



Non-Magmatic Glasses

Maria Rita Cicconi, John Mccloy, Daniel R. Neuville

► To cite this version:

Maria Rita Cicconi, John Mccloy, Daniel R. Neuville. Non-Magmatic Glasses. *Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry*, 2022, 87 (1), pp.965-1014. 10.2138/rmg.2022.87.21 . hal-03857130

HAL Id: hal-03857130

<https://hal.science/hal-03857130>

Submitted on 17 Nov 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Chapter 23

Non-magmatic glasses

Cicconi Maria Rita¹, McCloy John S.², Neuville Daniel R.¹

1 University of Paris, Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris, Équipe Géomatériaux, 1, rue Jussieu F-75005 Paris, France

cicconi@ipgp.fr

neuville@ipgp.fr

2 School of Mechanical & Materials Engineering, Washington State University, PO Box 642920, Pullman, WA 99164-2920, USA

john.mccloy@wsu.edu

Overview

On Earth, natural glasses are typically produced by rapid cooling of melts, and as in the case of minerals and rocks, natural glasses can provide key information on the evolution of the Earth. However, natural glasses are products not solely terrestrial and different formation mechanisms give rise to a variety of natural amorphous materials. In this chapter, we provide an overview of the different natural glasses of non-magmatic origin, and on their formation mechanisms. Here we focus on natural glasses formed by mechanisms other than magmatic activity. Included are metamorphic and glasses from highly energetic events (shock metamorphism). The study of these materials has strong repercussions on planetary surface processes, paleogeography/paleoecology and even on the origin of life.

Outline:

Introduction

1. The composition and origin of natural glasses

- Brief description of the most common natural amorphous materials and of the different mechanisms of formation.

2 Metamorphism

2.1 Pyrometamorphic glasses

2.2 Pseudotachylites

3. Glasses from highly energetic events (shock metamorphism)

3.1 - Impactites

3.1.1 – Distal ejecta

Tektite and microtektites

Enigmatic Impact glasses

3.1.2 – Proximal impactite - suevite

3.2 fulgurite

Case study: fulgurite.

3.3 trinitite

4. Glass properties

43 **Acronyms & Glossary**

- 44 Hypervelocity impacts = Impacts, involving impacting bodies that are traveling at speed
45 (generally greater than a few km/s) higher enough to generate shock waves upon impact.
46 K-Pg = Cretaceous–Paleogene (K–Pg) boundary (~66 million years ago)
47 KT = Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary (former name for K-Pg)
48 Lechatelierite = shock-fused SiO₂ glass
49 LDG = Libyan Desert Glass
50 m-T = microtektites; Small distal ejecta with diameter less than 1 mm.
51 MN = Muong Nong-Type tektites
52 PDFs = Planar deformation features; microscopic parallel, isotropic features in minerals that
53 originate from elevated shock metamorphism.
54 SF = tektite/impact glass strewn fields
55 TAS = Total-Alkalis versus Silica diagram
56 Tektites = millimeter- to centimeter-scale, glassy particles of ballistically transported impact
57 melt, formed by the impact of an extraterrestrial projectile.
58 T_g = Glass Transition temperature
59 YD = Younger Dryas is a geological period from ~ 12,900 to ~ 11,700 BP
60 YDB = Younger Dryas boundary
61 XAS = X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy
62

INTRODUCTION

Natural glasses have accompanied human civilization and have always aroused human curiosity. Overtime, mankind tried, first of all, to understand the origin and the properties of these materials, and then, they have tried to recreate and improve, the natural occurring specimens. That is what brought us into the “Glass Age”, and nowadays, we cannot think of a life without glasses. Indeed, from rudimental weapons, decorative objects, or storage bottles, currently glasses are more high-tech materials used for example for high-speed communications, or in smart-windows. Many smart materials have been developed from the observations done on natural ones, but besides the material technology, are the natural sciences (*s.l.* incorporating life and physical sciences) that have gained the highest contribution from the study of natural amorphous materials. They have been used to explain why and when natural phenomena occurred, and to obtain a general understanding of natural phenomena. For example, in geosciences, knowledge about past events (geologically speaking) either on Earth or other terrestrial planets is often derived by the study of magmatic and non-magmatic glasses. Besides geosciences and engineering, the study of natural aluminosilicate glasses has been a key topic in the framework of waste managements, especially for evaluation of the long-term stability of nuclear waste form glasses (Chapman *et al.* 1984; Ewing 1979). Natural glasses may remain stable for very long periods (more than 1 Ma) in various geological settings and climatic conditions, in contrast to many manmade glasses from the Middle Age. Hence, natural glasses are used as analogues for extrapolation of short-term laboratory data (hours to years) to the long time periods (hundred to thousand years).

The aim of this chapter is to review natural glasses formed by mechanisms other than magmatic activity, and after a brief description of the most common natural amorphous materials and of the different mechanisms of formation, we report some examples on

metamorphic glasses, and on glasses from highly energetic events. At the end we report an overview of the properties of these natural amorphous materials.

In the last decades, several reviews, for specific natural glasses, have been published and the readers are referred to these exhaustive papers [e.g. Eby *et al.* 2010; Glass 1990; Glass & Simonson 2013; Koeberl 1997; Pasek *et al.* 2012]. More recent general reviews on different natural glasses are provided in Cicconi & Neuville 2019; Heide & Heide 2011; McCloy 2019.

1. The composition and origin of natural glasses

Natural glasses have different origins and chemical compositions, though, their chemical variability match the differentiations found in many common types of volcanic rocks. An overview of the enormous variability of natural glasses occurring on Earth and on Lunar soil can be appreciated in the TAS diagram (total alkali vs. silica; **Figure 1**). These amorphous materials have SiO₂ contents between ~33-99 wt.%, and alkali contents ranging between 0 and 15 wt.%, thus covering many common types of volcanic rocks. Despite the fact that these glasses are differentiated chemically as many common volcanic rocks, most of the times, non-magmatic glasses experienced extreme conditions of formations, far away from those of common igneous materials. Indeed, most of the glasses considered in this chapter have cooling rates orders of magnitude higher than volcanic terrestrial (or lunar) glasses, and/or have been subject to extremely elevated peak pressures. For instance, cooling rates may range from extremely high values, as in fulgurite formation ($\sim 10^{10}$ °C/min) and submarine basaltic eruptions (10^7 °/min), to moderate values in tektites 10^4 - 10^{-2} °/min, to very slow rates in massive obsidian flows 10^{-2} – 10^{-4} °/min (Potuzak *et al.* 2008; Rietmeijer *et al.* 1999; Switzer & Melson 1972; Weeks *et al.* 1984; Wilding *et al.* 1996b, 1996a). Out of curiosity, water, which

is considered to be a very weak glass former, requires cooling rates faster than 10^6 °/min to form an amorphous solid.

Before describing non-magmatic glasses, we would like to provide an overview of all amorphous materials found on Earth (and on other terrestrial planets), and of the various mechanisms of formation. The most known natural amorphous materials are of magmatic origin and include basaltic glasses and obsidians. Basaltic glasses have an average composition of about (wt.%) 50-54% SiO_2 , 12-17% Al_2O_3 , 8-12% FeO_{tot} , 2-4% alkali ($\text{K}_2\text{O} + \text{Na}_2\text{O}$), 15-20% alkali-earth ($\text{CaO} + \text{MgO}$) (Cicconi & Neuville 2019 and references therein) and their low viscosity favors crystallization (devitrification). Volcanic glasses produced upon rapid cooling of basaltic melts are called sideromelane, but they also occur as volcanic ash, fibers and teardrops (*i.e.* Pele's Hair and Pele's Tears) and more rarely form solidified foam – reticulite (Cicconi & Neuville 2019). Obsidian glass was first described by Pliny The Elder's Natural History with the name of “*obsiana*”, so called because its similarity to a very dark stone found in Ethiopia by Obsius. This glass has accompanied and influenced human evolution since prehistoric times, and nowadays, it still enters the popular culture, even if with more fanciful name (*i.e.* dragonglass, after the fantasy drama television series Game of Thrones). Obsidians are generally subalkalic rhyolitic with an average composition of about (wt.%) 72-77% SiO_2 , 10-15% Al_2O_3 , 1-2% FeO_{tot} , 7-10% alkali ($\text{K}_2\text{O} + \text{Na}_2\text{O}$), 0.5-2% alkali-earth ($\text{CaO} + \text{MgO}$) (Cicconi & Neuville 2019 and references therein). The glass-forming processes of obsidian melts are strongly influenced by the content, size and shape of microlites (Castro *et al.* 2002), and by the contents of volatile components (such as water, fluorine and chlorine, sulphur and carbon oxides (Carmichael 1979; Heide & Heide 2011), and small variations in volatile contents can cause important changes in the flow dynamics of obsidian melts.

Other natural amorphous materials are formed by metamorphic processes. For instance, the so-called pyrometamorphic glasses form due to burning of fossil fuels such as coal and natural gas or other organic material (McCloy 2019 and references therein). The term pyrometamorphism, which defines a type of contact metamorphism, was originally proposed in 1912 by Brauns (Grapes 2010 and references therein) to describe a high-temperature/ low pressure metamorphism observed in schist xenoliths in trachyte and phonolite magma of the East Eifel area (Germany). The term buchite is used to define those partially or completely melted materials as a consequence of pyrometamorphism.

Glasses from highly energetic events are formed in a completely different way, and with a completely different timescale than magmatic and metamorphic ones. For instance, impact glasses formation is related to the collision of an extraterrestrial body on the surface of the Earth. Thus, they derive from shock metamorphism of existing silicate rocks and sediments. Impacts or airbursts (shock melting caused by a cosmic object exploding in the atmosphere) can be either natural or artificial, and both provide shock markers due to the extreme high temperatures and pressures. Among natural glasses that experienced extremely high temperatures in a very short time there are also the fulgurites, formed following lightning strike.

Finally, biomineralization processes can produce amorphous materials. These are considered eco-friendly and thus they have captured the attention either of organic-/inorganic-chemists or materials scientists. Several siliceous marine organisms exhibit discontinuous, three-dimensional frameworks of short chains of SiO_4 tetrahedra, bonded with apical hydroxyls. The low-temperature hydrated variety of silica, opal ($\text{SiO}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$), is a biomineral, and displays different arrangements of amorphous SiO_2 , water, and cristobalite, and/or tridymite (Cicconi & Neuville 2019). Depending on the arrangements, it is possible to distinguish three opal types: i) opal-C (cristobalite); ii) opal-CT (cristobalite and tridymite); iii) opal-A (X-ray-amorphous opal). The latter can be further divided in opal-AN (*e.g.*, hyalite) and

opal-AG with an amorphous silica gel structure. In a “maturation process” (Ostwald ripening) opals are transformed as follows (Skinner & Jahren 2003 and references therein): Opal-AG → Opal-CT → Opal-C → microcrystalline quartz.

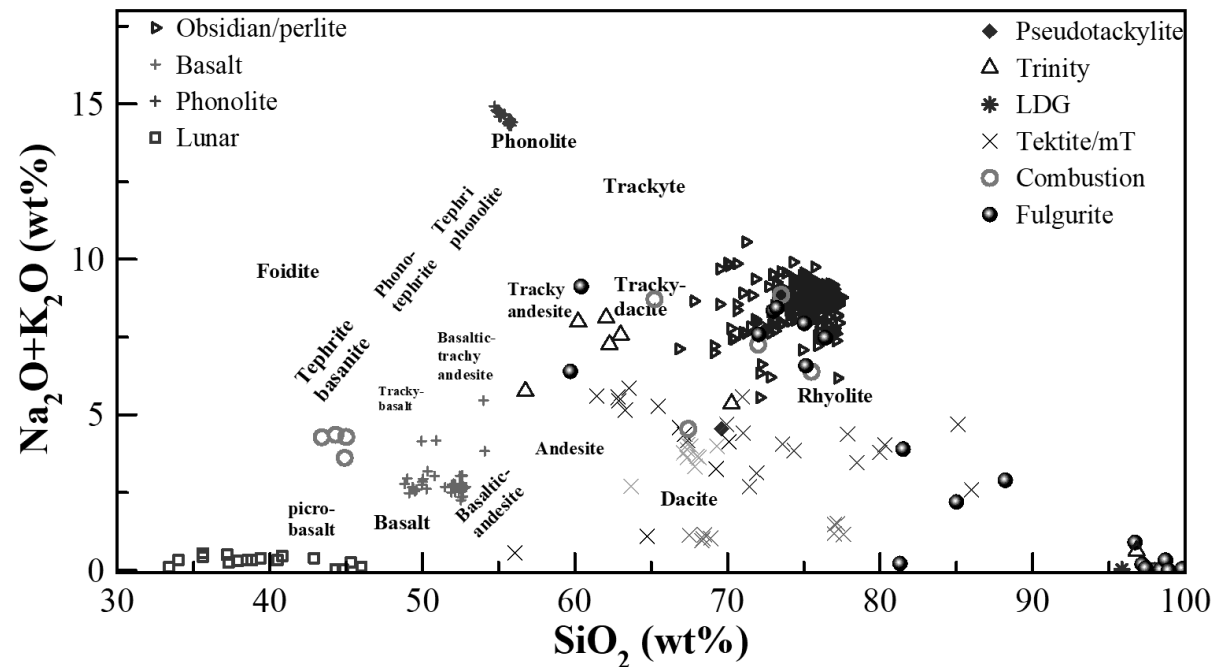
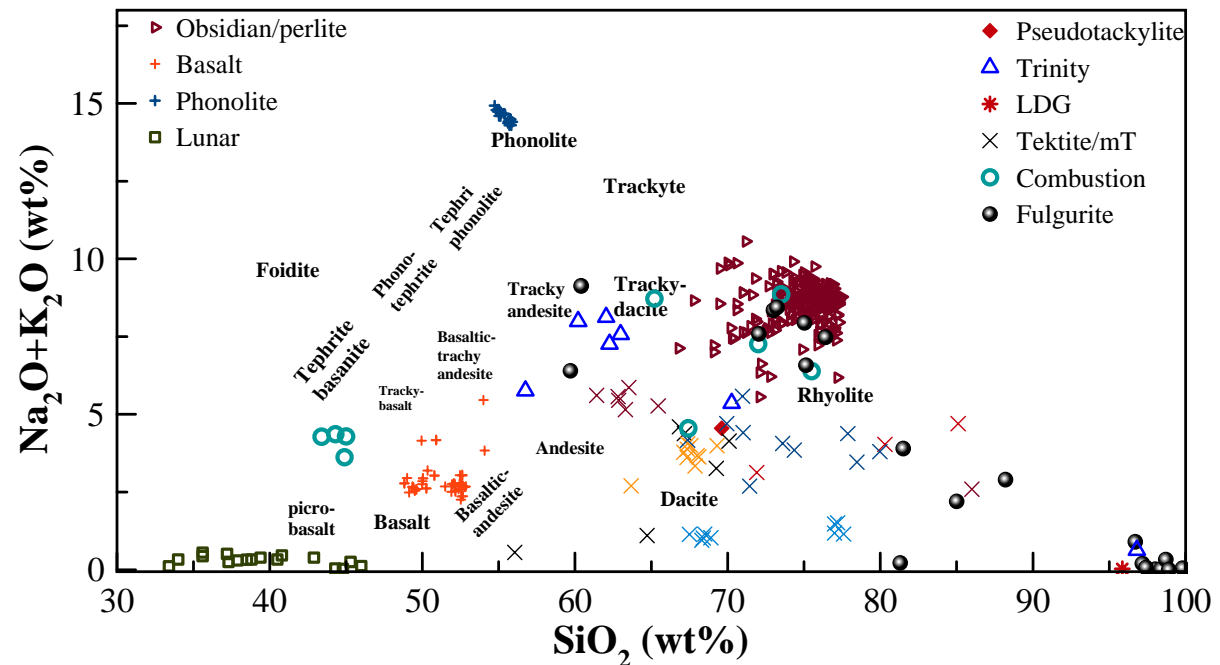


Figure 1 – SiO₂ vs. total alkali (wt%) diagram for several natural non-magmatic glasses described in this chapter. Glasses deriving from magmatic processes are reported for comparison. Data compilation from [Cicconi & Neuville 2019](#). LDG = Libyan Desert Glass; mT = microtektites.

2. Metamorphic glasses

2.1 Pyrometamorphic glasses

2.1.1 General features of pyrometamorphism

Pyrometamorphic glasses are in important class of amorphous materials summarized by (Grapes 2010). The term ‘pyrometamorphism’ was originally used by (Brauns 1912) to describe changes in contact zones (*i.e.*, aureoles) between magma intrusions and country rock, where high temperature and atmospheric pressure result in particular mineralogical and morphological changes. These high temperature changes are often observed in xenoliths within later igneous rocks, near shallow magmatic intrusions, and within tuffs and breccias. Brauns assumed that pyrometamorphism must create melting in the heat-affected rocks and vitrification on cooling. Other terms have been introduced but have fallen out of favor, such as optalic metamorphism, emphasizing the transient, quickly dissipated heat such as used when ‘baking a brick.’ Pyrometamorphized rocks tend to lose all volatiles, and melts recrystallize with anhydrous mineral assemblages. Some characteristic evidences of such processes include bleaching of carbonate rocks, reddening of iron-containing rocks, fusion of mineral grains, hardening, and similar morphological and chemical changes similar to those observed in earthenware ceramic and clay brick-making processes. Heat for pyrometamorphic transformations need not come from contact magmatic heat, but also from other sources, such as combustion of coal beds and organic-rich sediments or even lightning. The Subcommittee on the Systematics of Metamorphic Rocks (SCMR) of the International Union of Geological Sciences (IUGS) categorizes these effects as subvariants of contact metamorphism, namely ‘burning/combustion metamorphism’ and ‘lightning metamorphism,’ *i.e.*, fulgurites (Callegari & Pertsev 2007).

While contact and lightning metamorphism are highly localized, high temperature changes in rock due to coal bedding combustion can be regionally extensive. Well documented examples in the USA occur in the Grimes Canyon area, Monterey Formation, California

(Bentor *et al.* 1981); the Powder River Basin, Wyoming (Cosca *et al.* 1989; Herring & Modreski 1986); and various coal-bearing areas of Montana and Colorado (Rogers 1918). The phenomenon of combustion metamorphism has been found to be quite common (Bentor *et al.* 1981; Grapes 2010), including examples in China (de Boer *et al.* 2001), Mongolia (Peretyazhko *et al.* 2018), India, Russia (*e.g.*, Chelyabinsk brown coal basin) (Sokol *et al.* 1998), Iran, Jordan (Khoury *et al.* 2015), Israel (Ron & Kolodny 1992; Sokol *et al.* 2014), Czechia, Germany, England, Italy (Melluso *et al.* 2004), Mali (Svensen *et al.* 2003), Canada (Canil *et al.* 2018; Mathews & Bustin 1984), New Zealand, and Australia.

Some terms are commonly used for pyrometamorphic rocks as follows. Hornfels forms where clay-rich rocks contact a hot igneous body, and partially or completely recrystallize after in-situ melting, resulting in baked and hardened silicate + oxide systems. Clinker originally referred to altered or burned coal, but now refers generally to burnt brick-like rock which ‘rings’ (‘clinks’) when struck. Note that clinker is also the high-temperature processed calcium aluminosilicate used as the reactive precursor for Portland cement. These same ‘clinker’ minerals, *e.g.*, belite sulfoaluminate, have been found in Israel in natural pyrometamorphic contexts (Sokol *et al.* 2014). Buchite, in contrast to hornfels, is largely vitrified from high heat applied to sandstones or pelites, resulting in hard, fused, and glassy material; the term is not restricted to coal fire lithologies, so in that case should be referred to as ‘buchite clinker.’ Finally, paralava resembles artificial slag or basalt, is generally vesicular and aphanitic, sometimes shows evidence of flow, and formed from burning and melting of sedimentary rocks (shale, sandstone, marl) by proximal combusting coal seams. The distinction among these is based on both protolith and peak temperature, which can be ~ 400 to >1600 °C locally, resulting in a continuum from baked/burnt rock to fused-grained rock (clinker) to partially melted buchite, to wholly melted and partially devitrified rock (paralava), often all in the same area. Terminology is not uniform employed, and in certain localities clinker is still be called ‘scoria’

despite the different volcanic origin assumed from that term. Use of the terms ‘buchite’ and ‘paralava’ imply the observable presence of glass resulting from a quenched rock melt (Grapes 2010).

2.1.2 Coal fires and spontaneous combustion

Coals in the Western USA, known to spontaneous combust, are typically lignite or sub-bituminous grade (Rogers, 1917). Spontaneous combustion occurs due to a complex process involving absorption of oxygen, such as through cracks, and oxidation of unsaturated hydrocarbons. The main exothermic reaction is that of carbon reacting with oxygen gas to form CO₂ (Grapes 2010). These early reactions take place at temperatures as low as 80 °C, but this oxidation further generates heat until about 200 °C, where autogenous oxidation occurs, followed by ignition at 350-400 °C. Fine dust lignite, however, which has typically absorbed a large amount of oxygen, can ignite at temperatures as low as 150 °C (Rogers 1918). Moisture is said to exacerbate this effect, with escaping hydrogen-containing gases also playing a role. Other factors influencing the combustion reaction include coal factors such as rank and pyrite content, reaction factors such as particle size and temperature, and macroscopic factors such as air flow, overbedding rock type, and thermal conduction (Grapes 2010). Often areas can burn in the absence of additional oxygen, producing highly reducing conditions and the creation of coal ash with evidence of metallic iron (de Boer *et al.* 2001; Grapes 2010).

Combustion of coal beds has been observed in modern times on the coast of Dorset, England; in the ‘Smoking Hills’ of Canada (Mathews & Bustin 1984); and at the ‘Burning Mountain’ (Mt. Wingen) in New South Wales, Australia (Bentor *et al.* 1981). The Smoking Hills are thought to have been burning for at least 150 years, while the Burning Mountain has been combusting for at least 15,000 years. The Posidonia shales in Germany, though not

currently combusting, are thought to have been active in the Middle Ages (Bentor *et al.* 1981). Many other examples are known (Kuenzer & Stracher 2012).

Examples of modern creation of pyrometamorphic materials are known from burning of a wide range of fossil fuels, from spontaneous combustion but also other natural or anthropogenic ignition (Kuenzer & Stracher 2012). Combustion in coal mining ‘spoil heaps’ has resulted in recent pyrometamorphic processes in Russia (Chelyabinsk) (Sokol *et al.* 1998) and Italy (Ricetto) (Capitanio *et al.* 2004; Stoppa *et al.* 2005) (Figure 2). One of the interesting features of the assemblage in Russia is the presence of pure glassy carbon, known as shungite. Additionally, minerals have been observed which were crystallized from the gas phase in cracks, including pure oxide, sulfide, silicate, and carbide single crystals.

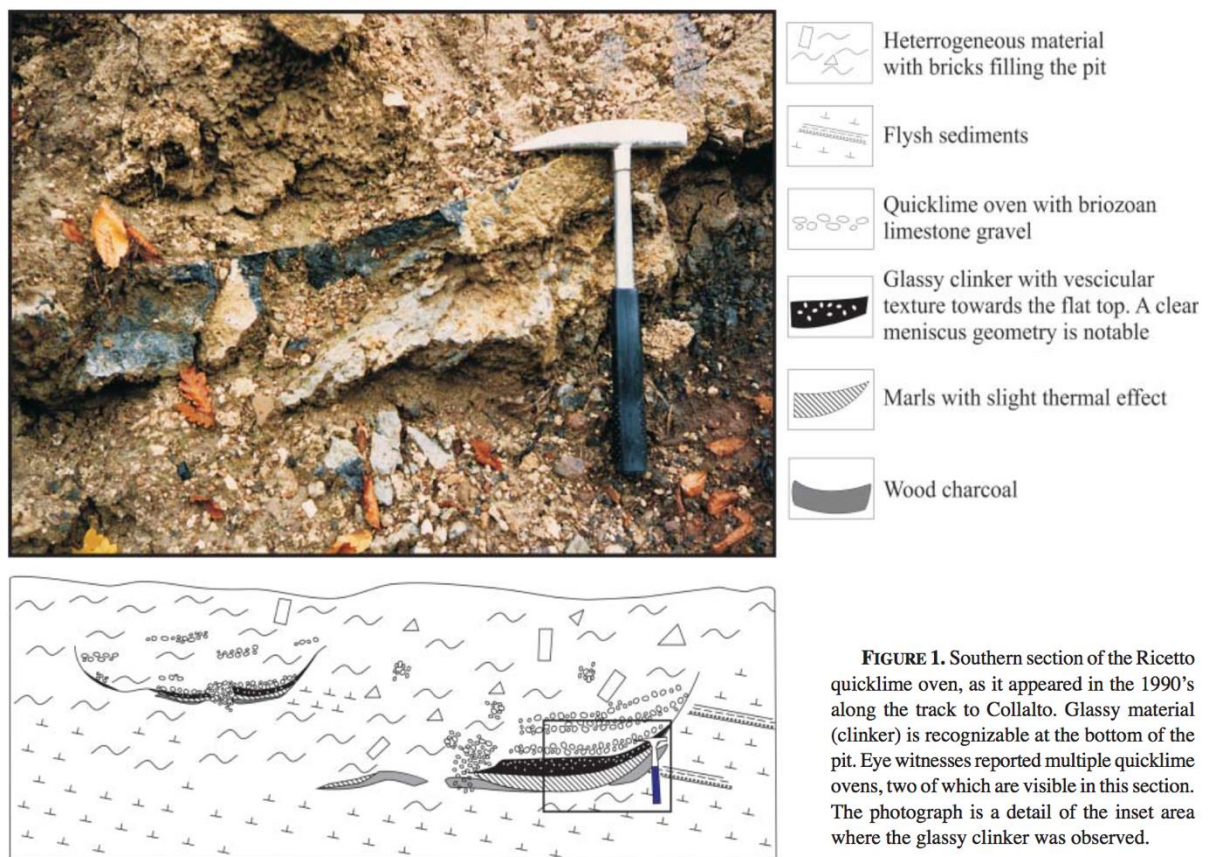


Figure 2: pyrometamorphic material at Ricetto (Italy). Image from Stoppa *et al.* 2005
Figure1_Stoppa2005_AM90_1919. MSA copyright.

2.1.3 Other processes fueling pyrometamorphism

It should be noted that pyrometamorphic rocks and glasses can be produced by high temperature burning using any fuel, not just coal. Many examples have been described where the fuel was biomass or organic material covered by sediment. This organic material can be deposited naturally, and subsequently be covered to ignite and burn in the subsurface under dry conditions, such as examples in Chile (Roperch *et al.* 2017) and Africa (Melson & Potts 2002; Svensen *et al.* 2003). Alternatively, organic deposits can be a result of human activity, such as archaeologically observed middens (Thy *et al.* 1995) or modern-day haystacks (Baker & Baker 1964), the burning of which produces glassy material.

Organic gases can be fuels for rock burning as well. One of the most studied areas of pyrometamorphic rocks, the Dead Sea region in Israel, has been interpreted as having a pyrometamorphic origin, from a mud volcano and associated methane and hydrocarbon gas combustion (Sokol *et al.* 2010). Gas seeps and their associated ‘eternal flames’ from spontaneous combustion have played important roles in human history, especially in religious and mythological traditions. For example, the methane seeps known as Chimera in southwest Turkey was the site of the first Olympic fire in the ancient Greek world, and the site of a temple of Hephaestus (Vulcan) the god of fire and metallurgy (Etiope 2015; Hosgormez *et al.* 2008), and it still burns today. All kerogens of various grades, from bitumen to oil, are potential sources of fuel for creation of pyrometamorphic rocks and glass.

Pyrometamorphic melts are also known to be produced from oilfield fire. Characteristic glasses, known as tengizites after the Tengiz oilfield in Kazakhstan, formed in this inferno (Kokh *et al.* 2016). Tengizites, essentially a type of paralava/slag, contain 59-69 wt.% SiO₂, 7.3 - 9.7 wt.% Al₂O₃, 12.8 - 17.9 wt.% CaO, 2.0 - 3.7 wt.% MgO, 2.0 - 3.0 wt.% Na₂O, 1.3 - 1.9 wt.% K₂O, < 0.3 wt.% H₂O and < 0.4 wt.% total volatiles, as a result of melting sand and clayey silt along with biogenic calcite (Kokh *et al.* 2016). The associated buchite at the site is known as mesolite, consisting of partially melted and highly altered sediment, and compared to

tengizite has lower SiO₂, higher Al₂O₃, MgO, K₂O, TiO₂, and total volatiles, but lower FeO/Fe₂O₃ ratio.

One detailed example

Compositions of pyrometamorphic glasses vary drastically depending on the local chemical environment derived from the protolith, extent of melting, mixing of the melt, and subsequent crystallization. For example, most Western US coal-bearing regions are interbedded with predominantly shale and sandstone (Rogers 1918). The famous example Grimes Canyon in California consists of protoliths of mudstone containing clays, detrital quartz and feldspar, opal, apatite, biogenic carbonates (calcite and dolomite), and gypsum, while also being bituminous, containing more than 10% carbon (Bentor *et al.* 1981). Some diatomites, shales, and phosphorites also were locally metamorphized; phosphorite contains predominantly detrital apatite, which melts at 1650 °C (Bentor 1984). Some constituents elevated in the metamorphized rocks such as sulfate, and in other cases chloride, likely came from groundwater introduction during the combustion process (Bentor *et al.* 1981; Rogers 1918).

Bentor (1984) distinguishes between combustion ‘glasses’ and ‘crystalline slags’ for these materials, depending on the peak melting temperature achieved. ‘Glasses’ result from low temperature melts ≤ 1000 °C, are enriched in Na, K, Al, and Si, and maintain high viscosity in the small volume seams between unmelted rock, thus preventing crystallization. ‘Crystalline slags’ melted at ≥ 1100 °C, dissolving even apatite crystals and other refractory minerals, resulting in a lower viscosity, more basalt-like melt, which underwent extensive crystallization on cooling (hence ‘slag’). These ‘slags’ are essentially synonymous with paralavas. There is strong evidence of silicate/phosphate liquid immiscibility from the lower temperature silicate melt and higher temperature phosphorite melt in these cases (Bentor 1984; Bentor *et al.* 1981; Capitanio 2005; Peretyazhko *et al.* 2018).

Two samples of Grimes Canyon were investigated by X-ray diffraction. Not all phases could be accurately identified by XRD, but diffraction indicated the majority was amorphous glass (50-75%), with large fractions of feldspar (12-25%), apatite (6-7%), calcite (3-4%), pyroxene (1-9%), and tridymite (1-4%). The lighter portions of the banded material contained more carbonate and phosphate crystalline phases. These phases are broadly consistent with those observed in [Bentor et al. \(1981\)](#). In Wyoming Powder River Basin paralavas, phenocrysts of olivine, cordierite, and spinel (magnetite-hercynite-ulvospinel) are also common, along with many unusual minerals and mineral associations ([Cosca et al. 1989](#)). In the Apennine region in Italy, pyrometamorphic outcrops include wollastonite and melilite, likely from protoliths of mixed marly sediments of carbonates and shales ([Melluso et al. 2004](#)).

In summary, pyrometamorphic glasses and rocks are highly variable due to the varying temperatures, mineral protoliths, and local environmental conditions, resulting in equally variable disequilibrium melting, volatilization, mixing, and crystallization ([Canil et al. 2018](#); [Peretyazhko et al. 2018](#); [Sokol et al. 1998](#)).

2.2 Pseudotachylite or frictionites

Pseudotachylite is a generic name for friction melts, and usually, in the geological terminology, pseudotachylites are classified as fault rocks ([Killick 2003](#)) even if the genesis could be quite broad. In agreement with [Heide & Heide \(2011\)](#), we classify these glasses as metamorphic ones, and in turn, among those glasses that originated from pre-existing rocks and display marked modifications due to changes in the pressure-temperature conditions.

Friction melts (and especially those with a pumice texture) were firstly associated exclusively to volcanic origin or to impact events. The term itself was introduced to describe the abundant dark glassy veins in Vrederfort (South Africa), the largest impact structure on

Earth. Nowadays, pseudotachylites are associated to large impact structures, earthquake-generated layers (veins), and very large rock avalanches (*e.g.* [Reimold & Gibson 2005](#); [Spray 2010](#)). Indeed, the exclusive volcanic or impact-associated origin hypotheses have been both ruled out from the study of pumiceous rocks from Ötz Valley (Köfels landslide, see [De Blasio & Medici 2017](#); [Erismann *et al.* 1977](#)), and since then, several studies focused on fault related friction melts that form by co-seismic friction (fault pseudotachylite) or avalanches.

The typical generic definition provided for pseudotachylite is: “dense rock produced in the compression and shear associated with intense fault movements, involving extreme mylonitization or partial melting,” ([Bates & Jackson 1987](#)). Thus, the term “pseudotachylite” should be used to describe rocks that present unambiguous evidence of high temperatures. Because sometime this name is used regardless the origin of the glass, it is recommended to point out the differences between impact-related and fault-related pseudotachylites, such as the thickness of the material, or their formation history ([Kenkmann *et al.* 2000](#); [Reimold & Gibson 2005](#)). The mechanisms of formation of (impact)-pseudotachylites in large impact structure are described in [Reimold & Gibson 2005](#). In the following we will briefly describe pseudotachylites associated to very large landslides or formed along a fault plane during seismic deformation.

Fault pseudotachylite usually are veins of a few millimeters to a few centimeters in width that are related to large magnitude seismic events and located mostly in the upper crust ([Ferré *et al.* 2005](#)). Large seismic events can induce to a local increase of the temperature and to the melting of the host rocks along the fault plane, resulting in the creation of amorphous (cryptocrystalline) veins in response to frictional fusion. Depending on the maximum temperature achieved during seismic slip, the mineral phases present in the host rocks will be either melted or preserved as relict grains in the glassy matrix ([Spray 1992](#)). The chemical composition of the fault pseudotachylites is often slightly more mafic than the host rock, but the glass chemistry is dependent on bulk composition, mineral assemblage, and texture of the

host rocks (Di Toro *et al.* 2005; Maddock 1992). The study of the microlites and of the compositions of the glass matrix can be used to determine the temperature regimes associated to the seismic events. For example, artificial pseudotachylites have been produced by direct high-speed friction experiments (*e.g.* Kenkmann *et al.* 2000; Lin & Shimamoto 1998; Spray 1987) and the estimated melt temperatures of natural and experimental pseudotachylites are in the range of 750–1400 °C (Lin & Shimamoto 1998). Heide & Heide 2011 report melting temperatures of 1700 °C because of the presence of lechatelierite inclusions in frictionite melts. Nestola *et al.* (2010) report the occurrence of hexagonal $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$ (dmisteinbergite) in a fault pseudotachylite from the Gole Larghe Fault (Adamello, Italy), a polymorph that is formed at high temperatures (1200–1400 °C) by rapid cooling. The constrain of the temperature regimes during seismic events is considered very important in order to better understand fault processes and to infer earthquake source parameters.

Friction melts can be generated as well during very large landslides (Erismann *et al.* 1977; Legros *et al.* 2000; Weidinger *et al.* 2014). Well-studied landslides-derived pseudotachylites are in Köfels (Austria) and Himalaya (Nepal). The latter is a giant rockslides (dislocation of ~170 m) that caused the formation of a homogeneous glassy layer with thickness between 1 - 3 cm (Masch & Preuss 1977). Masch & Preuss 1977 report a detailed study of both events and they observed that glass matrix is chemically heterogeneous with schlieren, bubbles, and relicts from the parent rock materials (partial to almost complete melting of host rocks of granitic to granodioritic composition). Moreover, they report the occurrence of glasses with pure quartz, plagioclase and alkali-feldspar compositions. Weidinger *et al.* (2014) report a review of several basal deposits of giant rockslides and defined that very short (<10 s) giant moving rockslides could produce friction-induce partial melting with basal temperatures > 1500 °C (in anhydrous conditions).

2. Glasses from highly energetic events

We will describe amorphous materials deriving from highly energetic events, either natural or artificial. First of all, glasses produced by natural events, such as tektites and impact spherules, will be taken into account. Then, we are going to describe some enigmatic natural glasses that are almost certainly of impact origin (accepted or assumed) but that are not found in stratigraphic contexts. Notable examples of such glasses are Libyan Desert Glass, Darwin Glass, and Dakhleh Glass. Finally, we are going to describe other glasses, resulting from a rapid “shock” event, the fulgurites. At the end, we will consider also a glass, not strictly natural, but that can be considered as an analogues of impact glasses: the atomic glass - trinitite.

2.1 Impactites

Impact processes are able to greatly influence the evolution of planets. Just looking at the Moon, we can recognize with bare eye that the surface is heavily affected by impact cratering. Besides our satellite, planets such as Mercury, Mars and many satellites in the Solar System have circular depressions that testify the occurrence of numerous impacts, with only a few exceptions, including Earth, where the topography has been remodeled by active geological processes. The first impact crater directly witnessed on Earth (the so-called Carancas event) is very recent. It occurred near the southern shore of Lake Titicaca in Peru on September 2007, where the impact of a stony meteorite produced a 13.5 m crater ([Tancredi et al. 2009](#)).

The recognition of impact cratering as a fundamental process in the evolution of a planet has occurred as well rather recently, with the discovery of small spherules worldwide distributed in the Cretaceous- Paleogene K-Pg layer (formally known as KT, Cretaceous-Tertiary), first detected in Gubbio, Italy by [Alvarez and coauthors \(1980\)](#). These spherules and the associated layer contain chemical and physical evidences for a major impact that caused the mass extinction event at the K-Pg boundary. In 1991, a 170-180 km diameter crater was

identified on the Yucatan peninsula as the impact site (Chicxulub crater) of a 10 to 15 km asteroid that induced the cataclysmic event responsible for the formation of the K-Pg worldwide ejecta horizons and caused the end-Cretaceous mass extinction, around 65 Ma ago.

As might be expected, impacts have caused catastrophic effects on climate and landscape, however, they do not produce just destruction and extinction. Indeed, there are also beneficial effects associated to such events, such as the economic significance of impact deposits (*i.e.* Sudbury, Canada; Vredefort, South Africa), or the associated hydrothermal systems created (Osinski & Pierazzo 2012; Pierazzo & Melosh 2012).

The impact of a large object (>50 m for a stony object), moving at a great speed (> 11 km s^{-1} ; French 1998), with the surface will create an impact crater after a very short sequence of complex events, which can be summarized into three main stages: contact and compression, excavation and modifications (Melosh 2011). The generic term impactite refers to the large variety of materials (rocks, melts) formed by hypervelocity impact(s) of a large extraterrestrial body. A series of distinct materials is generated by the forces of a hypervelocity impact, starting with a shock wave (compression stage) and followed by decompression from peak shock pressures, with associated heat generation and material transport (excavation stage) Reimold & Jourdan 2012. The post-shock heat causes the solid-state deformation and/or melting of the target crustal rock and even its vaporization, and the original material is entirely altered by the extreme heat and pressure regimes. Simulation of impact processes have established that the timescale of crater formation is extremely short, compared to many other geological processes, and are in the order of seconds to minutes for craters ranging from 1 to 100 km, thus impactites will present very distinctive characteristics (French 1998; Stöffler *et al.* 2018; Stöffler & Grieve 2007). Impactite is the commonly used (and misused) word for all shocked, melted or vaporized materials as a consequence of a hypervelocity impact, and because of the confusion, a study

group proposed a classification and a nomenclature of these materials, based on geological setting, texture, composition, and degree of shock metamorphism (Stöffler *et al.* 2018; Stöffler & Grieve 2007). The first grouping is based on the location of the materials, thus “proximal impactites” is used for materials found in the proximity of the impact crater, whereas the term “distal impactites” refers to materials that do not occur directly in or around a source crater (*i.e.* distal ejecta). Further sub classifications have been applied to proximal impactites, and according to Stöffler & Grieve 2007, proximal can be further divided into three subgroups: shocked rocks, impact melt-rocks and impact breccias; depending on the peak pressure and the post-shock temperatures, both minerals and original rocks texture will present shock effects that allow to identify progressive stages of shock metamorphisms. For instance, by increasing shock pressure there are i) Planar Fractures (PFs) and Planar Deformation Features (PDFs) in minerals such as quartz, zircon and feldspars; ii) high-pressure quartz polymorphs (coesite, stishovite); iii) diaplectic mineral glasses (produced without fusion); iv) fused mineral glasses (produced with fusion), and v) melts (see Figure 3 from Reimold & Jourdan 2012). For example, quartz grains exposed to shock compression develop planar microstructures depending on the pressure range: PFs for pressure range of 5 - 8 GPa, and PDFs over the pressure range of 5-10 GPa to ~ 35 GPa. Shock-induced deformation in zircon grains have been reported as well, indicating shock pressures higher than 20 GPa (L. Ferrière and G. R. Osinski – *impact cratering book, chapter 8*). Impact diamonds have been reported as well in many impact sites. The transition from carbon (graphite) to diamond and lonsdaleite is around 13-15 GPa, with temperature in the range of 1300–2000 K (French 1998; Pratesi 2009).

Figure 3 clearly shows that the pressure conditions for normal crustal metamorphism (regional, contact) differs completely from shock metamorphism, resulting in the production of characteristic features and materials. In normal crustal metamorphism the range of temperature and pressure is around ≤ 1000 °C and 1 - 3 GPa, respectively, and rocks and mineral

transformations occur in very long times ($>10^5$ years), thus approaching equilibrium (French 1998). On the contrary, shock metamorphism is an instantaneous process, with peak pressures that reach > 100 GPa, and temperatures much higher than 3000 °C. Because of the rapid process, quenched amorphous and crystalline metastable phases are characteristic. For a detailed description of all shocked materials, readers are referred to the comprehensive work of Stöffler & Langenhorst 1994 and to Osinski *et al.* 2012).

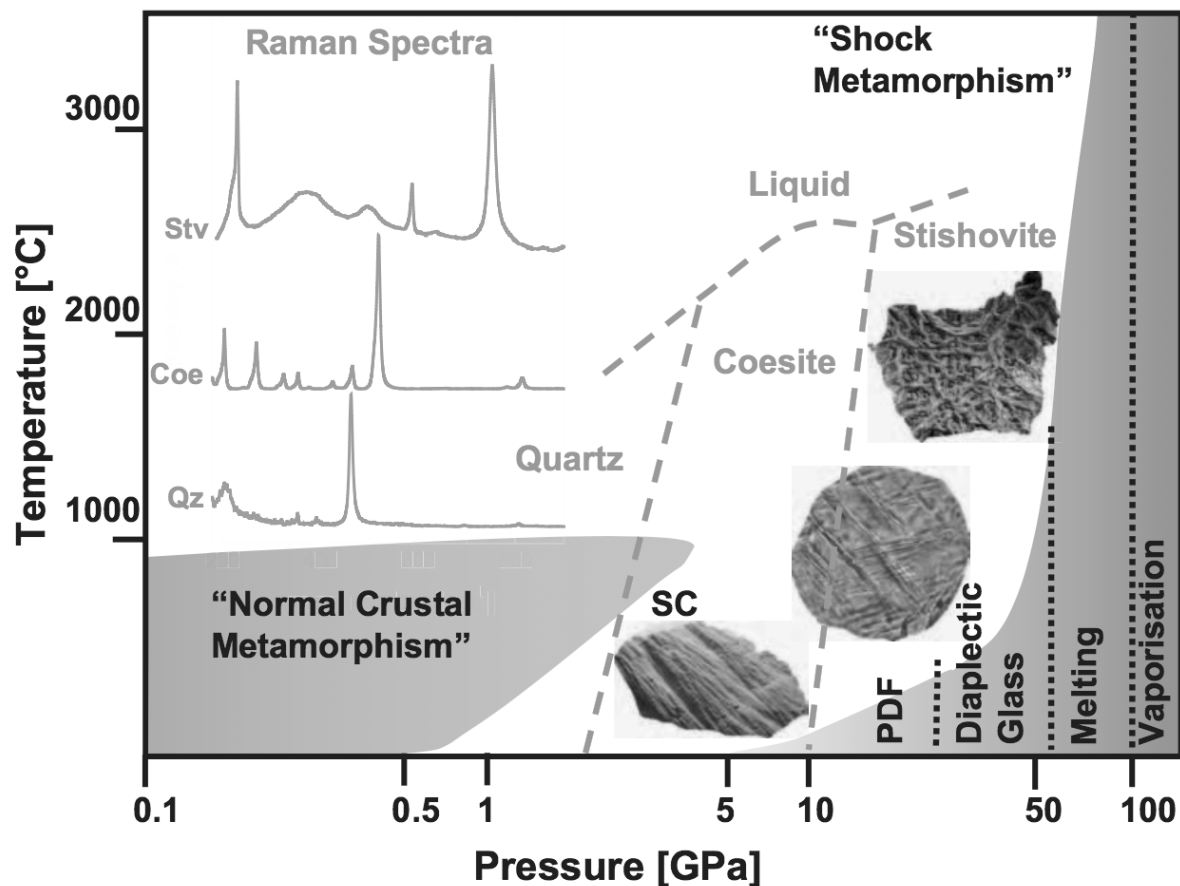


Figure 3 - Pressure (*P*)–temperature (*T*) diagram, for normal and shock metamorphisms.
Figure from Reimold & Jourdan 2012; COPYRIGHT MSA

In the following, we will mainly discuss the most homogeneous glasses created by hypervelocity impact events, *i.e.* the distal ejecta tektites, but we will also provide a brief overview of some other distal ejecta and proximal glasses. To distinguish proximal impact glasses, volcanic glasses and distal ejecta tektites, Koeberl 2013 provides some characteristics that are distinctive of the distal ejecta, and enable their recognition. Tektites are:

- i) amorphous and fairly homogeneous (no crystallites);
- ii) contain lechatelierite (amorphous SiO₂);
- iii) occur within definite areas, called strewn-fields (SF) and are associated to a single source impact crater;
- iv) do not occur directly in or around a source crater (they are distal ejecta).

Moreover, tektites are strongly depleted in water (0.002 to 0.02 wt.%, at least an order of magnitude lower than the H₂O content of volcanic glasses) and are highly reduced (almost all iron occurs as Fe²⁺) (Beran & Koeberl 1997; Fudali *et al.* 1987; Giuli *et al.* 2010a, 2013a, 2014a; Giuli 2017; Koeberl 1994, 2013; Melosh & Artemieva 2004; Rossano *et al.* 1999).

3.1.1 Distal Ejecta

As a consequence of a hypervelocity impact, the uppermost (200 m) surficial target rock is melted and ejected. A small portion of this molten ejected material will fly far away from the source crater and are called distal ejecta (according to Montanari & Koeberl 2000, ~ 90 % of the ejecta are proximal *i.e.* deposited within five crater radii from the impact site). The flying melts are quickly quenched to form fairly homogeneous amorphous materials with typical shapes (*e.g.* splash forms) like spheres, teardrops, disc-shaped form, and are known as tektites. A partial crystallization of primary microlites/crystallites (*e.g.* clinopyroxene or Ni-rich spinel) upon cooling could occur and the material formed is called microkrystite (Glass & Simonson 2013 and references therein).

Distal ejecta deposits (or air-fall beds) are deposited far away from the source crater and can be divided in two types: i) tektites and microtektites, and ii) spherule beds (Osinski *et al.* 2012). A more enigmatic kind of distal ejecta found on Earth consists of glassy materials, not volcanic in origin, but not having spherical shapes and not classified as tektites. Example of these enigmatic glasses are Libyan Desert Glass, and Darwin glass (Glass & Simonson 2013).

The reasons behind the formation of spherules and tektites remains poorly understood, and no solid model or evidence has been found to explain why just a few impacts form large amounts of high-speed ejected glasses and why only a few provides tektites ([Howard 2011](#)). Thus, tektite formation must require specific impact conditions (see below).

On Earth, impact craters are not easily found (190 confirmed impact structure as of July 2019; [Earth Impact Database 2019](#)) because their morphology has been altered by hydrothermal and chemical alteration, and by tectonic processes. Thus, most of the impact craters occurred on Earth have been destroyed or covered. For instance, the Chicxulub impact structure is located beneath ~ 1 km of sediment below and half offshore the Yucatan Peninsula, and until 1991, year of the discovery, the only proof of a connection between end-Cretaceous mass extinction (K–Pg boundary layer) and a possible cataclysmic impact, was the worldwide occurrence of distal ejecta horizons. Hence, sometimes, distal ejecta are the only remaining witnesses of large impact events, and they provide important information regarding planetary processes when found in the stratigraphic record. The importance of air-fall beds has been compared to the study of volcanoclastic layers ([Glass 2016](#)).

When dealing with distal ejecta, or in general, with glass spherules, the most important point is to gather enough evidences to rule out the volcanic origin. These evidences are usually called ‘impact markers’ and includes chemical, isotopic, and mineralogical marks that indicate the involvement of a cosmic body. Example of markers that indicate an extraterrestrial contribution are the elevated content of siderophile elements (Ir, platinum group elements, PGE), the occurrence of shocked minerals a/o Ni-rich spinels a/o impact diamonds, and atypical isotope ratios. The complete list of the well-established or new ‘impact markers’ is beyond the scope of this chapter, and the readers are referred to the exhaustive contribution of ([Goderis *et al.* 2012](#)).

Tektites and microtektites

Tektites are small, typically dark, glassy objects that have been transported through the atmosphere hundreds to thousands of kilometers from the impact site, and are found only in certain areas of the Earth's surface, called tektite strewn fields (SF). Tektites are generally chemically homogeneous, Si-rich glasses of various sizes (usually > 1 cm), with typical aerodynamic shapes and very characteristic surface features (Figure 4). Microtektites are microscopic tektites, with diameter < 0.1 cm, largely found in deep-sea sediments.

Tektites can be further subdivided in three types, depending on their forms: Muong Nong-Type (or layered), ablated/flanged tektites (or aerodynamically shaped tektites), and the most common ones, the splash forms (or normal tektites). The morphology of the most common tektites varies between spherical, dumbbell-shaped, and teardrops (Figure 4) as a result of rapid rotation of the molten flying material.



Figure 4 - Australasian tektites with various shapes; dumbbell, teardrop and fragments. Dumbbells are formed by rapid rotation of melt droplets ejected into the atmosphere. When the rotation is high enough, the dumbbell is broken to form teardrops.

Muong Nong-Type tektites (MN - named after a region in Laos) are unusually large tektites (up to several tens of centimeters in size) and with layered structures. [Koeberl 1992a](#)

observed that Muong Nong-Type tektites are enriched in volatile elements (the halogens, Cu, Zn, Ga, As, Se, Pb), and have higher water contents compared to splash-forms and ablated tektites. Moreover, MN tektites present chemical heterogeneity (darker and lighter layers), and may contain relict mineral grains (*e.g.* corundum, quartz, chromite and cristobalite) and very large bubbles (Glass & Simonson 2013). Despite the differences with other tektites, still MN-Type tektites have an average chemical composition (major element chemistry) and age matching those of common tektites. Moreover, MN-Type tektites strongly differ from volcanic glasses because of the presence of shocked mineral inclusions, for differences both in major and trace element contents (*e.g.* REE patterns), lower water content, and highly reduced iron (Koeberl 1992a). The presence of relict mineral grains, and the relatively higher water amount in Muong Nong-Type tektites suggest that these glasses have experienced the lowest temperatures of all tektites (Koeberl 1992a). For instance, the presence of volatiles (halogens, Zn) and the vesicularity of lechatelierite particles seem to indicate lower formation temperatures (Montanari & Koeber 2000). It is assumed that Muong Nong-type tektites have been deposited closer to the source crater and based on ^{10}Be data they should derive from a greater depth in the target deposits than were most of the other tektites (Ma *et al.* 2004). The layered structure of these tektites, with their chemical heterogeneities, and the presence of relict mineral grains, may serve to better constrain tektite conditions of formation, because they supposedly represent the major link between target rocks and tektites (Montanari & Koeber 2000).

To date, of the four known tektite strewn-fields, all but one have been linked to source craters, based on geographic location, geochemical evidences, and composition (Koeberl 2013 and references therein). The oldest strewn field known is the North American (NA) one of 35.3 Ma age (± 0.1) associated with the 85 Km diameter Chesapeake Bay (USA) impact structure and includes Bediasites, Georgianites, Barbados and Cuba tektites. The central European (CE) or moldavite strewn field of 14.8 Ma age (± 0.2 ; Schmieder *et al.* 2018) is associated with the

Nördlinger Ries impact structure of about 24 km in diameter (Nördlinger Ries, Bavaria, D). There is another impact crater, the Steinheim crater, ~ 3.8 km in diameter, located about 42 kilometers west-southwest from the center of Nördlinger Ries. These two craters are believed to have formed nearly simultaneously by the impact of a binary asteroid (Stöffler *et al.* 2002). Moldavites are found mainly within a 200–450 km ranges from the Ries crater, in Czech Republic (Bohemia, Moravia), Austria and Germany. Recently, a sub-strewn field in Poland has been reported as well (Brachaniec *et al.* 2014.), circa 485 km from the Ries crater. Moldavites have a unique green color and have strong surface sculpture deriving from erosion. Stöffler *et al.* 2002, and more recently Artemieva *et al.* 2013, modeled the formation of the CE strewn field, suggesting a 1.1-1.5 km stony meteorite impactor hitting the target surface with an angle of 30°, at 15-18 km/s. The Ivory Coast (IC) tektite strewn field is associated with the 1.07 Ma old Bosumtwi crater (10.5-11 km diameter, Ghana, Africa) (Koeberl *et al.* 2007). The Bosumtwi crater is the youngest well-preserved impact structure known, and it is almost completely filled by a lake (Lake Bosumtwi). The youngest strewn-field, of 803±3 ka (Lee & Wei 2000), is the Australasian one, for which no source crater has been identified so far. Tektites of the Australasian strewn field (AA) include australites, thailandites, indochinites, philippinites and javanites. The AA strewn field is very extensive and finding of microtektites on land and oceans (microtektite-bearing deep sea cores) have improved the determination of the AA geographic distribution, which is inhomogeneous (Figure 5) and spread from the southeastern region of Asia down to Australia and Tasmania. Recently, smaller tektites (microtektites) that were found in four different sites in northern Victoria Land Transantarctic Mountains (TAM, Antarctica) have been related to AA and there are clear evidences Folco *et al.* 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011; Giuli *et al.* 2014a) that these samples represent a major southeastward extension of the Australasian strewn field. Thus, the AA strewn field covers more than 10% of the Earth's surface, and even if no source crater has been identified yet,

several authors suggest its location somewhere in the Indochina region (Folco *et al.* 2016). Besides these four well-known tektite strewn fields, recently, other two have been proposed, one from central American (Belize glasses), and the second from Uruguay (uruguaites) (Ferrière *et al.* 2017; Giuli *et al.* 2014b; Povenmire *et al.* 2011; Povenmire & Cornec 2015; Senftle *et al.* 2000).

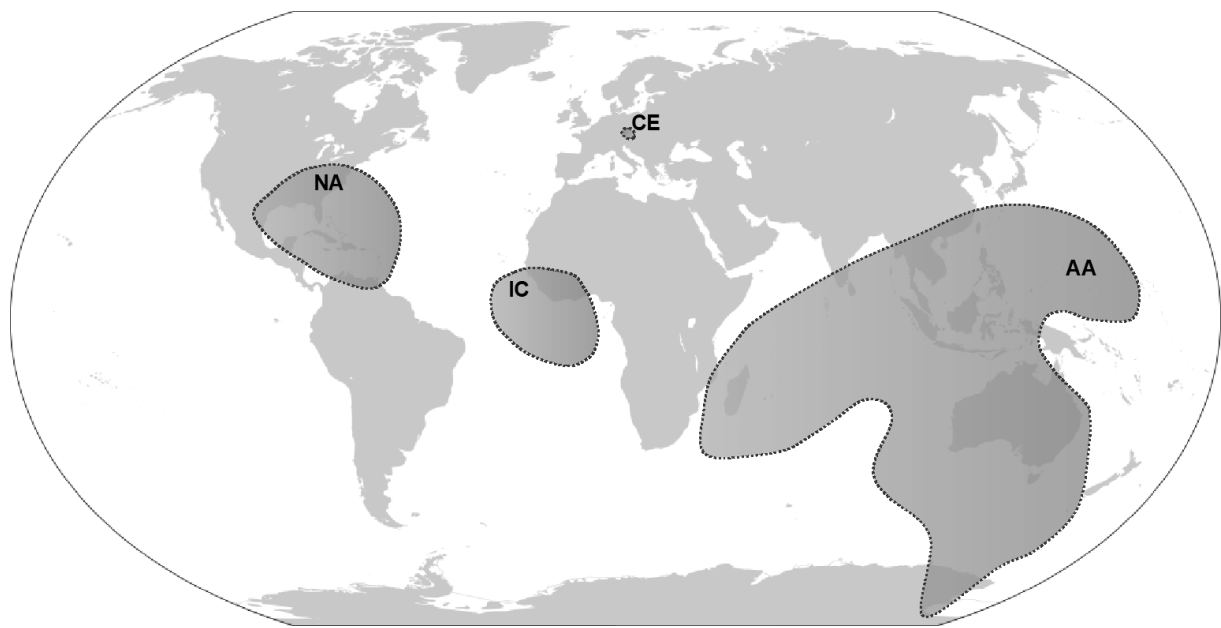


Figure 5: Approximate location and extension of the four strewn fields: NA (North American), IC (Ivory Coast), CE (Central European) and AA (Australasian). The known source craters are Chesapeake Bay (NA), Ries (CE) and Bosumtwi crater (IC). Redrawn after Folco *et al.* 2011, 2016; Glass 2016.

The chemical composition of tektites is fairly homogeneous within the same strewn-field, and also among the four strewn-fields the chemistry of all distal ejecta shows that these glasses are aluminosilicates with high SiO₂ contents and alkalis depleted (see Table 1).

Tektites are usually black/dark green, except moldavites that have a characteristic lighter green color, and do not contain microlites or relict minerals, but they contain vesicles, mostly spherical, or elongated as evidence of glass flow. Figure 6 shows the light transmitted optical image of an australasian tektite. Flow lines and small vesicles are clearly visible. Bubbles are very frequent in tektites, and many studies have been done in order to determine the

composition, the content and pressure of the trapped gases. These data are very important because they provide information on the nature of the atmosphere during formation (quenching). Oxygen, C-based (CO, CO₂, CH₄) and noble gases have been identified in different proportions, and sometimes even contradictory results have been presented, mainly because of the extraction methods used. Early studies reported the presence of CO₂, CO, H₂, SO₂, CH₄, N₂, and O₂ with total gas contents ranging between 0.23 and 0.82 cm³/g (Ottemann 1966 and references therein). Gentner & Zähringer (1959) and Zähringer & Gentner (1963) studied noble gases in several tektites and found heavy noble gases (Ar: Kr: Xe) ratios very similar to that of the Earth's atmosphere, thus confirming the terrestrial origin of these specimens. Moreover, the established contents of argon (Ar⁴⁰) was fundamental to determine the age of tektites across the AA strewn fields and to confirm that the different specimens were of the same age, and in turn, of the same origin. A recent review by Zak et al (2012) lists all studies concerning C-based gases in tektites (excluding noble-gases). More recent studies on gas ratios, and noble gas isotopic ratios confirmed that gases have terrestrial atmosphere origin, with a typical enrichment of lighter noble gases (He, Ne) compared to the heavy ones (Ar, Kr, Xe) (*e.g.* Jessberger & Gentner 1972; Matsubara & Matsuda 1991; Matsuda *et al.* 1996; Müller & Gentner 1968; O'Keefe *et al.* 1962). Moreover, the estimated bubbles internal pressures are very low (\ll 1atm) thus suggesting that vesicles formation must result from internal gas pressure during tektite cooling, that happened in an atmosphere under low pressures (at high altitude). For instance, Matsuda *et al.* (Matsuda *et al.* 1996) reported a bubble pressure of $\sim 10^{-4}$ atm, and a solidification of the molten ejecta that should have occurred high in the stratosphere at altitudes above 20-40 km, in agreement with earlier observations (Rost 1964).

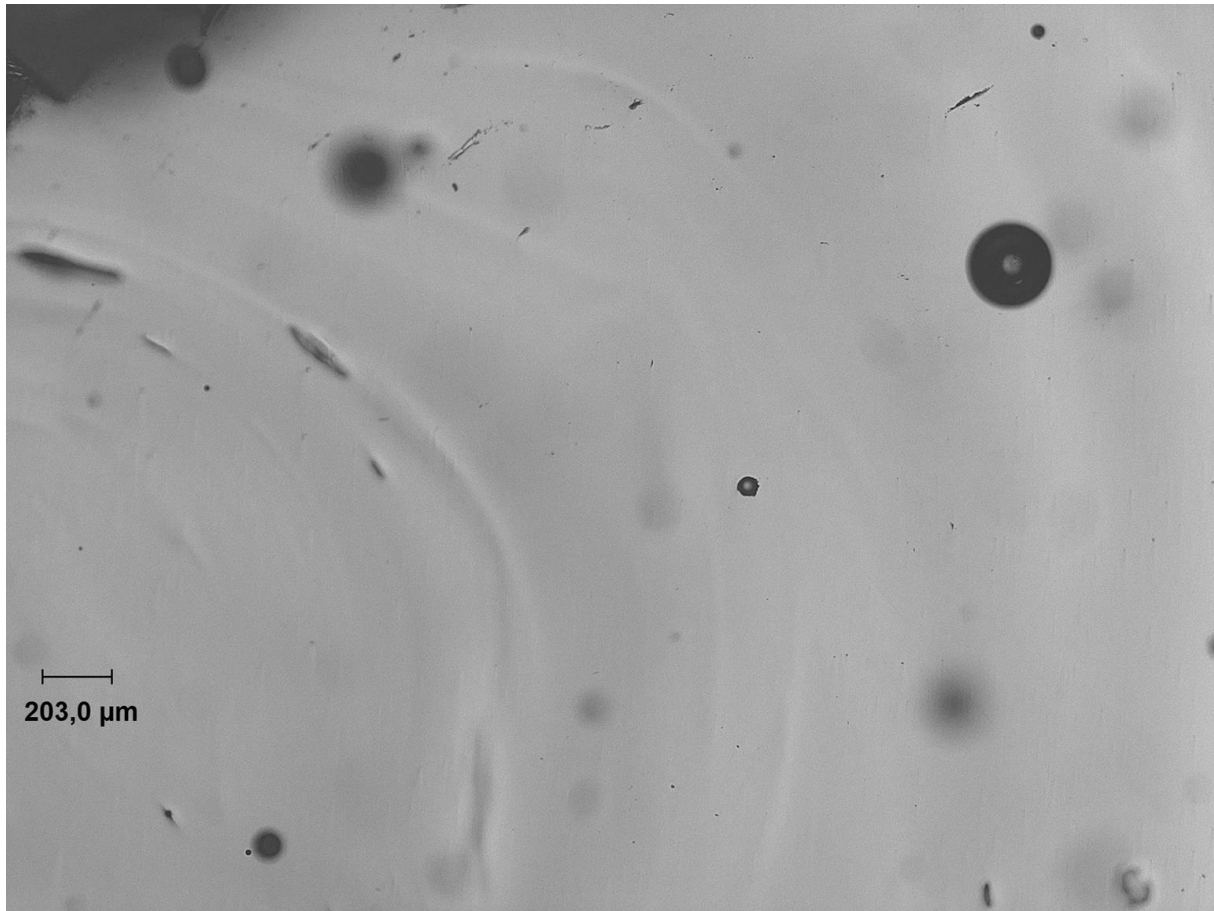


Figure 6 – Optical microscope image (transmitted light) of an Australasian tektite slice. Several bubbles of different dimensions, and flow lines are visible.

Three of the four tektite strewn-fields so far known also present microtektites (diameter usually < 0.1 cm): the North American, the Ivory Coast, and the Australasian SF. These spherules have been found in deep-sea deposits (see, *e.g.* [Glass 1967, 1972, 1978, 1990](#)) and are very important for defining the extension of the strewn fields (*e.g.*, [Glass & Zwart 1979](#)), for constraining the stratigraphic age of tektites, and to provide an indication regarding the location of possible source craters (*e.g.*, [Glass & Pizzuto 1994](#)). Ivory Coast microtektites are found as far as > 2000 km away from their source, whereas Australasian microtektites have been found also at extraordinary distances (> 10000 km) from the hypothetical source crater. Microtektites, like tektites, show various morphologies, with oblate/prolate spheres, dumbbell- and teardrop-shaped, and may contain lechatelierite and vesicles. However, microtektites display a larger range of colors than tektites, with the majority being transparent, colorless, or

greenish/yellowish. Trace elements and isotopic abundances confirm that microtektites are genetically related to tektites in the associated strewn field (Frey 1977), but microtektites usually show a wider compositional range than tektites, even if, generally, they are similar to the tektites from the same strewn-field (Table 1). For example, it is possible to recognize IC and AA microtektites based on their alkali earth ratios (MgO/CaO).

There is a particular sub-group of AA microtektites that presents really high Mg contents (HMg; up to 24 wt.% MgO) and low SiO₂ contents than “normal” AA-microtektites, and that have bottle-green color and are highly eroded (Glass & Simonson 2013). A detailed study of major and trace elements of >100 microtektites from the different strewn fields have been done by Glass *et al.* (2004) that besides the HMg microtektites, found also some glasses with high Ni contents (HNi; up to ~470 ppm). HMg microtektites have been found also in the IC strewn-field. The study of the trace elements in microtektites also confirmed that these small distal ejecta derive from upper continental crust.

Everything seemed to point to microtektites being just smaller tektites. However, lately some differences have been found, namely on the Fe oxidation state of North American microtektites (Giuli *et al.* 2013a). The authors have shown that some North American microtektites present higher Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ ratio (up to 0.61), compared to the respective tektites, implying that, probably, different formation mechanisms are involved for the formations of such small objects. Interestingly, for these microtektites there is a positive correlation with the distance from the known source crater, and more oxidized conditions are reported for longer distances. This seems to be in contrast with the data available on other microtektites recovered at much further distances (*i.e.* AA microtektites). Because of the relative limited information available on tektite/microtektite formation mechanisms (see below) it is difficult to provide an interpretation of those data. Do microtektites register another “path” of the ejecta, or perhaps a different timeframe? Do they have different cooling rates? Further experimental studies, along

with modelling and further ejecta discoveries will help answering those questions, and probably the broader question of “how do distal ejecta form?”.

Table 1: Average major oxide compositions of tektite and microtektites (wt.%). Data from § Glass 2016; ‡ Giuli *et al.* 2013a; # Žák *et al.* 2012; \$ Mizera *et al.* 2016; * Giuli *et al.* 2014a (TAM: microtektites from Victoria Land Transantarctic Mountains); ⊕ Glass *et al.* 2004. For the original data source and error, see the cited references.

	NA §	NA micro ‡	CE #	IC §	IC micro ‡	AA \$	MN-type \$	TAM micro *	AA-HMg micro ⊕
SiO₂	81.80	73.50	80.30	67.58	67.37	73.70	78.00	72.27	54.73
TiO₂	0.51	0.68	0.32	0.56	0.54	0.78	0.62	0.88	0.92
Al₂O₃	11.20	14.08	10.10	16.74	16.68	12.30	10.60	15.07	17.41
FeO	2.64	3.99	1.69	6.16	6.46	4.35	3.81	3.77	6.02
MnO			0.10	0.06		0.10	0.08		
CaO	0.45	1.59	1.35	1.38	1.57	2.41	1.51	3.49	4.82
MgO	0.61	1.81	1.69	3.46	3.72	2.21	1.74	2.87	15.36
Na₂O	0.94	1.87	0.55	1.90	1.89	1.37	1.33	0.25	0.64
K₂O	2.44	2.24	3.48	1.95	1.77	2.78	2.18	0.93	0.11

Other distal ejecta

Besides tektites and microtektites, it is worth mentioning the occurrence of many other spherule-associated layers across the world. For example, a clinopyroxene-bearing spherules layer (cpx-spherules) has been traced in many locations on Earth. The cpx-spherules associated layer is enriched in Ir and is ~10-20 ka older than the North American microtektite one (Glass *et al.* 2004 and references therein). These spherules have been associated to the Popigai complex crater (Siberia, Russia), an extremely large structure (~100 km diameter) of 35.7±0.2 Ma (Melosh 2011).

As mention before, the most notorious and studied distal ejecta deposits are the K-Pg (former KT) spherule ones, associated to another gigantic impact, and to the 170-180 km Chicxulub crater (Yucatan, Mexico). The impact event responsible for this crater had enough energy to distribute ejecta worldwide, and cause the end-Cretaceous mass extinction, around

66 Ma ago. The small K-Pg spherules (100-500 μm), that resemble microtektites, were first detected in the Cretaceous-Paleogene K-Pg layer in Gubbio (I) (Alvarez *et al.* 1980). K-Pg distal impact ejecta horizons are associated with Ir enrichments, siderophile element anomalies, and shocked minerals and high-pressure polymorphs (quartz grains, coesite and stishovite). K-Pg spherule layers have a global geographical extension with more than 350 sites identified, but because of the poor preservation of the claystone at the K-Pg boundary, in the early 80s there were some debates on the origin of these spherules, with some authors supporting an impact hypothesis (*e.g.* Smit & Klaver 1981), and others attributing an authigenic origin for the spherules (*e.g.* Izett 1987). A few years later, many authors, by studying many K-Pg spherules, and in particular the Si-rich spherules preserved at the K-Pg layer at Beloc (Haiti), provided clear evidences of an impact origin, based on geochemical data, enrichment in platinum group elements, the presence of lechatelierite and shocked quartz grains (Bohor 1990; Koeberl 1992b; Koeberl & Sigurdsson 1992; Sigurdsson *et al.* 1991). Despite the alteration of some deposits, according to Morgan *et al.* (2006) there is a correlation between shock markers and paleodistances from the impact site, and in particular the number and size of the spherules and shocked minerals are inversely proportional to their distance from Chicxulub. These evidences have been used to confirm the occurrence of a single highly energetic impact event related to the formation of the K-Pg spherule horizons, and to provide insights on the obliquity of the projectile.

Among the proposed impact-related Cenozoic distal ejecta layers there is one horizon related to a hypothesized impact event that according to Firestone *et al.* (2007), may have occurred at the beginning of the Younger Dryas (YD ~12.8 ka). In this case, impact event is not strictly related to a collision with the Earth surface, but (allegedly) to an airburst, that is a shock wave caused by the explosion of a cosmic object in the atmosphere (such as the well-known 1908 Tunguska airburst, Siberia). The Younger Dryas boundary is a < 5 cm-thick

sediment layer dated ~ 12.8 ka in several sites in North America, and in Belgium and Syria (Bunch *et al.* 2012; Firestone *et al.* 2007; Wittke *et al.* 2013) that contains impact-related markers, such as Ir enriched grains, magnetic micro-spherules (10-250 µm), vesicular carbon spherules, glass-like carbon, shock-fused vesicular lechatelierite, impact nano-diamonds, and fullerenes containing extraterrestrial concentrations of ³He (helium-3 is extremely rare in terrestrial crustal rocks; Koeberl 2013). Still, the YD impact remains just a hypothesis because most of the reported “impact-related” markers could not be confirmed in independent studies or are not considered unambiguously impact proxies. For instance, fullerene with anomalous ³He contents has not been found in all sites, and no shocked minerals have been reported. Moreover, Paquay *et al.* (2009) measured both PGE concentrations and Os isotope ratio (¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os) in the bulk sediments without finding evidences of extraterrestrial components. In a review, Pinter *et al.* (2011) report that none of the evidences described by Firestone were incontrovertible, and more recently, van Hoesel *et al.* (Van Hoesel *et al.* 2014), in another review on the YD impact markers, concluded that no unambiguous markers have been found so far, and that the data available still cannot support the claim that there was a Younger Dryas impact event.

Enigmatic Impact glasses

Glass & Simonson (2013) in their contribution on distal impact ejecta describe some glasses, almost certainly of impact origin, but not found in stratigraphic contexts. Most of the time, no source craters could be associated to these materials, hence the melting has been often attributed to radiation from airburst. These natural glasses have been found in several locations on Earth and cannot be classified as tektites or spherules. Examples of such glasses are: glass fragments from South Ural (Russia) called urengoites (Deutsch *et al.* 1997) glass fragments

from Egypt (Dakhleh glass; [Osinski et al. 2007](#)), and the famous Libyan Desert Glass, and Darwin Glass (with a putative associated crater; [Meisel et al. 1990](#)).

In an area of $\sim 6500 \text{ km}^2$ in southwest Egypt, close to the border with Libya, natural Si-rich glass fragments, known as Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) are found ([Rocchia et al. 1996](#)). Fission track dating provides an average age of $\sim 29 \text{ Ma}$ ($28.5 \pm 2.3 \text{ Ma}$ to $29.4 \pm 0.5 \text{ Ma}$ ([Storzer & Wagner 1977](#)), and $28.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ Ma}$ ([Bigazzi & Michele 1996](#)). LDG occurs as centimeter- to decimeter-sized, irregularly shaped, and strongly wind-eroded glass pieces ([Figure 7](#)), and one of the most famous specimens is the one used as the yellowish scarab of Tutankhamen's pectoral. Libyan Desert Glasses are very silica-rich ($\sim 96.5\text{--}99 \text{ wt.\% SiO}_2$; see [Figure 1; Table 2](#)) and shows a limited variation in major and trace element abundances (the remaining few wt.% are oxides of aluminum, iron, calcium, and magnesium). They are homogeneous with a characteristic pale yellow/yellow-green color and characterized by the presence of schlieren ([Glass & Simonson 2013](#)). Some minor elongated vesicles and spherulitic inclusions of cristobalite have been reported as well, and in some cases baddeleyite (as high-temperature breakdown product of zircon), rutile, staurolite, cordierite, kyanite, reidite and mullite has been detected ([Cavosie & Koeberl 2019; Gomez-Nubla et al. 2017; Greshake et al. 2010, 2018; Rocchia et al. 1996; Storzer & Koeberl 1991](#)).

Since its discovery, early in the 20th century ([Clayton 1934](#)) the origin of the Libyan Desert Glass still represents an unanswered enigma to all scientists and researchers. However, an impact-related origin seems the most plausible mechanism. In fact, LDG fragments are thought to be the remains of a glassy surface layer, resulting from high temperature melting of sandstones/desert sand, caused either by a meteorite impact, or - to explain the absence of an impact crater - by airburst ([Aboud 2009; Seebaugh & Strauss 1984](#)). The Rare Earth elements (REE) pattern of LDG is typical of upper continental crust, but the analysis of desert sand and

sandstones found in the Libyan Desert Glass strewn-field do not perfectly match, thus no rock precursors and crater could be identified (Storzer & Koeberl 1991). Evidence for an impact origin include the presence of schlieren and flow textures, detectable amount of Ir, lechatelierite, and baddeleyite and, more in general, high pressure–temperature phases (Barrat *et al.* 1997; Storzer & Koeberl 1991; Swaenen *et al.* 2010). Moreover, the high concentration of PGE, the presence of graphite-rich inclusions (ribbons), and reduced Fe species, are additional evidence for an impact origin (Barrat *et al.* 1997; Giuli *et al.* 2003; Pratesi *et al.* 2002). Some specimens of LDG present marked layering, with brownish or grayish-bluish streaks (in general, both are referred as dark streaks). The brownish streaks are enriched in siderophile elements, Mg, Fe and Ni, and the Os isotopic data indicates the extraterrestrial component. Observations by Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) (Pratesi *et al.* 2002) revealed the occurrence of Al-, Fe- and Mg-enriched amorphous nano-spherules (80-100 nm) in the LDG dark streaks, as a result of silicate–silicate liquid immiscibility. Similarly, also other impact glasses from Zhamanshin crater (blue zhamanshinites; Kazakhstan) contain spherical nano-inclusions (~100 nm) of a second glass enriched in Fe, Ca, Mg and P (Zolensky & Koeberl 1991).

Based on the amorphous and mineral phases occurring in the different LDG specimens, the range of temperature and pressure have been constrained to $T > 1900$ K and pressure from 10 to > 30 GPa (Pratesi *et al.* 2002; Gomez-Nubla *et al.*, 2017; Cavoisie and Koeberl 2019). However, while high pressure occurred, most probably during melting and ejection, the quenching of the molten material happened quickly at atmospheric pressure (Greshake *et al.* 2018). Moreover, the occurrence of meteoritic component suggests the impact of an extraterrestrial object and not an airburst. This seems to be confirmed by a recent work by Koeberl & Ferrière 2019 that reports the discovery of shock markers (*e.g.* PFs and PDFs on

quartz grains) in bedrock samples recovered in the Libyan Desert Glass strewn-field, and the suggestion of a deeply eroded impact crater in the area.

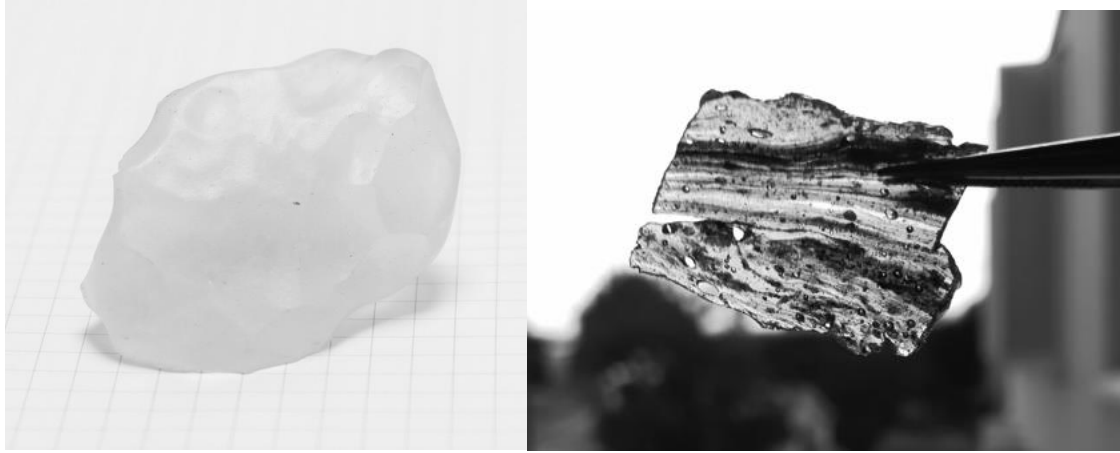


Figure 7 - 1) LDG with the typical aeolian erosion aspect 2) Slice of Darwin glass shows pronounced layering and flow structures, and elongated vesicles.

Another impact glass that cannot be referred to as tektite is found in a strewn-field of ~ 400 km² in western Tasmania (Australia): the Darwin glass. The age of this glass, estimated by Ar-Ar methods, is 816 ± 7 ka (Lo *et al.* 2002), thus very close to the Australasian tektites. Though, their major and trace elements compositions are very different, indicating that the temporal association is casual. The Darwin crater, a small (~1.2 km) simple impact crater formed in sedimentary target rocks, was discovered in 1972, and proposed as the source of Darwin glasses (Ford 1972; Fudali & Ford 1979). Howard & Haines (2007) carried out a detailed petrographic study of the crater-filling samples, but no conclusive shock markers have been found (*e.g.*, PDFs in quartz grains). Nevertheless, the geochemistry of target rocks and glasses, the location of the crater, and the glass distribution (Darwin strewn-field) all point to the Darwin crater as source of the ejecta. Darwin glasses occur in an area larger than 400 km², with distances of at least 20 km (Howard 2011) from the putative Darwin crater, thus belonging to the distal ejecta group. Glasses generally occur as irregular centimeter-sized fragments, or

masses, even if small splash-forms (spheres and teardrops < 5 mm) can be found across the
 Darwin strewn-field. The color ranges from white, gray, light or dark green, dark brown, to
 black, and the glasses are generally vesicular and often exhibit flow structure marked by bands
 of elliptical vesicles (see **Figures 7 and 8**) (Glass & Simonson 2013). Interesting, the
 proportion of white glasses is greatest in the proximity of the crater, and the proportion of darker
 glasses, as well as the proportion of splashform shapes, increase with distance from the putative
 crater (Gomez-Nubla *et al.* 2015; Howard 2008, 2009). Darwin glasses are SiO₂ rich, and
 extremely depleted in Na₂O and CaO. The chemistry suggests the presence of (at least) two
 main glass groups: the first one, which represents ~80% of the samples, is enriched in SiO₂
 (average ~ 87 wt.%), whereas the second one has a lower SiO₂ content (average ~ 81 wt.%),
 higher contents of MgO and FeO, and is enriched in Ni, Co and Cr (Howard 2008) (see **Table**
2). Optical microscope images of a Darwin glass show the contrast between layers of a lighter
 coloured glass (light brown) and a darker one (dark brown); furthermore, turbulent flow
 structures and bubbles of different dimensions and shapes are present (**Figure 8**). All textural
 features visible in this specimen are very similar to those observed by See *et al.* (See *et al.* 1998)
 in an impact glass bomb from the Ries crater. Raman spectroscopy data associated to the glass
 specimen shown in **Figures 7 and 8** are reported in **section 4**. Analyses by Raman spectroscopy
 allowed to identify small inclusions of α -cristobalite, and iron or iron/nickel oxides (Gomez-
 Nubla *et al.* 2015).

Recently, Raman spectroscopy has been also employed to detect and identify the
 organic matter in both LDG and Darwin glasses (Gómez-Nubla *et al.* 2018). Based on the
 results, and the identification of *e.g.* fullerene-type compounds, the authors constrained a
 pressure of ~15 GPa and temperatures between 670 and 1900 K. The preservation of organic
 material in inclusions of LDG and Darwin glasses has been explained by the trapping of the

organic matter within the impact melt, and a fast quench that avoided the total decomposition of the material (Gómez-Nubla *et al.* 2018; Howard *et al.* 2013).



Figure 8 - Optical microscope view (transmitted light) of the Darwin glass slice shown in Figure 7. Darker and lighter layering, flow structures, vesicles and voids are clearly visible.

Formation of distal ejecta

The origin and the formation mechanisms of tektites, microtektites and spherules have been greatly debated. The terrestrial origin of tektites has been finally accepted, even if the strong dispute started in the 50s (*e.g.* Barnes 1958; O'Keefe & Barnes 1958; Urey 1955, 1963) has lasted until recently, with O'Keefe (1994) still supporting the theory that tektites were ejected from volcanoes on the Moon (especially for the unanswered question related to the very low water content of tektites), despite all geochemical and isotopic data available and the

provocative obituary by [Schnetzler \(1970\)](#) and his famous statement “The lunar origin of tektites [...] died on July 20, 1969. The cause of death has been diagnosed as a massive overdose of lunar data”. If the origin has been settled, the formation mechanisms are not completely clear yet. New distal ejecta finding, improved experimental data and numerical modelling have strongly enhanced the understanding of the physical-chemical conditions occurring during a hypervelocity impact ([Melosh 1989, 2013](#)). Nevertheless, the reason(s) why only a few impacts have produced significant amounts of distal ejecta is uncertain yet. Moreover, the spherule formation from the plume is not fully constrained as well, because physical and mathematical models are hampered by the limited information available on how materials respond to extremely high stresses in highly non-equilibrium conditions. One of the most important factors for distal ejecta formation is thought to be the obliquity of the impact (the angle between the projectile and target impact), which determine the maximum shock pressure and temperature regimes, and lately, the presence of water in the target rocks has been pointed out as a key factor as well ([Artemieva 2002; Howard 2011; Stöffler et al. 2002](#)).

Distal ejecta are believed to be formed during the very initial stage of the excavation (cratering process) when the projectile and the target materials (with a volume comparable to that of the impactor) are highly shocked, melted and vaporized. The highly pressurized mixture of vaporized rocks, molten materials, small solid fragments, and hot atmospheric gases constitute the so-called vapor plume (aka impact plume or fireball) ([Melosh 2013](#)), that expands away from the forming crater. The vapor plume pushes away the ambient atmosphere in its path and this allows ejected melt to follow long ballistic trajectories (*cf.* [Howard 2011](#); see also [Melosh 1989](#)), and for large enough impacts the vapor plume might expand and burst the top of the atmosphere allowing materials to be dispersed at great distances, even at the global scale. Numerical modeling on spherules (or tektites) nucleation and condensation from the vapor plume has been done by *e.g.* [Johnson & Melosh 2012, 2014; Melosh 1989; Pierazzo et al. 1998](#).

Johnson & Melosh 2012, 2014 differentiate two origins for spherules, based on their thermodynamic histories: i) vapor condensed droplets and ii) melt droplets, in agreement with early observations on other ejecta (Engelhardt *et al.* 1987). Because of the extremely high temperatures expected in the impact plume, the melt will have an extremely low viscosity (7×10^{-6} Pa s, according to Melosh & Artemieva 2004), and volatile-bearing bubbles will rapidly travel through the melt and burst at the liquid surface, resulting in a liquid phase quickly depleted in water and other volatile elements, such as Na and K (Melosh & Artemieva 2004). The presence of a superheated melt in the vapor plum might explain not only the occurrence of alkali depletion, and the low water content in the ejecta, but also the oxygen volatilization and, in turn, the highly reducing conditions.

3.1.2 Proximal impactite

Glasses deposited within five crater radii from the impact site are referred to as proximal. These amorphous materials can resemble tektites, but they show higher chemical heterogeneity, relatively higher water contents (0.02 to 0.06 wt.% H₂O), and contaminations from the impactor (Devouard *et al.* 2014; Koeberl *et al.* 2019; McPherson *et al.* 1984). Example of glasses associated with impact sites are Irghizites (Kazakhstan), Aouelloul glasses (Mauritania), Lonar Crater Glass (India), Waber Glass (Saudi Arabia) and Atacamaites (Chile).

Associated to the Zhamanshin impact structure (Kazakhstan) there are a variety of impact glasses. The main groups are i) Irghizites, glasses with aerodynamic flight-shapes that resemble tektites, but with higher water contents, and with an average SiO₂ content of ~74 wt.%; ii) Zhamanshinites that can be found closer to the source crater and are much larger than Irghizites. Zhamanshinites are very heterogeneous, with layered structures, flow structures and based on the chemistry they are further differentiated in different subgroups (Fredriksson *et al.* 1977; Koeber & Fredriksson 1986), with glasses Si-enriched (> 70 wt.% SiO₂), and glasses strongly

depleted in silica (< 55 wt.%), called basic impactites. An additional amorphous material is referred to as blue Zhamanshinite. It has high SiO₂ and CaO contents, and present evidences of liquid immiscibility with the occurrence of amorphous inclusions that provide the characteristic turquoise to very dark blue color (Koeber & Fredriksson 1986; Koeberl 1988; Zolensky & Koeberl 1991; Koeberl 1988; Zolensky & Koeberl 1991). Indeed, the nano-sized Ca-Fe-Mg-P-rich silicate immiscible liquid inclusions are responsible of the scatter of light (Rayleigh scattering) that results in the blue coloring of the glass.

Africa has 19 confirmed impact structures (Reimold & Koeberl 2014), and among them there is the Aouelloul structure in Mauritania, a relatively young (3.1 ± 0.3 Ma) crater of ~390 m diameter. The enrichment in siderophile elements, and the occurrence of lechatelierite, baddeleyite, Ni-rich Fe-spherules are the impact marker identified. The glasses associated (Aouelloul glasses) spread in proximity of the crater, and similarly to the Darwin glasses, are very heterogeneous. They are water-depleted silicate glasses, with abundant schlieren texture and different bulk chemistries, and with the presence of unambiguous meteoritic component.

Wabar crater is a very young impact structure in Saudi Arabia (290 ± 38 years). The associated glasses are both large fragments and small (≤ 1 cm) glassy aerodynamic flight-shaped and spheres [Prescott et al. 2004; Hamann et al. 2013]. Wabar glasses are known to have several chemical heterogeneities, with flow structures, emulsions of Fe-rich ultrabasic silicate glasses, FeNi globules and areas marked with light- and dark-brown glasses, respectively depleted or enriched in Fe (Hamann et al. 2013; Hörz et al. 1989; Ottemann 1966; see Table 2). See et al. (1998) by studying the glasses microstructure, highlighted the textural and chemical heterogeneity that are present in these impact glasses, and the occurrence of interstitial enrichments of Fe and Ni, most probably resulting from the impactor.

From Atacama Desert (Chile) thousands of aerodynamically shaped black glasses have been recovered and named atacamaites. These glasses have minor vesicularity, inclusions of an

extremely silica rich glass (lechatelierite), turbulent flow structures, strong chemical variations (e.g. FeO contents vary from 5 wt.% to 15 wt.%), and extremely high contents of Ni, Co, Re, Ir and Pt (orders of magnitude higher than the average upper continental crust). Moreover, water contents are higher (~ 130 ppm) than those associated to tektites. All these characteristics point to the impact nature of these glasses (Devouard *et al.* 2014; Dos Santos *et al.* 2015; Koeberl *et al.* 2019).

For sake of comprehensiveness, we will briefly describe an example of a proximal impact breccia, the suevite, from the Ries crater type locality. An exhaustive review on Ries crater and suevite is reported by Stöffler *et al.* (Artemieva *et al.* 2013) (the modelling part is in Artemieva *et al.* 2013). The term suevite was firstly used to describe an impact breccia formed at the Ries impact crater (Bavaria, Germany); nowadays the term is used more in general to describe polymict (consisting of heterogeneous fragments) impact breccia containing clastic matrix/groundmass from the target rocks, shocked minerals, and glass. At the Ries impact site, suevite can be found both in the crater and outside the rim (outer or fallout suevite), associated to the different (five) shock stages. Because of the occurrence of a full set of rocks subjected to different degrees of shock metamorphism (and distal ejecta as well), the Ries crater is one of the most studied, and has been the type locality in order to discover and classify all shocked materials (Artemieva *et al.* 2013; Stöffler 1971). Figure 9 reports a photo of a glass-rich suevitic impact breccia (fallout suevite from Otting quarry; Ries crater, Germany). The heterogeneous nature of the sample can be appreciated, with lithics, relict mineral grains and abundant glass portions. From this locality it was first reported the occurrence of coesite (Shoemaker & Chao 1961). According to Stöffler *et al.* (Artemieva *et al.* 2013 and references therein) the fallout suevite (also called outer suevite) is almost completely constituted of lithic clasts derived from the target crystalline basement rocks, and only a few percent is of sedimentary origin (< 6% sedimentary lithic) and contain rocks of all stages of shock metamorphism, from the unshocked

materials of stage 0 (0-10 GPa), to moderate shocked (stages I and II: 10-60 GPa), up to stage IV (> 60GPa) and there is the occurrence of abundant glass materials.

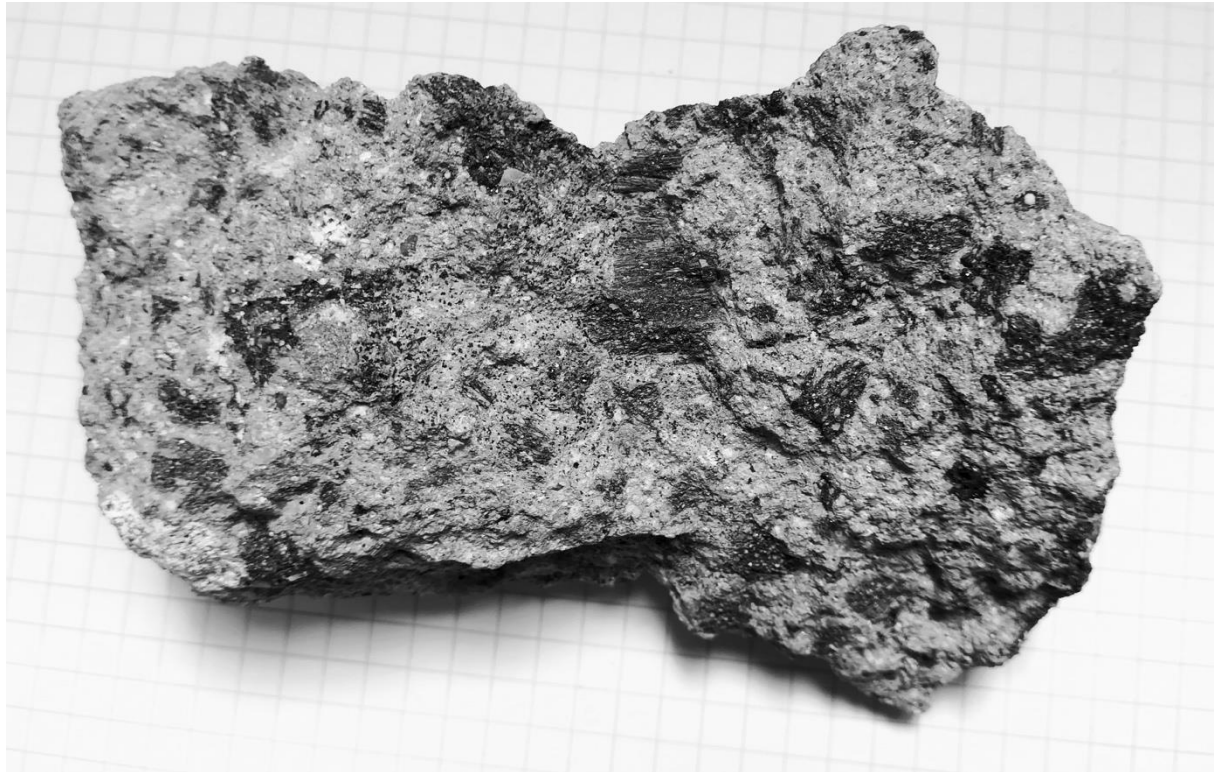


Figure 9 - Fallout suevite from Otting quarry (Ries crater, Germany). The polymictic sample has lithics (brighter spots), relict mineral grains and abundant glass (darker portions).

[Oberdorfer \(1905\)](#), in suevite deposits in the west side of the Ries crater, observed the presence of spherical dark-brown amorphous bodies surrounded by a light brown glass, with textural features indicative of silicate-silicate melt immiscibility. Other textural evidences of liquid immiscibility were reported by [Graup \(1999\)](#), but in this case for an immiscibility between silicate and carbonate melts. Crystalline calcite is a common constituent of suevite, and it was believed to derive from post-impact hydrothermal activities ([Engelhardt 1967, 1972](#)). However, because of the presence of gas vesicles in carbonate flow lines, or carbonate globules embedded in silicate glass (and *vice versa*), and the presence of deformed and coalescing

spheres of carbonate within the silicate melt, the carbonate component is likely a result of impact-shock melting, and not of secondary origin (Graup 1999).

As observed above, impact glasses (including the enigmatic ones) are more heterogeneous than distal ejecta (*i.e.* tektites). For example, Irghizites, Wabar and Darwin glasses clearly present at least two major chemical bulk compositions. In Table 2 is reported the average major oxide composition for some of the impact glasses discussed here. The chemical variability among the same impact glasses, and with respect tektites (see data in Table 1) reflects the differences in the mechanisms of formation of those glasses, especially related to the different time-scales.

Table 2: Average major oxide compositions of impact glasses (wt.%). Data from § Koeberl 1997; ⊕ Giuli *et al.* 2003; # Ottemann 1966; ‡ Howard 2008; \$ unpublished data.

	LDG §	LDG dark streak ⊕	Wabar dark #	Wabar light #	Aouelloul #	Suevite glass - Ries #	Darwin ‡	Darwin* \$	Atakamaite \$
SiO₂	98.4	95.85	87.45	92.88	86.51	66.19	76.47 - 93.85	82.74	68.74
TiO₂	0.12	0.18	0.15	0.12	0.55	0.82	0.22 - 0.8	0.609	0.43
Al₂O₃	1.19	1.48	1.77	2.64	5.76	14.74	3.14 - 11.45	7.89	10.66
FeO	0.12	0.98	5.77	0.53	1.59	3.86	0.84 - 5.87	2.39	5.40
MnO		0.02						0.01	0.06
CaO	0.01	0.08	1.90	1.46	0.73	3.96	0.02 - 0.25	0.04	3.59
MgO	0.01	1.38	0.60	0.47	0.91	2.60	0.24 - 4.0	0.87	1.52
Na₂O	0.005	0.02	0.39	0.42	0.14	3.62	0.0 - 0.21	0.09	2.77
K₂O	0.009	0.01	0.58	1.61	2.05	3.26	0.75 - 2.71	2.05	2.61

Note: * average chemical composition of the specimen shown in Figure 8

3.2 Fulgurite

Fulgurites are formed as a result of fusion and modifications of rocks (*s.l.*) by lightning, and the name derives from the Latin word “*fulgur*” (lightning). Usually they consist of irregularly shaped tubes ranging from approximately 1 cm in diameter to 1 mm, even if they may extend laterally or vertically for up to 10 m (Essene & Fisher 1986). Famous fulgurites specimens are those coming from the Saharan desert; however, fulgurites can occur on any soil, either formed naturally or triggered in proximity of high voltage power lines.

The study of the mineralogy and petrology of these specimens, and of their mechanisms of formation has started to become more and more significant. Starting from the curiosity of understanding more in detail these fascinating objects, researcher from physics, atmospheric sciences, geochemistry, materials science, impact-related sciences have gathered and compared many information, and the results are well beyond the pure scientific curiosity, with key implications in biogeochemistry and formation of life. In this section we will try to introduce the lightning process, the fulgurite morphology and mineralogy, and we will try to arouse interest on the multidisciplinary aspects related to fulgurites.

Lightning is a very common phenomenon but is not uniformly distributed across the Earth (see image from Lightning Imaging Sensor (LIS) NASA... Ask for permission!) and equatorial conditions (warm, moisture!) greatly favor the occurrence of lightning. As a curiosity, the place on Earth with the highest lightning flashes for year is Lake Maracaibo (Venezuela) with an average of ~232 flashes (per km² per year).

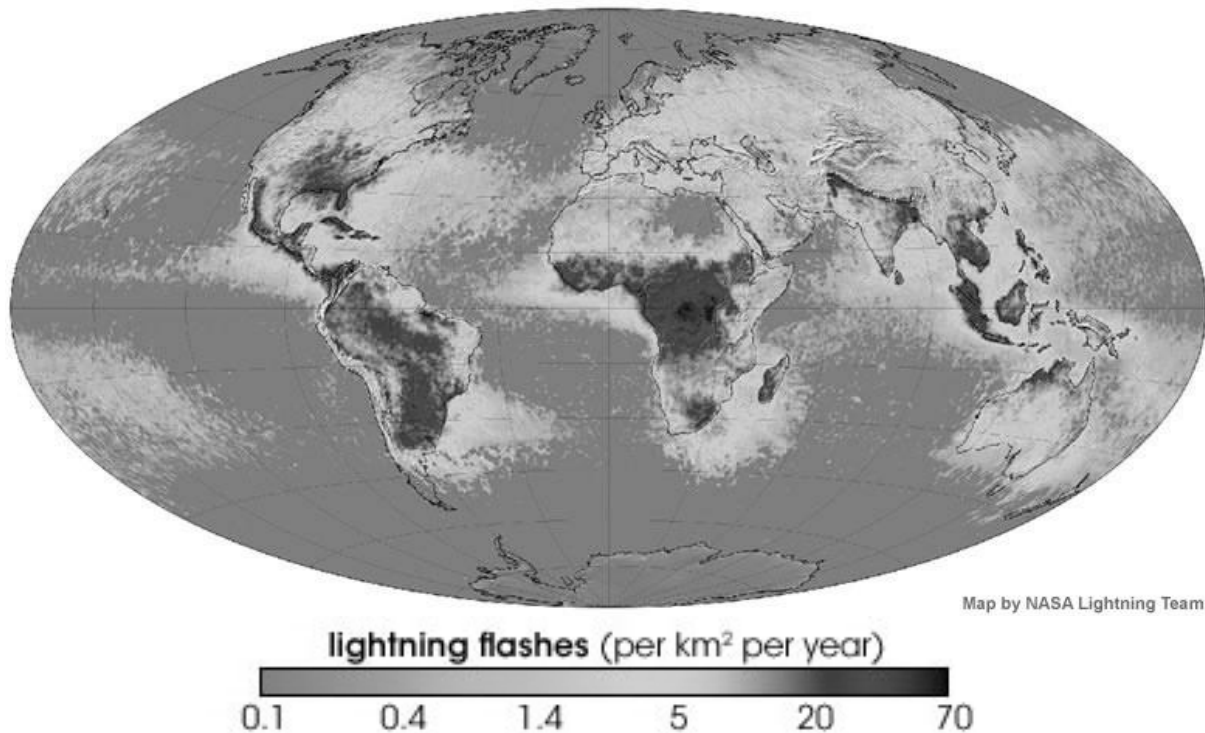


Figure 10: World Lightning Map shows the average yearly counts of lightning flashes per square kilometer based on data collected by NASA's LIS between 1995 and 2002. Localities with the largest number of lightning strikes are in the Equatorial area.

This common phenomenon is extremely energetic, and lightning may dissipate $\sim 10^9$ J (Borucki & Chameides 1984; Rakov & Uman 2003), raising, instantaneously ($<$ milliseconds), the surrounding air temperatures in the range of 10^5 K (Uman 1964; Uman & Krider 1989). Thus, a really high amount of energy strikes the surface target material, providing a local temperature rise higher than 2000 K, and with even greater temperatures expected on the “current” path (Uman & Krider 1989). Such amount of energy is able to melt/vaporize the inorganic target materials, and incinerating the organic ones along the current path, inducing the formation of voids and vesicles from the release of the volatilized components. The heating rates have been constrained to be in the order of 10^3 K/s (Carter *et al.* 2010; Jones *et al.* 2005; Krider *et al.* 1968; Uman 1964), whereas the cooling rates are estimated in the order of 10^8 K/s (Rietmeijer *et al.* 1999; Switzer & Melson 1972) because of the formation of very homogeneous glass layers and the abundance occurrence of lechatelierite. The result of such fast event is a

cylinder (often presenting lateral branches) with an inner smooth glassy portion surrounded by an irregular outer surface that can be composed of melted, partially melted and unmelted minerals grains and rock fragments, and with many spherical and elongated vesicles occurring in all portions (**Figure 11**).



Figure 11 –Fulgurite specimens showing different morphologies. TO CHANGE???

Lightning strikes are, therefore, rapid high energetic phenomena able to induce strong physical and chemical modifications in the target materials, and the morphology of the fulgurite specimens formed will be strongly dependent on energy and timescale of the striking, on target composition and heterogeneity, and so on. The bulk composition of fulgurites is quite broad when considering the whole samples, as a reflection of the different target materials (**Figure 1**). However, the chemistry of the glassy part is much narrower and reveals a volatilization of most of the major elements, resulting in an amorphous phase enriched in silica, and depleted in alkalis. Most of the studies report the occurrence of glass heterogeneities, with lechatelierite glass (98-100 wt.% SiO₂) occurring in different percentages, and secondary glass phases having relatively lower amounts of SiO₂, and higher proportions of Al₂O₃ and FeO ([Essene & Fisher](#)

1986; Frenzel & Stahle 1984; Pasek *et al.* 2012). Pasek *et al.* (2012) established a classification for fulgurites based on morphology, mineralogy and petrology, providing five main types depending on the target rocks (sand, soil, rocks):

- Fulgurites formed in quartz sand are classified as type I, and usually present thin glassy walls; type I can contain one or two melts consisting prevalently of lechatelierite, and sometimes, also a SiO₂-rich melt with higher concentrations of Al and/or Fe. In the groundmass has been reported also enrichments in Zr oxide- and Fe–Ti oxide- rich glass.

- Fulgurites type II has a thicker glass portion compared to type I. The amorphous portion is more compositionally varied (< 50% lechatelierite), because formed in different environments than silica sand, such as unconsolidated soils containing clays minerals, small rocks, and so on.

- Type III consists of lechatelierite and feldspar glasses, and a calcite-rich matrix. Fulgurites type III are mostly found in calcite-rich soils and are the densest (average density¹ 2.1 ± 0.5 g/cm³).

- Type IV fulgurites are heterogeneous melts, with the inner portion rarely consisting of lechatelierite, and the outer portion consisting of unmelted (or partially melted) rocks and mineral grains. These fulgurites form usually in bulk rocks and have densities similar to those of the target rocks.

- Type V are droplet fulgurites that have a homogeneous glass matrix. The two main oxides contained in type V droplets are enriched in SiO₂ and K₂O relative to the originating fulgurite, whereas other oxides are depleted.

An updated classification (Pasek & Pasek 2018) includes also specimens artificially formed, either from high voltage power lines, or triggered by high-voltage electrical arcing.

¹ The density value reported is related to the density of the material as approximated by a whole fulgurite cylinder Pasek *et al.* 2012..

1079

1080 Since fulgurites result from a quick high energetic event that produces also a shock wave,
1081 in many fulgurite specimens shock markers typical of impact glasses have been identified. For
1082 instance, shock lamellae in quartz, kink bands in plagioclase have been reported, with estimated
1083 shock pressures >10 GPa [[Gieré et al. 2015](#)]. Other studies (either experimental or based on
1084 modeling) reported even higher shock peak pressure, above 20 GPa [[Carter et al. 2010](#); [Ende](#)
1085 [et al. 2012](#)]. Artificial produced (triggered) fulgurites confirmed that temperature and pressure
1086 regimes needed to produce shocked materials can be achieved by lightning strikes ([Chen et al.](#)
1087 [2017](#)). The occurrence of such shock features in fulgurites, until then considered diagnostic of
1088 impactites, raised questions about samples of uncertain origin, such as irregular glassy objects
1089 having shocked quartz grains, but unlikely related to any impact event ([Melosh 2017](#)).

1090 Besides the occurrence of shock markers, in many fulgurites have been observed O-free
1091 phases and metals indicative of extremely reducing conditions, such as those typical of
1092 meteorite phases. These findings have extremely important implications, especially concerning
1093 the origin of life (see below). The occurrence of metallic phases have been reported since long
1094 ([Anderson 1925](#); [Essene & Fisher 1986](#); [Wasserman & Melosh 2001](#)), and [Essene & Fisher](#)
1095 [1986](#), explained the occurrence of metallic globules rich in silicon, spheroids of silicon-bearing
1096 metals (99.5 at.% of metallic silicon phase with minor amounts of titanium, iron, and
1097 phosphorus), and Fe-rich spherules, via thermodynamic calculations that indicate that
1098 extremely high temperatures (> 2000 K) and reducing conditions close to the SiO₂-Si buffer
1099 were needed. However, the authors could not decipher (and rule out) the role of other agents,
1100 such as the presence of carbonaceous materials, or the degassing of oxygen or the formation of
1101 nitrogen oxide gases.

1102 Other metallic phases, such as Fe-Si-Al-Ti metallic droplets, or phosphide phases usually
1103 common in meteorites (*e.g.* Fe₂Si, Fe₃P) have been reported as well ([Pasek et al. 2012](#) and

references therein]. Rowan & Ahrens 1994 report phases reduction in MORB glasses by shock experiments. Shock pressures between ~0.8 and ~6 GPa induced a change of the glass chemistry (enrichment in SiO₂) and the formation of Fe-, Si- and Mo-rich metallic microspheres embedded in the shocked glass. Based on the experimental conditions and the occurrence of iron silicide alloys, the authors estimated that an oxygen fugacity ~ 8 log units below the initial one was needed in order to form such metallic phases. Jones *et al.* (2005) artificially (triggered-lightning) produced specimens composed of 99.9% pure binary oxides of manganese and nickel in order to study the reduction mechanisms, and while they observed the formation of nickel oxide particles, the manganese oxide fulgurite showed no metallic phase formation. Thus, the thermodynamical stability of the oxides involved has a key role in the reduction mechanisms. Based on their experiments, Jones *et al.* (2005) suggest different possible mechanisms for the reduction associated to lightning, and they highlighted that the presence of carbon is not required for oxide reduction during fulgurite formation.

The presence of reduced phosphorous species in fulgurites is particularly important. A relative enrichment in phosphorous is not unusual in fulgurites (Martin Crespo *et al.* 2009; Pasek *et al.* 2012; Pasek & Block 2009), but the occurrence of phosphides has different implications. In iron meteorites, pallasites and enstatite chondrites, phosphorus is commonly occurring as phosphide (*e.g.* schreibersite (Fe,Ni)₃P), which slowly react with water to produce reduced forms (PO₃³⁻ phosphite). Contrarily, on Earth, phosphorus occurs in minerals with its stable form P⁵⁺ (PO₄³⁻ phosphate). Besides the mineral supergroup apatite (the primary source of P), this element is a common constituent of organic molecules (DNA, RNA, and so on...). On Earth surface, a possible mechanism for reduction of phosphate species may be lightning, as shown by simulated discharge experiments from Glindemann *et al.* 1999, and from the studies on many fulgurite specimens by Pasek and coauthors. For example, Pasek and Block

1128 (2009) report that the reduction of PO_4^{3-} species to reduced forms occurs commonly in many
1129 target soils, and they provided two potential causes of P reduction during fulgurites formation:

1130 1) the reduction of phosphate to phosphide, and a later reaction with water; this process
1131 is analogous of that of meteoritic schreibersite that react with water to produce reduced forms
1132 *e.g.* H-phosphonic acid H_3PO_3 (*e.g.* Bryant *et al.* 2009);

1133 2) the direct reduction from PO_4^{3-} to PO_3^{3-} species; thermodynamical calculations indicate
1134 that phosphates (CaHPO_4) could be reduced to phosphite species (CaHPO_3) at temperatures
1135 ~ 2000 K, under oxygen fugacity conditions of ~ -5 (as $\log(f\text{O}_2)$) (Pasek & Block 2009).

1136

1137 The phosphides species occurring during meteoritic impacts, and especially during the
1138 Hadean-Archean heavy meteorite bombardment have been proposed as a way of altering global
1139 phosphorus biogeochemical cycle, and the source of reactive phosphorus required for the
1140 processes of prebiotic phosphorylation on the early Earth (Pasek 2008, 2017; Pasek & Block
1141 2009).

1142

1143

Case study: fulgurite

A fulgurite with a dark thick glassy inner core has been used for a series of analysis. The specimen is highly vesiculated and the inner glass core has a variable thickness up to 1 mm. The outer portion presents unmelted white/grey grains of quartz, and probably salts species. The specimen has been sliced and the cross section polished (Figure 12). Optical microscope images, and Raman spectroscopy analysis have been coupled to SEM/EDS data in order to provide an overview of all the phases occurring in this fulgurite.

The polished slice has been observed with an optical microscope by reflected light, and SEM. The glass matrix of the inner part seems to be very homogeneous, with no relict mineral grains detectable, and a few bubbles if any. Moving from the inner portion toward the external wall (see Figure 12), vesicles, mostly elongated, are clearly increasing in amount, and the matrix become more heterogeneous. The fulgurite specimen has several outer branches, and many large voids.

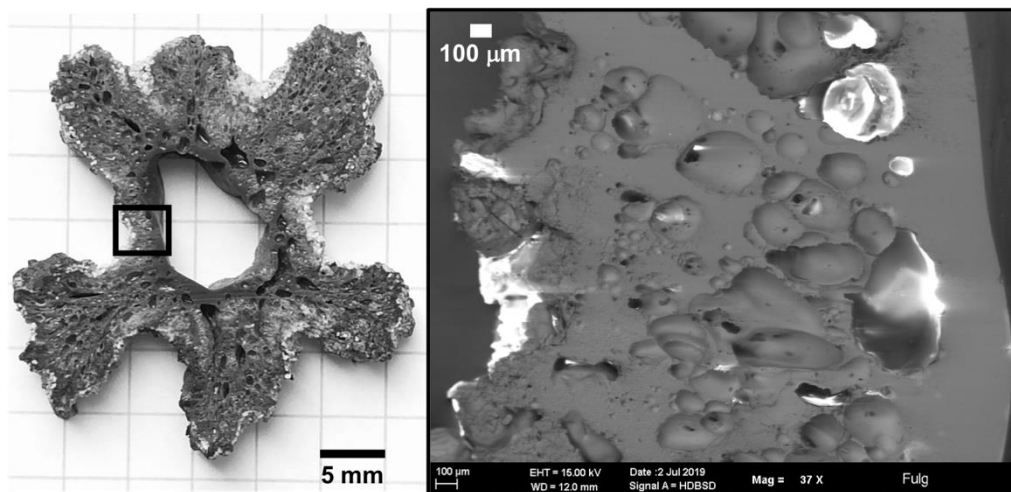


Figure 12: Photograph of the sliced fulgurite (left), and SEM image (right) of the thinner portion where both inner and outer walls can be observed. The inner wall has a smoother surface, in contrast with the rough outer part. Brighter areas in the left image are residual of carbon coating.

Backscattered electron images of the fulgurite (Figure 13) show the increasing number of elongated bubbles, which radially distribute in the branches. The matrix is predominantly amorphous and fairly homogeneous close to the inner wall, while all outer branches are more

1165 heterogeneous, with completely foamed glass portions, unmelted quartz grains, regions with
1166 small zoned crystals, and tiny bright spots, too small to be characterized.

1167 EDS analyses of the inner glass portion reveals the homogeneous presence of
1168 lechatelierite, with small amounts of Al_2O_3 ($\text{SiO}_2 \geq 99$ wt.%, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \leq 1$ wt.%). When moving
1169 from the smooth inner to the rough outer walls the chemical compositions marginally differ,
1170 but without a defined trend. The SiO_2 content ranges between 96.6 and 99.5 wt.% with some
1171 random points having higher Al_2O_3 amounts (~ 2.4 wt.%) and traces of FeO, MgO, CaO and
1172 K_2O (all < 0.4 wt.%).

1173 The areas where the branches depart and all the branches themselves have areas (pockets)
1174 and veins-like features that especially surround bubbles (see arrows in **Figure 13**). These
1175 portions are highlighted in the BSE images by the different contrast (light grey) and the EDS
1176 analysis indicate lower Si contents (down to ~ 75 wt.%), and higher amounts of Al_2O_3 (up to \sim
1177 14 wt.%), and the presence of many other elements, including FeO (3-6.5 wt.%), MgO (1-1.5
1178 wt.%), K_2O (0.5-1 wt.%), CaO (~ 0.4 wt.%) and TiO_2 (~ 0.3 wt.%). The elemental mapping of
1179 one of the regions rich in pockets and veins is reported in **Figure 14**. The primary matrix is
1180 composed almost exclusively by SiO_2 , and only a 0.5-1.5 wt.% of Al_2O_3 . The bubbles are
1181 surrounded by large light grey pockets and veins that contain the secondary melt relatively
1182 depleted in silica, and enriched in Al, Fe, and alkali/alkali-earth elements. In a few light grey
1183 spots there are also traces of P_2O_5 and Na_2O (~ 0.3 wt.%).

1184

1185

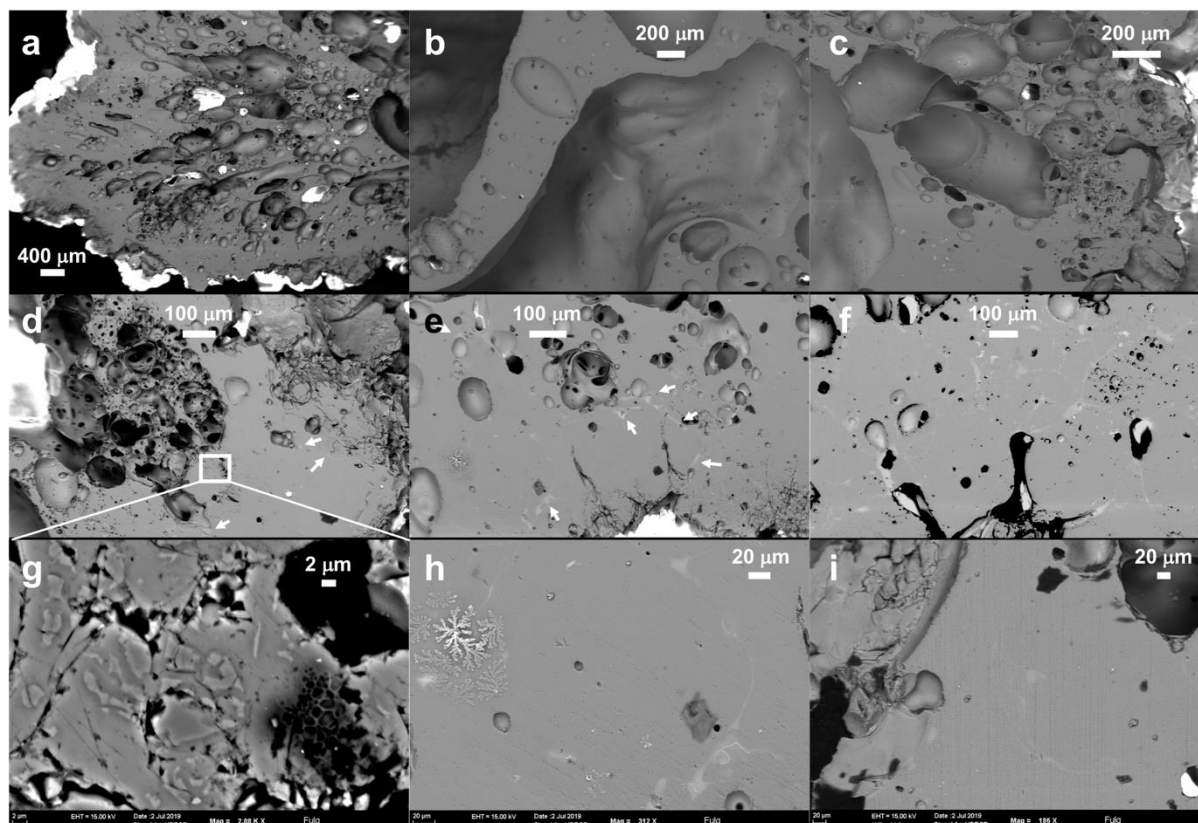


Figure 13: backscatter electron images of the fulgurite at different magnifications to emphasize the heterogeneity of the sample. Overview of the a) outer branch, b) inner glass wall, c) outer portion in the thinner area; d-e-f) outer portions with heterogeneous features, such as foamed area, aligned bubbles, relict quartz grains and pocket and veins of glass with different chemistry (light grey; arrows); g-h-i) higher magnifications.

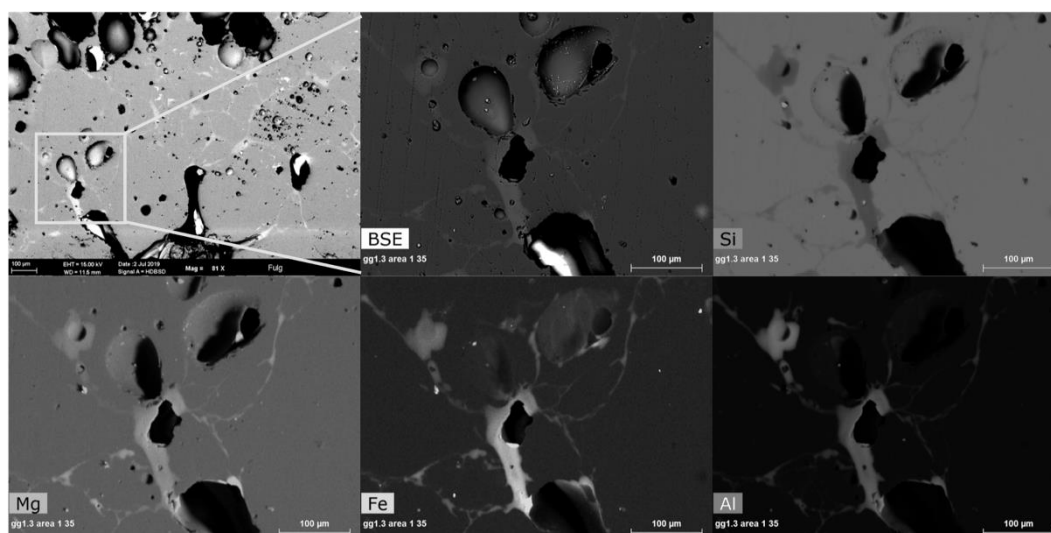


Figure 14: Elemental mapping of one of the regions rich in pockets and veins. The primary glass matrix is composed of ~99 wt.% SiO₂, and voids and bubbles are surrounded by a secondary melt, relatively depleted in Si, and enriched in Al, Mg and Fe. Scale bar in all images is 100 μm.

1199

1200 Raman spectra were collected in several portions of the sliced fulgurite, with a 488 nm
 1201 excitation laser, in order to characterize the amorphous and the mineral phases. The outer whiter
 1202 grains, supposedly residual of the target rocks, are mainly composed of quartz and some salts,
 1203 such as NaCl (from EDS point analyses). The spectra of the outer grains perfectly match the
 1204 spectra of α -quartz (see [Figure 15A](#)), with the presence of a sharp intense peak at $\sim 464\text{ cm}^{-1}$,
 1205 and a broad band at $\sim 205\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (A_1 modes), and also the E modes at $\sim 127\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and 263 cm^{-1} .
 1206 The differences in the relative intensity of the E modes between the reference quartz spectrum
 1207 and the spectrum of the outer grains (point 1 in [Figure 15A](#)) is due to sample orientation. Similar
 1208 spectra were obtained in some of the branches, although with some of the main peaks shifted
 1209 (point 2 in [Figure 15A](#)). Indeed, all peaks match vibrations of alpha-quartz, but with shifts of
 1210 the vibrational modes that indicate the occurrence of shock pressures ([Table 3](#)). For instance,
 1211 while the main peak moves $\sim 3.1\text{ cm}^{-1}$ toward lower frequencies, the broad peak at 205 cm^{-1}
 1212 shifts more than 10 cm^{-1} downward, and the small peak at 354 cm^{-1} remains unchanged. These
 1213 uneven shifts of the quartz peaks indicate the presence of shocked quartz, and based on the
 1214 experimental work done by [McMillan et al. \(1992\)](#), the shifts observed provide a shock peak
 1215 pressure between 25 and 28 GPa, similarly to what reported by [Carter et al. \(2010\)](#).

1216 The Raman spectrum of the glass on the inner wall (point 3 in [Figure 15B](#)) has the clear
 1217 broad features of amorphous silica and nearly perfectly match the spectrum of SiO_2 suprasil,
 1218 used here as reference (SiO_2 in [Figure 15B](#)). These spectra agree with the SEM/EDS analysis
 1219 and the occurrence of a homogeneous lechatelierite glass in the inner wall. When moving from
 1220 the inner wall toward the outer one (points 4 to 7 in [Figure 15C](#)), the shape of the Raman spectra
 1221 is very similar, and small variations can be attributed to the different concentration of Al_2O_3 in
 1222 the amorphous matrix. Moreover, the two last spectra show the presence of small sharp peaks,

that indicate the occurrence of microcrystalline quartz. Based on the position of the main peaks here the shifts suggest higher shock pressure, of ~ 30-31 GPa (Table 3).

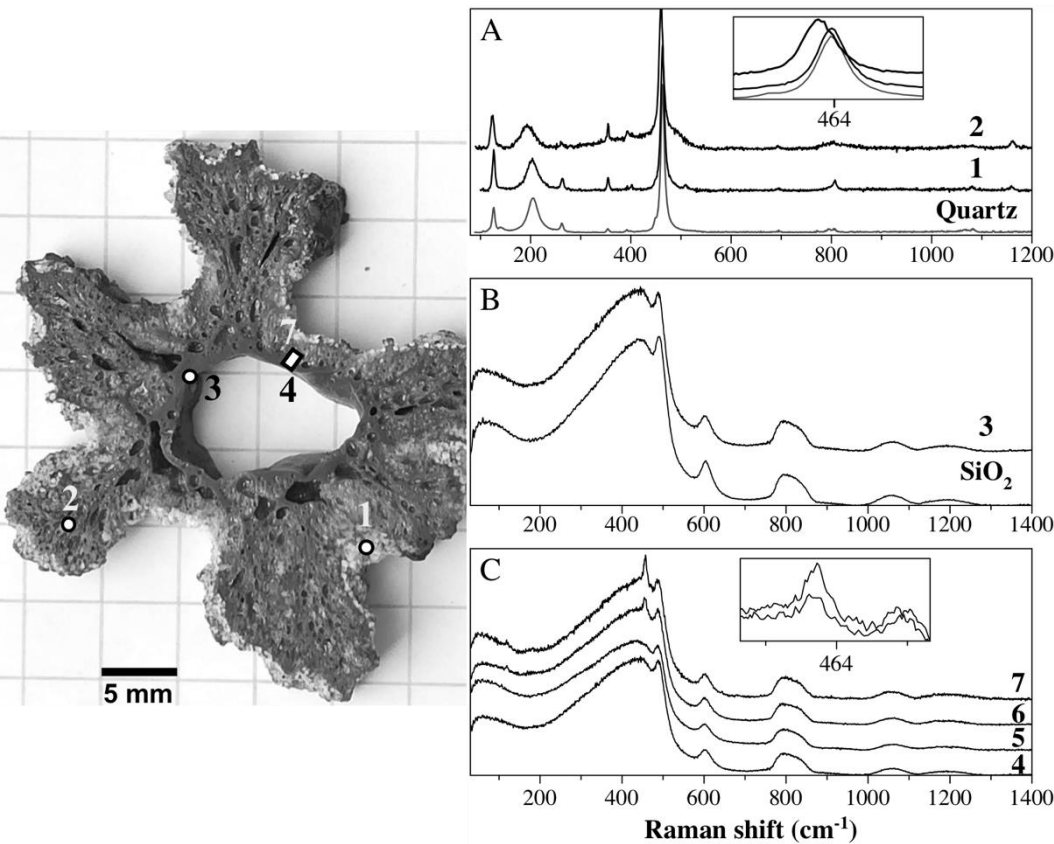


Figure 15: Raman spectra of different portions of the fulgurite (numbers from 1 to 7) and crystalline references. The outer unmelted grain and a small grain in the branch present vibrations associated to alpha-quartz (2). The glass on the inner wall (3) is very polymerized and the spectra is very similar to that of a pure SiO₂ glass. Moving from the inner wall toward the outer part (from 4 to 7) the homogeneous glass matrix start to be slightly more heterogeneous with the presence of a small amount of quartz (sharp peaks in 6 and 7 and inset).

Table 3: Frequencies of the main vibration modes of α -quartz (reference phase), and of the crystalline phases occurring in the fulgurite specimen. Numbers refer to the sampling spots reported in Figure 15.

Reference	Spectrum 1	Spectrum 2	Spectrum 6	Spectrum 7
α -quartz				
126.8	126.8 cm-1	124.1	120	120
205.1	204.5	194.1		
263.1	263.6	262.1		
354.2	354.2	354.2		
463.6	463.6	460.5	457.8	457.8

3.3 – Trinitite or nuclear glass

Within glasses formed by highly energetic events, there is a glass that is not natural, but neither man-made in the strict definitions. During the first atomic bomb test in Alamogordo (USA Trinity test, 1945), the detonation of the nuclear weapon on the desert sand has created a “Lake of Jade [...] a lake of glistening incrustation of blue-green glass 2400 feet in diameter” as reported by Time Magazine (Science: Atomic footprint, 17 Sept 1945). The green amorphous material has been called trinitite, or nuclear glass. Another nuclear test that produced amorphous material is the first underground nuclear explosion, the so-called Rainier test (1957).

The study of these glasses has mainly focused on the radioactivity of the materials, and on the incorporation and distribution of radionuclides, although, more recently, more detailed chemical, mineralogical and geochemical investigations have been reported. Moreover, because of the mechanisms of formation, trinitite could be regarded as an analogous of impactites.

In the following, we are going to discuss about the event associated to the formation of trinitite, and we will provide information on the different geochemical aspects of this glass.



Figure 16. Photograph of a bottle green trinitite.

1255

1256 Trinitite glasses are a record of the first atomic bomb blast on July 16, 1945. The
1257 detonation of the 21 kilotons plutonium bomb and the resulting fireball melted/vaporized the
1258 arkose/arkosic sand desert and formed a large crater glazed with green fused silica sand. The
1259 explosion released an extreme high amount of energy, with an estimated yield of 9-18 kt, and
1260 average temperature of 8430 K ([Hermes & Strickfaden 2005](#)). The heating rate was extremely
1261 high with a very short duration of ~ 3 s and this explain the glass formation and why some
1262 minerals (zircon and quartz grains) were only partially melted ([Hermes & Strickfaden 2005](#)).

1263 The green fused silica sand was first described by [Ross \(1948\)](#) that, based on the optical
1264 properties, reports the occurrence of two different melts. In general, he described trinitite as a
1265 highly vesiculated pale bottle green glass that present distinct flow lines. One of the glass phases
1266 has a refractive index (RI) between 1.51 and 1.54 and derives from feldspars, clay fraction and
1267 accessory minerals (calcite, hornblende, augite). The second amorphous phase has a lower
1268 index of refraction (close to 1.46), indicating that this material is nearly pure SiO₂ glass derived
1269 from the fusion of the quartz component of the arkosic sand. [Ross \(1948\)](#) observed also the
1270 occurrence of small glass areas with glasses red or grey in color, both containing copper, and
1271 suggested the it was a contamination from the explosion device.

1272 Since the nuclear explosion, most of the studies have been done on the radioactive
1273 nuclides present in the materials (*e.g.* [Atkatz & Bragg 1995](#); [Eby et al. 2010](#); [Parekh et al. 2006](#);
1274 [Wallace et al. 2013](#)). Indeed, the migration of actinides at historical test sites are considered
1275 very important, since it is closely related to the waste management and to the storage of high-
1276 level nuclear waste ([Hu et al. 2008](#); [Pacold et al. 2016](#); [Tompson et al. 2002, 2006](#)). However,
1277 for long time the study from Ross was the only mineralogical investigation available on trinitite
1278 (except a magnetic susceptibility study by [Glass et al. 1987](#); see below). Only in the last decade
1279 the interest for these materials raised again, mainly because of the nuclear forensic applications,

and many studies on the mineralogy, petrology, geochemistry and on the average Fe or Ti redox state have been published. For example, [Eby *et al.* \(2010\)](#) report the occurrence of four different type of glass:

1) glassy and vesicular green top surface coated with sand grains (the top part of the trinitite layer) (**Figure 16**);

2) a Cu-rich glass (red trinitite) containing metallic chondrules;

3) green trinitite (scoriaceous fragments);

4) trinitite ejecta, which include aerodynamically shaped droplets, beads, and dumbbell glasses.

The latter were discovered a few years after the detonation as mm-sized specimens.

Supposedly, part of the molten material was transported by the hot gas cloud and spread over a wide area into beads and dumbbell shapes ([Eby *et al.* 2010](#)). The red trinitite contains several

metallic chondrules having Cu, Fe and Pb deriving from the explosion (blast tower and trinity device), confirming the hypothesis of Ross (1948). The most common material is the green

trinitite that consists of vesiculated and amorphous scoria-like fragments, and it is extremely

heterogeneous. Light microscopy, SEM and BSE analysis show the presence of euhedral heated

sand grains, large flow bands and strong chemical variability ([Bellucci *et al.* 2014](#); [Eby *et al.*](#)

[2010, 2015](#); [Fahey *et al.* 2010](#)) (see **Figure 17**). The more recent analysis confirmed the early

observation done by [Ross \(1948\)](#) on the bulk chemistry. Trinitite glasses have two major glass

compositions, one essentially consisting of lechatelierite, and a second one, depleted in silica,

with a much higher variability (SiO_2 range = 55 - 80 wt.%). Moreover, [Eby *et al.* \(2015\)](#) reports

the occurrence of planar deformation features in quartz grains, a typical evidence of shock

metamorphism in impactites and fulgurites.

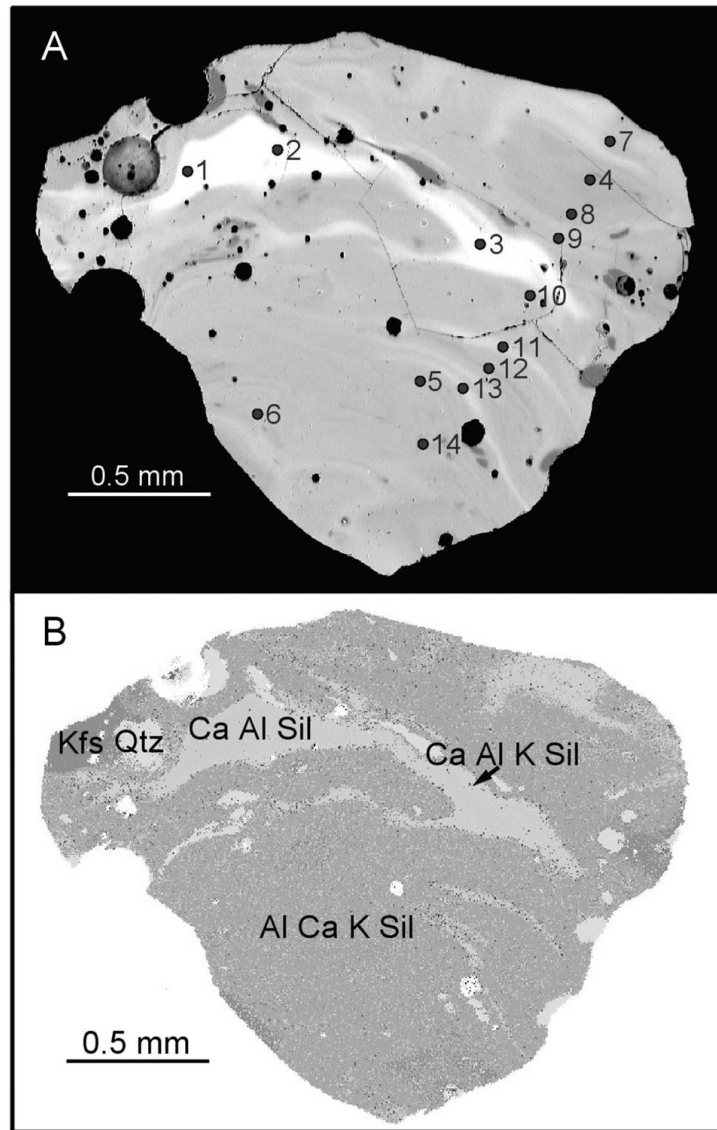


Figure 17 (a) Backscattered electrons (BSE) and (b) QEMSCAN (Quantitative Evaluation of Minerals by SCANNing electron microscopy) images for a green trinitite fragment. Besides the partially melted K-feldspar (Kfs) and quartz grains (Qtz) there are evident flow structures, and the occurrence of different glass compositions. The brightest areas are enriched in calcium content. Numbers represents the point analysis. Figure from [Eby et al. 2015](#) (American Mineralogist. 2015;100(2-3):427-441. doi:10.2138/am-2015-4921) MSA copyright.

Because of the resemblance between trinitite ejecta and distal impact ejecta, trinitite glasses have been compared to tektite and microtektites ([Glass et al. 1987](#)). The similarities between the two products were confirmed, especially regarding the water contents (between 0.01 and 0.05 wt.%) and the predominant reducing conditions ($\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}} < 0.1 \pm 0.1$; [Glass et al. 1987](#); [Giuli et al. 2010b](#); [Eby et al. 2015](#)). The study of the mineralogy and chemical variability of the glass samples has constrained the conditions occurring during the atomic

detonation (Pressure-Temperature (P-T) regime), with temperatures on the order of ~ 1870 K and pressure ≥ 8 GPa (Eby *et al.* 2015). A recent study highlights also the occurrence of nano-structures in zircon grains, and in particular the presence of baddeleyite fibers surrounding the core of unaltered zircons (Lussier *et al.* 2017). These fibrous that seem to irradiate from the zircon grains, are not in physical contact with the core. Based on Raman, TEM and electron diffraction data, the P-T regime was constrained to $T > 1770$ K and $P < 10$ GPa (Lussier *et al.* 2017). Because of the disagreement between temperatures estimated by trinitite glasses and fireball (~ 1800 K vs. ~ 8000 K, respectively), it was suggested that the very short duration of the nuclear event has a major impact on the physical properties registered by glasses and minerals (Eby *et al.* 2015).

The study of the glasses formed during nuclear events provides information on the type of device that was detonated and its origin, thus it has nuclear forensic applications. Recently, Molgaard *et al.* 2015 produced synthetic nuclear glasses, comparable with trinitite glasses, as surrogates that could be used to simulate a variety of scenarios and could be used as a tool for developing and validating (nuclear) forensic analysis methods.

5. Glass properties

The study of the glasses described in the previous sections can provide important information of the formation mechanisms of these amorphous materials, and on the related events. In particular, the information provided by the study of shock metamorphism materials have implications well beyond earth sciences, since they involve also planetary science, biogeochemistry, and materials science.

By looking at different scales, it is possible to obtain information on the glass average redox conditions during fast cooling, on the short and medium range silicate network, on liquid immiscibility phenomena, and on the macroscopic properties (optical, physical, magnetic and so on...). All these data can be used to constrain the regimes of temperature and pressure during formations, evaporation and condensation stages, the timescale of the processes, and the thermal history of glasses. Altogether with the data from experimental studies (*e.g.* shock experiments) they are the base for simulations and numerical models of crater formation. In the following we report some of the characteristic of the amorphous materials and a compilation of Fe redox state and Raman spectroscopy data, collected on a variety of non-magmatic glasses.

Liquid immiscibility

A common feature of many natural glasses is the occurrence of two coexisting different melt phases, with features similar to liquid-liquid immiscibility. For example, in the previous sections, the presence of compositional heterogeneities on a variety of scales has been described for several impact related glasses (*e.g.* Libyan desert glass, Darwin glass), fulgurites and trinitite. Moreover, the occurrence of ferromagnesian droplets coalescing into a felsic amorphous matrix has been reported also for pyrometamorphic materials (*e.g.* [Capitanio et al. 2004](#)).

Multicomponent silicate systems are stable over wide ranges of P-T-X- fO_2 (pressure, temperature, bulk composition, oxygen fugacity), nevertheless, they might exhibit immiscibility at particular conditions (*e.g.* [Hamann *et al.* 2018](#); [Hudon & Baker 2002](#); [Roedder 1992](#)). Silicate-silicate liquid immiscibility is a common phenomenon observed in many natural igneous melts on Earth, and in lunar mare basalts (as a late-stage immiscibility), including meteorites (*e.g.* [Hudon *et al.* 2004](#); [Roedder 1978](#)) and is a fundamental research field in glass and ceramic industry (phase separation; see [Vogel 1994](#) for a review). The silicate-silicate (or carbonate) fluid immiscibility arises from differences in physical properties between two separate phases, and usually the immiscibility is characterized of coexisting felsic and mafic components; however, the chemical distribution is highly dependent on the duration of melting, the cooling rate and ambient atmosphere (reducing or oxidizing conditions). In highly energetic events, there are dynamic pressure and temperature conditions that allow the physical and chemical interaction (respectively, mingling and mixing) of very different target materials; however, because of the timescale of these processes, equilibrium conditions are hardly achieved, opposite to magmatic processes where a complete homogenization can be attained (for more information on Magma mixing see chapter [Morgavi, this volume](#)).

Liquid-liquid immiscibility arises from the different structural role of the cations in the glass. For instance, the main cation building the network in natural compositions is Si^{4+} (altogether with AlO_4 tetrahedra), which is bonded by four oxygen ions to form a tetrahedral coordination; each oxygen is shared by neighboring tetrahedra (bridging oxygens) to form a three-dimensional network held together by strong covalent bonds. The other cations present in a natural composition have different structural roles, and may either aid or disrupt the silicate network, thus they are called, respectively, network-formers or network modifiers (see [Chapter XX](#), this volume). According to [Veksler \(2004\)](#) the cations that the most influence the liquid-liquid immiscibility fields are aluminum and alkali/alkali earths, and in turn, the peraluminous

or peralkaline nature of the melts, and cations that present high field strength tend to concentrate in the Si-poor phase.

Liquid immiscibility seems to be a very common feature of glasses deriving from highly energetic events, and recently, [Hamann *et al.* \(2018\)](#) discuss the importance of liquid immiscibility in impact processes, and the mechanisms that lead to the formation of melt heterogeneities and unmixing of silicate phases. In particular, besides the classical liquid-liquid immiscibility (rising from phase separation of a melt), the authors define other two main mechanisms that could produce the heterogeneities observed in silica impact glasses: i) mingling or incomplete mixing due to the short time-scale associated with highly energetic events; ii) emulsification of incompatible melts (deriving from the target rocks and impactor), without mixing. Moreover, [Hamann *et al.* \(2018\)](#) report that, despite the huge differences from phase separated volcanic rocks (both in terms of composition and T-P-time conditions), impact glasses show a very similar major element partition between phases.

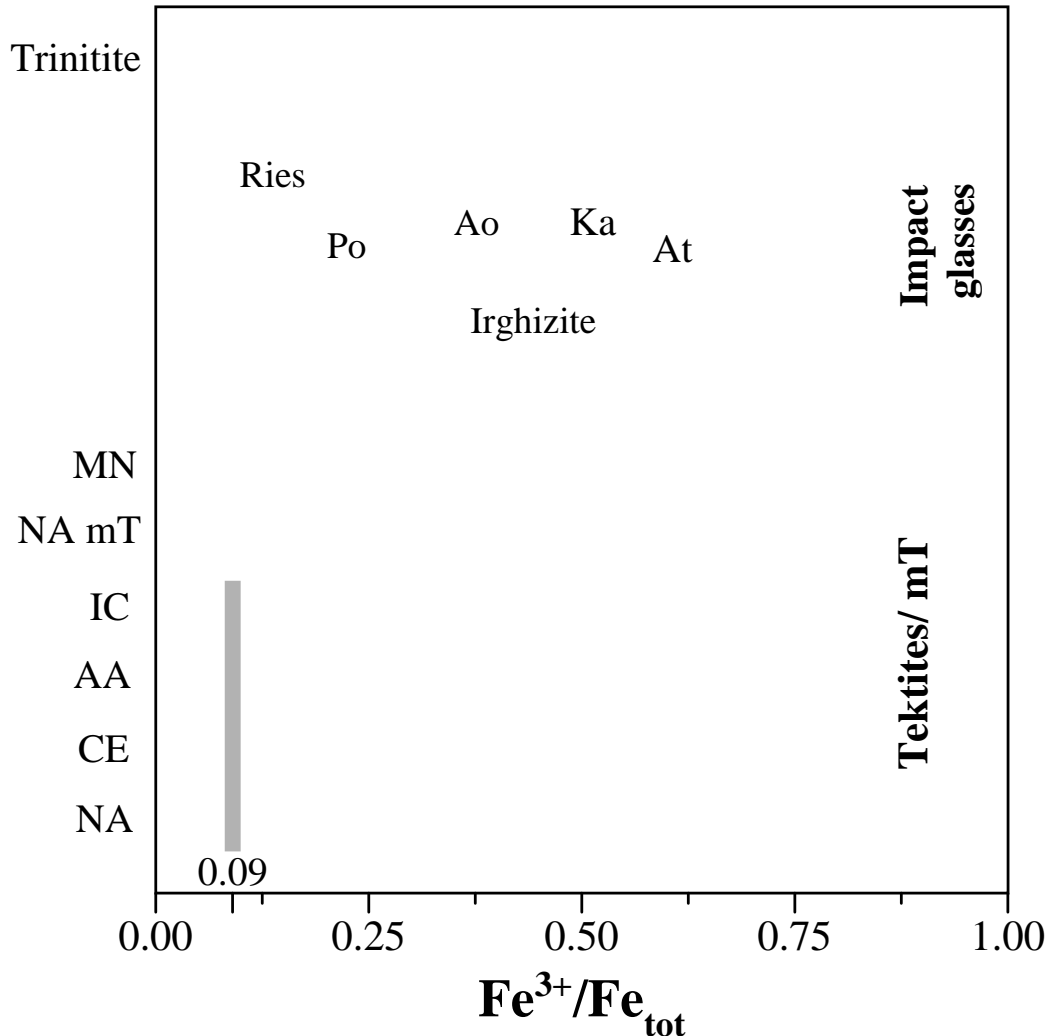
Heterogeneity in glasses from high energetic events have been described in detail for Libyan Desert glass, blue zhamanshinites, and also trinitite and fulgurite glasses. In all specimens the occurrence of amorphous nanospherules, as a result of silicate–silicate liquid immiscibility, have been observed ([Feng *et al.* 2019](#); [Pratesi *et al.* 2002](#); [Zolensky & Koeberl 1991](#)). Other immiscibility like features can be found also in suevite glasses from Ries crater where mixture of carbonate impact melt and silicate melt have been reported ([Graup 1999](#)).

Reduced iron species

As discussed in the previous sections, the highly reducing conditions of glasses/rocks formed from highly energetic events have many repercussions, not only on the formation mechanisms of the samples themselves, but also on the understanding of the processes that occurred during the heavy meteorite bombardment, and on the evolution of the early Earth or to understand planetary impact cratering processes and differentiation. Among the characteristics common to all distal ejecta there is the occurrence of very high amount of reduced iron species Fe^{2+} in the melts, and several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the presence of reduced species, and its preservation during the “travel”, and the quench (*e.g.* see [Engelhardt *et al.* 1987](#); [Ganino *et al.* 2018](#); [Lukanin & Kadik 2007](#)).

Iron is by far the most common multivalent element in all natural amorphous materials, with two valence states (Fe^{3+} , Fe^{2+}) that are stable over a large range of P-T conditions. In the study of glasses derived by impact or other highly energetic events, the occurrence of reduced iron has become one of the common markers to differentiate those samples from volcanic rocks. Moreover, in order to constrain some of the condition of formation of natural glasses, the study of iron valence has been one of the most common tools. An overview of the average Fe valence in these samples is provided in [Figure 18](#), where $\text{Fe}^{3+}/(\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{Fe}^{3+})$ (hereafter, $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$) ratios, are reported for many natural glasses. The data for tektite and microtektites where obtained by several techniques (wet chemistry, Mossbauer, XAS; see below for details). Tektites, from the different strewn-fields, aside some extreme values reported in the literature, all show an average Fe redox ratio $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}} \sim 0.09$ (± 0.10 ; vertical grey line), thus indicating a similar thermal history and similar P-T- $f\text{O}_2$ conditions, despite their different geographical distribution. In Muong-Nong-type tektites (MN) and North American microtektites (NA mT), the large range of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$ ratios is, in the first case, typical of the layered tektites, and in the second one, an unique case among microtektites (see [section 3.1](#)). Distal ejecta have considerably lower

1429 $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$ ratios than impact glasses, or Fe valences associated to average crustal target rocks
 1430 (the possible precursor material).
 1431



1432
 1433 **Figure 18:** Ranges of Fe redox state (as $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$) of tektites and microtektites from the different strewn
 1434 fields are compared to the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$ of impact glasses (proximal from Zhamanshin, Popigai, Kara,
 1435 Aouelloul, Atacama and Ries craters) and trinitite glasses. For tektites, both the extreme values and the
 1436 average one (~ 0.09) are reported. North American microtektites and Muong-Nong tektites are the only
 1437 distal ejecta specimens that show a broader range of Fe redox states (see section 4), with values that overlap
 1438 the proximal impact glasses.
 1439

1440 Several techniques have been used to infer the Fe oxidation state. The earlier works
 1441 reported quite broad ranges regarding the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}_{\text{tot}}$ with values between 0 and ~ 0.5 . The
 1442 analyses were based on magnetic susceptibility or, more commonly, on wet-chemistry
 1443 methods (*e.g.* Bouška 1994; Bouška & Povondra 1964; Cuttitta *et al.* 1972; Schnetzler & Pinson

1964; Schreiber *et al.* 1984; Thorpe *et al.* 1963). Early spectroscopic data (Mössbauer) were obtained for a large dataset (tektites from various locations by Evans & Leung 1979; Fudali *et al.* 1987) finding no detectable ferric iron in one case, and up to 0.12% in the second case. Lately, very similar results on the average Fe redox state were obtained (*e.g.* Dunlap 1997; Rossano *et al.* 1999). Mössbauer spectroscopy, respect wet chemistry, provided additional information on the Fe local environment. The early studies reported a coordination environment for ferrous iron around 6, with a minor presence of 4-fold coordinated species, but more recently it was reported the main presence of ferrous sites with coordination between 4 and 5 (trigonal bipyramids) (*e.g.* Dunlap *et al.* 1998; Dunlap & Sibley 2004; Rossano *et al.* 1999; Volovetsky *et al.* 2008).

Another spectroscopy technique that is element selective is X-Ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS). The study of the absorption edge region (XANES), including the small feature before the whitenline called pre-edge peak, and the extended energy region (EXAFS) provide information on an element average valence state and coordination number. This technique has been used to study Fe, Al, Ti structural environment in many natural amorphous materials, to provide insights on pressure and oxygen fugacity conditions during cooling. Because iron is the most common multivalent transition elements in natural melts, it has been extensively studied both in natural and synthetic systems, thus, accurate information can be derived by the study of the Fe K-edge XAS spectra of tektites, impact glasses and so on. XAS spectra related to reduced Fe²⁺ and oxidized Fe³⁺ glasses show differences in their energy position, as well as in their shape, with the spectrum related to oxidized species shifted toward higher energies (Figure 19A). The small feature before the absorption edge (inset in Figure 19A) is the pre-edge peak that presents different energy positions and intensities depending, respectively, on Fe oxidation state and average coordination number (local symmetry), and the deconvolution of this small feature for many crystalline compounds allowed to create the

variogram reported in **Figure 19B** and to derive quantitative information on the Fe structural role; indeed, the intensity of the pre-edge is related to the number of first neighbors and site geometry, whereas the centroid position is related to the average valence. For a review on the technique and on studies related to iron in silicate glasses, melts and minerals, the readers are referred to Calas & Petiau 1983; Giuli *et al.* 2002, 2012; Henderson *et al.* 2014; Mottana 2004; Wilke *et al.* 2001, 2004, 2007.

The results obtained from the study of the Fe K-edge pre-edge peak for an extensive dataset of tektites and microtektites provide very consistent results, with all distal ejecta having similar values both as average oxidation state and coordination environment. The pre-edge peak variogram in **Figure 19B** shows that tektite and microtektites cluster in a position that is compatible with the presence of highly amount of reduced species ($\geq 90\% \text{Fe}^{2+}$), and an average coordination between 4 and 5. Trinitite glass as well has a similar behavior and the iron structural environment resemble that of distal ejecta. Impact glasses from different localities have much higher centroid energy values, corresponding to higher amount of trivalent iron (data in **Figure 19B** from Giuli *et al.* 2002, 2010a, 2010b, 2013b, 2014a, 2014b). Beside the analysis of the Fe pre-edge peak, the analysis of the extended region of the Fe K-edge XAS spectra allowed to derive average $\langle \text{Fe-O} \rangle$ distances of $2.00 \pm 0.02 \text{ \AA}$, values compatible with the presence of ferrous species with coordination between 4 and 5 (Giuli *et al.* 2002).

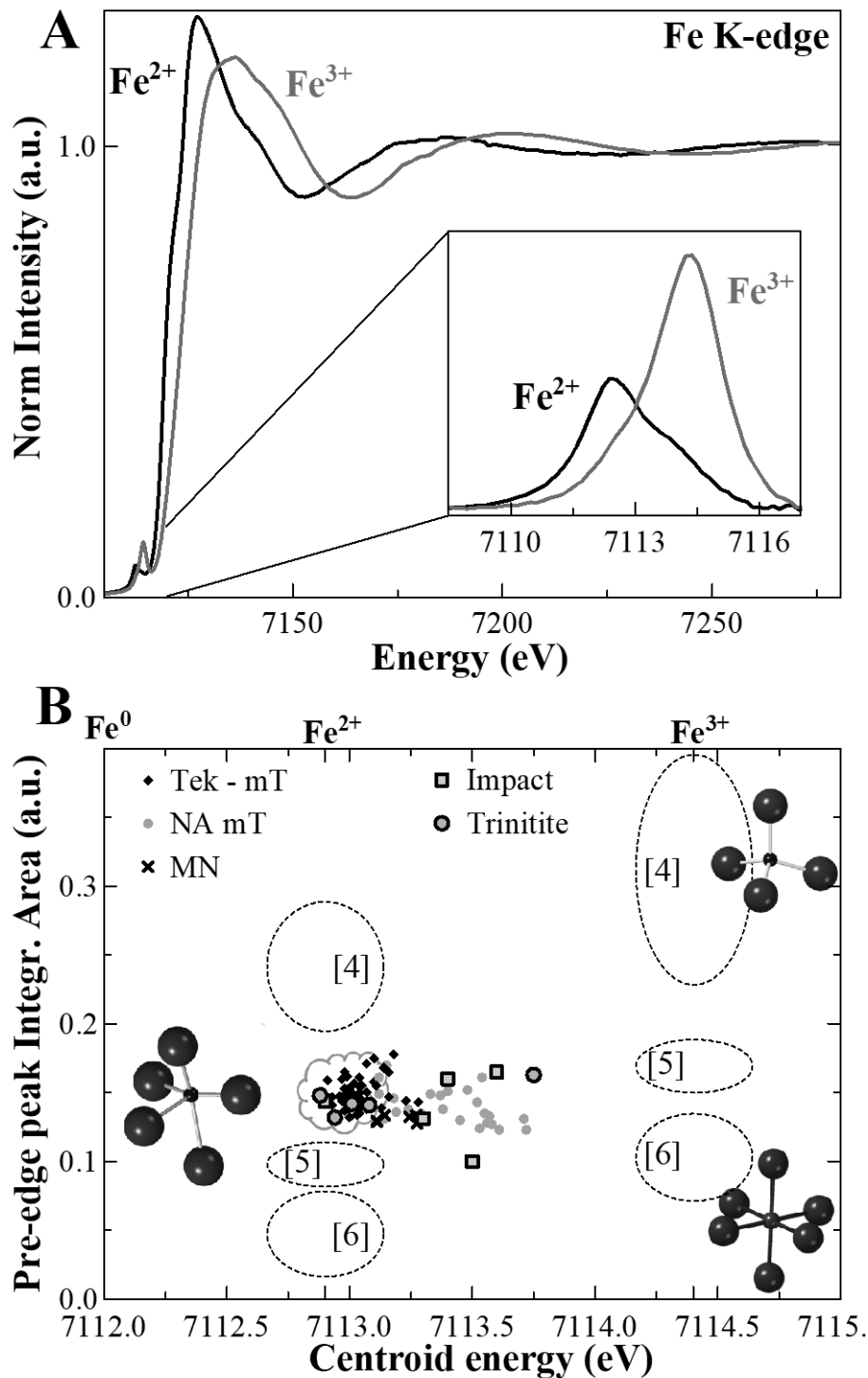


Figure 19: A) XAS at the Fe K-edge for two glasses having reduced and oxidized iron species. The inset shows in detail the background subtracted pre-edge peaks (data from Cicconi *et al.* 2015). B) Centroid energy position against the Fe pre-edge peak integrated intensity. The dashed ovals represent different coordination environments of the iron species in minerals. This variogram is obtained from the study of the Fe K-edge pre-edge peak of several tektite, microtektites from the different strewn-fields, impact glasses and trinitite glasses. Nearly all the distal ejecta cluster in a small area, here highlighted by the cloud shape. Data from Giuli *et al.* 2002, 2010a, 2010b, 2013b, 2014a, 2014b. Figure modified after Cicconi *et al.* 2020

1499

1500 **Glass structure**

1501 Most of the natural materials discussed in this chapter are SiO₂-rich aluminosilicate
 1502 glasses. The study of the silicate network arrangement can provide information on glass
 1503 polymerization, temperature and pressure regimes, as observed in **Figure 3**. One of the most
 1504 studied phases is SiO₂, either the amorphous phase or the crystalline polymorphs, and for sake
 1505 of clarity, we compare the properties of amorphous SiO₂ with those of the other crystalline
 1506 phases in **Table 4**. There are 11 known SiO₂ polymorphs formed depending on the different
 1507 pressure and temperature systems, and here we report the most common ones in natural glasses.
 1508 Quartz, tridymite and cristobalite are low pressure polymorphs, whereas coesite and stishovite
 1509 are the high pressure ones (see **Figure 3**). The arrangement of the silica is always the same in
 1510 all polymorphs, namely having a silicon surrounded by four oxygens arranged in a tetrahedra
 1511 (4-fold coordinated), except stishovite where silicon is surrounded by six oxygens.

1512

1513 **Table 4: Some properties of lechatelierite glass and crystalline SiO₂ polymorphs.**

name	Density (g/cm ³)	Refractive Index	<Si-O> (Å)
Lechatelierite	2.20	1.458	1.62
α-quartz	2.65	1.549	1.61
β-quartz	2.53	1.537	1.59
α-tridymite	2.25	1.471	1.59
α-cristobalite	2.32	1.484	1.60
Coesite	2.92	1.596	1.61
Stishovite*	4.29	1.81	1.78

1514 * silicon coordination is 6.

1515

1516 Raman spectroscopy is a very powerful technique that allow to derive information on
 1517 the silicate melt short- and medium-range orders, thermal history, pressure regimes, and to
 1518 provide an overview of sample heterogeneity. Moreover, Raman has been widely used on
 1519 obsidian specimens in order to get information of the provenience (determination of the

geographic origin) of archeological obsidians (*e.g.* [Bellot-Gurlet *et al.* 2004](#)). Besides magmatic glasses, some of the first studies that exploit Raman technique to understand the origin of other natural glasses were done as early as in the 80s, and by using polarized Raman spectra the authors tried to derive information on the thermal history of Libyan Desert Glasses ([Galeener *et al.* 1984](#)), or proximal and distal ejecta ([Jakes *et al.* 1992](#)). Despite these early investigations, it is surprising that in the last decades, not so many studies have used this technique to understand possible modifications in the glass connectivity, but rather to determine the crystalline phases present, and the peak shock pressure (for instance, see case study in [section 3.2](#)).

In the following, we will report a series of Raman spectra collected for several glasses described within this chapter. A short description of the main vibration modes of silicate glasses is reported for sake of clarity; however, for a comprehensive description of Raman spectroscopy and on the silicate network short- and medium-range order, the readers should refer to dedicated text ([Neuville *et al.* 2014](#); [Henderson_Stebbins this volume](#)). Raman spectra for other natural glasses, including magmatic ones, are reported in [Cicconi & Neuville \(2019\)](#).

Raman spectra of silicate glasses have the main vibration modes in the 10-1300 cm^{-1} frequency range, which can be divided in different major regions: a very low wavenumber region ($< 250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), which provides information on tetrahedral arrangement (see [Neuville *et al.* 2014](#) for more details). The frequency range between ~ 400 and $\sim 650 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ can be related to vibrations of the tetrahedra-rings (**Figure 20**), with the main asymmetric band (R) usually assigned to symmetric vibrations of T-O-T in ≥ 5 -membered rings (*e.g.* T is the Si^{4+} - or Al^{3+} - centered tetrahedron). Depending on glass polymerization, two additional sharper bands can be observed (**Figure 20**), the so -called defect bands, D_1 ($\sim 490 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and D_2 ($\sim 600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), assigned to breathing modes of 4- and 3-membered rings, respectively. The frequency position and the

shape of the R band strongly depend on the silica network, and for instance, it shifts toward higher frequencies by densification of SiO₂ glasses (Deschamps *et al.* 2013), or by changing glass connectivity (*e.g.* by adding network modifier cations) (Neuville *et al.* 2014), thus by varying T-O-T inter-tetrahedral angles, and T-O average distances. The high wavenumber region, extending from ~ 900 to 1300 cm⁻¹, contains T-O asymmetric stretching vibrations; usually these stretching modes are labelled according to T polymerization: Q^{0-4} , where Q represents the Si(Al) centered tetrahedron, and $0-4$ represents the number of bridging oxygens (BO). This region is also called Q -range or Q -envelope (Figure 20). By decreasing glass polymerization (*e.g.* by adding network modifier cations), the Q -range strongly increases in intensity and shift toward lower frequencies because other bands, related to different Q species (Q^3 , Q^2) appear in the 900-1200 cm⁻¹ region (*e.g.* Neuville *et al.* 2014).

There are several studies dedicated to the modification occurring to the structure of pure silica glass upon compression by hydrostatic pressure (*i.e.*, DAC – diamond anvil cell) or shock experiments. These investigations report that there is a permanent increase in silica glass density (densification), and for example, the density of a SiO₂ glass increases steadily up to values 20-21% higher, approaching the density of crystalline SiO₂ (Bridgman & Šimon 1953; Cohen & Roy 1961, 1965; Susman *et al.* 1991), and for applied pressure below 28 GPa, this densification is not due to changes of silicon coordination, but rather to structural changes, mainly related to variations in intertetrahedral angles distribution and the ring statistic, without variations in Si-O coordination (Deschamps *et al.* 2013; Sugiura *et al.* 1997). Okuno *et al.* (1999) carried out shock wave experiments on a SiO₂ glass by impacting glass with a steel flyer (speed up to ~2 km/s) for pressures in the range of 17.8 GPa to 43.4 GPa, and they observed the maximum density increment (maximum changes in silica network) at 26.3 GPa. The study of the Raman signals of compressed or shocked glasses has allowed to get many information

on the variations that may occur in the silicate network after high grade shock metamorphisms, and to identify the peak pressure values.

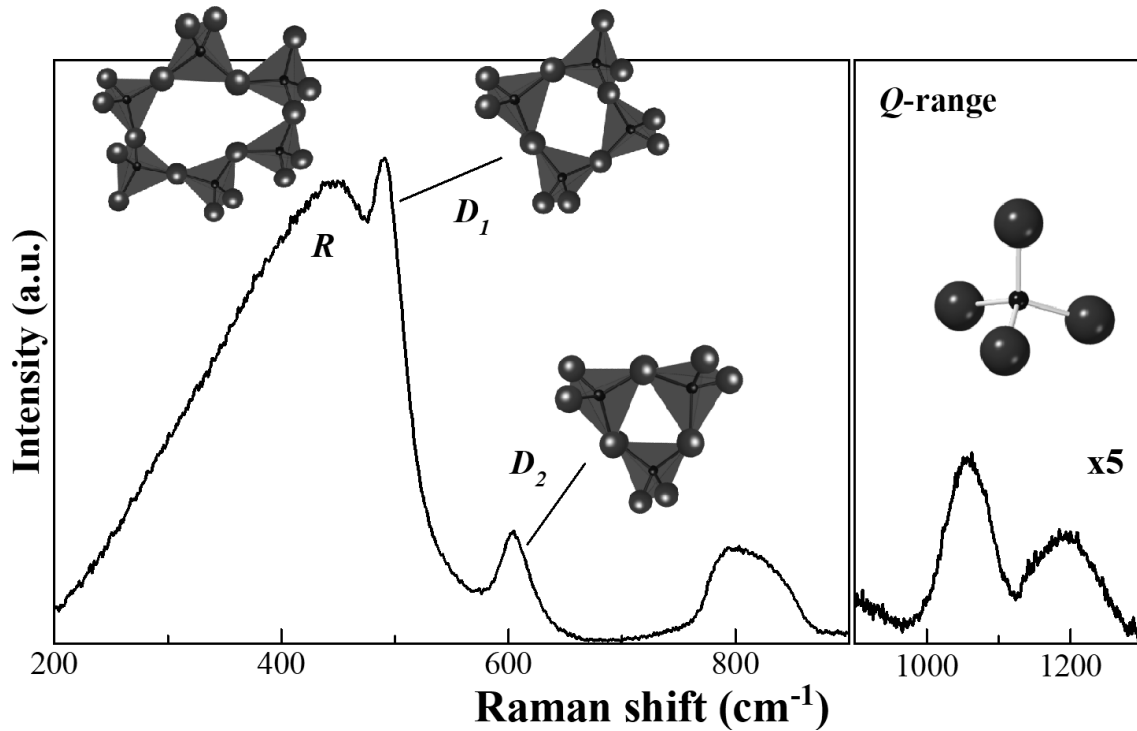
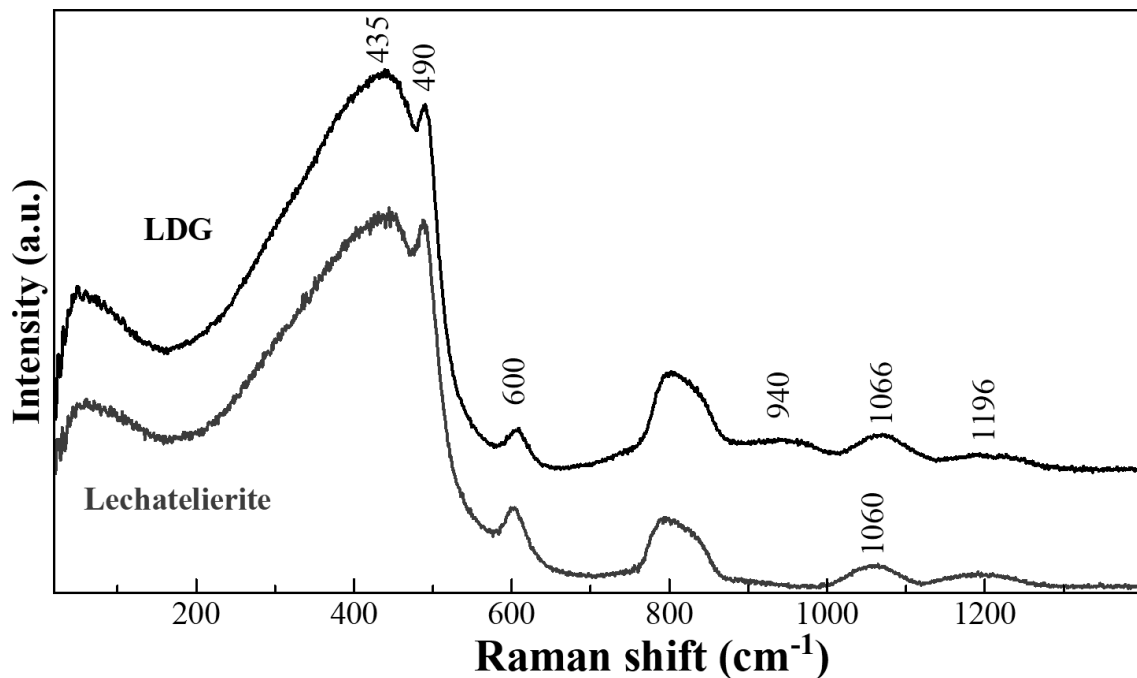


Figure 20: Background subtracted Raman spectrum of a commercial pure SiO₂ glass. The different bands can be attributed to specific Si-O-Si and Si-O vibration modes. See text for details on band labels.

A common feature of many natural glasses is the occurrence of lechatelierite, that is amorphous SiO₂, or glass phases enriched in silica content. For example, different Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) clear fragments have been analyzed by using a 488 nm laser excitation, and all Raman signals present vibrations with frequency positions and intensities very similar to that of a lechatelierite glass, including the two sharp peaks related to the breathing modes of 4- and 3-membered rings (defect lines). Some authors used the relative intensity of the defect bands in the Raman spectra to get information on the thermal history of natural glasses (Champagnon *et al.* 1997; Galeener *et al.* 1984), and for example Galeener *et al.* reported a fictive temperature (Tf) of 1000 ± 50 °C for LDG, and suggested that the molten material cooled down to temperature below Tf in a period ranging between a few minutes and days.

1587 The whole region in the frequency range 700 – 1300 cm⁻¹ of the LDG Raman spectrum
 1588 has a higher background, and all fragments analyzed present a contribution around 940 cm⁻¹
 1589 that is not present neither in the commercial SiO₂ glass, or in the lechatelierite spectrum (**Figure**
 1590 **21**). Because this band is not related to luminescence (electronic transitions), it must be related
 1591 to other cations present in the Libyan Desert Glasses. Stretching modes related to 4-fold
 1592 coordinated Al³⁺ will mainly influence the relative intensity and frequency position of the band
 1593 at ~1200 cm⁻¹, and the intensity of the defect lines because of the changes in the ring statistic;
 1594 hence, the higher background and the band at ~ 940 cm⁻¹ might be related to other (relatively)
 1595 abundant cations, such as Ti⁴⁺ and Fe³⁺ species (~ 0.1 wt.%).



1596

1597 **Figure 21: Raman spectra in the frequency range 20-1400 cm⁻¹ of lechatelierite and Libyan**
 1598 **Desert Glass (LDG). The frequency position of the main vibrations is reported.**
 1599

1600 Darwin glasses are chemically varied, and the Raman signals reflect the heterogeneity
 1601 of these samples. Indeed, depending on the portion analyzed it is possible to get vibrations
 1602 almost completely related to amorphous SiO₂ (*i.e.*, lechatelierite) or vibration modes that
 1603 indicate a more depolymerized silicate network (**Figure 22**). For instance, the layered structure

of the Darwin glass shown in **Figures 7 and 8** have vibrations related to a highly polymerized glass in the light layering, whereas the darker layers have lower intensities of the defect lines D₁ and D₂, and stronger bands in the high frequency region, most probably related to higher amounts of non-bridging oxygens (NBO). The frequency region between 860 and 1400 cm⁻¹ in the dark portion has an integrated area almost three times higher than in the light layers, and these modifications can be attributed to change in the bulk chemistry (see **Table 2**). In the dark glass portion there is also the appearance of an additional contribution around 940 cm⁻¹.

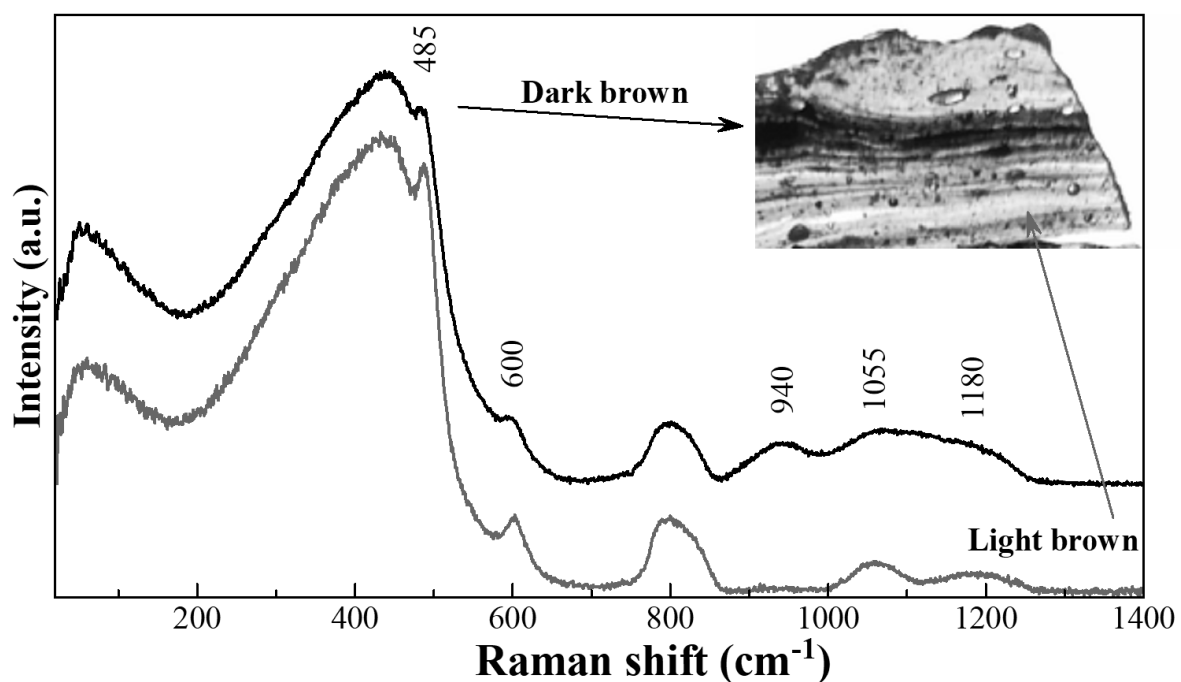
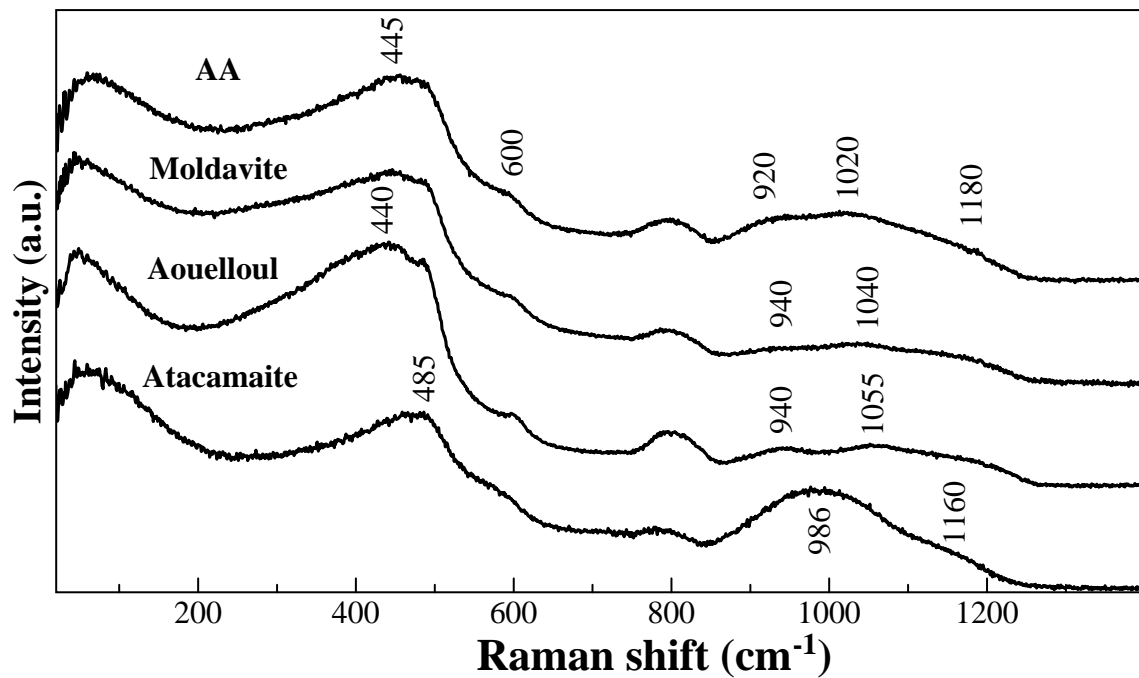


Figure 22: Raman spectra in the frequency range 20-1400 cm⁻¹ of the light and of the dark brown layers in a Darwin glass specimen. The frequency position of the main vibrations is reported.

Distal ejecta and impact glasses have high SiO₂ contents (typically > 65 wt.%; see **Tables 1 and 2**), thus the typical vibrations of silica rich glasses are clearly observed, even if, sometimes, the defect lines are barely visible (**Figure 23**). Again, the high frequency regions show further contributions, and are very different from the lechatelierite glass, or more in general from the SiO₂-richer LDG samples. Atacamaite sample is the most different one, with strong variations in the frequency position of the vibrational bands, and an intense *Q*-envelope.

1622 These modifications on the Raman spectrum of atacamaite glass reflect the average bulk
 1623 chemistry of the glass, and especially the relatively low SiO₂ content, and the high Al₂O₃, FeO
 1624 and CaO contents.



1625 **Figure 23:** Raman spectra in the frequency range 20-1400 cm⁻¹ of several impact related glasses:
 1626 two tektites, respectively from the Australasian (AA) and Central European (moldavite) strewn
 1627 fields, and two proximal impact glasses (Atacamaite and Aouelloul). The frequency position of
 1628 the main vibrations is reported.
 1629
 1630

1631 **Figure 24** report the Raman spectrum of a bottle green trinitite specimen, and only the
 1632 most homogeneous inner glass portion was considered. At the microscale, trinitite specimens
 1633 are chemically highly heterogeneous (see [section 3.3](#)) with SiO₂ contents that range between ~
 1634 90 and 60 wt.% ([Eby et al. 2010](#)). In the specimen available the Raman spectra collected do not
 1635 show Si-rich portions, and the majority of the data collected points to an aluminosilicate glass
 1636 composition with SiO₂ contents << 75 wt.%. The high frequency range has very intense and
 1637 broad bands, with the highest contribution peaking at ~1030 cm⁻¹. Depending on the glass
 1638 portion considered the intensity of the shoulder at ~940 slightly varies, and the R band decreases

its intensity. These small variations can be related to the different proportions of network modifier cations, and in turn, to the SiO₂ content variability.

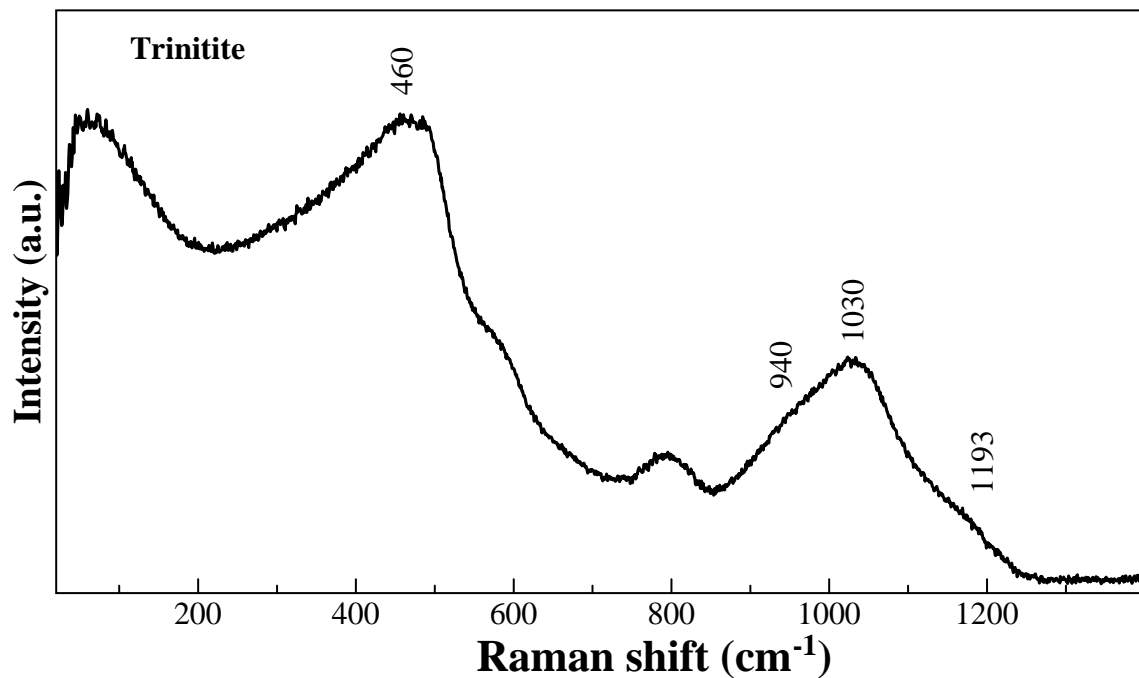


Figure 24: Raman spectra in the frequency range 20-1400 cm⁻¹ of a trinitite sample. The frequency position of the main vibrations is reported.

The Raman spectra shown here are just an overview of the variability of the glass structures, and demonstrate the potentiality of using Raman spectroscopy, especially for investigations at the microscales. Despite the chemical complexity of a multicomponent natural glass, the vibrational bands can be interpreted based on the study of simplified synthetic compositions, and it is possible to correlate the degree of polymerization to the Raman features. All changes occurring in the low frequency region can be mainly associated to the changes in the bulk composition, and more in detail, on the Si content that drives the glass network polymerization. For an almost constant bulk composition, it would be possible to use the glass-memory effect and study the variations of the intensity of the defect lines, and the variations in the position of the main R band, in order to relate them to the pressure or the thermal history of

the glasses. The high frequency region contains the T-O stretching modes related to Si^{4+} , but also of other network former cations, such as Al^{3+} . The variations observed in all glasses, compared to the bands of lechatelierite, could be related to the different proportions of network modifiers that creates higher amounts of NBO, and charge compensator cations, that will influence the covalency character of the bonds. Moreover, other cations, such as the 4-fold coordinated Fe^{3+} , can also provide stretching vibrations in the high frequency region. For instance, in aluminosilicate and silicate glasses, both natural and synthetic, it has been reported that the bands between 800 and 1200 cm^{-1} are very sensitive to the average iron valence state (e.g. [Di Muro et al. 2009](#); [Di Genova et al. 2016](#); [Le Losq et al. 2019](#)). Thus, in the case of Darwin brown glass, and atacamaite, the contribution observed could be related to the presence of higher amounts of 4-fold coordinated Fe^{3+} .

We have described several natural glasses not deriving from volcanic processes, and we observed that glasses formed as a consequence of highly energetic event share many characteristics, such as:

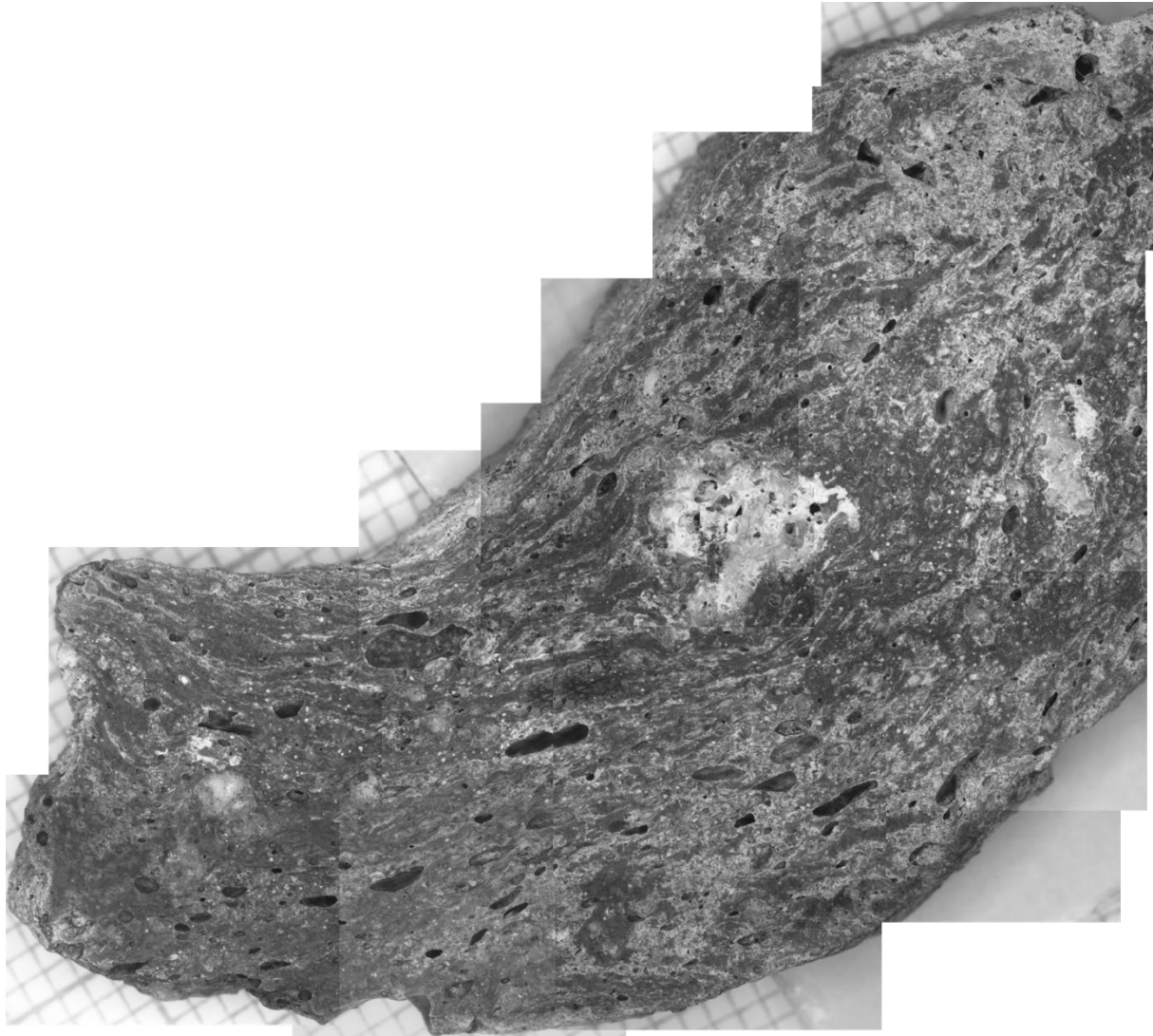
- Compositional similarities (*e.g.* the presence of lechatelierite)
- Liquid-liquid immiscibility
- Highly reduced species
- Shocked minerals

The study of fulgurites and trinitite glasses may serve as a proxy for impact-induced mineralogic and petrologic changes, and to better understand the formation of glasses from highly disequilibrium conditions.

1679 **NOT INCLUDED – no time for mapping.**

1680

1681



1682

1683 **A polished slice of suevite (glass bomb) shows the flow lines and the elongated vesicles, along with inclusion**
1684 **of heterogeneous fragments, and glassy pockets (darker spots).**

1685

1686 Flow lines; glass pocket; elongated micro and macro bubbles;

1687 Polished interior section of suevite “glass bomb” showing large (mostly elongate) vesicles that follow the flow lines.

1688

1689

REFERENCES

- Aboud, T. (2009). Libyan Desert Glass: has the enigma of its origin been resolved? *Physics Procedia*, **2**(3), 1425–1432.
- Alvarez, L. W., Alvarez, W., Asaro, F., & Michel, H. V. (1980). Extraterrestrial Cause for the Cretaceous-Tertiary Extinction. *Science*, **208**(4448), 1095–1108.
- Anderson, A. E. (1925). SAND FULGURITES FROM NEBRASKA THEIR STRUCTURE AND FORMATIVE FACTORS. *THE NEBRASKA STATE MUSEUM BULLETIN BULLETIN*, **7**(1).
- Artemieva, N. (2002). Numerical modeling of tektite origin in oblique impacts : Implication to Ries-Moldavites strewn field. *Bulletin of the Czech Geological Survey*, **77**(4), 303–311.
- Artemieva, N. A., Wünnemann, K., Krien, F., ... Summerson, I. A. T. (2013). Ries crater and suevite revisited-Observations and modeling Part I: Observations. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **48**(4), 590–627.
- Atkatz, D., & Bragg, C. (1995). Determining the yield of the Trinity nuclear device via gamma-ray spectroscopy. *American Journal of Physics*, **63**(5), 411–413.
- Baker, G., & Baker, A. A. (1964). *Hay-silica glass from Gnarkeet, Western Victoria. Memoirs of the National Museum of Victoria*, Vol. 26, National Museum of Victoria.
doi:10.24199/j.mmv.1964.26.03
- Barnes, V. E. (1958). Origin of Tektites. *Nature*, **181**(4621), 1457–1457.
- Barrat, J.-A. J. A., Jahn, B. M. M., Amossé, J., ... Diemer, E. (1997). Geochemistry and origin of Libyan Desert glasses. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **61**(9), 1953–1959.
- Bates, R. L., & Jackson, J. A. (1987). Glossary of geology.
- Bellot-Gurlet, L., Bourdonnec, F.-X. Le, Poupeau, G., & Dubernet, S. (2004). Raman micro-spectroscopy of western Mediterranean obsidian glass: one step towards provenance studies? *Journal of Raman Spectroscopy*, **35**(89), 671–677.
- Bellucci, J. J., Simonetti, A., Koeman, E. C., Wallace, C., & Burns, P. C. (2014). A detailed geochemical investigation of post-nuclear detonation trinitite glass at high spatial resolution: Delineating anthropogenic vs. natural components. *Chemical Geology*, **365**, 69–86.
- Bentor, Y. K. (1984). Combustion-metamorphic glasses. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*.
doi:10.1016/0022-3093(84)90168-6
- Bentor, Y. K., Kastner, M., Perlman, I., & Yellin, Y. (1981). Combustion metamorphism of bituminous sediments and the formation of melts of granitic and sedimentary composition. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*. doi:10.1016/0016-7037(81)90074-0
- Beran, A., & Koeberl, C. (1997). Water in tektites and impact glasses by fourier-transformed infrared spectrometry. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **32**(2), 211–216.
- Bigazzi, G., & Michele, V. (1996). New fission-track age determinations on impact glasses. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **31**(2), 234–236.
- Bohor, B. F. (1990). Shock-induced microdeformations in quartz and other mineralogical indications of an impact event at the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary. *Tectonophysics*, **171**(1–4), 359–372.
- Borucki, W. J., & Chameides, W. L. (1984). Lightning: Estimates of the rates of energy dissipation and nitrogen fixation. *Reviews of Geophysics*, **22**(4), 363.
- Bouška, V. (1994). Terrestrial and Lunar , Volcanic and Impact Glasses , Tektites , and Fulgurites. In *Advanced Mineralogy*, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, pp. 258–265.
- Bouška, V., & Povondra, P. (1964). Correlation of some physical and chemical properties of moldavites. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **28**(6), 783–791.
- Brachanec, T., Szopa, K., & Karwowski, Ł. (2014). Discovery of the most distal Ries tektites found in Lower Silesia, southwestern Poland. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **49**(8), 1315–1322.
- Brauns, R. (1912). Die chemische Zusammensetzung granatführender kristalliner Schiefer, Cordieritgesteine und Sanidinite aus dem Laacher Seegebiet. *N. Jahrb. f. Min. Beilage-Bd*, **34**, 85.

- 1739 Bridgman, P. W., & Šimon, I. (1953). Effects of Very High Pressures on Glass. *Journal of Applied*
1740 *Physics*, **24**(4), 405–413.
- 1741 Bryant, D. E., Greenfield, D., Walshaw, R. D., ... Kee, T. P. (2009). Electrochemical studies of iron
1742 meteorites: phosphorus redox chemistry on the early Earth. *International Journal of*
1743 *Astrobiology*, **8**(1), 27–36.
- 1744 Bunch, T. E., Hermes, R. E., Moore, A. M. T., ... Kennett, J. P. (2012). Very high-temperature impact
1745 melt products as evidence for cosmic airbursts and impacts 12,900 years ago. *Proceedings of the*
1746 *National Academy of Sciences*, **109**(28), E1903–E1912.
- 1747 Calas, G., & Petiau, J. (1983). Coordination of iron in oxide glasses through high-resolution K-edge
1748 spectra: Information from the pre-edge. *Solid State Communications*, **48**(7), 625–629.
- 1749 Callegari, E., & Pertsev, N. (2007). Contact metamorphic and associated rocks. In D. J. Fettes & J.
1750 Desmons, eds., *Metamorphic rocks: a classification and glossary of terms*, Cambridge
1751 University Press, pp. 69–81.
- 1752 Canil, D., Mihalynuk, M., & Lacourse, T. (2018). Discovery of modern (post-1850 CE) lavas in south-
1753 central British Columbia, Canada: Origin from coal fires or intraplate volcanism? *Lithos*, **296**–
1754 **299**, 471–481.
- 1755 Capitanio, F. (2005). Comment on: The Ricetto and Colle Fabbri wollastonite and melilite-bearing
1756 rocks of the central Apennines, Italy. *American Mineralogist*, **90**(11–12), 1934–1939.
- 1757 Capitanio, F., Larocca, F., & Improta, S. (2004). High-temperature rapid pyrometamorphism induced
1758 by a charcoal pit burning: The case of Ricetto, central Italy. *International Journal of Earth*
1759 *Sciences*, **93**(1), 107–118.
- 1760 Carmichael, I. S. E. (1979). Glass and the glassy rocks. In *The evolution of the igneous rocks*, pp. 233–
1761 244.
- 1762 Carter, E. A., Pasek, M. A., Smith, T., Kee, T. P., Hines, P., & Edwards, H. G. M. (2010). Rapid
1763 Raman mapping of a fulgurite. In *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, Vol. 397, pp. 2647–
1764 2658.
- 1765 Castro, J., Manga, M., & Cashman, K. (2002). Dynamics of obsidian flows inferred from
1766 microstructures: Insights from microlite preferred orientations. *Earth and Planetary Science*
1767 *Letters*, **199**(1–2), 211–226.
- 1768 Cavosie, A. J., & Koeberl, C. (2019). Overestimation of threat from 100 Mt–class airbursts? High-
1769 pressure evidence from zircon in Libyan Desert Glass. *Geology*, **47**(7), 609–612.
- 1770 Champagnon, B., Panczer, G., & Chemarin, C. (1997). Differentiation of natural silica glasses using
1771 Raman microspectrometry. *Chemie Der Erde-Geochemistry*, **57**(2–3), 290–296.
- 1772 Chapman, N., McKinley, I., & Smellie, J. (1984). *The potential of natural analogues in assessing*
1773 *systems for deep disposal of high-level radioactive waste. skb.se.*
- 1774 Chen, J., Elmi, C., Goldsby, D., & Gieré, R. (2017). Generation of shock lamellae and melting in
1775 rocks by lightning-induced shock waves and electrical heating. *Geophysical Research Letters*,
1776 **44**(17), 8757–8768.
- 1777 Cicconi, M. R., Giuli, G., Ertel-Ingrisch, W., Paris, E., & Dingwell, D. B. (2015). The effect of the
1778 [Na/(Na+K)] ratio on Fe speciation in phonolitic glasses. *American Mineralogist*, **100**(7), 1610–
1779 1619.
- 1780 Cicconi, M. R., Le Losq, C., Moretti, R., & Neuville, D. R. (2020). Magma, the largest repository and
1781 carrier of Earth’s redox processes. *Elements*, **16**(3).
- 1782 Cicconi, M. R., & Neuville, D. R. (2019). Natural Glasses. In J. D. Musgraves, J. Hu, & L. Calvez,
1783 eds., *Springer Handbook of Glass*, Springer International Publishing. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-
1784 93728-1
- 1785 Clayton, P. A. (1934). Silica-Glass from the Libyan Desert. *Mineralogical Magazine*, **23**(144), 501–
1786 508.
- 1787 Cohen, H. M., & Roy, R. (1961). Effects of Ultra high Pressures on Glass. *Journal of the American*
1788 *Ceramic Society*, **44**(10), 523–524.

- 1789 Cohen, H. M., & Roy, R. (1965). Densification of glass at very high pressure. *Physics and Chemistry*
1790 *of Glasses*, **6**(5), 149–155.
- 1791 Cosca, M. A., Essene, E. J., Geissman, J. W., Simmons, W. B., & Coates, D. A. (1989).
1792 Pyrometamorphic rocks associated with naturally burned coal beds, Powder River Basin,
1793 Wyoming. *American Mineralogist*, **74**(1–2), 85–100.
- 1794 Cuttitta, F., Carron, M. ., & Annell, C. . (1972). New data on selected Ivory Coast tektites.
1795 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **36**(11), 1297–1309.
- 1796 De Blasio, F. V., & Medici, L. (2017). Microscopic model of rock melting beneath landslides
1797 calibrated on the mineralogical analysis of the Köfels frictionite. *Landslides*, **14**(1), 337–350.
- 1798 de Boer, C. B., Dekkers, M. J., & van Hoof, T. A. . (2001). Rock-magnetic properties of TRM
1799 carrying baked and molten rocks straddling burnt coal seams. *Physics of the Earth and Planetary*
1800 *Interiors*, **126**(1–2), 93–108.
- 1801 Deschamps, T., Kassir-Bodon, A., Sonnevile, C., ... Champagnon, B. (2013). Permanent
1802 densification of compressed silica glass: a Raman-density calibration curve. *Journal of Physics:*
1803 *Condensed Matter*, **25**(2), 025402.
- 1804 Deutsch, A., Ostermann, M., & Masaitis, V. L. (1997). Geochemistry and neodymium-strontium
1805 isotope signature of tektite-like objects from Siberia (urengoites, South-Ural glass). *Meteoritics*
1806 *& Planetary Science*, **32**(5), 679–686.
- 1807 Devouard, B., Rochette, P., Gattacceca, J., ... Warner, M. (2014). A new Tektite Strewnfield in
1808 Atacama. In *77th Annual Meteoritical Society Meeting*, p. #5394.
- 1809 Di Toro, G., Pennacchioni, G., & Teza, G. (2005). Can pseudotachylytes be used to infer earthquake
1810 source parameters? An example of limitations in the study of exhumed faults. *Tectonophysics*,
1811 **402**(1), 3–20.
- 1812 Dos Santos, E., Scorzelli, R. B., Rochette, P., ... Cournède, C. (2015). A New Strewnfield of Splash-
1813 Form Impact Glasses in Atacama, Chile: A Mössbauer Study. In *78th Annual Meeting of the*
1814 *Meteoritical Society*, Vol. 1856, p. 5074.
- 1815 Dunlap, R. A. (1997). An investigation of Fe oxidation states and site distributions in a Tibetan tektite.
1816 *Hyperfine Interactions*, **110**(3–4), 217–225.
- 1817 Dunlap, R. A., Eelman, D. A., & MacKay, G. R. (1998). A Mössbauer effect investigation of
1818 correlated hyperfine parameters in natural glasses (tektites). *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*,
1819 **223**(1–2), 141–146.
- 1820 Dunlap, R. A., & Sibley, A. D. E. (2004). A Mössbauer effect study of Fe-site occupancy in
1821 Australasian tektites. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **337**(1), 36–41.
- 1822 Earth Impact Database. (2019). Earth Impact Database. Retrieved from
1823 http://www.passc.net/EarthImpactDatabase/New_website_05-2018/Index.html
- 1824 Eby, N. G., Charnley, N., Pirrie, D., Hermes, R., Smoliga, J., & Rollinson, G. (2015). Trinitite redux:
1825 Mineralogy and petrology. *American Mineralogist*, **100**(2–3), 427–441.
- 1826 Eby, N., Hermes, R., Charnley, N., & Smoliga, J. A. (2010). Trinitite-the atomic rock. *Geology Today*,
1827 **26**(5), 180–185.
- 1828 Ende, M., Schorr, S., Kloess, G., Franz, A., & Tovar, M. (2012). Shocked quartz in Sahara fulgurite.
1829 *European Journal of Mineralogy*, **24**(3), 499–507.
- 1830 Engelhardt, W. . (1967). Chemical composition of Ries glass bombs. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica*
1831 *Acta*, **31**(10), 1677–1689.
- 1832 Engelhardt, W. ., Luft, E., Arndt, J., Schock, H., & Weiskirchner, W. (1987). Origin of moldavites.
1833 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **51**(6), 1425–1443.
- 1834 Engelhardt, W. V. (1972). Shock produced rock glasses from the Ries crater. *Contributions to*
1835 *Mineralogy and Petrology*, **36**(4), 265–292.
- 1836 Erismann, T., Heuberger, H., & Preuss, E. (1977). Der Bimsstein von Koefels (Tirol), ein Bergsturz-
1837 ?Fraktionit? *TMPM Tschermaks Mineralogische Und Petrographische Mitteilungen*, **24**(1–2),
1838 67–119.

- 1839 Essene, E. J., & Fisher, D. C. (1986). Lightning strike fusion: extreme reduction and metal-silicate
1840 liquid immiscibility. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, **234**(4773), 189–93.
- 1841 Etiope, G. (2015). Seeps in the Ancient World: Myths, Religions, and Social Development. In *Natural*
1842 *Gas Seepage*, Cham: Springer International Publishing, pp. 183–193.
- 1843 Evans, B. J., & Leung, L. K. (1979). Mössbauer Spectroscopy of Tektites and Other Natural Glasses.
1844 *Le Journal de Physique Colloques*, **40**(C2), C2-489-C2-490.
- 1845 Ewing, R. (1979). Natural Glasses: Analogues for Radioactive Waste Forms. *Scientific Basis for*
1846 *Nuclear Waste Management*, 56–78.
- 1847 Fahey, A. J., Zeissler, C. J., Newbury, D. E., Davis, J., & Lindstrom, R. M. (2010). Postdetonation
1848 nuclear debris for attribution. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United*
1849 *States of America*, **107**(47), 20207–12.
- 1850 Feng, T., Lang, C., & Pasek, M. A. (2019). The origin of blue coloration in a fulgurite from
1851 Marquette, Michigan. *Lithos*, **342–343**, 288–294.
- 1852 Ferré, E. C., Zechmeister, M. S., Geissman, J. W., MathanaSekaran, N., & Kocak, K. (2005). The
1853 origin of high magnetic remanence in fault pseudotachylites: Theoretical considerations and
1854 implication for coseismic electrical currents. *Tectonophysics*, **402**(1-4 SPEC. ISS), 125–139.
- 1855 Ferrière, L., Barrat, J.-A., Giuli, G., ... Wegner, W. (2017). A new tektite strewn field discovered in
1856 Uruguay. In *80th Annual Meeting of the Meteoritical Society*, p. #6195.
- 1857 Firestone, R. B., West, A., Kennett, J. P., ... Wolbach, W. S. (2007). Evidence for an extraterrestrial
1858 impact 12,900 years ago that contributed to the megafaunal extinctions and the Younger Dryas
1859 cooling. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*,
1860 **104**(41), 16016–21.
- 1861 Folco, L., Bigazzi, G., D’Orazio, M., & Balestrieri, M. L. (2011). Fission track age of Transantarctic
1862 Mountain microtektites. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **75**(9), 2356–2360.
- 1863 Folco, L., D’Orazio, M., Gemelli, M., & Rochette, P. (2016). Stretching out the Australasian
1864 microtektite strewn field in Victoria Land Transantarctic Mountains. *Polar Science*, **10**, 147–159.
- 1865 Folco, L., D’Orazio, M., Tiepolo, M., ... Glass, B. P. (2009). Transantarctic Mountain microtektites:
1866 Geochemical affinity with Australasian microtektites. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*,
1867 **73**(12), 3694–3722.
- 1868 Folco, L., Glass, B. P., D’Orazio, M., & Rochette, P. (2010). A common volatilization trend in
1869 Transantarctic Mountain and Australasian microtektites: Implications for their formation model
1870 and parent crater location. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **293**(1–2), 135–139.
- 1871 Folco, L., Rochette, P., Perchiazzi, N., D’Orazio, M., Laurenzi, M. A. A., & Tiepolo, M. (2008).
1872 Microtektites from Victoria Land Transantarctic Mountains. *Geology*, **36**(4), 291–294.
- 1873 Ford, R. J. (1972). A possible impact crater associated with Darwin glass. *Earth and Planetary*
1874 *Science Letters*, **16**(2), 228–230.
- 1875 Fredriksson, K., Degasperis, A., & Ehmann, W. (1977). The Zhamanshin structure: chemical and
1876 physical properties of selected samples. *Meteoritics*, **12**, 229.
- 1877 French, B. M. (1998). *Traces of catastrophe: A handbook of shock-metamorphic effects in terrestrial*
1878 *meteorite impact structures*, Houston: Lunar and Planetary Institute.
- 1879 Frenzel, G., & Stahle, V. (1984). Über Alumosilikatglas mit Lechatelierit-Einschlüssen von einer
1880 Fulguritrohre des Hahnenstockes (Glarner Freiberg, Schweiz). *Chemie Der Erde - Geochemistry*,
1881 **43**(1), 17–26.
- 1882 Frey, F. A. (1977). Microtektites: a chemical comparison of bottle-green microtektites, normal
1883 microtektites and tektites. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **35**(1), 43–48.
- 1884 Fudali, R. F. F., Dyar, M. D. D., Griscom, D. L., & Schreiber, H. D. (1987). The oxidation state of
1885 iron in tektite glass. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **51**(10), 2749–2756.
- 1886 Fudali, R. F., & Ford, R. J. (1979). Darwin Glass and Darwin Crater: a Progress Report. *Meteoritics*,
1887 **14**(3), 283–296.
- 1888 Galeener, F. L., Geissberger, A. E., & Weeks, R. A. (1984). On the thermal history of Libyan Desert

- 1889 glass. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **67**(1–3), 629–636.
- 1890 Ganino, C., Libourel, G., Nakamura, A. M., Jacomet, S., Tottereau, O., & Michel, P. (2018). Impact-
- 1891 induced chemical fractionation as inferred from hypervelocity impact experiments with silicate
- 1892 projectiles and metallic targets. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **53**(11), 2306–2326.
- 1893 Gentner, von W., & Zähringer, J. (1959). Kalium-Argon-Alter einiger Tektite. *Zeitschrift Für*
- 1894 *Naturforschung A*, **14**(7), 686–687.
- 1895 Gieré, R., Wimmenauer, W., Müller-Sigmund, H., Wirth, R., Lumpkin, G. R., & Smith, K. L. (2015).
- 1896 Lightning-induced shock lamellae in quartz. *American Mineralogist*, **100**(7), 1645–1648.
- 1897 Giuli, G. (2017). Tektites and microtektites iron oxidation state and water content. *Rendiconti Lincei*,
- 1898 **28**(4), 615–621.
- 1899 Giuli, G., Cicconi, M. R., Eeckhout, S. G., ... Paris, E. (2013a). North American microtektites are
- 1900 more oxidized than tektites. *American Mineralogist*, **98**(11–12), 1930–1937.
- 1901 Giuli, G., Cicconi, M. R., Eeckhout, S. G., Pratesi, G., Paris, E., & Folco, L. (2014a). Australasian
- 1902 microtektites from Antarctica: XAS determination of the Fe oxidation state. *Meteoritics and*
- 1903 *Planetary Science*, **49**(4), 696–705.
- 1904 Giuli, G., Cicconi, M. R., & Paris, E. (2012). The [4]Fe³⁺-O distance in synthetic kimzeyite garnet,
- 1905 Ca₃Zr₂[Fe₂SiO₁₂]. *European Journal of Mineralogy*, **24**(5), 783–790.
- 1906 Giuli, G., Cicconi, M. R., Stabile, P., ... Koeberl, C. (2014b). New data on the Fe oxidation state and
- 1907 water content of Belize Tektites. In *45th Lunar and Planetary Science Conference*, p. #2322.
- 1908 Giuli, G., Cicconi, M. R., Trapananti, A., ... Koeberl, C. (2013b). Iron redox variations in
- 1909 Australasian Muong Nong-type tektites. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*.
- 1910 Giuli, G., Eeckhout, S. G., Cicconi, M. R., Koeberl, C., Pratesi, G., & Paris, E. Iron oxidation state and
- 1911 local structure in North American tektites, Large Meteorite Impacts and Planetary Evolution Iv
- 1912 (2010). doi:10.1130/2010.2465(31)
- 1913 Giuli, G., Paris, E., Pratesi, G., Koeberl, C., & Cipriani, C. (2003). Iron oxidation state in the Fe-rich
- 1914 layer and silica matrix of Libyan Desert Glass: A high-resolution XANES study. *Meteoritics and*
- 1915 *Planetary Science*, **38**(8), 1181–1186.
- 1916 Giuli, G., Pratesi, G., Cipriani, C., & Paris, E. (2002). Iron local structure in tektites and impact
- 1917 glasses by extended X-ray absorption fine structure and high-resolution X-ray absorption near-
- 1918 edge structure spectroscopy. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **66**(24), 4347–4353.
- 1919 Giuli, G., Pratesi, G., Eeckhout, S. G., Koeberl, C., & Paris, E. (2010b). Iron reduction in silicate glass
- 1920 produced during the 1945 nuclear test at the Trinity site (Alamogordo, New Mexico, USA). In
- 1921 *Geological Society of America Special Papers*, Vol. 465, Geological Society of America, pp.
- 1922 653–660.
- 1923 Glass, B. (1967). Microtektites in deep-sea sediments. *Nature (London)*, **214**(5086), 372–374.
- 1924 Glass, B. P. (1972). Bottle Green Microtektites. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **77**(35), 7057–7064.
- 1925 Glass, B. P. (1978). Australasian microtektites and the stratigraphic age of the australites. *Bulletin of*
- 1926 *the Geological Society of America*, **89**(10), 1455–1458.
- 1927 Glass, B. P. (1990). Tektites and microtektites: key facts and inferences. *Tectonophysics*, **171**(1–4),
- 1928 393–404.
- 1929 Glass, B. P. (2016). Glass: The Geologic Connection. *International Journal of Applied Glass Science*,
- 1930 **7**(4), 435–445.
- 1931 Glass, B. P., Huber, H., & Koeberl, C. (2004). Geochemistry of Cenozoic microtektites and
- 1932 clinopyroxene-bearing spherules. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **68**(19), 3971–4006.
- 1933 Glass, B. P., & Pizzuto, J. E. (1994). Geographic variation in Australasian microtektite concentrations:
- 1934 Implications concerning the location and size of the source crater. *Journal of Geophysical*
- 1935 *Research*, **99**(E9), 19075.
- 1936 Glass, B. P., Senftle, F. E., Muenow, D. W., Aggrey, K. E., & Thorpe, A. N. (1987). Atomic Bomb
- 1937 Glass Beads: Tektite and Microtektite Analogs. In *Second International Conference on Natural*
- 1938 *Glasses*, pp. 361–369.

- 1939 Glass, B. P., & Simonson, B. M. (2013). *Distal Impact Ejecta Layers*, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer
- 1940 Berlin Heidelberg. doi:10.1007/978-3-662-44185-5_100311
- 1941 Glass, B. P., & Zwart, M. J. (1979). North American microtektites in Deep Sea Drilling Project cores
- 1942 from the Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico. *Geological Society of America Bulletin*, **90**(6), 595.
- 1943 Glindemann, D., de Graaf, R. M., & Schwartz, A. W. (1999). Chemical Reduction of Phosphate on the
- 1944 Primitive Earth. *Origins of Life and Evolution of the Biosphere*, **29**(6), 555–561.
- 1945 Goderis, S., Paquay, F., & Claeys, P. (2012). Projectile Identification in Terrestrial Impact Structures
- 1946 and Ejecta Material. In *Impact Cratering*, Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, pp. 223–
- 1947 239.
- 1948 Gomez-Nubla, L., Aramendia, J., Alonso-Olazabal, A., ... Madariaga, J. M. (2015). Darwin impact
- 1949 glass study by Raman spectroscopy in combination with other spectroscopic techniques. *Journal*
- 1950 *of Raman Spectroscopy*, **46**(10), 913–919.
- 1951 Gómez-Nubla, L., Aramendia, J., Fdez-Ortiz de Vallejuelo, S., Castro, K., & Madariaga, J. M. (2018).
- 1952 Detection of organic compounds in impact glasses formed by the collision of an extraterrestrial
- 1953 material with the Libyan Desert (Africa) and Tasmania (Australia). *Analytical and Bioanalytical*
- 1954 *Chemistry*, **410**(25), 6609–6617.
- 1955 Gomez-Nubla, L., Aramendia, J., Fdez-Ortiz de Vallejuelo, S., ... Madariaga, J. M. (2017).
- 1956 Multispectroscopic methodology to study Libyan desert glass and its formation conditions.
- 1957 *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, **409**(14), 3597–3610.
- 1958 Grapes, R. (2010). *Pyrometamorphism*, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- 1959 doi:10.1007/978-3-642-15588-8
- 1960 Graup, G. (1999). Carbonate-silicate liquid immiscibility upon impact melting: Ries Crater, Germany.
- 1961 *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **34**(3), 425–438.
- 1962 Greshake, A., Koeberl, C., Fritz, J., & Reimold, W. U. (2010). Brownish inclusions and dark streaks in
- 1963 Libyan Desert Glass: Evidence for high-temperature melting of the target rock. *Meteoritics &*
- 1964 *Planetary Science*, **45**(6), 973–989.
- 1965 Greshake, A., Wirth, R., Fritz, J., Jakubowski, T., & Böttger, U. (2018). Mullite in Libyan Desert
- 1966 Glass: Evidence for high-temperature/low-pressure formation. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*,
- 1967 **53**(3), 467–481.
- 1968 Hamann, C., Fazio, A., Ebert, M., ... Reimold, W. U. (2018). Silicate liquid immiscibility in impact
- 1969 melts. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **53**(8), 1594–1632.
- 1970 Hamann, C., Hecht, L., Ebert, M., & Wirth, R. (2013). Chemical projectile–target interaction and
- 1971 liquid immiscibility in impact glass from the Wabar craters, Saudi Arabia. *Geochimica et*
- 1972 *Cosmochimica Acta*, **121**, 291–310.
- 1973 Heide, K., & Heide, G. (2011). Vitreous state in nature-Origin and properties. *Chemie Der Erde -*
- 1974 *Geochemistry*, **71**(4), 305–335.
- 1975 Henderson, G. S., de Groot, F. M. F., & Moulton, B. J. A. (2014). X-ray Absorption Near-Edge
- 1976 Structure (XANES) Spectroscopy. In *Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry*, Vol. 78,
- 1977 Mineralogical Society of America, pp. 75–138.
- 1978 Hermes, R. E., & Strickfaden, W. B. (2005). A new look at trinitite. *Nuclear Weapons Journal*, **2**, 2–7.
- 1979 Herring, J. R., & Modreski, P. J. (1986). *Unusual, high-temperature, iron-rich, mineral phases*
- 1980 *produced by natural burning of coal seams; analytical data*.
- 1981 Hörz, F., See, T. H., Murali, A. V., & Blanchard, D. P. (1989). Heterogeneous dissemination of
- 1982 projectile materials in the impact melts from Wabar crater, Saudi Arabia. In *Lunar and Planetary*
- 1983 *Science Conference Proceedings*, Vol. 19, pp. 697–709.
- 1984 Hosgormez, H., Etioppe, G., & Yalçın, M. N. (2008). New evidence for a mixed inorganic and organic
- 1985 origin of the Olympic Chimaera fire (Turkey): a large onshore seepage of abiogenic gas.
- 1986 *Geofluids*, **8**(4), 263–273.
- 1987 Howard, K. T. (2008). Geochemistry of Darwin glass and target rocks from Darwin Crater, Tasmania,
- 1988 Australia. *Meteoritics and Planetary Science*, **43**(3), 1–21.

- 1989 Howard, K. T. (2009). Physical distribution trends in Darwin glass. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*,
1990 **44**(1), 115–129.
- 1991 Howard, K. T. (2011). Volatile enhanced dispersal of high velocity impact melts and the origin of
1992 tektites. *Proceedings of the Geologists' Association*, **122**(3), 363–382.
- 1993 Howard, K. T., Bailey, M. J., Berhanu, D., ... Verchovsky, S. (2013). Biomass preservation in impact
1994 melt ejecta. *Nature Geoscience*, **6**(12), 1018–1022.
- 1995 Howard, K. T., & Haines, P. W. (2007). The geology of Darwin Crater, western Tasmania, Australia.
1996 *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **260**(1–2), 328–339.
- 1997 Hu, Q. H., Rose, T. P., Zavarin, M., Smith, D. K., Moran, J. E., & Zhao, P. H. (2008). Assessing field-
1998 scale migration of radionuclides at the Nevada Test Site: “mobile” species. *Journal of*
1999 *Environmental Radioactivity*, **99**(10), 1617–1630.
- 2000 Hudon, P., & Baker, D. R. (2002). The nature of phase separation in binary oxide melts and glasses. I.
2001 Silicate systems. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **303**(3), 299–345.
- 2002 Hudon, P., Jung, I., & Baker, D. R. (2004). Effect of pressure on liquid-liquid miscibility gaps: A case
2003 study of the systems CaO-SiO₂, MgO-SiO₂, and CaMgSi₂O₆-SiO₂. *Journal of Geophysical*
2004 *Research*, **109**(B3), B03207.
- 2005 Izett, G. A. (1987). Authigenic ‘spherules’ in K-T boundary sediments at Caravaca, Spain, and Raton
2006 Basin, Colorado and New Mexico, may not be impact derived. *Geological Society of America*
2007 *Bulletin*, **99**(1), 78–86.
- 2008 Jakes, P., Sen, S., Matsuishi, K., Reid, A. M., King, E. A., & Casanova, I. (1992). Silicate Melts at
2009 Super Liquidus Temperatures: Reduction and Volatilization. *Lunar and Planetary Science*
2010 *Conference*, **23**, 599.
- 2011 Jessberger, E., & Gentner, W. (1972). Mass spectrometric analysis of gas inclusions in Muong Nong
2012 glass and Libyan Desert glass. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **14**(2), 221–225.
- 2013 Johnson, B. C., & Melosh, H. J. (2012). Formation of spherules in impact produced vapor plumes.
2014 *Icarus*, **217**(1), 416–430.
- 2015 Johnson, B. C., & Melosh, H. J. (2014). Formation of melt droplets, melt fragments, and accretionary
2016 impact lapilli during a hypervelocity impact. *Icarus*, **228**, 347–363.
- 2017 Jones, B. E., Jones, K. S., Rambo, K. J., Rakov, V. A., Jerald, J., & Uman, M. A. (2005). Oxide
2018 reduction during triggered-lightning fulgurite formation. *Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-*
2019 *Terrestrial Physics*, **67**(4), 423–428.
- 2020 Kenkmann, T., Hornemann, U., & Stöffler, D. (2000). Experimental generation of shock-induced
2021 pseudotachylites along lithological interfaces. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **35**(6), 1275–
2022 1290.
- 2023 Khoury, H. N., Sokol, E. V., & Clark, I. D. (2015). Calcium uranium oxide minerals from Central
2024 Jordan: assemblages, chemistry, and alteration products. *The Canadian Mineralogist*, **53**, 61–82.
- 2025 Killick, A. M. (2003). Fault Rock Classification: An aid to structural interpretation in mine and
2026 exploration geology. *South African Journal of Geology*, **106**(4), 395–402.
- 2027 Koeber, C., & Fredriksson, K. (1986). Impact glasses from Zhamanshin crater (U.S.S.R.): chemical
2028 composition and discussion of origin. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **78**(1), 80–88.
- 2029 Koeberl, C. (1988). Blue glass: A new impactite variety from Zhamanshin crater, U.S.S.R.
2030 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **52**(3), 779–784.
- 2031 Koeberl, C. (1992a). Geochemistry and origin of Muong Nong-type tektites. *Geochimica et*
2032 *Cosmochimica Acta*, **56**(3), 1033–1064.
- 2033 Koeberl, C. (1992b). Water content of glasses from the K/T boundary, Haiti: An indication of impact
2034 origin. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **56**(12), 4329–4332.
- 2035 Koeberl, C. (1994). Tektite origin by hypervelocity asteroidal or cometary impact. *Large Meteorite*
2036 *Impacts and Planetary Evolution*, p. 133.
- 2037 Koeberl, C. (1997). Libyan Desert Glass: geochemical composition and origin. In *Proceedings of the*
2038 *Silica '96 Meeting*, pp. 121–131.

- 2039 Koeberl, C. (2013). The Geochemistry and Cosmochemistry of Impacts. In *Treatise on Geochemistry:*
2040 *Second Edition*, Vol. 2, pp. 73–118.
- 2041 Koeberl, C., Brandstätter, F., Glass, B. P., Hecht, L., Mader, D., & Reimold, W. U. (2007). Uppermost
2042 impact fallback layer in the Bosumtwi crater (Ghana): Mineralogy, geochemistry, and
2043 comparison with Ivory Coast tektites. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **42**(4–5), 709–729.
- 2044 Koeberl, C., Crósta, A. P., & Schulz, T. (2019). Geochemical Investigation of the Atacamaites, a New
2045 Impact Glass Occurrence in South America. In *50th Lunar and Planetary Science Conference*
2046 *2019*, p. #2132.
- 2047 Koeberl, C., & Ferrière, L. (2019). Libyan Desert Glass area in western Egypt: Shocked quartz in
2048 bedrock points to a possible deeply eroded impact structure in the region. *Meteoritics &*
2049 *Planetary Science*. doi:10.1111/maps.13250
- 2050 Koeberl, C., & Sigurdsson, H. (1992). Geochemistry of impact glasses from the K/T boundary in
2051 Haiti: Relation to smectites and a new type of glass. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **56**(5),
2052 2113–2129.
- 2053 Kokh, S., Dekterev, A., Sokol, E., & Potapov, S. (2016). Numerical simulation of an oil–gas fire: A
2054 case study of a technological accident at Tengiz oilfield, Kazakhstan (June 1985–July 1986).
2055 *Energy Exploration & Exploitation*, **34**(1), 77–98.
- 2056 Krider, E. P., Dawson, G. A., & Uman, M. A. (1968). Peak power and energy dissipation in a single-
2057 stroke lightning flash. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **73**(10), 3335–3339.
- 2058 Kuenzer, C., & Stracher, G. B. (2012). Geomorphology of coal seam fires. *Geomorphology*, **138**(1),
2059 209–222.
- 2060 Lee, M.-Y., & Wei, K.-Y. (2000). Australasian microtektites in the South China Sea and the West
2061 Philippine Sea: Implications for age, size, and location of the impact crater. *Meteoritics &*
2062 *Planetary Science*, **35**(6), 1151–1155.
- 2063 Legros, F., Cantagrel, J., & Devouard, B. (2000). Pseudotachylyte (Frictionite) at the Base of the
2064 Arequipa Volcanic Landslide Deposit (Peru): Implications for Emplacement Mechanisms. *The*
2065 *Journal of Geology*, **108**(5), 601–611.
- 2066 Lin, A., & Shimamoto, T. (1998). Selective melting processes as inferred from experimentally
2067 generated pseudotachylytes. *Journal of Asian Earth Sciences*, **16**(5–6), 533–545.
- 2068 Lo, C.-H., Howard, K. T., Chung, S.-L., & Meffre, S. (2002). Laser fusion argon-40/argon-39 ages of
2069 Darwin impact glass. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **37**(11), 1555–1562.
- 2070 Lukanin, O. A., & Kadik, A. A. (2007). Decompression mechanism of ferric iron reduction in tektite
2071 melts during their formation in the impact process. *Geochemistry International*, **45**(9), 857–881.
- 2072 Ma, P., Aggrey, K., Tonzola, C., ... Klein, J. (2004). Beryllium-10 in Australasian tektites:
2073 Constraints on the location of the source crater. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **68**(19),
2074 3883–3896.
- 2075 Maddock, R. H. (1992). Effects of lithology, cataclasis and melting on the composition of fault-
2076 generated pseudotachylytes in Lewisian gneiss, Scotland. *Tectonophysics*, **204**(3–4), 261–278.
- 2077 Martin Crespo, T., Lozano Fernandez, R. P., & Gonzalez Laguna, R. (2009). The fulgurite of Torre de
2078 Moncorvo (Portugal): description and analysis of the glass. *European Journal of Mineralogy*,
2079 **21**(4), 783–794.
- 2080 Masch, L., & Preuss, E. (1977). Das Vorkommen des Hyalomylonits von Langtang, Himalaya
2081 (Nepal). *N. Jahrb. Min., Abh.*, **129**(3), 292–311.
- 2082 Mathews, W. H., & Bustin, R. M. (1984). Why do the Smoking Hills smoke? *Canadian Journal of*
2083 *Earth Sciences*, **21**(7), 737–742.
- 2084 Matsubara, K., & Matsuda, J. (1991). Anomalous Ne enrichments in tektites. *Meteoritics*, **26**, 217–
2085 220.
- 2086 Matsuda, J., Maruoka, T., Pinti, D. L., & Koeberl, C. (1996). Noble gas study of a philippinite with an
2087 unusually large bubble. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **31**(2), 273–277.
- 2088 McCloy, J. S. (2019). Frontiers in natural and un-natural glasses: An interdisciplinary dialogue and

- 2089 review. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **4**, 119401.
- 2090 McMillan, P., Wolf, G., & Lambert, P. (1992). A Raman spectroscopic study of shocked single
2091 crystalline quartz. *Physics and Chemistry of Minerals*, **19**(2), 71–79.
- 2092 McPherson, D., Pye, L. D., Fréchette, V. D., & Tong, S. (1984). Microstructure of natural glasses.
2093 *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **67**(1–3), 61–79.
- 2094 Meisel, T., Koeberl, C., & Ford, R. J. (1990). Geochemistry of Darwin impact glass and target rocks.
2095 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **54**(5), 1463–1474.
- 2096 Melluso, L., Conticelli, S., D’Antonio, M., Mirco, N. P., & Saccani, E. (2004). Petrology and
2097 mineralogy of wollastonite- and melilite-bearing paralavas from the Central Apennines, Italy.
2098 *American Mineralogist*, **88**(8–9), 1287–1299.
- 2099 Melosh, H. J. (1989). *Impact cratering: A geologic process. Oxford Monographs on Geology and*
2100 *Geophysics*, Vol. 11, New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- 2101 Melosh, H. J. (2011). Impact cratering. In *Planetary Surface Processes*, Cambridge: Cambridge
2102 University Press, pp. 222–275.
- 2103 Melosh, H. J. (2013). The contact and compression stage of impact cratering. In G. R. Osinski & E.
2104 Pierazzo, eds., *Impact Cratering: processes and products*, Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons,
2105 Ltd. doi:10.1002/9781118447307
- 2106 Melosh, H. J. (2017). Impact geologists, beware! *Geophysical Research Letters*, **44**(17), 8873–8874.
- 2107 Melosh, H. J., & Artemieva, N. (2004). How does tektite glass lose its water? In *Lunar and Planetary*
2108 *Science XXXV*, p. 1723.
- 2109 Melson, W. G., & Potts, R. (2002). Origin of Reddened and Melted Zones in Pleistocene Sediments of
2110 the Olorgesailie Basin, Southern Kenya Rift. *Journal of Archaeological Science*, **29**(3), 307–316.
- 2111 Mizera, J., Řanda, Z., & Kameník, J. (2016). On a possible parent crater for Australasian tektites:
2112 Geochemical, isotopic, geographical and other constraints. *Earth-Science Reviews*, **154**, 123–
2113 137.
- 2114 Molgaard, J. J., Auxier, J. D., Giminaro, A. V., ... Hall, H. L. (2015). Development of synthetic
2115 nuclear melt glass for forensic analysis. *Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry*,
2116 **304**(3), 1293–1301.
- 2117 Montanari, A., & Koeber, C. (2000). Distal ejecta and tektites. In *Impact Stratigraphy*,
2118 Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag, pp. 57–99.
- 2119 Montanari, A., & Koeberl, C. (2000). *Impact Stratigraphy*, Vol. 93, Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer-
2120 Verlag. doi:10.1007/BFb0010313
- 2121 Morgan, J., Lana, C., Kearsley, A., ... Neumann, V. (2006). Analyses of shocked quartz at the global
2122 K-P boundary indicate an origin from a single, high-angle, oblique impact at Chicxulub. *Earth*
2123 *and Planetary Science Letters*, **251**(3–4), 264–279.
- 2124 Mottana, A. (2004). X-ray absorption spectroscopy in mineralogy: Theory and experiment in the
2125 XANES region. In A. Beran & E. Libowitzky, eds., *Spectroscopic methods in mineralogy*,
2126 Germany: Mineralogical Society of Great Britain and Ireland, pp. 465–552.
- 2127 Müller, O., & Gentner, W. (1968). Gas content in bubbles of tektites and other natural glasses. *Earth*
2128 *and Planetary Science Letters*, **4**(5), 406–410.
- 2129 Nestola, F., Mittempergher, S., Di Toro, G., Zorzi, F., & Pedron, D. (2010). Evidence of
2130 dmisteinbergite (hexagonal form of CaAl₂Si₂O₈) in pseudotachylite: A tool to constrain the
2131 thermal history of a seismic event. *American Mineralogist*, **95**(2–3), 405–409.
- 2132 Neuville, D. R., de Ligny, D., & Henderson, G. S. (2014). *Advances in Raman Spectroscopy Applied*
2133 *to Earth and Material Sciences. Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry*, Vol. 78.
2134 doi:10.2138/rmg.2013.78.13
- 2135 O’Keefe, J. A. (1994). Origin of tektites. *Meteoritics*, **29**(1), 73–78.
- 2136 O’Keefe, J. A., & Barnes, V. E. (1958). Origin of Tektites. *Nature*, **181**(4603), 1457–1457.
- 2137 O’Keefe, J. A., Lowman, P. D., & Dunning, K. L. (1962). Gases in Tektite Bubbles. *Science (New*
2138 *York, N.Y.)*, **137**(3525), 228.

- 2139 Oberdorfer, R. (1905). Die vulkanischen Tuffe des Ries bei Nördlingen. *Jahreshefte Verein Für*
2140 *Vaterländische Naturkunde Württemberg*, **61**, 1–40.
- 2141 Okuno, M., Reynard, B., Shimada, Y., Syono, Y., & Willaime, C. (1999). A Raman spectroscopic
2142 study of shock-wave densification of vitreous silica. *Physics and Chemistry of Minerals*, **26**(4),
2143 304–311.
- 2144 Osinski, G. R., Grieve, R. A. F., & Tornabene, L. L. (2012). Excavation and Impact Ejecta
2145 Emplacement. In *Impact Cratering*, Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, pp. 43–59.
- 2146 Osinski, G. R., Haldemann, A. F. C., Schwarcz, H. P., ... Churcher, C. S. (2007). Impact Glass at the
2147 Dakhleh Oasis, Egypt: Evidence for a Cratering Event or Large Aerial Burst? In *Lunar and*
2148 *Planetary Science Conference*, Vol. 38, p. 1346.
- 2149 Osinski, G. R., & Pierazzo, E. (2012). *Impact cratering : processes and products*.
- 2150 Ottemann, J. (1966). Zusammensetzung und Herkunft der Tektite und Impaktite. In *Kosmochemie*,
2151 Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag, pp. 409–444.
- 2152 Pacold, J. I., Lukens, W. W., Booth, C. H., ... Holliday, K. S. (2016). Chemical speciation of U, Fe,
2153 and Pu in melt glass from nuclear weapons testing. *Journal of Applied Physics*, **119**(19).
2154 doi:10.1063/1.4948942
- 2155 Paquay, F. S., Goderis, S., Ravizza, G., ... Claeys, P. (2009). Absence of geochemical evidence for an
2156 impact event at the Bølling-Allerød/Younger Dryas transition. *Proceedings of the National*
2157 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **106**(51), 21505–10.
- 2158 Parekh, P., Semkow, T., Torres, M., & Haines, D. (2006). Radioactivity in trinitite six decades later.
2159 *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, **85**(1), 103–120.
- 2160 Pasek, M. A. (2008). Rethinking early Earth phosphorus geochemistry. *Proceedings of the National*
2161 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **105**(3), 853–8.
- 2162 Pasek, M. A. (2017). Schreibersite on the early Earth: Scenarios for prebiotic phosphorylation.
2163 *Geoscience Frontiers*, **8**(2), 329–335.
- 2164 Pasek, M. A., Block, K., & Pasek, V. (2012). Fulgurite morphology: A classification scheme and clues
2165 to formation. *Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology*, **164**(3), 477–492.
- 2166 Pasek, M. A., & Pasek, V. D. (2018). The forensics of fulgurite formation. *Mineralogy and Petrology*,
2167 **112**(2), 185–198.
- 2168 Pasek, M., & Block, K. (2009). Lightning-induced reduction of phosphorus oxidation state. *Nature*
2169 *Geoscience*, **2**(8), 553–556.
- 2170 Peretyazhko, I. S., Savina, E. A., Khromova, E. A., Karmanov, N. S., & Ivanov, A. V. (2018). Unique
2171 Clinkers and Paralavas from a New Nyalga Combustion Metamorphic Complex in Central
2172 Mongolia: Mineralogy, Geochemistry, and Genesis. *Petrology*, **26**(2), 181–211.
- 2173 Pierazzo, E., Kring, D. A., & Melosh, H. J. (1998). Hydrocode simulation of the Chicxulub impact
2174 event and the production of climatically active gases. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Planets*,
2175 **103**(E12), 28607–28625.
- 2176 Pierazzo, E., & Melosh, H. J. (2012). Environmental Effects of Impact Events. In *Impact Cratering*,
2177 Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, pp. 146–156.
- 2178 Pinter, N., Scott, A. C., Daulton, T. L., ... Ishman, S. E. (2011). The Younger Dryas impact
2179 hypothesis: A requiem. *Earth-Science Reviews*, pp. 247–264.
- 2180 Potuzak, M., Nichols, A. R. L., Dingwell, D. B., & Clague, D. A. (2008). Hyperquenched volcanic
2181 glass from Loihi Seamount, Hawaii. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **270**(1–2), 54–62.
- 2182 Povenmire, H., & Cornec, J. (2015). The 2014 Report on the Belize Tektite Strewn Field. In *46th*
2183 *Lunar and Planetary Science Conference*, p. #1132.
- 2184 Povenmire, H., Harris, R., & Cornec, J. (2011). The new Central American tektite strewn field. In
2185 *42nd Lunar and Planetary Science Conference*, p. #1224.
- 2186 Pratesi, G. (2009). Impact diamonds: Formation, mineralogical features and cathodoluminescence
2187 properties. In *Cathodoluminescence and its Application in the Planetary Sciences*.
2188 doi:10.1007/978-3-540-87529-1_4

- 2189 Pratesi, G., Viti, C., Cipriani, C., & Mellini, M. (2002). Silicate-silicate liquid immiscibility and
2190 graphite ribbons in Libyan desert glass. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **66**(5), 903–911.
- 2191 Rakov, V. A., & Uman, M. A. (2003). *Lightning : physics and effects*.
- 2192 Reimold, W. U., & Gibson, R. L. (2005). “Pseudotachylites” in Large Impact Structures. In *Impact*
2193 *Tectonics*, Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag, pp. 1–53.
- 2194 Reimold, W. U., & Jourdan, F. (2012). IMPACT! – BOLIDES, CRATERS, AND CATASTROPHES.
2195 *Elements*, **8**(1), 19–24.
- 2196 Reimold, W. U., & Koeberl, C. (2014). Impact structures in Africa: A review. *Journal of African*
2197 *Earth Sciences*. doi:10.1016/j.jafrearsci.2014.01.008
- 2198 Rietmeijer, F. J. M., Karner, J. M., Nuth, J. A., & Wasilewski, P. J. (1999). Nanoscale phase
2199 equilibrium in a triggered lightning-strike experiment. *European Journal of Mineralogy*, **11**(1),
2200 181–186.
- 2201 Rocchia, R., Robin, E., Fröhlich, F., Meon, H., Froget, L., & Diemer, E. (1996). L’origine des verres
2202 du désert libyque: Un impact météoritique. *Comptes Rendus de l’Académie Des Sciences. Série*
2203 *2. Sciences de La Terre et Des Planètes*, **322**(10), 839–845.
- 2204 Roedder, E. (1978). Silicate liquid immiscibility in magmas and in the system K₂O-FeO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂:
2205 an example of serendipity. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **42**(11), 1597–1617.
- 2206 Roedder, E. (1992). Fluid inclusion evidence for immiscibility in magmatic differentiation.
2207 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **56**(1), 5–20.
- 2208 Rogers, G. S. (1918). *Baked shale and slag formed by the burning of coal beds*, US Government
2209 Printing Office.
- 2210 Ron, H., & Kolodny, Y. (1992). Paleomagnetic and rock magnetic study of combustion metamorphic
2211 rocks in Israel. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **97**(B5), 6927.
- 2212 Roperch, P., Gattacceca, J., Valenzuela, M., ... Beck, P. (2017). Surface vitrification caused by natural
2213 fires in Late Pleistocene wetlands of the Atacama Desert. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*,
2214 **469**, 15–26.
- 2215 Ross, C. S. (1948). Optical properties of glass from Alamogordo, New Mexico. *American*
2216 *Mineralogist*, **33**, 360–362.
- 2217 Rossano, S., Balan, E., Morin, G., Bauer, J.-P., Calas, G., & Brouder, C. (1999). 57 Fe Mössbauer
2218 spectroscopy of tektites. *Physics and Chemistry of Minerals*, **26**(6), 530–538.
- 2219 Rost, R. (1964). Surfaces of and inclusions in moldavites. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **28**(6),
2220 931–936.
- 2221 Rowan, L. R., & Ahrens, T. J. (1994). Observations of impact-induced molten metal-silicate
2222 partitioning. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **122**(1–2), 71–88.
- 2223 Schmieder, M., Kennedy, T., Jourdan, F., Buchner, E., & Reimold, W. U. (2018). A high-precision
2224 40Ar/39Ar age for the Nördlinger Ries impact crater, Germany, and implications for the accurate
2225 dating of terrestrial impact events. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **220**, 146–157.
- 2226 Schnetzler, C. ., & Pinson, W. . (1964). A report on some recent major element analyses of tektites.
2227 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **28**(6), 793–806.
- 2228 Schnetzler, C. ~C. (1970). The lunar origin of tektites: R.I.P. *Meteoritics*, **5**, 221–222.
- 2229 Schreiber, H. D., Minnix, L. M., & Balazs, G. B. B. (1984). The redox state of iron in tektites. *Journal*
2230 *of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **67**(1–3), 349–359.
- 2231 See, T. H., Wagstaff, J., Yang, V., Hörz, F., & McKay, G. A. (1998). Compositional variation and
2232 mixing of impact melts on microscopic scales. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **33**(4), 937–948.
- 2233 Seebaugh, W. R., & Strauss, A. M. (1984). A cometary impact model for the source of Libyan Desert
2234 glass. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **67**(1–3), 511–519.
- 2235 Senftle, F. E., Thorpe, A. N., Grant, J. R., ... May, L. (2000). Magnetic measurements of glass from
2236 Tikal, Guatemala: Possible tektites. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, **105**(B8),
2237 18921–18925.

- 2238 Shoemaker, E. M., & Chao, E. C. T. (1961). New evidence for the impact origin of the Ries Basin,
2239 Bavaria, Germany. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **66**(10), 3371–3378.
- 2240 Sigurdsson, H., D'Hondt, S., Arthur, M. a., ... Channel, J. E. T. (1991). Glass from the
2241 Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary in Haiti. *Nature*, **349**(6309), 482–487.
- 2242 Skinner, H. C. W., & Jahren, A. H. (2003). Biomineralization. In *Treatise on Geochemistry*, Vol. 8–9,
2243 pp. 1–69.
- 2244 Smit, J., & Klaver, G. (1981). Sanidine spherules at the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary indicate a large
2245 impact event. *Nature*, pp. 47–49.
- 2246 Sokol, E., Novikov, I., Zateeva, S., Vapnik, Y., Shagam, R., & Kozmenko, O. (2010). Combustion
2247 metamorphism in the Nabi Musa dome: new implications for a mud volcanic origin of the
2248 Mottled Zone, Dead Sea area. *Basin Research*, **22**(4), 414–438.
- 2249 Sokol, E., Volkova, N., & Lepezin, G. (1998). Mineralogy of pyrometamorphic rocks associated with
2250 naturally burned coal-bearing spoil-heaps of the Chelyabinsk coal basin, Russia. *European*
2251 *Journal of Mineralogy*, **10**(5), 1003–1014.
- 2252 Sokol, E. V., Kokh, S. N., Vapnik, Y., Thiery, V., & Korzhova, S. A. (2014). Natural analogs of belite
2253 sulfoaluminate cement clinkers from Negev Desert, Israel. *American Mineralogist*, **99**(7), 1471–
2254 1487.
- 2255 Spray, J. G. (1987). Artificial generation of pseudotachylyte using friction welding apparatus:
2256 simulation of melting on a fault plane. *Journal of Structural Geology*, **9**(1), 49–60.
- 2257 Spray, J. G. (1992). A physical basis for the frictional melting of some rock-forming minerals.
2258 *Tectonophysics*, **204**(3–4), 205–221.
- 2259 Spray, J. G. (2010). Frictional Melting Processes in Planetary Materials: From Hypervelocity Impact
2260 to Earthquakes. *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences*, **38**(1), 221–254.
- 2261 Stöffler, D. (1971). Progressive metamorphism and classification of shocked and brecciated crystalline
2262 rocks at impact craters. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **76**(23), 5541–5551.
- 2263 Stöffler, D., Artemieva, N. a., & Pierazzo, E. (2002). Modeling the Ries-Steinheim impact event and
2264 the formation of the moldavite strewn field. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*, **37**(12), 1893–
2265 1907.
- 2266 Stöffler, D., & Grieve, R. A. F. (2007). Impactites. In D. J. Fettes & J. Desmons, eds., *Metamorphic*
2267 *rocks: a classification and glossary of terms*, Cambridge University Press, pp. 82–92.
- 2268 Stöffler, D., Hamann, C., & Metzler, K. (2018). Shock metamorphism of planetary silicate rocks and
2269 sediments: Proposal for an updated classification system. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*,
2270 **53**(1), 5–49.
- 2271 Stöffler, D., & Langenhorst, F. (1994). Shock metamorphism of quartz in nature and experiment: I.
2272 Basic observation and theory*. *Meteoritics*, **29**(2), 155–181.
- 2273 Stoppa, F., Rosatelli, G., Cundari, A., Castorina, F., & Woolley, A. R. (2005). Comment on Melluso et
2274 al. (2003): Reported data and interpretation of some wollastonite- and melilite-bearing rocks
2275 from the Central Apennines of Italy. *American Mineralogist*, **90**(11–12), 1919–1925.
- 2276 Storzer, D., & Koeberl, C. (1991). Uranium and Zirconium Enrichments in Libyan Desert Glass:
2277 Zircon Baddeleyite, and High Temperature History of the Glass. *Lunar and Planetary Science*,
2278 **22**, 1345.
- 2279 Storzer, D., & Wagner, G. A. (1977). Fission track dating of meteorite impacts. *Meteoritics*, **12**, 368–
2280 369.
- 2281 Sugiura, H., Ikeda, R., Kondo, K., & Yamadaya, T. (1997). Densified silica glass after shock
2282 compression. *Journal of Applied Physics*, **81**(4), 1651–1655.
- 2283 Susman, S., Volin, K. J., Price, D. L., ... Liebermann, R. C. (1991). Intermediate-range order in
2284 permanently densified vitreous SiO₂: A neutron-diffraction and molecular-dynamics study.
2285 *Physical Review B*, **43**(1), 1194–1197.
- 2286 Svensen, H., Dysthe, D. K., Bandlien, E. H., Sacko, S., Coulibaly, H., & Planke, S. (2003). Subsurface
2287 combustion in Mali: Refutation of the active volcanism hypothesis in West Africa. *Geology*,

- 2288 **31**(7), 581.
- 2289 Swaenen, M., Stefaniak, E. A., Frost, R., Worobiec, A., & Van Grieken, R. (2010). Investigation of
2290 inclusions trapped inside Libyan desert glass by Raman microscopy. *Analytical and*
2291 *Bioanalytical Chemistry*, **397**(7), 2659–2665.
- 2292 Switzer, G., & Melson, W. G. (1972). Origin and composition of rock fulgurite glass. *Smithsonian*
2293 *Contributions to the Earth Sciences*, **9**, 47.
- 2294 Tancredi, G., Ishitsuka, J., Schultz, P. H., ... Dalmau, A. (2009). A meteorite crater on Earth formed
2295 on September 15, 2007: The Carancas hypervelocity impact. *Meteoritics & Planetary Science*,
2296 **44**(12), 1967–1984.
- 2297 Thorpe, A. N., Senftle, F. E., & Cuttitta, F. (1963). Magnetic and Chemical Investigations of Iron in
2298 Tektites. *Nature*, **197**(4870), 836–840.
- 2299 Thy, P., Segobye, A. K., & Ming, D. W. (1995). Implications of prehistoric glassy biomass slag from
2300 east-central Botswana. *Journal of Archaeological Science*, **22**(5), 629–637.
- 2301 Tompson, A. F. B., Bruton, C. J., Pawloski, G. A., ... Maxwell, R. M. (2002). On the evaluation of
2302 groundwater contamination from underground nuclear tests. *Environmental Geology*, **42**(2–3),
2303 235–247.
- 2304 Tompson, A. F. B., Hudson, G. B., Smith, D. K., & Hunt, J. R. (2006). Analysis of radionuclide
2305 migration through a 200-m Vadose zone following a 16-year infiltration event. *Advances in*
2306 *Water Resources*, **29**(2), 281–292.
- 2307 Uman, M. A. (1964). The peak temperature of lightning. *Journal of Atmospheric and Terrestrial*
2308 *Physics*, **26**(1), 123–128.
- 2309 Uman, M. A., & Krider, E. P. (1989). Natural and artificially initiated lightning. *Science (New York,*
2310 *N.Y.)*, **246**(4929), 457–64.
- 2311 Urey, H. C. (1955). On the origin of tektites. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
2312 *United States of America*, **41**(1), 27–31.
- 2313 Urey, H. C. (1963). Cometary Collisions and Tektites. *Nature*, **197**(4864), 228–230.
- 2314 Van Hoesel, A., Hoek, W. Z., Pennock, G. M., & Drury, M. R. (2014). The younger dryas impact
2315 hypothesis: A critical review. *Quaternary Science Reviews*, **83**, 95–114.
- 2316 Veksler, I. V. (2004). Liquid immiscibility and its role at the magmatic–hydrothermal transition: a
2317 summary of experimental studies. *Chemical Geology*, **210**(1–4), 7–31.
- 2318 Vogel, W. (1994). *Glass Chemistry*, Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- 2319 Volovetsky, M. V., Rusakov, V. S., Chistyakova, N. I., & Lukanin, O. A. (2008). Mössbauer study of
2320 tektites. *Hyperfine Interactions*, **186**(1–3), 83–88.
- 2321 Wallace, C., Bellucci, J. J., Simonetti, A., Hainley, T., Koeman, E. C., & Burns, P. C. (2013). A multi-
2322 method approach for determination of radionuclide distribution in trinitite. *Journal of*
2323 *Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry*, **298**(2), 993–1003.
- 2324 Wasserman, A., & Melosh, H. (2001). Chemical reduction of impact processed materials. *Lunar and*
2325 *Planetary Institute*
- 2326 Weeks, R. A. A., Underwood, J. R., & Giegengack, R. (1984). Libyan Desert glass: A review. *Journal*
2327 *of Non-Crystalline Solids*, **67**(1–3), 593–619.
- 2328 Weidinger, J. T., Korup, O., Munack, H., ... Lottermoser, W. (2014). Giant rockslides from the inside.
2329 *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, **389**, 62–73.
- 2330 Wilding, M., Webb, S., Dingwell, D., Abalay, G., & Marti, J. (1996a). Cooling rate variation in natural
2331 volcanic glasses from Tenerife, Canary Islands. *Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology*,
2332 **125**(2–3), 151–160.
- 2333 Wilding, M., Webb, S., & Dingwell, D. B. (1996b). Tektite cooling rates: Calorimetric relaxation
2334 geospeedometry applied to a natural glass. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **60**(6), 1099–
2335 1103.
- 2336 Wilke, M., Farges, F., Partzsch, G. M., Schmidt, C., & Behrens, H. (2007). Speciation of Fe in silicate
2337 glasses and melts by in-situ XANES spectroscopy. *American Mineralogist*, **92**(1), 44–56.

- 2338 Wilke, M., Farges, F., Petit, P.-E., Brown, G. E., & Martin, F. (2001). Oxidation state and
 2339 coordination of Fe in minerals: An Fe K- XANES spectroscopic study. *American Mineralogist*,
 2340 **86**(5–6), 714–730.
- 2341 Wilke, M., Partzsch, G. M., Bernhardt, R., & Lattard, D. (2004). Determination of the iron oxidation
 2342 state in basaltic glasses using XANES at the K-edge. *Chemical Geology*, **213**(1–3), 71–87.
- 2343 Wittke, J. H., Weaver, J. C., Bunch, T. E., ... Firestone, R. B. (2013). Evidence for deposition of 10
 2344 million tonnes of impact spherules across four continents 12,800 y ago. *Proceedings of the*
 2345 *National Academy of Sciences*, **110**(23), E2088–E2097.
- 2346 Zähringer, J., & Gentner, W. (1963). Radiogenic and atmospheric argon content of tektites. *Nature*,
 2347 **199**(4893), 583.
- 2348 Žák, K., Skála, R., Řanda, Z., & Mizera, J. (2012). A review of volatile compounds in tektites, and
 2349 carbon content and isotopic composition of moldavite glass. *Meteoritics and Planetary Science*,
 2350 pp. 1010–1028.
- 2351 Zolensky, M. E., & Koeberl, C. (1991). Why are blue zhamanshinites blue? Liquid immiscibility in an
 2352 impact melt. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **55**(5), 1483–1486.
- 2353