

1 Mycobiota of silk-faced ancient Mogao Grottoes manuscripts belonging to the  
2 Stein collection in the British library

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## 15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Silking, a conservation technique which involved gluing silk gauze over the face of a  
17 manuscript was popular in the mid-20<sup>th</sup> Century, especially for treating early Chinese  
18 documents. The method is now little used, and the question as to whether silking  
19 interventions should be reversed is controversial, given the high economic cost of active  
20 intervention, and there are few scientific studies as to the long-term consequences of the  
21 technique. Silk-facing materials from documents of the Stein collection were analysed using  
22 scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy. The  
23 mycobiota diversity was unravelled through the combination of culture dependent methods  
24 and amplicon sequencing analyses. The SEM micrographs showed smooth regular nodules of  
25 *ca.* 3-5 µm diameter on both silk threads and glue paste. This morphology differs from the  
26 irregular and the crystalline morphologies of glue paste and inorganic crystallites,  
27 respectively, but it is consistent with that of small-sized conidia (asexual spores of fungi) or  
28 yeasts. Glue paste demonstrated three fungal strains: *Aspergillus tubingensis*, *Penicillium*  
29 *crustosum* and *Chrysonilia sitophila* which display cellulolytic activity except the last.  
30 Amplicon sequencing revealed that silk threads and glue paste host distinct mycobiota. Here,  
31 we preliminary show that the silking method may be affecting the overall integrity of the silk-  
32 faced manuscripts, principally due to contamination with cellulolytic fungal strains. Unless  
33 the silk facing is removed, irreversible damage to the documents is highly probable.

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35 **Key words:** the Stein collection; manuscripts; conservation science; silking; scanning  
36 electron microscopy (SEM); energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS); mycobiota;  
37 culture dependent methods; amplicon sequencing analyses; conidia

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## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 The conservation and preservation of ancient manuscripts is an area of huge social,  
42 historical, religious, and cultural significance, and yet one which has attracted little scientific  
43 study. In the field of conservation, there has been a *volte-face* in acceptable techniques with  
44 the new guiding principle being minimalist intervention and reversibility (The Institute of  
45 Conservation, 2015). In the field of analysis, there have been tremendous advances in the past  
46 decades. It is critical that these “two cultures”, of classical historical contexts and analytical  
47 science, are brought together to the advantage of preserving our culture (Cappitelli et al.,  
48 2010; Sterflinger and Pinzari, 2012).

49 The preservation of ancient manuscripts - invaluable information carriers - in modern  
50 libraries and archives currently benefit from advanced environmental control systems that  
51 efficiently block the impact of numerous exogenous factors like acidity, heat, UV light,  
52 humidity, oxygen and pollutants (Cappitelli et al., 2010; Sterflinger and Pinzari, 2012).  
53 However, other influential issues during historical conservation treatments perhaps are easily  
54 neglected, which could cause unforeseen detrimental effect.

55 Restoration of historical manuscripts and paper documents can be traced back to  
56 China, almost 2000 years ago - the birth of well-known techniques including mounting,  
57 remounting, backing, lining, *etc.* The first evidence of such techniques appearing in the  
58 Western world dates back to 1837 in the United States of America, and to 1858 in Europe  
59 (Marwick, 1964). The silking technique was first applied in the 1940s, and consists of the use  
60 of fresh silk gauze as an ideal solution to strengthen the manuscript pages (Marwick, 1964).  
61 This technique has been formerly used, extensively, to preserve numerous manuscripts in a  
62 wide range of institutions. In particular, it constituted the major conservation effort for  
63 thousands of manuscripts belonging to the Stein collection in the British Library in the  
64 1960s-1970s. However, scientific studies on silk-faced manuscripts are lacking, especially on  
65 the detrimental impacts. This constitutes a serious omission, because water, starch paste and  
66 animal glue paste, which were often used, might increase the manuscripts ability to be  
67 colonised by living organisms upon silking. Such potential vulnerabilities through the

68 decades might have opened the door for microbial colonisation, mainly fungi (Cappitelli et  
69 al., 2010; Sterflinger and Pinzari, 2012). Moreover, microbial colonisation can provoke  
70 serious damage/degradation of the affected manuscripts (Cappitelli et al., 2010; Sterflinger  
71 and Pinzari, 2012).

72 The silk facing procedure is, of course, no longer used in an era defined by minimal  
73 intervention. However, the question remains “how diverse is the community now colonising  
74 the silk-facing materials?” This present study aims at a evaluating the presence of fungal  
75 contamination on ancient Chinese manuscripts from the Mogao Grottoes that have been  
76 submitted to the silking conservation technique and are currently requiring further  
77 conservation (Figure 1A), and weight arguments on whether silk should or not be removed.  
78 The data obtained provide sufficient evidence of both the physical damage and the fungal  
79 contamination of the ancient Chinese silk-faced manuscript selected for study.

80

## 81 **2. Materials and methods**

### 82 *2.1. Samples*

83 The manuscripts originate from Dunhuang, dated from the 5<sup>th</sup> to early 11<sup>th</sup> Centuries,  
84 discovered by Yuanlu Wang in 1900 (Wang and Perkins, 2008). They were sealed in Cave  
85 17, known as the Library Cave, in the Mogao Grottoes, where closely packed layers of  
86 heaped bundles of scrolls were discovered, along with textiles, such as banners, as well as  
87 figurines of Buddha (damaged) and other Buddhist artefacts. Mogao Grottoes enclose  
88 important cultural heritage and have been listed officially as UNESCO World Heritage Site  
89 in 1987 (Wu et al., 2017). The manuscripts, many of which reside in the British Library, are  
90 referred to as the Stein Collection (Wang and Perkins, 2008).

91 Two representative manuscripts with silk-facing were selected for this study (Figure  
92 1A and 1B), namely Or.8210/S.417 and Or.8210/S.316 (*n.b.* this is the British Library  
93 registration system for manuscripts from Dunhuang in Stein Collection, and uniquely defines  
94 a document), from which silk threads (BL1 and BL2, showing distinct yellowing of the  
95 fibres) and glue (BL3-BL6) were removed and donated by the British Library.

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### 98 *2.2. Surface analyses*

99 In order to investigate the deterioration of the silk facing materials, a scanning electron  
100 microscope (SEM) coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDAX) was  
101 employed: JEOL JSM-6500F Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope and Oxford

102 instrument INCA X-sight 7558 (School of Mathematics and Physics at QUB). Silk samples  
103 were sputter-coated with gold, and were affixed *via* copper tape to the SEM sample holders.

104

### 105 2.3. *Cultivable fungi isolation, identification and characterisation of cellulolytic activity*

106 Following the identification of structures in the SEM data, of similar size and shape to fungal  
107 spores and/or yeasts, it was speculated that this may be due to fungal contamination. To  
108 isolate any cultivable fungal strains, the samples were incubated in a sterile peptone solution  
109 (2 %) for three days at room temperature followed by vortex cycles, and aliquots were then  
110 directly inoculated onto Malt Extract Agar (MEA) and incubated at 27 °C. The forming  
111 colonies were monitored daily. Isolated colonies were selected for further purification by  
112 consecutive sub-culturing onto fresh MEA. Morphological characterisation (microscopy)  
113 allowed their preliminary identification. Negative controls, *i.e.* similar materials (unused  
114 paper pieces collected inside the laboratory) manipulated alongside with the study samples,  
115 were used to discard the possibility of cross-contamination during the analysis.

116 DNA extractions were undertaken from the fungal isolates mycelia using a DNeasy  
117 extraction kit (Qiagen). The DNA samples were stored at -20 °C until further analysis.  
118 Amplifications of a part of the  $\beta$ -tubulin and calmodulin genes, and the ITS regions  
119 (including 5.8S rDNA) were done in a GeneAmp PCR system 2720 (Applied Biosystems)  
120 thermocycler using the primers Bt2a and Bt2b, CMD5 and CMD6, and V9G and LS266,  
121 respectively (Deive et al., 2011). Primer sequences are as follows: Bt2a, 5'-GGT AAC CAA  
122 ATC GGT GCT GCT TTC-3'; Bt2b, 5'-ACC CTC AGT GTA GTG ACC CTT GGC-3';  
123 CMD5 3' - CCG AGT ACA AGG ARG CCT TC; CMD6 - CCG ATR GAG GTC ATR  
124 ACG TGG; V9G, 5'-TTA CGT CCC TGC CCT TTG TA-3'; LS266, 5'-GCA TTC CCA  
125 AAC AAC TCG ACT-3' (Deive et al., 2011).

126 The PCR products were purified using the NZY Gelpure kit (NZYTech) and then  
127 sequenced at StarSEQ (Mainz, Germany). Sequence similarity searches were performed in  
128 public databases of GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) with BLAST (version 2.2.30).

129 To assess cellulolytic activity, each strain was plated onto carboxymethylcellulose  
130 (CMC) agar (0.2% NaNO<sub>3</sub>, 0.1% K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 0.05% MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.05% KCl, 0.2% CMC sodium  
131 salt, 0.02% peptone, and 1.7% agar) and incubated at room temperature. At the third and  
132 tenth day of incubation, the plates were flooded with Gram's iodine (binds to CMC) for  
133 5 min and the excess of reagent removed. The formation of a decolouration halo indicates the  
134 production of cellulases, as previously described (Kasana et al., 2008).

135 *2.4. Next generation sequencing (NGS)*

136 DNA was extracted from the peptone extracts of each sample (see above: Cultivable fungi  
137 isolation and identification) using a DNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen). The DNA samples were  
138 stored at -20 °C until further analysis. Amplifications of the ITS2 region were done in a  
139 GeneAmp PCR system 2720 (Applied Biosystems) thermocycler using barcoded gITS7 and  
140 ITS4 (Ihrmark et al., 2012) in three PCR reactions per sample. The PCR reactions were set as  
141 previously described (Žifčáková et al., 2016). Primer sequences are as follows: gITS7, 5'-  
142 GTG ART CAT CGA RTC TTT G-3'; ITS4, 5'- TCC TCC GCT TAT TGA TAT GC-3'.  
143 The PCR products were then tested using gel electrophoresis and finally pooled for each  
144 sample and sequenced on Illumina MiSeq. NGS analysis was performed by Gene Expression  
145 Unit at Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência (Oeiras, Portugal)

146

147 *2.5 Data processing*

148 The amplicon sequencing data were processed using the pipeline SEED 2.0.4 (Větrovský and  
149 Baldrian, 2013). Briefly, pair-end reads were joined using FASTQ-join (Aronesty, 2013). The  
150 ITS2 region was extracted using ITS EXTRACTOR 1.0.11 (Nilsson et al., 2010) before  
151 processing. Chimera search was done using USEARCH 8.1.1861 and deleted. Sequences  
152 were clustered using UPARSE implemented within USEARCH (Edgar, 2013) at a 97%  
153 similarity level. Consensus sequences were constructed for each cluster, and the closest hits  
154 were identified using BLASTn against GenBank. Sequences with less than 10 reads were  
155 discarded. The phylogenetic relations between the OTUs identified were estimated using  
156 Bayesian approximate branch support at PhyML 20120412, and further visualised and  
157 exported using the FigTree 1.4.2. Descriptive statistics were performed using XLSTAT  
158 2009.1.02, and histogram analysis took into account the number of reads of each OTU at each  
159 sample, as weights. The data herein presented have been deposited in the Sequence Read  
160 Archive (NCBI) with the submission code SUB2308714.

161

162 **3. Results and Discussion**

163 *3.1 Physical damage and elemental composition of the silk thread*

164 Morphological degradation of the silk threads, as well as the presence of glue attached to the  
165 fibres, were evident in the SEM images (Figure 1C and 1D, sample BL2 as an example).  
166 Both the progressive weakening of the silk threads and the stiffness of the aged glue may  
167 aggravate the friction with the manuscripts. Elemental analyses (EDAX) of the silk threads  
168 showed the presence of both calcium and aluminium in parts with attached glue (Figure 1E

169 and 1G), but only organic content (apart from traces of copper from the support) in those  
170 devoid of glue residues (Figure 1F and 1G). The presence of calcium likely originates from  
171 the glue itself, maybe reflecting its animal origins, whereas that of aluminium is consistent  
172 with the use of a weighting process of the silk block (Des Barker et al., 2006).

173

### 174 3.2 Microbiological contamination

175 The silking technique might have also impacted the manuscripts ability to be colonised by  
176 living organisms. The SEM micrographs showed smooth regular nodules of *ca.* 3-5  $\mu\text{m}$   
177 diameter on both silk threads and glue paste (Figure 2B). This morphology differs from the  
178 irregular and the crystalline morphologies of glue paste and inorganic crystallites,  
179 respectively, but it is consistent with that of small-sized conidia (asexual spores of fungi) or  
180 yeasts. With the exception of BL6 glue that provided three fungal strains, the remaining silks  
181 and glues here analysed have not provided any cultivable isolate. These were *Aspergillus*  
182 *tubingensis*, *Chrysonilia sitophila* and *Penicillium crustosum* (Figure S2, Supplementary  
183 information). *Penicillium* spp., *Aspergillus* spp., *Rhizopus* spp. and *Mucor* spp. have been  
184 reported before as the prevalent cultivable taxa in antiques stored in old libraries (Cappitelli  
185 et al., 2010; Nevalainen et al., 2015; Sterflinger and Pinzari, 2012). Moreover, *Penicillium* sp.  
186 and *Aspergillus* sp. have both been identified in the air (Wang et al., 2011) and the walls (Ma  
187 et al., 2015) of the Mogao Grottoes, and were also isolated from old textile artefacts in  
188 Eastern Europe (Ljaljević-Grbić et al., 2013). *Penicillium crustosum* and *A. tubingensis* are  
189 considered common indoor fungi (Nevalainen et al., 2015). They produce small-size conidia  
190 of *ca.* 3  $\mu\text{m}$ , hence similar to those observed in the SEM micrographs (Figure 2B). Both  
191 species are able to tolerate very low water activities ( $a_w$ ) with optimal growth at *ca.* 0.83-  
192 0.85. Their occurrence in the British Library raises serious clinical concerns, since they can  
193 produce neurotoxins, particularly penitrem A, and act as an opportunistic pathogen of  
194 immunocompromised/competent patients (*e.g.* bone osteomyelitis or keratitis), respectively  
195 (Bathoorn et al., 2013; Moldes-Anaya et al., 2012). On the other hand, even if less frequently,  
196 *C. sitophila* (optimal  $a_w$  *ca.* 0.9) has been also identified in the indoor environment of  
197 historical buildings, libraries and museums (Ljaljević-Grbić et al., 2013). Despite its  
198 abundant, readily airborne conidia, systematic evidence that this fungus is the causal agent of  
199 any disease, infection or significant allergies is still lacking, with the exception of its  
200 association with suberosis (*viz.* hypersensitivity pneumonitis) (Cordeiro et al., 2011).

201           Importantly, the three vital strains isolated from sample 6 were tested for their  
202 cellulolytic activity at room temperature to assess the risk of biodegradation of the ancient

203 manuscripts studied herein. Cellulolytic activity was only observed in the plates inoculated  
204 with *A. tubingensis* and *P. crustosum* (Figure 2, i and iii). Even after 10 days of incubation,  
205 *C. sitophila* failed to degrade CMC (Figure 2, Diii). These results show that two out of the  
206 three vital strains isolated from the silk facing materials possess cellulolytic activity,  
207 therefore posing a real threat to the manuscripts.

208 To fully disclose the mycobiota diversity of the silks or the glues, the DNA content of  
209 the corresponding peptone extracts was recovered, then the highly conserved ITS2 regions  
210 were amplified and, finally the ensuing amplicons were sequenced using NGS (Figure 3).  
211 Four out of the six samples contained DNA sequences matching that of fungal genomes,  
212 namely BL1, BL2, BL5 and BL6 for 4, 18, 25 and 15 Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs),  
213 respectively (reads >10) (Figure 3A, Table S1, Supplementary Information). Most of the  
214 identified OTUs are associated with fungi capable of growing in standard solid media  
215 regardless that only from BL6 glue three strains could be isolated. Accordingly, most DNA  
216 harboured in the silk-facing materials likely originated from fungal debris and/or spores  
217 which are no longer viable or are viable but in a nonculturable state. The DNA extracted from  
218 the silk BL1 retrieved only 4 distinct OTUs with a clear domination by *Solicoccozyma* spp.  
219 (common soil yeast), followed by *Umbelopsis* spp. and *Mortierella* spp. (widespread  
220 Zygomycota). In the BL2 silk, a more diverse and abundant community was detected, still  
221 with *Solicoccozyma* spp. as the dominant taxa yet comprising additional Basidiomycota (*e.g.*  
222 Agaricomycetes and *Malassezia* spp.) and Ascomycota (*e.g.* *Saccharomyces* spp., and  
223 Sordariomycetes such as *Chrysonilia* spp., *Fusarium* spp. and *Trichoderma* spp.). The very  
224 low amount and/or integrity of DNA extracted from BL3 and BL4 glues, which were  
225 removed from the same manuscript as the silks (Or.8210/S.417), retrieved no robust  
226 sequencing data. On the other hand, BL5 and BL6 glues (removed from the manuscript  
227 Or.8210/S.316) showed similar diversity of Basidiomycota OTUS though higher diversity  
228 and abundance of Ascomycota OTUs (namely of Sordariomycetes and Eurotiomycetes) were  
229 detected in the last. Within the Ascomycota OTUs associated to BL6 glue, some sequences  
230 matched those of the isolates found in this glue, namely *A. tubingensis* (1 OTU), *C. sitophila*  
231 (1 OTU) and *P. crustosum* (3 OTUs) (Figure 3B and Table S1, Supplementary information).  
232 The most abundant OTUs found in the DNA extracted from the glues (BL5 and BL6)  
233 matched *Malassezia* spp., whereas *Solicoccozyma* spp. dominated the silks (BL1 and BL2).  
234 The presence of *Malassezia* spp. may be due to the animal origin of the glues (consistent also  
235 with the detection of calcium in this samples, Figure 2C and 2E), although one cannot  
236 disregard the mishandling of Or.8210/S.316 manuscript during the silk-facing procedure

237 (human skin origin). On the contrary, the presence of OTUs associated with ubiquitous fungi  
238 may have originated from past contamination during any stage of their cross-continental  
239 transport and storage (Wood and Barnard, 2010).

240

#### 241 **4. Conclusions**

242 Our data report the historic existence of multiple sources of fungal contamination of the  
243 ancient Chinese manuscript. The analysed silks/glues contained cellulolytic fungal strains  
244 which reinforce a potential risk of deterioration if conditions of humidity and temperature  
245 favour fungal growth. Although this is a preliminary study on a restricted sample set, it  
246 constitutes one of the few reports on the total mycobiota associated with ancient manuscripts,  
247 and the first report focussing on NGS amplicon sequencing for genomic fingerprinting.  
248 Further studies are necessary to unveil the impacts of fungal contamination in the long-term  
249 conservation of silk-faced ancient Mogao Grottoes manuscripts, which might further favour  
250 the need of removing its silk facing.

251

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