




## New evidence on the formation conditions of the Libyan Desert Glass (Western Egypt): Clues from a dendritic zircon inclusion

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**Abstract**—Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is an ~29 million years old, silica-rich glass found in Western Egypt. Whether this glass formed in an impact cratering context associated with the hypervelocity collision of a cometary/asteroidal body or radiative heating during an airburst is debated. Determination of the formation temperatures and pressures of rare mineral components in LDG can provide key petrogenetic constraints on its origin. Here, we report the occurrence of a zircon inclusion, whose textural, chemical, and crystallographic features point to a rapid formation during solidification of the silica-rich LDG melt. The study was conducted combining dual beam microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, and three-dimensional electron diffraction. The inclusion is a few tens of micrometer in size and consists of dendritic branches of zircon arranged in a reticulate-cruciform texture. The high-silica glass filling interstices between dendrites have longer chemical bonds compared to matrix glass, as indicated by electron pair distribution function analysis, and is enriched in Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The lack of incongruent melt products (ZrO<sub>2</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub>) suggests that the inclusion formed during cooling from supraliquidus conditions, by dynamic crystallization from an (immiscible) undercooled liquid droplet. Such droplet would derive from shock-induced melting of a precursor zircon grain, possibly mixed with the SiO<sub>2</sub>-rich liquid formed by melting of the LDG precursor material. The formation model proposed for this inclusion does not allow us to discriminate between the two genetic processes proposed for LDG, but sets a new minimum to the liquidus temperature of the corresponding chemical system of ~2250°C.

## INTRODUCTION

Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) is a natural glassy material first described more than 90 years ago in the Eastern Great Sand Sea, Western Egypt (Clayton & Spencer, 1933; Spencer, 1939; Weeks et al., 1984). Specimens are typically found within north–south

trending, almost linear, interdune corridors, over the outcropping basement, represented by the Nubian Formation, mainly consisting of alluvial-plain sandstone units (Klitzsch, 1978). The size of LDG specimens ranges from millimeters to few tens of centimeters (e.g., Weeks et al., 1984). The color varies from bright yellow to yellow-greenish, pale yellow, whitish, or even pinkish

(Fröhlich et al., 2013). It is usually translucent although cloudy specimens are found as well. This cloudy appearance is attributed to the high abundance of vesicles and/or cristobalite inclusions (e.g., Fröhlich et al., 2013; Spencer, 1939). Another recurrent feature in some specimens is the compositional layering, that is, alternating bands of dark and pale glass. An age of about 29 *Ma* was determined for LDG via fission-track method (Bigazzi & De Michele, 1996; Storzer & Wagner, 1977).

Geochemically, LDG is a high-silica glass (~98 wt% SiO<sub>2</sub> average, Barnes & Underwood, 1976; Fudali, 1981; Barrat et al., 1997), where Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, and FeO<sub>tot</sub> are found in few percent abundances as well. The rare earth elements (REE) pattern and the light-REE (LREE) enrichment associated with a negative Eu anomaly are compatible with a post-Archean terrigenous source, probably an upper continental crust rock (e.g., a mature quartz-arenite, Barrat et al., 1997). Some compositionally layered specimens present dark portions that are enriched in siderophile elements such as Ni, Cr, Co, Ir, and platinum-group elements (Barrat et al., 1997; Cipriani et al., 2000; Murali et al., 1989; Rocchia et al., 1997), with chondritic Ni/Co, Fe/Ni, and Fe/Mg ratios; Os isotope ratios (Koeberl, 1997, 2000; Murali et al., 1997); and iron that is in the reduced, bivalent state (Giuli et al., 2003).

Microscopic inclusions are often found within the LDG glassy groundmass. Among these, there are several mineral and amorphous inclusions which record a high-temperature (>1670°C) event in the LDG formation. These include lechatelierite (Weeks et al., 1984),  $\alpha$ -cristobalite (Cavosie et al., 2022), baddeleyite (Kleinmann, 1969), and mullite (Greshake et al., 2017). Lechatelierite is a natural fused, amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub> formed through quenching of silica melt at temperatures higher than 1700°C (Ferrière et al., 2009; Lacroix, 1915);  $\alpha$ -cristobalite is the tetragonal polymorph of SiO<sub>2</sub> formed through displacive transformation at low temperature, usually below 270°C, from the high-temperature cubic  $\beta$ -cristobalite (Cavosie et al., 2022; Dollase, 1965); baddeleyite is monoclinic ZrO<sub>2</sub> which may derive from the reversion of the tetragonal zirconia at temperatures higher than 1676°C (Butterman & Foster, 1967); mullite is a high-temperature aluminosilicate derived from the decomposition of kaolinitic clays at temperatures higher than 1600°C (Greshake et al., 2017; Schneider & Komarneni, 2006). Pratesi et al. (2002) observed nanometric spherules of glass enriched in Mg, Al, and Fe in LDG and interpreted them as liquid immiscibility, setting a minimum formation temperature in the range of 1700°C–2100°C.

Recent studies of impact melt rocks, including LDG, found the presence of granular zircons that preserve crystallographic orientations inherited from the high-pressure polymorph reidite (Cavosie et al., 2018).

These are called FRIGN (*former reidite in granular neoblastic*) zircons, and they would indicate pressures up to 30 GPa (Cavosie & Koeberl, 2019), which favor the direct impact hypothesis. However, Kovaleva et al. (2021) demonstrated that the granular neoblastic zircon may relate to disequilibrium melting and crystallization of zircons at high-temperature regimes, independently of pressure, although the feasibility of this process was questioned by Zhao et al. (2024). In addition, Kovaleva et al. (2023) found orthorhombic zirconia in LDG, a polymorph of ZrO<sub>2</sub> which is stable between 12.5 and 24.0 GPa (Liu, 1980). Shocked quartz has also been reported from rocks within the LDG field (Koeberl & Ferrière, 2019). Lastly, an FeNi silicide spherule was identified in LDG via combined neutron and X-ray tomography (Martell et al., 2024). The authors interpreted the latter evidence as projectile material incorporated in the LDG melt.

Despite the variety of available data, the origin of LDG is still enigmatic. Among the various hypotheses advanced so far, the most debated are the impact cratering and the airburst origin: the former supported by high-pressure evidence and impactor contamination, while the latter by the lack of an associated impact crater, which proves to be the most challenging problem when dealing with the origin of impact melt rocks. Since the late 1960s, several structures have been proposed as the source crater of LDG, for example, the BP impact crater and the Oasis impact structure (Martin, 1969; Reimold & Koeberl, 2014), but all of them were later discarded because of age, size, and composition of the target material (Saul, 2018; Schaaf & Müller-Sohnius, 2002). Another possible structure, Kebira, was later demonstrated to be of non-impact origin (Orti et al., 2008; Paillou et al., 2004, 2006). However, considering a moderate estimate of an average crater erosion rate for Northern Africa (30 m/*Ma*, Hergarten & Kenkmann, 2019), the potential impact crater could have been completely eroded over the last 29 *Ma*. Numerical simulations of impacts of stony and cometary bodies confirmed that the LDG strewn field could have formed either by impact cratering or an airburst (Svetsov et al., 2020).

The situation is further complicated by the fact that the parent material of LDG has not been conclusively identified yet, as LDG exhibits a different isotope composition than that of the rocks in the region where it is found (e.g., Schaaf & Müller-Sohnius, 2002). However, many workers agree with the idea that the parent material would be represented by mature Cretaceous sandstones derived from the erosion of intrusive igneous rocks of Pan-African (Neoproterozoic) age (e.g., Sighinolfi et al., 2020).

Considering the level of uncertainty of petrogenetic models based only on the analysis of the glass phase of

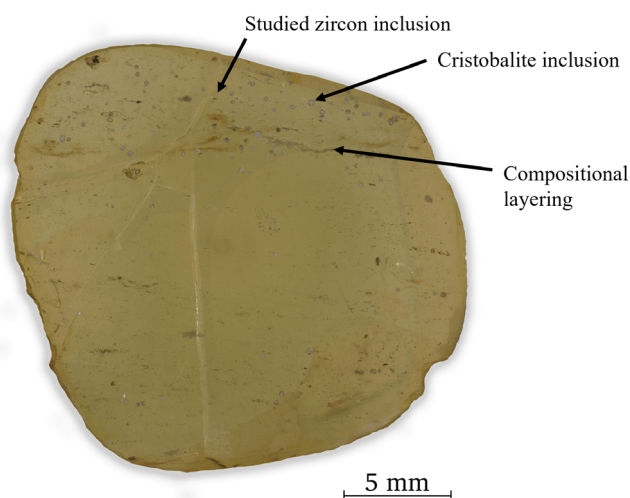


FIGURE 1. Stereomicrograph of the polished section labeled LDG24. The studied zircon, a cristobalite inclusion, and a dark band related to the compositional layering are arrowed. (Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/jamps.20094))

LDG, the study of crystalline inclusions provides a valid alternative to put new constraints on the origin of LDG. Here, we report the first finding of a microscopic dendritic zircon inclusion inside LDG. The inclusion, studied down to the nanoscale, with novel electron microscopy and 3D electron diffraction (3DED) techniques (e.g., Gemmi et al., 2019; Gorelik et al., 2019), provides a new estimate of the peak temperature for the formation of LDG.

## SAMPLES AND METHODS

The zircon inclusion studied here was found in a polished section of a specimen labeled LDG24 (found at 25° 17' 05" N, 25° 33' 58" E), kindly provided by Romano Serra, from the collection of the Museo del Cielo e della Terra in S. Giovanni in Persiceto (Bologna, Italy). The section shows the recurrent characteristic features, namely the bright yellow color, vitreous luster, and the compositional banding (Figure 1).

Preliminary electron imaging was performed with a JEOL JSM 6610-LV scanning electron microscope (SEM), with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and variable beam current, at the Naturhistorisches Museum Vienna, Austria. Backscattered electron (BSE) imaging of the inclusion was performed using a Gemini II field emission gun-scanning electron microscope (FEG-SEM) of the Centre for Instrument Sharing of the University of Pisa (CISUP), under an acceleration voltage of 5 kV. The instrument is coupled with a Capella Focused Ion Beam (FIB) column with a Ga source which was used to cut an electron-transparent lamella following procedures described by Hyun Jung et al. (2012). Nanometer-scale

analyses of the electron-transparent lamella were performed using a 200 kV JEOL JEM-F200 field-emission transmission electron microscope (FE-TEM) at CISUP. Imaging was performed in scanning-transmission electron microscopy (STEM) mode, using a high-angular annular dark field (HAADF) detector with low current on the specimen conditions (probe size 6 and condenser aperture 40  $\mu\text{m}$ ) not to damage the sample. Transmission electron microscopy energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (TEM-EDS) analyses were acquired at a tilt angle of 15° using Cliff–Lorimer approximation (Cliff & Lorimer, 1975) and calibrated k-factors for the main chemical elements (Sanità et al., 2024). 3DED data were collected in STEM mode (nanodiffraction), using a camera length of 250 mm, a pseudo-parallel illumination obtained through the highest spot size (10), a condenser lens aperture of 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , and a designated lens configuration. The probe beam diameter was approximately 30 nm. The total tilt range was from 60° to 120°. Diffraction pattern frames were collected at each 1° angle-tilt interval, with precession of the electron beam (precession semiangle 1°). Indexing of diffraction data was performed with PETS2 software (Palatinus et al., 2019) and unit cell parameters were compared with the reference material from RRUFF project (Lafuente et al., 2015).

Electron pair distribution functions (ePDFs) on the amorphous glasses were calculated from diffraction patterns recorded using a beam setting similar to that used for 3DED. The exposure of 60,000 ms and a camera length of 250 mm were used, corresponding to an effective pixel size of 0.0583  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ . The diffraction data were stored as 24 bit gray scale image. The two-dimensional electron diffraction patterns were azimuthally integrated into one-dimensional intensity versus  $Q$  profiles using a custom MatLab script. To minimize the contribution of the primary, unscattered electron beam, the data were clipped in the low- $Q$  region up to 0.4  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ . The remaining profile was normalized by the square of the combined  $\text{SiO}_2$  atomic scattering amplitude profile. The residual background was modeled with a fourth-order polynomial. Before performing the Fourier transformation, the data were clipped to a maximum  $Q$  value  $Q_{\text{max}}$  of 9  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ . To suppress truncation ripples in the ePDF profiles, a 1/ $Q$  tapering function was applied to enforce asymptotic behavior at  $Q_{\text{max}}$ .

## RESULTS

The zircon inclusion is located in the polished section labeled LDG24, in the region indicated by the arrows of Figure 1. This portion of the specimen is compositionally layered and contains abundant cristobalite inclusions that, in BSE images, appear similar to that reported in figure 3b of Cavosie et al. (2022).

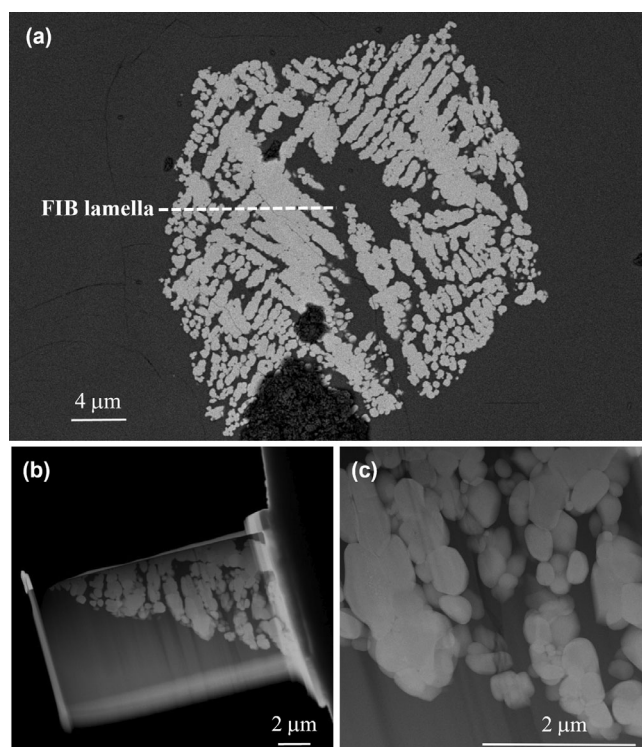


FIGURE 2. Electron microscope images of the studied zircon inclusion. (a) Backscattered electron (BSE) image of the inclusion. The dashed line indicates the location of the FIB lamella extracted for TEM studies. The dark object in the foreground is a dust speck. (b) Overview of the focused-ion beam (FIB) lamella in high-angular annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) mode. (c) Close-up showing zircon crystals in HAADF-STEM mode.

The zircon inclusion appears equant in shape, with similar 20  $\mu\text{m}$  dimensions along all the axes (Figure 2a), and consists of dendritic branches composed of trails of submicroscopic zircon grains arranged in a reticulate–cruciform texture (Figure 2b,c). The interstices of the zircon branches are filled with glass (hereafter referred to as interstice-filling glass). An FIB lamella was prepared near the center of the inclusion (Figure 2a) that contains the zircon crystals, the LDG matrix, and the interstice-filling glass (Figure 2b,c).

Observations at the nanoscale were performed mainly in HAADF-STEM mode. However, a TEM bright-field (BF) image is reported in the Supporting Information (Figure S1). Imaging with HAADF-STEM mode shows that the submicroscopic zircon grains composing the dendritic branches have subhedral shapes (Figure 2c). No evidence of reaction with the surrounding glass, neither the LDG matrix nor the interstice-filling material, was observed.

Average element composition (in oxide wt%) results from STEM-EDS analyses are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Element compositions (oxides wt%) of zircon crystals, LDG matrix, and interstice-filling glass obtained by STEM-EDS.

Oxide (wt%)	Zircon		LDG matrix		Interstice-filling glass	
	Average ( $n = 108$ )	$\sigma$	Average ( $n = 10$ )	$\sigma$	Average ( $n = 9$ )	$\sigma$
SiO <sub>2</sub>	35.7	6.3	96.2	0.7	95.7	0.8
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	<0.5		0.8	0.2	1.0	0.2
Y <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.0	0.6	n.d.		n.d.	
FeO	1.9	0.5	1.1	0.3	1.1	0.3
ZrO <sub>2</sub>	59.5	6.3	1.8	0.6	2.1	0.7
HfO <sub>2</sub>	1.5	0.6	<0.5		n.d.	
Total	100.0		100.0		100.0	

Abbreviations:  $n$ , number of spot analyses; n.d., not detected.

The average chemical formula of zircon, recalculated on the basis of four oxygen atoms, is  $(\text{Zr}_{0.88}\text{Y}_{0.02}\text{Fe}_{0.05}\text{Hf}_{0.01})_{\Sigma 0.96}\text{Si}_{1.07}\text{O}_4$ . The ZrO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub> content in zircon crystals range from 43.9 wt% to 64.3 wt% and from 30.6 wt% to 52.5 wt%, respectively (see Table S1). In addition, some point analyses on zircon showed the presence of UO<sub>2</sub> and ThO<sub>2</sub> up to a maximum content of about 1.1 wt% and TiO<sub>2</sub> up to almost 0.2 wt%. Note that the chemical variability for SiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> may be related to different extents of contamination by the surrounding glass (i.e., the electron beam interaction volume may comprise some of the surrounding glass).

The LDG matrix and the interstice-filling glass are relatively similar in terms of EDS chemistry (Figure 3), although the interstice-filling glass is richer in Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> relative to the LDG matrix. The difference in ZrO<sub>2</sub> content may be related, again, to contamination by the zircon grain. Glasses and zircon point analyses show a positive correlation in the SiO<sub>2</sub> versus Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> plot, while in the SiO<sub>2</sub> versus ZrO<sub>2</sub> plot, they show a negative correlation. Single spot analyses of the LDG matrix and the interstice-filling glass are given in Table S2.

Decomposition products of zircon, such as baddeleyite or other ZrO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub> polymorphs, and melt inclusions were not observed in HAADF-STEM imaging, and all the crystals analyzed with three-dimensional electron diffraction (3DED) were zircon (i.e.,  $a = 6.6042$ ,  $c = 5.9796$  Å,  $V = 260.803$  Å<sup>3</sup>, space group  $I4_1/amd$ , Hazen & Finger, 1979). Table 2 lists the cell parameters obtained after PETS2 data elaboration. The average value of the  $c$  parameter is about 6.017 Å, which is off 0.037 Å with respect to the standard value of Hazen and Finger (1979). Such deviation is a 0.6% difference which is considered inside the error for the technique. However, as shown by Table S1, some slight compositional differences among

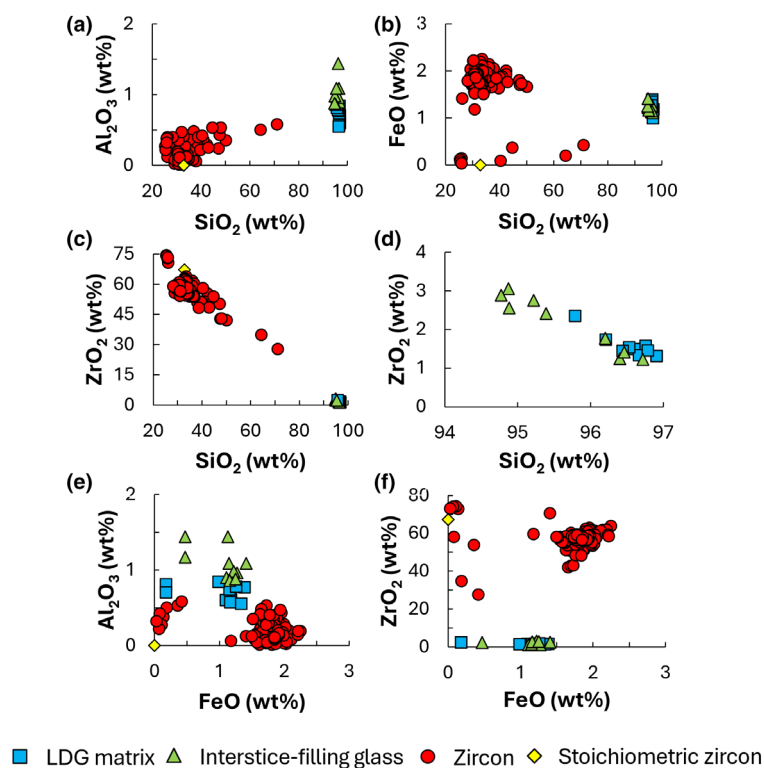


FIGURE 3. Major element variation diagrams of the studied zircon and host glass. Concentrations are in oxide wt% and determined through energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopic analyses. Red circles represent zircon crystals, blue squares represent the LDG matrix, green triangles indicate the interstice-filling glass, and yellow diamond indicates the composition on the diagram of stoichiometric zircon. (a)  $\text{SiO}_2$  versus  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . (b)  $\text{SiO}_2$  versus  $\text{FeO}$ . (c)  $\text{SiO}_2$  versus  $\text{ZrO}_2$ . (d) Enlarged section of  $\text{SiO}_2$  versus  $\text{ZrO}_2$  showing the 94–97 wt% range. (e)  $\text{FeO}$  versus  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . (f)  $\text{FeO}$  versus  $\text{ZrO}_2$ . (Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com))

TABLE 2. Cell parameters obtained via three-dimensional electron diffraction on selected positions of crystals.

Point	$a$ (Å)	$c$ (Å)	$V$ (Å <sup>3</sup> )
1	6.656 (5)	6.014 (5)	266.4 (6)
2	6.656 (5)	6.004 (5)	266.0 (6)
3	6.646 (3)	6.015 (3)	266.0 (9)
4	6.643 (6)	6.007 (7)	265.1 (8)
5	6.660 (4)	5.987 (5)	265.6 (5)
6	6.648 (4)	6.012 (4)	265.7 (5)
7	6.641 (2)	6.026 (2)	265.8 (2)
8	6.654 (2)	6.018 (2)	266.5 (2)
9	6.646 (3)	6.031 (4)	266.4 (4)
10	6.629 (4)	6.006 (5)	263.9 (5)
11	6.721 (4)	6.090 (5)	275.1 (6)
12	6.662 (4)	6.028 (4)	267.5 (5)
13	6.645 (4)	6.008 (6)	265.3 (6)

individual crystals, as well as inside the same crystal, are present. These differences may account for little variation in cell parameters.

Several long-exposure electron diffraction patterns were collected in the interstice-filling glass and the LDG

matrix. These patterns present concentric broad rings, characteristic of amorphous materials. The diffraction data were azimuthally integrated, normalized, and processed to determine an electron pair distribution function (ePDF), revealing structural differences between the LDG matrix and the interstice-filling glass. Analysis of a representative pair of patterns is reported in Figure 4. Figure 4a shows the original electron scattering profiles for electron diffraction patterns recorded from two distinct areas. Figure 4b displays the sample profiles after normalization and background subtraction (named  $F(Q)$ ). The  $F(Q)$  profiles were used to calculate the final ePDFs. Even in the  $F(Q)$ , a slight shift of the structural peaks between the two types of materials can be observed (red and blue curve in Figure 4b). The scattering curve was recorded only up to a  $Q$  slightly above 8, and therefore, the ePDF was calculated with a  $Q_{\text{max}}$  of  $8.3 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ . The ePDF (Figure 4c) reveals structural oscillations up to  $8 \text{ \AA}$ , suggesting that the structural order domains are approximately  $8 \text{ \AA}$  in diameter. The position of the first peak, that is the one located at  $\sim 1.6 \text{ \AA}$ , corresponds to the direct Si-O distance (i.e., the bond length), while the second peak, located at  $\sim 2.7 \text{ \AA}$ ,

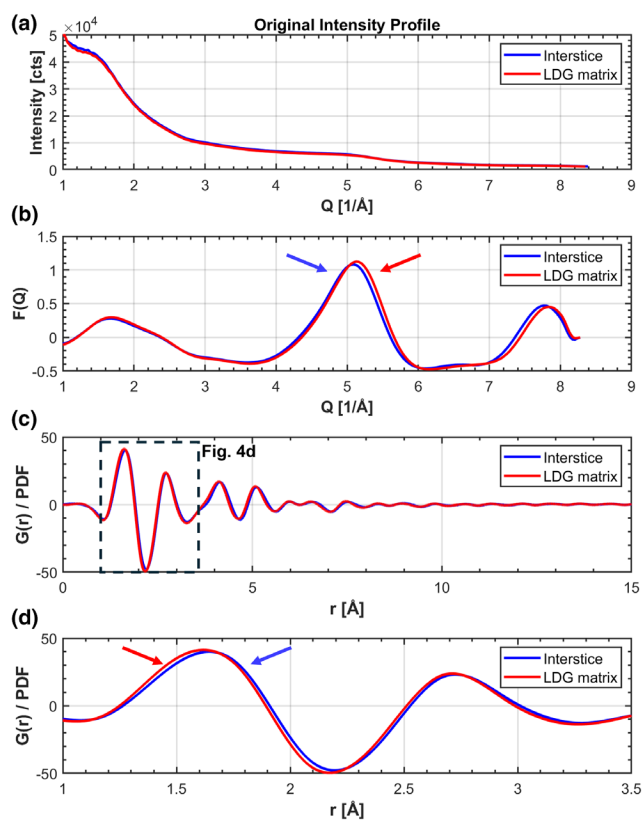


FIGURE 4. Electron pair distribution function analysis of the interstice-filling glass (blue) and LDG matrix (red). (a) Original intensity profile. (b) Final profile after background subtraction and normalization ( $F(Q)$ ), used for electron pair distribution function calculation. (c)  $G(r)$ –electron pair distribution functions (ePDFs). The dashed rectangle indicates the position of Figure 4d. (d) Enlarged section of  $G(r)$  highlighting the peak shift. [Correction added on 27 January 2026, after first online publication: Figure 4 has been updated in this version.] (Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com))

represents the O–O distance in an  $\text{SiO}_4$  tetrahedron. Despite keeping the same electron diffraction parameters, a slight shift in peak positions of the first and second peak of the ePDF was observed (Figure 4d). For the LDG matrix, the Si–O peak occurs at 1.57–1.60 Å, whereas in the interstice-filling glass, it is slightly broader, at 1.62–1.64 Å. A similar shift is observed for the O–O distance: 2.69–2.70 Å in the LDG matrix and 2.71–2.73 Å in the interstice-filling glass.

While the absolute values of the distances are directly related to the systematic error in the electron diffraction camera length calibration and should therefore be treated with caution, the relative shift is evident.

## DISCUSSION

The dendritic habit of the zircon inclusion presented in this work is novel for LDG. No dendritic grains were

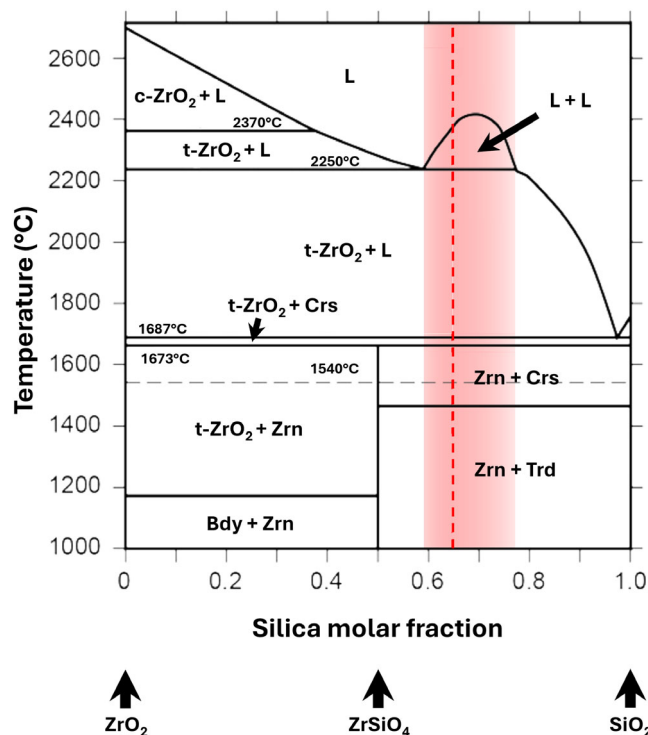


FIGURE 5. Phase diagram for the  $\text{ZrO}_2$ – $\text{SiO}_2$  system (modified after Telle et al., 2015). The red dashed line indicates the composition of our system from image analysis and EDS data, the pink shaded region indicates the compositions for which a temperature higher than 2250°C leads the system over liquidus. The relative abundance of phases was estimated by image analysis of a cropped region of Figure 2 that encloses the zircon inclusion and the interstice-filling glass only and gave 65%  $\text{SiO}_2$ –35%  $\text{ZrO}_2$  as composition of the system. The horizontal dashed gray line indicates a lower dissociation temperature defect-related (Curtis & Sowman, 1953). Abbreviations follow the official IMA–CNMNC approved symbols (Warr, 2021) and are Zrn for zircon, Bdy for baddeleyite, Crs for cristobalite, and Trd for tridymite. (Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com))

reported in the largest and most systematic study of zircon crystals ( $n = 101$ ) in LDG (Cavosie & Koeberl, 2019). However, dendritic zircon has been reported in other impact-related materials as well as in some terrestrial rocks (e.g., Corfu et al., 2003). Dendritic zircon was found, for example, in some glass fragments of the Logoisk structure and interpreted as the result of zircon decomposition during quench of the impact melt (Glazovskaya et al., 2024).

Examples of dendritic zircon in terrestrial rocks include volcanoclastic rocks from southwest China (Wang et al., 2022), mafic rocks of the Skaergaard intrusion (Moerhuis et al., 2025), metasomatized nordmakites from the Mongolian Altai (Kempe et al., 1999), and peralkaline granites from the Ambohimirahavavy alkaline complex (Estrade et al., 2014). In the first case,

the lack of any correlation between zircon morphology and the mineral assemblage in which the zircon is found led the authors to propose that zircon morphology is independent of melt chemistry. In turn, Kempe et al. (1999) and Estrade et al. (2014) interpreted the anomalous abundance of Fe, Ca, U, Th, Y, and REE in dendritic zircon as due to secondary and hydrothermal processes. While dendritic textures are indicative of a dynamic crystallization mechanism, the incorporation of incompatible elements is typically ascribed to conditions indicating thermodynamic disequilibrium (e.g., MacDonald et al., 2022).

In the case of the zircon inclusion examined in this study (Figure 2), the nearly orthogonal arrangement of the dendritic branches points to a rapid growth of the individual grains, which is consistent with a diffusion-limited growth mechanism driven by the high supersaturation of the mineral phase in the melt (see e.g., Arzilli et al., 2022; Colle et al., 2023). This mechanism, however, requires the initial presence of an immiscible liquid droplet, likely of the same mass and composition of the inclusion, that eventually crystallized under a regime of high undercooling during the post-shock cooling of the LDG melt.

The composition of the interstice-filling glass, which deviates from the composition of the LDG glass matrix (e.g., in the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  versus FeO variation diagram, Figure 3), provides further evidence for a diffusion-limited growth mechanism of the zircon under a regime of high undercooling, as it may represent the diffusive boundary layer derived from the rapid crystallization of the zircon. In a similar fashion, the abundance of trace elements such as U, Th, Hf, and Ti in the dendritic zircon could be an indicator that it crystallized very rapidly, as also proposed by Moerhuis et al. (2025) in their study of dendritic zircon in the Skaergaard intrusion rocks.

It is well known that LDG is a material formed under disequilibrium conditions, as documented by the occurrence of compositional banding and partially decomposed mineral inclusions (e.g., Kleinmann, 1969; Pratesi et al., 2002). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the zircon inclusion examined in this study formed by incipient melting of a precursor zircon grain and subsequent crystallization while the LDG was still in a molten state, following the LDG-forming event, either impact cratering or an airburst. Likewise, the liquid formed by the precursor zircon grain (or grain aggregates) did not disperse into the silica-rich melt of the LDG nor did other mineral phases predicted in the  $\text{ZrO}_2$ - $\text{SiO}_2$  phase diagram formed (Figure 5). At the same time, although previous studies on zircon in LDG described dissociation to zirconia (Cavosie & Koeberl, 2019), a  $\text{ZrO}_2$  phase that would be expected to form by incongruent melting of the precursor zircon during the heating stage is not observed in

this work. This evidence may be ascribed to the conditions during which this specific sample of LDG formed. One possibility is that the precursor zircon transformed directly into an amorphous liquid phase. In fact, for strain rates higher than  $10^7 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , laser-driven shock experiments coupled with in situ X-ray diffraction showed that zircon does not decompose to  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , but rather transforms into an amorphous liquid (Takagi et al., 2022). Typical shock strain rates are even much more severe than the ones reported by Takagi et al. (2022), in the range between  $10^4$  and  $10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Grieve, 1991) and very far from the endogenous conditions (about  $10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , Kenkmann et al., 2014). Alternatively, intermediate compounds may have formed by incongruent melting of the precursor zircon but not have survived upon further increase in temperature.

In this second case, clues on the peak temperature experienced by the LDG can be obtained by some simple considerations on the  $\text{ZrO}_2$ - $\text{SiO}_2$  phase diagram (Telle et al., 2015, Figure 5). From a chemical point of view, if the parent zircon is assumed to be non-metamict, then a certain amount of mixing of the liquid produced during the melting of the zircon with the silica-rich LDG melt must be invoked to explain the compositional variability of the interstice-filling glass. It should be noted that, although the non-metamict nature of the zircon inclusion cannot be known unequivocally, the high abundance of trace elements (Table 1) suggests that the parent zircon may have been metamict to some extent, thus having different thermodynamical properties, namely the melting temperature.

We calculated the bulk chemical composition of the inclusion based on the average chemical composition of the zircon crystals and the interstice-filling glass (Table 1), using the relative abundance of these two constituents. Assuming negligible chemical exchange with surrounding LDG groundmass, such relative abundance was determined by image analysis with ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012), which gave a zircon-glass ratio of 0.54:0.46. By multiplying these fractions for the average zircon and interstice-filling glass chemical composition, we obtained the percentage of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{ZrO}_2$  in the zircon and glass in that portion of LDG, respectively. The relative fraction of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{ZrO}_2$  over the sum  $\text{SiO}_2 + \text{ZrO}_2$  led to the 65%  $\text{SiO}_2$ -35%  $\text{ZrO}_2$  composition used in the phase diagram (Figure 5).

Based on the information derived from the phase diagram note, a field of immiscibility opens when the temperature increases above  $2250^\circ\text{C}$ . Under such conditions, the dissolution of the liquid forming the inclusion into the silica-rich LDG melt was likely inhibited and, in turn, the crystallization kinetics during the cooling of the system determined the crystallization of dendritic zircon while suppressing other  $\text{ZrO}_2$  phases.

The ePDF data presented here show that the interstice-filling glass appears to be more relaxed in terms of Si-O bonds relative to the LDG glass matrix. For crystalline phases, Si-O bond lengths vary across different silica polymorphs, such as quartz (1.59–1.62 Å, e.g., Kihara, 1990; Wei, 1935; Wyckoff, 1926), tridymite (1.56–1.60 Å, Dollase, 1967; Graetsch, 2001; Hirose et al., 2005), cristobalite (1.60–1.61 Å, Dollase, 1965; Peacor, 1973; Pluth et al., 1985), and coesite (1.60–1.61 Å, Angel et al., 2003; Levien & Prewitt, 1981). The Si-O bond distance observed in the LDG matrix corresponds to the lower limit of those crystalline phases, while the interstice-filling glass is in excess with respect to this limit (within the accuracy of the electron diffraction measurements mentioned above).

According to our model, the interstice-filling glass is intimately associated with the formation of the zircon inclusion from the immiscible liquid droplet and underwent the same thermal history. We believe that this interstitial glass solidified after the crystallization of the dendritic zircon, thereby explaining its chemical composition enriched in  $ZrO_2$  (~2 wt%) and  $Al_2O_3$  (~1 wt%), as determined by TEM-EDS analyses (Table 1). While the relative high concentration in  $ZrO_2$  can be explained by the incomplete crystallization of the zircon melt derived from the melting of the precursor grain (or grain aggregate), the higher abundance of  $Al_2O_3$  is explained by the incompatibility of Al in the zircon structure and subsequent concentration at the melt interface. However, if the parent zircon grain was metamict, Al could be derived from it during recrystallization. The higher degree of relaxation of the interstice-filling glass compared to the glass matrix of the LDG may be related either to a relaxation upon shock unloading in an impact cratering context or, more likely, to an effect of the relatively high concentration of  $Al_2O_3$  in the interstitial melt, which lengthens the tetrahedron bonds.

In Figure 6, we propose a model for the formation of the dendritic zircon in LDG observed in this study. Our idea is that our LDG specimen samples a portion of the LDG precursor material consisting of quartz grains containing inclusions of, or mixed with, microscopic grains of zircon. This is in agreement with the current idea that the LDG precursor material was either a mature Cretaceous sandstone or its loose sediment degradation products derived from the erosion of Neoproterozoic intrusive igneous rocks (Sighinolfi et al., 2020). This material was subjected to a shock wave and during and after the shock unloading, post-shock temperatures reached very high values which brought the system above the liquidus of the  $ZrO_2$ - $SiO_2$  system, namely above 2250°C for composition between ~58% and ~78%  $SiO_2$  (which is the case of our system). Under such conditions,

all the system would be in a molten state and the immiscibility would have limited the dissolution of the liquid droplet produced by the melting of the zircon. The rapid cooling of this liquid would have led to the dynamic crystallization of zircon with a reticulate–cruciform texture, while kinetically suppressing the formation of other phases expected from the  $ZrO_2$ - $SiO_2$  phase diagram. The newly crystallized zircon would have taken most of the  $ZrO_2$  and part of  $SiO_2$  of the melt, rejecting incompatible components (such as  $Al_2O_3$ ) that were consequently concentrated in the melt. As a result, the interstitial glass became enriched in  $Al_2O_3$ , which explains the distances of tetrahedral oxygen retrieved by ePDF data. Alternatively, it may be possible that, during crystallization, the zircon adsorbed some of the silica present in the surrounding melt matrix. Then, the latter would have been Al-enriched compared to the LDG matrix glass.

The disequilibrium conditions of LDG formation are supported by the occurrence of compositional banding and partially decomposed mineral inclusions (e.g., Cavosie et al., 2022; Kleinmann, 1969; Pratesi et al., 2002). We believe that the crystallization of the zircon inclusion reported in this work is a process that occurred very rapidly, far from the thermodynamic equilibrium, that is, it is a kinetic rather than thermodynamic controlled process. The velocity of such crystallization was such that no intermediate phase such as zirconia and silica polymorphs (Kleinmann, 1969; Kovaleva et al., 2023) crystallized from the parent zircon during the cooling path of the system. This idea is supported by the fact that the incipient melting of zircon is considered an indicator of post-shock temperatures higher than 2000°C, as suggested by Hamann et al. (2016). In their impact experiments (two-stage light-gas gun) on a quartz sand target with accessory microscopic zircon grains, Hamann et al. (2016) show that a “zircon-melt” immersed in a silica matrix composed of both quartz and lechatelierite formed (see their figure 12a). The authors invoked pressure and temperature amplifications associated with the pore collapse process in the porous target used in their shock recovery experiments to account for the observed incipient melting of quartz and zircon along grain boundaries.

The high temperature in excess of 2050°C recorded by the dendritic zircon studied here could also be the result of localized temperature excursion due, for instance, to pore collapse. However, since no other dendritic zircon has been found in the extensive survey conducted by Cavosie and Koeberl (2019) on seven other specimens, it is also possible that our LDG specimen does sample a higher temperature impact melt batch. The latter possibility should be checked through careful investigation of other specimens.

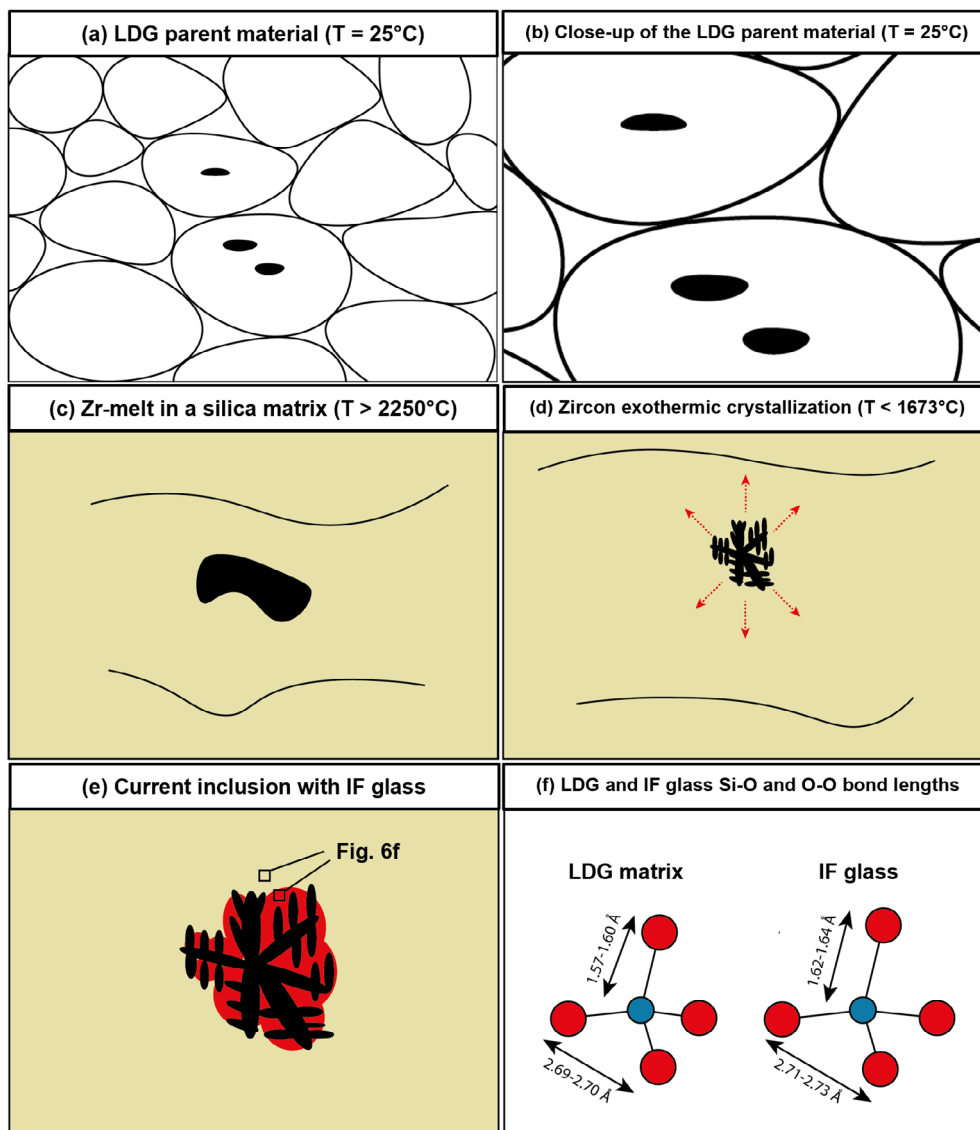


FIGURE 6. Schematic model for the formation of the dendritic zircon studied in this work. (a) Libyan Desert Glass (LDG) parent material at ambient temperature, before the LDG-forming event. White ellipses represent quartz grains; black ellipses indicate zircon grains. The temperature  $T$  is  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ . (b) Close-up of the LDG parent material shown in Figure 6a, showing quartz grains (white ellipses) and zircon grains (black ellipses). (c) Zirconium-melt (black pocket) immersed in a melt which results from the mixing of the Si melt derived from the incipient melting of the zircon grains and the LDG melt. (d) Very fast crystallization of zircon in disequilibrium conditions, which leads to a dendritic structure (black ellipses) and absence of intermediate  $\text{ZrO}_2$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  phases. Red dashed lines indicate the rejection of Al from the zircon structure. (e) Current state of the dendritic zircon inclusion. The red area surrounding some stems and arms of the dendritic zircon represents the interstice-filling glass (IF in the image text). (f) Schematic representation of the  $\text{TO}_4$  tetrahedron (in this case, we assume  $T = \text{Si}$ ) for the LDG matrix (left) and the IF glass (right), showing the different bond length values. Blue dots represent silicon atoms; red dots represent the oxygen atoms. [Correction added on 27 January 2026, after first online publication: Figure 6 has been updated in this version.] (Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com))

The thermal regime recorded by the dendritic zircon studied here is, however, in good agreement with the temperatures inferred from numerical simulations (Svetsov et al., 2020), which showed that, for different types of projectiles and entry angles and speeds, the impact melting of the LDG parent material occurred at temperatures higher than  $2000^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Svetsov et al. (2020)

proposed that such temperatures and the formation of LDG could be achieved during an airburst involving either a stony body ( $3.3 \text{ g/cm}^3$  density) with a diameter of 300 m, an entry speed of 35 km/s, and an entry angle of  $8^{\circ}$  or an icy ( $1 \text{ g/cm}^3$  density) body with diameters of 300, 200, and 150 m and entry speeds of 50, 70, and 70 km/s and entry angles of  $15^{\circ}$ ,  $30^{\circ}$ , and  $45^{\circ}$ , respectively.

Svetsov et al. (2020) also showed that such thermal regimes could be alternatively reached through the direct impact onto the Earth's crust of a stony projectile with a diameter of 300 m, an entry speed of 20 km/s, and an entry angle of 15°.

Our results, especially the temperature reached by the chemical system and the kinetics of heating/cooling rates, seem to fit well in an impact melting scenario, where disequilibrium conditions prevail. This work alone is unable to discriminate effectively if the LDG truly formed as a consequence of impact melting during impact cratering or during an airburst, for example, due to the lack of high-pressure evidence. However, it adds information regarding the conditions and mechanisms affecting minerals at the extreme thermal conditions under which the LDG formed.

## CONCLUSIONS

The studied zircon inclusion represents the first finding of a skeletal dendritic texture in zircon within LDG. Textural evidence, chemical data, and absence of intermediate ZrO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub> phases suggest that the zircon grain crystallized very rapidly from a liquid droplet formed by impact melting of a zircon grain (or grains aggregate), embedded in a quartz-dominated precursor material, partially mixed with the LDG melt. Crystallization occurred in conditions very far from thermodynamic equilibrium, as testified by the suppression of mineral phases that are expected from the ZrO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub> phase diagram. Our hypothesis is that the chemical system (zircon and LDG precursor rock, roughly in a ratio 2:1) reached a high temperature above the liquidus, namely above 2250°C, and directly transformed zircon into a melt. The preservation of the inclusion was possible because of the immiscibility between the liquid droplet from which the zircon inclusion formed and the LDG liquid. The disequilibrium crystallization of the zircon is attested by the exceptional abundance of trace elements in zircon and the higher concentration of incompatible components in the interstice-filling glass.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

**Figure S1.** Transmission electron microscopy-bright-field (TEM-BF) overview of the studied lamella.

**Table S1.** Energy-dispersive spectroscopy analysis performed on selected zircon crystals ( $n = 111$ ).

**Table S2.** Energy-dispersive spectroscopy analysis of Libyan Desert Glass matrix (LDG) and interstice-filling glass (IF) ( $n = 19$ ).