

Space environment of an asteroid preserved on micrograins returned by the Hayabusa spacecraft

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Records of micrometeorite collisions at down to submicron scales were discovered on dust grains recovered from near-Earth asteroid 25143 (Itokawa). Because the grains were sampled from very near the surface of the asteroid, by the Hayabusa spacecraft, their surfaces reflect the low-gravity space environment influencing the physical nature of the asteroid exterior. The space environment was examined by description of grain surfaces and asteroidal scenes were reconstructed. Chemical and O isotope compositions of five lithic grains, with diameters near 50 μm , indicate that the uppermost layer of the rubble-pile-textured Itokawa is largely composed of equilibrated LL-ordinary-chondrite-like material with superimposed effects of collisions. The surfaces of the grains are dominated by fractures, and the fracture planes contain not only sub- μm -sized craters but also a large number of sub- μm - to several- μm -sized adhered particles, some of the latter composed of glass. The size distribution and chemical compositions of the adhered particles, together with the occurrences of the sub- μm -sized craters, suggest formation by hypervelocity collisions of micrometeorites at down to nm scales, a process expected in the physically hostile environment at an asteroid's surface. We describe impact-related phenomena, ranging in scale from 10^{-9} to 10^4 meters, demonstrating the central role played by impact processes in the long-term evolution of planetary bodies. Impact appears to be an important process shaping the exteriors of not only large planetary bodies, such as the moon, but also low-gravity bodies such as asteroids.

impacts | sample-return mission | interplanetary dust | space weathering | comprehensive analysis

Solar bodies have evolved from dust to planets with interactions between dust and debris, and asteroids are considered intermediate products of this evolution. Asteroids were not melted and retain their primitive morphology and geochemistry, thus allowing us to investigate interactions between solids and the solar nebula. Meteorites are regarded as fragments of asteroids that fall to Earth's surface. However, information regarding the outer surface of asteroids is presumably destroyed during atmospheric entry, preventing examination of solar space-exposed exteriors of planetary bodies other than that of the moon sampled by the Apollo missions. Nearly all the materials now residing in the planets were processed through high-velocity impacts; however, previous investigation of collisional processes on low-gravity solar bodies has been limited to remote observations by satellites, with no direct sampling of such bodies.

The Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) conducted the Hayabusa mission with the goal of better understanding solar system evolution through direct sampling of an asteroid and return of the samples to Earth for detailed analytical work. A target was set to the near-Earth asteroid 25143 Itokawa, an example of a spectral type-S asteroid common in the inner part of the asteroid belt. On-site observations by the spacecraft showed that Itokawa is $550 \times 298 \times 224$ m in size and has rubble-pile structure with a density of 1.9 g/cm^3 and an escape velocity of 0.2 m/s (1). An onboard multiband camera (AMICA) imaged the solid exterior

of the asteroid and revealed a diversity of surface morphologies (2, 3). Based on topography and spectroscopic observations, a sampling location on a smooth terrain called Muses Sea was selected.

The original plan of the mission was to collect rocks from Itokawa's surface by an impact sampling method. However, at the time of the touchdown, no projectile was fired (4), resulting in only minimal sample recovery. Collection of material from very near the surface resulted from gentle flicking by the tip of the sampler horn. The sample capsule was returned to Earth on June 13, 2010, and opened at a JAXA curation facility. As a part of the mission, initial analyses of returned grains were carried out by several teams of researchers. One team reported on the general properties of the grains and concluded that the building blocks of the rubble pile were identical to those of equilibrated LL-ordinary chondrites with mild overprinting by "space weathering" (5–8). This conclusion is consistent with the spectroscopic observations made from Earth and by the Hayabusa spacecraft (9, 10); however, some key questions remain. What record of the environment at the asteroid exterior exists on the surface of grains deposited there and, more broadly, what were the most important processes shaping the postaccretion appearance of this asteroid? Nanometer-scale investigation of the surfaces of these micrograins can help us characterize the space environment of this and other asteroids, an important step toward more general understanding of impact phenomena in the inner solar system.

In this paper, we summarize the results of our comprehensive initial analysis of the sizes, morphology, mineralogy, and geochemistry of five lithic grains from Itokawa. We in particular focus on grain surfaces and report discoveries of (i) craters with diameters of 100–200 nm that provide direct evidence of sub- μm -scale bombardment at the asteroid surface, and (ii) objects adhered to the surfaces of these grains and representing high-velocity impacts. We suggest that the space environment alters asteroid surfaces by a combination of disaggregation, cratering, melting, adhesion, agglutination, and implantation/sputtering, all consequences of constant bombardment by nm- to μm -scale particles. Our observations regarding the sub- μm -scale physical and chemical changes on these grain surfaces help elucidate the process of space weathering that, at larger scales at an asteroid

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surface, produces a reddening and a reduction in band depth in spectroscopic observations.

Results

Mineralogical Properties of the Five Grains. The grains we investigated were 40–110 μm -sized, mono- or poly-phase fragments. Grains A–E surveyed in this study have JAXA-ID RA-QD02-0121, 0093, 0095, 0118, and 0116, respectively. All grains exhibit angular outlines and high surface relief. Grain A ($40 \times 30 \mu\text{m}$) consists of olivine and low-Ca pyroxene (Fig. 1A), with the olivine showing sets of sharply defined lamellae with widths at the sub- μm -scale (Fig. 1B). These lamellae could reflect high strain rates and high shear stresses associated with shock compression and have previously been referred to as shock lamellae (11). An object with a ropey fabric, observed on and along a crack crosscutting the lamellae, appears to have originated from melt (Fig. 1C). Grain B ($110 \times 90 \mu\text{m}$) is a fragment of a single olivine (Fig. 2A) with inclusions of oriented, very thin (10–20 μm), sub-parallel plates with the composition of plagioclase. This intergrowth resembles the “barred olivine” observed in chondrules (12) (Fig. 2B). A 1 μm -sized diopside is also included in this single olivine grain, and sub- μm -sized chromites are included in both the olivine and the plagioclase. Grain C ($70 \times 50 \mu\text{m}$) consists of diopside and plagioclase (Fig. 3A), with minor K-feldspar (Fig. 3B). A trail of microbowls crosscuts both the diopside and the plagioclase (Fig. 3C). These microbowls are filled with troilite, to varying degrees, perhaps reflecting some evaporation of troilite during thermal metamorphism. The plagioclase exhibits unusually low birefringence (Fig. 3B) suggesting that its structure is intermediate between crystalline and glassy. When observed in meteorites, such plagioclase is referred to as being diaplectic and indicative of shock metamorphism at certain impact pressures (13). The plagioclase in Grain C shows a sharp contact with diopside, likely reflecting formation by devitrification of chondrule glass during the thermal metamorphism (14). Grain D is a fragment ($50 \times 40 \mu\text{m}$) of low-Ca pyroxene for which no inclusions or

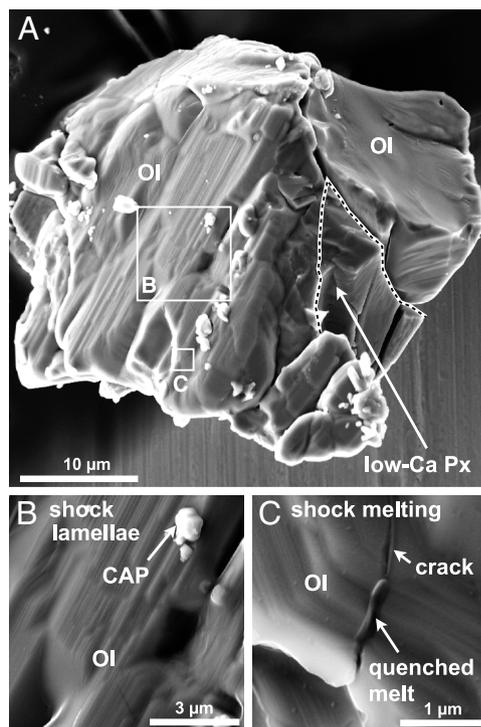


Fig. 1. Surface images obtained by SEM of Grain A with shock-induced textures. (A) The entire Grain A, indicating the locations for the higher-magnification images. (B) Shock lamellae developed on olivine (OI). (C) Quenched melt on and along a crack crosscutting the shock lamellae.

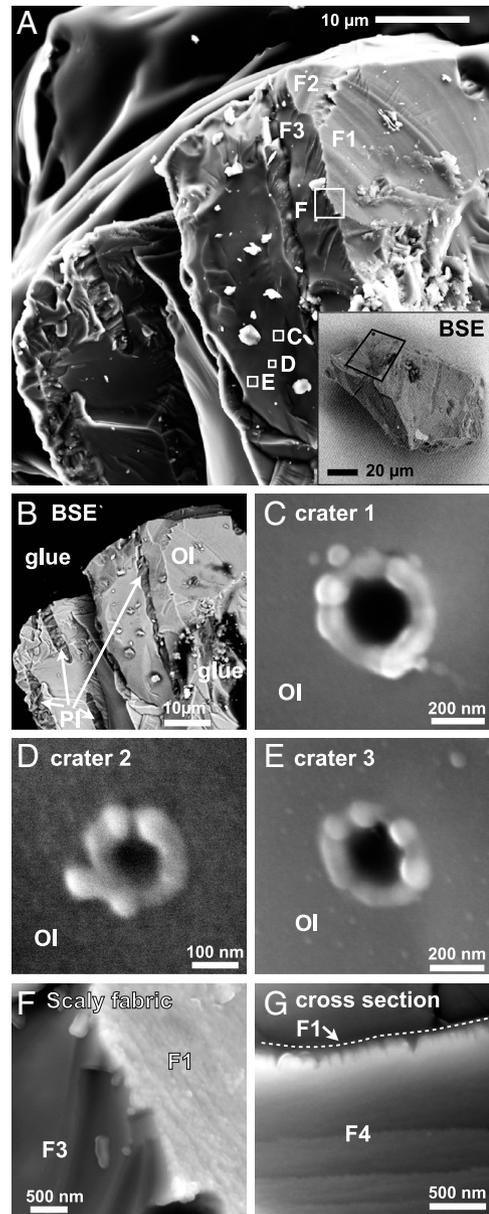


Fig. 2. Surface images (SEM unless otherwise specified) of Grain B with sub- μm -sized craters. (A) A part of Grain B, with the location on the complete grain indicated in the inserted BSE (back-scattered electron) image located in the SE part of the photograph. F1, F2, and F3 represent fracture planes, numbered in order of the relative timing of their formation (with F1 the earliest-form plane). (B) A BSE image of the region of (A), showing a barred-olivine texture. (C, D, E) Sub- μm -sized craters on OI substrate. A pit rim with chains of seven or eight spheres. (F) An intersection of F1 and F3 and a scaly fabric on F1. (G) A cross section of the scaly fabric showing the sawtooth morphology on F1.

shock-related textures were observed. For Grain E ($50 \times 40 \mu\text{m}$), which also consists of low-Ca pyroxene, only surface observations were undertaken (Fig. 4A).

Grains were cut into three pieces, by focused-ion beam methods (FIB), for the electron and ion microprobe analyses (Fig. 3A). The middle slabs with two very flat, planar surfaces were used for these analyses and the other pieces were preserved for future work. In situ O isotope analyses were carried out by secondary-ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) on Grains A–D. The analytical uncertainty of the individual analyses of unknowns is estimated from the spot-to-spot reproducibility (± 1 SD, standard deviation).

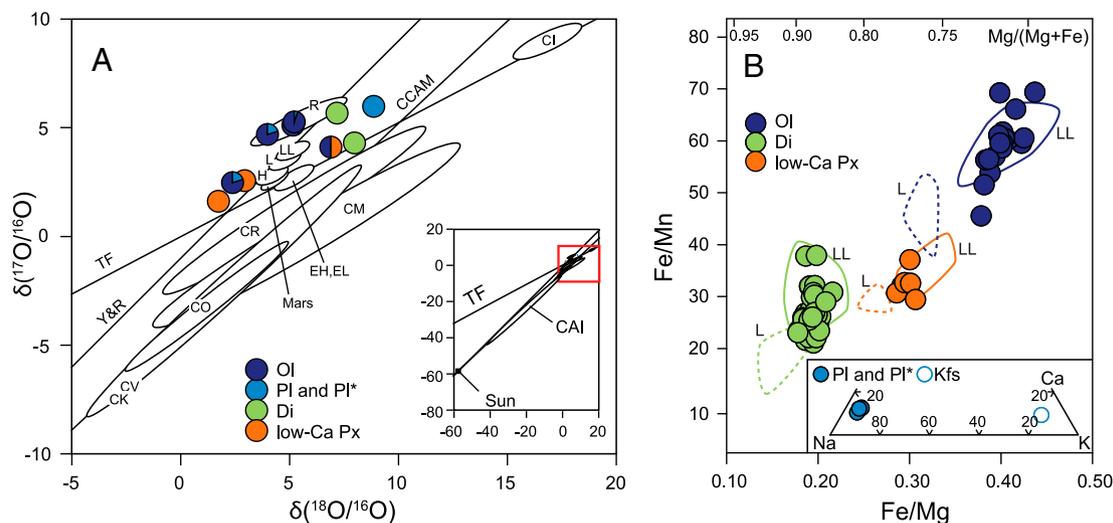


Fig. 5. Oxygen isotope and major element composition. (A) Oxygen three-isotope diagram showing silicate minerals collected by the Hayabusa spacecraft and representative compositions of major primary components of solar system matter. This plot includes bulk-rock data for refractory Ca-Al-rich inclusions (CAIs), carbonaceous, ordinary, enstatite, and R chondrites, and Mars. Ion microprobe data for OI, PI, Di, and low-Ca Px are indicated by the colored symbols (blue, light blue, green, and orange, respectively). Overlapping data for multiple phases are shown by the pie charts. The relative dimensions of the probed areas are expressed in the charts accordingly. The data for the minerals from Itokawa grains scatter around the range for whole-rock ordinary chondrites and form an elongated cluster with a slope of approximately 0.5. The means of the analyses for each phase fall into the region for LL-ordinary chondrites defined by Clayton (15). Variation observed in O-isotope compositions is consistent with that observed by Yurimoto, et al. (5) although they interpreted the variation as possibly reflecting analytical ambiguity. (B) A diagram to show relative abundance of Mg-Mn-Fe and Na-K-Ca of silicate minerals from Itokawa grains plotted with those in equilibrated (4–6) ordinary chondrites (L and LL).

larger than the 2‰ expected for equilibrium (18), the major element compositional variations and the record of shock-induced deformation preserved in the grains are similar to those noted for equilibrated LL-ordinary chondrites (14). Thus, together, our observations indicate that the uppermost layer of Itokawa's surface is dominantly composed of equilibrated LL-ordinary-chondrite-like material, a conclusion consistent with that of refs. 5, 6 based on study of other grains from Itokawa.

Grain-Surface Observations. Surfaces of the grains from Itokawa retain textures reflecting the environmental conditions that influenced the physical evolution of the asteroid exterior. The grain surfaces are dominated by fractures, and the fracture planes contain sub- μm -sized craters and adhered objects. These observations suggest the importance, at the asteroidal surface, of the destruction of larger-scale lithic materials by external forces such as repeated impact events. In this section, the craters and adhered objects are described in greater detail.

The occurrences of sub- μm -scale craters (100–200 nm in diameter), on the grain surfaces, provide a record of bombardment by nm-scale projectiles (Fig. 2 C–E). Unlike the μm -sized craters with spallation zones developed in lunar samples (19), the rims of the craters on the Itokawa grain consist of chains of seven or eight somewhat irregularly shaped spheres slightly overhanging the pit edges. X-ray mapping (SI Appendix, Fig. S7B) shows that the olivine substrates and the spheres are identical in major element composition, an observation consistent with spheres having been formed from melts of the olivine grains produced by the high-energy impacts. In the Itokawa grains, the bottoms of the pits were not observed. The diameters of the spheres are approximately half the diameters of the pits, thus the minimum depth of the pits can be calculated as being approximately equal to their diameters. Smaller spheres occur around one crater on a diopside substrate without a well developed rim (Fig. 3D), perhaps indicating that the mineralogy of the substrate dictates the morphology of the rim. Assuming that the projectile diameters were an order of magnitude smaller than the diameters of the pits (20) results in estimated projectile sizes of 10–20 nm. The lunar microcraters show a bimodal size distribution, which is attributed

from size of projectiles; craters larger than 5 μm are produced by particles spiraling into the Sun whereas the smaller ones are produced by particles propelled away from the Sun by radiation pressure (21). These smaller particles are referred to as β -meteoroids (traveling at >40 km/s) (22). However, radiation pressure for 10-nm-sized particles is orders of magnitude lower than that for typical β -meteoroids, and another physical process to accelerate nm-sized particles is required to explain the formation of the sub- μm -craters.

The adhered objects are another prominent feature of the grain surfaces (Figs. 3 E–I and 4 B and C). We categorize the adhered objects based on morphology as follows: (i) common adhered particles (CAPs; Fig. 3 E and F) making up 90% of the adhered object population and observed at the surfaces of all grains, (ii) molten splash-shape glasses (MSGs; Fig. 3 G–I) observed on Grains C and D, (iii) dome-outline objects (DOOs; Fig. 4B) that are relatively large (1–3 μm in diameter) and observed on Grain E, and (iv) particularly irregularly-shaped clots (PICs; Fig. 4C), aggregates of several lithic materials (two observed on Grain E only). Following are some preliminary interpretations of these widely varying textures.

The CAPs occur as subrounded or flake-like shapes ranging in size from sub- μm to 5 μm (but mostly approximately 1 μm in size). The CAPs are dominantly composed of individual silicate phases (olivine, low-Ca pyroxene, diopside, plagioclase, K-feldspar, and glass) with subordinate troilite, chromite, Cu-sulfide, and Ca-phosphates. Several of the CAPs are associated with multiple phases such as olivine, diopside, and plagioclase (Fig. 3F). The silicate mineral modes and chemical compositions of the CAPs are consistent with those of host grains, indicating that most CAPs are fragments of larger grains on Itokawa's surface probably formed by impacts. It is possible that some of the CAPs are of exotic origin because Cu-sulfide is not common in L- or LL-chondrites (23). The CAPs are rigidly fixed on surfaces, but the bonding agent remains uncertain. During the electron-probe work, the interactions of the electron beam with the CAPs did not displace them from the grain surfaces.

The MSGs (Fig. 3 G–I) exhibit irregular shapes (1–5 μm in size) with subcomponents in the shapes of teardrops or rounded

disks. MSGs often consist of overlapping layers and appear to wrap around CAPs (Fig. 3G). X-ray mapping (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7C*) shows that the MSGs and their substrates differ in major element composition. One rounded MSG contains degassing vesicles (Fig. 3H), an observation consistent with the origin of the MSGs as melts. The presence of subrounded features covering the edges of some grains (Fig. 3I) could suggest that melts approached the surface at significant velocity before solidification. Assuming blackbody thermal radiation, residence times for the melts can be roughly estimated to have been on the order of 10^{-3} s; therefore, it is likely that the melting occurred within m-scale distances from their adhesion sites.

The DOOs are characterized as having rounded morphologies. One DOO on Grain E (Fig. 4B) is clearly spheroidal, and this shape and its silica-rich composition ($\text{SiO}_2 \sim 70$ wt.%) suggest that it originated from a relatively viscous melt. Where the DOOs are connected to host objects, rounded sub- μm -sized, Fe-rich olivines are distributed in chain-like fashion. These olivines probably were crystallized from the host melt-spherule during cooling. Unlike for the MSGs, quenching and adhesion appears to have occurred simultaneously for the DOOs. It appears that the transport of silicate melts, likely induced by impacts, was common on the asteroidal surface.

The PIC developed on Grain E (Fig. 4C), 10 μm in its longer dimension, consists of multiple phases but is dominantly composed of sub- μm - to μm -sized merrillite and glass. Analyses of interstitial materials demonstrate that they are olivines and low-Ca pyroxenes (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8*). The textures and compositions of the PICs indicate that they represent quenched melt pools. Although the presence of the high-pressure polymorph of merrillite could not be confirmed by micro-Raman spectroscopy (*SI Appendix, Fig. S9*), it is likely that the PICs represent fragments of shock-induced veins, one of the major sites for merrillite observed in ordinary chondrites (24).

In one part of Grain B, three planes were defined based on morphological relationships as F1, F2, and F3, in chronological order assigned by textural observations (Fig. 2A). The oldest plane (F1) on olivine exhibits a scaly fabric (Fig. 2F). We accidentally produced an additional plane by fracturing during laboratory manipulations. This plane, F4, provides another view of the fabric on F1 (Fig. 2G). A sawtooth morphology is observed along F1, and the typical depth and pitch of the sawtooth are 50 and 100 nm, respectively. This sawtooth morphology, not a fracture, suggests on-going modification on F1, and the sharp-edged morphology at the interface suggests that the dominant process was sputtering rather than deposition. The morphology of the scaly fabric implies that surface modification is more effective on physically weaker features such as dislocations related to shock metamorphism. The scaly fabric on F1 suggests that the flux was relatively homogeneous, perhaps pointing to solar wind as the agent for producing this fabric.

Discussion

Asteroid's Surface—Comparison with Spectroscopy. Unprotected by a planetary magnetic field and atmosphere, an asteroid such as Itokawa is continually assailed by micrometeorites and solar wind. In larger-scale studies of asteroid surfaces, based on observations by spectroscopy, the term, space weathering, has become synonymous with darkening or a reduction in band depth in the spectroscopic observations (25). The darkening is thought to reflect the deposition of nano-phase iron on silicate minerals (26) and, accordingly, nano-phase iron particles were found on grains collected from Itokawa (7). Our observations on grain surfaces provide a first demonstration of the sub-micron-scale physical and chemical properties at asteroid exteriors and indicate that space weathering should be regarded as representing a combination of disaggregation, cratering, melting, adhesion, agglutination, and implantation/sputtering. The deposition of nano-phase

iron particles represents one result of this complex set of processes. We note that there are several differences in the factors leading to impact features on asteroids and on the Moon, including micrometeorite impact-velocity, surface mineralogy, and particle-size distributions (27).

Although the number of grains examined here was limited to five, many smaller objects were adhered to the grains' surfaces. As described earlier, most of adhered objects were formed during impacts and are likely representative of the asteroid's surface. We examined 914 adhered objects, randomly chosen from the five grains, for their size and chemical composition. The slope of the cumulative size-distribution, for CAPs as solid fragments with sub- μm to several- μm sizes, is -2.31 regardless of the mineralogy of the fragments (Fig. 6; *Dataset S1*). This slope is similar to the slope of -2.5 expected for a collisional equilibrium distribution with a mass-independent catastrophic disruption threshold (28). MSGs and DOOs with melt morphology clearly show size distributions different from that for fragments of solids. Differences in these distributions reflect the differing physical properties of the ejecta. The evidence for shock-induced melting suggests impact pressures of 50 to 70 GPa, corresponding to projectile velocities of 5 to 10 km/s (29). Based on semiquantitative analyses, each phase of the 914 objects was determined following an algorithm considering contribution of substrate (*SI Appendix, Fig. S11*), and modal abundances of the major silicates were estimated to be 32, 23, 16, 3.9, 1.2, and 25 vol.% for olivine, low-Ca pyroxene, plagioclase, diopside, K-feldspar, and glass, respectively (*SI Appendix, Table S10*). Onboard X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy inferred that the element ratios of Mg/Si and Al/Si of Itokawa's exterior are 0.78 ± 0.09 and 0.07 ± 0.03 , respectively (10), and these ratios are very similar to our ratios of 0.72 and 0.08. Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) provided an olivine/(olivine + pyroxene) modal ratio of 0.7 to 0.8 for the average surface material of Itokawa (9), and this is significantly higher than the estimate of 0.5 resulting from our analysis. A laboratory simulation using ordinary chondrite suggested that impact melting and subsequent crystallization can modify the spectra (30). In our study, a considerable number of glassy particles were observed

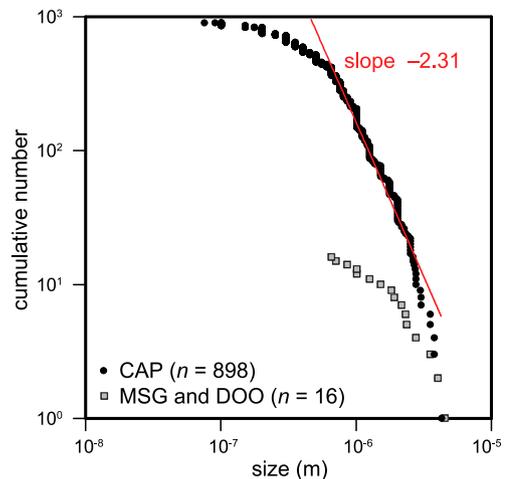


Fig. 6. Cumulative size distribution of solid fragments and quenched melt droplets. Mean of major- and minor-axes of adhered objects randomly chosen was evaluated (*Dataset S1*). On the log-log plot where grain size is larger than $0.7 \mu\text{m}$, quenched melt droplets (MSGs and DOOs, $n = 16$) yield a slope shallower than that estimated from solid fragments (CAPs, $n = 898$). The distribution could be obtained by the splash of melt droplets associated with the shock-induced melting on Itokawa. In the same range, a best-fit slope for solid fragments yields -2.31 (red line). Particles smaller than approximately $1 \mu\text{m}$ are underrepresented because of their size, therefore, the obtained slope would be somewhat underestimated. The slope suggests catastrophic fragmentation processes by collision cascades might play important role for the evolution of Itokawa's surface.

on the grain surfaces and the absorption effect of these glassy materials is likely underestimated in the previous model based on NIRS results.

Reconstructed Evolution of an Asteroid. Our observations regarding textures, mineralogy, and geochemistry of the Itokawa grains, together with the results of other recent and ongoing studies, allow a tentative reconstruction of the evolution of Itokawa. A K-feldspar included within plagioclase is regarded as an exsolved phase formed during moderately slow-cooling from the peak metamorphic temperature of 860 °C indicated by the equilibrated major element compositions. However, because of the slower diffusion of O relative to that of the major elements, this metamorphism event did not completely erase the O isotope signatures possibly inherited from the building blocks of the asteroid. This inferred thermal history implies the existence of a larger, pre-Itokawa body. An asteroid radius of several tens of km is required to raise temperatures, by decay of short-lived nuclides, sufficiently to equilibrate silicate major element compositions at temperatures near 900 °C (31). Such temperatures cannot have been attained on the current Itokawa, with its radius of only 300 m. Shock-induced properties such as shock lamellae and diaplectic plagioclase, and the occurrences of PICs, could be indicative of the collisional break-up of a larger asteroid body, the fragments from which were accreted to form the current Itokawa.

It is difficult to ascertain the exact characteristics of the projectiles whose impacts shaped Itokawa's surface; however, the projectiles must have impacted at a significant range of "hypervelocities" to create the nano-size craters and produce adhered objects, including melts, in the inferred sustained fashion. Because of the low escape velocity on Itokawa and on other similar bodies, it is likely that such asteroids are major sources of interplanetary dust particles.

We suggest that the chemistry and textures of Itokawa's surface reflect long-term bombardment of equilibrated chondritic mate-

rial, at scales of 10^{-9} to 10^4 meters, and that impact processes in general play a central role in the evolution of planetary bodies. Further surface observations on grains returned by Hayabusa will add statistical significance to the insights regarding solid-to-solid interactions fundamental to our understanding of asteroid accretion and, more broadly, the formation and evolution of interplanetary objects. Needless to say, sampling on other asteroids, and acquisition of age constraints for these bodies, should be the next major conquest.

Materials and Methods

All analyses were undertaken at the Pheasant Memorial Laboratory with nm-scale sample handling capability in part demonstrated by Nakamura, et al. (32). During our study of the Hayabusa grains, we (i) determined optical properties, (ii) described surface textures and identified constituent phases using a field-emission-type scanning electron microscope (SEM), (iii) produced slabbed samples of the grains using a FIB, (iv) investigated major element compositions by electron-microprobe techniques, and (v) performed *in situ* analyses, including measurements of O-isotope composition, by SIMS. In this paper, we in particular focused on the grain surface morphology and mineralogy reflecting the physical environment at the asteroidal surface. Greater detail regarding this work is provided in the *SI Appendix*, file linked to the online version of this paper. This file provides Supplemental Methods, Discussion, Tables, Figures, and References related to this initial analysis, including trace-element compositions obtained by SIMS.

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Supporting Information

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SI Methods

Overview. The grains surveyed in this study were collected from the Hayabusa sample-container in a curation facility in Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA), Kanagawa, Japan, and transported to Misasa, Tottori. During the trip, each grain was enclosed in a transport case designed specifically for this purpose (see description below). The five grains have JAXA-IDs such as RA-QD02-0121, 0093, 0095, 0118, and 0116, but are hereafter referred to as Grains A–E. Grains A, D, and E arrived in Misasa on May 2, 2011 and the others arrived on April 14, 2011. Procedures undertaken on these grains include sample preparation, surface observation, and chemical examination (*i.e.*, initial analyses), all carried out at the Pheasant Memorial Laboratory (PML; after Nakamura et al., 2003).³²

After arrival to PML, in which ultraclean conditions are maintained, preliminary observations for each grain were undertaken using optical microscopes. Following the work on optical properties, each grain was transferred from the case to a substrate plate, then prepared (glued) for surface observations using a field-emission-type scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM). The grains were carbon (C) coated and surface texture was described by a FE-SEM and micro-Raman spectroscopy. Semi-quantitative analyses of the constituent phases and adhered objects were performed on the FE-SEM by energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). Then the grains were sliced into three slabs using a focused-ion beam (FIB) technique. The middle slabs with two flat planes were embedded in an indium (In) pool on an aluminum (Al) disk for further quantitative analyses.

The uppermost layer on each mount was gently polished off then the new surface was acid-leached to minimize contamination during the preparation. After coating with 5 nm of gold (Au), major-element compositions were determined using an electron microprobe analyzer (EMPA). After an additional 60 nm Au coating was added, O isotope composition and trace-element abundances were determined by secondary-ion mass-spectrometry (SIMS).

In this section, the methodology for each step, mentioned above, is described in detail.

Containers for sample transport. We designed a three-fold case assembly to transport the grains from JAXA to PML. An outermost shell consists of a polystyrene box (commercially available as BOXEL, Japan Plus Co. Ltd., Japan) with two polyurethane elasticized membranes inside. By packing the contents with these membranes, the inner contents were tightly held and cushioned in the box and protected from dust, moisture, and shock.

In this box, a pair of petri dishes made of Pyrex (ϕ 56 mm) functioned as an inner shell (Fig. S1a). A smaller dish was used as a lid for the larger dish. A Viton[®] O-ring was positioned between the dishes as a seal. An annular-shaped glass plate was located inside this O-ring to hold an innermost container holding the sample. The sample container is a disk made of quartz glass (ϕ 25 mm, height 5 mm). At the center of the disk, a pit (ϕ 8 mm) with flat bottom (depth 1 mm) was produced, and a grain was stored in this space (Fig. S1b). A lid made of quartz glass covers the pit, and a plastic spring was located in between the smaller

petri dish and the lid to ensure a seal in the container (Fig. S1a).

The sample container, a disk with a pit, was polished using a 0.05- μ m alumina paste. Then the glassware, including the sample container, lid, and petri dishes, were washed twice using the following solutions at 80–90 °C for \geq 12 hours: alkali detergent (5 vol.% TMSC[®]; Tama Chemical Co. Ltd., Japan), and aqua regia (made of EL grade HCL and HNO₃; Kanto Chemical Co. Ltd., Japan). After the polishing and after each washing, the glassware was cleaned by agitation for 1 hour in an ultrasonic bath (UT-600; Sharp Manufacturing Systems Co. Ltd., Japan) with water of >18 M Ω (Milli-Q[®]; Millipore Co. Ltd., USA), then dried in a clean bench.

After the cleaning, the surface condition of the pits in the disk was evaluated by SEM. Pieces of quartz glass, likely fragments of the disk, were removed with efficiency of \sim 80% (initial abundance was 50–100 fragments per pit) by this cleaning. The presence of these remaining pieces (\sim 20% on average) did not hamper identification of the Itokawa grains, which were several tens of μ m in size.

To minimize static electricity, the outsides of the disks, the bottoms of the pits, and the lids were coated with 80, 20, and 10 nm of Au, respectively. This Au coating did not significantly alter the transparency of the containers to visible light.

Optical microscopy. The grains in the sample containers, and a slab fabricated from the grains in the In pools, were characterized by optical microscopy, using both transmitted and reflected light. The initial observations characterized each grain as being a silicate phase with opaque inclusions. During a second stage of this optical work, the slabs had thicknesses of \sim 15 μ m and were embedded in the In pool, thus we could obtain polarized- and reflected-light images to evaluate the crystallography of the mineral. We used a Leica Polarizing Microscope DM2500P and a Keyence Digital Microscope VHX-1000 with a VH-Z100UR lens. The grain sizes were determined using the software built into the VHX-1000.

Local sample transfer. After the optical observations were made, each grain was transferred from the container onto a molybdenum (Mo) substrate plate, in a clean bench, using a micro-manipulator system that consists of an oil hydraulic manipulator (Narishige Co. Ltd., Japan) and an optical microscope (model Eclipse FN1; Nikon Co. Ltd., Japan). A needle of clean borosilicate glass, with a tip diameter of 10 μ m, was employed for this manipulation to minimize the potential for breaking the grain. Electrostatically, the tip was floated and the container was grounded; this combination passively controlled the electrostatic potential of the tip. A spot of glycol phthalate dissolved in acetone was placed on the plate. The grain was placed on this spot, using the micro-manipulator system, and thus glued onto the substrate. The substrate, with the grain glued onto it, was kept overnight in a box in the clean bench to allow transpiration of the acetone solvent.

Fabrication of grains and preparation of mounts. For a sample-return mission, maintaining the possibility for future repeats of analyses is as important as the initial characterization of the

grains. Thus, we sliced each grain into three pieces; a middle slab was used for our initial study and the other two slabs were stored for future investigation. Focused ion-beam methods (FIB) were applied for the nm-scale site-specific manipulation, using a JEOL JIB-4500 system equipped with a gallium (Ga) ion-gun for sample fabrication, and with the capability of making in-situ observations using a scanning electron beam. Each grain on the Mo substrate was directly loaded into the FIB system. A focused 30 kV Ga⁺ ion-beam with a current intensity of 10 nA was employed for slicing of the samples. Sample loss with the slicing was typically a ~3 μm wide zone (Fig. 3a inset, Fig. S2). The thicknesses of the middle pieces (target slabs) were 10–15 μm, of sufficient thickness for the later ion microprobe work.

Using the micro-manipulator system, the fabricated slab was transported from the Mo substrate onto an In pool (φ 5 mm) in an Al disk (φ 25 mm, height 5 mm), along with the reference materials, to minimize analytical uncertainty in *in-situ* O isotope determination related to sample location and topography and electrostatic instability.³³ A separate mount was prepared for each slab sliced from an Itokawa grain. A slab of sample and the reference materials were pressed within the center of the disk, on an In pool, to adjust their surface “elevation” to within 3 μm of the surfaces of the disks (Fig. S3).

To evaluate the sample topography effect, and to ensure accuracy in the O isotope analyses by SIMS, an olivine grain separated from a pallasite, with known O isotope compositions, and a working reference material were embedded within 1 mm lateral distance on an In pool. After an instrumental drift correction using the working reference material, the shift in the δ(¹⁸O/¹⁶O) of the pallasite relative to the known value was 0.4%, comparable to the reproducibility for the working standard. Thus we located sample slabs at the center of the In pools and the reference materials within 1 mm distance of the sample slabs. Reference materials were prepared as follows; (1) thin sections with dimensions of 10 × 10 × 0.1 mm were made for each reference material, (2) these thin sections were polished to reduce surface roughness to less than 0.5 μm, and (3) the thin sections were cut into ~200 μm pieces with a programmable dicing saw, DAD522 (Disco Ltd. Co., Japan). The geochemical properties of the reference materials are listed in Table S5.

In order to remove Ga that precipitated on the slab surfaces during FIB operation, the slabs and diced pieces of the reference materials, embedded together on the In pool with an Al disk, were polished for 10 hours employing a vibratory polisher VibroMet 2 (Buehler, USA) using a polishing cloth MD-Nap (Struers, Denmark) and 0.05-μm alumina-paste. The polished samples were acid-leached with 0.5M HNO₃ and 0.003M HF, for 15 seconds each, to chemically remove surface contamination. Finally, the mounts were coated with 5 nm of Au to prevent charging during the electron microprobe analyses.

Scanning electron microscopic imaging. Before the sample fabrication, surface textures of the grains were observed using a FE-SEM, JEOL JSM-7001F equipped with EDS, Oxford INCA X-Max and X-act energy dispersive X-ray spectrometers. Each grain fixed on a Mo substrate with glycol phthalate was coated with 6 nm of C to prevent charging during the analysis. To observe as many adhered objects on a grain as possible, nearly the entire grain surfaces except for the bottom planes were explored applying a 50° stage tilting combined a 360° stage rotation. The imaging was performed at a 10 kV acceleration voltage and a 1 nA beam current. Quantitative analyses of grain-constituent

phases were conducted using a 10 kV acceleration voltage, a 3 nA beam current, and a 75 s integration time. For the adhered objects, the analyses were performed at a 10 kV acceleration voltage and a 0.3 nA beam current. In quantitative analyses, the XPP method³⁴ was employed for matrix corrections.

The slabs were also investigated using the FE-SEM with a 5 nm thick Au coat, (e.g., Fig. S4). The acceleration voltage and beam current were maintained at 15 kV and 3 nA, respectively. Using this configuration, X-ray maps were obtained for all of the sliced slabs over a 0–10 keV range with 2,000 channels.

Micro-Raman spectroscopy. Confocal micro-Raman spectroscopy was undertaken in order to examine the structural properties of the peculiar phosphate mineral in the PICs adhered onto the surface of Grain E (Fig. 4c). The sample grain on the Mo plate was positioned under a DXR Raman microscope (Thermo Scientific Inc., USA). A 532 nm solid-state laser with a 10 mW power was used as the light source and a spatial resolution of ~0.7 μm was maintained using a 100× objective lens (N.A. = 0.90). Estimated resolution of the Raman shift obtained was 2.7–4.2 cm⁻¹ against the 50–3,500 cm⁻¹ collection range. Analytical exposure time for each spot was 10 s. Although it was difficult to identify each individual grain under the optical microscope, the significant species of Raman spectra were obtained by applying a 1 μm-step Raman spectroscopy mapping technique.

In-situ major elements analysis. Major-element abundances of phases in the slabs (except for the diaplectic plagioclase) were determined using the EMPA, JEOL JXA-8800R. The quantitative analyses were performed with a 15 kV acceleration voltage and a 12 nA beam current resulting in a 3 μm spot diameter. The oxide ZAF method was employed for matrix corrections and natural and synthetic silicate and oxide minerals were used for calibrations. To avoid the volatilization of Na that occurs during EMPA analyses, diaplectic plagioclase and associated K-feldspar of Grain C were analyzed by EDS using the FE-SEM. The analytical procedure for use of the FE-SEM with EDS was the same as that described above. Results of these analyses are provided in Fig. 5b and Table S1.

In-situ oxygen isotopes analysis. Oxygen isotope compositions were determined in-situ by SIMS using a Cameca ims-1270. A primary Cs⁺ ion beam was accelerated to 10 keV and impacted the sample with an energy of 20 keV. Negatively charged secondary ions were accelerated to -10 keV with an energy band-pass width of 40 eV. A normal incident electron flood gun was used for charge compensation with homogeneous electron density over a circular region with 75 μm diameter.

After the characterization of the polished surface by FE-SEM, the sample surface was coated with an additional 60 nm of Au. A 200 pA Cs⁺ primary ion beam was focused to a diameter of 3–4 μm and rastered over a 7 × 7 μm area for 140 s to condition the area of interest. Then the rastered dimensions were reduced to 5 × 5 μm for centering of the secondary beam in an optical gate, followed by mass calibration for 50 s, then data collection for 600 s resulting in an 8 × 8 μm sputtered crater. Secondary ion intensities of ¹⁶O⁻, ¹⁷O⁻, and ¹⁸O⁻ were determined simultaneously in multi-collection mode. The ions of isotopes ¹⁶O⁻ and ¹⁸O⁻ were collected with a Faraday cup and an electron multiplier (EM), respectively, with mass resolving power (*m/Δm*) of 2,400, whereas ions ¹⁷O⁻ were collected with the axial EM with *m/Δm* of 7,000 sufficient to eliminate the interfering ¹⁶OH⁻ signal. Typical count

rates for $^{16}\text{O}^-$, $^{17}\text{O}^-$, and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ were 3.8×10^7 , 1.5×10^4 , and 7.5×10^4 counts per second, respectively. The analytical conditions are summarized in Table S2.

The O isotope ratios ($^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$) and ($^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$) are reported in notations of $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ and $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$, normalized to Vienna standard mean ocean water (VSMOW). We report ^{16}O enrichments relative to the terrestrial fractionation (TF) line as $\Delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}) \equiv \delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}) - 0.52 \times \delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$. The relatively high count-rate of the $^{18}\text{O}^-$ signal produces a loss in gain due to aging of the first dynode of the EM. The high voltage of the EM was adjusted when necessary to maintain a constant pulse-height distribution. Instrumental mass fractionation (IMF), including mass discrimination and drift of the gain in EMs, was estimated by analyzing a working standard for every two unknown analyses. During a single session, drift of the IMF with time was estimated for both $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ and $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$. The isotope ratios that were obtained were then corrected to compensate for the analytical artifact contributed from this temporal shift. Differences in mass discrimination owing to the differing mineralogy of the target phase, referred to as the “matrix effect,” still remained. To properly estimate the matrix effect requires reference materials with the crystal structure and major-element composition of the target “unknown” phase. We prepared a series of olivines, pyroxenes, and synthetic glasses (the latter with the composition of plagioclase) and the O isotope compositions of these materials were determined by gas-source mass-spectrometry (MAT 253, Thermo Scientific, USA) employing CO_2 laser fluorination extraction methods (data presented in Table S5).

The matrix effect for the target phase was estimated relative to that for the working standard and is believed to result in little shift in $\Delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$. As noted above, isotope ratios obtained for the target phases were first calibrated using the working standard, then an additional correction for the matrix effect was applied as $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}) = \delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})^* + \alpha$, where $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})^*$ was an isotope ratio calibrated using the working standard and α is the matrix effect for the phase of interest relative to the working standard. The α applied for each phase was determined during each session. San Carlos olivine (fo_{91}), KLB1 clinopyroxene ($\text{wo}_{46}\text{en}_{49}$), KLB1 orthopyroxene ($\text{wo}_2\text{en}_{88}$), and synthesized albite glass (ab_{100}) were embedded along with each slab of an Itokawa grain on its In pool.

For the O isotope measurements, each grain slab was analyzed in a single session, typically with 10 repeated acquisitions for the standard, San Carlos olivine. Typical external precision for the standard during a given session (1 standard deviation; 1SD) was 0.5‰ for both $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ and $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$, and internal precision ($1\sigma_{\text{mean}}$) was 0.2 and 0.4‰ for $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ and $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$, respectively. Uncertainties in the $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ measurements are largely due to counting statistics whereas the uncertainties in the $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$ measurements are mainly produced by drift in the EM gain.

After the ion microprobe analyses, the analyzed phases on the sample surface were characterized by FE-SEM using an acceleration voltage of 3 kV and without additional Au coating. For a SIMS analysis that sampled two phases, the relative proportions of the phases in that measurement were thus estimated. Corrections to the matrix effect were applied, assuming that the contributions to the matrix effects by the two phases were proportional to their relative volumetric proportions. Locations of the analyses and the O isotope compositions of those spots are provided in Figs. 5a, S5, and Table S3.

In-situ trace elements analysis. After the *in-situ* O isotope analyses, the abundances of H, Li, B, F, Na, Al, P, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Mn, Ni, Sr, Y, Zr, Nb, Ba, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Dy, Er, Yb, Lu, and Hf were determined by SIMS using a modified Cameca ims-5f. For optimal determinations of these abundances, the elements are divided into four groups such as “HALOGEN (F, P, and Cl),” “LIGHT (H, Li, and B),” “MAJOR-MINOR (Na, Al, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Mn, and Ni),” and “RARE-EARTH (Sr, Y, Zr, Nb, Ba, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Dy, Er, Yb, Lu, and Hf).” The analyses for each group were performed sequentially, for the same sample spots, using four different configurations (Table S4).

Primary O^- or Cs^+ ion beams were accelerated to -12.5 or $+10$ keV to impact the samples with energies of -17 or $+14.5$ keV, respectively. The elements concerned were positively or negatively accelerated to $+4.5$ or -4.5 keV. When negative ions were collected, a normal incident electron flood gun was used for charge compensation with homogenous electron density over a circular region with $75 \mu\text{m}$ diameter. Then the ion intensities for the elements relative to the intensity for Si were determined by magnetic peak-jumping employing an electron multiplier.

To convert from a relative ion intensity obtained on a sample $I(\text{X}^+)/I(\text{Si}^+)$ to an elemental abundance $[\text{X}]$, we first estimated a relative ion yield against Si for the element $Y(\text{X}) \equiv \{I(\text{X}^+)/I(\text{Si}^+)\} / \{n(\text{X})/n(\text{Si})\}$, by analyzing a series of reference materials with known abundance, where X, I, and n correspond to the element being considered, ion intensity, and number of atoms in a unit mass, respectively. Using $Y(\text{X})$, the SiO_2 abundance determined by other techniques, and $I(\text{X}^+)/I(\text{Si}^+)$, we obtained an elemental abundance $[\text{X}]$. Conversion from ion intensity to elemental abundance on “RARE-EARTH” was slightly more complicated because of significant contributions by oxide interference (e.g., $^{16}\text{X}^+$ has an interference $^{16}\text{ZO}^+$). To overcome this problem, we analyzed a series of reference materials having different $[\text{X}]/[\text{Z}]$ and estimated the relative oxide-ion yield $\Psi(\text{Z}) \equiv \{I(\text{ZO}^+)/I(\text{Si}^+)\} / \{n(\text{Z})/n(\text{Si})\}$ as demonstrated in Table S6. Chemical compositions of the reference materials were determined with a thermal-conversion elemental-analyzer and gas-source mass spectrometry (for H), by pyrohydrolysis with ion chromatography (for halogens³⁵), by wet chemistry with inductively-coupled-plasma mass-spectrometry (for trace elements including rare-earth elements^{36,37,38,39}), or by EMPA (for the rest of the elements that were analyzed). Chemical compositions of all reference materials used to calibrate element abundances are listed in Table S5.

When necessary, before analyses, the mounts were polished with a vibratory polisher, for a few hours, to get a flat surface, then acid-leached as described above, then re-coated with 60 nm of Au. Except in the “RARE-EARTH” configuration, a primary beam with typical diameter of $4 \mu\text{m}$ was scanned over a $5 \times 5 \mu\text{m}$ area, resulting in a $10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}$ sputtered area less than 1 μm in depth. To minimize contamination from the edge of the sputtered area, an optical gate (field aperture) was inserted, and only secondary ions from the center part, corresponding to a diameter of $8 \mu\text{m}$ on the sample surfaces, were transferred into the mass spectrometer. Because the craters created in the “RARE-EARTH” analyses had diameters of $10 \mu\text{m}$ and depths of $6 \mu\text{m}$, the “RARE-EARTH” analyses were carried out only after all of the other SIMS analyses.

Detection sensitivity (DS) was calculated from the background signal as follows: $DS \equiv I_{\text{BKG}} + 3\sigma_{\text{BKG}}$, where I_{BKG} and σ_{BKG} correspond to the mean and one standard deviation of the background signal, respectively. The detection sensitivity is convert-

ed into corresponding element abundance and referred to as the detection limit (*DL*) for each session. During the SIMS sessions, I_{BKG} was significant (1–2 cps), except for the “RARE-EARTH” sessions, for which they were ~0.03 cps. Note that the detection limits for H₂O, P₂O₅, NiO, and B are significantly higher than for the other elements.

Uncertainties were estimated from analyses of reference materials and considered the following: (1) in-run precision (internal precision), (2) among-run reproducibility (external precision), and (3) deviation of self-calibrated abundances, from the reference values (accuracy of calibration curve). These three contributions are comparable in magnitude, and total analytical uncertainties for the trace element analyses would be estimated as 10–20%. However, for some elements, the third ambiguity was notable, significantly increasing the uncertainty. Note that the total analytical uncertainties for H₂O, Na₂O, and MnO are significantly higher than for the other elements.

Analytical results, including the spot locations, relative yields for the target ions, and total analytical uncertainties for the target elements are provided in Tables S6–S7 and Figs. S5–S6.

SI Discussion

Pictorial explanations of each grain. Selected images particularly important for support of the conclusions made in this article are provided in Fig. 3 and Fig. S7. Optical observations provide first-order information regarding grain appearance (morphology), optical property (*e.g.*, pleochroism, anisotropism, birefringence), and internal structure (*e.g.*, mineral inclusions, lamellae, cracks). Electron microscopy provides further detailed information regarding the grain surface, with images of the grains showing multiple stages of fracturing/rupturing, in some cases with overprinting relationships that allow placement into a relative time sequence. Typical morphological features include fractures (linear to conchoidal), micro-cracks, voids, and impact craters. Adhered objects on the grain surfaces are a particularly prominent morphological feature.

Adhered phosphate. A block-like mineral aggregate of one of the PICs (dimensions 10 × 5 μm) is composed of Ca-phosphate, glass, olivine and low-Ca pyroxene (Fig. 4c, Fig. S7e(ix) and Fig. S8). Semi-quantitative analyses of Ca-phosphates by FE-SEM with EDS indicated a chemical formula identical to that of merrillite,⁴⁰ Ca₃MgNa(PO₄)₇ (Table S9). Micro-Raman spectroscopy was applied in order to clarify the crystallographic structure of this Ca-phosphate. A Raman spectrum obtained for an occurrence in one of the PICs is shown in Fig. S9. This spectrum shows remarkable absorptions at 976 and 961 cm⁻¹, indicating the ν₁ symmetric stretching mode of PO₄³⁻ ions.⁴¹ Other diagnostic absorptions, such as at 1083, 450, 412 cm⁻¹, and some other minor peaks, are identical to those of merrillite with γ-Ca₃(PO₄)₂ structure as reported in ordinary chondrites.^{24,40,42}

Two different occurrences of merrillite have thus far been reported in ordinary chondrites: (1) as one of the mineral phases associated with glass in shock-induced melt-veins,^{24,40,43} and (2) as a phase associated with Fe-Ni metals and Fe sulfide resulting from exsolution and re-crystallization from metal phases during thermal metamorphism.^{44,45} In this study, the Raman spectroscopy of merrillite in the PICs did not show a signature of the high-pressure polymorph of Ca-phosphate (γ-Ca₃(PO₄)₂ structure),^{40,43} however the merrillites are associated with ~1 μm-sized silicate minerals and glass, not with Fe-Ni metal and Fe sulfide,

implying melt during rapid cooling. These petrographic features reveal that merrillites in the PICs crystallized from silicate melt pools in the proto-Itokawa body, an origin that has also been suggested for shock-induced veins in ordinary chondrites, but the shock-induced, high-pressure characteristics of the merrillites have not been retained. The lack of these characteristics could be the consequence of annealing of the high-pressure phase at lower pressure conditions during multiple events over Itokawa's long history.

Modal analysis of adhered objects. Individual adhered objects were characterized using FE-SEM equipped with EDS capability. Note that the morphological categories of adhered objects are CAP, MSG, DOO, and PIC, as described in detail in this article. For the 914 adhered objects, properties such as size, composition, and morphological category are summarized in the SI Dataset.

Because the spatial resolution of the EDS analyses is limited to a few μm, the compositions that were determined for these very small objects are regarded as being semi-quantitative. The compositions of the adhered objects are scattered and intermediate between those of olivine, low-Ca pyroxene, diopside and Na-rich plagioclase, as is shown in Fig. S10. One of major analytical artifacts is caused by the contributions from the host grains. Surface roughness and a topography effect also contributed to the uncertainty of these analyses. Neighboring objects contribute a topography effect to the X-ray energy spectra emitted from analyzed areas, that is, there appears to be an energy dependence according to the angle of the solids and the blocking of X-rays by neighboring grains, significantly affecting the resulting spectra.

Identification of the phases in the adhered objects was accomplished based on a combination of analytically obtained compositions and morphology. When an object can be morphologically categorized as being a MSG or DOO, or its abundance of SiO₂ is higher than 70 wt.%, it is identified as glass. In some cases, grains were identified as mineral phases despite deviations from the expected chemical stoichiometry for that phase, possibly resulting in an underestimation of the amounts of glass. Fig. S11 shows a flow chart of the steps taken in determining the phases present in an adhered object. First, spinel and sulfide were identified, as were any glass present (based on textures and/or SiO₂ content) and Ca-phosphates and K-feldspar (based on the abundances of P₂O₅ and K₂O). Then, the remaining objects were classified as being olivine, plagioclase, diopside, or low-Ca pyroxene. Note that plagioclase with Al₂O₃ abundance lower than 3 wt.% is classified as being glass.

After the phase identifications, we calculated the volumes of each object, assuming spheroidal shapes with the measured major and minor axis dimensions. We then summed these up for each phase, allowing estimates of modal abundances (Table S10).

Trace-element abundances. We noticed that some elements of concern have interferences related to the abundance of In in the sample mounts (Table S8). Contributions from In-related molecule ions were significant in measurements of the concentrations of Ba and the light rare-earth element (REE) such as ¹³⁷Ba⁺, ¹³⁹La⁺, ¹⁴⁰Ce⁺, ¹⁴¹Pr⁺, and ¹⁴⁷Sm⁺. This led to difficulties in the determinations of concentrations of ¹⁵¹Eu⁺, ¹⁵⁷Gd⁺, ¹⁶³Dy⁺, ¹⁶⁷Er⁺, ¹⁷⁴Yb⁺, ¹⁷⁵Lu⁺, and ¹⁷⁸Hf⁺ because of interferences from oxide ions of these Ba and slight REEs. The olivines and low-Ca pyroxenes on the In matrix mount showed zig-zagged light-REE-elevated patterns; however, diopside and diaplectic plagioclase did not (spots 8 and 9 on the slab of Grain C; see Fig. S5). The inter-

ferences are considered to be from In-Mg molecules (except for $^{147}\text{Sm}^+$, that shows interference from an In oxide; see Table S8). The ion intensity of the interfering ions is not only a function of distance from the In matrix, but also the Mg abundance in the target silicate phase. Patterns that have obviously experienced interference, observed for olivines and low-Ca pyroxenes, probably resulted from a combination of their higher Mg contents and their low trace-element abundances, compared to diopside and diaplectic plagioclase. Available data of trace element abundances determined in this study are shown in Table S7. As mentioned, full sets of “RARE-EARTH” abundances would be

available only for diopside and diaplectic plagioclase of Grain C.

In Grain C (Fig. S6), both the diopside and the diaplectic plagioclase yielded REE abundances slightly higher than those of the L/LL4–6 chondrites. The diopside exhibits a slightly light-REE-depleted pattern with a negative Eu anomaly, and the diaplectic plagioclase shows a flat pattern with a positive Eu anomaly. This relationship is suggestive of a co-genetic relationship between these two phases. The Li-depleted patterns for diopside and diaplectic plagioclase in Grain C are perhaps indicative of later aqueous alteration processes.

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Table S1. Major-element compositions of the Itokawa grains. Concentrations (in wt.%) were determined by EMPA for all phases except for feldspars in Grain C. Concentrations less than 0.1 wt.% were treated as being "below detection limit" and indicated by a dash. Variations among spots are shown as 1 σ in parentheses. Mg# is defined as 100 \times Mg/(Mg+Fe) in atomic abundances. Analyses of feldspars in Grain C were carried using an FE-SEM with EDS capability, where concentrations less than 0.2 wt.% were treated as being "below detection limit" and the total abundance of oxides was normalized to 100 wt.%. Abbreviations: Ol—olivine; low-Ca Px—low-Ca pyroxene; Di—diopside; Pl—plagioclase; Pl*—diaplectic plagioclase; Kfs—K-feldspar.

Target	Grain A			Grain B			Grain C			Grain D	
	Ol _{n=2}	low-Ca Px _{n=2}	Ol _{n=12}	Pl _{n=6}	Ol _{n=12}	Pl _{n=6}	Di _{n=51}	Pl* _{n=8}	Kfs _{n=2}	low-Ca Px _{n=5}	
SiO ₂	39.61 (1.59)	53.85 (1.06)	38.93 (0.95)	65.40 (0.74)	38.93 (0.95)	65.40 (0.74)	54.08 (0.40)	66.95 (0.77)	62.06 (0.28)	56.76 (0.11)	
TiO ₂	-	0.18 (0.01)	-	-	-	-	0.40 (0.04)	-	-	0.19 (0.05)	
Al ₂ O ₃	-	0.41 (0.32)	-	20.43 (0.56)	-	20.43 (0.56)	0.49 (0.04)	20.91 (0.16)	19.34 (0.26)	0.17 (0.09)	
Cr ₂ O ₃	-	-	-	0.17 (0.03)	-	0.17 (0.03)	0.75 (0.05)	-	-	0.12 (0.01)	
FeO	24.57 (1.13)	15.38 (0.19)	26.26 (0.44)	0.65 (0.19)	26.26 (0.44)	0.65 (0.19)	5.59 (0.18)	0.25 (-)	0.22 (-)	15.14 (0.43)	
NiO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.35 (0.13)	-	-	
MnO	0.49 (0.03)	0.49 (0.02)	0.44 (0.03)	-	0.44 (0.03)	-	0.21 (0.03)	-	-	0.46 (0.03)	
MgO	35.97 (1.03)	28.42 (0.73)	36.94 (0.81)	0.40 (0.26)	36.94 (0.81)	0.40 (0.26)	16.15 (0.22)	-	-	28.86 (0.41)	
CaO	-	0.61 (0.12)	-	2.36 (0.16)	-	2.36 (0.16)	20.94 (0.37)	2.28 (0.10)	2.16 (0.02)	0.66 (0.03)	
Na ₂ O	-	-	-	8.93 (0.31)	-	8.93 (0.31)	0.54 (0.05)	8.78 (1.09)	1.06 (0.11)	-	
K ₂ O	-	-	-	0.97 (0.08)	-	0.97 (0.08)	-	0.94 (0.16)	15.27 (0.07)	-	
total	101.4	99.3	102.9	99.1	102.9	99.1	99.1	100	100	102.4	
Formula	fo ₇₂	wo ₁ en ₇₅	fo ₇₁	an ₁₂ ab ₈₂ or ₆	fo ₇₁	an ₁₂ ab ₈₂ or ₆	wo _{4,4} en ₄₅	an ₁₂ ab ₈₂ or ₆	an ₁₀ ab ₈ or ₈₂	wo ₁ en ₇₆	
Mg#	72 (0.4)	76 (0.2)	71 (0.6)	71 (0.6)	71 (0.6)	71 (0.6)	84 (0.5)	84 (0.5)	84 (0.5)	77 (0.4)	
(Fe/Mg) _{atom}	0.38	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.29	
(Fe/Mn) _{atom}	49	31	59	59	59	59	26	26	26	32	

Table S2. Analytical conditions for the *in-situ* oxygen isotope analyses.

Instrument	Cameca ims-1270
Primary beam ion	+20 keV Cs ⁺
Gold coat thickness	65 nm
Secondary accelerating voltage	-10 kV
Primary beam current	200 pA
Primary beam rastering	5 × 5 μm (7 × 7 μm for first 140 s)
Energy offset	-45 eV
Contrast aperture diameter	40 μm
Entrance slit width	80 μm
Field aperture dimension	800 × 800 μm (20 × 20 μm on sample)
Energy band pass	from -10 to +30 eV
Exit slit width	200 μm for ¹⁷ O ⁻ , and 400 μm for ¹⁶ O ⁻ and ¹⁸ O ⁻
Mass resolution power ($m/\Delta m$)	7,000 for ¹⁷ O ⁻ , and 2,400 for ¹⁶ O ⁻ and ¹⁸ O ⁻
Detectors	FC (L'2) for ¹⁶ O ⁻ , EM (axial) for ¹⁷ O ⁻ , and EM (H1) for ¹⁸ O ⁻
Beam optimization	automatic FA centering at beginning (30 s)
Mass calibration	automatic mass centering at beginning (15 s)
Pre-sputter duration	3 min 10 s including beam optimization and mass calibration
Secondary ion integration	14.5 s × 40 cycles

Table S3. Results of *in-situ* O isotope analyses. For analyses sampling two phases, proportions of the two phases are indicated. Analytical uncertainty is estimated to be $\sim 0.5\%$ ($1\sigma_{\text{mean}}$) for $\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$, $\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$, and $\Delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$.

Target	Spot	Phase	$\delta(^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$	$\delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$	$\Delta(^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O})$
Grain A	802	$\text{Ol}_{0.5} \text{ low-Ca Px}_{0.5}$	6.9	4.1	0.5
Grain B	694	$\text{Ol}_{0.95} \text{ Pl}_{0.05}$	5.2	5.2	2.5
	720	$\text{Ol}_{0.8} \text{ Pl}_{0.2}$	2.4	2.5	1.3
	721	$\text{Ol}_{0.8} \text{ Pl}_{0.2}$	4.0	4.6	2.5
	723	$\text{Ol}_{0.6} \text{ Pl}_{0.4}$	5.1	5.0	2.3
Grain C	755	Di	7.2	5.5	1.8
	756	Di	8.0	4.2	0.1
	765	Pl*	8.8	5.8	1.2
Grain D	782	low-Ca Px	2.9	2.6	1.1
	783	low-Ca Px	1.7	1.7	0.8

Table S4. Analytical conditions for the *in-situ* trace element analyses.

Session	"HALOGEN"	"LIGHT"	"MAJOR-MINOR"	"RARE-EARTH"
Analyzed ion	$^{19}\text{F}^-$, $^{28}\text{Si}^-$, $^{31}\text{P}^-$, $^{35}\text{Cl}^-$	$^1\text{H}^+$, $^7\text{Li}^+$, $^{11}\text{B}^+$, $^{28}\text{Si}^+$	$^{23}\text{Na}^+$, $^{27}\text{Al}^+$, $^{28}\text{Si}^+$, $^{39}\text{K}^+$, $^{42}\text{Ca}^+$, $^{46}\text{Ti}^+$, $^{52}\text{Cr}^+$, $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$, $^{60}\text{Ni}^+$	$^7\text{Li}^+$, $^{30}\text{Si}^+$, $^{88}\text{Sr}^+$, $^{89}\text{Y}^+$, $^{90}\text{Zr}^+$, $^{93}\text{Nb}^+$, $^{137}\text{Ba}^+$, $^{139}\text{La}^+$, $^{140}\text{Ce}^+$, $^{141}\text{Pr}^+$, $^{146}\text{Nd}^+$, $^{147}\text{Sm}^+$, $^{151}\text{Eu}^+$, $^{157}\text{Gd}^+$, $^{163}\text{Dy}^+$, $^{167}\text{Er}^+$, $^{174}\text{Yb}^+$, $^{175}\text{Lu}^+$, $^{178}\text{Hf}^+$
Primary beam ion	+14.5 keV Cs^+	-17 keV O^-	-17 keV O^-	-17 keV O^-
Primary beam current	200 pA	-500 pA	-500 pA	-5 nA
Primary beam rastering	5 × 5 μm	5 × 5 μm	5 × 5 μm	—
Energy offset	—	—	—	-45 eV
Contrast aperture size	150 μm	150 μm	150 μm	400 μm
Entrance slit width	10 μm	20 μm	10 μm	400 μm
Field aperture diameter	100 μm	100 μm	100 μm	1,800 μm
Energy band pass	from -50 to +50 eV	from -50 to +50 eV	from -50 to +50 eV	from -20 to +20 eV
Exit slit width	50 μm	100 μm	50 μm	800 μm
Mass resolution power ($m/\Delta m$)	2,400	1,500	2,400	500
Pre-sputter duration	540 s	720 s	600 s	120 s

Table S5. Geochemical properties of the reference glasses and minerals prepared for the *in-situ* analyses. Dashes indicate that data are not available.

Phase	glass						
	gl-tahiti	gl-hawaii	gl-dr1a1	gl-pjr1	gl-myk1-1	gl-myk1-2	gl-myk1-5
SiO ₂ (wt.%)	59.00	51.20	51.30	76.10	53.50	53.90	54.60
TiO ₂	0.73	2.45	1.24	0.35	1.35	1.30	1.39
Al ₂ O ₃	18.31	13.64	16.65	11.87	15.59	15.60	15.66
Cr ₂ O ₃	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FeO	4.80	11.13	7.95	1.44	11.92	11.07	10.72
NiO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MnO	-	-	-	-	0.47	0.46	-
MgO	0.81	6.49	5.83	-	3.12	3.13	2.97
CaO	1.81	10.66	10.97	0.52	8.94	9.05	8.90
Na ₂ O	6.83	2.59	3.33	3.75	3.28	3.11	3.24
K ₂ O	6.69	0.46	0.34	5.69	0.55	0.68	0.56
P ₂ O ₅	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
H ₂ O	-	-	0.26	0.12	-	-	-
Li (μg·g ⁻¹)	20.8	4.4	8.7	-	-	-	-
B	12.4	1.6	-	-	-	-	-
F	-	-	-	-	29	114	566
Cl	-	-	-	-	184	295	868
Sr	107	349	178	-	-	-	-
Y	63	30	36	-	-	-	-
Zr	1305	142	90	-	-	-	-
Nb	150	11	3.7	-	-	-	-
Ba	277	102	21	-	-	-	-
La	117	11	4.4	-	-	-	-
Ce	254	29	12	-	-	-	-
Pr	29	4.1	1.9	-	-	-	-
Nd	111	21	10	-	-	-	-
Sm	20	5.4	3.3	-	-	-	-
Eu	4.7	1.9	1.2	-	-	-	-
Gd	16	5.8	3.9	-	-	-	-
Dy	12	5.5	5.1	-	-	-	-
Er	5.3	2.6	3	-	-	-	-
Yb	4.8	2.3	3.2	-	-	-	-
Lu	0.71	0.31	0.46	-	-	-	-
Hf	29	3.8	2.5	-	-	-	-
Δ (¹⁸ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Δ (¹⁷ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table S5 (continued). Geochemical properties of the reference glasses and minerals prepared for the *in-situ* analyses.

Phase	glass		apatite		pyroxene		
	gl-nist610	gl-ab1	ap-durango	cpx-klb1	cpx-sag30	cpx-sax39	opx-klb1
SiO ₂ (wt.%)	70.50	69.13	0.41	51.95	53.40	53.40	54.81
TiO ₂	-	-	-	0.54	1.07	0.72	0.14
Al ₂ O ₃	1.50	19.63	-	7.28	5.23	5.69	5.15
Cr ₂ O ₃	-	-	-	0.78	1.08	0.10	0.39
FeO	-	-	-	3.08	3.38	6.50	6.45
NiO	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.20
MnO	-	-	-	0.11	0.10	0.13	0.17
MgO	-	-	-	14.87	17.10	16.97	32.15
CaO	10.76	-	53.07	19.38	16.75	13.91	0.85
Na ₂ O	14.63	14.55	-	1.76	1.91	2.13	0.13
K ₂ O	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P ₂ O ₅	-	-	44.05	-	-	-	-
H ₂ O	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Li (μg·g ⁻¹)	485	-	-	1.4	1.7	3.1	-
B	356	-	-	-	-	0.5	-
F	-	-	34700	-	-	-	-
Cl	-	-	4100	-	-	-	-
Sr	-	-	-	36	117	74	-
Y	-	-	-	24	7.0	6.0	-
Zr	-	-	-	29	41	19	-
Nb	-	-	-	0.01	0.35	0.15	-
Ba	-	-	-	0.18	0.36	0.24	-
La	-	-	-	0.23	1.7	0.87	-
Ce	-	-	-	1.8	6.5	3.5	-
Pr	-	-	-	0.49	1.3	0.69	-
Nd	-	-	-	-	8.0	4.6	-
Sm	-	-	-	1.7	2.6	1.7	-
Eu	-	-	-	0.71	0.82	0.55	-
Gd	-	-	-	2.6	2.5	1.7	-
Dy	-	-	-	3.7	1.7	1.5	-
Er	-	-	-	2.2	0.48	0.53	-
Yb	-	-	-	2.1	0.26	0.32	-
Lu	-	-	-	0.3	0.03	0.04	-
Hf	-	-	-	0.99	2.0	1.1	-
Δ (¹⁸ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	18.45	-	5.45	-	-	5.76
Δ (¹⁷ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	9.39	-	2.85	-	-	3.04

Table S5 (continued). Geochemical properties of the reference glasses and minerals prepared for the in-situ analyses.

Phase	olivine					garnet	
	ol-fa-hk1	ol-sc5	ol-sc1	ol-fo1	ol-fukang1	grt-hk5206701d	grt-mnag10
SiO ₂ (wt.%)	30.80	41.50	42.06	43.34	41.34	40.50	42.40
TiO ₂	-	-	-	-	-	0.14	1.16
Al ₂ O ₃	-	-	-	-	-	22.52	21.22
Cr ₂ O ₃	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.61
FeO	65.08	8.72	8.57	1.05	13.42	20.75	10.38
NiO	-	0.42	0.37	-	-	-	-
MnO	5.09	0.12	0.15	-	0.34	0.50	0.30
MgO	0.51	51.19	51.59	57.68	48.44	11.64	19.76
CaO	-	0.10	-	-	-	4.45	4.47
Na ₂ O	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.12
K ₂ O	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P ₂ O ₅	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
H ₂ O	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Li (μg·g ⁻¹)	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.4
B	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1
F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cl	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sr	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.0
Y	-	-	-	-	-	-	46
Zr	-	-	-	-	-	-	107
Nb	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.21
Ba	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.07
La	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.06
Ce	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.47
Pr	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.17
Nd	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8
Sm	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.6
Eu	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.84
Gd	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.6
Dy	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.8
Er	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.7
Yb	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.1
Lu	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.72
Hf	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.8
Δ (¹⁸ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	-	5.27	23.6	3.46	-	-
Δ (¹⁷ O/ ¹⁶ O)	-	-	2.78	12.4	1.64	-	-

Table S6. Ion yield, typical sensitivity, detection limit and total analytical uncertainty of analyzed elements and related oxides. † and ‡ indicate results obtained in "LIGHT" and "RARE-EARTH" sessions, respectively. DL indicates the detection limit; numbers in brackets are oxide equivalents. See SI Methods for estimating detection limit and total analytical uncertainty. Note that ion yields for F, Cl, and P are for negative ions.

	Yield (relative to Si)	Sensitivity (cps/nA/ $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)	DL ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)		Uncertainty (%)	Reference material
H	0.05	0.1	20	[200]	50	gl-dr1a1, gl-pjr1
Li†	6.8	14	1		20	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, gl-nist610
Li‡	1.3	14	0.01		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
B	0.5	0.5	30		10	gl-tahiti, gl-nist610
F	27	18	2		10	gl-myk1-1, gl-myk1-2, gl-myk1-5, ap-durango
Na	19	2.7	4	[6]	40	gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1 grt-mnag10, gl-nist610
Al	4.8	0.4	20	[40]	20	grt-mnag10, gl-hawaii, cpx-klb1, gl-nist610
P	0.9	0.2	80	[200]	10	ap-durango
Cl	22	9.0	4		20	gl-myk1-1, gl-myk1-2, gl-myk1-5, ap-durango
K	21	2.7	5	[6]	30	gl-pjr1, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, gl-nist610
Ca	11	1.0	10	[20]	20	cpx-klb1, grt-hk5206701d, gl-pjr1, ol-sc5
Ti	4.1	0.2	50	[80]	10	gl-hawaii, cpx-sag30, gl-tahiti, grt-hk5206701d
Cr	4.4	0.2	60	[80]	10	cpx-sag30, grt-mnag10
Mn	3.9	0.2	60	[80]	30	ol-fa-hk1, grt-hk5206701d, grt-mnag10, cpx-sag30
Ni	1.0	0.04	300	[400]	10	ol-sc5
Sr	3.0	2.1	0.04		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Y	2.3	2.1	0.04		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Zr	2.2	1.1	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Nb	1.4	1.4	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Ba	2.1	0.2	0.4		20	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
La	1.9	1.2	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Ce	1.8	0.9	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Pr	2.1	1.2	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Nd	2.1	0.2	0.4		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Sm	2.4	0.2	0.4		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Eu	2.4	0.8	0.1		20	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
BaO	0.2	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Gd	2.3	0.5	0.1		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
PrO	0.8	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Dy	1.8	0.3	0.2		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
SmO	0.9	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Er	1.5	0.3	0.2		20	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
EuO	0.8	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Yb	1.7	0.5	0.1		20	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
GdO	0.7	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Lu	1.0	1.4	0.1		30	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
TbO	0.7	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
Hf	1.0	0.2	0.4		10	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1
DyO	0.3	—	—		—	gl-tahiti, gl-hawaii, gl-dr1a1, cpx-klb1

Table S7. Chemical compositions of the Itokawa grains determined using the Cameca ims-5f ion microprobe. Abundances are expressed in a unit of $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ except for SiO_2 . In-run uncertainty ($1\sigma_{\text{mean}}$) is provided in parentheses. Note that SiO_2 concentration (wt.%) is obtained by electron microprobe analyses (Table S1). For analyses sampling two phases, proportions of the two phases are indicated, and SiO_2 concentration^s was assumed accounting these proportions. Dashes and dots indicate “not available” and “not analyzed,” respectively. † and ‡ were obtained in “LIGHT” and “RARE-EARTH” sessions, respectively.

Target	Grain A		Grain B		Grain B		Grain B		Grain B		Grain B	
Spot	1		2		3		4		5		6	
Phase	$\text{Ol}_{0.5}\text{low-Ca Px}_{0.5}$		Ol		$\text{Ol}_{0.9}\text{Pl}_{0.1}$		Pl		$\text{Pl}_{0.3}\text{Ol}_{0.7}$		$\text{Pl}_{0.6}\text{Ol}_{0.4}$	
SiO_2	46.73	§	38.93		41.58	§	65.40		46.87	§	54.81	§
TiO_2	1,500	(52)	-	(19)	...		360	(70)	
Al_2O_3	1,800	(25)	430	(10)	...		15,000	(840)	
Cr_2O_3	780	(11)	-		...		1,700	(390)	
FeO	
NiO	-		-		...		-		
MnO	5,400	(31)	7,100	(50)	...		1,200	(23)	
MgO	
CaO	5,300	(201)	110	(50)	...		15,000	(540)	
Na_2O	46	(1)	120	(2)	...		40,000	(380)	
K_2O	-		19	(1)	...		6,100	(83)	
P_2O_5	-		720	(10)	...		2,100	(210)	
H_2O	680	(8)	690	(15)	...		350	(9)	
Li [†]	-		7.9	(0.1)	...		3.0	(0.1)	
Li [‡]	0.60	(0.04)	2.7	(0.1)	2.7	(0.2)	...		0.9	(0.1)	2.5	(0.4)
B	-		-		...		-		
F	29	(2)	4.3	(0.3)	...		36	(1)	
Cl	6.6	(0.4)	-		...		11	(1)	
Sr	0.13	(0.01)	5.2	(0.4)	18	(4)	...		46	(5)	70	(13)
Y	0.32	(0.02)	0.26	(0.13)	0.17	(0.07)	...		0.8	(0.1)	45	(8)
Zr	0.92	(0.06)	0.44	(0.09)	1.4	(0.1)	...		2.0	(0.4)	2.7	(0.4)
Nb	2.7	(0.2)	0.74	(0.27)	2.0	(1.5)	...		11	(1)	38	(7)
Ba	-		-		-		...		-		-	
La	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Ce	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Pr	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Nd	-		-		-		...		0.37	(0.001)	6.9	(1.2)
Sm	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Eu	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Gd	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Dy	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Er	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Yb	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Lu	-		-		-		...		-		-	
Hf	-		-		-		...		-		-	

Table S7 (continued). Chemical compositions of the Itokawa grains determined using the Cameca ims-5f ion microprobe.

Target	Grain C		Grain C		Grain C		Grain C	
Spot	7		8		9		10	
Phase	Di		Di		Pl*		Pl _{0.95} Di _{0.05}	
SiO ₂	54.08		54.08		66.95	§	66.31	§
TiO ₂	6,000	(140)	5,800	(270)	490	(17)	...	
Al ₂ O ₃	5,700	(34)	7,600	(54)	200,000	(540)	...	
Cr ₂ O ₃	9,000	(78)	9,000	(56)	-		...	
FeO	
NiO	-		310	(160)	-		...	
MnO	2,800	(25)	2,700	(29)	-		...	
MgO	
CaO	270,000	(1600)	260,000	(1800)	18,000	(160)	...	
Na ₂ O	7,100	(50)	5,800	(13)	68,000	(820)	...	
K ₂ O	10	(1)	12	(1)	7,700	(20)	...	
P ₂ O ₅	-		-		340		310	(12)
H ₂ O	830	(23)	620	(18)	250	(9)	...	
Li ⁺	-		-		
Li ⁺	0.27	(0.01)	0.22	(0.02)	0.04	(0.001)	...	
B	-		-		-		...	
F	8.6	(0.4)	11	(1)	160	(19)	330	(28)
Cl	-		5.9	(0.5)	44	(7)	8.7	(0.8)
Sr	8.3	(0.5)	11	(0.3)	73	(10)	...	
Y	12	(0.3)	12	(0.1)	0.09	(0.03)	...	
Zr	96	(1)	91	(0.4)	0.86	(0.02)	...	
Nb	1.1	(0.1)	1.1	(0.1)	0.28	(0.08)	...	
Ba	-		1.8	(0.2)	23	(2)	...	
La	-		0.62	(0.06)	0.54	(0.19)	...	
Ce	1.2	(0.1)	1.7	(0.1)	4.3	(2.5)	...	
Pr	-		0.29	(0.03)	0.87	(0.67)	...	
Nd	-		1.9	(0.1)	-		...	
Sm	-		0.93	(0.15)	0.64	(0.005)	...	
Eu	-		0.13	(0.02)	0.59	(0.12)	...	
Gd	-		1.1	(0.4)	0.50	(0.28)	...	
Dy	-		1.7	(0.1)	0.72	(0.30)	...	
Er	-		1.4	(0.2)	1.8	(0.2)	...	
Yb	-		1.5	(0.1)	1.8	(0.3)	...	
Lu	-		0.21	(0.05)	0.10	(0.01)	...	
Hf	-		3.5	(0.4)	2.0	(0.2)	...	

Table S7 (continued). Chemical compositions of the Itokawa grains determined using the Cameca ims-5f ion microprobe.

Target	Grain D		Grain D		Grain D	
Spot	11		12		13	
Phase	low-Ca Px		low-Ca Px		low-Ca Px	
SiO ₂	56.76		56.76		56.76	
TiO ₂	1,700	(62)	
Al ₂ O ₃	2,300	(62)	
Cr ₂ O ₃	920	(27)	
FeO	
NiO	-		
MnO	5,100	(29)	
MgO	
CaO	6,400	(120)	
Na ₂ O	110	(1)	
K ₂ O	-		
P ₂ O ₅	-		-		...	
H ₂ O	330	(8)	
Li ⁺	
Li [±]	0.07	(0.01)	...		0.07	(0.01)
B	-		
F	8.9	(0.3)	12	(0.42)	...	
Cl	-		6.6	(0.26)	...	
Sr	0.10	(0.01)	...		-	
Y	0.34	(0.02)	...		0.36	(0.06)
Zr	0.32	(0.02)	...		-	
Nb	0.17	(0.04)	...		0.94	(0.22)
Ba	-		...		-	
La	-		...		-	
Ce	-		...		-	
Pr	-		...		-	
Nd	-		...		-	
Sm	-		...		-	
Eu	-		...		-	
Gd	-		...		-	
Dy	-		...		-	
Er	-		...		-	
Yb	-		...		-	
Lu	-		...		-	
Hf	-		...		-	

Table S8. Measured isotopes, possible interferences, and mass resolution power ($m/\Delta m$) to resolve each other in ion microprobe analyses of minerals mounted in In pools.

Target		Interference		$m/\Delta m$
$^{137}\text{Ba}^+$	136.906	$^{113}\text{In}^{24}\text{Mg}^+$	136.889	8,053
$^{139}\text{La}^+$	138.906	$^{115}\text{In}^{24}\text{Mg}^+$	138.889	8,171
$^{140}\text{Ce}^+$	139.905	$^{115}\text{In}^{25}\text{Mg}^+$	139.890	9,327
		$^{113}\text{In}^{27}\text{Al}^+$	139.886	7,363
$^{141}\text{Pr}^+$	140.908	$^{115}\text{In}^{26}\text{Mg}^+$	140.887	6,710
$^{147}\text{Sm}^+$	146.915	$^{115}\text{In}^{16}\text{O}_2^+$	146.894	6,996
$^{151}\text{Eu}^+$	150.920	$^{135}\text{Ba}^{16}\text{O}^+$	150.901	7,902
$^{157}\text{Gd}^+$	156.924	$^{141}\text{Pr}^{16}\text{O}^+$	156.903	7,473
		$^{115}\text{In}^{26}\text{Mg}^{16}\text{O}^+$	156.882	3,736
$^{163}\text{Dy}^+$	162.929	$^{115}\text{In}^{16}\text{O}_3^+$	162.889	4,073
		$^{115}\text{In}^{24}\text{Mg}_2^+$	162.874	2,962
		$^{147}\text{Sm}^{16}\text{O}^+$	162.910	8,575
$^{167}\text{Er}^+$	166.932	$^{115}\text{In}^{24}\text{Mg}^{28}\text{Si}^+$	166.866	2,529
		$^{151}\text{Eu}^{16}\text{O}^+$	166.915	9,705
		$^{135}\text{Ba}^{16}\text{O}_2^+$	166.896	4,599
$^{174}\text{Yb}^+$	173.939	$^{158}\text{Gd}^{16}\text{O}^+$	173.919	8,697
$^{175}\text{Lu}^+$	174.941	$^{159}\text{Tb}^{16}\text{O}^+$	174.920	8,331
$^{178}\text{Hf}^+$	177.943	$^{162}\text{Dy}^{16}\text{O}^+$	177.921	7,944

Table S9. Representative major element compositions of the merrillite in the PIC. Chemical compositions (in wt.%) were determined by FE-SEM with EDS, and normalized to 100 wt.% total. Abundances lower than the limits of detection (0.2 wt.%) are indicated by dashes.

Analytical No. (E004-)	pos24-8	pos24-9	pos22-5	pos22-6	pos23-7	pos45deg50T-2	pos0deg0t-1-2	AG-1-1
SiO ₂	-	-	-	2.96	-	-	1.93	6.63
TiO ₂	0.41	-	-	-	0.62	-	0.39	-
Al ₂ O ₃	0.21	0.52	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cr ₂ O ₃	-	1.51	-	1.42	0.86	0.53	0.42	-
FeO	-	0.83	0.23	9.30	1.44	0.71	0.44	-
NiO	-	-	-	0.68	-	2.60	-	-
MnO	1.66	0.61	-	-	0.81	-	0.88	1.30
MgO	3.35	3.07	3.72	3.84	3.64	3.09	4.02	6.06
CaO	46.33	47.57	46.32	43.46	45.17	46.15	47.43	42.95
Na ₂ O	2.44	2.14	3.12	0.35	2.36	1.86	-	-
K ₂ O	-	0.35	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table S10. Modal abundances of adhered objects (n=914).
Volume was calculated assuming spheroidal shapes.

Phase	Volume (μm^3)	Modal abundance (%)
olivine	209.1	27.9
low-Ca pyroxene	148.7	19.8
plagioclase	104.7	14.0
diopside	25.5	3.4
K-feldspar	8.2	1.1
glass	162.5	21.7
Ca-phosphates	61.6	8.2
sulfide	18.8	2.5
spinel	10.7	1.4
total	749.8	100

SI Figures

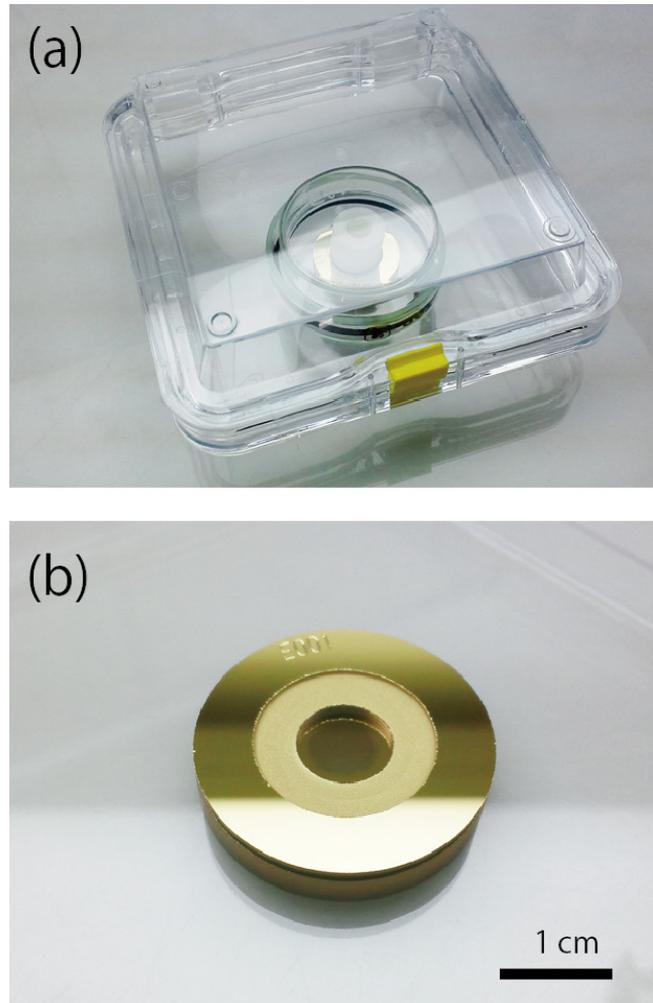


Fig. S1. Photos of the case to transport each grain from JAXA to PML. (a) A transport case assembly. The inner shell is suspended by a pair of membranes of the outermost shell. The container and its lid are fixed by a plastic spring in the inner shell. (b) The sample container with Au coating. The sample grain is stored at the bottom of the pit and the lid fits tightly with the frosted area.

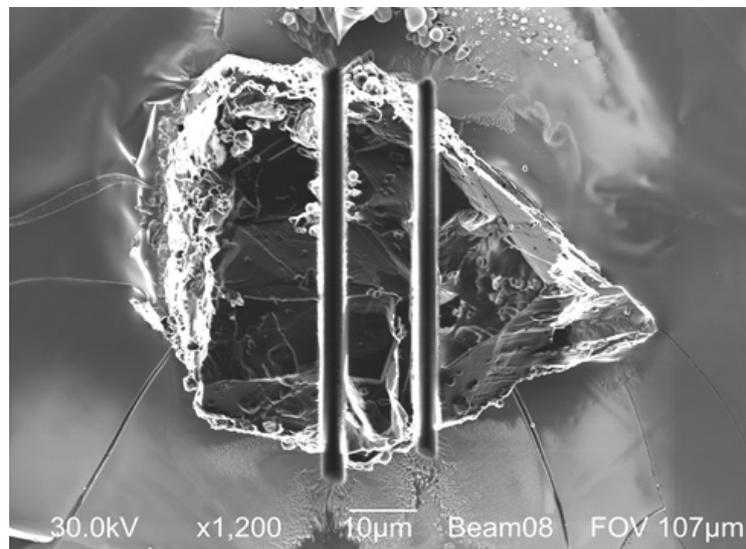


Fig. S2. A scanning ion image of Grain C fabricated into three pieces. Sample loss with the slicing was typically a $\sim 3\mu\text{m}$ wide zone. Re-deposition of gallium was observed on the edge of surfaces produced by the slicing. A middle slab, which is $\sim 12\mu\text{m}$ in thick, was processed for quantitative in-situ analyses. Maintaining the possibility of future analyses is as important as the initial analyses and other two slices were preserved for possible future investigation.

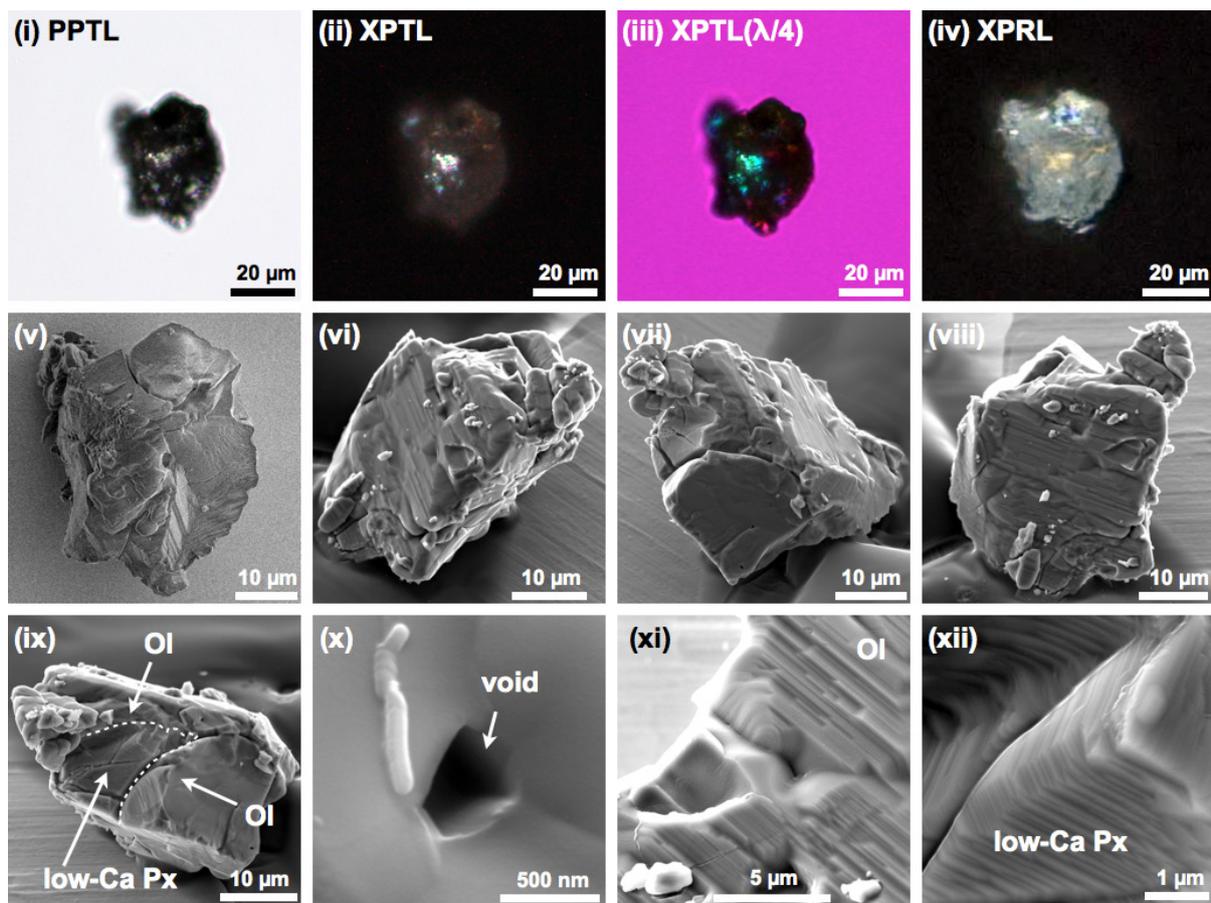


Fig. S7a. Micrographs of Grain A showing an appearance indicative of extensive shock-induced deformation and fracturing. (i) Plane-polarized transmitted light (PPTL) view. (ii) Cross-polarized transmitted light (XPTL) view of (i). The optical appearance of this grain indicates that it is a polyphase grain. The olivine (Ol) shows reduced transparency due to the presence of shock lamellae. (iii) XPTL view of (i) with a quarter-wavelength plate inserted into the petrographic microscope. (iv) Cross-polarized reflected light (XPRL) view. (v) Secondary electron (SE) image taken at low acceleration voltage without C coating. (vi), (vii), (viii) and (ix) Grain appearances at different angles. All of these images were taken after C coating. Strong shock deformation is evident from the presence of shock lamellae in olivine and deep fractures (cracks). (x) Close-up view of a smooth surface on low-Ca pyroxene (low-Ca Px) with a void possibly reflecting troilite desulfidization (vaporization). (xi) Close-up view of a typical surface of olivine with shock lamellae. (xii) Close-up view of a surface of low-Ca pyroxene with prominent cleavage.

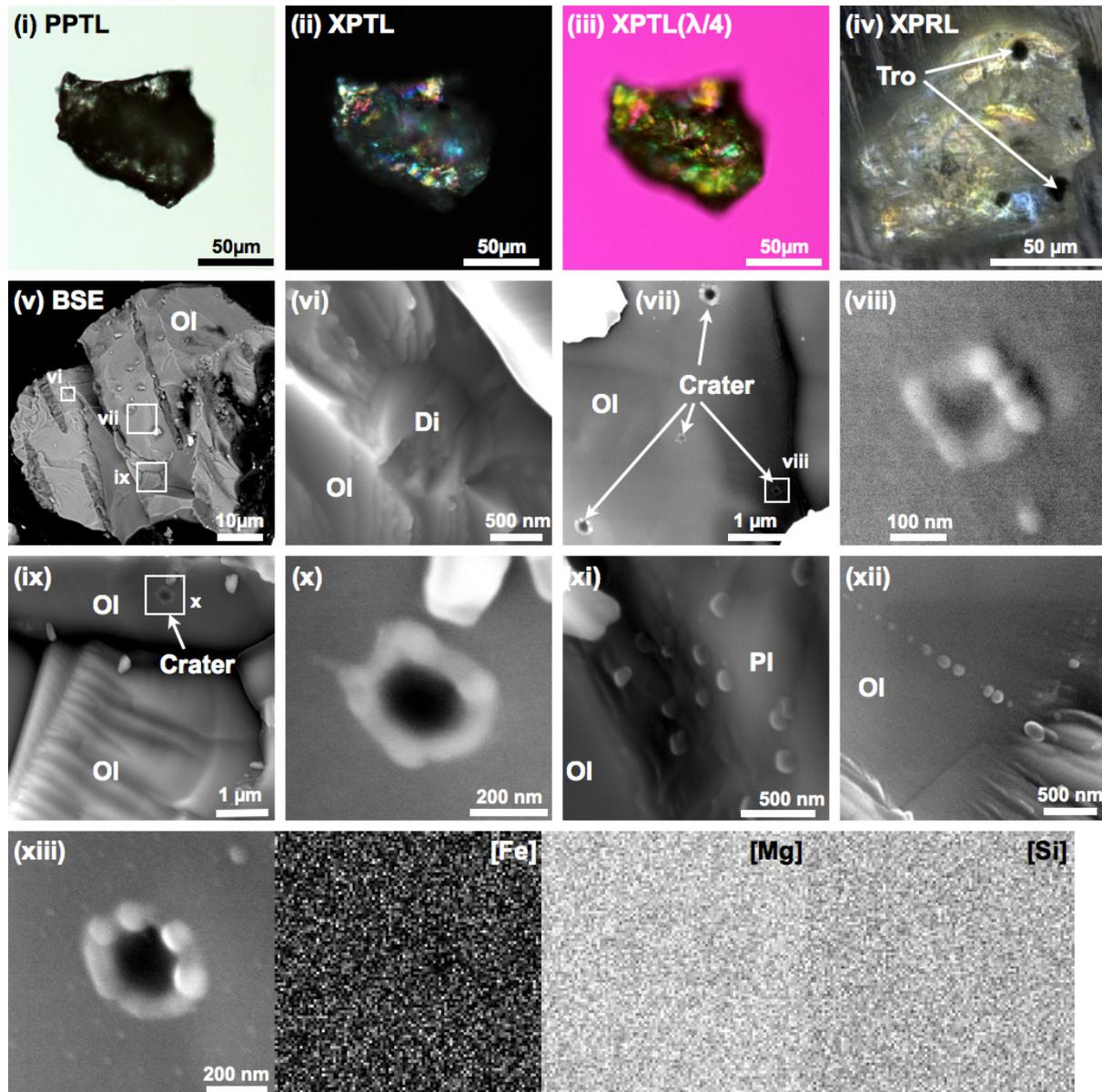


Fig. S7b. Micrographs of Grain B that preserves submicron-sized impact texture. (i) PPTL view. (ii) XPTL view of (i). The grain is an optically continuous single crystal. (iii) XPTL view of (i) with a quarter-wavelength plate inserted. (iv) XPRL view. Opaque minerals are troilite. (v) Back-scattered electron (BSE) image. The sub-parallel intergrowth of plagioclase within mono-phase olivine, which resembles the barred olivine texture in some chondrules, is believed to reflect original lithology. (vi) Occurrence of a diopside (Di) inclusion in olivine. (vii) A smooth olivine surface with a cluster of four sub- μm -sized craters. (viii) Enlargement view of a crater in (vii). Other similar images are presented in Fig. 2. (ix) Occurrence of a crater on smooth surface and a fracture plane with shallow, sub-parallel, linear fractures. (x) Enlargement view of a crater in (ix). (xi) Close-up view of a boundary between plagioclase and olivine. Nanometer-sized particles are adhered to plagioclase. (xii) Close-up view of nm-sized particles aligned on a fracture plane of olivine. (xiii) Submicron-sized crater (same as crater 3 of Fig. 2e) and X-ray maps (Fe, Mg, and Si) indicating the lack of obvious compositional differences between the host olivine and the crater rim.

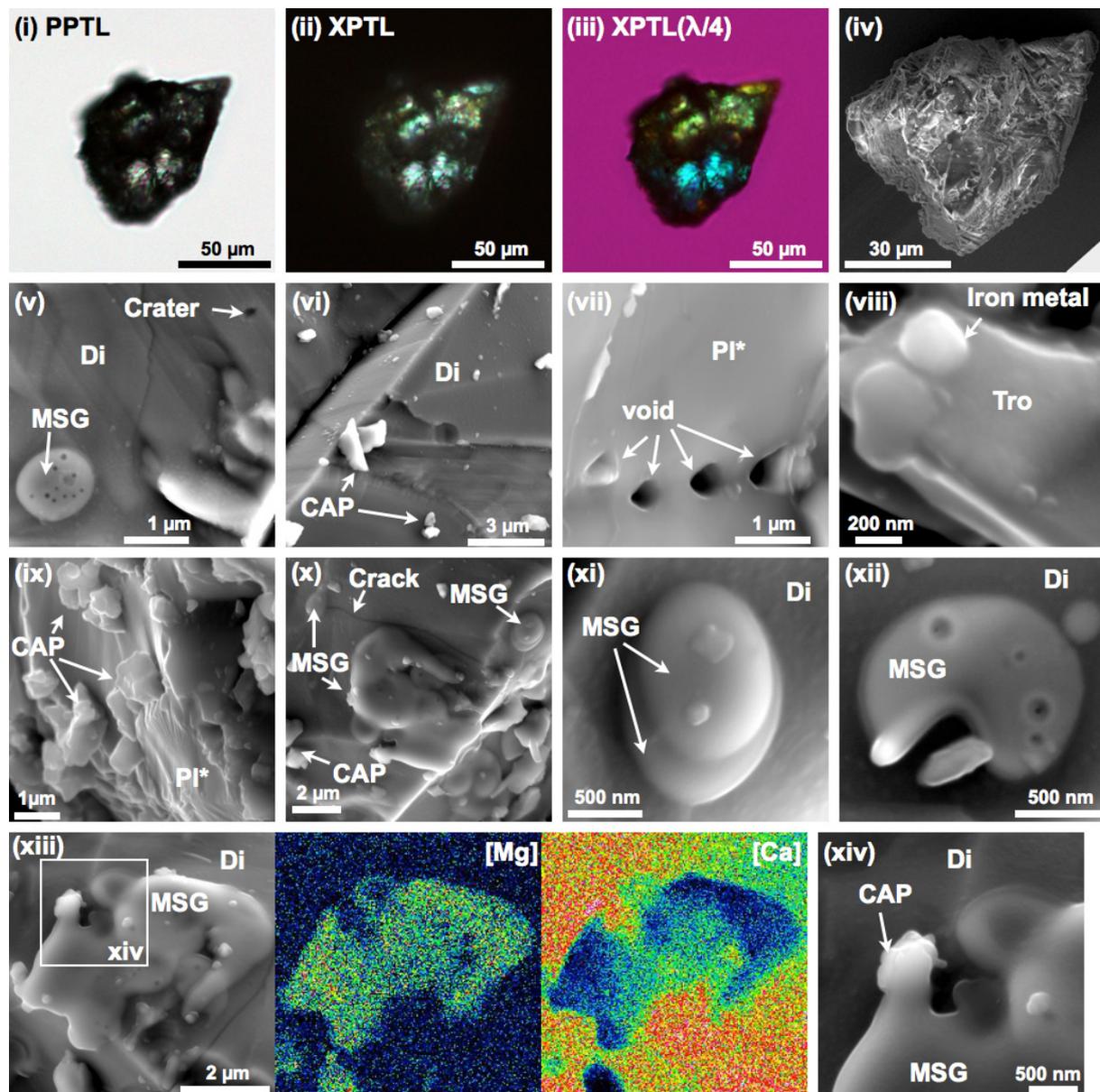


Fig. S7c. Micrographs of Grain C showing various surface features including adhered melts. (i) PPTL view. (ii) XPTL view of (i). (iii) XPTL view of (i) with a quarter-wavelength plate inserted. The optical appearance of this grain indicates that it is a polyphase grain. (iv) SE image taken at low-acceleration voltage without C coating. Note that Fig. 3a shows the reverse side of the same grain. (v) Fracture plane of diopside (Di) with sub- μm -sized crater (Fig. 3d) and molten splash-shape glass (MSG) (Fig. 3h). (vi) Fracture plane in diopside with common adhered particles (CAPs). (vii) Voids produced by troilite desulfidization (vaporization) on surface of diaplectic plagioclase (Pl*). This is a different angle of view of the voids from that shown in Fig. 3c. (viii) Occurrence of Fe metal on troilite (Tro). The coexistence of Fe metal and troilite might indicate high-T desulfidization by thermal metamorphism. The Fe metal formation due to desulfidization is explained by an increase in temperature at a constant S fugacity or by an isothermal decrease in the S fugacity. (ix) Grain wall with abundant CAPs. Some olivine CAPs exhibit flaky shapes. It is likely that the flaky CAPs originated in highly deformed crystals. (x) Adhered MSGs and CAPs on diopside. The presence of a MSG on a microcrack indicates adhesion after the brittle fracturing events. (xi) Two flattened disk-shaped MSGs lying upon each other. (xii) MSG with vesicles believed to reflect degassing. (xiii) An irregularly-shaped MSG (MSG1 of Fig. 3g) and its X-ray (Mg and Ca) images. The object has low SiO_2 (38.5 wt%), high MgO (24.6 wt%), FeO (23.8 wt%), and low CaO (9.6 wt%) and is compositionally different from substrate diopside. (xiv) Enlarged view of CAP associated with the MSG also shown in (xiii).

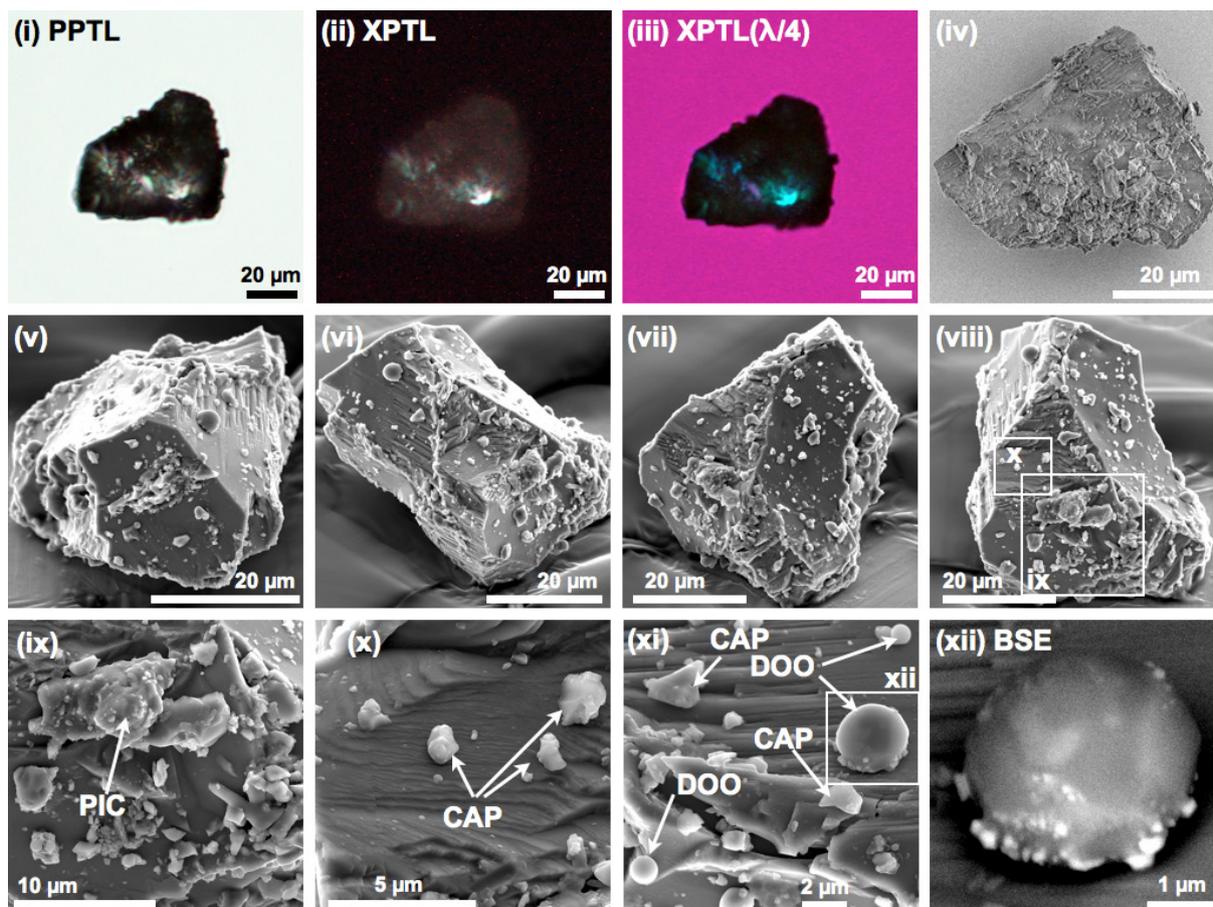


Fig. S7e. Micrographs of Grain E having peculiar adhered objects. (i) PPTL view. (ii) XPTL view of (i). (iii) XPTL view of (i) with a quarter-wavelength plate inserted. The optical appearance of this grain indicates that it is a monophasic grain. (iv) SE image taken at low acceleration voltage without C coating. (v), (vi), (vii), and (viii) Grain appearances from different angles. The grain has at least five fracture planes. All of these images were taken after C coating. (ix) Enlarged view of particularly irregularly-shaped clot (PIC). See the more detailed explanation in Fig. S8. (x) Enlarged view of fracture plane in (viii). The sub-parallel linear structures are likely related to the cleavage. (xi) Occurrence of dome-outline object (DOO). (xii) BSE image of DOO in Fig. 4b.

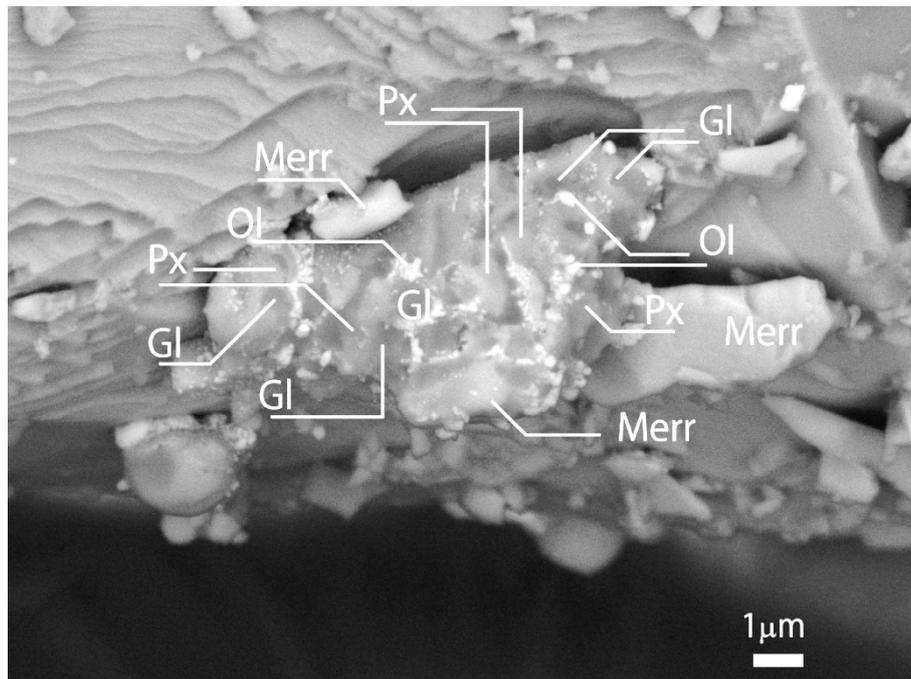


Fig. S8. Back-scattered electron image of the PIC. The PIC consists of merrillite (Merr), olivine (Ol), low-Ca pyroxene (Px), and glass (Gl). Petrographic observations suggest that PICs are fragments of quenched melt pool, features commonly associated with shock-induced veins in ordinary chondrites.

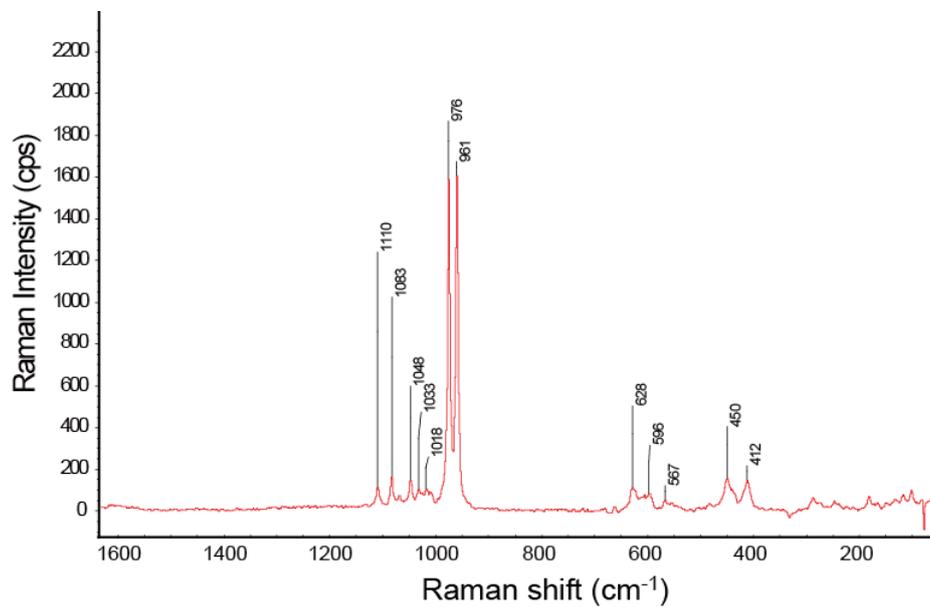


Fig. S9. Raman spectrum of merrillite in the PIC. Remarkable absorptions at 961 and 976 cm^{-1} correspond to the ν_1 symmetric stretching mode of PO_4^{3-} ions. Also observed are representative bands at 1083, 450, and 412 cm^{-1} .

