Impacts

- Contact between marine mammals and humans is increasing as the number of managed animals in oceanaria, rehabilitation facilities and research facilities grows. Furthermore, as coastal communities expand, opportunities for encounters with marine wildlife increase. Encounters with wildlife species, including marine mammals, pose certain risks including traumatic injury and disease transmission. In this review, we provide a synopsis of the known marine mammal zoonotic diseases, their clinical and pathologic manifestation in marine mammals, followed by a review of disease transmission to humans.

- Although marine mammal zoonoses are poorly understood, a growing list of bacterial, viral and fungal agents have been reported. The most common marine mammal zoonotic diseases induce localized self-limiting infections, although life-threatening systemic diseases have been reported. Marine mammal researchers, rehabilitators, trainers, veterinarians, volunteers and subsistence hunters have an increased risk of being injured or acquiring zoonotic diseases through extended occupational exposure.

- Future progress in marine mammal zoonotic disease research will require the coordination of multidisciplinary teams addressing the nexus of human, animal and environment. The information presented here will be useful to public health professionals, physicians, veterinarians and wildlife biologists interested in a better understanding of marine mammal zoonoses.

Keywords:
Marine mammals; zoonosis; one health

Correspondence:
Thomas B. Waltzek. Emerging Pathogens Institute, 2055 Mowry Road, PO Box 100009, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA. Tel.: 530 574 2976; Fax: 352 273 9420; E-mail: tbwaltzek@epi.ufl.edu

Received for publication December 16, 2011
doi: 10.1111/j.1863-2378.2012.01492.x

Summary

Marine mammals evoke strong public affection as well as considerable scientific interest. However, the resultant close contact with marine wildlife poses human health risks, including traumatic injury and zoonotic disease transmission. The majority of zoonotic marine mammal diseases result in localized skin infections in man that resolve spontaneously or with appropriate medical therapy. However, other marine mammal zoonoses, if left untreated, induce life-threatening systemic diseases that could pose public health risks. As the number of zoonotic diseases rises, the diagnosis of and treatment for these emerging pathogens pose special challenges requiring the expertise of physicians, veterinarians and wildlife biologists. Here, we provide a comprehensive review of the bacterial, viral and fungal marine mammal zoonotic diseases that we hope will be utilized by public health professionals, physicians, veterinarians and wildlife biologists to better understand, diagnose and prevent marine mammal zoonotic diseases.
Introduction

Recent studies have underscored the importance of domesticated and feral animal populations in both the emergence of novel and re-emergence of existing human pathogens (Woolhouse and Gowtage-Sequeria, 2005). This is illustrated by the fact that 75% of known human pathogens are zoonotic, and the incidences of their associated diseases are increasing (Cunningham, 2005). Most recent emerging diseases have been associated with host switches, including severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus, H5N1 avian influenza, Hendra virus, Nipah virus and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) (Woolhouse and Gowtage-Sequeria, 2005). The rise in zoonotic diseases is driven by a complex interplay of environmental (global warming, ocean acidification, pollution), ecological (habitat destruction or fragmentation) and epidemiologic (increasing human densities encroaching on decreasing wildlife populations, global movements of plants and animals) factors (Van Bressem et al., 2009; Bossart, 2011). Humans are having a major impact on marine environments, with negative impacts on marine mammal populations (Bejder et al., 2006). As the closest oceanic relatives of humans, marine mammals are sentinel species for both human and ocean health and they are long-lived, top-tier consumers, inhabiting the same inshore ecosystems utilized by man (Jessup et al., 2004; Bossart, 2011). Our knowledge of the diversity of marine mammal pathogens is now expanding rapidly (Nollens et al., 2010; Palacios et al., 2011; Wellehan et al., 2011). Future progress in zoonotic and emerging disease research will require the coordination of multidisciplinary teams addressing the nexus of human, animal and environment that has been referred to as the ‘One Health’ paradigm.

Marine mammals are beloved by the general public, and numerous recreational industries permit intimate contact with these charismatic megafauna, including whale-watching tours, ‘swim-with-the-dolphin/manatee’ programs, and oceanaria. Marine mammal researchers, rehabilitators, trainers, veterinarians and volunteers have an increased risk of being injured or acquiring zoonotic diseases through extended occupational exposure (Hunt et al., 2008). Subsistence hunters (e.g. whalers and sealers) are also at occupational risk of disease acquisition through their direct physical contact with infected marine mammals or through the ingestion of marine mammal food products (Boggild, 1969; Bender et al., 1972; Cawthorn, 1997; Tryland, 2000; McLaughlin et al., 2004). Finally, during marine mammal stranding events, human rescuers have acquired zoonotic infections following contact with infected carcasses (Webster et al., 1981).

The most common marine mammal zoonotic diseases are localized infections, although life-threatening systemic diseases have been reported. A recent study evaluating the risk of illness associated with occupational contact with marine mammals found that more than 10% of the participants reported having contracted localized infections colloquially referred to as ‘seal finger’ (Hunt et al., 2008). ‘Seal finger’ is caused by a variety of bacterial and viral species (Table 1). Here, we provide a comprehensive review of the bacterial, viral and fungal marine mammal zoonotic diseases. The review provides a synopsis of each disease, its clinical and pathologic manifestation in marine mammals, followed by a review of transmission of the disease to humans.

Materials and Methods

Literature search strategy

In July 2011, we searched the PubMed database, without any language restriction, using the search terms ‘marine mammals’ and ‘zoonosis’ to find reports describing cases of human infection following contact with marine mammals. Additional articles were identified through the reference sections of the studies retrieved.

Results

Bacteria

Bisgaardia

Pathogen summary

Bisgaardia hudsonensis is a newly described Gram-negative rod-shaped facultative anaerobe within the family Pasteurellaceae in the phylum Proteobacteria (Foster et al., 2011). Investigations into the deaths of ringed seals (Phoca hispida) in Eastern Hudson Bay of Northern Quebec, Canada, lead to discovery of the bacteria from normal appearing tissues including: lung, retro-mandibular lymph node and tonsil. This bacterium has only recently been reported as a potential human pathogen following seal bite (Sundeep and Cleeve, 2011).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

The clinical significance of B. hudsonensis in seals is currently unknown, although association with the lung tissues may suggest respiratory disease.

Clinical signs in humans

The sole reported case occurred after a fisherman received a bite on the finger from a seal (Sundeep and Cleeve, 2011). The localized skin infection had nearly healed following a week of antibiotic therapy. A yellow exudate was
noticed on the lesion at day 10, and by day 13, the lesion showed signs of improvement. *Bisgaardia hudsonensis* is considered one cause of 'seal finger' given the single zoonotic transmission event occurring following a seal bite.

**Pathology and histology**

The gross and histologic lesions induced by *B. hudsonensis* in seals and man are unknown.

**Brucella**

**Pathogen summary**

*Brucella* species are small (<1.5 μm by 0.7 μm), facultative, intracellular, Gram-negative coccobacilli in the family *Brucellaceae* in the phylum *Proteobacteria* (Quinn and Markey, 2003). The first report of *Brucella* infecting marine mammals occurred in 1994 (Ewalt et al., 1994; Ross et al., 1994). At least two species of *Brucella* infect a wide variety of aquatic mammals including pinnipeds, cetaceans and the European otter (Nymo et al., 2011): *Brucella pinnipedialis* is associated with pinnipeds, and *B. ceti* is associated with cetaceans (Foster et al., 2007; Nymo et al., 2011). Although these two species are each others closest relatives, recent molecular data suggest they may require further division into additional species (Maquart et al., 2009; Nymo et al., 2011). Although transmission of *Brucella* in marine mammals is poorly understood, growing evidence suggests that cetaceans and pinnipeds may acquire brucellosis horizontally, vertically and through infection of bacterial laden lungworms (Hernandez-Mora et al., 2008; see (Nymo et al., 2011) and references within).

**Clinical signs in marine mammals**

Despite repeated isolation and high seroprevalence of *Brucella* within certain marine mammal populations, clinical disease is rarely reported and most commonly consists of neurologic (Hernandez-Mora et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Barrientos et al., 2010) and reproductive (e.g. abortions in *Tursiopstruncatus*, Miller et al., 1999) signs.

**Clinical signs in humans**

Marine mammal workers experience an increased risk of contracting brucellosis when working with infected animals (Brew et al., 1999). Transmission to humans may result in influenza-like illness (e.g. fever, headache, lethargy, myalgia, sinusitis) (Brew et al., 1999) chronic disease signs (e.g. arthritis, fatigue) and in rare cases, neurologic disease. A researcher contracted brucellosis after a laboratory exposure resulting in fatigue, chronic headaches and a severe sinusitis (Brew et al., 1999). Two cases of neurobrucellosis and a case of osteomyelitis, caused by marine mammal *Brucella* isolates, were reported without direct marine mammal contact following the consumption of raw seafood (Sohn et al., 2003; McDonald et al., 2006).

**Pathology and histology**

Few consistent gross lesions are observed following necropsy of marine mammals afflicted with brucellosis. Microscopic pathology observed primarily within *Brucella* infected cetaceans includes reproductive (endometritis, placentitis, salpingitis, mastitis, orchitis, epididymitis), neurologic (meningitis, encephalitis, meningoencephalitis) as well other (arthritis, peritonitis, vegetative endocarditis, discospondylitis, lymphadenitis, interstitial pneumonia, hepatic and splenic coagulative necrosis, subcutaneous and hepatic abscesses) lesions (Gonzalez-Barrientos et al., 2010, Goertz et al., 2011, Nymo et al., 2011). Microscopic lesions associated with dolphins that are pregnant or have recently aborted include a necrotizing placentitis with Gram-negative cocccobacilli and mixed inflammatory cell infiltrates (mononuclear and polymononuclear cells) within the placental trophoblast (Miller et al., 1999; Gonzalez-Barrientos et al., 2010). Dolphins may develop a non-suppurative meningoencephalitis that is most pronounced in the periventricular regions with an associated perivasculary infiltration of mononuclear cells (Hernandez-Mora et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Barrientos et al., 2010). Involvement of respiratory tissues has been reported as non-suppurative interstitial pneumonia in striped dolphin (Gonzalez-Barrientos et al., 2010), and *Brucella* may have contributed to the verminous bronchopneumonia reported among two seal species from the German North Sea (Prenger-Berninghoff et al., 2008).

**Erysipelothrix**

**Pathogen summary**

_Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae_ is a small (<0.4 μm by 2.5 μm), non-motile, Gram-positive, facultative anaerobic, pleomorphic bacillus in the family *Erysipelotrichaceae* in the phylum Firmicutes. It is catalase-negative, oxidase-negative and resistant to high salt concentrations (Quinn, and Markey 2003). This potential pathogen is ubiquitous and can persist for long periods of time in the environment including marine watersheds (Wang et al., 2010). *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae* infects a variety of domesticated and wildlife species including swine, sheep, reptiles, chickens, turkeys, ducks, emus, marine mammals and fish.
Marine Mammal Zoonoses: A Review

T. B. Waltzek et al.

Pathogen summary

Leptospira spp. are long, helically-coiled, motile Gram-negative bacteria in the family Leptospiraceae in the phylum Spirochaetes. They proliferate in aquatic environments and are organized into 20 species with more than 200 recognized serovars (Bharti et al., 2003). Leptospira spp. are globally distributed, infecting humans and a wide variety of domestic and wild mammal species, including several pinniped species (Smith et al., 1977; Gulland et al., 1996; Stamper et al., 1998; Colegrove et al., 2005). Periodic large-scale stranding and mortality events of California sea lions attributed to Leptospira interrogans var. pomona have been reported along the Pacific coast of North America from southern California to British Columbia since 1970 (Gulland et al., 1996; Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008; Zuerner et al., 2009). Although the mode of transmission of Leptospira among pinnipeds is poorly understood, it likely involves direct spread among individuals via infected urine at rookeries (Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008; Zuerner et al., 2009). Leptospira has been detected from faecal- and urine-contaminated sand in the vicinity of a stranded California sea lion calling into question whether other species (e.g. humans, domestic and wildlife) might contract disease through environmental exposure (Cameron et al., 2008). California sea lions often strand near densely populated coastal communities as well as stagnant sources of freshwater or river outflow, thereby potentially increasing the zoonotic, anthroponotic and domestic/wildlife species spread of Leptospira (Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

Leptospirosis in pinnipeds is characterized by depression, dehydration, polydipsia, anorexia, fever, vomiting, icterus, abortion and reluctance to use the rear limbs (Vedros et al., 1988; Suer and Vedros, 1988), and its clinical significance has been questioned (Sweeney, 1974). Because they are not kept in captivity, less is known about this organism in mysticetes. Marine mammals are believed to acquire the pathogen from their fish prey that may carry the bacterium in their mucous layer without ill effect (Higgins, 2000). The first definitive zoonotic case was described by Chastel et al., (1975), with more recent reports associated with the isolation of the pathogen from the wounds of marine mammal handlers following traumatic encounters (Suer and Vedros, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in humans

Transmission from marine mammals to humans has been associated with direct contact, necropsy or physical injury (e.g. bite wounds) (Chastel et al., 1975; Suer and Vedros, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008). Zoonotic E. rhusiopathiae infections in humans typically presents with localized pain, redness, erythema and swelling of lymph nodes (Chastel et al., 1975; Robson et al., 1998). However, a more serious systemic disease characterized by prolonged malaise and a life-threatening toxemia was reported in one individual following a minor cutaneous insult and exposure to a harbour porpoise carcass (Hunt et al., 2008).

Pathology and histology

In marine mammals, the subacute form of the disease is characterized by dermal infarcts resulting in sloughing of the epidermis that occasionally results in rhomboid patterns producing the classic ‘diamond skin disease’ (Simpson et al., 1958; Higgins, 2000; Wang et al., 2010). Gross pathology in the acute form of the disease includes ascites, thoracic effusions, and enlargement of mesenteric and pleural lymph nodes (Kinsel et al., 1997; Dunn et al., 2001). Histologic examination in the acute form of the disease reveals non-specific multifocal necrosis and inflammation of various organs, intracellular and extracellular Gram-positive bacteria, with a mixed inflammatory infiltrate (macrophages, monocytes, neutrophils) (Kinsel et al., 1997; Dunn et al., 2001).

Leptospira

Pathogen summary

Leptospira spp. are long, helically-coiled, motile Gram-negative bacteria in the family Leptospiraceae in the phylum Spirochaetes. They proliferate in aquatic environments and are organized into 20 species with more than 200 recognized serovars (Bharti et al., 2003). Leptospira spp. are globally distributed, infecting humans and a wide variety of domestic and wild mammal species, including several pinniped species (Smith et al., 1977; Gulland et al., 1996; Stamper et al., 1998; Colegrove et al., 2005). Periodic large-scale stranding and mortality events of California sea lions attributed to Leptospira interrogans var. pomona have been reported along the Pacific coast of North America from southern California to British Columbia since 1970 (Gulland et al., 1996; Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008; Zuerner et al., 2009). Although the mode of transmission of Leptospira among pinnipeds is poorly understood, it likely involves direct spread among individuals via infected urine at rookeries (Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008; Zuerner et al., 2009). Leptospira has been detected from faecal- and urine-contaminated sand in the vicinity of a stranded California sea lion calling into question whether other species (e.g. humans, domestic and wildlife) might contract disease through environmental exposure (Cameron et al., 2008). California sea lions often strand near densely populated coastal communities as well as stagnant sources of freshwater or river outflow, thereby potentially increasing the zoonotic, anthroponotic and domestic/wildlife species spread of Leptospira (Cameron et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

Leptospirosis in pinnipeds is characterized by depression, dehydration, polydipsia, anorexia, fever, vomiting, icterus, abortion and reluctance to use the rear limbs (Vedros et al., 1988; Suer and Vedros, 1988), and its clinical significance has been questioned (Sweeney, 1974). Because they are not kept in captivity, less is known about this organism in mysticetes. Marine mammals are believed to acquire the pathogen from their fish prey that may carry the bacterium in their mucous layer without ill effect (Higgins, 2000). The first definitive zoonotic case was described by Chastel et al., (1975), with more recent reports associated with the isolation of the pathogen from the wounds of marine mammal handlers following traumatic encounters (Suer and Vedros, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae causes erysipeloid in humans, and the analogous disease in animals is known as erysipelas, or ‘diamond skin disease’. Marine mammals present with either a life-threatening acute septicaemic disease (Seibold and Neal, 1956; Simpson et al., 1958; Higgins, 2000). Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae is less frequently reported in pinnipeds (Suer and Vedros, 1988), and its clinical significance has been questioned (Sweeney, 1974). Because they are not kept in captivity, less is known about this organism in mysticetes. Marine mammals are believed to acquire the pathogen from their fish prey that may carry the bacterium in their mucous layer without ill effect (Higgins, 2000). The first definitive zoonotic case was described by Chastel et al., (1975), with more recent reports associated with the isolation of the pathogen from the wounds of marine mammal handlers following traumatic encounters (Suer and Vedros, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in humans

Transmission from marine mammals to humans has been associated with direct contact, necropsy or physical injury (e.g. bite wounds) (Chastel et al., 1975; Suer and Vedros, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008). Zoonotic E. rhusiopathiae infections in humans typically presents with localized pain, redness, erythema and swelling of lymph nodes (Chastel et al., 1975; Robson et al., 1998). However, a more serious systemic disease characterized by prolonged malaise and a life-threatening toxemia was reported in one individual following a minor cutaneous insult and exposure to a harbour porpoise carcass (Hunt et al., 2008).

Pathology and histology

In marine mammals, the subacute form of the disease is characterized by dermal infarcts resulting in sloughing of the epidermis that occasionally results in rhomboid patterns producing the classic ‘diamond skin disease’ (Simpson et al., 1958; Higgins, 2000; Wang et al., 2010). Gross pathology in the acute form of the disease includes ascites, thoracic effusions, and enlargement of mesenteric and pleural lymph nodes (Kinsel et al., 1997; Dunn et al., 2001). Histologic examination in the acute form of the disease reveals non-specific multifocal necrosis and inflammation of various organs, intracellular and extracellular Gram-positive bacteria, with a mixed inflammatory infiltrate (macrophages, monocytes, neutrophils) (Kinsel et al., 1997; Dunn et al., 2001).
Clinical signs in humans

To date, few cases of human leptospirosis have been definitively linked to contact with marine mammals (Smith et al., 1978; Hunt et al., 2008). Transmission to humans has been reported following contact with contaminated fluids from infected sea lions and after contact with contaminated tissues during necropsy of California sea lion that succumbed to Leptospira (Smith et al., 1978). The three researchers who became infected developed acute renal failure.

Pathology and histology

On necropsy of infected pinnipeds, the kidneys often appear swollen and the liver may be enlarged and friable. The cortex and medulla often appear pale with loss of renicular and corticomедullary differentiation and occasional infarcts (Gulland et al., 1996; Colegrove et al., 2005; Cameron et al., 2008). Subcapsular haemorrhages and haemorrhage at the corticomедullary junction may also be observed. Aborted foetuses and seal pups may present with subcutaneous haemorrhages and hyphema (Smith et al., 1974). Typical microscopic kidney lesions include a lymphoplasmacytic tubulointerstitial nephritis, intratubular protein casts and abundant associated spirochaetes within the tubular epithelium and lumen (Gulland et al., 1996; Colegrove et al., 2005).

Mycobacterium

Pathogen summary

Mycobacterium spp. are aerobic, non-motile bacilli in the family Mycobacteriaceae in the phylum Actinobacteria. They are acid-fast and often found intracellularly. Zoonotic Mycobacterium spp. have been reported from marine mammals, including M. marinum (Flowers, 1970) and M. pinnipedii (Kiers et al., 2008). Mycobacterium pinnipedii is a member of the M. tuberculosis complex causing significant disease in pinnipeds and occasionally humans and other animals (Kiers et al., 2008; Moser et al., 2008; Kriz et al., 2011). Mycobacterium bovis, another member of the M. tuberculosis complex, had been reported from pinnipeds prior to recognition of M. pinnipedii, but these older reports may have been M. pinnipedii (Thompson et al., 1993). Mycobacterium marinum and other environmental species are slow-growing and omnipresent in both freshwater and marine habitats, where they are important pathogens of fish and amphibians and occasional pathogens of marine mammals (Lewis, 1987; Bowenkamp et al., 2001; Moeller, 2002; Wuenschmann et al., 2008).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

Pinnipeds infected with M. pinnipedii often display nonspecific clinical signs including: lethargy, anorexia and weight loss (Forshaw and Phelps, 1991; Kiers et al., 2008). Authors have observed that the classic chronic coughing observed in human tuberculosis cases may not be a prominent sign of active disease in infected marine mammals (Forshaw and Phelps, 1991). Cetaceans infected with environmental Mycobacteria spp. typically display disseminated cutaneous lesions (Lewis, 1987; Bowenkamp et al., 2001; Moeller, 2002; Wuenschmann et al., 2008).

Pathology and histology

Transmission to humans may occur following direct contact with infected marine mammals that are shedding bacteria in aerosols, mucosal secretions, faeces or urine (Quinn and Markey, 2003). Indirect transmission to humans through prolonged exposure to contaminated environments has also been reported (Kiers et al., 2008). The first zoonotic mycobacteriosis report in the scientific literature occurred after a marine mammal trainer was bitten by a managed dolphin. This trainer noticed a painless swelling at the bite site 2.5 months following the altercation, and M. marinum was cultured from the lesion (Flowers, 1970). In another report, a group of managed Southern sea lions (Otaria flavescens) were diagnosed with M. pinnipedii by tuberculin skin test (TST) and subsequent necropsy. Approximately six of 25 animal keepers that were in close contact with the sea lions were positive by TST, five of 25 keepers were positive by interferon-gamma release assay, but no keepers were symptomatic or had detectable lung lesions by radiography (Kiers et al., 2008). A third report involved an Australian seal trainer who developed pulmonary tuberculosis (M. tuberculosis complex), including night sweats, fatigue, weight loss and a chronic productive cough, following close contact with seals that had previously been diagnosed with the same agent (Thompson et al., 1993).

Clinical signs in humans

On necropsy, pinnipeds infected with M. pinnipedii typically display granulomas in some or all of the following organs: lungs, kidneys, spleen, liver and lymph nodes (Forshaw and Phelps, 1991; Kiers et al., 2008; Kriz et al., 2011). Environmental species like Mycobacterium marinum may generate chronic cutaneous or subcutaneous
Microscopic lesions associated with *M. pinnipedi* involve well-defined granulomas, whereas *M. marinum* is often associated with poorly defined granulomatous lesions. Acid-fast bacteria may be observed in some but not all lesions (Lewis, 1987; Bowenkamp et al., 2001; Kiers et al., 2008; Wuenschmann et al., 2008).

**Mycoptasma**

Pathogen summary

Mycoplasmas, in the family Mycoplasmataceae, phylum Tenericutes, are the smallest self-replicating prokaryotes and lack a cell wall. They are generally host-specific pathogens found on mucosal surfaces (Quinn and Markey, 2003). *Mycoplasma* spp. have been associated with viral-induced (e.g. influenza viruses or morbillivirus-es) marine mammal mass mortality events (Madoff et al., 1982; Ruhnke et al., 1991; Haulena et al., 2006; Volokhov et al., 2011). In pinnipeds, five species are known: *M. phocidae, M. phocirhinis, M. phocicerebrale, M. zalophi* and *M. haemozalo-phi* (Madoff et al., 1982; Kirchhoff et al., 1989; Giebel et al., 1991; Haulena et al., 2006; Volokhov et al., 2011). *Mycoplasma phocidae* was cultured from the respiratory tract and heart of harbour seals during a respiratory epizootic along the New England seaboard from 1979 to 1980 (Madoff et al., 1982). *Mycoplasma phocicerebrale* and *M. phocirhinis* were cultured from seals during a mass mortality event that occurred in the Baltic and North Sea (Kirchhoff et al., 1989; Giebel et al., 1991). *Mycoplasma zalophi* was repeatedly isolated from California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*) undergoing rehabilitation from 1999 to 2001 (Haulena et al., 2006). A recent study isolated *M. phocicerebrale* and at least two novel *Mycoplasma* spp. from cetacean carcasses that washed up off the coast of Scotland over a 12-year period (Foster et al., 2011). *Mycoplasma haemozalophi* was detected by PCR in 12.4% of blood samples from California sea lions (Volokhov et al., 2011).

**Clinical signs in marine mammals**

In marine mammals, *Mycoplasma* spp. are often associated with respiratory disease signs (Giebel et al., 1991; Ruhnke and Madoff, 1992) and have been associated with significant stranding or mortality events (Giebel et al., 1991; Ruhnke and Madoff, 1992; Foster et al., 2011). *Mycoplasma zalophi* is associated with pneumonia and polyarthritis in California sea lions in rehabilitation (Haulena et al., 2006).

**Clinical signs in humans**

The disease known as ‘seal finger’, often associated with *Mycoplasma* spp. in pinniped hosts, is common among individuals with occupational exposure to seals (e.g. sealers and marine mammal trainers) and is usually limited to localized cutaneous infections (see (Hunt et al., 2008) and references within). Transmission occurs principally through physical trauma (e.g. seal bite), or when compromised skin surfaces come in contact with infected marine mammal tissues. Zoonotic *Mycoplasma* spp. infections in humans typically present with localized pain, redness and erythema (Stadtlander and Madoff, 1994; Baker et al., 1998). A typical case was reported by Baker and colleagues (Baker et al., 1998); a trainer at the New England Aquarium received a seal bite that became painful, swollen and erythematous after 6 days. *Mycoplasma phoc-acerbale* was cultured from the wound and the mouth of the seal. The trainer fully recovered with tetracycline antibiotic therapy, and the seal never displayed signs throughout the episode.

Pathology and histology

Few gross lesions are associated with *Mycoplasma* infections in marine mammals. Histopathologic findings typically include a pleuritis, interstitial pneumonia or bronchopneumonia, lymphadenitis, subdermal abscessation and septic polyarthritis (Haulena et al., 2006; Foster et al., 2011).

**Viruses**

**Calicivirus**

Pathogen summary

San Miguel Sea lion virus (SMSV) is a small positive-sense single-stranded RNA virus in the genus Vesivirus. The virus was first isolated from California Sea Lions (*Z. californianus*) in 1972 (Smith et al., 1973), although it has since been isolated from cetaceans (Smith and Boyt, 1990). This virus is indistinguishable from the vesicular exanthema of swine virus (VESV) (Smith et al., 1973), a reportable foreign animal disease that was declared to be eradicated from the United States in 1956. SMSV displays an extremely wide host range, infecting fish, amphibians, reptiles and mammals (Smith et al., 1980). Of significant concern is the precedent of feline calicivirus, a closely related member of the genus Vesivirus, known to mutate and cause epizootics of a haemorrhagic fever with 33–50% mortality in cats (Ossiboff et al., 2007). This has happened independently in high-density colonies multiple...
times; virulent haemorrhagic strains from geographically
diverse sites do not form a clade (Ossiboff et al., 2007).
SMSV mutates rapidly and acts as a quasispecies
(Wellehan et al., 2010).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

In marine mammals, the disease is most often character-
ized by anorexia followed by the formation of vesicles in
the mucocutaneous junctions and on the ventral surface
of flippers (Van Bonn et al., 2000). The virus has been
associated with clinical diarrhoea. SMSV is easily isolated
from vesicles and has also been isolated from females Cal-
ifornia sea lions that have recently aborted as well as the
aborted sea lion foetuses (Smith and Boyt, 1990). In mar-
ine mammals, the clinical manifestation lasts between 4
and 20 days (Van Bonn et al., 2000).

Clinical signs in humans

Marine caliciviruses can survive for 15 days in the marine
environment (Smith et al., 1981). Caliciviruses can be
transmitted by direct contact or indirectly by consump-
tion of contaminated prey (Smith et al., 1998). In one
report, a researcher was accidentally exposed to SMSV
serotype 5 in the laboratory and developed an influenza-
like illness that lasted for 2 days followed by the blistering
of both hands and feet. Healing commenced following
1 week and the patient was fully recovered after 2 weeks
(Smith et al., 1998). In a study looking at prevalence of
antibodies to pooled SMSV types in 765 human blood
donors in the northwestern USA, 12% of healthy blood
donors were seropositive, whereas 21% of those rejected
solely because of an elevation in the hepatocellular marker
enzyme alanine transferase were seropositive, a significant
difference ($P < 0.001$) (Smith et al., 2006). Further, 29%
of patients with hepatitis of unknown cause and 47% of
patients with hepatitis associated with blood transfusion
or dialysis were seropositive, and 11 of 112 sera tested
PCR positive (Smith et al., 2006).

Pathology and histology

Microscopically, vesicular lesions generally consist of
spongiosis of the stratum spinosum, which progresses to
subcorneal vesicle formation (Moeller, 2002).

Influenza viruses

Pathogen summary

Influenza viruses are negative sense single-stranded RNA
viruses that constitute three of the genera (A,B,C) in the
family Orthomyxoviridae. Influenza A viruses are widely
distributed among animal populations including humans.
Since the late 1970s, influenza A and B viruses have been
detected by viral isolation, serologic methods and RT-
PCR in wild populations of cetaceans and pinnipeds
(Osterhaus et al., 2000; Ohishi et al., 2003; Blanc et al.,
2009). Mass strandings attributable to influenza A virus
have been reported in both pinnipeds and cetaceans along
the New England coast, resulting in population losses up
to 20% (Geraci et al., 1982; Hinshaw et al., 1984). Post-
mortem examination of infected harbour seal carcasses
and contact with symptomatic animals resulted in zoo-
notic transmission (Webster et al., 1981).

Clinical signs in marine mammals

Influenza A and B virus infections induce upper and
lower respiratory disease signs in marine mammals. Dis-
ease signs in moribund harbour seals during an influenza
A epizootic along the coast of Massachusetts included
respiratory distress, lethargy, swelling of the neck and
conjunctiva, incoordination and frothy white or bloody
nasal discharge (Geraci et al., 1982). Influenza A virus
was associated with extreme emaciation and sloughing
skin in two 1984 mass strandings of long-finned pilot
whales along the coast of Cape Cod, USA (Hinshaw et al.,
1986). Influenza B virus was associated with stranded har-
bour seals in respiratory distress along the Dutch coast in
1999 (Osterhaus et al., 2000).

Clinical signs in humans

Four people developed conjunctivitis after post-mortem
examination of H7N7-infected seals from an outbreak in
New England (Webster et al., 1981). Experimental trans-
mission studies with the influenza A virus isolate pro-
duced a lethal systemic disease in squirrel monkeys
(Murphy and Jarrell, 1983). An investigator developed a
severe conjunctivitis after an experimentally infected seal
subject sneezed directly into his face (Webster et al.,
1981). The experimental H7N7 influenza A strain was
isolated from the investigator’s conjunctiva, and the
inflammation subsided by the fourth day.

Pathology and histology

Gross observations of influenza A virus disease in ceta-
ceans are limited but may include enlargement of the
hilar lymph node, haemorrhagic lungs and a small friable
liver (Hinshaw et al., 1986). Necropsy of the aforemen-
tioned New England harbour seals revealed a pneumonia
characterized by inflammation and haemorrhage in the
upper and lower respiratory tracts (Geraci et al., 1982).
Histopathologic examination of the lungs of seals in that succumbed to influenza A virus revealed necrotizing bronchopneumonia with extensive degeneration, necrosis and desquamation of the bronchial epithelium (Hinshaw et al., 1984).

**Poxvirus**

**Pathogen summary**

The family Poxviridae comprises large double-stranded DNA viruses that are grouped into two subfamilies: Chordopoxvirinae and Entomopoxvirinae. The chordopoxviruses, using vertebrate hosts, are currently divided into eight genera (Moss, 2001), although the number of genera is likely to expand. Most poxviruses of pinnipeds have been tentatively classified in the genus Parapoxvirus, although a Steller sea lion pox is clearly distinct and does not cluster in a recognized genus (Bracht et al., 2006; Nollens et al., 2006a). The cetacean poxviruses may also represent a new genus, and one analysis of limited sequence found them to be the sister group to the orthopoxviruses (Bracht et al., 2006). Cetacean and pinniped poxviruses induce cutaneous lesions in their hosts, but only the pinniped parapoxviruses are currently known to be zoonotic (Hicks and Worthy, 1987; Clark et al., 2005).

**Clinical signs in marine mammals**

Pinniped parapoxviruses typically induce the formation of nodular or villonodular lesions in the skin around the head and neck, mucocutaneous junctions of the conjunctiva and oral mucosal, and the tongue. However, lesions may appear anywhere and in severe cases become quite expansive (Wilson and Poglayen-Neuwall, 1971; Moeller, 2002). Lesions often ulcerate within a couple of weeks and resolve within a month (Hicks and Worthy, 1987). Young or debilitated animals may suffer and/or succumb to the disease (Sweeney and Ridgway, 1975; Geraci et al., 1979; Van Bressem et al., 1993, 2009; Nollens et al., 2006b). Known cetacean poxviruses cause circular discoloured lesions called ‘tattoos’ that generally do not have significant health impacts.

**Clinical signs in humans**

Sealpox has been transmitted to humans after contact (Hicks and Worthy, 1987) or following physical trauma (Clark et al., 2005). The aforementioned zoonotic sealpox cases involved 3 marine mammal technicians with increased exposure to symptomatic grey seals. In each case, a single papule, ‘milker’s nodule’, was noticed on the hand of each individual resembling the lesions induced by other zoonotic parapoxviruses (e.g. Orf virus, bovine popular stomatitis virus and pseudocowpox virus). The solitary cutaneous lesions were uncomplicated and resolved without treatment over several months (Hicks and Worthy, 1987; Clark et al., 2005; Hunt et al., 2008).

**Pathology and histology**

Microscopically, skin lesions in seals and sea lions are characterized by a ballooning degeneration of the stratum spinosum with pustule formation. The epidermal hyperplasia is characterized by orthokeratotic and parakeratotic hyperkeratosis and acantholysis (Clark et al., 2005; Nollens et al., 2006b). The greatly enlarged cells usually contain large, eosinophilic intracytoplasmic inclusions (Moeller, 2002; Clark et al., 2005; Nollens et al., 2006b).

**Fungi**

**Ajellomyces**

**Pathogen summary**

Blastomycosis is caused by a saprophytic dimorphic fungi, *Ajellomyces (Blastomyces) dermatitidis*, in the family Ajellomyctaceae in the phylum Ascomycota. It is endemic to the Eastern United States and Canada. Humans and animals are usually infected via inhalation (Migaki and Jones, 1983). Infected animals often develop a primary lesion in the lungs, with subsequent spread to various organs including the skin (Higgins, 2000; Quinn and Markey, 2003). In marine mammals, blastomycosis has been reported in captive bottlenose dolphins (Sweeney et al., 1976; Cates et al., 1986), Steller sea lions and California sea lions (Zwick et al., 2000).

**Clinical signs in marine mammals**

In marine mammals, the clinical manifestation is variable depending upon the severity of the lesion and affected organs (Migaki and Jones, 1983). Severe systemic blastomycosis results in depression, weakness, anorexia and death.

**Clinical signs in humans**

In the single human zoonotic transmission report, a veterinarian treating a bottlenose dolphin developed a chronic localized cellulitis and lymphadenitis that resolved without treatment (Cates et al., 1986). However, *A. dermatitidis* is generally only present as a yeast in warm-blooded animal tissues, and yeast forms are considered non-infectious, with conidial forms involved in transmission seen at cooler
temperatures. Because of this, animal to animal transmission is rare, and potential common environmental sources of infection should be investigated when outbreaks are seen (Bradsher et al., 2003).

**Pathology and histology**

Systemic blastomycosis in marine mammals results in pyogranulomatous inflammation in the lungs, lymph nodes, spleen, liver, thyroid and kidneys (Williamson et al., 1959). Histologically, *A. dermatitidis* is observed either free or phagocytosed in macrophages as a large round yeast cell, with a diameter of 8–25 μm, and a thick ‘doubly contoured’ cell wall (Migaki and Jones, 1983).

**Lacazia**

**Pathogen summary**

Lobomycosis is a chronic mycotic disease of the skin caused by *Lacazia* (*Loboa*) loboi, an obligate pathogen. It is not assigned to a family, but is in the order Onygenales in the phylum Ascomycota. The disease affects bottlenose (*Tursiops truncatus*) and Guyana (*Sotalia guianensis*) dolphins as well as humans living in the Americas (Van Bressem et al., 2009). Diagnosis of lobomycosis depends on identification of characteristic yeast-like organisms (5–10 μm) in tissues or exudates (Hay, 2003). The impact of lobomycosis on cetacean populations is unknown but may be responsible for the deterioration in health of chronically infected individuals (Van Bressem et al., 2009).

**Clinical signs in marine mammals**

In marine mammals, lesions are restricted to the skin and appear whitish to pink with a nodular or cobblestone appearance (Migaki and Jones, 1983; Moeller, 2002). Typically, lobomycosis does not induce significant pathology in dolphins or humans although cutaneous lesions may persist for years.

**Clinical signs in humans**

Transmission occurs by direct contact with infected animals following abrasion or traumatization of the skin (Migaki and Jones, 1983; Symmers, 1983). A cutaneous granuloma on the hand of an aquarium attendant and an associated supratrochlear lymphadenitis was observed 3 months following an occupational exposure with a bottlenose dolphin infected with *L. loboi*. Biopsies from the infected dolphin and the aquarium attendant’s skin and lymph node were histologically indistinguishable (Symmers, 1983).

**Pathology and histology**

Grossly, multiple whitish to pink, nodular or cobblestone, cutaneous lesions are observed in dolphins suffering from lobomycosis (Migaki and Jones, 1983; Moeller, 2002). Histologic lesions have been described as a granulomatous dermatitis involving the papillary dermis. The granulomas are composed of macrophages and multinucleate giant cells that have phagocytosed the fungal agents. The epidermis over affected areas display acanthosis with downward growth of the rete pegs (Migaki and Jones, 1983; Moeller, 2002).

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The focus of this review was to summarize what is known about marine mammal zoonoses including bacterial, viral and fungal pathogens. Cases of marine mammal zoonoses involve individuals with increased marine mammal contact whether in a research, management or medical setting (Hunt et al., 2008). We found no zoonotic human case reports that involve a member of the general public. This suggests that recreational activities with limited exposure to marine mammals are relatively safe pursuits from an infectious disease standpoint. By excluding anecdotal information or case reports without confirmatory diagnostics, we have likely omitted a subset of lesser known emerging marine mammal zoonoses that future studies may elucidate. However, progress in the diagnosis and characterization of marine mammal zoonotic diseases may be impeded, as a recent survey exploring health risks for marine mammal workers found that infected workers repeatedly reported their physicians were inadequately informed about marine mammal zoonotic diseases (Hunt et al., 2008).

It is probable that the number of known zoonoses from marine mammals will expand. *Streptococcus iniae*, named after a genus of river dolphins from which it was first isolated, can cause disease in humans (Agnew and Barnes, 2007). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* has recently been identified in marine mammals (O’Mahony et al., 2005; Faires et al., 2009). Recombinants of human and sea lion astroviruses have been identified, implying that marine mammals play a role in human astrovirus ecology (Rivera et al., 2010). Noroviruses, rotaviruses, and sapoviruses have been sequenced from the faeces of sea lions and do not cluster phylogenetically separate from human viruses in these genera (Li et al., 2011). The risk of acquiring food-borne illnesses following the consumption of uncooked marine mammal meat is
poorly understood but has been reported in native peoples of Arctic and Australasia regions (Hunt et al., 2008). The consumption of raw or undercooked pinniped or cetacean meat has resulted in bacterial (e.g. salmonellosis and botulism) and parasitic (trichinellosis and toxoplasmosis) diseases in man (Bender et al., 1972; Cawthorn, 1997; Tryland, 2000; McLaughlin et al., 2004; Bejder et al., 2006). Southern and Northern sea otters are recognized as sentinels for both ocean health as ‘keystone species’ in nearshore habitats as well as sentinels of human health, because they accumulate important zoonotic protozoa (e.g. Toxoplasma gondii and Sarcocystis neurona) from the consumption of infected shellfish (Jessup et al., 2004; Bossart, 2011; Gibson et al., 2011). A recent study found that a variety of Pacific Northwest marine mammal species were coinfected with T. gondii and S. neurona indicating pervasive zoonotic parasite flow from terrestrial species (e.g. T. gondii oocysts from domestic cats) into coastal waterways (Gibson et al., 2011). Thus, these parasites contaminate important waterways and bioaccumulate in shellfish that may later infect marine mammals or humans consuming uncooked seafood. The reported high rates of infected marine mammals illustrate a potential public health issue given that coastal watersheds are major sources of food and water for humans (Jessup et al., 2004; Bossart, 2011; Gibson et al., 2011).

Given the popularity of oceanaria and continued marine mammal research and rehabilitation, future zoonotic diseases cases involving bacterial, viral and fungal pathogens are inevitable. Future progress in marine mammal zoonotic disease research will require the coordination of multidisciplinary teams addressing the nexus of human, animal and environment. It is our sincere hope that the information provided within the present review will be utilized by public health professionals, physicians, veterinarians and wildlife biologist to better

| Genus species | Disease | Clinical diseases in marine mammals | Clinical diseases in humans | References |
|---------------|---------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| Bacteria      |         |                                    |                             |            |
| Bisgaardia hudsonensis | Seal finger | Unknown | Dermatitis | Sundeep and Cleeve (2011) |
| Brucella pinnipedia and B. ceti | Brucellosis | Reproductive disorders, neurological disorders, and osteomyelitis | Headache, lethargy, and severe sinusitis | Brew et al. (1999), Kiers et al. (2008) |
| Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae | Erysipeloïd (humans), erysipelas (marine mammals) | Sepsis (peracute), rhomboid skin lesions (chronic) | Localized dermatitis and sepsis in severe cases | Chastel et al. (1975) |
| Leptospira interrogans (serovars pomona, gruppypthysa) | Leptospirosis | Renal failure | Renal failure | Smith et al. (1978) |
| Mycobacterium marinum and M. pinnipedi | Mycobacteriosis | Failure to thrive (e.g. lethargy, anorexia, and weight loss), granulomatous dermatitis (marinum), granulomatous lesions in lungs and other organs (pinnipedi) | Failure to thrive (e.g. lethargy, anorexia, and weight loss), granulomatous dermatitis (marinum), tuberculosis (pinnipedi) | Flowers (1970), Kiers et al. (2008) |
| Mycoplasma phocacerebrale, M. phocarhinis, M. phocideae (seal finger) | Mycoplasmosis | Pneumonia and polyarthritis | Localized dermatitis | Baker et al. (1998) |
| Virus         |         |                                    |                             |            |
| Calicivirus (San Miguel sea lion virus) | Seal finger | Vesicular dermatitis | Vesicular dermatitis and influenza-like illness | Smith et al. (1998) |
| Influenza virus subtypes A  | Influenza | Pneumonia | Conjunctivitis | Webster et al. (1981) |
| Parapoxivirus       | Seal finger | Dermatitis | Single papule, Milker’s nodule | Clark et al. (2005) |
| Fungus          |         |                                    |                             |            |
| Ajellomyces dermatitidis | Blastomycosis | Granulomatous lesions in lungs and other organs | Lymphadenitis and cellultis | Cates et al. (1986) |
| Lacazia lobo | Lobomycosis | Granulomatous dermatitis | Granulomatous dermatitis | Symmers (1983) |

The clinical disease signs in humans are those that have appeared in the literature associated with zoonotic disease transmission from marine mammals.
understand, diagnose and prevent marine mammal zoonoses.

Acknowledgements

We thank Kalina Atanasova for technical assistance. This work was supported by the US Armed Forces Health Surveillance Center – Global Emerging Infections Surveillance Operations and National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (R01 AI068803 with ARRA supplement to G.C.G), the Office of Naval Research (N00014-09-1-0252 to J.F.X.W) and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NFFKPR00-10-18452 to J.F.X.W).

References

Agnew, W., and A. C. Barnes, 2007: Streptococcus iniae: an aquatic pathogen of global veterinary significance and a challenging candidate for reliable vaccination. Vet. Microbiol. 122, 1–15.

Baker, A. S., K. L. Ruoff, and S. Maddof, 1998: Isolation of Mycoplasma species from a patient with seal finger. Clin. Infect. Dis. 27, 1168–1170.

Bejder, L., A. Samuels, H. Whitehead, N. Gales, J. Mann, R. Connor, M. Heithaus, J. Watson-Capps, C. Flaherty, and M. Kruetzen, 2006: Decline in relative abundance of bottlenose dolphins exposed to long-term disturbance. Conserv. Biol. 20, 1791–1798.

Bender, T. R., S. E. Nevius, A. R. Saslow, P. S. Clark, E. J. Gangaros, G. J. Kaplan, W. E. Dewitt, and T. S. Jones, 1972: Salmonellosis associated with whale meat in an eskimo community serologic and bacteriologic methods as adjuncts to an epidemiologic investigation. Am. J. Epidemiol. 96, 153–160.

Bhatti, A. R., J. E. Nally, J. N. Ricaldi, M. A. Matthias, M. M. Diaz, M. A. Lovett, P. N. Levett, R. H. Gilman, M. R. Willig, E. Gotuzzo, and J. M. Vinetz, 2003: Leptospirosis: a zoonotic disease of global importance. Lancet Infect. Dis. 3, 757–771.

Blanc, A., D. Ruchansky, M. Clara, F. Achaval, A. Le Bas, and J. Arbiza, 2009: Serologic evidence of influenza A and B viruses in South American fur seals (Arctocephalus australis). J. Wildl. Dis. 45, 519–521.

Boggild, J., 1969: Higienic problems in Greenland. Arch. Environ. Health 18, 138–143.

Bossart, G. D., 2011: Marine mammals as sentinel species for oceans and human health. Vet. Pathol. 48, 676–690.

Bossart, G. D., and E. A. Eimstad, 1988: Erysipelothrix vesicular glossitis in a killer whale (Orcinus Orca). J. Zoo. Anim. Med. 19, 42–47.

Bowenkamp, K. E., S. Frasca, A. Draghi, G. J. Tsongalis, C. Koerting, L. Hinckley, S. De Guise, R. J. Montali, C. E. C. Goertz, D. J. St Aubin, and J. L. Dunn, 2001: Mycobacterium marinum dermatitis and panniculitis with chronic pleuritis in a captive white whale (Delphinapterus leucas) with aortic rupture. J. Vet. Diagn. Invest. 13, 524–530.

Bracht, A. J., R. L. Brudek, R. Y. Ewing, C. A. Manire, K. A. Burek, C. Rosa, K. B. Beckman, J. E. Maruniak, and C. H. Romero, 2006: Genetic identification of novel poxviruses of cetaceans and pinnipeds. Arch. Virol. 151, 423–438.

Bradsher, R. W., S. W. Chapman, and P. G. Pappas, 2003: Blastomycosis. Infect. Dis. Clin. North Am. 17, 21–40.

Brew, S. D., L. L. Perrett, J. A. Stack, A. P. MacMillan, and N. J. Staunton, 1999: Human exposure to Brucella recovered from a sea mammal. Vet. Rec. 144, 483–483.

Cameron, C. E., R. L. Zuerner, S. Raverty, K. A. Colegrove, S. A. Norman, D. M. Lamboum, S. J. Jeffiies, and F. M. Gulland, 2008: Detection of pathogenic Leptospira bacteria in pinniped populations via PCR and identification of a source of transmission for zoonotic leptospirosis in the marine environment. J. Clin. Microbiol. 46, 1728–1733.

Cates, M. B., L. Kaufman, J. H. Grabau, J. M. Pletcher, and J. P. Schroeder, 1986: Blastomycosis in an Atlantic bottlenosed dolphin. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 189, 1148–1150.

Cawthorn, R. J., 1997: Overview of “bumper car” disease – Impact on the North American lobster fishery. Int. J. Parasitol. 27, 167–172.

Chastel, C., O. Masure, G. Balouet, P. Laban, and A. Lucas, 1975: Student, whale and red mullet minor epidemic of erysipelaed after dissection of a globicephaloid. Nouv. Presse Med. 4, 1803–1805.

Clark, C., P. G. McIntyre, A. Evans, C. J. McNees, and S. Lewis-Jones, 2005: Human sealpox resulting from a seal bite: confirmation that sealpox virus is zoonotic. Br. J. Dermatol. 152, 791–793.

Colegrove, K. M., L. J. Lowenstine, and F. M. D. Gulland, 2005: Leptospirosis in northern elephant seals (Mirounga angustirostris) stranded along the California coast. J. Wildl. Dis. 41, 426–430.

Cunningham, A. A., 2005: A walk on the wild side-emerging wildlife diseases. Br. Med. J., 331, 1214–1215.

Dierauf, L. A., D. J. Vandenbroek, J. Roleto, M. Koski, L. Amaya, and L. J. Gage, 1985: An epizootic of leptospirosis in California sea lions. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 187, 1145–1148.

Dunn, J. L., J. D. Buck, and T. R. Robeck, 2001: Bacterial Diseases of Cetaceans and Pinnipeds. In: Dierauf, L. A. and F. M. D., Gulland (eds), Handbook of Marine Mammal Medicine, 2nd edn, pp. 309–335, CRC Press, Boca Raton.

Ewalt, D. R., J. B. Payeur, B. M. Martin, D. R. Cummins, and W. G. Miller, 1994: Characteristics of a brucella species from a bottlenecked dolphin (Tursiops truncatus). J. Vet. Diagn. Invest. 6, 448–452.

Fairies, M. C., E. Gehring, J. Mergl, and J. S. Weese, 2009: Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in marine mammals. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 15, 2071–2072.

Flowers, D. J., 1970: Human Infection due to Mycobacterium marinum after a Dolphin Bite. J. Clin. Pathol. 23, 475–477.

Forshaw, D., and G. R. Phelps, 1991: Tuberculosis in a captive colony of pinnipeds. J. Wildl. Dis. 27, 288–295.
Foster, G., B. S. Osterman, J. Godfroid, I. Jacques, and A. Cloeckaert, 2007: Brucella ceti sp nov and Brucella pinnipedialis sp. nov. for Brucella strains with cetaceans and seals as their preferred hosts. *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.* 57, 2688–2693.

Foster, G., L. McAuliffe, M. P. Dagleish, J. Barley, F. Howie, R. A. J. Nicholas, and R. D. Ayling, 2011: Mycoplasma species isolated from harbor porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) and a Sowerby’s beaked whale (*Mesoplodon bidens*) stranded in Scottish waters. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 47, 206–211.

Geraci, J., R. B. D. Hicks, and D. J. Staubin, 1979: Dolphin pox skin disease of cetaceans. *Can. J. Comp. Med.* 43, 399–404.

Geraci, J. R., D. J. Staubin, I. K. Barker, R. G. Webster, V. S. Hinshaw, W. J. Bean, H. L. Ruhnke, J. H. Prescott, G. Early, A. S. Baker, S. Madoff, and R. T. Schooley, 1982: Mass mortality of harbor seals pneumonia associated with influenza A virus. *Science* 215, 1129–1131.

Gibson, A. K., S. Raverty, D. M. Lambourn, J. Huggins, S. L. Magargal, and M. E. Grigg, 2011: Polyparasitism is associated with increased disease severity in *Toxoplasma gondii* infected marine sentinel species. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* 5(5), e1142, doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0001142.

Giebel, J., J. Meier, A. Binder, J. Flossdorf, J. B. Poveda, R. Schmidt, and H. Kirchoff, 1991: *Mycoplasma phocarhinis* sp. nov. and *Mycoplasma phocacerebrae* sp. nov., 2 new species from Harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*). *Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol.* 41, 39–44.

Goertz, C. E. C., S. Frasca Jr, G. A. Bohach, D. F. Cowan, J. D. Buck, R. A. French, S. De Guise, J. Maratea, L. Hinckley, D. Ewalt, P. M. Schlievert, S. M. Karst, C. F. Deobald, D. J. St Aubin, and J. L. Dunn, 2011: *Brucella* sp. vertebral osteomyelitis with intercurrent fatal *Staphylococcus aureus* toxicogenic enteritis in a bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*). *J. Vet. Diagn. Invest.* 23, 845–851.

Gonzalez-Barrientos, R., J. A. Morales, G. Hernandez-Mora, E. Barquero-Calvo, C. Guzman-Verri, E. Chaves-Olarte, and E. Moreno, 2010: Pathology of striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*) infected with *Brucella ceti*. *J. Comp. Pathol.* 142, 347–552.

Gulland, F. M. D., M. Koski, L. J. Lowenstine, A. Colagross, L. Morgan, and T. Spraker, 1996: Leptospirosis in California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*) stranded along the central California coast, 1981–1994. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 32, 572–580.

Haulena, M., F. M. D. Gulland, J. A. Lawrence, D. A. Faucher, S. Jang, B. Aldridge, T. Spraker, L. C. Thomas, D. R. Browns, L. Wendland, and M. K. Davidsoms, 2006: Lesions associated with a novel *Mycoplasma* sp. in California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*) undergoing rehabilitation. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 42, 40–45.

Hay, R. J., 2003: Cutaneous and subcutaneous mycoses. In: Anaissie, E. J., M. R., McGinnis and M. A., Pfaller (eds), Clinical Mycology, 1st edn, pp. 456–473. Churchill Livingstone, Philadelphia.

Hernandez-Mora, G., R. Gonzalez-Barrientos, J. A. Morales, E. Chaves-Olarte, C. Guzman-Verri, E. Baquero-Calvo, M. J. De-Miguel, C.-M. Marin, J.-M. Blasco, and E. Moreno, 2008: Neurobrucellosis in stranded dolphins, Costa Rica. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 14, 1430–1433.

Hicks, B. D., and G. A. J. Worthy, 1987: Sealpox in captive gray seals (*Halichoerus grypus*) and their handlers. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 23, 1–6.

Higgins, R., 2000: Bacteria and fungi of marine mammals: a review. *Can. Vet. J.* 41, 105–116.

Hinshaw, V. S., W. J. Bean, R. G. Webster, J. E. Rehg, P. Fiorelli, G. Early, J. R. Geraci, and D. J. Staubin, 1984: Are seals frequently infected with avian influenza viruses. *J. Virol.* 51, 863–865.

Hinshaw, V. S., W. J. Bean, J. Geraci, P. Fiorelli, G. Early, and R. G. Webster, 1986: Characterization of 2 influenza A viruses from a pilot whale. *J. Virol.* 58, 655–656.

Hunt, T. D., M. H. Ziccardi, F. M. D. Gulland, P. K. Yochem, D. W. Hird, T. Rowles, and J. A. K. Mazet, 2008: Health risks for marine mammal workers. *Dis. Aquat. Org.* 81, 81–92.

Jessup, D. A., M. Miller, J. Ames, M. Harris, C. Kreuder, P. A. Conrad, and J. A. K. Mazet, 2004: Southern sea otter as a sentinel of marine ecosystem health. *EcoHealth* 1, 239–245.

Kiers, A., A. Klarenbeek, B. Mendelts, D. Van Soolingen, and G. Koeter, 2008: Transmission of *Mycobacterium pinnipedii* to humans in a zoo with marine mammals. *Internat. J. Tuberc. Lung Dis.* 12, 1469–1473.

Kinsel, M. J., J. R. Boehm, B. Harris, and R. D. Murnane, 1997: Fatal *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae* septicemia in a captive Pacific white-sided dolphin (*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*). *J. Zoo Wildl. Med.* 28, 494–497.

Kirchoff, H., A. Binder, B. Liess, K. T. Friedhoff, J. Pohlenz, M. Stede, and T. Willhaus, 1989: Isolation of mycoplasmas from diseased seals. *Vet. Rec.* 124, 513–514.

Kriz, P., P. Kralik, M. Slany, I. Slana, J. Svobodova, I. Parmova, V. Barnet, V. Jurek, and I. Pavlik, 2011: *Mycobacterium pinnipedii* in a captive Southern sea lion (*Otaria flavescens*): a case report. *Vet. Med.* 56, 307–313.

Lewis, J. C. M., 1987: Cutaneous mycobacteriosis in a Southern sea lion. *Aquat. Mammals* 13, 105–108.

Li, L., T. Shan, C. Wang, C. Cote, J. Kolman, D. Onions, F. M. D. Gulland, and E. Delwart, 2011: The fecal viral flora of California sea lions. *J. Virol.* 85, 9909–9917.

Madoff, S., R. T. Schooley, H. L. Ruhnke, R. A. D. Giudice, I. K. Barker, J. Geraci, A. S. Baker, and R. A. Del Giudice, 1982: *Mycoplasma pneumonia* in phocid (harbor) seals. *Rev. Infect. Dis.* 4, 241.

Maquart, M., P. Le Fleche, G. Foster, M. Tryland, F. Ramisse, B. Djonne, S. Al Dahouk, I. Jacques, H. Neubauer, K. Walravens, J. Godfroid, A. Cloeckaert, and G. Vergnaud, 2009: MLVA-16 typing of 295 marine mammal *Brucella* isolates from different animal and geographic origins identifies 7 major groups within *Brucella ceti* and *Brucella pinnipedialis*. *BMC Microbiol.* 9, 145.

McDonald, W. L., R. Jamaludin, G. Mackereth, M. Hansen, S. Humphrey, P. Short, T. Taylor, J. Swingler, C. E. Dawson, T. B. Waltzek et al. 532 © 2012 Blackwell Verlag GmbH Zoonoses and Public Health, 2012, 59, 521–535.
A. M. Whatmore, E. S. G. Robertson, and G. Simmons, 2006: Characterization of a Brucella sp strain as a marine-mammal type despite isolation from a patient with spinal osteomyelitis in New Zealand. J. Clin. Microbiol. 44, 4363–4370.

McLaughlin, J. B., J. Sobel, T. Lynn, E. Funk, and J. P. Midnight, 2004: Botulism type E outbreak associated with eating a beached whale, Alaska. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 10, 1685–1687.

Migaki, G., and S. R. Jones, 1983: Mycotic Diseases in Marine Mammals. In: Howard, E. B. (ed.), Pathobiology of Marine Mammal Diseases, 1st edn, pp. 1–25. CRC Press, Boca Raton.

Miller, W. G., L. G. Adams, T. A. Ficht, N. F. Cheville, J. A. Hernandez, P. A. Klein, and R. C. Condit, 2006b: Pathology and preliminary characterization of a parapoxvirus isolated from a California sea lion (Zalophus californianus). J. Zoo. Wildl. Med. 30, 100–110.

Moeller, R. B. Jr. 2002: Pathology of Marine Mammals with Special Reference to Infectious Diseases. In: Donald, A., E., Gardner and J. A. T., Wallace Hayes (eds), New Perspectives: Toxicology and the Environment. Toxicology of Marine Mammals, 1st edn, pp. 3–37. Taylor & Francis Inc., New York, NY.

Moser, I., W. M. Prodinger, H. Hotzel, R. Greenwald, K. R. Lyashchenko, D. Bakker, D. Gomis, T. Seidler, C. Ellenberger, U. Hetzelo, K. Wunnemann, and P. Moisson, 2008: Mycobacterium pinnipedii: transmission from South American sea lion (Otaria byronia) to Bactrian camel (Camelus bactrianus bactrianus) and Malayan tapirs (Tapirus indica). Vet. Microbiol. 127, 399–406.

Moss, B., 2001: Poxviridae: the Viruses and their Replication. In: Knipe, D. M. and P. M., Howley (eds), Fields Virology, pp. 2849–2883. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia.

Murphy, E., C., and G. H. Jarrell, 1983: Simulation studies of population trends in western Arctic bowhead whales. Intern. Whaling Comm. Rep. Comm. 33, 509–523.

Nollens, H. H., F. M. D. Gulland, E. R. Jacobson, J. A. Hernandez, P. A. Klein, M. T. Walsh, and R. C. Condit, 2006a: Parapoxviruses of seals and sea lions make up a distinct subclade within the genus Parapoxivirus. Virology 349, 316–324.

Nollens, H. H., E. R. Jacobson, F. M. D. Gulland, D. O. Beuse, G. D. Bossart, J. A. Hernandez, P. A. Klein, and R. C. Condit, 2006b: Pathology and preliminary characterization of a parapoxvirus isolated from a California sea lion (Zalophus californianus). J. Wildl. Dis. 42, 23–32.

Nollens, H. H., J. F. X. Wellehan, L. Archer, L. J. Lowenstein, and F. M. D. Gulland, 2010: Detection of a respiratory coronaviruses from tissues archived during a pneumonia epizootic in free ranging Pacific harbor seals Phoca vitulina richardsonii. Dis. Aquat. Org. 90, 113–120.

Norman, S. A., R. F. DiGiacomo, F. M. D. Gulland, J. S. Meschke, and M. S. Lowry, 2008: Risk factors for an outbreak of leptospirosis in California sea lions (Zalophus californianus) in California, 2004. J. Wildl. Dis. 44, 837–844.

Nymo, I. H., M. Tryland, and J. Godfroid, 2011: A review of Brucella infection in marine mammals, with special emphasis on Brucella pinnipedialis in the hooded seal (Cystophora cristata). Vet. Res. 4, 2.

Ohishi, K., A. Ninomiya, H. Kida, T. Maruyama, T. Ariai, and N. Miyazaki, 2003: Influenza virus infection in seal (Phocidae): seroepidemiological survey of influenza virus in Caspian seals (Phoca caspica). Comp. Immunol. Microbiol. 28, 39–44.

O’Mahony, R., Y. Abbott, F. C. Leonard, B. K. Markey, P. J. Quinn, P. J. Pollock, S. Fanning, and A. S. Rossney, 2005: Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) isolated from animals and veterinary personnel in Ireland. Vet. Microbiol. 109, 285–296.

Ostertag, R. J., A. Sheh, J. Shotton, P. A. Pesavento, and J. S. L. Parker, 2007: Feline caliciviruses (FCVs) isolated from cats with virulent systemic disease possess in vitro phenotypes distinct from those of other FCV isolates. J. Gen. Virol. 88, 506–517.

Osterhaus, A., G. F. Rimmelzwaan, B. E. E. Martina, T. M. Bestebroer, and R. A. M. Fouchier, 2002: Influenza B virus in seals. Science 288, 1051–1053.

Palacios, G., J. F. Wellehan, S. Raverty, A. V. Bussetti, J. Hui, N. Savji, H. Nollens, D. Lambourn, C. Celone, S. Hutchison, C. H. Calisher, O. Nielsen, and W. L. Lipkin, 2011: Discovery of an orthoreovirus in the aborted fetus of a Steller sea lion (Eumetopias jubatus). J. Gen. Virol. 92, 2549–2557.

Prenger-Berninghoff, E., U. Siebert, M. Stede, A. Koenig, R. Weiss, and G. Baljer, 2008: Incidence of Brucella species in marine mammals of the German north sea. Dis. Aquat. Org. 81, 65–71.

Quinn, P. J., and B. K. Markey, 2003: Concise Review of Veterinary Microbiology. Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Ames.

Rivera, R. H. H. Nollens, S. Venn-Watson, F. M. D. Gulland, and J. F. X. Wellehan Jr, 2010: Characterization of phylogenetically diverse astroviruses of marine mammals. J. Gen. Virol. 91, 166–173.

Robson, J. M., R. McDougall, S. van der Valk, S. D. Waite, and J. J. Sullivan, 1998: Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae: an uncommon but ever present zoonosis. Pathology 30, 391–394.

Ross, H. M., G. Foster, R. J. Reid, K. L. Jahans, and A. P. Macmillan, 1994: Brucella species infection in sea mammals. Vet. Rec. 134, 359–359.

Ruhnke, H. L., and S. Madoff, 1992: Mycoplasma phocidae sp. nov., isolated from Harbor seals (Phoca vitulina l). Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 42, 211–214.

Seibold, H. R., and J. E. Neal, 1956: Erysipelothrix septicemia in the porpoise. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 128, 537–539.

Simpson, C. F., F. G. Wood, and F. Young, 1958: Cutaneous lesions on a porpoise with erysipelas. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc. 133, 558–560.

Smith, A. W., T. G. Akers, S. H. Madin, and N. A. Vedros, 1973: San Miguel sea lion virus isolation, preliminary
characterization and relationship to vesicular exanthema of swine. *Nature* 244, 108–110.

Smith, A. W., and P. M. Boyt, 1990: Caliciviruses of ocean origin – A Review. *J. Zoo. Wildl. Med.* 21, 3–23.

Smith, A. W., R. J. Brown, D. E. Skilling, and R. L. Delong, 1974: *Leptospira pomona* and reproductive failure in California sea lions. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 165, 996–998.

Smith, A. W., R. J. Brown, D. E. Skilling, H. L. Bray, and M. C. Keyes, 1977: Naturally occurring Leptospirosis in Northern fur seals (*Callorhinus ursinus*). *J. Wildl. Dis.* 13, 144–148.

Smith, A. W., N. A. Vedros, G. Gilmartin, and T. G. Akers, 1978: Hazards of disease transfer from marine mammals to land mammals – review and recent findings. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 173, 1131–1133.

Smith, A. W., D. E. Skilling, and R. J. Brown, 1980: Preliminary investigation of a possible lung worm (*Parafilaroides decorus*), fish (*Girella nigricans*), and marine mammal (*Callorhinus ursinus*) cycle for San Miguel sea lion virus type 5. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* 41, 1846–1850.

Smith, A. W., D. E. Skilling, C. M. Prato, and H. L. Bray, 1981: Calicivirus (SMV-S-5) infection in experimentally inoculated opaleye fish (*Girella nigricans*) brief report. *Arch. Virol.* 67, 165–168.

Smith, A. W., D. E. Skilling, N. Cherry, J. H. Mead, and D. O. Matson, 1998: Calicivirus emergence from ocean reservoirs: zoonotic and interspecies movements. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 4, 13–20.

Smith, A. W., P. L. Iversen, D. E. Skilling, K. Bok, and D. O. Matson, 2006: Vesivirus viremia and seroprevalence in humans. *J. Med. Virol.* 78, 693–701.

Sohn, A. H., W. S. Probert, C. A. Glaser, N. Gupta, A. W. Bollen, J. D. Wong, E. M. Grace, and W. C. McDonald, 2003: Human neurobrucellosis with intracerebral granuloma caused by a marine mammal *Brucella* spp. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 9, 485–488.

Stadtländer, C., and S. Madoff, 1994: Characterization of cytopathogenicity of aquarium seal mycoplasmas and seal finger mycoplasmas by light and scanning electron microscopy. *Zentralblatt Fur Bakteriologie* 280, 458–467.

Stamper, M. A., F. M. D. Gulland, and T. Spraker, 1998: Leptospirosis in rehabilitated Pacific harbor seals from California. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 34, 407–410.

Suer, L. D., and N. A. Vedros, 1988: *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*. I. Isolation and characterization from pinnipeds and bite abrasion wounds in humans. *Dis. Aqu. Org.* 5, 1–5.

Sundeen, S., and V. Cleeve, 2011: Isolation of *Bisgaardia huidsonensis* from a seal bite. Case report and review of the literature on seal finger. *J. Infect.* 63, 86–88.

Sweeney, J. C., 1974: Common diseases of pinnipeds. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 165, 805–810.

Sweeney, J. C., and S. H. Ridgway, 1975: Common diseases of small cetaceans. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 167, 533–540.

Sweeney, J. C., G. Migaki, P. M. Vainik, and R. H. Conklin, 1976: Systemic mycoses in marine mammals. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 169, 946–948.

Symmers, W. S. C., 1983: A possible case of Lobo’s disease acquired in Europe from a bottle-nosed dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*). *Bull. Soc. Pathol. Exot.* 76, 777–784.

Thompson, P. J., D. V. Cousins, B. L. Gow, D. M. Collins, B. H. Williamson, and H. T. Dagnia, 1993: Seals, seal trainers, and mycobacterial infection. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* 147, 164–167.

Thurman, G. D., S. J. T. Downes, M. B. Fothergill, N. M. Goodwin, and M. M. Hegarty, 1983: Diagnosis and successful treatment of subacute erysipelas in a captive dolphin. *J. S. Afr. Vet. Assoc.* 54, 193–200.

Tryland, M., 2000: Zoonoses of arctic marine mammals. *Infect. Dis. Rev.* 2, 55–64.

Van Bonn, W., E. D. Jensen, C. House, J. A. House, T. Burrage, and D. A. Gregg, 2000: Epizootic vesicular disease in captive California sea lions. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 36, 500–507.

Van Bressem, M. F., K. Van Waerebeek, J. C. Reyes, D. Degeel, and P. P. Pastoret, 1993: Evidence of poxvirus in dusky dolphin (*Lagenorhynchus obscurus*) and burmeister porpoise (*Phocoena spinipinnis*) from coastal Peru. *J. Wildl. Dis.* 29, 109–113.

Van Bressem, M.-F., J. Antonio Raga, G. Di Guardo, P. D. Jepson, P. J. Duignan, U. Siebert, T. Barrett, M. C. de Oliveira Santos, I. B. Moreno, S. Siciliano, A. Aguilar, and K. Van Waerebeek, 2009: Emerging infectious diseases in cetaceans worldwide and the possible role of environmental stressors. *Dis. Aquat. Org.* 86, 143–157.

Vedros, N. A., A. W. Smith, J. Schonewa, G. Migaki, and R. C. Hubbard, 1971: Leptospirosis epizootic among California sea lions. *Science* 172, 1250–1251.

Volkhov, D. V., T. Norris, C. Rios, M. K. Davidson, J. B. Messick, F. M. Gulland, and V. E. Chizhikov, 2011: Novel hemotropic mycoplasma identified in naturally infected California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*). *Vet. Microbiol.* 149, 262–268.

Wang, Q. N., B. J. Chang, and T. V. Riley, 2010: *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*. *Vet. Microbiol.* 140, 405–417.

Webster, R. G., J. Geraci, G. Petursson, and K. Skirnisson, 1981: Conjunctivitis in human beings caused by influenza A virus of seals. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 304, 911–911.

Wellehan, J. F. X. Jr, F. Yu, S. K. Venn-Watson, E. D. Jensen, C. R. Smith, W. G. Farmerie, and H. H. Nollens, 2010: Characterization of San Miguel Sea Lion Virus populations using pyrosequencing based methods. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* 10, 254–260.

Wellehan, J. F. X. Jr, R. Rivera, L. L. Archer, C. Benham, J. K. Muller, K. M. Colegrove, F. M. D. Gulland, J. A. S. Leger, S. K. Venn-Watson, and H. H. Nollens, 2011: Characterization of California sea lion polyomavirus 1: expansion of the known host range of the Polyomaviridae to Carnivora. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* 11, 987–996.

Williamson, W. M., L. S. Lombard, and R. E. Getty, 1959: North American blastomycosis in a northern sea lion. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 135, 513–515.
Wilson, T. M., and I. Poglayen-Neuwall, 1971: Pox in South American sea lions (Otaria byronia). Can. J. Comp. Med. 35, 174–177.

Woolhouse, M. E. J., and S. Gowtage-Sequeria, 2005: Host range and emerging and reemerging pathogens. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 11, 1842–1847.

Wuenschmann, A., A. Armien, N. B. Harris, B. A. Brown-Elliot, R. J. Wallace Jr, J. Rasmussen, M. Willette, and T. Wolf, 2008: Disseminated panniculitis in a bottlenose dolphin (Tursiops truncatus) due to Mycobacterium chelonae infection. J. Zoo. Wildl. Med. 39, 412–420.

Zuerner, R. L., C. E. Cameron, S. Raverty, J. Robinson, K. M. Colegrove, S. A. Norman, D. Lambourn, S. Jeffries, D. P. Alt, and F. Gulland, 2009: Geographical dissemination of Leptospira interrogans serovar Pomona during seasonal migration of California sea lions. Vet. Microbiol. 137, 105–110.

Zwick, L. S., M. B. Briggs, S. S. Tunev, C. A. Lichtensteiger, and R. D. Murnane, 2000: Disseminated blastomycosis in two California sea lions (Zalophus californianus). J. Zoo. Wildl. Med. 31, 211–214.