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

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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. INTRODUCTION

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- 2 Pastes and mortars based on gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O), formed from the reaction
- 3 between the binder bassanite (CaSO₄·1/2H₂O) and water, have been used since
- 4 ancient times to create plasters, renders and bedding mortars. The so-called stuccoes
- 5 (i.e. pastes and mortars molded to create decorative elements) have been used to
- 6 imitate white and colored marbles, when the supply of real stones from distant quarries
- 7 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
- dissolution, leading to surface recession and pulverization [2]. Figure 1 illustrates some
- examples of gypsum decorations severely weathered because of their exposure to rain
- 12 and/or rising damp.

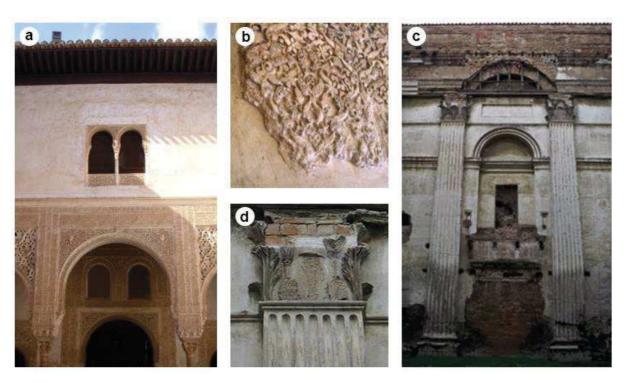


Figure 1. Examples of weathered gypsum decorations: (a,b) decorations in the Alhambra Palace in Granada (Spain, XIV century) exposed to rain; (c,d) stuccoes in the church of San Francesco in Fano (Italy, XIX cent.) exposed to rising damp from the ground and rain (because of the collapse of the church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

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

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

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According to reactions 1-3, hydroxyapatite (HAP, Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH)) should form. HAP is usually written as Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂, to denote that the crystal unit cell comprises two 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 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 caused by shrinkage during drying [11]. Cracking is undesired, as it can reduce the performance of the HAP layer and even lead to its partial detachment and separation [12]. Alongside HAP [11,12] or even instead of HAP [16], other CaP phases have been reported to form, such as brushite (CaHPO₄·2H₂O, predicted by reaction 4) and octacalcium phosphate (Ca₈(HPO₄)₂(PO₄)₄·5H₂O). A list of CaP phases and their respective properties is reported in Table 1; for comparison, the solubility of gypsum is 2.5-3.1 g/L [17]. These CaP phases have solubility in water higher than HAP, but still 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 ((NH₄)₂SO₄) is also expected to form as a by-product. Being highly soluble in water,

ammonium sulfate is expected to be removed by washing with water, as demonstrated experimentally [11,12].

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	Ca _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-ΤСР	β-Tricalcium phosphate (or calcium phosphate tribasic)	β-Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂	1.5	~0.0005
OCP	Octacalcium phosphate	Ca ₈ (HPO ₄) ₂ (PO ₄) ₄ ·5H ₂ O	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

Table 1. Name, abbreviation, formula, Ca/P, solubility of different CaP phases and gypsum [15].

In a previous preliminary study, we found that reacting specimens of gypsum pastes with a 1 M DAP solution led to the formation of brushite, as well as ammonium sulfate and koktaite ($(NH_4)_2Ca(SO_4)_2\cdot H_2O$) as by-products [16]. A possible reason why only 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 reaction 1, H_2SO_4 should form). If pH decreases below 4, formation of brushite is 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 amount of calcium ions in the solution, originating from the high solubility of gypsum in 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;

- for the most promising formulation, to test the improvement in mechanical properties and the reduction in solubility of gypsum stuccoes resulting from the formation of the new CaP phases;
 - 3) 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:

$$CaSO_4 \cdot 2H_2O + (NH_4)_2C_2O_4 \rightarrow CaC_2O_4 \cdot 2H_2O + (NH_4)_2SO_4 + H_2O.$$
 (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 the same formulation of the phosphate treatment also for conservation of sulfated marble was preliminarily investigated. The use of DAP solutions for marble protection [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 uncontaminated marble samples, whereas marble in the field is often covered with a layer of gypsum. This gypsum layer is the result of the reaction between marble and sulfur dioxide, which was present in the atmosphere in high concentrations in the past decades, before traffic regulation policies led to the current low values [30], and which is 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 gypsum contamination) have shown that the presence of gypsum can significantly alter the composition of the CaP phases formed after treatment [15,31]. Therefore, in the present study, a preliminary evaluation of the treatment effect on sulfated marble was 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 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 underlying the gypsum layer. Therefore, the variation in pH during treatment of sulfated marble with the DAP solution was carefully monitored.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

134 **2.1. Materials**

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- 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 (4×4×16 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 (1×1×16 cm³).

142 2.1.2. Sulfated marble

- To simulate sulfated marble, cubic specimens (1 cm edge length) of Carrara marble
- 144 (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, (NH₄)₂HPO₄, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich),
- ammonium oxalate ($(NH_4)_2C_2O_4 \cdot H_2O_1$, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich), calcium chloride
- 150 (CaCl₂·2H₂O, assay > 99%, Sigma Aldrich), ammonium hydroxide (ACS Grade),
- ethanol (Fisher-Scientific) and deionized water were used.

2.2. Treatments

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

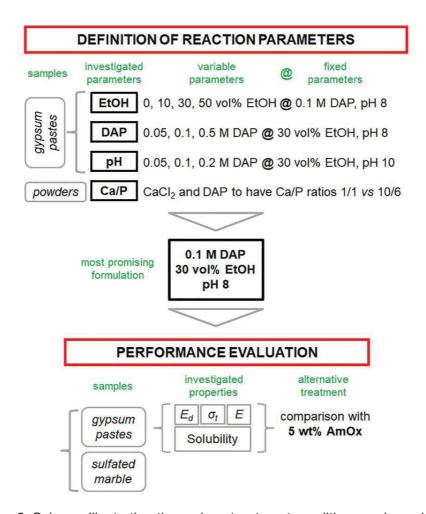


Figure 2. Scheme illustrating the various treatment conditions and specimens.

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.
- pH of the DAP solution. Without any pH modification, a 0.1 M DAP solution has pH
 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 $2\theta=3-60^\circ$, step size = 0.04 θ , step time = 0.8 s, kV = 40, mA = 40). 202

2.2.2. Oxalate treatment

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

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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
- 212 a Bruker D8 Discover X-Ray Diffractometer (incidence radiation θ =0.5°, detector scan
- range $2\theta=3-37^{\circ}$, 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
- 216 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
- 218 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
- 221 microscope (FEI Quanta 200 FEG ESEM) equipped with an energy dispersive x-ray
- 222 spectroscopy device (Oxford Instruments EDS probe). Before ESEM observation,
- samples were made conductive by coating with carbon. The same instrument was used
- 224 also for observing the gypsum layer formed after accelerated sulfation of marble
- 225 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%
- 229 ethanol at pH 8 (labeled "DAP") and (ii) for the ammonium oxalate treatment (labeled
- 230 "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
- the time required by an ultrasonic pulse to cross the sample. Being a non-destructive
- test, it can be repeated on the same sample before and after consolidation. E_d was
- 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
- samples by a PUNDIT instrument with 54 kHz transducers, using a rubber couplant
- to improve the contact. For each condition, 5 samples were tested.
- 238 \rightarrow static elastic modulus (E). E was tested because, unlike E_d , it is not affected by the
- pore-clogging effect that consolidants might have, which could lead to an increase in
- E_d without necessarily implying an increase in the actual stiffness. E was determined
- by three-point beam bending, from the slope of the stress-strain curve obtained by
- 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.

only superficial hardening of the cylinder.

- tensile strength (σ_t). σ_t was determined because the tendency of grains to detach from the substrate depends on the material cohesion, which can be evaluated by the splitting test. The same cylindrical samples as for the E_d measurement were used. Samples were loaded along two diametric lines until failure, using an Instron testing machine (loading rate 2 mm/min). This method generates tension in a narrow band between the lines of contact, so it is not much affected by treatments that produce
- 255 2.3.3. Solubility

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- 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.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Gypsum stuccoes

3.1.1. Formation of new CaP phases

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

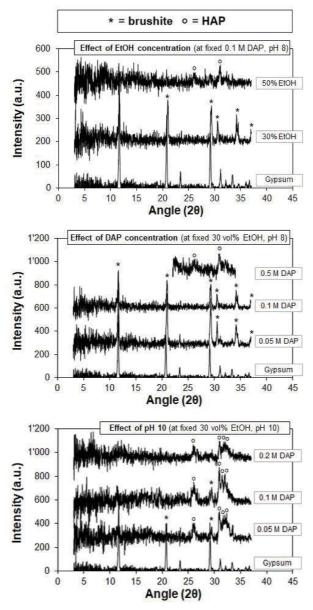


Figure 3. Mineralogical composition of the new CaP phases formed by treating gypsum samples with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of ethanol concentration (top), DAP concentration (medium) and pH increase to 10 at various DAP concentrations (bottom).

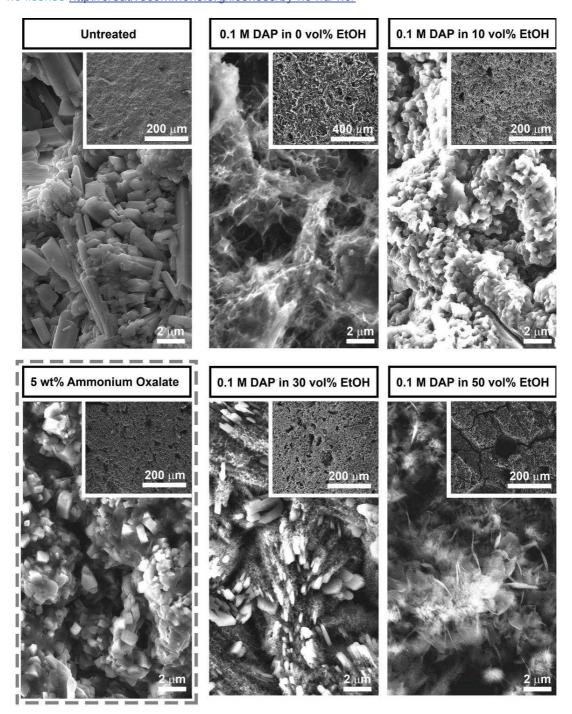


Figure 4. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of ethanol concentration. For comparison's sake, also the untreated reference and whewellite formed after treatment with ammonium oxalate (dashed box)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

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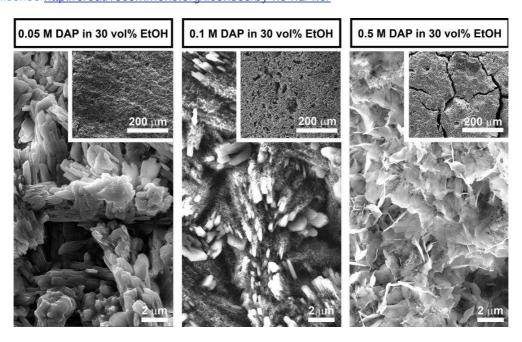


Figure 5. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of DAP concentration.

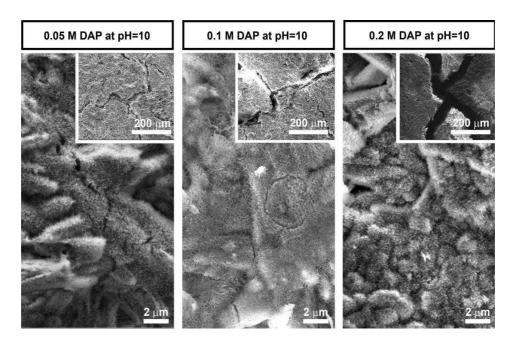


Figure 6. Morphology of the new CaP phases formed by reacting gypsum with different formulations of the phosphate treatment, to investigate the effect of increasing pH to 10, at various DAP concentrations.

After reaction with a 0.1 M DAP solution containing no or 10 vol% ethanol addition, some new CaP phases were formed (Figure 4). They could not be identified by GID, likely because of the very small amount produced. The limited formation of CaP phases when such a low DAP concentration was used is consistent with previous results 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 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 phases were identified as brushite (30 vol% ethanol) and HAP (50 vol% ethanol). In this latter case, the treated sample exhibited diffused cracking (Figure 4), which is 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.

sample surface, while no cracking was observed in samples where brushite formed (Figure 5).

However, also in this case, formation of HAP was associated with heavy cracking of the

Formation of HAP is expected from reactions 1-3, but in some of the investigated 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 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 monitored. The pH was found to change only slightly during the reaction (from 8.1 to 8.0), hence never getting below 4. Therefore, pH variation was excluded as the possible reason why brushite was formed instead of HAP.

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

Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., Scherer G.W., Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble, Construction and Building Materials 170 (2018) 290-301, DOI: 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075. © 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

DAP solution (with no ethanol addition), calculations performed with Mathematica® (following the method described in [24]) predict the following concentrations of phosphate ions: $0.0959 \text{ M HPO}_4^{2-}$ ions, $0.0039 \text{ M H}_2\text{PO}_4^{-}$ ions and only $3.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$ PO₄³⁻ ions, hence a ratio of HPO₄²⁻/PO₄³⁻ of about 2900. The ratio becomes even higher (about 5850) if an amount of CaCl₂ sufficient to match gypsum solubility limit (15.1 mM [34]) is also considered in the solution. The hypothesis that brushite is kinetically favored over HAP would also explain the change in phase composition detected for increasing ethanol concentration or increasing DAP concentration. In fact, in either 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 (1.67 vs 1, respectively), formation of HAP would be expected to be favored at higher Ca concentrations (i.e., lower ethanol concentrations) or at lower DAP concentrations.

To verify whether formation of brushite occurs because the kinetics predominates over 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. § 2.2.1). As illustrated in Figure 7, in both cases brushite was the main phase that formed, with only minor amounts of HAP. This suggests that, independently of the starting Ca/P 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 needed to form HAP. Accordingly, in a recent paper [12] it was proposed that formation of CaP phases follows the Ostwald's rule, i.e. the phase with the fastest precipitation rate is preferentially formed, even if it is not the most stable one [12].

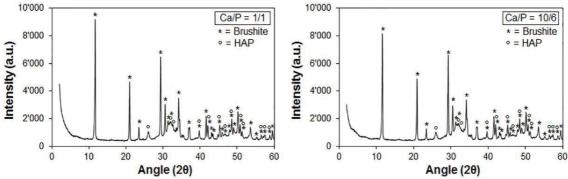


Figure 7. Composition of the new CaP phases precipitated from solutions with Ca/P ratio of 1/1 (left) and Ca/P ratio of 10/6 (right).

To promote formation of HAP, we increased the pH of the starting DAP solution from 8 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 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 concentration not leading to direct precipitation at pH 10), only HAP was detected. However, in all cases the new CaP phases exhibited diffused cracking (Figure 6), which presumably occurred during drying because the porous films exceeded the critical thickness for cracking (below the critical thickness, cracking is thermodynamically inhibited [35]). In addition to altering the aesthetic appearance of the treated stuccoes (as they are visible even by naked eye), cracks are expected to be detrimental to protection from dissolution in water. Therefore, formulations at pH 10, leading to diffused cracking, were regarded as not promising for providing satisfactory protection.

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 solubility of gypsum in water [32] and hence the amount of free calcium ions in the DAP solution). Moreover, neither was formation of ammonium sulfate detected by GID, which is the positive result of abundantly washing samples with deionized water at the end of 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 used for mechanical tests (e.g. cylinders with 2 cm diameter and 4 cm height). After 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 further saturating the samples with deionized water by capillary rise and then 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 of nitrogen were detected by SEM/EDS on cross sections obtained from the cylindrical 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 gypsum, although more soluble than HAP), without cracking. In terms of long term 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 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 additional CaP phases, was found experimentally [12]. On the contrary, dehydration of brushite to monetite (CaHPO₄, having much higher water solubility than brushite, Table 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.

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").

3.1.2. Mechanical consolidation

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

	Untreated	DAP	Variation	AmOx	Variation
E _d (GPa)	9.9 (±0.4)	10.3 (±0.1)	+3%	11.1 (±0.6)	+12%
E (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).

Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., Scherer G.W., Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble, Construction and Building Materials 170 (2018) 290-301, DOI: 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075. © 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

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The DAP treatment caused modest increases in dynamic elastic modulus E_d and static modulus E (+3% and +5%, respectively) and a slightly higher increase in tensile 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 sections. As illustrated in Figure 8 and Figure 9, the formation of new CaP phases and the consequent presence of phosphorus are mainly concentrated in the first 50-100 µm from the surface. Traces of new CaP phases were observed at a depth of 500 µm from the surface, while no new phases were detected at 1 mm (Figure 9). This reduced penetration depth, in spite of the ability of the DAP solution to penetrate deeply into 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. Notwithstanding the addition of ethanol to the DAP solution to reduce gypsum solubility, 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 mostly near the surface. Possible strategies for reducing the reaction speed and hence favor formation of the new CaP phases also in depth are currently under investigation.

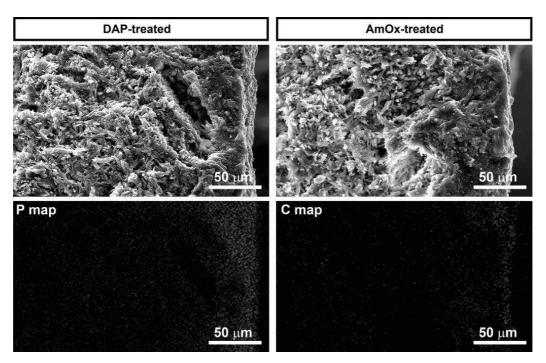


Figure 8. Morphology and elemental maps of cross sections of samples treated by DAP (left) and AmOx (right).

Sassoni E., Graziani G., Franzoni E., Scherer G.W., *Conversion of calcium sulfate dihydrate into calcium phosphates as a route for conservation of gypsum stuccoes and sulfated marble*, Construction and Building Materials 170 (2018) 290-301, DOI: <u>10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.03.075</u>. © 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

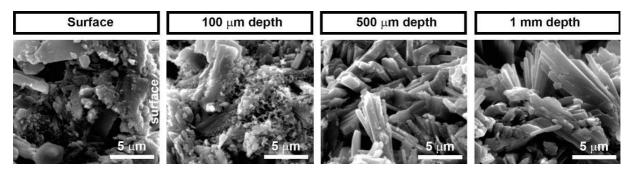


Figure 9. New CaP phases at increasing depth from the surface. Whereas abundant new phases are present near the surface and can still be clearly observed at 100 μ m depth, only minor traces of new CaP phases are visible at 500 μ m depth (small flakes formed on the surface of the big gypsum crystals)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

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In the case of the AmOx treatment, gypsum was transformed into whewellite (CaC₂O₄·H₂O), as indicated by GID and illustrated in Figure 4 (dashed box). In this case, even if a higher increase in E_d was registered (+12%), no significant increase in either the static modulus or the tensile strength was found (Table 2). The lack of any substantial consolidating action is thought to be a consequence of the reduced depth of 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 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 [39]. Accordingly, in the case of gypsum (even more soluble than calcite), in the present study a much lower depth of formation of calcium oxalate was found by SEM/EDS, compared to calcium phosphates (Figure 8). The presence of C (assumed as indicative of formation of whewellite) was detected only at a few tens of microns from the surface. 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 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 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

ammonium sulfate inside the pores of the samples. In the case of the AmOx treatment, traces of ammonium sulfate were detected by GID even in the 1 cm cubes, although 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 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 suggested by the color change and confirmed by GID. The difference between the DAP-and the AmOx-treatments in the amount of ammonium sulfate formed inside the pores and remaining after washing derives from the fact that NH_4^+ ions were more abundant in 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 penetrate more in depth and provide greater mechanical improvement than the AmOx treatment, but neither is very effective. Compared to ammonium oxalate, the DAP treatment has the advantage of leading to formation of a smaller amount of ammonium sulfate, that can be more easily removed. For the same reason, even if slightly greater mechanical improvements were found in a previous study where a 1 M DAP solution was used ($\Delta E_d = +5\%$ and $\Delta \sigma_t = +16\%$ [16]), still the formulation adopted in this study 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 much more ammonium sulfate (and koktaite) inside the sample [16].

3.1.3. Protection from dissolution in water

- 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.

3.2. Sulfated marble

After immersion in H_2SO_4 at pH 2 for 24 hours, gypsum was formed on the marble surface, as confirmed by GID. The newly formed gypsum exhibited a needle-like morphology, as illustrated in Figure 10.

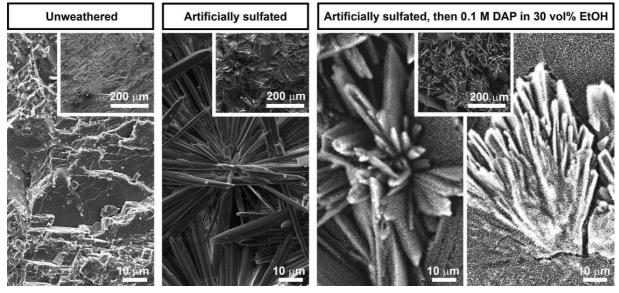


Figure 10. Morphology of fresh marble (left), artificially sulfated marble (middle) and artificially sulfated marble treated with DAP (right).

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 phases exhibit a morphology more similar to that of HAP (Figure 7) than to brushite (Figure 4), but no conclusive phase identification was achieved by GID. This is probably to be ascribed to the reduced thickness of the new CaP phases, as suggested by the 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, their solubility is in any case lower than that of gypsum, hence a benefit in terms of resistance to dissolution is expected.

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.

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 calcium phosphates would encapsulate the dirt in a layer with reduced solubility, which might be counterproductive. Therefore, whenever possible, the dark matter should be removed by cleaning before application of the DAP-based treatment. Nonetheless, in 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 marble), preliminary tests we have carried out indicate that the DAP treatment, applied over the gypsum crust, is able to pre-consolidate the marble surface, which becomes able to stand the cleaning operations, while the consolidated crust can still be successfully removed by cleaning.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In the present study, the composition and the morphology of new calcium phosphate 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.

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- 2) Formation of brushite was found to be favored over formation of HAP, likely because brushite requires HPO₄²⁻ ions (by far the most abundant species originated from DAP dissociation) while HAP requires PO₄³⁻ ions (which are present only in very minor amounts). This explains why brushite is preferentially formed, even in a pH range and for a starting Ca/P ratio that should favor HAP.
 - 3) Samples of gypsum stuccoes treated for 24 hours with a 0.1 M DAP solution containing 30 vol% ethanol at pH 8 exhibited formation of uncracked brushite. As 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 prolonged exposure to water and a 13% increase in their tensile strength. However, the improvement induced by the phosphate treatment was not as high as hoped because of the reduced depth of formation of brushite, mostly concentrated in the first 50-100 µm from the surface and present only in traces at a depth of 500 µm. The phosphate treatment provided better results than the ammonium oxalate treatment, originally proposed for desulfation of calcareous substrates and here investigated for consolidation and protection of gypsum stuccoes. The performance of the oxalate treatment is mainly limited by the high speed of reaction between the oxalate solution and gypsum, so that the depth of formation of calcium oxalate is only a few tens of microns from the surface. Possible routes to reduce the speed of reaction between the phosphate solution and gypsum are currently under 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, but those variations were not explored in the present study.
- 4) With the aim of treating sulfated marble so as to transform gypsum into less soluble calcium phosphate phases, the same formulation of the phosphate treatment reported above was tested also on artificially sulfated samples of Carrara marble. New calcium phosphate phases with the flower-like morphology typical of HAP were observed, but they could not be identified by GID. Because some cracks were observed in the new calcium phosphate layer, some further optimization of the
- treatment seems necessary for application to sulfated marble, where the morphology
- of the gypsum crystals may also play a role.

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