

Suplemento:

**TECHNOHERITAGE 2019 - *Fourth edition of the
International Congress on Science and Technology for the
Conservation of Cultural Heritage***

TECHNOHERITAGE 2019

IV International Congress Science and Technology for the Conservation of Cultural Heritage



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Presentation / Presentación

The Network of Science and Technology for the Conservation of Cultural Heritage promotes the collaboration between the agents and stakeholders of the science-technology-business system, sharing experiences, knowledge, and technology with the main goal of contributing to the conservation and safeguard of Cultural Heritage.

The fourth edition of the International Congress on Science and Technology for the Conservation of Cultural Heritage was held in Seville, Spain, 26-30 March 2019, was focused on the application of digital and new technologies for the sustainable management, knowledge and social innovation for the prevention, conservation and management of heritage. More than 150 abstracts were received. The Congress had the support of Spanish National Research Council, Andalusian Institute of Historical Heritage, University Pablo de Olavide and University of Seville. And partially funded by the Spanish research projects

- ART-RISK: Artificial intelligence applied to preventive conservation of heritage buildings - a RETOS project of Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad and Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER), (code: BIA2015-64878-R; MINECO/FEDER-UE)

- TUTSOSMOD: Sustainable management of cultural heritage through BIM and GIS models: contribution to knowledge and social innovation. A project funded by the Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities (HAR2016-78113-R)

This special issue includes papers from Technoheritage participants in the congress, based on the use of digital and new technologies, physico-chemical techniques or vulnerability assessment, among others. In this context, Science and Technology for the Conservation of Cultural Heritage have a key-role in research, establishing new methodologies and protocols towards better knowing of our historical buildings, archeological sites and artworks.

La Red de Ciencia y Tecnología para la Conservación del Patrimonio Cultural promueve la colaboración entre los agentes y las partes interesadas del sistema ciencia-tecnología-empresa, compartiendo experiencias, conocimientos y tecnología con el objetivo principal de contribuir a la conservación y salvaguarda del Patrimonio Cultural.

La cuarta edición del Congreso Internacional de Ciencia y Tecnología para la Conservación del Patrimonio Cultural, celebrada en Sevilla, España, del 26 al 30 de marzo de 2019, se centró en la aplicación de nuevas tecnologías digitales para la gestión sostenible, el conocimiento y la innovación social para la prevención, conservación y gestión del patrimonio. Se recibieron más de 150 resúmenes. El Congreso contó con el apoyo del Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas de España, el Instituto Andaluz de Patrimonio Histórico, la Universidad Pablo de Olavide y la Universidad de Sevilla. Y estuvo parcialmente financiado por los proyectos de investigación españoles:

- RIESGO DE ARTE: Inteligencia artificial aplicada a la conservación preventiva de edificios patrimoniales: un proyecto RETOS del Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad y Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER), (código: BIA2015-64878-R; MINECO / FEDER-UE)

- TUTSOSMOD: Gestión sostenible del patrimonio cultural a través de modelos BIM y SIG: contribución al conocimiento y la innovación social. Un proyecto financiado por el Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades (HAR2016-78113-R)

Este número especial incluye artículos de los participantes del congreso Technoheritage, sobre el uso de las nuevas tecnologías digitales, técnicas físico-químicas o la evaluación de la vulnerabilidad, entre otros. En este contexto, la Ciencia y la Tecnología para la Conservación del Patrimonio Cultural tienen un papel clave en la investigación, estableciendo nuevas metodologías y protocolos para conocer mejor nuestros edificios históricos, sitios arqueológicos y obras de arte.

During the Technoheritage conference, each presentation (oral or poster) was evaluated by two reviewers, and some authors were asked for publication in a special issue of Ge-Conservación. The final papers according the standard for authors of the journal, were also evaluated by double blind per review system.

We sincerely acknowledge the work of Technoheritage network, authors, Local Organizing Committee, Scientific Organizing Committee and the anonymous reviewers.

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*The Editors declare that they have no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this Special Issue.

Durante el congreso Technoheritage, cada presentación (oral o póster) fue evaluada por dos revisores, y se informó a algunos autores que la posibilidad de publicar en un número especial de Ge-Conservación. Los trabajos finales, según el estándar para autores de la revista, también fueron evaluados por un sistema doble ciego de revisión.

Quisiéramos agradecer sinceramente el trabajo de la red Technoheritage, los autores, el Comité Organizador Local, el Comité Organizador Científico y los revisores anónimos.

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Electrochemical evaluation of the patina of the weathering steel sculpture *Once Módulo*

A. Crespo, B. Ramírez-Barat, I. Díaz, E. Cano

Abstract: Weathering steels (WS) have been widely used due to the protective rust formed on the surface of the bare metal exposed to the atmosphere. They have been studied attending to specifications and characteristics in engineering, but in cultural heritage the use of this material does not follow the same criteria and has different needs which must be addressed. Among them, the design and the location of the sculpture may have an impact on the rust formed and may not be as protective as it was supposed to be.

This work presents the study of the weathering steel sculpture *Once Módulo* which shows areas with different exposure to rainwater and different surface heterogeneities. The results obtained by Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) have shown that the protective ability of the rust depends on the previous differences and that design and location of the artwork play an important role for its conservation.

Keywords: weathering Steel, sculpture, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, atmospheric corrosion, conservation, contemporary art.

Evaluación electroquímica de la pátina de la escultura en acero patinable *Once Módulo*

Resumen: Los aceros patinables han sido ampliamente utilizados debido a la habilidad protectora de la herrumbre que se forma en la superficie del metal al exponerlo a la atmósfera. Su estudio se ha enfocado en las especificaciones y características desde un punto de vista ingenieril, sin embargo, en patrimonio cultural el uso de este material no sigue los mismos criterios y tiene distintas necesidades que han de atenderse. Entre ellas, el diseño y la localización de la escultura pueden tener un impacto en la herrumbre formada y esta puede no ser tan protectora como se supondría.

Este trabajo presenta el estudio de la escultura de acero patinable *Once Módulo* la cual muestra áreas con distinta exposición al agua de lluvia y distintas heterogeneidades superficiales. Los resultados del análisis con Espectroscopia de Impedancia Electroquímica (EIE) han mostrado que la habilidad protectora de la herrumbre depende de las diferencias anteriores y que el diseño y la localización de la obra juegan un importante papel en su conservación.

Palabras clave: acero patinable, escultura, espectroscopia de impedancia electroquímica, corrosión atmosférica, conservación, arte contemporáneo

Introduction

Weathering steels (WS), also known by the commercial name Cor-Ten, are carbon steels with alloying elements such as chromium, copper and nickel in quantities lower than 3-5% (Morcillo et al., 2013). WS are widely used in civil engineering due to their ability to naturally develop a protective patina at low aggressive atmospheres, which slows down the corrosion of the base metal and makes no need of painting the material (Díaz et al., 2012). Since the 1960s WS have also been used in contemporary art and architecture thanks to the rich colors of the patina and

with the aim of placing outdoors sculptures which could remain even longer than bronze (Scott, 1991). However, there are some characteristics differences in the use of WS in cultural heritage compared to civil engineering that may modify and affect the protective ability of the rust.

The first difference is the use of acids and salts on the surface of the steel. As the appearance of the appealing patina needs long exposure times, sculptors and blacksmiths usually accelerate its formation with chemical treatments (Crespo, 2016). The second issue is the geometry of the sculpture, as one of the conditions for a patina to be



Figure 1. - Sculpture *Once Módulo* from different perspectives.

protective is the alternation of wetting and drying cycles (Stratmann et al., 1983), the design may have sheltered zones and water accumulation zones with different time of wetness (ToW: number of hours per year in which the relative humidity is higher than 80% and the temperature is beyond 0°C, according to the ISO 9223). The last difference is the location of the artwork, if the artwork is constantly wet –as in parks with watering zones- or if is mainly dry – as under a porch or trees- the wetting and drying cycles may be altered and have consequences on the protective ability of the rust. A good understanding of these effects is important to foresee the long-term durability of the artwork and contribute to its preservation.

The sculpture *Once Módulo* was performed by Amador Rodríguez (Ceuta 1926, Madrid 2001), a Spanish sculptor and painter. He has worked with different materials depending on the message of his artwork; among them, steel was the first material he used. *Once Módulo* was performed in 1971 during his rationalist period, while he was studying different geometry forms (Gómez, 2016) which are expressed in this artwork [figure 1]. The sculpture is a cube with dimensions of 160 cm. each side made of WS with circular shapes inside. It was acquired by the Museo Nacional Centro de Arte Reina Sofía in 1971 and deposited at the Museo de Escultura al Aire Libre de Leganés (Madrid) in 2000-2001.

The aim of this work is to analyze the protective ability of the sculpture patina in areas with different time of wetness and different visual surface heterogeneities to study the effect that it may have on the development of the rust.

Methodology

—1. Zones of analysis

The sculpture *Once Módulo* is placed at the Museo de Escultura de Leganés (south of Madrid, Spain). The museum is outdoors and inside of a park. The environment could be classified as urban atmosphere of corrosivity category C2 for plain carbon steel, according to ISO 9223. The sculpture has a complex geometry with areas of different time of wetness. Two of these areas were chosen for analysis: a vertical one labeled as Normal zone and another area labeled as Sheltered zone with less exposure to rainwater. In the vertical area it is possible to distinguish differences in color and texture in the patina,

so a third zone was chosen in this area and labeled as Irregular zone. The three zones of analysis are shown in [figure 2]. Although the number of measurements is low for statistical purposes, in this work only comparative study has been taken into account.

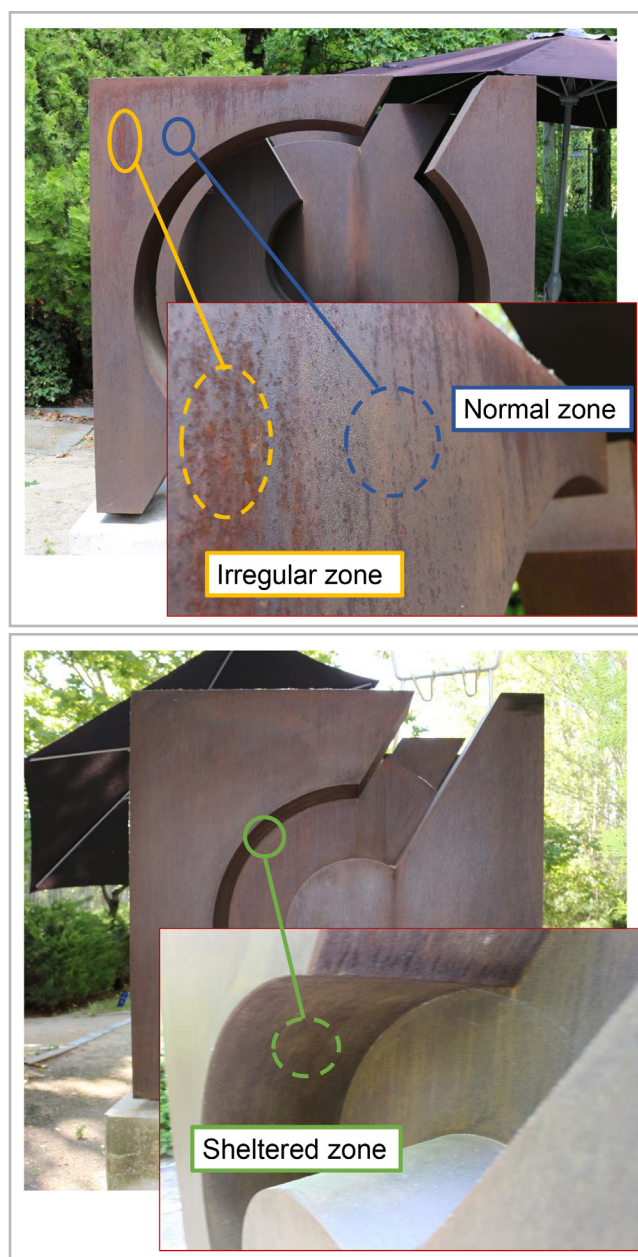


Figure 2. - Details of the three zones of analysis (solid circles) and magnifications (dashed circles). Normal zone (blue), Irregular zone (yellow) and Sheltered zone (green).

—2. Techniques

The protective ability of the rust in the different areas of the sculpture was measured by Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS). EIS is a very useful technique because it provides information about the corrosion process as well as the protective behavior of the patina, however its application for in situ analysis is complicated due to the difficulties of placing an electrochemical cell with a liquid electrolyte on the usually curved, rough and non-vertical surfaces of the sculptures (Ramírez Barat and Cano, 2018). To perform EIS analysis directly over the patina of the metallic sculpture, a portable electrochemical cell was designed (Cano et al., 2014, Ramírez Barat et al., 2018). In this study, the electrochemical cell consists of a stainless-steel mesh as counter electrode, a Ag/AgCl electrode as a reference and the electrolyte is an artificial rain prepared in the laboratory according to the pollutants of Madrid; the electrolyte was gelled with 3% agar. EIS analysis have been performed with a Gamry Reference 600 potentiostat, the sequence applied was 1800 seconds of Open Circuit Potential (OCP) and EIS from 100 kHz to 10 mHz with an amplitude of 10 mV. The fit of the results was made with Zview software.

EIS results have been analyzed with reference to the patina thickness, which has been measured with an Elcometer 456 gauge, using a probe for ferrous materials in the same areas tested for EIS.

Finally, as aesthetical properties are a matter of importance in cultural heritage, color has been measured in the same areas with a Konica Minolta spectrophotometer CM-700-d. Differences between two colors are a subjective matter, but a way to measure them is with the parameter ΔE calculated with the differences in the CIEL*a*b* sphere coordinates with the following formula.

$$\Delta E = \sqrt{(\Delta L^2 + \Delta a^2 + \Delta b^2)}$$

To evaluate the differences in color, the previous formula has been applied. Variation of the L* parameter (brightness) and a* and b* parameters (green- yellow and blue-red axes respectively) have been calculated for the three measured zones, therefore, it is possible to compare the color obtained in the three zones of analysis among each other.

Results and discussion

—1. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy

To obtain information about the measured systems it is useful to fit the results to an equivalent circuit. The equivalent circuit provides information of each electrical component, which can be associated with the different

parts of the measured system. Fitting is not an easy task, many equivalent circuits have been tested but the best results and physical meaning were obtained with the one proposed by Dhaiveegan et al. (2014) and shown in figure 3.

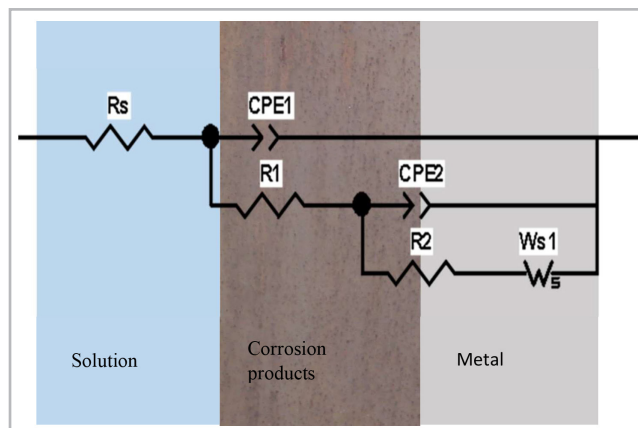


Figure 3.- Equivalent circuit proposed and its representation in the corrosion layer.

In the equivalent circuit, Rs represents the ohmic drop; CPE1 and R1 are the constant phase element and the resistance of the corrosion products respectively; CPE2 and R2 represent the constant phase element associated to the electrochemical double layer and the charge transfer resistance of the corrosion process; and Ws is the Warburg impedance associated with diffusion of the species through the diffusion layer. In this work we are going to focus on the resistance of the corrosion products (R1) and the charge transfer resistance (R2) in the three zones of analysis. Representative EIS results are shown in table 1 and experimental data together with the respective fittings are shown in figure 4.

The different fittings show a very good Chi square as well as a good fit in the graphs. The resistances of the corrosion products (R1) have low errors although the resistances of the charge transfer process (R2) have higher errors. All errors are acceptable, even for the R2 for the Sheltered zone, the higher error, it is lower than the differences between different zones.

According to the results of the resistance of the corrosion products (R1), the Normal zone has a resistance value that is approximately twice the other two zones (the

Table 1.- Resistances of the equivalent circuit obtained for the three analyzed areas of the sculpture *Once Módulo*

	R1 (Ohm)	R1 error (%)	R2 (Ohm)	R2 error (%)	Chi square
Normal zone	894.8	1.03	1637	24.29	4.39E-4
Irregular zone	417.3	0.43	1005	22.67	6.95E-5
Sheltered zone	428.3	10.02	240.9	61.22	1.35E-4

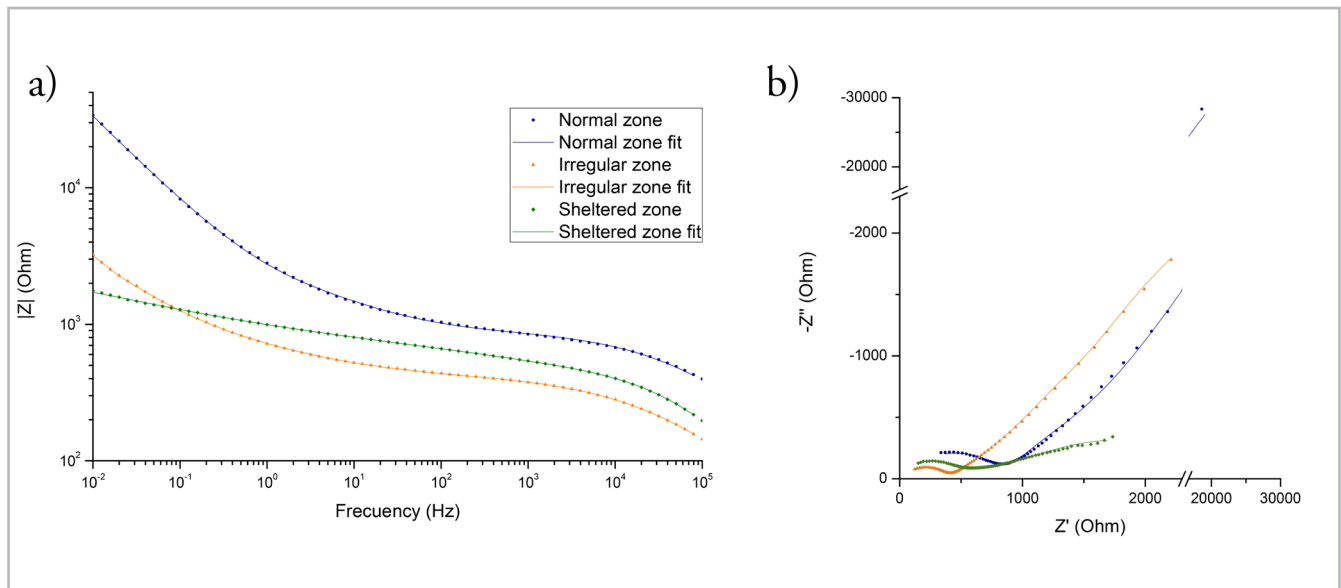


Figure 4.- Impedance module plot (a) and Nyquist plot (b) for the three zones of analysis of the sculpture *Once Módulo*.

Irregular and the Sheltered). This fact indicates that the corrosion products have a higher protective effect in this area.

The Irregular and Sheltered zones have very similar values of R1 so this two corrosion layers have similar protective properties. The charge transfer resistance (R2) is also higher in the Normal zone, with Sheltered zone being the least resistant. Results show a better protective ability in the Normal zone while the Sheltered zone is more susceptible to suffer corrosion processes.

Results do not necessary indicates that the sculpture *Once Módulo* is at risk but that there are areas within the sculpture that are more susceptible to atmospheric corrosion. The artwork is placed outdoors in a park of Leganés with probably little pollution, which suggests that the environment is optimal for this material (Morcillo et al., 2019). Therefore, at the time the analysis were made, there is no need to think that the sculpture is at any kind of risk that may compromise its conservation.

—2. Thickness

The thickness of the patina was measured in fifteen different points in each of the three analyzed areas. The average thickness and standard deviation are shown in table 2.

Table 2.- Results of patina thickness for the three analyzed areas in the sculpture *Once Módulo*.

Normal zone (µm)	Irregular zone (µm)	Sheltered zone (µm)
103.7 ± 21.88	56.7 ± 9.46	43.1 ± 7.21

The Normal zone has close to the double of the thickness than the other two areas, which is in accordance with the higher resistance shown by EIS results of the corrosion layer (R1). Although the Irregular zone had a rough aspect and was expected to be thicker, the thickness of its patina is more similar to the Sheltered zone than to the Normal zone. Authors have measured the thickness of their own hair following the experiment performed by (Diez, 2015), values between 50 and 60 µm were obtained. Although these patinas are very thin, there is not much difference from a patina developed for five years in a rural environment (Díaz et al., 2018). This indicates that the corrosivity of the environment of the park in the Museum is low.

The results of the resistance of the corrosion products are in agreement with the patina thickness and indicate that, although the Normal and the Irregular zone are very close in the sculpture and have same exposure to rainwater, they have notable differences in their behavior against atmospheric corrosion. The Sheltered zone, with less time of wetness, has the poorest protection against atmospheric corrosion but, as mentioned above, its risk to suffer severe atmospheric corrosion processes will depend on the environment.

—3. Color

Color has been analyzed in fifteen different points around the zone of analysis. Results are reported using the CIEL*a*b* sphere where L* parameter represents the luminosity (being the value 100 white and 0 black) and the a* and b* parameters represents the content in green (negative a*) and red (positive a*) and the content of blue (negative b*) and yellow (positive b*). Results are shown in table 3 and in figure 5.

Table 3.- L*a*b* results for the three zones of analysis.

	L*	a*	b*
Normal zone	32.4 ± 0.4	4.9 ± 0.7	5.3 ± 1.3
Irregular zone	27.0 ± 1.7	8.3 ± 0.8	7.0 ± 0.7
Sheltered zone	35.2 ± 0.7	5.4 ± 0.3	8.2 ± 0.4

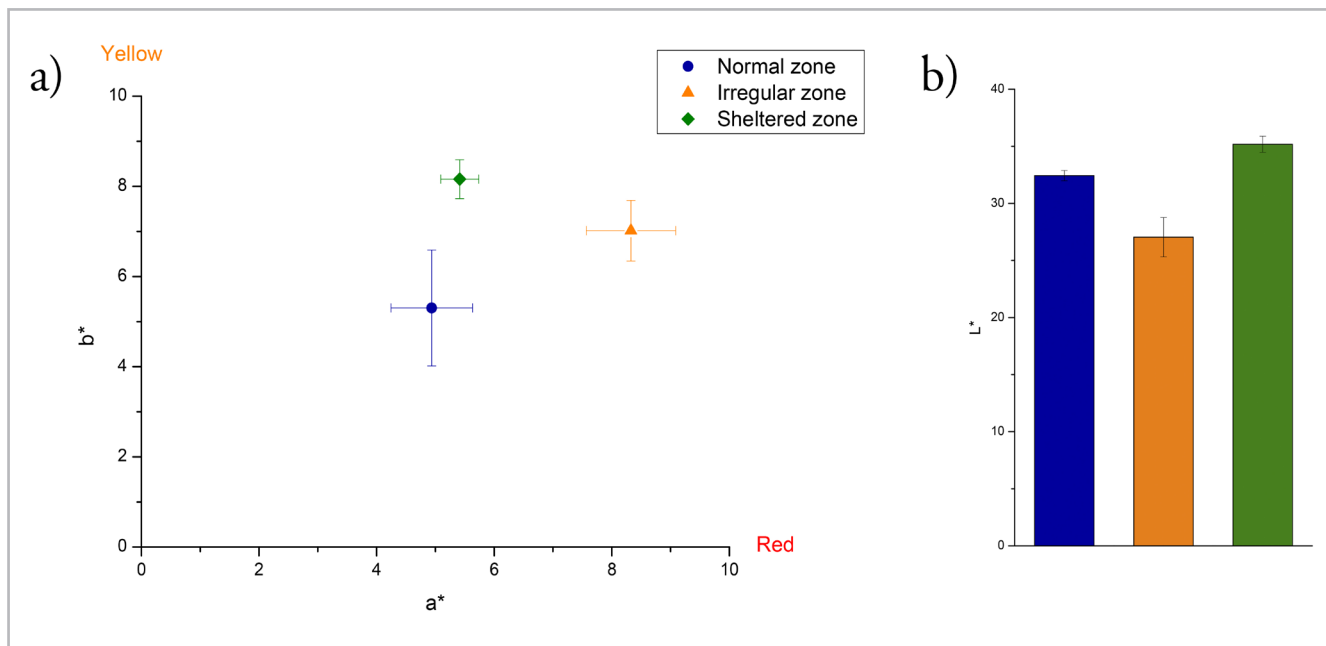


Figure 5.- Chromatic parameters a* and b* (a) and luminosity parameter L* (b) .

As a* and b* have positive values it means that the tone of the patina tends to orange, however the values are quite low, so the colors are dull. Also, the L* values are closer to the center of the sphere (50), so the colors are grayish and weak. Comparing the three zones of analysis, the Irregular zone has higher values in parameters a* and b* and a lower value of L*, it is the most vivid color with a darker tone. Data of color differences ΔE between the three zones of analysis are shown in table 4.

According to the bibliography, if ΔE is higher than 1 (Ghelardi et al., 2015) the color differences are perceptible for the human eye. In the case of study all the zones have differences much greater than 1, being the Irregular zone the most different one with a ΔE = 6.6 with the Normal zone and ΔE = 8.7 with the Sheltered zone. This is in accordance with initial observations as this area was analyzed due to

the differences in a visual inspection. According to the EIS analysis, in this case, the visual differences are related to different protective abilities against corrosion.

Conclusions

The use of WS in cultural heritage has some peculiarities that have to take into account; among them, the design of the sculptures may yield differences in the protective ability of the patinas. It has been proved that Sheltered zones develop the less protective corrosion products although the risk to suffer damage will depend on the atmosphere to which it is exposed. In this case of study and at the time analysis were performed, there is no risk for the sculpture due to the low pollution of the atmosphere.

Table 4.- ΔE results of the three areas of analysis in the sculpture Once Módulo

ΔE	Normal zone	Irregular zone	Sheltered zone
Normal zone	-	6.60	3.99
Irregular zone	6.60	-	8.72
Sheltered zone	3.99	8.72	-

Under a visual analysis, some heterogeneities are evident in the surface and may be related to less protection against corrosion. Changes in color and thickness have reveal differences in the protective characteristics of the rust. A full documentation of the history of the artworks and a complete study of the sculptures are necessary in order to assure the preservation of WS.

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Conservation to overcome oblivion. New methods for the survival of lost heritage memory

María José Merchán, Emiliano Pérez

Abstract: Unfortunately, it sometimes happens that heritage buildings and structures unearthed during the construction of new infrastructures cannot be adequately conserved once dug out. Before the eternal doubt, keeping or covering them, the economic aspect often takes precedence. Luckily, when the decision is to hide it again, technology offers the possibility of acquiring, modelling and storing the 3D data of the remains and allows their later visualization with a very realistic appearance. Therefore, the memory of these remains destined to be forgotten survives beyond the archives of the professionals who documented them. In this paper, the opportunities opened by Augmented and Virtual Reality applications for the preservation and dissemination of re-covered, or even lost, remains will be explained through the finding came about in the works performed for renovating an old road in Fuente del Maestre (Spain).

Keywords: conservation, cultural heritage, 3D modelling, augmented/virtual reality

Conservación para superar el olvido. Nuevos métodos para la supervivencia de la memoria del patrimonio perdido

Resumen: A veces sucede que, desafortunadamente, los edificios históricos desenterrados durante la construcción de nuevas infraestructuras no pueden conservarse adecuadamente una vez excavados. Ante la eterna duda, mantenerlos o cubrirlos, el aspecto económico muy a menudo tiene prioridad. Por suerte, cuando la decisión es ocultarlo nuevamente, la tecnología ofrece la posibilidad de adquirir, modelar y almacenar los datos 3D de los restos para su posterior visualización de forma muy realista. De esta manera, el recuerdo de estos restos destinados a ser olvidados sobrevive más allá de los archivos de los profesionales que los documentaron. En este documento, las oportunidades que se abren gracias a la Realidad Aumentada y la Realidad Virtual aplicadas a la preservación y difusión de aquellos restos que deben ser enterrados de nuevo y que, incluso, llegan a perderse, se explicarán a través del hallazgo que se produjo en los trabajos realizados para renovar una antigua carretera en Fuente del Maestre (España).

Palabras clave: conservación, patrimonio cultural, modelado 3D, realidad aumentada/realidad virtual

Introduction

Defining what conservation means is a very arduous task. It must be considered from a holistic viewpoint: from culture to society, from identity to management. Thus, giving a definition from one of its aspects implies, necessarily leaving apart the others. Conservation has to do with restoration so tightly that people sometimes mix up both terms. But conserving doesn't always imply restoring. In the same way, conservation is related to preservation in such a way that both are often perceived like synonymous. The ICOM, which assumes this quasi correspondence between

the two terms, states: "To preserve means to protect a thing or a group of things from different hazards such as destruction, deterioration, separation or even theft; this protection is ensured by gathering the collection in one place, inventorying it, sheltering it, making it secure and repairing it" (Desvallées & Mairesse 2010: 65). Preserving to ensure the continuity of things implies the recognition that tomorrow's public is equally important than today's (Castriota 2019: 49).

But nowadays, conservation/preservation goes beyond prolonging the heritage assets' physical lives for the far

future. Other values, not always tangible, must also be preserved for the coming generations: what they mean for the identity of the people in the surroundings, their relation with the natural environment, besides their historical, artistic, cultural, political, economic or social value (Hölling 2017:87). In order to get to this end, it is essential to maintain the authenticity of the heritage property (ICOMOS 1994), always following the principles of restoration gathered in successive charters along the years (ICOMOS 2004).

Paradoxically, conservation seems even more necessary when the cultural assets are going to disappear. In these cases, "conservation" plays a very important role in preserving the memory of the heritage for future generations to know it. When the strategy of documenting the cultural property before its disappearance is complemented with well-focused dissemination activities, this type of conservation could mean economic and social improvements for the population of the area. This is the case tackled in this paper, conservation to overcome the oblivion that, sooner or later, goes irretrievably linked to the disappearance.

On this way towards the safeguarding of cultural heritage, technology has come to help and improve the labour of experts in conservation with new multidisciplinary methods (Cozzani 2017, Zhou 2012). Within the most used scientific techniques applied to the cultural heritage, those related to 3D digitizing and modelling (Tucci et al. 2017; Aicardi et al. 2018; Andreu & Serrano 2019), as well as the development of Virtual Reality and Augmented Reality applications have already established useful and recognized methodologies (Bekele et al. 2018) to become essential in all the research, documentation and dissemination stages of the conservation procedures nowadays (Ruiz Bazán & Vita 2017: 208).

Concerning the investigation, the advances produced by these new methods entail a deeper understanding of cultural goods and greater savings in working hours, as well as they also allow real-time monitoring, visualization and intervention without manipulation, since it is a non-invasive/non-destructive technology (Niquet & Mas-Barberà 2018: 6). When talking about documentation, the creation of digital repositories of artworks, monuments and sites ensure their survival along the years. Furthermost, linking this idea of "persistence" with the use of technology for dissemination, it must be said that 3D technology applied to cultural heritage is a very effective method for people to know and remember. It allows providing not only a "copy" of the very goods but also an understandable and enjoyable interpretation, far from the unintelligible fragments they can often see in reality. These two last possibilities, documentation and diffusion, are even more relevant whether the archaeological remains have to be covered again and cannot be seen anymore (Tait 2016). This way, in recent years, it has demonstrated to be very useful in cases of destruction associated with war conflicts and catastrophes since 3D digitization together with the digital fabrication (Merchán et al. 2019) are perfect tools

for preserving and transmitting the heritage to future generations (Ruiz Torres 2017: 148). To perform the entire task, from documentation to dissemination, the existence of interdisciplinary work teams, composed of humanists and technologists, is necessary to achieve the equilibrium between what has to be shown (historical/artistic/social, etc. meaning) and the way it is (which has to do with the technological resources).

As mentioned, among the experiences based on 3D models used for the dissemination of cultural heritage, Virtual Reality (VR) and Augmented Reality (AR) are the most relevant. Regarding Virtual Reality experiences, two different type of them can be found in literature. On the one hand, some of them use 360° photos and video tours, with a high potential for disseminating the Heritage, since it is valid for a great range of devices (Argyriou et al. 2020; Mah et al. 2019; Njerekai 2019; Sánchez-Aparicio et al. 2019). On the other hand, other experiences make use of 3D environment that can be toured in real time but usually need more specific devices to visualize them. It is worth mentioning some initiatives carried out lately for enabling the visualization of pieces, monuments or sites which have unfortunately disappeared (Pérez et al. 2018) or whose bad state of conservation or some other reasons (distance, inaccessible location, etc.), prevent them to be seen/visited (Pérez et al. 2019). In these cases, VR has proven to be very helpful to bring back this "lost" cultural heritage to people. In spite of this, it is not the most utilized tool when it comes to its dissemination. Firstly, because the viewer's vision is replaced by a virtual world, which makes the real heritage remains happen in a second place. Secondly, the high economic cost of virtual reality equipment must be taken into account. This makes the use of this technology not affordable for many museums, interpretive centres and other cultural institutions.

Regarding Augmented Reality, the most accepted definition is that posed by Azuma (Azuma 1997). He defines an AR system as the one that fulfils all the following properties: (1) combines real and virtual content, (2) in an interactive environment in real-time and (3) is registered in 3D. Unlike VR, the fact that users can visualize added information (virtually created) without losing sight of the main elements of the real world makes the AR applications more suitable to be applied to cultural heritage on most occasions. It is also a more affordable and accessible resource since the most used AR devices are mobile phones or tablets. Hence, the problem of economic cost is overcome. In the last and more sophisticated experiences, the use of specific glasses which do not impede the vision of the "real world" starts to be habitual. They integrate a small screen in the lenses that project the virtual models that must be seen by users. In some of these AR glasses, there are two small screens, one per eye, to create a stereoscopic pair that allows 3D viewing. Likewise, they can also incorporate cameras that analyse the environment to locate the models in a realistic way or that interpret the users' gestures in the case they serve to interact with

the AR application. Although the cost of these devices is becoming increasingly affordable as they become popular, they are still prohibitively expensive.

In the light of the possibilities offered by this 3D technology for the dissemination of “disappearing” heritage and, thus, for the preservation of its memory, an immersive VR experience and an Augmented Reality application are being developed. Both are designed to allow the users to visit and understand those archaeological sites that are hidden from sight, specifically the one known as “La Matilla” (Fuente del Maestre, Spain), which had to be re-covered by the EX-360 road after its excavation.

This paper presents the procedure followed to create these two applications, for which it was necessary to design a method that allowed merging the 3D data acquired by different devices so that to obtain a unique digital model of the site. The content is structured as follows. Firstly, the site of “La Matilla” and its historical context are described. Secondly, 3D data acquisition and modelling are explained. The next section is devoted to detail the procedure followed to design both applications. Afterwards, future work is outlined. Finally, some conclusions are drawn.

“La Matilla”. A multicultural archaeological site

During the improvement works of the road EX-360, which links the towns of Fuente del Maestre and Villafranca de los Barros (Badajoz, Spain), some archaeological remains were unearthed at the height of the place known as “La Matilla”.

Located at the foothills of the Sierra de San Jorge, these findings were not a surprise for experts as the existence of a large water storage pond from the Roman period was known to exist in the surroundings since a long time ago. The width and height of the still visible walls, as well as the dimensions of the pool, made experts think that some type of Roman settlement would exist in this zone. Besides, fragments of *sigillata* pottery from different epochs (from 1st to 3rd centuries AD) had been recovered on the surface of the area, reinforcing the idea of a Roman presence in this zone. The importance of the site continued, at least, until the Middle Ages as it is documented the existence of a church of Hispanic-Visigoth origin that survived until the nineteenth century as the hermitage of San Jorge (Pascual 1999: 21).

In spite of this knowledge about the past of this area, when archaeologist arrived there, they just found a diaphanous extension which did not betoken the richness it hid in its subsoil. Thus, employing archaeological methodology, they were able to read the history of the place, from the 20th century remains to those dated in the founding moments of *Augusta Emerita*. In this process, several historical stages were documented (Arabic, Visigoth and late Roman) to which the silos and burials found during the excavation would correspond.

As for the Roman strata, 9 different ceramic ovens and a badly preserved building were documented. Experts think that inside this building the administrative tasks that the management of this pottery industry entailed would have been carried out [figure 1]. The kilns had been excavated in the ground, made of limestone, which has allowed the conservation of much of these substructures. The construction was made of brick, the same material in which were built some semi-circular arches of perfect execution, which were still visible [figure 2]. In some of these ovens, the upper grate was also fairly well preserved. Archaeological analyses of both the structures and the fragments of pottery recovered in the area have confirmed the useful life of this production centre, which would have been in operation between the 1st and 2nd centuries AD (Sánchez González 2019:13-14).

Unfortunately, these remains appeared just under the course of the new road, so the problem of their conservation raised. After proposing several options, most of which meant a considerable increase in time and cost, the political decision was to cover the remains, trying to preserve their integrity as much as possible, according to the recommendation made by the heritage experts at the Junta de Extremadura. However, this meant demolishing the arches so magnificently preserved for centuries. To conserve the memory of the site, the group “3D CO-VIM”, belonging to the University of Extremadura, proposed the digitization of the site and the creation of a 3D model that would allow both the researchers and the public to have a realistic digital copy of this missing heritage. This digital



Figure 1.- Aerial photograph of the excavations.



Figure 2.- A) Photo of the entrance to the bigger oven (H2)
B) Photo of one semi-circular arch belonging to the H1 oven.

model would also allow the design and development of some basic AR/VR applications that make possible the visualization of the 3D model.

The procedure followed to reach this goal will be explained in the next sections.

Digitizing and modelling



Digitization process

Nowadays, different technologies are available to undertake a digitalization work: laser scanners, structured-light sensors, photogrammetry, etc. When it comes to choosing among them, it is important to consider several aspects: the basic specifications of the devices, the differences between the outcomes provided by each technology, the lighting conditions, the features of the object/building/space to be digitized and the subsequent use that the acquired data will receive. In this work, we applied the three different technologies we had at our disposal in the acquisition phase: a Faro LS880 Laser-Scanner, an Artec MHT 3D structured-light hand-held scanner and a Nikon D60 digital camera. Technical specifications of the two 3D scanner are summarized in Table 1. Regarding the digital camera, it has a resolution of 10.2 Mpix, a sensor size of 23.6mm x 15.8mm and a we used a lens of 3.06x zoom 18-55mm (27-83mm eq.).

By using these three options, our aim was not to repeat the digitization process three times but to apply each of them selectively. Based on topology, two different environments could be distinguished in the site: the vast exterior area in which the remains were located and the interior of the two better preserved kilns (H1 and H2). The differences in the preservation state, space and light conditions imposed the technology to use in each.

Before starting, we were aware that 3D models obtained through the resulting data generated with the laser scanner would be employed only to document the site, whereas the data obtained using the Artec scanner and the Nikon camera would be applied both for documentation and visualization applications. Given that we have used two technologies to digitize the outside zone, the Faro laser scanner and the Nikon camera, we obtained two different resolutions models of that area: the laser scanner generates a higher resolution model and the photogrammetry a medium-low resolution one, both of them textured but with a significant difference in the quality of the textures. The former model is more suitable for documentation because it provides a more precise reconstruction of the real environment, while the latter is more appropriate for visualization applications, which cannot manage very high-resolution models in real-time. Reducing the higher resolution model allows to obtain a medium-low resolution one, obviously at the cost of an elevated time consumption. Moreover, the quality of textures produced by the Faro laser scanner is poorer than

Table 1.- Technical specifications of the 3D scanners employed in the site.

	FARO LS880	ARTEC MHT 3D
		
ACCURACY	+/- 3 mm	0.1 mm
RANGE	Up to 80 m	0.4 to 1 m
DATA ACQUISITION SPEED	120.000 points/s 4 minutes for a full 360° 3D view consisting of 28 million points	500.000 points/s
FIELD OF VIEW	360° Horizontal 320° Vertical	closest range 214 mm x 148 mm furthest range 536 mm x 371 mm

the photos taken by the Nikon camera so that, consequently, the final visualization will be poorer.

Reconstruction process

As mentioned before, this step was carried out applying three different technologies, with a specific strategy for each of them. Regarding the laser scanner, after the analysis of the area to be digitized and considering the range of 80 m that the Faro laser scanner offers, the scanning procedure designed consisted of positioning the scanner station in three different points that could cover the whole area. These selected positions can be observed in Figure 3.

With respect to photogrammetry, it is generally recommended to optimize the number of photos, considering an 50% overlapping between images, in order to avoid the collapse of the workstation in charge of computing the photogrammetry, and to do it using a reasonable time. In that case, since it was known that the

whole site was going to be covered by the future road, the followed strategy in this stage was to generate a bank of images with a great redundancy. The idea was to postpone the manual choice of the optimized bank of images until the 'laboratory' computing stage. Specifically, over 2500 photos were taken along the site. The technician took photos from different tripod positions and, in each position, she rotated the orientation of the camera until completing a circle and applying an approximate. Logically, the density of the tripod positions was higher in that zones where there were more archaeological rests. The Figure 4 can give an idea of the photos' distribution within a portion of the site.

Finally, the interior of the ovens digitization was carried out by iteratively scan and check the remaining parts, until they were completely acquired. At the end, we found that only a few portions in the ceiling were inaccessible to the handy scanner. Moreover, in this part of the site, a bank of images was also taken, in order to have an additional support 3D model to offer the missing information in those inaccessible portions.

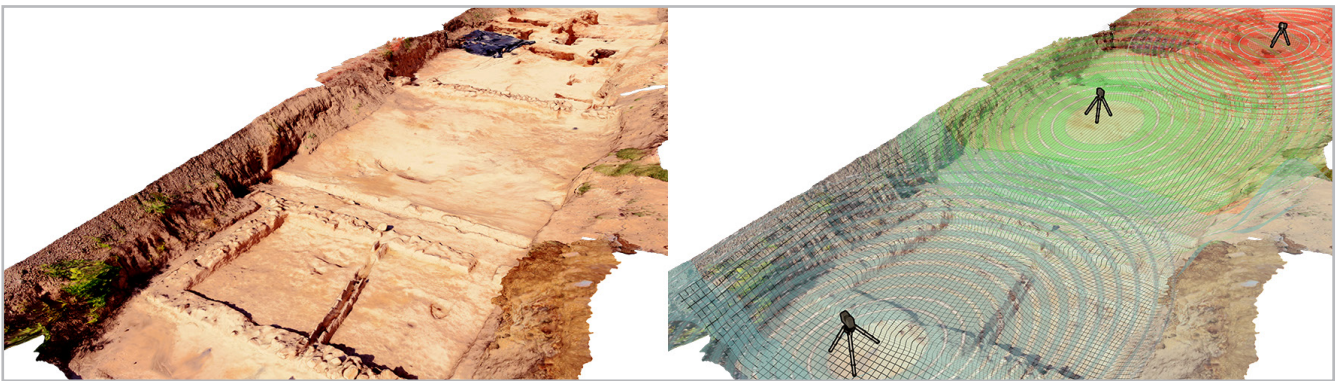


Figure 3.- Representation of the distribution of laser scanner locations to cover the whole area: on the right, the archaeological site; on the right, the three different locations that were selected

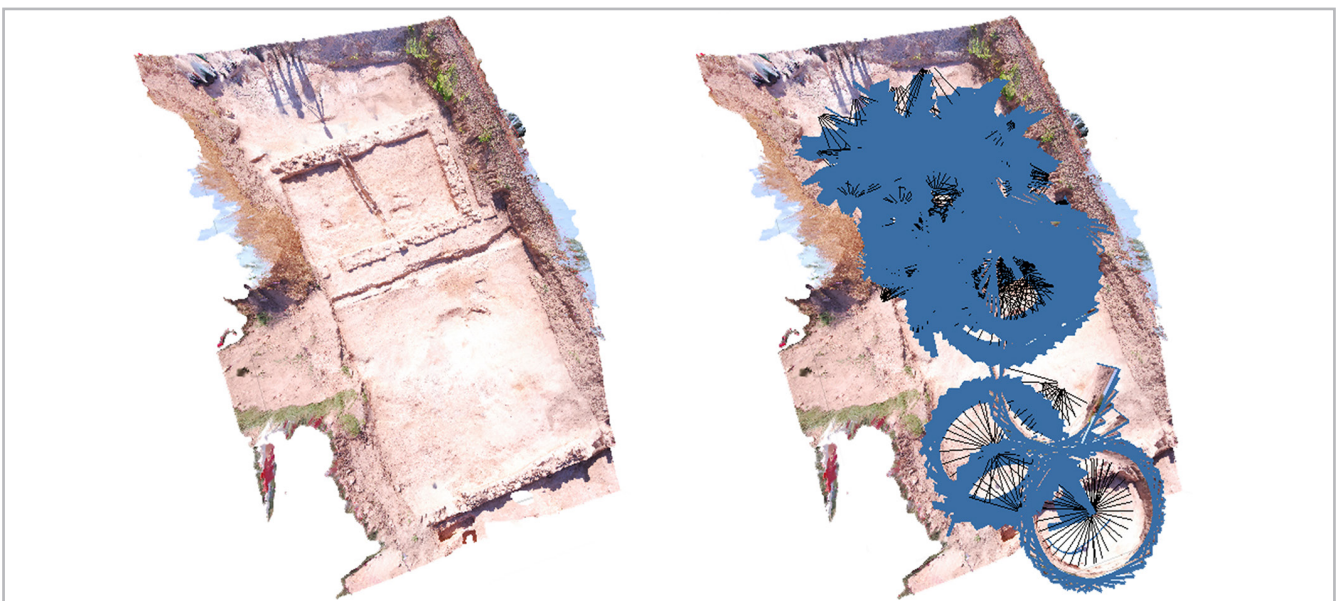


Figure 4.- Distribution of the taken photos along a portion of the site, with more density of camera positions in the areas with more rests.

After the digitization process, three packages of 3D data obtained from the three different acquisition technologies were available, as mentioned. Such data were processed independently by means of three different specific software to generate the resulting 3D models. Figure 5 depicts the work scheme that we followed to produce the final textured 3D models starting from the acquisition stage.

Regarding the data acquired with the laser scanner, a coloured 3D point cloud with a linear accuracy of $\pm 3\text{mm}$ at 25 m, the required steps to obtain the 3D model are: registering of the point clouds; filtering noise and outliers; fusion, which produces a unique point of cloud; compute the mesh that fits such cloud, by triangulating the points; and calculation the texture of that mesh. Except for the triangulation and texture computation, which were carried out using Meshlab, the main software used was Faro Scene.

The structured-light scanner produces a set of textured partial meshes which are portions of the element scanned. The resolution of these acquired data is up to 0.5 mm. These data require some consecutive standard steps: registering in the same reference system; filtering to remove errors and noise; fusion to generate a single mesh, and filling holes. Sometimes it is also necessary to retouch the final surface to equalize and make it up. Finally, it is mandatory to carry out an analysis of the final mesh and repair it to obtain a consistent surface with no errors. In our case, the first three steps were implemented with the Artec Studio software. The filling-holes process was made by applying the algorithm explained in (Pérez et al. 2008), in Matlab. The open software Meshlab was employed to analyse and repair the mesh. And, finally, the occasional surface retouching was done in the Blender software. Also, equalization was

applied to the texture in some specific cases by using the GIMP software.

The last device employed was the Nikon camera, with which a vast set of photos were generated. Since it has a 10 megapixels sensor, the resolution of these images is 3872 x 2592. In this case, the steps that have to be followed to generate de 3D models through photogrammetry were: aligning and pairing each subset of photos; generating the dense point clouds to produce a set of meshes; registering of all the meshes; fusion to obtain a unique surface and generation of the whole texture. Here, it is worth mentioning that photogrammetry does not produce a model as accurate as of the one obtained with the previous technologies in terms of scale. Therefore, the final model must be scaled. The scale factor is obtained by manually measuring some meaningful distances in the previous models, generated using the scanners, that is, in real scale, and applying them to the photogrammetric model. No targets were used during the scanning process, so this entails the search of common accessible points, located in sharp areas, in both models the one generated with scanner and the one generated with photogrammetry. All these steps are done, in a first approach, with the software Agisoft Metashape. Then, to get a fine adjustment, the Artec Studio software offer an interesting tool to be applied. It can compute a non-homogeneous registering process, that is, it can reorient and slightly deform a mesh with the aim of accurately fit the photogrammetry mesh to the reference one: the one generated with scanner.

In the end, a high-resolution textured model of the outdoor area is obtained from the laser scanner data. Also, a medium-low resolution textured model of the same

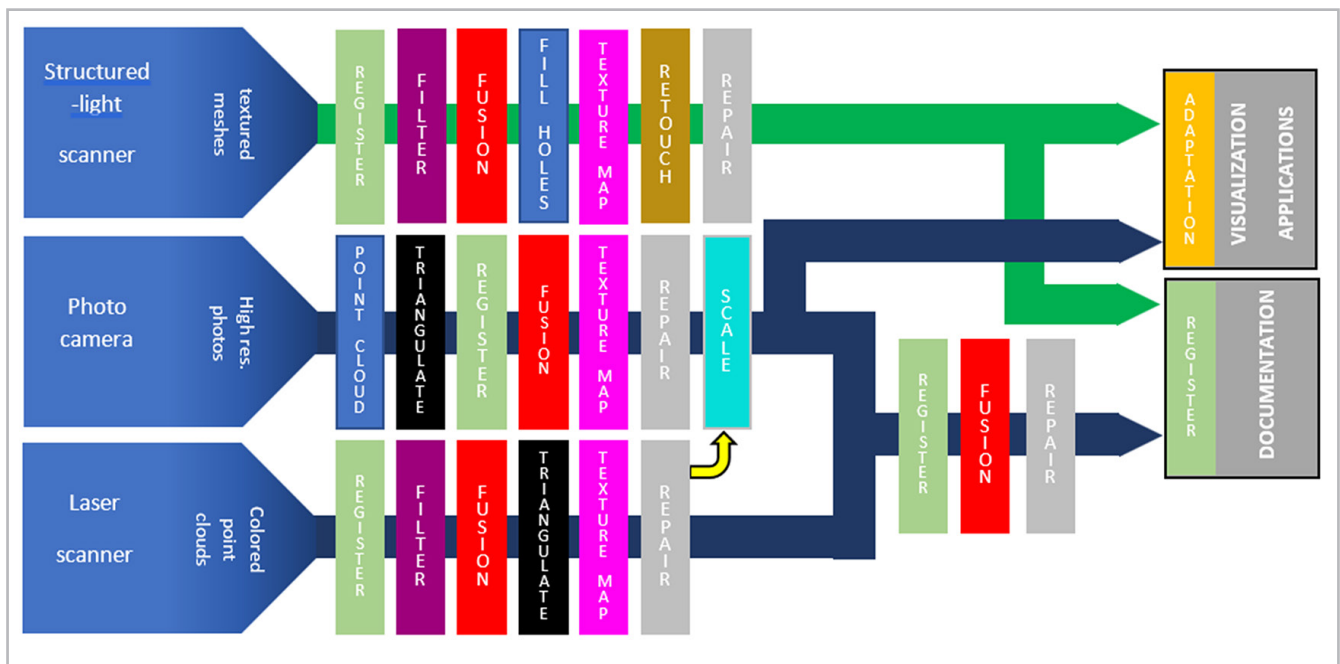


Figure 5.- Scheme of the procedure to obtain the final textured 3D models.



Figure 6. - Reconstructed 3D mesh (left) and 3D textured model (right) of the H2 oven, both of them obtained using photogrammetry techniques.

area was generated from photogrammetry techniques. The differences between these two models are the resolution of the final mesh, better in the former one, and the quality of the final texture, better in the latter model. Since the high-resolution model is going to be used for documenting the archaeological site and keep its memory, we decided to improve its texture and complete the parts that were not correctly acquired with the laser scanner using the photogrammetric model. Therefore, both models had to be registered in a common reference system, a fusion process was applied, a repairing step was also carried out and, finally, the improving of the original texture was done with Blender software, by projecting some of the Nikon camera photos onto the geometric model.

The other resulting models of the reconstruction process were those of the interiors of the kilns. These are high-medium resolution textured meshes, generated thanks to the Artec scanner, as well as to the photogrammetry techniques respectively, can be used for both documentation and visualization applications [figure 6].

At this point, there was not a complete model of the entire site available yet since we had created each part separately. For this reason, the integration of all the separated meshes to obtain a unique single mesh of the site became necessary. This integration was done by registering all the models, which entailed the positioning of the kilns in the corresponding location within the exterior model. Although both meshes had overlapping zones, a user-assisted registration was utilized.

Visualization applications

As said, two different visualization applications were designed: an immersive VR experience and a AR application.

Technically, the visualization of 3D objects in real-time has a strong dependence on both the hardware used and the number and quality (resolution of meshes and textures) of the objects to be visualized. After the digitization process,

explained in previous sections, the quality of the 3D model is high. Therefore, to use the digitized models in real-time visualization it is mandatory reducing their quality, mainly in terms of the resolution of the meshes, to a specific level that can be managed by the hardware. In addition to that, the software used to design and program the visualization applications also imposes some requirements that have to be taken into consideration inescapably.

In the following subsections, the two main steps necessary to develop the visualization applications are summarized: quality reduction and data adaptation, and applications design.

Quality reduction and data adaptation

Before analysing how to carry out the reduction and adaptation, it is useful to categorize the data to be used in the applications. Thus, the following division was established: category A (laser scanner data); category B (Artec scanner data); category C (photogrammetry data); and, category D (3D modelled synthetic data). We have explained above how the models belonging to these categories were created, except for the ones of category D. We include in that category the 3D elements modelled using Blender software that will be introduced in the visualization as decoration or as support to improve the final result.

As mentioned above, the 3D models belonging to categories A and B are generated in high resolution for the ones and in medium-low resolution the ones of category C. We modelled the 3D objects of category D in medium-low resolution, keeping in mind the requirement of real-time visualization. Moreover, the elements of categories A and C represent the same area of the site, although in different resolutions. Since a high resolution is not needed in the visualization applications, we discard at this point the elements included in the category A. On the contrary, the interior of kilns was just stored in high-resolution (category B elements) and no other lower-resolution data are available. Therefore, before designing the applications, it is necessary to modify the models of categories B and C,

regarding the type of data and their quality (resolution of mesh and resolution and size of texture). This classification and the modifications undertaken are summarized in the table shown in figure 7.

In it, by “type of 3D data” we mean how 3D and colour information is stored, i.e., whether it is a point cloud or 3D mesh and whether there is a texture image that stores colour information (needed for the visualization application) or not. In this case, as the elements of category A were discarded (X sign), the rest of the categories are composed of objects defined by 3D meshes, so it is not necessary to modify the type of data (hence = sign). Concerning the colour, the elements of categories B and C have their own images of textures. Therefore, no modification in this sense is necessary either.

As far as quality is concerned, it is mandatory reducing it for the category B elements. However, in the case of the elements of category C, stored in medium-low resolution, it will depend on the hardware used. As will be explained below, two applications have been developed: a virtual reality application and an augmented reality application. The first one usually runs on desktop PCs, whereas the latter runs on mobile devices. So, the different specifications of both platforms are evident, being less powerful the mobile devices in terms of 3D representation in real-time.

In this respect, since all 3D models are used in both types of applications, a quality reduction must also be applied to the elements of category C.

This quality reduction is implemented in two steps: one first reduction aimed to designing the VR application and a consecutive further reduction to prepare the elements for the AR applications, i.e. to be visualized in much less powerful devices. Every step of that quality reduction consists of reducing the number of triangles composing the 3D meshes, reducing the quality of texture images and group them into bigger images, more optimal for the real-time (Pérez et al. 2018).

Applications design

For both the AR and the VR application we have designed proofs of concepts to visualize all the acquired data. The software employed was Unity with added libraries for the use of specific head-mounted displays (Windows Mixed Reality Lenovo Explorer) and the generation of AR mobile applications (ARCore libraries for Android).

Regarding the VR application, it allows the user to explore the entire archaeological site. It is possible to tour all the exterior area and, also, the interior of ovens. Moreover,




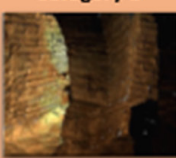




Source	3D data categories	Data adaptation (type of 3D data)	Quality reduction (resolution and color)	VR APPLICATION		3D ADAPTED MODEL		AR APPLICATION	
	Category a 	X	X						
	Category b 	=	↓						
	Category c 	=	↓						
	Category d 	=	=						

Figure 7.- Modifications undertaken regarding the type of data and the quality: “X” ≡ not used; “=” ≡ no adaptation required; “↓” ≡ decrease.

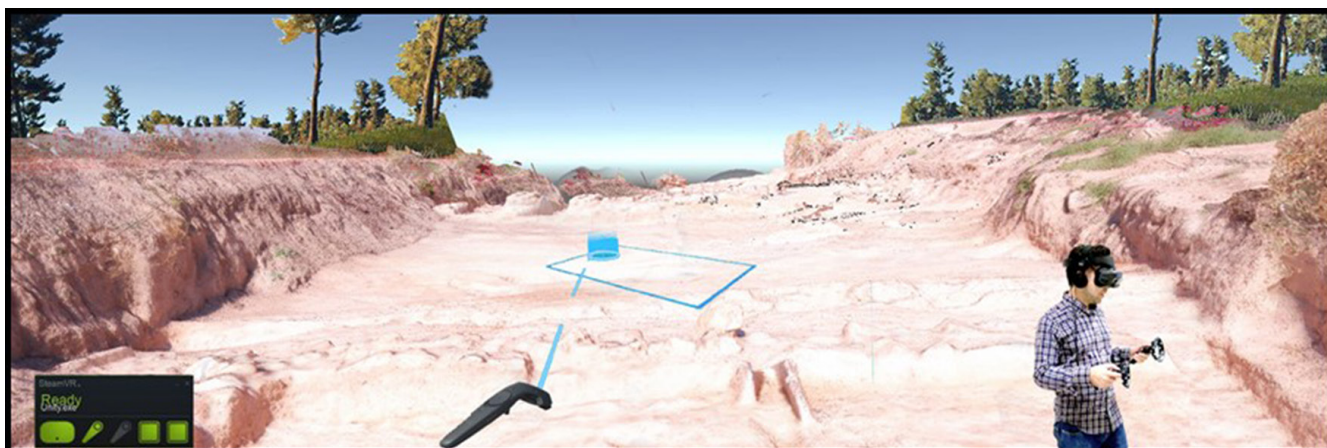


Figure 8.- Appearance of the VR experience.

some decoration elements were added to complete the environment where the site is located (vegetation, trees, sky, background) [figure 8].

In concern to the AR application, it also represents the site in real-time, although over the visualization of the mobile device's camera. This permits the instant change of point of view as the user walks. The current application does not need the use of external markers, so it is always possible to visualize the remains independently of the user's location. Additionally, to develop this application, we employed a medium-high specification mobile capable of managing an elevated number of triangles. However, it is not powerful enough to load the whole archaeological site with enough resolution of the interior of the kilns. This is why we had to split the model into portions to offer the user the possibility to load each portion separately. Specifically, we have 3 portions of the exterior area and 2 portions corresponding to the inside of the kilns [figure 9].



Figure 9.- AR application used *in situ*.

Discussion

As said above, the two applications developed are in their initial stages. Although while designing them, we carried out several tests to check some features: look, usability, delay, etc., it is obvious that an experimental study would be necessary. This study must involve different types of users, from experts in heritage to common visitors, from tourism managers to politicians.

The idea is to meet decision-makers to plan a strategy that includes the development and improvement of the applications, the testing with the public and the purchase of the necessary devices. This way, it would be possible to provide the inhabitants of Fuente del Maestre and the surroundings with some tools that allow them to know, enjoy and remember a part of its history that otherwise could fall into the oblivion. Having this type of dissemination tools would also enhance the attraction of tourism to a population that, although it was declared Historic-Artistic Site in 1998, is a little far from the usual touristic routes.

Conclusions

Sometimes it is impossible to conserve heritage for eternity. Not only because of decisions beyond the experts' criteria, but also with their consent, when the proper preservation of the remains cannot be assured. In these cases, before an announced lost, technology become a perfect ally to overcome the oblivion that the disappearance entails. The better way to preserve the cultural heritage for future generations is, in these cases, keep its memory for the people.

Throughout these pages, we have approached the application of 3D modelling to the documentation, research and dissemination of cultural heritage. Focused on the specific case of the re-covered, and so, lost Roman remains found in the nearby of Fuente del Maestre, the process to acquire 3D data of the whole site with different technologies

was described. As said, choosing a specific technology depends on the features of the structures and the subsequent use that these 3D model generated will receive.

The procedure to merge the different meshes has been also explained, as well as the transformation of those meshes to be utilized to design Virtual and Augmented Reality applications. Afterwards, we make a small digression on how these developed VR/AR experiences are and how they can be visualized. Finally, it describes and shows both the 3D model of the site and the tentative AR application designed and explains the future work to improve the virtual experiences and make them reach the people of nearby towns so that they can know this Roman site and prevent it falls into oblivion.

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Analysis of urban vulnerability as a tool for cultural heritage preservation. The cases of the medium-sized historical ensembles in Andalusia

Daniel Navas-Carrillo, Blanca del Espino Hidalgo, Juan-Andrés Rodríguez-Lora, Teresa Pérez-Cano

Abstract: This paper presents the urban vulnerability assessment as a complementary resource in heritage preservation policies, through the analysis of the thirty-nine medium-sized cities that have been listed as Historical Ensemble in Andalusia (Spain). The research seeks to make a sequential approach that addresses, from the general –the conceptual framework on urban vulnerability and the characterization of the analysis sample– to the particular –the analysis of the socio-economic, socio-demographic or residential vulnerability applied to the intermediate scale which has not been in-deep studied yet–. For this, it proposes to adopt the methodology implemented by the Spanish Ministry of Development in the Atlas of Urban Vulnerability, providing a territorial lecture of the results. The study concludes that medium-sized cities do not present a level of vulnerability lower to the largest ones but detecting specific urban weaknesses that should be addressed to improve the response of these cities to heritage preservation.

Keywords: Baetica, cultural heritage, heritage conservation, intermediate cities, urban heritage, urban planning, vulnerability indicators

Análisis de la vulnerabilidad urbana como herramienta de protección del Patrimonio Cultural. El caso de los Conjuntos Históricos en ciudades medias de Andalucía

Resumen: Este artículo propone evaluar la vulnerabilidad urbana como herramienta complementaria en las políticas de protección patrimonial mediante el análisis de las treinta y nueve ciudades medias declaradas Conjunto Histórico en Andalucía (España). La investigación intenta realizar una aproximación secuencial que aborda desde lo general, el marco conceptual sobre vulnerabilidad urbana y la caracterización de la muestra analizada, hasta lo concreto, el análisis de la vulnerabilidad socioeconómica, sociodemográfica y residencial en la escala intermedia, aún no estudiada en profundidad. Para ello, se propone adoptar la metodología implementada por el Ministerio de Fomento de España en el Atlas de Vulnerabilidad Urbana, proporcionando una lectura territorial de los resultados. El estudio concluye que las ciudades medias presentan un nivel de vulnerabilidad que no es inferior al de las de mayor tamaño, sin embargo, se identifican ciertas debilidades que deberán ser abordadas para mejorar la respuesta de estas ciudades a la conservación de su patrimonio.

Palabras clave: Baetica, ciudades intermedias, conservación patrimonial, indicadores de vulnerabilidad, patrimonio histórico, patrimonio urbano, planificación urbana

Introduction

—Research definition

This research proposes the inclusion of urban vulnerability assessment as an additional tool to be considered in the cultural heritage preservation policies. This hypothesis is based on the fact that, just as other external aggressors are taken into account in preventive conservation, the urban weaknesses should also be considered. The social, economic and residential

weaknesses could reduce the capacity as a collective that cities have for preserving their heritage. This vision utterly implies an urban approach to the heritage of these cities, beyond the individual assessment of their cultural assets. This vision is also aligned with the change produced on the concept of heritage in recent decades. Attention has shifted from primarily objective considerations to the subject which demands it (Ruiz Castillo 2004: 18).

For this purpose, this work has adapted the methodology provided by the Spanish Ministry of Development in

the Atlas of Urban Vulnerability. This methodology has been validated through its application in different urban contexts of the Spanish geography (Temes, 2014; Antón-Alonso & Porcel, 2017; Rodríguez Peña, 2017; De Santiago Rodríguez, 2018). However, it has had a more significant impact on the analysis of the largest cities (Hernández Aja, Rodríguez Alonso, Rodríguez Suárez, 2018), finding a gap in the urban vulnerability analysis of the so-called medium-sized cities. In this sense, the research tries to identify the specific vulnerability issues of these intermediate urban scale, which differ from those of large cities.

Accurately, the weight of the system of medium-sized cities in the functional organisation is a fundamental characteristic that defines Andalusia; geographical framework analysed in this research. Andalusia is the most populous and the second-largest region in Spain, and approximately 60% of the autonomous territory is under the influence of a medium-sized city representing in population terms close to 15% of the inhabitants in the whole region. Besides, the historical relevance of the Andalusian medium-sized cities has been evidenced in national and international references (Madoz 1846-1850; Braun and Hogenberg 1572-1618). These circumstances have led to propose an analysis taking territorial organisation factors into account, according to the particular geographical characteristics, the historical evolution, the spatial planning or the specific legislation of each territory. In this sense, it seeks to provide a comparative study among different urban scales, which has not been developed yet.

On this regard, it is also important to mention that current territorial planning international strategies defend a polycentric model based on medium-sized cities. These cities not only favour a lower consumption of resources but also generate a more immediate relationship with the nearby rural environment. They contribute to avoid depopulation and acquire a key position in mitigating and adapting to climate change. Endowed with practically the same essential urban services as the large cities, they lack environmental problems, which ultimately means the increase of the population's quality of life (Del Espino Hidalgo & Navas Carrillo, 2018:146).

—Urban vulnerability and its repercussion on heritage preservation

The term vulnerability applied to urban dimension arises during the cold war linked to the need for intervention in many eastern cities (Bankoff, 2019). In general terms, we can define it as a state of high exposure to certain risks and uncertainties, in combination with a reduced ability to protect or defend oneself against those risks and uncertainties and cope with their negative consequences (United Nations,

2003). Consequently, the term vulnerability has been widely accepted as the socio-economic risks that could affect society (Bankoff et al., 2004). Since this point of view, it has entered into a variety of disciplines such as disaster risk analysis (Wisner et al., 2004), natural hazard geographical research (Weichselgarnter, 2001; Cannon, 2008; Ran et al., 2020), climate change impacts (Fussel, 2007; Lankao & Qin, 2011; Singh, 2017) or social-environmental approaches (Krellenberg et al., 2016). Thus, the vulnerability is currently related to resilience, a concept particularly extended in urban and regional planning in recent years (Cardoso, 2018; Faulkner, 2020). Terms that are in opposite sides (Godschalk, 2003), but should not be characterized as antonyms (Patel et al., 2020).

The vulnerability has also been applied to topics regarding social inclusion (Levron, 2010), such as, poverty, gender, class, caste, ethnicity, disability or elderly (Twigg, 2015). This perspective can be extended to urban studies. When done, it is inexorably linked to the application of preventive actions towards the inclusion of inhabitants (Ministerio de Fomento, 2012). It should be noted that their study has increased since 2008 due to the consequences of the economic crisis (Matesanz Parellada, 2017:29). Thus, the urban vulnerability can be understood as that process of unrest in cities produced by the combination of multiple dimensions of disadvantage, in which any hope of upward social mobility (to overcome their social condition of exclusion) is seen as extremely difficult to achieve. On the contrary, it carries a perception of insecurity and fear of the possibility of downward social mobility, of worsening of their current living conditions (Aguacil, 2006:161). However, it can be affirmed that the concept of urban vulnerability refers both to the increase of threats and risks that affect society and to the weakening of mechanisms to deal with such problems (Aguacil et al., 2014:18). In that sense, we can relate vulnerability to concepts largely addressed as the right to the city proposed by Henri Lefebvre (1968). Lately, it has been developed and reclaimed by social movements to fight against contemporary urban issues such as commodification and capitalism of the city, the decrease of social interaction and the rise of spatial inequalities and exclusion (Harvey, 2003).

As can be seen, urban vulnerability is, in short, directly related to the traditional dimensions of sustainability: economic balance, social equity and environmental resilience. However, a fourth dimension has been proposed as the centre or conceptual framework for the previous triangle: culture (Hawkes 2001). It is understood as to how our ancestors have adapted to the constant changes in environmental conditions throughout the cycles and have thus left a legacy to our times: cultural heritage, which must be understood as a source of inspiration, innovation and creativity

to face current challenges. This approach evidences the need of including cultural heritage in sustainable development frameworks (UNESCO 2018), what necessarily must be connected to urban vulnerability assessment of the built cultural heritage, that is, the historical centres of the cities. Consequently, this work aims to evaluate urban vulnerability over a selection of urban areas – the historical centres and, particularly, the protected ones – of an urban category pointed out as an example of sustainability and equilibrium – medium-sized cities.

The system of medium-sized cities of Andalusia as a case study

— Definition of a medium-sized city

Medium-sized cities have been considered from the European directives as to the urban category with the best qualities for urban-territorial sustainability (European Union 2011: VII), what has encouraged the increase of their protagonism in territorial planning and development strategies, as well as to in framework policies. In the second half of the 20th century, many countries of the European Union focused part of their development policies on the dynamization of medium-sized cities. The first attempts derive from the theory of the central places of Walter Christaller (1933), extended by Auguste Lösch (1940) and from the concept of the pole of development in the regional scope used by Perroux (1955). Hirschman (1958) would formulate a theoretical body to be used in territorial planning for the promotion of the later called intermediate cities.

Currently, their defence is based on the sustainability of a polycentric territorial model against metropolization processes (Vilagrasa 2000). In this sense, in recent years, this urban category has aroused particular interest in the quality of life it presents, as it lacks many of the environmental problems of large cities, as well as in the very scale of the city that makes it more humane and accessible. On the other hand, medium-sized cities favour a more rational use of resources, guaranteeing access to specialised goods and services in conditions like those carried out in large urban areas (Llop Torné and Hoeflich de Duque 2007: 10). As for their definition, it should not be done exclusively in demographic terms, but understood by their strategic position within the functional organisation of a nearby region or regional scope, and far from the synergies of the principal regional centres, as stated in the Unesco Report on Intermediate Cities (Bellet Sanfeliu and Llop Torné 1999). According to it, the concept of the medium-sized city goes beyond the mere intermediate position between the large metropolitan areas and the rural sphere. It is necessary to consider the socio-economic and cultural conditions of each territory, which will determine the different municipal roles, regardless of the number of

inhabitants. For Bellet and Beltrão, (2009: 43), “medium-sized cities articulate the territory and function as reference centres for a more or less immediate territory”.

In the case of Andalusia, they are officially recognised by the Regional Spatial Plan (approved by Decree 206/2006, of 28 November), which proposes a hierarchical territorial structure – the System of Cities – distinguishing three categories: Regional Centres, Medium-sized Cities and Rural Areas. This classification has been made based on demographic size, diversity and dynamics of its economic base and functional weight. Although the size of a medium-sized city should not be measured in absolute terms, in Andalusian, it would correspond to populations between 100,000 and 15,000 inhabitants, coinciding with the hypothesis of Merinero and Lara (2010: 2).

— Cultural heritage characterization of the Medium-sized cities of Andalusia

This study follows the Andalusian Regional Spatial Plan, in Spanish *Plan de Ordenación Territorial de Andalucía* (Junta de Andalucía, 2006). This document includes a total of sixty-one medium-sized cities in the Andalusian geography [figure 1]. The research has selected those that have been or are in the process of being listed as Historical Ensemble. This classification means public recognition and legal protection of their heritage values as a whole. In the past, this responsibility exclusively corresponded to the Government of Spain. Currently, the Regional Government is also in charge to classify a city as Historical Ensemble.

The selected cities have been analysed according to their position in the territory. It has been necessary to distinguish between interior and coastal geographic domain due to the different evolution they have experienced during the 20th century. Special mention requires coastal cities since their development has been mainly boosted by mass tourism since the 60s. Out of the forty medium-sized cities in inner Andalusia (Del Espino Hidalgo 2015: 62), twenty-six (65%) have been listed as Historical Ensembles or are in process [table 1]. Besides, out of the twenty-one medium-sized cities located on the Andalusian coast (Navas-Carrillo et al., 2019: 250-251), thirteen (61.9%) have been listed or are under study. In addition to the individual built heritage assets, this classification assesses the urban, spatial and landscape configuration of these thirty-nine cities analysed as a whole. International agencies as UNESCO also has recognised the heritage value of several of these medium-sized cities. For instance, Úbeda and Baeza (Jaen) are listed on the World Heritage List as “Renaissance Monumental Ensembles of Úbeda and Baeza” (UNESCO 2003: 121), or the “Antequera Dolmens Site” (UNESCO 2016: 223), located in the Province of Málaga.

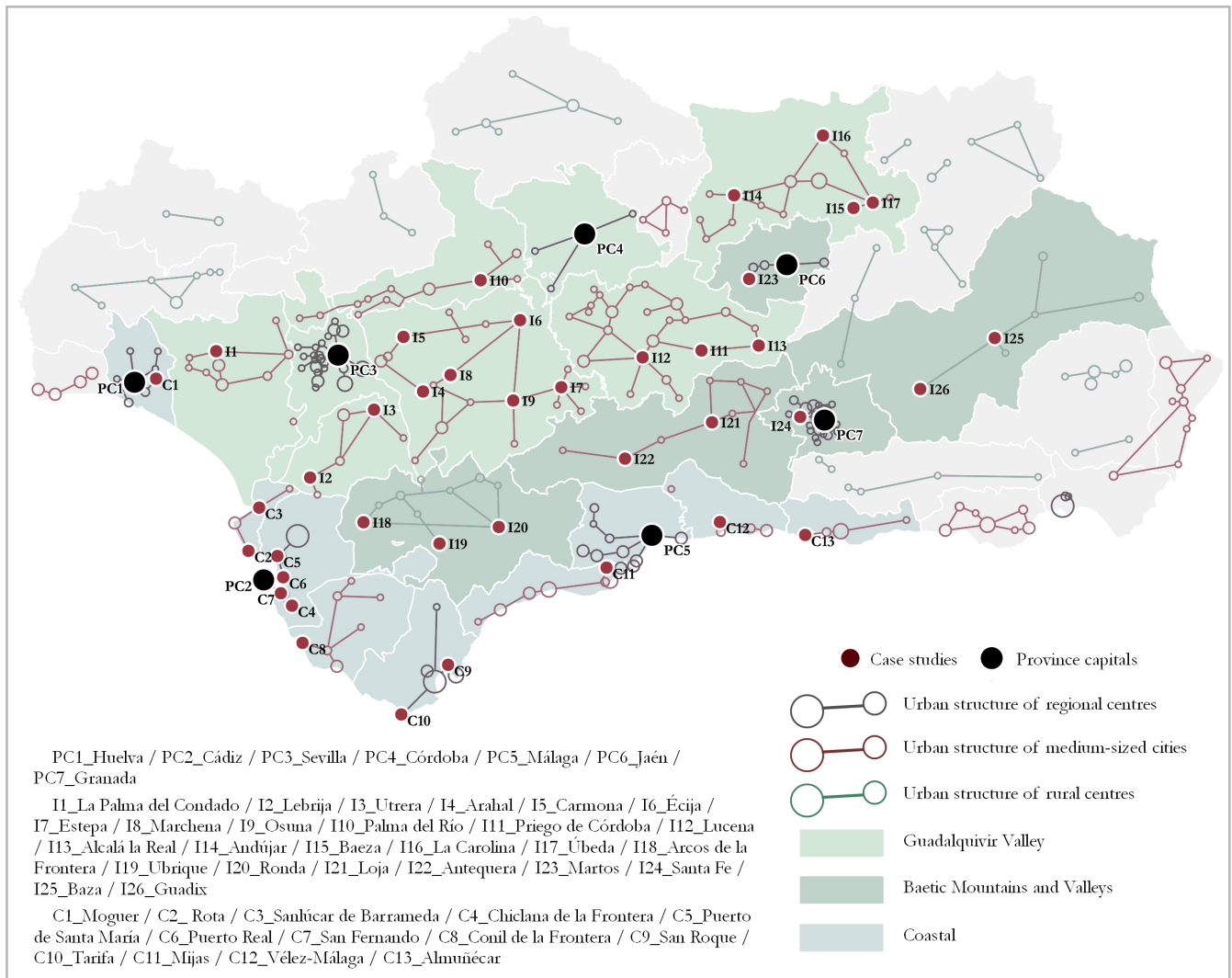


Figure 1.- Andalusian Urban System. Source: Compiled by the authors based on the Spatial Plan of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía, 2006).

Table 1.- Geographic Domain, Territorial Unit and Medium-sized Cities listed as Historical Ensemble in Andalusia. Source: Compiled by authors based on data from the Spatial Plan of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía, 2006) and the Institute of Statistics and Cartography of Andalusia (IECA, 2019).

Geographic Domain	Territorial Unit	Medium-sized cities according to the Spatial Plan of Andalusia
Inner	Aljarafe-Condado-Marismas	La Palma del Condado (10,761 inhabitants)
	Bajo Guadalquivir	Lebrija (27,524 inhabitants) Utrera (50,728 inhabitants)
	Campaña y Sierra Sur de Sevilla	Arahal (19,526 inhabitants) Carmona (28,531 inhabitants) Écija (39,873 inhabitants) Estepa (12,505 inhabitants) Marchena (19,457 inhabitants) Osuna (17,560 inhabitants)
	Guadalquivir Valley	Palma del Río (21,064 inhabitants)
	Campaña y Subbético de Córdoba y Jaén	Lucena (42,605 inhabitants) Priego de Córdoba (22,408 inhabitants) Alcalá la Real (21,605 inhabitants)
	Centro Norte de Jaén	Andújar (36,793 inhabitants) Baeza (15,841 inhabitants) La Carolina (15,261 inhabitants) Úbeda (34,345 inhabitants)

Table 1.- (continuation)

Geographic Domain		Territorial Unit	Medium-sized cities according to the Spatial Plan of Andalusia
Inner	Baetic Mountains and Valleys	Serranías de Cádiz y Ronda	Arcos de la Frontera (30,700 inhabitants) Ubrique (16,597 inhabitants) Ronda (33,877 inhabitants)
		Depresiones de Antequera y Granada	Loja (20,342 inhabitants) Antequera (41,239 inhabitants)
		Regional Centre of Jaén	Martos (24,215 inhabitants)
		Regional Centre of Granada	Santa Fe (15,157 inhabitants)
		Altiplanicies Orientales	Baza (20,412 inhabitants) Guadix (18,422 inhabitants)
Coastal		Regional Centre of Huelva	Moguer (22,088 inhabitants)
		Costa Noroeste de Cádiz	Rota (29,109 inhabitants) Sanlúcar de Barrameda (68,684 inhabitants)
		Regional Centre of Bahía de Cádiz-Jérez	Chiclana de la Frontera (84,489 inhabitants) Puerto de Santa María (88,405 inhabitants) Puerto Real (41,627 inhabitants) San Fernando (95,979 inhabitants)
		La Janda	Conil de la Frontera (22,529 inhabitants)
		Regional Centre of Bahía de Algeciras	San Roque (31,218 inhabitants) Tarifa (18,162 inhabitants)
		Costa del Sol	Mijas (82,742 inhabitants)
		Vélez-Málaga y Axarquía	Vélez-Málaga (81,643 inhabitants)
		Costa Tropical	Almuñécar (26,514 inhabitants)

Methodology

— Criteria for its application to the study sample

To meet the defined objectives, a system of medium-sized cities of heritage character has been chosen as a case study: those officially recognised in Andalusia purposing their preservation. That is, listed as Historical Ensembles according to what is indicated by Law 14/2007 on the Historical Heritage of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía 2007). For this purpose, it has been necessary to determinate the criteria based on what urban vulnerability needs to be addressed.

In the case of the Spanish official framework, the Ministry of Development has developed a methodology to try to objectively analyse Urban Vulnerability through twenty urban indicators and from four perspectives (socio-demographic, socio-economic, residential and subjective). The resulting product can be checked on a web application, namely Atlas of Urban Vulnerability, firstly published in 2011. The methodology was reviewed to become part of the Urban Vulnerability Observatory

in 2015, thanks to the approval of the Land and Urban Rehabilitation Law (Ministerio de Fomento 2015). This digital tool is playing a key role in the development of urban regeneration policies, including the Integrated Sustainable Urban Development Strategies (SUDS) as the result of implementing the Europe 2020 strategy to the field of urban development (Matesanz Parellada, 2018: 92).

This work adopts the methodology provided by the aforementioned Atlas using the data supplied by the Spanish National Statistics Institute in the most recent Population and Housing Census (2011). Although it is a statistical study based on 9% of regular residents, it is the last unified analysis for the set of Spanish municipalities and, therefore, with the same criteria for sampling, data collection and result interpretation. The next update is scheduled for release in 2021. Meanwhile, the National Statistics Institute elaborates the Continuous Household Survey annually since 2013. However, its data are grouped by provinces, and, consequently, it is not possible to use them in this research. Besides, the latest version of the Spanish Census does not provide the information needed for Subjective indicators; whose

analysis would require a qualitative approach based on social perception (Ruiz, 2019:34). For this reason, the research has focused on the socio-demographic, socio-economic and residential dimensions. Specifically, the following fifteen indicators have been analysed:

- Socio-demographic vulnerability: Percentage of seniors aged 75 or more (I1), Percentage of families with only a person aged 64 or more (I2), Percentage of families with only an adult and a child (I3), Percentage of foreign population (I4), Percentage of foreign children (I5).
- Socio-economic vulnerability: Percentage of unemployed population (I6), Percentage of unemployed young population (I7), Percentage of contingent workers (I8), Percentage of workers without qualification (I9), Percentage of people without primary education (I10).
- Residential vulnerability: Percentage of dwellings with less than 30 m² (I11), Average adequate living area by inhabitant (I12), Percentage of population in dwellings without a toilet or WC (I13), Percentage of dwellings in ruined or deficient buildings (I14), Percentage of dwellings in buildings built before 1940 (I15).

Based on these considerations, the fifteen indicators mentioned above have been applied to the twenty-six medium-sized interior cities and thirteen coastal ones that have been listed as Heritage Ensembles. The numerical and percentage indicator values have been provided for the whole sample using the data supplied by the Population and Housing Census. This study includes a comparative analysis with the eight provincial capitals, which have the role of regional centres within the territorial organization of Andalusia. In order to properly analyse the results, two different general territorial domains should be identified within the set of Andalusian medium-sized cities. The geographical position, the substantial economic and demographic development or the particular dynamics of urban growth makes the coastal territorial structure differs significantly from the inner one, mostly traditionally characterised as agrocities. Besides, the territorial structure of inner Andalusia is marked by the presence of two structuring elements of the Andalusian territory: the Guadalquivir River and the Baetic System.

In the first phase, the complete information has been represented using a sequential colour scheme (the lowest levels in green and the highest ones in red), as shown in Tables 2 and 3. Subsequently, transforming the absolute values into quintiles, the general urban vulnerability index has been calculated, as well as the one corresponding to each of the three dimensions analysed: Socio-demographic, Socio-economic and Residential. The territorial distribution of these values has been represented through Geographic Information Systems, which has allowed to provide a territorial lecture of the urban vulnerability in Andalusia [figure 2].

3. Results

— *Urban heritage protection. Urban planning as a preservation tool*

Before evaluating the degree of heritage preservation that characterizes the analysed cities, it is necessary to expose the legal framework that currently regulates it. In Spain, the heritage preservation is carried out by different public administrations in various development levels: Central, Regional and Local Governments. The Government of Spain, through the Heritage Law, in force since 1985, can list heritage elements as *Bien de Interés Cultural* –hereafter BIC- (Cultural Interest Asset), the highest level of protection in the country. These elements can be listed as Monuments, Historical Gardens, Historical Ensembles, Historical Sites or Archaeological Areas.

Furthermore, heritage preservation can also be articulated since the regional level. Thus, in the case of Andalusia and after the transfer of competences in heritage matters in 1984, the first Andalusian Heritage Law was approved in 1991 (Junta de Andalucía 1991), updated in 2007 (Junta de Andalucía 2007). According to this law, the Cultural Interest Assets also be listed as Places of Ethnological Interest, Places of Industrial Interest, or Heritage Areas. Besides, it introduces a second level of heritage protection called *Bien de Catalogación General* –hereafter BCG- (General Cataloguing Asset). Both of them, and those Andalusian movable assets listed in the *Inventario General de Bienes Muebles del Patrimonio Histórico Español* (General Inventory of Movable Property of the Spanish Historical Heritage), are included in the *Catálogo General del Patrimonio Histórico Andaluz* –hereafter CGPHA- (General Catalogue of the Andalusian Historical Heritage).

Nonetheless, Local Governments has also a significant role in the safeguarding of heritage due to their proximity to the asset to be preserved. According to the *Ley de Ordenación Urbanística de Andalucía* –hereafter LOUA- (Andalusian Urban Planning Law), each municipality is obliged to include heritage preservation measures in the different urban planning instruments approved. In this sense, it is relevant to clarify that the Spanish legislation considers several urban development levels, whose impact on heritage preservation –given the scope of the measures- is consequently uneven. The first instrument to be considered is the *Plan General de Ordenación Urbana* –hereafter PGOU- (General Urban Development Plan). In some cases, general urban planning is regulated by the so-called *Normas Subsidiarias* –hereafter NNSS- (Urban Subsidiary Rules). They are repealed instruments, but which are still used in small towns after being updated according to the LOUA's requirements.

On a second level, the *Planes Especial de Protección* – hereafter PEP- (Preservation Urban Plans) should be mentioned. According to Article 14 of the LOUA, these plans have, among other purposes, to conserve, protect

and improve the urban environment and, primarily, the bearer or expressive heritage of urban, architectural, historical or cultural values. In both instruments, the heritage preservation is mainly articulated through the so-called Protection Catalogues, which contain the detailed list and the precise identification of the assets and spaces that, due to their value, must be subject to particular conservation. Its formulation and approval can also be carried out independently.

According to the aforementioned urban and heritage preservation policies, the set of case studies have been analysed distinguishing again between interior and coastal geographic domain. As table 2 shows, 9 out of 26 (34.62%) cities studied in inner Andalusia are still regulated with NNSS, 5 of them have initiated the drafting of their PGOU, but they have not been approved definitely. 15 out of 26 (57.69%) of the General Plans had been approved before the LOUA's enactment, but all of them have been adapted

to its articulate. Consequently, all the PGOU and NNSS include heritage preservation measures, although only 21 of them include a protection catalogue. In parallel, 10 out of 26 (38.46%) cities have approved a Preservation Plan for their Historical Ensembles.

In the cities analysed in the coast, as table 3 shows, only 1 out of 13 (7.69%) is still regulated by NNSS which were adapted to the current legal framework in 2010. 8 out of 13 (61.54%) General Plans had been approved before the LOUA's enactment, but all of them have been already updated. Consequently, all the PGOU and NNSS include heritage preservation measures, although only 11 of them include a protection catalogue. One of them, the Puerto de Santa María, has approved an additional heritage register. About Preservation Planning for their Historical Ensembles, 10 out of 13 (76.92%) cities have initiated its formulation; nevertheless, only 6 of them (46.15%) have definitely approved it.

Table 2.- Heritage protection by urban planning in medium-sized interior cities. Source: Compiled by authors based on the Regional Government's Planning Database (Junta de Andalucía, 2019).

MEDIUM-SIZED INTERIOR CITY	CURRENT URBAN PLAN	PROTECTION CATALOGUE	ADAPTATION TO LOUA	PROTECTION URBAN PLAN	ADDITIONAL REGISTER
Arcos de la Frontera (Cádiz)	PGOU 1994 PGOU 2014 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2010	2007	-
Ubrique (Cádiz)	NNSS 1987 PGOU 2015 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2010	No	-
Lucena (Córdoba)	PGOU 1999	Yes	2008	No	-
Palma del Río (Córdoba)	PGOU 2005	Yes	-	No	-
Priego de Córdoba (Córdoba)	PGOU 2015	Yes	-	No	-
Baza (Granada)	PGOU 2010	Yes	-	No	-
Guadix (Granada)	PGOU 2002	Yes	2010	No	-
Loja (Granada)	NNSS 1993	Yes	2009	No	-
Santa Fe (Granada)	NNSS 1998	Yes ⁽²⁾	2009	No	-
La Palma del Condado (Huelva)	PGOU 2005	Yes	-	No	-
Alcalá la Real (Jaén)	PGOU 2005	Yes	-	No	-
Andújar (Jaén)	PGOU 2010	Yes	-	No	-
Baeza (Jaén)	PGOU 2011	Yes	-	1990	-
La Carolina (Jaén)	NNSS 1993	Yes	2011	No	-
Martos (Jaén)	PGOU 2013	Yes	-	No	-
Úbeda (Jaén)	PGOU 1996	Yes ⁽²⁾	2009	1989 ⁽³⁾	-
Antequera (Málaga)	PGOU 2010	Yes ⁽²⁾	-	1993	-
Ronda (Málaga)	PGOU 1991	Yes ⁽²⁾	2010	-	-
Arahal (Sevilla)	NNSS 1994 PGOU 2019 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2009	2014	-
Carmona (Sevilla)	NNSS 1983 PGOU 2012 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2009	2009	-
Écija (Sevilla)	PGOU 2009	Yes	-	2002	-
Estepa (Sevilla)	NNSS 1988	Yes	2011	-	-
Lebrija (Sevilla)	PGOU 2016	Yes	-	2018	-
Marchena (Sevilla)	NNSS 1995 PGOU 2007 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2009	1994	-
Osuna (Sevilla)	NNSS 1985 PGOU 2017 ⁽¹⁾	Yes ⁽²⁾	2009	-	-
Utrera (Sevilla)	PGOU 2001 PGOU 2015 ⁽¹⁾	Yes	2008	2009 ⁽⁴⁾	-

NNSS = Urban Subsidiary Rules | PGOU = General Urban Development Plan | LOUA = Andalusian Urban Planning Law (2002)
⁽¹⁾ provisional approval | ⁽²⁾ incomplete | ⁽³⁾ updated in 2000 | ⁽⁴⁾ updated in 2018

Table 3.- Heritage protection by urban planning in medium-sized interior cities. Source: Compiled by authors based on the Regional Government’s Planning Database (Junta de Andalucía, 2019).

MEDIUM-SIZED COASTAL CITY	CURRENT URBAN PLAN	PROTECTION CATALOGUE	ADAPTATION TO LOUA	PROTECTION URBAN PLAN	ADDITIONAL REGISTER
Chiclana de la Frontera (Cádiz)	PGOU 2016	Yes	-	-	-
Conil de la Frontera (Cádiz)	PGOU 2005	No	2013	2003 ⁽¹⁾	-
El Puerto de Santa María (Cádiz)	PGOU 2012	Yes	-	2009 ⁽¹⁾	2015
Puerto Real (Cádiz)	PGOU 2009	Yes	-	1997	-
Rota (Cádiz)	PGOU 1994	Yes	2009	2019 ⁽¹⁾	-
San Fernando (Cádiz)	PGOU 2011	Yes	-	2008	-
San Roque (Cádiz)	PGOU 2000	Yes	2009	2009	-
Sanlúcar de Barrameda (Cádiz)	PGOU 1996	Yes	2011	-	-
Tarifa (Cádiz)	PGOU 1989	Yes	2010	2012	-
Almuñécar (Granada)	PGOU 1987	Yes ⁽²⁾	2009	2013	-
Moguer (Huelva)	NNSS 1992	Yes	2010	-	-
Mijas (Málaga)	PGOU 1999	Yes ⁽²⁾	2010	2019 ⁽¹⁾	-
Vélez-Málaga (Málaga)	PGOU 1996	No	2009	2008 ⁽³⁾	-

NNSS = Urban Subsidiary Rules | PGOU = General Urban Development Plan | LOUA = Andalusian Urban Planning Law (2002)
⁽¹⁾ provisional approval | ⁽²⁾ incomplete | ⁽³⁾ updated in 2014

The medium-sized coastal cities present average levels of vulnerability in the three dimensions that have been analysed. All the indicators are comprised between the second and fourth quintile. It should be noted that their socio-demographic vulnerability is lower to the regional centres. This fact is especially significant in the percentage of the elderly population (I1-I2) and the percentage of single-parent families (I3). By the contrary, their socio-economic vulnerability is slightly higher (I6-I10). Although they are characterised for certain uniformity, some general conclusions can be drawn. In average, they also present medium levels of vulnerability in the three dimensions. The results are similar to the coastal cities; being the indicators comprised between the second and fourth quintile. The socio-demographic vulnerability (I1-I5) is lower to the regional centres and the socio-economic vulnerability

slightly higher (I6-I10). The residential vulnerability can be considered equivalent in both cases since half of the indicators are slightly higher in medium-sized cities and the other half in the regional centres [figure 2].

In inner Andalusia [table 3], two particular situations can be recognised based on the intensity and level of consolidation of these territories: Guadalquivir Valley (high intensity) and Baetic Mountains and Valleys (moderate intensity). In the first case, the territorial unities of the Campiña de Sevilla and the Bajo Guadalquivir should be highlighted. As table 3 shows, cities such as Arahal, Carmona, Écija, Lebrija, Marchena, Osuna or Utrera stand out for higher values in socio-economic vulnerability (I6-I10) compared to the rest of the dimensions except for Estepa. This city also has high levels of socio-economic vulnerability, but exclusively in

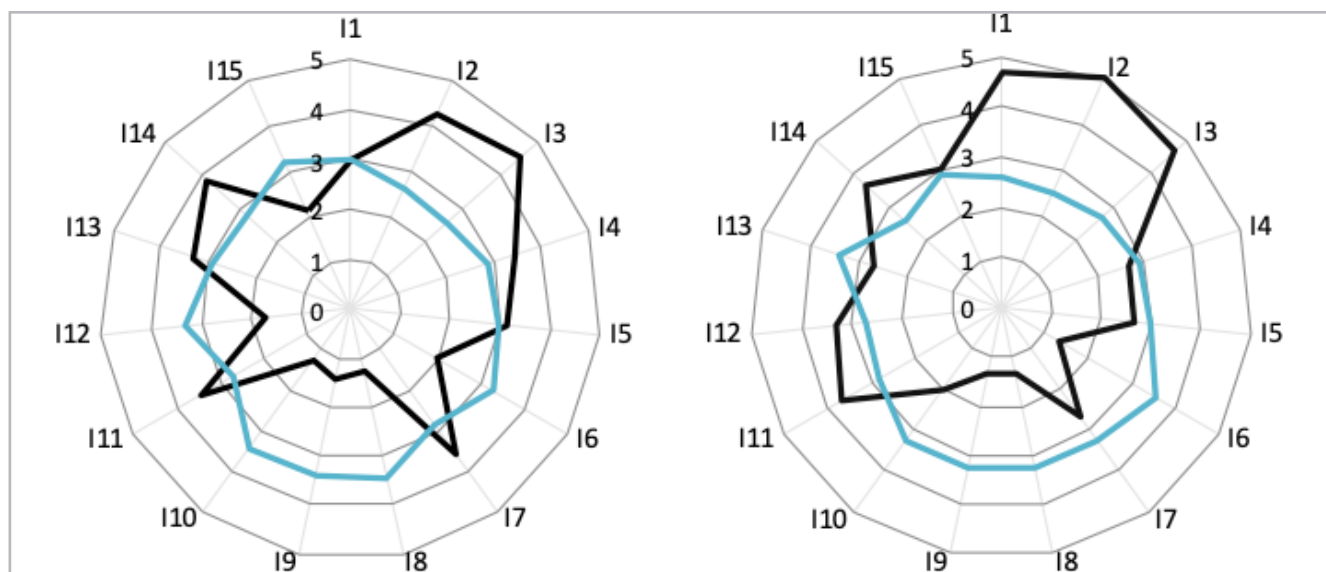


Figure 2.- Average levels of urban vulnerability in medium-sized cities (blue) and regional centres (black) in inner and coastal Andalusia. Source: Compiled by the authors based on data from Spanish Statistical Office (INE, 2011).

indicators I7 to I8. These data do not mean that the other values are in minimum positions. Thus, cities as Estepa, Lebrija, Marchena or Osuna show high levels of residential vulnerability, specially I15.

Besides, for the cases of Estepa and Lebrija, high levels are observed in indicators I12, I13 and I14. In the North-Centre of Jaén, the principal characteristic is the vulnerability levels of La Carolina. In this case, most of the indicators are at low levels. 9 out of 18 (50%) are under the first percentile except for indicators I6 and I13 which levels are close to the maximum. Furthermore, Priego de Córdoba stands out among the group of cities that constitute the Campiña and Subbética de Córdoba-Jaén. This medium-sized city has almost non-existent levels of residential vulnerability,

on the contrary, has maximum levels in I4, I5, I8, I9 and I10 indicators. La Palma del Condado and Palma del Río, the only example analysed in their related territorial unit, are characterized by having most of their values at minimum levels.

In the Baetic Mountains and Valleys, five territorial units have been analysed. Among the case studies, Baza highlights as the city that presents the highest number of indicators at maximum levels at the axis drawn by the cities inserted in the Altiplanicies Orientales and the Depresiones de Antequera y Granada. Mainly those related to residential issues, although some indicators of socio-economic and socio-demographic vulnerabilities also have maximum values. Antequera presents the lowest

Table 3.- Urban vulnerability in medium-sized cities (blue) and regional centres (black) in inner Andalusia (percentage figures). Data has been represented using a sequential colour scheme (the lowest levels in green and the highest ones in red). Observations: ⁽¹⁾ no foreign children registered; ⁽²⁾ no dwellings with less than 30 m² registered; ⁽³⁾ no dwellings without a toilet or WC registered. Source: Compiled by the authors based on data from Spanish Statistical Office (INE, 2011)

Ciudades	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6	I7	I8	I9	I10	I11	I12	I13	I14	I15
Cádiz	9,08	4,18	5,71	1,74	0,11	19,03	59,71	34,40	20,12	9,74	0,73	31,51	1,38	15,08	22,78
<i>Arcos de la Frontera</i>	6,34	2,34	3,81	2,20	0,59	28,47	61,56	55,87	55,83	17,01	0,60	30,74	1,62	4,57	11,55
<i>Utrera</i>	7,62	3,05	4,44	0,86	0,24	18,28	46,11	47,74	12,38	20,12	0,47	34,35	1,18	5,83	9,38
Córdoba	8,32	3,61	5,71	2,68	0,37	17,75	51,22	31,05	17,41	9,91	0,14	33,24	0,62	6,76	6,14
<i>Lucena</i>	7,05	2,69	4,18	5,38	0,61	21,36	47,10	38,57	27,55	14,63	0,17	34,68	2,26	4,62	2,46
<i>Palma del Río</i>	7,69	3,24	4,01	5,59	1,40	19,72	46,61	48,47	45,72	17,83	0,00 ⁽²⁾	33,79	0,52	1,10	2,72
<i>Priego de Córdoba</i>	10,97	3,74	6,02	2,63	0,92	19,61	43,80	44,48	39,85	18,65	0,00 ⁽²⁾	40,28	0,72	3,36	8,05
Granada	9,72	4,79	6,67	7,01	1,24	15,93	53,49	29,60	14,27	7,73	0,33	38,43	0,46	5,49	5,61
<i>Baza</i>	9,31	3,62	4,37	9,59	2,51	17,44	49,47	35,92	22,59	13,32	0,00 ⁽²⁾	43,78	0,52	5,50	7,25
<i>Gnádix</i>	9,86	3,64	3,61	3,67	0,82	17,43	51,23	37,46	25,06	11,61	1,35	36,96	0,28	14,84	22,02
<i>Loja</i>	8,87	4,46	4,01	5,67	1,70	19,76	37,33	43,99	40,84	19,34	0,50	39,74	0,44	8,71	7,77
<i>Santa Fe</i>	7,74	2,09	8,70	4,35	0,00 ⁽¹⁾	18,59	53,33	38,14	23,36	9,65	1,50	38,27	0,44	1,86	6,02
Huelva	7,26	3,18	5,95	4,90	0,82	18,87	56,12	36,76	23,73	8,11	0,09	31,70	0,62	11,81	4,52
<i>La Palma</i>	7,77	2,55	4,30	3,45	0,57	16,87	39,63	40,86	31,47	8,32	0,00 ⁽²⁾	37,15	0,28	4,55	12,69
Jaén	8,00	3,98	6,50	2,93	0,43	15,38	61,05	30,49	17,41	8,75	0,00 ⁽²⁾	35,16	0,53	3,66	4,15
<i>Alcalá la Real</i>	11,98	5,08	3,41	4,89	0,99	15,84	46,46	41,65	33,83	21,45	0,23	42,09	1,09	4,15	4,67
<i>Andújar</i>	8,76	3,70	4,81	2,68	0,44	21,29	58,99	38,54	29,98	17,42	0,00 ⁽²⁾	35,67	0,31	8,32	4,12
<i>Baeza</i>	9,15	4,26	3,98	4,47	0,18	17,00	40,32	38,81	19,63	13,56	0,00 ⁽²⁾	40,33	0,00 ⁽²⁾	1,05	7,37
<i>La Carolina</i>	7,25	2,61	4,47	2,42	0,00 ⁽¹⁾	19,99	43,78	32,67	23,90	13,16	0,00 ⁽²⁾	36,25	0,18	0,98	6,39
<i>Martos</i>	10,21	3,82	4,33	4,56	1,37	17,32	42,16	39,16	33,72	16,99	0,00 ⁽²⁾	38,97	0,50	5,91	13,15
<i>Úbeda</i>	8,79	3,26	5,31	2,98	0,36	18,16	49,61	33,09	15,25	11,03	0,12	39,68	0,19	3,86	10,49
Málaga	7,21	3,52	6,18	7,84	1,39	18,73	51,99	31,83	21,33	9,40	0,30	33,15	0,70	4,42	3,90
<i>Antequera</i>	8,17	3,37	4,98	4,56	0,93	3,65	52,82	33,05	28,07	14,76	0,00 ⁽²⁾	34,65	1,65	6,42	5,41
<i>Ronda</i>	8,48	3,50	5,76	4,15	0,63	20,93	51,95	37,32	21,32	12,82	0,44	35,56	0,88	3,53	8,02
Sevilla	8,28	3,95	5,51	5,12	0,94	16,54	50,20	29,21	16,79	7,85	0,22	32,97	0,54	4,81	4,55
<i>Arahal</i>	7,28	1,77	2,64	1,39	0,21	24,32	60,04	49,05	52,23	16,93	0,18	34,29	0,00 ⁽²⁾	5,00	4,33
<i>Carmona</i>	7,54	2,22	4,79	2,98	0,83	24,31	57,00	44,61	47,50	14,57	0,00 ⁽²⁾	36,33	1,18	1,69	7,30
<i>Écija</i>	7,14	3,14	7,05	2,97	1,05	23,32	57,25	44,97	35,63	15,41	0,03	33,93	1,12	2,86	4,58
<i>Estepa</i>	7,30	0,35	3,90	3,78	0,00 ⁽¹⁾	15,06	57,88	47,30	27,25	14,62	0,17	42,35	1,50	1,50	11,95
<i>Lebrija</i>	6,20	2,42	4,29	2,44	0,20	23,05	55,36	44,15	30,52	15,99	0,17	33,71	1,01	4,27	7,12
<i>Marchena</i>	7,67	2,98	5,04	3,86	0,10	21,26	59,19	46,50	42,83	17,55	0,00 ⁽²⁾	36,14	0,00 ⁽²⁾	2,27	7,37
<i>Osuna</i>	8,48	2,34	3,79	1,70	0,17	20,10	57,28	47,38	51,91	16,26	0,12	38,77	0,00 ⁽²⁾	6,34	11,58
<i>Utrera</i>	6,24	2,22	4,94	2,47	0,50	25,15	62,16	41,23	32,47	13,84	0,35	35,56	0,38	2,61	5,07
Regional centres	8,26	3,93	6,09	4,92	0,82	17,42	55,43	32,05	18,94	8,60	0,28	33,82	0,71	7,54	7,59
<i>Medium-sized cities</i>	8,23	3,02	4,65	3,68	0,67	19,55	51,09	41,96	32,72	15,26	0,25	37,08	0,70	4,45	8,03

levels of this region. However, it has two maximums in indicators concerning building matters (I13 and I14). Among the medium-sized cities of the Serranía de Cádiz and Ronda, Arcos de la Frontera has the highest values, mainly in the socio-economic dimension. In this sense, the similarity that exists between this city and Conil de la Frontera and Sanlúcar de Barrameda should be pointed out. These two coastal cities of the province of Cádiz also have maximum values in these indicators. Nevertheless, Ubrique is characterised by a higher level of vulnerability in residential areas. Finally, Santa Fe and Martos are located under the influence of a regional centre (Granada and Jaen, respectively). This fact makes them have similar patterns of behaviour as them. Just in the case of Martos, the indicators concerning population age (I1) and building age (I14-I15) are exceptionally higher than in Jaen.

On the other side, in the territorial domain of the Andalusian coast [table 4], the regional plan recognises eight territorial units mainly constituted by medium-sized cities. Two of these units are characterised by economic and productive factors: Costa del Sol and Poniente Almeriense (Navas-Carrillo et al., 2017:300). They appear as strongly anthropized units that have a monofunctional model (tourism or greenhouse agriculture). Within these two territorial units, the study sample only includes the city of Mijas. Highly polarised levels of vulnerability characterise this city. The vulnerability level in most of the indicators is minimum, even non-existent. However, the socio-demographic indicators (I2-I5) and the ones related to the housing surface (I11-I12) reach maximum values.

Meanwhile, the rest of the cases are less populated territorial units. Their functional model relates the two previous economic pillars – tourism and agriculture – with other development factors of urban, industrial and commercial economies. We highlight the case of Sanlúcar de Barrameda (Northwest Coast of Cadiz), Conil de la Frontera (La Janda), Vélez-Málaga (Axarquía) and Almuñecar (Costa Tropical), since they are the primary functional centres of their respective territories. The first two cities present high vulnerability in indicators 6 to 10, relating to economic aspects. This weakness is seen as a risk factor for heritage preservation. The situation in Vélez-Málaga and Almuñecar is not favourable either. Both stands out for high levels of vulnerability, except for indicators linked to the employment (I8) and the state of dwellings (I14) in Vélez-Málaga, and the young unemployment (I7) and the number of single-parent families (I3) in the case of Almuñecar. In any case, analysed as a whole, high vulnerability implies a generalized risk in both cases.

Other coastal cities as Chiclana de la Frontera, Puerto Real, San Fernando, San Roque, Tarifa, Puerto de Santa María or Moguer have also been included in the sample. It should be explained that they can be classified as medium-sized cities considering population criteria exclusively. However, these cities are under the strong influence of a nearby regional centre. This fact encourages their response to urban vulnerability differs from the previous ones. The case of San Fernando should be highlighted. As table 4 shows, it has the same pattern of behaviour as Cádiz, but having vulnerability indexes lightly inferior.

Table 4.- Urban vulnerability in medium-sized cities (blue) and regional centres (black) in coastal Andalusia (percentage figures). Data has been represented using a sequential colour scheme (the lowest levels in green and the highest ones in red). Observations: ⁽¹⁾ no dwellings with less than 30 m² registered. Source: Compiled by the authors based on data from Spanish Statistical Office (INE, 2011)

Ciudades	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6	I7	I8	I9	I10	I11	I12	I13	I14	I15
Cádiz	9,08	4,18	5,71	1,74	0,11	19,03	59,71	34,40	20,12	9,74	0,73	31,51	1,38	10,81	22,78
<i>Chiclana de la Fr</i>	4,33	1,22	5,66	4,51	1,13	24,25	62,31	38,89	24,06	9,47	0,05	34,47	1,74	4,36	2,77
<i>Conil de la Fr.</i>	5,45	1,06	3,79	6,41	0,69	25,63	63,41	41,80	37,07	15,31	1,28	30,22	1,14	1,75	4,85
<i>Puerto de Sta. María</i>	5,00	2,81	5,70	4,33	0,73	20,45	53,08	32,81	21,21	7,55	0,22	33,66	0,96	15,36	7,15
<i>Puerto Real</i>	4,61	1,87	5,30	2,34	0,86	20,58	55,07	39,19	20,72	9,15	0,53	31,55	0,80	3,18	4,64
<i>Rota</i>	5,15	2,62	3,50	4,18	0,29	19,30	54,62	36,70	26,70	11,24	0,14	30,73	1,42	3,03	7,75
<i>San Fernando</i>	5,96	2,40	6,02	1,51	0,39	18,94	56,63	34,53	17,53	7,33	0,21	30,12	0,97	5,54	6,77
<i>San Roque</i>	5,52	1,39	5,34	15,24	2,21	21,66	59,69	37,02	27,75	10,15	0,23	39,45	0,98	14,82	4,46
<i>Sanlúcar de Bda.</i>	5,66	2,00	6,15	1,36	0,04	26,12	63,45	47,29	35,22	14,92	0,73	29,31	1,31	5,79	5,79
<i>Tarifa</i>	6,72	0,94	5,44	8,73	1,30	21,92	53,42	42,89	21,33	14,15	0,53	30,88	1,14	3,04	14,82
Granada	9,72	4,79	6,67	7,01	1,24	15,93	53,49	29,60	14,27	7,73	0,33	38,43	0,46	5,49	5,61
<i>Almuñecar</i>	8,99	3,80	4,75	18,02	1,86	24,63	58,95	40,33	36,02	11,19	0,49	34,19	5,04	4,69	7,46
Huelva	7,26	3,18	5,95	4,90	0,82	18,87	56,12	36,76	23,73	8,11	0,09	31,70	0,62	11,81	4,52
<i>Moguer</i>	3,88	1,79	5,02	23,62	3,98	20,88	60,00	57,07	50,38	11,47	0,84	35,93	0,32	6,37	11,33
Málaga	7,21	3,52	6,18	7,84	1,39	18,73	51,99	31,83	21,33	9,40	0,30	33,15	0,70	4,42	3,90
<i>Mijas</i>	5,43	2,76	6,23	35,38	4,37	19,18	43,29	30,21	14,20	6,37	0,51	35,93	0,63	0,75	0,63
<i>Vélez-Málaga</i>	6,27	2,72	5,23	11,11	1,75	22,00	57,13	36,35	27,81	12,09	0,00 ⁽¹⁾	34,80	1,15	3,06	5,98
Regional centres	8,67	4,16	6,19	5,53	0,92	17,90	55,06	31,94	18,57	8,95	0,46	34,36	0,85	6,90	10,76
<i>Medium-sized cities</i>	5,76	2,13	5,26	9,43	1,30	22,05	56,75	38,17	25,80	10,74	0,41	32,94	1,44	5,45	6,09

Discussions and conclusions

After analysing the results obtained, clear divergences can be observed between the vulnerability indexes that characterise each city of the sample. However, there is evidence of common trends or behaviour patterns in the set of cities under research, many of them since a territorial lecture. Most of the medium-sized cities highlight for their vulnerability in indicators I6 to I10 associated with socio-economic aspects, in contrast to regional centres or those intermediate cities close to them. The level of indicators I7, related to youth unemployment, is especially significant in the provinces of Cádiz and Jaén, and lower in the provinces of Granada and Jaén. In fact, as figure 3 shows, the territorial units of western Andalusia present a higher average level of socio-economic vulnerability. Mainly, the medium-sized cities studied in the Campiña y Sierra Sur de Sevilla, in the Bajo Guadalquivir, Costa Noroeste de Cádiz, and the regional centre of Bahía de Cádiz. By contrast, the case studies in the provinces of Bahía de Granada, Málaga, Córdoba

and Jaén have higher average levels of socio-demographic vulnerability (I1-I5). The regional centres also show high vulnerability indexes, highlighting the case of Granada.

In the case of residential vulnerability (I11-I15), there is a more uniform territorial distribution of values [figure 3]. However, slightly lower values are identified in many of the cities that have been analysed in the Guadalquivir valley. This fact reflects that settlements with a more significant relationship with the natural environment contribute to social equity to a greater extent than in province capitals, being something that affects the state of the houses. In this sense, the data obtained are considered positive since they involve greater social cohesion and a sense of belonging to a site. There intangible factors are of vital interest to the effective heritage safeguard. However, figure 3 also shows that in the vast majority of case studies, the values obtained in the three dimensions are compensated. As a result, the average vulnerability reaches medium levels, both in intermediate cities and regional centres.

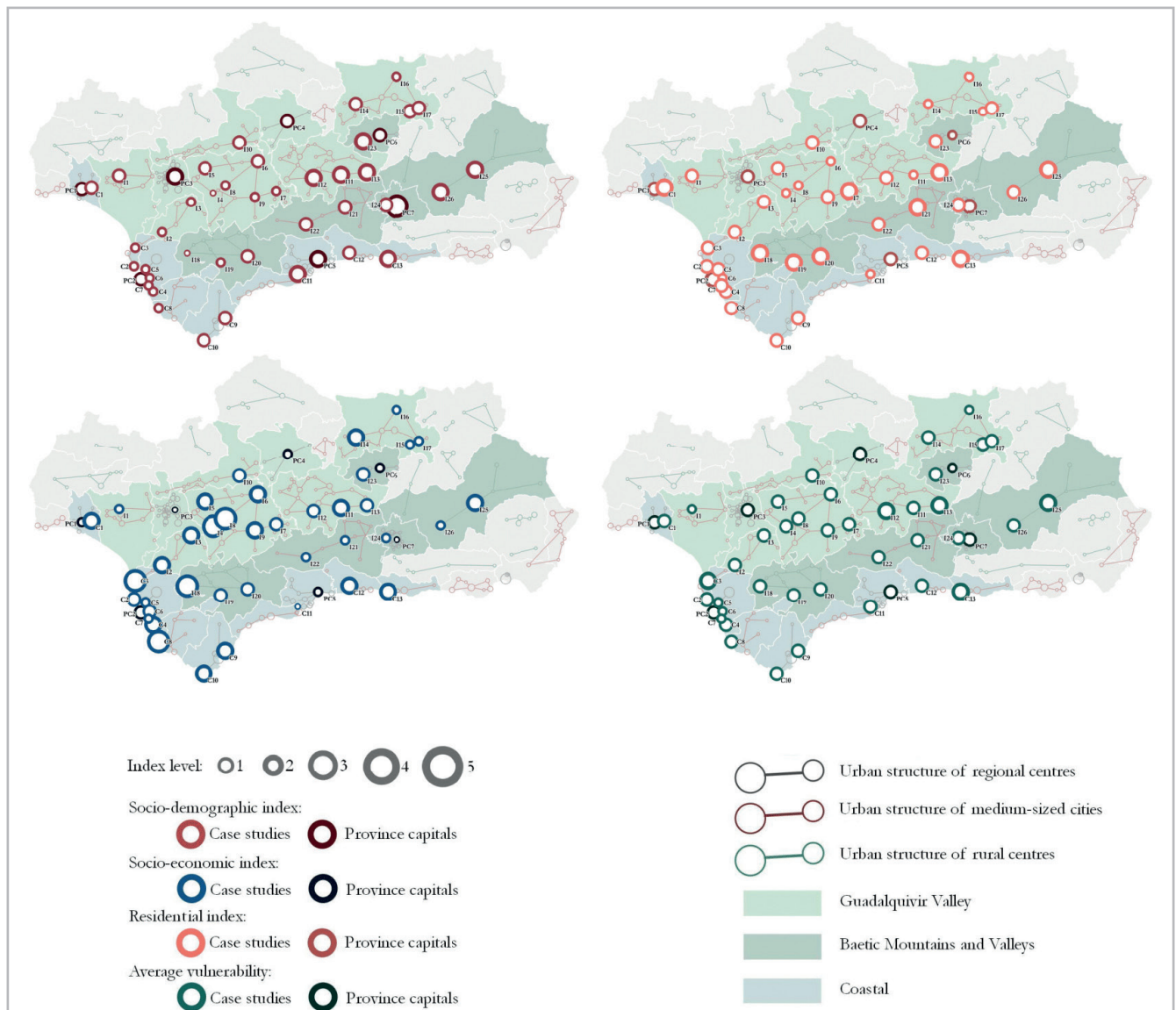


Figure 3.- Socio-demographic (red), socio-economic (blue), residential (green) and average (green) vulnerability in medium-sized cities (light colour) and regional centres (dark colour) in Andalusia. Source: Compiled by the authors based on data from Spanish Statistical Office (INE, 2011)

The data also allow extracting significant differences between the cities analysed in inland and coastal Andalusia. The majority of medium-sized interior cities have high levels of uneducated population, probably due to their configuration in the past as agricultural cities. This lower level of education could lead to a lower knowledge in heritage matters, so it would be desirable to promote the training and information of society to bring it to know, value and respect its historical legacy.

Coastal cities stand out for having the highest levels of economic vulnerability (I6-I10) and levels of foreigners (I4). The economic weakness can be perceived as a risk factor for heritage preservation; however, the influence of the foreign population would require more in-depth analysis. Among other issues, it will depend on the greater or lesser contribution of them to the socio-economic level of the city, for example, if the number of foreigners is compared between the Costa del Sol and the Costa Tropical in Granada. Consequently, the positive and negative effects of tourism must also be considered. The development of coastal cities has been characterised by sun-and-beach tourism. However, cultural tourism has recently been promoted as an alternative, beginning to play an essential role in preserving the heritage and promoting urban regeneration also in coastal cities. Nevertheless, cultural tourism can also carry certain risks for heritage conservation when it becomes the predominant activity in high-value areas such as the Historical Ensembles hindering their normal performance.

To conclude, the results obtained generally show that the medium-sized cities of Andalusia do not present a level of vulnerability lower to the regional centres. Consequently, both would have a similar heritage management capacity. However, several urban weaknesses have been identified, which would demand complementary analysis, for instance, expanding the study to the whole Andalusian territory or updating it with future census data. Likewise, it could also imply a comparative analysis with other national and international contexts. Future lines of research that would contribute to a better understanding of urban vulnerability and improve the efficiency of the tools currently used for cultural heritage preservation.

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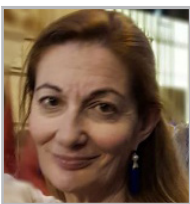
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Heritage monitoring and surveillance using Sentinel satellite data in the Lower Alentejo (Portugal)

Steffan Davies, Martino Correia, Ricardo Cabral

Abstract: In this article, the potential of Satellite Remote Sensing (SRS) for large-scale monitoring of archaeological sites is analysed. This analysis focuses on the Portuguese Lower Alentejo region, where multiple sites have been destroyed over the last years, mainly due to intensive agriculture. The development of a surveillance system based on data from the Sentinel 1 and Sentinel 2 satellite constellations, named SENSEOS, had its pilot application in this region during the first half of 2019. In a vast region where authorities lacked the proper resources to timely detect events endangering the integrity of heritage sites, this system tried to overcome these issues. By using Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) and optical data, it was possible to detect such events through a technique labelled Normalized Difference Amplitude Index (NDAI). The identification of these changes on the surface, associated with potentially destructive events, contributed to minimize the damage and destruction of archaeological sites..

Keywords: sentinel, satellite remote sensing, heritage monitoring, archaeological site preservation, NDAI, amplitude index change detection, archaeology

Monitorización y vigilancia del patrimonio utilizando datos de satélite Sentinel en el Bajo Alentejo (Portugal)

Resumen: Se analiza el potencial de la teledetección satelital para monitoreo a gran escala de sitios arqueológicos. Este análisis se centra en la región portuguesa del Bajo Alentejo, donde se han destruido múltiples sitios en los últimos años debido a la agricultura intensiva. El desarrollo de un sistema de vigilancia basado en datos de las constelaciones de satélites Sentinel 1 y Sentinel 2, SENSEOS, tuvo su aplicación piloto en esta región durante el primer semestre de 2019. En una región donde las autoridades carecían de los recursos adecuados para detectar eventos a tiempo, poniendo en peligro la integridad de los sitios, este sistema intentó superar estos problemas. El uso de radar de apertura sintética (SAR) y datos ópticos permitió detectar eventos a través de una técnica denominada Índice de Diferencia Normalizada de Amplitud (NDAI), identificando cambios en la superficie asociados con eventos destructivos y minimizando la destrucción de los sitios arqueológicos.

Palabras clave: sentinel, teledetección por satélite, monitorización del patrimonio, preservación de sitios arqueológicos, NDAI, detección de cambio de índice de amplitud, arqueología

Introduction

This study was developed in the scope of a partnership between the Research Centre for Archaeology, Arts and Heritage Sciences of the University of Coimbra (CEAACP) and THEIA, a university spin-off company. The European Space Agency provided funding for this project through the Business Incubation Centre (ESA-BIC), with an incubation period at ESA-BIC Portugal between September 2017 and August 2019. The project resulted in the creation of a satellite monitoring and early warning system for archaeological heritage, called SENSEOS. The team has been developing

the SENSEOS project as a pilot programme with two Portuguese public authorities, the Regional Department of Culture of Alentejo (DRCAAlentejo), and the Regional Department of Culture of Algarve (DRCAAlgarve), in order to assess the benefit of implementing an early warning system based on satellite remote sensing. The project has been monitoring 1396 archaeological sites in the Alentejo region, and 5 in Algarve. Every 6 days, all parties receive a report and, in the event of potential hazard, a risk map with observations or further interpretation is provided, if necessary. In order to share the results our data processing, SENSEOS project includes a WebGIS platform containing

all the information, including archaeological site locations and their associated risk level.

The use of satellite remote sensing and Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) in the field of archaeology is not a recent phenomenon. While the technology is related to the popular Ground-penetrating Radar used widely in archaeology for non-invasive prospection (Conyers 2006), it differs in the fact that it offers a much larger field of view in exchange for image definition and visible features, while offering a much lower cost and completely remote approach. The first SRS studies applied to archaeology were published in the second half of the 1970s, and the first archaeological studies using SRS were published in the beginning of the 1980s, but the low resolution of the Landsat 1 satellite restricted their potential to the identification and study of paleolandscapes (Parcak 2009: 22). The same time period applies to the use of SAR systems in archaeological research, which were installed on aircraft and used for the study of anthropic landscapes where aerial photography proved to be unreliable (Adams, Brown, Culbert 1981). It was later during the 21st century that news applications of SRS applied to archaeology started to take form, in large part due to the increase in resolution of optical sensors such as Quickbird II, which allowed for an approach of SRS as a tool for archaeological prospection (Lasaponara & Masini 2005) as the resolution slowly approached that of aerial photography. SRS as a tool for heritage conservation and protection is the most recent of SRS developments in archaeology, enabled by the use of very high-resolution SAR sensors. One example of such an approach was applied in the city of Homs in Syria, which analysed the damage to public infrastructure and heritage caused by the armed conflict in the area (Tapete *et al.* 2015). The study presented in this article represents a continuation of this last approach of using SRS as a method of identifying and preventing damage to heritage sites.

The main area of interest for this study is the Alentejo region in the South of Portugal, focusing on the Lower Alentejo area. Alentejo has a geographical extension of 31,551.2 km² corresponding to approximately one third of the country's landmass. It is also home to thousands of archaeological sites and features, with 1064 documented sites in the municipality of Beja alone. The landscape of the Alentejo region, of a rural and agricultural nature, has been changing at a rapid pace, due to the substitution of cereal based crops and dryland farming with intensive plantations of, mainly, olive and almond groves. New sources of water, supplied through the construction of dams and the Alqueva irrigation system, have enabled this process to take place (Morgado 2019). Despite the economic and agricultural benefits of this development, great concern has been placed on the possible consequences it might have on public health and the environment (Lusa 2019). The new availability of water for the purpose of irrigation has led to the introduction of more profitable crop species that require the intervention of highly mechanized

procedures. The conversion of dryland fields into intensive olive and almond groves relies on the use of these types of mechanized invasive methods for soil revolution, involving practices such as deep ploughing. Traditional farming practices, which rely on the use of animals or light mechanized procedures, rarely disturb deep soil layers located at a depth of more than half a metre (Dunker *et al.* 1994: 38). This means that most archaeological sites have remained relatively unharmed despite being located within agricultural fields and plantations. Now, with intense mechanization of agricultural practices, the continued existence of intact archaeological sites, many of which remain unexcavated, is under a serious threat. The large extension of numerous agricultural fields, combined with the lack of labour to supervise landscape transformation adequately in critical areas containing archaeological features, presents a serious problem. In order to give an appropriate response to this situation, it is necessary to develop a system capable of quickly identifying events that threaten cultural heritage. The synoptic view of satellite images, combined with short revisit times of the Sentinel satellite constellation, could provide a solution to this problem, and have great potential as tools for continuous monitoring of large areas of interest.

Methodology

This study employed Sentinel-1 Synthetic Aperture Radar and Sentinel-2 Multispectral Data. The main advantage of radar systems like Sentinel-1 is the fact that they are capable of observing the Earth's surface in any type of weather conditions (Patel *et al.*, 2010, p. 244). Passive optical systems like Sentinel-2 provide information from multiple wavelengths but are highly vulnerable to clouds, which can make it impossible to view the surface under certain weather conditions. Sentinel-1's Synthetic Aperture Radar is an active sensor that provides its own source of illumination. This allows the satellite to produce an image based on its own light that returns to the sensor after being reflected from a target, in a process that is called backscatter. A number of different factors, such as surface morphology, surface characteristics, vegetation and soil humidity (Chen *et al.*, 2018, pp. 71-72), influence the intensity of the *backscatter*. Because agricultural practice affects all of these factors, it was hypothesized that radar data could serve as an indicator of agricultural activity in the proximity of archaeological sites. It would then be possible to use optical information as supporting data to extract further details whenever possible. The frequency of new satellite images, called revisit time, is 6 days for radar and approximately 5 days for optical data. All radar and optical data are derived from twin sister satellites (Sentinel-1A & Sentinel-1B for radar, Sentinel-2A & Sentinel-2B for optical), which have identical equipment, ensuring compatibility of image products and avoiding secondary effects and bias seen when using different systems with different resolutions when calculating indexes (Obata *et al.* 2012a; Obata *et al.* 2012b).

For this approach, we used a method we have referred to as NDAI, or Normalized Difference Amplitude Index. The way it functions is similar to the commonly used NDVI, or Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, widely employed in optical images since the 1990s (X. Zhang et al. 2006). The main difference is that instead of comparing the index between Red and Infrared pixel values (Carlson & Ripley 1997: p. 241), we compare the intensity values of radar pixels between two different acquisition dates. For this approach, we relied on the open source software environments SNAP (Sentinel Application Platform) and QGIS (Quantum Geographic Information System). Using GRD (Ground Range Detected) Sentinel-1 products, the first step is to import the dataset into the SNAP environment and apply a pre-processing workflow to calibrate and correct the data. For this process we used a similar workflow to the one presented by F. Filiponi (2019), without the need to convert the product to dB (decibel) at the end of operations, and using the stack tool instead of DEM (Digital Elevation Model) assisted co-registration (spatial alignment) of image pixels. Through SNAP, we apply Precise Orbits to allow for high precision co-registration, remove Thermal Noise and Border Noise to eliminate artifacts and noise in the backscatter signal, Calibrate to Sigma Nought to correct for incidence angle variations in backscatter and standardize images across the stack, apply noise filtering using the Lee Sigma algorithm with the default parameters to reduce speckle, correct the product geometry using the Range-Doppler Terrain Correction to remove SAR geometric distortion, and stack the results using the Create Stack tool with the Initial Offset Method option set to Product Geolocation. Using the resulting stack of images, we apply the Band Math tool to produce the NDAI products (one for each polarisation) based on the following algorithm, where ImageB and ImageA refer to the oldest and most recent image, respectively:

$$\frac{(ImageA-ImageB)}{(ImageA+ImageB)}$$

Optionally, and to reduce processing time in the GIS environment during the vectorisation procedure, it is advisable to filter out unwanted data through the Band Math Operator, using the following algorithm. Where $NDAI_{layer}$ is the input NDAI product and x and y are the maximum and minimum desired values (such as -0.5 and 0.5), respectively:

$$(if\ NDAI_{layer} \leq x\ \vee\ NDAI_{layer} \geq y\ then\ NDAI_{layer}\ else\ NaN)$$

This algorithm can be understood as: "if the input NDAI layer pixel is less or equal to x or greater or equal to y, then preserve its value, otherwise reclassify as null". The result will filter out values regarded by the user as noise or unwanted data, which will be ignored by the vectorisation tool. The above formula reclassifies the NDAI input by maintaining pixel values that are below or equal to x or above or equal to y, and all the others in between are given a null value.

Using the Band Select tool, the NDAI products are separated from the stack and exported as GeoTIFF / BigTIFF format.

The NDAI GeoTIFF products can now be imported into QGIS. For manual inspection, the rasters are given a single band pseudocolor style based on discrete values (increments or decrements of 0.1 in a -1 to 1 range). For automated inspection, the NDAI rasters need to be reclassified based on a rules table (Table. 1) and vectorized to convert them into vector format. For reclassification, it was necessary to multiply NDAI values by 100 using the SNAP Band Math tool before exporting in order to transform the normalized values from float to integer format with two decimal places of precision (in QGIS 3.4, the GRASS 7 r.reclassify tool only worked properly with integer values). A rules table (table 1) was used to reclassify the image pixels to integer values ranging from 1 to 10.

After this process, the image is simplified and it is possible to cross the areas of interest that are defined by some type of geometry (such as buffers) with the vectorized pixels of the NDAI processing using the Select by Location tool. The output will be based on the geometric predicate (Boolean criteria) the user defines in the selection process, which in this case would be the intersect predicate (returns TRUE if the intersection between vector features does not result in an empty set).

Table 1.- Example of a rules table used for reclassifying NDAI rasters into discrete values.

-100	thru	-90	=	1	Very High Loss
-90	thru	-80	=	2	High Loss
-80	thru	-70	=	3	Medium Loss
-70	thru	-60	=	4	Low Loss
-60	thru	-50	=	5	Very Low Loss
-50	thru	50	=	6	Noise
50	thru	60	=	7	Very Low Gain
60	thru	70	=	8	Low Gain
70	thru	80	=	9	Medium Gain
80	thru	90	=	10	High Gain
90	thru	100	=	11	Very High Gain

We normalized the data in order to allow us to work within the same ranges between different periods of observation, even if the degree of changes is different between image pairs. We filtered out a portion of the resulting data close to the value of zero (in an interval such as -0.5 and 0.5) in order to remove variations caused by noise or not very significant changes on the surface. This normalized data is subsequently categorized according to the severity of changes between image pairs, in order to allow the detection of different levels of changes in the landscape that could correspond to different kind of agricultural or physical events on the surface. Ploughing, for example, could produce a different pixel value compared to events

such as irrigation or germination. In order to assess if surface change may have affected the archaeological sites, the information derived from the change detection processing is crossed with geographical information of archaeological sites in the area. A buffer is created around these sites in order to define a “sensitive area”, and if the buffer crosses an area with identified changes, it is added to a selection along with all the other affected elements. These can then be extracted onto a layer and exported to be displayed on Google Earth or Google Maps.

Results

—Pisões

The archaeological site of Pisões is a partially excavated roman *villa*, containing a complex arrangement of structures of a domestic, agricultural a funerary nature, including four mausoleums (Pereira, Soares & Soares 2013). The *villa* incorporates an advanced water supply, storage and distribution system which would have been necessary for the bathing and pool facilities, as well as the requirements for agricultural production (Serra 2008: 505). The site has suffered from a lack of maintenance that has led to its degradation over the years, despite its cultural importance (Dias 2017). Agricultural activity destroyed the unexcavated portion of the site, containing important features such as an aqueduct located underneath a water reservoir in a field to the Northeast, at an unknown date (Lemos 2018). To test our approach and to try to determine a time interval for these destructive events, a historical analysis was performed using archive imagery.

Observation of Sentinel 2 time series from 2017 shows that most of the surface transformations occurred during the second trimester of the year. Evidence that supports this observation includes the disappearance of the water reservoir in the Northeast of the excavated site, between the 5th and 15th of April 2017. This water reservoir was located in very close proximity to the roman aqueduct identified at the site. Clear images are not available from Sentinel-2 until the 15th of May 2017. At this point, there seems to have been a unification of this field plot with another one adjacent to it in East-Northeast direction that had contained a small grove. These changes are indicators of possible preparation of land for future plantation.

For radar analysis, we applied NDAI processing to Sentinel-1 satellite data. Pairs of images with a temporal baseline of approximately one month, beginning in 2014, were analysed. Of the changes verified in these images, the most intense correspond to an event of relatively high values between the 5th of October and the 4th of November 2017. Thereafter we processed the products chronologically situated between these two dates, with a temporal baseline of 6 days. Results show

that the event occurred between the dates of 11th and the 17th of October 2017. Histograms of the output of NDAI processing corresponding to these dates [figure 1] show that values peak at or close to 0, indicating good quality of inputs. The area corresponding to higher value NDAI pixels fits within the boundaries of the plot and shares the same shape [figure 2]. It is not known what happened during this time, but changes in other fields could indicate agricultural activity.

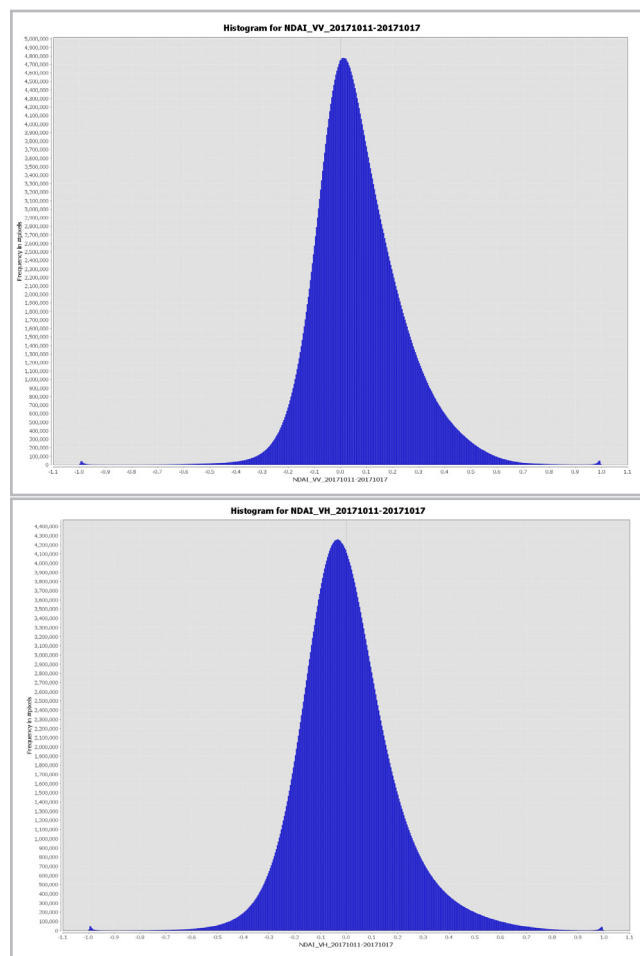


Figure 1.- NDAI Histogram for both polarizations (VV & VH) representing pixel values and pixel frequency corresponding to the dates of 11 to 17 October 2019. They peak close to the value of 0 (no change in amplitude)..

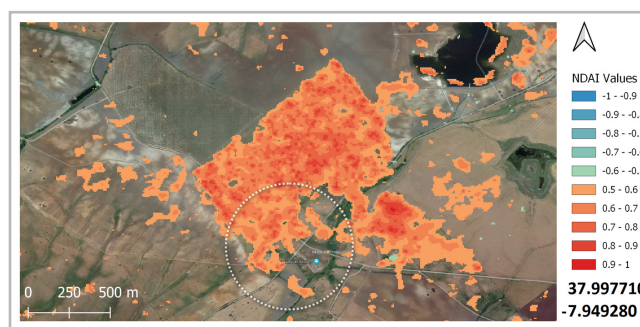


Figure 2.- Results of radar signal processing for *Pisões*, using NDAI change detection. Amplitude gain is shown as red, amplitude loss as blue. Archaeological context is within the circle.

Quinta do Estácio 10

The site called *Quinta do Estácio 10* is an archaeological context from the Roman period, located in Salvada e Quintos (Beja, Portugal). Archaeological trial trenching revealed a series of archaeological structures related to the transportation of water, as well as a concentration of archaeological materials, mostly ceramic building materials and pottery shards (Omniknos Arqueologia n.d).

Two Sentinel-1 images corresponding to the dates of the 15th and 21st of July 2019 were processed using the NDAI workflow. Histograms of NDAI results [figure 3] show that most values are equal or close to 0, indicating good quality of both input images for each polarization. The results show evident patches in the field that encloses the archaeological site and also in the field immediately to the South [figure 4]. There is the possibility that some of these spots are present due to the buildings that exist adjacent to the paths. A person was dispatched to the location in order to confirm if these results

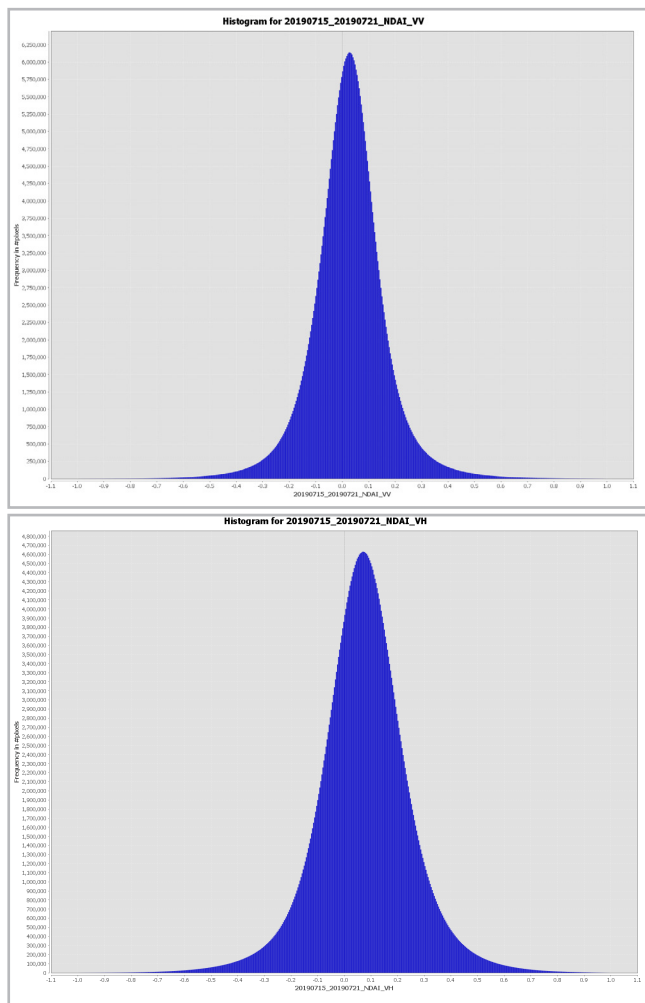


Figure 3.- NDAI Histogram for both polarizations (VV & VH) representing frequency of pixel values corresponding to the date of 15 to 21 July 2019. They peak close to the value of 0 (no change in amplitude).



Figure 4.- Results of radar signal processing for *Quinta do Estácio 10*, using NDAI change detection. Amplitude gain is shown as red, amplitude loss as blue. Archaeological context is within the circle.

represented changes on the surface of the field where the archaeological site was located. Inspection of the site revealed intense soil mobilization including the opening of deep trenches in both perpendicular and parallel orientation in relation to the nearby river [figure 5]. Harrowing had also occurred on the site but its effects were superficial. The surplus soil that resulted from these activities was deposited in the field. Assessment of the location revealed damage to at least one of the foundations of the roman aqueduct.



Figure 5.- Ground observation of the site of *Quinta do Estácio 10*. Photo A: Damage to archaeological features. Photo B, C, D: Different perspectives of the damage to the site

Conclusión

This work highlights one of the main advantages of satellite data applied to Archaeology, which is the ability to perform large-scale territorial analysis and monitor destructive events on thousands of sites on a weekly basis, with a potentially global application. The results of these tests have validated the possibility of using satellite remote sensing data as a tool for monitoring archaeological sites. We believe, however, that it is necessary to use this approach in conjunction with local authorities for inspection and validation of results, in order to eliminate false positives and respond swiftly to destructive events before they affect heritage sites or before further damage is done. As such we recognize this approach as a tool to be used in articulation with additional means, in a wider comprehensive strategy for heritage protection. The main advantage of this methodology is the low cost for this type of service due to the free availability of Sentinel data, low operational costs associated with remote sensing processing, and the ability to use completely open source software for data processing. This is in contrast to traditional means of surveillance, with high logistical costs, derived from the extensive use of technicians on the ground when covering very large areas. The implementation of this technique will require cooperation with the entities responsible for archaeological conservation at a national or regional level, in order to have access to the databases containing the geographical positions of identified heritage sites and to ensure a swift and appropriate response to the identified occurrences. Future developments can include the incorporation of machine learning and automated cross-correlation of information from Sentinel-1 such as phase coherence, and Sentinel-2 such as NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) or NDWI (Normalized Difference Water Index) in order to discard false positives and identify the nature of the changes that are visible with this type of approach.

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The performance of shelters for the conservation of archaeological sites in dry and warm climates: the case of Complutum

Cristina Cabello Briones

Abstract: Excavated archaeological sites are frequently exposed to damaging environmental conditions, which could lead to rapid decay especially for vulnerable heritage such as mosaics. One of the most common solutions is the construction of shelters; however, some may not behave as expected, either because they do not protect adequately or induce decay. An environmental monitoring programme was undertaken inside and outside the two types of shelters at the Roman archaeological site of Complutum (Alcala de Henares, Spain) from May to September in 2018 and 2019. Hourly temperature and relative humidity readings collected by data loggers, together with rainfall data from a local meteorological station, have been comparatively assessed to better understand the consequences of sheltering in dry and warm areas. The results indicate that both shelters are avoiding further decay by keeping a more stable environment in relation to outside, although the more enclosed structure would be the most suitable one.

Keywords: Preventive conservation, built heritage, archaeological remains, covers, environmental monitoring, temperature, relative humidity

El comportamiento de las cubiertas para la conservación de yacimientos arqueológicos en climas secos y cálidos: el caso de Complutum

Resumen: Los yacimientos arqueológicos excavados se exponen frecuentemente a condiciones ambientales dañinas, que pueden llevar a un rápido deterioro especialmente en el patrimonio vulnerable como los mosaicos. Una de las soluciones más comunes es la construcción de cubiertas; sin embargo, algunas pueden no comportarse como se esperaba, bien porque no protegen adecuadamente bien provocan daño. Se ha realizado un programa de monitoreo ambiental dentro y fuera de los dos tipos de cubiertas del yacimiento arqueológico romano de Complutum (Alcalá de Henares, España) desde Mayo a Septiembre del 2018 y 2019. Las lecturas de temperatura y humedad relativa recogidas cada hora por data loggers, junto con los datos de precipitación de una estación meteorológica local, se han evaluado comparativamente para entender mejor las consecuencias de cubrir en áreas secas y cálidas. Los resultados indican que ambas cubiertas están evitando futuro deterioro al mantener un ambiente más estable en relación con el exterior, aunque la estructura más cerrada sería la más adecuada.

Palabras clave: Conservación preventiva, patrimonio construido, restos arqueológicos, cubiertas, monitoreo ambiental, temperatura, humedad relativa

Introduction

Archaeological excavations imply uncovering the remains; therefore, affect the conservation of both delicate features and archaeological sections (Barrio Martín 2012). Shelters have been largely used as preservation strategies for exposed archaeological sites because, as opposed to other systems such as backfilling, provide with protection and the possibility of still visiting the site during ongoing excavations (Roby 2006). Their main purpose is to act as barriers (Doehne and Price 2010), thus avoiding the rain and reducing, consequently, the

moisture content in porous inorganic materials, which primarily composed the archaeological remains that are left *in situ*. Shelters can also stabilize the environmental conditions for long-term conservation; however, if not properly built, they may not provide protection or even induce decay on the remains by, for example, modifying microclimatic parameters and favouring salt crystallization or biocolonisation (Aslan 1997; Cabello Briones 2018). In those situations, improvements should be made, and the possibility of dismantling the shelters considered (Curteis 2018). The evaluation of existing covers must take place regularly to corroborate their protective function and the

presentation of results from individual cases, which in general is still very limited, offers significant contributions to current discussions, such as the suitability of the shelter design (Pesaresi and Stewart 2018).

Complutum (40° 28' 26.146" N, 3° 23' 16.49" W) is a Roman archaeological site part of the historic precinct of the modern city of *Alcalá de Henares* (Comunidad de Madrid, Spain) [figure 1]. The site, which main construction materials are rammed earth, masonry and brick, is decorated with mural paintings and mosaics. Complutum was declared of cultural interest under the Spanish legislation in 1992, which implies the maximum protection, and included in the UNESCO World Heritage list in 1999. *Alcalá de Henares*, located in the centre of the Iberian Peninsula, is defined as a cold semi-arid climate (Bsk) according to the Köppen-Geiger classification. This area is characterised by relatively wet winters, but mainly hot and dry summers. This is important as the climatic location of a site conditions the decay mechanisms (Cabello Briones and Viles 2017).

Currently, there are two areas of the site covered with shelters: the House of Hippolytus and the House of the

Griffins [figure 2]. A summary of the construction details is presented in table 1. The House of Hippolytus is a more enclosed structure while the other one, built later in time, is in line with the worldwide tendency of building shelters without lateral claddings (Cabello Briones 2016). A major difference between enclosed and open shelters is that the second ones are usually lighter structures that avoid deep foundations and the subsequent possibility of decay for the unexcavated archaeological remains.

At the start of the study, the conservation state of the ruins inside the shelters at Complutum was identified as stable by visual surveying [figure 3]. This could be related to the regular maintenance carried out by the Archaeological Service in charge of the site since the construction of the shelters. This includes, among other actions, a monthly cleaning of surfaces, and the application of biocides (octyl- isotiazol and aluminium salts) and consolidates (ethyl silicate) at least once per year (Argea Consultores 2017). Conversely, there are relevant signs of long-term and recent decay outside the shelters, mainly in the form of physical and biological deterioration, which indicate that these types of weathering would also affect the covered areas if left exposed.

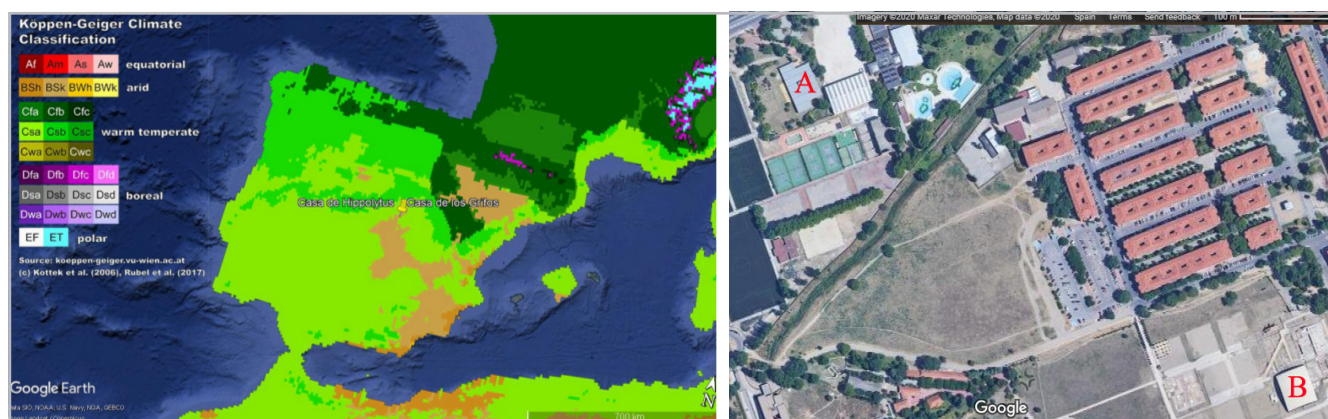


Figure 1.- Geographical location of the site with the Köppen climate classification (left), and an aerial view of the House of Hippolytus (A) and the House of the Griffins (B) (right)



Figure 2.- The shelters at the House of Hippolytus (left) and the House of the Griffins (right) viewed from outside (Photos: C. Cabello Briones)

Table 1.- Comparative between the House of Hippolytus and the House of the Griffins in terms of construction characteristics

	<i>House of Hippolytus</i>	<i>House of the Griffins</i>
Year of construction	1999	2011
Covering area	1318 m2 approx.	1300 m2 approx.
Type of shelter	Partially enclosed shelter	Semi open shelter
Description	Enclosure with strip footings and load bearing walls	Dome-shape steel structure with reduced lateral cladding
Construction materials	Cover: galvanized steel sheets in the outer part and hydrophobic agglomerate wooden boards in the inner part. Walls: galvanised expanded metal meshes in the upper part and bricks in the lower part.	Cover: sandwich system of pre-coated steel sheets and 90 mm fiberglass panels. Lateral claddings (hanging from the structure without touching the floor): galvanised expanded metal meshes in the upper part and 1 mm galvanized corrugated sheets.
Architects	Juan Pablo Rodríguez Frade	Pablo Latorre González-Moro and Leandro Cámara Muñoz
References	Rodríguez Frade 2001	Sánchez Montes & Rascón Marqués 2012



Figure 3.- View from inside of the House of Hippolytus (left) and the House of the Griffins (middle), and a detail of the remains located at the House of Mars (right), exposed without covering (Photos: C. Cabello Briones)

It is generally agreed that visual surveys are necessary in order to have an initial understanding of the possible problems affecting a site but the complexity related to the great variety of materials, restoration treatments and condition states of the remains makes them unreliable for an objective comparison. Therefore, in-depth evaluation of the shelters should also imply a monitoring programme over a representative period of time (Pesaresi and Stewart 2018).

Most of the environmental assessments on shelters have studied temperature and relative humidity (RH) (Demas 2013). These variables are involved in wetting and drying events, salt crystallization, biological attack, and hygric and thermal expansion and contraction of building materials and structures (Torraca 2009), which are the mechanisms highly responsible for the decay at exposed archaeological sites (Curteis 2018).

A temperature and RH monitoring, together with a study on rainfall, is especially useful for dry and warm climates, characterised by intense solar radiation, which in the case of central Spain can reach a mean daily of 16MJ/m², and sometimes short but intense rain spells (De Castro et al. 2005). Building materials under solar radiation absorb energy during the day, which result in expansion, while at night, contract and release infrared radiation. Thermal cycles, which include both diurnal and seasonal, cause stresses due to the repetitive changes of dimensions, especially in materials with anisotropic thermal behaviours or with different thermal expansion coefficients (Torraca 2009). In addition, high surface temperatures result in a faster drying, which reduces the risk for biocolonisation but favours the crystallization of salts already present in the ruins. Therefore, frequent wet/dry cycling lead to differential stresses, which could induce cracking, detachment or flaking (Doehne and Price 2010).

An environmental assessment primarily based on temperature and relative humidity readings outside and inside the shelters at Complutum has been undertaken during two consecutive years. The data from the warmest months have been comparatively assessed to determine if the shelters are providing adequate conditions for the preservation of the archaeological remains. The results will help to better understand the consequences of sheltering in dry and warm areas, and establish which type of shelter could be the most suitable option in that case.

Research methods

This study presents the results of an environmental monitoring programme of four months per year (from 17th May to 17th September) in 2018 and 2019. The research was undertaken using small data loggers (Lascar Electronics,

accuracy= 0.55 °C, 2.25%RH), synchronised to provide with hourly air temperature and RH values, and based on the method used by Cabello Briones (2017). Inside the two shelters, the loggers were placed just under the centre of the cover to obtain representative data of the most protected areas. They were deposited on the top of site columns to avoid losing information by vandalism or perturbing the visitors of the site, which remained open during the monitoring time. Another logger was located outside the House of the Griffins also over a pillar, but in this case, this corresponds to a reconstructed vertical section of the site. For information about precipitation and climatic trends in the area, data was provided by a nearby meteorological station (Red de Calidad del Aire de la Comunidad de Madrid, CAM code 28005002).

Non-parametric Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon tests were undertaken to compare daily means and standards deviations of temperature and RH. This allowed determining if there were statically significant differences among the studied locations.

Results

—Temperature

Alcalá de Henares is included in the cold semi-arid regime [figure 1], which implies that annual mean temperatures are below 18 °C. In 2018, the mean temperature was 14.63 °C, slightly lower than the next year, 15.22 °C. However, temperatures from just the monitoring period [table 2] keep this site closer to the Mediterranean climate (Csa classification), characterised by extremely dry summers and mean temperatures in the hottest months above 22 °C (Agencia Estatal de Meteorología 2011).

The hottest months corresponded to August 2018 (max T outside =41.50 °C) and July 2019 (max T outside =43

Table 2.- Mean temperatures and standard deviations (°C) outside, and inside the shelters at the House of the Griffins and Hippolytus from May to September 2018 and 2019

	2018			2019		
	<i>House of the Griffins</i>	<i>Outside</i>	<i>House of Hippolytus</i>	<i>House of the Griffins</i>	<i>Outside</i>	<i>House of Hippolytus</i>
<i>May</i>	18.39 (3.24)	18.73 (4.16)	17.96 (2.79)	19.36 (4.80)	19.94 (4.82)	19.04 (4.23)
<i>June</i>	22.49 (5.76)	22.83 (6.31)	22.01 (5.41)	24.55 (5.72)	25.22 (7.66)	24.28 (5.26)
<i>July</i>	26.53 (4.21)	26.65 (4.47)	25.98 (3.71)	28.59 (4.48)	29.60 (4.96)	28.32 (3.95)
<i>August</i>	27.81 (4.54)	28.70 (4.93)	27.18 (3.98)	26.56 (4.61)	27.46 (4.61)	26.28 (4.11)
<i>September</i>	24.48 (4.00)	26.57 (6.12)	23.72 (3.21)	25.26 (4.27)	27.54 (5.01)	24.82 (3.50)

°C). The number of times the outer temperature exceed 35 °C during those months was 65 in August (8.74% of total readings for this month) and 119 in July (15.19%). However, high temperatures were also very frequently recorded inside the House of the Griffins: 43 for August 2018 (5.78%) and 55 for July 2019 (7.39%). While the number was considerably reduced inside the House of Hippolytus: 21 (2.82%) and 28 (3.76%) for those months.

Statistical tests on daily mean temperatures certified that temperature outside was significantly warmer than inside both shelters in 2018 and 2019. On the other hand, higher mean temperatures were recorded systematically inside the House of the Griffins in comparison with the other cover (U=7750, p-value < 2.2e⁻¹⁶ for 2018, and U=5379.5, p-value = 8.2e⁻¹⁴ for 2019).

In addition to extreme temperature values, another key element in the decay of archaeological sites is the extent of the diurnal differences between maximum and minimum temperatures [table 3], which are associated with solar

heating and night cooling events. The greatest diurnal variances were recorded outside, but if both shelters are compared, the data obtained from the House of Hippolytus indicate that this shelter is performing more efficiently, minimising the temperature range.

These differences are clearly seen in the representation of the hourly means of temperature in August 2018 and July 2019, which were the warmest months of the monitoring period [figure 4]. These graphs also show when the minimum and maximum temperatures are reached. From sunrise (at 7:25 in average in August and 6:57 in July), temperatures increase steadily mainly outside of the shelters. On the contrary, the covers avoid direct sunlight on the ruins and keep the inner temperatures lower in relation to outside. However, after sunset (at around 21:42 in August and 21:10 in July), temperatures inside both shelters are slightly higher than outside, revealing a reduced greenhouse effect. The shelters probably limit the transmission to the sky of the IR radiation emitted to the ruins by night, and cause an increase in the temperature inside (Torraca 2009).

Table 3.- Monthly means and standard deviations (°C) of the daily temperature differences (Tmax-Tmin) outside, and inside the shelters at the House of the Griffins and Hippolytus from May to September 2018 and 2019

	2018			2019		
	House of the Griffins	Outside	House of Hippolytus	House of the Griffins	Outside	House of Hippolytus
May	8.43 (2.33)	10.87 (2.41)	6.77 (1.87)	11.57 (3.71)	11.60 (3.22)	9.50 (2.90)
June	10.22 (2.99)	11.55 (2.35)	8.37 (2.51)	11.60 (2.77)	14.43 (7.89)	9.42 (1.87)
July	12.08 (1.94)	12.35 (1.76)	9.92 (1.54)	12.24 (2.41)	15.71 (6.54)	9.98 (2.22)
August	12.98 (1.80)	13.47 (2.00)	10.00 (1.47)	13.11 (3.07)	13.10 (3.35)	10.21 (1.86)
September	12.00 (2.73)	15.68 (5.91)	7.62 (1.53)	12.75 (3.66)	15.63 (3.71)	9.63 (1.93)

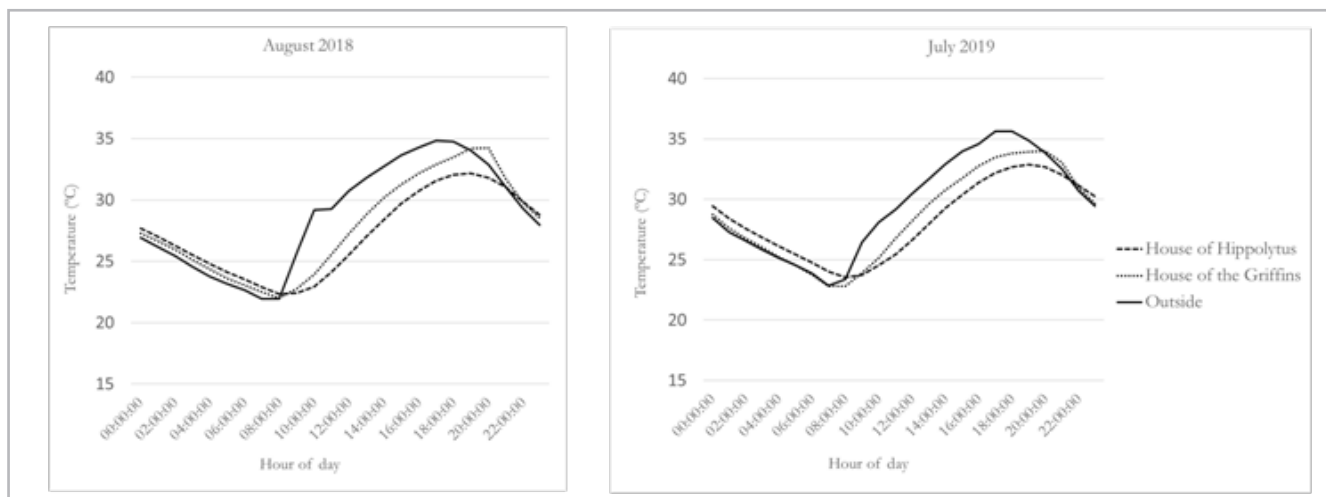


Figure 4.- Hourly means of temperature outside, and inside the shelters at the House of the Griffins and Hippolytus in August 2018 and July 2019, which corresponds to the hottest months of the monitoring programme

The thermal lag between the outdoor and indoor environment during this period was of around 3 hours if maximum temperatures are compared. The temperature peak in August 2018 and July 2019 was recorded at around 17:00 outside and 20:00 inside the shelters [figure 4], without great difference between the covers in this aspect. Together with the expected thermal inertia of the architectural remains, which time-shift and flatten out temperature fluctuations, there is a surprising increase in temperature inside the House of the Griffins around 20:00, which is associated with sunlight coming in from the west side and reaching the ruins under the central part of the shelter. Therefore, the more open structure of this shelter increases the risk of decay for the mural paintings located in that area, vulnerable to sudden heating and ultraviolet radiation (Camuffo 2019).

Additionally, the data concerning the House of the Griffins complement the one obtained by Martínez Garrido et al. (2016) between December 2014 and July 2015. In that study, it was re-corded a daily thermal lag of approximately 5 hours. More specifically, during the warmest months, the highest outdoor temperature was documented at 13:00 and the inner one at 19:00.

—Precipitation and Relative Humidity

The total rainfall in Alcala de Henares from May 2018 to 2019 was 398.60 mm, which confirms that this is a region with a low precipitation rate. In addition, the 70% of the annual precipitation was collected in autumn and winter, so this area can be also classified by its dry summers (Agencia Estatal de Meteorología 2011). Specifically, between May and September 2018, it was recorded 134.50 mm, and 100.20 mm during the same period in 2019. The maximum values of daily rainfall, 17.80 mm and 32.20 mm respectively, were logged at the end of the summer (12th September 2018 and 15th September 2019).

During the second case, 21.4 l/m² were just collected in an hour (from 13:00 to 14:00) which indicates that around 20% of the total rainfall could concentrate in heavy events.

On the other hand, the mean RH in Alcalá de Henares was 46.16% in 2018, while 37.46% in the following year. Inside the shelters, RH values during the monitoring period were also low (below 65%), mainly in 2019 [table 4], following the annual trend.

Statistical tests on daily mean RH values showed that outside was significantly drier than inside both shelters, especially if compared with the House of Hippolytus ($U= 1316.5$, $p\text{-value} = 1.784e^{-10}$ for 2018, and $U= 208$, $p\text{-value} < 2.2e^{-16}$ for 2019). In addition, there were more variability on the RH data outside than inside the House of Hippolytus, which indicates that the shelter created a more stable environment in this respect. In the case of the House of the Griffins, this was only true for 2018, as there was no significant difference in relation to outside in 2019 ($U= 3605$, $p\text{-value} = 0.14$). If both shelters are compared, the House of the Griffins had higher RH fluctuations ($U= 1149.5$, $p\text{-value} = 1.08e^{-11}$ for 2018, and $U= 512.5$, $p\text{-value} = 2.2e^{-14}$ for 2019). Nevertheless, as Martínez-Garrido et al. (2016) sustain for the 2014-15 period, it seems for the range of RH variations that the shelter at the House of the Griffins also has a stabilising effect.

As expected for this type of climate, the RH outside drops during daytime because of the intense solar radiation. This effect is less pronounced inside the shelters although both followed the outside environment [figure 5]. Additionally, the maximum values were reached in May 2018 followed by September, so during those months there is a higher probability than RH crosses critical thresholds such as the 71% (at 20°C) for mirabilite hydration (Viles 2005), which is considered very damaging for stone monuments (Grossi and Esbert 1994).

Table 4.- Monthly means and standard deviations of daily RH values (%) outside, and inside the shelters at the House of the Griffins and Hippolytus from May to September 2018 and 2019

	2018			2019		
	House of the Griffins	Outside	House of Hippolytus	House of the Griffins	Outside	House of Hippolytus
May	63.34 (14.85)	66.40 (21.46)	64.56 (14.26)	39.55 (11.12)	37.34 (10.57)	39.94 (9.97)
June	51.76 (16.63)	52.14 (18.80)	52.61 (16.20)	32.96 (11.14)	31.76 (12.12)	33.13 (10.51)
July	36.17 (11.10)	36.31 (11.80)	36.94 (10.93)	31.67 (9.99)	29.98 (9.79)	32.52 (9.20)
August	36.42 (11.62)	35.63 (12.84)	37.66 (11.84)	36.66 (14.62)	35.38 (14.10)	38.09 (13.95)
September	49.27 (11.62)	46.65 (16.69)	51.09 (12.05)	42.72 (9.83)	38.24 (9.57)	44.16 (9.16)

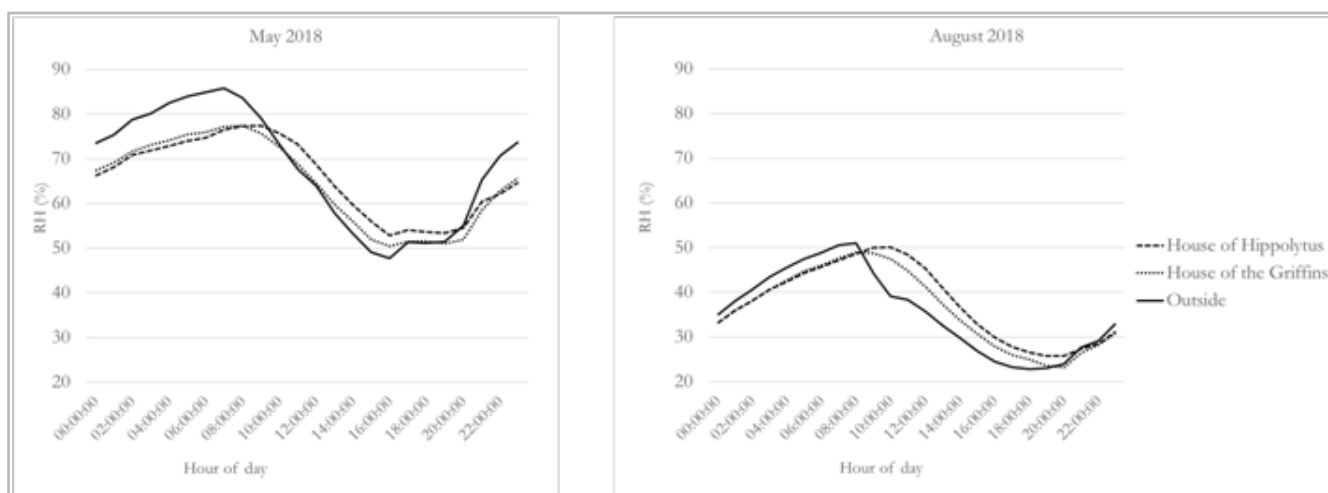


Figure 5.- Hourly means of RH outside, and inside the shelters at the House of the Griffins and Hippolytus in May and August 2018, which corresponds to the wettest and driest months of the monitoring programme

Discussion

The data from May to September in 2018 and 2019 indicate that outside temperatures represent the most extreme values during days and nights, and shelters were found to have lower maximum temperatures and higher minimum ones in comparison to the outer environment. In addition, these conditions imply a contrasted thermal regime based on large temperature swings between day and night. However, the differences between maximum and minimum temperatures inside the sheltered areas were lower than outside, although relatively high in the House of the Griffins. Nevertheless, a diurnal temperature variance of around 12°C is probably negligible for thermal stress if compared with other studies on stone heritage (Al-Omari *et al.* 2014). Even if surface temperatures are considered equivalent to air temperatures with an approximate increase in 20°C (Bonazza *et al.* 2009), isolation weathering has only been found relevant for thermal cycles over 40-50°C (Lazzarini and Tabasso 1986; Viles 2005; Brimblecombe 2014) and this threshold is far from the mean temperature variations found at any of the positions in Complutum.

The climatic conditions of the area, characterised by a low precipitation rate, contribute to the dry environment found both outside and inside the shelters. A low RH (below 65% as a generally accepted limit) is beneficial for the conservation of the remains as it avoids biocolonization by many species of fungi, moss or algae (Caneva *et al.* 1991). The environment inside the House of Hippolytus was slightly more humid, as previously showed by Cabello Briones and Barrio Martín (2019), but still below that limit in average.

High temperatures and dry environments favour physical deterioration, specially salt weathering, which is more intense in locations with wide diurnal temperature and RH variations (Gutiérrez Elorza 2005). In this sense, the impact of decay is reduced inside the shelters. However,

the regular restoration and maintenance of the site makes it difficult to determine the exact decay mechanism in sheltered areas. The environmental data points to different patterns if compared with exposed conditions. Shorter drying periods outside due to higher temperatures and wide RH ranges could lead to salt efflorescences on the surface while salts may accumulate inside the shelters due to slower evaporation time (Dohene and Price 2010). Although a drier environment means that it is unlikely that critical salt crystallisation thresholds are reached, a further study in this matter, taking into account specific salt mixtures, is recommended.

Therefore, the results show that the environmental conditions inside both shelters mirrored the daily cycles recorded outside but the covers were able to minimise the temperature effects on the ruins reducing the peaks and subsequently the daily range. This has been additionally seen in the study of the House of the Griffins undertaken by Martínez Garrido *et al.* (2016). The explanation may well be that shelters act as a barrier blocking the solar radiation and therefore reducing heating on the remains. This is a benefit also seen in other cases (Cabello Briones, 2016) and represent a key element for warm climates with intense sun and low humidity, making this preventive conservation solution highly suitable for Mediterranean countries.

The two types of shelters built in Complutum represent different approaches towards the conservation of the Roman archaeological site. The cover at House of the Griffins is a partially open shelter while at the House of Hippolytus can be described as a partially enclosed one. If both shelters are compared, the conditions inside the House of the Griffins followed more closely the outer conditions. The more open structure and the insufficient roof insulation of this shelter could be the reason. However, the higher mean temperatures and the diurnal temperature ranges are not enough to consider an imminent damage for the remains. However, isolated temperature peaks from sunlight

coming through the sides, as it happened at certain times of the day at the House of the Griffins, support the idea that an open shelter without proper lateral cladding may be a less effective solution for this climate. The deficiencies of this shelter can be related to the fact that it was originally designed as provisional.

Conclusion

The results indicate that outside the shelters there were higher temperatures, more frequent temperature and RH fluctuations, and greater diurnal temperature ranges. These conditions are probably the responsible of the physical decay observed in the uncovered ruins and, therefore, the archaeological remains at Complutum would be in worst state of conservation if the shelters had not been built. Therefore, both shelters are avoiding further decay by keeping a more stable environment in relation to outside, although, in sight of the results, the cover at the House of Hippolytus would be the most suitable design.

Warm and dry areas are present in around 40% of the Spanish territory (Agencia Estatal de Meteorología 2011) and other Mediterranean countries with extremely valuable archaeological heritage such as Italy and Tunisia. A partially enclosed shelter with appropriate roof insolation and without restriction of air circulation could be the key for improving shelters in those locations as long as it is able to reduce temperature and RH fluctuations and avoid temperature extremes.

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Coberturas sostenibles en excavaciones arqueológicas. Metodología de aplicación al caso de mosaicos en el Conjunto Arqueológico de Itálica (Santiponce, Sevilla)

M. Ordóñez-Martín, J.C. Gómez de Cózar

Resumen: Es conocido que uno de los retos del trabajo arqueológico, es el de evitar o reducir los efectos del llamado “trauma de excavación”, donde la modificación acelerada de condiciones higrotérmicas, junto al efecto de la radiación solar, altera las condiciones de equilibrio del objeto soterrado. Esto lleva a la necesidad de cobertura de yacimientos arqueológicos durante la excavación, realizada frecuentemente mediante sistemas fijos o desmontables más propios del mundo productivo o industrial, de alta huella ecológica, y con efecto limitado, garantizando en su mayoría únicamente situaciones de sombra. No obstante, entendemos que es posible dar una solución global desde la arquitectura a los numerosos requerimientos del objeto excavado, tales como: necesidad de coberturas con mínimos apoyos, coberturas ligeras de gran adaptabilidad a la evolución de la excavación, limitación de costes, o necesidad de control de las condiciones higrotérmicas del espacio cubierto mediante procedimientos limpios que minimicen el impacto medioambiental.

Palabras clave: Sostenibilidad, conservación preventiva, coberturas activas, excavación arqueológica, diseño paramétrico, control higrotérmico

Sustainable coverage in archaeological excavations. Methodology of application to the case of mosaics in the Archaeological Ensemble of Italica (Santiponce, Sevilla)

Abstract: One of the challenges of the archaeological work is to prevent or reduce the effects of the “excavation trauma”, where the accelerated changes of hygrothermal conditions together with the effect of solar radiation, alter the equilibrium conditions of the buried object. This leads to the need for a coverage during excavation of archaeological sites which is most often performed by fixed or removable systems that come from the productive or industrial world. They have high ecological footprint and limited impact, and ensure, mostly, only shady situations. But we understand that it is possible to provide a global solution from architecture to the numerous requirements of the excavated object, such as: covering systems with minimal supports, light covers highly adaptable to excavation changes, limited budget, or the control of hygrothermal conditions of the covered space through clean procedures that minimize environmental impact.

Keywords: Sustainability, preventive conservation, active coverages, archaeological excavation, parametric design, hygrothermal control

Introducción

Es habitual entender la arquitectura de rápido montaje, como elemento accesorio en las intervenciones patrimoniales, en situaciones transitorias, como “medio auxiliar”, por su cualidad de ligereza o poca materialidad. Esta visión, hace que la convivencia de esta arquitectura con el bien patrimonial sea a través de una relación de superposición. Nosotros planteamos, sin embargo, que dichas propiedades de: ligereza, transformabilidad y rápida respuesta, permiten superar el concepto de elemento accesorio, y convertirse en elementos complementarios al

objeto a proteger, especialmente en situaciones transitorias, frecuentes en la actividad arqueológica. Esto puede lograrse gracias a sus cualidades de fácil desmontabilidad, reciclabilidad y escasa huella (Gómez de Cózar *et al.* 2019).

Este trabajo, pretende establecer una metodología de intervención asociada a la cobertura de yacimientos arqueológicos, dentro de la conservación preventiva de los mismos, entendiendo esta como la acción de “garantizar la conservación y el mantenimiento de los bienes culturales, aplicando todos los medios posibles externos a los mismos” (Frazzi 2002; 95-111).

En el caso del objeto excavado, la conservación preventiva supondrá las acciones necesarias para atenuar el "trauma de excavación" (Díaz Martínez 2005; 110-130). Los objetos enterrados, permanecen en un ambiente diferente para el que fueron creados, llegando con el paso del tiempo a una situación de equilibrio con las nuevas condiciones mecánicas, físicas, de exposición a luz, temperatura, humedad, microorganismos, presencia de oxígeno, etc. Al excavar, quedan expuestos a nuevas condiciones de abundancia de oxígeno, CO₂, contaminantes del aire, acidez de lluvias, luz, oscilaciones de temperatura y humedad, etc. Estas nuevas condiciones, suponen un shock para el objeto excavado. Será pues objetivo de la intervención de conservación, evitar al máximo estos procesos de degradación, con medidas que disminuyan los desequilibrios entre el objeto y el nuevo ambiente. (Lacayo 2001;453-457).

La acción de conservación requiere conocer los factores de alteración del objeto excavado, que pueden ser de origen antrópico o ambientales (físicas, químicas o biológicas) (Giles; Bouzas; Pinto 2003).

Desde la arqueología, diversos autores coinciden en que la cobertura es la única actuación que permite la pervivencia de las estructuras y elementos que forman los yacimientos, (Díaz Martínez 2005;119), planteándose los requerimientos de sus coberturas, destacándose los siguientes:

- Intervenciones con mínimos apoyos y grandes luces.
- Solución compatible con la evolución de la excavación, realizadas por fases, con sistemas de tipo modular.
- Cubiertas parciales reversibles que supongan soluciones neutras de fácil desmontaje.
- Coberturas que no compitan con los restos a proteger, diferenciándose claramente los añadidos.
- Coberturas que garanticen una protección solar efectiva.

Objetivos de la investigación.

Teniendo en cuenta que el objetivo primordial de la intervención patrimonial, ha sido la recuperación de la materialidad y los valores del objeto a proteger, a partir de un estudio basado en la metodología pluridisciplinar (Price 1984; Carrera 2018), esta investigación, plantea los siguientes objetivos para establecer una metodología de intervención que permita dar respuesta a los requerimientos de protección de los objetos arqueológicos en proceso de excavación, garantizando unas condiciones de conservación efectivas, evitando los fenómenos de "trauma de excavación" por procesos de: heladicidad, cambios bruscos de temperatura o humedad e incidencia de radiación solar directa, y que permitan abrir dicha intervención, a acciones de interpretación.

Desde el punto de vista específico, se plantean los siguientes objetivos:

- Uso de la arquitectura ligera y de rápido montaje como elemento no sólo de protección sino de puesta en valor del elemento patrimonial. Tal como se ha indicado anteriormente, los parámetros habituales que definen a este tipo de sistemas (Gómez de Cózar *et al.* 2017) son: capacidad de adaptación a condiciones de contorno variables, reversibilidad y mínimo impacto medioambiental, idóneos para cubrir yacimientos.
- Control ambiental del espacio cubierto durante su intervención, mediante procedimientos pasivos que no requieran energía o que ésta sea mínima y pueda obtenerse mediante fuentes renovables (Hoyano; Jiang 2009;1119-1127).
- Comprobación de la minimización del impacto medioambiental de la solución propuesta mediante herramientas de Análisis del Ciclo de Vida.

Metodología propuesta.

Para alcanzar los objetivos que definen esta aportación, se ha diseñado la siguiente metodología original que, correctamente aplicada, permitirá la intervención en cualquier yacimiento arqueológico que necesite salvaguardar una superficie inferior en condiciones higrotérmicas adecuadas:

- Análisis del yacimiento a cubrir atendiendo a la singularidad de sus restos, naturaleza, posición, geometría, planificación de excavación, potencial de lugares del suelo que pueden ser utilizados como apoyos, condiciones de temperatura y humedad anuales y estudio visual de contorno que permita plantear la posibilidad de que la cobertura permanezca una vez terminadas las tareas de excavación y/o puesta en valor.
- Desarrollo de una cubierta ligera y de rápido montaje basada en un sistema espacial de dos capas sobre mínimos apoyos. A partir de las condiciones de contorno establecidas en el punto anterior, mediante software paramétrico, determinando la geometría específica de la cubierta. Las dos capas permiten generar una cámara de aire (controlada) que posibilitará el control higrotérmico del espacio protegido. Comprobación como estructura de la cubierta para optimizar su materialidad.
- Optimización de la cobertura a partir de software de simulación numérico original, que permite simular condiciones ambientales tanto del interior del recinto como de su suelo a partir del control de la ventilación de la cámara de la envolvente.
- Análisis del Ciclo de Vida de la solución planteada, conforme a las normas ISO 14040 (UNE-EN ISO 14040 2006), ISO 14044 (UNE-EN ISO 14044 2006) y EN 15978 (UNE-EN 15978 2012), atendiendo tanto a energía incorporada como a la operacional en categoría de GWP (calentamiento global) con objeto de validar la solución de diseño. En el caso de que el impacto sea excesivo, la solución deberá reconfigurarse (geometría,

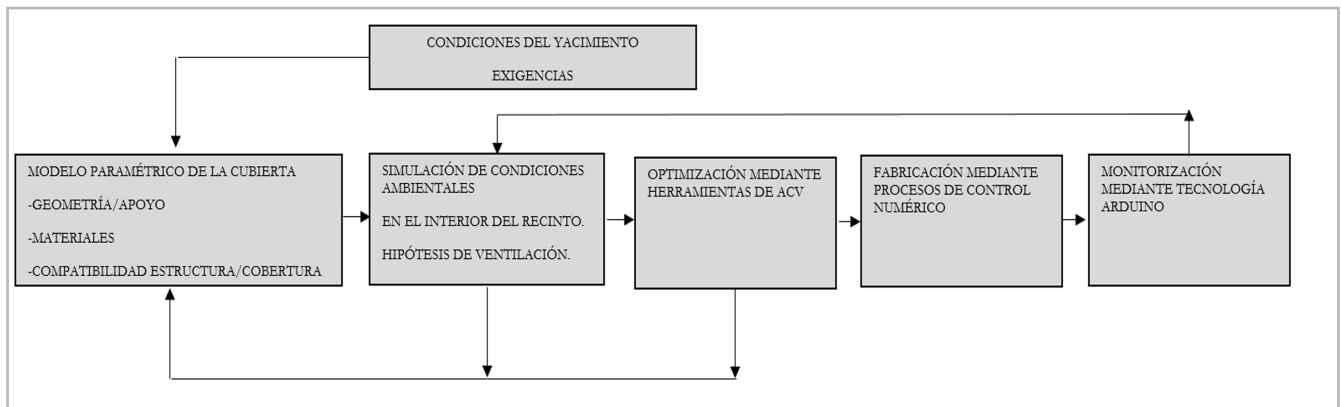


Gráfico 1.- Esquema de la metodología propuesta.

materiales y ciclos de ventilación) para minimizar su impacto.

- Fabricación de la cubierta mediante procedimientos de control numérico, permitiendo un mínimo tiempo de fabricación.
- Control in situ, mediante monitorización basada en tecnología Arduino. De este modo, el modelo numérico de simulación de las condiciones ambientales del recinto podrá calibrarse en función de las condiciones reales del recinto.

Este artículo, desarrolla la metodología descrita atendiendo a los apartados que tienen que ver con la creación paramétrica del modelo, a su simulación numérica y a su comportamiento medioambiental mediante herramientas de ACV. [gráfico 1].

Emplazamiento y estudio de condiciones de contorno

La aplicación de la metodología de estudio se aplicará como primer modelo, en un yacimiento arqueológico del sur de España, concretamente el Conjunto Arqueológico de Itálica, en la localidad de Santiponce, (Sevilla). Dicho estudio surge de las necesidades de protección de mosaicos en procesos de restauración acometidos por el

Conjunto. El Plan Director del yacimiento (año 2001) prevé en el apartado de mosaicos, ante la escasez de recursos, su cobertura mediante geotextiles y arena, entendiendo que dos de los agentes generadores de mayor deterioro son los cambios de humedad y temperatura. No obstante, aboga por la implantación de cubiertas físicas en altura previo estudio paisajístico.

Por otra parte, se plantea desde el Conjunto, la idoneidad de implantación de un sistema de cobertura experimental temporal, con el fin de contrastar resultados de monitorización con actuales coberturas efímeras instaladas, cubiertas convencionales a base de estructura metálica y materiales plásticos de sombra.

El emplazamiento elegido responde, además, al estudio de las condiciones de contorno (accesibilidad, estado de conservación, perfil climático, etc.), optándose por mosaico perteneciente a la conocida como “Casa de Neptuno”.

Se procederá al levantamiento planimétrico del objeto arqueológico y de su entorno, con el fin de diseñar un prototipo que responda a las condiciones de mínima huella en su instalación, así como de absoluta reversibilidad de la intervención [figura 1].

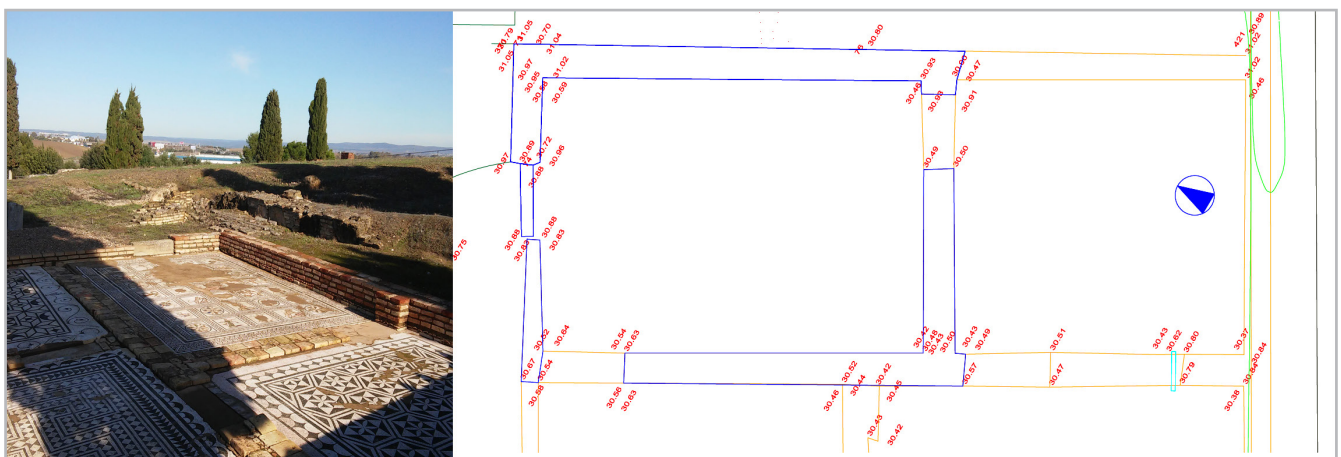


Figura 1.- Fotografía de emplazamiento y levantamiento planimétrico.

El mosaico elegido es adyacente a otros tres pertenecientes al mismo conjunto doméstico, y presenta una delimitación irregular en cuanto a la altura de arranques de muros que lo delimitan, fruto de intervenciones de consolidación realizadas. Esta situación, ligada a la topografía irregular de su entorno inmediato, condicionará la generación del modelo de cobertura.

Generación paramétrica de modelo de cubierta, comprobación estructural y fabricación mediante tecnología CNC.

Una vez definidas las condiciones de contorno, se procede a la generación del modelo geométrico de la cobertura. Para dicha generación, se emplea software original de diseño paramétrico, que permite generar geometrías ilimitadas pudiendo variar en tiempo real los diversos parámetros que las condicionan.

La herramienta de diseño permite actuar sobre los parámetros definitorios del sistema, basado en la "Patente Florín" (Gómez de Cózar; García Diéguez 2001). [figura 2].

Estos son:

- Variación del número de módulos de la malla tridimensional, generando modelos de mayor o menor extensión, adaptándose a la geometría y tamaño del área a proteger.
- Modificación del canto de la malla, lo cual permitirá

adecuarse a las necesidades del yacimiento en cuanto a luz máxima entre apoyos, así como a las acciones previstas (peso propio del textil de cobertura, cargas de nieve, etc.).

- Variaciones sobre la curvatura de la malla estructural esférica, permitiendo actuar sobre la estabilidad, limitando las deformaciones, especialmente ante acciones eólicas.

Posteriormente a la generación, será necesaria la comprobación estructural de la malla y el dimensionado de las distintas barras que la componen (rombos, aspas y diagonales).

Igualmente, se deberán dimensionar los apoyos de dicha cubierta, condicionados a la geometría del terreno existente, con la premisa de ejecutar un número mínimo de apoyos, y siempre externos al objeto excavado.

Para dicho dimensionado, se emplea software de cálculo matricial espacial de mallas de barras, desarrollado por Cype Ingenieros S.A. Dicha herramienta, permite el dimensionado de las barras de la malla estructural en limitando los estados límites últimos y de servicio para materiales como acero, aluminio o madera. En el caso de estudio, se fijarán los parámetros de resistencia mecánica relativos a panel de fibras de densidad media (MDF), previendo la ejecución de barras y nudos mediante la combinación de piezas de dicho material, hasta conseguir la sección resistente necesaria. Se chequearán igualmente las deformaciones debidas especialmente a

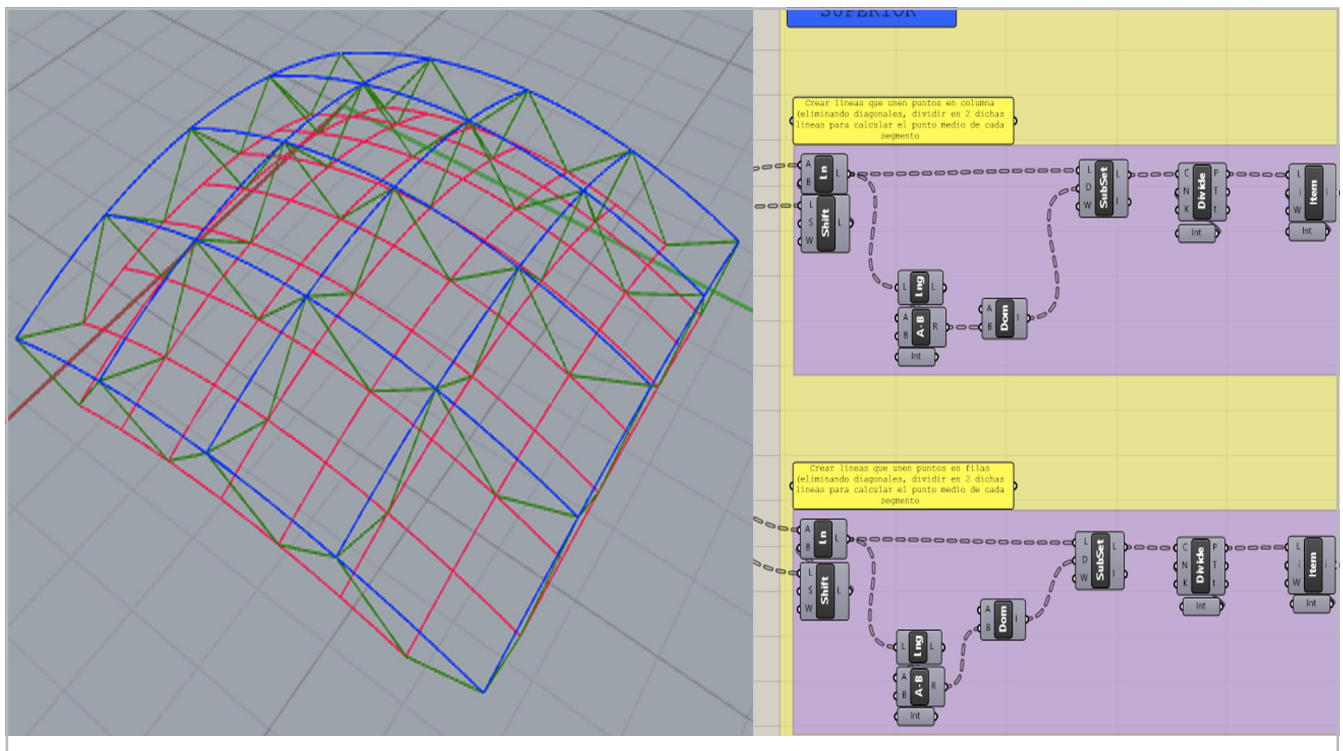


Figura 2.- Pantalla de control de parámetros de generación de la malla estructural, *Sistema Florín*, de la cubierta mediante herramienta Grasshopper.

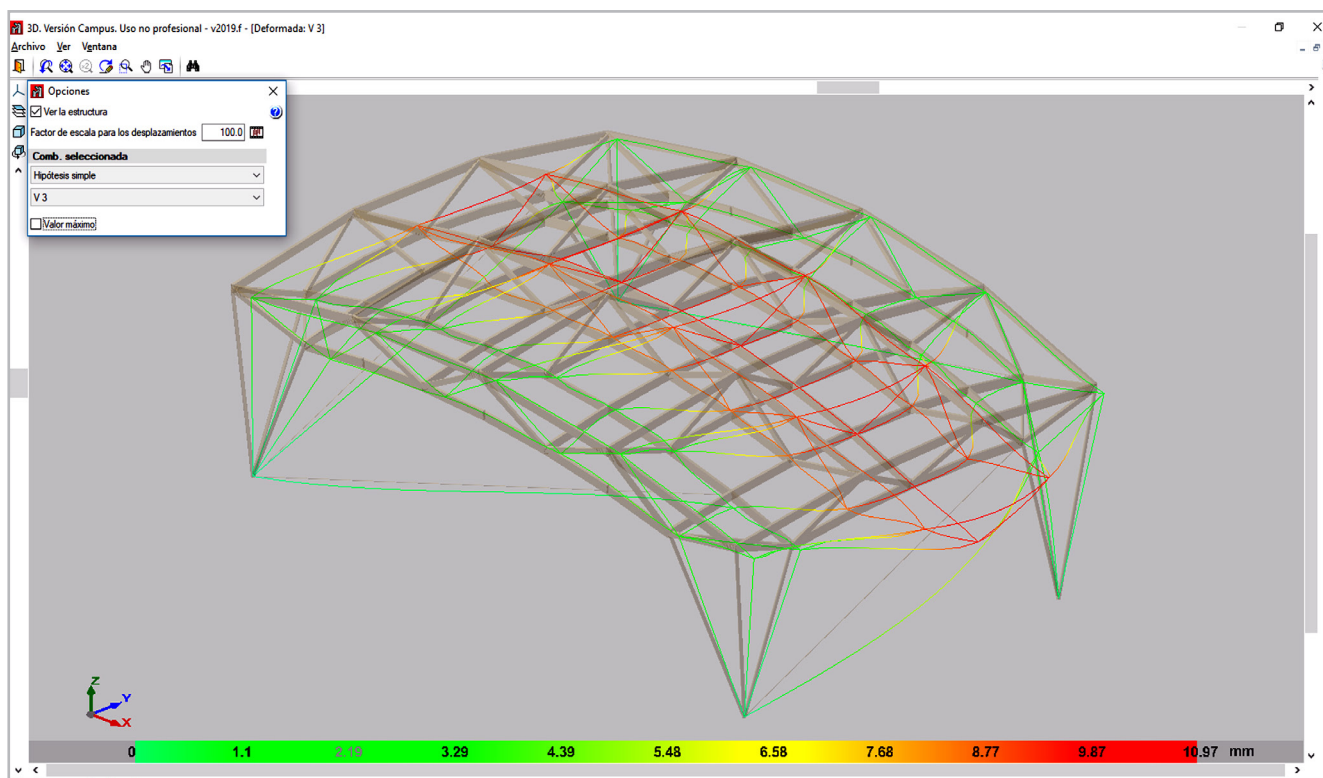


Figura 3.- Salida de resultados de software de cálculo matricial (deformada ante acción eólica).

la acción de viento, [figura 3], considerando si procede la colocación de sistemas ligeros de arriostramiento mediante atirantado, ya que se trata de un sistema de uniones articuladas, consiguiendo con ello apoyos sencillos de escasa incidencia en el suelo.

Como consecuencia del dimensionado estructural, y trasladando los resultados de secciones de barras y nudos al modelo generado paramétricamente, se contará con un modelo virtual con dimensiones reales que puede ser trasladado al sistema de fabricación correspondiente.

Para el caso de estudio, y con el fin de limitar el empleo de material en base a criterios de ligereza y mínima huella ecológica, se opta por el diseño de secciones de barras

formadas por dos perfiles separados, unidos puntualmente en el centro de la luz de los mismos, consiguiendo la inercia necesaria. Para el caso de los nudos, se opta por la unión de dos piezas de forma directa atornilladas, lo cual confiere rigidez al mismo, y facilita la unión con el sistema de barras [figura 4].

Finalmente, la generación paramétrica del modelo, y la obtención de un modelo físico digital, permite la fabricación del prototipo de cubierta del yacimiento mediante sistemas de fabricación industrializados, garantizando unos cortos tiempos de fabricación con alta exactitud dimensional de los elementos. Por otra parte, permitirá el rápido transporte y montaje del mismo, ya que se trata de sistema modular ensamblable configurado para unas condiciones de contorno concretas.

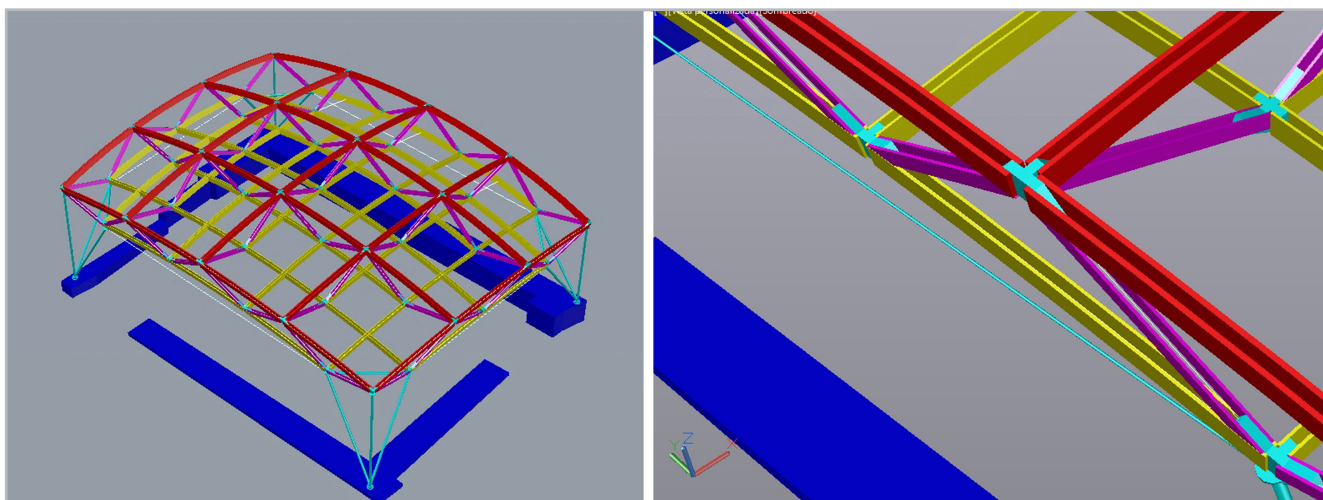


Figura 4.- Evolución del modelo alámbrico al modelo físico dimensionado.

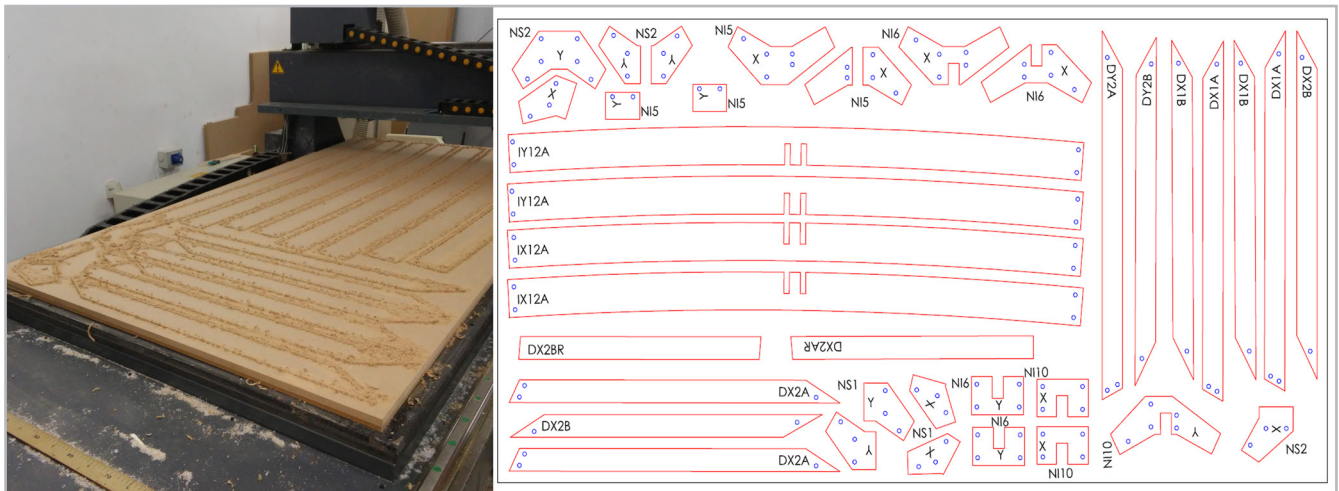


Figura 5.- Panel de despiece codificado y proceso de fabricación en fresadora de control numérico.

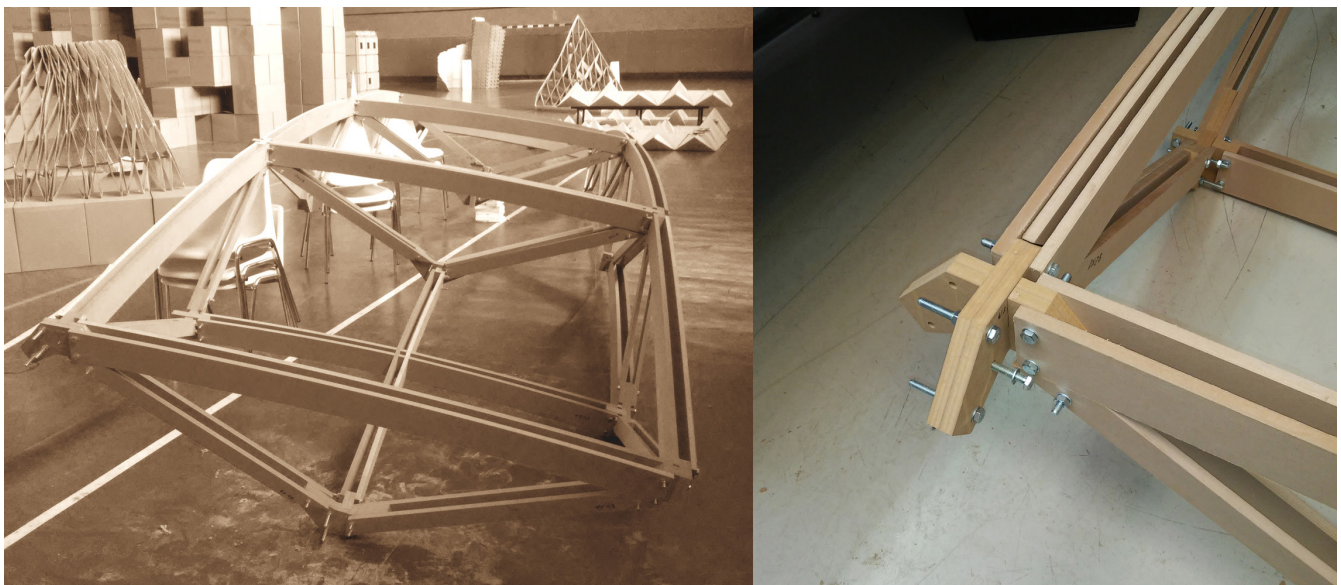


Figura 6.- Fase de montaje de tres módulos de cubierta en taller/ detalle de unión atornillada en cara superior.

La prefabricación en taller de elementos modulares, permite igualmente realizar las correcciones del modelo necesarias debidas a modificación de parámetros durante las labores previas a los trabajos de montaje, incluso debidas a necesidades surgidas durante el proceso de rehabilitación, permitiendo en tiempo real, la modificación de parámetros geométricos de la cubierta (luz, número de módulos, canto de la mallas, etc.), e incluso la extensión de la misma en casos de ser necesario, realizándose la modificación de parámetros en la herramienta de generación, y la nueva obtención del modelo físico digital para su envío a taller.

Como sistema de fabricación, se opta por el empleo de equipo de fresado por control numérico (CNC). Dicho equipo, propio de la pequeña industria de taller metálico y de carpintería, permite el empleo de pequeños recursos con gran economía de fabricación. En el caso de este estudio, se ha empleado el equipo de fresado existente en el Taller de Fabricación Digital de la Escuela Técnica Superior de Arquitectura de Sevilla.

Para la fabricación se han empleado paneles de tablero de densidad media (MDF), de 20 mm de espesor, con dimensiones adaptadas al equipo de fabricación (1,22 x 2,44 m). El modelo digital, ha sido despieceado en paneles codificados que son interpretados por la tecnología CNC. La codificación permitirá su posterior instalación en obra como kit de montaje [figura 5].

Con el fin de chequear el proceso, se ha realizado un test de montaje de un primer prototipo en taller, permitiendo la verificación de la coordinación dimensional de barras y nudos, así como la calibración de tolerancias dimensionales en el montaje de las uniones atornilladas. Igualmente, se ha realizado chequeo de estabilidad de los módulos ante solicitaciones previstas, así como ante fenómenos de segundo orden como es el caso del pandeo local de barras, previéndose los rigidizadores necesarios. Igualmente se han instalado los elementos para el futuro anclaje y tensado de las láminas textiles estructurales que constituirán la envolvente. [figura 6].

Simulación mediante CFD

Paralelamente al proceso de fabricación del prototipo, se ha diseñado una herramienta de cálculo original que permita procesos de simulación energética. El estudio tiene como objetivo, elaborar un método analítico que permita documentar la capacidad de las envolventes de doble capa previstas como material de cobertura en yacimientos, para garantizar un control efectivo de variables ambientales mediante sistemas pasivos de mínimo consumo energético.

Será pues necesario, para la aplicación de la metodología de conservación preventiva basada en: diagnóstico, cuantificación de agentes potenciales, estimación de riesgos, proposición de medidas correctoras y monitorización (Carrera 2018), la posibilidad de cuantificar y modelizar los siguientes parámetros ambientales, aplicando un método microclimático (Baglioni; Cacace; Valpuesta 2018):

- Temperatura seca exterior.
- Temperatura seca en el interior del espacio cubierto y en el interior de la cámara de aire formada por la envolvente de doble capa.
- Temperatura superficial de la envolvente y del objeto a proteger (mosaico).
- Humedad relativa interior en espacio cubierto y cámara de la envolvente.
- Velocidad del aire exterior, en interior de la cámara y en interior del espacio cubierto.
- Radiación solar incidente sobre la cubierta.

Para la citada simulación, se ha desarrollado una herramienta de cálculo basada en software de código abierto (PDE), concretamente se empleará la aplicación FreeFem (Chacón 2010), consistente en software para resolver ecuaciones diferenciales empleando método de elementos finitos (FEM).

El modelo de cálculo parte de la definición de límites o bordes cuyos nodos de contacto comparten valores idénticos, permitiendo generar mapas de evolución de parámetros higrotérmicos mediante ecuaciones de continuidad, empleando la dinámica de fluidos computacional (CFD).

Los límites o bordes serán los correspondientes a las diversas capas de textil estructural formado por entramado de fibra de poliéster y protección de polifluoruro de vinilideno de 0.78 mm de espesor que constituyen la envolvente de doble capa prevista, y que envuelve a la estructura soporte del prototipo. Tendremos pues cuatro límites o bordes que encerrarán las áreas de cálculo (bordes interior y exterior de cubierta, y bordes interior y exterior de envolvente vertical) [figura 7].

La densidad de la malla de nodos y la discretización de las áreas o dominios de cálculo se ajustará a la geometría y a la necesidad de definición de puntos singulares como son las aberturas de admisión-extracción de aire previstas en el modelo [figura 8].

La herramienta diseñada, permite la simulación de variación de parámetros como T^a y humedad relativa, mediante actuación sobre la velocidad del aire en la cámara que forman las dos capas de la envolvente, partiendo de parámetros de condiciones ambientales: T^a exterior, humedad relativa, radiación solar incidente, velocidad del viento, etc., así como de las características propias de la envolvente (transmitancia térmica, transmisión, reflexión y absorción solar, factor solar y porcentaje de paso de la luz).

Se ensayan en el modelo de flujos, diversas opciones de admisión y extracción de aire forzado mediante pequeños ventiladores en línea axiales [figura 7], disponiendo aberturas en puntos singulares (envolvente vertical y cubierta), según hipótesis prediseñadas y a ejecutar en el futuro modelo físico a escala 1:1. Detallamos a continuación algunas hipótesis consideradas:

- H1: Admisión forzada unilateral en envolvente vertical y extracción libre en extremo contrario de dicha envolvente.
- H2: Admisión forzada bilateral en envolvente vertical, y extracción libre en envolvente de cubierta.
- H3: Admisión forzada unilateral en envolvente vertical y extracción forzada en extremo contrario de dicha envolvente.
- H4: Admisión forzada bilateral en envolvente vertical, y extracción forzada en envolvente de cubierta.

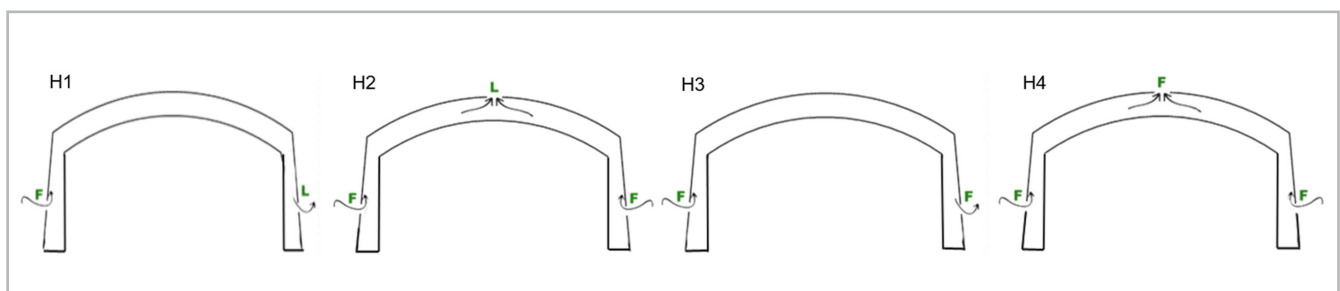


Figura 7.- Esquema de bordes e hipótesis de flujos de aire forzados (F), y libres (L).

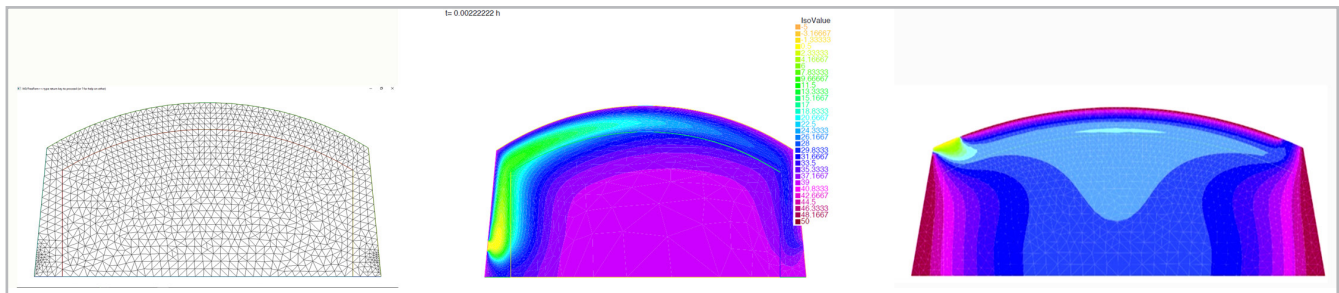


Figura 8.- Modelo de malla discretizada, y modelos de mapas de T^a y velocidad del aire para hipótesis forzada.

Para cada hipótesis, el modelo reporta mapas de evolución estacional y horaria de distribución de temperatura y velocidad de aire, tanto en espacio cubierto como en cámara, ante los diversos flujos estáticos (únicamente debidos a fenómenos de convección por diferencia de temperatura en el espacio cubierto), y ante flujos dinámicos (con circulación de aire forzada en el interior de la cámara formada por la envolvente de doble capa, con diversidad de posición de aberturas [figura 8].

ACV de la solución propuesta

Tal como se ha indicado, este trabajo se enmarca en una línea de investigación que vincula el diseño del elemento arquitectónico a su influencia en la minimización de su impacto medioambiental en todas las fases de su ciclo de vida (Gómez de Cózar, 2019).

El siguiente cuadro ilustra el modelo arquitectónico utilizado y su relación con las diferentes fases del ciclo de vida de una edificación a efecto de minimizarlas.

En un trabajo anterior (Gómez de Cózar, 2017) se procedió

FABRICACIÓN	→	LIGEREZA
CONSTRUCCIÓN	→	RÁPIDO MONTAJE
USO	→	ESTRATEGIAS PASIVAS ENERGÍAS RENOVABLES
DEMOLICIÓN	→	REVERSIBLE
DISPOSICIÓN FINAL	→	RECICLABLE

a comparar el impacto medioambiental, mediante herramientas de ACV, de una cubierta resuelta con el *Sistema Florín* frente a otros sistemas cotidianos y usuales que tenían las mismas dimensiones y cubrían la misma superficie. En el estudio reseñado, la estructura de la cubierta *Florín*, estaba resuelta de forma íntegra en acero galvanizado. En este artículo, se actualiza el análisis en función de la materialidad elegida para la estructura (fundamentalmente, paneles de MDF y tornillería de acero zincadas) asumiendo que todos los modelos que se comparan tienen la misma envolvente (doble capa de membrana textil de malla y urdimbre del poliéster revestida con PVC).

El análisis se ha realizado conforme a ISO 14040 (UNE-EN ISO 14040 2006), ISO 14044 (UNE-EN ISO 14044 2006) y

EN 15978 (UNE-EN 15978 2012), siguiendo el siguiente procedimiento:

Alcance y objetivos (Scope and goal definition)

El objetivo fundamental en todos los casos analizados ha sido determinar el impacto medioambiental de la edificación proyectada. Siguiendo la bibliografía más actual (Galán Marín *et al.* 2015), (Asdrubali, F. *et al.* 2017) se ha considerado el *Riesgo de calentamiento global* (GWP), como el indicador de impacto más relevante.

Límites del sistema

En función de EN 15978 (UNE-EN 15978 2012) se han seleccionado las fases más relevantes para el análisis del ciclo de vida de una edificación:

- Fase de producción. Incluye materias primas (A1), transporte de materiales a fábrica (A2) y fabricación de materiales (A3).
- Fase de construcción/deconstrucción. Incluye transporte a lugar de construcción/montaje/obra (A4), proceso constructivo (A5), proceso de de-construcción (C1) y transporte a lugar de disposición final (C2).
- Fase de final de vida. Incluye procesado de residuos para reúso, recuperación y/o reciclado (C3) y disposición final (C4).

En todos los casos se ha considerado una duración de la edificación de 50 años.

Las etapas B1 a B7, relacionadas con fase de uso (energía operacional) no se van a incluir en el presente estudio porque, gracias al uso de estrategias pasivas de diseño, su impacto es despreciable.

Asignación

Se ha elegido un escenario de reciclado de todos los materiales. Los impactos unitarios asociados a esta fase se han obtenido de la base de datos Ecoinvent 2.0 (Frischknecht, R *et al.* 2007).

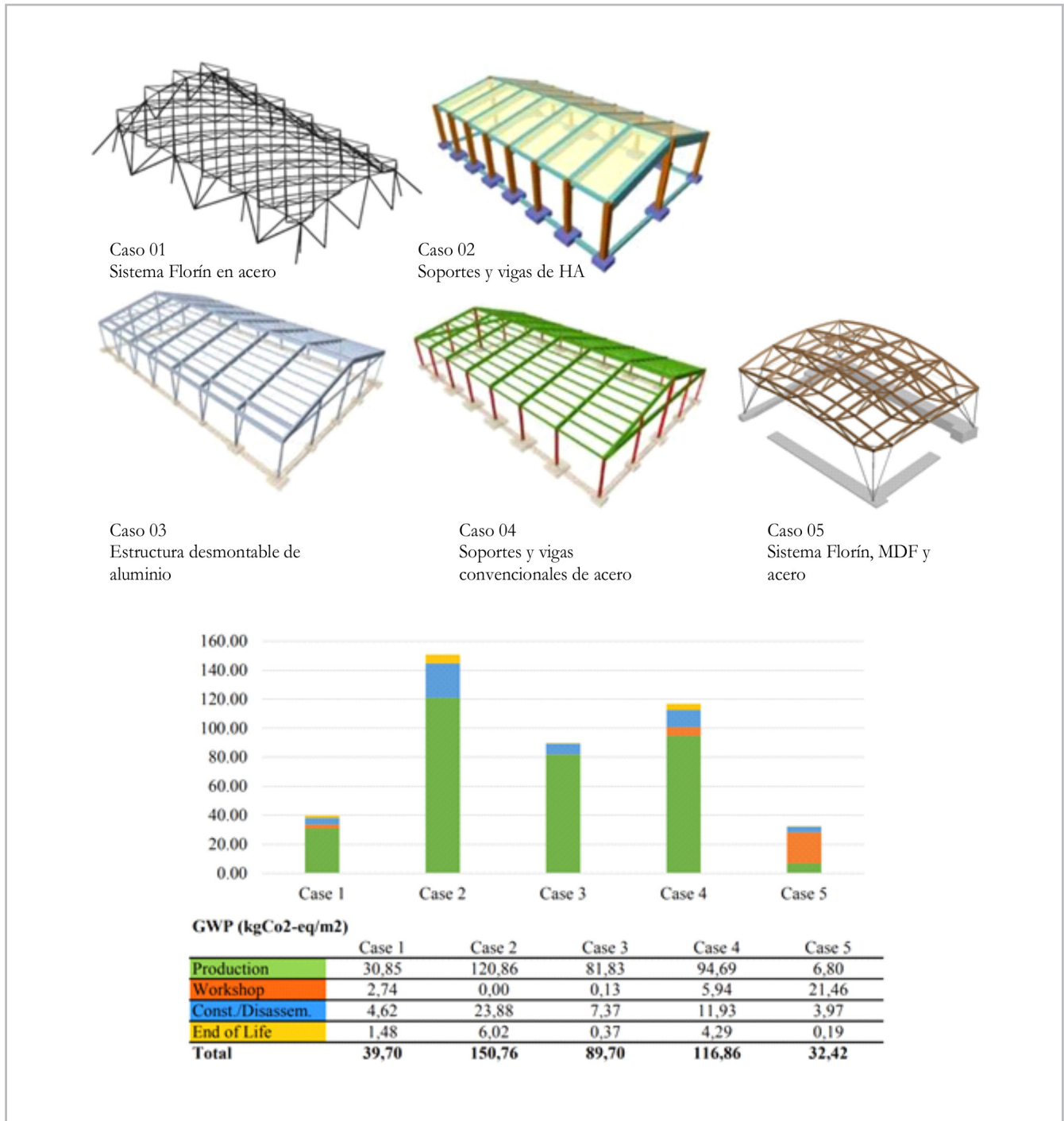


Gráfico 2.- Evaluación del impacto del ciclo de vida. Modelos comparados y resultados.

Unidad funcional

En todos los casos se ha considerado como unidad funcional el sistema constructivo/estructural completo incluyendo su cimentación. En todos los casos, los resultados se expresan por metro cuadrado de edificación cubierta.

Limitaciones y suposiciones

Para la cuantificación de la energía demandada durante las fases de construcción y deconstrucción se han cuantificado

todos los procesos. En todos los casos se ha considerado un escenario de disposición final de reciclaje de todos los productos empleados.

1. *Inventario del ciclo de vida* (life cycle inventory, LCI): Consiste en la cuantificación de materiales, procesos y elementos incluidos en el sistema según ISO 14044 (UNE-EN ISO 14044 2006). Se siguen las indicaciones de García Martínez (García Martínez, A. 2010), clasificando el inventario en tres fases:
 - Inventario de materiales.

- Inventario de transportes y procesos de construcción y deconstrucción.

- Inventario de procesos de final de vida.

Los valores de impacto asociados a transportes, construcción y deconstrucción se obtienen a partir del inventario de procesos que se han seguido en las operaciones referenciadas y de los valores de impacto unitarios asociados a cada proceso.

2. *Evaluación del impacto del ciclo de vida* (life cycle impact assessment, LCIA): A partir de la cuantificación de materiales y de procesos, la evaluación del impacto del ciclo de vida se ha calculado a partir de los diferentes valores unitarios de impacto, según la categoría considerada, establecidos en la base de datos Ecoinvent 2.0. Siendo esta la base de datos de uso más extendido entre la comunidad científica europea. Contiene los valores de impacto asociados a los materiales, elementos y procesos en cada etapa de su ciclo de vida.

3. *Interpretación de resultados*: En cada caso se han interpretado los resultados estableciendo relaciones entre el modelo arquitectónico/constructivo planteado y los diferentes valores de impacto medioambiental obtenidos.

Los resultados se han repercutido por metro cuadrado de superficie edificada: Modelos 1, 2, 3 y 4: 610,00 m²; Modelo 5: 40,32 m².

Conforme a los criterios establecidos en el punto anterior, comparando los resultados obtenidos con tres sistemas diferentes y también utilizados con frecuencia (estructura de hormigón armado, estructura de aluminio y estructura de acero laminado), los resultados obtenidos ponen de manifiesto que el diseño realizado es el que más minimiza el impacto medioambiental respecto a las opciones restantes. En el gráfico 2 se observan los resultados obtenidos.

Discusión de resultados

Tras los primeros procesos de generación paramétrica, simulación estructural, higrotérmica y de análisis de ciclo de vida, del modelo, podemos realizar el siguiente análisis:

- Desde el punto de vista del diseño, optimización y comportamiento mecánico: En la optimización estructural, se han seguido criterios de diseño y elección de perfiles basado en: elección de secciones con inercia suficiente y mínimo consumo de material que garanticen la ligereza del sistema, unificación de secciones que permitan fabricación y montaje de mínima complejidad, o uniones entre elementos de rápido montaje y desmontaje, obteniendo como solución óptima la compuesta por trípodes de apoyo a base de perfiles tubulares de acero, y malla de cubierta a base de perfiles dobles de tablero MDF de igual sección en la totalidad de los módulos, previéndose perfil

triple únicamente en una barra en los módulos de apoyo en los trípodes. La citada solución supone un peso total de la estructura de 226,50 kg, con una repercusión por superficie cubierta de 5,61 kg/m².

Realizando la comparativa con opciones de fabricación en materiales tradicionales de la construcción ligera como el acero y el aluminio, se obtiene una masa total de 500,90 Kg en caso del empleo de perfiles huecos tubulares de sección circular, y de 299,23 Kg en caso de emplear perfilera tubular de aluminio extruido, suponiendo una repercusión de 12,42 y 7,42 kg/m² respectivamente, revelándose la solución elegida como la óptima para los parámetros de partida.

- En cuanto a control higrotérmico en el espacio cubierto y objeto arqueológico: Tras la primera fase de simulación, con las hipótesis de aperturas y forzado de flujos de aire descritos [figura 8], podemos analizar los primeros resultados, destacando los siguientes:

En cuanto a valores obtenidos en periodo estival, se observa que el movimiento de aire en el interior de la cámara de la envolvente, permite la disminución de la temperatura interior del espacio cubierto entre 0,5 y 4 °C, y en torno a 2°C a nivel del suelo (objeto excavado), para velocidades iniciales de impulsión de aire en la cámara de 13 m/s, y un periodo máximo de funcionamiento del sistema de 4 horas, obteniéndose los valores máximos de atenuación para la hipótesis H4 [figura 8], siendo forzada tanto la admisión por envolvente vertical, como la extracción por cubierta, consiguiendo una distribución más uniforme de T^a interior del espacio cubierto, así como una velocidad de aire residual más elevada en el interior de la cámara, en torno a 6,5 m/s.

En lo que se refiere al periodo de invierno, las primeras simulaciones han revelado que el mantenimiento de velocidades de aire bajas (inferiores a 0,50 m/s según escala de Beaufort), mediante el cierre de aberturas de la envolvente, permite que no exista disminución de la T^a debida a efectos eólicos en el interior de la cámara, favoreciendo el recalentamiento del aire ocluido en la misma debido a la radiación solar directa, con la consiguiente transmisión de calor a través de la capa textil interior, y el mantenimiento de la T^a seca del espacio cubierto en valores positivos en dicho periodo.

- Relativas a minimización del impacto medioambiental en función de su comparación a otros sistemas constructivos: Como se puede observar en el gráfico 2, las diferentes soluciones que se han comparado aumentan el impacto medioambiental 1,21 veces (caso 1, Sistema Florín resuelto en acero), 4,54 veces (caso 2, hormigón armado), 2,77 veces (caso 3, aluminio) y 3,57 veces (caso 4, acero laminado) respecto a la solución diseñada (caso 5).

Las causas fundamentales de la reducción de impacto son:

-Naturaleza de los materiales elegidos. Las propiedades naturales del material elegido y su mínima industrialización plantean un potencial mínimo de impacto unitario. La ventaja de poder conseguir cantidades suficientes en un radio de acción cercano minimiza los impactos asociados a transportes.

-Extrema ligereza de la solución. Gracias al diseño de la malla espacial, en función del proceso de optimización que se ha seguido, se consigue un elemento muy ligero. La ligereza repercute en las tareas de fabricación, transportes y montaje.

-Se trata de un sistema de rápido montaje que potencia el trabajo en taller y minimiza el trabajo en obra.

-El sistema es reversible y reciclable al 100,0%.

Cuando se comparan las dos soluciones (casos 1 y 5) que se han resuelto con Sistema Florín, se observa que la solución realizada en madera mejora los resultados que se obtienen con la solución en acero (1,21 veces). Esta situación todavía podría mejorar más en función del tipo de tratamiento que se dé a la madera a efectos de garantizar su durabilidad en ambientes húmedos (clases de servicio 2 y 3 conforme a CTE DB SE M).

De este modo, se pone de manifiesto el beneficio medioambiental que se obtiene al utilizar el modelo constructivo desarrollado en función a otras alternativas posibles.

Conclusiones

Tras el desarrollo de la metodología propuesta y del análisis de los resultados obtenidos, se concluye lo siguiente:

- El uso de sistemas ligeros y de rápido montaje, como el Sistema Florín, contruidos a partir de materiales adecuados, se configura como la opción más idónea de cobertura de yacimiento. La elección de materiales en cada caso de estudio será fundamental atendiendo no sólo a la naturaleza de éstos sino también a su necesidad de ser protegidos con otros productos para garantizar su durabilidad. Las herramientas de diseño paramétrico creadas, unidas a la fabricación digital, permiten obtener soluciones originales y optimizadas en cada caso en función de las necesidades particulares de cada yacimiento. En cada caso, aunque el sistema sea el mismo, la geometría final estará adaptada a las condiciones reales del yacimiento.
- La incorporación de doble capa de membrana a un sistema constructivo que fue creado con ese fin, permite tener un control higrotérmico aceptable del espacio cubierto sin apenas consumo energético, empleado medidas pasivas de acondicionamiento ambiental.



Figura 9.- Sondas y equipamiento a instalar en el prototipo construido.

Las simulaciones que se han realizado a partir de las herramientas originales creadas ponen de manifiesto el beneficio de esta tecnología a la hora de conseguir temperaturas adecuadas tanto en el interior del recinto como en su suelo.

- Se ha demostrado, como los dos puntos anteriores tienen gran repercusión en el Análisis del Ciclo de Vida realizado en cuanto a la minimización del impacto medioambiental conseguido. Cuando se sigue la metodología propuesta, se ha podido comprobar que el elemento resultante es el que menos impacto produce en relación a otros sistemas habituales, en las mismas condiciones de uso, con los que se ha comparado.

Desarrollos posteriores a la redacción de este artículo. Futuras líneas de investigación

Dentro del estudio del prototipo, y una vez sea instalado en el emplazamiento propuesto, se procederá a la monitorización del mismo, con el fin de contrastar los datos de simulación del modelo de cálculo CFD. Para ello, se recurrirá a tecnología compatible con software de código abierto "Arduino" (Evans 2007), colocándose sondas de temperatura y humedad en el exterior del mismo, en interior de cámara de la envolvente textil, y en el interior del espacio cubierto. Igualmente se prevé el uso de dinamómetro y piranómetro, para obtener lectura de parámetros exteriores de velocidad del aire y radiación solar incidente, así como de pequeños equipos de ventilación que permitan modificar la velocidad del aire en la cámara, e incluso la transferencia de aire de la misma al espacio interior [figura 9]. La comparación de los datos obtenidos por el conjunto de sondas y equipamiento permitirá la gestión de una gran base de datos de parámetros de condiciones ambientales del espacio cubierto ante la variabilidad de las condiciones exteriores estacionales, y las condiciones activas de intervención

sobre el mismo, permitiendo así la calibración del modelo de cálculo.

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Evaluación de riesgos, monitorización y simulación de edificios patrimoniales

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Resumen: Los edificios religiosos son una parte importante del patrimonio cultural, son documentos de nuestra herencia y tenemos la necesidad de preservarlos. Las condiciones ambientales en el que están inmersos estos edificios son determinantes para la preservación y conservación del patrimonio mueble que contiene. Originalmente, la mayoría de estos espacios no estaban acondicionados, pero actualmente, estos edificios están siendo climatizados para proporcionar el confort térmico a los feligreses y para mejorar las condiciones del clima interior y la preservación del patrimonio mueble. El objetivo principal de esta investigación ha sido analizar las condiciones ambientales de edificios religiosos en un clima Mediterráneo, mediante el uso de monitorización y simulación para evaluar y mejorar la preservación del patrimonio cultural de estos edificios. Este estudio aporta las herramientas para la optimización de la calidad ambiental para la preservación y conservación del patrimonio mueble e inmueble y para su aplicación en futuros proyectos de rehabilitación patrimonial.

Palabras clave: Patrimonio, monitorización, simulación, riesgo, condiciones ambientales

Evaluación de riesgos, monitorización y simulación de edificios patrimoniales

Abstract: The churches are an important part of Cultural Heritage; these need to be preserved. The indoor environmental conditions of these spaces are decisive for the preservation and conservation of the movable heritage. The originally churches were not conditioned, but currently, these buildings are being air-conditioned to provide thermal comfort to parishioners and to improve indoor weather conditions. The main objective of this research project has been to analyse the environmental conditions of religious buildings in a Mediterranean climate, through the use of monitoring and simulation to evaluate and improve the preservation of the Cultural Heritage of these buildings. Finally, this study provides the subject expert, the tools for the optimization of environmental and energy quality, in the refurbishment project.

Keywords: Heritage, monitoring, simulation, risk, environmental conditions

Introducción

El estudio higrotérmico de espacios religiosos proto-barrocos se enmarca dentro una fase de estudios de investigación que tiene por objeto la futura rehabilitación de dichos espacios, y se pretende sirva de base para conocer el estado de conservación, los fenómenos de degradación que sufren algunas obras de arte y analizar previamente las consecuencias de las posibles intervenciones en los edificios.

Los procesos de degradación son resultado de la interacción de diversos parámetros ambientales tanto del exterior como el interior (Muñoz-Gonzalez 2016).

Uno de los objetivos de este estudio fue aportar datos que pudieran dar explicación a la degradación actual de los espacios religiosos analizados, debido a las condiciones ambientales interiores, a los factores climatológicos, el uso actual, etc. La observación de los parámetros ambientales interiores (obtenidos con una previa monitorización del espacio de estudio) desde un punto de vista de la dinámica ambiental, permite conocer el funcionamiento ambiental del espacio interior (Erhardt & Mecklenburg 1994), (Magrini 2016). Debido a la naturaleza oscilante del clima, el proceso de monitorización se debe realizar para un periodo de varios años lo que permite un conocimiento más detallado de la interacción de los materiales y obras

de arte con el clima interior (Wessberga & Vyhřídál). Igualmente, debido a la influencia de la masa humana en la degradación y el confort térmico del espacio, este estudio ahonda en el conocimiento más detallado del uso de estos espacios y la interacción de las personas con el ambiente interior (Camuffo *et al.* 2010).

Un elevado porcentaje de edificios patrimoniales son contenedores de una riqueza inestimable de nuestro patrimonio cultural. Estos espacios albergan un patrimonio mueble, tan importante como el que se puede encontrar en espacios expositivos, los museos. En este ámbito poco a poco se han ido imponiendo diferentes estrategias de conservación, al menos como planteamiento teórico. Sin embargo, otros espacios como por ejemplo, los religiosos, son instituciones que no disponen de estructuras técnicas y administrativas permanentes para la conservación de los bienes que acopian, a pesar de que en la mayoría de los casos, muchos de ellos están inscritos en el Registro General de Bienes de Interés Cultural o forman parte del Inventario General de Bienes Muebles (DIRECCIÓN GENERAL DE BELLAS ARTES Y BIENES CULTURALES Y DE ARCHIVO Y BIBLIOTECA 2009).

Además de las carencias en medios técnicos, es preciso considerar otra particularidad que puede determinar de forma importante la conservación del patrimonio, que es su carácter de patrimonio en uso. Generalmente, los espacios de culto están vinculados a ritos y tradiciones con un importante seguimiento popular en el que enlazan, además, elementos del patrimonio inmaterial que requieren asimismo una aproximación especial en cuanto a los requerimientos de conservación.

En los últimos treinta años, las iglesias están disminuyendo drásticamente, sobre todo en el occidente de Europa. Asimismo, muchos de estos espacios han tenido que ser usados para fines alternativos con el fin de disponer de algunos ingresos extras. El uso original de las iglesias está siendo modificado y actualmente a estos espacios, hoy por hoy, no se les exigen un acondicionamiento ambiental, como al resto de otras edificaciones que albergan actividades de uso público. Hoy en día muchas de ellas se utilizan para conciertos y otros eventos musicales, exposiciones, etc. (Mosoarca *et al.* 2017)

Durante siglos el clima interior de las iglesias había venido determinado principalmente por el clima exterior. Sin embargo, en la actualidad muchos de estos espacios están siendo equipados con novedosas tecnologías (diseñadas para una arquitectura contemporánea) para mejorar las condiciones de confort de los feligreses (Berardinis, Rotilio & Capannolo 2017).

Igualmente, si el funcionamiento de estas técnicas ambientales fuese continuo, existiría una alta demanda de energía debido al gran volumen e inercia térmica

que presentan estos edificios. Precisamente por razones económicas la mayoría de las iglesias emplean un sistema de climatización para períodos de tiempo limitados, concretamente cuando las personas están presentes. Pero esta estrategia de climatización puede tener un efecto adverso sobre la conservación del edificio y sus objetos interiores (Balocco & Colaianni 2018).

Los problemas a los que se enfrenta la conservación de estos espacios están relacionados con la evaluación de riesgos, la aplicación de control y el seguimiento de las condiciones ambientales, una vez implementados los sistemas de acondicionamiento ambiental. En la mayoría de los casos, la implantación de las instalaciones de acondicionamiento ambiental deriva de dos necesidades principales, una es la económica (de la instalación, uso y mantenimiento) y la segunda es el confort térmico. Sin embargo, los requisitos de conservación en pocas ocasiones son considerados (Muñoz 2016).

Por esto, resulta relevante el presente trabajo, donde se propone profundizar en el conocimiento del acondicionamiento higrotérmico de espacios religiosos. Se pretende con ello, ofrecer a los técnicos competentes las pautas de diseño que le permitan predecir la conducta higrotérmica de estos espacios antes y después de la aplicación de técnicas ambientales.

Metodología

Este trabajo de investigación se desarrolló siguiendo un método experimental, depurado durante años de trabajo por parte de miembros del grupo de investigación TEP 130, adscrito al Instituto Universitario de Arquitectura y ciencias de la Construcción (IUACC) de la Universidad de Sevilla. Este método combina las formulaciones analíticas, las medidas experimentales realizadas *in situ* y la utilización de técnicas de simulación mediante ordenador para conocer y predecir el comportamiento higrotérmico de los espacios.

El método desarrollado para el análisis de cada iglesia objeto de estudio puede ser desglosado en cinco fases, las cuales se suceden cronológicamente.

- En la primera etapa del estudio se realiza una recopilación de información básica de la muestra de estudio. La documentación histórica permite conocer las circunstancias que propiciaron la construcción del edificio, su propia evolución y del entorno hasta nuestros días.
- Una segunda etapa, el seguimiento del ambiente interior cuya finalidad es proporcionar datos objetivos de parámetros higrotérmicos para realizar la evaluación y diagnóstico del estado de conservación del patrimonio cultural y el confort térmico. Las iglesias fueron monitorizadas durante veintidós meses, excepto la iglesia de nuestra señora de la Victoria, que por mantenimiento

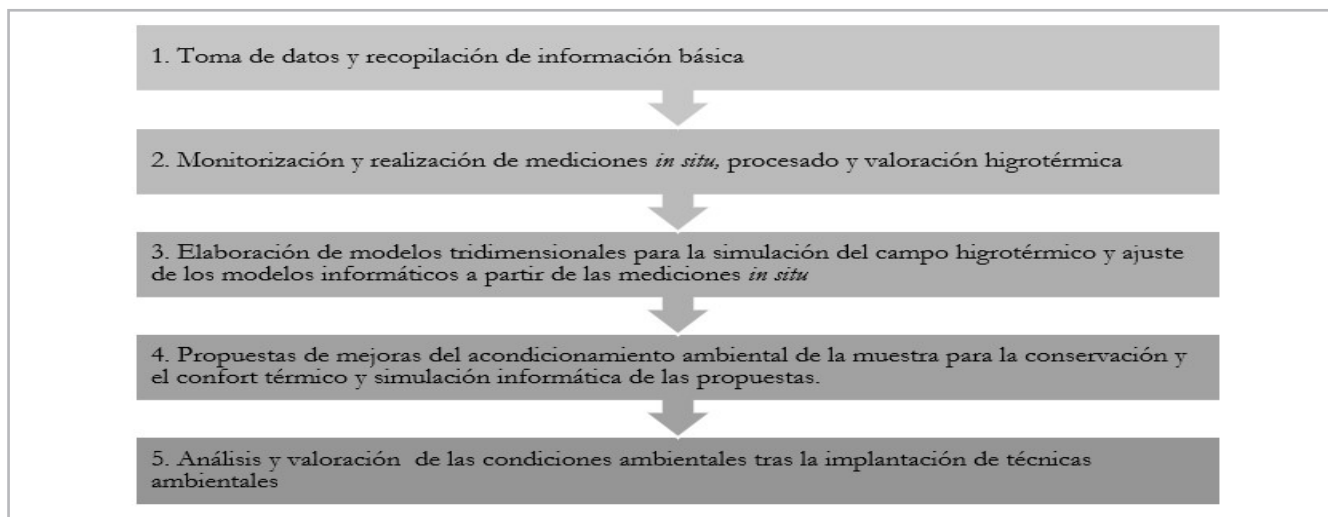


Figura 1.- Fotografía de emplazamiento y levantamiento planimétrico.

y obras solo se pudo hacer un seguimiento ambiental durante dieciséis meses.

- En la tercera etapa se elaboran los modelos tridimensionales para la simulación del campo higrotérmico. Los datos de la monitorización se emplean para generar los modelos de simulación informática, elaborando modelos digitales tridimensionales de cada caso de estudio. Estos modelos espaciales reproducen cada edificio y su entorno, desde el punto de vista geométrico, climático y constructivo, empleando para ello el programa informático Design Builder.

Este modelo informático se valida a partir de las mediciones *in situ*. La metodología de validación se basa en la comparación de un importante número de datos horarios registrados *in situ* con los resultados obtenidos de la simulación informática una vez generado el modelo.

- Una cuarta etapa donde se desarrollan propuestas de mejoras del acondicionamiento ambiental de la muestra mediante la aplicación de técnicas ambientales pasivas y activas en los modelos de simulación, para la conservación y el confort térmico.

- Finalmente, en la quinta etapa se analiza y valora los resultados obtenidos de los modelos informáticos para determinar la adecuación de las condiciones ambientales para la conservación, confort térmico y eficiencia energética.

El esquema propuesto para la gestión de las condiciones ambientales en ningún caso tiene como objetivo proporcionar soluciones específicas o reglas sobre cómo conseguir estándares de niveles estrictos de dichas condiciones, sino que pretende proporcionar una metodología de trabajo normalizados que permite tomar decisiones adecuadas y coordinadas sobre futuras intervenciones en edificios históricos, sin poner en riesgo el bien patrimonial.

Caso de estudio

Para este estudio se analizaron tres espacios religiosos que se encontraban en un mismo ámbito geográfico y por lo tanto tenían unas condiciones climatológicas externas muy similares. Los espacios religiosos se encontraban en la localidad de Morón de la Frontera, en la provincia de Sevilla (España). Estas iglesias, forman parte del patrimonio inmueble de Andalucía, algunas de las mismas declaradas BIC (Bien de Interés Cultural), con la categoría de monumento, como es el caso de la Iglesia de San Francisco de Asís

Las iglesias, pertenecían a un mismo periodo constructivo, comprendido entre 1550-1650 para poder realizar un estudio comparativo. Estas presentaban variaciones en cuanto a forma de planta, sistema constructivo de cubierta, huecos de ventanas, etc., factor que enriquecía el estudio, ya que se podía determinar la influencia de estas características sobre el comportamiento higrotérmico en las mismas.

En la figura 2, se muestran las tres iglesias de estudio, la primera, la iglesia de San Francisco de Asís del año 1550, presenta una planta en forma cajón, cubierta por una bóveda de cañón y lunetos reforzados por pares de arcos fajones. La planta está orientada de manera que los muros longitudinales, se encuentran, con una ligera desviación al norte. En los alrededores de la iglesia están adosados las demás dependencias como capillas, casa parroquial y sobre una de las medianeras se levanta el claustro del antiguo monasterio. La segunda, la iglesia Nuestras Señora de la Merced del 1638, de planta cruz latina con una falsa bóveda de cañón con arcos fajones y lunetos que cubren los brazos del crucero, mientras que una bóveda semiesférica sobre pechinas cubre el crucero. Por último, la iglesia Nuestra Señora de la Victoria del año 1584, formada por una nave de cinco tramos, con capillas unidas mediante arcos de medio punto. La nave se cubre con tejado a dos aguas cuyo interior está cubierto con un artesonado de madera. A continuación, se muestra las características constructivas de las iglesias analizadas, véase [tabla 1].



Figura 2.- Muestra de las iglesias de estudio. 1) Iglesia de San Francisco 2) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Merced 3) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Victoria.

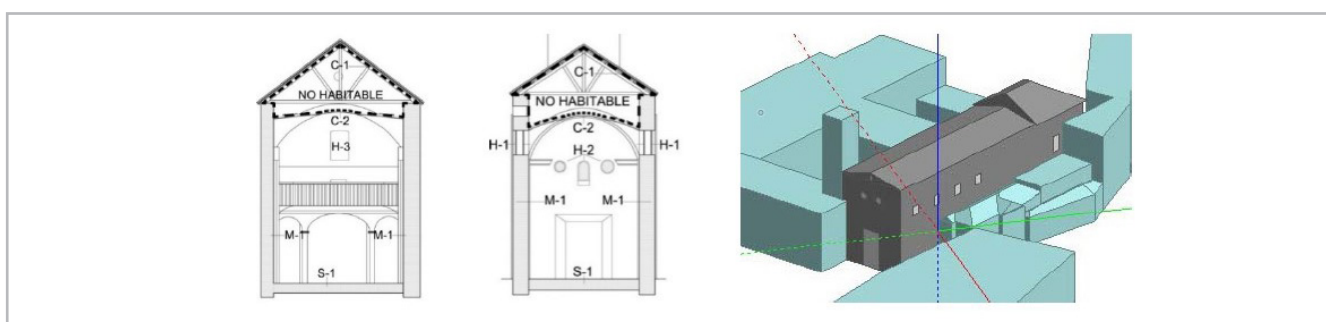


Figura 3.- Modelos tridimensionales. 1) Iglesia de San Francisco 2) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Merced 3) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Victoria.

Tabla 1.- Características constructivas de las iglesias

	San Francisco	Ntr. ^a . Señora de la Merced	Ntr. ^a . Señora de la Victoria
Muros externos	Mampostería y ladrillos	Mampostería y ladrillos	Mampostería y ladrillos
Bóveda	Piedra y madera	Piedra y madera	-
Cubierta	Tejas árabes, madera y cañizos	Tejas árabes, madera y cañizos	Tejas árabes, vigas de acero, artesanado de madera
Suelos	Mármol	Mármol	Mármol
Ventanas	Vidrio simple	Vidrio doble	Vidrio simple

Elaboración de modelos tridimensionales para la simulación del campo higrotérmico

El interior de estos espacios religiosos fue monitorizado para realizar un seguimiento del ambiente interior para proporcionar así datos objetivos para realizar una evaluación de diagnóstico del estado de conservación del patrimonio inmueble y mueble. Igualmente, uno de los avances en este estudio, fue que estos datos obtenidos de mediciones de temperatura del aire, temperatura superficial, humedad relativa y absoluta y velocidad de aire interior se utilizarían como referencia real para los procesos de validación de las simulaciones de modelos virtuales. Esto nos permitió, tener una herramienta fundamental dentro de la metodología aplicada a los criterios de diseño del acondicionamiento ambiental de edificios patrimoniales.

Los datos de monitorización se emplearon para generar los modelos de simulación informática, elaborando mo-

delos digitales tridimensionales de cada iglesia de estudio. Se realizaron varios modelos espaciales que reproducían cada iglesia y su entorno, desde el punto de vista geométrico, climático y constructivo, empleando el programa informático Design Builder.

Los modelos informáticos tridimensionales tenían un comportamiento higrotérmico muy similar al que había en la realidad. La validación de un modelo consistió en la comparación de los resultados simulados con los datos reales recogidos en un período de tiempo. La metodología de validación se basó en la comparación de un importante número de datos horarios registrados *in situ* con los resultados obtenidos de la simulación informática una vez generado el modelo. Un modelo era válido cuando la variación de las mediciones *in situ* y las del modelo virtual, difería menos de 1 °C de temperatura y 1.5 g/m³ de humedad absoluta durante el 95 % del tiempo y menos del 5 % de humedad relativa durante el 90 % del tiempo. Véase [figura 4]

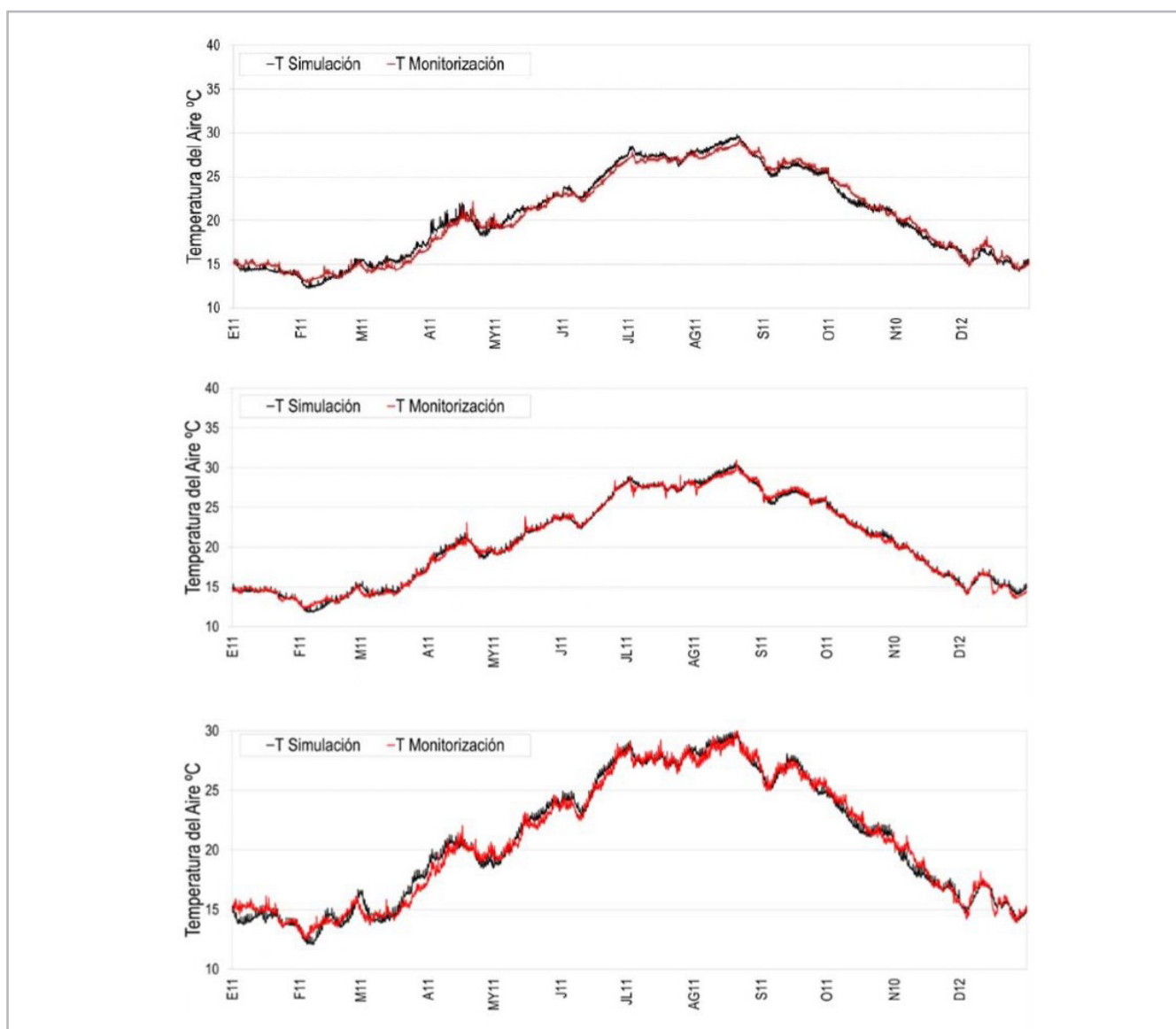


Figura 4.- Validación de modelo tridimensionales, temperatura del aire. 1) Iglesia de San Francisco 2) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Merced 3) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Victoria.

Resultados y discusión

A continuación, se muestran los resultados y el análisis global del comportamiento higrotérmico de la muestra en el caso de la aplicación de las técnicas ambientales activas y mixtas.

—*Monitorización y realización de mediciones in situ, proceso y valoración higrotérmica*

Las medidas higrotérmicas llevadas a cabo in situ en cada una de las iglesias objeto de estudio, nos permitió evaluar y caracterizar su comportamiento higrotérmico. Estos edificios se caracterizaban por presentar una elevada inercia térmica, derivada de sus sistemas constructivos. Asimismo, al estar rodeadas de otras edificaciones, la incidencia e influencia solar sobre sus cerramientos exteriores era mínima.

Las mediciones reflejaron que las diferencias de temperatura y humedad relativa interiores (valores promedios) no eran significativos, excepto en los meses más cálidos (finales de primavera, verano y principios de otoño). Véase [figura 5].

En verano, o cuando las temperaturas interiores eran más elevadas, la humedad absoluta interior aumentaba sensiblemente por la evaporación del agua contenida en el suelo y parte inferior de muros (humedad de capilaridad).

Los meses más fríos y en primavera la temperatura interior tenía una mayor incidencia sobre la humedad absoluta.

Igualmente, se caracterizó la temperatura radiante interior de la muestra de iglesias mediante el empleo de equipos de medida infrarrojas. En los ensayos realizados se observó que en invierno se producía un ligero gradiente térmico vertical en los muros que era apreciable principalmente a últimas horas del día. Esa diferencia de temperatura entre las partes baja y alta se debía a la estratificación del aire y a la influencia de la radiación solar sobre las cubiertas [figura 6]. La diferencia de temperatura oscilaba entre 0.5 °C. En verano, el gradiente térmico era más acusado entre las zonas altas y bajas de la iglesia, en torno a 2.5°C.

Como era esperable, los únicos flujos de calor significativos de la envolvente se observaban en los elementos constructivos de menor resistencia e inercia térmica: huecos de muros y cubierta.

En todas las iglesias se detectaron humedades de capilaridad en la parte baja de los muros que provocaban evaporación de agua y aumento la de la humedad ambiental interior.

El suelo de las iglesias era la superficie que presentaba una temperatura radiante más baja (entre 21 °C en verano y 14 °C en invierno). Esto generaba que, en verano, este elemento actuara como disipador de cargas térmicas y regulador de temperatura interior.

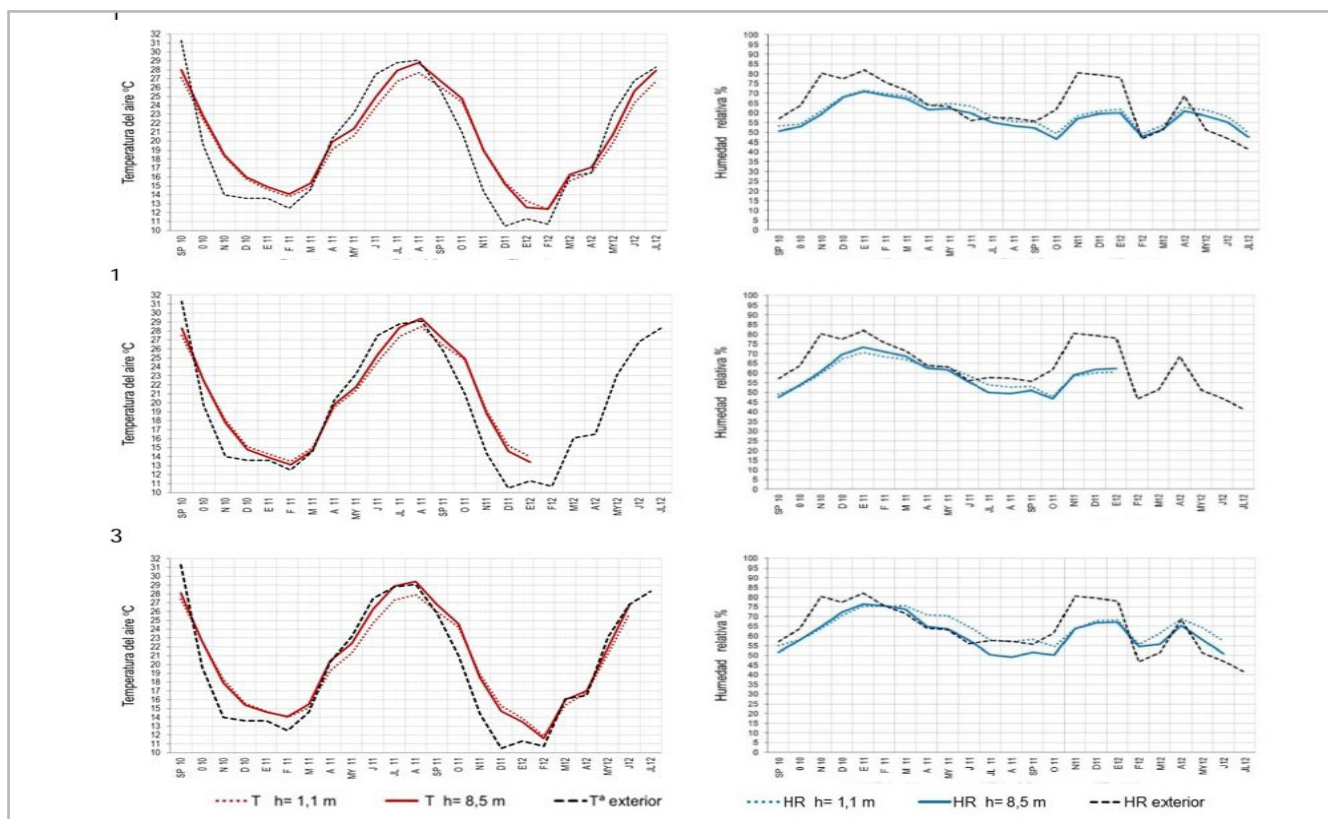


Figura 5.- Valores medidos de T y HR (Promedios mensuales). 1) Iglesia de San Francisco 2) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Merced 3) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Victoria.

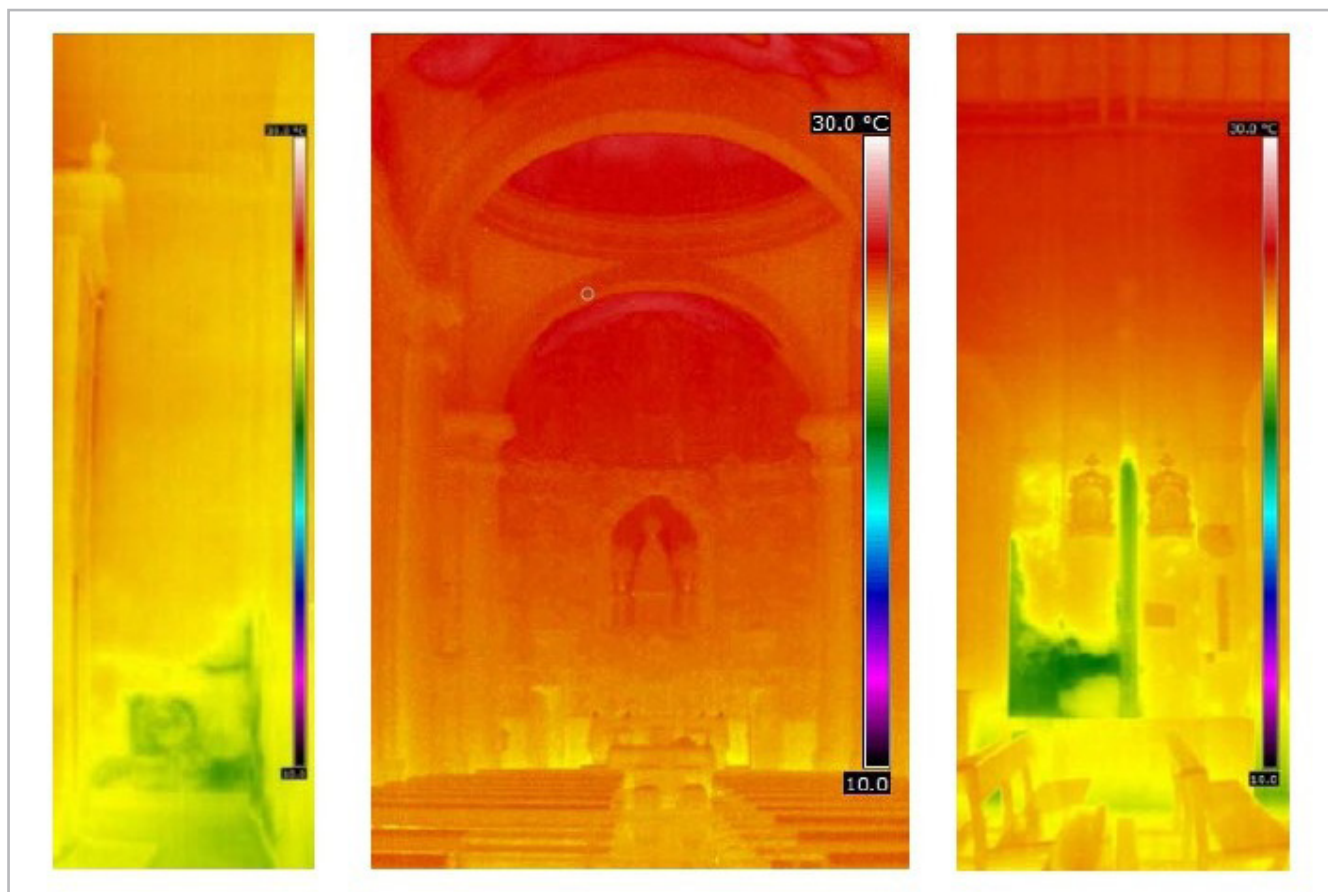


Figura 6.- Temperatura radiante en el mes de junio. 1) Iglesia de San Francisco 2) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Merced 3) Iglesia de Nª Señora de la Victoria.

IGLESIA SAN FRANCISCO DE ASÍS				
	OTOÑO	INVIERNO	PRIMAVERA	VERANO
Sin riesgo	19%	23%	15%	0%
Riesgo bajo	80%	77%	55%	88%
Riesgo alto	1%	0%	30%	12%
IGLESIA NUESTRA SEÑORA DE LA MERCED				
	OTOÑO	INVIERNO	PRIMAVERA	VERANO
Sin riesgo	24%	25%	20%	0%
Riesgo bajo	74%	75%	73%	98%
Riesgo alto	2%	0%	7%	2%
IGLESIA NUESTRA SEÑORA DE LA VICTORIA				
	OTOÑO	INVIERNO	PRIMAVERA	VERANO
Sin riesgo	14%	13%	6%	14%
Riesgo bajo	81%	87%	69%	81%
Riesgo alto	5%	0%	25%	5%

Tabla 2.- Porcentaje de tiempo en riesgo biodeterioro.

En cuanto al riesgo de biodeterioro del contenido mueble de las diferentes iglesias [tabla 2], el análisis de las mediciones in situ puso de manifiesto que durante los meses de primavera y verano era cuando tenía lugar los mayores periodos de riesgo al biodeterioro.

Igualmente, la pluviometría tenía una notable influencia en el aumento del riesgo al biodeterioro. En los años más lluviosos, el porcentaje de datos con riesgo alto al biodeterioro era mayor.

Del análisis del riesgo mecánico sobre el patrimonio mueble de las iglesias se concluyó que las desviaciones de la humedad relativa tenían una mayor incidencia sobre la preservación de las obras de arte, pues el porcentaje de tiempo en riesgo era mayor que en las desviaciones de temperatura. En general, las estaciones que presentan un mayor porcentaje de tiempo en riesgo, debido a las variaciones de la humedad relativa, eran otoño, invierno y primavera.

— *Elaboración de modelos tridimensionales para la simulación del campo higrotérmico y ajuste de los modelos informáticos a partir de las mediciones in situ*

Para validar los modelos de simulación higrotérmica en este tipo de edificios, fue básico fijar adecuadamente la

temperatura del terreno, ya que tenía gran influencia en los resultados. A diferencia de otros investigadores, que proponen considerar los suelos en contacto con el terreno como elementos adiabáticos, en el caso que nos ocupa se comprobó que cuando incluíamos este como adiabático no se validaban los modelos de simulación, especialmente en verano, ya que este componente constructivo actuaba como disipador de calor (Huijbregts, Schellen, Schijndel & Ankersmit 2015). Esto es una condicionante del clima, Mediterráneo, debido a las elevadas temperaturas en los meses de primavera y verano. Para poder validar los modelos de simulación, fue necesario medir in situ la temperatura superficial del suelo y fijar para el terreno una temperatura 2 °C por debajo.

La humedad contenida en los materiales de construcción, que es bastante frecuente en estas construcciones, dificultaba la validación de los modelos, ya que alteraba las condiciones ambientales por el efecto de evaporación del agua en el interior del edificio. Por ello, se consideró necesario utilizar herramientas que permitieran simular este efecto. Así pues, en edificios históricos que presenten humedad en los muros por capilaridad, es necesario utilizar herramientas de simulación que permitan variar la humedad absoluta.

— *Propuestas de mejoras del acondicionamiento ambiental de la muestra para la conservación y el confort térmico y simulación informática de las propuestas*

Las diferentes propuestas de estudio se dividieron en varios bloques, técnicas ambientales pasivas (conjunto de acciones de rehabilitación de la envolvente de la iglesia); técnicas ambientales activas (implementación de sistemas de climatización permanente).

En función a la evaluación de estas técnicas, las especificaciones ambientales para cada edificio tuvieron en consideración un amplio rango de materiales y sus combinaciones. La humedad relativa fue el parámetro más crítico en este campo y en consecuencia debía mantenerse en un nivel determinado tan estable como fuera posible. Al definir el límite del rango definitivo, se supuso las variaciones de HR para limitar daños mecánicos ocasionados por el microclima en materiales orgánicos higroscópicos de acuerdo con la Norma UNE-EN 15757 (UNE-EN 15757, 2011). Igualmente se fijaron los límites superiores para HR para evitar un biodeterioro por

mohos, pudriciones, insectos, etc. Finalmente, según las normativas anteriores y la UNE-E-EN 15759-1 (UNE-E-EN 15759-1 2012) se establecieron los siguientes valores:

El modo de funcionamiento de los diferentes sistemas de climatización vino determinado principalmente por la necesidad de encontrar un equilibrio entre los requisitos para la conservación y el confort térmico, el tipo de utilización del edificio y la eficiencia energética. Los tipos de funcionamiento propuesto fueron los siguientes:

Funcionamiento 24 horas: El objetivo era proporcionar un microclima especificado de forma permanente, durante todo el año. El sistema de climatización funcionaba las 24 horas del día.

Funcionamiento 12 horas: Se proporcionaba un microclima especificado durante un periodo de tiempo limitado. En este caso el sistema funcionaba sólo durante el día, de 9.00 a.m. hasta 22.00 p.m.

Funcionamiento régimen de uso de la iglesia: Proporcionaba unas condiciones ambientales adecuadas únicamente cuando se utilizaba la iglesia, durante la celebración del culto. Debido a la inercia térmica de la iglesia, los sistemas debían encenderse al menos una hora antes de que comenzara la misa.

— *Análisis y valoración de las condiciones ambientales tras la implantación de técnicas ambientales*

Después de aplicar y combinar distintas técnicas ambientales pasivas y activas se observó que las propuestas de acondicionamiento ambiental que solían llevarse a cabo en los espacios religiosos situados en zonas climáticas más frías (norte y centro de Europa), no tenían la misma validez de aplicación en climas templados (clima Mediterráneo), debido a que las primeras estaban orientadas básicamente para condiciones extremas durante invierno.

Las distintas técnicas ambientales pasivas consideradas en esta investigación no garantizaban el confort a lo largo de un año, especialmente durante las estaciones de invierno y primavera. Las propuestas de rehabilitación que utilizaban exclusivamente técnicas ambientales pasivas no conseguían eliminar totalmente el riesgo mecánico y el riesgo al biodeterioro de los materiales que forman parte del patrimonio mueble.

Tabla 3.- Condiciones interiores de diseño para la conservación y el confort humano

Condiciones típicas	Temperatura operativa			Velocidad			Humedad relativa
	mínima	óptima	máxima	mínima	óptima	máxima	
Invierno	20	22	24	0,05	0,15	0,25	30-65%
Verano	23	25	27	0,1	0,25	>0,50	30-65%

Cuando se aplicaban simultáneamente varias técnicas pasivas se lograba paliar los efectos anteriores. La combinación que conseguía los mejores resultados para la preservación del patrimonio era la que contempla la utilización de doble ventana, aislamiento de las cubiertas (bóvedas o artesonados), aislamiento térmico de muros y suelo.

Las intervenciones que incorporaban aislamiento térmico en el suelo de las iglesias repercutían desfavorablemente en el confort térmico de los feligreses, ya que se eliminaba su efecto como disipador térmico durante gran parte del año.

La aplicación de técnicas ambientales activas, en combinación con las pasivas, en régimen de funcionamiento durante 24 h y 12 h, mejoraba las condiciones ambientales originales y disminuía el riesgo de degradación, no existiendo datos propicios para que se produjera el biodeterioro de los de las obras de arte.

Los sistemas activos estudiados que no realizan un control absoluto de la humedad interior (humectación o deshumectación), como era el caso de equipo autónomo, UTA (Unidad de Tratamiento del Aire) a dos tubos y solo ventilación agravaban la situación inicial, ya que los límites establecidos para este parámetro se superaban en primavera, verano y otoño, existiendo, por tanto, riesgo de deterioro del patrimonio mueble.

Cuando los sistemas activos de acondicionamiento ambiental actuaban únicamente cuando el edificio estaba ocupado (régimen de uso), existía riesgo de biodeterioro principalmente en primavera, en torno al 5% del tiempo.

El riesgo de daño mecánico sobre el patrimonio mueble de la muestra, no se producía si los sistemas activos funcionaban durante las 24 h, excepto en aquellos casos donde los equipos no controlan la HR, o cuya función exclusiva era la ventilación de las iglesias. Cuando el periodo de funcionamiento era de 12 h, existía la posibilidad de que las obras sufrieran daños mecánicos durante el 10%-15% del tiempo y con el funcionamiento en régimen de uso durante el 5% -10% del tiempo.

Conclusiones

Los edificios religiosos son una parte importante del patrimonio cultural, son documentos de nuestra herencia y tenemos la necesidad de preservarlos para el presente y para las futuras generaciones.

Las características esenciales de estos edificios son sus sistemas constructivos (antiguas técnicas de edificación); que no fueron diseñados como viviendas o como espacios de trabajo con un uso discontinuo, y que por su decoración son edificios vulnerables.

Originalmente, la mayoría de los lugares históricos de culto no estaban acondicionados, pero actualmente, estos edificios están siendo climatizados para proporcionar el confort térmico a los fieles y visitantes y para mejorar las condiciones del clima interior para la conservación de los edificios y de su contenido o para lograr una combinación de ambas. No obstante, los requisitos normales de climatización para el confort térmico pueden estar en conflicto con los de la conservación, y por lo tanto se necesita llegar a un equilibrio.

Muchos de estos recintos están siendo equipados de sistemas de acondicionamiento ambiental y, en muchos casos, de forma inadecuada. Así pues, para tratar estas cuestiones debemos cambiar la manera de intervenir en estos edificios existentes, de modo que reduzcamos los impactos negativos en su preservación y en el medioambiente.

Así que, con el fin de hacer frente a estos retos, se desarrolló una metodología que identificara el modo más adecuado de acondicionar estos espacios. La metodología utilizada en este estudio pudo evaluar la aplicación de técnicas ambientales pasivas y activas en las iglesias históricas localizadas en un clima Mediterráneo.

Con este trabajo de investigación se ha procurado contribuir en el aporte de soluciones a un problema funcional que se está produciendo hoy en día y donde las técnicas que se están aplicando no están presentando, en general, resultados óptimos. La aplicación de un método experimental contrastado permitió afirmar que la implementación de las propuestas de rehabilitación ambiental mejoraría las condiciones ambientales para la preservación del patrimonio y el confort humano. Igualmente, se pudo determinar el consumo de la instalación y estudiar previamente la viabilidad del sistema.

El presente trabajo, ha propuesto profundizar en el conocimiento del acondicionamiento higrotérmico de espacios religiosos para ofrecer a los técnicos competentes las pautas de diseño que le permitan predecir la conducta higrotérmica de estos espacios antes y después de la aplicación de técnicas ambientales.

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En el año 2008 finalizó sus estudios en la E.T.S de Arquitectura. Compaginando con el trabajo como arquitecta en estudios de arquitectura comenzó el Máster de Arquitectura y Patrimonio Histórico en el año 2008. Ese mismo año se incorporó como colaboradora en el Departamento de Construcciones Arquitectónicas I de la E.T.S.A. de la Universidad de Sevilla. Actualmente trabaja como profesora en del Departamento de Construcciones Arquitectónicas de la Universidad de Málaga y forma parte del grupo de investigación denominado TEP130: Arquitectura, Patrimonio y sostenibilidad: Acústica, Iluminación, Óptica y Energía, perteneciente al Plan Andaluz de Investigación, Desarrollo e Innovación (PAIDI). Ha trabajado como investigadora en varios proyectos de investigación desde el año 2010 hasta la actualidad, TECNOCAI-ACCIONA, Caracterización arquitectónica del parque de ascensores y su huella ecológica, SUB-UMBRA y Rehabilitar el Carmen, Plan de rehabilitación energética del patrimonio residencial malacitano. En el año 2012 comenzó su doctorado con mención internacional, el cual finalizó en 2016. Su trayectoria en el campo de investigación se ha centrado en la línea de Building, Environment & Energy, y especialmente en dos líneas: Energy Efficiency and Lighting.

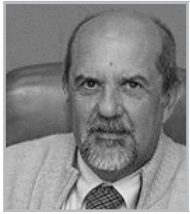


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Environmental degradation of Modern non-balanced glasses

Teresa Palomar, Alexandra Rodrigues

Abstract: Crizzling is an alteration pathology related to non-balanced glasses (high content of flux oxides and low content of stabilizer ones), which can produce an intense damage such as transparency losses, appearance of drops on the surface or cracking. In this study two case studies (outdoor and indoor environment) were presented. The main alteration agent for these glasses was the water (rain, condensation and environmental humidity). In the outdoor environment, the rain washed away the $[\text{OH}^-]$ ions formed during the alteration; however, the exposure to cyclic conditions accelerated its alteration rate. In the indoor environment, early stages revealed to consist of an alkali leaching that concentrates on the surface, on specific areas, that were related to water adsorption and consistent with the weeping phenomenon. Cracking and flaking of the surface represents a later stage, occurring specifically in unbalanced compositions.

Keywords: Glass, crizzling, natural environment, degradation mechanism

Degradación ambiental de vidrios modernos no equilibrados

Resumen: El *crizzling* es una patología de alteración relacionada con vidrios no equilibrados (con elevado contenido de óxidos fundentes y bajo de óxidos estabilizantes), que puede producir graves daños como pérdida de transparencia, aparición de gotas en la superficie o fisuras. En este estudio, se presentan dos casos de estudio (ambiente exterior e interior). El principal agente de alteración de estos vidrios es el agua (lluvia, condensación y humedad ambiental). En ambiente externo, la lluvia lavó los iones $[\text{OH}^-]$ formados durante la alteración; sin embargo, la exposición a condiciones cíclicas aceleró su velocidad de degradación. En ambientes interiores, se observó el estado inicial consistente en la lixiviación de los alcalinos a la superficie, en áreas relacionadas con la adsorción de agua y el fenómeno de *weeping*. La formación de fisuras y el desprendimiento de la superficie corresponden a un estado más avanzado que ocurre específicamente en composiciones no equilibradas.

Palabras clave: Vidrio, *crizzling*, ambiente natural, mecanismo de degradación

Introduction

Glass is usually related to a material with high chemical durability. However, its stability depends on the chemical composition and, therefore, the strength and distribution of the chemical bonds in the glass matrix.

Historical glasses are formed by a former oxide (SiO_2), flux oxides which decrease the melting temperature of the glass (Na_2O and K_2O), and stabilizer oxides which create bridges in the structure to increase the chemical stability (CaO and MgO). The presence of a low content of alkaline oxides, alkaline ions with low ionic radius ($\text{Li}^+ < \text{Na}^+ < \text{K}^+$)

and the replacement of alkaline ions by Ca^{2+} or Mg^{2+} induce a high structural packing of the glass that favors their chemical durability (Fernández Navarro 2003). However, if the chemical composition of the glass is not balanced (high content of flux and low content of stabilizers), the chemical resistance decreases, accelerating the degradation rate. These low stable formulas can be due to an incorrect production technology, an over-purification of raw materials or a wrong batch formulation (Kunicki-Goldfinger 2003).

Another important factor for glass alteration is the environmental conditions. In outdoor environments, there are several factors that can react with the glass surface. The

most aggressive ones are rain, wind, pollution, and aerosols (Woisetschläger *et al.* 2000; Munier *et al.* 2002; Melcher and Schreiner 2005; Melcher *et al.* 2008; Gentaz *et al.* 2011; Lombardo *et al.* 2014; Palomar *et al.* 2018; Palomar *et al.* 2019). In an indoor environment, these alteration agents are minimized; however, high environmental humidity and volatile organic compounds (VOCs), mainly the formic acid from the wood of the furniture, can accelerate the alteration mechanism.

The non-balanced glasses are especially susceptible to be altered. Their fast degradation frequently produces transparency loss, color change, the appearance of drops on the surface, salts, alteration layers, cracking, peeling and fracture, among others (Kunicki-Goldfinger 2008). This process, denominated crizzling, has been observed in soda, potash, mixed-alkali and lead silicate glass with low content of CaO and MgO, and predominantly in glasses from the 17th to 19th centuries from Italy, UK, and Central Europe. The crizzling is a severe pathology on glasses, observed generally in indoor environments; however, it can be also produced in external environments.

The main objective of this study is to characterize the effect of two different atmospheres on historical unbalanced glasses. For that, two sets of historical samples from the Cathedral of Girona, Spain (outdoor environment) and Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga (MNAA), Portugal (indoor environment) were characterized and compared.

Characterization techniques

The glass samples studied were characterized by the following techniques: optical microscopy (OM), X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectrometry, and micro energy dispersive XRF, besides visual inspection.

OM was carried out by a Leica MZ16 reflected light microscope equipped with a Leica DC300 camera for Girona samples. The microscopic documentation in the case of MNAA replica samples was carried out using a light microscope (Axioplan 2, Zeiss) with digital camera (Nikon DMX). The whole surface area was observed in order to identify surface features.

For Girona samples, semi-quantitative chemical analysis by XRF was carried out by a PANalytical Axios wavelength dispersed X-ray spectrometer equipped with a tube of rhodium of 4 kW and 60 kV. Analytical determinations were undertaken through the standard-less analytical software IQ+ (PANalytical) based on fundamental parameters from synthetic oxides and well-characterized natural minerals. In addition, Sheffield glass nos. 7 and 10 (Society of Glass Technology) are commonly used as internal routine control standards. Powder samples (1 g approx.) for bulk XRF analysis were prepared by grinding body glass fragments, with their most external surfaces removed by polishing, in an agate mortar. After that, pressed boric acid pellets were

made, using a mixture of n-butylmethacrylate and acetone (10:90 wt. %) as binding medium. This methodology agrees with the recommendation of the *Corpus Vitrearum* for the stained-glass analyses.

For MNAA glassworks, the analyses had to be done in situ in the museum, by non-invasive techniques such as portable micro-X-ray fluorescence (μ -EDXRF). The analyses were therefore achieved using a portable spectrometer ArtTAX 800, Bruker (Billerica, MA, USA). It operates with a molybdenum (Mo) X-ray source, focusing polycapillary lens and electro-thermally cooled xFlash (Si drift) detector, with 170 eV resolution. The accurate positioning system and polycapillary optics enabled a small area of primary radiation (70 μ m) at the sample. The excitation and detection paths can be purged with helium to allow the detection of low Z elements down to aluminium. Spectra were acquired under the following conditions: voltage 40 kV, intensity 0.6 mA and live time of 360 s. Helium purging was used to allow the determination of elements down to aluminium. Each glass was analysed in (at least) three different areas. Quantitative analyses were carried out with the WinAXIL program, making use of spectra obtained from glass standards (A, B, C, and D from Corning Museum of Glass, Corning, NY, USA). All CMOG glass standards were used to validate the quantitative procedure.

In-depth characterization of the corrosion processes were obtained with the production and use of replica samples, with similar composition to the historical materials. The methodology used for this study was adopted in VICARTE (Glass and Ceramics for the Arts) Research Unit since 2012 (Rodrigues *et al.* 2014), where through historical techniques – by blowing and fire-polishing the surfaces – they become as close as possible to the real historic ones. This revealed to be an important factor for the understanding of the alteration of these surfaces in the initial state, hence the composition of the glass surface is considered, as well as the chemistry of surface layers formed during the glass samples production.

Case Studies

—Crizzling in an outdoor environment: Cathedral of Girona

The stained-glass rose window “La Asunción de la Virgen María” (“Assumption of the Virgin Mary”) is located in the west façade of the Cathedral of Girona since the 18th century. According to some documents from the cathedral, their glasses were imported from Venetia (Italy) (Palomar *et al.* 2011; Palomar 2013).

All the analyzed samples presented an advance state of alteration on their external surface. They showed several fissures and crystalline deposits inside some cracks [figure 1 a]. Even, the accumulation of deposits raised the dealkalinized areas that caused their detachment [figure 1 b]. The morphology of the cavity, with conchoidal form,

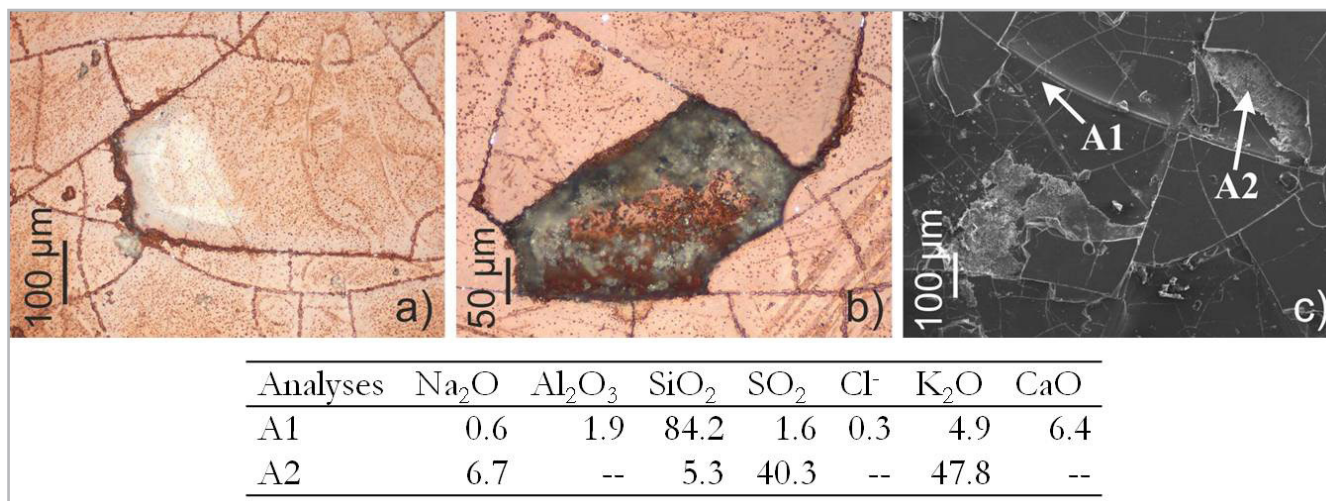


Figure 1.- a) Salts inside the fissures, b-c) detachment produced by salts growth. The attached table shows the results of the EDS microanalyses (wt. %).

pointed out that the detachment was mechanical instead of chemical, where the alteration front use to be continue or semispherical (Palomar 2018). It was also observed new fissures inside some cavities as result of the recurrence of the degradation process. The cracked surface presented a high content of SiO₂, result of an advanced state of dealkalinization, with crystals of K₂SO₄ [figure 1 c]. The formation of this salt was due to the reaction of the K⁺ ions leached from the glass and the SO₂ from the polluted environment. K₂CO₃ was not detected because it has a higher solubility in aqueous solutions than K₂SO₄ (Palomar *et al.* 2017).

Regarding the surfaces exposed to the indoor environment, the surface of the sample G1 was completely fissured, as the outdoor surface, instead of the other three glasses that showed a net of aligned pits [figure 2 a and b]. This uncommon pathology could also be related to the same alteration mechanism but in a lesser degree. The humidity and condensation inside the building produced the dealkalinization process. The tensions between the silica gel layer and the bulk glass were liberated forming fissures. In this indoor environment, the fissures can trap the condensed humidity creating a stationary state inside them. The basic species formed inside the fissures as result of the alkaline attack caused the dynamic breakage of the glass, which forms the aligned pits (Palomar and Llorente 2016).

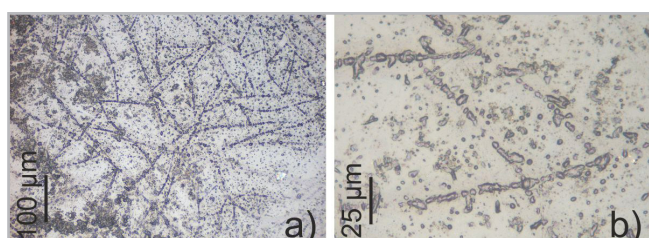


Figure 2.- a-b) Net of aligned pits.

This different mechanism is directly related to the chemical composition of the glasses. All of them were potash-lime silicate glasses with a high content of K₂O (~23 wt. %), SiO₂ (~65 wt. %), and relatively low content of CaO (~ 5 wt. %) [table 1]. However, small differences in their proportions are responsible for their different degree of alteration. The sample G1 has a higher ratio of alkaline oxides and silica ([K₂O+Na₂O]/SiO₂ = 0.42) and the highest ratio between the potash and the calcium oxides (K₂O/CaO = 4.72). This relatively higher content of alkaline oxides introduced several points of reticular discontinuity that promote hydration and surface dealkalinization, accelerating the degradation process.

Table 1.- Chemical composition of the stained glasses from the Cathedral of Girona

Samples	Chemical composition (wt%)				
	Na ₂ O	SiO ₂	K ₂ O	CaO	Others
G1	2.26	62.71	24.01	5.09	5.93
G2	2.20	66.69	22.60	5.29	3.22
G3	1.41	64.55	24.36	5.19	4.49
G4	2.16	67.51	21.68	5.89	2.76

—Crizzling in an indoor environment: Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga (Portugal)

The glass objects in Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga (MNAA), Lisbon, Portugal, presented a high variability of compositions. The case study of the group of glassworks collected by Ferdinand II of Portugal is an especially valuable one. This collection represents a chronology which spanned many centuries, as well as multiple and widespread European production centers (Rodrigues and Martinho 2015). The glass objects with unbalanced compositions in this case were selected from 17th and 18th century productions, both Na- and K-rich compositions from the Venetian (or *façon de Venise*) and Bohemian types.

These unbalanced compositions exposed to an indoor environment presented signs of alteration. Museum objects, both with high Na₂O and K₂O content, evidenced weeping and crizzling of the surfaces [figure 3 a-d].

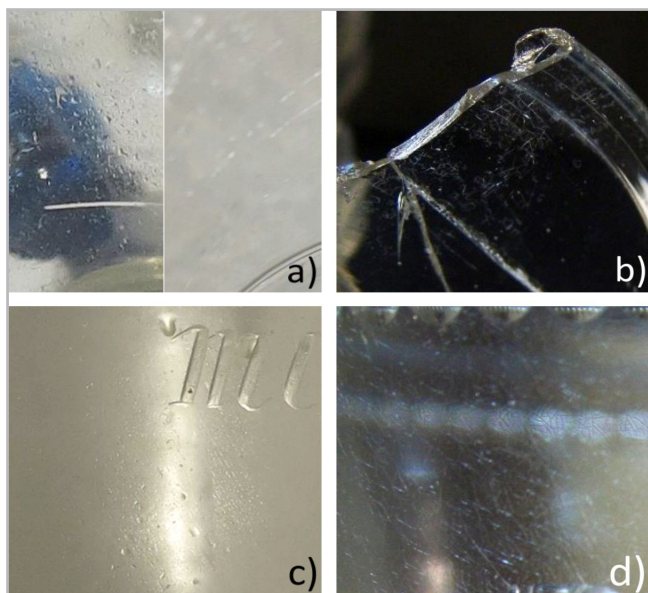


Figure 3.- a) Weeping (droplets on the surface, left) and crizzling (cracking of the glass, right) on object MNAA1074vid, a Na-rich glass; b) crizzling on object MNAA1079vid, a Na-rich glass; c) weeping phenomenon on MNAA1009vid, probably K-rich glass; d) crizzling phenomenon on MNAA 1043vid, a K-rich glass with PbO.

Due to the impossibility to observe these glasses under the OM, or to perform more invasive analyses, some compositions similar to analyzed glasses were replicated [Table 2] and aged under museum-like conditions (45%, 55%, 65% and 75% RH and room temperature) for the understanding of the early stages of the alteration processes.

The observations made under OM [figure 4 a and b] revealed that in the early stages (1 year exposure), the formations on the surface were consistent with the weeping phenomenon, which often precedes the crizzling (Koob, 2006). This occurred to both Na-rich and K-rich glass types, although to different extents. No crizzling was observed in these early stages.

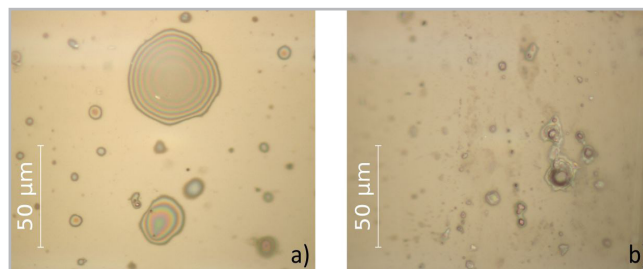


Figure 4.- OM analyses to the MNA replica materials aged over 1 year. a) Na1 glass; b) K1 glass.

It seems that the cracking and flaking of the surface represents a later stage in an indoor environment, occurring specifically in unbalanced compositions. Moreover, crizzling was also more visible after washing, such as it was in the case of MNAA1079vid [figure 3 b]. When no run-off occurs (indoor environment), the alkaline species can still be partially retained in the alteration layer (Alloteau *et al.*, 2017). If some run-off occurs or if the surfaces are washed, leached and probably even partially retained alkali is removed from the surface. The μ -EDXRF analyses performed on the surface of MNAA1079vid and MNAA1043vid clearly evidence a decrease in the alkaline species concentration, and an increase in silica (to around 80 wt. %, which could not have been the original glass composition) [table 3].

Table 2.- Chemical composition of the glassworks and replica materials from MNA, Lisbon.

Samples (n=3)	Chemical composition (wt%)				
	Na ₂ O	SiO ₂	K ₂ O	CaO	Others
MNAA1079vid	13.8*	79.0	2.73	3.47	1.0
Na1	17.2	70.5	3.00	5.00	4.3
Na2	14.8	70.5	3.15	5.25	6.3
MNAA1043vid	n.d.	80.0	7.5	1.9	10.6**
K1	-	69.1	18.0	3.5	9.4**

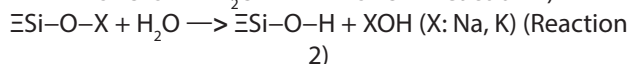
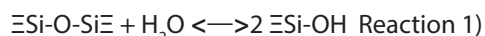
* - both Na₂O and MgO, obtained through μ -XRF semi-quantification. /** - includes addition of PbO /n.d. - not detected /S - replica materials were produced taking into consideration that the historic glass surfaces analyzed were depleted in alkali and enriched in SiO₂, as can be seen in the analyses in Figure 1

Table 3.- Chemical composition of two very different areas of the surface of the glasswork MNAA1079vid.

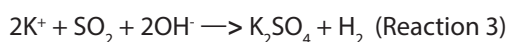
Samples (n=1)	Chemical composition (wt%)						
	Na ₂ O	SiO ₂	K ₂ O	CaO	Others		
MNAA1079vid	Min. values	More leached	5.7	84.8	2.7	3.5	3.3
	Max. values	Less leached	14.1	78.3	2.7	3.5	1.4

Discussion

In both environments, water was the main alteration agent of the unbalanced glasses. The rain (outdoor environment), the condensation water and the high humidity (indoor and outdoor environments) favor the leaching of the alkaline oxides from the glass lattice by the hydrolytic attack (Reaction 1) and the ionic exchange (Reaction 2). As result, a hydrated surface layer and drops of alkaline hydroxide were formed on the surface.



In an outdoor environment, the rainwater can wash the leached ions (alkaline, alkaline-earth and hydroxyl ions) from the glass surface. The removal of hydroxyl ions favors the maintenance of a neutral pH in the glass surface (Palomar *et al.* 2019). In addition, during the drought periods, the alkaline ions leached from the glass can react with the atmospheric gases (CO_2 , SO_2 , NO_x), solubilized in rainwater to form crystalline deposits (Reaction 3) (Melcher and Schreiner 2006).



In the indoor environment, the accumulation of the species $[\text{OH}^-]$ in the surface can cause two different alteration mechanisms. In a humid environment, the hygroscopicity of the alkaline hydroxide (KOH and NaOH) can attract more water accelerating the ionic exchange and the hydrolytic attack (Reaction 1 and 2) (Rodrigues *et al.* 2018a; Rodrigues *et al.* 2018b) and, therefore, the advance of the alteration layer to the glass bulk. However, if the content of $[\text{OH}^-]$ ions increases $\text{pH} > 9$, the siloxane bonds can be broken by the alkaline mechanism (Reaction 4). In both situations, the result is the formation of a thick alteration layer on the glass surface, and, in the worst scenario, it can produce the complete loss of the piece.



If the altered glass piece is moved to an environment with lower humidity, the alteration layer could be fissured and cracked, favoring the detachment of the external layer [figure 1 b] and the drying of the surface drops. If salts are crystallized inside the fissures, they could force the cracks progression and the layer detachment.

In a more controlled and mild environment such as a museum, the evolution of the deterioration processes over time is dependent on the equilibrium (or fluctuations) of the humidity, temperature and its influence to a certain composition. On the other hand, the composition can be determinant for the reactivity with the water in the surrounding environment. This occurs since the hydration of the glass is much dependent on the alkali content (Reaction 2) and type (energies of complexation and

hydration vary) (Alloteau *et al.*, 2019). Due to the lack of washing away of the $[\text{OH}^-]$ ions trapped in the H-bonding network (or of their precursor H_2O species H-bonded to non-bringing oxygens), a self-catalytic effect of the system towards hydrolysis can sometimes occur (Alloteau *et al.*, 2019). This is enhanced if the alkali content is high, since H-bound species are found in the alkali vicinity. Moreover, if not followed by repolymerization or rearrangement of the structure – being some structure more prone to form a passivation layer than other –, the leaching of the alkali ions can likely contribute to the opening of the porosity of the network and/or to the entrance of more environmental water molecules attracted to the surface by the leached species.

Conclusions

Glasses with unbalanced composition (flux vs. formers and stabilizers) are very susceptible to environmental agents, mainly the water (rainwater, condensation, and humidity). The excess of alkaline oxides and the low percentage of calcium and magnesium oxides in these glasses favors the ionic-exchange mechanism between the environmental water and the alkaline ions from the glass, which favors the formation of a silica gel layer on the surface. In an indoor environment, alkaline drops are formed and they stay on the surface favoring the alkaline attack, capable of breaking the siloxane Si-O-Si bonds in the glass. However, in outdoor environment, the contact with the rainwater is higher but it also removes the basic species. The formation of salts in dry atmospheres is also dangerous since they can force the detachment of the external alteration layer.

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Laser-Induced Fluorescence mapping of pigments in *a secco* painted murals

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Abstract: Laser-induced fluorescence is a remote analysis tool, successfully applied to real-time diagnosis of historical artworks, allowing the observation of features invisible to naked eye, as traces of retouches or presence of modern consolidants. Aim of the present paper is to introduce an historical database of pigments with respective binders and consolidants, realized to support the remote identification and mapping of these materials onto a mural in the least invasive way. To this aim, a monochromatic ultraviolet laser source emitting at 266nm with remote scanning has been used in combination with reflectance. Wall painted models have been built with *a secco* technique according to traditional recipes of XVII century. Digital image analysis, principal component analysis and spectral angle mapping have been carried out on data to get the mapping of two selected pigments, blue smalt and red carmine, in a real mural painting (XVII century). This non-invasive technique allowed us to operate remotely, a distance up to 11 m from the artwork. Results are consistent with traditional microanalysis performed to identify major pigments.

Keywords: Laser Induced Fluorescence, *a secco* technique database, surface mapping of pigments, smalt and carmine, non-invasive technique, cultural heritage application

Mapeo de fluorescencia inducida por láser de pigmentos *a secco* de pintura mural

Resumen: La fluorescencia inducida por láser es una técnica de análisis a distancia, aplicada con éxito en tiempo real para el diagnóstico de obras de arte, permitiendo la observación de características invisibles al ojo humano, como rastros de retoques o la presencia de consolidantes modernos. El objetivo de este artículo es generar una base de datos de pigmentos históricos con sus respectivos aglutinantes y consolidantes, realizada para respaldar la identificación remota y el mapeo de estos materiales en un mural de la forma menos invasiva posible. Para este objetivo, se ha utilizado una fuente láser monocromática ultravioleta que emite a 266nm con escaneado remoto en combinación con reflectancia. Se realizaron modelos de pintura mural en técnica *a secco* de acuerdo con las recetas tradicionales del siglo XVII. Análisis digital de imagen, análisis de componentes principales y mapeado de ángulo espectral ha sido llevado a cabo para obtener los datos de mapeado de dos pigmentos seleccionados, azul esmalte y rojo carmín en una pintura mural real (siglo XVII). Esta técnica no invasiva nos permitió trabajar de manera remota, a una distancia de 11 m de la obra de arte. Los resultados son consecuentes con los microanálisis tradicionales llevados a cabo para identificar pigmentos mayoritarios.

Palabras clave: Fluorescencia ultravioleta inducida por láser, base de datos de técnica *a secco*, mapeado superficial de pigmento, esmalte y carmín, técnica no invasiva, aplicación en patrimonio cultural

Introduction

Pigments characterization on different painted artwork surfaces has been already proposed by means of several optical and spectroscopic tools, among which there are reflectance (Acquaviva *et al.* 2008), micro-Raman (Bruni *et al.* 2002) and Laser Induced Breakdown Spectroscopy (LIBS) (Fotakis, Anglos & Couris 1997) techniques, utilized either alone or better in combination. However, their categorization based on invasive character and remote applicability, is the most various. In fact, LIBS and micro-Raman are mostly used

in-situ at short distance, being the former micro-destructive and only the latter non-destructive at commonly utilized laser powers. Currently only reflectance is suitable to perform a true non-invasive remote application. The development of additional spectroscopic techniques suitable to remote imaging is therefore advisable.

Laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) resulted a very useful tool in non-destructive analysis in Cultural Heritage (CH) for painted surfaces analysis including pigments with organic binders (Borgia *et al.* 1998; Fotakis *et al.* 1996) and

consolidants (Borgia *et al.* 1998; Fiorani *et al.* 2010). Former researches showed the successful application of this technique to identification of protein based media (Nevin & Anglos 2006; Nevin *et al.* 2006), pigment and acrylic resins (Domingo *et al.* 2001) and biological degradation (Colao *et al.* 2008; Lognoli *et al.* 2002;). The combination of LIF and Fourier Transform Raman Spectroscopy (FT-RS) was already proposed for pigments and patina investigations (Domingo *et al.* 2001; Oujja *et al.* 2012) and also time resolved operating mode was introduced to carry out specific diagnosis on painted surfaces (Comelli *et al.* 2004; Comelli *et al.* 2011). Fast remote scanning of large surfaces by LIF technique was already demonstrated (Cecchi *et al.* 2000), resulting in the major advantage of the technique whenever in situ measurements or sampling are not feasible. The state of the art on LIF application to material recognition and mapping in murals can be summarized as follows:

- Mapping pigments, whose identification is based on Raman or X-Ray Fluorescence (XFR) in situ measurements at selected points.
- Identifying and mapping consolidants, with support of time resolved LIF data acquisition and occasional combination with Raman in situ measurements at selected points.
- Mapping biodegradation with support of time resolved data acquisition and occasional combination local sampling and bio-chemical analysis for classification.

The equipment employed in this work for LIF (LidArt) is a lidar fluorosensor (optical radar detecting LIF signals (Lognoli *et al.* 2003)) capable to collect and spectrally analyse the fluorescence induced by ultraviolet (UV) laser on remote surfaces. It is suitable to fast process data by means of digital image analysis procedures (Carcagni *et al.* 2007) for an optimal space-resolved model (Colao *et al.* 2008) on artworks, in which chemical characteristics invisible to the naked eye are highlighted. Its first version, patented in 2007 (Colao *et al.* 2007) and 2010 with improved tools (Caneve *et al.* 2010), has been employed in the Baptistery of Padua (Fantoni *et al.* 2013). In its latter version this equipment allows to scan surfaces in reflectance and fluorescence mode until 30 m distance with a spatial resolution better than 1 cm, collecting respective hyperspectral images.

The huge amount of collected data implies the use of advanced statistical tools and digital image analysis to process the spectra. In this case, grey scale and false-colour images reconstruction, principal component analysis (PCA) (Rencher 2002) and spectral angle mapping (SAM) (Girouard *et al.* 2004; Rashmi *et al.* 2014) have been employed to process the data acquired on the scanned surfaces.

In spite of the large efforts spent to extract and identify significant features from an automatic image analysis, in some cases the complex structure of the examined painted surface can make difficult to select specific spectral features to work with: these are the cases in which it is worthwhile to

have at our disposal a series of reference spectra prepared according to historical recipes and restoration procedures. Preliminary studies on LIF of pigments following deep UV excitation were already conducted before the development of lidar fluorosensor systems, considering spectrally (Fantoni *et al.* 2000) and/or time resolved (Giardini-Guidoni *et al.* 2000) techniques. Organic molecules, characterized by the presence of conjugated double bonds, metal-aromatics cages, condensed aryl rings, usually have significant fluorescence fingerprints, although their emission wavelength and intensity can be strongly affected by the environmental condition (aggregation state, pH, etc.). This kind of molecules, usually soluble, are prevailing used as colorants in modern products (paints and inks), however a few natural derivatives (e.g. lakes from plants or animals) are well known colorants since the antiquity and are usually classified as organic pigments. Conversely the use of most inorganic pigments, except some of the modern synthetic pigments, date back to very early time in the past, even to the Palaeolithic age (e.g. iron oxides).

In spite of weak luminescence shown by most inorganic pigments alone upon near UV or visible excitation (Burrafato *et al.* 2004), a set of reference spectra prepared according to historical recipes for wall paintings can be extremely useful to support the identification of original materials and to investigate their distribution. Plaster, historically used binders and modern consolidants are indeed fluorescent upon deep UV excitation; the presence of pigments can give rise to additional bands or characteristic modulations in the detected emission due to selective re-absorption, with a mechanism which implies the pigment acting as a kind of "inner filter" (de la Rie & de la Rie 1982). A LIF database of historical pigments including non-fluorescing or scarcely fluorescing inorganic substances is useful provided that it takes into account these considerations.

The novelty in this paper is based on the realization of a database with LIF spectra of historical pigments, prepared according to traditional receipts, together with their binders in order to assess the possibility to map the distribution of pigments on real artwork painted surfaces, such as the one here considered as case study.

Methods and materials

—Experimental Apparatus

The lidar fluorosensor used for this study was already operated to collect hyperspectral fluorescence images of large artwork surfaces (e.g. frescos, decorated facades, paintings on different substrates) upon UV excitation either at 266 nm or at 355 nm (Fantoni *et al.* 2013).

The instrument detected the spectral LIF signature characteristic of different chemical compounds laying on the examined surface, including the effect of their mutual interference in the emission – re-absorption pattern,

thus producing a fingerprint suitable to identify different materials utilized on the surface, as needed in planning restoration. In the present work the instrument was operated at 266 nm, which does give rise to fluorescence for most surface coatings and background plaster.

The sensor is based on an imaging spectrograph (Jobin-Yvon CP240) coupled with an intensified charge coupled device (ICCD - Andor iStar DH734) as light detector. The prototype is able to scan an image of $0.7 \times 2.5 \text{ m}^2$ in less than 2 minutes when placed at 11.2 m average distance from the target.

The optical arrangement was characterized by having the spatial and spectral information on two mutually orthogonal directions imaged on the detector's sensitive area, with about 1 mm spatial resolution at 1 m distance and a spectral resolution better than 2 nm. In the setup used for the present measurements, the overall system specifications are: line scanning, horizontal resolution 640 pixels, 0.1 mrad angular resolution, minimum acquisition time per line 200 ms and field-of-view (FOV) aperture 5.7 deg.

In the utilized laser fluence range ($< 0.01 \text{ mJ/cm}^2$) the instrument does not produce any photo-damage on surfaces painted with the *a fresco* or *a secco* technique, as formerly tested in laboratory samples (Colao *et al.* 2008; Raimondi *et al.* 2015). The absence of any photo-degradation on known photo-labile samples (such as white lead paint (Raimondi *et al.* 2015)) in the present database was furtherly checked by optical microscopy inspection after the UV irradiation needed to process LIF signals.

Reference data are acquired by the LIF scanning sensor; the system setup was such to have a spatial resolution of approximately $3 \times 3 \text{ mm}$, and the samples in powder form were put in circular holder with a clear aperture 18 mm approx. In such a way we have not less than 20 spectra simultaneously acquired from the same sample and under the same excitation conditions. The average spectrum is computed as arithmetic mean to increase the S/N ratio.

This lidar fluorosensor can also acquire spectrally resolved reflectance spectra when an appropriate illuminating light is used; from this data a red-green-blue (RGB) reconstructed image in the visible range is produced. To operate in reflectance mode the laser is switched off, a halogen lamp with at less 1000W power is turned on and the optical detector shutter remains opened for the time needed to acquire the image. After calibration, the collected spectra can be used for the computation of standard CIE/lab colorimetric measurements.

—Operating modes

During the measurement campaign here reported, the system was sequentially operated in either modes: fluorescence and reflectance mode.

Off line processing of the acquired data is performed to take into account both the wavelength dependent detector efficiency and the spatially dependent collection efficiency. After the calibration we assume to produce images with an efficiency and spatial resolution that are nominally uniform in the entire examined spectral range.

—LIF Data analysis

The spectra have been studied by chemometric techniques (PCA) (Rencher 2002) and projection operators (SAM) (Girouard *et al.* 2004; Rashmi *et al.* 2014) and coupled to digital image analysis in order to permit a rapid mapping of the surface by emitted signal similarity.

Major spectral features in LIF spectra are identified by PCA. Although the principal components (PCs) do not possess any direct physical meaning, they can conveniently be described in terms of bands since the overall LIF spectra due to the presence of different surface constituents result from linear combination of PC with appropriate weights (scores).

In the present study PCA is aimed at the identification of prominent spectral features, thus avoiding a manual time-consuming examination of each single spectrum acquired. This procedure has the advantages to be fast and run in a semiautomatic mode, however it has the inconvenience to supply only a global analysis, possibly ignoring the local peculiarities lacking enough statistical significance to be represented in the considered PC. To overcome this drawback, a detailed local analysis can additionally be performed on subsets of the scanned areas, with a separate analysis of the PCs. Once identified, spectral bands are sought for in the acquired LIF spectra, completing the data analysis.

A different method used in the analysis of spectral images, concerns the identification of pixels having a specific spectral content. A typical case is the identification of a given constituent: such task is accomplished either by a band analysis based on spectral deconvolution, or by using spectral mapper algorithms as SAM. This case requires the availability of reliable reference spectra, possibly measured in an analogous matrix in order to account also for interactions among different painted layers. Although the mapper algorithms perform well with a low computational cost, their results based on a partial information are of course less accurate with respect to the complete band analysis procedures, and their application often follows the latter only once major features have been identified.

—Database models

Modelling of the wall painting with a secco technique has been performed according to researches carried out by

the Andalusian Institute of Cultural Heritage (IAPH) in the wall painted of Domingo Martínez from the XVII century (Gómez Morón 2008), relevant to the considered case study, and Cenino Cenini's recipes (Cennini 1859) widely used in the Renaissance and the successive periods until the end of XVIII century. The employ of linseed oil as a medium for mural painting was a common practise during the Spanish Baroque, being described this technique by Francisco Pacheco in his treatise *The Art of Painting* in 1649 (Pacheco 1871).

More than forty plaster models have been built in the laboratory to emulate the surfaces of these murals [figure 1] over a primer layer of gypsum. With this purpose, several bricks have been covered with a mixture of gypsum and sand with animal glue binder. The preparation was done with sand from Guadalquivir River (near to Seville) and gypsum in relationship 1:6. The sand has a fineness of $11.2 \pm 3.6 \mu\text{m}$. The animal glue (rabbit skin glue) was previously heated with a water bath to acquire a pasty consistency, and then it was added to the mixture gypsum/sand or to the gypsum until saturation

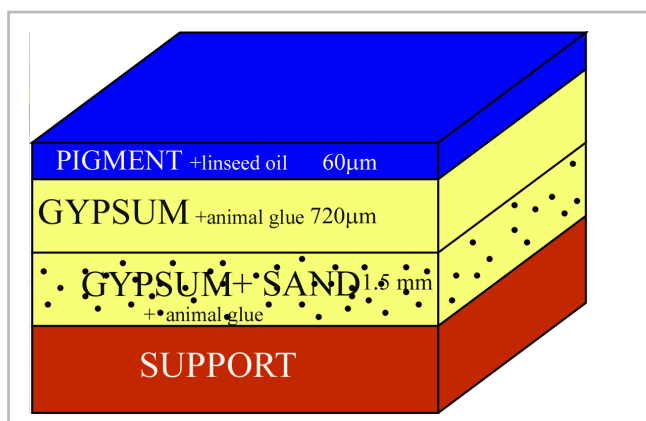


Figure 1.- Laboratory preparation of the plaster for a secco painted model scheme of composition and thickness of the plaster respective layers.

in the layer of plaster. The plaster layers were dried a room temperature for two weeks. These layers were the substrate upon which different pigments from KREMER historic pigments [table 1] and products from CTS Srl, have been applied with linseed oil. The colour layer was applied with pigment and linseed oil in ratio 3 (pigment): 1 (linseed). Each model has a surface near 15x5 cm, so it was possible to obtain their LIF signal signature in the considered matrix from the scanned surface. Table I shows the model samples, the mixture compositions and pigments are grouped according to their colours.

The bricks covered by the wall painted models were examined three months after preparation, in order to take into account at least fast aging effects. Note that the binder used, linseed oil in a layer of approximately 60 μm thickness, is known to be fluorescent upon UV laser excitation, giving rise to a spectrum that for the pure sample is slowly changing in intensity and peak position with ageing, where the early effects mostly correspond to blue intensity increase (Miyoshi 1985). For LIF spectral characterization the painted brick has been allocated in a vertical support and scanned at 7 m distance.

All samples listed in Table I showed significant luminescence signal in the examined near UV-visible range, with characteristic modulation (emission or re-absorption) which can be associated to pigments presence in the considered matrix. In order to show examples of the spectra collected, only those relevant to the examined case study (sect. 3.2) are reported in this paper, but the entire data set is available on line as additional material and can be consulted to evaluate the possibility of identifying a single pigment in the presence of others characterized by a similar colour in a real historical sample.

In order to possibly discriminate effects relevant to a specific pigment with respect to those related to

Table 1.- Colour, composition and pigments for Database of a secco technique wall painting models. All materials were applied on plaster, as described in the text, with addition of linseed oil. (*)

Layer color	Common or chemical name (id.#, Kremer order number)
No pigment	Plaster (P1); P1+ linseed oil (P2); P1+ benzyl gel (P22); P1+ tea (P23); P1+ Ammonium citrates (P24, P25); P1+ Paraloid B72 in nitrotoluene -15%- (P26); P1+ DMSO (P27)
White	Lead White (P3, 460009); Calcium White (P4, 58720); Lead Sulfate (P5, 46050); Lithopone (P33, 46100)
Yellow	Lead Tin Yellow (P6, 101009); Orpigment (P35, 10700); Naples Yellow (P17, P32, 431229); Massicot (P36, 43010)
Red/Organge/ Brown	Cinnabar (P7, P21, 10624); Haematite (P8, 48651); Carmine Naccarat made of cochineal (P9, 42100); Red Lead, Minium (P10, 425009); Armenian bole (P28, 40503); Raw Sienna (P11, P12, 40400); Realgar (P31, 10800); Madder Lake (P40, 372141)
Blue	Ultramarine Blue (P13, 45000); Smalt (P14, 10000); Lapis Lazuli (P15, 10500); Azurite (P16, 10200)
Green	Malachite (P18, 10300); Cyprus Green Earth (P29, 17400); Verona Green Earth (P30, 11000); Bavarian Green Earth (P38, 11100); Copper Resinate (P39, 12200)
Black	Manganese Black (P19, 47500); Verdigris (P34, 44450) Ivory Black (P20, 12000); Grape Black (P37, 12015), Furnace Black (P41)

(*) all spectra collected are available online as additional material

its presence in the considered matrix, the spectral acquisitions were repeated over layers of each pure pigment in powder. Samples were prepared by gently and uniformly pressing a few mm thick layer of each pigment powder in order to fill (2 cm² x 2 mm) cylindrical holes on aluminium foil used as holders, which were allocate at 7 m from LIF equipment for remote spectra collection. Comments on pure pigments spectra are reported here only for selected samples (ivory and furnace black, azurite and smalt blue, carmine nacarat made of cochineal, madder lake and cinnabar red) relevant to the real case studied in the on-site application.

—On-site application

On-site measurements were carried out in the vault of the Chapel Our Lady of Good Air that is part of the Palace of Saint Elmo in Seville, the residence of the president of the Andalusian Government. This Chapel of the XVII century had just been restored by the IAPH, employing different non-destructive techniques for diagnosis and restoration monitoring.

Namely, this work presents the application of LIF database to pigments mapping on the wall paintings the

Glorification of the Virgin from Domingo Martinez after its restoration.

Three images acquisitions were performed on the virgin silhouette [figure 2]; table II shows the image acquisition setting in each scan. The wall painting scanned area was about 2.5 m², while image size in pixel is 128 pixels in height and a variable number of pixels in width [table II].

Table II.- Image acquisition settings for three scans

Scans	1-2	3
Gate	500ms	500ms
Gain	230	230
Laser current	100A	OFF
Halogen lamp	OFF	2000W
Optical f-number	3	22
Spectral focus	UV-VIS	VIS
Back-ground	No	No
Lines	600	600
Scan width	11000	11000
Distance	11.2m	11.2m

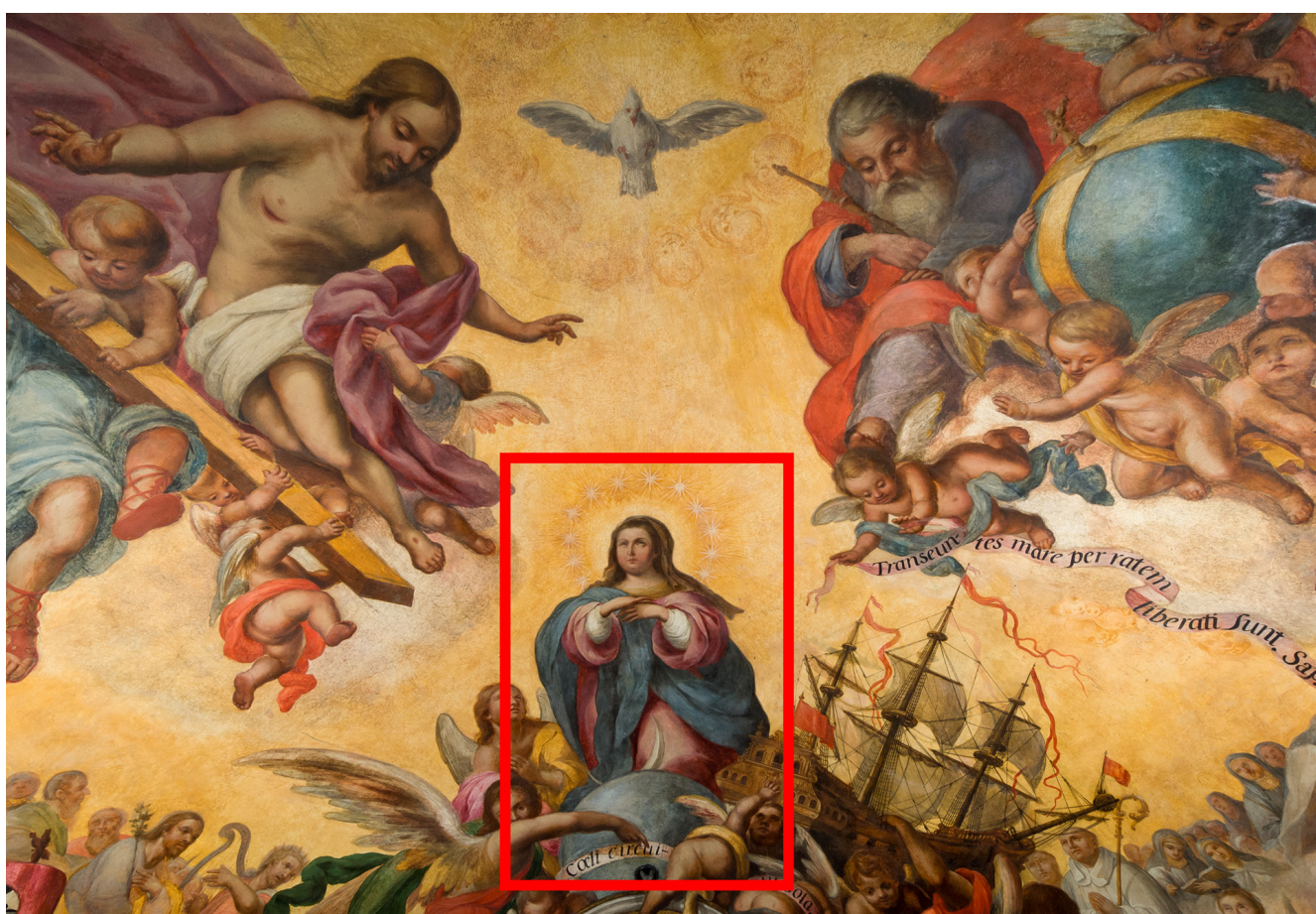


Figure 2.- Scanned zone of the vault of the Our Lady of Good Air (Seville).

— Traditional Analysis

To validate the results obtained, the LIF identification was compared with traditional analysis after the sampling performed following the recommendations of the standard UNE-EN-16085:2014 (AENOR 2014). Micrometer-sized samples were taken to analyse the pigment layers. Sampled specimens were examined by optical microscopy (OM), Scanning electron microscopy/energy dispersive X-ray (SEM-EDX) spectroscopy and X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) to characterize the substrate; Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and gas chromatography with mass spectrometry (GC-MS) were applied to the binder analysis and to detect occasional presence of modern resins used as consolidants.

It is worth mentioning that, twenty-two samples taken in the vaults correspond to less than 1 cm² of investigated surface and sampling required the installation of scaffolding, on the other hand the LidArt apparatus allowed to scan quickly near 7 m² without any damage to the murals and without any scaffolding.

Results and discussion

— LIF study on laboratory samples

The fluorescence spectra from sample models were collected upon laser excitation at 266 nm. Figures 3 A-F and 4 A-C show the spectra acquired on selected painted plasters, possible references for the case study discussed in the following, and on some involved pure pigments, respectively. The database with all the LIF spectrum of pigments/colorants on plaster with linseed oil has been enclosed as Annex 1.

The spectral emissions, once well distinct features are present, allow for the identification of different pigment/binder mixtures. From sample to sample we observed variations in absolute fluorescence intensity of more than one order of magnitude, however the signal to noise ratio was higher than 20 in all the reported measurements and normalized spectra are plotted.

In case of pigments layered on plaster [figures 3A-F] the fluorescence consists of a broad band centred at 450 nm

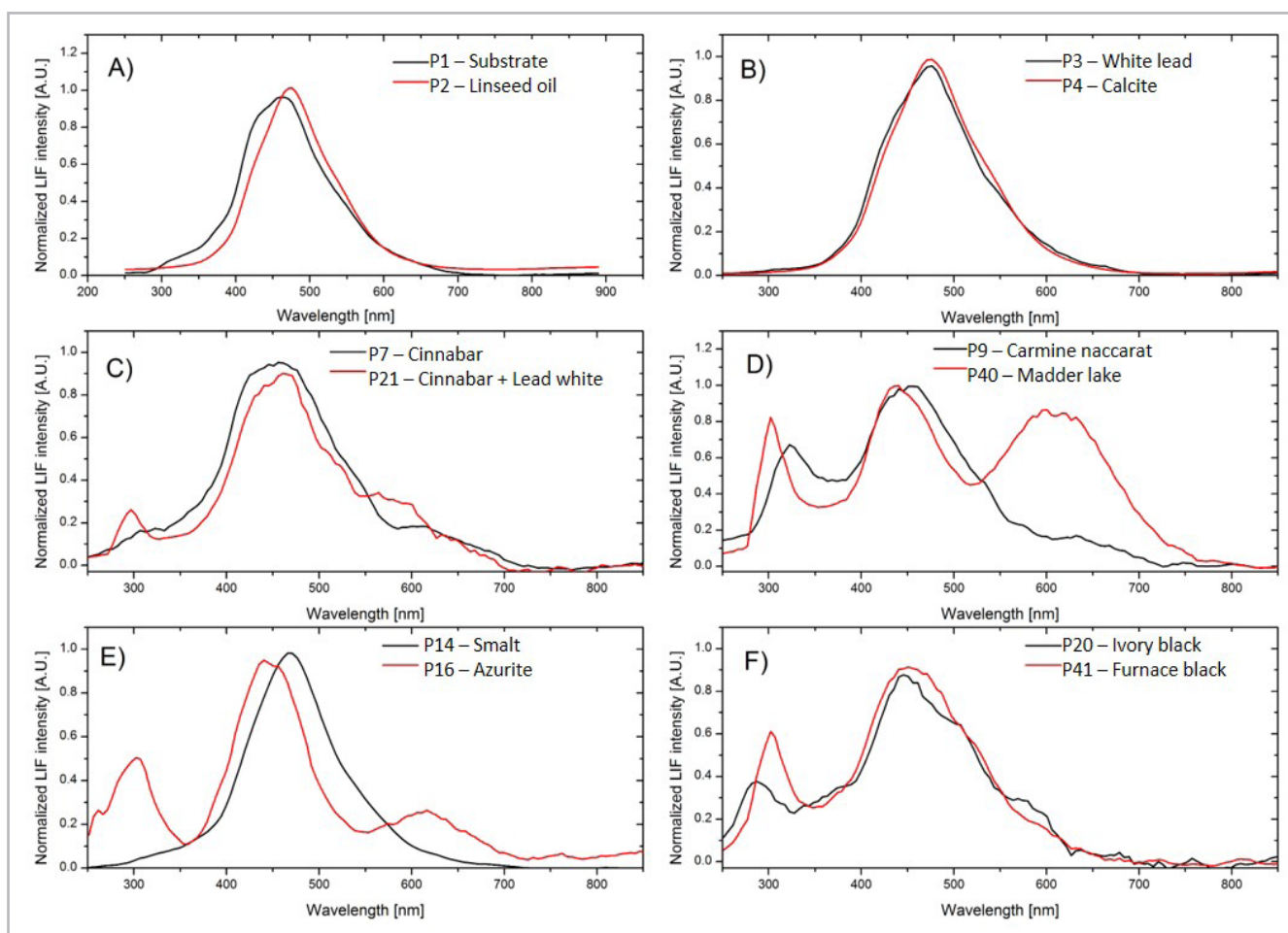


Figure 3.- Normalized LIF spectra of painted substrates: A – substrate samples: alone (P1, black line) and with linseed oil (P2, red line); B - white samples: lead white (P3, black line) and calcite (P4, red line); C - cinnabar samples: alone (P7, black line) and with lead white (P21 red line); D – red samples: carmine naccarat made of cochineal (P9, black line) and madder lake (P40, red line); E – blue samples: smalt (P14, black line) and azurite (P16, red line); F - black samples: ivory black (P20, black line) and furnace black (P41, red line).

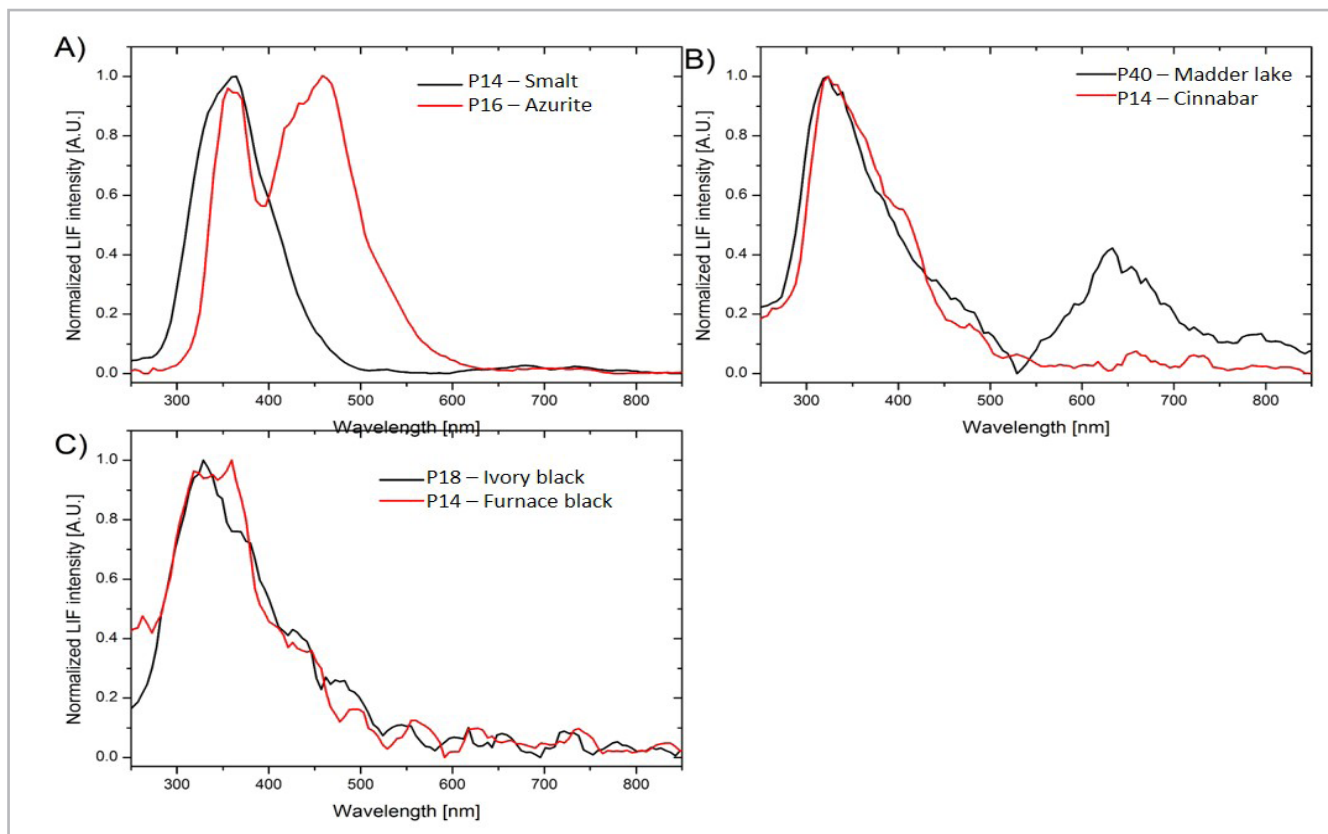


Figure 4.- LIF spectra of pigments in powder form: A - blue pigments: smalt (P14, black line) and azurite (P16, red line); B - red pigments: madder lake (P40, black line) and cinnabar (P7, red line); C - black pigments: ivory black (P20, black line) and furnace black (P41, red line).

and width of 200 nm. The substrate and binding media [figures 3A-B] contribute to the total fluorescence with a broadband emission; in particular the spectrum recorded for the substrate alone (curve P1 in figure 3A) shows an emission peaked at around 450 nm. From this observation we deduce that the main contribution to the emitted band is due to the fluorescence of matrix, that is due to the mixture of substrate (gypsum, quartz and calcite) and binding media (animal glue and linseed oil); over the matrix's band, other spectral emissions are due to the pigments and consolidant components.

As an example, figure 3A shows the difference from the white layer of the plaster alone (P1) and its overlap with the binder, linseed oil (P2); while the effect of the presence of calcite and lead white (P3 and P4) applied with linseed oil on the plaster is shown in figure 3B. In both figures the linseed oil application corresponds to a reduction in the intense plaster UV band peaked at 320-400 nm probably for a selective re-absorption (Verri *et al.* 2008; Simonot, Thoury & Delaney 2011). The presence of the considered white pigments, although causing some attenuation, does not seem to further affect the plaster spectral shape; although the lead white has a characteristic broad emission peaked at 400 nm (Giardini-Guidoni *et al.* 2000) which overlaps to the former.

Differences related to various pigment addition can be observed in figures 3 C-F. As a specific feature some

pigments, especially organic pigments such as different types of red, present an additional UV emission band peaked around 300 nm, which is missing for smalt and cinnabar. This band can give a strong indication of the presence of an additional pigment even in small quantity, for instance of lead white to obtain pink from cinnabar red [figure 3C]. The effect of a layer of cinnabar, added either pure or in mix with lead white (curve P7 and curve P21, respectively in figure 3C), is the presence of a characteristic weak band peaked at 610 nm according to Mounier *et al.* (2014), while the addition of white lead give rise to the mentioned UV band and causes some changes in the spectral zone between 450 and 500 nm and a significant reduction of intensity, with the observed increase in signal/noise ratio (SNR).

The spectra of red organic pigments, reported in figure 3D, show distinct features: madder lake samples (P40) has broad bands similar to those describes by Comelli *et al.* (2011) for madder lake (between 600 and 615 nm), while in carmine nacarat made of cochineal (P9) the intense band peaked at 610 nm is replaced by a significant broad shoulder with a maximum around 635 nm. This emission maximum is identified by Comelli *et al.* (2011) as an anthraquinone-based lake of animal origin, for example, cochineal or kermes. These spectral signatures would allow identifying between some red organic pigments and even its origin, although the remote fluorescence

cannot compete with micro-spectrofluorimetry coupled to chemometrics (Nabais *et al.* 2018) in the identification of manufacturing receipt. The relative intensity recorded on the red band between 610-640 nm is however in both cases larger than for the red band of cinnabar red, which is definitely peaked at a longer wavelength (around 650 nm).

Figure 3E shows the difference of spectral features between two inorganic blue pigments: smalt and azurite. Both pigments originate a broad band, not assigned, peaked between 400 and 500 nm. However, in the case of azurite this band appears blue shifted, it is accompanied by secondary emission at longer wavelengths and there is an emerging UV tail from plaster background. Thus, it will be possible to distinguish smalt from azurite. Discrimination of smalt from other blue pigments would be not so straightforward from LIF spectra alone (see supplementary material).

Figure 3F reports results for black pigments: furnace black (P41 curve) and ivory black (P20 curve). The weak spectra recorded in both cases are dominated by the rather uniform absorption of both pigments in the entire visible range (see again the SNR increase with respect to the plaster curve), the only distinct feature seems to be the most intense tail of UV emission peaked around 300 nm recorded for P41 (furnace black), which might be related to the plaster background, so it is difficult to carry out an identification.

From figures 3C-F we can conclude that each coloured layer, although characterized by a weak overall emission, has a spectral signature, as a fingerprint, resulting from the interaction between layers and components with different absorption/emission behaviour in the considered sample model.

The fluorescence observed from each of the pigments painted on the plaster substrate, closely follows what obtained in the measurements from the corresponding pigment in powder form (pure pigment) reported in figure 4, where it should be noticed the lack of the emission band typical of the plaster substrate.

On the powder pigments, despite the peculiar low SNR, some characteristic signatures appear in the visible at least for the considered blue and red colorants [figures 4A-B]. Note that the observed features are not system artefacts, as checked on Spectralon, a standard material which gave rise only to a flat background. The spectra of blue inorganic pigments, azurite and smalt respectively [figure 4A], present distinct features: the smalt spectrum has a single broad band at peaked 390 nm while the azurite shows a second band with comparable peaked at 480 nm. On the other hand, the black pigments considered appear undistinguishable also from their pure pigment spectra [figure 4C].

The difference between the red pigments: cinnabar and madder lake [Figure 4B] is fully consistent with what

observed in case of the same pigments with the binder on plaster, the second band of madder lake peaked at 610 nm emerging very clearly. Two different trends are consistently observed when the spectrum of pure pigments and layers are compared in all analysed samples: on one hand we observe a decrease of the fluorescence emission in the ultraviolet region between 290 and 400 nm on plaster samples, while on the other hand the band at 450-500 nm is modulated because of the simultaneous contributions from pigment emission/absorption and plaster emission. Spectral features emerge clearly on red tail where the plaster contribution is negligible.

These observations suggest that the presence of the substrate alter in a significant way the emitted spectrum related to pigment fluorescence. It is confirmed that an appropriate deconvolution is required to separate the contribution arising from different components, whenever it is possible. Alternatively, a database built with appropriate matrix is necessary to take in account re-absorption and other secondary effects. In fact, strong UV-visible absorption from some pigments may also be responsible for complex features, generating a lack of intensity that cannot be reproduced by a deconvolution based on a simple superposition of positive components.

Summarising, the fluorescence from the plaster alone for a secco technique wall painting, and from the plaster and binder plus pigments, was examined in different experiments, to isolate their spectral contributions in historical matrices. The emission feature of the plaster is an intense band at 450-500nm, and each mixture has an own spectra or fingerprint due to the contribution of different components on the layers. The reference spectra from our laboratory model [figure 3], containing ancient pigments and colorants with their binder on plaster, are proposed to be used as guidelines to select SAM endpoints on on-site wall painted scanned by LIF to discriminate the presence of pigments in the artwork under investigation. A quantitative agreement cannot be expected due to possible differences in the various historical receipts, to long-term aging effects and to possible presence of modern consolidant on the real surface which are known to alter the spectral signatures.

— LIF database application on-site

The application of the above described database was carried out on the vault of the Chapel Our Lady of Good Air in Seville (Spain) scanned by our LidArt prototype.

The interpretation of the spectra was simplified by PCA. Five PCs [figure 5A bottom left] show most of the variance of the spectrum in each point analysed of the surface. These PCs have relationship with the main chemical products presents onto the surfaces, they could be considered as a spectral signature (Fiorani *et al.* 2010) containing the spectral information needed to look for at

our pigments-on-plaster database. PCA shows a clear peak at 360nm due to the presence of acrylic products (Paraloid, database P26), as reported in former studies (Fiorani *et al.* 2010; Fantoni *et al.* 2013).

A significant tail on the red, extending above 600 nm in PC3, suggests the widespread presence of a red organic pigment. Other contributions, with signatures between 400 and 500 nm, that are more difficult to understand, require the use of our database with standards on plaster.

With this purpose a spectral analysis was carried out in fixed zones at different points of the images. Spectra collected in the standard database were utilized to perform a two-step mapping procedure based on the SAM algorithm projected onto the entire scanned surface, as described in the following.

The area studied was first digitalized in a false colour fluorescence image [figure 5A, top] in order to evaluate the spatial accuracy of the scans and to achieve an overview of pigments distribution. Internal reference spectra with characteristic signatures are shown in figure 5B-C (bottom). These spectra have been utilized as endpoints for SAM projections on the entire image with the purpose to better identify different areas. Two regions can be clearly identified [figures 5B-C, top].

Figures 5B-C (bottom) report the spectral signature associated to smalt blue peaked at shorter wavelengths [figure 3E curve P14] and carmine naccarat made of cochineal spectra, the latter characterized by the secondary long wavelength structure peaked around 410 nm [figure 3D curve P9]. The omitted fluorescence emission at 610 nm allowed us to discard the use of madder lake. Despite the evident contribution of a red lake of animal origin (i.e. cochineal), the presence of other red pigments, e.g. cinnabar with a weaker but broader red emission, cannot be ruled out with current LIF measurements.

Red and blue pigments maps [figures 5B and 5C top] match greatly with blue and red colours in the image [figure 2]. The first figure shows the use of blue pigment found in the mantle, meanwhile the second one demonstrates the use of red organic pigment mostly in the red robe, though it appeared also used in other zones as part of colour mixtures specially to create some contrast to the background. The possible identification of red organic pigment as lake of animal origin (probably cochineal) is consistent with the wall painting dating, because of the diffusion of the Mexican cochineal in European countries after the discovery of America (Cardon 2007), although it is well known that cochineal lake was previously used in Europe, for example, Polish, Armenian or Ararat cochineals (Eastaugh *et al.* 2004).

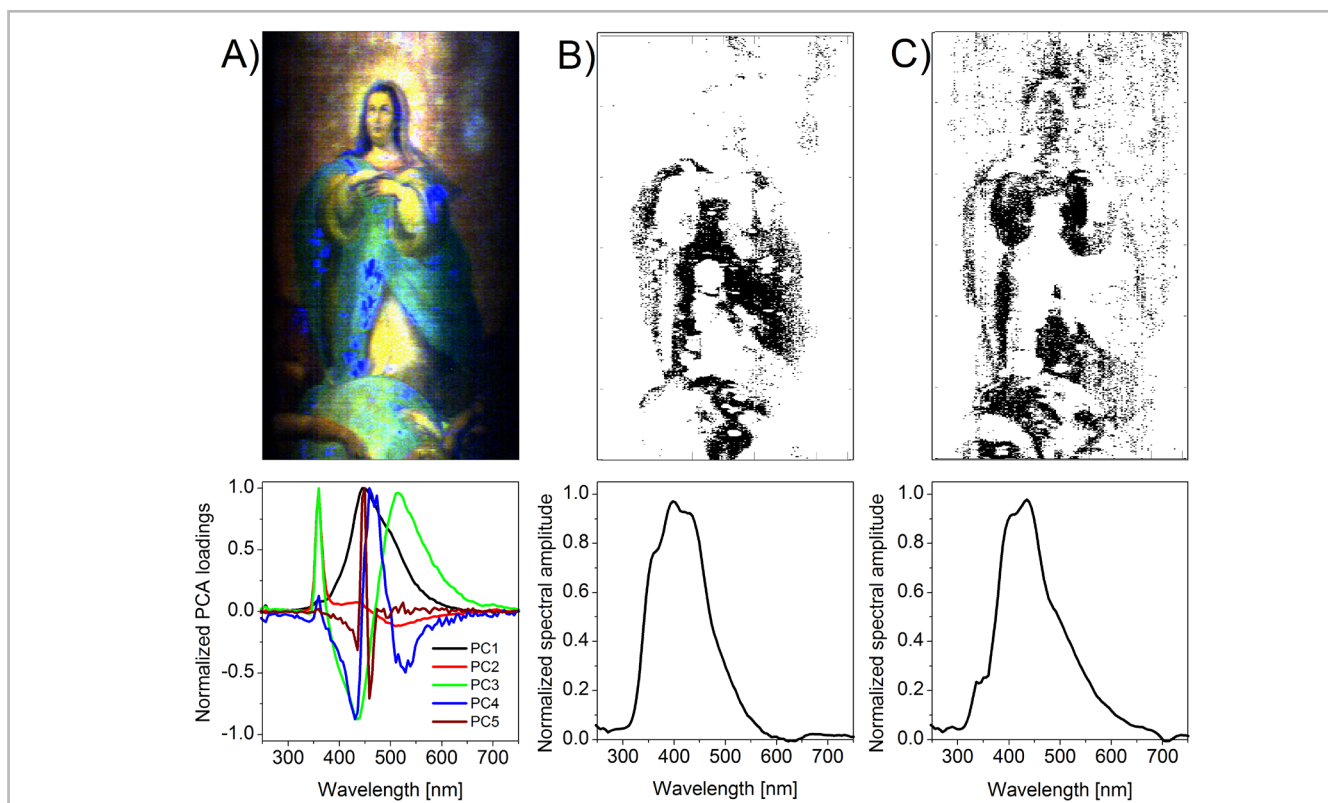


Figure 5.- Results from the fluorescence image analysis performed on the scanned wall painting representing the Glorification of the Virgin. A) top figure - RGB false colour image obtained by combining the fluorescence intensities emitted at 515, 445 and 360 nm; bottom figure - PCA of spectra from image; B) top figure - Similarity image mapping with SAM on blue pigmented areas (mainly blue smalt); bottom graph - endpoint spectrum for SAM; C) top figure - Similarity image mapping with SAM on red pigmented areas (mainly carmine); bottom graph - endpoint spectrum for SAM.

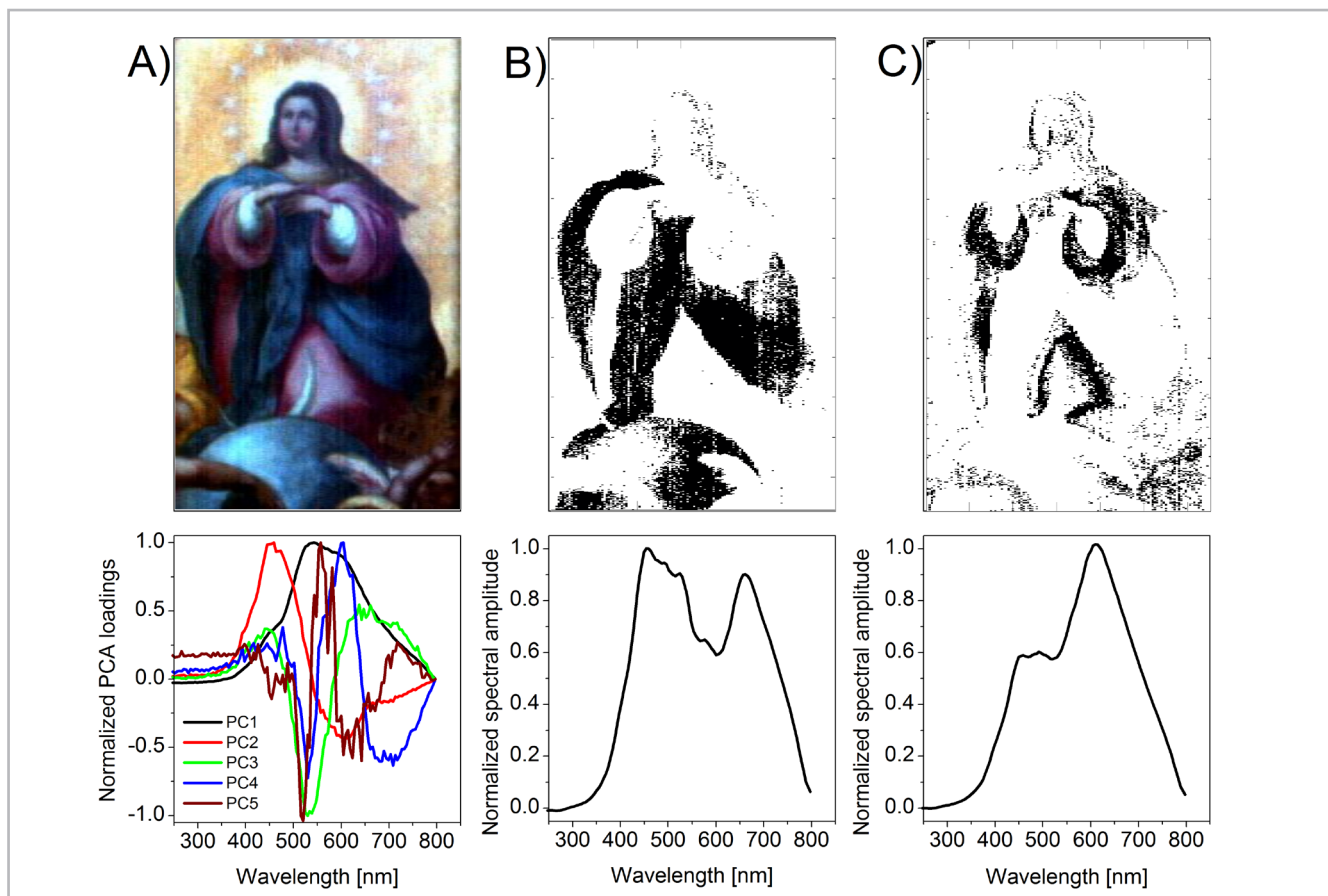


Figure 6.- Results from the reflectance image analysis performed on the scanned wall painting representing the Glorification of the Virgin. A) top figure - RGB image obtained by combining the reflectance intensities emitted at 600, 500 and 400 nm; bottom graph - PCA of the entire reflectance image; B) top figure - Similarity image mapping obtained on the reflectance with SAM on blue pigmented areas (mainly blue smalt); bottom graph - endpoint spectrum for SAM; C) top figure - Similarity image mapping obtained on the reflectance with SAM on red pigmented areas (mainly carmine); bottom graph - endpoint spectrum for SAM.

For sake of comparison the same type of analysis here reported for fluorescence signatures was also performed with reflectance spectra, available from our remote scanning instruments [figure 6]. In this case no detection of acrylic consolidant was obtained from spectral analysis. Furthermore, although it was possible to map most of the red and the blue components where they dominate, no information on the red addition to background was achieved in this case. This observation stresses the power of the proposed method based on fluorescence as a fingerprint of the entire painted outer layers, since the mapping accounts also for the presence of weak contributions from the red pigment used.

In order to overcome the scarce selectivity of the spectral features appearing in the fluorescence database for some specific cases, such as for instance the examined black pigments, work is in progress to merge data from fluorescence and reflectance spectra since they are sequentially recorded by our instrument in similar environmental conditions and from the same point of view.

In the selected case study was not possible to identify other pigments in the current database, even by using the

combination of fluorescence and reflectance spectra. This is due to the fact that in most of the cases characteristic pigment fluorescence band excited at 266 nm are weak, or even absent, and possibly hindered by matrix effect; in these conditions it is not easy to detect those pigments which are not major components of the examined surface and thus responsible at least for absorption in case of negligible fluorescence.

In summary, the data base has been built with the aim to support pigment identification on real historical surfaces. The considered case study offered the chance to identify three families of major pigment: red, blue and black. Results have been obtained on identification (as carmine and smalt) and mapping red and blue, with better sensitivity than in reflectance for the red carmine.

— *Identification of pigments by traditional techniques*

Traditional techniques have been employed, not only to design the database, but also to evaluate the accuracy of the results. Conventional micro-analysis and X-rays techniques revealed that the primer wall painted layer

Table III.- Colour Palette of the wall painting vault titled “The Glorification of the Virgin”

White	Blue	Red	Ochre, brown, sienna	Green	Black	Metallic
Lead White, Calcite, Barite	Smalt blue	Red Earth, Cinnabar, Carmine (possible from cochineal)	Yellow pigments with lead and chromium (due to a restoration)	Malachite	Lamp Black, carbon	Gold, Silver, Copper

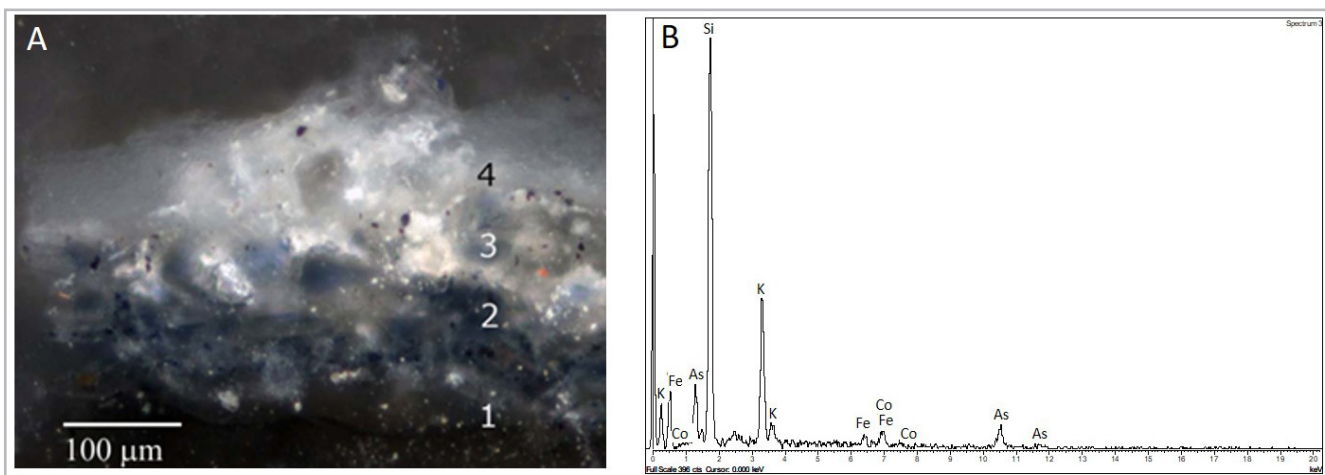


Figure 7.- A-Stratigraphy of blue sample: White primer of plaster (layer 1), Calcite, lead white and blue smalt (layer 2), grains of lead white, calcite and blue smalt (layer 3) in smaller quantities than those identified in layer 2, very thin white layer of calcite (layer 4). B – EDX spectrum where is identified smalt blue (Si, Co, As, K and Fe).

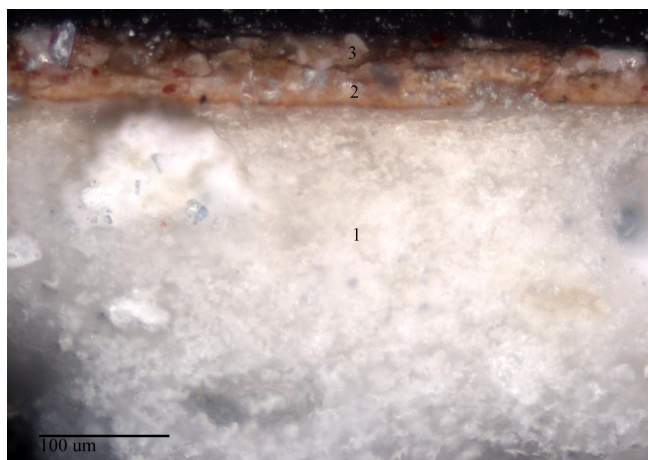


Figure 8.- Stratigraphy of red sample: Plaster composed by gypsum (layer 1), lead white, red earth, calcite, carmine and a few grains of gypsum (layer 2), red layer with the same composition of second layer (layer 3).

was formed by a support of gypsum of different thickness mixed with earths, oxalates, quartz and calcite. Domingo Martínez used a secco technique what was confirmed by GC-MS. The binder analysis revealed the presence of animal glue and linseed oil in the outsider surface, meanwhile traces of resins appeared on the outer surfaces in sporadic zones (Gómez Morón 2008). Since gypsum, quartz, calcite (P4) and animal glue are the basis of our reference models while linseed oil is the binder used to mix the pigments, we expect the best correlation between remote LIF data and results from present *in situ* sampling.

The table III summarises the colour palette of the vault, as deduced from the sampling. Mainly inorganic pigments were found: lead white, smalt blue, red earth, cinnabar, yellow lead and chromium, green malachite (copper hydroxi-carbonate), however the organic compound carmine, possible from cochineal, has been utilized as well in most of the red zones. Relevant for this research was the confirmation of the LIF characterization made for the blue pigment of the mantle and the red pigment of the robe of the Virgin. The smalt blue was determined by SEM-EDX with the presence of silicon, arsenic, potassium, iron and copper [figure 7]. In the case of the robe [Figure 8], a punctual analysis of its stratigraphic section by FTIR identified the use of an organic pigment as red colour.

Conclusions

The work here presented supports the use of database according ancient recipes as LIF standards to carry out LIF mapping on painted surfaces. The results show that LIF is a great diagnostic tool, having the ability to perform spectral analysis on-site and with high speed on very large real painted surfaces, also having the possibility to analyse both organic and inorganic pigments even in the case of not well known fluorescence emission bands on pure substances. Most important from the point of view of the conservators, LIF remote imaging is a completely non-destructive analysis. The availability of a validated LIF spectra database allows minimizing samples collection on wall painting following ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites) recommendations (ICOMOS 2003).

The LIF technique is demonstrated to be an effective diagnostic tool on the considered case study (a XVII century *a secco* mural paint). In fact, based on the historical database built, the assignment of two main pigments (smalt and carmine) was confirmed and their distribution onto the image was obtained, furthermore the capability of mapping the identified red pigment was significantly improved with respect to the reflectance imaging. Note that the distribution on a large area of a specific material achieved by LIF imaging, either original pigment or modern consolidant, is a valuable information for conservation scientists even in the least favourable case of not-straightforward assignment requiring additional in situ measurements or samplings.

Nevertheless, LIF remote imaging still requires further study to complete the database of historical pigments of interest, which have not been formerly investigated with detail upon laser excitation in the UV region. The problem of identifying and/or discriminate contribution for plaster and binders could be possibly solved by using multiple UV/visible excitation wavelengths. Possibilities of combined remote utilization, together with other laser spectroscopies (e.g. Raman) are under investigation to detect by vibrational signatures the presence of characteristic non fluorescent groups at the investigated painted surfaces. Moreover, further studied about ageing and fading must be carried out to complete the database.

Acknowledgements

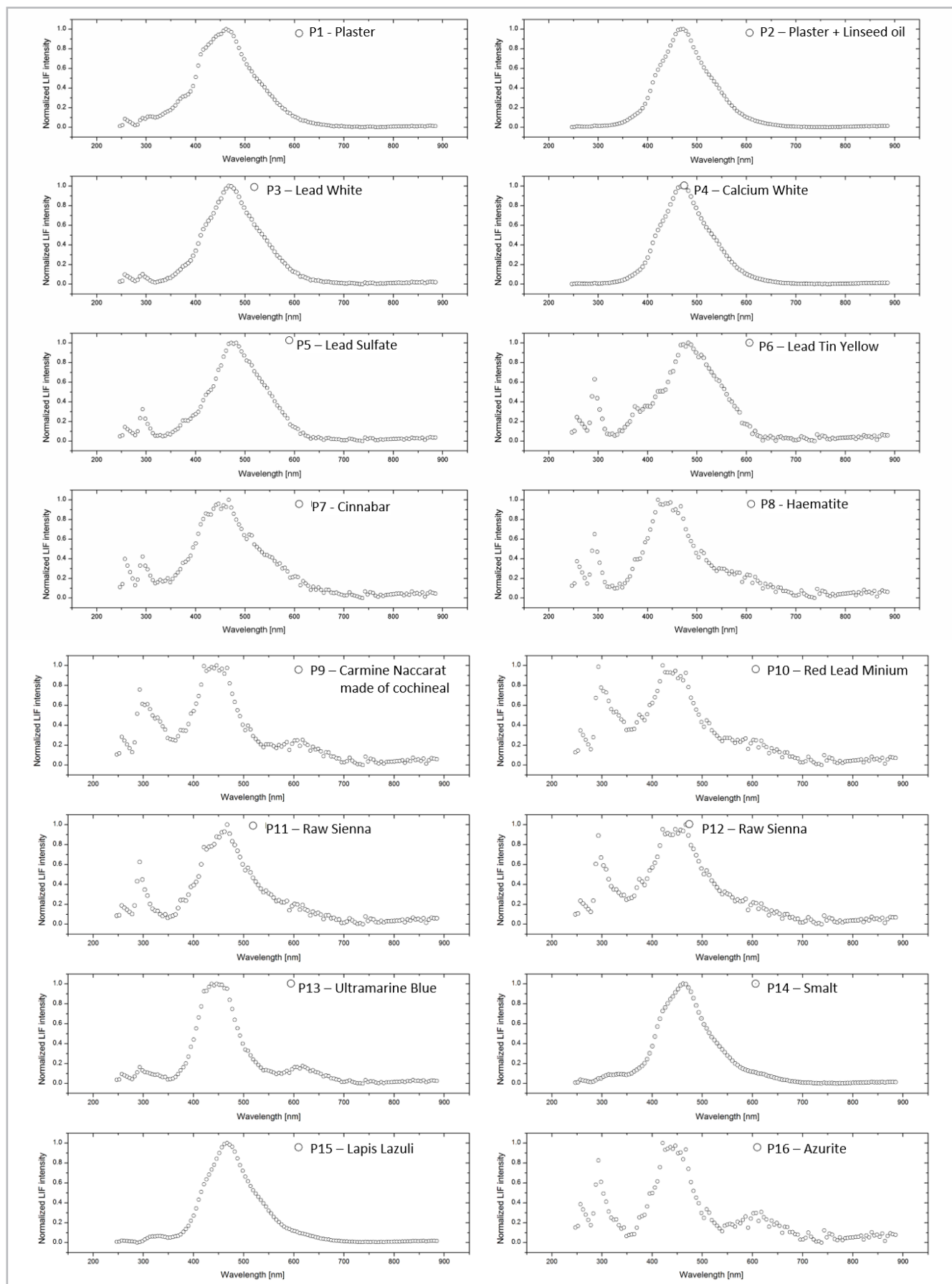
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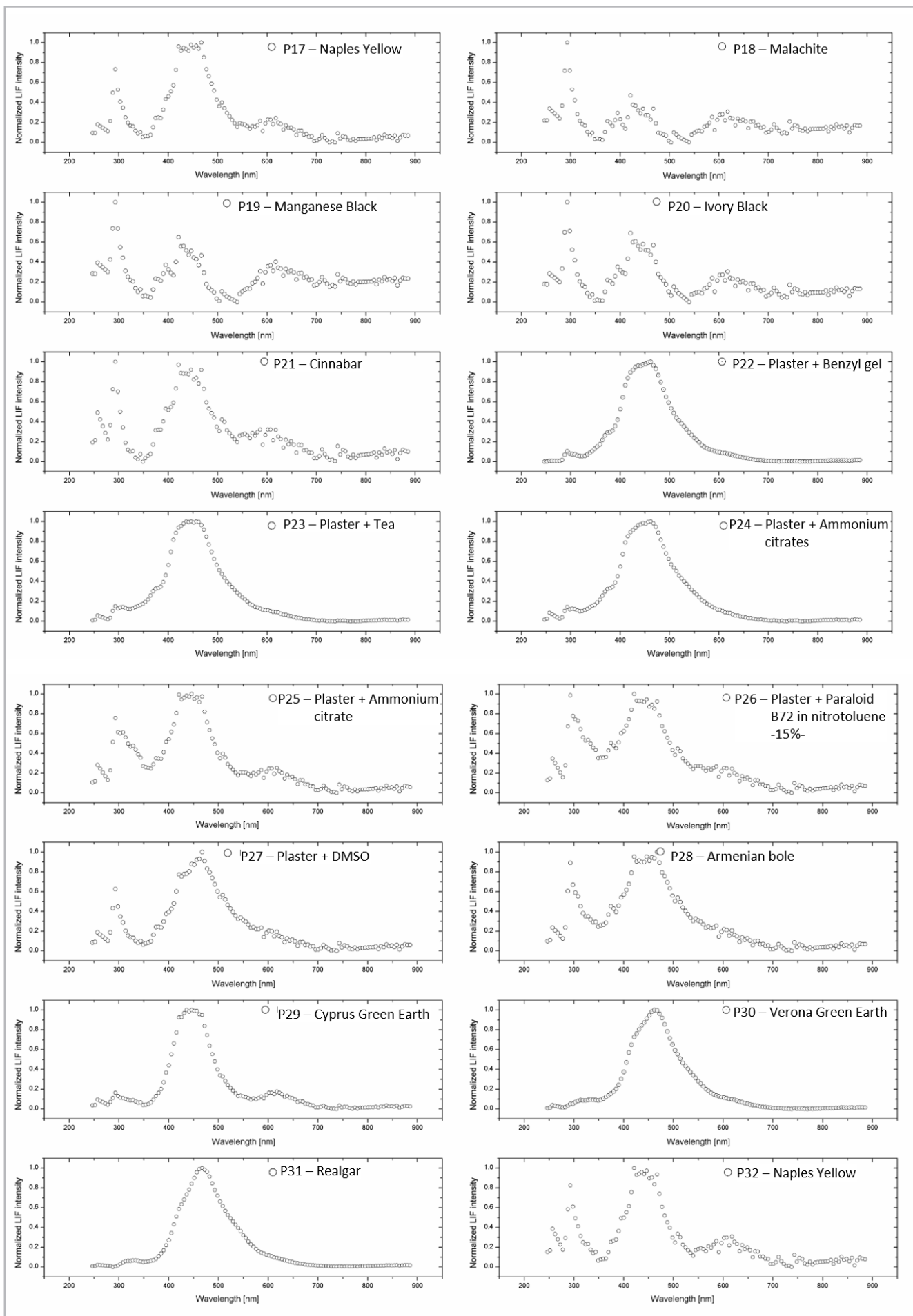
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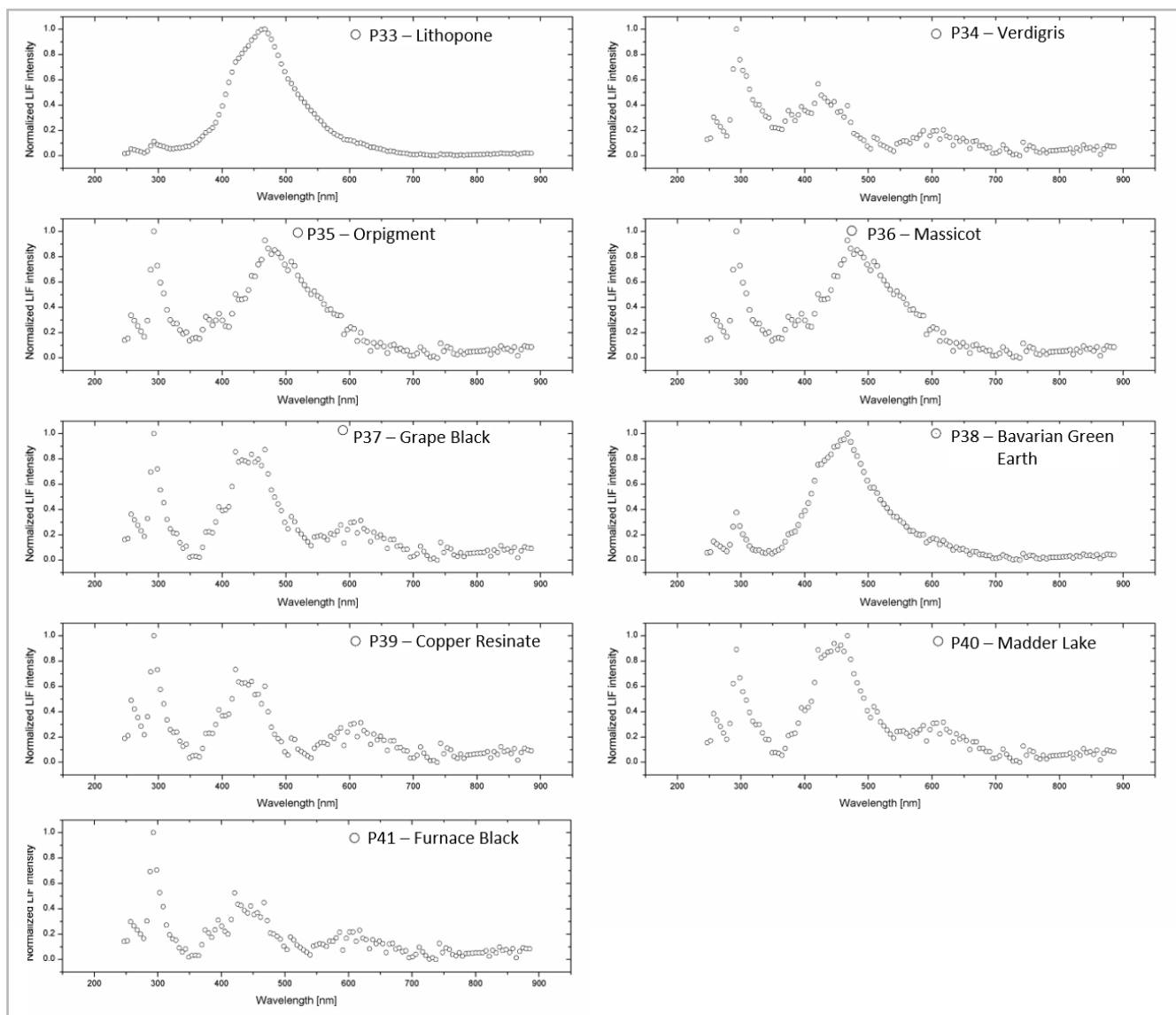
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Annex 1.- LIF spectrum of pigments/colorants on plaster with linseed oil. The name of the pigment and the occasional presence of other additives is specified in Table I. Data are normalized on the maximum, an indication on the relative intensity can be derived from SNR (data scattering around the best fit curve).







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Specialist in laser applications, signal processing and data acquisition, current interests concern the development of fluorescence lidar for the analysis of pigments, binders and consolidants. Since 1987 he is researcher at ENEA, carrying out research in design and development of remote sensing laser-based systems for atmospheric studies. Known expert in the field of laser spectroscopy and diagnostics, including lidar for atmospheric studies, Raman spectroscopy, visible/UV emission spectroscopy, Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF). He gained large experience of remote sensing systems for different applications: environmental control of pollutants, and remote diagnostic in the field of cultural heritage. Currently the main activities in the latter field are related to the development of fluorescence lidar, used to monitor the water quality (chemical and biochemical pollution) and the vegetation health (both on phytoplankton species and on green plants), cultural heritage (analysis of pigments, binders and consolidants), application of laser induced breakdown spectroscopy (LIBS) and lidar remote sensing of the stratosphere. He was involved in the study of LIBS and its application to the field of laser matter interaction and monitoring of soil and water. He has been responsible for several research projects, among these it is worth of mention the followings: application of LIBS to identification of asbestos' fibres in environmental samples (ISPESL programme 2003-04), development of a LIBS system for extraterrestrial soil analysis (ASI programme 2001-02), study of polar stratospheric clouds by lidar remote sensing (2006, 2017-19), development of a LIBS system for use in hostile environment (MURST programme 2004-07), development of an integrated system for drug discovery by laser spectroscopy (CUSTOM – EU FP7 2010-2012), development of LIF system for forensic investigation (FORLAB– EU FP7 2011-2013), development of standoff Raman system for prompt identification of explosive

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The research and teaching experience developed has been focused on the diagnosis, preservation and conservation of cultural heritage. For this task, she has collaborated with museums and cultural institutions, such as the IVCR+i, IAPH, Cádiz Museum, Écija Museum, etc. Additionally, I have developed works related to cultural heritage issues in several countries, i.e., the United Kingdom, Belgium, Italy, Romania, Cuba, Peru, Colombia, Panama, etc. Her scientific production can be summarized in 38 publications on indexed journals; 50 books and book chapters, more than 25 attendances to international congresses, chairman and member of scientific committee in several international congresses, etc. She has worked at the University of Amberes (Belgium) as assistant lecturer, invited professor at the University of Oxford (UK), and invited researcher at ENEA (Italy). She has participated in 24 national and international projects, contracts and agreements and has the head researcher in 16 of those projects, highlighting a Project of Excellence of the Junta de Andalucía, a RETOS project of the Government of Spain, an International Cooperation project of the Junta de Andalucía and International Erasmus+. She has opened and leadership important research lines as the application of Lasers techniques for in situ diagnosis in cultural heritage materials, the development of non-destructive techniques for diagnosis of cultural heritage, or the application of risk maps, vulnerability index and artificial intelligence to the preventive conservation of cultural heritage. Dr. Ortiz is member of the International Excellency Campus of the University of Jaén in cultural and natural heritage, of the "Cambio" work group in the International Excellency Campus of the Pablo de Olavide University (UPO), of the Andalusian Council of Cultural Heritage and Dean of the faculty of Experimental Sciences of the UPO.



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Técnicas analíticas para la caracterización de documentos: una revisión bibliográfica

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Resumen: El interés por la conservación de manuscritos ha crecido en las últimas décadas, bien por su valor artístico o por la información única que custodian. Para ello, es preciso conocer tanto los materiales empleados, como las alteraciones presentes, a fin de discernir el mejor tratamiento de restauración según sus características.

La implementación de técnicas analíticas aplicadas a este campo de estudio ha permitido mejorar el conocimiento sobre el patrimonio documental y bibliográfico. De este modo, se pueden emplear técnicas elementales (energías dispersivas de rayos X, fluorescencia de rayos X, etc.) o moleculares (espectroscopía infrarroja, espectroscopía Raman, etc.) para analizar los materiales inorgánicos u orgánicos. Si bien muchos de estos estudios han estado encaminados a estudiar manuscritos iluminados, es importante prestar especial atención a los estudios publicados sobre la caracterización de tintas metalográficas, las cuales se relacionan con la preservación de la información y con la degradación del soporte. El empleo de técnicas de imagen (microscopía óptica, fotografía infrarroja, microscopía electrónica, etc.) permite complementar los estudios de diagnóstico e identificación de materiales. Sin embargo, un conocimiento pormenorizado del manuscrito estudiado requiere del diseño de un protocolo de estudio en el que se complemente la información obtenida mediante la selección de las técnicas más adecuadas en función de las características del manuscrito y la disponibilidad de estas.

El objetivo principal de este artículo es simplificar la toma de decisiones en torno a la selección de técnicas analíticas y no solo dar una revisión bibliográfica de los principales estudios sobre el análisis de soportes y materiales respaldados. Además, se ha diseñado un protocolo que facilita al restaurador la selección de técnicas analíticas en función del material a caracterizar y los recursos disponibles

Palabras clave: Técnicas analíticas, manuscritos, caracterización, diagnóstico

Analytical techniques for the characterization of documents: a bibliographic review

Abstract: The interest in the conservation of manuscripts has grown in recent decades, either for their artistic value or for the unique information they hold. For this, it is necessary to know both the materials used and their alterations, in order to discern the best restoration treatment according to their characteristics.

The implementation of analytical techniques applied to this field of study has allowed us to improve knowledge about documentary and bibliographic heritage. Thus, elementary techniques (X-ray dispersive energies, X-ray fluorescence, etc.) or molecular techniques (infrared spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy, etc.) can be used to analyze inorganic or organic materials. Although many of these studies have been aimed at studying illuminated manuscripts, it is important to take into consideration the published studies on the characterization of metallographic inks, which are related to the preservation of information and to the degradation of the support. The use of imaging techniques (optical microscopy, infrared photography, electron microscopy, etc.) makes it possible to complement diagnostic and material identification studies. However, a detailed knowledge of the studied manuscript requires the design of a protocol that complements the information obtained by selecting the most appropriate techniques based on the characteristics of the manuscript and the availability of them.

The main objective of this paper is simplified the maker decision around the selection of analytical techniques and not only giving a bibliographical review of the main studies about the analysis of supports and supported materials, Additionally, a protocol have been designed to make easier to the restorer the choose of analytical techniques according to the materials to characterized and the available sources.

Keywords: Analytical techniques, manuscripts, characterization, diagnosis

Introducción

El patrimonio documental y bibliográfico abarca un conjunto de bienes de creciente interés tanto por la información custodiada como por su valor histórico-artístico. Desde hace décadas, se han incrementado los estudios tendentes a identificar y conocer tanto los materiales estructurales y sustentados, así como los productos de alteración, con el objetivo de mejorar los métodos para su conservación y restauración. Estos estudios son difundidos por diversas fuentes, destacando las bases de datos bibliográficas como Scopus o Dialnet, editoriales como Elsevier o Taylor & Francis, o las publicaciones realizadas bajo el amparo de instituciones de reconocida trayectoria profesional, tales como el Instituto del Patrimonio Cultural de España (IPCE), el Instituto Valenciano de Conservación, Restauración e Investigación (IVC+i) o el Instituto Andaluz del Patrimonio Histórico (IAPH).

El conjunto de técnicas analíticas que pueden emplearse para estudiar manuscritos es muy amplio, abarcando desde complejas técnicas para obtener la composición de los materiales empleados, como las espectroscopías infrarroja o Raman, la fluorescencia de rayos X o las técnicas cromatográficas (Zappalà *et al.* 1996; Derbyshire & Wheeler 2002; Stuart 2007; Manso & Carvalho 2009), a ensayos más rudimentarios que pueden ser aplicados en el propio taller de restauración, por ejemplo, el test de batofenantrolina, de Molish o de Lugol (Matteini & Moles 2001; Stuart 2007; Neevel 2009). En este sentido, el conservador-restaurador debe tener una visión general de las técnicas analíticas más importantes empleadas en el estudio de documentos y material de archivo, de tal forma que se posean los conocimientos oportunos para discernir la técnica más adecuada en función de las necesidades del bien y los recursos disponibles en cada momento.

Un aspecto relevante a la hora de seleccionar una técnica analítica es la posibilidad de tomar muestras para realizar el análisis (Larsen 2002), así como la necesidad de operar *in situ*. Parece obvio que un método en el que no sea necesario la toma de muestras, y posibilite operar en el mismo archivo o biblioteca, es un sistema ideal. Sin embargo, según Clarke (2002), la técnica escogida debe ser capaz de identificar completamente un material desconocido, sensible a muestras muy pequeñas, capaz de diferenciar entre materiales, inmune a posibles interferencias, rápido y capaz de identificar componentes de mezclas de manera individualizada, entre otros.

Con este artículo se pretende, no sólo ofrecer una visión detallada de las investigaciones realizadas sobre análisis de soportes y elementos sustentados, sino simplificar la labor de futuros estudios en los que se deba seleccionar un método analítico. Los sistemas de análisis han sido clasificados en técnicas de imagen y

técnicas analíticas de identificación, así como un último grupo de pruebas que, al no requerir de complejos equipamientos, pueden ser aplicadas al papel en el taller de restauración. Sin embargo, una caracterización completa de este tipo de bienes culturales requiere del empleo de diferentes métodos analíticos debido a la amplia variedad de materiales que los componen, tanto orgánicos como inorgánicos. Para finalizar esta revisión bibliográfica, se han recogido diferentes estudios en los que es posible observar cómo estas técnicas analíticas se complementan unas con otras, a fin de establecer un protocolo básico de actuación teniendo en cuenta los recursos disponibles en cada momento.

Técnicas de imagen

El empleo de técnicas de imagen en el estudio de documentos manuscritos permite obtener información morfológica de los materiales constitutivos, así como evaluar el estado de deterioro de estos (James 2010).

Mediante microscopía óptica (MO) es posible obtener imágenes amplificadas de hasta 500 aumentos [figura 1.a y b], lo que permite analizar tanto las fibras del papel (Stuart 2007) como la presencia de biodeterioro (Pinzari, Pasquariello & De Mico 2006). Además, el desarrollo de microscopios portátiles que llegan a alcanzar los 900 aumentos facilita su empleo *in situ*, sin la necesidad de toma de muestras. Para obtener imágenes de mayor magnificación es necesario recurrir a la microscopía electrónica de barrido (SEM). Esta técnica utiliza un haz de electrones para formar una imagen acromática de hasta 300.000 aumentos [figura 1.c y d]. El haz de electrones es generado por el calentamiento de un filamento de tungsteno, volframio o hexaboruro de lantano, e irradiado sobre la muestra que se sitúa en una cámara al vacío (Matteini & Moles 2001), en la que también se sitúan los diversos detectores que generan la imagen utilizando las interacciones electrón-muestra (Goodhew, Humphreys & Beanland 2014; Moropoulou *et al.* 2019). Esta técnica requiere de toma de muestras y ha sido empleada, por ejemplo, para el estudio de la morfología de la superficie del papel (Goltz *et al.* 2010) o la presencia de biodeterioro (Pinzari, Pasquariello & De Mico 2006). En efecto, la comparativa entre imágenes MO y SEM, permite apreciar como el aumento de la magnificación de estas últimas facilita la labor de identificación, por ejemplo, al apreciarse de manera nítida la torsión del hilo de algodón [figura 1.c] o las dislocaciones de la fibra de cáñamo [figura 1.d].

En el caso de que se fuese necesario realizar un rastreo topográfico de la superficie puede recurrirse al empleo de la microscopía de fuerza atómica (AFM), tal y como realizan Piantanida, Bicchieri & Coluzza (2005) para estudiar las reacciones químicas en superficie y la degradación de la celulosa por envejecimiento y ataque biológico.

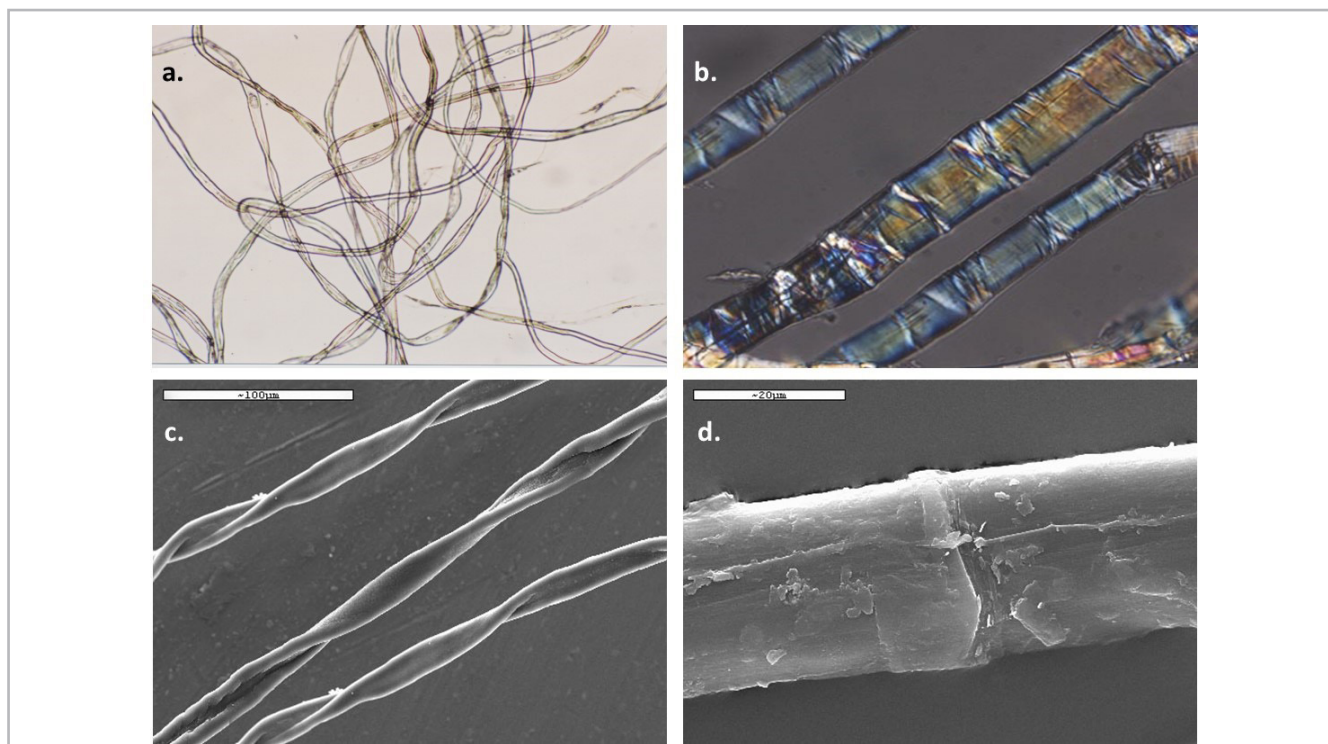


Figura 1.- Fibra de algodón (a) y cáñamo (b) observadas mediante microscopía óptica. Fibra de algodón (c) y cáñamo (d) observadas mediante microscopía electrónica de barrido. Fuente: IVCR+i.

El empleo de la fotografía a diferentes longitudes de onda mediante filtros de paso permite evaluar la degradación de manuscritos. En este sentido, mediante fotografía infrarroja es posible distinguir tintas sepia y metalogálica de las de bistre o carbón (Colbourne 2001) o los dibujos subyacentes de las miniaturas [figura 2], mientras que con fotografía ultravioleta, la fluorescencia de los materiales es empleada para leer manuscritos con la tinta muy desvaída o estudiar su oxidación y degradación (Mairinger 2000; Knox & Easton 2003; Stuart 2007; Easton, Christens-Barry & Knox 2011; Montani *et al.* 2012).

La fotografía infrarroja de falso color ha sido empleada por varios autores (Clarke 2001; Colbourne 2001) para distinguir pigmentos inorgánicos con similar espectro. Sin embargo, en la actualidad, son las técnicas basadas en imágenes espectrales las que están tomando un mayor auge. Es el caso de la imagen multispectral, cuyos equipos permiten capturar información sobre diferentes bandas del espectro electromagnético, desde el ultravioleta hasta el infrarrojo cercano, por cada píxel de la imagen. Por tanto, las imágenes multispectrales están compuestas por diferentes bandas, generalmente de 3 a 20, que no han de ser contiguas. Con el empleo de esta técnica se han identificado tintas, su distribución y su corrosión (Havermans, Aziz & Scholten 2003; Scholten *et al.* 2005), así como dibujos subyacentes de ilustraciones (McGillivray & Duffy 2017). A diferencia de la imagen multispectral, las imágenes hiperespectrales están formadas por un mayor número de bandas contiguas, lo que permite obtener el espectro de cada píxel. Se han realizado diferentes aproximaciones al empleo de esta técnica en el estudio de manuscritos, especialmente para evaluar cambios



Figura 2.- Fotografía a color (a) y fotografía infrarroja (b) sobre una miniatura procedente de un cantoral del Colegio del Corpus Christi. Fuente: IVCR+i.

ópticos en los documentos, durabilidad de la tinta y del papel o procesos de restauración, así como estudiar tintas o la degradación de pergaminos (Scholten *et al.* 2005; Aalderink *et al.* 2008; Goltz *et al.* 2009; Giacometti *et al.* 2012; Mindermann 2018).

Técnicas analíticas de identificación

Las técnicas analíticas de identificación permiten estudiar la composición química de los diferentes materiales empleados en el patrimonio documental y bibliográfico, así como su grado de alteración o la aparición de productos de neoformación. Estos estudios se pueden llevar a cabo mediante el estudio de los elementos químicos o las moléculas presentes en los diferentes materiales.

—Técnicas de identificación de elementos químicos

Entre las técnicas de análisis elemental caben destacar las técnicas basadas en la fluorescencia de rayos X. En ellas se emplea una fuente de excitación (electrones, protones, rayos X, fuentes radiactivas, etc.) que excita el material induciendo la emisión de fluorescencia de rayos X por parte de los átomos excitados, aportando información cuantitativa y cualitativa de los elementos que lo constituyen (análisis multielemental).

La fluorescencia de rayos X (EDXRF) es una técnica no destructiva, rápida, precisa y fiable, y cuyo espectro puede ser simple o de varios elementos. En el caso de material documental y bibliográfico, ha sido utilizada para estudiar tintas metalogólicas y su degradación, identificar la aparición de foxing o analizar halos y filigranas (Ferrero *et al.* n.d.; Zappalà *et al.* 1996; Kanngießer *et al.* 2004; Rožić, Mačefat & Oreščanin 2005; Stuart 2007; Van Der Snickt *et al.* 2008; Čechák *et al.* 2010; Chaplin *et al.* 2010; Deneckere *et al.* 2011; Dietz *et al.* 2012; Pessanha *et al.* 2012; Alcántara García, Ruvalcaba Sil & Vander Meeren 2014; Manso *et*

al. 2014). Una variación de esta técnica es la radiación sincrotrón de fluorescencia de rayos X (XSRXRF) y que ha sido utilizada para caracterizar materiales de dibujo, tintas impresas, pigmentos, etc. (Kolar & Strlič 2006; Bataglia *et al.* 2011). Sin embargo, para obtener una mayor sensibilidad en la detección de elementos químicos, es recomendable recurrir a la fluorescencia de rayos X por reflexión total (TXRF), por la cual el objeto es excitado por rayos X primarios que inciden de manera oblicua sobre la muestra. Su ventaja frente al XRF es que tiene una mayor sensibilidad de medición elemental. Klockenkämper, Von Bohlen, and Moens (2000) y Pessanha, Manso, and Carvalho (2012) la han empleado para la caracterización de tintas, pigmentos inorgánicos e impurezas en manuscritos.

Otra técnica muy utilizada en la caracterización de manuscritos es la espectroscopia dispersiva de rayos X (EDX), la cual aparece acoplada a un microscopio electrónico. Permite realizar el análisis químico elemental semicuantitativo [figura 3], por lo que es adecuada para analizar elementos inorgánicos, tintas manuscritas e impresas, la degradación de pergaminos y pigmentos o la oxidación de tintas (Matteini & Moles 2001; Kolar *et al.* 2006; Goltz *et al.* 2010; Espejo Arias *et al.* 2011; Pessanha *et al.* 2012).

La técnica de emisión de rayos X inducida por partículas (PIXE) permite reconocer elementos de bajo número atómico, generalmente a partir del sodio (Plossi, Zappalà & Zappalà 2007). Su funcionamiento se basa en detectar los rayos X procedentes de la desexcitación de los átomos tras ser ionizados con un haz de protones. A pesar de que se puede aplicar sin dañar prácticamente los documentos, su uso presenta algunas limitaciones como la profundidad del perfil de la tinta depositada en el papel frente al alcance de los protones, el peso de las concentraciones de los elementos en el papel, la no homogeneidad en la distribución, la rugosidad de la superficie del papel, y el hecho de que la decisión dependa del elemento químico analizado con errores entre el 5 y el 20% (Budnar *et al.* 2006). A pesar de

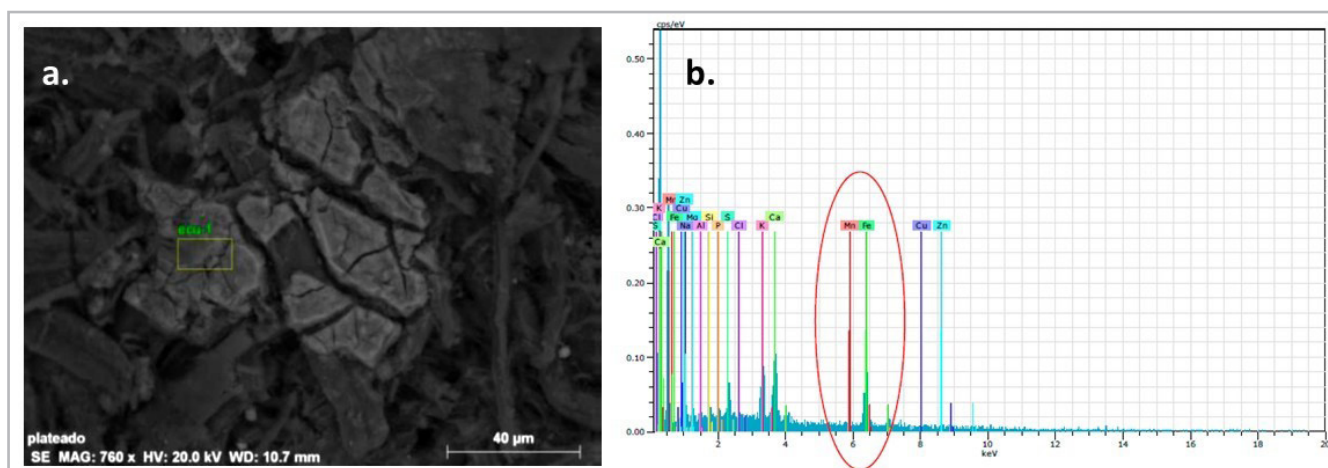


Figura 3.—Muestra de tinta de un manuscrito procedente del Archivo Nacional de Ecuador estudiada por SEM (a) y EDX (b). En este caso se puede determinar que se trata de una tinta ferrogólica con trazas de calcio y potasio. Fuente: Gemma M^a Contreras.

esto, se trata de una técnica ampliamente utilizada para el estudio de tintas impresas y manuscritas (distribución de metales, migración proporción de elementos, deterioro), pigmentos inorgánicos o el deterioro de papel, papiros, pergaminos y vitelas (Del Carmine *et al.* 1996; Lucarelli & Mandò 1996; Budnar *et al.* 2001; Budnar *et al.* 2004; Wagner *et al.* 2001; Budnar *et al.* 2006; Olsson *et al.* 2001; Kolar *et al.* 2006; Plossi & Zappalà 2007; Stuart 2007; Manso & Carvalho 2009; Kakuee *et al.* 2012; Pessanha *et al.* 2012).

El empleo de equipos láser en patrimonio documental y bibliográfico es muy común tanto en procesos de limpieza como en la caracterización de los materiales constituyentes (Clarke 2001; Kaminska *et al.* 2007; Nevin, Spoto & Anglos 2012). En el caso de la caracterización de este tipo de bienes culturales destaca el uso de la espectrometría de emisión atómica con inducción de plasma (IPC-AES), que ha sido utilizada para estudiar la influencia del hierro y el cobre en la degradación del papel (Kolar & Strlič 2006), y la espectrometría de masas con fuente de plasma de acoplamiento inductivo (IPC-MS), la cual ha sido empleada para determinar elementos traza de los papeles y las tintas (Wagner *et al.* 1999; Stuart 2007). La espectroscopia de ablación inducida por láser (LIBS) permite hacer análisis cualitativo y cuantitativo de los elementos químicos presentes en una muestra (Mateo *et al.* 2019) al analizar el plasma producido por un pulso láser en la superficie del material a estudiar. Se trata, por tanto, de una técnica microdestructiva, aunque con una alta sensibilidad, que permite determinar pigmentos, tintas manuscritas e impresas, papel y pergamino (Häkkinen *et al.* 2001; Melessanaki *et al.* 2001; Ochocińska *et al.* 2003; Oujja *et al.* 2005; Dolgin *et al.* 2006; Dolgin *et al.* 2008; Bicchieri *et al.* 2011; Pessanha *et al.* 2012; Król, Kowalska & Kościelniak 2018).

De este modo, y en base a las técnicas de caracterización elemental, se puede concluir que el empleo de SEM-EDX aporta la ventaja de unificar dos tipos de ensayos sobre una misma muestra, al obtenerse una imagen de alta magnificación, así como el análisis elemental de la muestra. Además, esta unificación de técnicas permite realizar un mapeado composicional y, por tanto, analizar la distribución de los diferentes elementos. Sin embargo, se trata de una técnica que requiere la toma de muestras y cuya sensibilidad a la hora de identificar elementos es de 1000 ppm, frente a otras técnicas como FRX (100 ppm) y LIBS (10-50 ppm) (Kearnton & Mattley 2008). De este modo, para la identificación de elementos trazas sería recomendable el empleo de FRX, de la cual existen modelos que permiten el análisis *in situ* y sin toma de muestras, o LIBS, la cual es una técnica mínimamente invasiva. Finalmente, en el caso de ser necesaria la identificación de elementos de bajo peso molecular que no puedan ser identificados con las técnicas anteriores, se podría recomendar el empleo de PIXE.

—Técnicas de identificación a nivel molecular

Dentro de las técnicas de identificación a nivel molecular aplicadas al estudio del patrimonio documental y

bibliográfico destacan la espectroscopia infrarroja y la espectroscopia Raman.

Las espectroscopías infrarrojas son una serie de técnicas con numerosas aplicaciones en el patrimonio cultural (Derrick 2000), que analizan las vibraciones de los enlaces moleculares producidas por fotones de radiaciones infrarrojas, y cuyas longitudes de onda de excitación son características en función del tipo de molécula. En el caso de la espectroscopia infrarroja transformada de Fourier (FTIR), la distribución de la radiación infrarroja es alterada por un espejo y pasada por un interferómetro donde es grabada la señal, es decir, se graba la cantidad de radiación infrarroja detectada. Mediante la transformada de Fourier, técnica de procesamiento de estos datos, los datos son transformados en un espectro. Esta técnica ha sido utilizada para identificar cargas (carbonatos y sulfatos), tintas metalogálicas (carbonatos, sulfatos, taninos, presencia de goma arábiga) e impresas, papeles (fibras, cargas, adhesivos, impurezas ácidas...) y pergaminos, colonias de microorganismos, oxidación por tintas metaloácidas y tratamientos de restauración (Colbourne 2000; Calvini, Gorassini & Chiggiato 2006; Trafela *et al.* 2007; Ferrer & Sistach 2007; Plossi & Zappalà 2007; Sivakoval, Beganskienė & Kareiva 2008; Zotti, Ferroni & Calvini 2008, 2011; Gonzalez & Wess 2008; Ursescu, Malutan & Ciovea 2009; Manso & Carvalho 2009; Bicchieri *et al.* 2011; Da Costa *et al.* 2013; Doherty *et al.* 2013; Vetter, Pöllnitz & Schreiner 2014; Doncea & Iona 2014; Nodari & Ricciardi 2019). A pesar de las ventajas que presenta esta técnica, autores como da Costa *et al.* (2013) y Remaizelles, Quillet & Bernard (2000) han detectado ciertas limitaciones a la hora de caracterizar pigmentos orgánicos, tintes y tintas. En el caso de las tintas metalogálicas, sólo es posible detectar el espectro de los taninos, no así de los complejos completos de las tintas.

En cuanto a la espectrometría Raman, se trata de un método analítico que se basa en la dispersión inelástica o Raman, y aporta información sobre los modos vibracionales de las moléculas. Su aplicación en el estudio de manuscritos está relacionada con la identificación de pigmentos orgánicos e inorgánicos, tintas y tintes, degradación y oxidación de las fibras, cargas de la celulosa, preparación original de pergaminos (Clark 1995; Burgio, Ciomartan & Clark 1997; Burgio, Clark & Hark 2010; Clarke 1999, 2001; Wehling *et al.* 1999; Mannucci *et al.* 2000; Bicchieri, Nardone & Sodo 2000; Bicchieri *et al.* 2006; Bicchieri *et al.* 2008; Bicchieri *et al.* 2011; Magistro *et al.* 2001; Bruni *et al.* 2001; Bruni *et al.* 2008; Derbyshire & Wheeler 2002; Chaplin *et al.* 2005; Chaplin *et al.* 2006; Aceto *et al.* 2006; Baraldi *et al.* 2009; Trentelman & Turner 2009; Bioletti *et al.* 2009; Guedes & Prieto 2012; Nastova *et al.* 2012; Marucci *et al.* 2018). Una de las principales limitaciones de esta técnica viene causada por el problema de la fluorescencia, fenómeno que aumenta en tintas históricas (Lee, Mahon & Creagh 2006), en tintes y papel (Stuart 2007), y en pergamino (Bersani *et al.* 2006). El empleo de la espectroscopia Raman activada por superficie aumentada (SERS) permite aumentar la

intensidad de las bandas Raman y reducir el efecto de la fluorescencia del material debido a la interacción del analito con la superficie rugosa de los metales nobles. De este modo, autores como El Bakkali *et al.* (2013), Castro *et al.* (2014) o Roldán, Centeno & Rizzo (2014) han podido mejorar la identificación de pigmentos, lacas o tintas.

Mediante espectrometría UV-Vis es posible identificar los grupos funcionales presentes en una molécula al excitar los electrones del enlace con radiación ultravioleta-visible. La variante de esta técnica más utilizada es la espectrometría de reflexión de fibra óptica (FORS), en la que se observa la reflectancia generada por el material en función de la longitud de onda del haz incidente, desde el ultravioleta hasta el infrarrojo cercano. En el caso de los pigmentos, cada uno tiene su propia curva de reflectancia espectral, por lo que es posible identificarlos (Clarke 2001; Matteini & Moles 2001; Aceto *et al.* 2012). Las limitaciones de este sistema aparecen cuando los pigmentos son mezclas y no puros (Aceto *et al.* 2012).

La espectrometría de resonancia magnética nuclear (NMR) permite estudiar las estructuras moleculares. Suele emplearse para evaluar el estado de conservación de materiales celulósicos, los deterioros ocasionados por las tintas metaloácidas o la efectividad de tratamientos de restauración (Blümich *et al.* 2003; Casieri *et al.* 2004; Castro *et al.* 2008)

En el caso de técnicas moleculares, por tanto, destaca su empleo para la identificación de pigmentos, cargas, tratamientos de restauración, tipos de papel, etc. Algunos pigmentos y cargas pueden ser identificados con técnicas elementales, siendo recomendable el uso de estas técnicas moleculares cuando no es posible realizar una identificación correcta con las primeras, como es el caso de los pigmentos orgánicos. Lejos de establecer una prelación entre las técnicas espectroscópicas, cabe destacar que estas son complementarias en multitud de

casos, ya que, si bien el análisis por infrarrojo suele ser más sencillo, los espectros Raman permiten una mejor identificación de algunos componentes orgánicos. Sólo en el caso de pigmentos orgánicos que se encuentren en un estado más o menos puro, especialmente lacas y tintes, sería recomendable el empleo de FORS para confirmar su correcta identificación.

Otras técnicas analíticas de identificación

Los sistemas de cromatografía permiten separar componentes estrechamente relacionados en mezclas complejas [figura 4]. Existen diferentes técnicas cromatográficas siendo las más utilizadas en los estudios sobre patrimonio documental la cromatografía líquida de alta eficacia (HPLC) y la cromatografía de gases/espectrometría de masas (GS-MS). La primera técnica es un método muy rápido, eficaz y preciso que se aplica principalmente al estudio de muestras orgánicas como el material proteico, aglutinantes, aprestos, etc. (Striegel & Hill 1996; Matteini & Moles 2001; Romera *et al.* 2013; Kurouski *et al.* 2014). En la GS-MS, la muestra es volatilizada para hacerla recorrer la columna cromatográfica. Es capaz de separar mezclas orgánicas complejas y complejos organometálicos, así como determinar cualitativa y cuantitativamente sus componentes (Matteini & Moles 2001; Stuart 2007). Además, el espectrómetro de masas identifica las moléculas, las cuales son previamente ionizadas con un haz de electrones (Clarke 2001). Estas técnicas también son utilizadas para evaluar el envejecimiento de tintas (EL-Sabbah *et al.* 2019)

Mediante difracción de rayos X (XRD) es posible identificar minerales gracias a su estructura cristalina ya que los rayos X irradiados a la muestra son difractados por los electrones cuando su longitud de onda es del mismo orden que el radio atómico. De este modo, se obtiene información sobre la posición y tipo de átomos, ya que

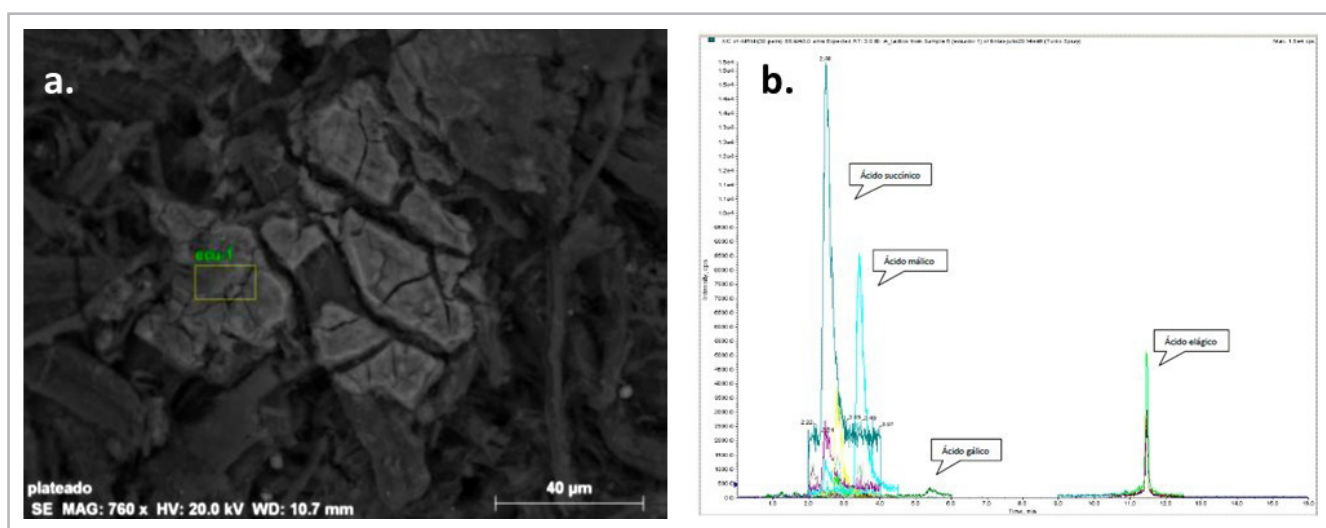


Figura 4.-Imagen SEM (a) de una muestra de tinta procedente de un manuscrito de Archivo Nacional de Ecuador y cromatograma (b) en el que se observan los diferentes ácidos presentes en la tinta. Fuente: Gemma M^a Contreras.

las estructuras cristalinas dispersan elásticamente los haces de electrones y los amplifica por interferencia constructiva. Se trata de una técnica que permite caracterizar pigmentos inorgánicos y tintas, así como evaluar su alteración (Matteini & Moles 2001; Wess et al. 2001; Stuart 2007; Duran et al. 2009; Cucos et al. 2011; Rueangyodjantana & Buntem 2017).

Finalmente, cabe destacar el empleo de los procesos de extracción de ADN para la determinación del origen animal de los pergaminos empleados como soporte documental. Este tipo de análisis requiere de la toma de micromuestras, las cuales son tratadas para la extracción del gen empleado para la identificación de la especie mediante el uso de primers. Tras la obtención de la secuencia genómica, se procede a su comparación con bases de datos para así determinar la especie (Bower et al. 2010). Sin embargo, el empleo de esta técnica para identificar la especie en pergaminos históricos posee la desventaja de que el ADN se encuentra degradado, para lo cual se recomienda el uso de la secuencia nucleotídica del gen del citocromo b (Espejo, Alvarez-Cubero & Saiz 2011).

Empleo de las técnicas analíticas en el patrimonio documental

La especificidad de cada técnica analítica [tabla I] hace que la mayoría de los investigadores opten por la suma de las ventajas de varias técnicas, bien para estudiar elementos diferentes, como pigmentos orgánicos o inorgánicos, o bien para ratificar el resultado de unas técnicas con otras. Este es el caso de la espectroscopía Raman, una de las técnicas más empleadas para el estudio de los componentes de los manuscritos iluminados. Por ejemplo, Plossi & Zappala (2007) la utiliza en combinación con EDXRF, al igual que Aceto et al. (2008) en la caracterización de tintas metalogálicas, en las que la presencia de un alto contenido en cobre puede corresponder a una preparación conjunta de sulfato de

hierro y sulfato de cobre. Esta combinación de técnicas se ha empleado ampliamente para el estudio códices medievales (Vandenabeele et al. 2002; Burgio et al. 2010), libros renacentistas italianos (Burgio, Clark & Hark 2010) o manuscritos islámicos (Burgio et al. 2008). Además, estos estudios pueden llevarse a cabo mediante equipos portátiles, lo que facilita su empleo in situ (Wehling et al. 1999; Duran et al. 2011; Hamdan, Alawadhi & Jisrawi 2012).

Estas técnicas, a su vez, pueden verse complementadas por otras, por ejemplo, el uso de FORS para identificar pigmentos como el azul ultramar o el cinabrio (Aceto et al. 2012), SEM-EDS para determinar la presencia de cobre y sales de cobre en tintas manuscritas o estudiar manuscritos iluminados (Aceto et al. 2006; Chaplin et al. 2010) o FTIR para estudiar tintas metalogálicas (Bicchieri et al. 2008) y las sales e impurezas que contienen (Piantanida et al. 2013). De hecho, este tipo de combinaciones, no sólo son utilizadas para la caracterización de materiales constitutivos, sino también para la evaluación de la reversibilidad de tratamientos de restauración (Bicchieri et al. 2012). Para la identificación de pigmentos, Andalò et al. (2001) proponen el empleo de microespectroscopía Raman y PIXE, aunque sólo obtuvieron la identificación de pigmentos inorgánicos.

Tras la espectroscopía Raman, es muy común encontrar estudios en los que se emplea la combinación de EDXRF y FTIR para estudiar la composición química del papel (Doncea et al. 2010) o para el estudio del cobre como agente acelerador del deterioro tanto de tintas como de pigmentos (Faubel et al. 2007). El uso de EDXRF y FORS ha permitido a Aceto et al. (2012) y a Picollo et al. (2011) realizar estudios in situ y sin toma de muestras de tintas sobre pergamino o pigmentos.

Gambaro et al. (2009) utilizan FTIR para identificar tintas, SEM/EDX para obtener la morfología y composición de las tintas y GC/MS para identificar los componentes metalogálicos, de tal manera que se pueda trazar la continuidad en el uso de tintas metalogálicas en el siglo

Tabla I.- Principales técnicas analíticas y su empleo para la caracterización de los materiales constitutivos del patrimonio documental.

	MO	SEM	EDXRF	EDX	PIXE	LIBS	FTIR	Raman	FORS	HPLC	GS-MS	XRD
Inorgánicos												
Orgánicos												
Morfología												
Biodeterioro												
Pergamino												
Pigmentos												
Tintas												
Oxidación												
Cargas												
Adhesivos												

XIX. Estos mismos autores introducen el empleo de la cromatografía para el estudio de los extractos orgánicos del papel y la determinación de la presencia de ácido vanílico y de lignina (Ganzerla et al. 2009). En otros casos, junto a FTIR y SEM/EDX, se emplea la XRD para determinar la antigüedad de papeles (Rueangyodjantana & Buntem 2017).

Finalmente, la combinación de LIBS con imagen multispectral ha resultado eficaz en el estudio no invasivo de pigmentos en manuscritos iluminados (Melessanaki et al. 2001); mientras que junto con espectrometría atómica (AAS) ha permitido identificar la presencia de hierro y cobre en tintas (Wagner et al. 1999).

Test químicos para la aproximación a la composición de materiales constitutivos

En ocasiones, el empleo de técnicas analíticas es difícil de asumir por el conservador-restaurador. Para ello, se puede recurrir al empleo de test químicos, los cuales darán una aproximación a los compuestos presentes en una obra. Estas pruebas son de carácter cualitativo, por lo que sólo indicarán la presencia o ausencia de un material, aunque no su cuantificación en la muestra analizada. Estas pruebas requerirán de la aplicación de una gota del reactivo, por lo que se han de realizar en zonas poco vivible del documento y de manera controlada. Entre los test más utilizados para la identificación de los soportes cabe destacar:

Test de Molish: Determina la presencia de celulosa y sus derivados. Para ello, se disuelve una pequeña muestra del soporte en acetona y se le agregan varias gotas de 2 wt-% 1-naftol en etanol. Se depositan dos gotas de ácido sulfúrico concentrado cerca de la muestra, de tal forma que su vapor reaccione con la muestra. Si tras 10-15 minutos aparece un color rojo-marrón significa que la muestra posee celulosa. La tinción hacia un tono verdoso indica la presencia de nitrato de celulosa, mientras que entre marrón y negro puede ser debida a la presencia de lignina u otros azúcares (Odegaard, Carroll & Zimmit 2005; Stuart 2007).

Test para determinar la presencia de celulosa: En un tubo de ensayo, se añade a la muestra una gota de concentrado de ácido fosfórico, se tapa con filtro de papel y se añade una gota de acetato de anilina (se añaden a la anilina 1:1 ácido acético glacial y agua destilada). El tubo se calienta y, en presencia de celulosa, se aprecia un color rosa (Odegaard Carroll & Zimmit 2005; Stuart 2007).

Test para determinar la presencia de lignina: Se deposita sobre la muestra una gota de una solución de fluroglucinol en metanol (4 g. de fluroclucinol en 50 ml de metanol) y, a continuación, una gota de una solución de ácido clorhídrico en metanol al 50% en volumen. La presencia de lignina teñirá la muestra de un color rojo-violeta (Vergara Peris 2002; Stuart 2007).

Test de Buret: Para identificar la presencia de proteínas. Se añade una gota de 2 wt-% de sulfato de cobre a una pequeña cantidad de muestra. Al cabo de unos minutos, la muestra se vuelve ligeramente azul, mientras que en presencia de proteínas, virará hacia un tono púrpura (Stuart 2007).

Test de Lugol: Permite determinar la presencia de almidón al adquirir la muestra una tonalidad azul tras depositar sobre esta una gota de lugol (0.13 g. de yodo y 2,6 g. de yoduro de potasio en 5 ml de agua destilada) (Matteini & Moles 2001; Stuart 2007). Una variable de este test se encuentra en Vergara Peris (2002), quien aplica una gota de solución de yodo/yoduro al 50%.

Test para determinar la presencia de alumbre: Se deposita una gota de una solución de aluminón (0,1 g. de aluminón en 100 ml de agua destilada) en la superficie de la muestra y se deja secar. La tinción hacia un tono rojo-rosado indica la presencia de iones de aluminio en el papel (Odegaard, Carroll & Zimmit 2005; Stuart 2007).

La identificación de tintas mediante el uso de test químicos suele ser una tarea más complicada, ya que se podrá determinar la presencia de determinados compuestos e intuir su naturaleza a grandes rasgos. Debe tenerse en cuenta que existe una gran cantidad de recetas de tintas, en la que la presencia de determinados compuestos ha favorecido a su mayor o menor grado de deterioro (Contreras 2015). En este sentido, es posible detectar la presencia de tintas ferrogálicas mediante la identificación de la presencia de hierro, o hierro y cobre.

Test de batofenantrolina: Permite identificar la presencia de hierro (II) al poner en contacto unas tiras empapadas en batofenantrolina con la muestra. No es un sistema apto para otros metales (Neevel 2009; Belhadj et al. 2014).

Test para determinar la presencia de tintas ferrogálicas: Consiste en aplicar sobre la tinta una microgota de α,α' -dipiridilo al 2 wt-% en ácido tioglicólico. Si aparece un color rosa o rojo significa que hay presencia de hierro, ya que este reactivo reduce Fe^{3+} en Fe^{2+} (Stuart 2007).

Test para determinar la presencia de iones de cobre: Se aplica en unas tiras de papel con una solución de 5N- α -PAN en 1,4 dioxano (Kolar & Strlič 2006).

Protocolo de actuación para la identificación de materiales presentes en documentos

A la hora de abordar la caracterización de documentos es importante tener en cuenta una serie de premisas que condicionarán la selección de las técnicas a emplear. Entre estos condicionantes cabe destacar la necesidad de identificar los diversos materiales presentes en el documento debido a su valor histórico-cultural, su estado de conservación o la selección del tratamiento

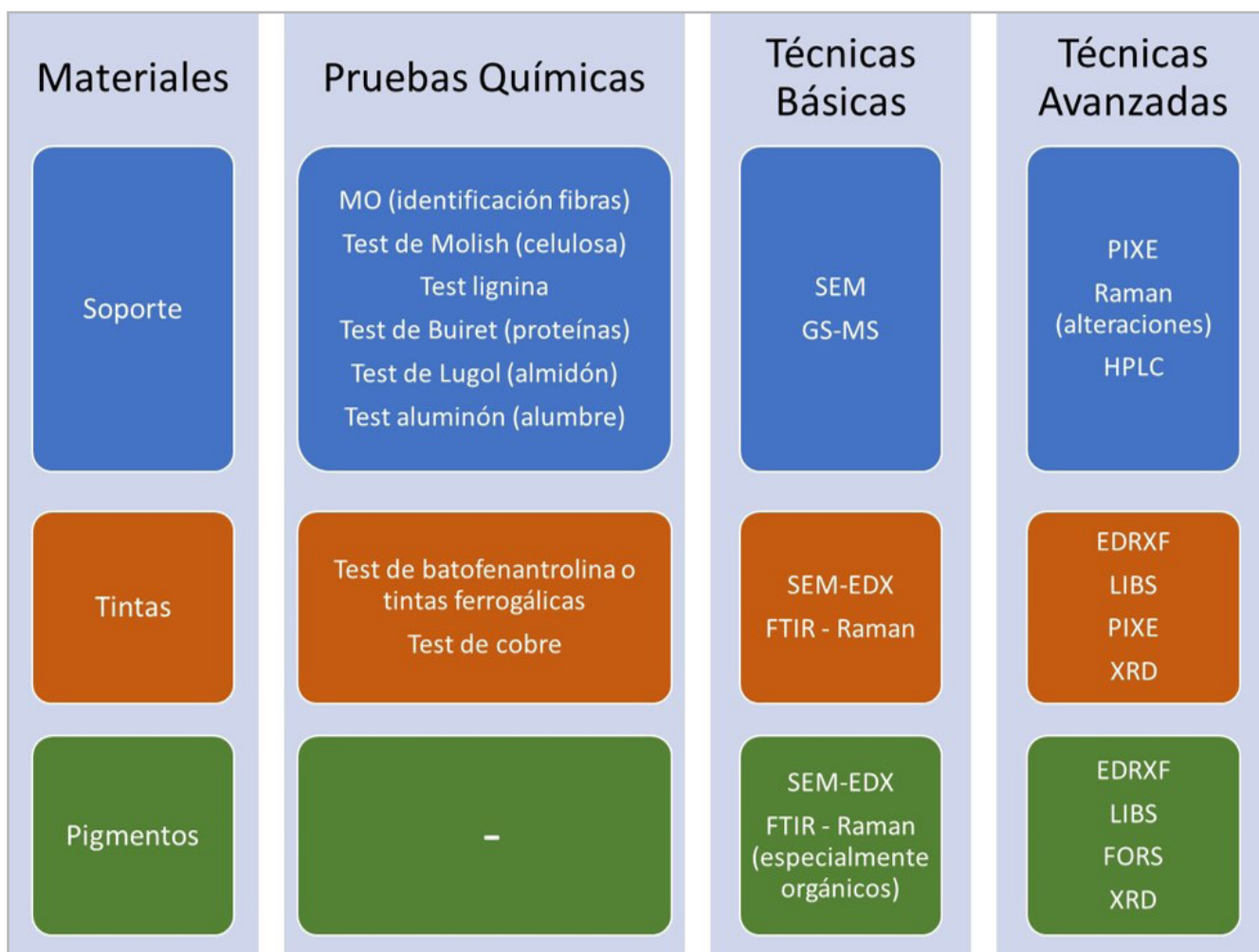


Figura 5.-Protocolo de actuación en función de los medios disponibles y el tipo de material a caracterizar

de restauración; los medios y recursos disponibles o la posibilidad de toma de muestras.

La figura 5 muestra, a modo de esquema, un protocolo de actuación general que facilita la labor de selección de técnicas y estudios a la hora de abordar la caracterización de un documento bibliográfico. En el eje superior, se establece una prelación de técnicas en función de los recursos y medios disponibles, desde las técnicas más básicas, hasta la caracterización mediante técnicas más complejas pero que aportan un mayor de precisión a la hora de proceder a la determinación de los materiales y los productos de alteración. El eje vertical, determina el empleo de técnicas en función del tipo de material a analizar, distinguiendo especialmente entre soportes y materiales sustentados.

La aplicación de este protocolo de actuación permite al conservador-restaurador realizar una aproximación a los materiales presentes en el documento de manera autónoma, así como seleccionar la técnica que mejor se ajuste a su necesidad de identificar determinados materiales. El grado de precisión requerido, generalmente aparece asociado a la importancia y valor del documento, así como la disponibilidad material y económica para llevar un mayor número de estudios.

Conclusiones

Los bienes culturales que constituyen el patrimonio documental están conformados por materiales de diversa composición química y propiedades. Es por ello que, para garantizar su preservación es necesaria su correcta identificación. El desarrollo de las técnicas analíticas de identificación, así como su puesta a punto para el análisis de documentos, garantiza un amplio espectro de posibilidades a la hora de abordar este tipo de estudios. De este modo, la elección de la técnica dependerá de diversos factores entre los que destacan el objetivo del estudio o material a caracterizar, la posibilidad o no de toma de muestra, los recursos y medios disponibles, etc.

Es importante tomar en consideración que el empleo de una única técnica analítica difícilmente podría servir para la realización de una caracterización general de los materiales que conforman un documento. De este modo, es necesario conocer el tipo de información que facilita cada técnica analítica, así como las técnicas que servirían para confirmar el resultado o para complementarlo. En este sentido, se ha establecido un protocolo de actuación que facilita la labor del restaurador a la hora de llevar a cabo la elección de técnicas en función del material a caracterizar. Debido a la dificultad

que entraña para muchos conservadores-restauradores el acceder a este tipo de técnicas analíticas, se ha dotado al protocolo de una primera aproximación mediante pruebas químicas que pueden ser desarrolladas en el propio taller.

Finalmente, es importante resaltar que la correcta caracterización de los materiales presentes en un documento no sólo aporta datos histórico-artísticos o de diagnóstico de la obra, sino que facilita la selección de los tratamientos de restauración y la implementación de los estándares de la conservación preventiva en función de las características del bien estudiado.

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La incidencia de la opinión social en el grado de vulnerabilidad de los edificios patrimoniales. El caso del centro histórico de Popayán (Colombia)

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Resumen: El patrimonio urbano y arquitectónico de muchas ciudades en Hispanoamérica es vulnerable frente a amenazas de diversa índole; la exposición a fenómenos naturales y antrópicos son muchas veces las causas de su destrucción, sin embargo, uno de los factores más importantes que sin duda tiende a debilitarlo, es su relación directa e indirecta con las sociedades comprometidas y por tanto, el valor que ellas han de asignarle; por este motivo, la opinión de los ciudadanos se convierte en un elemento constituyente de la preservación o destrucción del patrimonio histórico. Este trabajo se centra en analizar la opinión social de los habitantes de Popayán, Colombia, sobre el patrimonio arquitectónico de su centro histórico. El instrumento Las encuestas fueron diseñadas por un equipo interdisciplinario de arquitectos, ambientalistas, químicos, historiadores, matemáticos, ingenieros, ... que trabajan en Inteligencia Artificial aplicada a la conservación preventiva de edificios patrimoniales, y fueron revisadas por un sociólogo. Los resultados se analizaron como parte del insumo para la construcción de herramientas para determinar los factores involucrados en el grado de debilidad que sufren los edificios históricos y estimar la vulnerabilidad y peligrosidad, ante distintas amenazas.

Palabras clave: Conservación, grado de vulnerabilidad, opinión social, valor del patrimonio

The incidence of social opinion on the degree of vulnerability of heritage buildings. The case of the historic center of Popayán (Colombia)

Abstract: The urban and architectural heritage of many cities in Latin America is vulnerable to threats of various kinds; exposure to natural and anthropic phenomena are many times the causes of its destruction, however, one of the most important factors that undoubtedly tends to weaken it, is its direct and indirect relationship to committed societies and, therefore, the value that they assign it, because of that, the citizen opinion becomes a constituent element of cultural heritage preservation or destruction. This work focuses on analyzing the social opinion of the inhabitants of Popayan (Colombia), about the architectural heritage of the historical center. The surveys were designed by an interdisciplinary team of architects, environmentalists, chemists, historians, mathematicians, engineering, ... that work on Artificial Intelligence applied to the preventive conservation of heritage buildings, and were revised by a sociologist. The results were analyzed as a tool to determine the factors involved in the degree of weakness that historical buildings suffer and estimate the vulnerability and hazards, facing different threats.

Keywords: Conservation, grade of vulnerability, social opinion, heritage value

Introducción

Para precisar el valor patrimonial de un bien es importante entender, el concepto de significación cultural, desde las recomendaciones de las cartas internacionales, como la carta de Burra (ICOMOS 1999), donde se especifica que los conjuntos de valores asignados a los monumentos, incluyen el valor estético, histórico, científico, social o espiritual que toman su forma en los lugares, en su materialidad, en el entorno, en el uso, en asociaciones, significados, registros, sitios relacionados y objetos relacionados. Por tanto la percepción acerca de estos

valores, implica el reconocimiento y representatividad de las características y cualidades de los objetos, por parte de determinados grupos o individuos, que a su vez, establecen conexiones direccionadas a fortalecer, o no, la identidad comunitaria de los pueblos y que pueden emplearse también, como una función social en la cual una población, las toma, no solo como referente identitario, sino también como fuente potencial de desarrollo y relacionamiento social cotidiano (Llull Peñalba 2005).

Es necesario abordar también la relación entre el valor patrimonial y la conservación, lo cual se interpreta como

un campo complejo (Manzini 2011), en el que puede ser determinante la evaluación de la opinión social. Explica Caraballo (Caraballo Perichi 2008) que alrededor de la significación acumulativa y en concordancia con la permanencia y evolución de los monumentos, se integra el contexto físico y temporal; mientras Garré (Garré 2001) establece que, el atributo (objeto) que representa ese valor, pudo en otro momento haber representado otros, incluso contradictorios, al que en el presente se le asigna; este proceso de re-significación resulta a partir de la evolución cultural de las comunidades que intervienen en este proceso y de su percepción acerca del patrimonio. Por tanto, el concepto de valor cultural tiene que ver directamente con el de la conservación del patrimonio, como describe García Canclini (García Canclini 1999). Es evidente que la interpretación social de los edificios y lugares puede tener diferentes matices en un rango de valor, según los grupos o individuos, y donde se involucran los intereses propios, cuestionados en diferentes entornos y estados, ocasionando la falta de comprensión del significado del patrimonio, asociada a la obsolescencia, abandono o pérdida de los monumentos (Manzini 2011) o por el contrario puede servir como instrumento de salvaguarda al patrimonio mismo y de reafirmación de la identidad en un conjunto social.

Las investigaciones dirigidas a identificar y medir los riesgos del patrimonio histórico son imprescindibles en la generación de insumos para la gestión de los entornos y los edificios históricos. En los avances en este campo, son la clave para garantizar la conservación, las propuestas de metodologías que identifiquen las debilidades del patrimonio, con el uso de herramientas que permitan la toma de decisiones.

La inclusión del valor social asociado a la vulnerabilidad no puede evaluarse solo en función de un listado de valores culturales implícitos a la normativa de los sitios. En la actualidad, las normativas de muchos países implican la catalogación de los monumentos, estos inventarios de valores intrínsecos reconocidos y protegidos, deben considerarse incompletos para la conservación del patrimonio; como se aborda en el estudio sobre la vulnerabilidad sísmica en Chile (Díaz Fuentes 2017), y es por tanto necesario involucrar la opinión de la sociedad, para otorgar mayor legitimidad hacia el valor que representa el patrimonio; de lo contrario, es más probable que aunque un bien esté reconocido desde el ámbito formal no cuente con la apropiación social suficiente y por tanto no se pueda garantizar su preservación en el futuro.

En los manuales de riesgo, la vulnerabilidad suele recogerse como la susceptibilidad de los bienes culturales ante una perturbación, es decir la debilidad inherente del patrimonio (UNESCO 1977) por tanto, la opinión de la sociedad no puede ser subvalorada ante la fragilidad de los monumentos, ya que puede ser reflejo de vitalidad o quebranto ante las diferentes amenazas. La importancia

de este valor social del patrimonio se ha podido observar a nivel internacional tras el incendio de la Catedral de Notre Dame de París en 2019.

Este estudio complementa las metodologías propuestas por diversos autores (Ortiz y Ortiz 2016; Prieto *et al.* 2020; Turbay, Ortiz y Ortiz 2019) que tienen como objetivo calcular las vulnerabilidad en edificios históricos para minimizar los riesgos y la pérdida de elementos patrimoniales. Este tipo de investigaciones de evaluación de riesgos y estimación de la vulnerabilidad, incluyen estudios sistemáticos en los que se verifican las amenazas de tipo natural y antrópico, valorando el grado de afección mediante matrices de vulnerabilidad o inferencias calculadas por medio de inteligencia artificial; en los que se analizan un conjunto de variables. La opinión social del patrimonio histórico es una variable hasta ahora no incluida, que puede ser relevante como factor en la aproximación de escenarios de riesgo.

El modelo de evaluación de la opinión social que se aplicó en Popayán, tuvo como objetivo identificar la opinión de los ciudadanos como un factor que incide en la vulnerabilidad, y estimarlo como una nueva variable directamente proporcional a la debilidad o fortaleza del patrimonio ante las amenazas naturales o antrópicas. Este nuevo factor podría, a su vez, agregarse a las metodologías propuestas por varios autores (Ortiz y Ortiz 2016; Prieto *et al.* 2020; Turbay, *et al.* 2019) para la estimación de la vulnerabilidad de edificios históricos.

Metodología

La opinión social se ha evaluado mediante una encuesta de carácter anónimo, llevada a cabo en el casco histórico de la ciudad, específicamente en algunos puntos estratégicos del centro como son el Parque Caldas, uno de los lugares de mayor concurrencia, y en tres plazoletas de iglesias donde también se evidencia alto flujo peatonal diario (Alcaldía de Popayán 2015).

Las encuestas estuvieron dirigidas a ciudadanos colombianos o extranjeros, mayores de 18 años residentes en la ciudad, esto abarca a la población que ha establecido su domicilio de manera permanente en esa área y no incluye a la población que ejerce movilidad temporal o no definitiva, a través de movimientos diarios por distintas razones (trabajo, estudio, recreo, comercio, ...), y que puede implicar el traspaso de fronteras municipales como es el caso de Popayán, ya que es el principal centro urbano del departamento (Ministerio de Ambiente, Vivienda y desarrollo territorial 2004).

Para evaluar la muestra necesaria para que los resultados fuesen representativos, se tuvo en cuenta la población total estimada para Popayán (Colombia) en 2018, cercana a las 277.270 personas en la zona urbana, según los resultados del censo nacional de población y vivienda

(DANE 2019); la muestra se segmentó por medio de las variables de sexo y edad de acuerdo a los datos de la pirámide poblacional. El total de encuestas fue de 384, para obtener un 5% de error muestral y un 95% de confianza, de estas, 201 dirigidas a mujeres y 183 a hombres, de las cuales a su vez estuvieron distribuidos en 8 rangos de edad acorde con la densidad poblacional de cada grupo para la representatividad de la muestra.

Las encuestas en las que se basa este modelo han sido aplicadas en otras ciudades como Sevilla, Osuna y Marchena en España (Benítez *et al.* 2020). El proceso de entrevistas se realizó entre noviembre y diciembre de 2018, de forma aleatoria entre los ciudadanos.

La primera parte de la encuesta reúne una caracterización social de los encuestados, que permitió conocer aspectos claves de los ciudadanos como la edad, el género, el lugar de origen, ocupación, tiempo de residencia en la ciudad y el nivel de estudios alcanzados, que posteriormente fueron relacionados con los resultados de las preguntas, que contenían las variables sobre la opinión social. La segunda parte de la encuesta [tabla I] permitió al ciudadano evaluar los ítems o afirmaciones para dar cuenta de su opinión sobre aspectos referentes a las problemáticas que sufren los monumentos, como el nivel de conservación, la participación ciudadana e institucional, así como la apropiación y conocimiento sobre el patrimonio edificado de Popayán. En todas las preguntas se puede valorar entre 1 a 5, siendo 1 muy poco importante para el entrevistado, y el valor 5, implica que el concepto es considerado como muy importante por el entrevistado.

Los resultados de aplicación de las encuestas se ponderan mediante la opinión de los encuestados, para evidenciar el valor que representa el patrimonio, traducido en la preocupación de los ciudadanos hacia su conservación y su afectación en la vulnerabilidad del patrimonio de la ciudad.

El porcentaje de respuestas de cada valor (PRv), fue calculado con base al número total de respuestas obtenidas por cada uno de los valores (TRv) y dividida entre el sumatorio total de respuestas obtenidas por el valor correspondiente (ΣTRv) [Tabla II].

$$PRv(i) = \frac{TRv(i)}{\Sigma TRv} * 100$$

El promedio ponderado del grado de vulnerabilidad se obtiene, mediante el sumatorio de la multiplicación de cada porcentaje de respuestas de cada valor (PRv) por su Valor de la opinión social (V):

$$\text{Grado de vulnerabilidad} = \Sigma [PRv(i) * V(i)]$$

Esta valoración se encuentra en la escala entre 1 y 5, siendo 1 en los casos donde la preocupación social por el patrimonio implicaría un patrimonio menos vulnerable, y 5, en las ciudades en las que no hay preocupación social por el patrimonio, y esto hace que los monumentos sean más vulnerables.

Tabla I.- Resumen de la encuesta

Preguntas	Muy poco importante/ Muy bajo	Poco importante/ Bajo	Algo importante/ Medio	Importante/ Alto	Muy importante/ Muy alto
A. ¿Es importante conservar y mantener los monumentos de mi ciudad?	1	2	3	4	5
B. ¿Considero que los monumentos de mi ciudad son bien conocidos por sus habitantes?	1	2	3	4	5
C. ¿Creo que los políticos de mi ciudad se preocupan por los monumentos?	1	2	3	4	5
D. ¿Realizo visitas frecuentes a museos, monumentos, etc?	1	2	3	4	5
E. ¿Los monumentos tienen un papel importante a la hora de planificar mis viajes?	1	2	3	4	5

Tabla II.- Método para el cálculo de opiniones por escala de valor

Escala de valor de cada pregunta	Valor muy bajo	Valor bajo	Valor medio	Valor alto	Valor muy alto	
Valor de la opinión social (V)	1	2	3	4	5	
Total respuestas de cada valor (TRv)	(TRv)1	(TRv)2	(TRv)3	(TRv)4	(TRv)5	Sumatorio total respuestas (ΣTRv)

Resultados y discusión

—Contexto social de la ciudad de Popayán

Popayán está ubicada geográficamente en el Valle de Pubenza, entre la cordillera occidental y central al suroeste de Colombia, en el departamento del Cauca [figura 1], zona con alto riesgo sísmico. La vocación del departamento es rural, y esto se ve reflejado en las dinámicas y actividades de la población de composición cultural diversa, convirtiéndose la ciudad, en un centro de comercio donde interactúan los municipios cercanos. Popayán ha sido en las últimas décadas epicentro de migraciones del campo a la ciudad por desplazamientos forzados a causa del conflicto armado en Colombia. El turismo es uno de los motores económicos de la ciudad, que se activa especialmente en el mes de marzo y abril, cuando se celebra la Semana Santa, declarada Patrimonio Cultural inmaterial de la Humanidad.

La estructura productiva de la ciudad no está muy diversificada, y en el contexto social, funciona como un núcleo que acoge a un gran número de estudiantes foráneos al ser una atractiva opción para la realización de estudios superiores en diferentes universidades, por lo que su economía se apoya en actividades relacionadas. No obstante, hay una alta tasa de desempleo respecto a otras ciudades del país, así como los trabajos informales que no están amparados bajo las garantías legales para los trabajadores. El centro histórico de la ciudad actúa como centro político-administrativo, donde funcionan las instituciones gubernamentales, bancarias y sitios de uso comercial. Se trata del centro histórico más grande de Colombia, y pese a los grandes avatares sufridos por los sismos, mantiene su imagen de ciudad colonial, considerado Bien de Interés Cultural de ámbito nacional, por el valor histórico artístico de sus edificaciones [figura 2].

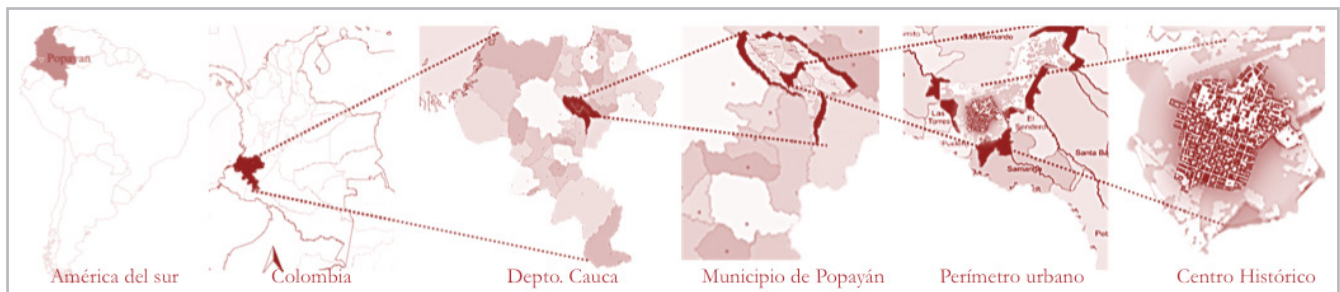


Figura 1.- Ubicación del Centro Histórico de Popayán.



Figura 2.- Vista general de la Parque Caldas en el Sector histórico de la ciudad de Popayán.

Desde el último terremoto de 1983, se han observado en el centro histórico, cambios en el uso de los materiales durante las restauraciones, rehabilitaciones o reparaciones de los monumentos, no siempre compatibles con los mismos, igualmente se ha observado un incremento del uso de los espacios públicos y privados y cambios en los usos del suelo que no son favorables para la conservación o que afectan de manera considerable el paisaje urbano [figura 3] y/o la materialidad de los edificios [figura 4].

—Caracterización de la población encuestada

Las 384 encuestas realizadas a residentes permanentes de Popayán fue acorde a la distribución socio-demográfica de la ciudadanía, donde el 58,3% de los encuestados son provenientes del resto del país, un 0,8% son extranjeros, y finalmente un 40,9% corresponde a población nativa. Un 39,6% de los encuestados respondió que su nivel educativo eran estudios secundarios, siendo este el porcentaje más alto,



Figura 3.- Alteración del paisaje urbano en el centro histórico A) Ocupación del espacio público, por uso comercial informal, frente a la iglesia de La Encarnación B) Antigua casa convertida en parqueadero sobre la calle 4 frente a la iglesia de San Francisco C) Alteración del perfil urbano por construcción de nuevas edificaciones, edificio sobre la carrera novena, con calle 4.



Figura 4.- Ejemplo de la morfología de la manzana contigua a la iglesia de San José en Popayán. Se pueden identificar, en esta vista superior de las cubiertas, cambios en los materiales y técnicas constructivas de las cubiertas de tejas de cerámica.

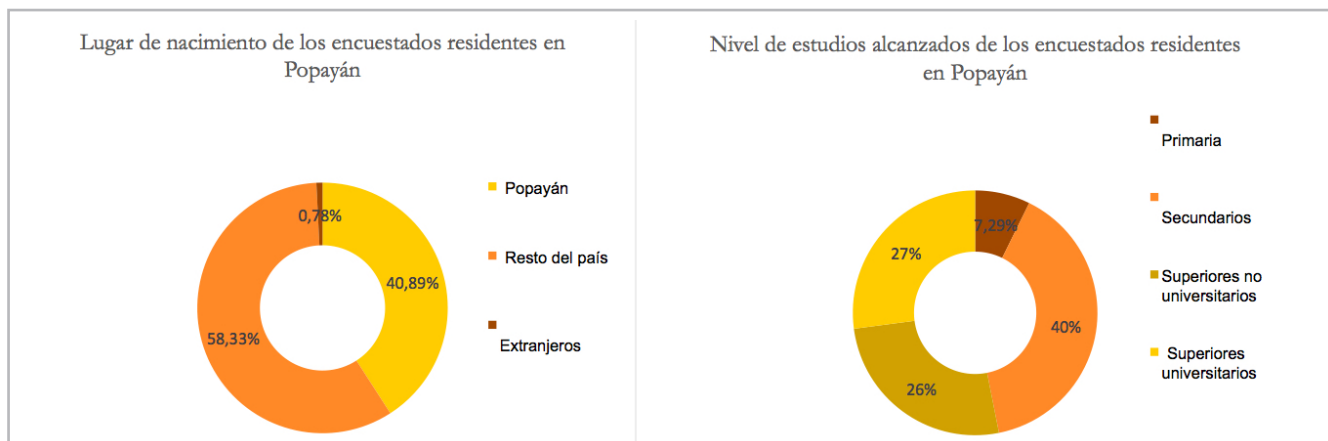


Figura 5.- Caracterización general de la población encuestada

lo que indica que gran parte de la población no ha accedido a la educación superior, universitaria y no universitaria. Para estos casos el 26% dijo tener estudios superiores no universitarios y un 27,1% estudios superiores universitarios. Un 7,3% dijo haber alcanzado sólo estudios de primaria [figura 5].

—Caracterización de la opinión social

A continuación, se recogen los resultados de las encuestas a partir de cinco aspectos: a) la importancia de la conservación del patrimonio en la ciudad, b) nivel de conocimiento de los monumentos, c) preocupación de los entes gubernamentales por los monumentos de la ciudad, d) visita a los monumentos de la ciudad y e) importancia de los monumentos para la planificación viajes. Estos resultados se analizan desde los rangos de edad, el nivel de estudios y el sitio de origen de los ciudadanos.

a) Opinión de los habitantes de Popayán sobre la importancia de la conservación del patrimonio de su ciudad.

El 79,2% de los ciudadanos encuestados calificaron en una escala del 1 al 5, que es muy importante la conservación (5); una significativa proporción respecto a las otras opciones, sólo el 0,8% valoró con uno (1), considerando que es muy poco o nada importante la conservación del patrimonio en la ciudad. Estas respuestas en su mayoría positivas aportan en la generalidad la importancia del patrimonio para los habitantes de Popayán, solo existe un porcentaje bajo de ciudadanos, 2,4% entre los niveles bajo (2) y muy bajo (1), que manifiestan que no les interesa, o les interesa muy poco, que sea preservado el patrimonio de la ciudad.

Esta opinión varía considerablemente entre los grupos de edad. El rango de edad que calificó con valores más bajos, corresponde a los jóvenes y adultos de temprana edad (18 a 29 años); los grupos de mayor edad fueron más propensos a calificar con valores más altos este apartado. Lo anterior se puede interpretar a partir de una posición de arraigo, apropiación y sentido de comunidad de las personas mayores, que desde su cotidianidad y a través del tiempo

han compartido imaginarios y desarrollado conexiones hacia los valores del patrimonio. Por el contrario, los jóvenes probablemente no se involucran de forma directa por lo que no le dan la misma importancia; además, Popayán concentra a una alta población foránea de estudiantes, que permanece en la ciudad, sin necesariamente establecer vínculos o reconocer los valores de su patrimonio. Este valor hace pensar en la necesidad de mejorar la visión de los más jóvenes del patrimonio histórico, independientemente de su origen, especialmente en países no envejecidos, como es el caso de Latinoamérica.

Según el nivel de estudios de los encuestados se observa que el 98,1% que tienen estudios superiores universitarios le otorgaron una valoración entre 4 y 5, por el contrario, el 17,9% de las personas con un nivel de educación primaria fueron los que otorgaron la valoración más baja (1, 2 y 3). Este resultado revela que el nivel de escolaridad y por tanto, el nivel de conocimiento adquirido indica una preocupación y conciencia mayor por el valor del patrimonio y podría ser la clave para fortalecerlo ante las distintas amenazas. Así mismo, nos lleva a pensar sobre la importancia de incluir el concepto de “conservación del patrimonio histórico” en las escuelas primarias como un aspecto curricular.

Según el lugar de origen, el 84,1% de la población local le otorgó la mayor valoración asignada, al igual que el 75,8% de la población originaria del resto del país. Esto señala que tanto nativos como allegados dan una gran importancia a los monumentos de la ciudad. Este resultado puede evidenciar la apropiación e identificación a causa de los valores sociales que el patrimonio aporta al imaginario colectivo en el transcurso del tiempo; el fenómeno que crea con las personas no locales que residen en la ciudad puede verse influenciado por la participación y el interés por parte de la población nativa.

b) Opinión de los habitantes de Popayán sobre su nivel de conocimiento de los monumentos de la Ciudad:

El 43% de los encuestados contestó que el nivel de conocimiento era regular en una escala del 1 al 5. Sólo

un 3,4% consideró que su nivel de conocimiento de los monumentos de la ciudad era muy alto, y en el otro extremo, un 6,8% opinó que era muy bajo. A través de estas respuestas, los ciudadanos expresan que el nivel de conocimiento sobre nuestro patrimonio, no es suficiente, lo que apoya la propuesta sobre la necesidad de incluir el estudio de estos aspectos desde la primaria. Algunos de los entrevistados, no tenían una opinión clara al respecto, favorable o desfavorable, y esto hace mucho más difícil la tarea de conectar de alguna forma los bienes patrimoniales con la sociedad, y mucho más esperar un papel activo de la ciudadanía en cuanto al tema.

En función de los grupos de edad, el que le asignó una mayor calificación (5) a esta pregunta tiene entre 18 y 29 años, y el grupo que dio la valoración más baja (1) tiene más de 60 años. En general las respuestas estuvieron inclinadas a calificarlo como regular (3), siendo los ciudadanos entre los 45 y 59 años los que más insistieron en esta respuesta. Esto indica que el simple hecho de convivir con el patrimonio no es un determinante para conocer el trasfondo detrás de este, y aunque los jóvenes fueron los que expresaron que conocían más el patrimonio, esto no se traduce en que desarrollen un interés particular hacia él, ni un alto grado de apropiación social, lo que se refleja en que no consideran importante su conservación según los resultados recogidos en el apartado anterior.

Según nivel de estudios, todos los grupos educativos concentraron su calificación como regular (3). El grupo con estudios de primaria es el que mejor valoró (5) su nivel de conocimiento, con un 10,7%, tan sólo el 1% de la población con estudios superiores universitarios piensan que su nivel de conocimiento es muy bueno (5). Las respuestas en esta categoría tuvieron una alta variación, pero se puede señalar que para la ciudadanía no es un punto fuerte el conocer su patrimonio a pesar de tenerlo próximo.

Según el lugar de origen de los ciudadanos, las respuestas en esta categoría varían respecto a la calificación asignada. La población proveniente del resto del país es la que le otorga una mayor valoración (5) con un 4%, respecto al 2,5% representado por la población local. Esto podría implicar que los foráneos tienden a percibir que el nivel de conocimiento sobre los monumentos en la ciudad es más alto que lo que consideran los locales. Si bien las diferencias son pequeñas y habría que profundizar en este aspecto.

c) Opinión de los habitantes de Popayán sobre la preocupación de los entes gubernamentales por los monumentos de la ciudad.

El 27,9% de los encuestados consideran que la preocupación de las organizaciones gubernamentales es muy baja (1), el 33,9% lo considera bajo (2) y el 29,7% como regular (3). En contraste, sólo el 0,5% de los encuestados contestó que el nivel de preocupación es muy alto (5). Esto tiene relación directa con el papel de las instituciones gubernamentales en lo concerniente a la gestión del patrimonio en la ciudad,

no sólo en términos de conservación, sino en la activación del sector económico y cultural y en la difusión que se hace del trabajo realizado.

Según los grupos de edad, los ciudadanos entre los 45 y 59 años (con un 41,3%) opinan que la preocupación de los entes gubernamentales es regular (3). En el caso de la valoración baja (2), es el rango entre los 30 y 44 quien representa un mayor peso porcentual, con un 38%. En el caso de muy baja preocupación (1), son los ciudadanos de más de 60 años (36,9%) los que consideran el papel de los políticos y gestores como deficiente.

Según el nivel de estudios, el grupo con estudios superiores universitarios considera mayoritariamente (47,1%) como baja la preocupación de los entes gubernamentales por los monumentos. El grupo con estudios de primaria son quienes en mayor proporción calificarían como muy baja (1) la acción de los gestores, seguida de la población estudios superiores no universitarios con un 35,7% y 33,0% respectivamente. Tan solo un 1,7% de los encuestados valora muy positivamente (5) la gestión.

Se evidencia que la opinión generalizada es que existe una deficiente gestión del sector público, tanto de las personas con mayor nivel educativo como de menor nivel educativo, sin embargo, son estas últimas las que peor lo califican, lo que podríamos traducir como una percepción de mayor distanciamiento y exclusión hacia esta población, a la cual probablemente no han llegado las acciones gubernamentales suficientes para involucrarla activamente. Por el contrario, hay que indicar que el centro histórico de Popayán es el más grande conservado en Colombia, su Semana Santa es Patrimonio Inmaterial de la Humanidad y cuenta con un Plan Especial de Manejo y Protección (PEMP) desde el año 2010, por lo que se evidencia la necesidad de medidas de comunicación sociales más efectivas con los diferentes grupos de interés para su participación en los modelos de conservación de la ciudad.

d) Opinión de los habitantes de Popayán sobre visitar los monumentos de su ciudad.

Los encuestados reconocieron en general no visitar los monumentos de la ciudad. El 25,8 % de los encuestados respondieron con un valor 2, lo que indica que el nivel de visitas es bajo; seguido del 24,2% con una valoración regular (3) y un 21,9% con una valoración muy baja (1). Se evidencia que sólo el 9,4% de los ciudadanos encuestados realiza visitas muy frecuentes, esto tiene implicaciones en la conservación del patrimonio, ya que un bien abandonado progresivamente por la sociedad civil, es más propenso a que desde las instituciones no se garanticen los mecanismos necesarios para mantenerlo en uso y en óptimo estado. Las causas son difíciles de analizar, pero podrían estar en el poco interés o tiempo en el esparcimiento cultural, y las pocas o nulas iniciativas desde los gobiernos nacionales y locales para proporcionar y mantener un rol activo del ciudadano hacia su entorno próximo.

Según grupos de edad, el grupo de mayores de 60 años y el de 18 a 29 años manifestaron visitar los monumentos de Popayán con mayor frecuencia (5) con porcentajes del 13,8% y 13,2% respectivamente. Los ciudadanos entre los 45 y 59 años son los que menos visitas realizan, ya que el 27,2% contestó que no realizaba visitas a monumentos y el 31,5% que casi nunca las realizaba.

Según nivel de estudios, los resultados obtenidos muestran que la población con estudios universitarios son los que con mayor frecuencia visitan los monumentos de la ciudad, con un 30,8% y un 13,5% para los valores de 4 y 5 respectivamente. Los ciudadanos que menos concurren a los monumentos pertenecen al nivel de estudios de primaria, representando un 42,9% y 21,4% con respuestas 1 y 2 respectivamente.

Según el lugar de origen, los resultados reflejan que los ciudadanos que nacieron en Popayán son los que manifestaron visitar de forma más regular los monumentos con las valoraciones 3, 4 y 5, con una importante diferencia porcentual respecto a la población foránea. Un 17,2% de los ciudadanos nacidos en Popayán dijeron que la frecuencia de visitas que hacía a los bienes patrimoniales era muy poco frecuente (1), no obstante, la población no local supera esta cifra con 7,9 puntos porcentuales.

e) Opinión de los habitantes de Popayán sobre la importancia de los monumentos para la planificación de sus viajes.

Los ciudadanos en general no consideraron fundamental este aspecto para desarrollar sus actividades de turismo y ocio. Tan solo un 25,5% de los encuestados lo valoró como

importante (4) y un 19,3% dijo que era muy importante (5), mientras un 23,7% lo considera con importancia media (3) y un 14,6% manifestó que no era nada importante (1).

Según grupos de edad, los mayores de 60 años y los jóvenes y adultos entre 18 y 29 años son los que manifestaron tener más en cuenta los monumentos para la planificación de sus viajes, con resultados totales de 58,4% y 57,6% respectivamente para valores de 5 y 4. Los ciudadanos entre los 45 a 59 años son los que menos tienen en cuenta este aspecto para planificar sus viajes, representando un 45,7% en total para las valoraciones de 1 y 2.

Con respecto al nivel de estudios, el grupo de ciudadanos con estudios universitarios es el que más tiene en cuenta este aspecto, un 26,0% da la valoración más alta (5) mientras un 33,7% da la valoración (4), lo que significaría que siempre o casi siempre tienen en cuenta los monumentos a la hora de planificar sus actividades de ocio y turismo. Por otro lado, la población que referenció tener solo estudios de primaria, es la que menor valoración le asigna a esta consideración (1 y 2), representando un 42,8% del total, le siguen las personas con estudios secundarios, entre las que un 16,4% da la valoración (1), y con porcentajes similares las personas con estudios superiores no universitarios que calificaron también en un 16% que no es importante (1).

—Evaluación de la opinión social

La figura 6 recoge un resumen comparativo de los cinco aspectos evaluados mediante las opiniones de los ciudadanos encuestados en Popayán.

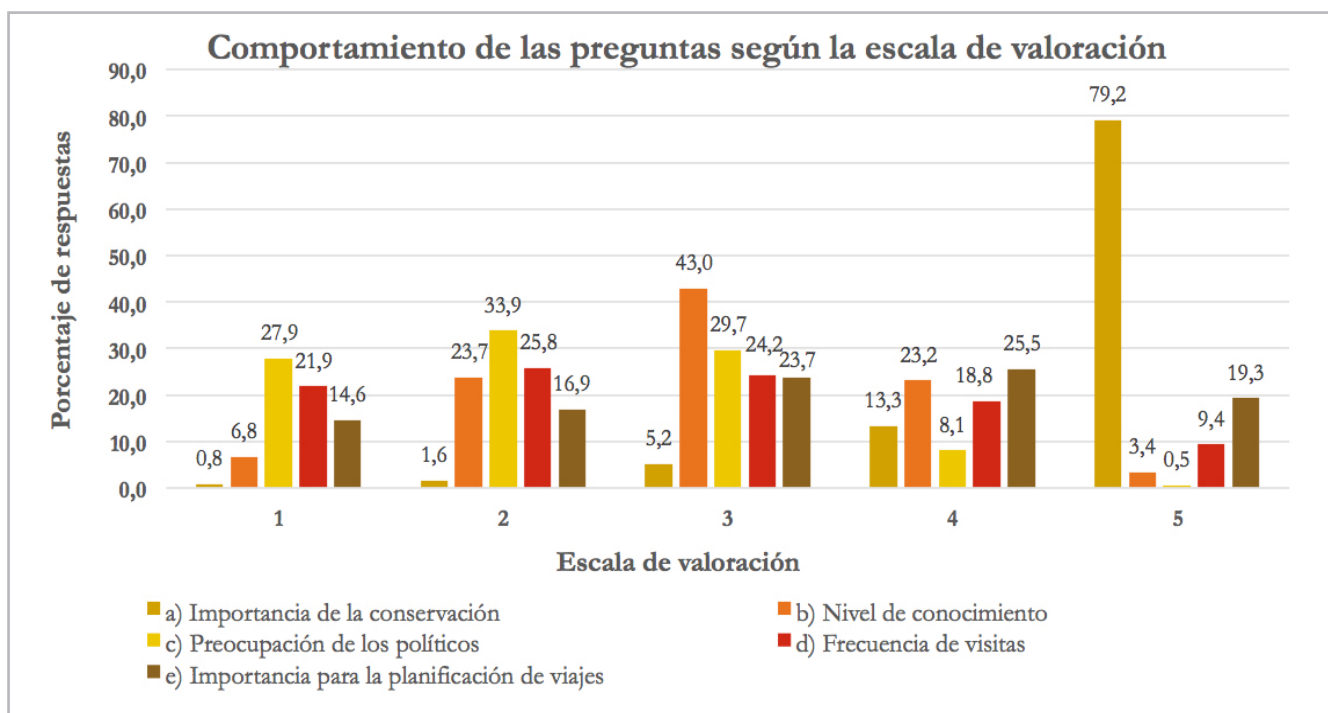


Figura 6.- Opinión social general de los ciudadanos de Popayán (Colombia) recogida en la encuesta sobre el patrimonio

El resultado del cuestionamiento sorprende por la elevada preocupación que expresan los ciudadanos sobre la importancia de la conservación del patrimonio, el 79,2% de los encuestados responde con el valor más alto (5), esto independiente del nivel educativo, edad o lugar de origen de los encuestados.

Este dato parece estar en contradicción con las respuestas a las demás preguntas, ya que, aunque existe un alto nivel de preocupación por la conservación del patrimonio histórico en Popayán, sus ciudadanos opinan que su nivel de conocimiento del patrimonio es regular, la preocupación de sus políticos por el patrimonio es muy baja, y gran parte de la población no visita frecuentemente los monumentos ni tiene en cuenta los bienes patrimoniales de forma significativa a la hora de planear sus viajes de turismo y ocio. Esto se podría explicar a partir del concepto de capital social (The Getty Conservation Institute 2013), que tiene que ver con la asociación identitaria, espiritual, ideológica y hasta de tipo histórico y estética que se puede desarrollar. Podría afirmarse que la importancia evidenciada por la ciudadanía puede ser un factor a favor de la conservación del patrimonio, pero dado el comportamiento de las otras variables no ha sido desarrollado en el territorio.

En cuanto al nivel de conocimiento de los bienes patrimoniales, el panorama no es muy positivo, tan solo el 3,4% lo calificó como muy alto, las respuestas se centraron entre medio y bajo. Esta variable es muy representativa, ya que darle una significación al patrimonio implica conocerlo. La difusión de este tipo de conocimiento no llega a la población en general, entre las posibles causas, encontramos el limitado acceso que tienen al patrimonio, que no motiva a los diferentes grupos de la sociedad, falta de campañas y políticas motivadoras, o la falta de interés de los individuos. Dada la amplia afluencia de personas foráneas en Popayán, es destacable que la población local insista en que el grado de conocimiento no es alto. Es ahí, donde es importante la implementación de estrategias educativas para promover el conocimiento hacia el patrimonio, su uso, su apropiación e incluso su relación como motor del desarrollo social y económico, o de los desarrollos comunitarios. Este estudio deja patente la necesidad de transmitir una visión del patrimonio edificado que vaya más allá de la importancia histórica (García Canclini 1999). Para lograrlo, es imperativo la accesibilidad a los conocimientos, ya que es una condición necesaria para la toma de decisiones, y contribuye a una conservación integrada del patrimonio (Icomos 2015).

En general, la percepción sobre la preocupación de los entes gubernamentales para preservar los monumentos es bastante

desalentadora, sólo el 0,5% de los ciudadanos encuestados la calificarían como muy alta; es decir, en opinión de la población, hay una ausencia de interés o voluntad política para llevar a cabo la labor de protección. Lo cierto es que los ciudadanos no perciben los esfuerzos de los gobiernos y líderes políticos, lo cual ofrece una pista acerca del rol histórico y actual de las instituciones frente al patrimonio; que sean las personas de mayor edad las que consideren que estos actores no tienen como una de sus prioridades el cuidado del patrimonio, demuestra una baja confianza en las instituciones, como gestores del mismo, y por tanto una larga tradición de invisibilidad a la sociedad durante generaciones (Garavito González 2006; Caraballo Perichi 2008)

El que los ciudadanos en su mayoría no frecuenten los monumentos de la ciudad es un indicador de la baja interacción que tienen con estos, sólo un 9,4% respondió que los visitaba de manera habitual; esto indica que, a pesar de convivir desde la cotidianidad, no se establece un vínculo ni reconocimiento con el entorno patrimonial. Una de las posibles causas son las limitadas iniciativas y actividades, que permitan el disfrute, igualmente la apatía o falta de interés hacia el ámbito cultural. Las visitas y la interacción adecuada con el patrimonio promueven un sentido de apropiación y una preocupación por la salvaguarda. Estas medidas pueden prevenir que se caiga en desuso o uso impropio, condiciones que se pueden dar si los espacios no son reconocidos por los ciudadanos para su aprovechamiento.

Por último, es importante anotar que apenas se tienen en cuenta el patrimonio para planificar viajes, tan sólo un 19,3% aseguró que era muy importante, seguido de un 25,5% que respondió que era altamente importante. No obstante, para la mayoría no representa un factor determinante o imperativo para escoger el destino de su tiempo de ocio y viajes; esto es coherente con las repuestas asignadas a otros aspectos, como el poco conocimiento sobre el patrimonio y la baja frecuencia de visitas. Esto evidencia aún más el desconocimiento de los ciudadanos acerca de los entornos patrimoniales y a su vez denota poco interés y capacidad de divertirse en buena medida por la ausencia de diversificación y difusión del patrimonio.

—La opinión social como factor agregado en el grado de vulnerabilidad

El porcentaje de respuestas de cada valor (PRv), calculado con base al número total de respuestas obtenidas para cada uno de los valores (TRv) para la escala de 1 al 5, se representa en la tabla III.

Tabla II.- Método para el cálculo de opiniones por escala de valor

Escala de valor de cada pregunta	Valor muy bajo	Valor bajo	Valor medio	Valor alto	Valor muy alto
Valor de la opinión social (V)	1	2	3	4	5
Total respuestas de cada valor (TRv)	276	391	483	341	429
Porcentaje de respuestas de cada valor (PRv)	14.40%	20.40%	25.20%	17.80%	22.30%

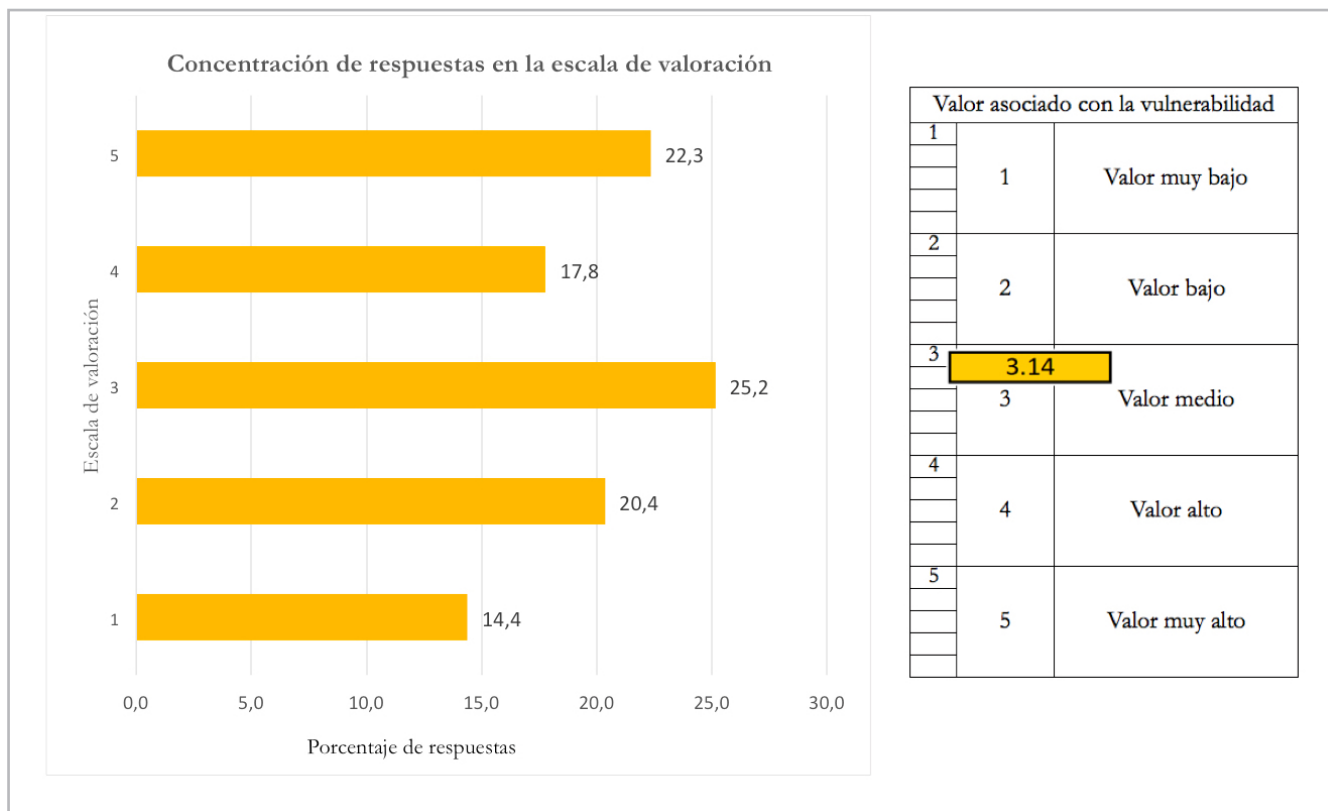


Figura 7.- Grado de vulnerabilidad del patrimonio de Popayán según la opinión social de sus habitantes

A partir de estos datos se ha calculado el grado de vulnerabilidad en función de las opiniones sociales, aplicando la ecuación recogida en la metodología. El grado de vulnerabilidad del patrimonio de Popayán asociada a la opinión de los encuestados, se puede estimar como medio, correspondiente a un valor de 3.14, en una escala de medida de 1 a 5, siendo (1), muy vulnerable y (5) muy poco vulnerable. [figura 7]

En Popayán, como en la mayoría de ciudades hispanoamericanas, están latentes las dinámicas de orden global, que pueden afectar a la opinión de la sociedad frente al patrimonio, como el crecimiento demográfico y aumento de la pobreza, el consumismo, entendido como la visión a corto plazo, la moda global promocionada por los medios de comunicación, la cultura global que discrimina las diversidades culturales, la falta de recursos profesionales para atender técnicamente el patrimonio y la ausencia de conocimiento esencial sobre los monumentos, entre las principales causas enumeradas en el informe de ICOMOS (ICOMOS 2000) sobre monumentos y sitios en peligro. A estas causas, se suman otras de orden nacional o regional que están relacionadas con los problemas de índole colectivo como la fragmentación social, la diversidad en la composición cultural de la población actual, producto de las migraciones y el desplazamiento forzado del campo a las ciudades; además, la falta de alternativas de inversión pública, para suplir la necesidades básicas como la vivienda y

la educación, ocasionando cambios socioeconómicos y llevando progresivamente a la pérdida de la identidad cultural.

Las implicaciones sobre los bienes patrimoniales ya se perciben en el centro histórico de Popayán, y pueden estar asociadas a esta baja-media valoración social del patrimonio. Entre esas implicaciones hay actuaciones de la población, que sobrepasan la existencia de la normativa, como son los usos impropios del suelo, la ocupación informal del espacio público con fines lucrativos, o la construcción de edificaciones ilegales afectando el paisaje urbano y la contaminación visual. Estas amenazas al patrimonio histórico pueden tender a incrementarse en el futuro de forma progresiva, en especial por combinación con otros factores, como la presión urbanística, bajo políticas de gestores poco sensibilizados o preocupados por la conservación del Patrimonio. Por otro lado, la falta de conocimiento sobre el valor del patrimonio, puede afectar a proliferación de intervenciones u obras de mantenimiento inadecuadas, que sumada a la carencia de conocimientos técnicos o falta de documentación, puede llevar a actuaciones que desfiguren la materialidad del patrimonio. Además, la ausencia de reconocimiento de los valores tangibles e intangibles del patrimonio puede favorecer el robo, el vandalismo, el abandono o los usos no compatibles; que a la larga ocasionan el debilitamiento físico del monumento, su pérdida de significación cultural, la ruina o incluso su desaparición [figura 8].



Figura 8.- Ejemplos de alteración en la conservación del patrimonio de Popayán. A) Construcción de edificio modificando los perfiles urbanos ubicado en la Carrera 10 con calle 4 en el sector histórico. B) Grafitis como muestra de actos vandálicos afectando el paisaje urbano en la iglesia de El Carmen. C) Contaminación visual y vandalismo por grafiti en la Iglesia de santo Domingo.

Conclusión

La metodología desarrollada en este trabajo puede contribuir a valorar la vulnerabilidad del patrimonio, desde la óptica de las comunidades allegadas. Los resultados ponen de manifiesto la importancia de evaluar el comportamiento social que puede afectar de manera directa al patrimonio, como es el caso de los actos vandálicos o la presión urbanística, o de manera indirecta por las corrientes de orden global y/o conflictos de intereses. En este sentido, estimar la conciencia y principales preocupaciones de los ciudadanos ante la preservación del patrimonio podría medir el nivel de sensibilidad social acerca de la importancia que tiene su conservación, e identificar las necesidades actuales de la población y las medidas para fortalecer la conservación como factor de identidad y desarrollo sostenible.

Los resultados obtenidos en esta investigación son útiles para el planteamiento de estrategias basadas en la colaboración y participación activa de los ciudadanos, donde tengan la posibilidad de comprender, valorar y proteger el patrimonio. El análisis realizado se basa en un componente subjetivo y cualitativo, relacionado con la percepción de los habitantes de Popayán, del patrimonio de su ciudad, y por tanto hay una incertidumbre asociada a la medición y evaluación, que debe ser analizada en futuros estudios. En este sentido, la relación del ciudadano con su patrimonio implica múltiples escalas de percepción basadas en sus necesidades a nivel individual y comunitario, sin embargo, pueden identificarse patrones de valoración discernibles y cuantificables vinculados a causas frecuentes de deterioro o de conservación del patrimonio edificado, por lo que la metodología planteada se puede usar para campañas que impliquen formas de actualización del patrimonio que tengan como fin su conservación.

Este estudio pone de manifiesto la necesidad de la coparticipación de distintos actores gubernamentales y no gubernamentales, que puedan involucrarse en la gestión de los bienes de interés cultural, la estimación e implementación de políticas de actualización del valor del patrimonio para elevar el grado de significación de

las comunidades más próximas al él, y a su vez la creación de todo un escenario donde se promuevan los recursos patrimoniales.

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