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- 2 Multidisciplinary approach to evaluate the
- 3 geochemical degradation of building stone related to
- 4 pollution sources in the Historical Centre of Naples
- 5 (Italy)
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Abstract: Since ancient time the ability in construction is what identified and expressed the evolution of techniques, styles and raw materials used for historic buildings, highlighting great skills in stones processing. The use of geological materials in architecture is, therefore, a practice that has its roots as a bridge from past to today.

28 The present work is focused on the minero-petrographic and geochemical characterization of black 29 crusts (BCs) samples taken from the historical centre of Naples, after selecting two pilot 30 monumental areas. The latter have been chosen based on their historical importance, type of 31 material, state of preservation and position in the urban context (i.e. high vehicular traffic area, 32 limited traffic area, industrial area etc.). The construction building materials used and their 33 interaction with environmental pollutions were studied comparing the results obtained by means 34 of different analytical techniques such as polarized light Optical Microscopy (OM), scanning 35 electron microscopy with energy dispersion system (SEM-EDS), X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD) 36 and laser ablation coupled with inductively plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS).

- 37 Keywords: black crusts; Cultural Heritage; marble, Naples pollution; heavy metals
- 38

39 1. Introduction

40 Air pollution strongly affects integrity of stone materials, since it promotes their degradation 41 over time, especially in an urban context [1-9]. The formation of black crusts, which occurs mainly on 42 carbonate rocks, represents one of the most dangerous degradation form caused by air pollution

43 [10-18]. Generally their formations is due to calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) sulphation as a consequence

of pH value decrease caused by SO₂ in the polluted atmosphere [19]. This dissolution let precipitate
 gypsum (CaSO₄ H₂O) that despite its water solubility remains as a crust that become black (due to
 soot particles) on surfaces protected from intense wash-out [20-23].

The formation of gypsum on the stone surface is a very rapid process and can be also accelerated by the deposition of particulate matter that being rich in metals and metal oxides, can act as a catalyst in the sulphation reaction.

50 Moreover, the difference in microstructure and porosity of the black crust related to the 51 substrate leads to detachment of black crust itself, and as consequence weaks the stone, from the 52 monuments' surface. [24-26]. Also, carbonaceous particles emitted by combustion processes (dark 53 grey-black colour) are the main factors responsible for the blackening of buildings [27].

Recently, the study of black crusts has interestingly developed [12,26,28-32] Besides, research related to atmospheric deposit composition permits to understand the major causes of pollution, alongside an identification of the possible sources of pollutant emission in the area around a monument [33-34].

The characterization of black crusts on built heritage has a dual purpose. On one hand, there is a chance to understand the degree of decay of stone material in terms of microstructural features and chemical and mineralogical compositions. This can be useful for choosing a proper restoration procedure. On the other hand, these analyses can provide information about air pollution of the nearby environment, since the black crusts themselves can act as passive samplers of pollutants, with particular reference to metals [22-23,25-32].

64 In this paper, the analysis of black crusts coming from two monumental and historical sites 65 located in the city of Naples is reported. As far as it is known, it is the first time that black crusts 66 coming from this city have been analyzed. The city of Naples is located in southern Italy, Campania 67 region, and is the third largest city of Italy following Rome and Milan, with high density population 68 with the related consequences. High pollution rates due to intense and slowed motor vehicle traffic, 69 characterize the urban downtown. According to the City Council, around 2 348 208 vehicles pass 70 through the urban area every day (data ISTAT 2020). Moreover, there is a large port close to the 71 centre, and several industrial areas roughly 10 km from the city centre. The historical city is the 72 largest in Europe and has been designated as a UNESCO World Heritage Site [35].

73 Within the built Heritage of the urban centre, the sites selected for investigations are the 74 complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* and some sculptures of the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* 75 forming part of the homonym religious complex [36].

The choice of the two sites with different exposure in the Naples urban context was made to detect variability in the degradation forms, mainly due to the air pollution phenomena. On the fact, the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* is a clear of historical monument example located in a high vehicular traffic area; on the contrary, the sculptures of the cloister of *San Marcellino and Festo*, although located outdoor, they are currently located in a restricted traffic area [36].

81 The church of San Domenico Maggiore is one of the most important religious complexes of 82 Naples (Fig. 1a; 1b). It was built between the XIII and the XIV century by Charles II of Anjou, 83 becoming the motherhouse of the Dominican friars of the Kingdom of Naples and church of the 84 Aragonese nobility [37]. The church was erected according to the classic canons of the Gothic style, 85 which was however compromised due to the numerous interventions that followed over the 86 centuries, which altered its structure and the original Gothic forms, with three naves, side chapels, a 87 large transept and a polygonal apse. The complex was restored several times; the last one started in 88 2000 and concluded in 2011 [37] The building is made mainly of Neapolitan yellow tuff, with some 89 elements, such as the portal made of marble, the buttresses in Piperno, and part of the central space of 90 the apse jutting out covered in red bricks [38].

91 The cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* is part of a monastic complex dating back to the early 92 Middle Ages (Fig. 1c; 1d) which along the centuries has undergone several renovations and 93 restoration interventions (reference). An important restoration work was designed and carried out, 94 in 1779, by Luigi Vanvitelli [36,39], especially affecting the consolidation of the dome and the 95 majolica restoration, the extension of the southern portico of the cloister and the construction of an 96 oratory. The cloister has a rectangular plan with arches supported by columns made of *Piperno*, with97 a central monumental garden enriched with fountains and marble sculptures [36].

98 The present work focuses on the minero-petrographic and geochemical characterization of 99 several black crust samples collected from the above-mentioned sites and investigated using optical 100 and electron microscopy, X-ray powder diffraction and laser ablation inductively coupled 101 plasma-mass spectrometry.

102 The above reported integrated analytical approach allowed to obtain the main features of 1) 103 black crusts and 2) underlying stone substrate, in terms of micromorphology, mineralogical 104 composition and major and trace elements. Thanks to this wide-range characterization, valuable 105 information on the formation processes of black crusts, as well as on interaction between stone 106 substrate and the environment were studied. Specifically, valuable environmental data were 107 obtained thanks to the identification of heavy metals, which, as known, may contribute to the 108 recognition of the main pollution sources, responsible for the building materials deterioration over 109 time.



111

Figure 1. Complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* (40°50′55″N; 14°15′16″E) and cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*(Naples, Italy) (40°50′49″N; 14°15′28″E): a,c) Aerial view of the two monumental complexes by Google Earth;
b) view of the *San Domenico Maggiore* church with the façade facing the homonymous square; d) General view

115 of the *Cloister* and *San Marcellino e Festo* church with evidence of tiled dome

116 2. Sampling

117 Eleven marble fragments were collected from different points at the two pilot sites, respectively 118 four from the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* and seven from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*

- (Fig. 2). Suitable stainless steel tools, such as lancets and small chisels, were used for sampling representative but non invasive portions of material affected by the presence of black crusts.
- As concern the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* (Fig. 2a; 2b; 2c), samples were retrieved from
 the façade of the church, specifically from marble portal located on the south-east side, alongside the
 apse of the church, overlooking *San Domenico* square.

From a first macroscopic observation, black crusts (SD series) looked rather homogeneous and compact, with a smooth surface and thin thickness. They also showed good adhesion to the underlying stone substrate, which was rather degraded, with evidence of swellings, poor compactness and sometimes powdery appearance.

Concerning the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (Fig. 2d; 2e; 2f), samples were taken from the large and square plan monumental cloister, enriched with a garden adorned with marble fountains, statues, and various artefacts. The seven samples were taken from 3 different sculptures, respectively one sample from a marble well (SM-P series) (Fig. 2f), three from a marble structure with arches and pillars (SM-A series) (Fig. 2e), and three from a female marble bust (SM-S series) (Fig. 2d). Also in this case all black crusts showed a homogeneous and compact morphology, a very thin thickness and a good adhesion to the underlying stone substrate. As for the stone substrates,

- 135 they looked fairly cohesive and slightly altered.
- 136
 - 6 Samples with location description and heights is reported in Table 1
- 137
- **Table 1** List of the examined samples with a brief description.

Complex of San Domenico Maggiore (SD series)							
Sample ID	Sampling location	Sampling heights					
SD1	Facade of the San Domenico church, main portal. Sampling on one of the left pillar (looking towards the portal), in a slightly curved area and on a vertical and external surface.	About 2.00 m from the planking level					
SD2	Facade of the San Domenico church, main portal. Sampling on one of the right pillar (looking towards the portal), on a vertical and internal surface.	About 2.30 m from the planking level					
SD3	Facade of the San Domenico church, main portal. Sampling on one of the right pillar (looking towards the portal), on an external corner.	About 1.60 m from the planking level					
SD4	Facade of the San Domenico church, main portal. Sampling on one of the right pillar base (looking towards the portal), on a horizontal surface.	About 0.40 m from the planking level					
	Cloister of San Marcellino e Festo (SM-P, SM-A, SM-S series)						
Sample ID	Sampling location	Sampling heights					
SM-P1	Monumental cloister, well. Sampling on a vertical surface, under the top edge.	About 1.00 m from the planking level					
SM-A1	Monumental cloister, structure with arches and pillars. Sampling on a vertical surface, right column (looking towards the structure).	About 1.20 m from the planking level					
SM-A2	Monumental cloister, structure with arches and pillars. Sampling on a convex surface, right side (looking towards the artefact), on a decorative element.	About 1.60 m from the planking level					
SM-A3	Monumental cloister, structure with arches and pillars. Sampling on a vertical surface, on the base of the right column.	About 0.20 m from the planking level					
SM-S1	Monumental cloister, female bust sculpture. Sampling on the veil, top of the head, on the back-side.	About 1.50 m from the planking level					
SM-S2	Monumental cloister, female bust sculpture. Sampling on the veil, on the head, on the front-side.	About 1.50 m from the planking level					
SM-S3	Monumental cloister, female bust sculpture. Sampling on a vertical portion of the bust, back-side.	About 1.50 m from the planking level					



140

141 Figure 2. Sampling points of fragments collected at the: San Domenico Maggiore (SD series); Marble bust of

142 the San Marcellino e Festo Cloister (SM-S series) Arch sculpture of the San Marcellino e Festo Cloister (SM-A

143 series); Water well of San Marcellino e Festo Cloister (SM-P series).

5cm

144 3. Analytical methods

145 For a complete characterization of stone materials and degradation products (i.e. black crusts), 146 several and complementary techniques were employed to investigate textural, morphological and 147 compositional features as well as the interaction with rock substrate. Optical Microscopy (OM) 148 observations were carried out on polished and stratigraphic thin sections by a Zeiss Axiolab 149 microscope. OM allowed us to: a) determine the textural features; b) detect weathering grade on 150 superficial layers by evaluating the morphology and growth of black crusts.

151 Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) 152 analyses were performed on polished cross-sections previously covered by carbon coating, to obtain 153 information about micromorphology and chemical composition (in term of major elements) of the 154 black crusts. Analyses were performed with a SEM 360 Cambridge Instruments Stereoscan, 155 equipped with an EDAX microanalyser in energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS), with an ultrathin 156 (UHT) window to ensure to detect light elements. The operating conditions were set at 20-kV 157 accelerating voltages, 0.2-mA beam current, 100-s acquisition time, and 30-35 % dead time.

158 Chemical analyses were carried out according to standard mode and normalized in weight (%). 159 The detection limits for the EDS system is approximately 0.1% weight. The accuracy of the analysis is 160 periodically tested on standard USGS samples. Chemical analyses of the crust surfaces were 161 performed in raster mode.

162 X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD), performed to investigate crusts mineralogical composition, 163 were recorded on a D8 Advance Bruker X-ray diffractometer using X-ray Cu K α radiation. 164 Operative conditions were 40 kV voltage, 30 mA current, 0.02° 20 step size, and 3.0 sec step time 165 with a 2θ range of $10-80^{\circ}$.

166 Analyses of trace elements were performed by using laser ablation-inductively coupled 167 plasma-mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS). This method allows detection and quantification of several 168 elements with spot resolutions of approximately about 40-50 µm, leading to determination of 169 compositional variations on a micrometric scale [40-42]. Measurements were performed by using an 170 Elan DRCe instrument (Perkin Elmer/SCIEX), connected to a New Wave UP213 solid-state Nd-YAG 171 laser probe (213 nm). The ablation was performed with spots of 40–50 μ m with a constant laser

172 repetition rate of 10 Hz and fluence of ~20 J/cm². Calibration was performed using the NIST 612-50 173 ppm glass reference material as the external standard [43]. Internal standardization to correct 174 instrumental instability and drift was achieved using CaO concentrations from SEM-EDS analyses 175 [44]. The accuracy was evaluated on BCR 2G glass reference material and on an in-house 176 pressed-powder cylinder of the standard Argillaceous Limestone SRM1d of NIST [45]. The resulting 177 element concentrations were compared with reference values from the literature [46]. The accuracy, 178 as the relative difference from reference values, was always better than 12 %, and most elements 179 plotted in the range of ± 8 %. Analyses were performed on cross-sections 100 μ m thick. Each sample 180 was analyzed by several spot analyses depending on the thickness of the black crust, to assess the 181 compositional variability within the crust and the differences between the degraded portion and the 182 underlying unaltered substrate.

183

184 4. Results and discussion

185 4.1. Optical microscopy (OM) and mineralogical analysis (XRD) of the stone materials and the black crusts

OM allowed us the characterization, by microscopic point of view, of the collected samples:
 Complex of San Domenico Maggiore (SD series) and the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (SM-P,
 SM-A, SM-S series). Observations, performed on most representative samples (i.e. SD2, SD3, SM-P1,
 SM-A1 and SM-S1) were reported in Table 2 and samples were classified according to their physical
 features along with mineralogical substrate composition.

191 Regarding the stone substrate, all samples can be classified as marbles with a fine grain size 192 (Maximum Grain Size < 1 mm) (Fig. 3); fabric can be defined as "mosaic" type, with tiny to very tiny 193 crystal size, often forming triple junctions at 120° [47]. The texture is homeoblastic (Ho) in SD2, SD3 194 (i.e. samples from the complex of San Domenico Maggiore – the portal) and SM-P1 (i.e. sample from 195 the cloister of San Marcellino e Festo – the well) samples, while it is heteroblastic (He) in SM-A1 and 196 SM-S1 (i.e. respectively samples from the cloister of San Marcellino e Festo – the structure with arches 197 and pillars and the female bust). The grain size ranges from 0.1 mm to 0.45 mm in SD2 and SD3, 198 from 0.1 mm to 70 mm in SM-S1, from 0.1 mm to 0.47 mm in SM-A1 and from 0.1 mm to 0.55 mm in 199 SM-P1. All samples, other than crusts, show also remarkable micro-cracks just at the interface 200 substrate-crusts this confirming the evident weathering acting on these manufacts that will for sure 201 lead to a complete detachment of the weathered part.

202 As for the black crusts, samples SD2 and SD3 (i.e. samples from the complex of San Domenico 203 Maggiore – the portal) show three different layers (Fig. 3 samples SD2, SD3). Starting from the more 204 external: a) a first layer of black crust, which has a homogeneous morphology, thickness ranging 205 from around 350 and 10 µm, and a colour (PPL, plane polarized light) that varies from light brown to 206 dark brown. Embedded, iron oxides and hydroxides were observed, together with black combustion 207 particles (i.e. particles formed during combustion processes, containing sulphur compound and 208 catalysts; once wetted, such particles will nucleate gypsum crystals and will remain embedded in a 209 gypsum crust) of spherical, sub-spherical and prismatic shape (ranging in size from 80 to 10μ m); b) 210 a layer of scialbo which shows a relatively homogeneous morphology with a thickness ranging 211 from a maximum of about 3 mm to a minimum of about 800 µm, dark brown in colour and with a 212 secondary porosity of about 20%. Besides, individual and small calcite crystals along with oxides 213 have been identified inside the same layer; c) another layer of crust (Fig. 3) well adherent to the stone 214 substrate and showing a compact morphology, and thin thickness that varies from about 400 to 60 215 µm and a light grey colour. The latter layer displays microcrystalline gypsum crystals, iron oxides 216 and hydroxides, along with spherical, sub-spherical and prismatic black combustion particles 217 (ranging in size from 80 to $10 \mu m$) inside.

218Regarding the samples collected from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*, the SM-S1 and219SM-A1 crusts have irregular morphology and jagged on the outer edge, mammelonar in some220portions, with thickness ranging from 520 to 75 μm. The colour varies from dark grey to brown, due221to the presence of iron oxides and hydroxides respectively. Also, spherical, sub-spherical and

- prismatic combustion particles (ranging in size from 85 to 10 µm) distributed evenly along the entire
 investigated surface are visible (Fig. 3 sample SM-S1).
- Instead, SM-P1 crust (Fig. 3) sample shows a heterogeneous morphology, mostly compact, with a thickness ranging from 800 and 50 µm. Inside, iron oxides, hydroxides and well-distributed combustion particles (sizes between 125 and 25 µm) were recognized, providing an overall dark grey colour.
- 228



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Figure 3. Microphotograph (OM, PPL) showing textural features of some selected marble fragments, with evidence of the black crust layer on the surface. SD2, SD3 are samples from the complex of *San Domenico*

232 *Maggiore* while SM-A1, SM-P1 and SM-S1 were taken from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*.

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As regards mineralogical composition, results were reported also in Table 2. XRPD analyses were performed separately on substrate and on crusts evidencing that calcite is the main mineralogical phase for substrate (marble) and gypsum, along with whewellite and calcite traces, were present in all samples. Some differences were highlighted for samples SD3 and SM-A1 (presence of quartz and weddellite) along with SM-SA and SM-P1 (presence of weddellite).

According to the literature [48], the presence of calcium oxalates in the mineralogical forms of
 whewellite and weddellite, may depend on the restoration work carried out on the artefacts in past
 times.

Table 2 Main textural features of the examined samples (OM) along with the main mineralogical phase and
accessory minerals (XRPD) occurring in the analysed samples and considering both unaltered substrate and
black crusts.
Notes: Ca. calcite; Qtz. quartz; Gy. Gypsum; Whw. Whewellite; Wed. Weddellite; ++++. very abundant; +++.

- abundant; ++. moderate; +. poor; -. not present. Minerals abbreviations were made according to [49].
- 248

Complex of San Domenico Maggiore (SD series)													
Sample ID	Grain Size μm	Texture	Fabric	Mineralogical phases in the substrate	Min Ca	era 	logica Gy	al p 	hases Qtz	in ti V	he bla Vhw	ack o W	crust Ved
SD2	450-100	Ho	Mosaic	Ca	+++		++	1	-		+	Ι	-
SD3	450-100	Ho	Mosaic	Ca	+++		++		+		++		-

Cloister of San Marcellino e Festo (SM-P, SM-A, SM-S series)											
Sample ID	Grain Size µm	Texture	Fabric	Mineralogical phases in the substrate	Mineralogical phases in the black crust Ca Gy Qtz Whw Wed						
SM-P1	550-100	Но	Mosaic	Ca	+++++ + +++ + ++						
SM-S1	690-100	He	Mosaic	Ca	+++++ + +++ + ++						
SM-A1	470-100	He	Mosaic	Ca	++++ ++ ++ ++ ++ ++						

249 4.2. Micromorphological and elemental analysis of the black crusts by SEM-EDS

Scanning Electron Microscopy observations show many similarities between SD samples. Both show a stone substrate (US unaltered) overlayed by well adherent and homogeneous crusts with different thickness (Fig 4a; 4b). SD2 crust has a size that varies from 175 to 10 μ m (Fig. 4a), while SD3 ranging from 150 to 5 μ m (Fig. 4b).

Black crusts consist of gypsum, having acicular and lamellar crystal habit, where combustion particles of various sizes and morphology were identified (Fig 4c; 4d). Particles have a diameter ranging from 80 to 3 µm and they are spherical, sub-spherical, and irregular in shape and display smooth, porous or rough surface (Fig 4c). These are homogeneously distributed over the whole examined surface.

Micromorphological investigations on SM-S1 (Fig. 4e) showed a crust with variable thickness (from 520 to 75 µm), irregular and heterogeneous morphology. Inside, acicular-lamellar gypsum crystals and numerous combustion particles were recognized, the latter characterized by a morphology ranging from sub-spherical microporous to smooth spherical. Crust appears well adherent to the underlying substrate that is degraded and characterized by many micro-fractures.

SM-A1 (Fig. 4f) sample showed a crust well adherent to the substrate, with higher than others
 thickness (up to 350 μm), jagged outer edge and heterogeneous morphology. Acicular and lamellar
 gypsum crystals and few combustion particles were also recognized. The latter, ranging in size from
 70 to 5 μm, have both partly sub-spherical morphology and porous surface and partly irregular
 morphology and rough surface.

Finally, SM-P1 sample (Fig. 4g; 4h) displays a poorly degraded stone substrate with a well adherent crust just in some points of the analyzed surface. The crust shows a heterogeneous and irregular morphology, with a thickness ranging from 790 to 50 μ m (Fig. g), where lamellar gypsum and calcite crystals have been identified, probably coming from the stone substrate. Also, combustion particles having different shapes (spherical, sub-spherical and irregular), sizes (thickness between 2.5 and 125 μ m) and surface morphologies (smooth, porous and wrinkled),

distributed differently along the entire analyzed surface have been recognized (Fig. 4h).



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Figure 4. SEM microphotographs of some examined samples (i.e. SD2, SD3, SM-S1, SM-A1 and SM-P1) with
details of combustion particles and gypsum crystals (Fig. 4c, 4d and 4h). The holes caused by LA-ICP-MS spot
analyses (carried out on black crusts=BC and unaltered substrates=US) are also visible (Fig. 4a, 4b, 4e, 4f and
4g). The red dotted line demarcates the layer of black crust from the substrate.

281

To evaluate the chemical composition in terms of major elements, as well as their distribution within the sample, elemental analyses were carried out by EDS, on the surface of the black crust (BC).

- Black crusts are mainly composed by SO₃ and CaO, clearly attributable to the gypsum. Also, SiO₂, Al₂O₃ and Fe₂O₃, along with smaller amounts of K₂O, P₂O₅, Na₂O, MgO and TiO₂, whose presence is ascribable to the abovementioned particles embedded into the crust (Table 3).
- Since the SD2 and SD3 samples show crusts with similar composition, as well as SM-S1, SM-P1 and SM-A, in Table 3 is reported only the crust composition of the SD2 and SM-P1 samples, as representatives.
- 291

Table 3 Average concentrations of major elements (wt%) in the black crust of sample SD2 as representative of
 the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* and SM-P1 as representative of the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*.
 Measurements were obtained by SEM-EDS analysis performed in raster mode.

295

Complex of San Domenico Maggiore	Cloister of San Marcellino e Festo				
Sample SD2 Average analysis No. 8	Sample SM-P1 Average analysis No. 8				
<0.1	1.99				
<0.1	1.19				
6.70	8.82				
7.82	13.60				
0.99	<0.1				
40.90	38.60				
3.49	2.50				
35.50	28.40				
<0.1	0.57				
5.59	4.36				
	Complex of San Domenico Maggiore Sample SD2 Average analysis No. 8 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 6.70 7.82 0.99 40.90 3.49 35.50 <0.1 <0.59				

- 296
- 297 298

To check distribution of SO₃ and CaO, detected in the analyzed window for SD2 and SM-P1, false colour maps were also obtained (Fig. 5a; 5b; 5c) as well as their combination (Fig. 5d).

Figure 5d further confirm that BC surface analyzed is mainly composed of gypsum, given by sulfur and calcium, with more marked yellow colouring, given by the combination of red and green colours (i.e. overlapping of red colours indicating 100% of S and green indicating 100% of Ca, according to their greater or lesser amount). Otherwise, the US surface shows a high concentration of calcium oxide, given by the greener colouring.

304



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Figure 5. False-colour maps by SEM-EDS related to SD2 sample as representative. 5a. EDS analyzed window of
the SD2 sample, consisting of the crust (BC) and stone substrate (US); 5b. distribution of S (red); 5c. distribution
of Ca (green); 5d. overlapping and distribution map of S and Ca

4.3. Trace elements analysis by LA-ICP-MS

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Chemical characterization of samples in terms of trace elements was performed usingLA-ICP-MS technique on cross-sections with a polished surface.

The method allowed us to determine the trace elements both in the black crusts and the unaltered substrate (i.e. marbles) and a statistically valid number of analyses was always choose in function of sample thickness. Only for the SM-P1 sample, analyses were carried out only on the crust, due to the lack of representativeness of the substrate.

The average concentration (in ppm) of the most representative chemical elements, both in the unaltered substrate and in the black crusts, is reported in Table 4.

Major heavy metals concentrations detected in black crusts are related to chemical elementssuch as Ba, Cu, Pb, Ti and Zn; followed by other elements in smaller amounts.

Specifically, the BCs (SD2 and SD3) taken from the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* show higher average maximum values in Pb (3525 ppm), Zn (1580 ppm) and Cu (224 ppm) than the substrate. In the same samples of BCs, similar and sometimes lower values of Ba, As and V, with respect to the unaltered substrate, were detected (Table 4).

As for the BCs, sampled from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*, respectively SM-S1, SM-A1 and SM-P1, display lower concentrations in heavy metals compared to the previous ones (i.e. SD2 and SD3). In details, BCs of SM-S1, SM-A1 and SM-P1 show higher average maximum values in Ba (288 ppm), Ti (417 ppm), Zn (321 ppm) and Cu (93.5 ppm) than the unaltered substrate (Table 4).

The chemical concentration determined on the samples from the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore* show different concentrations according to sampling heights points. In particular, the SD2 sample taken at 2.30 m high, has a greater concentrations than SD3 sampled at 1.60 m high (Fig. 2), because it is located in an area protected from the wash-out (i.e. on a vertical and internal surface), thus favoring a greater accumulation of pollutants over time.

On the contrary, the black crusts belonging to the three historical artefacts from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (SM-S1, SM-A1 and SM-P1) exhibit different concentrations, attributable both to different sampling heights and to several exposure conditions and, consequently, to the different

337 pollutants deposit.





Table 4. The average concentration (in ppm) of the most representative chemical elements, both in the unaltered substrate (US) and in the black crusts (BC)

	The Complex of San Domenico Maggiore						The Convent of San Marcellino e Festo											
	BC-S	D2	BC-S	D3	US-S	D	BC-SN	1 S1	US-SM	S1	BC-SN	C-SMA1 US-SMA1		BC-SMP1		US-SMP1		
Element	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev	Amount (ppm)	Std Dev
As	48.46	2.10	36.52	2.17	51.63	12.23	5.59	0.60	1.72	0.51	7.89	1.36	2.33	-	9.09	1.46	2.70	0.73
Ba	938	91.18	1106	73.74	1104	232	139	32.44	6.93	1.68	288	26.09	9.15	0.30	190	67.82	16.27	7.71
Cd	1.19	0.07	0.86	0.07	0.54	0.10	0.59	0.07	0.77	0.16	0.58	0.17	0.44	-	1.44	0.15	0.63	0.22
Cr	22.75	1.14	17.80	0.69	26.94	6.24	12.00	1.97	5.22	0.71	20.89	0.91	15.31	-	8.71	1.17	2.89	0.61
Cu	224	24.61	60.08	4.02	18.18	3.69	93.54	21.10	4.44	2.69	26.17	6.23	1.23	0.28	45.06	8.40	52.32	5.97
Ni	10.31	0.61	8.02	0.77	7.68	1.45	11.54	2.73	1.06	0.29	3.56	0.65	0.68	0.20	6.06	1.18	10.44	0.90
Pb	3525	262	3134	292	82.09	23.49	85.55	7.87	17.37	8.04	109	6.67	37.02	5.20	122	11.69	147	6.36
Sb	25.59	1.75	12.71	1.21	6.73	1.15	5.84	1.07	0.19	0.01	1.65	0.41	0.11	0.04	2.01	0.94	0.48	0.24
Ti	1377	75.12	1023	63.80	1842	281	417	62.09	12.38	2.96	110	35.41	20.96	12.52	492	134	53.15	26.08
v	37.29	2.13	31.75	4.16	37.11	4.95	16.67	1.68	0.96	0.16	10.65	0.96	0.78	0.27	18.23	3.81	5.66	3.18
Zn	1580	197	589	52.97	32.00	2.07	321	26.73	19.25	7.05	169	53.64	26.62	1.74	481	62.21	904	24.13





To better understand how to discriminate between 1) elements ascribable to the deposition process from those 2) coming from the substrate, the enrichment factors (EFs) of chemical elements detected in black crusts compared with that revealed in the substrates, were calculated as the ratios of crust/substrate metals' concentration. Results are reported in Table 5.

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351 Table 5 Enrichment factors (EFs) of the chemical elements detected in the black crusts

	Complex of San Do	menico Maggiore	Cloister of San Marcellino e Festo						
Chemical elements	Sample SD2	Sample SD3	Sample SM-S1	Sample SM-A1	Sample SM-P1				
As	0.9	0.7	3.3	4.6	5.2				
Ba	0.8	1	20.1	41.6	38.4				
Cd	2.2	1.6	0.8	0.8	5.5				
Со	2	0.9	12.4	3.9	11.4				
Cr	0.8	0.7	2.3	4	1.2				
Cu	12.3	3.3	21.1	5.9	9.5				
Ni	1.3	1	10.8	3.4	6.4				
Pb	42.9	38.2	4.9	6.3	5.6				
Sb	3.8	1.9	30.7	8.7	10.6				
Ti	0.7	0.6	33.6	8.9	22.5				
v	1	0.9	17.4	11.1	9.6				
Zn	49.4	18.4	16.6	8.8	16.8				

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Generally, an enrichment factor lower or equal to 1 suggests that the source of the element coming from the substrate, while an enrichment factor greater than 1 may be imputable to an external "provenance", which means that elements are linked to a deposition process. Such a hypothesis is stronger as the enrichment factor increases.

Looking at Table 5 it is possible to observe these differences and in detail, cells in green showEFs values greater than 1, while red ones refer to values lower than 1.

High amount of Ba in the samples from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (SM-P, SM-A, SM-S series) probably may depend on restoration interventions [50] carried out in the past. About that, the barium hydroxide it was widely used for the conservative treatment of marbles in the past [51].

This thesis is supported by the investigations carried out by using OM. Thin section observations allowed to highlight the presence of a further layer between the marble substrate and the black crust (i.e. Fig. 3, sample SD3), almost certainly attributable to a restoration intervention; probably the same in which the barium was applied to consolidate the stone surface. This hypothesis is further supported by EF values (Table 5).

In particular, different EFs can be attributable to various factors such as the type of stone
 material, the particle deposit morphology (vertical surfaces), the different exposure to emission
 sources (mobile or fixed) and the wash-out phenomena. In this way, specimens SD2 and SD3 show a
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- 373 church portal which in the past was affected by mobile polluting sources and precisely vehicles.
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Figure 6. Correlation between the Zn vs Pb, Cu vs Zn e Sb vs Cu of the two different sites: a) b) c) Complex of
San Domenico Maggiore; d) e) f) Cloister of San Marcellino e Festo

378 Figure 6 related to complex of San Domenico Maggiore (Fig. 6a; 6b; 6c) shows good correlations 379 between the different heavy metals such as Zn vs Pb, Cu vs Zn and Sb vs Cu. In detail, the high 380 correlation between Zn vs Pb (R2= 0.8022) agrees with the use of leaded gasoline as fuel for 381 automotion [4] used up to a few decades ago. Moreover, the correlation between Cu vs Zn (R2= 382 0.8406) suggests an enrichment of the samples with tire wear particles and other parts of friction and 383 machine wear [52-55]. Also, the latter could further indicate soil contamination from lubricating oil 384 and exhaust emissions from vehicles [56-57]. Besides, the good correlation between Sb vs Cu (R2= 385 0.884) indicates a contribution from the brake wear [58-59].

386 On the contrary, the samples from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (SM-S1, SM-A1 and 387 SM-P1) show a low correlation between the different heavy metals (Fig. 6d; 6e; 6f) suggesting 388 differences in source.

As, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, Ti, V and Zn registered a moderate enrichment in all black crust samples (3 < EF < 33.6), which could be associated to different anthropogenic sources such as industrial activities [60-62], pavement wear [63] e vehicular traffic.

Some researches carried out on the atmospheric particulate matter and dusts sampled from the soil in Naples area [64-65] highlighted the presence of two different sources: mobiles and fixes. In particular, the last one can be related to the ILVA steel mill (working until 1993) located in the industrial area of Bagnoli-Coroglio and to the oil refineries (i.e. Q8, Esso, Tamoil) in the Eastern area of Naples. These industrial emissions have certainly affected the enrichment in some elements such as Ti, Zn, Pb, Cu, Ni and V. Furthermore, presence of high Sb values in these samples could be attributed to several incinerator plants [66] located at 30 km N to the city [67-68].

Besides, by comparing the low contents in As, Ni and V determined in this study with previous research [22,25-26,29,31-32,69], it is possible to assert that these values may depend on a moderate use of domestic heating due to the more temperate climate of Naples compared to that of other

402 Italian and European cities.

In fact, the above-mentioned elements may be generally associated with the different fuelsused in heating, such as the coal (in the past) or the fuel oils [70-71].

405 By comparing the data obtained from the investigations carried out in the two pilot sites, it is 406 possible to assert that the greatest enrichment in heavy metals of the black crusts from the church of 407 San Domenico Maggiore (samples SD2 and SD3) is certainly due to the use of Pb-based gasoline as 408 well as the tire and brake wear and other parts machine wear. This aspect is also evident in Fig. 7, 409 showing the location of the two cases-study in the Naples city centre. Particularly, the church of San 410 Domenico Maggiore is nowadays located in a pedestrian area, forbidden to traffic only in the last 411 decades (Piazza San Domenico Maggiore and Vico San Domenico Maggiore), and that in the past was an 412 area with high vehicular traffic.

As concern samples from the cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo* (SM-S1, SM-A1 and SM-P1), data show an enrichment in different heavy metals that can be traced to different polluting sources (industrial activities and vehicular traffic). Sampled artefacts are located inside of a closed cloister and not exposed to direct sources of emissions, but they show anyway weathering phenomena related to stone decay and air pollution.

The achieved results highlight that all monuments, even those not directly exposed to sources of direct emissions, can undergo decay processes. In this way, it would be necessary to implement territorial policies for the protection of the cultural heritage, and above all that of historical interest.

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Figure 7. Road map of the urban city centre of Naples. The red circle indicates the location of the sampled
monuments: SD = Complex of *San Domenico Maggiore*, SM = Cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*.

426 5. Final remarks

In the present work, black crusts collected from two historical sites with different exposure
within the city of Naples have been analysed in order to detect the variability in the degradation
forms, mainly due to atmospheric pollutant.

430 Let's talk about the complex of *San Domenico Maggiore*, a historical monument located in a 431 high vehicular traffic area and the ancient cloister of *San Marcellino e Festo*, located in a restricted 432 traffic area. Sites were chosen to represent: on one hand a high vehicular traffic scenario and on the 433 other a more protected (but always weathering affected) micro-environment.

- 434 The results achieved from the minero-petrographic and geochemical investigations made it 435 possible:
- 436
 - to highlight previous restorations and their effects of geomaterial overall conditions.
- to asses as the concentration of specific elements (such as As, Sb, Pb, Zn, Cu, Sn etc.) is
 sensibly higher in SD samples (from the complex of San Domenico Maggiore), testifying the
 fingerprint of air pollution due to vehicular emissions.
- to show as the As amount detected in the Naples city centre is lower than other Italian and
 European cities investigated in previous research, highlighting the importance of the impact
 of the local pollution sources on the cultural heritage.
- to draw considerations about conservations state of rock substrate. Some elements such as
 Zn, Cu, Ni, etc. are more present in substrate, testifying the presence of a net of microcracks
 that lead to move chemical elements from crusts to substrate. This mobility can lead also to
 the formation of new crusts contributing to accelerate the weathering damages.
- 447

The achieved results represent a further milestone to better manage future restoration intervention, especially in term of choice of the best cleaning procedures of historical and monumental complexes. Besides, suitable consolidation procedures will allow increasing the resistance of stone materials against the degradation phenomena mainly related to the geochemical mobility from the black crusts to substrate.

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V.C; writing—original draft preparation, M.R. and V.C.; writing—review and editing, M.F.L.R.; P.C; S.F.G;
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- 459

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