

Trends in cetacean research in the Eastern North Atlantic

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Abstract

1. Cetaceans are considered ecosystem engineers and useful bioindicators of the health of marine environments. The Eastern North Atlantic region is an area of great geographical and oceanographic complexity, that favours ecosystem richness and, consequently, cetacean occurrence. Although this occurrence has led to relevant scientific research on this taxon, information on composition of this research remains unassessed.
2. We aim to quantify the evolution of research on cetaceans, highlighting the main focuses and trends in the Eastern North Atlantic.
3. This study considers 380 peer-reviewed publications between 1900-2018. For each paper, we collected publication year, research topics and regions, and species studied. We assessed differences among regions with distinct cultural and socio-economic landscapes, and between coastal and oceanic habitats. To evaluate the growth of scientific production, we fitted a General Additive Model to the time series of paper numbers.
4. Although research in this region has been growing, the results show relatively little research output in Northern African and coastal regions within the study area. Moreover, except for four studies done in high seas, research was restricted to a few miles around the coast of main islands, leaving offshore regions less well surveyed. There was less research on genetics, acoustics, and behaviour. Most papers focused on the Azores and Canary Islands, and mostly involved bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*), common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*), and sperm whales (*Physeter macrocephalus*). Species considered Endangered or Near Threatened are objects of only 10% of the studies.
5. We suggest a greater research focus on beaked whales in Macaronesia, as well as collaborative efforts between research teams in the region, by sharing data sets, and aiming to produce long-

26 term research. Moreover, a Delphi method approach, based on rounds of questionnaires answered
27 by experts, could be attempted to identify priority research for cetaceans in these important areas.

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29 **Keywords:** Cetaceans, systematic review, Macaronesia, Portuguese Exclusive Economic Zone,
30 Northwest Africa

31

32 **Wordcount:** 9983 words

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34 **Introduction**

35 Cetaceans play a significant role in marine ecosystems functioning due to their relatively large
36 body size and to the high trophic position of many species (Bowen 1997). Some whales recycle
37 nutrients by releasing faecal plumes near the surface after deep water feeding, supplying fertilizers to
38 primary producers in the surface ocean (Roman et al. 2014). Cetacean carcasses that sink to bathyal
39 and abyssal areas become ‘whale fall’ providing unique habitats to a myriad of organisms in an
40 otherwise energy-poor seafloor, and serve as hot spots for specialized fauna and as stepping stones
41 for hydrothermal vent organisms (Smith et al. 2015). Some species also transport nutrients across
42 different latitudes when migrating between highly productive high-latitude feeding grounds, and low-
43 latitude calving areas (Smith 2013, Roman et al. 2014). Moreover, many species are apex predators,
44 feeding on a wide variety of fish and cephalopods, and thus bioaccumulate contaminants, serving as
45 useful bioindicators of the health and status of the marine environment (Kucklick et al. 2011).
46 Responding to fluctuating prey populations due to pressures from climate change and human
47 exploitation, cetacean species across the world are exhibiting changes in their distribution and
48 abundance patterns (Tulloch et al. 2019, Wild et al. 2019). Finally, cetaceans are widely distributed
49 in all oceans, occupy a wide number of strikingly different ecological niches (Ballance 2018), and
50 present diverse demographics and population dynamics (Wade 2018); as such, they are likely to

51 present very different conservation needs among species, populations and throughout their
52 distributional range.

53 This study is focused between latitudes 42°N and 13°N in the eastern North Atlantic,
54 including mainland Portugal, Morocco, Mauritania and Senegal, and the Macaronesia archipelagos
55 that include the Azores, Madeira, Canaries, and Cape Verde. Hereafter the study region will be
56 referred to as ‘Eastern North Atlantic’ (Figure 1, Correia et al. 2019).

57 The Eastern North Atlantic is a very diverse region with regards to geomorphology, climate,
58 oceanography, and ecology. It presents great geomorphological complexity, including large number
59 of seamounts (Morato et al. 2008, Kvile et al. 2014), diverse seafloor morphology, and a rugged
60 coastline along Iberia and North Africa (Valdés & Déniz-González 2015, Perán et al. 2016). This
61 region encompasses the East and West North Atlantic Subtropical Gyral (NAST-E and NAST-W,
62 respectively), Canary Coastal (CNRY), and North Atlantic Tropical Gyral (NATR) Longhurst
63 biogeochemical provinces (Longhurst 2007). It comprises coastal, as well as oceanic warm-temperate
64 and oceanic subtropical habitats (Beaugrand et al. 2019). The Macaronesia archipelagos’ climate is
65 influenced by the Canary Current (to the east), the North Equatorial Current (to the south), and the
66 Azores Current (to the north) (Mason 2009). During late spring and summer, the Portuguese NW
67 Iberian coast is characterized by prevailing northerly winds due to the presence of the Azores high-
68 pressure system, which favours a coastal upwelling system of cold and nutrient-rich waters. This
69 increases primary production in the area, which sustains large stocks of economically important
70 exploitable species (Fraga 1981). Additionally, the NW African coast is also characterized by a strong
71 upwelling system creating local phytoplankton blooms that fuel the entire trophic chain, including
72 marine mammals and seabirds (Cushing 1971, Cropper & Hanna 2014). Moreover, the Africa sub-
73 Saharan region is endowed with a variety of coastal ecosystems, such as estuaries, coral reefs,
74 mangrove forests, wetlands, and dunes, providing not only services to coastal communities (i.e.,
75 coastal stabilization from severe weather and sea level rise, and regulation of water quality and

76 quantity), but also to the environment (i.e., higher biodiversity, and spawning habitat for many aquatic
77 species) (Carrere 2009).

78 Marine mammals' populations have been affected directly by human activities around the
79 world such as direct hunting, fisheries bycatch, habitat destruction, ship-strikes, acoustic and
80 chemical pollution, unregulated whale watching activities, overexploitation of prey resources, and
81 the effects of warming oceans (Parsons 2012, Weir & Pierce 2013). The Eastern North Atlantic region
82 is also subject to considerable threats and pressures on cetacean biodiversity. For instance, in the
83 Canary Islands, 18% of cetacean deaths were explained by human impacts, mainly as a result from
84 collision with vessels, with the most affected species being the sperm whale (Riera et al. 2014, Fais
85 et al. 2016). In Madeira Island, the ship strike risk is apparently not alarming, but as vessel traffic
86 increases, so does the negative impact on cetaceans (Cunha et al. 2017). In the Portuguese coast, high
87 concentrations of heavy metals have been found in the livers of common and bottlenose dolphins
88 (Zhou et al. 2001, Carvalho et al. 2002). Disturbance from whale watching in the Azores may cause
89 detrimental effects to sperm whale social units that are regular visitors and spend long periods off
90 these islands, with potential effects on the population dynamics (Boys et al. 2019). Additionally, the
91 rate of dolphin bycatch in the pole-and-line tuna fishery in the Azores has varied considerably
92 between years, and while dolphins caught were reported to be released alive, the fate of these released
93 individuals is unknown (Cruz et al. 2018). Dolphins by-catch by artisanal fishers has also been
94 documented in Cape Verde (Lopes et al. 2016). Despite the urgency in conserving these habitats and
95 animals, information on various aspects of cetacean ecology and biology is scarce and scattered across
96 the region (Correia et al. 2015, Valente et al. 2019).

97 Bibliometric analysis, a field of research that examines bodies of knowledge within and across
98 disciplines (Norton 2000), has been widely used to evaluate different research topics (e.g. methods,
99 publishing outlets, authors' collaborations) in most fields of expertise (Holden 2005). Systematic
100 reviews are a powerful way of synthesizing all relevant studies on a topic and involve a detailed and
101 comprehensive plan and search strategy developed a priori, to reduce bias (Uman 2011). Efforts to

102 compile chronologically and/or analytically the available information on cetaceans in the Eastern
103 North Atlantic have been partially attempted for single species (Prieto et al. 2012) or in some sub-
104 regions (Valente et al. 2019). However, to the best of our knowledge, an overview of the research
105 carried out on cetacean species in the wider area of the Eastern North Atlantic is lacking. Such wide-
106 ranging and extensive bibliographic research can verify the progress in cetacean research made in the
107 past century related to this biologically important area, thereby identifying trends and gaps to guide
108 future research.

109

110 **Aims**

111 This study aims to: (i) undertake a bibliometric analysis to quantify the evolution of research
112 on cetaceans in the Eastern North Atlantic; (ii) summarize the state of knowledge about cetaceans in
113 this area and, by reviewing historical data, compare regions with distinct cultural and socio-economic
114 landscapes and coastal and oceanic habitats, to identify research patterns and gaps; and (iii) highlight
115 where the focus of research on cetaceans has been between 1900-2018, identifying trends and
116 research difficulties **as a contribution to improved** management policies in this area.

117

118 **Methods**

119 This study is a systematic survey of scientific publications involving cetacean species
120 occurring in the Eastern North Atlantic, including coastal and oceanic regions of mainland Portugal,
121 Morocco, Mauritania, Senegal and around the archipelagos of Azores, Madeira, Canaries, and Cape
122 Verde (Fig. 1).

123 The search period was 1900–2018, and the search terms were “cetaceans”, “whales”,
124 “dolphins”, and names of the regions included in the study area, using Thompson’s ISI Web of
125 Science, Scopus and Google Scholar platforms. For the latter, only the first 15 result pages were
126 included, since prior *ad hoc* testing showed that after the 10th page there was a negligible chance of
127 finding further relevant publications. After 1980, the analysis was restricted to peer-reviewed

128 literature, but before 1980, technical reports were also included due to a considerable smaller body
129 of work and difficulties in assessing peer-review status. To ensure that all 2018 publications were
130 included, literature was surveyed until the end of the first semester of 2019. To increase coverage, we
131 applied a “snowball” technique (Almeida-Filho et al. 2003), in which the reference section of
132 available publications was used as a source for the identification of new papers. Papers unavailable
133 on the internet were requested to the first author and/or co-authors through ResearchGate website or
134 via email. Older publications (1900-1960) were kindly provided by the Jean Monnet University (St.
135 Étienne, France).

136 The information retrieved from each publication was compiled in Excel and then imported
137 into the R program (R Development Core Team 2019), including: first author, title, year, journal title,
138 study region, topics covered (i.e., anatomy, taxonomy, ecology, behaviour, acoustics, genetics,
139 conservation and human interactions, adapted from Brito and Sousa (2011); related topics described
140 in Appendix S4), and taxa studied. Each species global and local conservation status were obtained
141 from the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Appendix S5).

142 The study investigated research output between regions with distinct cultural and socio-
143 economic landscapes. We compared “European regions” (mainland Portugal, archipelagos of Azores,
144 Madeira and Canaries) with “North African regions” (Morocco, Mauritania, Senegal and Cape Verde
145 Islands). To assess differences in research output between coastal *versus* oceanic habitats, we grouped
146 areas as follows: coastal – mainland Portugal, Morocco, Mauritania, Senegal; and oceanic –
147 archipelagos of Azores, Madeira, Canary and Cape Verde Islands. We compared regions based on
148 topography, political boundaries, and countries’ economy. We considered the regions comprising
149 islands to be “oceanic habitats” due to their narrow island shelves, conferring close proximity to
150 pelagic habitats (Woodroffe 2014).

151 A General Additive Model (GAM, Poisson distribution, logarithm link function) was fitted to
152 the number of papers per year. A Change-point analysis was implemented to detect significant

153 changes in the quantity of published papers through time. Analyses were conducted using R 3.6.1
154 software (R Development Core Team 2019).

155

156 **Results and Discussion**

157 This review covers issues related to habitat (coastal vs. oceanic regions) and socio-economic
158 and cultural traits (European vs. North African regions), based on the number of papers published
159 throughout time, on selected topics and species conservation status. We identified 380 scientific
160 publications on cetacean species conducted in the Eastern North Atlantic from Portugal to Senegal,
161 including the oceanic archipelagos of the Macaronesia biogeographic region, during the period
162 between 1900-2018. Paper publication dates ranged from 1913 to 2018. Results are complemented
163 with supplementary material covering topics not discussed at length here, such as leading authors and
164 journals publishing on cetaceans in the study area. To the best of our knowledge, this constitutes the
165 first bibliometric analysis on cetaceans taking an all-species and multi-habitat approach in the study
166 region, providing information on trends of past research, helping to direct future research.

167

168 *Temporal evolution of research across regions within the Eastern North Atlantic*

169 Prior to the 1990s, research output on Eastern North Atlantic cetaceans was scarce. The GAM
170 and the change-point analysis revealed a significant growth in research output, especially since 2005
171 (r^2 : 0.897; $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2), when it started to grow exponentially. However, a closer look reveals
172 heterogeneity in the number of publications throughout the years within and between the studied
173 regions (Table 1, Fig. 4).

174

175 North African versus European regions

176 Cetacean research was relatively scarcer in Northern African regions (n=136), than in
177 European regions (n=340). The largest number of studies came from the Azores (n=124), followed
178 by the Canary Islands (n=95). The least studied regions were Morocco (n=20), Cape Verde (n=35)

179 and Mauritania (n=37). The latter stabilized its research output since 1990, with eight papers per
180 decade (Appendix S17). Fewer papers have investigated the cetacean fauna of Morocco and Senegal
181 - with less than five and ten papers per decade, respectively. Nonetheless, both regions showed an
182 increased research output during the 1950s and 1960s, especially in the fields of anatomy and
183 taxonomy, utilizing stranded animals (e.g., Cadenat 1954), when compared with later years. After
184 that period, however, research has declined in these two countries. According to Price's Law, if
185 scientific output on a subject does not follow exponential growth, either the field has reached a
186 saturation point, which is clearly not the case, or not enough resources have been allocated to research
187 (Price 1951). In the case of the coastal countries of northern West Africa, the boost in the 1950s,
188 followed by the lower output on cetacean research during the last 20 years, is likely due to their
189 independence processes from European countries. Morocco became independent from France and
190 Spain in 1956, while Senegal and Mauritania obtained their independence from France in 1960
191 (Nugent 2012). The French nationality of the authors likely explains the considerable increase in
192 research output during the 1950s, and its subsequent decrease. Upon independence, these African
193 countries not only had no socio-economical conditions to continue scientific research (Olukoshi
194 2001), but also underwent societal reorganization. Interestingly, in 2009, Morocco announced an
195 increase of its science and technology investment to finance restoration and construction of
196 laboratories, and training courses for researchers (Sawahel 2009, Kushnir 2019). This can create a
197 window of opportunity for cetacean research in the near future.

198 The results for Cape Verde are somewhat different. Research has been steadily increasing
199 since the 1980s, with previous little research output (n=2). Historically, small levels of information
200 on the biodiversity of cetaceans from Cape Verde area have been obtained mainly from strandings,
201 anecdotal sighting accounts, and accidental catches in fishing operations (by-catches) (e.g., Reiner et
202 al. 1996, Hazevoet et al. 2010). Cape Verde became independent from Portugal in 1975 and, although
203 it showed overall low levels of research output, the country has not seen a decrease in research after
204 independence, in contrast to other North African countries in this study. In the 1960s and 1970s the

205 overall scientific output in peer-reviewed journals by Portugal was negligible, numbering in the low
206 hundreds and being two orders of magnitude below that of France, for example (Lemarchand 2016,
207 Powell & Dusdal 2017). That fact translates the very low investment in science by Portugal in the
208 study period (Heitor & Horta 2013), and probably explains why the data does not show any relevant
209 cetacean-related scientific production in Cape Verde prior to the independence. Instead, the feeble,
210 but steady, research growth recorded for Cape Verde was fostered by international cooperation and
211 tourism development that took place after the independence. Researchers from the National Institute
212 of Fisheries Development in Cape Verde, and the Institute of Tropical Scientific Research in Portugal,
213 have been collecting information on cetacean distribution (both from directed sightings and
214 monitoring strandings) in the Cape Verde region since the beginning of the 2000's, resulting in a
215 considerable increase in publications **in this area** (Hazevoet et al. 2010). Additionally, several
216 environment-related international organizations now operate in Cape Verde, such as Maio
217 Biodiversity Foundation (since 2010) and BIOS.CV (since 2012). Moreover, the growing popularity
218 of Cape Verde as a holiday and whale-watching destination contributed to the increased number of
219 reported opportunistic observations, particularly on the islands of Sal and Boavista (Hazevoet et al.
220 2010). Indeed, whale-watching tour boats have been used as platforms to conduct research activities
221 such as estimating abundance and studying the spatio-temporal distribution of humpback whales (Van
222 Waerebeek et al. 2013, Ryan et al. 2014).

223 In contrast with the North African countries, for mainland Portugal and the archipelagos of
224 Madeira, Azores, Canary Islands, research has been steadily increasing since the 1980s, with previous
225 little research output (mainland Portugal n=1, Madeira n=5, Azores n=2, Canary Islands n=2). The
226 European regions considered in this study showed a clear growth in cetacean-related research over
227 the study period, with most of the contribution coming from the three Portuguese regions, which can
228 in part be explained by the larger number of Portuguese regions included in the study. The Portuguese
229 regions encompass the entire national territory, representing a stable population of ca. 10 million
230 people since the 1990s (Instituto Nacional de Estatística; <https://www.ine.pt>: accessed 02 April 2019).

231 In contrast, Spain is only represented by the Canary Islands, with a population varying from 1.5-2.2
232 million people between 1990 and 2019 (3.8-4.7% of the Spanish population, Instituto Nacional de
233 Estadística, <https://www.ine.es>: accessed 02 April 2019).

234 Compared to the other European regions, the research in Madeira apparently lagged some
235 years. Although the Madeira Archipelago has almost ideal year-round weather conditions for cetacean
236 observation, this region presented a lower number of published papers on cetaceans. Commercial
237 whaling activities ended in Madeira and the Azores in 1981 and 1984 respectively (Brito 2008). While
238 the Azores showed a boost in cetacean research in the post-whaling period, Madeira only saw a clear
239 increase in publications after 2010. It is difficult to pinpoint a single reason for that difference.
240 Research groups in small regions such as Madeira, the Azores and the Canary Islands tend also to be
241 small, which can slow down publication output. Scientific production can also be affected by group
242 dynamics and competition (Fochler et al. 2016), which will be more noticeable in regions or fields
243 where the number of researchers is reduced. Also, Madeira and Azores are Portuguese autonomous
244 regions with own local research and development (R&D) priorities and policies, which can influence
245 the effort devoted to specific research fields. Regardless, after the year 2010, Madeira saw an increase
246 in cetacean-related publications, which is now in line with the other European regions.

247 Our results indicate a change point in 2005 regarding the cetacean-related publications in the
248 entire study area. Interestingly, a similar pattern showing a significant increase in peer-reviewed
249 publications on mammalian carnivores in the mid-2000s was observed in Portugal (Bencatel et al.
250 2018). Due to the low contribution of the North African regions, and greatest weight of Portugal
251 within the European regions in this study, it is likely that a large part of the growth of cetacean-related
252 research reported here might be explained by factors influencing Portugal. Perhaps not surprisingly,
253 gross expenditure in R&D as a function of gross domestic product, as well as the number of
254 researchers per capita, started to see a drastic increase in Portugal in 2005 (Heitor & Horta 2013).
255 That growth is partly a result of access to international funds and international cooperation ensuing

256 the integration in the European Union (EU) in 1986, as well as restructuring of the national R&D
257 policies to converge with the EU (Heitor & Horta 2013).

258 Another relevant aspect was the creation and process leading to implementation of the EU
259 Directive 92/43/EEC (Habitats directive) and Directive 2009/147/EC (Birds directive). The Habitats
260 and Birds directives set up the Natura 2000 network, comprised by special areas of conservation (for
261 natural habitats) and special protection areas (for birds) and designated by each member state,
262 fostering investment in key under-represented research areas, including in marine sciences (Abecasis
263 et al. 2015, Kati et al. 2015). Abecasis et al (2015) reported a significant increase in the number of
264 marine-related peer-reviewed publications in the Azores, stemming from the increase in marine
265 conservation research projects in the region during the 2000s, related to the creation and management
266 of Natura 2000 sites and other marine protected areas. It is likely that the Natura 2000 network
267 implementation acted as an incentive for cetacean-related research in the four European regions. This
268 research then continued after the Natura 2000 process, fuelling the exponential growth reported here.

269

270 Coastal versus Oceanic regions

271 There was also a clear difference between research output from Coastal and Oceanic regions.
272 Oceanic regions (*i.e.*, areas around the Macaronesia islands) were more frequently represented in the
273 literature (n=303) than coastal ones (n= 174).

274 It is well known that marine species diversity is positively influenced by habitat heterogeneity
275 (Downing 1991), and it has been shown that in offshore oceanic waters, biodiversity and endemism
276 increase in the vicinity of islands (Costello et al. 2017). The physiography of oceanic islands and
277 seamounts create multiple habitats that harbour species with differing preferences and create
278 conditions for primary and secondary production enhancement and entrapment (Genin 2004). These
279 oceanographic processes lead to the formation of higher productivity spots, creating complex food
280 webs that inevitably attract apex predators, such as cetaceans (Cañadas et al. 2002, Genin 2004).

281 The Macaronesia archipelagos host multiple cetacean species, either year-round or seasonally,
282 with strikingly distinct ecologies (Silva et al. 2003, 2014, Carrillo et al. 2010, Hazevoet et al. 2010,
283 Freitas et al. 2012). The narrow island shelves allow the co-occurrence of species with coastal and
284 pelagic habits, increasing the opportunities to work with different species and reducing logistical
285 costs. For example, deep diving species such as sperm and beaked whales are seldom seen over the
286 continental shelf, which hinders their study in most areas of the Atlantic (MacLeod & Mitchell 2006).
287 However, they are relatively common near the Macaronesia archipelagos, enabling sustained research
288 over medium- to long-term periods (e.g., Prieto et al. 2013, Boys et al. 2019). In contrast, the
289 continental shelf along the coastal regions in this study can stretch tens of kilometres into the sea,
290 limiting the occurrence of deep diving species close to shore and increasing logistical costs associated
291 with the study of these animals (Kiszka et al. 2007, Viddi et al. 2010). Not surprisingly, most studies
292 in the coastal regions tend to be focused on species with more coastal habits (e.g., Augusto et al.
293 2011), although efforts at studying cetaceans off the continental shelves have been increasing,
294 especially using platforms of opportunity (e.g., Correia et al. 2015).

295 Although we considered oceanic regions in this review to be areas surrounding islands, this
296 nomenclature does not mean that research was necessarily conducted in high seas. Given
297 anthropogenic impacts and the non-sustainable use of marine resources that are increasingly affecting
298 offshore areas, there is growing urgency for the management of high seas. However, conservation
299 efforts (such as the creation of Marine Protected Areas, MPAs) have been focused largely on coastal
300 regions (Hooker & Gerber 2014). Since the logistic requirements for monitoring offshore waters are
301 very challenging (Kiszka et al. 2007, Viddi et al. 2010), published data are mainly restricted to a few
302 hotspots in this area, located within the Portuguese Exclusive Economic Zone, where most data
303 collection is limited to a few miles from the coast of the Azores and Madeira archipelagos (e.g., Silva
304 et al. 2003, Alves et al. 2018). Exceptions include four studies done in high seas in this area; 1)
305 Boisseau et al. (1999) used yachtsmen sailing from the Caribbean to the Azores; 2) Doksæter et al.
306 (2008) had a dedicated research ship to study the distribution and feeding ecology of dolphins along

307 the Mid-Atlantic Ridge between Iceland and the Azores; 3) Correia et al. (2015) considered cargo
308 ships as platforms of opportunity; and 4) Jungblut et al. (2017) used a dedicated research ship on
309 latitudinal transfer expeditions through the Atlantic Ocean. Expanding the range of MPAs and study
310 areas in marine research is challenging, but a much-needed task for both decision-makers and the
311 scientific community (Correia et al. 2015).

312 Socio-economic effects also seem to contribute to the differences between Coastal and
313 Oceanic regions. Of the Coastal regions considered, all but mainland Portugal belong to North
314 African countries, which were shown to have a lower cetacean-related scientific output, in great part
315 attributable to socio-economic factors. Conversely, only one of the Oceanic regions (Cape Verde) is
316 from North Africa. Thus, the lower scientific production in the Coastal regions evidenced in our
317 results is probably also an effect of the socio-economic constraints to cetacean research acting on the
318 North African countries.

319

320 *Distribution of research by species and topics in the Eastern North Atlantic*

321 Species

322 The most studied cetacean species in the Eastern North Atlantic were bottlenose dolphins
323 (*Tursiops truncatus*, n=117), common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*, n=103), sperm whales (*Physeter*
324 *macrocephalus*, n=96), short-finned pilot whales (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*, n=66), Atlantic
325 spotted dolphins (*Stenella frontalis*, n=66), striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*, n=57), fin whales
326 (*Balaenoptera physalus*, n=56), Risso's dolphins (*Grampus griseus*, n=55), and Cuvier's beaked
327 whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*, n=50, Figure 5). Moreover, species listed as Least Concern in the IUCN
328 Red List were more frequently studied (n=62%) than species exhibiting higher concern status.
329 Endangered or Near Threatened cetacean species are involved in only 10% of the studies conducted
330 (Figure 6; see also Table 2 and 3).

331 We identified 35 cetacean species in the publications analysed in this study, however three
332 stand out as the most frequent, accounting for 25% of all references: the bottlenose dolphin, the
333 common dolphin, and the sperm whale. There are probably multiple reasons for this.

334 The bottlenose dolphin is a widespread species that occurs in all of the regions in the study
335 area, and has resident populations in at least some of them (Silva et al. 2009, Augusto et al. 2011,
336 Tobeña et al. 2014, Dinis et al. 2016). As they are often associated with coastal habitats having
337 become one of the most studied cetacean species worldwide (Wells & Scott 2009). The bottlenose
338 dolphin is one of two cetacean species considered as priority under the EU Habitats Directive, which
339 has elicited a great effort in studying that species across the EU (Nykänen et al. 2019).

340 As with the bottlenose dolphin, common dolphins are abundant and wide-spread in coastal
341 and pelagic habitats (Perrin 2009). As apex predators, they are important components of their
342 ecosystems (Kenney et al. 1997). The common dolphin is one of the most commonly sighted oceanic
343 dolphins off Macaronesia archipelagos and an important component of these insular marine
344 ecosystems (Reiner et al. 1996, Carrillo et al. 2010, Quérouil et al. 2010, Silva et al. 2014).
345 Furthermore, common dolphins are one of the cetaceans most affected by bycatch mortality in the
346 North Atlantic, further motivating research (Cruz et al. 2018).

347 Unlike the dolphin species above, the sperm whale is a deep-diver and is seldom found in
348 waters <1000 m, especially over the continental shelves (Whitehead 2009). The species is common
349 in the Macaronesia archipelagos (Moore et al. 2003, Freitas et al. 2004, Carrillo et al. 2010, Silva et
350 al. 2014) and, as such, these islands are important for its study. Moreover, the species was targeted
351 by whaling operations for a long period, with relevant catches in the Azores and Madeira archipelagos
352 (Brito 2008, Prieto et al. 2013). This fostered some of the early research work in these regions,
353 especially in the case of the Azores (e.g., Clarke et al. 1993), and yielded data that still support current
354 research (Vieira & Brito 2009, Prieto et al, 2013). The species is also targeted by whale watching
355 operations, raising questions about impacts at individual and population levels, and leading to

356 resource allocation to the study of the species, as well as the whale watching activity and its
357 management (e.g., Vieira et al. 2018).

358 The other species that are represented in our results are probably a reflection of the cetacean
359 diversity of the study region and combine results from directed (projects or surveys with pre-designed
360 sampling protocol) and opportunistic research, including strandings, opportunistic sightings and
361 encounters (Perrin 2009, Wells & Scott 2009).

362

363 Research topics

364 We identified research in all eight main topics considered (Table 1, Fig. 3). In general,
365 ecology-related topics received most attention (n=141). This is not surprising, given the vast and
366 diversified list of ecology-associated topics included (Appendix S4). Azores has been the stage of
367 most papers on ecology (n=59), human interactions (n=34), taxonomy (n=27), and behaviour (n=21),
368 but topics related to genetics (n=15) or acoustics (n=15) were less common. It is noteworthy that,
369 with 59 records, the Azores holds more than twice the number of records under ecology than any of
370 the other regions. Ecology is also the modal topic within the Azores.

371 About a third (33.8%) of the research outputs were focused on anatomy and taxonomy.
372 Although not presented here, our results show that many of the early works were related to species
373 records accounts and strandings descriptions, with anatomical and pathological information, that fall
374 in those two research topics. When considering only the North African regions, Anatomy and
375 Taxonomy have an even higher importance (53.5%), evidence of a more opportunistic rather than
376 focused approach to cetacean research in those regions (e.g., Cadenat 1954). Senegal had a high
377 scientific contribution on taxonomy (n=24) and anatomy (n=24), but none on acoustics or genetics,
378 and only one paper on behaviour. Cape Verde has contributed mostly to ecology (n=17), with only
379 one study on behaviour and genetics (n=1), and none on acoustics. In Morocco, studies have been
380 focused on ecology (n=11) and taxonomy (n=10) but had very low research output for all other topics.

381 The same pattern applies for Mauritania (ecology n=18; taxonomy n=13) and for Madeira (ecology
382 n=25, taxonomy n=17).

383 The Canary Islands mostly contributed with work on cetacean anatomy (n=36) and human
384 interactions (n=36), with a low contribution on genetics (n=7), taxonomy (n=9), and behaviour
385 (n=13). Among regions, either the Azores or the Canary Islands had always the highest number of
386 records for any given research topic (Azores: taxonomy, ecology, behaviour, genetics; Canary
387 Islands: anatomy, acoustics, conservation, human interactions). From our results alone it is difficult
388 to interpret these findings as a result of a certain level of specialization on a given topic, focused
389 research goals, or a combination of those (which is more likely). However, it is apparent that these
390 two archipelagos have been devoting a considerable effort in researching several aspects of cetacean
391 life and conservation and are at the forefront of cetacean research within the study region.

392 The two topics that had the least records were acoustics and genetics with 43 and 30 records,
393 respectively. There may be a number of reasons for that. One reason may have to do with our method:
394 acoustics and genetics, along with conservation, have the least associated topics which naturally
395 restricts the number of publications that can be assigned to each of them. On the other hand, studies
396 under those topics involve specialized equipment and skills, that are not widely available and may
397 have high associated costs, with many recent developments, hindering their historical widespread use.
398 However, conservation studies do not necessarily involve specialized resources and can, in many
399 cases, be based on existing data.

400 Not surprisingly, the most studied species in each topic were almost invariably the bottlenose
401 dolphin, the common dolphin, and the sperm whale, although for acoustics and genetics, one or two
402 of those species were replaced by others.

403

404 **Final considerations**

405

406 Bibliometric analysis has increasingly been used to explore the proportion of published
407 research of a specific field of study (Kochin & Levin 2004), or to evaluate research trends (Bini et al.
408 2005). This is the first review quantifying the number of extant cetacean species and their ecology,
409 focused in the Eastern North Atlantic. This wide geographical and economically diverse area showed
410 a high diversity with 35 species, corresponding to approximately 1/3 of all described cetaceans.
411 Finding research patterns over time helps identifying knowledge gaps, allowing to prioritize future
412 research, and to improve ecosystems' management.

413 Other papers have analysed cetacean research trends globally. However, the methodology,
414 study area, time span, and species were distinct from ours, making it difficult to compare results. For
415 example, Rose et al (2011) demonstrated that modern cetacean research is focused on conservation-
416 related topics, representing a shift from previous basic biological and ecological studies. Although
417 our review found a biology-related research focus in earlier years, the same was not observed for
418 ecological research, nor was an accentuated focus on conservation research observed in recent years.
419 This may be a consequence of a change in what is considered a conservation topic. For instance, those
420 authors considered many acoustic papers to fall within the conservation category. In addition,
421 differences might be due to different time spans, which could mask some temporal trends. On the
422 other hand, Hill and Lackups (2010) found that only 3.2% of the papers analysed covered
423 conservation, ecology or environmental topics. However, they only focused on cetacean species cared
424 for by humans at some point during captivity's documented history', leaving out conservation studies
425 done on free-ranging cetaceans (such as baleen whales and beaked whales).

426 Nevertheless, and in spite of the different approaches to analyse research trends over the past
427 20 years and the allocation of limited resources, growing environmental concerns have prioritized
428 scientific research and the allocation of funds to identify critical questions that need to be answered
429 to support conservation issues (Sutherland et al. 2009, 2011). Under this framework, Parsons et al
430 (2015) presented a list of priority questions for global cetacean conservation, in which geographic,
431 cultural, and economic contexts were taken into account, as attempted here.

432 Among other topics, a priority for conservation was how to best supervise populations and
433 key activities (such as development projects, industry, fisheries, and tourism). Cetacean populations
434 are subject to many pressures, and this is particularly important in the Azores, Madeira and Canary
435 Islands, where anthropogenic activities are growing at a fast pace. Moreover, understanding how to
436 manage the lack of data on many cetacean species to better address gaps on information useful for
437 conservation, was another problem identified in our review and also reported by Parsons et al. (2015).
438 In this particular region, beaked whales are common (Aguilar de Soto et al. 2017), but little is known
439 about them (Hooker et al. 2019). Thus, allocating research resources to these species could lead to
440 relevant findings to help their conservation.

441 Not mentioned in Parsons et al. (2015) list is the importance of long-term studies. As pointed
442 out by Lindenmayer et al. 2012, such studies are important for providing key insights in ecology,
443 environmental change, natural resource management and biodiversity conservation, and this needs to
444 be emphasized to resource managers and policy makers. However, long-term ecological studies have
445 been scarce due to financial constraints since they usually exceed government administrations time
446 span and funding cycles. As such, ecologists and field biologists should join efforts in an open and
447 collaborative way, maintaining publishing outlets for empirical field-based ecology and sharing of
448 their long-term data sets (Lindenmayer et al. 2012). In our dataset, only a limited number of studies
449 utilized long-term datasets, using whaling or fisheries observer programs data and not necessarily
450 analysing temporal trends (Brito 2008, Silva et al. 2009, 2014, Prieto et al. 2013). In contrast, we
451 verified the segregation of topics studied in the two most explored regions for cetacean research
452 (Azores and the Canary Islands).

453 Given the special ecological importance of the study area, we suggest a strategy similar to that
454 of Ijsseldijk et al. (2018), to coordinate resources and research agendas. Here, expert opinions were
455 exploited through a two-round Delphi approach that aimed to “identify current knowledge gaps,
456 predict future threats and suggest useful conservation indicators to guide research and monitoring of
457 harbour porpoises”. The Delphi method is a questionnaire-based research approach that allows

458 experts to collectively address complex problems. Several rounds of questionnaires are sent out to a
459 group of experts, and the anonymous responses are aggregated and shared with the group, and each
460 round is followed by a feedback round (Mukherjee et al. 2015). The Delphi method is especially
461 powerful on assessing complex issues with poor data and has been used previously in a range of
462 fields, such as tourism and medicine. Although, the use of this method in conservation studies and
463 ecological management is still uncommon (Mukherjee et al. 2015), by defining research priorities its
464 applicability could guide research focus and management efforts of cetacean populations. Thus, we
465 suggest the application of that method to identify priority research for cetaceans in our study region,
466 and to foster collaborative efforts among the region's research teams, dataset-sharing and
467 development of long-term research programs.

468

469 **Conflict of Interest**

470 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

471

472 **References**

473

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753 **Figures' headings**

754

755 Figure 1. Study area.

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757 Figure 2. Number of peer-reviewed papers on cetaceans published per year in Central Northeast
758 Atlantic from 1900-2018. A General Additive Model was fitted to the data (r^2 : 0.897; $P < 0.001$). The
759 red dashed line represents the year in which the evolution of published papers had a significant turning
760 point (via the Change-Point Analyses).

761

762 Figure 3. Research output on cetaceans per topic.

763

764 Figure 4. Research output on cetaceans per region.

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766 Figure 5. Cetacean species studied in the Central Northeast Atlantic and the number of papers
767 involving these species. Codes of species are specified in the Appendix S3 of the supplementary
768 material.

769

770 Figure 6. Percentage of studied species according to their IUCN (global) statuses. LC=Least Concern,
771 VU=Vulnerable, NT=Near Threatened, EN=Endangered, CR=Critically Endangered, DD=Data
772 Deficient.

773 **Tables and tables' headings**

774 Table 1. Number of publications per topic on cetaceans in each region from 1900-2018.

| | Anatomy | Taxonomy | Ecology | Behaviour | Acoustics | Genetics | Conservation | Human interactions |
|----------------------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| Madeira Archipelago | 11 | 17 | 25 | 9 | 1 | 7 | 6 | 8 |
| Azores Archipelago | 26 | 27 | 59 | 21 | 15 | 15 | 19 | 34 |
| Mainland Portugal | 20 | 21 | 29 | 12 | 9 | 14 | 11 | 24 |
| Canary Islands | 36 | 9 | 28 | 13 | 23 | 7 | 23 | 36 |
| Cape Verde Islands | 9 | 17 | 17 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 9 |
| Morocco | 6 | 10 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Senegal | 24 | 24 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 4 |
| Mauritania | 12 | 13 | 18 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 5 |
| Total | 116 | 103 | 141 | 55 | 43 | 30 | 60 | 99 |

775

776 Table 2. Summary of the most studied species in each region, and number of papers in which the species were
 777 studied (n).

| Top studied species | |
|----------------------------|--|
| Madeira Archipelago | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> (n= 19) |
| | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=16) |
| | <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> (n=14) |
| Azores Archipelago | <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> (n=48) |
| | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> (n=34) |
| | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=31) |
| Mainland Portugal | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=32) |
| | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> (n=28) |
| | <i>Phocoena phocoena</i> (n=13) |
| Canary Islands | <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> (n=30) |
| | <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> , <i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i> (n=29) |
| | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=28) |
| Cape Verde Islands | <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> (n=18) |
| | <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> , <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> (n=8) |
| | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> , <i>Stenella frontalis</i> , <i>Steno bredanensis</i> , <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> (n=7) |
| Morocco | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> , <i>Orcinus orca</i> , <i>Delphinus delphis</i> (n=8) |
| | <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> , <i>Sotalia teuszii</i> , <i>Phocoena phocoena</i> , <i>Globicephala melas</i> , <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> , <i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i> (n=5) |
| | <i>Stenella frontalis</i> , <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> , <i>Pseudorca crassidens</i> , <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> , <i>Grampus griseus</i> , <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> (n=4) |
| | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=17) |
| | <i>Sotalia teuszii</i> (n=16) |
| Senegal | <i>Orcinus orca</i> (n=14) |
| | <i>Sotalia teuszii</i> , <i>Phocoena phocoena</i> (n=12) |
| Mauritania | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> (n=11) |
| | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> (n=10) |

778

779

780 Table 3. Summary of the most studied species for each topic, number of papers in which the species were
 781 studied for specific topics, and total of papers per topic.

| | Anatomy | Taxonomy | Ecology | Behaviour | Acoustics | Genetics | Conservation | Human interactions |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|--|---|--|--------------------------------|--|
| Most studied species | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=35) | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=41) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=52) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=17) | <i>M. densirostris</i> (n=10) | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=10) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=24) | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=34) |
| | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=33) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=32) | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=46) | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=11) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=7) | <i>T. truncatus</i> (n=6) | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=20) | <i>D. delphis, T. truncatus</i> (n=29) |
| | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=29) | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=28) | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=38) | <i>D. delphis</i> (n=9) | <i>G. macrorhynchus</i> (n=6) | <i>S. frontalis</i> (n=5) | <i>P. macrocephalus</i> (n=15) | <i>S. frontalis</i> (n=19) |
| | | | | | <i>S. clymene, S. attenuata, S. longirostris, S. teuszii, S. longirostris, S. bredanensis, P. electra, M. bidens, L. hosei, K. sima, K. breviceps, F. attenuata, D. capensis, M. novaeangliae, E. glacialis, B. edeni</i> (n=0) | <i>S. clymene, S. attenuata, S. longirostris, S. bredanensis, P. electra, M. bidens, L. hosei, K. breviceps, H. ampullatus, F. attenuata, E. glacialis, B. edeni, B. acutorostrata, B. musculus, O. Orca, G. griséus, S. teuszii</i> (n=0) | | |
| | | <i>D. capensis, M. mirus, S. clymene</i> (n=2) | <i>M. mirus</i> (n=0) | <i>S. clymene, S. attenuata, S. longirostris, P. phocoena, M. mirus, M. bidens, K. sima, F. attenuata, D. capensis</i> (n=0) | <i>S. clymene, S. attenuata, S. longirostris, P. phocoena, M. mirus, M. bidens, K. sima, F. attenuata, D. capensis, M. novaeangliae, E. glacialis, B. edeni</i> (n=0) | <i>S. clymene, S. attenuata, S. longirostris, S. bredanensis, M. bidens, L. hosei, K. breviceps, H. ampullatus, F. attenuata, E. glacialis, B. edeni, B. acutorostrata, B. musculus, O. Orca, G. griséus, S. teuszii</i> (n=0) | | |
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| Least studied species | | | | <i>M. europaeus, S. teuszii, P. electra, K. breviceps, G. melas, B. acutorostrata, B. edeni, M. novaeangliae, B. musculus, H. ampullatus</i> (n=1) | <i>P. phocoena, M. mirus, P. crassidens, O. orca, H. ampullatus, G. melas, B. musculus, B. acutorostrata</i> (n=1) | <i>Z. cavirostris, M. mirus, K. sima, L. hosei, B. musculus</i> (n=1) | | |
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| Total of papers | 116 | 103 | 141 | 55 | 43 | 30 | 60 | 99 |