+}_{0.3}Mg_{0.1}Fe^{3+}_{1.5}Mn^{3+}_{0.5}O_4</math></p> <p><b>Carbonates</b>  Ca-rhodochrosite (<math>MnCO_3</math>) (<math>Mn^{2+} \rightarrow Mn^{2+}</math>)  <math>CH_2O + 8H^+ + 4MnO_2 \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + CO_2 + 11H_2O</math>  <math>Mn^{2+} + CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow MnCO_3 + 2H^+</math>  (early diagenetic sporadic heterotroph microbial mineralization)</p> <p><b>Other minerals:</b>  Orthoclase <math>KAlSi_3O_8</math>  Albite <math>NaAlSi_3O_8</math>  Muscovite <math>KAl_3Si_3O_{10}(OH)_{1.8}F_{0.2}</math>  Chlorite <math>Mg_{3.75}Fe^{2+}_{1.25}Si_3Al_2O_{10}(OH)_8</math>  Chamosite (Fe-mica –chlorite type)  Kaolinite/dickite <math>Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4</math>  Cancrinite  <math>(NaCa_{\rightarrow 8}Al_6Si_6O_{24})(CO_3,SO_4)_2 \cdot 2H_2O</math>  Quartz (<math>SiO_2</math>)  Apatite <math>[(Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(OH, F, Cl)_2]</math>  Barite <math>Ba(SO_4)</math>  Dolomite <math>CaMg(CO_3)_2</math>  Strontianite <math>Sr(CO_3)</math>  Johannite <math>Cu(UO_2)_2(SO_4)_2(OH)_2 \cdot 8H_2O</math>  Organic material</p>	<p>surface catalyses, which refer to only suboxic conditions under Mn-1 formation, with obligatory oxic intervals, when enzymatic Mn oxidation started.)</p> <p><i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i>  todorkite, birmessite, manganese</p> <p><b>Stable Mn oxide-hydroxides referring the start of initial enzymatic Mn oxidation, which composition is influenced by the liberalized cations:</b>  pyrolusite, ramsdellite, cryptomelane, manjiroite, romanéchite (psilomelane), hausmannite</p> <p>Ca-rhodochrosite (early diagenetic sporadic heterotroph microbial mineralization)</p> <p><b>Others:</b>  apatite (Ca-phosphate)  carbonates (dolomite, ankerite, strontianite)  cancrinite (silicate, carbonate, sulfate)  sulfate (barite)- refer to less oxic conditions (together with hematite)  + remnants of variable organic matter</p> <p>Pyrite <math>FeS_2</math> (pyritized biomats in sulfate reduction zone - diagenetic)</p> <p>Oxic (Eh: +0.4–+1.0 V), aerobic system with dissolved oxygen, DO &gt; 2 mL/L) suboxic metabolism (Eh: 0–+0.2 V; with dissolved oxygen through dysoxic (DO 0.2–2.0 mL/L), to suboxic (DO 0–0.2 mL/L) conditions.  pH: 6-8 – neutral, slightly alkaline</p> <hr/> <p><b>Evidences</b>  <b>Mineral assemblage</b>  <b>Fine lamination (a few tens of µm-scale) of variable diagenetic fine grained mineral couples (diagenesis of Fe and Mn microbial system) and other variable products of diagenesis (local Eh-pH and other</b></p>
<p>Micro-mineralogy (authigenic minerals)  chosen Fe minerals</p>	<p>Fe-bearing minerals:  Ferrhydrite - lepidocrocite in microbial texture (+silica)  <b>Authigenic mineralization</b></p>	<p><b>Fe-bearing minerals:</b>  <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i>  Ferrhydrite (FeOOH)  Lepidocrocite <math>Fe^{3+}O(OH)</math>  <b>Main Fe ore mineral phase (diagenetic)</b></p>	<p><b>Fe-bearing minerals:</b>  <i>Remnants of syngenetic phase (Initial enzymatic microbial)</i>  Ferrhydrite (FeOOH)  Lepidocrocite <math>Fe^{3+}O(OH)</math>  <b>Main Fe ore mineral phase (diagenetic)</b></p>		

