





# The challenge of cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics: molecular characterization of celluloid detachable collars and Fabrikoid

## O desafio dos tecidos revestidos com nitrato de celulose: caracterização molecular de colarinhos destacáveis de celulóide e Fabrikoid

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### Abstract

In the 19th century, significant linen and leather imitation products were invented using cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics, including celluloid detachable collars and Fabrikoid artificial leather, now preserved in the Hagley Museum and Library, USA. Using optical microscopy,  $\mu$ Raman, and  $\mu$ Fourier Transformed Infrared spectroscopies, this study highlights the need for characterizing the heterogeneity of these materials at the microscale. While the detachable collars have well-preserved fabric coatings composed of cellulose nitrate, camphor, anatase ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ), and carbon-based particles, Fabrikoid's pigmented cellulose nitrate-castor oil systems show problems. Our molecular data align with a 1922 report on Fabrikoid degradation, revealing free fatty acids and carboxylates formed due to oil oxidation. This is concerning as these materials were used until the 1960s, demonstrated by the analysis of objects from the National Museum of Costumes in Portugal. Future studies should address the compatibility of cellulose nitrate with fatty acids and the reactivity of additives in these systems.

### Resumo

No século XIX, foram desenvolvidas imitações de linho e couro utilizando tecidos revestidos com nitrato de celulose, como os colarinhos destacáveis de celulóide e o Fabrikoid, preservados no Hagley Museum and Library, EUA. Usando microscopia óptica e espectroscopias de Raman e infravermelho, este estudo destaca a necessidade de caracterizar a heterogeneidade destes materiais. Enquanto os colarinhos têm revestimentos bem preservados, compostos por nitrato de celulose, cânfora, anatase ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) e partículas à base de carbono, os sistemas de nitrato de celulose e óleo de rícino do Fabrikoid são problemáticos. Os dados moleculares revelaram a formação de ácidos gordos livres e carboxilatos devido à oxidação do óleo. Tal revela-se preocupante, pois a análise de objetos do Museu Nacional do Traje em Portugal demonstrou a utilização destes materiais até 1960. No futuro, a compatibilidade do nitrato de celulose com ácidos gordos e a reatividade de aditivos deve ser explorada em detalhe.

### KEYWORDS

Cellulose nitrate  
Castor oil  
Coated fabrics  
Material culture  
Cultural heritage  
Conservation

### PALAVRAS-CHAVE

Nitrato de celulose  
Óleo de rícino  
Tecidos revestidos  
Cultura material  
Património cultural  
Conservação

## Introduction

Cellulose nitrate (CN) is a perennial challenge for the cultural heritage community. In the past 30 years, conservation scientists have studied cellulose nitrate degradation mechanisms in detail, which is fundamental to establishing efficient and sustainable conservation strategies [1-3]. However, cellulose nitrate degradation depends on the history of the multiscale heterogeneous systems composing cellulose nitrate artifacts. Due to the vast range of cellulose nitrate applications, the complete understanding of these historical systems is still limited. Degradation studies must comprehensively integrate different types of cellulose nitrate products and production methods, differing in formulations and processes, varying from factory to factory and country to country, allowing us to consider efficient conservation procedures tailored to each cellulose nitrate historical system.

Conservation studies have characterized a wide range of artworks from Naum Gabo, Antoine Pevsner, and László Moholy-Nagy; tridimensional celluloid objects, such as hand mirrors, combs, boxes, toothbrushes, piano keys, dentures, or billiard balls; photographic and cinematographic films; and lacquer/paint films [4-15].

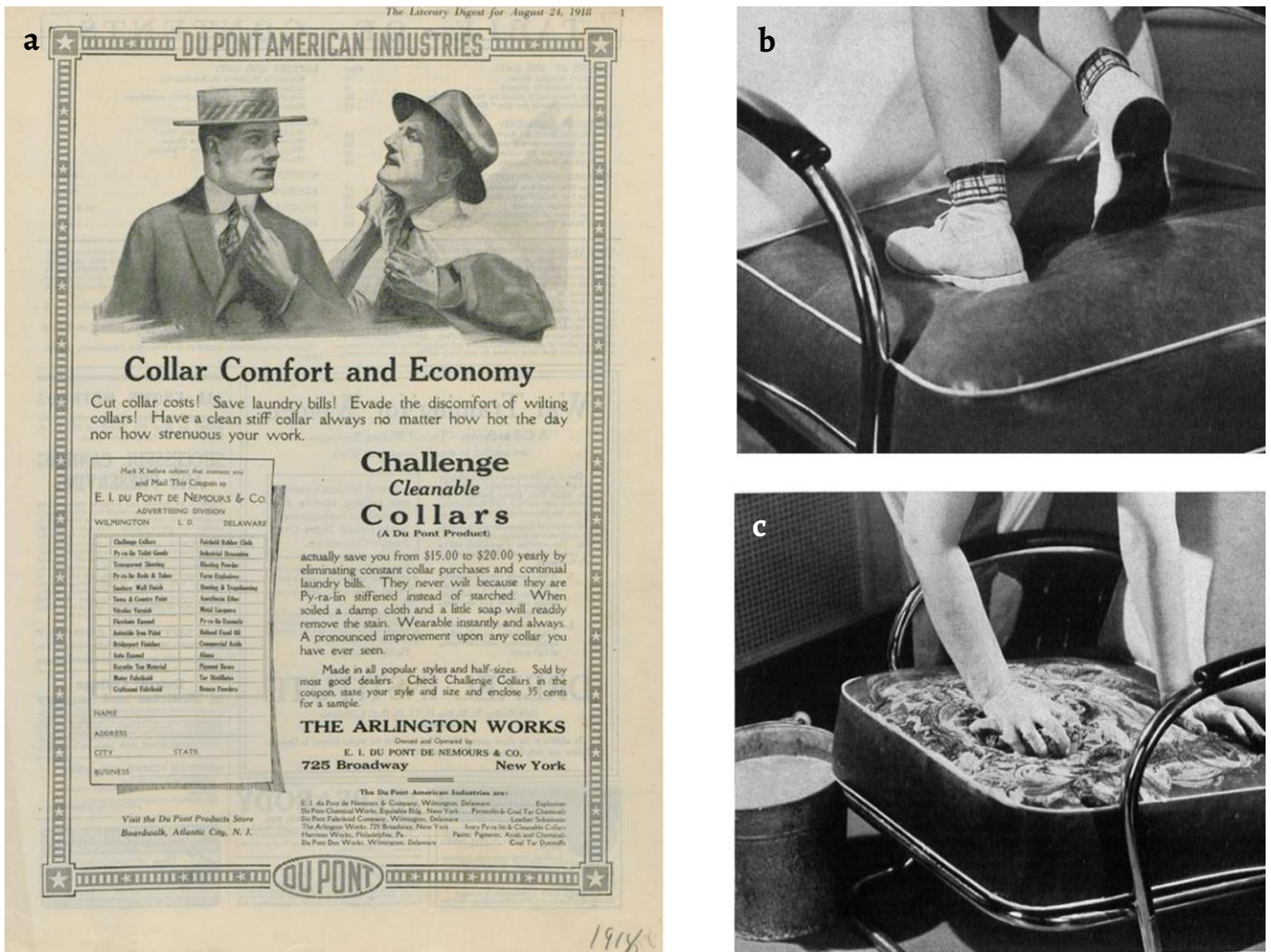
In comparison, this work emphasizes a small list of conservation studies focusing on cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics [16-17]. Ison et al. [16] identified an imitation leather upholstery of a nineteenth-century coach as a cellulose nitrate-coated fabric, stressing that "little is known about the use practices and composition of early coated fabrics found on actual historic objects" [16].

In 1855, Alexander Parkes patented the first process to coat fabrics with cellulose nitrate for waterproofing [18]. In the following decades, cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics led to the development of significant linen and leather substitutes, particularly celluloid, used for detachable collars and cuffs, and Fabrikoid, used to replace leather in a range of applications. This work aims to contribute to a better understanding of early coated fabrics by studying these two cellulose nitrate products. The following sections will briefly detail their production's historical significance and technical aspects.

### Detachable celluloid collars

In the 1820s, the inconvenience and expense of laundering linen shirts led to the introduction of detachable collars and cuffs, permitting the separate cleaning and starching of these most exposed shirt parts. The growing middle class, particularly in the United States, found detachable collars an affordable way to maintain a clean appearance. However, while elegant, the detachable linen collars still required the worker to buy several pieces and to spend money on laundering and starching services, promoting the search for alternatives that were cost-competitive, durable, and easily cleaned at home [19-20].

Experiments to apply cellulose nitrate as a waterproof coating started in the late 1850s by covering the surface of the cloth with collodion or by casting a thin cellulose nitrate film over a glass and, when nearly dry, adhering it to the cloth. However, these methods did not allow a smooth and even finish. Only with the invention of celluloid sheets by John W. Hyatt in the 1870s was it possible to achieve the technical requirements, such as strength, stiffness, flexibility, color, and regularity, needed to create a viable alternative to all-linen collars [18]. Rufus Sanborn, Albert Sanborn, and Charles Kanouse were the first to use celluloid sheets to manufacture collars and cuffs in 1878. Their method was deceptively simple: a sheet of muslin or linen was placed between two sheets of celluloid, and pressure was applied to unite the three layers, achieving a stiff and easily cleaned linen imitation [21].



**Figure 1.** Cleaning advertisements: a) 1918 advertisement for the “Challenge Cleanable Collars” focusing on the economy advantages of having an easily cleanable material; b-c) from Du Pont Magazine (1938) showing how easily Fabrikoid could be cleaned with soap and water. Cleaning operations like these raise conservation questions regarding their impact in material lifetime (images: Hagley Museum and Library).

Detachables celluloid collars and cuffs offered practicality and ease of care. They were used by a wide range of workers, from police officers to clerks. Due to celluloid’s imitative nature, many consumers deemed celluloid collars inelegant and associated them with naïve country rustics or social climbers. Therefore, the celluloid collar and cuff had a smaller market size than linen. However, it was active enough to support manufacturing by celluloid companies such as the American Arlington Manufacturing Company or the British Xylonite Company [19]. The Arlington Mfg. Co. was established in 1885 in New Jersey and labeled their celluloid plastic “pyralin”. In 1915, the company was purchased by E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company, which started advertising their “new” pyralin collars – the “Challenge cleanable collars” (Figure 1). Production continued until 1939, using the Sanborn-Kanouse method of layering cotton fabric between cellulose nitrate plastic sheets [22].

By the 1920s, stiff collars started to wane due to the more relaxed fashion trends. With the advancements in washing machines and fabric technology, buying, and washing entire shirts became a realistic and cost-effective choice for the average consumer [23-24]. Today, detachable celluloid collars can be found in notable collections, including those at the Smithsonian Institution (USA), the Museum of Design in Plastics (UK), and the Deutsches Kunststoff Museum (Germany). These collars symbolize an era when male dress codes required stiff, impeccably white collars, showcasing the ingenuity of the early inventors of semisynthetic coated fabrics in tackling market needs imposed by nineteenth-century social inequalities.

### ***The whiteness of the celluloid detachable collars***

The whiteness of the celluloid collars and cuffs was crucial for its commercial success. Worden [18] states that zinc and manganese salts were used, although zinc and manganese carbonates were avoided because they would turn yellow by reacting with the sulfur released during perspiration. He added that high quantities of zinc and manganese salts would decrease the waterproofing properties due to increased porosity. Waterproofing was essential for the easy cleaning procedures, but the lower the quantity of white pigment, the lower the whiteness strength of the final product. To increase the white appearance of the finished product, J. W. Hyatt added an inner blue tint backing to the celluloid sheets.

DuPont formed the Krebs Pigment and Color Corporation to make titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) pigment in 1931. There are two processes to make TiO<sub>2</sub> pigments: sulfate and chloride. Both processes can produce rutile pigment, while anatase pigment can solely be derived from the sulfate process. Until 1941, Dupont used the sulfate process to produce anatase. Afterward, the company started producing rutile pigment due to its higher opacity and tinting strength; rutile has a refractive index of 2.72, the highest of any white pigment; anatase has a refractive index of 2.54 and zinc oxide of 2.0 [25].

### **Fabrikoid**

As for celluloid detachable collars, the development of cellulose nitrate artificial leather derived from the interest in enhancing the properties of natural fabrics, rendering them more durable, waterproof, easily washable, or immune to biological attack. According to Worden [18], the Englishmen Wilson and Story developed the standard formula for producing successful cellulose nitrate artificial leather in 1884. The method involved coating the cloth with cellulose nitrate, amyl acetate, and castor oil.

Castor oil is primarily composed of ricinoleic acid (>89 %) and other fatty acids such as linoleic (4 %), oleic (3 %), stearic (1 %), and palmitic acids (1 %). Due to castor oil's non-volatile, non-drying, and solubility characteristics (soluble in alcohols in any proportion), it was extensively tested in combination with cellulose nitrate to increase the flexibility of the final products [26]. Depending on the desired flexibility, the amount of castor oil in the mixture could be increased to match cellulose nitrate [27].

A pioneering American company in producing cellulose nitrate artificial leather at a large scale was the Pegamoid Company, established in 1895 in Hohokus, New Jersey. In 1900, the factory plant moved to Newburgh, New York, and the company was renamed The Fabrikoid Company. In 1910, E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company strategically acquired the Fabrikoid Company during a crucial juncture in its trajectory, marked by its initiative to diversify its market presence beyond explosive products [28].

In the 1920s, the formulation of Fabrikoid closely resembled that of Wilson and Story:

- 1) cellulose nitrate (with an average degree of substitution of 2.1) was dissolved in an organic solvent (a mixture of amyl acetate, ethanol, and benzene) to create a cellulose nitrate "jelly" or "dope";
- 2) pure castor oil was blended with the desired pigments and added to the dope;
- 3) the dope was spread uniformly onto a fabric (described as greige or "grey" goods), previously dyed to match the color of the dope, employing a specially-designed-coating machine called "doctor-knife";
- 4) after applying a specific number of coats, determined by the end-use of the product, the roll of coated fabric underwent pressure (10<sup>4</sup> pounds per square inch) to consolidate the layers of dope, smoothen the surface, and achieve the desired artificial leather texture. [29]

As Meikle [30] explained, the manufacturing process of Fabrikoid was "mechanized, virtually automated, and continuous". The mechanization of Fabrikoid led to reduced production costs and faster manufacturing compared to the traditional, labor-intensive leather industry,

making it an affordable and readily accessible material. It was produced in rolls ranging from 25 to 50 meters long, with uniform thickness, appearance, and quality. In addition, the possibility of cleaning operations with aqueous solutions was an advantage (Figure 1). Fabrikoid was used in various applications, mainly in the automobile industry, but also in furniture, footwear, luggage, wall coverings, or bookbinding. In such novel objects as cameras and portable phonographs, no cultural norms dictated the need for leather-like surfaces. The innovative use of Fabrikoid in such objects suggests its influence in creating a modern world of artificial surfaces and textures.

### ***The degradation of Fabrikoid***

The formulation of Fabrikoid was inherently unstable due to the combination of cellulose nitrate with high concentrations of castor oil. Discussions on formulation problems due to high concentrations of castor oil are well-known in the history of cellulose nitrate plastics. For example, it is conjectured to have been Alexander Parkes's greatest technical error in making Parkesine, the first cellulose nitrate plastic. Du Pont carried out intensive laboratory research to understand and prevent the degradation of Fabrikoid, which they reported in 1922 [31]. The report was divided into two parts: A) the causes of rancidity, tackiness, and brittleness, and B) the study of oxidation inhibitors. The results of this research concerning the rancidity tests are relevant for the conservation field, and the main results are summarized in Table 1.

The first stage of Fabrikoid degradation was rancidity development, i.e., oil oxidation. Rancidity induced an “offensive odor” due to the production of shorter carbon chain fatty acids. This issue was particularly problematic for indoor uses. The prominent factors influencing the rancidity rate were the pre-processing and acidity of the oil (free fatty acids), the cellulose nitrate quality, the pigments, and the storage conditions. Rancidity tests of castor oil with an acidity ranging from 1 % to 93.4 % showed that the higher the acidity, the faster the rancidity rate. Mixtures with “high stability” CN took more time to turn rancid, likely meaning CN of low impurity content, such as residual sulfate groups, which are known to accelerate CN degradation [32]. Fabrikoid samples exposed to light at room temperature, particularly wavelengths below 400 nm, degraded faster when compared with thermal degradation (65 °C) in dark conditions. It is known that the cellulose nitrate mechanism of photodegradation is identical to thermal degradation, with a faster oxidation rate [2].

Carbon-based materials had a strong retarding effect on rancidity due to their acid and moisture adsorbent properties. Several oxidation inhibitors were tested with 2-aminophenol, tannic and gallic acids being the most efficient. Overall, the oxidation inhibitors were more efficient under dark conditions, Table 1. For economic reasons, a 1 % w/w concentration of tannic acid was chosen for industrial use in all products except those with light colors since all aromatic compounds led to discoloration in white goods.

The second stage of Fabrikoid degradation was tackiness due to the exudation of the fatty acids. Du Pont's report proposed that shorter carbon chain fatty acids had higher solvation power over cellulose nitrate, forming a tacky superficial layer. However, no data was provided, for example, glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ). The last stage – brittleness – was only observed in white goods due to the presence of zinc oxide and the formation of zinc soaps. The reactivity of zinc oxide in oil-based paintings has been thoroughly studied due to the consequential cracking and delamination arising from saponification. In these systems, zinc oxide reactivity depends on several factors, such as the properties of the pigment, oil, and environmental factors [33]. To the author's knowledge, no studies have yet been performed to understand the hydrolysis and saponification mechanisms in cellulose nitrate–castor oil-based systems.

**Table 1.** Fabrikoid rancidity tests reported by Du Pont in 1922 [31]. An increase in the number of days to rancidity indicates greater efficiency of the additive's stabilizing action.

| Additive                    | % w/w in CN-castor oil film  | Rancidity / days <sup>a</sup> |        |     |
|-----------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--------|-----|
|                             |  | 65 °C                         | Window |     |
| <i>Oxidation Inhibitors</i> | 2-aminophenol  | 0.375                         | 180    | -   |
|                             | Tannic acid  | "                             | 120    | 90  |
|                             | Gallic acid  | "                             | 120    | -   |
|                             | Pyrogallol   | "                             | 102    | 70  |
|                             | Phloroglucinol   | "                             | 75     | 63  |
|                             | Picric acid  | 3                             | 65     | 32  |
|                             | Beta-naphthol  | 0.375                         | 64     | -   |
|                             | Citric acid  | "                             | 11     | -   |
| <i>Adsorbent</i>            | Alumina hydrate  | 4                             | 6      | 46  |
|                             | Bone-black   | 4                             | 35     | 60  |
|                             |  | 0.5                           | 3      | 35  |
|                             | Activated charcoal   | 0.5                           | 3      | 35  |
| <i>Pigments</i>             | Bone black   | 16.6                          | 210    | 100 |
|                             | Van Dyke brown   | "                             | 180    | -   |
|                             | Lake pigments  | "                             | 60-65  | 95  |
|                             | Yellow ochre (Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , SiO <sub>2</sub> )              | "                             | 5      | 52  |
|                             | Ultramarine blue   | "                             | 3      | 39  |
|                             | Red oxide (Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )                                    | "                             | 2      | 45  |
|                             | Chrome yellow (PbCrO <sub>4</sub> )  | "                             | 2      | 24  |
|                             | Burnt siena (Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> ) | "                             | 2      | 24  |
|                             | Zinc oxide   | "                             | 2      | 9   |
|                             | Prussian blue  | "                             | 1      | 7   |
|                             | Lithopone (ZnS + BaSO <sub>4</sub> )   | "                             | 1      | 7   |
|                             | Raw umber (Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , MnO <sub>2</sub> )                 | "                             | 1      | 7   |

<sup>a</sup>Rancidity was detected by odor. Two aging methods were employed: thermal aging at 65 °C; and photoaging (sunlight) in a sealed glass container at room temperature.

## Research aims

The main aim of this study was to analyze the formulations utilized in celluloid detachable collars and Fabrikoid. To achieve this, we examined three case studies from the Hagley Museum and Library collection using  $\mu$ Raman and  $\mu$ FTIR spectroscopies: two cleanable detachable collars and a marketing brochure of Fabrikoid consisting of nine sheets in various colors (Figure 2).

For the collars, our objective was to confirm the composition of the coating, typically a blend of cellulose nitrate and camphor, and to identify any additional additives present. According to Worden [18], castor oil was commonly added to celluloid collars in 15-20 % ratio by weight to "give a slight feeling of pliability". Considering the concerns about the stability of cellulose nitrate-castor oil systems, it was important to ascertain the presence of castor oil. Another crucial aspect was the identification of pigments used, such as zinc oxide or titanium oxide (rutile or anatase), or others. In cellulose nitrate-camphor systems (without oils), zinc oxide serves as a stabilizer with UV-absorbing and acid-neutralizing properties [32]. However, Du Pont's 1922 report on Fabrikoid degradation indicated that when castor oil is combined with cellulose nitrate, the reactivity of zinc oxide can be detrimental to the system. Pigments also play a role in dating the objects, particularly considering Du Pont's advancements in titanium oxide technology since 1931. Titanium dioxide pigments have higher refractive indices than zinc oxide, which is pertinent for applications requiring a white color, such as collars.



**Figure 2.** Three objects from the Hagley Museum and Library collection studied: *a*) challenge cleanable collar, puritan style, "collar A"; *b*) pyralin cleanable collar, Aberdeen style, "collar B"; *c*) "6200 Armor Quality" Fabrikoid brochure with nine sheets of different colors where it is possible to see the overall whitish surface deposit.

The Fabrikoid set was an opportunity to understand better the complexity of cellulose nitrate-castor oil systems and their degradation issues. The Fabrikoid sheets, covered with Melinex sheets, exhibited blooming characterized by a whitish surface deposit (Figure 2). This study sought to gain insight into the underlying degradation mechanism responsible for this observed blooming by combining molecular data of the base formulation and pigments employed in each sheet with technical information collected from the 1922 DuPont report. Furthermore, considering the probable post-1922 manufacture date of the Fabrikoid set relative to the DuPont report, the composition of these sheets offers a preliminary exploration of the potential industrial-scale ramifications of DuPont's experiments.

Lastly, to assess the presence of cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics in Portuguese cultural heritage collections, we selected four objects from the National Museum of Costumes in Portugal (Museu Nacional do Traje) dating from the 1920s to the 1960s, which contained artificial leathers vaguely described as "nappa" in their compositions (in Portuguese the word "nappa" is commonly used for artificial leathers).

## Experimental

### Detachable celluloid collars from the Hagley Museum and Library

In this work, two detachable collars from the Hagley Museum and Library were analyzed by  $\mu$ FTIR and Raman. Both collars are in good conservation condition. "Collar A" is a Challenge

cleanable collar, puritan style, and size 15 ½ (inventory number 69.46.213). Advertisement for this type of collar was found in a 1919 Du Pont catalog, sold at 35c each. “Collar B” is a pyralin cleanable collar, Aberdeen style and size 15 ½ (inventory number 69.462.295) (Figure 2). C.E. Buckley Co., Leominster, Massachusetts, produced both collars. On April 6, 1939, C.E. Buckley Co. purchased Du Pont’s collars and cuffs departments [34]. This year, they started producing Challenge, Blue Ribbon, and Water Nymph collars for “clergymen, businessmen, postmen, soldiers, naval officers, workmen, railroad employees, nurses, nuns, waiters, orchestra musicians”. This company continued to manufacture these products for years to come. In 1974, the collars were only marketed as clerical, showing the commercial tapering of this accessory towards this profession.

### **Fabrikoid samples from the Hagley Museum and Library**

The “6200 Armor Quality” Fabrikoid brochure with nine sheets of different colors was found in the E.I. du Pont de Nemours & Company, Advertising Department records 1803, box 40. The Fabrikoid sheets were covered with a Melinex sheet and showed a whitish surface deposit. Part of the surface deposit was adhered to the Melinex when it was removed. This brochure was undated. However, there are records advertising this product from 1925 to 1946. This Fabrikoid type was mainly marketed for upholstery but also found application in book bindings. Sheet 9 was not sampled due to storage limitations (Figure 2).

### **Samples from the National Museum of Costumes, Portugal**

As the National Museum of Costumes in Portugal lacked any items classified as containing Fabrikoid or any other cellulose nitrate-coated fabric, the search focused on the keyword “nappa” and dates between 1920 and 1960. Ultimately, four objects were chosen for examination, described in “Results and discussion” section.

### **Materials**

The following materials were used as Raman and infrared material references: pure cellulose nitrate membranes (Amersham Protran, 0.2 µm), camphor (96 %, Sigma-Aldrich), pure microcrystalline cellulose powder (Sigma-Aldrich), pure castor oil (Soft & Co), barium sulfate (99 %, Alfa Aesar), palmitic acid (98 %, Panreac) and zinc palmitate [35].

### **Equipments**

#### **Optical microscopy (OM)**

Micrographs were acquired using an Axioplan 2ie Imaging system (Zeiss, Germany) equipped with an incident halogen (tungsten-halogen light source, HAL 100) and UV radiation (mercury light source, HBO 100) illuminators and coupled with a DXM1200F digital camera and ACT-1 control software (Nikon, Japan). The samples were analyzed using ocular lenses with a magnification of 10× and Epiplan objective lenses with magnifications of 20× and 50× for a total optical magnification of 200× and 500×, respectively. The scales for all objectives were calibrated within the Nikon ACT-1 control software. Fluorescence microscopy images were acquired with ultraviolet light (Zeiss Filter set 02 – excitation G 365 nm, beamsplitter FT 395 nm, emission LP 420 nm).

#### **Micro Fourier transformed infrared spectroscopy (µFTIR)**

The micro samples were acquired under a ZEISS stereomicroscope using TED-Pella microtools. Under the microscope, it was observed that the collar was composed of two coating layers and an interior composed of threads of fabric. Samples were acquired from both regions. The micro samples acquired were analyzed with micro-Fourier on a Nicolet iS50 FT-IR spectrophotometer equipped with a Nicolet Continuum (15× objective) microscope and a Mercury – Cadmium – Tellurium (MCT) detector cooled by liquid nitrogen. Micro samples were placed on a DC-3 diamond compression cell (Specac), and the spectra were acquired in



transmission mode between the 4000-650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , with a resolution of 8  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 254 scans. For the quantification of cellulose nitrate degree of substitution (DS) and the proportion of camphor (% w/w) in a celluloid object, were applied the infrared calibration curves developed by Neves et al. [10]. Briefly, DS is an indicator of molecular degradation since it decreases with CN heterolytic hydrolysis induced by light, heat, or moisture; and camphor concentrations tend to decrease over time due to sublimation. Carbonyl band areas were measured using OMNIC “peak area tool”.

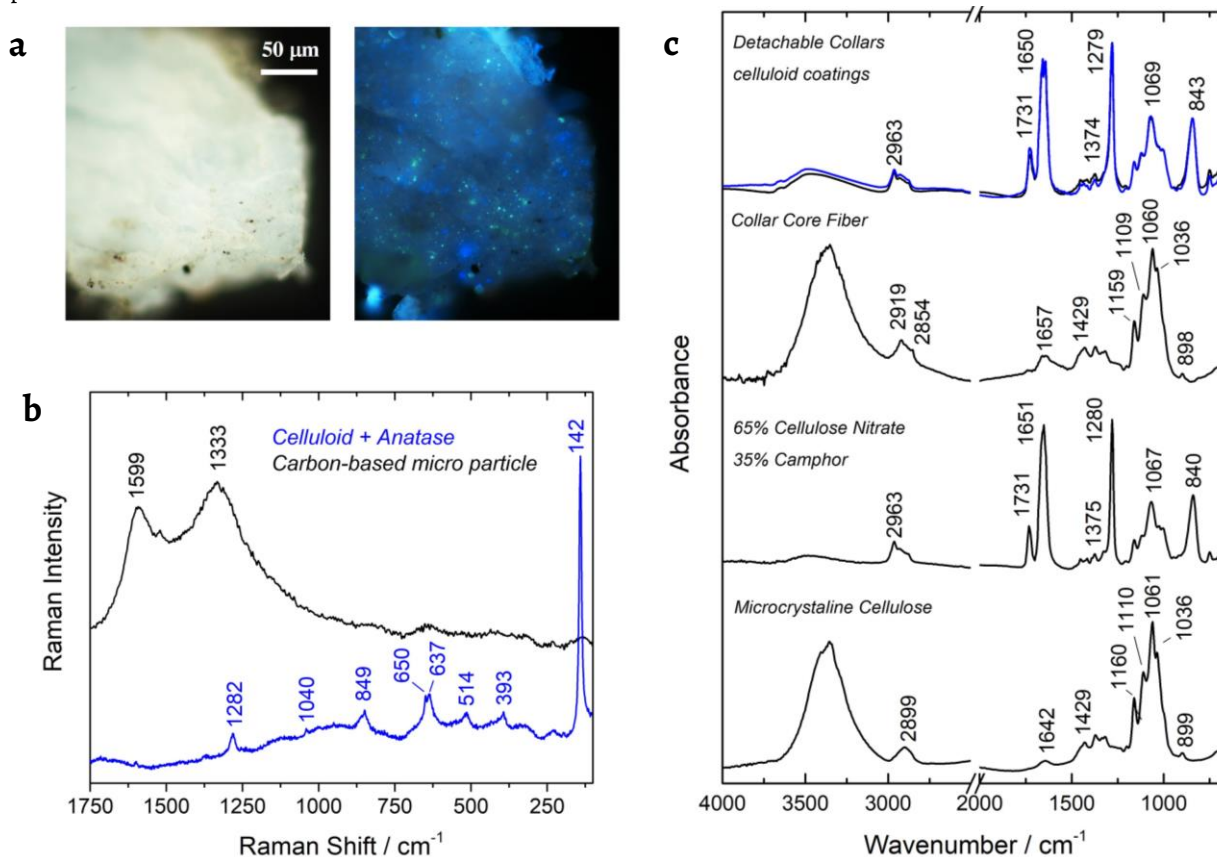
### Micro Raman spectroscopy ( $\mu$ Raman)

Micro-Raman spectra were collected on a Labram 300 Jobin Yvon spectrometer equipped with a He-Ne laser (632.8 nm, 17 mW) and a diode laser (785 nm, 100 mW). The laser beam was focused with an Olympus 100 $\times$  lens with a spot size of 2  $\mu\text{m}$ . The conditions used are provided for each spectrum.

## Results and discussion

### Detachable celluloid collars

The infrared spectra of both celluloid collars showed that the white coating is composed of celluloid (cellulose nitrate and camphor) and the inner fabric is composed of a cellulosic fabric. In more detail, cellulose nitrate was identified by its characteristic infrared nitrate group stretching bands at 1650 ( $\nu_a\text{NO}_2$ ), 1280 ( $\nu\text{NO}_2$ ) and 844 ( $\nu\text{NO}$ )  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and the cellulosic acetal structure between 1200 and 900  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Camphor was identified by the carbonyl stretching vibration at 1731  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and CH stretching and bending vibrations between 3000-2800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1500-1300  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively [36] (Figure 3). There were no spectral features that indicated the presence of castor oil in the formulation.



**Figure 3.** “Collar A”: a-b) Micrographs (500 $\times$ ) of a microsample observed under cross-polarized light and with UV light ( $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 365 \text{ nm}$ ); c) Raman spectra (633 nm laser) of anatase ( $\text{TiO}_2$ , 120 s acquisition time, 3 cycles) and of a carbon-based particle (60 s acquisition time, 1 cycle); d) Infrared spectra of the detachable collars’ white celluloid coatings and inner cellulose fiber compared with references of pure celluloid (65 % cellulose nitrate and 35 % camphor) and microcrystalline cellulose.

The average degree of substitution (DS) of cellulose nitrate and the proportion of camphor (% w/w) were quantified: DS 1.78 ( $\pm 0.06$ ) and 27 % w/w ( $\pm 2$ ) camphor for collar A; and DS 1.85 ( $\pm 0.08$ ) and 33 % w/w ( $\pm 1$ ) camphor for collar B. This molecular information shows the collars' aging, with the DS being lower than stated by the literature for the DS used in manufacture (DS 2.1). The concentration of camphor continues to be high for both collars, with lower concentration correlating with lower average DS.

Surprisingly, under the microscope using cross-polarized light, it was possible to observe dark micrometer particles dispersed in the white matrix.  $\mu$ Raman analysis showed that these particles are composed of a carbon-based material by the detection of graphite D and G vibration bands at 1333 and 1599  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively [37] (Figure 3). Based on the findings reported in 1922, it is possible that this carbon-based material was used in low concentrations for stabilization purposes.

The Raman spectra acquired for the collars showed that the pigment used was anatase ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ), by the observation of characteristic O-Ti-O bond bending vibrations at 141 ( $E_g$ ) and 396 ( $B_{1g}$ )  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and the Ti-O stretching vibrations at 512 ( $A_{1g}$ ) and 637 ( $E_g$ )  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [38]. No other white material was found. The luminescence observed in collar A insights into the heterogeneity of anatase-celluloid systems. The bandgap for anatase is 3.2 eV (387 nm) and its emission depends on intrinsic defects; for example, green emissions arise from "intra-bandgap states associated with oxygen vacancies" [39] (Figure 3). The presence of anatase in both collars suggests a date for these objects between 1939 and 1941; C.E. Buckley Co. only started manufacturing collars in 1939 and Du Pont shifted to the production of rutile in 1941.

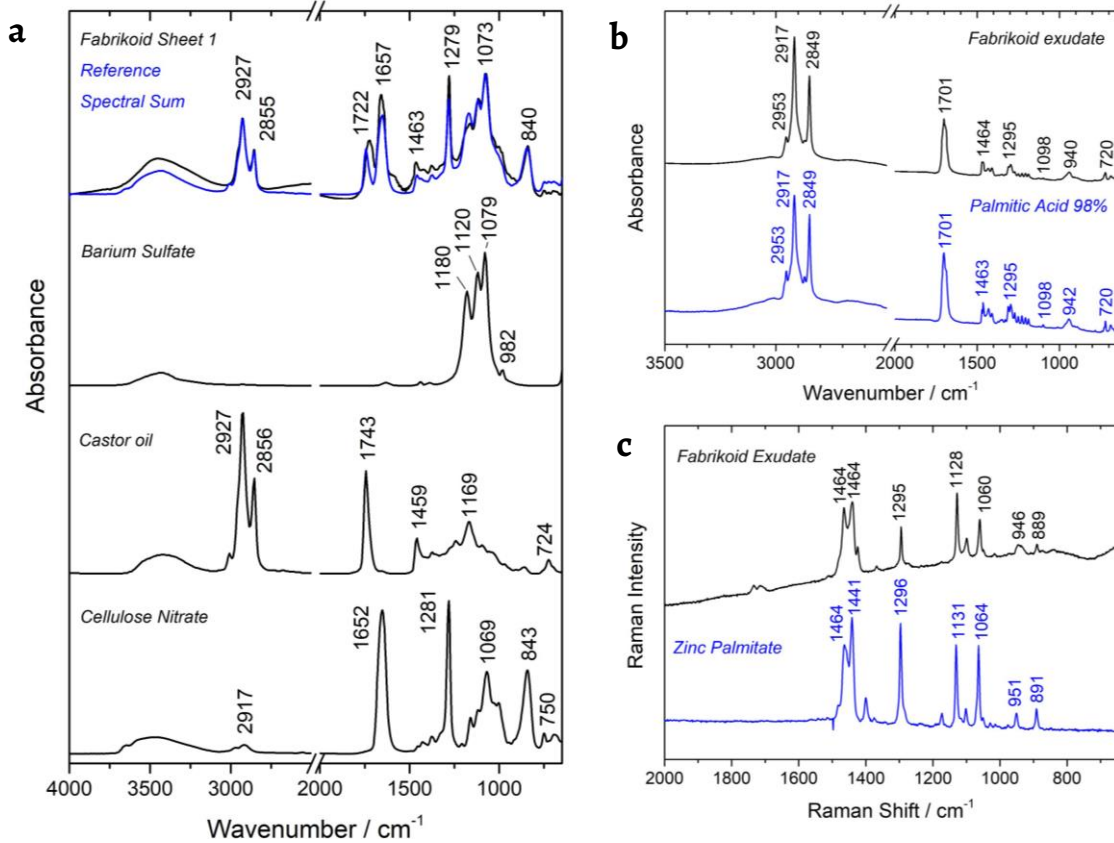
The inner fabric material is composed of cellulose fibers identified by the characteristic acetal structure bands in the region between 1250 and 900  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and the strong absorption in the OH region 3500-3000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , comparable with the pure microcrystalline cellulose infrared spectrum (Figure 3). The additional bands observed at 2919 and 2854  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  related to CH stretching vibrations, in combination with a weak band at 1739  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  due to carbonyl group stretching, is suggestive of traces of a wax or resin [40].

### Fabrikoid

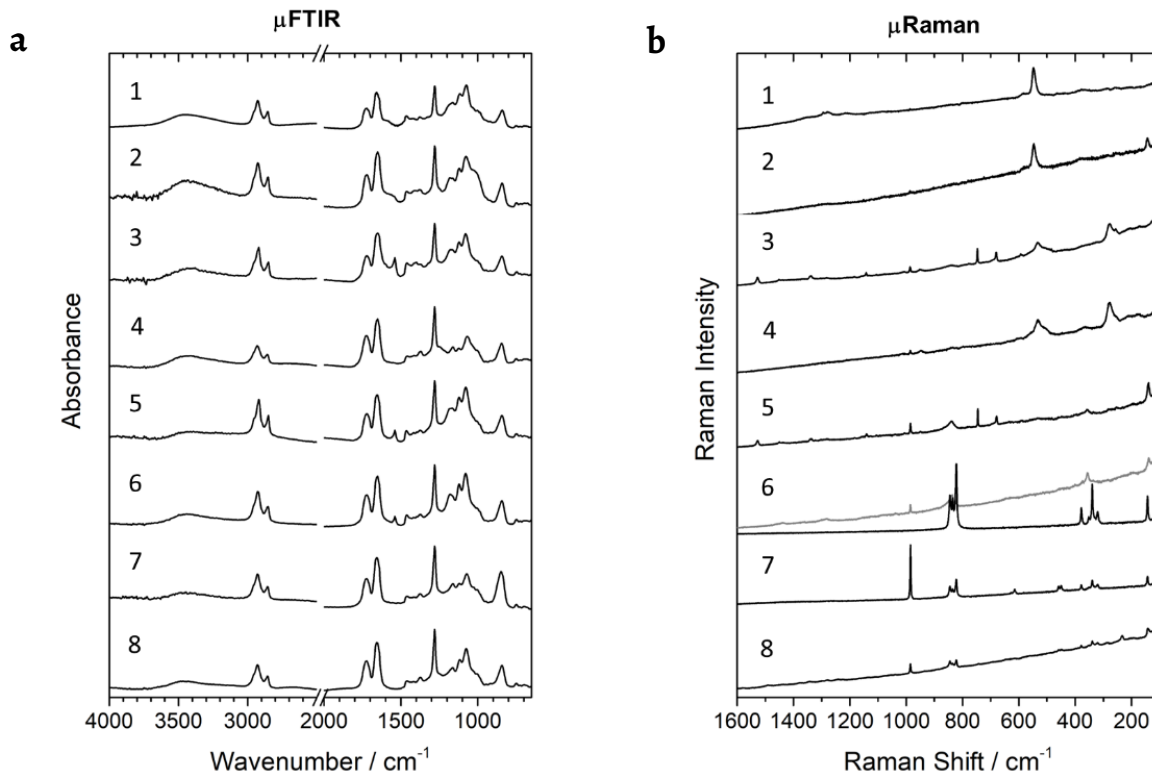
All Fabrikoid sheets showed similar infrared spectra, confirming their common cellulose nitrate-castor oil-based composition. Interestingly, another shared compound found was barium sulfate ( $\text{BaSO}_4$ ) (Figure 4, Figure 5 and Table 2). Using infrared spectroscopy, cellulose nitrate was identified by characteristic nitrate group stretching bands at circa 1650 ( $\nu_a\text{NO}_2$ ), 1280 ( $\nu\text{NO}_2$ ) and 840 ( $\nu\text{NO}$ )  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Castor oil bands were characterized by the CH and  $\text{CH}_2$  stretching vibrations observed at circa 2925 and 2855  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and  $\text{CH}_3$  asymmetric bending at circa 1460  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Shifts in the CH vibrations positions can be due to oxidation or to the interaction of the oil with the pigments [41]. Barium sulfate was identified by its characteristic sulfate group ( $\text{SO}_4$ ) triply degenerate vibrational modes ( $\nu_3$ ) at 1180, 1120 and 1080  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [42]. Shifts observed in these vibration bands are due to changes in concentration. In Figure 4, an infrared spectral sum of CN, castor oil and  $\text{BaSO}_4$  reference spectra (1:1:1 proportion) is compared with Fabrikoid sheet number 1 infrared spectrum, supporting the presence of this three-component system in all sheets.  $\mu$ Raman supported the identification of  $\text{BaSO}_4$  by the observation of the strong  $\text{SO}_4$  symmetric stretching at 986  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , asymmetric bending at 615  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and asymmetric bending modes at 458 and 450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [43] (Table 2).

The increase of the area of the carbonyl band is related to the oil oxidation: unaged castor oil carbonyl area = 8.2 vs average carbonyl area in Fabrikoid sheets = 11.2 (normalized) [44]. The shift of the maximum to lower wavenumbers is related to the formation of saturated free fatty acids. This was confirmed by the detection of the infrared characteristic bands of palmitic acid when analyzing the whitish deposit at the surface of the Fabrikoid sheets (Figure 4). This fatty acid is one of the primary oxidation products of unsaturated C18 fatty acids, together with stearic and azelaic acids [33]. Infrared vibration bands found in sheets 3, 5 and 6 at 1539  $\text{cm}^{-1}$

suggested the presence of metal carboxylates, namely zinc palmitate and stearate. This was confirmed by  $\mu$ Raman that detected peaks related to zinc carboxylates [35] (Figure 4).

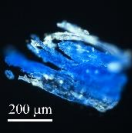
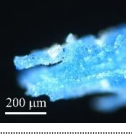

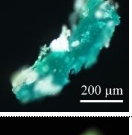
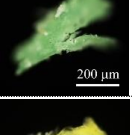
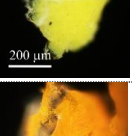
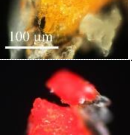



**Figure 4.** Infrared spectrum of the: a) Fabrikoid brochure sheet 1, compared with a spectral sum (proportion 1:1:1) of the reference infrared spectra showed below, namely barium sulfate ( $\text{BaSO}_4$ ), castor oil and cellulose nitrate; b) Fabrikoid exudate (removed from the Melinex sheet) compared to a reference infrared spectrum of palmitic acid (98%); c) Raman spectrum of the Fabrikoid exudate in sheet 6 compared to a reference infrared spectrum of zinc palmitate (633 nm laser, 17 mW, 60 s, 3 cycles).



**Figure 5.** Spectra of the Fabrikoid sheets: a) Infrared and b) Raman (785 nm laser, 100 mW, 5-50 s acquisition time, 1-5 cycles). For  $\mu$ Raman analysis of sheet 8, a density filter was used (10 mW) due to intense fluorescence background, probably from an organic red pigment.

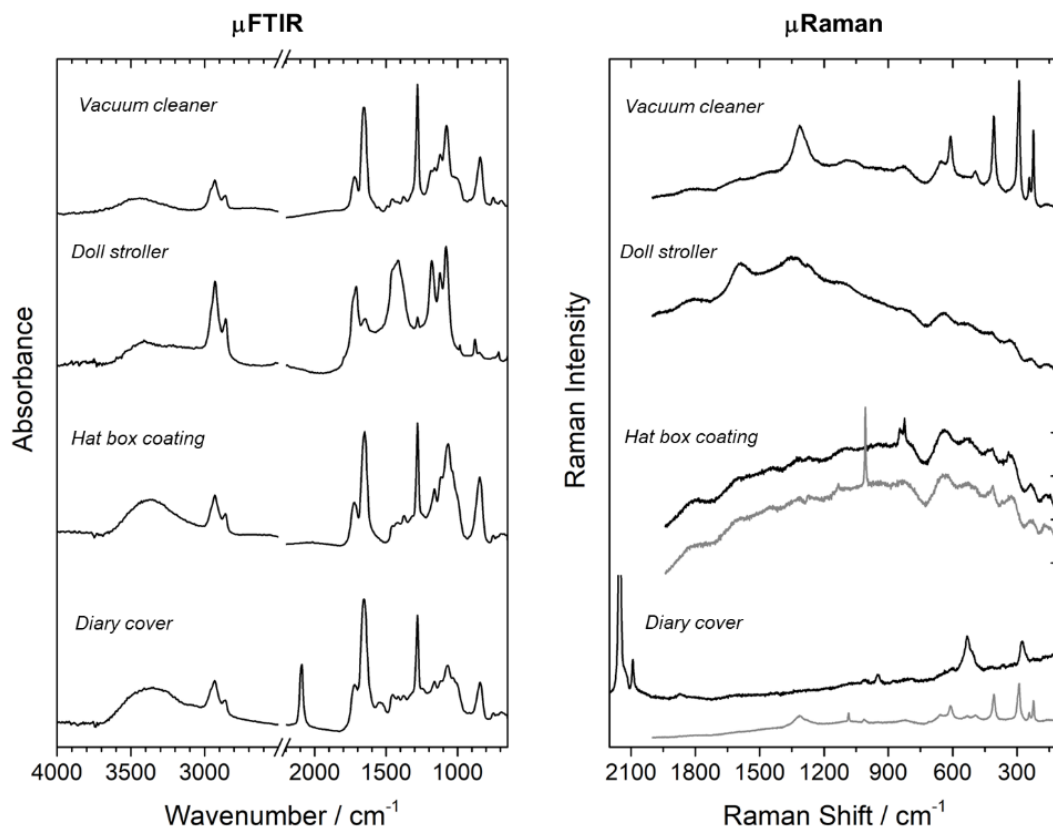
**Table 2.** Characterization of the Fabrikoid sheets (cross-polarized light micrographs,  $\mu$ Infrared and  $\mu$ Raman results). Molecular vibrations and associated literature are provided for each compound.

| Sheet number | OM  | $\mu$ FTIR / $\text{cm}^{-1}$  | $\mu$ Raman / $\text{cm}^{-1}$   |
|--------------|---|--|--|
| 1            |    | Cellulose Nitrate: 1654 ( $\nu_a\text{NO}_2$ ), 1280 ( $\nu\text{NO}_2$ ), 842 ( $\nu\text{NO}$ ) [36]<br>Castor oil: 2928, 2856 ( $\nu\text{CH}_2$ ), 1460 ( $\nu\text{CH}_3$ ) [41]<br>Barium Sulfate: 1165, 1121, 1078 ( $\nu_s\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) [42] | Ultramarine Blue: 548 ( $\nu_s\text{S}^3$ ), 581sh [45]  |
| 2            |    | Cellulose Nitrate: 1651, 1280, 841, 750<br>Castor oil: 2926, 2854, 1461<br>Barium Sulfate: 1182, 1121, 1077  | Ultramarine Blue: 548, 581sh<br>Anatase: 144 ( $\delta\text{O-Ti-O}$ ) [38]<br>Barium Sulfate: 986 ( $\delta_a\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) [42]   |
| 3            |    | Cellulose Nitrate: 1652, 1280, 842<br>Castor oil: 2924, 2854, 1452<br>Barium Sulfate: 1179, 1121, 1078<br>Prussian Blue: 2086 ( $\nu\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ ) [46]<br>Zinc Carboxylate: 1539 ( $\nu_{as}\text{COO}^-$ ) [35]                               | Green Earth: broad peaks at 277 and 532 (possibly glauconite) [47]<br>Phthalocyanine blue: 1526, 1451, 1337, 746, 680 [48]<br>Barium Sulfate: 986 cm   |
| 4            |    | Cellulose Nitrate: 1654, 1281, 844<br>Castor oil: 2930, 2858, 1457   | Green Earth: broad peaks at 277 and 532 (possibly glauconite)<br>Barium Sulfate: 986   |
| 5            |   | Cellulose Nitrate: 1654, 1280, 842<br>Castor oil: 2928, 2856, 1460<br>Barium Sulfate: 1165, 1121, 1078<br>Zinc Carboxylate: 1539   | Phthalocyanine blue: 1526, 1451, 1337, 746, 680<br>Chrome Yellow: 837 ( $\nu_a\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$ ), 359 ( $\nu_s\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$ ) [49]<br>Barium Sulfate: 986                                       |
| 6            |  | Cellulose Nitrate: 1651, 1373, 1280, 843<br>Castor oil: 2926, 2855, 1461<br>Barium Sulfate: 1180, 1120, 1079<br>Zinc Carboxylate: 1539   | Chrome Yellow: 837 ( $\nu_a\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$ ), 359 ( $\nu_s\text{CrO}_4^{2-}$ )<br>Chrome Orange: 845, 836, 822, 378, 351, 339, 320 [50]<br>Barium Sulfate: 986                                      |
| 7            |  | Cellulose Nitrate: 1657, 1280, 848<br>Castor oil: 2928, 2856, 1459<br>Barium Sulfate: 1161, 1120, 1072   | Chrome Orange: 845, 836, 822, 378, 351, 339, 320<br>Anatase: 143 ( $\delta\text{O-Ti-O}$ )<br>Barium Sulfate: 986, 615 ( $\delta_a\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), 458 and 450 ( $\delta_s\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) [42] |
| 8            |  | Cellulose Nitrate: 1656, 1280, 842<br>Castor oil: 2928, 2857, 1459<br>Barium Sulfate: 1163, 1115, 1074   | Chrome Orange: 845, 836, 822, 378, 351, 339, 320<br>Anatase: 142 ( $\delta\text{O-Ti-O}$ )<br>Barium Sulfate: 986, 458, 450  |

The list of pigments that give color to the Fabrikoid sheets is shown in Table 2. Two pigments reported in 1922 to accelerate degradation were found in Fabrikoid sheets 3, 5 and 6: Prussian Blue ( $\text{Fe}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]_3$ ) and Chrome Yellow ( $\text{PbCrO}_4$ ). Interestingly, infrared bands related to zinc carboxylates were only observed for the sheets where these pigments were found. It is relevant to observe that zinc oxide ( $\text{ZnO}$ ) was not detected. The only white pigment identified was anatase ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ).





### Samples from the National Museum of Costumes in Portugal

The  $\mu$ FTIR and  $\mu$ Raman analysis of the coatings collected from the National Museum of Costumes underline the diversity of cellulose nitrate-oil formulations that can be found in cultural heritage collections (Table 3 and Figure 6). It was possible to observe the presence of three different fillers: barium sulfate ( $\text{BaSO}_4$ ), calcium carbonate ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) and calcium sulfate (gypsum,  $\text{CaSO}_4$ ). The colorants found were the same for the Fabrikoid set, with the additional identification of iron (III) oxide ( $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ), also mentioned in the DuPont 1922 report (Table 1).



**Figure 6.** Analysis of the coatings collected from the National Museum of Costumes: *a*) Infrared and *b*) Raman (633 nm laser, 0.17 mW, 30-120s acquisition time, 1-5 cycles) spectra. For the diary cover, an extended spectral window (2200-100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) was used to observe the C≡N vibrations of Prussian blue.

**Table 3.** The “nappas” from the National Museum of Costumes: description of the objects,  $\mu$ Infrared and  $\mu$ Raman characterization.

| Object  | Description   | $\mu$ FTIR / $\text{cm}^{-1}$   | $\mu$ Raman / $\text{cm}^{-1}$   |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | Vacuum cleaner; Metal covered with a dark red “nappa”. Brand: “Electrolux” (1940s)                                  | Cellulose nitrate: 1652, 1280, 841, 750<br>Oil: 2930, 2860, 1461, 727   | Iron (III) oxide: 1313, 609, 494, 409, 290, 223  |
|  | Doll Stroller made of wood. Opening and closing hood, made of green “nappa”, supported by a metal structure (1930s) | Cellulose nitrate: 1647, 1280, 847, 750<br>Oil: 2924, 2853, 1461, 723<br>Barium Sulfate: 1180, 1123, 1080, 983<br>Calcium Carbonate: 2520, 1427, 877, 713 | Carbon Black: 1587, 1349<br>Overall, intense fluorescence background   |
|  | Hat box covered with brown “nappa” (1920s-1950s)  | Cellulose nitrate: 1650, 1280, 845<br>Oil: 2930, 2860, 1454   | Chrome Orange: 846, 824, 339<br>Calcium Sulfate: 1134, 1007, 413   |
|  | Diary with a cover made of dark blue “nappa”, with gold painted stripes on the spine (1960s-1970s)                  | Cellulose nitrate: 1654, 1280, 841, 750<br>Oil: 2932, 2860, 1461<br>Prussian Blue: 2091   | Prussian Blue: 2153, 2090, 1005, 948, 572, 275<br>Iron (III) oxide: 1315, 610, 494, 407, 290, 223<br>Calcium Carbonate: 1086 |

## Conclusions

This study calls for increased attention from museums and the conservation community towards cellulose nitrate-coated fabrics. We show evidence that these materials were widely used across various object typologies until the 1960s.

The microscale heterogeneous nature of cellulose nitrate heritage presents significant conservation challenges. The celluloid detachable collars examined are in good conservation condition, featuring fabric coatings composed of cellulose nitrate, camphor, anatase (TiO<sub>2</sub>), and a carbon-based material. Conversely, systems combining cellulose nitrate with castor oil are particularly problematic. The significant technical insight provided by the Du Pont 1922 report on Fabrikoid degradation aligns with our analysis, indicating that oil oxidation results in the formation of free fatty acids and zinc carboxylates, such as zinc palmitate and stearate. Zinc oxide (ZnO) was absent in the Fabrikoid sheets and detachable collars, suggesting that DuPont replaced zinc oxide with anatase (TiO<sub>2</sub>). The exact zinc source contributing to zinc soap formation remains unclear, but our findings suggest the use of lithopone (BaSO<sub>4</sub> + ZnS), leading to zinc sulfide (ZnS) consumption through saponification. Despite DuPont's recognition of lithopone's detrimental effects, its continued use prompts inquiry. Fatty acid compatibility with cellulose nitrate should be investigated due to the structural differences of ricinoleic acid compared to palmitic and stearic acids. Additionally, the role of anatase as a photodegradation catalyst prompts further exploration into whether carbon-based materials can mitigate potential adverse effects. Further study on the reactivity of colorants, such as Prussian blue and chrome yellow, in cellulose nitrate-castor oil systems is also needed. The Fabrikoid set examined represents one of many significant samples stored at the Hagley Museum and Library. This study shows how these resources, combined with technical data from DuPont, can provide invaluable insights into the chemical stability of early imitation leathers. Systematic characterization of all Fabrikoid samples, production of references based on industrial formulations, and artificial aging studies are crucial next steps toward comprehensively understanding the degradation mechanisms of these materials and developing effective conservation strategies. Involving experts in oil painting degradation will add essential knowledge to the reactivity of fatty acids in historical materials. The information obtained from these studies will be relevant to historians of plastics, particularly in discussions about the stability of Hyatt's celluloid compared to Parkes's Parkesine or Daniel Spill's xylonite formulations.

### Acknowledgements

We thank the Hagley Museum and Library, especially to the conservators Ebenezer Kotei and Laura Wahl, and the National Museum of Costumes (Museu Nacional do Traje), especially to conservator Dina Dimas and collections manager Elsa Ferraz, for selecting the objects and providing all the conditions for micro sampling. This research was supported by Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia, Ministério da Educação e da Ciência (FCT/MCTS), Portugal, through the funded project "The Plastics Metamorphoses - the reality and the multiple approaches to a material" (2022.05086.PTDC) and by doctoral grant awarded to Joana Tomás Ferreira (2021.04565.BD). FCT/MCTS and Fulbright Portugal financed this work through a Fulbright research grant awarded to Artur Neves (PS00326022).

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RECEIVED: 2024.2.28

REVISED: 2023.3.28

ACCEPTED: 2024.6.11

ONLINE: 2024.7.10



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