

1 **Genomic evidence of a functional RH2 opsin in New Zealand parrots and implications**  
2 **for pest control**

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29

## 30 **Abstract**

31 Recent genomic evidence suggest that kea (*Nestor notabilis*) have a non-functional RH2 opsin  
32 gene potentially leading to impaired vision in the green region of the electromagnetic spectrum.  
33 In New Zealand, it is standard procedure to add green dye to aerial poison baits used in  
34 mammalian predator control operations to deter native birds from eating toxic bait. A visual  
35 deficiency could impact how kea perceive and interact with green-dyed baits and thus have  
36 unforeseen consequences for kea conservation. Here, we sequenced the partial RH2 gene of  
37 seven wild kea and re-analysed the kea genome raw sequencing data of the RH2 locus. We  
38 demonstrate that the reported premature stop codon is most likely an assembly artefact. An  
39 extended analysis of the published genomes of all three extant New Zealand parrots  
40 (Superfamily: Strigopoidea) confirms that the RH2 gene is functional in this entire group.

## 41 **Introduction**

42 Birds are living in a visual world (Walls 1943). Birds rely heavily on their sense of vision for  
43 a variety of activities, including foraging (Viitala *et al.* 1995; Tedore and Nilsson 2019),  
44 reproduction (Bennett *et al.* 1996) and movement (Wagner and Sauer 2010; Muheim 2011).  
45 The bird's retina, like that of other vertebrates, consists of two types of photoreceptors, rod and  
46 cone cells, which express different types of photopigments or opsins. Rod cells contain  
47 rhodopsin (RH1), responsible for low-light vision. Cone cells express cone opsins, which  
48 underlie colour vision. In birds cone opsins can be divided into four subgroups corresponding  
49 to their light absorption spectra: a medium-wavelength sensitive opsin (RH2), an opsin  
50 sensitive to long wavelengths (LWS), and two types of short-wavelength sensitive opsins  
51 (SWS1, SWS2). Thus most birds possess a tetrachromatic visual system (reviewed in Hart  
52 2001 and Hart and Hunt 2007).

53 Recently, the Bird 10K (B10K) consortium investigated avian opsin genes in 363 species  
54 across the bird phylogeny as part of a large comparative genomics project (Feng *et al.* 2020).  
55 The consortium found that RH1 and RH2 were present in all birds but were incomplete or  
56 pseudogenised in a small number of species (5 and 11 respectively). The remaining three genes  
57 showed varied patterns of presence and absence (Feng *et al.* 2020). An earlier comparative  
58 genomics study of avian opsins had revealed a pseudogenised RH2 gene in the barn owl (*Tyto*  
59 *alba*) and a segmental deletion within RH2 in penguins, consistent with adaptation to a  
60 nocturnal and an aquatic lifestyle in the owl and in penguins, respectively (Borges *et al.* 2015).

61 The kea (*Nestor notabilis*), a large and endangered parrot endemic to the South Island of New  
62 Zealand (Higgins 1999) was one of the species reported in Feng *et al.* (2020) to have a  
63 premature stop codon in RH2, potentially leading to impaired vision in the green region of the  
64 electromagnetic spectrum ( $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 499\text{--}506$  nm; Hart and Hunt 2007). A deficiency in green  
65 colour vision could have unforeseen consequences for kea conservation in New Zealand.

66 Introduced mammalian predators such as stoats, rats, and possums have been devastating New  
67 Zealand's native biodiversity and one of the most effective eradication tools to protect the  
68 unique flora and fauna are large scale aerial drops of sodium fluoroacetate, 1080 poison baits  
69 (Towns *et al.* 2013; Russell and Broome 2016). As standard practice, green dye has been added  
70 to aerial poison baits to deter native birds from eating toxic bait pellets (Caithness and Williams  
71 1971), based on studies that have shown avoidance of green food items by several avian species  
72 (Cowan and Crowell 2017). Aerial poison drops using green toxic bait are frequently preceded  
73 by drops of undyed or green-dyed non-toxic pre-feed bait to increase subsequent consumption  
74 of toxic baits by neophobic predators. The effects of using either undyed or green pre-feed bait  
75 on non-target avian species remains unknown (Cowan and Crowell 2017; Brunton-Martin *et*  
76 *al.* 2021).

77 Kea may be of particular by-kill risk from aerial drops as they are omnivorous ground-feeders,  
78 intelligent and inquisitive birds (Diamond and Bond 1999), and readily explore novel food  
79 objects (Kemp *et al.* 2019). They may directly feed on poison bait, especially if they have learnt  
80 that non-toxic pre-feed bait is an acceptable food source (Orr-Walker and Roberts 2009).  
81 Brunton-Martin *et al.* (2021) modelled the appearance of different predator control baits based  
82 on “average parrot vision”, to gauge the ability of kea to discern bait from different  
83 backgrounds and between dyed and undyed bait. The study’s findings suggest that kea are  
84 likely able to distinguish between green-dyed and undyed baits in well-lit environments and  
85 that green-dying baits likely had a camouflage effect (Brunton-Martin *et al.* 2021). The authors  
86 highlighted the need to review the current practice of using undyed pre-feed and green toxic  
87 baits in the light of their findings but they also acknowledged that their model based on average  
88 parrot vision might not reflect the true visual capabilities of kea. In this context, it is essential  
89 to further investigate the claim of a non-functional RH2 gene, and its potential implications for  
90 green vision impairment in kea.

91 In this study, we sequenced the partial RH2 gene of seven wild kea and re-analysed the B10K  
92 kea genome raw sequencing data of the RH2 locus. We demonstrate that the reported premature  
93 stop codon is most likely an assembly artefact in the reference genome. Further, we extended  
94 our analyses to the published genomes of all three extant New Zealand parrots, kea, kākā  
95 (*Nestor meridionalis*), and kākāpō (*Strigops habroptilus*), (superfamily: Strigopoidea) and  
96 confirm that the RH2 gene is functional in this entire group.

## 97 **Material and Methods**

### 98 *Kea, kākā, and kākāpō reference assemblies*

99 No information has been published on the location of the premature stop codon within the  
100 coding sequence (CDS) of the RH2 locus in kea (Feng *et al.* 2020). For further examination,  
101 we identified and retrieved the RH2 gene region from the kea reference genome assembly  
102 ASM69687v1 (GenBank accession: GCA\_000696875.1) by running an NCBI blastn search  
103 with the zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*) RH2 mRNA as query (accession:  
104 NM\_001076696.1). We also retrieved the RH2 sequence of the two other New Zealand parrot  
105 species, the kākāpō (accession: GCF\_004027225.2; Dussex *et al.* 2021) and the kākā (Martini  
106 *et al.* 2021) for comparison. A multiple sequence alignment of the RH2 CDS for kea, kākā,  
107 kākāpō, and zebra finch was generated using the web application of MAFFT v. 7 (Kato *et al.*  
108 2019) with default parameters.

### 109 *Reassembly of the RH2 locus*

110 The RH2 genes in the kea and kākā reference assemblies contained some unresolved sequence  
111 (N-stretches), therefore we performed a reassembly of the RH2 gene region for both species.  
112 Specifically, we mapped the kea raw sequencing reads (SRR959225 - 27) against the scaffold  
113 of the reference genome containing the RH2 gene (NW\_009924444.1; 24,924 bp) using the  
114 bwa mem algorithm from BWA v. 0.7 (Li 2013). Similarly, the kākā raw reads (Martini *et al.*  
115 2021) were mapped to scaffold ps\_chr26 (4.90 Mbp) of the kākā reference assembly. Using  
116 Samtools view v1.13 (Li *et al.* 2009), we extracted all mapped reads (-F 4) from a 10 kb and a  
117 100 kb region surrounding the RH2 locus on the kea and kākā scaffolds, respectively. We  
118 converted the mapped reads from bam to fastq format with BamUtil's bam2FastQ v. 1.0.14  
119 (Jun *et al.* 2015). Adapters and low quality bases ( $q < 10$ ) were trimmed with TrimGalore v.

120 0.6.4 (Krueger *et al.* 2021). Reads shorter than 40 bp after trimming were discarded. Trimmed  
121 reads were then assembled into scaffolds with ABySS v. 2.0.2 (Jackman *et al.* 2017) with k-  
122 mer size set to 64. We used Geneious Prime v. 2020.2.2 (Biomatters Ltd.) to visualise and  
123 manually curate the resulting sequences. Scripts used for the reassembly are available on  
124 Github ([https://github.com/StefanieGrosser/Kea\\_RH2opsin](https://github.com/StefanieGrosser/Kea_RH2opsin)).

#### 125 *Primer design*

126 We used the Primer3Plus web application (Untergasser *et al.* 2007) to design PCR primers  
127 targeting the region containing the presumed premature stop codon. We designed the primers  
128 in sequence regions conserved between the three New Zealand parrot species to allow cross-  
129 amplification: the forward primer in exon 3 (Kea\_RH2\_Exon3\_578CDS\_F: 5'-  
130 CCCACAACCCTGACTATCACA-3') and reverse primer in exon 4  
131 (Kea\_RH2\_Exon4\_840CDS\_R: 5'-TCCCTTGTTGGTGAAGATCC-3').

#### 132 *Kea DNA extraction, PCR, and Sanger sequencing*

133 DNA was extracted from seven kea blood samples held at the Department of Zoology,  
134 University of Otago for conservation related studies (Wildlife Act permit nr. 78375-DOA)  
135 using a standard phenol-chloroform extraction protocol (Sambrook and Russell 2001). PCR  
136 reactions were set up in 25 µl volumes containing 1× PCR buffer, 1.5mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 200 µM of  
137 each dNTP, 0.5 U of Taq DNA polymerase (BioTaq, Bioline USA Inc.), and 0.5 µM of each  
138 primer. The thermocycling conditions were an initial denaturation of 2 min at 94°C, followed  
139 by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, 50°C for 40 sec and 72°C for 1 min; followed by a final  
140 extension of 10 min at 72°C. PCR products were purified using Acroprep 96 filter plates (Pall  
141 Corporation) following the manufacturer's protocol. Sanger sequencing of PCR products in

142 both directions was performed on an ABI3730xl at the Genetic Analysis Services, Otago  
143 University, Dunedin New Zealand.

#### 144 *Sanger sequence analysis*

145 Sanger sequences were edited in Geneious Prime. Primer sequences and low quality 5'-ends  
146 were manually trimmed from the sequences. Forward and reverse sequences were aligned using  
147 the pairwise Geneious Alignment option with default parameters and a consensus sequence  
148 was generated (no mismatches between forward and reverse sequences allowed). A multiple  
149 alignment including the full CDS of RH2 extracted from the kea reference genome and the  
150 partial CDSs extracted for the seven representative kea samples was generated using the web  
151 application of MAFFT v. 7 with default parameters.

## 152 **Results**

153 We extracted and aligned the full CDS of the RH2 opsin gene from the zebra finch, kea, kākā,  
154 and kākāpō reference genomes (1,068 bp in length, 356 amino acid residues). We identified  
155 the premature stop codon previously reported for kea at the beginning of exon 4 at residue 239  
156 (a glutamic acid in all other sequences) caused by a single G⇒T nucleotide substitution at the  
157 first codon position (Figure 1A &1B). Additionally, we observed an amino acid change from  
158 alanine to glutamine (residue 233) caused by two nucleotide substitutions at the first and second  
159 codon position. Moreover, the full gene sequence revealed that intron 3 of the kea RH2 gene  
160 contained a stretch of unknown sequence (Ns) close to the start of exon 4. Because of the close  
161 proximity of the 2 non-synonymous substitutions in exon 4 (causing a loss of function of the  
162 gene), the N-stretch in intron 3, as well as the gene's position at the scaffold edge, we suspected  
163 that the kea reference assembly might be of low quality in this region of the genome and the  
164 premature stop might represent an assembly artefact rather than a true loss of function mutation.

165 We attempted to verify this hypothesis in two ways. We Sanger sequenced this particular gene  
166 region in seven individual wild kea. We found that none of these samples had a premature stop  
167 codon at residue 239, and instead all sequences contained a glutamic acid at this position  
168 (Figure 1C). Similarly, at residue 233 none of the samples had the two nucleotide substitutions  
169 causing the alanine to glutamine change in the reference assembly. Finally, Sanger sequencing  
170 resolved the 31 bp N stretch at the 3'-end of intron 3 as two missing base pairs—an A and a C  
171—in the reference assembly. We also identified four polymorphic sites within the alignment of  
172 the 7 wild kea (Supplementary Figure S1); three sites in exon 3 and one site in exon 4.  
173 Interestingly, the polymorphism identified at position 674 of the CDS nucleotide alignment, a  
174 G⇒A transition at the 2nd codon position of residue 225, results in a non-conservative amino  
175 acid replacement (arginine to histidine). This polymorphism was found in only one individual  
176 wild kea, which was heterozygous at this site (the polymorphism was confirmed from the  
177 forward and the reverse sequencing read).

178 To further assess the possibility of an assembly artifact in the kea reference genome at the RH2  
179 locus, we reassembled this genomic region from the raw reads. We extracted and reassembled  
180 8,025 reads that mapped to scaffold NW\_009924444.1 (corresponding to a mean scaffold  
181 coverage of approx. 32X). This resulted in a new assembly of 37 scaffolds with an N50 of  
182 3,046 bp (range: 72 - 5651 bp). We identified scaffolds containing the RH2 gene by using  
183 NCBI blastn against the nr/nt database and a subsequent manual alignment of positive hits  
184 against the kea RH2 gene in Geneious Prime. Only seven scaffolds (range: 145 - 545 bp)  
185 aligned to the RH2 gene (covering ~68% of the gene). The shortest scaffold of 145 bp aligned  
186 within exon 4 and contained a glutamic acid at residue 239 (premature stop codon in the  
187 reference). Residue 233 was not contained within this short scaffold (or any of the other  
188 scaffolds). Additionally, we examined the bam file (NW\_009924444.1 with mapped raw reads)

189 using IGV v. 2.8.2 (Robinson *et al.* 2011). Residue 239 was covered by 11 reads of which nine  
190 supported a G instead of a T.

191 Similar to the kea, we reassembled the RH2 locus for kākā by mapping raw reads against a  
192 100kb scaffold region of the reference assembly. We assembled a 15,493 bp scaffold  
193 containing the RH2 locus. While this scaffold also contained several N stretches within intronic  
194 regions, we could successfully resolve the first 29 bp of the missing nucleotide sequence in  
195 exon 2 (which is identical to the kea, Supplementary Figure S2). Overall, we observed 14  
196 conservative and 2 non-conservative amino acid substitutions between the zebra finch and the  
197 New Zealand parrots, and four conservative amino acid replacements between kākāpō and the  
198 two *Nestor* species (for three of these changes kea and kākā showed the same amino acid  
199 identity as the zebra finch).

## 200 **Discussion**

201 In this study we examined if the kea RH2 opsin gene contains a premature stop codon as  
202 previously reported by Feng *et al.* (2020), which would be indicative of a non-functional green  
203 opsin gene. We Sanger sequenced several wild kea individuals at the RH2 gene region  
204 containing the presumed stop codon and reassembled the genomic region from raw sequencing  
205 data of the kea genome assembly. We show that kea have an intact RH2 gene and suggest that  
206 the published kea genome (GCA\_000696875.1) is likely misassembled at this locus.

207 The kea genome assembly was generated as part of a comparative avian genomics study which  
208 included the first 48 available bird genomes (Zhang *et al.* 2014). The genome is assembled  
209 from low coverage (32X) Illumina short-read data with two insert-size libraries and is highly  
210 fragmented. Missing, truncated, or incorrectly assembled genes are common in such short-read  
211 assemblies (Yin *et al.* 2019; Rhie *et al.* 2021). While the loss or pseudogenisation of RH2 has

212 been established in several avian (Borges *et al.* 2015; Le Duc *et al.* 2015; Wu *et al.* 2016) and  
213 other vertebrate lineages (Bowmaker 2008), our results show that the loss of function  
214 previously reported for kea RH2 (Feng *et al.* 2020) is an artifact caused by low genome  
215 assembly quality. Our reassembly of the RH2 locus from raw sequencing data resulted in many  
216 short contigs and did not allow for the reconstruction of the entire gene, however, a short  
217 fragment matching parts of exon 4 showed the expected glutamic acid at position 239 where  
218 the kea reference assembly contains the premature stop codon. Our results may suggest that  
219 functional loss of the RH2 (and other opsin) genes in other avian species reported in Feng *et*  
220 *al.* (2020) could equally originate from assembly artefacts. More generally, evolutionary  
221 inference based on comparative genomics studies that rely on highly fragmented or low-quality  
222 genome assemblies warrants careful assessment.

223 Despite providing evidence for a functional RH2 gene, our analyses alone cannot determine  
224 the true visual capabilities of kea and the other two New Zealand parrots. The models employed  
225 by Brunton-Martin *et al.* 2021 based on “average parrot vision” seem to remain a reasonable  
226 proxy for kea vision. We concur with (Brunton-Martin *et al.* 2021) that more research is  
227 required to determine keas’ behaviour towards green-dyed and undyed types of baits used in  
228 aerial predator control operations.

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239 Innovation & Employment's Research Infrastructure programme.

#### 240 **Data availability statement**

241 RH2 opsin sequences for wild kea have been deposited in NCBI GenBank under accessions  
242 XXXXX (for individuals sharing identical sequences only one representative sequence has  
243 been deposited). Access to kākā genome data is subject to iwi consultation. For details please  
244 see Martini *et al.* 2021.

#### 245 **Disclosure statement**

246 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

#### 247 **Authors contributions**

248 BCR, AF, SG, YF, LD conceived the study. BCR provided samples, FR performed lab work.  
249 SG and LD performed sequence analysis. MK and DM provided sequence data for kaka. SG,  
250 with the help of LD, YF, and BCR wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to the final  
251 version of the manuscript.

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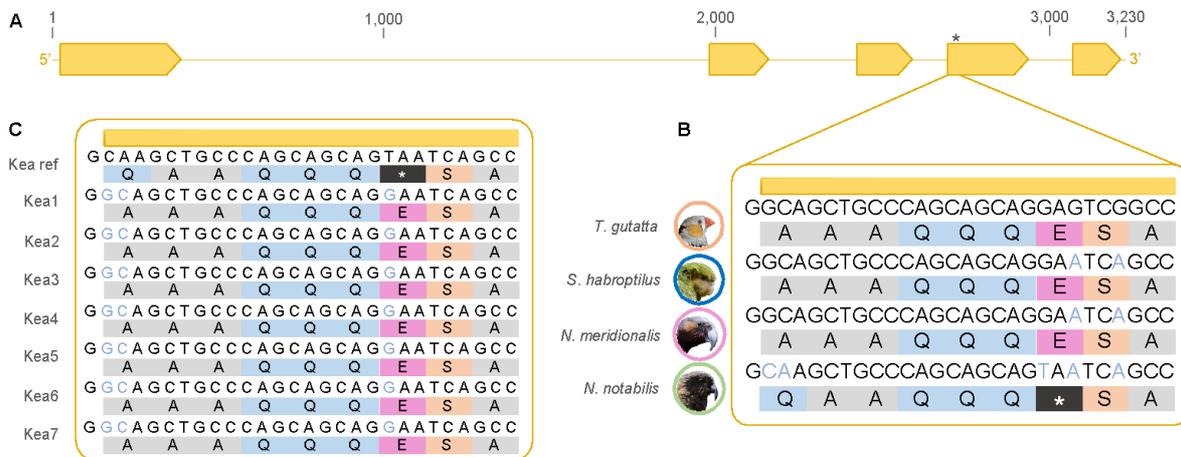
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410 **Figures**

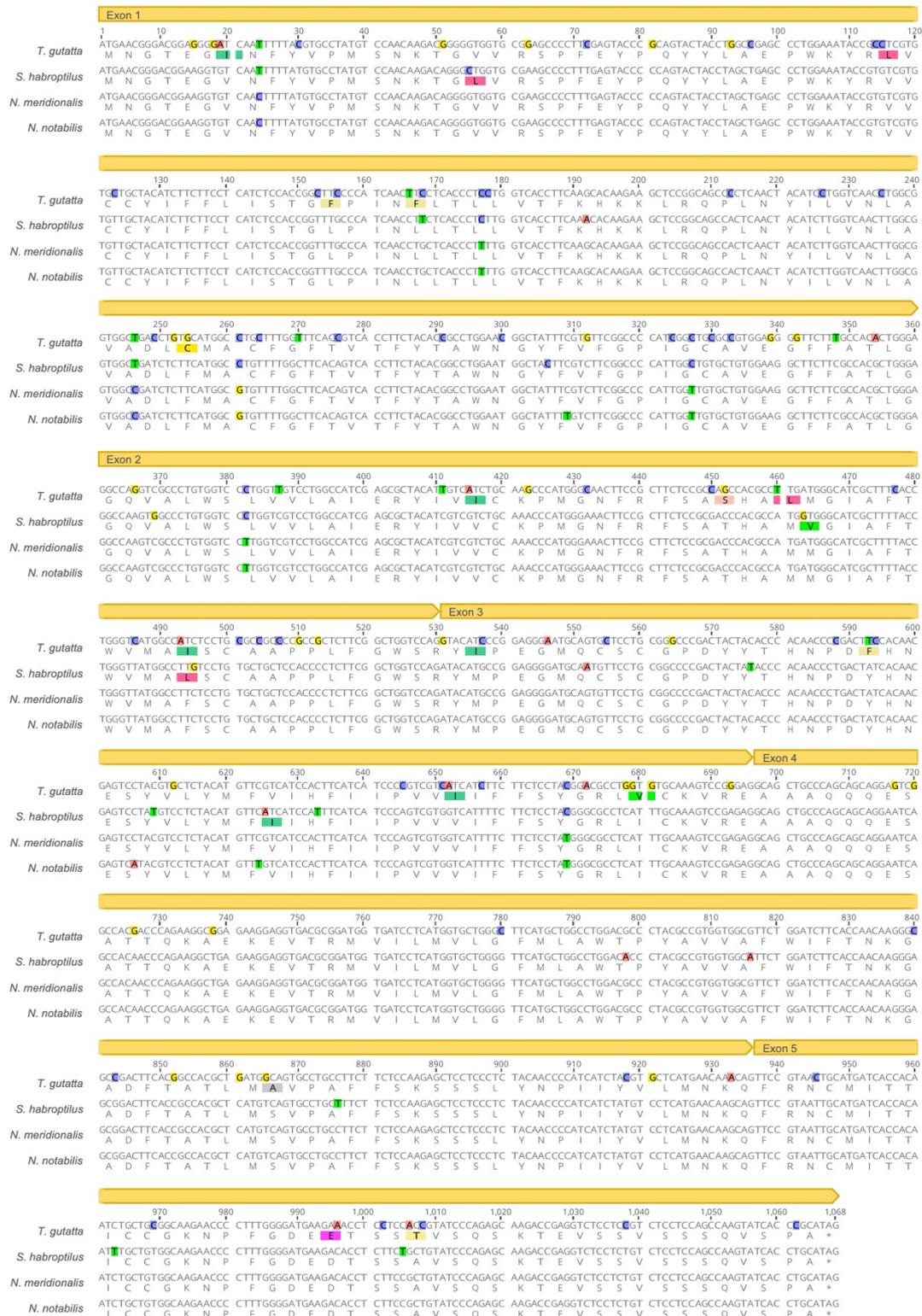


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412 **Figure 1.** Avian RH2 opsin gene. **A** Schematic of the zebra finch RH2 gene (GenBank  
 413 accession NC\_045024: LOC751972) with exons depicted as arrows. The asterisk indicates the  
 414 position of the premature stop codon in the kea reference assembly. **B** Nucleotide sequences  
 415 and corresponding amino acid translations for the zebra finch, kākāpō, kākā, and kea shown  
 416 for the 5'-end of exon 4. Nucleotide substitutions in the New Zealand parrots compared to the  
 417 zebra finch are shown in light blue. **C** Nucleotide sequences and corresponding amino acid  
 418 translations for the kea reference assembly and seven kea samples ascertained with Sanger  
 419 sequencing for the 5'-end of exon 4. Nucleotide substitutions in the kea samples compared to  
 420 the reference assembly are shown in light blue.

421





429

430 **Figure S2.** RH2 gene CDS nucleotide alignment (and amino acid translation) for zebra finch,  
 431 kākāpō, kākā, and kea (the later sequences have been corrected based on the results of this  
 432 study). The yellow bar above the sequence indicates the start and stop position of the exons.  
 433 Coloured nucleotides and amino acids highlight polymorphisms between the different species.