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2	Libyan Desert Glass: new evidence for an extremely high-pressure-temperature impact
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18	
19	Abstract
20	The origin of Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) found in the western parts of Egypt close to
21	the Libyan border is debatable in planetary science. Two major theories of its formation are
22	currently competing: (i) melting by airburst and (ii) formation by impact-related melting.
23	While mineralogical and textural evidence for a high-temperature event responsible for the
24	LDG formation is abundant and convincing, minerals and textures indicating high shock
25	pressure have been scarce. This paper provides a nanostructural study of the LDG, showing

26 new evidence of its high-pressure and high-temperature origin. We mainly focused on the 27 investigation of Zr-bearing and phosphate aggregates enclosed within LDG. Micro- and 28 nanostructural evidence obtained with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) are spherical 29 inclusions of cubic, tetragonal, and orthorhombic (Pnma or OII) zirconia after zircon, which 30 indicate high-pressure, high-temperature decomposition of zircon and possibly, melting of ZrO₂. Inclusions of amorphous silica and amorphous Al-phosphate with berlinite composition 31 32 (AlPO₄) within mosaic whitlockite and monazite aggregates point at decomposition and 33 melting of phosphates, which formed an emulsion with SiO₂ melt. The estimated temperature 34 of the LDG melts was above 2750 °C, approaching the point of SiO₂ boiling. The variety of 35 textures with different degrees of quenching immediately next to each other suggest an 36 extreme thermal gradient that existed in LDG through radiation cooling. Additionally, the 37 presence of quenched orthorhombic OII ZrO_2 provides direct evidence of high-pressure (> 38 13.5 GPa) conditions, confirming (ii) hypervelocity impact origin of the LDG.

Keywords: granular textures, transmission electron microscopy, zircon, phosphates,
 zirconium oxide, orthorhombic zirconia OII, cubic zirconia, immiscibility

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Introduction

43 Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is an enigmatic rock formation known to geologists for 44 almost 90 years, which origin is still debated. In the past, various processes were suggested 45 for the origin of the LDG: such as fulgurite (Baker 1959), meteorite collision (Kleinmann 46 1968), hydrothermal sol-gel process (Jux 1983; Feller 1997), sedimentary origin (Feller 1997), 47 and a lunar volcanic source (Futrell and O'Keefe 1997). However, the low water content in 48 the LDG (Beran and Koeberl 1997) together with the chemical and isotopic traces of 49 meteoritic component (e.g., Murali et al. 1997; Rocchia et al. 1996; Barrat et al. 1997; Giuli et 50 al. 2003), suggest the meteorite-related origin. Currently, the formation of LDG is considered

to be related to a short-lived high-temperature extraterrestrial event, with two major formation hypotheses suggested: (i) high-temperature fusion of surface materials by a large 100 Mt-class airburst (Seebaugh and Strauss 1984; Wasson 2003; Boslough and Crawford 2008; Aboud 2009; Boslough 2014), and (ii) high-temperature (Barnes and Underwood 1976; Kleinmann et al. 2001; Greshake et al. 2010; Greshake et al. 2018) and/or high-pressure (Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) melting by a meteorite impact.

Arguments for (i) airburst-related melting were the absence of the related impact crater and shock effects in the LDG. These led to a suggestion that LDG might be a product of a low-altitude atmospheric airburst that caused a high-temperature fusion of surface material (Wasson 2003; Svetsov and Wasson 2007; Boslough and Crawford 2008).

61 Evidence for (ii) impact-related melting has been presented in a series of papers 62 (Kleinmann 1968; Koeberl 1997, 2000; Pratesi et al. 2002; Greshake et al. 2010, 2018), where 63 the LDG is suggested to be the product of a high-temperature impact process. The occurrence 64 of lechatelierite, α - and β -cristobalite, mullite, and possible tridymite enclosed in silica glass 65 matrix provides evidence for high-temperature impact conditions (e.g., Urev 1957; Barnes 66 and Underwood 1976; Greshake et al. 2018; Cavosie et al. 2022). Lechatelierite and α -67 cristobalite indicate heating of the source rock to at least 1550 °C followed by rapid cooling 68 (Greshake et al. 2010). The observed complete breakdown of euhedral zircon grains resulting 69 in baddeleyite and silica glass pseudomorph also implies a high-temperature event with a 70 temperature above 1676 °C (Kleinmann 1968; Horn et al. 1997). The appearance of partially 71 molten rutile grains indicates temperatures locally exceeding 1800 °C (Greshake et al. 2018). 72 Finally, the presence of an emulsion of immiscible silicate melts is the evidence of high 73 quenching temperatures up to 2100 °C, limited only by the temperature of silica vaporization 74 (Pratesi et al. 2002).

75 The evidence for the high-pressure deformation due to collision with a meteorite 76 remained elusive. Some authors demonstrated planar deformation features in quartz from float 77 breccia and in the basement rock outcrops (Kleinmann et al. 2001; Koeberl and Ferriere 2019), 78 suggesting the potential presence of a deeply-eroded impact crater, but the direct relation to 79 LDG was not established. The most recent discovery of granular neoblastic zircon in LDG 80 (Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) supports the high-pressure impact origin of the LDG. In 81 particular, the presence of granular zircon with certain textures and orientations was 82 suggested to indicate not only high-temperature but also impact-induced high-pressure origin 83 of the LDG (Cavosie and Koeberl 2019). The authors reported zircon grains that have been 84 partially dissociated into zirconia (presently baddelevite) but preserved cores of granular 85 neoblastic zircon. While the decomposition of zircon rims proves the elevated temperature (T > 1687 °C, Timms et al. 2017), the granular cores should indicate shock pressure above 30 86 87 GPa, according to Cavosie and Koeberl (2019). Although the ZrSiO₄ high-pressure 88 polymorph reidite was not directly observed, the authors concluded that the textural analyses 89 of the cores show the transformation of zircon into reidite and back to zircon (e.g., Cavosie et 90 al. 2018a). However, Kovaleva et al. (2021) more recently demonstrated that the granular 91 neoblastic zircon is not necessarily a product of solid-state phase transitions but may point at 92 the complete breakdown into oxides, their disequilibrium melting, and rapid crystallization of 93 zircon granules at high-temperature conditions. Thus, the granular zircon from LDG might 94 need a closer investigation to identify its nature (solid-state high-pressure transformation vs. 95 breakdown into oxides, melting and crystallization from melt), while the high-pressure model 96 for the LDG formation needs more direct evidence. To address these concerns, we used high-97 resolution transmission electron microscopy (TEM) method combined with scanning electron 98 microscopy (SEM) and electron probe microanalyses (EPMA), as well as energy dispersive 99 X-ray analyses (EDX).

100 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) is a powerful tool that can be used to 101 support geochronology interpretations, and unravel complicated histories of terrestrial and 102 planetary materials (Gu et al. 2020; Keller et al. 2021), internal structures and textures of 103 major and accessory mineral phases, etc. (Kusiak et al. 2018; Seydoux-Guillaume et al. 2018). 104 In particular, it is widely used to study and interpret processes recorded in terrestrial 105 impactites (e.g., Pratesi et al. 2002), Lunar breccias (Kaneko et al. 2015; Wentworth et al. 106 1999) and meteorites (e.g., Leroux and Cordier 2006). TEM allows looking at individual 107 mineral grains and, for example, facilitated studying the rock-forming minerals from the 108 Lunar samples (e.g., Khisina et al. 2011; Keller et al. 2021). At the same time, very few TEM 109 studies were conducted on shocked accessory minerals derived from impactites (Leroux et al. 110 1999; Reimold et al. 2002; Cox et al. 2020), even though TEM is a key instrument in studying 111 microstructures, phase transitions, nano-inclusions, and lattice defects indicative of a variety 112 of impact conditions (Kovaleva et al. 2021).

113 Applicable to LDG specifically, the dark streaks in the LDG were investigated by 114 TEM (Pratesi et al. 2002), revealing the presence of nm-scale amorphous Fe-rich silicate 115 spherules enclosed within the silica-glass matrix. Such amorphous spherules resulted from 116 emulsion between two immiscible silicate liquids with similar viscosities. Moreover, 117 cristobalite-mullite intergrowths from LDG were studied by TEM by Greshake et al. (2018), 118 who concluded that these mineral phases crystallized from high-temperature silica melts. Here 119 we present a TEM study of the accessory mineral phases (mainly Zr-bearing phases and 120 phosphates) found in LDG, showing the impact-related high-temperature and high-pressure 121 nanostructural features.

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Geological setting and sample description

124 Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is a naturally occurring glass found over several 125 thousands of square kilometers in flat corridors between the Sahara sand dunes in the 126 southwestern parts of Egypt and southeast Libya in the Great Sand Sea (Fig. 1a, b). Clayton 127 and Spencer (1934) first described it as wind-eroded fragments of various shapes and masses 128 with homogeneous and relatively pure (98 wt% SiO₂) composition (e.g., Barnes and 129 Underwood 1976; Frischat et al. 1984; Barrat et al. 1997). Fragments are found on the surface 130 and below the surface up to a depth of 2 m (Weeks et al. 1984). The glass fragments vary 131 from colorless and light-yellow to brown-green and grey, from milky to perfectly transparent. 132 Some of them reveal brown flow banding and elliptical air inclusions (e.g., Barnes and 133 Underwood 1976; Weeks et al. 1984). Brown bands or "streaks" were shown to contain 134 meteoritic component (e.g., Koeberl 1997; Giuli et al. 2003). Source material for the LDG 135 was suggested to be an Oligocene-Miocene mature sandstone (Fröhlich et al. 2013), 136 composed of quartz grains, coated with mixed clay minerals and Fe-Ti oxides, and accessory 137 phases (e.g., Fudali 1981; Barrat et al. 1997). The age of the LDG is determined by fission-138 track studies as 28.5 ± 0.8 Ma (Gentner et al. 1969; Bigazzi and De Michele 1996, 1997). 139 This age, however, is in conflict with the supposed Miocene age of the source material.

140 Two angular fragments (Fig. 1c) of LDG were collected at the border between Egypt 141 and Libya and obtained by one of the authors. Because of the lack of exact GPS coordinates 142 of the sampling site, we consider their origin as part of the large LDG strewn field (Fig. 1b). 143 Barakat et al. (1997) investigated more than 40 sites from the Great Sand Sea and noted that 144 most of the LDG fragments were found within two main accumulation zones that are part of 145 the LDG strewn field. Further, the fragments were distributed by fluvial transport to the south 146 from the source area, resulting in the low-density population secondary distribution areas 147 (Jimenez-Martinez et al. 2015). Sample A is approximately 2.5 x 1.4 cm, and sample B is 148 slightly larger (3 x 2 cm). Both samples have an irregular shape, and their smooth surface was

149 likely obtained by the abrasive action of sandblasting in the desert environment. Samples are 150 glassy and yellow in color (Fig. 1c). Sample A is milky and less transparent than sample B, 151 containing multiple diffuse inclusions and/or vesicles. Sample B is more transparent but is 152 also vesiculated. Each fragment was cut into two pieces to access the fresh central part. A 153 thick section was prepared from the central part of each sample. In the text, the label A and B 154 associated with the FIB foil number refers to sample A or B, respectively.

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Methods

Two polished thick sections were characterized with scanning electron microscopy (SEM), electron probe microanalyses (EPMA) element mapping, and subsequently prepared by the focused ion beam (FIB) for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) investigation. In the present study, we focused on mineral inclusions such as ZrSiO₄, ZrO₂, and SiO₂ polymorphs, and phosphates. After polishing the thick sections for a second time to access the deeper internal parts of the sample, additional FIB foils were prepared and investigated with TEM.

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165 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Overview images of the single mineral grains in the Libyan Desert Glass samples were acquired with a Helios G4 UC DualBeam system (FEI-Thermo Fisher). For that purpose, the Everhart Thornly (ET) and through-the-lens (TL) detectors were used in secondary electron imaging mode (SE) and backscattered electron mode (BSE). The acceleration voltage was set to 5 and 10 keV, respectively.

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172 Electron probe micro-analyzer (EPMA)

173 Element distribution maps of zircon grains enclosed in LDG matrix were performed 174 on a JXA8530F+ electron microprobe with a five wavelength dispersive spectrometer (WDS) 175 so that five elements can be semi-quantitatively mapped simultaneously. 20 kV accelerating 176 voltage and 20 nA beam current were used, and stage or beam scan mode was applied 177 depending on the size of the grains of interest in the glass. The dwell time for each pixel was 178 400 ms. EMPA analysis and element mapping using the X-ray intensities of Si, Zr, Pb, Y, Th, 179 and U have been applied to the three selected Zr-rich inclusions in LDG before FIB foil 180 preparation: B#6410; A#6408 and B#6411 (Fig. S1 in Supplementary Material).

Elements detected were Si (K α -Line) and Zr (L α -Line) with peak position and highvoltage (HV) search done on natural zircon standard on TAP and PETH diffracting crystals, respectively. For Pb and U (M $_{\beta}$ -Lines) as well as Th (M $_{\alpha}$ -Line), peaks were detected on pure metal standards using PETL and PETH diffracting crystals, whereas for Y (L $_{\alpha}$ -line) measured on TAPL crystal, a YAG standard was used. Results of maps were reported in counts per second level.

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188 Focused ion beam (FIB) sample preparation

The foils were prepared with a Helios G4 UC DualBeam (Thermo Fisher) device. First, the area of interest was protected with a Pt-stripe 20 x 2 x 2 μ m in size. Rough milling occurred with an acceleration voltage of 30 kV and a beam current of 45 nA to 9.3 nA. The raw FIB lamella was lifted out by an Easylift-System and fixed to a 3 mm half-moon copper grid. Then the FIB section was thinned to approximately 120 nm at 30 kV using decreasing beam currents from 0.79 nA – 80 pA. In a final polishing step at 5 kV and 41 pA, the FIB lamella was thinned and cleaned to ca. 100 nm in thickness.

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197 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

198 The FIB foils were investigated with a TECNAI G2 F20 X-twin transmission electron 199 microscope (TEM) equipped with a Gatan Imaging Filter (GIF), a Fishione high-angle 200 annular dark-field system, and an EDAX X-Ray analyzer with ultrathin window. The TEM 201 was operated at 200 kV with a field emission gun as an electron source. Adjacent to 202 conventional bright-field (BF) and dark-field (DF) imaging, electron diffraction was applied. 203 BF, DF, and high-resolution lattice fringe images were acquired as energy-filtered images, 204 applying a 20 eV window to the zero-loss peak. Simultaneously, EDX spectra can be acquired 205 from the studied phase using a very small spot size (down to < 10 nm, depending on the size 206 of the object investigated), thus focusing on the object of interest. The chemical composition 207 provides basic information about the phase studied.

208 Besides conventional electron diffraction patterns, we used diffraction patterns 209 calculated from high-resolution lattice fringe images applying a Fast Fourier Transformation 210 (FFT) algorithm. FFT patterns were used to manually identify phases, in particular the ZrO_2 211 polymorphs. This technique was utilized for nanocrystalline phases to minimize electron 212 irradiation damage. The acquisition time for high-resolution lattice fringe images (HREM) 213 can be as short as 0.2 seconds. The measured length of the different diffraction vectors 214 (reciprocal space) is transformed into d_{hkl} lattice spacing in real space. Additionally, the 215 angles between the different vectors are measured. The observed d-spacing and the angles 216 between adjacent planes are compared with calculated d-spacing and angles based on data 217 from the literature (unit cell parameters) for the expected phase. The observed angles between 218 adjacent lattice planes should match the angles calculated based on structural data from 219 literature within an error of $\pm 1^{\circ}$. Finally, the diffraction pattern can be indexed, and together 220 with the chemical composition from EDS the phase is fully identified.

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Results

223 SEM images and overview of TEM foils

224 In total, we identified with SEM 14 different zircon/ZrO₂ aggregates ranging in size 225 from 4 to 30 µm for subsequent TEM investigation. One TEM-FIB foil was prepared from 226 each pseudomorph domain. Aggregates are mostly elongated with the moderate aspect ratios 227 of 2:3 to 1:2. The original idiomorphic shape of zircon crystals is mostly preserved, indicating 228 that these aggregated replaced individual zircon grains (e.g., Cavosie and Koeberl 2019). 229 Some aggregates appear pulled apart and are composed of separated fragments of zircon or 230 ZrO₂ enclosed in the silicate glass matrix. Based on the phases that are composing the Zr-231 bearing aggregates, we subdivided them into three groups. Pseudomorph aggregates, 232 representative of all three groups, were found in both samples. For example, the former zircon 233 grain in foil A#6408 is completely transformed into SiO₂ and Zr-oxide aggregate (classified 234 here as group 1), which is found in two detached fragments of different sizes (Figs. 2a; S1b). 235 The same impression is imposed on an aggregate in sample A#6409, composed of fully 236 recrystallized granular neoblastic zircon with multiple Zr-oxide nano-inclusions (group 3, Fig. 237 2b).

Group 1. It includes idiomorphic zircon grains that have been completely transformed
into vermicular granules of – usually twinned – baddeleyite enclosed in SiO₂ glass. A typical
example of group 1 is shown in Figure 3a. Individual round or globular baddeleyite crystals
are completely separated from other crystals or sometimes form clusters in the amorphous
SiO₂ matrix. Five FIB foils were prepared from grains of group 1: A#6408, B#6410, B#6382,
B#6370, and B#6379.

Group 2. This group comprises originally idiomorphic and/or rounded zircon,
separated into two domains with a gradational boundary. The two domains contain different
mineral phases and show different textures (Fig. 3b). One domain is composed of fully
recrystallized granular neoblastic zircon, with µm-sized euhedral zircon granules separated by

triple junctions. Zircon grains contain round nm-sized inclusions of Zr-oxide and amorphous
SiO₂ (Fig. 3b, upper part). The other domain is composed of vermicular Zr-oxide
(baddeleyite) grains separated from each other by silicate glass (Fig. 3b, lower part).
Baddeleyite is characterized by intense twinning and rounded grain shapes. The transition
zone between two domains is usually a few tens of nanometers thick and presented by zircon
rims enclosing baddeleyite cores. Three FIB foils were prepared from grains of group 2:
A#6376, B#6381, and B#6371.

255 Group 3. This includes originally idiomorphic zircon that has been completely 256 recrystallized to granular neoblastic texture. Grains from group 3 form zircon polycrystalline 257 aggregates with nm-sized inclusions of Zr-oxide (bright) and amorphous SiO₂ glass (dark) enclosed in individual zircon crystals/granules or between them (Fig. 3c). The size of Zr-258 259 oxide (baddeleyite) inclusions ranges from 50 to 500 nm. Amorphous SiO₂ inclusions are 260 usually less than 150 nm in size. The interface of the zircon aggregate with the host SiO_2 glass 261 is irregular on a sub-µm scale. This type of zircon is documented in six FIB foils: A#6368, 262 A#6367, A#6377, A#6409, B#6380, and B#6411.

Apart from zircon/former zircon, we found inclusions of α-cristobalite (FIB foil B#6373), Ca-phosphate phase whitlockite with amorphous Al-phosphate inclusions with berlinite composition (FIB foil A#6366), whitlockite with SiO₂ glass inclusions (FIB foil A#6378), and monazite with SiO₂ glass inclusions (FIB foil B#6499). Whitlockite and monazite grains are round or elliptical, ranging in diameter from 5 to 10 µm with numerous round inclusions of nm-size. In addition, two FIB foils cut from the glass matrix were investigated. Thus, in total, twenty FIB foils were investigated in this study.

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271 EPMA element distribution mapping

272 In the three obtained EPMA maps, minor concentrations of Pb (< 10 counts per second – cps), Y (700 – 350 cps), Th (\leq 50 cps), and U (< 50 cps) were detected. 273 274 Concentration changes cannot be tracked here. Apart from Zr and Si with intensities $> 10\ 000$ 275 counts per second (cps), Y heterogeneities are detectable due to the broader range and 276 generally higher intensities of \leq 700 cps. In contrast, Pb is almost absent with intensities of \leq 277 10 cps as mentioned above. U and Th show similar intensities, but U is mostly homogeneous 278 while Th reveals patchy distribution (see Fig. S1). In grains of group 1 (Fig. S1a-b), higher 279 intensities of Y and Th and lower Si are attributed to baddeleyite, in which the Zr intensity is 280 also high (Fig. S1a). The Si-dominated Libyan Desert Glass A and B samples are 281 homogeneous for Si, Mg, Ca, and Fe. Minor Al-rich inclusions were detected by EDX.

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283 Detailed TEM observations

284 This subsection presents the detailed micro- and nanostructural observations of inclusions in LDG (zircon, former zircon, and phosphates, as well as a-cristobalite). The 285 286 presentation of each grain starts with a brief description of the grain as it is visible in the SEM 287 image before FIB sample preparation, where the cross-sectional line indicates the position of 288 the extracted FIB foil. Each SEM image is shown with the corresponding TEM high-angle 289 annular dark-field (HAADF) image as an overview image. These two images together provide 290 a three-dimensional impression of the object. ZrO₂ polymorphs, were identified using d-291 spacing and angles between adjacent lattice planes derived from the FFT patterns (Table 1).

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Group 1 (former zircon completely dissociated into baddeleyite and SiO₂). Figure
4a displays a BSE image of granular Zr-oxide in an amorphous SiO₂ matrix (B#6410). The
FIB foil (Fig. 4b) is cut normal to the thin section surface and shows Zr-oxide grains (bright)
in an amorphous SiO₂ matrix (dark). Both images (Fig. 4a-b) display (sub)round granules of

Zr-oxide with a few that are connected, forming sintering necks. Additionally, completely
isolated spherical grains of Zr-oxide are observed in the SiO₂ matrix (Fig. 4b-d). The larger
Zr-oxide grains (> 150 nm) show polysynthetic twinning, thus identifying them as baddeleyite
with the monoclinic crystal structure (Fig. 4b,d). Smaller isolated round grains (< 150 nm) are
not twinned and have a cubic crystal structure, as evidenced by their FFT diffraction patterns
(Fig. 4c,d; insets). Cubic Zr-oxide nano-grains isolated in the SiO₂ glass matrix have been
confirmed in foils B#6370, B#6382, B#6410.

304 Group 2 (zircon composed of two zones: polycrystalline zircon and baddeleyite). 305 An example from this group is shown in Figure 5a-b, FIB foil A#6376, and represents an 306 originally idiomorphic former zircon crystal ca. 10 x 7 µm in size. The left part of this grain is 307 composed of round or elongate vermicular baddeleyite grains, usually detached from each 308 other, twinned and embedded in SiO₂ glass. The intercalating SiO₂ glass contains minor 309 concentrations of Al and P (Fig. 5c). The right part of the grain consists of polycrystalline 310 zircon composed of granules that are usually $< 1 \ \mu m$ in size. While the baddeleyite domain 311 has isolated granules "floating" in the silica glass, the polycrystalline zircon part contains few 312 inclusions of SiO₂ along the boundaries between zircon granules (Fig. 5d). Individual zircon 313 granules have low dislocation density, few internal low-angle grain boundaries, and common 314 120° angles at triple junctions, thus indicating an equilibrium texture (Fig. 6a). Zircon shows 315 clear diffraction contrast in TEM bright-field images (Fig. 6a), unlike the patchy or mottled contrast typical for irradiation-damaged metamict zircon (e.g., Capitani et al., 2000). Some 316 317 zircon granules contain nm-sized (10-50 nm) inclusions of ZrO₂ and amorphous SiO₂ (Fig. 6a, 318 arrows). Very small (< 15 nm in diameter) and round inclusions of Zr-oxide in zircon have a 319 tetragonal crystal structure (Fig. 6b). No orientation relationships between tetragonal Zr-oxide 320 inclusions and the host zircon granules are observed.

321 The transition between zircon-rich and baddeleyite-rich domains of group 2 322 aggregates is gradational and contains zoned granules composed of baddeleyite cores and 323 zircon rims surrounded by the SiO_2 glass (Figs. 5d; 6c). The thickness of zircon rims in these 324 granules ranges from 30 to 50 nm. No orientation relationships between baddeleyite cores and 325 zircon rims were documented (c.f. diffraction patterns in Fig. 6d). Gaps are visible between 326 the zircon rim and the baddeleyite core in the center of Figure 6c, indicating a lack of 327 connectivity, possibly, due to a different thermal contraction during the cooling of these 328 phases and/or differences in volume. Similar effect is observed in Figure 10a between the 329 whitlockite and host silica glass.

330 Group 3 (granular neoblastic zircon). The SEM image (B#6411) in Figure 7a shows 331 a representative example of this group. The originally (sub)idiomorphic zircon grain is 332 presently polycrystalline, comprising multiple sub-µm crystals or granules of zircon (Fig. 7b). 333 In literature, such texture is referred to as "granular neoblastic zircon" (Cavosie et al. 2018a; 334 Cavosie and Koeberl 2019). The interface between zircon and SiO₂ matrix is irregular even at 335 low magnification. The central part of the crystal contains multiple bright inclusions of Zr-336 oxide and dark inclusions of amorphous SiO_2 (Fig. 7a-b). Approximately 1 μ m away from the 337 main zircon mass, in the amorphous SiO₂ matrix, several elongated drop-shaped zircon 338 aggregates are visible (Fig. 7b, arrows; 7c). Amongst these elongated neoblastic zircon 339 granules, isolated nm-sized spherical Zr-oxide inclusions are seen (Fig. 7c). Their cubic 340 structure is derived from an FFT diffraction pattern (Fig. 7c, inset).

The bright-field image Figure 8a shows a typical densely-packed microstructure of the main mass of the granular neoblastic zircon. The grain size is usually less than 1 μ m, and grains are in clusters with different orientations (Fig. 8a). The individual crystals display clear diffraction contrast without a typical patchy contrast due to irradiation damage of metamict zircon (Fig. 8a). Dislocation density is very low, with only a few low-angle grain boundaries

346 are visible. Frequent 120° angles at triple junctions suggest equilibrium conditions during 347 crystal growth. Many of the individual zircon crystals contain dark nano-inclusions of less 348 than 20 nm in diameter (Fig. 8b). These inclusions are Zr-oxide spheres with a cubic crystal 349 structure (Fig. 8c). The diffraction pattern shows that there is no orientation relationship 350 between zircon and enclosed Zr-oxide. In addition to the Zr-oxide inclusions, frequent 351 amorphous SiO₂ inclusions are present, most often located at triple junctions between zircon 352 granules. Round inclusions of SiO₂ a few tens of nanometers in diameter also occur inside 353 zircon granules.

In all six investigated FIB foils of zircon from group 3, small (< 50 nm) round inclusions of cubic Zr-oxide and larger (< 50 nm) round inclusions of tetragonal Zr-oxide are observed in zircon. In one sample (foil A#6409), spherical inclusions of Zr-oxide with orthorhombic crystal structure have been identified enclosed with zircon granules (Fig. 8b; Table 2).

359 **Phosphates.** The elliptical inclusion of whitlockite (Fig. 9a-b, FIB foil A#6378) is ca. 360 10 um in diameter. The inclusion is composed of mosaic whitlockite with multiple nm-sized 361 pores. The whitlockite phase was confirmed from its diffraction pattern (FFT) (Fig. 9d) and is 362 checked by simulating the diffraction pattern using the experimental indexing of the pattern 363 and the resulting zone axis orientation. The simulated diffraction pattern matched the 364 experimental diffraction pattern. The individual whitlockite subgrains are nm-sized and have 365 irregular shapes. The pores appeared empty, possibly due to FIB milling, and must have been 366 initially filled with fluid or gas. Additionally, multiple perfectly spherical inclusions of 367 whitlockite occur in the amorphous SiO₂ matrix, ranging from tens of nm to 300 nm in 368 diameter. EDX analyses of larger mosaic whitlockite, as well as whitlockite in smaller round 369 inclusions, show minor concentrations of Y and F, in addition to major Ca, P, and O (Fig. 9c).

370 Another mosaic whitlockite-bearing inclusion was found in foil A#6366, containing 371 many inclusions of an amorphous Al-phosphate with the chemical composition of berlinite 372 and < 200 nm in diameter (Fig. 10 a-b). Berlinite is very sensitive to electron irradiation so its 373 unknown whether it was amorphous initially, or if it was crystalline and became amorphous 374 as a result of TEM imaging. Whitlockite was confirmed by diffraction data (Fig. 10d, left). 375 Note the gap between the whitlockite aggregate and the glass matrix on the right-hand side. 376 Smaller spherical berlinite-free inclusions of whitlockite are enclosed within the SiO₂ matrix. 377 The diameter of these circular inclusions ranges from tens of nm to hundreds of nm (Fig. 10a). 378 Monazite inclusion (FIB foil B#6499) has a sub-round shape and is hosted by an 379 amorphous SiO₂ glass matrix (Fig. 11). The monazite phase was identified from diffraction 380 data and chemical composition: it contains Ce, La, Th, U, and Y as major constituents (Fig. 381 11d-e). The peaks of these elements are present in several EDX spectra of the studied 382 monazite (Fig. 11e). Dark SiO₂ glass inclusions are mostly randomly distributed within monazite and have variable sizes (few nanometers up to hundreds nanometers; Fig. 11a-c). 383 384 Some larger inclusions contain Al and P in low concentration, possibly pointing at the 385 presence of berlinite. Monazite grain contains multiple dislocations frequently pinned by 386 round or elliptical SiO₂ inclusions (Fig. 11c).

387 Cristobalite and glass matrix. Locally, the silica matrix of the LDG contains 388 volumes crystallized as intensely twinned cristobalite (Fig. 12). Such twinned cristobalite has 389 already been reported in other studies of LDG (Greshake et al. 2010, 2018). We also 390 investigated the glass matrix (FIB foils A#6374, A#6365). The SiO₂ glass is predominantly 391 composed of Si, oxygen and minor concentrations of Al, which is merely above the EDX 392 detection limit (approx. 0.2 at%) and matches the composition reported earlier (Greshake et al. 393 2010, 2018). The glass is homogeneous without any inclusions within the area of the analyzed 394 FIB foils (15 μ m x 10 μ m).

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Discussion

397 Airburst or impact?

Two main models were previously suggested for the formation of LDG. Airburst (i) would involve high-temperature fusion of surface material at relatively low pressures below 10 kPa (e.g., Brown et al. 2013). The model of airburst was proposed and discussed in several publications (Wasson 2003; Boslough and Crawford 2008) and was rejected as unrealistic, for example, by Cavosie and Koeberl (2019), who noted that massive 100 Mt-class airbursts are not documented in the terrestrial record elsewhere.

In contrast, meteorite impact (ii) would have involved both high-temperature and high-pressure conditions of target rocks deformation. This model is favored by several researchers (Kleinmann 1968; Koeberl 1997, 2000; Pratesi et al. 2002), but the indisputable evidence for shock pressure remained elusive.

408 High-temperature processes observed in LDG, such as dissociation of zircon to 409 zirconium oxide and silica, formation of α - and β -cristobalite and mullite, etc. are in 410 agreement with both (i) low-altitude airburst and (ii) impact process (El Goresy 1965; 411 Kleinmann 1968; Greshake et al. 2018; Cavosie et al. 2022) and thus are not able to resolve 412 the existing argument. The suggested former presence of reidite in LDG (in the form of 413 granular zircon) would allow shock pressures above 30 GPa, favoring the impact model 414 (Cavosie and Koeberl 2019). However, we observed no evidence for the solid-state phase 415 transition between zircon and reidite in our samples of LDG. The suggested genetic 416 relationships between zircon-reidite phase transformation and granular zircon has been 417 recently shown as non-unique interpretation (Kovaleva et al. 2021) and other mechanisms 418 other that reidite reversion exist to produce granular recrystallized zircon during shock 419 (Wittmann et al., 2006). Hence, more evidence for high-pressure LDG formation model is

420 needed.

421

422 High-pressure markers

423 Our observations provide arguments supporting both high-pressure and high-424 temperature processes related to LDG formation. The nanocrystalline ZrO₂ with orthorhombic 425 Pnma cotunnite (PbCl₂) structure, also known as Ortho-II or OII (e.g., Ohtaka et al. 1991; 426 Haines et al. 1995; Bouvier et al. 2000), was identified in zircon from FIB foil A#6409 (Fig. 427 8b) and is a high-pressure phase. Its pressure stability field lies between 12.5-24 GPa, and it is 428 stable under temperature up to 1800 °C (Liu 1980; Block et al. 1985; Ohtaka et al. 1991, 429 2001; Haines et al. 1995). Orthorhombic ZrO_2 is metastable under atmospheric pressure 430 (Suyama et al. 1985) and is considered to be non-quenchable at ambient conditions. It can, 431 however, be preserved in ultrafine grains only, by quenching at high temperature and high-432 pressure experimental conditions (Block et al. 1985; Ohtaka et al. 1991; Bouvier et al. 2000).

433 Darling et al. (2016) suggested that high-pressure phases of ZrO_2 can be preserved as 434 the nanometer-size lattice fragments or inclusions in natural impactites. Previously, possible 435 presence of the OII ZrO₂ polymorph was reported by Wittmann et al. (2006), who 436 documented weak Raman bands of this phase in former zircon aggregates, partially 437 decomposed to ZrO₂. OII polymorph was suggested to represent evidence of high-pressure decomposition, and to be preserved in rapidly-quenched impact melt domains from Ries and 438 439 Chicxulub craters. However, due to the low spectral resolution, the full Raman bands 440 characteristics of this phase was not possible (Wittmann et al. 2006). Former presence of 441 orthorhombic ZrO₂ polymorph was reconstructed from Sudbury polycrystalline baddeleyite 442 grains using the method of phase heritage reconstruction (White et al. 2018), and was also 443 suggested to be present in shergottite (Martian meteorite, Darling et al. 2016). Hence, the

presence of such ZrO₂ polymorph in impact-related rocks was expected and finding it was
only a matter of time and methods.

446 Our report of the high-pressure orthorhombic phase of ZrO_2 might be the first direct 447 observation of the orthorhombic OII polymorph of ZrO_2 in nature (e.g., White et al. 2018). On 448 the other hand, our finding of the OII phase of Zr-oxide in GDL samples is a direct evidence 449 of its high-pressure impact origin.

450

451 High-temperature markers

The observed phases of ZrO_2 (specifically cubic, tetragonal, and monoclinic) and phosphates, as well as microstructures provide a series of temperature markers for our samples. However, we assume that the implied reactions had occurred in non-equilibrium conditions, and the observed melting was incipient and non-congruent while crystallization was non-equilibrium; therefore, cited temperatures derived from equilibrium phase diagrams are used as approximations only.

458 The appearance of rounded baddelevite aggregates in textures of groups 1 and 2 (Fig. 459 3) and the presence of ZrO_2 and SiO_2 inclusions in zircon granules from groups 2 and 3 (Figs. 460 6a, 7a, 8a) point at the presence of two phases – Zr-oxide (in solid or molten stage) and silica 461 melt, coexisting as an emulsion. If Zr-oxide was in a molten state, the temperature within the 462 LDG must have exceeded the melting temperature of zirconia, which is 2700-2750 °C under 463 equilibrium conditions (Nassau 1981; Kaiser et al. 2008). Moreover, the immiscibility of two 464 liquids in the ZrO₂-SiO₂ system exists under conditions of congruent melting in the interval of 465 ca. 2250-2700 °C (Kaiser et al. 2008; Kwon and Jung 2017). The cited temperatures closely 466 approach the vaporization temperature of the host SiO₂, which is estimated at 2866-2884 °C 467 (Schnurre et al. 2004; Melosh 2007). Local boiling of SiO₂ material can explain vesiculated 468 texture observed in many samples of LDG (Fig. 1c). It should be noted that the emulsion

textures in LDG were reported before, being interpreted as a result of the silicate-silicate liquid immiscibility (Pratesi et al. 2002). Silica glass would have been highly viscous in such emulsions (Diemer 1997), mostly preserving the coexisting melts in a single pool with a few exceptions, where the aggregates of Zr-bearing pools are visibly separated (e.g., Fig. 2).

473 The coexistence of Zr-oxide nano-spheres with cubic and tetragonal structure with twinned baddeleyite grains of larger size (Fig. 4) indicate that Zr-oxide had originally 474 475 crystallized in cubic structure and transformed into tetragonal and finally twinned monoclinic 476 structure during cooling (e.g., Cayron et al. 2010). It should be mentioned that apart from 477 direct observation of relict cubic and tetragonal phases (Kovaleva et al. 2021; this paper), 478 another method to identify precursor phases for baddeleyite is a phase-heritage reconstruction 479 approach using electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) mapping. Specific crystallographic 480 relationships between grains in polycrystalline baddeleyite possibly point at the phase 481 transition from cubic to tetragonal and further to monoclinic or orthorhombic ZrO₂ (Timms et 482 al. 2017; White et al. 2018). Although we have not employed EBSD technique in our study, 483 we obtained the same conclusions by direct observations of these phases in nano-particles.

484 In ZrO₂ grains larger than 150 nm, phase transformation of cubic zirconia to tetragonal 485 zirconia should have taken place at 2370 °C (Subbarao 1981; Block et al. 1985). Tetragonal 486 structure had been stable in the temperature interval of $2370^{\circ}C - 1687^{\circ}C$ (e.g., Kaiser et al. 487 2008). The intense polysynthetic twinning in baddeleyite is a common feature that results 488 from phase transformation from tetragonal to monoclinic structure (McCullough and 489 Trueblood 1959), and is described in literature on ceramic materials (Jin 2005; Chevalier et al. 490 2009). The cubic and tetragonal crystal structures were preserved in nano-spheres of Zr-oxide 491 of < 150 nm in diameter only, where the nanometer size of the spheres prevents them from 492 phase transformation (Kovaleva et al. 2021). Such behavior of nanocrystalline material is 493 known from nanocrystalline Fe, which transforms from α -iron (bcc) into γ -iron (fcc) upon

494 heating above 912°C. The reverse phase transformation occurs during subsequent cooling, but

the high-temperature fcc structure is preserved in nanocrystalline Fe grains (Gleiter 1989).

496 We also observed an inclusion of monazite in amorphous silica. No lamellae or 497 polysynthetic twins were observed in monazite, which could have been attributed to the 498 former existence of a shock-produced high-pressure (La,Ce,Th)PO₄ polymorph. Such 499 polymorph was inferred from systematically oriented lamellae in monazite from the 500 Nördlinger Ries Crater in Germany, and Haughton Dome, Nunavut in Canada (Erickson et al. 501 2019). In contrast, the spherical shape of monazite inclusion in our sample indicates that 502 molten droplet(s) of phosphate melt has been enclosed in a silica melt pool. Complete melting 503 is further supported by the presence of small – up to a few tens of nanometers – amorphous 504 SiO₂ spherical inclusions in monazite (Fig. 11). The evidence for the monazite in situ melting 505 was documented in LDG previously (Fröhlich et al. 2013) and microstructures indicate 506 unmixing of two co-existing melts: SiO₂ melt and phosphorus-rich melt. The melting point of 507 natural monazite is in the range of $1900 - 2100^{\circ}$ C in equilibrium conditions (e.g., 2057° C ± 508 40 °C, Hikichi and Nomura 2005), which provides the next temperature marker for our 509 samples.

510 Furthermore, numerous spherical or drop-like inclusions of other phosphates 511 (whitlockite and amorphous berlinite) in the amorphous silica matrix have been detected. 512 Crystalline berlinite has the structure of quartz and is analogues to it, and both SiO₂ and 513 AlPO₄ phases are present as amorphous material in our samples. However, it is not clear if 514 berlinite was amorphous initially or became amorphous as a result of electron beam treatment. 515 The size of these inclusions is in the range of tens of nanometers up to several micrometers. 516 Like monazite, microstructures and textures in whitlockite indicate the complete melting of 517 this phosphate and its existence in emulsion with silica melt (Figs. 9b; 10a). The melting 518 temperature of whitlockite is approximately 1400°C (McCubbin et al. 2017).

519

520 Zircon and former zircon textures observed in LDG

521 According to Cavosie and Koeberl (2019), three populations of zircon/former zircon 522 occur within samples of LDG: (1) zircon grains with granular neoblastic domains interpreted 523 as "the oldest generation of zircon"; (2) zircon grains wholly dissociated to baddeleyite and 524 SiO₂; and (3) "dissociated grains that back-reacted with melt to form the second generation of 525 neoblastic zircon" interpreted as the youngest generation of zircon. Texturally, population (1) 526 corresponds to our group 3; population (2) corresponds to our group 1, and population (3) 527 likely corresponds to our group 2. Note that we did not use the nomenclature suggested by 528 Cavosie and Koeberl (2019) because we suggest a different formation sequence for the zircon/former zircon textures observed in LDG based on nano-structural observations. 529 530 According to our data, three groups/generations of zircon represent snapshots of the same 531 evolutionary path with different cooling histories, where completely dissociated into ZrO_2 532 grains (group 1) is the earliest generation, and the granular neoblastic zircon grains (group 3) 533 is the latest crystallized grains/aggregates.

534 Group 1. This population (population 2 by Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) represents the 535 immediate quenching of LDG glass after the impact-related pressure-temperature pulse. 536 Presently, the former zircon grains have been completely transformed into baddeleyite with 537 intensely twinned vermicular crystals surrounded by SiO₂ glass (Fig. 4b, d). Similar textures 538 have been reported from LDG before (Kleinmann 1968; Fröhlich et al. 2013; Cavosie and 539 Koeberl 2019), as well as from impact glasses, tectites, melts and suevites (e.g., El Goresy 540 1965; Wittmann et al. 2006; Tolometti et al. 2022), and also fulgurites - the products of 541 lightning strikes (Kenny and Pasek 2021). Such textures are consistently explained as zircon 542 breakdown into tetragonal ZrO₂ and cristobalite/SiO₂ melt that at ambient pressure happens at temperatures over 1673 ± 10 °C with eutectic temperature of 1687 ± 10 °C (e.g., Kaiser et al. 543

544 2008). In experiments, these dissociation textures were produced by heating of zircon at 545 1600-1700°C and its resulting decomposition into columnar or dendritic particles of ZrO_2 546 coated by a film of amorphous SiO₂ phase (Kaiser et al. 2008).

Our TEM observations not only show the dissociation of zircon into ZrO_2 and SiO_2 , but, at least locally, the complete melting of Zr-oxide and silica, thus indicating temperatures over 2750 °C (see section 5.3). The argument for the melting of Zr-oxide is the round shape of ZrO₂ crystals both as inclusions in newly crystallized zircon (e.g., Fig. 8c), and spheres isolated in SiO₂ glass (Figs. 4c-d; 7c). We suppose that liquid Zr-oxide and silica melt have segregated, thus forming immiscible emulsion, resulting in quenched droplets of Zr-oxide melt within silica melt.

554 There are no reliable data on Zr saturation in silica melt at such high temperatures. It 555 can be expected from the existing data that, providing sufficient time, a large fraction of Zr 556 dissolved in silica at a temperature below the immiscibility field (< ca. 2250 °C) because 557 dissolution of Zr is temperature-dependent (Watson and Harrison 1983; Boehnke et al. 2013; 558 Gervasoni et al. 2016: Shao et al. 2020). For example, in a recent experimental study, in a 559 temperature range of 1150-1500 °C, the concentration of Zr in silicate glasses varied from 560 0.454 up to 6.137 wt% (Borisov and Aranovich 2019). Thus, local melting and crystallization 561 of ZrO_2 within the sampled LDG must have happened instantaneously so that only a 562 negligible fraction of ZrO₂ from group 1 aggregates was dissolved in SiO₂ as indicated by the 563 composition of the host silica glass. Locally, zircon could have decomposed into solid ZrO₂ 564 and liquid SiO₂, as predicted to happen above 1687 ± 10 °C. Here again it must be 565 emphasized that shock (incongruent) melting is caused by non-equilibrium conditions within 566 different microenvironments.

567 Our observations of group 1 prove rapid heating and decomposition or partial melting 568 of zircon followed by rapid melting of Zr-oxide, which, at least locally, forms droplets of

569 oxide melt in silica melt. Because of the extremely short time of the heating event, re-570 equilibration was impossible, and Zr mostly remained contained in Zr-oxide melt/solid. 571 During cooling, Zr-oxide crystallizes first with a cubic structure, which is preserved only in 572 the nm-sized inclusions. The larger droplets of cubic zirconia (> 150 nm) experienced a phase 573 transformation into a tetragonal and subsequently stable monoclinic structure.

574 Unlike common textures documented in Ries and Aouelloul glasses (El Goresy 1965), 575 we did not observe extensive baddeleyite schlieren around the decomposed zircons that would 576 be indicative of glass flow. We documented only minor pull-apart textures (Fig. 2), which are 577 not as extensive as in cited glasses. Hence, the host LDG solidified very rapidly with 578 minimum displacement, confirming the fast quenching.

579 Group 2. This group (population 3 by Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) represents initially 580 idiomorphic zircon grains that are now composed of two domains: dense polycrystalline 581 zircon and baddeleyite granules separated by areas of SiO₂ glass (Fig. 5a-b). In the 582 transitional zone between two domains, we observed granules with ZrO₂ cores and thin zircon rims (Figs. 5d; 6c). The pre-existing zircon grains have been dissociated into ZrO₂, which was 583 584 likely partly molten, as seen from the shapes of baddeleyite grains and presence on micro- and 585 nano-inclusions of ZrO₂ and SiO₂ within the granular zircon domain. Just as for group 1, the 586 observed textures indicate the presence of two immiscible melts, SiO_2 and ZrO_2 , at a certain 587 stage of LDG evolution. One part of the ZrO_2 pool cooled down and was quenched rapidly, 588 thus demonstrating the same textures as in group 1.

However, the transitional zone experienced annealing or was not immediately quenched, causing a diffusion reaction between ZrO_2 and SiO_2 components of the system, which backreacted forming $ZrSiO_4$ rims around the ZrO_2 (Fig. 6c). Such textures, with ZrO_2 cores and zircon rims enclosed in SiO_2 matrix, are observed in natural impact glasses (e.g., Tolometti et al. 2022), and in experiments where $ZrSiO_4$ was decomposed by annealing and

then quenched, suppressing the reverse reaction (e.g., Curtis and Sowman 1953; Kaiser et al.
2008). Upon further experimental annealing at 1500°C, ZrO₂ is almost entirely consumed,
leaving behind small round particles embedded in zircon, while the nucleating zircon grains
start sintering (Kaiser et al. 2008).

The domain with granular zircon cooled down even slower, or were annealed, allowing most of the Zr to dissolve in silica and crystallize as granular zircon. The average grain size of newly grown zircon is $< 1\mu$ m, and nanometer-sized spherical inclusions of amorphous silica are common. The Zr-oxide nano-inclusions in zircon occasionally preserve a tetragonal structure, indicating temperature drop from 2750 °C down to 2370 °C, the temperature of tetragonal zirconia stability.

Group 3. Group 3 (population 1 by Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) represents granular
zircon, with granules containing inclusions of Zr-oxide and amorphous silica (Fig. 7a-b).
Similar neoblastic zircon aggregates were reported from impact glasses and melts (e.g.,
Wittmann et al. 2006, 2009; Cavosie et al. 2018a; Hauser et al. 2019), as well as tektites
(Cavosie et al. 2018b), and their presence suggests the possibility of dating of the shock event
(e.g., Kenny et al. 2017, 2019; Erickson et al. 2020; Hauser et al. 2019).

610 Witmann et al. (2006) noted that granular zircon aggregates could result from: (i) a 611 back-reaction of ZrO_2 with SiO₂ during evolution of impact melts, (ii) by reversion of reidite 612 to zircon but without decomposition to ZrO₂, or (iii) by heating and crystallization of the 613 diaplectic zircon glass. All three mechanisms are the result of thermal annealing. According 614 to the mechanism (i) suggested by Wittmann et al. (2006), based on the ubiquitous presence 615 of ZrO_2 particles, we conclude that this textural group is the last member of the same 616 evolutionary path recorded by groups 1 and 2, but represents a longer and slower cooling 617 history accompanied by annealing. Thus, most of the ZrO₂ back-reacted with SiO₂ to form 618 polycrystalline zircon aggregates. The abundance of round ZrO₂ and SiO₂ inclusions within

the zircon granules might indicate the former melt presence, and cubic and orthorhombic ZrO₂ nano-inclusions provide high-temperature and high-pressure markers accordingly. Zircon rims documented around ZrO_2 grains represent a snapshot of this process (Figs. 5d, 6c). Similar crystallization into granular zircon has been reported recently within a sample from the Vredefort impact structure (Kovaleva et al. 2021).

Crystallization of zircon granules due to dissolution/backreaction of isolated grains of ZrO₂ (Fig. 4a-b) might explain the granular nature of zircon aggregates, i.e., each zircon granule nucleates around a single ZrO_2 droplet. The presence and elongated tear-drop shapes of isolated zircon grains in the SiO₂ matrix (Fig. 7c) closely resemble the isolated baddeleyite crystals from group 1 aggregates (Fig. 3a), suggesting their genetic relationships.

Textural group 3 cannot represent the oldest group suggested earlier. The presence of ZrO₂ and SiO₂ inclusions in zircon granules even in the center of an aggregate indicate that these phases existed before the observed zircon and were captured during its growth (Fig. 8ab). Thus, aggregates from group 3 went through the entire cycle: zircon \rightarrow ZrO₂ + SiO₂ \rightarrow zircon. Transition zones in group 2 clearly illustrate the direction of this reaction (Fig. 6c). We do not exclude that before decomposition to oxides, zircon was transformed to reidite (Cavosie and Koeberl 2019), however, there are no preserved indicators.

636 Occasionally observed roughly systematic orientation of zircon granules (e.g., Cavosie 637 et al. 2018a; Cavosie and Koeberl 2019) in granular neoblastic zircon can be explained by 638 crystallographic control on newly-growing zircon granules of pre-existing ZrO₂ grains. 639 However, we did not observe any crystallographic relationships between ZrO_2 and newly 640 formed zircon granules in LDG, and the presence or absence of such relationships needs to be 641 investigated more closely. Another possible option is, for example, the surface energy effects 642 (e.g., growth twinning, parallel growth, synneusis, etc.; see Kovaleva et al. 2021), which 643 would be feasible in case of crystallization form melt. The high Si and low K, Na, and Ca

abundances in the host melt (Fig. 5c) and the general disequilibrium state of the system could have allowed for zircon to crystallize at high temperatures within a partially liquid environment. The compositional parameter of the host environment M = [(K + Na + 2Ca)/(Al*Si)], which, under static conditions, affects zircon crystallization temperature, is rather high to increase the temperature of zircon nucleation (e.g., Harrison et al. 2007).

The presence of three types/groups of (former) zircon textures shows the difference in cooling temperature and implies that the thermal gradient in LDG was extreme. This thermal gradient produced various textures across the distance of just a few micrometers (Figs. 3b; 5), which indicates that the heat loss of LDG during cooling was related mainly to radiation with little convection or conduction. Further studies of thermal profiles and numerical modeling would shed more light on the cooling processes in LDG.

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- 656

Implications

657 The presented data of the TEM investigation of the LDG supports a high-temperature 658 event with a complete decomposition of zircon into ZrO_2 and SiO_2 and subsequent melting of 659 Zr oxide, implying a temperature exceeding 2750 °C, approaching the SiO₂ boiling 660 temperature. At these conditions, Zr oxide and silica formed solid/liquid or liquid/liquid 661 suspensions that subsequently were either quenched as an emulsion or dissolved in each other 662 upon slower cooling, back-reacting to form granular zircon. The microstructures observed in 663 three different groups of (former) zircon aggregates in LDG can be explained by a high-664 temperature event and varying cooling rates conditioned by extreme thermal gradient within 665 the LDG. In addition, complete melting of phosphates whitlockite and monazite and the 666 presence of spherical inclusions of amorphous berlinite in one of the whitlockite aggregates 667 support the ultrahigh-temperature model of the LDG formation. The high-pressure nature of 668 the event is proved by the occurrence of quenched nano-inclusions of orthorhombic $ZrO_2 - a$

669 rare high-pressure polymorph and thus supports the high-pressure model proposed by Cavosie 670 and Koeberl (2019). 671 Our study demonstrates that the impact crater responsible for the LDG formation is 672 yet to be recognized and its cooling mechanism is to be modelled. On the other hand, it shows 673 that there are other mechanisms for granular zircon formation other than a solid-state phase transition to reidite and back to zircon and that such microstructures by itself indicate rather 674 shock-related high temperature events and not shock pressures. We emphasise the importance 675 676 of TEM studies in understanding of such complicated deformation features as shock-related 677 deformations in accessory minerals. 678 679 Acknowledgments 680 The Alexander von Humboldt Foundation has provided funding for this research to 681 E.K. We acknowledge anonymous reviewers and the editor for their constructive comments 682 and interesting discussion. 683 684 Supplementary material 685 Figure S1. Chemical maps of selected (former) zircon grains from the LDG; (a) and 686 (\mathbf{b}) – grains group 1; (\mathbf{c}) – grain group 3. 687 688 References 689 Abate, B., Koeberl, C., Kruger, F.J., and Underwood, J.R. Jr. (1999) BP and Oasis impact 690 structures, Libya, and their relation to Libyan Desert Glass. In B.O. Dressler and V.L. 691 Sharpton, Eds., Large Meteorite Impacts and Planetary Evolution, II, p. 177-192. 692 Geological Society of America Special Paper, 339, Boulder, Colorado. 693 Aboud, T. (2009) Libyan Desert Glass: has the enigma of its origin been resolved? Physics

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973 Figure captions

974

975 Figure 1. Sampling location and samples. (a) Northern Africa with the area of interest shown 976 by the red rectangle. Inset shows larger context of the sampling area. (b) Area of sample 977 collection showing a vertical border between Libya and Egypt in the center. Two sites labeled 978 "BP" and "Oasis" in southeast of Libya are the nearest described impact structures (e.g., 979 Abate et al., 1999). LDG strewn field is marked by an ellipse in west of Egypt. Maps are 980 created from Qgis. (c) Photographs of two studied samples that represent small (2-3 cm) 981 angular fragments of yellow transparent to translucent glass. Air vesicles are visible inside.

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Figure 2. BSE images of ZrO₂ (a) and zircon (b) granular aggregates (bright) enclosed within
the SiO₂ glass (dark). Both aggregates appear to be stretched and pulled apart. Aggregate in
(a) was studied in a FIB foil A#6408, aggregate in (b) was studied in a FIB foil A#6409.

985 Figure 3. Examples of three textural groups of Zr-bearing mineral aggregates in TEM foils 986 (all images are HAADF). (a) Group 1 - isolated elliptical granules of ZrO_2 (bright) 987 surrounded by SiO₂ glass (dark). No zircon phase is observed. Foil B#6379. (b) Group 2 -988 texture comprises two domains: granular zircon with densely packed granules (top) and ZrO₂-989 SiO_2 emulsion with disconnected ZrO₂ grains (bottom). The transition between two domains 990 is gradual. Foil B#6371. (c) Group 3 - granular aggregate of zircon. Inclusions of ZrO_2 and 991 SiO₂ are visible as bright and dark particles accordingly inside the zircon granular mass. Foil 992 A#6377. Presumably, all three textural group developed after single grains of zircon.

993 Figure 4. Details of textural group 1 (isolated granules of ZrO₂ in SiO₂ glass), FIB foil 994 B#6410. (a) BSE image of the studied aggregate, white line shows the position of the TEM 995 foil. (b) TEM FIB foil overview. Isolated elliptical, dumbbell-shaped or spherical grains of 996 ZrO_2 (bright) are enclosed into SiO₂ glass (dark). Larger ZrO_2 grains are baddeleyite, 997 indicated by their twinned texture. The HAADF image. Boxes mark the positions of images 998 (c) and (d). (c) BF and (d) HAADF images of spherical inclusions of cubic zirconia (round) 999 close up, with their FFT diffraction patterns in the insets. FFT patterns point at cubic 1000 symmetry of these crystals. The grain in (c) has a [001] zone axis, and the one in (d) has a [-

1001 101] zone axis orientation.

Figure 5. Details of textural group 2, foil A#6376. (**a**) BSE image of the studied aggregate, isolated grains of baddeleyite are at the left, and packed granular zircon is at the right. White line shows the position of the TEM foil. (**b**) TEM FIB foil overview. Baddeleyite crystals are the brightest, zircon grains are intermediate-grey and SiO₂ glass is the darkest in this HAADF image. (**c**) EDX spectrum of host SiO₂ glass (obtained with TEM). Minor peaks of P and Al

1007 are observed, Cu peaks are from the copper grid that is holding the FIB foil. (d) Close-up 1008 image of the transition zone. The grey contrast represents zircon, the dark contrast stands for 1009 amorphous SiO_2 , and the bright contrast shows baddeleyite. Some baddeleyite grains have 1010 zircon rims, zircon mass in the upper right has small inclusions of baddeleyite and SiO_2 glass. 1011 HAADF Z-contrast image.

1012 Figure 6. More details on aggregate shown in Figure 5, foil A#6376. (a) Granular zircon 1013 domain up-close. Triple junctions are visible between the granules (circles). Zr-oxide 1014 spherical inclusions in zircon appear as dark contrast spots because of the higher absorption of 1015 electrons (black arrows). The amorphous SiO_2 inclusions have a brighter contrast than the 1016 zircon matrix because of lower electron absorption (white arrows). BF image. (b) High-1017 resolution image of the representative example of tetragonal ZrO_2 inclusion that is 1018 approximately 18 nm in diameter and has a rectangular shape (BF image). Lattice fringes are 1019 visible (subvertical rows). The FFT diffraction pattern is shown in the inset, demonstrating 1020 tetragonal symmetry of the crystal. Additional diffraction spots in the diffraction pattern result 1021 from the zircon matrix. (c) A detailed view of the round baddeleyite grains (dark) rimmed 1022 with the nm-thick zircon layer (intermediate-grey, arrow) surrounded by SiO₂ glass (light-1023 grey). BF image. (d) FFT diffraction patterns of different domains visible in (c): zircon rims 1024 (top) that are observed around baddeleyite cores (bottom). Numbers indicate the orientation of 1025 crystallographic planes.

Figure 7. Details of textural group 3, foil B#6411. (a) BSE image of the studied grain hosted
by SiO₂ glass. Sub-µm inclusions visible inside zircon are SiO₂ glass (dark) ZrO₂ (bright).
White line shows the position of the TEM foil. (b) TEM FIB foil overview displays the
vertical extension of the originally idiomorphic zircon grain (now granular aggregate).
Granules are densely packed, dark and bright inclusions are SiO₂ glass and ZrO₂ accordingly.
The HAADF image. Bright vermicular and round inclusions are visible in matrix around the

aggregate. Box shows the position of image (c), with the details of the matrix. (c) Close-up
portion of the glassy matrix, BF image. Vermicular grains are zircon, dark spherical inclusion
is cubic zirconia with its FFT diffraction pattern shown in the inset.

Figure 8. More details on textural group 3. (a) BF image showing a typical densely-packed microstructure of the main mass of the granular neoblastic zircon. Triple junctions between granules are ubiquitous, and black arrows point at dark nano-inclusions of ZrO₂. (b) Granular zircon at the interface with the SiO₂ glass with inclusions of orthorhombic ZrO₂. Foil A#6409, BF image. The diffraction pattern of the orthorhombic ZrO₂ is shown in the inset. (c) Highresolution image of cubic zirconia inclusion with visible lattice fringes, BF image. The FFT diffraction pattern in on the right.

Figure 9. (a) BSE image of the elliptical whitlockite grain, white line shows the position of the TEM foil A#6378. (b) HAADF Z-contrast image showing the FIB foil overview of a corresponding cross-section through this inclusion. Main whitlockite grain is mosaic, i.e., is composed of subgrains, and has multiple dark nm-size pores. Smaller spherical inclusions of whitlockite are distributed in the host glass matrix. (c) EDX spectrum of the whitlockite (obtained with TEM), showing its chemical composition. (d) FFT diffraction pattern of whitlockite.

Figure 10. (a) TEM FIB foil overview of the mosaic whitlockite grain with spherical amorphous inclusions with berlinite composition. Foil A #6366, HAADF image Z-contrast image. (b) Close-up view of interior of whitlockite with amorphous inclusions with berlinite composition (dark) and subgrain boundaries (bright lines), HAADF image Z-contrast image. (c) EDX spectrum compositionally corresponding to berlinite – Al-phosphate (obtained with TEM). (d) FFT diffraction patterns of whitlockite (crystalline, sharp diffraction points) and amorphous berlinite (no diffraction points).

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- 1056 Figure 11. (a) BSE image of mosaic monazite (bright) with SiO₂ inclusions (dark), enclosed in SiO₂ glass matrix. Black line shows the position of the FIB foil B#6499. (b) The HAADF 1057 1058 image displaying the FIB foil cut normal to the SEM surface demonstrates that the monazite 1059 inclusion is nearly spherical and contains spherical inclusions of SiO₂ (dark). (c) Close-up 1060 image showing the SiO₂ inclusions and low-angle boundaries inside the monazite, BF image. 1061 (d) FFT diffraction pattern of monazite with indexed planes. (e) EDX spectra of monazite, 1062 obtained with TEM, showing its chemical composition. 1063 Figure 12. BF image of intensely twinned cristobalite with its FFT diffraction pattern in the
- 1064 inset in lower right.





Granular zircon

SiO₂ glass







-igure 4



-igure 5









-igure 9







Whitlockite

100 nm









ZrO ₂	Space	a ₀	b ₀	C ₀	α	β	γ
polymorph	group						
Baddeleyite	P 1 21/c 1	5.1827 Å	5.21168 Å	5.3731 Å	90°	98.83°	90°
(monoclinic)							
Tetragonal	P 42/n m	3.6358 Å	3.6358 Å	5.2257 Å	90°	90°	90°
	c Z						
Cubic	F m -3 m	5.1291 Å	5.1291 Å	5.1291 Å	90°	90°	90°
Orthorhombic	Pnam	5.5873 Å	6.4847 Å	3.3298 Å	90°	90°	90°

Table 1. Lattice cell parameters of various polymorphs of ZrO_2 that were used to identify the phases (Boysen et al. 1991, monoclinic; Martin et al. 1993, tetragonal and cubic; Haines et al. 1995, 1997, orthorhombic).

Analyzed image	Measured d-spacing (Å)	Calculated (theoretical) d-spacing (Å)	Corresponding lattice plane	Two adjacent planes	Measured angle (°)	Calculated (theoretical) angle (°)
FFT of HREM09	6.76	6.484	(010)	011 001	24	27.18
	3.06	3.3298	(001)	011 010	63.5	62.82
	2.88	2.962	(011)	0ī 1 001	26	27.18
	2.75	2.962	(011)	0ī 1 010	66	62.82
FFT of HREM10	4.63	4.2325	(110)	101 110	68.6	67.18
	3.13	2.962	(011)	101 0ī 1	39	40.17
	3.05	2.8603	(101)	12 ī 110	45	43.72
	2.24	2.1449	(12 ī)	12 ī 01ī	28	28.93

Table 2. Lattice cell parameters of orthorhombic OII ZrO₂ polymorph, measured vs. theoretical after Haines et al. (1995, 1997).