

DDE Poisoning in an Adult Bald Eagle

Authors: Garcelon, David K., and Thomas, Nancy J.

Source: Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 33(2) : 299-303

Published By: Wildlife Disease Association

URL: <https://doi.org/10.7589/0090-3558-33.2.299>

BioOne Complete (complete.BioOne.org) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at www.bioone.org/terms-of-use.

Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.

SHORT COMMUNICATIONS

Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 33(2), 1997, pp. 299-303
© Wildlife Disease Association 1997

DDE Poisoning in an Adult Bald Eagle

David K. Garcelon¹ and Nancy J. Thomas,^{2,1} Institute for Wildlife Studies, P.O. Box 1104, Arcata, California 95518, USA; ² National Biological Service, National Wildlife Health Center, 6006 Schroeder Road, Madison, Wisconsin 53711, USA

ABSTRACT: A 12-year-old female bald eagle (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*) was found in May 1993 on Santa Catalina Island, California (USA), in a debilitated condition, exhibiting ataxia and tremors; it died within hours. On necropsy, the bird was emaciated but had no evidence of disease or physical injury. Chemical analyses were negative for organophosphorus pesticides and lead poisoning. High concentrations of DDE (wet weight basis) were found in the brain (212 ppm), liver (838 ppm), and serum (53 ppm). Mobilization of DDE, from depleted fat deposits, probably resulted in the lethal concentration in the eagle's brain.

Key words: DDE, poisoning, organochlorine, bald eagle, *Haliaeetus leucocephalus*, mortality, California.

The organochlorine compound *p,p'*-DDE [2,2-bis(*p*-chlorophenyl)-1,1-dichloroethylene] (DDE), a metabolite of the agricultural pesticide DDT [1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-bis(*p*-chlorophenyl)ethane], has been closely associated with reproductive impairment in bald eagles (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*) (Wiemeyer et al., 1993). After the 1972 ban on use of DDT in the United States, bald eagle populations recovered in most areas of the United States and Canada (Henny and Anthony, 1989), but bald eagle reproduction in some areas continues to be affected because of the long persistence of DDE in the environment (Anthony et al., 1993). While DDT was never used on Santa Catalina Island, DDE transported in the tissues of seabirds and marine mammals feeding in contaminated waters near mainland California is the likely pathway of DDE to the eagles (Garcelon et al., 1989).

There is little published evidence of potential lethal effects of DDE on post-embryonic bald eagles. Stickel et al. (1966) conducted experiments determining DDT

toxicity in captive bald eagles, but no similar dose/response experiments have been conducted for DDE in bald eagles. In this paper we report on a wild adult bald eagle which probably died due to elevated levels of DDE in the brain.

On 28 May 1993, a banded 12-yr-old female bald eagle was recovered on the east end of Santa Catalina Island, California (USA) (33°18'N 118°18'W). On the day of recovery, two eagles were observed in a confrontation on the ground, with one bird on top of the other. The altercation stopped when the birds were approached, and one eagle flew away. The remaining eagle was recovered and examined by a veterinarian. The eagle had signs of a central nervous system disorder, including positional nystagmus, ataxia, body feathers held erect, and uncontrolled tremors. Muscle and fat on the sternum were depleted. The bird had no obvious injuries other than minor facial lacerations. Eleven ml of blood were drawn from the brachial vein; 2 ml were placed in a tube containing anticoagulant for analysis to detect organophosphorus pesticides and lead, and 9 ml were placed in a tube with no anticoagulant and centrifuged to obtain serum for analysis of DDT and metabolites and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs). The blood samples were kept frozen until laboratory analyses were performed.

The eagle was infused intravenously with 10 mg of the corticosteroid dexamethasone sodium phosphate (Victor Medical Co., Irvine, California) in 55 ml lactated Ringers Solution (LRS) over approximately 3 min. Approximately 3 hr later 150 mg of calcium ethylenediamine-

tracetate (Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, Illinois, USA), a chelating agent used to treat lead poisoning, was given intravenously with an additional 25 ml LRS. The bird was placed in a large cardboard box and kept in a warm dark area. The bird was found dead the following morning.

The carcass was stored at -10 C and later sent to the National Wildlife Health Center (NWHC) in Madison, Wisconsin (USA), where a necropsy was performed. Samples of lung, liver, kidney, spleen, and heart were fixed in 10% buffered formalin, and embedded in paraffin; 5 μm sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin for light microscopic examination. Samples of lung and liver were inoculated onto 5% sheep blood agar plates (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Michigan, USA) for bacterial isolation. Virus isolation from lung and liver tissue was attempted by the method of Docherty and Solta (1988). Brain, liver, and skeletal muscle were collected for chemical analysis and stored at -20 C .

Blood was analyzed for a variety of environmental contaminants. Analyses of serum for organophosphorus and carbamate pesticides and lead were conducted at the University of California Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory (UCVDL) in San Bernardino, California. Cholinesterase (ChE) activity was tested using the methods described by Tor et al. (1994), with a detection limit of 0.1 $\mu\text{M}/\text{ml}/\text{minute}$. Blood was screened for 42 organophosphorus insecticides using methods described by Holstege et al. (1994). Blood lead concentration was examined using atomic absorption spectrometry with sensitivity of 0.05 to 0.06 ppm.

Post-mortem testing for brain ChE activity and lead concentration in the liver was conducted at the NWHC. Brain ChE activity was analyzed according to Ellman et al. (1961) and as later modified by Dieter and Ludke (1975) and Hill and Fleming (1982). The ChE activity was compared with normal published values (Hill, 1988) or control values determined by the NWHC (Smith et al., 1995). Liver lead

residue was determined according to Boyer (1984), with a detection limit of 0.25 ppm, on a wet weight basis.

Analyses of tissues for DDTs and PCBs were conducted at the Geochemical and Environmental Research Group (Texas A & M, College Station, Texas, USA). Tissue samples were macerated in 100 ml methylene chloride and 30 to 50 g of sodium sulfate. The eluate was dried with sodium sulfate and purified using alumina to remove matrix interferences. A silica gel/alumina column and a Hewlett Packard Liquid Chromatography or Gel Permeation Chromatograph (ABC Laboratories, Columbia, Missouri, USA) were used if further purification was required. Chlorinated hydrocarbons concentrations were determined using high resolution capillary gas chromatography with electron capture detection (GC/ECD). The GC/ECD utilized 30-m \times 0.25-mm fused silica capillary column with DB-5 and DB-17 bonded phase columns (J & W Scientific, Folsom, California). Detection limits for DDTs and PCBs were 0.0001 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$. Concentrations of all contaminants were reported in parts per million (ppm) on a wet weight basis. Total PCB values were reported as the sum of concentrations for all congeners detected. For comparative purposes, concentrations of contaminants in serum (collected in this study) were considered equal to plasma concentrations, and both serum and plasma concentrations were considered twice that of whole blood (Wiemeyer et al., 1989).

On necropsy, the bird had a complete lack of subcutaneous, abdominal, coronary, and perirenal fat. Fat within the stifle joints had undergone serious atrophy and the pectoral muscles were moderately atrophied. No evidence of disease or debilitating injury were found on gross or microscopic examination. No bacteria or viruses were isolated. Concentrations of DDE in the brain, liver, serum, and skeletal muscle were highly elevated (Table 1); PCBs also occurred in the tissues sampled (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Concentrations of contaminants (ppm of wet weight) found in the tissues of an adult female bald eagle recovered on Santa Catalina Island, California, May 1993.

Tissue	Contaminant concentration (ppm, wet weight)				Percent lipid	Percent water
	p,p'-DDE	p,p'-DDD	p,p'-DDT	PCBs ^a		
Serum	53.0	0.14	0.11	26.0	0.43	97.7
Brain	212.5	ND ^b	0.1	58.6	1.5	80.7
Liver	838.3	ND	0.1	294.0	2.1	71.4
Skeletal muscle	317.5	ND	0.02	3.9	3.0	57.9

^a Total PCBs: sum of 45 PCB congeners.

^b ND = not detected.

The ChE activity in brain and blood samples was not inhibited (brain = 14.7 $\mu\text{M}/\text{ml}/\text{min}$; blood = 0.11 $\mu\text{M}/\text{ml}/\text{min}$); thus there was no evidence for organophosphorus or carbamate poisoning. None of 42 organophosphorus insecticides included in the analysis were found at detectable levels and lead was not detected in blood or liver.

Of 737 bald eagles analyzed for contaminant residues between 1964 and 1981 (Reichel et al., 1969, 1984; Mulhern et al., 1970; Belisle et al., 1972; Cromartie et al., 1975; Prouty et al., 1977; Kaiser et al., 1980), only one had a brain DDE concentration higher (385 ppm) than the Santa Catalina Island eagle; cause of death for that bird was attributed to DDE poisoning with a possible contribution of PCBs (Belisle et al., 1972). American kestrels (*Falco sparverius*) experimentally fed diets containing DDE, died with brain concentrations of DDE ranging from 213 to 301 ppm (Porter and Wiemeyer, 1972; Henny and Meeker, 1981).

Concentration of DDE in the serum was an order of magnitude higher than concentrations previously reported in whole blood or plasma of adult bald eagles (Wiemeyer et al., 1989), and to our knowledge is the highest reported for an avian species. Concentrations of PCBs in the brain were lower than previously associated with mortality in birds (Sileo et al., 1977).

Concentrations of DDE in the brain has been linked to the amount of body fat present (Stickel et al., 1984). As body fat

deposits harboring DDE were metabolized, the level of the DDE in the brain was increased (Van Velzen et al., 1972). The redistribution of DDE to the brain occurs because brain lipid levels remain stable even after lipid levels in other tissues have sharply declined (Bogan and Newton, 1977). Birds, including raptors, that have died after being experimentally fed diets containing DDE, typically have reduced body fat and increased levels of DDE in the brain (Porter and Wiemeyer, 1972; Stickel et al., 1984). While DDE concentrations in blood were not reported in those studies, they likely increased during lipid catabolism, as blood is the pathway by which contaminants are redistributed to lipid in the brain.

Six of seven bald eagles experimentally dosed with DDT had tremors prior to death (Chura and Stewart, 1967) which resembled tremors seen in the Santa Catalina eagle. Young et al. (1979) reported similar tremors in seabirds suspected of being poisoned by DDE.

Storage of DDE residues in body fat provides a physiologic mechanism for shunting immediate toxic effects. Disease, migration, reproduction, molt or cold weather, which tend to accelerate mobilization of body fat, may result in the death of birds long after exposure to the chemical, or at dosages that are not immediately lethal (Van Velzen et al., 1972). The brain DDE concentration in the bald eagle reported here exceeded all but one reported value for eagles obtained from the wild, and was within the range of values report-

ed to cause death in experimentally dosed American kestrels. The physical symptoms exhibited by the bird prior to death were congruent with those shown in raptors and other birds experimentally dosed with lethal concentrations of DDE. As no other diseases or abnormalities were detected in the bird it is highly probable that this eagle died from DDE poisoning.

We thank Steven Timm, DVM, for initial care and treatment of the eagle prior to its death, and Patrick Redig, DVM, for consulting on the case. Hailu Kinde, DVM, at UCVDL arranged for tests of organophosphorus and lead in the blood. The NWHC staff performed laboratory tests on tissues. Helpful comments on the manuscript were made by Charles Henny, Lou Locke, Lou Sileo, Stanley Wiemeyer, and two anonymous reviewers. Funding for chemical analyses was provided by Natural Resources Damage Assessment Branch of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

LITERATURE CITED

- ANTHONY, R. G., M. G. GARRETT, AND C. A. SCHULER. 1993. Environmental contaminants in bald eagles in the Columbia River estuary. *The Journal of Wildlife Management* 57: 10-19.
- BELISLE, A. A., W. L. REICHEL, L. N. LOCKE, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, R. M. PROUTY, R. B. DEWOLF, AND E. CROMARTIE. 1972. Residues of organochlorine pesticides, polychlorinated biphenyls, and mercury and autopsy data for bald eagles, 1969 and 1970. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 6: 133-138.
- BOGAN, J. A., AND I. NEWTON. 1977. Redistribution of DDE in sparrowhawks during starvation. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 18: 317-321.
- BOYER, K. W. 1984. Metal and other elements at trace levels in foods. *In Official methods of analysis of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists*, 14th ed., S. Williams (ed.). Association of Official Analytical Chemists, Inc., Arlington, Virginia, pp. 444-476.
- CHURA, N. J., AND P. A. STEWART. 1967. Care, food consumption, and behavior of bald eagles used in DDT tests. *Wilson Bulletin* 79: 441-448.
- CROMARTIE, E., W. L. REICHEL, L. N. LOCKE, A. A. BELISLE, T. E. KAISER, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, R. M. PROUTY, AND D. M. SWINEFORD. 1975. Residues of organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyls and autopsy data for bald eagles, 1971-72. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 9: 11-14.
- DIETER, M. P., AND J. L. LUDKE. 1975. Studies on combined effects of organophosphates and heavy metals in birds. I. Plasma and brain cholinesterase in Coturnix quail fed methyl mercury and orally dosed with parathion. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 13: 257-262.
- DOCHERTY, D. E., AND P. G. SOLTA. 1988. Use of muscovy duck embryo fibroblasts for the isolation of viruses from wild birds. *Journal of Tissue Culture Methods* 11: 165-170.
- ELLMAN, G. L., K. D. COURTNEY, V. ANDRES, JR., AND R. M. FEATHERSTONE. 1961. A new and rapid colorimetric determination of acetylcholinesterase activity. *Biochemical Pharmacology* 7: 88-95.
- GARCELON, D. K., R. W. RISEBROUGH, W. M. JARMAN, A. B. CHARTRAND, AND E. E. LITRELL. 1989. Accumulation of DDE by bald eagles *Haliaeetus leucocephalus* reintroduced to Santa Catalina Island in Southern California. *In Raptors in the modern world*, B.-U. Meyburg and R. D. Chancellor, (eds.). World Working Group for Bird of Prey and Owls, Berlin, Germany, pp. 491-494.
- HENNY, C. J., AND R. G. ANTHONY. 1989. Bald eagle and osprey. *In Proceedings of the Western Raptor Management Symposium and Workshop*, Scientific and Technical Series No. 12, National Wildlife Federation, Washington, D.C., pp. 66-82.
- , AND D. L. MEEKER. 1981. An evaluation of blood plasma for monitoring DDE in birds of prey. *Environmental Pollution (Series A)* 25: 291-304.
- HILL, E. F. 1988. Brain cholinesterase activity of apparently normal wild birds. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 24: 51-61.
- , AND W. J. FLEMING. 1982. Anticholinesterase poisoning of birds: Field monitoring and diagnosis of acute poisoning. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry* 1: 27-38.
- HOLSTEGE, D. M., D. L. SCHARBERG, E. R. TOR, L. C. HART, AND F. D. GALEY. 1994. A rapid multiresidue screen for organophosphorus, organochlorine, and N-Methyl carbamate insecticides in plant and animal tissues. *Journal of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists* 77: 1263-1274.
- KAISER, T. E., W. L. REICHEL, L. N. LOCKE, E. CROMARTIE, A. J. KRYNITSKY, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, R. M. PROUTY, C. J. STAFFORD, AND D. M. SWINEFORD. 1980. Organochlorine pesticide, PCB, and PCB residues and necropsy data for bald eagles from 29 states—1975-77. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 13: 145-149.
- MULHERN, B. M., W. L. REICHEL, L. N. LOCKE, T. G. LAMONT, A. BELISLE, E. CROMARTIE, G. E.

- BAGLEY, AND R. M. PROUTY. 1970. Organochlorine residues and autopsy data from bald eagles 1966-68. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 4: 141-144.
- PORTER, R. D., AND S. N. WIEMEYER. 1972. DDE at low dietary levels kills captive American kestrels. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 8: 193-199.
- PROUTY, R. M., W. L. REICHEL, L. N. LOCKE, A. A. BELISLE, E. CROMARTIE, T. E. KAISER, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, AND S. M. SWINEFORD. 1977. Residues of organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyls and autopsy data for bald eagles, 1973-74. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 11: 134-137.
- REICHEL, W. L., E. CROMARTIE, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, AND R. M. PROUTY. 1969. Pesticide residues in eagles. *Pesticides Monitoring Journal* 3: 142-144.
- , S. K. SCHMELING, E. CROMARTIE, T. E. KAISER, A. J. KRYNITSKY, T. G. LAMONT, B. M. MULHERN, R. M. PROUTY, C. J. STAFFORD, AND D. M. SWINEFORD. 1984. Pesticide, PCB, and lead residues and necropsy data for bald eagles from 32 states—1978-81. *Environment Monitoring and Assessment* 4: 395-403.
- SILEO, L., L. KARSTAD, R. FRANK, M. V. H. HOLDRINET, E. ADDISON, AND H. E. BRAUN. 1977. Organochlorine poisoning of ring-billed gulls in southern Ontario. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 13: 313-322.
- SMITH, M. R., N. J. THOMAS, AND C. HULSE. 1995. Application of brain cholinesterase reactivation to differentiate between organophosphorus and carbamate pesticide exposure in wild birds. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 31: 263-267.
- STICKEL, L. F., N. J. CHURA, P. A. STEWART, C. M. MENZIE, R. M. PROUTY, AND W. L. REICHEL. 1966. Bald eagle pesticide relations. *Transactions of the North American Wildlife and Natural Resources Conference* 31: 190-200.
- STICKEL, W. H., L. F. STICKEL, R. A. DYRLAND, AND D. L. HUGHES. 1984. DDE in birds: Lethal residues and loss rates. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 13: 1-6.
- TOR, E. R., D. M. HOLSTEGE, AND F. D. GALEY. 1994. Determination of cholinesterase activity in brain and blood samples using a plate reader. *Journal of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists* 77: 1308-1313.
- VAN VELZEN, A., W. B. STILES, L. F. STICKEL. 1972. Lethal mobilization of DDT by cowbirds. *The Journal of Wildlife Management* 36: 733-739.
- WIEMEYER, S. N., R. W. FRENZEL, R. G. ANTHONY, B. R. MCCLELLAND, AND R. L. KNIGHT. 1989. Environmental contaminants in blood of western bald eagles. *Journal of Raptor Research* 23: 140-146.
- , C. M. BUNCK, AND C. J. STAFFORD. 1993. Environmental contaminants in bald eagle eggs—1980-84—and further interpretations of relationships to productivity and shell thickness. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 24: 213-227.
- YOUNG, D. R., T. C. HEESSEN, G. N. ESRA, AND E. B. HOWARD. 1979. DDE-contaminated fish off Los Angeles are suspected cause in deaths of captive marine birds. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 21: 584-590.

Received for publication 5 October 1995.