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### Ontogeny and synchrony of diving behavior in Humpback whale mothers and calves on their breeding ground

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For humpback whales, the mother-calf pair is the only stable social unit with calves following 16 their mother soon after birth and staving in close proximity. This following strategy ensures 17 the maintenance of such close proximity between the mother and her calf, with calves 18 benefiting from maternal protection and care. Using multi-sensor tags, we recorded the diving 19 behavior of calves at 3 different age-classes (C1, C2, C3) to assess how calves developed in 20 their natural environment at an early stage of their life. From 29 deployments on calves, we 21 22 extracted the diving metrics from two C1 neonate calves, eight C2 calves and nineteen C3 calves, and we found that some diving metrics (dive duration, time at bottom, maximal depth 23 or maximal dive duration) differed among calves' age classes. On 23 tagged mothers, we 24 25 analyzed if their diving profiles also varied depending on calf's age class. We showed that only two dive metrics of mothers varied with the age of their own calves (time spent at the 26 bottom, and time interval between dives), but all others were not reliant on the calf's age. 27 28 Simultaneous deployments on seven mother-calf pairs in 2016 and 2017 revealed highly synchronized dives, with mothers leading the diving pattern. This work represents an 29 extensive study investigating the diving behavior in humpback whale mother-calf pairs on 30 their breeding ground. 31

Key Words: breeding ground, diving behavior, humpback whale, mother-calf interaction,ontogeny.

Maternal strategies in mammals are diverse. Indeed, either mothers hide their young 34 35 and leave them alone in a safe place while they forage (i.e., hiding strategy), or they travel with their young within close proximity (i.e., following strategy) (Lent 1974). The following 36 strategy can be found in both terrestrial mammals (in ungulates, Lent 1974; in macropods, 37 Fisher et al. 2002) and marine mammals (in humpback whale Megaptera novaeangliae, Szabo 38 and Duffus 2008; in odontocetes, Mann 2019). Neonates will follow their mothers after birth 39 and such spatial proximity persists until weaning when they separate permanently (Lent 40 1974). Such close proximity between the neonate and its mother benefits both the young and 41 the mother. The young benefits from continuous maternal care (nursing and protection against 42 43 predators), while the female is able to continue travelling and feeding activities (Lent 1974; Szabo and Duffus 2008). In cetaceans, the following strategy is possible as cetacean neonates 44 are precocial and thus have the abilities to swim, dive and nurse without physical support 45 46 from their mother soon after birth (Szabo & Duffus 2008, Mann 2019). Swimming and nursing behaviors have been well documented in odontocetes (Mann & Smuts 1999, Noren 47 2008, Sakai et al. 2013). Infant position is defined as the position where the calf usually 48 swims in a close position to its mother (calf being less than 2m from its mother, Mann and 49 Smuts 1999). In mysticete species, the swimming positions of calves and their close proximity 50 51 to their mothers have been described for southern right whales, *Eubalaena australis* (Taber & Thomas 1982), grey whales, *Eschrichtius robustus* (Swartz 2018) and humpback whales 52 (Szabo & Duffus 2008, Saloma et al. 2018). 53

Observational studies of humpback whales in both breeding and foraging grounds
document calves staying within close proximity of their mothers (Szabo & Duffus 2008,
Cartwright & Sullivan 2009, Zoidis 2014). Spatial proximity decreases with age when calves
become more independent and have improved motor skills (Szabo and Duffus 2008). Previous
studies on calves diving and surfacing behavior have been assessed using surface observations

from boats following animals or from snorkelers/divers swimming near focal animals (Zoidis
et al. 2008, Cartwright & Sullivan 2009).

The development of miniature, multi-sensor tags deployed on whales have allowed 61 researchers to investigate natural behaviors freely in their environment and without the 62 63 presence of a boat and/or of humans (Cooke et al. 2004, Donaldson et al. 2014, Hussey et al. 2015, Lennox et al. 2017). These animal-borne devices allow researchers to collect 64 information on whale various behaviors (e.g. vocal communication, foraging, mating, 65 66 navigation, predator avoidance...) and migration (Johnson et al. 2009). Tagging large adult whales induces some stress and reactions however these reactions have been mostly reported 67 to be mild and short-term for tags with suction cups (Hooker & Baird 2001, Johnson et al. 68 2009). Tagging young animals is less common for cetaceans however, if the tagging process 69 is performed with a conservative approach and limited animals' disturbance as reported by 70 Stimpert and colleagues (2012), the knowledge gained by tagging calves is highly valuable 71 (Tyson et al. 2012, Videsen et al. 2017). 72

Understanding of mother-calf diving behavior during the early stage of calf's age is 73 biologically important. This is a critical period during which the calf develops a strong bond 74 75 with its mother and acquires essential respiratory and motor skills before the long migration to 76 their foraging grounds. While diving ontogeny related to their feeding activities has already 77 been investigated in foraging grounds (Szabo and Duffus 2008; Tyson et al 2012), less is 78 known about diving behavior and diving ontogeny in breeding areas (Stimpert et al. 2012). In the present study, we investigated the diving behavior of humpback whale calves and mothers 79 between 2013 and 2017 on the breeding ground off Sainte Marie Island, Madagascar. We 80 81 deployed multi-sensor tags on calves of different ages and on adult mothers accompanied by calves of different ages. We also investigated mother-calf pair diving patterns during 82 simultaneous tagging sessions to better understand the diving dynamics of the pairs. We 83

84	aimed to determine (a) if the diving behavior of calves and mothers vary with the calf's age,
85	and (b) if mother-calf pairs synchronize their dives.
86	
87	MATERIALS AND METHODS
88	Study site and animals.—Acoustic and diving data were collected during five successive
89	winters from 2013 to 2017 during the breeding season in the Sainte Marie channel, North-East
90	of Madagascar (49°50' E-50°10 E, 16°60'S-17°55' S). The Sainte Marie channel is a
91	relatively shallow channel showing a maximal depth at 60 meters and an average depth
92	between 25 to 35 meters (Trudelle et al. 2018).
93	Age-classes of calves were estimated by both their skin characteristics and the
94	inclination of the dorsal fin. Descriptions of newborn calf characteristics in the Sainte-Marie
95	channel have documented newborn dorsal fins as completely unfurled and lying to one side at
96	birth, with fluke tips curled (Faria et al. 2013). Calf dorsal fins straighten as they get older
97	(Cartwright and Sullivan 2009). For this study, three relative age-classes were considered as
98	follows; C1: neonates with some fetal folds, scars on different body parts, skin color light
99	grey on the dorsal side and white ventrally, with the dorsal fin completely furled (Faria et al.
100	2013) or semi furled with the fin at an angle less than 44° (Saloma, pers. com.). C2: calves
101	with dorsal fins unfurled at an angle more than 45° but less than 62°, and C3: older calves
102	with dorsal fins unfurled between 72° to fully erected fin (90°) (Cartwright and Sullivan
103	2009). From our dataset, C1 calves showed an inclination angle ranging between 32° and 35°
104	(n=2), C2 calves between $45^{\circ}$ and $62^{\circ}$ (n=10), and C3 calves between $72^{\circ}$ and $87^{\circ}$ (n=36).
105	Tagging procedure.—Tagging mother-calf pairs, especially groups with neonate
106	calves requires a strategic approach. Passive and active approach methods were used
107	depending on mother-calf behavior (static or slow travelling), as well as the choice of the
108	targeted individual to tag within the group (mother or calf). Passive approach, drifting with

the current, previously described by Stimpert et al. (2012) is most effective in limiting the 109 disturbance of mother-calf pairs. This approach was used when groups were static or when 110 calves were observed alone at the surface. If the pairs were travelling slowly, the boat was 111 placed parallel to them at the same speed and within visual range of the mother. The animal 112 closest to the boat was then tagged. For simultaneous tagging, mothers and calves were 113 tagged either during the same approach (this involved two researchers) or if the double 114 tagging was unsuccessful, a second approach was required. The maximum time spent with 115 each pair (i.e. time spent attempting to tag the animals) never exceeded 30 minutes, following 116 official Madagascar's agreement for mother and calf observations (inter-ministerial decree 117 118 March 8<sup>th</sup> 2000). As soon as the tag(s) were attached to the animal(s), the vessel slowly moved away in an opposite direction to avoid any further disturbance to the pair. All mother-119 calf pairs were photo-identified to avoid double-sampling within the breeding season. 120 The tags used in this study were two Acousonde 3B. The Acousonde (Acoustimetrics, 121 Santa Barbara, California) is a miniature, self-contained, autonomous acoustic/ultrasonic 122 recorder designed for underwater applications. Acousondes were deployed on mothers and/or 123 calves using a non-invasive attachment system (suction cups). Since mother-calf pairs were 124 not followed after tagging, each Acousonde was coupled with a VHF emitter (ATS F1835B, 125 126 Advanced Telemetry System, Isanti, Minnesota) in order to retrieve the tag once detached from the animal using a VHF receiver (ATS R410, Advanced Telemetry System, Isanti, 127 Minnesota) connected to an antenna. The duration of the attachment on the animal varied 128 greatly among individuals from 30 minutes to up to 35 hours (Fig. 1). 129 All procedures involving live animals followed the American Society of 130 Mammalogists guidelines (Sikes et al. 2016) and were approved by the Ministry of Fisheries 131 Resources, Madagascar under national research permits n° 44/13, 44/14, 46/15, 28/16, 26/17 132

133 MRHP/DGPRH.

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Data collection and analysis. - Pressure sensor (resolution: 1.2 cm) was recorded at a 135 10 Hz frequency sampling rate and down-sampled at 1Hz for automatic analyses. In 2016, we 136 used a second Acousonde 3B that allowed us to tag both the mother and the calf of a given 137 pair. Diving profiles were extracted from the pressure data using a custom routine in Matlab 138 version r2016b. In order to compare with previous studies on diving behavior of humpback 139 whale calves, a dive was considered as an excursion below 2m with the animal reaching a 10-140 m threshold during its excursion (10m corresponding to approximately 2 body lengths of a 141 calf), as described in Stimpert et al. 2012. Such criterion was used for both mothers and calves 142 143 to enable comparisons, and allowed us to exclude all sub-surface activities (0-5m, as shown on Figure 4.A1) from our analysis, and thus we analyzed only dives deeper than 10m. 144 To characterize the dives, we chose some of the dive metrics proposed by Hooker and 145 Baird (2001) to describe cetacean dive behavior and those previously used for humpback 146 whale calves (Stimpert et al. 2012). For automatic dive detection and slope computations, 147 diving data were low-pass filtered (low pass filter frequency: 0.25Hz). We then extracted the 148 following dive metrics: number of dives per hour (Dhour, in nb/h), maximum dive duration 149 (maxDur, in s), maximum dive depth (maxDep, in m), surface time ratio (SurfaceR, in %), 150 151 dive duration (diveDur, in s), dive depth (diveDep, in m), bottom time (BotDur, in s), postdive surface interval (PostDSI, in sec), ascent slope (AscSlope, in m.s<sup>-1</sup>), descent slope 152 (DesSlope, in m.s<sup>-1</sup>). The first four parameters (Dhour, maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR) were 153 extracted from each deployment, and averaged values over individuals across age classes (C1, 154 C2, C3 for calves, and M-C1, M-C2, M-C3 for mothers accompanied with C1, C2 and C3 155 calves respectively) are given in the results section. For the last six parameters (diveDur, 156 diveDep, BotDur, postDSI, AscSlope, DesSlope), values were extracted from each single 157 dive. All dive metrics are summarized in Table 1. 158

Dive duration was defined as the time spent below the 2m/10m threshold. Dive depth represented the deepest point of each dive. The bottom time was defined as the time spent at >85% of the maximal dive depth for each dive. Post-dive surface interval was computed as the time between each dive (calculated from 2m). Descent slopes were computed from the point at which the whale starts a dive (below 2 meters) down to the first deepest point (if a plateau was observed during the dive). Ascent slopes were computed from the last deepest point to the end of the dive (above 2 meters).

Finally, during the 2016 and 2017 breeding seasons, we tagged both mother and calf of a given pair to investigate their diving pattern. This allowed us to assess if there were similarities in their diving profiles and the occurrence of diving synchrony. We also assessed if the mother or the calf initiated the dives.

We measured the averaged values of 11 dive metrics for each calf and mother: the 170 number of dives performed during the overlap duration (Nb dives), the number of mother's 171 dive during which the calf returned to surface (MDCsurface), the maximum dive duration 172 (maxDur, in s), the maximum and modal dive depth (maxDep and modDep, in m), the 173 duration at bottom (BotDur, in s), dive per hour (Dhour, in nb/h), post-dive surface interval 174 175 (PostDSI, in s), vertical speed for both ascent and descent (AscSlope, DesSlope, in m/s) and the percentage of time spent at the surface (SurfaceR, in %). Depth difference between mother 176 and calf was computed by subtracting mother and calf diving profiles at each point in time, 177 and referred to as "vertical distance". Note that "vertical distance" is not equivalent to 178 Euclidian distance as it only refers to the vertical axis. From all the extracted values, 179 histograms were computed using either all the values (in order to assess the vertical distance 180 distribution) or only at the maximal depth of each calf's dive (in order to assess the 181 distribution of the relative depth of calves and mothers). 182

183

184	Statistical analysis. —From the six dive metrics measured on all dives (diveDur,
185	diveDep, BotDur, postDSI, AscSlope, DesSlope) obtained during the five successive breeding
186	seasons, we investigated if the dive characteristics for calves different among the three
187	different age classes. For each dive metric we performed a linear mixed model (lmer function,
188	lmerTest package) with the calf's age-class as a fixed factor and identity of the tagged
189	individual as a random factor. For the four dive metrics (Dhour, maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR)
190	we averaged the total duration of the deployment and performed Welch ANOVAs. Post-hoc
191	tests were performed when a dive metric significantly differed among age-classes to assess
192	pairwise comparisons (Tukey's tests, multcomp R package, and Games-Howell test,
193	userfriendlyscience R package)(R Core Team 2020)
194	To analyze the diving pattern obtained from simultaneous deployments, we plotted
195	together the diving profiles of the mother with her calf to visually assess similarities in diving
196	profiles using MATLAB. We performed a cross-correlation test between profiles of mothers
197	and calves on the common recording duration of the dives. A first correlation coefficient was
198	measured with a sliding time-window to assess the maximal normalized correlation between
199	the two diving profiles (the diving profiles are normalized so that their autocorrelations at
200	zero-lag equal to 1). The time lag corresponding to this maximal correlation allowed us to
201	assess the leader of the dive (either the mother or calf). A second coefficient was measured
202	without time sliding to assess the correlation between the two diving profiles with their
203	original time axes. Finally, we compared the 10 averaged dive metrics between the mothers
204	and their calves using Wilcoxon rank sum tests in R. All plots were done in R using the
205	package ggplot2 for violin plots.

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## RESULTS

Over the five breeding seasons, we had successful deployments on 31 calves and 24 mothers (Fig. 1), but 3 deployments (i.e., 2 calves and 1 mother) were not included in our analysis because deployments were too short (less than 30 minutes). During the breeding seasons 2016 and 2017, we performed 13 simultaneous mother-calf deployments, but only 7 showed sufficient overlapping time (at least 30 minutes) to measure dive metrics for both mother and calf of the targeted pair.

214

Calves' diving behavior. —Among the 10 dive metrics measured, 5 varied 215 significantly among the 3 age classes (Table 2, Fig. 2). Calves increased the duration of their 216 217 dives with age. The mean duration was significantly different between C1 and C3 calves (Figure 2), and the maximum dive duration for C1 calves were significantly shorter than C2 218 and C3 calves (see Supplementary Data S1). They also increased the time spent at the bottom, 219 220 with C3 calves spending significantly more time than C2 and C1 calves (Figure 2). The maximal dive depth increased also with age, with C2 and C3 showing significant maximal 221 depth greater than C1 (see Supplementary Data S1). The ascending vertical speed did not vary 222 with age. 223

224

Mothers' diving behavior. —Among the 23 mothers, we only had 2 mothers with C1 225 calves, and one mother did not dive during the tag deployment (recording duration: 1.36 226 hours). For the 6 dive metrics extracted on each single dive (diveDur, diveDep, BotDur, 227 228 postDSI, AscSlope, DesSlope), we included only mothers with C2 and C3 calves (we could not run the analysis with only one mother with C1 calf). We included the two mothers with 229 C1 calves for four dive metrics averaged on the total duration of the deployment (Dhour, 230 maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR). When analyzing the diving behavior of mothers in regards to 231 their calf's age class, only 2 dive metrics were found significantly different among mothers 232

with C2 and C3 calves (Table 2, Fig. 3). Mothers with C3 calves spent longer time at the
bottom (BotDur) than mothers with C2 calves, and the duration between dives (postDSI) was
shorter in mothers with C3 than mothers with C2 calves. However, we did not find any
significant differences regarding the dive durations (mean or maximum), or maximal dive
depth as found in calves.

238

Simultaneous deployments. —When plotting the dive profiles of the 7 mother-calf 239 pairs, we found that mother and calf showed highly synchronized dives (Table 3, Fig. 4 A1-240 A3, see Supplementary Data S2). The dive metrics for mother-calf pairs, as well as correlation 241 coefficients between mother-calf dive profiles are shown in Table 3. We found a very high 242 synchrony between the dive profiles of mothers and calves, with the maximal correlations 243 ranging from 0.81 to 0.98. As shown in Table 2, the number of dives was not similar between 244 mother and calf as the calf sometimes returned to the surface while the mother stayed at 245 bottom (see examples on Fig 4A1-A2). The number of mother's dives during which the calf 246 returned to surface (MDCSurf) is given in Table 3. We observed 24 of these events, and 247 during which the calf went back to the surface 2 to 4 times. When comparing the 10 dive 248 metrics measured between mothers and calves of the pairs, six were found significantly 249 different (Fig. 5). Calves showed shorter dive durations as in many instances the mother 250 stayed at the bottom, so this also explained why the bottom duration was longer in mother and 251 thus the time spent at the surface was longer in calves. The maximal dive depth was also 252 found significantly different, with calves being slightly (i.e., within 5 meters) at a deeper 253 position compared to their mother. Significant differences between mothers and calves were 254 also found on the vertical speed during both ascending and descending phases, with calves 255 showing higher vertical speeds when going back to the surface and when descending. On the 256 257 7 mother-calf studied pairs, all showed that mothers were leading the dive (i.e. negative delta

values on Table 2), thus in all cases, calves followed the diving pattern of their mothers. 258 259 Finally, mother-calf vertical distances ranged from -38 to 31m (Fig. 4B), showing that calves can be separated from their mother by at least 30m, with the calf being either below or above 260 its mother. The histogram tail between -8m and -20m corresponds to events during which 261 calves were going back to the surface while mothers stayed at the bottom. However, we can 262 see that most of time they are together within 4m from each other. The time spent above or 263 below the mother varies greatly among calves (Fig. 4B), but we found that, when the pair is 264 diving, the calf was mostly below its mother (Fig. 4C) and rarely above her. 265 266 Discussion 267 Ontogeny of diving behavior in calves. — Here we investigated the diving pattern of 268 calves at different ages. As two of the tagged calves were neonates (C1, but only one 269 270 performed dives during the recordings), our results present the earliest diving behavior of baleen whales during their first days, when calves are extremely dependent of their mother. 271 Such knowledge is quite important as we do not have many observations on their behavior at 272 this early age, and we showed that even neonates can perform frequent dives with their 273 mothers. 274 275 Our findings are consistent with the previous studies done on humpback whales calves

in their breeding grounds (Cartwright & Sullivan 2009, Tyson et al. 2012, Ejrnæs & Sprogis
2021). Of the 29 studied calves, we found that 4 out of the 10 analyzed dive metrics varied
significantly with age. When getting older, calves increased the duration of their dives and
thus the time spent at the bottom was also longer (Fig. 4, Table 2, see Supplementary Data
S1). Calves also dove deeper (maxDep only) when they were older, but our post-hoc
comparisons showed that the main difference was between neonate (C1) and older calves (C2,
C3). Note that statistics were computed using the total number of dives as sample size, with

individuals included as nested factor in order to account for random effects due to inter-283 284 individual variations. However, since we could record dives only on two C1 calves, great care should be taken in generalizing the present results. Nevertheless, these findings suggest that 285 older calves showed higher swimming and breathing abilities, as previously found in 286 humpback whales (Cartwright & Sullivan 2009, Ejrnæs & Sprogis 2021) and observed in 287 right whales (Cusano et al. 2019, Dombroski et al. 2021). As suggested in previous studies, 288 neonate calves have limited lung capacity as they are still learning to manage their breathing 289 cycle and buoyancy. In mammals, the alveolar saccules must expand and subdivide to 290 increase the gas exchange, and then the volume of the lungs will grow (Weibel 2000). Also, 291 292 larger animals have a proportionately greater oxygen storage capacity leading to a greater diving capacity (Schreer & Kovacs 1997). Indeed, diving capacity is among those skills 293 developed gradually by calves (Stimpert et al. 2012). The number of dives per hour did not 294 295 increase with age, and that both the time spent at the surface and the interval between dives did not decrease with age. This indicates that calves do not increase their dive rate when they 296 age, and the time spent at the surface is not related to their age. So, even if their lung capacity 297 increases with age, they do not seem to use it to dive more often. As suggested by Stimpert et 298 al. (2012), calves might rather use such aerobic resources toward growth and development. 299 300 Recent investigations on muscular myoglobin stores in mysticetes have revealed calves present very low levels of myoglobin stores in muscles compared to juveniles and adults 301 (Cartwright et al. 2016). This would explain their limitations in respiratory and diving 302 capacities. 303

Our results on calves are consistent with those reported by Stimpert et al. (2012) on breeding grounds in Hawaiian waters. The most striking difference between the two studies is the difference in dive depth that can be easily explained by the topography of our study site (averaged depth between 25-35 meters), and not a difference in diving abilities.

Effect of calf's age on the mother's diving behavior. —From the 23 tagged mothers, we 308 were able to follow the diving behavior of 21 mothers accompanied with C2 and C3 calves. 309 The two mothers with C1 calves were included in the descriptive analysis (four dive metrics: 310 Dhour, maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR), but not in our general analysis as one female did not 311 dive during the deployment duration (Table 2). Mothers modified their diving profile with 312 regards to their calf's age. Mothers with C3 calves stayed longer at the bottom, and showed 313 shorter time interval between dives than mothers with C2 calves. This indicates that mothers 314 tended to increase their time away from their calves as they get older. There is also a 315 possibility that the shorter time interval between dives for mothers with older calves (C3) may 316 317 reflect the great respiratory capacities of the young. Our synchronous deployments on mothercalf pairs revealed such pattern with mothers staying at the bottom while calves come back to 318 the surface for breathing in several instances (Fig. 4A1).Longer bottom time and shorter 319 320 surface interval of mothers with older calves were also found in Southern right whales (Dombroski et al. 2021). In contrast, UAV monitoring of mother-calf pairs in Western 321 Australia did not report any change of breathing rate in mothers with regards to calf length 322 (i.e., age) (Ejrnæs & Sprogis 2021). 323

324

325 Mother-calf synchronized dives. —Among the mother-calf pairs tagged simultaneously, mothers and calves show a high synchrony in their diving profiles. This is 326 consistent with previous studies on humpback and right whales mother- calf pairs (Taber & 327 328 Thomas 1982, Szabo & Duffus 2008, Tyson et al. 2012). Vertical distance measurements suggested high synchronicity and spatial proximity between the pairs (under the hypothesis 329 330 that the horizontal separation was also small). Even though calves have to perform short dives to breathe, the vertical distance separating the pairs was mostly between 1 and 4 m (Fig. 4B) 331 suggesting that mother-calf pairs on the breeding ground stay at the same depth and likely at 332

close range to each other in all their activities. Similar vertical proximity has been described 333 by Tyson *et al.* (2012) on the feeding ground even though this distance tends to be greater ( $\pm$ 334 20m) compared to our results where mother-calf pairs were much closer ( $\pm 4$  m). 335 Mothers were the first to initiate dives to help facilitate the mobility of the calf. As it 336 was shown on dolphins (Weihs 2004, Noren 2008), when calves swim in echelon (within 337 30cm to its mother, on the mother's lateral flank, Weihs 2004) or in infant position (below its 338 mother), they may benefit from the hydrodynamic flow of their mothers, and thus dive with 339 reduced muscular effort (Noren & Edwards 2011). Such close proximity brings hydrodynamic 340 benefits during diving, but most importantly allows the mothers to provide continuous 341 342 maternal care and protection towards predators. As calves become older and more autonomous, distance between the mother and her calf increases (Szabo and Duffus 2008), 343 and calves become more responsible for maintaining proximity to their mother (Taber and 344 345 Thomas 1982, Tyson et al. 2012). Our findings confirm that humpback whale calves exhibit a following strategy, and 346 this was previously observed in feeding grounds (Szabo and Duffus 2008; Tyson et al. 2012). 347 On several occasions, we also found that calves dove 1-3 m deeper than their mothers 348 349 confirming that calves positioned themselves below their mothers (Glockner-Ferrari & Ferrari 350 1985). This position allows calves to stay at the bottom as they cannot yet properly control their buoyancy (Tyson et al. 2012). 351

This study has given additional knowledge on the ontogeny of diving behavior of humpback whale calves in their breeding ground, especially on very young calves (C1 calves). However, there still remains many more questions to be answered. Future direction of this work should investigate the ontogeny of the swimming behavior of calves by analyzing data from 3D-accelerometers. Such exhaustive analysis will allow us to assess the proportion of gliding and active swims while traveling and diving (i.e., during both vertical and

horizontal movements), and how swimming performance and swimming styles (i.e., infant 358 359 position, in echelon position) develop with calf age.

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- 361

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368	SUPPLEMENTARY DATA
369	Supplementary Data S1. — Dive metrics (Dhour, maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR)
370	extracted from each deployment, and averaged over calves across age classes (C1 with n=2,
371	C2 with n= 8, C3 with n=19) and over mothers accompanied with calves of different age
372	classes (M-C1 with n=2, M-C2 with n=5, M-C3 with n=17).
373	
374	Supplementary Data S2. — Diving patterns of the four other mother-calf pairs
375	obtained during simultaneous deployments.

RERONT

376	LITERATURE CITED
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470 **FIGURE LEGENDS** Fig. 1. —Summary of deployments performed on 23 adult mothers and 20 calves between 471 2013 and 2017 (durations of deployments, and repartition of calves among the 3 age-classes). 472 473 Fig. 2. —Graphical representation (violin plots) of the 6 dive metrics calculated on each dive 474 for the 3 age-classes of calves (C1 with n=2, C2 with n=8 and C3 with n=9). 475 476 Fig. 3. —Graphical representation (violin plots) of the 6 dive metrics calculated on each dive 477 for mothers accompanied with calves of different age-classes (M-C1 with n = 1, M-C2 with n478 = 5, M-C3 with n = 17). 479 N.C. 480 Fig. 4. —Mother-calf pair simultaneous deployments. A. Examples of diving profiles of 3 481 mother-calf pairs with calves of different age class (C3, C2 n=and C1). B. Histogram of 482 vertical distances measured between mothers and calves on the entire duration of the 483 deployment. Data ranged from -38m to 31m, however the time spent below its mother at 484 485 distances greater than 10m represented only 1.233 minutes, and thus was not visible on the

486 plot, therefore not shown in the figure. C. Histogram of vertical distances measured only

487 during calves' dives.

488

489 Fig. 5. —Boxplots of calves and mothers dive metrics found significantly different in mother490 calf pairs during simultaneous deployments (n=7).

### 491 Table 1. — Description of the different dive metrics extracted from the diving profiles. \*only

492 for synchronous deployments.

Dive metrics c	omputed on ea	ach dive (one v	value per dive)								
diveDur	diveDepth	BotDur	PostDSI	AscSlope	DesSlope						
dive duration (seconds)	dive depth (meters)	time spent at bottom (seconds)	post-dive surface interval (seconds)	descending slope (meters/second)							
Dive metrics computed on each deployement (one value per deployement)											
Dhour maxDur maxDepth SurfaceR MDC surface (*)											
number of dives per hour	maximum dive duration (seconds)	maximum dive depth (meters)	h surface time ratio number of mother's dives (%) which the calf returned to								

## 494 Table 2.—Comparisons of dive metrics for calves of different age classes and for mothers with calves of different age classes.\*

- for p values < 0.05, \*\* for p values < 0.005 # n = 21 for the 6 dive metrics extracted on each single dive (diveDur, diveDep, BotDur,
- 496 postDSI, AscSlope, DesSlope, the two M-C1 were excluded), n=23 for four dive metrics averaged on the total duration of the
- deployment (Dhour, maxDur, maxDep, surfaceR, two M-C1 were included). See Table 1.

#### 498

	diveDur	diveDep	BotDur	PostDSI	AscSlope	DesSlope	Dhour	maxDur	maxDep	SurfaceR
CALVES										
Difference among	*	NS (0.34)	*	NS (0.39)	NS(0.06)	NS (0.92)	NS (0.63)	**	*	NS (0.24)
age classes n=29	F = 3.86	F = 1.11	F = 5.04	F= 0.98	F= 3.3	F= 0.08	F=0.54	F= 10.73	F=8.87	F= 2.04
Post-hoc	$C1 \neq C3$		$C3 \neq C1$					$C1 \neq C3$	$C1 \neq C2$	
Comparisons			$C3 \neq C2$					$C1 \neq C2$	$C1 \neq C3$	
(2C1, 8C2, 19C3)										
MOTHERS										
Difference among	NS (0.14)	NS (0.84)	*	*	NS (0.37)	NS (0.79)	NS (0.55)	NS (0.1)	NS (0.66)	NS (0.63)
age classes	F=2.33	F=0.04	F=4.41	F=4.97	F= 0.85	F = 0.07	F=0.76	F=4.82	F=0.48	F=0.56
(# n=21  or  23)										
Comparisons			$C3 \neq C2$	$C3 \neq C2$						
(5C2, 16C3)										

- Table 3. Diving behavior of simultaneous deployments on 7 mother-calf pairs in 2016 and 2017. Dive metrics for mother-calf 500
- pairs and correlation coefficients between mother and calf diving profiles. Delta indicates the time difference between mother-calf dive 501
- profiles, a negative value means that the mother dove first, and thus led the dive. Nb dives: number of dives during synchronous 502
- deployment; MDCsurface: number of mother's dives during which the calf returned to surface, maxDur: maximum dive duration; 503
- maxDepth: maximal dive depth; modal dive depth; BotDur: average bottom duration; Dhour: number of dives per hour; 504
- *PostDSI*: post-dive surface interval ; *AscSlope*, *DesSlope*: vertical speed for ascent and descent ; *SurfR*: percentage of time spent at the 505 YR.
- surface (See Table 1). 506

Dep	Ind	Nb	MDC	maxDur	maxDep	modDep	BotDur	Dhour	PostDSI	AscSlope	DesSlope	SurfaceR	Correl.	Correl.	Delta
#	mu	dives	Surface	(sec)	(m)	(m)	(sec)	(nb.h <sup>-1</sup> )	(sec)	$(m.s^{-1})$	$(m.s^{-1})$	(in %)	max		(s)
2.16	С	16		185	37	7	57	13.1	134	-0.66	0.84	60	0.812	0.811	-2
2.16	Μ	8	5	668	36	11	165	6.6	183	-0.37	0.57	36			
4.16	С	9		146	18	13	45	16.4	32	-0.56	0.52	42	0.918	0.910	-5
4.16	Μ	7	1	404	17	11	45	12.8	11	-0.50	0.22	28			
7.16	С	32		260	24	13	95	12.6	90	-0.46	0.60	39	0.980	0.980	-1
7.16	Μ	32	0	319	21	11	99	12.6	73	-0.30	0.45	35			
8.16	С	10		123	22	14	41	18.8	90	-0.87	0.37	50	0.906	0.895	-8
8.16	Μ	10	0	214	22	14	65	18.8	40	-0.33	0.37	27			
9.16	С	55		294	39	9	135	7.1	289	-0.54	0.69	51	0.935	0.926	-12
9.16	Μ	27	14	1008	38	14	225	3.5	473	-0.23	0.52	32			
4.17	С	18		251	33	15	104	14.6	59	-0.79	0.63	26	0.932	0.904	-22
4.17	Μ	15	2	490	33	14	141	12.2	21	-0.53	0.41	11			
18.17	С	13		206	29	8	55	9.3	112	-0.41	0.43	62	0.941	0.939	-4
18.17	Μ	9	2	791	28	10	99	6.5	97	-0.37	0.36	37			



Summary of deployments performed on 23 adult females and 20 calves between 2013 and 2017 (durations of deployments, and repartition of calves among the 3 age-classes).

297x210mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Graphical representation (violin plots) of the 6 dive metrics calculated on each dive for the 3 age-classes of calves (C1 with n= 2, C2 with n= 8 and C3 with n=9).

297x209mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Graphical representation (violin plots) of the 6 dive metrics calculated on each dive for mothers accompanied with calves of different age-classes (M-C1 with n = 1, M-C2 with n = 5, M-C3 with n = 17).

209x297mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Mother-calf pair simultaneous deployments. A. Examples of diving profiles of 3 mother-calf pairs with calves of different age class (C3, C2 n=and C1). B. Histogram of vertical distances measured between mothers and calves on the entire duration of the deployment. Data ranged from -38m to 31m, however the time spent below its mother at distances greater than 10m represented only 1.233 minutes, and thus was not visible on the plot, therefore not shown in the figure. C. Histogram of vertical distances measured only during calves' dives.

254x190mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Boxplots of calves and mothers dive metrics found significantly different in mother-calf pairs during simultaneous deployments (n=7).

296x209mm (600 x 600 DPI)

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