Distinct and extinct: Genetic differentiation of the Hawaiian eagle

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**Abstract**

Eagles currently occur in the Hawaiian Islands only as vagrants, but Quaternary bones of *Haliaeetus* eagles have been found on three of the major islands. A previous study of a ~3500-year-old skeleton from Maui found its mtDNA more similar to White-tailed (*H. albicilla*) than to Bald (*H. leucocephalus*) Eagles, but low intraspecific resolution of the markers and lack of comparative data from mainland populations precluded assessment of whether the individual was part of the diversity found in Eurasia, or whether it represented an endemic Hawaiian lineage. Using ancient DNA techniques, we sequenced part of the rapidly evolving mtDNA control region from the same specimen, and compared it to published range-wide control region data from White-tailed Eagles and newly generated sequences from Bald Eagles. Phylogenetic analyses indicated that the Hawaiian eagle represents a distinct (>3% divergent) mtDNA lineage most closely related to those of extant White-tailed Eagles. Based on fossil calibration, we estimate that the Hawaiian mtDNA lineage diverged from mainland sequences around the Middle Pleistocene. Although not clearly differentiated morphologically from mainland forms, the Hawaiian eagle thus likely constituted an isolated, resident population in the Hawaiian archipelago for more than 100,000 years, where it was the largest terrestrial predator.

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1. Introduction

Although many distinctive species of birds have been found in the recent fossil avifauna of the Hawaiian Islands (Olson and James, 1982, 1991; James and Olson, 1991), some fossil species appear relatively undifferentiated at skeletal traits from extant mainland taxa, suggesting evolutionarily recent (i.e., Holocene) colonization or non-resident status. One such taxon was an eagle placed in the genus *Haliaeetus* on the basis of comparative osteology (Olson, 1982; Olson and James, 1982), represented by remains of a few individuals that were found on Oahu and Molokai (see Appendix A). No resident population of eagles has existed in Hawaii in modern times, although a White-tailed Eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*) and two Steller’s Sea Eagles (*H. pelagicus*) have arrived in the islands as vagrants since the late 1970s (Zaun, 2009; Pyle and Pyle, 2009). An earlier study (Fleischer et al., 2000), based on a ~3500-year-old bone from the skeleton collected on Maui, showed from analysis of 704 basepairs (bp) of DNA sequences from three mtDNA genes (cytochrome b, ATPase8, and 12S rRNA), that the extinct Hawaiian eagle was more closely related to the Eurasian White-tailed Eagle than to the North American Bald Eagle (*H. leucocephalus*). However, the markers employed provided relatively little intraspecific resolution, and there was insufficient comparative data from populations of White-tailed Eagles to establish whether (i) Hawaiian eagle bones represent non-resident visitors to the islands from eastern Asia (Pyle and Pyle, 2009; Zaun, 2009), or (ii) the Hawaiian eagle was an endemic Hawaiian lineage of *Haliaeetus* that had colonized so recently as not to have become differentiated morphologically (Olson and James, 1991; James, 1995). Under the first hypothesis, Hawaiian eagle sequences would be highly similar or identical to sequences from the mainland. Under the second hypothesis, Hawaiian eagle sequences would be divergent from mainland sequences, indicative of long-term independent evolution in the archipelago.

Since the publication of Fleischer et al. (2000), extensive studies have been conducted on the phylogeography of the White-tailed Eagle, examining the highly variable mtDNA control region (Hailer et al., 2006, 2007; Honnen et al., 2010; Langguth et al., 2013; Ponnikas et al., 2013). Analysis of that locus in the Hawaiian eagle might therefore elucidate whether the lineage was evolutionarily distinct from Eurasian mainland populations. To investigate the two above hypotheses, we therefore obtained mtDNA control region sequences from the Hawaiian eagle, placing it in a...
range-wide phylogeographic context of White-tailed and Bald Eagles. We also generated a dated phylogeny of various taxa of *Haliaeetus*.

### 2. Material and methods

#### 2.1. Lab procedures

We sequenced the same ancient skeleton of Hawaiian eagle that was studied by Fleischer et al. (2000), found in Puu Makua Cave on Maui (catalog number USNM 431238; Olson and James, 1991; details in Appendix A). Amplifications utilized a phenol–chloroform extract from 1998 (Fleischer et al., 2000). Primers were designed to amplify six overlapping fragments, each 122–143 base pairs (bp) long (see Appendix A). After assembly, this yielded the homologous 500 bp mtDNA control region fragment that has been characterized across the range of extant White-tailed Eagles. All PCR setup was done in a facility solely dedicated to ancient DNA work, following stringent protocols to avoid and detect potential contamination, using positive and negative amplification controls throughout (Fleischer et al., 2000, 2006). No *Haliaeetus* control region sequences had been amplified in the lab prior to this project. Two replicate PCRs and sequencing bouts were conducted, and two additional replicates that used an aliquot of the Hawaiian DNA extract that was treated with Uracil-N-glycosylase (UNG) to avoid potential sequencing artifacts resulting from DNA damage (Hofreiter et al., 2001). For further details of the PCRs and sequencing see Appendix A.

For comparison, data from recent phylogeographic studies of White-tailed Eagles (Hailer et al., 2006, 2007; Honnen et al., 2010; Langguth et al., 2013; Ponnikas et al., 2013) were used, plus the sequence of a Steller’s Sea Eagle (GenBank accession AM156946). Because no mtDNA control region samples from Bald Eagles were available on GenBank, we also sequenced 12 Bald Eagle nestlings from northern Wisconsin, each from a different nest. All newly obtained sequences have been submitted to EMBL–ENA (accession numbers: LN623677 – LN623682, LN624632).

#### 2.2. Statistical analyses

Phylogenetic networks were constructed in TCS 1.21 (Clement et al., 2000), and time-calibrated phylogenetic trees were obtained using BEAST 1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012) (see Appendix A). We applied two dating schemes, both relying on fossil calibration points: In scenario 1, we used a wide, hence relatively uninformative lognormal prior for the divergence between White-tailed and Bald Eagles, with a mean at 800 thousand years ago (ka), truncating it at a minimum of 300 ka (Jefferson, 1985), and conservatively assumed a minimum age for the split of the Steller’s Sea Eagle lineage at 800 ka (see Appendix A). We also included a maximum age for the Hawaiian lineage of 400 ka, based on the absence of *Haliaeetus* fossils in the paleontologically diverse and well-collected deposits at Ulupau Head lake that date back to 320–400 ka (James, 1987; Hearty et al., 2005). At this site, fossils from other species of birds that were likely found in habitats similar to those of *Haliaeetus* are common, suggesting that the absence of *Haliaeetus* at this site indicates that the eagle colonized the archipelago more recently (see Appendix A). In a second scenario (scenario 2), more in line with the 2.5% divergence at CytB between White-tailed and Bald Eagles (Seibold and Helbig, 1996; Wink et al., 1996; see Appendix A) and published divergence rates (Lerner et al., 2011; Weir and Schluter, 2008), we utilized less conservative priors on the divergence times in BEAST, setting the divergence between Bald and White-tailed Eagles to be between 1.2 and 1.8 million years ago. In these analyses, we did not constrict the maximum age of the Hawaiian lineage, allowing for the possibility that it was present in the archipelago, but has not yet been recovered in older deposits. Both scenarios utilized a tip dating approach (Drummond et al., 2002), using the radiocarbon-dated age of the Hawaiian eagle bone (median probability 3531 calendar years). Convergence of the Bayesian analysis in BEAST was verified in Tracer (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer).

### 3. Results and discussion

Consistent with the findings of Fleischer et al. (2000), we infer that the Hawaiian eagle was either a conspecific of the White-tailed Eagle, or a very close relative. Further, our results indicate that the Hawaiian eagle may have persisted on the Hawaiian Islands from the mid Pleistocene until the late Holocene. Several PCR replicates and overlapping reads from different primer pairs gave identical results for the Hawaiian eagle bone, whether the extract had been treated with UNG or not. This indicates that, despite the sample age, DNA damage was not common enough in the ancient DNA extract to significantly alter Sanger sequencing results. Consistent with this, the Hawaiian eagle sequence did not show any unusual substitution patterns when compared with congeneric sequences: along the 500 bp fragment, divergence of the Hawaiian eagle from extant White-tailed Eagles co-varied with that among published *Haliaeetus* sequences (Appendix A, Fig. S1).

The Hawaiian eagle sequence was on average 5.4% divergent from the six haplotypes we found in 12 Bald Eagle individuals, but only 3.3% and 3.2% divergent (uncorrected p-distances) from the previously described Western (clade A) and Eastern (clade B) haplotypes of White-tailed Eagles from Eurasia. Similarly, phylogenetic analyses in BEAST confirmed with high posterior support (p > 0.99: node “a” in Fig. 1B) that the Hawaiian eagle was more closely related to White-tailed than to Bald Eagles, lending further support to the results of Fleischer et al. (2000). Although an increased sampling of Bald Eagles is warranted to better understand the species’ evolutionary and demographic history, the larger inter- than intraspecific distances observed (Fig. 1) indicate that this is not likely to change our main conclusions. Our comparison of the Hawaiian eagle specimen’s control region sequence with distribution-wide data from White-tailed Eagles revealed that the Hawaiian lineage is highly distinct from extant haplotypes. Statistical support for intraspecific branchings in bifurcating trees was <95% (node “b” in Fig. 1B), precluding assessment of the exact placement of the Hawaiian lineage compared to extant White-tailed Eagle diversity. Nevertheless, our findings indicate that the Hawaiian eagle population was likely founded by individuals from Eurasia rather than North America, mirroring the arrival of vagrant Eurasian White-tailed and Steller’s Sea Eagles in recent times.

Based on our employed calibration points for scenario 1, we estimate that the Hawaiian eagle lineage diverged from extant White-tailed Eagles during the Middle Pleistocene (95% highest posterior density (HPD) range: 223–400 ka: Fig. 1B). Based on scenario 2, all posterior divergence estimates were older, with the Hawaiian lineage diverging at 0.39–1.12, and Steller’s Sea Eagles at 1.3–3.0 million years ago (95% HPD). Despite our use of a tip calibration, time dependency of the molecular clock could imply that we are overestimating divergence times, due to faster ticking of the molecular clock at recent times (Ho and Larson, 2006). Our dating is thus limited by a lack of precise fossil calibrations for *Haliaeetus*, and it should be verified using longer fragments of mtDNA, plus independently inherited loci. Hence, while the inferred time frame should only be understood as a rough estimate, our results show that, across a broad range of conceivable calibration scenarios,
the Hawaiian eagle diverged from extant *Haliaeetus* sequences long before the Holocene.

Our divergence time estimate suggests that the Hawaiian eagle was present in the Hawaiian avifauna for a relatively long period of time, during which it would have been the largest terrestrial predator on the islands of the archipelago. The eagle would have been capable of killing adults of the largest endemic flightless birds such as the moa-nalos *Thambetochen xanion* on Oahu and *T. chauliodous* and *Ptaiochen pau* on Maui Nui, and the flightless ibises of the genus *Apteribis* on Maui Nui (Olson and James, 1991; James, 1995). The extinction of the Hawaiian eagle could have been related to human-induced ecological changes, as was the case for the majority of Hawaii's endemic birds (James, 1995). To date, however, there is no direct evidence for temporal overlap of the Hawaiian eagle with humans, so the factor(s) behind its extinction are unknown.

Other taxa in the Hawaiian avifauna have shown rapid adaptation to the island ecosystem, such as geese and rails that evolved flightlessness (Paxinos et al., 2002; Slikas et al., 2002). Among Hawaiian raptorial species, the harrier *Circus dossemus* evolved a morphology that is more *Accipiter*-like, presumably reflecting a shift in its prey base from rodents to birds (Olson and James, 1991). Based on our results, the Hawaiian eagle would thus be a counter-example to the above cases, showing no apparent morphological changes in its skeleton compared with its mainland ancestors, despite being a relatively old colonizer of the archipelago. This indicates that the Hawaiian eagle may not have experienced such a clear shift in its niche after the colonization of Hawaii.

**Acknowledgments**

FH was supported by the Smithsonian Restricted Endowment funds and Hesse’s “LOEWE Landes-Offensive zur Entwicklung Wissenschaftlich-ökonomischer Exzellenz”. The Smithsonian Center for Conservation and Evolutionary Genetics and NSF DEB-0643291 provided technical support and funding for lab supplies. We thank Michael W. Meyer and Walter H. Piper for kindly providing Bald Eagle samples, Nancy Rotzel McInerney for lab logistics.
support, Gerald Mayr for discussions, and two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2014.11.005.

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