Ed. (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1987), pp. 23–53.

- 9. \_\_\_\_\_ and L. B. Martin, J. Hum. Evol. 16, 101 (1987).
- 10. L. Kretzoi, Symp. Biol. Hung. 9, 3 (1969).
- L. Kordos, Ann. Hist. Nat. Mus. Natl. Hung. 79, 77 (1987).
   D. R. Begun, A Review of the Genus Dryopithecus
- (University Microfilms, An Arbor, MI, 1987).
- \_\_\_\_\_, Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. 87, 291 (1992).
   C. P. Groves, in *Comparative Primate Biology*, D. R. Swindler and J. Erwin, Eds. (Liss, New York, 1996) vol. 1, pp. 187, 217.
- 1986), vol. 1, pp. 187–217.
   15. I. Tattersall, E. Delson, J. Van Couvering, Eds., Encyclopedia of Human Evolution and Prehistory (Garland, New York, 1988).
- M. Goodman, in *Phylogeny of the Primates*, W. P. Luckett and F. S. Szalay, Eds. (Plenum, New York, 1975), pp. 219–248.
- 17. E. Delson and P. Andrews, ibid., pp. 405-446.
- 18. B. T. Shea, in Orang-utan Biology, J. Schwartz, Ed.
- (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 1988), pp. 233–245.19. RUD is an accession code of the Hungarian Geological Institute assigned to all specimens from Rudabánva.

- 20. A. Walker and M. Teaford, *Sci. Am.* **260**, 76 (January 1989).
- 21. W. M. Krogman, Am. J. Anat. 46, 315 (1930).
- M. F. Ashley-Montagu, *Q. Rev. Biol.* **10**, 32 (1935).
   S. W. Simpson, C. O. Lovejoy, R. S. Meindl, *Am. J. Phys. Anthropol.* **87**, 29 (1992).
- 24. L. de Bonis, G. Bouvrain, D. Geraads, G. Koufos, Nature 345, 712 (1990).
- 25. L. de Bonis and J. Melentis, *C. R. Acad. Sci. Paris* **304**, 767 (1987).
- 26. D. Pilbeam, Nature 295, 232 (1982)
- P. Andrews and J. E. Cronin, *ibid.* 297, 541 (1982).
   S. C. Ward and D. R. Pilbeam, in *New Interpretations of Ape and Human Ancestry*, R. L. Ciochon and R. S. Corruccini, Eds. (Plenum, New York, 1983), pp. 211–238.
- 29. J. H. Schwartz, Nature 308, 501 (1984).
- W. H. Kimbel, T. D. White, D. C. Johanson, *Am. J. Phys. Anthropol.* 64, 337 (1984).
- 31. R. H. Tuttle, ibid. 26, 171 (1967)
- 32. L. Martin, Nature 314, 260 (1985)
- A. Boyde and L. Martin, *Scanning Microsc.* 1, 1935 (1987).
- A. D. Beynon, M. C. Dean, D. J. Reid, Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. 86, 295 (1991).

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

## Rob DeSalle, John Gatesy, Ward Wheeler, David Grimaldi

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

- 35. P. Andrews and L. Martin, *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. London Ser. B* **333** (1268), 307 (1991).
- K. C. Beard, M. F. Teaford, A. Walker, *Folia Primatol.* 47, 97 (1986).
- 37. M. D. Rose, J. Hum. Évol. 13, 503 (1984).
- C. F. Spoor, P. Y. Sondaar, S. T. Hussain, *ibid.* 21, 413 (1991).
   J. T. Stern and R. L. Susman, *Am. J. Phys.*
- 39. J. I. Stern and R. L. Susman, Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. 60, 279 (1983).
- J. T. Robinson, Early Hominid Posture and Locomotion (Univ. of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1972).
- 41. C. O. Lovejoy, Yearb. Phys. Anthropol. 17, 147 (1974).
- 42. H. Virchow, *Gegenbaurs Morphol. Jahr.* **63**, 480 (1929).
- 43. I thank L. Kordos and M. Kretzoi for access to specimens in their care, E. Delson for comments on the manuscript, and J. Glover for help in preparing the figures. This work was funded by grants from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, the Leakey Foundation, the Wenner-Gren Foundation, and the University of Toronto.

27 April 1992; accepted 8 July 1992

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-

R. DeSalle and D. Grimaldi, Department of Entomology, American Museum of Natural History, New York, NY 10024.

J. Gatesy, Department of Geology, Yale University, New Haven, CT 06511. W. Wheeler, Department of Invertebrates, American

W. Wheeler, Department of Invertebrates, Americar Museum of Natural History, New York, NY 10024.

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).

SCIENCE • VOL. 257 • 25 SEPTEMBER 1992

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.

## **REFERENCES AND NOTES**

- 1. A. E. Emerson, Am. Mus. Novit. 2236, 1 (1965).
- W. Hennig, Insect Phylogeny (Wiley, New York, 1981).

3. K. Krishna, in Biology of Termites, K. Krishna and F. M. Weesner, Eds. (Academic Press, New York, 1970), vol. 2, pp. 127–152; E. O. Wilson, *The Insect Societies* (Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, MA, 1971).

- 4. B. L. Thorne and J. M. Carpenter, Syst. Entomol., in press.
- 5. Review and revision of fossil taxa are given in (1) Valditermes brenanae, from the Neocomian (130 million years old) of England was described as a hodotermitid [E. A. Jarzembowski, Syst. Entomol. 6, 91 (1981); Mod. Geol. 9, 71 (1984)]. This genus actually appears to be a mastotermitid [K. Krishna, Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. 195, 76 (1990)] 6. K. Krishna and A. E. Emerson, Am. Mus. Novit
- 2767. 1 (1983) K. Krishna and D. Grimaldi, *ibid*, 3021, 1 (1991).
- S. G. Larsson, Baltic Amber-A Paleobiological 8. Study (Entomonograph 1, Scandinavian Science Press, Klampenborg, Denmark, 1978); B. Kos mowska-Ceranowicz, Pr. Muz. Ziemi 41, 143 (1990).
- 9. J. H. Langenheim, Science 163, 1157 (1969); Am. Sci. 78, 16 (1990). Hymenaea today is circum-Caribbean [Y. T. Lee and J. H. Langenheim, Univ. Calif. Publ. Bot. 69, 1 (1974)], although the species of amber trees appear to be extinct.
- 10. For Chiapas amber, a late Oligocene date is given in P. D. Hurd, Jr., R. F. Smith, J. W. Durham, *Ciencia (Mexico City)* 21, 107 (1962); S. H. Frost and R. L. Langenheim, Jr., *Cenozoic Reef Bio*facies: Tertiary Larger Foraminifera and Scleractinian Corals from Chiapas, Mexico (Northern Illinois University Press, De Kalb, IL, 1974); A. C Tomasini-Ortiz and E. Martinez-Hernandez, Paleontol. Mex. 50, 1 (1984). An early Miocene date for the amber from the upper Cordillera Septentrional in the Dominican Republic is given in C Baroni-Urbani and J. B. Saunders, in Proceedings of the Ninth Caribbean Geological Conference, Santo Domingo, 1980 (Univ. Autonoma, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 1982), pp. 213-223. This date is based on benthic Foraminifera at the Palo Alto mine and so is a minimum age based on redeposition in marine matrix. It is corroborated by S. B. Brouwer and P. A. Brouwer (ibid., pp. 303–322). A middle Miocene (15 million vears old) small deposit of barren fragmentary amber exists in the Cordillera Central Harms, Stuttg. Beitr. Naturkd. 163 (B), 1 (1990)] Occasional references give Eocene ages (40 million years old) for material from the La Toca group of mines [(for example, J. B. Lambert, J. S. Frye, G. O. Poinar, Jr., Geoarchaeology 5, 43 (1990)], but these are based on extrapolation of presumed rates in radical decay of the ambers Harms cites unpublished stratigraphic results from paleontologists at Hannover, Germany, that the La Toca mines ranged from middle Miocene to upper Eocene (evidence was not provided).
- 11. C. Baroni-Urbani and S. Graeser, Stuttg. Beitr. Naturkd. 133, 1 (1987).
- 12. G. O. Poinar, Jr., and R. Hess, Science 215, 1241 (1982); A. Henwood, Palaios 7, 203 (1992).
- 13. E. M. Golenberg et al., Nature 344, 656 (1990); R. J. Cano, H. Poinar, G. O. Poinar, Jr., *Med. Sci. Res.* 20, 249 (1992). Golenberg *et al.*, report on chloroplast DNA from a middle Miocene magnolia leaf. Cano et al. describe the isolation of DNA from an amber-preserved bee (Proplebeia dominicana) in the same deposit. They did not, howev-er, characterize this DNA through restriction or sequence analysis, and the DNA itself had a high molecular weight (~10 kb)
- 14. R. Martinez and D. Schlee, Stuttg. Beitr. Naturkd. 28 (C), 79 (1987).
- A. Shedrinsky, D. Grimaldi, T. P. Wampler, N. S. 15. Baer, Wien. Ber. Naturwiss. Kunst 6–8, 37 (1992). The pyrograms are on file in the Department of Entomology, American Museum of Natura History.
- 16. Copal, perhaps only a few hundred to several thousand years old, is found in the Cordillera Oriental. It is characteristically very light, softer than amber, and the surface becomes tacky on contact with organic solvents. It also has a dis-

SCIENCE • VOL. 257 • 25 SEPTEMBER 1992

tinctive melting curve [M. Weller and C. A. Wert, Stuttg. Beitr. Naturkd. 18 (C), 85 (1984)]

- 17. C. Orrego, in PCR Protocols, M. A. Innis, D. H. Gelfand, J. J. Sninsky, T. J. White, Eds. (Academ-ic Press, San Diego, 1990), pp. 447–454; S. Kwork, *ibid.* pp. 142–145; S. Pääbo, *ibid.*, pp. 159-168.
- K. G. Field *et al.*, *Science* **239**, 748 (1988); D. M. Hillis and M. T. Dixon, *Q. Rev. Biol.* **66**, 411 18. (1991)
- 19. W. C. Wheeler, in The Heirarchy of Life, B. Fernholm, K. Bremer, H. Jörnvall, Eds. (Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1991), pp. 307–321.
  20. R. DeSalle, *Mol. Phylogenetic Evol.*, in press.
- J. Gauthier, A. G. Kluge, T. Row, Cladistics 4, 105 (1988). J. S. Farris, HENNIG86, program and documen-
- 22. tation (Port Jefferson Station, New York, 1988). 23
- J. Cherfas, Science 253, 1354 (1991 24.
- J. H. Langenheim, Am. Sci. 78, 16 (1990) Amplification by PCR and direct sequencing of 25. the products were conducted under standard conditions to avoid contamination: all manipulations were done in an area of the American Museum of Natural History lab designated solely for amber work, and positive displacement technology was used at all times. In addition, several controls were run during the PCR experiments. These included a negative water control, or "no DNA," reaction and a "large DNA" control. In both, primers were added to a reaction with amber template DNA that was meant to generate PCR products larger than 250 bases. We used primers that can produce 550-bp (18sbi and 18sai1.0) and 1100-bp (18sai and 18sbi in combination) fragments for this purpose. There is such a high degree of degradation to the amber genomic DNA that, if a large fragment is produced in a reaction, that amplification product can almost certainly be attributed to high molecular weight DNA from some contaminant. We used only amber-amplified DNAs that were generated in experiments where the "no DNA" and "large DNA" controls gave no signal. When proper amplification did occur for the amber sample, enough DNA was produced for double-strand sequencing, and so no asymmetric reamplification step was performed on any of these sequences. Annealing was at 50°C for 1 min in each cycle and 30 to 35 cycles were performed to obtain an ample product for sequencing. The double-stranded amplified DNA was treated with GENECLEAN (BIO 101, Vista, CA) and se-quenced as a double-stranded template with <sup>35</sup>S and the SEQUENASE (U.S. Biochemicals) protocol. The sequencing products were run on a 6% acrylamide gel for 2 hours, dried under vacuum, and exposed to film from 24 to 120 hours. Film was developed in an X-OMAT automatic film processor. Sequence was determined for both strands of the PCR product.
- D. Tautz, J. M. Hancock, D. A. Webb, C. Tautz, G. 26.
- A. Dover, *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 5, 366 (1988). 27. W. C. Wheeler and D. M. Gladstein, MALIGN, program and documentation (American Museum of Natural History, New York, 1992)
- N. P. Kristensen, Z. Zool. Syst. Evolutionforsch. 28. 13, 1 (1975). We thank C. Hayashi, B. Dashaveg, M. Barcia,
- 29. and P. Cartwright for technical assistance and B. Thorne for isopteran specimens. A generous gift of positive displacement pipettes was made by C. Burke of Brinkman Instruments. We also thank S. Hendrickson, J. Brodzinsky (who was of special logistic help to D.G. in the Dominican Republic), and R. Martinez, N. Fulgencio, and J. Caridad for providing specimens of amber for study. The pyrolysis-gas chromatography of the amber was done by A. Shedrinsky of the Conservation Cen-ter, Institute of Fine Arts, New York University. We are indebted to the personal generosity of R. Goelet. Research by D.G. supported by NSF grant BSR-9020102. We also thank J. Carpenter, M. Norell, and M. Novacek for many helpful comments

1 May 1992; accepted 7 July 1992