



Marine litter: one of the major threats for marine mammals. Outcomes from the European Cetacean Society workshop

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1 **Marine litter: one of the major threats for marine mammals. Outcomes from the**
2 **European Cetacean Society Workshop**

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19
20 **Abstract**

21 Marine litter is a pollution problem affecting thousands of marine species in all the world's seas and
22 oceans. Marine litter, in particular plastic, has negative impacts on marine wildlife primarily due to
23 ingestion and entanglement. Since most marine mammal species negatively interact with marine
24 litter, a first workshop under the framework of the European Cetacean Society Conference, was held
25 in 2017 to bring together the main experts on the topic of marine mammals and marine litter from
26 academic and research institutes, non-governmental organisations, foundations and International

27 Agreements. The workshop was devoted to defining the impact of marine litter on marine mammals
28 by reviewing current knowledge, methodological advances and new data available on this emerging
29 issue. Some case studies were also presented from European waters, such as seals and cetaceans in
30 the North, Baltic, and Mediterranean Seas. Here, we report the main findings of the workshop,
31 including a discussion on the research needs, the main methodological gaps, an overview of new
32 techniques for detecting the effects of marine litter (including microplastics) on marine mammals and,
33 also, the use of citizen science to drive awareness. The final recommendations aim to establish priority
34 research, to define harmonized methods to detect marine litter and microplastics, enforce networking
35 among institutions and support data sharing. The information gathered will enhance awareness and
36 communication between scientists, young people, citizens, other stakeholders and policy makers, and
37 thereby facilitate better implementation of international directives (e.g., the Marine Strategy
38 Framework Directive) in order to answer the question about the actual status of our oceans and
39 finding solutions.

40 **Keywords:** marine debris; plastics; microplastics; whales; dolphins; cetaceans; seals

41 **Capsule:** To understand the sources, the transfer and the effects of marine litter, and therefore their
42 impacts on marine mammal researchers need to apply a multidisciplinary standardized protocols.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Marine litter pervades and affects all the world's seas and a large number of marine species.
46 Specifically, plastic debris affects marine mammals worldwide and microplastics have recently
47 emerged as an additional threat within this topic. The development of protocols, which allow a
48 harmonised approach to monitoring marine litter impact on marine mammals, including microplastics,
49 has become essential for future research. The term microplastic used here refers to particles smaller
50 than 5mm in size. Sources of microplastics have been discussed in several reviews including the
51 fragmentation of larger items, as well as the introduction of micro-sized particles to the environment
52 (GESAMP, 2016). It is widely documented that marine debris has negative impacts on marine
53 mammals, primarily due to ingestion and entanglement (Baulch and Perry, 2014; Fossi et al., 2018a;
54 Kühn et al., 2015). Macrolitter has been reported to be ingested by many species of marine mammals,
55 such as baleen whales, beaked whales, dolphins and porpoises, and seals (Fossi et al., 2018b; Lusher
56 et al., 2018; Unger et al., 2017, 2016), most of these are carried out through necropsies, using methods
57 that target particles > 2.5 cm, therefore missing particles in the "micro" range. The absence of
58 macrolitter in such studies does thus not imply the absence of microlitter (Lusher et al., 2018).
59 Microplastics may present problems for biota if they are inhaled or ingested, including problems
60 related to chemicals associated with the debris particles (Lusher, 2015). In order to achieve a more
61 thorough understanding of the risk microplastic pose to marine mammals, a standardised protocol
62 which is simple and cost-effective should be implemented to allow research teams to collect and
63 analyse samples for the presence of microlitter in a comparable and transparent way, with a particular
64 focus on microplastics.

65 In 2017, M.C. Fossi and colleagues from the University of Siena, Italy, brought together researchers
66 investigating the impact of marine litter on marine mammals for a workshop at the European Cetacean
67 Society (ECS), 31st Annual Conference in Middelfart (Denmark). The rationale of the workshop arises
68 from the evidence that most marine mammal species are affected by plastic contamination, thus, the
69 primary goal of the workshop was to explore the impact of marine litter on cetaceans and pinnipeds.

70 The workshop was devoted to (1) defining the state of knowledge on the impact of marine litter to
71 marine mammals; (2) presenting new and emerging data available ranging from entanglement in
72 plastic debris to the ingestion of macro- and microplastics; (3) presenting the available methodological
73 approach currently used to assess the impact of marine litter on diverse marine mammal species and
74 (4) highlighting future perspectives and recommendations.

75 Forty attendees from eleven different countries participated in the workshop. They included
76 representatives from universities, research institutes, non-governmental organisations, foundations
77 and International Agreement representatives (e.g., Agreement on the Conservation of Cetaceans of
78 Black Sea, Mediterranean Sea and Contiguous Atlantic Area (ACCOBAMS), Conservation on Migratory
79 Species (CMS), International Whaling Commission (IWC)). The first half of the workshop consisted of
80 invited presentations from participants which were subsequently followed by a panel-led discussion.

81 Here we present the main outcomes from the workshop exploring the current state of knowledge and
82 the methods available to study marine litter in marine mammals (both in dead stranded and live
83 individuals) as well as future way forward for integrated and comparable monitoring of marine
84 mammals and plastic debris on a global scale.

85

86 **Part 1. Current state of knowledge and methods for monitoring the impact of marine litter** 87 **on marine mammals**

88 Impacts of litter on marine fauna occur throughout the food chain, with adverse impacts documented
89 so far on over 800 species (Kühn et al., 2015). Impacts from entanglement can result in injury,
90 drowning or strangulation, whereas those from ingestion range from no discernible impact through
91 to blockage of the digestive tract, to suffocation and starvation (Laist, 1997). Both these interactions
92 highlight the importance of implementing standardized protocols and programmes for monitoring this
93 type of pollution.

94 Concerned by the huge potential for marine wildlife impacts, the International Whaling Commission
95 (IWC) has held two marine debris workshops (Wright et al., 2016). The first, in 2013, focused on

96 improving understanding of the threat posed by marine debris to cetaceans and discussed impacts
97 from both macrodebris (e.g., fishing gear, plastic bags, and sheeting) and microplastics (e.g., plastic
98 particles added to cosmetics and the pellet form of raw plastics) (IWC, 2013). The workshop made a
99 number of recommendations and agreed that marine debris was both a welfare and a conservation
100 issue for cetaceans on a global scale. The IWC's Scientific Committee subsequently endorsed the
101 workshop's recommendation for more research and also agreed that:

- 102 - legacy and contemporary marine debris have the potential to be persistent, and have sub-lethal
103 and lethal effects on cetaceans and thus represent a global management challenge; and
- 104 - entanglement in, and intake of, active fishing gear, ALDFG (abandoned, lost, or otherwise
105 discarded fishing gear) and other marine debris have lethal and sub-lethal effects on cetaceans
106 (IWC, 2014a).

107 The 2014 workshop gathered together several key international bodies already engaged in marine
108 debris and agreed that the IWC's primary contribution should be to ensure that cetacean-related
109 issues are adequately represented within existing initiatives and that the IWC Scientific Committee's
110 expertise should be made available in collaborative efforts (IWC, 2014b). It also strongly
111 recommended "as the highest priority" that the IWC and its Secretariat work together with the
112 Secretariats of the other major Intergovernmental Organization (IGOs) and Regional Fisheries
113 Management Organisations (RFMOs) relevant to this issue to ensure consistency of approach, synergy
114 of effort and collection and exchange of information to develop appropriate mitigation strategies that
115 recognise that: (a) prevention is the ultimate solution; but that (b) removal is important until that ideal
116 is realised. Since these workshops, the Scientific Committee has continued its work on this topic and,
117 at its 2018 meeting, recommended that a further workshop should be held (IWC, 2018).

118

119 Evidence of impacts on cetaceans comes from a variety of published and unpublished sources and
120 Baulch and Perry (2014) collated over 500 records of marine litter interactions from the published

121 literature and responses from stranding networks in eleven countries, showing an increase in the
122 number of cases being reported over the last five decades. Among the 14 families of cetaceans
123 (Committee on Taxonomy, 2017), 11 families have been reported to interact with marine litter (Fossi
124 et al., 2018b). The number of records is unlikely to represent the extent of impact on marine mammals.
125 Rather, what has been observed has strong bias based on the availability of the different species and
126 other factors such as differential rates of stranding and necropsy.

127 Entanglement of marine mammals with marine litter, including ghost fishing nets, has been
128 documented in 27 species and a total of 78 incidences were documented worldwide (Baulch and Perry,
129 2014; Kühn et al., 2015); 31.4% species have at least one documented occurrence of entanglement.

130 Ingestion of macrolitter has been documented frequently (in over 60% of all cetacean species), and in
131 species employing a variety of feeding techniques at different levels of the feeding column (Baulch
132 and Perry, 2014; Fossi et al., 2018a; Kühn et al., 2015; Puig-Lozano et al., 2018). Plastics were the most
133 common item ingested and the size ranged from small fragments to large plastic sheets. In the 2014
134 review, relatively few stranding networks were found to collect data on rates of marine litter ingestion
135 (Baulch and Perry, 2014). However, based on available data (considering more than ten organisms
136 necropsied), ingestion rates varied from 0% to 31% of animals necropsied, with high geographic, intra-
137 and inter-specific variations in rates.

138 The study of microplastic ingestion by marine mammals is a challenging task. Large cetaceans present
139 difficulties in obtaining viable samples during necropsies due to large gut content volumes. Few
140 studies have directly identified microplastics in the digestive tracts of stranded individuals. Applying
141 standard protocols for the detection and identification of microplastics in the digestive tracts,
142 microplastics were found throughout the stomach/intestine of eight odontocetes species:
143 *Mesoplodon mirus*, *Ziphius cavirostris*, *Delphinus delphis*, *Stenella coeruleaolba*, *Phocoena phocoena*,
144 *Orcinus orca* and *Tursiops truncatus* (Lusher et al., 2018, 2015; van Franeker et al., 2018). Only one
145 study on mysticetes, a stranded humpback whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*), has recorded
146 microplastics in the intestines, including fragments and threads (Besseling et al., 2015).

147 Evaluating the frequency and severity of impacts of marine litter on cetaceans is complicated by low
148 sample sizes linked with to the low rate of detection (with as few as 0-6.2% of carcasses recovered
149 from cetacean deaths at sea) and the compounding effects of a low necropsy and publication rate.
150 New techniques have been developed to detect plastic tracers using non-lethal methods (e.g., skin
151 biopsies, Fossi et al., 2016).

152

153 Sub-lethal impacts of plastic ingestion are more difficult to assess. Such impacts may include injury
154 within the gastro-intestinal tracts (GITs), compromised feeding, malnutrition, disease and, reduced
155 reproduction, growth and/or longevity; these issues may be reported with the evaluation of specific
156 molecular markers (Allen et al., 2012; Fossi et al., 2018b; Katsanevakis, 2008; McCauley and Bjomdal,
157 1999; Moore et al., 2013; Puig-Lozano et al., 2018).

158 Field studies and monitoring indicates that interactions between marine litter and a mixture of
159 chemical compounds are of significance. Laboratory studies could shed light over possible interactions
160 (synergy or antagonism) learning from the field mixture toxicity (Syberg et al., 2017).

161 Given the multiple potential physical and ecotoxicological effects of marine litter interactions, the
162 impact of litter on marine mammals should be assessed using a new threefold approach (Fossi et al.,
163 2018c). The application of the threefold approach (discussed during the workshop) can add to the data
164 on the rate of ingestion in cetaceans, data on the multiple sub-lethal stresses that marine litter
165 ingestion can cause in the short and long term. Each of the three level of investigation tools that make
166 up the threefold approach can be applied independently or simultaneously and whether the animals
167 concerned are stranded or free ranging. The threefold approach comprises the following elements:

168 a) Analysis of gastro-intestinal content: Detection of the occurrence and rate of marine litter
169 ingestion and any associated pathology through analysis of the gastro-intestinal content (with a
170 particular focus on plastics and microplastics) in stranded cetaceans;

171 b) Analysis of the levels of plastic additives, as a proxy for ingestion: The plastic additives
172 indirect quantification can be applied both to free-ranging as well as to stranded organisms. The levels

173 of plastic additives (such as phthalates or PBDEs) and associated Persistent Bioaccumulative and Toxic
174 (PBT) compounds allow to evaluate the exposure to marine plastic pollution.

175 c) Analysis of biomarker responses: Biological responses can be used to detect the potential
176 toxicological effect related to PBT and plastic additives related to plastic ingestion in free-ranging
177 individuals or in stranded organisms up to a few hours after death.

178 Further details on these three methodological phases will be described in the following sections, also
179 focusing on specific case studies.

180

181 **Part 2. Studying marine litter in stranded marine mammals**

182 There are various ways to detect marine litter ingestion in marine mammals. Few standard protocols
183 for the recording of plastic are currently available, and therefore the amount and size of plastic
184 reported differs between research groups.

185 Nevertheless, collecting data from stranded marine mammals provides important information to
186 researchers from different fields. For example, pathologists will open the GIT of stranded animals as
187 part of an investigation into the reasons of stranding and/or death; in these cases, large marine litter
188 items may be detected but smaller particles can be easily overlooked. Necropsies are typically
189 conducted according to standard protocols (e.g. Kuiken and Hartmann García, 1993). In diet studies,
190 usually only the stomachs of stranded animals are investigated in more detail than presented in
191 pathological reports. Some diet studies are implementing an overflow technique which requires
192 floatation for the removal of less dense particles; however, the method may see that floating particles
193 are lost during the rinsing process (van Franeker et al., 2018). In these studies, the lack of a
194 standardized protocol for the examination of microplastics might cause the loss of these smaller
195 particles. With the ongoing interest in plastic ingestion, researchers have adapted dietary studies to
196 understand the levels of plastics present in marine mammals. For plastic research, the complete GIT
197 of the stranded animal will ideally be examined, as smaller plastic particles can easily pass through the

198 stomach into the intestine. When the GIT is rinsed both the plastics and the prey remains can be
199 examined by a standard protocol (Lusher et al., 2018).

200 Interestingly, the standard protocols for detecting plastics in other marine vertebrates (MSFD
201 Technical Subgroup on Marine Litter, 2013; OSPAR, 2015), which have been adopted by European
202 researchers, utilise a lower size limit of 1 mm; which has seen many research institutes develop closely
203 aligned protocols investigating plastics > 1 mm. For example, in the Netherlands, the rinsing of the GIT
204 of stranded whales and dolphins is carried out with a 1 mm sieve (Besseling et al., 2015; Bravo
205 Rebolledo et al., 2016; Unger et al., 2017; van Franeker et al., 2018). Standardizing the method for
206 recording the occurrence of plastic using dedicated protocols, will allow investigators to obtain results
207 that can be compared between mammals, birds and turtles (Provencher et al., 2017). This
208 methodology presents a problem because smaller microplastics can be lost during processing.

209 Recently, research carried out in Ireland added an additional set of sieves to allow the collection of
210 microplastics to 200 microns (Lusher et al., 2018, 2015). This procedure has been recommended for
211 future investigations, not only in marine mammals but also seabirds and sea turtles to achieve a better
212 understanding of the ingestion of microplastics.

213 Utilising stranding networks can provide further information of marine litter pollution and the
214 exposure of plastics to these top predators. For example, Lusher and colleagues recently published
215 the results of the incidence of microplastics in different cetacean species stranded on Irish coasts
216 (Lusher et al., 2018; Figure 1). A total of 410 digestive tracts were analysed for macroplastics, and 21
217 were investigated specifically for microplastics. All 21 digestive tracts contained microdebris, but only
218 three of them contained macrodebris. More than three-quarters (84%) of the microplastics were
219 classified as fibres. Blue was the most prominent colour (29%). Most of the fibres were less than 3mm
220 in length. This information revealed the importance of using an adapted protocol for the detection of
221 fibres, which are one of the most common microplastic items identified in the marine environment.

222 Two noteworthy studies of stranded animals impacted by marine litter were presented within the
223 ECS2017 workshop. One study presents the marine debris findings in marine mammals from German

224 waters of the North (NS) and Baltic Seas (BS), the other study evaluates marine debris occurrence in
225 sperm whales stranded on the Italian coast between 2009 and 2016. In addition, a standardized
226 protocol for dietary and marine litter studies, including microplastics was presented.

227

228 Three marine mammal species inhabit the North and Baltic Seas: *Phocoena phocoena* (PP), *Phoca*
229 *vitulina* (PV) and *Halichoerus grypus* (HG). Carcasses of harbour porpoises are collected since 1990,
230 carcasses of seals since 1995. For this study data collected until 2014 were taken into account. Next
231 to basic information such as sex, size and weight, additional information on marine litter items are
232 noted during necropsies. From the 6,587 collected individuals, a total of 1,622 were necropsied on the
233 GIT. Marine litter was found in 31 individuals either ingested (17 cases) or entangled around the body
234 (14 cases) and a total of 37 items were recovered. External findings were then put into relation to the
235 number of registered animals, internal ones to the number of individuals in which the GIT was
236 necropsied. The prevalence in grey seals was higher for both, external (1.2%; PV: 0.3%; PP: 0.1%) and
237 internal findings (2.4%; PV: 1.1%; HG: 0.7%). Comparing the North (NS) and Baltic (BS) Seas, the
238 prevalence of ingestion and entanglement was higher in the Baltic Sea (Ingestion: BS: 1.8%, NS: 0.8%;
239 Entanglement: BS: 0.3%, NS: 0.2%). The items mostly consist of synthetic materials, including plastic
240 (73.0%) and 64.9% of all objects were fishing related. Impacts on marine mammals were identified,
241 including perforation or rupture of the GIT, dermatitis, abscessation, peritonitis and septicaemia.
242 Eight animals were either severely suffering or dying due to marine debris items. It must be noted that
243 the result of this study is a minimum estimate of impacted animals, since not all carcasses are washed
244 ashore and are available for further examination. This study provides valuable information on the
245 occurrence and impact of marine debris on marine mammals in German waters. Although, the impact
246 rates appear low, the possible consequences are of concern (Unger et al., 2017).

247

248 From 2009 to 2016, 13 sperm whales stranded along the Italian coast (Mediterranean Sea) were
249 necropsied and their stomachs were collected for dietary and marine litter investigation. Initially, the

250 contents were inspected for the presence of any tar, oil or particularly large material which were
251 removed. Secondly, the stomach was washed, and the contents were rinsed and filtered through a 1
252 mm sieve. Marine litter items were identified and isolated for analysis following the “Litter in Biota”
253 protocol (developed for seabirds and sea turtles and included in the “Monitoring Guidance for Marine
254 Litter in European Seas”; Galgani et al., 2013). To better understand the composition and origin of the
255 debris the protocol was implemented with the use of FT-IR spectroscopy technique. Marine debris
256 was found in 10 out of 13 specimens (77%) and it was composed mainly of plastic (Figure 1). Five user
257 plastics categories were identified, and among these, the most abundant categories were the
258 sheet/film, followed by thread, other plastic, fragments and foams. In the specimens analysed most
259 items of isolated debris were black, transparent or white. The polymer analysis confirmed that isolated
260 items, categorized by a visual analysis as plastic, were plastic polymers. The plastic items within the
261 “sheets and fragments” category were mainly composed of polyethylene (PE) and, to a lesser extent,
262 polypropylene (PP); these plastic types are widely used as packaging material worldwide both in sea
263 and land-based activities.

264 In order to collect viable data across different species and different geographical areas of plastic
265 ingestion by large marine mammals, Lusher et al. (2018) proposed an approach utilising strandings
266 networks. They use the full GIT dissecting each stomach chamber individually and rinsed with pre-
267 filtered water through a set of nested sieves of different sizes (e.g. 1000, 500 and 200 microns).
268 Samples in the smaller mesh size sieve will be analysed for microplastics. Intestines are recommended
269 to be divided in 20 equal pieces following Lusher et al. (2018). Scats can be processed in the same way.
270 Any material retained on the sieves is transferred to a sterilised glass container for biological digestion.
271 A solution of 10% KOH was recommended, being a simple and cost-effective method (Kühn et al.,
272 2017; Lusher et al., 2017). Following digestion, the remaining solution is rinsed and filtered under
273 vacuum onto a filter paper where is it subsequently analysed under a microscope. Particles are
274 quantified and sorted into shape, colour and size categories. Where possible a subsample of particles
275 will undergo further analysis to confirm polymer identity or plastic presence.

276 **Part 3. Assessing marine litter interactions using live individuals**

277 Plastic marine litter is well known to be associated with chemical contaminants. Therefore, the
278 ingestion of plastic litter could cause severe toxicological effects due to the exposure to both chemicals
279 absorbed by plastics and plastic components. Plastic additives are chemical compounds which are
280 used to give specific properties to a plastic polymer and are incorporated during the manufacturing
281 process (OECD, 2014). The most common compounds used are brominated flame retardants (BFR),
282 stabilizers, phthalate esters (PAEs), bisphenol A (BPA), and nonylphenols (NPs) (Hermabessiere et al.,
283 2017). Once in the environment, these compounds may leach out from plastic litter (both macro and
284 microplastics) or be accumulated on the surface of plastic items. Tracers of plastic additives present
285 in animal tissues can be used as an indirect method for detecting plastic ingestion, in particular
286 phthalate esters (PAEs). For example, eight different phthalates (MBZP, MBP, MEHP, DNHP, BBzP,
287 DEHP, DIOIP, DNDP) were detected both in neustonic/planktonic samples and four cetacean species
288 (blubber from skin biopsies) sampled in the Pelagos Sanctuary (North-Western Mediterranean Sea)
289 (Baini et al., 2017; Fossi et al., 2016). The results showed different fingerprints and levels across the
290 neustonic/planktonic samples, indicating a heterogeneous pattern of phthalates in the environment,
291 which may be associated with microplastics (Baini et al., 2017). In addition, seven out of eight PAEs
292 were also detected in the blubber of *Balaenoptera physalus*, *Tursiops truncatus*, *Grampus griseus* and
293 *Stenella coeruleoalba* sampled in the same area, which might therefore indicate plastic ingestion.
294 MBzP, MBP, MEHP and BBzP were significantly correlated to the size and abundance of microplastics
295 in the neustonic/planktonic samples (Baini et al., 2017).

296

297 Uptake and accumulation of plastic-associated chemical contaminants may produce undesirable
298 biological effects. For example, when fin whale and sperm whale organotypic skin cell cultures were
299 treated with increasing doses of PAEs, it showed an upregulation of the mRNA levels of the Peroxisome
300 proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR- γ) gene (Fossi et al., 2018a); these results suggests that

301 PAEs play an important role in the alteration of the PPAR- γ , which regulates physiological processes
302 of lipids homeostasis, inflammation, adipogenesis, reproduction, etc. (Schupp and Lazar, 2010).

303

304 Another approach has been applied to the *ex vivo* assay using organotypic skin cell cultures from the
305 bottlenose dolphin, cultured and treated with different perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and BPA
306 concentrations. The microarray assay could represent an additional application to analyse global gene
307 expression for assessing the exposure to a certain class (or a mixture) of compounds. RNA labelled and
308 hybridized to a species-specific oligomicroarray showed that the skin transcriptome could hold
309 information on the contaminant exposure. Using such assays may allow researchers to predict about
310 long-term effects on health, being the genes affected involved in immunity modulation, response to
311 stress, lipid homeostasis, and development (Lunardi et al., 2016). The transcriptomic signature of
312 dolphin skin could be therefore relevant as classifier for a specific contaminant such as plastic-
313 associated contaminants.

314 Further research on biomarkers targeting the exposure of plastic ingestion and their additives is
315 required.

316

317 **Part 4. Utilising citizen science projects to address marine litter**

318 Plastic pollution, as part of marine debris, is widely known to impact many different ecosystems from
319 land to sea. This implies that the solution to the problem must be addressed in a broad societal
320 context. Involvement of people in citizen science (CSci) projects, such as beach clean-up projects has
321 proven valuable, not just as a mitigation effort but also to generate awareness (Wyles et al., 2017).

322

323 Experience from other environmental fields has shown that combining top down CSci with a more
324 direct bottom up CSci can allow people to start an array of impacting initiatives. Beach clean-ups can
325 typically be characterized as top-down CSci, where scientists (or other organizations such as NGOs)
326 ask people to participate (Syberg et al., 2018). These projects can thus have a double impact since, on

327 the one hand they can remediate plastic pollution before it enters the ocean, where it is much harder
328 to clean it up than on the beaches, and on the other hand raise awareness, which can facilitate other
329 societal activities such as regulatory measures. As an example, a Swedish study showed that local
330 historical knowledge could be used to conceptualize reference conditions of a lake's environmental
331 state and provide a more detailed description of the lake (Valinia et al., 2014). This enabled an
332 assessment of the water quality leading to a better foundation for regulation under the Water
333 Framework Directive (2000/60/EC).

334 Marine mammals are not only key species for marine ecosystems. In fact, most people have a strong
335 emotional attachment to marine mammals which results in high involvement and commitment for
336 their protection. Therefore, generating political awareness which can lead to measures to prevent
337 plastic pollution, can help to protect marine mammals both directly (e.g. cleaning waste before it
338 enters the oceans) and indirectly. Many marine mammal species investigated related to marine litter
339 are charismatic and iconic indicators that can serve as flagship species for marine conservation. While
340 umbrella species are useful for directing intervention strategies, flagship species can provide a
341 mechanism for communicating awareness and stimulating action to tackle marine plastic pollution in
342 all the marine ecosystems (Germanov et al., 2018). Furthermore, since plastic pollution is already of
343 great public concern this provides an opportunity to engage a broad array of the public. Such raised
344 awareness does not only lead to societal action but potentially also help raise awareness on other
345 environmental problems of equal concern but with less public attention such as chemical pollution or
346 ocean acidification.

347

348 **Discussion and concluding remarks**

349 It is clear that marine mammals are impacted by marine litter through many different ways. To
350 understand the level of these impacts a consistent monitoring approach is required, especially as
351 marine litter pollution is estimated to increase in the future. There are a number of approaches, as
352 discussed here that can support researchers and environmental organisations to assess the impact of

353 marine litter, in particular plastics, on marine mammals. Current methods use direct and indirect
354 approaches (strandings and biopsies respectively; Table 1).

355 Direct approaches allow researchers to investigate the consequences of ingestion and entanglement
356 in marine litter on individual organisms and researchers can gather information not only on litter but
357 trophic ecology, habitat used, pathological condition, etc., which can benefit a wider researcher
358 community. Estimation of microplastic intake is another gap requiring further investigation. For
359 example, using a simple mathematical estimation rule, Lusher et al., (2016) estimated that a single
360 Striped dolphin (*Stenella coeruleoalba*) could be exposed annually to ~463 million microplastics based
361 on its diet on mesopelagic fish. Methodologies related to this issue should be improve and applied to
362 all species in order to understand the exposure of top predators to plastic litter and the trophic
363 transfer.

364 In addition, assessing the impact of this type of pollution on living organisms needs an indirect
365 approach, based on the detection of biological responses related to the physical and chemical
366 exposure and the accumulation of plastic associated contaminants. Since 2012, biomarkers have been
367 investigated as an appropriate method to monitor plastic ingestion (Fossi et al., 2016, 2012). These
368 authors used biopsies of whales and sharks to detect plastic additives in different areas. In a similar
369 way, Bains et al. (2017) found these plastic additives in four cetacean species. The importance of these
370 findings encourages researchers to develop more sophisticated approaches accordingly.

371 On the other hand, CSci has become a valuable resource to protect marine mammals and raise
372 awareness within society. Including CSci in studies of marine pollution can help to reduce the impacts
373 of this type of pollution in our environments using marine mammals as flagship species and help
374 generate environmental awareness.

375 To date, in many cases the origin of plastics is still unknown. Identification of polymers and chemicals
376 may allow researchers to identify the type of plastic; however, most of the time it is not possible to
377 identify their source (including country of origin and product use). The majority of plastics are
378 predicted to come from non-coastal areas (Jambeck et al., 2015), but once they reach the sea waters

379 they can be transported by currents to different parts of the world (van Sebille et al., 2012). Further
380 research on plastic release, transport and distribution mechanisms in aquatic ecosystems is needed
381 to help better assess the impacts of marine mammals.

382 It is incredibly hard to understand uptake levels of plastics in marine mammals and monitoring their
383 feeding in the environment is difficult. Therefore, uptake can be monitored through investigations of
384 GITs of stranded individuals (e.g., Lusher et al., 2018; Unger et al., 2017) or indirectly utilising
385 biomarkers or plastic additives (e.g., Baini et al., 2017; Fossi et al., 2018a, 2016). An alternative
386 approach is to investigate estimated uptake through diets, as presented in Lusher et al. (2016).
387 Understanding plastic levels in prey species may give some indication of plastic transfer to predatory
388 marine mammals. However, this approach must be used with caution as uptake, retention and
389 egestion rates may vary between individuals, their level of exposure in the environment and their
390 ability to remove undesired items following feeding.

391

392 Although this workshop was focused on marine litter, the outputs highlighted that researchers should
393 take into account other information (e.g. diet, habitat, pathological condition) to understand the
394 sources, the transfer and the effects of marine litter, and therefore their impacts on marine mammals.
395 In addition, it was highlighted that further research and standardization of protocols are essential to
396 understand these impacts

397

398 It is therefore recommended that moving forward seven steps are required:

399

400 (1) To harmonize/standardized protocols for the analysis of marine litter in stranded organisms
401 and share knowledge, facilities and samples. In particular, it is important to standardize
402 methodologies for microplastic analysis on marine mammals simplifying and reducing the cost
403 of these analysis; some research groups may have economic constraints and the microplastic

- 404 methodology proposed in this workshop has been adapted to these requirements to allow
405 future comparisons between research groups;
- 406 (2) Enforcing national stranding networks to collect/share samples for different marine litter
407 analysis and establishing an international network of all marine mammals and marine litter
408 people (MML group/community);
- 409 (3) To share information, scientific results, images in a database (to be hosted in a web platform);
- 410 (4) To define the actual threat to organisms (amount of debris ingested? Weight? Volume?
411 Chemical transfer?) and to identify the most threatened species and hot spot areas according
412 to season and species habitat use in EU waters;
- 413 (5) To define new methods to evaluate the exposure to plastics and plastic additives in free-
414 ranging organisms;
- 415 (6) To evaluate the presence and effects of micro and nanoscale plastics, including sub-lethal
416 effects; and
- 417 (7) To enhance awareness raising communicating to other scientists, young people and, other
418 citizens, stakeholders and policy makers

419

420 All the information gathered through **the studies used as examples at the ECS 2017 workshop are**
421 **valuable** in the implementation the European Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD).

422 These studies can also contribute to answering the key question about the actual status of our oceans
423 and to finding solutions for achieving the demanded "*Good Environmental Status*".

424

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596

597

598 Captions

599

600 **Figure 1.** Marine litter ingested by stranded cetaceans (sperm whale, harbour porpoise and striped
601 dolphin) in European coasts.

602 **Table 1.** Summary of the studies presented and related methodological approach used to assess the
603 impact (entanglement and ingestion) of marine litter on marine mammals.

604