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## DNA Sequences from a Fossil Termite in Oligo-Miocene Amber and Their Phylogenetic Implications

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DNA was extracted from the fossil termite *Mastotermes electrodominicus* preserved in Oligo-Miocene amber (25 million to 30 million years old). Fragments of mitochondrial [16*S* ribosomal DNA (rDNA)] and nuclear (18*S* rDNA) genes were amplified by polymerase chain reaction. Phylogenetic analysis of fossil and extant 18*S* rDNA confirmed morphological cladistic analyses of living dictyopterans (termites, cockroaches, and mantids). The fossil termite shares several sequence attributes with *Mastotermes darwiniensis*. Addition of this fossil to living-species phylogenetic hypotheses of termites in this, the oldest DNA yet characterized.

 $\mathbf{T}$ he tropical northern half of Australia is home to Mastotermes darwiniensis, one of the most intriguing of the 2000 or so described species of termites (Isoptera). This species has been a popular candidate for the most primitive isopteran and an apparent "missing link" between cockroaches and termites (1, 2). It is the sole living species in the family Mastotermitidae, classified as such to reflect its primitive phylogenetic position. The features on which this classification is based are (i) an egg mass or pod resembling a rudimentary form of the ootheca in cockroaches, (ii) presence of gut symbionts in certain cockroaches such as the apterous colonial Cryptocercus, and (iii) a host of primitive

morphological features (3). A cladogram of this traditional view of termite phylogeny appears in Fig. 1A.

Established views on the primitive nature of Mastotermes have been challenged by a cladistic analysis of dictyopteran insects, based on a review of morphological, behavioral, chromosomal, and cell ultrastructural characters (4) (see Fig. 1B). In the scheme of Thorne and Carpenter (4) Mastotermes is the sister group to the family Kalotermitidae, with Termopsidae as the primitive sister group of the remaining termites. The Isoptera's unquestionable monophyly is based on eusociality (with its associated behavioral and morphological caste polytypism), deciduous wings, and other morphological features. In the relationships proposed by Thorne and Carpenter, termites are the sister group to the mantids and cockroaches (the latter also includes Cryptocercus). Thorne and Carpenter do not address what appear to be pleisomorphic features that define

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Mastotermes and its family. Although they cite many derived features, it is unclear whether these attributes pertain to the Mastotermitidae as a whole. The plesiomorphies include, for example, a large anal lobe on the wings seen in mantids, cockroaches, and many orthopteroids (2). Thus, the monophyly of the one living species and of fossil mastotermitids is questionable and has implications for the interpretation of other evolutionary aspects of this "group."

Thorne and Carpenter dismiss Mastotermes as a "living fossil" because it possesses a large number of derived features and, in their scheme, is not the most primitive of termites. The fossil record of the Mastotermitidae indicates that, if the group is monophyletic, the present distribution is narrowly restricted and relict. Rock fossils indicate that there were extinct genera from the Mio-Pliocene of Brazil, the Eocene of Tennessee, and the early Cretaceous of England; the genus Mastotermes occurs from the Eocene to the Miocene (20 million to 40 million years ago) of Europe (5). The genus has been found only recently in amber as the extinct and closely related species M. electromexicus from Chiapas, southern Mexico (6), and M. electrodominicus from the Dominican Republic (7). Oddly, the genus has been unknown from huge, diverse collections of Baltic amber fossils (8). Clearly, a great deal of mastotermitid evolution has been obscured by extinction, glimpses of which are seen in the fossil record.

It is not surprising that M. electromexicus and M. electrodominicus are closely related, given the paleontology of the ambers in which they are preserved. Both Mexican and Dominican deposits have the same botanical source, the tropical canopy legume Hymenaea (9). Stratigraphy indi-

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cates that the two deposits are roughly contemporaneous, formed in the late Oligocene and early Miocene (10). Obvious to the naked eye is the similarity in the ambers, which are renowned for the clarity of microscopic details of insect cuticle and for fine preservation of inclusions (11). Discovery of cells with intact organelles from amber fossil flies (12) has inspired many efforts to extract DNA from amber fossil insects. We have sequenced the oldest DNA extracted from a fossil (in 25-million-year-old amber) (13) and have used analyses of this DNA in phylogenetic reconstruction.

A large piece of clear yellow amber with three-winged M. *electrodominicus* was used (Fig. 2). Exact origin of the amber in the Dominican Republic is unknown, but it is assumed to come from lower Miocene deposits in the Cordillera Septentrional (14). Morphology of the termites, aspects of the preservation, and pyrolysis-gas chromatography profiles of a barren fragment of the piece indicate that the amber is authentic (15). Any suggestion that it is a much younger copal, which occurs in the Cordillera Oriental, can be dismissed (16).

The amber surrounding one specimen was sliced open with a razor blade under sterile conditions (17) and small pieces of gummy, brown material were removed. DNA extraction yielded an extremely small quantity of nucleic acid that was highly

Fig. 1. (A) Traditional termiteroach phylogeny [adapted from findings in (3)]. Not all characters in the original tree are shown. Note that roaches are presented as a grade (paraphyletic group) leading to termites, and that Mastotermitidae is paraphyletic (with respect to Kalotermitidae). The striped line across the base of the tree indicates the break in the grade from termites to cockroaches. Circled letters on branches refer to the following characters that define these branches: a, symbiotic gut flagellates; b, coloniality and loss of wings; c, eusociality and deciduous wings; d, loss of mandibular tooth and Metadevescovina gut flagellates. (B) Phylogeny of Thorne and Carpenter (4) based on 70 morphological and behavioral characters. The cladogram was rooted with the use of inferred ancestral states.

degraded [in general, smaller than 250 base pairs (bps)]. The 18S nuclear rRNA and 16S mitochondrial rRNA genes were targeted for amplification because of their high copy number and highly conserved segments that can be used as primers (18) (Figs. 3 and 4). Previous analyses of insect 18S sequences indicated that this locus was likely to be informative (19). Two 200-bp regions were chosen for amplification. Because of their high levels of variation, the two 150-bp regions from the 16S rRNA gene sequence are not as well suited for phylogenetic analysis as the 18S rDNA. They are, however, effective for distinguishing among the closely related isopteran taxa.

While the nuclear sequences helped place M. electrodominicus in the framework of insect relations, the 16S rDNA sequences were used to assess the relative divergence of the fossil taxon from its extant sister taxon and to assess the possibility of contamination. These analyses revealed that 16S sequences had accumulated nine substitutions between the extant M. darwiniensis and the amber M. electrodomininicus and nearly twice that number for the cockroach Blaberus. Comparison of the same 100-bp region in drosophilid genera (20) revealed seven sequence differences between the most distantly related pair of genera in the Drosophilinae. The level of variation in





**Fig. 2.** Winged adult specimen of the extinct termite *M. electrodominicus* Krishna and Grimaldi in a piece of amber from the Oligo-Miocene (25 million to 30 million years ago) of the Dominican Republic. DNA was extracted and sequenced from similar specimens of this species.



Fig. 3. Sequence gel of amber-preserved M. electrodominicus (AMBD, Mastotermitidae) and extant M. darwiniensis (MDAR, Mastotermitidae) for a short region of the 18S "C" fragment. The figure shows the sequences of the insect taxa used here and illustrates one of the synapomorphies uncovered in this study. The lines to the MDAR sequence show Cs and those from AMBD show Gs. Abbreviations are: BLAT = Blaberus sp. (Blattodea); MANT = Mantis religiosa (Mantodea); NASU = Nasutitermes costalis (Termitidae); ZOOT = Zootermopsis nevadensis (Termopsidae); DROS = Drosophila melanogaster (Drosophilidae); ORTH = Warramaba picta (Orthoptera); and PTER = Pteronarcys sp. The sequence shown here corresponds to bases 38 to 58 in Fig. 4B and is read from left to right. Double-stranded PCR amplifications were done with template DNA from M. electrodominicus (amber) and M. darwiniensis with standard protocols (25).



Termitidae

A

Cryptocercidae

Drosophila and 14 between M. darwiniensis and fellow dictyopteran Blaberus (Fig. 4). The nuclear 18S rDNA data showed 55 and 39 substitutions, respectively, for identical comparisons. Because the 16S rDNA sequence cannot discriminate between such large differences in kinship

(due, no doubt, to multiple substitutions) its effectiveness in checking for contamination is limited.

As a result, we concentrated our efforts on obtaining dictyopteran sequence information for the 18S rRNA gene. We partitioned the analysis to address four ques-



DROS

Fig. 4. DNA sequences from several insect taxa (see Fig. 3 for abbreviations of species names) used in this study for the 18S A, 18S C, and 16S fragments. The 18S A fragment corresponds to bases 444 to 561 in (26). The 18S C fragment corresponds to bases 1260 to 1382 in (26). The 16S fragment corresponds to bases 13,146 to 13,240, as in Fig. 3. Sequences were aligned using MALIGN (27), a computer program that accomplishes multiple alignment. A single set of two primers was used to generate the 225-bp-long 18S A fragment [18sai (5'CCTGAGAÄACGGCTAC-CACATC) and 18sbi5.0 (5'TAACCGCAACAACTTTAAT)]. Two primers were used to generate the 215-bp-long 18S C fragment [18sbi (5'GAGTCTCGTTCGTTATCGGA) and 18sai2.0 (5'ATGGTG-CAAAGCTGAAAC)]. Two sets of primers were used to generate the sequences for the 16S fragment. The first pair used [16S1 (5'AAGGCTGGAATGAATGGTTGG) and 16S2 (5'GATTTAT-AGGGTCTTCTCGTC] generated a 150-bp fragment. The second pair [16S3 (5'TTTAAAAGAC-GAGAAGACCC) and 16S4 (5'TTTAAATTTTAATATCACCCC] generated a 150-bp fragment immediately adjacent to the first. The primers used in the control experiments were 18sai1.0 (5'GGT-GAAATTCTTGGACCGTC) as well as those for 18sai and 18sbi listed above. The extant isopteran sequences were generated in a physically separated lab at the American Museum of Natural History and well after all of the amber termite sequences were generated. We ruled out contamination from the extant taxa in our fossil taxon samples by working on the extant samples after generation of the fossil sequences. Because most of the sequences from these taxa were from ethanol-preserved museum specimens, sterile techniques and special care were also taken in handling these specimens.

Fig. 5. (A) Molecular phylogeny of the Dictyoptera including the extinct M. electrodominicus. This cladogram requires 51 steps and has a consistency index of 0.667 (excluding uninformative characters) and a retention index also of 0.667 (22). (B) Molecular phylogeny of the Dictyoptera excluding the extinct M. electrodominicus. Exact analysis produced two cladograms, each with a length of 49 steps, consistency index (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.667, and a retention index of 0.611. In the two cladograms the position of M. darwiniensis switches between the orthopteran Warramaba and the termite Zootermopsis. Cladograms were constructed with the exact solution algorithm (ie\*) in HENNIG86 (22).



tions: What are the phylogenetic relations in the Dictyoptera? How does the extinct M. electrodominicus relate to the extant M. darwiniensis and the other Isoptera? Because fossils can be crucial for elucidating evolutionary pattern (21), what is the effect of adding the fossil taxon to the DNA phylogeny of both the Dictyoptera and the Isoptera? And, how do the molecular and morphological data interact in a "global parsimony" analysis after the addition of molecular data from the fossil taxon?

The 18S rDNA sequences of three insects outside the Dictyoptera were used to root the cladogram: Pteronarcys (stone fly), Drosophila (fruit fly), and Warramaba (grasshopper). These taxa include representatives of both holometabolous and hemimetabolous insect groups to discriminate between character transformations. Although the most parsimonious solution (22) (Fig. 5A) to the molecular data alone differs in detail from that of Thorne and Carpenter, their overall scheme of relations has support. Removal of the fossil M. electrodominicus from the analysis resulted in the extant M. darwiniensis showing sister group affinity either to other termites or to the sample orthopteran (Warramaba) (Fig. 5B). Hence, only through the inclusion of this extinct taxon are termites seen as monophyletic by these data. When the data of Thorne and Carpenter are included to determine the best-supported interpretation of both morphological and molecular information, the rejection of an Isoptera-Blattaria clade is upheld (Fig. 6).

The sister group status of the extinct and extant Mastotermes is compelling evidence that authentic fossil DNA has been amplified, especially because their sequences are not identical. The major pitfall of this type of investigation is contamination from some outside source of DNA. We are confident that the amber fossil DNA is not a contamination product for the following reasons: (i) extraction of the



Fig. 6. Phylogeny of the Dictyoptera including morphological and molecular information [morphological characters from the matrix (4) and (28)]. This cladogram requires 143 steps and has a consistency index (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.833 and a retention index of 0.884 (22).

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DNA from amber was done in a part of a new facility in the American Museum of Natural History where insect DNA had not been previously isolated, and extreme care was taken with positive displacement pipettes and tips; (ii) negative control amplifications did not occur; and (iii) prior attempts to extract DNA from amber-preserved woodgnats (Diptera: Anisopodidae) revealed obvious contaminants. Certain cloned polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products from amber Mastotermes amplifications were also easily confirmed as contaminants. They were almost exclusively dipteran in general and drosophilid in particular. The sequence differences and similarities between fossil and living Mastotermes were inconsistent with contamination but consistent with close relation.

Among all modes of fossilization, it can be reasonably assumed that preservation in amber will more consistently yield fossil DNA from Tertiary and perhaps older geological periods. So far, most ancient DNA has been recovered from human, mammoth, and other Holocene-late Pleistocene remains (23). The common factor among these remains is thorough dehydration, which also occurs in "amberization." The polymerization that results from the linking of isoprene units in resinous sap (and diterpenoids in Hymenaea sap, in particular) (24) causes inert dehydration of organic inclusions. This process, as well as flowing resin's ability to encapsulate an organism entirely and the bactericidal action of terpenes, lends amber its natural embalming features.

The isolation and characterization of DNA from this fossilized specimen allow us to uncover variation previously hidden from molecular systematic analysis. This affords direct comparison of both organisms and molecules with their forebears. In the history of the Isoptera, the great diversity of some of the most important groups has vanished through extinction. Without analysis of this and similar specimens we would be forced to use depauperate samples to represent large and (formerly) diverse groups, which has been shown to be an extremely error-prone method (21). The case of M. electrodominicus shows again how the inclusion of fossil taxa alters our understanding of the relations among living creatures. In the past, these comparisons have been limited, for the most part, to hard components of large-scale anatomy. Here is an illuminating glimpse into the DNA of 25 million to 30 million years ago.

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