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Yalin Uluaydin
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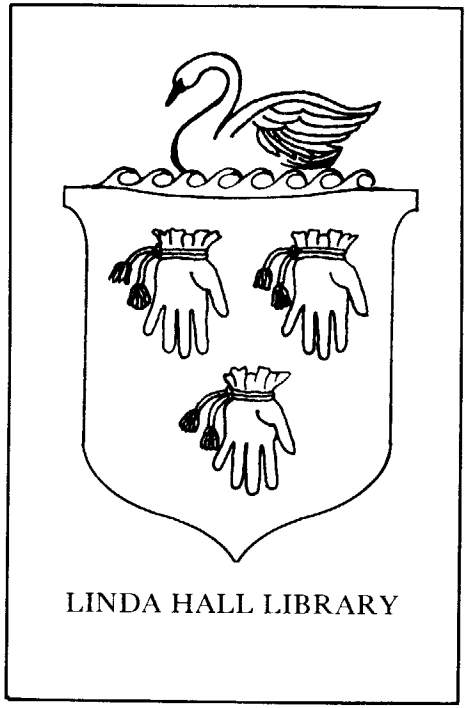

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Appendix

References:

[1] ASTM C 880 - 96 Standard Test Method for Flexural Strength of Dimension Stone, American Society for Testing and Materials, Easton MD, 1996.

[2] ASTM C 1352 - 96 Standard Test Method for Flexural Modulus of Elasticity of Dimension Stone, American Society for Testing and Materials, Easton MD, 1996.

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Laboratory Evaluation of Building Stone Weathering

Seymour A. Bortz,[1] Bernhard Wonneberger[2]

Abstract

Dimension stone is among the most durable materials, but the process of weathering has shown that some types of stone, even of the same variety, are more durable than others. At present there is little information available about the durability of dimension stone on a building facade. Designers generally select a particular stone for its aesthetic qualities, with casual reference to basic parameters such as porosity, pore size, moisture absorption, and other critical physical and chemical parameters. Generally, when there is reference to weathering, the recommendation is to inspect another building with the same variety of stone. The recommendation does not consider the fact that stone, being a natural material, can vary considerably, even from one place in a quarry to another. Thus, in addition to observing weathering history in the field, we must determine how rock weathering can be recreated in the laboratory.

This paper attempts to provide background regarding the environmental processes that cause stone weathering in the field, such as acid rain (chemical), thermal (temperature changes), and freeze-thaw of absorbed water. We compare laboratory to field data that indicates accelerated durability testing can provide reliable information to long-term behavior of dimension stone.

Introduction

Natural building stones are subjected to a variety of weathering conditions, both natural and man-made. Under these conditions, durability depends upon the stone's physical and chemical nature. Weathering of natural building stone consists of the reaction to environmental conditions within the body of the stone. It is the surface of

[1]Senior Consultant, Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates., Inc., 330 Pfingsten Road., Northbrook, IL 60062-2095
[2]Senior Architect, Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates., Inc., 330 Pfingsten Road., Northbrook, IL 60062-2095

the stone that is subjected to water and atmospheric gases. Weathering reactions are controlled by water and the natural gases dissolved in it (mainly O_2 and CO_2 and the human produced gases SO_2 and NO) that may penetrate the stone under various conditions. Weathering rates are influenced by temperature, moisture, organic acids, and dissolved carbon dioxide. The average rainfall is a major controlling factor of the weathering rate. The rain presents the dynamic for attack of the structure of the stone. This factor, in combination with the effects of our contemporary industrial society, accelerates natural weathering processes through elevated pollutant concentrations on the stone surface. Acid pollutants, in both air and rainfall, are recognized as serious hazards to carbonate rocks, such as limestone and marble, that are used in construction of major buildings. Silicate rocks and granite are affected by these acid pollutants to a lesser degree. However, even silicate rocks may be seriously affected by some acids and by alkalis. Elevated temperatures, or rapid temperature cycles, not necessarily cyclic freezing, affect differential volume changes of mineral grains. Temperature will accelerate solution of the carbonate minerals, while frost will cause damage to both carbonate and silicate stones.

Damage from frost is due to expansion of the freezing water. The structure of stone contains connected pores that can transfer water through the stone unit. Water entering the structure of the stone is an important consideration in this process. Rain, high humidity, and condensation are important factors in this weathering process. The water-filled pores exert forces against the pore walls by expanding water from ice crystallization during freezing. These pores may also contain clays, some of which may expand when wet. The swelling of expansive clay minerals when wet or by osmotic forces due to differential concentrations of dissolved material will put pressure against the pore walls. The outward forces of the expansion produce tensile stresses in the stone structure. Therefore, the tensile strength of the stone is of greater importance than the compressive strength with regard to freeze-thaw durability. For brittle material such as stone, the compressive strength is generally 10 to 15 times greater than the tensile strength.

Variation of Dimension Stone Used for Building Facades

This section will give some background regarding the natural weathering of granite, marble, limestone, and sandstone. It is important to understand the differing characteristics of the various types of stone that are available. These characteristics affect the behavior of the stone material under natural weathering conditions.

Limestone is a rock of sedimentary origin, composed principally of calcium carbonate (calcite) or the double carbonate of calcium and magnesium (dolomite). Many limestones are formed of shells or altered shell fragments. Oolitic limestone, a popular building stone, consists of cemented rounded grains of calcite, generally less than 2 mm (5/64 in.) in diameter. Some limestones have varying amounts of other material, such as quartz sand or clay. These materials are mixed with the carbonate

minerals. The carbonate materials will dissolve when exposed to acidic water or to water undersaturated with calcium.

Travertine is a variety of limestone usually precipitated from solution in ground waters and surface waters. When travertine occurs in hard, compact, extensive beds, it can be quarried and used as an attractive building stone. It is generally variegated gray, white, or buff, with irregularly-shaped pores distributed throughout.

Geologically, marble is a metamorphic rock formed by the recrystallization of the limestone or dolomite when subjected to high heat and pressure. Commercial marble includes all crystalline rocks composed predominantly of calcite and dolomite that can be polished to a reflective surface. It also includes serpentinite, which is not a carbonate rock. Thus, in addition to geological marble, commercial marble includes many crystalline limestones, travertine and serpentinite. In the metamorphic process, original sedimentary features, such as fossils, are usually destroyed, and the bedding planes are replaced by compositional layering (veins). The original calcite is recrystallized in an interlocking mosaic texture that provides the beauty a designer seeks for interior or exterior finishes.

Sandstone is a consolidated cemented sand sedimentary rock deposit. It has a distinctly granular texture with various cementing materials, including silica, iron oxides, and calcite. Enough voids generally remain in the rock to give it considerable permeability and porosity. (Commercially used sandstone is usually a sediment consisting almost entirely of quartz grains, 1 to 2 mm (1/32 to 5/64 in.) in diameter with various types of cementing material.) This allows the stone to readily absorb and confine water where it can freeze in colder weather.

Slate is a metamorphosed rock derived from argillaceous (clay) sediments consisting of extremely fine-grained quartz, mica, and other platy minerals. Slate possesses an excellent parallel cleavage that allows the rock to be split into thin, smooth-surfaced slabs with relative ease. The color of slate is generally determined by the oxidation state of pyrite (iron) or the presence of graphite. The cleavage planes are relatively weak in tension parallel to the planes. Water can enter and travel along these planes and later freeze in colder weather.

Commercial granite includes most rocks of igneous origin formed by solidification from molten rock beneath the earth's crust. True granites consist of feldspars and quartz, with varying amounts of other minerals such as mica and hornblende. These minerals are in an interlocking and granular texture with locked-in stresses. Each variety of mineral behaves differently when subjected to the same environmental conditions i.e. differential thermal stresses.

Role of Chemical Weathering

Rainfall which enters the pores in the rock is a controlling factor of the weathering rate. Material can be dissolved by percolating water solutions or by the chemical decomposition of the stone. The amount of CO_2 in the water causes the aggressiveness of the water that can dissolve the stone. Weathering reactions also depend on temperature. Higher temperatures increase thermal agitation. Hence, such reactions are more magnified in the tropical areas than in colder temperature zones. In desert areas, the stone is hot but not subject to the intense action of liquid water weathering, so chemical weathering does not develop.

Table 1 shows the mean lifetime of 1 mm (1/32 in.) of unweathered stone when it is subjected to environmental weathering. These results show that in a cold, temperate, or tropical humid climate, the average rainfall (i.e., water rising) probably controls the rate of weathering.

Table 1. Mean lifetime of 1 mm (1/32 in.) of unweathered stone [1]

Stone Type	Climate	Lifetime
Acid (Light-colored igneous granite)	tropical semi-arid tropical humid temperate humid cold humid	65 to 200 years 20 to 70 years 41 to 250 years 35 years
Metamorphic (Marble, slate, etc.)	temperate humid	33 years
Basic (Dark-colored igneous granite)	temperate humid tropical humid	68 years 40 years
Ultrabasic	tropical humid	21 to 35 years
Sedimentary	arid-semiarid all others	50 to 100 years highly variable

Rates of silicate weathering are more difficult to evaluate because too many factors are involved which may influence the process. Stone exposed to polluted air may show signs of incipient weathering by undesirable discoloring, loss of polish and hardness of feldspars and ferro-magnesium silicates. There are estimates that there is a 2 to 2 ½ times increase of the weathering rate by solubilization and hydrolysis with each temperature increase of 10°C (50°F). The weathering rate can increase nearly 20 to 40 times in tropical moist areas.[2]

There have been observations that 10 mm (13/32 in.) of a limestone surface has been lost over a 300-year period of natural weathering, with about the same loss of a marble surface over a 150-year period. Sandstone with feldspar and mica as impurities will lose about 2.5 mm (5/64 in.) over 200 years, while almost pure quartz sandstone will remain sharp and clear over the same period.[3]

Temperature Effects on Weathering

Weathering can also be caused by the difference of thermal expansion of the minerals that constitute the various stones. Volumetric or linear expansion of the different mineral materials that comprise the same stone mass can cause microcracking of the stone when heated in direct sunlight. Temperatures as high as 82°C to 88°C (180°F to 190°F) have been measured on dark stone surfaces. All minerals expand with increasing temperature, however, they expand to different degrees. Quartz expands about four times more than feldspars and twice as much as hornblende. Quartz is considered the most critical mineral under conditions of heating of granites and quartzitic sandstones. When quartz expands during heating, it exerts pressure against the surrounding crystals. These stresses can cause microcracking in the granite, lowering the strength and allowing other weathering phenomena, both chemical and freezing, to accelerate the disintegration processes. Figure 1 indicates the loss in compressive strength of granite when heated up to a temperature of 93°C (200°F).

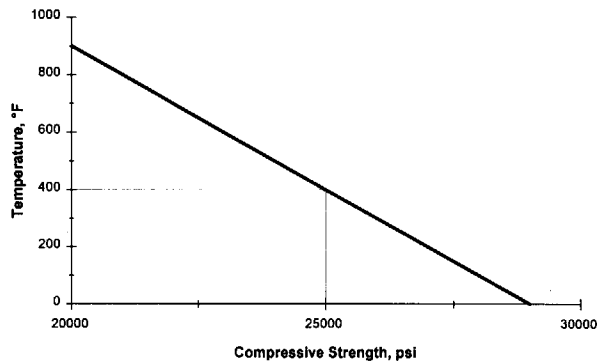

Figure 1. Loss in compressive strength of granite when heated.[4]

Individual stone crystals will have different expansion properties for each axis orientation, as shown in Figure 2. Calcite exhibits linear thermal expansion parallel to the C-axis of about 0.2 percent, but contracts about 0.1 percent perpendicular to the C-axis. The differing expansive rates of calcite cause microcracking in the structure of the stone. This disruption is manifested as increased volume and absorption of the stone during heating and cooling phases plus loss in strength. Stone that is low in quartz and carbonate minerals will expand very little with increases in temperature.

Another cause of stone disruption due to temperature changes is the differential expansion of trapped salts in the pores of the stone. Trapped salt can result from natural exposure due to high salt content in precipitation along coastal regions or from dissolved materials, (pollutants) in the environment. Figure 3 presents the thermal expansion of calcite, quartz, granite, and "rock" salt (halite). As the temperature increases from 0°C to 70°C (32° to 180°F), halite expands 0.5 percent compared with 0.2 percent for granite and about 0.1 percent for calcite. Small as these differences may appear, it is believed that expansion of absorbed salts combined with other factors can lead to stone decay.

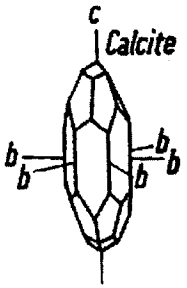

Figure 2. Calcite crystal.

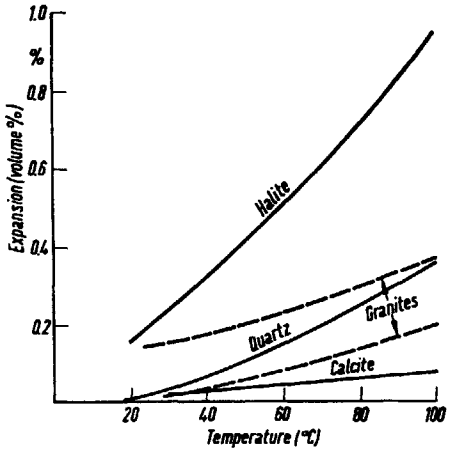

Figure 3. Thermal expansion of calcite, quartz, granite, and "rock" salt (halite).[5]

Effect of Freezing on Stone

Damage to stone results when temperatures are below freezing and any absorbed water forms ice crystals. The expansive crystallization pressure is very important as it produces tensile forces on the stone structure.

In addition to the expansion of the ice crystals, water itself expands just before it reaches a solid state. The ice volume is at a maximum and the density at a minimum of 4°C (39°F) (from 1,000 kg/m^3 (62.4 lb/ft^3) in an unfrozen state to 916 kg/m^3 (57.2 lb/ft^3) in a frozen state). However, the density of water also increases with increasing outward pressure when it is in a confined space. This increase in density is similar to that of unconfined ice, but somewhat greater.

Need for Laboratory Evaluation

The introductory sections of this paper were presented to provide a background for the design of a durability test procedure. This laboratory procedure has been used to develop information presented in the latter sections of this paper.

In the past, people have claimed that stone is "as hard as rock" and, therefore, durability testing is not necessary. However, as we have already shown, different types of stone will have varied behavioral characteristics when subjected to natural weathering. The long-term behavior can also be determined by using an accelerated test. The designer needs to know whether large blocks or thin slabs are to be used. Structural considerations for large blocks are mainly compressive strength. Because of the large mass of the stone units, minor loses of thickness and property changes due to weathering have a negligible effect on the structural capabilities of massive stone. However, structural considerations for thin stone include panel size, flexural strength, and weatherability. Loss of strength and small changes in thickness can have a major effect on the long-term behavior of thin stone facades.

A good laboratory test must consider environmental factors, such as temperature, air pollution, and rain. In addition, the designer must consider not only wind loads, but the fact that the stone can vary from quarry to quarry, from one area within a single quarry to another, and possibly within a single quarry block. Therefore, it is important to test the specific supply of stone for a large building project. Stone used successfully on a similar project in the past may not have the same physical or mechanical properties for the current project.

Based on previously discussed environmental effects on the properties of stone, we have developed a procedure that considers the following environmental factors: acid rain, temperature change, and freeze-thaw cycling. The test procedure consists of placing a stone specimen with minimum dimensions of 32 mm (1 1/4 in.) thick, 102 mm (4 in.) wide and 381 mm (15 in.) long in a 4 pH sulfurous acid solution. The specimens

are immersed 6 mm (1/4 in.) to 10 mm (3/8 in.) deep in the solution in a stainless steel pan. Each specimen is also set on 6 mm (1/4 in.) diameter rollers to assure the stone face is subjected to the action of the bath solution. A fresh solution is used after each 25 cycle interval. The specimens are then subjected to 100 cycles between -23°C to +77°C (-10°F to +170°F). Before the test procedure is started, the test specimens are evaluated for dynamic Young's Modulus of Elasticity (sonic modulus) using ASTM Procedure C 215, "Test Method for Fundamental Transverse, Longitudinal and Torsional Frequencies of Concrete Specimens." The sonic modulus testing is repeated after every 25 freeze-thaw cycles to provide a nondestructive method of monitoring the changes in strength of the specimens. Figure 4 shows the relationship of sonic modulus to flexural strength developed from marble specimens. There is a good correlation at each measured cycle between strength and sonic modulus.

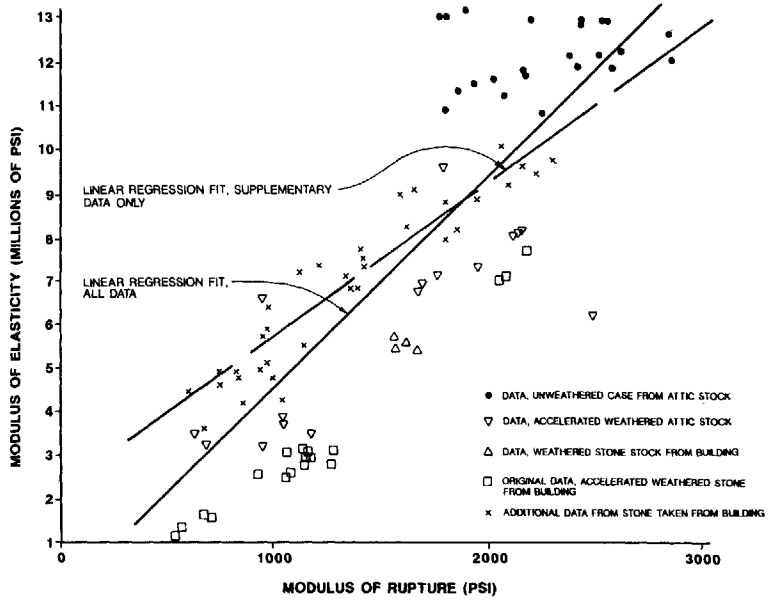

Figure 4. Relationship of sonic modulus to flexural strength developed from marble specimens.[6]

Laboratory Data

Table 2 provides stone durability test data obtained using the test procedure described above at the Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc. (WJE) test laboratory over a period of ten years. Results from granite, marble, and limestone are presented. Note how stone types of the same classification vary, including stones of the same area and

name. Most of the stones indicate strength changes during the durability testing. Table 3 shows how stones from different blocks of the same quarry can vary. Material from one quarry block withstands the duration of the test while material from another block does not. These results show the need for testing several different blocks of the same quarry for use on a single building project.

Table 2. Summary of Durability Test Results of Various Dimension Stones

STONE	FINISH AND THICKNESS	INITIAL FLEXURAL STRENGTH kg/cm² (psi)	FLEXURAL STRENGTH AFTER TESTING kg/cm² (psi)	PERCENT LOSS OF STRENGTH
Spanish Pink Granite	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) Thermal Finish	94.6 wet (1,345)	Samples Fractured	100%
Unidentified Granite	-	115.3 (1,640)	88.6 (1,260)	23%
		115.3 (1,640)	109.1 (1,552)	5%
Moonlight Granite	33 mm (1 5/16 in.) Thermal Finish	74.5 wet (1,060)	66.0 wet (939)	11.4%
		80.5 dry (1,145)	70.4 dry (1,001)	12.6%
		74.5 wet (1,060)	58.6 wet (834)	21.3%
Stoney Creek Granite (Pink Granite from Bramford, CT)	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) Light Thermal Finish	79.4 wet (1,130)	44.6 wet (635)	43.8%
Mount Airy Granite (Fine-grained, white domestic granite)	51 mm (2 in.) roughened finish	98.4 wet (1,400)	81.1 wet (1,154)	17.3%
			86.0 wet (1,223)	12.3%
			89.3 wet (1,270)	9.0%
Venetian Gold Granite	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) honed	68.4 dry ∥ (973) 102.8 dry ⊥ (1,462)	54.1 dry ∥ (770) 100.7 dry ⊥ (1,433)	21% 2%
Baltic Brown Granite	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) honed	95.4 dry ∥ (1,357) 112.2 dry ⊥ (1,596)	76.3 dry ∥ (1,086) 98.9 dry ⊥ (1,407)	20% 12%

Table 2. Summary of Durability Test Results of Various Dimension Stones (Continued...)

STONE	FINISH AND THICKNESS	INITIAL FLEXURAL STRENGTH kg/cm² (psi)	FLEXURAL STRENGTH AFTER TESTING kg/cm² (psi)	PERCENT LOSS OF STRENGTH
Rockville Beige Granite	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) honed	105.2 dry ∥ (1,496) 98.4 dry ⊥ (1,399)	a. 88.4 dry ∥ (1,257) b. 84.4 dry ∥ (1,201) a. 83.8 dry ⊥ (1,192) b. 76.6 dry ⊥ (1,089)	a. 16% b. 20% a. 15% b. 22%
Calibri Granite	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) Polished Thermal	128.3 dry ∥ (1,825) 190.3 dry ⊥ (2,707) 133.0 dry ∥ (1,891) 176.5 dry ⊥ (2,510)	112.5 dry ∥ (1,600) 184.1 dry ⊥ (2,619) 136.8 dry ∥ (1,946) 173.1 dry ⊥ (2,462)	12% 3% 3% gain 2%
Massangis Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	112.0 dry (1,593) 79.0 dry ⊥ (1,124) 69.7 dry ∥ (992)	95.5 dry (1,359) 71.1 dry ⊥ (1,012) 54.3 dry ∥ (773)	15% 10% 22%
Chandore Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	149.1 dry ⊥ (2,121)	125.8 dry ⊥ (1,790)	16%
Valdenot Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	68.8 dry ⊥ (979) 81.0 dry ∥ (1,152)	51.9 dry ⊥ (738) 83.7 dry ∥ (1,190)	25% 3% gain
Luget Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	65.9 dry ⊥ (938) 58.1 dry ∥ (826)	0 dry ⊥ 0 dry ∥	100% 100%
Rosal Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	81.5 dry ⊥ (1,159)	0 dry ⊥	100%
Valders Buff Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	109.0 dry ⊥ (1,551) 126.7 dry ∥ (1,802)	122.8 dry ⊥ (1,746) 108.1 dry ∥ (1,537)	13% gain 15%
Valders Dove White Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	147.2 dry ⊥ (2,094) 125.4 dry ∥ (1,783)	126.4 dry ⊥ (1,798) 100.2 dry ∥ (1,426)	14% 20%
Valders Gray Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	178.2 dry ⊥ (2,535) 147.6 dry ∥ (2,100)	162.8 dry ⊥ (2,315) 115.9 dry ∥ (1,648)	9% 22%

Table 2. Summary of Durability Test Results of Various Dimension Stones (Continued...)

STONE	FINISH AND THICKNESS	INITIAL FLEXURAL STRENGTH kg/cm² (psi)	FLEXURAL STRENGTH AFTER TESTING kg/cm² (psi)	PERCENT LOSS OF STRENGTH
Dolomitic Limestone from France	32 mm (1 1/4 in.)	156.3 (2,223)	120.9 (1,719)	23%
		61.2 (870)	38.8 (552)	37%
Indiana Limestone	64 mm (2 ½ in.)	65.6 (933)	59.3 (843)	9.6%
Valders Dolomitic Limestone	30 mm (1 3/16 in.)	148.0 (2,105)	153.3 (2,180)	4% gain
Pierre De Lens Limestone	51 mm (2 in.)	89.5 dry ⊥ (1,273) 59.3 dry ∥ (843)	68.1 dry ⊥ (969) 45.5 dry ∥ (647)	24% 23%
White Marble from Carrara, Italy after 15 years of exterior exposure	32 mm (1 1/4 in.) polished	64.0 wet (911)	38.0 wet (540)	41%
			41.4 wet (589)	35%
			59.7 wet (849)	7%
Georgia Golden Vein Marble	25 mm (1 in.) honed	79.0 dry ∥ (1,124) 104.3 dry ⊥ (1,484)	a. 74.6 dry ∥ (1,061) b. 76.4 dry ∥ (1,087) a. 96.6 dry ⊥ (1,374) b. 97.3 dry ⊥ (1,384)	a. 6% b. 3% a. 7% b. 7%
Marquis Gray Danby Vermont Marble	30 mm (1 3/16 in.) honed	60.5 dry ∥ (861) 99.5 dry ⊥ (1,415)	54.1 dry ∥ (769) 46.1 dry ⊥ (656)	11% 5%
White Carrara Marble	25 mm (1 in.) honed	154.4 dry (2,196)	112.0 dry (1,593) 90.6 dry (1,289)	27% 41%

∥ Tested parallel to the bedding plane or rift

⊥ Tested perpendicular to the bedding plane or rift

Table 3. Summary of Durability Test Results for Limestone Removed from the Same Quarry

Block A Tested Perpendicular to Bedding Plane			
Cycles	0	100	Change
Dry	81.5 kg/cm^2	Unable to test	-100%
Wet	43.2 kg/cm^2	Unable to test	-100%
Block B Tested Perpendicular to Bedding Plane			
Dry	178.2 kg/cm^2	162.8 kg/cm^2	-9%
Wet	172.4 kg/cm^2	147.5 kg/cm^2	-14%

Figure 5 shows the change in sonic modulus that occurred when granite was subjected to the 4 pH sulfurous acid bath. Exposure to acid bath cycles apparently has little or no effect on the granite. However, the temperature change does appear to cause differential expansion that breaks the bond between the mineral crystals and, by that, lowers the strength. Figure 6 is a similar curve for marble. The change in property is due to differential expansion and contraction of the individual calcite crystals, and some dissolving of the calcite. Although some calcite dissolves in the acid solution, this essentially neutralizes the acid. Figure 7 consists of curves for different limestones. The Massangi and Valders dolomitic limestones show no basic effect while the Indiana Limestone has a slight downturn at the end of 100 cycles indicating dissolving of the calcite.

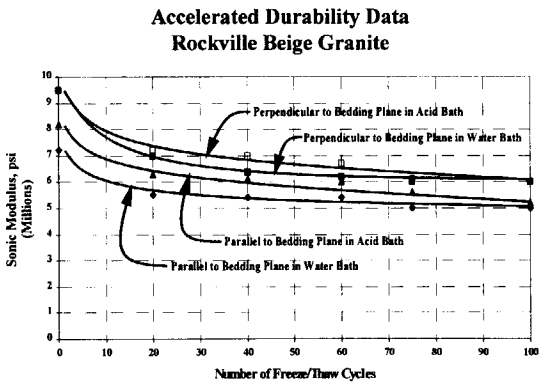

Figure 5. Accelerated durability test results for Rockville Beige Granite.

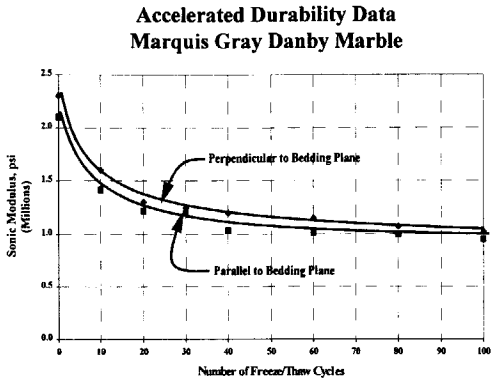

Figure 6. Accelerated durability test results for Marquis Gray Danby Marble.

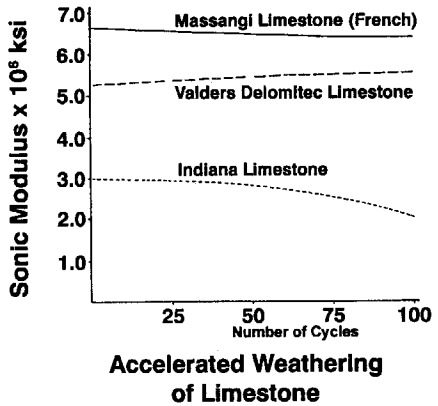

Figure 7. Accelerated durability test results for three different types of limestone.

Natural Weathering Studies

The durability test allows one to make comparisons between stones. However, there has been criticism that the durability test procedure has no relationship to natural weathering. Arguments also state that the test has no meaning for building projects that are in warmer climates. To counteract these comments, we have compared sonic modulus test results from stone subjected to natural weathering to sonic modulus test results determined from stone subjected to the durability test procedure. For warmer climates, the test procedure can be modified to cycle between +5°C and +77°C (+41°F and +170°F).

Thirty-five years ago, twelve domestic marbles were placed on the roof of a building located immediately south of the main business district in Chicago. The marbles were monitored quarterly over 8 years using sonic modulus testing. Figure 8 is a chart showing the results of this work, including the results for.Danby marble, indicated as "I" on the chart. Recently, we had an opportunity to perform durability tests on a second set of Danby marble. The previously shown Figure 6 presents the change in sonic modulus determined during these tests. Figure 9 presents the natural weathering and durability test curves shown in Figs. 6 and 8. These curves show 100 freeze-thaw cycles of durability testing can be considered equivalent to 6 or 8 years of natural weathering. Therefore, 12 to 16 freeze-thaw cycles would be equivalent to one year of natural weathering in a northern temperature environment. Our data from this work and similar additional work using naturally weathered stone from a building was compared with data obtained from durability testing of attic stock stone, (stone kept in reserve, but not exposed to weathering). This work indicated that real-time effects could be estimated from laboratory tests.

Field Studies

Evaluation of a 10-year-old marble-clad high-rise office building in Rochester, New York, permitted evaluation of actual strength degradation from natural weathering. Many panels from the building facade, and panels that had not been exposed to natural weathering, were provided for durability tests. This provided a large statistical population for data analysis. The data is summarized in the chart previously shown in Figure 4. The chart shows a correlation between modulus of elasticity and flexural strength. A weathering chart was plotted using the modulus of elasticity and flexural strength data, Figure 10. In this figure, the flexural strength chart has been superimposed over the elastic modulus chart.

The process of obtaining the curves shown is empirical. To provide guidance regarding the meaning of accelerated weathering, the data from weathered and unweathered stone had to be related in some manner. Data was plotted for elastic modulus vs. accelerated aging cycles for both the unweathered and weathered stone. They were analyzed such that the original elastic modulus and strength for the building weathered stone are close to being a tangent to the curve for elastic modulus and strength of attic stock subjected to the durability test. This occurred at approximately 160 cycles. Using these relationships, the conclusion was drawn that 160 cycles of accelerated weathering appear to be equivalent to 10 years of natural weathering on the building. Thus, 16 cycles were determined to be equivalent to one year of service life in upper state New York. While this cannot be considered a rigorous proof of the time relation of natural aging to accelerated aging, the empirical data from the laboratory and field observations indicate this is a reasonable approximation of what the designer can expect regarding changes in strength properties from natural weathering.

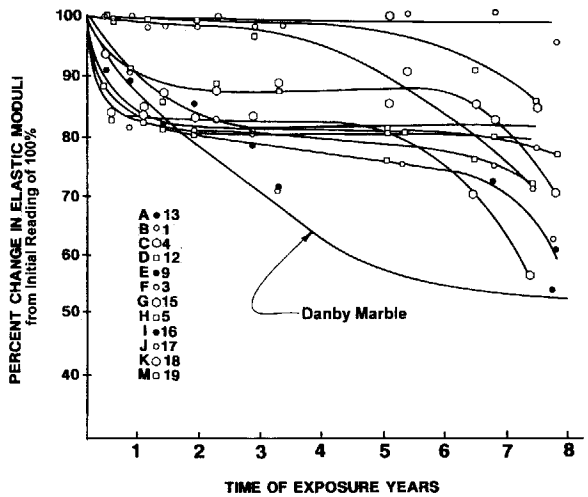

Figure 8. Chart showing natural weathering test results for twelve different domestic marbles.

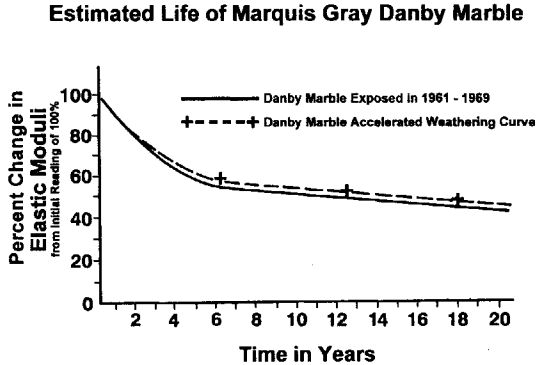

Figure 9. Natural weathering test results for Marquis Gray Danby Marble.

Using this technique, two other marble-clad buildings were also studied. A correlation between elastic modulus and strength was also determined, Figure 11. Composite curves for building weathered and attic stock were developed, Figs. 12 and 13. For the marble in Figure 12, 12 ½ cycles of accelerated weathering were found equivalent to one year of natural weathering on a building in Kansas City. For the marble in Figure 13, 13 cycles of accelerated weathering were seen to be equivalent to one year of natural weathering. The plot in Figure 13 is based on actual flexural

strength of the stone, not sonic modulus. Note the curves for sonic modulus are similar to the curves for flexural strength.

The three marbles tested indicate approximately 15 cycles of accelerated weathering is equal to one year of natural weathering on the buildings. All the data correlates with the rooftop test and laboratory accelerated weathering of the Danby marble previously discussed. The Danby data showed that changes in properties due to natural weathering and accelerated weathering are similar. Curves from testing stone from the buildings and laboratory accelerated weathering can be tied together so as to predict the number of cycles that will constitute one year of weathering.

Limited data has also been obtained for granite and limestone. The results of these tests have been similar to those obtained from the more extensive marble data. Figure 14 presents a summary of all the data we have for granite, marble, and limestone. In this figure, changes in properties of granite were plotted for 300 cycles, 500 cycles for marble and 200 cycles for limestone. Based on the data, approximately 13 cycles represent one year of natural weathering for granite, 12 ½ cycles represent one year for marble, and 12 cycles represent one year for limestone.

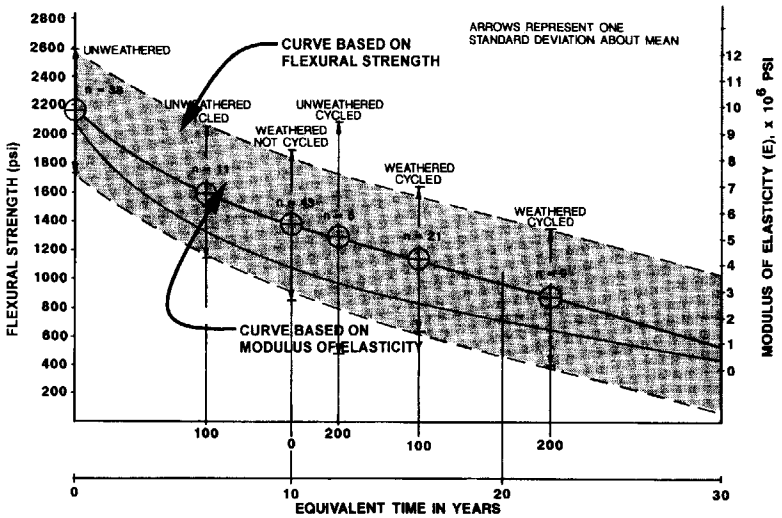

Figure 10. Relation of number of durability test cycles to years of natural weathering for Bianca White Carrara marble. n=number of specimens.

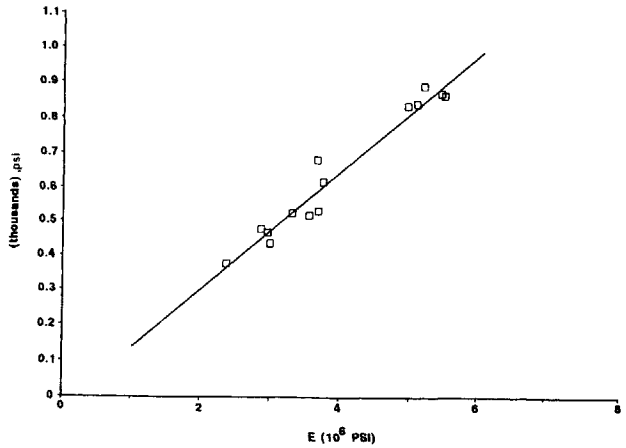

Figure 11. Modulus of elasticity (E) vs. flexural strength determined from marble specimens.

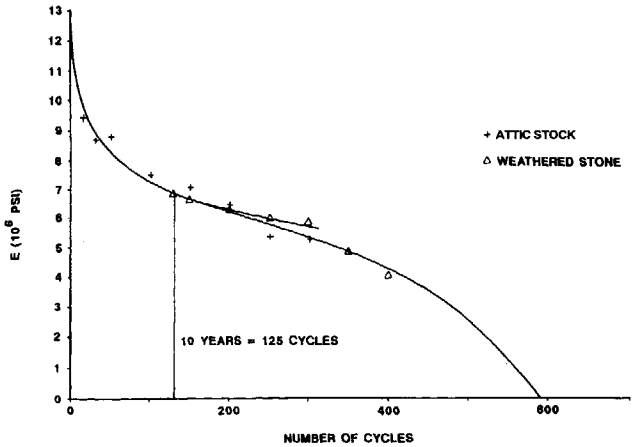

Figure 12. Number of durability test cycles vs. modulus of elasticity (E) determined from Georgia Golden Vein marble specimens.

We are currently exposing granite, marble and limestone specimens to natural weathering on the roof of a WJE building in Northbrook, Illinois, Figure 15. Figure 16 shows the sonic modulus curves determined after 1 ½ years of exposure. The curves can be compared with the data plotted in Figs. 5 through 7 for accelerated weathering. Note the similarity of the curves obtained during earlier accelerated weathering and the naturally weathered stone. These tests will be extended over a ten-year period.

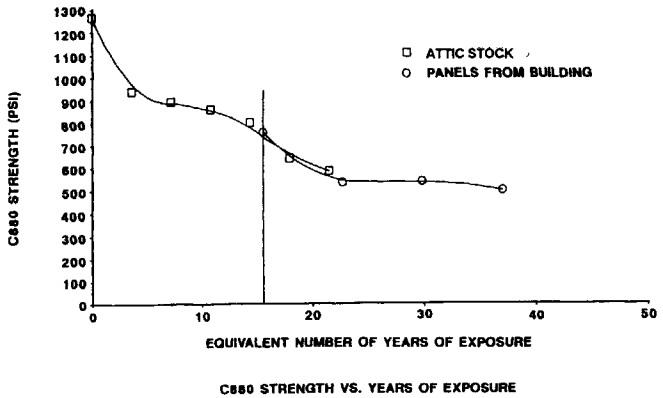

Figure 13. Comparison of durability test cycles to years of natural weathering determined from White Carrara marble specimens.

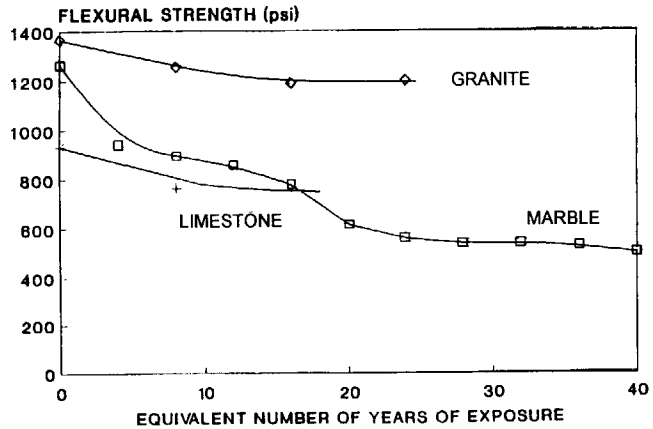

Figure 14. Flexural strength vs. years of natural weathering for marble, granite, and limestone.

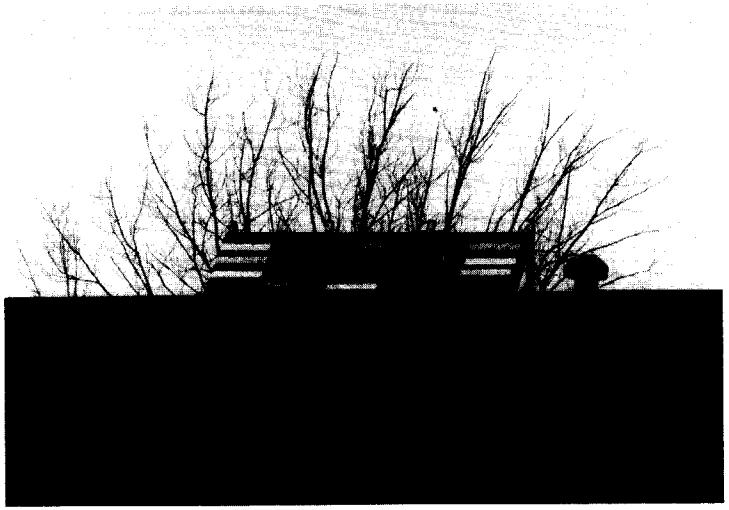

Figure 15. Stone test specimens exposed to natural weathering on roof.

Conclusions

The efforts described in this paper include the results from several years of durability (accelerated weathering) testing. These tests were performed to determine the long-term durability of thin stone to natural weathering. The accelerated weathering test procedure described in this paper will distinguish between a durable and less durable stone under natural weathering conditions. The procedure will also provide an indication of strength loss due to weathering. This data can affect the structural design for long-term reliability of thin stone panels on high-rise buildings.

The data obtained showed useful information can be obtained from thin stone specimens less than 50 mm (2 in.) subjected to the described accelerated aging test for at least 100 cycles. If comparison tests can be made using naturally weathered stone and unweathered stone, a relationship can be determined between number of cycles and time. The design can then be optimized by either increasing the thickness of the panel or reducing the unsupported span. These options will reduce load stresses and increase the service life of the stone.

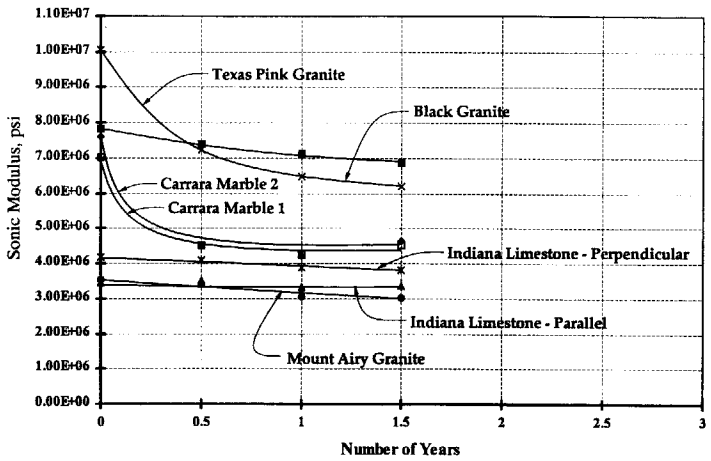

Figure 16. Number of years of natural weathering vs. modulus of elasticity (E) determined from various stone specimens on roof.

The weathering curves provided can be used for design by determining where the allowable working stress crosses the strength loss curve for the stone. When data for naturally weathered stone is not available, an estimated cycle per year can be used from the data in this paper. Assume 12 to 15 freeze-thaw cycles of the durability test procedure is equivalent to one year of natural weathering in a temperate climate.

We would like to acknowledge Mr. William G. Hime, Senior Consultant with Erlin, Hime Associates, (EHA) and Mr. Ross A. Martinek, Senior Petrographer with EHA, for their helpful review and comments in the preparation of this paper.

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(6) WJE in-house testing.

Edge Spalling In Thin Stone Cladding

James H. Larkin[1]

Abstract

Current trends toward the use of thinner and thinner natural stone as an exterior cladding material warrant new design considerations and demand higher levels of quality control and possibly new methods of fabrication.

A combination of the desires to reduce weight and cut budgets has driven the stone cladding industry into new territory in the last twenty years. It is now common for stones to be slabbed to a 3cm thickness, and in some cases to 2.5cm and less. In addition to becoming inherently more fragile, the reduced thickness leaves very little room for error in edge preparations. Kerf cuts and dowel pin holes must be fabricated with very tight precision. The author and his firm have observed dozens of stone-clad buildings in the last ten years with localized damage or spalling at the edges of individual pieces of stone. The spalls are typically semi-circular in shape and centered on the stone's anchors back to the structure. They have been observed in granite, marble and travertine (Figures 1 & 2) and have been observed domestically as well as on buildings in Southeast Asia.

In this paper, causes of this phenomenon are explored and the effects on the veneer's useful life are discussed. Several case studies are referenced in order to draw the following conclusion:

While some stone damage is service oriented, i.e., occurs during the life of the cladding after erection, it appears evident that a majority is related to anchor design, fabrication, handling, and/or installation procedures. Design emphasis for these thin veneers must shift from strictly analyzing the stone's free span to more closely considering the concentrated reactions at their support points.

[1]Senior Design Consultant, Curtain Wall Design and Consulting, 9101 LBJ Freeway, Suite 500, Dallas, Texas 75243