Early stages of surface alteration of soda-rich-silicate glasses in the museum environment

Alexandra Rodrigues^{a,b,*}, Sarah Fearn^c, Teresa Palomar^b, Márcia Vilarigues^{a,b}

^aConservation and Restoration Department, FCT-NOVA, campus da Caparica ^bVICARTE, Research Unit: Glass and Ceramics for the Arts, campus da Caparica ^cMaterials Department, Imperial College of London

Abstract

This paper studied the alteration of three soda-rich-silicate glass types (*Cristallo*, *façon-de-Venise* and soda-lime silicate). Replica samples were exposed to different environments simulating museum-like conditions – room temperature and different relative humidities (RH). Results were analysed by SIMS, μ -FTIR, Optical Microscopy and Optical 3D profilometry. *Cristallo* appears as the most vulnerable, whilst the soda-lime glass appears as the most resistant to the environmental deterioration. The thickness of the altered layer is proportional to the time of exposure and to the RH of the surrounding atmosphere. From the results obtained, the glass composition and the water available and adsorbed to the surface strongly influence the kinetics of the surface alteration.

Keywords: soda-rich-silicate glass, SIMS, μ -FTIR, deterioration, cultural heritage 2016 MSC: 00-01, 99-00

1. Introduction

Damage to cultural property within the museum occurs mainly due to environmental conditions (e.g. humidity, among other factors) which have long been the concern of conservators [1]. Although it is correctly seen as chemically stable, glass artefacts exposed to the environment undergo surface transformations and deterioration [2, 3]. Glass alteration by atmospheric water is a well known problem, and it expressly takes place in the museum environment. Depending on its chemical composition and on the environmental weathering conditions, the time required for this slow process to produce damage can range from hours to years. Therefore, different alteration behaviours have been reported [2, 4, 5].

The use of combined surface analysis methods to thoroughly characterise the glass durability and corrosion through a systematic approach to a series of compositions and environments has long been demonstrated [6] and has until now proved its importance [7, 8]. Surface characterization techniques are applied in this case to investigate the thin corroded layers formed as consequence of glass weathering processes [9].

Several studies have been published concerning corrosion models and mechanisms on soda- and sodalime-silicate glasses (recent publications are, for instance [10, 11]). Many of the studies of this type of glass and corrosion are, nevertheless, directed at the commercial glasses and industrial production improvements (*e.g.* [12]) and to waste glass, whose properties and corrosion behaviour are strongly dependent on the environment at which they are exposed to (aqueous, acidic and alkaline solutions, with the contribution of several other corrosive materials, such as toxic waste) (*e.g.* [13–15]).

Studies on aqueous solutions (e.g. [12]) and accelerated ageing at high temperatures (e.g. [1, 4]) have also been carried out in the past. Important corrosion models have arisen from these works (e.g. [16]). It is a fact that some may apply or are related with historical glassworks, namely for objects in waterlogged or ground-water environment [17–23], window glass [9, 13, 24, 25], or museums environment accelerated tests [11]. Nevertheless, only a few recent studies concern the problems directly related to museum glass objects and their real environment (and can be found mainly in [7, 26–32]).

Museum objects have varying compositions and origins and the wide variety of alteration behaviours still lacks understanding, as part of the implementation of a preventive conservation strategy.

^{*}Alexandra Rodrigues

Email address: aj.rodrigues@campus.fct.unl.pt (Alexandra Rodrigues)

The main point of this paper is to characterise the surface alteration of a selected set of historical compositions. The *Cristallo* glass [33–35], which was a well defined exquisite and broad production during the Renaissance period; a selected *façon-de-Venise* glass composition and a selected soda-lime composition that differ from the former in specific compounds. The authors intend to investigate the influence of these compounds in particular. The replica formulations were based on the analysis of composition carried out to some objects from the collection of King Ferdinand II of Portugal, currently located in the storage rooms of Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga (Lisbon), as well as on the literature compositional data from the same period. This collection, being at an international level, has a wide range of glass objects from different European production centres within a wide chronology, and for this reason it becomes a good case study.

1.1. Historic Soda-rich Glass

In the Renaissance period, Venetian glasses became precious by the extraordinary technical skill and ⁴⁰ artistry attained by the glassmakers and by the quality of the glass artefacts themselves. The most renowned glass produced with those properties was called *Cristallo*, since a similar crystal-clear glass with such fine quality could not be obtained in any other contemporary glassmaking centre [2, 33, 36, 37]. By the 16th and 17th centuries, commissioners wanted this type of glass at their hand, and produced in their own country [38, 39]. Venetian glass began to be imitated by the second half of the 16th century,

- ⁴⁵ when glassmakers escaped from Murano to many other European centres [34, 38–42], and it was called à la façon de Venise. From the technological point of view, in both Venetian and façon de Venise compositions coastal plants were used as flux agents, which particularly combined high amounts of two major glass components: soda and lime [33, 35, 36, 40, 43]. The soda-lime compositions were also used for the production of less luxurious glass objects, being used since the Roman times [37]. These are mainly the tumor of class have under study.
- $_{\rm 50}$ $\,$ mainly the types of glass here under study.

65

1.2. The role of Structure and Composition of Soda-rich glasses in the Deterioration Process

The structure of a soda-rich and soda-lime silicate glasses suffers from partial breakdown of the silica network continuity. Whilst the alkali transforms a Si-O-Si group into two Si $-O^-$ units [44], the presence of the Ca²⁺ ion is known to stabilise the lattice, since it presents a stronger bond to the oxygens non-bridged to silicon (NBOs). In the disrupted and irregular structure bond angles differ within

a certain range and their strength varies from one point of the structure to another due to changeableness of the atoms in vicinity [2, 45]. The composition of glass is a determinant of the glass structure, which in turn determines the distribution of exchangeable sites [46]. For instance, the addition of bivalent cations can be responsible for reducing the alkali mobility by (i) double-bonding with NBOs, (ii) or possibly by the Na-Ca pairing [6, 7].

It is well known that the composition of a newly formed glass surface is usually far different from that of the bulk glass composition. The chemistry of the alteration of a glass surface is (at least to a certain extent) determined by the structure of the upper layer derived from a certain composition, and the proneness of that layer to react [12, 47]. The surface structure of silicate glasses has unsatisfied Si-Oand Si- bonds, as a consequence of a surface formation. These bonds react rapidly with atmospheric water to form Si-OH groups. Such a layer is dependent on the glass composition, its heating and cooling

- regimes, the surface finishing, and the RH of the surrounding environment. The nature of physical and chemical adsorption on glass depends on the surface structure, and the hydroxyl sites act as adsorption and reaction points. The thermal history of glass is therefore an important factor to its adsorption
- ⁷⁰ behaviour. Physically adsorbed molecules are apparently bonded to the hydrogen atom on a Si–OH group. In particular, water molecules tend to adsorb to either isolated or adjacent hydrogen-bonded pairs of hydroxyl groups [48].

During glass alteration, the properties of the layer formed on the surface will thus depend on the glass composition, on the chemistry of the wet film adsorbed, on the reactions time and on temperature.

⁷⁵ The latter will not been taken into account as only room temperature is what is of interest in this case study. After being formed, the surface layers can act as a physical barrier to the transport of reactants and corrosion products depending on their inherent characteristics, and can also influence the chemical affinity of the glass to further reactions [49].

1.3. Deterioration and the Environment's Influence

⁸⁰ When glass is in contact with the atmosphere, water molecules from different origins are available to interact with its surface. The amount of water molecules is affected by several factors, among them the relative humidity (RH) [2], which proved to be a factor of paramount importance in a museum environment. Under certain conditions it can prove to have a more dramatic effect on the hydration rate than some levels of pollutants [5].

- The deterioration model proposed for glasses in aqueous solutions can be applied also for atmospheric alteration, the same way as some authors state that the fundamental decay mechanisms are the same for all alkali-silicate glasses [3, 48], although it can only go so far. This is true for the following steps of the process: (i) water adsorption at the surface, (ii) three competing simultaneous reactions, all resulting in the hydration of glass surface [11] (hydration, ion exchange, and hydrolysis), and (iii) occasionally, the
- ⁹⁰ formation of alkali salts which may react with the silicate structure [3, 4, 11, 46, 48]. However, corrosion of glass surfaces in wet gases is different [48, 50]. In the case of atmospheric alteration the period of time that a water film (liquid water) forms on the glass surface [44], the surface-area-to-volume ratio (SA:V) [12], and the mobility and reactions of the water inside the glass network [51] need to be taken into consideration in the weathering mechanism.
- ⁹⁵ The different corrosion behaviours of different chemical compositions for most glasses may be explained by the rate-controlling step being the entrance of water molecules in the glass lattice [46]. Assuming that hydrolysis is likely the way of penetration, its kinetics depend on two factors: the distribution of the local structural units and the chemistry of the solution (where pH can locally depend on the SA:V ratio [12]). Hence, the glass structure influences the kinetics since it determines local deformations
- which can influence the reactivity of silica, as well as the ionic-exchange process. The initial leaching seems to be a transport process rather than a reaction-limited process [46]. According to Hench and Clark (1978) [12], the ion-exchange step seems to be kinetically controlled with a $t^{\frac{1}{2}}$ dependence, while the hydrolysis process seems to be controlled by an interface reaction with linear t^1 dependence [12]. The network hydrolysis shows, in general, a higher rate when NBOs are present, and follows the trend
- $Q_1 > Q_2 > Q_3 > Q_4$. However, the rate of hydrolysis depends also upon the content in the different modifier cations [46].

As already presented in the literature, by V. Jain, glass alteration in water vapour-containing atmospheres differs from corrosion in solution in that [49]:

- 1. 'the glass surface contains functional surface groups in their acidic form, e.g. Si-OH, or in combination with alkali ions of the glass,'
- 2. 'alkali ions leaving the glass after interdiffusion [can] form compounds, which accumulate at the surface,'
- 3. 'and the glass network, even if attacked chemically, does not dissolve, so that protons and alkali ions interdiffuse without formation of a steady state.'
- All three items will be further discussed together with the results presented in this paper. These results are based on a glass deterioration process using model glass (with historic compositions and technique), with no accelerated ageing, but rather actual museum-like conditions. The authors believe that the rinse of surfaces, or the use of high temperatures in former cases can promote different equilibria at which unlikely occurring phenomena can take place concurrently to the real-time weathering ones.

¹²⁰ 2. Material and methods

2.1. Sample preparation and exposure

As aforementioned, soda-rich compositions were chosen based on their lime and alkali content and on the idea that these components influence the corrosion processes. Besides, some of the objects in the museum collection were already evidencing alteration symptoms, especially the *Cristallo* type, which possess a higher alkali content (see $Na_2O + K_2O$ in Table 1).

Glasses for repeatable experiments were chosen and produced based on the chemical composition analysis of original and ancient glassworks in the collection of Ferdinand II of Portugal. Replica glass samples were produced with the compositions summarised in Table 1. Compositional data obtained by analysis the original glass objects, together with literature information on chemical composition of historical glass of the same types and typologies were used as guidelines. The compositions reproduced intended to be representative of well-known international productions [52].

The model glasses were melted in an electric furnace, using refractory ceramic crucibles, at 1400 °C. The temperature increased 6.5 °C per minute, and reached 1400 °C, dwelling for about 4 hours. Afterwards, the glass melt was free-blown into a rondel shape (disc). In this way, not only the compositions were being replicated, but also the historical technological process of glass blowing. In this way, the

¹³⁵ were being replicated, but also the historical technological process of glass blowing. In this way, the surface of the replica samples would become as similar as possible to an historic glass vessel. Finally,

130

125

the glass rondel was annealed at ca. 515 °C until it cooled to ambient temperature (around 20 °C). The glass discs were cut into pieces of $(1 \times 1 \times 0.2)$ cm³.

Replica samples were exposed in an ambient of unfiltered laboratory air at room temperatures (21-24 °C), for various lengths of time (2, 4, 6, 8 weeks and 1 year). All samples were exposed in four RH chambers which kept the RH fixed within 5% (45%, 55%, 65% and about 75%). The ageing conditions were chosen based on the assessment of the condition of the current storage-room – the higher values can actually be observed in the museum environment, whilst the RH values (around 45% RH, or 42% RH) are recommended for storage of historic glass objects (*e.g.* [53, 54]).

145 2.2. SIMS analysis

Surface analytical investigations were carried out by means of secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS). The technique was used to observe the concentration of elements as a function of depth in aged glasses over the nanometre scale. It can provide a very wide dynamic range of elements and can measure elemental concentrations with high resolution and sensitivity (parts per hundred to parts per billion).

SIMS depth profiling analyses were carried out on the altered glass using an IONTOF TOF-SIMS V instrument. Samples were sputter depth-profiled using an O_2^+ primary beam of 150 nA to 300 nA, depending on the surface ageing and accelerated on to the sample surface with a net impact energy of 1 or 2 keV. The analytical primary ion beam was a 25 keV Bi⁺ LMIG. Secondary ions of H, Na, Al, Si, K, Ca, Mg, Mn, Fe and some molecular species were collected. Charge compensation was performed using a low energy electron gun.

The concentration of each ion was considered to be 100% on the plateau of the profiles curves, and it was considered that the bulk composition was this way represented. Therefore, the concentration of the ions was normalised to the concentration of the bulk, and were transferred to [0,1] for comparison between more than one ion species. Moreover, the profiles obtained were processed to obtain the value

of the alteration depth and ion concentration of certain ions (namely Na⁺, Ca⁺, SiOH⁺). The alteration depth was considered at 95% of the slope of the profile curve, admitting 5% error margin in every case. In a similar way, the area under the curve was used to estimate the concentration of the same ion at a certain depth.

2.3. 3D Optical Profiles

¹⁶⁵ An optical microscope ZYGO was used to obtain 3D profiles of the glass surface alteration over time, using a white light interferometer system, which offers a non-contact, high-precision and fast 3D optical profiling of surface features.

The optical interferometer was also used to measure the depth of the crater, from which the sputtering rate was calculated and used to plot the SIMS obtained profiles.

170 2.4. μ-FTIR

Micro Fourier Transformed Infrared (μ -FTIR) spectroscopy was used to study the chemical alteration of the glass surfaces. The μ -FTIR analysis was performed using an Agilent 4300 Handheld FTIR Spectrometer in ATR mode. Spectra were obtained covering the 4000-650 cm⁻¹ range, with spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The collected spectra were obtained with 64 scans before Fourier transform. Data was acquired by MicroLab® software.

All spectra were normalised to the peak around 900 cm⁻¹, since it represents the highest absorbance value of all the spectra.

2.5. Optical Microscopy

180

175

The microscopic documentation was carried out using a light microscope (Axioplan 2, Zeiss) with digital camera (Nikon DMX) on all the samples (from $t_{0 \text{ days}}$ to $t_{1 \text{ year}}$). The whole surface area was observed in order to identify surface features.

3. Results

185

The SIMS profiling data of the ions Na^+ and $SiOH^+$ collected for both 45% RH and 75% RH environments are shown in Figure 1 for all glass samples. In this profiling results, it is possible to observe visible differences between the pristine surfaces and the same type of surfaces aged over time concerning the chemical changes caused by RH attack of glass. The changes presented based on the concentration profiles of the constituents of the surface layers provide information on the hydration

(mol%)	(0/ 10111)	sr_{c}	16.4	14.7	0.20	1 10	71.1						
d ratios (eomet n	$fdV^{\rm B}$	16.2	10.9	0.20	1 40	CF-1						
ue autio	ITP CITING	$Crist^A$	18.6	8.8	0.24	9 11	T T						
	Oxides		Na_2O+K_2O	$CaO + MgO + Al_2O_3$	Na_2O/SiO_2	$\rm Na_2O+K_2O$	CaO+MgO+Al ₂ O ₃						
		SL^{C}	?	÷	÷	ċ			÷	ċ٠	÷	?	
nalysis)	mol%	$fdV^{\rm B}$	15.50	4.15	0.98	71.27	0.05	0.84	1.71	4.95	0.45	0.10	
n (PIXE a		$Crist^A$	17.68	2.52	0.77	71.90	0.04	0.85	1.71	4.87	0.31	0.12	
npositio		SL^{C}	14.90	1.90	3.20	66.0			3.70	8.90	0.10	0.30	
plica cor	wt%	$fdV^{\rm B}$	15.89	2.77	1.65	70.8	0.11	0.49	3.16	4.59	0.53	0.27	
Re		$Crist^A$	17.07	1.67	1.30	70.5	0.08	0.49	2.63	4.45	0.36	0.26	
		SL^{C}	13.9	3.07	1.49	68.8			2.46	10.15	0.10	0.10	
	mol%	$fdV^{\rm B}$	14.2	4.69	0.62	70.5	0.07	1.78	2.01	5.62	0.44	0.08	ime
mposition		$Crist^A$	16.7	2.99	0.41	70.5	0.06	1.70	1.92	5.36	0.25	0.08	C – Soda-I
arget co:		SL^{C}	14.2	2.00	2.50	67.8			3.80	9.35	0.10	0.25	Venise
Ē	wt%	$fdV^{\rm B}$	14.8	3.10	1.00	70.5	0.16	1.00	3.15	5.25	0.53	0.21	acon de
		$Crist^A$	17.2	2.00	0.70	70.5	0.15	1.00	3.00	5.00	0.30	0.20	allo: B - f
	Oxides		Na_2O	MgO	Al_2O_3	SiO_2	P_2O_5	CI	$\rm K_2O$	CaO	MnO	${\rm Fe_2O_3}$	A = Crist

ratios.
and
sums
oxides
Major
mol%.
and
wt%
Ē
-=
compositions in
samples compositions i
glass samples compositions in
Replica glass samples compositions in
1: Replica glass samples compositions in

of the surface (through the concentration of the silanol groups), on the mobilization/diffusion of the main network modifier by ion-exchange (Na^+ ions). In the typical depth profile of the soda-rich glasses, the normalised intensity for sodium is decreased whilst the intensity of the silanol species is increased compared to the bulk (Figure 1a to 1f) – which is reached at the plateau of the curves.

The pristine glass surface is consistent with the first item referred by V. Jain "the glass surface contains functional surface groups in their acidic form, e.g. Si-OH, or in combination with alkali ions of the glass". It can easily be verified by looking at the profiles in Figure 1 that there are silanol groups at the surface, in particular by looking at the control surfaces which already contain Si–OH groups in

the first few nanometres depth. But it becomes even more evident from Figure 1 that, concerning the alteration promoted by atmospheric water attack, the alkali diffusion is slower than the hydration of the surface layer – which is very clear for all of the 75% exposed samples. After 1 year exposure the Si–OH group – representative of the water content of the surface – is observed at greater depths within the

190

glass, compared to the depletion depth of the alkali ions. 200

3.1. The effect of RH on glass alteration process

When looking at the results obtained in Figure 1, it is possible to observe an alkali leaching behaviour similar to what Walters and Adams (1975) have reported: alkali releases do not always increase with humidity [4]. The authors registered that at 30% RH some glass compositions have a weathering quantitative effect almost as great as other at 90% RH [4]. On the other hand, the water binding to the

- network indeed increases with RH for all cases in Figure 1. This has been mentioned by Cummings et al. (1998), who presented evidence for a linear increase of the rate decay with RH [3]. It is stated that increasing RH leads to an increase of the hydration rate of glass, for water adsorption increases with time and RH [4, 44].
- In Cristallo glass surfaces exposed to 45% (Figure 1a) and 75% RH (Figure 1b), the depletion in 210 Na⁺ ions (depth of the ion-exchange layer, represented by the slope before the *plateau*) reaches a quite similar value in both RH's after one year of exposure, although the Si–OH groups are observed at a greater depth on the sample for the glass aged in the 75% RH environment. This fact suggests that the hydration reaction or hydrolysis reaction is correlated to the amount of water available, while the diffusion of the alkali seems not. A similar behaviour can be found in glass surfaces exposed to 45% and 215
- 75% RH both for facon de Venise and Soda-Lime types, although less evidently (Figure 1c, 1d, 1e, and 1f).

On the other hand, changes on the surface chemistry related to surface hydration were also obtained by FTIR and are summarized in Figure 2, for all glass samples. As it can be seen from Figure 2, the amount of water of hydration at the surface is detected by FTIR in every case. It is less evident for the Soda-Lime type (Figures 2c), which suggests that the composition of this surface might be less hygroscopic. Although there is no evident change in the Si-O-Si stretching bands (between 1250-850) cm^{-1} [55–57]) of all types of glass up to 1 year, the water of hydration at the surface differs when comparing the 45% and 75% RH environments, as well as the among the different compositions, as mentioned for Soda-Lime.

225

3.2. Surface Reactions and Products

The release of Na⁺ onto the surface was analysed by SIMS surface scanning technique and is shown in Figure 3 for *Cristallo* (Figure 3a), *facon-de-Venise* (Figure 3b) and Soda-Lime (Figure 3c) glass types. Cristallo glass type shows the formation of surface Na-rich aggregates (areas/regions) becoming very

evident after 8 weeks exposure to both 45% and 75% RH atmospheres. The second item above cited from V. Jain [49] ('alkali ions leaving the glass after interdiffusion [can] form compounds, which accumulate at the surface,') refers to corrosion products, and can be correlated with the observations made. In fact, in some cases of this static deterioration, condensation and evaporation without any washing away phenomena occurs [44, 46]. This is naturally common for museum glass objects, and these surface regions enriched in Na⁺ are possibly part of this process of the formation of those compounds. 235

In Figure 3b it is possible to verify that the behaviour for the *façon de Venise* glass is slightly different, since the surface features have a more uneven evolution in terms of their size increase with time.

The case of the Soda-Lime type is the farther away from the *Cristallo* glass behaviour. The former does not show any surface feature evidence until one year exposure to both environments (45%) and 75%RH), when the formation of Na-rich aggregates can be first observed (Figure 3c). 240

As it is shown for the three glass types in Figure 3, the reaction products enriched in sodium remain in contact with the glass surface. Hence, they are available to react with ambient gaseous species and to ultimately form corrosion crystalline products [44, 46].

With respect to the influence of the moisture in the environment, it is evident the effect of the higher amount of water available to the formation of the alkali aggregates at the surface level (Figure 3a is the most representative case) due to the accumulation of the alkali ions at the surface after interdiffusion. The availability of water is playing a role in the formation and the size of the Na-rich aggregates. Large areas enriched in Na⁺ ions can be observed after a short time of exposure of the samples to the 75% RH environment, whilst small ones are observed after the same period or after longer exposure to the 45%

RH environment. The size of the aggregates increases with time in most cases. This was observed by the increase in roughness of the surfaces (measured by optical profilometry), by optical microscopy, as well as by the SIMS surface scanning where it is possible to observe the increase of the Na⁺-enriched regions in size. Figure 4 presents these observations for the *Cristallo* glass case, which is the most altered and well representative of the alteration of the surfaces and formation of these features. It can be observed that there is a small signal from Na₂OH⁺ species, but Na₂COOH⁺ and Na₂CO₃⁺ (already identified in the surface).

other studies by this technique, and related to formates and carbonates on the glass surface [30]) are absent (or are too low signals to be seen within the SIMS scanning resolution).

The composition of glass appears to be playing its role as well, and it seems to be associated with the alkali leaching rate. Calcium ions could possibly be involved in the leaching process. It is known that when aqueous attack occurs, a ternary CaO-containing glass loses Na⁺ ions from the lattice more slowly compared to a binary Na-rich glass [6, 7]. Besides, Ca²⁺ seems to be able to promote clustering of NBO by reactions similar to $2Q_3 \rightarrow Q_2 + Q_4$, the latter being much more resistant to attack [5]. Nonetheless, in the present study the role of Ca ions is not clear from any of the SIMS profiling, nor does it appear as a leached ion in any surface scanning.

265 3.3. The influence of glass composition

In Figure 5, the alteration depth at 95% of the slope of curve of the profiles is plotted versus the time of exposure of samples to each of the four RH environments. The alteration depth is relative to each ion, thus it is considered to be the depletion depth of Na⁺ ions (Figure 5a) and the depth at which SiOH⁺ can be observed inside the glass surface (Figure 5b). Figure 5 shows that the altered layer at the surface increases in a non-linear way. Considering the third item mentioned above from V. Jain [49] (*'the glass network, even if attacked chemically, does not dissolve, so that protons and alkali ions interdiffuse without formation of a steady state.'*), altered layers are formed on the surface as the reactions progress, which occurs since the corrosion processes are being affected by non steady state conditions [49, 58]. Since the products resulting from the interdiffusion accumulate on the surface and the network is not dissolved, the ion-exchanged layer tends to grow in thickness with time [48, 50].

The trend presented in the profiles in Figure 1 is better shown in Figure 5a, where it can be clearly observed that the Na⁺ ions are decreasing in concentration with increasing depth. As Tournie *et al.* mention, the composition of the corrosion layers (*i.e.* the altered surfaces) has been seen as a film almost totally depleted in alkali oxides (Na₂O, K₂O) and MgO, and depleted in CaO and P₂O₅ to lesser extents; Al₂O₃ and Fe₂O₃ could remain constant or be enriched, and enrichment is usually strong on the silica content [9]. Nonetheless, the film formed on the glass surfaces under study was not yet depleted in either

Koncenters, the min formed on the glass surfaces under study was not yet depicted in ether
 K₂O, MgO nor CaO, although the enrichment in silica was observed as described in the literature.
 In the present scenario – on which the environmental conditions are similar for the three different

- soda-rich glass types the evidences of the influence of the glass composition are visible. By looking at Figures 5 and 6, and correlating this information with the profiles in Figure 1, it is possible to verify that the three glass types exposed to both environments differ from one another very evidently. While *Cristallo* glass samples show an initial surface depleted in Na⁺ ions, the *façon de Venise* type shows a less depleted surface from the start, and the Soda-Lime type an even less alkali-depleted surface. The hydration depth follows this trend as well, as it can be seen by the SiOH⁺ species information
- (Figure 5b). The water bands detected by FTIR around 3500-3200 cm⁻¹ and 1700-1500 cm⁻¹ are also evidence of the different hydration behaviour. These bands are less visible in the Soda-Lime glass type, which suggests that the composition of this surface might be less hygroscopic. If on one hand, the latter characteristic already promotes some protection to the surface, delaying the environmental effect, the fact that the Soda-Lime glass has a higher (double) $CaO/(Na_2O + K_2O)$ ratio than the other two glass
- ²⁹⁵ types (see Table 1) seems to have a strong influence on the alteration of the surface (as explained in Section 1.2), at least at its initial phase CaO has a very effective role in stabilising silica-rich layers and retarding glass dealkalinisation, namely as it has early been reported by Hench and Clark (1978) [12], among other. This seems to be very well attributed to the fact that there are fewer unsatisfied bonds and therefore it provides an effective chemical barrier to further Na⁺ diffusion [12]. Nevertheless, the amount

³⁰⁰ of CaO or the ratio between CaO and other alkali oxides is a crucial factor, as it has been confirmed that common soda-lime silicate glass submits a strong interaction with water [5].

The summary of profiling information in terms of variation of concentration of two ions species is presented in Figure 6 – Na⁺ ions in Figure 6a and Ca⁺ ion in Figure 6b. The concentration information was calculated based on the normalisation to the theoretical bulk concentration, by admitting that ³⁰⁵ amount was reached at the plateau of the curves. It can be seen in Figure 6a that the release of glass components from its surface is a complex non-linear mechanism as a function of time. This behaviour shows the combined effect of parameters such as composition, formation of secondary phases, and the environment [49]. It is incontestable that the higher content in alkali and alkaline-earth ions in the glass, the higher the number of sites which are available for ion-exchange reactions. Also, the migration of

- the alkali ions towards the surface results in a silica-enriched porous layer, and apparently in a group of aggregates probably distributed in its pores – as presented in section 3.2 on page 6. Considering the three types of glasses under study, this behaviour is definitely dependent upon the composition and ion ratios. The glass with the highest content in lime – the Soda-Lime glass type – shows indeed the higher stability, but it is closely followed by the *façon de Venise* glass type (Figures 5 and 6). Knowing
- that usually a low-durability glass produces a thicker film than a high-durability glass under identical conditions [59], *Cristallo* glass can be relatively classified as the less durable, followed by the *façon de Venise*, and finally Soda-Lime will be the more stable among these three types.

The most interesting fact upon the comparison of these glass compositions is that the façon de Venise glass has a content in lime similar to the Cristallo glass, which evidences a much more altered ³²⁰ surface after 1 year exposure to all environments. By looking at the ratios between alkali modifiers and network stabilisers (Na₂O + K₂O / CaO + MgO + Al₂O₃), it seems that these ratios being lower for both Soda-Lime and façon de Venise glass types than the Cristallo one (Table 1) has a stronger influence than the content in lime alone. It is not solely the amount of CaO that is slowing the rate of the façon de Venise surfaces alteration with time and with RH, for it is almost the same. The difference

- in the remaining oxides between the two glass compositions is enough to contribute to a different surface alteration behaviour. Finally, the results obtained do not show any evidence for the leaching of Ca ions in the altered layer formed on *Cristallo* glass surface (Figure 6b and Figure 7¹), which suggests that if this ions are mobilised, this phenomenon occurs later in time. It is broadly reported that *Cristallo* glass is of rather low durability [28, 30, 60–62]. A layer depleted in sodium, calcium and magnesium oxides has been observed in aged Renaissance glassworks [60]. The results from the early stages of corrosion
- ³³⁰ has been observed in aged Renaissance glassworks [60]. The results from the early stages of corrosion of this composition under the selected exposure conditions do not present evidence for the leaching of either species from the surface layer (the same way as the Ca⁺ SIMS profile presented in Figure 7a, the Mg⁺ profiles show a similar behaviour).

4. Discussion

This paper addresses the atmospheric alteration behaviour of three different soda-rich historic glass compositions that typically could be found in similar conditions in a museum. This study has allowed to reveal early-stage features formation under mild conditions such as the ones existing in actual museum environments. Moreover, the kinetics of the process and the most relevant factors to its progression were able to be analysed in detail.

340 4.1. Atmospheric Deterioration Kinetics

The progression of the surface alteration for the *Cristallo*, fdV and Soda-Lime glasses has a clear dependence on the water availability and penetration on the surface, as it can be drawn from the results of the silanol species in the SIMS profiling previously presented. Water penetration was found to be independent of alkali diffusion (a kinetically controlled phenomenon with a $t^{\frac{1}{2}}$ dependence) [12], since it progresses further deep into the glass surface. The $t^{\frac{1}{2}}$ -dependence of the growth of the alteration layer is related to a transport-controlled process [63]. The more complex rate of the present scenario differs from a $t^{\frac{1}{2}}$ -dependence, but it does not seem to be linear either. Thus, the hydrolysis and reprecipitation of insoluble phases of the glass surface in the case of a humid atmosphere, where the amount of water molecules on the surface available and able to react or solvate other species is limited, affects the rate of

¹The surface enrichment in Ca⁺ ions in *Cristallo* is apparently relative to the leaching of Na⁺ ions, rather than the mobilisation of the former ion (Figure 7a) In Figure 7b it occurs to a much lesser extent to the *façon-de-Venise* glass type, and a very similar behaviour occurs in the Soda-Lime SIMS depth profiles that were collected for the same ion.

the reaction [63, 64]. Moreover, as far as the initial stages of the surfaces alteration observations have evidenced, the alteration behaviour of the surface is not homogeneous and this seems to be the case for all three glass types studied.

The absence of an alteration depth linear with the increase of the RH of the exposure environment can also be verified (Figure 8). It would be likely that the intermediate RH environments (55% and 65%) would represent intermediate levels of alteration in all glasses compared to the extreme environments used (45% and 75%). This results would be in accordance with an hydrolysis controlled process, with a linear time dependence [12]. However, the results for all RH environments do not fit well into a linear tendency, which should be rightly interpreted due to both a non-homogeneous surface-process occurring, as well as to the lack of other RH environments experimental data. Considering the error deviation of each measurement, and this combined with the observed formation of features distributed over the surface on specific regions (probably dictated by porosity, hygroscopicity, the surface roughness resulting from production technology, among other factors), the non-linearity of the relation was not unexpected.

In order to understand elementary steps of reactions on this multicomponent system, it is important to have knowledge of the physicochemical parameters of the dominant reactions in the process [65]. In most cases, the adsorption from the surroundings gaseous or liquid phases is the first step of the sequence of a reaction [65]. The present study revealed that the *Cristallo*, fdV and Soda-Lime glasses surface alteration under a museum-like atmosphere develops quite accordingly an hydrolytic first occurring and/or controlling step, since it should be the first step of the sequence of reactions. All surface reactions lead to a lowering of the surface free energy of the glass, from the thermodynamic point of view. More stable compounds are formed, impurities are segregated and interfaces are favoured since this lowers the surface energy [65]. Surface energy is in fact an important property and factor in terms of the reactivity

of the glass surface with the surrounding environment, namely ambient water [48]. The accumulation of water molecules on the glass surface has been already reported as contributing to the diffusion of alkali ions through the glass (bulk \rightarrow surface) driven by a chemical potential [66]. According to the results presented, it appears that the localised adsorption of water molecules, and the amount of these molecules (determined by RH) available to form more or less layers over the glass [67] are factors that are strongly

affecting the kinetics of the process.

- On the other hand, since water can penetrate the surface either via diffusing into void space, or by hydrolysis and condensation reactions [3], and that from the reverse hydration reaction it is clearly possible that a rearrangement of the structure of the network can occur, both the amount of water molecules available and the space in the lattice can be a determining factor for the progression of the alteration. In other words, both the RH in the environment and the glass composition, which determines the structure of the network and the size of the voids and spaces in the lattice or the ones than can be formed by the movement of alkali ions, are determining the surface alteration phenomena. The amount of water molecules that enters the glass depends on the space available in the lattice. The rate of the water
- penetration (molecular diffusion pathway) is dictated primarily by the size of the voids in the lattice. If the tetrahedra rings present in the structure promote small voids, or if these are blocked or filled by modifier cations (as Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺), the only way for the water molecules to enter the network is via hydrolysis. This seems to be the case of most glasses [46], and the current results have proven that the intendiffusion is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ intendition of the tetrahedra is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where the Na⁺ is a second phenomenon in time (as Figure 8, where th
- ³⁹⁰ the interdiffusion is a second phenomenon in time (see Figure 8, where the Na⁺ ions alteration depth is always below the SiOH⁺ species alteration depth). Hence, it is reasonable to consider that the chemical durability will be higher the more compact is the glass structure (*i.e.* the fewer the water molecules can enter the matrix [51]), and that consequently it would be likely that the kinetics of the alteration (*Cristallo* >> façon de Venise > Soda-Lime) would be an indicator of the difference of these matrices ³⁹⁵ voids size and of their proneness to grow under moisture attack.

4.2. Glass Surfaces Alteration Behaviour

It was verified in this study that the depletion of Na⁺ in depth (Figures 1a and 1b), together with the formation of Na⁺ enriched regions on the upper level of the surface, is associated with Si and K enrichment according to the profiles of these two ions – which would be expected at least for the case of silica [9]. However, the regions enriched in the alkali ions (Na⁺) present a lower signal of Si⁺, K⁺, and a smaller enrichment in Na₂OH⁺ species collected – see Figure 4. The roughness of the surfaces increases, and the diameter of the regions observed both by optical microscopy and SIMS surface scanning increases as well. Nonetheless, the height of these regions can not be precisely determined. It is proposed that they occur at a nanometre scale, more pronounced in the outer surface than inside the glass itself. The low signal obtained for the Na₂OH⁺ species can be interpreted as the OH⁻ ions balancing the charge

⁴⁰⁵ low signal obtained for the Na₂OH⁺ species can be interpreted as the OH⁻ lons balancing the charge of some of the Na⁺ leached ions, or it can be representative of water molecules solvating the alkali ions. The absence (or too low signals) of Na_2COOH^+ , $Na_2CO_3^+$ and $Na_3SO_4^+$ (which this technique was able to identify if present [30]) suggests that crystalline products may have not yet been formed at this stage. Despite the fact that it has been reported and verified that sodium formate is the main crystalline

- species on the surface of unstable glass (as in [68-71]), the absence of the formation of crystalline phases 410 of this compound is not surprising due to its low deliquescence point at room temperature (50.2-52.1%)according to [71]). If in one hand there would be a higher probability of formation of that compound with the increase of the 'solution' volume (RH, and hence water availability), on the other hand the salts would not be precipitating in the higher RH environments. On the contrary, both sodium carbonates
- and sulfates have high deliquescence points [71, 72] and would be expected that these species could 415 be forming already some crystalline compounds even at 75% RH. Nonetheless, as it was observed by Alloteau et al., only when samples are removed from the climatic chamber and are left to dry for a few months under ambient atmosphere (about 40% at 25 °C in the case of [64]) and the water from the hydrated surface regions evaporates, it will be possible for evaporite salts to form (such as Na_2CO_3) [64].
- Moreover, two other factors are mentioned by these authors: (i) the temperature of the liquid-vapour transition is higher in confined medium, and (ii) the number of Na⁺ and OH⁻ ions actually solvated inside pores and available in reality to react with the atmospheric CO₂ molecules can be rather limited [64]. In addition, Bourg and Steefel also found that only in silica nanopores ≥ 2 nm can be found water molecules with bulk-liquid water behaviour at the centre of the pore [73]. This suggests that if smaller pores exist, the solvation properties should be rather limited. 425

A possible explanation for the observations made on all the glass surfaces – although to a different extent with relation to the glass type, the RH environment and the time of exposure – is schematically presented in Figure 9. The process is explain as follows.

(1) It is known that if only few molecules are available, some can adsorb on the surface and form a few layers [67]. The water molecules will be acting at a local level, for they may not be covering all 430 the surface. Besides, the ability of this 'film' to solvate the leached Na⁺ ions will be quite limited. This is consistent with the observed results for the samples exposed to the 45% RH environment:

- (i) much lower hydration bands detected by FTIR in all glass types (2), (ii) less mobilised alkali ions as can be seen by the SIMS profiles (Figure 1) or the concentration plots (Figure 6), and (iii) very small regions enriched in Na⁺ ions at 45% RH for all three glass types, observed by SIMS surface scanning imaging (Figure 3).
- (2) If enough water molecules are available from the air moisture, they would be able form agglomerates or droplets. With more water molecules adsorbed on the surface, the process will be enhanced: the hydrolysis and hydration of the surface can progress deeper and faster into the glass surface, and the chemical potential and 'solution' will be higher, thus increasing the leaching of the Na⁺. However, 440 this occurs probably also at a local level. The formation of the observed large regions enriched in Na⁺ at 75% RH is consistent with the possible localised role of water droplets. Moreover, the cumulative effect of leaching (increasing the hygroscopicity) and adsorption over time will probably be the reason for the increase of these regions.
- Due to the fact that no washing away phenomena is likely to occur in this static deterioration 445 conditions [44, 46], the condensation and evaporation should not remove the leached Na^+ ions. One hypothesis is that these alkalis can be solvated in the water droplets adsorbed on the surface, and it were these the regions that the SIMS surface scanning analysed. There is yet another possibility, although the results from the present work do not provide evidence for it. A significant part of the alkali ions can also be still strongly embedded in the layer structure, rather than completely free from the hydrated silicate 450 network (Figure 9), since this has been observed by dissolution tests performed by Alloteau et al. (2017) [64].

When comparing the above mentioned results for the three glass compositions studied, the hygroscopicity and porosity of the pristine surfaces may be two determining factors for the different alteration behaviours. The proposed sketch seems to also be in accordance with progression of the degree of al-455 teration of the surfaces in the order (*Cristallo* >> facon de Venise > Soda-Lime), considering that the hygroscopicity and porosity of the three surfaces will cyclically promote:

- (i) adsorption of water molecules on the surface and in the pores;
- (ii) from (i), the hydrolysis reaction will create more or larger pores (voids in the matrix), and silanol groups (which increases hygroscopicity);
- (iii) promoted by (i) and also influenced by (ii), the leaching of the alkali to the surface, which in turn increases the hygroscopicity;
- (iv) both (ii) and (iii) should contribute to more water adsorption.

435

5. Conclusions

The adsorbed water and the composition (or the structure) of the glass surface both contribute to the kinetics of the surface reactions with the environment. Hence, one of the new insights of this paper is the study of the deterioration process using model glass (with historic compositions and technique), with no accelerated ageing, but rather actual museum-like conditions. The composition of the glass surface is considered, as well as the chemistry of surface layers formed during the glass samples production. Therefore, the surfaces prepared are as close as possible to the real historic surfaces and this revealed to

be an important factor for the understanding of the alteration of these surfaces in the initial state. For all three glass types, the thickness of the surface altered layer is proportional to the time of exposure and to the relative humidity of the surrounding atmosphere, which is directly related to the environmental water molecules availability. The depth at which alkali ions are leached is always below the

- ⁴⁷⁵ hydration depth for the same exposure conditions, which suggests that hydrolysis may be the controlling reaction. The kinetics of the reactions seems to be indeed slower in the presence of low RH, which is evident for all three glass types at 45% RH. Moreover, the higher RH environment promotes the formation of large regions on the surface enriched in Na⁺ ions, at a faster rate then lower RH environments. These Na⁺-rich aggregates may represent an initial state of surface alteration, likely associated to the
- atmospheric moisture adsorption in localised areas. This local enrichment of the surface has not been observed in any other studies, where the presence of sodium is usually observed associated with crystalline products (for instance: Na_2CO_3).
- The information obtained with the in-depth and the surface-scanning profiles by SIMS showed that when comparing the alteration of *Cristallo*, *façon de Venise* and Soda-Lime glass surfaces, the latter seems to be the type of glass less prone to corrode even under high RH conditions. For the same environmental conditions, there are rather different states of surface alteration. Soda-Lime glass is more stable both in terms of alteration depth and depletion of Na⁺ ions at the surface level. The *façon de Venise* glass shows an increase in the alteration depth between the *Cristallo* and Soda-Lime types, and a Na⁺ depletion behaviour closer to the Soda-Lime type (more stable, less depleted). *Cristallo* glass is
- the more vulnerable to alteration both in terms of surface depletion in Na⁺, hydration of the surface and increase of the altered layer. The composition of the glass seems to have influence on the structure of the surface (including the porosity, and the lattice voids size and number) and on its hygroscopicity (which has impact in its reactivity). From this point of view, it is clear that the composition of the glass has a strong influence on kinetics of the glass surfaces alteration under the same conditions, which is a very important factor for conservators and curators to be aware of when trying to prevent this type of
- glassworks degradation.

These three compositions are representative of large productions of luxury glass objects along the centuries, being *Cristallo* glass the one of most relevance. It is broadly reported that this material is of rather low durability [28, 30, 60-62], although it is a glass with a high silica content. The present study

⁵⁰⁰ allowed to better understand the early-stages of the process of deterioration of this glass type. Further research is necessary to verify in which conditions or at which stage of the process will the layer depleted in sodium, calcium and magnesium oxides (observed in aged Renaissance glassworks [60]) starts to form.

6. Acknowledgements

505

510

The authors acknowledge Rui C. da Silva for the revision and suggestions on the data processing, and Luís Cerqueira Alves for the PIXE analysis presented in this paper. A.R. and T.P. acknowledge the support by the Portuguese Science Foundation (projects PEst-OE/EAT/UI0729/2011 and PEst-OE/EAT/UI0729/2014, SFRH/BD/84675/2012 and SFRH/BPD/108403/2015).

References

- [1] E. Greiner-Wronowa, L. Stoch, Influence of environment on surface of the ancient glasses, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 196 (95) (1996) 118–127. doi:10.1016/0022-3093(95)00563-3.
- [2] M. Verità, T. Toninato, A comparative analytical investigation on the origins of the Venetian glassmaking, Rivista della Sper. Vetro 4 (1990) 169–175.
- [3] K. Cummings, W. A. Lanford, M. Feldmann, Weathering of glass in moist and polluted air, Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research B 136-138 (1998) 858–862.

- [4] H. V. Walters, P. B. B. Adams, H. V. Walterns, Effects of humidity on the weathering of glass, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 19 (1975) 183–199.
 - [5] N. Carmona, M. A. Villegas, J. M. F. Navarro, Characterisation of an intermediate decay phenomenon of historical glasses, Journal of Materials Sciencedoi:10.1007/s10853-005-3948-6.
 - [6] L. Hench, Characterization of glass corrosion and durability, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 19 (1975) 27–39. doi:10.1016/0022-3093(75)90067-8.
 - [7] L. Robinet, C. Hall, K. Eremin, S. Fearn, J. Tate, Alteration of soda silicate glasses by organic pollutants in museums: Mechanisms and kinetics, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 355 (28-30) (2009) 1479–1488. doi:10.1016/j.jnoncrysol.2009.05.011.
 - [8] S. Djanarthany, P. Trocellier, IBA and SIMS coupling to study glass alteration mechanisms, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 353 (52-54) (2007) 4830–4838. doi:10.1016/j.jnoncrysol.2007.06.075.
 - [9] A. Tournie, P. Ricciardi, P. Colomban, Glass corrosion mechanisms: A multiscale analysis, Solid State Ionics 179 (38) (2008) 2142–2154. doi:10.1016/j.ssi.2008.07.019.
 - [10] C. M. Jackson, D. Greenfield, L. A. Howie, An Assessment of Compositional and Morphological Changes in Model Archaeological Glasses in an Acid Burial Matrix, Archaeometry 54 (3) (2012) 489–507. doi:10.1111/j.1475-4754.2011.00632.x.
 - [11] L. Robinet, S. Fearn, K. Eremin, C. Pulham, C. Hall, Understanding glass deterioration in museum collections: a multi-disciplinary approach, in: ICOM Committee for Conservation 2005, Vol. 1, Glass and Ceramics., 2005, pp. 139–145.
 - [12] L. L. Hench, D. E. Clark, Physical Chemistry of Glass Surfaces, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 28 (1978) 83–105.
 - [13] J. Sterpenich, G. Libourel, Using Stained Glass Windows to Understand the Durability of Toxic Waste Matrices, Chemical Geology 174 (2001) 181–193.
 - [14] Y. Inagaki, H. Furuya, K. Idemitsu, T. Arima, Review of waste glass corrosion and associated radionuclide release as a part of safety assessment of entire disposal system, Progress in Nuclear Energy 32 (314) (1998) 501–508. doi:10.1016/S0149-1970(97)00060-7.
 - [15] A. Verney-Carron, S. Gin, G. Libourel, Archaeological analogs and the future of nuclear waste glass, Journal of Nuclear Materials 406 (3) (2010) 365–370. doi:10.1016/j.jnucmat.2010.09.028.
 - [16] R. H. Doremus, Interdiffusion of hydrogen and alkali ions in a glass surface, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 19 (1975) 137–144. doi:10.1016/0022-3093(75)90079-4.
- 545 [17] N. Earl, The investigation of glass deterioration as a result of storage systems for waterlogged archaeological glass, in: N. T. Tennent (Ed.), The Conservation of Glass and Ceramics: Research, Practice and Training, James {&} James (Science Publishers) Ltd., 1999, pp. 96–113.
 - [18] G. A. Cox, B. A. Ford, The long-term corrosion of glass by ground-water, Journal of Materials Science 28 (1993) 5637–5647.
- ⁵⁵⁰ [19] B. Dal Bianco, R. Bertoncello, L. Milanese, S. Barison, Glass Corrosion Across The Alps: A Surface Study Of Chemical Corrosion Of Glasses Found In Marine And Ground Environments, Archaeometry 47 (2) (2005) 351–360.
 - [20] O. Schalm, D. Caluwé, H. Wouters, K. Janssens, F. Verhaeghe, M. Pieters, Chemical composition and deterioration of glass excavated in the 15th-16th century fishermen town of Raversijde (Belgium), Spectrochimica Acta Part B: Atomic Spectroscopy 59 (10-11) (2004) 1647-1656. doi:10.1016/j.sab.2004.07.012.
 - [21] T. Palomar, M. Garcia-Heras, M.-A. Villegas, Model Historical Glasses under Simulated Burial Conditions, COALITION (23) (2012) 2–6.
 - [22] T. Palomar, Effect of soil pH on the degradation of silicate glasses, International Journal of Applied Glass Science 8 (2) (2017) 177–187. doi:10.1111/ijag.12226.

530

535

540

555

560

520

- [23] R. Bertoncello, L. Milanese, U. Russo, D. Pedron, Chemistry of cultural glasses : the early medieval glasses of Monselice 's hill (Padova, Italy), Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 306 (4) (2002) 249–262.
- [24] O. Schalm, V. Van Der Linden, P. Frederickx, S. Luyten, G. Van Der Snickt, J. Caen, D. Schryvers, K. Janssens, E. Cornelis, D. Van Dyck, M. Schreiner, Enamels in stained glass windows: Prepararation, chemical composition, microstructure and causes of deterioration., Spectrochimica Acta Part B 64 (2009) 812–820.
- [25] M. De Bardi, H. Hutter, M. Schreiner, ToF-SIMS analysis for leaching studies of potash-lime-silica glass, Applied Surface Science 282 (2013) 195-201. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc.2013.05.101. URL http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0169433213010283
- [26] J. Ryan, D. S. McPhail, P. S. Rogers, Glass deterioration in the museum environment. a study of the mechanisms of decay using secondary ion mass spectroscopy, in: J. Bridgland (Ed.), ICOM Committee for Conservation, Preprints of the 11th Triennial Meeting, Edinburgh, Vol. 2, James & James, 1996, pp. 839–844.
- [27] L. Robinet, K. Eremin, S. Fearn, C. Pulham, C. Hall, Understanding glass deterioration in museum collections through Raman spectroscopy and SIMS analysis, Materials Research Society Symposium Proceedings 852 (2005) 121-128. doi:10.1557/PROC-852-008.8.
 URL http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-28844487952{&}partnerID=tZ0tx3y1
- 580 [28] S. Fearn, D. S. McPhail, V. Oakley, Room temperature corrosion of museum glass: an investigation using low-energy SIMS, Applied Surface Science 231-232 (2004) 510-514. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc. 2004.03.205.
 - [29] S. Fearn, D. S. Mcphail, Moisture attack on museum glass measured by SIMS, Physics and Chemistry of Glasses 46 (5) (2005) 505–511.
- [30] S. Fearn, D. McPhail, B. Hagenhoff, E. Tallarek, TOF-SIMS analysis of corroding museum glass, Applied Surface Science 252 (19) (2006) 7136–7139. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc.2006.02.157.
 - [31] S. Fearn, D. McPhail, R. Morris, M. Dowsett, Sodium and hydrogen analysis of room temperature glass corrosion using low energy Cs SIMS, Applied Surface Science 252 (19) (2006) 7070–7073. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc.2006.02.101.
- [32] D. McPhail, Some applications of SIMS in conservation science, archaeometry and cosmochemistry, Applied Surface Science 252 (19) (2006) 7107–7112. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc.2006.02.132.
 - [33] M. Verità, L'invenzione del cristallo muranese: una verifica analitica delle fonti storiche, Rivista della Sper. Vetro 1 (1985) 17–29.
- [34] I. D. Raedt, K. Janssens, J. Veeckman, Compositional distinctions between 16th century "façon-de-Venise" and Venetian glass vessels excavated in Antwerp, Belgium, Journal of Analyitical Atomic Spectrometry 14 (1999) 493–498.
 - [35] S. Cagno, K. Janseens, M. Mendera, Compositional analysis of Tuscan glass samples: in search of raw material fingerprints., Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry 391 (4) (2008) 1389–1395. doi:10.1007/s00216-008-1945-8.
- ⁶⁰⁰ [36] M. Verità, Some technical aspects of ancient venetian glass, in: Technique et science: Les Arts du verre, Namur: Presses Universitaires, 1991, pp. 57–67.
 - [37] M. Verità, A. Renier, S. Zecchin, Chemical analyses of ancient glass findings excavated in the Venetian lagoon, Journal of Cultural Heritage 3 (2002) 261–271.
- [38] I. D. Raedt, K. Janssens, J. Veeckman, On the distinction between 16th and 17th century Venetian
 and façon de Venise glass, in: J. Veeckman (Ed.), Majolica and Glass from Italy to Antwerp and
 Beyond the transfer of technology in the 16th- early 17th century, Antwerpen, 2002, Ch. On the
 dis, pp. 95–121.

- [39] A. Lima, T. Medici, A. Pires de Matos, M. Verità, Chemical analysis of 17th century Millefiori glasses excavated in the Monastery of Sta. Clara-a-Velha, Portugal: comparison with Venetian and fa{ç}on-de-Venise production, Journal of Archaeological Science 39 (5) (2012) 1238–1248. doi: 10.1016/j.jas.2012.01.006.
- [40] I. D. Raedt, K. Janssens, J. Veeckman, L. Vincze, B. Vekemans, T. E. Jeffries, Trace analysis for distinguishing between Venetian and façon-de-Venise glass vessels of the 16th and 17th century, J. Anal. At. Spectrom 16 (2001) 1012–1017.
- ⁶¹⁵ [41] C. Zerwick, A Short History of Glass, The Corning Museum of Glass, 1990.
 - [42] O. Drahotová, European Glass, Peerage Books, 1983.

635

- [43] D. Jacoby, Raw materials for the glass industries of Venice and the Terraferma, about 1370-about 1460, Journal of Glass Studies 35 (1993) 65–90.
- [44] M. Verità, Modern and ancient glass: nature, composition and deterioration mechanisms, in:
 R. Lefevre (Ed.), The Materials of Cultural Heritage in their Environment, EDIPUGLIA-BARI, 2006, pp. 119–132.
 - [45] M. B. Volf, Chemical approach to glass, Amsterdam, 1984.
 - [46] B. C. Bunker, Molecular mechanisms for corrosion of silica and silicate glasses, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 179 (1994) 300–308.
- [47] L. L. Hench, D. E. Clark, E. L. Yen-Bower, Corrosion of glasses and glass-ceramics, Nuclear and Chemical Waste Management 1 (1980) 59–75.
 - [48] Doremus, Glass science, John Wiley & Sons Inc., New York [etc.], 1994.
 - [49] V. Jain, Chemical durability of nuclear waste glasses-a review. URL https://www.nrc.gov/docs/ML0613/ML061310303.pdf
- ⁶³⁰ [50] G. G. K. Baucke, Corrosion of glasses and its significance glass coating, Electrochimica Acta 39 (8/9) (1994) 1223–1228.
 - [51] H. Scholze, Section 1. Water and glass, durability, and transport phenomena Glass-Water Interactions, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 102 (1988) 1–10.
 - [52] K. Janssens (Ed.), Modern Methods for Analysing Archaeological and Historical Glass Volume 1, John Wiley & Sons, 2013.
 - R. H. Brill, Crizzling a Problem in Glass Conservation, Studies in Conservation 20 (sup1) (1975) 121-134. doi:10.1179/sic.1975.s1.021. URL http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1179/sic.1975.s1.021
 - [54] S. Koob, Conservation and care of glass objects, Archetype, 2006.
- ⁶⁴⁰ [55] M. E. Lynch, D. C. Folz, D. E. Clark, Use of FTIR reflectance spectroscopy to monitor corrosion mechanisms on glass surfaces, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 353 (27) (2007) 2667–2674. doi: 10.1016/j.joncrysol.2007.05.012.
 - [56] I. Halasz, M. Agarwal, R. Li, N. Miller, What can vibrational spectroscopy tell about the structure of dissolved sodium silicates?, Microporous and Mesoporous Materials 135 (1-3) (2010) 74-81. doi: 10.1016/j.micromeso.2010.06.013.
 - URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.micromeso.2010.06.013
 - [57] M. R. Derrick, D. Stulik, J. M. Landy, Infrared Spectroscopy in Conservation Science: Scientific Tools for Conservation, Scientific Tools for Conservation, The Getty Conservation Institute, Los Angeles, US, 1999. doi:10.1007/s13398-014-0173-7.2.
- ⁶⁵⁰ [58] F. Farges, M.-p. Etcheverry, A. Haddi, P. Trocellier, E. Curti, G. E. Brown-Jr, Durability of Silicate Glasses : An Historical Approach, in: P. Pieanetta, B. Hedman (Eds.), X-Ray Absorption Fine Structure, American Institute of Physics, 2007, pp. 44–52.

- [59] A. Paul, Chemical durability of glasses; a thermodynamic approach, Journal of Materials Science 12 (1977) 2246–2268. doi:10.1007/BF00552247.
- [60] M. Verità, The Venetian Cristallo Secrets and Weakness of a Renaissance European Success, in: Glass Science in Art and Conservation : an international conference devoted to the applications of science to glass art and the conservation of glass artifacts : 19-20 September 2005, New University of Lisbon, Campus Caparica, Portugal / organized by Depa, 2005, pp. 73–75.
 - [61] C. R. Kurkjian, W. R. Prindle, Perspectives on the history of Glass Composition, Journal of American Ceramics Society 81 (4) (1998) 795–813.
 - [62] W. P. McCray, Glassmaking in renaissance Italy: The innovation of venetian cristallo, JOM Journal of the Minerals, Metals and Materials Society 50 (5) (1998) 14–19. doi:10.1007/s11837-998-0024-0.
- [63] T. A. Abrajano, J. K. Bates, J. J. Mazer, Aqueous corrosion of natural and nuclear waste glasses II.
 Mechanisms of vapor hydration of nuclear waste glasses, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 108 (3) (1989) 269–288. doi:10.1016/0022-3093(89)90297-4.
 - [64] F. Alloteau, P. Lehuédé, O. Majérus, I. Biron, A. Dervanian, T. Charpentier, D. Caurant, New insight into atmospheric alteration of alkali-lime silicate glasses, Corrosion Science 122 (2017) 12– 25. doi:10.1016/j.corsci.2017.03.025.
- ⁶⁷⁰ URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.corsci.2017.03.025

680

- [65] H. Dunken, Surface chemistry of optical glasses, Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 129 (1991) 64–75.
- [66] S. Hogg, D. Mcphail, S. Tutor, V. Oakley, P. Rogers, Cracking Crizzling Eight Years of Collaborative Research, Victoria {&} Albert Museum, Conservation Journal 29 (1998) 10–12.
- [67] D. B. Asay, S. H. Kim, Evolution of the Adsorbed Water Layer Structure on Silicon Oxide at Room Temperature, The Journal of Physical Chemistry B 109 (35) (2005) 16760-16763. doi: 10.1021/jp0530420. URL http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/jp0530420
 - [68] L. Robinet, K. Eremin, B. Cobo del Arco, L. T. Gibson, A Raman spectroscopic study of pollutioninduced glass deterioration, Journal of Raman spectroscopy 35 (8-9) (2004) 662–670. doi:10.1002/ jrs.1133.
 - [69] K. Eremin, B. C. del Arco, L. Robinet, L. Gibson, Deteriorating Nineteenth and Twentieth-century British Glass in the National Museums of Scotland, in: Annales of the 16th Congress of the International Association for the History of Glass (Associacion Internationale pour l'Histoire du Verre, AIHV), London 2003, Association Internationale pour l'Histoire du Verre, 2005, pp. 380–385.
- [70] B. Lamain, M. R. Van Bommel, G. Verhaar, N. H. Tennent, The Development of an Ion Chromatography Protocol for Detecting the Early Stages of Glass Degradation, in: E. K. V. L. C. Roemich, H. (Eds.), Recent Advances in Glass, Stained-Glass, and Ceramics Conservation. Amsterdam, 7-10 October 2013, Zwolle: Spa Uitgevers, 2013, pp. 303–311.
- [71] G. Verhaar, M. R. van Bommel, N. H. Tennent, Weeping Glass: the Identification of Ionic Species
 on the Surface of Vessel Glass Using Ion Chromatography, in: H. Römich, L. Fair (Eds.), Recent Advances in Glass, Stained-Glass, and Ceramics Conservation. Wroclaw 2016, 2016, pp. 123–134.
 - [72] A. Arnold, K. Zehnder, Monitoring wall paintings affected by soluble salts, The Conservation of Wall Paintings: Proceedings of a Symposium Organized by the Courtauld Institute of Art and the Getty Conservation Institute, London, July 13–16, 1987 1 (September) (1991) 103–35.
- ⁶⁹⁵ [73] I. C. Bourg, C. I. Steefel, Molecular dynamics simulations of water structure and diffusion in silica nanopores, Journal of Physical Chemistry C 116 (21) (2012) 11556–11564. doi:10.1021/jp301299a.



Figure 1: SIMS profiling data of the ions Na^+ and SiOH⁺ collected for both 45% RH and 75% RH environments for all glass samples, where visible differences between the pristine and the aged surfaces can be seen. *Cristallo, façon de Venise* and Soda Lime glass samples were aged up to 1 year.



(a) Cristallo glass samples exposed to $45\%~\rm RH$ and $75\%~\rm RH$

(b) $facon\ de\ Venise\$ glass samples exposed to 45% RH and 75% RH



(c) Soda-lime glass samples exposed to 45% RH and 75% RH

Figure 2: μ -FTIR spectra of the *Cristallo* (a), *façon de Venise* (b) and Soda Lime (c) glass samples aged up to 1 year. t_{0 days} = pristine or control samples, up to t_{365 days} = 1 year exposure), at the 45% RH and the 75% RH environments. The H₂O stretching and bending bands are highlighted since the main alterations occur in terms of the surfaces hydration.



(a) Surface scanning of the release of Na^+ ions for the Cristallo surfaces exposed to 45% and 75% RH



(b) Surface scanning of the release of Na^+ ions for the *façon de Venise* surfaces exposed to 45% and 75% RH



(c) Surface scanning of the release of $\mathrm{Na^+}$ ions for the Soda-Lime surfaces exposed to 45% and 75% RH

Figure 3: SIMS surface scanning results for the release of Na^+ onto the surface for *Cristallo* (a), *façon-de-Venise* (b) and Soda-Lime (c) glass surfaces aged up to 1 year.



Figure 4: Detailed observations of the *Cristallo* surfaces through (a) optical microscopy (unaged samples and samples aged over 1 year), (b) 3D profiles of the same surfaces. and (c) SIMS surface scanning of the unaged samples (Si⁺ ions and total concentration) compared to the samples aged over 1 year at 75% RH (Si⁺, Na₂OH⁺ species, and total concentration) which evidences the over surface enrichment in Na⁺ ions.





45% 75%

Log[time] (days)

45% 75%

•

Log[time] (days)

45% 75%

Log[time] (days)





(a) Na^+ surface composition vs. time of exposure for the *Cristallo*, facon-de-Venise samples exposed to 45%, 55%, 65% and 75% RH environments and the Soda-line glass surfaces exposed to 45% and 75% RH environments.



(b) Ca^+ surface composition vs. time of exposure for the *Cristallo*, fagon-de-Venise samples exposed to 45%, 55%, 65% and 75% RH environments and the Soda-line glass surfaces exposed to 45% and 75% RH environments.

Figure 6: Composition of a specific ionic species $(Na^+ \text{ or } Ca^+)$ calculated and plotted against the time of exposure for the three types of glass studied (*Cristallo*, *facon-de-Venise* and Soda-Lime glass surfaces aged up to 1 year)



(a) Ca^+ depth profiles collected from the *Cristallo* samples (b) Ca^+ depth profiles collected from the *façon-de-Venise* exposed to 45% RH and 75% RH samples exposed to 45% RH and 75% RH

Figure 7: SIMS profiling data of the ions Ca^+ collected for both 45% RH and 75% RH environments for *Cristallo* and *façon de Venise* glass samples aged up to 1 year.



Figure 8: Alteration depth of the SIMS collected Na⁺ and SiOH⁺ species after 1 year exposure of the samples (*Cristallo*, *façon de Venise* or fdV, and Soda-Lime or SL), against the RH of the environment. Lines were added as a guide to the eyes.



Figure 9: Schematic illustration of the evolution the process of surface alteration with the formation of upper-surface regions enriched in the leached Na⁺ (- - - hydrogen bonds, — covalent bonds). The 2D illustrations are not to scale. — (A) The proposal includes the differences in the processes occuring at high and low RH. (1) and (2) are processes discussed in section 4.2. (*) The formation of the monolayers in the surface or in pores is in accordance with [67, 73]. — (B) Two hypotheses exist for the Na⁺ enrichment: the top scheme represents that Na⁺ leached ions can be solvated in water adsorbed on the glass, and the bottom scheme represents that the main part of the Na⁺ ions could alternatively be still strongly attached to the hydrated layer. (**) The structure presented in the bottom image is in accordance with [64]