Infrared Physics and Technology, Volume 89, March 2018, Pages 231-241 DOI:10.1016/j.infrared.2018.01.011

1	Sodium sulfate crystallisation monitoring using IR Thermography
2	P. Vazquez *1, C. Thomachot-Schneider ¹ , K. Mouhoubi ² , J-L. Bodnar ² , N. P. Avdelidis ^{3,4} , D.
3	Charles ¹ , D. Benavente ⁵
4	* Corresponding Author
5	
6	¹ GEGENAA EA 3795, University of Reims Champagne-Ardenne (URCA), 2 esplanade Roland Garros, 51100 Reims,
7	France
8	² CATHERM, GRESPI EA 4694, University of Reims Champagne-Ardenne (URCA), Moulin de la Housse BP 1039, 51687
9	Reims, France
10	³ Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Université Laval, G1V 0A6, Quebec City (Quebec), Canada
12	⁴ Aerospace Integration Research Centre (AIRC), College Road, Cranfield, MK43 0AL, UK
13	⁵ Dpto. Ciencias de la Tierra y del Medio Ambiente, Universidad de Alicante, 03080 Alicante, Spain
14	
15	
16	Abstract
17	In this work, the evaporation of sodium sulfate droplets with different concentrations and at
18	different temperatures were studied using infrared thermography (IRT). IRT allows to detect the
19	evaporation evolution, the crystal growth and for the first time, to observe in vivo the heat release
20	related to sodium sulfate crystallisation. A detailed study revealed that dendritic Thenardite III
21	crystals appeared at the edge of all the crystallised droplets, though they showed a fast increase
22	of temperature related to crystallisation only when a hydrated phase crystallised also from the
23	droplet. The observation of the heat of crystallisation is thus directly related to the
24	supersaturation of the droplet and consequently to temperature. In addition, IRT detection is
25	circumscribed by the location of crystallisation. The heat can be observed and measured only
26	when the crystallisation occurs in the interface solution – air.
27	

29 Keywords: sodium sulfate; infrared thermography, crystallisation, heat release,

30 supersaturation

31

32

1. Introduction

33

The crystallisation of sodium sulfate generates a wide interest in different fields. The main issue is the damage produced in porous materials, with special concern in stone buildings of cultural heritage [1]. The crystallisation pressure causes the fracturation of the pores and consequently the deterioration of the stone [2]; [3]; [4]. In addition, the field of energy storage benefits from the heat exchange during the phase transition [5]; [6]. Fundamental researches focus on this salt because of its complexity and the need for a better understanding of its crystallisation [7]; [8].

40

41 In nature, sodium sulfate appears commonly in two forms. The first is Thenardite V (anhydrous 42 phase) which crystallises as efflorescence and produces mainly an aesthetic change on stone 43 surface, without strong mechanical damage [9]; [10]; [11]; [12]. The second is mirabilite 44 (decahydrated phase) which crystallises as subflorescence and produces the most severe 45 damage on the stones [13]; [14]; [15]. Thenardite V and mirabilite are the stable phases of the 46 sodium sulfate system, but also two metastable phases are found in determinate conditions. The 47 first is the anhydrous Thenardite III which appears at room conditions, and the sodium sulfate 48 heptahydrate, which is a metastable phase appearing commonly before mirabilite at low 49 temperatures [16]; [17]; [18]; [19]; [20].

50

In laboratory studies, sodium sulfate materialises through several stable and metastable phases
[21]. The temperature, relative humidity and concentration leading to preferential crystallisation
of one phase over another. Differences are noticeable if supersaturation is obtained by solution
cooling or by evaporation (e.g. [22]; [23]). In addition, factors such as the nature of the substrate,

contact angle, impurities or air currents may play a determinant role in the crystallisation of a given phase in the evaporating droplet experiments [24]. In addition, different phases can coexist within a droplet, elevating the complexity of the process [13]; [25]. This implies that the variability of the results from an evaporating brine droplet is enormous and the repeatability unknown. As mentioned by Genkinger and Putnis (2007) [22], sodium sulfate behaviour is extremely complex, and contemporary research shed light on some questions but gave rise to new ones.

61

62 This complexity has led to the use of new and accurate techniques allowing for a deeper 63 understanding of the different processes. Environmental scanning electron microscopy (ESEM) 64 started being used for the assessment of sodium sulfate crystallisation around year 2000 [11]; 65 [26]. This technique threw light on salt hydration and dehydration as well as on the different 66 phases formed. Neutron Magnetic Resonance (NMR) was introduced in recent years for the 67 research of sodium sulfate heptahydrate crystallisation [17]; [18]. This technique allows to 68 observe in-situ crystallisation by controlling temperature and measuring solution concentration. 69 Thus, the supersaturation occurring at the moment of crystallisation can be recovered. 70 Environmental XRD allows to observe in vivo the phase change and coexistence with variatins 71 in temperature and humidity [27]. Another analytic technique is Raman spectrometry, this allows 72 to determine which phase corresponds to a fixed crystal with accurate results for sodium sulfate 73 heptahydrate in the case of Hamilton and Menzies 2009 [28] and Linnow et al., (2013) [29]. Even 74 more accurate techniques were utilised to study salt crystallisation, like Synchrotron X-ray 75 tomography to observe salt crystallisation within a porous stone [30] or Rainbow Schlieren 76 deflectometry and liquid crystal thermography [31] providing answers about heat release during 77 crystallisation. Numerous models were introduced in order to simulate the real behaviour of 78 different salts and mixtures, related to crystallisation pressure as well as chemical interaction [7]; 79 [8]; [32], [33].

81 The use of infrared thermography (IRT) has been widely adopted over the last several years in 82 many areas [34]; [35]. It has proven to be an important non-destructive technique for civil 83 engineering works even for those requiring special attention as in the case of cultural heritage 84 [36]; [37]; [38]; [39]; [40]. One of the last applications of this technique was laboratory detection 85 of salts [41]; [42] and also in real artworks [43].

86 This non invasive and non destructive technique was recently used for the study of compounds 87 crystallisation as in Parsa et al., (2015) [44] who studied CuO droplet evaporations. Vazquez et 88 al., (2015) [45] presented the study by IRT of sodium chloride from an evaporating droplet, with 89 the differentiation of the different phases in relation to thermosignal variation. Some chemical 90 processes triggered heat exchange reactions such as water evaporation (endothermic reaction) 91 or crystallisation (exothermic reaction). In some cases, this heat was not sufficient to be detected 92 by the IRT camera. However, crystallisation from a droplet entailed a variation in shape and thus 93 in emissivity. This variation in emissivity allowed to observe other phenomena of the 94 crystallisation process as a great evaporation before crystallisation or creeping [45]; [46].

95

96 The main aim of this research is to deepen the analysis of sodium sulfate crystallisation by 97 means of IRT. This assessment will be obtained by solving three questions

98 What is the thermal response of sodium sulfate resulting from evaporating droplets?

99 How repeatable are the results in terms of thermal response, crystal habitus and • 100 occurring phases?

101

Is there a specific crystal phase associated to a specific thermal response?

102

103 2. Experimental Setup

104

105 2.1 Measurement protocol

107 In this study, the thermal effect of the crystallisation of sodium sulfate droplets was assessed by 108 means of a FLIR SC655 long wave infrared thermography camera (7.5 -14 µm) with a 109 temperature ranging from -40 to 150° C and an accuracy of ± 2% of the reading. The detector is 110 an uncooled array of microbolometers. Image size is 640 x 480 pixels and the noise signal is 111 approximately 40 mK. The recorded signal is called thermosignal (TS). The TS depends on the 112 temperature and emissivity and is expressed in isothermal units (I.U.). All measurements were 113 conducted using the passive IRT mode. Prior tests concluded that the optimal recording speed 114 (frame rate) was 1 image per second throughout the test for the conditions used. The images 115 were treated and analysed with the ThermaCAM Researcher 2.10 and ResearchID software (FLIR). 116

117

118 The supersaturation needed for sodium sulfate crystallisation was induced by the evaporation 119 of the solvent. The droplets were placed on black adhesive tape (3M), which served as a 120 reference material and was stuck to a glass slide. Its emissivity was determined to be 0.96 in the 121 wavelength analysed by the camera [47]. The 3M tape used as support was cleaned with alcohol 122 before each test to minimise the presence of impurities. Temperature was set constant with a 123 cooling plate Tetech CP-061 that kept it with a precision of 0.01 °C. The droplets were dropped 124 with a micropipette with the same quantity (5 μ L) in each case. During the experimental setup 125 the risks associated to environmental variations were minimised such as control of temperature 126 and humidity of the room with $20 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C and $40 \pm 5^{\circ}$ RH respectively, none artificial or natural 127 light source that coust influence the signal and the room temperature and a closed environment 128 with no external interferences. Nevertheless, some variables were introduced due to the 129 manuallity of some tasks such as the deposition of the droplets. For example, preliminary tests 130 revealed that for 20 droplets the contact angle could vary between 22 and 40°.

131

Once the droplets crystallised, the crystal morphology and distribution were assessed by optical microscopy with the aid of an Olympus SZH-ILLB stereomicroscope with a digital Tri-CDD camera (Sony, DXP 930) and image analysis software from Microvision Instruments.

135

136 **2.2 Experimental**

137

Nucleation and growth experiments presented a probabilistic behaviour. Thus, experimental conditions were kept the most identical possible with six droplets tested at the same time in one support so that the differences in the crystallisation process were not due to the environmental conditions. The droplets were placed manually with the most similar spacing among them.

142

Sodium sulfate solutions were prepared with distilled water at 7, 14, 20 and 28% wt concentrations (purity of >99 %, Sigma Aldrich). These concentrations were chosen because 145 14% wt is the concentration used in natural stone standards for resistance to salt crystallisation (UNE_EN 21370) and 28% is the concentration close to saturation at room temperature. The 20% concentration was chosen as the intermediate value and 7% as a weak concentration in 148 order to evaluate the influence of concentration in the crystallisation. Saturation index, SI, 149 describes the saturation degree of mineral phases. It is defined as:

150 SI=log(IAP/K)

(1)

where IAP is the ionic product and K is the equilibrium constant. SI is calculated according tothe Benavente et al., (2015) [33].

Lower and intermediate concentrations were tested in order to determine the importance of concentration in the thermal response of the evaporating droplets. In all cases, the solutions were mixed at 50°C and stirred for 1 hour to avoid crystal seeds. This temperature kept the solution far from the saturation threshold and thus it avoided the crystallisation during the droplet

deposit. The six droplets of each concentration evaporated at the same time on the cooling plate
at 50, 25, 20 and 15°C respectively.

Additionally to image observation, TS was monitored in several points of the droplet. For a better comprehension, data were treated in relation to the 3M tape as follows (2):

161 $\Delta TS = TS_{droplet} - TS_{3M}$ (2)

162 Negative values corresponded to lower emissivity or/and lower temperature than the black

tape. Since the highest emissivity of salt crystals is similar to 3M tape, positive values (higher

164 than TS _{3M}) mean only higher temperatures.

165

166 **3. Results**

167

When a droplet is placed on a substrate, it evaporates through all its surface. Within the droplet, there is a flow that replenished the edge with the liquid from the centre. When the evaporation is enough to create a supersaturation of the saline solution, small crystals appeared. These crystals are usually concentrated on the edge, due to the higher supersaturation in this area and to the flow of small crystals from the centre to the edge.

174

175 **3.1 Thermal responses of droplet evaporation**

176

The thermal response of salt solution evaporating from a droplet observed with IRT consists of three phases [45]: (I) homogeneous evaporation, (II) crystal growth driven by evaporation and (III) crystal growth fed by solution creeping. Phases I and II always appear whereas the type of salt and the environmental conditions will condition the occurrence of phase III. These three

phases were defined for NaCl droplets and they may not fit in exactly with the behaviour of othersalt types.

- 183
- 184
- 185

186 Figure 1 shows the TS of the whole process of crystallisation of sodium sulfate at different 187 temperatures, from the deposit of the droplet down to the stabilisation of the signal after 188 crystallisation. The droplet evaporation (Phase I) was measured as a linear increase in Δ TS, i.e. 189 the $TS_{droplet}$ (negative) approaches the TS_{3M} (zero). Sometimes a rapid slope appeared, i.e. the 190 Δ TS reduced drastically (Fig 1, a) that indicated the total evaporation at this point. At 50°C and 191 25°C evaporation started instantaneously with the deposit of the droplet on the plate. When the 192 temperature was set at 20°C and 15°C, the evaporation did not start until several minutes later 193 and even hours in extreme cases. After a determinate time, there was an inflexion point in which 194 TS started increasing linearly at the same rate approximately as that at 25°C (Fig 1c, d). During 195 this Phase I, crystals could grow within the solution, nevertheless they were not observed by the 196 IRT due to the low crystallisation energy and the heat dissipation into the droplet. The detection 197 limit of the IRT camera was not high enough to register these temperature variations.

198



15°C 14%

Image IRT heat release



200

202 Figure 1

203

Fig 1: Examples of Δ TS evolution with time of the droplet during crystallisation on the point indicated by a star. The image of the droplet corresponds to the Δ TS indicated by an arrow on the graph. a) Droplet evaporation with no crystal formation in the measuring point; b) Similar process than in a) with different substrate temperature; c) A crystal appeared at the measuring point with positive TS at the end of the crystallisation; d) Heat release due to crystallisation ("flash") observed as a peak of TS increase.

210

211 Phase II was characterised by a crystal growth on the edge and in the centre of the droplet. This 212 phase starts at the inflexion point after the homogeneous increasing slope of phase I. At the 213 end of evaporation (Fig 1 a, b c), crystals showed a slightly different TS from the reference black 214 tape due to a low emissivity produced by the shape effect and a difference of temperature 215 between the substrate and the environment (observed also in [45]). The environment 216 temperature was fixed at 22°C so that if the temperature of the support was higher than that of 217 the environment (22°C), the crystals would show colder TS and if temperature of the support 218 was colder than the environment, crystals would appear hotter.

In some points (Fig 1 d), the heat release due to crystallisation was high enough for the observation of some early crystal formation leading to a sudden peak of TS (due to a temperature increase). This peak was called "flash" since it was observed as a photographic flash with the IRT.

223

Weak creeping was observed in a few cases (Phase III) [45]. As explained in Vazquez et al., (2015) [45], after Phase II, when no solution was visible with the IRT, a series of intermittent decreases of the TS around and on the previously formed crystals were observed. This indicated that evaporation was not yet complete and that stepped crystal growth or dehydration processes

were still occurring. The IRT signal recorded intermittent decrease in the TS and only when this
 intermittent variation stopped, was crystallisation considered to be completed.

230

231 **3.2 Types of exothermal reactions**

232

During a sodium sulfate droplet evaporation, in some cases an increase of temperature was recorded with IRT, corresponding to the exothermal reaction linked to crystallisation. This phenomenon called "flash" could reach a few degrees and last for a few seconds. After that, TS returned to the same or slightly higher values. The flash phenomenon started at a single point and moved with a wicking effect through the droplet. Regarding the wick movement, the flash could be divided out into three forms (Fig 2):

239

Single Ring (Fig 2 top, Figure 3 - Video 1): it could appear before any crystal was visible
 in the droplet or with several crystallisations in the centre and edge of the droplet. In both
 cases, the solution was still visible by IRT. In this case, a starting point showed a higher
 TS than the rest and it started moving through the droplet edge in one direction. This
 direction could be clockwise or contrarily, without any priority. Once the high TS had
 completed part of the droplet perimeter, the temperature dropped to that of the solution
 and evaporation accelerated.

Double Ring (Fig 2 middle): similarly to the first case, a point of the droplet edge
 increased its temperature. From this point, the heat propagated clockwise or in counter clockwise directions through the droplet edge until confluence and recovery of solution
 temperature. The droplet continued evaporating after this process. Sometimes, the
 movement of the high TS was not continuous but intermittent and the whole loop could
 be divided into two or three steps.

Scanning (Fig 2 bottom): from the first heating point, the high thermosignal spread
 linearly across the whole droplet like a scan. Solution remained in some parts of the
 droplet that continued evaporating.



- scanning. The crystallised droplet with white and powdery aspect corresponded to thenardite as
- 261 product of dehydration of a previous hydrated phase.
- 262
- 263
- 264



- 265
- Figure 3 Video 1: Flash with ring shape recorded in a droplet with 14% concentration at 15°C.

268 **3.3 Relation between thermal response, temperature and saline concentration**

269

270 For the four different temperatures (50°, 25°, 20°, and 15°C) and the four different concentrations

271 (7, 14, 20, and 28% wt), the results of the thermal response are shown in Table 1.

- 273 Table 1: For each temperature and concentration, number of flashes over the 6 droplets tested
- 274 (sudden TS increases), minimal and maximal Δ TS measured and flash type description.
- 275

		7%	14%	20%	28%
	N° Flash	0	0	0	0
50°C	Min-Max ∆TS (I.U.)				
	Shape				
	N° Flash	0	0	0	0
25°C	Min-Max ∆TS (I.U.)				
	Shape				
	N° Flash	1	1	1	4
20°C	Min-Max ΔTS (I.U.)	2	2.2	2.4	2.2-3.6
	Shape	sr	dr	dr	dr, sc
15°C	N° Flash	4	2	2	3
15 0	Min-Max ∆TS (I.U.)	2.2-3.6	3.2-3.6	2.0-2.2	1.2-6.8

276 277	Shape sr: single ring; dr: double ring; sc: s	dr, sc canning.	sr	dr	SC, Sr	
278	At 50°C and 25°C no increase in	n TS was ob	served for an	y concentratio	n. Droplets evap	orated
279	showing low TS in the whole dro	oplet.				
280						
281	When temperature was set at 20	°C, only one	of the six drop	lets tested at t	he same time ex	hibited
282	a flash phenomenon. The increr	ment of TS w	as comparab	e for all conce	ntrations. Value	s were
283	found around 2 I.U. The most c	ommon type	of flash was	the ring, single	in low concent	rations
284	and double in high concentration	ıs.				
285	At 15°C, the flash phenomena b	ecame more	frequent. For	all the concen	trations, the num	nber of
286	flashes per droplet was between	n 2 and 4. In	general, valu	es of ΔTS we	e higher than th	iose at
287	20°C, reaching even almost 7 I.	.U. for 28% c	concentration.	The type of fl	ash was variabl	e, with
288	single and double ring, and also	scanning at	high concentr	ations (Fig 1, 2	2).	
289						
290	3.3 Relation between thermal	response ar	id crystal sha	аре		
291						
292	The observation with naked eye	revealed a c	lifference in th	ne type of crys	tals in the drople	ets that
293	exhibited flash or not.					
294						
295	- Droplets that did not sh	now a flash	phenomenon	showed trans	parent and elor	ngated
296	crystals.					
297	Two elongated crystal shapes	were found	in these dro	plets i) transp	arent crystals for	orming
298	aggregates in fan-shape that o	corresponded	to Thernadi	te (V) [11]; [1	3] and ii) trans	parent
299	crystals with dendritic shape the	at correspon	ded toTherna	rdite (III). The	latter owes its v	whitish
300	color to small prismatic crystals	(Thernadite	V) that appea	ared on the the	enardite (III) duri	ing the
301	last evaporation process [11]; [1	3]; [25]; [29]	; [30]. Both ty	pes of elongat	ed crystals (fan-	-shape

and dendritic) grew from the edge to the centre. Thenardite (V) is the stable anhydrous phase and Thenardite (III) the metastable anhydrous phase of sodium sulfate. The thickness of this ring-like crystal varied in relation to temperature and concentration. Figure 4 shows that the thickness was lower at low concentrations and low temperatures, increasing linearly with concentration.



- 308 Fig 4: Ring thickness with temperature and concentration.
- 309

307

310



Fig 5: Crystal shape of droplets evaporating without flash phenomenon. Thenardite V andThenardite III are visible in each droplet.

314

At 20°C, droplets that did not show a flash, appeared similar to those at 50 and 25°C, with Thenardite V transparent, with radial elongated crystals and Thenardite III from the edge to the droplet centre and, in this case, bigger crystals of Thenardite III in the centre. At 15°C, the droplets that did not experiment a flash showed lot of dogteeth on the edge (Thenardite V) and small radial crystals on the edge and in the droplet centre (Thenardite III).

In the case of 7 and 14% concentrations and for all temperatures, all the crystals were ordinated figuring a radial geometry towards the centre of the droplet (Fig 5). These crystals were longer with a 14% concentration and they occupied more than half of the droplet. With 20 and 26% concentrations these crystals were more chaotic in the centre, masking the radial structure converging from the edge. In the centre of the ring, small dendritic crystals appeared dispersed.

Crystallised droplets that showed flash phenomena (ring or scanning) were white and
 powdery which corresponded to a dehydrated phase formed from a previous hydrated phase
 (Fig. 4).

329 During the tests carried out at 20°C and 15°C, transparent crystals appeared in first place (phase 330 not recognised during the monitoring). However, after total crystallisation the crystals become 331 white and with a powdery aspect, sometimes with geometrical remnants of transparent crystal 332 shapes (Fig 2). This kind of white crystals are typical of stable Thenardite V as a product of 333 dehydration indicating the existence of a previous hydrated phase. The ring flashes (simple and 334 double) originated on the droplet edge and they moved only through the border [25]. Closer 335 observation with the binocular microscope, focusing on the edge crystals where flash flashes 336 originated, showed a different type of crystals from the rest of the droplet. Dendritic transparent

of Thenardite III grew among hydrated phases and remained transparent after dehydration,indicating the absence of overgrowth Thenardite V.

339

340 4. Discussion

341

342 4.1 Droplet evaporation

343

344 Droplets with four concentrations were evaporated at different temperatures ranging from 15°C 345 to 50°C in laboratory conditions (22°C and 33% RH). The water evaporation enthalpy is around 346 40 kJ/mol and the evaporation heat around 2250 kJ/Kg. As evaporation is an endothermal 347 process, the IRT TS is lower in the evaporating area. However, as observed in Vazquez et al., 348 (2015) [45], the low TS of this process is not related only to the evaporation process. Droplet 349 emissivity depends on the observation angle. For observation angles of 45 or more, the 350 emissivity was found to decrease [48]. As evaporation proceeds, the contact angle is reduced 351 and the droplet surface becomes flatter. This produces a homogeneous increase of the 352 measured emissivity (Fig 2). In addition, during this study the evaporation process showed slight 353 random variations on TS. These fluctuations were too weak and they were measured as TS 354 noise. However, since temperature remains constant, these variations may correspond to the 355 likely convective movements due to concentration gradients at the evaporating surface [22]; [31]; 356 [49].

The differences of temperature between the substrate and the environment may create various crystallisation patterns due to Marangoni effects. After comparing the results obtained by Parsa et al., (2015) [44] and the results of this research, it can be stated that the differences due to Marangoni effect related to differences in temperature can be neglected. There were more variations between droplets tested at the same time in the same conditions than with droplets tested at different temperatures.

364 4.2 Thermal response of sodium sulfate

365 <u>4.2.1 Influence of the crystal location and temperature for the detection of the exothermal</u>

366 <u>reaction</u>

367

368 During phase change (liquid to solid), the temperature of the crystal remains constant. 369 Nevertheless, this process involves a heat exchange with the surroundings that can be 370 sometimes measured by IRT. Two options must be considered: i) the crystallisation occurs inside 371 the droplet as in the case of faceted crystals or ii) the crystallisation occurs at the air-solution 372 interface as in the case of the edge dendritic crystals.

373

i) If the crystallisation occurred inside the droplet, the heat released that could be measured bythe camera corresponded to the indirect signal of the solution heating.

376
$$TS \Leftrightarrow \xi_s S_d \sigma \left(T_s^4 - T_{env}^4\right) + \tau_s \xi_c S_c \sigma \left(T_c^4 - T_{env}^4\right)$$
(3)

377

378 Where,

- 379 $\xi_s S_d \sigma (T_s^4 T_{env}^4)$ is the indirect emission
- 380 $\tau_s \xi_c S_c \sigma (T_c^4 T_{env}^4)$ is the direct emission
- 381 TS= IRT thermosignal
- 382 ξ_s = emissivity of the solution
- 383 ξ_c = emissivity of the salt crystal
- 384 Sd: proyected droplet surface
- 385 Sc= proyected crystal surface
- 386 σ = Stephan Boltzmann constant
- 387 τ_s = solution transmissivity

388 T_s = temperature of the solution

 T_c = temperature of the crystal

- 390 T_{env} = temperature of the environment
- 391

Taking into account the ratio volume crystal/volume droplet, this heating can be considered negligible. The direct transmission from the droplet to the air can also be considered insignificant because of the low transmissivity of the water. During this test, the growth of hydrated or anhydre crystals in the centre of the droplet was observed due to emissivity variations when the solution formed a film around the crystals. However, according to the above mentioned, the heat of crystallisation of crystals in the centre of the droplet was not observed by IRT.

398

ii) If the crystallisation occurred at the liquid-air interface, two parameters were responsible for the received signal. The heat was released in the droplet edge producing an increase of temperature of the surrounding solution. In this case, the affected volume was much lesser that in case i) and thus this area of the droplet heats up high enough to be detected by the IRT camera. Besides, there is a direct transmission from the crystal to the air that can also be added to the droplet signal.

405
$$TS \Leftrightarrow \xi_s S_d \sigma \left(T_s^4 - T_{env}^4\right) + \tau_a \xi_c S_c \sigma \left(T_c^4 - T_{env}^4\right)$$
(4)

406

407 Where

408 au_a is the air transmissivity

409

410 <u>4.2.2. Supersaturation and maximum increase of temperature</u>

412 Most of the studies of sodium sulfate thermodynamics were carried out with solutions in closed 413 systems. In these cases, supersaturation leading to crystallisation is obtained by decreasing the 414 temperature. During crystallisation, the heat is released and diffuses through the solution, being 415 measured as an increase of temperature [20]; [23]; [31]; [50]. This temperature increase during 416 crystallisation is directly related to the solution supersaturation. Espinosa et al., (2008) [23] 417 observed an increase of temperature of 0.1°C for a supersaturation ratio of a salt in the solution 418 of 1.8, whereas a supersaturation ratio of 7.5 implicated an increase of 11°C. Vavouraki and 419 Koutsoukos (2012) [50] measured a maximum increase of T of 3.5°C with a relative 420 supersaturation of 0.54 (or a saturation index (SI) of 0.19). Since there is not heat loss into the 421 atmosphere, temperature values in a closed system were expected to be higher than in open 422 system evaporating droplets. Nevertheless, the increase of temperature could be comparable 423 with the results of this IRT study even if a big variation (1.6 -6.8 I.U.) was measured.

424

According to the observations with IRT, the highest increase of temperature appeared mainly at the beginning of the crystallisation. This agrees with other studies in closed systems that did not register other signs of heat release even with further crystallisation and its consequent increase of supersaturation [23] or that measured different heat peaks but which corresponded to different crystallisation phases [20].

In this study, more than one increase of temperature (flash) in different parts of one droplet and separated in time were observed in isolated cases. These increases were mostly in the form of ring flashes. Egan et al., (2014) [31] found a more important temperature increase during nucleation but also during dendritic crystal growth, which could explain the various flash phenomena observed.

The duration of the heat release went from several minutes [50] to more than one hour in closed
systems [20]; [23], while the flashes observed in this study with IRT lasted only a few seconds.

437

440 Figure 6 shows the initial concentrations and temperatures and the increasing concentration441 pathways during evaporation.

At 50°C, all the solutions were undersaturated, with a saturation index of -1.53 for 7% to -0.73 for 28%, and the increase in concentration due to evaporation should lead to Thenardite crystallisation (Fig 6). Observation of the formed crystals showed that they are solid and transparent to quasi transparent with different shapes but all similar to Thenardite III and Thenardite V [11]; [13]; [25]; [51]. At 50°C temperature, the crystallisation enthalphy is positive for all the solution concentrations even supersaturated [52], explaining the lack of temperature increase during crystallisation. Temperature decrease was neither observed.

449

450





Fig. 6: Initial concentrations and temperatures of the tested droplets. The arrows indicate the fast cooling from the solution at 50°C to the temperature of the test, and the increasing concentration pathways during evaporation.

458 At 25°C, the solutions with 7, 14 and 20% concentrations were undersaturated in relation to 459 mirabilite crystallisation (SI are -0.82, -0.32 and -0.03 respectively) meanwhile during the cooling 460 of the 28% concentration the threshold of mirabilite saturation was crossed (SI= 0.17). In spite 461 of these differences, all the droplets crystallised similarly to those at 50°C, with the ring-like 462 shape of acicular Thenardite V and the dendritic crystals of Thenardite III on the droplet edge 463 and isolated dendritic crystals in the centre. During evaporation at 25°C, saturation of the 464 solution aimed at forming mirabilite. However, supersaturation aimed at producing the mirabilite 465 nucleation was not high enough and so it was Thenardite that crystallised [7]. At this

466 temperature, no heat release was recorded with the IRT in spite of having negative enthalpies 467 (exothermal reactions) for supersaurated concentrations. The solubility limit of Thenardite 468 crystals is 35% [25] and due to this fact, the heat released is too weak to be detected by the 469 camera.

470

471 At 20°C the 7 and 14% solutions remained under the mirabilite saturation threshold (-0.6 and -472 0.1 respectively) whereas the 20 and 28% solutions rapidly cooled down to the solubility 473 boundaries between mirabilite and heptahydrate and then started evaporating. In this case, five 474 of the six droplets followed the same behaviour as the ones at 50°C and 25°C with Thenardite 475 as the predominant crystallisation phase (Phase III and Phase V). However, one of the six 476 droplets for each concentration performed differently. These droplets showed an increase of 477 temperature on the edge during crystallisation, with a single ring flash at 7%, a scanning flash 478 at 14% and a double ring flash at higher concentrations. The crystallisation enthalpy was 479 negative and with a heat release superior than at 25°C [52]. This fact could explain the detection 480 with the IRT camera, although the high supersaturation reached in the nucleation spot, the higher 481 energy released by metastable phases, together with a difference in the crystallised volume 482 could enhance the recorded signal. After the test, these crystals were white and powdery, 483 characteristic of Thenardite V formed by dehydration of hydrated phases [13]. The dehydration 484 is produced by evaporation pulses, observed as dark intermittent signal with IRT [13]; [45]. The 485 hydrated phase that corresponds to these crystals is however not clear. On one hand, some 486 authors crystallised or found mirabilite at temperatures around 20°C. According to Telkes, 1952 487 [5], at 20°C mirabilite precipitated in an spontaneous way if concentration was 3.7m, Vavourakis 488 and Koutsoukos (2012) [50] found mirabilite after introducing mirabilite seeds at 20°C and 18°C 489 and Donkers et al., (2015) [6] crystallised mirabilite at 22°C. On the other hand, in a 7% droplet, 490 a truncated pyramid of four sides appeared within the rest of the crystals, reminding of 491 heptahydrate habit found in Hamilton et al., (2008) [17] (Fig 8). Even if most of the researches

showed the appearance of heptahydrate at low temperatures [17]; [18]; [19]; [20] others found
the heptahydrate at higher temperatures (22°C) [27]; [53]. Higher temperatures allow higher
concentrations that can be set for heptahydrate to crystallise [18]. All these data cast doubts
about the identification or not of the crystal shown in Fig 7 as heptahydrate at 20°C.



496

497 Fig 7: Crystal showing a heptahydrate shape (according to Hamilton et al., 2008).

498

499 At 15°C the 7% solution started evaporating in undersaturated conditions meanwhile the 14 and 500 20% crossed the solubility limit of mirabilite (SI are 0.13 and 0.4 respectively) and the 28% 501 crossed the heptahydrate threshold (SI=0.06). In this case, for every concentration, half of the 502 droplets showed crystals with similar acicular and dendritic habits to those recognised as 503 Thenardite V and III. The main difference is that in hotter conditions, crystals grow from the edge 504 to the centre of the droplet with a fan-like shape, and at 15°C most of them grow with a circle-505 radial shape. This means that even at 15°C and with supersaturated conditions in mirabilite and 506 even heptahydrate, Thenardite has 50% possibilities of crystallising. The other half of the 507 droplets showed flash phenomena, in which the ring flash was more frequent than the scanning. 508 The differences in temperatures measured during the flash (Table 1) revealed that in general 509 the increase was higher at 15°C that at 20°C according to the higher exothermal enthalpy [52] 510 and the increase of supersaturation leading to crystallisation with lower temperatures [53]. The

511 final crystals were also white and powdery with no well-defined shape. One case was the 512 exception. Fig 8 shows three droplets evaporating at 15°C and with the same 14% concentration. 513 All the three are white and powdery crystals and were produced by dehydration of a hydrated 514 phase. However, Fig 8c shows the crystallised droplet without any flash phenomena. In the two 515 cases in which a ring flash was observed with IRT, the droplets keep their circle shape with a 516 very thin crystal layer (Fig 8 a and b). The flash (sudden increase of temperature) corresponds 517 to the crystallisation of crystals at the edge following a "wicking effect" [54]. However, in the only 518 case of dehydrated crystals that did not show a flash, the crystals grew in the centre of the 519 droplet and nothing remained in the droplet edge. This indicates that the growth of big hydrated 520 crystals is not related to temperature increase.



521

Fig 8: a, b) sodium sulfate crystals that showed ring flash phenomena and the direction of the flash during
their crystallisation. c) sodium sulfate crystals of droplets that did not show any flash phenomenon.

524

525 <u>4.2.4 Determination of the phase that corresponds to the highest heat release</u>

526

527 The droplets were observed with higher magnification in order to determinate which sodium 528 sulfate phase was producing the flash. Strikingly, at first sight, dendritic crystals of Thenardite III 529 were responsible of either behaviours, heat release (flash) and no heat release (no flash). In Fig 530 8c these dendritic crystals are not present. Fig 9 shows in detail the dendritic crystals observed

531 in hydrated and dehydrated crystallisations.

532



533

Fig 9: Detail of crystals that initiated the flash compared to those that did not flash (15°C, 14%concentration).

536

The crystallisation of dendritic crystals corresponding to metastable Thenardite III (paragraph 3.1) is common in environmental conditions [5]; [16]. Egan et al., (2014) [31] precipitated sodium sulfate at low temperatures and they observed an increase of temperature during nucleation but also during the growth of dendritic crystals. After the dendritic growth, they observed another more faceted phase that grew slowly.

542 Füredi Milhofer et al., (1990) [55] reported that in supersaturated conditions, the solutions with 543 lower supersaturation led to dendrite precipitation while hydrated and compact crystals resulted 544 from higher supersaturations. This explains that at higher temperatures, supersaturations only 545 entailed the crystallisation of Phase III which needed less concentration to nucleate. In addition, with the decrease of temperature, the nucleation threshold decreases as supersaturation increases. In both cases there is an exothermal reaction, but at 15°C the energy released is higher [52] and thus it is within the detection range of the IRT camera. This explains that for the same crystallisation phase (dendrites of phase III) high supersaturations involve a heat release higher than low supersaturations. In high supersaturations, even with the initial precipitation of phase III, hydrated crystals continued precipitating, confirming the high supersaturation needed for a hydrate to crystallise instead of the anhydrous phase.

553

554 **5. Conclusions and perspectives**

555

IRT is a promising tool for salt crystallisation studies, which allows differentiating some processes that cannot be distinguished with visual methods. IRT has been successfully applied to the sodium sulfate system and has permitted to characterise the heat released of both stable and metastable phases. In this study, IRT allowed to observe in vivo the heat released during crystallisation and its relation to temperature and supersaturation.

561 The main pourposes of this research were to determine the thermal response of sodium sulfate 562 resulting from evaporating droplets, and if there is a specific crystal phase associated to a 563 specific thermal response. The main findings were:

During droplet evaporation, the first crystals that appear are the dendritic Thenardite crystals,
 which is the metastable phase that arises with the lowest supersaturation degrees. A heat
 release is produced by these dendritic crystals (Thenardite III) growing on the edge of the
 droplets that involved an increase of temperature in a precise small spot on the droplet edge
 that propagates following a wicking effect through this contact.

• At the end of the crystallisation process, a hydrated phase was observed in droplets showing flash (even if the flashes are produced by Thenardite). Due to the fact that crystals are

already present, and if saturation is on the threshold of the mirabilite - heptahydrate, thisphase should be to crystallise.

At lower temperatures, the mineral saturation at the moment of the first crystallisation (dendrites) and crystallisation enthalpy is higher and so is the heat released by this process.
Thermosignal can only be observed mainly when the crystallisation takes place in the interface droplet air. However, some phenomena such as scanning did not find any explanation.

578

579 Other of the goals of this research was to determine the flash phenomena repeatability in terms 580 of thermal response, crystal habitus and occurring phases. Regarding the results from six 581 droplets, further analysis will be needed to state a behaviour and a probabilistic result. 582 Additionally, further clarification is needed regarding some questions that resulted during these 583 research studies e.g. it is necessary to understand why heat release takes the form of scanning; 584 to determine the statistical repeatability of one or the other phases of flash phenomena at 585 temperatures below 20°C; and test the feasibility of IRT in other conditions, at lower 586 temperatures to detect heptahydrate or during hydration/dehydration processes.

587

588 Acknowledgements

589 This work was partially funded by the BQR call from the University of Reims Champagne-590 Ardenne (project Transels) and the project FLUTE funded by the University of Reims 591 Champagne-Ardenne and the Region Grand-Est (France).

592

593

594

595

- 597 References
- 598
- 599 [1] Winkler, E.M. and Singer, P.C., 1972. "Crystallization pressure of salts in stone and 600 concrete". Geological society of America bulletin, 83(11), pp.3509-3514.
- [2] Flatt, R.J. "Salt Damage in Porous Materials: How High Supersaturations Are Generated."
 Journal of Crystal Growth 242, no. 3 (2002): 435–454
- [3] Benavente D, García-del-Cura MA, Fort R, Ordóñez S (2004a) "Durability estimation of
 porous building stones from pore structure and strength". Engineering Geology 74:113 127.
- 606 [4] Angeli, M., Benavente, D., Bigas, J.P., Menéndez, B., Hébert, R. and David, C., 2008.
 607 "Modification of the porous network by salt crystallization in experimentally weathered
 608 sedimentary stones". Materials and Structures, 41(6), pp.1091-1108.
- 609 [5] Telkes, M. "Thermal Energy Storage in Salt Hydrates." Solar Energy Materials 2, no. 4
 610 (1980): 381–393.
- [6] Donkers, P. A. Linnow, J., K., Pel, L., Steiger, M. and Adan O. C. G. "Na 2 SO 4· 10H 2 O
 Dehydration in View of Thermal Storage." Chemical Engineering Science 134 (2015):
 360–366.
- 614 [7] Marliacy, P., Solimando, R., Bouroukba, M., and Schuffenecker, L. "Thermodynamics of
 615 Crystallization of Sodium Sulfate Decahydrate in H 2 O–NaCl–Na 2 SO 4: Application
 616 to Na 2 SO 4· 10H 2 O-Based Latent Heat Storage Materials." Thermochimica Acta
 617 344, no. 1 (2000): 85–94.
- [8] Steiger, M., Kiekbusch, J. and Nicolai, A. "An Improved Model Incorporating Pitzer's
 Equations for Calculation of Thermodynamic Properties of Pore Solutions Implemented
 into an Efficient Program Code." Construction and Building Materials 22, no. 8 (2008):
 1841–1850.
- 622 [9] Zehnder, K. and Arnold, A., 1989. "Crystal growth in salt efflorescence". Journal of crystal

- 623 growth, 97(2), pp.513-521.
- [10] Charola, A.E. and Lewin, S.Z., 1979. "Efflorescences on building stones-SEM in the
 characterization and elucidation of the mechanisms of formation". Scanning electron
 microscopy, 1, pp.378-386.
- [11] Rodriguez-Navarro, C., Doehne, E., and Sebastian, E. "How Does Sodium Sulfate
 Crystallize? Implications for the Decay and Testing of Building Materials." Cement and
 Concrete Research 30, no. 10 (2000): 1527–1534.
- [12] Vázquez, P., Luque, A., Alonso, F.J. and Grossi, C.M. "Surface Changes on Crystalline
 Stones due to Salt Crystallisation." Environmental Earth Sciences 69, no. 4 (2013):
 1237–1248.
- [13] Rodriguez-Navarro, C., Doehne E. "Salt Weathering: Influence of Evaporation Rate,
 Supersaturation and Crystallization Pattern." Earth Surf. Process. Landforms 24 (1999):
 191–209.
- 636 [14] Tsui, N., Flatt, R.J. and Scherer, G.W., 2003. Crystallization damage by sodium
 637 sulfate. *Journal of cultural heritage*, *4*(2), pp.109-115.
- [15] Benavente D, García-del-Cura MA, García-Guinea J, Sánchez-Moral S, Ordóñez S
 (2004b) The role of pore structure in salt crystallization in unsaturated porous stone.
 Journal of Crystal Growth 260:532-544
- [16] Grossi, C. M., Esbert, R. M. Suarez del Rio, L.M., Montoto, M. and Laurenzi-Tabasso, M.
 "Acoustic Emission Monitoring to Study Sodium Sulfate Crystallization in Monumental
 Porous Carbonate Stones." Studies in Conservation 42, no. 2 (1997): 115–125.
- [17] Hamilton, A., Hall, C. and Pel, L. "Sodium Sulfate Heptahydrate: Direct Observation of
 Crystallization in a Porous Material." Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics 41, no. 21
 (2008): 212002.
- 647 [18] Derluyn, H., Saidov, T.A., Espinosa-Marzal, R. M. Pel, L., and Scherer G.W. "Sodium
 648 Sulfate Heptahydrate I: The Growth of Single Crystals." Journal of Crystal Growth 329,

649 no. 1 (2011): 44–51.

- [19] Saidov, T. A., Espinosa-Marzal, R.M. Pel, L. and George W. S. "Nucleation of Sodium
 Sulfate Heptahydrate on Mineral Substrates Studied by Nuclear Magnetic Resonance."
 Journal of Crystal Growth 338, no. 1 (2012): 166–169.
- [20] Denecker, M. F. C., Hebert, R. L., Wassermann, J., Dosseh, G., Menendez, B. and
 Bourgès, A. "Experimental Study of the Crystallization of Sodium Sulfate Hydrates
 through Temperature Monitoring." Environmental Earth Sciences 72, no. 12 (2014):
 5089–5099.
- [21] Steiger, M., and Asmussen, S. "Crystallization of Sodium Sulfate Phases in Porous
 Materials: The Phase Diagram Na 2 SO 4–H 2 O and the Generation of Stress."
 Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta 72, no. 17 (2008): 4291–4306.
- [22] Genkinger, S. and Putnis, A., 2007. Crystallisation of sodium sulfate: supersaturation and
 metastable phases. Environmental geology, 52(2), pp.329-337.
- [23] Espinosa, R. M., Franke, L., and Deckelmann, G. "Phase Changes of Salts in Porous
 Materials: Crystallization, Hydration and Deliquescence." Construction and Building
 Materials 22, no. 8 (2008): 1758–1773.
- 665 [24] Desarnaud, J., and Shahidzadeh-Bonn, N. "Salt Crystal Purification by
 666 Deliquescence/crystallization Cycling." EPL (Europhysics Letters) 95, no. 4 (2011):
 667 48002.
- 668 [25] Shahidzadeh-Bonn, N., Rafai, S., Bonn, D., and Wegdam, G. "Salt Crystallization during
 669 Evaporation: Impact of Interfacial Properties." Langmuir 24, no. 16 (2008): 8599–8605.

[26] López-Arce, P., and Doehne, E. "Kinetics of Sodium Sulfate Efflorecence as Observed by Humidity Cycling with ESEM." In Proceed. Int. Conf. on Heritage, Weathering and

672 Conservation, 285–291, 2006.

[27] Linnow K., Zeunert, A.and Steiger, M. "Investigation of sodium sulfate phase transitions
in a porous material using humidity- and temperature-controlled x-ray diffraction".

675 Anal. Chem. 78, (2006) 4683-4689.

- [28] Hamilton, A., and Menzies, R.I. "Raman Spectra of Mirabilite, Na2SO4· 10H2O and the
 Rediscovered Metastable Heptahydrate, Na2SO4· 7H2O." Journal of Raman
 Spectroscopy 41, no. 9 (2010): 1014–1020.
- [29] Linnow, K., Steiger, M., Lemster, C., De Clercq, H.,and Jovanović, M. "In Situ Raman
 Observation of the Crystallization in NaNO3–Na2SO4–H2O Solution Droplets."
 Environmental Earth Sciences 69, no. 5 (2013): 1609–1620.
- [30] Derluyn, H., Dewanckele, J., Boone, M.N., Cnudde, V., Derome, D. and Carmeliet, J.,
 2014. Crystallization of hydrated and anhydrous salts in porous limestone resolved by
 synchrotron X-ray microtomography. Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics
 Research Section B: Beam Interactions with Materials and Atoms, 324, pp.102-112.
- [] Egan, T., Rodriguez-Pascual, M. and Lewis, A. "In Situ Growth Measurements of Sodium
 Sulfate during Cooling Crystallization." Chemical Engineering & Technology 37, no. 8
 (2014): 1283–1290.
- [32] Benavente, D., del Cura, M.G., Fort, R. and Ordóñez, S., 1999. Thermodynamic modelling
 of changes induced by salt pressure crystallisation in porous media of stone. Journal of
 Crystal growth, 204(1), pp.168-178.
- [33] Benavente, D., Brimblecombe, P. and Grossi C.M. (2015), Thermodynamic calculations
 for the salt crystallisation damage in porous built heritage using PHREEQC.
 Environmental Earth Sciences 74 (3), 2297-2313
- [34] Chauvet, F., Cazin, S., Duru, P. and Prat, M., 2010. Use of infrared thermography for the
 study of evaporation in a square capillary tube. International Journal of Heat and Mass
 Transfer, 53(9), pp.1808-1818.
- [35] Bagavathiappan, S., Lahiri, B. B., Saravanan, T. John Philip, and Jayakumar, T. "Infrared

- Thermography for Condition Monitoring–a Review." Infrared Physics & Technology 60(2013): 35–55.
- [36] Grinzato, E., Vavilov, V. and Kauppinen. T. "Quantitative Infrared Thermography in
 Buildings." Energy and Buildings 29, no. 1 (1998): 1–9.
- [37] Grinzato, E., Bison, P. G. and Marinetti S. "Monitoring of Ancient Buildings by the Thermal
 Method." Journal of Cultural Heritage 3, no. 1 (2002): 21–29.
- 705 [38] Avdelidis, N.P. and Moropoulou, A., 2003. "Emissivity considerations in building
 706 thermography". Energy and Buildings, 35(7), pp.663-667.
- 707 [39] Avdelidis, N.P. and Moropoulou, A., 2004. "Applications of infrared thermography for the
 708 investigation of historic structures". Journal of Cultural Heritage, 5(1), pp.119-127.
- [40] Bodnar, J.L., Mouhoubi, K., Di Pallo, L., Detalle, V., Vallet, J.M. and Duvaut, T., 2013.
- "Contribution to the improvement of heritage mural painting non-destructive testing by
 stimulated infrared thermography". The European Physical Journal Applied
 Physics, 64(1), p.11002.
- [41] Thomachot-Schneider, C., Vazquez, P., Lelarge, N., Bouvy, C., Gommeaux, M., Mouhoubi,
 K. and Bodnar, J.L., 2014. "Thermal behaviour of building stones submitted to salt
 solutions". In *SWBSS 3rd International Conference on Salt Weathering of Buildings and Stone Sculptures, Brussels.*
- 717 [42] Thomachot-Schneider, C., Gommeaux, M., Lelarge, N., Conreux, A., Mouhoubi, K.,
 718 Bodnar, J.L. and Vázquez, P., 2016. "Relationship between Na2SO4 concentration and
 719 thermal response of reconstituted stone in the laboratory and on site". Environmental
 720 Earth Sciences, 75(9), pp.1-12.
- [43] Mouhoubi, K. Bodnar, J-L., Vallet, J.M., Detalle, V., Vázquez, P., Thomachot-Schneider
 C. 2016. "Detection of NaCl located in mural painting by stimulated infrared
 thermography", QIRT 2016, Gdansk (Pologne)
- [44] Parsa, M., Harmand, S., Sefiane, K., Bigerelle, M., and Deltombe R. "Effect of Substrate

- 725 Temperature on Pattern Formation of Nanoparticles from Volatile Drops." Langmuir 31,
 726 no. 11 (2015): 3354–3367.
- [45] Vázquez, P., Thomachot-Schneider, C., Mouhoubi, K., Fronteau, G., Gommeaux, M.,
 Benavente, D., Barbin, V., and Bodnar, J.L. "Infrared Thermography Monitoring of the
 NaCl Crystallisation Process." Infrared Physics & Technology 71 (2015): 198–207.
- [46] Vázquez, P., Thomachot-Schneider, C., Mouhoubi, K., Gommeaux, M., Fronteau, G.,
 Barbin, V. and Bodnar, J.L., 2014, October. "Study of NaCl crystallization using infrared
 thermography". In *SWBSS 3rd International Conference on Salt Weathering of*
- 733 Buildings and Stone Sculptures, Brussels.
- 734 [47] FLIR user manual. Series SC 655.
- [48] Gaussorgues, G. "La thermographie infrarouge: principes-techniques-applications,
 Quatrième édition revue et argumentée." (1999): 2-7430.
- [49] Saidov, T. A., Shahidzadeh, N., and Pel, L. "Crystallization of Sodium Sulfate on
 Hydrophilic/hydrophobic Surfaces during Drying: An NMR Study." EPL (Europhysics
 Letters) 102, no. 2 (2013): 28003.
- [50] Vavouraki, A. I., and Koutsoukos P. G. "Kinetics of Crystal Growth of Mirabilite in Aqueous
 Supersaturated Solutions." Journal of Crystal Growth 338, no. 1 (2012): 189–194.
- 742 [51] Roy, B., Dutta Choudhuri, M., Dutta, T.,and Tarafdar S., "Multi-Scale Patterns Formed by
 743 Sodium Sulfate in a Drying Droplet of Gelatin." Applied Surface Science 357 (2015):
 744 1000–1006.
- 745 [52] Mullin, J. W. Crystallization. Butterworth-Heinemann. (2001).
- [53] Saidov, T. A., Pel, L. and van der Heijden G. H. A. "Crystallization of Sodium Sulfate in
 Porous Media by Drying at a Constant Temperature." International Journal of Heat and
 Mass Transfer 83 (2015): 621–628.
- [54] Hird, R., and M. D. Bolton. "Measurement of Relative Humidity to Monitor Salt Migration in
 Unsaturated Porous Media." Transport in Porous Media 112, no. 3 (2016): 749–763.

751	[55] Füredi-Milhofer, H., Babić-Ivančić V., Brečević L., Filipović-Vinceković, N., Kralj, D.,
752	Komunjer, L., Marković, M. and Drago Škrtić. "Factors Influencing Nucleation from
753	Solutions Supersaturated to Different Crystal Hydrates." Colloids and Surfaces 48
754	(1990): 219–230.
755	

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest with this work.