

Alma Mater Studiorum Università di Bologna Archivio istituzionale della ricerca

Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble

This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

Sassoni, E., Graziani, G., Franzoni, E., Scherer, G.W. (2018). Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble. CONSTRUCTION AND BUILDING MATERIALS, 170, 290-301 [10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075].

Availability: This version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/11585/643031 since: 2019-03-11

Published:

DOI: http://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075

Terms of use:

Some rights reserved. The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website.

This item was downloaded from IRIS Università di Bologna (https://cris.unibo.it/). When citing, please refer to the published version.

(Article begins on next page)

This is the final peer-reviewed accepted manuscript of:

Enrico Sassoni, Gabriela Graziani, Elisa Franzoni, George W. Scherer Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble. Construction and Building Materials, Vol. 170 (2018), p.290-301

The final published version is available online at: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075</u>

© 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) 4.0 International License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble

Enrico Sassoni^{1,*}, Gabriela Graziani¹, Elisa Franzoni¹, George W. Scherer²

¹Department of Civil, Chemical, Environmental and Materials Engineering (DICAM), University of Bologna, Via Terracini 28, 40131, Bologna, Italy

² Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering (CEE),

Princeton University, 69 Olden Street, 08542, Princeton (NJ), U.S.A.

* corresponding author: enrico.sassoni2@unibo.it

ABSTRACT

To increase the water resistance of gypsum-based stuccoes (i.e., pastes and mortars), the possible conversion of gypsum into less soluble calcium phosphates (CaP), by reaction with an aqueous solution of diammonium hydrogen phosphate (DAP), was investigated. The effect of several reaction parameters (DAP concentration, ethanol addition to the DAP solution, pH) on nature and morphology of the new CaP was explored. For the most promising formulation, the ability to improve mechanical properties and reduce solubility in water of treated stuccoes was investigated. The treatment provided better results than ammonium oxalate (an inorganic treatment frequently used for consolidation, protection and de-sulphation of carbonate stones), but the high reaction speed limited the penetration depth and the performance of the DAP-treatment.

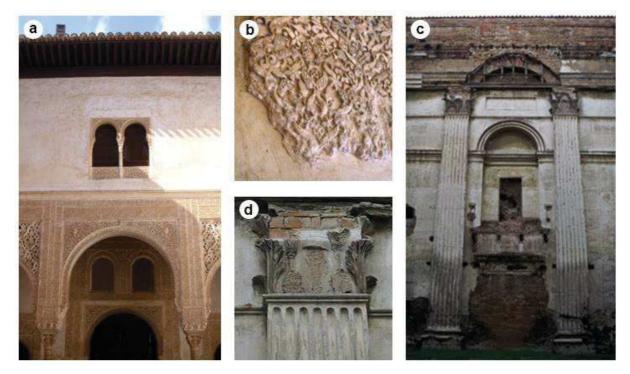
KEYWORDS

Hydroxyapatite; Brushite; Gypsum; Marble; Solubility; Consolidation; Protection; Acid rain; Cultural Heritage; Stucco

1 1. INTRODUCTION

Pastes and mortars based on gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O), formed from the reaction between the binder bassanite (CaSO₄·1/2H₂O) and water, have been used since ancient times to create plasters, renders and bedding mortars. The so-called stuccoes (i.e. pastes and mortars molded to create decorative elements) have been used to imitate white and colored marbles, when the supply of real stones from distant quarries was too costly [1].

- 8 Because of the high solubility of gypsum in water (~2.5 g/l), decorative elements 9 exposed to rain, rising damp or water vapor condensation may undergo progressive 10 dissolution, leading to surface recession and pulverization [2]. Figure 1 illustrates some 11 examples of gypsum decorations severely weathered because of their exposure to rain
- 12 and/or rising damp.



- 14 Figure 1. Examples of weathered gypsum decorations: (a,b) decorations in the Alhambra Palace in
- 15 Granada (Spain, XIV century) exposed to rain; (c,d) stuccoes in the church of San Francesco in Fano
- 16 (Italy, XIX cent.) exposed to rising damp from the ground and rain (because of the collapse of the church
- 17 roof).

At the time of gypsum stucco creation, it was common practice to add several types of 18 19 organic additives to the stucco recipes, with the aim of increasing their durability. 20 Sugars, glycerin and citric acid were added to reduce solubility in water [3], while animal 21 blood, egg whites and casein were added to achieve water-repellency [4-6]. Currently, 22 protectives and consolidants are often used. However, commercial treatments (such as ethyl silicate and organic polymers) have exhibited serious limitations when applied to 23 24 gypsum stuccoes [7]. Ethyl silicate provides little mechanical strengthening, because of the poor bonding between the substrate and the amorphous silica coating, which is 25 26 affected by diffused cracking; organic polymers exhibit low penetration depth, thus creating a surface layer blocking the pores and negatively altering the water 27 permeability [7]. For these reasons, innovative solutions are needed. 28

29 A novel route to preserve avpsum-based elements is converting avpsum into less 30 soluble calcium phosphates (CaP), by treatment with an aqueous solution of 31 diammonium hydrogen phosphate (DAP, (NH₄)₂HPO₄). Transforming gypsum into a different mineral might raise concerns in the field of cultural heritage conservation, 32 where very strict requirements about authenticity apply [8]. However, because 33 34 preserving an artifact by using the same type of mineral is not always feasible and/or 35 effective, conservation of architectural heritage by formation of minerals possibly different from the original ones is commonly accepted and performed in practice. For 36 instance, amorphous silica and polymers (formed by silicate and organic consolidants, 37 respectively) are currently used for conservation of gypsum stuccoes in spite of the 38 39 above-mentioned limitations of these treatments. Therefore, the compatibility requirement is often interpreted as allowing a treatment that does not have negative 40 consequences on the original substrate [9], which is expected to be the case of 41 42 phosphate treatment aimed at transforming gypsum into calcium phosphates.

The reaction between gypsum and DAP solutions has been explored in different fields
(e.g., biomaterials [10] and building materials [11,12]) and different chemical reactions
have been proposed to describe the gypsum transformation:

47		$10CaSO_4 \cdot 2H_2O + 6(NH_4)_2HPO_4 \rightarrow$	
48		Ca ₁₀ (PO ₄) ₆ (OH) ₂ + 6(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ + 4H ₂ SO ₄ + 18H ₂ O [10];	(1)
49			
50		$10CaSO_4 \cdot 2H_2O + 10(NH_4)_2HPO_4 + OH^- \rightarrow$	
51		Ca ₁₀ (PO ₄) ₆ (OH) ₂ + 10(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ + H ₂ O + 4HPO ₂ -(aq) [12];	(2)
52			
53		5CaSO₄·2H ₂ O + 3(NH ₄) ₂ HPO ₄ + 4NH ₃ →	
54		Ca ₅ (PO ₄) ₃ (OH) + 5(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ + H ₂ O [11];	(3)
55			
56	or		
57			
58		CaSO₄·2H ₂ O + (NH ₄) ₂ HPO ₄ →	

59 $CaHPO_4 \cdot 2H_2O + (NH_4)_2SO_4 [11]$ (4)

60

According to reactions 1-3, hydroxyapatite (HAP, Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH)) should form. HAP is 61 usually written as Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂, to denote that the crystal unit cell comprises two 62 63 formula units. Having a dissolution rate in water about 4 orders of magnitude lower than gypsum and being the most stable calcium phosphate [13-15], HAP is the most 64 65 desirable phase to form. However, in several studies, formation of HAP starting from gypsum was reported to be associated with diffused cracking [10,11], most probably 66 caused by shrinkage during drying [11]. Cracking is undesired, as it can reduce the 67 performance of the HAP layer and even lead to its partial detachment and separation 68 [12]. Alongside HAP [11,12] or even instead of HAP [16], other CaP phases have been 69 reported to form, such as brushite (CaHPO₄·2H₂O, predicted by reaction 4) and 70 octacalcium phosphate (Ca₈(HPO₄)₂(PO₄)₄·5H₂O). A list of CaP phases and their 71 respective properties is reported in Table 1; for comparison, the solubility of gypsum is 72 2.5-3.1 g/L [17]. These CaP phases have solubility in water higher than HAP, but still 73 74 much lower than gypsum [15], hence their formation is expected to be beneficial, as long as cracking is prevented. According to reactions 1-3, ammonium sulfate 75 ((NH₄)₂SO₄) is also expected to form as a by-product. Being highly soluble in water, 76

ammonium sulfate is expected to be removed by washing with water, as demonstrated

- 78 experimentally [11,12].
- 79

Abbreviation	Name	Formula	Ca/P ratio	Solubility at 25 °C [g/L]
HAP	Hydroxyapatite	Ca ₁₀ (PO ₄) ₆ (OH) ₂	1.67	~0.0003
CDHA	Calcium-deficient HAP	Ca _{10-x} (HPO ₄) _x (PO ₄) _{6-x} (OH) _{2-x} (0 <x<1)< td=""><td>1.5-1.67</td><td>~0.0094</td></x<1)<>	1.5-1.67	~0.0094
ACP	Amorphous calcium phosphate	Ča _x H _y (PO ₄) _z ·nH ₂ O (n=3-4.5, 15-20% H ₂ O)	1.2-2.2	n.a.
β-ΤCΡ	β-Tricalcium phosphate (or calcium phosphate tribasic)	β-Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂	1.5	~0.0005
OCP	Octacalcium phosphate	Ca8(HPO4)2(PO4)4·5H2O	1.33	~0.0081
DCPD	Dicalcium phosphate dihydrate (or brushite)	CaHPO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	1.0	~0.088
DCPA	Dicalcium phosphate anhydrous (or monetite)	CaHPO ₄	1.0	~0.0048
MCPM	Monocalcium phosphate monohydrate	Ca(HPO4) ₂ ·H ₂ O	0.5	~18
MCPA	Monocalcium phosphate anhydrous (or calcium phosphate monobasic)	Ca(HPO ₄) ₂	0.5	~17
-	Gypsum	CaSO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	-	~2.5

81

80

In a previous preliminary study, we found that reacting specimens of gypsum pastes 82 83 with a 1 M DAP solution led to the formation of brushite, as well as ammonium sulfate 84 and koktaite ((NH₄)₂Ca(SO₄)₂·H₂O) as by-products [16]. A possible reason why only 85 brushite was formed, and not HAP (as would be expected based on the chemical reactions reported above), may be the lowering of pH during the reaction (according to 86 reaction 1, H₂SO₄ should form). If pH decreases below 4, formation of brushite is 87 88 expected, as this phase is the most stable at pH < 4 [18,19]. Alongside ammonium sulfate, the formation of koktaite as a by-product is thought to result from the high 89 90 amount of calcium ions in the solution, originating from the high solubility of gypsum in 91 water [16].

93 In light of the above reported studies, the aims of the present paper are the following:

1) to study the influence of several reaction parameters (viz., concentration of the DAP
 solution, addition of ethanol, pH of the DAP solution) on the nature and the
 morphology of the new CaP phases, and to optimize the treatment by promoting
 formation of phases with low solubility and preventing cracking;

98 2) for the most promising formulation, to test the improvement in mechanical properties
99 and the reduction in solubility of gypsum stuccoes resulting from the formation of the
100 new CaP phases;

to compare the performance of the most promising formulation of the phosphate
 treatment with that of ammonium oxalate. The ammonium oxalate treatment was
 proposed in the 90s for protection of carbonate stones and wall paintings and for
 desulfation of sulfated substrates [11,20,21]. This latter action can be achieved by
 transforming gypsum into less soluble calcium oxalate, according to the reaction:

106

$$CaSO_4 \cdot 2H_2O + (NH_4)_2C_2O_4 \rightarrow CaC_2O_4 \cdot 2H_2O + (NH_4)_2SO_4 + H_2O.$$
 (4)

The consolidating ability of the oxalate treatment on gypsum stuccoes was here investigated because a good mechanical improvement has been reported in the case of sugaring marble [21], even if a poor performance has been found in other studies [15] (so that new routes for improving the treatment based on calcium oxalate are currently being investigated [22]).

Moreover, based on the results obtained on gypsum stuccoes, the suitability of using 112 113 the same formulation of the phosphate treatment also for conservation of sulfated 114 marble was preliminarily investigated. The use of DAP solutions for marble protection 115 [23-26] and consolidation [15,27-29] has been studied in the last few years with very encouraging results. However, the cited studies have been carried out on 116 uncontaminated marble samples, whereas marble in the field is often covered with a 117 layer of gypsum. This gypsum layer is the result of the reaction between marble and 118 119 sulfur dioxide, which was present in the atmosphere in high concentrations in the past 120 decades, before traffic regulation policies led to the current low values [30], and which is 121 still present in places where such regulations have not been established yet. Some pilot

applications of the DAP-based treatment onto naturally decayed stones (exhibiting 122 gypsum contamination) have shown that the presence of gypsum can significantly alter 123 124 the composition of the CaP phases formed after treatment [15,31]. Therefore, in the 125 present study, a preliminary evaluation of the treatment effect on sulfated marble was 126 carried out, in terms of morphology and composition of the new CaP phases formed after treatment. It is noteworthy that, in the case of sulfated marble, the possible pH 127 128 decrease during the reaction (where, according to reaction 1, H₂SO₄ may form) is potentially a major issue, because it might cause severe aggression to marble 129 130 underlying the gypsum layer. Therefore, the variation in pH during treatment of sulfated marble with the DAP solution was carefully monitored. 131

132

133 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

134 **2.1. Materials**

135 2.1.1. Gypsum stuccoes

To simulate ancient stuccoes, specimens of gypsum pastes (with no aggregates) were prepared starting from bassanite (the so-called "*scagliola*"), supplied by Gessificio Prioli srl, Italy (purity ~95%). Bassanite was mixed with water (water/bassanite weight ratio of 0.5) and prismatic specimens ($4 \times 4 \times 16$ cm³) were cast. After hardening, the specimens were sawn to obtain cubic (1 cm edge length), cylindrical (2 cm diameter, 4 cm height) and prismatic samples ($1 \times 1 \times 16$ cm³).

142 2.1.2. Sulfated marble

To simulate sulfated marble, cubic specimens (1 cm edge length) of Carrara marble (BasketweaveMosaics.com, USA) were immersed in an aqueous solution of H₂SO₄ (Sigma Aldrich) at pH 2 for 24 hours. In this way, a surface layer of gypsum was formed over the marble substrate.

- 147 2.1.3. Chemicals
- Diammonium hydrogen phosphate (DAP, $(NH_4)_2HPO_4$, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich), ammonium oxalate ($(NH_4)_2C_2O_4\cdot H_2O$, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich), calcium chloride (CaCl₂·2H₂O, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich), ammonium hydroxide (ACS Grade), ethanol (Fisher-Scientific) and deionized water were used.

152 **2.2. Treatments**

- 153 A scheme summarizing the various treatment conditions and the respective specimens
- is reported in Figure 2.
- 155

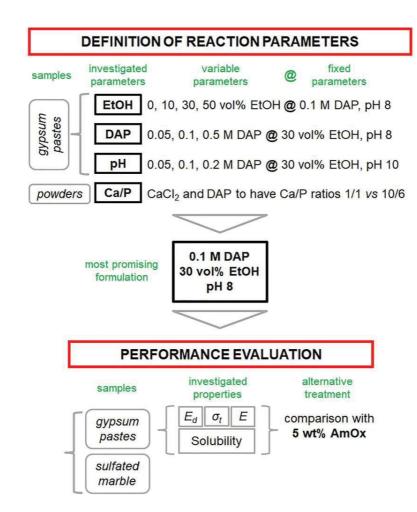




Figure 2. Scheme illustrating the various treatment conditions and specimens.

158 2.2.1. Phosphate treatment

Apart from the role of the Ca/P ratio (investigated as described in the following), the influence of all the other parameters was tested by immersing specimens of gypsum stuccoes (1 cm cubes) in 200 ml of DAP solution for 24 hours. The variation in pH of the DAP solution was monitored during the 24-hour reaction. At the end of the treatment, samples were abundantly rinsed with water and then dried at room temperature. The following parameters were considered:

165 > ethanol concentration. A previous study had shown that the undesired, soluble phase koktaite was formed when samples of gypsum stuccoes were reacted with a 1 166 167 M DAP solution [16]. The formation of this phase was ascribed to an excess of calcium ions available in the DAP solution, as a result of the high solubility of 168 gypsum in water. Consequently, a reduction in the solubility of gypsum in the DAP 169 170 solution (and hence a reduction in the free calcium ions) appears as a promising route to prevent the formation of koktaite. According to the literature, a reduction in 171 172 gypsum solubility in aqueous solutions can be achieved by adding ethanol to water: 173 a 30 wt% addition of ethanol to water was found to reduce gypsum solubility by 174 about 30% [32]. Consequently, ethanol additions of 0, 10, 30 and 50 vol% to a 0.1 M 175 aqueous DAP solution were here investigated. A DAP concentration of 0.1 M was selected (instead of the higher concentrations previously tested in the literature, 176 177 namely 1 M [16], 3 M [12] and 3.8 M [11]) because studies on marble showed that 178 the addition of ethanol to the DAP solution provides a continuous, crack-free and 179 pore-free film, using only millimolar concentrations of DAP. This is possible thanks to 180 the boosting effect that ethanol has on the reactivity of phosphate ions in the solution 181 [25,29].

DAP concentration. For the ethanol concentration that showed the best results (30 vol%, cf. § 3.1), the effects of higher and lower DAP concentrations were investigated. Samples were reacted in 0.05, 0.1 and 0.5 M DAP solutions, in all cases containing 30 vol% ethanol.

186 \succ <u>pH of the DAP solution</u>. Without any pH modification, a 0.1 M DAP solution has pH 187 8. However, at higher pH a higher amount of PO₄³⁻ ions (necessary to form HAP) is

expected to form from DAP dissociation [24,33]. Therefore, the effect of increasing the pH of the DAP solution from 8 to 10 was investigated. Solutions with increasing DAP concentration (0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 M, the latter being the maximum concentration not leading to immediate precipitation at pH 10) were explored, at a constant ethanol concentration of 30 vol% and pH 10. The pH was adjusted using ammonium hydroxide, which was selected among possible bases because it leaves no undesired cations in the solution.

> Ca/P ratio. To study the influence of the starting Ca/P ratio on the composition of the 195 new CaP phases, a simplified system was considered. Two aqueous solutions with 196 197 different Ca/P ratios were prepared. DAP was added to a 10 mM aqueous solution 198 of CaCl₂·2H₂O in such an amount to obtain (i) a Ca/P ratio of 10/6 (corresponding to 199 that of HAP) and (ii) a Ca/P ratio of 1/1 (corresponding to that of brushite). In both 200 cases, the precipitate was filtered, dried at room temperature and then analyzed by 201 powder X-ray diffraction (XRD), using a Rigaku MiniFlex diffractometer (detector scan range 2θ =3-60°, step size = 0.04 θ , step time = 0.8 s, kV = 40, mA = 40). 202

203 2.2.2. Oxalate treatment

For comparison's sake, specimens of gypsum stuccoes were also treated by immersion in a 5 wt% aqueous solution of ammonium oxalate for 24 hours. At the end of the treatment, samples were abundantly rinsed with water and then dried at room temperature.

208 **2.3.** Characterization

209 2.3.1. Nature and morphology of the new CaP phases

The mineralogical composition of the new CaP phases formed on the surface of treated samples (1 cm cubes) was determined by grazing incidence diffractometry (GID), using a Bruker D8 Discover X-Ray Diffractometer (incidence radiation θ =0.5°, detector scan range 2 θ =3-37°, step size = 0.02 θ , step time = 0.4 s, kV = 40, mA = 40). Thanks to the low penetration depth of the incoming radiation (a few hundreds of nanometers from the

surface), by GID it is possible to determine the composition of the surface layers without
interference from the substrate. The same technique was used also for checking the
formation of gypsum after the preliminary accelerated sulfation procedure carried out on
marble samples (cf. § 2.1.2).

The morphology and the possible presence of cracks in the new CaP phases formed after treatment was assessed by observation with an environmental scanning electron microscope (FEI Quanta 200 FEG ESEM) equipped with an energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy device (Oxford Instruments EDS probe). Before ESEM observation, samples were made conductive by coating with carbon. The same instrument was used also for observing the gypsum layer formed after accelerated sulfation of marble samples (cf. § 2.1.2).

226 2.3.2. Mechanical properties

The improvement in mechanical properties of the gypsum stuccoes after consolidation was evaluated for (i) the phosphate treatment based on 0.1 M DAP with 30 vol% ethanol at pH 8 (labeled "DAP") and (ii) for the ammonium oxalate treatment (labeled "AmOx"). The mechanical improvement was evaluated in terms of:

- 231 \triangleright dynamic elastic modulus (*E_d*). *E_d* can be determined non-destructively by measuring 232 the time required by an ultrasonic pulse to cross the sample. Being a non-destructive 233 test, it can be repeated on the same sample before and after consolidation. *E_d* was 234 determined according to the formula $E_d = \rho v^2$, where ρ is the density and v is the 235 ultrasonic pulse velocity. v was measured across the 4 cm height of the cylindrical 236 samples by a PUNDIT instrument with 54 kHz transducers, using a rubber couplant 237 to improve the contact. For each condition, 5 samples were tested.
- 238 > static elastic modulus (*E*). *E* was tested because, unlike E_d , it is not affected by the 239 pore-clogging effect that consolidants might have, which could lead to an increase in 240 E_d without necessarily implying an increase in the actual stiffness. *E* was determined 241 by three-point beam bending, from the slope of the stress-strain curve obtained by 242 loading the 1×1×16 cm³ samples. Samples were placed on two supports at a 243 distance of 120 mm and then loaded in the center by a pushrod, activated by a

stepping motor. The load was measured by a 1 kg load cell, while the deflection was
 measured by a linear variable displacement transducer (LVDT). *E* was calculated
 from the slope of the stress-strain curve, determined by linear regression of five
 stress-strain coordinates. For each condition, 5 samples were tested.

255 **2.3.3**. Solubility

The reduction in solubility after treatment was determined by a simplified test. After drying to constant weight, untreated and treated cylindrical samples were immersed in 600 ml of deionized water at initial pH 5 (each sample in a different container), water being kept stirring by a magnetic stirrer. After 24 hours, the samples were extracted from water and dried at room temperature until constant weight. The weight loss after prolonged exposure to water was then determined by comparing the initial and the final weights.

263 2.3.4. Penetration depth

The penetration depth of the phosphate and oxalate treatments was assessed by SEM observation of cross sections obtained by chisel from the cylindrical samples used for the splitting tensile test. After coating with aluminum to make them conductive, the samples were observed using a Philips XL20 SEM equipped with an EDAX EDS probe.

268

269 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

270 **3.1. Gypsum stuccoes**

271 3.1.1. Formation of new CaP phases

- 272 The effect of the investigated parameters on the mineralogical composition of the new
- 273 CaP phases is reported in Figure 3, while the morphology of the new phases is
- illustrated in Figure 4, Figure 5 and Figure 6.

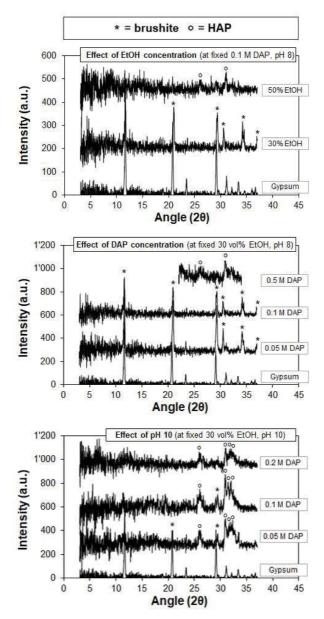


Figure 3. Mineralogical composition of the new CaP phases formed by treating gypsum samples with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of ethanol concentration (top), DAP concentration (medium) and pH increase to 10 at various DAP concentrations (bottom).

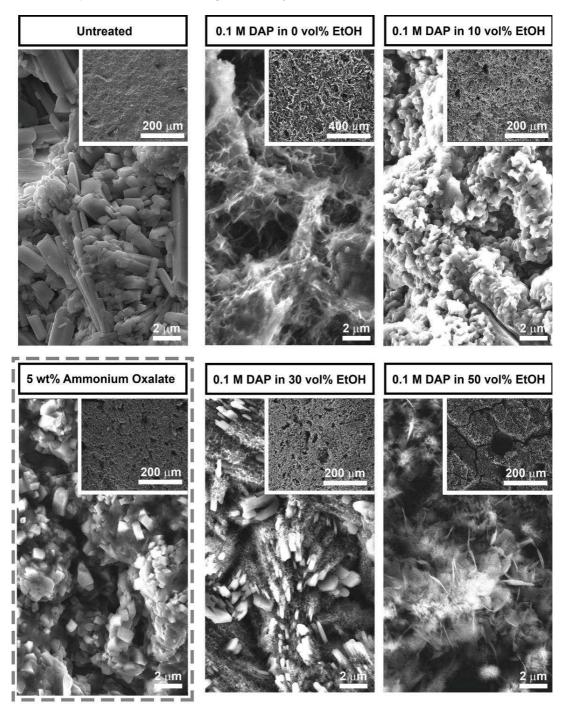
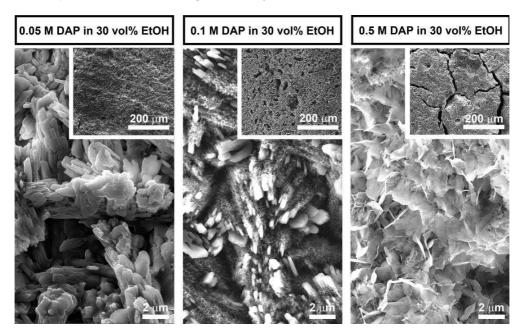


Figure 4. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of ethanol concentration. For comparison's sake, also the untreated reference and whewellite formed after treatment with ammonium oxalate (dashed box) are reported.



285

Figure 5. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of DAP concentration.

288

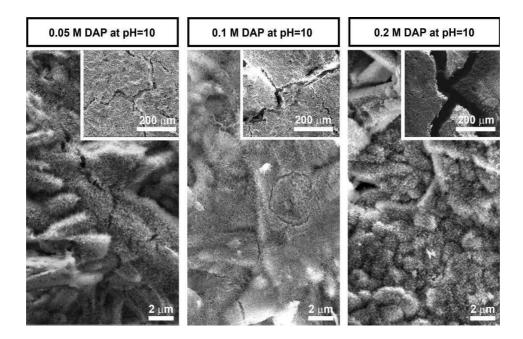


Figure 6. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of increasing pH to 10, at various DAP concentrations.

After reaction with a 0.1 M DAP solution containing no or 10 vol% ethanol addition, 293 294 some new CaP phases were formed (Figure 4). They could not be identified by GID, 295 likely because of the very small amount produced. The limited formation of CaP phases 296 when such a low DAP concentration was used is consistent with previous results 297 obtained on fresh marble, where no new phases were observed if no ethanol was added to the 0.1 M DAP solution [29]. In the case of gypsum, when the ethanol 298 299 concentration was increased to 30 and 50 vol%, abundant new phases were formed, having a clearly different morphology (Figure 4). As reported in Figure 3, the new 300 301 phases were identified as brushite (30 vol% ethanol) and HAP (50 vol% ethanol). In this 302 latter case, the treated sample exhibited diffused cracking (Figure 4), which is 303 undesirable for achieving protection from dissolution in water.

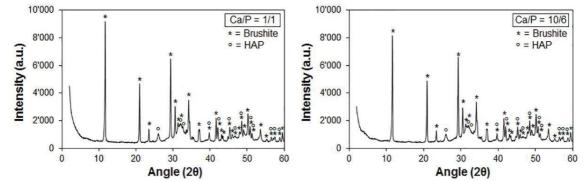
When the effect of increasing the DAP concentration was investigated, the modification in phase composition and morphology reported in Figure 3 and Figure 5, respectively, was obtained. Whereas brushite was the main phase formed at 0.05 and 0.1 M DAP, HAP (exhibiting a clearly different morphology, Figure 5) was formed at 0.5 M DAP. However, also in this case, formation of HAP was associated with heavy cracking of the sample surface, while no cracking was observed in samples where brushite formed (Figure 5).

311 Formation of HAP is expected from reactions 1-3, but in some of the investigated 312 conditions brushite was formed instead of HAP. A possible explanation for this might be the lowering of pH during the reaction as predicted by reaction 1. If pH decreases below 313 314 4, then brushite would be the most stable CaP phase and hence its formation would be expected [19]. To verify whether this was the case, in all the experiments the pH was 315 316 monitored. The pH was found to change only slightly during the reaction (from 8.1 to 317 8.0), hence never getting below 4. Therefore, pH variation was excluded as the possible reason why brushite was formed instead of HAP. 318

Another possible explanation could be that brushite (requiring HPO_4^{2-} ions) is kinetically favored over HAP (requiring PO_4^{3-} ions), as DAP speciation leads to a much higher amount of the former ions with respect to the latter. For instance, in the case of a 0.1 M

DAP solution (with no ethanol addition), calculations performed with Mathematica® 322 (following the method described in [24]) predict the following concentrations of 323 phosphate ions: 0.0959 M HPO₄²⁻ ions, 0.0039 M H₂PO₄⁻ ions and only 3.3×10^{-5} M 324 PO₄³⁻ ions, hence a ratio of HPO₄²⁻/PO₄³⁻ of about 2900. The ratio becomes even higher 325 (about 5850) if an amount of CaCl₂ sufficient to match gypsum solubility limit (15.1 mM 326 [34]) is also considered in the solution. The hypothesis that brushite is kinetically 327 328 favored over HAP would also explain the change in phase composition detected for increasing ethanol concentration or increasing DAP concentration. In fact, in either 329 330 case, the Ca/P ratio is decreasing (because fewer Ca ions are available and more P ions are available, respectively). Because HAP has a higher Ca/P ratio than brushite 331 (1.67 vs 1, respectively), formation of HAP would be expected to be favored at higher 332 333 Ca concentrations (i.e., lower ethanol concentrations) or at lower DAP concentrations.

334 To verify whether formation of brushite occurs because the kinetics predominates over 335 the effect of the Ca/P ratio, solutions were prepared with different Ca/P ratios, namely 10/6 (corresponding to that of HAP) and 1/1 (corresponding to that of brushite) (cf. § 336 337 2.2.1). As illustrated in Figure 7, in both cases brushite was the main phase that formed, 338 with only minor amounts of HAP. This suggests that, independently of the starting Ca/P 339 ratio, formation of more soluble brushite is favored over less soluble HAP, likely because HPO₄²⁻ ions needed to form brushite are more easily available than PO₄³⁻ ions 340 needed to form HAP. Accordingly, in a recent paper [12] it was proposed that formation 341 of CaP phases follows the Ostwald's rule, i.e. the phase with the fastest precipitation 342 343 rate is preferentially formed, even if it is not the most stable one [12].



344Angle (20)Angle (20)345Figure 7. Composition of the new CaP phases precipitated from solutions with Ca/P ratio of 1/1346(left) and Ca/P ratio of 10/6 (right).

To promote formation of HAP, we increased the pH of the starting DAP solution from 8 347 348 to 10, because more PO₄³⁻ ions (required to form HAP) are available at higher pH [33]. As expected, a significant change in phase composition was achieved by increasing the 349 350 pH (Figure 3). At low DAP concentrations (0.05 and 0.1 M), brushite was still present, but also HAP was formed. At higher DAP concentration (0.2 M, the highest 351 concentration not leading to direct precipitation at pH 10), only HAP was detected. 352 353 However, in all cases the new CaP phases exhibited diffused cracking (Figure 6), which 354 presumably occurred during drying because the porous films exceeded the critical 355 thickness for cracking (below the critical thickness, cracking is thermodynamically 356 inhibited [35]). In addition to altering the aesthetic appearance of the treated stuccoes (as they are visible even by naked eve), cracks are expected to be detrimental to 357 358 protection from dissolution in water. Therefore, formulations at pH 10, leading to 359 diffused cracking, were regarded as not promising for providing satisfactory protection.

360 It is noteworthy that in no case was formation of undesired koktaite [16] detected, which was the aim of adding ethanol to the DAP solution (because ethanol reduces the 361 362 solubility of gypsum in water [32] and hence the amount of free calcium ions in the DAP 363 solution). Moreover, neither was formation of ammonium sulfate detected by GID, which 364 is the positive result of abundantly washing samples with deionized water at the end of 365 the 24 hour reaction. However, this washing procedure was sufficient to entirely remove ammonium sulfate in the samples used for GID (1 cm cubes), but not in bigger samples 366 used for mechanical tests (e.g. cylinders with 2 cm diameter and 4 cm height). After 367 368 treatment, washing and drying, the latter samples exhibited some color change towards grey, owing to formation of ammonium sulfate, detected also by GID. However, by 369 370 further saturating the samples with deionized water by capillary rise and then 371 submerging the samples, ammonium sulphate was almost completely removed, as indicated by GID and by the color change back to the initial one. Accordingly, no traces 372 of nitrogen were detected by SEM/EDS on cross sections obtained from the cylindrical 373 374 samples used for the tensile strength test.

In light of these results, the formulation of the phosphate treatment based on a 0.1 M DAP solution also containing 30 vol% ethanol at pH 8 was considered as the most

promising one, as it leads to formation of brushite (significantly less soluble than 377 gypsum, although more soluble than HAP), without cracking. In terms of long term 378 379 stability, brushite (as well as other metastable CaP phases) are expected to undergo dissolution and reprecipitation processes, finally leading to formation of the most stable 380 381 CaP phase, i.e. HAP. In the case of a CaP layer formed by reacting gypsum with DAP solutions, progressive densification of the layer with time, thanks to formation of 382 383 additional CaP phases, was found experimentally [12]. On the contrary, dehydration of brushite to monetite (CaHPO₄, having much higher water solubility than brushite, Table 384 385 1) was not found to occur in practical conditions [11]. Therefore, the long term stability of the so-formed brushite is expected to be satisfactory. 386

The consolidating and protecting ability of the above-reported formulation (labeled "DAP") was hence investigated and compared to that of commercial ammonium oxalate (labeled "AmOx").

390 3.1.2. Mechanical consolidation

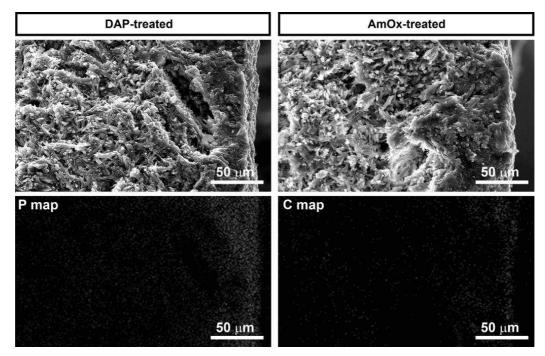
The variations in mechanical properties after application of the phosphate and oxalatetreatments are reported in Table 2.

393

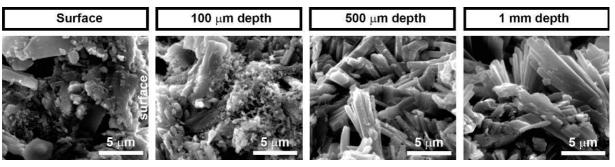
	Untreated	DAP	Variation	AmOx	Variation
E _d (GPa)	9.9 (±0.4)	10.3 (±0.1)	+3%	11.1 (±0.6)	+12%
<i>E</i> (GPa)	4.0 (±0.5)	4.2 (±0.2)	+5%	4.0 (±0.2)	0%
σ_t (MPa)	3.4 (±0.7)	3.8 (±0.2)	+13%	3.3 (±0.6)	-3%
Δw (%)	9.5	7.9	-17%	9.5	0%

Table 2. Mechanical properties and weight loss after immersion in water of untreated and treated samples (E_d = dynamic elastic modulus; E = static modulus; σ_t = tensile strength; Δw = weight loss). Values of mechanical properties are averages for 5 samples (standard deviations in brackets).

399 The DAP treatment caused modest increases in dynamic elastic modulus E_d and static 400 modulus E (+3% and +5%, respectively) and a slightly higher increase in tensile 401 strength (+13%). This limited mechanical improvement seems to derive from the low depth of formation of new CaP phases, as assessed by SEM/EDS analysis of cross 402 sections. As illustrated in Figure 8 and Figure 9, the formation of new CaP phases and 403 the consequent presence of phosphorus are mainly concentrated in the first 50-100 µm 404 405 from the surface. Traces of new CaP phases were observed at a depth of 500 µm from 406 the surface, while no new phases were detected at 1 mm (Figure 9). This reduced 407 penetration depth, in spite of the ability of the DAP solution to penetrate deeply into 408 porous substrates (up to 25 mm in porous limestone [36-38]), is thought to be a consequence of the fast reaction between the DAP solution and gypsum. 409 410 Notwithstanding the addition of ethanol to the DAP solution to reduce gypsum solubility, 411 the presence of a large amount of calcium ions available for reaction is responsible for the consumption of phosphate ions in the DAP solution, so that new CaP phases form 412 mostly near the surface. Possible strategies for reducing the reaction speed and hence 413 favor formation of the new CaP phases also in depth are currently under investigation. 414



416 Figure 8. Morphology and elemental maps of cross sections of samples treated by DAP (left)417 and AmOx (right).



418

Figure 9. New CaP phases at increasing depth from the surface. Whereas abundant new phases are present near the surface and can still be clearly observed at 100 µm depth, only minor traces of new CaP phases are visible at 500 µm depth (small flakes formed on the surface of the big gypsum crystals) and no trace is found at 1 mm depth.

423

In the case of the AmOx treatment, gypsum was transformed into whewellite 424 (CaC₂O₄·H₂O), as indicated by GID and illustrated in Figure 4 (dashed box). In this 425 case, even if a higher increase in E_d was registered (+12%), no significant increase in 426 427 either the static modulus or the tensile strength was found (Table 2). The lack of any 428 substantial consolidating action is thought to be a consequence of the reduced depth of 429 formation of whewellite, which in turns derives from the kinetics of reaction between the ammonium oxalate solution and the substrate. As recently pointed out in a study on 430 431 carbonate stones, ammonium oxalate tends to react with calcite more quickly than DAP, which leads to a lower penetration depth of the former treatment compared to the latter 432 [39]. Accordingly, in the case of gypsum (even more soluble than calcite), in the present 433 434 study a much lower depth of formation of calcium oxalate was found by SEM/EDS, 435 compared to calcium phosphates (Figure 8). The presence of C (assumed as indicative 436 of formation of whewellite) was detected only at a few tens of microns from the surface. 437 This finding is in agreement with previous results reported in the literature on treatment of gypsum with ammonium oxalate and ammonium phosphate solutions [11]. In the 438 439 cited study, a strong gradient in the formation of calcium oxalate was reported (the highest amount being concentrated near the surface), whereas a more homogenous 440 441 formation of CaP phases (present also in depth) was found [11]. The apparent increase in E_d registered in the AmOx-treated samples is thought to derive from formation of 442

ammonium sulfate inside the pores of the samples. In the case of the AmOx treatment, 443 444 traces of ammonium sulfate were detected by GID even in the 1 cm cubes, although 445 washed at the end of the treatment. In the cylindrical samples used for E_d measurements, while saturation and submersion in water were sufficient to remove 446 447 basically all the ammonium sulfate from the DAP-treated samples, in the case of the AmOx-treated ones, a considerable amount of ammonium sulfate still remained, as 448 449 suggested by the color change and confirmed by GID. The difference between the DAPand the AmOx-treatments in the amount of ammonium sulfate formed inside the pores 450 451 and remaining after washing derives from the fact that NH₄⁺ ions were more abundant in 452 the AmOx solution (about 0.4 M) than in the DAP solution (0.1 M).

Comparing the performance of the two treatments, the DAP solution was able to 453 454 penetrate more in depth and provide greater mechanical improvement than the AmOx 455 treatment, but neither is very effective. Compared to ammonium oxalate, the DAP 456 treatment has the advantage of leading to formation of a smaller amount of ammonium 457 sulfate, that can be more easily removed. For the same reason, even if slightly greater 458 mechanical improvements were found in a previous study where a 1 M DAP solution 459 was used ($\Delta E_d = +5\%$ and $\Delta \sigma_t = +16\%$ [16]), still the formulation adopted in this study 460 seems preferable, considering that the small mechanical advantage had been obtained at the cost of a much higher DAP concentration (10 times as much) and formation of 461 462 much more ammonium sulfate (and koktaite) inside the sample [16].

463 **3.1.3**. Protection from dissolution in water

464 The results of the simplified dissolution tests are reported in Table 2.

In the case of the DAP treatment, thanks to gypsum conversion to brushite, a 17% reduction in weight loss after prolonged exposure to water was registered. The reason why the reduction was not higher (in spite of brushite being about 27 times less soluble than gypsum [15]) is thought to be the porous nature of the brushite layer and of the gypsum substrate, combined with the reduced depth of gypsum conversion to brushite. In fact, porosity allows water to penetrate in depth and reach the inner part of the sample, not completely covered by the newly formed brushite.

In the case of the AmOx treatment, no reduction in weight loss was registered, compared to the untreated reference. This is a consequence of the fact that whewellite formed only in the most superficial part of the sample, because of the high speed of the reaction [11]. Combined with the porous nature of the sample, this prevented an effective protecting action from being achieved.

477 **3.2.** Sulfated marble

478 After immersion in H₂SO₄ at pH 2 for 24 hours, gypsum was formed on the marble 479 surface, as confirmed by GID. The newly formed gypsum exhibited a needle-like 480 morphology, as illustrated in Figure 10.

481

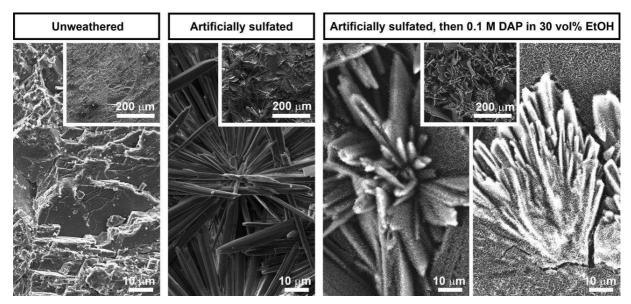


Figure 10. Morphology of fresh marble (left), artificially sulfated marble (middle) and artificially
sulfated marble treated with DAP (right).

485

482

During reaction with the formulation that gave the best results on gypsum stuccoes (namely, a 0.1 M DAP solution in 30 vol% ethanol), the pH of the solution was found to change only slightly, from 8.1 to 8.0. Consequently, no risk of marble corrosion owing to the possible formation of H_2SO_4 during reaction of the gypsum layer with the DAP solution (cf. reaction 1 in § 1) was present.

After treatment, new CaP phases were formed, as illustrated in Figure 10. These 491 492 phases exhibit a morphology more similar to that of HAP (Figure 7) than to brushite 493 (Figure 4), but no conclusive phase identification was achieved by GID. This is probably 494 to be ascribed to the reduced thickness of the new CaP phases, as suggested by the 495 fact that these phases closely follow the morphology of the needle-like gypsum crystals originally covering the marble surface. Whatever the nature of the new CaP phases, 496 497 their solubility is in any case lower than that of gypsum, hence a benefit in terms of resistance to dissolution is expected. 498

However, some micro-cracks were visible in the CaP layer (Figure 10, right), while no similar cracks were observed in the gypsum layer before treatment with the DAP solution. Because the formation of micro-cracks in the CaP layer may negatively affect its durability, further investigation seems opportune to optimize the treatment outcome in the case of sulfated marble, where the morphology of the starting gypsum crystals may affect the phosphate treatment outcome.

505 It is noteworthy that, in the case of marble covered with gypsum layers embedding dust and particulate matter (the so-called "black crusts"), transformation of gypsum into 506 507 calcium phosphates would encapsulate the dirt in a layer with reduced solubility, which might be counterproductive. Therefore, whenever possible, the dark matter should be 508 509 removed by cleaning before application of the DAP-based treatment. Nonetheless, in 510 the case of marble covered by black crusts, below which the marble surface is sugaring (so that cleaning the black crust might threaten the conservation of the underlying 511 512 marble), preliminary tests we have carried out indicate that the DAP treatment, applied 513 over the gypsum crust, is able to pre-consolidate the marble surface, which becomes 514 able to stand the cleaning operations, while the consolidated crust can still be 515 successfully removed by cleaning.

516 4. CONCLUSIONS

517 In the present study, the composition and the morphology of new calcium phosphate 518 phases formed by reacting gypsum pastes with different solutions of diammonium

519 hydrogen phosphate was investigated and the consolidating and protecting ability of the 520 most promising formulation were evaluated. The following conclusions can be derived:

521 1) Formation of phases with low solubility (e.g., HAP) can be obtained by increasing 522 the ethanol concentration (added to reduce gypsum solubility and hence the amount 523 of calcium ions in the solution), by increasing the DAP concentration or by increasing 524 the pH. However, HAP formation was found to be associated with diffused and 525 visible cracking, likely because of excessive growth of the new phase. On the 526 contrary, when more soluble brushite was formed, no cracking was observed.

527 2) Formation of brushite was found to be favored over formation of HAP, likely because
 528 brushite requires HPO4²⁻ ions (by far the most abundant species originated from
 529 DAP dissociation) while HAP requires PO4³⁻ ions (which are present only in very
 530 minor amounts). This explains why brushite is preferentially formed, even in a pH
 531 range and for a starting Ca/P ratio that should favor HAP.

532 3) Samples of gypsum stuccoes treated for 24 hours with a 0.1 M DAP solution 533 containing 30 vol% ethanol at pH 8 exhibited formation of uncracked brushite. As 534 brushite is less soluble than gypsum (although more soluble than HAP), such treatment caused a 17% decrease in weight loss of the gypsum stuccoes after 535 prolonged exposure to water and a 13% increase in their tensile strength. However, 536 537 the improvement induced by the phosphate treatment was not as high as hoped 538 because of the reduced depth of formation of brushite, mostly concentrated in the 539 first 50-100 μ m from the surface and present only in traces at a depth of 500 μ m. 540 The phosphate treatment provided better results than the ammonium oxalate treatment, originally proposed for desulfation of calcareous substrates and here 541 investigated for consolidation and protection of gypsum stuccoes. The performance 542 of the oxalate treatment is mainly limited by the high speed of reaction between the 543 oxalate solution and gypsum, so that the depth of formation of calcium oxalate is 544 545 only a few tens of microns from the surface. Possible routes to reduce the speed of 546 reaction between the phosphate solution and gypsum are currently under 547 investigation. In the case of the oxalate treatment, use of a lower concentration of

ammonium oxalate and/or addition of alcohol might improve the performance, butthose variations were not explored in the present study.

550 4) With the aim of treating sulfated marble so as to transform gypsum into less soluble 551 calcium phosphate phases, the same formulation of the phosphate treatment reported above was tested also on artificially sulfated samples of Carrara marble. 552 553 New calcium phosphate phases with the flower-like morphology typical of HAP were 554 observed, but they could not be identified by GID. Because some cracks were 555 observed in the new calcium phosphate layer, some further optimization of the 556 treatment seems necessary for application to sulfated marble, where the morphology 557 of the gypsum crystals may also play a role.

558 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

559 This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research 560 and innovation programme under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie grant agreement No 561 655239 (HAP4MARBLE project, "Multi-functionalization of hydroxyapatite for restoration 562 and preventive conservation of marble artworks"). Prof. Andrea Saccani (DICAM, 563 University of Bologna) is gratefully acknowledged for collaboration in the SEM 564 observation of cross sections.

565 **REFERENCES**

- [1] Rampazzi L., Rizzo B., Colombo C., Conti C., Realini M., Bartolucci U., Colombini M.P.,
 Spiriti A., Facchin L., The stucco decorations from St. Lorenzo in Laino (Como, Italy): The
 materials and the techniques employed by the "Magistri Comacini", Anal Chim Acta 630
 (2008) 91-100
- 570 [2] Blasco-López FJ, Alejandre Sánchez FJ (2013) Porosity and surface hardness as 571 indicators of the state of conservation of Mudéjar plasterwork in the Real Alcázar in 572 Seville. Journal of Cultural Heritage 14:169–173
- 573 [3] Natali C., Lorenzini G., Le "ricette" degli stucchi in Italia Settentrionale dal XV al XX
 574 secolo. In: Lo stucco: cultura, tecnologia, conoscenza Atti del convegno di studi
 575 Bressanone 10-13 Luglio 2001, Scienza e Beni Culturali XVII 2001. Ed. Arcadia Ricerche
 576 [In Italian]

- 577 [4] Montana G., Ronca F., The "recipe" of the stucco sculptures of Giacomo Serpotta. J Cult 578 Herit 3 (2002) 133-145
- 579 [5] Tulliani J.M., Bertolini Cestari C., Study of the degradation causes affecting stucco 580 sculptures from Valentino Castle in Turin, Mater Struct 38 (2005) 425-432
- [6] Arcolao C., Dal Bo A., L'influenza delle sostanze proteiche naturali su alcune proprietà
 degli stucchi. In: Lo stucco: cultura, tecnologia, conoscenza Atti del convegno di studi
 Bressanone 10-13 Luglio 2001, Scienza e Beni Culturali XVII 2001. Ed. Arcadia Ricerche
 [In Italian]
- Jroundi F., Gonzalez-Muñoz M.T., Garcia-Bueno A., Rodriguez-Navarro C., Consolidation
 of archaeological gypsum plaster by bacterial biomineralization of calcium carbonate, Acta
 Biomater 10 (2014) 3844–3854
- 588 [8] Amoroso G.G., Fassina V., Stone decay and conservation, Elsevier, New York, 1983
- 589 [9] Van Balen K., Papayanni I., Van Hees R., Binda L., Waldum A., Introduction to
 590 requirements for and functions and properties of repair mortars, Materials and Structures
 591 38 (2005) 781-785
- 592 [10] Suzuki Y., Matsuya S., Udoh K., Nakagawa M., Tsukiyama Y., Koyano K., Ishikawa K.,
 593 Fabrication of hydroxyapatite block from gypsum block based on (NH₄)₂HPO₄ treatment,
 594 Dent Mater J 24(4) (2005) 515-521
- 595 [11] Snethlage R., Gruber C., Tucic V., Wendler E., Transforming gypsum into calcium
 596 phosphate the better way to preserve lime paint layers on natural stone? In: Mimoso JM
 597 & Delgado Rodrigues J (Ed), Stone consolidation n Cultural Heritage, (2008) 1-13
- Molina E., Rueda-Quero L., Benavente D., Burgos-Cara A., Ruiz-Agudo E., Cultrone
 G., Gypsum crust as a source of calcium for the consolidation of carbonate stones using a
 calcium phosphate-based consolidant, Construction and Building Materials 143 (2017)
 298-311
- 602 [13] Perry R.H., Green DW, Maloney JO (1997) Perry's chemical engineer's book, 7th edn.
 603 McGraw-Hill, New York
- 604 [14] Sassoni E., Naidu S., Scherer G.W., The use of hydroxyapatite as a new inorganic
 605 consolidant for damaged carbonate stones. J Cult Herit 12 (2011) 346-355
- 606 [15] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., Repair of sugaring marble by ammonium phosphate:
 607 comparison with ethyl silicate and ammonium oxalate and pilot application to historic
 608 artifact. Mater Design 88 (2015) 1145-1157
- 609 [16] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Scherer G.W., Franzoni E., Preliminary study on the use of 610 ammonium phosphate for the conservation of marble-imitating gypsum-stuccoes, In:

- 611 Papayianni I., Stefanidou M., Pachta V. (Eds), Proceedings of the 4th Historic Mortars
- 612 Conference HMC2016, Santorini (GR), 10-12 October 2016, p. 391-398
- 613 [17] Lebedev A.L., Kosorukov V.L., Gypsum Solubility in Water at 25°C, Geochem Int 55
 614 (2017) 205–210
- 615 [18] Dorozhkin S.V., Calcium orthophophates, Biomatter 1 (2011) 121-164
- [19] Ishikawa K., Suzuki Y., Matsuya S., Nakagawa M., Koyano K., Effects of pH on the
 transformation of gypsum to carbonate apatite in the presence of ammonium hydrogen
 phosphate, Key Eng Mat 309-311 (2006) 199-202
- 619 [20] Matteini M., Moles A., Giovannoni S., Calcium oxalate as a protective mineral system for 620 wall paintings: methodology and analyses, III Int. Symp. Conservation of Monuments in
- the Mediterranean Basin, ed. V. Fassina, H. Ott, F. Zezza, 1994, pp. 155-162
- 622 [21] Matteini M., Inorganic treatments for the consolidation and protection of stone artefacts,
 623 Conservation Science in Cultural Heritage 8 (2008) 13-27
- 624 [22] Burgos-Cara A., Ruiz-Agudo E., Rodriguez-Navarro C., Effectiveness of oxalic acid
 625 treatments for the protection of marble surfaces, Materials and Design 115 (2017) 82–92
- [23] Naidu S., Sassoni E., Scherer G.W., New treatment for corrosion-resistant coatings for
 marble and consolidation of limestone, in Stefanaggi M., Vergès-Belmin V. (Eds), "Jardins
 de Pierres Conservation of stone in Parks, Gardens and Cemeteries", Paris (F) 22-24
 June 2011, p. 289-294
- 630 [24] Naidu S., Scherer G.W., Nucleation, growth and evolution of calcium phosphate films on
 631 calcite, Journal of Colloidal and Interface Science 435 (2014) 128-137
- 632 [25] Graziani G., Sassoni E., Franzoni E., Scherer G.W., Hydroxyapatite coatings for marble
 633 protection: Optimization of calcite covering and acid resistance, Applied Surface Science
 634 368 (2016) 241-257
- 635 [26] Naidu S., Blair J., Scherer G.W., Acid-resistant coatings on marble, J Am Ceram Soc 99636 (2016) 3421-3428
- 637 [27] Sassoni E., Franzoni E., Sugaring marble in the Monumental Cemetery in Bologna (Italy):
 638 characterization of naturally and artificially weathered samples and first results of
 639 consolidation by hydroxyapatite, Applied Physics A: Materials Science & Processing 117
 640 (2014) 1893-1906
- 641 [28] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Ridolfi G., Bignozzi M.C., Franzoni E., Thermal behavior of
 642 Carrara marble after consolidation by ammonium phosphate, ammonium oxalate and ethyl
 643 silicate, Materials and Design, 120 (2017) 345-353

- 644 [29] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., Scherer G.W., Some recent findings on marble
 645 conservation by aqueous solutions of diammonium hydrogen phosphate, MRS Advances,
 646 DOI: 10.1557/adv.2017.45
- 647 [30] Sandrolini F., Franzoni E., Sassoni E., Diotallevi P.P., The contribution of urban-scale
 648 environmental monitoring to materials diagnostics: a study on the Cathedral of Modena
 649 (Italy), Journal of Cultural Heritage, 12 (2011) 441-450
- [31] Ma X., Balonis M., Pasco H., Toumazou M., Counts D., Kakoulli I., Evaluation of
 hydroxyapatite effects for the consolidation of a Hellenistic-Roman rock-cut chamber tomb
 at Athienou-Malloura in Cyprus, Construction and Building Materials 150 (2017) 333–344
- [32] GomismV., Saquete M.D., García-Cano J., CaSO4 solubility in water–ethanol mixtures in
 the presence of sodium chloride at 25 °C. Application to a reverse osmosis process, Fluid
 Phase Equilibria 360 (2013) 248–252
- Eliaz N., Metoki N., Calcium Phosphate Bioceramics: A Review of Their History, Structure,
 Properties, Coating Technologies and Biomedical Applications, Materials 10 (2017) 334
- [34] Lebedev A.L., Kosorukov V. L., Gypsum solubility in water at 25°C, Geochemistry
 International, 55 [2] (2017) pp. 205–210
- [35] Evans A.G., Drory M.D., M.S. Hu, The cracking and decohesion of thin films, J. Mater.
 Res., 3 [5] (1988) 1043-1049
- [36] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., An innovative phosphate-based consolidant for
 limestone. Part 1: Effectiveness and compatibility in comparison with ethyl silicate,
 Construction and Building Materials, 102 (2016) 918-930
- [37] Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., An innovative phosphate-based consolidant for
 limestone. Part 2: Durability in comparison with ethyl silicate, Construction and Building
 Materials, 102 (2016) 931-942
- 668 [38] Graziani G., Sassoni E., Scherer G.W., Franzoni E., Penetration depth and redistribution
 669 of an aqueous ammonium phosphate solution used for porous limestone consolidation by
 670 brushing and immersion, Construction and Building Materials 148 (2017) 571–578
- [39] Osticioli I., Botticelli G., Matteini P., Siano S., Pini R., Matteini M., Micro-Raman analysis
 on the combined use of ammonium oxalate and ammonium phosphate for the
 consolidation and protection of carbonate stone artifacts, Journal of Raman Spectroscopy
 48 (2017) 966–971