



INSTITUTO DE BIOCÊNCIAS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOLOGIA ANIMAL

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**ODONTOCETES DISTRIBUTION AND MARINE PROTECTED AREAS: HOW FAR IS BRAZIL TO
IMPROVE THE CONSERVATION OF THESE FAR-RANGING MARINE TOP PREDATORS?**

PORTO ALEGRE

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Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Animal, Instituto de Biociências da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Mestra em Biologia Animal.

Área de concentração: Biodiversidade, Conservação e Manejo

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Aprovada em 29 de junho de 2020.

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AGRADECIMENTOS

Há – nesta constante desassociação da história humana à Terra – uma lógica civilizatória¹ que violenta a Natureza e suas tantas formas de vida. E há neste insaciável “progresso” que existe à luz desta civilização um esgotamento da vida. Vida que o próprio desenvolvimento ensinou a chamar de “recurso”. A dissociação do *estar* e do *sentir-se parte* – impulsionada por uma forma de estrutura político-desenvolvimentista que vem sendo brutalmente imposta – emprega a urgência de diversas reações mínimas a favor da vida e, dentre elas, a ciência-utópica, me parece ter nome comum de conservação.

Mas, dentre todas nossas utopias – enquanto cientistas ou mesmo como população civil – há o ímpeto de um presente mais inacreditável que um futuro distópico. Há um Brasil que não conhece o Brasil, que não merece o Brasil e que vem matando o Brasil². E é, portanto, extremamente difícil expressar qualquer utopia nos dias de hoje sem denunciar. Denunciar que tal crise é um projeto³, ora, Darcy Ribeiro já o fez há muito tempo. Mas há também que denunciar o desmonte, o descrédito, o desamparo, o ecocídio. O que se assiste hoje, na contramão de todos os futuros imaginados, é a ampliação deste projeto. Um projeto exaustivo e violento, que assegura a concentração de bens (sejam eles de estar e até mesmo financiáveis) e que gera cada vez mais pobreza. Um projeto monocultural e patriarcal, contrário à diversidade que é inerente a vida, a vida aquela que nunca existirá como recurso; a vida que intrinsecamente tem valor e direito ancestral.

Enquanto a presente dissertação foi escrita, passaram as motosserras, as boiadas, as queimadas e a violência pela Amazônia. Ampliaram-se flexibilizações das leis ambientais, se ausentaram as fiscalizações e as multas aos grileiros, ruralistas e garimpeiros ilegais. Mais de 474 novos agrotóxicos foram permitidos (com a certeza de que muitos outros venenos ainda serão). Intensificou-se o projeto de desmonte do Sistema Nacional do Meio Ambiente. Ameaçaram-se os Conselhos e reduziu-se a participação da sociedade civil junto à conservação. Introduziu-se policiais militares não qualificados para a diretoria do Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio). Se expôs a Mata Atlântica, as restingas e os mangues ao eminente risco de extinção. Se ignorou o maior vazamento de óleo já registrado na costa marinha brasileira (e também nos oceanos tropicais!), enquanto cidadãos/ãos limpavam ecossistemas marinhos e costeiros com as próprias mãos. Não se cobrou nem um só real, nem

¹ Tão potentemente discutidas por Ailton Krenak em *Ideias para Adiar o Fim do Mundo* (2019) e por Davi Kopenawa em *A Queda do Céu: Palavras de um Xamã Yanomami* (2016).

² *Querelas do Brasil*, Adir Blanc & Maurício Tapajós, 1978.

³ “*A crise da educação no Brasil não é uma crise; é um projeto*”.

uma só vida perdida pelo rompimento criminoso da barragem da Mina Córrego do Feijão controlada pela criminosa Vale S.A. Reduziu-se drasticamente as verbas e os incentivos à pesquisa científica. Se apresentou um projeto de Future-se, que mais parece um túnel no tempo direto para um passado que ninguém imaginou voltar – principalmente após anos de uma Educação Pública, Gratuita e de Qualidade, que se tornava, ainda que lentamente, cada vez mais plural e afirmativa (como plenamente deverá vir a ser!). E, aos que tiveram, assim como eu, o privilégio deste acesso à educação (ou a tantos outros) – denunciar formal ou informalmente tamanho desaforo e posicionar-se contra ele, é o mínimo – o mínimo – a se fazer nos dias de hoje.

Mesmo assim, e felizmente, há quem – em afeto e em luta – nos faça lembrar de acreditar, também, nas utopias. E a todos/as esses *quems*, agradeço pro-fun-da-men-te. Aqui, por esta etapa, em especial:

À Karina do Amaral, minha querida coorientadora formalmente informal, pelo apoio, pela escuta, pelas trocas. Por todo o aprendizado, mas principalmente, por toda amizade. Agradeço de coração tua presença nesta etapa;

Ao Ignacio Moreno, pelas tantas oportunidades ao longo desses quase dez anos, pela confiança no meu trabalho, pela amizade e pela sempre grande empolgação que tens com as nossas alegrias e vitórias – sejam elas acadêmicas ou não;

À Maria João Ramos Pereira, que tem o coração tão aberto quanto a porta da sala, pelos conselhos, pelo apoio e pela força da mulher acadêmica que inspira;

Aos queridos/as amigos/as do LABSMAR, em todas as suas temporadas desde 2011, que cheios de carinho e afeto fizeram deste laboratório uma segunda casa, repleta de acolhimento e aprendizados;

Aos amigos Diego Janisch e Luiz Esser, pelas trocas e conversas do mundo dos modelos de distribuição e da vida;

Ao Dr. Alexandre Schiavetti, pela solicitude e por compartilhar uma compilação cuidadosa das Unidades de Conservação brasileiras;

Ao Dr. André Barreto, pelos dados do Sistema de Apoio ao Monitoramento de Mamíferos Marinhos (SIMMAM) e pelo grande esforço em tornar a informação de ocorrência de cetáceos pública e de qualidade;

Ao Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) pela bolsa concedida;

À minha querida família, a que nasceu comigo e a que escolhi ao longo do caminho, em especial à Glorinha e ao Pepo, por todo incentivo, companheirismo e infundo amor.

“Somos mesmo uma humanidade? Pensemos em nossas instituições mais bem consolidadas, como as universidades ou os organismos multilaterais, que surgiram no século XX: Banco Mundial, Organização dos Estados Americanos (OEA), Organização das Nações Unidas (ONU), Organização das Nações Unidas para a Educação (Unesco). Quando a gente quis criar uma reserva da biosfera em uma região do Brasil, foi preciso justificar para a Unesco porque era importante que o planeta não fosse devorado pela mineração. Para essa instituição, é como se bastasse manter apenas alguns lugares como amostra grátis da Terra. Se sobrevivermos, vamos brigar pelos pedaços de planeta que a gente não comeu, e os nossos netos e tataranetos – ou os netos dos nossos tataranetos- vão poder passear para ver como era a Terra no passado. Essas agências e instituições foram configuradas e mantidas como estruturas dessa humanidade. E nós, legitimamos sua perpetuação, aceitamos suas decisões, que muitas vezes são ruins e nos causam perdas, porque estão a serviço da humanidade que pensamos ser. (...) Enquanto isso, a humanidade vai sendo descolada de maneira tão absoluta desse organismo que é a terra. (...) Recurso natural para quem? Desenvolvimento sustentável para quê? O que é preciso sustentar?”

Ailton Krenak, em
Ideias para adiar o fim do mundo (2019)

*“E ele disse: que sabes do mar. Ela respondeu: o que imagino.
Apenas o que imagino. E gosto.”*

Valter Hugo Mãe, em
Homens imprudentemente poéticos (2016)

APRESENTAÇÃO

Esta dissertação de mestrado foi redigida conforme Resolução N°37/2018 do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Animal (PPGBan) da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul. O texto principal está estruturado sob a forma de artigo científico, redigido em língua inglesa, visando a submissão no periódico *Frontiers in Marine Science* (seção *Marine Conservation and Sustainability*), e de acordo com as normas aos autores do referido periódico (<https://www.frontiersin.org/about/author-guidelines>). De acordo com o Artigo 43º do Regimento do PPGBan, o artigo está acompanhado de dois capítulos extras em português, sendo um introdutório e um conclusivo. O introdutório deve conter, de forma sucinta, uma descrição geral dos objetivos, uma revisão bibliográfica ampla e uma síntese dos resultados gerais; enquanto o conclusivo deve apresentar as principais conclusões do trabalho.

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RESUMO: A conservação *in situ* de predadores de topo altamente móveis – como os cetáceos odontocetos – não é uma tarefa fácil e depende, também, da identificação e da preservação dos habitats onde (uma ou mais espécies) preferencialmente ocorrem. As áreas marinhas protegidas (MPAs), por sua vez, têm sido impulsionadas como a estratégia mais importante para mitigar os crescentes impactos antrópicos nos oceanos. Existem, contudo, poucas evidências empíricas da sua contribuição para os odontocetos e, no Brasil, a atual cobertura de MPAs tem sido atribuída a políticas públicas insidiosas. Nesta dissertação, buscamos entender o papel das características oceanográficas na distribuição da biodiversidade de odontocetos em águas brasileiras, bem como avaliar a contribuição da cobertura de MPAs e identificar áreas importantes para priorizações espaciais para a conservação dos odontocetos no Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental (SWA). A modelagem de distribuição de espécies (SDM) baseada no princípio da máxima entropia (MaxEnt) foi escolhida para gerar modelos para 17 espécies de odontocetos (15 Deficientes em Dados e duas Vulneráveis à ameaça de extinção) na Zona Econômica Exclusiva brasileira (EEZ) e águas adjacentes. A melhor configuração do modelo ($\Delta AICc = 0$) para cada espécie (SDM-individuais) foi projetada usando a função *complementary log-log* (cloglog) para produzir uma estimativa de probabilidade de ocorrência. Todos os modelos individuais apresentaram excelente desempenho preditivo ($AUC > 0,9$ e $TSS > 0,7$). Os SDM-individuais foram combinados para produzir um *stack-species distribution model* (S-SDM), onde os modelos individuais são sobrepostos em um contexto multi-espécie, permitindo a identificação de habitats críticos para as espécies. Duas áreas de maior probabilidade de ocorrência foram identificadas: uma em áreas neríticas e oceânicas profundas além da quebra da plataforma continental ao sul da Cadeia-Vitória Trindade e do Banco de Abrolhos até a área de influência da Convergência Subtropical (hotspot oceânico); e outra em uma área influenciada principalmente por ressurgências costeiras na zona urbana mais populosa do país (hotspot costeiro). Por meio de uma análise de lacunas, os modelos foram sobrepostos às atuais medidas de gestão espacial (cobertura de MPAs e Áreas Prioritárias para Conservação – PAC), bem como as ameaças antrópicas mapeadas (pesca comercial, indústrias marinhas de petróleo e gás e os portos). Apesar da alta porcentagem de cobertura de MPAs na EEZ brasileira (28%), esta é desigualmente distribuída entre as três províncias biogeográficas marinhas (Spanding et al., 2007) e é concentrada em águas costeiras – não cumprindo os requisitos estabelecidos pelas Metas de Aichi e representando, ainda, importantes lacunas para a conservação da maioria das espécies incluídas. Muitas MPAs ainda carecem de instrumentos necessários para garantir uma contribuição efetiva e, sozinhas (sem os recursos financeiros e logísticos necessários), parecem ser insuficientes para garantir a conservação da biodiversidade de odontocetos e de seus habitats críticos em águas brasileiras. Já o zoneamento proposto pelo PAC parece abranger áreas de alta probabilidade de ocorrência de odontocetos e poderia motivar um debate inicial sobre estratégias de manejo dinâmicas e/ou sobre o conceito das *Areas of Interest*, o primeiro estágio das *Important Marine Mammals Areas* (IMMAs) no contexto do planejamento espacial marinho brasileiro.

Palavras-chave: habitats críticos, análise de lacuna, áreas marinhas protegidas, modelos de distribuição de espécie, odontocetos, planejamento espacial marinho.

ABSTRACT: Cetaceans in situ conservation requires the preservation of species or populations, as well as the preservation of their preferred habitats. An important step towards this is to understand which habitats are used with higher frequency (for one or more species), and where environmental features (abiotic and biotic) are required to maintain a favorable conservation status. Here, we aimed to understand the role that oceanographic features play on odontocete distribution in the Western South Atlantic Ocean (SWA) to evaluate the suitability of existing Brazilian MPA policy and to identify areas of biological importance to spatial prioritizations for odontocete conservation. Species distribution modelling (SDM) based on the maximum entropy principle (MaxEnt) was chosen to generate models for 17 taxa of odontocete species in the Brazilian Economic Exclusive Zone. The best-fit model configuration ($\Delta AICc=0$) for each species (individual-SDM) was projected using the complementary log-log link function to produce an estimate of occurrence probability. All individual-SDM presented an excellent predictive performance ($AUC > 0.9$ and $TSS > 0.7$). Individual-SDMs were combined to produce a Stacked-species distribution model (S-SDM) to identify odontocete ecological hotspots across multiple species, as well as the role of environmental features in driving odontocetes distribution patterns in the SWA. Two areas of major probability of occurrence were identified and can be understood as critical habitats. One is in neritic and deeper waters outer the continental shelf break south of Vitoria-Trindade seamount and the Abrolhos Bank until the Subtropical Convergence zone (offshore hotspot area); and other is in nearshore waters influenced by coastal upwellings in the most populous urbanized coastal region of Brazil (nearshore hotspot area). Through a gap analysis, the S-SDM was overlapped with the current spatial management measures (MPAs coverage and priority areas for conservation) and with the mapped anthropic threats (commercial fishing, oil and gas marine industries and ports). Both offshore and nearshore hotspot areas are under main anthropic threats. Despite the high percentage of coverage (28%), the current MPA policy is unevenly distributed among three marine biogeographical provinces and is most concentrated among the contiguous zone limits (24 nm). It highlights the Brazilian failure to meet Aichi Biodiversity Targets as well as important conservation gaps for most included species. The current MPA policy alone seems to be insufficient to guarantee the conservation of these far-ranging odontocetes and their preferred habitats over time.

Keywords: critical habitats, gap analysis, marine protected areas, marine spatial planning, odontocetes, species distribution model (SDM).

CAPÍTULO INTRODUTÓRIO

CONSERVAÇÃO *IN SITU* DE CETÁCEOS

Ao pretender a conservação *in situ* dos cetáceos (ordem Cetartiodactyla) é preciso considerar a preservação de estoques, populações e/ou espécies de cetáceos selvagens, assim como dos ambientes onde elas preferencialmente ocorrem (Reeves, 2018). Isso significa não apenas a proteção dos organismos em si, mas também dos ambientes – habitats e ecossistemas – que sustentam as comunidades bióticas às quais pertencem (Reeves, 2018). Nesse sentido, um passo importante é entender quais habitats são usados com maior frequência (por uma ou mais espécies) e onde as características ambientais (bióticas e abióticas) são necessárias para manter um *status* de conservação mais favorável ao longo do tempo (Cañadas et al., 2005; Pérez-Jorge et al., 2015).

A conservação *in situ* de predadores de topo altamente móveis como os cetáceos não é, contudo, uma tarefa fácil. As ocorrências em alto mar e/ou através de fronteiras políticas nacionais, as migrações de amplo alcance e a associação desses organismos com características oceanográficas dinâmicas em um ambiente tridimensional são alguns dos principais desafios atribuídos (Clark et al., 2010; Hoyt, 2018). Entre as baleias-verdadeiras (Mysticeti), por exemplo, a maioria das espécies migra por milhares de quilômetros duas vezes por ano entre áreas reprodutivas mais próximas aos trópicos e áreas de alimentação próximas aos polos (Hoyt, 2018; Stern & Friedlaender, 2018). Já entre os botos e golfinhos (Odontoceti), a maioria não apresenta padrões migratórios tão bem definidos e está ativamente buscando formas de atingir seus requerimentos energéticos. Para isso, costumam associar-se a características oceanográficas bem definidas e espacialmente dinâmicas que influenciam na distribuição e na agregação de suas presas (Hooker et al., 1999; Cañadas et al., 2002; Mannocci et al., 2017). A distribuição dos cetáceos portanto não é aleatória. É influenciada por características oceanográficas topográficas (como a batimetria) e hidrográficas persistentes (como correntes oceânicas e sistemas frontais) e efêmeras (como ressurgências ocasionadas por sistemas de ventos) (Hyrenbach et al., 2000; Forcada, 2018); assim como pela temperatura superficial da água do mar, a salinidade, a concentração de clorofila e a disponibilidade de produção primária (Baumgartner et al., 2001; Cañadas et al., 2002).

Além disso, devido a suas características de vida (como a longevidade, a maturidade tardia e as baixas taxas reprodutivas) os cetáceos são particularmente suscetíveis aos impactos antrópicos (Ballance, 2018; Passadore et al., 2018). A conservação desses organismos está em debate desde, pelo menos, meados do século XX, quando a caça comercial moderna levou diversas espécies –

especialmente de grandes cetáceos⁴ – à beira da extinção (Zacharias et al., 2006; Reeves, 2018). Nas últimas décadas, contudo, outros desafios têm sido somados, ameaçando amplamente pequenos odontocetos em regiões costeiras e estuarinas (Secchi et al., 2003; Turvey et al., 2007; Rojas-Bracho & Reeves, 2013; Hamner et al., 2014; Azevedo et al., 2017; da Silva & Martin, 2018). Mapas de risco atuais para mamíferos marinhos, indicam que os odontocetos representam a maior parte das espécies em áreas de alto risco e que os impactos antrópicos atualmente existentes nas zonas costeiras acumulam níveis de ameaças nunca antes vistos (Avila et al., 2018). Por outro lado, muito menos se sabe sobre os níveis de ameaça sofridos por odontocetos de hábitos oceânicos, com ocorrência para além das águas nacionais de cada país.

As principais ameaças antropogênicas para a sobrevivência dos cetáceos são relacionadas à conflitos pesqueiros (como a sobrepesca, a captura incidental e o emaranhamento em redes fantasmas) – sobretudo aqueles de escala industrial (Fruet et al., 2012; Prado et al., 2013; Di Tullio et al., 2015; Avila et al., 2018). Entretanto, outras ameaças também têm sido frequentemente relatadas e se intensificam rapidamente, como: o aumento no tráfego de navios e a colisão com embarcações, a poluição sonora crônica, a poluição residual, a poluição química e as consequências das mudanças climáticas (Yogui et al., 2010; Bittencourt et al., 2014; Di Benedetto & Ramos, 2014; Rossi-Santos, 2014; Wedekin et al., 2014; Bezamat et al., 2015; Méndez-Fernandez et al., 2018; Moore, 2018).

ODONTOCETOS E AS ÁREAS MARINHAS PROTEGIDAS

Nas últimas décadas, as áreas marinhas protegidas⁵ (MPAs) foram amplamente reconhecidas como uma das estratégias de conservação *in situ* mais importantes para mitigar os crescentes impactos antrópicos sobre os oceanos e as espécies marinhas (Agardy et al., 2011; Hilborn, 2016). Houve, por exemplo, um aumento de 2 milhões de km² cobertos por MPAs em 2000 (0,7% do oceano) para mais 26 milhões de km² em 2020 (7% do oceano) (UNEP-WCMC & IUCN, 2020). Esse grande aumento é atribuído, principalmente, ao surgimento de metas internacionais de conservação propostas por organizações multilaterais, como as Metas de Aichi, vinculadas à Convenção da Diversidade Biológica (CBD). As Metas de Aichi apresentam um plano estratégico para 2011-2020⁶

⁴ Em inglês, o termo *great whales* refere-se às baleias-verdadeiras (Mysticeti) e ao cachalote (Odontoceti), cetáceos de grande porte amplamente explorados durante o período da caça comercial.

⁵ O termo áreas marinhas protegidas é utilizado para se referir, simplesmente, a áreas protegidas (conhecidas no Brasil, também, como Unidades de Conservação – Brasil, 2000) que estão presentes no ecossistema marinho, que se estende desde a zona intertidal até o oceano profundo (Hoyt, 2018).

⁶ O não cumprimento internacional das Metas de Aichi no período inicialmente determinado (2011-2020) levou a extensão das mesmas para 2030 (<https://www.biodiversityinternational.org/cbd/>).

e estabelecem ações concretas a serem realizadas pelos governos signatários, como o Brasil. Entre as metas atreladas ao Objetivo Estratégico C, a Meta 11 definiu que:

"Até 2020, pelo menos 17% das zonas terrestres e de águas continentais, e **10% das zonas costeiras e marinhas**, especialmente áreas de importância particular para biodiversidade e serviços ecossistêmicos, devem estar conservadas por meio de **gerenciamento eficiente e equitativo, ecologicamente representadas**, com **sistemas bem conectados de áreas protegidas** e outras medidas eficientes de conservação baseadas em área, e integradas em mais amplas paisagens terrestres e marinhas" (<https://www.cbd.int/sp/targets/>).

Entretanto, diversas evidências sugerem que a maioria das MPAs têm falhado em fornecer resultados ecológicos e sociais positivos (Hilborn, 2016; Gill et al., 2017) e que algumas das deficiências frequentemente relatadas (como tamanhos reduzidos e designs inapropriados, planejamentos e/ou gerenciamentos inadequados e, até mesmo, a degradação dos ecossistemas circundantes) podem resultar em MPAs ecologicamente insuficientes ou, até mesmo, criar perigosas ilusões de proteção (Agardy et al., 2011; 2016).

No que diz respeito aos cetáceos odontocetos, existem de fato poucos exemplos empíricos da eficiência das MPAs em contribuir para a sua conservação⁷ (Gormley et al., 2012; O'Brien & Whitehead, 2013; Mintzer et al., 2015; Pinn, 2018). Há, entretanto, diversos insucessos que relatam: mudanças na distribuição de populações em relação aos limites das MPAs definidos (La Manna et al., 2014; Hartel et al., 2015); a falta de cumprimento ou da necessidade de medidas de conservação adicionais (Steckenreuter et al., 2012; Fossi et al., 2013); ou de decisões políticas que prevaleceram sobre considerações ecológicas (Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al., 2008; Agardy et al., 2011; Rojas-Bracho & Reeves, 2013; Pinn, 2018). Entre os odontocetos, há dois exemplos emblemáticos de MPAs que falharam em garantir a conservação das espécies as quais foram designadas para proteger (Agardy et al., 2011; Pinn, 2018) – a criticamente ameaçada vaquita (*Phocoena sinus*) no México (Rojas-Bracho et al., 2006; Rojas-Bracho & Reeves, 2013) e o possivelmente extinto baiji (*Lipotes vexillifer*) na China (Turvey et al., 2007, 2010) – evidenciando os enormes desafios que podem ser atribuídos à eficiência deste tipo de estratégia (Agardy et al., 2011; Pinn, 2018).

Não obstante – e considerando os avanços conceituais sobre o tema – tanto a identificação de habitats críticos como a aplicação de medidas de manejo dinâmicas parecem ter um papel

⁷ Um importante questionamento a se fazer é: como, a partir de delimitações que são principalmente baseadas em limites fixos (forma através da qual são desenhadas a maioria das áreas protegidas em vigor, inclusive no Brasil), em um ambiente tridimensional, é possível contribuir para conservação de espécies amplamente móveis e que tem sua distribuição principalmente associada a características oceanográficas dinâmicas?

importante a desempenhar (Hooker et al., 2011; Becker et al., 2016; Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016; Hoyt, 2018; Pinn, 2018; Agardy et al., 2019; Maxwell et al., 2020). Os habitats críticos⁸ são locais ou condições oceanográficas que as populações (ou espécies ou estoques) de cetáceos utilizam regularmente para se alimentar, se reproduzir e socializar, incluindo, também, rotas migratórias e áreas fundamentais para a agregação de suas presas (Clark et al., 2010; Hoyt, 2011; Hoyt, 2018).

Áreas reprodutivas como o banco de Abrolhos para as baleias-jubarte (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) no Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental (Bortolotto et al., 2017), são um exemplo de habitats crítico mais facilmente identificável. Isso porque, todos os anos, uma das populações da espécie migra até a costa brasileira durante os meses de inverno e encontra as condições ambientais adequadas (águas protegidas e mais cálidas próximas da costa, geralmente associadas a ambientes coralíneos) para seu período reprodutivo (Bortolotto et al., 2017).

Contudo, condições oceanográficas que resultam em alta produtividade primária e, portanto, permitem a agregação de várias espécies, são também áreas essenciais de serem protegidas (Hyrenbach et al., 2000; Clark et al., 2010; Hoyt, 2018). Um exemplo disto é o *Ligurian Front*, no Mar Mediterrâneo, um sistema frontal permanente que resulta em uma importante área de alimentação e de reprodução para 13 espécies de cetáceos e que influenciou na criação do Santuário de Pelagos (Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al., 2008; Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016; Pennino et al., 2017). A importância dessa condição oceanográfica para a conservação dos cetáceos no mar Mediterrâneo (em uma região pressionada por ações antrópicas) influenciou na criação deste santuário, que é reconhecido como um marco entre as MPAs, uma vez que: foi criado considerando a natureza dinâmica dos sistemas marinhos, por sua escala espacial ter sido definida em base a considerações oceanográficas (especificamente a localização do sistema frontal permanente da Ligúria) e, ainda, expandir as medidas protetivas para além das águas nacionais (abrindo um precedente para a implementação de áreas protegidas em alto mar, com uma administração compartilhada entre países) (Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al., 2008; Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016; Pennino et al., 2017).

Entretanto, é preciso reconhecer, também, que o processo de demarcação espacial dos limites do santuário demorou uma década para ser estabelecido e que, ao final, prevaleceram decisões políticas (como haver uma divisão equitativa entre as águas territoriais dos países) sobre

⁸ Os habitats críticos não possuem, necessariamente, *status* regulatório de área protegida. Eles podem apenas reconhecer a importância de uma área e a necessidade de aplicar medidas de proteção (Pinn, 2018); ou também ser entendidos como o estágio inicial para a definição de futuras áreas protegidas (Clark et al., 2010).

considerações ecológicas (como abranger apropriadamente os limites do santuário sobre o habitat crítico desses cetáceos) (Notar artolo di Sciara et al., 2008; Agardy et al., 2011). Assim, uma grande zona com baixa densidade de cetáceos acabou sendo incluída nos limites desta MPA, enquanto uma parte do habitat crítico das espécies na zona pelágica foi deixada sem qualquer proteção, mesmo sendo esta uma zona de alto risco devido a constante circulação de frotas navais e navios de sísmica (Agardy et al., 2011). Além disso, mesmo com uma ampla área restritiva, o Santuário de Pelagos – assim como toda MPA existente – tão pouco é capaz de, isoladamente, proteger o ecossistema e as espécies marinhas⁹ de todos os demais impactos que cada vez mais atingem os oceanos (como as consequências das mudanças climáticas, possíveis derramamentos de óleo, a contaminação por resíduos plásticos, a contaminação pelo escoamento terrestre e/ou por produtos químicos oriundos dos continentes).

DIVERSIDADE DE ODONTOCETOS E ÁREAS MARINHAS PROTEGIDAS NO BRASIL

Até o momento no Brasil foram registradas 49 espécies de cetáceos, sendo 40 odontocetos (Tabela 1) (Hrbek et al., 2014; Wickert et al., 2016; Cypriano-Souza et al., 2017; Bastida et al., 2018). Das oito espécies que estão incluídas na Lista Vermelha da Fauna Ameaçada de Extinção (MMA, 2014a), quatro¹⁰ são odontocetos: os vulneráveis (VU) boto-cinza (*Sotalia guianensis*) e cachalote (*Physeter macrocephalus*), a criticamente ameaçada (CR) toninha (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) e o boto-da-Amazônia (*Inia geoffrensis*) em perigo de extinção (EN). As porcentagens mais alarmantes, no entanto, dizem respeito às espécies avaliadas como Deficientes em Dados (DD) (62,5%) e Não Avaliadas (NE) (25%) (Rocha-Campos et al., 2011a,b) – que não contam com nenhuma medida específica de proteção ou de manejo.

No que se refere às MPAs¹¹ brasileiras, em 2018, o governo brasileiro anunciou o aumento de 1,5% de MPAs marinhas de administração Federal para 25%, com a criação de dois conjuntos de MPAs nos arquipélagos oceânicos de São Pedro São Paulo e de Trindade e Martim-Vaz (Brasil, 2018a,b). Cada conjunto incluiu uma grande área de uso sustentável (na categoria Área de Proteção

⁹ Já existem, inclusive, evidências de estresse toxicológico em odontocetos presentes no Santuário de Pélagos (golfinho-lustrado *Stenella coeruleoalba*), testado para produtos químicos persistentes, bioacumuláveis e tóxicos (Fossi et al., 2013) – revelando uma das deficiências comumente atribuídas às MPAs: a degradação dos ecossistemas circundantes (Agardy et al., 2011; 2016).

¹⁰ O boto-de-Lahille (*Tursiops gephyreus*) é uma espécie recentemente revalidada (Wickert et al., 2016) que deverá entrar na próxima lista de espécies ameaçadas, classificada como vulnerável.

¹¹ No Brasil, poucas MPAs foram designadas com o propósito explícito de proteger espécies cetáceas. Estas cobrem apenas proporções de alguns habitats críticos de três espécies costeiras (boto-cinza, baleia-jubarte e baleia-franca), sendo: Área de Proteção Ambiental (APA) Anhatomirim (SC), Reserva de Fauna Tibau do Sul (RN), APA boto-cinza (RJ), APA Ponta da Baleia (BA) e APA da baleia-franca (SC).

Ambiental, equivalente a categoria V da IUCN) cobrindo mais de 800,000 km² (representando 87,4% das áreas de proteção), ao redor de uma área de proteção integral menor (na categoria Monumento Natural, equivalente a categoria III da IUCN), cobrindo mais de 116.000 km² (representando apenas 12,6% das áreas de proteção) (Giglio et al., 2018).

Entretanto, aquilo que poderia ter sido um importante avanço na conservação marinha do país, revelou-se como mais uma política insidiosa quando os decretos de criação das áreas protegidas foram publicados (Brasil, 2018a, b; Magris & Pressey, 2018). Mudanças de cima para baixo foram feitas pelo governo federal em conjunto com a Marinha do Brasil, tanto nas categorias de manejo quanto no desenho das MPAs, ignorando as recomendações feitas por técnicos, por especialistas e pela população civil durante as etapas consultivas obrigatórias por lei (Giglio et al., 2018). Ainda, por decreto, foi mantida a permissão de pesca de “subsistência”¹² dentro das áreas de proteção integral e algumas das áreas ricas em biodiversidade e endemismos foram eliminadas, inclusive, dos limites de proteção de uso sustentável (Giglio et al., 2018; Magris & Pressey, 2018).

Uma vez que estas porcentagens de cobertura se anunciaram como perigosas ilusões de proteção (Agardy et al., 2003; 2016) e que estes arquipélagos são reconhecidamente importantes, também, para os cetáceos (Ott et al., 2009; Moreno et al., 2017; Ilha, 2018), questionou-se, então, qual era, de fato, a contribuição das áreas marinhas protegidas existentes no Brasil para os cetáceos odontocetos no Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental.

DESCRIÇÃO GERAL DOS OBJETIVOS E METODOLOGIAS UTILIZADAS

O objetivo geral desta dissertação foi avaliar a cobertura e a contribuição das áreas marinhas protegidas (MPAs) brasileiras para a conservação da biodiversidade de cetáceos odontocetos no Oceano Atlântico Sul Ocidental (SWA). Tal delineamento baseou-se na Legislação Nacional sobre a prioridade de pesquisa para espécies Deficientes em Dados (MMA, 2014b); e nos compromissos assumidos pelo país enquanto signatário da Convenção sobre a Diversidade Biológica (Brasil, 1998); considerando os princípios e as diretrizes para a implementação da Política Nacional da Biodiversidade (Brasil, 2002; 2003) e as decisões sobre o Plano Estratégico de Biodiversidade 2011-

¹² Nenhuma destas ilhas têm uma população civil permanente ou populações tradicionais que dependem da pesca de subsistência. Em vez disso, existe a presença de atividades de pesca comercial a partir de embarcações industriais de empresas de pesca regionais (Giglio et al., 2018); e a pesca de “subsistência” referida é, de fato, mantida apenas para validar a pesca recreativa realizada por funcionários da Marinha do Brasil, mesmo com evidências de que esta prática já causou mudanças na estrutura da comunidade de peixes e no declínio de algumas das principais espécies-alvo de conservação (Pinheiro et al., 2010, 2015; Giglio et al., 2018).

2020, as Metas de Aichi e as Metas Nacionais de Biodiversidade 2011-2020 (CONABIO, 2013; MMA, 2014b).

Para tanto, foram compilados dados de ocorrência disponíveis de todas as espécies de odontocetos marinhas (n=36) registradas na costa brasileira, na Zona Econômica Exclusiva (EEZ) e em águas adjacentes (Tabela 1). A compilação dos dados foi realizada em bancos de dados públicos específicos para cetáceos¹³, dados de pesquisa não publicados e em uma extensa revisão de artigos científicos. Tal revisão, permitiu a inclusão de 17 espécies de odontocetos nas análises¹⁴, das quais duas estão nacionalmente classificadas como Vulneráveis (VU) e as outras 15 como Deficientes em Dados (DD) (Tabela 1).

Foram utilizadas duas abordagens principais: a) modelos de distribuição de espécies (*species distribution modelling*, SDM) baseados no princípio de máxima entropia (MaxEnt) (Phillips et al., 2006; 2017); e b) análise de lacuna (*gap analysis*) (Hooker et al., 2011) envolvendo dados espaciais referentes à cobertura de MPAs, algumas das principais ameaças antrópicas identificadas e uma extensa revisão da legislação nacional associada às MPAs brasileiras.

Os SDMs são ferramentas amplamente utilizadas para prever a distribuição potencial das espécies (Elith & Leathwick, 2009) e identificar áreas de importância biológica visando a priorização espacial da conservação (Guisan & Thuiller, 2005). A implementação dessa abordagem no ecossistema marinho têm aumentado (Robinson et al., 2017) e contribuído para a identificação de habitats críticos (Cañadas et al., 2005; Gomez et al., 2017); de hotspots ecológicos (Tobeña et al., 2016; Zellmer et al., 2019); e para direcionar medidas de conservação e manejo para espécies de cetáceos (Bombosch et al., 2014; Zanardo et al., 2017; Passadore et al., 2018).

Dentre os vários algoritmos atualmente existentes (Elith & Leathwick, 2009) – para os cetáceos – o MaxEnt é conhecido por apresentar bom desempenho preditivo quando comparado à modelos de presença-ausência (Derville et al., 2018; Passadore et al., 2018), além de demonstrar ser capaz de gerar modelos com um nível relativamente alto de complexidade e precisão (do Amaral et al., 2015; Tobeña et al., 2016; Barragán-Barrera et al., 2019). No presente trabalho, este algoritmo foi escolhido por seu desempenho preditivo (Elith et al., 2006, 2011) e, ainda, por ser menos sensível ao tamanho amostral pequeno (Pearson et al., 2007; Wisz et al., 2008).

¹³ O Sistema de Apoio ao Monitoramento de Mamíferos Marinhos (SIMMAM) (<http://simmam.acad.univali.br/webgis/>) e o Projeto de Monitoramento de Cetáceos na Bacia de Santos (PMC-BS) (<http://sispmcprd.petrobras.com.br/sispmc>). No que se refere ao SIMMAM (que contém categorias de confiança para cada registro inserido), foram utilizados apenas aqueles registros catalogados como “certeza”.

¹⁴ Considerando a utilização estrita de dados de avistagem e um número mínimo de 10 registros de ocorrência por espécie após a verificação e limpeza dos dados (ver *Material and Methods*).

Foram gerados modelos individuais para cada uma das espécies incluídas. O melhor modelo para cada espécie ($\Delta AICc = 0$) teve o output projetado a partir da função *complementary log-log link* (cloglog) de modo a produzir uma estimativa de probabilidade de ocorrência (Phillips et al., 2017). Os modelos individuais foram, então, combinados através do *Stack-species distribution model* (S-SDM), de modo a identificar áreas onde a probabilidade de ocorrência de várias espécies é maior quando comparada à áreas adjacentes (Calabrese et al., 2014; D’Amen et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2017; Zellmer et al., 2019). Os objetivos específicos desta etapa foram: i) a identificação de áreas ecologicamente importantes para diversas espécies de odontocetos (hotspots ecológicos); e ii) compreender o papel das características oceanográficas na influência dos padrões de distribuição dos odontocetos no SWA.

A abordagem do S-SDM foi utilizada para identificar áreas de maior adequabilidade ambiental em um contexto multi-espécie (Calabrese et al., 2014; Tobeña et al., 2016; Phillips et al., 2017; Zellmer et al., 2019). Optou-se por essa abordagem em oposição à combinação de mapas binários (ou seja, de presença e ausência) já que, apesar de amplamente utilizados, estes podem ser tendenciosos ou enviesados uma vez que dependem da definição arbitrária de limiares de corte (*threshold*) (Calabrese et al., 2014; D’Amen et al., 2015; Zellmer et al., 2019).

Já no que diz respeito a análise de lacunas, esta é considerada uma estratégia importante para apoiar o planejamento espacial marinho (*marine spatial planning*), de modo a facilitar a priorização de medidas de conservação e melhorar a representatividade de áreas protegidas já existentes (Hooker et al., 2011; Gomez et al., 2017). O objetivo específico foi, portanto, identificar correspondências e/ou incompatibilidades entre: as ameaças antrópicas mapeadas, a cobertura de estratégias de conservação *in situ* (com ênfase nas MPAs, mas considerando, também, a política das Áreas Prioritárias para a Conservação) e os hotspots ecológicos resultantes do S-SDM.

Dentre os impactos mapeados estão: o esforço da pesca comercial mapeada por satélites, a partir da plataforma *Global Fishing Watch* (<https://globalfishingwatch.org/>); da localização das bacias de extração e de processamento de petróleo e gás a partir da Agência Nacional de Petróleo e Gás (<http://www.anp.gov.br/>); e, ainda, dos maiores portos costeiros nacionais através da Agência Nacional de Transportes Aquaviários (<http://portal.antaq.gov.br/>).

TABELA 1. REVISÃO DAS INFORMAÇÕES SOBRE A OCORRÊNCIA DE CETÁCEOS ODONTOCETOS NO BRASIL. Compilação dos dados de ocorrência (avistagens e encalhes) das espécies de odontocetos já registradas na costa brasileira, na Zona Econômica Exclusiva e em águas adjacentes. É apresentado: o *status* de conservação à nível global (IUCN) e nacional (Rocha-Campos et al., 2011a; 2011b; MMA, 2014b) e a presença destas espécies em relação às províncias biogeográficas (*sensu* Spalding et al., 2007) presentes na área de estudo. PNBS = Província do Norte do Brasil (PNBS); PTSA = Província do Atlântico Sul Ocidental Tropical; PWTSA = Província do Atlântico Sul Ocidental Temperado-Quente. Aquelas espécies que constam como “incluídas nas análises” são as que compõem as análises realizadas para este estudo e mais informações são encontradas sobre elas no segundo capítulo.

Espécies	Nome comum	IUCN	BRASIL	Informação compilada	PNBS	PTSA	PWTSA
DELPHINIDAE							
<i>Cephalorhynchus commersonii</i>	Golfinho-de-Commerson	LC	NE	Um registro encalhe (Pinedo et al., 2002a)	-	-	X
<i>Delphinus</i> sp.	Golfinho-comum	DD	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Feresa attenuata</i>	Orca-pigmeia	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i>	Baleia-piloto-de-peitorais-curtas	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Globicephala melas</i>	Baleia-piloto-de-peitorais-longas	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	-	-	X
<i>Grampus griseus</i>	Golfinho-de-Risso	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i>	Golfinho-de-Fraser	LC	DD	Encalhes registrados ao longo da costa brasileira (Haimovici & Aguiar dos Santos, 2001; Pinedo et al., 2001; Moreno et al., 2003; Dorneles et al., 2007; Siciliano et al., 2008; Meirelles et al., 2009; Santos et al., 2010b; Melo et al., 2010; Lailson-Brito et al., 2012; Santos-Neto et al., 2014; Costa et al., 2017); e duas avistagens oriundas de bancos de dados públicos (SIMMAM e PMC-BS)	X	X	X
<i>Lagenorhynchus australis</i>	Golfinho-de-Peale	LC	NE	Um registro de encalhe (Pinedo et al., 2002a)	-	-	X
<i>Lissodelphis peronii</i>	Golfinho-liso-do-sul	LC	NE	Um espécime encalhado vivo (Martuscelli et al., 1995)	-	-	X
<i>Orcinus orca</i>	Orca	DD	DD	Incluída nas análises	-	X	X
<i>Peponocephala electra</i>	Golfinho-cabeça-de-melão	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>	Falsa-orca	NT	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Sotalia fluviatilis</i>	Tucuxi	DD	NT*	Espécie não marinha	-	-	-
<i>Sotalia guianensis</i>	Boto-cinza	NT	VU*	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Stenella attenuata</i>	Golfinho-pintado-pantropical	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Stenella clymene</i>	Golfinho-de-Clymene	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i>	Golfinho-listrado	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	-	X	X

<i>Stenella frontalis</i>	Golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Stenella longirostris</i>	Golfinho-rotador	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Steno bredanensis</i>	Golfinho-de-dentes-rugosos	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>	Golfinho-nariz-de-garrafa	LC	DD	Incluída nas análises (como <i>Tursiops</i> spp.)	X	X	X
<i>Tursiops geopyreus</i>	Boto-de-Lahille	VU	NE	Incluída nas análises (como <i>Tursiops</i> spp.)	-	-	X
PHYSETERIDAE							
<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>	Cachalote	VU	VU*	Incluída nas análises	X	X	X
KOGIIDAE							
<i>Kogia sima</i>	Cachalote-anão	DD	DD	Encalhes reportados ao longo da costa brasileira (Soto et al., 1999, Maia Nogueira & Serra., 2001; Dorneles et al., 2008; Siciliano et al., 2008; Souto et al., 2009; Santos et al., 2010; Ott et al., 2013; Di Azevedo et al., 2015, 2017; Moura et al., 2016); e duas avistagens confirmadas oriundas de bancos de dados públicos (PMC-BS) e de dados não publicados (LABSMAR)	X	X	X
<i>Kogia breviceps</i>	Cachalote-pigmeu	DD	DD	Encalhes reportados ao longo da costa brasileira e ilhas oceânicas (Carvalho, 1966; Geise & Borobia, 1987; Soto et al., 1999; Maia Nogueira & Serra., 2001; Gurjão et al., 2003; Bloodworth & Odell, 2008; Dorneles et al., 2008; Siciliano et al., 2008; Souto et al., 2009; Santos et al., 2010; Ott et al., 2013; Di Azevedo et al., 2017; Moura et al., 2016; Prado et al., 2016)	-	X	X
ZIPHIIDAE							
<i>Berardius arnuxii</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Arnoux	DD	DD	Um espécime boiando morto (Siciliano & De Oliveira Santos, 2003) e poucos encalhados (Ott et al., 2013; Prado et al., 2016)	-	-	X
<i>Hyperoodon planifrons</i>	Baleia-bicuda-do-sul	LC	DD	Três encalhes (Gianuca & Castello, 1976; Soto & Vega, 1997; Cimardi, 1996) e uma avistagem reportada (Santos & Figueiredo, 2016)	-	-	X
<i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Blainville	DD	DD	Quatro registros de encalhe (Castello & Pinedo, 1980; Lichter, 1986; Simões-Lopes & Ximenez, 1993; Secchi & Zarzur, 1999; Bastida et al., 2018)	-	X	X
<i>Mesoplodon europaeus</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Gervais	DD	NE	Alguns registros de encalhe (Martins et al., 2004; Santos et al., 2005; Meirelles et al., 2009; de Oliveira Santos et al., 2010b; Di Azevedo et al., 2016)	-	X	X

<i>Mesoplodon grayi</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Gray	DD	DD	Quatro registros de encalhe (Soto & Vega, 1997; Pinedo et al., 2001; Di Tullio, 2005; Ott et al., 2013)	-	-	X
<i>Mesoplodon hectori</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Hector	DD	DD	Um registro de encalhe (Zerbini & Secchi, 2001; Prado et al., 2016)	-	-	X
<i>Mesoplodon layardii</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Layard	DD	DD	Três registros de encalhe (Pinedo et al., 2002; Siciliano & Franco, 2005; Maia-Nogueira & Nunes, 2005; Prado et al., 2016)	-	X	X
<i>Mesoplodon mirus</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-True	DD	NE	Um registro de encalhe (Souza et al., 2005)	-	-	X
<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>	Baleia-bicuda-de-Cuvier	LC	DD	Encalhes registrados ao longo da costa brasileira e ilhas oceânicas (Zanelatto et al., 1995; Alves-Júnior et al., 1996; Pinedo et al., 2001; Macleod et al., 2005; Di Tullio, 2005; Santos et al., 2010b; Mayorga et al., 2010; Fisch & Port, 2013; Ott et al., 2013; Bortolotto et al., 2016; Prado et al., 2016)	-	X	X
INIIDAE							
<i>Inia geoffrensis</i>	Boto-cor-de-rosa	EN	EN*	Espécie não marinha	-	-	-
<i>Inia boliviensis</i>	Boto	NE	NE	Espécie não marinha	-	-	-
<i>Inia araguaiaensis</i>	Boto	NE	NE	Espécie não marinha	-	-	-
PONTOPORIDAE							
<i>Pontoporia blainvillei</i>	Toninha	VU	CR*	Incluída e retirada das análises	-	X	X
PHOCIIDAE							
<i>Phocoena spinipinnis</i>	Boto-de-Burmeister	NT	NE	Encalhes registrados na costa brasileira (Simões-Lopes & Ximenez, 1989; Pinedo, 1989; Molina-Schiller et al., 2005; Ott et al., 2013; Prado et al., 2016)	-	-	X
<i>Phocoena dioptrica</i>	Boto-de-óculos	LC	NE	Um registro de encalhe (Pinedo et al., 2002a)	-	-	X

SÍNTESE DOS RESULTADOS GERAIS

Na presente dissertação, modelos de distribuição potencial para 17 espécies de odontocetos foram aplicados em um contexto de multi-espécie (S-SDM) para a identificação de áreas ecologicamente importantes. No que se refere aos modelos individuais (individual-SDM), todos apresentaram um excelente desempenho preditivo (AUC > 0.9 e TSS > 0.7) indicando robustez. A topografia batimétrica foi a variável que mais contribuiu para os modelos. Os mapas de distribuição potencial para cada espécie são discutidos individualmente no Material Suplementar (Figuras Suplementares 3 – 19), enquanto o artigo discute os resultados em base a grupos funcionais, definidos de acordo com a filogenia conhecida e as informações ecológicas obtidas.

Dentre os odontocetos oceânicos estão: i) os “black-fishes” e o golfinho-de-Risso (*Globicephala melas*, *G. macrorhynchus*, *Feresa attenuata*, *Pseudorca crassidens*, *Peponocephala electra* e *Grampus griseus*) com preferências por águas oceânicas e profundas (<1.000 m) e

pertencentes a subfamília Globicephalinae; ii) pequenos golfinhos oceânicos do gênero *Stenella* (*S. attenuata*, *S. longirostris*, *S. coeruleoalba* e *S. clymene*) que pertencem a subfamília Delphininae; e iii) o cachalote (*Physeter macrocephalus*) com preferência por águas profundas ao longo da borda externa da plataforma continental.

Entre os odontocetos considerados de “ampla distribuição” (*wide-ranging*) estão espécies da subfamília Delphininae que têm registros em águas costeiras, neríticas e oceânicas (*Delphinus* sp., *Orcinus orca*, *Tursiops* spp. e *Steno bredanensis*). A faixa batimétrica que essas espécies são observadas pode variar, por exemplo, de poucos metros há 3.000 m de profundidade. Já as espécies costeiras mostraram preferências por águas costeiras e neríticas rasas e são também da subfamília Delphininae (*Sotalia guianensis* e *S. frontalis*). Dentre as últimas, o boto-cinza (*S. guianensis*) foi a única espécie estritamente costeira incluída nas análises; enquanto o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*S. frontalis*) – apesar de ter registros, também, em águas mais profundas – parece ter preferência por águas mais quentes e com até 200 m de profundidade.

O S-SDM identificou duas áreas de maior probabilidade de ocorrência para várias espécies, sendo: uma em regiões neríticas e oceânicas além da plataforma continental (*offshore hotspot area*) ao sul da Cadeia Vitória-Trindade e do Banco de Abrolhos até a zona de influência da Convergência Subtropical; e outra próxima da costa na região sudeste do país em uma área influenciada principalmente por ressurgências costeiras (*nearshore hotspot area*) (Figura 1). Ambas as áreas podem ser entendidas como habitats críticos para várias espécies, devido a frequência com que as espécies ocorrem e a alta produtividade primária associada a características oceanográficas bem definidas e que podem proporcionar a agregação de suas presas.

Através da análise de lacunas, identificou-se que mais de 28% da EEZ é coberta por MPAs, mas que essa porcentagem é desigualmente distribuída entre as províncias biogeográficas (Figura 2). A província do Norte do Brasil (PNBS) tem 3% de cobertura por MPAs, a província do Atlântico Sul Ocidental Tropical (PTSA) 25% e a província do Atlântico Sul Ocidental Temperado-Quente (PWTSa) 0,4%. Entretanto, no que se refere às porcentagens presentes na PTSA, apenas os dois conjuntos de MPAs ao redor dos arquipélagos oceânicos de São Pedro e São Paulo e de Trindade e Martim-Vaz são responsáveis por quase 24%.

A partir de um ranking gerado através da sobreposição dos polígonos das MPAs aos valores resultantes do S-SDM, pode-se observar que: as MPAs com maior potencial de abrigar áreas costeiras ecologicamente importantes para várias espécies estão presentes no sudeste do Brasil; enquanto às áreas neríticas e oceânicas ecologicamente importantes carecem de quaisquer medidas protetivas de forma geral. Dentre as MPAs que podem influenciar diretamente na conservação de odontocetos (tipos I e II), 70 são de administração federal, 75 estaduais e 15

municipais. Dentre as federais – as quais esses documentos estão disponibilizados de forma padronizada na página do ICMBio – só 47% apresentam planos de manejo aprovados e, dentre essa porcentagem, apenas 27% citam alguma medida diretamente vinculada aos odontocetos (e.g., monitoramento acústico, avançar no conhecimento científico, regular áreas de pesca, não-molestamento de espécies durante o turismo, etc.).

A categoria de gestão mais frequente é a Área de Proteção Ambiental, que representa a categoria de gestão menos restritiva do país (Schiavetti et al., 2013). Com exceção daquelas ao redor das ilhas oceânicas brasileiras (Atol das Rocas, Fernando de Noronha, São Pedro e São Paulo e Trindade e Martim-Vaz) e uma na costa nordeste (Parque Estadual Marinho Manuel Luís), as demais MPAs estão situadas em águas costeiras. Não há áreas protegidas após a Zona Contígua (até 24 nm), nem outras em águas oceânicas, sendo essa uma importante lacuna de proteção para espécies oceânicas e de ampla distribuição. Ambas as áreas identificadas como ecologicamente importantes estão, também, sob constante pressão dos principais impactos antrópicos mapeados (Figura 2).

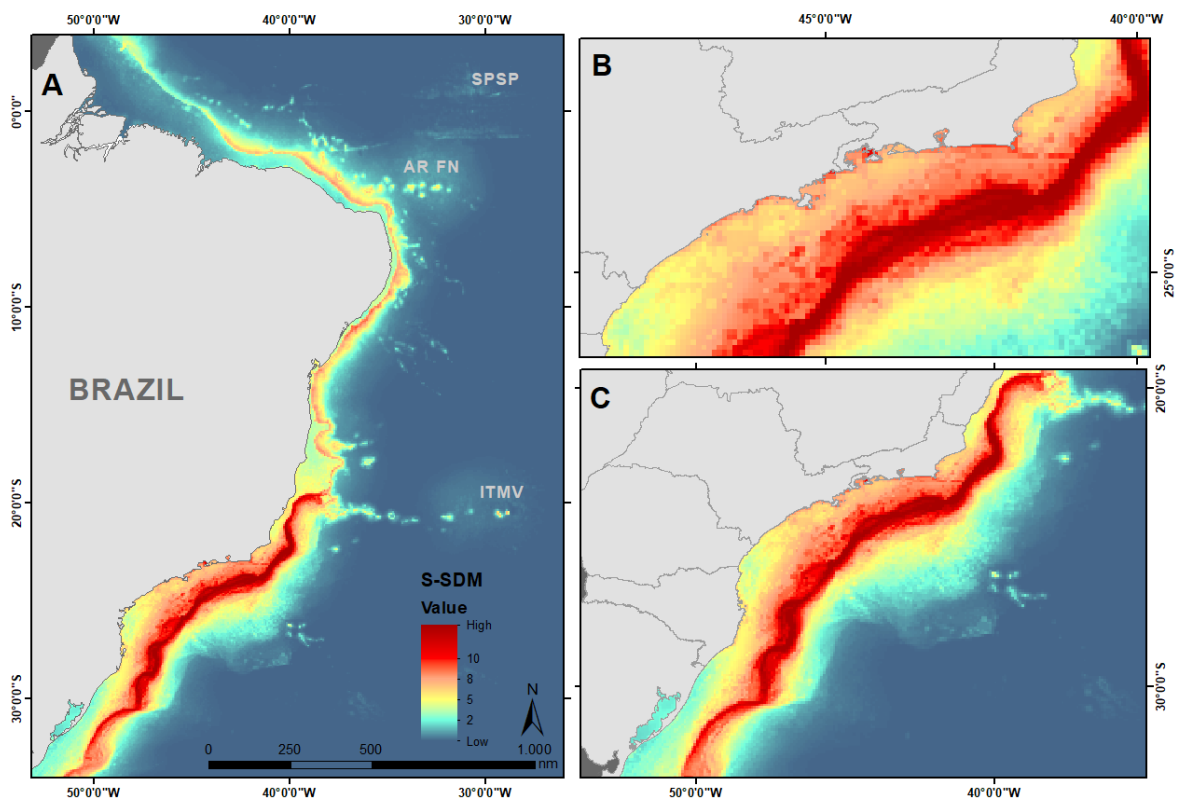


FIGURA 1. STACK-SPECIES DISTRIBUTION MODELS (S-SDM) MOSTRANDO ÁREAS DE MAIOR PROBABILIDADE DE OCORRÊNCIA PARA ODONTOCETOS NO BRASIL. Individual-SDM foram gerados para 17 espécies e então combinados através do S-SDM: A) resultado geral; B) aproximação para o hotspot costeiro; e C) aproximação para o hotspot oceânico. Escala de cores mostra os scores do S-SDM pela probabilidade de ocorrência predita (cloglog).

A primeira parte da discussão foi estruturada no papel das características oceanográficas na influência dos padrões de distribuição dos odontocetos no SWA, considerando os hotspots ecológicos identificados pelo S-SDM. Já a segunda, se baseia na análise de lacunas para discutir a conservação dos odontocetos em águas jurisdicionais brasileiras – a partir de estratégias de conservação baseadas em limites fixos (MPAs) e a potencial contribuição das Áreas Prioritárias para a Conservação (PAC) motivando o debate inicial sobre estratégias de manejo dinâmicas e sobre o conceito das *Areas of Interest* (Aols), o primeiro estágio das *Important Marine Mammals Areas* (IMMAs) (<https://www.marinemammalhabitat.org/>).

Os resultados foram interpretados à luz das províncias biogeográficas marinhas (*Marine Ecoregions of the World* - MEOW) (Spalding et al., 2007), uma vez que estas são consideradas importantes para o desenvolvimento de sistemas ecologicamente representativos de áreas protegidas (Spalding et al., 2007) e entendendo a natureza heterogênea da área de estudo.

Por último – e entendendo o contexto de pós-verdade em que estamos globalmente inseridos – destaca-se que esta dissertação não tem como objetivo invalidar ou desacreditar as áreas marinhas protegidas como estratégias de gestão, ou tão pouco atribuir a falta de eficácia das MPAs aos gestores/as desses espaços que são, sem dúvida alguma, de existência fundamental. Qualquer um/uma que se interesse pela conservação marinha sabe, aliás, que tais profissionais, equipes e comunidades se esforçam diária e amplamente em prol da conservação, mesmo com recursos humanos e financeiros extremamente limitados, com pessoal reduzido e a falta de apoio logístico e financeiro por parte dos governos Federal, estaduais e municipais.

Esta dissertação busca apenas incentivar a discussão sobre o papel das áreas marinhas protegidas no que se refere a conservação dos cetáceos odontocetos (em base aos avanços teóricos na área) e como nós – enquanto pesquisadores/as, educadores/as, gestores/as e ambientalistas – podemos contribuir para uma política de conservação mais eficaz, avaliando quais são os principais desafios para a efetividade das MPAs e como poderíamos superá-los, repensando estratégias e imaginando novas possibilidades nos caminhos da conservação.

DIVERSIDADE DE ODONTOCETOS & ÁREAS MARINHAS PROTEGIDAS (MPAS) NO BRASIL

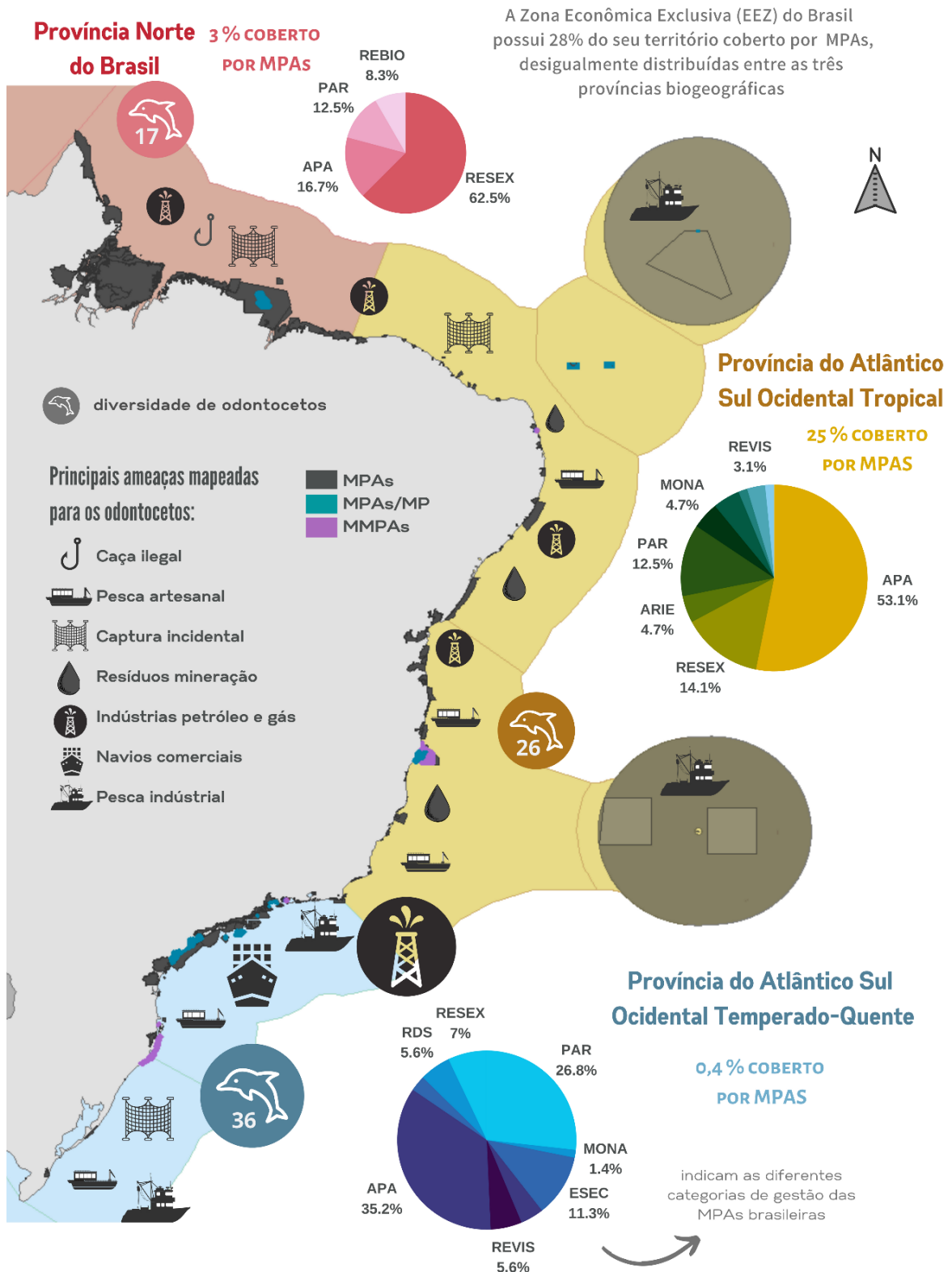


FIGURA 2. DIVERSIDADE DE ODONTOCETOS E AS ÁREAS MARINHAS PROTEGIDAS NO BRASIL. MPAs = áreas marinhas protegidas (também conhecidas como Unidades de Conservação); MPAs/MP = MPAs em que o Plano de Manejo contém estratégias direcionadas aos cetáceos (ainda que estes não sejam seu objetivo central); MMPAs = MPAs criadas com cetáceos como seu objetivo central de conservação.

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1 **ODONTOCETES DISTRIBUTION AND MARINE PROTECTED AREAS: HOW FAR IS BRAZIL**
2 **TO IMPROVE THE CONSERVATION OF THESE FAR-RANGING MARINE TOP PREDATORS?**

3
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19 **Key words:** critical habitats¹, gap analysis², marine protected areas³, marine spatial planning⁴,
20 odontocetes⁵, species distribution model⁶.

21 **Abstract:** Cetaceans in situ conservation requires the preservation of species or populations, as
22 well as the preservation of their preferred habitats. An important step towards this is to understand
23 which habitats are used with higher frequency (for one or more species), and where environmental
24 features (abiotic and biotic) are required to maintain a favorable conservation status. Here, we
25 aimed to understand the role that oceanographic features play on odontocete distribution in the
26 Western South Atlantic Ocean (SWA) to evaluate the suitability of existing Brazilian MPA policy
27 and to identify areas of biological importance to spatial prioritizations for odontocete
28 conservation. Species distribution modelling (SDM) based on the maximum entropy principle
29 (MaxEnt) was chosen to generate models for 17 taxa of odontocete species in the Brazilian
30 Economic Exclusive Zone. The best-fit model configuration ($\Delta AICc=0$) for each species
31 (individual-SDM) was projected using the complementary log-log link function to produce an
32 estimate of occurrence probability. All individual-SDM presented an excellent predictive
33 performance (AUC > 0.9 and TSS > 0.7). Individual-SDMs were combined to produce a Stacked-
34 species distribution model (S-SDM) to identify odontocete ecological hotspots across multiple
35 species, as well as the role of environmental features in driving odontocetes distribution patterns
36 in the SWA. Two areas of major probability of occurrence were identified and can be understood
37 as critical habitats. One is in neritic and deeper waters outer the continental shelf break south of
38 Vitoria-Trindade seamount and the Abrolhos Bank until the Subtropical Convergence zone
39 (offshore hotspot area); and other is in nearshore waters influenced by coastal upwellings in the
40 most populous urbanized coastal region of Brazil (nearshore hotspot area). Through a gap
41 analysis, the S-SDM was overlapped with the current spatial management measures (MPAs
42 coverage and priority areas for conservation) and with the mapped anthropic threats (commercial
43 fishing, oil and gas marine industries and ports). Both offshore and nearshore hotspot areas are
44 under main anthropic threats. Despite the high percentage of coverage (28%), the current MPA
45 policy is unevenly distributed among three marine biogeographical provinces and is most
46 concentrated among the contiguous zone limits (24 nm). It highlights the Brazilian failure to meet
47 Aichi Biodiversity Targets as well as important conservation gaps for most included species. The
48 current MPA policy alone seems to be insufficient to guarantee the conservation of these far-
49 ranging odontocetes and their preferred habitats over time.

50 **1 INTRODUCTION**

51 Cetaceans *in situ* conservation requires the preservation of wild species or populations
52 themselves, as well as the preservation of environments (habitats and ecosystems) that support
53 them and the biotic communities to which they belong (Reeves, 2018). Therefore, an important
54 step towards this is to understand which habitats are used with higher frequency (for one or more
55 species), and where environmental features (abiotic and biotic) are required to maintain a
56 favorable conservation status through time (Cañadas et al., 2005; Pérez-Jorge et al., 2015).

57 Given their life-history traits (such as longevity, late maturity and low reproductive rates)
58 cetaceans are particularly susceptible to human stressors (Ballance, 2018; Evans, 2018; Passadore
59 et al., 2018). These stressors have been increasing on oceans in recent decades, bound to
60 globalization and the massive industrial production scales required by capitalism (Clausen &
61 Clark, 2005; Burns, 2017). Among marine mammals, risk maps suggested that odontocetes
62 currently represented the majority of species in the high-risk areas, and that threats in coastal
63 waters worldwide impose previously unrecognized levels of cumulative risk for most coastal
64 marine mammals (Avila et al., 2018). Meanwhile, little is known about the extent of threats
65 suffered by oceanic odontocetes, where the high seas impose great logistic challenges to research,
66 management, and surveillance (Mannocci et al., 2017).

67 Marine protected areas (MPAs) were widely recognized as one of the most important
68 management tools to mitigate over-exploitation of marine resources, degradation of ocean
69 habitats and improve conservation (Agardy et al., 2011; Hoyt, 2011; Trathan et al., 2014; Handley
70 et al., 2020). In Brazil – as well as most occidental countries – the process of demarcating MPAs
71 is increasingly driven by global targets tied to multilateral agreements, as the Convention on
72 Biological Diversity (CBD) (Brazil, 1998; Agardy et al., 2016). Among Aichi Biodiversity
73 Targets¹⁵, for example, Target 11 defines to protect 10% of the world’s oceans by 2020
74 safeguarding areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, through an
75 effectively managed, ecologically representative, and well-connected systems of protected areas.

76 Nevertheless, the efficacy of many MPAs remain uncertain and evidence suggests that
77 MPAs often fail to deliver positive ecological and social outcomes (Agardy et al., 2016; Hilborn,
78 2016; Gill et al., 2017; Handley et al., 2020). The effectiveness of MPAs also differs among
79 scenarios, being more complex to protect high-mobile and migratory top-predators – as cetaceans
80 – with distribution ranges associated with dynamic oceanographical features in pelagic systems
81 (Hyrenbach et al., 2000).

¹⁵ Established concrete actions to be taken by the signatory governments through twenty targets divided into five strategic goals (<https://www.cbd.int/sp/targets/>).

82 Though the role of MPAs for cetaceans conservation is constantly under debate (Hooker
83 et al., 2011; Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016; Hoyt, 2018; Agardy et al., 2019), there is few
84 empirical evidence that MPAs can improve odontocetes conservation (Gormley et al., 2012;
85 O'Brien and Whitehead, 2013; Mintzer et al., 2015; Pinn, 2018). Besides, beyond the most
86 common MPAs shortcomings (see Agardy et al., 2011), the lack of information about most
87 odontocetes distribution range and their critical habitats are also a great challenge for MPAs
88 efficiency (Hoyt, 2011; Zanardo et al., 2017).

89 The critical habitats do not necessarily have regulatory status as a protected area (Pinn,
90 2018) but seems to play a role for cetacean place-based conservation (Notarbartolo di Sciara et
91 al., 2016; Gomez et al., 2017; Hoyt, 2018). Critical habitats are places or conditions where
92 populations or species regularly use for feed, socialize, rest, breed and raise their young (Hoyt,
93 2018); as well as migration routes, areas that protect essential ecosystem functions and the habitat
94 that cetacean prey depend upon (Hoyt 2011; Hoyt, 2018). Therefore – although feeding, breeding
95 and calving grounds are most critical to protect – it is also essential to protect cetacean key
96 oceanographic processes (as upwellings, ocean fronts or ephemeral habitats) and topographic
97 features (as seamounts and canyons) (Hyrenbach et al., 2000; Clark et al., 2010; Pompa et al.,
98 2011; Hoyt, 2018).

99 To date, 36 marine odontocetes have been recorded in the Brazilian territory and
100 jurisdictional waters (Wickert et al., 2016; Cypriano-Souza et al., 2017; Bastida et al., 2018).
101 Three marine species are included in the Brazil Red List of Threatened Species (MMA, 2014a):
102 both Vulnerable sperm whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*) and the Guiana dolphin (*Sotalia*
103 *guianensis*) and the Critically Endangered Franciscana dolphin (*Pontoporia blainvillei*). Most
104 species are still classified as Data Deficient (62.5%) or even as Not Evaluated (25%) (Rocha-
105 Campos et al., 2011a; 2011b). The main anthropogenic threats are mainly related to fishing
106 conflicts (such as overfishing, bycatch and entanglement) (Fruet et al., 2012; Prado et al., 2013;
107 Di Tullio et al., 2015), vessel traffic (Marega-Imamura et al., 2020), chronic high noise pollution
108 (Bittencourt et al., 2014; Rossi-Santos, 2014), debris and chemical pollution (Yogui et al., 2010;
109 Di Benedetto and Ramos, 2014; Méndez-Fernandez et al., 2018).

110 Regard to Brazilian MPAs, in 2018 the government announced the “accomplishment of
111 Aichi Target 11”, by increasing the jurisdictional waters covered by federal MPAs from 1.5% to
112 more than 25% by the creation of two new sets of protected areas (Brazil, 2018a,b; Magris and
113 Pressey, 2018). However, top-down changes in the original design and categories proposed by
114 technical assessments as well as the maintenance of fishing permission inside no-take areas (see
115 Giglio et al., 2018), alerted civil and scientific communities to another insidious policy bring to a
116 dangerous illusion of protection (Agardy et al., 2011; Giglio et al., 2018; Magris and Pressey,
117 2018).

118 Based on the national legislation in accordance with CBD commitments on research
119 priority for data deficient species (Brazil, 1998; MMA, 2014b) – this study aims to assess the
120 contribution of Brazilian MPAs to the odontocete biodiversity conservation in the Southwestern
121 Atlantic Ocean (SWA). Understanding the role that habitat features play on cetacean distribution
122 is a crucial step to evaluate the suitability of existing MPAs (Pérez-Jorge et al., 2015) and to
123 identify areas of biological importance to spatial prioritizations for conservation (Guisan and
124 Thuiller, 2005; Zanzardo et al., 2017).

125 Species distribution modelling (SDM) is a valuable tool for predicting the distribution of
126 cetacean species and can be used to support management initiatives, such identifying critical
127 habitats (Cañadas et al., 2005; Gomez et al., 2017), ecological hotspots (Tobeña et al., 2016), and
128 help with the management actions or planning of MPA networks (Bombosch et al., 2014; Gomez
129 et al., 2017; Zanzardo et al., 2017; Passadore et al., 2018). A presence-only modeling approach
130 based on the maximum entropy principle (Phillips et al., 2006; Phillips, 2017) was chosen to
131 generate occurrence probability models for 17 taxa of odontocete species in Brazilian Exclusive
132 Economic Zone (EEZ). The individual-SDMs were then combined in order to produce a Stacked-
133 Species Distribution Models (S-SDM) (Calabrese et al., 2014; D’Amen et al., 2015; Zellmer et
134 al., 2019). The aim was to identify odontocete hotspot areas, as well as the role of environmental
135 features in driving odontocetes distribution patterns in the SWA. Through a gap analysis,
136 individual-SDM and multi-species S-SDM were overlapped with the current spatial management
137 measures by the MPAs coverage and the priority areas for conservation (PAC), analyzing the
138 associated legislation, the main coverage gaps, and the principal anthropic pressures through
139 Brazilian EEZ. The predicted maps of both individual-SDM and S-SDM were interpreted in the
140 light of marine biogeographic provinces which are thought to contribute to marine spatial
141 planning (MSP) (Spalding et al., 2007; Robinson et al., 2017).

142

143 **2 MATERIAL AND METHODS**

144 **2.1. Study Area**

145 The Brazilian coastline has approximately 10,800 km, including the cutouts along the coastline,
146 such as bays and gulfs (Schiavetti et al., 2013). The geographical extent of study area was
147 designed to include Brazilian Economic Exclusive Zone (EEZ) which extends 200 nautical miles
148 from the coastline, as well as adjacent waters from Southwestern Atlantic Ocean (SWA) (55°S-
149 25°S, 4°W-34°W) covering a heterogeneous and complex ecosystem (Figure 1).

150 In general, the SWA is under influence of three major water masses: The North Brazil
151 Current (NBC) and the Brazil Current (BC) which splits from the tropical South Equatorial
152 Current (SEC), and the subantarctic Malvinas Current (MC) (Stramma et al., 1990; Da Silveira et

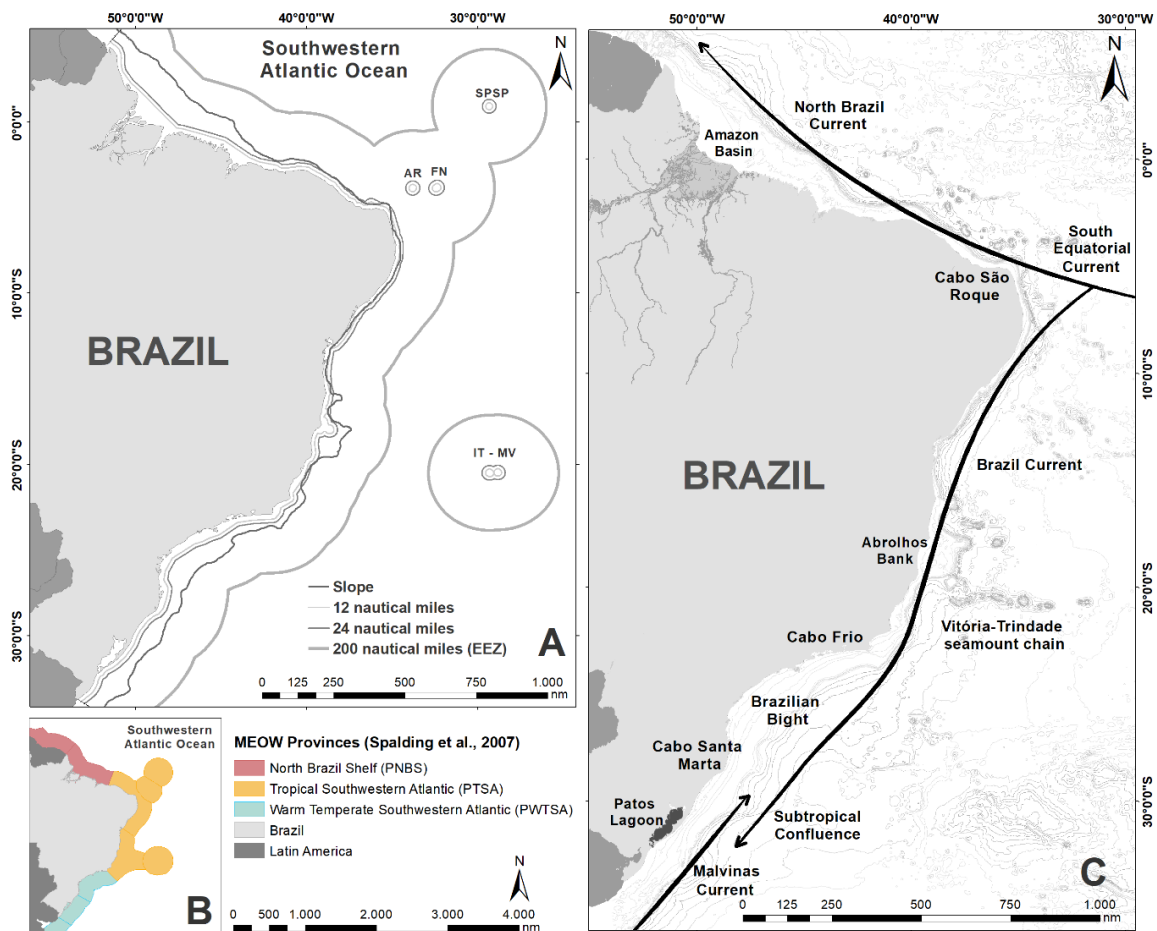
153 al., 1994; Spalding et al., 2012) (Figure 1). Beginning at about 10°S, the NBC flows northward,
154 transporting an important amount of water along the coastal waters of northern Brazil (including
155 freshwater from the Amazon basin). The NBC is characterized by Sea Surface Temperature (SST)
156 ranging between 22°C and 29°C and Sea Surface Salinity (SSS) ranging from 35 to 36.75 psu
157 (Da Silveira et al., 1994; Bourlès et al., 1999; Garzoli et al., 2004). The warm tropical and
158 oligotrophic BC flows southward along the coast of Brazil from approximately 10°S to 38°S,
159 where it collides with the north-flowing MC between 33-38°S (Stramma et al., 1990) (Figure 1).
160 On average, the SST and SSS in the BC is about 18°C-28°C and 35-36.2 psu, with maximums
161 commonly found at around 20°S (Mémery et al., 2000; Willson and Rees, 2000). The cooler MC
162 had mean SST of 6°C (Brandini et al., 2000), with a sharp gradient in SST and SSS observed
163 when it meets the BC in the South Atlantic Subtropical Convergence (SASC) (Garzoli, 1993;
164 Goni et al., 1996).

165 To refer to the study area a global system of marine biogeography as natural frameworks
166 for marine zoning was chosen rather than political demarcations based on land. The use of a
167 biogeographical classification intends to contribute with conservation planning efforts (Spalding
168 et al., 2012), and are considered essential for the development of ecologically representative
169 systems of Protected Areas as is required by international agreements, such as the CBD (Spalding
170 et al., 2007; CBD, 2010). According to the Marine Ecoregions of the World (MEOW), the study
171 area comprises three marine provinces: **North Shelf Brazil** (PNSB), **Tropical Southwestern**
172 **Atlantic** (PTSA) and **Warm-Temperate Southwestern Atlantic** (PWTSA) (Figure 1).
173 Provinces are cohesive units defined by the presence of distinct biotas (including the presence of
174 mobile and endemic species), with some cohesion over evolutionary time frames, and which have
175 arisen as a result of distinctive abiotic features that circumscribe their boundaries (Spalding et al.,
176 2007). In the study area, the MEOW limits are similar to those limits proposed by the Large
177 Marine Ecosystems of the World (LMEs), other proposal for space units which is often cited by
178 the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (*Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e*
179 *Estatística*).

180 In relation to its environmental features, the PNSB is mainly influenced by the warm
181 NBC. This province is characterized by a smooth topography and a large continental shelf (from
182 146 to 292 km), climatic stability, high tidal ranges and high rates of primary production
183 influenced by Amazon River Basin (and the Orinoco River in Venezuela) as an external source
184 of organic matter (Figure 1c) (Ekau and Knoppers, 1999; MMA, 2010; Schiavetti et al., 2013).

185 The PTSA is principally influenced by the warm tropical BC, and is characterized by a
186 narrow continental shelf (from 20 to 55 km), with the exception of the Abrolhos Bank (240 km),
187 and has oligotrophic waters with low primary productivity and little organic matter input (Figure
188 1c) (Ekau and Knoppers, 1999; Knoppers et al., 2010; Schiavetti et al., 2013). From Cabo de São

189 Roque (5°S) to about 16°S the shelf is narrow and the slope is relatively steep (Moreno et al.,
 190 2005). At about 20.5°S, the BC encounters the Vitoria-Trindade seamount chain (VTC), which
 191 demarcates the transition between tropical (PTSA) and subtropical waters (PTWSA) in the SWA
 192 (Amado-Filho et al., 2007; Moreno et al., 2017). The VTC in combination with Abrolhos Bank
 193 act as a topographic barrier to BC flow (Ekau and Knoppers, 1999; Knoppers et al., 2010; Lemos
 194 et al., 2018), however can also provide a horizontal connectivity between the continental shelf
 195 and its isolated oceanic islands at the end of the VTC (Pinheiro et al., 2017).
 196



197
 198 **FIGURE 1. STUDY AREA: POLITICAL BOUNDARIES, OCEANOGRAPHIC FEATURES AND BIOGEOGRAPHICAL**
 199 **PROVINCES.** A) Political boundaries based on the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (CNUDM,
 200 1992), that defines the limits of the Territorial Sea (12 nautical miles), the Contiguous Zone (24 nautical miles)
 201 and the EEZ (200 nautical miles). Letters correspond to the oceanic islands: AR = Atol das Rocas; FN =
 202 Fernando de Noronha Island; SPSP = São Pedro São Paulo archipelago; IT-MV = Trindade Island and Martin-
 203 Vaz. B) Biogeographical boundaries of Marine Ecoregions of the World (MEOW) (Spalding et al., 2007). C)
 204 Main oceanographical features driving odontocete distribution in the SWA.
 205

206 The PWTSA is characterized by different dominant hydrographic dynamics, seasonal
 207 climate, coastal and shelf break upwellings, smooth topography, a large continental shelf (until
 208 220 km) and medium to high primary production (Brandini, 1990; Schiavetti et al., 2013; Di

209 Tullio et al., 2016). At its northern limit (about 23°S) the Brazilian coast undergoes a sudden
210 change in its orientation from North-South to East-West (Mata et al., 2017). The warm and
211 resource-depleted BC encounters the deeper South Atlantic Central Water (SACW), that is
212 pumped to superficial layers, bringing low-temperatures (<18°C) and nutrient-rich waters
213 nearshore (Brandini, 1990; Tavares et al., 2010; Coelho-Souza et al., 2012). The change in the
214 coastline orientation, a steep slope and the occurrence of these two water masses, associated with
215 the prevailing winds, generates a strong upwelling in the continental shelf. The coastal upwellings
216 from SACW occur with greater intensity on the continental shelf south of Abrolhos Bank, mainly
217 in the Cabo Frio where it takes place nearshore and in the Cabo de Santa Marta (Knoppers et al.,
218 2010). The region between Cabo Frio and Cabo de Santa Marta is named South Brazilian Bight
219 (23–28.5°S; SBB), and is a typical western boundary current system (Castro and Miranda, 1998;
220 Nogueira Jr. and Brandini, 2018) (Figure 1c). The SBB is strongly influenced by upwelling and
221 presents dynamic hydrographic variation (Moreno et al., 2005). From Cabo de Santa Marta the
222 continental shelf widens progressively to the southern end of the continent (Bisbal, 1995; Tavares
223 et al., 2010).

224 At its southern limit, the PWTSA is under influence of the South Atlantic Subtropical
225 Convergence (SASC) and the two-external sources of organic matter: the Patos Lagoon (30° 32'S
226 – 51° 53'W) and the La Plata river (Uruguay) (Figure 1c) (Ciotti et al., 1995). During austral
227 winter this input of organic matter extends further than Santa Marta Cape (28°S) while in austral
228 summer it retracts to 32°S (Piola et al., 2005; Prado et al., 2016). In this mixing zone subantarctic
229 waters slope downwards extending northwards below the tropical waters and reaching offshore
230 areas of southern and southeastern Brazil as part of the SACW (Brandini, 1990). This is one of
231 the most energetic regions in all the oceans (Saraceno et al., 2004).

232

233 **2.2. Environmental data, odontocete occurrences and background**

234 Data processing and statistical analysis were performed with R (version 3.5.3, R Core Team,
235 2016) and ArcMap (version 10.3.1 ESRI). Environmental layers were selected based on their
236 ecological relevance for cetaceans (Baumgartner et al., 2001; Cañadas et al., 2002; do Amaral et
237 al., 2015; Derville et al., 2018; Passadore et al., 2018; Barragán-Barrera et al., 2019; Becker et
238 al., 2019). A set of 22 environmental variables were selected to be candidates (Supplementary
239 Table 1). These environmental variables are raster layers of dynamic and static information data
240 and were gathered from public databases, such as Bio-Oracle (<http://www.bio-oracle.org/>)
241 (Tyberghein et al., 2012) and MARSPEC (<http://www.marspec.org/>) (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013)
242 at a 5-arcmin resolution (~10km). All environmental layers were processed to encompass the
243 same extension and resolution.

244 Variable selection was conservative in order to build ecologically meaningful models.
245 Therefore, the correlation among layers was investigated using correlation coefficients (<0.7 ,
246 Dormann et al., 2013) and variance inflation factors (vif) to identify highly collinear variables
247 (<10 , Marquardt, 1970). The ‘vifcor’ finds a pair of variables which has the maximum linear
248 correlation and excludes the one which has greater vif, and ‘vifstep’ calculates vif for all variables
249 and excludes the variables with vif greater than threshold ($=10$) (Naimi, 2017; Passadore et al.,
250 2018). These steps were repeated until there are no variables remaining with a vif greater than
251 thresholds using the usdm package (Naimi, 2017; Passadore et al., 2018). The Pearson correlation
252 among remaining layers after vif steps was investigated using the function ‘pairs’ from raster
253 package (Hijmans et al., 2015) (Supplementary Figure 1). Finally, static layers used in this study
254 included bathymetry (bathy), bathymetry slope (slope) and distance to shore (distoshore); and
255 dynamic layers included annual range chlorophyll-a concentration (Chlora_R), range and
256 maximum annual Sea Surface Salinity (SSS_R and SSS_Ma) and annual range Sea Surface
257 Temperature (SST_R) (Table 1).

258 Georeferenced data for 36 species of odontocetes were compiled from published records,
259 unpublished scientific data, and Brazilian public databases of marine mammals in the study area
260 (i.e., SIMMAM and PMC-BS). These occurrences were collected through different years and
261 seasons, during both opportunistic and systematic marine wildlife observations. In order to
262 perform species distribution models (SDM), species with less than 10 records were excluded
263 (Pearson et al., 2007; Wisz et al., 2008). Therefore, occurrence data from 17 species were used to
264 build individual-SDMs (Table 2), after scrutinizing and removing duplicate records
265 (Supplementary Table 3). The distribution of covariates in the landscape is a finite sample known
266 as background (Elith et al., 2011). We used the function randomPoints from dismo to sample
267 background data from the study area using 10,000 random points as default setting (Phillips and
268 Dudík, 2008; Liu et al., 2018). The random points were used as the “absence” component of the
269 evaluation data in addition to the known presences (Liu et al., 2016).

270

271 **2.2. Species Distribution Models (SDM)**

272 The maximum entropy principle was used to estimate the potential distribution of odontocetes in
273 the study area (Phillips et al., 2006, 2017). The MaxEnt algorithm estimates the geographic range
274 of a species by finding the distribution closest to geographically uniform, subject to constraints
275 defined in terms of ‘features’ (as environmental variables) derived from environmental conditions
276 at recorded occurrence locations (Phillips et al., 2017). It quantifies a statistical relationships
277 between predictor variables at occurrence locations and ‘background’ locations (Phillips et al.,
278 2006; Phillips and Dudík, 2008; Muscarella et al., 2014), and produces a continuously varying,
279 nonnegative suitability scores for each cell in a specified geographic region (Warren et al., 2008).

280 Nowadays, several algorithms are available to perform spatial distribution models (Elith
281 and Leathwick, 2009). The MaxEnt was chosen because its predictive performance is consistently
282 competitive with the highest performing methods (Elith et al., 2006, 2011), and is less sensitive
283 to small sample sizes than other algorithms available (Pearson et al., 2007; Wisz et al., 2008).
284 Usually, small samples sizes are a recurrent issue for cetaceans occurrence data due to their wide-
285 ranging and high mobile characteristics, the rarity for some species, the observational challenges
286 in field and the difficult to access some remote habitats they can live in (Redfern et al., 2006;
287 Derville et al., 2018). Moreover, for cetacean species this algorithm performs well when
288 compared to presence-absence models (Derville et al., 2018; Passadore et al., 2018), and has been
289 shown to be able of modelling species habitats with a relatively high level of complexity and
290 accuracy (Bombosch et al., 2014; Tobeña et al., 2016; Derville et al., 2018; Barragán-Barrera et
291 al., 2019).

292 Individual-SDMs were developed for each species using MaxEnt v. 3.4.1 implemented
293 in the dismo package v. 1.1.4 called through the R programming language (Hijmans et al., 2017;
294 Phillips et al., 2017). For model calibration, MaxEnt model settings were defined through the
295 ENMevaluate function available in the ENMeval package (Muscarella et al., 2014). The ENMeval
296 facilitates increased rigor in the development of MaxEnt models, providing species-specific
297 tuning of settings to improve model performance and reduce the degree to which models overfit
298 (Muscarella et al., 2014). The block approach was used as data partitioning method, in which it
299 partitions data into four bins based on the lines of latitude and longitude that divide occurrences
300 localities as equally as possible (Muscarella et al., 2014; Barragán-Barrera et al., 2019).
301 Occurrences and background localities are assigned to each of the four bins based on their position
302 with respect to these lines (Muscarella et al., 2014). The model runs four times with three blocks
303 set as training data and one block set as test data for each iteration, so then evaluation metrics are
304 summed across the iterations (Zellmer et al., 2019). Moreover, ENMevaluate function processes
305 six feature classes and the combinations between them (Linear, Quadratic, Product, Threshold,
306 Hinge, Category), and standardized values of Regularization Multipliers (0.5, 4, 0.5) to evaluate
307 the best model for each species. The Akaike's Information Criterion ($\Delta AICc$) reflects both
308 model's goodness-fit and complexity using an unpartitioned data set (Muscarella et al., 2014).
309 The model with the lowest value of $\Delta AICc$ ($=0$) was considered the best model out of the current
310 suite of models (Warren and Seifert, 2011; Muscarella et al., 2014). The best-fit model for each
311 species (individual-SDM) was projected using the complementary log-log link (cloglog) function
312 to produce an estimate of occurrence probability (Phillips et al., 2017). The cloglog is more
313 appropriate for estimating probability of occurrence than the logistic transformation, a previous
314 MaxEnt default (Phillips et al., 2017; Zellmer et al., 2019).

315 **2.3. Validation model and prediction**

316 For each species 80% of the sightings were randomly selected as training data sets ('kfold'
317 function in dismo package) and the remaining (20%) was used as testing data, to evaluate the fit
318 of the model and its predictive power ('evaluate' function in dismo package). We used the
319 threshold-independent area under the curve (AUC) of receiver operating characteristic (ROC)
320 curve as indicators of the predictive skill of the model (Phillips et al., 2006). An AUC closer to 1
321 is considered a good model, while close to 0.5 to 0 would indicate that the model performed it's
322 not better than random (Phillips et al., 2006). Complementary, the performance of models was
323 also assessed by the true skill statistic (TSS) (Allouche et al., 2006), which reflects the rate of
324 false positive and negative predictions but is not sensitive to the frequency of presence points
325 (Allouche et al., 2006). As TSS is a threshold-dependent metric, we calculated the threshold value
326 that maximized specificity (true negative rate) and sensitivity (true positive rate) over the
327 evaluation dataset predictions (spec_sens) (Liu et al., 2013, 2016; Derville et al., 2018). This
328 threshold is one of the best selection methods for when only presence data are available (Liu et
329 al., 2013) and seems to produce consistent results (Liu et al., 2016). Values of TSS < 0.4 reflecting
330 poor model predictive performance, 0.4 – 0.6 moderate, and TSS 0.6 – 0.8 good, and > 0.8
331 excellent performance (González-Ferreras et al., 2016; Tobeña et al., 2016) (Table 2).

332

333 **2.4. Stack-Species Distribution Models (S-SDM)**

334 To identify areas with conditions for increased odontocete biodiversity we produced a Stacked-
335 Species Distribution Model (S-SDM) (Calabrese et al., 2014; D'Amen et al., 2015; Zellmer et al.,
336 2019). The S-SDMs were built by combining each of the individual-SDMs in order to provide an
337 opportunity to identify suitable habitat across multiple species (Zellmer et al., 2019). As Tobeña
338 et al. (2016), the S-SDM map was created to investigate where cetacean richness is expected to
339 be higher when compared with adjacent occurrence areas, given a greater environmental
340 suitability.

341

342 **2.5. Marine Protected Area Gap Analysis**

343 The MPAs data were gathered from the World Database of Protected Areas
344 (www.protectedplanet.net) (UNEP-WCMC, 2019) and from Chico Mendes Institute for
345 Biodiversity Conservation (*Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da*
346 *Biodiversidade*) (<http://www.icmbio.gov.br/portal/>) (ICMBio, 2019) in shapefile format. In
347 Brazil, the Coastal-Marine system is understood as one Biome and the protected areas are known
348 as Conservation Units (UCs) (Brazil, 2000; Schiavetti et al., 2013). The National System of
349 Protected Areas (*Sistema Nacional de Unidades de Conservação*) (Brazil, 2000; 2002) defined

350 two classes of protection areas and comprises 12 management categories. The Integral Protection
351 Protected Areas are no-take protected areas and comprises: Ecological Stations (ESEC - IUCN¹⁶
352 Ia), Biological Reserves (REBIO - IUCN Ia), National Parks (PARK – IUCN II), Natural
353 Monuments (MONA – IUCN III) and Wildlife Refuges (REVIS – IUCN III). The Sustainable
354 Use Protected Areas are areas with multiple uses and comprises: Environmental Protection Areas
355 (APA – IUCN V), Areas of Relevant Ecological Interest (ARIE – IUCN IV), Extractive Reserves
356 (RESEX – IUCN VI), Sustainable Development Reserves (RDS – IUCN VI), Private Natural
357 Heritage Reserve (RPPN – IUCN IV), Wildlife Reserves (REFAU – IUCN VI) and National
358 Forest (FLONA – IUCN VI) (Supplementary Table 4).

359 All marine and coastal UCs with available information were included in Coastal-Marine
360 biome were considered. For discussion of coverage, the coastal and marine UCs (keeping the
361 ‘MPA’ term for all of them) were classified in three types: I – MPAs with total or main area
362 (>50%) at sea and/or ocean island (direct influence on odontocetes); II – MPAs mainly in coastal
363 areas (>50%), but with some extent at sea and/or ocean islands (direct influence on odontocetes);
364 and III – MPAs in terrestrial coastal areas (100%), which contribute indirectly by conserving
365 adjacent coastal areas (indirect influence on odontocetes) (Supplementary Figure 2).
366 Nevertheless, only those with direct influence will be discussed here. To evaluate the coverage of
367 the current zoning of the MPAs related with odontocete probability of occurrence, the MPAs
368 polygons were overlapped with the S-SDM raster. The maximum value from the S-SDM raster
369 was extracted and this value was used to rank MPAs according to higher richness coverage.

370 Main anthropogenic threats in the EEZ were mapped through public databases: ports,
371 with data obtained from the National Waterway Transport Agency (ANTAQ)
372 (<http://portal.antaq.gov.br/>); oil and gas extraction basins by the Brazilian National Petroleum
373 Agency¹⁷ (ANP) (<http://www.anp.gov.br/>); and commercial fishing¹⁸ effort database from Global
374 Fishing Watching (GFW) (<https://globalfishingwatch.org/>). The first two were obtained as
375 polygons in shapefile format, whilst the GFW dataset contains the original release of the GFW
376 fishing effort data and includes commercial fishing effort binned into grid cells 0.1 degrees and
377 measured in units of hours (see Kroodsma et al., 2018). The GFW dataset from 2012-2016 was

¹⁶ Equivalence of each Brazilian category (Brazil, 2000) with the six management categories for protected areas suggested by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (IUCN, 1994) (for more details see Dudley, 2008).

¹⁷ Provides shapefiles of exploration blocks and production fields, that is, locations of hydrocarbon exploration which encompass seismic, performance and production stages.

¹⁸ Included industrial fishing vessels tracked from 2012 to 2016, by Automatic Identification System (AIS) satellite signals. These vessels are mostly trawler, drifting long liners and purse seiners active vessels, larger than 24m and 36m, the size which most vessels are mandated by the International Maritime Organization to transmit AIS signals. For more information see Kroodsma et al., (2018) and <https://globalfishingwatch.org/>.

378 obtained in csv format and pooled together into a raster file through the ‘rasterize’ function of
 379 raster (Hijmans et al., 2017) in log scale.

380 One crucial step of spatial planning is revisiting the efficacy of existing area-based
 381 protection measures in light of new information on species distribution (Gomez et al., 2017).
 382 Therefore, marine spatial prioritizations that are part of Brazilian policy were overlapped with S-
 383 SDM raster to investigate if those marine priority areas recently evaluated by experts to several
 384 marine organisms encompass the resulting areas of high odontocete richness. The Priority Areas
 385 for Conservation, Sustainable Use and Sharing of Biodiversity Benefits (PAC) is an instrument
 386 created to support decision making in Brazilian conservation planning, instituted by federal decree
 387 N° 5.092 (Brazil, 2004) in line with the strategies recommended by the CBD and other national
 388 instruments (as MMA, 2006a; 2006b). The PAC was last updated in 2018 (MMA, 2018), by
 389 several experts and using the most widely used decision support software for conservation
 390 planning (MARXAN; <http://marxan.net/>). Polygons in shapefile format were disponible in the
 391 Ministry of the Environment website (<http://areasprioritarias.mma.gov.br/>).

392

393 **3 RESULTS**

394 **3.1. Species Distribution Models (SDM)**

395 After running correlation coefficients and variance inflation factors (‘vifstep’ and ‘vifcor’)
 396 individual-SDMs were built based on seven uncorrelated environmental layers (Table 1). From
 397 3.710 compiled records, 2.192 were retained after scrutinizing data (Supplementary Table 2). All
 398 models presented an excellent predictive performance, with AUC scores > 0.9 and TSS scores >
 399 0.7 indicating model robustness (Table 2). The best model configuration for each species is
 400 presented in Table 2. The variable that most contributed to models was bathy (retained the higher
 401 % in 15 models), followed by distance to shore, SST_R, Chlora_R and SSS_R, and in lower
 402 percentages by slope and SSS_Ma (Table 2). The final individual-SDM with predicted potential
 403 distribution map for each species is shown and shortly commented on Supplementary Material
 404 (Supplementary Figures 3-19). The results are discussed by functional groups according to
 405 phylogeny and ecological information.

406

407 **TABLE 1.** List of environmental variables used in this study and their respective source, unit, resolution, codes
 408 and final values of variance inflation factors (vif).

	Environmental variables	Source	Unit	Resolution	Codes	vif
static	Bathymetry (depth of the seafloor)	MARSPEC	m	0.0833333	bathy	1.838427
	Distance to shore	MARSPEC	km	0.0833333	distoshore	2.048749
	Bathymetric slope	MARSPEC	degrees	0.0833333	slope	1.092413

dynamic	Range annual chlorophyll-a concentration	Bio-Oracle	mg.m-3	0.0833333	Chlora_R	2.115702
	Annual range sea surface salinity	Bio-Oracle	psu	0.0833333	SSS_R	2.278154
	Maximum annual sea surface salinity	Bio-Oracle	psu	0.0833333	SSS_Ma	2.277576
	Annual range sea surface temperature	Bio-Oracle	°C	0.0833333	SST_R	1.803802

409

410 **TABLE 2.** Best fit MaxEnt model selected for each of the 17 species. TRD = Training Data; TED = Test Data;
 411 FC = Feature Classes; RMV = Regularization Multipliers Value; TrAUC = Train AUC; TeAUC = Test AUC;
 412 TSS = True Skill Statistic; spec_spe = threshold value that maximized specificity (true negative rate) and
 413 sensitivity (true positive rate).

Species	TRD	TED	FC	RMV	TrAUC	TeAUC	TSS	spec_spe	Variable contribution (%)
Black-fishes and Risso's dolphin (preference by oceanic and deeper waters < 1000m) (Globicephalinae)									
<i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i>	22	5	LQ H	3.5	0.94	0.92	0.875	0.48	bathy (49.0046); distoshore (47.0841); SST_R (2.8734); SSS_R (1.0321); Chlora_R (0.0058); SSS_Ma (0.0000); slope (0.0000)
<i>Globicephala melas</i>	11	3	LQ	0.5	0.99	1.00	0.995	0.88	bathy (51.8492); slope (17.2355); distoshore (15.4489); SST_R (11.1901); SSS_R (3.5279); SSS_Ma (0.5884); Chlora_R (0.1601)
<i>Feresa attenuata</i>	13	4	LQ	2.5	0.97	0.96	0.912	0.35	bathy (68.7248); SSS_R (18.5290); distoshore (10.6295); Chlora_R (2.1167); SSS_Ma (0.0000); slope (0.0000); SST_R (0.0000)
<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>	17	5	LQ	2	0.96	0.97	0.898	0.31	bathy (52.6529); SST_R (19.8771); distoshore (14.4445); slope (6.5713); SSS_R (3.8052); Chlora_R (2.6138); SSS_Ma (0.0353)
<i>Peponocephala electra</i>	18	5	LQ	0.5	0.98	0.98	0.937	0.36	bathy (41.7004); distoshore (35.3369); SSS_R (12.1249); Chlora_R (5.9294); slope (4.2404); SST_R (0.6681); SSS_Ma (0.0000)
<i>Grampus griseus</i>	62	15	LQ H	3	0.99	0.98	0.898	0.15	bathy (33.7648); Chlora_R (23.2116); distoshore (13.7001); SST_R (12.3341); SSS_R (6.4821); slope (5.5739); SSS_Ma (4.9335)
Wide-ranging delphinids (inhabits coastal, neritic and oceanic waters) (Delphininae)									
<i>Orcinus orca</i>	74	17	LQ H	4	0.97	0.97	0.887	0.32	bathy (41.1717); Chlora_R (25.0864); SST_R (18.5905); distoshore (7.9474); SSS_Ma (0.0000); slope (3.9140); SSS_R (3.2900)
<i>Tursiops spp.</i>	313	78	LQ HP	2	0.97	0.96	0.830	0.09	bathy (68.1620); SST_R (7.8012); SSS_R (6.7152); distoshore (6.4131); Chlora_R (4.0346); SSS_Ma (1.9535); slope (1.8292);

<i>Steno bredanensis</i>	76	18	LQ	0.5	0.95	0.96	0.822	0.08	bathy (69.9517); distoshore (14.0927); SST_R (6.0778); SSS_R (5.6761); slope (2.1845); Chlora_R (1.7340); SSS_Ma (0.2831)
<i>Delphinus sp.</i>	67	17	LQ	0.5	0.97	0.99	0.97	0.27	bathy (55.6522); SST_R (14.9061); Chlora_R (13.4154); slope (5.3143); SSS_R (6.3284); distoshore (3.8305); SSS_Ma (0.5532)
Small coastal delphinids (preference by coastal and neritic shallower waters) (Delphininae)									
<i>Sotalia guianensis</i>	66	16	LQ	0.5	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.04	bathy (58.6082); distoshore (30.5362); SST_R (4.3242); SSS_R (2.5736); Chlora_R (2.5569); SSS_Ma (1.1812); slope (0.2197)
<i>Stenella frontalis</i>	236	59	LQ	0.5	0.98	0.98	0.92	0.05	bathy (70.0346); SSS_R (14.7802); SST_R (5.4201); distoshore (4.8228); Chlora_R (4.6430); slope (0.2994); SSS_Ma (0.0000)
Small oceanic delphinids (stenellids with preference by oceanic and deeper waters) (Delphininae)									
<i>Stenella attenuata</i>	288	71	LQ HP	4	0.96	0.95	0.81	0.24	distoshore (49.1505); bathy (35.8162); slope (6.4053); Chlora_R (3.6383); SSS_Ma (2.6322); SST_R (2.0055); SSS_R (0.3519)
<i>Stenella clymene</i>	44	11	LQ	0.5	0.94	0.95	0.85	0.26	distoshore (42.1503); bathy (33.2319); SSS_R (12.2193); Chlora_R (7.2613); SST_R (4.6052); slope (0.5188); SSS_Ma (0.0132)
<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i>	19	5	LQ H	4	0.98	0.99	0.98	0.81	bathy (56.6403); Chlora_R (26.5399); SST_R (9.0020); distoshore (4.7730); slope (3.0448); SSS_Ma (0.0000); SSS_R (0.0000)
<i>Stenella longirostris</i>	147	36	LQ H	2	0.98	0.96	0.81	0.03	bathy (45.6137); slope (22.4061); distoshore (13.9059); SSS_R (8.4264); Chlora_R (5.4356); SST_R (3.1442); SSS_Ma (1.0683)
Sperm whale (preference by deep waters along the edges of continental shelf) (Physeteridae)									
<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>	283	71	LQ HP	1.5	0.97	0.96	0.83	0.04	bathy (63.0813); distoshore (17.0180); slope (10.2997); SST_R (5.3201); Chlora_R (2.5931); SSS_Ma (1.3796); SSS_R (0.3082)

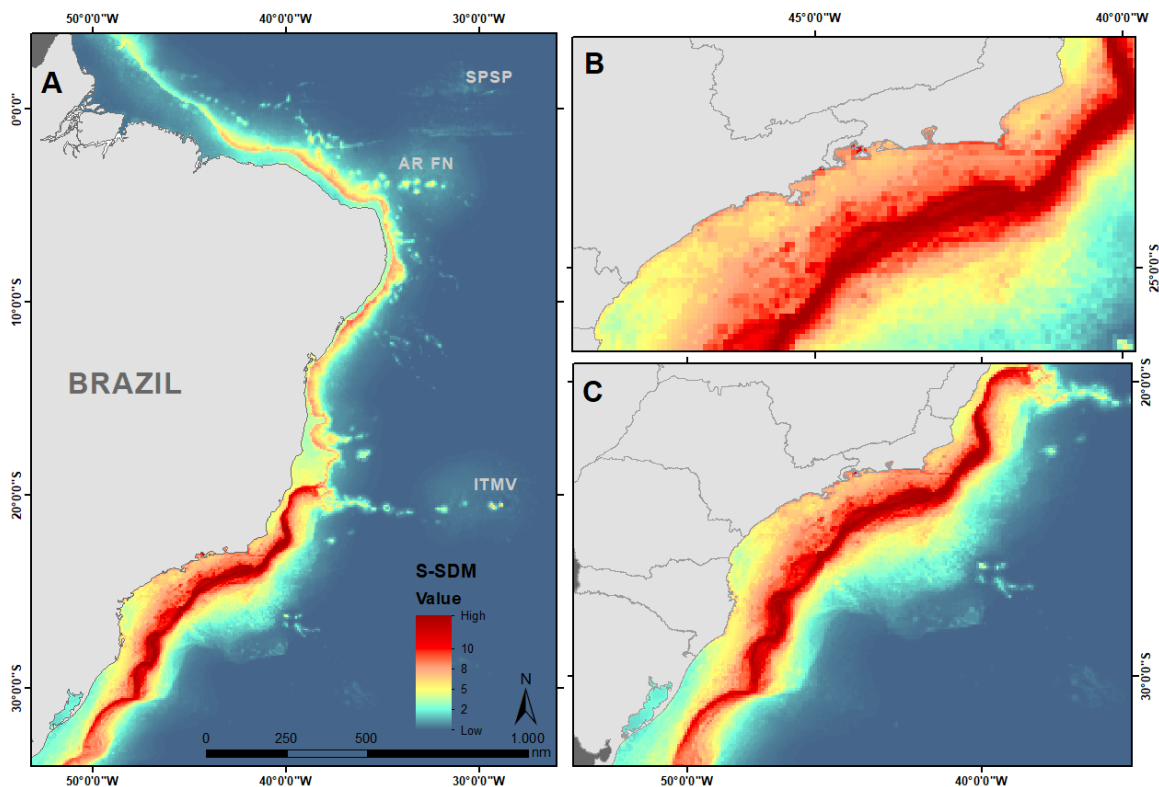
414

415 **3.2. Stack-Species Distribution Models (S-SDM)**

416 The S-SDM showed predicted multi-species habitat suitability across the Brazilian EEZ and
417 adjacent waters from SWA for 17 odontocete species. Two areas of major probability of
418 occurrence given a greater environmental suitability across multiple species was indicated: one
419 in neritic and deeper waters outer of the continental shelf break through the PW TSA and southern
420 PTSA (offshore hotspot area); and one in nearshore waters influenced by coastal upwellings in

421 the northern PWTSA (nearshore hotspot area) (Figure 2). In general, average occurrence
422 probability was lower in coastal and oligotrophic warm waters, especially along the narrow
423 continental shelf in the PTSA and through PBNS and increases south of Abrolhos Bank and the
424 Vitória-Trindade Chain. Except for the model generated for the Guiana dolphin (the only strictly
425 coastal and estuarine species included), all individual-SDM indicated environmental suitability
426 on this offshore area (see Supplementary Figures 3-19). Meanwhile, nearshore waters with great
427 environmental suitability were influenced by individual-SDMs from wide-ranging delphinids
428 (killer whale, bottlenose dolphins, rough-toothed dolphin, and common dolphin) and small coastal
429 delphinids (Atlantic-spotted dolphin and Guiana dolphin) (Table 2). This coastal area, besides
430 being a higher productive zone, is also a metropolitan area where the odontocetes are under threat
431 from high anthropogenic pressures from increasing activities and developments (adjacent areas
432 of southeastern Brazil).

433



434

435 **FIGURE 2. STACK-SPECIES DISTRIBUTION MODELS (S-SDM) SHOWING PREDICTED MULTI-SPECIES PROBABILITY**
436 **OF OCCURRENCE.** Individual-SDMs were created for 17 odontocete species and then added together to create
437 an S-SDM. A) S-SDM general result; B) zoom to the nearshore hotspot area; and C) zoom to the offshore
438 hotspot area. Color ramp shows S-SDM scores by predicted probability of occurrence.

439

440 3.3. Gap Analysis

441 Regarding to MPAs the current percentage of coverage in the Brazilian EEZ is the 28%, unevenly
442 distributed among the three marine provinces (Figure 3A) (Supplementary Table 4). Among

443 MPAs that could directly influence the marine odontocetes conservation (type I and II), 70 MPAs
444 are from federal administration, 75 state administration and 15 municipal administration
445 (Supplementary Table 4). Among those from federal¹⁹ administration, only 47% have approved
446 management plans and, among these, only 27% cited some management measures specifically
447 for odontocetes (e.g., acoustic monitoring, advances in scientific knowledge, regulates the gillnets
448 fisheries and diving interactions with dolphins).

449 Almost all MPAs type I and II are distributed in the Contiguous Zone (until 24 nm from
450 the coastline). The exceptions are those MPAs around oceanic islands of the PTSA (Atol das
451 Rocas, Fernando de Noronha, São Pedro São Paulo and Trindade and Martim-Vaz Archipelagos)
452 and one small and no-take MPA in the PNBS (Marine State Park Manuel Luís). The absence of
453 other MPAs up to 24 nm is an important protection gap to wide-ranging and oceanic odontocetes
454 in the Brazilian EEZ (Figure 3B).

455 The predicted areas of greatest occurrence probability across multiple species, are also
456 those with the highest concentration of mapped anthropic pressures (Figure 3C). In offshore
457 waters, the biggest exploration blocks and production fields of oil and gas industries are found
458 between southern PTSA and northern PWTSA, while the highest concentration of ports is found
459 in the northern PWTSA. Regarding commercial fishing, the effort at EEZ was concentrated in
460 coastal and neritic waters through the PWTSA and widely in offshore waters after 200 nm (mainly
461 by non-Brazilian vessels).

462 Lastly, when the S-SDM was overlapped with the PAC spatial prioritizations, were
463 observed that it encompasses most of the resulting areas of high odontocete probability of
464 occurrence (Figure 3D). As based in the EBSAs concept, the PAC harbors areas of high, very
465 high and extremely high biological importance, identified through high, very high and extremely
466 high action priority (Figure 3D). It could be useful for determining and prioritizing dynamic
467 management areas, incorporating other in situ strategies beyond the MPA model based on fixed
468 boundaries used in Brazil. The area of high probability of occurrence of odontocetes and without
469 any coverage by MPAs or PAC, for example, is the same area with the highest activity by the oil
470 and gas industry – an activity that imposes direct threats to odontocetes (Figure 3C).

471 The marine province with the highest odontocete species richness (PWTSA) has the
472 lowest MPA coverage (Figure 4). The species with the highest MPA coverage along its potential
473 distribution is the Guiana dolphin. Meanwhile, there are species with no coverage of MPA at all
474 along its potential distribution, such as the long-finned pilot whale (*Globicephala melas*). The
475 most frequent management category is Environmental Protection Area (APA) (category V –

¹⁹ Only the federal MPAs could be evaluated by the standardizing information from ICMBio platform (<http://www.icmbio.gov.br/>).

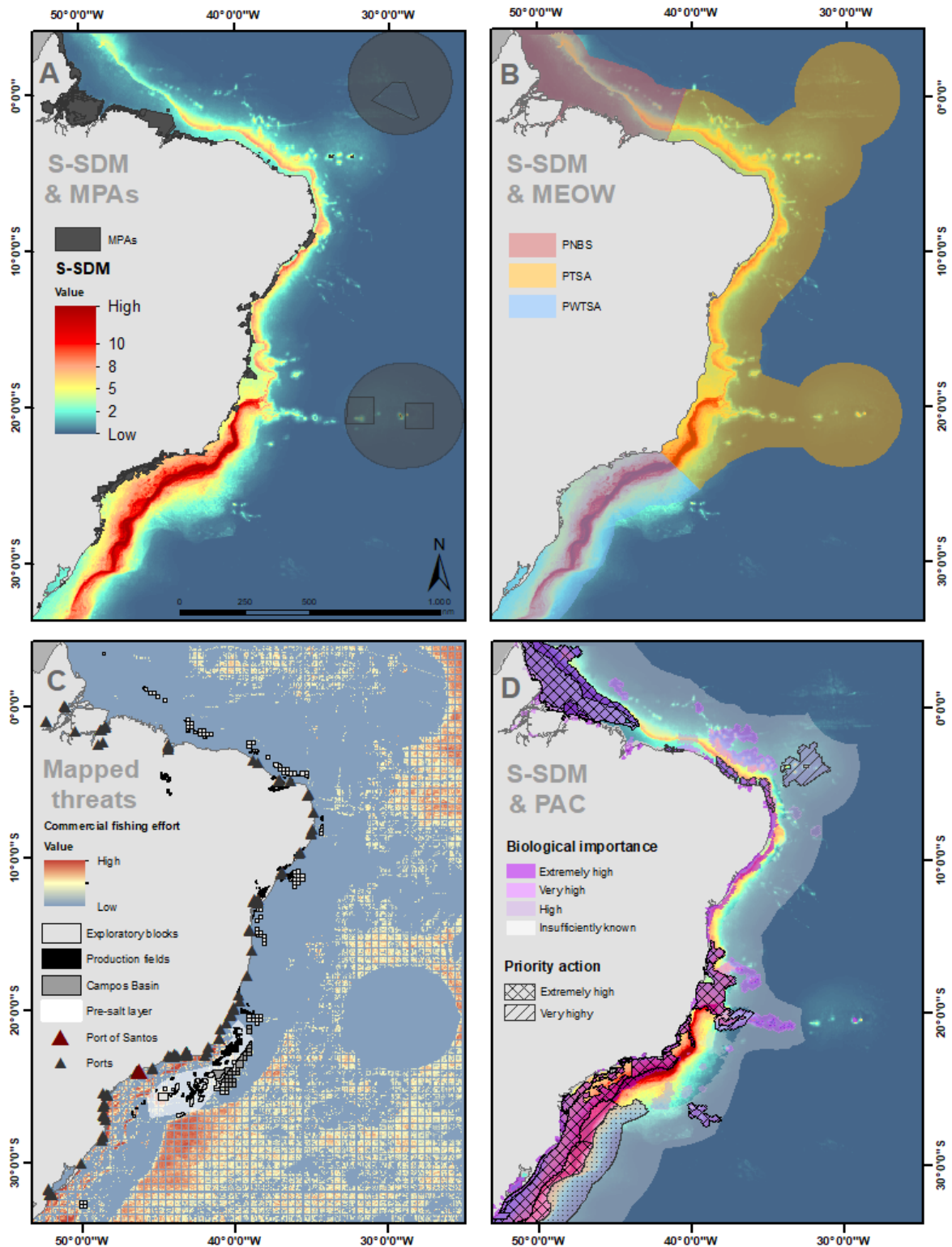
476 IUCN) (more than 50%), the least restrictive multiple-use management category (Supplementary
477 Table 4).

478 Among marine provinces, the PNBS has 3% covered by MPAs type I and II
479 (11,115,821.55 ha) (Figure 4). Two large multiple-use MPAs increase this percentage (APA
480 Reentrâncias Maranhenses and APA Arquipélago do Marajó). All other MPAs type I and II are
481 classified as small²⁰ and medium sizes (Supplementary Table 4). The PNBS has the lowest
482 diversity of odontocete species (17 species), and the lowest diversity of MPAs management
483 categories (Figure 4). The Extractive Reserves (RESEX) (category VI – IUCN) is the most
484 frequent management category. The RESEX is associated with a large presence of mangroves in
485 this region and, as well as the traditional populations that depend on these natural resources and
486 is based on co-management.

487 The PTSA has the highest percentage of covered area by MPAs, reaching more than 25%
488 (93,628,999.24 ha) (Figure 4). However, only the two newly implemented sets of MPAs around
489 São Pedro São Paulo archipelago (SPSP) and Trindade and Martin-Vaz islands (ITMV) cover
490 together almost 24%. Of this percentage, 87.5% are from multiple-use APAs and 12.5% from no-
491 take MONAs (category III – IUCN) that do not sustain the no-take requirements. Besides the
492 newly implemented large MPAs, all other MPAs are classified as medium and small sizes. The
493 PTSA has 26 odontocete species registered.

494 The PWTSA has the lowest percentage of coverage (0.4%, about 2.159.119,54 ha)
495 (Figure 4). Besides three medium size MPAs, all other MPAs are classified with small sizes. The
496 northern PWTSA has the greatest number of MPAs with direct influence on odontocetes (type I
497 and II) (Supplementary Table 4) and the largest amount of “ranked” MPAs as capable to cover
498 preferred habitats for small coastal and wide-ranging delphinids in this highly threatened area
499 (Figure 3). This province also has the highest odontocete diversity, with 36 marine species
500 registered. The species composition differs from other provinces, mainly for the presence of many
501 temperate species recorded in the southern PWTSA, as porpoises (Phocoenidae) and beaked
502 whales (Ziphiidae) that could not be directly included in the analyses. This province has a diverse
503 management category, but the most frequent category is also APA (category V – IUCN) (Figure
504 4). Further, the PWTSA has the highest concentration of anthropic threats in the areas of greatest
505 occurrence probability for several species, in both coastal and offshore zones (Figure 4).

²⁰ Interpretation of the size of the MPAs for cetaceans as a feature follows Pinn (2018): small (<1000 km²), medium (>1000 km² to 10,000 km²), large (10,000 km² to 100,000 km²) and very large (>10,000 km²).



506

507 **FIGURE 3. GAP ANALYSIS FROM ODONTOCETE CONSERVATION THROUGH BRAZILIAN JURISDICTIONAL**
 508 **WATERS.** A) Marine protected areas coverage and S-SDM scores by predicted probability of occurrence across
 509 multi-species; B) S-SDM scores through the three marine biogeographic provinces (Spalding et al., 2007); C)
 510 Main mapped threats identified as ports (considering the intense shipping traffic), the oil and gas industries
 511 represented by exploratory blocks and production fields and the commercial fishing effort (log) between 2012-
 512 2016; and D) Priority Areas for Conservation (PAC) overlapped with the S-SDM scores (MMA, 2018).

513

514 **4 DISCUSSION**

515 Here, for the first time individual-SDM associated with spatial maps for multiple species (S-SDM
516 approach) were applied to identify ecologically important areas for odontocetes in the SWA.
517 Based on this approach were identified preferred habitats for 17 odontocete species; and
518 odontocetes hotspots zones in an almost contiguous nearshore and offshore waters. Both areas
519 could be understood as critical habitats across multiple species, mainly attributed to the frequency
520 of occurrence of the species and by the high primary production related to well-defined
521 oceanographic features. In the context of gap analysis, were identified matches and mismatches
522 of MPAs coverage and odontocetes potential distribution; and where are three main anthropic
523 pressures in relation to these ecological important areas to odontocetes.

524

525 **4.1. The role of environmental features in driving odontocetes distribution patterns in the** 526 **SWA**

527 The results obtained here are very similar to the pattern of diversity for cetaceans find worldwide
528 by Tittensor et al. (2010), in which odontocetes were influenced mainly by optimal SST at mid-
529 latitudes (20°-40°) and high oceanic productivity (Tittensor et al., 2010; Whitehead et al., 2010).
530 The S-SDMs was useful to identify areas with high probability of occurrence for a majority of the
531 odontocetes in a transitional zone between tropical and subtropical biotas, south of the Abrolhos
532 Bank and the VCT (Figure 2). Neritic and offshore waters outer of the continental slope are under
533 influence of the upwellings from SACW that rise south of the Abrolhos Bank, the movements of
534 the two main currents BC and MC and, consequently, the SASC. Meanwhile, the great occurrence
535 probability in urbanized nearshore waters occurs in the northern PWTSA, in or near Cabo Frio
536 upwellings zone and decreasing towards the SBB. Understanding the physical mechanisms that
537 influence the formation and the persistence of predictable critical habitats is essential in order to
538 define conservation management strategies for far-ranging top-marine predators (Hyrenbach et
539 al., 2000).

540

541 **4.1.1. The offshore hotspot area**

542 Odontocete cetaceans do not have well-defined migratory patterns and their critical habitats are
543 most subject to well-defined but spatially dynamic ocean features associated with their energy
544 requirements (Mannocci et al., 2017; Forcada, 2018). Among the included oceanic dolphins, the
545 commonly called black fishes (the pygmy killer whale *Feresa attenuata*, the melon-headed whale
546 *Peponocephala electra*, the short-finned pilot whale *Globicephala macrorhynchus*, the long-
547 finned pilot whale and the false killer whale *Pseudorca crassidens*) and the Risso's dolphin
548 (*Grampus griseus*), the oceanic stenellids (the pantropical-spotted dolphin *Stenella attenuata*, the

549 Clymene dolphin *S. clymene*, the striped dolphin *S. coeruleoalba*, and the spinner dolphin *S.*
550 *longirostris*), and the sperm whale shown high occurrence probability in offshore and deeper
551 waters (>1,000m) in step shelf edge areas outer of continental slope (Supplementary Figures 3-
552 19). Most oceanic top-predators are known to prefer heterogeneous habitats, such as shelf breaks
553 and submarine canyons (Hooker et al., 1999; Bouchet et al., 2015). The increase of productivity
554 is determined by static bathymetric features and hydrographic features (as persistent currents and
555 frontal systems and ephemeral habitats generated by wind and/or current-driven upwellings and
556 eddies) (Hyrenbach et al., 2000; Forcada, 2018), concentrating prey for deep divers (Davis et al.,
557 2001; Cañadas et al., 2002; Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al., 2008). In fact, habitat features that
558 enhance local productivity and the aggregation of prey species are widely described as the primary
559 influence of the physical environment over cetacean distributions (Davis et al., 2001; Cañadas et
560 al., 2002; Di Tullio et al., 2016). The seafloor depth and relief, combined with temperature and
561 other oceanographic features affect the occurrence of prey and, therefore, influence odontocetes
562 distribution (Baumgartner et al., 2001; Davis et al., 2001).

563 The offshore hotspot area predicted with high occurrence probability across multi-species
564 (Figure 2) is characterized by shelf break upwellings from SACW that take place along
565 continental slope and the seasonal movements of BC and MC, altering water compositions and
566 enhancing densities of autotrophic communities of upper layers (Brandini, 1990; Di Tullio et al.,
567 2016). The primary production rates in the northern PWTSA are greater during austral summer
568 and spring months, when upwellings from SACW are more intense (Knoppers et al., 2010; Tardin
569 et al., 2019b). Meanwhile, in the southern PWTSA the interaction between BC and MC over the
570 shelf produce a northward and onshore flow during austral winter (with subantarctic, nutrient-
571 rich and lower salinity waters) and a southward and offshore flow during austral summer (with
572 warm, nutrient-poor coastal waters) (Moreno et al., 2005; Prado et al., 2016). The latitude of
573 SASC determines where the BC will separate from the continent (usually about 36°S), and is
574 farther north during austral winter and spring (Olson et al., 1988; Podestá et al., 1991; Moreno et
575 al., 2005). The increase of phytoplankton biomass during austral winter and spring has also been
576 related to nutrient supply from La Plata River and Patos Lagoon (Ciotti et al., 1995; Prado et al.,
577 2016).

578 The “black fishes”, the Risso’s dolphin and the sperm whale have principally a
579 teutophagic diet (“squid-eaters”), whereas the oceanic stenellids have a wider spectrum of target
580 prey of fishes and squids (Davis et al., 2001; Cañadas et al., 2002). Di Tullio et al., (2016)
581 indicates that most large and small delphinids have higher densities in the southern PWTSA
582 during spring season, when compared with autumn. Prado et al., (2016) also reported an increase
583 in the number of strandings of these species during late winter and earlier spring in this area. This
584 is probably associated with the increasing in high primary productivity and, consequently, a high

585 biomass of demersal and pelagic fish and squid in the vicinity of shelf breaks that moving from
586 the south in association with the SASC (Haimovici and Perez, 1991; Haimovici and Aguiar dos
587 Santos, 2001; Dos Santos and Haimovici, 2002; Haimovici et al., 2009). For the same reason, the
588 industrial fishing effort has been concentrated in this province (Figure 3C). The PWTSA is
589 responsible for more than 50% of industrial and commercial fishery production in Brazil
590 (Knoppers et al., 2010). This also results in an overexploitation of several fishery stocks and high
591 bycatch rates of several marine top-predators (Zerbini and Kotas, 1998; Bugoni et al., 2008; Prado
592 et al., 2016). The commercial fishing effort data presented here are underestimated, since Brazil
593 is one of the countries with a poor satellite coverage for both artisanal and commercial fishing
594 (Kroodsma et al., 2018). Moreover, the coastal artisanal gillnet fishery is also recognized as a
595 threat to several odontocete species (Prado et al., 2013; Di Tullio et al., 2015) and were not
596 included.

597 The seasonal changes in well-defined oceanographic features and prey availability can
598 cause changes in odontocete distribution. For example, the long-finned pilot whale appears to be
599 associated with colder waters from MC, reaching lower latitudes by the influence of the SACS
600 (Supplementary Figure 6). Meanwhile, more tropical species (as the pygmy killer whale, the long-
601 finned pilot whale, the melon-headed whale, the pantropical-spotted dolphin, the Clymene
602 dolphin and the spinner dolphin) seem to have their movements associated with the warm BC
603 through Brazilian continental slope, following its boundaries seasonally (Supplementary Figures
604 4, 5, 9, 12, 13) (Secchi, 1995; do Amaral et al., 2015). The dynamic nature of pelagic systems
605 reinforces the need to include dynamic management measures (Hyrenbach et al., 2000) and also
606 the biological importance of the SACS as a limit range for several species in the SWA (Moreno
607 et al., 2005).

608

609 **4.1.2. The nearshore hotspot area**

610 The wide-ranging delphinids, the killer whales (*Orcinus orca*), the rough-toothed dolphin (*Steno*
611 *bredanensis*), the bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops* spp.) and the common dolphin (*Delphinus* sp.),
612 showed higher occurrence probability in neritic habitats over the continental shelf, but also in
613 both predicted areas for coastal and oceanic species.

614 In Brazilian waters two bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops* spp.) are recognized: The Lahille's
615 bottlenose dolphin (*T. gephyreus*) a recently revalidated species (Wickert et al., 2016) and the
616 common bottlenose dolphin (*T. truncatus*). Despite the full taxonomic status of the Lahille's
617 bottlenose dolphin is still under debate (Fruet et al., 2017; Simões-Lopes et al., 2019; Genoves et
618 al., 2020), here we assumed the existence of two different species (Hohl et al., 2020; Machado et
619 al., 2020). The Lahille's bottlenose dolphin occur in inshore waters close to the surf zone, coastal
620 bays, and adjacent waters from coastal estuaries and lagoons of southern PWTSA, Uruguay and

621 Argentina (Wickert et al., 2016; Simões-Lopes et al., 2019). The Lahille's bottlenose dolphin
622 present site fidelity in the Patos Lagoon (Genoves et al., 2020), Laguna river estuary and in the
623 Tramandaí river estuary (Daura-Jorge et al., 2012; Di Giacomo and Ott, 2016; Ilha et al., 2018).
624 In these estuaries, the Lahille's bottlenose dolphin is known for perform a cooperative fishing
625 carried out with traditional fishermen, an interspecific and cultural relationship (Pryor et al., 1990;
626 Simões-Lopes et al., 1998; Daura-Jorge et al., 2012). This interaction is recognized as local
627 cultural heritage by municipal legislations (Imbé, 1990; Laguna, 1997). Recently, the IUCN listed
628 the Lahille's Bottlenose dolphin as Vulnerable (VU) (Vermeulen, et al., 2019).

629 Conversely, the common bottlenose dolphin (*T. truncatus*) is widely distributed along the
630 Brazilian coast (Wickert et al., 2016; Simões-Lopes et al., 2019). The common bottlenose dolphin
631 occur in the three marine provinces, in coastal and offshore waters and also around all oceanic
632 islands (Rossi-Santos et al., 2006; Baracho et al., 2008; De Carvalho and Rossi-Santos, 2011;
633 Meirelles et al., 2016; Milmann et al., 2017). The common bottlenose dolphin has known site
634 fidelity around SPSP archipelago (Milmann et al., 2017); and is frequently sighted closer to coast
635 in the Cagarras Archipelago (Lodi et al., 2014; Lodi, 2016; Lodi and Tardin, 2018) and in the
636 Cabo Frio region (Tardin et al., 2013, 2019b). Nevertheless, Tardin et al., (2019b) indicates that
637 this species does not seem to be resident in the Cabo Frio region, using it as a passing area
638 influenced by prey availability. Further, common bottlenose dolphins have also been sighted in
639 all seasons around Trindade Island (De Carvalho and Rossi-Santos, 2011; Moreno et al., 2017;
640 Ilha, 2018). The core observation occurs mainly inside the 12 nm around Trindade Island, which
641 was removed from any type of protection by the top-down changes in the MPA design (Ilha, 2018;
642 Giglio et al., 2018).

643 The rough-toothed dolphin, despite being recorded along the three marine provinces, is
644 all year sighted only in coastal waters from Abrolhos Bank and northern PWTSA (Lodi and
645 Hetzel, 1998; Rossi-Santos et al., 2006; Lodi et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2019). Lodi et al. (2012)
646 suggest a possible instance of site fidelity in coastal waters between Cabo Frio and Rio de Janeiro
647 cities, but also indicate the need to better understand the home range of this species. Santos et al.
648 (2019), for example, reveal that some individuals of rough-toothed dolphins first seen in
649 Guanabara Bay (Rio de Janeiro state) were sighted 240 km southwards in coastal waters from São
650 Paulo state three years later. The presence of the rough-toothed dolphin around the Abrolhos
651 Archipelago and the coral reef surroundings, can be association with their potential prey items,
652 some of which occur in shallow reef sites such as those found in the Abrolhos area (Lodi and
653 Hetzel, 1999; Wedekin et al., 2005; Rossi-Santos et al., 2006).

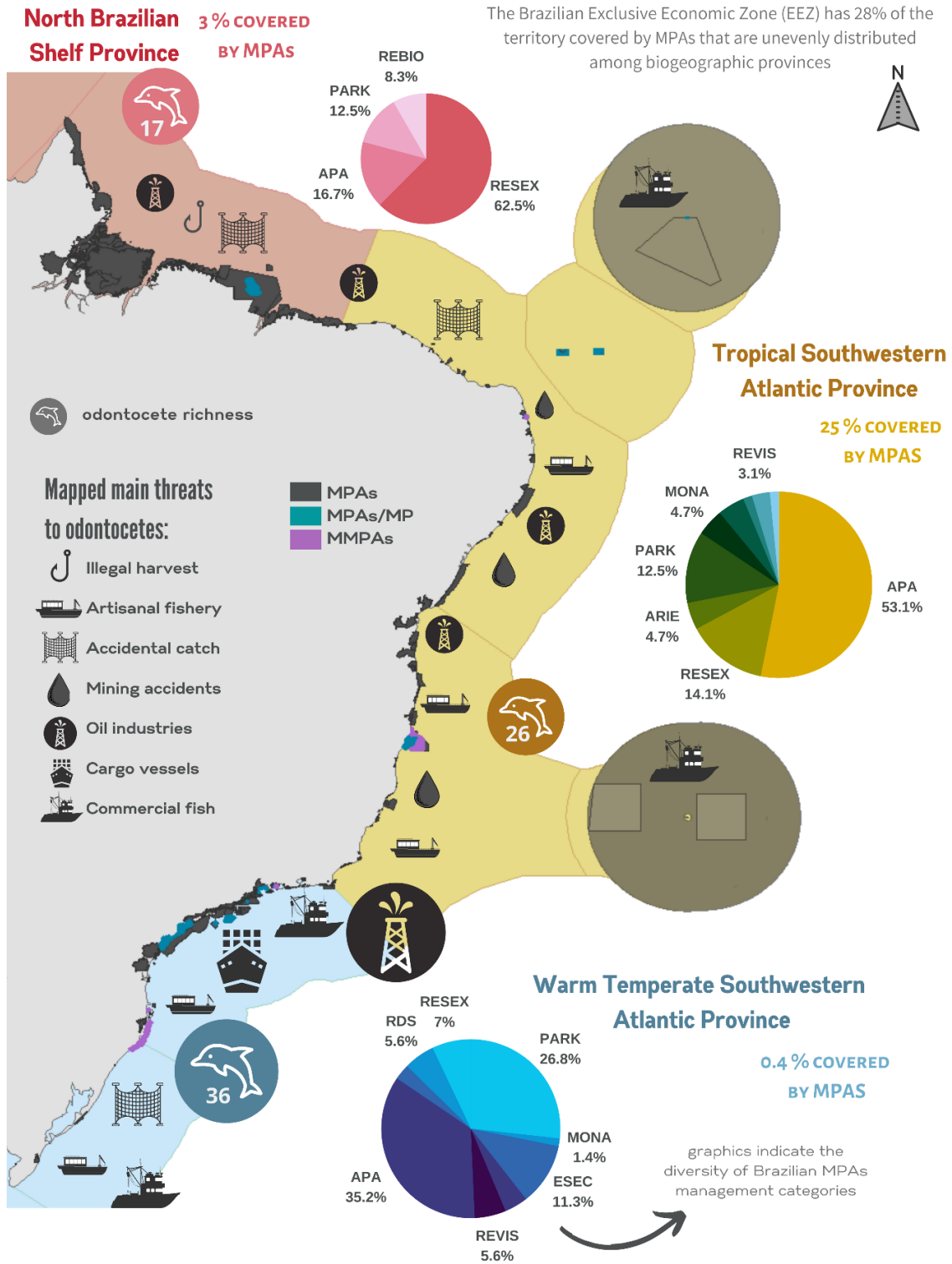
654 As observed for the wide-ranging odontocetes, the coastal small delphinids, the Atlantic-
655 spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) and the Guiana dolphin are frequent species in the nearshore
656 hotspot area (Tavares et al., 2010; do Amaral et al., 2015; Santos et al., 2017, 2019). This seems

657 to be an important cetaceans hotspots, where dolphins and whales find a prey-rich region (Santos
658 et al., 2019; Tardin et al., 2019a). The upwelling phenomena replenishes surface nutrients and
659 enhances primary production (Hyrenbach et al., 2000), rich fishing grounds and increased
660 biomass of some of potential main prey such some squids and small pelagic fishes (Bakun and
661 Parrish, 1990; Haimovici and Perez, 1991; Paiva and Motta, 2000).

662 The Atlantic-spotted dolphin showed a discontinuous distribution range in the SWA
663 (between 6° and 18°S) (Moreno et al., 2005; Danilewicz et al., 2013; do Amaral et al., 2015). Low
664 occurrence probability occurs in the PTSA, where the continental shelf is narrow (6° to 16°S) and
665 the total estimated fish biomass is 77% lower than the estimated biomass of the shelf located
666 between 20° and 34°S (Moreno et al., 2005; Paiva 1997). Morphological, molecular and
667 environmental data suggests an isolated population in southeastern Brazil (Moreno et al., 2005;
668 Caballero et al., 2013; do Amaral et al., 2015), where this species is frequently sighted in coastal
669 waters (Zerbini et al 2004). Santos et al., (2017) indicates that the Atlantic-spotted dolphin is the
670 commonest sighted species surrounding the no-take PARK Laje de Santos all year round
671 (category II – IUCN), which seems to be a critical habitat for the species. This is especially
672 relevant if this southern population is, indeed, isolated as proposed by Moreno et al., (2005).

673 The Guiana dolphin is the most common cetacean species found within Brazilian waters
674 (Santos et al., 2019) and yet is one of the species with the highest population decline recorded
675 (Azevedo et al., 2017) (Supplementary Figure 17). The Guiana dolphin is one of the most studied
676 coastal species, with several research mainly conducted in protected bays and estuaries (Santos et
677 al., 2019). The Guiana dolphin is considered to be resident in several bays and estuaries, such as
678 the Paranaguá Estuarine Complex, Norte Bay, Babitonga Bay, Sepetiba Bay, Cananéia Estuary,
679 Ilha Grande and Guanabara Bay and the adjacent coastal waters in the PWTSA (Wedekin et al.,
680 2007; Dias et al., 2009; Espécie et al., 2010; Santos et al., 2010; Cremer et al., 2011; Oshima and
681 Santos, 2016; Azevedo et al., 2017); Caravelas and Paragaçu river estuary, Todos os Santos Bay,
682 Abrolhos Bank and around Fortaleza in the PTSA (Rossi-Santos et al., 2006; Cantor et al., 2012;
683 Batista et al., 2014; Flores et al., 2018). The Guiana dolphin is also frequently reported in the
684 PNBS (Rosas et al., 2018). The Guanabara bay is one of the most degraded water bodies in the
685 Guiana dolphin range, and is a critical habitat for a resident population that declined about 37%
686 in 16 years (Azevedo et al., 2017).

ODONTOCETES DIVERSITY IN BRAZIL AND GAP ANALYSIS SUMMARY



687

688 **FIGURE 4. ODONTOCETES DIVERSITY IN BRAZIL AND GAP ANALYSIS SUMMARY.** Percentage of MPA coverage and management categories among marine biogeographic provinces and the mapped main threats to odontocete
 689 conservation. MPA = marine protected area; MPAs/MP = MPAs that the management plan address
 690 management measures for cetaceans; MMPAs = MPAs created with cetacean-species as a conservation main-
 691 target.
 692

693 **4.2. Gap Analysis for odontocete conservation**

694 Despite the high percentage of MPAs coverage in the Brazilian EEZ (28%), the current MPA
695 policy alone seems to be insufficient to guarantee the odontocetes conservation and their preferred
696 habitats over the time. Most Brazilian MPAs do not provide any specific management measures
697 for odontocete conservation and a high percentage of MPAs do not even have a management plan,
698 although this is a mandatory step by the SNUC (Brazil, 2000) as well as is considered as the
699 “heart” of success or failure of MPAs (Hoyt, 2018). Several Brazilian MPAs still work as “paper
700 MPAs” (Gill et al., 2017), and have no effective management as demanded by CBD/Aichi goals.
701 Further, considering the IUCN definition for MPA networks (see Hooker et al., 2011), it’s not
702 possible to understand Brazilian MPAs as a well-connected system of MPAs; and neither as being
703 ecologically representative given their unevenly coverage through the three biogeographical
704 provinces (Figure 4) – and these characteristics are also requested by CBD/Aichi goals to achieve
705 Target 11.

706 However, this does not mean that MPAs cannot be a powerful tool to achieve
707 conservation goals in the marine ecosystem. Some MPAs are able to contribute to the protection
708 of fixed habitats responsible for maintaining marine biodiversity (such as mangroves and coral
709 reefs) (ICMMPA, 2011; Rotjan et al., 2014; Obura, 2018), which also contribute to protect
710 cetacean habitats and ecosystems. Instead, most of Brazilian MPAs failures are associated to the
711 lack of commitment by governments (from Federal, state, and municipal administrations) to
712 provide the necessary subsidies for the correctly management of the MPAs, by the non-
713 compliance of the steps established by the SNUC and by the imposing top-down approaches in
714 the management spaces.

715 Thereby, as anthropic activities in the ocean increase, it is fundamental to manage human
716 pressures on cetaceans both within and outside MPAs (ICMMPA, 2011). The MSP with
717 integrated surveillance may offer a potential strategy to ensure suitable management of activities
718 and to evidence to policy makers a clear view of environmental impacts (Pinn, 2018). The gap
719 analysis can facilitate the spatial prioritization once identified unprotected and susceptible
720 important ecological features and habitats (Hooker et al., 2011; Hoyt, 2018).

721 The concept of place-based conservation of cetaceans has been promoted as an effective
722 tool in the last few years (ICMMPA, 2014; Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016; Reeves, 2018).
723 Other tools as the Ecologically or Biologically Significant Areas (EBSAs) set up under the CBD
724 and the Important Marine Mammals areas (IMMAs) a new concept proposed by the IUCN Marine
725 Mammal Protected Areas Task Force, can help policymakers to identifying appropriate areas for
726 place-based cetacean conservation (Notarbartolo di Sciara et al., 2016). According to Pinn (2018),
727 within the framework of MSP, cetacean place-based conservation could be pursued through the
728 identification of critical habitats (preferably without the MPA label) combined with a sectoral

729 management. A critical habitat is not necessarily a protected area, as neither IMMAs nor EBSAs.
730 Instead, they are scientific tools that have the potential to support area-based management
731 strategies (ICMMPA, 2014; Kot, 2014). Other space-based management tools can be integrated,
732 such as environmental impact assessments, MPA networks, ecosystem-based management or
733 even checking existing MPAs or zoning designations (ICMMPA, 2014; Hoyt, 2018). Following
734 the ICMMPA (2014), MSP initiatives ought to focus on identifying areas of potentially high threat
735 to cetaceans, to further improve modeling data, along with real data acquisition from surveys and
736 applied research.

737

738 **4.2.1. Within fixed boundaries: Marine Protected Areas (MPAs)**

739 Overcoming current shortcomings, several MPAs could contribute to odontocete conservation.
740 Around Fernando de Noronha Island, spinner dolphins have been recorded for decades resting,
741 mating, nursing and also sheltering against predators (Silva-jr et al., 2005; Tischer et al., 2017).
742 The set of MPAs around this island were not designed with the spinner dolphin as a target-specie.
743 Nevertheless, the spinner dolphin critical habitat (Dolphin's Bay) is surrounding by the no-take
744 PARK Fernando de Noronha (Category II – IUCN), while the displacement area is within the
745 APA Fernando de Noronha – Atol das Rocas – SPSP boundaries (category V – IUCN) (ICMBio,
746 2017). However, recent studies indicate that the growth of tourism and dolphin watching are
747 altering the area of occupation of this population (see Tischer et al., 2017). This emphasizes the
748 importance of adaptive measures, as well as the fulfillment of supposedly already existing ones.
749 The APA current management plan implements some nuisance restrictions (e.g., as noise, active
750 chasing, and diving with dolphins) and is architected through zoning areas (ICMBio, 2017).
751 Among oceanic species, the spinner dolphin is the only one with an identified critical habitat - in
752 addition to the potential ones identified in this study. Meanwhile, for the sperm whale two
753 concentration areas have already been suggested: the Camamu-Almada basin (about 13°S)
754 (Ramos et al., 2010) and the shelf border of the southern PWTSA (Pinedo et al., 2002; Di Tullio
755 et al., 2016). The first is an area of constant exploration of oil and natural gas (Ramos et al., 2010),
756 and the second one is under pressure from extensive commercial fishing areas (Knoppers et al.,
757 2010). So far in Brazilian waters, there are no addressed management measures specifically to
758 sperm whales that might be capable of contributing to changing their threatened status.

759 Through the nearshore hotspot area, Santos et al., (2019) reported movements of wide-
760 ranging and coastal small delphinids, reinforcing the use of this area by several odontocete
761 species. However, it's also one of the regions under the greatest impact of coastal urbanization,
762 tourism, and marine industries in the EEZ (Figure 3C). The port of Santos, for example, is the
763 largest port complex of Latin America (Santos et al., 2017). It's responsible for a quarter of
764 Brazilian trade, and widely increases the marine traffic in this region. Further, according to the

765 ANP, the Campos basin extends over 100 km² from southern PTSA (Espírito Santo state) to
766 northern PWTSA (Rio de Janeiro state) and together with pre-salt layer is responsible for 80% of
767 national production of oil and gas. According to IBGE, this region also has the highest population
768 density in the coastal zone and increases disorderly in the austral summer months. The only two
769 nuclear power plants in Brazil are also located in the coastal city of Angra dos Reis, in the Rio de
770 Janeiro state. The ESEC Tamoios (Category Ia – IUCN), ranked with the greatest odontocete
771 probability of occurrence (Supplementary Table 4), was created to comply legal provisions which
772 determine that nuclear power plants must be located in areas delimited by the ESEC category and
773 to protect biodiversity-rich oceanic islands (Brazil, 1990). This management plan has few actions
774 addressed for cetaceans (e.g., intensify enforcement during migratory periods) (ICMBio, 2006)
775 and species such as the Guiana and the Atlantic-spotted dolphins are frequent in its surroundings.
776 Nevertheless, this MPA is currently under severe pressure from real estate speculation, being
777 considered as a “special area of tourist interest” (PL 6.479/2019).

778 The northern PWTSA has the largest number of “ranked” MPAs capable of covering
779 preferred habitats for small coastal and wide-ranging delphinids in this highly threatened area
780 (Figure 3) (Supplementary Table 4). The nearshore hotspot area can be both understood as a
781 representative ecological area as well as an area of greatest concern (Hooker et al., 2011). Some
782 of these MPAs have recent management plans that directly address strategies for odontocetes,
783 such as the ESEC Tupinambás and the REVIS Alcatrazes (ICMBio, 2018). As the PARK Laje de
784 Santos, these MPAs also were not created specifically for cetaceans’ benefit. Nevertheless, they
785 include concern about the migratory fauna and the current management plans addressing some
786 important management measures (PEMLS, 2018; ICMBio 2018). Either by identifying
787 surrounding main threats (such as the presence of large cargo vessels assigned to the Port of
788 Santos in the areas where the Atlantic-spotted dolphin occurs) (PEMLS, 2018); or by include
789 cetacean monitoring and/or fishing fleet regulations (such as cetacean acoustic monitoring and
790 regulation of gillnet fisheries in important Francisca dolphin feeding areas) (ICMBio, 2018).
791 Through a multi-specie management context (Hooker et al., 2011), these mosaics of small MPAs
792 should be thought of as a local network of MPAs – especially because most of them alone are too
793 small to contribute for cetacean conservation. This area encompasses important ocean processes
794 that provide high biological diversity nearshore. It should be used to involve precautionary
795 measures aimed at curtailing the principal anthropic pressures (Hooker et al., 2011).

796 For the threatened Guiana dolphin, three MPAs were created to protect resident
797 populations: the federal APA Anhatomirim (Brazil, 1992), and the both municipal APA Boto-
798 cinza (Mangaratiba, 2015) and the REFAU Tibau do Sul (Tibau do Sul, 2006). Together with the
799 APA Baleia-franca for the southern-right whale (*Eubalaena australis*) and the APA Ponta da
800 Baleia for the humpback whales, these are the only MPAs specially created with cetacean species

801 as a main-target. The APA Anhatomirim harbor a critical habitat for the resident population of
802 the Guiana dolphin in the Norte Bay (Wedekin et al., 2007, 2010). The management plan presents
803 a marine zoning defined together with local artisanal fishermen and managers, with specific rules
804 for each zone (ICMBio, 2013). The “Dolphin Protection Zone”, for example, allows monitoring
805 and research, professional artisanal fishing (except trawl gear), tourism and recreational vessels
806 registered and authorized by MPA (with predefined speed limits) and non-motorized vessels, and
807 prohibits mariculture and dredging construction (ICMBio, 2013). Conversely, the REFAU Tibau
808 do Sul has no management plan or monitoring and surveillance programs (de Freitas et al., 2016),
809 and the APA Boto-cinza in the Sepetiba Bay is being newly implemented. However, to obtain
810 some level effectiveness within MPAs boundaries, especially considering the great amount of
811 multiple-use MPAs, would be essential that those already implemented MPAs include at least:
812 newly identified critical habitats, an adequacy of zoning architecture within MPAs boundaries,
813 an explicit assessment of threats, clear management goals and monitoring plans allowing
814 retrospective evaluation of MPA effectiveness (Hooker et al., 2011; Hoyt, 2018; Reeves, 2018).

815 Among the other marine provinces, the PNBS contains the largest number of MPAs based
816 on co-management with local communities (RESEX²¹ category). The large number of coral reefs
817 in the PTSA are associated with the great number of MPAs (Schiavetti et al., 2013). Although
818 for odontocetes this province does not predict a high probability of occurrence across multiple
819 species, the PTSA is recognized as an important concentration area for most baleen whales in the
820 SWA (Andriolo et al., 2010). Furthermore – and despite being increasing – it is also recognized
821 that this region historically has a smaller sampling effort. Over the past five years, this province
822 has suffered with some of the biggest Brazilian environmental crimes resulting from mining
823 activities (the rupture of the Mariana dam and the biggest oil spill already registered in tropical
824 waters) (Sánchez et al., 2018; Pinheiro et al., 2019; Soares et al., 2020; do Carmo and Lombardi,
825 2020). The dimensions of impacts on cetaceans and their habitats are still unknown, but this is an
826 example of damage that cannot be controlled by MPAs (Agardy et al., 2011), reinforcing the need
827 for an integrated MSP with surveillance as well as a governmental commitment to respond
828 adequately to mitigate economic, social, and biological impacts (Soares et al., 2020).

²¹ The co-management has the potential to improve conservation actions, based in community-based enforcement as is indicated by Mitzer et al (2015). This study - performed in continental waters in the Amazon - revealed empirical success strategies in the RDS Mamirauá (category IUCN – IV) where, influenced by participation in the RDS activities (such as research and ecotourism), the local fishers have positive attitudes toward Amazon River dolphin, increasing enforcement of illegal harvest and limiting dolphin mortality. These strategies could be applied among the coastal and marine RESEXs, acting pro-actively toward the illegal and accidental capture of the Guiana dolphin, threats often identified within MPAs boundaries.

829 **4.2.2. Without legal boundaries: Priority Areas for Conservation (PAC)**

830 The priority areas proposed by the PAC (MMA, 2018) encompasses most of the resulting areas
831 of high odontocete probability of occurrence (Figure 3D). The PAC effectively does not provide
832 legal protection, but is proposed as an approach to guide future public policies (Castro et al.,
833 2014). Since the PAC is sectorized, it would be possible to develop a focus management on where
834 it is most needed, when it is most needed. Although this is not an easy task, especially when
835 financial resources for surveillance are scarce, some strategies could be incorporated. Some
836 strategies emerge, such as define fixed routes to commercial vessels (Hazen et al., 2017); the
837 commitment and the regulation of commercial fishing vessels to adopt mitigation measures
838 already recognized to fishing in extremely and very high action priority areas (Hall et al., 2000;
839 Hamilton and Baker, 2019); fishing exclusion areas and/or seasons (Di Tullio et al., 2015); the
840 consideration of movement corridors connecting ecological important areas (Clark et al., 2010);
841 spatial restrictions according to oceanographic features (Howell et al., 2008); or even deepen
842 studies on assessment of the temporal nature of threats to the odontocetes and incorporating them
843 through dynamic management measures (Hyrenbach et al., 2000; Hooker et al., 2011; Becker et
844 al., 2016; Agardy et al., 2019).

845 Moreover, it would be possible to use PAC sectors with high and extremely high priority
846 action to identify potential Areas of Interest (AoIs) for several odontocete species – the first stage
847 of IMMAs select process (see Agardy et al., 2019; IUCN Marine Mammal Protected Areas Task
848 Force, 2018) to motivate this initial debate to the SWA. The zones “area of coastal resurgence”
849 and the “Ilha Grande bay” in the nearshore hotspot or the “south shelf”, the “upper slope of the
850 Santos basin” or the “south slope”, for example, overlap the S-SDM areas with greater probability
851 of occurrence (Supplementary Figure 20). Among the criteria for AoIs, for example, the PWTSA
852 holds: vulnerable species (since encompass most of the distribution of range of the Francisca
853 dolphin in Brazilian waters, several resident populations of the Guiana dolphin, and migration
854 routes and feeding grounds of the sperm whales); nearshore and offshore aggregation and feeding
855 areas (with high biological productivity associated with coastal and shelf break upwellings,
856 confluence zone and fronts); distinctiveness by harbor populations with genetic, behavior, and/or
857 ecologically distinctive characteristics (as the populations of the Lahille’s bottlenose dolphin and
858 the Atlantic-spotted dolphin); and high cetacean diversity (with 36 species of odontocetes and
859 eight species of baleen whales).

860

861 **4.3. Model performance and occurrence data**

862 Besides model robustness and statistical performance, models also should be evaluated in relation
863 to existing knowledge, that is, what is known about the biology and ecology of the species (Fiedler

864 et al., 2018). Ideally, the data used for cetacean SDMs should come from systematic surveys
865 designed to estimate abundance and distribution (Fiedler et al., 2018) and preferably using
866 presence-absence data (Tardin et al., 2019a). However, these studies are cost-demanding (Tardin
867 et al., 2019b). Most cetacean data are conducted using opportunistic sightings or non-systematic
868 surveys (Redfern et al., 2006; do Amaral et al., 2015) and are still limited for many cetaceans
869 species (Redfern et al., 2017). While the increase of anthropic pressures increases conservation
870 challenges for cetaceans (Redfern et al., 2017), many management measures end up neglected by
871 Data Deficient limitations. Conversely, the precautionary approach understands that the lack of
872 full scientific certainty should not be used as a reason for postponing conservation measures
873 (FAO, 1996; CBD, 2010).

874 Heterogeneous data collection has led to large gaps in scientific knowledge of most
875 cetaceans distributions (Mannocci et al., 2017). In the Brazilian EEZ, most cetacean information
876 is still resulting of stranding data (Meirelles et al., 2009; Moura et al., 2016; Prado et al., 2016)
877 and survey efforts dedicated to coastal areas (Santos and Figueiredo, 2016; Lodi and Tardin, 2018;
878 Santos et al., 2019). New information about offshore odontocetes are still rarely found scientific
879 papers (Pinedo et al., 2002; Zerbini et al., 2004; Wedekin et al., 2014; Di Tullio et al., 2016); and
880 mainly obtained from reports of areas of economic interest that monitored effects of oil and gas
881 exploration (Parente et al., 2007; Ramos et al., 2010; PMC-BS, 2019; SIMMAM, 2019). The
882 availability of these report data in public databases are understood as a counterpart to civilian
883 society (Barbosa and Owes, 2020). This type of data, obtained on a broader scale and through
884 different collection methods, allows building macroscale studies, such as investigating
885 biogeographic provinces (Mannocci et al., 2017).

886 Despite recognizing the strengths and limitations of the SDM approaches (Merow et al.,
887 2013; Gomez et al., 2017), here were presented useful data on the occurrence and distribution of
888 two threatened odontocetes and 15 evaluated as Data Deficient. With exception of common
889 bottlenose dolphin (Tardin et al., 2019a;b), the Franciscana dolphin (do Amaral et al., 2018) and
890 dolphins from genus *Stenella* (do Amaral et al., 2015), this is the first time that individual-SDM
891 are presented for several odontocete species in the Brazilian EEZ. Plausible species distribution
892 models using scientific and public data-base-information were generated (Supplementary Figures
893 3-19). For some species, such as the pygmy-killer whale and the Risso's dolphin, essentially
894 nothing is known about population trends or suitable habitats in both Brazilian waters or even
895 worldwide (Baird, 2018b; Hartman, 2018). Meanwhile, species with relatively known distribution
896 areas that have their distribution ranges expanded by the new records included (such as the
897 pantropical-spotted dolphin and the Clymene dolphin), should be considered with caution. Thus,
898 even with few data records for some species as the black-fishes, individual-SDM provided
899 relevant information on preferred habitats, especially when combined in the S-SDM. The

900 importance of specific public databases for cetaceans, with degrees of reliability and completed
901 data information is highlighted, especially considering the need of this information for
902 conservation actions. Quite often, simple data such as latitude and longitude coordinates are not
903 available in the scientific papers, making the information access difficult for managers and
904 decision makers.

905

906 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

907 The first International Conference on Marine Mammal Protected Areas (ICMMPA)
908 recommended as a priority that concerted effort be made to assemble cetacean critical habitat data
909 to then identify and fill the considerable knowledge gaps (ICMMPA, 2009; Hoyt, 2011). The
910 SDM is an important tool to highlight priority areas that warrant increased attention and
911 monitoring efforts (Gomez et al., 2017), allowing that place-based conservation efforts can be
912 directed most effectively (Hoyt, 2011; di Sciara et al., 2016). Meanwhile, the S-SDM was useful
913 to identify commonalities between species and ecologically important areas (Tobeña et al., 2016;
914 Zellmer et al., 2019).

915 Here were presented two potential critical habitats resulting from S-SDM models for
916 multiple species, attributed to feeding grounds and aggregation areas by the frequency of
917 occurrence of the species and by the high primary production related to well-defined
918 oceanographic features. Both offshore and nearshore hotspot areas are under main anthropic
919 threats. However, the offshore one is under any kind of conservation measure. Further, other
920 potential critical habitat are also cited in relation to existing scientific knowledge and – for all of
921 them – broad-based ecological information (as behavioral, social and movement data) should
922 support information from critical habitats (Hooker et al., 2011). The wide-dimension of the study
923 area is recognized and wherefore its strongly recommended that fine-scale studies within
924 identified critical habitat are necessary (such as done by Tardin et al. 2019a; 2019b and Bortolotto
925 et al., 2017) – but it must start somehow.

926 The increase in activities of Brazilian marine industries is notable, and so far, it is not
927 possible to count on the actual MPA policy for odontocete conservation. Most MPAs were
928 designated to meet other objectives that are not necessarily cetaceans' benefit. Besides, under
929 economic and political pressures, most of MPAs are under insidious political effects (Giglio et
930 al., 2018; Magris and Pressey, 2018). Finally, it is essential to keep in mind that conservation
931 efforts are multidisciplinary and involve conscientious daily efforts of many people (from
932 bureaucrats and political, scientists and educators, to fisherman and activists) (Reeves, 2018) and
933 most of the they start with strategies to raise awareness with civil society (Hall et al., 2000; Pinn,
934 2018). This study looking-for encourages the discussion on the role of Brazilian MPAs for
935 odontocetes conservation and how can we – as scientists, educators, managers, and

936 environmentalists – build a more proactive and effective conservation policy to these species and
937 their environment (Hoyt, 2018; Reeves, 2018).

938

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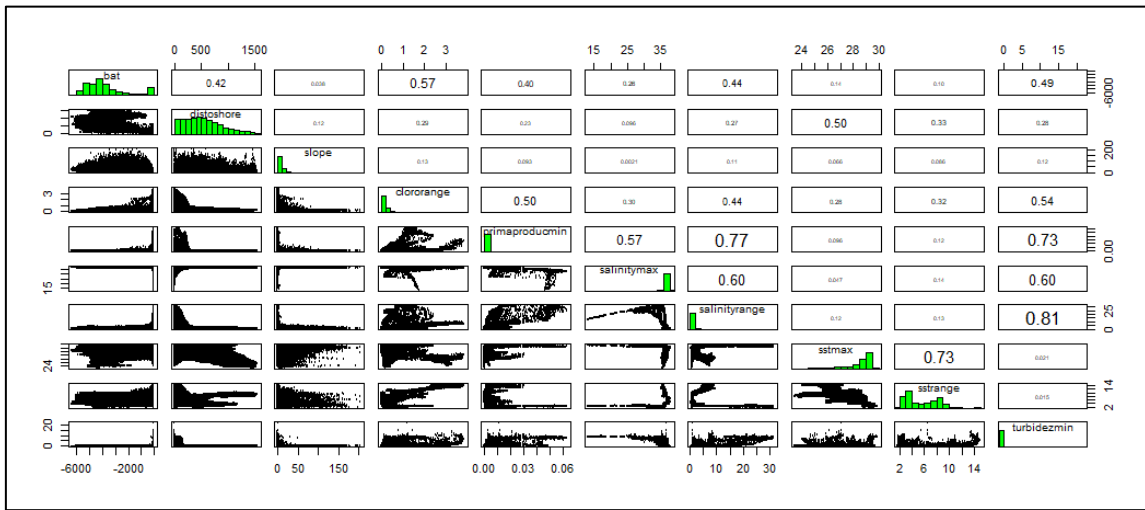
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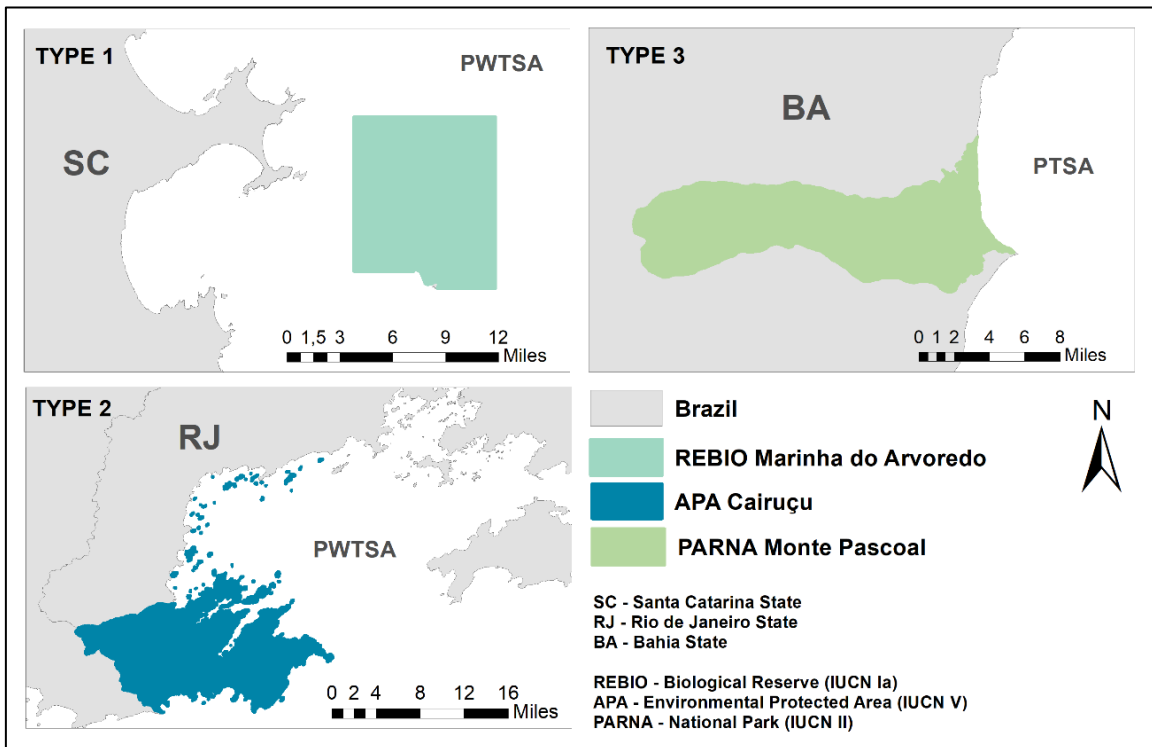
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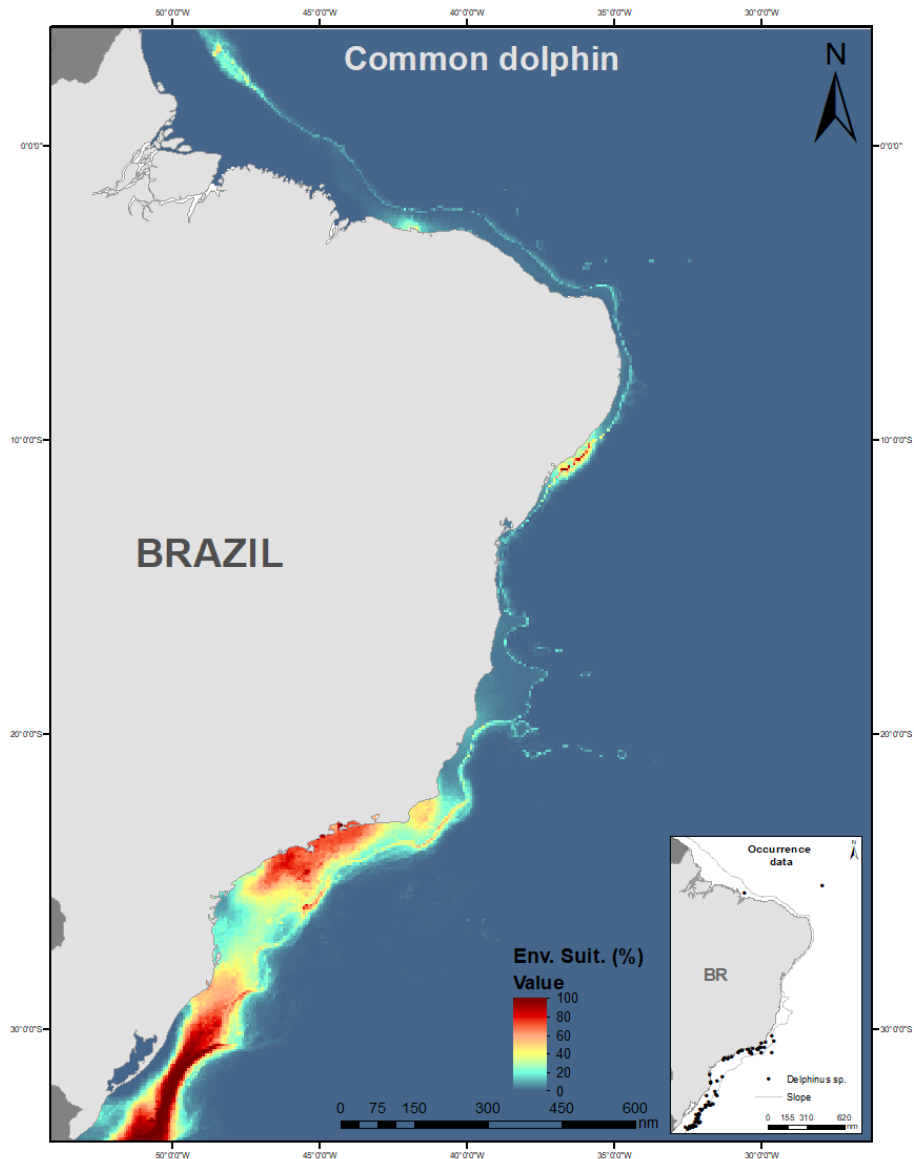
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL



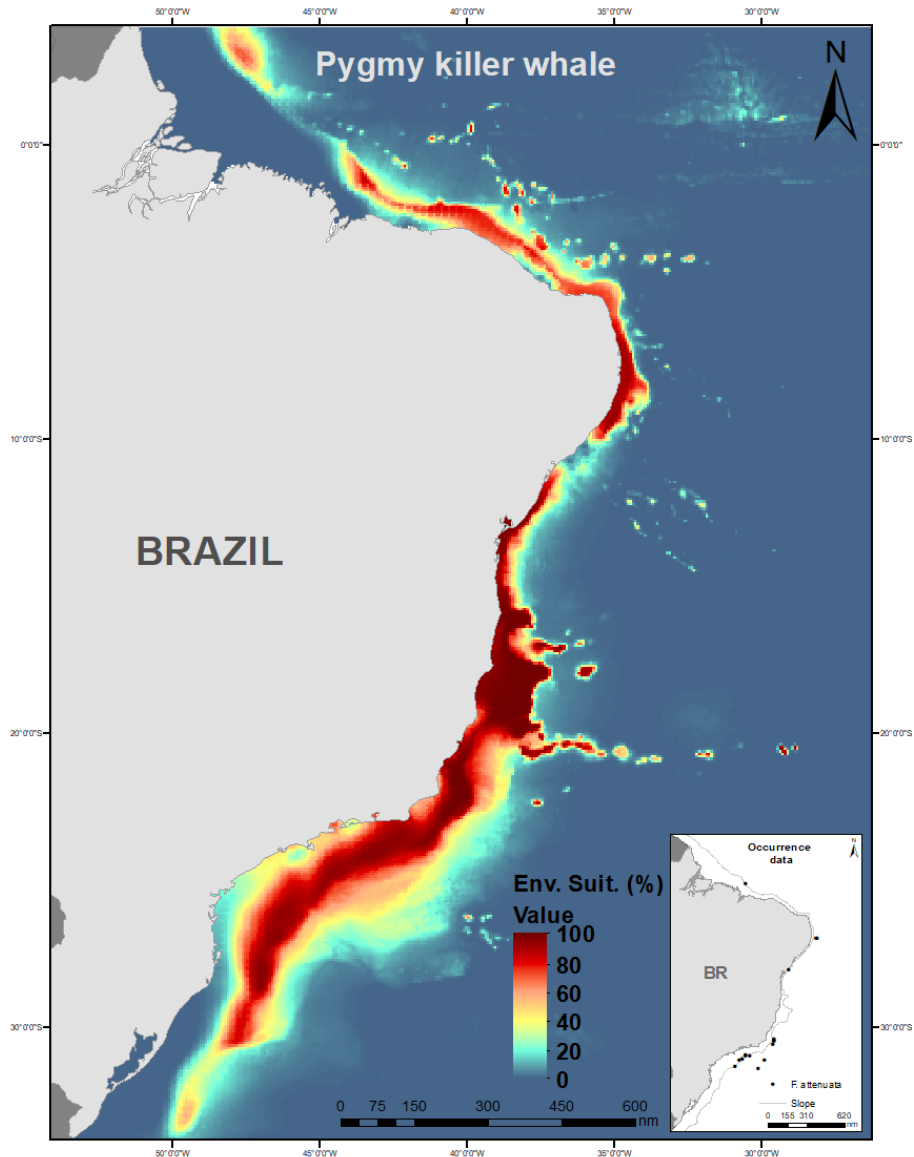
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1. Correlation matrix of 12 environmental layers used in the species distribution models. These layers were selected after a procedure of selection using vif from a pre-selected set of 22 candidates (see Material and Methods).



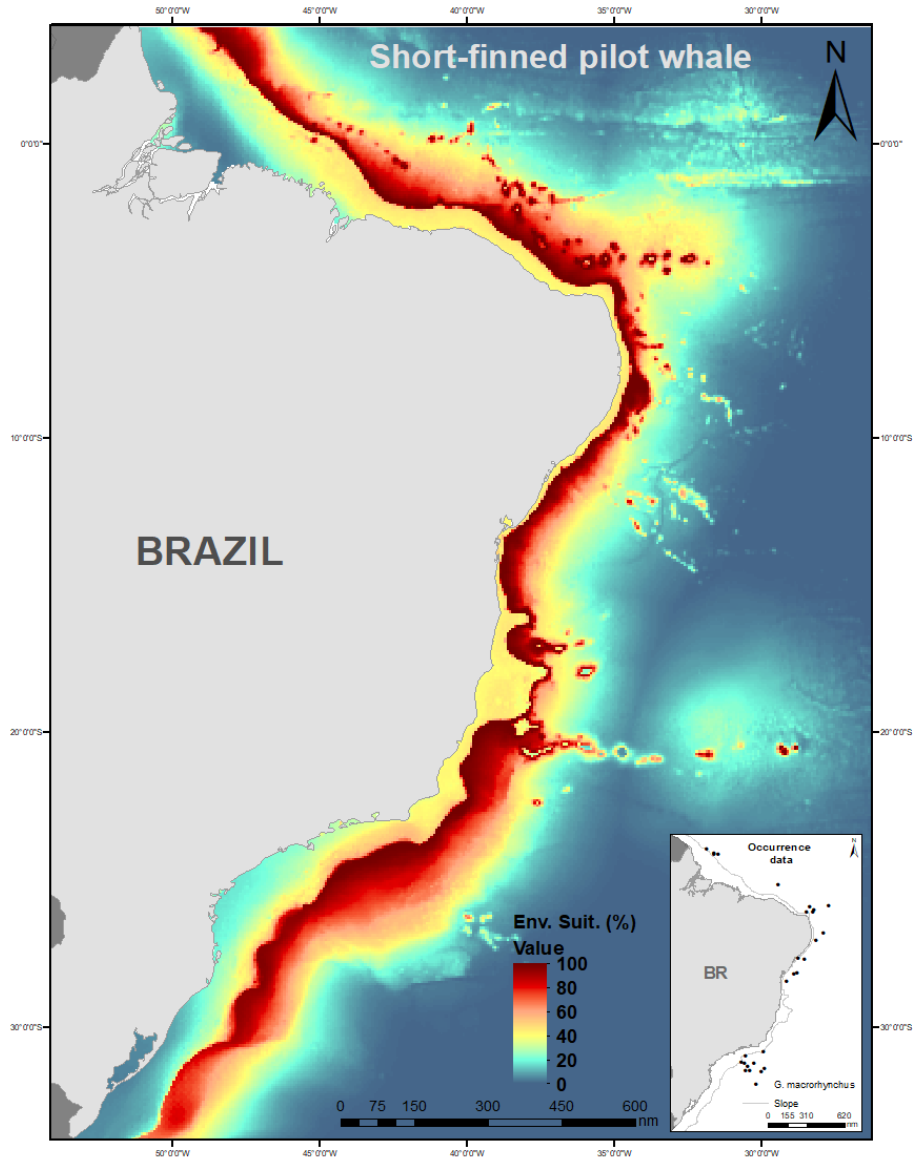
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 2. Classification of Brazilian Marine Protected Areas adopted in this study. Three types of MPAs are shown: type I – MPAs completely or partially (>50%) at sea or covering oceanic islands, which are considered to have direct influence on odontocetes; type II – MPAs designed mainly covering coastal areas (>50%), but with some extent at sea and/or oceanic islands (direct influence on odontocetes); and type III – MPAs designed exclusively in terrestrial coastal areas (100%), contributing indirectly in the conservation of adjacent coastal areas (indirect influence on odontocetes).



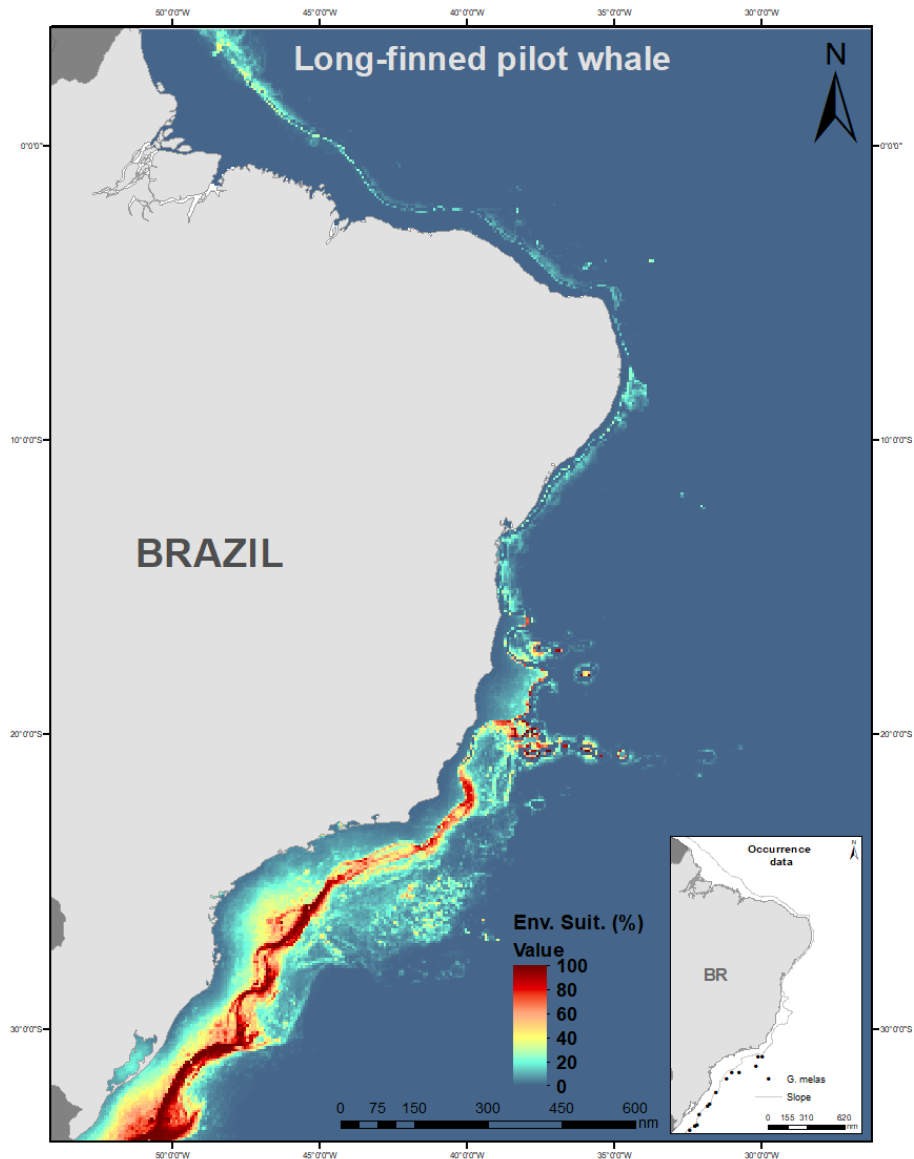
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 3. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR COMMON DOLPHIN (*DELPHINUS SP.*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for common dolphins shows high occurrence probability in neritic waters in highly productive areas influenced by the upwelling and confluence systems in the Warm-Temperate Southern Atlantic Ocean Province (PWTSOA). The variable bathy ranging from 4m to 4,658m (mean = 356.50 m); distoshore between 1km and 351km (mean = 110.23 km); slope ranging from 0° to 50° (mean = 9.51°); Chlora_R between 0.119 and 2.88mg/m³ (mean = 1.37 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.95 and 37.52 psu (mean = 36.79 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.89 to 5.85 psu (mean = 3.06 psu); and SST_R between 2.42 and 14.27°C (mean = 9.53°C). The model suggests two different areas with high occurrence probability, one of them it is places at shallow and nearshore waters in the South Brazilian Bight (SBB) (22° to 28°S); and other area with it is placed over the continental shelf in the southern PWTSOA, mainly in deeper waters along the continental shelf break. The potential distribution is consistent with previous studies, where its distribution at southeastern and south Brazilian areas is well documented (Tavares et al. 2010, Di Tullio et al. 2016). For the North Brazilian Shelf Province (PNBS) are a few records of strandings, incidental catch and reports of areas of economic interest that monitored effects of oil and gas exploration (Asano-filho et al., 2007; Magalhães et al., 2007; Siciliano et al., 2008; Jefferson et al., 2009; Tavares et al., 2010; Costa et al., 2017). There are no published scientific sightings, being more likely that the species is not common in this area (Asano-filho et al., 2007; Magalhães et al., 2007; Siciliano et al., 2008; Jefferson et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2017). The genus have no clarified taxonomic status on SWA (Jefferson et al., 2009; Tavares et al., 2010); but recent studies suggest that common dolphins in the SWA all belong to a single species (Cunha et al., 2015).



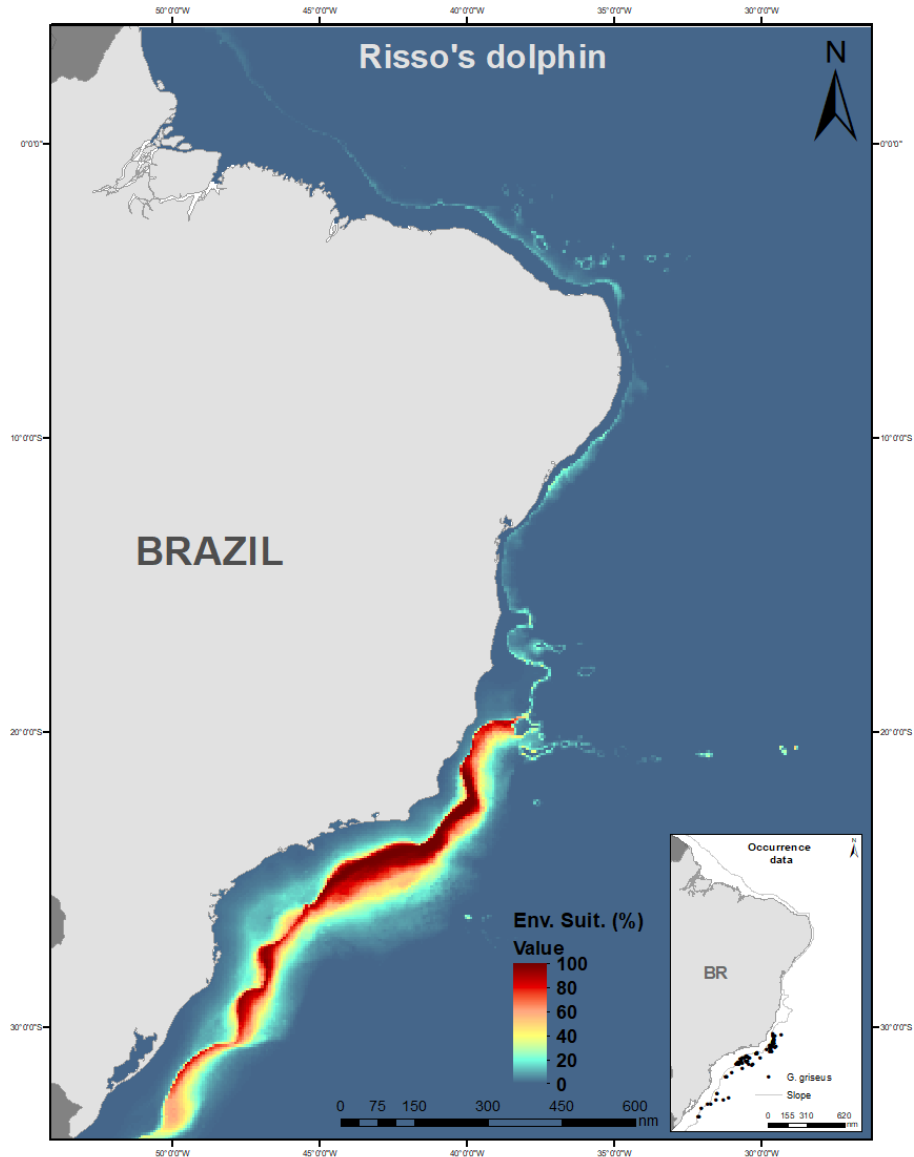
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 4. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR PYGMY KILLER WHALE (*FERESA ATTENUATA*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the pygmy killer whale shows high occurrence probability in waters with low temperatures range and higher depths along continental shelf break in PWTSA, and over all the continental shelf in the Tropical Southern Atlantic Ocean Province (PTSA). The variable bathy ranging from 67m to 2,639m (mean = 1,118.19 m); distoshore between 11km and 328km (mean = 139 km); slope ranging from 3° to 86° (mean = 23.25°); Chlora_R between 0.08 and 0.78 mg/m³ (mean = 0.34 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.42 and 37.57 psu (mean = 37.32 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.89 to 1.85 psu (mean = 1.17 psu); and SST_R between 2.59 and 6.79°C (mean = 5.32°C). The pygmy killer whale, is one of the least-known Delphinidae members, and are distributed in tropical open-ocean waters worldwide (Baird, 2018a). Although the model suggests a wide area of high environmental suitability, the pygmy killer whale is rare throughout all their distribution range. There are few strandings records in the PTSA and the PWTSA (Zerbini and de Oliveira Santos, 1997; Magalhães et al., 2007, 2008; Batista et al., 2012; Lemos et al., 2013), and few confirmed sightings. This is the first model proposed for pygmy killer whale in the study area and it seems to agree with what is known for the species worldwide. However, the interpretation of potential distribution presented here should be taken with caution because the small sample size (n=16) used to perform the model. In this sense, the predict distribution could be just a reflect of the data used restricted to the observational efforts focused on Brazilian Economic Exclusive Zone (Br-EEZ).



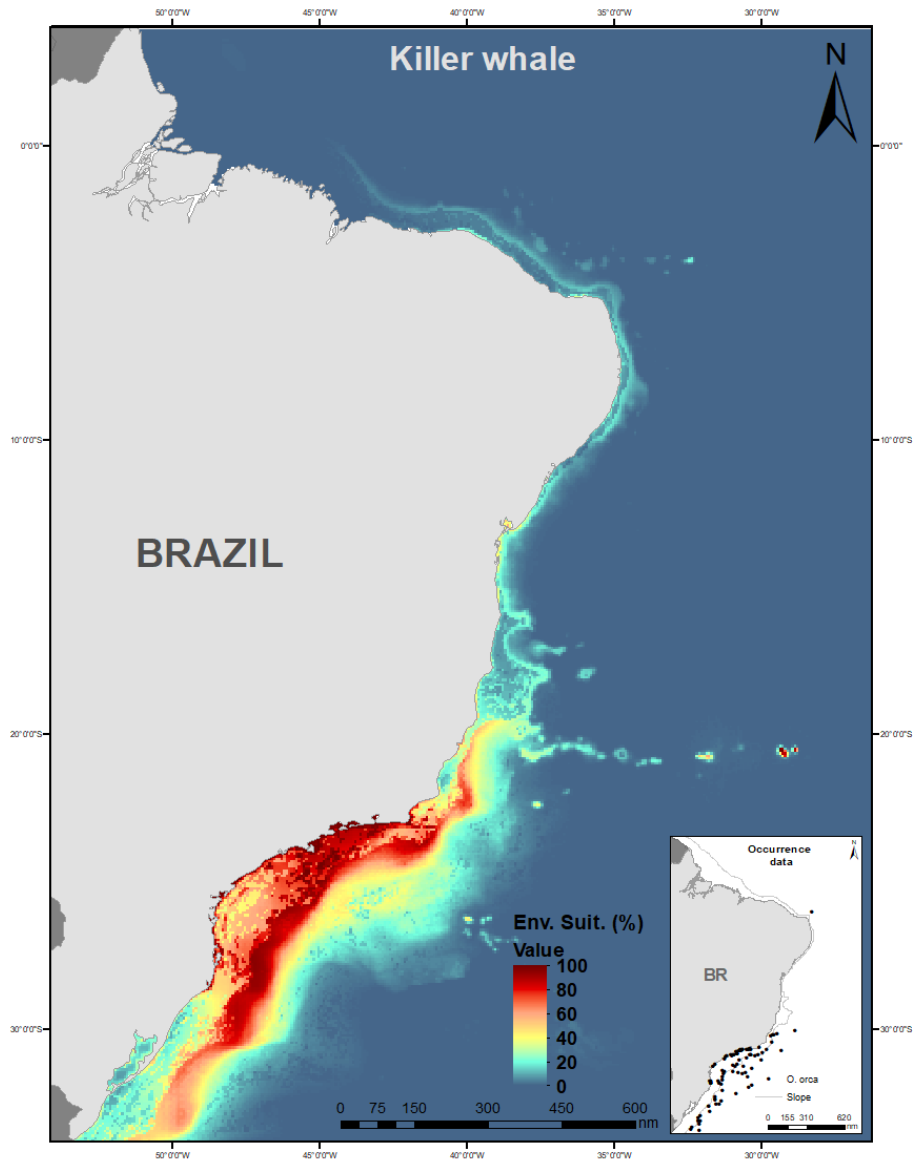
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 5. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR SHORT-FINNED PILOT WHALE (*GLOBICEPHALA MACRORHYNCHUS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the short-finned pilot whale indicates a wide area of high occurrence probability beyond continental shelf break in all three marine provinces. The variable bathy ranging from 190m to 3,988m (mean = 2,087.64 m); distoshore between 5km and 369km (mean = 180.93 km); slope ranging from 2° to 158° (mean = 23.36°); Chlora_R between 0.04 and 0.69 mg/m³ (mean = 0.29 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.24 and 37.62 psu (mean = 36.97 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.88 to 5.65 psu (mean = 1.74 psu); and SST_R between 2.29 and 7.16°C (mean = 4.29°C). This species is found worldwide in tropical, subtropical, and warm temperate waters, and occurs in nearshore and pelagic environments (Olson, 2018). High environmental suitability was predicted in deeper waters (>2,000m) along continental shelf break and surrounding oceanic islands and seamounts, corroborating preferences already described for this species (Olson, 2018). The short-finned pilot whale inhabiting nearshore areas only where the continental shelf is narrow as in the PTSA. Most sightings and strandings are reported for the PTSA, corroborating the preference for warm tropical waters with low temperatures ranges (Alves-Júnior et al., 1996; Magalhães et al., 2007; Meirelles et al., 2009; Carvalho et al., 2010; Batista et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2017). Further, the PWTSA seems to be the southern limit for the species in the SWA.



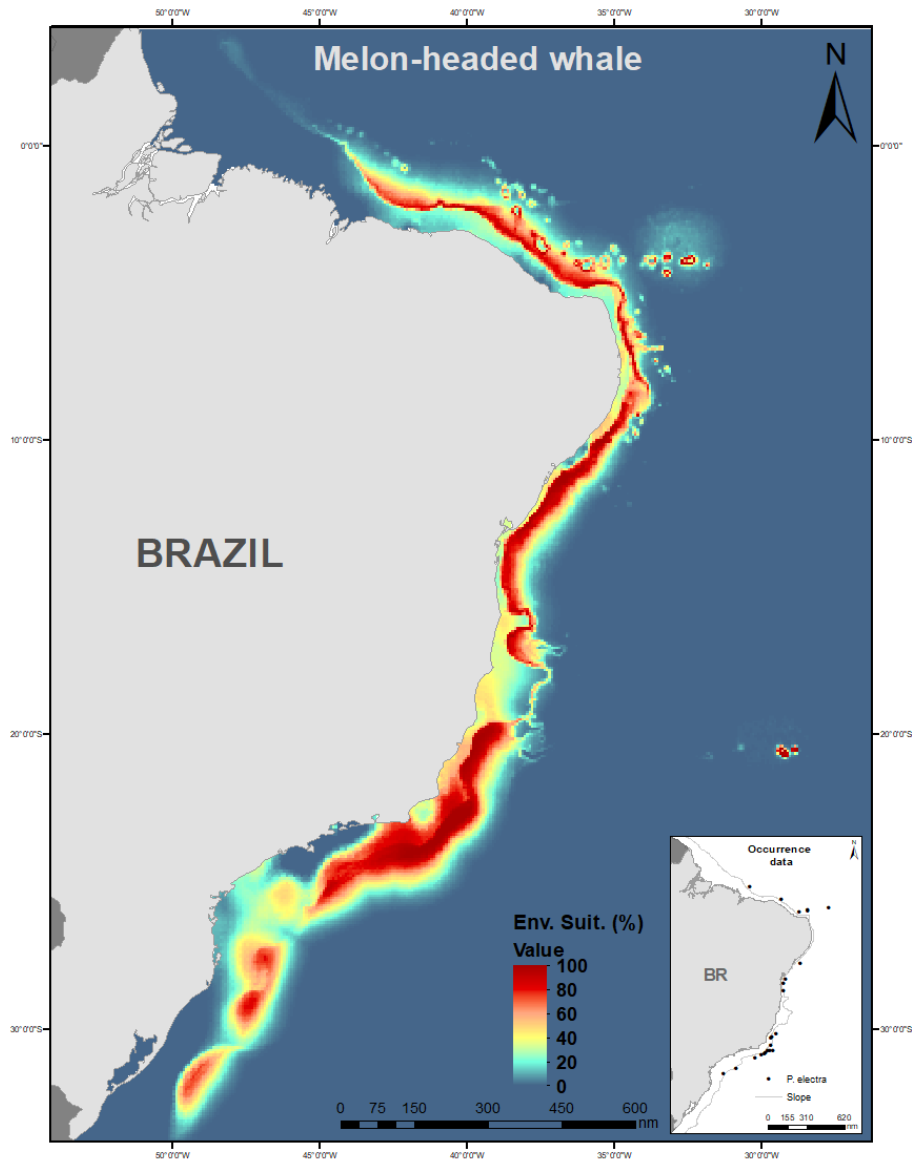
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 6. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR LONG-FINNED PILOT WHALE (*GLOBICEPHALA MELAS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the long-finned pilot whale shows highest occurrence probability in colder, oceanic deeper waters beyond slope. The variable bathy ranging from 181m to 2,207m (mean = 987.28 m); distoshore between 117km and 265km (mean = 190.93 km); slope ranging from 6° to 46° (mean = 19.28°); Chlora_R between 0.32 and 2.27 mg/m³ (mean = 1.01 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.61 and 37.44 psu (mean = 37.08 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.92 to 4.39 psu (mean = 2.39 psu); and SST_R between 6.10 and 12.30°C (mean = 8.89°C). The long-finned pilot whale has an antitropical distribution range, inhabiting mainly cold temperate waters of both the North Atlantic and the Southern Ocean (Olson, 2018). In the SWA, there are overlap areas with the short-finned pilot whale in subtropical waters (Olson, 2018), probably in northern PW TSA. As opposed to the short-finned pilot whale, the long-finned pilot whale seems to prefer coolest waters with depth up to 1,000m. The long-finned pilot whale has sightings and strandings records only in PW TSA (Petry and Fonseca, 2001; Dos Santos and Haimovici, 2002; Santos et al., 2010). Di Tullio et al. (2016) reported this species as the second most frequent large delphinid sighted outer continental shelf and slope in the southern PW TSA. There are no public records of the long-finned pilot whale in the PTSA, even though the predicted potential distribution map has shown high environmental suitability in the Vitoria-Trindade Chain (VTC) seamounts.



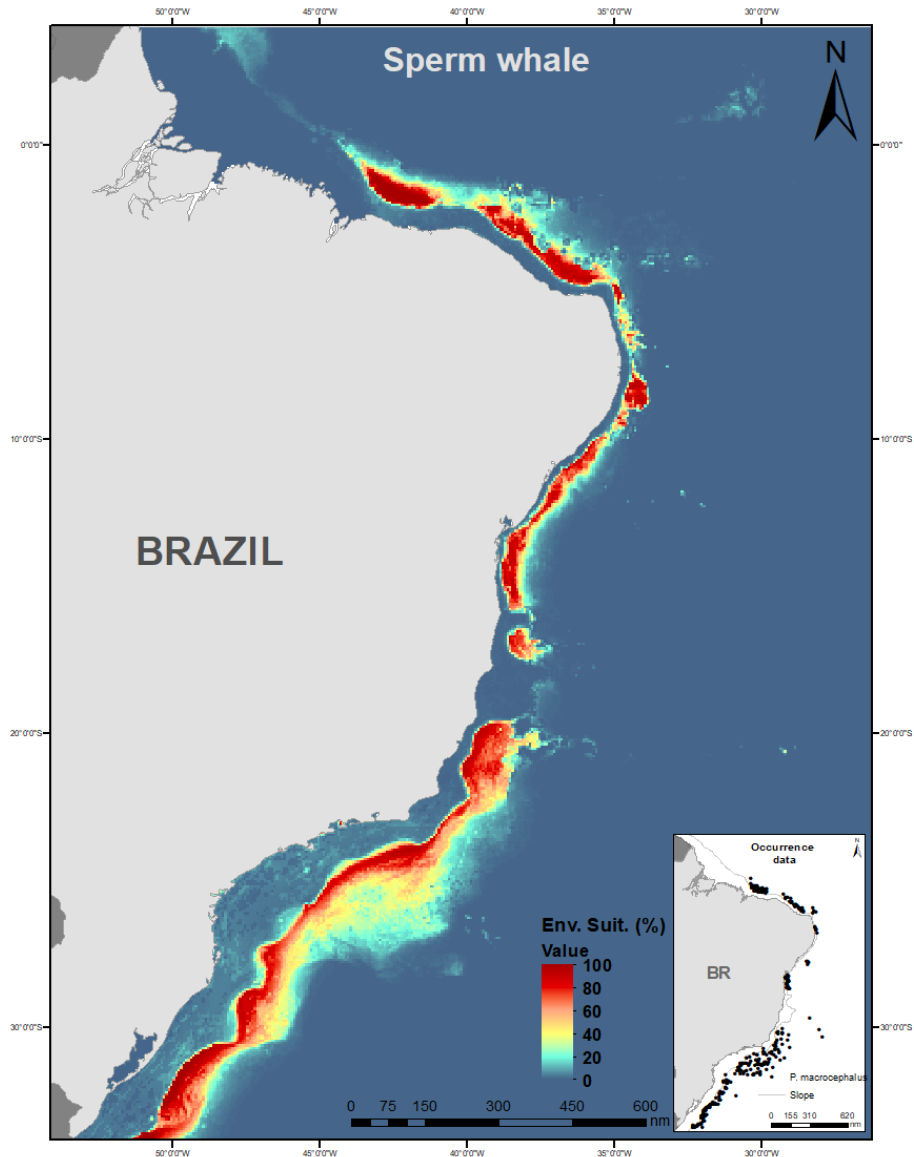
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 7. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR RISSO'S DOLPHIN (*GRAMPUS GRISEUS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the Risso's dolphin indicated high occurrence probability in deep and offshore waters (>1000m), concentrated over continental slope and steep shelf-edge areas. The variable bathy ranging from 10m to 2,943m (mean = 1401.11 m); distoshore between 2km and 350km (mean = 159.68 km); slope ranging from 1° to 46° (mean = 16.37°); Chlora_R between 0.05 and 1.57 mg/m³ (mean = 0.43 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.99 and 37.63 psu (mean = 37.37 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.87 to 4.27 psu (mean = 1.18 psu); and SST_R between 4.26 and 11.07°C (mean = 6.38°C). Di Tullio et al., (2016) indicate that the Risso's dolphin has higher densities beyond the 600m isobath in PWTSA. The Risso's dolphin sightings are concentrated in southern PTSA and PWTSA, corroborating their preference for waters warmer than 12°C (Hartman, 2018). These records come almost exclusively from public databases, except for two published accidental catches. Few strandings are recorded in the three marine provinces (summarized by Toledo et al., 2015). Although described as a widely distributed species, the Risso's dolphin has some few populations with known site fidelity, but are isolated from each other, or have shown no evidence of exchange between them, suggesting little long-range dispersal (Gaspari et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011; Hartman, 2018).



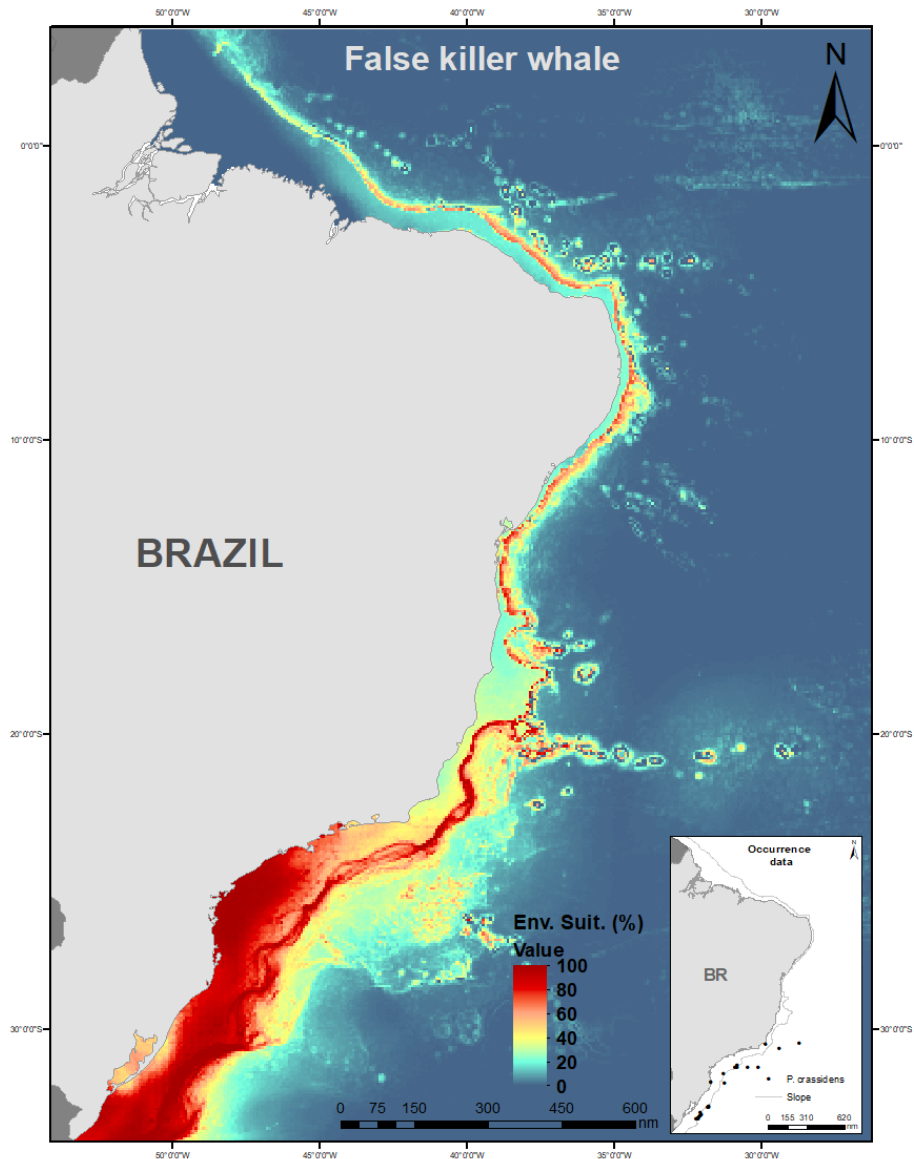
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 8. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR KILLER WHALE (*ORCINUS ORCA*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the killer whale indicates high occurrence probability in coastal and over continental shelf from PWTSA, mainly in colder and productivity areas influenced by SBB upwellings and the Subtropical Confluence (SASC). The variable bathy ranging from 2m to 3,676m (mean = 750.098 m); distoshore between 1km and 515km (mean = 121.935 km); slope ranging from 0° to 112° (mean = 8.402°); Chlora_R between 0.040 and 2.135 mg/m³ (mean = 0.875 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.929 and 37.773 psu (mean = 36.984 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.859 to 4.674 psu (mean = 1.743 psu); and SST_R between 3.171 and 12.227°C (mean = 7.932°C). Killer whales inhabits all oceans and most seas, but is more frequent in productive and colder waters (Ford, 2018). Although there is no such information about killer whales that occurs in Brazilian waters, is currently recognized the existence of morphologically, ecologically, and genetically distinct populations (LeDuc et al., 2008; Morin et al., 2010; Ford, 2018). Killer whale populations may exhibit seasonal shifts in distribution related to prey availability. Killer whales are sighted mainly in coastal areas from SBB between November and February (Santos et al., 2019), and further south in deeper waters between spring and winter (Lodi and Borobia, 2013). High suitable areas predicted areas through PWTSA where killer whales are frequently sighted (see Discussion). Killer whale sightings are rare northern of the PTWSA (Bastida et al., 2018). In fact, warmer waters of middle-latitudes (30°S) in the SWA are suggested as secondary range for killer whales (Ford, 2018).



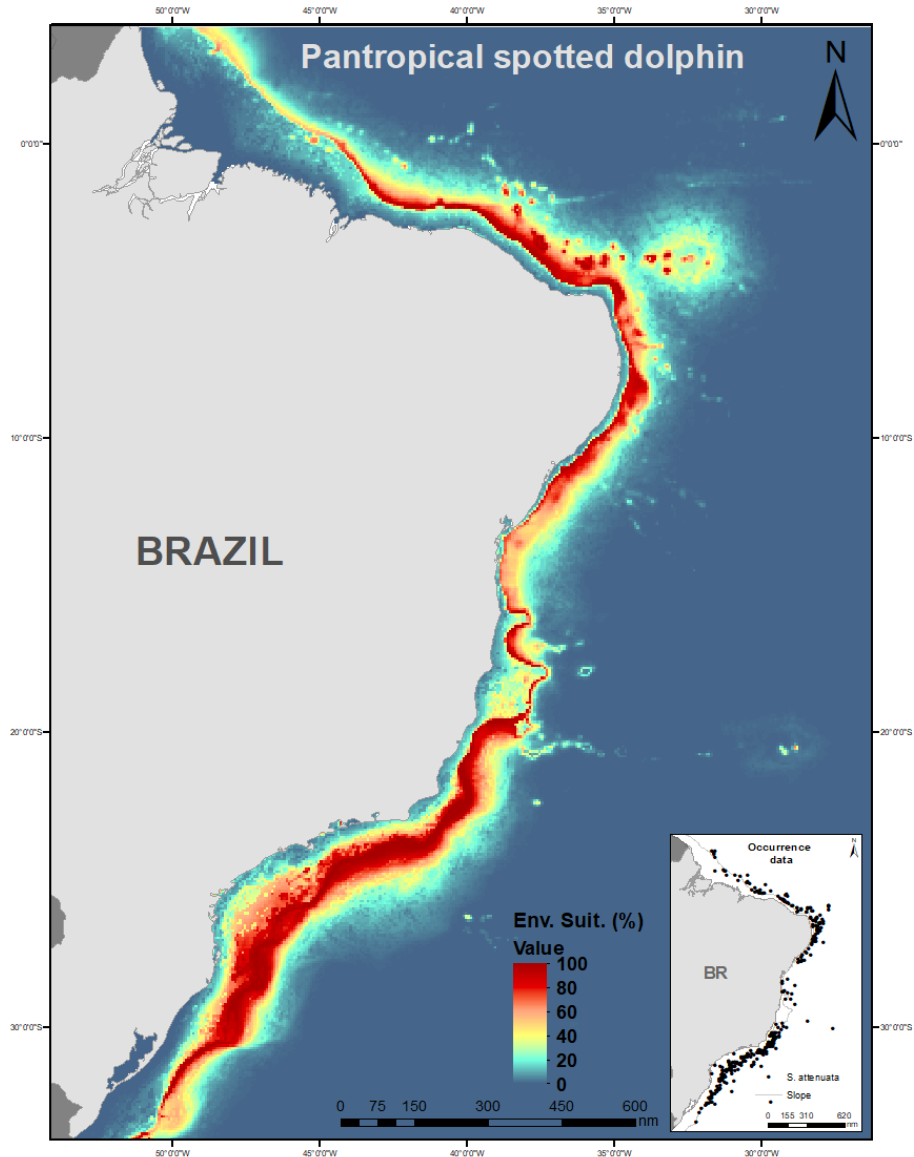
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 9. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR MELON-HEADED WHALE (*PEPONOCEPHALA ELECTRA*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the melon-headed whale indicates high occurrence probability along deeper waters (<1000m) from continental shelf break. The variable bathy ranging from 109m to 2,908m (mean = 1576.17 m); distoshore between 3km and 184km (mean = 105.56 km); slope ranging from 4° to 117° (mean = 25°); Chlora_R between 0.07 and 0.68 mg/m³ (mean = 0.32 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.39 and 37.66 psu (mean = 37.21 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.88 to 2.64 psu (mean = 1.37 psu); and SST_R between 2.55 and 8.84°C (mean = 4.85°C). The oceanic islands, namely Trindade, Atol das Rocas and Fernando de Noronha, are also indicated with high environmental suitability, and the last two islands has confirmed sighting (Baracho et al., 2005; Rocha-Campos et al., 2007). Nearshore sightings only occur in PTSA, where the continental shelf is narrow. Most strandings are record in PTSA (Lodi et al., 1990; Batista et al., 2012; Toledo et al., 2015) but also in PNBS (Costa et al., 2017). Melon-headed whales are found worldwide in tropical to subtropical waters, and sightings are often associated with incursions of warm water currents (Perryman and Danil, 2018). May the melon-headed whales dwell the equatorial North Brazilian Current (NBC) and the tropical BC waters masses (which separates from the continental shelf about 36°S), moving seasonally between its boundaries. Further, the absence in Abrolhos Bank may be related with shallower topography in this region.



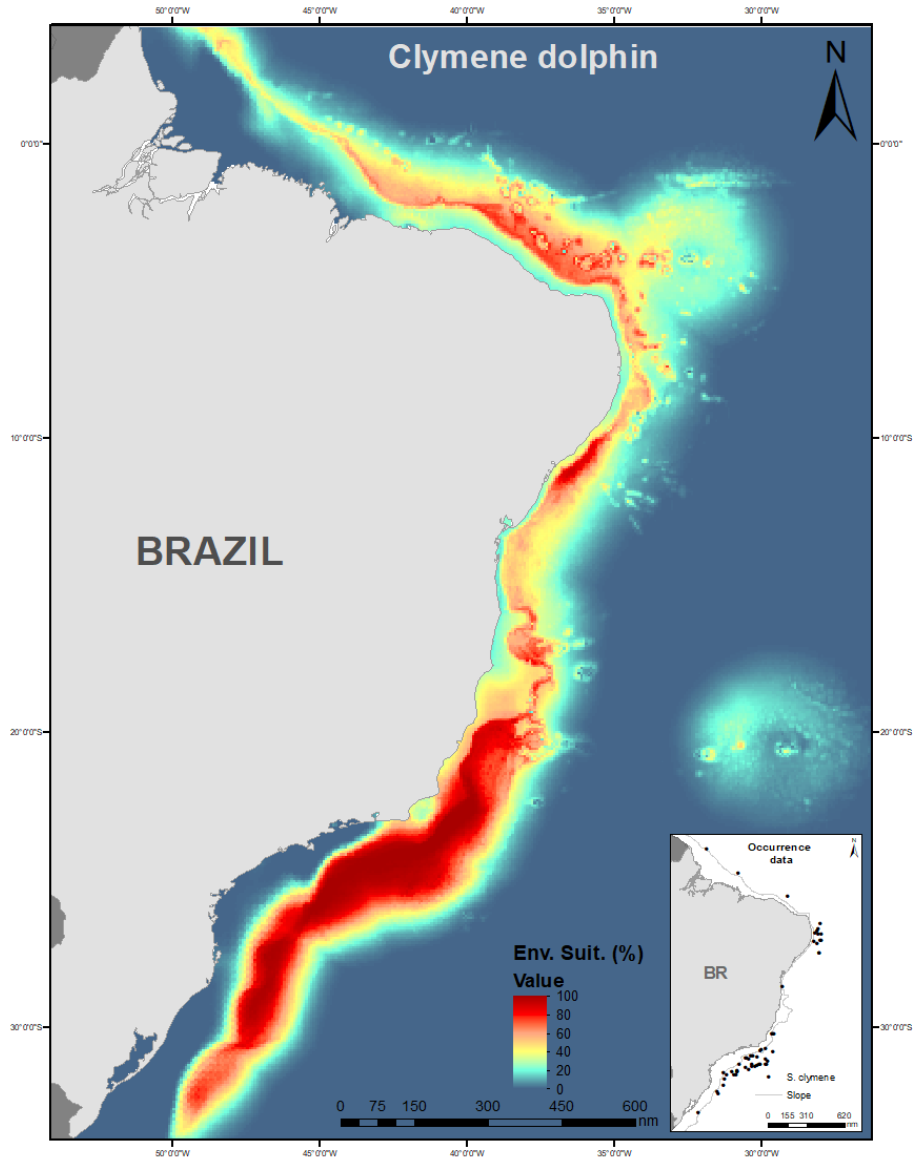
Supplementary Figure 10. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR SPERM WHALE (*PHYSETER MACROCEPHALUS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the sperm whale indicates high environmental suitability in deeper waters (around 2000m) along the edges of continental shelf in PTSA and PWTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 7m to 4,395m (mean = 1,911.17 m); distoshore between 2km and 542km (mean = 158.53 km); slope ranging from 1° to 87° (mean = 17.39°); Chlora_R between 0.02 and 2.37 mg/m³ (mean = 0.44 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.37 and 38.01 psu (mean = 37.04 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.85 to 4.91 psu (mean = 1.68 psu); and SST_R between 2.45 and 13.31°C (mean = 5.92°C). Sightings in offshore waters reach depths greater than 4000 m, and topographic features seems to be an important factor in their ranges. Strandings are recorded through all three marine provinces, with greatest incidence in PTSA (Ramos et al., 2001; Lodi & Borobia, 2013; Costa et al., 2017). The PTSA was a major whaling ground off the eastern coast of South America in the 20th century (Andriolo et al., 2010), where the sperm whale was intensely hunted (Toledo and Langguth, 2009), but also in Cabo Frio region (Ramos et al., 2010). Moreover, in the PTSA the sperm whale has been observed throughout all the year (Andriolo et al., 2010; Ramos et al., 2010), but sightings nearshore occur only where the continental shelf is narrow. Meanwhile, the southern PTWSA have the highest frequency of sightings in the last years (Bastida et al., 2018), principally in the spring season and in deeper waters over the continental slope (Di Tullio et al., 2016). The importance of slope topography for sperm whales has been recorded in this area (Pinedo et al., 2002).



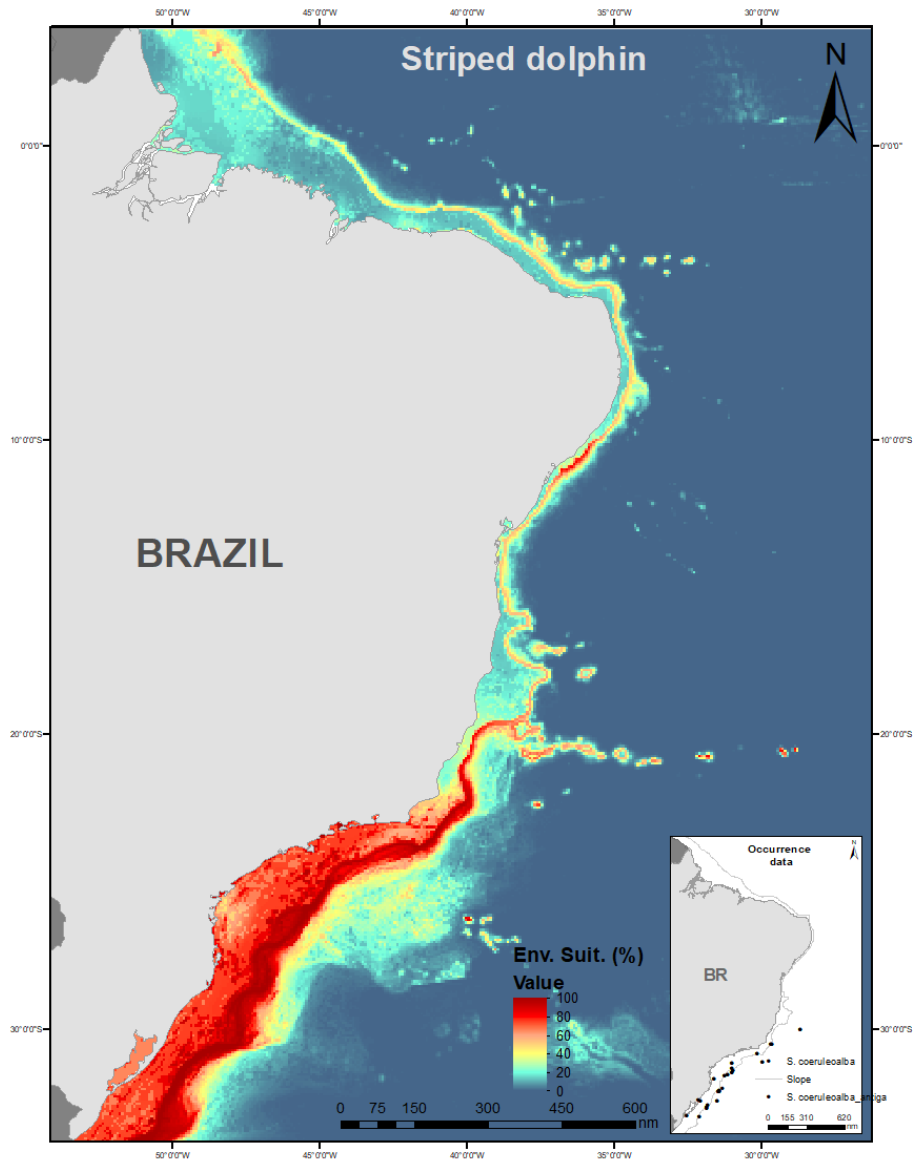
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 11. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR FALSE KILLER WHALE (*PSEUDORCA CRASSIDENS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the false killer whale indicates high environmental suitability in coastal and deeper waters (<1000m) over the large continental shelf, and along the slope in the PWTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 15m to 4,117m (mean = 1,227.565 m); distoshore between 2km and 477km (mean = 174.82 km); slope ranging from 1° to 40° (mean = 17.39°); Chlora_R between 0.041 and 2.546 mg/m³ (mean = 0.773 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.062 and 37.697 psu (mean = 37.062 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.888 to 4.964 psu (mean = 2.290 psu); and SST_R between 3.178 and 12.194°C (mean = 8.438°C). Great environmental suitability also was predicted to VCT and steep shelf-edge areas along PTSA, where sightings and strandings often occurs (Baracho et al., 2005; Batista et al., 2012). The false killer whale are found worldwide throughout the tropics and subtropics, with greater density in lower latitudes (Baird, 2018b). In Brazil, In southern PWTSA, the false killer whale has been observed in coastal areas (LTMM-IO-FURG, unpublished data cited in Botta et al., 2012), where two groups of divergent trophic level and/or habitats could be identified isotopically (Botta et al., 2012). One group seems to have a more coastal piscivorous feeding habit (Botta et al., 2012), whereas the other group consumes mainly oceanic cephalopods (Andrade et al., 2001), which can indicate longitudinal movements according with prey availability among coastal and pelagic waters (Lodi and Borobia, 2013). Further, strandings of false killer whales in southern PWTSA are more frequent in spring/winter and might be related to the higher productivity in this area which could attract individuals to this area (Prado et al., 2016).



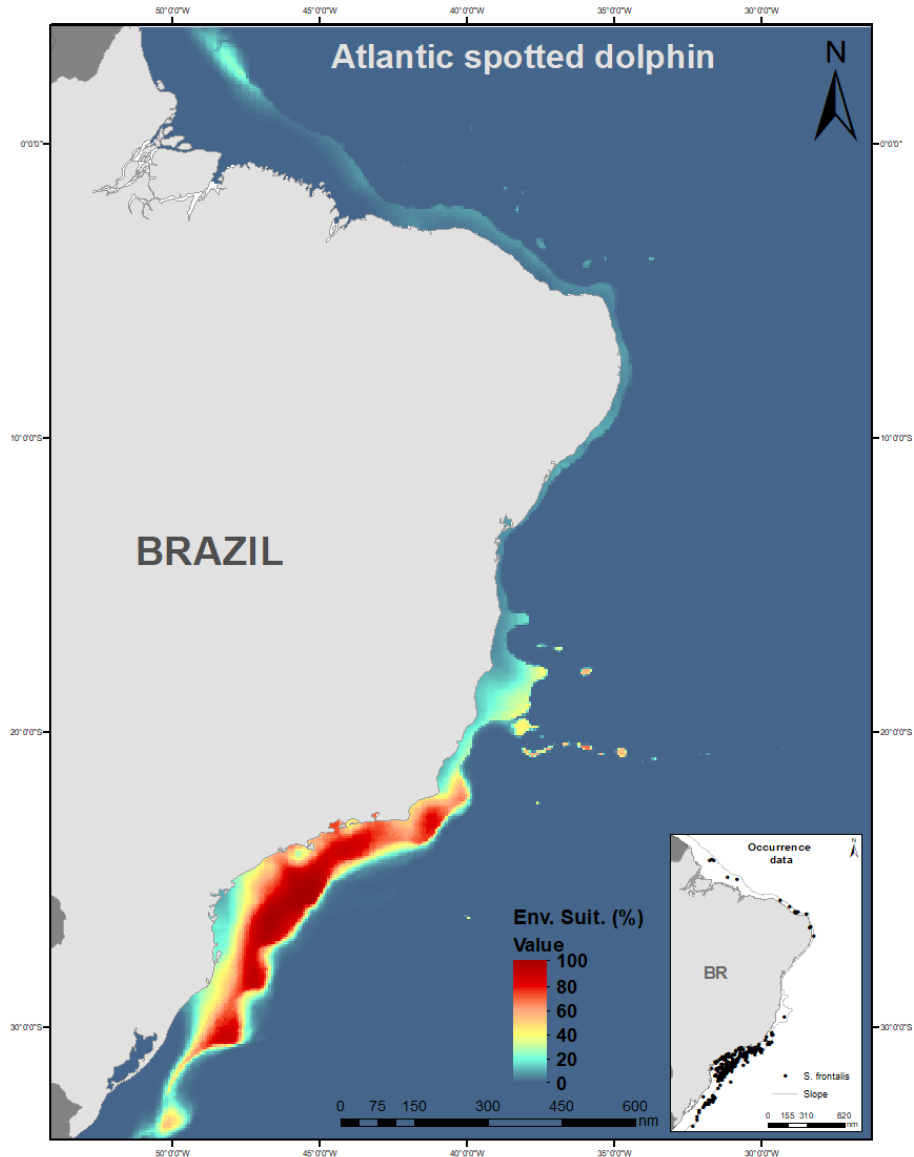
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 12. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR PANTROPICAL SPOTTED DOLPHIN (*STENELLA ATTENUATA*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the pantropical spotted dolphin indicates high occurrence probability in deep waters (>1000m) along the continental shelf break and around tropical oceanic island. The variable bathy ranging from 5m to 4633m (mean = 1379.422 m); distoshore between 1km and 860km (mean = 127.031 km); slope ranging from 1° to 158° (mean = 22.136°); Chlora_R between 0.024 and 2.085 mg/m³ (mean = 0.406 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.223 and 38.059 psu (mean = 37.106 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.859 to 16.730 psu (mean = 1.678 psu); and SST_R between 2.162 and 11.355°C (mean = 5.416°C). In Brazilian waters, the pantropical spotted dolphin ecological niche have been associated with warm (>27°C) and deep waters beyond slope (Moreno et al., 2005; do Amaral et al., 2015). In fact, until recently, most sighting were concentrated in the PTSA (do Amaral et al., 2015). The new sightings data presented here are mainly from public databases and were obtained principally in areas of economic interest monitored systematically (oil exploration). These records extending the pantropical spotted dolphin range southward and seem to corroborate the abundant status described for this species in other ocean basins (Perrin, 2018). Rice (1998) suggest that southern distribution range for this species in the SWA is close to Uruguay (34°S). Further, also as described for major water masses in the eastern Pacific (Perrin, 2018), may the pantropical spotted dolphin inhabits the equatorial North Brazilian Current (NBC) and the tropical Brazilian Current (BC) waters masses.



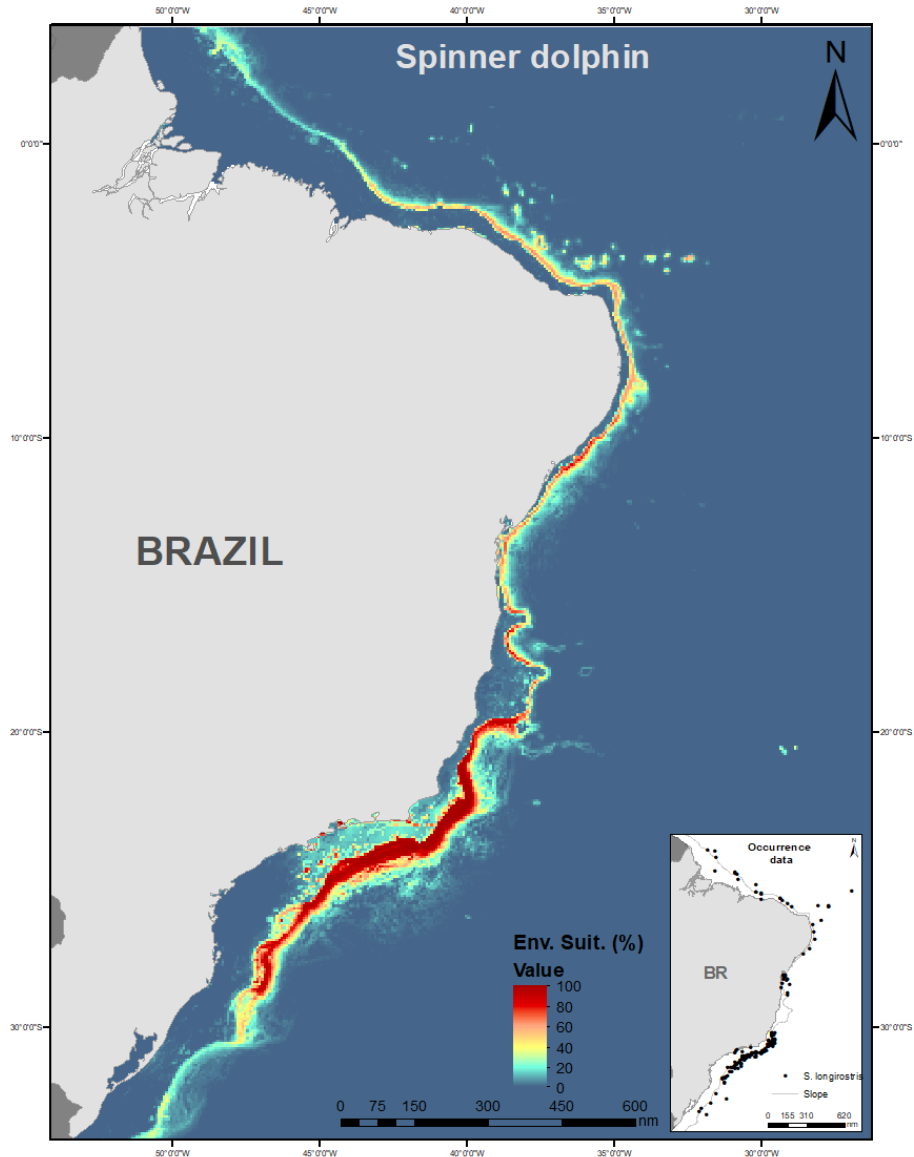
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 13. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR CLYMENE DOLPHIN (*STENELLA CLYMENE*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the Clymene dolphin indicates a wide area of high occurrence probability in offshore and deeper waters over and beyond continental shelf break from PTSA to PWTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 7m to 4,769m (mean = 2,033.18 m); distoshore between 2km and 318km (mean = 180.82 km); slope ranging from 1° to 104° (mean = 14.75°); Chlora_R between 0.020 and 0.80 mg/m³ (mean = 0.33 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 36.25 and 37.64 psu (mean = 37.20 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.90 to 5.64 psu (mean = 1.34 psu); and SST_R between 2.34 and 8.27°C (mean = 5.49°C). The Clymene dolphin is endemic from Atlantic Ocean (Fertl et al., 2003), and is often observed nearshore where deep water approaches the coast (Jefferson, 2018a). Most records are reported to the PTSA (Fertl et al., 2003; Moreno et al., 2005), where Clymene dolphin is considered be more frequent (Moreno et al., 2005; do Amaral et al., 2015). However, this may be more related to the narrowing of the continental shelf than to a greater abundance of the species. As for the pantropical spotted dolphin, the new sightings presented here are mainly from public databases and were obtained in offshore areas of economic interest monitored systematically. The absence of records in PWTSA until them, could be related to the widening of the continental shelf, the separation of the warm BC from coast, and/or the increase of environmental suitability in open-ocean waters.



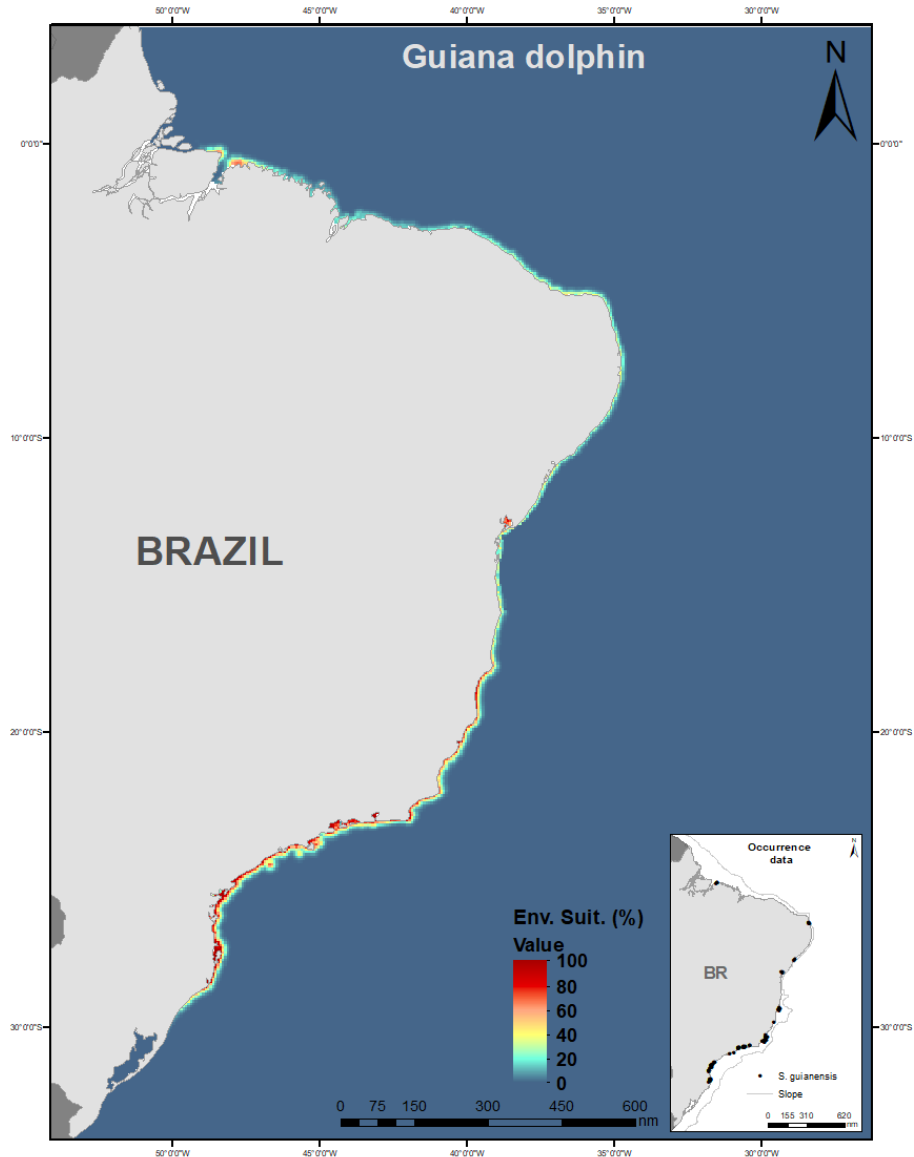
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 14. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR THE STRIPED DOLPHIN (*STENELLA COERULEOALBA*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the striped dolphin shows high occurrence probability southern of the VTC, in coolest waters across continental shelf and upper slope from PW TSA. The variable bathy ranging from 9m to 2,515m (mean = 640.82 m); distoshore between 2km and 396km (mean = 148.69 km); slope ranging from 1° to 94° (mean = 19.09°); Chlora_R between 0.04 and 3.37 mg/m³ (mean = 0.94 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.48 and 37.77 psu (mean = 37.00 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.88 to 9.48 psu (mean = 2.54 psu); and SST_R between 3.35 and 14.49°C (mean = 8.52°C). The striped dolphin is a pelagic small delphinid common in warm-temperate to tropical waters in all ocean basins (Archer, 2018), and are often associated with convergence zones and waters influenced by upwelling (Ballance et al., 2006). In the SWA, striped dolphins seems to prefer subtropical and warm temperate regions, although there are few sightings in tropical waters (Moreno et al., 2005; Carvalho et al., 2010; de Santos et al., 2010; do Amaral et al., 2015). Furthermore, strandings are more frequent in the PW TSA, and even further south in Uruguayan and Argentinean waters (do Amaral et al., 2015). Stomach content analysis of stranded individuals in PW TSA shows cephalopods beaks of oceanic species, corroborating the pelagic habits of striped dolphins (Rosas et al., 2002). Although some sightings reach 2,000 m depth, on average, the striped dolphins seems to prefer waters up to 600m and colder waters than others oceanic stenellids (*S. attenuata*, *S. clymene* and *S. longirostris*).



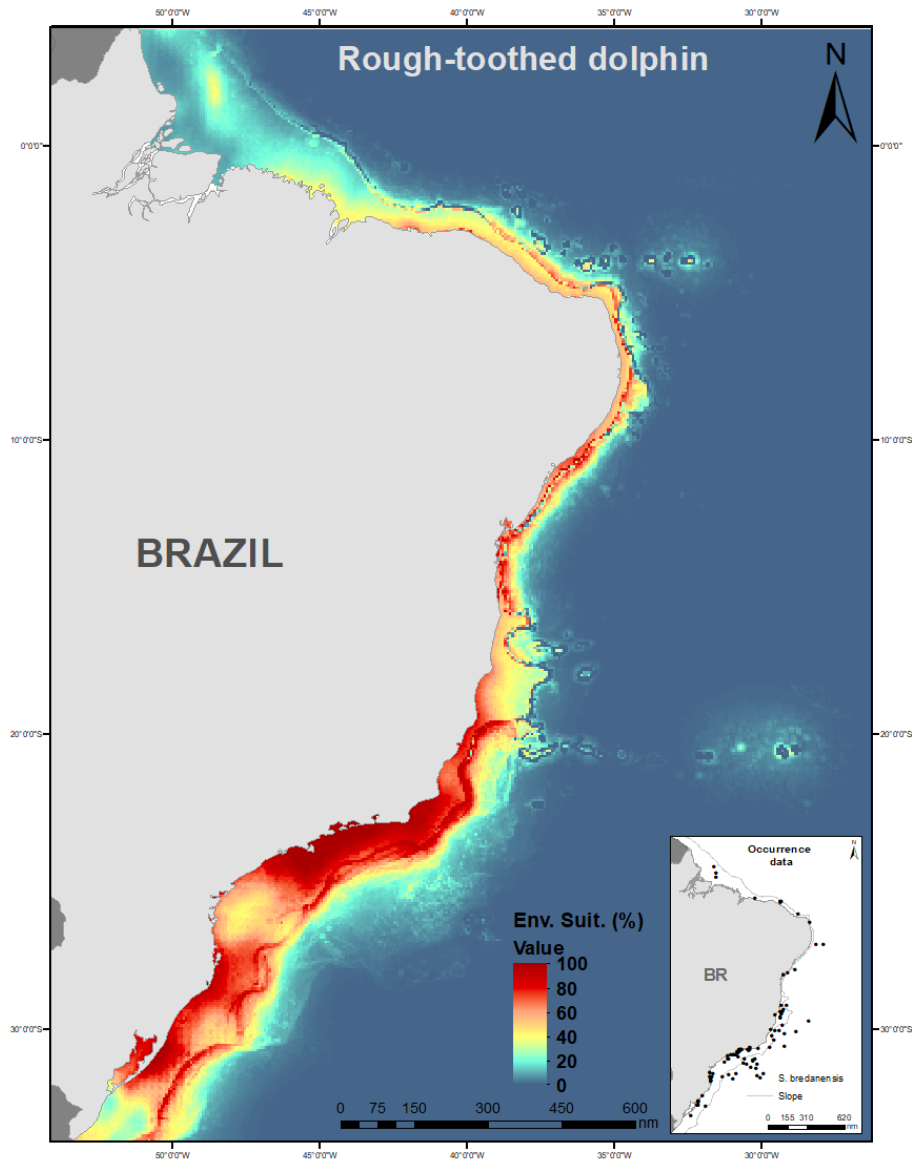
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 15. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR ATLANTIC SPOTTED DOLPHIN (*STENELLA FRONTALIS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the Atlantic spotted dolphin indicates high occurrence probability in coastal and neritic waters over the continental shelf in northern PWTSA and beyond the shelf break in southern PWTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 2m to 2,574m (mean = 224.77 m); distoshore between 1km and 307km (mean = 114.27 km); slope ranging from 0° to 65° (mean = 5.22°); Chlora_R between 0.09 and 2.22 mg/m³ (mean = 0.85 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.14 and 37.57 psu (mean = 37.007 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.86 to 13.15 psu (mean = 1.729 psu); and SST_R between 2.280 and 11.79°C (mean = 7.76°C). The Atlantic-spotted dolphin is endemic from Atlantic Ocean, Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean, and its southern range corresponds to the region influenced by the SASC (Moreno et al., 2005; Paro et al., 2014). The model corroborates the distribution previously described by Moreno et al., (2005) and do Amaral et al., (2015). The Atlantic spotted dolphin is the only species among the genera with coastal habitats in the SWA (about 200m depth), although they are also sighted in deeper waters (Moreno et al., 2005; Di Tullio et al., 2016). The environmental suitability increase southward, following the widening of the continental shelf. Sightings concur with the area of the SASC, what seems to influence the distribution range of the Atlantic spotted dolphin seasonally by the drift of the BC, trough PTSA/PWTSA and Uruguayan coast (Moreno et al., 2005; do Amaral et al., 2015). The increase of sightings appears to corroborate the proposed discontinuous distribution along the Brazilian coast proposed by Moreno et al. (2005). Despite a considerable number of records at northern Brazil, the model indicated low occurrence probability for the species in this marine province.



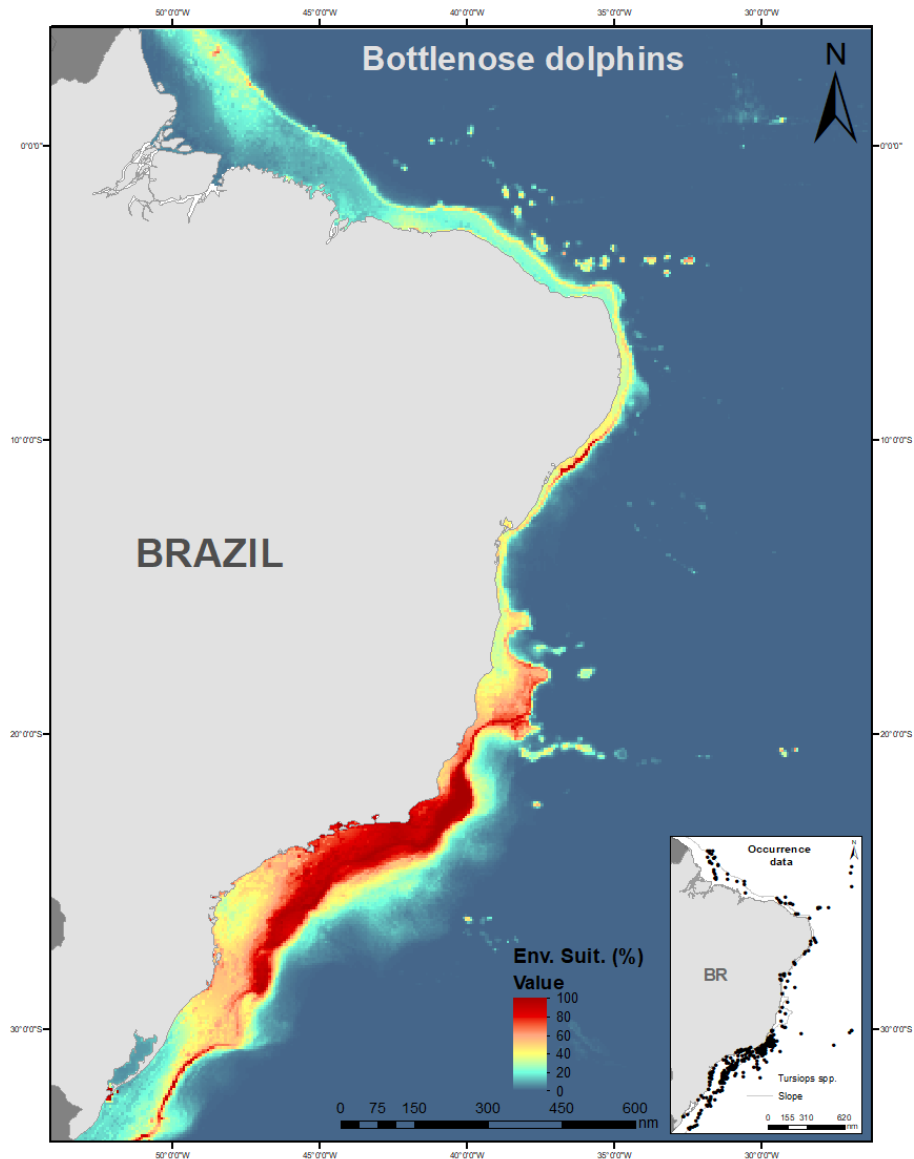
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 16. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR THE SPINNER DOLPHIN (*STENELLA LONGIROSTRIS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the spinner dolphin indicates high occurrence probability in deeper waters over the continental shelf break through PTSA and northern PWTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 14m to 4,785m (mean = 997.22 m); distoshore between 2km and 412km (mean = 119.88 km); slope ranging from 1° to 158° (mean = 24.21°); Chlora_R between 0.04 and 1.77 mg/m³ (mean = 0.47 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.223 and 37.69 psu (mean = 37.24 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.86 to 16.73 psu (mean = 1.40 psu); and SST_R between 2.30 and 11.08°C (mean = 5.51°C). The environmental suitability decreases south of 30°S. Despite the increase of sightings, the model to the spinner dolphin is similar to the generated by do Amaral et al., (2015), which suggest preferences for deep and warmer waters (<25°C). Large groups with many individuals are recorded in the northern PWTSA (Bastida et al., 2018), mainly in spring, corroborating the preference for a more tropical habitat and seasonal movements (Di Tullio et al., 2016). Site fidelity for spinner dolphins is only known around Fernando de Noronha Island, where they are sighting all year round and is a critical area for the species in the SWA. Less frequently, spinner dolphins are also sighted around Atol das Rocas and São Pedro São Paulo archipelago (Bastida et al., 2018).



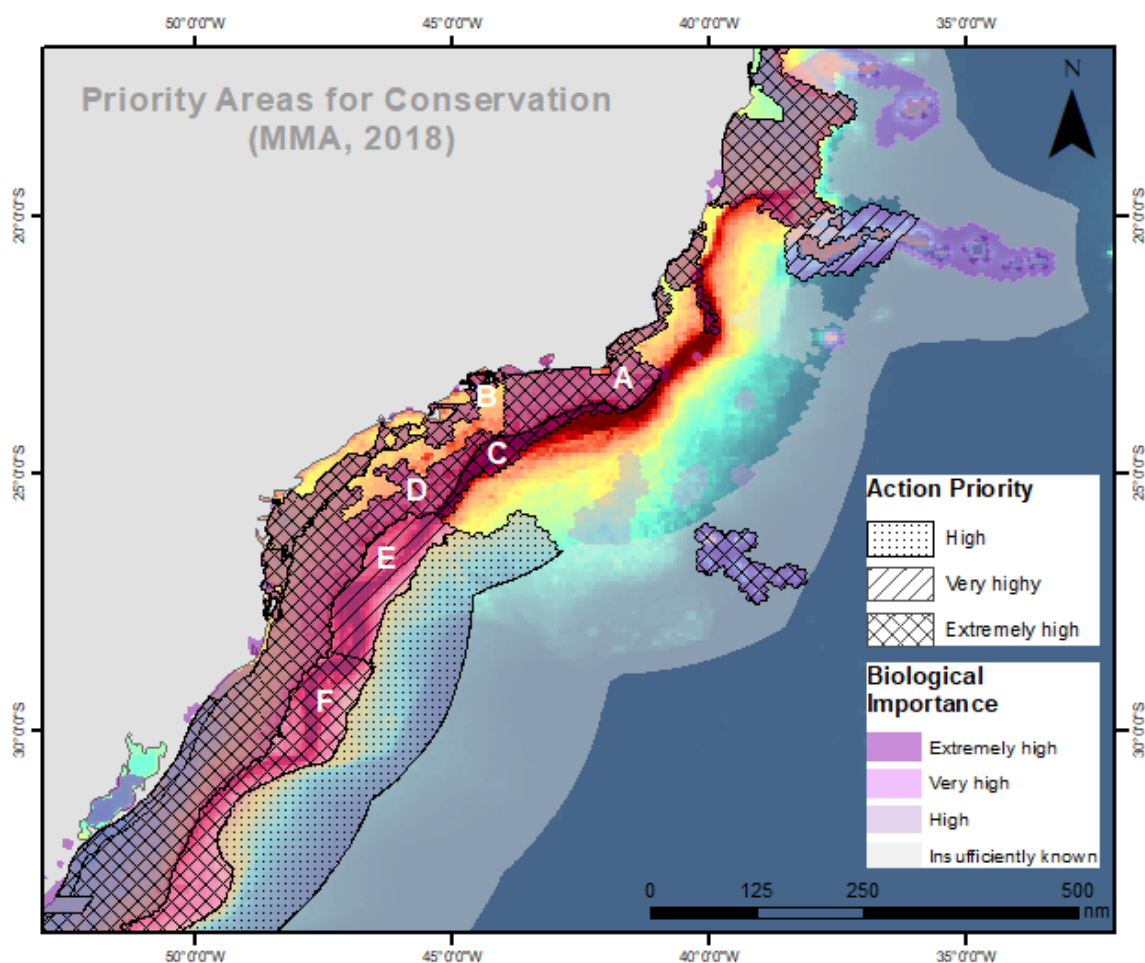
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 17. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR THE GUIANA DOLPHIN (*SOTALIA GUIANENSIS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the Guiana dolphin indicates high occurrence probability in warmer, shallow, and coastal waters between northern PWTSA and southern PTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 1m to 49m (mean = 12.404 m); distoshore between 1km and 34km (mean = 5.428 km); slope ranging from 0° to 13° (mean = 2.071°); Chlora_R between 0.1154 to 2.0404 mg/m³ (mean = 0.7647 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 35.937 and 37.588 psu (mean = 36.720 psu); SSS_R ranging from 1.241 to 27.899 psu (mean = 3.708 psu); and SST_R between 1.939 and 11.175°C (mean = 7.111°C). Areas with no occurrence data (e.g., PNBS and PTSA coast) are mainly related to missing geographic coordinates in published studies, and not reflect the absence of the species. The Guiana dolphin is a strictly coastal species, endemic from Atlantic Ocean, from southern Brazil to Honduras (Azevedo et al., 2017). The Guiana dolphin occurs throughout all three marine provinces (see Discussion), including waters close to the Amazon basin until the southernmost point at 27°35'S. Further, the Guiana dolphin is the odontocete most frequently sighted shallow waters from Abrolhos Bank, and this is the population that inhabits waters with the longest distance from the coast (Rossi-Santos et al., 2006). The Abrolhos Banks are predominantly formed by coral reefs, and in this area the 200 m isobath is located up to 250 km from the shore (Floeter et al., 2001; Moreno et al., 2005).



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 18. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR THE ROUGH-TOOTHED DOLPHIN (*STENO BREDANENSIS*) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for the rough-toothed dolphin shows high occurrence probability along continental shelf from PWTSA and PTSA. The variable bathy ranging from 3m to 4,318m (mean = 666.84 m); distoshore between 1km and 486km (mean = 83.71 km); slope ranging from 0° to 47° (mean = 8.04°); Chlora_R between 0.03 to 3.45 mg/m³ (mean = 0.90 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 34.90 and 37.86 psu (mean = 36.87 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.88 to 19.66 psu (mean = 2.66 psu); and SST_R between 2.28 and 13.96°C (mean = 7.08°C). The rough-toothed dolphin is known to prefer deep pelagic waters in most parts of its worldwide range (Jefferson, 2018b). In Brazilian waters, however, this species are recorded mainly in coastal waters (Lodi and Hetzel, 1998; Santos et al., 2019), but also in deep waters, suggesting a wide distribution range. In fact, populations of rough-toothed dolphins in Hawaii are described to has large home ranges (Baird et al., 2008). The rough-toothed dolphin is record throughout all three marine provinces, but most frequently in PWTSA, which is also its southern distribution limit in the SWA. The rough-toothed dolphin are sighted in all seasons in the northern PWTSA, where they may present site fidelity in these high productivity coastal waters (Lodi et al., 2012; de Oliveira Santos et al., 2019). This species are also often record in shallow waters from Abrolhos Bank (about 12 km from shore), and coral reef surroundings (Rossi-Santos et al., 2006).



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 19. MAP REPRESENTING THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FOR BOTTLENOSE DOLPHINS (*TURSIOPS* spp.) IN THE SOUTHWESTERN ATLANTIC OCEAN (SWA). The predicted potential distribution for bottlenose dolphins indicates high occurrence probability in coastal waters from SBB, over the continental shelf and upper slope from PTSA and PWTSA, and around oceanic islands (Trindade and Martin-Vaz, Atol das Rocas and Fernando de Noronha). The bathy ranging from 2m to 4,896m (mean = 518.9m); distoshore between 1km and 713km (mean = 110.3 km); slope ranging from 0° to 198° (mean = 13.01°); Chlora_R between 0.020 and 3.738 mg/m³ (mean = 0.712 mg/m³); SSS_Ma between 34.99 and 37.91 psu (mean = 37.018 psu); SSS_R ranging from 0.828 to 24.858 psu (mean = 2.282 psu); and SST_R between 2.142 and 15.050°C (mean = 6.485°C). Despite the low suitability in the model, bottlenose dolphins are frequent in São Pedro São Paula archipelago. The Lahille's bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops gephyreus*) (see Wickert et al., 2016) occur in shallow coastal and estuarine waters from PWTSA, while the common bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) has a widely range and inhabiting coastal, offshore, and oceanic island through all three marine provinces (see Discussion). Together with Guiana-dolphin, bottlenose dolphins are probably the most common dolphins on the Brazilian coast. Although they are phenotypically distinct, they may occur in sympatry in some regions and distinguishing them in the field is still not straightforward (Wickert et al., 2016; Simões-Lopes et al., 2019), reason why they were maintained here as *Tursiops* spp. and all records from the possible two species were pooled together.



Supplementary Figure 20. Priority Areas for Conservation (PAC) overlapped with S-SDM results. The letters indicate PAC zones: A - Area of coastal resurgence; B - Ilha Grande bay; C – Upper slope of the Santos basin; D - South shelf; E – North slope; F – South slope.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 1. A set of 22 environmental variables (included static and dynamic variables) selected to be candidates, their respective source, unit, original resolution, and abbreviation in this study.

	Environmental variables	Source	Unit	Resolution	Codes
static	Bathymetry (Depth of the seafloor)	MARSPEC	m	1 km	bathy
	Distance to shore	MARSPEC	km	1 km	distoshore
	Bathymetric slope	MARSPEC	degrees	1 km	slope
dynamic	Chlorophyll-a concentration (Max, Min, Mean, Range)	Bio-Oracle	mg.m-3	9 km	Chlora
	Sea Surface Salinity (Max, Min, Mean, Range)	Bio-Oracle	psu	9 km	SSS
	Sea Surface Temperature (Max, Min, Mean, Range)	Bio-Oracle	°C	9 km	SST
	Primary Productivity (Max, Min, Mean, Range)	Bio-Oracle	g.m-3.day-1	9 km	pr_prod
	Diffuse attenuation (Max, Min, Mean)	Bio-Oracle	m-1	9 km	DifAtte

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 2. Occurrence data from 17 species used to build individual-SDMs. Is the result data of scrutinizing and removing duplicate records on the same pixel. All data were collected from scientific publication and downloaded from public databases until November 2019. SCI = Published and unpublished scientific data; PUB = Public report and public databases for cetaceans in Brazil; SCI/PUB = Published scientific data also available in public databases²².

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1c2RFuW54j1T7tLuo_cc17y0JC79KN40z

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 3. Ranking of MPAS according to Stack-Species Distribution Model (S-SDM). The rank is based on the maximum pixel value from S-SDM raster recorded inside the polygon representing each MPA. Abbreviations are **SO** = Source of MPA shapefile; **CAT** = Brazilian category (Brazil, 2000); **CLA** = Brazilian classes of protection (Brazil, 2000); **LOC** = State location in Brazilian territory; **ADM** = Type of administration (federal, state or private); **RAN** = “Ranking” of the maximum pixel value from S-SDM raster to each MPA polygon (greater probability of occurrence of a greater number of species); **IUCN** = equivalence of each Brazilian category with the six management categories for protected areas defined by IUCN (IUCN, 1994); **ha** = MPA area in hectares; **TP** = types of classification of this study based on influence in odontocete species (I, II or III) (see Supplementary Figure 2); **PRO** = MEOW provinces (Spalding et al., 2007).

SO	NAME	CAT	CLA	LOC	ADM	IUCN	RANK	AREA	TP	PRO
Direct influence on odontocete										
PrPI	Estação Ecológica De Tamoios	ESEC	PI	BR-RJ	FED	Ia	11.50	8660.35	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Marinha Do Litoral Norte	APA	US	BR-SP	STA	V	10.82	236047.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Costa Das Algas	APA	US	BR-ES	FED	V	10.29	115001.92	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Arraial Do Cabo	RESEX	US	BR-RJ	FED	VI	10.06	51601.46	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Marinha Do Litoral Centro	APA	US	BR-SP	STA	V	9.90	2463.59	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica Tupinambás	ESEC	PI	BR-SP	FED	Ia	9.52	2463.59	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Da Ilha Anchieta	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	9.52	828.08	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Monumento Natural Das Ilhas Cagarras	MONA	PI	BR-RJ	FED	III	9.40	105.93	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Do Aventureiro	RDS	US	BR-RJ	STA	VI	9.39	1910.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal Dos Corais De Armação Dos Búzios	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	9.35	5.70	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Ilha Grande	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	9.09	12052.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Ilhabela	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	9.08	27025.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica Estadual da Praia do Sul	REBIO	PI	BR-RJ	STA	Ia	9.04	3600.00	I	PWTSA

²² For a reason of dimension and file size this supplementary table was kept in a link. If you would like access it, request access directly from the link or by the e-mail: elisaberlitz@gmail.com.

PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Marinha Do Litoral Sul	APA	US	BR-SP	STA	V	8.38	1091.09	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Monumento Natural Das Ilhas de Trindade e Martim Vaz e Do Monte Columbia	MONA	PI	BR-ES	FED	III	8.24	6796771.75	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico Ilhas Queimada Grande e Queimada Pequena	ARIE	US	BR-SP	FED	IV	8.23	65.17	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Da Baleia Franca	APA	US	BR-SC	FED	V	7.99	154867.40	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica Dos Tupiniquins	ESEC	PI	BR-SP	FED	Ia	7.95	1727.71	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Refúgio da Vida Silvestre Das Ilhas Do Abrigo e Guararitama	REVIS	PI	BR-SP	STA	III	7.95	481.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica Marinha Do Arvoredo	REBIO	PI	BR-SC	FED	Ia	7.85	17104.60	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Refúgio da Vida Silvestre Do Arquipélago De Alcatrazes	REVIS	PI	BR-RJ	FED	III	7.84	67479.29	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Plataforma Continental Do Litoral Norte	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	7.43	236047.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Pirajubaé	RESEX	US	BR-SC	FED	VI	7.25	1712.08	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental De Setiba	APA	US	BR-ES	STA	V	7.17	12960.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Arquipélago de Trindade e Martim Vaz	APA	US	BR-ES	FED	V	7.16	40385419.59	I	PTSA
PrPI	Refúgio da Vida Silvestre De Santa Cruz	REVIS	PI	BR-ES	FED	III	7.00	17709.39	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista De Canavieiras	RESEX	US	BR-BA	FED	VI	6.82	100726.36	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Marinho Do Laje De Santos	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	6.77	5000.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Municipal Tartarugas	APA	US	BR-ES	MUN	V	6.64	109200.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional Marinho De Fernando De Noronha	PARK / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-PE	FED	II	6.26	10929.47	I	PTSA

PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental De Fernando De Noronha - Rocas - São Pedro São Paulo	APA	US	BR-PE	FED	V	6.26	154409.03	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Baía de Todos os Santos	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	6.05	80000.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional Marinho Das Ilhas Dos Currais	PARK	PI	BR-PR	FED	II	5.72	1359.70	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Refúgio De Vida Silvestre Ilha Dos Lobos	REVIS	PI	BR-RS	FED	III	5.63	142.39	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Ponta Da Baleia / Abrolhos	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	5.42	34600.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista De Cassurubá	RESEX	US	BR-BA	FED	VI	5.35	100578.38	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica Atol Das Rocas	REBIO / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-PE	FED	Ia	5.32	35186.41	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Costa Dos Corais	APA	US	BR-AL	FED	V	5.12	406085.93	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal do Forte de Tamandaré	PARK	PI	BR-PE	MUN	II	4.99	34700.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Barra do Rio Mamanguape	APA	US	BR-PB	FED	V	4.81	14917.79	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Caraíva/Trancoso	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	4.76	31900.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Corumbau	RESEX	US	BR-BA	FED	VI	4.70	89996.76	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Da Lagoa do Jequiá	RESEX	US	BR-AL	FED	VI	4.24	10203.79	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional Marinho dos Abrolhos	PARK	PI	BR-BA	FED	II	4.17	87943.14	I	PTSA
PrPI	Refúgio da Vida Silvestre do Molhe Leste	REVIS	PI	BR-RS	MUN	III	3.71	30.00	I	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Da Praia De Ponta Grossa	APA	US	BR-CE	MUN	V	3.14	558.67	I	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Marinho Da Pedra Da Risca Do Meio	PARK	PI	BR-CE	STA	II	3.03	3320.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Prainha Do Canto Verde	RESEX	US	BR-CE	FED	VI	2.63	29804.99	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Manguezal da Barra Grande	APA	US	BR-CE	MUN	V	2.54	181100.00	I	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Reentrâncias Maranhenses	APA / Ramsar Site	US	BR-MA	STA	V	2.11	2680910.00	I	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista de	RESEX	US	BR-MA	FED	VI	1.99	186053.87	I	PNBS

Cururu										
PrPI	Parque Estadual Marinho do Parcel de Manuel Luís	PARK / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-MA	STA	II	1.86	45237.00	I	PNBS
ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista Baía do Tubarão	RESEX	US	BR-MA	FED	VI	1.75	223888.98	I	PNBS
PrPI	Monumento Natural do Arquipélago de São Pedro e São Paulo	MONA	PI	BR-PE	FED	III	1.73	4726317.84	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha de Gurupi-Piriá	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.68	74081.81	I	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Arquipélago de São Pedro e São Paulo	APA	US	BR-PE	FED	V	1.68	38450193.81	I	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Araí-Peroba	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.49	11549.73	I	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Caeté-Taperaçu	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.48	42489.17	I	PNBS
ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista de Arapiranga-Tromaí	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.46	186909.14	I	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Tracuateua	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.38	27864.08	I	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Maracanã	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.32	30179.20	I	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Biológica do Parazinho	REBIO	PI	BR-AP	STA	Ia	0.54	111.31	I	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Maricá	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	10.36	500.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Massambaba	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	10.06	7630.60	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Pau Brasil	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	9.95	9940.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual da Costa do Sol	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	9.95	9841.90	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Paisagem Carioca	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.90	204.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Orla Marítima	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.90	248.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental das Pontas de Copacabana, Arpoador e Seus Entornos	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.90	300.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal da Prainha	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	MUN	II	9.63	126.30	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Prainha	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.63	157.08	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal de Grumari	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	MUN	II	9.63	805.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Grumari	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.63	966.32	II	PWTSA

PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental dos Morros do Leme e do Urubu	APA	US	BR-RJ	MUN	V	9.63	127.00	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Área de Proteção Ambiental Cairuçu	APA	US	BR-RJ	FED	V	9.43	32610.78	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Guapimirim	APA	US	BR-RJ	FED	V	9.37	13890.54	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica da Guanabara	ESEC	PI	BR-RJ	FED	Ia	9.37	1936.25	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Paisagem e do Areal da Praia Do Ponta I	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	9.05	2400.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Guaraqueçaba	APA	US	BR-PR	FED	V	9.01	282446.36	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica de Guaraqueçaba	ESEC / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-PR	FED	Ia	8.70	4370.15	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Mandira	RESEX	US	BR-SP	FED	VI	8.67	1177.80	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Taquari	RESEX	US	BR-SP	STA	VI	8.67	1662.20	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica Juréia-Itatins	ESEC	PI	BR-SP	STA	Ia	8.60	79.27	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico de São Sebastião	APA	US	BR-SP	STA	V	8.59	608.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável da Ilha do Morro do Amaral	RDS	US	BR-SC	MUN	VI	8.58	335.77	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica Estadual e Arqueológica de Guaratiba	REBIO	PI	BR-RJ	STA	Ia	8.58	3600.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual do Prelado	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	8.38	1828.22	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Parque Nacional do Superagui	PARK	PI	BR-PR	FED	V	8.36	33860.36	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico Ilha do Ameixal	ARIE	US	BR-SP	FED	IV	8.32	400.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Barra do Una	RDS	US	BR-SP	STA	VI	8.32	1487.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Xixová-Japuí	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	8.18	901.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico do Degredo	ARIE	US	BR-ES	STA	IV	8.10	235700.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Mangaratiba	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	8.02	25239.00	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Estação Ecológica de Carijós	ESEC	PI	BR-SC	FED	Ia	7.92	759.34	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Anhatomirim	APA	US	BR-SC	FED	V	7.91	4436.59	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Área de Proteção Ambiental Cananéia - Iguape - Peruíbe	APA / Ramsar Site	US	BR-SP	FED	V	7.86	202309.58	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Ilha Comprida	APA	US	BR-PR	STA	V	7.86	18907.60	II	PWTSA

PrPI	Parque Estadual Ilha do Cardoso	PARK	PI	BR-PR	STA	II	7.86	13500.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Orla Marítima da Baía de Sepetiba	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	7.69	172.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional Restinga de Jurubatiba	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	FED	II	7.69	14922.39	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Guaratuba	APA	US	BR-PR	STA	V	7.67	199587.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual do Rio Vermelho	PARK	PI	BR-SC	STA	II	7.67	1532.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Itapanhapima	RDS	US	BR-SP	STA	VI	7.59	1242.70	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual da Serra do Tabuleiro	PARK	PI	BR-SC	STA	II	7.52	84130.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Estação Ecológica da Ilha do Mel	ESEC	PI	BR-PR	STA	Ia	7.45	2240.68	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal de Jacarenema	PARK	PI	BR-ES	STA	II	7.37	307.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Baía de Camamu	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	7.27	118000.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Ilha do Tumba	RESEX	US	BR-SP	STA	VI	7.27	1128.26	II	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Parque Nacional da Restinga de Jurubatiba	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	FED	II	7.24	14919.46	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual do Acaraí	PARK	PI	BR-SC	STA	II	7.16	6667.00	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica de Comboios	REBIO	PI	BR-ES	FED	Ia	6.85	784.63	II	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual da Ilha do Mel	PARK	PI	BR-PR	STA	II	6.61	337.84	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental do Pratigi	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	6.21	32000.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental de Guaibim	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	6.13	2000.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual de Itaúnas	PARK	PI	BR-ES	STA	II	6.03	353600.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Costa de Itacaré/Serra Grande	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	5.54	62960.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Lagoas de Guarajuba	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	5.45	230.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental Coroa Vermelha	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	5.44	4100.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Acaú-Goiana	RESEX	US	BR-PB	FED	VI	5.09	6676.69	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Guadalupe	APA	US	BR-PB	STA	V	4.99	44799.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental do Estuário do Rio Mundaú	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	4.87	1596.36	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Santa Cruz	APA	US	BR-PB	STA	V	4.82	38962.00	II	PTSA

ICM Bio	Refúgio de Vida Silvestre do Rio dos Frades	REVIS	PI	BR-BA	FED	III	4.76	898.67	II	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica de Santa Isabel	REBIO	PI	BR-SE	FED	Ia	4.59	4109.88	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Delta do Parnaíba	APA	US	BR-CE	FED	V	4.57	309593.77	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Santo Antônio	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	4.50	23000.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico Manguezais da Foz do Rio Mamanguape	ARIE	US	BR-PB	STA	IV	4.41	5721.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico Barra do Rio Camaratuba	ARIE	US	BR-PB	STA	IV	4.36	160.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Bonfim/Guaráira	APA	US	BR-RN	STA	V	4.20	42.00	II	PTSA
ICM Bio	Parque Nacional da Lagoa do Peixe	PARK / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-RS	FED	II	4.13	36721.71	II	PWTSA
PrPI	Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Estadual Ponta do Tubarão	RDS	US	BR-RN	STA	VI	4.09	9723.78	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Jenipabu	APA	US	BR-RN	STA	V	4.07	1881.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental das Dunas da Lagoinha	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	4.03	523.48	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Santa Rita	APA	US	BR-AL	STA	V	4.01	8800.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Lagamar do Cauípe	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	3.85	1884.45	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Piaçabuçu	APA	US	BR-AL	FED	V	3.64	9107.01	II	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal das Dunas da Sabiaguaba	PARK	PI	BR-CE	MUN	II	3.49	460.70	II	PTSA
PrPI	Monumento Natural das Falesias de Beberibe	MONA	PI	BR-CE	STA	III	3.09	31.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Lagoa do Uruaú	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	3.01	2672.58	II	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional De Jericoacoara	PARK	PI	BR-CE	FED	II	2.99	8863.03	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental do Rio Pacoti	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	2.92	2914.92	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Da Foz do Rio Das Preguiças - Pequenos Lençóis - Região Lagunar Adjacente	APA	US	BR-MA	STA	V	2.90	269684.00	II	PNBS
ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista Chocoaré - Mato Grosso	RESEX	US	BR-CE	FED	VI	2.79	2783.16	II	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista do Batoque	RESEX	US	BR-CE	FED	VI	2.79	601.44	II	PTSA

ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista Marinha do delta do Parnaíba	RESEX	US	BR-MA	FED	VI	2.70	27022.07	II	PNBS
ICM Bio	Parque Nacional Lençóis Maranhenses	PARK	PI	BR-MA	FED	II	1.82	156608.16	II	PNBS
ICM Bio	Reserva Extrativista Itapetinga	RESEX	US	BR-MA	FED	VI	1.62	16294.64	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Mãe Grande De Curuça	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.48	36678.24	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Cuinarana	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.45	11036.41	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Mestre Lucindo	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.43	26465.00	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha De Soure	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.29	26464.88	II	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Algodão-Maiandeuá	APA	US	BR-PA	STA	V	1.10	2378.00	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha Mocapajuba	RESEX	US	BR-PA	FED	VI	1.06	21027.80	II	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Arquipélago do Marajó	APA	US	BR-PA	STA	V	0.69	5998570.00	II	PNBS
PrPI	Parque Nacional do Cabo Orange	PARK	PI	BR-AP	FED	II	0.63	657318.06	II	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Biológica do Lago de Piratuba	REBIO	PI	BR-AP	STA	Ia	0.56	357000.00	II	PNBS
ICM Bio	Estação Ecológica de Maracá-Jipioca	ESEC	PI	BR-AM	FED	Ia	0.53	58756.95	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Conceição da Barra	APA	US	BR-ES	STA	V	0.00	7728.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Marinha da Baía do Iguape	RESEX	US	BR-BA	FED	VI	0.00	10074.00	II	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Morro do Silvério	APA	US	BR-RJ	STA	V	0.00	150.12	II	PWTSA

Indirect influence on odontocetes

PrPI	Parque Estadual do Itinguçu	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	8.72	5040.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal da Galheta	PARK	PI	BR-SC	MUN	II	8.10	149.30	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Lagoa Grande	APA	US	BR-ES	MUN	V	7.99	261200.00	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Araçari	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	IV	5.54	110.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual de Itapeva	PARK	PI	BR-RS	STA	II	5.63	1000.00	III	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Fazenda Avaí	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	IV	4.62	469.10	III	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva do Particular do Patrimônio Natural Mata Estrela	RPPN	US	BR-RN	PRI	IV	4.13	2039.93	III	PTSA

PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental do Pecém	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	3.41	122.79	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Serra da Tiririca	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	10.24	3493.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Restinga de Bertiooga	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	9.69	9317.69	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Serra do Mar	PARK	PI	BR-SP	STA	II	9.51	332000.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional da Serra da Bocaina	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	FED	II	9.23	100000.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico Do Guará	ARIE	US	BR-SP	STA	IV	8.03	455.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental de Praia Mole	APA	US	BR-ES	STA	V	7.96	400.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional de Saint-Hilaire/Lange	PARK	PI	BR-PR	FED	II	7.67	25119.00	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual Lagoa do Açú	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	6.48	8276.67	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental das Lagoas e Dunas do Abaeté	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	6.27	1800.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Caminhos Ecológicos da Boa Esperança	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	6.14	230296.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental do Rio Capivara	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	5.80	1800.00	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural das Dunas de Santo Antônio	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	IV	5.61	370.72	III	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural Dunas de Santo Antônio	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	VI	5.60	370.72	III	PTSA
PrPI	Refúgio de Vida Silvestre de Uma	REVIS	PI	BR-BA	FED	III	5.49	23404.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Estuário do Rio Mundaú	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	4.87	1596.36	III	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Lagoa Encantada	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	4.40	11800.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico da Barra do Rio Camaratuba	ARIE	US	BR-PB	STA	IV	4.36	16800.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Nacional do Monte Pascoal	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	FED	II	4.31	22.50	III	PWTSA
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental do Rio Pacoti	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	2.92	2914.92	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural Ilha do Caju	RPPN	US	BR-MA	PRI	VI	2.81	102.00	III	PNBS
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural Sítio Jaquarema	RPPN	US	BR-MA	PRI	VI	1.77	7.68	III	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Ilha do Combu	APA	US	BR-PA	STA	V	0.00	1597.00	III	PNBS
ICM Bio	Estação Ecológica do Taim	ESEC / Ramsar Site	PI	BR-RS	FED	Ia	0.00	32806.31	III	PWTSA

PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental da Região de Maracanã	APA	US	BR-MA	STA	V	0.00	1831.00	III	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista de São João da Ponta	RESEX	US	BR-PA	STA	VI	0.00	3203.00	III	PNBS
PrPI	Área de Proteção Ambiental Bacia do Cobre/São Bartolomeu	APA	US	BR-BA	STA	V	0.00	2260.00	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Estadual do Bacanga	PARK	PI	BR-MA	STA	II	0.00	2634.00	III	PNBS
PrPI	Reserva Extrativista Quilombo do Frechal	RESEX	US	BR-MA	STA	VI	0.00	2634.00	III	PNBS
PrPI	Área Preservação Ambiental da Lagoa do Jijoca	APA	US	BR-CE	STA	V	0.00	3995.61	III	PTSA
PrPI	Reserva Biológica de Una	REBIO	PI	BR-BA	FED	Ia	0.00	18500.00	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Carroula	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	IV	0.00	14.73	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural das Dunas	RPPN	US	BR-BA	PRI	IV	0.00	78.00	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Mercês Sabiaquaba e Nazário	RPPN	US	BR-CE	PRI	IV	0.00	50.00	III	PTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Sítio Ameixas - Poço Velho	RPPN	US	BR-CE	PRI	IV	0.00	464.33	III	PTSA
PrPI	Parque Natural Municipal de Marapendi	PARK	PI	BR-RJ	STA	II	0.00	247.00	III	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Gleba O Saquinho de Itapirapuá	RPPN	US	BR-RJ	PRI	IV	0.00	3.97	III	PWTSA
ICM Bio	Reserva Particular Patrimônio Natural Morro do Curussu Mirim	RPPN	US	BR-RJ	PRI	IV	-	22.80	III	PWTSA

SO: PrPI = Protected Planet; ICMBio = Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation;

CAT: ESEC = Ecological Stations; REBIO = Biological Reserves; PARK = National, State or Municipal Parks; MONA = Natural Monuments; REVIS = Wildlife Refuges; APA = Environmental Protection; ARIE = Areas of Relevant Ecological Interest; RESEX = Extractive Reserves; RDS = Sustainable Development Reserves; RPPN = PRIt Natural Heritage Reserve; PI = Integral Protection Protected Areas; US = Sustainable Use Protected Areas;

CLA: PI = Full protection (no-take MPAs); US = sustainable use (multiple-use MPAs)

LOC: RJ = Rio de Janeiro; SP = São Paulo; ES = Espírito Santo; SC = Santa Catarina; RS = Rio Grande do Sul; BA = Bahia; PE = Pernambuco; PB = Paraíba; PR = Paraíba; AL = Alagoas; CE = Ceará; MA = Maranhão; PA = Pará; RN = Rio Grande do Norte

PRO: PNBS = North Brazilian Shelf Province; PTSA = Tropical Southern Atlantic Ocean Province; PWTSA = Warm-Temperate Southern Atlantic Ocean Province

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CONCLUSÕES GERAIS

- Esta dissertação apresenta modelos de distribuição potencial para 17 espécies de odontocetos, aplicados em um contexto multi-espécie (S-SDM) para a identificação de áreas ecologicamente importantes. Tanto a área costeira (*nearshore hotspot area*) como a oceânica (*offshore hotspot area*) podem ser entendidas como habitat críticos para várias espécies de odontocetos, devido a frequência com que as espécies ocorrem e a alta produtividade primária associada a características oceanográficas bem definidas e que influenciam a agregação de suas presas.
- A topografia batimétrica foi um dos fatores que mais influenciou na distribuição das espécies de odontocetos incluídas. Quando combinada com características hidrográficas, como ressurgências, correntes marinhas e sistemas frontais, o aumento na produtividade local influencia na agregação de presas e, portanto, influencia na distribuição dos odontocetos, corroborando o que já é amplamente descrito na literatura.
- Em relação às espécies de odontocetos incluídas, o hotspot oceânico foi influenciado principalmente pelos modelos de distribuição potencial de espécies oceânicas (*oceanic dolphins*), como os popularmente conhecidos “black-fishes” (*F. attenuata*, *P. electra*, *G. macrorhynchus*, *G. melas*, *P. crassidens*) e golfinho-de-Risso (*G. griseus*) da família Globicephalidae; por quatro espécies do gênero *Stenella* (*S. attenuata*, *S. longirostris*, *S. coeruleoalba*, *S. clymene*) da família Delphinidae; e o cachalote (*P. macrocephalus*) da família Physeteridae. Os modelos individuais apontam que essas espécies têm maior probabilidade de ocorrência em águas profundas (1.000 m) na borda externa da plataforma continental.
- O hotspot costeiro é influenciado principalmente pelos modelos de distribuição potencial de odontocetos de ampla distribuição (*wide-ranging delphinids*) e por pequenos golfinhos costeiros (*costal small delphinids*) da família Delphinidae. O golfinho-comum (*Delphinus* sp.), a baleia-orca (*O. orca*), o golfinho-de-dentes-rugosos (*S. bredanensis*) e o golfinho-nariz-de-garrafa (*Tursiops* spp.) fazem parte do primeiro grupo. Essas espécies apresentaram alta probabilidade de ocorrência em áreas neríticas da plataforma continental, mas também em ambas as áreas costeiras e oceânicas preditas como ecologicamente importantes para várias espécies. A faixa batimétrica em que essas espécies são observadas varia consideravelmente. A baleia-orca e o golfinho-de-dentes-rugosos, por exemplo, variam de poucos metros a mais de 3.000 metros de profundidade. Já as espécies costeiras são representadas pelo boto-cinza (*S. guianensis*) e pelo golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico (*S. frontalis*). O boto-cinza foi a única espécie estritamente costeira incluída nas análises (registros até 49m profundidade); enquanto o golfinho-pintado-do-Atlântico parecem preferir águas mais quentes com até 200 metros de profundidade.

- No contexto da análise de lacunas, pode-se observar que há uma alta porcentagem de cobertura (28%) da EEZ por MPAs. Contudo, apesar do anúncio feito pelo governo brasileiro em 2018, não é possível considerar que elas atinjam os requerimentos exigidos para cumprir a Meta 11 de Aichi. Diversas MPAs ainda não possuem planos de manejo, mesmo que esse seja um passo mandatório da legislação brasileira. Desta forma, é difícil entendê-las como efetivamente manejadas. Além disso, como estão desigualmente distribuídas entre as províncias biogeográficas (que abrangem características oceanográficas heterogêneas), tão pouco podem ser entendidas como ecologicamente representativas. Apenas uma das províncias (PTSA) tem mais de 24% de cobertura e se referem quase exclusivamente aos dois novos conjuntos de MPAs criados em 2018. As principais falhas das MPAs como estratégia de gestão são, contudo, atribuídas a intenções políticas insidiosas e a falta de responsabilidade e de fornecimento de subsídios por parte dos governos (Federal, municipais e estaduais), o que seria fundamental para que profissionais, comunidades, estudantes e voluntários/as pudessem executar de forma adequada a administração e a operacionalização de cada MPA, ampliando sua efetividade de conservação.
- Considerando o aumento dos impactos antrópicos em águas brasileiras, atribuídos a pesca comercial, a indústria marinha de petróleo e gás e o tráfego de embarcações cargueiras entre os maiores portos do país, se evidencia a necessidade ampliar as estratégias de conservação *in situ* marinhas para além dos limites fixos que são proporcionados pelas MPAs. Isso significa que – ademais das MPAs e em conjunto com elas – deveríamos estar discutindo e articulando outras estratégias de manejo e de gestão *in situ* para garantir a conservação dos cetáceos odontocetos e dos ecossistemas marinhos.
- Uma vez que as duas áreas identificadas como de maior importância ecológica para várias espécies de odontocetos estão inseridas próximas às zonas de maior pressão, indica-se, também, a importância de aplicar o enfoque precautório, ou seja, a deficiência em dados não pode ser um argumento utilizado para postergar ações concretadas de conservação e manejo. Além disso, o planejamento espacial marinho, poderia contribuir amplamente para a priorização de áreas que deveriam estar sob uma mitigação responsável destes impactos através de medidas de manejo dinâmicas a serem incorporadas (e isso poderia ser baseado, inclusive, no zoneamento das Áreas Prioritárias para a Conservação). Uma das maiores contribuições feitas pela análise de lacunas é, de fato, a identificação de locais que deveriam ser priorizados em futuras ações e estratégias de manejo.
- Os tipos de dados de ocorrência utilizados e a ampla escala da área de estudo, permitiram a construção de modelos e a inferência dos resultados em uma macroescala. Reconhecendo as forças e as limitações das abordagens utilizadas, considera-se que os modelos individuais trouxeram

informações pertinentes sobre a distribuição das espécies, mas são especialmente relevantes quando combinados no S-SDM. Para alguma das espécies incluídas, essa é a primeira vez que modelos de distribuição potencial são gerados. As lacunas de conhecimento existentes, principalmente no que diz respeito às espécies oceânicas, dificultam o desenvolvimento de estratégias de conservação para essas espécies. Desta forma, se reforça a importância da publicação dos dados completos de ocorrência das espécies – tanto de relatórios vinculados à monitoramentos das indústrias marinhas quanto de pesquisas científicas executadas – em bancos de dados públicos (como, por exemplo, o SIMMAM) e nas mesmas publicações endereçadas às revistas científicas. Os dados de ocorrência, principalmente para espécies oceânicas, são uma das ferramentas mais importantes para prever medidas de manejo e gestão que possam contribuir para o conhecimento e a conservação dessas espécies, mesmo quando se entende que há uma deficiência de dados (reforçando a importância do enfoque precautório).

- Entende-se que a padronização das informações das MPAs de administração estadual e municipal deveriam ser realizadas no mesmo padrão existente para as de administração Federal. Isso também contribuiria para a tomada de decisões e ampliaria a possibilidade de gerir as MPAs como redes. Ainda, no contexto brasileiro que é tão rico em categorias de gestão como em povos e comunidades tradicionais historicamente vinculados ao mar, faz-se imprescindível superar “o mito moderno da natureza intocada”, vinculado às noções ambientalistas vigentes a partir da década de 80. O co-manejo dos recursos a partir de estratégias desde as bases (*bottom-up*), representa maiores oportunidades de eficácia nas gestões das MPAs. Além disso, mesmo que haja uma extensa e qualificada bibliografia sobre as MPAs, muitas delas são, ainda, baseadas em contextos e experiências internacionais, extremamente diferentes do contexto nacional e latino-americano. É importante que comecemos a contextualizar nossos desafios e discutir, em conjunto com todos/as que diariamente esforçam-se pela conservação, como poderemos ser mais proativos, efetivos e socialmente justos para a conservação da sociobiodiversidade.
- É fundamental investir em estratégias de conservação *in situ* e mitigar os impactos antrópicos existentes sobre os cetáceos se quisermos garantir sua sobrevivência. Entretanto, repensar o modelo político e socioeconômico que nos trouxe até aqui é, também, essencial para que possamos atuar na raiz dos nossos problemas socioambientais e não apenas atenuar suas consequências. A integração das MPAs a outras estratégias e esforços (como o planejamento espacial marinho e/ou a incorporação de medidas de manejo dinâmicas) poderá, sem dúvida, contribuir para mitigar os impactos identificáveis e muitas das deficiências que são comumente atribuídas às MPAs. Porém – e apesar dos imensuráveis esforços daqueles/as que atuam para a conservação – a proteção socioambiental no Brasil têm se tornado uma tarefa cada vez mais difícil. E isso é culpa do modelo

político e socioeconômico em vigor e da falta de responsabilidade e de compromisso daqueles que se dispõem a governar em favor da acumulação de renda de poucos, de forma contrária à justiça socioambiental e ao bem comum. Dessa forma, se de fato, quisermos garantir a conservação dos cetáceos – e de toda a biodiversidade marinha e terrestre – o que precisamos, urgentemente, é mudar nossos modos de produção e de consumo, optar e batalhar por um outro sistema político e socioeconômico (diferente deste que vivemos) e, principalmente, transformar a forma como nos relacionamos com a Natureza. Precisamos eleger representantes que apoiem (e não desmontem) a ciência, a pesquisa e a educação; que respeitem as normativas ambientais vigentes e que façam que estas sejam cumpridas (ao invés de destruí-las ou enfraquecê-las); e que se comprometam com uma sociedade mais justa, equitativa e ambientalmente saudável. A redução de apoios logísticos e financeiros nessas áreas não apenas inviabiliza as operações de fiscalização pelo país (seja dentro ou fora das áreas protegidas), como, também, inviabiliza as pesquisas, os monitoramentos, as avaliações, as interações com a sociedade civil e, conseqüentemente, a eficiência dos instrumentos e das políticas de conservação.