

Spectroscopic evidences to understand the influence of marine environments on Built Heritage

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Introduction

Marine aerosols are chemically complex systems formed by inorganic salts and organic matter, together with airborne particulate matter from the surrounding environment. The primary particles transported in marine aerosols (PMA) can cause different chemical reactions in the atmosphere, promoting formation of so-called Secondary Marine Aerosol (SMA) particles.

These kinds of particles, together with the natural crustal or mineral particles and the metallic airborne particulate matter emitted by anthropogenic sources (road traffic, industry etc.), can be deposited on building materials from a specific construction following wet or dry deposition processes.^{1–3}

The interactions of the natural and anthropogenic stressors present in marine atmospheres with building materials immersed within these kinds of atmospheres result in the formation of different types of pathologies. Examples of this are the alveolisations or loss of material, which are the consequence of salts (marine aerosol) deposition/redissolution cycles on the surface of façades,⁴ or water infiltrations containing harmful ions,^{5–7} which can penetrate the pores of a material by capillarity, forming in some cases efflorescence. In other cases, biological patinas can be formed on the buildings'

materials, acting sometimes as protective or as degradation layers for the material itself.⁸ SO_x emissions can also promote decaying processes on limestones⁹ and carbonated sandstones.³ This acid gas can be deposited following a wet process causing the formation of new sulfates on the material. These compounds, more soluble than carbonates, can be washed out due to the rainwater effect promoting the loss of material. On the other side, dry attack results in the formation of the so-called "black crusts", a patina made up of gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O) in which atmospheric particulate matter (crustal and metallic particles, organic compounds, soot etc.) is trapped.

In this work, the usefulness of a non-invasive analytical methodology based on the application of molecular (Raman spectroscopy) and elemental (X-ray Fluorescence, XRF) spectroscopic techniques (both single point and imaging analysis) was tested to understand the negative influence exerted by marine environments (with or without the influence of urban–industrial activities) on the conservation state of building materials close to the sea.

Instrumentation

The molecular analysis was performed using three different Raman spectrometers, all of them with an excitation

laser of 785 nm: (a) a portable Raman spectrometer (innoRam, B&W Tek Inc., USA), (b) a Raman microprobe (RA100, Renishaw, UK) and (c) a confocal Raman microscope (inVia, Renishaw, UK) equipped with a 20× and 50× objectives.

For the elemental analyses, the M4 Tornado benchtop instrument (Bruker Nano GmbH, Berlin, Germany) was used, with single point and imaging analysis options, operated under vacuum and equipped with a micro-focus side window Rh tube (powered by a low-power HV generator working at a maximum voltage of 50 kV and at a maximum current of 700 μA) and implementing a mechanical collimator allowing one to acquire measurements under 1 mm lateral resolution.

Buildings object of studies

Two buildings located in marine environments were considered for this work. One, the Igueldo lighthouse (San Sebastian) with direct marine and diffuse influence from an urban–industrial area was studied. In this historical building, cementitious materials, bricks, limestones and gypsum plasters were analysed. The other study was of sandstones from La Galea Fortress (Getxo), a building with direct marine and direct influence of a nearby urban–industrial area.

Table 1. Summary of the characteristic Raman bands of some decay compounds identified in the building materials from the Igueldo Lighthouse and La Galea Fortress.

Decay compounds	Mineral name	Building materials	ν (cm ⁻¹)
CaSO ₄ ·½ H ₂ O	Bassanite	Bricks, sandstone, limestones, mortars, cements & gypsum plasters	429 m, 487 m, 627 m, 668 m, 1015 vs, 1128 m
CaSO ₄	Anhydrite type III	Bricks, sandstone, Limestones, mortars, cements & gypsum Plasters	420 m, 490 m, 630 m, 673 m, 1025 vs, 1167 m.
Na ₃ (SO ₄)(NO ₃)·H ₂ O	Darapskite	Gypsum plasters	472 w, 619 w, 640 w, 707 w, 729 w, 993 s, 1059 vs, 1084 w, 1122 w, 1354 w, 1416 w.
Na ₄ Ca(SO ₄) ₃ ·H ₂ O	Eugsterite	Gypsum plasters	1084 s, 1124 s
K ₃ Na ₇ Mg ₂ (SO ₄) ₆ (NO ₃) ₂ ·6H ₂ O	Humberstonite	Gypsum plasters	184 w, 217 m, 457 w, 611 m, 632 s, 722 s, 1013 vs, 1048 vs, 1067 s.
K ₂ Ca(SO ₄)·H ₂ O	Syngenite	Gypsum plasters	441 s, 472 m, 492 w, 603 m, 621 m, 633 m, 642 m, 661 m, 981 vs, 1006 vs, 1082 m, 1119 m, 1139 w, 1165 w.
K ₂ Ca ₂ Mg(SO ₄) ₄ ·2H ₂ O	Polyhalite	Gypsum plasters	236 m, 438 m, 465 s, 623 w, 653 m, 989 vs, 1016 vs, 1071 m, 1093 m, 1131 m, 1165 m.
CaNa ₂ (SO ₄) ₂	Glauberite	Gypsum plasters	453 w, 471 s, 485 m, 619 m, 624 m, 636 m, 644 s, 1001 vs, 1106 w, 1139 s, 1156 m, 1169 m
(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄	Mascagnite	Sandstones, bricks	449 m, 614 w, 622 w, 974 vs, 1104 w, 1417 w.
CaSO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	Gypsum	Bricks, sandstone, limestones, mortars, cements & gypsum plasters	413 m, 492 m, 619 m, 673 m, 1008 vs, 1132 m.
K ₂ SO ₄	Arcanite	Limestones and sandstones	455 m, 619 m, 988 vs, 1092 w, 1103 w, 1144 w.
Fe ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ ·9H ₂ O	(para)coquimbite	Mortars, limestones and sandstones	500 m, 600 w, 1025 vs, 1094 w, 1176 w, 1197 w.
MgSO ₄ ·4H ₂ O	Starkeyite	Limestones and sandstones	147 w, 232 w, 312 w, 462 m, 613 m, 1001 vs, 1084 w, 1115 w, 1155 w, 1603 w.
MgSO ₄ ·6H ₂ O	Hexahydrite	Limestones and sandstones	249 w, 361 w, 442 w, 464 w, 603 w, 982 vs, 1083 w, 1148 w.
MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	Epsomite	Limestones and sandstones	362 w, 445 w, 462 w, 609 w, 985 vs, 1082 w, 1145 w.
BaSO ₄	Baryte	Limestones and sandstones	460 s, 618 m, 648 m, 987 vs, 990 vs, 1084 m, 1104 m, 1141 w, 1169 m.
[Ca ₆ Al ₂ (OH) ₁₂ (SO ₄) ₃ ·26H ₂ O]	Ettringite	Cements	218 w, 361 w, 448 m, 544 m, 648 m, 857 s, 890 m, 986 vs, 1061 m.
Na ₂ SO ₄	Thenardite	Bricks, mortars, cements, limestones and sandstones	450 w, 465 w, 621 m, 632 m, 647 m, 992 vs, 1101 m, 1132 m, 1152 m.
Na ₂ SO ₄ ·10H ₂ O	Mirabilite	Bricks, mortars, cements, limestones and sandstones	446 w, 458 w, 616 m, 628 m, 989 vs, 1108 m, 1120 m, 1130 m.
KNO ₃	Niter	Bricks mortars, limestones and sandstones	712 w, 1342 w, 1357 w, 1048 vs, 1777 w.
Ca(NO ₃) ₂ ·4H ₂ O	Nitrocalcite	Bricks, mortars, limestones and sandstones	719 w, 745 w, 1048 vs, 1352 w, 1437 m, 1640 w.
NaNO ₃	Nitratine	Bricks, mortars, limestones and sandstones	188 m, 414 w, 518 w, 533 w, 722 s, 1067 vs, 1383 w, 1663 w, 1775 w.
Ba(NO ₃) ₂	Nitrobarite	Limestones and sandstones	200 w, 731 m, 1025 w, 1046 vs, 1402 w, 1631 w,
Mg(NO ₃) ₂	Nitromagnesite	Cements, limestones and sandstones	729 s, 1059 vs, 1359 m, 1432 w.
NH ₄ NO ₃	Nitrammite	Limestones and sandstones	714 s, 1040 vs, 1288 w, 1412 w, 1464 w, 1654 m.

vs, very strong; s, strong; m, medium; w, weak.

Analytical approach

First, an *in situ* screening of the aforementioned building materials was performed using a portable Raman spectrometer in order to extract prelim-

inary results. After that, samples were extracted from selected areas and they were analysed in-depth in the laboratory using micro-Raman spectroscopy and energy-dispersive-XRF (ED-XRF).

Results and discussion

The different decay compounds detected by Raman spectroscopy in the building materials from Igueldo Lighthouse and La Galea Fortress are summarised in Table 1. These

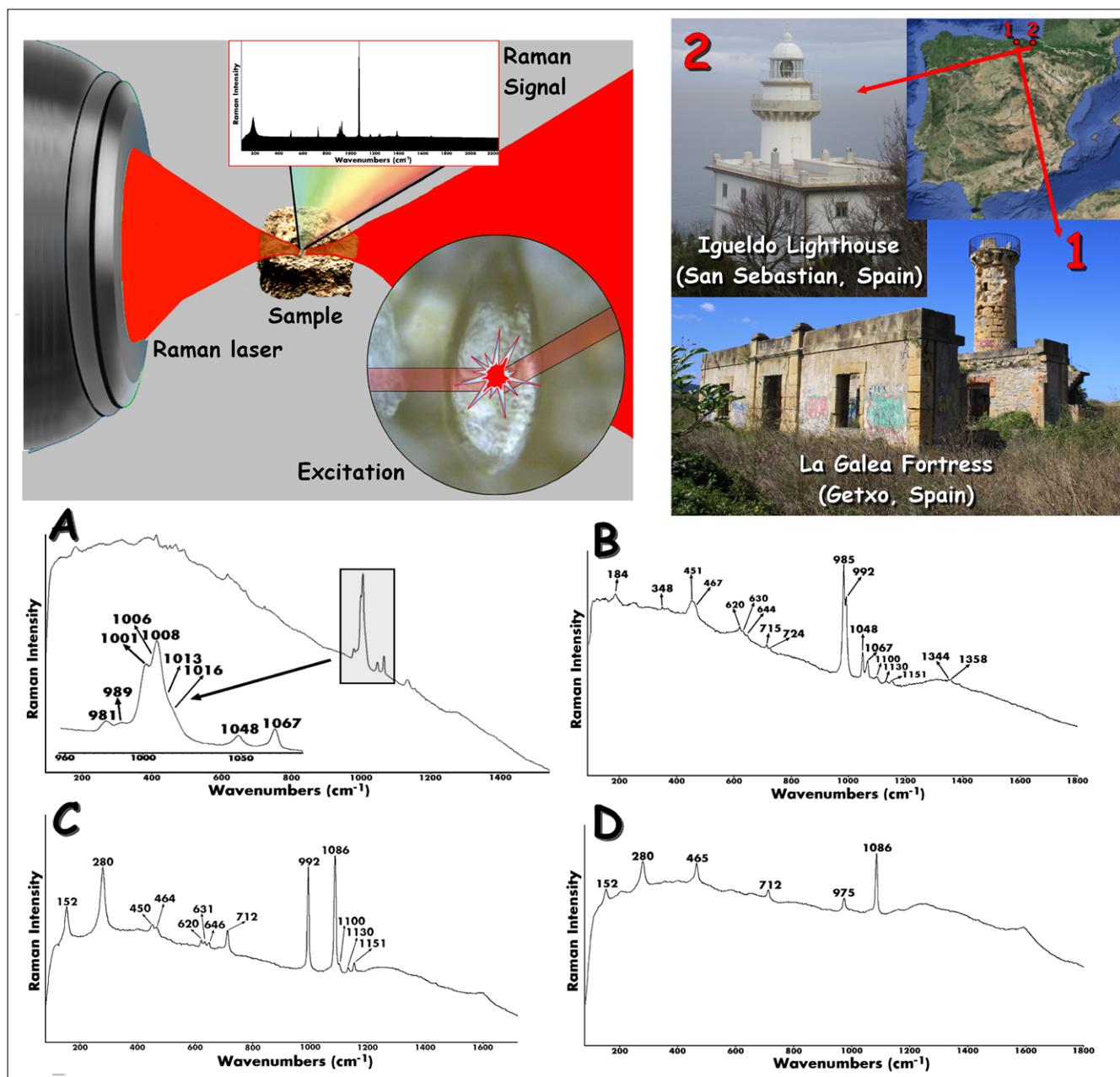


Figure 1. Representation of a sample being analysed by Raman spectroscopy (top-left) and Igueldo Lighthouse and La Galea Fortress as building objects of study (top-right). (A) main Raman bands of gypsum, syngenite, glauberite, polyhalite and humberstonite on gypsum plasters from Igueldo Lighthouse; (B) main Raman bands of nitratine, niter, thenardite and epsomite on sandstone from La Galea Fortress; (C) main Raman bands of thenardite and calcite on sandstone from La Galea Fortress; and (D) main Raman bands of mascagnite and calcite on sandstone from La Galea Fortress.

compounds were formed by chemical reactions between the emissions and/or infiltration waters coming from both surrounding environments and the original compounds in the respective materials of the two buildings. In this sense, the formation of detected sulfates, nitrates and mixed sulfates–nitrates can only be explained by the reactivity between the

wet deposition of atmospheric gaseous acids (CO_2 , SO_2 and NO_x) on the carbonate compounds present in the original materials.

It is important to highlight that the combination of different molecular analysis techniques is necessary in order to confirm and complement the results obtained with only one analytical tech-

nique. In this sense, the combination of Raman spectroscopy and X-ray Diffraction is a good strategy to obtain complete molecular information. In some cases, if the analysed matrix is complex and lots of compounds are present, the Raman bands assignment is difficult. Even more so, if medium and weak bands related with each compound are not evident,

thereby making this task more difficult. As an example of this casuistry, in the Figure 1A different Raman bands obtained from gypsum plasters of the Igueldo Lighthouse are presented. The signals at 981 cm^{-1} and 1006 cm^{-1} (shoulder in $1000\text{--}1010\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region) correspond to syngenite [$\text{K}_2\text{Ca}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$], the band at 1001 cm^{-1} belongs to glauberite [$\text{CaNa}_2(\text{SO}_4)_2$], the bands at 989 cm^{-1} and 1016 cm^{-1} (shoulder in $1010\text{--}1030\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region) correspond to those of polyhalite [$\text{K}_2\text{Ca}_2\text{Mg}(\text{SO}_4)_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$] and the 1008 cm^{-1} peak to the main band of gypsum ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$). Finally, the bands at 1013 cm^{-1} (shoulder in $1010\text{--}1030\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region), 1048 cm^{-1} and 1067 cm^{-1} are clearly related with the bands of humberstonite [$\text{K}_3\text{Na}_7\text{Mg}_2(\text{SO}_4)_6(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$]. Analysing the whole spectrum shown in Figure 1A, the secondary bands of these mineral phases can also be ascertained.⁴ As has been described in the literature, marine aerosols carry airborne particulate matter from sulfates and nitrates. Nitrate particles can be formed following a reaction between marine aerosol sea salts and NO_x gases (NO_2 , N_2O_5 , ClONO_2 etc.) emitted into the atmosphere (e.g. road traffic source etc.). HNO_3 formed after the inclusion of $\text{NO}_2(\text{g})$ in rainwater or humidity is reported to be the most important cause of the nitrate particles formation. These particles can react with building materials giving rise to different types of nitrate salts. An example of this is the presence of KNO_3 and NaNO_3 identified by Raman spectroscopy in the sandstone from La Galea Fortress (see Figure 1B). The bands at 1067 cm^{-1} and 724 cm^{-1} belong to nitratine (NaNO_3), while niter (KNO_3) was identified thanks to the presence of its main band at 1048 cm^{-1} and its secondary bands at 712 cm^{-1} , 1344 cm^{-1} and 1358 cm^{-1} . In this spectrum (Figure 1B) thenardite (Na_2SO_4 , main band at 992 cm^{-1} and secondary bands at 451 cm^{-1} , 467 cm^{-1} , 620 cm^{-1} , 630 cm^{-1} , 644 cm^{-1} , 1100 cm^{-1} , 1130 cm^{-1} and 1151 cm^{-1}) was also detected. Apart from this compound, a band at 985 cm^{-1} was also observed, belonging to the main band of epsomite ($\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$). Marine aerosol can carry magnesium sulfates

with different hydration degrees. These sulfates can be deposited on the surface of the building materials as airborne particulate matter.^{2,10,11}

In other cases (see Figure 1C), thenardite (Na_2SO_4) can be observed together with the presence of calcite (CaCO_3 , main band at 1086 cm^{-1} , together with secondary bands at 712 cm^{-1} and 280 cm^{-1}). In Figure 1D, mascagnite [$(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, the main Raman band at 975 cm^{-1}] was identified. Apart from this sulfate, peaks at 152 cm^{-1} , 280 cm^{-1} , 712 cm^{-1} and 1086 cm^{-1} belonging to calcite (CaCO_3) and 465 cm^{-1} belonging to quartz (SiO_2) were also detected. Mascagnite could be present in the material as airborne particulate matter present in the material following a dry deposition. The deposited ammonium sulfate can penetrate, dissolve and migrate to suffer a recrystallisation process in the inner parts of the material (sandstone) promoting loss of material during time.

In order to extract more information about the decaying compounds and the original composition of the materials, additional elemental analyses based on XRF were carried out. In the Figure 2, an exhaustive XRF analysis on the sandstone from La Galea Fortress is presented. In this case single point and imaging analyses were performed. As can be seen in the accumulated spectrum (see Figure 2 top-centre) of the imaging analysis (21.4 mm height \times 25.9 mm width, $13,803$ pixels) the presence of Al, Si, S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, Pb, As, Br, Rb, Sr, Y, Zr, Sn and Ba was detected. According to the semi-quantitative values determined by the software, Si, Al, Cl, K and Fe are present as major elements; S, Ca, Ti and Cu as minor elements. This observation confirms that this kind of sandstone has a considerable proportion of calcite. It is important to highlight that sometimes the bremsstrahlung continuum in the spectrum using a Rh tube can contribute to decrease the limit of detection for elements appearing at energies between 7 keV and 18 keV . To increase the limit of detection, lower electron acceleration voltages or filters can be used. An example regarding the

use of filters can be observed in Figure 2 top-right. In this case, due to the use of a $630\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ aluminium filter, the K-lines of Zn and As, elements present in trace levels in the sandstone can be observed more clearly when compared with the measurements without the filter.

Apart from single point analysis, XRF imaging helps us to observe different chemical tendencies along the sandstone. As can be observed in the Al–Si–K map (see Figure 2), pink areas representing the coincident Al–Si distribution are observable. Moreover, in some areas Si is also related with K (light blue areas) suggesting that some of the aluminosilicates in the sandstone could be present as potassium aluminosilicates. In this elemental map, dark blue areas are also highly distributed, representing the α -quartz presence, which is a major component in the sandstone. According to the Cl and Br maps (see Figure 2), these two elements are almost homogeneously distributed on the sandstone, confirming the deposition of these salts coming from the marine aerosol. In the Ca–Sr distribution map (see Figure 2) green areas are observable, representing the combined presence of Ca (yellow) and Sr (light blue). Calcium carbonate could contain Sr in its structure, thus it is not surprising to find a correlation between the distributions of both elements. This observation confirms the presence of calcite in this kind of stone, previously detected by Raman spectroscopy. However, in the same Ca–Sr distribution map, certain hot spots of Ca (yellow) and Sr (light blue) are observable. It is well-known that Sr is highly emitted by marine aerosol, thus Sr hot spots can be related with depositions of this element emitted by the marine aerosol.

In addition to chloride salts, marine aerosol also carries sulfate salts [e.g. arcanite or K_2SO_4]². Looking at the S–K map (see Figure 2), the distribution of both elements is coincident in certain areas (orange coloured regions), suggesting a possible deposition of arcanite or a possible chemical transformation of calcite present in the sandstone due to the SO_2 coming from the atmosphere. Finally, in the Ca–S distribution map background, pink areas can

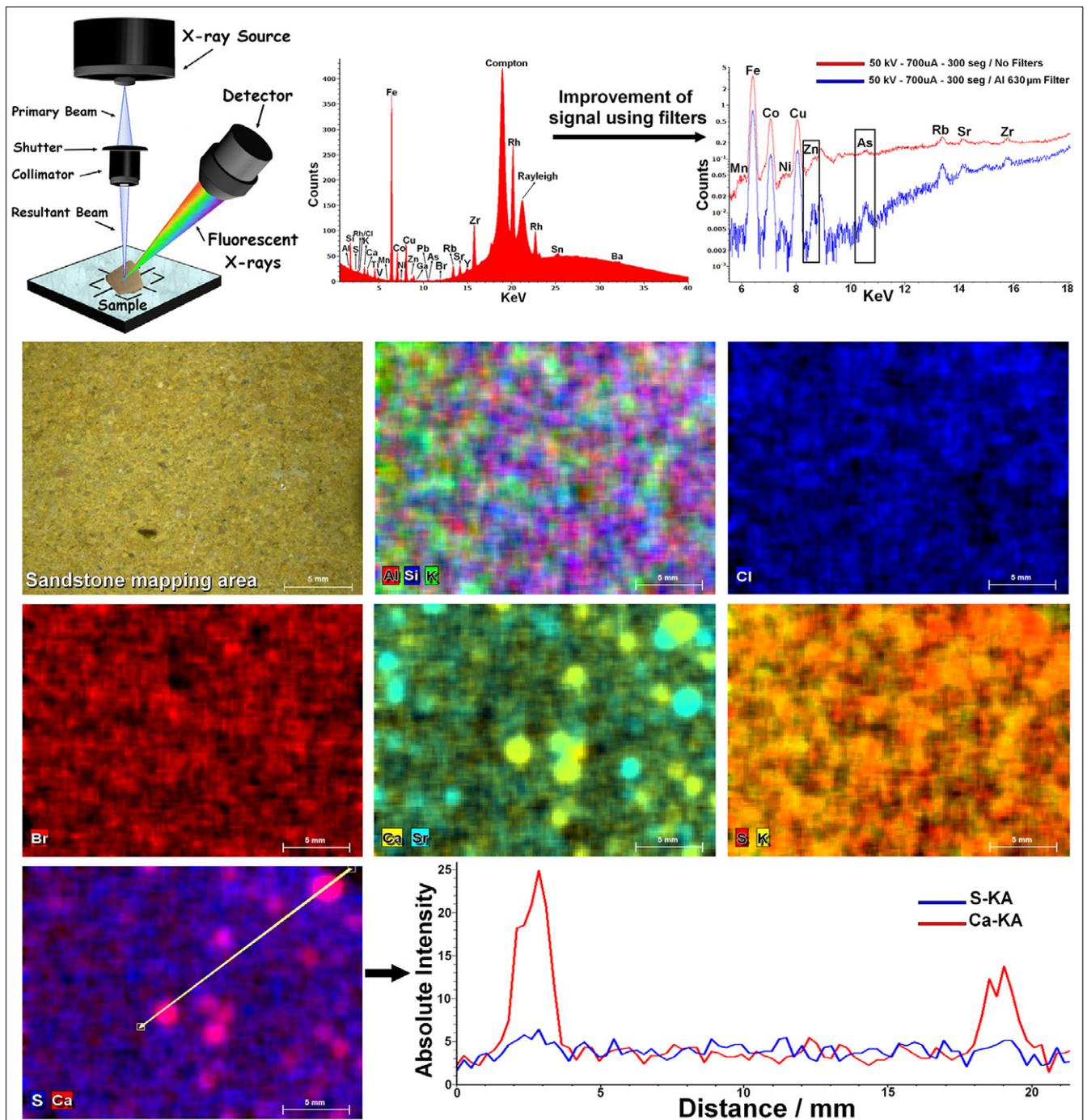


Figure 2. Energy dispersive XRF spectrometer set up illustrating the measurement of a sandstone fragment from La Galea Fortress (top-left), the obtained XRF accumulated spectrum from the XRF imaging analysis (top-centre), spectral results obtained from the XRF single point analysis without (red) and with (blue) a 630 µm Al filter (top-right), Al–Si–K, Cl, Br, Ca–Sr, S–K, S–Ca distribution maps obtained from the XRF imaging analysis (see also the visible image of the mapped sandstone area) of the sandstone and a line scan (bottom-right) showing the variations of the Ca and S K-lines absolute XRF intensity (counts) in the line drawn in the S–Ca distribution map.

be observed. This coincidence in the distribution could point to a transformation of the calcite present in the sandstone into calcium sulfate due to the SO_2 coming from the atmosphere. On the contrary, the pink hotspots could suggest possible

calcium sulfate depositions. Calcite particles can be emitted to the atmosphere due to the erosion of rocks. This carbonate compound can react in the atmosphere with the hydrated SO_2 acid gas (H_2SO_4) to give rise to calcium sulfate. This sulfate

can suffer a subsequent deposition in the building materials following a dry deposition process. The higher signal input (absolute intensity in counts) of Ca and S in the hot spots can be observed in the line scan performed (see Figure 2 bottom-right).

Concluding remarks

In this study, it was possible to characterise different deterioration processes caused mainly by the influence of marine aerosols (wet and dry depositions), infiltration waters, salts migrations, atmospheric acid gases impact (wet and dry depositions) etc., due to the combined use of Raman spectroscopy and ED-XRF. The high amount of sulfates and nitrates present in these atmospheres coming from the marine aerosol itself or from acid gases (SO_2 and NO_x) emitted by urban-industrial sources can modify the original composition of these materials.

These results highlight the importance of the use of such analytical tools to detect the decay compounds and the original composition of the different materials from historical buildings close to the sea, which is fundamental in order to be able to explain the reactions that take place on them. This methodology can assist in the design of recovery actions and in the development of preventive conservation strategies for historical buildings.

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