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1 **Body density of humpback whales (*Megaptera novaengliae*) in feeding aggregations**
2 **estimated from hydrodynamic gliding performance**

3

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25 **Abstract**

26 Many baleen whales undertake annual fasting and feeding cycles, resulting in substantial
27 changes in their body condition, an important factor affecting fitness. As a measure of lipid-
28 store body condition, tissue density of a few deep diving marine mammals has been estimated
29 using a hydrodynamic glide model of drag and buoyancy forces. Here, we applied the method
30 to shallow-diving humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) in North Atlantic and
31 Antarctic feeding aggregations. High-resolution 3-axis acceleration, depth and speed data
32 were collected from 24 whales. Measured values of acceleration during 5 s glides were fitted
33 to a hydrodynamic glide model to estimate unknown parameters (tissue density, drag term and
34 diving gas volume) in a Bayesian framework. Estimated species-average tissue density
35 ($1031.6 \pm 2.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, $\pm 95\%$ credible interval) indicates that humpback whale tissue is
36 typically negatively buoyant although there was a large inter-individual variation ranging
37 from 1025.2 to 1043.1 kg m^{-3} . The precision of the individual estimates was substantially
38 finer than the variation across different individual whales, demonstrating a progressive
39 decrease in tissue density throughout the feeding season and comparably high lipid-store in
40 pregnant females. The drag term ($C_D A m^{-1}$) was estimated to be relatively high, indicating a
41 large effect of lift-related induced drag for humpback whales. Our results show that tissue
42 density of shallow diving baleen whales can be estimated using the hydrodynamic gliding
43 model, although cross-validation with other techniques is an essential next step. This method
44 for estimating body condition is likely to be broadly applicable across a range of aquatic
45 animals and environments.

46

47 **Introduction**

48 The body condition of animals influences survival rate and reproductive success and thereby
49 impacts the dynamics of entire populations. Body condition also affects an animal's
50 behavioural decisions related to foraging, predator avoidance, migration, and reproductive
51 strategies (e.g. [1-3]). Many marine mammals undergo substantial changes in lipid-store body
52 condition as a result of annual fasting and feeding cycles [4, 5]. For migratory species, the
53 cost of reproduction at breeding grounds is supported by energy gained on feeding grounds.
54 Thus, the amount of energy stored during a feeding season strongly influences reproduction
55 via pregnancy rate [6], foetal development [7], body condition and survival of offspring [8-
56 11] and the competitive capabilities of males. It is also likely that body condition influences
57 the foraging decisions made by baleen whales relative to where prey items are located in the
58 water column [12, 13]. Because body condition is an important factor affecting fitness,
59 measuring body condition of free-ranging cetaceans is important for understanding their
60 ecology as well as for designing effective conservation plans [14-16].

61
62 Baleen whales (parvorder Mysticeti; order Cetartiodactyla) are a group of marine mammals
63 that cycle fat stores on an annual basis, substantially changing their appearance, behaviour,
64 and fitness [17]. Given these dramatic changes, developing methods to quantify their body
65 condition in the field has great value. Traditional approaches to examine variations in body
66 condition and energy store of baleen whales involved anatomical measurements that were
67 often made in conjunction with whaling operations [4, 18, 19]. Blubber thickness of whale
68 carcasses has been used as a proxy of body condition [4, 18, 20], since most of the energy is
69 stored in the form of blubber [21] although a considerable amount of energy is also stored in
70 muscle and intra-abdominal fat [4, 21]. Blubber lipid content of whale carcasses was also
71 important in the assessment of condition of cetaceans [19]. As the thickness as well as lipid

72 content and fatty acid composition of blubber has been shown to vary across the body of
73 cetaceans, multiple-site measurements of blubber thickness are particularly useful to examine
74 total body condition cetaceans [22-24]. Many studies have investigated seasonal trends in
75 energy storage of several species of baleen whales by means of blubber thickness and
76 morphometric data, reporting that seasonal fattening varies with different sex and age classes,
77 reproductive stages, as well as prey availability [4, 6, 25].

78

79 Although carcasses have provided many insights into the physiology and body condition of
80 baleen whales, a key limitation is that temporal changes of the same individual cannot be
81 measured. Also, studies using carcasses may not be widely applicable to cetaceans because
82 they require lethal sampling or collection of samples from stranded animals or fisheries
83 bycatch. To collect blubber and other tissue samples from free-ranging cetaceans, biopsy
84 darting is commonly used where modified dart tips are delivered using a crossbow or a
85 pneumatic rifle [26]. The percentage lipid content of blubber from carcasses is considered to
86 be an informative measure of fattening [19]. However, the biopsy blubber samples may not be
87 useful to measure body condition of free-ranging cetaceans because the (1) the force of
88 darting can damage adipocytes causing lipids to be squeezed out of samples, or to seep out of
89 blubber biopsies while in seawater [27], and (2) the sample only penetrates a short distance
90 into the blubber layer. In addition, it is difficult to obtain multiple biopsy samples from a
91 whale whose blubber thickness and composition vary across the body [22-24]. Visual
92 assessment of external shape and appearance based on boat-based photographs has been used
93 for evaluating body condition of right and grey whales [28, 29]. Photogrammetric
94 measurements of body width, reflecting blubber thickness, using vertical aerial photographs
95 taken from aircraft or unmanned aerial vehicles has also been used to assess nutritive body
96 condition of some whale species [11, 30, 31] although measurements of such body shape

97 patterns are limited to the visible 2-dimensional shape of surfacing of whales, and may not be
98 suitable for other more cryptic species.

99

100 An alternative approach is to use body density of diving animals as a proxy of lipid-store
101 body condition [32]. Lipids are less dense than seawater while other non-gas body
102 components are denser than seawater. Body composition, particularly the ratio of lipid to lean
103 tissue, therefore strongly influences body density and hence the buoyancy of diving animals
104 [5]. It has been shown that buoyancy influences swimming behaviour and energetics of diving
105 animals [33]. For instance, buoyancy forces affect stroking efforts [34, 35] and swimming
106 patterns, with more gliding occurring in the direction aided by buoyancy [15, 34, 36-39].

107

108 Buoyancy also influences gliding performance by altering vertical speeds during inactive drift
109 periods [5], prolonged glides [39] or short-duration glides [38]. This effect of buoyancy on
110 gliding performance has led to the development of tag-based methods to quantify the body
111 density of diving animals via hydrodynamic analysis. This approach was first developed for
112 free-ranging elephant seals (*Mirounga* spp.): body density was quantified by analysing the
113 vertical speed during inactive drifting periods (i.e. drift rate) at which the buoyancy force is
114 assumed to be equal to the drag force [5]. The drift dive method has proven useful for long-
115 term monitoring of body lipid-stores in elephant seals providing new insights into when and
116 where they gain or lose lipid stores [5, 40, 41]. However, use of the drift dive method is
117 limited to a few pinniped species that routinely perform drift dives (*Mirounga angustirostris*
118 [34, 42]; *M. leonina* [5, 40]; *Arctocephalus forsteri* [43]; *Cystophora cristata* [44]). Gliding
119 during the descent or ascent phase of a dive, on the other hand, is commonly observed across
120 a range of diving taxa [33, 37]. A more widely applicable approach, the glide model, was
121 introduced by Miller et al. [38] to estimate body density of sperm whales using a

122 hydrodynamic glide model that predicts how drag and buoyancy forces influence acceleration
123 (or deceleration) during short-duration glides. Aoki et al. [34] conducted a validation analysis
124 using isotope dilution and confirmed a strong correspondence in body density estimates of
125 elephant seals obtained from the drift dive and the glide models [45].

126

127 In the glide model, acceleration during a glide is determined by the difference between drag
128 and net buoyancy forces along the swimming path of the animal [38]. The force of non-
129 neutral buoyancy or ‘apparent weight’ (difference in mass of the diving animal and the
130 displaced water) acts vertically on diving animals, and depends on the density of body tissues
131 as well as the volume of air carried within the body (the diving gas volume). While body
132 tissues are relatively incompressible at depth, the volume of air in the body progressively
133 decreases with increasing depth, thought to closely follow Boyle’s Law for marine mammals
134 [46]. Thus, tissue-derived buoyancy can be separated from air-derived buoyancy when gliding
135 data is available over a wide depth range. To date, the glide model has been demonstrated to
136 be useful to estimate the body density of several species of marine mammals, including
137 elephant seals [34] and some deep diving toothed whales (sperm whale, *Physeter*
138 *macrocephalus* [38]; Northern bottlenose whale, *Hyperoodon ampullatus* [15]; long-finned
139 pilot whale, *Globicephala melas* [47]) that routinely perform dives deeper than 200 m where
140 the effect of air-derived buoyancy is considered to be negligible [38].

141

142 In this study, we apply the hydrodynamic glide model to estimate body tissue density of
143 humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) in two geographically distinct feeding
144 populations (the Gulf of St Lawrence, Canada and the Western Antarctic Peninsula, WAP). In
145 comparison with deeper diving toothed whales, humpback whales may not seem ideal
146 candidates for the glide model because they routinely dive only to relatively shallow depths at

147 which gas volumes are likely to more strongly influence net buoyancy. For example, the mean
148 dive depth per tag record in this study ranged from 22.8 to 180.8 m, with the deepest dive
149 recorded being 388.3 m. Apart from a shallower diving depth range, humpback whales tend to
150 dive and glide at relatively shallower pitch angles, requiring the generation of lift. The large
151 flippers of humpback whales are well-suited for this purpose [48], but the need to generate
152 substantial lift forces may raise concerns about the applicability of the glide model because
153 the current model does not include the potential effect of lift-induced drag which was shown
154 to be negligible in deep divers that maintain steep pitch during glides [34].

155

156 The objective of this study was to examine whether the hydrodynamic glide model can be
157 applied to shallower diving baleen whales by examining the precision of body density
158 estimates obtained from a narrow depth-range dataset. Our results show that we were able to
159 obtain estimates of humpback whale body density using this method. Though the precision of
160 the estimates was not as fine as was previously reported for a deep-diving toothed whale [15],
161 the precision of individual body density estimates was substantially finer than the variation
162 across different individual whales, including some differences between the geographic
163 locations where tags were attached. We conclude that the glide method has potential to be
164 used to track the body condition of shallow diving baleen whales, enabling future applications
165 as a tool to study their health and how body condition relates to reproductive status, animal
166 behaviour and the influences of environmental change and variability.

167

168 **Materials and methods**

169 **Ethics statement**

170 The research protocol was approved by Animal Welfare and Care Committee Approval of the
171 University of St Andrews. The fieldwork in the Gulf of St Lawrence, Canada was performed
172 under permits issued by the Research permits issued by Department of Fisheries and Oceans,
173 Canada (scientific fishing license QUE04-B-2011) in compliance with ethical and local use of
174 animals in experimentation. All research activities in the Antarctic was conducted under
175 National Marine Fisheries Service Permit (808-1735), Antarctic Conservation Act Permit
176 (2009-014), and Duke University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (A049-112-
177 02).

178

179 **Data collection**

180 Field studies were carried out at two geographically distinct summer feeding grounds of
181 humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*): the Gulf of St Lawrence in Canada and the
182 western side of Antarctic Peninsula. Animal-borne archival tags used in the study were either
183 3MPD3GT loggers (Little Leonardo Co., Tokyo, Japan) or sound and movement recording
184 DTAGs ([49]; Table 1). The 3MPD3GT loggers were programmed to record depth,
185 temperature, flywheel swim speed and 3-axis magnetism at 1Hz, and 3-axis ± 3 g acceleration
186 at 32Hz. The DTAG sampled pressure and a 3-axis ± 2 g acceleration at 50Hz, which was
187 later downsampled to 5Hz. The 3MPD3GT loggers have the ability to measure flow speed
188 using a front mounted impeller (flywheel). To ensure that speed is measured in the direction
189 of travel, 3MPD3GT tags are mounted in hydrodynamic (tear shaped) floats with a single
190 suction cup mounted at the anterior end, and vertically mounted tail fin at the posterior end.
191 The location of fin and suction cup ensure that the force acting on the tag cause the tag
192 housing to swivel on the animal and orient into the direction of flow. DTAGs are attached to
193 the animal with four suction cups. Tagging was conducted from rigid-hull inflatable boats and
194 either a 5 m or an 8 m handheld carbon fibre pole was used to attach the tag.

196 **Table 1. Humpback whale dataset used for analysis.**

Data ID	Date	Location	Duration (h)	Tag type	Age class	Sex	No of 5-s glides	ρ_{tissue} (kg m ⁻³)	$C_D A m^{-2}$ (x10 ⁻⁶ m ² kg ⁻¹)
Mn11_H584_1	21 Jul 2011	GSL	0.2	3MPD3GT	Adult (pregnant)	F	0	N/A	N/A
Mn11_H607_1	22 Jul 2011	GSL	3.4	3MPD3GT	Adult	M	23	1037.0 ± 1.9	12.5 ± 1.4
Mn11_H686	25 Jul 2011	GSL	4.5	3MPD3GT	Adult	F	75	1036.2 ± 1.2	6.5 ± 2.1
Mn11_H761	25 Jul 2011	GSL	5.9	3MPD3GT	Adult	M	44	1029.0 ± 1.8	16.3 ± 6.5
Mn11_H731	26 Jul 2011	GSL	2.7	3MPD3GT	Adult	F	61	1035.4 ± 1.2	12.8 ± 2.0
Mn11_H698	26 Jul 2011	GSL	2	3MPD3GT	Adult	M	61	N/A	NN/A
Mn11_H228	27 Jul 2011	GSL	0.2	3MPD3GT	Adult	F	3	N/A	N/A
Mn11_H584_2	28 Jul 2011	GSL	3.6	3MPD3GT	Adult (pregnant)	F	47	1028.6 ± 0.7	12.2 ± 1.4
Mn11_H707	19 Aug 2011	GSL	1.6	3MPD3GT	Juvenile	M	93	1043.1 ± 1.6	12.4 ± 1.5
Mn11_H755	28 Aug 2011	GSL	2.9	3MPD3GT	Juvenile	M	177	1033.7 ± 0.5	25.5 ± 1.0
Mn11_H607_2	01 Sep 2011	GSL	2.1	3MPD3GT	Adult	M	29	1031.2 ± 2.3	15.0 ± 9.6
Mn11_H002	04 Sep 2011	GSL	5.8	3MPD3GT	Adult (pregnant)	F	187	1026.5 ± 0.5	6.3 ± 2.8
Mn11_H405	18 Sep 2011	GSL	2.7	3MPD3GT	Adult	M	74	1034.2 ± 0.9	13.1 ± 1.1
Mn11_H489	19 Sep 2011	GSL	0.1	3MPD3GT	Adult	F	0	N/A	N/A
Mn09_121	01 May 2009	A	6.4	Dtag	Adult	U	7	N/A	N/A
Mn09_122	02 May 2009	A	4.2	Dtag	Adult	U	5	N/A	N/A
Mn09_127a	07 May 2009	A	24.2	Dtag	Adult	U	290	1028.4 ± 0.1	11.7 ± 0.2
Mn09_127b	07 May 2009	A	6.5	Dtag	Adult	U	15	N/A	N/A
Mn09_128	08 May 2009	A	2.4	Dtag	Adult	U	11	N/A	N/A
Mn09_136	16 May 2009	A	22.5	Dtag	Adult	U	704	1028.7 ± 0.03	11.2 ± 0.2
Mn09_140	20 May 2009	A	22.3	Dtag	Adult	U	500	1029.8 ± 0.04	9.8 ± 0.2
Mn09_148	28 May 2009	A	25.5	Dtag	Adult	U	30	1026.9 ± 0.7	10.1 ± 2.1
Mn09_151	29 May 2009	A	3.1	Dtag	Juvenile	F	5	N/A	N/A
Mn09_152	01 Jun 2009	A	22.4	Dtag	Adult	U	230	1036.3 ± 0.4	10.5 ± 1.3
Mn10_133	13 May 2010	A	22.8	Dtag	Adult	F	86	1028.6 ± 0.3	6.6 ± 2.4
Mn10_139a	19 May 2010	A	22.2	Dtag	Calf of Mn10_139b	F	118	1040.8 ± 0.5	14.7 ± 0.9
Mn10_139b	19 May 2010	A	23.7	Dtag	Adult	F	457	1029.4 ± 0.1	17.4 ± 1.5
Mn10_143	23 May 2010	A	23.3	Dtag	Unknown	U	77	1026.4 ± 0.3	22.3 ± 3.1

Mn10_144	24 May 2010	A	19.9	Dtag	Adult	M	47	1031.1 ± 0.9	6.0 ± 3.5
Mn10_146	26 May 2010	A	20.2	Dtag	Adult	F	419	1029.7 ± 0.1	11.6 ± 0.1
Mn10_151	31 May 2010	A	25	Dtag	Juvenile	F	352	1035.3 ± 0.2	14.0 ± 0.5
Mn10_155a	04 Jun 2010	A	24.2	Dtag	Adult	F	391	1027.6 ± 0.1	14.1 ± 0.3
Mn10_155b	04 Jun 2010	A	22	Dtag	Calf of Mn10_155a	F	67	1025.2 ± 0.4	12.8 ± 1.9

197 GSL and A in the Location column indicate Gulf of St. Lawrence and Antarctica, respectively. Individual-specific estimates of tissue density
198 (ρ_{tissue}) and the combined drag term ($C_D A m^{-1}$) obtained from the lowest DIC model are presented as mean ± 95% credible interval. Data was not
199 used for the Bayesian estimation when number of 5-s glides was < 20. Dataset shaded with grey were not used for the Bayesian estimation due to
200 insufficient number of 5-s glides in the dataset.

201

202 **Analysis of tag data**

203 Pressure data recorded by archival tags were converted to absolute values of hydrostatic
204 pressure using calibration values and converted to meters. A dive was defined as any
205 submergence to a depth of > 10 m. Dives were broken into descent, bottom and ascent phases
206 based on changes in pitch following Miller *et al.* [38]. As tags were attached to whales at
207 random orientations, the 3-axis acceleration data recorded by the tags was converted to a
208 whale-centred, whale fixed reference frame (whale-frame) using established methods [38,
209 49]. The accelerometers recorded both specific (e.g. stroking) and gravity-based accelerations
210 (i.e. changes in response to posture change). Under the assumption that changes in the posture
211 of the tagged whale occurred at lower frequency than changes in accelerations resulting from
212 body motions such as thrust, a frequency-based filter (low-pass finite impulse response filters
213 with tag-specific thresholds set at 0.12 – 0.15 Hz) was applied to the entire acceleration time-
214 series to separate these two components. Then, pitch and roll angles of the whales were
215 calculated from the low-frequency component of accelerations [37, 39, 50], while the high-
216 frequency component was used to identify stroking versus gliding periods. For 3MPD3GT
217 dataset, stroking was identified when oscillation on the high-frequency component of surge
218 accelerations indicating fluke beats exceeded a threshold that was set for each deployment
219 ($0.1 - 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-2}$). Speed sensor data was visually inspected to confirm the presence of stroke-
220 derived acceleration. For DTAG dataset, stroking was detected using high-frequency
221 accelerations at both surge and dorso-ventral axis with thresholds set for each deployment and
222 each axis ($0.1 - 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-2}$). Gliding periods were automatically detected as the period when
223 the tagged animals did not stroke.

224

225 The speed sensor of the 3MPD3GT logger recorded swim speed as the rotation of an external
226 impeller mounted on the anterior end of the logger, which correlates linearly with the speed of

227 water flow passing through the impeller. The rotation rate (number of rotations per second)
228 was converted to speed (m s^{-1}) using a calibration line obtained in-situ for each deployment
229 [37]. The calibration line was obtained from a linear regression of rotation rate against swim
230 speed that was calculated from vertical depth change divided by sine of the pitch at 5 s
231 intervals when absolute mean sine of pitch was greater than 0.7 - 0.9. For the DTAG data,
232 speed during glides was estimated using the rate of change of depth divided by the sine of
233 pitch [38].

234

235 Data during glides were extracted in 5 s duration segments [15]. Glides shorter than 5 s were
236 excluded from the analysis and glides longer than 5 s were broken into 5 s sub-glides. For
237 each 5 s sub-glide, mean depth (d), speed (v) and pitch angle (p) were calculated. Acceleration
238 (a) was measured by regressing speed versus time over each 5-second interval (Fig. S1). The
239 variance of the acceleration measurement during each 5 s sub-glide was quantified as the root
240 mean square of residuals from the fitted regression line. Seawater density (ρ_{sw}) for each sub-
241 glide was calculated from a CTD cast that was made close in time and location to each tagged
242 whale. In this analysis, we only used stable glides (circular variance of roll < 0.1) that were at
243 steep pitch angle (absolute pitch $> 30^\circ$) to enable robust estimates of speed for DTAG records.
244 In addition, any glides associated with lunge feeding were excluded from the analysis because
245 body form and kinematics of whales drastically change during this feeding behaviour [51].
246 Lunge feeding events were detected as peaks in jerk (i.e. differential of acceleration) for
247 DTAG records [52]. For 3MPD3GT records with speed data, a lunge was detected as peak in
248 speed when the speed exceeded the threshold of mean speed plus two standard deviations
249 followed by a rapid deceleration. According to a fine-scale kinematic study of lunge-feeding
250 humpback whales, whales stroke throughout lunges but glide at the end of feeding once the
251 mouth has been closed [52]. To exclude any feeding-related glides, we excluded any glides

252 recorded within 46 s after the lunge from the analysis because it has been reported that
 253 humpback whales spend an average of 46 s for filtration and prey handling [52].

254

255 **Hydrodynamic performance model**

256 We used the equation presented by Miller *et al.* [15] where acceleration (m s^{-2}) along the
 257 swimming path is determined by drag force (the first term) and buoyancy forces derived from
 258 body tissue (the second term) and gasses carried by each whale (the third term):

$$259 \text{ Acceleration} = -0.5 \cdot \frac{C_D \cdot A}{m} \cdot \rho_{sw} \cdot v^2 + \left(\frac{\rho_{sw}}{\rho_{tissue}(d)} - 1 \right) \cdot g \cdot \sin(p) \\
 + \frac{V_{air}}{m} \cdot g \cdot \sin(p) \cdot \frac{\rho_{sw} - \rho_{air} \cdot (1 + 0.1 \cdot d)}{(1 + 0.1 \cdot d)}$$

260 where:

$$261 \rho_{tissue}(d) = \frac{\rho_{tissue}(0)}{1 - r \cdot (1 + 0.1 \cdot d) \cdot 101325 \cdot 10^{-9}}$$

262

263 Here, C_D is the drag coefficient, A is the relevant surface area (m^2), m is the mass of the whale
 264 (kg), ρ_{sw} is the density of the surrounding seawater (kg m^{-3}), v is swim speed (m s^{-1}), ρ_{tissue} is
 265 the density of the non-gas component of the whale body (kg m^{-3}), g is acceleration due to
 266 gravity (9.8 m s^{-2}), p is animal pitch (radians), V_{air} is the volume of air at the surface (m^3), ρ_{air}
 267 is the density of air (kg m^{-3}), d is glide depth (m), and r is compressibility for animal tissue
 268 (i.e., the fractional change in volume per unit increase in pressure). The value 101325
 269 converts pressure in atmospheres to pressure in Pascals, so that the units of body tissue
 270 compressibility are proportion per Pascal $\times 10^{-9}$.

271

272 The first additive term of the equation represents the effect of drag on the forward motion of
 273 the whale during a glide, which is primarily a function of speed itself. $C_D A m^{-1}$ is the unknown
 274 term that is treated as a single quantity in this approach with units of $\text{m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$. The second term

275 quantifies the effect of net buoyancy derived from unknown tissue density (ρ_{sw}) on speed
276 during a glide. The third term quantifies the influence of net buoyancy derived from the
277 unknown volume of gas per unit mass carried in the dive ($V_{air}m^{-1}$) on speed during a glide. As
278 gas compartments of whales are compressed during dives, the volume and density of gas
279 carried by the animal are modelled to change with hydrostatic pressure following Boyle's
280 Law. The model also includes the effect of tissue compressibility (r) that was fixed as $0.38 \times$
281 10^{-9} Pa^{-1} based on the value estimated for northern bottlenose whales [15].

282

283 **Bayesian estimation**

284 The unknown parameters in the hydrodynamic glide model (mainly ρ_{tissue} , $V_{air}m^{-1}$ and C_DAm^{-1}
285 ¹⁾ were estimated by Bayesian Gibbs sampling with the freely available software JAGS within
286 R (coda, R package v0.17-1 2015, <http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/coda/index.html>)
287 and R2jags (R package v0.5-7 2012, [https://cran.r-](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/R2jags/index.html)
288 [project.org/web/packages/R2jags/index.html](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/R2jags/index.html)) using data extracted for each 5-s sub-glide.
289 Acceleration during glides was measured using a linear regression line of speed versus time.
290 Observation error measured from variance of acceleration for each 5 s was incorporated in the
291 model by treating acceleration as a normal variable with a precision parameter (1/variance)
292 [15]. A small increment (0.001) was added to the standard errors to ensure finite values for
293 the precision parameter. For the Bayesian estimation, a specific prior distribution must be set
294 for each unknown parameter. A non-informative uniform prior from 800 to 1200 kg m^{-3} was
295 set for body tissue density (ρ_{tissue}). An informative prior was set for the combined drag
296 coefficient term (C_DAm^{-1}) based on several sources of information: drag coefficient (C_D) was
297 estimated to be 0.0026 based on the value estimated for a fin whale (*Balaenoptera physalus*)
298 swimming at 4 m s^{-1} [53]. Based on body lengths (L) ranges from 6 to 15 m, body mass (m)
299 was estimated as 20005 kg on average (range 3253 - 48556 kg) using an equation derived for

300 humpback whales: $m = 0.016473L^{2.95} \times 1000$ [54]. Surface area (A) was estimated as 47.4 m^2
301 (range $15.3 - 89.0 \text{ m}^2$) using a prediction equation obtained from bottlenose dolphins
302 (*Tursiops truncatus*): $A = 0.08m^{0.65}$ [55]. Thus, an expected value for the combined drag term
303 (C_DAm^{-1}) would be $7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$, with a range from $5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ for large whales to 12
304 $\times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ for small whales. In order to capture uncertainty around this expected value, we
305 specify the prior to be a normal distribution with a mean of $7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and standard
306 deviation of $2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ that was truncated at $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and $20 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$. For
307 diving gas volume ($V_{air}m^{-1}$), a uniform prior from 5 to 80 ml kg^{-1} was set based on the total
308 lung capacity ($65 - 72 \text{ ml kg}^{-1}$) estimated for 6 to 15 m long whales using an equation derived
309 from various marine mammals: total lung capacity = $0.10m^{0.96} \times 1000$ [56].

310

311 Following Miller et al. [15], we explored variability of unknown tissue density, combined
312 drag term and diving gas volume by evaluating a total of 12 model structures. We fitted a
313 model in which the quantity of the unknown parameters ρ_{tissue} , $V_{air}m^{-1}$ and C_DAm^{-1} remained
314 constant across the tags and dives (global estimates). We also fitted hierarchical models in
315 which the individual-specific estimates of tissue density and/or drag term, and the dive-
316 specific estimates for diving gas volume are sampled from each global (i.e. individual-average
317 or dive-average) distribution that was estimated for each parameter. See the JAGS script in
318 the appendix of Miller et al. [15] for the detailed structure of the hierarchical model. All
319 models were sampled in three independent chains, with 24,000 iterations each. The first
320 12,000 samples were discarded for burn-in, and the remaining posterior samples were
321 downsampled by a factor of 36 to remove any serial correlation in the samples. We report the
322 mean and 95% percentile, hereafter termed posterior mean and credible interval (CI), of the
323 posterior samples as the best estimates of the parameter value and its uncertainty. The 95%
324 credible interval is the Bayesian analogue for the more traditional (frequentist) confidence

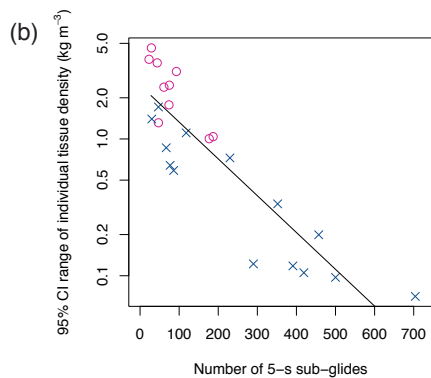
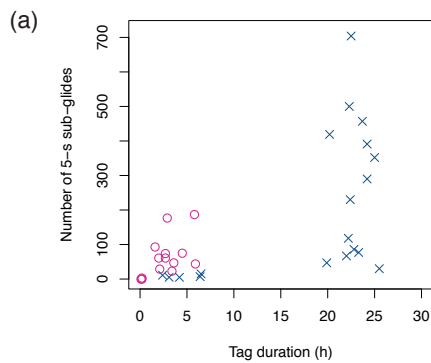
325 interval, and defines the range of values within which the true parameter value lies with 95%
326 probability, given the observed data. Convergence was assessed for each parameter, using
327 trace history and Brooks-Gelman-Rubin diagnostic plots [57]. The best model was selected
328 based on the deviance information criterion (DIC), with a lower value indicating a better
329 model fit relative to model complexity.

330

331 **Results**

332 A total of 33 tag datasets were analysed (Table 1). In the Gulf of St Lawrence, archival tags
333 were deployed on 12 whales in the Jacques-Cartier Passage and adjacent waters between July
334 and September 2011. All tagged whales were part of a long-term photo-identification study
335 that has been carried out at the study site since 1984 [58]. Photographic and field observations
336 of behaviour and known associates suggest that at least two adult females (H002 and H584_2)
337 were pregnant when the tag data were collected. Pregnancy of H002 was also confirmed by
338 hormonal analysis of blow samples and blubber samples. One adult male (H607) was tagged
339 twice at the beginning of the feeding season (July 22, 2011) and later the same season
340 (September 1, 2011). At the Antarctic field-site, 19 whales were tagged over the course of two
341 field seasons that ran between May and June in both 2009 and 2010. Antarctic animals were
342 tagged in Wilhelmina and Andvord Bays along the WAP and inshore waters of the Gerlache
343 Strait. Two pairs of tagged whales were found to be mother-and-calf pairs based on visual
344 observation from the tag boat and biopsy samples (Table 1). The whales conducted dives to a
345 maximum depth of 388.3 m. Mean swim speed throughout dives was $1.5 \pm 0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (\pm SD,
346 Table 2). Gliding was observed both during descent and ascent phases although the
347 percentage of time spent gliding varied among whales ranging over 1.5 – 45.2% and 2.8 –
348 60.0% during descent and ascent phases, respectively. Pitch angles during descent and ascent
349 phases were $-39.8 \pm 20.6^\circ$ and $30.6 \pm 22.4^\circ$ on average, respectively (Table 2). From the

350 whole dataset, we extracted a total of 18546 5-s sub-glides that were not associated with a
351 lunge. However, 73.7% of these glides were filtered out due to shallow pitch angle ($< 30^\circ$)
352 and 0.1% due to high variability in roll (circular variance of roll > 0.9). In addition, 1.4% of
353 glides were removed due to lack of speed and/or acceleration data throughout the 5-s glides.
354 As a result, 24.7% of the total 5-s sub-glides met the criteria for the use of hydrodynamic
355 glide model. The number of 5-s sub-glides that could be used for the hydrodynamic glide
356 model was positively correlated with the duration of tag dataset (Spearman's $\rho = 0.633$, $p <$
357 0.001 ; Fig. 1a) although the number of useable glides also varied depending on the behaviour
358 of the tagged whales (foraging, resting, etc.). Eight tag datasets were excluded from the
359 Bayesian estimation of tissue density because of insufficient sample size (< 20 sub-glides in
360 each dataset; Table 1). Data of Mn11_H698 was also excluded because an in-situ calibration
361 of the speed sensor was not applicable for this deployment.



362

363 **Fig. 1 The number of 5-s sub-glides in relation to tag duration and 95% CI range.**
364 Number of 5-s sub-glides that could be used for the hydrodynamic glide model in relation to
365 tag duration (a) and the range of 95% credible interval for tissue density estimates (b).
366 Magenta circles and blue crosses indicate data from Gulf of St Lawrence and Antarctica,
367 respectively. A solid line shows a regression line: $\log(y) = -0.0062x + 0.90$.
368

369 **Table 2. Summary of dive statistics**

Data ID	<i>Dives</i>				<i>Descent phase</i>			<i>Ascent phase</i>		
	N	Duration (s)	Depth (m)	Speed (m s ⁻¹)	Duration (s)	Pitch (°)	% time gliding	Duration (s)	Pitch (°)	% time gliding
Mn11_H584_1	0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Mn11_H607_1	68	133.1 ± 70.6	45.1 ± 14.4	2.1 ± 0.3	50.8 ± 24.6	-26.0 ± 10.7	7.7 ± 14.4	42.4 ± 20.7	28.8 ± 8.7	6.0 ± 11.3
Mn11_H686	32	204.7 ± 105.8	56.7 ± 60.7	1.3 ± 0.4	63.6 ± 47.7	-18.1 ± 13.5	14.5 ± 21.0	85.8 ± 46.4	23.9 ± 24.5	8.8 ± 16.6
Mn11_H761	51	158.4 ± 110.1	25.3 ± 35.7	1.0 ± 0.3	37.8 ± 26.8	-23.4 ± 14.2	21.1 ± 29.5	91.7 ± 85.6	19.0 ± 13.0	35.1 ± 33.5
Mn11_H731	33	140.9 ± 81.6	44.3 ± 43.6	1.3 ± 0.4	52.5 ± 37.2	-22.0 ± 17.0	31.1 ± 26.9	67.6 ± 41.5	20.8 ± 10.8	38.1 ± 31.8
Mn11_H698	43	101.1 ± 48.3	32.6 ± 18.5	N/A	25.4 ± 8.9	-28.7 ± 16.8	37.3 ± 28.3	56.9 ± 30.1	20.1 ± 9.5	34.1 ± 26.6
Mn11_H228	4	158.0 ± 85.1	24.9 ± 12.2	1.5 ± 0.5	38.5 ± 7.1	-21.7 ± 11.5	42.5 ± 31.4	99.0 ± 80.4	13.0 ± 1.8	60.0 ± 41.4
Mn11_H584_2	32	256.4 ± 153.1	70.0 ± 54.7	2.2 ± 0.6	75.6 ± 41.5	-22.7 ± 16.8	5.5 ± 13.9	96.2 ± 73.9	19.2 ± 9.8	16.1 ± 26.2
Mn11_H707	17	294.1 ± 162.5	116.4 ± 58.6	2.0 ± 0.3	50.1 ± 26.5	-39.2 ± 19.0	45.2 ± 27.5	70.1 ± 30.6	45.7 ± 26.1	6.1 ± 15.4
Mn11_H755	28	328.0 ± 203.0	73.4 ± 45.9	1.3 ± 0.3	58.7 ± 47.1	-32.1 ± 16.4	37.1 ± 33.5	93.4 ± 66.6	19.8 ± 11.8	41.3 ± 31.2
Mn11_H607_2	13	210.0 ± 107.2	64.2 ± 51.3	1.2 ± 0.3	65.2 ± 36.1	-26.2 ± 19.5	19.9 ± 24.3	95.1 ± 79.1	21.0 ± 12.5	8.3 ± 17.8
Mn11_H002	57	217.0 ± 107.2	51.9 ± 41.6	1.3 ± 0.3	63.8 ± 45.3	-18.8 ± 9.3	24.8 ± 24.0	90.4 ± 67.0	15.7 ± 10.4	39.5 ± 31.0
Mn11_H405	24	333.7 ± 194.1	76.6 ± 44.4	1.9 ± 0.3	70.8 ± 36.3	-25.1 ± 12.0	31.9 ± 21.6	72.3 ± 36.9	25.2 ± 14.5	12.0 ± 11.2
Mn11_H489	0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Mn09_121	16	215.4 ± 79.0	48.9 ± 36.4	1.3 ± 0.2	77.0 ± 25.7	-28.9 ± 11.6	23.4 ± 15.4	126.6 ± 56.9	15.1 ± 7.6	58.4 ± 34.1
Mn09_122	48	138.6 ± 73.5	22.8 ± 14.2	1.3 ± 0.5	1.8 ± 27.6	-13.0 ± 11.2	4.7 ± 6.3	67.5 ± 38.6	14.3 ± 7.4	13.4 ± 14.5
Mn09_127a	134	299.1 ± 216.7	127.5 ± 116.7	1.4 ± 0.4	93.8 ± 69.2	-43.1 ± 20.7	9.4 ± 12.6	111.9 ± 86.8	38.5 ± 19.5	23.4 ± 22.9
Mn09_127b	29	211.9 ± 133.6	76.9 ± 71.3	1.8 ± 0.7	61.0 ± 41.5	-35.6 ± 8.7	13.0 ± 15.3	118.6 ± 68.8	9.1 ± 10.8	56.9 ± 27.7
Mn09_128	21	243.9 ± 133.9	32.0 ± 14.1	1.2 ± 0.3	81.1 ± 48.6	-27.2 ± 9.6	13.4 ± 18.2	110.8 ± 71.0	10.3 ± 13.6	29.7 ± 27.3
Mn09_136	101	459.3 ± 136.7	180.8 ± 75.9	1.2 ± 0.2	129.8 ± 51.7	-61.6 ± 15.2	17.0 ± 14.5	159.3 ± 56.3	55.7 ± 20.4	36.8 ± 15.8
Mn09_140	141	357.2 ± 181.2	68.8 ± 72.4	1.4 ± 0.4	89.8 ± 56.9	-23.3 ± 14.1	28.5 ± 20.4	99.2 ± 81.1	20.3 ± 11.6	42.3 ± 25.9
Mn09_148	308	127.4 ± 102.9	40.3 ± 34.9	1.6 ± 0.3	40.2 ± 26.9	-37.1 ± 17.3	5.9 ± 10.7	40.3 ± 31.1	29.7 ± 15.3	14.5 ± 22.5
Mn09_151	18	56.6 ± 29.5	175.9 ± 101.6	1.2 ± 0.6	56.6 ± 29.5	-24.0 ± 7.8	37.0 ± 27.0	97.9 ± 71.8	12.3 ± 10.3	43.5 ± 32.2
Mn09_152	326	118.1 ± 111.5	34.9 ± 30.4	1.3 ± 0.3	39.4 ± 34.1	-48.0 ± 17.6	12.5 ± 19.7	34.6 ± 31.6	29.6 ± 12.7	5.3 ± 12.4
Mn10_133	185	217.0 ± 99.5	76.1 ± 41.7	1.6 ± 0.3	72.2 ± 35.1	-40.0 ± 15.2	1.5 ± 4.6	73.0 ± 42.1	32.9 ± 13.2	10.6 ± 13.6
Mn10_139a	288	170.5 ± 112.3	58.7 ± 38.3	1.5 ± 0.2	36.6 ± 28.4	-53.7 ± 18.1	8.6 ± 17.2	56.1 ± 47.7	44.2 ± 15.0	8.5 ± 15.0
Mn10_139b	285	172.1 ± 100.3	45.8 ± 39.3	1.2 ± 0.3	58.6 ± 35.0	-33.0 ± 15.0	7.0 ± 13.5	70.5 ± 53.2	25.5 ± 14.5	22.3 ± 27.1

Mn10_143	286	173.1 ± 107.2	49.5 ± 43.8	1.4 ± 0.5	-54.3 ± 30.1	-32.6 ± 15.3	2.9 ± 7.1	62.4 ± 47.3	25.7 ± 13.6	11.7 ± 18.2
Mn10_144	342	140.8 ± 70.9	52.5 ± 26.1	1.6 ± 0.3	33.2 ± 14.9	-55.9 ± 19.3	4.7 ± 8.6	41.3 ± 24.2	41.0 ± 14.6	2.8 ± 9.1
Mn10_146	88	469.5 ± 147.6	192.5 ± 102.8	1.5 ± 0.3	119.1 ± 47.6	-56.6 ± 22.6	28.4 ± 9.7	143.0 ± 60.8	45.1 ± 26.1	43.6 ± 18.1
Mn10_151	265	191.1 ± 103.7	56.8 ± 41.2	1.4 ± 0.4	53.2 ± 26.6	-44.2 ± 22.4	37.9 ± 31.6	68.8 ± 38.0	29.8 ± 17.7	36.5 ± 33.1
Mn10_155a	153	288.1 ± 179.9	119.3 ± 122.1	1.4 ± 0.4	96.1 ± 73.3	-44.0 ± 21.1	7.9 ± 9.8	96.4 ± 69.6	29.3 ± 27.6	32.6 ± 26.3
Mn10_155b	246	184.2 ± 151.5	58.0 ± 77.1	1.6 ± 0.5	63.9 ± 64.3	-28.5 ± 10.8	5.0 ± 9.3	46.5 ± 43.8	23.1 ± 13.6	8.1 ± 12.4
<i>ALL</i>	3682	199.7 ± 150.1	64.0 ± 67.2	1.5 ± 0.4	58.6 ± 46.8	-39.8 ± 20.6	12.6 ± 20.0	68.1 ± 57.8	30.6 ± 22.4	18.8 ± 25.1

370 Mean ± standard deviation were shown. Dataset shaded with grey were not used for the Bayesian estimation due to insufficient number of 5-s

371 glides in the dataset.

372

373 Twenty-four of the 33 tag datasets (10 from the Gulf of St Lawrence and 14 from Antarctica)
374 were used to estimate tissue density and the other unknown parameters. Of the 12 Bayesian
375 models, the model with the lowest DIC indicated global plus individual variation in tissue
376 density and drag terms, and global plus dive-by-dive variability in diving lung volume (Table
377 3). The difference in DIC from the next-best model was 1657.5 units.
378

379 **Table 3. Model parameter values.**

<i>Model fit</i>	<i>Model structure</i>			<i>Global parameter estimates</i>					
DIC	ρ_{tissue}	C_DAm^{-1}	V_{air}	$\rho_{tissue.g}$	$\rho_{tissue.var}$	$C_DAm^{-1}.g$	$C_DAm^{-1}.var$	$V_{air}.g$	$V_{air}.var$
28301.1	I	I	D	1031.6 (2.1)	26.5 (17.2)	11.8 (1.6)	23.2 (16.4)	27.7 (1.1)	236.5 (33.4)
29958.6	I	G	D	1031.3 (2.1)	25.4 (16.2)	11.6 (0.1)		26.5 (1.1)	199.8 (25.6)
53399.8	G	I	D	1029.4 (0.02)		7.9 (3.2)	349.8 (369.6)	21.0 (1.4)	353.2 (57.2)
86274.2	G	G	D	1029.7 (0.02)		8.3 (0.1)		20.7 (1.5)	502.8 (89.2)
106380.0	I	I	I	1030.3 (1.8)	19.8 (11.8)	8.5 (2.5)	103.8 (86.0)	25.7 (7.2)	305.2 (288.2)
113957.5	I	G	I	1030.1(1.7)	17.3 (11.1)	9.3 (0.1)		23.5 (5.8)	193.1 (170.0)
120768.9	I	I	G	1029.0 (1.1)	6.5 (4.1)	6.7 (1.8)	39.7 (26.7)	15.6 (0.1)	
125832.6	G	I	I	1029.0 (0.02)		7.3 (3.2)	215.5 (240.8)	19.3 (6.5)	227.8 (238.8)
130603.2	I	G	G	1029.2 (1.13)	7.4 (4.5)	7.9 (0.1)		15.9 (0.1)	
159607.6	G	G	I	1029.2 (0.01)		6.9 (0.1)		24.5 (17.0)	1515.3 (2882.9)
264515.3	G	I	G	1028.1 (0.01)		6.7 (3.5)	1930.7 (7548.2)	8.6 (0.1)	
309390.4	G	G	G	1028.0 (0.01)		1.3 (0.04)		7.2 (0.1)	

380 Model structure refers to the allowed variation in the model for the unknown terms, with G referring to global (i.e. individual-average) parameter
381 only, I referring to individual specific estimates included, and D referring to dive-by-dive variation included. The column head refer to ρ_{tissue} as
382 tissue density (kg m^{-3}); C_DAm^{-1} as combined drag term ($\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$); V_{air} as volume of air (ml kg^{-1}). Data are presented with $\pm 95\%$ CI in parentheses.
383 For global parameter estimates, .g refers to the global parameter and .var refers to individual or dive-by-dive variance.

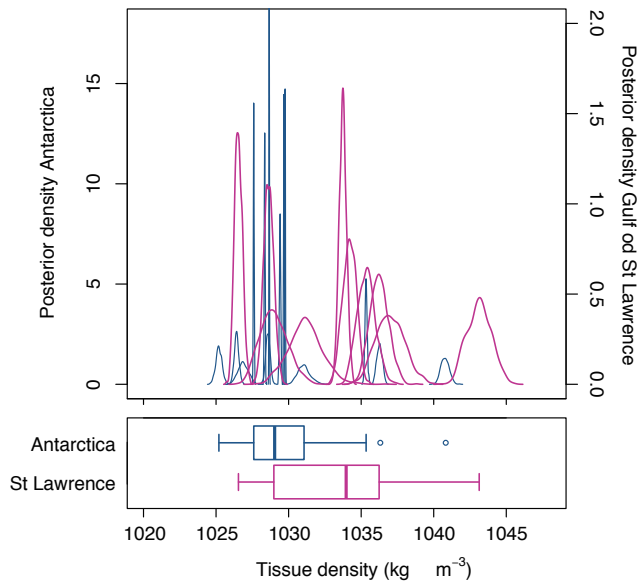
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385 The global body tissue density was estimated with a posterior 95% credible interval (CI) of
386 $1029.5 - 1033.6 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (mean = 1031.6 kg m^{-3}). Individual posterior mean values ranged
387 from 1025.2 to 1043.1 with $\pm 95\%$ CI of $0.04 - 2.3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. The 95% CI range for individual
388 tissue density estimates decreased with increasing number of 5-s sub-glides in the dataset
389 (Fig. 1b). There was no significant relationship between the 95% CI range and the average
390 depth at which the sub-glides occurred (Spearman's rank test, $p = 0.22$); depth of glides
391 ranged from 5.1 to 343.2 m with individual mean ranging 25.2 ± 10.8 to 97.3 ± 55.4 m. There
392 was a tendency for the 95% CI ranges to be smaller for the whales tagged in Antarctica using
393 DTAGs ($0.6 \pm 0.66 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) than in the Gulf of St Lawrence using 3MPD3GTs ($2.4 \pm 1.11 \text{ kg}$
394 m^{-3}). It is possible that different sampling frequencies and resolution of sensors as well as
395 speed determination methods (measured/estimated) of 3MPD3GTs and DTAGs might
396 influence the precision of tissue density estimates. Yet, the effect of the two different archival
397 tag models could not be fully addressed due to the differences in location itself and longer
398 data duration for the Antarctic DTAG dataset (22.9 ± 1.6 h) compared to the Gulf of St
399 Lawrence 3MPD3GT dataset (3.5 ± 1.5 h; Table 1).

400

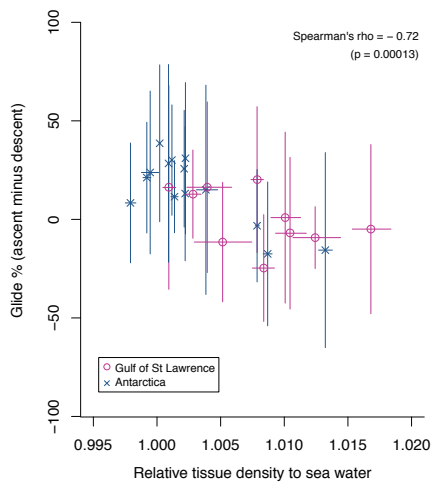
401 Whales in the Gulf of St Lawrence had relatively higher tissue density (median = 1034.0 kg
402 m^{-3} , range = $1026.5 - 1043.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) than Antarctic whales (median = 1029.0 kg m^{-3} , range =
403 $1025.2 - 1040.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) although there was high inter-individual variation within each
404 feeding population (Fig. 2). The posterior mean tissue density of the male Mn11_H607 that
405 was tagged twice in July and September 2011 in the Gulf of St Lawrence decreased by 5.8 kg
406 m^{-3} in 40 days (Table 1). Tissue densities of two pregnant females were estimated as the
407 lowest ($1026.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ for Mn11_H002) and the second lowest ($1028.6 \pm 0.7 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ for
408 Mn11_H584_2) among the whales from the Gulf of St Lawrence (Table 1). There was a
409 significant negative correlation between relative tissue density to seawater and percent time

410 spent gliding during ascent vs decent phases of non-feeding dives (Spearman's rho = -0.72, p
 411 <0.001; Fig. 3).



412

413 **Fig. 2 Tissue density estimates from the best model with the lowest DIC.** The top panel
 414 shows posterior distribution of individual body tissue density for each tag deployment. Blue
 415 and magenta lines indicate whales from Antarctica and the Gulf of St Lawrence, respectively.
 416 Box plots in the bottom panel show median and interquartile range of tissue density estimates
 417 from each location.



418

419 **Fig. 3 Relationship between gliding patterns and relative tissue density.** The y-axis
420 indicates differences in the percentage of time spent gliding during ascent and descent phases
421 of non-feeding dives by each whale. Vertical and horizontal error bars show standard
422 deviation and 95% credible interval range, respectively. A relative tissue density of >1
423 indicates that tissue density was denser than surrounding seawater.

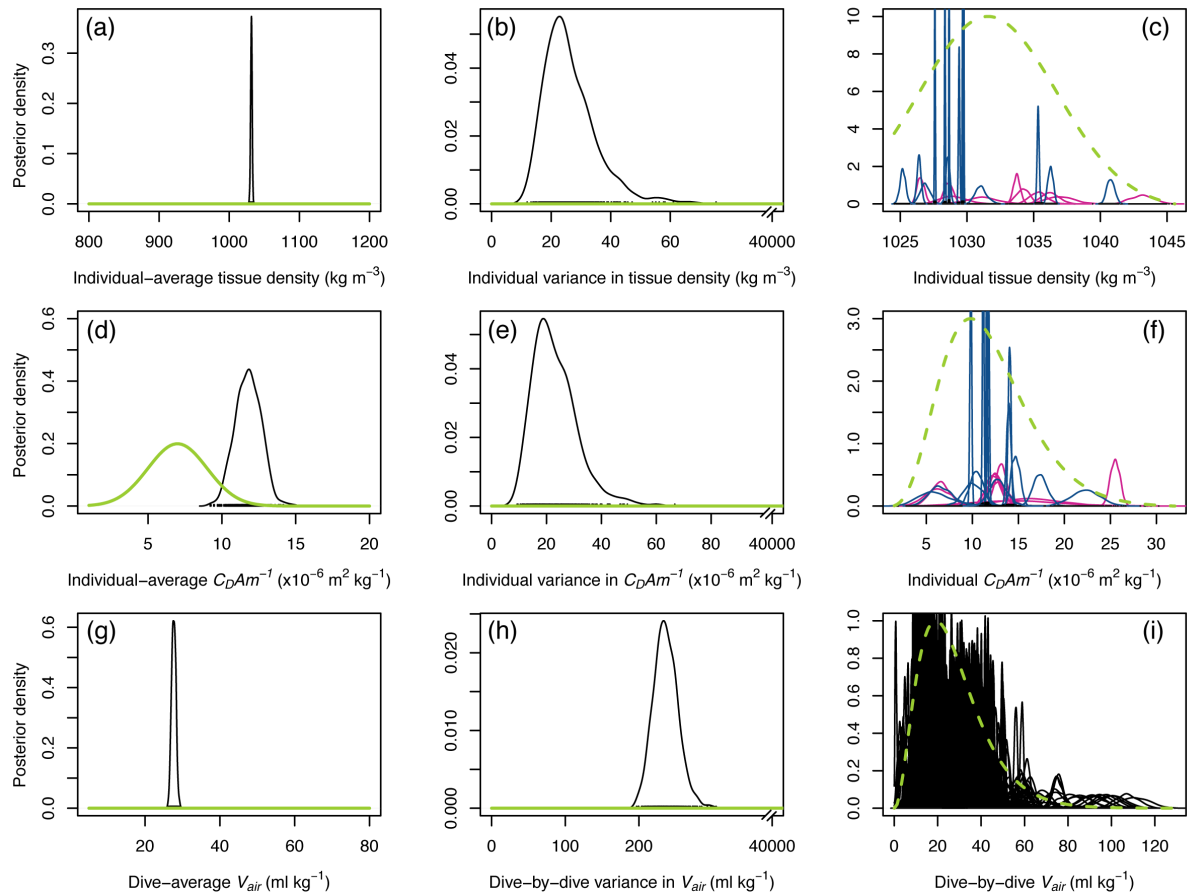
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425

426 The posterior mean of the global drag term was $11.8 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ($\pm 95\%$ CI).
427 The posterior mean was higher and the distribution had little overlap with the prior
428 distribution that had a mean of $7.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4). The posterior means of individual
429 drag term values ranged from 6.0×10^{-6} to $25.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$, but most of them were near
430 $12.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Table 1). The posterior mean of global diving gas volume was 27.7 ± 1.1
431 ml kg^{-1} ($\pm 95\%$ CI).

432

433 The best-fitting model with the lowest DIC evaluated dive-by-dive variation in diving gas
434 volume. The dive-by-dive estimates of diving gas volume ranged from 0.03 to 129.2 ml kg^{-1} ,
435 but 90% of the estimates were within 9.2 – 53.5 ml kg^{-1} . Diving gas volume was estimated
436 slightly higher for feeding dives with more than 1 lunge (median = 26.3 ml kg^{-1} , range = 2.6 –
437 110.8 ml kg^{-1}) than other dives (median = 21.3 ml kg^{-1} , range = 0.8 – 97.5 ml kg^{-1} ; Wilcoxon
438 rank sum test, $p = 0.021$). Weak correlations between diving gas volume and dive depth were
439 observed for both feeding (Spearman's $\rho = 0.09$, $p = 0.036$, $N = 515$) and non-feeding dives
440 (Spearman's $\rho = 0.21$, $p < 0.001$, $N = 252$). However, no apparent relationships between
441 diving gas volume and dive duration were observed for feeding (Spearman's $\rho = 0.02$, $p =$
442 0.58 , $N = 515$) or non-feeding dives (Spearman's $\rho = 0.05$, $p = 0.45$, $N = 252$).



443

444 **Fig. 4 Prior and posterior distributions from the model with lowest DIC (Table 3).** Prior

445 and posterior distributions of tissue density (a, b, c), drag term (d, e, f) and diving gas volume

446 (g, h, i) are shown in each panel. Solid green and black lines indicate the prior and posterior

447 distributions, respectively. Dashed green lines show the estimated global distribution that can

448 be interpreted as the population distribution for that parameter. The left and middle panels

449 show global parameters (a, b, d, e, g, h) and the right parameters show individual and dive-

450 specific parameters.

451

452

453 Discussion

454 To date, the hydrodynamic glide model has been used to estimate tissue density of deep

455 diving marine mammals such as elephant seals, sperm whales, northern bottlenose whales and

456 long-finned pilot whales [15, 34, 38, 47]. In this study, we successfully applied this method to
457 substantially shallower-diving humpback whales to estimate tissue density from two
458 geographically distinct feeding populations. To examine the variability of the unknown
459 parameters (tissue density, drag and diving gas volume), we fitted 12 models with different
460 model structures. The best model included individual variation in tissue density and drag,
461 supporting our expectation that each whale had different tissue density. The best-fitting model
462 also included dive-by-dive variation in diving gas volume. Although there was no apparent
463 overall relationship between diving gas volume and dive duration, it is possible that whales
464 change the amount of inhaled air before dives depending on their activity [15]. The gliding
465 patterns of whales correlated with their estimated tissue density, with denser whales spending
466 relatively more time gliding during descent and less-dense whales spending more timing
467 gliding during ascent phases (Fig. 3). The significant correlation of tissue density and gliding
468 patterns provides a degree of validation that the tissue density estimates, or at least their
469 relative values, were accurate.

470

471 **Drag term estimates**

472 The drag coefficient is one of the key parameters to estimate tissue density using the
473 hydrodynamic glide model. Following Miller et al. [15], the combined drag term ($C_D A m^{-1}$)
474 was estimated using a relatively narrow Gaussian prior that was determined based on
475 auxiliary published data in order to improve the precision of tissue density estimates.
476 However, the global (individual-average) estimate of the drag term in the best-fitting model
477 ($11.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$) did not concentrate within the distribution of the prior ($7.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$).
478

479

480 As in previous studies [15, 34, 38], we neglected any specific effect of lift, although lift-
 481 related induced drag may not be negligible in the case of humpback whales due to their large
 482 pectoral flippers [48] and propensity to glide at shallow angles. It is possible that the influence
 483 of induced drag due to lift generation may explain the mismatch of the prior expectation of
 484 the combined drag term and its posterior estimate from the data. Adding the induced drag to
 485 the hydrodynamic glide model, the drag part of the equation can be expressed as

$$-0.5\rho_{sw} \frac{C_D A}{m} v^2 - 0.5\rho_{sw} \frac{A_{Flipper} C_L^2}{\pi AR m} v^2$$

486 where $A_{Flipper}$ is flipper surface area (m^2), AR is flipper aspect ratio and C_L is the lift
 487 coefficient [59]. Because both the parasite drag and the induced drag are a function of speed-
 488 squared, the equation can be rewritten as

$$-0.5\rho_{sw} \left(\frac{C_D \cdot A}{m} + \frac{A_{Flipper} \cdot C_L^2}{\pi \cdot AR \cdot m} \right) v^2$$

489 Thus, the structure of the equation is unchanged just with the addition of induced drag to that
 490 of the parasite drag term $C_D A m^{-1}$.

491

492 We suggest that the model estimated higher global $C_D A m^{-1}$ values due to the effect of induced
 493 drag by assuming that the model estimated the combined term in parenthesis, instead of the
 494 parasite drag term ($C_D A m^{-1}$) alone. The lift coefficient of a humpback whale flipper is
 495 estimated as 0 – 0.9 through wind tunnel measurements [60]. Based upon literature values for
 496 the surface area ($A_{Flipper}$, 12.20 m^2) and the aspect ratio (AR , 5.67) of a humpback whale
 497 flipper [48], $A_{Flipper} C_L^2 / (\pi AR m)$ is estimated as 0 – 22 $\times 10^{-5}$ for a 12-m long whale. Adding
 498 this value to 7 $\times 10^{-6}$ (i.e. mean of the $C_D A m^{-1}$ prior), the combined drag term in the
 499 parenthesis is expected to range between 7 $\times 10^{-6}$ and 29 $\times 10^{-6} m^2 kg^{-1}$ which overlaps with
 500 the global drag term estimates in this study ($11.8 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.6 \times 10^{-6} m^2 kg^{-1}$, $\pm 95\%$ CI). This

501 suggests that the mismatch between the prior and $C_D A m^{-1}$ estimates derived from the addition
502 of the induced drag and that lift-related drag forces should not be ignored for this species.

503

504 In comparison with deeper diving marine mammals in previous studies [15, 34], the effect of
505 lift seems particularly important for humpback whales that glide at shallower pitch angles
506 (Table 2) where lift generation increases with correspondingly greater induced drag.
507 Humpback whales have large flipper with a high aspect ratio that can produce lift forces to
508 support their acrobatic movements such as high-speed turning and banking that are associated
509 with feeding [48, 61]. In addition, the scalloped leading edge of their large flippers serves to
510 delay stall angles and increase lift [60, 62]. Recent studies using animal-borne video camera
511 reported that humpback whales also perform lift-generating flipper strokes for propulsion
512 during lunge feeding [63]. In our study, we only used data during stable glides (circular
513 variance of roll < 0.1) to minimize the influence of lift during maneuvering. However, the
514 influence of lift-induced drag is detectable in our dataset possibly because humpback whales
515 likely use their wing-like flippers to produce lift during stable glides at non-vertical pitch
516 angles. Yet, it is noteworthy that our general results about tissue density seem to be robust
517 because the model quantified the combined effect of parasite and induced drag. As a
518 sensitivity analysis, we refitted the model using a non-informative wide range prior for the
519 drag term instead of a narrow Gaussian prior. The resulting global average drag term was 13.1
520 $\times 10^{-6} \pm 2.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and global average tissue density was $1031.6 \pm 2.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, which
521 differed very little from the estimated values with a narrow prior. Similarly, individual tissue
522 density estimates were nearly identical to the result of our original model, supporting the
523 robustness of the tissue density estimates to the prior specification. Thus, the general results
524 about tissue density seem to be robust because the model appears to have estimated a
525 reasonable value for the combined effect of parasite and induced drag.

526

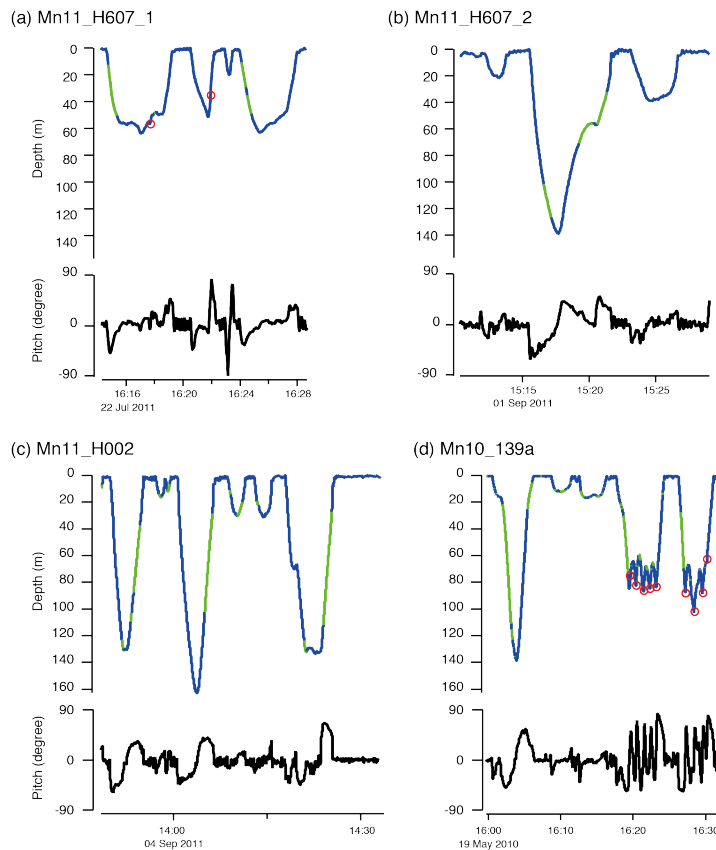
527 **Body tissue density**

528 Estimated individual-average (global) body tissue density of humpback whales (1031.6 ± 2.1
529 kg m^{-3} ; Table 3) was similar to that of other cetaceans reported to date ($1030.0 \pm 0.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$
530 for *Physeter macrocephalus* [38]; $1031.5 \pm 1.0 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ for *Hyperoodon ampullatus* [15]),
531 indicating that non-gas body tissues are typically denser than seawater. However, long-finned
532 pilot whales were estimated to have even denser tissues of $1038.8 \pm 1.60 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ [47]. For
533 humpback whales in this study, a large variation was detected in individual-specific body
534 tissue density ranging from 1025.2 to 1043.1 kg m^{-3} , as we expected, because individual
535 tissue density at feeding grounds would change depending on factors such as age, sex,
536 reproductive status, prey availability and the number of days since arrival at the feeding
537 ground [4, 6, 18, 24]. In a study of fin whales conducted using Icelandic whaling data,
538 pregnant females had the highest rate of fattening during the feeding season as they increased
539 their total body energy content by nearly 80% [4]. A similar trend was reported for minke
540 whales (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata*) in Iceland: the blubber volume of pregnant females
541 almost doubled over the feeding season [24]. Using the hydrodynamic glide model, high
542 lipid-stores of two pregnant female humpback whales (Mn11_H002 and Mn11_H584_2) were
543 indicated by low tissue density estimates of 1026.5 kg m^{-3} and 1028.6 kg m^{-3} that were the
544 lowest and the second lowest, respectively, among all of the tagged whales in the Gulf of St
545 Lawrence. A decrease in tissue density over the feeding season due to accumulation of lipid
546 stores was also detected in this study: tissue density of a repeated sampled adult male
547 (Mn11_H607) decreased from 1037.0 to 1031.2 kg m^{-3} in 40 days. Based on extrapolation
548 from elephant seals, the proportion of lipid content (P_{lipid}) corresponding to these tissue
549 densities of Mn11_H607 would be 36.3% and 39.0%, as determined from $\rho_{tissue} =$
550 $\rho_{lipid}P_{lipid} + \rho_{lipid-free}(1 - P_{lipid})$, where ρ_{lipid} and $\rho_{lipid-free}$ are 900.7 and 1114.6 kg m^{-3} , respectively

551 [34]. Our results also showed that one of the two calves had low body tissue density of 1025.2
552 kg m^{-3} (Mn10_155b) in agreement with general expectation that calves are more buoyant
553 because they deposit fat during the lactation period [64]. The other calf (Mn10_139a),
554 however, had relatively high tissue density of 1040.8 kg m^{-3} that was supported by its gliding
555 pattern suggestive of negative buoyancy: the whale spent more time gliding during descent
556 (61.3%) than ascent (45.7%) phases of non-feeding dives (Fig. 5d). It is possible that
557 Mn10_139a had a poor body condition, reflecting its mother's poor condition indicated by its
558 relatively high body density (Mn10_139b, 1029.4 kg m^{-3}) compared to the other mother in the
559 study (Mn10_155a, 1027.6 kg m^{-3}).

560 During the feeding season, it is essential for humpback whales to accumulate a sufficient
561 amount of energy for survival, growth and/or reproduction. Previous studies estimated the
562 amount of energy gained by baleen whales over the course of a feeding season via anatomical
563 measurements and chemical analysis of multiple whale carcasses [4, 21]. More recent work
564 has described dynamic foraging patterns of whales throughout the course of the foraging
565 season suggesting that whales alter their feeding behaviour (rates and dive depth)
566 commensurate with changes in the availability of prey [65]. This could lead to non-linear
567 changes in the accumulation of energy, and, combined with body density estimates collected
568 over similar time periods, can offer insights as to the most critical times and locations for
569 whales to regain energy stores and how different life history classes vary. This information is
570 critical to understanding how environmental changes and potential human disturbance can
571 significantly impact individual and population-level health of marine mammals and other
572 animals.

573



574

575 **Fig. 5 Example data records for dive profile and pitch.** Dive profile with gliding and
 576 stroking periods are indicated in green and blue, respectively. Red circles indicate feeding
 577 events. Examples are taken from an adult male during (a) early feeding season (tissue density
 578 = 1037.0 kg m^{-1}) and (b) late feeding season (1031.2 kg m^{-1}), (c) a pregnant female (1026.5
 579 kg m^{-1}) and (d) a calf (1040.8 kg m^{-1}).

580

581 Changes in tissue density lead to changes in buoyancy that influence swimming patterns of
 582 diving animals given strong selection for them to travel efficiently to and from depth [33, 39].
 583 For example, it is expected that animals with higher density should glide more during descent
 584 aided by negative buoyancy whereas less dense positively buoyant animals should employ
 585 more glides during ascent. In agreement with the expectation, a negative correlation between
 586 tissue density estimates and percent time spent gliding during ascent vs. descent phases of
 587 non-feeding dives was observed (Fig. 3), suggesting that the model successfully detected

588 relative differences in individual tissue density. Because there is greater variability in tissue
589 density of humpback whales than deep diving toothed whales [15, 38, 54], the relatively low
590 precision of tissue density estimates obtained here ($\pm 95\%$ CI of individual tissue density
591 ranged up to 2.3 in this study whereas to 0.4 in [15]) seem to be sufficient to detect individual
592 and/or temporal variation. Lower precision tissue density estimates may be expected if there
593 is high variability in acceleration that is not accounted for in the model. Therefore, sample
594 size is particularly important to consider for the body density estimation of humpback whales
595 for which induced drag may cause variability in gliding acceleration. The result showed that
596 the number of 5-s sub-glides in each dataset is one of the key factors affecting the range of
597 95% CI for the posterior estimates of individual tissue density. Specifically for humpback
598 whales, >200 sub-glides in each dataset seem to be needed to obtain highly precise estimates
599 with 95% CI range of 1 kg m^{-3} (Fig. 1b).

600

601 In this study, we estimated tissue density of humpback whales at two geographically distinct
602 feeding grounds. Tissue density of whales from Antarctica and Gulf of St Lawrence largely
603 overlapped, but there was a tendency for Antarctic whales to have lower tissue density (Fig.
604 2), indicating that animals in that location at that time had larger lipid reserves than did the
605 animals tagged in Canada. It is possible that the geographic differences reflected different
606 temperature and prey conditions on two feeding grounds. However, as numerous factors can
607 affect individual tissue density, more data, including basic information of individuals such as
608 sex, age class and reproductive status that can be obtained from photo-ID and biopsy studies
609 would be essential to identify factors that cause these geographic differences.

610

611 The methods used in this study closely followed methods published for other deep-diving
612 odontocete species. Some studies used an estimated value of 0.06 for the entrained mass of

613 water m_e which is moved forward along with the body of the animal [38]. Because we did not
614 have specific measurements of animal mass in this study, we also did not include estimates
615 for entrained mass. We also do not expect addition of a constant mass proportion of mass to
616 all estimates would affect their relative values. However, the absolute values obtained in this
617 study could be made more accurate with finer estimates of the length, mass and surface area
618 of each whale as was done using photogrammetry by Miller et al. [38]. We do recommend
619 incorporation of such data when available, and to include estimates of entrained mass to
620 obtain accurate absolute values of tissue body density.

621

622 **Diving gas volume**

623 The posterior mean of global (dive-average) diving gas volume was $27.7 \pm 1.1 \text{ ml kg}^{-1}$ ($\pm 95\%$
624 CI). This value is substantially lower than the estimated lung volumes of mysticete fin (29 –
625 61 ml kg^{-1}) and sei (*Balaenoptera borealis*) whales (116 – 151 ml kg^{-1}), whose lung volumes
626 were measured via inflation of excised lungs [66, 67]. This could indicate that: 1) lung
627 volumes of mysticete whales are smaller than estimated from excised lungs in which some
628 amount of air is likely to be trapped [46]. Piscitelli et al. [67] noted that the mass specific
629 volume of sei whales from that study were outliers on a comparative basis relative to smaller
630 cetaceans; 2) humpback whales in this study dove with less than their full lung capacity; or 3)
631 our estimate was incorrect and too low.

632

633 As cetaceans appear to inhale immediately prior to diving, the diving volume of cetaceans is
634 thought to be close to the total lung volume [68]. In fact, the calculated diving lung volume of
635 deep-diving northern bottlenose whales (27 ml kg^{-1} , [15]) was similar to the measured total
636 lung volume of 28 ml kg^{-1} ([69] reviewed in [68]). However, shallower diving species may
637 not always dive with full lungs; for example, the diving lung volume and the total lung

638 volume of bottlenose dolphins are 40-50 ml kg⁻¹ [70] and 50-91 ml kg⁻¹, respectively
639 (reviewed by [67]). Differences in lung sizes and thoracic morphology of shallow and deep
640 diving cetaceans have been reported [46]. As the effect of air-derived buoyancy is stronger at
641 shallower depth, it is possible that shallower-diving whales do not always dive with full lung
642 capacity. A large variation in dive-by-dive estimates of diving gas volume found in this study
643 and, albeit weak, the positive relationship between diving gas volume and dive depth would
644 support this hypothesis. While no systematic variation of diving gas volume in relation to dive
645 duration was detected, further detailed analysis of dive-by-dive variation in diving gas volume
646 could provide new insights into their diving physiology.

647

648 Another possible explanation for the low estimate of diving gas volume is that the amount of
649 gas stored in the body might decrease during dives. It has been reported that humpback
650 whales actively exhale underwater in some situations. For example, humpback whales have a
651 diverse repertoire of feeding behaviours, including “bubble feeding” that involves underwater
652 exhalation to form bubble clouds, nets or curtains to corral prey [61, 71]. Bubbling is also
653 observed in non-feeding situations such as play [71] and social interactions [72]. Although
654 apparent bubbling was not detected from acoustic audits of the DTAG datasets in this study, it
655 is possible that some air might passively escape from the body during dives.. If such
656 underwater exhalation and/or passive loss of air occurred, our estimate of diving gas volume
657 would be too low because the majority of the glides used in the analysis were recorded during
658 ascent phases of dives, and thereby the estimate reflects the amount of gas in the body at latter
659 part of dives.

660

661 **Conclusion and future directions**

662 We demonstrated that the hydrodynamic glide model can be used to detect individual and
663 temporal variation in body tissue density of humpback whales, suggesting that it is likely to
664 be broadly applicable across a range of aquatic animals including shallow diving baleen
665 whales. The important next step is validation with other techniques such as visual assessment
666 [28, 29], biopsy sample measurements, and photogrammetric measurements of body width
667 versus length using overhead images [11, 30].

668

669 This study represents a cross-sectional design, in which the tissue densities of multiple
670 animals were measured. Longitudinal tracking of changes in individuals' tissue density as has
671 been done with elephant seals drift dives [5], or repeated measurements as we made for whale
672 Mn11_H607, may be a more powerful approach to determine specific factors that affect the
673 lipid-store body condition of humpback whales. Considering that humpback whales are less
674 difficult to tag such that multiple tagging of the same individual is possible, this tag-based
675 minimally invasive approach may provide an effective tool to monitor body tissue density as a
676 measure of body condition. By integrating life-history data of individuals (e.g. age, sex, size,
677 reproductive status) as well as prey availability at feeding grounds, this approach can be
678 helpful to understand bioenergetics and health of individual whales within increasingly
679 human-altered ecosystems. Ultimately, tracking the tissue density of individual whales using
680 longer duration tags could be a powerful technique to relate their body condition to how they
681 interact with features of their natural environment.

682

683

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690

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884 **Supporting Information**

885 **S1 Fig. Examples of linear regression of speed over time to estimate acceleration during**
886 **5s sub-glides.** Linear regression of speed over time was conducted at each 5s sub-glide to
887 estimate acceleration as a slope of the regression line. Top and bottom panels show examples
888 from 3MPD3GT and DTAG deployments, respectively.

889

890 **S1 File. Data of all 5-s sub glides performed by tagged humpback whales.** This file
891 includes all 5-s sub glides data used in this study.