

PO₄ adsorption on the calcite surface modulates calcite formation and crystal size

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ABSTRACT

Calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) and particularly its stable phase, calcite, is of great geological significance in the deep carbon cycle since CaCO₃ from biomineralized shells and corals form sedimentary rocks. Calcite also attracts attention in medical science and pharmacy as a primary or intermediate component in biomaterials because it possesses excellent biocompatibility along with suitable physicochemical properties. Calcite blocks have already been used during surgical procedures as a bone substitute for reconstructing bone defects formed by diseases and injury. When producing CaCO₃ biomaterials and bioceramics, in particular, in vivo control of the size and polymorphic nature of CaCO₃ is required. In this study, we investigated the effects of PO₄ on calcite formation during the phase conversion of calcium sulfate anhydrate (CaSO₄, CSA), which is sometimes used as a starting material for bone substitutes because of its suitable setting ability. CSA powder was immersed in 2 mol/L Na₂CO₃ solution containing a range of PO₄ concentrations (0–60 mmol/L) at 40 °C for 3 days. The treated samples were investigated by X-ray diffraction, Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy, X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy, and thermal analysis. In addition, the fine structures of the treated samples were observed by field-emission scanning electron microscopy, and the specific surface area was measured. We found that PO₄, which is universally present in vivo, can modulate the calcite crystal size during calcite formation. A fluorescence study and calcite crystal growth experiments indicated that PO₄ adsorbs tightly onto the surface of calcite, inhibiting crystal growth. In the presence of high PO₄ concentrations, vaterite is formed along with calcite, and the appearance and stability of the CaCO₃ polymorphs can be controlled by adjusting the PO₄ concentration. These findings have implications for medical science and pharmacology, along with mineralogy and geochemistry.

Keywords: Calcite, morphology, phosphate, phase transformation, fabrication, calcium carbonate; Biomaterials—Mineralogy Meets Medicine

INTRODUCTION

Calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is of great geochemical significance due to its role in Earth's carbon cycle (Zeebe et al. 2008; Dasgupta and Hirschmann 2010; Swart 2015). Marine organisms such as corals and mollusks absorb huge amounts of CO₂ from the ocean and atmosphere to form CaCO₃ skeletons and shells (Beaufort et al. 2011; Takahashi et al. 2014; Swart 2015; Li et al. 2018). The remains of these organisms accumulate as sediments on the bottom of the ocean, where they become sedimentary rocks. This process helps to maintain Earth's climate and ocean chemistry (Zeebe et al. 2008; Swart 2015; Li et al. 2018).

Calcite, the most stable phase of CaCO₃, is an attractive material in cancer therapy and as a bone substitute because of its excellent biocompatibility (Guo et al. 2012; Magnabosco et al. 2015; Ishikawa et al. 2016). The chemical composition of calcite includes only Ca and CO₃, which are ordinary components of the human body, and well-formed calcite crystals. Both of these

properties are advantageous for drug carriers. In addition, calcite quickly dissolves under acidic conditions. Since the lactic acid in cancer cells causes the surrounding areas to become somewhat acidic (Gillies et al. 2004; Crayton and Tsourkas 2011; Longo et al. 2016), calcite could be used in cancer therapy to achieve selective drug release around cancer cells with minimum side effects.

In dentistry and orthopedics, calcite is also an attractive starting or intermediate material of carbonate apatite [CO₃Ap: Ca_{10-x}(PO₄)_{6-b}(CO₃)_c(OH)_{2d}], which is the primary inorganic component of bone as well as a new bone substitute. The in vivo properties of CO₃Ap are much better than those of conventional bone substitutes such as hydroxyapatite [HAp: Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂] (Ishikawa 2010; Fujisawa et al. 2018; Hara et al. 2018; Ishikawa et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2018). CO₃Ap cannot be fabricated via sintering because it decomposes at temperatures above 700 °C. Therefore, CO₃Ap, especially CO₃Ap blocks, is fabricated via dissolution/re-precipitation (Rey et al. 1989; Liu et al. 2015; Ishikawa et al. 2018) by immersing calcite in PO₄-containing solution (Sunouchi et al. 2012; Ishikawa et al. 2018).

However, for fabricating CO₃Ap blocks using the above method, it is mandatory to achieve a complete reaction. Since

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CO₃Ap formation is a surface-mediated reaction, calcite likely remains at some parts of the surface. Kasiptas et al. (2011) reported that for the hydrothermal treatment of millimeter-sized calcite single crystals at 200 °C for two weeks, calcite was converted to apatite only to the depth of several hundred micrometers from the calcite surface. To fabricate commercial bone substitutes, several sizes of CO₃Ap and calcite blocks, which are precursors to CO₃Ap, are required.

To fabricate bone substitute materials, the calcite, which is an intermediate material of CO₃Ap, has been synthesized from calcium sulfate via dissolution–precipitation phase conversion (Lowmunkong et al. 2007; Ishikawa et al. 2017). Calcium sulfate exhibits excellent molding properties such as self-setting ability, stable and partial sintering capability at high temperature, and high solubility (Partridge and White 1929; Sun et al. 2015). Furthermore, calcium sulfate is also used as a bone substitute (OsteoSet) because of its biocompatibility (Winn and Hollinger 2000; Pförringer et al. 2018). Therefore, calcium sulfate is a suitable precursor material for CO₃Ap bone substitute. During the phase conversion of calcium sulfate to calcite, developing synthesis method with a high yield is essential for novel CO₃Ap bone substitute.

Two authors of this manuscript (Y.S. and K.O.) have investigated how PO₄ affects CaCO₃ formation and dynamics based on crystal growth and mineralogy (Sugiura et al. 2013, 2014, 2016) on the basis of biomineralization. Even relatively low concentrations of PO₄ (PO₄/Ca < 1/1000) can inhibit CaCO₃ formation, especially the formation of metastable vaterite. However, the effects of PO₄ on calcite formation and, particularly, on calcite crystal size remain unclear. In this study, we investigated the effects of PO₄ on calcite formation during the phase conversion from calcium sulfate anhydrate [CSA: CaSO₄], which is sometimes used as a starting material of phase conversion for CO₃Ap bone substitute.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Phase conversion from CSA to calcium carbonate in various PO₄-containing solutions

All reagents were purchased from Wako Pure Inc., Japan. Calcium sulfate hemihydrate powder (CSH: CaSO₄·½H₂O) powder was burned at 800 °C for 12 h to fabricate CSA powder.

Na₂CO₃ and (NH₄)₂HPO₄ were dissolved in distilled water to make stock solutions of Na₂CO₃ (2.5 mol/L) and (NH₄)₂HPO₄ (0.1 mol/L). Na₂CO₃ solution (16 mL, 2.5 mol/L) and 0–4 mL of (NH₄)₂HPO₄ solution (0.1 mol/L) were mixed with various volumes of H₂O (0–4 mL) to obtain a total volume of 40 mL. The solution concentration was adjusted to 1.0 mol/L Na₂CO₃ and 0–60 mmol/L (NH₄)₂HPO₄.

CSA powder (1.36 g) was immersed in 40 mL of 2.0 mol/L Na₂CO₃ and 0–60 mmol/L (NH₄)₂HPO₄ solution. The mixtures were then treated at 40 °C for 3 days. The treated CSA powders were washed several times with distilled water and 99.5% ethanol and then dried at room temperature.

Material characterization

The phase compositions of the treated samples were evaluated by X-ray diffraction (XRD; MiniFlex600, Rigaku Co., Japan) at an acceleration voltage of 40 kV and a current of 15 mA using a Cu target. The 2θ step and range were 0.01° and 3–70°, respectively, and the scan rate was 5 °/min.

Chemical bonding in the samples was characterized by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR; Nicolet NEXUS670, ThermoFisher Scientific Co., U.S.A.) using a triglycine sulfate detector (32 scans, resolution = 2 cm^{−1}) with a GeSe attenuated total reflectance prism.

The specific surface areas of the samples were measured by low-temperature

nitrogen adsorption (NOVA1200e, Quantachrome Instruments Japan Co., Japan) using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method (Brunauer et al. 1938). The samples were evacuated overnight at room temperature, and nitrogen was introduced in 11 pressure steps ($P/P_0 = 0.05–0.30$) at a temperature of −196 °C.

The fine structures of the samples were observed by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM; JSM-6700F, JEOL Co., Japan) at an acceleration voltage of 5 kV. Before observation, the samples were sputter-coated with Os to prevent surface charge accumulation.

The particle size distribution of the samples was measured from SEM micrographs of each sample obtained using the ImageJ program (National Institute of Health–NIH, Maryland, U.S.A.). To estimate the dispersion correctly, we obtained micrographs from at least five different fields of view and more than 2000 particles for each sample.

The P(PO₄) contents of the samples were measured by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF; SEA2210, SII nanotechnology Co., Japan) at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV under vacuum conditions. The P(PO₄)/Ca ratio was calibrated using commercial reagents (calcium carbonate, dicalcium hydrogen phosphate dihydrate, and HAP).

The thermal stability of the samples was determined by thermogravimetry and differential thermal analysis (TG-DTA; ThermoPlus, TG8110, Rigaku Co., Japan). The heating rate was 10 °C/min up to 200 °C using Al₂O₃ as a standard. The heated samples for XRD measurements were obtained similarly as those obtained by the TG-DTA method.

Evaluation of PO₄^{2−} adsorption on the calcite surface

Flavin mononucleotide [FMN: C₁₇H₂₁N₄O₆P], a phosphate-bearing vitamin B₂ derivative (Iwaki Seiyaku Co., Japan), was used as a fluorescent PO₄ material.

The in situ observation system consisted of a homemade observation cell and a solution flow system, as described in Sugiura et al. (2014). Briefly, the observation cell comprised a glass slide and polypropylene tubes, which were positioned on a Si plate. To examine the adsorption behavior of FMN on the calcite surface, single-crystal Si wafers along the (001) face were also dipped into a 10 mmol/L solution of CaCl₂ and Na₂CO₃ for 2 h to form calcite crystals on the Si surface. The calcite-coated plates were subsequently washed in doubly distilled water and then dried.

The observation cell was placed on a fluorescence optical microscope (Olympus BX-53, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a fluorescence optical filter set (Omega Optical Filter Set XF71, Omega Optical U.S.A.). The excitation wavelength λ_e and fluorescence wavelength λ_f of FMN are 474 and 540 nm, respectively.

The dissolution solution of vaterite spherulites used in the flow system contained 10 mmol/L NaHCO₃. The dissolution solution of calcite crystals contained 10 mmol/L NaHCO₃ and 10 μmol/L FMN. These solutions were supplied into the observation cell at 2 mL/min for 1 h using a rotary pump.

Calcite crystal growth in the presence of PO₄ solution

Calcite substrates (1 × 2 × 2 mm) obtained from the Saidousho mine in the town of Kaharu in the Fukuoka prefecture of Japan were cleaved from a large single crystal of Iceland spar grade crystal immediately before the experiment started. The calcite substrate was soaked in ultrapure (18.2 MΩ) water for surface etching. The two of etched calcite substrates were immersed in 10 mL of 1 mmol/L Na₂CO₃–CaCl₂ with 10 mol/L Na₂HPO₄ solution at room temperature for 3 and 12 h.

The surface of the calcite substrates was observed by atomic force microscopy (AFM; Nano Scope V, Bruker AXS Co., Japan) using a silicon cantilever (length = 125 μm, tip radius = 12 nm) at a scanning line frequency of 20 Hz in normal atmosphere conditions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The initial and final pH values of the treated solutions are shown in Figure 1. As (NH₄)₂HPO₄ concentration in solutions increases, both initial and final pH values of treated solutions slightly decreased.

Figure 2 shows the XRD patterns of CSA before and after immersion into solutions containing 2 mol/L Na₂CO₃ and various concentrations of (NH₄)₂HPO₄ at 40 °C for 3 days. In the pattern of the sample immersed in 2 mol/L Na₂CO₃ without (NH₄)₂HPO₄ (PO₄ free), all diffraction peaks can be attributed to calcite; the peak at ~29.4° corresponds to the (104) plane of calcite, while

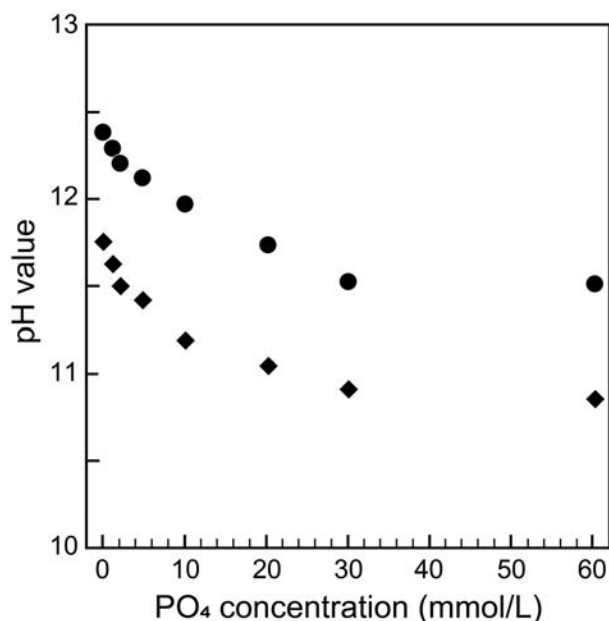


FIGURE 1. Initial and final pH values of treated solutions.

the peaks at 22.7°, 35.7°, and 39.1° correspond to the (012), (110), and (113) planes of calcite, respectively. This indicates that CSA was completely converted to monophasic calcite after immersion. Although monophasic calcite was obtained at PO₄ concentrations below 30 mmol/L, vaterite was observed along with calcite at PO₄ concentrations greater than 30 mmol/L, as indicated by the peaks at 27.4° and 32.4° corresponding to the (112) and (114) planes of vaterite, respectively. In summary, only calcite was formed at low PO₄ concentrations, whereas both calcite and vaterite were formed at high PO₄ concentrations.

The morphologies and fine structures of the samples were observed by SEM (Fig. 3). Before treatment, CSA exhibited rhombohedral crystals with sizes primarily in the range of several 10 μm (Fig. 3a). High-magnification observation revealed that surfaces of the rhombohedral crystals consisted of aggregated structures of granular crystals with sizes of approximately 1 μm (Fig. 3b). Therefore, these rhombohedral crystals were interpreted as mesocrystals with high porosity and unclear boundaries between granules. As shown in Figures 3c and 3d, the sample treated in PO₄-free solution exhibited rhombohedral crystals with sizes of 2–5 μm. Although some twinned crystals were observed, most of the particles showed the typical morphology of calcite with uniform crystal size. Figures 3e and 3f show SEM images of the sample treated with 2 mmol/L PO₄. While most of the crystals resembled those in the PO₄-free sample, approximately 10% of the crystals were fine particles with sizes of approximately 100 nm. Similar results were observed for the sample treated with 5 mmol/L PO₄, although the percentage of fine crystalline particles was higher (Figs. 3g and 3h). For the sample treated with 10 mmol/L PO₄, the SEM images (Figs. 3i and 3j) showed a small amount of rhombohedral crystals with a large number of fine particles with much smaller sizes than those observed in the samples treated with 2 and 5 mmol/L PO₄. No rhombohedral crystals were observed in the samples treated

with PO₄ concentrations greater than 20 mmol/L; only particles with sizes on the order of 10 nm appeared in these samples (Figs. 3k and 3l).

The particle size distribution of the treated samples indicated the effect of PO₄ on calcium carbonate crystal growth. Figure 4 shows the particle size distribution of calcium carbonate crystals formed in various concentrations of PO₄. Except for the 0 and 60 mol/L PO₄ solutions, a bi-modal particle size distribution was observed. In addition, as the PO₄ concentration increased, the average size of the larger crystal decreased.

The bulk PO₄ effect on reducing calcium carbonate precipitation, which is shown by SEM was confirmed by specific surface area measurement of samples. Figure 5 shows the BET specific surface areas of the samples. As the concentration of PO₄ increased, the BET surface area increased linearly, consistent with the SEM observations.

Although the SEM observations revealed how PO₄ affected the morphologies and phases of CaCO₃, they did not provide information about how PO₄ affected the crystal structure of CaCO₃. We evaluated the crystal structure of calcite based on the strongest XRD peak, *d*₁₀₄. Peak shifting, which is indicative of alternation of the crystal lattice, was hardly observed because of its very unsystematic and slight variation (Fig. 6). This suggests that PO₄ was not significantly incorporated into the crystal

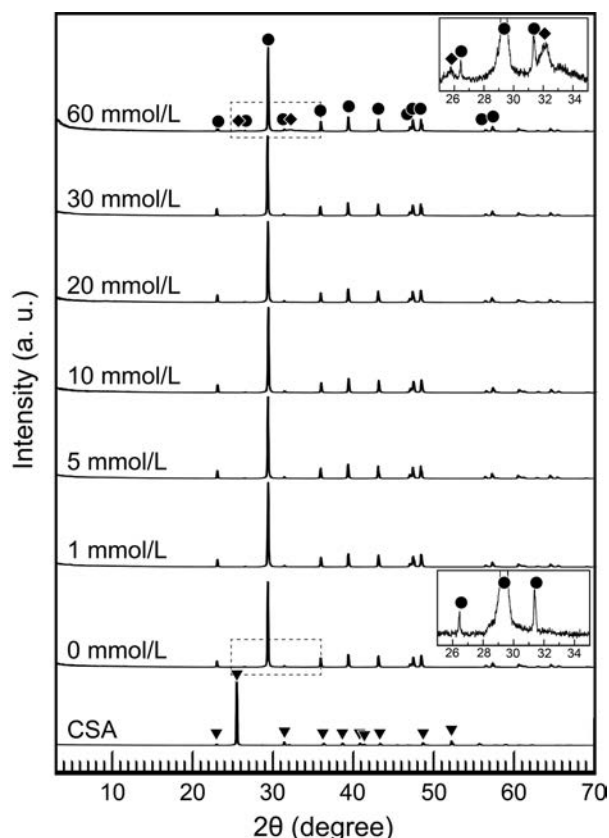


FIGURE 2. XRD patterns of CSA immersed into solutions containing 2 mol/L Na₂CO₃ and various concentrations of (NH₄)₂HPO₄ solutions at 40 °C for 3 days. The insets show magnified XRD patterns corresponding to the broken rectangular areas. Circles = calcite; diamonds = vaterite.

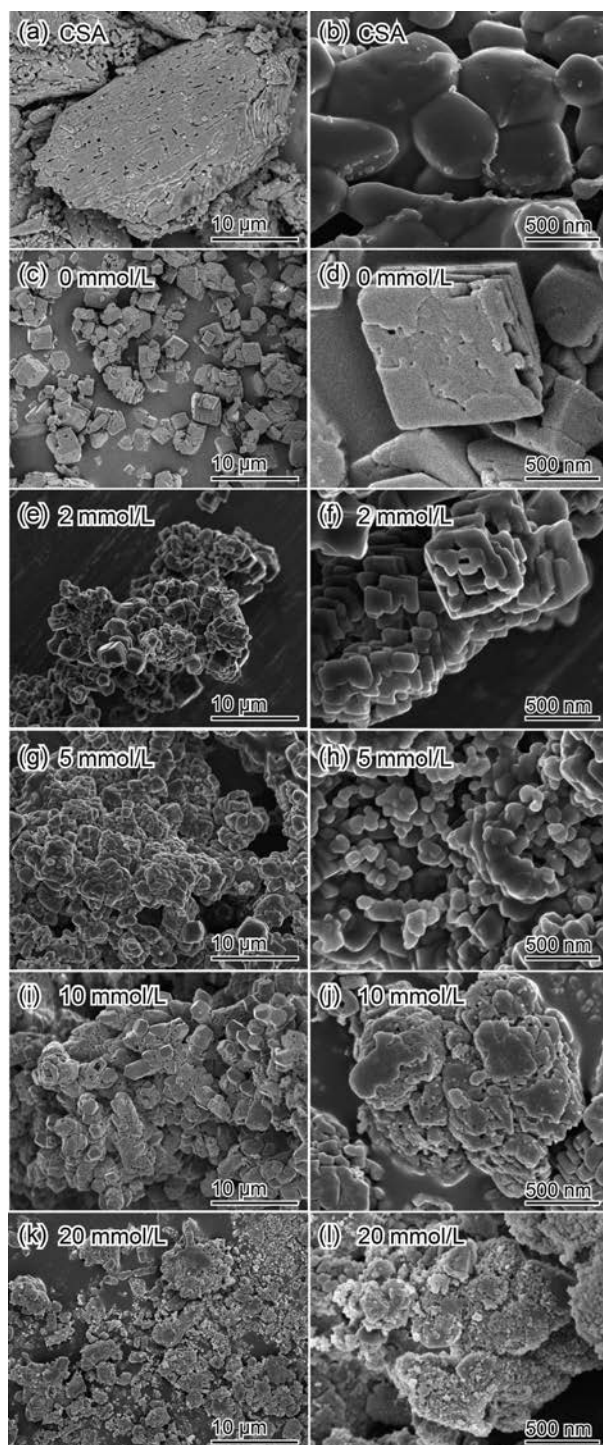


FIGURE 3. SEM micrographs of CSA (a and b) and CSA immersed into solutions containing 2 mol/L Na_2CO_3 with various concentration of PO_4 at 40 °C for 3 days. (c and d) 0 mmol/L, (e and f) 2 mmol/L, (g and h) 5 mmol/L, (i and j) 10 mmol/L, and (k and l) 20 mmol/L.

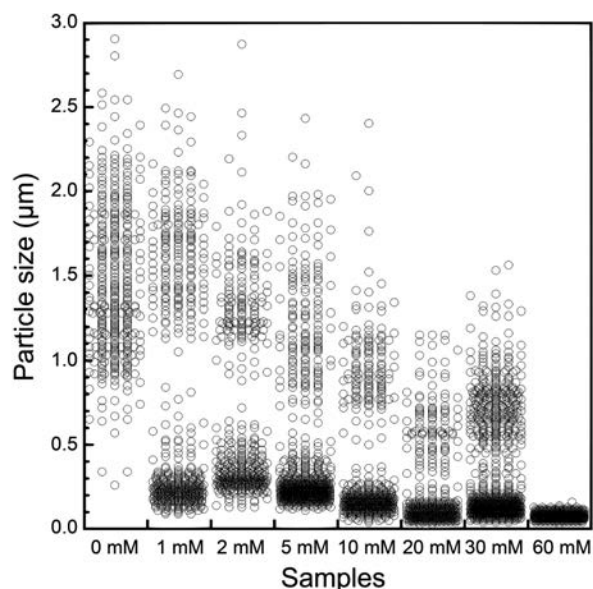


FIGURE 4. Particle size distribution of the samples.

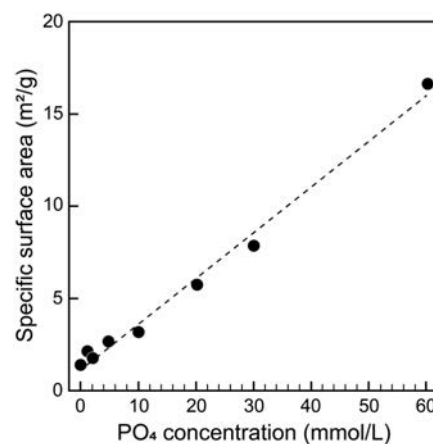


FIGURE 5. BET specific surface areas of the samples.

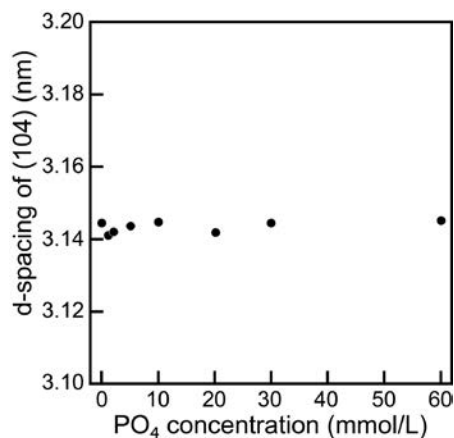


FIGURE 6. The d -spacings of the (104) plane of calcite for the samples treated with different concentrations of PO_4 .

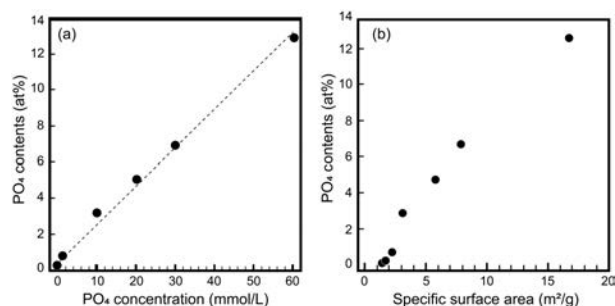


FIGURE 7. PO_4 contents of samples measured by XRF. (a) PO_4 concentration in treated solution vs. PO_4 content in samples. (b) Specific surface area of samples vs. PO_4 content in samples.

lattice of calcite. We also tried to measure the crystallite sizes of samples. However, we failed to observe any significant changes because the crystallinities of all samples, especially calcite, were too high to measure the crystallite size by the Scherrer and Rietveld methods.

The relationship between PO_4 concentration in the treatment solution and the PO_4 content in the samples was investigated. Figure 7 shows the PO_4 contents in the samples. The PO_4 contents of the samples increased linearly with increasing PO_4 content in the treatment solution (Fig. 7a). We also estimated the relation between surface area and PO_4 content (Fig. 7b). The trend between them was essentially the same as for PO_4 concentration in solution and PO_4 contents in samples. Indeed, it was shown that PO_4 could be present in calcite because of coprecipitation processes in nature (Otsuki and Wetzel 1972) and that a small amount of PO_4 could be incorporated into the calcite unit lattice by replacing CO_3 at weakly basic conditions (Ishikawa and Ichikuni 1981). However, in this study, at such strongly basic conditions, we considered that PO_4 could either be absorbed on

the calcite surface or exist between the veins of calcite crystals rather than being substituted into the calcite unit lattice.

The chemical states of PO_4 in CaCO_3 were investigated by FTIR spectroscopy (Fig. 8). As PO_4 increases, the intensities of bands having high wavenumbers in the main adsorption peaks around $1350\text{--}1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ increase (Fig. 8a). This indicated that the vaterite ratio in samples increased. These observed results coincided well with those of XRD results. The adsorption bands of PO_4 were too weak to be detected in the spectra of samples treated with PO_4 concentrations less than 10 mmol/L. In contrast, for the samples treated with PO_4 concentrations greater than 20 mmol/L, broad adsorption bands of PO_4 were observed (Fig. 8b). This adsorption band was split into bi-modal bands at 1028 and 1091 cm^{-1} in the spectrum of the sample treated with the highest PO_4 concentration (60 mmol/L), indicating the formation of a HAp-like structure. PO_4 was absorbed onto calcite and vaterite via different mechanisms.

The above results suggest that PO_4 adsorption onto the surface of calcite affects calcium carbonate formation. Therefore, we tried to evaluate the PO_4 adsorption ratio on the calcite surface. However, when calcite was immersed into PO_4 containing Na_2CO_3 solution, the adsorption ratio of PO_4 on the calcite surface by the washing process, which was essential for obtaining samples, was too small to accurately estimate it by atomic analyzing methods such as XRF and ICP. Therefore, we employed a visualization method using FMN as a PO_4 -containing fluorescent material (Sugiura et al. 2014, 2015). Figure 9 shows calcite after treatment with an FMN-containing solution under normal light (9a) and fluorescent light (9b). The surface of calcite appeared bright under fluorescent light, indicating that PO_4 adsorbed onto the calcite surface.

We suggest that PO_4 adsorbs onto the calcite surface, thus affecting the calcite crystal growth. Hillocks formed on the cleaved calcite surface that grew in the PO_4 containing solution.

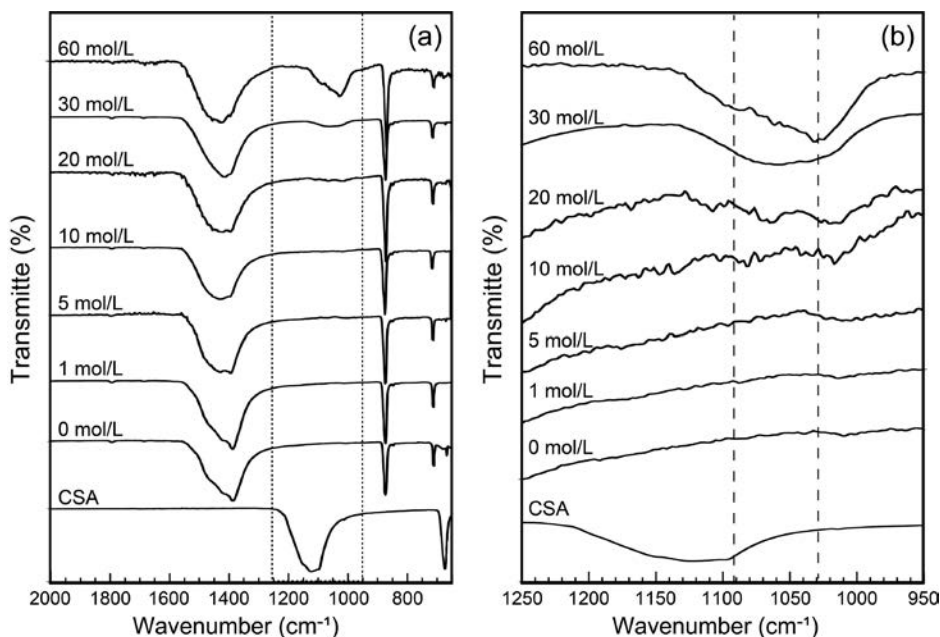


FIGURE 8. FTIR spectra of samples: (a) wide-range spectra and (b) PO_4 vibration region (the area indicated by the dotted lines in a).

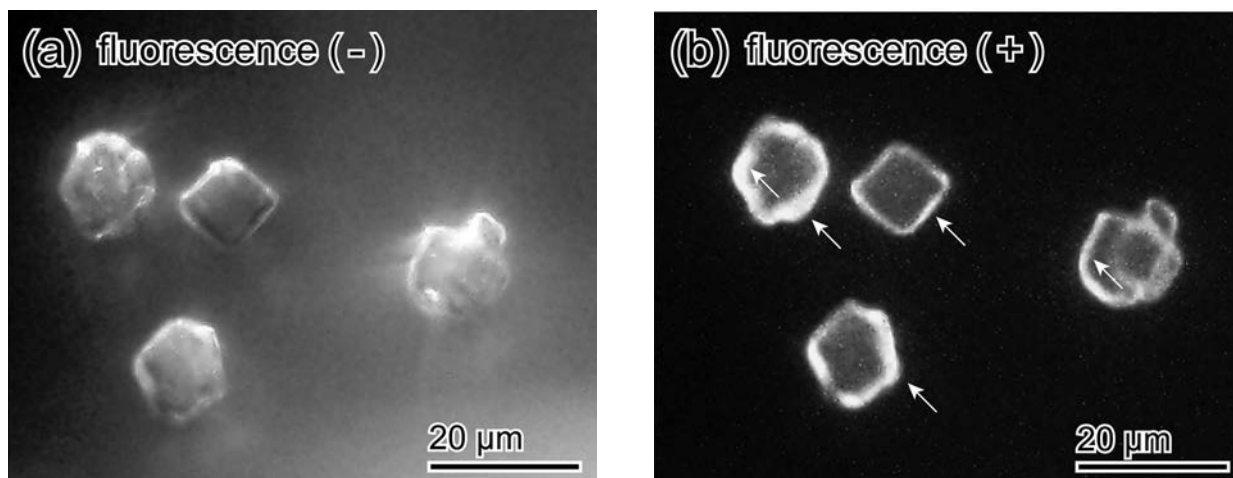


FIGURE 9. Fluorescent study of FMN (a PO_4 -containing material) adsorption on calcite (a) normal light (without fluorescence) and (b) fluorescence light.

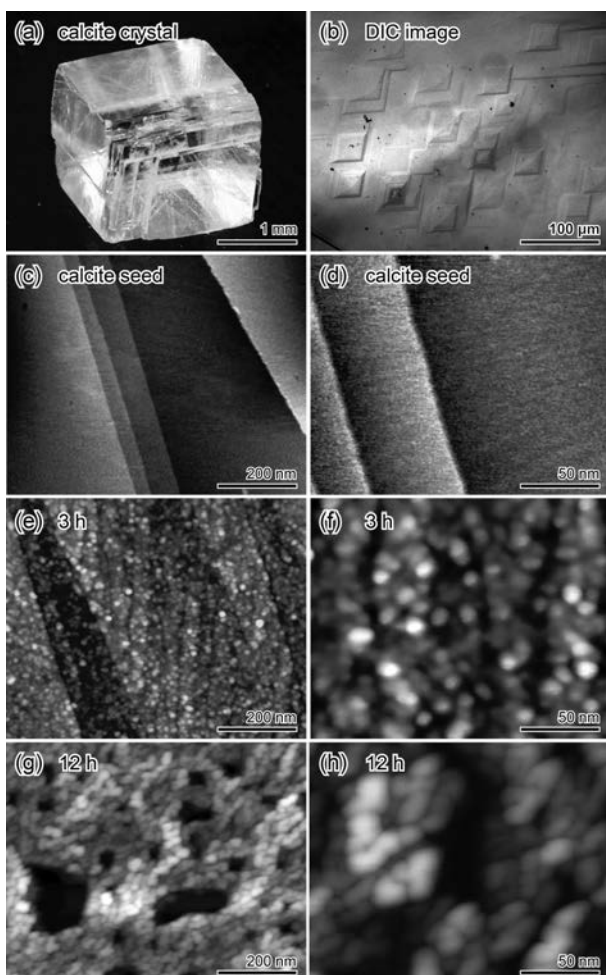


FIGURE 10. (a) Seeded calcite crystal. (b) Optical microscopic image of the cleaved calcite surface. AFM images of calcite crystal before cleavage (c and d) and after immersion in PO_4 containing a solution for 3 h (e and f) and 12 h (g and h).

When the cleaved calcite (Fig. 10a) was immersed in ultrapure water, typical etch pits formed on the cleaved surface (Fig. 10b). The AFM image shows that the etched calcite surface was essentially smooth (Figs. 10c and 10d). In contrast, when the cleaved calcite was immersed in the PO_4 containing solution, numerous particle structures ranging in size of several nanometers formed on the cleaved calcite surface instead of following a step-by-step growth (Figs. 10e and 10f). With increasing time, a porous structure comprising a complex accumulation of particle structures was formed (Figs. 10g and 10h).

Thermal analysis of samples revealed the sample decomposition process. Figure 11 shows the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) curves of the samples. As seen in Figure 11a, all samples underwent a rapid decrease in weight above 700 °C, indicating calcite decomposition. The calcite decomposition temperature of the samples decreased slightly with increasing PO_4 concentration. In addition, we also observed the thermal behavior of the samples at lower temperatures. In Figure 11b, the TG curves of the samples up to 600 °C (i.e., below the calcite decomposition temperature) are presented. Without PO_4 , very little weight loss was observed below 100 °C, suggesting that only a small amount of water adsorbed on the sample surface. As the PO_4 concentration increased, the weight loss of the samples below 100 °C also increased. Moreover, an additional weight loss at 200 °C was observed. Therefore, we suggest that PO_4 desorption occurred above 200 °C.

Previous studies indicated that the phase transformation from CSA to CaCO_3 occurs via dissolution/re-precipitation mediated by the aqueous environment (Nomura et al. 2014). In other words, CSA dissolves in the surrounding solution and releases Ca^{2+} , as described in Equation 1:



This reaction occurred continuously until reaching the solubility of CSA; further, the reaction ceased after reaching the equilibrium. However, the treatment solutions in this study contained a large amount of CO_3^{2-} ions, and the solubilities of

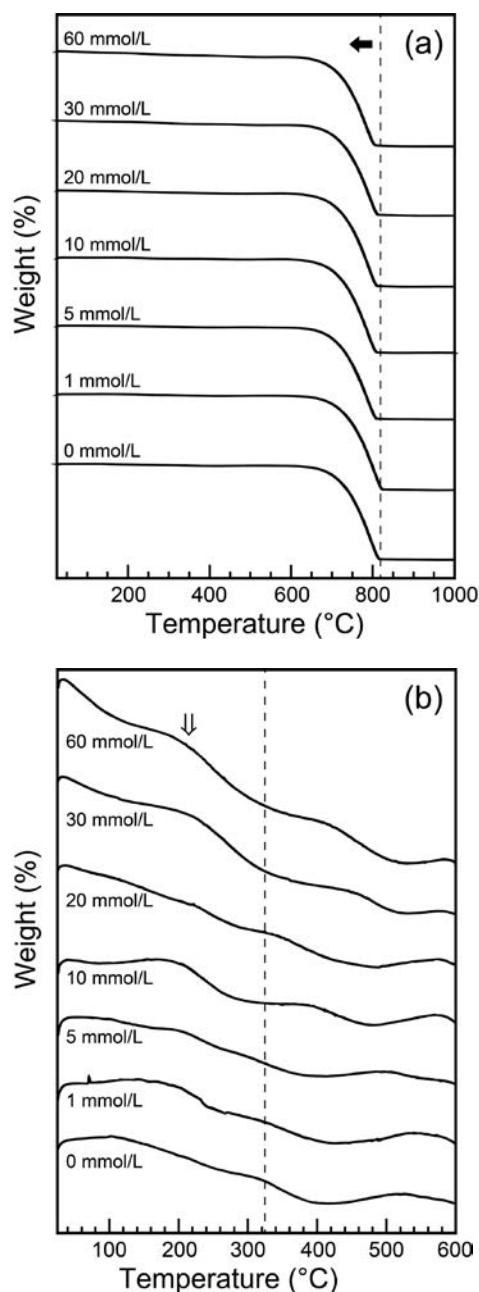
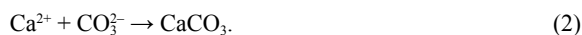


FIGURE 11. TG curve of the samples. **(a)** Room temperature to 1000 °C. **(b)** Room temperature to 600 °C. Left pointing arrow = The evidence of shifting toward to low temperature. Downward pointing arrow = The evidence of inflection point.

calcite and vaterite are lower than that of CSA (Dundon and Mack 1923; Partridge and White 1929; Plummer and Busenberg 1982). Therefore, the reaction described in Equation 2 also proceeds:



Equations 1 and 2 provide positive feedback to each other. Thus, these reactions proceed until CSA is used up, or until Ca²⁺ drops below the solubility of CaCO₃.

The results clearly indicate that PO₄ inhibits calcite growth and decreases its crystal size. Furthermore, treatment with high concentrations of PO₄ at high pH results in the formation of vaterite as opposed to calcite.

The fluorescent evaluation indicated that PO₄ could adsorb onto the surface of calcite. Thus, when calcite forms via ionic nucleation, PO₄ adsorbs onto the calcite surface, inhibiting calcite growth. This process also coincided with the results of a seeded calcite growth experiment. As a result, the concentration of Ca²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ ions was maintained in solutions containing PO₄ at supersaturated condition without precipitation. Thus, vaterite formed instead of calcite to thermodynamically stabilize the solution.

The results of this study contribute to the field of biomineralization by demonstrating that PO₄ can control CaCO₃ formation, polymorph, morphology, and crystal size. Our previous studies also indicated that PO₄ could control the kinetics of CaCO₃ formation in solution (Sugiura et al. 2013, 2014, 2016). CaCO₃ is thought to be the first mineral hard tissue formed after the birth of life in the Archean sea (Addadi et al. 2003). However, as life further evolved, vertebrate animals developed calcium phosphate-based hard tissues (Mann 2001; Addadi et al. 2003; Weiner and Dove 2003). These calcium phosphate hard tissues require vertebrate animals to store large amounts of PO₄ in their bodies because it is difficult to obtain PO₄ from the surrounding oceanic environment (Quekett 1849; Omelon et al. 2013). However, our finding may suggest that the reason why hard tissues of CaCO₃ were hardly formed in vertebrates is that their vivid metabolism causes large PO₄ fluctuations with high adenosine triphosphate (ATP) consumption.

IMPLICATIONS

The effects of PO₄ on CaCO₃ formation from CSA was investigated under high-pH conditions, at which calcite is likely to form. PO₄ regulates calcite formation and growth by adsorbing onto the surface of calcite. Therefore, under high PO₄ concentrations, calcite crystals become small and porous. In addition, vaterite is likely to form to counteract the thermodynamic instability of the solution. The results also indicate that PO₄, which is an essential component of CO₃Ap, can control the physico-chemical properties of CaCO₃, which is a precursor of carbonate apatite, a bone-replacement material (Ishikawa 2010; Ishikawa et al. 2018).

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