1	Multispectroscopic methodology to study Libyan Desert Glass and its
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4	Leticia Gomez-Nubla ¹ , Julene Aramendia ¹ , Silvia Fdez-Ortiz de Vallejuelo ¹ , Ainhoa
5	Alonso-Olazabal ² , Kepa Castro ¹ , M ^a Cruz Zuluaga ² , Luis Ángel Ortega ² , Xabier
6	Murelaga ³ , Juan Manuel Madariaga ¹
7	¹ Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of the
8	Basque Country UPV/EHU, P.O.Box 644, 48080 Bilbao, Spain
9	² Department of Mineralogy and Petrology, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of
10	the Basque Country UPV/EHU, P.O.Box 644, 48080 Bilbao, Spain
11	³ Departament of Stratigraphy and Palaeontology, Faculty of Science and Technology,
12	University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU, P.O.Box 644, 48080 Bilbao, Spain
13	
14	*Address correspondence to leticia.gomez@ehu.eus (L. Gómez-Nubla),
15	silvia.fernandez@ehu.eus (S. Fdez-Ortiz de Vallejuelo)
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17	Abstract
18	The Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is a melt product whose origin is still a matter
19	of controversy. With the purpose of adding new information about this enigma, the
20	present paper analyzes the inner part of the LDG specimens and compares it with the
21	results of the LDG surfaces. An integrated analytical methodology was used combining
22	different techniques such as Raman spectroscopy, in point-by-point and imaging modes,
23	Scanning Electron Microscopy with X-ray microanalysis (SEM-EDS), Energy-
24	Dispersive Micro X-ray Fluorescence spectrometry (µ-EDXRF), Electron Probe Micro
25	Analyzer (EPMA) and optical cathodeluminescence (Optical-CL). According to our

results, flow structures of the melt and the amorphous nature of the matrix could be 26 27 discerned. Moreover, the observed displacement of the Raman bands, such as the cases of quartz and zircon, and the identification of certain compounds such as coesite (the 28 29 most clarifying phase of high pressures), α -cristobalite, gypsum, anhydrite, corundum, rutile, amorphous calcite, aragonite and calcite allowed us to know that LDGs could be 30 subjected to shock pressures between 6 and more than 30 GPa, and temperatures 31 between 300 and 1470°C. The differences of temperature and pressure would be 32 provoked by different cooling process during the impact. Besides, in most cases the 33 minerals corresponding to high pressure and temperatures were located in the inner part 34 35 of the LDGs, with some exceptions that could be explained because they were trapped 36 subsequently to the impact; there was more than one impact or heterogeneous cooling.

Furthermore, nitrogen and oxygen gases were identified inside bubbles, which could have been introduced from the terrestrial atmosphere during the meteorite impact.

39 These data helped us to clarify some clues about the origin of these enigmatic40 samples.

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42 **KEYWORDS:** Libyan Desert Glass; impact melt; mineralogy; analytical methodology.

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44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is an enigmatic type of impact glass that was firstly documented by Patrick A. Clayton in 1933. Clayton and Spencer first published a scientific report on LDG that led to its official discovery [1]. Since then, many field expeditions have been carried out and more than 200 tonnes of LDG have been collected [2]. They are scattered over an area of 6500 km² located in north –south-

trending inter-dune channels between the Great Sand Sea and the Gilf Kebir Plateau 51 52 around the Western Desert of Egypt, near the Libyan border [2-4]. They are mainly concentrated in two zones: a larger ring-shaped area in the south and a smaller oval area 53 in the north [2]. These lithologies are of the Cretaceous Nubian Formation outcrop. 54 Similarities between these sandstones and the LDG composition should clarify the 55 fusion of the ground material. However, the lithologic variation of these sandstones 56 57 makes difficult to identify them as the origin of LDGs [5, 6]. LDGs were found to a depth of ~ 2 m, and the deeper they are located, the bigger they are [7]. Their weight 58 goes from less than 1g up to over 25 Kg [2]. Its formation age was determined by 59 60 fission track analysis, which indicated ranges from 28.5±2.3 to 29.4±0.5 My [8]. The distribution of LDG fragments could be the result of fluvial transport that occurred 61 throughout the Oligocene boundary, where there was a humid climate with high 62 63 quantity of precipitation in lacustrine environment or coastal seawater [9-11]. In general, LDG is a compact hard glassy rock, transparent, yellowish or greenish, 64 65 sometimes dark or milky. Chemically, bulk LDG has concentrations of approximately 98 wt% SiO₂ [12]. In addition, it can have other compounds. It usually contains air 66 bubbles, cristobalite inclusions and dark or brown inclusions appearing as streaks, 67 ribbons, misty waves or simply solid spots, possibly derived by melting or 68 decomposition of iron oxides. The concentrations of components are highly variable. 69 Inclusion grain sizes can vary between 0.1 to 0.3 mm in diameter, occasionally up to 1 70 71 mm [2-4, 13].

The origin of LDG is controversial and there are two main theories among other hypothesis. One of them states that its genesis is related to an impact of an extraterrestrial body into the sedimentary materials causing its fusion [7, 14]. The second one considers the formation of LDG as the result of a low-altitude explosion of

an extraterrestrial body in the atmosphere, generating a thermal pulse (airburst) and 76 77 causing the melting of surface [15, 16]. Both theories have been instilled with numerous non-conclusive experimental results. The impact origin of the LDG is supported by the 78 79 presence of schlieren structures, planar deformation features, partly digested mineral phases, high pressure-temperature mineral phases and non-crystalline phases formed 80 during shock metamorphism. In addition, abundance patterns of platinum-group 81 82 elements (Ru, Rh, Pd, Os, Ir, and Pb), a reduced state of iron-rich portions, graphite-rich bands in the glasses, iridium content and, finally, osmium (¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os), strontium 83 (⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr), argon (⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar) and neodymium (¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd) isotopic ratio values have 84 85 been regarded as the fingerprints of the supposed primitive meteoritic matter in the 86 LDGs [2, 4, 6,17-20].

To confirm both theories, a crater should be localized in the area. However, the location of such a crater is difficult to resolve because it would be covered by the Great Sand Sea desert or it would be destroyed by erosion [4, 16]. Despite this fact, the existence of the geoform called Kebira has been considered as possible crater and source of LDGs [7]. Nevertheless, the study of the crater concluded that the impact probably happened 100 million years ago approximately [21] and the LDG was formed 28.5 million years ago, therefore they would not coincide in time as LDGs are younger.

In spite of the controversy, a greater number of scientists came to terms with the origin of the LDGs caused by an impact of an extraterrestrial body over the sand or sandstone, which would be deposited in lacustrine environment or coastal seawater, the fusion of material with the meteoritic component and its subsequent solidification [5,7,12,14].

99 This work aims to find new experimental evidences following a100 multispectroscopic methodology, looking at the mineralogy of the matrix, inclusions,

cavities and bubbles in the internal and external parts of LDG specimens to ascertain the
formation conditions (mainly temperature and pressure) of the identified compounds.
With all the collected information, it is possible to obtain more evidence about the
origin of this enigmatic material.

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2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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2.1 Samples and sample preparation

108 Several specimens of LDG from the Meteorites Collection of the Basque 109 Country University (UPV/EHU) were analyzed in order to achieve the mentioned 110 objectives. The dimensions of the samples varied between 1-5 cm in length and 2-4 cm 111 in width, whereas their weight varied between 5-23 g. The analyzed LDGs were 112 translucent glassy samples. Some types of inclusions could be macroscopically 113 discerned: dark, brownish and whitish spheres.

114 The samples were sliced, and then, thick and thin sections were prepared to 115 detect differences between the surface and the inner part of the LDGs. The inner part is better preserved since it has not been in contact with the environment. A Buehler-116 PetroThin sectioning system with a diamond saw was employed. As a perfectly flat 117 118 surface free of deformations is necessary, the fragments were polished using silicon carbide powder of different grain size on frosted glasses. The thickness of the fragments 119 120 was approximately 800 µm. Once the flat surface was obtained, in the case of the thin 121 sections, samples were mounted on glass slides (dimensions of 27 x 46 x 1.5 mm) with 122 an epoxy resin (composed of polyurethane, acrylic and cyanoacrylate) and then, the samples were smoothed using progressively finer abrasive grit until they were only 30 123 124 μm thick.

After the lamination of the samples, the majority of the mentioned brownish inclusions could not be discerned. However, whitish crystals with round shape were predominant. Single embedded minerals and bubbles were observed by optical microscope. More than 300 inclusions, around 200 crystalline forms in the matrix and more than 30 bubbles were analyzed in the different LDG specimens.

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2.2 Analytical methods

Several analytical techniques were used throughout this work. Optical 131 microscopy was performed with a NIKON optical polarizing microscope equipped with 132 a digital camera in order to observe the texture and the mineralogy of the melt. In 133 134 addition, a Technosyn cold-cathode cathodoluminescence stage, model 8200MKII, with a vacuum chamber coupled to a polarizing microscope was used on the thin sections to 135 136 observe the internal structure of the melt. It worked under standard operating conditions 137 at 12-15kV of accelerating potential, 0.5-0.6 mA beam current, and a beam diameter of 4.5 mm. 138

139 For the elemental characterization Energy-Dispersive Micro X-ray Fluorescence 140 spectrometry (µ-EDXRF), Scanning Electron Microscopy with X-ray microanalysis (SEM-EDS) and Electron Probe Micro Analyzer (EPMA) were employed. Due to the 141 142 size of the studied specimens it was not possible to analyze the external part by SEM-143 EDS. For this reason, the elemental data in these areas were acquired by µ-EDXRF. A μ-EDXRF ArtTax model by Bruker was used. The equipment is composed of an X-ray 144 tube with a Mo anode working at 50 kV voltage and 0.6 mA current. The X-rays were 145 146 collimated by a 0.65 mm diameter tantalum collimator. Light elements were measured under a helium flow. Zr, which is a typical element in the LDG composition, could not 147 be measured by µ-EDXRF because it is also present in the source of the equipment. 148 Moreover, thick and thin sections were analyzed with an EVO 40 Scanning Electron 149

Microscope coupled to an X-Max Energy-Dispersive X-Ray spectroscopy equipment. 150 That device was used to acquire electron images, to obtain elemental mappings and to 151 determine semi-quantitatively the elemental composition of the matrix and the 152 153 inclusions. The SEM images were acquired at high vacuum, employing an acceleration voltage of 20 kV without the need to metalize the samples using a detector of secondary 154 155 electrons. Besides, a JEOL JSM-6400 SEM with an Oxford Pentafet photon energy instruments Link Isis X-Ray (EDX) system was used. Furthermore, a Cameca SX-100 156 electron probe microanalyzer (EPMA) was used principally to obtain quantitative 157 elemental data about the matrix in thin sections of LDGs, since this technique allows 158 performing more precise quantitative analysis. The SX-100 is equipped with five 159 wavelength dispersive spectrometers (WDS) (each containing a diffracting crystal), a 160 dispersive energy spectrometer (EDS) and SE, BSE, ABS and cathodoluminescence 161 162 (CL) detectors. The operating conditions for the samples were 100 nA beam current and 15 kV accelerating voltage with a beam diameter of 0.6 µm, 2 µm scan distance and 100 163 164 ms acquisition time of X-ray peak per point (10 points per sample were analyzed).

The molecular composition of the different components of the LGD specimens 165 was determined using Raman spectroscopy. A Renishaw InVia Raman micro 166 167 spectrometer, coupled to a DMLM Leica microscope with 5x N PLAN (0.12 aperture), 168 20x N PLAN EPI (0.40 aperture), 50x N PLAN (0.75 aperture; lateral resolution of 2 μ m) and 100x (lateral resolution of 1 μ m) long range objectives, was used with the 514 169 nm argon ion excitation laser and the 785 nm diode excitation laser. The power applied 170 was set at the source at a maximum of 50 mW while on the sample was always less than 171 20 mW. The spectra were obtained in the range $3000-100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, accumulating several 172 173 scans from each spectrum to improve the signal-to-noise ratio.

In order to obtain Raman chemical images, the StreamLine technology (Renishaw) was employed. The inVia's motorized microscope stage moves the sample beneath the lens so that the line is rasterized across the region of interest. Data are swept synchronously across the detector as the line moves across the sample, and are read out continuously. Details of the working conditions are given elsewhere [22].

Data acquisition was carried out by the Wire 3.0 software package of Renishaw and the analysis of the results was undertaken by Omnic 7.2 software. The results were interpreted by comparing of the collected Raman spectra with Raman spectra of pure standard compounds of the e-VISARCH and e-VISART Raman spectra databases [23] and with the RRUFF database [24].

- 184
- **3. RESULTS**

186 **3.1 Matrix**

187 The LDG is known to be elementally composed mainly by Si, as all the works based on LDG reported. Besides, it also has little amounts of K, Ti, Ca, Mn, Fe, Al and 188 Sr, together with other elements such as V, Cl, Cu, S and Zn at trace level [3, 7, 13, 25]. 189 All these elements were detected in our elemental analyses. Comparing several µ-190 191 EDXRF spectra of the inner matrix and the superficial one, the main difference was the relative intensity for some of those elements. Fe, Sr, Ca and Ti presented higher peak 192 193 areas in the inner matrix than on the surface. In contrast, in their sporadic appearances, Mn, Cl and S were more intense on the surface (see Electronic Supplementary Material 194 195 Table S1).

196 The molecular composition of the matrix, observed by Raman spectroscopy, did197 not show differences between the surface and inner part. However, three groups of

spectra can be seen related to the matrix composition depending on the excitation laserused to obtain the Raman spectra [26].

The first group, obtained with the 785 nm excitation laser, presented three 200 intense and broad (br) bands at 1374, 1554, and 1636 cm⁻¹. A second type of spectrum, 201 also obtained with the same excitation laser, presented five Raman bands at 1277vs 202 (very strong), 1382vs, 1517s (strong), 1662br and 1842br cm⁻¹; similar to that reported 203 by Swaenen et al. [3]. The third group, obtained with the 514 nm excitation laser, 204 presented bands at 447br, 602w (weak), 810br, 1061br and 1322br cm⁻¹ (see Electronic 205 Supplementary Material Fig. S1), which was similar to that published by Swaenen et al. 206 [3], except for the bands located around 480 and 820 cm⁻¹ [3]. The bands in the 1200-207 1900 cm⁻¹ range of the first two spectra are due to the luminescence emission produced 208 by the effect of the red laser (785 nm) over transition metals or rare earth element, 209 210 possibly present in the glassy matrix [4, 27]. These spectral features were not observed with the green laser (514 nm). Thus, those signals in the 1200-1900 cm^{-1} range were not 211 212 considered for characterisation purposes.

213 The last mentioned group of Raman spectra should be considered as the typical LDG matrix spectrum (spectrum A) (see Electronic Supplementary Material Fig. S1). In some 214 occasions, that A spectrum of the matrix varied a little bit showing its Raman bands at 215 447br, 810br, 956br, 1049br, 1195br and 1630br cm⁻¹ (spectrum B) (see Electronic 216 Supplementary Material Fig. S1). In our further discussion, we will consider both, A 217 and B types as the Raman background due to the matrix. The broad band at 447 cm⁻¹ is 218 219 related to the bending modes of the Si-O-Si bonds within the tetrahedral units. Besides, the weak band around 600 cm⁻¹ (only for A spectrum) is ascribed to Si-O bending 220 vibration modes. The band(s) at 400–600 cm^{-1} varies with the degree of polymerization 221 of the melt and with the Si-O-Si (and Si-O-Al) bridging bond angles [25]. The band 222

near 800 cm⁻¹ involves symmetric motions of Si-O-Si bending while the band in the range 850-1200 cm⁻¹ is associated with symmetric Si-O stretching vibrations. The doublet at 955 and 1052 cm⁻¹ observed in the spectrum B is specific of alkali rich glasses. Finally the band at 1630 cm⁻¹ seems to be related with the presence of H-O-H bonds [3, 28]. Although these last spectra have not been described before, their wavenumbers and the presence of broad bands are related to the amorphous nature of the glass bulk.

EPMA analysis revealed and corroborated distinct and heterogeneous 230 quantitative elemental composition of the melt. The inner part contained 99.2 \pm 0.20 231 wt% SiO₂ while the outer decreased to 96.8 \pm 0.20 wt%; Al₂O₃ varied from 0.20 \pm 0.02 232 wt% at the inner part to 2.04 ± 0.01 wt% in the outer part. Other minor elements also 233 showed similar variations, Fe₂O₃ from 0.01 \pm 0.003 to 0.22 \pm 0.01 wt%, TiO₂ from 234 235 0.018 ± 0.009 to 0.51 ± 0.02 wt% and CaO varied from nearly 0 to 0.12 ± 0.007 wt% in the inner and the outer part. This heterogeneity in elemental composition of the melt 236 237 was also detected by cathodoluminescence (see Fig. 1) as previous researches showed [25]. Variations on element contents are reflected on CL images, on the differences in 238 colours and brightness within few microns, according with the highly heterogeneous 239 240 flow structures of the melt (see images on the right in the Fig. 1). This flow texture as well as compositional variation on silicon and aluminium elements was also discerned 241 in images obtained by SEM/EDS, but not so spectacular as the CL images (see Fig.1). 242

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3.2 Crystalline forms inside the matrix

Petrographic studies on thin sections by optical microscope showed that LDG exhibit a holohyaline texture with some minerals occurrence such as aluminium rich tiny crystallites, cristobalites and zircons. SEM observations revealed that these euhedral and skeletal crystallites are dispersed along the matrix. These crystallites were

generally randomly oriented forming aligned clouds and/or aggregations of crystallites 248 249 defining flow patterns (see Fig. 2). Moreover, crystallites around 3 µm showed skeletal structure (i.e. hollow crystallites) and swallowtail ends similar to typical structures of 250 251 those formed during rapid crystallization from a melt [29]. They were identified as aluminium rich crystallites with traces of Ti and Fe by SEM/EDS analysis (see Fig. 2.b 252 and c). Besides, these aluminium oxides rich crystallites are related to aluminium rich 253 254 zones of the glass, according to SEM/EDS analysis (see Fig. 2.b and c). Unfortunately, when analyzing these crystallites by Raman spectroscopy no signal was obtained. 255

In addition, glass spherules (considered as whitish inclusions) with great 256 257 variability on size, between 40µm and 300 µm, were observed by optical microscope dispersed within the silica glass matrix. They are crystals with different shape, circular, 258 ellipsoidal and irregular globules. Some of them exhibit internal cracks and with 259 260 spheroid bodies similar to grapes. The key mineral phase α -cristobalite was identified by Raman spectroscopy in these crystals (SiO₂, with the two main bands at 230vs and 261 262 418vs cm⁻¹). There was a specific case where zircon (ZrSiO₄) was detected within a cristobalite inclusion (see Fig. 3a). This fact will be discussed below. 263

Raman spectroscopy analysis in the surface of the LDG samples determined the 264 following phases: anatase (TiO₂; main Raman band at 143s cm⁻¹), gypsum 265 266 (CaSO₄ 2H₂O; Raman bands at 411w and 1006w cm⁻¹), coesite (SiO₂; Raman bands at 270w and 521m cm⁻¹, its most fundamental vibration [30]) and a microcline feldspar 267 (KAlSi₃O₈; Raman bands at 328vw, 406w, 513m and 1096vw cm⁻¹). Apart from 268 269 coesite, other minerals were identified as crystals trapped in the inner parts of the matrix, such as shocked zircon (ZrSiO₄; Raman bands at 351m, 435m, 973vw, 1000vs, 270 1050w, 1085m and 1140vw cm⁻¹; see Fig. 3c), calcite (CaCO₃; Raman bands at 153w, 271

272 279m, 710w and 1085vs cm⁻¹), amorphous calcite (CaCO₃; Raman bands at 149w,
260m, 709w and 1080vs cm⁻¹) and rutile (TiO₂; Raman bands at 445s and 610s cm⁻¹).

From the molecular point of view, comparing the minerals found in the trapped crystals of both outer and inner parts of the matrix, only coesite appeared in both sides. This is a key mineral, a high pressure polymorph of SiO₂, to understand the process of formation of the LDGs. The presence of rutile in the inner part of the matrix and anatase in the outer part of the matrix must be considered also relevant. Moreover, the presence of shocked zircon in the inner parts of the matrix could help to understand the formation process of the LDGs.

- **3.3 Inclusions**
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3.3.1 Mineral inclusions

They are considered minerals trapped within the body of the LDG, like grains in the matrix. Some of these inclusions can be completely contained within another mineral.

The µ-EDXRF measurements showed that these inclusions are defined by the high presence of Al, Ca and Si. Furthermore, it was possible to distinguish Na, Ti, V, Mn, Sr and Fe as minor elements, since they did not appear as often as the previous ones, and S and Cl at trace level (they appeared in certain occasions), but with variable peak areas for the different bands as a function of the inclusions. This suggests the presence of several compounds and/or mineral phases in such inclusions.

There are dark brownish mineral inclusions characterized by a higher presence of iron, as it has been reported in literature [26]. In order to study the elemental distribution in these brownish inclusions, several elemental composition mappings as well as semi-quantitative determinations were carried out by SEM-EDS. These analyses corroborate the differences in the elemental composition of the internal and external

brownish inclusions. In general, Si is the main element in both but the Fe and Ti signals 297 298 were systematically increased in the inner ones (Fe: 0.5 ± 0.025 wt% (outer) to 5.9 ± 0.3 wt% (inner); Ti: 0.06 ± 0.003 wt% (outer) to 0.1 ± 0.005 wt% (inner)). Fig. 4 shows the 299 300 SEM image of an inner brownish inclusion formed mainly by Si and several elements such as O, Ca, Al and Fe. Besides, Na, Mg, P, Cl, K and Ti were detected. The 301 distribution maps for the main elements (the presence of elements is represented in 302 303 white colour and the absence in black) show correlations among O, Si and Al, but also 304 correlations among Fe, O and Al. Some small areas showed correlations even among Ca, Al and O. 305

306 The Raman spectroscopy analyses on several spots of the different brownish inclusion detected several mineral phases: silica, sulphates, carbonates and oxides. Among them, 307 three compounds having the general silicon oxide form but with different structural 308 309 configurations were found: α-quartz (SiO₂; Raman bands at 205m, 263w, 354w, 398vw, 464vs, 696vw, 806w, 1081w and 1160vw cm⁻¹), a modified α -quartz with displaced 310 311 bands (distorted SiO₂; 202m, 261w, 353w, 390vw, 461vs, 693vw, 802w, 1064vw, 312 1080w and 1159w cm⁻¹) and α-cristobalite (SiO₂; main Raman bands at 230vs and 418vs cm⁻¹). 313

314 Besides, three different calcium sulphate modifications were also discerned depending on the location of the inclusions within the LDG sample: gypsum 315 (CaSO₄·2H₂O; Raman bands at 411m, 618vw, 668vw and 1006m cm⁻¹) and two forms 316 of anhydrite (CaSO₄), according to their Raman bands [31]. Anhydrite type II (β-317 CaSO₄, Raman bands at 417w, 610vw, 626vw, 1018m, 1128vw and 1161w cm⁻¹), with 318 an orthorhombic structure, stable in the 300-1180°C range, was detected in the outer 319 320 brownish inclusions, together with α -quartz. Anhydrite type I (α -CaSO₄; Raman bands at 170w, 417w, 610vw, 628vw, 1017m, 1110w, 1128w and 1158vw cm⁻¹), with cubic 321

structure, stable at temperatures higher than 1180° C, was identified in the inner brownish inclusion together with gypsum (overlapping of Raman bands causing a displacement from 628 to 624 cm⁻¹ and from 1017 to 1010 cm⁻¹).

Among carbonates, calcite (CaCO₃; Raman bands at 153w, 279m, 710w and 325 1085vs cm⁻¹), aragonite (CaCO₃; Raman band at 207w, 704w and 1083m cm⁻¹) and 326 magnesite (MgCO₃; Raman bands at 330w, 739w and 1095m cm⁻¹) were identified. 327 Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃; Raman bands at 226w, 292m, 410w, 612w and 1300br cm⁻¹), 328 limonite (FeO(OH).n H₂O; Raman bands at 171w, 208m, 243m, 300s, 399vs, 471br, 329 551s and 1282br cm⁻¹), corundum (α -Al₂O₃; Raman band at 416m cm⁻¹), rutile, anatase 330 (TiO₂; main Raman band at 143s cm⁻¹), cinnabar (HgS; main Raman band at 252m cm⁻¹ 331 ¹) and carbon were also identified in the inclusions. 332

Carbon was also detected in some small dark areas of brownish inclusions, areas where the carbon lines in SEM-EDS were not correlated with any other element. Carbon was identified through their main Raman bands at \approx 1300br and \approx 1600br cm⁻¹. The band at \approx 1580-1600 cm⁻¹ is assigned as the G band of the C (originates from the stretching vibration of sp² carbon atoms C-C). The band at \approx 1300 cm⁻¹ is attributed to D band (from the stretching vibration of sp³ carbon atoms, which induces defects and disorders) [32].

It is worth pointing out that commonly, the composition of these inclusions was not homogeneous and they consisted of more than one compound. As an example of the heterogeneous nature of the inclusions, Fig. 5 shows the Raman image obtained in an inner brownish inclusion, having quartz and calcite as the main mineral phases, together with hematite.

345 A difference in mineral composition was observed depending on the outer or 346 inner location of brownish inclusions. On the one hand, some mineral phases appeared only in outer locations of inclusions such as anhydrite A-II, amorphous carbon, corundum, magnesite and cinnabar. On the other hand, some other compounds were only detected in the inner inclusions such as anhydrite A-I, aragonite (but only in the inclusions near the border), gypsum, hematite, limonite (near the surface), displaced α quartz and rutile. Finally, the normal α -quartz, α -cristobalite, anatase, calcite and carbon were found in both locations of brownish inclusions.

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3.3.2 Cavities and embedded bubbles

Cavities are irregular areas observed in the matrix, and bubbles are spherical cavities that could have been vesicles, gaseous or fluids.

356 Irregular cavities and bubbles were also observed in the LDG matrix by optical microscope and SEM observations. According to optical microscopic and SEM 357 358 observations (see Fig. 6), some individual grains were observed inside the cavities that 359 could be pyroxenes due to their crystal shape revealed through the SEM microscope. Correlations among Fe, Mg and Si, and among Al, K, Ca and Si were found in the 360 361 SEM-EDS elemental distribution maps. To verify their composition, Raman spectroscopy and EPMA analyses were performed. Different kind of silicates were 362 identified by Raman spectroscopy, forsterite (Mg₂SiO₄; Raman bands at 303w, 430w, 363 604m, 820s, 854s and 961m cm⁻¹) and enstatite (MgSiO₃; Raman bands at 231w, 364 365 296vw, 336m, 389w, 657s, 678vs and 1005vs cm⁻¹) (see Fig. 6). These results confirmed the existence of olivine and pyroxenes in the cavities (forsterite and 366 enstatite). Moreover, tephroite (Mn₂SiO₄; Raman bands at 811m and 843m cm⁻¹) was 367 identified in another cavity. 368

In addition, there were bubbles, spherical in shape, which suggested the presence of vesicles, gaseous or fluids, but some were empty perhaps due to the slicing process. Some others were still full and in order to ascertain the nature of the materials inside these bubbles, point-by-point Raman analyses were performed identifying oxygen gas (O₂; Raman band at 1554w cm⁻¹) [33] and nitrogen gas inside them (N₂; Raman band at 2328w cm⁻¹ and 2342w cm⁻¹) [34] (see Fig. 7). Besides, a Raman band at 2337w cm⁻¹ attributable to stretching mode C= N was found [35].

All the compounds identified in this work are summarized in Table 1, indicatingwhere they were found in the LDGs samples.

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4. DISCUSSION

The identified compounds in the inner and outer parts of the analyzed specimens (see Table 1) give us the possibility to extend the knowledge of the LDG formation because some detected minerals are characteristic phases for given temperatures and others for certain pressures.

384 For example, by Raman spectroscopy it is possible to detect the variation due to pressure and temperature in the structure of the compounds because their common 385 Raman bands are displaced. On the one hand, there are three compounds that give us an 386 idea of the pressures affecting the formation of the LDGs. In some inner inclusions of 387 the LDG samples, the main Raman band of α -quartz (464 cm⁻¹ for ambient pressure and 388 temperature) appeared slightly displaced at 461 cm⁻¹ (see Fig. 8). Besides, shifts from 389 205 to 202, 263 to 261 and 806 to 802 cm⁻¹ were observed as well. That displacement is 390 commonly attributed to molecules of crystalline quartz that have been subjected to 391 392 shock pressures of at least 26 GPa [36].

The Raman spectrum of zircon observed in the matrix (see Fig. 3b), corroborate the pressure conditions in which these LDGs were formed. The main Raman band of the zircon appeared at 1000 cm⁻¹, which corresponds to a shocked zircon (see Fig. 3c). The change in the position of this main band from 1008 cm⁻¹ for normal zircon (see Fig.3d) to 1000 cm⁻¹ means that the original zircon (probably trapped from the surface materials
during the impact) was shocked to a pressure of at least or around 20 GPa [25].

The most clarifying phase among the shocked minerals is coesite, which has
been found not only in the inner but also in the outer mineral embedded materials.
Coesite is a silica polymorph produced at high pressures (>30 GPa) from the α-quartz
[37, 38] and is commonly present in materials from large-scale impact craters [37].

The conditions mentioned above could be acquired by shock metamorphism. Thus, the presence of shocked quartz and zircon, but mainly coesite, is a strong indication of an impact, which can be estimated around 20 GPa.

In comparison with other studies, pressure during impact processes might exceed 10 GPa, even up to 50 GPa for dense quartz-rich lithologies [39]. Moreover, the nature of LDG inclusions would speak in favor of high-pressure and high-temperature formation initiated by a meteoritic impact, which would implicate the high quenching temperature [3]. This information would corroborate our results.

411 On the other hand, mineral phases clearly related to high and low temperature 412 were identified. For example, the displacement of the main Raman band of zircon from 413 1008 to 1000 cm⁻¹ can occur as a consequence of temperatures higher than 1400°C [40] 414 and not only due to high pressures.

The occurrence of α -cristobalite is an indirect evidence of a high temperature event. The α -quartz phase, which is the low-temperature stable polymorph of SiO₂, is converted by heating into β -cristobalite at 1470 °C. Then, α -cristobalite is normally formed during the cooling process from the previously formed β -cristobalite. Therefore, the presence of α -cristobalite indicated the former presence of β -cristobalite and hence, a temperature greater than 1470 °C and the following cooling process [7, 9].

The presence of α -anhydrite is remarkable. Anhydrite exhibits different Raman 421 422 spectra due to the different structures of its polymorphs [31]. Anhydrite III (A-III either soluble anhydrite or γ -CaSO₄) is formed from hemihydrates above temperatures close to 423 424 110°C. Anhydrite II (A-II either insoluble anhydrite or β -CaSO₄) is formed at approximately 300 °C and it corresponds to the mineralogical form of normal anhydrite. 425 Finally, anhydrite I (A-I or α -CaSO₄), is a high temperature form that is stable above 426 427 1180 °C [41], but below 1200°C reverts to insoluble anhydrite [41]. In the case of gypsum, it loses its crystallization waters at around 100°C [42] and can be transformed 428 to the hemihydrate form and/or to anhydrite III. 429

430 Corundum (α -Al₂O₃) is formed from metastable phases of alumina at temperatures higher than 1000-1200°C [43, 44]. Some Al and O areas were detected by 431 SEM-EDS in skeletal crystallites (see Fig. 2) but without showing Raman features. It 432 433 must be pointed out that when alumina is heated at temperatures below 1100°C, the formed materials [45] do not exhibit Raman bands [44]. Therefore, those areas could be 434 435 crystallized under 1100°C during fast cooling processes. To confirm the absence of Raman signals of those crystallites, an area of 200 x 200 µm of the crystallites was 436 measured by Raman image, without finding the characteristic bands around 413-416 437 cm⁻¹ of corundum. 438

Regarding titanium oxides, it is worth pointing out that rutile (the high
temperature mineral phase) was only detected in the inner part. This fact could indicate
the differences of temperatures suffered by the different parts of the LDG.

442 Some authors state that high velocity impacts on Earth are able to generate high 443 temperature melted material that can be subsequently ejected away from the crater and 444 quenched as natural glasses [46]. Others mention that these LDGs quenched from high temperatures ranging from 1700 to 2100°C [2, 12]. Therefore, they agree with our
results.

Finally, the formation of some other compounds depends on both temperature 447 448 and pressure. This is the case of calcium carbonate. This compound occurs in five different crystalline polymorphs at ambient pressure and temperature: anhydrous phases 449 (calcite, aragonite, and vaterite), and hydrated phases (monohydrocalcite and ikaite). 450 451 However, there are also several amorphous forms. Metastable disordered calcium carbonate is transient and transforms into one of the crystalline forms in presence of 452 water or when heated [47]. Below 1200°C and approximately at 10 GPa, the metastable 453 454 disordered (amorphous) calcite in the melt could be the precursor of the aragonite enclosed in the glass. Then, a rapid cooling and decrease of temperature could transform 455 456 this aragonite to calcite, stable at ambient conditions [48, 49]. Besides, aragonite could 457 transform to calcite with time, and it becomes more stable than calcite only at high pressure (approximately 350 MPa at 25°C and 700 MPa at 300°C) [50]. Also, it must be 458 459 taken into account that calcite and aragonite may come from the original substrate materials. 460

In addition, the signals obtained in the analysis of the matrix were also indicative 461 of the temperature and pressure suffered by the LDGs. Colomban et al. [51-53] used the 462 463 Raman intensity of these broad bands to determine the degree of crystallisation of amorphous/crystalline silicate glasses as well as their temperatures of formation [51-464 53]. They defined the Polymerization index (I_p) as the ratio of the areas under the broad 465 bending band (around 500 cm⁻¹) and the stretching band (around 1000 cm⁻¹) of the 466 silicate group, because that ratio is strongly correlated to the processing temperature 467 468 [51]. In our case, two different kinds of Raman spectra were found in the matrix: A and B, as described in the previous section. Following the approach of Colomban et al. [51-469

470 53], two ranges of index were determined in the LDG matrix spectra. In the matrix 471 spectrum *A*, I_p was in the range of 6.1-6.8 (<7), typical of glasses formed at 600-472 1400°C, whereas in the matrix spectrum *B*, I_p was in the range of 10.2-16.9, which 473 corresponds to glass formation temperature higher than 1400°C.

These two different Raman responses in the matrix structure of the studied 474 475 LDGs suggest that the melt was subjected to two different ranges of temperatures: 600-476 1400°C and higher than 1400°C reflecting different polymerization of the melt. Moreover, the compounds found allowed us to know that higher temperatures affected 477 the specimens. The most meaningful data was that rutile, the compound that needs a 478 479 high temperature to form, was only identified in the inner parts. Besides, shocked zircon, which needs temperatures higher than 1400 °C, was in the inner part as well. In 480 481 contrast, temperatures around 1470°C were also found in the surface due to the presence of α -cristobalite. 482

483 A specific case mentioned before was the case of an idiomorphic zircon within α -cristobalite. This finding could indicate that zircon could be earlier in the 484 crystallization than cristobalite (see Fig. 3a). The zircon was formed by pressure, since 485 if the zircon Raman peak had been displaced by temperatures around 1470°C as the 486 487 same time as cristobalite, they would have had the same crystallization grade. Besides, if the cristobalite had been present in the inclusion when the zircon was formed at 20 488 489 GPa, its Raman bands would have been changed [54]. Therefore, this discovery proves 490 that this inclusion experimented a high pressure episode and, later, an increase of 491 temperature.

The high pressure conditions in the formation of the LDGs were also corroborated by the presence of coesite (high-pressure polymorphs of quartz), aragonite, amorphous calcite and displaced quartz, all of them only found in the inner part. Therefore, it could be thought that only the core of the studied specimens was subjected to high pressures, which is not logic. Moreover, low pressure or settled state compounds appeared all over the samples. For instance, the shape of the tiny size and morphology of the crystallites detected in the inner matrix (Fig. 2) can be explained by a high degree of undercooling process (become supercooled) during the crystal formation.

500 An impact process is a wide but rapid process that implies different physical 501 processes which promote very high pressure and temperature conditions during the 502 formation of the melts. After the impact, the pressure conditions drop but the temperature conditions would maintain in part to support the molten material. As the 503 504 impact process progress, melt fragments can trap minerals and rock debris at a given temperature and pressure, and consequently the Raman signatures of such materials will 505 reflect the different shock and thermal conditions. Hence, the accumulation of high 506 507 pressure and temperature minerals in the inner parts of the recovered LDGs could be explained if we consider that the LDGs started at high pressure (more than 30 GPa) and 508 509 temperature (more than 1470°C) conditions after the first impact, flying short distances 510 (unlike tektites). Then each melt fragment could undergone a second collision event while cooling, trapping more materials (at low pressure but intermediate temperature, 511 512 i.e. 600-1400°C) from the terrestrial surface.

Moreover, regarding gypsum, on one side, we may assign its bands to normal gypsum according to bibliography [55]. It would have adhered from the soil to the LDG surface after the impact during the cooling or whenever in the LDG existence. On the other hand, Knittle et al. [56] assigned its 1006 cm⁻¹ Raman peak to low pressure (around 6 GPa) gypsum. In both cases the gypsum could be trapped during the successive impacts after the first one. It is also conceivable that the pressures of these subsequent impacts would have been much lower and therefore, the Raman bands

would appear more displaced according to the bibliography. In addition, gypsum 520 521 appeared with cristobalite, which involves high temperatures (1470°C) but gypsum starts to lose the crystallization waters at around 100°C [42], then it could be trapped 522 523 after the first impact (formation of cristobalite at high temperature). Other option could be the formation of gypsum as a secondary product from a soluble anhydrite hydration 524 525 with time, given the long period from LDG formation and the cracks and fissures 526 connected to the surface of the glass, which would explain the presence of water of crystallization in the interior of the LDG. This anhydrite could be terrestrial or pre-527 terrestrial, and could be formed either by the reaction of the LDG superficial carbonates 528 529 and the atmospheric SO_x , or by extreme heating from a previous gypsum trapped during 530 the first impact as well.

It is difficult to say which compound was the precursor, gypsum, anhydrite or maybe both. According to previous works [6], anhydrite was seen in white deposits inside the sand of the Libyan Desert. For that reason, the anhydrite found in the LDG samples could belong to these latest deposits. The same situation could have happened with gypsum, which could be also present in the substrate [57].

In relation to the temperature, the distribution to the anhydrites found in the LDGs is rather reasonable. A-I, stable above 1180 °C, was identified inside where it could have been formed by the high temperatures of the impact. A-II, stable from 300 to 1180 °C, was detected in the surface of the LDG, possibly formed in a cooling process but still remaining partially melted and with capacity to trap materials [6].

541 Concerning carbon, Kramers et al. [20] found carbon phases with G broad band 542 at a high wavenumber (1597 cm⁻¹) in a stone called "Hypatia", sampled from the same 543 area of LDG. Those authors considered that stone being a remnant of a cometary 544 nucleus fragment that it could have been part of a bolide that formed the LDG. In our case, the Raman bands suggested amorphous carbon, which is typical from sedimentary
rocks [2]. However, it is noteworthy that Abate et al. [58] did not find traces of carbon
in the target rocks of the LDG area.

Finally, important data can be extracted from the found cavities and embedded
bubbles. The identification of olivine and pyroxene has not been mentioned in this type
of samples so far.

551 Vesicles could have been trapped during boiling of geothermal/hydrothermal fluids. The vesicles indicate that there were gas bubbles in the melt when it solidified. 552 Gaseous vesicles could have been formed in the melt with a decrease of the solubility of 553 554 dissolved gases, due to changes of the physical conditions (temperature, pressure and oxygen fugacity). Therefore, the formation of gases and fluid bubbles should have 555 556 occurred during the impact process. The contact with the terrestrial atmosphere could 557 have also introduced terrestrial heavy noble gases to the samples [59]. During this event, volatiles from the target rocks, water from the pores or fractures water, nitrogen 558 559 and organics could be released. If pressure was elevated, water and nitrogen could dissolve in the liquids and upon pressure decrease, water and nitrogen soon degassed 560 again, leaving trapped bubbles after solidification [34, 60]. After the impact, when the 561 562 bubbles were already formed, the temperature should have been lower than 1600°C, because above it, the bubbles would disappear [16]. 563

Apart from all this about the mineral distribution hypothesis in the LDGs, it should be taken into account that the surface of the LDGs could not be the original and belongs to the inner part of a bigger fragment that has been eroded with time.

567

568 **5.** CONCLUSIONS

It must be pointed out that by means of Raman spectroscopy it was possible to 569 570 determine the effect of the pressure and temperature. The identification of compounds related to high and low temperatures and pressures allowed us to know the temperatures 571 572 and pressures at which samples could be subjected (from 300 to >1470°C, and from 10 to >30 Gpa). The compounds belonging to high pressure and temperature could be 573 formed during the meteorite/asteroid impact or airburst, and subsequently, with the 574 575 cooling, mineral phases corresponding to low pressure and temperature crystallized. 576 Moreover, if the impact process had progressed (flying short distances), melt fragments could have trapped other minerals from the terrestrial surface until just before the end of 577 578 the cooling process. In general, the cooling of the different areas of the LDG could have been heterogeneous and, as a consequence its mineral distribution too. It should be also 579 580 highlighted that the LDG surface may not be the original and belong to the inner part of 581 a bigger fragment.

582 Furthermore, compounds which were not found in previous LDG studies were 583 recognized, such us microcline feldspar, coesite, corundum, calcite, amorphous calcite, 584 magnesite, gypsum, cinnabar, hematite, limonite, fosterite, enstatite, tephroite and 585 nitrogen and oxygen gases.

586

587 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work has been funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and 588 589 Competitiveness and FEDER. the European Development Regional Fund "Development of the RAMAN instrument for the ESA EXOMARS Mission: Science 590 development, Prototype Tests and Operation" project (Ref. ESP2014-56138-C3-2-R) 591 592 and the Special Action EA13/28 funded by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU). Moreover, technical and human support provided by the Raman-LASPEA 593

594	Laboratory of the SGIker (UPV/EHU, MICINN, GV/EJ, ERDF and ESF) is gratefully
595	acknowledged. The wholehearted technical support of Iñaki Aretxaga with the holders
596	to the equipments is also appreciatively acknowledged.
597	
598	Conflict of interest
599	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
600	
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