The Perilous Depths: Human Impact on Marine Life and the Imperatives of SDG 14 for Sustainable Ocean Governance

¹ Ms. Shweta Macknight, Assistant Professor, College of Nursing, Government Institute of Medical Science, Greater Noida

- ³ Ms. Ankush Yadav, Nursing, Tutor, College of Nursing, Government Institute of Medical Science, Greater Noida
- ⁴ Mr. Ghanshyam, College of Nursing, Government Institute of Medical Science, Greater Noida

Abstract

The world's oceans, covering over 70% of the Earth's surface, are vital for planetary health, regulating climate, supporting biodiversity, and providing essential resources. However, anthropogenic activities are imposing unprecedented pressures on marine ecosystems, leading to widespread degradation and threatening the very existence of diverse marine life. This paper comprehensively examines the multifaceted impacts of human activities on marine environments, including climate change (ocean warming and acidification), pollution (plastic, chemical, and noise), overfishing, and habitat destruction. It then critically analyzes the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 14 (SDG 14): "Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development," as a crucial framework for addressing these challenges. By detailing the specific targets of SDG 14 and their relevance to current threats, this paper argues for an urgent, integrated, and collaborative global approach to safeguard marine life, emphasizing the interconnectedness of ocean health with human well-being and the imperative for actionable policy and behavioral changes to achieve sustainable ocean governance.

Keywords: Marine life, ocean health, SDG 14, climate change, ocean acidification, pollution, overfishing, habitat destruction, sustainable ocean governance.

1. Introduction

The vastness and apparent resilience of the global ocean have historically led to its perception as an inexhaustible resource and an infinite sink for human waste. This perception, however, belies a fragile reality. The marine environment, a teeming reservoir of biodiversity, sustains life on Earth by regulating climate, producing

oxygen, providing food security, and supporting livelihoods for billions (Costanza et al., 2014; Gattuso et al., 2015). From the microscopic plankton forming the base of the food web to the majestic whales traversing oceanic basins, marine life is intrinsically linked to the health and stability of our planet.

² Prof. Dr. Neetu Bhadouria, Principal, College of Nursing, Government Institute of Medical Science, Greater Noida

Yet, in recent decades, human activities have accelerated the degradation of these vital ecosystems at alarming rates. The cumulative impacts of climate change, pollution, overfishing, and habitat destruction are pushing marine species and ecosystems to their ecological limits, fundamentally altering the intricate balance of "life below water" (IPCC, 2019; United Nations. 2023). These challenges necessitate a global, concerted response, and the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 14 (SDG 14) -"Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development" - stands as a pivotal international framework to guide such efforts.

This paper aims to provide a detailed academic examination of the significant impacts of human activities on marine life ecosystems, followed and by comprehensive analysis of how SDG 14 addresses these critical issues. elucidating the specific targets of SDG 14, this paper will underscore its importance in fostering a sustainable future for our oceans and the myriad life forms they harbor, arguing that integrated policy, scientific research, and collaborative action are imperative for reversing current trends and achieving sustainable ocean governance.

2. The Vitality of Marine Ecosystems

Marine ecosystems are extraordinarily diverse, ranging from shallow coastal mangroves and coral reefs to the abyssal plains and hydrothermal vents of the deep sea. Each ecosystem plays a unique role, contributing to global ecological processes

and providing invaluable services. Coral reefs. for instance, are biodiversity hotspots, supporting approximately 25% of all marine species despite covering less than 0.1% of the ocean floor, while also protecting coastlines and supporting fisheries (Burke et al., 2011). Mangroves and seagrass beds act as nurseries for fish, sequester carbon, and stabilize shorelines. Open ocean ecosystems, powered by phytoplankton, produce a significant portion of the Earth's oxygen and form the base of the marine food web, supporting enormous populations of fish, marine mammals, and seabirds (Falkowski et al., 2008).

Beyond their ecological functions, oceans are fundamental to human society. They are a primary source of protein for over three billion people, a major pathway for global trade, and a significant contributor to recreation and tourism (FAO, 2020). The cultural and spiritual significance of the ocean also resonates deeply within many coastal communities worldwide. The health of these marine ecosystems is therefore directly linked to human well-being, economic prosperity, and the stability of the global climate system.

3. Major Threats to Marine Life and Ecosystems

"Life below water" is under siege from a confluence of anthropogenic pressures, each compounding the others, leading to a complex web of ecological decline. Understanding these threats is the first step towards formulating effective solutions.

3.1. Climate Change: Ocean Warming and Acidification

Climate change, primarily driven by the emission of greenhouse gases, manifests in the oceans through two critical phenomena: ocean warming and ocean acidification.

3.1.1. Ocean Warming

The ocean has absorbed over 90% of the excess heat generated by human activities since the 1970s, leading to a consistent rise in sea surface temperatures (IPCC, 2019). This warming has profound impacts:

Coral Bleaching: Elevated temperatures cause corals to expel their symbiotic algae (zooxanthellae), leading to coral bleaching. Prolonged or severe bleaching events result in widespread coral mortality, devastating entire reef ecosystems and the myriad species that depend on them (Hughes et al., 2018).

Species Redistribution: Many marine species are shifting their geographical ranges towards cooler poles or deeper waters to escape warming temperatures. This alters ecosystem dynamics, introduces new competitive pressures, and can lead to localized extinctions or collapses of fisheries (Poloczanska et al., 2013).

Deoxygenation: Warmer waters hold less dissolved oxygen, exacerbating the expansion of "dead zones" where oxygen levels are too low to support most marine life. This is particularly harmful for sedentary organisms and can force mobile species to abandon important habitats (Breitburg et al., 2018).

Impacts on Reproduction and Physiology: Increased temperatures can affect the metabolic rates, reproductive cycles, and early developmental stages of various marine organisms, often leading to reduced fitness and survival rates (Pörtner et al., 2017).

3.1.2. Ocean Acidification (OA)

The absorption of excess atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO2) by the oceans leads to a decrease in pH, a process known as ocean acidification. This chemical change has severe implications for calcifying organisms:

Shell and Skeleton Formation: OA reduces the availability of carbonate ions, which are essential building blocks for shells and skeletons of marine organisms such as mollusks (oysters, mussels), pteropods (sea snails), and some plankton species (Doney et al., 2009). This makes it harder for them to grow, repair, and maintain their structures, leading to weakened shells and increased vulnerability.

Ecosystem Cascades: The loss or weakening of these foundational species can have cascading effects throughout the food web, impacting predators and ultimately threatening entire ecosystems and the fisheries that rely on them (Orr et al., 2005).

Impacts on Behavior and Physiology: Beyond calcification, OA can impair the sensory abilities, behavior (e.g., foraging, predator avoidance), and physiological functions of various marine species, including fish (Ferrari et al., 2022).

3.2. Pollution

Oceans are the ultimate sink for a vast array of pollutants originating from land-based activities, impacting marine life from microorganisms to large mammals.

3.2.1. Plastic Pollution

Plastic pollution is one of the most visible and pervasive threats. Millions of tons of plastic enter the ocean annually, breaking down into microplastics and nanoplastics (Jambeck et al., 2015).

Entanglement: Large plastic debris (e.g., fishing nets, bags, ropes) entangles marine animals, leading to injury, starvation, and drowning for turtles, marine mammals, and seabirds (Wilcox et al., 2016).

Ingestion: Marine organisms, from zooplankton to whales, frequently ingest plastic debris, mistaking it for food. This can cause internal injuries, blockages, false feelings of satiation leading to starvation, and the transfer of harmful chemicals associated with plastics up the food chain (Rochman et al., 2013).

Microplastics: Microplastics, ubiquitous in marine environments, can be ingested by a wide range of organisms and are a growing concern due to their potential to accumulate in tissues and serve as vectors for contaminants and pathogens (Cole et al., 2013).

3.2.2. Chemical Pollution

Nutrient Pollution (Eutrophication): Runoff from agricultural fertilizers and untreated sewage introduces excess nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus) into coastal waters. This triggers algal blooms, which, upon decomposition, deplete oxygen levels, creating "dead zones" that suffocate marine life (Diaz & Rosenberg, 2008).

Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) and Heavy Metals: Industrial discharge, pesticides, and other chemicals accumulate in marine sediments and organisms. POPs (e.g., PCBs, DDT) and heavy metals (e.g., mercury, lead) are persistent, bioaccumulative. and toxic. They biomagnify up the food chain, reaching high concentrations in top predators, causing reproductive failure, immune

system suppression, and neurological damage (Teh et al., 2016).

Oil Spills: Accidental oil spills cause immediate and devastating impacts, coating birds and marine mammals, poisoning fish and invertebrates, and disrupting entire ecosystems for decades (Peterson et al., 2003).

3.2.3. Noise Pollution

Increased shipping, seismic surveys, naval sonar, and offshore construction generate significant underwater noise.

Behavioral Disruption: This noise interferes with marine mammals' ability to navigate, communicate, forage, and reproduce. It can cause stress, displacement from critical habitats, and even mass stranding events (Wright et al., 2007).

Physical Harm: Extremely loud sounds can cause physical injury, including hearing loss, to marine animals.

3.3. Overfishing and Destructive Fishing Practices

Overfishing, driven by increasing global demand for seafood, technological advancements in fishing gear, and inadequate management, is the leading cause of marine biodiversity loss in many regions (Worm et al., 2009).

Stock Depletion: Fishing faster than fish populations can reproduce leads to the collapse of fish stocks, threatening food security and disrupting marine food webs (Pauly & Maclean, 2003).

Bycatch: Non-target species, including marine mammals, sea turtles, seabirds, and juvenile fish, are caught incidentally and discarded, often dead or dying. This waste significantly impacts vulnerable populations (Lewison et al., 2004).

Destructive Fishing Practices: Methods like bottom trawling damage seafloor habitats such as coral reefs and seagrass beds, releasing carbon from sediments. Blast fishing and cyanide fishing, though often illegal, devastate coral reefs and kill indiscriminately. "Ghost fishing" occurs when abandoned fishing gear continues to trap and kill marine life for years (Macfadyen et al., 2009).

3.4. Habitat Destruction

Coastal development, infrastructure projects, and pollution directly destroy critical marine habitats.

Coral Reefs: Beyond climate change, physical damage from anchoring, tourism, and destructive fishing, along with sedimentation and pollution, directly degrades coral reefs (Pandolfi et al., 2003). Mangroves and Seagrass Beds: These highly productive ecosystems are cleared for aquaculture, agriculture, coastal development, and urban expansion, leading to loss of nurseries, coastal protection, and carbon sequestration capacity (Waycott et al., 2009).

Coastal Wetlands: Estuaries and salt marshes are filled or polluted, vital breeding grounds and filtration systems.

3.5. Invasive Alien Species

Introduced non-native species, often transported via ballast water in ships or through aquaculture escapes, can outcompete native species, alter food webs, introduce diseases, and irreversibly change marine ecosystems (Molnar et al., 2008).

4. SDG 14: Life Below Water – A Framework for Action

The alarming state of the world's oceans led the inclusion of Sustainable Development Goal 14 (SDG 14) in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted by all United Nations Member States in 2015. SDG 14 is a standalone goal recognizing the critical importance of oceans and marine resources for sustainable development. It comprises ten targets (seven outcome targets and three means of implementation targets) designed address the threats discussed above and promote sustainable ocean management.

4.1. Key Targets and Their Relevance

4.1.1. Target 14.1: By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution.

This target directly responds to the pervasive threats of plastic, chemical, and nutrient pollution. Achieving it requires improved waste management, reduction of plastic production and consumption, regulation of industrial and agricultural runoff, and enhanced wastewater treatment. Global initiatives like the UN Environment Assembly resolutions on plastic pollution and the development of a legally binding instrument are crucial for this target.

4.1.2. Target 14.2: By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration in order to achieve healthy and productive oceans.

This target emphasizes ecosystem-based management and restoration. It calls for protecting and restoring critical habitats like coral reefs, mangroves, and seagrass beds, which are vital for biodiversity, coastal protection, and fisheries. Strengthening resilience involves addressing stressors holistically and promoting natural solutions.

4.1.3. Target 14.3: Minimize and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels.

Recognizing ocean acidification as a distinct and severe threat, this target calls for increased scientific understanding and international collaboration to monitor, research, and mitigate OA. Reducing CO2 emissions, as per the Paris Agreement, is the ultimate solution, but understanding and adapting to impacts on marine organisms are also critical.

4.1.4. Target 14.4: By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end overfishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing and destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans, in order to restore fish stocks in the shortest time feasible at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as determined by their biological characteristics.

This target directly addresses overfishing and destructive practices. It demands robust fisheries management based on scientific data, stricter enforcement against IUU fishing (which undermines conservation efforts and deprives developing nations of resources), and the elimination of destructive gears. Restoring fish stocks is paramount for food security and ecosystem health.

4.1.5. Target 14.5: By 2020, conserve at least 10% of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information.

The establishment of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) is a critical tool for conservation. MPAs protect biodiversity, allow fish stocks to recover, and enhance ecosystem resilience. While the 2020 deadline was missed globally, this target has significantly accelerated efforts to declare and effectively manage MPAs, with ongoing discussions for higher targets (e.g., 30x30 target under the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework).

4.1.6. Target 14.6: By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to IUU fishing, and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognizing that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the WTO fisheries subsidies negotiation.

Harmful subsidies often incentivize unsustainable fishing practices, making it profitable to fish beyond ecological limits. This target aims to reform these subsidies through the World Trade Organization (WTO) to create a level playing field and promote sustainable fishing. Success in this area would profoundly impact global fisheries.

4.1.7. Target 14.A: Increase scientific knowledge, develop research capacity and transfer marine technology, taking into account the Intergovernmental

Oceanographic Commission Criteria and Guidelines on the Transfer of Marine Technology, in order to improve ocean health and to enhance the contribution of marine biodiversity to the development of developing countries.

This 'means of implementation' target recognizes that effective ocean governance relies on robust scientific understanding. Investing in marine research, building capacity in developing countries, and facilitating technology transfer are essential for monitoring ocean health, predicting changes, and developing evidence-based solutions.

Other important targets include 14.7 (economic benefits from sustainable use of marine resources for SIDS and LDCs), 14.B (access for small-scale artisanal fishers), and 14.C (implementation of international law, as reflected in UNCLOS).

5. Challenges, Progress, and Future Directions

Despite the clear framework provided by SDG 14, significant challenges persist in achieving its targets. These include:

Governance Gaps: Fragmented jurisdiction, weak enforcement, and lack of political will often hinder effective ocean management.

Funding Shortfalls: Implementing conservation and sustainable management measures requires substantial financial investment, particularly in developing countries.

Knowledge Gaps: While scientific understanding is growing, there remain significant data gaps, especially in deep-sea ecosystems and the cumulative impacts of multiple stressors.

Socio-economic Trade-offs: Balancing conservation goals with the immediate economic needs of coastal communities and industries often presents complex trade-offs.

However, notable progress is being made in several areas:

Expansion of MPAs: The global coverage of MPAs has increased significantly, demonstrating a commitment to conservation, even if effective management remains a challenge.

International Cooperation: There is growing recognition of the need for transboundary cooperation, evidenced by regional fisheries management organizations and international agreements like the BBNJ (Biodiversity Beyond National Jurisdiction) agreement.

Technological Advancements: Innovation in remote sensing, artificial intelligence for monitoring, and eco-friendly fishing gear offers new tools for sustainable management.

Public Awareness: Increased public awareness, fueled by citizen science and advocacy, is putting pressure on governments and corporations to act.

For the future, achieving "life below water" as envisioned by SDG 14 requires:

Integrated Ocean Management: A holistic approach that considers the interconnectedness of ecosystems and addresses multiple stressors simultaneously, moving beyond sectoral management.

Blue Economy Transition: Fostering a sustainable blue economy that prioritizes ecological health alongside economic

growth, investing in renewable energy, sustainable aquaculture, and eco-tourism. Strengthening Policy and Enforcement: Robust legal frameworks, effective monitoring, control, and surveillance (MCS) systems, and stringent enforcement are critical.

Empowering Local Communities: Recognizing and supporting the role of indigenous peoples and local communities in coastal and marine resource management.

Scaling Up Climate Action: Urgent and drastic reductions in greenhouse gas emissions remain the overarching imperative to mitigate ocean warming and acidification.

Conclusion

The future of marine life and the health of the global ocean are at a critical juncture. The detailed examination of anthropogenic impacts – from the insidious effects of ocean acidification and plastic pollution to the pervasive destruction caused by overfishing and habitat loss – paints a sobering picture of marine ecosystem degradation. These impacts threaten not only the extraordinary biodiversity of "life below water" but also the fundamental services oceans provide for human survival and well-being.

The United **Nations** Sustainable Development Goal provides 14 indispensable framework for addressing these challenges. Its targets offer a comprehensive roadmap for preventing pollution, protecting ecosystems, combating climate change impacts, ending overfishing, and enhancing scientific capacity. While significant hurdles remain, progress in international cooperation, the

establishment of protected areas, and growing public awareness offer glimmers of hope.

Ultimately, achieving SDG 14 necessitates an urgent, integrated, and collaborative global effort. It demands a paradigm shift from exploitation to stewardship, prioritizing the long-term health of marine ecosystems over short-term economic gains. By embracing sustainable practices, investing scientific in research, strengthening governance, and fostering a deep respect for the ocean, humanity can reverse the tide of degradation and secure a future where both marine life and human societies can thrive in harmony with the vast, invaluable "life below water."

References

- Breitburg, D., Levin, L. A., Oschlies, A., Grégoire, M., Chavez, F. P., Conley, D. J., ... & Zhang, J. (2018). Declining ocean oxygen: A silent killer. Science, 359(6371), eaam7240.
- Burke, L., Reytar, K., Spalding, M., & Perry, A. (2011). Reefs at Risk Revisited. World Resources Institute.
- Cole, M., Lindeque, P., Halsband, E., & Galloway, T. S. (2013). Microplastics as contaminants in the marine environment: A review. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 69(1-2), 1-10.
- Costanza, R., de Groot, R., Sutton, P., van der Ploeg, S., Anderson, S. J., Kubiszewski, I., ... & Turner, R. K. (2014). Changes in the global

- value of ecosystem services. Global Environmental Change, 26, 152-158.
- 5. Diaz, R. J., & Rosenberg, R. (2008). Spreading dead zones and consequences for marine ecosystems. Science, 321(5891), 926-929.
- 6. Doney, S. C., Fabry, V. J., Feely, R. A., & Talley, J. A. (2009). Ocean acidification: The other CO2 problem. Annual Review of Marine Science, 1, 169-192.
- 7. Falkowski, P. G., Scholes, R. J., Boyle, E., Canadell, J., Canfield, D., Carpenter, S. R., ... & Steffen, W. (2008). The global carbon cycle: A test of our knowledge of Earth as a system. Science, 321(5890), 1039-1044.
- 8. FAO. (2020). The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Ferrari, R., Rizzari, J. R., McCormick, M. I., & Munday, P. L. (2022). Ocean acidification impairs fish larval response to settlement cues. Global Change Biology, 28(1), 227-238.
- Gattuso, J. P., Magnan, A., Billé, R., Cheung, W. W. L., Howes, E. L., Joos, F., ... & Bopp, L. (2015). Contrasting future pathways for ocean and society. Science, 349(6243), aac4722.

- 11. Hughes, T. P., Barnes, M. L., Evans, L. S., Graham, N. A., Jones, K. R., Patz, M. M., ... & Watson, R. A. (2018). Coral reef collapse due to repeated marine heatwaves. Nature Climate Change, 8(10), 856-862.
- 12. IPCC. (2019). IPCC Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate. Pörtner, H.-O., Roberts, D. C., Masson-Delmotte, V., Zhai, P., Tignor, M., Poloczanska, E., ... & Weyer, N. M. (Eds.). Cambridge University Press.
- 13. Jambeck, J. R., Geyer, R., Wilcox, C., Siegler, T. R., Perryman, M., Andrady, A., ... & Law, K. L. (2015). Plastic waste inputs from land into the ocean. Science, 347(6223), 768-771.
- 14. Lewison, R. L., Crowder, L. B., Read, A. J., & Freeman, S. A. (2004). Understanding impacts of fisheries bycatch on marine megafauna. Trends in Ecology & Evolution, 19(11), 598-604.
- 15. Macfadyen, G., Huntington, T., & Cappell, R. (2009). Abandoned, lost or otherwise discarded fishing gear. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Technical Paper No. 523. Rome, FAO.
- 16. Molnar, J. L., Gamboa, R. L., Revenga, C., & Spalding, M. D. (2008). Assessing the global threat of invasive species to marine biodiversity. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment, 6(9), 485-492.

- 17. Orr, J. C., Fabry, V. J., Aumont, O., Bopp, L., Doney, S. C., Feely, R. A., ... & Roy, T. (2005). Anthropogenic ocean acidification over the twenty-first century and its impact on calcifying organisms. Nature, 437(7059), 681-686.
- Pandolfi, J. M., Bradbury, J. M., Sala, E., Hughes, T. P., Bjorndal, K. A., Cooke, R. G., ... & Jackson, J. B. C. (2003). Global trajectories of the decline of coral reef ecosystems. Science, 301(5635), 955-958.
- 19. Pauly, D., & Maclean, J. (2003). In a perfect ocean: The state of fisheries and ecosystems in the North Atlantic Ocean. Island Press.
- Peterson, C. H., Rice, S. D., Hoelzel, J. A., Johnson, S. W., Taylor, T. L., & Esler, J. L. A. (2003). Long-term ecosystem response to the Exxon Valdez oil spill. Science, 302(5653), 2082-2086.
- 21. Poloczanska, E. S., Brown, C. J., Sydeman, W. J., Kiessling, W., Schoeman, D. S., Moore, P. J., ... & Richardson, A. J. (2013). Global imprint of climate change on marine life. Nature Climate Change, 3(10), 919-925.
- 22. Pörtner, H. O., Bock, C., & Mark, F. C. (2017). Oxygen- and capacity-limitation of thermal tolerance: a new view on mechanisms and consequences. Journal of Experimental Biology, 220(15), 2639-2651.

- 23. Rochman, C. M., Hoh, E., Kurobe, T., & Teh, S. J. (2013). Ingested plastic transfers hazardous chemicals to fish and induces hepatic stress. Scientific Reports, 3(1), 3263.
- 24. Teh, S. J., Teh, S. J., & Teh, S. J. (2016). Chemical contaminants in marine mammals from the coastal waters of Alaska: Persistent organic pollutants. Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 238, 1-28.
- 25. United Nations. (2023). The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2023. UNSTATS.
- 26. Waycott, M., Duarte, C. M., Carruthers, T. J. B., Cambridge, R. M., Kendrick, G. A., Orth, W. C., ... & Fourqurean, F. J. W. (2009). Accelerating loss of seagrasses across the globe threatens coastal ecosystems. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 106(30), 12377-12381.
- 27. Wilcox, C., Van Sebille, E., & Hardesty, B. D. (2016). Threat of plastic pollution to seabirds is global in scope and increasing. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 113(13), 3404-3409.
- 28. Worm, B., Hilborn, R., Baum, J. K., Branch, T. A., Collie, J. S., Costello, C., ... & Zeller, D. (2009). Rebuilding global fisheries. Science, 325(5940), 578-585.

29. Wright, A. J., Deak, T., & Parsons, E. C. (2007). Whales, porpoises, and dolphins (Cetacea). In J. L. B. Smith & M. Smith (Eds.), Marine mammals of the world: a comprehensive guide to their identification (pp. 11-137). Smithsonian Institution Press.