Seed Science Research (2006) 16, 179-191

DOI: 10.1079/SSR2006251

# Seed remains of common millet from the 4th (Mongolia) and 15th (Hungary) centuries: AFLP, SSR and mtDNA sequence recoveries

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# Abstract

Seed remains of common millet (Panicum miliaceum L.) were excavated from sites of AD 4th-century Darhan (Mongolia), and AD 15th-century Budapest (Hungary). Because the 15th-century medieval grains looked so intact, a germination test was carried out under aseptic conditions, which resulted in swelling of the grains but no cell proliferation or germination. Ancient DNA (aDNA) was extracted from the aseptic grains; analysed for amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLP), simple sequence repeats (SSR) and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA); and compared with the modern millet cultivar 'Topaz'. AFLP analysis revealed that extensive DNA degradation had occurred in the 4th-century ancient millet, resulting in only 2 (1.2%) AFLP fragments (98.8% degradation) amplified by MseCAA-EcoAGT, compared to the 15th-century medieval millet, with 158 (40%) fragments (60% degradation), and modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' with 264 fragments (100%). EcoAGT-Mse-CAA was found to be the most effective selectiveprimer combination for the analysis of medieval and modern millet. Eight AFLP fragments were sequenced after re-amplification and cloning. Microsatellite (SSR) analysis at the nuclear gln4, sh1, rps28 and rps15 loci revealed one SNP (single nucleotide polymorphism) at the 29th position (A  $\rightarrow$  G) of *rps*28 locus, compared to modern millet. An mtDNA fragment (MboI), amplified at the 18S-5S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) locus in the medieval millet, showed no molecular changes compared to modern millet. The results underline the significance of aDNA extraction and analysis of

\*Correspondence Email: gyulai.gabor@mkk.szie.hu excavated seeds for comparative analysis and molecular reconstruction of ancient and extinct plant genotypes.

Keywords: ancient DNA, excavated seeds, *Panicum* miliaceum

#### Introduction

Common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*, 2n = 4x = 36) is one of the most ancient grain crops, with the oldest historical reports from 5000-3200 BC (Ho, 1977). However, various plant remains from c. 12,000-8000 BP have been recovered from the Hoabinhian culture (Gorman, 1969; Walters, 1989). Panicum became a typical food of Sumer and northern India, together with barley (Hordeum vulgare), in about 2500 BC. For the nations of steppic Scythia, such as the Celts or Hungarians in 2000 BC, common millet was the first crop to produce two harvests in 1 year. In the ancient Chinese 'Book of Poetry' (Shih Ching), written about 1000-500 BC, nine poems mention common millet (Keng, 1974). This crop spread from the Steppes through Europe via tribes of the Celts, Huns, Avars and Hungarians, and also through the region of the 'Fertile Crescent' and Africa (Harlan, 1971). It was the milium (millet) of Romans (Smith, 1976). Millet was introduced to North America in the 17th century (Colosi and Schaal, 1997). New cultivars were registered recently.

Ancient DNA (aDNA) samples, recovered from excavated remains of plants and animals, supply unique materials not only for the analysis of postmortem DNA degradation (Threadgold and Brown, 2003), but also for tracing crop domestication and microevolution (Brown, 1999), with a final aim for

complete genome reconstruction of extinct organisms (Cooper et al., 2001; Pääbo et al., 2004) and genotypes (Szabo et al., 2005). In this study, we present the aDNA analyses of 1600-year-old common millet excavated in Mongolia, and 600-year-old millet from a 15th-century site in Hungary, together with a comparison with the modern cultivar 'Topaz' as a control. Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) analysis was used to amplify aDNA fragments in high numbers and to estimate the degradation of aDNA. Locusspecific microsatellites (simple sequence repeats, SSR) were used to show authenticity of the Panicum analysed, and to amplify aDNA at the nuclear gene loci of gln4, sh1, rps28 and rps15. High copy number ancient mitochondrial DNA at the 18S-5S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) locus (MboI) was also recovered and analysed.

#### Materials and methods

#### Seed samples

Seed remains of common millet (*P. miliaceum*) from the 4th-century site (third grave, Darhan, Mongolia, excavated in 1969) (50 seeds) and 15th-century sites (150 seeds) (eighth well, Mansion Teleki, King's Palace, Budapest, Hungary) (Nyekhelyi, 2003) were used in this study. Wet-sieved sediment samples were processed by floatation, followed by seed sorting and identification in the laboratory (see Fig. 1). For comparative analyses the modern common millet cultivar 'Topaz' (ABI, Tapioszele, Hungary) was included.

The excavated seeds at the Budapest site (see Table 2) were examined under a light microscope (Wild M32, Leica, Hungary) and identified to species based upon seed morphology, using the Schermann Manual (1966). Seeds were also compared to the samples of a seed bank of the Middle European Seed and Fruit Collections (Gyulai, 2000).

## Aseptic culture

Seed remains were washed with detergent (3 min) and rinsed three times with distilled water (3 min), followed by surface sterilization with ethanol (70% v/v) for 1 min and a commercial bleaching agent (8% NaOCl w/v) for 1 min; followed by three rinses with sterile distilled water, according to general tissue culture technique, and incubated for 3 months in aseptic tissue culture medium F6 (see Fig. 2; Gyulai *et al.*, 2003) to eliminate contamination before DNA extraction. Grains of the modern variety were also surface sterilized. Exogenously and endogenously

			Expected				
SSRs (	NCBI number)	Primer pairs $(5'-3')$	product size (bp)	$T_{\rm m}$ (°C)	PCR cycles	Core sequences observed	References
	gln4 (D14577)	agc aga acg gca agg gct act ttt ggc aca cca cga cga	260	60	40	(TTGCG) <sub>2</sub>	Chin <i>et al.</i> (1996)
2	<i>sh</i> 1 (AF544115)	atc gaa atg cag gcg atg gtt ctc atc gag atg ttc tac gcc ctg aag t	250	68	40	(AAG) <sub>6</sub>	Chin <i>et al.</i> (1996)
З	rps28 (AW424565)	aga cga acc cat cat cat ctt tc cgc ttg gca tct cca tgt ata tct	162	66	40	(TC) <sub>8</sub>	Chin <i>et al.</i> (1996)
4	rps15 (AW062092)	aag aag aaa gag aag aag cac ggg gga cag ctc gta tta taa cct gcg	146	68	40	(CAG) <sub>5</sub>	Chin <i>et al.</i> (1996)
ß	mtDNA (Z11512)	gtg ttg ctg aga cat gcg cc ata tgg cgc aag acg att cc	1177	60	40	I	Al-Janabi <i>et al.</i> (1994); Petit <i>et al.</i> (1998)
Gene	symbols: gln4, glutamir	te tRNA synthetase-4; <i>sh</i> 1, sucrose synt	thase ( <i>shrunken</i> -	.1); <i>rps</i> 28, ribo	somal protein S28	; rps15: ribosomal prot	tein S15; mtDN <sup>1</sup>

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Ancient DNA from 4th- and 15th-century millet



Figure 1. Clumps of excavated 15th-century seeds (King's Palace, Budapest, Hungary) after wet-sieving and floatation, with the most frequent species indicated.



**Figure 2.** Surface sterilized grains (a)–(c), and DNA samples (d) (with molecular weight, Mw, markers in bp) of common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) excavated from the 4th century (a) and 15th century (b), rehydrated and swelling on aseptic tissue culture medium (b'); and compared to modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' (c).

**Table 2.** List and numbers (pieces) of identified seed remains (#) of excavated plant species (1–195) in the 15th-century site (King's Palace, Budapest, Hungary)

Lati	n name	#	Latin	name	#	Latir	name	#
1	Adonis aestivalis	2	69	Galium mollugo	39	137	Prunus fruticosus	1025
2	Aethusa cynapium	2	70	Galium spurium	169*	138	Prunus mahaleb	425
3	Agrostemma githago	5516	71	Glaucium corniculatum	3	139	Prunus padus	7
4	Ajuga chamaepitys	335	72	Glechoma hederacum	1	140	Prunus persica	362
5	Amaranthus lividus	1243	73	Heliotropium europaeum	1	141	P. spinosa (macrocarpa)	35
6	Anethum graveolens	1622	74	Hordeum murinum	1		P. spinosa (macrocarpa)	50
7	Anthemis tinctora	2	75	Hordeum vulgare	8*		P. spinosa - a	194
8	Apium graveolens	12	76	Humulus lupulus	223		<i>P. spinosa -</i> b	216
9	Arctium minus	2	77	Hyoscyamus niger	4	142	Punica granatum	171
10	Arctium tomentosum	1	78	Hypericum perforatum	12	143	Pyrus communis	6682
11	Avena sativa	51*	79	Juglans regia	1609	144	<i>Pyrus</i> sp.	5290
12	Ballota nigra	1	80	Lamium amplexicaule	26	145	Ranunculus repens	117
13	Brassica campestris	21	81	Lamium purpureum	1	146	Raphanus raphanistrum	19
14	Brassica oleracea	34	82	Laserpitium latifolium	1	147	Raphanus sativus	52
15	Bromus secalinus	8*	83	Lathyrus sp.	3	148	Reseda lutea	1113
16	Bryonia alba	1	84	Lens culinaris	1*	149	Rosa canina	36
17	Bupleurum rotundifolium	1120	85	Leontodon autumnalis	1	150	Rosa sp.	584
18	Calamintha acinos	9	86	Lepidium campestre	3	151	Rubus caesius	24,579
19	<i>Camelina</i> sp.	97	87	Linum austriacum	3	152	Rubus fruticosus	2756
20	Campanula sp.	1	88	Linum usitatissimum	4	153	Rubus idaeus	1320
21	Cannabis sativa	1618	89	Lithospermum offinale	58	154	Rumex acetosella	8
22	Carduus acanthoides	4	90	Lychnis flos-cuculi	2	155	Salvia nemorosa	2
23	Carex elata	1	91	Lycopus europaeus	12	156	Salvia verticillata	104
24	Carex flava	2	92	Malus domestica	33,724	157	Sambucus ebulus	168
25	Carex hirta	32	93	Malus silvestris	21	158	Sambucus nigra	194
26	Carex pallescens	17	94	<i>Malus</i> sp.	8141*	159	Saponaria officinalis	14
27	Carex silvatica	1	95	Malva alcea	1	160	Schoenoplectus lacustris	14
28	Carex tricarpellata	3	96	Malva neglecta	1	161	Sch. tabernaemontani	2
29	Carex vulpina/muricata	24	97	Marrubium peregrinum	1307	162	Schoenus nigricans	2
30	Castanea sativa	352	98	Marrubium vulgare	3	163	Scirpus maritimus	1
31	Caucalis platycarpos	1	99	Matricaria inodora	12	164	Secale cereale	208*
32	Centaurea cyanus	6	100	Melandrium noctiflorum	4	165	Setaria lutescens	643
33	Centaurea jacea	560	101	Mespilus germanica	760	166	Setaria viridis/verticillata	37,001
34	Centaurea scabiosa	4	102	Morus nigra	39,670	167	Silene alba	151
35	Cerealia	1	103	Muscari comosum	2	168	Silene dioica	1
	Cerealia	39*	104	Nepeta cataria	3	169	Silene vulgaris	3
36	Cerinthe minor	16	105	Neslea paniculata	52	170	Sinapis alba	1
37	Chenopodium album	30,457	106	Ocimum basilicum	1	171	Sinapis arvensis	733
38	Chenopodium ficifolium	2	107	Origanum vulgare	2	172	Solanum dulcamara	57,962
39	Chenopodium hybridum	708	108	Orlaya grandiflora	33	173	Solanum nigrum	811
40	Chrysanth. eucanthemum	1	109	Panicum miliaceum	955,497	174	Sonchus asper	1
41	Chrysanthemum segetum	3		Panicum miliaceum	1442*	175	Sonchus oleraceus	20
42	Cichorium intybus	46	110	Papaver dubium	3	176	Sorbus domestica	1276
43	Circaea lutetiana	1	111	Papaver rhoeas	57	177	Stachys annua	847
44	Citrullus lanatus	54,415	112	Papaver somniferum	359,981	178	Stachys arvensis	43
45	Conringia orientalis	1	113	Pastinaca sativa	60	179	Stellaria holostea	1
46	Convolvulus arvensis	1	114	Physalis alkakengi	5517	180	Stellaria media	147
47	Coriandrum sativum	51	115	Picris hieracioides	5	181	Taraxacum officinale	2
48	Cornus mas	1936	116	Piper nigrum	1046	182	Thalictrum flavum	2
49	Corylus avellana	541	117	Pisum sativum	2*	183	Thalictrum minus	16
50	Cucumis melo	28,117	118	Plantago major	1	184	Thlaspi arvense	415
51	Cucumis sativus	11,783	119	Poaceae	1534	185	Tilia sp.	2
52	Cuscuta europaea	4	120	Polygonum aviculare	618	186	Trifolium arvense	1
53	Cydonia oblonga	351	121	Polygonum mite/minus	1	187	Triticum aestivum	221
54	Cyperus fuscus	1	122	Polygonum persicaria	49		Triticum aestivum	3*
55	Cyperus longus	1	123	Potentilla erecta	1	188	Urtica dioica	1
56	Daucus carota	71	124	Potentilla reptans	2	189	Vaccaria pyramidale	328
57	Dianthus sp.	3	125	Primula elatior	1	190	Valerianella dentata	51

Table 2. Continued

Lat	in name	#	Latir	n name	#	Latir	name	#
58	Diplotaxis muralis	1	126	Prunus amygdalus	38	191	Viburnum lantana	10
59	Echinochloa crus-galli	4	127	Prunus armeniaca	6	192	Viburnum opulus	15
60	Eleocharis palustris	5	128	Prunus avium	9783	193	Vicia hirsuta	16
61	Euphorbia cyparissias	43	129	Prunus cerasifera	259	194	Vitis vinifera	241,231
62	Euphorbia exigua	1	130	Prunus cerasus	13,368	195	Xanthium italicum	1
63	Euphorbia platyphyllos	6	131	Prunus domestica italica	5			
64	Fallopia convolvulus	3275	132	P. domestica institia	14		Food remains (bread)	2*
65	Ficus carica	278,459	133	P. domestica syriaca	15		Food remains (gruel)	32*
66	Fragaria vesca	1,056,154	134	P. domestica oeconomica	651		Food remains (cooked)	12*
67	Galeopsis ladanum	1	135	P. domestica Juliana	736			
68	Galium aparine	60	136	P. domestica oxicarpa	111		Total	3,293,623

<sup>\*</sup>Indicates carbonized samples.

contaminated grains infected by fungi and bacteria were eliminated from further analyses.

## **DNA** extraction

Aseptic seed remains were ground in an aseptic mortar with liquid nitrogen in a laminar air-flow cabinet. aDNA was extracted by the CTAB (cetyltrimethylammonium bromide) method in batches, according to Yang (1997), Cooper and Poinar (2000) and Biss et al. (2003). Seed DNA of modern cultivars (0.1 g dry weight) was also extracted in CTAB buffer, followed by an RNase-A treatment (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) for 30 min at 37°C. To avoid crosscontamination, ancient and modern samples were handled in separate laboratories using different laminar air-flow cabinets, pipettes, autoclaved tubes, mortars, pestles and thermocyclers, according to Szabo et al. (2005). The quality and quantity of extracted DNA were measured (2 µl) by a NanoDrop ND-1000 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Delaware, USA; BioScience, Budapest, Hungary). DNA samples were adjusted to a concentration of 30 ng/µl with double-distilled water (ddH<sub>2</sub>O) and subjected to polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification according to Lagler et al. (2005).

# PCR primers

Four nuclear simple sequence repeats (SSRs) at *gln4*, *sh1*, *rps*28 and *rps*15 loci and a ribosomal mtDNA at the 18S–5S rDNA locus were amplified (Table 1).

# PCR

A minimum of two independent DNA preparations from each sample was used for PCR, following the basic protocols of amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) (Vos *et al.*, 1995), SSR (Chin *et al.*, 1996) and mtDNA (Petit *et al.*, 1998). Each successful reaction with scorable bands was repeated at least twice. Negative controls including aDNA-free, primer-free, *Taq*-free and water were included in PCR runs.

#### SSR analysis

SSR fragments were separated  $(2 \mu l)$  by an automatic laser fluorometer (ALFexpress II DNA Analyser; Amersham Bioscience, Uppsala, Sweden; AP, Budapest, Hungary), according to Roder et al. (1998). Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE; 24% w/v) with a short thermoplate and 40-sample capacity, was run at 850 V, 50 mA, 50 W at 50°C for 120 min, prior to UV-linkage for 15 min. One primer of each primer pair was labelled with Cy5 fluorescent dye at the 5'-end (Sigma). For sequencing, SSR and mtDNA fragments  $(15 \,\mu l)$  were run and cut out from agarose (1.6% w/v)gels and purified in a spin column (Sigma). mtDNA fragments were digested with the restriction endonuclease *Mbo* I to facilitate sequencing, according to the manufacturer's protocol (Fermentas-Biocenter, Szeged, Hungary).

#### AFLP analysis

Undiluted aDNA samples (5.5  $\mu$ l) were subjected to fAFLP (fluorescent AFLP) analysis, following the method of Vos *et al.* (1995) with modifications (Cresswell *et al.*, 2001; Skøt *et al.*, 2002). For digestion–ligation reactions, pairs of *Eco* RI–*Mse* I restriction endonucleases (REases) were used. The sequences of the preselective primer pairs were: *Eco-A* (gac tgc gta cca att c-a) and *Mse*-C (gat gag tcc tga gta a-c). For selective amplification, 24 primer combinations were used with 'JOE' (green) fluorescent-labelled \**Eco*-primers. In primer combinations 1–12, the primer

157 (D14577) 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 110 120 130 140 150 160   11 ···································	0 (MF544115) 1 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 140 150 160 1 1	1408 caagccaggttecgetgetectugattagtacgggga <b>aagaagaagaagaag</b> eecaggeegg <u>aaaceategeettegat</u> 6495 163	157 (aW424565) 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 140 150 160   1 1 10 1 10 11 <th>146 (ANO62092) 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 33 aggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaagga</th> <th>Consensus sequence alignments of nuclear microsatellite alleles at four simple sequence repeat (SSR) loci (a)–(d) of medieval millet (15th century) compared on millet cultivar 'Tonaz' and maize with one single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) at the 29th position (<math>A \rightarrow G</math>) of the m28 locus. Core nucleotides of SSRs</th>	146 (ANO62092) 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 33 aggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaaggaagga	Consensus sequence alignments of nuclear microsatellite alleles at four simple sequence repeat (SSR) loci (a)–(d) of medieval millet (15th century) compared on millet cultivar 'Tonaz' and maize with one single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) at the 29th position ( $A \rightarrow G$ ) of the m28 locus. Core nucleotides of SSRs
(a) g1n4-257 (D14 1 2.mays 992 agc. 2.mays 992 agc. 1 15th cent. 1 15th cent 160 15th cent 160	(b) sh1-250 (AF54 1  Z.mays 6245 atc. Topaz 1 15th cent. 1	<i>Z.mays</i> 6408 caa <i>Topaz</i> 163 15th cent.163	(C) rps28-157 (AW 1 2.mays 62 <u>aga</u> 70paz 1 15th cent. 1	(d) rps15-146 (AM 	<b>igure 3.</b> Conser modern millet

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*Mse*CAC was combined with labelled primers of \**Eco*aaa, -aac, -aag, -aat, -aca, -acc, -agg, -act, -aga, -agc, -agg, -agt. In primer combinations 13–24, the labelled primer \**Eco*AGT was combined with primers of *Mse*-caa, -cag, -cat, -cca, -ccc, -ccg, -cct, -cga, -cgc, -cgg, -cgt, -cta according to Gyulai *et al.* (2005). All oligonucleotides were supplied by Sigma Genosys (St. Louis, Missouri, USA), and enzymes were obtained from Roche Diagnostics (Basel, Switzerland). PCR-amplified AFLP fragments were subsequently denatured at 98°C for 5 min, and directly forwarded to an ABI PRISM 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA), using a G5 filter set in two repetitions, and analysed by ABI PRISM Genotyper 3.7 NT software at the range of 150–600 bp.

# Fragment recovery

AFLP samples were loaded (8  $\mu$ l) on to a 4.5% (w/v) PAGE sequencing gel (Sequi-Gen GT, Biorad, Hercules, California, USA) and run for 1.5 h at 100 W (2090 V, 48 mA), followed by silver staining (Promega, St. Louis, Missouri, USA). AFLP fragments recovered from gels were either reamplified (using 1  $\mu$ l in a PCR reaction with non-labelled primer pairs of *EcoAGT*– *Mse*CAC and *EcoAGT*–*Mse*CAA), or cloned into pGEM-T Easy Vector System II, and transformed into a Jm109 competent cell (Promega). Inserts were cut out by *Eco* RI.

# Sequencing

Fragments were subjected to automated fluorescent DNA sequencing (ABI PRISM 3100 Genetic Analyzer) and sequenced from both directions. Sequences were analysed by the computer program ChromasPro version 1.11 (Technelysium Pty Ltd, Tewantin, Queensland, Australia). Sequence alignments were analysed by BioEdit Sequence Alignment Editor (North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina, USA) and also by GCG-10 (Genetics Computer Group, Oxford Molecular Group Inc., Madison, Wisconsin, USA; Wisconsin Package, Version 10.3) software programs. BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) analysis was carried out using the computer program from NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information, Bethesda, Maryland, USA).

# Results

Excavation sites from the 4th century (Mongolia) and 15th century (Hungary) contained a great number of plant remains, including grains of common millet (*P. miliaceum*). The medieval site (Hungary) contained about 3 million plant remains of 195 species (Table 2),

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**Figure 5.** Samples of amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) (*EcoAGT–Mse*CAC) fragment analysis (150–430 bp, with relative intensities of 30–6000) in the 4th-century (a) and 15th-century common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) (b), compared to the modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' (c).

including 955,497 grains of common millet (Fig. 1). Intact grains from both sites were separated from damaged grains under a microscope. The 4th-century grains showed greater damage (Fig. 2). The ancient grains showed shrunken forms (Fig. 2) with a major loss of kernel; nevertheless, intact grains selected from the medieval sample showed swelling upon rehydration on tissue culture media after surface sterilization and incubation (Fig. 2). Aseptic seeds were separated and incubated individually (Fig. 2). Because the single grains had a low quantity of aDNA, 16 intact grains from 50 seed remains of 4th-century millet were pooled, and 78 intact grains from 150 seed remains of 15th-century millet were pooled to extract DNA, according to Michelmore *et al.* (1991).

SSR alleles at four loci -gln4 (257 nt), *sh*1 (250 nt), *rps*28 (157 nt) and *rps*15 (146 nt) – were amplified in the 15th-century millet and the modern millet cultivar 'Topaz'. No SSR amplification was observed in the 4thcentury sample. The medieval SSR fragments showed identical alignments with modern millet and maize sequences, with only one SNP (single nucleotide polymorphism) at the 29th position (A  $\rightarrow$  G) of the *rps*28 locus (Fig. 3). When SSR sequences of medieval and modern millet were compared to maize (*Zea mays*) (NCBI database), three indels (insertion and deletions) and SNPs were observed in the *gln4* allele of millets. There was consensus between the millets and maize at the *sh*1 locus. In the *rps*28 locus of millets, a (ct)<sub>2</sub> dinucleotide repeat deletion of the core sequence of SSR and several SNPs were observed compared to maize (Fig. 3). In the *rps*15 locus an insertion of A at the 42nd position, and a  $G \rightarrow T$  nucleotide substitution (transversion) at the 106th position, were detected in the millets compared to maize (Fig. 3).

Of the organelle-specific primer pairs applied [chloroplast DNA (cpDNA): *trn* H, *trn* K, *rpo*C2 and *psb*C; and mtDNA: *nad*1B, *nad*1C, *cox* II and *cob*] from the collection of Petit *et al.* (1998) (data not shown), one of the 18S-5S ribosomal mtDNA primer pairs (Al-Janabi *et al.*, 1994) recognized a template in the medieval and modern millets. Sequence analysis of the restricted fragment *Mbo*I (571 bp) did not detect any nucleotide changes between the medieval and modern common millet (Fig. 4). No organelle aDNA was amplified in the 4th-century sample.

**Table 3.** Total numbers, %, and degradation (degr. %) of the fluorescent amplified fragment length polymorphism (fAFLP) fragments of common millets (4th and 15th centuries), compared to modern millet cultivar 'Topaz'. The selective AFLP primer combinations are: *Mse*CAC combined with (a) *Eco*AAT\*, (b) *Eco*ACC\*, and (c) *Eco*AGT\*; and *Eco*AGT\* combined with (d) *Mse*CAA, (e) *Mse*CAG, (f) *Mse*CAT, (g) *Mse*CCC, (h) *Mse*CCT, (i) *Mse*CGA, (j) *Mse*CGC and (k) *Mse*CTA

(f)	$(\alpha)$	(la)	(*)	(4)				
(-)	(g)	(n)	(1)	(j)	(k)	No.	%	degr.%
_	_	_	_	_	_	2	0.8	99.2
12	16	5	5	3	2	158	60.0	40.0
-	- 12 33	- $        -$	- $      12$ $16$ $5$ $33$ $18$ $17$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

\*Indicates a fluorescent-labelled primer.

Ancient DNA from 4th- and 15th-century millet



**Figure 6.** Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) analysis of amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) fragments of common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) excavated from the 15th-century site (a) compared to the modern cultivar 'Topaz' (b). DNA molecular weight markers (622 to 147 bp), fragments recovered (white arrowheads) and sequenced (black arrowheads) are indicated.

# AFLP analysis

Eleven of the 24 selective primer pairs produced sharp AFLP patterns in the samples (Fig. 5). The 4th-century

sample revealed only two fragments (85 bp and 230 bp), both amplified by the *EcoAGT–Mse*CAC primer pair; 158 AFLP bands were amplified in the 15th-century sample compared to the 264 AFLP bands

#### (1) $_{Eco}AGT-_{Mse}CAG-225-15$ th cent.

#### (2) $_{Eco}AGT-_{Mse}CCC-252 - 15$ th cent.

#### (3) $_{Eco}AGT_{-Mse}CAC-272 - 15$ th cent. - (BAB04200)

# (4) $_{Eco}AGT-_{Mse}CGA-298 - 15$ th cent.

 $\label{eq:static} \underline{gactgcgtacccaattcagt} agaaagacagccaagacaagtccttcaggcatattctgtgccccgatggatatcgcgaccataggacctaaagctcattgtgctgctgagtccctccgggatgttatggataaatagagctataataaccaataaagatttggcatcaaggatttgataccagaatcattctcccacatctacatgaggaatattcttctccaataatatccagaacaataccaatcacaaaaccta \underline{tcg} \underline{ttactcaggactcatc}$ 

# (5a) $_{Eco}AGT$ - $_{Mse}CAA$ -331 – 15th cent.

## (5b) *Eco*AGT-*Mse*CAA-462 - cv. Topaz - (AF050455)

# (6) $_{Eco}AGT-_{Mse}CAG-344 - 15$ th cent.

# (7) $_{Eco}$ AGT- $_{Mse}$ CCC-345 – 15th cent.

**Figure 7.** Sequence data of amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) fragments of 15th-century common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) (1)–(7), compared to the modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' (5b). Primer sequences of selective primer pairs of *Eco*A-gactgcgtaccaattc-*axx* and the complementary sequence of *Mse*C-gatgagtcctgagtaa-*cxx* are underlined.

detected in the modern common millet cultivar 'Topaz'. The average number of AFLP fragments per selective primer pair ranged from 0.2 (4th-century millet) and 14.4 (15th-century millet) to 24 ('Topaz'). The selective primer pair *EcoAGT–Mse*CAA was the most effective combination, generating 34 and 42 AFLP fragments in the 15th-century millet and 'Topaz', respectively (Table 3).

Twenty-one AFLP fragments were recovered from a PAGE gel (Fig. 6), and eight of them revealed

identical sequences after either reamplification or cloning (Fig. 7). BLAST analysis revealed that one fragment (*EcoAGT–Mse*CAC-272) from the 15thcentury millet showed significant similarity with the universal *Ugpe*, an ABC-type transporter (permease) gene (NCBI, BAB04200) (Fig. 7). A fragment (*EcoAGT–Mse*CAA-462) from the modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' showed significant similarity with the gypsy/Ty3-type retrotransposon (NCBI, AF050455). AFLP fragments amplified by the same primer pair (*Eco*AGT–*Mse*CAA) in the medieval and modern millet (5a and 5b in Fig. 7) did not show sequence homology, when amplified from different loci of their genomes. The two AFLP fragments from the 4th-century millet had such low intensities that further fragment purification was not successful.

#### Discussion

Common millet grains of the 15th-century site used in the present study appeared to be extremely well preserved due to anaerobic conditions in the slime of a deep well covered by water, apparently used as dusthole in the Middle Ages (Nyekhelyi, 2003). These seeds looked intact, but were incapable of germinating: the half-life longevity of *P. miliaceum* is reported to be *c.* 12 years (Priestley, 1986). Nevertheless 15thcentury grains showed swelling on tissue culture medium (Fig. 2) by water uptake, a primary event of seed germination (Bewley, 1997). Despite no germination, aseptic archaeo seeds, free of foreign DNA contamination, were obtained for further aDNA extraction and molecular analysis.

Agarose gel electrophoresis of the extracted total aDNA showed different degrees of degradation in the 4th- and 15th-century samples, compared to modern common millet (Fig. 2), probably due to hydrolytic and oxidative damage (Yang, 1997; Poinar et al., 2003; Pääbo et al., 2004). The quantities of aDNA extracted from two batches of 4th-century grains (0.083 g and 0.079 g produced 2.26 ng/µl and 1.97 ng/µl DNA, respectively) and those of 15th-century grains (0.089 g and 0.090 g produced  $8.82 \text{ ng}/\mu l$  and  $6.71 \text{ ng}/\mu l$  DNA, respectively) were much lower than the DNA samples from the modern common millet cultivar 'Topaz'  $(0.315 g \text{ and } 0.371 g \text{ produced } 417.3 \text{ ng/}\mu\text{l}$  and 536.4 ng/µl DNA, respectively). The 15th-century aDNA showed less degradation than in 4th-century samples, with the presence of high molecular weight fragments (Fig. 2), probably not only because of the younger age of the samples, but also because of the cold, humid and anaerobic conditions in the medieval well. Successful aDNA extractions have been made from 400,000- to 10,000-year-old permafrost plant samples from Siberia (Willerslev et al., 2003). The extensive DNA degradation in the 4th-century millet aDNA was probably due to the arid continental climatic conditions at the surface excavations of the sandy soil site in Mongolia.

In theory, microsatellites, as highly species-specific probes (Toth *et al.*, 2000), are optimal for aDNA analysis by excluding cross-reactions with contaminating microorganisms, or any ancient organisms and laboratory DNAs (Gugerli *et al.*, 2005). SSR analysis has been applied to *c*. 100-year-old herbarium samples of common reed (*Phragmites australis*) to track plant

invasion in North America (Saltonstall, 2003). Melon (*Cucumis melo*)-specific SSRs were used to identify an *inodorus* type melon recovered from the 15th century (Szabo *et al.*, 2005). Allelic diversity of microsatellites was also reliably detected in aDNAs of 4000-year-old seagrass (*Posidonia oceanica*) (Raniello and Procaccini, 2002). However, the very fragmented aDNA (Fig. 2) of the 4th-century millet prevented SSR amplification in our study.

Unlike wheat, maize and *Lolium*, no database is available for common millet at present. Therefore, we selected maize-specific nuclear SSR markers for DNAfishing in the aDNA microsatellites. At the *rps*28 locus, only one nucleotide change  $(A \rightarrow G)$  was observed between 15th-century millet and modern millet cultivar 'Topaz' at the 29th position (Fig. 3), which might be the reason for the post-mortem hydrolytic deamination of adenine (A) to hypoxanthine, which pairs with cytosine (C) and can be read as guanine (G) in the PCR amplification (Threadgold and Brown, 2003). Because the A  $\rightarrow$  G transition is located in the middle of the SSR sequence, it does not seem to be an artefact caused by Taq polymerase, which adds an A to the amplified fragment at the 3' end of the sequence (Hofreiter et al., 2001; Poinar et al., 2003).

The theoretical opposite nucleotide transition from G to A in modern millet compared to medieval millet, as the result of microevolution, seems to be unlikely, since the relatively constant rate of mutation in evolution is longer than 600 years, even in crops that have been under accelerated evolution by selection pressure (Bromham and Penny, 2003). To compare, the mutation rate of human SSRs is about  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-5}$ per gamete (Bowcock et al., 1994). Nevertheless, nuclear SSRs of aDNA of medieval melon (Cucumis melo), excavated from the same site as the millet in the present study, showed a high number of indels (13) in a 1383-bp-long sequence of eight microsatellite loci (Szabo et al., 2005). Our results might indicate a more stable monocotyledonous millet genome compared to dicotyledonous melon, or more accelerated post-mortem aDNA degradation in the high-protein-containing melon seeds than in the high-carbohydrate-containing millet grains (Poinar and Stankiewicz, 1999).

Organelle mtDNA at the 5S–18S rDNA locus was amplified in the medieval sample, but not in the 4thcentury sample. The *Mbo* I-571 fragment of the medieval sample revealed consensus sequence alignments with the modern cultivar 'Topaz' (Fig. 4), without SNPs, as expected. Multiple copy aDNA fragments – such as the highly conserved mtDNA, cpDNA and rDNA – were also reported to be highly amplified compared to double-copy (2*n*) nuclear aDNA sequences (Deguilloux *et al.*, 2002; Gugerli *et al.*, 2005). The reason for the unsuccessful reactions in the rest of the organellespecific markers, including cpDNA (*trn* H, *trn* K, *rpo*C2 and *psb*C) and mtDNA (*nad*1B, *nad*1C, *cox* II and *cob*) (Petit *et al.*, 1998), might be due to the expected long template fragments, which suggests a need for different protocols, such as long-PCR (Cheng *et al.*, 1994; Cooper *et al.*, 2001). Restorase DNA polymerase and Genome-Plex WGA amplification (Sigma) have been used for amplification of DNA samples with limited quantities and qualities (Sun *et al.*, 2005).

In the AFLP analysis, only one of the seven ALF fragments (Fig. 6) showed identical plant DNA sequences in the medieval sample. Nevertheless, only AFLP (Table 3) was successful in the fragment recovery from the 4th-century millet, compared to SSR or mtDNA. This result underlines the useful application of AFLP with high amplification capacity in archaeogenetics (Allaby and Brown, 2003).

To conclude, the incubation of archaeobotanical samples of common millet under aseptic conditions provided contamination-free seed samples for aDNA isolation. The aDNA degradation evaluated by AFLP was extensive in the 1600-year-old (4th-century) sample (98.8%). In the 15th-century sample, with 40% AFLP degradation, a total of 2529-bp-long AFLP sequences was recovered. A further 1802-bp-long sequence was recovered from the 15th-century millet at five nuclear SSR and mtDNA loci; these sequences are the first records in a *Panicum* database. Since only one SNP was observed in the 15th-century millet, at the *rps*28 SSR locus, this indicates a genetically stable *Panicum* genome with good preservation conditions at the medieval excavation site.

#### Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank Dr L. Skøt, S. Heywood and K. Skøt for contributing in the AFLP analysis. The project was supported by Hungarian Scientific Research Group OTKA-M-04563, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development grant OECD-JA00018642, the USA–Hungarian Fulbright Commission, and a Széchenyi Fellowship (SzÖ-4/2003).

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Received 17 October 2005 accepted after revision 2 June 2006 © CAB International 2006