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Dive heart rate in harbour porpoises is influenced by exercise and expectations Running title: Porpoise diving heart rate

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Summary statement

Porpoise dive heart rates are influenced by exercise and expectations, yet there is no increase in heart rate associated with prey capture sprints.

Abstract

The dive response, a decrease in heart rate ($f_{\rm H}$) and peripheral vasoconstriction, is the key mechanism allowing breath-hold divers to perform long duration dives. This pronounced cardiovascular response to diving has been investigated intensely in pinnipeds, but comparatively little is known for cetaceans, in particular in ecologically relevant settings. Here we studied the dive $f_{\rm H}$ response in one the smallest cetaceans, the harbour porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*). We used a novel multi-sensor data logger to record dive behaviour, $f_{\rm H}$, ventilations and feeding events in three trained porpoises, providing the first evaluation of cetacean $f_{\rm H}$ regulation while performing a variety of natural behaviours, including prey capture. We predicted that tagged harbour porpoises would exhibit a decrease in $f_{\rm H}$ in all dives, but the degree of bradycardia would be influenced by dive duration and activity, i.e., the dive $f_{\rm H}$ response will be exercise modulated. In all dives, $f_{\rm H}$ decreased compared to surface rates by at least 50% (mean maximum surface = 173 beats min⁻¹, mean minimum dive = 50 beats min⁻¹); however, dive $f_{\rm H}$ was approximately 10 beats min⁻¹ higher in active dives due to a slower decrease in $f_{\rm H}$ and more variable $f_{\rm H}$ during pursuit of prey. We show that porpoises exhibit the typical breath-hold diver bradycardia during aerobic dives and that the heart rate response is modulated by exercise and dive duration; however, other variables such as expectations and individual differences are equally important in determining diving heart rate.

Introduction

Successful and efficient foraging is essential for an organism's survival and reproduction. Marine mammals face an extraordinary foraging challenge compared to their terrestrial relatives in that they must exercise to search, capture, and consume prey while holding their breath during often long and deep dives. Understanding the physiological mechanisms that underlie their ability to perform such extended breath-holds while transiting and foraging is essential if we are to understand their role in the ecosystem and their ability to exploit prey resources in a changing world.

The dive capacity of breath-hold divers is dependent on both the available oxygen (O_2) stores and the rate at which the O_2 stores are depleted. Heart rate (f_H), peripheral blood flow distribution and muscle workload are the primary determinants of the rate and pattern of O_2 store use and ultimately breath-hold duration (Ponganis, 2015). Although in recent years advances in technology have greatly improved our understanding of O_2 management in pinnipeds (seals and sea lions) (Hindle et al., 2010; McDonald and Ponganis, 2013; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Meir et al., 2009), much less is known about how cetaceans (whales and dolphins) perform extended breath-hold dives (Elsner et al., 1966; Houser et al., 2010; Noren et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2015; Williams et al., 1999). To address this knowledge gap, we investigated the relationship between fine scale diving behaviour, including feeding events, to f_H in captive harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*, Linnaeus 1758).

Since the initial forced submersions studies, decreased $f_{\rm H}$ has been considered central to the diving ability of breath-hold divers (Scholander, 1940). Cardiovascular regulation is critical during diving because changes in $f_{\rm H}$ and blood flow not only affect blood O₂ uptake from the lung but also the rate and magnitude of blood O₂ delivery to tissues. During forced submersion a severe bradycardia results in isolation of muscle and peripheral organs from blood flow, thereby slowing the depletion of blood O₂ which is reserved for the heart and brain (Scholander et al., 1942; Zapol et al., 1979). More recent studies on trained and freely diving animals indicate that the dive response is dynamic, with declines in $f_{\rm H}$ of varying degrees depending on dive duration and depth, exercise, and expectations (Davis and Williams, 2012; Elmegaard et al., 2016; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Noren et al., 2012; Thompson and Fedak, 1993; Williams et al., 2015).

In recent years the advent of miniaturized data loggers has greatly improved our capability to measure and hence understand how wild pinnipeds manage O_2 , but due to the difficulty of deploying physiological loggers on wild cetaceans, most of what we know is from captive studies, primarily with bottlenose dolphins. Dolphins trained to dive to depths greater than 60 m exhibit a diving $f_{\rm H}$ profile similar to profiles observed in diving seals and sea lions, decreasing from predive values between 100-120 beats min⁻¹ to lows of 20-30 beats min⁻¹, before increasing again as the dolphin starts ascent (Houser et al., 2010; Williams et al., 1999). Williams et al. (1999) concluded that the dive response dominates the typical mammalian exercise response (increase in $f_{\rm H}$ and blood flow) because the degree of bradycardia observed in the diving dolphin was similar to values observed in shallow stationary dives (Elsner et al., 1966). However, more recently, a correlation between stroke rate and $f_{\rm H}$ has been documented in short shallow dives of trained bottlenose dolphins (Davis and Williams, 2012; Noren et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2015). The authors proposed that this is because marine mammals exhibit an exercise modulated $f_{\rm H}$ response that maximizes the aerobic duration of a dive (Davis and Williams, 2012). Compared to bottlenose dolphins, a much less intense decline was seen in captive harbour porpoises during short, shallow dives (Reed et al., 2000; Teilmann et al., 2006). Recently porpoises were documented to alter the degree of bradycardia based on anticipated breath-hold duration (Elmegaard et al., 2016), but nothing is known about how they regulate $f_{\rm H}$ in dives of different activity levels and durations.

From a diving physiology perspective, porpoises are interesting as they are among the smallest cetaceans and yet they live in low temperature environments at high latitudes where elevated metabolic rates are needed to combat heat loss (Williams and Maresh, 2015). Wild porpoises meet these metabolic demands by high rate foraging (Wisniewska et al., 2016). It is therefore essential to understand how they manage O₂ in these active foraging dives if we are to understand how their physiological capacity may limit their ability to deal with natural and anthropogenic disturbances to their environment. Pilot whales have been documented to sprint

at speeds of 3-9 m s⁻¹ when actively foraging (Aguilar Soto et al., 2008), and it was hypothesised that during these feeding sprints, pilot whales may exhibit $f_{\rm H}$ approaching $f_{\rm Hmax}$ (Noren et al., 2012). Although porpoises do not exhibit such high speeds, they do increase activity during feeding events, allowing us to test this hypothesis with porpoises feeding on dead and live fish in captivity.

Here we examine the dive response in three harbour porpoises using newly developed multi-sensor ECG recording tags during stationary, active and prey capture dives. We investigated the relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and activity to assess the potential level of muscle perfusion during dives with different activity levels. We hypothesized that: 1) Porpoises will decrease $f_{\rm H}$ in all dives, but will only exhibit an extreme decrease in long duration dives, 2) In more typical short dives, harbour porpoises will show a positive relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and workload/activity suggesting they are perfusing muscle during diving, and 3) $f_{\rm H}$ will be elevated in prey capture sprints. Using a unique combination of controlled and free dives, we document the influence of both exercise and dive duration on the dive response. However, other factors such as individual differences and expectations are also important.

Methods

Animals

Dive $f_{\rm H}$ was examined in three trained harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) at the Fjord & Belt Aquarium (Kerteminde, Denmark) during March through June 2014. Two of the porpoises were female, Freja (17 years old, 158 cm) and Sif (10 years old, 160 cm), and the third porpoise, Eigil, was a male (17 years old, 151 cm). The porpoises were incidentally captured in pound nets as yearlings, and have been housed in a large net pen (35 x 10 x 5 m (L x W x D)) at the Fjord & Belt Aquarium since capture. Sif was 6 - 8 months pregnant during the study. The porpoises were housed at the Fjord & Belt Aquarium under permits from the Ministry of Environmental and Food of Denmark (SN 343/FY-0014 and 1996-3446-0021). The experimental procedure was approved by the Aarhus University IACUC committee and complied with recommendations of the Danish Council for Experiments on Animals.

Instrumentation

A modified Dtag 3 (ECG-Dtag3, 15.5 x 8.5 x 3 cm, 265 g), a multi-sensor archival tag, was attached ~5-10 cm behind the blowhole via four 5-cm silicone suction cups (Fig. 1A)(Johnson and Tyack, 2003). The ECG-Dtag 3 has two external silver chloride electrodes (10 mm) embedded in 5-cm suction cups that were placed rostral and caudal to the heart, close to the axis of the ventricle contraction to maximize the signal (Elmegaard et al., 2016). The ECG-Dtag3 recorded the differential potential between the electrodes relative to a ground in water sampling at 10 kHz (16-bit resolution and a 2-pole, 4 kHz anti-alias filter). Additionally, the tag recorded pressure and 3-axis acceleration at 2 kHz, and stereo sound (500 kHz sampling rate, 16 bit, 0.5 to 150 kHz bandwidth) allowing determination of activity, ventilations, echolocation behaviour and prey capture with precise synchrony to the $f_{\rm H}$ data.

Experimental protocol

Heart rate was collected using two protocols: 1) experimental and 2) opportunistic (Fig. 1B). For the experimental protocol, porpoises were trained to perform stationary and prey capture dives (with either dead or live fish) in a range of dive durations (~ 0.5 - 2.5 min) while instrumented with the ECG-Dtag3. Experimental sessions consisted of a block of approximately 5-7 dives of the same dive category (stationary, dead prey capture, or live prey capture). Dive duration was randomly assigned to each dive before the session with a goal of 2 short (~30 s), 2 medium (~45-55 s), and 2 long duration (>60 s) dives per session. Before and after each experimental dive, the porpoise stationed for a minimum of one minute at the surface with minimal activity to ensure the blood gases reached resting levels. This ensures that each dive is independent of the proceeding dive. One minute was selected after review of $f_{\rm H}$ and respiration rate data obtained during training sessions. All sessions were recorded with a GoPro mounted on the observer's head for validation of tag collected behavioural data.

For *stationary dives* porpoises stationed on a bite plate (Freja) or target (Sif, Eigil) at 1 m depth. Water movement in the sea pen varies with tide phase and so the target was oriented to minimize the effort required to stay on station. The porpoises remained on station until a whistle

signalled that the behaviour was complete. Stationary dives were between ~30-70 s in duration. If dives were extended much beyond 60 s, the porpoise would return to the surface before the trainer recalled the animal. For the *dead prey capture dives*, a trainer was located at one end of pool with the porpoise and 'the feeder' was located at the opposite side (~20 m apart). When the trainer sent the porpoise on a trial, 'the feeder' splashed and tossed a fish into the water (capelin or herring). Once the porpoise caught the fish, another fish was tossed in the pool a few meters away, and this continued until the animal was recalled, or on longer dives, surfaced on its own. Dive duration was determined by varying the number of fish, i.e. 1 fish for short dives, 3-5 fish for medium duration dives, and for long duration dives, we provided fish until the animal surfaced. For the long duration dives the 1-minute surface interval started with the first breath after the porpoise returned to the trainer. The *live prey capture dives* were conducted exactly like the dead prey capture trials, except live black gobies (*Gobius niger* - A local species that the porpoises occasional feed on when they enter the net pen) were used rather than dead fish.

In addition to the experimental sessions, we opportunistically collected data during 1) *free swims* between sessions and 2) training sessions where the porpoises had silicone eye cups placed over their eyes as they performed short to medium duration dead prey capture trials as described above (*eye cup prey capture*). The *free swims* allowed us to examine $f_{\rm H}$ during dives where the porpoises control the dive duration, activity and surface duration.

Data processing and analyses

All data processing and analyses were performed using custom written scripts in MatLab (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA). *Sound files* were examined aurally and visually in 5s windows using a spectrogram display (Hamming window, fft: 512 and 75% overlap). Respirations and feeding buzzes were identified (Deruiter et al., 2009; Wisniewska et al., 2016). *Dives* were determined from the respirations: Start of dive was the time of the last respiration before the porpoise initiated the dive; End of dive was the first respiration after the completion of the behaviour. This usually coincided with the porpoise returning to the trainer, but on longer dives, the end of dive respiration often occurred before the porpoise was recalled to the trainer. In either case, the post dive interval did not begin until the porpoise returned to the trainer. In

addition to identifying dives, we also estimated bottom time. Because the dives were shallow and varied in depth as porpoises chased fish, the bottom of the dive was not always clear from the dive profiles. Therefore, bottom time was estimated to start 5s after the dive start and end 5 s before dive end. This eliminates the periods of rapid decline and the anticipatory increase in $f_{\rm H}$ at the beginning and end of each dive, respectively.

ECG data was decimated to a sampling rate of 250 Hz, and filtered to remove excess noise (fir filter to remove 50 Hz noise, followed by Butterworth (0.1, 0.3)). R-peaks were identified using a custom peak detector script and all records were visually inspected to correct for missing or spurious peaks. Instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ was determined from the R-R peak intervals.

We calculated two activity indexes from the raw 3-axis acceleration data: 1) Minimum Specific Acceleration (MSA), a measure of how much the total acceleration deviates from the gravity acceleration (Simon et al., 2012). This is an underestimate of the specific acceleration generated by the animal and is calculated as the absolute value of the norm of acceleration minus the gravity acceleration; and 2) Overall Dynamic Body Acceleration (ODBA), another integrated measurement of body motion in three spatial dimensions, is the norm of the high-pass-filtered acceleration (Wilson et al., 2006). MSA and ODBA were highly correlated (see results below). For this reason, only MSA was used to investigate the relationship between activity and $f_{\rm H}$.

A suite of $f_{\rm H}$ variables were determined for each dive including: total number of heart beats during a dive (total heart beats), dive $f_{\rm H}$ (total heart beats / dive duration), initial and minimum instantaneous dive $f_{\rm H}$, bottom $f_{\rm H}$ (heart beats during bottom of dive / bottom time duration), the decrease in instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ in the first 5 s of dive ($f_{\rm H}$ at 5 s – initial $f_{\rm H}$), and for experimental dives with a one minute surface interval between dives we calculated pre- and post-dive $f_{\rm H}$ (number of heart beats in 30s proceeding or following the dive / 0.5 min) and pre- and post-dive mode (most common instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ within bin-sizes of ~5 beats min⁻¹). Additionally, for each dive we calculated average MSA (Total MSA/Dive Duration).

To investigate the relationship between feeding behaviour and $f_{\rm H}$, average instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ and total MSA was calculated for a 10-s window centred at the start of every feeding buzz. For

comparison, average instantaneous f_{H} and total MSA was also calculated for a 10-s window at the beginning of each feeding dive (10 - 20 s into the dive).

The relationship between MSA and ODBA was evaluated by performing correlation analyses. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) were used to investigate the relationship between dive behaviour and f_{H} , with porpoise ID as a covariate to account for individual differences between porpoises (JMP, SAS, Cary, NC, USA). Differences in pre-dive f_{H} , dive f_{H} , minimum f_{H} , post-dive f_{H} , decline in f_{H} in the first 5 s of dive, and average dive MSA between the dive types were investigated using 2-way ANOVAs, followed by post hoc Tukey tests. In all models, dive type (stationary, prey capture, etc.) and individual (porpoise ID) were fixed effects. The influence of feeding behaviour on activity and f_{H} was also investigated using 2way ANOVAs to test for differences in f_{H} and activity between buzz and non-buzz segments. Dive types (dead vs live prey capture) were analysed separately. Feeding state (buzz/non-buzz) and porpoise ID were the fixed variables. The relationships between dive duration and MSA to dive f_{H} and minimum f_{H} were investigated using ANCOVAs with porpoise ID as a covariate. Residuals of the final models were evaluated to assess model violations. No assumptions were violated.

Results

General Results

Heart rate and activity data were obtained from 437 dives from 3 porpoises (Fig. 1, Table 1). The porpoises exhibited a large range in $f_{\rm H}$ from over 200 beats min⁻¹ at the surface, down to 12 beats min⁻¹ in the longest dive of 4 min (Fig. 2). Dive MSA was highly correlated with ODBA (Pearson r = 0.98, p > 0.001). We therefore used dive MSA for all analyses investigating the relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and activity.

Surface heart rate and sinus arrhythmia

Pre-dive surface $f_{\rm H}$ averaged 121 ± 22 beats min⁻¹, but there were significant differences between individuals with Sif and Eigil having significantly higher $f_{\rm H}$ (Sif: 133 ± 16, Eigil: 132 ± 17 beats min⁻¹) compared to Freja (104 ± 18 beats min⁻¹) (Table S1). Pre-dive $f_{\rm H}$ did not differ between stationary dives and dead prey capture dives, but were approximately 10 beats min⁻¹ higher before live prey capture dives (Table 1). During the 1-minute surface intervals, the porpoises often exhibited sinus arrhythmias with $f_{\rm H}$ decreasing from over 150 beats min⁻¹ to values resembling $f_{\rm H}$ exhibited during dives; however, they did not show this decrease between every respiration (Fig. 3A). During the free swim, we saw similar patterns and often if porpoises took two respirations between dives, $f_{\rm H}$ stayed elevated between these respirations (Fig. 3B).

Dive heart rate and activity

Dive $f_{\rm H}$ were 51 ± 8% lower than the pre-dive $f_{\rm H}$ (Fig. 2). Dive $f_{\rm H}$ profiles, in general, were Ushaped with a rapid decline, relatively stable $f_{\rm H}$ near the bottom, and a rapid increase as the animal ascended (Fig. 2). Within the first 5 s of the dive, $f_{\rm H}$ decreased an average of 65 – 89 beats min⁻¹, depending on dive type (Table 1). Although all porpoises exhibited a similar $f_{\rm H}$ profile shape, they differed in surface and dive $f_{\rm H}$ (Figs 4, S1, Table S1).

To investigate the influence of activity and duration on $f_{\rm H}$, porpoises performed dives of varying durations with significantly different activity levels as measured by the dive MSA (Fig. 4, Table 1). Stationary dives had low activity (dive MSA = 0.39 ± 0.11 m s⁻²), activity increased approximately 80% during dead prey capture dives (dive MSA = 0.71 ± 0.15 m s⁻²), and increased an additional ~45% in live prey capture dives (dive MSA = 1.04 ± 0.18 m s⁻²). Dive and minimum $f_{\rm H}$ differed significantly across the experimental dive types with the lowest $f_{\rm H}$ exhibited during stationary dives and the highest $f_{\rm H}$ in live prey capture dives (Figs 2, 4, Table 1). Additionally, post-dive $f_{\rm H}$ following dead and live prey capture dives were significantly higher than following stationary dives (Table 1).

Relationship between heart rate and activity

Activity and dive duration both influenced $f_{\rm H}$ in the experimental dives when porpoises did not know how long they would be requested to dive (Table 2; $f_{\rm H}$ = 59.9 + 22.7(MSA) – 0.14(Duration) + (ID correction: Eigil = 9.6, Sif = 1.1, Freja = -10.7), R² = 0.74, F_{4,316} = 222.4, P < 0.0001). Dive duration had a significant, but small, negative effect on dive $f_{\rm H}$ when controlling for MSA (Fig. 5, Table 2), while activity had a positive effect on $f_{\rm H}$ (Fig. 5, Table 2). The non-significant interaction terms (Dur * ID and MSA * ID) indicate that the relationship between dive duration and activity to dive $f_{\rm H}$ was the same for all three porpoises (same slope), although they had significantly different intercepts. During free dives, when porpoises controlled activity level and dive duration, $f_{\rm H}$ decreased with increasing dive duration for all porpoises, while activity did not have an impact on dive $f_{\rm H}$ (Fig. 5, Table 2). However, the significant Dur * ID interaction term indicates that the relationship was not consistent between porpoises (Table 2). In prey capture dives when the porpoises had silicone eye cups placed over their eyes, dive and minimum $f_{\rm H}$ were lower than during stationary dives, despite activity levels similar to prey capture dives without eye cups (Fig. 2, Table 1).

In addition to examining the relationship between the $f_{\rm H}$ and activity at the level of the dive, we also investigated the $f_{\rm H}$ during feeding buzzes, which are often associated with a burst of activity. The accelerometery data supports the hypothesis that there is increased activity associated with a feeding event, with a 30 – 50% increase in total MSA during the 10-s window centred at the start of the buzz compared to a 10-s window at the beginning of the dive with no feeding events (Fig. 6, Table 2). Despite this increase in activity, there was a small (5%) or no increase in $f_{\rm H}$ (Fig. 6, Table 2). However, overall activity was higher during live prey capture dives, which was associated with higher $f_{\rm H}$ in live prey capture dives (Fig. 6).

Discussion

Dive and surface heart rate

Little is known about $f_{\rm H}$ management in cetaceans during ecologically relevant activities such as foraging because of the difficulty associated with obtaining such data from free ranging animals. Here we investigated $f_{\rm H}$ in captive harbour porpoises, a model species, as they performed a variety of dive types, including foraging dives. The U-shaped dive $f_{\rm H}$ profile exhibited by harbour porpoises is akin to $f_{\rm H}$ profiles observed in aerobic dives of seals, sea lions and captive dolphins (Davis and Williams, 2012; Hill et al., 1987; Hindle et al., 2010; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Noren et al., 2012; Thompson and Fedak, 1993). A previous study on $f_{\rm H}$ in harbour porpoises performing surface breath-holds documented a progressive development of bradycardia over the duration of the breath-hold (Reed et al., 2000). They proposed that this was because harbour porpoises continue to use the lungs as an O_2 store while diving (Reed et al., 2000). Because harbour porpoises are relatively shallow divers in comparison to many other cetaceans, the air in the lungs (containing ~80% nitrogen) may be less of a liability than in deeper diving species. While lung O_2 stores may be important source of O_2 in these shallow divers, in our study they exhibited a rapid decrease in $f_{\rm H}$ like other breath-hold divers disproving the hypothesis that bradycardia onset is slow due to importance of lung O_2 stores.

As we predicted, porpoises exhibited lower $f_{\rm H}$ in longer duration dives, as observed in freely diving seals, sea lions, and penguins (Hill et al., 1987; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Thompson and Fedak, 1993; Wright et al., 2014). The relationship was weak in experimental dives with randomized dive durations, likely because the porpoises could not predict dive duration. However, during free swims when porpoises controlled dive duration, there was a strong negative relationship between dive duration and $f_{\rm H}$. During short free dives (<20 s) $f_{\rm H}$ only decreased to some 50-100 beats min⁻¹, while in the longest dive (4 min) $f_{\rm H}$ decreased to 12 beats min⁻¹, and stayed below 15 beats min⁻¹ for over 1 min. We only observed one dive > 2.5 min, and the level of bradycardia in this 4-min dive was lower than that typically observed in 4-min dives of California sea lions (McDonald and Ponganis, 2014) and most other pinnipeds (Fedak et al., 1988; Thompson and Fedak, 1993), indicating that although most dives of harbour porpoises are short and shallow, they are capable of planning and executing extreme bradycardia if needed to extend dive duration.

Although the $f_{\rm H}$ profile shape was similar to other breath-hold divers, the surface respiratory $f_{\rm H}$ documented here are the highest reported for any adult marine mammal (Boyd et al., 1999; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Noren et al., 2012; Thompson and Fedak, 1993; Williams et al., 2015). Although mean heart rates during surface resting varied between individuals, all three porpoises exhibited instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ over 200 beats min⁻¹ before 8-23% and after 8-41% of their dives. Mean max pre-dive $f_{\rm H}$ ranged from 156-191 beats min⁻¹. In comparison, bottlenose dolphin calves, juveniles, and adults had mean max surface $f_{\rm H}$ of ~120-130 beats min⁻¹ (Noren et al., 2004) and adults had maximum exercising heart rates of ~150 beats min⁻¹ (Williams et al., 1993). Only juvenile sea lions, which are approximately 20-30 kg lighter than porpoises, have been reported with respiratory $f_{\rm H}$ as high as the porpoises in this study (Ponganis et al., 1997).

Although it is inherently difficult to define the resting $f_{\rm H}$ in a cetacean that has irregular breathing and is diving continuously, from scaling relationships the predicted $f_{\rm H}$ for a 50 kg mammal is approximately 55 beats min⁻¹ (White and Kearney, 2014). It is interesting to note that this is similar to the $f_{\rm H}$ found here for porpoises performing a stationary dive at 1-m depth, but such a comparison may be misleading, as it represents a mixture of a high metabolic rates (typical of marine mammals) countered by a dive response.

The combination of high surface $f_{\rm H}$ and a moderate dive bradycardia, support the hypothesis that porpoises have high metabolic rates which will limit their dive durations. The calculated aerobic dive limit (cADL) of porpoises has been estimated to be between 3-5.4 min, depending on the metabolic rate used in the calculation (Noren et al., 2014; Reed et al., 2000). Based on the high $f_{\rm H}$ observed in this study we predict that the true ADL will be on the lower end of that range. This is consistent with studies on wild porpoises that found that 94-95% of dives are < 3 min in duration (Otani et al., 1998; Westgate et al., 1995).

Exercise modulated heart rate response

Currently one of the biggest knowledge gaps in the diving physiology of marine mammals relates to muscle perfusion during natural dives. Although this is difficult to measure directly, the role of muscle perfusion during diving is often evaluated by examining the relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and workload (activity). Porpoises exhibited an exercise modulated $f_{\rm H}$ response during experimental dives (Figs 4,5), as observed in Weddell seals and captive bottlenose dolphins (Davis and Williams, 2012; Noren et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2015). The positive relationship between activity (MSA) and $f_{\rm H}$, suggests that muscle perfusion increases as a function of muscle workload in the short aerobic dives. The exercise modulated dive response has been proposed to be key to maximizing aerobic dive duration (Davis and Williams, 2012; Williams et al., 2015). The decrease in $f_{\rm H}$ during diving is needed to efficiently use blood and muscle O₂ stores (Davis and Kanatous, 1999); however, the degree of bradycardia can be adjusted throughout dives to balance the O₂ demands of exercising muscle (Davis and Williams, 2012). Although we found a relationship between activity and $f_{\rm H}$ for porpoises, the relationship was much more subtle and variable than observed in dolphins. Between stationary and active dives there was only a ~25% increase in dive

 $f_{\rm H}$ despite an increase in activity, as measured by excess triaxial acceleration, of 160%. In comparison, there was a 39-57% increase in bottlenose dolphin $f_{\rm H}$ between stationary dives and horizontal swimming dives (Noren et al., 2012), and within dives, there was almost a direct relationship between stroke rate and $f_{\rm H}$ (Davis and Williams, 2012). The strong relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and activity in dolphins led Noren et al. (2012) to propose that some cetaceans, like pilot whales, may exhibit high $f_{\rm H}$ during prey chases at depth (Aguilar Soto et al., 2008). Within the experimental limits of this study, we found no evidence for this in harbour porpoises. Although activity levels did transiently increase by 30-50% during a prey capture event, there was no increase in $f_{\rm H}$ associated with prey capture. Because porpoises only exhibited a moderate bradycardia in the prey capture dives, and are likely therefore maintaining some muscle blood flow, they may not need to increase $f_{\rm H}$ during the short bursts of activity. Alternatively, because of the suspected high metabolic rates, they may not increase $f_{\rm H}$ during the bursts of activity because they need to conserve O₂ for the brain and heart, even in these short dives.

Expectations and individual variability

The high variability in $f_{\rm H}$ associated with overall dive activity (but not individual prey captures) in experimental dives, but the lack of a similar relationship during free dives suggests that, although porpoises do exhibit an exercise modulated dive response at times, other factors are likely important in determining the level of bradycardia. For example, $f_{\rm H}$ was lower in dives in which porpoises performed prey captures with silicone cups over their eyes, ensuring they only used echolocation to locate prey. This suggests that in situations when they cannot use all their senses to evaluate their surroundings they are more conservative with their O₂ use indicating volatile control over $f_{\rm H}$. This is further supported by the weak relationship between dive $f_{\rm H}$ and dive duration when they do not know how long the dive task will be, in contrast to the strong relationship during free dives. When porpoises are unsure whether they will be asked to perform a short or long dive, they appear to manage O₂ in a fashion that will allow them to successfully perform a long dive. Interestingly, in some long prey capture dives, $f_{\rm H}$ was variable at the beginning of the dive, but then stabilized at a lower value when fish continued to be provided (Fig. 2). The ability to modify $f_{\rm H}$ based on expectations has recently been documented in the same

porpoises performing stationary dives (Elmegaard et al., 2016) and has been suggested for other species including sea lions and bottlenose dolphins (Elsner et al., 1966; Kooyman and Campbell, 1972; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Noren et al., 2012; Ridgway et al., 1975).

Although dive duration and activity influenced $f_{\rm H}$ for all three porpoises, the porpoises had different surface and dive $f_{\rm H}$. Eigil (M1), the small male (151 cm, ~45 kg), had both the highest surface $f_{\rm H}$ and dive $f_{\rm H}$ (Fig 4, Supplementary Table 1). Previous studies have also found smaller individuals tend to have higher $f_{\rm H}$ (McDonald and Ponganis, 2014; Williams et al., 2015). Sif (F1) and Freja (F2) were similar in size (160 and 158 cm, ~60-65 kg) and exhibited similar stationary dive $f_{\rm H}$. However, Sif, the pregnant porpoise, exhibited surface $f_{\rm H}$ that were much higher, approximating values exhibited by Eigil at the surface. Also, as her activity level increased, her heart rate increased during dives at a faster rate than Freja, resulting in dive $f_{\rm H}$ equivalent to Eigil in live prey capture dives (Fig. 4, Table 1). The higher $f_{\rm H}$ exhibited by Sif, is likely due to pregnancy. In humans cardiac output increases by 30-50% by late pregnancy, partly due to a ~15-25% increase in heart rate (Hunter and Robson, 1992). Despite the differences in heart rate, all porpoises exhibited lower heart rates associated with longer dives and low activity.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we successfully obtained diving $f_{\rm H}$ profiles from porpoises performing both controlled experimental and free dives. We found that $f_{\rm H}$ decreases during all dives and the $f_{\rm H}$ profile shape resembled aerobic dives of other breath-hold divers. In many dives, dive $f_{\rm H}$ did not differ appreciably from the $f_{\rm H}$ exhibited during short breath-holds within surface intervals. Both dive duration and activity influenced heart rate, but the effect depended on whether porpoises were performing experimental or opportunistic dives. When the porpoises self-selected dive duration and activity during free dives, there was a strong relationship between dive duration and dive heart rate. This was much weaker during experimental dives, where we found a stronger relationship between $f_{\rm H}$ and activity. This supports the hypothesis that during aerobic dives the dive response may be exercise modulated. As heart rates were rarely below 40 beats min⁻¹, there was likely some muscle perfusion in most dives, and it increased slightly as activity level increased. Although we found some support for the exercise modulated dive response hypothesis, we did not find evidence of increases in $f_{\rm H}$ associated with feeding sprints.

Additionally, the high variability in $f_{\rm H}$ and the differences observed between experimental and opportunistic dives indicate that other factors, such as expectations influence dive $f_{\rm H}$.

Abbreviations

ECG	Electrocardiogram
fн	Heart rate
MSA	Minimum specific acceleration
O ₂	Oxygen

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Footnotes

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: B.I.M., P.T.M.; Methodology: M.J., B.I.M., P.T.M.; Investigation: B.I.M.; Writing - original draft: B.I.M.; Writing - review & editing: P.T.M., M.J.; Project administration: B.I.M.; Funding acquisition: B.I.M., P.T.M., M.J.

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Data availability

Data are available from figshare digital repository at 10.6084/m9.figshare.5549329.

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Figures

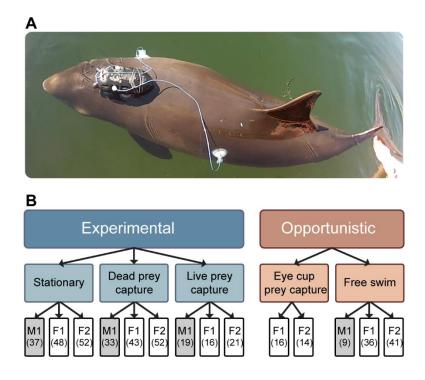


Figure 1. Harbour porpoise instrumented with the ECG-Dtag 3 with two external electrodes (A). Diagram of the experimental design with sample sized for each dive type and porpoise (B). Grey indicates the male porpoise, white is the two female porpoises.

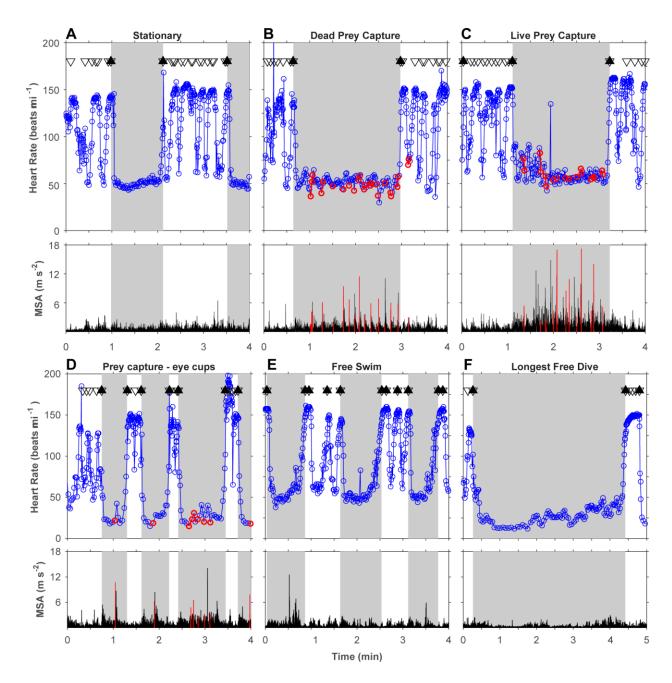


Figure 2. Diving $f_{\rm H}$ profiles and minimum specific acceleration (MSA) from an adult female harbour porpoise (Freja: F2). The top panel provides examples of the systematically collected data: (a) long stationary dive, (b) dead prey capture dive, and (c) a live prey capture dive. The bottom panel provides examples of opportunistically collected data; (d) dead prey capture dives while animal wears eye cups, (e) typical short free dives (not during a training session), and (f) the longest dive recorded. Black triangles indicate a breath (solid triangles indicate breath before

start and breath after end of dive), grey shading highlights a dive, and red indicates when the porpoise produced a buzz.

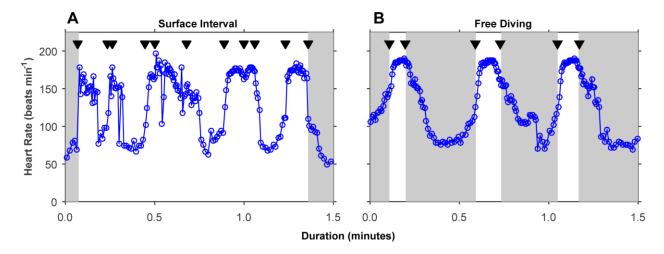
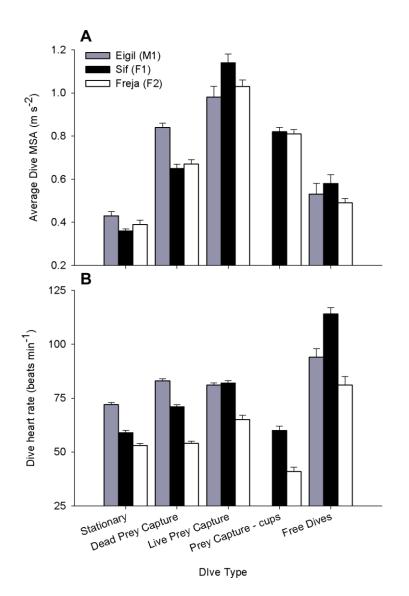
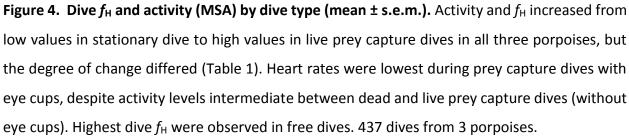


Figure 3. Surface $f_{\rm H}$ between experimental dives is variable, but a clear respiratory sinus arrhythmia was not present. Surface $f_{\rm H}$ may decrease to $f_{\rm H}$ observed during a dive between breaths, but often remains high between breaths as observed in seals, sea lions, and dolphins (Andrews et al., 1997; Houser et al., 2010; McDonald and Ponganis, 2014) . During the short surface intervals exhibited during free dives, $f_{\rm H}$ remained elevated between breaths. Data from adult female porpoise (Sif: F1).





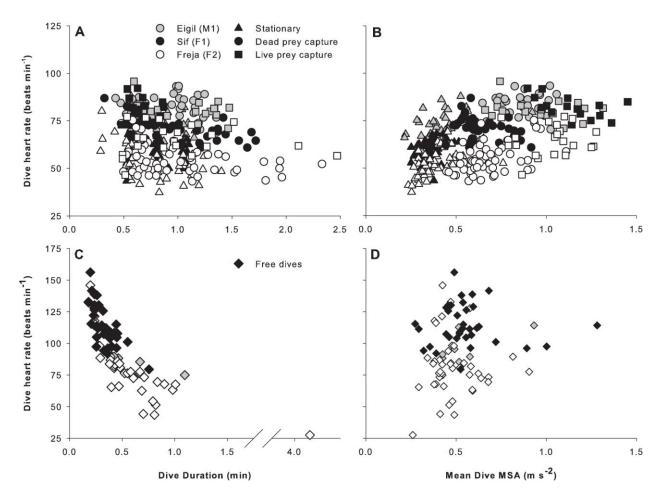


Figure 5. Relationship between dive duration and activity (MSA) to dive $f_{\rm H}$. During experimental dives there was a positive relationship between activity and dive $f_{\rm H}$ and a small negative relationship between dive duration and dive $f_{\rm H}$ (Table 2: heart rate = 59.9 + 22.7(MSA) – 0.14(Dur) + (ID correction), R² = 0.74). In free dives, there was a negative relationship between dive duration and dive $f_{\rm H}$, but no relationship between activity and $f_{\rm H}$ (Table 2). 407 dives from 3 porpoises.

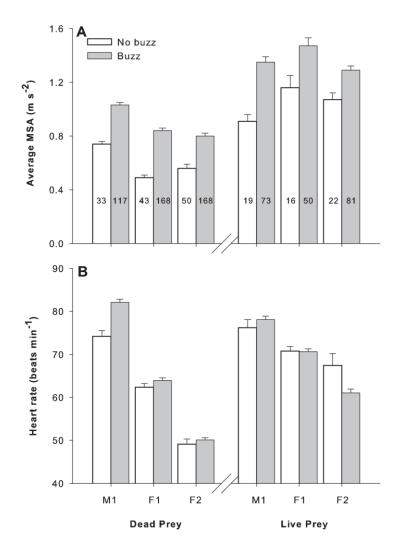


Figure 6. Activity (MSA) and $f_{\rm H}$ during 10-s window early in the dive (10-20 s) before feeding events, and during feeding (centred on start of buzz) (mean ± s.e.m.). All porpoises increased activity during feeding events (both dead and live prey) (a), but $f_{\rm H}$ did not increase to match this increased activity, except for Eigil (M1) during dead prey capture trials. In contrast Freja (F2) showed a decrease in $f_{\rm H}$ during live prey capture events despite an increase in activity. The number on the bar graph indicates sample size.

		· · ·				•	
	Duration (s)	Pre-dive f _H (beats min⁻¹)	Initial f _H decline (beats min⁻¹)	Dive f _H (beats min⁻¹)	Minimum f _H (beats min⁻¹)	Post dive <i>f</i> _H (beats min⁻¹)	Mean dive MSA (m s ⁻²)
Dive Type							
Stationary (n=137)	48 ± 14	118 ± 20ª	87 ± 26ª	60 ± 10^{a}	42 ± 9 ^a	118 ± 25ª	0.39 ± 0.11^{a}
Dead prey capture (n=128)	58 ± 23	121 ± 25ª	67 ± 25 ^b	67 ± 13 ^b	48 ± 12 ^b	132 ± 24 ^b	0.71 ± 0.15^{b}
Live prey capture (n=56)	56 ± 24	131 ± 16 ^b	65 ± 20 ^b	75 ± 10 ^c	55 ± 8°	138 ± 14^{b}	$1.04 \pm 0.18^{\circ}$
Free dives (n=86)	29 ± 27		73 ± 24 ^b	96 ± 25 ^d	63 ± 21 ^d		0.53 ± 0.20^{d}
Eye cup prey capture (n=30)	54 ± 16		89 ± 30	51 ± 12	29 ± 8		0.82 ± 0.08
Porpoise							
Eigil (M1)		132 ± 17ª	71 ± 23ª	79 ± 10ª	59 ± 9ª	147 ± 18ª	0.68 ± 0.27^{a}
Sif (F1)		133 ± 16ª	79 ± 28ª	77 ± 23 ^a	51 ± 18^{b}	130 ± 20^{b}	0.62 ± 0.27^{a}
Freja (F2)		104 ± 18^{b}	75 ± 27 ^a	60 ± 18^{b}	40 ± 12 ^c	110 ± 20^{c}	0.60 ± 0.24^{a}
Statistics (F statistic, P value)							
Dive Type		F _{2,312} =12.7 P<0.0001	F _{3,395} =18.8 P<0.0001	F _{3,395} =137.9 P<0.0001	F _{3,395} =87.8 P<0.0001	F _{2,312} = 34.2 P <0.0001	F _{3,395} =292.9 P<0.0001
Porpoise ID		F _{2,312} =92.7 P<0.0001	F _{2,395} =0.9 P=0.41	F _{2,395} =117.1 P<0.0001	F _{2,395} =133.7 P<0.0001	F _{2,312} = 95.0 P <0.0001	F _{2,395} =3.3 P=0.0375
Dive Type * Porpoise ID		F _{4,312} =6.5 P<0.0001	F _{6,395} =8.2 P<0.0001	F _{6,395} =15.7 P<0.0001	F _{6,395} =25.0 P<0.0001	F _{4,312} = 7.0 P <0.0001	F _{6,395} =7.6 P<0.0001
		_					

Table 1: Heart rate and activity summary statistics for experimental and opportunistic dives and for each porpoise

Means ± S.D. 2-way ANOVAs with Dive Type, Porpoise ID, and interaction term were performed, followed by post hoc Tukey's tests. Within each column superscript letters indicate significant differences between dive types and porpoises. Effects tests results are presented below summary data.

	Estimate	Lower 95%	Upper 95%
Experimental dives (n=321)			
Intercept	59.9	57.5	62.4
Dive Duration	-0.14	-0.18	-0.10
MSA	22.7	20.0	25.4
Eigil (M1)	9.6	8.5	10.7
Sif (F1)	1.1	0.1	2.1
Freja (F2)	-10.7	-11.7	-9.7
<u>Free dives (n = 86)</u>			
Intercept	118.5	109.2	127.8
Dive Duration	-0.90	-1.25	-0.56
Eigil (M1)	1.4	-6.2	9.1
Sif (F1)	6.8	-0.05	13.7
Freja (F2)	-8.3	-13.9	-2.7
Eigil *(Dur-28.7)	0.25	-0.27	0.78
Sif * (Dur–28.7)	-0.76	-1.32	-0.20
Freja * (Dur-28.7)	0.51	0.16	0.86

Table 2: Parameter estimates and confidence intervals for ANCOVAs examining the relationship between dive duration and activity to MSA in experimental and free dives.

Interaction terms were not significant in the experimental dives model indicating that although the porpoises had different $f_{\rm H}$ (intercepts), the relationship (slope) was the same for all three porpoises. In contrast, during the opportunistic dives the Dur* ID interaction term was significant. Although $f_{\rm H}$ decreased with increasing dive duration for all porpoises, the relationship (slope) was different for each porpoise.

	Dead prey	Live prey	Dead prey	Live prey
	capture	capture	capture	capture
	(heart rate)	(heart rate)	(MSA)	(MSA)
Feeding state (increase)	F _{1,573} =20.1 P<0.0001 (5%)	F _{1,255} =1.7 P=0.187	F _{1,575} =187.1 P<0.0001 (50%)	F _{1,257} =51.1 P<0.0001 (30%)
Porpoise ID	F _{2,573} =438.5	F _{2,255} =44.8	F _{2,575} =55.8	F _{2,257} =6.6
	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P=0.002
Feeding state * ID	F _{2,573} =7.4 P=0.001	F _{2,255} =4.9 P=0.008		

Table 3: Effect tests results from comparison of $f_{\rm H}$ and activity (MSA) during 10-s windows centered on a feeding buzz and 10-s window with no buzzes

2-way ANOVAs with Feeding state and Porpoise ID. If the interaction term was not significant it was eliminated. MSA increased by 30-50% between non-feeding and feeding 10-s windows, while $f_{\rm H}$ did not increase or increased by 5% during feeding windows. A significant interaction term indicates that heart rate response to feeding state differed between individuals.

					Initial		Post-dive	Post-dive	Initial post-	Bottom div
		Pre-dive <i>f</i> _H	Dive f_{H}	Minimum f_{H}	decline in $f_{\rm H}$	Mean Dive	$f_{ m H}$	resp. rate	dive <i>f</i> ⊦	$f_{ m H}$
	Duration (s)	(bpm)	(bpm)	(bpm)	(bpm)	MSA (m s ⁻²)	(bpm)	(breaths/min)	(bpm)	(bpm)
Stationary										
Eigil (n=37)	50±12	128±19	72±7	53±8	78±26	0.43±0.13	143±21	10±3	139±22	65±6
	(32-70)	(78-166)	(58-88)	(34-65)	(17-135)	(0.22-0.92)	(78-178)	(2-16)	(64-169)	(52-77)
Sif (n=48)	48±12	125±17	59±6	39±8	98±24	0.36±0.06	116±17	8±3	113±21	50±6
	(32-66)	(74-152)	(43-68)	(25-53)	(34-135)	(0.25-0.52)	(70-146)	(2-16)	(83-179)	(30-60)
Freja (n=52)	47±16	105±17	53±8	37±6	83±25	0.39±0.11	103±21	7±3	111±29	44±6
	(17-84)	(64-138)	(37-80)	(20-57)	(30-159)	(0.24-0.76)	(50-150)	(2-12)	(52-200)	(29-60)
All (n=137)	48±14	118±20	60±10	42±9	87±26	0.39±0.11	118±25	8±3	119±27	52±10
Dead prey capture										
Eigil (n=33)		134±16	83±6	64±5	64±19	0.84±0.13	154±16	10±2	144±13	78±6
0 ()	(26-81)	(100-160)	(70-93)	(53-76)	(22-103)	(0.54-1.06)	(110-186)	(6-14)	(121-178)	(65-90)
Sif (n=43)	59±21	139±14	71±6	47±7	76±25	0.65±0.12	141±14	11±3	119±27	64±4
	(19-103)	(108-166)	(61-87)	(27-61)	(20-127)	(0.44-0.92)	(100-166)	(4-16)	(78-185)	(53-73)
Freja (n=52)	61±27	97±17	54±8	38±6	62±26	0.67±0.14	111±17	9±3	124±18	49±6
	(29-140)	(60-132)	(43-75)	(25-50)	(14-105)	(0.45-1.11)	(84-150)	(4-16)	(72-169)	(39-67)
All (n=128)	58±23	121±25	67±13	48±12	67±25	0.71±0.15	132±24	10±3	128±23	62±13
Live prey capture										
Eigil (n=19)		136±13	81±5	62±6	65±16	0.98±0.20	146±11	10±2	142±13	76±5
	(36-89)	(110-160)	(71-96)	(44-71)	(26-88)	(0.66-1.32)	(126-164)	(8-15)	(123-175)	(68-86)
Sif (n=16)	41±7	143±8	82±6	57±5	70±20	1.14±0.17	(120 10 l) 144±9	(0 13) 10±1	(123 173) 117±16	74±6
511 (11-10)	(29-52)	(130-156)	(73-92)	(48-67)	(39-109)	(0.9-1.45)	(120-162)	(8-14)	(96-156)	(64-84)
Freja (n=21)	(25-52) 60±31	(130-130) 118±13	(75-52) 65±8	(48-07) 46±4	61±23	(0.3=1.43) 1.03±0.15	(120-102) 127±14	(8-14) 9±2	(50-150) 129±21	60±7
Fleja (II–21)	(29-148)	(98-148)	05±8 (47-77)	46±4 (38-52)	(18-97)	(0.75-1.28)	(106-158)	9±2 (4-14)	(92-176)	(43-71)
										(43 / 1) 70±10
All (n=56)	56±24	131±16	75±10	55±8	65±20	1.04±0.18	138±14	10±2	130±20	70±10
Prey capture - cups			60.6		05.04	0.00.0.40			100.17	54.6
Sif (n=16)	50±17		60±6	34±7	85±31	0.82±0.10			120±17	51±6
	(32-95)		(50-69)	(23-45)	(8-122)	(0.63-0.99)			(96-152)	(36-57)
Freja (n=14)	59±15 (34-82)		41±8 (28-51)	23±6 (15-33)	92±29 (29-121)	0.81±0.07 (0.71-0.92)			136±22 (81-176)	34±7 (23-46)
All (n=30)	(34-82) 54±16		(28-51) 51±12	(15-33) 29±8	(29-121) 89±30	(0.71-0.92) 0.82±0.08			(81-176) 128±21	(23-46) 43±11
	54110		51112	2918	89130	0.82±0.08			120121	45111
Free swim			04:12	6016	80-10	0 5340 46			144.40	0017
Eigil (n=9)	28±16		94±13	68±6	89±16	0.53 ± 0.16			144±10	80±7
Sif(n-2C)	(14-66) 20±7		(75-114) 114±16	(60-77) 79±13	(59-110) 59±22	(0.43-0.93) 0.59±0.26			(126-160) 135±10	(70-91) 101±20
Sif (n=36)	(11-45)		(79-156)	(60-119)	(28-108)	(0.27-1.60)			(123-156)	(73-156)
Freia (n=41)	(11-43) 37±37		(79-156) 81±24	48±17	(28-108) 82±22	(0.27-1.80) 0.49±0.13			(123-136) 140±8	(73-130) 62±20
Fieja (11–41)	(11-250)		(28-146)	(12-104)	(24-125)	(0.26-0.91)			(119-152)	(25-141)
All (n=83)	29±27		96±25	63±21	73±24	0.53±0.20			138±10	(23 141) 80±27
$\frac{1}{1000} + SD(range)$	23:21		50±25	03:21	/ 5124	5.55±0.20			130-10	00127

Table S1. Summary	table of heart rate.	respiratory	rate, and activity	y variables separate b	v dive type and	porpoise ID
rabie officiality	table of ficare face,	10001101019	race, and accivit	, tanabies separate s	, and cype and	por poroc re

Mean ± SD (range)

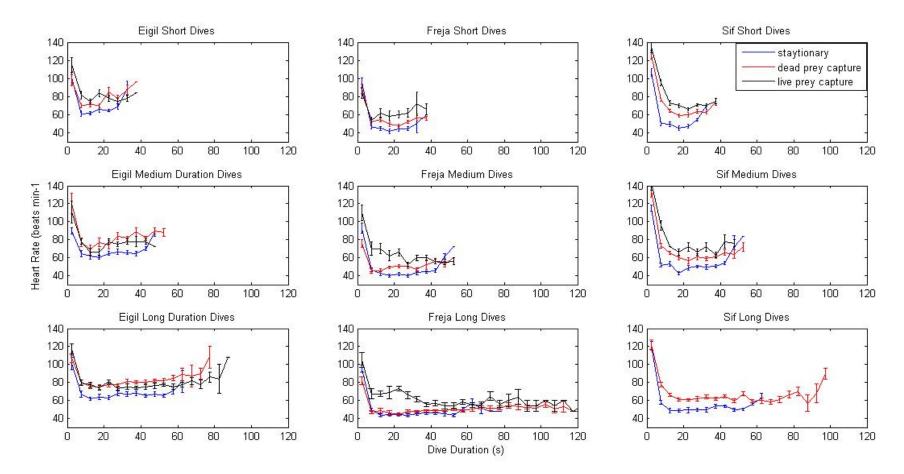


Figure S1. Average dive heart rate profiles for each porpoise by dive type and duration. Profiles exhibit the same general shape independent of porpoise, dive type, and duration; however, differences in heart rate between individuals and dive types are apparent. Means and s.e.m. for each 5 sec interval.