Is manganese the key? Lowering the dolomite kinetic barrier via redox-driven templating

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Abstract

Fabric-preserving and strata-bound dolostones in deep-time successions defy high temperature burial models, implying an elusive low-temperature, syndepositional formation pathway. Here, we demonstrate a kinetically facile route to disordered dolomite nucleation driven by the synergy of manganese redox cycling and carboxyl functionalization. Using a bio-inspired electrochemical reactor, we show that electrochemical valence state manganese modulation accelerates Mn sequestration into authigenic carbonate by 61% (*vs*. <25% in non-electrochemical control) and enhances Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} co-incorporation in polycrystalline precursor by ~52% relative to control. The crystallization route generates reactive, electrode surface-confined Mn(III) intermediates where carboxyl ligand stabilization suppresses oxide precipitation, enabling the rapid nucleation of spheroidal magnesian kutnahorite. Nanostructural characterization reveals a core-shell architecture where this isostructural precursor templates the epitaxial growth of substitutionally disordered dolomite cortices on the spheroidal aggregates. Mechanistically, localized acidity from redox cycling triggers a "proton-driven cation pump," actively mobilizing Mg^{2+} from the functionalized hydrogel reservoir to the mineralization front near the electrode interface. Mg^{2+} incorporates into lattice-distorted sites previously occupied by Mn^{2+} in the templating phase. This electrochemical mechanism can be extrapolated to explain the paragenesis of delicate fabric-retentive dolostones in deep time.

1. Introduction

The dolomite conundrum persists as a paradox in sedimentary geochemistry, contrasting the punctuated abundance of dolomite in pre-Mesozoic strata—where it served as a major carbon and magnesium sink (Berner, 1991), with its scarcity in modern shallow-marine environments (McKenzie, 1991; Holland and Zimmerman, 2000). At the heart of this paradox lies a profound

53   kinetic barrier, i.e., the synthesis of ordered dolomite ($CaMg(CO_3)_2$) remains intractable at low

54   temperatures (<80°C).

55   Despite being thermodynamically favored in marine-derived fluids (Wigley, 1973;

56   Given and Wilkinson, 1987; Wilkinson and Algeo, 1989), the formation of the enigmatic

57   mineral is inhibited by the high enthalpy of dehydration of the Mg^{2+} ion (Lippmann, 1973;

58   Hardie, 1987). Mg has a high charge density and binds water molecules into a rigid hydration

59   shell with slow exchange rates (Lippmann, 1973; Maguire & Cowan, 2002; Helm & Merbach,

60   2005). Additional kinetic barriers include the difficulty of achieving cation-ordering, which

61   requires geological timescales at low temperature (Kell-Duivestein et al., 2019; Pina et al.,

62   2022), and high nucleation energy, which favours disordered precursors that require protracted

63   aging to form ordered dolomite (Meister et al., 2023).

64   Early high-temperature (≥150°C) experiments established protodolomite as a

65   compulsory precursor that can lead to dolomite (*sensu stricto*) via dissolution-reprecipitation

66   and recrystallization (Graf and Goldsmith, 1956; Bischoff 1968; Katz & Matthews, 1977; see

67   also Kaczmarek & Sibley, 2014; Rodriguez-Blanco et al., 2015; Kaczmarek & Thornton,

68   2017). However, these kinetic often models fail to explain the massive, fabric-retentive

69   dolostones and fabric-selective patterns (e.g., Aljinović et al., 2025; Gingras et al., 2004).

70   Consequently, low-temperature mechanisms involving microbial agents are frequently invoked

71   (Petrash et al., 2017).

72   Subsurface microbes can overcome kinetic barriers twofold: (i) by modulating local

73   supersaturation via metabolic alkalinity generation; and (ii) by producing extracellular

74   polymeric substances (EPS) that lower Mg-dehydration energy and template nucleation

75   (Trichet and Défarge, 1995; Wang et al., 2009; Bontognali et al., 2010, 2014; Zhang et al.,

76   2012a; Roberts et al., 2013; Petrash et al., 2017). While laboratory timescales preclude

77   observing the development of cation ordering in microbial synthetic precipitates formed at low

78 temperature (Kell-Duivestein et al., 2019; Pina et al., 2022), microbial activity demonstrably

79 yields the requisite Mg-Ca rich precursors (Al Disi et al., 2021).

80 Complementary to direct microbial mediation, various catalysts appear to facilitate

81 reaction kinetics. These include: (i) organic solvents (Oomori and Kitano, 1987; Fang et al.,

82 2022) simulating hydrophobic EPS domains (Zhang et al., 2012a); (ii) dissolved silica (Fang

83 and Xu, 2022; Al Disi et al., 2024); (iii) sulfide (Zhang et al., 2012b); (iv) ammonia (Slaughter

84 and Hill, 1991; Meng et al., 2024; Petrash et al., 2025); and (v) zinc (Vandeginste et al., 2019).

85 Among these agents, manganese (Mn) distinguishes itself through a multi-modal capacity to

86 drive dolomite formation via redox-controlled alkalinity (Petrash et al., 2015), templating

87 (Daye et al., 2019), and lattice distortion (Han et al., 2024).

88 Dolomite establishes a solid solution series with ankerite ($CaFe(CO_3)_2$) and kutnahorite

89 ($CaMn(CO_3)_2$) via continuous substitution at the Mg-site. The pure ferroan end-member is

90 unstable, meaning natural ankerite invariably retains Mg, whereas stoichiometric kutnahorite

91 naturally exists but is rare (Frondel and Bauer, 1955; Peacor et al., 1987). Instead, it typically

92 manifests as metastable disordered kutnahorite with variable Ca:Mn ratios (Peacor et al., 1987;

93 Mucci, 1991, 2004; Polgári et al., 2007). The intermediate composition phase exhibit

94 substantial preferential substitution of Mg at the Mn-sites and can be expected to form as a

95 metastable authigenic mineral (Peacor et al., 1987).

96 We hypothesize that metastable disordered kutnahorite can serve as the critical kinetic

97 bridge for dolomite formation. If Mn^{2+} forms a precursor double carbonate structure analogous

98 to dolomite (Peacor et al., 1987) but with lower kinetic barriers, then the distorted lattice

99 structure of this precursory, intermediate phase may act as an epitaxial scaffold, lowering the

100 activation energy for subsequent Mg^{2+} incorporation into an isostructural lattice. We propose

101 that cyclic redox oscillations—specifically involving transient Mn(III) regeneration— can

102 drive the heterogeneous nucleation of dolomite on kutnahorite surfaces. To validate this

103 mechanism, we implemented a pH-stat synthesis coupled with electrochemical cycling in the

104 presence of carboxylated ligands (alginate). This experimental design mimics a carboxyl-rich

105 biofilm matrix subject to dynamic redox potentials, effectively reproducing the fluctuating

106 microenvironments characteristic of the natural settings where authigenic dolomite forms

107 (Petrash et al., 2015; McCormack 2018, 2024; Han et al., 2024). By identifying a kinetically

108 facile route wherein a kutnahorite template circumvents the kinetic barriers to dolomite

109 formation, this study provides a reproducible mechanism for further investigating non-

110 equilibrium double-carbonate formation and advances a predictive paragenetic framework for

111 evaluating dolomite abundance in deep time.

112 **2. Methods**

113 **2.1 Precipitation setup**

114 The experimental design comprises a H-cell electrochemical system (150 mL borosilicate glass

115 reaction vessels) connected to an automatic titrator (SI Analytics Titroline 7000). The

116 electrochemical system was filled with 125 mL of 80 mM $NaHCO_3$ electrolyte solution and it

117 cells were separated by an anion exchange membrane (Fumasep® FKE-50, Fumatech GmbH);

118 and were continuously stirred at 250 rpm via synchronized MIXDrive stirrers (2Mag). One cell

119 was open through a 0.2 μm cellulose acetate filter to maintain the dissolved inorganic carbon

120 of our electrolyte in equilibrium with the atmosphere at 25°C. The headspace of the other cell

121 was kept anoxic by a constant flow of argon, initiated 5 min before experiments. In the anoxic

122 cell, a graphite rod working electrode (WE, CP-2200, CP-Graphitprodukte GmbH) and an

123 Ag/AgCl reference electrode (sat. KCl, +197 mV *vs.* standard hydrogen electrode (SHE); RE-

124 1B, ALS Japan) were inserted. In the oxic cell, another graphite rod was used as the counter

125 electrode (CE). A schematic representation of the electrochemical system is shown in Figure

126 1.

127   To investigate the influence of carboxyl functionalization, to a set of experiments we added

128   to the electrolyte Na-alginate (300 mg·L^{-1}, Sigma-Aldrich)—a commercially available

129   compound composed exclusively of carboxyl functional groups. Alginate is key component of

130   EPS in microbial mats colonizing hypersaline, dolomite-forming settings (Petrash et al., 2011).

131   At the environmentally relevant pH range (i.e., >pKa) alginate is crosslinked by metal ions,

132   forming a hydrogel (Petrash et al., 2011). This property can render the resulting hydrogels

133   conductive (e.g., Ji et al., 2022).

134   To isolate the effects of organic functionalization and electrochemical modulation on

135   mineral formation, four experimental conditions were tested: **(E$_{00}$)** control, lacking both

136   functionalization and electrochemical modulation, served as the baseline for surface

137   precipitation; **(E$_{10}$)** carboxyl-functionalized without electrochemistry, this condition isolated

138   the effect of the carboxyl groups on mineral formation in the absence of an applied potential;

139   **(E$_{01}$)** a non-carboxyl-functionalized sample was subjected to electrochemical modulation to

140   assess the role of redox cycling in the absence of the biopolymer; **(E$_{11}$)** a carboxyl-

141   functionalized surface with an applied electrochemical treatment to evaluate potential

142   synergistic or antagonistic interactions. All conditions were conducted in duplicate.

143   **2.2 Electrochemical precipitation protocol**

144   During each experimental run, an initial pH value of 8.5 ± 0.1 in the anodic cell was raised to

145   9.1 units after additions of 100 to 200 μL of 0.5 M NaOH solution as pre-titrant. Following

146   pre-titration, a cation-rich feedstock (0.6 M (Ca,Mg)Cl$_2$; Mg:Ca = 6:1) was dosed into the

147   anodic chamber at a rate of 1 mL min^{-1} for 20 minutes (20 mL total); the final working volume

148   of the H-cell setup was 145 mL. The electrolyte pH was maintained at 9.2 ± 0.4 by

149   automatically dosing the titrant into the anodic cell (1.2 to 3.0 mL in total) using the automatic

150   titrator in pH-stat mode. when the value dropped below the experimental pH-envelope.

151   After the first 5 min of feedstock dosing (*ca*. 5 mL), a single addition of $MnCl_2$ stock

152   solution was added to the anodic cell to achieve a concentration of 10 mM Mn. At this

153   nucleation onset (t = 5 min), the system had reached estimated concentrations of Mg ≈ 21 mM

154   and Ca ≈ 3.6 mM. This established a far-from-equilibrium state—supersaturated with respect

155   to Mg-Ca phases but undersaturated for Mn-precursors (Table S1)—effectively isolating Mn-

156   nucleation to the electrode interface. As feedstock dosing continued to completion (t = 20 min),

157   the background concentrations rose to Mg ≈ 86 mM and Ca ≈ 14 mM, sustaining the high

158   thermodynamic driving force. Deionized water (18.2 MΩ·cm^{-1}) and analytical-grade reagents

159   were used to prepare all solutions. Concurrently with reactant dosing, oscillations in the redox

160   potential of the electrolyte were induced by using a Dropsens μStat 8000 multichannel

161   potentiostat (Metrohm, Spain) in cyclic voltammetry mode (CV) for 28 min. The electric

162   potential was continuously swept between -0.1 and 0.5 V at a scan rate of 2 mV s^{-1}. This

163   environmentally relevant Eh window (e.g., Jørgensen et al., 1979; Di Loreto et al., 2021) targets

164   the Mn(II)/Mn(III) couple, driving oxidative cycling at the periphery of the working electrode

165   (WE) without inducing water hydrolysis or insoluble Mn(IV) oxide precipitation. It aligns with

166   the nitrogenous and manganous zone where incomplete manganese cycling is

167   thermodynamically dominant (Canfield and Thamdrup, 2009). After titration, the electrolyte

168   solution in the anodic cell was left undisturbed for 24 h to permit stabilization of the surface

169   precipitates. Following this step, the WEs were retrieved, disassembled, and stored under

170   anoxic conditions until solid-phase characterization.

171   **2.3 Solution cation concentration determinations**

172   Samples were collected from the anodic chamber at three distinct experimental stages: **(S_i)**

173   immediately before the addition of 10 mM $MnCl_2$—when 5 mL of the $(CaMg)Cl_2$ reactant

174   (further referred here to as cation feedstock) had been added (i.e., $[Ca]_{added}$ = 3.6mM, $[Mg]_{added}$

175   = 21mM; Mn = 10 mM); **(S_{ii})** following the complete dosing of 20 mL of the cation feedstock

176   (i.e., [Ca]$_{added}$ = 14mM, [Mg]$_{added}$ = 86 mM, [Mn]$_{added}$ = 10mM); and (S$_{iii}$) after the 24 h

177   stabilization period. The working solutions were acidified with trace grade HNO$_3$ (67% v/v,

178   Sigma-Aldrich). The cations crosslinking alginate are recovered after acidification, and the

179   concentrations of Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, and Mn^{2+} relative to the total analyte added to the system are

180   determined using a triple quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS;

181   Agilent 8800). Precision was verified against certified standards, and the relative standard

182   deviation was <10% of the reported value for all measurements.

183   **2.4 Multiscale microscopy and nanoscale characterization**

184   Electron-transparent lamellae of surface precipitates were prepared for (scanning) transmission

185   electron microscopy ((S)TEM) using a Helios Nanolab G3 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) focused

186   ion beam scanning electron microscope (FIB-SEM) at the University of Utrecht. This

187   instrument was also employed to assess the micrometre-scale morphological features of the

188   precipitates. Sub-micron scale imaging of lamellae, with thicknesses ranging from 250 to 300

189   nm, was conducted in bright-field (BF) TEM, dark-field (DF) TEM-EDS, and high-angle

190   annular dark field (HAADF) STEM modes. These were performed using either a Thermo

191   Fisher Talos F200X coupled to a Super-X detection system, or a Spectra 300 instrument,

192   operated at accelerating voltages of 200 kV and 300 kV, respectively. Selected area electron

193   diffraction (SAED) and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) were further utilized in

194   multiple regions of interest to resolve crystallographic and compositional features of the

195   precipitates at the nanoscale. Dual-EELS datasets (core- and low-loss regimes) were acquired

196   using a CCD camera and DigiScan within the Gatan microscopy suite, with a dispersion of

197   0.15 eV/pixel and a convergence angle of 0 mrad. The low loss spectrum was used to align the

198   core region and evalute the thinknes so gfhe lamella. To estimate the manganese valence state,

199   we employed a combined approach: semi-quantitative background-subtracted white line

200   intensity ratios (L_3/L_2) and the deep-learning spectral decomposition framework MnEdgeNet

201 (Ji et al., 2023). For the latter, spectra were analyzed using the noise-free model to strictly

202 constrain oxidation states based on peak position and spectral shape. Additionally, energy-

203 dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) was employed to map the spatial distribution of Mn, Ca,

204 and Mg within sacrificial areas of the precipitates.

205 **3. Results**

206 **3.1 Response to titration and electrochemical treatments**

207 Titration data (Fig. 2) show that control samples (E_{00}) required maximal external neutralization

208 due to unbuffered proton release during precipitation. Conversely, potential sweeping alone

209 (E_{01}) reduced titrant demand via cathodic proton consumption (Eq. 1). Conversely, potential

210 sweeping alone (E_{01}) reduced titrant demand via cathodic proton consumption (Eq. 1). In E_{01},

211 proton-coupled electron transfer partially offsets the release associated with carbonate

212 precipitation, explaining the reduced external titrant demand observed in the electrochemical

213 condition.

$$Mn^{III}(OH)_{org} + e^- + H+ \rightarrow Mn^{II}_{org} + H_2O \tag{1}$$
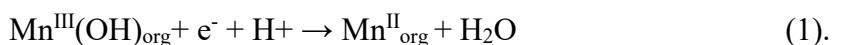
215 The carboxyl functionalization alone (E_{10}) provided intrinsic buffering capacity,

216 attributed to carboxyl groups (pKa ~3.5–4.5; e.g., Petrash et al., 2011). At the experimental

217 pH, the carboxyl-rich biopolymer forms a hydrogel upon deprotonation and in the presence of

218 cations. As carbonate mineral nucleates, it pulls CO_3^{2-} from the equilibrium, forcing the

219 deprotonation of HCO_3^-. This locally weakens the bond between metals, M, cross-linking the

220 hydrogel as the crystal growth front, releasing these metals back in solution right at the interface

221 of the growing mineral phase (2).

$$R\text{-}COO\text{-}M\text{-}OOC\text{-}R + H^+ \rightarrow R\text{-}COOH + M^{2+} + {}^-OOC\text{-}R \tag{2}$$

223 The combined system ($E11$) achieved maximal pH buffering capacity by synergizing

224 active cathodic reduction with passive hydrogel buffering. This dual mechanism effectively

225 mitigated the acidification front driven by rapid carbonate nucleation, resulting in minimal

226 titrant consumption during cation feedstock addition (Fig. 2)

227 **3.2 Mn redox features developed during electrochemical carbonate synthesis**

228 CV was used to investigate the electrochemical behavior of Mn in the system. In experiments

229 lacking Na-alginate, the graphite electrode showed negligible faradaic activity within the

230 potential window (-0.1 V to +0.5 V vs. SHE), displaying a non-faradaic capacitive current

231 profile (Fig. 3A). Upon the introduction of Na-alginate, distinct quasi-reversible redox

232 features emerged (Fig. 3B). Accordingly, an anodic peak attributed to the oxidation of Mn(II)

233 → Mn(III) was observed at approximately +0.35 to +0.45 V, with a corresponding cathodic

234 peak for the reduction reaction appearing at ca. +0.30 V during the reverse scan (Fig. 3B).

235 This quasi-reversibility indicates that carboxyl functionalization does not merely lower the

236 activation energy but enables the electrochemical reaction. By acting as inner-sphere ligands,

237 the carboxyl groups near the surface of WEs could facilitate electron transfer that is otherwise

238 kinetically inhibited at the bare graphite interface. Therefore, the presence of the return

239 (cathodic) peak confirms that the surface ligand field stabilizes the highly reactive Mn(III)

240 intermediate.

241 To also monitor the progression of the surface-mediated reaction in functionalized

242 experiments, we recorded the temporal evolution of the current response. The system exhibited

243 reproducible periodic current oscillations, where each 4'-cycle (corresponding to a full

244 potential sweep) featuring sharp anodic and cathodic spikes (Fig. 3C). The pattern confirms

245 the sustained cyclic oxidation and reduction of manganese bound to the carboxylated hydrogel

246 during the active synthesis stage. The signal intensity displayed a progressive attenuation over

247 time (Fig. 3C), indicating that the electroactive surface area was being systematically

248 passivated by deposition of carbonate on the surface of the electrode, leading to fouling and

249 decreased anodic and cathodic capacity.

3.3. Aqueous composition of the reactive solutions

3.3.1. Magnesium removal: kinetic enhancement

The bulk of Mg removal initiated after 5 doses of the cation feedstock and the single Mn addition. Therefore, S_i recorded [Mg] below certainty levels. By the end of the reactant dosing and titration stage (S_{ii}), between $8.7 \pm 1.1\%$ to $28.0 \pm 1.0\%$ Mg^{2+} has been removed from solution; an effect largerly enhanced by the electrochemical treatment (Fig 4A). Removal, however, remained incomplete even after the stabilization time lag (S_{iii}), with 66% to 87% of the total Mg^{2+} added to the system persisting in solution across the disparate conditions tested. Electrochemistry alone (E_{01}) achieved the highest removal rates, surpassing the control (E_{00}) by approximately 20%. Electrochemistry with functionalization (E_{11}) was also effective. However, the total amount of Mg co-precipitated in E_{11} was lower than in the functionalized-only condition (E_{10}). Subsequent removal during stabilization was sluggish, increasing by only 3% to 6% relative to the amount removed by the end of titration (Fig. 4A; Table 1).

3.3.2. Calcium removal: Calcium availability as a rate-limiting factor

Prior to the addition of Mn (S_i), approximately 40% of the total Ca had already been removed from the solution (Fig. 4B). This initial depletion is attributed to a quasi-instantaneous homogeneous nucleation of fine-grained suspended precipitate formed upon dosing the cation-rich feedstock into the electrolyte. Similar rapidly formed phases have been characterized as amorphous (e.g., Purgstaller et al., 2016). Considering Mg^{2+} removal trends via co-precipitation (Fig. 4A), and the extremely low Mg distribution coefficient between amorphous calcium carbonates (ACC) and the parental solution (Purgstaller et al., 2019), we deduce that the bulk of this solid residue was initially an ACC that actively rejected Mg^{2+} during exsolution. Consistent with this assertion, XRD analysis of the residual solids from experiment E_{11}

274 identifies them as aragonite associated with the hydrated Mg-carbonate dypingite (Fig. S1).

275 This assemblage directly reflects the bulk saturation state (SI_{Arag} = 2.41 and SI_{Hmag} = 5.01;

276 Table S1), while the kinetic inhibition of dolomite persists despite its high thermodynamic

277 potential ($SI_{Dol} \geq 5.54$). The result is consistent with solid-state transformation of the initial

278 ACC, which segregated into distinct Ca and hydrated-Mg phases upon aging and dehydration

279 at ambient temperature.

280   During the active synthesis stage (S_{ii}), Ca removal continued, reaching between 65–

281 84% across all experiments. Following stabilization (S_{iii}), most conditions exceeded 95%

282 removal, except for the functionalized, and electrochemically active experiment (E_{11}, ~75%),

283 where ligand complexation and interfacial electrochemical dynamics rendered it unavailable

284 for co-precipitation (Fig. 4B; Table 1).

285 *3.3.3. Manganese removal: Redox-driven sequestration*

286 Mn removal exhibited a distinct, redox-driven pattern compared to Mg. After 20 doses of the

287 Mg-Ca reactant (S_{ii}), removal of Mn varied across experimental conditions, and showed the

288 strongest kinetic response to electrochemical treatment. Accordingly, Mn removal ranged from

289 $10.2 \pm 7.2\%$ to $61.4 \pm 17.3\%$, with electrochemical sweeping without functionalization (E_{01})

290 yielding the highest scavenging efficiency, far exceeding both the only functionalized

291 experiment (E_{10}) and the control (E_{00}). Remarkably, after the 24 h equilibration (S_{iii}), Mn

292 depletion approached >99% in most conditions, indicating near-complete incorporation into

293 the solid phases. The significant exception occurred in E_{11} (electrochemical + functionalized),

294 where 25–38% of the total Mn remained in solution. This indicates that while the potential

295 sweep drives oxidation-reduction, some of the carboxyl ligands in E_{11} can stabilize a significant

296 fraction of the manganese available in the system (see Tordi et al., 2025), thus preventing the

297 almost complete sequestration observed in non-functionalized controls (Fig. 4C; Table 1).

3.4 Mineralogical and textural characterization of precipitates

Neither electrochemical cycling nor functionalization alone produced dolomite-composition-like phases. Controls (E_{00}) yielded only minimal, sparse Mn-rich precipitates on the WE (Fig. 5A). Functionalization without electrochemistry (E_{10}) increased precipitate density, forming manganous Mg-Ca carbonate spheroids (Fig. 5B–C). TEM in various modes (Fig 5D-F) showed that the crystallites comprising these fabrics grow outward from central nucleation points, forming spherulitic structures with radially arranged crystallites.

Electrochemical cycling without functionalization (E01) yielded disperse aggregates resulting from the rapid coalescence of multiple nanocrystalline domains. In these experiments, a Mg-carbonate phase forming rosettes was observed (Fig. 6A). The delicate texture—likely a hydrous phase—was unstable under the ion beam and could not be recovered during FIB-lamella preparation (Fig. 6B). STEM-HAADF imaging reveals that the recovered aggregates exhibited significant internal porosity ("vuggy"), consistent with self-assembly during growth (Fig. 6C). Chemically, these aggregates display a magnesian-calcian rhodochrosite composition. It displays distinct zoning indicated by Z-contrast gradients portraying denser Mn-enriched domains transitioning into Ca-enriched inner domains, and with Mg homogenously distributed along the spheroids (Fig. 6C–E). SAED ring assignments generated a d_{104} spacing of ~2.84 Å, alongside d_{113} (2.39 Å) and d_{110} (2.16 Å) reflections (Fig. 6F).

Condition E_{11} yielded dense carbonate coatings consisting of 1–3 µm polycrystalline spheroidal aggregates (Fig. 7A–C). Internally, these aggregates are defined by the coalescence of smaller (200–600 nm) spheroids with Mn-enriched, thread-like cores and variably Mg-enriched cortices (Fig. 7C–D). TEM-EDS confirms preferential Mn partitioning in the cores, with oscillatory zoning likely induced by potential swapping (Fig. 7E). To resolve the potential for solid solution extending to the dolomite-kutnohorite series (*cf.* Peacor et al., 1987), we plotted these EDS data on a ternary Ca-Mg-Mn diagram (Fig. 7H). The data reveal a continuous

323 kinetic trajectory where metastable magnesian-calcian rhodochrosite, formed in the cores,

324 transition into manganoan protodolomite cortices. Notably, these intermediate compositions

325 plot directly within the thermodynamic miscibility gap defined by Peacor et al. (1987),

326 indicating that rapid kinetic growth stabilized a continuous solid solution that reflects

327 disequilibrium crystallization. In contrast, the E_{01} as magnesian- rhodochrosite products cluster

328 distinctly at the magnesite- calcian rhodochrosite solvus (Fig. 7H); the E_{01} phase is presumably

329 stable.

330 Structurally, HRTEM reveals that our two-phase manganoan carbonate spheroids

331 posses a mosaic texture composed of nanodomains separated by broad, diffuse low-angle

332 boundaries (Fig. 7F). FFT analysis (Fig. S3) confirms slight crystallographic misorientations

333 (3–11°) between these regions. Diffraction rings in the SAED patterns (Fig. 7G) confirm that

334 E_{11} yielded a polycrystalline, randomly oriented precipitate. The measured interplanar

335 distances of the cores are consistent with disordered kutnahorite, while the cortices exhibit

336 reflections consistent with a disordered dolomite with near-stoichiometric cation ratio (i.e., Ca

337 : (Mg + Mn) = 1) as per d_{104} ca. 2.88 Å. Other reflections that can confidently assigned are d_{101}

338 (4.029 Å), d_{110} (2.404 Å), d_{113} (2.191 Å), and d_{116} (1.786 Å). The characteristic b-type

339 superstructure reflections (e.g., d_{015}, d_{021}, etc), which signify cation ordering, were unresolved.

340 **3.5 EELS of the cortical precipitates**

341 The results from EELS targeting the synthetic products from E_{11} are shown in Figure 8A-D.

342 The carbon K-edge spectra are characterized by sharp pre-edge peaks at 290.4 eV and broader

343 features at 300.9 eV, corresponding to the π^* and σ^* resonances of the C=O bond, respectively.

344 These transitions combined with corresponding O K-edges at ~531 eV, uniquely identify the

345 matrix as carbonate (Fig. 8A-B). The Ca $L_{3,2}$-edge (Fig. 8C) shows well-resolved spin-orbit

346 splitting (L_3 at 349 eV), confirming the integration of Ca into a crystal lattice. Most

347 significantly, the spectra capture characteristic Mn $L_{3,2}$-edge features in the 640 to 650 eV range

348 (Fig. 8D). Mn $L_{2,3}$ edge spectra ($N = 4$) from the core of a representative spheroid were analyzed

349 using the deep-learning framework MnEdgeNet (Ji et al., 2023). The Supplementary Material

350 (Fig. S4) contains the MnEdgeNet modelling results. The combined data exhibit L_3/L_2 white

351 line intensity ratio ≈ 2.88 with an L_3 absorption maximum located at 639.5–640.0 eV. The

352 applied MnPredictor decomposition was the 'noise-free' model, which prioritizes peak position

353 fidelity and spectral shape. It returned to an average oxidation state (AOS) of +2.03, indicating

354 $\geq 98.6\%$ Mn(II) (Fig. 8D). This predominantly divalent state is physically confirmed by the

355 deep spectral valley between the L_3 and L_2 edges (arrow in Fig. 8D), which reaches baseline

356 intensity.

4. Discussion

358 We presented an electrochemical pathway that circumvents the kinetic barriers inhibiting the

359 incorporation of the Mg^{2+} ion by leveraging the redox chemistry of Mn on a functionalized

360 surface of graphite WEs. The enhanced Mn removal rates (61%) under potential cycling,

361 compared to non-electrochemical controls, confirm that applied potential acts as the primary

362 driver for precursory double-cation carbonate formation (i.e., disordered magnesian

363 kutnahorite and manganoan protodolomite). This low-temperature synthesis results establish a

364 mechanistic link between manganese redox cycling (Petrash et al, 2015), organic

365 functionalization and ionic lattice distort (Han et al., 2024), the low-temperature nucleation of

366 manganoan dolomite, and the increasingly recognized role of electron transfer mechanisms in

367 marine sediments (Nielsen et al., 2010). Aqueous analysis confirms that a kinetic control is

368 governed by the synergy between the metal cations and the carboxy ligand near the reactive

369 (electroactive) surface. Cyclic voltammetry demonstrates that carboxyl functionalization

370 modulates the electrochemical behavior of manganese, facilitating quasi-reversible Mn(II)

371 $\leftrightarrow$Mn(III) valence state transitions that are otherwise kinetically inhibited at the WE interface.

372 Our central finding is the formation of compositionally zoned spheroids, which feature Ca-Mn-

373 enriched cores and Mg-enriched cortices. In the absence of carboxyl, the observation of vuggy

374 textures, characterized by irregular open voids within the aggregates suggests a rapid

375 coalescence mechanism. The discussion below expands on observations, their interpretations

376 and implications.

4.1 The Mn-templating mechanism

378 Morphological and nanostructural characterization reveals that low-temperature nucleation

379 proceeds via a heterogeneous, core-cortex pathway. In the solid-phase products of E_{11},

380 STEM-HAADF imaging, SAED, EDS mapping identify a Mn-rich core with minor Mg.

381 These serve as templates for the subsequent growth of a magnesium-enriched cortciesx—a

382 phase separation significantly promoted by carboxyl functionalization. In control experiments

383 lacking carboxyl groups, kutnahorite crystallites formed by a rapid coalescence mechanism

384 where individual nucleation centers merged to form spheroids, trapping fluid pockets during

385 growth, but lacking the marked phase transition observed in the functionalized system. The

386 E_{11} spheroidal cores are seen as analogous to "pseudo-kutnahorite" (Mucci, 1988), while the

387 EDS and SAED features of the cortices are consistent with a manganoan (proto)dolomite

388 precursor.

389 However, regarding SAED, it is worth noticing that the apparent absence of ordering

390 reflections may be a methodological artifact rather than intrinsic disorder. Relative thickness

391 mapping ($t(\lambda)^{-1}$) derived from the low-loss EELS spectrum reveals that the dolomitic cortices

392 correspond to the thinner regions of the lamellae yet these exhibit local $t(\lambda)^{-1}$ values ranging

393 from 0.86 to 0.88 (Fig. S5). In this regime, approximately 59-64% of the incident electrons

394 undergo inelastic scattering (Egerton, 2011). This substantial background contribution,

395 combined with the polycrystalline nature of our synthetic products, likely lowers the signal-

396 to-noise ratio sufficiently to obscure weak superlattice reflections possibly associated with

397 incipient cation ordering. Consequently, while the current SAED data are consistent with a

398   disordered precursor, the sample thickness was not optimal for definitively resolving any

399   faint b-type reflections characteristic of substantial Ca occupancy in the B site. Attenuation of

400   *b*-type reflections may also be from manganese occupying a substantial portion of the

401   magnesium sites within this disordered lattice structure (Goldschmidt and Graf, 1960).

402   Although kutnahorite (the isostructural analogue to dolomite) is metastable at near-

403   surface temperatures (Peacor et al., 1987; Mucci, 1991, 2004; Böttcher and Dietzel, 2010),

404   our results show that formation of this metastable phase is kinetically favoured over dolomite

405   under functionalized conditions. While thermodynamics alone dictates that dolomite is the

406   more stable phase ($\Delta G^o f_{dol} < \Delta G^o f_{kutn}$; Rosenberg and Foit, 1979), kinetic factors—

407   specifically those underlying the empirical Ostwald step rule, influence reaction pathway.

408   Despite the bulk electrolyte being undersaturated with respect to kutnahorite (SI = -2.57;

409   Table S1), the out-of-equilibrium experiments implemented here indicate that this precursor

410   presents a significantly lower activation energy barrier to nucleation than oversaturated

411   dolomite) (SI =5.54) . This advantage is probably rooted in coordination chemistry as Mn^{2+}

412   has a lower magnitude of dehydration enthalpy compared to Mg^{2+} (-1851 *vs*. -1926 kJ mol^{-1};

413   Marcus, 1987), and its water exchange rate is nearly two orders of magnitude faster (2.1 10^7

414   s^{-1} *vs*. 6.7 10^5 s^{-1}; Helm & Merbach, 2005). This allows Mn^{2+} ions to desolvate and occupy

415   the carbonate lattice rapidly, effectively bypassing the barrier that stalls Mg incorporation.

416   Other factors may also be at play. Pimentel et al. (2022) proposed that the high lattice

417   strain inherent to dolomite (determined by its cationic mismatch ratio, $R_{Ca}/R_{Mg} \sim 1.38$) may

418   contribute substantially to the energetic barrier inhibiting its formation at low temperature. In

419   contrast, within the octahedral geometry, Mn^{2+} possesses an effective ionic radius ~15%

420   larger than that of Mg^{2+} (0.83 Å *vs*. 0.72 Å; Shannon, 1976). This yields a significantly lower

421   mismatch ratio for kutnahorite ($R_{Ca}/R_{Mn} \sim 1.20$) and places the latter phase within a

422   (meta)stability window where lattice strain is sufficiently low to avoid the kinetic penalties

423 that prevent dolomite nucleation/growth. However, lattice-ordering in multicomponent

424 phases is governed by factors beyond simple cation radii (Jakob et al., 2025). In our system,

425 cation-partitioning can also be critical. Mucci (1988) and Böttcher (1998) demonstrated that

426 the Mg distribution coefficient (D_{Mg}) is notably higher in Mn-bearing environments. As the

427 [Mg]/([Mn]+[Ca]) ratio progressively rises during precipitation, D_{Mg} increases, facilitating the

428 incorporation of Mg^{2+} into the Mn-expanded lattice of the kutnahoritic precursor. Being

429 manganoan, this phase—exhibiting a small lattice mismatch (<1.5%; a_{Kut} = 4.8732(8) Å, a_{Dol}

430 = 4.8012(1) Å), has some degree of structural distortion (Rosenberg and Foit, 1979).

431   HRTEM imaging reveals a mosaic nanostructure interpreted as local heterogeneities

432 in stoichiometry and cation ordering, separated by broad and diffused low-angle boundaries

433 (Fig. 7G). In double-cation carbonates, such variations force the coexistence of regions with

434 disparate unit cell parameters (Fang and Xu, 2019). The misorientations act as strain-

435 minimization structures and formed as the crystal progresses towards near-Mg-Ca

436 stoichiometry and thermodynamic equilibrium (Van Tendeloo et al., 1985). Within the (122)

437 domain, lattice non-linearity—manifested as bending and dislocations—indicates internal

438 compositional modulation, serving as the direct reciprocal-space signature of the lattice

439 relaxation required to relieve the multi-cation driven strain. The mechanism may also

440 circumvent the "step-pinning" barrier (Higgins and Hu, 2005) by stabilizing the strained

441 surface, thereby preventing the rapid monolayer dissolution inherent to slow Mg-dehydration.

442 **4.2 A synergy of carboxylates and redox potential oscillations**

443 The nucleation mechanism is governed by a strict synergy between organic functionalization

444 and the applied electrochemical potential sweep. In our view, this mimics the mechanisms

445 active at the reactive surface of sedimentary Mn-bearing phases that can be trapped within

446 microbial mats in modern chemically stratified dolomite-precipitating systems (e.g., Petrash

447 et al., 2015). The alginate hydrogel acts not merely as a passive cation-binding medium, but

448 as an active structural agent that alters crystallization kinetics, driving the distinct

449 morphological and mineralogical outcomes (Braissant et al. 2003; Mercedes-Martín et al.

450 2016).

4.2.1. Morphological divergence and chemical zoning

452 The interplay between the polymer matrix and the electric field dictates the growth habit. In

453 the passive functionalized condition (E_{10}), precipitation follows a radial, isotropic pathway.

454 Here, despite the presence of the biopolymer, nucleation propagates randomly from the initial

455 seed. As described by Gránásy et al. (2005), such 'disorder disrupts the crystalline anisotropy

456 early in the growth process', leading to rapid spherical symmetrization.

457 In contrast, the synergy of carboxyl functionalization and electrochemistry in E_{11}

458 shifts the system toward the Category 2 growth mode of Gránásy et al. (2005). In this

459 experiment, the polarized alginate chains may establish a directional electric field along the

460 hydrogel, inducing an initial fibrillar habit by stabilizing metal ions. The cyclic redox

461 changes modify the free-energy landscape (De Yoreo et al., 2015), creating conditions where

462 kinetic barriers favour low-angle, non-crystallographic branching over coherent lattice

463 extension. Consequently, the initial fibers splay into crystal sheaves rather than coalescing

464 isotropically, forming the 'eye-like' spherulitic aggregates. High-resolution imaging confirms

465 that a dense, nanogranular fabric—consistent with non-classical particle attachment—serves

466 as the initial nucleation anchor for these diverging sheaves (Fig. 5).

467 The distinct core-shell zoning observed in E11 reflects transport-controlled

468 partitioning in a diffusion-limited regime (Prieto et al., 1997). While data plotting within the

469 thermodynamic miscibility gap (Fig. 7H) must be interpreted with caution due to the potential

470 for analytical averaging of sub-micron phases, the coherent, continuous trajectory from Mn-

471 rich cores to Mg-rich rims suggests a primary geochemical signal. This trend implies rapid,

472   metastable precipitation driven by progressive pore-fluid Mn depletion, where kinetic growth

473   rates outpaced thermodynamic re-equilibration, forcing the precipitating carbonate solid

474   solution to continuously bridge the miscibility gap.

4.2.2. The electrochemical "engine": ligand tethering and cation pumping

476   At the molecular level, specific orbital interactions drive this engine. According to frontier

477   molecular orbital theory, the reoxidation of aqueous Mn(II) requires the displacement of

478   water by anionic ligands to proceed via an inner-sphere mechanism (Luther, 2005). The

479   alginate carboxyl groups fulfill this requirement, facilitating electron transfer to the

480   electroactive Mn-reactant (Fig. 9A). As the local activity of Mn is progressively depleted,

481   these same ligands transition to binding the increasingly abundant Mg^{2+} ions (Fig. 9B). This

482   transition relies on the pre-existing Mn-rich substrate; rooted in ionic radius compatibility and

483   enhanced Mg-partitioning (Mucci, 1988; Böttcher, 1998), the initial kutnohoritic core acts as

484   a lattice bridge, lowering the interfacial energy barrier for Mg-carbonate epitaxy.

485   Critically, the system utilizes proton-coupled redox cycling to actively mobilize

486   reactants from the surficial hydrogel. This mechanism is fueled by localized interfacial

487   acidification arising from two synergistic sources: (i) carbonate precipitation, and (ii) the

488   stoichiometric proton release coupled to the anodic oxidation of Mn(II) (Fig. 3B). Estimates

489   using a steady-state Nernst approximation suggest this anodic flux induces a local

490   acidification ($\Delta pH \sim$ -0.5 to -1.2 units) within the diffusion boundary layer at the WE surface

491   (see Supplementary Note S1 in the Supplement). This transiently protonates the carboxyl

492   ligands (pKa ~4), triggering the "depinning" of cross-linked cations—Mg^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, and Ca^{2+};

493   for co-incorporation into growing cortices (Fig. 9B). Transient accumulation of H^+ near the

494   reactive (electroactive) surface may create oscillating saturation states required to feed non-

495   classical cluster coalescence (De Yoreo et al., 2015) and generate oscillatory cortical zoning

496   (e.g., Katsikopoulos et al., 2009) that we ascribe to disequilibrium processes.

497   Finally, carboxyl functionalization alters the thermodynamic fate of the intermediate

498   Mn species. As delineated by the Eh-pH stability fields (Fig. S6), the applied potential sweep

499   (-0.1 to +0.4 V) and pH_{surf} variability (±1.2 units) initiates at the solubility 'tipping point' of

500   hausmannite (Mn_3O_4) and manganite (MnOOH) (Stumm & Morgan, 1996, Faust & Ally,

501   1998). In a purely inorganic system, this trajectory triggers rapid Mn(III) disproportionation

502   and irreversible reactant loss (Luther, 2005). However, as evidenced by cyclic voltammetry,

503   the ligand-free interface (E_{01}) is kinetically inhibited, showing negligible faradaic activity.

504   Substantial Mn removal observed in this experiment (61%, Table 1) thus act as a control for

505   readily occurring, non-mediated carbonate precipitation consuming reactant cations. In stark

506   contrast, functionalization in E_{11} enables the quasi-reversible (electrochemical) regeneration

507   of Mn(III) in the system (Fig. 3), isolating a fraction of it from precipitation. This

508   paradoxically results in lower net Mn removal (29%, Table 1), confirming that the carboxyl

509   ligand field induces kinetic stabilization of Mn(III) in the hydrogel and progressive Mn(II)

510   incorporation in carbonate. The ligands allow the electrode to reductively cycle Mn(III) and

511   sustain the redox pump (Fig. 9A-B), avoiding the irreversible loss observed in E_{01}. Thus, the

512   organic matrix transforms the system from a passive chemical sink into an active

513   electrochemical engine (Eq. 3):

514    $$[\text{R-COO-Mn}^{III}(\text{OH})] + e^- + H^+ \rightarrow [\text{R-COO-Mn}^{II}] + H_2O \qquad (3)$$
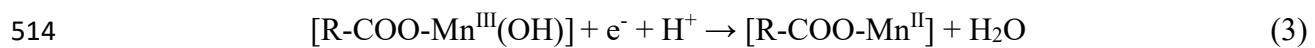
515   **4.3. Broader geo(bio)logical implications**

516   *4.3.1. Resolving the synsedimentary deep time dolomite paradox*

517   In this section we interpret Mn-rich bands typically seen in dolomite crystals as a persistent

518   chemo-textural fingerprint of Mn-catalysis. Lithostratigraphic and sedimentological metadata

519   on the dolostone deposits considered in this section are listed in Supplementary Note S2. The

520   interpretation presented here considers the punctuated massive co-occurrence of Precambrian

521 (Shang, 2023) and Phanerozoic dolostones (Li et al., 2022) in light of sedimentary manganese

522 depositional pulses (Spinks et al., 2022, Robbins et al., 2023; Fig. 10A).

523   The "Mn pump" conspicuously operated during the Paleoproterozoic (~2.3–2.05 Ga),

524 linking kutnohorite formation with dolomite (e.g., Nyame, 2008; Préat et al., 2011; Nzamba

525 et al., 2026). By Mesoproterozoic dolomite exhibit a relative abundance peak. Relevant

526 Calymmian-Ectasian (1.6-1.2 Ga) dolomite accumulations occurred in the McArthur Basin,

527 which hosts massive fabric-retentive members with well-preserved early eukaryote cells and

528 their Mn-mineralized sheaths (Muir 1976, 1983)—supporting Mn-catalysis as a preservation

529 agent in ancient dolostone deposits (Bontognali, 2019). By this Period, newly quantified

530 sedimentary Mn ores challenge the concept of a complete mechanistic hiatus in Mn

531 deposition (Spinks et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2025), which would otherwise invalidate the

532 coupling proposed here. The mechanisms require redox-stratified water columns episodically

533 fed by Mn(II) of hydrothermal origin (Johnson et al., 2016; Robbins et al., 2023) —

534 conditions that were likely disrupted by Mesoproterozoic tectonic stability and expanding

535 euxinia (Poulton et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2014), leading to important local minima (Fig.

536 10A).

537   The dynamic re-emerged in the Neoproterozoic. High terrigenous Mn fluxes and

538 benthic microbial activity during the Tonian (Liang et al., 2025) and Cryogenian–Ediacaran

539 interglacials (Fig.10A–B) fully re-established conditions for syndiagenetic, fabric retentive

540 dolomite formation (Hood et al., 2011; Stacey et al., 2023). These factors, amplified by

541 weathering fluxes and widespread coastal (i.e., microbial) paleoproductivity (Le Hir et al.,

542 2008; Cai et al., 2023; Fang and Xu, 2022), may explain the distinctive chemo-textural

543 features of globally distributed Ediacaran shallow-marine carbonate deposits (Hood et al.,

544 2011, 2012; Wood et al., 2018; Chang et al., 2020; Stacey et al., 2023, ; Wilcots et al., 2025;

545 Ren, 2025).

546   *4.3.2. Phanerozoic decoupling and restriction to continental basins*

547   As the Earth system transitioned toward a fully oxygenated state (Fig. 10B), Phanerozoic

548   deep-ocean ventilation generally disrupted the shallow-water 'Mn-pump' (Davies & Morgan,

549   1989; Chen et al., 2023; Spinks et al., 2022; Robbins et al., 2023) . Consequently, the global

550   correlation between dolomite and Mn-deposits faded (Fig. 10A) as Precambrian Mn-

551   carbonates progressively gave way to oxidized phases (Roy, 2006; Maynard, 2010; Johnson

552   et al., 2016). However, this long-term decoupling was punctuated during Paleozoic and

553   Mesozoic ocean anoxia (Zhang et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2022). In these intervals, transient

554   redox stratification (Fig. 10B; Li et al., 2021) likely reactivated the oxidative Mn-cycling

555   required for episodic Mn(II)-carbonate development (Robbins et al. 2023). Future systematic

556   analysis of redox proxies in dolostone (e.g., Zhang et al., 2020) may further substantiate this

557   oceanographic-stratigraphic coupling. Finally, by the Cenozoic, Mn-oxides became

558   dominant, reflecting high global oxidation potentials; yet the templating mechanism persisted

559   in non-marine 'refuges' mimicking Precambrian Mn–N redox dynamics (Petrash et al., 2025).

560   Our model provides a mechanistic basis for observations in the Eger Rift paleolake, Lake

561   Van (McCormack et al., 2018; McCormack et al., 2023), and post-Pliocene sabkha deposits

562   (Chafetz et al., 1999; Di Loreto et al., 2021).

563   **5**. **Conclusions**

564   We demonstrate that coupling manganese redox cycling with carboxyl functionalization

565   unlocks a kinetically facile pathway for the low-temperature formation of dolomite-group

566   minerals. Our results show that electrochemical modulation accelerates Mn sequestration by

567   over 60% compared to passive controls, generating a disordered (pseudo-)kutnahorite

568   template that circumvents the high activation energy of Mg^{2+} dehydration. This templating

569   mechanism enables the epitaxial growth of disordered dolomite in <24 h—a process that

570   otherwise requires longer synthesis. By proposing and empirically testing a specific non-

571   equilibrium mechanism this work advances a predictive paragenetic framework that can be

572   applied to evaluate the stratigraphic abundance of ancient syndiagenetic dolomite. In this

573   regard, we demonstrated how this mechanism may be instrumental in resolving the deep-time

574   paradox of widespread Neoproterozoic and Paleoproterozoic fabric-retentive dolomite, as

575   well as explaining the decline and eventual (punctuated) dolostone abundance throughout the

576   Phanerozoic rock record.

577   **6. Future work**

578   Moving forward, differentiating this electrochemical signal from burial diagenesis requires

579   robust petrography, reliable geochemical fingerprinting and refined nanoscale

580   characterization. A significant technical hurdle remains the preparation of optimal FIB

581   lamellae from these inherently friable, polycrystalline aggregates. While single-crystal

582   diffraction would theoretically provide the definitive resolution for cation ordering, the

583   pervasive polycrystalline nature of the spheroid precluded the isolation of discrete, defect-

584   free domains large enough for standard tilt-series analysis. Consequently, future work must

585   focus on optimizing ion polishing protocols—potentially identifying rare single-crystal

586   domains—to achieve the ideal electron transparency ($(\lambda)^{-1} < 0.5$) required to resolve whether

587   faint superlattice reflections are present. Simultaneously, future research should prioritize

588   constraining specific isotopic fractionation factors (e.g., $\delta^{26}Mg$, $\delta^{13}C$-$\delta^{18}O$, Δ_{47}-Δ_{48} REE

589   systematics) associated with this pathway, and with extended synthesis until electrode

590   passivation. To achieve this, experimental redesign can transition from closed-system batch

591   reactors to continuous-flow 'chemostat' setups under controlled $p\mathrm{CO}_2$ atmospheres.

592   Reengineering of this setup may allocate future work to systematically target the saturation

593   states characteristic of ancient 'greenhouse' intervals. By maintaining constant reactant

594   activities (e.g., via external DIC buffering), reengineered pH-stat electrochemical

595   precipitation apparatus must mitigate cation depletion artifacts imposed by instantaneous

596 homogeneous precipitation of ACC, enabling the precise determination of equilibrium

597 distribution coefficients (K_D) that would otherwise remain elusive in drift-dominated low

598 temperature dolomite precipitation environments.

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FIGURES
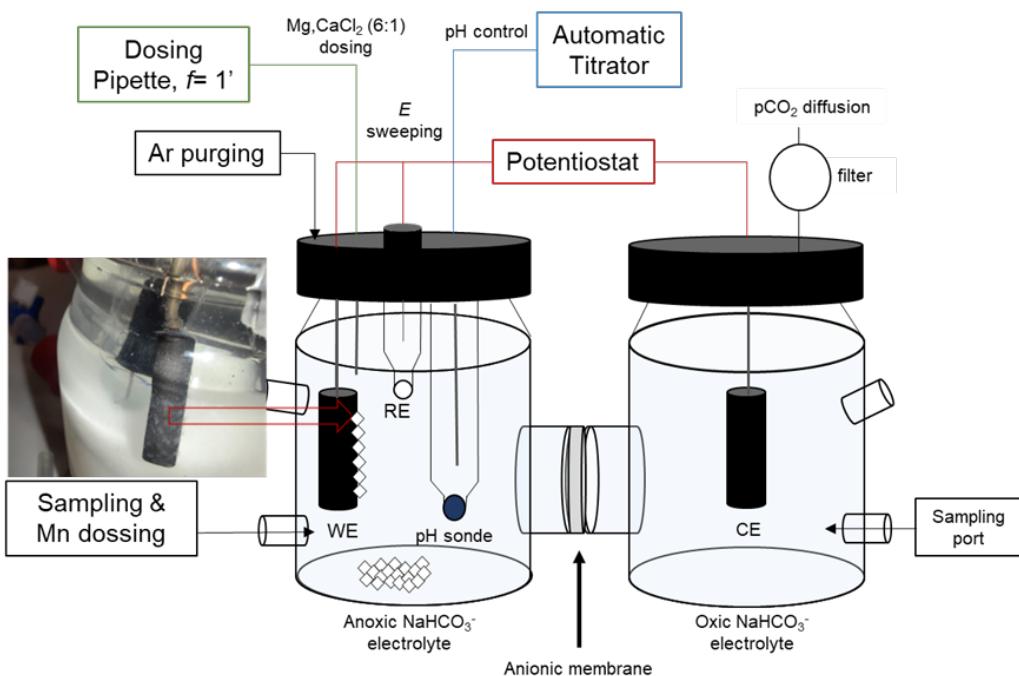
904 **Figure 1. Schematic of the two-cell electrochemical precipitation apparatus**. Two
905 150 mL borosilicate glass reaction vessels were connected via an anodic membrane. System
906 hydrochemistry was controlled using an automatic pH-stat titrator and a potentiostat applying
907 continuous potential sweeps. One cell, containing the working electrode (WE) and reference
908 electrode (RE), was maintained under an Ar atmosphere, while the other, housing the counter
909 electrode (CE), remained in equilibrium with air. Both WE and CE had surface areas of 4.2
910 cm^2. The electrolyte consisted of $NaHCO_3$ solution. Following pre-titration (see test for
911 details), the cation feedstock was introduced at 1' intervals using a dosing pipette (n=20); a
912 single $MnCl_2$ dose was at t ~ 5'. The inset shows WE and surface precipitates, with residual
913 precipitates formed quasi-instantaneously in solution upon reactant additions. Attention of
914 this study is placed on the surface precipitates.

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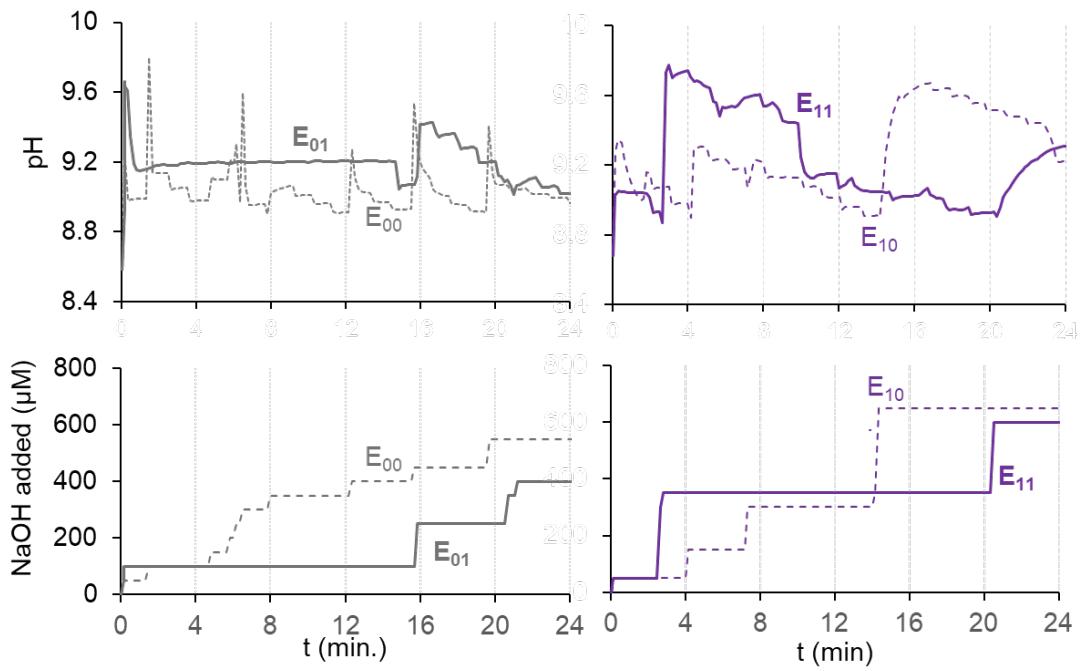
Figure 2. Experimental pH and NaOH additions during carbonate synthesis under four conditions: control (E_{00}), electrochemistry only (E_{01}), functionalized only (E_{10}), and combined (E_{11}). Electrochemistry and functionalization reduced titrant demand, enhancing buffering.
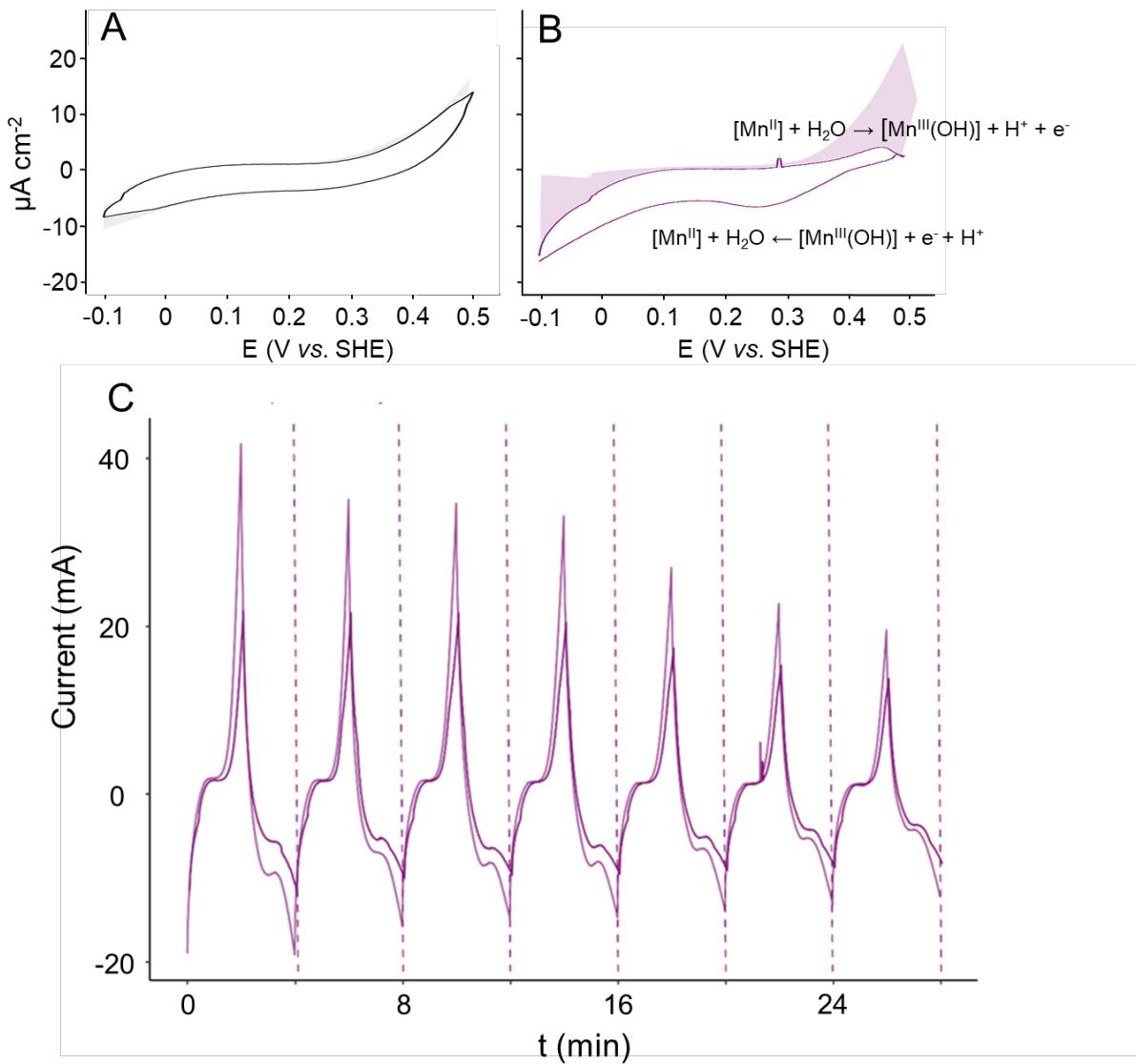
Figure 3. Electrochemical characterization of the Mn-functionalized system. Cyclic voltammograms (CV) recorded in carbonate-buffered electrolyte (E: [-0.1 to +0.5] V vs. SHE). (A) Control without functionalization exhibits a featureless profile characteristic of non-faradaic capacitive charging. (B) Carboxyl-functionalized hydrogel displays distinct quasi-reversible peaks, confirming active Mn redox cycling. Annotated equations detail the proposed proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) mechanism: anodic oxidation coupled to hydrolysis (proton release) and cathodic reduction coupled to proton consumption. Solid lines denote average current density (j); shaded areas indicate standard deviation. (C) Temporal evolution of the current response (I) over 28 minutes in the functionalized system (E_{11}). Sharp peaks align with the 4-minute potential sweep periodicity (dashed lines). The progressive attenuation of peak intensity indicates gradual electrode passivation, consistent with the formation of non-conductive carbonate precipitate.
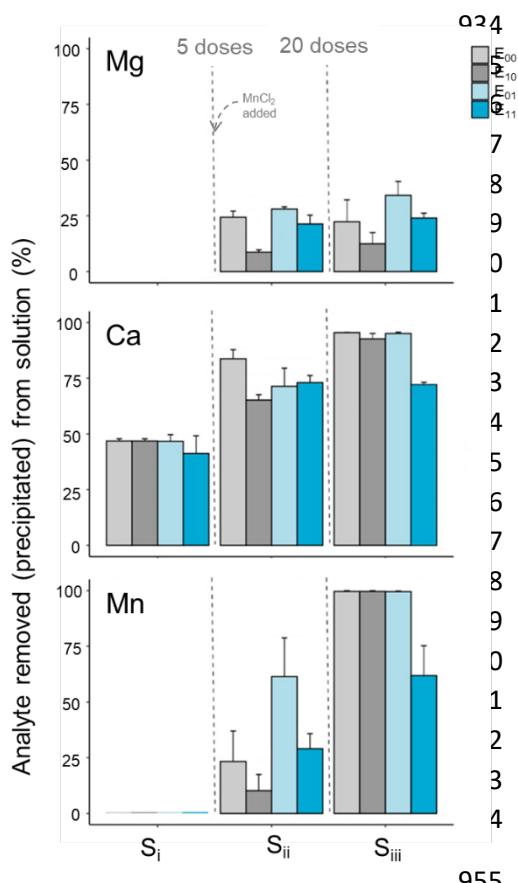
Figure 4. Percentage of Mg, Ca, and Mn removed (precipitated) from solution under four experimental conditions: without carboxyl groups (light grey), with carboxyl groups (dark grey), and their respective counterparts with electrochemical potential sweeping (light and dark blue). Samples were collected at three time points. These are S_i: 5' after start, with 5 doses of 1 mL $(Ca,Mg)Cl_2$ solution added to the system, and before the 10 mM $MnCl_2$ addition; S_{ii}: after 20', i.e., 20 doses of 1 mL of $(Ca,Mg)Cl_2$ solution; and S_{iii}: after the 24 h stabilization time lag. Consumption was calculated as the percentage difference between measured concentrations and maximum expected concentrations, i.e. @5' $\{[Mg]_{max}= 21$ mM, $[Ca]_{max}= 3.6$ mM, $[Mn]_{max}= 0.0$ mM$\}$; @20' and 24 h:$\{[Mg]_{max}= 86$ mM, $[Ca]_{max}= 14$ mM, $[Mn]_{max}= 10$ mM$\}$. Bars represent mean duplicate values, and whiskers indicate standard deviation based on duplicate experiments.
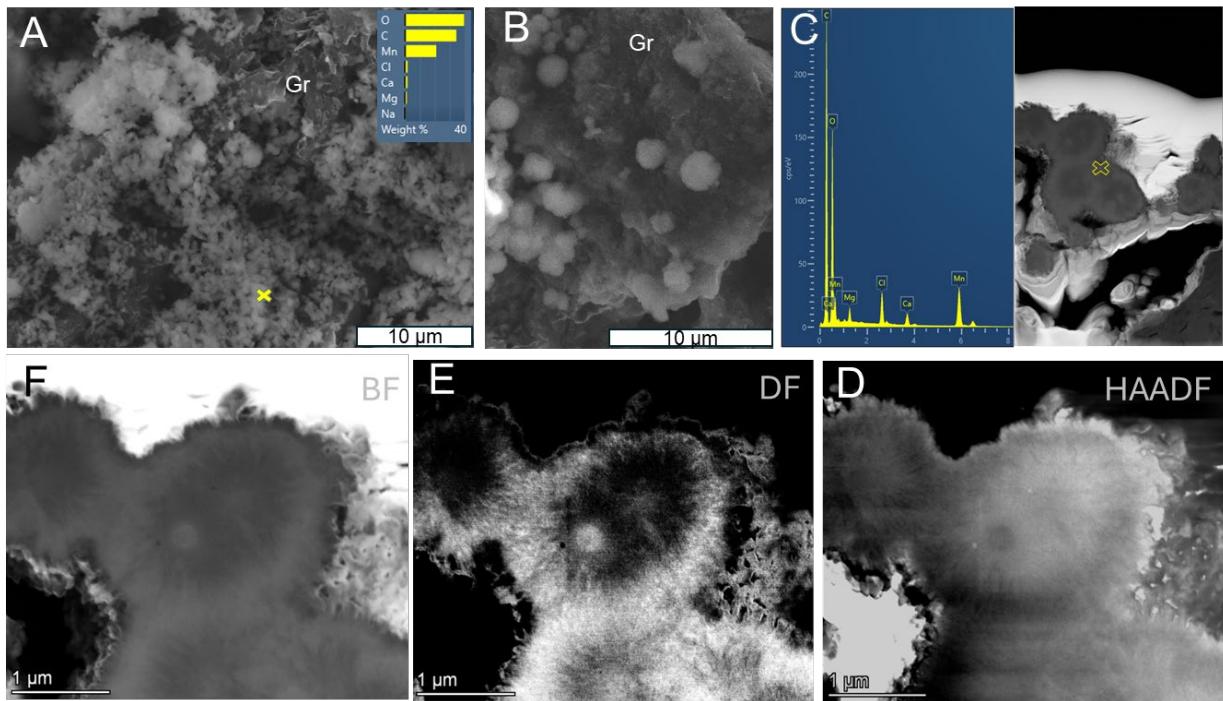
Figure 5. Solid phase characterization of carbonate precipitates in Control (E$_{00}$) vs. Functionalized (E$_{10}$) conditions. (A) SEM-EDS characterization of the control sample (E$_{00}$), where the absence of functionalization and cycling resulted in sparse, Mn-dominated precipitates (Mn >> Ca + Mg) with minimal surface accumulation. (B) SEM image of sample E$_{10}$ (functionalization without electrochemical cycling), showing increased precipitate density and the formation of coherent carbonate spheroids on the graphite (Gr) substrate. (C) EDS spectrum of an E$_{10}$ spheroid, confirming the phase as a manganous Mg-Ca carbonate. (D–F) Cross-sectional TEM analysis (HAADF, Dark Field, and Bright Field) of the E$_{10}$ spheroids, revealing a spherulitic internal fabric composed of crystallites radiating outward from central nucleation centers.
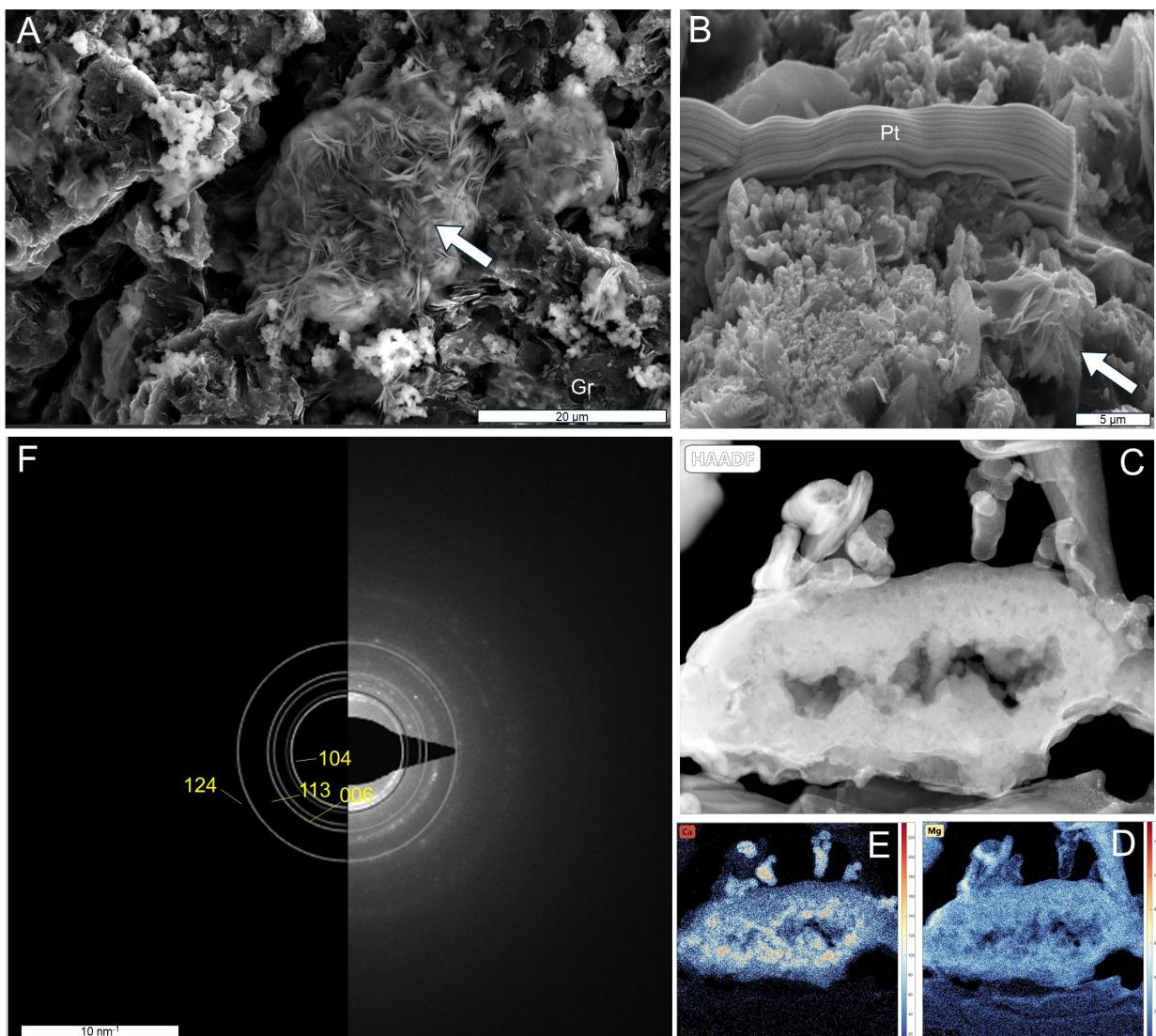
Figure 6. Morphology and structure of precipitates formed under electrochemical cycling without functionalization (E_{01}). (A) SEM of the electrode surface showing prominent rosette-like structures (arrow) intermixed with disperse, granular polycrystalline aggregates (B) FIB-milling site; the delicate rosettes (arrow) were unstable under the ion beam, leaving only the granular aggregates for analysis (C) STEM-HAADF cross-section revealing a porous, "vuggy" texture formed by coalesced nanocrystalline domains. Contrast variations highlight chemical zonation (inset mean EDS spectrum). (D–E) EDS maps contrasting the internal zonation of Ca with the homogeneously distributed Mg. (F) SAED pattern showing diffraction rings consistent with cation-substituted rhodochrosite lattice spacings.

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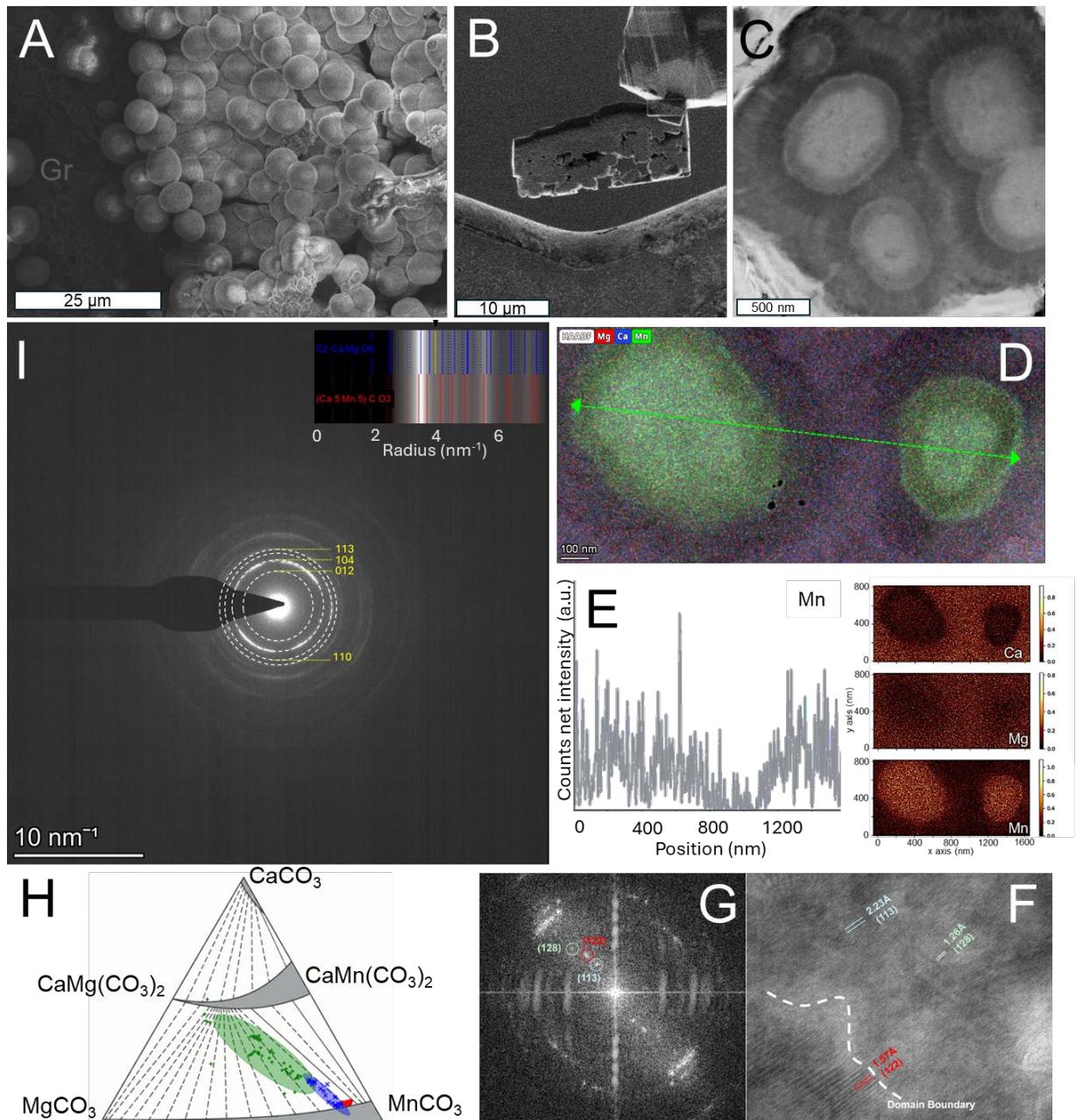
Figure 7. Multiscale characterization of Mn-templated protodolomite formed under electrochemical and carboxyl modulation (E_{11}). **(A–C) Morphology and texture: (A)** SEM micrograph showing the dense accumulation of spheroidal aggregates on the graphite electrode (Gr). **(B)** SEM view of a FIB-milled cross-section (lamella) extracted from the aggregate cluster. **(C)** STEM-HAADF image of the lamella, revealing the characteristic "eye-like" core-shell zonation and diverging sheaf texture. **(D–I) Nanostructure and chemistry**: **(D)** STEM-EDS composite map confirming cation partitioning: Mn-enriched cores (green) surrounded by Mg/Ca-rich cortices (red/blue). **(E)** EDS line-scan intensity profile (1.6 μm) for Mn across the aggregate (transect in D), showing the preferential sequestration of Mn in the core regions; the segregated distributions of Ca, Mg, and Fe are also shown. **(F)** High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) micrograph of a crystalline domain. The lattice fringes and the diffuse domain boundary (white dashed line) highlight the mosaic nanostructure, showing nanodomains (<30 nm) intergrowth together with different crystallographic orientations. **(G)**

992   Fast Fourier-Transform (FFT) of the HRTEM image **(H)** Compositional TEM-EDS data

993   projected onto the $CaCO_3$-$MgCO_3$-$MnCO_3$ ternary plot, the low temperature two-phase

994   manganoan carbonate stability fields/miscibility gap are shown (after Peacor et al.,1987).

995   EDS data renormalized to [Ca] + [Mg] + [Fe] = 1. The confidence ellipses are calculated

996   from the variance (scatter) of the data points. **(I)** SAED pattern acquired from the cortex with

997   identified diffraction rings. The inset/overlay displays the theoretical ring positions for

998   dolomite and kutnohorite, highlighting the expected location of the d_{015} superstructure

999   reflection. This reflection may be highly attenuated by broadening and superposition of d_{104}

1000   peaks in polycrystalline matrices comprised of both minerals (see text for details).

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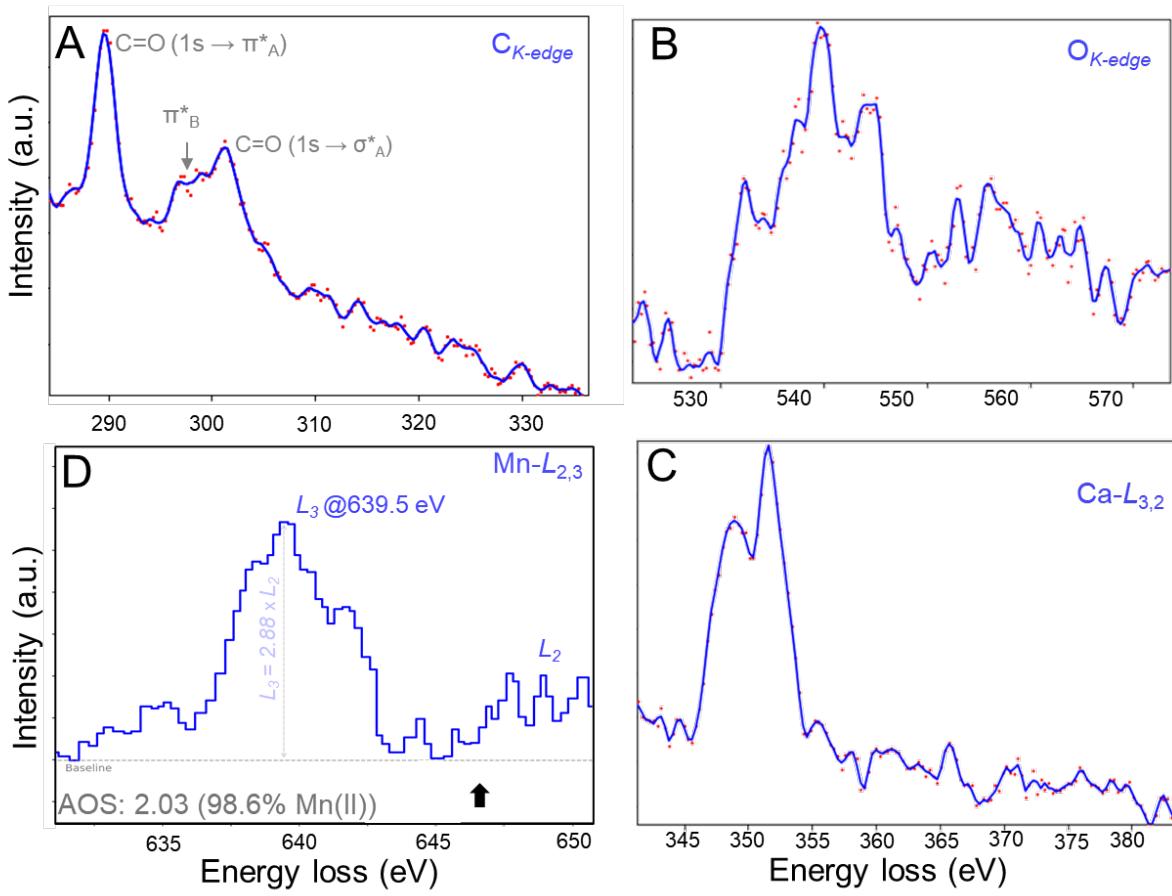
Figure 8. Representative core-loss EELS spectra acquired from the inner cortex region. (A) Carbon K-edge showing the characteristic π∗ and σ∗ transitions of the carbonate. (B) Oxygen K-edge exhibiting fine structure consistent with carbonate bonding. (C) Calcium $L_{3,2}$ -edge displaying sharp white lines indicative of a crystalline coordination environment. (D) Manganese $L_{2,3}$ edge spectrum. The data is presented as a raw step plot to preserve peak shape fidelity. The analysis reveals a sharp L_3 maximum at 639.5 eV and an intensity ratio of $L_3/L_2 \approx 2.88$, consistent with high-spin Mn(II). A key feature is the complete return to baseline intensity in the inter-peak valley (~645 eV, black arrow), effectively ruling out significant mixed-valence contributions.

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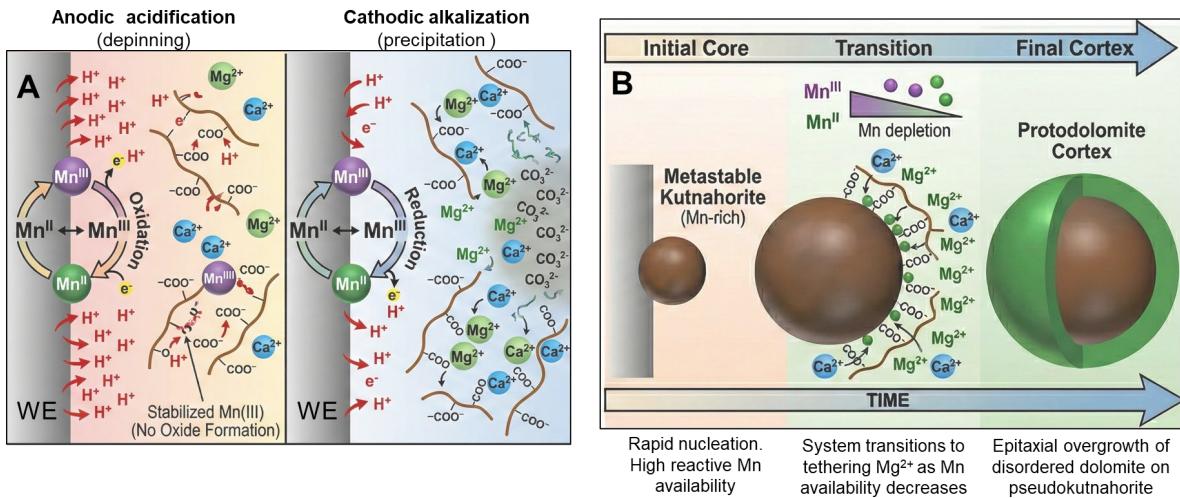
Fig. 9. Proposed mechanism of electrochemically induced dolomite growth. (A) The
proton-coupled redox engine. At the working-electrode interface, anodic oxidation of Mn and
concurrent water splitting generate Mn and protons (H^+). This drives anodic acidification, in
the vicinity of the electrode which transiently protonates alginate ligands and causes the
depinning of bound cations (Mg^{2+}, Ca^{2+}). The subsequent cathodic alkalization consumes
protons, reactivating the ligands to bind cations and producing a local supersaturation spike.
The carboxyl ligands form stabilized Mn complexes, acting as a kinetic brake that prevents
oxide formation and sustains the quasi-reversible cycle. (B) Core-to-cortex evolution.
Initially high concentrations of reactive Mn drive the rapid nucleation of a pseudo-
kutnahorite template. As aqueous Mn availability progressively decreases (see transition
wedge), the pumping mechanism shifts toward tethering the increasingly abundant Mg ions.
These are delivered to the growth front, facilitating the epitaxial overgrowth of a
protodolomite cortex.

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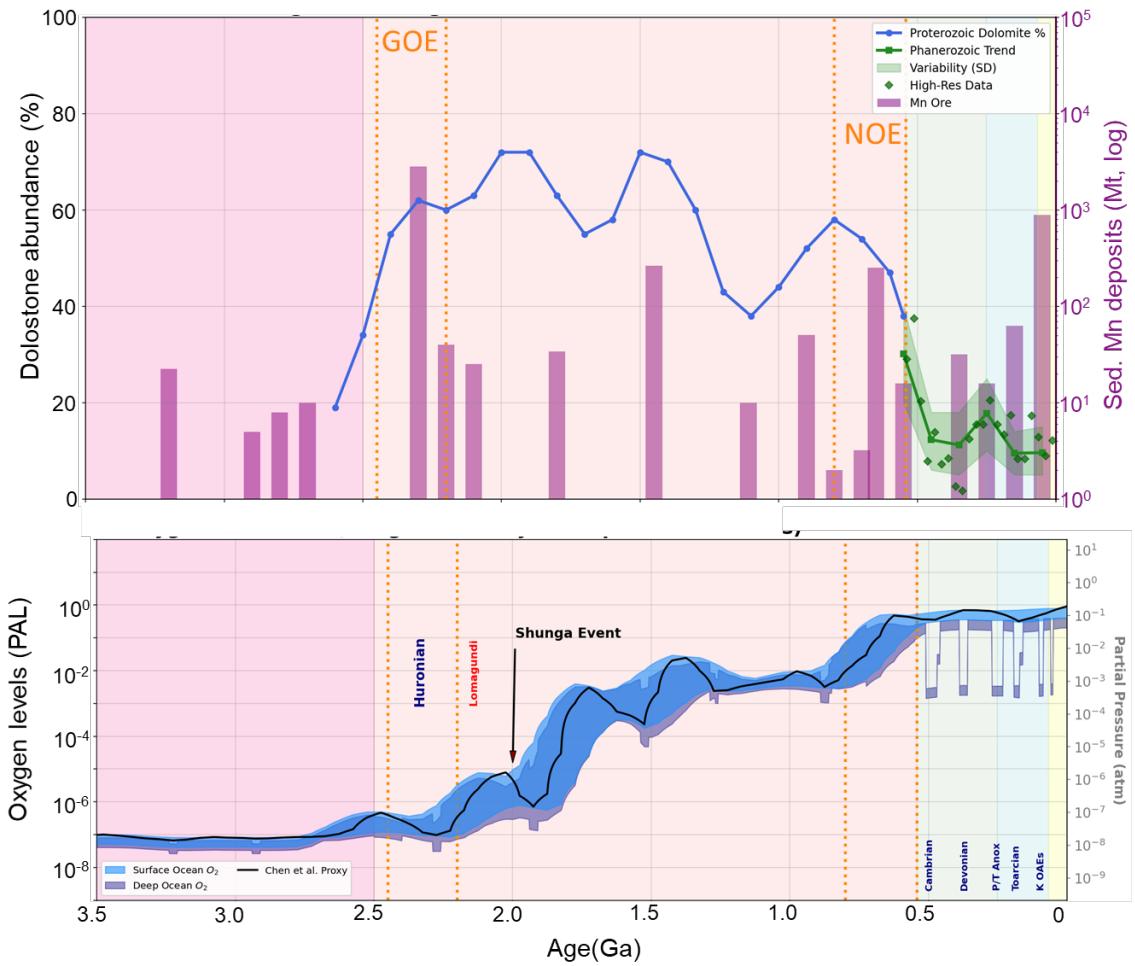
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Figure. 10 Integrated evolution of global ocean redox conditions, carbonate mineralogy, and
manganese deposition. (A) Secular trends in dolomite abundance (blue: Proterozoic; green:
Phanerozoic mean ± SD; derived from Shang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2021) plotted against Mn
ore deposits (purple bars; Robbins et al., 2023). Note the strong co-occurrence of dolomite
peaks with Mn pulses in the Precambrian. (B) Evolution of oxygenation states (pO$_2$). Surface
envelopes are calibrated to Chen et al. (2022). The deep ocean tracks surface conditions in
the Mesoproterozoic but decouples during high-amplitude redox fluctuations: (i) the Great
Oxidation Event (GOE) and Huronian glaciations; (ii) the Lomagundi-Jatuli overshoot; (iii)
the Shunga Event oxygen crash; and (iv) the Neoproterozoic Oxygenation Event (NOE). In
the Phanerozoic, the deep-water "Mn-pump" is largely suppressed, re-emerging only during
transient Ocean Anoxic Events (e.g., P-Tr, Toarcian, K-OAEs) where deep waters dropped to
<1% surface saturation.

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1042 **TABLE**

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1044 **Table S1. Summary of aqueous geochemical evolution and cation removal efficiencies.**

Parameter	Initial Phase (Doses 1–5)	End of titration (20 doses)[†][‡]	Stabilization 24h[†]	Primary controlling factors
NaOH Titrant	**Delayed onset:** Lag in consumption (0–15 min) due to proton consumption from Mn(III) reduction	**Linear increase:** Steady demand to buffer proton release from precipitation	**Converged:** Total volume ~ 0.50–0.60 mL (0.25–0.30 mmol-eq OH^-) across all experiments.	Proton consumption by electrochemical Mn-reduction vs. alkalinity demand from carbonate equilibrium ($HCO_3^- \rightarrow CO_3^{2-} + H^+$)
Mg removal	**Negligible:** No significant uptake observed.	**Variable:** 8.7 ± 1.1 % (E_{10}) to $28.0 \pm 1.0\%$ (E_{01}). Highest in electrochemical setups, but reduced by carboxyl ($E_{11} < E_{01}$)	**Incomplete:** Slight increase (3-6%). Majority (66-87%) persists in solution.	Electrochemical treatment enhances Mg co-precipitation, but carboxyl functionalization partially mitigates this effect
Ca removal	**Rapid:** >40% removal prior to Mn addition (ACC formation)	**High:** $65.2 \pm 2.4\%$ to $83.7 \pm 4.1\%$ removal	**Near complete:** >95% removal, except E_{11} (~75%)	Initial homogeneous nucleation of ACC ; partially inhibited by ligand stabilization in E_{11}.
Mn removal	**N/A:** Mn added after Dose 5.	**Kinetic Response:** $E_{01} \gg E_{00}$, w./ E_{01} (61.4%) > E_{11} (29.0%) > E_{00} (23.3%) > E_{10} (10.2%)	**Complete vs. stabilized:** >99% removal in most units. Exception: E_{11} retains 25-38% in solution	Applied potential drives rapid sequestration; alginate in E_{11} stabilizes Mn(III) intermediates against precipitation

[†] Conditions denote E_{00} (control), E_{01} (electrochemistry only), E_{10} (functionalized only), and E_{11} (combined).
[‡] Removal (%)calculated relative to the total molar mass added to the H-cell reactor.

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1049 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

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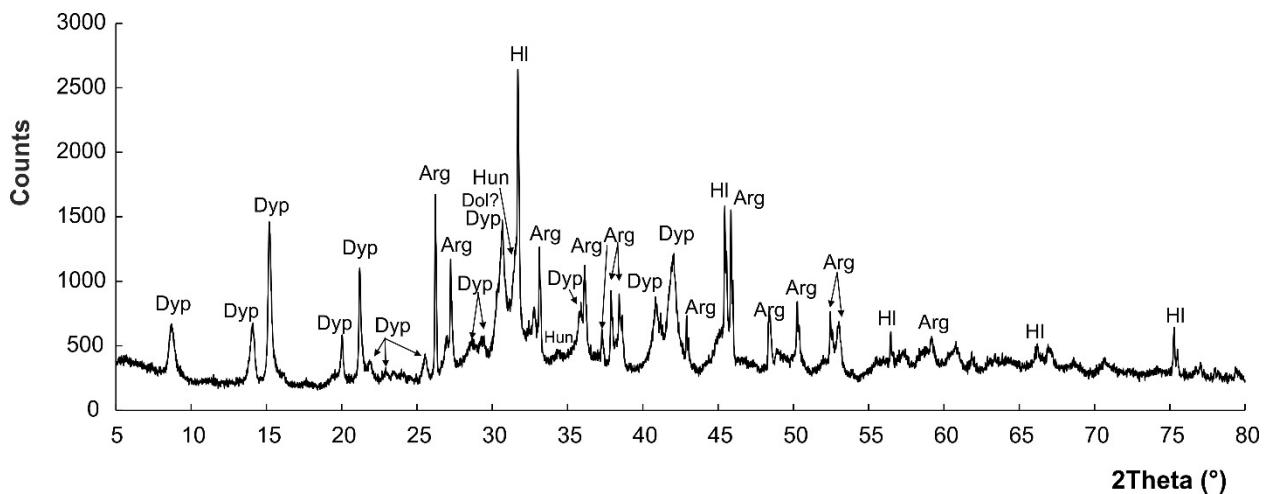
Fig. S1. 1-D X-ray diffraction pattern of the residual solid phase. The mineral assemblage was analyzed after complete evaporation of the parental H-cell solution at 25 °C. Identified phases include aragonite (Arg), dypingite, $Mg_5(CO_3)_4(OH)_2 \cdot 5H_2O$ (Dyp), and halite. (Dyp) and halite.
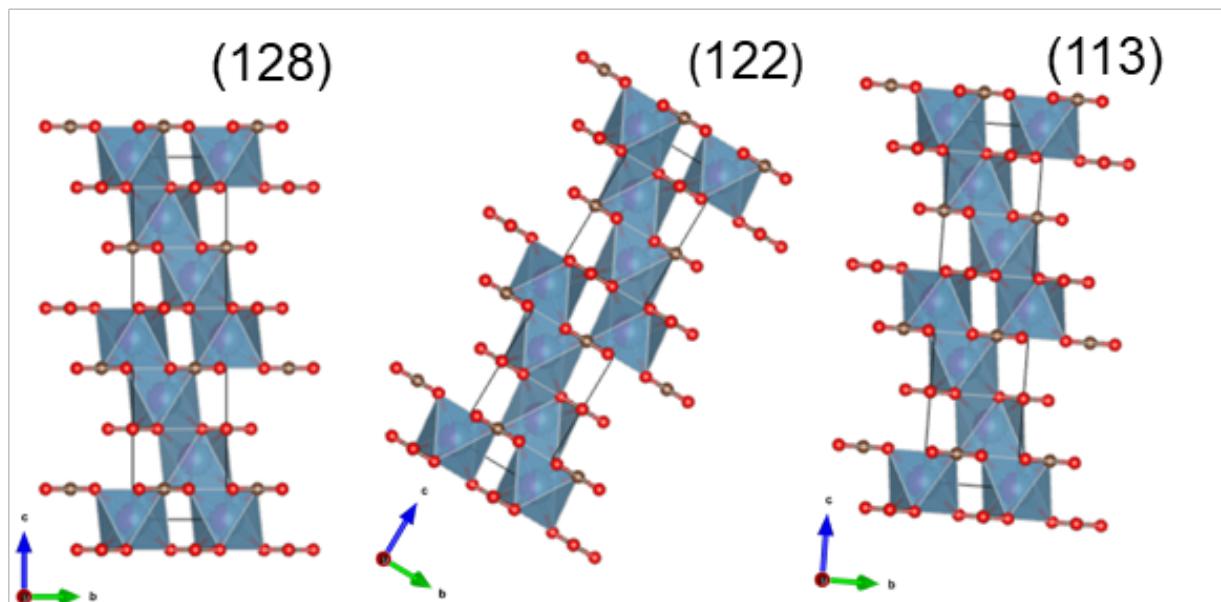

Figure S2 | Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) generated from the HRTEM micrograph in Figure 7F. The pattern displays discrete diffraction spots corresponding to the (128), (122), and (113) lattice planes. The characteristic arcing of these spots highlights the rotational mismatch between adjacent nanodomains, quantifying the crystallographic misorientations (~3 to 11°) associated with the mosaic fabric.

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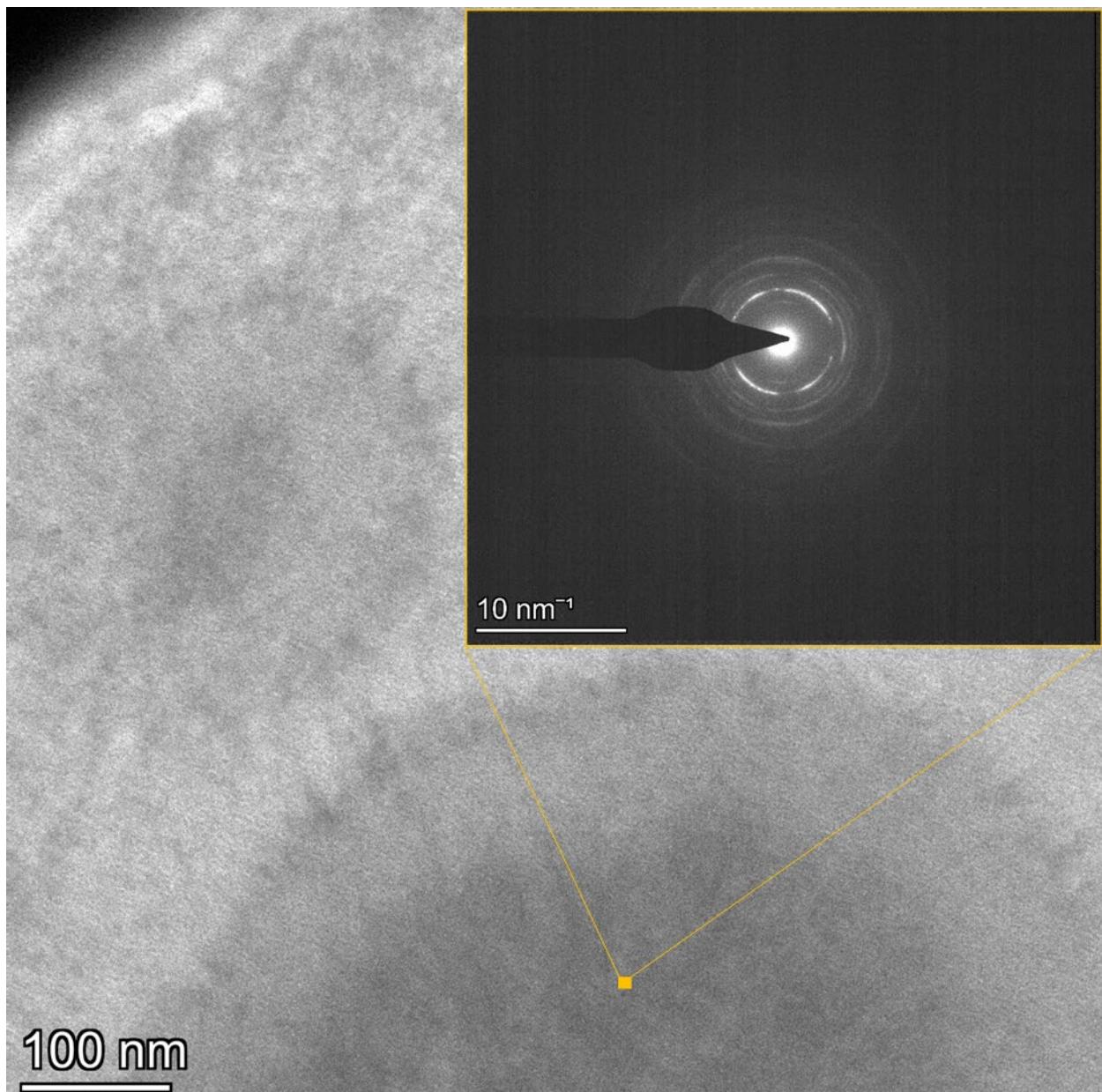
Figure S3. Selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (inset) acquired from the core of one of the spheroidal features resulting from E_{11}. The diffraction geometry is consistent with kutnaharite, based on estimation analyses using AMCSD entry 0001070 (after Peacor et al. 1987).
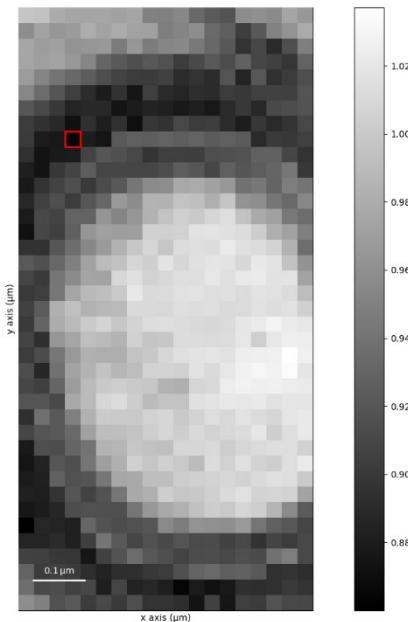
Figure S4. t(λ)⁻¹ map across a spheroidal ROI. Derived from the low-loss electron energy loss spectra (Malis et al., 1988), the map displays the spatial variation in sample thickness relative to the inelastic mean free path, $t(\lambda)^{-1}$. The darker grey regions correspond to the Mg-rich cortices (e.g., red square), while the bright central regions correspond to the thicker Mn-rich cores ($t(\lambda)^{-1} \approx 1.02$). In this regime (($\lambda)^{-1} > 0.5$), inelastic scattering significantly contributes to the background signal (unscattered fraction = $e^{\wedge}\text{-}t(\lambda)^{-1} \approx 0.41$, i.e., 41% of the beam is coherent (unscattered). The other 59% creates inelastic background noise, which hinders the detection of weak diffraction intensities such as the cation ordering (b-type) superlattice reflections. Calculated using HyperSpy (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14956374).

1087   Malis, T., Cheng, S. C., & Egerton, R. F. (1988). EELS
1088   log-ratio technique for specimen-thickness measurement in the TEM. *Journal of Electron*
1089   *Microscopy Technique*, 8(2), 193–200

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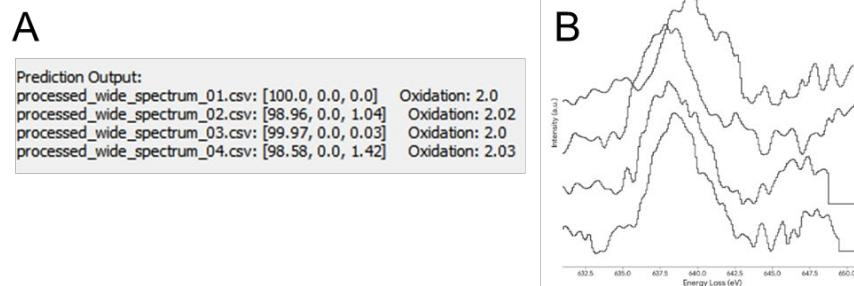
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1093   **Figure S5.** Results of the model MnEdgeNet (
1094   https://github.com/xinhuolin/MnEdgeNet/tree/main 5). Stacked raw EELS spectra of the Mn
1095 $L_{2,3}$-edge acquired from four representative locations within the spheroid core (range 631–
1096   651 eV). Vertical offsets are applied for clarity. All scans consistently display a sharp L_3
1097   absorption maximum at 693.5 to 640.0 eV and a deep inter-peak valley returning to baseline
1098   intensity. These identical spectral features confirm the spatial homogeneity of the pure high-
1099   spin Mn(II) oxidation state across the analyzed region.

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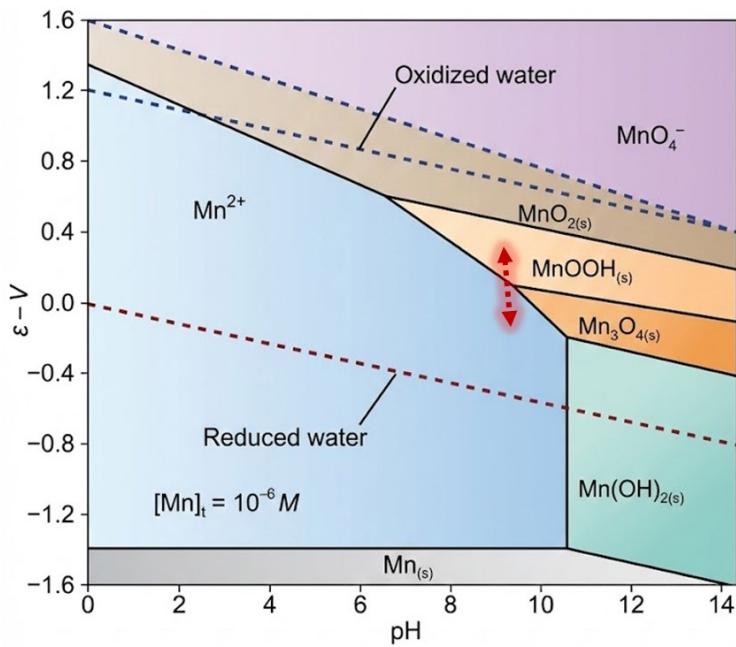
Figure S6. Eh-pH stability diagram for the Mn water system at 25°C. The diagram plots redox potential (ε–V) against acidity (pH), showing the thermodynamically stable fields for various manganese species at a total manganese molar concentration of $[Mn]_t = 10^{-6}$ M. Solid lines delimit the stability boundaries between species. Aqueous species shown are the manganous ion (Mn^{2+}) and permanganate (MnO_4^-). Solid phases, denoted by the subscript (s) and distinct color shading, include pyrochroite ($Mn(OH)_2(s)$), hausmannite ($Mn_3O_4(s)$), manganite ($MnOOH(s)$), and pyrolusite ($MnO_2(s)$). Adapted from Faust & Aly (1998) and Stumm & Morgan (1996). The approximate experimental trajectory is shown (arrow)

Table S1. Saturation state of relevant mineral phases in the functionalized active electrolyte (E$_{11}$). Values represent the Saturation Index (SI = log(IAP) - log(K)) calculated for the mixture composition S$_{ii}$. Positive SI values (>0) indicate supersaturation, while negative values (<0) indicate undersaturation. Note that the S$_{ii}$ is strongly supersaturated with respect to aragonite, dolomite, and hydromagnesite, consistent with the observed mineral assemblage.

Phase	SI	logIAP	logK	Formula
Huntite	8.81	-21.15	-29.97	$CaMg_3(CO_3)_4$
Dolomite	6.09	-11	-17.09	$CaMg(CO_3)_2$
Dolomite(d)	5.54	-11	-16.54	$CaMg(CO_3)_2$
Hydromagnesite	5.01	-3.75	-8.76	$Mg_5(CO_3)_4(OH)_2 \cdot 4H_2O$
Rhodochrosite	4.18	-6.95	-11.13	$MnCO_3$
Rhodochrosite(d)	3.44	-6.95	-10.39	$MnCO_3$
Magnesite	2.95	-5.08	-8.03	$MgCO_3$
Calcite	2.55	-5.93	-8.48	$CaCO_3$
Aragonite	2.41	-5.93	-8.34	$CaCO_3$
Artinite	1.88	11.48	9.6	$MgCO_3:Mg(OH)_2:3H_2O$
Nesquehonite	0.54	-5.09	-5.62	$MgCO_3:3H_2O$
Pseudo-kutnahorite†	-2.57	-12.87	-10.3	$MnCa(CO_3)_2$
Nahcolite	-3.12	-3.67	-0.55	$NaHCO_3$
Natron	-5.06	-6.37	-1.31	$Na_2CO_3:10H_2O$
Thermonatrite	-6.47	-6.35	0.12	$Na_2CO_3:H_2O$
Trona	-9.23	-10.02	-0.8	$NaHCO3:Na2CO3:2H_2O$
Pyrochroite	-0.5	14.7	15.2	$Mn(OH)_2$
Brucite	-0.27	16.57	16.84	$Mg(OH)_2$
Portlandite	-7.08	15.72	22.8	$Ca(OH)_2$
Manganite	-5.11	20.23	25.34	$MnOOH$
Hausmannite	-5.87	55.16	61.03	Mn_3O4
Bixbyite	-9.96	-10.57	-0.61	Mn_2O_3
$MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$	-7.87	-5.16	2.71	$MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$

Notes: Calculations were performed using the U.S. Geological Survey geochemical code PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) employing the wateq4f thermodynamic database. (d) denotes disordered or metastable phases included in the database. † Solubility product (log K$_{sp}$) for pseudokutnahorite is adapted from Mucci (2004). Data Availability: The input code and full dataset for these calculations are available in the Zenodo repository (see Data Availability Statement).

Supplementary Note S1: Estimation of local interfacial pH and saturation state of dolomite near the electrode-mineral interface

1. Model assumptions

To estimate the magnitude of pH oscillations at the working electrode (WE) surface, we apply a simplified steady-state Nernst-Planck approximation. The model assumes a stagnant diffusion boundary layer (Nernst diffusion layer, Δ) separating the electrode surface from the bulk electrolyte.

We adopt the following governing assumptions:

1. Transport control: mass transport of protons (H^+) and reactants is governed primarily by diffusion across the boundary layer; migration effects are minimized by the supporting electrolyte.

2. Stoichiometry: the anodic oxidation of Mn(II) to Mn(III) coupled with hydrolysis generates protons. We conservatively assume a localized proton flux (J_{H+}) proportional to the measured current density (j).

3. Layer thickness: For an unstirred vertical electrode under natural convection, Δ is estimated at *ca.* 200 μm (2×10^{-2} cm) (Bard & Faulkner, 2001).

4. Bulk conditions: Bulk solution is maintained at pH 9.1 (experimental baseline).

2. Flux Calculation

The J_{H+} generated at the anode is derived from Faraday's Law:

$J_{H+} = j(nF)^{-1}$

Where:

- $j \approx 100$ μA cm^{-2} (T_{peak} current density observed in CV scans).

- n = 1 (electrons transferred per proton equivalent).

- F = 96,485 C mol^{-1} (Faraday constant).

$J_{H+} = 10^{-4} (96485) = 1.04 \times 10^{-9}$ mol cm^{-2} s^{-1}

3. Interfacial pH shift

According to Fick's First Law, the concentration gradient (ΔC) required to sustain this flux across layer Δ is:

$$\Delta H^+ \approx J_{H+} \times \delta (D_H)^{-1},$$

where:

- $D_H \approx 9.3 \times 10^{-5}$ cm^2 s^{-1} (diffusion coefficient of H^+ in water at 25°C).

- $\delta \approx 0.02$ cm

$\Delta H^+ \approx 1.04 \times 10^{-9} (0.02)/(9.3 \times 10^{-5}) \approx 2.21 \, 10^{-7}$ M

Resulting surface pH: the bulk proton concentration at pH 9.1 is $[H^+]_{bulk} \approx 7.9 \times 10^{-10}$ M.

The surface concentration $[H^+]_{surf}$ is the sum of the bulk concentration and the anodic accumulation $\Delta[H^+]$):

$$[H^+]_{surf} \approx 7.9 \times 10^{-10} + 2.2 \times 10^{-7} \approx 2.21 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$$

$$\underline{pH_{surf} = -\log(2.21 \times 10^{-7}) \approx 6.65}$$

The unbuffered anodic shift is $\Delta pH \approx -2.45$ units. However, in the presence of the (bi)carbonate/alginate buffering system, this theoretical drop can be substantially attenuated (see Fig. 2). Conservatively estimating a 50–70% buffering efficiency, then the effective localized shift is $\Delta pH \approx \pm 0.5$ to 1.2 units.

4. Impact on supersaturation (SI_{dol})

The saturation state for dolomite (SI_{dol}) is defined as:

$$SI_{dol} = \{Ca^{2+}\}\{Mg^{2+}\}\{CO_3^{2-}\}^2 \, K_{sp}^{-1}$$

Since CO_3^{2-} is strictly pH-dependent, the calculated anodic acidification near the WE surface (pH 9.1 to ~8.0 to 8.5) causes a logarithmic decrease in local carbonate ion activity.

- Anodic phase (oxidation): local pH drops, SI_{dol} decreases significantly (undersaturation or low supersaturation), promoting the dissolution of kinetic defects.
- Cathodic phase (reduction): local pH is restored or increased (via proton consumption), SI_{dol}, driving rapid nucleation.

This confirms that electrochemical cycling imposes a high amplitude oscillation of the saturation state (SI_{dol}), mimicking the Ostwald ripening mechanism required for ordering.

5. Scan rate justification: The electrochemical experiments utilized a fixed scan rate of 10 mV s^{-1}. This rate was selected to establish a stable diffusion profile (δ) that balances the anodic proton production with the buffering capacity of the hydrogel, creating a sustained, reproducible saturation gradient necessary for crystal growth.

References

Bard, A. J., & Faulkner, L. R. (2001). *Electrochemical Methods: Fundamentals and Applications*. Wiley.

Stumm, W., & Morgan, J. J. (1996). *Aquatic Chemistry*. Wiley-Interscience.

Supplementary Note S2. A working-table compiling sedimentary units of interest to test the mechanism proposed in the main text. Have fun.

Period	Formation / Location	Dominant Texture & Key Features	References*
Holocene	Sabkha Flats (Al Jubayl, Saudi Arabia)	Microbial mats; Quaternary ordered dolomite.	(C'hafetz et al., 1999)
Holocene	Sabkha Flats (Abu Dhabi/Qatar)	Microbial mats; protodolomite forming in EPS-rich layers; seasonal cycling.	(Bontognali et al., 2010; Di Loreto et al., 2021)
Holocene	Lake Van (Turkey)	Cyclic early diagenetic dolomite; triggered by hydrochemical mixing and redox perturbations.	(McCormack et al., 2018, 2024)
Miocene	Eger Rift Paleolake (Czech Rep.)	Episodic carbonate cementation driven by Mn–N redox cycling in a non-marine setting.	(Petrash et al., 2025)
Eocene	Green River Formation (USA)	Lacustrine dolomite; vast deposits formed in organic-rich, stratified (meromictic) alkaline paleolakes.	(Pommer et al., 2023)
Triassic (Ladinian)	Dolomite Mtns / Sella Group (Italy)	The "Dolomite" Archetype. synsedimentary	Meister et al., 2013), Sedimentology 60(1):270-291
Permian-Triassic	Inner Platform (Dinarides, Croatia)	Dolomitization linked to oceanic anoxia and chemocline shifts; inner platform facies.	(Aljinović et al., 2025)
Devonian	Ratner Formation (Canada, SK)	Partially recrystallized medium-sized dolomite with high. Mn contents (ME)	Fu & Qinq, 2010, *Carbonates and Evaporites* 26, 111-115
Devonian	Grosmont Formation (Canada, AB)	Sabkha dolomite forming within burrowed stromatolites; microbial influence.	(Baniak et al., 2014)
Upper Cambrian (Furongian)	Chaomidian Fm. (North China Platform)	Fabric-retentive microbial dolomite; thrombolite-stromatolite reefs	(Han et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2014)

Period	Formation / Location	Dominant Texture & Key Features	References*
Lower Cambrian	Xiaoerbulake Fm. (Tarim Basin, China)	Fabric-retentive dolomicrite; microbialites (stromatolites/thrombolites).	(Zhang et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2022)
Ediacaran (Shuram Excursion)	Khufai, Buah & Birba Fms (Oman)	Primary Nanoscale Fabrics; fibrous dolomite ooids, spherulitic stromatolites, and fibrous cements.	(Wilcots et al., 2025)
Ediacaran	Doushantuo Formation (China)	Cap dolostone featuring interlinked cycles of methane, manganese, and sulfate.	(Cai et al., 2023)
Mesoproterozoic (~1.6 Ga)	McArthur Basin (Amelia/Mara Dol.), Australia	Massive fabric-retentive dolostone; Mn-mineralized sheaths; exceptional eukaryotic cell preservation.	(Muir, 1976, 1983)
Mesoproterozoic (~1.6 Ga)	Chuanlinggou Formation, N China	Fabric retentive. Mn-bearing dolomitic siltstone	(Xu et al., 2025)
Mesoproterozoic (~1.5 Ga)	Gaoyuzhuang Formation, N China	Syndiagenetic, consist of dolommicrite, along with kutnohorite and rhodochrosite	(Xu et al., 2025)
Mesoproterozoic (~1.4–1.1 Ga)	Bangemall Supergroup (W. Australia)	Sizable Mn deposits associated with surface oxygenation events.	(Spinks et al., 2023)
Paleoproterozoic (~2.1 Ga)	Francevillian Succession (Gabon)	Intimate association Mn-Ca carbonate	(Nzamba et al., 2026; Préat et al., 2011)

1192   * (Refer to the main text). Unless otherwise indicated.