

# Bridging the shocked monazite gap – Deformation microstructures in natural and laser shock-loaded samples

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### **1** Bridging the shocked monazite gap- Deformation microstructures in natural

### 2 and laser shock-loaded samples.

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- 17

#### 18 Abstract

Impact-related damage in minerals and rocks provides key evidence to identify impact structures, and deformation of U-Th-minerals in target rocks, such as monazite, makes possible precise dating and determination of pressure-temperature conditions for impact events. Here a laser-driven shock experiment using a high-energy laser pulse of ns-order duration was carried out on a natural monazite crystal to compare experimentally produced shock-deformation microstructures with those observed in naturally shocked monazite. Deformation microstructures from regions that may have experienced up to ~50 GPa and 1000°C were characterized using Raman spectroscopy and transmission electron 26 microscopy. Experimental results were compared with nanoscale observations of deformation 27 microstructures found in naturally shocked monazite from the Vredefort impact structure (South 28 Africa). Raman-band broadening observed between unshocked and shocked monazite, responsible for a variation of ~3 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the FWHM, is interpreted to result from the competition between shock-29 30 induced distortion of the lattice, and post-shock annealing. At nanoscale, two main plastic 31 deformation structures were found in experimentally shocked monazite: mosaïcism, and deformation 32 bands. In contrast, the naturally shocked monazite sample, contained only deformation twins with 33 elemental enrichment along host-twin boundaries. Both mosaicism and deformation bands, 34 expressed in SAED patterns as streaking of spots, and the presence of extra spots (more or less 35 pronounced), are proposed as nano-scale signatures of shock metamorphism in monazite. Experimentally calibrated deformation features, such as those documented here at TEM-scale, 36 37 provide new tools for identifying evidence of shock deformation in natural samples.

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#### 39 **1. INTRODUCTION**

The formation of meteorite impact craters is a ubiquitous process on planetary surfaces (*French and Koeberl, 2010*). On Earth, few impact craters are accurately and precisely dated due to the lack of suitable age geochronometers (*Schmieder and Kring, 2020*), which makes it difficult to link meteorite impacts to significant events in the geological record (*Jourdan et al., 2012*). As a result, fundamental questions regarding possible links between impact events, changes in the geosphere and biosphere, and the origin of life, all of which rely on the acquisition of both accurate impact conditions and timing, remain debated (*Moser et al., 2019*).

Impact-related damage in minerals and rocks provides key evidence to identify impact
structures (*French and Koeberl, 2010*). Shock deformation microstructures have been intensively
studied in some minerals, especially quartz, down to the nanometer scale with transmission electron
microscopy (TEM), and include formation of dislocations, planar deformation features (PDF),
mosaïcism (i.e. a mosaic texture with small domains of crystalline blocks slightly misoriented to each

52 other), twins, high-pressure phases, decomposition, recrystallization, and melting (e.g., Leroux et al., 53 1994). Their formation initially depends on pressure conditions, often above 10 GPa, are attained 54 within nanoseconds to seconds (Langenhorst and Deutsch, 2012), and can be modified by subsequent 55 heating. Over the past decade, with the advent of high-spatial resolution techniques, resolving 56 deformation of U-Th-minerals in target rocks (e.g. zircon, monazite, apatite, xenotime, titanite) makes 57 possible precise dating and determination of pressure-temperature conditions (P,T) for impact events. Zircon is the most widely studied geochronometer for shock deformation and forms various shock 58 59 microstructures (e.g. Wittmann et al., 2006; Moser et al., 2011; Timms et al. 2017). In contrast, 60 shocked monazite is less studied; neoblasts (Erickson et al., 2017; Erickson et al., 2020), deformation 61 twins (Erickson et al., 2016; Fougerouse et al., 2021a), and a high-pressure phase (Erickson et al., 2019) can form during shock metamorphism, all of which offer the potential for dating impacts. One 62 63 important drawback of zircon concerns self-irradiation damage that can lead to complete 64 amorphization (Ewing et al., 2003). This has consequences both on the disturbance of the U-Pb 65 geochronological systems (e.g. Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2015; Peterman et al., 2016), and also on 66 formation and retention of deformation microstructures. For example, radiation damage can inhibit 67 the formation of the high-pressure phase reidite (Lang et al., 2008; Timms et al., 2018), and obliterate 68 shock microstructures at atom scale over time (Reimold et al., 2002). In contrast, despite a much 69 higher radionuclide incorporation capacity, monazite is much more resistant to irradiation. Monazite 70 has the ability to remain crystalline over geological time due to self-annealing of radiation damage 71 (Seydoux-Guillaume et al. 2004; 2018), and can therefore preserve more or less the same structural 72 state upon impact. In this regard, reliable impact conditions may be more readily extracted from 73 shock-features in monazite over time (e.g. Erickson et al., 2020).

Published studies show that evidence of impact age resetting in U-Pb geochronometers can be highly heterogeneous due to complex microstructures at the grain scale (*e.g. Cavosie et al., 2018 and 2021*). Shock-deformation in monazite has previously been described (*Schärer and Deutsch, 1990*), however its microstructure has only been systematically described at the micrometer scale

recently using electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) (*Erickson et al., 2016, 2017, 2020; Cavosie et al., 2018*). No nanometer-scale investigations using TEM to describe shock deformation features in
monazite have been conducted previously.

Experimental approaches have been applied to address formation of shock deformation 81 82 microstructures in monazite (Deutsch and Schärer, 1990; Huang et al., 2010; Lacomba-Perales et al., 83 2010; Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2010; D'Abzac et al., 2012; Heuser et al., 2018), and some propose 84 the existence of high-pressure monazite polymorphs which have thus far not been discovered in 85 nature (Erickson et al., 2019). Laser-driven experiments have previously demonstrated the ability to 86 simulate conditions of impact events (e.g. in olivine; Langenhorst et al., 1999). Here we compare 87 nanoscale deformation structures formed in shocked monazite from the Vredefort impact structure 88 in South Africa (Cavosie et al., 2018) with experimentally shocked monazite, in order to identify which 89 features can be used as shock indicators, and also enhance the validity of laser-driven shock-90 experiments.

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#### 92 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 93 2.1. Starting material

A piece of a centimeter-sized single monazite crystal from Manangotry (Madagascar) was cut in a random orientation, embedded in epoxy and polished (Fig. 1). The sample was previously structurally characterized at the nanoscale by TEM (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004; Grand'Homme et al., 2018*), particularly with regards to structural defects induced by radiation damage; no twins were observed in previous studies. This monazite crystal is also chemically homogenous, with negligible inclusions and porosity, and has a well-resolved age (555 ± 2 Ma, ID-TIMS; *Paquette and Tiepolo, 2007*).

101 A shocked monazite grain from the Rietputs Formation in South Africa (Sample Sec-03D, grain 102 9) was also investigated to evaluate if laser-driven shock experiments are able to reproduce impact 103 damage found in nature. This monazite is a detrital grain that eroded from shocked bedrock at the Vredefort impact structure, and was transported ~500 km downstream in the Vaal River (*Cavosie et al., 2018*). It was previously characterized with BSE and EBSD, and shown to contain an anomalously high density of deformation twins, as well as localized areas that have recrystallized into neoblastic domains (*Cavosie et al., 2018*). The original host rock is unknown, however, it is assumed that the detrital shocked monazite originated from between the 20 and 30 GPa isobars at the Vredefort impact structure, as it is not fully neoblastic (e.g., *Erickson et al., 2017*), and is similar to other detrital shocked monazite grains that host shock-twinned zircon inclusions (*Erickson et al., 2016*).

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#### 112 2.2. Laser-driven shock loading

113 The laser shock experiment was carried out at the "nano2000" facility of the Laboratoire pour 114 l'Utilisation des Lasers Intenses (LULI, UMR CNRS 7605, Ecole Polytechnique, Palaiseau, France). The target consisted of a 20 µm-thick Al foil glued on top of the monazite crystal (Fig. 1a). A high-power 115 116 laser pulse of 1.06 µm-wavelength, 5 ns-duration, 765 J-energy, was focused onto a 3.2 mm-diameter spot on the target surface. The resulting laser intensity was about  $1.9 \times 10^{12}$  W/cm<sup>2</sup>. A thin absorbing 117 118 layer of AI (~µm-order) is ablated into a plasma cloud, whose expansion drives a short compressive 119 pulse. The amplitude (50 GPa) of this pressure pulse and its temporal shape (about 6 ns-duration at 120 half maximum) were inferred from a simulation of laser-matter interaction, using the measured profile 121 of laser intensity as an input boundary condition. Shock pressure transmitted to the monazite sample across the Al-monazite interface was estimated by accounting for the impedance mismatch between 122 123 both materials, using data reported for CePO<sub>4</sub> monazite (*Feng et al., 2013; Du et al. 2009*). Peak loading 124 pressure applied on the monazite crystal was thus calculated at 56.7 GPa. The post-shock temperature 125 computed in Al is about 1300 K, which agrees with calculated thermodynamic data for a 50 GPa mean 126 shock pressure (Kinslow, 1970). The subsequent post-release temperature in Al after pressure 127 unloading is about 700 K. In the monazite crystal however, shock-induced heating cannot be assessed 128 without an equation of state for this material, but it should be similar in a natural impact event for an

analogous loading pressure, as temperature only depends on shock pressure. Nevertheless, the much shorter during of both pressure and temperature under laser-driven compression may result in differences in shock-induced transformations, due to (i) possible kinetic inhibition of time-consuming processes (e.g. diffusion, conduction), and (ii) faster pressure decay with propagation distance which would strongly restrict the size of the shock-heated region and possibly hinder neighbourhood effects within heterogeneous samples. One goal of this study is thus to address both relevance and limitations of the impact/laser analog.

136 2.3. Analytical methods.

Raman spectra were collected directly on the shocked surface of the monazite crystal in clean areas (Fig. 1d-g) with a Horiba micro-Raman spectrometer LabRam HR800 evolution. Groups of 10 spectra were collected respectively on starting material, shocked samples C1 and C2, with two accumulations of 10 s exposure (Fig. 2a). Raman peaks were fitted with Gauss-Lorentz spectral models in the spectral range from 800 to 1200 cm<sup>-1</sup>, with the Matlab application tool PeakFit to extract the position and full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the v<sub>1</sub> peak (Fig. 2b, Table S1). FWHM values are corrected for the apparatus function of the Raman instrument (*Nasdala et al., 2001*).

The TEM foils were prepared using a Thermo Fisher Scientific FEI 125 Helios Nanolab 600i focused-ion beam scanning electron microscope (FIB/SEM) hosted by MANUTECH USD platform, at Hubert Curien laboratory, Saint-Etienne (France). Nanoscale characterization was performed with a Cs-corrected TEM (NeoARM200F Cold FEG) at 200 kV, operated by the CLYM and hosted within the Hubert Curien Laboratory, Saint-Etienne (France). A Gaussian low-pass filter for noise reduction was applied to high-magnification STEM images (Figures 5c-d, 8d-f and 9d).

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151 For further details see Supplementary Materials.

152

153 **3. RESULTS** 

#### 154 *3.1. Optical and SEM observations*

155 After the shock experiment the Al-foil was removed but some glue remained on the surface 156 (dark areas in Figure 1d and also SEM images in figures 1f and g, rough zones on the surface). Only 157 domains free of glue were targeted for analysis (Raman and TEM), i.e. zones C1 and C2. In optical light 158 the central zone is a rounded area where the shock was most intense (Fig. 1b-d); it is approximately 3 159 mm in diameter, which matches the 3.2 mm-diameter of the irradiated spot in the Al foil (Fig. 1b). 160 Numerous planar fractures in monazite are visible in this area, with at least two directions nearly 161 perpendicular to each other (arrows in Fig. 1 c-g). Some of the planar microstructures appear open 162 (Fig. 1c and g), and thus may be tensile fractures.

163

#### 164 *3.2. Raman observations*

165 Raman measurements were performed on both unshocked areas of the monazite crystal and 166 in the central shocked zone (C1 and C2; Fig. 1). The first result is that only monazite was identified; no 167 peaks associated with other phases were present. As described in *Heuser et al. (2018)*, bands between 900 and 1100 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be assigned to antisymmetric ( $v_3$ ) and symmetric ( $v_1$ ) stretching modes, 168 169 respectively, and peaks between 400 and 700 cm<sup>-1</sup> to antisymmetric ( $v_4$ ) and symmetric ( $v_2$ ) bending 170 modes of the PO<sub>4</sub> group of monazite. Differences between the three areas are apparent only in the 171 position and shape of the peaks. As previously shown (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2002; Ruschel et al., 172 2012) the FWHM of the  $v_1$  Raman band is suitable to estimate the degree of short-range order of monazite (Fig. 2b). Mean values for the position vary from 969.40 cm<sup>-1</sup> for unshocked monazite to 173 968.81 and 968.34 cm<sup>-1</sup> for shocked monazite (C1 and C2 zones respectively), and for FWHM from 174 18.34 (unshocked monazite) to 21.52 and 21.45 cm<sup>-1</sup> (C1 and C2 respectively). The positions and 175 FWHM are more variable in shocked areas (968.62-968.93/21.20-21.94 cm<sup>-1</sup> for C1, 968.13-176 968.57/21.09-21.93 cm<sup>-1</sup> for C2) than unshocked areas (969.30-969.51/18.10-18.73 cm<sup>-1</sup>) of the 177 178 crystal, indicating a higher local variability of microstructure.

#### 180 *3.3. Transmission Electron Microscopy*

Nanoscale characterization was conducted on two TEM foils extracted from the central part of the shocked monazite sample: one in area C1 (FIB1), and one in area C2 (FIB5), a little further from the center of the shocked zone (Fig. 1). Both foils allow observations to be made over approximately 8 μm of depth, from the surface to the interior of the monazite crystal. In the following sections (3.3.1 and 3.3.2) different deformation structures induced by laser-driven shock loading are described. One TEM foil was also prepared from the naturally shocked monazite grain from Vredefort for comparison (Fig. 8), and deformation structures are described in section 3.3.3.

Each monazite sample reveals typical contrasts in bright-field (BF) TEM mode due to radiation damage (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004*). The starting (i.e. unshocked) monazite sample as well shows typical mottled diffraction contrasts due to the presence of a distorted lattice (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2002*). The diffraction contrasts are a consequence of the competition between defect formation and annealing of radiation damage (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2018*). However, the distortion is not sufficient to induce visible stretching of diffraction spots (see *Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004*), and therefore implies an absence of mosaïcism.

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#### 196 3.3.1. TEM foil C1 (FIB1) – Figures 3 to 5

197 Deformation features in foil FIB1-C1 vary spatially depending on the depth of observation 198 within the foil relative to the polished surface (Figures 3-5). From the surface of the sample down to 199 approximately 3 µm (Fig. 3b), FIB1 is characterized by mosaicism, which consists of a high density of 200  $\sim$ 50 nm sized irregularly shaped domains that are slightly misoriented (1-2°) with respect to each 201 other, resulting in a mottled diffraction contrast in BF-TEM (Fig. 3) and a slight streaking of spots in 202 the selected area electron diffraction patterns (SAED; Fig. 3a). Mosaicism indicates the presence of 203 misoriented subgrains, which are ~50 nm-size bright domains visible in Dark-Field (DF) TEM mode (Fig. 204 3c). When the FIB1 foil is oriented parallel to the [100] zone axis (Fig. 3a), extra spots compatible with 205 the monazite structure are visible (DF1 at 3.26Å and DF2 at 1.81Å). At depths below 3 µm from the

206 surface within foil FIB1 (Fig. 4) the structure is dominated by bands that are subparallel to the surface 207 (Fig. 4a-b), and they are also visible as a SW-NE fabric in the Dark-Field (DF) image (Fig. 4d). The bands 208 are 100-300 nm long and about 50 nm wide, and form a wavy pattern within the sample. Contrast 209 within the bands is quite homogeneous, with a grey color and almost no Bragg contrast, consistent 210 with diminished crystallinity relative to other areas. An SAED pattern (Fig. 4c) across one band in the 211 [100] zone axis shows streaking of some spots, more pronounced than in Fig. 3a, and extra spots (DF1: 212 3.26Å, DF2: 1.81Å, DF3: 2.06Å). The SAED data are compatible with a monazite structure, and provide 213 evidence of highly disoriented domains (misoriented subgrains are visible in DF-TEM in Fig. 4d-f). 214 Moiré fringes are also observed and provide further evidence of misorientation of the nano-domains 215 (arrows in Fig. 4b). Annular dark field (ADF) scanning TEM (STEM) images across band domains (Fig. 5) 216 show that Bragg contrasts are strongly reduced inside bands (darker areas), resulting from the lower density of the material within the deformation band (Fig. 5a-b). At very high magnification (Fig. 5c-d) 217 218 the atomic arrangement within the monazite structure is revealed. In ADF mode, only the heaviest 219 atoms are visible (i.e. rare earth elements like Ce in CePO<sub>4</sub> monazite structure); in Figure 5f the pattern 220 matches the arrangement of Ce atoms in monazite along the [100] direction. In contrast, within the 221 deformation bands (upper parts in Fig. 5c-d) the atomic arrangement almost disappears, and instead 222 consists of highly disoriented nano-crystals of monazite (some fringes can be observed within these 223 bands).

224

#### 225 3.3.2. TEM foil C2 (FIB5) – Figures 6 to 8

In this sample two kinds of deformation features were observed, depending on depth of observation within the foil. From the surface down to approximately 4  $\mu$ m (Fig. 6a), the sample revealed a high density of 10-20 nm domains that are slightly misoriented with respect to each other, resulting in mottled diffraction contrasts in BF-TEM (Fig. 6a-b). Selected area electron diffraction patterns (SAED) show a slight stretching of diffraction spots (Fig. 6c and e), indicative of a small misorientation of domains (<2 degrees). When the crystal is oriented parallel to the [100] zone axis, 232 the most intense stretching is seen along the (012) plane. Additional diffuse spots are also visible 233 (arrows in Fig. 6e) and are measured at a distance of 3.16 Å, compatible with the monazite structure. 234 At higher magnification moiré fringes (arrows in Fig. 6d) are observed and provide further evidence of 235 misorientation of the nano-domains. From 4 µm depth to the bottom of the foil (Fig. 7a), the structure 236 is dominated by bands subparallel to the shock-loaded surface (Fig. 7b). The bands are  $300 \pm 50$  nm 237 long and about 50 nm wide, are relatively regular, and form a wavy pattern within the sample (Fig. 7 238 c-d). Contrast within the bands is homogeneous, with a grey color, and almost no Bragg contrast, 239 consistent with a low crystallinity, almost glassy structure. An SAED pattern parallel to the [100] zone 240 axis that overlaps a deformation band and the adjacent monazite confirms the presence of a diffuse 241 ring, characteristic of amorphous material that is superimposed on the monazite diffraction signature. 242 The same SAED pattern also revealed the appearance of additional spots, some close to the principal 243 spots from the [100] zone axis (Fig. 7e). The most visible additional spots in the SAED pattern, with the 244 shortest distance, are indicated by arrows in Figure 7e, and correspond to a d<sub>hkl</sub> of 3.58 Å, close to the 245 distance measured in the part of foil closer to the polished surface (Fig. 6e). Additional spots at 2.59, 246 2.17, 2.01, 1.80 Å are all compatible with the monazite lattice. The same region was observed using 247 scanning TEM (STEM) with an annular dark field (ADF) detector (Fig. 8). In this mode, Bragg contrasts 248 are strongly reduced and contrast arises from atomic number and density. The bands appear darker 249 (Fig. 8a-e) due to the lower density of the glassy material within the deformation band (Fig. 8a-b). At 250 very high magnification (Fig. 8e-f) the atomic arrangement within the monazite structure is revealed, 251 and in Figure 8f the pattern matches the arrangement of Ce atoms in monazite along the [100] 252 direction. High resolution STEM imaging and associated Fast Fourier Transform (FFT; Fig. 8c-e) show 253 that the deformation bands are not completely amorphous, and contain highly disoriented nano-254 crystals of monazite; in Figures 8d and 5e some fringes can be observed within these bands. FFT of 255 different areas in Figure 8c show the strong disorientation from the [100] direction (FFT1) depending 256 on position in the band (compare FFT2 and 3 in Fig. 8c). In FFT3 the area is strongly disoriented with

only a faint (0-11) reflection visible. Extra spots observed at 3.58 Å in SAED in TEM mode (Fig. 7e) are
also visible (arrows in FFT2), and appear when crossing the band (see arrows in FFT2).

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3.3.3. TEM foil of naturally shocked Vredefort monazite – Figure 9 (and Supplementary Data S2; Figures
S9)

262 One FIB-foil located across deformation twins (FIB4 in S9a) was prepared from one area of 263 Vredefort monazite Sec-03D, grain 9 (*Cavosie et al., 2018*). Only deformation twins (Fig. 9), have been 264 observed. Some twins are visible along the (001) plane (Fig. 9a-b). The (001) deformation twins are 265 consistent with those reported from prior EBSD analysis (*Cavosie et al., 2018*). Twins along the (001) 266 plane range from 250 nm to 1.1 µm in width, and contain an enrichment in Ca along the twin-host 267 boundary but no enrichment nor depletion of Pb (Fig. 9c-d and S9b in Supplementary data).

268

#### 269 4. DISCUSSION

270 *4.1. Experimental shock-deformation features up to the nanoscale.* 

271 Early shock experiments on monazite (up to 59 GPa) used the shock-wave reverberation 272 technique and high explosives for planar shock-wave generation (Deutsch and Schärer, 1990); the 273 shocked monazite grains exhibited lower birefringence, decolorization, intense mosaicism and the 274 presence of fractures. Laser shock experiments on monazite by femtosecond laser ablation show the 275 effect of high-pressure shock waves caused by plasma expansion, revealing nanostructural 276 deformation features below the ablation crater, including fractures, mosaïcism, and deformation 277 twins (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2010; D'Abzac et al., 2012). Static experimental data (using diamond anvil cell) focused on high-pressure transformation of monazite with various compositions (CePO<sub>4</sub>-278 279 Huang et al., 2010; SmTbPO<sub>4</sub>-Heuser et al., 2018; La, Nd, Eu, GdPO<sub>4</sub>-Lacomba-Perales et al., 2010). 280 Huang et al. (2010) revealed only structural lattice distortion at around 11 GPa, with no phase 281 transition up to 20 GPa. In contrast, Lacomba-Perales et al. (2010) identified a non-reversible highpressure phase with barite-type structure at 26 GPa for LaPO<sub>4</sub> but no phase transition up to 30 GPa
for other compositions (Gd, Eu, NdPO<sub>4</sub>).

284 In the present study, no significant difference between Raman spectra was observed between 285 unshocked and shocked monazite samples, except for the structural distortion responsible for both 286 Raman-band broadening and data spreading; hence no evidence for formation of a high-pressure 287 phase was found (Fig. 2). Raman-band broadening of natural monazite is due to the combination of 288 two effects: chemical composition (mostly Th, U, Ca and Pb) and lattice distortion caused by radiation 289 damage (e.g. Nasdala et al., 2002; Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2002; Ruschel et al., 2012). Ruschel et al. 290 (2012) proposed an empirical formula for estimating the degree of radiation damage if the chemical 291 composition is known:

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293 where FWHM is the full width at half maximum of the most intense Raman band of monazite (i.e., the  $v_1$  symmetric PO<sub>4</sub> stretching mode near 970 cm<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. 2). The monazite used for our experiments 294 295 contains 0.12, 0.002, 0.045, and 0.003 apfu (based on 40) for Th, U, Ca and Pb respectively, which 296 gives a  $\Sigma$ (Th+U+Ca+Pb) of 0.17 apfu (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004*). The expected FWHM is then 8.5 297 cm<sup>-1</sup> for monazite with the same composition and no radiation damage. The FWHM of the unshocked 298 monazite is 18.3 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Interestingly, the monazite used in the present study corresponds closely to the F6 monazite described in *Ruschel et al. (2012)*, with a ∑(Th+U+Ca+Pb) of 0.15, a FWHM<sub>unannealed</sub> of 18.1 299 300 cm<sup>-1</sup> and a FWHM<sub>annealed</sub> of 7.9 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The difference in width of Raman peaks between FWHM<sub>unannealed/unshocked</sub> (18.1 and 18.3 cm<sup>-1</sup>) values to FWHM<sub>annealed</sub> (7.9 and 8.5 cm<sup>-1</sup>) values is 301 attributed to the "radiation damage component" (~10 cm<sup>-1</sup>). The FWHM of Raman-bands from the 302 303 shocked monazite domains C1 and C2 are ~21.5 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2). The ~3 cm<sup>-1</sup> difference in the FWHM of 304 the Raman band between the unshocked and shocked monazite is attributed to shock-induced 305 distortion of the lattice. The FWHM increase is expected when grain size is reduced, as broadening is 306 inversely proportional to grain size in CeO<sub>2</sub> ceramics (e.g., Gouadec and Colomban, 2007). In ceria,

band broadening of 3 cm<sup>-1</sup> is observed for grain size of about 40 nm, thus the observed broadening of
308 3 cm<sup>-1</sup> is consistent with the TEM observation of mosaicism at a similar scale (Fig. 3 and 6).

309 Raman band broadening here is essentially related to two nano-features identified using TEM: 310 mosaicism (Figs. 3 and 6) and the presence of planar band structures (Figs. 4 and 7). As the unshocked 311 monazite crystal already contains radiation damage, expressed as typical mottled diffraction contrasts 312 in BF-TEM mode and corresponding to small lattice distortion and the presence of strain (Seydoux-313 Guillaume et al., 2002; 2004; 2018), it is not obvious how to isolate the "radiation damage component" 314 from the "shock component", as done in the previous paragraph with Raman. The role of radiation damage, and therefore the role of "initial structural state" of monazite at time of impact, and 315 316 formation of shock-deformation features, is discussed below. As the unshocked monazite was 317 previously well-characterized, it is here possible to distinguish some of the shock effects. Note 318 especially BF-TEM images in Grand'homme et al. (2018), Figures 7, 9 and 10 (Mnz1). Mosaicism was 319 absent in the pristine monazite crystal (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004). Conspicuous streaking in the 320 diffraction spots, moiré fringes, and the presence of extra diffraction spots in the SAED pattern, are all 321 evidence that the monazite nanodomains are misorientated by a few degrees, i.e. mosaicism.

322 The deformation bands (Figs. 4 and 7) have not been observed in monazite before, even in 323 shocked samples from femtosecond-laser experiments (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2010; d'Abzac et al. 324 2012); this microstructure unambiguously formed in response to the shock experiment. The 325 orientation of the deformation bands is parallel to the direction of shock wave propagation into the 326 crystal (Figs. 4a-b and 7). They are different from typical planar deformation features (PDF) classically 327 observed in shocked silicates by TEM like quartz (Langenhorst and Deutsch, 2012) or zircon (Reimold et al., 2002; Leroux et al., 1999), which are straight, sharp and continuous planes, filled with 328 329 amorphous material, and sometimes decorated by bubbles formed during post-shock processes, such 330 as annealing or alteration (Langenhorst and Deutsch, 2012). In the studied shocked monazite, the band 331 structures are shorter (hundreds of nm long) and are not filled with an entirely amorphous material 332 but instead are defined by nanometer sized domains with a highly different orientation, as shown in

333 STEM-ADF images (Fig. 8c-e and in the various FFT from Fig. 8c). This observation is also confirmed by 334 the presence of diffraction contrasts in BF-TEM (Fig. 7c-d), a SAED pattern which shows almost no 335 diffuse diffraction ring (Fig. 7e) but instead contains extra spots characteristic of a monazite lattice, 336 and streaking of spots corresponding to high misorientation of nanodomains to each other and from 337 orientation of the monazite host. We suggest that such features may represent precursor 338 microstructural damage that leads to formation of more typical features found in shocked monazite, 339 such as planar deformation bands (e.g. Erickson et al., 2016). Another possibility is that they represent 340 partly annealed PDFs, similar to those described in various shocked minerals (e.g. Leroux et al., 2001), 341 which do not remain amorphous after shock due to the ability of monazite to recrystallize in response 342 to thermal and/or ionization processes (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004 and 2018). These highly 343 misoriented deformation band structures could also represent domains from which either neoblasts 344 or a high-pressure phase could crystallize in natural shocked monazite. Additional diffraction spots 345 observed within these domains can all be attributed to the monazite lattice (Figs. 7d-e), and thus might 346 also represent incipient formation of neoblasts.

347

#### 348 4.2. Laser-shock experiments as analogues for naturally-shocked samples

349 One of the main objectives of the present study is to evaluate if laser-driven shock 350 experiments reproduce the types of impact damage previously characterized in naturally shocked 351 monazite. Shocked monazite has been reported both in bedrock of the Vredefort impact structure, 352 South Africa (Moser, 1997, Erickson et al., 2017), the Nördlinger Ries crater, Germany, the Haughton 353 dome, Canada (Erickson et al., 2019), the Araguainha crater, Brazil (Erickson et al., 2017), the Woodleigh impact structure in Australia (Fougerouse et al., 2021a), the Yarrabubba monzogranite and 354 355 Barlangi granophyre impact melt (*Erickson et al., 2020*), and in both modern and Pleistocene alluvial 356 deposits of the Vaal River in South Africa as detrital grains (*Cavosie et al., 2010; Erickson et al., 2013;* 357 Cavosie et al., 2018). Erickson et al. (2019) reported shocked monazite grains from Ries Crater and 358 Haughton dome with complex yet systematic twin relations produced by reversion from an

unquenchable high-pressure tetragonal polymorph, a phase not previously known. No studies have
investigated shock-deformation structures in monazite at a nanometer scale, except a recent study by *Fougerouse et al. (2021a)* that focused on Pb mobility as determined from atom probe tomography, a
method shown previously to demonstrate atom-scale element mobility or segregation on twin
boundaries triggered by tectonic deformation (*Fougerouse et al., 2021b*).

364 The results presented here demonstrate the ability of laser-driven experiments to produce 365 shock deformation microstructures previously described in the literature,, specifically mosaïcism, and 366 deformation bands. Additional microstructures described by Cavosie et al. (2018) and Erickson et al. 367 (2017) include deformation twinning (Fig. 9) and neoblastic domains.. We suggest that the highly-368 deformed bands may represent either precursor microstructural damage that leads to formation of 369 more typical features found in naturally shocked monazite, such as planar deformation bands (e.g. 370 *Erickson et al., 2016*) or deformation twins, which failed to form during the experiment, likely because 371 of insufficient duration of pressure application. The presence of neoblastic domains provides evidence 372 of localized recrystallisation of monazite during, or more likely, immediately following shock 373 deformation. The absence of neoblasts in the laser shock-loaded monazite crystal may be explained 374 by either (i) lower shock conditions, too low to induce recrystallization, in contrast to what can be 375 observed in naturally shocked monazite (e.g. Erickson et al., 2017; 2020), or by (ii) insufficient duration 376 of the thermomechanical load, shorter by many orders of magnitude in the experiment (~6 ns-377 pressure pulse, see Section 2.2), which may be below the characteristic time required to form 378 neoblasts.

379

#### 380 4.3. Role of radiation damage in formation of shock-deformation features?

In order to ascertain shock conditions of minerals during impact events, the structural state of the mineral at the time of impact must be estimated. In the case of zircon, a mineral highly sensitive to radiation damage, formation of the high-pressure polymorph reidite is inhibited in partially metamict zircon due to the general reduction in longitudinal and shear stiffness with radiation damage (*Erickson et al., 2017; Timms et al., 2018*). Extrapolation of impact conditions in natural shocked zircon
can thus be complicated due to lack of knowledge of pre-impact intrinsic properties. In contrast,
monazite has the ability to remain crystalline over geological time due to self-annealing of radiation
damage (*Seydoux-Guillaume et al. 2004; 2018b*), however it is not known if the presence of radiation
damage influences formation of shock-deformation features or high-pressure polymorphs (e.g., *Erickson et al., 2019*). Further shock-experiments using monazite free of radiation damage as a starting
material may be able to elucidate such behavior.

392 It is also worth considering that monazite samples older than 1 Ga may have accumulated a 393 high amount of radiogenic Pb in the lattice and received intensive radiation doses. Even if clear 394 evidence for radiation damage is limited to nm-isolated domains within monazite resulting in lattice 395 distortion (Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2004), these effects induce Raman broadening and mottled 396 diffraction contrasts visible in TEM. At the micrometer scale, peak broadening of Raman spectra 397 provides one indication that monazite crystals were affected by a shock event. This requires, however, 398 knowledge of both composition and FWHM of Raman spectra of unshocked monazite samples, in 399 order to evaluate the radiation damage component, which produces the same broadening effect 400 (Nasdala et al., 2002; Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2002; Ruschel et al., 2012). More investigations using 401 TEM are needed to confirm a primary (shock) interpretation, and to describe in detail shock 402 deformation features. Analysis of shocked monazite by TEM revealed intense lattice distortion in the 403 form of mosaicism, deformation bands, and the presence of intense streaking and extra spots in the 404 SAED pattern; these features can unambiguously be attributed to deformation that occurred during 405 the experimental shock loading experiment. Unshocked monazite crystals (e.g. Seydoux-Guillaume et 406 al., 2004 and 2018a) and tectonically deformed grains (Fougerouse et al., 2021b), did not display Bragg 407 diffraction contrasts in bright field mode (with their corresponding SAED patterns) as pronounced as 408 those described here that correspond to mosaïcism and deformation bands. Inside the twinned areas 409 (Fig. 9) it is almost impossible to distinguish contrasts in shocked monazite from those of tectonically 410 deformed monazite, except in the case where twin orientations are specifically characteristic of shock

deformation (*Erickson et al., 2016*; *Fougerouse et al., 2021a*). However, in the case of common twin
orientations, this criterion is not sufficient.

413

414 CONCLUSIONS

415 This study demonstrated the ability of laser-driven shock experiments using a high-energy 416 laser pulse of ns-order duration to produce shock-deformation microstructures observed in natural 417 shocked monazite. We describe two main microstructural features at the nanoscale: mosaïcism, and 418 deformation bands. Both mosaïcism and deformation bands, expressed in SAED patterns with 419 streaking of spots, and the presence of extra spots, more or less pronounced, provide evidence to 420 identify shocked monazite grains. Other shock-deformation features reported in naturally shocked 421 monazite, such as deformation twins, high-pressure polymorphs and neoblastic domains, were not 422 observed in the experimental charges. Further study is needed to evaluate the possibility of forming 423 such features with laser-driven shock experiments. Furthermore, as the presence of radiation damage 424 may also modify the formation of shock-deformation features, use of monazite crystals free of 425 radiation damage may help to answer this question.

426

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#### 588 Figure captions

Figure 1 - Monazite single crystal before and after shock experiment. a-d. Optical views (a-c: binocular
and d: reflected light) from the 3 mm shocked area (central zone). e-g: Secondary Electron Microscope
images from 2 areas in the central zone where characterizations were performed. Arrows point to
cracks induced by shock.

**Figure 2** – Raman spectra performed in unshocked and shocked (C1 and C2) domains from monazite crystal. a- average and standard deviation of the Raman spectra per group. b- diagram showing the FWHM (full width at half maximum) of the v1 peak as a function of its spectral position (in cm<sup>-1</sup>). These values were corrected for the apparatus function of the Raman instrument (*Nasdala et al. 2001*). The peak positions and FWHM were determined without smoothing spectra and a linear baseline was used in the spectral range 800-1200 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The reproducibility is better than +/- 0.01 cm<sup>-1</sup> and our uncertainties on data are two magnitude lower than 1 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

Figure 3 – Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM) images performed in C1 (FIB1). a- Selected Area
Electron Diffraction (SAED) from area in b. b- Bright-Field (BF) TEM image. c- Dark-Field (DF) TEM
image using spot 2 (SAED in a). Note mottled diffraction contrasts (b), streaking of diffraction spots
(a), and extra spots DF1 (3.26Å) and DF2 (1.81Å) in [100] oriented SAED (a), characteristic features
from mosaïcism (misoriented subgrains visible in DF-TEM in c).

**Figure 4** – Bright (a-b) and Dark Field (d-f) TEM images, and Selected Area Electron Diffraction (SAED c) pattern from FIB-foil (FIB1-C1). Note the presence of band features almost parallel to each other (ab), and moiré fringes (arrows in b), in a domain that is deeper in the FIB foil than in Figure 3. The crystallinity is very reduced inside these bands, with almost no Bragg contrasts (homogeneous grey – e). SAED pattern (c) realized across one band and the monazite (inset in e) in zone axis [100], shows streaking of some spots and a lot of extra spots (DF1: 3,26Å, DF2: 1,81Å, DF3: 2,06Å) proof for highly disoriented domains (misoriented subgrains visible in DF-TEM in d-f). 612 Figure 5 – Annular Dark Field Scanning TEM (STEM) images from FIB-foil (FIB1-C1) zoom in the band 613 domains. a-b Lower magnification images: band domains appear darker (less diffracting regions). c-d-614 High resolution images. Note the crystallographic fringes still visible in the dark band domain (d and 615 e). The perfectly ordered ADF-STEM image in d shows arrangements of heavy atoms (e.g. Ce) in [100] 616 zone axis, in agreement with the crystallographic model. A Gaussian low-pass filter for noise reduction 617 was applied to high-magnification STEM images (c-d).

618 Figure 6 – Bright Field Transmission Electron Microscope (BF-TEM) images (a-b and d) and Selected 619 Area Electron Diffraction (SAED – c and e) from FIB-foil (FIB5) prepared from C2 area - Mosaïcism. 620 Note mottled diffraction contrasts (a-b), streaking of diffraction spots (c), moiré fringes (arrows in d), 621 and extra spots in [100] oriented SAED (arrows in e), characteristic features from mosaïcism 622 (misoriented subgrains).

623 Figure 7 – Bright Field Transmission Electron Microscope (BF-TEM) images (a-d) and Selected Area 624 Electron Diffraction (SAED - e) from FIB-foil (FIB5) prepared from C2 area - Highly-disoriented bands. 625

Note the presence of band features almost parallel to each other (a and b), in a domain that is deeper

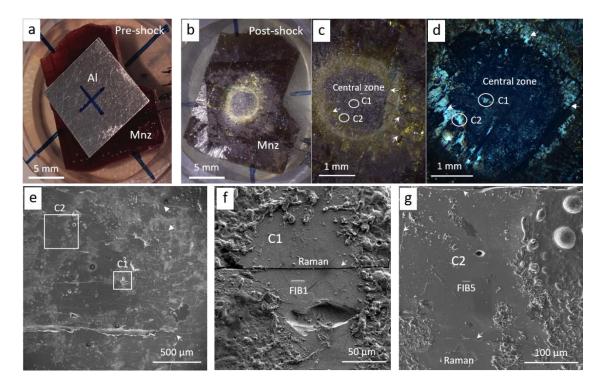
626 in the FIB foil (a). Note a very reduced crystallinity inside these bands, with almost no Bragg contrasts 627 (homogeneous grey – c and d). SAED pattern (e) realized across one band and the monazite (inset in 628 d) in zone axis [100], shows streaking of some spots and a lot of extra spots (arrows in e) proof for 629 highly disoriented domains.

630 Figure 8 – Annular Dark Field Scanning TEM (STEM) images from FIB-foil (FIB5) prepared from C2 area 631 in the highly-deformed bands domain. a- Low magnification ADF-STEM image showing the presence 632 of bands domains appearing darker (less diffracting regions). b- zoom in one band domain. c- Zoom in area inset in b and three Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) from different domains in c showing contrasts 633 634 between the bright perfectly ordered domain (FFT1) and dark highly disoriented (FFT2 and 3) domains 635 (bands). Note arrow indicating extra spot in FFT2 (measured at 3.2 Å). d-e: zoom from image in c. Note 636 the crystallographic fringes still visible in the dark band domain (d and e). The perfectly ordered ADF-

637 STEM image in f shows arrangements of heavy atoms in [100] zone axis, in agreement with the638 crystallographic model (see Supp data S2).

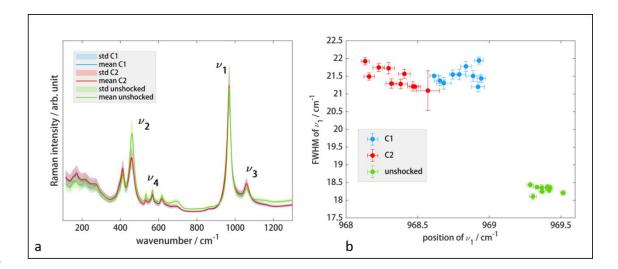
Figure 9 - Bright Field TEM images (a), SAED patterns (b), and High Resolution ADF-STEM images (c-d)
from one FIB-foil prepared in one naturally shocked monazite grain (Mnz9-FIB4) from Rietputs
formation (South-Africa; *Cavosie et al., 2018*). Deformation twins in (001) with Ca enrichment within
the boundary (Ca map from inset in c). Details on location of FIB foil and on chemical mapping are
given in Supp. Data S2.

- 644 Figures
- 645 **Figure 1**:

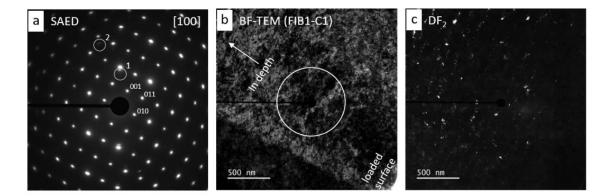




647 **Figure 2:** 

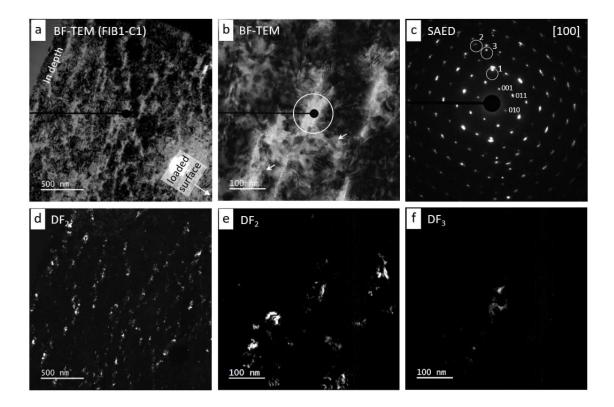


## 649 Figure 3:

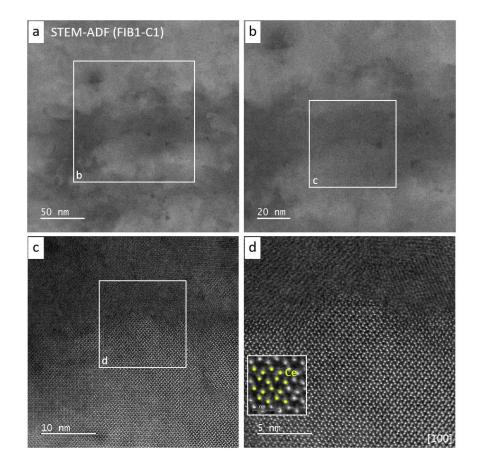


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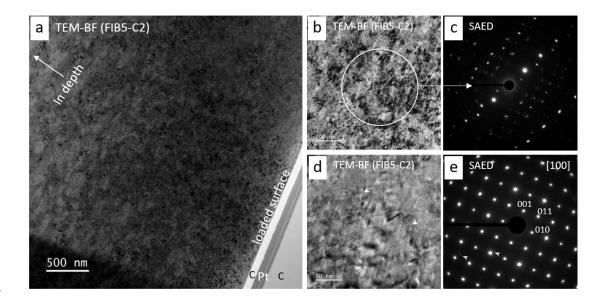
## 651 Figure 4:



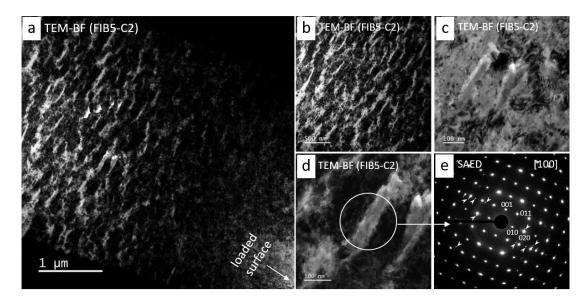
653 Figure 5:



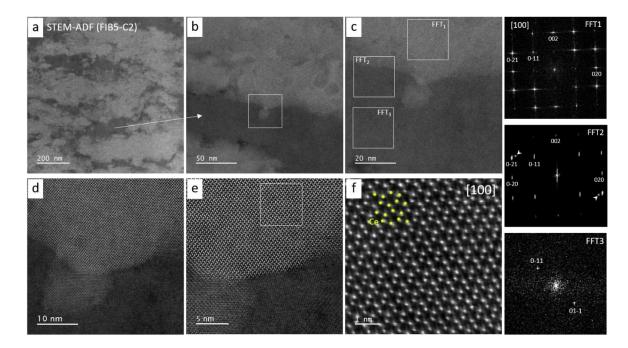
## **Figure 6:**











661 Figure 9:

