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2	Mechanism and kinetics of the pseudomorphic replacement of anhydrite by calcium
3	phosphate phases at hydrothermal conditions
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11	
12	Abstract
13	Mineral replacement reactions mediated by fluids are common in sedimentary basins, where
14	they influence geochemical cycles. Phosphorous (P) pollution of soils, sediments and water
15	bodies is currently a widespread problem. Some apatite accumulations in sediments may have
16	formed through the interaction of P-bearing aqueous solutions with mineral surfaces that result
17	in mineral replacement reactions. Here, we investigate the pseudomorphic replacement of
18	anhydrite single crystals by aggregates of β -tricalcium phosphate and hydroxyapatite upon
19	interaction with a P-bearing solution at temperatures between 120°C and 200°C. SEM
20	imaging is used to study the texture of the aggregates. Rietveld refinement of the X-ray
21	diffraction patterns and Raman spectra analysis of the reacted samples provide information on
22	the kinetics of the replacement. At all temperatures β -tricalcium phosphate forms alongside

hydroxyapatite at early stages of the replacement reaction. At T \geq 180°C, hydroxyapatite/ β -23

tricalcium phosphate ratio rapidly increases, and hydroxyapatite is the only phase in fully 24 replaced samples. At T < 180°C hydroxyapatite/ β -tricalcium phosphate ratio increases slowly 25 and fully replaced samples still contain significant amounts of β -tricalcium phosphate. The 26 progress of the replacement is facilitated by the formation of porosity. The evolution of the 27 hydroxyapatite/β-tricalcium phosphate ratio and the crystal habit of both phases strongly 28 influence the arrangement of this porosity. The empirical activation energy Ea (kJ/mol) of the 29 replacement reaction is determined by the Avrami and the iso-conversion methods. Both 30 31 approaches yield an Ea of ~ 40 kJ/mol. Anhydrite dissolution appears as the rate-limiting process and the overall kinetics of the replacement reaction is controlled by the rate diffusion 32 33 of dissolved species through the porosity network. The ripening of the metastable β -tricalcium 34 phosphate into hydroxyapatite affects the characteristics of the porosity network and further modulates the kinetics of the replacement. These results may improve the understanding of 35 36 the mechanisms of P-sequestration by mineral surfaces through coupled dissolution-37 precipitation reactions and shed light on the origin of apatite accumulations associated to evaporitic sedimentary rocks. 38

Keywords: anhydrite, hydroxyapatite, β-tricalcium phosphate, mineral replacement,
pseudomorphism, kinetics, textures, coupled dissolution-precipitation.

41

42 Introduction

43 Mineral replacements are common processes in sedimentary, diagenetic, metamorphic, and 44 metasomatic environments, where they take place mediated by a fluid that facilitates the 45 dissolution of the primary mineral and the concomitant precipitation of the secondary one(s). 46 The coupling through the interface of the dissolution and precipitation rates allows for the 47 preservation of original shape and volume of the primary mineral (Putnis 2002, 2009; Putnis

and Putnis 2007; Pollok et al. 2011; Ruiz-Agudo et al. 2014). Moreover, when the dissolution 48 of the latter is the rate-limiting step of the interface coupled dissolution-precipitation reaction 49 (ICDP), original microscopic, and even nanoscopic, features also are accurately preserved 50 51 during the replacement (Xia et al. 2009; Ruiz-Agudo et al. 2014; Altree-Williams et al. 2015). The progress of ICDP reactions requires a continuous communication between the interface. 52 53 where the reaction takes place, and the bulk fluid. This communication is ensured by the 54 formation of a network of porosity and/or fractures during the mineral replacement. This network facilitates mass transport to and from the interfacial fluid (Zhao et al. 2009; Jonas et 55 56 al. 2013; Ruiz-Agudo et al. 2014; Putnis 2015).

57 In this work we describe the replacement of anhydrite by mixtures of two calcium phosphate 58 phases, β -tricalcium phosphate (β -Ca₃(PO₄)₂) (β -TCP) and hydroxyapatite (Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH)) (Hap) through a ICDP mediated by an aqueous fluid containing phosphorous (P). Anhydrite 59 60 is a rock-forming mineral common in sedimentary basins, where it appears as a major 61 component of evaporites as well as forming nodules and cements in sandstones, limestones and dolostones (Murray 1964; Rahimpour-Bonab et al. 2010; Olivarius et al. 2015). 62 Anhydrite also forms massive accumulations in modern submarine hydrothermal vents (Kuhn 63 64 et al. 2003). Apatite (Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH,Cl,F)) is the main source of phosphorous, an element 65 that is scarce in the Earth's crust but has great economic interest in the fertilizer industry 66 (Filippelli 2002). Phosphorous is an essential macronutrient for biota as well as a pollutant which in excess causes eutrophication of water bodies, contributes to the growth of toxigenic 67 68 algae, and boosts the development of potentially pathogenic microbes in the water column and in soils (Mallin and Cahoon 2020). The structural characteristics of apatite make it a 69 70 relevant phase for immobilizing and storing of radioactive and other pollutant elements (Rakovan and Reeder 1996; Ewing and Wang 2002; Mavropoulos et al. 2002). 71

72 There is abundant evidence that mineral replacement reactions play an important role in controlling the fate of a variety of pollutants in soils and sedimentary basins (Pinto et al. 2009, 73 2012; Wang et al. 2012, 2015; Hövelmann and Putnis 2016; Callagon et al. 2017; Di Lorenzo 74 et al. 2019; Roza Llera et al. 2021). Anhydrite is highly reactive to dissolved ions. Thus, cycles 75 of anhydrite dissolution/precipitation influence the fate of trace elements (Sr. Y. REE) in 76 77 hydrothermal systems. Moreover, anhydrite surfaces effectively remove metal pollutants from aqueous solutions through coprecipitation phenomena (Morales et al. 2014; Forjanes et al. 78 79 2020b, 2020a). Pollution of running waters and aquifers by phosphorous currently is 80 widespread due to the extensive use of ammonium phosphate as a fertilizer in intensive 81 agriculture (Smith 2003; Wei and Bailey 2021). Understanding the processes that result from the interaction of phosphorous containing waters with common sedimentary rock-forming 82 minerals can help to mitigate the effects of phosphorous pollution in sedimentary basins. 83

Moreover, apatite is a main constituent of sedimentary phosphorites (Bentor 1980; Sheldon 84 1981; Hughes et al. 1989; Knudsen and Gunter 2002). Baturin (1989) reported on the 85 diagenetic origin of some apatite accumulations and connected their formation to changes in 86 the chemistry of pore waters due to organic matter decay and sulfate reduction. The 87 concentration of phosphorous in diagenetic fluids in pores can reach values up to 8-9 mg/L, 88 89 according to Sheldon (1981). Filippelli (2002) and Dzombak and Sheldon (2020) have reported that P concentrations in young soils can reach values as high as 5340 mg/L, 90 highlighting the potential importance of P fluxes from soils to rivers in the current scenario of 91 92 climate change. In contact with the surface of sediment particles, these high concentrations are sufficient to guarantee the precipitation of apatite, which opens the question of the role 93 that interface coupled dissolution-precipitation reactions (ICDP) may play in the formation of 94 diagenetic apatite. It has been experimentally demonstrated that the interaction of phosphate-95 bearing fluids with other sedimentary rock-forming minerals like aragonite and calcite results 96

97 in their replacement by aggregates of apatite crystals (Kasioptas et al. 2010, 2011; Jonas et al.

98 2013; Reinares-Fisac et al. 2017).

The purpose of the present work is to study the interaction of a P-bearing aqueous solution 99 with anhydrite single crystals. The main goal is to determine the kinetics and mechanisms of 100 anhydrite replacement by calcium phosphate at temperatures between 120°C and 200°C. Two 101 102 calcium phosphate phases, β -TCP (β -Ca₃(PO₄)₂) and Hap (Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH)), formed during 103 this replacement, which were identified by Raman spectroscopy and X-ray powder diffraction (XRD). The amount of each phase as a function of temperature and reaction time was 104 calculated by conducting the Rietveld analysis of the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns. This 105 106 information was applied to determine the kinetics of the process. The textural relationships and the crystal habit of the product phases were studied by scanning electron microscopy 107 (SEM). The influence of the transformation of β -TCP into Hap, which occurs concomitantly 108 to the progress of the replacement, as well as the specific morphological and textural features 109 of both calcium phosphates in the overall kinetics of the replacement reaction, was considered. 110

111

112 Materials and methods

113 Hydrothermal experiments

Hydrothermal interaction experiments were performed by reacting anhydrite single crystals with a 2M (NH₄)₂HPO₄ aqueous solution at different reaction times (1 h to 5 days) and temperatures (120, 150, 180 and 200°C) under autogenous pressure. The P concentration in the aqueous solution is around 10 times higher than that reported in young soils (Filippelli 2002; Dzombak and Sheldon 2020). Anhydrite single crystals from Naica mine (Chihuahua, México) were used in all experiments. X-ray fluorescence spectroscopic analysis confirmed them as highly, with less than 0.4 wt% foreign elements and Sr as the major impurity. The

121 anhydrite crystals were cleaved along {100}, {010} and {001} using a sharp stainless-steel 122 knife edge to obtain similarly sized (about 3 x 3 x 3 mm) anhydrite subsamples. Prior to their use in the experiments, these subsamples were cleaned in an ethanol bath to remove surface 123 impurities and then left to dry overnight in a desiccator at room temperature. Four anhydrite 124 subsamples (average weight $\sim 250 \pm 1$ mg) were used in each experiment, and the volume of 125 126 the solution (~4mL) was adjusted to guarantee a solid-to-liquid ratio of 0.06 g/mL. Anhydrite subsamples were placed together with the P-bearing aqueous solution in pre-heated individual 127 stainless-steel Teflon-lined autoclaves (2.5 Ø x 10 cm). Within the autoclave, all four 128 129 anhydrite subsamples laid with one of their surfaces in contact with the bottom of the reactor, while their other five surfaces were directly exposed to the interaction with the P-bearing 130 solution. The crystallographic orientation of the laying surface was not taken into 131 consideration when setting the different experimental runs. The P-bearing aqueous solution 132 was prepared by dissolving reagent-grade (NH₄)₂HPO₄ (Acros Organics) in high purity 133 deionized water (MilliQ) (18 MQ cm). The pH of the fluid was measured prior to and after 134 reaction by using a pH Meter basic 20-CRISON. Experiments were run triplicated to confirm 135 136 reproducibility. The aqueous solutions were modeled using the geochemical code PHREEQC 137 (Parkhurst and Appelo 1999) and llnl.dat database to calculate saturation indexes (SI) with respect to relevant solid phases at the beginning of the experiments. 138

After reaction, the autoclaves were removed from the oven. To accelerate their cooling to room temperature (25°C) a flow of compressed air was applied during 20 minutes. The reaction time does not comprise this cooling period. Afterwards, the product samples were removed from the solution, washed with distilled water, and dried overnight at 30°C in a thermostatic chamber. Two of the four product samples from each experiment were powdered in an agate mortar and used for powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses. The other two

product samples were crosscut using a steel cutter and used for Raman spectroscopy and
scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging analyses.

147 Analytical methods

Diffraction patterns of powdered product samples were measured at room temperature with a 148 PANalytical Xpert Pro diffractometer, using a CuKal radiation. XRD data were collected in 149 the range 7–90° 20 with a step size of 0.001° and a dwell time of 1 s per step. Samples were 150 hold in thin-walled glass capillaries to minimize preferential orientation effects. General peak 151 152 matching runs were conducted for the diffraction patterns of product samples. These runs confirmed that in all diffraction patterns all peaks could be assigned to anhydrite (PDF 98-153 900-1234) and/or Hap (PDF 98-006-8592) and β-TCP (PDF 00-009-0169). Furthermore, 154 155 anhydrite, Hap and β -TCP fractions in the reacted samples were determined by performing 156 Rietveld refinement analyses using the X'Pert HighScore Plus (Version 3.0) software package from PANalytical. The aforementioned structural models were used as references. 157

Crosscut reacted samples were gold-coated and imagined using a JEOL-6610LV microscope equipped with Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX, INCA Energy 350). The contrast resulting from the different composition of reacted and unreacted areas provided information on the progresses of the anhydrite-(P)-bearing fluid interaction. Secondary electron images of the external surfaces of the reacted solid samples were also obtained.

Raman spectra were collected from freshly crosscut sections of the reacted subsamples.
Raman spectroscopy was performed by means of a labRam HRU using JYVJobin Yvon
equipment with an excitation source laser CDPS532-DPSS at 24.3 mW and excitation times
of 10 s. This equipment was connected to a confocal microscope Olympus BXFM-ILHS with
a 100x objective.

168 Kinetic analysis

169 We assume that the isothermal kinetics of the anhydrite phosphation reaction can be described

170 by the Avrami equation (Eq.1):

171
$$y_{CaP} = 1 - e^{-(kt)^n}$$
 (1)

where y_{CaP} corresponds to the fraction of calcium phosphate formed ($y_{Anh}=1-y_{CaP}$), this is the extent of the phosphation reaction, t (hours) represents the reaction time, *k* is the Avrami rate constant (hour⁻¹) and *n* is the Avrami exponent. By linearizing the Avrami equation taking twice natural logarithms the following expression is obtained:

176
$$ln(-ln(1-y_{CaP})) = nlnk + nlnt$$
 (2)

The Avrami equation has successfully been used to describe the kinetics of a variety of 177 dissolution, crystallization, transformation, and mineral replacement processes (Lasaga 1998; 178 179 Xia et al. 2009; Kasioptas et al. 2010; Altree-Williams et al. 2017; Pedrosa et al. 2017). If a reaction follows the Avrami equation, different isokinetic curves will have the same n value. 180 Moreover, their plot as $\ln(-\ln(1-y_{CaP}))$ against $\ln t$ (Hancock-Sharp plot) will show 181 182 approximately equal gradients (Hancock and Sharp 1972). Changes in the value of n are indicative of changes in the mechanisms of the reaction. If the activation energy of the reaction 183 is constant, the Hancock-Sharp plot will yield a straight line, whose slope corresponds to the 184 value of n and from whose intercept with the y-axis the rate constant k can be estimated. 185 Deviations from linearity of the Hancock-Sharp plot indicate that the reaction equation differs 186 from the Avrami one. 187

188 The rate constant k of most reactions shows a dependence of temperature that follows an189 Arrhenius type equation:

$$190 k = A \cdot e^{\frac{-Ea}{R \cdot T}} (3)$$

where A is a frequency factor, R is the gas constant, T is the temperature of the experiment (Kelvin) and E_a is the empirical activation energy. Taking logarithm, the equation 4 is obtained:

$$194 \quad \ln k = \ln A - E_a / RT \tag{4}$$

195 If A and E_a are constant, the plot of $\ln k$ versus 1/T is a straight line whose slope is E_a/R and 196 its intercept with the y-axis is $\ln A$. Thus, the value of E_a can be estimated using the rate 197 constants k derived from the Hancock-Sharp plots of a set of isothermal runs.

Commonly the empirical activation energy sums up contributions of different events involved 198 in the reaction (dissolution of primary phases, mass transfer through interfaces, ion 199 dehydration, nucleation and growth of secondary phases, etc). Moreover, the method 200 201 described above fails to reveal changes in the activation energy that occur as the reaction 202 progresses. It is possible to derive information on the evolution of the empirical activation energy E_a along the reaction by rewriting equation 1 and calculating the time required to 203 achieve the transformation of a given fraction of the primary phase, in this case, anhydrite, 204 205 into the secondary phase(s), in this case, Hap and β -TCP or a mixture of both phases, according to equation 5: 206

207
$$t_Y \propto k^{-1} \propto A^{-1} e^{\frac{E_a}{RT}}$$
 (5)

where t_Y is the time for a given fraction to transform. This approach is described as the isoconversional method or the time to a given fraction method (Putnis 1992).

210 Taking logarithms, equation 5 can be rearranged as:

211
$$\ln t_Y = \operatorname{const} - \ln A + E_a/RT$$
 (6)

Empirical activation energies can be derived by plotting $\ln t_Y$ versus 1/T. If there is no change in the reaction mechanism as the reaction progresses, all plots will have similar gradients and,

consequently, E_a will have a constant value, regardless of the given fraction transformed. On the contrary, changes in plot slopes are indicative of different mechanisms operating at different stages of the reaction, each one characterised by a different E_a .

217

218 **Results**

219 Reaction Pathway and Textural Features

The hydrothermal interaction of anhydrite single crystals with a phosphate-bearing aqueous 220 221 solution (2M (NH₄)₂HPO₄) results in their partial to total transformation into Hap $(Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH))$. Hydroxyapatite can be accompanied by varying amounts of β -TCP (β -222 $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$) depending on the temperature and duration of the interaction. During the 223 transformation, the pH of the solutions progressively decreases from an initial value of 8.1 (1) 224 to 6.8 (1) at experiment termination time. Figure 1a depicts the XRD patterns from subsamples 225 226 reacted during 6 to 72 h at 120°C. All the diffraction patterns show sharp peaks that can be assigned to anhydrite and/or the calcium phosphate phases Hap and β -TCP. Although the 227 XRD patterns of other calcium phosphates like whitlockite (Ca₁₈(Mg,Fe)₂H₂PO₄)₁₄) show 228 similar features as the pattern of β -TCP (Gopal and Calvo 1972; Jonas et al. 2014), the 229 formation of any amount of the former phase is disregarded, since the pristine anhydrite is 230 highly pure and the aqueous phase contains no dissolved Fe and Mg. The intensity of anhydrite 231 peaks progressively decreases with the reaction time. Anhydrite peaks are absent in the pattern 232 corresponding to a reaction time of 72 h. Conversely, the intensity of peaks assigned to Hap 233 234 progressively increases with time. Peaks assigned to β -TCP show a more complex evolution: their intensity initially grows to latter decrease. In all the experiments, regardless of the 235 reaction temperature, Hap rapidly becomes the main constituent of the transformed fraction. 236 For example, in experiments conducted at 120°C, the transformed fraction contains ~ 20 wt% 237

238 Hap after 12 h, 37 wt% Hap after 24 h and 73 wt% Hap after 48 h (Fig. 1b). In experiments conducted at temperatures $\geq 200^{\circ}$ C, Hap becomes the only solid phase present in the system 239 after 10 h since the beginning of the experiment. In addition, longer experiments were carried 240 out at temperatures below 180°C, once the anhydrite had been completely replaced, to observe 241 the evolution of the relative content of β -TCP and Hap in the samples. The results of these 242 experiments indicated that the amount of β -TCP continued to decrease with time. After 5 days 243 interaction at 120°C, reacted samples consist of 7.2% β-TCP and 92.8 anhydrite. The Raman 244 spectra collected on crosscut sections of reacted anhydrite subsamples indicate that all 245 246 transformed rims exclusively consist of calcium phosphate phases in good agreement with the conclusions of XRD analyses. Figure 2 shows SEM images and Raman spectra taken on 247 crosscut sections of anhydrite reacted with the P-bearing fluid at 150°C during 12 h (Figs. 2a-248 2d) and 24 h (Figs. 2e-2h). The spectrum in Figure 2a shows the main vibration bands of SO_4^{2-} 249 in anhydrite: a symmetric stretching (v_1) band at 1019 cm⁻¹, three asymmetric stretching (v_3) 250 bands at 1113 cm⁻¹, 1131 cm⁻¹ and 1160 cm⁻¹, two symmetric bending (v₂) bands at 416 cm⁻¹ 251 and 502 cm⁻¹, and three asymmetric bending (v_4) bands at 610 cm⁻¹, 627 cm⁻¹ and 678 cm⁻¹. 252 Raman spectra collected from transformed regions of samples reacted during 12 h (Fig. 2c) 253 254 and 24 h (Figs. 2e and 2g) show bands that can be assigned to Hap: the symmetric stretching (v_1) , the symmetric bending (v_2) and the asymmetric bending (v_4) vibration modes of PO₄³⁻ 255 are located at 961 cm⁻¹, 432 cm⁻¹ and 588 cm⁻¹, respectively. The presence of a minor broad 256 band around 880 cm⁻¹ (Figs. 2c and 2e) that can be attributed to the P-OH stretching is also 257 consistent with Hap (Penel et al. 1998). Moreover, a triplet at 1007, 1045 and 1075 cm⁻¹, 258 corresponds to the PO₄³-asymmetric stretching (v_3) as well as a band at 3571 cm⁻¹ can be 259 assigned to the OH-stretching (Fig. 2). In addition, a broad band near 946–949cm⁻¹ assigned 260 to the symmetric stretching (v1) (Jonas et al. 2014; Pedrosa et al. 2016) indicates the presence 261 of β -TCP in the core of the sample reacted during for 24 h (Fig. 2e). The absence of bands 262

around 925 cm⁻¹ (v1 mode) in all Raman spectra, confirms that whitlockite is not present in the system at any stage, in good agreement with the results of XRD analyses that only identify two calcium phosphate phases (β -TCP and Hap).

The main PO₄³⁻ vibrational mode (v1) in β -TCP, which is located at 971cm⁻¹, is not apparent 266 in any of the Raman spectra, most likely due to overlapping with the main band in the spectra 267 of Hap (PO₄³⁻ v1 at 961 cm⁻¹). No bands that can be attributed to β -TCP are present in areas 268 269 close to the surface of the anhydrite sample reacted during 24 h (Fig. 2g). In summary, XRD and Raman results corroborate that the transformed samples consist of mixtures of Hap and 270 β -TCP at early stages of the replacement reaction. At T \geq 180°C, hydroxyapatite/ β -tricalcium 271 272 phosphate ratio rapidly increases, and hydroxyapatite is the only phase in fully replaced samples. At T < 180°C hydroxyapatite/ β -tricalcium phosphate ratio increases slowly. 273 Furthermore, reacted samples still contain significant amounts of β-tricalcium phosphate even 274 after full replacement of anhydrite is reached. 275

276 The anhydrite by calcium phosphate replacement initiates at the surface of the anhydrite subsamples and advances inwards, defining a sharp reaction front (Figs. 2b and 2d). This front 277 defines the interface between a shell-like transformed rim and the unreacted anhydrite core 278 (Fig. 2d). Figure 3a shows the contact between the transformed rim and the unreacted 279 anhydrite core. As can be seen, the rim mainly consists of needle-like crystals arranged in 280 281 fan-like bunches that appear oriented roughly perpendicular to the surface of the anhydrite core, and a smaller amount of euhedral rhombohedron-shaped crystals (Fig. 3a). Based on 282 Raman spectroscopy analysis and the known crystal morphology of calcium phosphates, we 283 284 interpret the needle-like crystals as Hap (Zhu et al. 2008; Kasioptas et al. 2010; Yang et al. 2014; Li et al. 2016) and the euhedral rhombohedron-shaped ones as β –TCP (Roy and 285 Linnehan 1974). Closer inspection of the latter evidences the presence on their surfaces of 286

dissolution pits and nanometric Hap crystals that appear to grow in close spatial relation withthe dissolution pits (Fig. 3b).

Regardless the reaction temperature, the replacement reaction takes place with preservation 289 of both the volume and external shape of the anhydrite crystals and results in the formation of 290 calcium phosphate pseudomorphs. The pseudomorphs obtained in series of isothermal 291 experiments were crosscut and SEM imaged. Figure 4 depicts SEM microphotographs of 292 293 samples reacted during 12 hours at 120°C (a), 150°C (b), 180°C (c) and 200°C (d). The transformed rim undergoes progressive thickening with increasing reaction time. The 294 295 anhydrite core concomitantly shrinks. It is important to note that, before full anhydrite 296 replacement is reached, the thickness of the transformed rim can significantly vary within each crosscut section, as is apparent in Figures 4a-4c. Differences in rim thickness, measured from 297 opposite sides of a subsample along the same crystallographic direction, reflect the reduced 298 exposure of the subsample surface that lies in contact with the reactor bottom to the interaction 299 with the fluid. Differences in rim thickness measured along different crystallographic 300 301 directions reflect the different reactivity of anhydrite cleavage surfaces.

As can be seen, the reaction front advances faster with increasing temperature. Thus, after 12 h of reaction, in samples reacted at 120°C and 150°C and 180°C, the average transformed rim thickness was 250, 550 and 1500 μ m, respectively (Figs. 4a-4c). After 12 h reaction, no unreacted core is observed in the crosscut sections of samples from experiments conducted at 200°C reacted (Fig. 4d). This is consistent with the results of both, X-ray diffraction and Raman spectroscopy analyses, which also support the complete replacement of anhydrite by calcium phosphate phases in samples reacted 12 hours at 200°C.

309 Kinetics of the replacement reaction

310 Several sets of hydrothermal interaction experiments were conducted to derive information

on the kinetics of the replacement of anhydrite single crystals by calcium phosphate crystal

312 aggregates. Table 1 summarises the fraction of anhydrite, Hap and β -TCP, as determined from the Rietveld refinements of X-ray powder diffraction patterns of samples interacted with the 313 phosphate-bearing aqueous solution at temperatures between 120°C and 200°C during times 314 that varied between 2 and 72 hours. In Figure 5, the fraction of sample transformed into 315 calcium phosphate phases (v_{CaP}) is plotted against the reaction time (t) for each isothermal 316 317 experiment. Figure 6 shows the temperature dependence of the anhydrite-by- calcium phosphate reaction, evidenced in the Hancock-Sharp plots derived by fitting the linearized 318 Avrami expression (equation 2) to the experimental data. All fitted lines are approximately 319 320 parallels. The Avrami parameters calculated for each set of isothermal data are also shown in Figure 6. The activation energy can be obtained by plotting the slopes of the linear regressions 321 in Figure 6 against reciprocal temperature in an Arrhenius plot (Fig. 7). The rate constant (k) 322 clearly increases with temperature and the linear regression yields an empirical activation 323 energy, Ea of 40.2 ± 1.9 kJ/mol. 324

Alternatively, empirical activation energies can also be determined by using the isoconversional method. *Ea* values were calculated for three different fractions of anhydrite replacement by calcium phosphate, 0.40, 0.60, and 0.80 (Fig. 8). In all cases, the data are well described by linear correlations and show closely parallel trends. The empirical *Ea* values yielded from these fittings slightly decreases, from 40.4 ± 2.3 to 39.3 ± 2.3 kJ·mol⁻¹, as the replaced fraction increases from 40 to 80%.

331

332 Discussion

333 Replacement reaction mechanism

Upon interaction with a P-bearing aqueous solution at temperatures between 120°C and 200°C, anhydrite single crystals are replaced by mixtures of β-TCP and Hap. Textural features

336 of the reacted samples are consistent with the replacement taking place through an interface coupled dissolution-reprecipitation reaction (Putnis 2002, 2009; Putnis and Putnis 2007; Ruiz-337 Agudo et al. 2014). Firstly, the reaction starts at the surface of anhydrite and progresses from 338 339 rim to core through the advancement of a reaction front that appears sharp, well defined, and approximately parallel to the original anhydrite surface. Secondly, the external shape as well 340 341 as most surface features of anhydrite crystals are preserved throughout the reaction, which has a pseudomorphic character. Thirdly, replaced samples consist of aggregates of crystals of the 342 343 product phases and contain large amounts of porosity. All these features are characteristic of 344 mineral replacement processes that occur mediated by the presence of a fluid phase. The reaction takes place in the interfacial layer of fluid. When the process starts, the fluid is 345 undersaturated with respect to the primary phase. This drives its dissolution and determines 346 that the interfacial layer of fluid soon becomes supersaturated with respect to the product(s). 347 Anhydrite dissolution releases Ca²⁺ and SO4²⁻ ions to the interfacial layer of fluid. To evaluate 348 the physicochemical conditions in the interfacial fluid at early stages of replacement process 349 we simulate the dissolution of a small amount of anhydrite in a small volume of fluid using 350 the geochemical code PHREEQC and the lnll.dat database (Parkhurst and Appelo 1999). We 351 352 consider the successive dissolution of layers of anhydrite whose thickness corresponds to one 353 unit cell ($a_0 = 6.993$ Å, $b_0 = 6.995$ Å and $c_0 = 6.245$ Å; Hawthorne and Ferguson 1975). For a 3 x 3 x 3 mm sized crystal the dissolved anhydrite volume is $3.64 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^3$ of CaSO₄, which 354 corresponds to 7.94 x 10⁻¹⁰ moles of anhydrite. We consider two realistic thickness for the 355 fluid boundary layer, 100 nm and 1000 nm, which corresponds to a volume of interfacial 356 solution of 5.40 x 10⁻⁶ cm³ and 5.4 x 10⁻⁵ cm³, respectively (Ruiz-Agudo et al. 2015). The 357 state of supersaturation is defined by the value of the saturation index (SI), which is expressed 358 359 as:

$$360 \qquad SI = \log (IAP/Ksp) \tag{7},$$

361	where IAP is the ion activity product and Ksp is the solubility product of the phase considered.
362	SI = 0 indicates that the system is in equilibrium with a given phase, this is saturated, while
363	SI < 0 and $SI > = 0$ indicate that the system is undersaturated and supersaturated, respectively.
364	At 150°C, the dissolution of one anhydrite monolayer in both 100 nm and 1000 nm boundary
365	layers results in the interfacial fluid layer becoming supersaturated with respect to Hap and β
366	-TCP. Thus, the 100 nm thick boundary layer becomes supersaturated with respect to both,
367	Hap and β -TCP (SI _{Hap} = 23.86, SI _{β-TCP} = 3.42) after the dissolution of one anhydrite
368	monolayer, while still remaining undersaturated with respect to this latter phase (SI _{Anh} = -
369	7.36). Similarly, the 1000 nm thick boundary layer reaches supersaturation with respect to
370	Hap and β -TCP (SI _{Hap} = 19.11, SI _{β-TCP} = 0.56) after the dissolution of one anhydrite
371	monolayer. The simulation of the dissolution of one anhydrite monolayer at other
372	experimental temperatures also yields SI > 0 for both, Hap and β -TCP. The SI value for all
373	the phases involved increases as successive anhydrite monolayers dissolve. Once the
374	interfacial fluid reaches the supersaturation threshold for Hap and β -TCP nucleation, both
375	calcium phosphate phases will precipitate at the reaction front. As a replaced rim forms, the
376	presence of pores within it guarantees a continuous communication between the bulk solution
377	and the reaction front, facilitating mass transport to and from the interface (Putnis et al. 2005;
378	Putnis and Putnis 2007; Pollok et al. 2011; Forjanes et al. 2020b). The progress of the reaction
379	involves the definition of a dissolution-crystallization feedback loop. Thus, anhydrite
380	dissolution promotes calcium phosphate precipitation in the interfacial fluid and vice versa.
381	The preservation of the external shape of anhydrite crystals requires that the rates of anhydrite
382	dissolution and calcium phosphate precipitation are coupled (Putnis 2002, 2009; Putnis and
383	Putnis 2007; Pollok et al. 2011; Ruiz-Agudo et al. 2014). In the temperature range of the
384	experiments, the solubility product of anhydrite varies between $10^{-4.36}$ at 120° C and $10^{-4.83}$ at
385	200°C (Freyer and Voigt 2003). The solubility product of Hap strongly decreases with

increasing temperature within this temperature range, being 10^{-58.33} at 120°C and 10^{-70.64} at 386 200°C (Kaufman and Kleinberg 1979). In contrast, the solubility product of β –TCP slightly 387 increases with temperature in the temperature range of the experiments from $10^{-26.63}$ at 120°C 388 to 10^{-25.42} at 200°C (Wang and Nancollas 2008). Considering the very large differences in 389 solubility between anhydrite and both calcium phosphates, it is likely that the latter phases 390 391 form under very high supersaturations and can be expected that this process occurs rapidly at any experimental temperature. Therefore, anhydrite dissolution is most likely the rate-limiting 392 process. However, the progress of the reaction requires continuous chemical exchange with 393 394 the bulk solution and the rate of mass transport through the porous replaced rim may play a significant role modulating the overall kinetics of the anhydrite by calcium phosphate 395 replacement reaction. 396

397 Reaction pathway

The mole ratio of β-TCP/Hap vary with temperature and reaction time. At 120°C, β-TCP/Hap 398 399 mole ratio first increases with reaction time and later slowly decreases. At all other temperatures β -TCP/Hap mole ratio progressively decreases with increasing reaction time. 400 This decrease takes place much more rapidly with increasing temperature. In the temperature 401 range of the experiments, β -TCP is more soluble than Hap (llnl.dat) and, consequently, less 402 stable. Therefore, β-TCP forms as a thermodynamically metastable phase. Crystallization of 403 404 metastable phases often occurs under high supersaturations. The large solubility difference between anhydrite, β -TCP and Hap determines that the layer of fluid at the interface will be 405 very highly supersaturated with respect to both, β -TCP and Hap. Under these conditions, both 406 calcium phosphate phases can nucleate. Indeed, the presence of Hap at very early stages of 407 the replacement process suggests a competition between the nucleation and growth of β -TCP 408 and Hap. Metastable β -TCP latter transforms into Hap according to an Ostwald ripening 409 process. This transformation most likely occurs through a dissolution-reprecipitation reaction 410

- since dissolution pits are apparent in the surface of β -TCP and needle-like Hap crystals grow
- spatially associated to those pits (Fig. 3b). The competition between the nucleation and growth
- 413 of β -TCP and Hap operates longer and plays a more important role at lower temperatures as
- 414 is evidenced by the initial increase in the β -TCP/Hap mole ratio as well as the large amount
- 415 of β -TCP in almost fully replaced samples at 120°C.
- 416 The replacement reaction can be described through the following equations:

417

418
$$3CaSO_4 + 2(NH_4)_2HPO_4(aq)$$

419
$$\rightarrow Ca_3(PO_4)_2 + (NH_4)_2SO_4(aq) + 2(NH_4)HSO_4(aq)$$
 (5)

420

421
$$5CaSO_4 + 3(NH_4)_2HPO_4(aq) + H_2O$$

422
$$\rightarrow Ca_5(PO_4)_3OH + (NH_4)_2SO_4(aq) + 4(NH_4)HSO_4(aq)$$
 (6)

423

424
$$5Ca_3(PO_4)_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 3Ca_5(PO_4)_3OH + H_3PO_4(aq)$$
 (7)

425

The precipitation of Hap, as a basic salt, results in a pH decrease in the fluid phase (equations 6 and 7). This is in good agreement with the change from an initial $pH_i = 8.1$ (1) to a pH of 6.8 (1) measured at the end of the experiments.

429 **Porosity generation**

430 Several factors explain the generation of porosity during pseudomorphic replacement 431 reactions. Porosity balances the loss of volume in reactions that involve a negative molar 432 volume change and guarantees the preservation of the original external shape of the primary 433 phase. In the case of the replacement of anhydrite (V_{Anh}= 45.84 cm³/mol) by mixtures of β-

434	TCP ($V_{\beta-TCP}$ = 33.14) and Hap (V_{Hap} = 31.79 cm ³ /mol), all relevant molar volume changes are
435	negative: -12.70 cm ³ /mol (27,7%) and -14.05 (30.65%), the changes associated to the
436	transformation of anhydrite into β -TCP and Hap, respectively, and -1.35 (4.07%) the change
437	associated to the transformation of β -TCP into Hap. These molar volume changes only very
438	slightly vary (< 1%) depending on the experimental temperature (Evans 1979; Nakamura et
439	al. 1990). The porosity required to balance the molar volume change associated to the
440	replacement reaction will be around 30%, although the exact value will vary depending on the
441	β -TCP/Hap mole ratio in the calcium phosphate mixture. Since this ratio changes with reaction
442	time and temperature, small differences in porosity can be expected depending on the
443	experimental conditions.

A second source of porosity is the difference in solubility between the primary and product 444 phases (Putnis 2002, 2009; Pollok et al. 2011). β-TCP and Hap are less soluble than anhydrite. 445 This means that part of the dissolved anhydrite is lost to the solution when this phase is 446 replaced by β -TCP and Hap. The negative solubility change associated to the replacement will 447 also be balanced by generation of porosity that will add up to that that balances the negative 448 molar volume change. The volume of solubility change-related porosity is also influenced by 449 reaction time and temperature as both parameters determine the β-TCP/Hap in the reacted 450 451 sample. Differences in the porosity formed during the replacement may influence the mass transport rate and be reflected by the overall kinetics of the replacement reaction (Jonas et al. 452 2013; Pedrosa et al. 2017). 453

454 **Textural features and evolution**

455 Mass transport from and to the interface is not only affected by the increase of porosity during 456 the replacement but also by the specific characteristics of this porosity regarding pore shape, 457 size and connectivity (Putnis et al. 2005; Jonas et al. 2013; Putnis 2015; Yuan et al. 2018; 458 Forjanes et al. 2020a). Yuan et al. (2018) studied the porosity generated during the

459 replacement of calcite by cerussite and identified three types of pores: Open pores that directly connect the reaction front and the bulk solution, trapped pores, which are connected through 460 grain boundary diffusion between the crystals of the product phase and open pores to the bulk 461 solution, and isolated pores, located between differently oriented crystals of the product. All 462 types of pores are filled by fluid, but the chemistry of this fluid will vary due to differences in 463 464 the mass transport rate. Chemical exchange between the interfacial fluid and the bulk will be more efficient if the porosity mainly consists of open pores, while the predominance of 465 466 isolated pores will strongly hinder mass transport and the progress of the reaction. Both habit 467 and textural relationships of the product crystals are key features that define the relative amount of open, trapped and isolated pores in replaced samples. The existence/absence of 468 epitactic relationships between the product and the primary phase is another key factor. We 469 observe no evidence of epitatic growth of either β -TCP or Hap on anhydrite surfaces. β -TCP 470 crystals grow randomly oriented, while Hap grow as fan-like bunches of needle-like crystals 471 arranged approximately perpendicular to the anhydrite surface (Fig. 3). β-TCP crystals 472 accumulated in the central region of this bunches. Needle-like crystals within bunches that 473 seem to originate at the region occupied by β -TCP crystals are arranged with their long axis 474 475 approximately parallel between them. This arrangement is characteristic of competitive 476 growth between crystals that nucleate randomly oriented on a surface and have a preferential growth direction. Those crystals oriented with the preferential growth direction perpendicular 477 478 to the surface can grow freely, while the growth of all differently oriented crystals rapidly becomes prevented by the lack of space. It is noteworthy that the porosity generated during 479 replacement reactions has a transient nature, and its features evolve along time. In the case of 480 the replacement of anhydrite by calcium phosphate, the very different habit of β -TCP and Hap 481 crystals will determine differences in the relative abundance of different types of pores 482 483 depending on the mole β -TCP/Hap ratio in the replaced sample. As pores between elongated,

parallel crystals tend to be open, it can be expected that the number of open pores in replaced
samples will increase as more β-TCP transforms into Hap.

486 Rate-limiting process

Coupled dissolution-precipitation reactions are heterogeneous processes. Their kinetics is 487 either limited by the dissolution of the primary phase or by the precipitation of the product 488 phase(s). Several observations give support to the interpretation that the dissolution of 489 anhydrite is the limiting step of the anhydrite by calcium phosphate replacement reaction 490 491 Moreover, textural features of the reacted samples indicate that the reaction progresses from rim to core. This has been interpreted by different authors as evidence of the precipitation of 492 493 the product(s) taking place at a faster rate than the dissolution of the primary phase. Altree-494 Williams et al. (2015, 2017) pointed out that mineral replacement reactions which are rate-495 limited by the precipitation of the product also result in the formation of pseudomorphs. However, external features of these pseudomorphs are less accurately preserved as the 496 497 formation of overgrowths blurs them. Moreover, these pseudomorphs show hollow cores. Neither the development of overgrowths nor the formation of a hollow core is observed during 498 the formation of calcium phosphate pseudomorphs after anhydrite. 499

Altree-Williams et al. (2019) calculated an average empirical activation energy (E_a) of 46.2 ± 500 7.6 kJ/mol for the carbonation of anhydrite. These authors interpreted the slightly lower value 501 of this activation energy compared to previously reported values of the activation energy for 502 503 anhydrite dissolution [50 kJ/mol, Bildstein et al. (2001); 61.0 ± 1.0 kJ/mol, Kontrec et al. (2002)] as indicative of anhydrite dissolution being the rate-limiting event of anhydrite 504 carbonation kinetics. Moreover, they concluded that, since the reported values of the 505 activation energy for the diffusion of dissolved calcium are much smaller ($E_a = 12.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$), 506 mass transport of species from the bulk solution to the reaction interface and backwards must 507 occur a faster rate compared to anhydrite dissolution. The average empirical activation energy 508

of the anhydrite by calcium phosphate replacement reaction determined in this work using the isoconversional method is 39.9 ± 1.6 kJ/mol. The similarity of this value to the previously reported activation energy for anhydrite carbonation supports that anhydrite dissolution also controls the kinetics of anhydrite phosphation.

The experimental data fitted the Avrami model yields an $E_a = 40.2 \pm 1.9$ kJ/mol, which is 513 identical to that obtained using the isoconversional method regardless of the transformed 514 fraction considered. The calculated A is 9045.3 (hours)⁻¹ and the resulting integral law is Y_{CaP} 515 = 9045.3 $e^{(-40/RT)}t$. Applying the law equation and assuming that the reaction mechanism is 516 the same as that controlling the process in the 120-200°C range, it can be estimated that at 517 518 20°C the time required to for the complete replacement of anhydrite single crystals by calcium phosphate will be around 4 months. However, similar experiments performed under lower 519 temperature conditions need to be performed to confirm the soundness of this approach. 520

The shape of the rate curves in Figure 5 is approximately the same for those corresponding to 521 522 150°C, 180°C and 200°C and the curves can be described as isokinetic. Consistently, the Avrami reaction exponents (n) corresponding to these three temperatures show almost 523 identical values (~ 1.35). The shape of the rate curve corresponding to 120°C is slightly 524 different, which correlates with a larger Avrami exponent (~1.66 at 120°C) (Fig. 5). The value 525 of Avrami exponents is characteristic of the rate-limiting kinetic mechanism that operates at 526 527 each temperature (Redfern 1987). All calculated Avrami exponents in this work stand between those defined by Hancock and Sharp (1972) for first-order and higher-order processes. 528 However, it is important to keep into mind that Hancock and Sharp (1972) studied solid-state 529 transformations, while the replacement of anhydrite by calcium phosphate phase takes place 530 mediated by the presence of a fluid phase. Several authors have interpreted changes in the 531 value of the Avrami exponent with temperature as reflecting a balance between changes in the 532 solubilities of the primary and secondary phases combined with changes that affect mass 533

534 transport processes (Zhao et al. 2009; Altree-Williams et al. 2019). The solubility of anhydrite and apatite decrease with increasing temperature. However, this decrease follows a different 535 trend depending on the phase (Gregory et al. 1974; McDowell et al. 1977; Otálora and García-536 Ruiz 2014; Ilnl database from PHREEQC code). Moreover, in the temperature range of the 537 experiments the solubility of β -TCP shows a positive dependence with temperature. These 538 differences in solubility evolution may be reflected by the Avrami exponent. Anhydrite 539 phosphation does not only involve the dissolution of anhydrite to form Hap. β-TCP 540 precipitation is metastable and, as the reaction progresses, β -TCP dissolves to form Hap. The 541 542 formation of β -TCP and its transformation into Hap may also weigh differently on the overall kinetics of the replacement depending on the reaction temperature. Reported values of the 543 empirical activation energy of β -TCP dissolution are around 16.3 kJ/mol, which is much 544 smaller a value than that of the activation energy for the dissolution of anhydrite and very 545 close to the activation energy for the diffusion of dissolved calcium (Bohner et al. 1997). 546 547 Although its activation energy is small, the influence of β -TCP dissolution may sufficiently influence the kinetics of Hap formation as to explain changes in the Avrami exponent. 548 Moreover, the β -TCP into Hap transformation differently affect textural features of the 549 550 reacted samples depending on the temperature. After complete replacement of anhydrite by 551 calcium phosphate, β -TCP content is highest in samples reacted at 120°C (~20%), followed by those reacted at 150°C (~13%). Given the very different morphology of β -TCP crystals 552 553 compared to those of hydroxyapatite as well as the slightly larger molar volume of the former, differences in porosity and pores arrangement may further explain small kinetics changes at 554 different reaction temperatures (Putnis et al. 2005; Jonas et al. 2013; Putnis 2015; Pedrosa et 555 al. 2017). 556

557

558 Implications

559 In this work we have analysed the kinetics of the replacement of anhydrite single crystals by mixtures of the calcium phosphates phases, β -TCP and Hap, *via* a dissolution-precipitation 560 reaction that takes place under hydrothermal conditions (from 120 to 200°C). The fitting of 561 the experimental results to both, the Avrami equation and the isoconversional method yields 562 experimental activation energies, Ea, around 40 kJ/mol. This value is similar to that 563 564 determined by Altree-Williams et al. (2019) for the carbonation of anhydrite, which is ratelimited by anhydrite dissolution. However, Avrami exponents stand between those defined 565 by Hancock and Sharp (1972) for first-order and higher-order processes. We interpret that this 566 567 apparent contradiction reflects the complexity of coupled dissolution-precipitation reactions, whose kinetics is modulated by a number of factors, including the dissolution rate of the 568 primary phase, the volume, connectivity and permeability of the porosity formed during the 569 replacement, the precipitation rate of the secondary phase(s) and the textural evolution of the 570 latter. In the case under consideration, we conclude that there exists a competition between 571 the nucleation and growth of β -TCP and Hap at early stages of the replacement, which last 572 longer the lower the reaction temperature is. Due to the very different morphological features 573 of β -TCP and Hap crystals, this competition strongly influences the texture of the replacement, 574 575 its pores arrangement and, thereby, mass transfer from and to the interfacial fluid, emphasizing 576 the important role of metastable precursor phases and Ostwald ripening processes in defining the overall kinetics of coupled dissolution-precipitation reactions. The results of this study 577 578 indicated that the replacement of sedimentary rock-forming minerals during diagenesis is a feasible mechanism for the formation of some calcium phosphate accumulations in 579 sedimentary basins. In this study anhydrite single crystals were used. Anhydrite sedimentary 580 rocks are polycrystalline materials that consist of grains bounded by differently oriented 581 crystal surfaces. The reactivity of these surfaces may differ from that of the anhydrite cleavage 582 surfaces. Moreover, the presence of differently oriented crystal surfaces may facilitate the 583

584 epitactic growth of the product phases on the parent phase substrate. It is well stablished that the formation of epitactic overgrowths contributes to passivate the substrate and commonly 585 hinders the progress of replacement reactions (Rodríguez-Blanco et al. 2007; Forjanes et al. 586 2020a). On the other hand, the network of grain boundaries in rocks facilitates fluid infiltration 587 and provides an increased reactive surface compared to single crystal, which may influence 588 589 the reaction mechanism (Jonas et al. 2013, 2014). Future experimental work using anhydrite evaporitic rock samples will help to elucidate this influence. The results of this study also shed 590 light on the mechanisms involved in the removal and immobilization of an important 591 592 pollutant, P, by mineral surfaces. Due to the main role of P in the life cycle, the scarcity of this element in the Earth's crust and its ability to pollute soils, sediments and ground and 593 running waters, developing methods for the recovery of P through the precipitation of 594 phosphate phases on the surface of pre-existing minerals would have an outstanding 595 importance. The results of this study together to further experimental work using 596 597 polycrystalline samples and fluids with P concentrations closer to those found in natural environments can contribute to reach this goal. 598

599

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Figure 1. (a) X-ray powder diffraction patterns showing the mineralogical evolution of the replacement of anhydrite by calcium phosphates after hydrothermal interaction experiments carried out at 120°C at different reaction times. The reflections of anhydrite, hydroxyapatite and β -TCP were marked with squares, triangles and circles, respectively. (b) % calcium phosphates, calculated by Rietveld refinement, against reaction time.





Figure 2. Raman spectra and SEM images of cross-section of partially replaced anhydrite samples for 12 h and 24 h at 150°C. The main vibrational bands of SO42- identified (a) in the core of anhydrite sample reacted (b) match well with anhydrite. The main vibrational bands of PO43- (c, e and g) identified in the rim (d and h) and core (f) of reacted samples corresponds to hydroxyapatite. The broad band at 949 cm-1 and the presence of the band at 1045 cm-1 (d) are characteristic of β -TCP. SEM micrographs of the reacted samples show the position where the spectra were measured.

Fig. 3



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Figure 3. SEM micrographs of anhydrite (Anh) reacted with 2M (NH4)2HPO4 aqueous 822 solution at different temperatures and reaction times. (a) After 3 h at 150°C a cross cut section 823 image shows the unreacted anhydrite core and the two calcium phosphates that can be 824 distinguished, β -tricalcium phosphate (β -TCP) and hydroxyapatite (Hap). Hydroxyapatite is 825 clearly more abundant and is growing in elongated hexagonal needle-like crystals that are 826 arranged perpendicular to the unreacted anhydrite core and β-TCP shows an euhedral habit. 827 (b) At higher temperatures and shorter reaction times (200°C and 2 h), β –TCP appears with 828 dissolution features and at the same time the development of smaller and thinner 829 hydroxyapatite crystals from β –TCP faces. 830

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Figure 4. SEM micrographs of cross-sections surfaces showing the anhydrite replacement by calcium phosphates after 12 hours of reaction at temperatures of 120 (a), 150 (b), 180 (c) and 200 (d).



Figure 5. Fraction of calcium phosphates replacing anhydrite crystals against the reaction timefor each isothermal experiments. The lines are fitted to the Chapman equation.



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Figure 6. Plot of the calcium phosphates transformed fraction (y) versus time. From the slope and the intercept, Avrami rate low parameters (n and k) are determined.



Figure 7. Linear fitting of the rate constant K versus the reciprocal of temperature (expressedin Kelvin).



Figure 8: Experimental data of the time $(\ln t_y)$ for several fractions (Y=40, 60 and 80%) of

transformed anhydrite versus 1/T. The slope of the fitting straight lines corresponds to E_a/R .

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Figure 9: X-ray powder diffraction patterns showing the mineralogical evolution after complete replacement of anhydrite at 120°C. The amount of β -TCP continues to decrease with time.

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120°C				150°C				180°C				200°C			
t (h)	% Anh	% β-TCP	% Hap	t (h)	% Anh	% β-TCP	% Hap	t (h)	% Anh	% β-TCP	% Hap	t (h)	% Anh	% β-TCP	% Hap
6	91.7		8.3	3	78.5	3.2	18.3	2	73.5	12.9	13.6	2	58.8	27.1	14.1
12	75	5.2	19.8	6	48.4	20.4	31.3	4	40.3	21.9	37.9	4	26.8	6.6	66.7
24	41.9	20.6	37.5	8	41	22.5	36.5	6	20	16.7	63.3	6	8.9	4.4	86.7
36	11.5	29.9	58.6	12	19.8	21.1	59.2	8	8.2	7.7	84.2	10	0	0	100
48	9.5	17.2	73.3	20	0	13.5	86.5	10	6.1	3.9	90				
72		20.6	79.4					12	4.1	2	93.9				
								14	0	0	100				

* R_{wp} is approximately 10% in all refinements.

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Table 1. Calculated transformation (% calcium phosphates) calculated by Rietveld refinement of X-ray diffraction patterns during hydrothermal
 experiment.