



# Mineralogy of low grade metamorphosed manganese sediments of the Urals: Petrological and geological applications



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## ABSTRACT

The paper describes mineralogy of the low grade metamorphosed manganese sediments, which occur in sedimentary complexes of the Pai Khoi Ridge and the Polar Urals and volcanosedimentary complexes of the Central and South Urals. The degree of metamorphism of the rocks studied corresponds to PT conditions of the prehnite–pumpellyite (deposits of Pai Khoi and Polar and South Urals) and green schist (deposits of the Central Urals) facies. One hundred and nine minerals were identified in the manganese-bearing rocks on the basis of optical and electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, and microprobe analysis. According to the variations in the amount of major minerals of the manganese rocks of the Urals, they are subdivided on carbonate (I), oxide–carbonate–silicate (II), and oxide–silicate (III) types. Carbonates, various Mn<sup>2+</sup>-bearing silicates associated with oxides and carbonates, and braunite (Mn<sup>3+</sup>-bearing silicate) are the major Mn hosts in types I, II, and III, respectively. Because of the different oxidation state of Mn, the rocks of types I and II are termed as “reduced” and the rocks of type III, as “oxidized”. The formation of a certain mineralogical type of metamorphic assemblage is controlled by the content of organic matter in the primary sediments. The sequence type I → type II → type III reflects the decrease in the amount of organic matter in metalliferous sediments. Mineralogical data indicate that manganese in the primary sediments accumulated in a silicate form (Mn–Si gel, glass, etc). During diagenesis, the Mn–Si phase was transformed to neotokite with subsequent formation of caryopilite and further crystallization of pyroxmangite, rhodonite, tephroite, and other silicates due to reactions involving caryopilite. The hydrated Mn-silicates (caryopilite and/or friedelite) and the spatially associated parsettensite, stilpnomelane, and other minerals are the index minerals of the low grade metamorphism. Under PT conditions of prehnite–pumpellyite facies, nearly 70% of silicate minerals are hydrous. The metamorphosed Mn-bearing sediments are characterized by the low-temperature caryopilite (or tephroite–caryopilite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) and the high-temperature caryopilite-free (or tephroite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) facies. Their PT conditions correspond to zeolite and prehnite–pumpellyite (the low-temperature) and green schist and higher grade (the high-temperature) facies.

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## 1. Introduction

Several tens of small stratiform Mn deposits of the Urals are confined to the sedimentary and volcanosedimentary complexes (Betekhtin, 1946; Rabinovich, 1971; Mikhaylov and Rogov, 1985; Mikhaylov, 1993, 2001, 2011; Shishkin and Gerasimov, 1995; Magadeev et al., 1997; Ovchinnikov, 1998; Kontar et al., 1999; Kostyuk et al., 2000; Starikova and Zavileisky, 2010; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2005, 2012; Brusnitsyn, 2013a; Kuleshov et al., 2014; Starikova, 2014). Most

researchers suppose that Mn-bearing ores were formed in marine basins and are syngenetic to host sediments. As known, in the contemporary oceans, Mn is deposited in oxide form and, during diagenesis, catagenesis, and metamorphism, the Mn oxides are transformed into carbonates and silicates. Numerous Mn deposits of the Urals are metamorphosed under conditions of low-grade prehnite–pumpellyite or green schists facies. Under such conditions, Mn rocks are characterized, on the one hand, by the relics of sedimentary protolith and sedimentary–diagenetic textures and structures and, on the other hand, by the presence of typical metamorphic minerals (rhodonite, tephroite, spessartine, and other minerals). The study of these “transitional” rocks provides a unique opportunity to identify the

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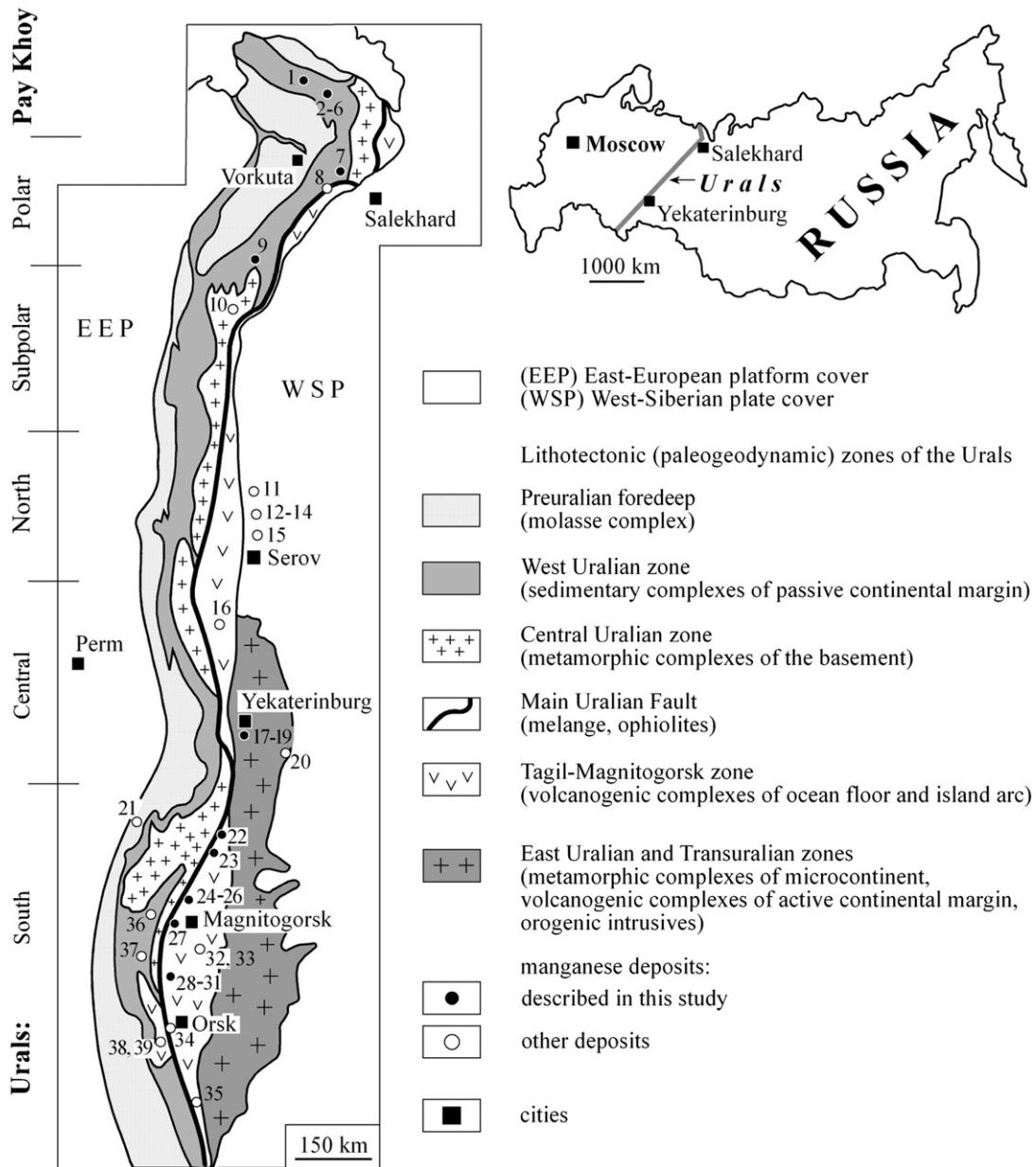
E-mail address: [brusspb@yandex.ru](mailto:brusspb@yandex.ru) (A.I. Brusnitsyn).

transformation of the phase composition during the gradual increase in temperature and pressure, i.e., during transition of sedimentary rock to metamorphic one.

>30 deposits have been studied and the following deposits are chosen for the detailed mineralogical studies (Fig. 1): (i) the deposits, which were metamorphosed under conditions of prehnite-pumpellyite facies: Parnok (Polar Urals) and Kozhaevo, Urazovo, Bikkulovo, Kazgan-Tash, Kusimovo, Kyzyl-Tash and South, Middle, and North Fayzuly (South Urals); (ii) those, which were metamorphosed under conditions of prehnite-pumpellyite to green schists facies: Kheyakha, Sibirchatayakha, Karsk, Nadeiyakha-1 and -2, Lower Silova,

Silovayakha (Pai Khoi) and Sob River basin (Polar Urals); and (iii) the deposits, which were metamorphosed under conditions of green schists facies: Malosedelnikovo, Kurganovo, and Borodulino (Central Urals).

The results of studies of the deposits have previously been published in (Brusnitsyn, 1998, 2000, 2006, 2010, 2013a, 2015; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2005, 2012; Starikova and Zavileisky, 2010; Starikova, 2011, 2012, 2014; Brusnitsyn et al., 2000, 2009, 2014, 2016). The aim of this paper is to summarize mineralogy of low-grade metamorphosed Mn-bearing sediments of the Urals and to interpret these data according to the geological and physico-chemical conditions of formation and transformation of metalliferous sediments.



**Fig. 1.** Location of main manganese deposits of the Urals, after (Mikhaylov and Rogov, 1985; Mikhaylov, 1993, 2001, 2011; Kontar et al., 1999; Puchkov, 2010; Brusnitsyn, 2013a; Starikova, 2014). Manganese deposits: 1 - Kheyakha, Sibirchatayakha (Late Devonian); 2 - Lower Silova (Late Devonian); 3 - Karsk (Late Devonian); 4 - Silovayakha (Late Devonian); 5 - Nadeiyakha-1 (Late Devonian); 6 - Nadeiyakha-2 (Late Devonian); 7 - Sob River basin (Late Devonian to Early Carboniferous); 8 - Upper Tyshor (Proterozoic); 9 - Parnok (Middle to Late Ordovician or Middle Devonian); 10 - Verayu (Proterozoic); 11 - Burmantovskoe (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene); 12 - Pokunochnoe (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene); 13 - Tyn'ynskoe (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene); 14 - Berezovo (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene); 15 - Yekaterino (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene); 16 - Sapal (Late Silurian to Early Devonian); 17 - Malosedelnikovo (Early Silurian); 18 - Kurganovo (Early Silurian); 19 - Borodulino (Early Silurian); 20 - Klevakino (Late Devonian); 21 - Ulutelyak (Permian); 22 - Kozhaevo (Middle to Late Devonian); 23 - Urazovo (Middle Devonian); 24 - Bikkulovo (Middle to Late Devonian); 25 - Kazgan-Tash (Middle to Late Devonian); 26 - Kusimovo (Middle Devonian); 27 - Kyzyl-Tash (Middle to Late Devonian); 28 - South Fayzuly, southern part (Middle Devonian); 29 - South Fayzuly, northern part (Middle Devonian); 30 - Middle Fayzuly (Middle Devonian); 31 - North Fayzuly (Middle Devonian); 32 - Bakhtino (Devonian); 33 - Kipchara (Early Carboniferous); 34 - Akkerman (Early Carboniferous); 35 - Shuuldak (Middle Devonian); 36 - Shigrysh (Early Carboniferous); 37 - Zilair (Middle Devonian); 38 - Guberlya (Middle to Late Ordovician); 39 - Kharkovo (Middle to Late Ordovician).

## 2. Geological background

In the present-day erosion level, the Urals is a longitudinally oriented fold belt with a length of 2500 km and a width from 200 to 450 km. Its geological structure is described in many papers (Zoloev et al., 1981; Puchkov, 2010, 2017—in this issue; Petrov and Melgunov, 2011). According to the modern concepts, the Urals is an orogenic belt, which was originated on the Precambrian basement in Cambrian–Ordovician, steadily evolving in Ordovician–Devonian, and was deformed during Carboniferous–Triassic collision. The belt has a zoned structure consisting of a western paleocontinental and an eastern paleoceanic sectors.

The western sector is a fragment of the passive margin of the East European paleocontinent. It includes the Preuralian foredeep composed of the Permian–Triassic molasse, the West Uralian zone of the Paleozoic shelf and bathyal sediments, and the Central Uralian zone, which consists of Precambrian sedimentary, metamorphic, and igneous rocks. The eastern sector represents the fragments of an active paleocontinental margin with complexes of the ocean floor, ensimatic island arcs, and interarc basin, and microcontinent blocks. This sector consists of the Tagil–Magnitogorsk zone with dominant Paleozoic island arc volcanic and volcanosedimentary rocks and the East Uralian and Transuralian zone, which are characterized by intercalation of the uplifted blocks of the Precambrian metamorphic rocks (microcontinents) and the troughs made up of the Silurian–Lower Carboniferous volcanic and sedimentary complexes, the composition of which is similar to those of the Tagil–Magnitogorsk zone. The eastern sector also hosts abundant Late Devonian to Early Carboniferous and Permian granitic intrusions. The western and eastern sectors are bounded by the Main Uralian fault zone, which is the large east-dipping suture with ophiolite massifs and mélange-olistostrome complexes.

The deposits of manganese-bearing rocks are identified along the entire Urals (Kontar et al., 1999; Mikhaylov, 2001, 2011). They are confined to various lithotectonic (paleogeodynamic) zones and are located in the rocks of different ages (Fig. 1). The deposits studied in Pai Khoi and Polar Urals occur in sedimentary rocks of passive paleocontinental margin in contrast to the deposits of the South and Central Urals, which are hosted in volcanosedimentary complexes of active paleocontinental margin.

## 3. Deposits studied

### 3.1. Deposits in sedimentary rocks

The brief characteristics of the deposits studied are presented in Table 1. The deposits of Pai Khoi and Polar Urals occur in siliceous and clayey-carbonate rocks and black shales of the deep shelf and continental slope.

*Pai Khoi.* The manganese ores of Pai Khoi were found in the beginning of the 20th century, but were actively studied only in 1970s–1990s and 2006–2014 (Miklyayev, 1991; Yudovich et al., 1998; Yushkin et al., 2007; Starikova and Zavileisky, 2010; Starikova, 2014). The occurrences of manganese ores cover an area >80 km long and about 30 km wide. The host rocks are the Upper Devonian carbonate-siliceous, clayey-carbonate-siliceous, and siliceous rocks. A horizon of red jaspers with interlayers of limestones and siliceous shales in the basement of the Mn-bearing stratum is crowned by siliceous shales with variable amounts of carbonate and clayey material. Some shales are enriched in finely dispersed organic matter. The total thickness of the Mn-bearing rocks is 10–30 m. Manganese ores compose the series of beds and flattened lenses 0.2 to 3 m thick and up to several tens to hundreds of meters along the strike. Most of the beds occur in shales, which overlap jaspers; some of them are known inside the jasper horizon.

*Polar Urals.* Manganese ores of the Polar Urals were studied in the upper reaches of the Sob River basin and in the Parnok deposit.

The ores in the valley of the Sob River basin were found in the 1960s and studied in 1970s–1980s and 2003–2004 (Silaev, 1994; Kostyuk et al., 2000; Brekhunov et al., 2004; Brusnitsyn et al., 2016). Their geological setting is very similar to that of the Pai Khoi deposits. The host rocks are the Upper Devonian to Lower Carboniferous siliceous, carbonaceous-siliceous, and carbonaceous-clayey-siliceous shales. Manganese ores forms the concordant lenses and beds 0.2 to 1.5 m thick and the first tens of meters along the strike. Only small Mn beds were found in this area, however, they occur systematically in the area of 60 km<sup>2</sup> with variable size.

The Parnok deposit is one of the largest manganese deposits of the Urals (Shishkin and Gerasimov, 1995; Gerasimov et al., 1999; Zykin, 2004; Brusnitsyn, 2013b, 2015; Brusnitsyn et al., 2014). It was discovered in 1987 and has periodically been exploited. The area of the deposit is composed of the terrigenous-carbonate rocks: limestones, siltstones, sandstones, and siliceous and clayey-siliceous-carbonate shales, many of which are carbonaceous. The age of the ore-bearing rocks is a matter of debate: it is either Middle to Late Ordovician (Shishkin and Gerasimov, 1995) or Middle Devonian (Zykin, 2004). The manganese ores are characterized by a complex mineralogy with dominant Mn carbonates and silicates in contrast to extremely homogeneous iron ores, which are composed of magnetite. The alternating beds and layers of Mn and Fe ores occur conformably in black shales and limestones. The thickness of some beds is 2 to 5 m and their length attains 100 m along the strike. The adjacent beds are grouped into the bodies up to 20 m thick and up to 400 m long. The chains of the ore bodies are stretched at the distance of up to 4 km.

The sources of manganese in sedimentary rocks could vary (hydrothermal or silt diagenetic fluids, river run-off, etc.). In case of the deposits of Pai Khoi and Polar Urals, the hydrothermal source is the most popular conception (Miklyayev, 1991; Shishkin and Gerasimov, 1995; Yudovich et al., 1998; Brusnitsyn, 2013b, 2015; Starikova, 2014). According to this conception, manganese was introduced to the marine basin via hydrothermal fluids, which were circulated in the Paleozoic sediments. The hydrothermal system was most likely triggered by short-term renewed tectono-magmatic processes in the basement of sedimentary complexes. The fluids discharged in seafloor depressions with periodically stagnated conditions. The changes in physico-chemical parameters of seawater were favorable for accumulation of either carbonaceous, ferrous or manganese sediments.

In the Late Paleozoic to Early Mesozoic, the sedimentary strata were intensely deformed and the tectonic processes were accompanied by regional low-grade metamorphism. The metamorphism of rocks of the Parnok deposit corresponds to the conditions of prehnite-pumpellyite facies:  $T = 200\text{--}300\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $p = 2\text{--}2.7\text{ kbar}$  (Gerasimov, 2000; Brusnitsyn, 2015). The degree of metamorphism in the area of the Sob River basin and Pai Khoi was lower than conditions of the green schist facies (Starikova, 2011; Brusnitsyn et al., 2016). All the deposits are characterized by the Mesozoic–Cainozoic oxidation zone, which is mostly composed of Mn oxides and hydroxides.

### 3.2. Deposits in volcanic rocks

By the mode of occurrence and chemical composition, the hydrothermal-sedimentary Mn-bearing rocks of the Central and South Urals are similar to the hydrothermal sediments of active volcanic structures of the present-day oceans (Kheraskov, 1951; Gavrilov, 1972; Kalinin, 1978; Serkov, 1989; Kontar et al., 1999; Brusnitsyn, 2000, 2010; Brusnitsyn et al., 2000, 2009; Mikhaylov, 2001; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2005, 2012).

*Central Urals.* Eleven manganese deposits are known in the area of the city of Yekaterinburg (Serkov, 1989; Goldobin, 1994; Brusnitsyn, 1998, 2000). The most famous Malosedelnikovo deposit was discovered at the end of the 18th century and has been exploited until the 1990s for semiprecious stone (rhodonite), as well as Kurganovo and Borodulino

**Table 1**  
Characteristics of manganese deposits of the Urals.

№*	Deposit	Host rocks	Age	Metamorphism	Minerals of manganese rocks	
					Type	Major minerals
Hosted in sedimentary rocks of passive paleocontinental margin (deposit of the Pai Khoi and Polar Urals)						
1	Kheayakha, Sibirchatayakha	Jasper, organic clayey–calcareous–siliceous and siliceous shale (black shale)	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ic	Quartz, kutnahorite
2	Lower Silova	Jasper, organic clayey–calcareous–siliceous and siliceous shale (black shale)	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ic	Quartz, kutnahorite
3	Karsk	Jasper, organic siliceous shale (black shale)	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ia	Quartz, rhodochrosite
4	Silovayakha	Clayey–siliceous shale	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ile	Quartz, rhodonite, pyroxmangite, friedelite, rhodochrosite
5	Nadeiyakha-1	Clayey–calcareous–siliceous shale	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ile	Quartz, tephroite, sonolite, pyroxmangite, friedelite, rhodochrosite, kutnahorite
6	Nadeiyakha-2	Jasper	Late Devonian	PP–GS	Ilg	Quartz, hematite, rhodonite, orthoclase
7	Sob River basin	Organic siliceous and clayey–siliceous shale (black shale)	Late Devonian to Early Carboniferous	PP–GS	Ib	Quartz, rhodochrosite, siderite, shamosite
9	Parnok <sup>a</sup>	Organic clayey–siliceous–calcareous shale (black shale) and limestouns	Middle to Late Devonian	PP	Ile Ia Ild Ile	Quartz, spessartine, pyroxmangite, friedelite, rhodochrosite Rhodochrosite Hausmannite, pyrochroite, tephroite, calcite, rhodochrosite Tephroite, sonolite, alleghanite, ribbeite, spessartine, rhodonite, caryopilite, friedelite, calcite, rhodochrosite
Hosted in volcanosedimentary rocks of active paleocontinental margin (deposit of the Central and South Urals)						
17	Malosedelnikovo	Organic clayey–siliceous shale (black shale), quartzite	Early Silurian	GS	Ilf	Quartz, tephroite, sonolite, alleghanite, spessartine, rhodonite, pyroxmangite, rhodochrosite
18	Kurganovo	Organic clayey–siliceous shale (black shale), quartzite	Early Silurian	GS	Ilf	Quartz, tephroite, spessartine, rhodonite, rhodochrosite
19	Borodulino	Organic clayey–siliceous shale (black shale), quartzite	Early Silurian	GS	Ilf	Quartz, tephroite, sonolite, alleghanite, rhodonite, spessartine, calcite, rhodochrosite
22	Kozhaevo	Jasperite, jasper	Middle to Late Devonian	PP	Ild Ile	Hausmannite, tephroite, caryopilite, rhodochrosite Hematite, tephroite, spessartine, andradite, grossular, rhodonite, albite, rhodochrosite
23	Urazovo	Jasperite, jasper, volcanoclastic rocks	Middle Devonian	PP	Ilg IIh	Andradite, epidote, rhodonite, caryopilite, calcite Quartz, epidote, piemontite
24	Bikokulovo	Jasperite, jasper, volcanoclastic rocks	Middle to Late Devonian	PP	Ild Ile IIh	Hausmannite, tephroite, caryopilite, rhodochrosite Quartz, hematite, tephroite, andradite, epidote, piemontite, pumpellyite–Mg, rhodonite, caryopilite, parsettsensite, calcite, rhodochrosite Quartz, epidote, pumpellyite–Mg, pumpellyite–Mn, parsettsensite, calcite
25	Kazgan-Tash	Jasperite, jasper	Middle to Late Devonian	PP	Ile	Quartz, hematite, tephroite, andradite, grossular, epidote, rhodonite, caryopilite, calcite
26	Kusimovo	Jasper	Middle Devonian	PP	IIIi IIIj	Quartz, hematite, braunite Braunite, piemontite, rhodonite, caryopilite, parsettsensite, calcite
27	Kyzyl-Tash	Jasperite, jasper	Middle to Late Devonian	PP	Ild Ile	Hausmannite, tephroite, caryopilite, rhodochrosite, kutnahorite Quartz, hematite, tephroite, spessartine, andradite, grossular, epidote, rhodonite, caryopilite, calcite, rhodochrosite
28	South Fayzuly (southern part)	Jasperite, jasper, siliceous shale	Middle Devonian	PP	Ild Ile	Hausmannite, tephroite, alleghanite, ribbeite, caryopilite, rhodochrosite Quartz, tephroite, alleghanite, ribbeite, spessartine, pyroxmangite, caryopilite, rhodochrosite
29	South Fayzuly (northern part)	Jasper	Middle Devonian	PP	IIIi	Quartz, hematite, braunite
30	Middle Fayzuly	Jasperite, jasper	Middle Devonian	PP	Ilg	Quartz, hematite, andradite, rhodonite
31	North Fayzuly	Jasper	Middle Devonian	PP	IIIi	Quartz, hematite, braunite

Notes. \* Numbers of deposits correspond to those in Fig. 1. Facies of metamorphism: PP, prehnite-pumpellyite; GS, green schist. Mineral types of manganese rocks: “reduced” carbonate (I) and oxide–carbonate–silicate (II) and “oxidized” oxide–silicate (III) (see subdivision for groups a–j in text).

<sup>a</sup> Only minerals from manganese ores are shown for the Parnok deposit.

deposits were exploited in the second half of the 20th century. Other deposits were not of economic interest.

The deposits are situated in the East Uralian lithotectonic zone. The Silurian Mn-bearing volcanosedimentary rocks surround the blocks of the Precambrian metamorphic rocks. The Late Paleozoic mafic and felsic intrusives occur in the area of the deposits. The manganese ores are concentrated in siliceous rocks, muscovite–quartz, chlorite–quartz, and carboniferous–quartz schists. The deposits are characterized by the flattened lens-shaped manganese ore bodies, but, more often, the primary lenses are divided into several ellipsoidal or isometric fragments up to

4 m thick and 10 to 30 m long as a result of mechanical deformations (boudinage). The total length of the Mn-bearing rocks is ~500 m. Among the deposits studied, the deposits of the Central Urals are metamorphosed under conditions of green schists facies:  $T = 450\text{--}500\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $p = 2\text{--}3.5\text{ kbar}$  (Serkov, 1989; Brusnitsyn, 2000; Perova, 2004).

*South Urals.* Eighty four small manganese deposits in the Devonian volcanic rocks of the South Urals are known since the second half of the 20th century (Salikhov et al., 2002). Some of them (Urazovo, Bikkulovo, Kusimovo, Kzy-Tash, South Fayzuly) were exploited at the beginning of the 20th century, but the works have been terminated to

the end of the 1940s. The Kozhaevo, South and North Fayzuly, and Bikkulovo deposits have been mined from 1997 to 2007, but now they are considered uneconomic.

The deposits are confined to the Middle to Upper Devonian volcanosedimentary rocks, which were formed during the final stages of the evolution of the Early to Middle Devonian andesite–basaltic and rhyolite–basaltic complexes. The siliceous rocks (jasperites, jaspers, siliceous siltstones, and tuffites) are widely abundant in the volcanosedimentary complexes. Jasperites are the most striking variety of the siliceous rocks (see Fig. 3a, b in Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2012). These are hematite–quartz rocks with globular, colloform, and spherulitic textures and typical brecciated structure. They are currently considered as lithified analogues of Fe–Si sediments, which are formed on the seafloor close to the low-temperature hydrothermal vents (Kheraskov, 1951; Crerar et al., 1982; Grenne and Slack, 2003; Brusnitsyn, Zhukov, 2012; Zaykov and Ankusheva, 2013; Brusnitsyn, 2013a). In many deposits (Kozhaevo, Urazovo, Kazgan-Tash, Bikkulovo, Kyzyl-Tash, South and Middle Fayzuly), the ore bodies are made up of closely associated manganese ores and jasperites. Such an association is a good evidenced accumulation of metalliferous sediments near hydrothermal vents (Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2005, 2012; Brusnitsyn, 2013a; Brusnitsyn et al., 2000, 2009). In some deposits (Kusimovo, the northern part of the South Fayzuly, North Fayzuly, Ayusazovo, Gabdimovo), manganese ores occur in jaspers. It is suggested that Mn-bearing sediments accumulated far from the discharge zones of the hydrothermal fluids.

In all cases, manganese ores form conformable lenses and beds in siliceous rocks, volcanomictic sandstones, and tuffites. The thickness of the ore bodies reaches 2.5 m and their length is up to 450 m. By geochemical features (distribution of major, trace and rare earth elements), manganese ores of the South Urals are similar to the present-day hydrothermal sediments (Brusnitsyn et al., 2013). In the Late Devonian to Late Carboniferous, the volcanosedimentary complexes underwent regional metamorphism of  $T = 200\text{--}250\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $p = 2\text{--}3\text{ kbar}$  (Necheukhin, 1969; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2012; Brusnitsyn, 2013a). Later, they were deformed during Carboniferous–Permian collision. The Mesozoic–Cainozoic supergene processes are locally manifested at these deposits.

#### 4. Mineral composition of manganese ores

Manganese ores (in addition to the economic definition, the term «ore» in this case also indicates the geochemical composition of Mn-rich rocks) of the Urals are characterized by micro- to fine-grained textures (the mean size of mineral grains is 10–50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and layered, lens-shaped, banded, spotted (brecciated, nodular) or, locally, veinlet structures occur (Fig. 2). One hundred and nine minerals were identified in the manganese rocks on the basis of optical and electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, and microprobe analysis (Table 2). The manganese rocks are characterized by extremely uneven distribution of minerals, the amount of which strongly varies even within a single ore body. Twenty five to thirty minerals, on average, could be identified in a deposit; six to eight minerals are rock-forming (each mineral composes no <5 vol% of rock) and other minerals are subordinate (1–5%) and accessory (<1%). Quartz, tephroite, spessartine, rhodonite, piroxangite, caryopilite (and/or friedelite), Mn-calcite and rhodochrosite are the most abundant rock-forming minerals. In several deposits, major minerals also include hematite, hausmannite, braunite, Mn-humites (sonolite, alleghaniite, ribbeite), andradite, minerals of the epidote group (Mn-epidote, piemontite), parsettensite, and kutnohorite. Mn-aksinite, minerals of the chlorite group (Mn-clinochlore and chamosite, pennantite), and stilpnomelane (locally, K-feldspar, albite, Mn-pyroxenes, amphiboles, and mica) are typical subordinate minerals. The most typical accessory minerals include alabandite, pyrite, pyrophanite, magnetite, neotocite, celsiane, barite, and apatite.

According to the variations in the amount of major minerals in the manganese rocks of the Urals, they are subdivided on carbonate (I),

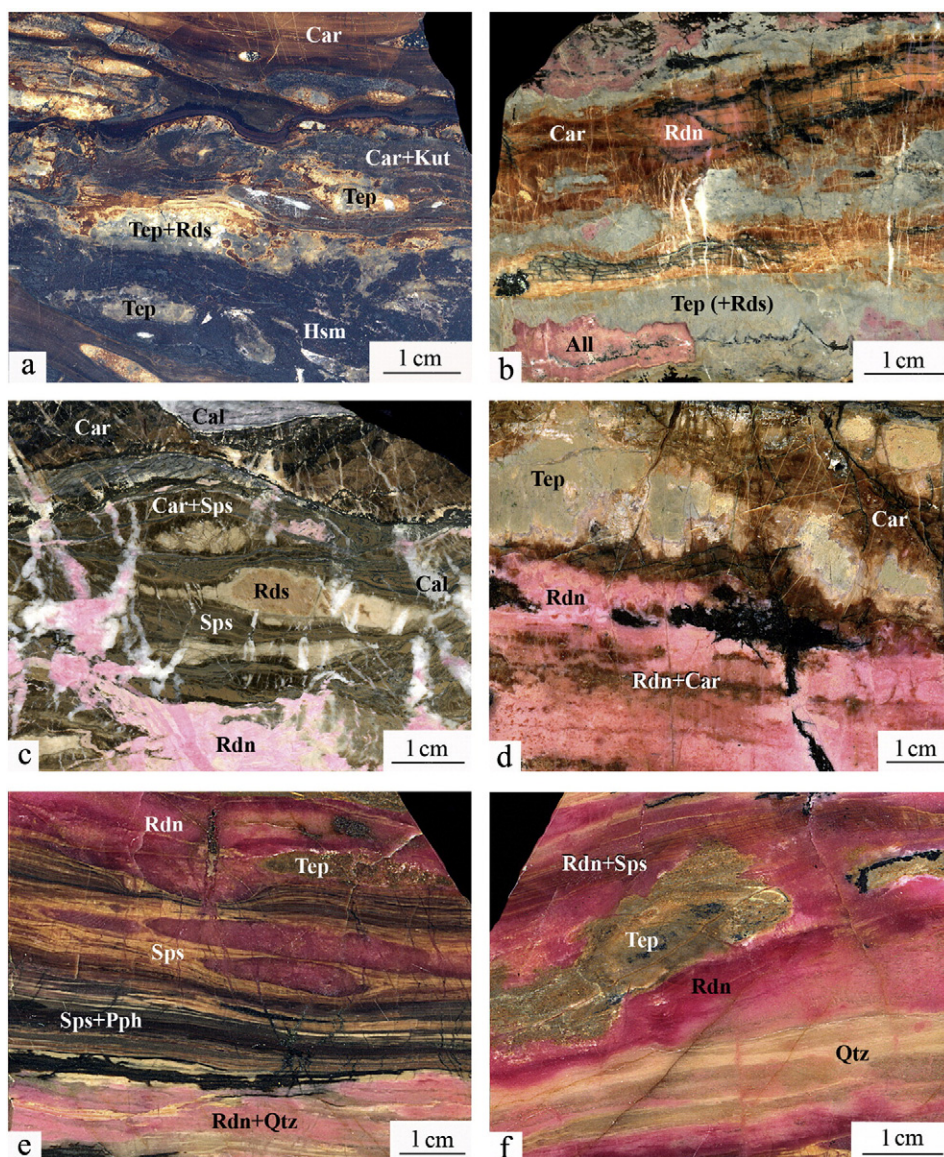
oxide–carbonate–silicate (II), and oxide–silicate (III) types. Carbonates, various  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ -bearing silicates associated with oxides and carbonates, and braunite ( $\text{Mn}^{3+}$ -bearing silicate) are the major Mn hosts in types I, II, and III, respectively. Because of the different oxidation state of Mn, the rocks of types I and II are termed as “reduced” and the rocks of type III, as “oxidized” (Mottana, 1986; Brusnitsyn, 2007). Each ore type combines several mineralogical ore varieties, which could grade into each other. For example, on the basis of the dominant Mn-mineral, the type I is subdivided into (a) rhodochrosite, (b) siderite–rhodochrosite, and (c) kutnohorite ores. The oxide–carbonate–silicate ores are subdivided into five groups (d–h). Ores of the group (d) mainly consist of hausmannite, rhodochrosite, and tephroite and subordinate pyrochroite, humites, caryopilite, calcite, kutnohorite, and other minerals. The group (e) includes ores, which consist of silicates (tephroite, rhodonite, pyroxmangite, caryopilite and/or friedelite, and minerals of the humite, garnet and epidote groups), quartz, rhodochrosite, and calcite. The ores of the group (f) are similar to those of the group (e), but they contain no caryopilite and/or friedelite. No Mn oxides and tephroite occur in ores of the groups (g) and (h); rhodochrosite is rare. Quartz and rhodonite are dominant in the group (g), whereas quartz and Mn-epidote and/or piemontite are the major minerals in the group (h). The oxide–silicate ores include two groups, which are composed of (i) quartz, hematite and braunite and (j) braunite, rhodonite, piemontite, caryopilite, and calcite.

The mineral composition of manganese ores hosted in sedimentary and volcanosedimentary successions is generally similar. However, no braunite-bearing manganese ores are known in sedimentary rocks. These ores are characterized by the presence of galena, sphalerite, zircon, friedelite, stilpnomelane, K-feldspar, and Ce-minerals (allanite, monacite, Ce-carbonate) in contrast to ores in volcanosedimentary beds with more typical hematite, andradite, grossular, titanite, epidote, piemontite, minerals of the pumpellyite group, Na pyroxenes, and amphiboles. In terms of mineral composition, the manganese ores of the Urals are similar to low-grade metamorphosed Mn-bearing sediments of California, the Alps, Japan, and other regions (Abrecht, 1989; Lucchetti, 1991; Flohr and Huebner, 1992; Dasgupta, 1997; Nakagawa et al., 2009, 2011).

#### 5. Discussion

Precipitation of manganese most likely occurred in oxide form of  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$  and/or  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  (amorphous phase, vernadite, todorokite, birnessite) similarly to that in contemporary ocean sediments. Further geological processes transformed significantly the mineral composition of Mn-bearing sediments. The character of diagenetic mineral formation is caused by the content of organic matter in the sediments (Berner, 1980; Brusnitsyn, 2007; Konhauser, 2007; Johnson et al., 2016). Decomposition of organic matter provided anaerobic  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich reduced conditions favorable for the crystallization of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  carbonates and silicates. If organic matter in primary sediment was minor or absent, Mn preserved the high oxidation state, which prevented from the formation of rhodochrosite.

The deposits of the Urals are characterized by the dominant “reduced” carbonate or oxide–carbonate–silicate manganese ores, the formation of which is related to the biogenic processes. Most Mn carbonates (rhodochrosite, kutnohorite, Mn calcite and siderite) are diagenetic, which is evident from sedimentary diagenetic textures of their aggregates – pelitic, colloform, cloddy, spherulitic, etc. (Fig. 3a–c), which are replaced by coarser-grained mosaic aggregates during the later recrystallization. In Mn-rich ore type (d), isometric and irregular aggregates of hausmannite and pyrochroite are replaced by rhodochrosite, which represent the relics of partly reduced primary sedimentary Mn oxides. The participation of organic matter in the formation of carbonates is supported by carbon isotopic composition. The samples studied are mostly characterized by negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  values (Table 3), which are typical of biogenic carbon (Hoefs, 2009; Polgári



**Fig. 2.** Oxide-carbonate-silicate manganese rocks. (a–d) Caryopilite-bearing rocks of prehnite-pumpellyite facies: (a) lens-banded caryopilite-carbonate-tephroite rock with hausmannite; (b) lens-banded rhodonite-caryopilite-tephroite rock with alleghanite lenses and stylolite boundary emphasized by black carbonaceous material in the bottom; (c) lens-layered rhodochrosite-spessartine-caryopilite rock with calcite and rhodonite veins; (d) banded caryopilite-tephroite-rhodonite rock (it is evident that rhodonite and tephroite are divided by a caryopilite layer; compare with Fig. 2e); (e, f) caryopilite-free rocks of green schist facies: (e) banded quartz-spessartine-rhodonite rock; (f) lens-bedded quartz-rhodonite-tephroite rock with associated rhodonite and tephroite (compare Fig. 2d and f, see reaction 3 in Fig. 5). Qtz - quartz; Hsm - hausmannite; Pph - pyrophanite; Tep - tephroite; All - alleghanite; Sps - spessartine; Rdn - rhodonite; Car - caryopilite; Rds - rhodochrosite; Cal - calcite; Kut - kutnahorite. Deposits: (a) Kyzyl-Tash, (b–d) Parnok, (e, f) Malosedelnikovo. Polished samples.

et al., 2012, Bodor et al., 2016). The increased carbon isotopic composition is typical only for the kutnahorite ores of Pai Khoi (Kheyakha, Sibirchatayakha and Lower Silova deposits), which were formed, in addition to Mn oxides and organic matter, from sedimentary Ca carbonates enriched with  $^{13}\text{C}$  (Starikova and Kuleshov, 2009; Kuleshov et al., 2014). It should be noted that the structures of aggregates of Mn carbonates resemble the products of bacterial activity, e.g., the kutnahorite beds with fine wavy-layered structures are interpreted as stromatolite-like rocks (Starikova, 2012).

During the burial of sediments in the excess of organic matter, the primary sedimentary Mn oxides reacted with opal (and/or quartz), that resulted in the formation of braunite, which crystallized during the early stages of lithogenesis (probably dia- or catagenesis of sediments). This is evident from the well-recognized and well-preserved

radiolarians filled with braunite. The braunite-bearing nonmetamorphosed manganese sediments are known, for example, in the deposits of the South Africa (Miyano and Beukes, 1987; Gutzmer and Beukes, 1996; Gutzmer et al., 2002).

The «oxidized», braunite-bearing oxide-silicate ores are rare in the Urals. They are found only in the red siliceous rocks (jaspers), which occur in the Devonian volcanic complexes of the South Urals (Kusimovo, Niyasgulovo-1, Ayusazovo, Gabdimovo, North Fayzuly deposits). Such ores probably mark the deepest marine depressions with low bioproductivity of the water column and suppressed benthos. It is interesting that the same stratigraphic level with braunite-bearing ores hosts the manganese ore bodies, which are composed of the «reduced» oxide-carbonate-silicate ores (e.g., South Fayzuly deposit). We believe that these deposits were formed in situ of «biological marine oases»



Table 2 (continued)

Minerals	Formulae	Deposit <sup>b</sup>																																		
		Hosted in sedimentary rocks									Hosted in volcanosedimentary rocks																									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9 <sup>a</sup>	17	18	19	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31														
Muscovite	KAl <sub>2</sub> (Si <sub>3</sub> AlO <sub>10</sub> )(OH) <sub>2</sub>			+				+	+																									+		
Phlogopite	KMg <sub>3</sub> (AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> )(OH) <sub>2</sub>								+																										+	
Shirozulite	KMn <sub>3</sub> (AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> )(OH) <sub>2</sub>																																			+
Wonesite	Na <sub>0.5</sub> (Mg,Fe,Al) <sub>3</sub> (Si,Al) <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>									+																										+
Pennantite	Mn <sub>5</sub> Al(AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> )(OH) <sub>8</sub>																																			+
Clinochlore	(Mg,Mn) <sub>5</sub> Al(AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>8</sub>	+					+																													+
Shamosite	(Fe,Mn) <sub>5</sub> Al(AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>8</sub>																																			+
Stilpnomelane	K(Fe <sup>2+</sup> ,Mg,Mn) <sub>8</sub> (AlSi <sub>11</sub> O <sub>28</sub> )(OH) <sub>8</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	+			+																															+
Parsettsensite	KMn <sub>7</sub> (AlSi <sub>9</sub> O <sub>24</sub> )(OH) <sub>6</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Bannisterite	KMn <sub>10</sub> (AlSi <sub>15</sub> O <sub>38</sub> )(OH) <sub>8</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Coombsite	KMn <sub>13</sub> (AlSi <sub>17</sub> O <sub>42</sub> )(OH) <sub>14</sub>																																			+
Zussmanite	K(Fe,Mn) <sub>13</sub> (AlSi <sub>17</sub> O <sub>42</sub> )(OH) <sub>14</sub>																																			+
Neotocite	Mn(SiO <sub>3</sub> )·nH <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Orthoclase	K(AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )	+																																		+
Albite	Na(AlSi <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )																																			+
Celsian	Ba(Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )																																			+
Harmotome	Ba(Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>6</sub> O <sub>16</sub> )·6H <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Edingtonite	Ba(Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> )·4H <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Calcite	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Rhodochrosite	MnCO <sub>3</sub>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Siderite	(Fe,Mn)CO <sub>3</sub>			+																																+
Kutnahorite	CaMn(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	+																																		+
Dolomite	(Ca,Mn)Mg(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	+	+																																	+
Ankerite	(Ca,Mn)Fe(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>																																			+
Barytocalcite	CaBa(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>																																			+
Calkinsite-Ce	Ce <sub>2</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Barite	BaSO <sub>4</sub>	+																																		+
Monazite-Ce	Ce(PO <sub>4</sub> )	+	+																																	+
Xenotime-Y	Y(PO <sub>4</sub> )																																			+
Apatite	Ca <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (F,OH)	+	+	+																																+
Johnbaumite	Ca <sub>5</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (OH)																																			+
Svabite	Ca <sub>5</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> F																																			+
Arsenoclasite	Mn <sub>5</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>																																			+
Brandtite	Ca <sub>2</sub> Mn(AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O																																			+
Declozite	PbZn(VO <sub>4</sub> )(OH)	+																																		+
Scheelite	Ca(WO <sub>4</sub> )																																			+
Bismoclite	BiOCl	+																																		+
Sussexite	Mn(BO <sub>2</sub> )(OH)																																			+

Notes. Modified after (Shishkin and Gerasimov, 1995; Brusnitsyn, 1998, 2000, 2010, 2013a, 2015; Brusnitsyn et al., 2000, 2009; Gerasimov et al., 1999; Starikova and Zavileisky, 2010; Starikova, 2011, 2014; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2005, 2012).

<sup>a</sup> Only minerals of manganese ores are shown.

<sup>b</sup> Numbers of deposits correspond to those in Fig. 1.

around the discharge zones of the low-temperature hydrothermal vents (Zhukov et al., 1998; Zhukov and Leonova, 1999; Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2012; Ayupova and Maslennikov, 2013.).

The increase in temperature and pressure results in crystallization of numerous silicates in manganese ores. It is difficult to say now what is the lower temperature level, which is necessary for the mass crystallization of Mn silicates in sediments, however, their overwhelming majority is stable prior to the PT conditions of prehnite-pumpellyite facies.

The diversity and the high contents of hydrous silicates are the typical features of low metamorphic manganese ores. Fifty three silicates are identified in the manganese ores. The H<sub>2</sub>O content is 8–12 wt% in 16 minerals (gagate, greenalite, caryopilite, friedelite, manganpyrosomalite, bementite, kelliite, pennantite, clinochlore, chamosite, stilpnomelane, patsettsensite, bannisterite, cumbsite, zussmannite, and neotocite) and is 2–4 wt% in 22 silicates (minerals of the humite, epidote, pumpellyite, amphibole, and mica groups, ilvaite, heitmanite, manganaxinite, manganabingtonite, and talc). Thus, about 70% of metamorphic silicates are hydrated phases.

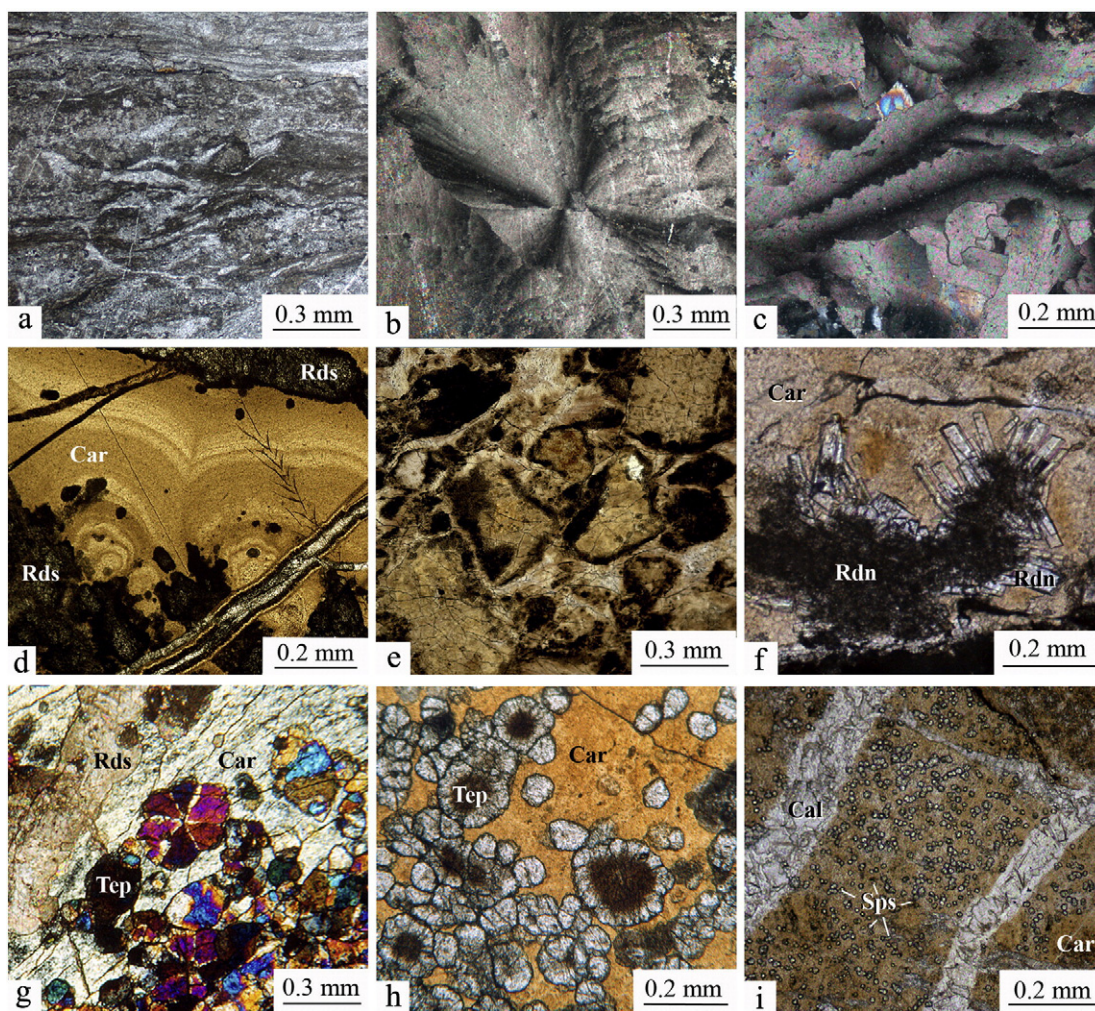
The Mn–Si minerals with serpentinite-type of crystal structure (caryopilite, friedelite, manganpyrosomalite, bementite) deserve special attention. These minerals are barely distinct from each other, especially when they form complex aggregates. To simplify the description, below

we will use only the name caryopilite, which is the most widespread mineral. The genetic relations between serpentine-like minerals are reviewed in detail in Brusnitsyn (2015).

Caryopilite is an index mineral of low-grade metamorphism of manganese sediments; the maximum temperature of its stability corresponds to the upper limit of prehnite-pumpellyite facies (Kato, 1963; Watanabe et al., 1970; Abrecht, 1989; Flohr and Huebner, 1992; Dasgupta, 1997; Nakagawa et al., 2009, 2014; Brusnitsyn, 2010, 2013a). Caryopilite is formed from the fine-dispersed and hydrous Mn–Si phase (most likely, X-ray amorphous neotocite, MnSiO·nH<sub>2</sub>O), which was present in the primary sediment. This is evident from (i) the layer-by-layer distribution of caryopilite, which is parallel to the general layering of sediments (Fig. 2f–d); (ii) the cloddy, globular, cryptocrystalline, and concentric-zonal textures of its aggregates, which are similar to gel or glass textures (Fig. 3d, c); (iii) the abundant syneresis fractures in caryopilite, which are formed during dehydration (drying) and the decrease in the volume of the fine-dispersed matter; and (iv) the constant presence of isomorphic Mg and Al (typical elements of silicates but not of Mn oxides and carbonates) in composition of caryopilite.

In turn, neotocite, which is the earlier mineral relative to caryopilite, is a typical (locally, rock-forming) constituent of nonmetamorphosed





**Fig. 3.** Structure of carbonate and oxide–carbonate–silicate manganese rocks: (a) pelitomorphic carbonate rock with lenticular-banded structure: variation of color are caused by different contents of rhodochrosite, manganese silicates and finely dispersed organic matter; (b) carbonate spherulite made up of radial intergrowths of finely acicular rhodochrosite; (c) granular structure formed by split rhodochrosite crystals; (d) concentric zonal caryopilite aggregate intergrown with early rhodochrosite and rhodochrosite veinlet of second generation; (e) pseudobrecciated caryopilite aggregate with numerous syneresis fractures caused by dehydration of watered Mn–Si substrate; (f) two generations of rhodonite in caryopilite aggregate: early clotted rhodonite is overgrown by late tabular rhodonite crystals; (e, f) radial intergrowths (twins) of tephroite in caryopilite matrix; (i) spessartine grains in caryopilite aggregate with calcite veinlets. Tep - tephroite; Sps - spessartine; Rdn - rhodonite; Car - caryopilite; Rds - rhodochrosite; Cal - calcite. Deposits: (a, b, c, i) Parnok, (d, g, h) South Fayzuly (southern part), (e) Bikkulovo. Transmitted light. Photos (a, d, e, f, h, i), ||nicols, (b, c, g)  $\times$  nicols.

**Table 3**  
Carbon isotopic composition of carbonates from manganese rocks of the Urals.

N <sup>e</sup> *	Deposits	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ , ‰ (PDB)
Deposit of Pai Khoi and Polar Urals		
1	Kheyakha	–0.8 ... –0.1
1	Sibirchathayakha	–2.0 ... 1.3
2	Lower Silova	–6.6 ... –1.1
3	Karsk	–10.2 ... –9.3
4	Silovayakha	–5.2 ... –2.9
5	Nadeiyakha-1	–16.4 ... –10.4
7	Sob River basin	–30.4 ... –11.9
9	Parnok	–17.1 ... –8.9
Deposit of the Central and South Urals		
17	Malosedelnikovo	–21.9 ... –8.6
24	Bikkulovo	–29.3 ... –13.7
26	Kusimovo <sup>a</sup>	–22.0 ... –17.3
27	Kyzyl-Tash	–28.1 ... –10.8
28	South Fayzuly (southern part)	–51.4 ... –20.4

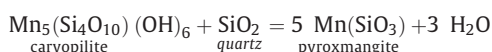
Notes. \* Numbers of deposits correspond to those in Fig. 1. Modified after Kuleshov and Brusnitsyn (2005); Brusnitsyn (2013a); Brusnitsyn et al. (2014); Kuleshov et al. (2014).

<sup>a</sup> An area of braunite–rhodonite rocks with Mn-calcite.

sedimentary and hydrothermal-sedimentary deposits (Alexiev, 1960; Clark et al., 1978; Andruschenko et al., 1985; Smolyaninova, 1992). It is suggested that neotocite is diagenetic and is a result of coagulation of Mn–Si gel in sediments.

Caryopilite is typical of the «reduced» oxide–carbonate–silicate ores in contrast to the «oxidized» braunite ores. As seen from  $T - \lg f_{\text{O}_2}$  plot (Fig. 4), the caryopilite–braunite assemblage is stable in the very narrow field, thus, it is rare in nature. For example, in spite of abundant «oxidize» oxide–silicate ores in the South Urals, caryopilite was identified only in rare braunite–rhodonite rocks of the Kusimovo deposit. At the same time, the stability field of caryopilite in the area of the low  $f_{\text{O}_2}$  values is unlimited.

The interrelations between minerals of the oxide–carbonate–silicate ores show that caryopilite is a precursor for the formation of many rock-forming silicates, e.g., crystals of pyroxmangite or rhodonite (in the presence of calcite). The scheme of this process is as follows:



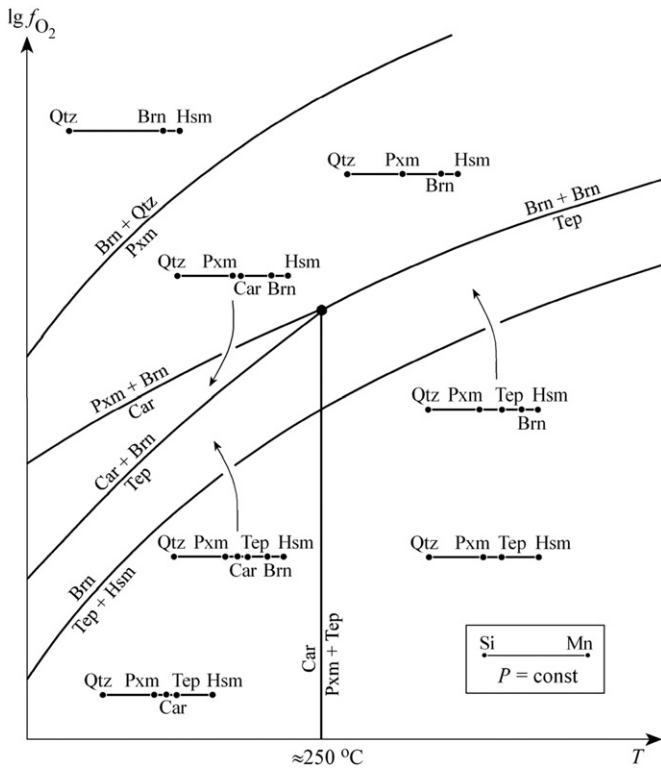
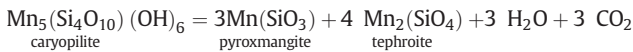


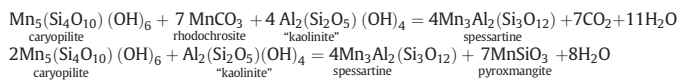
Fig. 4. T – lgf<sub>o2</sub> diagram for Mn–Si system after Brusnitsyn (2013a). Brn - braunite; Pxm - pyroxmangite; Tep - tephroite; Car - caryopilite; Hsm - hausmannite; Qtz - quartz.

As a result, the quartz–caryopilite assemblage is replaced by caryopilite–pyroxmangite (rhodonite) and pyroxmangite (rhodonite)–quartz assemblages prior to the PT conditions of prehnite-pumpellyite facies (Fig. 3f). This, however, concerns only the most widespread caryopilite with low Fe, Mg, and Al contents. The Al-, Fe-, and Mg-rich caryopilite does not react with quartz, at least, up to 260 °C that was observed in the rocks of the South Fayzuly deposit in the South Urals (Brusnitsyn, 2006, 2013a).

The replacement of caryopilite by tephroite and minerals of the humite group (sonolite, alleganite, ribbeite) is typical (Fig. 3 g, h). Tephroite is most likely a result of interaction between caryopilite and rhodochrosite:



Spessartine is formed after reaction of caryopilite with rhodochrosite and clay minerals (Figs. 2c and 3i). Schematically, this process can be described by the following equations:



In addition to caryopilite + spessartine + pyroxmangite (rhodonite) ± tephroite (humites) ± rhodochrosite assemblage, the assemblages with pennantite, clinocllore, muscovite, stilpnomelane, patsettensite, and other minerals are formed in the clay aggregates.

The increase in temperature of metamorphism leads to replacement of caryopilite by pyroxmangite (and/or rhodonite) and tephroite :



The pyroxmangite (± rhodonite) + tephroite assemblage is typical of the manganese rocks of the Central Urals and sediments from other regions, which underwent metamorphism of green schist facies (Dasgupta, 1997; Brusnitsyn, 2000, 2007).

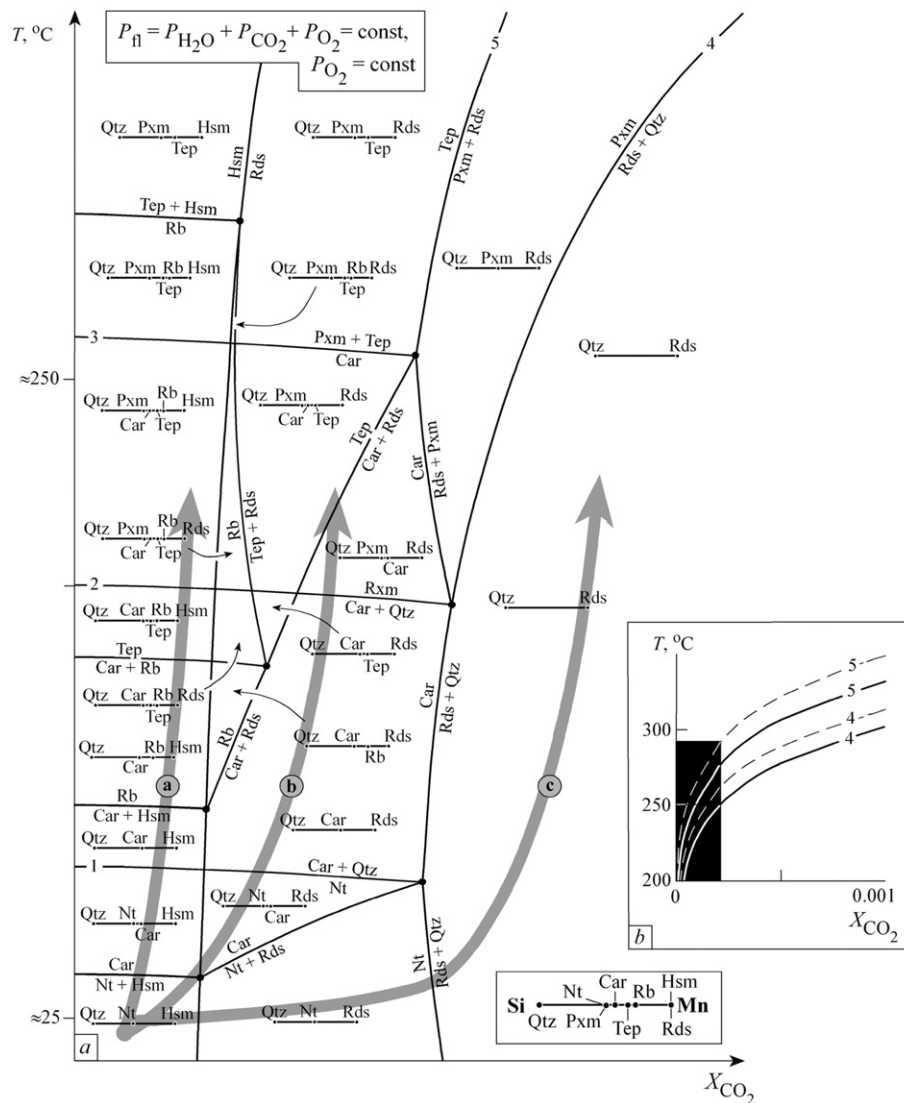
Summary of our mineralogical observations allows reconstruction of the succession of transformation of the primary gel-like Mn–Si phase in sediments under the increase in temperature and pressure: (i) the formation of diagenetic neotocite, (ii) its replacement by caryopilite; (iii) further crystallization of pyroxmangite, rhodonite, tephroite, and other silicates, and (iv), finally, the formation of the pyroxmangite (± rhodonite) + tephroite assemblage under conditions of green schist facies.

Specifying our results, we should emphasize several important genetic aspects. First, we manage to identify the presence of the fine-dispersed hydrous Mn–Si phase (gel, glass, etc.) in the sediment, whose amount may be rather high. The nature of this protolith and the conditions of its accumulation are still poorly understood. The mineralogical data, however, certainly indicate its possible presence. This was also suggested by previous researchers, in particular, similar ideas on the genesis of caryopilite and orthosilicates (tephroite, alleganite, sonolite) were put forward for the manganese deposits of California (Flohr and Huebner, 1992). The formation of caryopilite during the earliest stages of lithogenesis and its further replacement by rhodonite and/or tephroite was recorded in the deposits of Japan (Watanabe et al., 1970; El Rhazi and Hayashi, 2003; Nakagawa et al., 2009).

Second, it is evident that, at low temperatures, many manganese silicates are formed at the expense of consecutive transformations precisely of the Mn–Si phase. These processes should be more energetically favorable relative to the crystallization of silicates via reactions of SiO<sub>2</sub> with Mn oxides and/or carbonates. Thus, Mn silicates crystallize during low grade metamorphism or even pre-metamorphic stages of lithogenesis.

Third, the identification of the low-temperature caryopilite (or tephroite–caryopilite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) and high-temperature caryopilite-free (or tephroite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) facies is reasonable in the metamorphosed manganese sediments. The PT conditions of the first and second facies correspond approximately to the conditions of the zeolite and prehnite-pumpellyite and green schist and more intense facies, respectively.

Three key consecutive reactions under the gradual increase in temperature, which discriminate the most important stages of lithogenesis, are shown in the T–X<sub>CO2</sub> plot (Fig. 5a): (reaction 1) the decomposition of neotocite with formation of quartz and caryopilite corresponds to the upper temperature limit of diagenesis; (reaction 2) the reaction of caryopilite with quartz and formation of pyroxmangite (all metamorphic minerals exist in the rock above this reaction); and (reaction 3) the decomposition of caryopilite with formation of tephroite and pyroxmangite, which corresponds to the transition from assemblages of weakly metamorphosed rocks to those of intensely metamorphosed rocks. It is also seen that the assemblages of hausmannite and silicates are stable at the low CO<sub>2</sub> content in the pore fluid. As X<sub>CO2</sub> increases, hausmannite is replaced by rhodochrosite and the silicate + rhodochrosite assemblage becomes stable. Finally, the highest X<sub>CO2</sub> values are favorable for crystallization of the rhodochrosite + quartz assemblage, which is typical of many manganese deposits. The rhodochrosite + quartz assemblage is stable in the wide temperature range and pyroxmangite is formed at the expense of this assemblage (reaction 4) at the higher temperatures relative to the reactions with caryopilite. Similarly, tephroite is formed at the expense of reaction of pyroxmangite + rhodochrosite (reaction 5) also at temperatures higher than reactions involving caryopilite. The calculations of reactions (4) and (5) (Fig. 5b) showed that, at T < 250 °C, silicates could form only at the lowest CO<sub>2</sub> content in pore fluid: for p = 2 kbar, X<sub>CO2</sub> is < 0.00025 (lgf<sub>CO2</sub> < –0.13) and the increase in pressure up to 3 kbar decreases the required X<sub>CO2</sub> value almost in two times.



**Fig. 5.**  $T - X_{CO_2}$  diagram for Mn–Si system after Brusnitsyn (2006, 2013a): (a) qualitative diagram for the complete system; (b) quantitative calculation of position of lines of reactions 4 and 5 (solid and dotted lines correspond to pressure of 2 and 3 kbar, respectively). Black rectangle, an area of diagram in Fig. 5a. Nt - neotocite; Car - caryopilite; Pxm - pyroxmangite (rhodonite); Tep - tephroite; Rb - ribbeite (alleghanite); Rds - rhodochrosite; Hsm - hausmannite; Qtz - quartz. Arrows a, b and c show the direction of processes of mineral formation in weakly metamorphosed sediments with low (a), moderate (b), and high (c) contents of organic matter.

Thus, a combination of the following factors is necessary for the formation of Mn silicates at low temperatures: (i) the accumulation of manganese in sediments in the form of Mn–Si phase (gel, neotocite); (ii) the presence of organic matter for the reduced conditions; and (iii) the moderate content of organic matter to produce the low  $CO_2$  content. Otherwise, the rhodochrosite + quartz assemblage will be stable instead of silicates.

The major problem concerns the genesis of the primary Mn–Si phase. It is most likely formed as a result of mixing of the hydrothermal fluids with cold seawater. The abrupt change in the physico-chemical conditions brings about the fast loss of elements dissolved in hydrothermal fluids. Manganese and Si are concentrated not only in amorphous or poorly crystallized oxides, but also in the form of metastable Mn–Si phase. If Mn and Si are deposited under the calmer conditions (at significant distance from hydrothermal vents or without hydrothermal fluids), the formation of the Mn–Si phase is unlikely.

Thus, the presence of the low-temperature Mn silicates indicates the hydrothermal genesis of Mn-bearing sediments that is supported by the study of the deposits of the Urals and, especially, South Urals. As was noted above, two types of Mn-bearing rocks are distinguished: those, which were formed within the discharge zone of the hydrothermal

fluids, and those, which were formed at the distance from hydrothermal vents (Brusnitsyn and Zhukov, 2012; Brusnitsyn, 2013a). Diverse Mn silicates are identified only in the deposits of type (1) (Urazovo, Kozhaevo, Bikkulovo, Kazgan-Tash, Kyzyl-Tash, South and Middle Fayzuly). The Mn ore bodies of type (2) (North Fayzuly, the northern part of the South Fayzuly, Kusimovo) are made up of monotonous quartz–braunite ores (Table 1). The hydrothermal genesis of oxide–carbonate–silicate ores of the deposits of Pai Khoi and Polar Urals is not so obvious. The geological structure of the ore bodies, their mineralogical similarity with ores from the South Urals, and similar metamorphic conditions, however, allow us to suggest their deposition in the discharge zone of hydrothermal fluids.

In addition to the presence of caryopilite and associated hydrated silicates, the low-grade metamorphism of manganese deposits is evident from the following features:

- (i) The presence of pyroxmangite  $MnMn_6(Si_7O_{21})$ . According to experimental data (Maresch and Mottana, 1976), it is stable at  $p = 2$  kbar and  $T < 420$  °C and at  $p = 4$  and  $T < 450$  °C. Its polymorphic analogue Ca-free rhodonite  $MnMn_4(Si_5O_{15})$  should crystallize under the same pressures and higher temperatures. The Ca-

bearing rhodonite  $\text{CaMn}_4(\text{Si}_5\text{O}_{15})$  crystallizes under significantly lower temperatures and pressures, that is established in the deposits studied;

- (ii) The presence of johannsenite  $\text{CaMn}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_6)$ . The experimental data (Angel, 1984) showed that it is stable at  $p = 2$  and 3 kbar and  $T < 320$  and  $< 350$  °C, respectively. Its polymorphic analogue bustamite  $\text{Ca}_3\text{Mn}_3(\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9)_2$  would crystallize under the same pressures but the higher temperatures;
- (iii) The presence of the minerals of the pumpellyite group, especially Fe and Mn varieties (Schiffman and Liou, 1983; Liou et al., 1985; Bokiya, 1996);
- (iv) Mainly fine-grained ores with relics of typical sedimentary-diagenetic structures and textures and micro- and macrofauna; defect (microblocky, poikilitic, etc.) crystal morphology of many minerals (Fig. 3); well-formed grains and mosaic, grano- and heteroblastic, and other metamorphic textures typical of the rocks beginning from green schist facies.

## 6. Conclusions

The low-grade metamorphosed manganese sediments of the Urals are composed of three ore types: (I) carbonate, (II) oxide–carbonate–silicate, and (III) oxide–silicate. Carbonates, various  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ -bearing silicates associated with oxides and carbonates, and braunite ( $\text{Mn}^{3+}$ -bearing silicate) are the major Mn hosts in types I, II, and III, respectively. Because of the different oxidation state of Mn, the rocks of types I and II are termed as «reduced» and the rocks of type III, as «oxidized». The formation of a certain mineralogical type of metamorphic assemblages is controlled by the content of organic matter in the primary sediments. The consequence type I → type II → type III reflects the decrease in the amount of organic matter in metalliferous sediments. Mineralogical data show that Mn in the primary sediments could accumulate in both oxide and silicate forms (Mn–Si gel, glass, etc.). As PT parameters increased, the Mn–Si phase was diagenetically transformed to neotocite, which was further replaced by caryopilite and pyroxmangite, rhodonite, tephroite and other silicates at the expense of reactions with caryopilite. The recognition of the low-temperature caryopilite (or tephroite–caryopilite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) and high-temperature caryopilite-free (or tephroite–pyroxmangite ± rhodonite) facies is reasonable in the metamorphosed manganese sediments. The pT-conditions of the first and second facies correspond approximately to those of zeolite and prehnite–pumpellyite and green schist and more intense facies, respectively.

## Conflict of interest

None.

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