

Seasonal warming coincides with loss of epidermal diatoms in northern bottlenose whales

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1 **Abstract**

2 Animals move for access to better conditions, resources, or mating opportunities. However,
3 evidence from cetaceans suggests that some long-distance travel to warmer waters may be
4 primarily related to physiological maintenance, specifically the shedding of epidermal diatoms
5 and parasites. Here we test this “physiological maintenance hypothesis” for cetacean movement
6 from a new angle, asking whether changes in temperature influence epidermal diatoms
7 (microalgae) in a localized, resident population. We used a long-term dataset of northern
8 bottlenose whales (*Hyperoodon ampullatus*) on the Scotian Shelf to test whether large seasonal
9 changes in sea surface temperature predict levels of diatom coverage. Generalized linear mixed
10 models and generalized additive mixed models showed that a seasonal change in SST from 8° to
11 21° Celsius was associated with a decrease in diatom coverage from approximately 26% to 11%.
12 We also found that males had slightly less diatom coverage than females overall, though the
13 corresponding effect size was very small. Our results support the hypothesis that sea surface
14 temperature can be a driving factor in the epidermal condition of cetaceans. This is consistent
15 with a growing understanding of links between environmental conditions, movement behaviour,
16 and individual health in wild populations.

17

18 **KEYWORDS**

19 Movement – Health – Physiological maintenance – Skin molt – Diatoms – Northern Bottlenose
20 Whales – Cetaceans

21 1 | INTRODUCTION

22 Migration has been documented in numerous species worldwide and refers to the movements of
23 animals from one region to another (Fudickar et al., 2021). While some consider migration
24 necessarily seasonal (Teitelbaum & Mueller, 2019: nomadic-movement), we follow Lefort et al.
25 (2025) in also including significant aseasonal movements as part of migratory behaviour.

26 Migration is common in birds (Barcante, 2017), mammals (Avgar, 2013), fish (Bronmark, 2013),
27 and insects (Holland, 2006). Migratory distances can differ dramatically between populations
28 and species, depending on the biological needs of the individuals (Fudickar et al., 2021).

29 Migration is advantageous, allowing species to benefit from the use of multiple habitats
30 (Alerstam & Backman, 2018). Migration is primarily believed to serve the purpose of finding
31 better seasonal conditions, food availability, predator avoidance, or due to reproductive needs
32 (Alerstam & Backman, 2018; Chapman et al., 2014).

33 However, research from cetaceans suggests that health maintenance may be an underappreciated
34 motivator for migration. Orcas (*Orcinus orca*) of Antarctic waters have been documented
35 travelling non-stop round trips of 9,400km to warmer waters (Durban & Pitman, 2012). This
36 rapid migration indicates that it is unlikely influenced by foraging or breeding purposes. Instead,
37 it has been attributed to the need for physiological skin maintenance (Durban & Pitman, 2012;
38 Pitman et al., 2020). Various epidermal conditions and diseases in cetaceans have been
39 associated with environmental features such as water temperature (Wilson et al., 1999). It is
40 often hypothesized that increased epithelial shedding in warmer waters is driving these patterns
41 (Gaydos et al., 2023). For example, beluga whales (*Delphinapterus leucas*) undergo epidermal
42 shedding in warmer and less salty summer habitats, resulting in marked changes in colouration

43 (St. Aubin et al., 1990). Other mechanisms may play a role (e.g., changes in rates of disease or
44 parasites acquisition, or effects mediated through overall stress and health of the host individual).

45 Diatoms are photosynthetic microalgae commonly found growing on aquatic vertebrates and are
46 linked to their host's biology, behaviour, and environment (Ashworth et al., 2022). For example,
47 *T. dicentrarchi*, a pathogen that is associated with tail and fin rot as well as skin lesions, was
48 positively correlated with high diatom abundances in orcas (Hooper et al., 2019). Antarctic orcas
49 spending more time in the Southern Ocean, where water temperatures are cooler, were found to
50 have a higher diatom abundance than individuals that primarily reside in warmer waters (Hooper
51 et al., 2019). Thus, the observed short-term, “spa day”, migration patterns suggest an important
52 link between individual health and spatial behaviour in cetaceans and possibly other mammals.

53 Northern Bottlenose whales (*Hyperoodon ampullatus*) are deep-diving beaked whales found in
54 high latitude offshore waters of the North Atlantic around Canada, Greenland, Iceland, Great
55 Britain and Europe (Moors-Murphy, 2018). In 2019, a northern bottlenose whale fitted with an
56 animal-borne recording device (tag) travelled 7,281 km in 67 days, from Arctic waters of 4°C to
57 23°C off Newfoundland (Lefort et al., 2025). In warmer waters, the whale remained at the
58 surface rather than foraging at depth, which was hypothesized to facilitate epidermal shedding.
59 Similar, directed short-stay migrations by northern bottlenose whales from the waters around
60 Iceland and Jan Mayen to the Azores are also consistent with an epidermal maintenance
61 hypothesis (*pers. comm.*, Paul Wensveen, University of Iceland, March 2026).

62 The Scotian Shelf population of northern bottlenose whales resides in and around the Gully, a
63 submarine canyon off the east coast of Canada. Following substantial whaling in the 1970s, the
64 population is listed as Endangered but now appears to be recovering, with a population of
65 approximately 200 individuals (Feyrer et al., 2025). These animals exhibit bisexual philopatry

66 and are highly social, forming specific long-term relationships with conspecifics within a
67 generally fluid or “fission-fusion” social structure (Walmsley et al., 2026). This population
68 displays an unusual degree of site-fidelity compared to other offshore cetaceans, using the Gully
69 and adjacent canyons year-round (Feyrer et al., 2024). Despite clear evidence of residency,
70 nothing is known about whether this population conducts physiological maintenance migration
71 trips (or other longer-distance movements), although, like other cetaceans, northern bottlenose
72 whales accrue visible diatoms.

73 However, unlike the orcas of the Antarctic, or northern bottlenose whales of the Arctic whose
74 primary habitats are cold year-round, the Scotian Shelf population experiences a major seasonal
75 shift in sea surface temperatures, with an increase from $\sim 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ in March to $\sim 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ in August. This
76 raises the question of whether local changes in sea surface temperature allow northern bottlenose
77 whales in the Gully to have a “spa day at home” without a long migration. It is also unclear
78 whether susceptibility to epidermal diatoms varies between individuals or sexes. For example,
79 one might expect greater diatom coverage on older individuals (Leone et al., 2019), or those in
80 poor body condition, as their skin regeneration processes may be reduced.

81 Here we explore how environmental conditions, sex, and minimum age impact epidermal
82 diatoms on northern bottlenose whales. We predict that as sea surface temperature increases,
83 diatom coverage will decrease, supporting the idea that “spa day” trips function as a form of
84 physiological maintenance. This would also suggest that the Scotian Shelf’s annual surface
85 temperature fluctuations are an important component of the population’s habitat. This study
86 provides a new context for testing the hypothesis that water temperature is a driver of epidermal
87 pathologies in cetaceans.

88 **2 | METHODS**

89 2.1 | Study area and data

90 Data for this study were collected as part of a long-term study of northern bottlenose whales
91 focused on the Gully, a submarine canyon off Eastern Canada (approximately 44° N, 59° W;
92 Figure 1). As part of this project, data on cetaceans and their environment has been collected
93 during most summers between 1988-2024 from ocean-going sailing vessels. Observations from
94 June 14th through September 7th were included in this analysis, though most observations came
95 from July and August. Photographs were taken targeting the dorsal fins of individual whales,
96 allowing for the re-identification of individual whales and sex-classification based on
97 morphological differences between male and female foreheads or “melons” (See Feyrer et al.,
98 2021 or Feyrer & Walmsley, 2024 for more details).

99 For the present analysis, we focused on individual whales with two or more high-quality
100 photographs (quality rating 3 or 4 on a 1-4 scale) taken at least five days apart within at least one
101 summer field season. Only left-sided photographs were used to prevent duplicated data from the
102 same ID. We restricted our analysis to digital colour images (years 2007-2019), avoiding
103 potential difficulties in classification resulting from black and white film photographs used in
104 earlier years of the project.

105 For a consistent measure of sea surface temperature (SST), we used the Daily Optimum
106 Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature dataset (DOISST, Version 2.1; Huang et al., 2021), made
107 available by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). This dataset
108 combines measurements from both remote and *in situ* methods (e.g., satellite, vessel-based
109 sampling, oceanographic buoys), and is available at a resolution of 0.25 degrees. While
110 temperatures in our study exhibited clear seasonal variation, measures from each of the three
111 canyon sites were nearly identical (Figure S1), so we proceeded to use measures from the Gully

112 alone for subsequent analyses. Most of our northern bottlenose whale observations came from
113 this canyon (approx. 86%), and whales are known to move back and forth between these sites
114 (Wimmer and Whitehead 2004).

115 **2.2 | Assessing diatom coverage**

116 Levels of diatom coverage on individual whales were assessed visually, using a five-point scale
117 representing estimated coverage of 0-20%, 20-40%, 40-60%, 60-80%, and 80-100%. To assess
118 the reliability of these classifications, an additional 5 independent observers ranked the diatom
119 coverage for 50 random photographs. Interobserver reliability for diatom coverage was
120 calculated using Fleiss' kappa statistic for ordinal data with the *irrCAC* package in R (Kilem,
121 2019). While classifications for the final dataset were done by one observer, interobserver
122 reliability was assessed to measure the degree to which these estimates are subjective.

123 **2.3 | Modelling the effects of sea surface temperature on diatom coverage**

124 Photographs with diatom classifications were assigned a corresponding SST value based on the
125 date that the photograph was taken. We then used generalized linear mixed-effects models
126 (GLMMs) to test whether levels of diatom coverage were predicted by sea surface temperature.
127 Here, diatom coverage was the response variable while sea surface temperature was the linear
128 predictor. Levels of diatom coverage were converted to the mean proportion of each observer-
129 determined class prior to modelling (i.e., 0.1 for 0-20% coverage, 0.3 for 20-40% coverage, and
130 so on). Given that the response variable represented a proportion, we used a Beta family with
131 canonical link function for each of the following models. We also included random effects to
132 estimate individual-specific variation (Model 1). Next, we used a generalized additive mixed-
133 effects model (GAMM) to test for the presence of a non-linear relationship between diatom

134 coverage and SST. Here, diatom coverage was the response variable while SST was the predictor
135 (Model 2). A non-linear relationship is expected if, for instance, there is a specific threshold at
136 which SST affects diatom coverage with little effect after. To test how well season alone
137 predicted diatom coverage, we also fit a GAMM with a smooth effect for day of year (Model 3).
138 This allowed us to assess whether diatom levels began to increase again following the peak in
139 SST in August (Figure 1). Finally, we fit an additional GLMM (Model 4) and GAMM (Model 5)
140 to explore the effects of sex on diatom coverage. Simplified expressions representing each model
141 are as follows:

$$Diatom_{\%Cover} \sim SST + (Individual) \quad (\text{Model 1})$$

142

$$Diatom_{\%Cover} \sim smooth(SST) + (Individual) \quad (\text{Model 2})$$

143

$$Diatom_{\%Cover} \sim smooth(DayOfYear) + (Individual) \quad (\text{Model 3})$$

144

$$Diatom_{\%Cover} \sim SST + sex + (Individual) \quad (\text{Model 4})$$

145

$$Diatom_{\%Cover} \sim smooth(SST) + sex + (Individual) \quad (\text{Model 5})$$

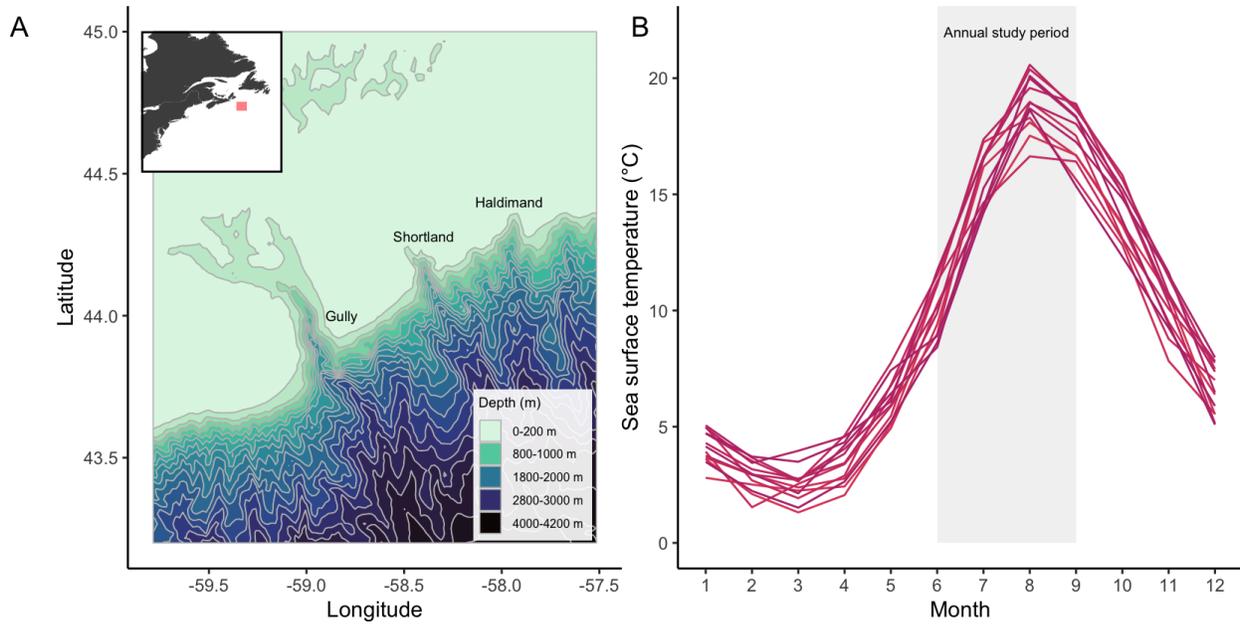
146

147 GLMMs were fit using the *glmmTMB* package in R (Brookes et al., 2017), while the GAMM
148 was fit using the *mgcv* package in R (Wood, 2011), using default settings for the basis
149 dimension. Data visualizations were made using the *ggplot2* package in R (Wickham, 2016).
150 Data and code are publicly available at the following link: <https://osf.io/8wd29>.

151 3 | RESULTS

152 3.1 | Summary of data

153 The final dataset consisted of 1,775 observations of photo-identified whales between August
154 2007 and August 2019. Of these photographs, 137 were unable to be assessed for diatom
155 coverage due to too little of the area adjacent to the dorsal fin being visible, and were excluded.
156 Right-sided photographs were also excluded, leaving 849 measures of diatom coverage. Most of
157 these were from the Gully ($N = 734$), with smaller numbers from the Shortland and Haldimand
158 canyons ($N = 88$ and 27 respectively). These observations included 257 unique individuals,
159 including 52 males, 90 females, and 115 individuals of unknown sex. Approximately 61% of
160 individuals in the present dataset were included for a single year, with a range of 1-6 years of
161 diatom observations. The corresponding sea surface temperature (SST) was variable across
162 observations of northern bottlenose whales, ranging from $8.11 - 21.05$ °C with a mean of 18.0
163 °C. Temperature changed predictably with season, warming gradually between April and August
164 (Figure 1B). The interobserver reliability test resulted in a Fleiss' Kappa of 0.52 with 90%
165 agreement on diatom coverage values between observers ($p < .001$), indicating that
166 classifications were reliable. Levels of diatom coverage tended to be low overall ($< 20\%$), but
167 levels up to 80-100% were observed (Table 1).



168

169 **Figure 1** | (A) Map showing the Gully and surrounding canyons with depth. (B) Annual changes of sea
 170 surface temperature (°C) in the Gully with annual study period shaded. Lines represent different years
 171 between 2007 and 2019.

172 **Table 1** | Counts of all diatom coverage values from 2007 to 2019 for left- and right-sided photographs.

Diatom Coverage (%)	Left-sided	Right-sided
0-20	796	736
20-40	25	31
40-60	14	12
60-80	8	7
80-100	6	3
Not discernable	63	74

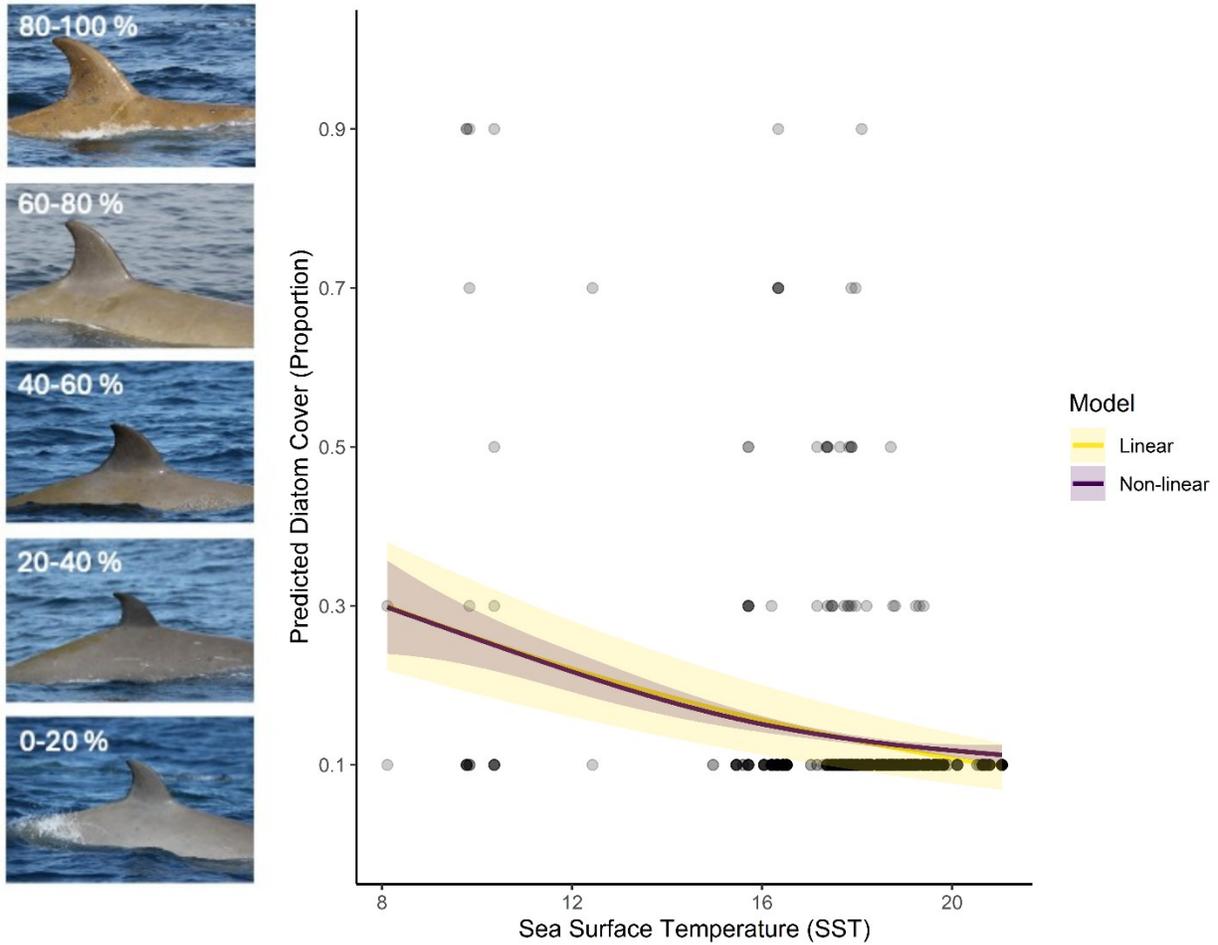
173

174 **3.2** | Effect of sea surface temperature on diatom coverage

175 Of individuals with multiple observations in a given year, most showed no change in diatom
176 coverage (89%, often simply stable the lowest levels of coverage), while 8% showed declining
177 coverage over the season, and 2% showed increasing coverage. See Figure S2 for examples of
178 changes in diatom coverage within individuals in a given year.

179 The main GLMM testing for a relationship between SST and diatom coverage indicated that SST
180 has a significant negative effect on diatom cover (coefficient $\beta = -0.106$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, AIC = -
181 2148.1, Figure 2). The effect of SST on diatom cover was similarly negative and significant in
182 GLMMs controlling for the effect of sex. The GAMMs exploring the non-linear relationship
183 between SST and diatom coverage also indicated a significant effect of the smooth term of SST
184 on diatom coverage, suggesting that the relationship may be slightly non-linear (for Model 2:
185 effective degrees of freedom (e.d.f.) = 2.03, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, AIC = -2132.37, Figure 2).

186 Unsurprisingly, we also found that diatom coverage tended to decrease as the study season
187 progressed (i.e., with day of year; Figure S3). More specifically, mean predicted diatom coverage
188 fell from approximately 30% at the start of the study season to the lowest level of coverage by
189 early August. We detected no evidence of a positive increase in diatom loading in the later
190 summer as temperatures cooled.



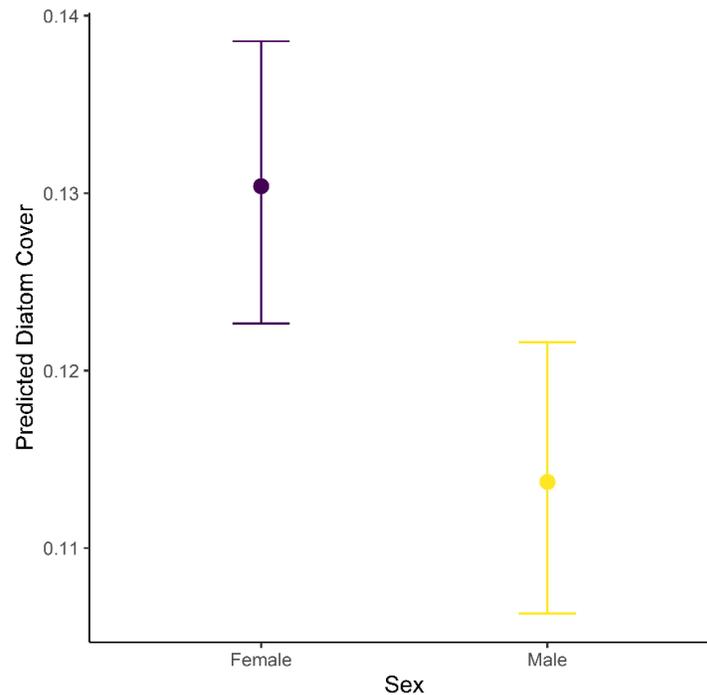
191

192 **Figure 2** | *Left:* Examples of different levels of diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales. *Right:*
 193 Predicted effects of sea surface temperature on diatom coverage from linear (GLMM – yellow) and non-
 194 linear (GAMM – purple), estimated using mixed-effects models. Shaded areas representing the 95% CI
 195 around the mean prediction. Points represent specific observations and are partially transparent meaning
 196 that darker points imply more observations.

197 **3.3 | Effects of sex, age, and individual variation on diatom coverage**

198 The random effect of individual-specific variation in the first GLMM (Model 1) indicated some
 199 variability across individuals in baseline diatom coverage, however, this effect did not appear to
 200 have a major contribution to variation in diatom cover (variance = 0.074). Males appeared to

201 have lower diatom coverage than females, though the difference between sexes was very small
202 (GLMM: $\beta = -0.16$, $p = 0.016$; GAMM: $\beta = -0.16$, $p = 0.001$; Figure 3). Numerical summaries of
203 all GLMMs and GAMMs are available in supplemental Tables S2-S6.



204

205 **Figure 3** | Predicted probabilities of diatom coverage as a function of sex, highlighting a significant (but
206 small) reduction in diatom coverage for males compared to females. Error bars representing 95% CIs.

207 4 | DISCUSSION

208 Migration has primarily been thought to serve the purpose of finding better conditions for food
209 availability or reproductive needs (Chapman et al., 2014). However, a growing body of evidence
210 suggests that migration in cetaceans is also used for physiological maintenance. These findings
211 support a key assumption underpinning the physiological maintenance hypothesis, demonstrating
212 that warmer sea temperatures also predict loss of epidermal diatoms in resident populations.

213 Our findings are consistent with the expectation that sea surface temperature directly
214 influences diatom coverage on cetaceans. We reviewed photographs of the Scotian Shelf
215 population of northern bottlenose whales between summer field seasons from 2007 –2019.
216 Throughout the observation period, the SST in the Gully ranged from 8.11 – 21.05°C, with the
217 warmest temperatures similar to those experienced by cetaceans during rapid movements thought
218 to be associated with physiological maintenance (e.g., 20.9-24.2°C, Durban & Pitman, 2012;
219 22°C, Lefort et al., 2025; 22.8–24.2°C, Pitman et al., 2020). Whales in these previous studies
220 often experienced waters colder than those observed in the Gully during our study period, which
221 may reflect the finding that diatom coverage was often limited in our analysis (0-20%; Table 1).
222 Although it is unclear whether the Scotian Shelf population undertakes physiological
223 maintenance migrations, the large seasonal temperature shifts in their habitat suggests such
224 movements may be unnecessary in spring and summer.

225 Recent studies have pointed to the putative relationship between sea temperature and
226 epidermal condition to explain movements in northern bottlenose whales specifically (Lefort et
227 al., 2025; Haas et al., 2026). In these cases, time spent in warmer waters was brief, animals were
228 often at the surface, and the trips were not obviously associated with breeding or foraging
229 behaviour, consistent with a role in epidermal maintenance. Similar patterns have been
230 documented in orcas, which undertake long-distance migrations from polar Antarctic waters to
231 warmer regions (Durban & Pitman, 2012; Hooper et al., 2019). In contrast, the Scotian Shelf
232 population of northern bottlenose whales has not (yet) been observed making such migratory
233 trips, raising the possibility that local temperature changes may be sufficient to support
234 physiological maintenance, at least for a portion of the year. Future work using animal-attached

235 tags, especially during the winter months, would help to assess whether the Scotian Shelf
236 animals conduct similar trips to warmer waters, despite the predictable warming each summer.

237 We found that diatom coverage varied between sexes, with males showing slightly less
238 diatom coverage than females. Similar patterns have been identified in other cetaceans. For
239 example, female bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) had more severe epidermal lesions,
240 possibly due to a reduced immune system during pregnancy or nursing (Leone et al., 2019;
241 Wilson et al., 1997). Behavioural differences in males versus females, such as social or rubbing
242 behaviour, may also contribute to sex differences in diatom coverage (Hooper, et al., 2019).
243 These differences could affect the rate at which diatoms are removed during physical interactions
244 with conspecifics or their environment.

245 These results underscore the importance of environmental factors in shaping the health
246 and physiological maintenance of cetaceans. Similar to the present study, research to determine
247 what oceanographic factors impact epidermal lesions on bottlenose dolphins found that
248 individuals in lower water temperatures, as well as lower salinity, experienced higher prevalence
249 and severity of epidermal diseases (Wilson et al., 1999). A greater number of diatoms on whales
250 were found in areas with damaged epidermal tissue in comparison to areas with healthy skin
251 (Henk & Mullan, 1996). Skin maintenance is a balancing act with trade-offs between thermal
252 regulation, pathogen load, foraging, and movement (Hooper et al., 2019). We expect that for the
253 northern bottlenose whale population on the Scotian Shelf this balancing act has been made
254 easier as the surface temperatures in their habitat vary dramatically between seasons.

255 More broadly, physiological maintenance (i.e., maintaining individual health) may be an
256 underappreciated aspect of movement behaviour across species. Since temperature can impact
257 immune function (Martin et al., 2010) as well as the prevalence of pathogens, seasonal

258 movements can play an important role in minimizing health risks (Altizer et al., 2011; Love et
259 al., 2024). Migrations have been shown to reduce the rate of spreading of infectious diseases,
260 allowing hosts, such as mammals, insects, birds and fish, to escape from a contaminated habitat
261 and return when conditions are more favourable (Altizer et al., 2011). Reindeer (*Rangifer*)
262 undergo post-calving migrations, and Folstad et al. (1991) found that an increase in migration
263 distance from calving grounds resulted in a decrease of parasitic infections. Migration is
264 important for physiological maintenance across species with the potential to influence health
265 directly, over and above the broader effects of moving to areas with improved conditions and
266 access to resources.

267 This study provides new evidence in support of the physiological maintenance migration
268 hypothesis in whales. Our longitudinal data suggest that higher sea surface temperatures reduce
269 epidermal diatom loading on northern bottlenose whales. In regions where seasonal temperature
270 variation is limited, whales may need to undertake short-term migrations to warmer waters to
271 maintain their health, perhaps via changes in rates of epidermal shedding, as has been
272 hypothesized for other cetaceans. These findings reinforce the idea that physiological
273 maintenance, alongside feeding and breeding, can drive whale movement patterns (Hooper et al.,
274 2019; Lefort et al., 2025).

275 Understanding individual and population-level differences in susceptibility to diatoms,
276 and their links to habitat-use, health, and climate conditions, may be important when managing
277 cetacean populations, particularly in the context of spatial protections. As ocean temperatures
278 shift under climate change, some populations may need to initiate or adapt migratory behaviour
279 to meet physiological needs. Animals in regions that have cooled may face new pressure to
280 migrate, while others may need to shift existing migratory routes. Our results contribute to a

281 broader understanding of how environmental change shapes animal behaviour and highlights the
282 role of non-reproductive drivers in migration.

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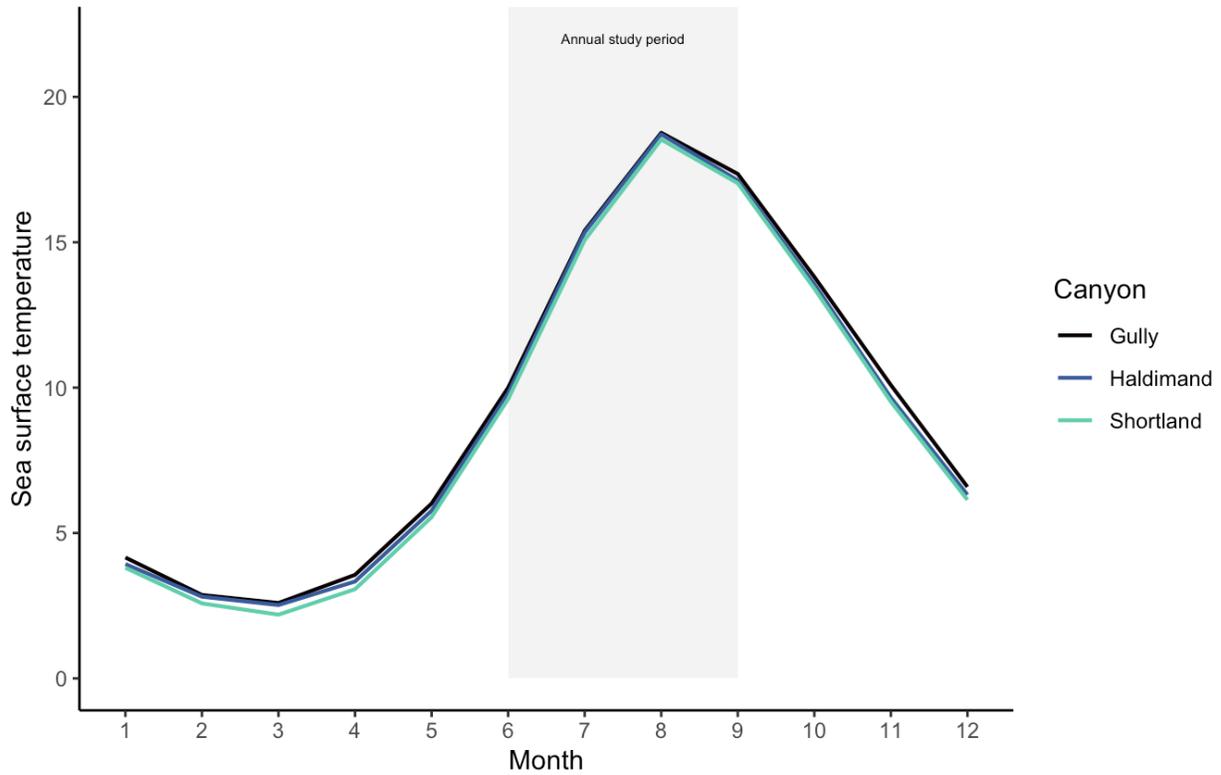
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396 **Supplementary Material**



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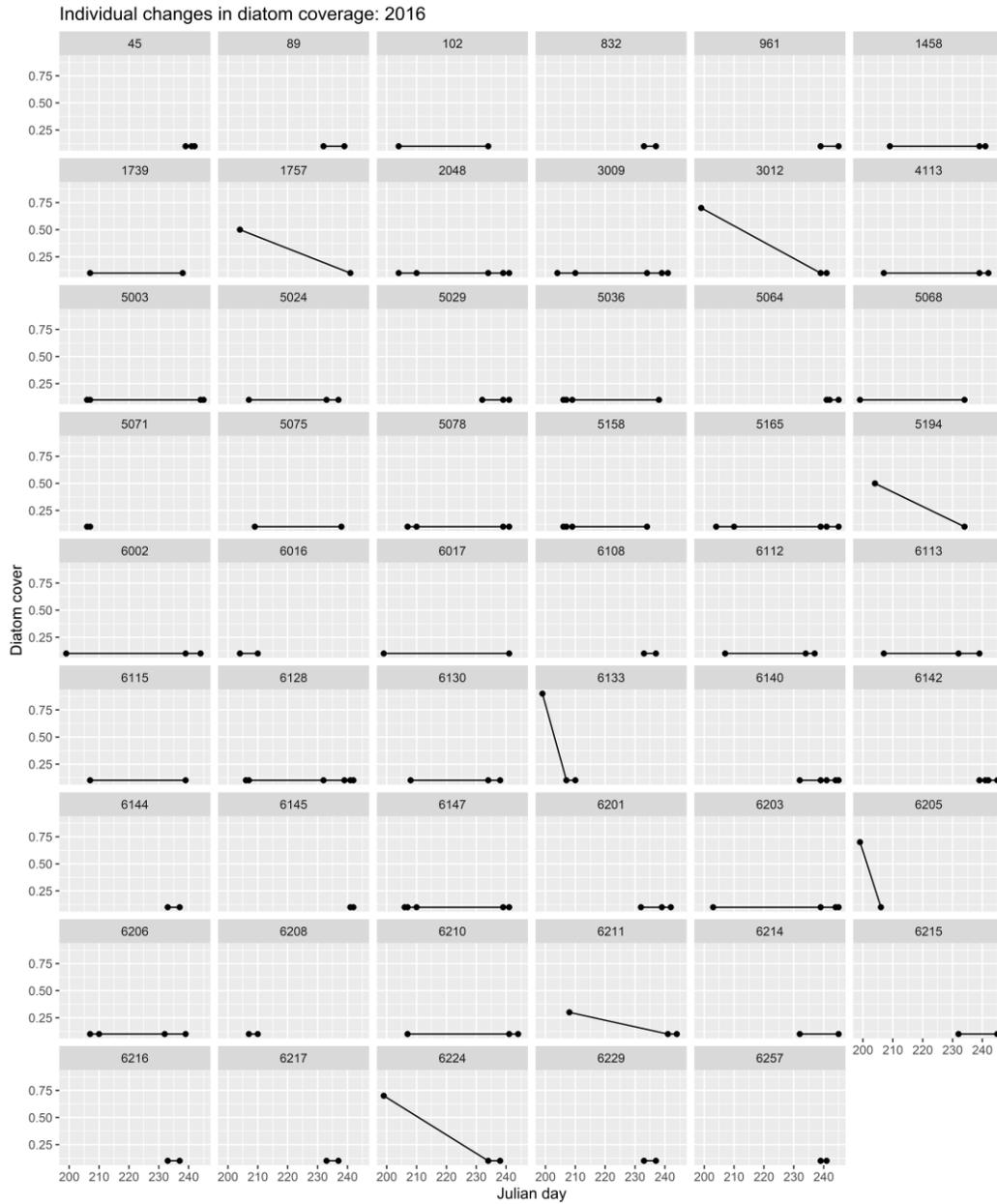
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Figure S1 | Sea surface temperatures (SST) from all three canyons where observations took place. Temperatures were very similar across canyons. Data were extracted from the Daily Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature dataset (DOISST, Version 2.1; Huang et al., 2021), for the period of 1988-2025.



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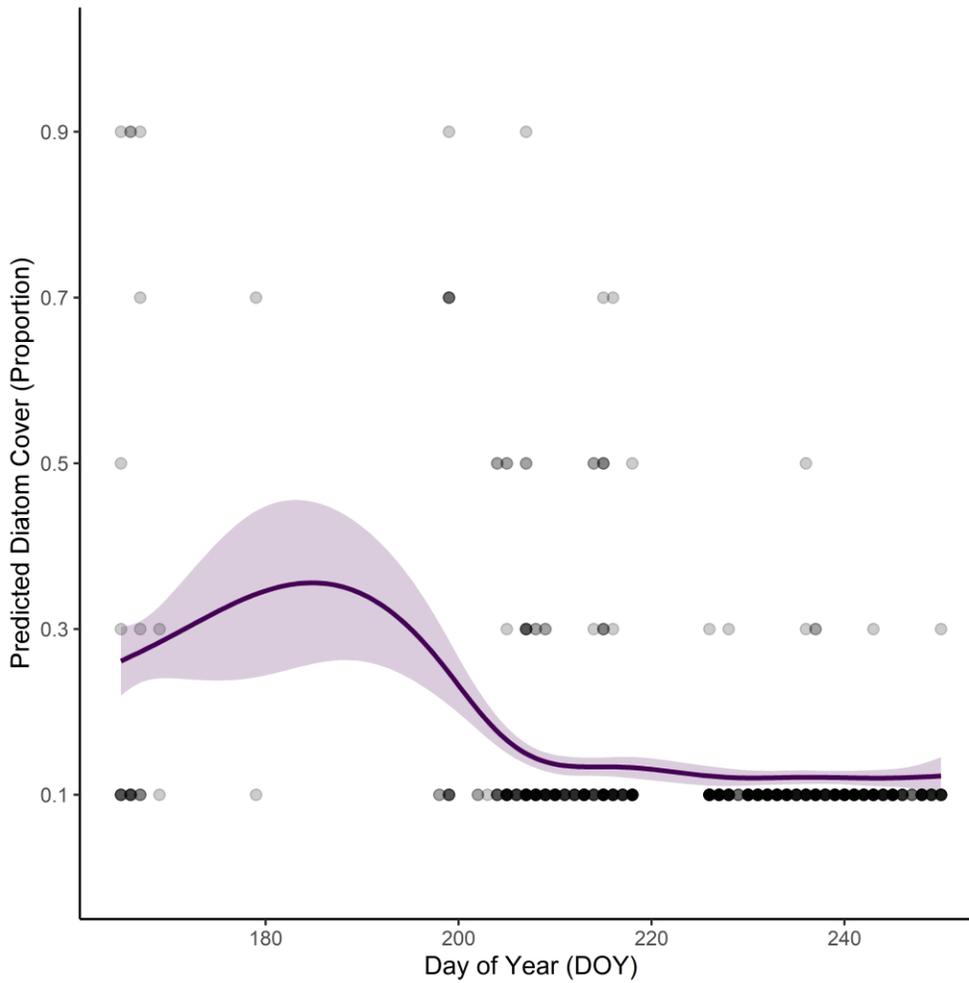
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Figure S2 | Examples of individual trajectories in diatom coverage within a year (2016). Most individuals consistently showed few diatoms (<20%), while several showed a decline over the study season.



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Figure S3 | Predicted effects of day of year on diatom coverage estimated using generalized additive mixed-effects model. Shaded areas representing the 95% CI around the mean prediction. Points represent specific observations and are partially transparent meaning that darker points imply more observations.

416 **Table S1** | Number of left-sided observations of diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales in the
417 Scotian Shelf between 2007-2019.

Year	June	July	August	September
2007	0	0	8	0
2008	0	0	2	2
2009	0	0	2	0
2010	0	39	68	0
2011	2	18	201	0
2013	0	0	17	58
2015	24	0	104	0
2016	0	64	114	9
2017	0	0	14	0
2019	0	31	72	0
Total	26	152	602	69

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419 **Table S2** | Summary of GLMM explaining diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales as a function
 420 of sea surface temperature (Model 1).

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-0.017	0.175	0.924
Sea surface temperature	-0.106	0.010	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Random effect variance (Individual): 0.074			

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422 **Table S3** | Summary of GAMM explaining diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales as a non-
 423 linear function of sea surface temperature (Model 2).

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-1.922	0.045	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Sea surface temperature	e.d.f = 2.028	--	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Individual	e.d.f = 0.562	--	0.135

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425 **Table S4** | Summary of GAMM explaining diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales as a non-
 426 linear function of day-of-year (Model 3).

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-1.885	0.021	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Day-of-year	e.d.f = 6.511	--	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Individual	e.d.f = 0.001	--	0.651

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428 **Table S5** | Summary of GLMM explaining diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales as a function
 429 of sea surface temperature and sex (Model 4).

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Intercept	0.114	0.214	0.593
Sea surface temperature	-0.110	0.012	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Sex: Male	-0.160	0.067	0.016

Random effect variance (Individual): 0.057

430

431 **Table S6** | Summary of GAMM explaining diatom coverage on northern bottlenose whales as a non-
432 linear function of sea surface temperature and sex (Model 5).

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-1.824	0.057	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Sex: Male	-0.156	0.048	0.001
Sea surface temperature	e.d.f = 2.481	--	$< 2 \times 10^{-16}$
Individual	e.d.f = 0.524	--	0.149

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