

Australian marine mammals and pollutants

Fact Sheet

August 2024

Key points

- Marine mammals are prone to accumulating environmental pollutants due to their longevity and diet, making them excellent sentinels of ocean health.
- A wide range of diseases and clinical signs can result from exposure to environmental pollutants in marine mammals.
- Most pollutants of concern are persistent organic compounds or heavy metals, originating from human activities.
- Pollutants can act synergistically with other pathologies such as infectious organisms to cause disease.

Aetiology

Globally, a very large number of substances capable of polluting the oceans are produced by humans. These can be divided into chemical compounds, often referred to as persistent organic pollutants (POP), and heavy metals. The term “contaminants of emerging concern” (CEC) is often more appropriate and includes pharmaceutical drugs, agricultural residues, nanomaterials (microscopic materials with one external dimension <100nm in size, often bound with a metal or a carbon), personal health care products and plastics including plastic additives ^[1]. While plastics and microplastics are of great concern in ocean pollution, they are outside the scope of this Fact Sheet.

Only a few classes of chemical compounds have been studied in marine mammals, usually those associated with serious health effects in humans or other terrestrial species. The organohalogenes (OH – organic compounds bound to either chlorine, bromine, fluorine, or iodine) include organochlorine (OC) compounds, which are of particular importance due to their toxicity and persistence. Organochlorines include dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) and its metabolites and the polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs). Some of these compounds, such as the polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE), are included as flame retardants in many manufacturing processes. Many chemical pollutants that have recently been identified as problematic, such as poly-and-perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), causing outright toxicity, endocrine disruption, and immunosuppression. Some of these are still poorly understood.

Metal pollutants are either non-essential for the normal functioning of the body or essential but ingested in excessive amounts, with mercury, lead and cadmium the most important ^[2, 3].

One Health implications

Wildlife and the environment: marine mammals are key sentinels of ocean pollution because most contaminants are obtained via the diet and many marine mammal species are apex predators and bio-accumulators of contaminants ^[4]. Scavengers consuming dead marine mammals might be exposed to high levels of toxins, particularly if consuming liver, kidney, and blubber. There is significant risk for aquatic organisms that feed on dead marine mammals at sea, especially large whales that form entire ecosystems around their demise as lifelong bioaccumulation of toxins is rapidly and readily available at these feeding hotspots ^[5]. A range of diseases have been described in marine mammals as a result of exposure to pollutants and evidence indicates environmental pollutants/toxicants may have population level impacts in Australian marine mammals ^[6-8].

Domestic animals: at present there is no evidence for risk to domestic animals following pollutant exposure in marine mammals. However domestic animals themselves may be exposed to harmful pollutants via environmental exposure as contaminants move across different environmental compartments ^[4].

Humans: the major risk for humans (other than exposure from environmental contamination) is through consumption of marine mammal products. The risk is lower when consuming herbivorous species such as dugongs (*Dugong dugong*), which are commonly harvested for consumption by Indigenous people in the far north of Australia ^[9].

Species affected

There is evidence of pollutants in a wide range of marine mammal species within Australian waters as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Reports of pollutant exposure in Australian marine mammals

Marine mammal species	Pollutants identified	References
Australian humpback dolphin (<i>Sousa sahulensis</i>)	PCB	Cagnazzi et al. 2020 [10]
Australian snubfin dolphins (<i>Orcaella heinsohni</i>)	PCB	Cagnazzi et al. 2020 [10]
Burrunan dolphin (<i>Tursiops australis</i>)	PFAS	Foord et al. 2024 [7]
Common bottlenose dolphin (<i>T. truncatus</i>)	PFAS, PCB, Lead, Cadmium, Mercury, PBDE	Foord et al. 2024 [7], Vetter et al. 2001 [11]; Butterfield and Gaylard 2007 [12]; Law et al. 2003 [13]
Indo-Pacific bottlenose dolphin (<i>T. aduncus</i>)	PFAS, PCB, Lead, Cadmium, Mercury	Foord et al. 2024 [7], Vetter et al. 2001 [11]; Butterfield and Gaylard 2007 [12]
Short-beaked common dolphin (<i>Delphinus delphis</i>)	PFAS, Lead, Cadmium, Mercury	Foord et al. 2024 [7]; Butterfield and Gaylard 2007 [12]
False killer whales (<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>)	Cadmium	Kemper et al. 1994 [14]
Long-finned pilot whales (<i>Globicephala melas</i>)	PCB	Weijs et al. 2013 [15]
Melon-headed whales (<i>Peponocephala electra</i>)	PCB	Melcher et al. 2005 [16]

Pygmy sperm whales (<i>Kogia breviceps</i>)	PCB	Melcher et al. 2005 [16]
Sperm whales (<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>)	PCB	Evans et al. 2004 [17]
Strap-toothed whale (<i>Mesoplodon layardii</i>)	Cadmium	Kemper et al. 1994 [14]
Unspecified beaked whale	PCB	Gaus et al. 2005 [18]
Australian fur seals (<i>Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus</i>)	PCB	Taylor et al. 2018 [8]
Australian sea lions (<i>Neophoca cinerea</i>)	PCB	Taylor et al. 2018 [8]; Gaus et al. 2005 [18]
Leopard seals (<i>Hydrurga leptonyx</i>)	Cadmium	Kemper et al. 1994 [14]
New Zealand fur seals (<i>A. forsteri</i>)	POP, HM	Hall et al. 2023 [19]
Dugong (<i>Dugong dugong</i>)	POP, PCB, Cadmium, PBDE	Vetter et al. 2001 [11]; Kemper et al. 1994 [14]; Weijs et al. 2019 [20]; Hermanussen et al. 2008 [21]

Epidemiology

Marine mammals are key sentinels of ocean health due to their trophic level (the position of the animal in the food chain), their longevity, use of multiple habitats across a wide region of the oceans, the propensity of fatty tissues to accumulate harmful pollutants and the cumulative effects these pollutants have on them ^[4, 22]. Marine mammals are exposed simultaneously to multiple stressors of both natural and anthropogenic origin. The cumulative stress can combine with the toxic effects of pollutants to produce disease ^[1, 2]. These same factors together with large body surfaces that can increase exposure and occasionally low metabolic rates (e.g. dugongs and bowhead whales) predispose marine mammals to the effects of environmental pollutant ^[23].

POP, heavy metals and other non-essential metals bio-accumulate in the food web, with increasing concentrations at higher trophic levels (this includes many of the marine mammal species) ^[2]. The pollutant risk is dependent on the feeding strategy and the distribution of the host species. Dietary intake of pollutants will also vary with fluctuations in prey species, animal age, sex and physiological status (i.e. lactating vs non-lactating), as these all influence feeding behaviour ^[2]. Herbivorous dugongs, despite their size, longevity and large amounts of body fat have much lower POP concentrations ^[20] compared to apex predators such as dolphins ^[7]. Strictly inshore species, especially those exposed to terrestrial run-off, often demonstrate higher levels of POP, as shown in Australian humpback and snubfin dolphins ^[10] and inshore dolphin species ^[18].

The distribution of pollutants within the body varies with both pollutant and tissue type. Organohalogenes accumulate in the highest concentrations in the body's fat stores. Distribution of metal pollutants in tissues varies but they tend to accumulate in the liver and kidney (and for some compounds also bone) ^[2, 3].

There are large geographic, species and temporal gaps in our knowledge of Australian marine mammal environmental toxicology. Most samples are opportunistically obtained from strandings and bycatch with a lack of targeted live animal surveillance ^[24]. The sub-lethal effects are mostly

unstudied and it is often difficult to prove the link between exposure and effects. For those Australian species that have been subject to toxicological assessments, sampling has largely occurred over a limited part of their distribution and only as opportunistic cross-sectional studies.

There is limited data for OHs in Australian marine mammals ^[10]. Historically, concentrations of some pollutants were lower in Southern Hemisphere marine mammals compared to those in the Northern Hemisphere, with considerable variations between species and geographical areas ^[25]. More recent information suggests that POP levels in dolphins in SA are increasing over time ^[26].

Metals are introduced into the environment by both natural (e.g. weathering of volcanic soils) and anthropogenic means, such as run-off from industry. Trophic transfer varies between species. Australian marine mammals have levels of mercury reflecting ingestion from both natural and anthropogenic sources and levels may be influenced by an individual's proximity to urbanised and industrial run-off ^[27]. Most animals are exposed through ingestion via their food source. In rare instances pollutants are absorbed through the skin and mucosal membranes (e.g. byproducts of oil spills) ^[3].

Clinical implications

A wide range of clinical effects including alopecia ^[28], immunosuppression ^[29, 30], reproductive failure ^[31], endocrine disruption ^[3] and neoplasia ^[2] have been associated with environmental pollutant accumulation and exposure in marine mammals. The immunosuppressive effects of OCs may make individuals more susceptible to opportunistic infections ^[29, 32-34]. Endocrine disruption, reproductive failure and bone lesions associated with OCs have been reported in marine mammals ^[6, 15, 30, 35, 36].

Thyroid hypoplasia in aborted Australian fur seal (*Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus*) foetuses was suspected to originate from endocrine disrupting toxicants ^[37]. Australian fur seal pups have high PFAS levels that could possibly cause immunosuppression and endocrine disruption ^[38]. A symmetrical alopecic syndrome in Australian fur seals may be associated with higher levels of heavy metals and POP ^[28], as well as with lower overall body condition scores ^[39].

The effect of excessive mercury tissue concentrations is the most commonly reported metal toxicity in marine mammals. Studies suggest mercury can cause immunosuppression by impairing lymphocyte function ^[40].

Pathology

The types of pathology caused by environmental toxicants is extremely varied. It is beyond the scope of this document to cover all the various possible pathologies but they can cause liver disease, kidney disease, immunosuppression, reproductive disorders, neurological disease and disrupt the endocrine system ^[3]. As an example, bottlenose dolphins from SA waters had renal damage and bone malformations associated with chronic exposure to metal pollutants ^[41].

Diagnosis

The overall health of the host should be evaluated as toxicants often cause co-morbidities or predispose to other pathological conditions ^[2]. Physiological status should be taken into account

when interpreting toxin accumulation in tissues, because some lesions may be toxin-induced or naturally acquired. For example, pulmonary and renal fibrosis occurs naturally in geriatric bowhead whales (*Balaena mysticetus*) but can be clinically significant in younger animals exposed to cadmium toxicity ^[42, 43].

In cases of suspect metal toxicity it is important to examine selenium status as this element has a protective effect against heavy metals such as mercury ^[3].

Laboratory diagnostic specimens and procedures

Live marine mammals:

- Subcutaneous fat (at least 1g) wrapped in foil and frozen for OH
- Whole blood (1ml) frozen for OHs and metals often transient sample
- Hair/fur (seals – at least 100ug) for metals, PFAS etc.
- Skin biopsies
- Milk, frozen

Post-mortem examination: samples listed above plus:

- Liver (at least 5g) frozen for metals
- Kidney (at least 5g) frozen for metals
- Skeletal muscle (at least 5g frozen) for metals

Procedures include:

- Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS): OHs
- Atomic absorption spectrophotometer: metals
- Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS): metals
- Histopathology
- Biomarkers: determine exposure through gene activation, stress markers, genetic erosion.

Whenever possible, always record the mass and the length of the animal. More detailed sampling guidance is available in <https://www.dcceew.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/cetacean-protocols.pdf>.

Research

For adequate baseline information on the pollutant challenge faced by Australian marine mammals, surveillance activities need to be greatly expanded and repeated more frequently. Sampling and testing for known pollutants and CECs should be performed on all marine mammal deaths ^[2]. The longevity of most marine mammals allows for significant deductions to be made from the negative effects seen in marine mammals to potential effects in humans and domestic animals. Due to the omnipresent ecological nature of pollutants, understanding their effects in one of the largest groups of marine apex predators will allow us to understand pollutant effects in entire ecosystems.

Surveillance

Wildlife Health Australia administers Australia's general wildlife health surveillance system, in partnership with government and non-government agencies. Wildlife health data is collected into a

national database, the electronic Wildlife Health Information System (eWHIS). Information is reported by a variety of sources including government agencies, zoo-based wildlife hospitals, sentinel veterinary clinics, universities, wildlife rehabilitators, and a range of other organisations and individuals. Targeted surveillance data is also collected by WHA. See the WHA website for more information <https://wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au/Our-Work/Surveillance> and <https://wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au/Our-Work/Surveillance/eWHIS-Wildlife-Health-Information-System>.

We are interested in hearing from anyone with information on these conditions in Australia, including laboratory reports, historical datasets or survey results that could be added to the National Wildlife Health Information System. If you can help, please contact us at admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au.

Acknowledgements

We are extremely grateful to those who had input into this fact sheet and would specifically like to thank Michael Lynch and Brett Gardner.

Wildlife Health Australia recognises the Traditional Custodians of Country throughout Australia. We respectfully acknowledge Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' continuing connection to land, sea, wildlife and community. We pay our respects to them and their cultures, and to their Elders past and present.

Please cite this Fact Sheet as: Wildlife Health Australia (2024) "Australian marine mammals and pollutants – Fact Sheet", published by Wildlife Health Australia, Canberra, available at <https://wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au/Resource-Centre/Fact-Sheets>.

Updated: August 2024

References and other information

1. Casals-Casas C and Desvergne B (2011) Endocrine Disruptors: From Endocrine to Metabolic Disruption. *Annual Review of Physiology*, **73**(Volume 73, 2011): 135-162
2. Fossi MC and Panti C (2018) 'Marine mammal ecotoxicology: impacts of multiple stressors on population health.' (Academic Press)
3. Gulland FM, Dierauf LA et al. (2018) 'CRC handbook of marine mammal medicine.' 10.1201/9781315144931 (CRC Press)
4. Baak JE, Lacombe RM et al. (2023) Interactions between Climate Change and Contaminants. In 'Climate Change and Animal Health.' (Eds C. Stephen and C. Duncan). (CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL)
5. Smith CR and Baco AR (2003) Ecology of whale falls at the deep-sea floor. In 'Oceanography and marine biology.' pp. 319-333. (CRC Press)
6. Cagnazzi D, Fossi MC et al. (2013) Anthropogenic contaminants in Indo-Pacific humpback and Australian snubfin dolphins from the central and southern Great Barrier Reef. *Environmental Pollution*, **182**: 490-494

7. Foord CS, Szabo D et al. (2024) Hepatic concentrations of per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) in dolphins from south-east Australia: Highest reported globally. *Science of the Total Environment*, **908**: 168438
8. Taylor S, Lynch M et al. (2018) Utility of fur as a biomarker for persistent organic pollutants in Australian fur seals (*Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus*). *Science of the Total Environment*, **610**: 1310-1320
9. Delisle A, Kim MK et al. (2018) The socio-cultural benefits and costs of the traditional hunting of dugongs (*Dugong dugon*) and green turtles (*Chelonia mydas*) in Torres Strait, Australia. *Oryx*, **52**(2): 250-261
10. Cagnazzi D, Harrison PL et al. (2020) Geographic and temporal variation in persistent pollutants in Australian humpback and snubfin dolphins. *Ecological Indicators*, **111**: 105990
11. Vetter W, Scholz E et al. (2001) Anthropogenic and Natural Organohalogen Compounds in Blubber of Dolphins and Dugongs (*Dugong dugon*) from Northeastern Australia. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **41**(2): 221-231
12. Butterfield N and Gaylard S (2007) 'The heavy metal status of South Australian dolphins.' (Environment Protection Authority)
13. Law RJ, Alaei M et al. (2003) Levels and trends of polybrominated diphenylethers and other brominated flame retardants in wildlife. *Environment International*, **29**(6): 757-70
14. Kemper C, Gibbs P et al. (1994) A review of heavy metal and organochlorine levels in marine mammals in Australia. *Science of the Total Environment*, **154**(2): 129-139
15. Weijs L, Tibax D et al. (2013) Assessing levels of halogenated organic compounds in mass-stranded long-finned pilot whales (*Globicephala melas*) from Australia. *Science of the Total Environment*, **461-462**: 117-125
16. Melcher J, Olbrich D et al. (2005) Tetra- and Tribromophenoxyanisoles in Marine Samples from Oceania. *Environmental Science & Technology*, **39**(20): 7784-7789
17. Evans K, Hindell M et al. (2004) Concentrations of organochlorines in sperm whales (*Physeter macrocephalus*) from Southern Australian waters. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **48**(5): 486-503
18. Gaus C, Correll R et al. (2005) Dioxins and dioxin-like PCBs in marine mammals from Australia. *Organohalogen Compounds*, **67**: 1271-1275
19. Hall J, Bengtson Nash S et al. (2023) Persistent organic pollutants and trace elements detected in New Zealand fur seals (long-nosed fur seal; *Arctocephalus forsteri*) from New South Wales, Australia, between 1998 and 2019. *Science of the Total Environment*, **902**: 166087
20. Weijs L, Leusch F et al. (2019) Concentrations of legacy persistent organic pollutants and naturally produced MeO-PBDEs in dugongs (*Dugong dugon*) from Moreton Bay, Australia. *Chemosphere*, **229**: 500-508
21. Hermanussen S, Matthews V et al. (2008) Flame retardants (PBDEs) in marine turtles, dugongs and seafood from Queensland, Australia. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **57**(6): 409-418
22. Bossart G (2011) Marine mammals as sentinel species for oceans and human health. *DJ Veterinary pathology*, **48**(3): 676-690
23. Harley J and O'Hara TM (2016) Toxicology and poisons. In 'Marine mammal physiology.' (Eds M.A. Castellini and J.-A. Mellish) pp. 309-336.)
24. Jarolimek CV, King JJ et al. (2023) A review of inorganic contaminants in Australian marine mammals, birds and turtles. *Environmental Chemistry*, **20**(4): 147-170
25. Evans K (2003) Pollution and marine mammals in the Southern Hemisphere: Potential or present threat. In 'Marine Mammals: Fisheries, tourism and management issues.' (Eds N. Gales, M. Hindell and R. Kirkwood) pp. 400-441. (CSIRO Publishing: Collingwood, Vic)

26. Weijs L, Covaci A et al. (2020) Concentrations of some legacy pollutants have increased in South Australian bottlenose dolphins from 1989 to 2014. *Environmental Research*, **189**: 109834
27. Weijs L, Vijayasarathy S et al. (2016) Screening of organic and metal contaminants in Australian humpback dolphins (*Sousa sahulensis*) inhabiting an urbanised embayment. *Chemosphere*, **151**: 253-262
28. Lynch M, Kirkwood R et al. (2012) Characterization and causal investigations of an alopecia syndrome in Australian fur seals (*Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus*). *Journal of Mammalogy*, **93**(2): 504-513
29. Sormo EG, Larsen HJS et al. (2009) Immunotoxicity of polychlorinated biphenyls (pcb) in free-ranging gray seal pups with special emphasis on dioxin-like congeners. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health-Part a-Current Issues*, **72**(3-4): 266-276
30. Routti H, Arukwe A et al. (2010) Comparative endocrine disruptive effects of contaminants in ringed seals (*Phoca hispida*) from Svalbard and the Baltic Sea. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol*, **152**(3): 306-12
31. Murphy S, Pierce GJ et al. (2010) Assessing the effect of persistent organic pollutants on reproductive activity in common dolphins and harbour porpoises. *Journal of Northwest Atlantic Fishery Science*, **42**: 153-173
32. Lahvis GP, Wells RS et al. (1995) Decreased lymphocyte responses in free-ranging Bottle-nosed dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) are associated with increased concentrations of PCBs and DDT in peripheral blood. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **103**: 67-72
33. Kannan K, Perrotta E et al. (2007) A comparative analysis of polybrominated diphenyl ethers and polychlorinated biphenyls in southern sea otters that died of infectious diseases and noninfectious causes. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **53**(2): 293-302
34. Desforges J-P, Sonne C et al. (2018) Immunotoxic Effects of Environmental Pollutants in Marine Mammals. In 'Marine Mammal Ecotoxicology.' (Eds M.C. Fossi and C. Panti) pp. 321-343. (Academic Press)
35. Wang DL, Shelver WL et al. (2010) Tissue distribution of polychlorinated biphenyls and organochlorine pesticides and potential toxicity to Alaskan northern fur seals assessed using pcbs congener specific mode of action schemes. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **58**(2): 478-488
36. Routti H, Nyman M et al. (2008) Bone-related effects of contaminants in seals may be associated with vitamin D and thyroid hormones. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, **27**(4): 873-880
37. Gardner BRS, A.; Bushell, R.; Arnould, J.P.Y.; McIntosh, R.; Liyanage D, K.L.D. Tharaka; Fromant, A.; Botha, J.; Eizenberg, Y.E.; Olaugun, M.; Marenda, M; Lynch, M.; Hufschmid, J. (In Press) Surveillance for *Toxoplasma gondii*, *Brucella* spp. and *Chlamydia* spp. in Australian fur seals (*Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus*) abortions. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*,
38. Taylor S, Terkildsen M et al. (2021) Per and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) at high concentrations in neonatal Australian pinnipeds. *Science of the Total Environment*, **786**: 147446
39. Lynch M, Kirkwood R et al. (2011) Prevalence and significance of an alopecia syndrome in Australian fur seals (*Arctocephalus pusillus doriferus*). *Journal of Mammalogy*, **92**(2): 342-351
40. Kakuschke A, Valentine-Thon E et al. (2009) Effects of methyl-, phenyl-, ethylmercury and mercurychlorid on immune cells of harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*). *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, **21**(12): 1716-1721
41. Lavery TJ, Kemper CM et al. (2009) Heavy metal toxicity of kidney and bone tissues in South Australian adult bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops aduncus*). *Marine Environmental Research*, **67**(1): 1-7
42. Rosa C, Blake JE et al. (2008) Heavy metal and mineral concentrations and their relationship to histopathological findings in the bowhead whale (*Balaena mysticetus*). *Science of the Total Environment*, **399**(1): 165-178

43. Woshner VM, O'Hara TM et al. (2001) Concentrations and interactions of selected essential and non-essential elements in bowhead and Beluga whales of Arctic Alaska. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*, **37**(4): 693-710

To provide feedback on Fact Sheets

Wildlife Health Australia welcomes your feedback on Fact Sheets. Please email admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au. We would also like to hear from you if you have a particular area of expertise and are interested in creating or updating a WHA Fact Sheet. A small amount of funding is available to facilitate this.

Disclaimer

This Fact Sheet is managed by Wildlife Health Australia for information purposes only. Information contained in it is drawn from a variety of sources external to Wildlife Health Australia. Although reasonable care was taken in its preparation, Wildlife Health Australia does not guarantee or warrant the accuracy, reliability, completeness, or currency of the information or its usefulness in achieving any purpose. It should not be relied on in place of professional veterinary or medical consultation. To the fullest extent permitted by law, Wildlife Health Australia will not be liable for any loss, damage, cost or expense incurred in or arising by reason of any person relying on information in this Fact Sheet. Persons should accordingly make and rely on their own assessments and enquiries to verify the accuracy of the information provided.



Find out more at wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au

Email: admin@wildlifehealthaustralia.com.au

Or call +61 2 9960 6333
